Deep Learning - Foundations and Concepts Chapter 3. Standard Distributions

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Outline

- Discrete Variables
- The Multivariate Gaussian
- Periodic Variables
- The Exponential Family
- 5 Nonparametric Methods

Bernoulli distribution

- Consider a binary random variable $x \in \{0, 1\}$ and a parameter $0 \le \mu \le 1$, such that $p(x = 1) = \mu$ and $p(x = 0) = 1 \mu$.
- Probability distribution: Bern $(x; \mu) = \mu^x (1 \mu)^{1-x}$.
- Expectation: $E(x) = \mu$.
- Variance: $var(x) = \mu(1 \mu)$.



Bernoulli distribution

Model the Bernoulli distribution given observations $\{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$.

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_N; \mu) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mu^{x_n} (1 - \mu)^{1 - x_n}$$

$$\log p(x_1, \dots, x_N; \mu) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n \log \mu + (1 - x_n) \log(1 - \mu))$$

$$= \log \mu \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n + \log(1 - \mu)(N - \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n)$$

$$\mu_{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$

Binomial distribution

- Consider a random variable $m = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$, where x_n are independent random variables obey Bernoulli distribution with parameter μ .
- Probability distribution: $Bin(m; N, \mu) = \binom{N}{m} \mu^m (1 \mu)^{N-m}$.
- Expectation: $E(m) = N\mu$.
- Variance: $var(m) = N\mu(1-\mu)$.



Multinomial distribution

- Consider a random variable $x \in \{e_1, \dots, e_K\}$ and a parameter $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^K$, such that $p(x = e_k) = \mu_k$.
- Probability distribution: $p(x; \mu) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mu_k^{x_k}$.
- Expectation: $E(x) = \mu$.
- Covariance: $cov(x) = diag(\mu_1, ..., \mu_K) \mu \mu^T$.

Multinomial distribution

Model the generalized Bernoulli distribution given observations x^1, \ldots, x^N .

$$p(x^{1},...,x^{N};\mu) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mu_{k}^{x_{k}^{n}}$$
$$\log p(x^{1},...,x^{N};\mu) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} x_{k}^{n} \log \mu_{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (\sum_{n=1}^{N} x_{k}^{n}) \log \mu_{k}$$
$$\mu_{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x^{n}$$

For the last step, we used Lagrange multiplier to take into the constraint $\sum_{k=1}^K \mu_k = 1$.

Multinomial distribution

- Consider a random variable $m=\sum_{n=1}^N x^n$, where x^n are independent random variables obey the generalized Bernoulli distribution with parameter μ .
- Probability distribution: $\operatorname{Mult}(m; N, \mu) = \frac{N!}{\prod_{k=1}^K m_k!} \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{m_k}$.
- Expectation: $E(m) = N\mu$.
- Covariance: $cov(m) = N(diag(\mu_1, ..., \mu_K) \mu \mu^T).$

Definition

For a single variable x, the Gaussian distribution can be written in the form:

$$\mathcal{N}(x;\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})$$

where μ is the mean and σ^2 is the variance. For a D-dimensional vector x, the multivariate Gaussian distribution takes the form:

$$\mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}} (\det \Sigma)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu))$$

where μ is the D-dimensional mean vector, Σ is the $D \times D$ covariance matrix.

Geometry of the Gaussian

Without loss of generality, we assume Σ is symmetric. As a self-adjoint operator, there exists an orthonormal basis (u_1,\ldots,u_D) under which Σ is diagonalized:

$$\operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_D) = U^T \Sigma U$$

where U is the orthogonal matrix whose jth column is u_j . Now let $x-\mu=Uy$, we see that under the new basis, the multivariate Gaussian takes the form:

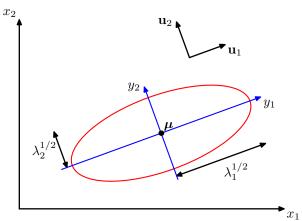
$$\mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}} (\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_D)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} y^T \operatorname{diag}^{-1}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_D) y) |\det U|$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_1} \dots \sqrt{2\pi\lambda_D}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^D \frac{y_d^2}{\lambda_d})$$

$$= \prod_{d=1}^D \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d})$$

Geometry of the Gaussian

Figure: Geometry of the Gaussian



Geometry of the Gaussian

It's easy to see that the multivariate Gaussian is indeed normalized:

$$\int \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \Sigma) dx = \int \prod_{d=1}^{D} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d}) dy$$
$$= \prod_{d=1}^{D} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d}) dy_d$$
$$= 1$$

Expectation and covariance

Similarly, we can calculate the expectation and covariance of the multivariate Gaussian:

$$\begin{split} E(x) &= \int \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \Sigma) x \mathrm{d}x \\ &= \int \prod_{d=1}^{D} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d}) (\mu + Uy) |\det U| \mathrm{d}y \\ &= \mu + U \int \prod_{d=1}^{D} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d}) y \mathrm{d}y \\ &= \mu \end{split}$$

Expectation and covariance

$$E(xx^T) = \int \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \Sigma) x x^T dx$$

$$= \int \prod_{d=1}^D \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d}) (\mu + Uy) (\mu + Uy)^T |\det U| dy$$

$$= \mu \mu^T + U \left(\int \prod_{d=1}^D \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp(-\frac{y_d^2}{2\lambda_d}) y y^T dy\right) U^T$$

$$= \mu \mu^T + U \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_D) U^T = \mu \mu^T + \Sigma$$

$$\operatorname{cov}(x) = E(xx^T) - E(x) E(x^T) = \Sigma$$

The good and the bad about the Gaussian

- The Gaussian distribution arises in many different contexts:
 - The distribution that maximizes the entropy is the Gaussian.
 - Central limit theorem.
- The Gaussian distribution has many important analytical properties.
- For large D, the total number of parameters grows quadratically with D, manipulating and inverting the large matrices can become prohibitive.
- The Gaussian distribution is intrinsically unimodal, and so is unable to provide a good approximation to multimodal distributions.

Problem

Suppose x obeys the Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(x;\mu,\Sigma)$. If we partition x into x_a and x_b , that is $x=\begin{pmatrix} x_a \\ x_b \end{pmatrix}$, what are the expressions for the conditional distribution $p(x_a|x_b)$ and the marginal distribution $p(x_a|x_b)$?

First step, let's also partition the mean and covariance accordingly:

$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_a \\ \mu_b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{aa} & \Sigma_{ab} \\ \Sigma_{ba} & \Sigma_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

Because Σ^{-1} (called the precision matrix) appears frequently, we also partition Σ^{-1} :

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_{aa} & \Lambda_{ab} \\ \Lambda_{ba} & \Lambda_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice that because Σ and Σ^{-1} are symmetric, Σ_{aa} , Σ_{bb} , Λ_{aa} and Λ_{bb} are symmetric as well. Further, we have $\Sigma_{ba}=\Sigma_{ab}^T$ and $\Lambda_{ba}=\Lambda_{ab}^T$.

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Second step, let's complete the square! Notice:

$$(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) = x \Sigma^{-1} x - 2x^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu + \mu^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu$$

For conditional distribution $p(x_a|x_b)$:

$$(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu) = \begin{pmatrix} x_a^T - \mu_a^T & x_b^T - \mu_b^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_{aa} & \Lambda_{ab} \\ \Lambda_{ba} & \Lambda_{bb} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_a - \mu_a \\ x_b - \mu_b \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= x_a^T \Lambda_{aa} x_a - 2x_a^T (\Lambda_{aa} \mu_a - \Lambda_{ab} (x_b - \mu_b)) + \text{const}$$

Compare, we see:

$$\Sigma_{x_{a}|x_{b}}^{-1} = \Lambda_{aa}$$

$$\Sigma_{x_{a}|x_{b}} = \Lambda_{aa}^{-1}$$

$$\Sigma_{x_{a}|x_{b}}^{-1} \mu_{x_{a}|x_{b}} = \Lambda_{aa}\mu_{a} - \Lambda_{ab}(x_{b} - \mu_{b})$$

$$\mu_{x_{a}|x_{b}} = \mu_{a} - \Lambda_{aa}^{-1}\Lambda_{ab}(x_{b} - \mu_{b})$$

For marginal distribution, $p(x_a) = \int p(x_a, x_b) dx_b$. Let's first complete the square for x_b to integrate it out:

$$(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu) = \begin{pmatrix} x_a^T - \mu_a^T & x_b^T - \mu_b^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_{aa} & \Lambda_{ab} \\ \Lambda_{ba} & \Lambda_{bb} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_a - \mu_a \\ x_b - \mu_b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= x_b^T \Lambda_{bb} x_b - 2x_b^T \Lambda_{bb} (\mu_b - \Lambda_{bb}^{-1} \Lambda_{ba} (x_a - \mu_a)) + \cdots$$

$$= x_b^T \Lambda_{bb} x_b - 2x_b^T \Lambda_{bb} m + m^T \Lambda_{bb} m + \cdots$$

$$= (x_b - m)^T \Lambda_{bb} (x_b - m) + \cdots$$

where $m = \mu_b - \Lambda_{bb}^{-1} \Lambda_{ba} (x_a - \mu_a)$. We see that when integrating x_b , the result will be a constant not depending on x_a , although m depends on x_a .

Which means, we can take a look at the terms left in \cdots , and complete the square for x_a to get the mean and the covariance for x_a :

$$\cdots = (x_a - \mu_a)^T (\Lambda_{aa} - \Lambda_{ab}\Lambda_{bb}^{-1}\Lambda_{ba})(x_a - \mu_a)$$

We see that:

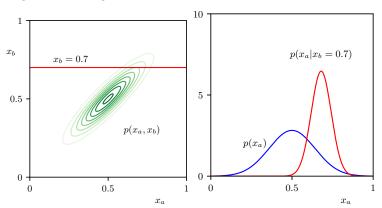
$$\Sigma_{x_a} = (\Lambda_{aa} - \Lambda_{ab}\Lambda_{bb}^{-1}\Lambda_{ba})^{-1}$$
$$\mu_{x_a} = \mu_a$$

Through a rather ugly equation (known as Schur complement), we can simplify the expression for Σ_{x_a} to a much nicer one:

$$\Sigma_{x_a} = \Sigma_{aa}$$



Figure: The marginal distribution and the conditional distribution



Problem

Suppose that we are given a Gaussian marginal distribution p(x) and a Gaussian conditional distribution p(y|x). What are the expressions for the marginal distribution p(y) and the conditional distribution p(x|y)?

To make things easier, we suppose that p(y|x) has a mean that is a linear function of x and a covariance that is independent of x:

$$p(x) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \Lambda^{-1})$$

$$p(y|x) = \mathcal{N}(y; Ax + b, L^{-1})$$

Let's find the joint distribution of p(x,y), then from p(x,y) we can easily get both p(y) and p(x|y):

$$\begin{aligned} &(x-\mu)^T \Lambda(x-\mu) + (y-(Ax+b))^T L(y-(Ax+b)) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda + A^T L A & -A^T L \\ -L A & L \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} - 2 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda \mu - A^T L b \\ L b \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Using the (ugly but useful) Schur complement again, we have:

$$\begin{split} & \Lambda_{x,y} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda + A^T L A & -A^T L \\ -L A & L \end{pmatrix} \\ & \Sigma_{x,y} = \Lambda_{x,y}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda^{-1} & \Lambda^{-1} A^T \\ A \Lambda^{-1} & L^{-1} + A \Lambda^{-1} A^T \end{pmatrix} \\ & \mu_{x,y} = \Sigma_{x,y} \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda \mu - A^T L b \\ L b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ A \mu + b \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

From the joint distribution of p(x, y), we can easily get:

$$\Sigma_{y} = L^{-1} + A\Lambda^{-1}A^{T}$$

$$\mu_{y} = A\mu + b$$

$$\Lambda_{x|y} = \Lambda + A^{T}LA$$

$$\mu_{x|y} = \mu - (\Lambda + A^{T}LA)^{-1}(-A^{T}L)(y - (A\mu + b))$$

$$= (\Lambda + A^{T}LA)^{-1}(A^{T}L(y - b) + \Lambda\mu)$$

Problem

We have N observations of a random variable x: x_1, \ldots, x_N that are drawn independently from a multivariate Gaussian distribution whose mean μ and covariance Σ are unknown. How do we determine these parameters from the data set?

$$L = -\log p(x_1, \dots, x_N; \mu, \Lambda^{-1})$$

$$= \frac{ND}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{N}{2} \log \det \Lambda + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \mu)^T \Lambda (x_n - \mu)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mu} = N(\mu - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n)^T \Lambda \qquad \mu_{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \Lambda} (\Lambda) H = \frac{N}{2} \operatorname{tr} \left(\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \mu)(x_n - \mu)^T - \Lambda^{-1} \right) H \right)$$

$$\Sigma_{ML} = \Lambda_{ML}^{-1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \mu_{ML})(x_n - \mu_{ML})^T$$

A couple of more words regarding $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \Lambda}$. The only thing that needs more explanation is how to differentiate $\log \det X$:

$$\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{1}{h} (\det(X + h\mathbf{e}_{ij}) - \det X) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{1}{h} (\det X + hX_{ij} - \det X) = X_{ij}$$

where X_{ij} is the ij-cofactor of X. Now we can calculate $D \det$ easily:

$$D \det(X)H = \sum_{i,j} X_{ij} h_{ij} = \operatorname{tr}((\operatorname{cof}(X))^T H)$$

where cof(X) is the cofactor matrix of X. From here we have:

$$D\log\det(X)H = \frac{1}{\det X}\operatorname{tr}((\operatorname{cof}X)^T H) = \operatorname{tr}(X^{-1}H)$$

Similarly to univariate Gaussian, we find that Σ_{ML} is biased:

$$E(\mu_{ML}) = \mu$$

$$E(\Sigma_{ML}) = \frac{N-1}{N} \Sigma$$

We can correct this bias by defining a different estimator $\tilde{\Sigma}$ given by:

$$\tilde{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - \mu_{ML})(x_n - \mu_{ML})^T$$

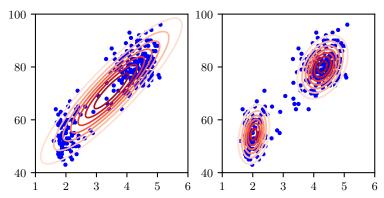
Sequential estimation

Because μ_{ML} only depends on the sum of the data points, it allows us to process the data points one at a time. If we denote by μ_{ML}^N the result for the maximum likelihood estimator of the mean when it is based on N observations:

$$\begin{split} \mu_{ML}^N &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \\ &= \frac{1}{N} ((N-1) \mu_{ML}^{N-1} + x_N) \\ &= \mu_{ML}^{N-1} + \frac{1}{N} (x_N - \mu_{ML}^{N-1}) \end{split}$$

Mixtures of Gaussians

Figure: A single Gaussian fails to capture the two clumps while a linear combination of two Gaussians gives a better representation



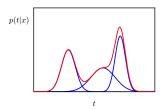
Mixtures of Gaussians

A mixture of Gaussians is a superposition of K Gaussian densities:

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(x; \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

where $0 \le \pi_k \le 1$ and $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$.

Figure: Example of a Gaussian mixture distribution



Periodic variables

Problem

Evaluating the mean of a set of observations $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N\}$ of a periodic variable θ where θ is measured in radians.

Periodic variables

Consider this as a 2-dimensional problem instead of a 1-dimensional one. Each θ_n corresponds to a point x_n on the unit circle, let's find the angle $\bar{\theta}$ for the average of these points \bar{x} :

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_n \\ \sin \theta_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \cos \theta_n \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sin \theta_n \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\tan \bar{\theta} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \sin \theta_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \cos \theta_n}$$

Von Mises distribution

Periodic probability density:

$$p(\theta) \ge 0$$
$$\int_0^{2\pi} p(\theta) d\theta = 1$$
$$p(\theta + 2\pi) = p(\theta)$$

Is there a periodic probability density $p(\theta)$ that gives the result $\tan \bar{\theta} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \sin \theta_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N \cos \theta_n}$ as a maximum likelihood estimator?



Von Mises distribution

Let's consider a 2-dimensional Gaussian conditioning on the unit circle, where the mean $\mu=\begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}=r_0\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta_0 \\ \sin\theta_0 \end{pmatrix}$ and the covariance $\Sigma=\sigma^2I$:

$$p(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2 + (x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
$$p(r, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2 - 2r_0r\cos(\theta - \theta_0) + r_0^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)r$$
$$p(\theta|r = 1) = C \exp\left(\frac{r_0}{\sigma^2}\cos(\theta - \theta_0)\right)$$

Let $m=\frac{r_0}{\sigma^2}$, and normalize the constant C, we have:

$$p(\theta; \theta_0, m) = \frac{1}{2\pi I_0(m)} \exp(m\cos(\theta - \theta_0))$$

Von Mises distribution

Let's consider the maximum likelihood estimator for the parameter θ_0 :

$$L = \log p(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N; \theta_0, m)$$

$$= -N \log(2\pi I_0(m)) + m \sum_{n=1}^N \cos(\theta_n - \theta_0)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_0} = m \sum_{n=1}^N \sin(\theta_n - \theta_0) = m(\cos \theta_0 \sum_{n=1}^N \sin \theta_n - \sin \theta_0 \sum_{n=1}^N \cos \theta_n)$$

We indeed have:

$$\theta_0^{ML} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \sin \theta_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \cos \theta_n}$$



The exponential family of distributions over x, given parameters η , is defined to be the set of distributions of the form:

$$p(x; \eta) = h(x)g(\eta) \exp(\eta^T u(x))$$

The Bernoulli distribution is a member of the exponential family:

$$\operatorname{Bern}(x;\mu) = \mu^{x} (1-\mu)^{1-x}$$

$$= (1-\mu) \exp(x \log \frac{\mu}{1-\mu})$$

$$\eta = \log \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$$

$$g(\eta) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(\eta)}$$

$$u(x) = x$$

$$h(x) = 1$$

The generalized Bernoulli distribution is a member of the exponential family:

$$p(x; \mu) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mu_k^{x_k} = \exp(\sum_{k=1}^{K} x_k \log \mu_k)$$

$$= \exp(\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} x_k \log \mu_k + (1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} x_k) \log(1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \mu_k))$$

$$= (1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \mu_k) \exp(\sum_{k=1}^{K-1} x_k \log \frac{\mu_k}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \mu_k})$$

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By comparison to the standard form, we have:

$$\eta_k = \log \frac{\mu_k}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \mu_k}
g(\eta) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \exp(\eta_k)}
u(x) = x
h(x) = 1$$

The Gaussian distribution is a member of the exponential family:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{N}(x;\mu,\sigma^2) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}x^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}x - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp(-\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}) \exp(\left(-\frac{\frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}}{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}\right)^T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{pmatrix}) \end{split}$$

By comparison to the standard form, we have:

$$\eta = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\mu}{\sigma_1^2} \\ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$g(\eta) = \sqrt{-\frac{\eta_2}{\pi}} \exp(\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2})$$
$$u(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$h(x) = 1$$

Sufficient statistics

Let's estimate the parameter η in the exponential family distribution using the technique of maximum likelihood:

$$L = \log p(x_1, \dots, x_N; \eta)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^N \log(h(x_n)) + N \log(g(\eta)) + \eta^T \sum_{n=1}^N u(x_n)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \eta} = ND \log(g(\eta)) + \sum_{n=1}^N (u(x_n))^T$$

$$-(D \log(g(\eta_{ML})))^T = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N u(x_n)$$

Sufficient statistics

We see the estimation is plausible by looking at the expectation of u(x):

$$g(\eta) \int h(x) \exp(\eta^T u(x)) dx = 1$$

$$Dg(\eta) \int h(x) \exp(\eta^T u(x)) dx + g(\eta) \int h(x) \exp(\eta^T u(x)) (u(x))^T dx = 0$$

$$\frac{Dg(\eta)}{g(\eta)} + E(u(x)^T) = 0$$

$$E(u(x)) = -(D\log(g(\eta)))^T$$

Histograms

- Partition x into distinct bins of width Δ_i .
- Count the number n_i of observations of x falling in bin i.
- $p_i = \frac{n_i}{N\Delta_i}$.
- Δ_i plays the role of a smoothing parameter, best results are obtained for some intermediate value of Δ_i .
- Curse of dimensionality.

Kernel densities

To estimate the probability density of p(x):

- Consider some small region $\mathcal R$ that contains x.
- Suppose we have collected a data set comprising of N observations, and there are K points that lie inside \mathcal{R} .
- ullet And the region ${\mathcal R}$ has volume V.

Then we obtain our density estimate in the form:

$$p(x) = \frac{K}{NV}$$

We can exploit this result in two different ways:

- ullet Fix V and determine K from the data: The kernel approach.
- ullet Fix K and determine V from the data: The K-nearest-neighbor technique.



Kernel densities

Parzen window:

$$k(u) = \begin{cases} 1, & |u_i| \le \frac{1}{2}, 1 \le i \le D \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{h^D} k(\frac{x - x_n}{h})$$

Kernel densities

We can choose any other kernal function k(u) subject to the conditions:

$$k(u) \ge 0$$
$$\int k(u) du = 1$$

For example, we could choose the Gaussian:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{(2\pi h^2)^{\frac{D}{2}}} \exp(-\frac{||x - x_n||^2}{2h^2})$$

where h plays the role of a smoothing parameter.

Nearest-neighbors

To estimate the probability density of p(x):

- ullet Consider a small sphere centered on the point x.
- Allow the radius of the sphere to grow until it contains precisely K
 data points.
- K plays the role of a smoothing parameter.

The K-nearest-neighbor technique can be extended to the problem of classification.