#### **Announcements**



#### Project feedback

As stated in the project description and multiple times in class:

- You must have data at the time of the proposal.
- The project must contain real data (not just synthetic).
- 1 page maximum

Use spell check.

Clearly define metrics that will drive your development.

Please submit a proposal per person (for grading). It won't be marked late, obviously, just for book keeping.

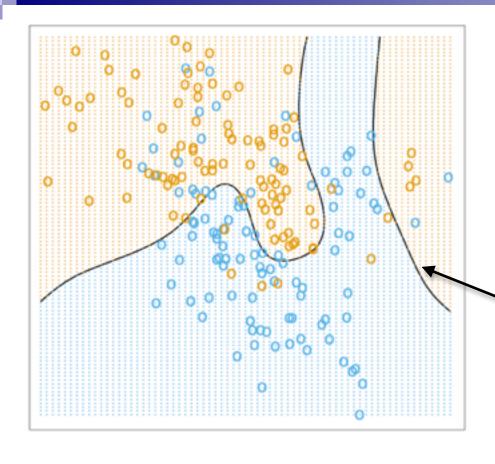
If you have a partner, compare notes on feedback (usually only gave it once)

# Recap: Nearest Neighbor

Machine Learning – CSE546 Kevin Jamieson University of Washington

October 26, 2017

### Some data, Bayes Classifier



#### Training data:

True label: +1

True label: -1

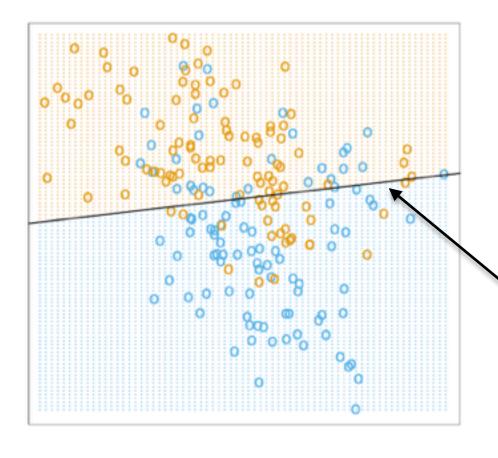
Optimal "Bayes" classifier:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y=1|X=x) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Predicted label: +1

Predicted label: -1

### **Linear Decision Boundary**



#### Training data:

- True label: +1
- True label: -1

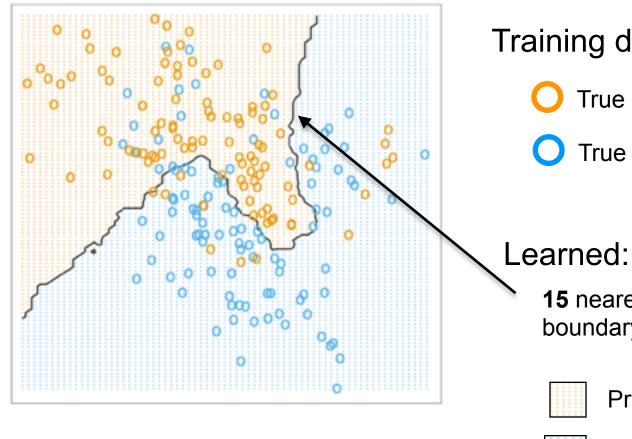
#### Learned:

Linear Decision boundary

$$x^T w + b = 0$$

- Predicted label: +1
- Predicted label: -1

### 15 Nearest Neighbor Boundary



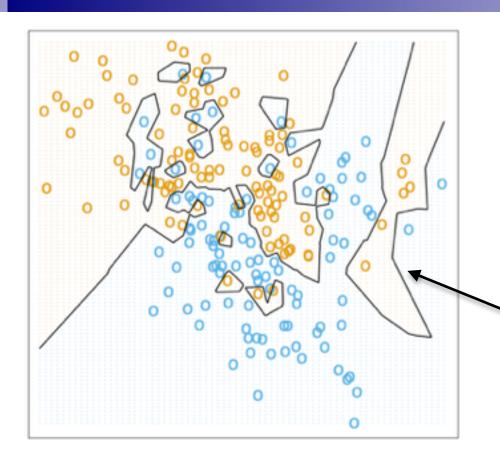
#### Training data:

- True label: +1
- True label: -1

**15** nearest neighbor decision boundary (majority vote)

- Predicted label: +1
- Predicted label: -1

### 1 Nearest Neighbor Boundary



#### Training data:

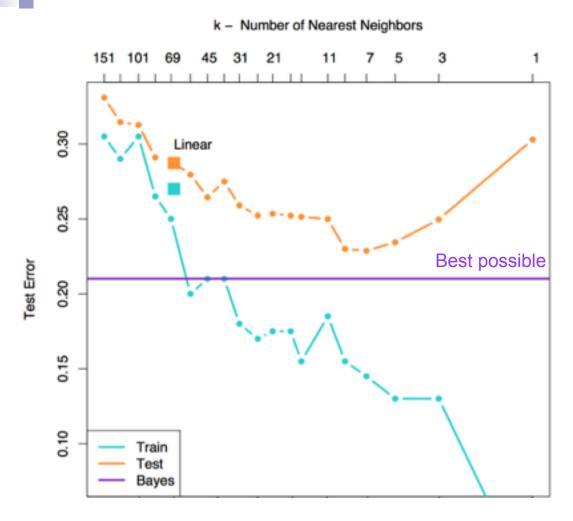
- True label: +1
- True label: -1

#### Learned:

1 nearest neighbor decision boundary (majority vote)

- Predicted label: +1
- Predicted label: -1

### k-Nearest Neighbor Error



Bias-Variance tradeoff

As k->infinity?

Bias:

Variance:

As k->1?

Bias:

Variance:

### 1 nearest neighbor guarantee

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \quad x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$$

As  $n \to \infty$ , assume the  $x_i$ 's become dense in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ 

Note: any  $x_a \in \mathbb{R}^d$  has the same label distribution as  $x_b$  with b = 1NN(a)

If 
$$p_{\ell} = \mathbb{P}(Y_a = \ell) = \mathbb{P}(Y_b = \ell)$$
 and  $\ell^* = \arg\max_{\ell=1,\dots,k} p_{\ell}$  then

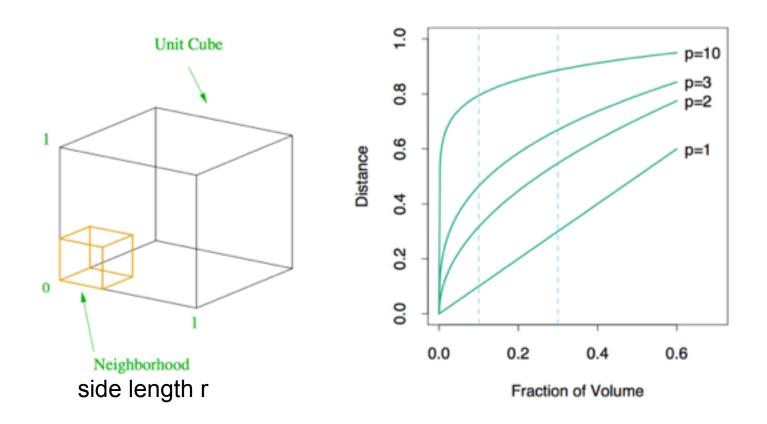
Bates error =  $1 - p_{\ell^*}$ 

1-nearest neighbor error = 
$$\mathbb{P}(Y_a \neq Y_b) = \sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{P}(Y_a = \ell, Y_b \neq \ell)$$
  
=  $\sum_{\ell=1}^k p_{\ell}(1 - p_{\ell}) \le 2(1 - p_{\ell^*}) - \frac{k}{k-1}(1 - p_{\ell^*})^2$ 

As x->infinity, then 1-NN rule error is at most twice the Bayes error!

[Cover, Hart, 1967]

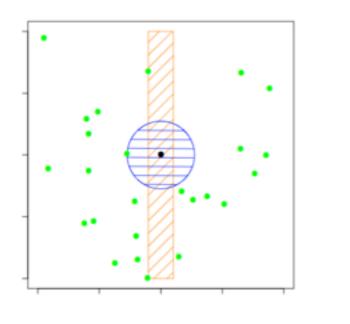
### Curse of dimensionality Ex. 1

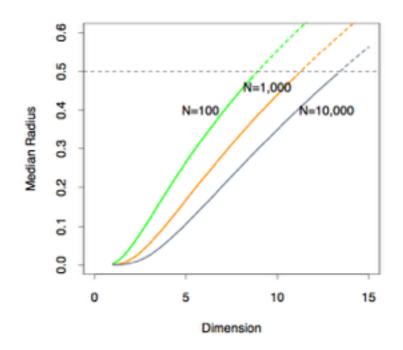


X is uniformly distributed over  $[0,1]^p$ . What is  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [0,r]^p)$ ?

### Curse of dimensionality Ex. 2

 $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are uniformly distributed over  $[-.5,.5]^p$ .

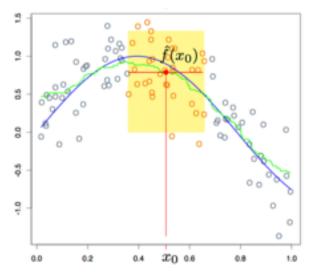




What is the median distance from a point at origin to its 1NN?

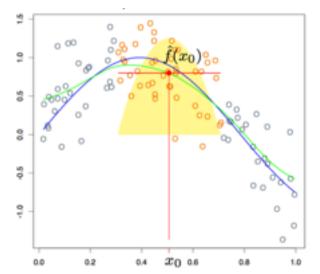
### Nearest neighbor regression

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$$

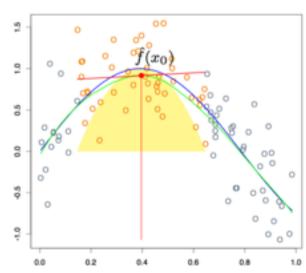


$$\mathcal{N}_k(x_0) = k$$
-nearest neighbors of  $x_0$ 

$$\widehat{f}(x_0) = \sum_{x_i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_0)} \frac{1}{k} y_i$$



$$\widehat{f}(x_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K(x_0, x_i) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K(x_0, x_i)}$$



$$\widehat{f}(x_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x_0, x_i) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x_0, x_i)} \qquad \widehat{f}(x_0) = b(x_0) + w(x_0)^T x_0$$

$$w(x_0), b(x_0) = \arg\min_{w,b} \sum_{i=1}^n K(x_0, x_i)(y_i - (b + w^T x_i))^2$$

#### Local Linear Regression

11 Kevin Jamieson 2017

### Nearest Neighbor Overview

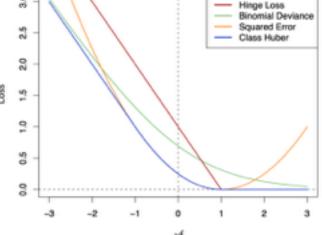
- Very simple to explain and implement
- No training! But finding nearest neighbors in large dataset at test can be computationally demanding (kD-trees help)
- You can use other forms of distance (not just Euclidean)
- Smoothing with Kernels and local linear regression can improve performance (at the cost of higher variance)
- With a lot of data, "local methods" have strong, simple theoretical guarantees. With not a lot of data, neighborhoods aren't "local" and methods suffer.

### Kernels

Machine Learning – CSE546 Kevin Jamieson University of Washington

October 26, 2017

#### Machine Learning Problems



Have a bunch of iid data of the form:

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \quad x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$$y_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

Learning a model's parameters:

Each  $\ell_i(w)$  is convex.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_i(w)$$

Hinge Loss:  $\ell_i(w) = \max\{0, 1 - y_i x_i^T w\}$ 

Logistic Loss:  $\ell_i(w) = \log(1 + \exp(-y_i x_i^T w))$ 

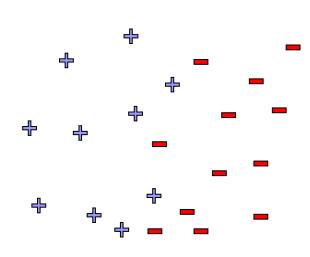
Squared error Loss:  $\ell_i(w) = (y_i - x_i^T w)^2$ 

All in terms of inner products! Even nearest neighbor can use inner products!

©Kevin Jamieson 2017 14

#### What if the data is not linearly separable?





# Use features of features of features ....

$$\phi(x): \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^p$$

Feature space can get really large really quickly!

### Dot-product of polynomials

 $\Phi(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{v}) = \text{polynomials of degree exactly d}$ 

$$d = 1 : \phi(u) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \langle \phi(u), \phi(v) \rangle = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$$

### Dot-product of polynomials

 $\Phi(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{v}) = \text{polynomials of degree exactly d}$ 

$$d = 1 : \phi(u) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \langle \phi(u), \phi(v) \rangle = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$$

$$d = 2 : \phi(u) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^2 \\ u_2^2 \\ u_1 u_2 \\ u_2 u_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \langle \phi(u), \phi(v) \rangle = u_1^2 v_1^2 + u_2^2 v_2^2 + 2u_1 u_2 v_1 v_2$$

### Dot-product of polynomials

 $\Phi(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{v}) = \text{polynomials of degree exactly d}$ 

$$d = 1 : \phi(u) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \langle \phi(u), \phi(v) \rangle = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$$

$$d = 2 : \phi(u) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^2 \\ u_2^2 \\ u_1 u_2 \\ u_2 u_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \langle \phi(u), \phi(v) \rangle = u_1^2 v_1^2 + u_2^2 v_2^2 + 2u_1 u_2 v_1 v_2$$

General d:

Dimension of  $\phi(u)$  is roughly  $p^d$  if  $u \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

18

#### **Kernel Trick**

$$\widehat{w} = \arg\min_{w} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^T w)^2 + \lambda ||w||_w^2$$

There exists an 
$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
:  $\widehat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i$  Why?

$$\widehat{\alpha} = \arg\min_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \langle x_j, x_i \rangle)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$

#### **Kernel Trick**

$$\widehat{w} = \arg\min_{w} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i^T w)^2 + \lambda ||w||_w^2$$

There exists an 
$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
:  $\widehat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i$  Why?

$$\widehat{\alpha} = \arg\min_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \langle x_j, x_i \rangle)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$

$$= \arg\min_{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j K(x_i, x_j))^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j K(x_i, x_j)$$

$$= \arg\min_{\alpha} ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{K}\alpha||_2^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbf{K}\alpha$$

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x_j) \rangle$$

# Why regularization?

Typically,  $\mathbf{K} \succ 0$ . What if  $\lambda = 0$ ?

$$\widehat{\alpha} = \arg\min_{\alpha} ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{K}\alpha||_2^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbf{K}\alpha$$

# Why regularization?

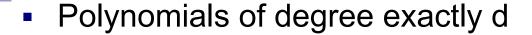
Typically, 
$$\mathbf{K} \succ 0$$
. What if  $\lambda = 0$ ?

$$\widehat{\alpha} = \arg\min_{\alpha} ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{K}\alpha||_2^2 + \lambda \alpha^T \mathbf{K}\alpha$$

Unregularized kernel least squares can (over) fit any data!

$$\widehat{\alpha} = \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

#### Common kernels



$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^d$$

Polynomials of degree up to d

$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + 1)^d$$

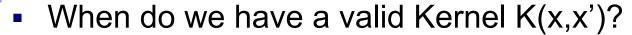
Gaussian (squared exponential) kernel

$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}||_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Sigmoid

$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \tanh(\eta \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \nu)$$

#### Mercer's Theorem

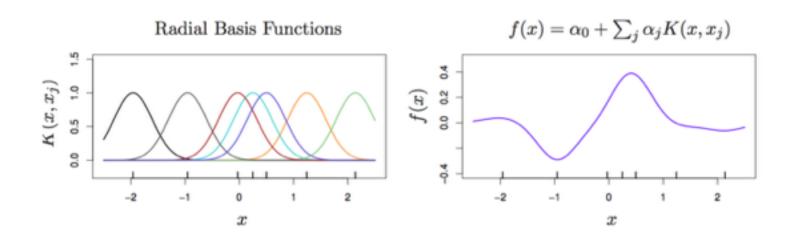


- Definition 1: when it is an inner product
- Mercer's Theorem:
  - K(x,x') is a valid kernel if and only if K is a positive semi-definite.
  - PSD in the following sense:

$$\int_{x,x'} h(x)K(x,x')h(x')dxdx' \ge 0 \quad \forall h: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}, \int_x |h(x)|^2 dx \le \infty$$

**RBF Kernel** 
$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}||_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

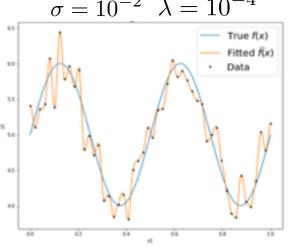
Note that this is like weighting "bumps" on each point like kernel smoothing but now we learn the weights



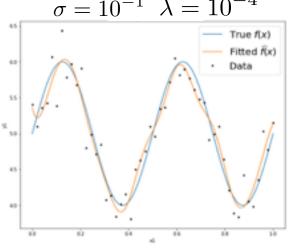
**RBF Kernel** 
$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}||_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

The bandwidth sigma has an enormous effect on fit:

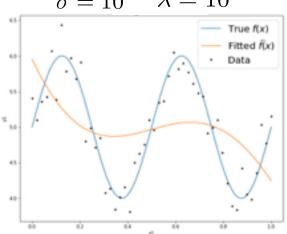
$$\sigma = 10^{-2} \quad \lambda = 10^{-4}$$
True f(x)
Fitted f(x)



$$\sigma = 10^{-1} \ \lambda = 10^{-4}$$



$$\sigma = 10^{-0} \ \lambda = 10^{-4}$$

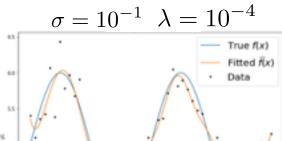


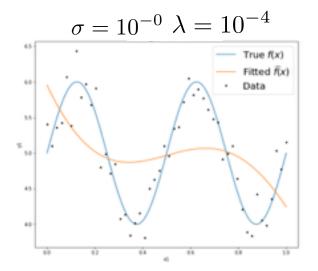
$$\widehat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{\alpha}_i K(x_i, x)$$

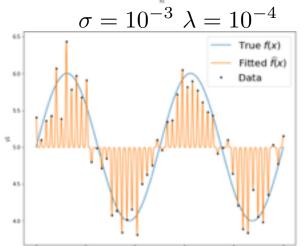
**RBF Kernel** 
$$K(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}||_2^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

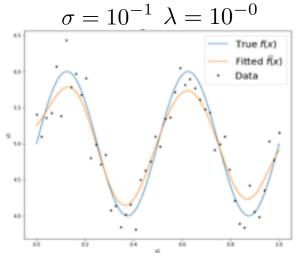
The bandwidth sigma has an enormous effect on fit:

$$\sigma = 10^{-2} \ \lambda = 10^{-4}$$
True f(x)
Fitted f(x)
Data







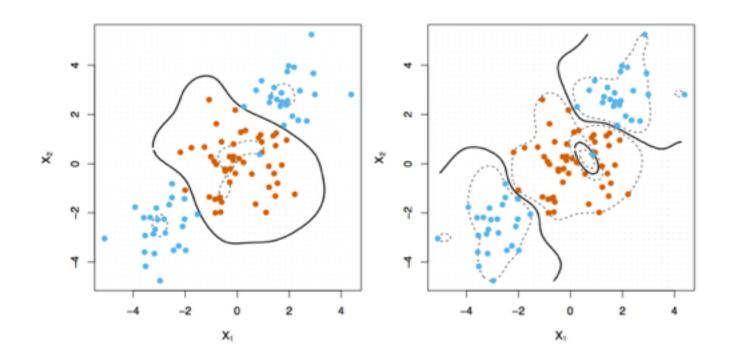


$$\widehat{f}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \widehat{\alpha}_i K(x_i, x)$$

### **RBF** Classification

$$\widehat{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max\{0, 1 - y_i(b + x_i^T w)\} + \lambda ||w||_2^2$$

$$\min_{\alpha, b} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max\{0, 1 - y_i(b + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle)\} + \lambda \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle$$



# RBF kernel Secretly random

$$2\cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \cos(\alpha + \beta) + \cos(\alpha - \beta)$$
$$e^{jz} = \cos(z) + \sin(z)$$

$$b \sim \text{uniform}(0, \pi)$$
  $w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2\gamma)$   
 $\phi(x) = \sqrt{2}\cos(w^T x + b)$   
 $\mathbb{E}_{w,b}[\phi(x)^T \phi(y)] =$ 

# RBF kernel Secretly random

$$2\cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \cos(\alpha + \beta) + \cos(\alpha - \beta)$$
$$e^{jz} = \cos(z) + \sin(z)$$

$$b \sim \text{uniform}(0, \pi)$$
  $w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2\gamma)$  
$$\phi(x) = \sqrt{2}\cos(w^T x + b)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{w,b}[\phi(x)^T\phi(y)] = e^{-\gamma||x-y||_2^2}$$

[Rahimi, Recht 2007]

# String Kernels

Example from Efron and Hastie, 2016

Amino acid sequences of different lengths:

- X1 IPTSALVKETLALLSTHRTLLIANETLRIPVPVHKNHQLCTEEIFQGIGTLESQTVQGGTV ERLFKNLSLIKKYIDGQKKKCGEERRRVNQFLDYLQEFLGVMNTEWI
- PHRRDLCSRSIWLARKIRSDLTALTESYVKHQGLWSELTEAERLQENLQAYRTFHVLLA

  RLLEDQQVHFTPTEGDFHQAIHTLLLQVAAFAYQIEELMILLEYKIPRNEADGMLFEKK

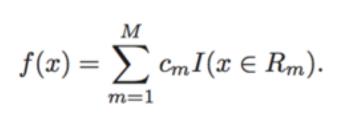
  LWGLKVLQELSQWTVRSIHDLRFISSHQTGIP

All subsequences of length 3 (of possible 20 amino acids)  $20^3 = 8,000$ 

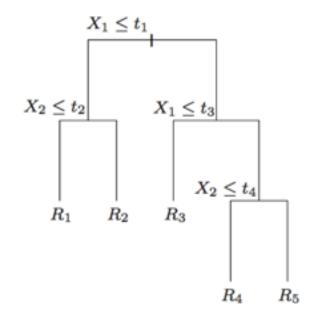
$$h_{\text{LQE}}^3(x_1) = 1 \text{ and } h_{\text{LQE}}^3(x_2) = 2.$$

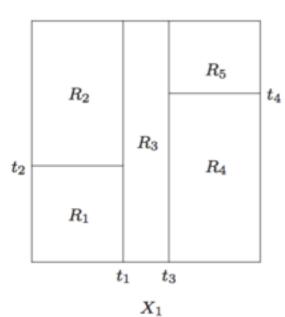
Machine Learning – CSE546 Kevin Jamieson University of Washington

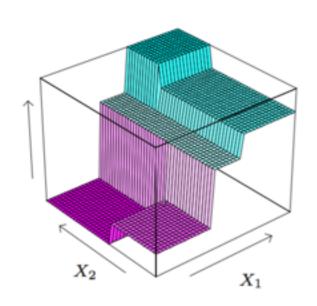
October 26, 2017



Build a binary tree, splitting along axes



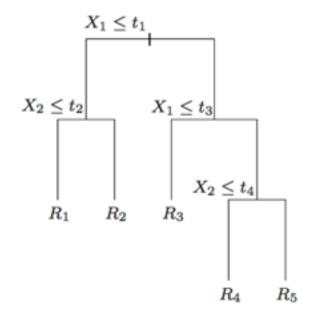






$$f(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} c_m I(x \in R_m).$$

Build a binary tree, splitting along axes



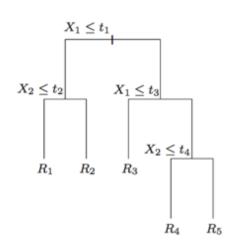
How do you split?

When do you stop?

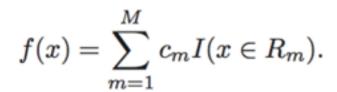
### Learning decision trees

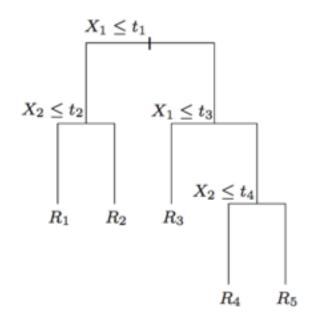


- Start from empty decision tree
- Split on next best attribute (feature)
  - Use, for example, information gain to select attribute
  - Split on  $\underset{i}{\operatorname{arg}} \max_{i} IG(X_{i}) = \underset{i}{\operatorname{arg}} \max_{i} H(Y) H(Y \mid X_{i})$
- Recurse
- Prune



$$f(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} c_m I(x \in R_m).$$





#### Trees

- have low bias, high variance
- deal with categorial variables well
- intuitive, interpretable
- good software exists
- Some theoretical guarantees

### Random Forests

Machine Learning – CSE546 Kevin Jamieson University of Washington

October 26, 2017

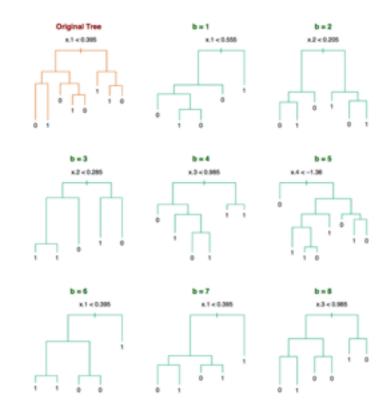
#### Random Forests



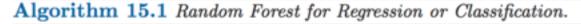
Tree methods have **low bias** but **high variance**.

One way to reduce variance is to construct a lot of "lightly correlated" trees and average them:

"Bagging:" Bootstrap aggregating



#### Random Forrests



- 1. For b = 1 to B:
  - (a) Draw a bootstrap sample Z\* of size N from the training data.
  - (b) Grow a random-forest tree T<sub>b</sub> to the bootstrapped data, by recursively repeating the following steps for each terminal node of the tree, until the minimum node size n<sub>min</sub> is reached.
    - i. Select m variables at random from the p variables.
    - ii. Pick the best variable/split-point among the m.
    - iii. Split the node into two daughter nodes.
- 2. Output the ensemble of trees  $\{T_b\}_1^B$ .

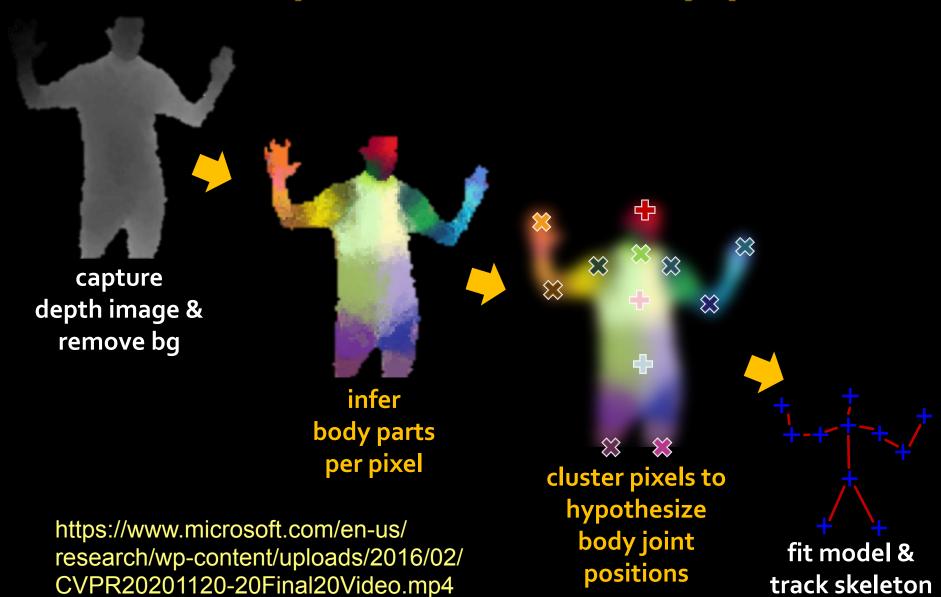
m~sqrt(p),p/3

To make a prediction at a new point x:

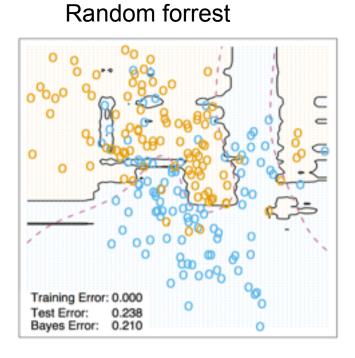
Regression: 
$$\hat{f}_{rf}^B(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b(x)$$
.

Classification: Let  $\hat{C}_b(x)$  be the class prediction of the bth random-forest tree. Then  $\hat{C}_{rf}^B(x) = majority \ vote \{\hat{C}_b(x)\}_1^B$ .

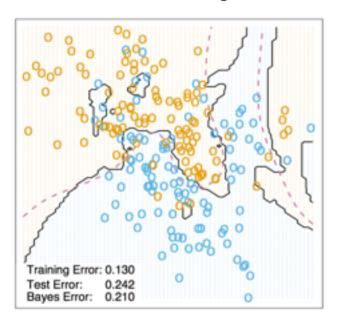
### The Kinect pose estimation pipeline



#### **Random Forrest**



#### 3 nearest neighbor



#### Random Forrest



Given random variables  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_B$  with  $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = y$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[(Y_i - y)^2] = \sigma^2$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[(Y_i - y)(Y_j - y)] = \rho\sigma^2$ 

The Yi's are identically distributed but **not** independent

$$\mathbb{E}[(\frac{1}{B}\sum_{i=1}^{B} Y_i - y)^2] =$$

#### Random Forests

- ×
  - Random Forests
    - have low bias, low variance
    - deal with categorial variables well
    - not that intuitive or interpretable
    - good software exists
    - Some theoretical guarantees
    - Can still overfit

#### Random Forests

- ×
  - Random Forests
    - have low bias, low variance
    - deal with categorial variables well
    - not that intuitive or interpretable
    - good software exists
    - Some theoretical guarantees
    - Can still overfit