

STAT5003

Week 3 : Density Estimation

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Readings



- For the bias variance tradeoff see Section 2.2 James, Witten, Hastie, and Tibshirani (2013)

Review on probability distribution functions



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Discrete distributions

For any random variable X with a discrete distribution, there is a sample space Ω with finite number of possible values (outcomes) $x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ and associated probabilities $\{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$.

The point probabilities for each value of x are denoted $f(x)$ and the cumulative distribution function denoted $F(x)$ where

$$f(x) = P(X = x), \quad F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

Properties:

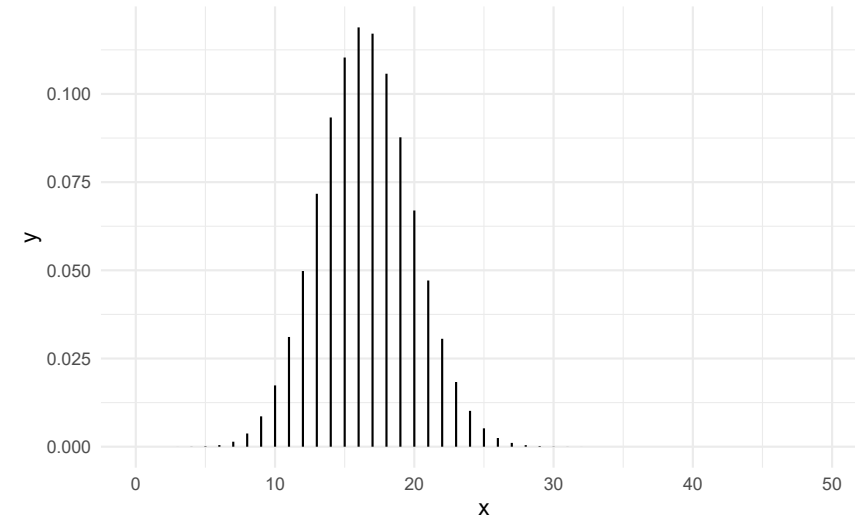
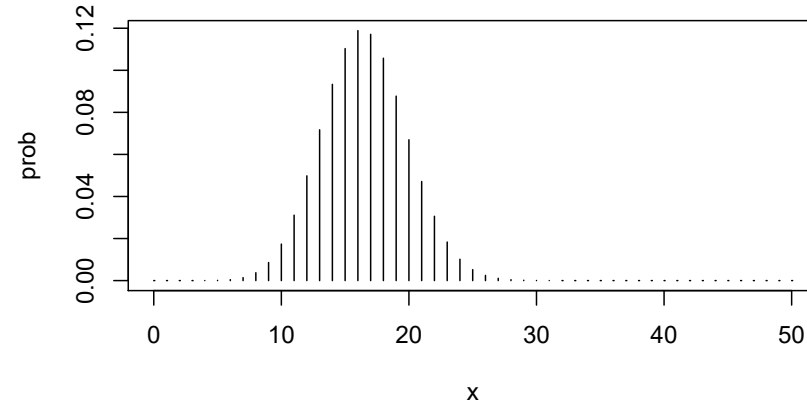
- There is a *countable* number of possible values;
- $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i = 1$
- $p_i \geq 0$

Binomial distribution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, & x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The $\binom{n}{x}$ are known as the binomial coefficients.
The parameter p is the probability of success.

```
x <- 0:50
prob <- dbinom(x, size = 50, prob = 0.33)
# Base R graphics
plot(x, prob, type = "h")
dat <- data.frame(x = x, y = prob)
# ggplot2 version
ggplot(dat, aes(x = x, y = y, xend = x, yend = 0))
  geom_segment() + theme_minimal()
```



Continuous distributions

- A continuous random variable X is where the outcome can take an infinite (uncountable) number of possible values.
 - These values may be within a fixed or unbounded interval.
- For example, the height of male in cm may be within the range of $[50, 300]$.

The point probabilities for each value of x is $P(X = x) = 0$ and the cumulative distribution function

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt = P(X \leq x)$$

Properties:

- There are an infinite (uncountable) number of possible values;
- $f(x)$ is called the density function
- $f(x) \geq 0$ (non-negative)

Normal(Gaussian) distribution: $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

- The most famous continuous distribution
- Fully specified by two parameters
 - μ the location parameter (mean)
 - σ the scale parameter (sd)
- Notation $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$,

```
mu <- 0; sig <- 1
x <- seq(from = mu - 4 * sig, to = mu + 4 * sig,
         length.out = 128)
dens <- dnorm(x, mean = mu, sd = sig)
# Base R graphics
plot(x, dens, type = "l")
dat <- data.frame(x = x, y = dens)
# ggplot2 version
ggplot(dat, aes(x = x, y = y)) +
  geom_line() + theme_minimal()
```

Density estimation



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Density estimation

In exploratory data analysis, an estimate of the density function can be used

- to assess multimodality, skew, tail behaviour, etc.
- in decision making, classification, and summarizing Bayesian posteriors
- as a useful visualisation tool (a simple summary of a distribution)

Suppose random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n have been observed and assumed to be sampled independently from the distribution with density f .

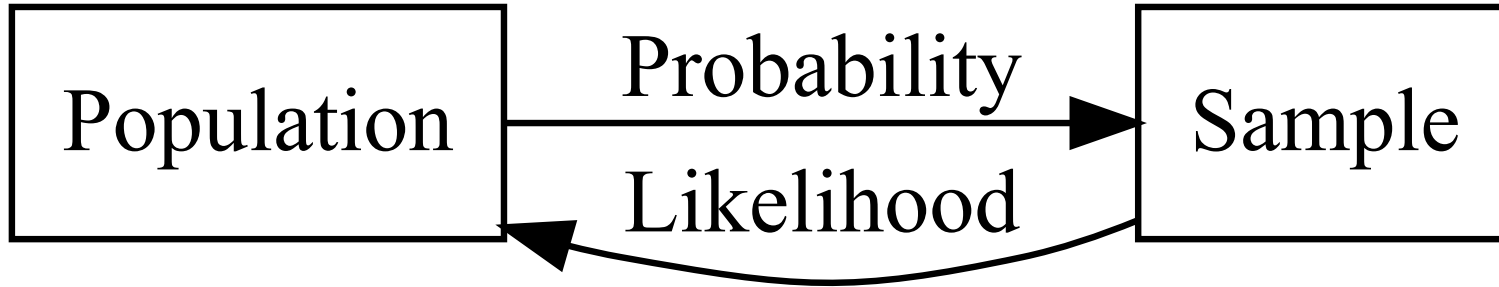
Goal: The estimation of the density function f .

Parametric density estimation

- The **parametric** approach to density estimation assumed a **parametric** model.
- That is, $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} f_{\theta}$ where θ is a parameter vector.
 - For example, $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$ when $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$
- Typically the parameter θ is estimated using the method of **maximum likelihood**.
- Density function is then estimated as $f(x|\hat{\theta})$

Maximum likelihood the best value for the parameters is the one for which the probability of obtaining the observed samples is the largest.

What is a likelihood?



Simple example:

- Population has girl:boy ratio of 2:1 (100 girls for 50 boys)
- If I draw a sample of 50 people, what is the **probability** of picking 10 boys
- If I draw a sample of 50 people, and picked 10 boys, what is the **likelihood** that the girl:boy ratio is 2:1

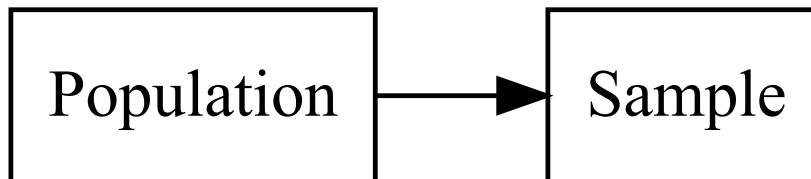
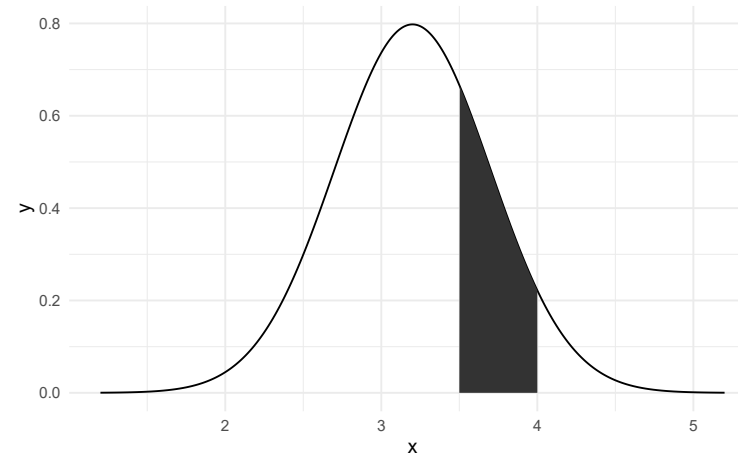
Normal distribution example

- Consider a random variable $X \sim \mathcal{N}(3.5, 0.2)$
- What is the probability that X is between 3.5 and 4?
 - Compute the area under the density. $P(3.5 \leq X \leq 4) = \int_{3.5}^4 f(t) dt$

```
mu = 3.2; sig = 0.5  
pnorm(4, mean = mu, sd = sig) -  
  pnorm(3.5, mean = mu, sd = sig)
```

```
## [1] 0.2194538
```

```
# Or in one line  
## diff(pnorm(c(3.5, 4), mean = mu, sd = sig))
```



Likelihood

- Consider a single value is observed from $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 0.2)$, say $x = 3.7$
- Determine the likelihood of drawing this value. Flip the perspective $f(x|\theta) \rightsquigarrow L(\theta|x)$

```
dnorm(3.7, mean = 3.5, sd = 0.2)
```

```
## [1] 1.209854
```

```
dnorm(3.7, mean = 3.6, sd = 0.2)
```

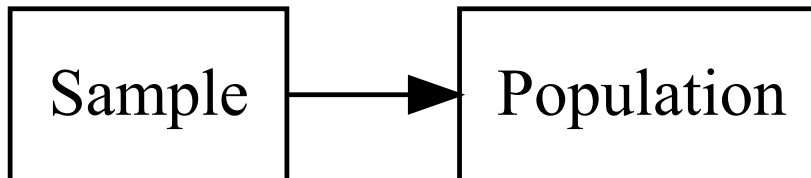
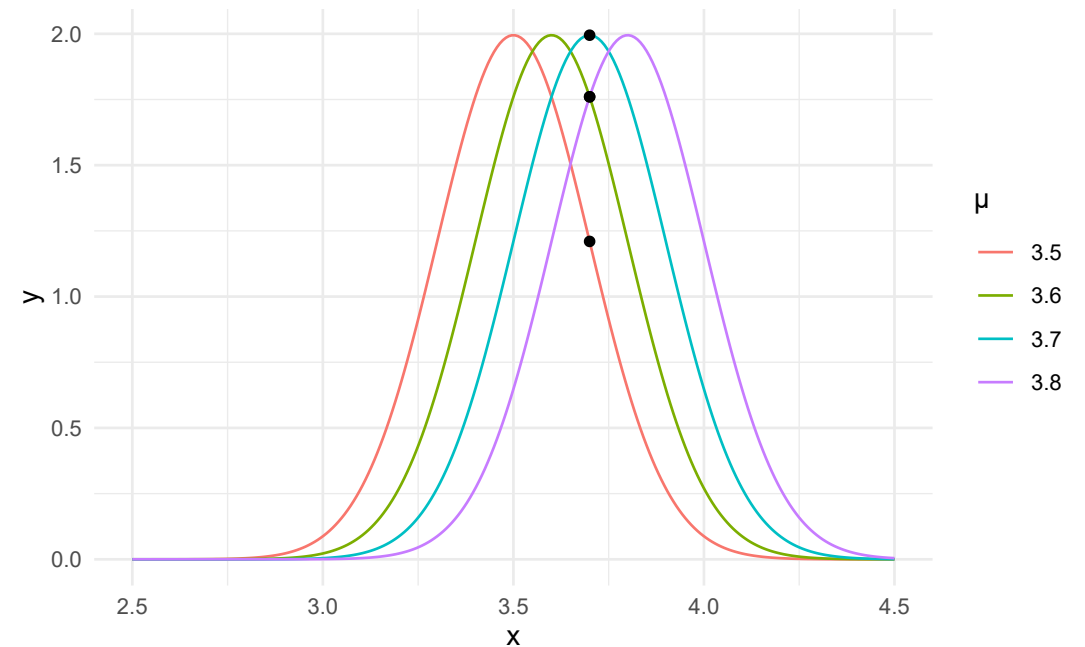
```
## [1] 1.760327
```

```
dnorm(3.7, mean = 3.7, sd = 0.2)
```

```
## [1] 1.994711
```

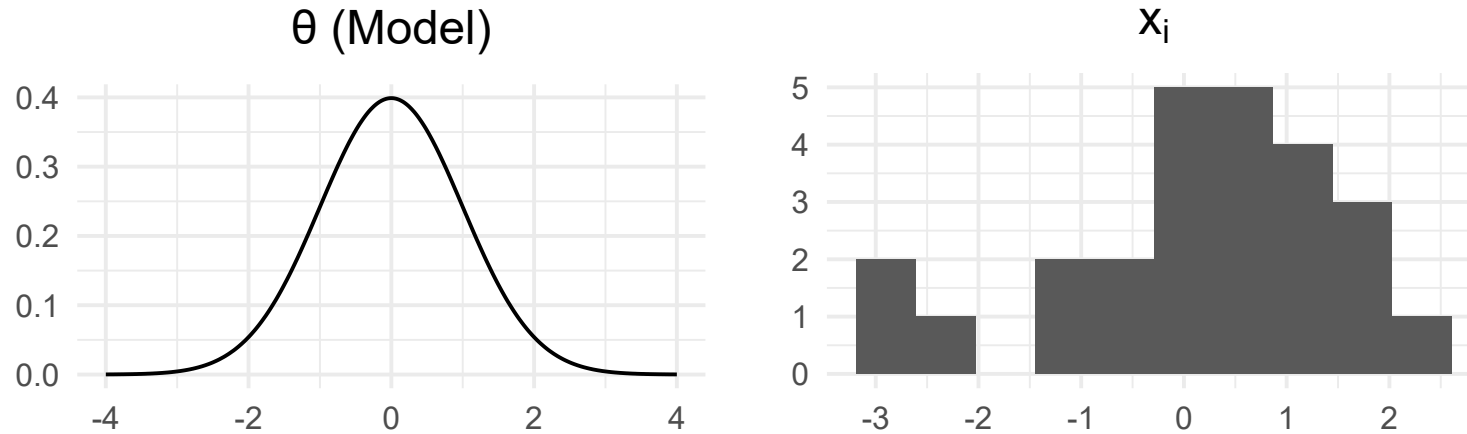
```
dnorm(3.7, mean = 3.8, sd = 0.2)
```

```
## [1] 1.760327
```



Maximum likelihood approach

- $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \theta)$ is the probability of observing x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n given the parameter θ .



- Assuming independent and identically distributed variables $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i | \theta)$

Maximising the log-likelihood is often easier so it is common to maximise

$$L(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i | \theta) \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{L}(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = \ln L(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln f(x_i | \theta)$$

Non-parametric density estimation

- Danger of misspecification with parametric approach
 - If the assumed f_θ is incorrect.
 - Serious danger of inferential errors.
- Non-parametric approaches to density estimations
 - Assume little about the structure of f
 - use *local information* to estimate f at a point x
- Histograms are
 - one type of nonparametric density estimators
 - piecewise constant density estimators
 - produced automatically by most software packages

Histograms

- Very simple visualization
- Sensitive to the number of bins chosen and bin width

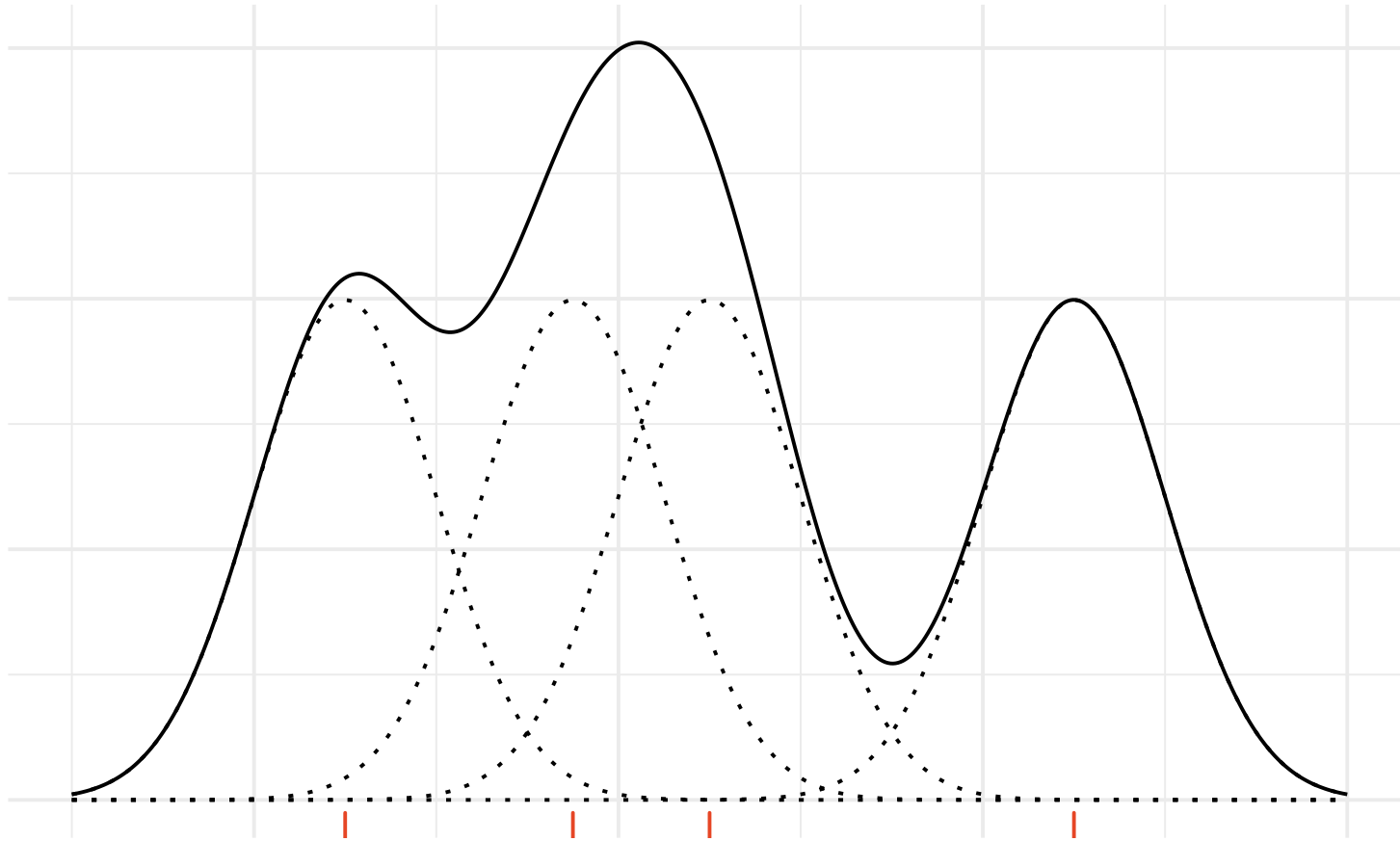
Kernel functions

- A kernel is a special type of **probability density function (PDF)** having the properties.
 - non-negative $K(x) \geq 0$, symmetric $K(-x) = K(x)$, unit measure $\int K(x) dx = 1$

Kernel density estimation

- Kernel density estimation is a non-parametric approach estimating densities
 - Knowledge of the structure of f is not required
- Essentially, at every data point, a kernel function is created with the point at its centre.
- The PDF is estimated by adding all of these kernel functions and dividing by the number of data to ensure that it satisfies
 - every possible value of the PDF is non-negative.
 - the definite integral of the PDF over its support set equals 1

Normal kernel density estimate



- E.g. Four sampled variables marked in red with Gaussian weights sum together to give the overall density estimate

Kernel density estimator (KDE)

- A simple one weights all points within a window h of x equally

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{2nh} \sum_{i=1}^n 1_{\{|X_i - x| < h\}}$$

- More generally a univariate kernel density estimator has a general weight function (Kernel)

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$$

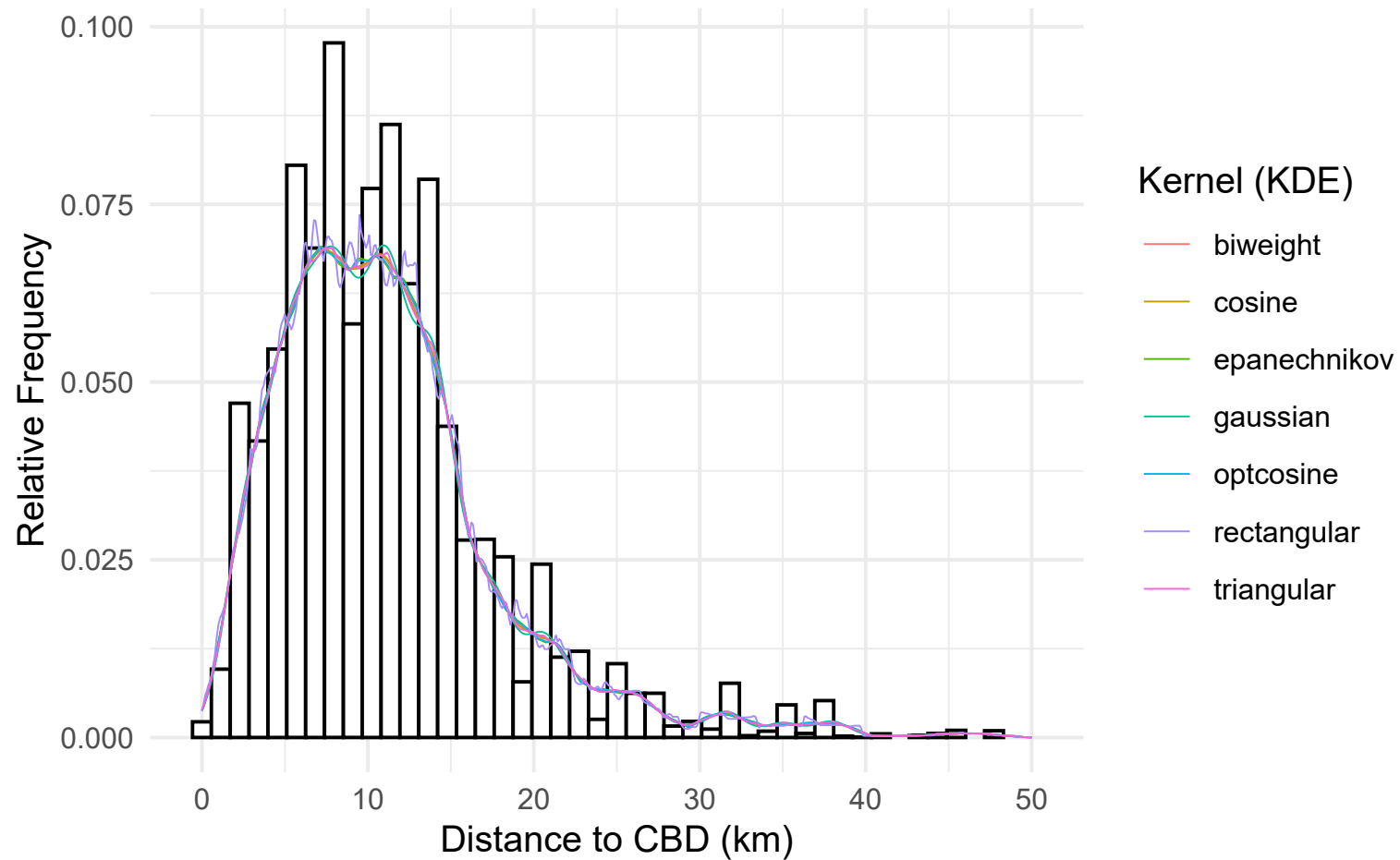
- K is a Kernel function
- h is a bandwidth parameter (possibly fixed or varying)
- Consider only h fixed for this course.

Tuning the Kernel density estimator (KDE)


- There are two main components for the KDE $\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$
 - The choice of K
 - The choice of h
- The choice of Kernel is less important and generally gives similar results
- The choice of bandwidth is important and can vary the result greatly.
- Some standard kernels

Uniform	$K(x) = \frac{1}{2} 1_{\{ x \leq 1\}}$
Gaussian	$K(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{x^2}{2}\right\}$
Epanechnikov	$K(x) = \frac{3}{4} (1 - x^2) 1_{\{ x \leq 1\}}$

Different choices of Kernel function with same bandwidth



Computing density in

- Base  there is `density`
 - `density` computes the KDE
 - Can wrap in `plot` (`plot(density(x))`) to visualize
 - Can inspect details in `summary`
- For plotting `ggplot` there is `geom_density`
 - Can specify the bandwidth with `bw` argument

Choosing the bandwidth

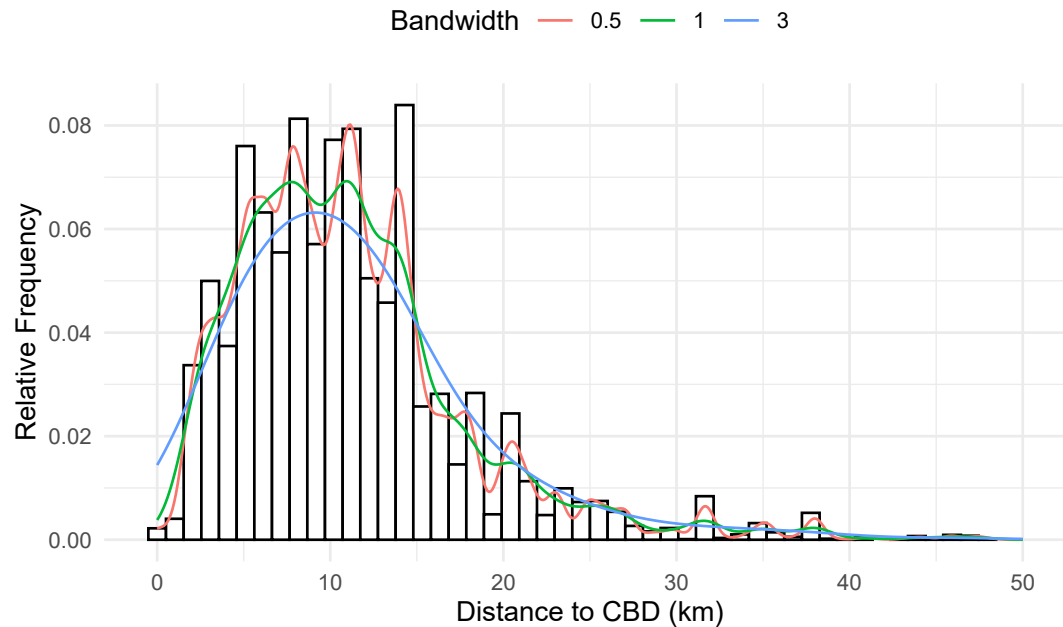
- The density estimator

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$$

- is a fixed-bandwidth kernel density estimator since h is constant.
- If h is too small, the density estimator will tend to assign probability density too locally near observed data
 - a wiggly estimated density function with many false modes.
- If h is too large, the density estimator will spread probability density contributions too diffusely
 - smooths away important features of f

Choice of bandwidth

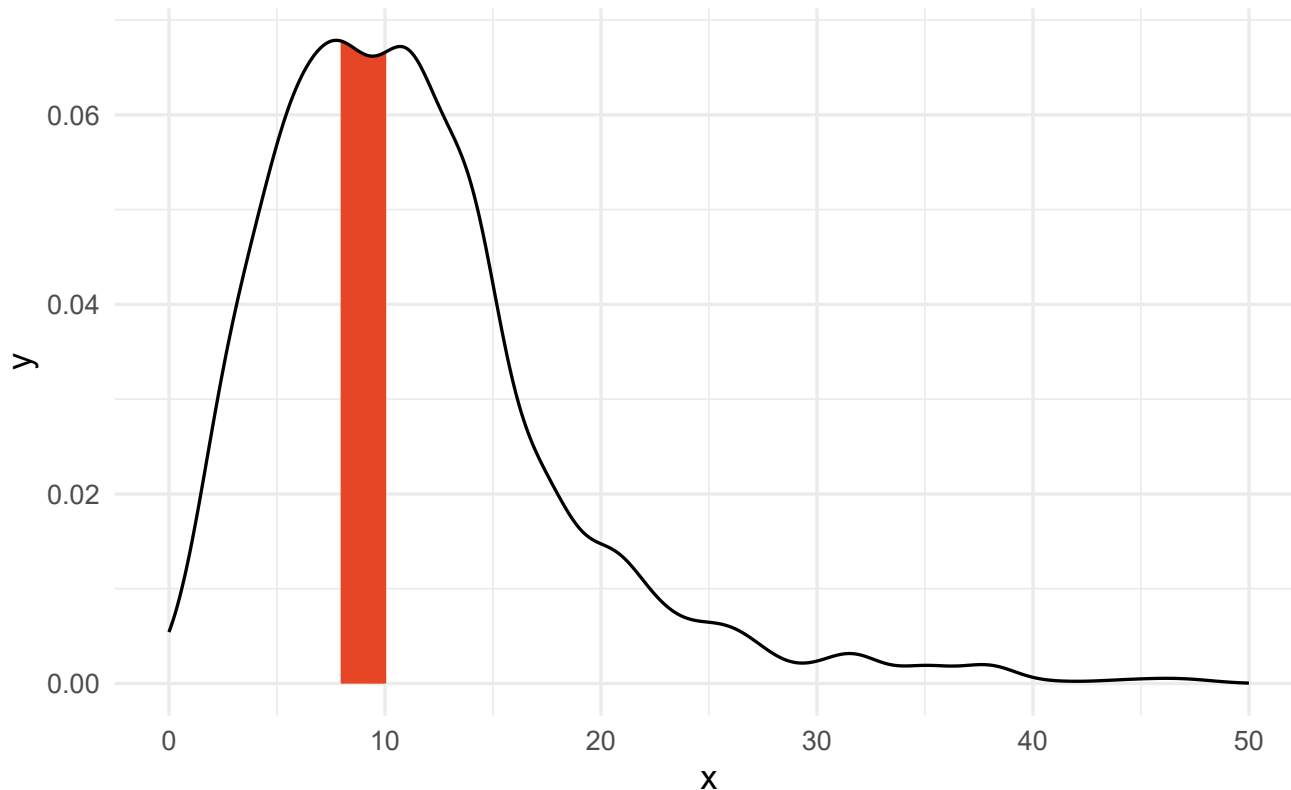
- Consider the distance from CBD variable again with three bandwidths



- A bias and variance trade-off.
 - A small bandwidth gives high variance
 - A large bandwidth gives high bias

Uses of the density estimate

- **Compute probabilities:** Consider the probability a property is between 8-10km of CBD
- Integrate the density function between 8 and 10 yields $p = 0.13 \rightsquigarrow$ 13% chance of finding a property between 8-10km of CBD



Mean squared error, Bias and Variance

We can decompose the mean squared error (MSE) into the sum of three quantities: The **variance**, the **squared bias** and the **vairance of the error**.

$$\mathbb{E}\left(Y - \hat{f}(X)\right)^2 = Var(\hat{f}(X)) + \left[Bias(\hat{f}(X))\right]^2 + Var(\epsilon)$$

- Variance here denoting how much would $\hat{f}(x)$ change if we estimate using a different training set.
- Bias
 - Error introduced by approximating the data using a model.

Kernel density estimation type equivalent

$$Var(\hat{f}(x)) = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{nh}\right)$$

$$Bias(\hat{f}(x)) = \mathcal{O}(h)$$

References

James, G, D. Witten, T. Hastie, et al. (2013). *An introduction to statistical learning*. Vol. 112. Springer.