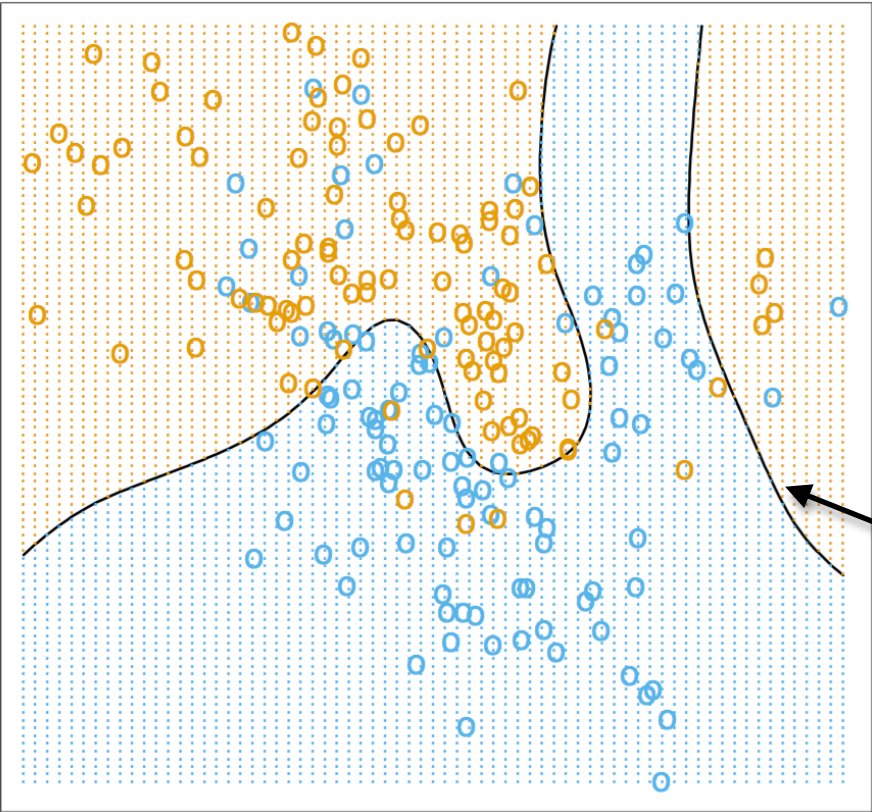


Nearest Neighbor



Some data, Bayes Classifier



Training data:

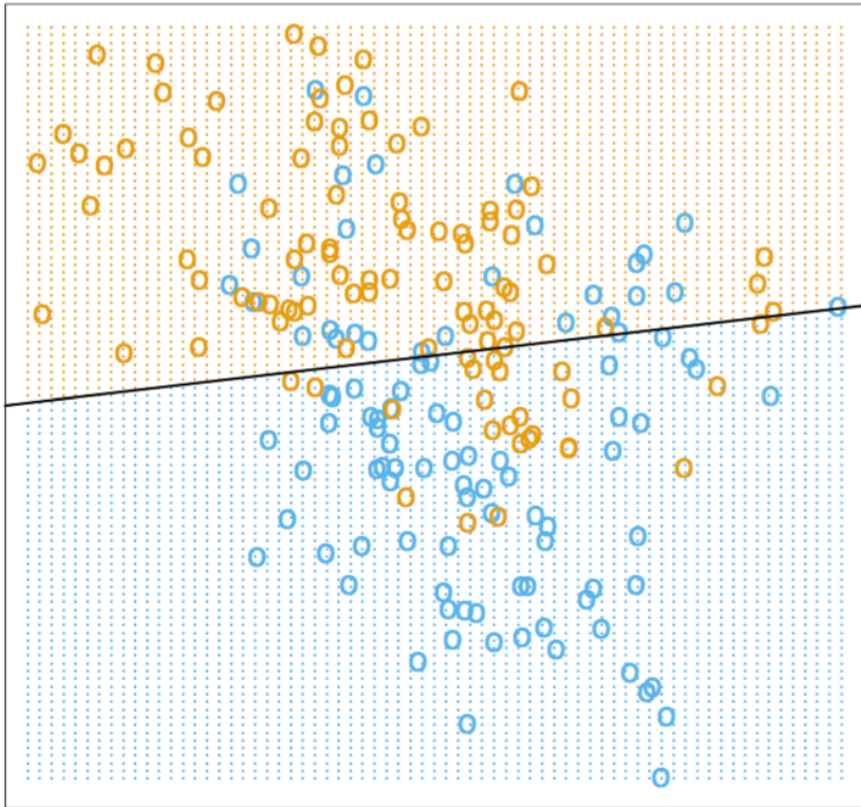
- True label: +1
- True label: -1

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

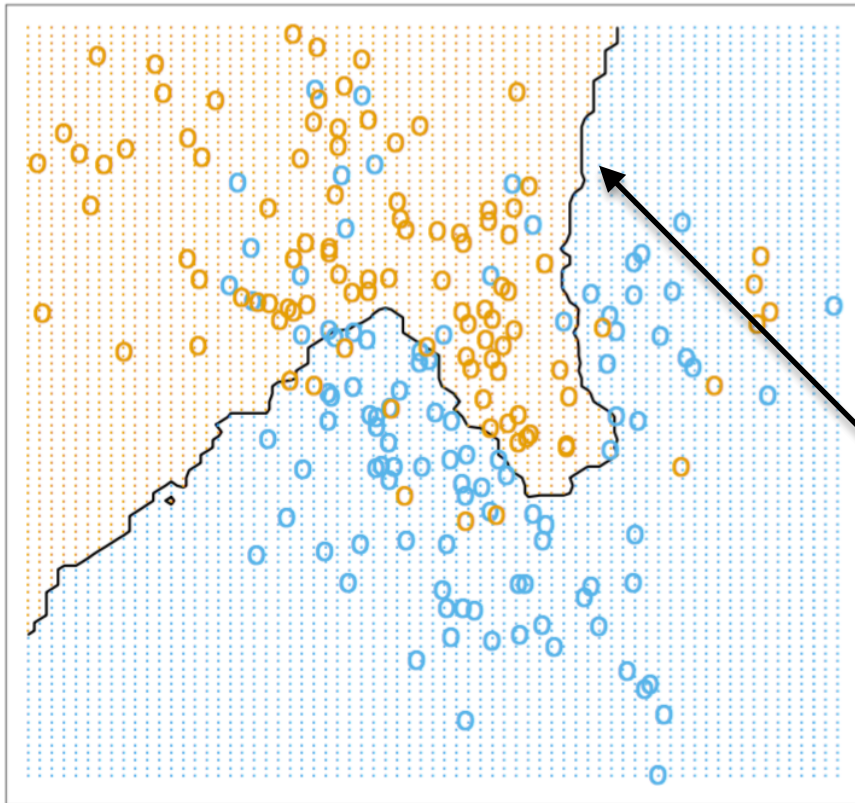
Learned:

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

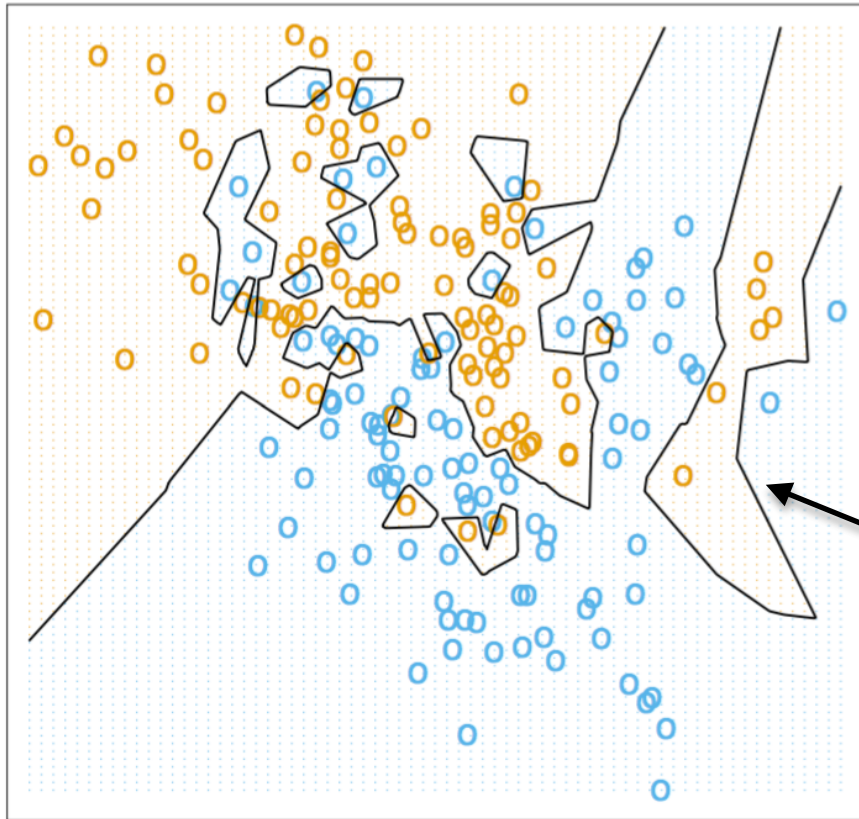
Learned:

15 nearest neighbor decision boundary (majority vote)

○ Predicted label: +1

○ Predicted label: -1

1 Nearest Neighbor Boundary



Training data:

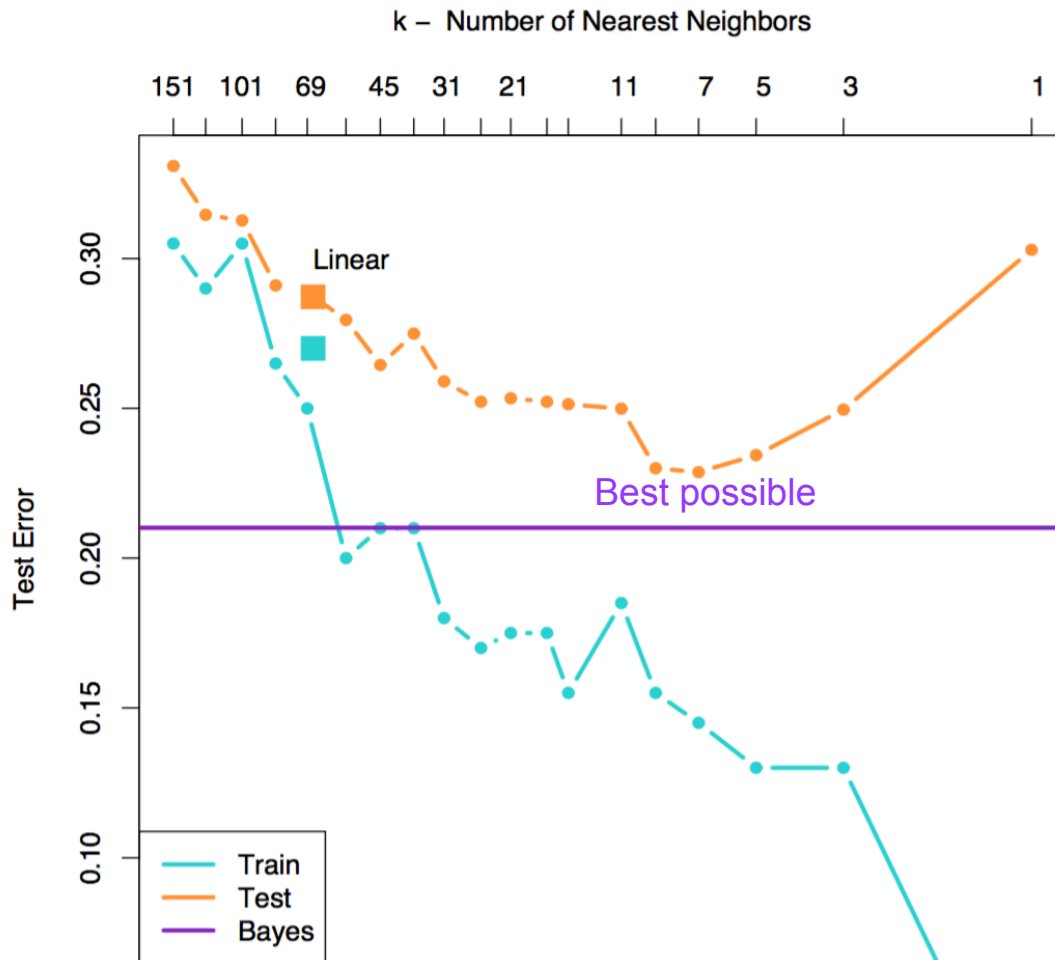
- True label: +1
- True label: -1

Learned:

1 nearest neighbor decision boundary (majority vote)

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

k-Nearest Neighbor Error



Bias-Variance tradeoff

As $k \rightarrow \infty$?

Bias:

Variance:

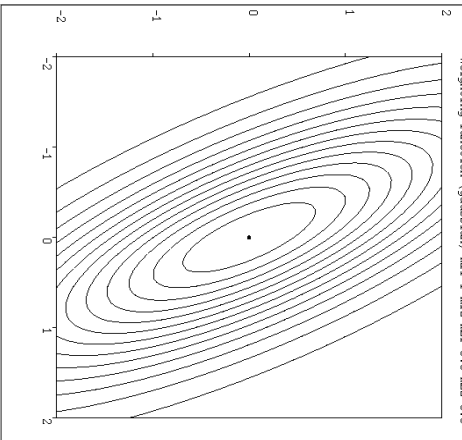
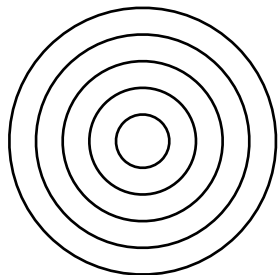
As $k \rightarrow 1$?

Bias:

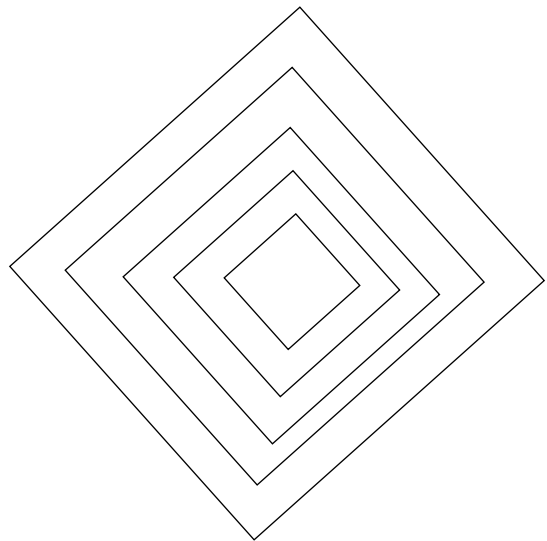
Variance:

Notable distance metrics (and their level sets)

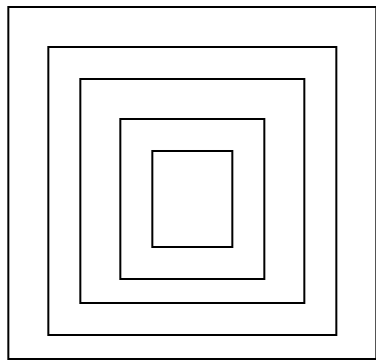
L_2 norm



Mahalanobis



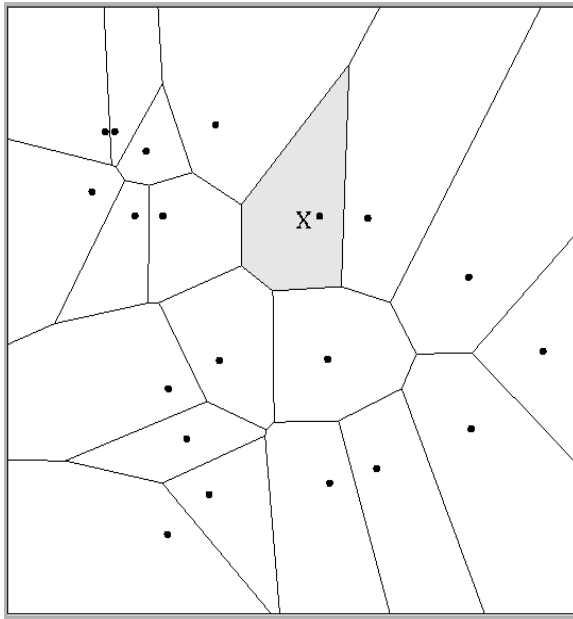
L_1 norm (taxi-cab)



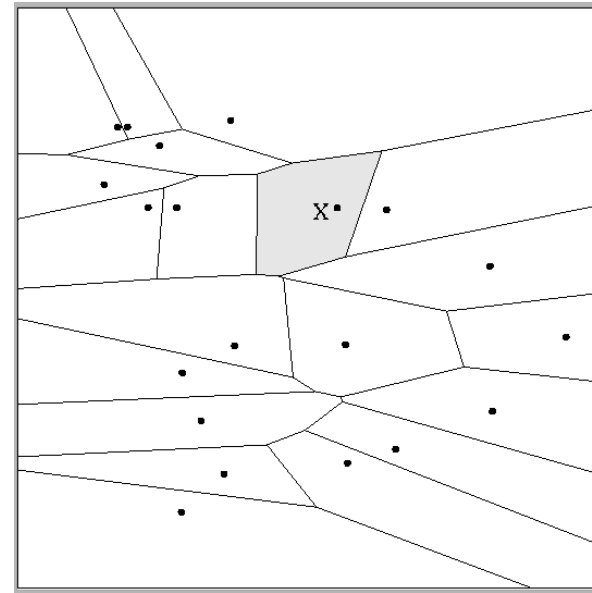
L -infinity (max) norm

1 nearest neighbor

One can draw the nearest-neighbor regions in input space.



$$Dist(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{x}^j) = (x_1^i - x_1^j)^2 + (x_2^i - x_2^j)^2$$



$$Dist(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{x}^j) = (x_1^i - x_1^j)^2 + (3x_2^i - 3x_2^j)^2$$

The relative scalings in the distance metric affect region shapes

1 nearest neighbor guarantee - classification

$$\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \quad x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad y_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad (x_i, y_i) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} P_{XY}$$

Theorem[Cover, Hart, 1967] If P_X is supported everywhere in \mathbb{R}^d and $P(Y = 1|X = x)$ is smooth everywhere, then as $n \rightarrow \infty$ the 1-NN classification rule has error at most twice the Bayes error rate.

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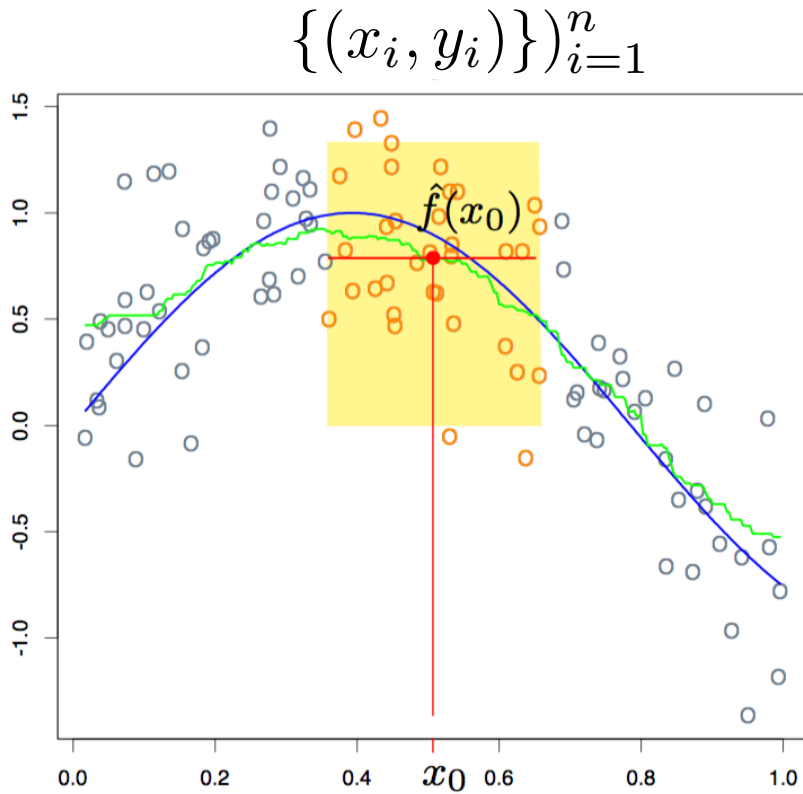
As $x_a \rightarrow x_b$ we have $\mathbb{P}(Y_a = 1|X_a = x_a) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(Y_b = 1|X_b = x_b)$

If $p_* = \max_{y=0,1} \mathbb{P}(Y_b = y|X_b = x_b)$ then the Bayes Error = $1 - p_*$

1-nearest neighbor error =

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(\hat{f}_{1NN}(x_a) \neq Y_a | X_a = x_a) &= \mathbb{P}(Y_b \neq Y_a | X_a = x_b, X_b = x_b) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(Y_b = 1 | X_b = x_b) \mathbb{P}(Y_a = 0 | X_a = x_b) + \mathbb{P}(Y_b = 0 | X_b = x_b) \mathbb{P}(Y_a = 1 | X_a = x_b) \\ &= 2p_*(1 - p_*) \leq 2(1 - p_*) \end{aligned}$$

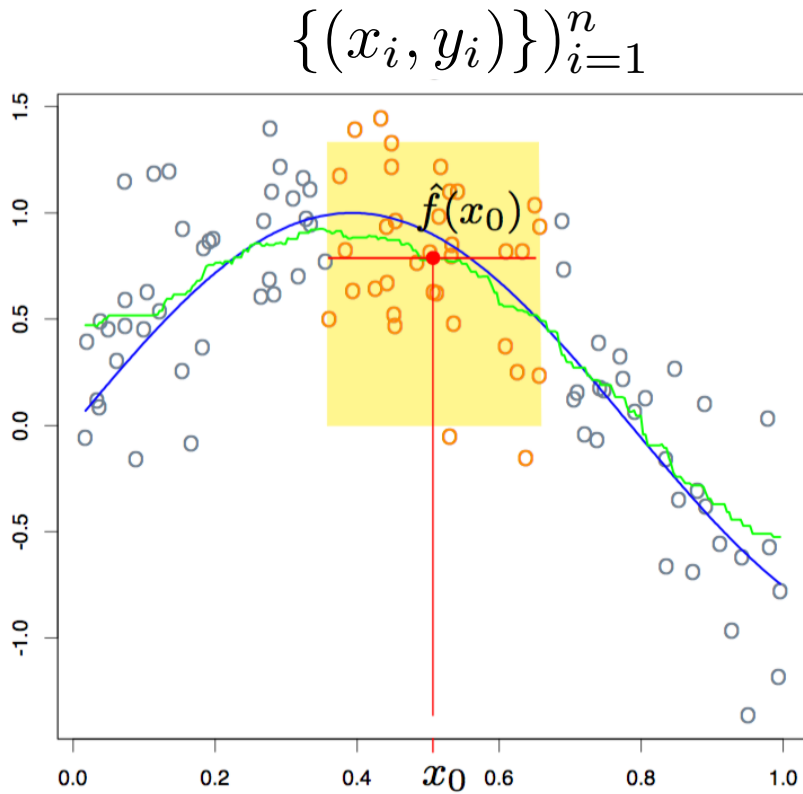
Nearest neighbor regression



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

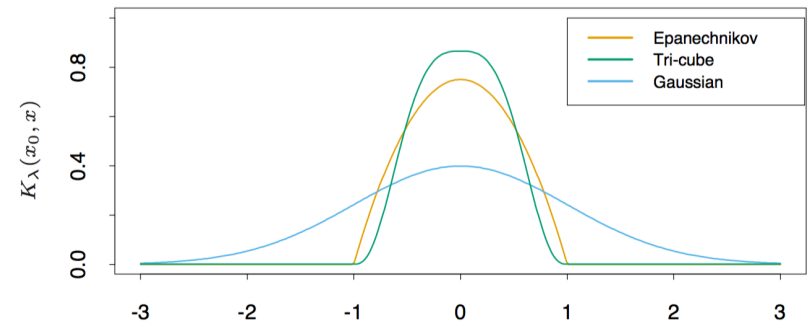
$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \sum_{x_i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_0)} \frac{1}{k} y_i$$

Nearest neighbor regression



Why are far-away neighbors weighted same as close neighbors!

Kernel smoothing: $K(x, y)$

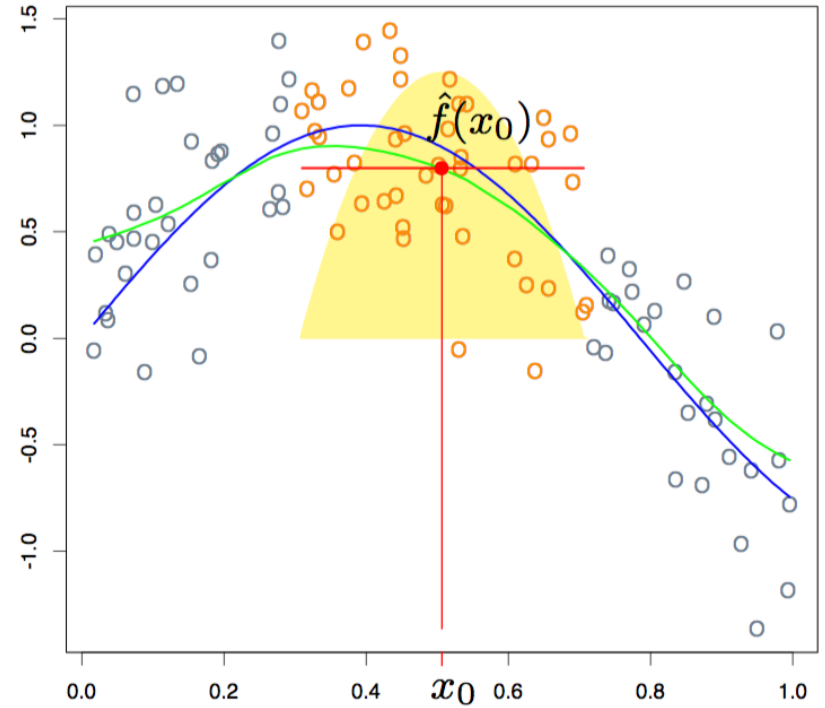
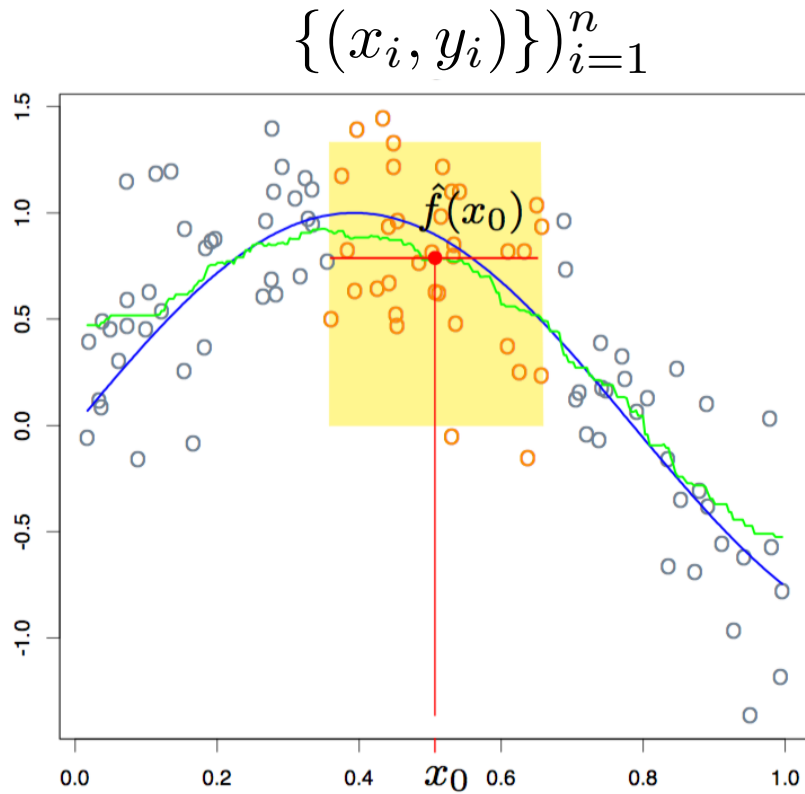


$\mathcal{N}_k(x_0) = k$ -nearest neighbors of x_0

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

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

Nearest neighbor regression

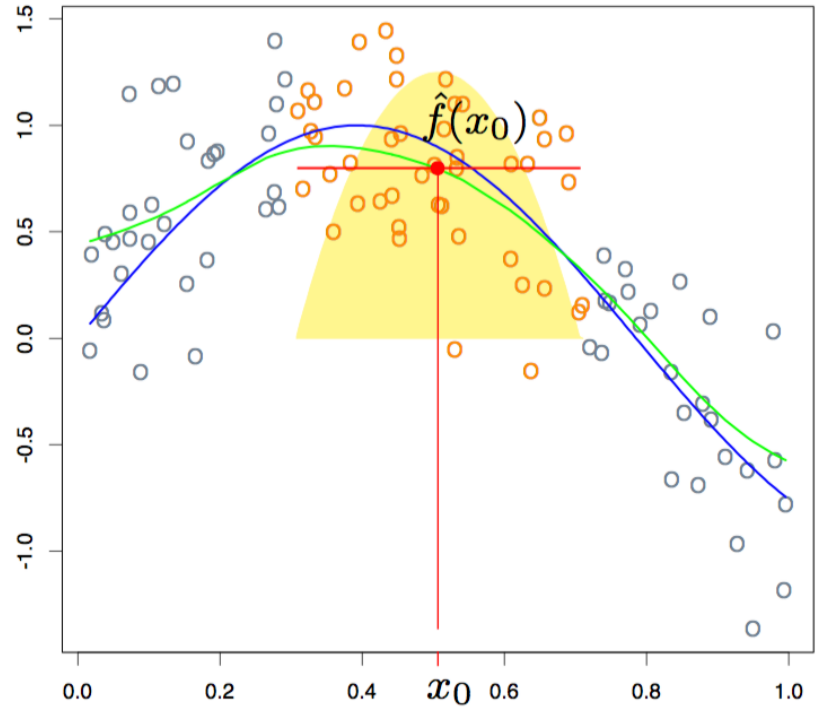
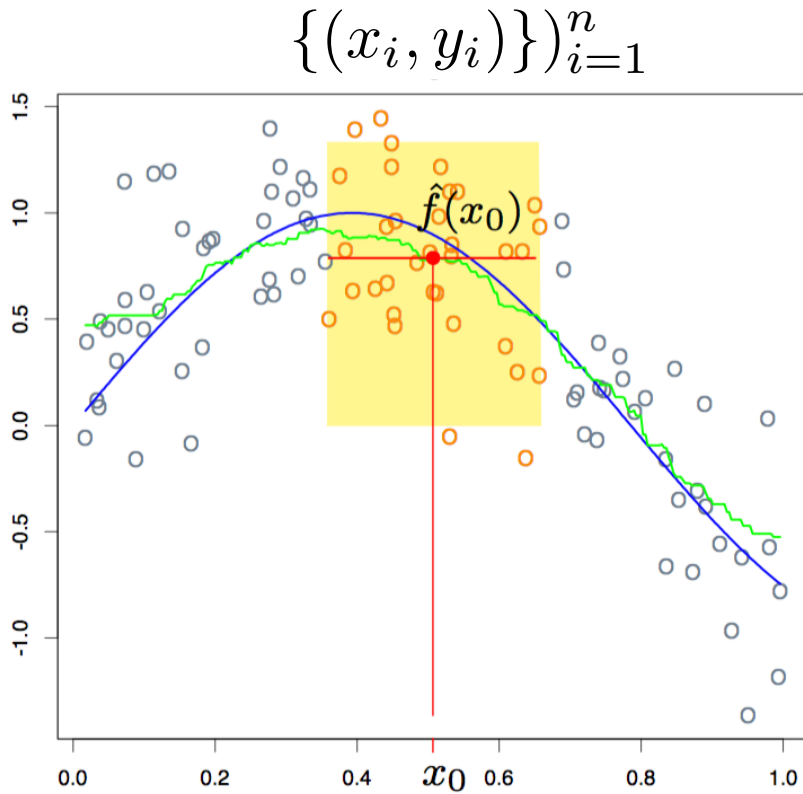


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Nearest neighbor regression



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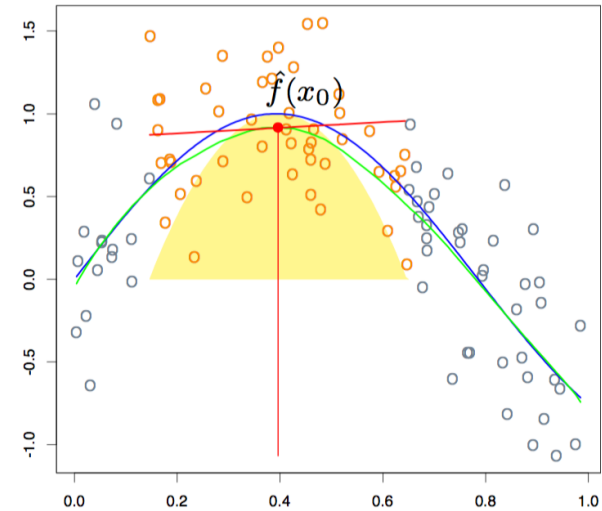
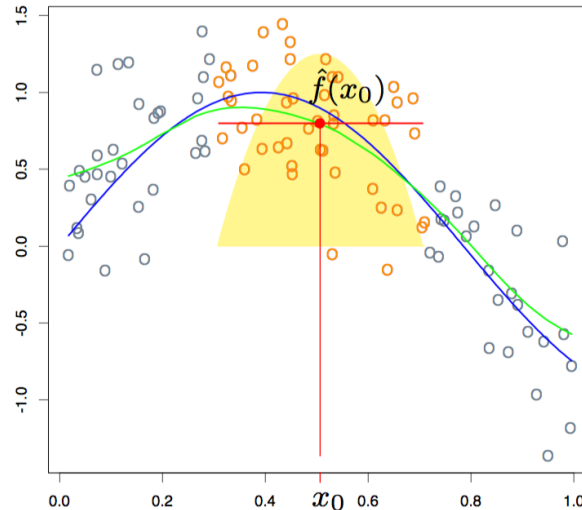
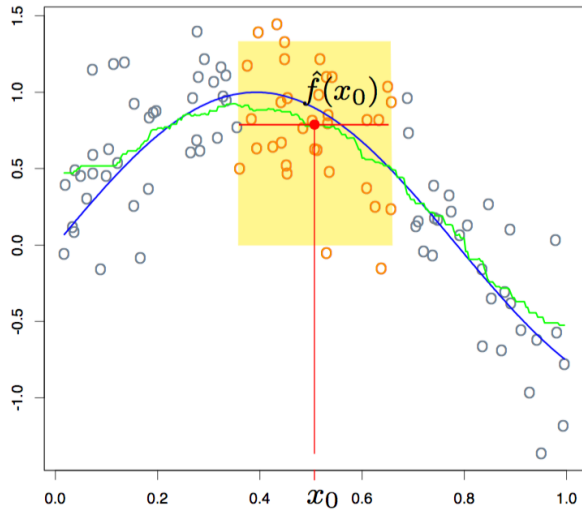
$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \sum_{x_i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_0)} \frac{1}{k} y_i$$

Why just average them?

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

Nearest neighbor regression

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



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

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

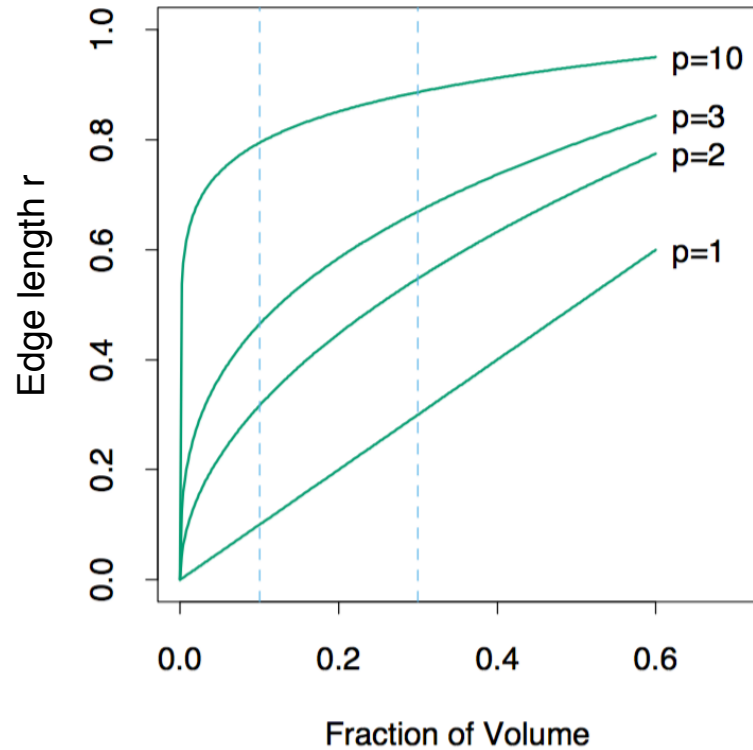
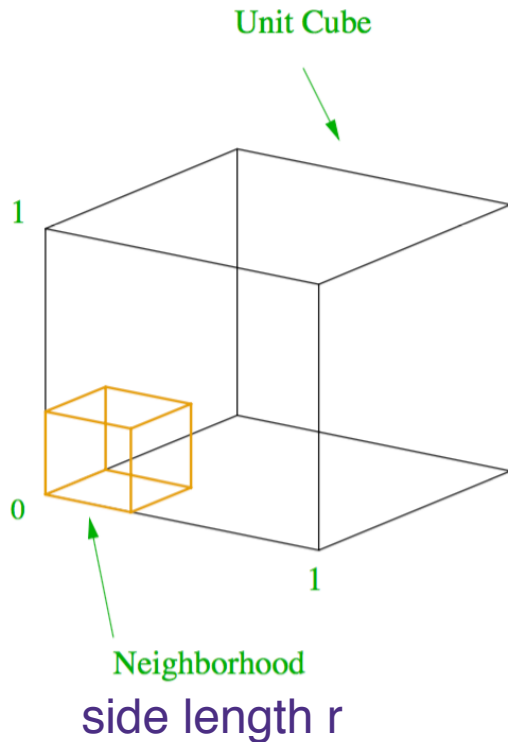
$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x_0, x_i) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x_0, x_i)}$$

$$\hat{f}(x_0) = b(x_0) + w(x_0)^T x_0$$

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

Local Linear Regression

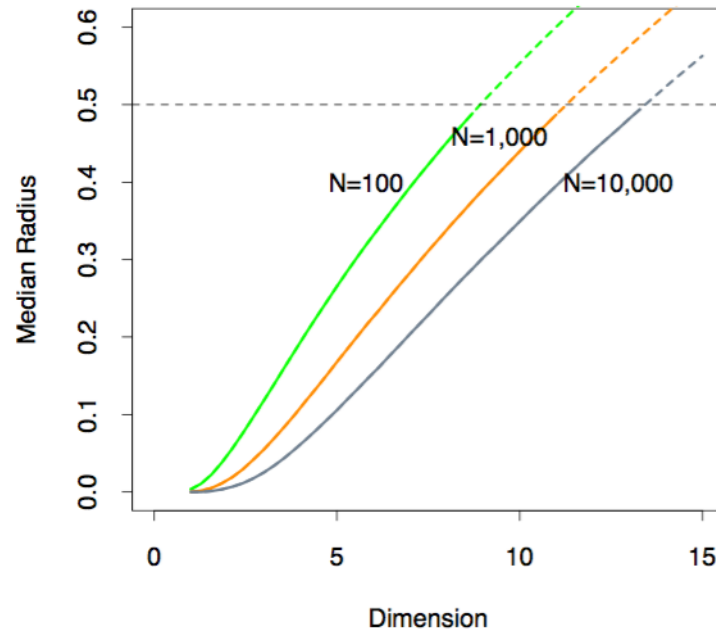
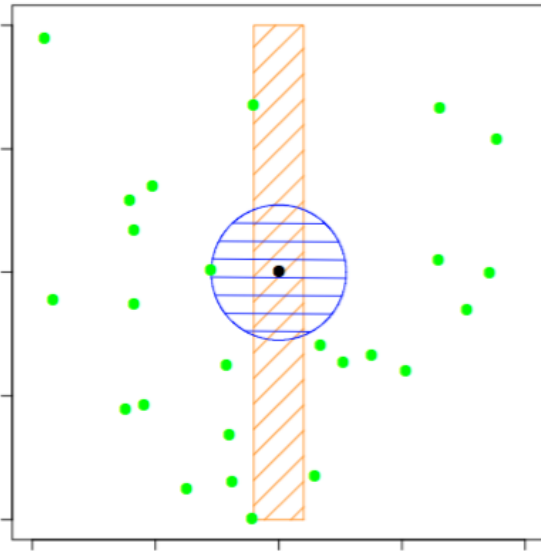
Curse of dimensionality Ex. 1



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 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.
- Without a lot of data, neighborhoods aren’t “local” and methods suffer.

Bootstrap



Limitations of CV

- An 80/20 split throws out a relatively large amount of data if only have, say, 20 examples.
- Test error is informative, but how accurate is this number? (e.g., 3/5 heads vs. 30/50)
- How do I get confidence intervals on statistics like the median or variance of a distribution?
- Instead of the error for the entire dataset, what if I want to study the error for a particular example x ?

The Bootstrap: Developed by Efron in 1979.

Bootstrap: basic idea

Given dataset drawn iid samples with CDF F_Z :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z$$

We compute a *statistic* of the data to get: $\hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$

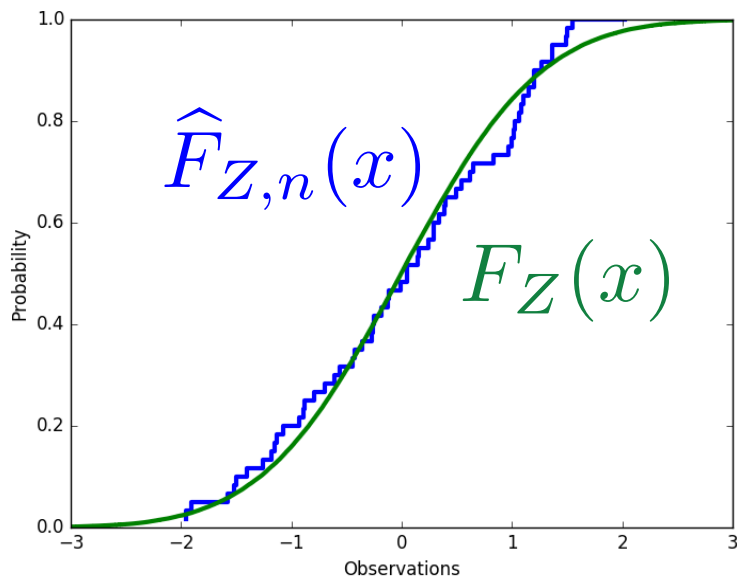
What is the distribution of $\hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$?

Bootstrap: basic idea

Given dataset drawn iid samples with CDF F_Z :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z$$

We compute a *statistic* of the data to get: $\hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$



$$F_Z(x) = \mathbb{P}(Z \leq x)$$

$$\hat{F}_{Z,n}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}\{z_i \leq x\}$$

$$|\hat{F}_{Z,n}(x) - F_Z(x)| \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Bootstrap: basic idea

Given dataset drawn iid samples with CDF F_Z :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z$$

We compute a *statistic* of the data to get: $\hat{\theta} = t(\mathcal{D})$

For $b=1, \dots, B$ define the b th **bootstrapped** dataset as drawing n samples **with replacement** from D

$$\mathcal{D}^{*b} = \{z_1^{*b}, \dots, z_n^{*b}\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \hat{F}_{Z,n}$$

and the b th bootstrapped statistic as: $\theta^{*b} = t(\mathcal{D}^{*b})$

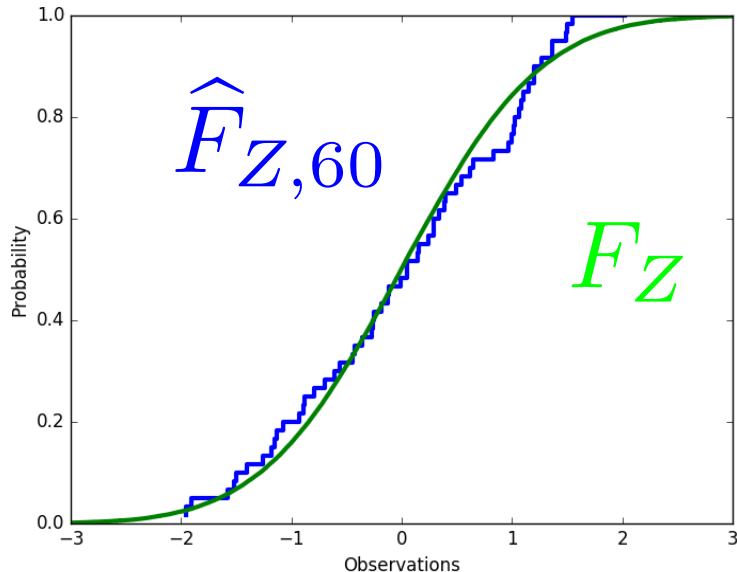
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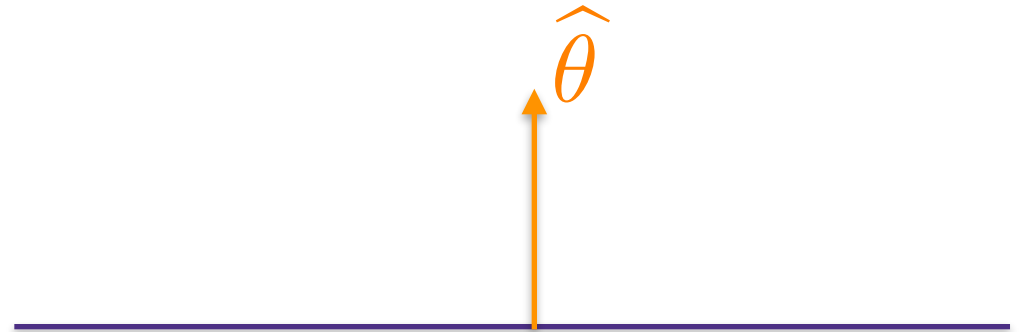
$$\mathcal{D} = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} F_Z$$

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$$\mathcal{D}^{*b} = \{z_1^{*b}, \dots, z_n^{*b}\} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \hat{F}_{Z,n} \quad \theta^{*b} = t(\mathcal{D}^{*b})$$



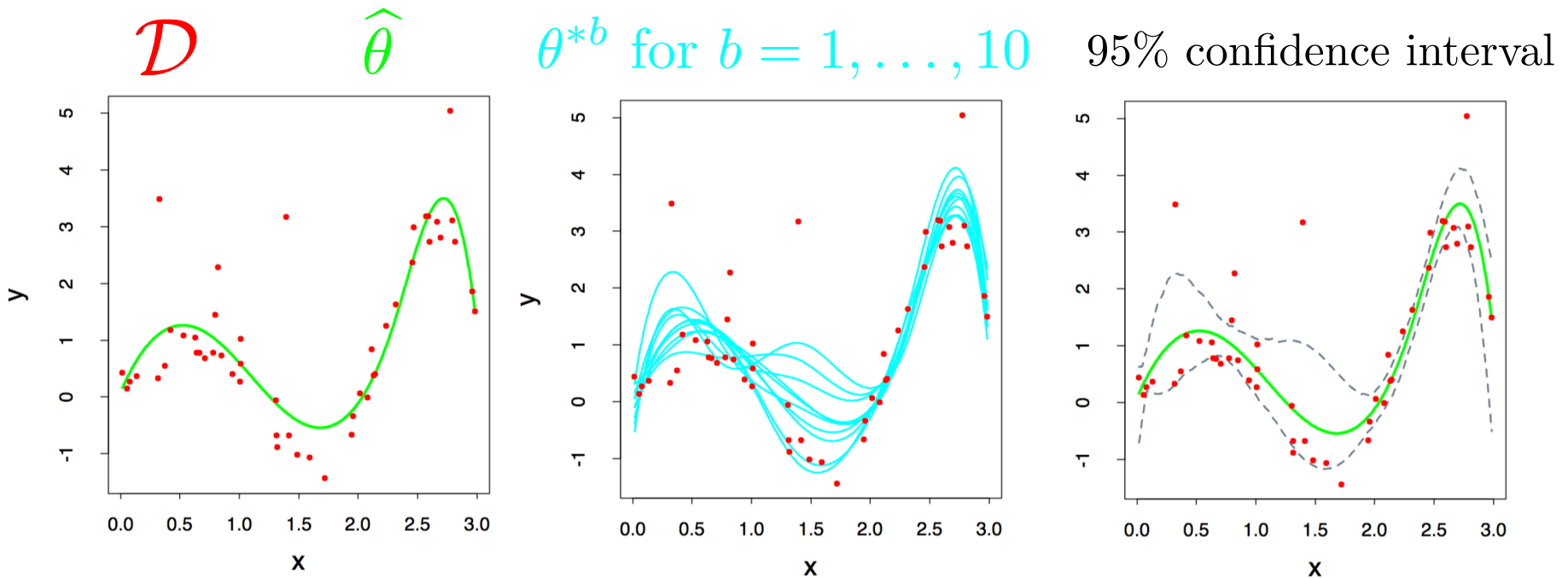
$$|\hat{F}_{Z,n}(x) - F_Z(x)| \stackrel{n \rightarrow \infty}{\rightarrow} 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$



Applications

Common applications of the bootstrap:

- Estimate parameters that escape simple analysis like the variance or median of an estimate
- Confidence intervals
- Estimates of error for a particular example:



Figures from Hastie et al

Takeaways

Advantages:

- **Bootstrap is very generally applicable. Build a confidence interval around *anything***
- **Very simple to use**
- **Appears to give meaningful results even when the amount of data is very small**
- **Very strong asymptotic theory (as num. examples goes to infinity)**

Takeaways

Advantages:

- Bootstrap is very generally applicable. Build a confidence interval around *anything*
- Very simple to use
- Appears to give meaningful results even when the amount of data is very small
- Very strong asymptotic theory (as num. examples goes to infinity)

Disadvantages

- Very few meaningful finite-sample guarantees
- Potentially computationally intensive
- Reliability relies on test statistic and rate of convergence of empirical CDF to true CDF, which is unknown
- Poor performance on “extreme statistics” (e.g., the max)

Not perfect, but better than nothing.