

(d) The solution to part (b) also applies here.

### Section 2.2

2. We are given that the density is of the form  $p(x|\omega_i) = ke^{-|x-a_i|/b_i}$ .

(a) We seek  $k$  so that the function is normalized, as required by a true density. We integrate this function, set it to 1.0,

$$k \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{a_i} \exp[(x - a_i)/b_i] dx + \int_{a_i}^{\infty} \exp[-(x - a_i)/b_i] dx \right] = 1,$$

which yields  $2b_i k = 1$  or  $k = 1/(2b_i)$ . Note that the normalization is independent of  $a_i$ , which corresponds to a shift along the axis and is hence indeed irrelevant to normalization. The distribution is therefore written

$$p(x|\omega_i) = \frac{1}{2b_i} e^{-|x-a_i|/b_i}.$$

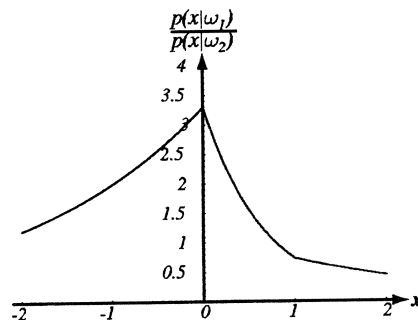
(b) The likelihood ratio can be written directly:

$$\frac{p(x|\omega_1)}{p(x|\omega_2)} = \frac{b_2}{b_1} \exp \left[ -\frac{|x - a_1|}{b_1} + \frac{|x - a_2|}{b_2} \right].$$

(c) For the case  $a_1 = 0$ ,  $a_2 = 1$ ,  $b_1 = 1$  and  $b_2 = 2$ , we have the likelihood ratio is

$$\frac{p(x|\omega_2)}{p(x|\omega_1)} = \begin{cases} 2e^{(x+1)/2} & x \leq 0 \\ 2e^{(1-3x)/2} & 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 2e^{(-x-1)/2} & x > 1, \end{cases}$$

as shown in the figure.



### Section 2.3

3. We are to use the standard zero-one classification cost, that is  $\lambda_{11} = \lambda_{22} = 0$  and  $\lambda_{12} = \lambda_{21} = 1$ .

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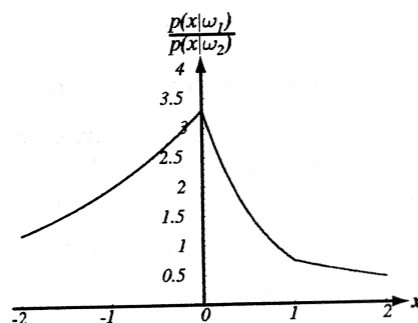
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### Section 2.3

3. We are to use the standard zero-one classification cost, that is  $\lambda_{11} = \lambda_{22} = 0$  and  $\lambda_{12} = \lambda_{21} = 1$ .

(a) We have the priors  $P(\omega_1)$  and  $P(\omega_2) = 1 - P(\omega_1)$ . The Bayes risk is given by Eqs. 12 and 13 in the text:

$$R(P(\omega_1)) = P(\omega_1) \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(x|\omega_1) dx + (1 - P(\omega_1)) \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx.$$

To obtain the prior with the minimum risk, we take the derivative with respect to  $P(\omega_1)$  and set it to 0, that is

$$\frac{d}{dP(\omega_1)} R(P(\omega_1)) = \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(x|\omega_1) dx - \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx = 0,$$

which gives the desired result:

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(x|\omega_1) dx = \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx.$$

(b) This solution is not always unique, as shown in this simple counterexample. Let  $P(\omega_1) = P(\omega_2) = 0.5$  and

$$p(x|\omega_1) = \begin{cases} 1 & -0.5 \leq x \leq 0.5 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$p(x|\omega_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It is easy to verify that the decision regions  $\mathcal{R}_1 = [-0.5, 0.25]$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2 = [0, 0.5]$  satisfy the equations in part (a); thus the solution is not unique.

4. Consider the minimax criterion for a two-category classification problem.

(a) The total risk is the integral over the two regions  $\mathcal{R}_i$  of the posteriors times their costs:

$$R = \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} [\lambda_{11} P(\omega_1) p(x|\omega_1) + \lambda_{12} P(\omega_2) p(x|\omega_2)] dx + \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} [\lambda_{21} P(\omega_1) p(x|\omega_1) + \lambda_{22} P(\omega_2) p(x|\omega_2)] dx.$$

We use  $\int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(x|\omega_2) dx = 1 - \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx$  and  $P(\omega_2) = 1 - P(\omega_1)$ , regroup to find:

$$R = \lambda_{22} + \lambda_{12} \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx - \lambda_{22} \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx + P(\omega_1) \left[ (\lambda_{11} - \lambda_{22}) + \lambda_{11} \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(x|\omega_1) dx - \lambda_{12} \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx + \lambda_{21} \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(x|\omega_1) dx + \lambda_{22} \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(x|\omega_2) dx \right]$$

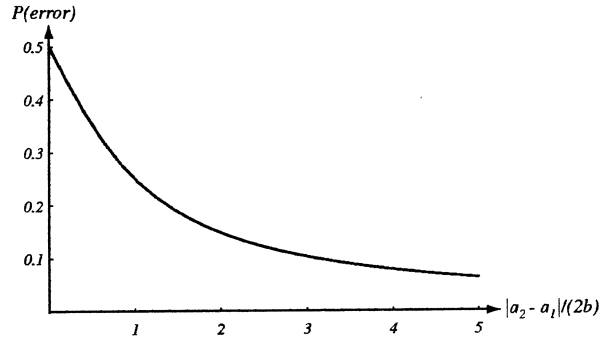
- (a) Without loss of generality, we assume that  $a_2 > a_1$ , note that the decision boundary is at  $(a_1 + a_2)/2$ . The probability of error is given by

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1+a_2)/2} p(\omega_2|x)dx + \int_{(a_1+a_2)/2}^{\infty} p(\omega_1|x)dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1+a_2)/2} \frac{1/2}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} dx + \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{(a_1+a_2)/2}^{\infty} \frac{1/2}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_1}{b}\right)^2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1-a_2)/2} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1-a_2)/2} \frac{1}{1 + y^2} dy, \end{aligned}$$

where for the last step we have used the trigonometric substitution  $y = (x-a_2)/b$  as in Problem 8. The integral is a standard form for  $\tan^{-1}y$  and thus our solution is:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \tan^{-1} \left| \frac{a_1 - a_2}{2b} \right| - \tan^{-1}[-\infty] \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left| \frac{a_2 - a_1}{2b} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) SEE FIGURE.



- (c) The maximum value of the probability of error is  $P_{max}(\frac{a_2-a_1}{2b}) = 1/2$ , which occurs for  $|\frac{a_2-a_1}{2b}| = 0$ . This occurs when either the two distributions are the same, which can happen because  $a_1 = a_2$ , or even if  $a_1 \neq a_2$  because  $b = \infty$  and both distributions are flat.

10. We use the fact that the conditional error is

$$P(\text{error}|x) = \begin{cases} P(\omega_1|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_2 \\ P(\omega_2|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_1. \end{cases}$$

- (a) Thus the decision as stated leads to:

$$P(\text{error}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(\text{error}|x)p(x)dx.$$

(b) The error for the converse case is found similarly:

$$\begin{aligned} E_2 &= \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{x^*} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} P(\omega_2) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta=-\pi}^{\theta=\tilde{\theta}} d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left\{ \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{b}{\sqrt{b^2 + (x^* - a_2)^2}} \right] + \pi \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{b}{\sqrt{b^2 + (x^* - a_2)^2}} \right], \end{aligned}$$

where  $\tilde{\theta}$  is defined in part (a).

(c) The total error is merely the sum of the component errors:

$$E = E_1 + E_2 = E_1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{b}{\sqrt{b^2 + (x^* - a_2)^2}} \right],$$

where the numerical value of the decision point is

$$x^* = a_1 + b/\tan[2\pi E_1] = 0.376.$$

(d) We add the errors (for  $b = 1$ ) and find

$$E = 0.1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \sin^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (x^* - a_2)^2}} \right] = 0.2607.$$

(e) For the Bayes case, the decision point is midway between the peaks of the two distributions, i.e., at  $x^* = 0$  (cf. Problem 6). The Bayes error is then

$$E_B = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a}{b}\right)^2} P(\omega_2) dx = 0.2489.$$

This is indeed lower than for the Neyman-Pearson case, as it must be. Note that if the Bayes error were lower than  $2 \times 0.1 = 0.2$  in this problem, we would use the Bayes decision point for the Neyman-Pearson case, since it too would ensure that the Neyman-Pearson criteria were obeyed *and* would give the lowest total error.

8. Consider the Cauchy distribution.

(a) We let  $k$  denote the integral of  $p(x|\omega_i)$ , and check the normalization condition, that is, whether  $k = 1$ :

$$k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x|\omega_i) dx = \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_i}{b}\right)^2} dx.$$

We substitute  $(x - a_i)/b = y$  into the above and get

$$k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + y^2} dy,$$

and use the trigonometric substitution  $1/\sqrt{1 + y^2} = \sin \theta$ , and hence  $dy = d\theta/\sin^2 \theta$  to find

$$k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\theta=-\pi}^{\theta=0} \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \theta} d\theta = 1.$$

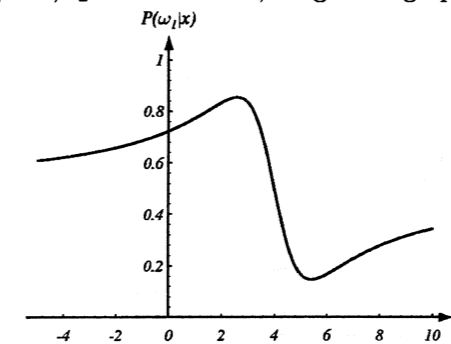
Indeed,  $k = 1$ , and the distribution is normalized.

(b) We let  $x^*$  denote the decision boundary (a single point) and find its value by setting  $p(x^*|\omega_1)P(\omega_1) = p(x^*|\omega_2)P(\omega_2)$ . We have then

$$\frac{1}{\pi b} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x^*-a_1}{b}\right)^2} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{\pi b} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x^*-a_2}{b}\right)^2} \frac{1}{2},$$

or  $(x^* - a_1) = \pm(x^* - a_2)$ . For  $a_1 \neq a_2$ , this implies that  $x^* = (a_1 + a_2)/2$ , that is, the decision boundary is midway between the means of the two distributions.

(c) For the values  $a_1 = 3, a_2 = 5$  and  $b = 1$ , we get the graph shown in the figure.



(d) We substitute the form of  $P(\omega_i|x)$  and  $p(x|\omega_i)$  and find

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} P(\omega_i|x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\pi b} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_i}{b}\right)^2} \right]}{\left[ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\pi b} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_1}{b}\right)^2} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\pi b} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} \right] \right]} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b^2 + (x - a_i)^2}{b^2 + (x - a_1)^2 + b^2 + (x - a_2)^2} = \frac{1}{2}, \end{aligned}$$

and likewise,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} P(\omega_i|x) = 1/2$ , as can be confirmed in the figure.

9. We follow the terminology in Section 2.3 in the text.

(b) The error for the converse case is found similarly:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_2 &= \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{x^*} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} P(\omega_2) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta=-\pi}^{\theta=\tilde{\theta}} d\theta \\
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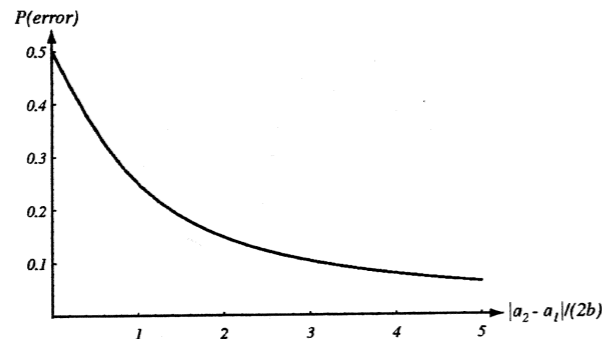
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$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1+a_2)/2} p(\omega_2|x)dx + \int_{(a_1+a_2)/2}^{\infty} p(\omega_1|x)dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1+a_2)/2} \frac{1/2}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} dx + \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{(a_1+a_2)/2}^{\infty} \frac{1/2}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_1}{b}\right)^2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi b} \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1-a_2)/2} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x-a_2}{b}\right)^2} dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{(a_1-a_2)/2} \frac{1}{1+y^2} dy, \end{aligned}$$

where for the last step we have used the trigonometric substitution  $y = (x-a_2)/b$  as in Problem 8. The integral is a standard form for  $\tan^{-1}y$  and thus our solution is:

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- (b) SEE FIGURE.



- (c) The maximum value of the probability of error is  $P_{max}(\frac{a_2-a_1}{2b}) = 1/2$ , which occurs for  $|\frac{a_2-a_1}{2b}| = 0$ . This occurs when either the two distributions are the same, which can happen because  $a_1 = a_2$ , or even if  $a_1 \neq a_2$  because  $b = \infty$  and both distributions are flat.

10. We use the fact that the conditional error is

$$P(\text{error}|x) = \begin{cases} P(\omega_1|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_2 \\ P(\omega_2|x) & \text{if we decide } \omega_1. \end{cases}$$

- (a) Thus the decision as stated leads to:

$$P(\text{error}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(\text{error}|x)p(x)dx.$$

Thus we can write the probability of error as

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= P(x < \theta \text{ and } \omega_1 \text{ is the true state}) \\ &\quad + P(x > \theta \text{ and } \omega_2 \text{ is the true state}) \\ &= P(x < \theta|\omega_1)P(\omega_1) + P(x > \theta|\omega_2)P(\omega_2) \\ &= P(\omega_1) \int_{-\infty}^{\theta} p(x|\omega_1) dx + P(\omega_2) \int_{\theta}^{\infty} p(x|\omega_2) dx. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) We take a derivative with respect to  $\theta$  and set it to zero to find an extremum, that is,

$$\frac{dP(\text{error})}{d\theta} = P(\omega_1)p(\theta|\omega_1) - P(\omega_2)p(\theta|\omega_2) = 0,$$

which yields the condition

$$P(\omega_1)p(\theta|\omega_1) = P(\omega_2)p(\theta|\omega_2),$$

where we have used the fact that  $p(x|\omega_i) = 0$  at  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ .

- (c) No, this condition does not uniquely define  $\theta$ .

1. If  $P(\omega_1)p(\theta|\omega_1) = P(\omega_2)p(\theta|\omega_2)$  over a range of  $\theta$ , then  $\theta$  would be unspecified throughout such a range.
2. There can easily be multiple values of  $x$  for which the condition hold, for instance if the distributions have the appropriate multiple peaks.

- (d) If  $p(x|\omega_1) \sim N(1, 1)$  and  $p(x|\omega_2) \sim N(-1, 1)$  with  $P(\omega_1) = P(\omega_2) = 1/2$ , then we have a *maximum* for the error at  $\theta = 0$ .

11. The deterministic risk is given by Bayes' Rule and Eq. 20 in the text

$$R = \int R(\alpha_i(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$

- (a) In a random decision rule, we have the *probability*  $P(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x})$  of deciding to take action  $\alpha_i$ . Thus in order to compute the full probabilistic or randomized risk,  $R_{ran}$ , we must integrate over all the conditional risks weighted by their probabilities, i.e.,

$$R_{ran} = \int \left[ \sum_{i=1}^a R(\alpha_i(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x})P(\alpha_i|\mathbf{x}) \right] p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}.$$

- (b) Consider a fixed point  $\mathbf{x}$  and note that the (deterministic) Bayes minimum risk decision at that point obeys

$$R(\alpha_i(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}) \geq R(\alpha_{max}(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}).$$