

Density Estimation

Goal: We are interested in estimation of a density function f using observations of random variables Y_1, \dots, Y_n sampled independently from f .

↑
focus on univariate density estimation, but multivariate also exist.

In EDA, estimate of density can be used to assess multimodality, skew, tail behavior, etc.

Useful for summarizing posterior and as a presentation tool.

Also useful in some simulation and MCMC algorithms.

Parametric Solution:

Begin by positing a parametric model $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_{Y|\theta}$

Parameter estimates $\hat{\theta}$ are found (e.g. MLE, EM, M.M, Bayesian)

The resulting density estimate at y is $f_{Y|\theta}(y|\hat{\theta})$.

Danger: Relying on an incorrect model $f_{Y|\theta}$ can lead to serious inferential errors, regardless of estimation strategy.

We will focus on **nonparametric** approaches to density estimation.

↓
assume very little about the form of f .

predominantly use local information to estimate f at a point y .

1 Histograms

→ piecewise constant density estimator.

One familiar density estimator is a histogram. Histograms are produced automatically by most software packages and are used so routinely to visualize densities that we rarely talk about their underlying complexity.

1.1 Motivation

↓ we will remedy this!

Recall the definition of a density function

$$f(y) \equiv \frac{d}{dy} F(y) \equiv \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(y+h) - F(y-h)}{2h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(y+h) - F(y)}{h},$$

where $F(y)$ is the cdf of the random variable Y .

Now, let Y_1, \dots, Y_n be a random sample of size n from the density f .

$$\text{Empirical cdf: } \hat{F}_n(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(Y_i \leq y) = \frac{\#\{Y_i \leq y\}}{n}$$

→ how to estimate f w/ data

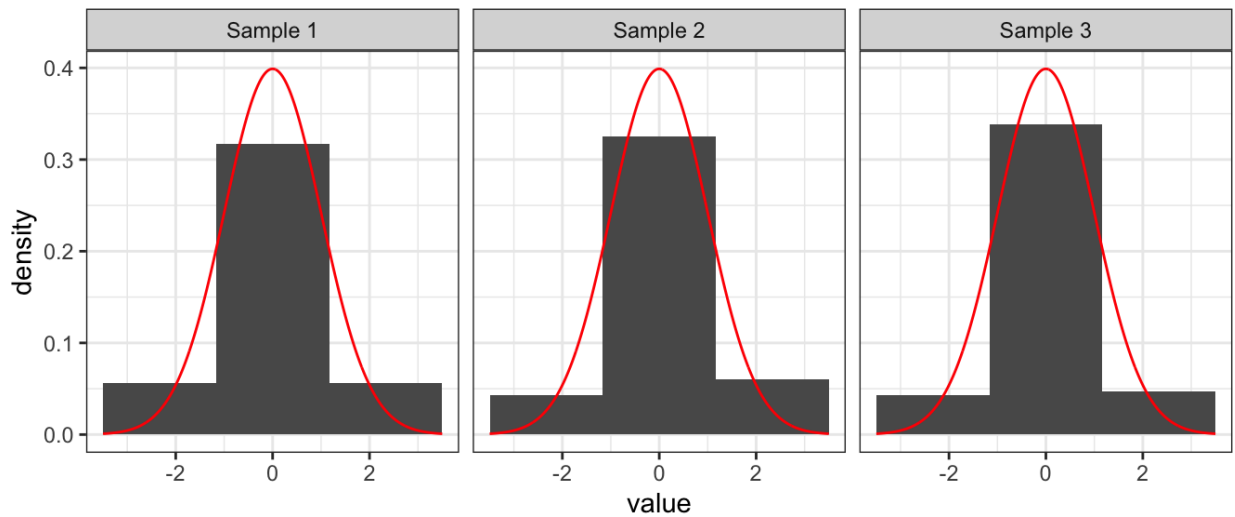
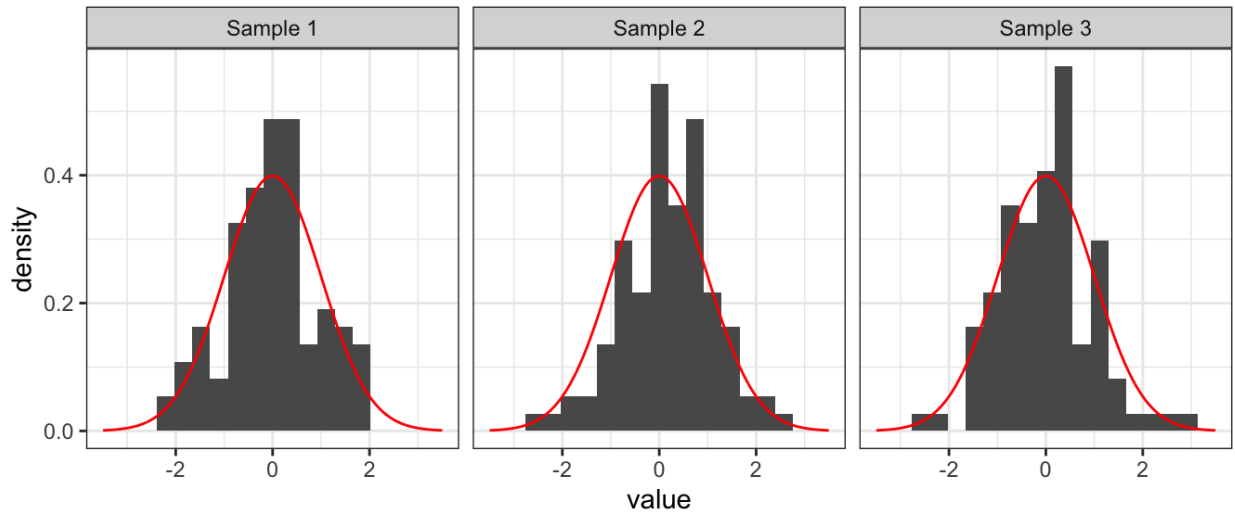
A natural finite-sample analog of $f(y)$ is to divide the support of Y into a set of K equi-sized bins with small width h and replace $F(x)$ with the empirical cdf.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{This leads to } \hat{f}(x) &= \frac{1}{h} \left\{ \hat{F}_n(b_{j+1}) - \hat{F}_n(b_j) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{h} \left\{ \frac{\#\{Y_i \leq b_{j+1}\} - \#\{Y_i \leq b_j\}}{n} \right\} \quad \text{where } [b_j, b_{j+1}] \text{ defines the} \\ & \hspace{15em} \text{boundaries of the } j\text{th bin.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{equivalently, } \hat{f}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n \cdot h} \quad \text{where } n_j = \# \text{ observations in } j\text{th bin} \\ h = b_{j+1} - b_j \text{ (length of bin).}$$

1.2 Bin Width

3 random samples of size 100 taken from $N(0,1)$.



Top row: under smoothing. Histograms vary greatly between samples \Rightarrow high variability, low bias.

Bottom row: oversmoothing. Histograms are stable, but don't follow the density very well \Rightarrow low variability, high bias.

1.3 Measures of Performance

Squared Error

$$SE_x(\hat{f}(y)) = [\hat{f}_x(y) - f(y)]^2$$

local: at a point y

depends on realization y_1, \dots, y_n (through \hat{f}).

Mean Squared Error

$$MSE(\hat{f}(y)) = E_f [\hat{f}(y) - f(y)]^2 = \text{Var}(\hat{f}(y)) + [\text{bias}(\hat{f}(y))]^2$$

local at y

but now describes a property of the dsn (mean) of error.

Integrated Squared Error

$$ISE = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\hat{f}(u) - f(u)]^2 du$$

No longer local

depends on realization.

Mean Integrated Squared Error

$$MISE = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} MSE(\hat{f}(u)) du = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \text{Var}(\hat{f}(u)) du + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\text{bias}(\hat{f}(u))]^2 du.$$

Not local

describes property of dsn of error.

Of course these are all theoretical because we have to know f to calculate \hat{f} ↙ this is what we are estimating!

↳ useful for discussing properties of \hat{f}

1.4 Optimal Binwidth

$\hat{f}(y) = \frac{n \cdot p_j}{n \cdot h}$ for $y \in [b_j, b_{j+1}]$ and $h = b_{j+1} - b_j$.
 = count of points n $(b_j, b_{j+1}]$

We will investigate bias and variance of \hat{f} pointwise, because

$MSE(y) = (\text{bias}(\hat{f}(y)))^2 + \text{Var} \hat{f}(y)$.

$n_j \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p_j)$, where $p_j = P(b_j < Y \leq b_{j+1}) = \int_{b_j}^{b_{j+1}} f(y) dy$ (if density exists)

$\Rightarrow E[\hat{f}(y)] = \frac{n \cdot p_j}{n \cdot h} = \frac{p_j}{h} \Rightarrow \text{bias}(\hat{f}(y)) = \frac{p_j}{h} - f(y)$

$\text{Var}[\hat{f}(y)] = \frac{1}{n^2 h^2} n p_j (1 - p_j) = \frac{1}{n h^2} p_j (1 - p_j)$

Assumption: Let's suppose $f(y)$ is Lipschitz continuous over the interval $B_j = [b_j, b_{j+1}]$, i.e. \exists a constant γ_j s.t. $|f(x) - f(y)| < \gamma_j |x - y| \forall x, y \in B_j$.

Then by MVT, $p_j = \int_{B_j} f(y) dy = h f(\xi_j)$ for some $\xi_j \in B_j$.

$\Rightarrow \text{Var}[\hat{f}(y)] = \frac{p_j(1-p_j)}{n h^2} \leq \frac{p_j}{n h^2} = \frac{f(\xi_j)}{n h}$
 as $h \rightarrow 0$, increases
 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, decreases.
 for some $\xi_j \in B_j$.

and $|\text{Bias} \hat{f}(y)| = \left| \frac{p_j}{h} - f(y) \right| = |f(\xi_j) - f(y)| \leq \gamma_j |\xi_j - y| \leq \gamma_j h$
 decreases as $h \rightarrow 0$,
 unaffected by n .

So if f is Lipschitz continuous, $MSE(\hat{f}(y)) = (\text{bias} \hat{f}(y))^2 + \text{Var} \hat{f}(y) \leq \gamma_j^2 h^2 + \frac{f(\xi_j)}{n h} \equiv M$.

\Rightarrow If as $n \rightarrow \infty, h \rightarrow 0$ and $n h \rightarrow \infty$ then $\hat{f}(y)$ is mean square consistent ($\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} MSE \hat{f}(y) = 0$).

optimal bin width based on MSE

$\frac{\partial M}{\partial h} = -\frac{f(\xi_j)}{h^2} + 2\gamma_j^2 h \stackrel{\text{set}}{=} 0$

$2\gamma_j^2 h^3 = \frac{f(\xi_j)}{n} \Rightarrow h = \left[\frac{f(\xi_j)}{2\gamma_j^2 n} \right]^{1/3} \Rightarrow$ optimal bin width decreases at a rate proportional to $n^{-1/3}$.

optimal $MSE[\hat{f}(x)] = \frac{f(\xi_j)}{n [2\gamma_j^2 n]^{2/3}} + \gamma_j^2 (2\gamma_j^2 n)^{2/3} = K n^{-2/3}$. MSE is not rate n^{-1} (parametric estimation), but instead $n^{-2/3}$ cost of being non-parametric.

Global histogram error: Consider integrated bias + variance separately.

$IV = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \text{Var} \hat{f}(y) dy = \sum_j \int_{B_j} \text{Var} \hat{f}(y) dy = \sum_j \int_{B_j} \frac{p_j(1-p_j)}{n h^2} dy = \sum_j \frac{p_j(1-p_j)}{n h} = \frac{1}{n h} \left[\sum_j p_j - \sum_j p_j^2 \right]$
 "roughness" = 1
 $\sum_j p_j = 1$
 $\sum_j p_j^2 \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} \sum_j f(\xi_j)^2 h^2 = h \sum_j f(\xi_j)^2 = h \int f^2(y) dy + o(h)$

So, $IV = \frac{1}{n h} (1 - h \int f^2(y) dy) + h o(1) = \frac{1}{n h} - \frac{R(f)}{n} + o(n^{-1})$ where $R(f) := \int f^2(y) dy$

Consider a typical bin $B_0 = [0, h]$.

The bin probability $p_0 = \int_0^h f(t) dt = \int_0^h [f(x) + (t-x)f'(x) + \frac{(t-x)^2}{2} f''(x) + \dots] dt$
 $= \left[t f(x) + \frac{(t-x)^2}{2} f'(x) + \frac{(t-x)^3}{2 \cdot 3} f''(x) + \dots \right]_0^h$
 $= h f(x) + \left[\frac{(h-x)^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2} \right] f'(x) + o(h^3) = h f(x) + h \left(\frac{h}{2} - x \right) f'(x) + o(h^3)$.

\Rightarrow bias at a point $x \in B_0$ is $\text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x)) = \frac{p_0}{h} - f(x) = \left(\frac{h}{2} - x \right) f'(x) + o(h^2)$.

$IS_{B_0} \approx \int_{B_0} \left(\frac{h}{2} - x \right)^2 f'(x)^2 dx = \int_{B_0} f'(y_0)^2 \int_0^h \left(\frac{h}{2} - x \right)^2 dx = \frac{h^3}{12} [f'(y_0)]^2$
 generalized MVT

Integrated squared bias for bin B_0

Total Integrated squared bias:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ISB} &\approx \frac{h^3}{12} \sum_{\text{all } j} [f'(y_j)]^2 = \frac{h^2}{12} \sum_{\text{all } j} [f'(y_j)]^2 h \\ &= \frac{h^2}{12} \left[\int [f'(x)]^2 dx + o(1) \right] \\ &= \frac{h^2}{12} \underbrace{\int [f'(x)]^2 dx}_{R(f')} + o(h^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{MISE} = \text{IV} + \text{ISB} &= \frac{1}{nh} - \frac{R(f)}{n} + o(n^{-1}) + \frac{1}{12} h^2 R(f') + o(h^2) \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{nh} + \frac{h^2 R(f')}{12}}_{\text{AMISE}} + o(n^{-1}) + o(h^2) \\ &\quad \text{"asymptotic"} \end{aligned}$$

narrower bins give an estimator that is less biased but more variable. As $h \rightarrow 0$, $\hat{f} \rightarrow$ set of spikes at each observation (D bias).

The minimizer of AMISE is $h_0 = \left[\frac{6}{R(f')} \right]^{1/3} n^{-1/3}$

and minimum AMISE is $\text{AMISE}_0 = \left[\frac{9R(f')}{16} \right]^{1/3} n^{-2/3}$.

The roughness of the underlying density, as measured by $R(f')$ determines the optimal level of smoothing and the accuracy of the histogram estimate.

Densities w/ few bumps (smaller $R(f')$) and require wider bins

Bumpy densities (larger $R(f')$) require smaller bins.

We cannot find the optimal binwidth without known the density f itself.

this is
what we are estimating!!

Simple (plug-in) approach: Assume f is a $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$h_0 = 3.49 \underbrace{\sigma}_w n^{-1/3}$$

↑
could use sample st. dev or interquartile range to estimate

For non-normal data, multiple modes inflate $\hat{\sigma}^2 \Rightarrow$ Gaussian based histogram will be oversmoothed.

No theoretical justification, just something we can do and often passes the "eye test".

"cross-validation"

Data driven approach:

$$ISE = \int [f(u) - \hat{f}(u)]^2 du$$

$$= R(f) + R(\hat{f}) - 2 \int \hat{f}(u) f(u) du.$$

irrelevant
for choosing
 h

Computed in
closed form

This is not wrt to data sample
we have

$$- 2 \int \hat{f}(u) f(u) du = -2 E[\hat{f}(u)], \quad u \sim f$$

2 Frequency Polygon

The histogram is simple, useful and piecewise constant.

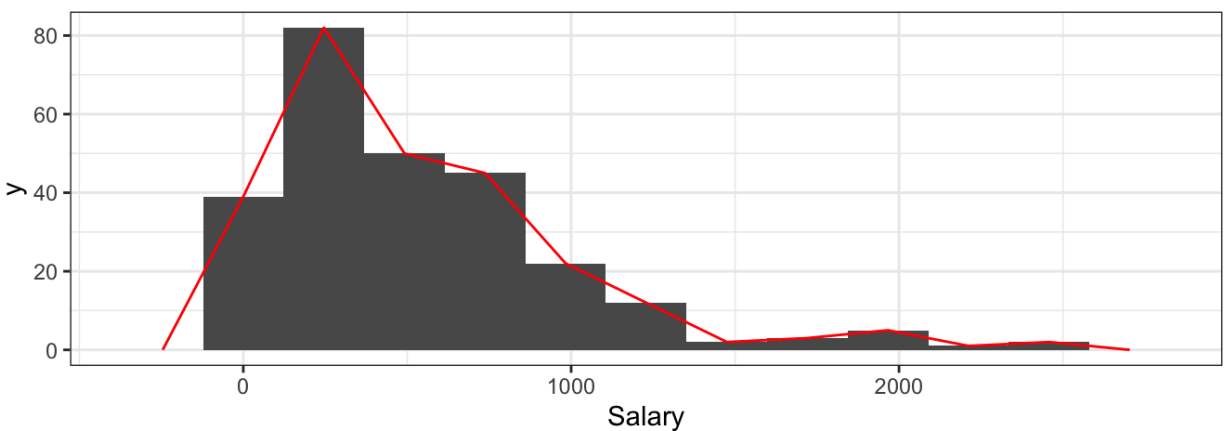
```
library(ISLR)

# optimal h based on normal method
h_0 <- 3.491 * sd(Hitters$Salary, na.rm = TRUE) *
  sum(!is.na(Hitters$Salary))(-1/3)

## original histogram with optimal h
ggplot(Hitters) +
  geom_histogram(aes(Salary), binwidth = h_0) -> p

## get values to build freq polygon
vals <- ggplot_build(p)$data[[1]]
poly_dat <- data.frame(x = c(vals$x[1] - h_0,
  vals$x, vals$x[nrow(vals)] + h_0),
  y = c(0, vals$y, 0))

## plot freq polygon
p + geom_line(aes(x, y), data = poly_dat, colour = "red")
```



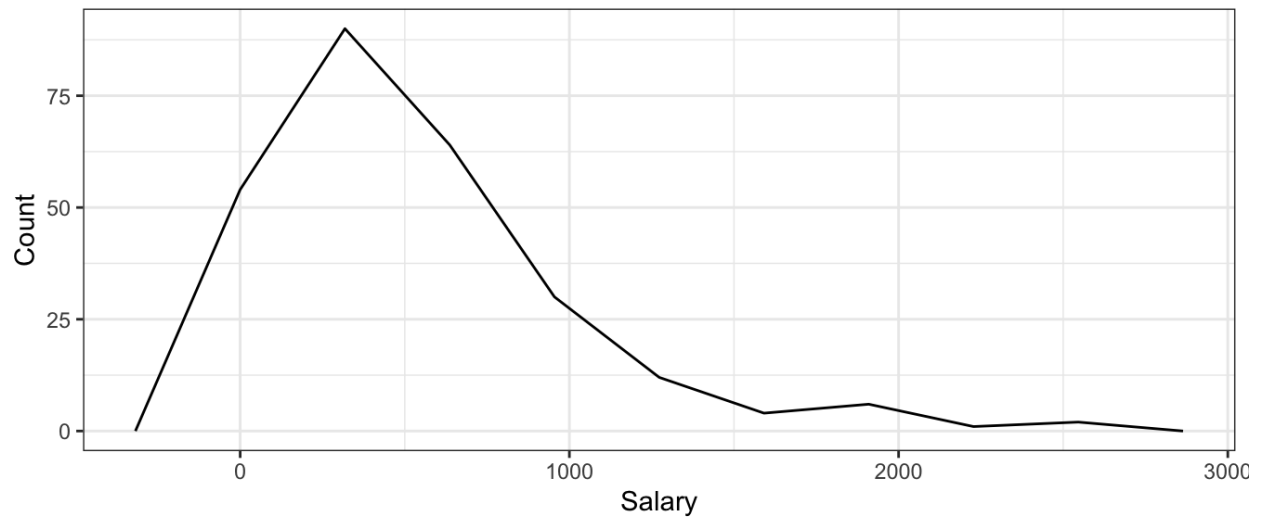
Let b_1, \dots, b_{K+1} represent bin edges of bins with width h and n_1, \dots, n_K be the number of observations falling into the bins. Let c_0, \dots, c_{k+1} be the midpoints of the bin interval.

The frequency polygon is defined as

MISE

AMISE

Gaussian rule for binwidth



In practice, a simple way to construct locally varying binwidth histograms is by transforming the data to a different scale and then smoothing the transformed data. The final estimate is formed by simply transforming the constructed bin edges $\{b_j\}$ back to the original scale.

