Master Program in Data Science and Business Informatics Statistics for Data Science Lesson 15 - Graphical summaries

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Condensed observations: graphical summaries

- Probability models governs some random phenomena
- Confronted with a new phenomenon, we want to learn about the randomness associated with it
	- ▶ Parametric (efficient) vs non-parameteric (general) methods
- Record observations x_1, \ldots, x_n (a dataset)
- *n* can be large: need to condense for easy visual comprehension
- Graphical summaries:
	- \triangleright Univariate: empirical distribution functions, histograms, kernel density estimates
	- ▶ Multi-variate: kernel density estimates, scatter plots

The empirical CDF

- A r.v. X is completely characterized by its CDF F
- Record observations x_1, \ldots, x_n (a dataset)
- Empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF):

$$
F_n(x)=\frac{|\{i\in [1,n]\mid x_i\leq x\}|}{n}
$$

- \bullet Empirical complementary cumulative distribution function (ECCDF): $\bar{F}_n(x) = 1 - F_n(x)$
- Estimating F through F_n \blacksquare

$$
P(\lim_{n\to\infty}\sup_x|F(x)-F_n(x)|=0)=1
$$

allow for estimating other quantities by plugging F_n in the place of F, e.g., $E[X]$ as

$$
E[X] = \sum_{a} a \cdot P(X = a) \approx \sum_{a} a \cdot \frac{|\{i \mid x_i = a\}|}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} x_i
$$

What about p.m.f. and d.f.?

See R script $3/14$

p.m.f.: Barplots

- For discrete data, barplots provide frequency counts for values
	- \triangleright approximate the p.m.f. due to the law of large numbers

$$
P(X = a) \approx \frac{|\{i \mid x_i = a\}|}{n}
$$

• For continuous data, frequency counting of distinct values do not work. Why?

See R script

d.f.: Histograms

- Histograms provide frequency counts for ranges of values.
- Split the support to m intervals, called *bins*:

$$
B_1,\ldots,B_m
$$

where the length $\left|B_i\right|$ is called the *bin width*

• Count observations in each bin and normalize them:

$$
A_i = \frac{|\{j \in [1, n] \mid x_j \in B_i\}|}{n} \approx P(X \in B_i)
$$

• Plot bars whose area is proportional to A_i

$$
A_i = |B_i| \cdot H_i \qquad H_i = \frac{|\{j \in [1, n] \mid x_j \in B_i\}|}{n|B_i|}
$$

See R script

Choice of the bin width

• Bins of equal width:

$$
B_i = (r + (i-1)b, r + ib) \quad \text{for } i \in [1, m]
$$

where $r <$ minimum point and b is the bin width

Fig. 15.2. Histograms of the Old Faithful data with different bin widths.

 $\bullet\,$ Mean Integrated Square Error (MISE), for \hat{f} density estimation of f :

$$
MISE = E[\int (\hat{f}(t) - f(t))^2 dt] = \int \int (\hat{f}(t) - f(t))^2 f(x_1) \dots f(x_n) dt dx_1 \dots dx_n
$$

• Scott's normal reference rule (minimize MISE for Normal density):

$$
b = 3.49 \cdot s \cdot n^{-1/3}
$$
, where $s = \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$ is the sample standard deviation

Choice of the bin width

- $b = 2 \cdot IQR \cdot n^{-1/3}$
	- It replaces $3.49 \cdot s$ in the Scott's rule by $2 \cdot IQR$ (more robust to outlier)
	- \triangleright Q_3 is 75% percentile of x_1, \ldots, x_n
	- \triangleright Q₁ is 25% percentile of x_1, \ldots, x_n
- Variable bin width
	- \triangleright Logarithmic binning in power laws
- Alternative strategy: number of bins given equal bin width b: [[other methods](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Histogram#Number_of_bins_and_width)]
	- ► $m = \left\lceil \frac{\max x_i \min x_i}{b} \right\rceil$

$$
m = \left\lceil \sqrt{n} \right\rceil
$$

- ▶ Sturges's formula:
	- □ assume *m* bins: $0, 1, \ldots, m-1$
	- \Box assume normal distribution of true density
	- □ approximate normal density as $Bin(n, 0.5)$, hence absolute frequency of i^{th} bin is $\binom{m-1}{i}$
	- □ total frequency is $n = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \binom{m-1}{i} = 2^{m-1}$, hence $\boxed{m = \lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1}$

N.B. R's hist method take bin width as a suggestion, then it rounds bins differently See R script

[Freedman-Diaconis' choice]

d.f.: Kernels

- Problem with histograms: as m increases, histograms become unusable
- Idea: estimate density function by putting a pile (of sand) around each observation
- Kernels state the shape of the pile
	- ► Epanechnikov $\frac{3}{4}(1-t^2)$ for $-1 \leq t \leq 1$
	- ▶ Triweight $\frac{35}{32}(1-t^2)^3$ for $-1 \leq t \leq 1$

$$
\text{ \textcolor{red}{\blacktriangleright} \ \text{Normal} \ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}t^2} \ \text{for} \ -\infty < t < \infty
$$

Fig. 15.4. Examples of well-known kernels K .

Kernel density estimation (KDE)

A Kernel is a function $K : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

- K is a probability density, i.e., $K(t) \geq 0$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(t) dt = 1$
- K is symmetric, i.e., $K(-t) = K(t)$
- [sometime, it is required that] $K(t) = 0$ for $|t| > 1$, i.e., support is $[-1, 1]$

A bandwidth h is a scaling factor over the support of K from $[-1, 1]$ to $[-h, h]$

- h controls for how the probability density extends around 0
- if $X \sim K(t)$, then $hX \sim \frac{1}{h}K(\frac{t}{h})$

) [Change-of-units transformation, see Lesson 09]

CHANGE-OF-UNITS TRANSFORMATION. Let X be a continuous random variable with distribution function F_X and probability density function f_X . If we change units to $Y = rX + s$ for real numbers $r > 0$ and s , then

$$
F_Y(y) = F_X\left(\frac{y-s}{r}\right)
$$
 and $f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{r}f_X\left(\frac{y-s}{r}\right)$.

Kernel density estimation (KDE)

Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be the observations

- if $X \sim K$, then $hX + x_i \sim \frac{1}{h}K(\frac{t-x_i}{h})$) [Change-of-units transformation, see Lesson 09]
	- K scaled and shifted at x_i , with support $[x_i h, x_i + h]$

The kernel density estimate is defined as the mixture of scaled and shifted kernel densities:

$$
f_{n,h}(t)=\frac{1}{nh}\sum_{i=1}^n K(\frac{t-x_i}{h})
$$

It is a probability density function! The same of the set of the set

See R script $10 / 14$

Histograms vs KDE

• KDE has less variability than histograms!

Choice of the bandwidth

- **Note.** The choice of the kernel is not critical: different kernels give similar results
- A problem. The choice of the bandwith h is critical (and it may depend on the kernel)
- Mean Integrated Squared Error (MISE) is

$$
E[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}(f_{n,h}(t)-f(t))^2dt]=\int\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}(f_{n,h}(t)-f(t))^2f(x_1)\ldots f(x_n)dtdx_1\ldots dx_n
$$

where $f(t)$ is the true density function and observations are independent

• For $f(t)$ being the Normal density, the MISE is minimized for

$$
h = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{1}{5}} \cdot s \cdot n^{-\frac{1}{5}}
$$
 [normal reference method]

See R script

Kernel density estimation (KDE)

- A problem. The choice of the bandwith h is critical (and it may depend on the kernel)
- Automatic selection of h
	- \triangleright Plug-in selectors (iterative bandwith selection)
	- \triangleright Cross-validation selectors (part of data for estimation and part for evaluation)
- Another problem. When the support is finite, symmetric kernels give meaningless results
- Boundary kernels
	- \triangleright Kernel (truncation) and renormalization
	- \blacktriangleright Linear (combination) kernel
	- ▶ Beta boundary kernels
	- \triangleright Reflective kernels (density=0 at boundaries)
- See [\[Scott, 2015\]](#page-13-0) for a complete book on KDE

F David W. Scott (2015)

Multivariate density estimation: Theory, practice, and visualization.

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.