

# Chap8 非参数密度估计技术

参考:王星2009《非参数统计》  
清华大学出版社

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# 基本概念

- 想一想：什么是分布密度？分布密度有什么用？

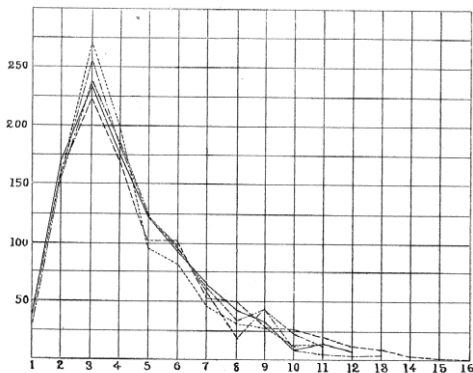


FIG. 2. — SHOWING FIVE GROUPS, OF ONE THOUSAND WORDS EACH, FROM 'OLIVER TWIST.'



色泽不均衡可能是催熟西瓜



**Zipf齐普夫定律:**在自然语言的语料库里，一个单词出现的频率与它在频率表里的排名成反比

分布密度和一个随机变量取值分布的均衡性有关系，不均衡常常是世界的常态，语言学中重要的词一定被使用的频次高、食品安全监测中的分布异常可能是风险的一个标志？

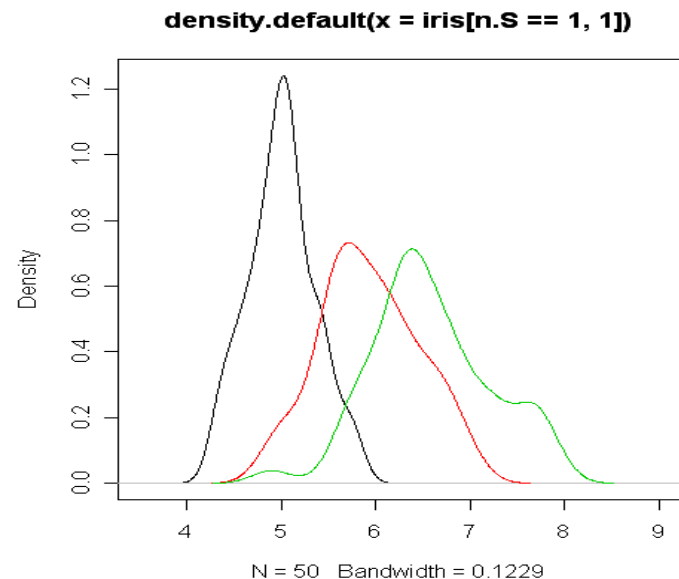
通过数据估计分布密度通常都有什么方法？

# 非参数密度估计

- 直方图
- Parzen Windows窗
- Kernel density estimator
- 多元密度估计
- 判别分析

# Introduction

- 大部分的参数密度都是单峰的 (have a single local maximum), 很多实际问题会涉及多峰问题
- 非参数统计过程将涉及假定宽松的数据结构.
- 有两种常见的非参数密度估计问题:
  - 估计似然函数  $P(x|\omega_j)$
  - 直接估计后验概率



# 密度估计

– Basic idea:

Probability that a vector  $x$  will fall in region  $R$  is:

$$P = \int_{\mathcal{R}} p(x') dx' \quad (1)$$

Therefore, the ratio  $k/n$  is a good estimate for the probability  $P$  and hence for the density function  $p$ .

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} p(x') dx' \cong p(x)V \quad (4)$$

$p(x)$  is continuous and that the region  $\mathcal{R}$  is so small that  $p$  does not vary significantly within it, we can write:

$$\hat{p}_n(x) \cong \frac{k/n}{V}$$

where  $x$  is a point within  $\mathcal{R}$  and  $V$  the volume enclosed by  $\mathcal{R}$ .  
equation (1) and (4) yields histogram:

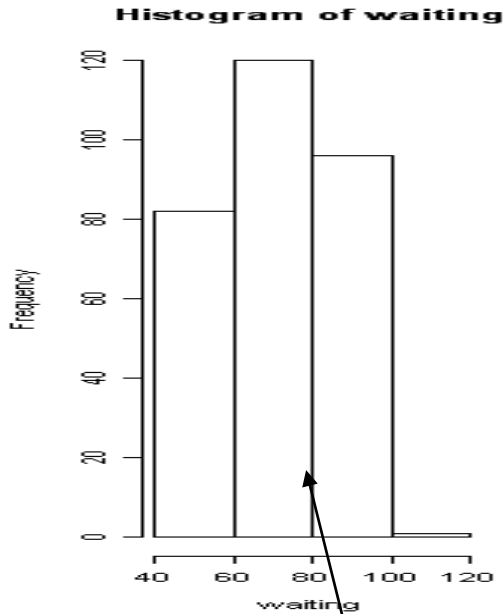
# 直方图

$$\hat{p}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{n_i}{nh}, & \text{当 } x \in I_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, k; \\ 0, & \text{其他.} \end{cases}$$

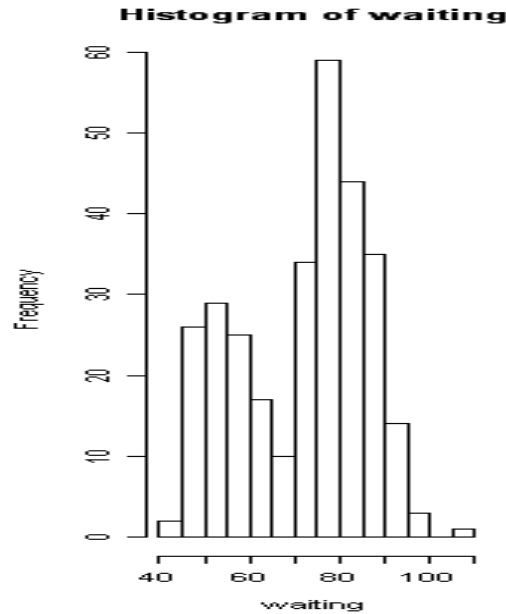
$h$ 既是归一化参数, 又表示每一组的组距, 称为带宽或窗宽.

- Dissects the range of the data into bins of equal width along the horizontal axis
- Vertical axis represents the frequency counts (or percents, proportions)—Bars represent the counts
- Fewer bins, smoother histogram, but less detail about the distribution
- Trade-off between smoothness and detail: We want to preserve as much detail as possible but we do not want the graph to be too rough (difficult to discern shape)

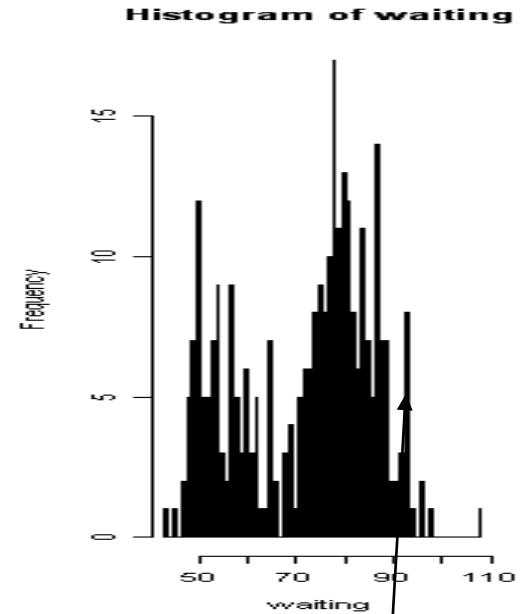
# 最佳窗宽选择



oversmoothing



$$\hat{p}_n(x) \cong \frac{k/n}{V}$$



unstable

如果这个体积和所有的样本体积相比很小，就会得到一个很不稳定的估计，这时，密度值局部变化很大，呈现多峰不稳定的特点；反之，如果这个体积太大，则会圈进大量样本，从而使估计过于平滑，不稳定与过度光滑之间寻找平衡就引导出下面两种可能的解决方法：

# 最优理论窗宽 Histogram

定理:  $\int (f'(u))^2 du < +\infty$  则 $L^2$ 损失下的最优风险为:

$$R(\hat{f}_n(x), f) \approx \frac{h^3}{12} \int (f'(u))^2 du + \frac{1}{nh}$$

极小化上面的式子,可以得到理想的窗宽:

$$h^* = \frac{1}{n^{1/3}} \left( \frac{6}{\int (f'(u))^2 du} \right)^{1/3}$$

在这个窗宽的选择下

$$R(\hat{f}_n, f) \approx \frac{C}{n^{2/3}}$$



定理8.1 固定 $x$ 和 $h$ ,令估计的密度是 $p(x)$ , 如果 $x \in I_j, p_j = \int_{I_j} p(x) dx$ , 有

$$E\hat{p}(x) = p_j/h, \quad \text{var}\hat{p}(x) = \frac{p_j(1-p_j)}{nh^2}.$$

证明提示: 注意到 $E\hat{p}_j = n_j/n = \int_{I_j} p(x) dx$ ,  $\text{var}\hat{p}_j = p_j(1-p_j)/n$ .

考察平方损失风险:

$$\begin{aligned} R(\hat{p}, p) &= EL(\hat{p}(x), p(x)) \\ &= \int (\hat{p}(x) - p(x))^2 dx \\ &= \int (E\hat{p}(x) - p(x))^2 dx + \int (\hat{p}(x) - E\hat{p}(x))^2 dx \\ &= \int \text{Bias}^2(x) dx + \int V(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

积分均方误 (Mean Integral Square Error, 简称: MISE )

$$\text{MISE} = \text{E} \left[ \int (\hat{p}_n(x) - p(x))^2 dx \right].$$

$$\text{AMISE} = \int [(\text{Bias}(\hat{f}))^2 + \text{Var}(\hat{f})] dx.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Bias}(x) &= E\hat{p}(x) - p(x) = \frac{p_j}{h} - p(x) \\
&= \frac{p(x)h + hp'(x)[h(j - 1/2) - x]}{h} - p(x) \\
&= p'(x)[h(j - 1/2) - x].
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{I_j} \text{Bias}^2(x) dx &= \int_{I_j} (p'(x))^2 [h(j - 1/2) - x]^2 dx \\
&\approx (p'(\xi_j))^2 \frac{h^3}{12},
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(x) &= \frac{P_j}{nh^2} \\
 &= \frac{p(x)h + hp'(x)[h(j - 1/2) - x]}{nh^2} \\
 &\approx p(x)/nh.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$R(\hat{p}, p) \approx \frac{h^3}{12} \int (p'(u))^2 du + \frac{1}{nh}.$$

极小化上式, 得到理想带宽为

$$h^* = \frac{1}{n^{1/3}} \left( \frac{6}{\int p'(x)^2 dx} \right)^{1/3}.$$

$$h = Cn^{-1/3}.$$

# 选择箱量（等价于窗宽）

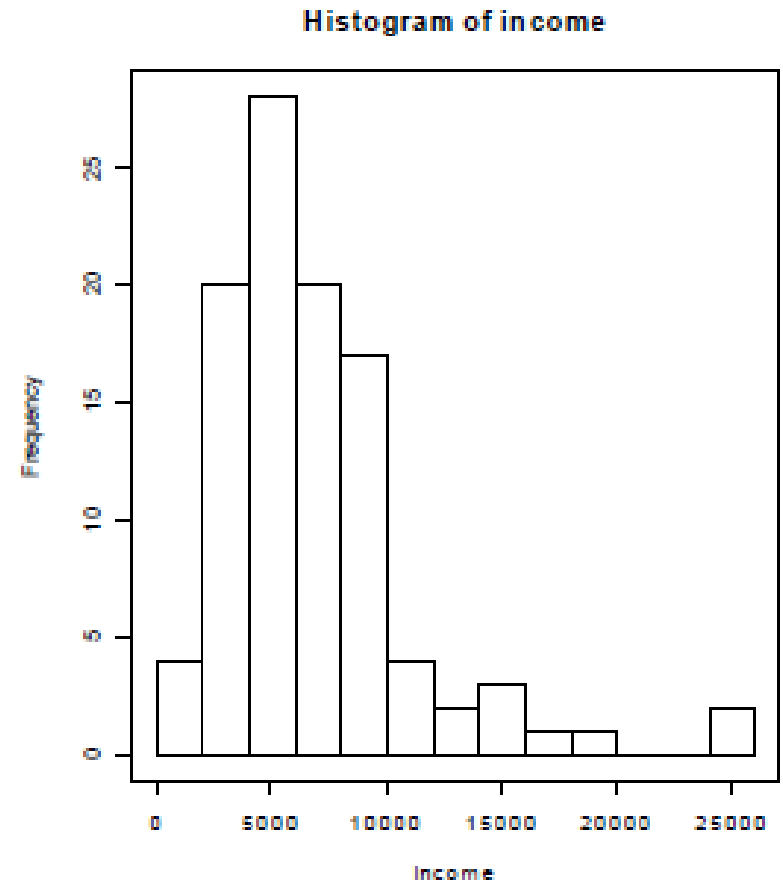
- Simple rule of thumb for small datasets (approx. 100 or less) is:

$$\# \text{ of bins} = 2\sqrt{n}$$

- For larger samples, the `car` package for **R** implements Freedman and Diaconis (1981) recommended formula from the `n.bins` function:

$$\# \text{ of bins} = \left\lceil \frac{n^{1/3}(\max - \min)}{2(Q_3 - Q_1)} \right\rceil$$

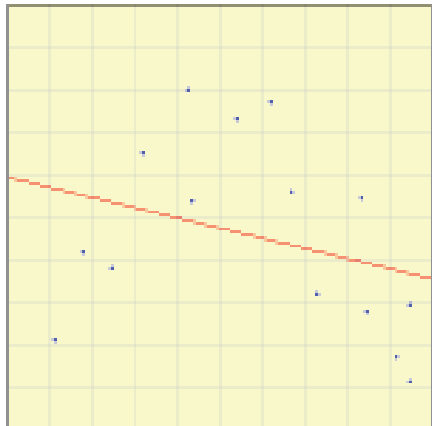
```
>hist(income, nclass=n.bins(income))
```



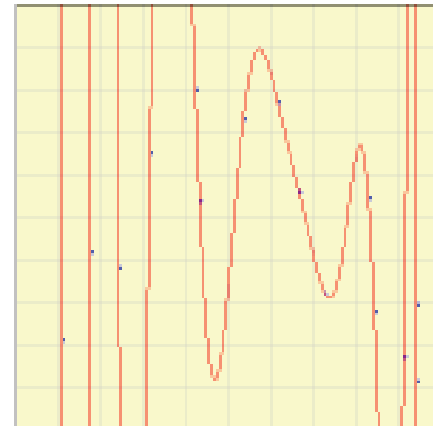
# 偏差与方差分解

Choice of hypothesis class introduces learning bias

- More complex class  $\rightarrow$  less bias
- More complex class  $\rightarrow$  more variance



模型偏差太大



模型方差太大

# bias-variance 偏差和方差分解

For any estimator  $\tilde{\theta}$  :

$$\begin{aligned}\text{MSE}(\tilde{\theta}) &= E(\tilde{\theta} - \theta)^2 \\ &= E(\tilde{\theta} - E(\tilde{\theta}) + E(\tilde{\theta}) - \theta)^2 \\ &= E(\tilde{\theta} - E(\tilde{\theta}))^2 + E(E(\tilde{\theta}) - \theta)^2 \\ &= \text{Var}(\tilde{\theta}) + \underbrace{(E(\tilde{\theta}) - \theta)^2}_{\text{bias}}\end{aligned}$$

Note MSE closely related to prediction error:

$$E(Y_0 - x_0^T \tilde{\beta})^2 = E(Y_0 - x_0^T \beta)^2 + E(x_0^T \tilde{\beta} - x_0^T \beta)^2 = \sigma^2 + \text{MSE}(x_0^T \tilde{\beta})$$

# The practical approximate bandwidth from Cross Validation

$$\hat{J}(h) = \int (\hat{f}_n)^2 dx - \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1} \hat{f}_{(-i)}(x_i)$$

一般当 $h$ 未知的时候, 可以用更实用的方式选择窗宽,

$$\begin{aligned} R(h) &= \int (\hat{p} - p(x))^2 dx \\ &= \int \hat{p}^2 dx - 2 \int \hat{p} p dx + \int p^2(x) dx \\ &= J(h) + \int p^2(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

注意到后面一项与 $h$ 无关, 第一项可以用交叉验证方法估计:

$$\hat{J}(h) = \int (\hat{p})^2 dx - \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1} \hat{p}_{(-i)}(x_i).$$

其中,  $\hat{p}_{(-i)}(x_i)$ 是去掉第 $i$ 个观测值后对直方图的估计,  $\hat{J}(h)$ 称为交叉验证得分.



# Parzen Windows (固定V)

- Parzen-window approach to estimate densities assume that the region  $\mathcal{R}_n$  is a d-dimensional hypercube

$$V_n = h_n^d \text{ (} h_n \text{ : length of the edge of } \mathcal{R}_n \text{)}$$

*Let  $\varphi(u)$  be the following window function :*

$$\varphi(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & |u_j| \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad j = 1, \dots, d \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\varphi((x-x_i)/h_n)$  is equal to unity if  $x_i$  falls within the hypercube of volume  $V_n$  centered at  $x$  and equal to zero otherwise.

– The number of samples in this hypercube is:

$$k_n = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i}{\mathbf{h}_n}\right)$$

By substituting  $k_n$  in equation (7), we obtain the following estimate:

$$\mathbf{p}_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \frac{1}{\mathbf{v}_n} \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i}{\mathbf{h}_n}\right)$$

$\mathbf{P}_n(\mathbf{x})$  estimates  $p(\mathbf{x})$  as an average of functions of  $\mathbf{x}$  and the samples  $(\mathbf{x}_i)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ). These functions  $\varphi$  can be general!

– 举例:

The behavior of the Parzen-window method

Case where  $p(x) \rightarrow N(0, 1)$

Let  $\varphi(u) = (1/\sqrt{2\pi}) \exp(-u^2/2)$  and  $h_n = h_1/\sqrt{n}$  ( $n > 1$ )  
( $h_1$ : known

parameter)

Thus:

$$p_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h_n} \varphi\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h_n}\right)$$

is an average of normal densities centered at the samples  $x_i$ .

- Essentially a sophisticated form of ***locally weighted averaging*** of the distribution
- Use a weight function (kernel) that ensures the enclosed area of the curve equals 1
  - Probability density functions (such as the ***standard normal density function***) are good choices because they are smooth and symmetric
- The ***kernel density estimate*** is calculated as follows:

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

where  $K$  is the kernel density function

$x$  is the point where the density is estimated

$X_i$  is the centre of the interval

$h$  is the bandwidth (or window half-width)

$$K(x) \geq 0, \quad \int K(x) \, dx = 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \int \hat{p}(x) \, dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right) \, dx = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \int \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right) \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \int K(u) \, du = \frac{1}{n} \cdot n = 1 \quad \left( \text{其中 } u = \frac{x - x_i}{h} \right). \end{aligned}$$

# R中常用的核函数

表 8.1. 常用核函数

核函数名称	核函数 $K(u)$	S-Plus 中
Parzen 窗 (Uniform)	$\frac{1}{2}I( u  \leq 1)$	✓
三角 (Triangle)	$(1 -  u )I( u  \leq 1)$	✓
Epanechnikov	$\frac{3}{4}(1 - u^2)I( u  \leq 1)$	
四次 (Quartic)	$\frac{15}{16}(1 - u^2)I( u  \leq 1)$	
三权 (Triweight)	$\frac{35}{32}(1 - u^2)^3I( u  \leq 1)$	
高斯 (Gauss)	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right)$	✓
余弦 (Cosinus)	$\frac{\pi}{4} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}u\right) I( u  \leq 1)$	✓
指数 (Exponent)	$\exp\{ u \}$	

# 核估计的性质

与直方图类似, 也可以得到大样本情况下核估计的如下一些基本结论.

我们先来估计  $Bias(\hat{p})$ , 首先, 令  $(x - x_i)/h = t$  and  $x_i = x - ht$ , 计算可得

$$\begin{aligned}\int h^{-1}K\left(\frac{x-x_i}{h}\right)p(x_i)dx_i &= \int h^{-1}K(u)p(x-ht)d(x-ht) \\ &= \int h^{-1}K(u)p(x-ht)|-h|dt \\ &= \int K(u)p(x-ht)dt\end{aligned}$$

使用泰勒展开  $p(x-ht) - p(x) = -htp'(x) + \frac{1}{2}h^2t^2p''(x) + O(h^3)$  因此, 我们得到

$$\begin{aligned}&\int h^{-1}K\left(\frac{x-x_i}{h}\right)p(x_i)dx_i - p(x) \\ &= \int K(u)\{p(x-ht) - p(x)\}dt \\ &= -hp'(x) \int tK(t)dt + \frac{1}{2}h^2p^{(2)}(x) \int t^2K(t)dt + O(h^3) \\ &= \frac{h^2}{2}\mu_2(K)p^{(2)}(x) + O(h^3) \qquad \mu_2(K) = \int t^2K(t)dt.\end{aligned}$$

# 核估计的性质

**定理 8.2:** 假设  $\hat{p}_n(x)$  定义如式 (8.3) 是  $p(x)$  的核估计, 令  $\text{supp}(p) = \{x : p(x) > 0\}$  是密度  $p$  的支撑. 设  $x \in \text{supp}(p) \subset R$  为  $\text{supp}(p)$  的内点 (非边界点), 当  $n \rightarrow +\infty$  时,  $h_n \rightarrow 0$ ,  $nh_n \rightarrow +\infty$ , 核估计有如下性质:

$$\text{Bias}(\hat{p}_n(x)) = \frac{h_n^2}{2} \mu_2(K) p^{(2)}(x) + o(h_n^3); \quad \text{带宽 } h \text{ 越小, 核估计的偏差越小}$$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{p}_n(x)) = (nh_n)^{-1} p(x) R(K) + o((nh_n)^{-1}) + O(n^{-1});$$

若  $\sqrt{(nh_n)} h_n^2 \rightarrow 0$ , 则

$$\sqrt{(nh_n)} (\hat{p}_n(x) - p(x)) \rightarrow N(0, p(x)R(K))$$

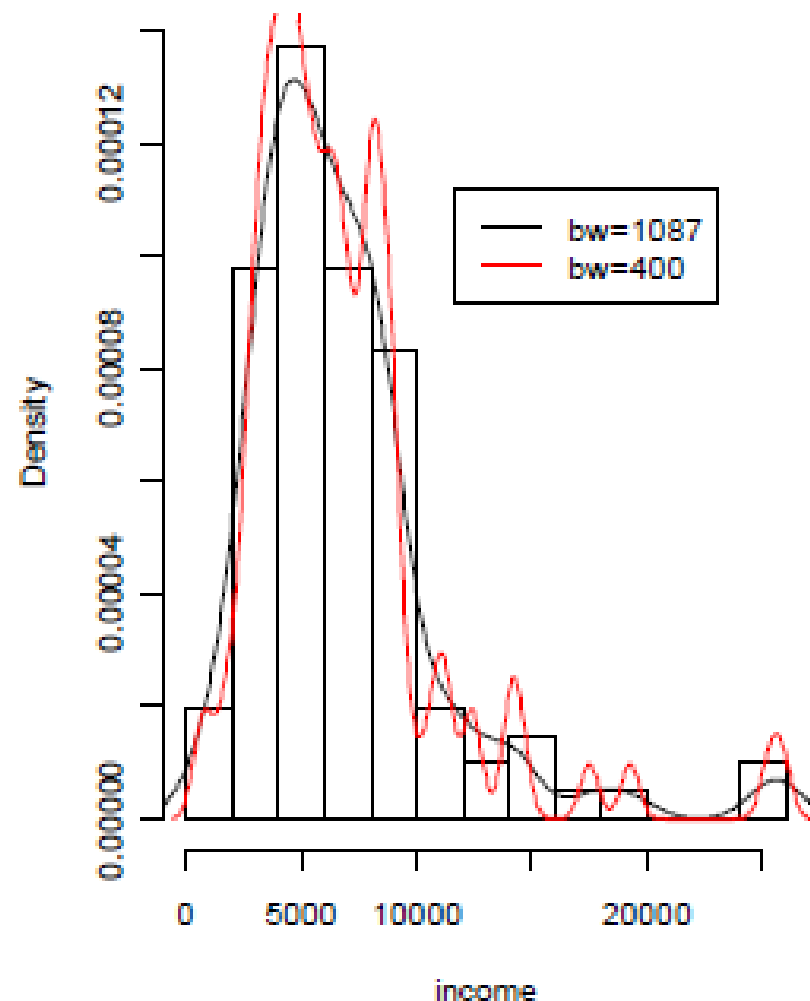
其中  $R(g(x)) = \int g(x)^2 dx$ .

$$h_{opt} = \mu_2(K)^{-2/5} \left\{ \int K(x)^2 dx \right\}^{1/5} \left\{ \int p^{(2)}(x)^2 dx \right\}^{-1/5} n^{-1/5}$$



- If the underlying density distribution is substantially nonnormal,  $h = 0.9An^{-1/5}$  produces a window width  $2h$  that is too wide (*i.e.*, the line is too rough), but it is good as a starting point
- As the bandwidth increases, the density curve becomes smoother
  - Ideally we want a smooth curve like the black line to the right (**bw=1087**)

Histogram with Density Estimation



```
hist(income, nclass=n.bins(income), probability=1,
     main='Histogram with Density Estimation', ylab='Density')
lines(density(income), col='red', lwd=2)
lines(density(income, bw = 400,
               kernel = c("rectangular")), lty=1, lwd=1)
legend(locator(1), lty=1:1, lwd=2:1, col=2:1,
      legend=c('bw=1087', 'bw=400'))
```

- Unlike histograms we no longer set the number of bins; instead we must select the bandwidth  $h$ . We can do this visually, but statistical theory provides some help:

$$h = 0.9\sigma n^{-1/5}$$

- The population standard deviation  $\sigma$  is unknown so we replace it with an adaptive estimator of spread (The sample standard deviation  $S$  can be inflated if the underlying density isn't normal):

$$A = \min \left( S, \frac{\text{hinge spread}}{1.349} \right)$$

- Hinge spread is the inter-quartile range; 1.349 is the hinge spread of the standard normal distribution.
- The formula for the bandwidth is then:

$$h = 0.9An^{-1/5}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\int h^{-1}K\left(\frac{x-x_i}{h}\right)p(x_i)dx_i &= \int h^{-1}K(u)p(x-ht)d(x-ht) \\ &= \int h^{-1}K(u)p(x-ht)|-h|dt \\ &= \int K(u)p(x-ht)dt\end{aligned}$$

使用泰勒展开  $p(x-ht) - p(x) = -htp'(x) + \frac{1}{2}h^2t^2p''(x) + O(h^3)$  因此, 我们得到

$$\begin{aligned}&\int h^{-1}K\left(\frac{x-x_i}{h}\right)p(x_i)dx_i - p(x) \\ &= \int K(u)\{p(x-ht) - p(x)\}dt \\ &= -hp'(x) \int tK(t)dt + \frac{1}{2}h^2p^{(2)}(x) \int t^2K(t)dt + O(h^3) \\ &= \frac{h^2}{2}\mu_2(K)p^{(2)}(x) + O(h^3) \qquad \mu_2(K) = \int t^2K(t)dt.\end{aligned}$$

# 应用：分位回归的参数分布估计

- 给出一个分位回归模型  $\text{fit}=\text{rq}(y\sim x)$  后，命令 `summary(fit,se='...')` 可以查看参数估计的结果
- `se`选项用于选择参数估计的不同方法，`se='ker'`:核函数估计法

定理 2.  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta}(\tau) - \beta(\tau)) \sim N(0, \tau(1 - \tau)H_n(\tau)^{-1}Q_nH_n(\tau))$ , 其中:

$$H_n(\tau) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i' f_i(\varepsilon_i(\tau))$$

$f_i(\varepsilon_i(\tau))$  表示第  $i$  个残差  $\varepsilon_i$  在分位点  $\tau$  处的分布密度;

```
library(quantreg)
fit1=rq(foodexp~income,data=engel)
summary(fit1,se="ker")
summary(fit1,se="boot")
summary(fit1,se="nid")
```

$$Q_0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i'$$

- 因为残差分布未知，无法直接求出  $f_i(\varepsilon_i(\tau))$   $H_n(\tau)$
- Powell给出如下估计方法:

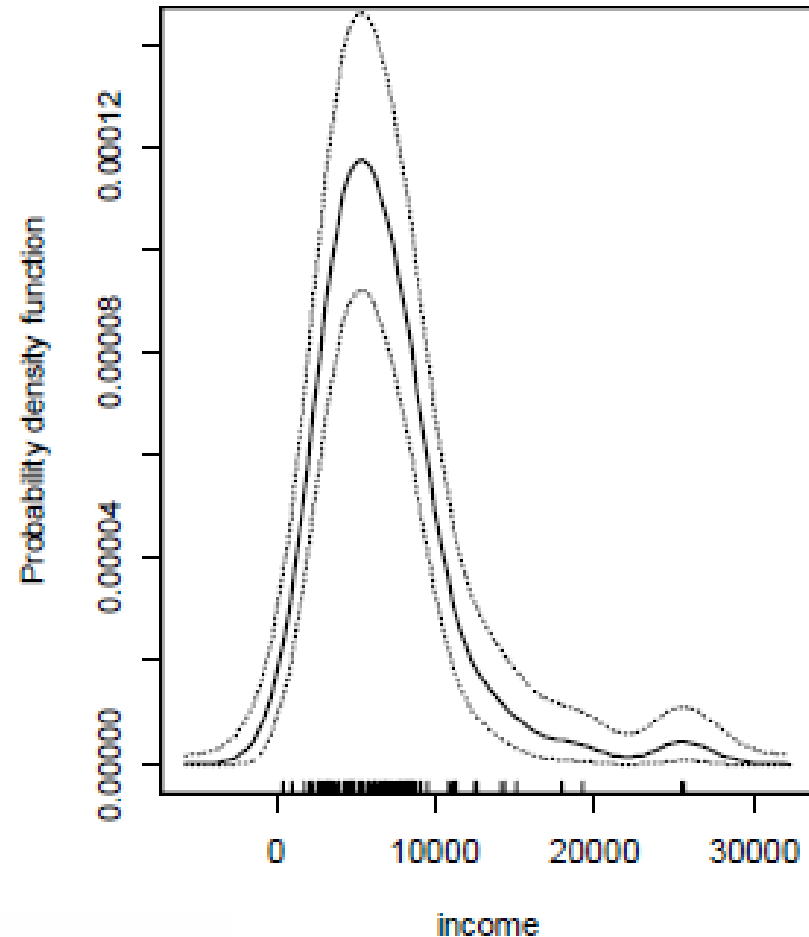
$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2c_n n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(|u_i| < c_n) x_i x_i'$$

# sm包 confidence envelope

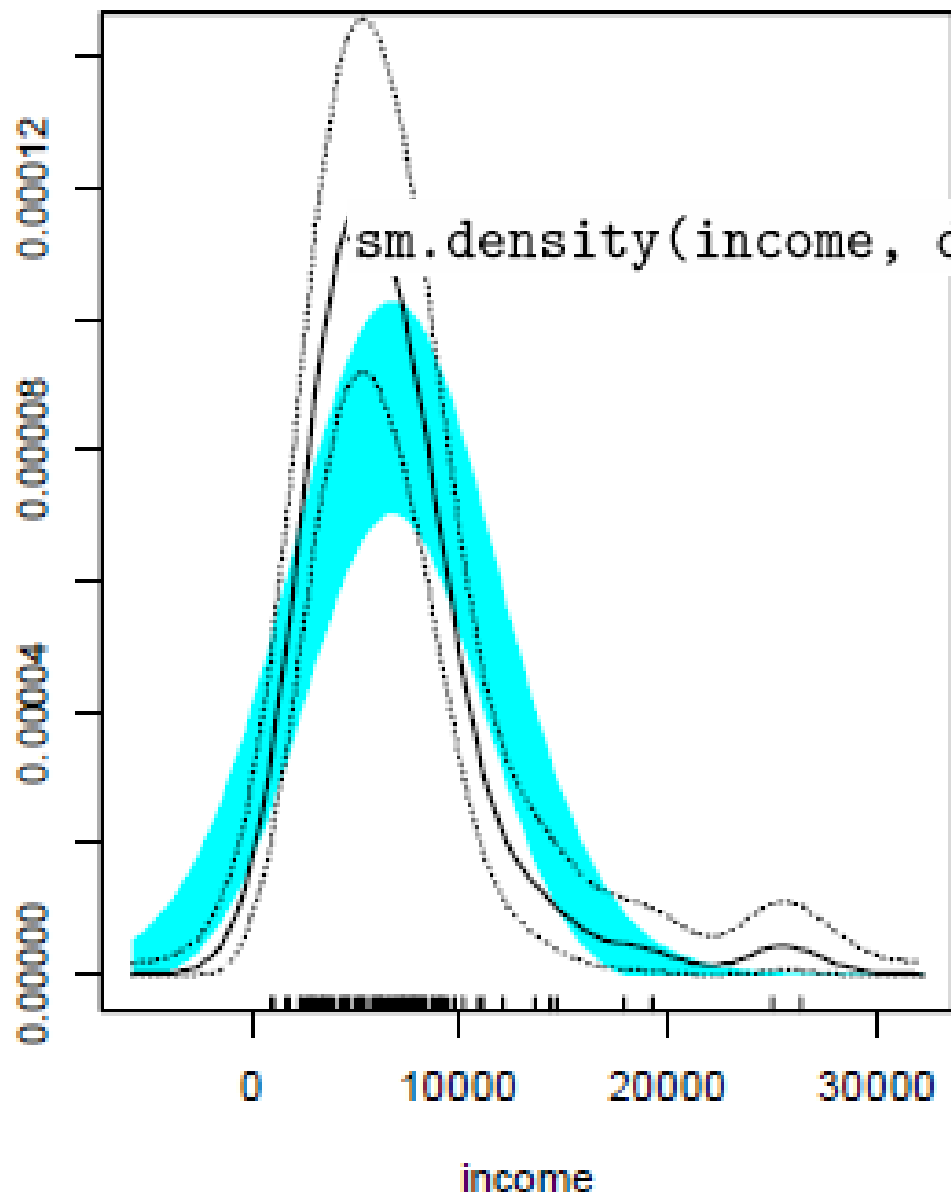
- The `sm` package for **R** allows you to plot variability bands that are a width of two standard errors
- These bands can be especially useful for assessing modality
- More details are in Bowman and Azzalini (1997: Chapter 2)

```
>library(sm)
```

```
>sm.density(income, display="se")
```

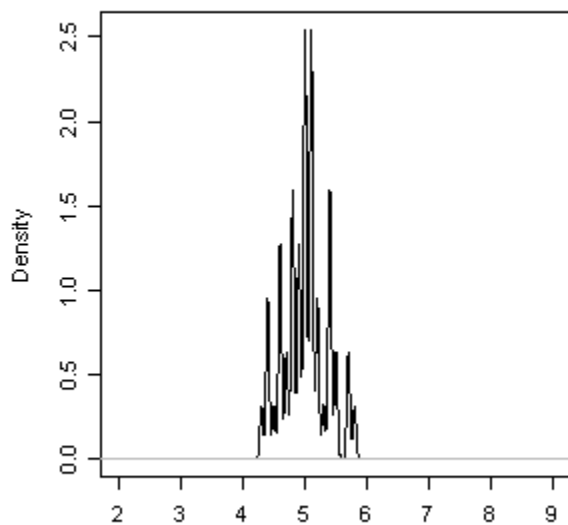


Probability density function



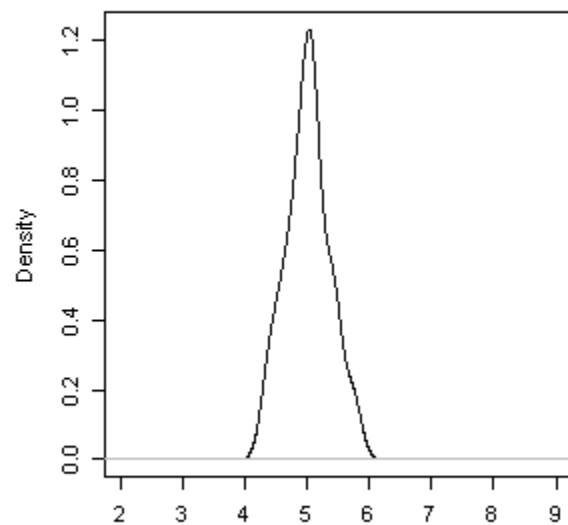
```
sm.density(income, display="se", model="normal")
```

`density.default(x = iris[n.S == 1, 1], width = 0.1`



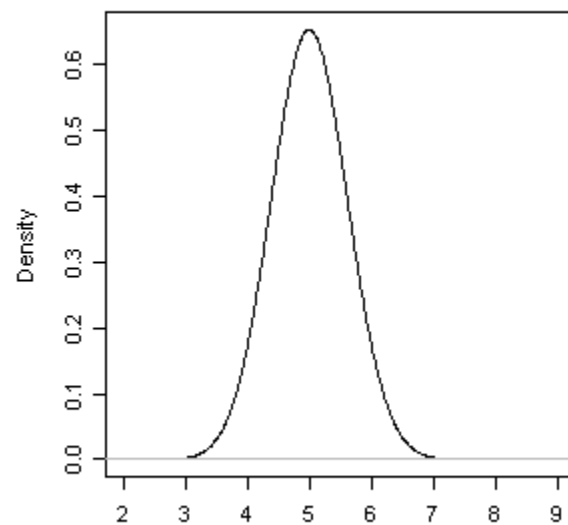
N = 50 Bandwidth = 0.025

`density.default(x = iris[n.S == 1, 1], width = 0.5`



N = 50 Bandwidth = 0.125

`density.default(x = iris[n.S == 1, 1], width = 2)`



N = 50 Bandwidth = 0.5

# 多维密度估计（h一致，h不一致）

定义8.2 假设数据 $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  是 $d$ 维向量，并取自一个连续分布 $p(x)$ ，在任意点 $x$ 处的一种核密度估计定义为

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{nh^d} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right), \quad (9.7)$$

注意到这里 $p(x)$ 是一个 $d$ 维随机变量的密度函数。 $K(\cdot)$  是定义在 $d$ 维空间上的核函数，即 $K: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ，并满足如下条件：

$$\begin{aligned} K_n(x) &= (2\pi)^{-d/2} \exp(-x^T x/2) \\ K_2(x) &= 3\pi^{-1} (1 - x^T x)^2 I(x^T x < 1) \\ K_3(x) &= 4\pi^{-1} (1 - x^T x)^3 I(x^T x < 1) \\ K_e(x) &= \frac{1}{2} c_d^{-1} (d+2) (1 - x^T x) I(x^T x < 1) \end{aligned}$$
$$K(x) \geq 0, \quad \int K(x) \, du = 1.$$

$K_e$ 被称为多维Epanechnikow核函数，其中 $c_d$ 是一个和维度有关的常数， $c_1 = 2$ ， $c_2 = \pi$ ， $c_3 = 4\pi/3$ 。

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{nh_1 \cdots h_d} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right)$$



# 二元密度估计

- The kernel smoothing method used for histograms can be easily extended to the joint distribution of two random continuous variables
- The bivariate density function takes the following form:

$$\hat{p}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{nh_1h_2} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x_1 - X_{1i}}{h_1}\right) K\left(\frac{x_2 - X_{2i}}{h_2}\right)$$

- Where  $K$  is the kernel function and  $(h_1$  and  $h_2)$  are the joint smoothing parameters
- For univariate densities, probabilities are associated with **area** under the density curve. For a bivariate density curve, probabilities are associated with **volume** under the density, where the total volume equals one

关于最优带宽的选择，我们也有类似一维情况下的结论。对于多维核密度估计，利用多维泰勒展开，我们有

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Bias}(\mathbf{x}) &\approx \frac{1}{2}h^2\alpha\nabla^2p(\mathbf{x}), \\ V(\hat{p}(\mathbf{x})) &\approx n^{-1}h^{-d}\beta p(\mathbf{x}). \end{aligned}$$

其中， $\alpha = \int \mathbf{x}^2 K(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\beta = \int K(\mathbf{x})^2d\mathbf{x}$ .

因此我们可以得到渐进积分均分误

$$AMISE = \frac{1}{4}h^4\alpha^2 \int \nabla^2p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} + n^{-1}h^{-d}\beta.$$

由此可得最优带宽为

$$h_{opt} = \left\{ d\beta\alpha^{-2} \left( \int \nabla^2p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} \right) \right\}^{1/(d+4)} n^{-1/(d+4)}$$

在上述的最优带宽中，真实密度 $p(\mathbf{x})$ 是未知的，因此我们可以采用多维正态密度 $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ 来代替，进而得到

$$h_{opt} = A(K)n^{-1/(d+4)},$$

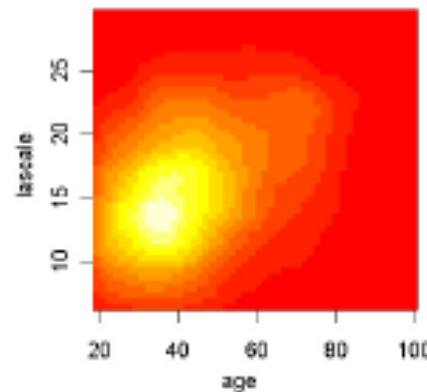
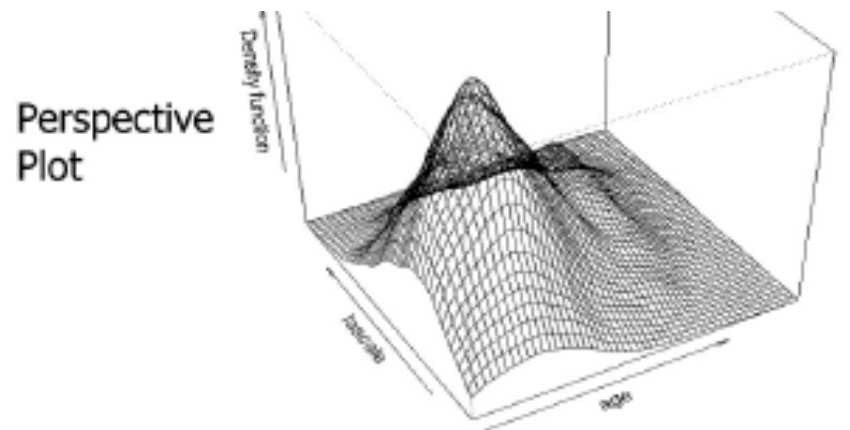
$$\text{其中 } A(K) = \left\{ d\beta\alpha^{-2} \left( \int \nabla^2\phi(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} \right) \right\}^{1/(d+4)}$$

对于  $A(K)$ , 在知道估计中的核函数类型后, 可以计算出来, 并进而得到最优带宽  $h_{opt}$ . 以下是不同核函数的  $A(K)$ ,

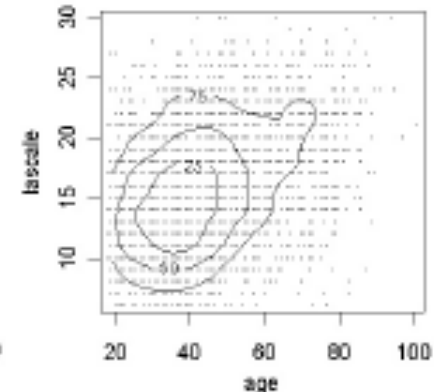
Kernel	Dimensionality	$A(K)$
$K_n$	2	1
$K_n$	$d$	$\{4/(d+2)\}^{1/(d+4)}$
$K_e$	2	2.40
$K_e$	3	2.49
$K_e$	$d$	$\{8c_d^{-1}(d+4)(2\sqrt{\pi})\}^{1/(d+4)}$
$K_2$	2	2.78
$K_3$	2	3.12

- *Perspective plots*: the joint distribution is shown in a 3D plot—height is used to show level of density
- *Imageplots*: different intensities of colour or shading denote density levels
- *Contour plots or slice plots*: lines trace paths of constant levels of density (similar to the depiction of elevation in a geographical contour map)

```
#sm library is needed for bivariate density plots below
>library(sm)
>data<-cbind(age,lascale)
#perspective plot is the default
>sm.density(data)
>sm.density(data, display="image")
>sm.density(data, display="slice")
```

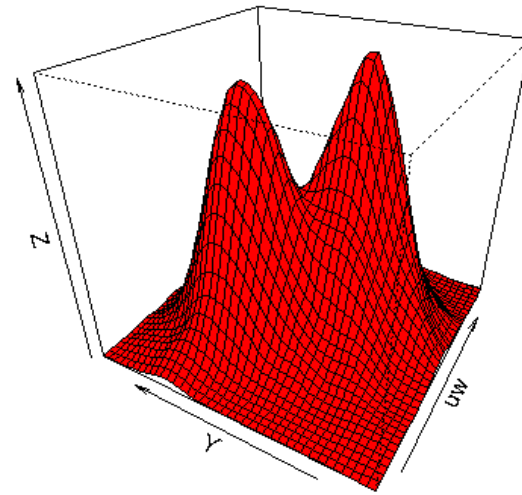
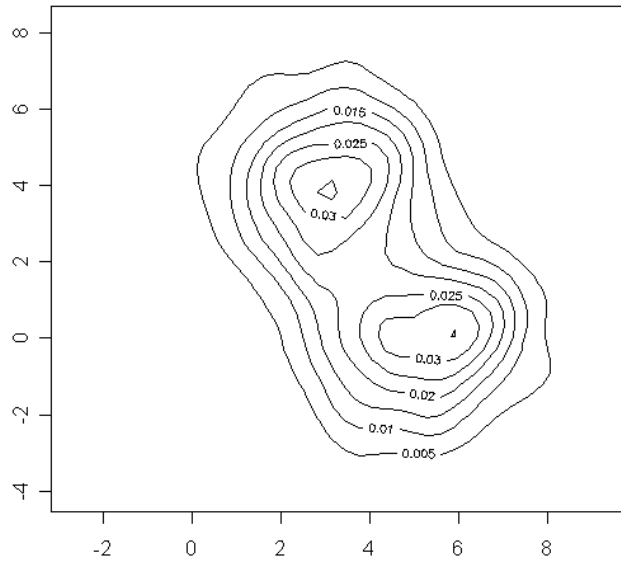
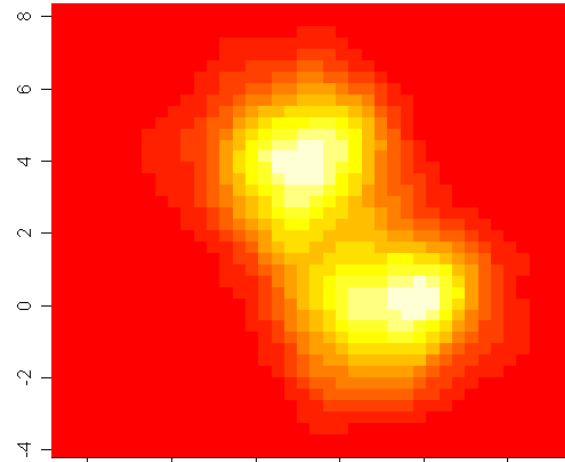
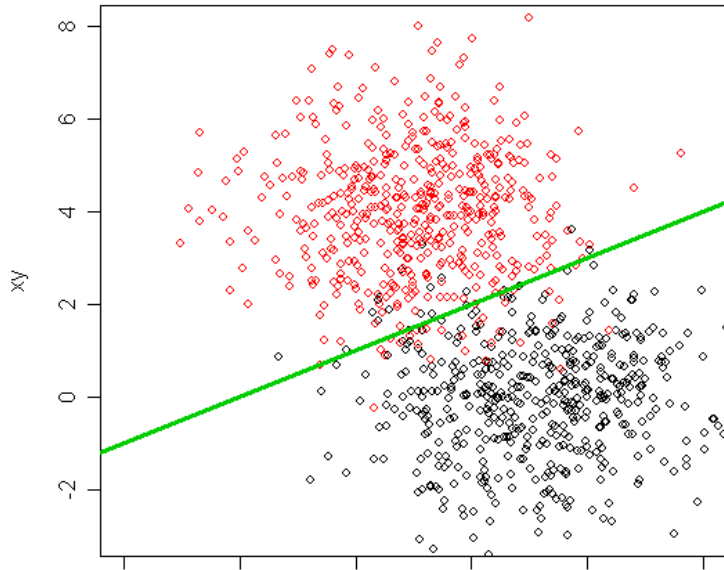


Imageplot



Contour plot

Linear classifier for  $N((5,0),2)$  and  $N((3,4),2)$



# 课堂作业和讨论：北京市学区房价分布与周边价格密度估计



# 三维密度估计

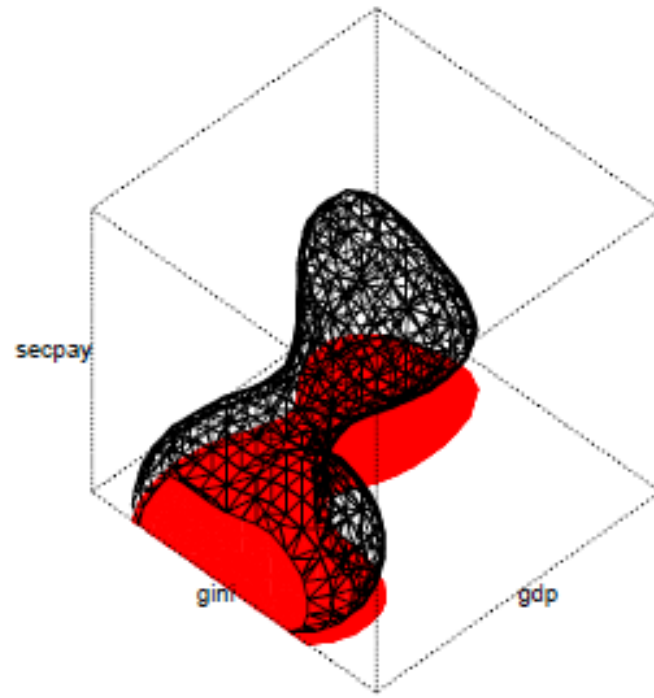
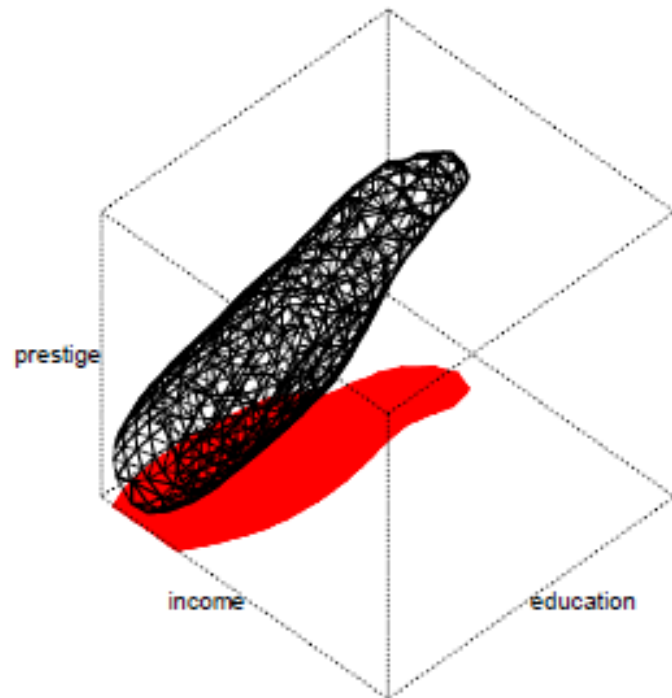
- The three dimensional density estimate also extends simply from the bivariate case:

$$\hat{p}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{nh_1h_2h_3} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x_1 - X_{1i}}{h_1}\right) K\left(\frac{x_2 - X_{2i}}{h_2}\right) K\left(\frac{x_3 - X_{3i}}{h_3}\right)$$

- Where  $K$  is the kernel function and  $(h_1, h_2, \text{ and } h_3)$  are the joint smoothing parameter
- In these plots contours represent ***closed surfaces***
- Like the other density estimates, these are helpful for assessing clustering of the data



## Some examples of three dimensional density estimates

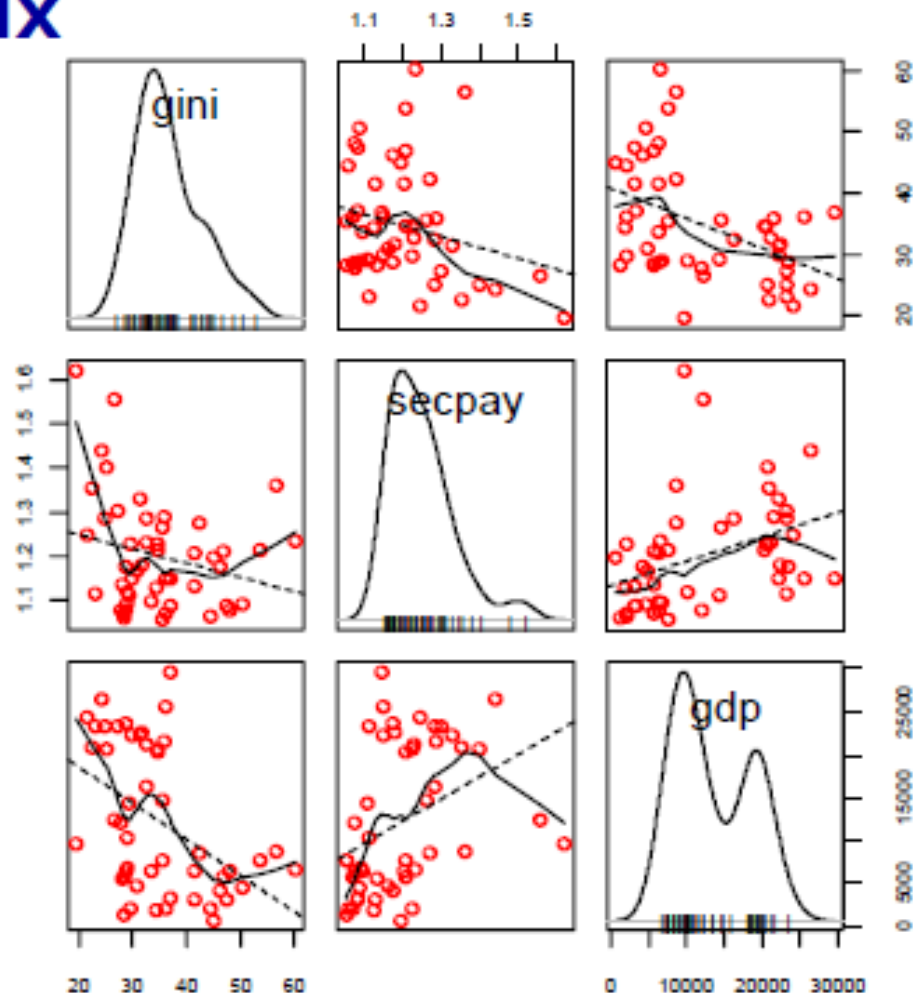


```
>y <- cbind(income, prestige, education)
>sm.density(y)
```



# Scatterplotmatrix

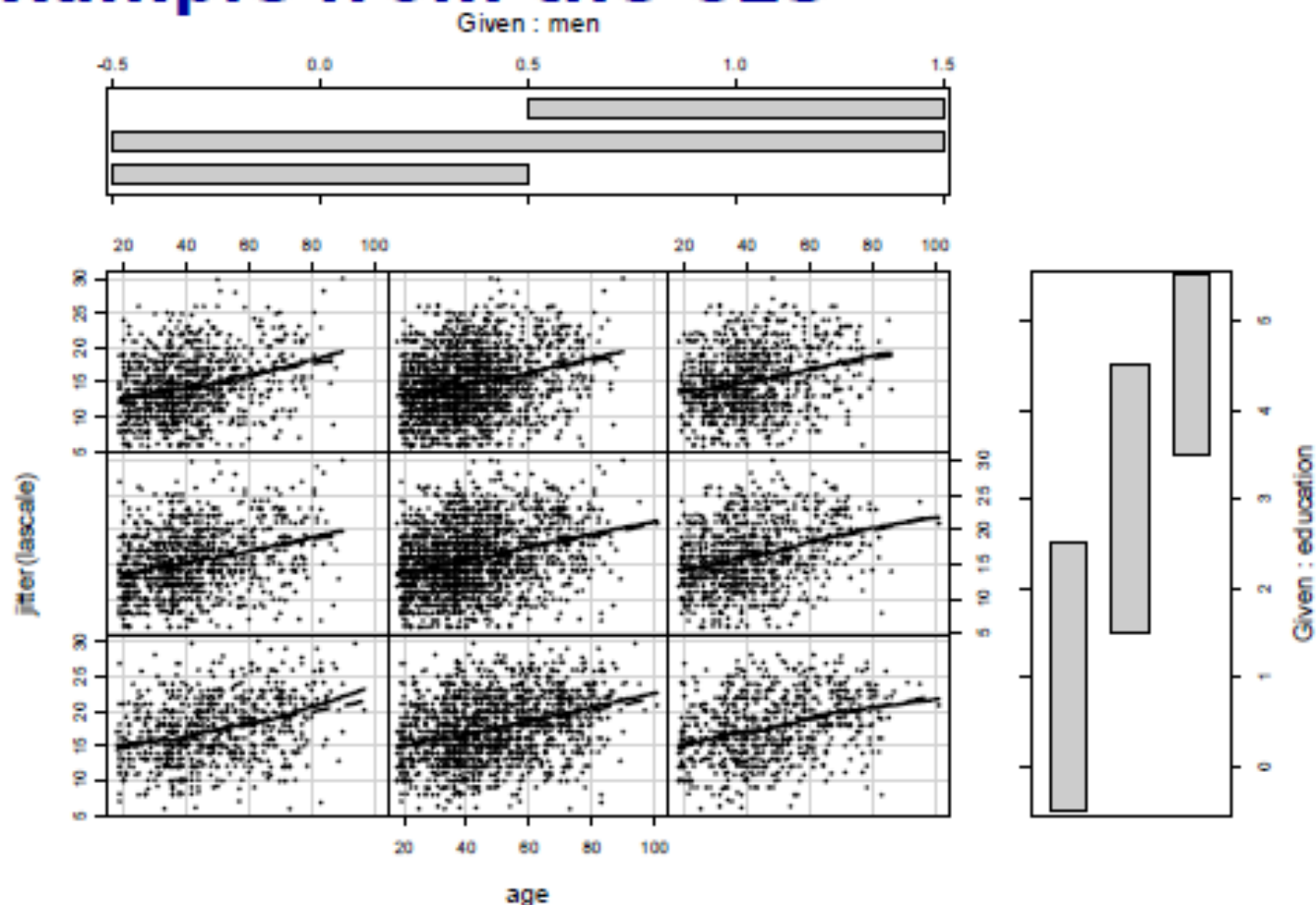
- Plots individual scatterplots for all possible bivariate relationships at one time
- Can be enhanced by adding density estimates for each variable on the diagonal
- **Note:** Only *marginal relationships* are depicted (*i.e.*, no control for other variables)



```
>library(car)
```

```
>scatterplot.matrix(cbind(gini, secpay, gdp))
```

# Conditioning plots: An example from the CES



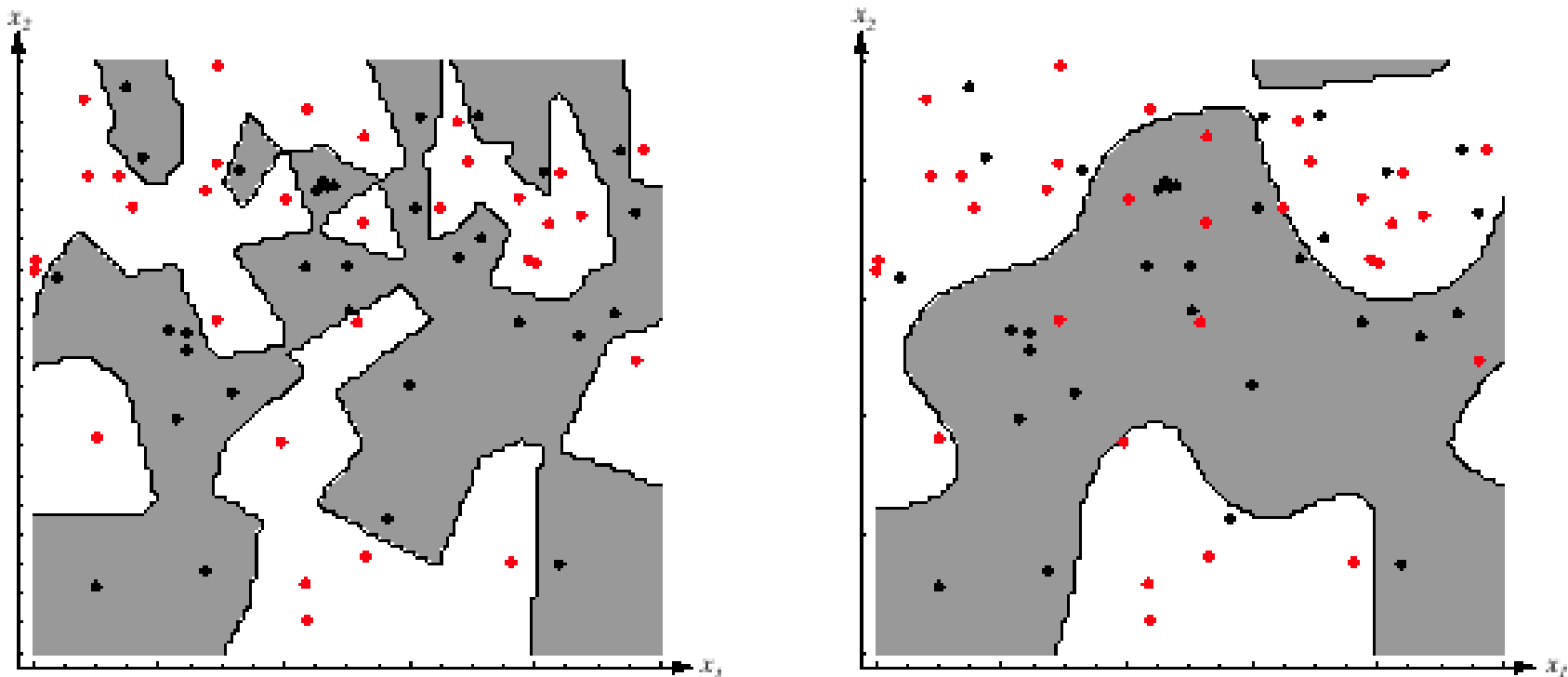
```
>library(car)  
>coplot(jitter(lascale)~age|men+education,  
        panel = panel.car, lwd=3, cex=0.4)
```

# 判别分析

## – Classification example

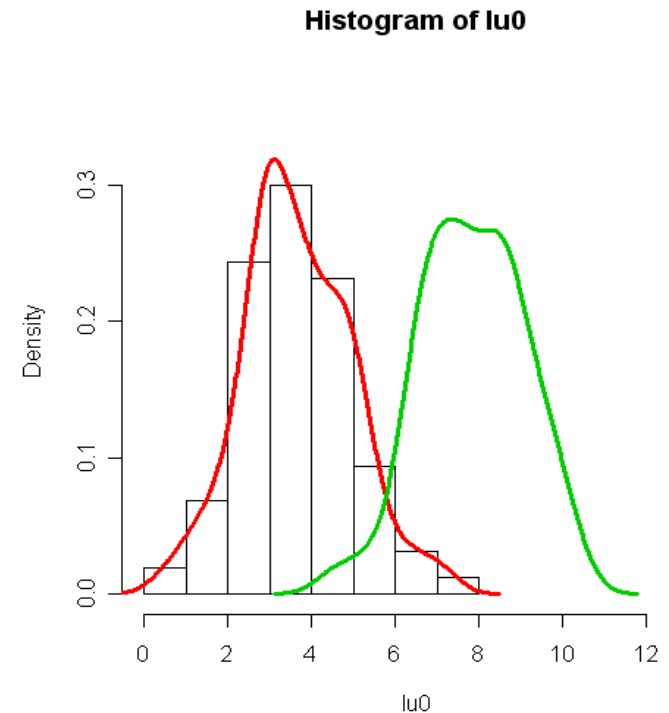
In classifiers based on Parzen-window estimation:

- We estimate the densities for each category and classify a test point by the label corresponding to the maximum posterior
- The decision region for a Parzen-window classifier depends upon the choice of window function as illustrated in the following figure.



**FIGURE 4.8.** The decision boundaries in a two-dimensional Parzen-window dichotomizer depend on the window width  $h$ . At the left a small  $h$  leads to boundaries that are more complicated than for large  $h$  on same data set, shown at the right. Apparently, for these data a small  $h$  would be appropriate for the upper region, while a large  $h$  would be appropriate for the lower region; no single window width is ideal overall. From: Richard O. Duda, Peter E. Hart, and David G. Stork, *Pattern Classification*. Copyright © 2001 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- The sea bass/salmon example
- Decision rule with only the prior information
  - Decide  $\omega_1$  if  $P(\omega_1) > P(\omega_2)$  otherwise decide  $\omega_2$
- $P(x | \omega_1)$  and  $P(x | \omega_2)$  describe the difference in lightness between populations of sea bass and salmon



# 例：基于非参数密度估计下的判别计算(二分类问题求解步骤)

- 1. 先验密度, 损失矩阵  $\rightarrow$  计算域值.
- 2. 非参数似然密度估计  $\rightarrow$  生成判别决策.
- 3. 给出新的点, 比较判别决策的的判定.

# Bayes' Rule

- Posterior, likelihood, evidence

*posterior*                      *likelihood**prior*

$$P(\omega_j | x) = P(x | \omega_j) \cdot P(\omega_j) / P(x)$$

*evidence*

- Where in case of two categories

$$P(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{j=2} P(x | \omega_j) P(\omega_j)$$

- Posterior = (Likelihood. Prior) / Evidence

# 更一般的Bayes公式的解释

假设空间:  $H = \{H_1, \dots, H_n\}$

样本和数据:  $E$

$$P(H_i | E) = \frac{P(E | H_i)P(H_i)}{P(E)}$$

If we want to pick the most likely hypothesis  $H^*$ , we can drop  $P(E)$

**Posterior probability of  $H_i$**



**Prior probability of  $H_i$**



$$P(H_i | E) \propto P(E | H_i)P(H_i)$$

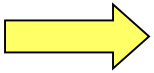


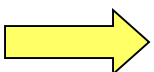
**Likelihood of data/evidence  
if  $H_i$  is true**



- Decision given the posterior probabilities

X is an observation for which:

if  $P(\omega_1 | \mathbf{x}) > P(\omega_2 | \mathbf{x})$   True state of nature =  $\omega_1$

if  $P(\omega_1 | \mathbf{x}) < P(\omega_2 | \mathbf{x})$   True state of nature =  $\omega_2$

因此:

当观察到某个  $\mathbf{x}$ , 我们各种决定可能的错误是:

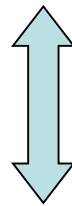
$P(\text{判错} | \mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_1 | \mathbf{x})$  如果决策是  $\omega_2$

$P(\text{判错} | \mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_2 | \mathbf{x})$  if we decide  $\omega_1$

- Minimizing the probability of error
- Decide  $\omega_1$  if  $P(\omega_1 | x) > P(\omega_2 | x)$ ;  
otherwise decide  $\omega_2$

- 因此有关判错可以有如下的等价表达:

$$P(\text{error} | x) = P(\omega_1 | x) \text{ if we decide } \omega_2$$
$$P(\text{error} | x) = P(\omega_2 | x) \text{ if we decide } \omega_1$$



$$P(\text{error} | x) = \min [P(\omega_1 | x), P(\omega_2 | x)]$$

The preceding rule is equivalent to the following rule:

$$\text{if } \frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} > \frac{l_{12} - l_{22}}{l_{21} - l_{11}} \cdot \frac{P(\omega_2)}{P(\omega_1)}$$

Then take action  $\alpha_1$  (decide  $\omega_1$ )

Otherwise take action  $\alpha_2$  (decide  $\omega_2$ )

结论: 贝叶斯决策规则可以解释成如果似然比超过某个不依赖于观测值 $x$ 的阈值, 那么判断为 $\omega_1$ .

# 例：基于非参数密度估计下的判别计算

- State:  $\{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$ ,
- Action :

$\alpha_1$  : deciding  $\omega_1$

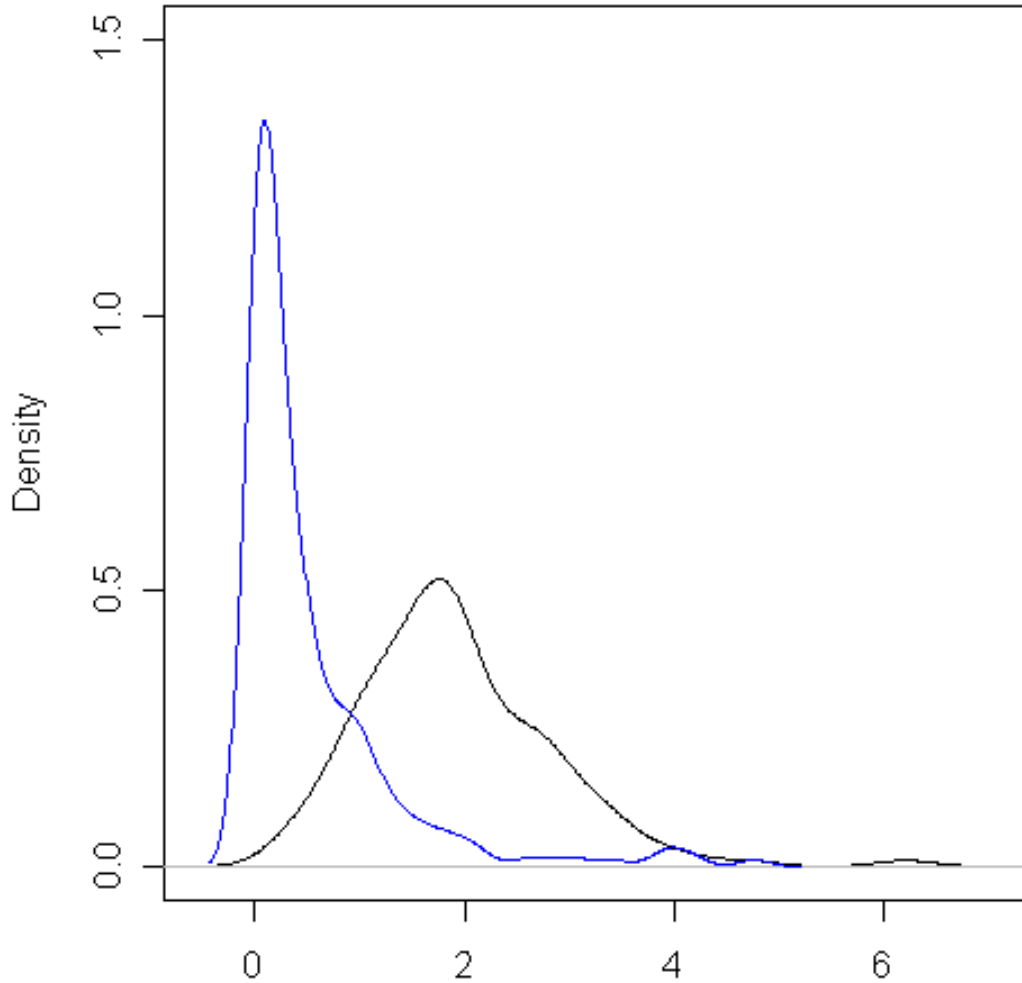
$\alpha_2$  : deciding  $\omega_2$

- The preceding rule is equivalent to the following rule:

$$\text{if } \frac{P(x | \omega_1)}{P(x | \omega_2)} > \frac{l_{12} - l_{22}}{l_{21} - l_{11}} \cdot \frac{P(\omega_2)}{P(\omega_1)}$$

- Then take action  $\alpha_1$  (decide  $\omega_1$ )
- Otherwise take action  $\alpha_2$  (decide  $\omega_2$ )

density.default(x = x)



N = 130 Bandwidth = 0.2823

两类不同鱼光泽度的分布密度:

**L=**    0 1  
          2 0

newpoint=2

class=1

newpoint=0.1

class=2

# 本章要求

- 掌握密度估计基本原理；
- 掌握几种多维可视化的建模方法
- 了解密度估计的应用