

Nonparametric Methods

CAI 5107: Machine Learning

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Parametric vs. Nonparametric methods

- **Parametric:** Data is drawn from one or mixture of probability distributions
 - No such assumption for nonparametric
 - We assume a single model that might be valid over the whole input space
 - However, this assumption might not true.
 - we are interested in one global solution.
- **Nonparametric:** Assume similar inputs have similar outputs
 - Similar instances mean similar things
 - In nonparametric, there is no single global model. Local models are estimated as they needed, affected only by the nearby training instances.

Nonparametric methods

- **Algorithmic framework:** Find similar instances from the training set using a suitable distance measurement and interpolating from them to find the right output.
- Also known as instance-based or memory-based learning algorithms
 - Might need to store instances into lookup table and interpolate from them
 - Memory requirements $O(N)$ where N is the number of instances in the training set.

Nonparametric density estimation

- High density at x : a lot of data points sit near x

- The nonparametric estimator for cumulative density function (CDF), $F(x)$, at point x is

$$\hat{F}(x) = \frac{\#\{x^t \leq x\}}{N}$$

look at all data points x^t
count how many of them $\leq x$
Divided by total # of sample

- The nonparametric estimator for density function (derivative of the cumulative distribution)

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{h} \left[\frac{\#\{x^t \leq x + h\} - \#\{x^t \leq x\}}{N} \right]$$

→ PDF

- h is the length of the interval and instances x^t that fall in this interval are assumed to be "close enough",

points that fall within the interval $[x, x+h]$ are treated as "close enough" to estimate the density at x

Dataset $x^1, x^2, x^3, \dots, x^n$

→ Pick a value x

- What fraction of sample are $\leq x$ → CDF
- How many samples fall near x ? → Density

Histogram estimator

non parametric estimator of the probability density function (PDF)

N: total # samples m: (0, 1, 2) bin number
h: width of the bin

- Given an origin x_0 and a bin width h , the histogram estimator can be defined as

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{\#\{x^t \text{ in the same bin as } x\}}{Nh}$$

Bin 0 $[x_0, x_0 + h]$
Bin 1 $[x_0 + h, x_0 + 2h]$
...

- where the bins are the intervals $[x_0 + mh, x_0 + (m + 1)h]$
- Bin width has the most impact on this estimate
 - large h \rightarrow bins are wide \rightarrow density too smooth \rightarrow underfitting
- Advantage:** Once the bins are computed, histogram estimate does not require to save the training set.
 - memory efficient: can throw away the training set once we've counted how many points fall in each bin

Kernel estimator

- The kernel estimator is defined as

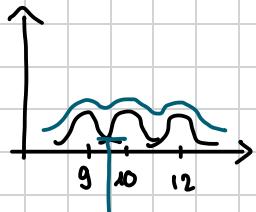
$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Nh} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right)$$

- where $K(\cdot)$ can be defined as the Gaussian kernel

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{u^2}{2}\right]$$

- h is the window width and $K(\cdot)$ determines the shape of the influences
- Note: All the training instances have an effect on the estimate of x . And this effect decreases smoothly as $|x - x^t|$ increases.

Idea : each data point lends some local density



↳ normal distribution for each data point

for ex, we want to find the probability density of a 9.5 lbs fish, it will be
the sum of 3 probability density functions

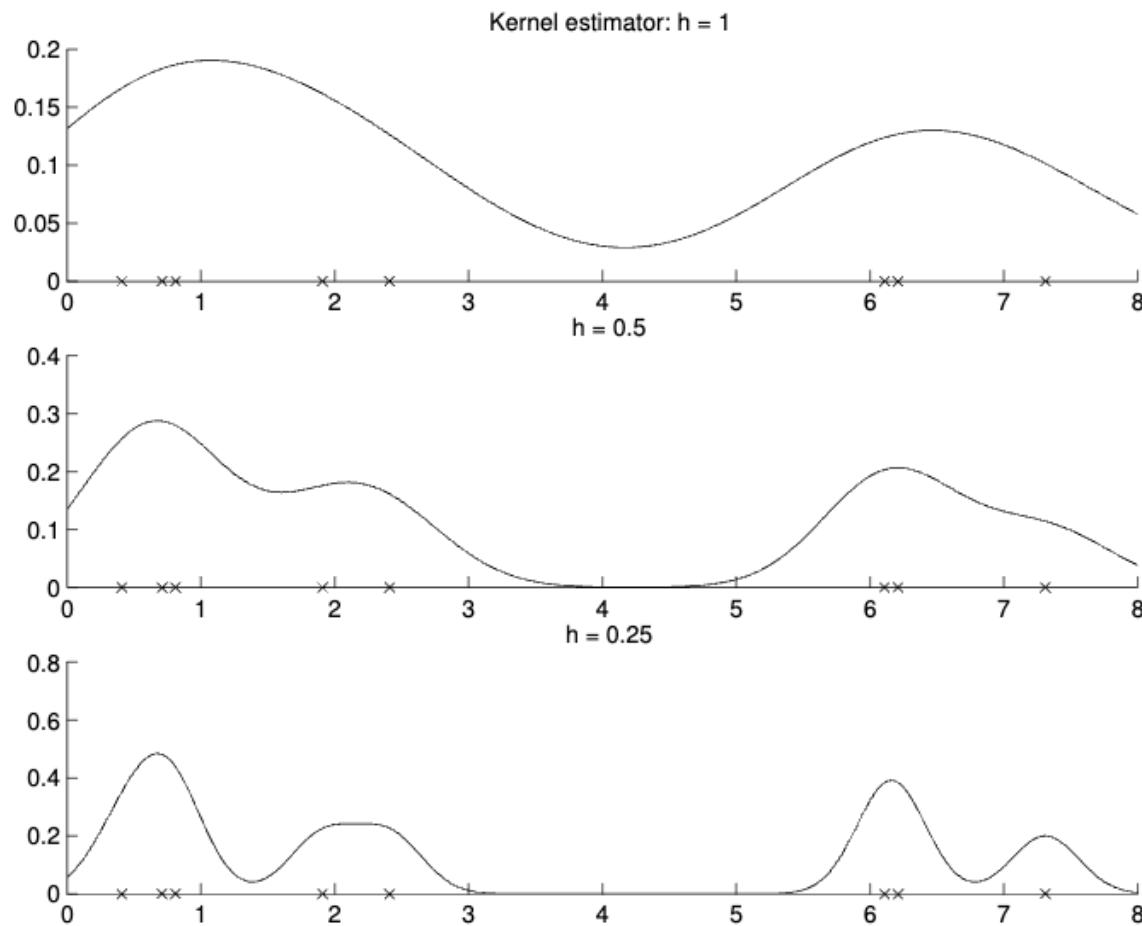
- So we're averaging these three probability densities together to get the overall kernel density estimate (overall probability density estimate) for all these different values in between that we did not explicitly observe.
- For example : What is the probability density of seeing a 9.5 lbs fish ?

$$f_h(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n K_h(x - x_i)$$

↑ ↑ ↗
9.5 each data point in the sample
 ↑ ↗
 iterating over points kernel centered at x
 sum all the individual kernel
 ↳ each of the distribution of the data point

Assume :

- K = normal
- h : bandwidth (narrowness / wideness of each of these individual normal distributions)



over smooth

smooth

over smooth

Figure 8.3 Kernel estimate for various bin lengths.

K-nearest neighbor (KNN) estimator

- K-nn density estimate is defined as

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{k}{2Nd_k(x)}$$

- k : # of nearest neighbors
- $d_k(x)$: distance from x to its k -th closest data point
 - for example, $k=3 \rightarrow$ we will sort the distance then choose the 3rd one.

- where $d_k(x)$ is the distance of the $k - th$ closest sample from x
- Note: K-nn is not a probability density function since it integrates to inf, not 1. (does not sum to 1)
- To get a smoother estimate, one can use a kernel function whose effect decreases with increasing distance

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Nd_k(x)} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{x - x^t}{d_k(x)}\right)$$

give closer points more influence
→ and farther point less
→ It's KDE with an adaptive bandwidth
 \downarrow
 $d_k(x)$

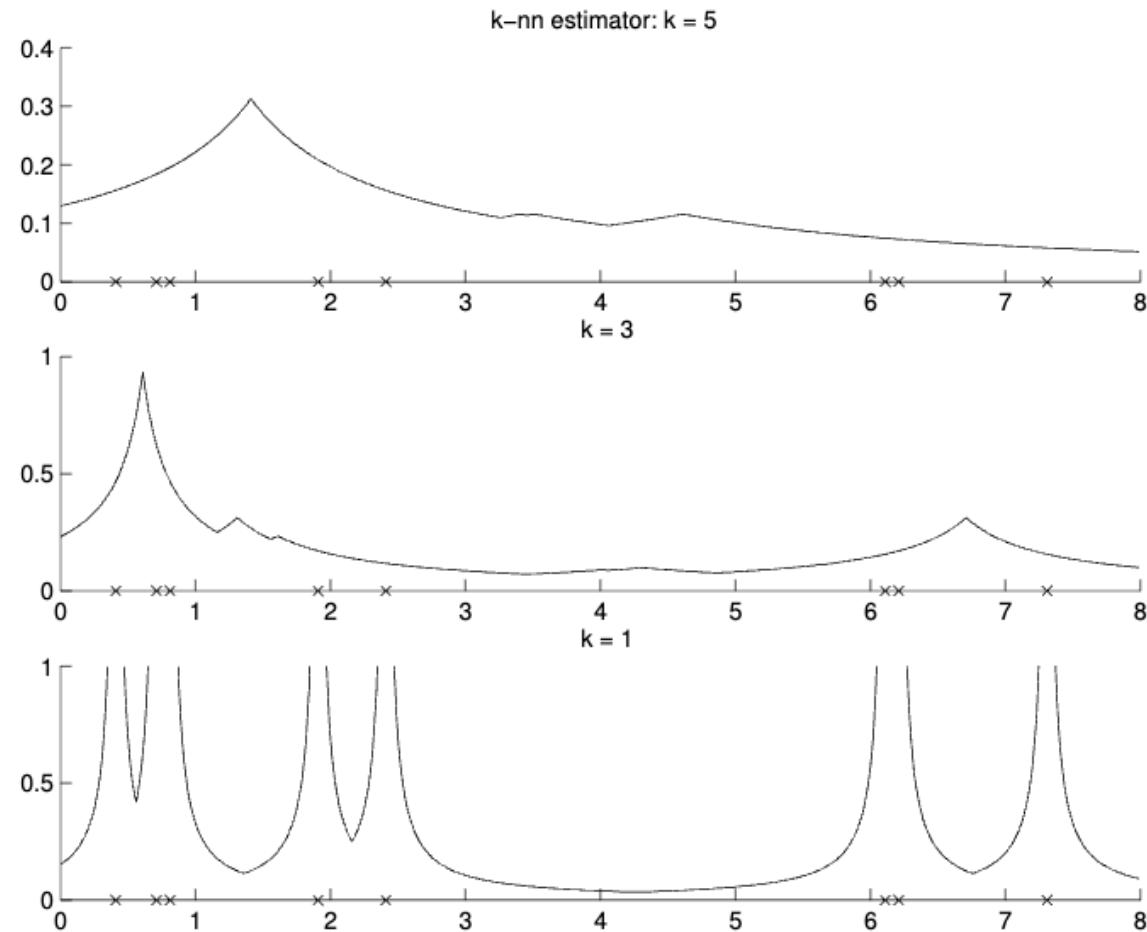


Figure 8.4 k -nearest neighbor estimate for various k values.

Nonparametric classification

- The estimate of class conditional densities, $p(x|C_i)$, can be defined using the kernel estimator

$$\hat{p}(x|C_i) = \frac{1}{N_i h^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{x - x^t}{h}\right) r_i^t$$

$$r_i^t : \text{label} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x^t \in C_i \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

N_i : # of labeled instances belonging to C_i

- Where r_i^t is an indicator function with 1 and 0, N_i is the number of instances belonging to C_i
- The MLE of prior is: $\hat{P}(C_i) = N_i / N$

- So, the discriminant is:

↗ Bayes' rule

$$\begin{aligned} g_i(\mathbf{x}) &= \hat{p}(\mathbf{x}|C_i)\hat{P}(C_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{Nh^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right) r_i^t \end{aligned}$$

- x is assigned to the $i - th$ class with $\max g_i(x)$

K-nn classifier

$$\hat{P}(x|C_i) = \frac{k_i}{N_i V^k(x)}$$

- + k_i : # of neighbors out of k -nearest neighbors that belong to class C_i
- + $V^k(x)$: volume of the d -dimension hypotheses centered at x and of radius $r = \|x - x_k\|$, x_k - k -th nearest neighbor.

- It assigns the input to the class having most examples among the k -neighbors of the input.
- All neighbors have equal vote, and the class having the maximum number of voters among the k neighbors is chosen.

$$\hat{P}(C_i|x) = \frac{\hat{P}(x|C_i) \cdot P(C_i)}{\hat{P}(x)} = \frac{k_i}{k} \quad \rightarrow \text{assign input to the class that has most example among the } k \text{ neighbors of that input.}$$

Nonparametric outlier detection

- Outlier, novelty or anomaly is an instance that is very much different from other instances in the sample.
- Outliers may indicate abnormal behavior of the system.
- **One-class classification:** Since the number of outlier examples are very small in the training set, it can be modeled as one-class or other-class classification.

non parametric case: find instances far away from other instances.

Nonparametric outlier detection

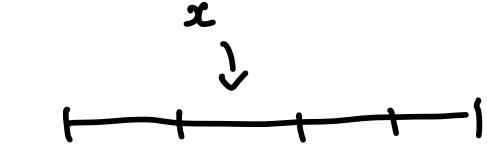
- In nonparametric density estimation, the estimated probability is high where there are many training instances nearby, and the probability decreases as the neighborhood becomes more sparse. + low probability \rightarrow outliers
- **Local outlier factor:** It compares the denseness of the neighborhood of an instance with the average denseness of the neighborhoods of its neighbors.
 \hookrightarrow a point is more isolated, further away from its neighbors

Nonparametric regression: Smoothing models

- Regression is defined as: $r^t = g(x^t) + \epsilon$

$$X = \{x^t, r^t\}_{t=1}^N$$
$$r^t \in \mathbb{R} ; r^t = g(x^t) + \epsilon$$

- In **parametric regression**, we assume that certain order polynomials (with coefficients) will minimize the error on training set. → we have a polynomial of a certain order and we learn the coefficients in a way that we minimize sum of the squared errors
- In **nonparametric**, we assume that similar x has similar g(x) values

- nonparametric regression is also called smoother
- Regressogram new data x . We have bins 
- we check which bin x is in, then average r values of all the data points in that bin
- **Generic formulation:** For given x , our approach is to find the neighborhood of x and average their r values in the neighborhood as the estimation.

- **Regressogram:** $\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^N b(x, x^t) r^t}{\sum_{t=1}^N b(x, x^t)}$
 - sum of values in the bin
 - how many data points in the bin

where

$$b(x, x^t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^t \text{ is the same bin with } x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

rather than splitting into bins from the very beginning . We're gonna take a neighborhood around of the point x , neighborhood of width h

- **Kernel smoother:** $\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_t K\left(\frac{x-x^t}{h}\right) r^t}{\sum_t K\left(\frac{x-x^t}{h}\right)}$ $K(\cdot)$ is Gaussian
 - Note: Kernel smoother gives less weights to the further points.
- **K-nn smoother:** Instead of fixing h , we can fix k , the number of neighbors, adapting the estimate to the density around x .

- Reading materials:
 - Chapter 8.1, 8.2, 8.4, 8.7, 8.8
 - Optional: 8.6