## Boosting

Machine Learning - CSEP546
Carlos Guestrin
University of Washington
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## Fighting the bias-variance tradeoff

- Simple (a.k.a. weak) learners are good
$\square$ e.g., naïve Bayes, logistic regression, decision stumps (or shallow decision trees)
$\square$ Low variance, don't usually overfit too badly
- Simple (a.k.a. weak) learners are bad
$\square$ High bias, can't solve hard learning problems
- Can we make weak learners always good???
$\square$ No!!!
$\square$ But often yes...

The Simplest Weak Learner:
Thresholding, a.k.a. Decision Stumps

- Learn: $\mathrm{h}: \mathrm{X} \mapsto \mathrm{Y} \quad X=(G-P A$, grade,...
$\square \mathbf{X}$ - features$Y$ - target classes ty hind, not hind )


Voting (Ensemble Methods)

Instead of learning a single (weak) classifier, learn many weak classifiers that are good at different parts of the input space $h_{i}: x \rightarrow y \in\{-1,+1\}$

- Output class: (Weighted) vote of each classifierClassifiers that are most "sure" will vote with more convictionClassifiers will be most "sure" about a particular part of the spaceOn average, do better than single classifier!

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H(x)=\operatorname{sig} \\
= & G P A>3 \cdot 9 ?
\end{aligned}
$$

e.9. $h_{f}(x)=G P A>3.9$ ?
the weight of classitio

- But how do you ???force classifiers to learn about different parts of the input space?weigh the votes of different classifiers?


## Boosting [Schapire, 1989]

- Idea: given a weak learner, run it multiple times on (reweighted) training data, then let learned classifiers vote
$h_{t}(x) \rightarrow\{-1,+1\}=y$
- On each iteration $t$ :
$\rightarrow \square$ weight each training example by how incorrectly it was classified
$\square$ Learn a hypothesis $-h_{t}$
$\square$ A strength for this hypothesis $-\alpha_{t}$
- Final classifier: $H(x)=\operatorname{lisn}^{\prime}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_{t} h_{t}(x)\right)$
- Practically useful
- Theoretically interesting


## Learning from weighted data

- Sometimes not all data points are equal
$\square$ Some data points are more equal than others
- Consider a weighted dataset
$\square \mathrm{D}(\mathrm{j})$ - weight of $j$ th training example ( $\mathbf{x}^{j}, \mathrm{y}^{j}$ )
$\square$ Interpretations:
- $j$ th training example counts as $\mathrm{D}(\mathrm{j})$ examples
- If I were to "resample" data, I would get more samples of "heavier" data points
- Now, in all calculations, whenever used, $j$ th training example counts as D(j) "examples"
For example with approaches that use gradient

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { standard: } W \in w-\eta \sum_{j=1}^{N} \nabla_{N} F\left(x^{j}\right) \\
& \text { weighted data; } W \in W-\eta \sum_{j=1}^{N} D(j) \nabla_{w} F\left(x^{j}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Boosting Cartoon

D6ta



AdaBoost

- Initialize weights to uniform dist: $D_{1}(j)=1 / N$
- For $t=1$... $T$
learned from weighted dak
Train weak learner $h_{t}$ on distribution $D_{t}$ over the data
Choose weight $\alpha_{t} \in$ Magic, from next slide bayed on quality of $h_{t}$

Update weights:

$$
D_{t+1}(j)=\frac{D_{t}(j) \exp \left(-\alpha_{t} y^{j} h_{t}\left(x^{j}\right)\right)}{Z_{t}}
$$

$\Rightarrow$ misti on ${ }^{j}$
$\Rightarrow$ weight $D(j)$ increases exporentilly bake on $\alpha_{t}$

- Output final classifier:

$$
Z_{t}=\sum_{j=1}^{N} D_{t}(j) \exp \left(-\alpha_{t} y^{j} h_{t}\left(x^{j}\right)\right)
$$

moke sure weights add up

$$
H(x)=\operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_{t} h_{t}(x)\right)
$$

h 1
similarly if not mistake weight down

Picking Weight of Weak Learner

- Weigh $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{t}}$ higher if it did well on training data (weighted by $D_{t}$ ):

$$
\text { it } \varepsilon_{t}=\frac{\text { Magic: } \alpha_{t}=\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1-\epsilon_{t}}{\epsilon_{t}}\right)}{\alpha t=-\infty}
$$

$\Rightarrow h_{t}$ is exactly wrong
$\Rightarrow$-ht is exactly right
it $\varepsilon_{t}=\frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \alpha_{t}=0$
Gollassifier is as sud as random
no point indenting it
if $\varepsilon_{t}=0 \Rightarrow \alpha_{t}=+\infty$
$\Rightarrow$ per bet (las station on weighted data $\Rightarrow \begin{gathered}\text { porcuct on all (uncuaightes) } \\ \text { data }\end{gathered}$

Where $\varepsilon_{t}$ is the weighted training error:

$$
\varepsilon_{t}=\sum_{j=1}^{\sum_{j}^{N}} D_{t}(j) \mathbb{1}\left[h_{t}\left(x^{j}\right) \neq y^{j}\right]
$$

## 



Why choose $\alpha_{t}$ for hypothesis $h_{t}$ this way?

$$
H(x)=s_{t} g^{n}\left(\sum_{t_{1}} d_{t}(x)\right)
$$

[Schapire, 1989]

- Simple theoretical analysis:

$$
Z_{t}=\sum_{j=1}^{N} D_{t}(j) \exp \left(-\alpha_{t} y^{j} h_{t}\left(x^{j}\right)\right.
$$Training error upper-bounded by product of normalizers



Strong, weak classifiers

How di mesurathe that $z_{t}<1$

- If each classifier is (at least slightly) better than random

$$
\varepsilon_{t}^{\varepsilon_{t}<0.5} \quad \exists \gamma_{t}>0 \text { such that } \varepsilon_{t}<0.5-\gamma_{t}
$$

- AdaBoost will achieve zero training error (exponentially fast):

$$
\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{\sum_{j}^{N}} \mathbb{1}\left[H\left(x^{j}\right) \stackrel{\neq 1}{\neq 1} y^{j}\right] \leq \prod_{t=1}^{\prod_{n}} Z_{t} \leq \exp \left(\left(-2 \sum_{t=1}^{\sum_{T}}\left(1 / 2-\varepsilon_{t}\right)^{2}\right)\right)
$$



always making

$\rightarrow$ with weighted dah, you may not always hin

- Is it hard to achieve better than random training error?


## Boosting results - Digit recognition [Schapire, 1989]



## Boosting: Experimental Results

Comparison of C4.5, Boosting C4.5, Boosting decision stumps (depth 1 trees), 27 benchmark datasets



AdaBoost and AdaBoost.MH on Train (left)and Test (right) data from Irvine repository. [Schapire and Singer, ML 1999]

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What you need to know about Boosting

- Combine weak classifiers to obtain very strong classifierWeak classifier - slightly better than random on training dataResulting very strong classifier - can eventually provide zero training error
- AdaBoost algorithm
- Most popular application of Boosting:Boosted decision stumps!Very simple to implement, very effective classifier

$$
\text { Boosting prediction is } H(x)=\operatorname{Sign}\left(\sum_{t=1}^{9} \alpha_{t} h_{t}(x)\right)
$$

Learns a "liver classifier in $T$ dimensional space "futures" $h_{t}(x)$ are "discovered" from weighted data

## Decision Trees

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## Linear separability

- A dataset is linearly separable iff there exists a separating hyperplane:
$\square$ Exists w, such that:
- $w_{0}+\sum_{i} w_{i} x_{i}>0$; if $\mathbf{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$ is a positive example
- $w_{0}+\sum_{i} w_{i} x_{i}<0$; if $\mathbf{x}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$ is a negative example



## Not linearly separable data

- Some datasets are not linearly separable!


$$
\lambda_{1}+x_{2}=\lambda_{1}=x_{2} V
$$

$$
\neg x_{1} \wedge x_{2}
$$

## Addressing non-linearly separable data - Option 1, non-linear features

- Choose non-linear features, e.g.,
$\square$ Typical linear features: $w_{0}+\sum_{i} w_{i} x_{i}$
$\square$ Example of non-linear features:
- Degree 2 polynomials, $\mathrm{w}_{0}+\sum_{i} \mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{i}}+\sum_{\mathrm{ij}} \mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{ij}} \mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{j}}$
- Classifier $h_{w}(\mathbf{x})$ still linear in parameters $\mathbf{w}$
$\square$ As easy to learn
$\square$ Data is linearly separable in higher dimensional spaces


## Addressing non-linearly separable data - Option 2, non-linear classifier

- Choose a classifier $h_{w}(\mathbf{x})$ that is non-linear in parameters w, e.g.,
$\square$ Decision trees, boosting, nearest neighbor, neural networks...
- More general than linear classifiers
- But, can often be harder to learn (non-convex/concave optimization required)
- But, but, often very useful


## A small dataset: Miles Per Gallon

Suppose we want to predict MPG
$X \rightarrow Y: M P G$


From the UCI repository (thanks to Ross Quinlan)

## A Decision Stump



## Recursion Step

mpg values: bad good

Take the Original Dataset.



Examples in which cylinders

$$
=5
$$

Examples in which cylinders

$$
=6
$$

Examples in which cylinders $=8$

## Recursion Step



Build tree from These examples.. These examples.. These examples.

Build tree from These examples..



Records in which cylinders $=8$

## Second level of tree

mpg values: bad good
 the maker was based in Asia


## Classification of a new example

- Classifying a test example - traverse tree and report leaf label



## Are all decision trees equal?

- Many trees can represent the same concept
- But, not all trees will have the same size!
$\square$ egg., $\phi=A \wedge B \vee \neg A \wedge C((A$ and $B)$ or $(\operatorname{not} A$ and $C))$


represents same
in with
large true.


## Learning decision trees is hard!!!

- Learning the simplest (smallest) decision tree is an NP-complete problem [Hyafil \& Rivest '76]
- Resort to a greedy heuristic:
$\square$ Start from empty decision tree
$\square$ Split on next best attribute (feature)
$\square$ Recurse

$$
\text { t } \text { Subset of data on each leaf }
$$

Subsets of data


Choosing a good attribute

| $\mathrm{X}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{X}_{2}$ | Y |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| T | T | T |
| T | F | T |
| T | T | T |
| T | F | T |
| F | T | T |
| F | F | F |
| F | T | F |
| F | F | F |



totally un sum.
After cpl 1 t, $X_{1}$ makes me man sher than $X_{2}$

## Measuring uncertainty

- Good split if we are more certain about classification after split
$\square$ Deterministic good (all true or all false)
$\square$ Uniform distribution bad

$$
\begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|}
\hline \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{A})=1 / 2 & \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{B})=1 / 4 & \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{C})=1 / 8 & \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{D})=1 / 8 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

| $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{A})=1 / 4$ | $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{B})=1 / 4$ | $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{C})=1 / 4$ | $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{D})=1 / 4$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Entropy

Entropy $H(k)$ of a random yariable $Y$

$$
H(Y)=-\sum_{i=1}^{k^{r}} P\left(Y=y_{i}\right) \log _{2} P\left(Y=y_{i}\right)
$$

More uncertainty, more entropy!
Information Theory interpretation: $H(Y)$ is the expected number of bits needed to encode a randomly drawn value of $Y$ (under most efficient code)


## Andrew Moore's Entropy in a nutshell



## Andrew Moore's Entropy in a nutshell



## Information gain

- Advantage of attribute - decrease in uncertainty
$\square$ Entropy of $Y$ before you split $H(Y)=-\sum_{y} p(y) \log p(y)$
$\square$ Entropy after split

$$
=-\frac{5}{6} \log \frac{5}{6}-\frac{1}{6} \log \frac{1}{6}=165
$$

- Weight by probability of following each branch, ie.,

| $\mathrm{X}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{X}_{2}$ | Y |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| T | T | T |
| T | F | T |
| T | T | T |
| T | F | T |
| F | T | T |
| F | F | F | normalized number of records

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t \wedge^{f} \\
& \pm: 9+1 \\
& -: 0-1.1
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mid X)=-\sum_{j=1}^{v} P\left(X=x_{j}\right) \sum_{i=1}^{k} P\left(Y=y_{i} \mid X=x_{j}\right) \log _{2} P\left(Y=y_{i} \mid X=x_{j}\right) \\
& H\left(Y \mid X_{1}\right)=\frac{4}{6}\left(-\frac{4}{4} \log \frac{4}{4}-\frac{0}{4} \log \frac{0}{4}\right)+\frac{2}{6}\left(-\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1}{2}\right)=\frac{1}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Information gain is difference $I G(X)=H(Y)-H(Y \mid X)$

$$
I G\left(x_{1}\right)=H(y)-H\left(y \mid x_{1}\right)=0.65-\frac{1}{3} \approx 0.32
$$

## Learning decision trees

- Start from empty decision tree
- Split on next best attribute (feature)
$\square$ Use, for example, information gain to select attribute
$\square$ Split on arg max $I G\left(X_{i}\right)=\arg \max _{i} H(Y)-H\left(Y \mid X_{i}\right)$
- Recurse for each split
when do I stop?


2. Entropy in leaf is 0 , perfect dassifitition
3. nothing to split on



## A Decision Stump






## Base Cases

- Base Case One: If all records in current data subset have the same output then don't recurse
- Base Case Two: If all records have exactly the same set of input attributes then don't recurse


## Base Cases: An idea

- Base Case One: If all records in current data subset have the same output then don't recurse
- Base Case Two: If all records have exactly the same set of input attributes then don't recurse



## The problem with Base Case 3



The information gains:
$\mid G(A)=0$
The resulting bad decision tree:

| $y$ values: | 0 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| root |  |  |
| 2 | 2 |  |
|  |  |  |
| Predict 0 |  |  |

## If we omit Base Case 3:



The resulting decision tree:
low info gain not a Good Stopping (riteria


## Basic Decision Tree Building Summarized

BuildTree(DataSet, Output)

- If all output values are the same in DataSet, return a leaf node that says "predict this unique output"
- If all input values are the same, return a leaf node that says "predict the majority output"
- Else find attribute $X$ with highest Info Gain
- Suppose $X$ has $n_{X}$ distinct values (ie. $X$ has arity $n_{X}$ ).
$\square$ Create and return a non-leaf node with $n_{X}$ children.
$\square$ The $i$ 'th child should be built by calling
BuildTree(DS ${ }_{i}$, Output)
Where $D S_{i}$ built consists of all those records in DataSet for which $X=i$ th distinct value of $X$.
go on for ever...


## MPG Test set error

## Num Errors Set Size Percent

Training Set 1
Test Set 74
40
352


| horsepower = low <br> 04 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { horsepower }=\text { medium } \\ & 21 \\ & \text { pchance }=0.894 \end{aligned}$ | $\text { \|horsepower }=\text { high }$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { acceleration }=\text { low } \\ & 10 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { acceleration }=\text { medium } \\ & 01 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { acceleration }=\text { high } \\ & 11 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Predict good |  | Predict bad | Predict bad | Predict good | pchance $=0.717$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { acceleration = low } \\ & 10 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { acceleration }=\text { medium } \\ & 1 \\ & 1 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { acceleration }=\text { high } \\ & 00 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { modelyear }=70 \text { to } 74 \\ & 0 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { modelyear }=75 \text { to } 78 \\ & 10 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { modelyear }=79 \text { to } 83 \\ & 00 \end{aligned}$ |
| Predict bad | (unexpandable) | Predict bad | Predict good | Predict bad | Predict bad |
| Predict bad |  |  |  |  |  |

## MPG Test set error

| Num Errors Set SizePercent <br>  <br> Wrong |
| ---: | :--- |


| Training Set | 1 | 40 | 2.50 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Test Set | 74 | 352 | 21.02 |

horsepower = low horsepower = medium horsepower = high acceleration = low acceleration = medium acceleration = high

Decision trees \& Learning Bias

Suppose no "label noise"
6 two dat point Jame $x$ ditforedy

zero train error
$\longrightarrow$ over fit!!

## Decision trees will overfit

- Standard decision trees have no learning bias
$\square$ Training set error is always zero!
- (If there is no label noise)
$\square$ Lots of variance
$\square$ Will definitely overfit!!!
$\square$ Must bias towards simpler trees
- Many strategies for picking simpler trees:
$\square$ Fixed depth
$\square$ Fixed number of leaves
$\square$ Or something smarter...



## A chi-square test



- Suppose that MPG was completely uncorrelated with maker.
- What is the chance wed have seen data of at least this apparent level of association anyway?
if props of (hence correlation
high, dost keeps pit


## A chi-square test

```
mpg values: bad good
```



- Suppose that mpg was completely uncorrelated with maker.
- What is the chance we'd have seen data of at least this apparent level of association anyway?
By using a particular kind of chi-square test, the answek is 7.2\%
(Such simple hypothesis tests are very easy to compute, unfortunately, not enough time to cover in the lecture, but see readings...)


## Using Chi-squared to avoid overfitting

- Build the full decision tree as before
- But when you can grow it no more, start to prune:
$\square$ Beginning at the bottom of the tree, delete splits in which $p_{\text {chance }}>$ MaxPchance
$\square$ Continue working you way up until there are no more prunable nodes

MaxPchance is a magic parameter you must specify to the decision tree, indicating your willingness to risk fitting noise


## Pruning example

- With MaxPchance = 0.1, you will see the following MPG decision tree:



## MaxPchance

- Technical note MaxPchance is a regularization parameter that helps us bias towards simpler models



## Real-Valued inputs

- What should we do if some of the inputs are real-valued?

| mpg | cylinders | displacemen | horsepower | veight | acceleration modelyear maker |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| good | 4 | 97 | 75 | 2265 | 18.2 | 77 | asia |
| bad | 6 | 199 | 90 | 2648 | 15 | 70 | america |
| bad | 4 | 121 | 110 | 2600 | 12.8 | 77 | europe |
| bad | 8 | 350 | 175 | 4100 | 13 | 73 | america |
| bad | 6 | 198 | 95 | 3102 | 16.5 | 74 | america |
| bad | 4 | 108 | 94 | 2379 | 16.5 | 73 | asia |
| bad | 4 | 113 | 95 | 2228 | 14 | 71 | asia |
| bad | 8 | 302 | 139 | 3570 | 12.8 | 78 | america |
| : | : | : | : | : | : | . | : |
| : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| good | 4 | 120 | 79 | 2625 | 18.6 | 82 | america |
| bad | 8 | 455 | 225 | 4425 | 10 | 70 | america |
| good | 4 | 107 | 86 | 2464 | 15.5 | 76 | europe |
| bad | 5 | 131 | 103 | 2830 | 15.9 | 78 | europe |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |



Infinite number of possible split values!!!

Finite dataset, only finite number of relevant splits!
Idea One: Branch on each possible real value

## "One branch for each numeric value" idea:



Hopeless: with such high branching factor will shatter the dataset and overfit

Threshold splits

- Binary tree, split on attribute $X_{i}$One branch: $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{i}}<\mathrm{t}$
Other branch: $X_{1} \geq t$

$$
\begin{gathered}
x_{i} \\
\langle t /\rangle_{1} \geqslant t
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Could split on } x_{i} \text { multiph tines } \\
& x_{1} \\
& <0 />0 \\
& t \stackrel{x_{2}}{\wedge f} \\
& { }_{x_{1}} \\
& 76 \leq 12100
\end{aligned}
$$

## Choosing threshold split

- Binary tree, split on attribute $X_{i}$
$\square$ One branch: $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{i}}<\mathrm{t}$
$\square$ Other branch: $X_{i} \geq \mathrm{t}$
) info gain like a discrete binary variable
- Search through possible values of $t$
$\square$ Seems hard!!!
- But only finite number of $t$ 's are important
$\square$ Sort data according to $X$ into $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$
$\square$ Consider split points of the form $x_{i}+\left(x_{i+1}-x_{i}\right) / 2$


Sure data
Partition

## A better idea: thresholded splits

- Suppose $X$ is real valued
- Define $I G(Y \mid X: t)$ as $H(Y)-H(Y \mid X: t)$
- Define $H(Y \mid X: t)=$ 因

$$
H(Y \mid X<t) P(X<t)+H(Y \mid X>=t) P(X>=t)
$$

- IG(Y|X:t) is the information gain for predicting $Y$ if all you know is whether X is greater than or less than $t$
- Then define $I G^{*}(Y \mid X)=\max _{t} I G(Y \mid X: t)$
- For each real-valued attribute, use $I G^{*}(Y \mid X)$ for assessing its suitability as a split
- Note, may split on an attribute multiple times, with different thresholds



## Example with MPG

## Example tree using reals



## What you need to know about decision trees

- Decision trees are one of the most popular data mining tools
$\square$ Easy to understand
$\square$ Easy to implement
$\square$ Easy to use
$\square$ Computationally cheap (to solve heuristically)
- Information gain to select attributes (ID3, C4.5,...)
- Presented for classification, can be used for regression and density estimation too
- Decision trees will overfit!!!
$\square$ Zero bias classifier! Lots of variance
$\square$ Must use tricks to find "simple trees", e.g.,
- Fixed depth/Early stopping
- Pruning
- Hypothesis testing



## Acknowledgements

- Some of the material in the decision trees presentation is courtesy of Andrew Moore, from his excellent collection of ML tutorials:
$\square \underline{\text { http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~awm/tutorials }}$


## Instance-based Learning <br> Nearest Neighbors/NonParametric Methods

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Carlos Guestrin
University of Washington
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## Why not just use Linear Regression?





## Using data to predict new data



## Nearest neighbor



## Univariate 1-Nearest Neighbor

Given datapoints $\left(x^{1}, y^{1}\right)\left(x^{2}, y^{2}\right) . .\left(x^{N}, y^{N}\right)$, where we assume $y^{i}=f\left(x^{1}\right)$ for some unknown function $f$.
Given query point $x^{q}$, your job is to predict $\quad \hat{y} \approx f\left(x^{q}\right)$
Nearest Neighbor:

1. Find the closest $x_{i}$ in our set of datapoints

$$
j(n n)=\underset{j}{\operatorname{argmin}}\left|x^{j}-x^{q}\right|
$$

2. Predict $\hat{y}=y^{i(m)}$ Here's a dataset with one input, one output and four datapoints.


## 1-Nearest Neighbor is an example of.... Instance-based learning

A function approximator that has been around since about 1910.

To make a prediction, search database for similar datapoints, and fit with the local points.


Four things make a memory based learner:

- A distance metric
- How many nearby neighbors to look at?
- A weighting function (optional)
- How to fit with the local points?


## 1-Nearest Neighbor

Four things make a memory based learner:

1. A distance metric

Euclidian (and many more)
2. How many nearby neighbors to look at?

One
3. A weighting function (optional)

Unused
4. How to fit with the local points?

Just predict the same output as the nearest neighbor.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& i=\operatorname{argmin}_{j} \mid x^{j}-x^{t \mid} \| \\
& \text { prodict } G \equiv y^{i}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Multivariate distance metrics

Suppose the input vectors $x^{1}, x^{2}, \ldots x^{N}$ are two dimensional:

$$
\mathbf{x}^{1}=\left(x^{1}{ }_{1}, x^{1}{ }_{2}\right), \mathbf{x}^{2}=\left(x^{2}{ }_{1}, x^{2}{ }_{2}\right), \ldots \mathbf{x}^{N}=\left(x^{N}{ }_{1}, x^{N}{ }_{2}\right) .
$$

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


The relative scalings in the distance metric affect region shapes

## Euclidean distance metric

Or equivalently,

$$
D\left(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{x}^{\prime}\right)=\sqrt{\sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2}\left(x_{i}-x_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{2}}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D\left(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{x}^{\prime}\right)=\sqrt{\left(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{x}^{\prime}\right)^{T} \sum\left(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{x}^{\prime}\right)} \\
& \Sigma=,\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\sigma_{1}^{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0^{2} & \sigma_{2}^{2} & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_{N}^{2}
\end{array}\right] \\
& \text { ank-based, Correlation-based, .. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Notable distance metrics (and their level sets)



## Consistency of 1-NN

- Consider an estimator $f_{n}$ trained on $n$ examples
$\square$ e.g., 1-NN, neural nets, regression,...
- Estimator is consistent if true error goes to zero as amount of data increases
$\square$ e.g., for no noise data, consistent if:
$\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} M S E\left(f_{n}\right)=0$
- Regression is not consistent!
$\square$ Representation bias
■ 1-NN is consistent (under some mild fineprint)


## What about variance???

1-NN overfits?

k-Nearest Neighbor

Four things make a memory based learner:

1. A distance metric Euclidian (and many more)
2. How many nearby neighbors to look at?
k
3. A weighting function (optional)

Unused
2. How to fit with the local points?

Just predict the average output among the $k$ nearest neighbors.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& N N\left(x^{*}\right) \text { t } k \text { dearest neighbors }
\end{aligned}
$$

## k-Nearest Neighbor (here k=9)



K-nearest neighbor for function fitting smoothes away noise, but there are clear deficiencies.
What can we do about all the discontinuities that k-NN gives us?

Weighted keNs

- Neighbors are not all the same


$$
\hat{y}=\frac{\pi_{1} y^{1}+\pi_{2} y^{2}+\pi_{3} y^{3}}{\pi_{1}+\pi_{2}+\pi_{3}}
$$

$\pi_{i}$ is some wight, egg.,

$$
\pi_{i}=\frac{1}{\left\|v^{k}-v^{i}\right\|}
$$

## Kernel regression



Four things make a memory based learner:

1. A distance metric

Euclidian (and many more)
2. How many nearby neighbors to look at?

All of them
3. A weighting function (optional)
$\pi^{i}=\exp \left(-D\left(x^{i}, q u e r y\right)^{2} / \rho^{2}\right)$
Nearby points to the query are weighted strongly, far points weakly. The $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ parameter is the Kernel Width. Very important.
4. How to fit with the local points?

Predict the weighted average of the outputs: predict $=\Sigma \boldsymbol{m}^{i} y^{i} / \Sigma \boldsymbol{m}^{i}$
Classification
weighted móyouits

## Weighting functions

$$
\pi^{i}=\exp \left(-D\left(x^{i}, q u e r y\right)^{2} / \rho^{2}\right)
$$

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\exp (\|-d\|)$  | Uniform |
|  |  |  |

Typically optimize $\rho$ using gradient descent os X-validation
(Our examples use Gaussian)

## Kernel regression predictions



Increasing the kernel width $\rho$ means further away points get an opportunity to influence you.
As $\rho \rightarrow \infty$, the prediction tends to the global average.

## Kernel regression on our test cases



Choosing a good $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ is important. Not just for Kernel Regression, but for all the locally weighted learners we're about to see.

## Kernel regression can look bad



Time to try something more powerful...

## Locally weighted regression

Kernel regression:
Take a very very conservative function approximator called AVERAGING. Locally weight it.
Locally weighted regression:
Take a conservative function approximator called LINEAR REGRESSION. Locally weight it.

## Locally weighted regression

- Four things make a memory based learner:
- A distance metric

Any

- How many nearby neighbors to look at?

All of them

- A weighting function (optional)

Kernels

- How to fit with the local points?

General weighted regression:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{w}^{q}=\underset{w}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \pi_{q}^{k}\left(\mathrm{y}^{k}-w^{T} \mathrm{x}^{k}\right)^{2} \sigma^{\text {recursion function }} \\
& w
\end{aligned}
$$

## How LWR works



## Another view of LWR



## LWR on our test cases



## Locally weighted polynomial regression



Kernel Regression Kernel width $\rho$ at optimal level.
$\rho=1 / 100 x$-axis


LW Linear Regression Kernel width $\rho$ at optimal level.
$\rho=1 / 40 x$-axis


LW Quadratic Regression Kernel width $\rho$ at optimal level.
$\rho=1 / 15 x$-axis

Local quadratic regression is easy: just add quadratic terms to the $X$ matrix. As the regression degree increases, the kernel width can increase without introducing bias.

## Curse of dimensionality for instance-based learning

- Must store and retreve all data!
$\square$ Most real work done during testing
$\square$ For every test sample, must search through all dataset - very slow!
$\square$ There are (sometimes) fast methods for dealing with large datasets
- Instance-based learning often poor with noisy or irrelevant features

Curse of the irrelevant feature
add un ire levant noisy torture


## What you need to know about $/$ Acsinu shuss

 instance-based learning veranidagen- k-NN
$\square$ Simplest learning algorithm
$\square$ With sufficient data, very hard to beat "strawman" approach
$\square$ Picking k?
- Kernel regression
$\square$ Set k to n (number of data points) and optimize weights by gradien descent
$\square$ Smoother than k-NN
- Locally weighted regression
$\square$ Generalizes kernel regression, not just local average
- Curse of dimensionality
$\square$ Must remember (very large) dataset for prediction
$\square$ Irrelevant features often killers for instance-based approaches



## Acknowledgment

- This lecture contains some material from Andrew Moore's excellent collection of ML tutorials:
$\square \underline{\text { http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~awm/tutorials }}$

