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# Nonparametric Bayes Risk Estimation for Pattern Classification

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**Abstract**—The performance of a pattern classification system is often evaluated based on the risk committed by the classification procedure. The minimum attainable risk is the Bayes risk. Therefore, the Bayes risk can be used as a measure of the intrinsic complexity of the system, and it also serves as a reference of the optimality measure of a classification procedure. There are many practical situations in which the nonparametric methods may have to be called upon to estimate the Bayes risk. One of the nonparametric methods is via the probability density estimation technique. The convergence properties of this estimation technique are studied under fairly general assumptions. In the computer experiments reported, the estimate of the Bayes risk is taken as the sample mean of the density estimate by making use of the leave-one-out method. The probability density estimate used is the one proposed by Loftsgaarden and Quesenberry. This estimate is shown to be, in general, superior to the risk associated with a Bayes-like decision rule based on the error-counting scheme. This estimate is also compared experimentally with the risk estimate associated with the nearest neighbor rule.

Manuscript received December 13, 1976; revised March 21, 1977. This work was supported by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research under Grant 74-2661.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

ASSUME there exists a class of conditional probability densities  $F = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_M\}$  in a probability space  $\{S, B, P\}$ , where  $S$  is the sample space,  $B$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $S$ , and  $P$  is a probability measure on  $B$ . Let  $\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_M$ ,  $\eta_i \geq 0$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i = 1$ , be the prior probabilities of occurrence of the  $M$  pattern classes. Also let  $L(i, j)$  be the loss incurred by classifying a sample from class  $i$  into class  $j$ . A pattern classification procedure is to assign a new sample in the sample space (usually in the form of measurement vectors) to one of the  $M$  pattern classes. The performance of a pattern classification system is properly evaluated based on the risk (i.e., the expected value of the loss due to misclassification) committed by the classification procedure. The minimum attainable risk is the Bayes risk. Therefore, the Bayes risk can be used as a measure of the intrinsic complexity of the system, and it also serves as a reference of an optimality measure of a procedure.

The Bayes risk is a function of *a priori* probabilities and the underlying conditional probability densities. In the case where  $\{\eta_i\}$  and  $\{f_i\}$  are known completely, it is well known

[21] that the following randomized decision rule  $d^B$  attains the Bayes risk:

$$d_j^B(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i L(i,j) f_i(x) \\ & < \min_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i L(i,k) f_i(x) \\ 0, & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i L(i,j) f_i(x) \\ & > \min_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i L(i,k) f_i(x) \\ \alpha_j, & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i L(i,j) f_i(x) \\ & = \min_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i L(i,k) f_i(x) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where  $x$  is the observable measurement of the new sample  $X$ , and

$$\sum_{j=1}^M \alpha_j = 1, \quad \alpha_j \geq 0.$$

The Bayes risk  $R_B$  is given by

$$R_B = \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i E_i \gamma_B(i, X),$$

$$\gamma_B(i, X) = \sum_{j=1}^M L(i, j) d_j^B(X),$$

where  $\gamma_B(i, x)$  is the risk associated with class  $i$  committed by the decision rule  $d^B$ , given that the random vector  $X$  takes on the value  $x$ , and  $E_i$  is the expectation taken over  $S$  with respect to  $f_i \in F$ .

In the real world, there is often a lack of the exact knowledge of  $\{\eta_i\}$  and  $\{f_i\}$ ; instead only partial information is available. For instance, there are situations in which only the parametric forms of the underlying distributions and/or a set of correctly classified samples from the distributions are known. Based on this partial information, parametric and nonparametric methods have been studied by many researchers to solve the pattern classification problem. Nonparametric methods are used under the condition that no parametric forms of underlying distributions are known or can be assumed, [1]–[11].

In this paper the focus is placed on the nonparametric Bayes risk estimation via the sample mean of an estimator of the conditional Bayes risk which, in turn, employs the density estimation technique. Various asymptotic properties of the above conditional risk estimator are studied under fairly general assumptions. The nonparametric Bayes risk estimation is implemented with the given correctly classified samples on a digital computer. The experimental results are then discussed.

## II. NONPARAMETRIC CLASSIFICATION PROCEDURE WITH DENSITY ESTIMATION

In classifying a new sample into one of the  $M$  possible pattern classes, there are two categories of nonparametric classification procedures. On the one hand, there are procedures which do not involve the use of any form of the underlying probability densities. Under this category there are i) the nearest neighbor decision rule [1], [2], [4]–[7]; ii) classification procedures based on statistically equivalent blocks [3], [18]; iii) the classification by linear or piecewise linear discriminant functions [19]; and others. On the other hand, there are procedures which employ density estimation techniques [8]–[10]. These procedures are conceptually simple and are analogous to those parametric methods in statistical decision theory. To facilitate later discussion, one of the general forms of these procedures is given here.

Assume that the density functions  $f_i \in F$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , are estimated from the training sample sets by making use of some density estimation technique. Let  $\hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x)$  denote the estimate of  $f_i(x)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$  from a set of training samples  $\{X_i^{(1)}, \dots, X_i^{(n_i)}\}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ . Let  $X_n \triangleq \{X_1^{(1)}, \dots, X_{n_1}^{(1)}, \dots, X_1^{(M)}, \dots, X_{n_M}^{(M)}\} \triangleq \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ ,  $n_1 + \dots + n_M = n$ , and let  $\hat{\eta}_i = n_i/n$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ . Based on these estimates, a decision rule, denoted by  $d^0(x)$ , which is directed by the Bayes rule, is defined as follows:

$$d_j^0(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i L(i,j) \hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x) \\ & < \min_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i L(i,k) \hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x) \\ 0, & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i L(i,j) \hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x) \\ & > \min_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i L(i,k) \hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x) \\ \alpha_j, & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i L(i,j) \hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x) \\ & = \min_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i L(i,k) \hat{f}_{i, n_i}(x) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha_j \geq 0$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , and  $\sum_{j=1}^M \alpha_j = 1$ .

## III. ESTIMATION OF BAYES RISK

Once the classification procedure is devised, the performance is mainly evaluated by the misclassification committed by the procedure. In certain cases the estimation of misclassification can be related to the Bayes risk and is therefore used to estimate the latter. It was shown [4] that in a two-class problem, the risk of the 1-nearest neighbor rule  $R$  with the (0,1)-loss function is related to the Bayes risk  $R^*$  by  $R^* \leq R \leq 2R^*(1 - R^*)$ . Let  $S_n/n$  be an estimate of  $R$ , then the interval  $[(1 - \sqrt{1 - 2S_n/n})/2, S_n/n]$  is an estimate of  $R^*$ .

The risk associated with the decision rule  $d^0$  given by (2) using the error-counting scheme was indicated to converge to the Bayes risk in quadratic mean [9].

A different estimation of the Bayes risk can be built upon an estimator of the conditional Bayes risk. The conditional Bayes risk  $\gamma_B(x)$  corresponding to (1) is given by

$$\gamma_B(x) = \min_{j \in \{1, \dots, M\}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^M L(i,j) \rho_i(x) \right\}$$

$$\rho_j(x) = \{\eta_j f_j(x)\} / \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i f_i(x) \right\}.$$

Now define

$$\hat{\rho}_{j,n}(x | X_n) = \{\hat{\eta}_j \hat{f}_{j,n}\} / \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^M \hat{\eta}_i \hat{f}_{i,n}(x) \right\}$$

and

$$\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) = \min_{j \in \{1, \dots, M\}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^M L(i,j) \hat{\rho}_{i,n}(x | X_n) \right\}.$$

Notice that  $\hat{\rho}_{j,n}(x | X_n)$  and  $\gamma_n^0(x | X_n)$  are conditioned on  $X_n$  and, therefore, are random variables.

It will be shown that  $\gamma_n^0(x | X_n)$  is a consistent estimator of  $\gamma_B(x)$ . Consequently,  $R_B$  can be inferred by an estimator of  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$ .

#### IV. ASYMPTOTIC PROPERTIES OF $\gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$

Before the asymptotic properties of  $\gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$  are studied, some assumptions and notations will be introduced first. In the following it will be assumed that the conditional probability densities  $f_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , are absolutely continuous and bounded from above, and that their estimates  $\hat{f}_{i,n_i}(x)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , are nonnegative. In addition, assume  $\hat{f}_{i,n_i}(x) \xrightarrow{P} f_i(x)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ ; namely,  $\hat{f}_{i,n_i}(x)$  converges to  $f_i(x)$  in probability for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ . Also assume that the loss functions  $L(i,j)$ ,  $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , are nonnegative and finite. Let the notation  $n_i \rightarrow \infty$  indicate  $n_i \rightarrow \infty$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ . Besides,  $E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)$  means the expectation is taken with respect to all  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ . Analogous interpretations apply to  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$  and  $E_{X_n} E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$ . Finally define

$$R_n^0 = E_{X_n} \{E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\} = E_{X_n} \left[ \int \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) \left[ \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i f_i(x) \right] dx \right].$$

*Lemma 1:*

$$\text{i) } \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} \gamma_B(x)$$

and

$$\text{ii) } \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) = \gamma_B(x).$$

*Proof:* Since  $\hat{\eta}_i \rightarrow \eta_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , almost everywhere (a.e.) by the law of large numbers [17], this, together with  $\hat{f}_{i,n_i}(x) \xrightarrow{P} f_i(x)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , implies  $\hat{\rho}_{j,n}(x | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} \rho_j(x)$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , and, therefore,  $\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} \gamma_B(x)$ .

Furthermore, for every  $n$  ( $\forall n$ ), with probability 1,

$$|\gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| = \left| \min_{j \in \{1, \dots, M\}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^M L(i,j) \hat{\rho}_{i,n}(x | X_n) \right\} \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \min_j \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^M \bar{L} \hat{\rho}_{i,n}(x | X_n) \right\} \right| = \bar{L} < \infty$$

where  $\bar{L}$  is the maximum value of  $L(i,j)$ ,  $i, j = 1, \dots, M$ .

By Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem,

$$\lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) = \gamma_B(x)$$

$\forall x$  except for a set of points with zero probability measure.

*Theorem 1:*  $R_n^0$  converges to the Bayes risk  $R_B$  in the ordinary sense, as  $n_i \rightarrow \infty$ .

*Proof:* Since  $E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) < \bar{L}$  almost everywhere and  $\forall n$  by Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem,

$$\lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} R_n^0 = \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_X E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$$

$$= E_X \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$$

$$= E_X \gamma_B(x) = R_B.$$

*Theorem 2:*

$$\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n).$$

*Proof:*

$$|\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)|$$

$$= |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)|$$

$$+ \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} |E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)|$$

$$\leq |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)|$$

$$+ |E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)|.$$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can find  $\varepsilon_1 > 0$  and  $\varepsilon_2 > 0$  such that  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2$ . By Lemma 1,

$$\lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \varepsilon_2 \} = 1$$

and there exists  $m_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ , if  $n_i \geq m_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ ,

$$|E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \varepsilon_1$$

$$\lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \varepsilon \}$$

$$\geq \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \varepsilon \}$$

$$+ |E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \varepsilon \}$$

$$\geq \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \varepsilon - \varepsilon_1 \}$$

$$= 1$$

i.e.,  $\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)$ .

*Corollary 1:*  $\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) \rightarrow E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)$  in the  $k$ th mean ( $k > 0$ ).

*Proof:* Since  $|\gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq \bar{L} < \infty$ , a.e.,  $\forall n$ , the convergence in probability implies the convergence in the  $k$ th mean [17]. Therefore, Corollary 1 follows from Theorem 2.

*Theorem 3:*  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}$ .

*Proof:* For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , by the Markov inequality [17],

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}| \geq \varepsilon \} \\ \leq \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \{ E_{X_n} |E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}| \} / \varepsilon \\ \leq \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ E_{X_n} \left( c \int |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| dx \right) \right\} / \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

where  $c$  is a constant such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^M \eta_i f_i(x) \leq c$$

for every  $x$  except for a set of points with zero probability measure, since

$$\begin{aligned} |E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - E_X E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)| \\ \leq E_X |\gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)| \\ = \int |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| f(x) dx \\ \leq \int c |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| dx. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $E_{X_n} |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| \leq c' < \infty$ , a.e.,  $\forall n$ , by Corollary 1,

$$\lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| = 0.$$

By Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \{ |E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}| \geq \varepsilon \} \\ \leq c \left\{ \int \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X_n} |\gamma_n^0(x | X_n) - E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(x | X_n)| dx \right\} / \varepsilon = 0 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,

$$E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}.$$

*Corollary 2:*  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \rightarrow E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}$  in the  $k$ th mean.

*Theorem 4:*  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} R_B$ .

*Proof:* From above,

$$R_B = \lim_{n_i \rightarrow \infty} E_{X, X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$$

and

$$E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} E_X \{E_{X_n} \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)\}.$$

By a technique similar to the one used in the proof of Theorem 2, it can be shown that

$$E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \xrightarrow{P} R_B.$$

Since  $|E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)| \leq \bar{L} < \infty$ , a.e.,  $\forall n$ , the following corollary can be shown.

*Corollary 3:*  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) \rightarrow R_B$  in the  $k$ th mean. In particular,

$$0 \leq E_{X_n} (E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)) - R_B \leq E_{X_n} |E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - R_B| \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n_i \rightarrow \infty$  and  $E_{X_n} |E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n) - R_B|^2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $n_i \rightarrow \infty \forall i$ .

The previous theorems and corollaries are the foundation for  $\gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$  to be used in the Bayes risk estimation. The expectation of  $\gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$  is shown to converge to the Bayes risk in probability as well as in the  $k$ th mean, in contrast to the convergence of the risk of the nearest neighbor rule which is only to a bound on the Bayes risk. This result indicates the use of a sample mean of  $\gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$  as a desirable estimation of the Bayes risk. The empirical comparison of this estimator with the other estimators will be given in the next section.

## V. UTILIZATION OF GIVEN SAMPLES IN ESTIMATION

In order to estimate the risk by using the correctly classified samples, two things must be decided. One is to choose a probability density estimation technique and the other is to decide on a method to effectively utilize the available labeled samples to carry out the estimation scheme. As far as the first problem is concerned, the density estimator proposed originally by Parzen [13] and extended later by Cacoullos [14], the one by Murthy [15], and the one by Loftsgaarden and Quesenberry [12] all meet the consistency requirement of the density estimation. It is the latter one which was employed in the computer experiments reported.

In utilizing given labeled samples to carry out the risk estimation, there are mainly three methods. They are i) the resubstitution method; ii) the holdout method, or H method; and iii) the leave-one-out method, or the U method [16]. Generally speaking, the first method gives an overly optimistic estimate, while the second method gives an overly pessimistic estimate. The third method yields an estimate with a small amount of bias compared with those of the previous two methods, although it suffers from requiring more computation time. It is the third method which was used in the computer experiments.

The application of the leave-one-out method to the estimation of the Bayes risk discussed previously leads to an estimator  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  which is given by

$$\hat{R}_n^0(X_n) = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^M \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n).$$

The use of  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  in estimating the Bayes risk is justified by the following convergence theorem.

*Theorem 5:*  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  converges to the Bayes risk  $R_B$  in probability as well as in the  $k$ th mean ( $k > 0$ ).

From Lemma 1, it can be shown that

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n) \\ \triangleq \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{P} \gamma_B(X_i). \end{aligned}$$

By the Markov inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \left\{ \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_{n-1}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_B(X_i) \right| \geq \varepsilon \right\} \\ & \leq \left\{ E \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_{n-1}) - \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_B(X_i) \right| \right\} / \varepsilon \\ & \leq (1/\varepsilon) \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n E \left| \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_{n-1}) - \gamma_B(X_i) \right| \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

By the convergence theorem in the  $k$ th mean [17],

$$(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{P} 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_B(X_i).$$

Because the  $X_i$  are i.i.d., the  $\gamma_B(X_i)$  are also i.i.d. By Bernoulli's law,

$$(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_B(X_i) \xrightarrow{P} E_X \gamma_B(X) = R_B.$$

Thus

$$(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{n-1}^0(X_i | X_{n-1}) \rightarrow R_B$$

in probability as well as in the  $k$ th mean.

An interesting remark is in order. Experimental results indicate that  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  has a smaller variance than does the Bayes risk estimate by the risk associated with the classification procedure obtained from the error counting method. The reason may lie in the fact that  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  is a smoother function compared with the error counting risk estimate. Therefore,  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  converges to the Bayes risk more rapidly.

### VI. COMPUTER EXPERIMENTS

The estimation of the Bayes risk discussed above is implemented on a digital computer. In the following, the constant  $\{k_n\}$  is referred to as the sequence of positive integers of the Loftsgaarden and Quesenberry estimator of the density estimation. Let  $\hat{R}_n^0$ ,  $\hat{R}_E$ , and  $\hat{R}_k$  be the estimators of the Bayes risk by three different models, namely, those based on  $E_X \gamma_n^0(X | X_n)$ , the risk associated with the decision rule  $d^0(x)$ , and the  $k$ -NN decision rule, respectively. The data used in the experiments are bivariate Gaussian data  $N(\mu_i, \Sigma_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , where

$$\mu_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3.0 \\ -1.0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mu_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -3.0 \\ -1.0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2.0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2.0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

*Experiment 1:* Five sets of samples were generated with  $n_1 = n_2 = n = 100, 150, 200$ .  $\hat{R}_n^0$  is obtained by the leave-one-out method and the holdout method. The holdout sample sizes corresponding to  $n = 100, 150$ , and  $200$  are 25, 50, and 75, respectively. The results are shown in Table I. As the results indicate, the U method is better than the H method.

TABLE I  
AVERAGE AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR  $\hat{R}_n^0$  WITH  $k_n = (n)^{0.55}$

n	$\hat{R}_n^0$			
	U Method		H Method	
	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD
100	0.1363	0.0259	0.1472	0.0461
150	0.1275	0.0067	0.1406	0.0357
200	0.1248	0.0067	0.1357	0.0271

TABLE II  
AVERAGE AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR  $\hat{R}_n^0$  AND  $\hat{R}_E$  WITH  $n_1 = n_2 = 150$ ,  $k_n = (n)^\alpha$

$\alpha_i$	$\hat{R}_n^0$ (U Method)		$\hat{R}_E$	
	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD
0.45	0.1168	0.0111	0.0760	0.0134
0.50	0.1242	0.0113	0.0733	0.0139
0.55	0.1275	0.0067	0.0700	0.0139

TABLE III  
AVERAGE AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR  $\hat{R}_n^0$ ,  $\hat{R}_E$ , AND  $\hat{R}_3$  WITH  $k_n = (n)^{0.55}$

$n_1 = n_2$	$\hat{R}_n^0$ (U Method)		$\hat{R}_E$		$\hat{R}_3$	
	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD	Avg.	SD
50	0.1562	0.0126	0.060	0.0316	—	—
75	0.1320	0.0152	0.0653	0.0152	0.0627	0.2433
100	0.1363	0.0259	0.064	0.0297	0.079	0.0222
150	0.1275	0.0067	0.070	0.0139	0.0733	0.0238
200	0.1248	0.0067	0.066	0.0133	0.077	0.0124

*Experiment 2:* Five sets of samples were generated with  $n_1 = n_2 = n = 150$ .  $\hat{R}_n^0$  is obtained for three different values of  $k_n$ , i.e.,  $k_n = n^{\alpha_i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , with  $\alpha_1 = 0.45$ ,  $\alpha_2 = 0.5$ , and  $\alpha_3 = 0.55$ . The results are summarized in Table II.  $\hat{R}_n^0$  is much closer to the true risk ( $R_B = 0.134$ ) than  $\hat{R}_E$ . For the sample sizes under consideration,  $\hat{R}_n^0$  is superior to  $\hat{R}_E$ .

*Experiment 3:* For  $n_1 = n_2 = 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200$ , five sets of training samples were generated. The three Bayes risk estimates  $\hat{R}_n^0$ ,  $\hat{R}_E$ , and  $\hat{R}_3$  are computed. The experimental results are shown in Table III and Fig. 1. We can find that  $\hat{R}_n^0$  is better than  $\hat{R}_E$  and  $\hat{R}_3$ . Both  $\hat{R}_E$  and  $\hat{R}_3$  are optimistic risk estimates.

It is important to know that the ability of  $\hat{R}_n^0(X_n)$  in estimating the Bayes risk well relies on the appropriate choice of the constant  $k_n$ . An improper choice may lead to poor results [20].

### VII. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper focus is placed on the nonparametric Bayes risk estimation. The estimate based on the conditional Bayes risk estimator is employed by making use of the density estimation. Various asymptotic properties of this estimate are studied under mild assumptions.

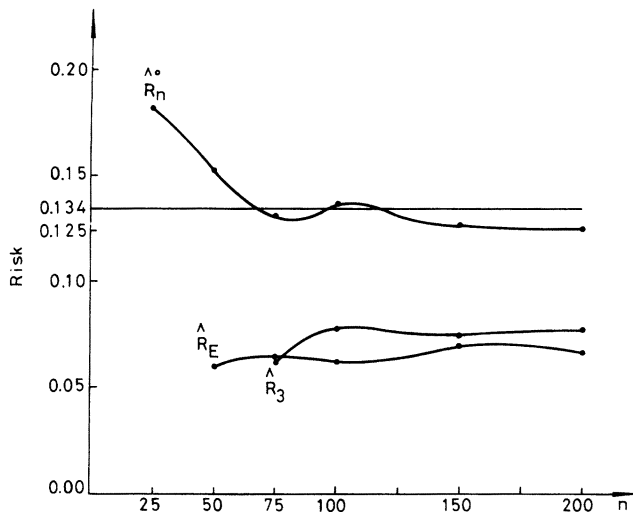


Fig. 1. Plot of Bayes risk estimates versus  $n$  (number of samples per class).

The computer implementation of the estimate of Bayes risk with the given samples by the leave-one-out method is given. The estimate converges to the Bayes risk in probability and in the  $k$ th mean. It was shown that the risk estimate based on the conditional Bayes risk is generally superior to the risk estimate associated with a Bayes-like decision rule  $d^0$ . For the Gaussian data used,  $\hat{R}_n^0$  was shown to be closer to the Bayes risk than  $\hat{R}_E$  and  $\hat{R}_k$  were. However, a bad choice of constants in the estimate may cause the results to deteriorate.

The Bayes risk estimation discussed above requires no *a priori* information of the pattern underlying distribution. This point lends the method to a number of applications.

1) *The Feature Selection Problem*: Quite often in a pattern classification problem there are no clear rules for selecting an effective set of features. A good practice is to select a set of feature which yields the smallest value of the estimated Bayes risk. The set of features thus obtained generally will lead to an efficient classifier design.

2) *The Measure of Separability of Clusters*: In cluster analysis the measure of separability of the resultant clusters by means of the Bayes risk estimation can provide good insight into the structure of clusters.

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