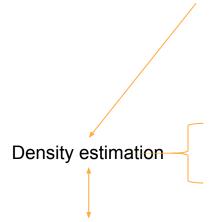
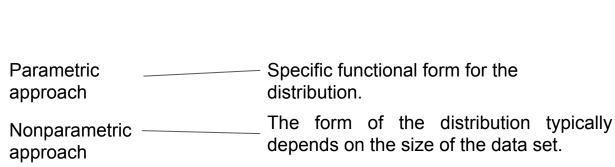
Probability Distributions



To model the probability distribution of a random variable, given a finite set of observations.



Frequentist: choose specific values for the parameters by optimizing some criterion, such as the likelihood function. **Bayesian**: introduce prior distributions over the parameters and then use Bayes' theorem to compute the corresponding posterior distribution given the observed data.

Conjugate Prior: leads to a posterior distribution of the same functional form as the prior

2.1 Binary Variables

2.2 Multinomial Variables

2.3 The Gaussian Distribution

2.4 The Exponential Family

2.5 Nonparametric Methods

- Kernel density estimators
- Nearest-neighbour methods

2.1 Binary Variables

A binary random variable
$$x \in \{0,1\}$$
, $p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu$, $p(x = 0|\mu) = 1 - \mu$

The probability distribution over
$$x \longrightarrow \operatorname{Bern}(x|\mu) = \mu^x (1-\mu)^{1-x}$$

Mean and variance:
$$\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu \\ \mathrm{var}[x] = \mu(1-\mu).$$

Maximum likelihood estimator:
$$\mu_{\rm ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$
 (Frequentist way)

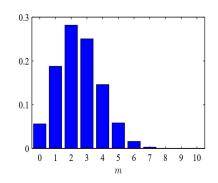
This can give severely over-fitted results for small data sets

2.1 Binary Variables

A binary random variable $x \in \{0,1\}$, $p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu$, $p(x = 0|\mu) = 1 - \mu$

The probability distribution over $x \longrightarrow \operatorname{Bern}(x|\mu) = \mu^x (1-\mu)^{1-x}$

The distribution of the number m of observations of x=1: $Bin(m|N,\mu)=\binom{N}{m}\mu^m(1-\mu)^{N-m}$



$$\mathbb{E}[m] \equiv \sum_{m=0}^{N} m \operatorname{Bin}(m|N,\mu) = N\mu$$

$$\operatorname{var}[m] \equiv \sum_{m=0}^{N} (m - \mathbb{E}[m])^{2} \operatorname{Bin}(m|N,\mu) = N\mu(1-\mu)$$

Gamma function

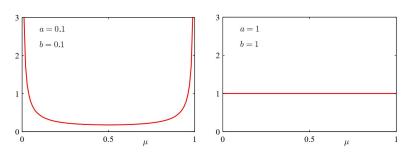
$$\Gamma(x) \equiv \int_0^\infty u^{x-1} e^{-u} du$$

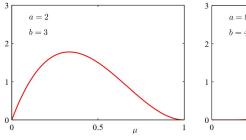
$$\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$$

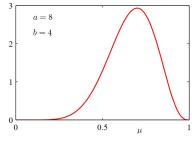
N is interger:

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

Beta
$$(\mu|a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \mu^{a-1} (1-\mu)^{b-1}$$







2.1 Binary Variables

A binary random variable $x \in \{0,1\}$, $p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu$, $p(x = 0|\mu) = 1 - \mu$

The probability distribution over $x \longrightarrow \operatorname{Bern}(x|\mu) = \mu^x (1-\mu)^{1-x}$

From the Bayesian perspective, we need to introduce a prior distribution $p(\mu)$ over the parameter μ .

Prior
$$\operatorname{Beta}(\mu|a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \mu^{a-1} (1-\mu)^{b-1} \qquad \underset{\operatorname{var}[\mu]}{\mathbb{E}} = \frac{a}{a+b} \\ \operatorname{var}[\mu] = \frac{ab}{(a+b)^2(a+b+1)}$$

Posterior
$$p(\mu|m,l,a,b) \propto \text{Bin}(m,l|\mu) \text{Beta}(\mu|a,b)$$

 $\propto \mu^{m+a-1} (1-\mu)^{l+b-1}$

- Simple interpretation of hyperparameters a and b as effective number of observations of x=1 and x=0 (a priori)
- \blacktriangleright As we observe new data, a and b are updated
- As $N \to \infty$, the variance (uncertainty) decreases and the mean converges to the ML estimate

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conjugate_prior

2.2 Multinomial Variables

$$\mathbf{x} = (0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0)^{\mathrm{T}}$$
 $\sum_{k=1}^{K} x_k = 1$ $p(x_k = 1) = \mu_k$

The distribution of
$$x$$
 is given: $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{x_k}$

$$\mathcal{D} = \{ \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N \} \qquad p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \prod_{n=1}^N \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{x_{nk}} = \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{(\sum_n x_{nk})} = \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{m_k}.$$

The joint distribution of the quantities m_1, \ldots, m_K

$$\operatorname{Mult}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_K | \boldsymbol{\mu}, N) = {N \choose m_1 m_2 \dots m_K} \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{m_k}$$

2.2 Multinomial Variables

Introduce a family of prior distributions for the parameters $\{\mu_k\}$ of the multinomial distribution.

$$\operatorname{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_0)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1)\cdots\Gamma(\alpha_K)}\prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{\alpha_k-1}$$
 Dirichlet distribution

Multiplying the prior by the likelihood function (2.34), we obtain the posterior distribution:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \propto p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\mu})p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) \propto \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mu_k^{\alpha_k + m_k - 1}$$

Dirichlet is indeed a conjugate prior for the multinomial.

2.3 The Gaussian Distribution

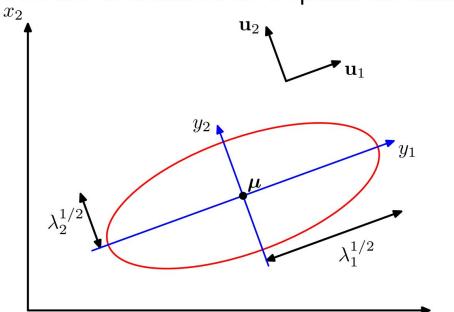
The multivariate Gaussian distribution takes the form

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}} \frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}$$

Limitations:

- The total number of parameters grows quadratically with the dimension D.
- It is intrinsically unimodal.

The law is constant on elliptical surfaces



where

- $ightharpoonup \lambda_i$ are the eigenvalues of Σ ,
- ightharpoonup u_i are the associated eigenvectors.

2.3.1 Partitioned Gaussians

Given a joint Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ with $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \equiv \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ and

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= egin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \ \mathbf{x}_b \end{pmatrix}, & oldsymbol{\mu} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\mu}_a \ oldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{pmatrix} \ oldsymbol{\Sigma} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba} & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}, & oldsymbol{\Lambda} &= egin{pmatrix} oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \ oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & oldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Conditional distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a|\mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{a|b} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} (\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b). \quad \text{A linear function of } \mathbf{x}_b$$

Marginal distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_a | \boldsymbol{\mu}_a, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa}).$$

2.3.3 Bayes' theorem for Gaussian variables

Given a Gaussian marginal distribution p(x) and a Gaussian conditional distribution p(y|x) which has a mean that is a linear function of x, and a covariance which is independent of x.

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1})$$

The evaluation of this conditional can be seen as an example of Bayes' theorem.

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}})$$
$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{\Sigma}\{\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}\}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

where

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = (\mathbf{\Lambda} + \mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{A})^{-1}.$$

We can interpret the distribution $p(\mathbf{x})$ as a prior distribution over \mathbf{x} .

2.3.4 Maximum likelihood for the Gaussian

Given a data
$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)^{\mathrm{T}}$$
 set The $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$ are assumed to be drawn independently from a multivariate Gaussian observ
$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = -\frac{ND}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{N}{2} \ln|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_n \qquad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}}) (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}})^{\mathrm{T}}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}}] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathrm{ML}}] = \frac{N-1}{N} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \qquad \widetilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}}) (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}})^{\mathrm{T}}$$

2.3.5 Sequential estimation

Sequential methods allow data points to be processed one at a time and then discarded and are important for on-line applications, and also where large data sets are involved so that batch processing of all data points at once is infeasible.

$$\mu_{\text{ML}}^{(N)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{x}_{N} + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{x}_{N} + \frac{N-1}{N} \mu_{\text{ML}}^{(N-1)}$$

$$= \mu_{\text{ML}}^{(N-1)} + \frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{x}_{N} - \mu_{\text{ML}}^{(N-1)})$$

However, we will not always be able to derive a sequential algorithm by this route, and so we seek a more general formulation of sequential learning.

Robbins-Monro procedure
$$\theta^{(N)} = \theta^{(N-1)} + a_{N-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta^{(N-1)}} \ln p(x_N | \theta^{(N-1)})$$

The gaussian distribution: bayesian inference

- ▶ The conjugate prior for μ is gaussian,
- ▶ The conjugate prior for $\lambda = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$ is a Gamma law,
- The conjugate prior of the couple (μ, λ) is the normal gamma distribution $N(\mu|\mu_0, \lambda_0^{-1}) \text{Gam}(\lambda|a, b)$ where λ_0 is a linear function of λ .
- ▶ The posterior distribution would exhibit a coupling between the precision of μ and λ .
- ► The multidimensional conjugate prior is the Gaussian Wishart law.

2.3.6 Bayesian inference for the Gaussian

The variance σ^2 is known, the mean μ is unknown.

Prior
$$p(\mu) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mu|\mu_0, \sigma_0^2\right)$$

Posterior
$$\begin{split} p(\mu | \, \mathbf{X} \,) &\propto p(\, \mathbf{x} \, | \mu) p(\mu) \! = \mathcal{N} \left(\mu | \mu_N, \sigma_N^2 \right) \\ \mu_N &= \frac{\sigma^2}{N \sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0 + \frac{N \sigma_0^2}{N \sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_{\mathrm{ML}} \\ \frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} &= \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{N}{\sigma^2} \end{split}$$

A sequential update formula:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|D) \propto \left[p(\boldsymbol{\mu}) \prod_{n=1}^{N-1} p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}) \right] p(\mathbf{x}_N|\boldsymbol{\mu})$$

The variance σ^2 is unknown, the mean μ is known.

$$\lambda \equiv 1/\sigma^2 \quad \operatorname{Gam}(\lambda|a,b) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} b^a \lambda^{a-1} \exp(-b\lambda)$$

$$p(\lambda|\mathbf{X}) \propto \lambda^{a_0-1} \lambda^{N/2} \exp\left\{-b_0 \lambda - \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \mu)^2\right\}$$

$$\operatorname{Gam}(\lambda|a_N, b_N)$$

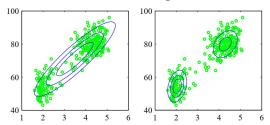
$$a_N = a_0 + \frac{N}{2}$$

$$b_N = b_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \mu)^2 = b_0 + \frac{N}{2} \sigma_{\text{ML}}^2$$

Both the mean and the precision are unknown, normal-gamma

2.3.9 Mixtures of Gaussians

▶ Data with distinct regimes better modeled with mixtures

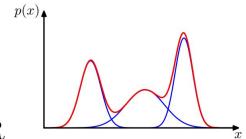


► General form: convex combination of component densities

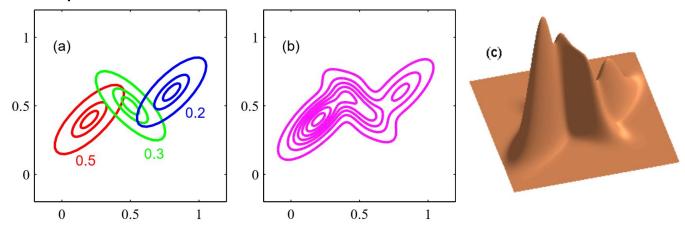
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k p_k(\mathbf{x}), \qquad (2.188)$$

$$\pi_k \ge 0, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1, \quad \int p_k(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = 1$$

Gaussian popular density, and so are mixtures thereof



- ► Example of mixture of Gaussians on IR
- ightharpoonup Example of mixture of Gaussians on ${
 m I\!R}^2$



- ▶ Interpretation of mixture density: $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(k)p(\mathbf{x}|k)$
- lacktriangle mixing weight π_k is the prior probability p(k) on the regimes
 - $p_k(\mathbf{x})$ is the conditional distribution $p(\mathbf{x}|k)$ on \mathbf{x} given regime
 - $ightharpoonup p(\mathbf{x})$ is the marginal on \mathbf{x}
 - ▶ $p(k|\mathbf{x}) \propto p(k)p(\mathbf{x}|k)$ is the posterior on the regime given \mathbf{x}
- ► The log-likelihood contains a log-sum

$$\log p(\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1}^N) = \sum_{n=1}^N \log \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k p_k(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
 (2.193)

- introduces local maxima and prevents closed-form solutions
- ▶ iterative methods: gradient-ascent or bound-maximization
- the posterior $p(k|\mathbf{x})$ appears in gradient and in (EM) bounds

 $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$

2.4. The Exponential Family

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(\mathbf{x})g(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \exp\left\{\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})\right\}$$

Bernoulli distribution

$$u(x) = x$$

$$h(x) = 1$$

$$g(\eta) = \sigma(-\eta)$$

multinomial distribution

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = 1$$

$$g(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{M-1} \exp(\eta_k)\right)^{-1}$$

Gaussian distribution

$$\eta = \begin{pmatrix} \mu/\sigma^2 \\ -1/2\sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}
\mathbf{u}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{pmatrix}
h(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-1/2}
g(\eta) = (-2\eta_2)^{1/2} \exp\left(\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2}\right)$$

2.4.1 Maximum likelihood and sufficient statistics

Maximum likelihood estimation for i.i.d. $X = \{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1}^N$ data

$$X = \{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1}^N$$

$$p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N} h(\mathbf{x}_n)\right) g(\boldsymbol{\eta})^N \exp\left\{\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathrm{T}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$

Setting the gradient of $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\eta})$ with respect to $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ to zero

$$-\nabla \ln g(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{\mathrm{ML}}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

The only we need. **sufficient statistic** of exponential family.

2.4.2 Conjugate priors

Given a probability distribution $p(x|\eta)$, if the prior $p(\eta)$ is conjugate, the posterior has the same form as the prior.

All exponential family members have conjugate priors:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\eta}|\boldsymbol{\chi},\nu) = f(\boldsymbol{\chi},\nu)g(\boldsymbol{\eta})^{\nu} \exp\left\{\nu \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\chi}\right\}$$

Combining the prior with a exponential family

$$P(X = \{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1}^N) = \left(\prod_{n=1}^N h(\mathbf{x}_n)\right) g(\boldsymbol{\eta})^N \exp\left\{\boldsymbol{\eta}^\top \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_n)\right\}$$

we obtain

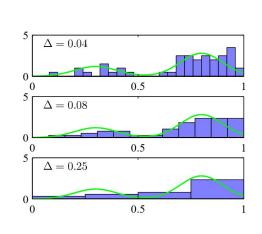
$$p(\boldsymbol{\eta}|\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\chi}, \nu) \propto g(\boldsymbol{\eta})^{\nu+N} \exp \left\{ \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathrm{T}} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_n) + \nu \boldsymbol{\chi} \right) \right\}$$

Nonparametric methods

- ▶ So far we have seen parametric densities in this chapter
 - ▶ Limitation: we are tied down to a specific functional form
 - Alternatively we can use (flexible) nonparametric methods
- ▶ Basic idea: consider small region \mathcal{R} , with $P = \int_{\mathcal{R}} p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$
 - For $N \to \infty$ data points we find about $K \approx NP$ in \mathcal{R}
 - For small \mathcal{R} with volume V: $P \approx p(\mathbf{x})V$ for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}$
 - ▶ Thus, combining we find: $p(\mathbf{x}) \approx K/(NV)$
- Simplest example: histograms
 - Choose bins
 - Estimate density in *i*-th bin

$$p_i = \frac{n_i}{N\Delta_i} \qquad (2.241)$$

Tough in many dimensions: smart chopping required



Kernel density estimators: fix V, find K

Let
$$\mathcal{R} \in \mathbb{R}^D$$
 be a unit hypercube around \mathbf{x} , with indicator $(1 \cdot |x_i - y_i| \le 1/2, (i - 1, D))$

$$k(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} 1 : |x_i - y_i| \le 1/2 & (i = 1, ..., D) \\ 0 : \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (2.247)

 \blacktriangleright # points in $X = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ in hypercube of side h is:

$$K = \sum_{n=1}^{N} k\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_n}{h}\right) \tag{2.248}$$

▶ Plug this into approximation $p(\mathbf{x}) \approx K/(NV)$, with $V = h^D$:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{h^D} k\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_n}{h}\right)$$
 (2.249)

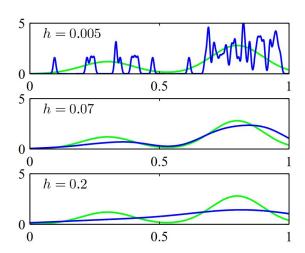
Note: this is a mixture density!

Kernel density estimators

► Smooth kernel density estimates obtained with Gaussian

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{(2\pi h^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_n\|^2}{2h^2}\right\}$$
 (2.250)

► Example with Gaussian kernel for different values of the smoothing parameter *h*

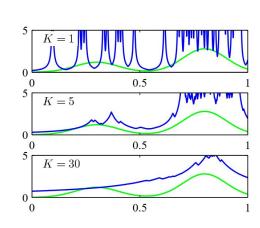


Nearest-neighbor methods: fix K, find V

- Single smoothing parameter for kernel approach is limiting
 - too large: structure is lost in high-density areas
 - too small: noisy estimates in low-density areas
 - we want density-dependent smoothing
- ▶ Nearest Neighbor method also based on local approximation:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \approx K/(NV) \tag{2.246}$$

► For new x, find the volume of the smallest circle centered on x enclosing K points



Nearest-neighbor methods: classification with Bayes rule

- ▶ Density estimates from K-neighborhood with volume V:
 - Marginal density estimate $p(\mathbf{x}) = K/(NV)$
 - ► Class prior esimates: $p(C_k) = N_k/N$
 - ▶ Class-conditional estimate $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k) = K_k/(N_k V)$
 - Posterior class probability from Bayes rule:

$$m(C_n)m(\pi r|C_n)$$

$$p(\mathcal{C}_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{K_k}{K}$$
 (2.256)

- ▶ Classification based on class-counts in K-neighborhood ▶ In limit $N \to \infty$ classification error at most $2 \times$ optimal
- In limit $N \to \infty$ classification error at most $2 \times$ optimal [Cover & Hart, 1967]
- ▶ Example for binary classification, (a) K = 3, (b) K = 1

