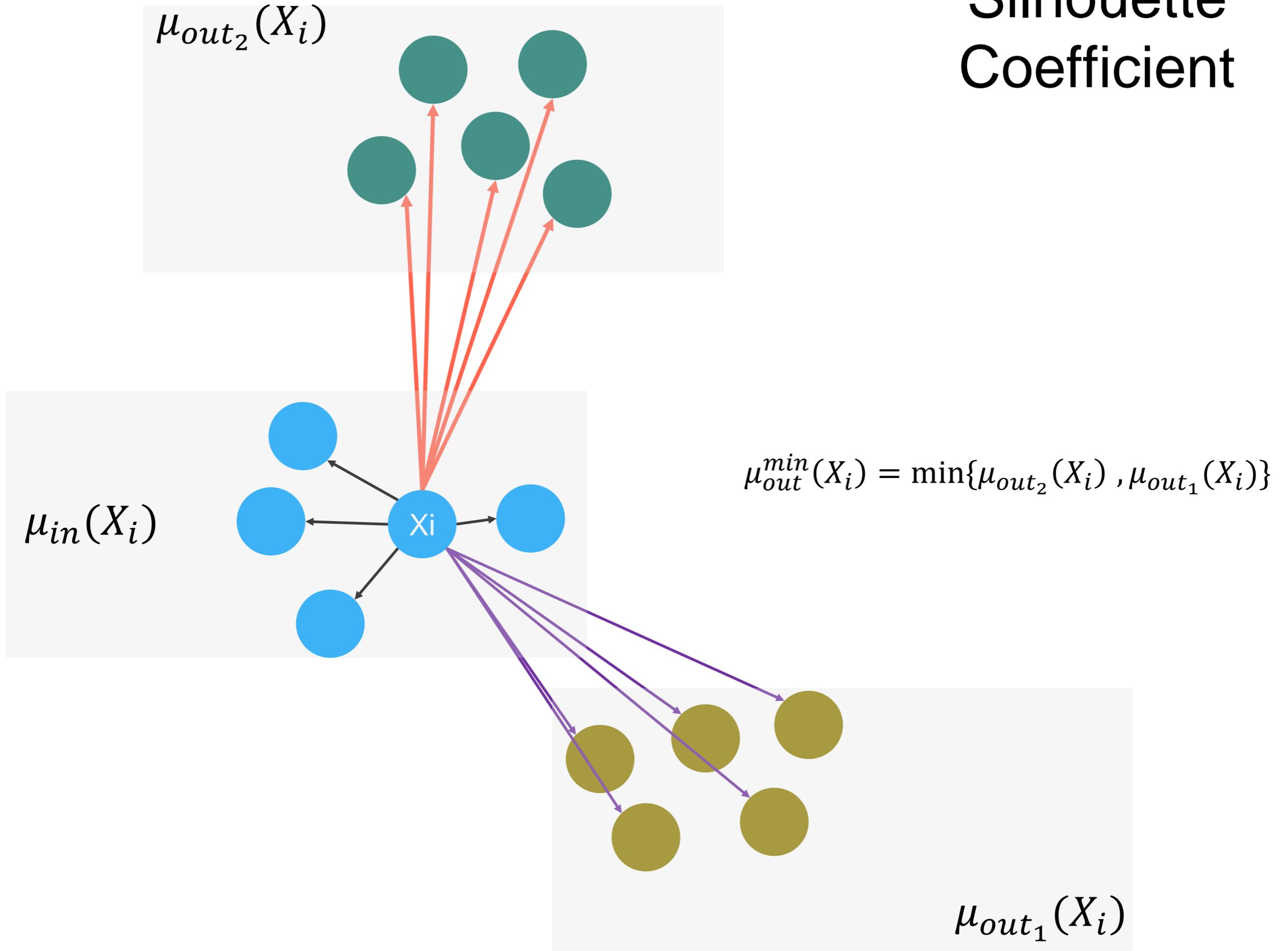


# Silhouette Coefficient



# Silhouette Coefficient

Define the silhouette coefficient of a point  $\mathbf{x}_i$  as

$$s_i = \frac{\mu_{out}^{\min}(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mu_{in}(\mathbf{x}_i)}{\max\{\mu_{out}^{\min}(\mathbf{x}_i), \mu_{in}(\mathbf{x}_i)\}}$$

where  $\mu_{in}(\mathbf{x}_i)$  is the mean distance from  $\mathbf{x}_i$  to points in its own cluster  $\hat{y}_i$ :

$$\mu_{in}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{x}_j \in C_{\hat{y}_i}, j \neq i} \delta(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)}{n_{\hat{y}_i} - 1}$$

and  $\mu_{out}^{\min}(\mathbf{x}_i)$  is the mean of the distances from  $\mathbf{x}_i$  to points in the closest cluster:

$$\mu_{out}^{\min}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \min_{j \neq \hat{y}_i} \left\{ \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{y} \in C_j} \delta(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y})}{n_j} \right\}$$

*The Silhouette Coefficient for clustering C:  $SC = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n s_i$ .*

*SC close to 1 implies a good clustering (Points are close to their own clusters but far from other clusters)*

# Density Estimation

Nakul Gopalan  
Georgia Tech

# Outline

- Overview 
- Parametric Density Estimation
- Nonparametric Density Estimation

## **Continuous variable**

Continuous probability distribution

Probability density function

Density value

Temperature (real number)

Gaussian Distribution

$$\int f_X(x) dx = 1$$

## **Discrete variable**

Discrete probability distribution

Probability mass function

Probability value

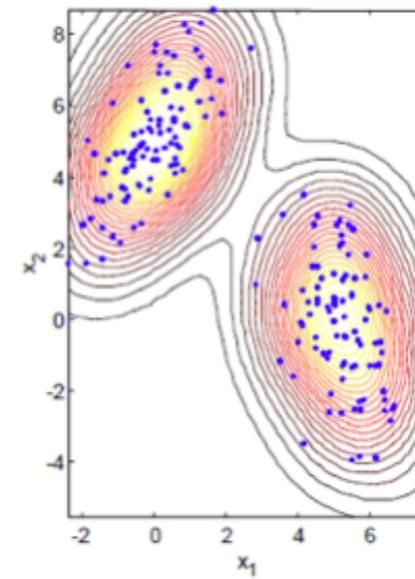
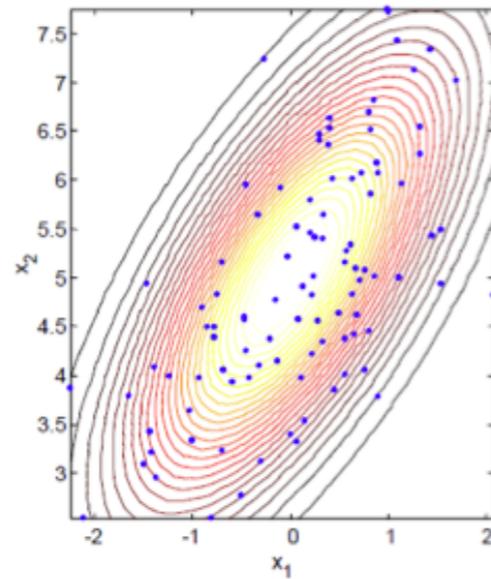
Coin flip (integer)

Bernoulli distribution

$$\sum_{x \in A} f_X(x) = 1$$

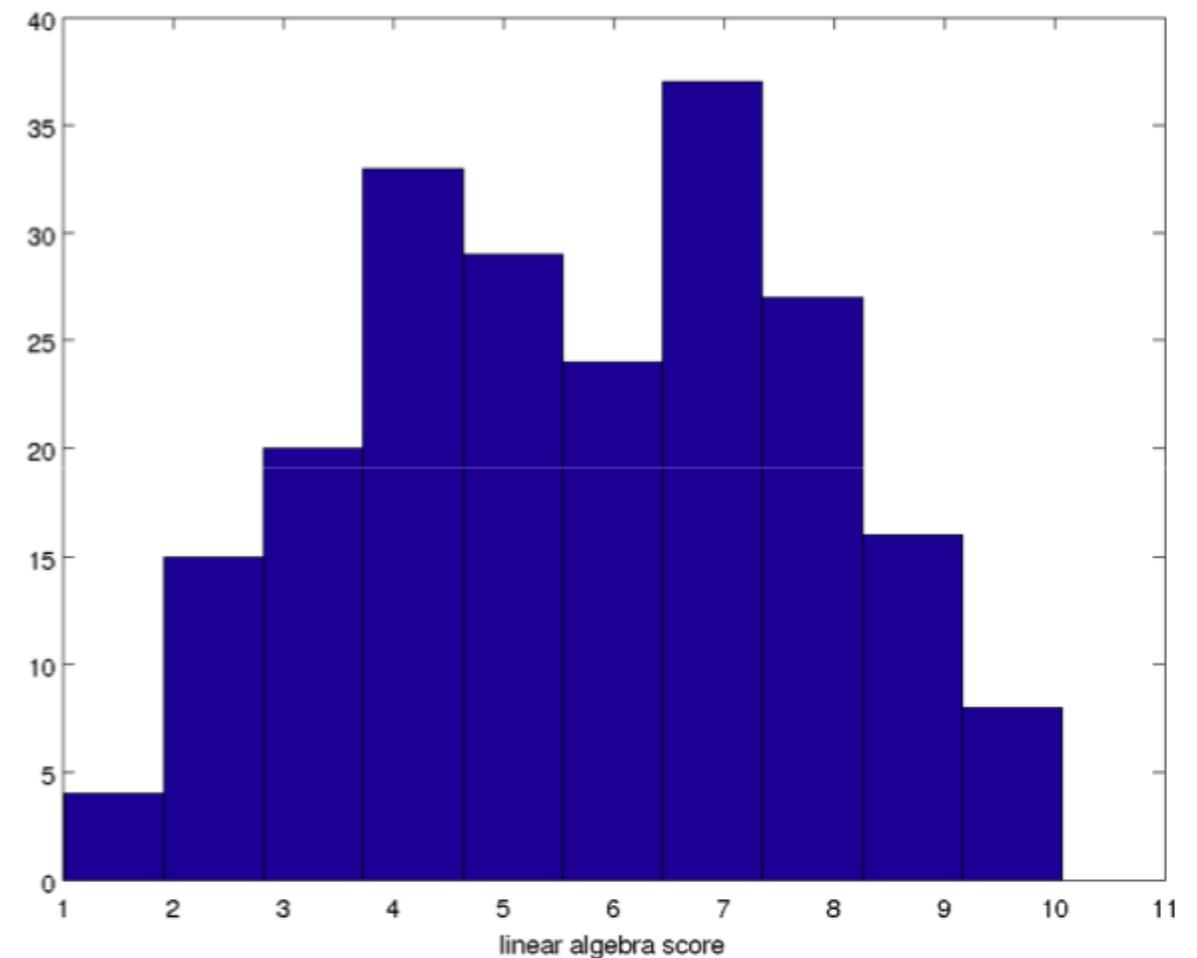
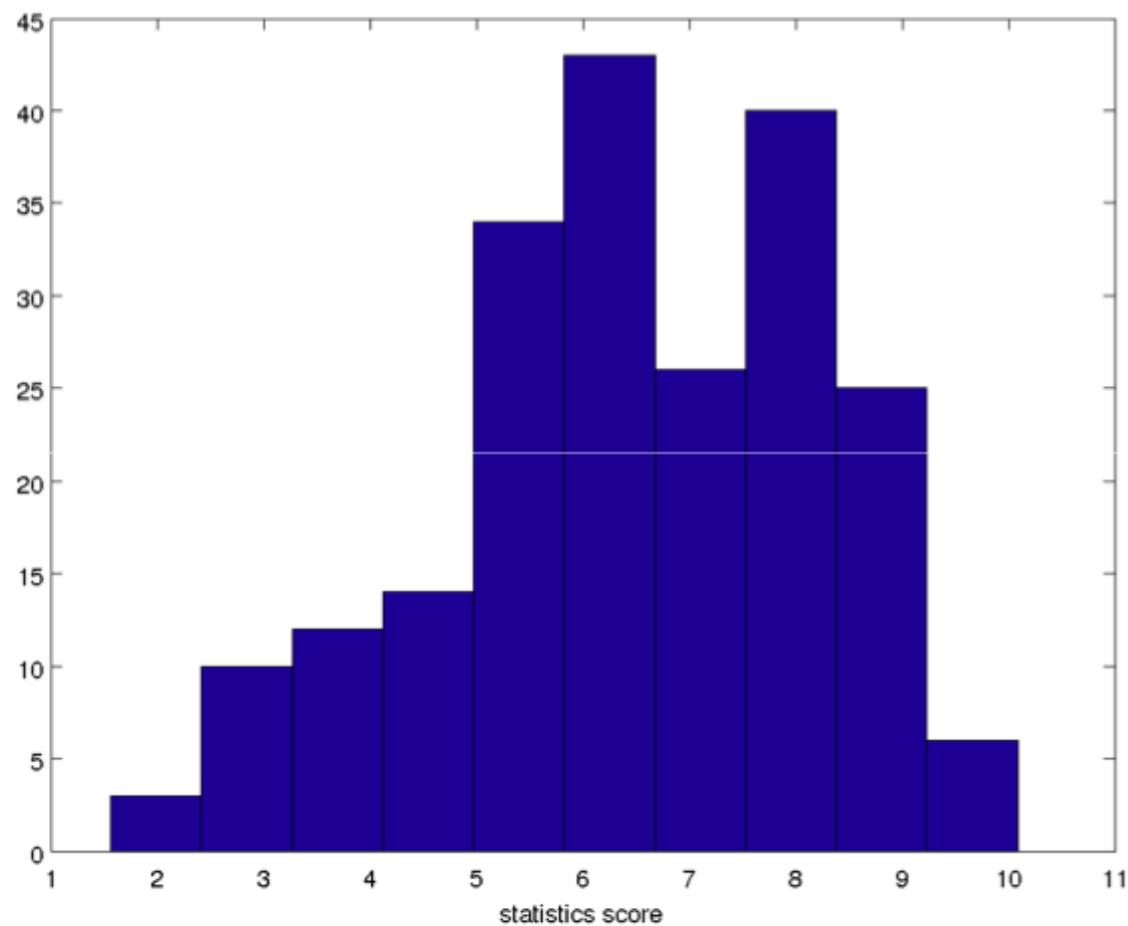
# Why Density Estimation?

- Learn more about the “shape” of the data cloud



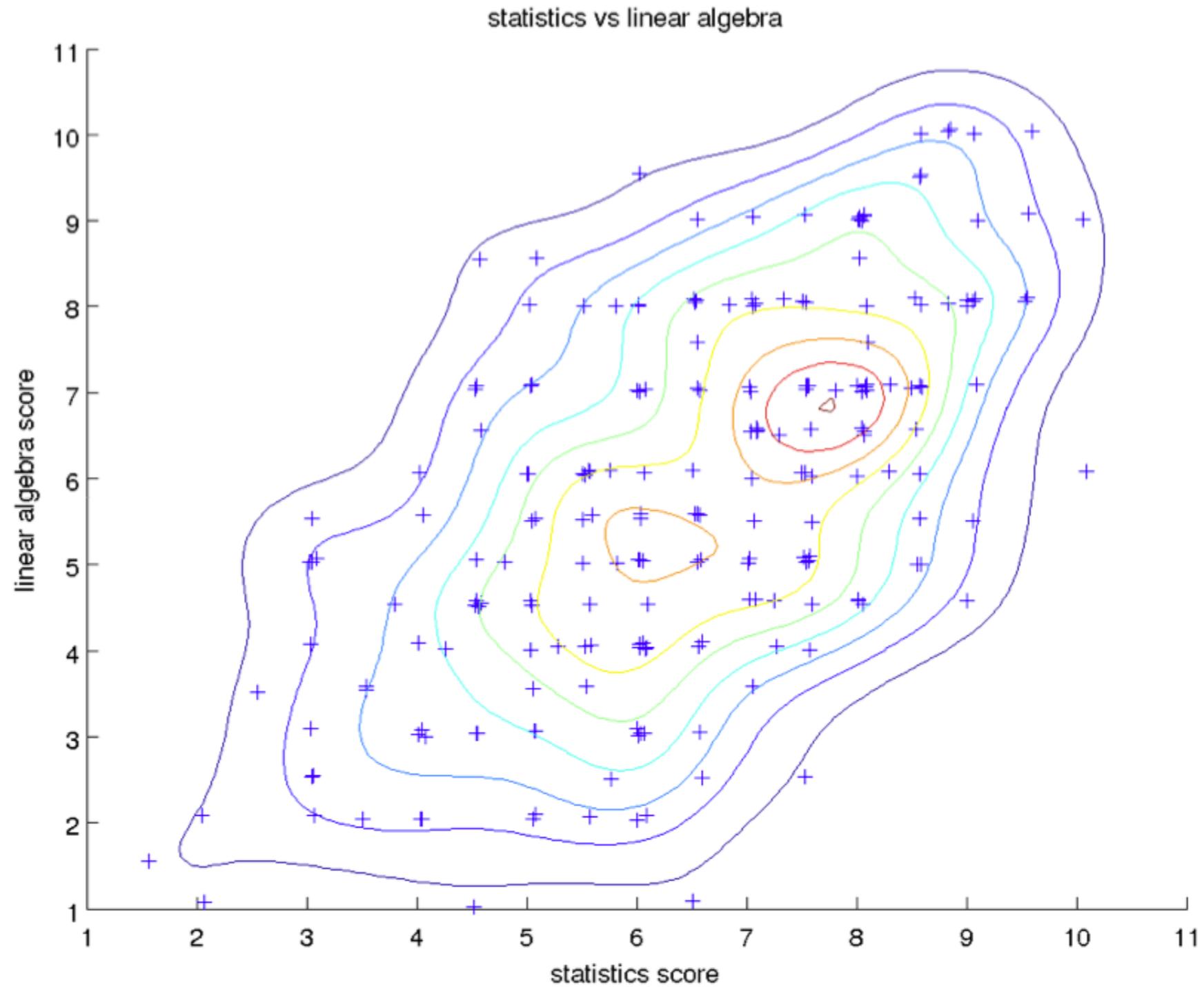
- Access the density of seeing a particular data point
  - Is this a typical data point? (high density value)
  - Is this an abnormal data point / outlier? (low density value)
- Building block for more sophisticated learning algorithms
  - Classification, regression, graphical models ...
  - A simple recommendation system

# Example: Test Scores



Histogram is an estimate of the probability distribution of a continuous variable

# Example: Test Scores



# Parametric Density Estimation

- Models which can be described by a fixed number of parameters

- Discrete case: eg. Bernoulli distribution

$$P(x|\theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}$$

1 → Head

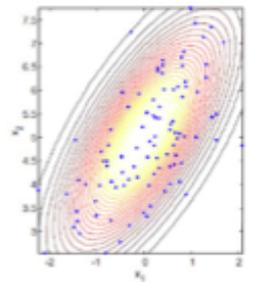
0 → Tails

one parameter,  $x \in [0,1]$ , which generate a family of models,  $\mathcal{F} = \{P(x|\theta) \mid x \in [0,1]\}$ ,  $\theta$  probability of possible outcome



- Continuous case: eg. Gaussian distribution in  $R^d$

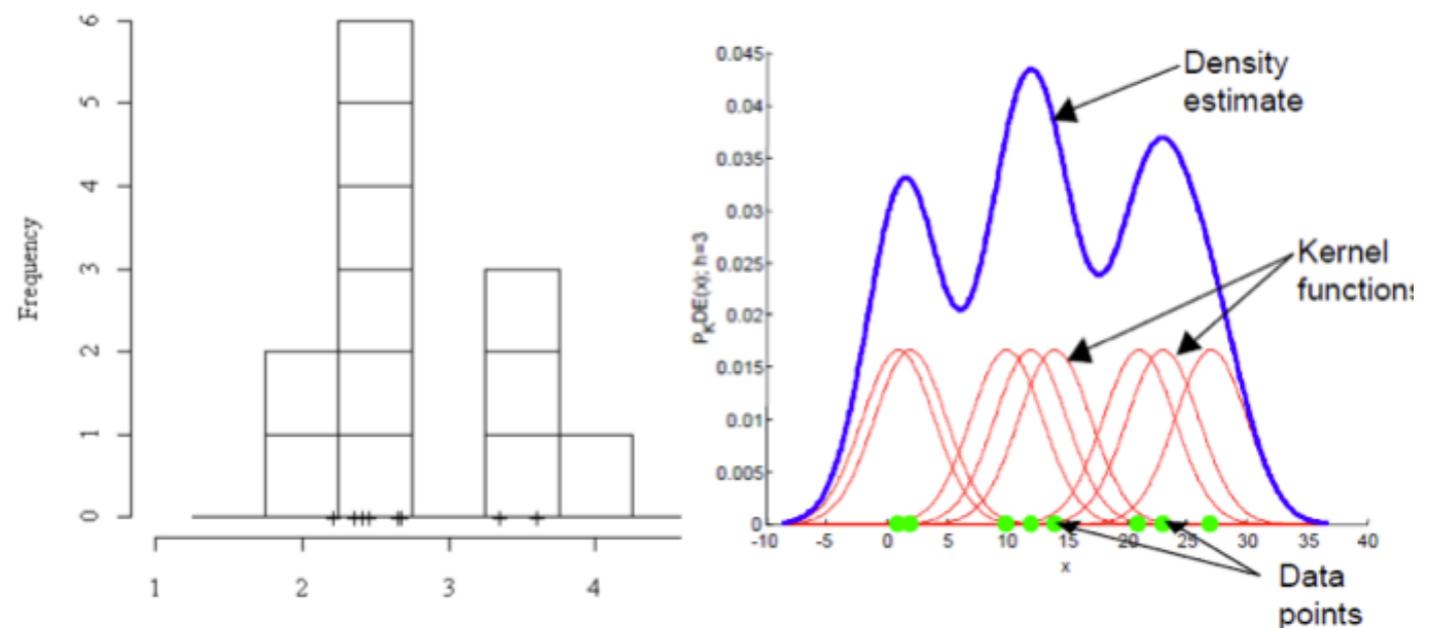
$$p(x|\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}} (2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)\right)$$



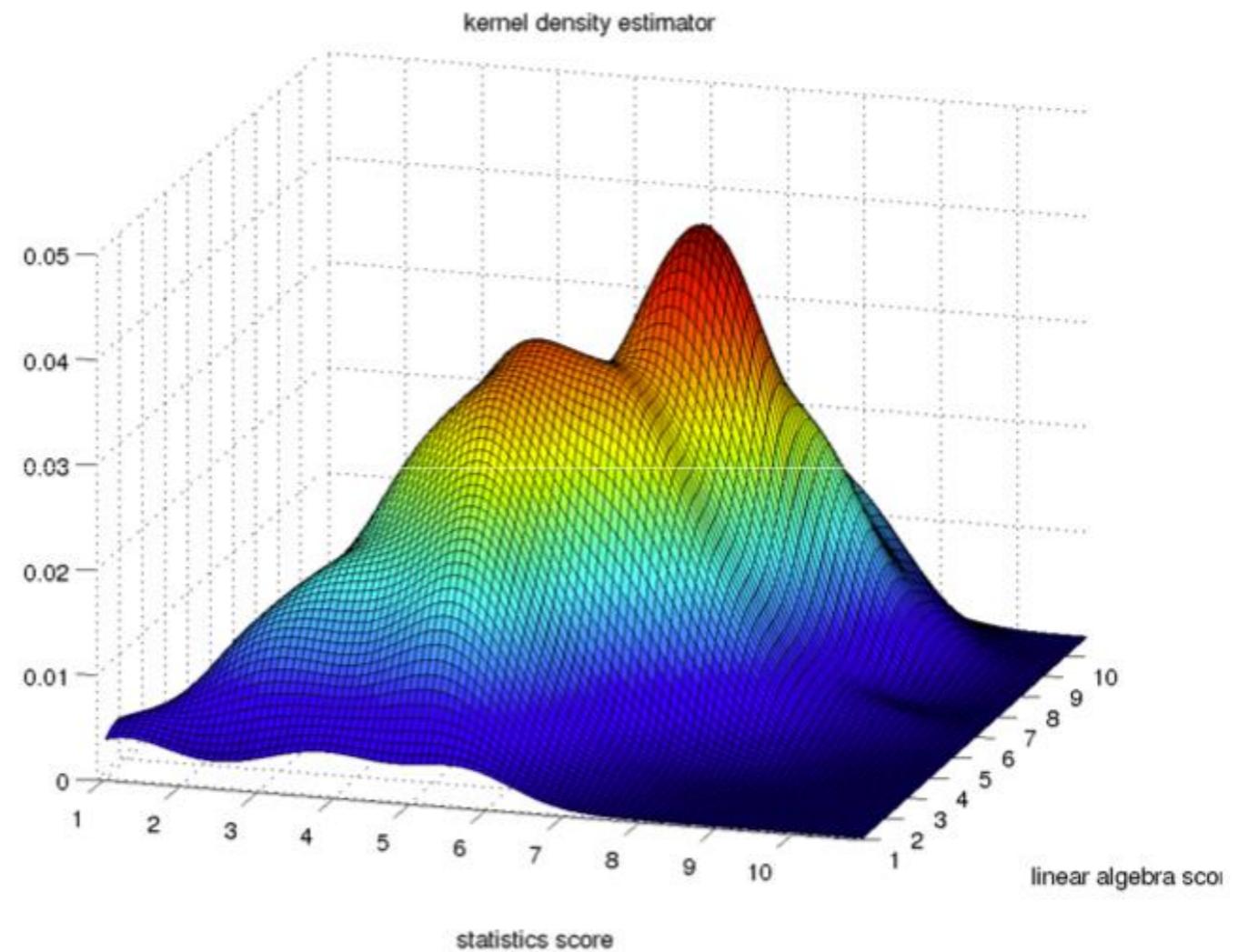
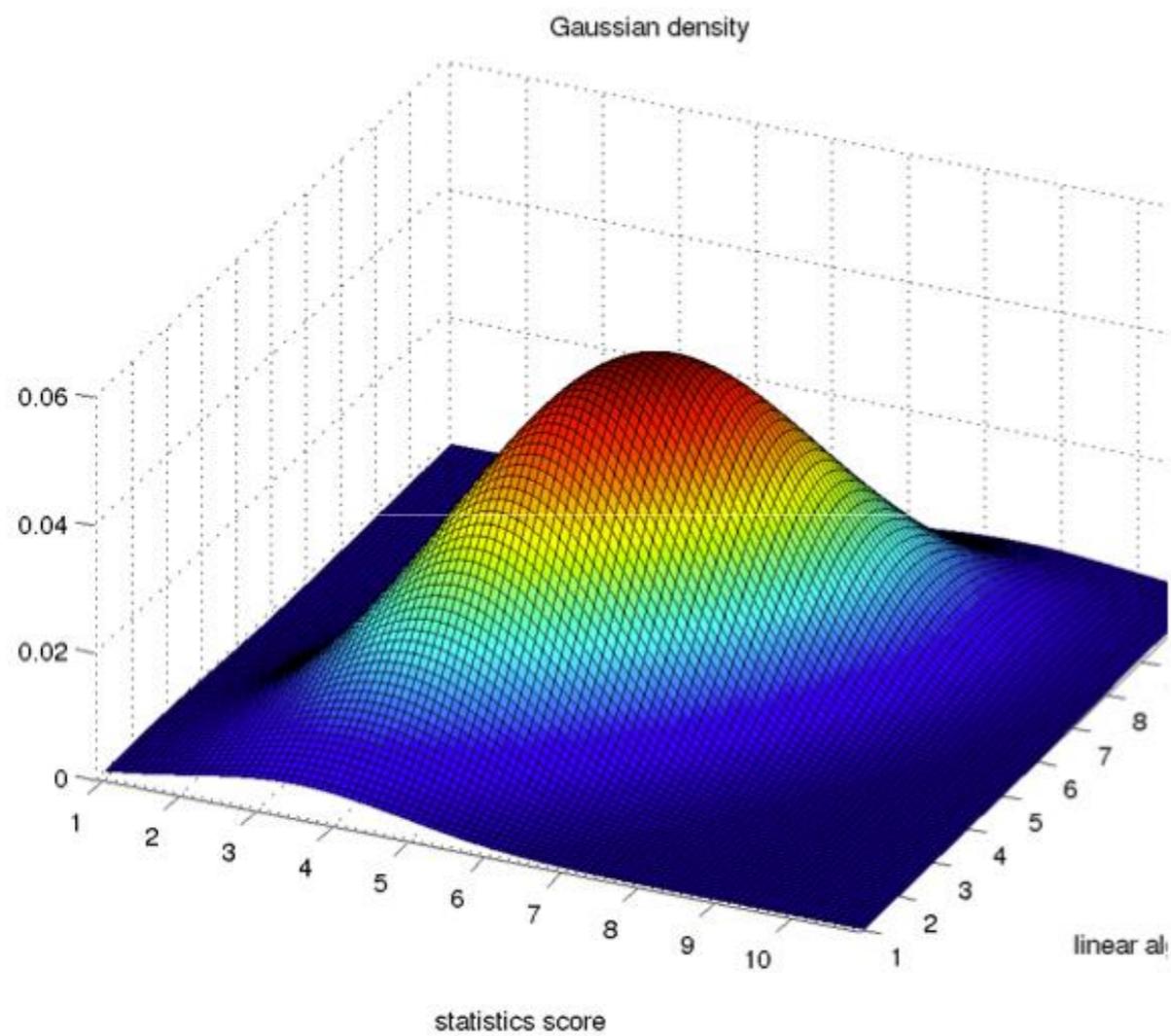
Two sets of parameters  $\{\mu, \Sigma\}$ , which again generate a family of models,  $\mathcal{F} = \{p(x|\mu, \Sigma) \mid \mu \in R^d, \Sigma \in R^{d \times d} \text{ and PSD}\}$ ,

# Nonparametric Density Estimation

- What are nonparametric models?
  - “nonparametric” does **not** mean there are no parameters
  - can not be described by a fixed number of parameters
  - one can think of there are many parameters
- Eg. Histogram
- Eg. Kernel density estimator

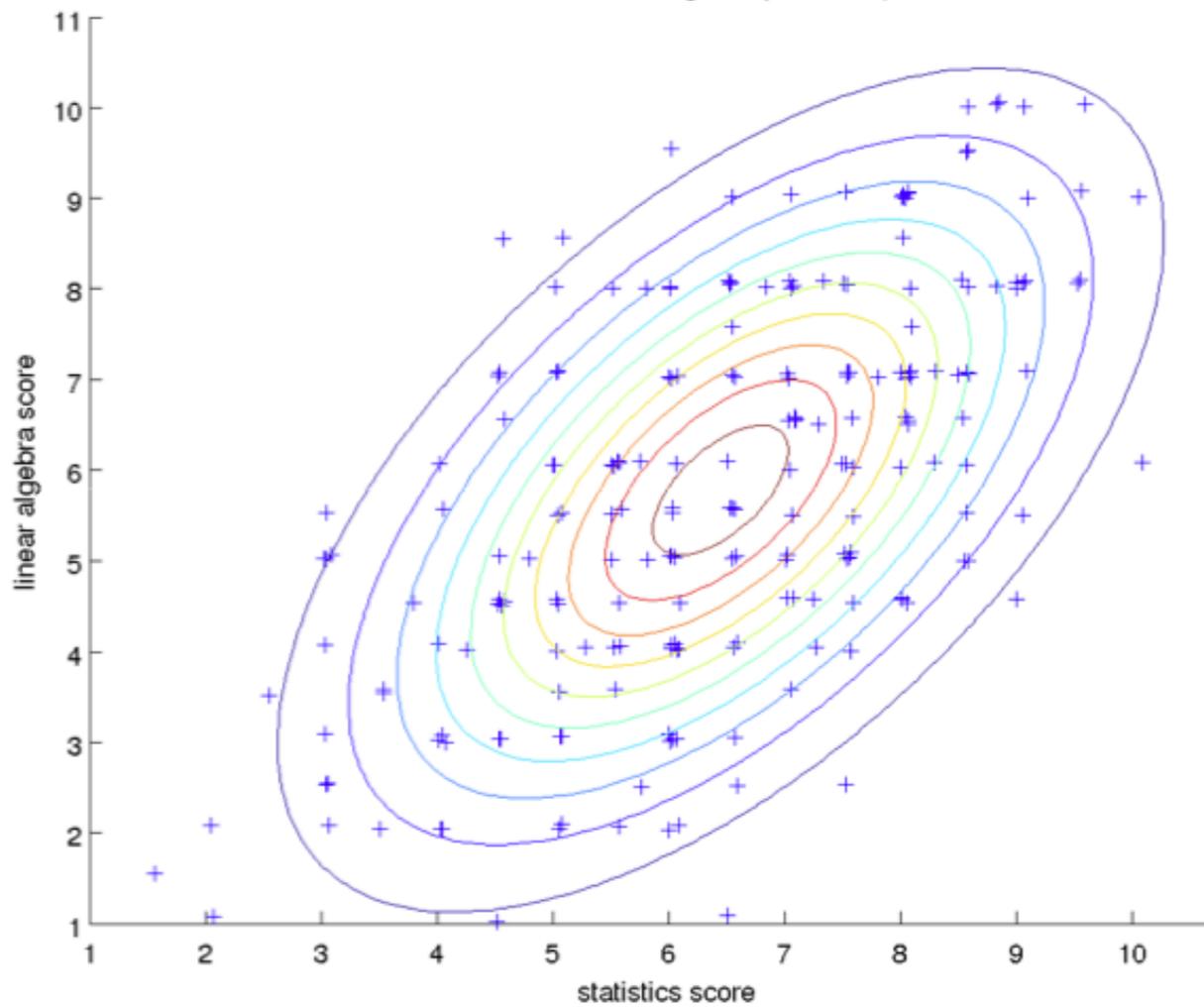


# Parametric v.s. Nonparametric Density Estimation

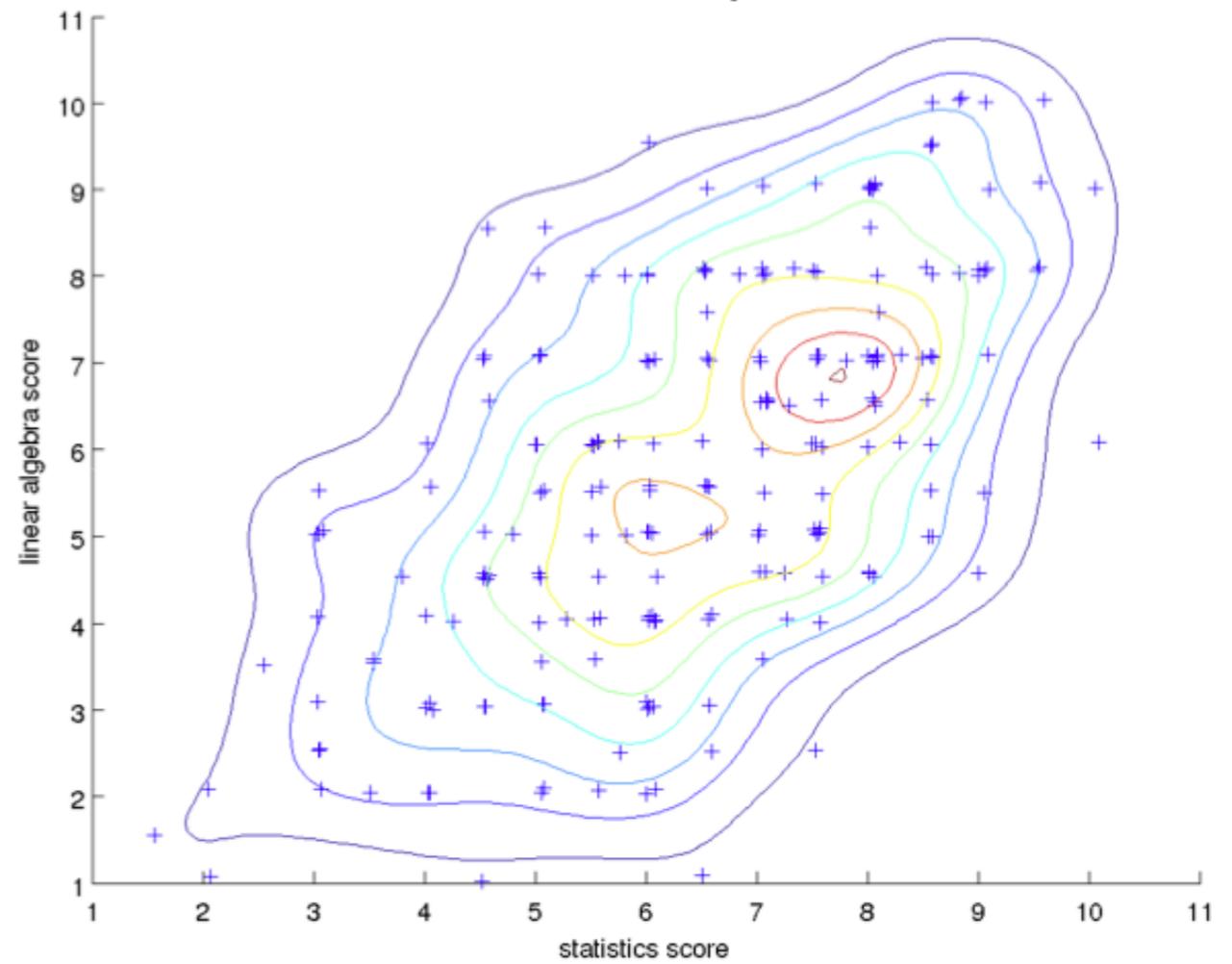


# Parametric v.s. Nonparametric Density Estimation

statistics vs linear algebra (Gaussian)



statistics vs linear algebra



# Outline

- Overview
- Parametric Density Estimation ← 
- Nonparametric Density Estimation

# Estimating Parametric Models

- A very popular estimator is the **maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)**, which is simple and has good statistical properties
- Assume that  $n$  data points  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  drawn **independently and identically (iid)** from some distribution  $P^*(x)$

Using the parameters, we can estimate each data point

- Want to fit the data with a model  $P(x|\theta)$  with parameter  $\theta$

$$\theta = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log P(X|\theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log \prod_{i=1}^N P(x_i|\theta)$$

# Example Problem

- Estimate the probability  $\theta$  of landing in heads using a biased coin
- Given a sequence of  $n$  independently and identically distributed (iid) flips
  - Eg.  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} = \{1, 0, 1, \dots, 0\}, x_i \in \{0, 1\}$
- Model:  $P(x|\theta) = \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{1-x}$ 
  - $P(x|\theta) = \begin{cases} 1 - \theta, & \text{for } x = 0 \\ \theta, & \text{for } x = 1 \end{cases}$
- Likelihood of a single observation  $x_i$  ?
  - $L(\theta|x_n) = p(x_n|\theta) = \theta^{x_n}(1 - \theta)^{1-x_n}$



# MLE for Biased Coin

- Objective function, log-likelihood

$$\begin{aligned}l(\theta|\mathbf{X}) &= \log L(\theta|\mathbf{X}) = \log \prod_{n=1}^N \theta^{x_n} (1 - \theta)^{1-x_n} = \log(\theta^{N_H} (1 - \theta)^{N_T}) \\ &= N_H \times \log \theta + N_T \times \log(1 - \theta)\end{aligned}$$

$N_H$  = number of heads,  $N_T$  = number of tails

- Maximize  $l(\theta|\mathbf{X})$  w.r.t.  $\theta \rightarrow$  take derivative w.r.t.  $\theta$  and set it to zero

$$\frac{\partial l(\theta|\mathbf{X})}{\partial \theta} = \frac{N_H}{\theta} - \frac{N - N_H}{1 - \theta} = 0 \rightarrow \theta_{MLE} = \frac{N_H}{N}$$

- Example:  $N_H = 78, N_T = 22 \rightarrow \theta = 0.78$

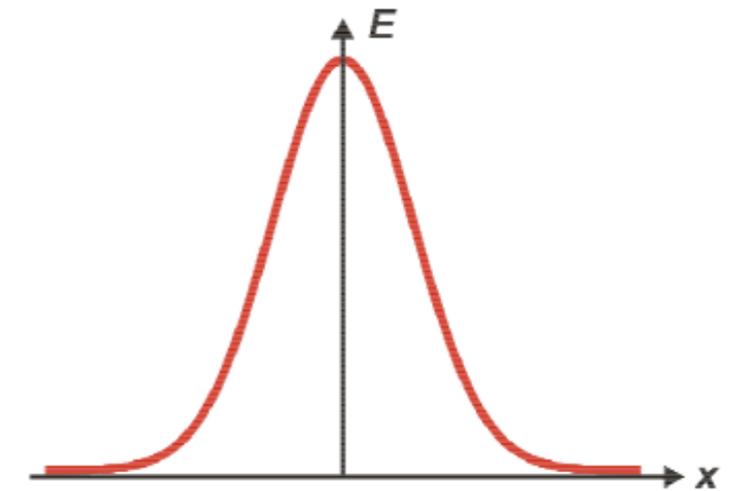
# Estimating Gaussian Distributions

- Gaussian distribution in  $R$

$$p(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right)$$

- Need to estimate two sets of parameters  $\mu, \sigma$
- Given  $n$  iid samples

$$X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}, x_i \in R$$



- Density of a data point:

$$p(x_i | \mu, \sigma) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

# Estimating Gaussian Distributions

- Gaussian distribution in  $R$

$$p(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right)$$

- Mean

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

- Variance

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

# MLE for Gaussian Distribution

- Objective function, log likelihood

$$l(\mu, \sigma; X) = \log \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$
$$= -\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

- Maximize  $l(\mu, \sigma; X)$  with respect to  $\mu, \sigma$
- Take derivatives w.r.t.  $\mu, \sigma^2$

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \mu} = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \sigma^2} = 0$$

# MLE for Gaussian Distribution

$$l(\mu, \sigma; X) = -\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

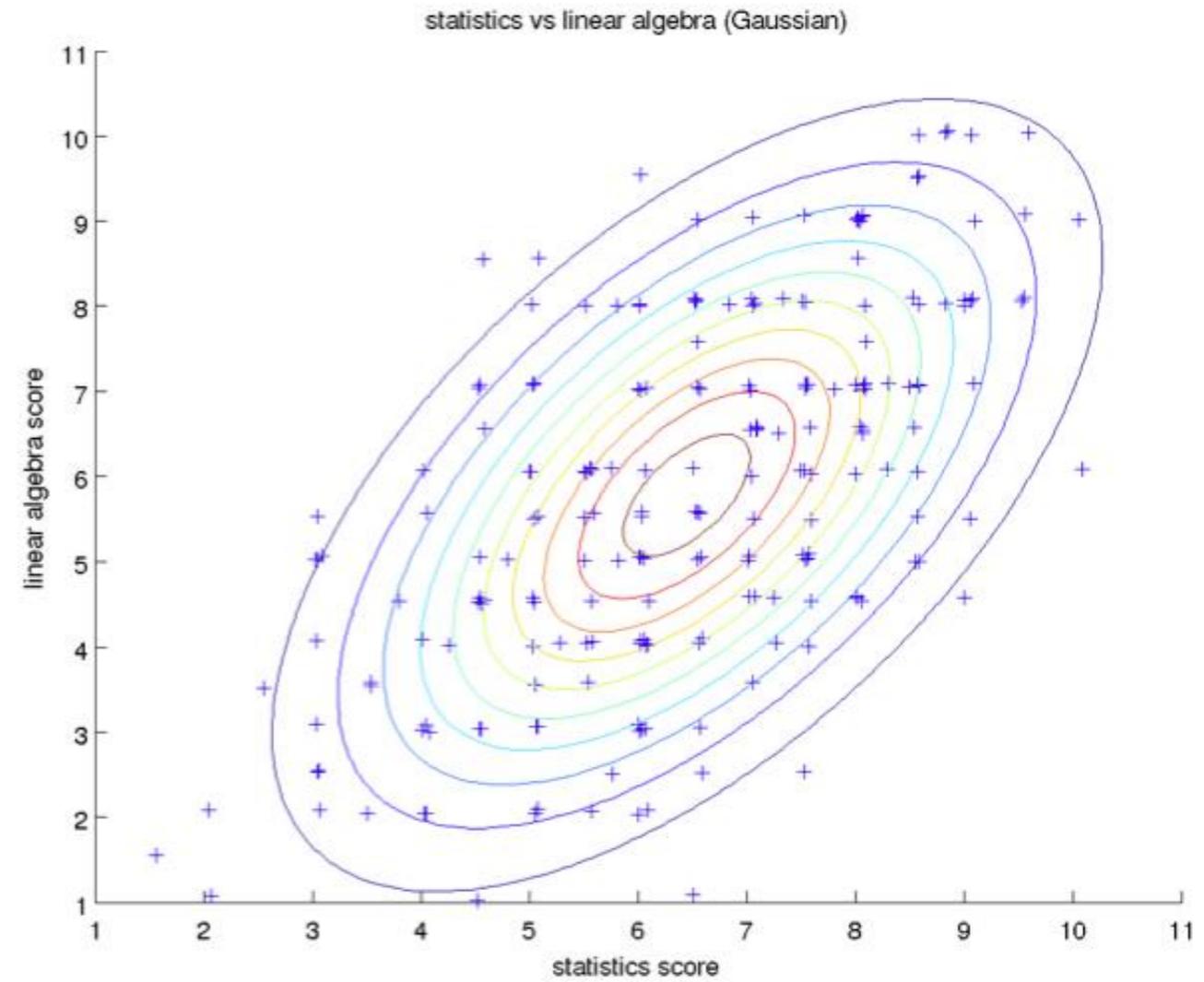
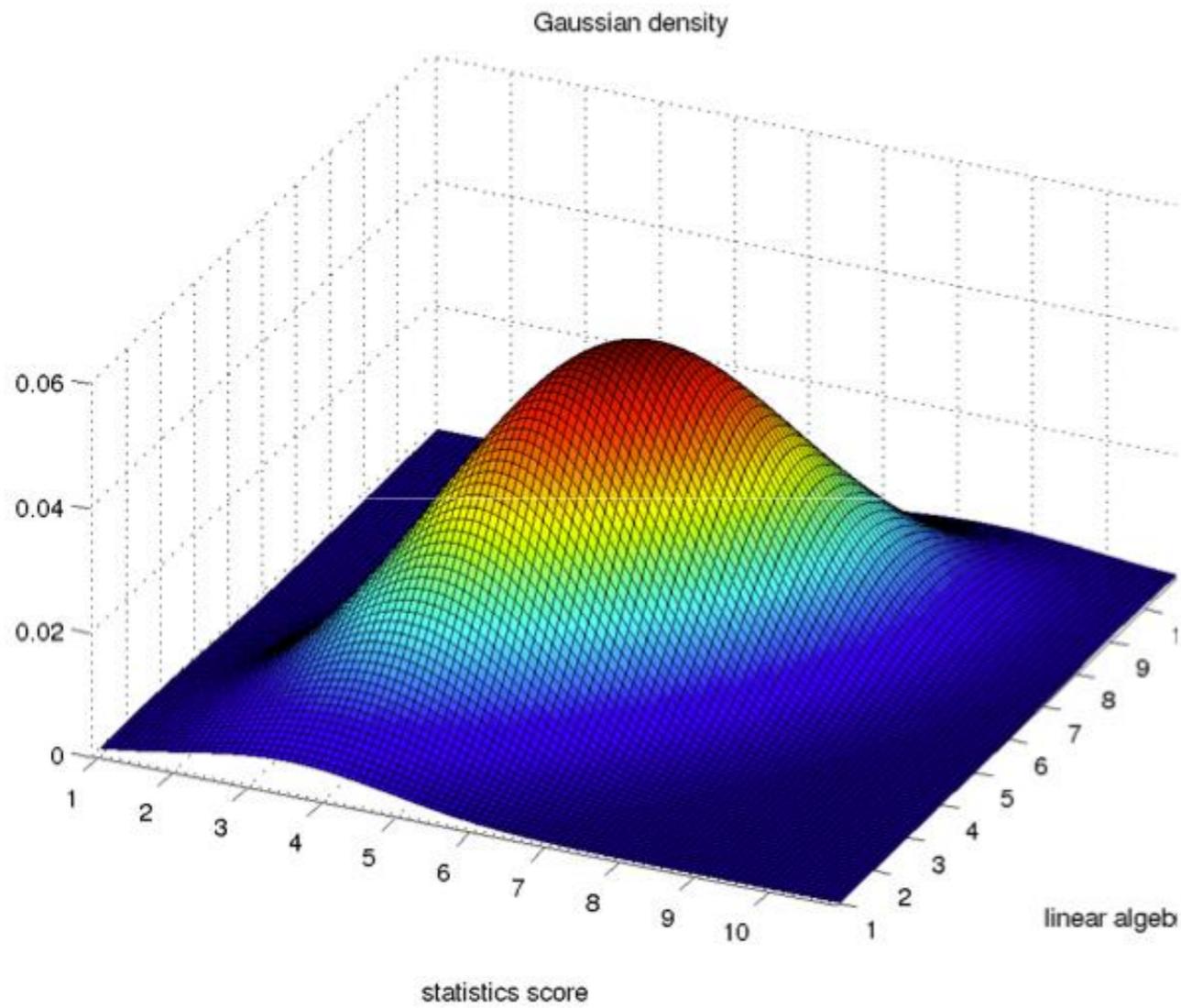
$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \mu} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \mu) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_i x_i = n\mu \Rightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 = n\sigma^2 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \mu)^2$$

# Example



# Outline

- Overview
- Parametric Density Estimation
- Nonparametric Density Estimation ← 

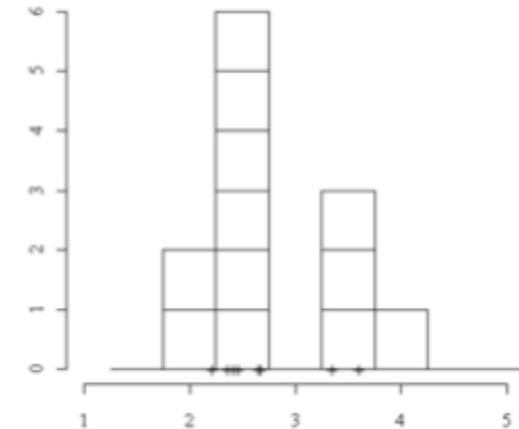
Can be used for:

- Visualization
- Classification
- Regression

# 1-D Histogram

- One the simplest nonparametric density estimator

- Given  $n$  iid samples  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} = x_i \in [0,1)$



- Split  $[0,1)$  into  $m$  bins

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

- Count the number of points,  $c_1$  within  $B_1$ ,  $c_2$  within  $B_2$ ...

- For a new test point  $x$

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{m c_j}{n} I(x \in B_j) = \frac{\text{number of points in bin } c}{\text{total number of data points} \times \text{bin width}}$$

Identity matrix

$\frac{1}{m}$

$$P = \int p(x) dx$$

The probability that point  $x$  is drawn from a distribution  $p(x)$

# Why is Histogram Valid?

- Requirement for density  $p(x)$
- $p(x) \geq 0, \int_{\Omega} p(x) dx = 1$

- For histogram, One dimensional case:

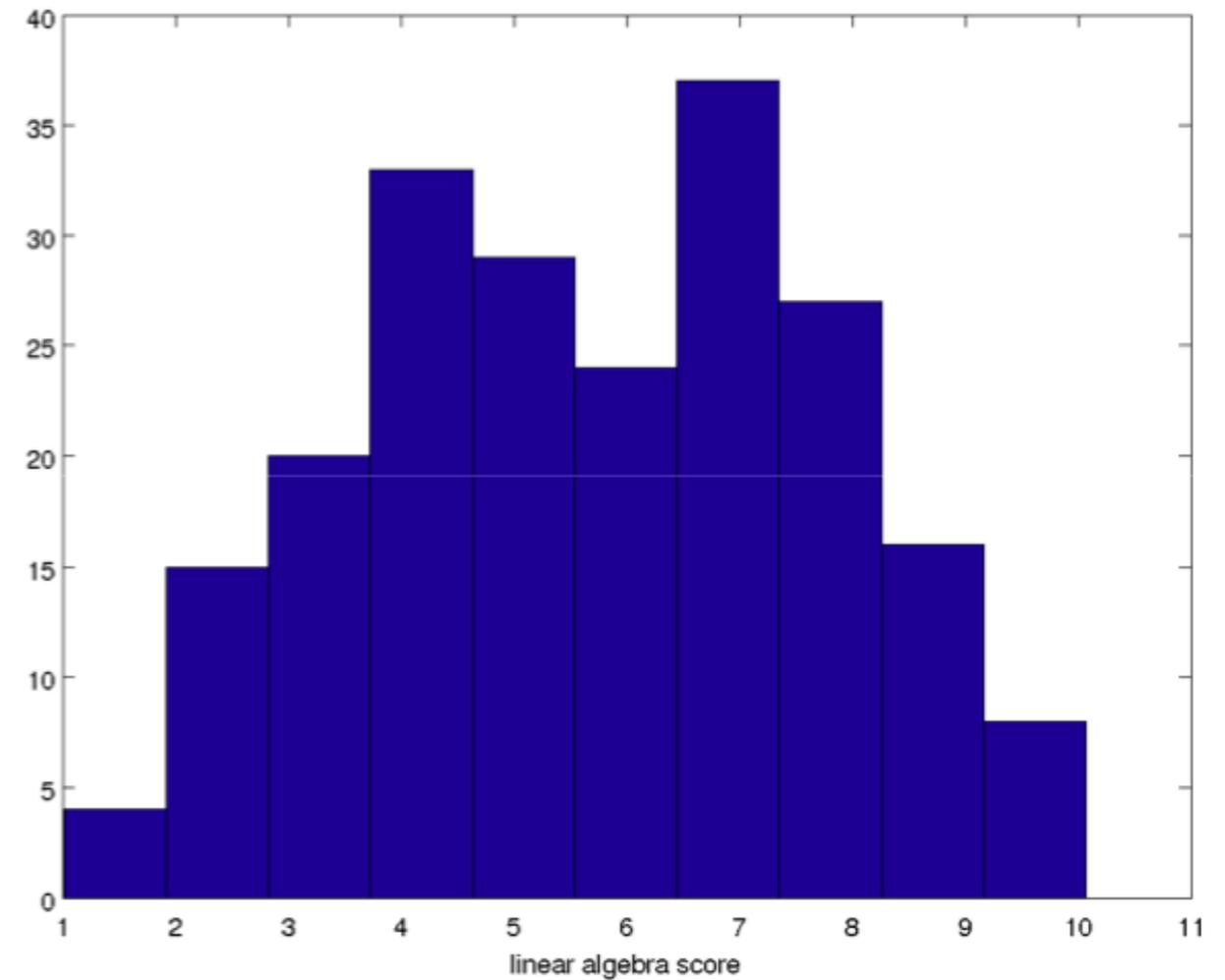
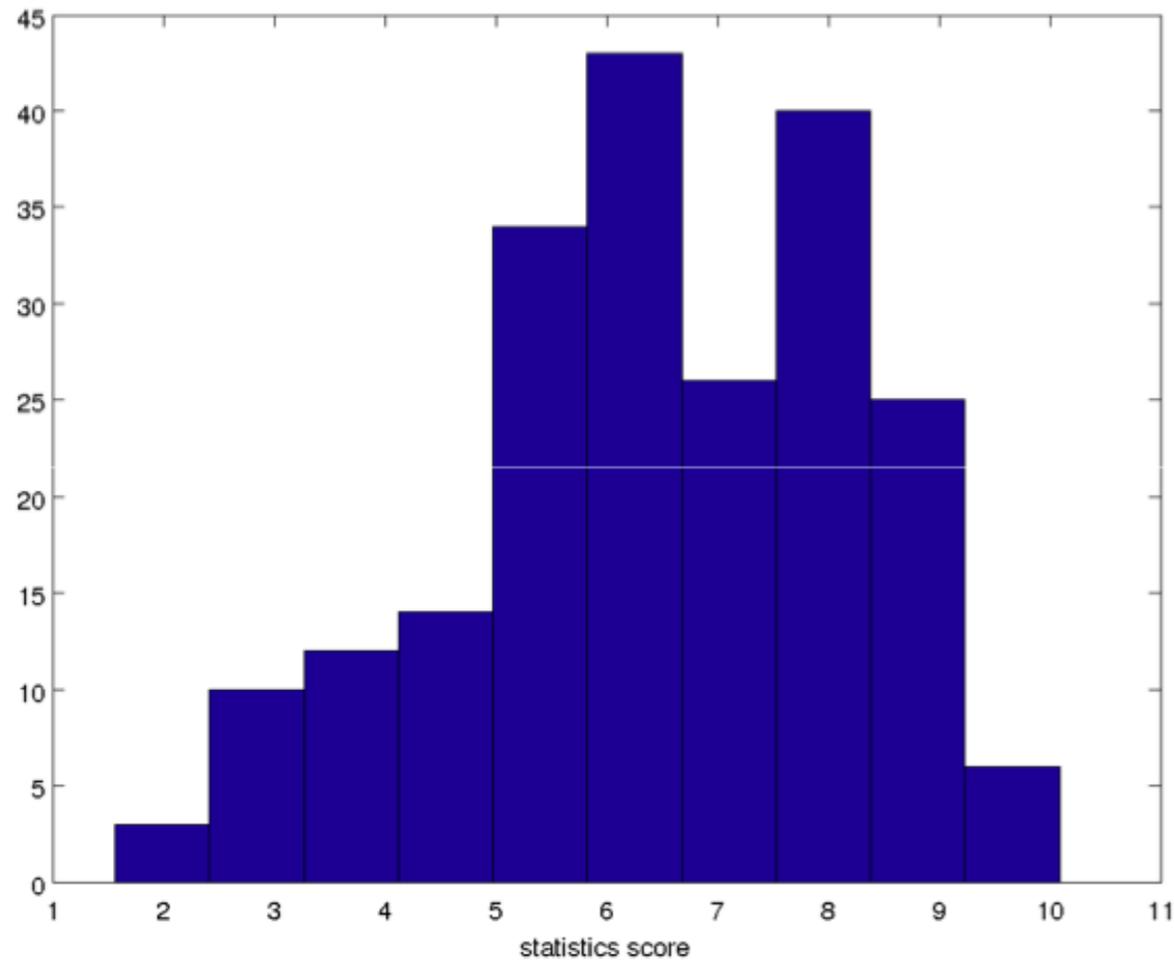
$$\int_{[0,1)} p(x) dx = \int_{[0,1)} \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{m c_j}{n} dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\frac{1}{m}} \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{m c_j}{n} dx + \int_{\frac{1}{m}}^{\frac{2}{m}} \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{m c_j}{n} dx + \dots + \int_{\frac{j-1}{m}}^{\frac{j}{m}} \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{m c_j}{n} dx = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{[\frac{j-1}{m}, \frac{j}{m})} \frac{m c_j}{n} dx$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{m c_j}{n} \left[ \frac{j}{m} - \frac{j-1}{m} \right] = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{c_j}{n} = 1$$

# Example: Test Scores

- What is missing if we want density?



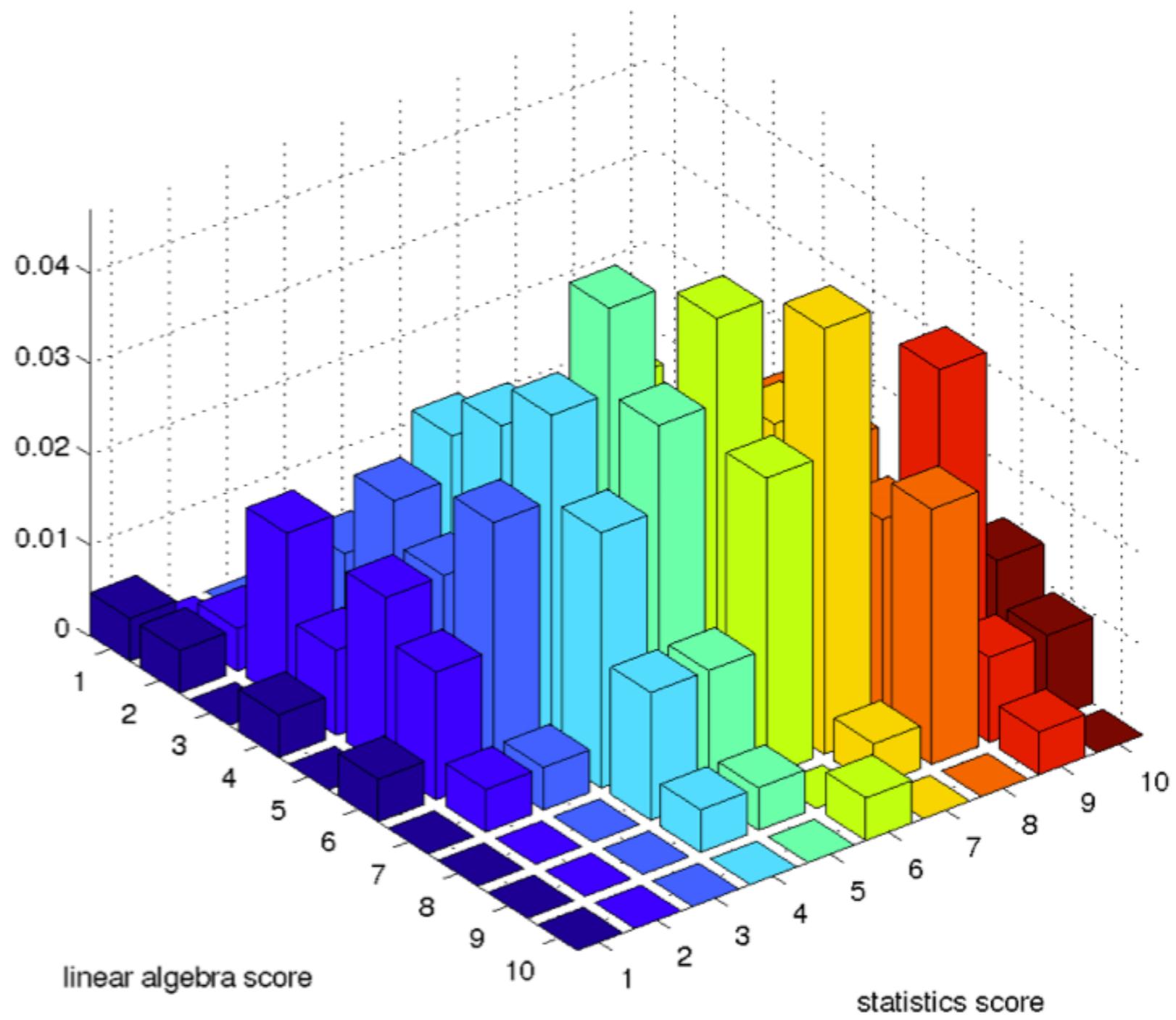
# Higher-Dimensional Histogram

- Given  $n$  iid samples  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ ,  $x_i \in [0,1)^d$
- Split  $[0,1)^d$  evenly into  $m^d$  bins
- Bin size is  $h = \frac{1}{m}$

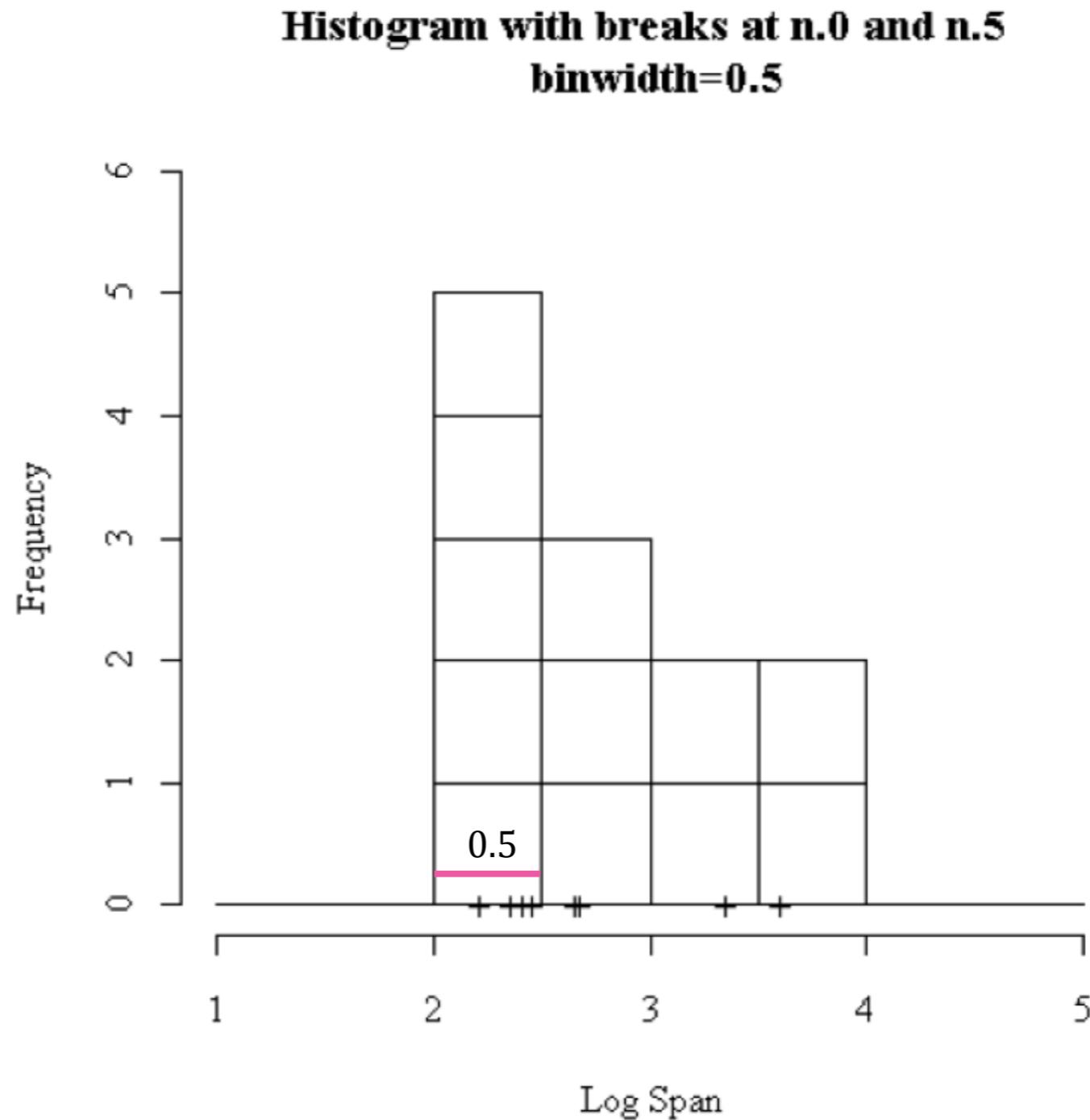
*Two Dimensional data:*

$m = 10$  (number of bins in each dimension)

$m^2 = 100$  ( total number of bins for two dimensional data)

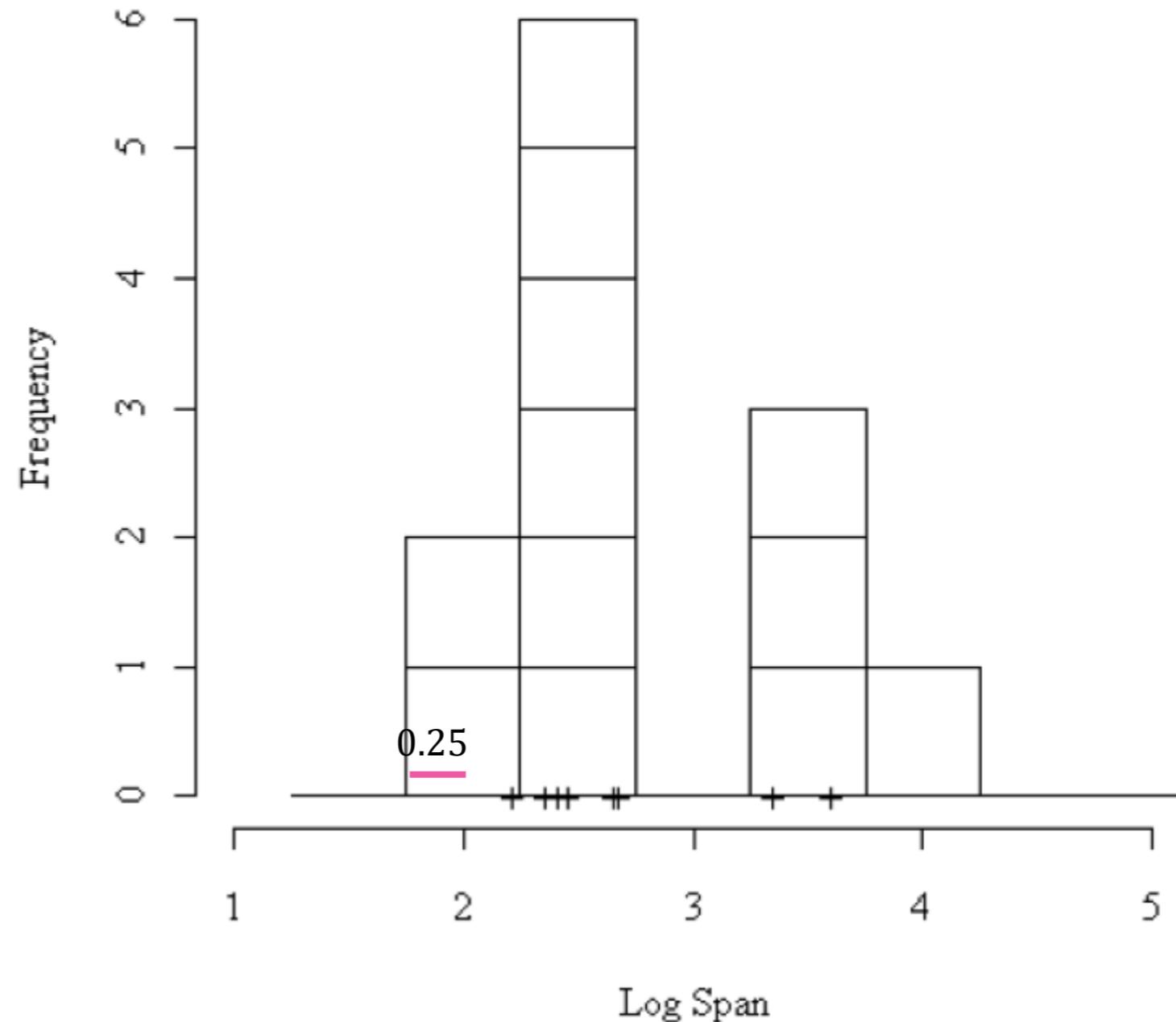


# Output Depends on Where You Put the Bins



# Output Depends on Where You Put the Bins

**Histogram with breaks at n.25 and n.75  
binwidth=0.5**



# Kernel Density Estimation

- Kernel density estimator

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right)$$

- Smoothing kernel function

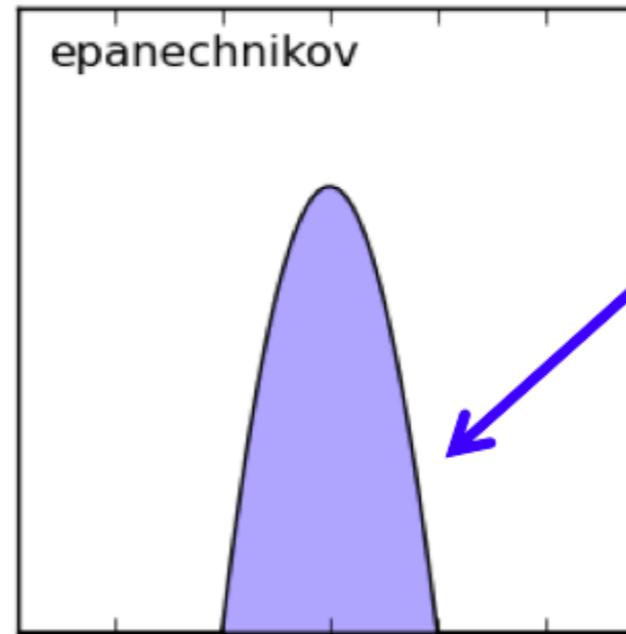
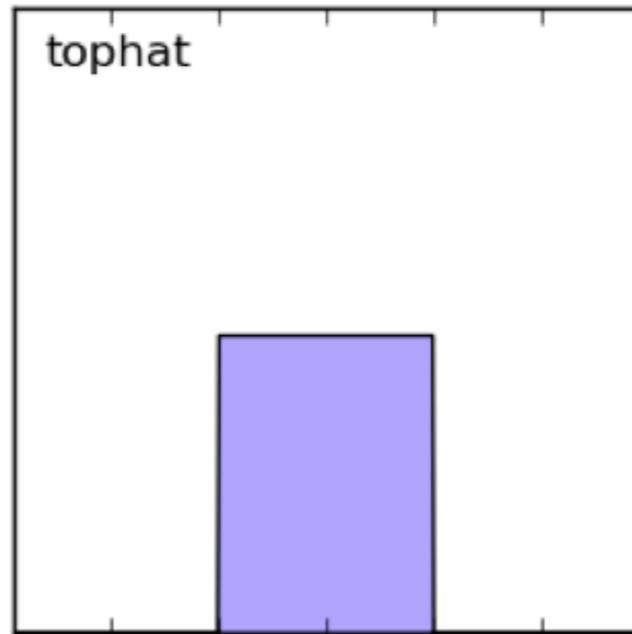
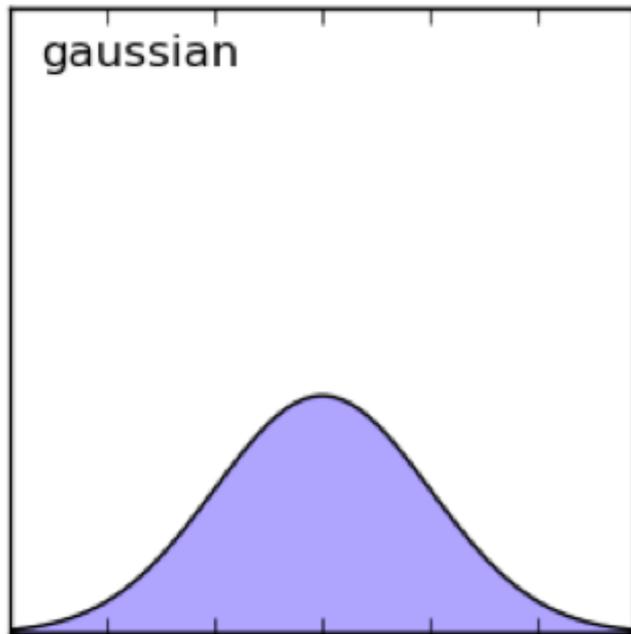
- $K(u) \geq 0$ ,
- $\int K(u)du = 1$ ,
- $\int uK(u) = 0$ ,
- $\int u^2K(u)du \leq \infty$

- An example: Gaussian kernel  $K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}$

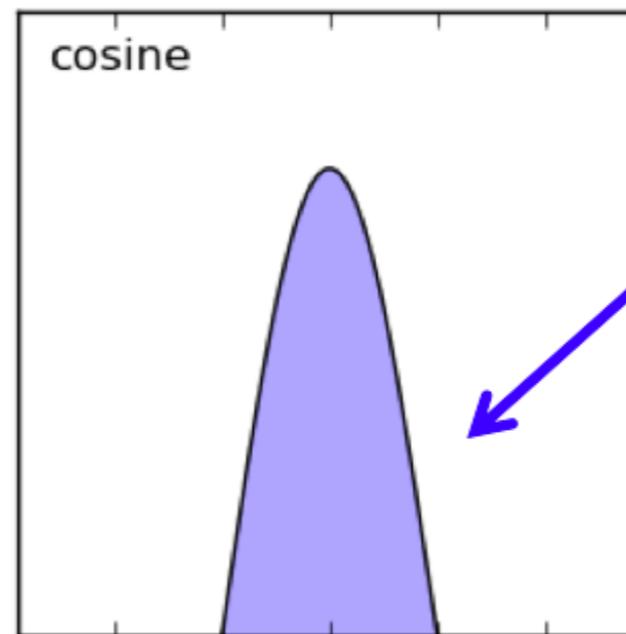
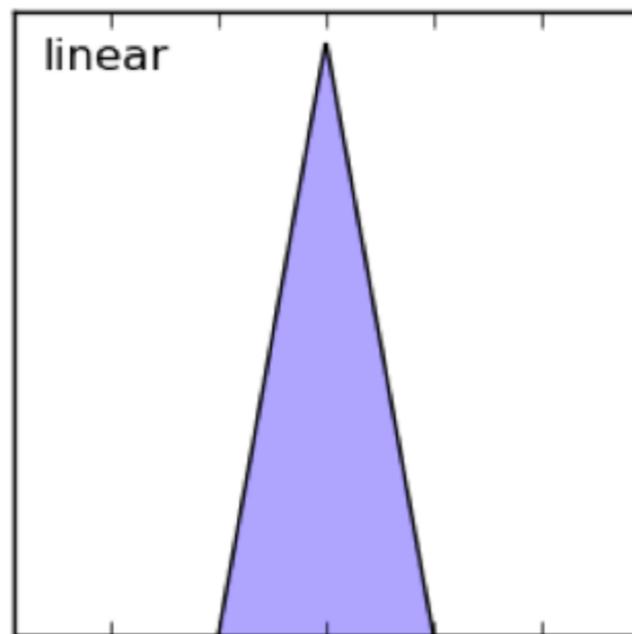
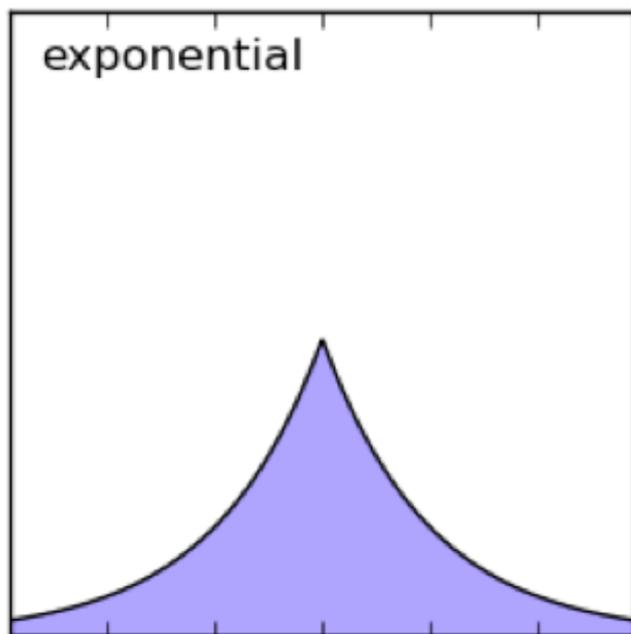
# Smoothing Kernel Functions

- An example: Gaussian kernel  $K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}$

Available Kernels

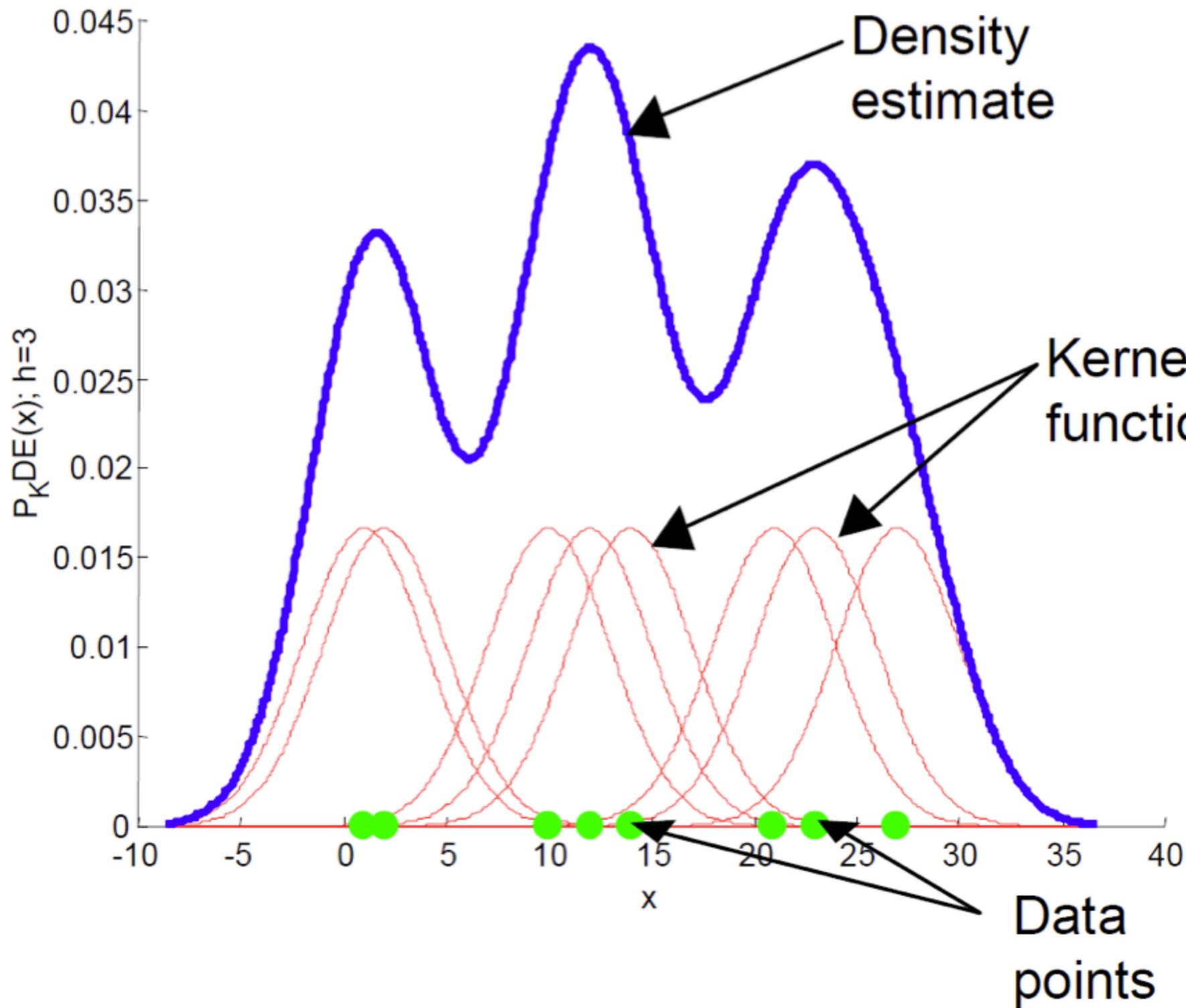


$$K(u) = \frac{3}{4} (1 - u^2) I(|u| \leq 1)$$



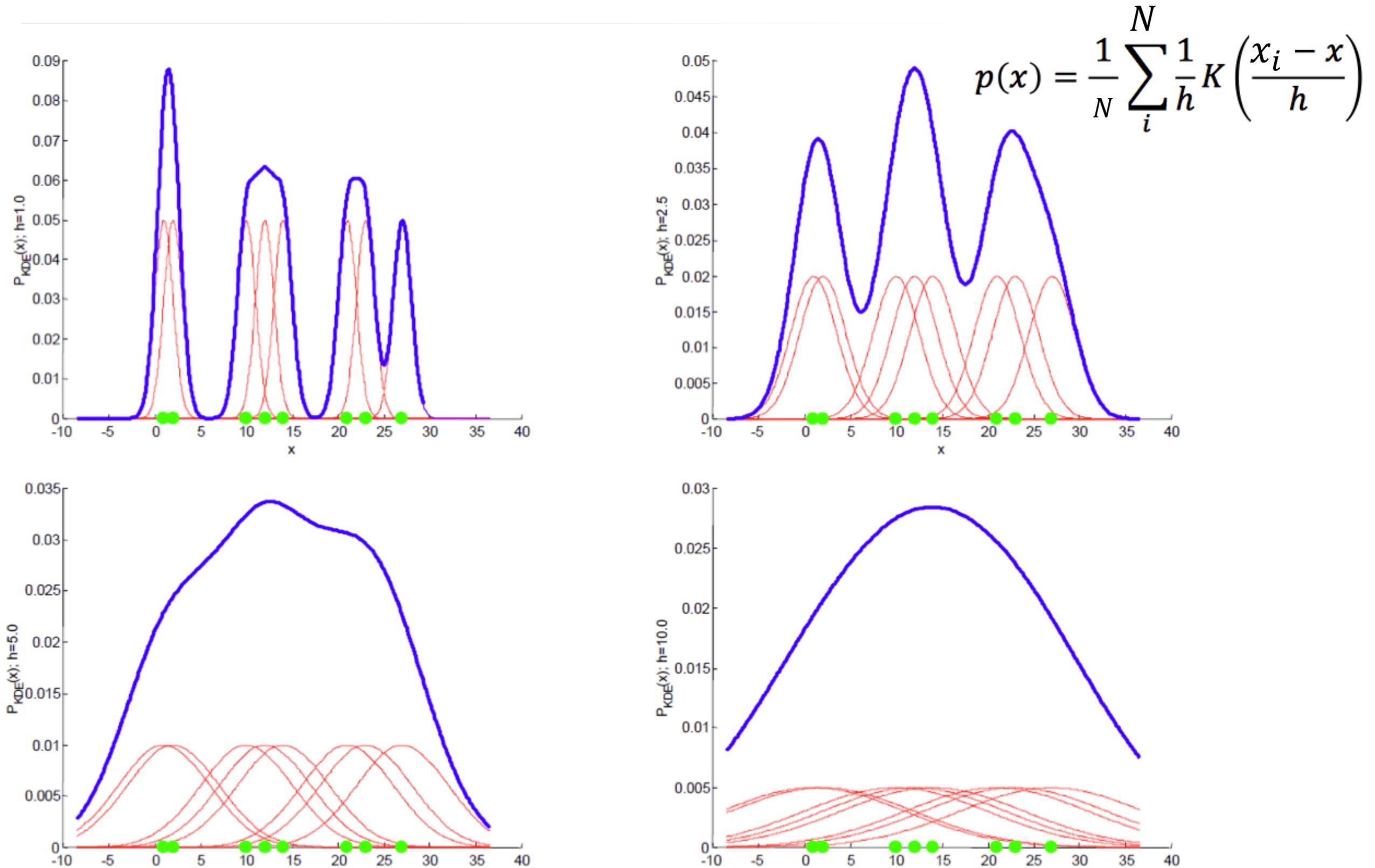
$$K(u) = \frac{\pi}{4} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}u\right) I(|u| \leq 1)$$

# Example



$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right)$$

# Effect of the Kernel Bandwidth



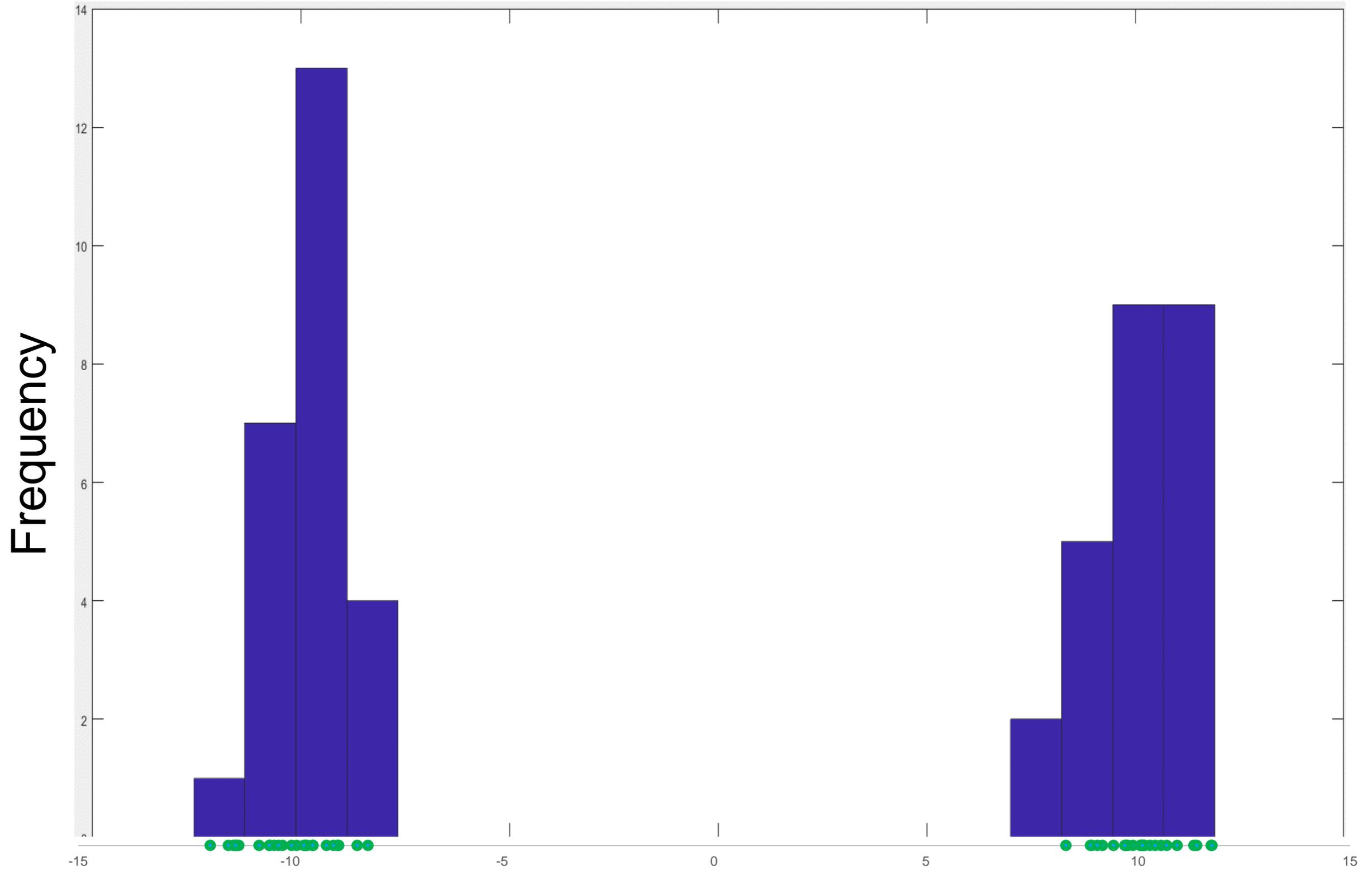
# Visual Example

50 datapoints are given to us



# Visual Example

Let's implement 20 bins histogram



# Visual Example

Let's create 200 uniform points to have a smoother density function  
**OR** simply you can just implement this on each datapoint

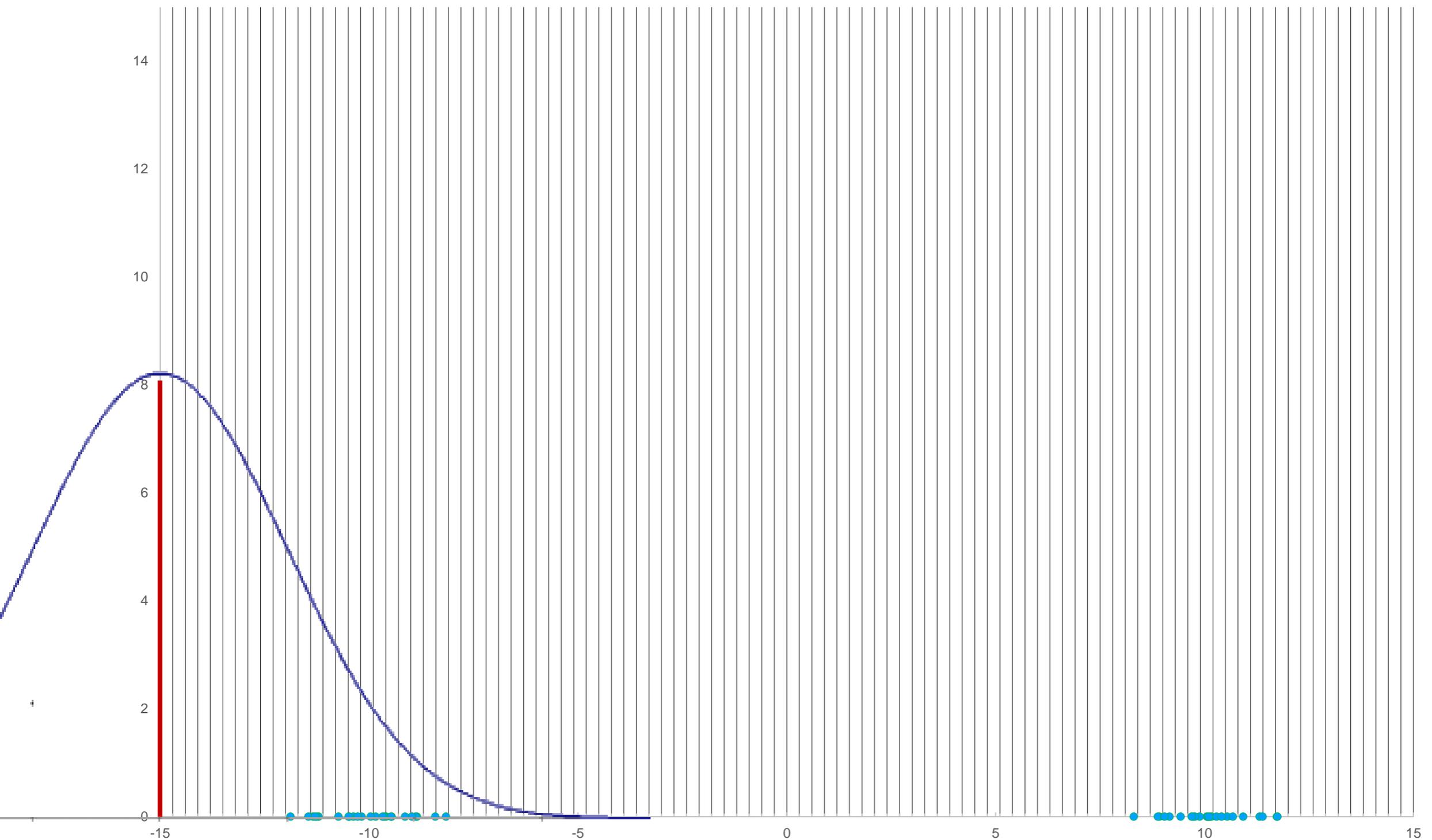


For **each** linearly spaced line, let's calculate the Gaussian kernel value over the given 50 points

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N \frac{1}{h} K(u)$$

$$u = \frac{x_i - x}{h}$$

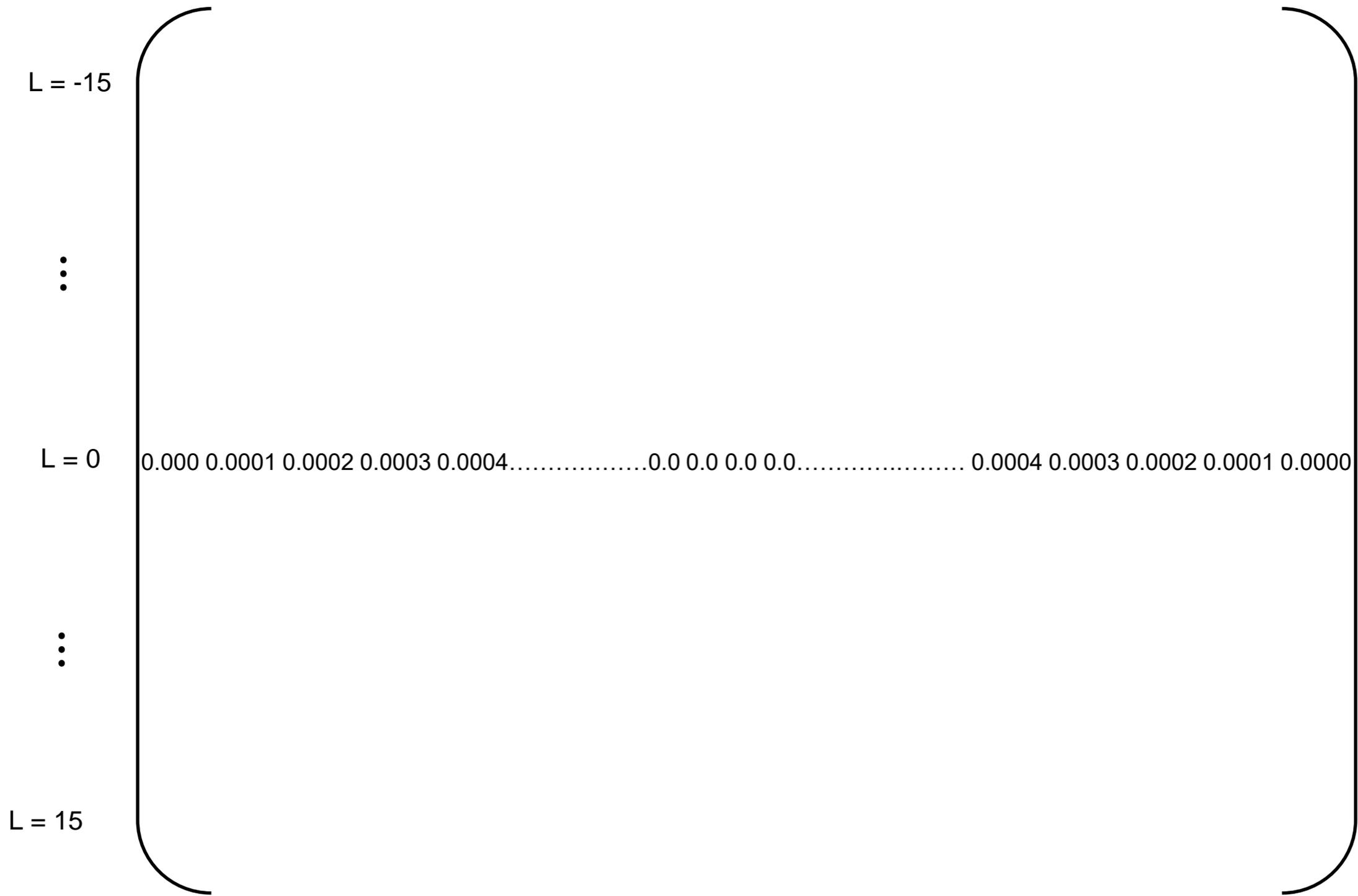
$$K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}$$



# Density value

As an example of kernel heights for line at 0

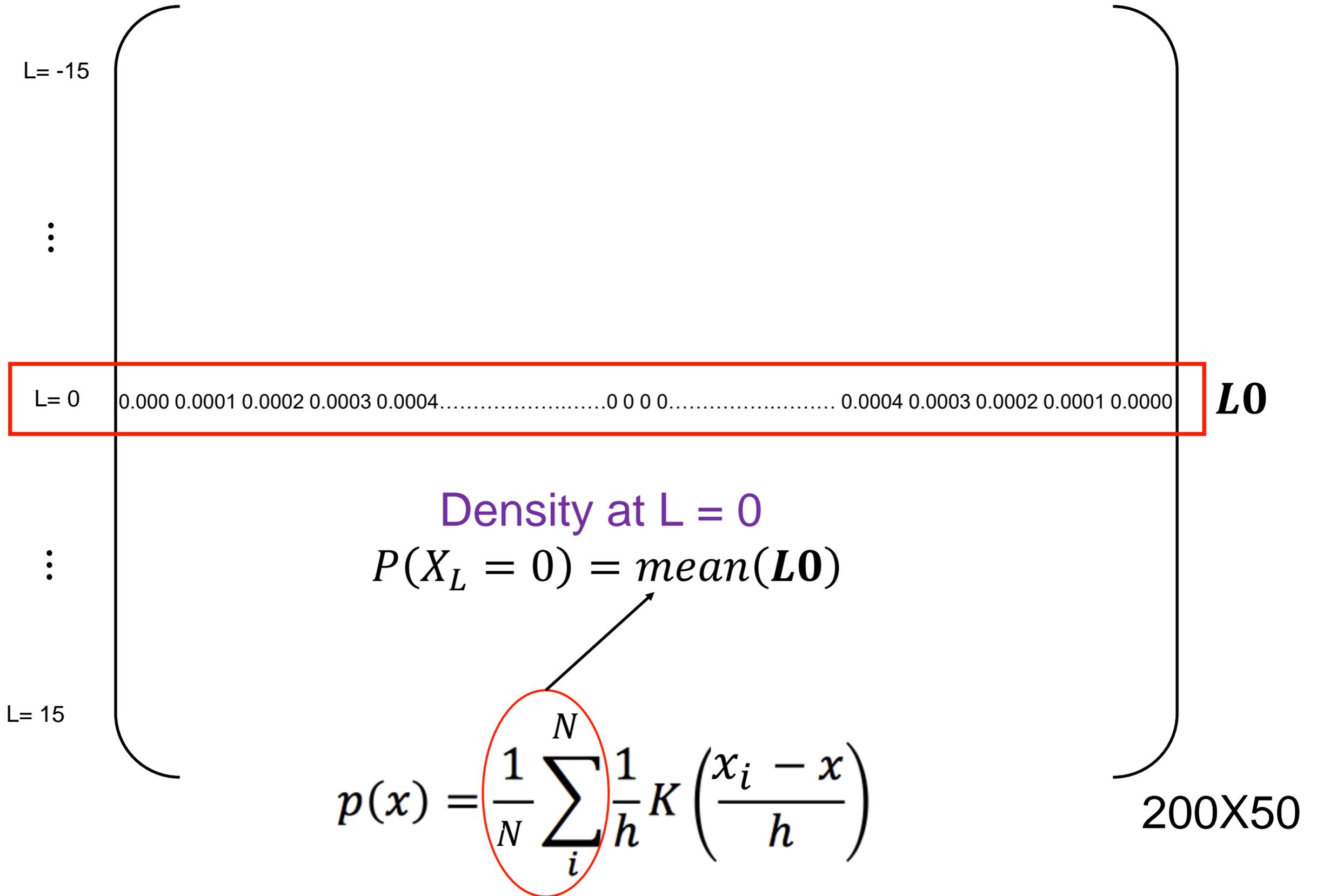
Linearly spaced points



200X50

# Density value

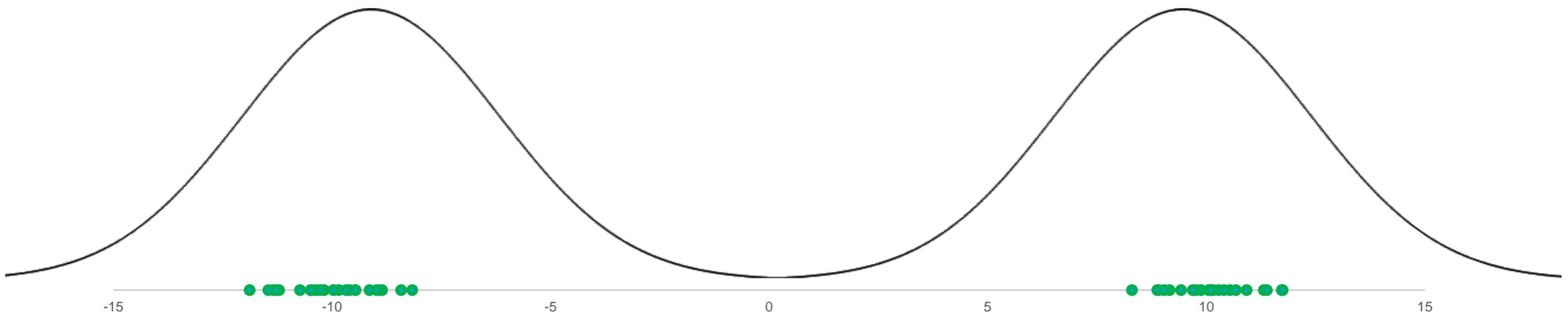
Linearly spaced points



# Visual Example

Based on Gaussian kernel estimator

[Interactive Example](#)



*For  $\sigma = 1$ ;*

## Numerical Example

```
% Data ; There are 200 data points (-13~<data<~13)
randn('seed',1) % Used for reproducibility
data = [randn(100,1)-10; randn(100,1)+10]; % Two Normals mixed (GROUND TRUTH)

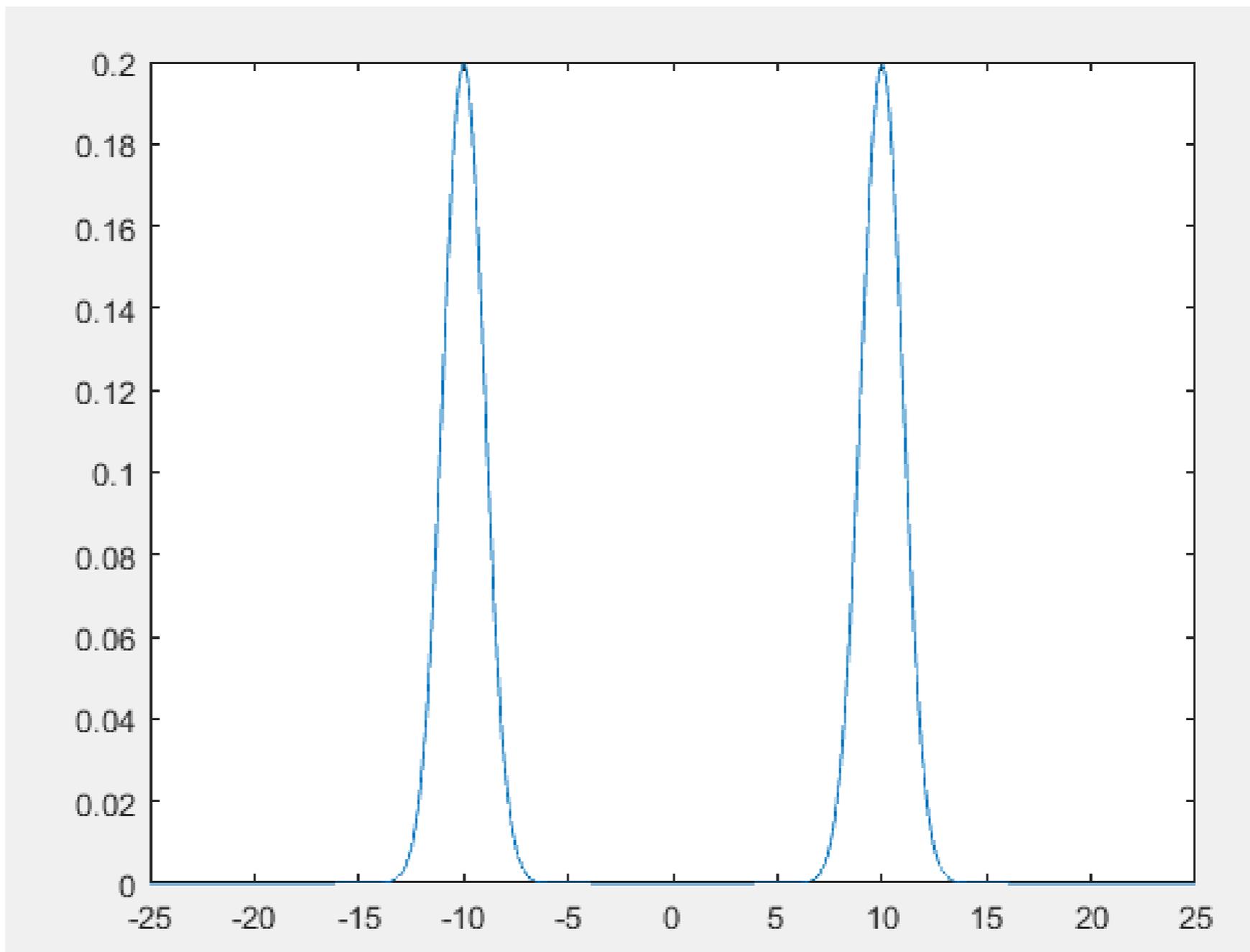
% Let's create apply density estimation over 1000 linearly spaced points
x = linspace(-25,+25,1000); % grid lines

% Let's generate a "TRUE" density over all the bins given the "Ground Truth" information.

truepdf_firstnormal = exp(-.5*(x-10).^2)/sqrt(2*pi);
truepdf_secondnormal = exp(-.5*(x+10).^2)/sqrt(2*pi);
truepdf = truepdf_firstnormal/2 + truepdf_secondnormal/2;
% divided down by 2, because we are adding density value two times
```

```
plot(x,truepdf)
```

```
% Plot True Density
```



`% Let's calculate Gaussian kernel density for each linearly spaced  
point over 200 Given data points`

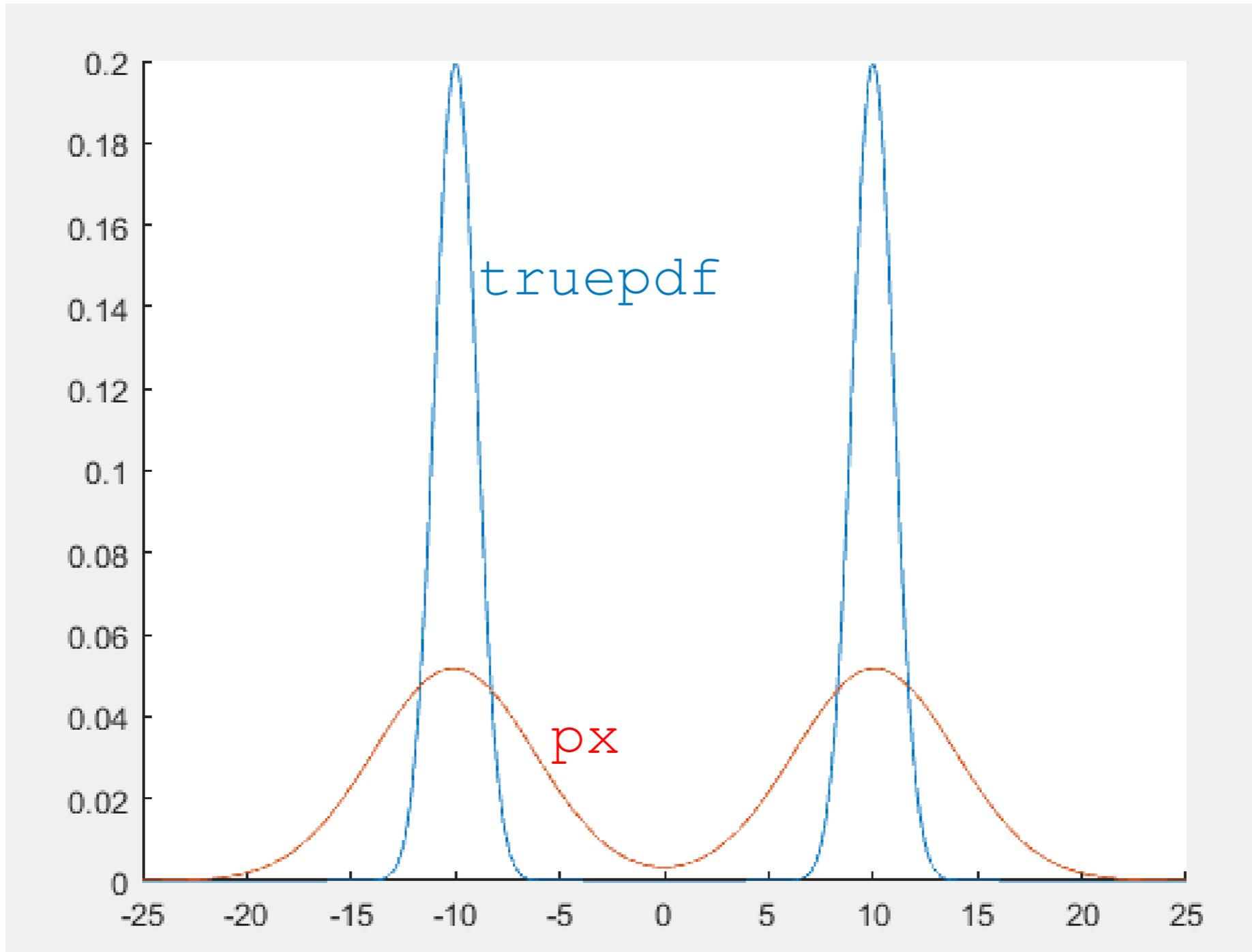
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x_i - x}{h}\right) \quad u = \frac{x_i - x}{h}$$

$$\text{Gaussian kernel } K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}$$

`h = std(data) * (4/3/numel(data))^(1/5); % Bandwidth  
estimated by Silverman's Rule of Thumb`

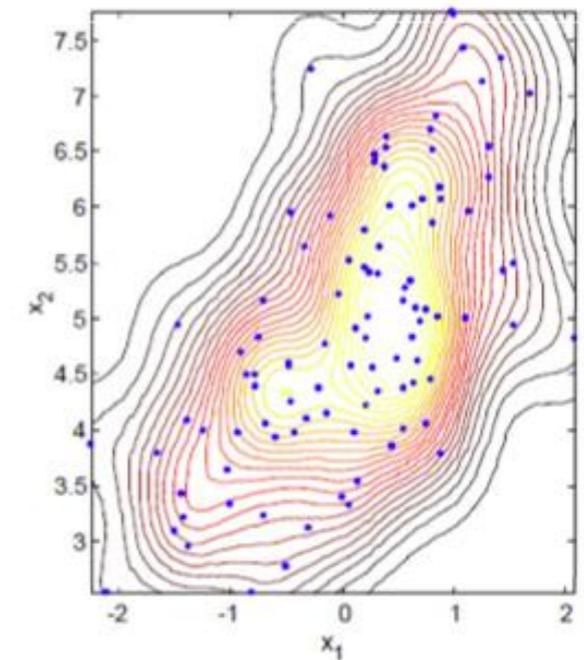
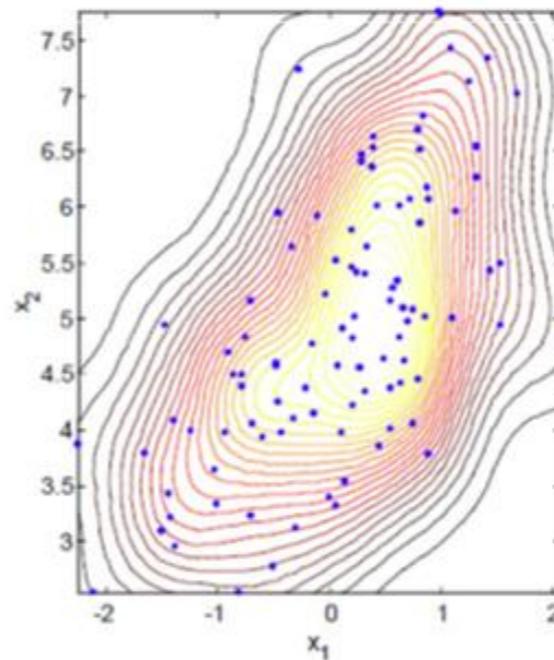
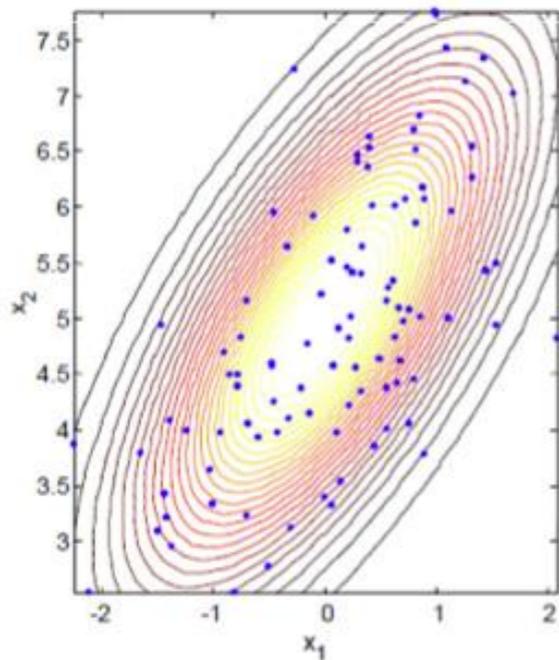
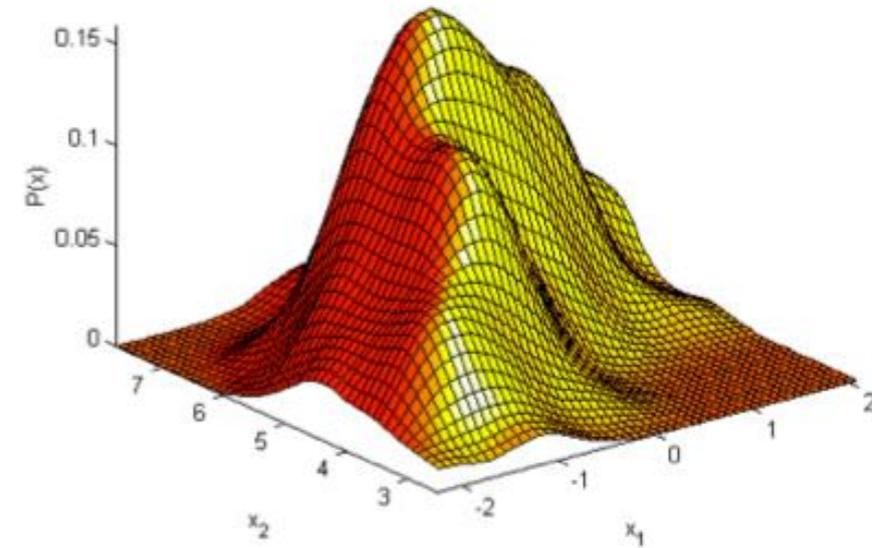
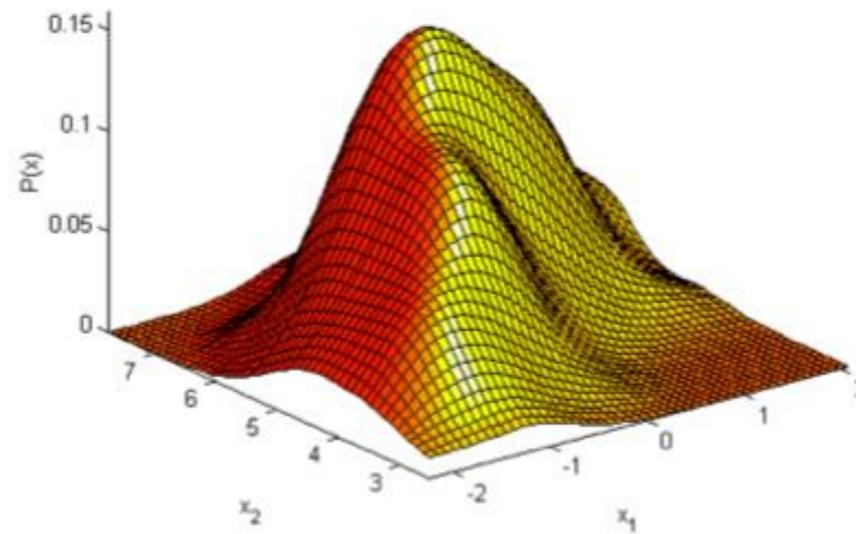
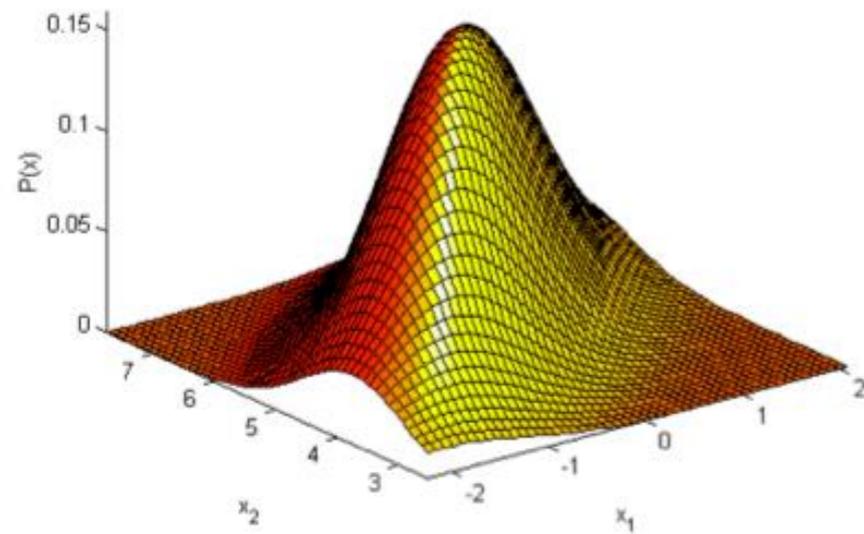
```
for i=1:size(x,1) % let's loop over grid lines
    u = (x(i)-data)./h; % length of u is 200
    Ku = exp(-.5*u.^2)/sqrt(2*pi);
    Ku = Ku./h;
    px(i) = mean(Ku);
end
```

```
plot(x, truepdf)
plot(x, px)
```

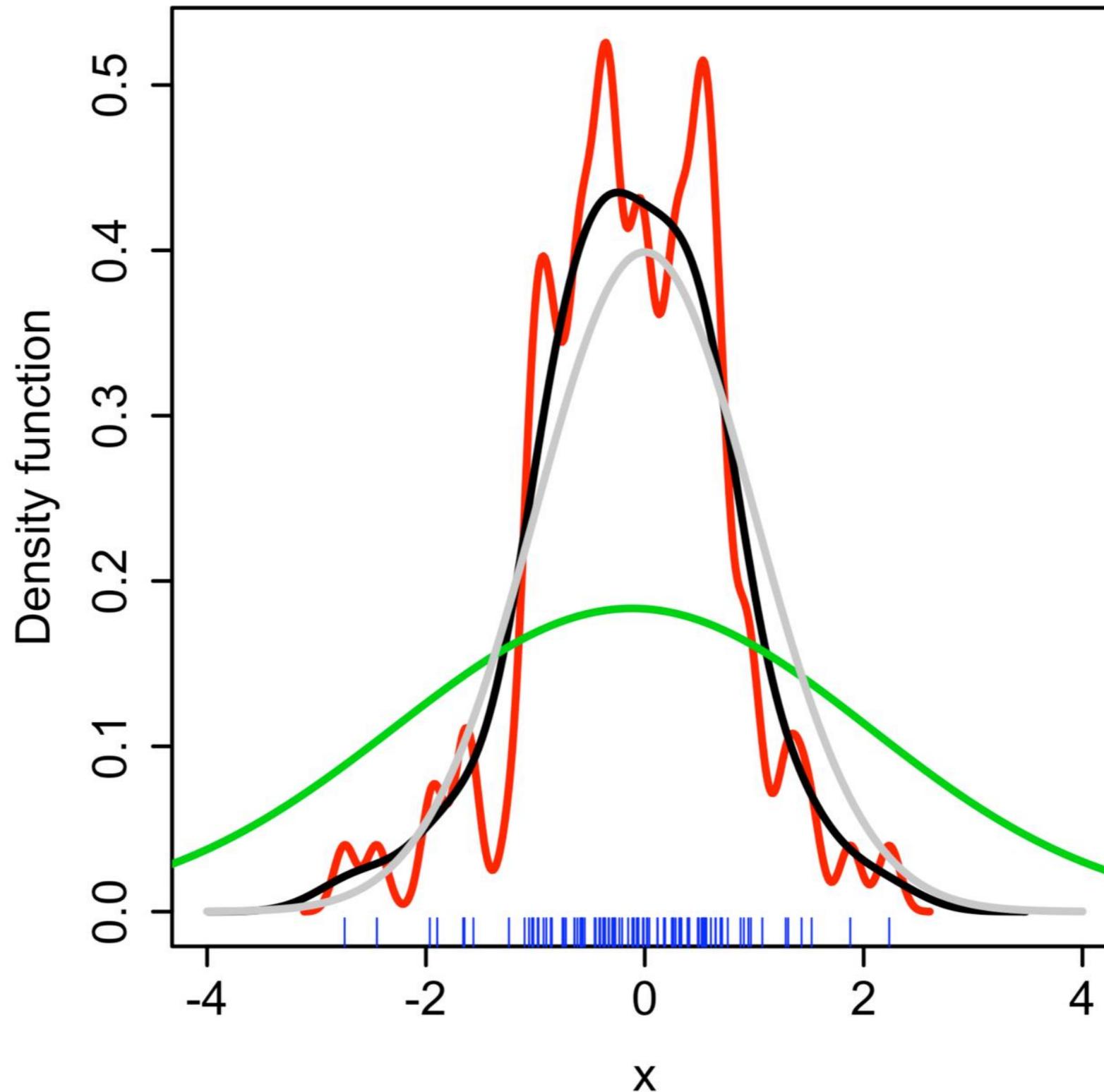


# Two-Dimensional Examples

- This example shows the product KDE of a bivariate unimodal Gaussian
  - 100 data points were drawn from the distribution
  - The figures show the true density (left) and the estimates using  $h = 1.06\sigma N^{-1/5}$  (middle) and  $h = 0.9AN^{-1/5}$  (right)



# Choosing Kernel Bandwidth



# Choosing the Kernel Bandwidth

- Silverman's rule of thumb: If using the Gaussian kernel, a good choice for  $h$  is

$$h = \left( \frac{4\hat{\sigma}^2}{3N} \right)^{\frac{1}{5}} \approx 1.06\hat{\sigma}N^{-\frac{1}{5}}$$

$\hat{\sigma}$  is the standard deviation of the samples

- A better but more computational intensive approach:
  - Randomly split the data into two sets
  - Obtain a kernel density estimate for the first
  - Measure the likelihood of the second set
  - Repeat over many random splits and average

# Non-parametric vs parametric

# Summary

- Parametric density estimation
  - Maximum likelihood estimation
  - Different parametric forms
- Nonparametric density estimation
  - Histogram
  - Kernel density estimation