

Lecture 11:

Nonparametric Curve Estimation

Nonparametric Curve Estimation

We'll discuss nonparametric estimation of PDF-s and regression functions referred to as **curve estimation** or **smoothing**.

We saw how to estimate a CDF F , without making any assumptions about it. If one needs to estimate a PDF $f(x)$ or a regression function $r(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = x)$, things are different – we can't estimate them well without assuming their **smoothness**.

The Bias-Variance Tradeoff

The Bias-Variance Tradeoff

Let g denote an unknown function (density / regression). Let \hat{g}_n denote its estimator ($\hat{g}_n(x)$ is a random function, since it depends on the data). We typically use **integrated square error (ISE)** as a

loss $L(g, \hat{g}_n) = \int \left(g(u) - \hat{g}_n(u) \right)^2 du$. The **risk** or **mean**

integrated squared error (MISE) is expectation of it,

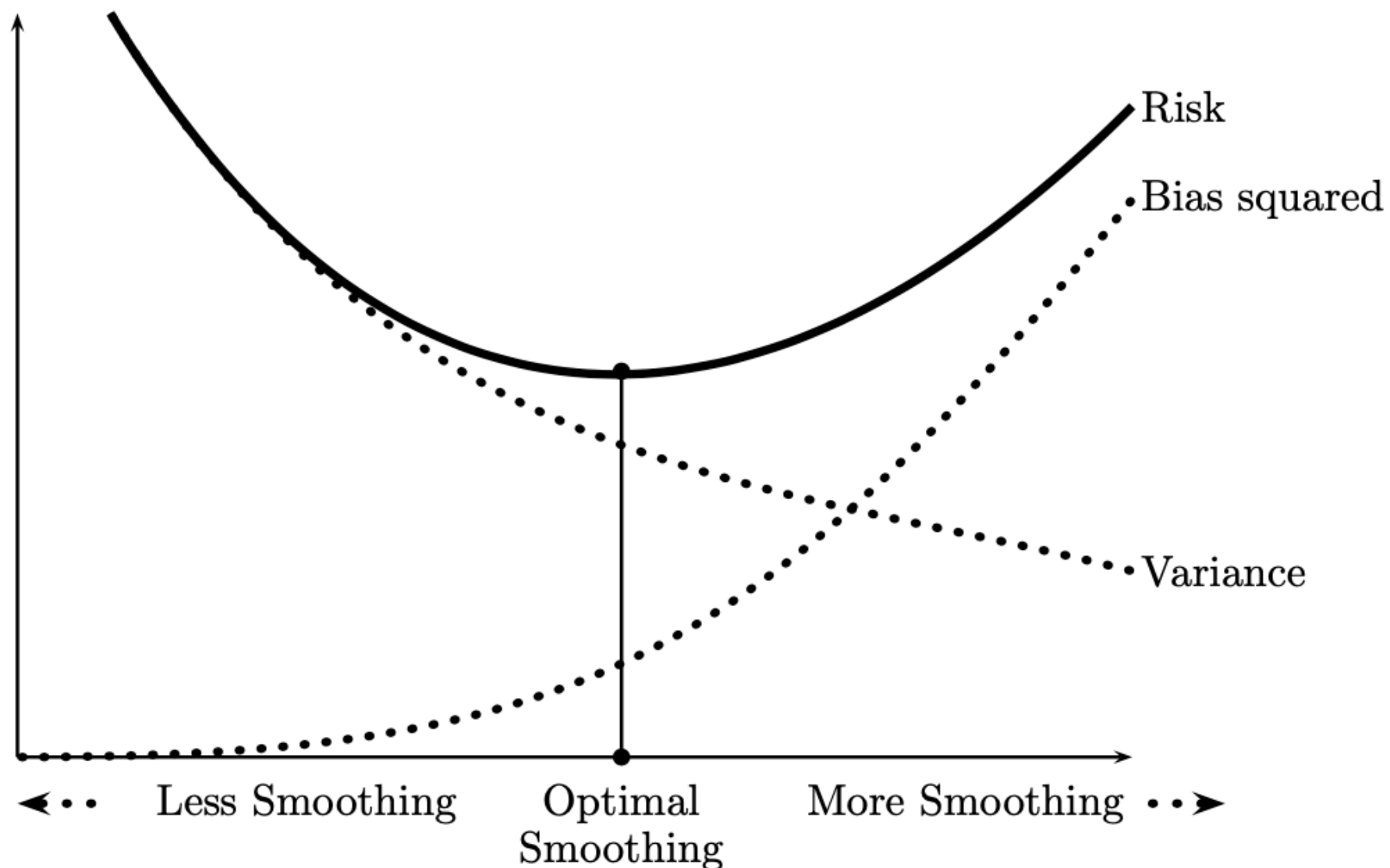
$$R(g, \hat{g}) = \mathbb{E} \left(L(g, \hat{g}) \right).$$

Lemma: Risk can be written as $R(g, \hat{g}_n) = \int b^2(x) dx + \int v(x) dx$

where $b(x) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{g}_n(x)) - g(x)$ is the **bias** of $\hat{g}_n(x)$ at x , and

$v(x) = \mathbb{V} \left(\hat{g}_n(x) \right) = \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\hat{g}_n(x) - \mathbb{E} \hat{g}_n(x) \right)^2 \right]$ is the **variance**.

The Bias-Variance Tradeoff



To summarise, $RISK = BIAS^2 + VARIANCE$. When data is oversmoothed, bias is large and variance is small. When data is undersmoothed, it's the opposite. This is called the **bias-variance tradeoff** – minimizing risk is balancing these two.

Histograms

Histograms

To speak about KDE-s, first recall histograms.

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be IID on $[0,1]$ with density f . Restricting to $[0,1]$ is not crucial, we can always rescale to this interval. Let m be the integer number of **bins**

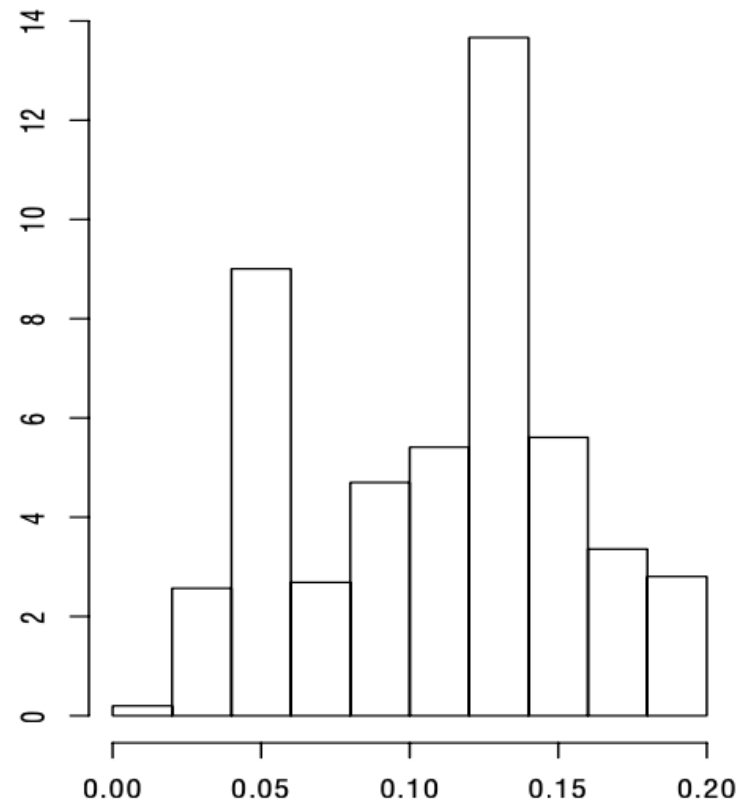
$$B_1 = \left[0, \frac{1}{m}\right), B_2 = \left[\frac{1}{m}, \frac{2}{m}\right), \dots, B_m = \left[\frac{m-1}{m}, 1\right]$$

The **binwidth** $h = 1/m$, and ν_j denoting the # of observations in B_j ,

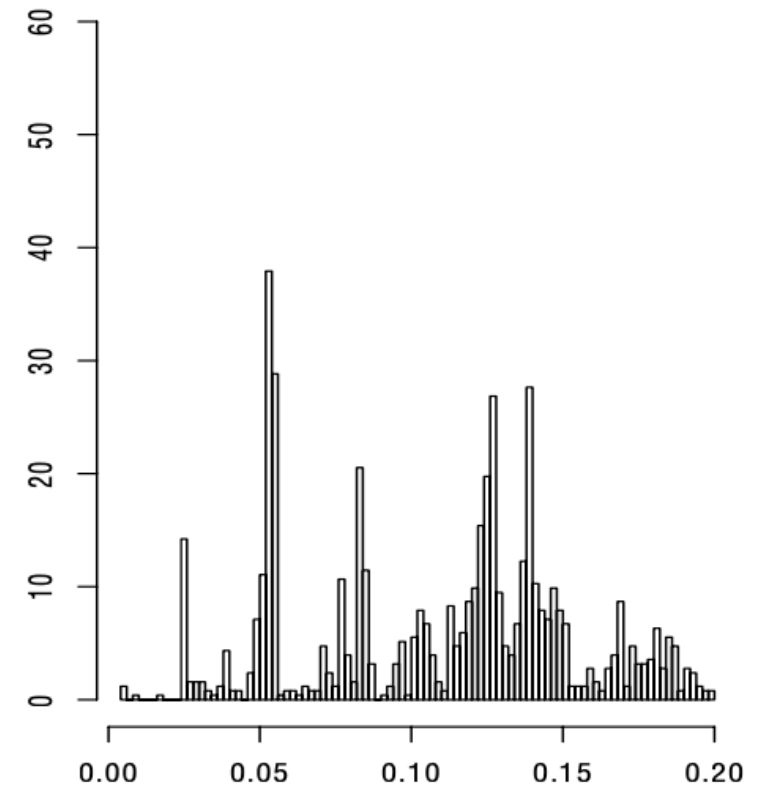
let $\hat{p}_j = \nu_j/n$ and $p_j = \int_{B_j} f(u) du$. The **histogram estimator** is

$$\hat{f}_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\hat{p}_j}{h} I(x \in B_j). \text{ For small } h, \mathbb{E} \hat{f}_n(x) \approx f(x).$$

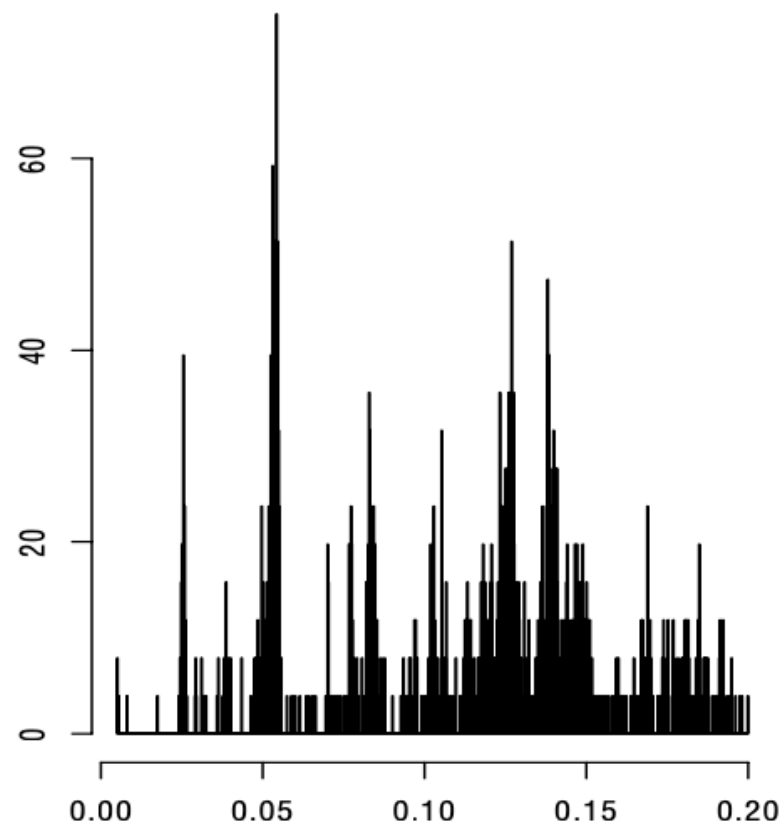
Histograms



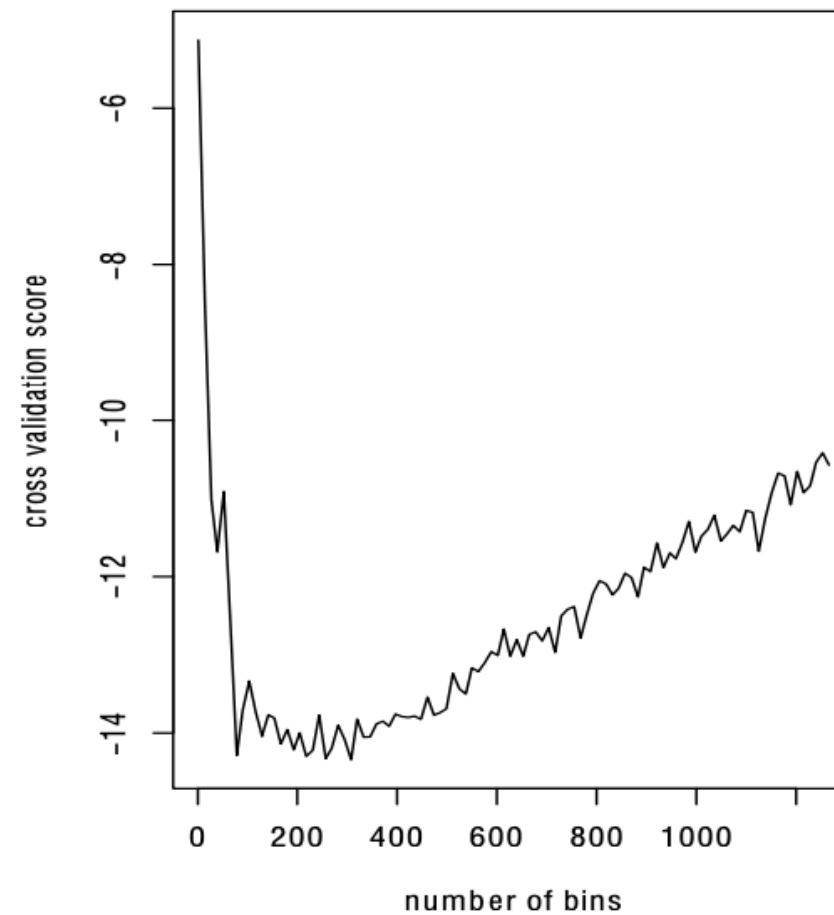
Oversmoothed



Just Right



Undersmoothed



What's this?

Histograms

Theorem: For fixed x and m , let B_j be the bin containing x , then

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{f}_n(x)) = \frac{p_j}{h} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{V}(\hat{f}_n(x)) = \frac{p_j(1-p_j)}{nh^2}$$

Doing Taylor expansion, one can also prove:

Theorem: Assuming $\int (f'(u))^2 du < \infty$, one has

$$R(\hat{f}_n, f) \approx \frac{h^2}{12} \int (f'(u))^2 du + \frac{1}{nh}, \quad \text{which is minimized by value}$$

$$h^* = \frac{1}{n^{1/3}} \left(\frac{6}{\int (f'(u))^2 du} \right)^{1/3}, \quad \text{with which} \quad R(\hat{f}_n, f) \approx \frac{C}{n^{2/3}}$$

Histograms

So with an optimally chosen bin-width, the MISE decreases at rate $n^{-2/3}$. Most parametric estimators converge at rate n^{-1} . This slower rate is the price we pay for being nonparametric. Formula for h^* is interesting, but not practical, since depends on unknown f .

$$\text{Recall the loss } L(h) = \int \hat{f}_n^2(x) dx - 2 \int \hat{f}_n(x) f(x) dx + \int f^2(x) dx,$$

where last term doesn't depend on h . So we minimise first two.

Definition: The **cross-validation estimator of risk** is

$$\hat{J}(h) = \int \left(\hat{f}_n(x) \right)^2 dx - \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{f}_{(-i)}(X_i) \text{ where } \hat{f}_{(-i)} \text{ is the}$$

histogram with i -th observation removed.

Histograms

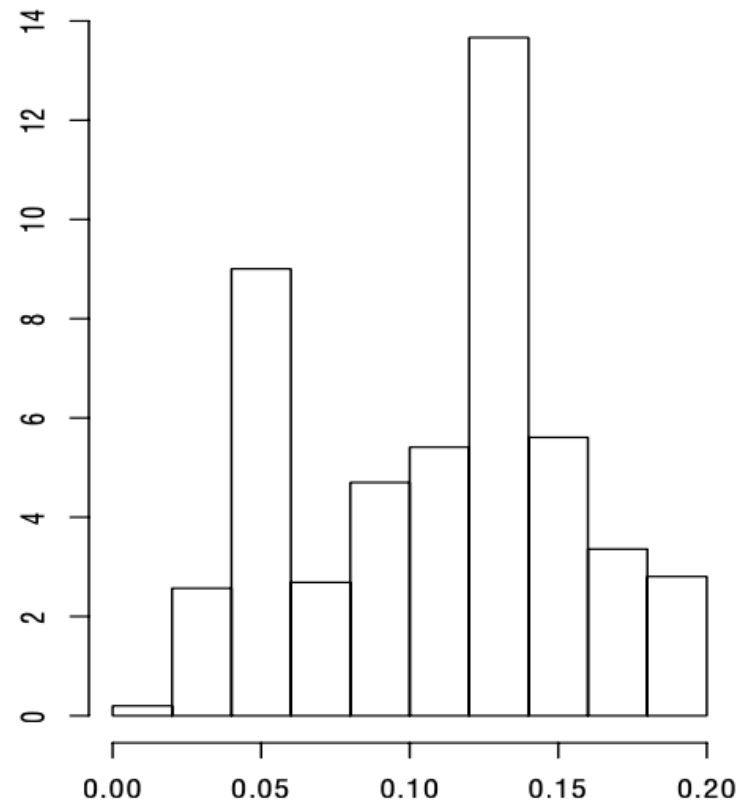
Theorem: That estimator is nearly unbiased: $\mathbb{E}(\hat{J}(x)) \approx \mathbb{E}(J(x))$.

With those $\hat{f}_{(-i)}$ -s, we have to recompute the histogram n times – for all values of h . This is not very practical, and there's a shortcut:

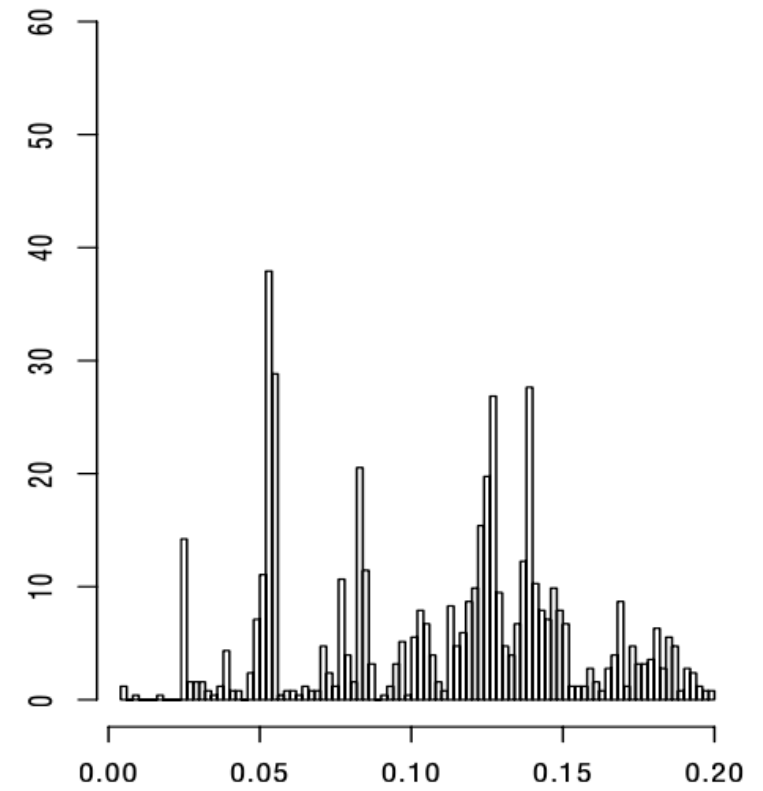
Theorem:
$$\hat{J}(h) = \frac{2}{(n-1)h} - \frac{n+1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{p}_j^2$$

On our exemplar plot, the minimum of cross-validation estimator is quite flat. The “optimal” histogram was constructed using $m = 73$ bins.

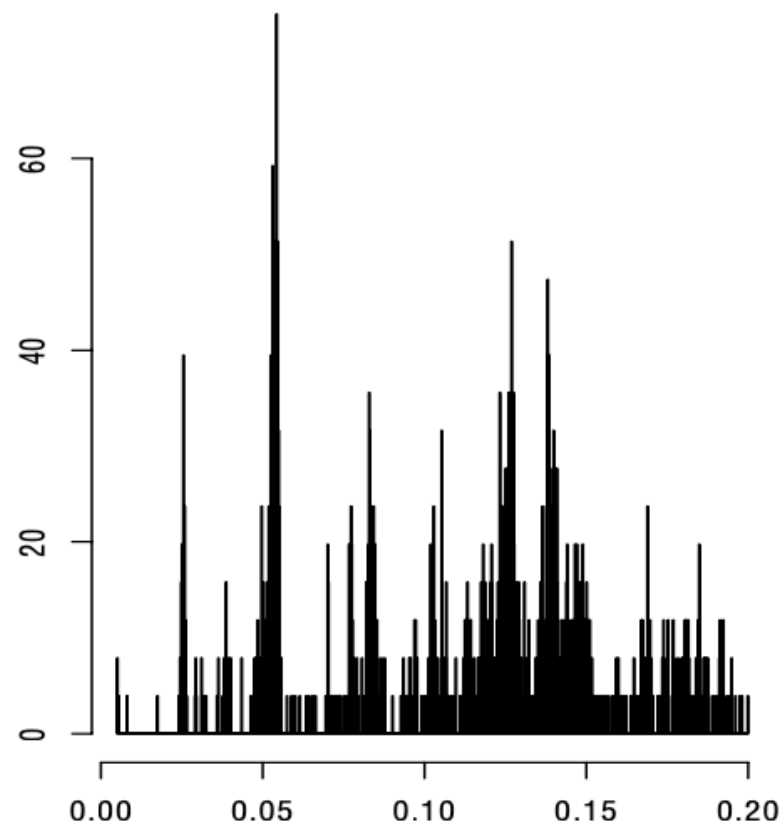
Histograms



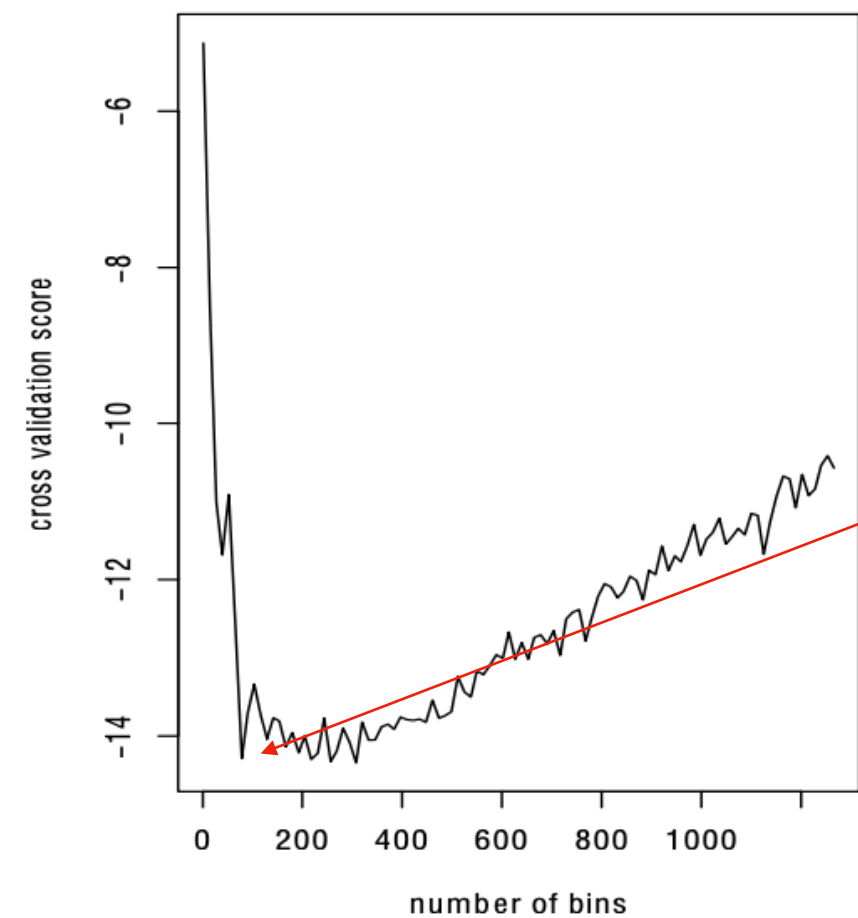
Oversmoothed



Just Right



Undersmoothed



Picked $m=73$

Histograms

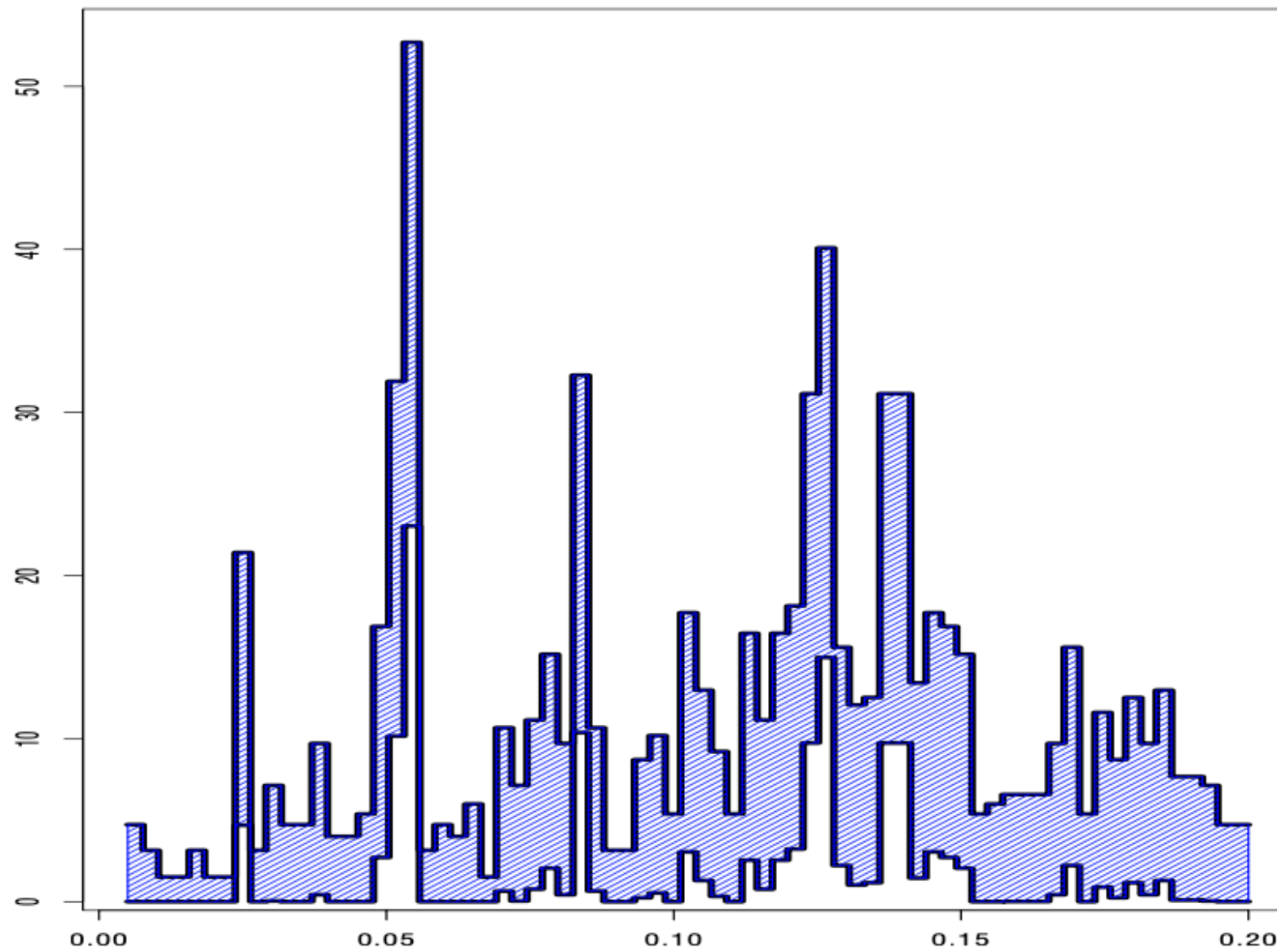
How about confidence intervals?

Theorem: The $(1 - \alpha)$ -confidence interval for a histogram is (assuming $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $m(n) \log(n)/n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$) from

$$\ell_n(x) = \left(\max \left\{ \sqrt{\hat{f}_n(x)} - c, 0 \right\} \right)^2 \text{ -- lower bound, to}$$

$$u_n(x) = \left(\sqrt{\hat{f}_n(x)} + c \right)^2 \text{ -- upper bound.}$$

Histograms



95%-confidence interval for our data

Kernel Density Estimators (KDEs)

Kernel Density Estimators

Histograms are discontinuous. **Kernel density estimators** are smoother and they converge faster to the true density.

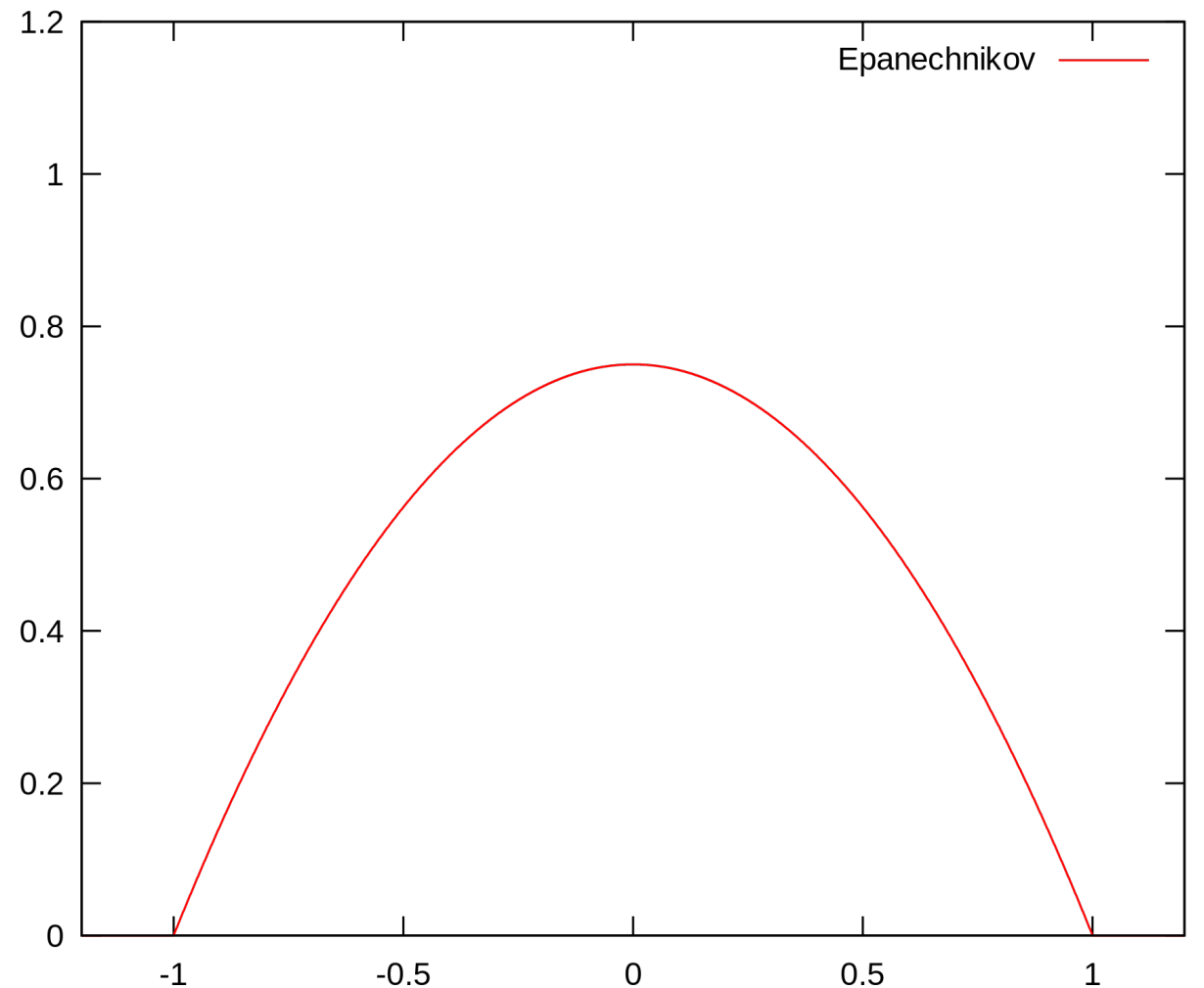
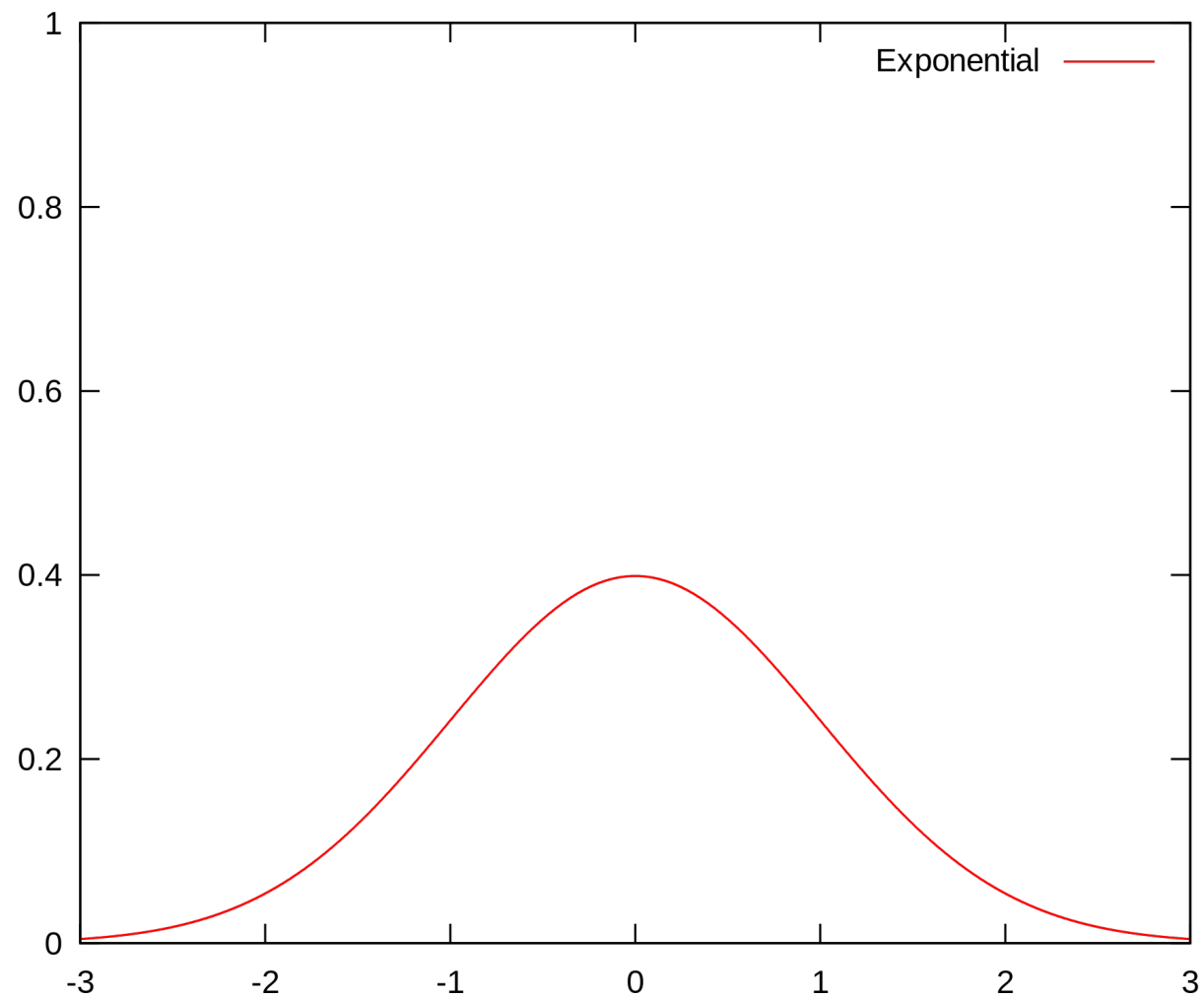
A **kernel** is any smooth function K such that 1) $K(x) \geq 0$,
2) $\int K(x) dx = 1$, 3) $\int xK(x) dx = 0$ 4) $\sigma_K^2 = \int x^2 K(x) dx > 0$.

Two important kernels are Gaussian (normal) $K(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} e^{-x^2/2}$ and **Epanechnikov**

$$K(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{4}(1 - x^2/5)/\sqrt{5}, & |x| < \sqrt{5} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(there are many others, see Kernel page on Wiki)

Kernel Density Estimators



In some sense, Epanechnikov kernel is the best finite kernel

Kernel Density Estimators

Definition: Given a kernel K and a positive number h , called the **bandwidth**, the **kernel density estimator** is

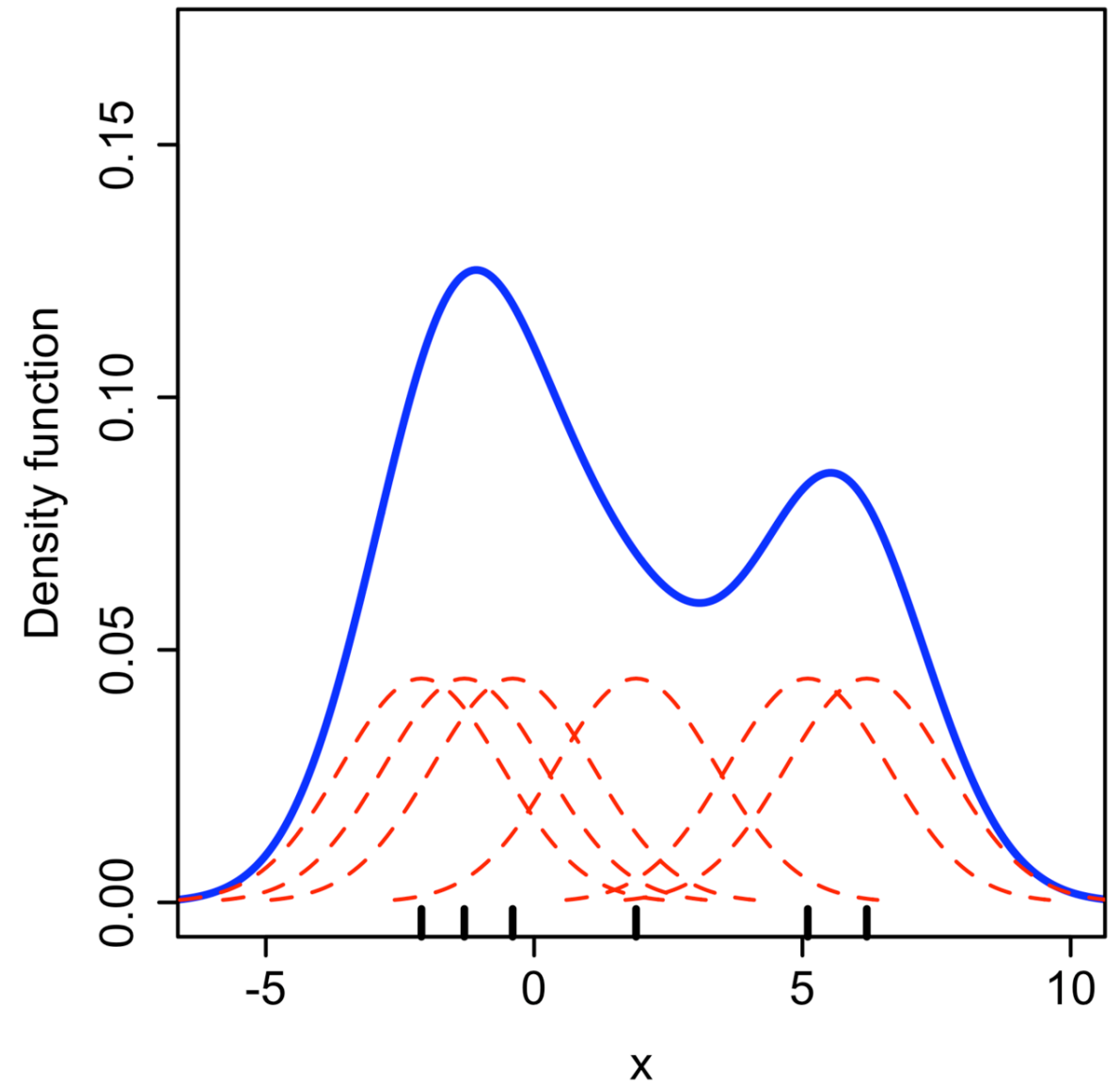
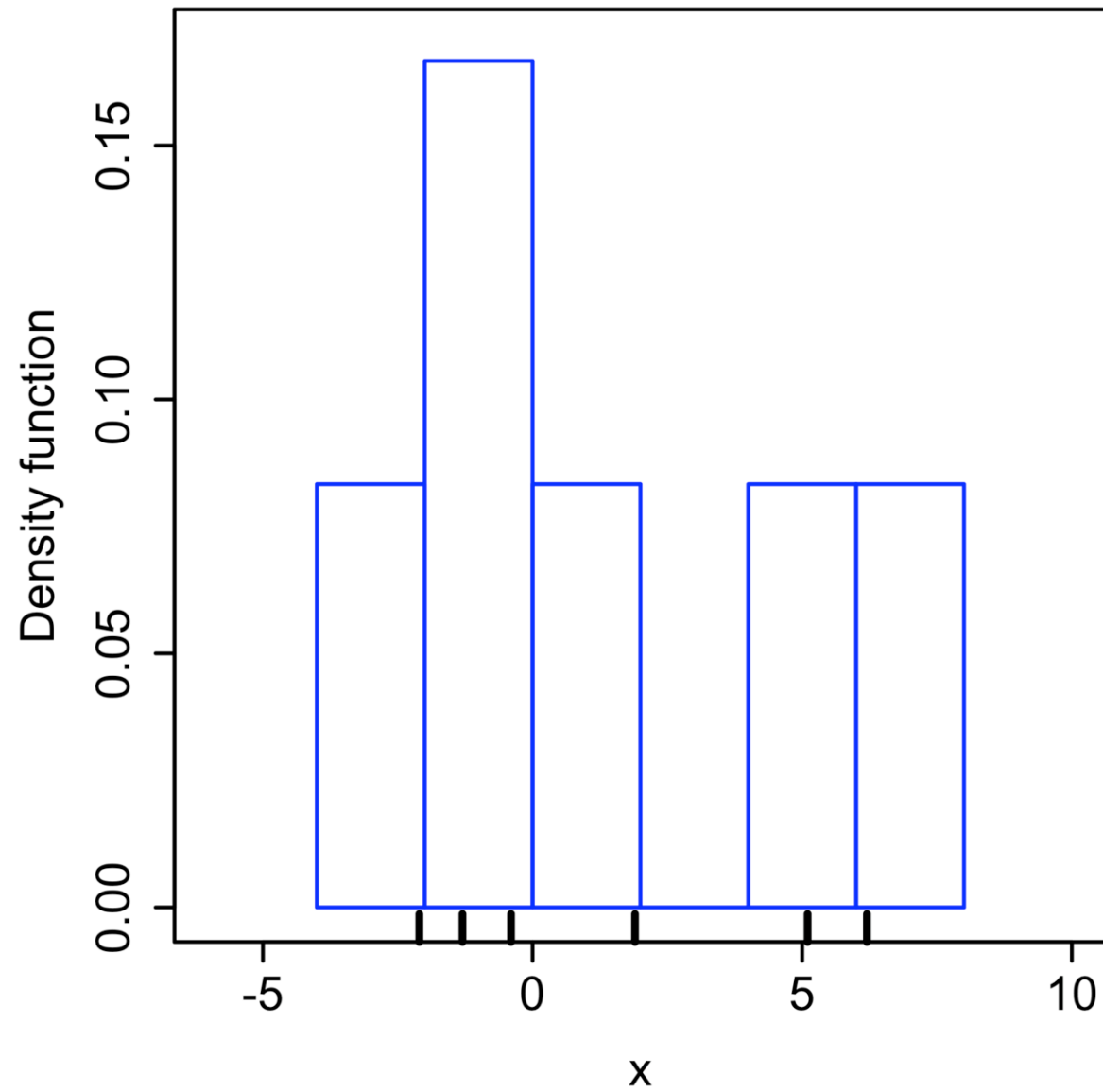
$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h} K \left(\frac{x - X_i}{h} \right)$$

So it puts a smooth lump of mass $1/n$ at each data point X_i .

Bandwidth parameter h controls the amount of smoothing – when $h \rightarrow 0$, we get infinitely-high spikes of zero width at each data point. When $h \rightarrow \infty$, we get uniform density.

Choosing K is arguably not as important as properly choosing h .

Kernel Density Estimators



Kernel Density Estimators

Theorem: Under some weak assumptions on f and K ,

$$R(f, \hat{f}_n) \approx \frac{1}{4} \sigma_K^4 h^4 \int (f''(x))^2 + \frac{\int K^2(x) dx}{nh} \quad \text{where}$$

$$\sigma_K^2 = \int x^2 K(x) dx. \quad \text{Optimal bandwidth } h^* = \frac{c_1^{-2/5} c_2^{1/5} c_3^{-1/5}}{n^{1/5}} \quad \text{where}$$

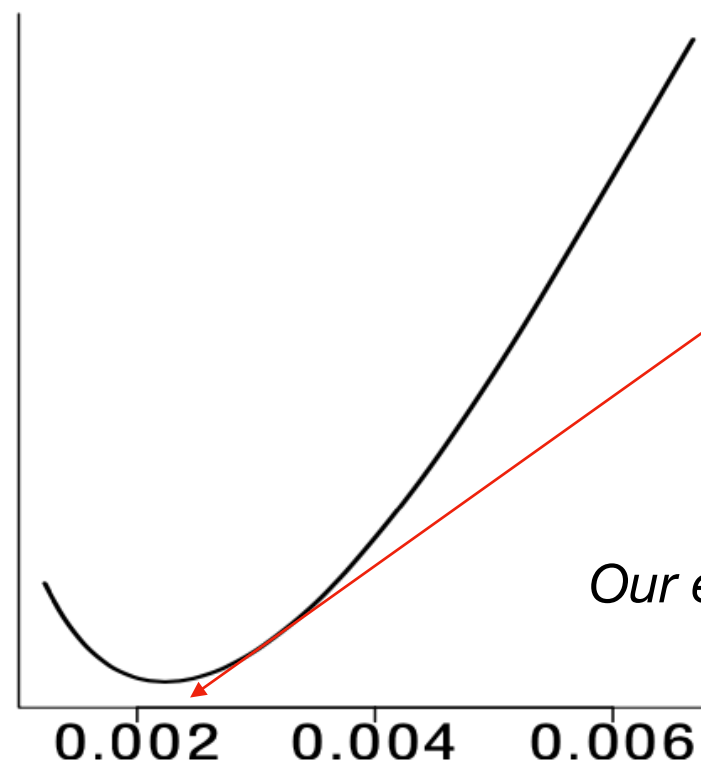
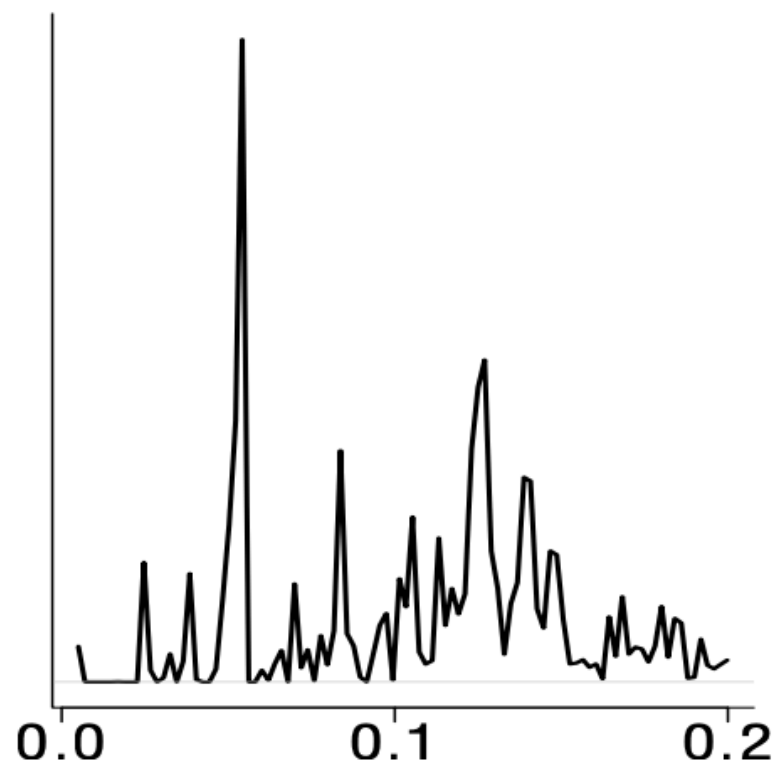
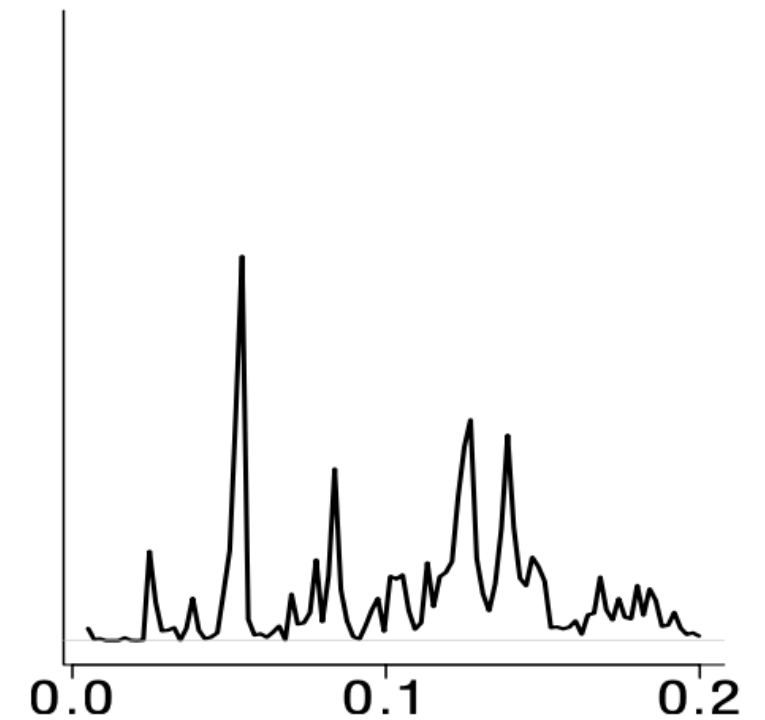
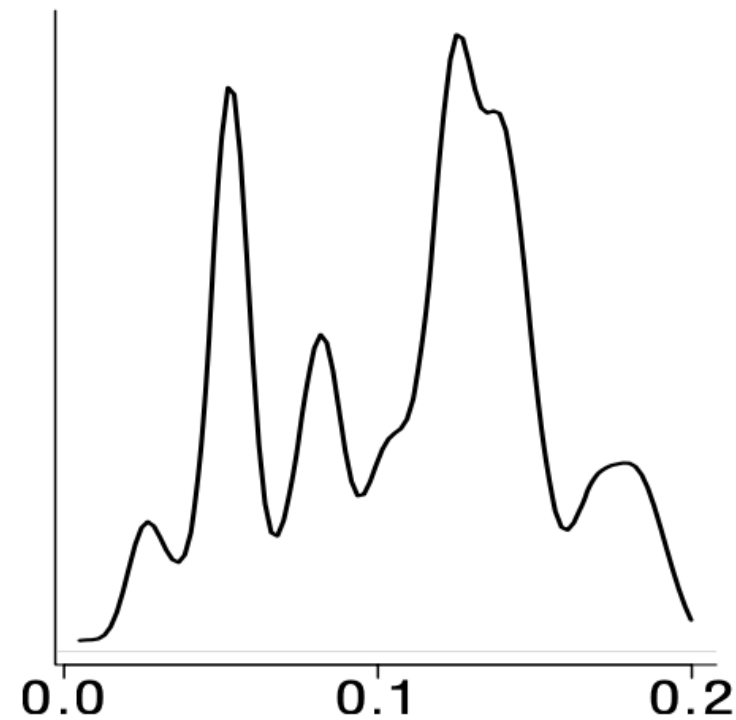
$$c_1 = \int x^2 K(x) dx, \quad c_2 = \int K^2(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad c_3 = \int (f''(x))^2 dx. \quad \text{With}$$

this choice of bandwidth, $R(f, \hat{f}_n) \approx \frac{c_4}{n^{4/5}}$ with some $c_4 > 0$.

So KDEs converge at rate $n^{-4/5}$, while histograms – at slower $n^{-2/3}$.

It can be shown, with weak assumptions, that **no** nonparametric estimator converges faster than $n^{-4/5}$!

Kernel Density Estimators



Just right h

*Optimal-bandwidth KDE may
seem “wiggly”, but that’s ok!
Our eyes are not the best judges here :)*

Kernel Density Estimators

As with histograms, optimally choosing bandwidth = minimizing the risk.

Theorem: For any $h > 0$, $\mathbb{E}(\hat{J}(h)) = \mathbb{E}(J(h))$. Also,

$$\hat{J}(h) \approx \frac{1}{hn^2} \sum_i \sum_j K^* \left(\frac{X_i - X_j}{h} \right) + \frac{2}{nh} K(0) \text{ where}$$

$$K^*(x) = K^{(2)}(x) - 2K(x) \text{ and } K^{(2)}(z) = \int K(z - y)K(y) dy.$$

Particularly, if $K(x) \equiv \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, then $K^{(2)}(x) \equiv \mathcal{N}(0,2)$.

FFT helps computing this!

Kernel Density Estimators

A remarkable (Stone's) **Theorem**: Suppose f is bounded, and \hat{f}_h is the KDE with bandwidth h , h_n being optimal h from cross-validation.

$$\text{Then } \frac{\int \left(f(x) - \hat{f}_{h_n}(x) \right)^2 dx}{\inf_h \int \left(f(x) - \hat{f}_h(x) \right)^2 dx} \xrightarrow{P} 1$$

Kernel Density Estimators

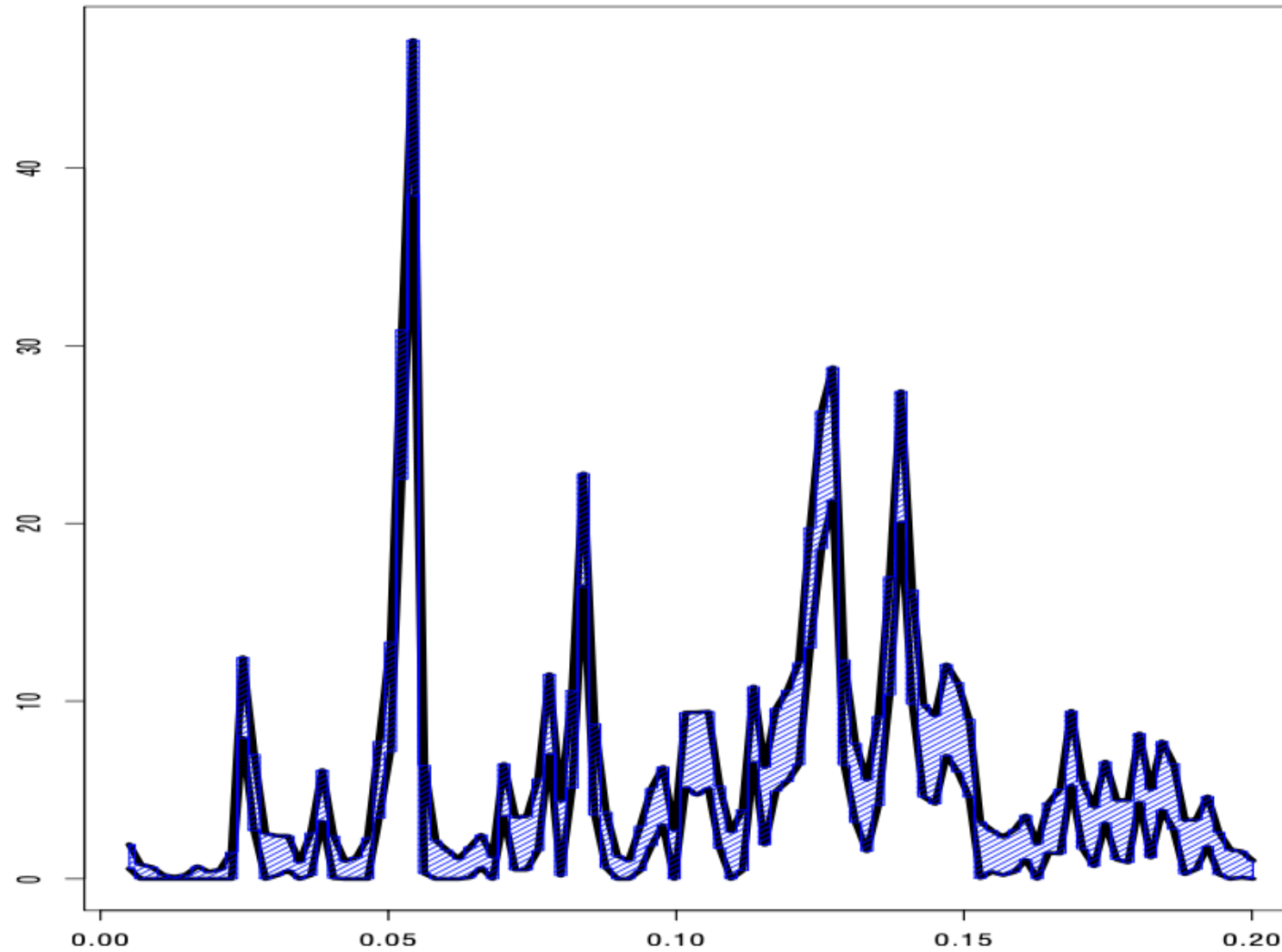
Confidence intervals again!

$$\ell_n(x) = \hat{f}_n(x) - q \operatorname{se}(x), \quad u_n(x) = \hat{f}_n(x) + q \operatorname{se}(x)$$

$$\operatorname{se}(x) = \frac{s(x)}{\sqrt{n}}, \quad s^2(x) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i(x) - \bar{Y}_n(x))^2,$$

$$Y_i(x) = \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x - X_i}{h}\right), \quad q = \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{1 + (1 - \alpha)^{1/m}}{2}\right)$$

Kernel Density Estimators



95%-confidence interval for our data

Kernel Density Estimators

Curse of dimensionality: KDEs can be generalised to arbitrary dimension (all you need is a multivariate version of the kernel).

Optimal bandwidth would be $h \sim n^{-1/(4+d)}$, the risk would be $\sim n^{-4/(4+d)}$ – quickly increases with dimension.

Consider the following (Silverman, 1986) table: sample size required to ensure RMSE less than 0.1 at 0 (density is multivar. normal) with optimal bandwidth selected:

| Dimension | Sample Size |
|-----------|-------------|
| 1 | 4 |
| 2 | 19 |
| 3 | 67 |
| 4 | 223 |
| 5 | 768 |
| 6 | 2790 |
| 7 | 10,700 |
| 8 | 43,700 |
| 9 | 187,000 |
| 10 | 842,000 |