CHAPTER 8:

NONPARAMETRIC METHODS

Nonparametric Estimation

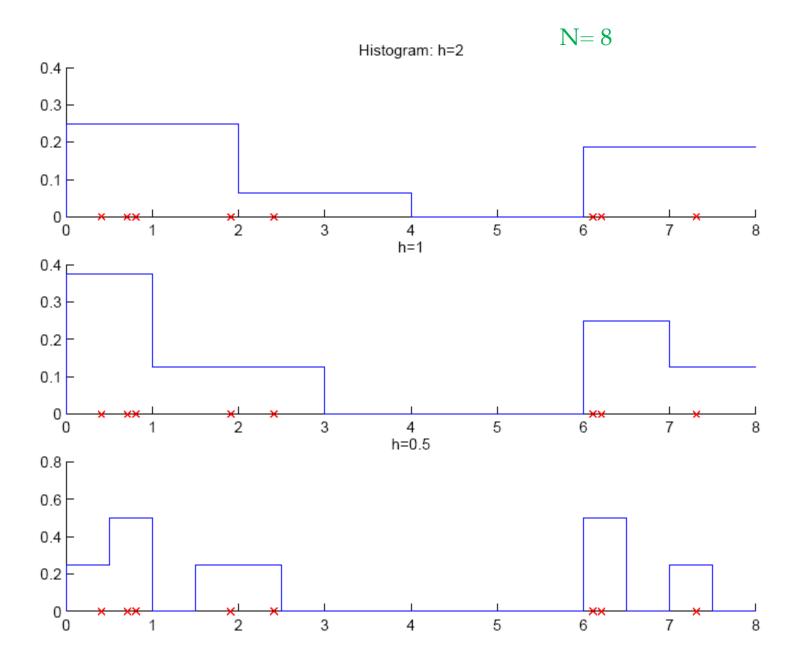
- Parametric (single global model), semiparametric (small number of local models)
- Nonparametric: Similar inputs have similar outputs
- Functions (pdf, discriminant, regression) change smoothly
- Keep the training data; "let the data speak for itself"
- Given x, find a small number of closest training instances and interpolate from these
- Aka lazy/memory-based/case-based/instancebased learning

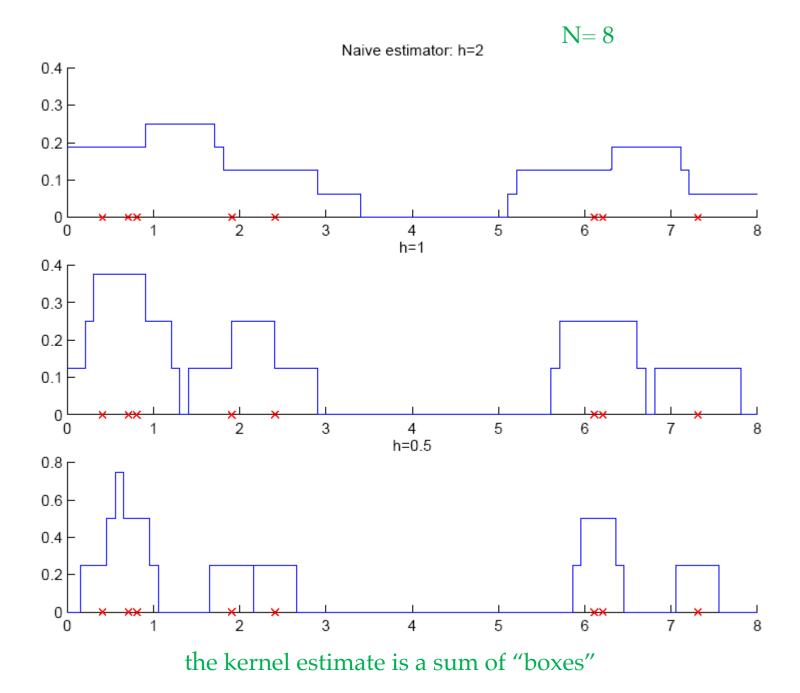
Density Estimation

- □ Given the training set $X = \{x^t\}_t$ drawn iid from p(x)
- Divide data into bins of size h
- □ Histogram: $\hat{p}(x) = \frac{\#\{x^t \text{ in the same bin as } x\}}{Nh}$
- □ Naive estimator: $\hat{p}(x) = \frac{\#\{x h/2 < x^t \le x + h/2\}}{Nh}$

or equivalently,

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Nh} \sum_{t=1}^{N} w \left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h} \right) \text{ where } w(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |u| < 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





Kernel Estimator to get a smooth estimate

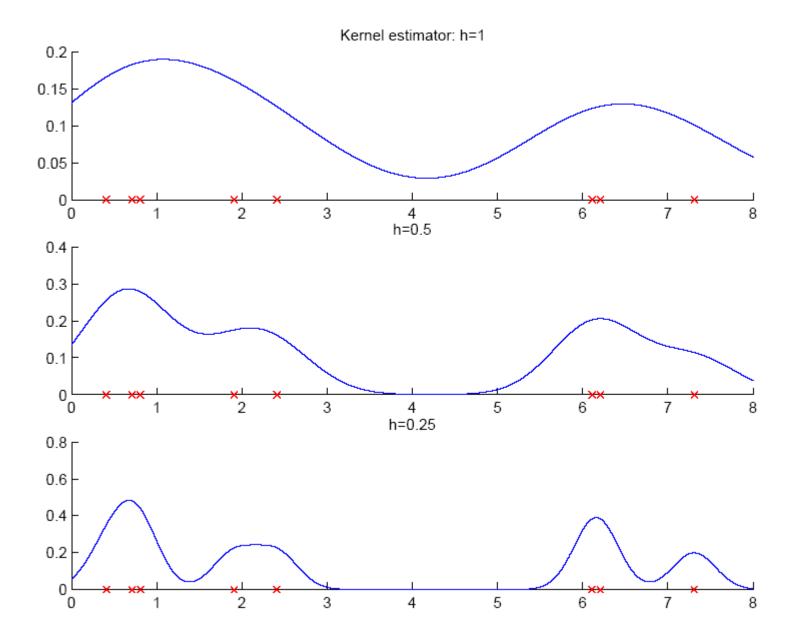
Kernel function, e.g., Gaussian kernel:

$$K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{u^2}{2}\right]$$

Kernel estimator (Parzen windows)

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Nh} \sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h}\right)$$

- the kernel function K(.) determines the shape of the "influence"
- h determines the width of the "influence"
- the kernel estimate is the sum of "bumps"



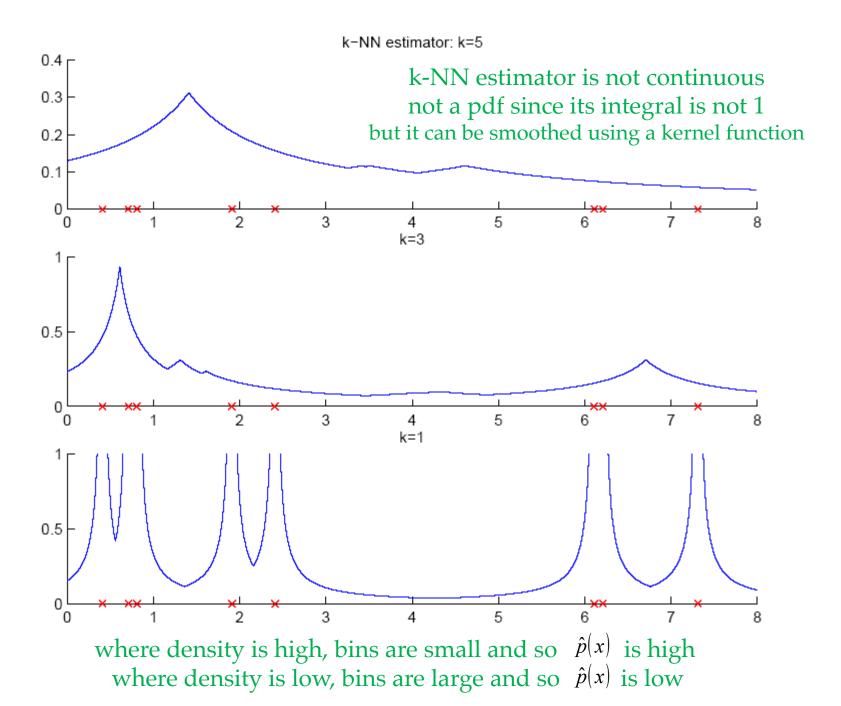
k-Nearest Neighbor Estimator

Instead of fixing bin width h and counting the number of instances, fix the instances (neighbors)
 k and check bin width

$$\hat{p}(x) = \frac{k}{2Nd_k(x)}$$

 $d_k(x)$, distance to kth closest instance to x

this is like a naïve estimator with $h = d_k(x)$



Multivariate Data (d dimensions)

Kernel density estimator

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Nh^d} \sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right)$$

Multivariate Gaussian kernel

$$K(\mathbf{u}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^d \exp\left[-\frac{\|\mathbf{u}\|^2}{2}\right]$$
 Euclidean distance

ellipsoid
$$K(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\mathbf{S}|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{u}\right]$$
 mormalized to have the same variance

inputs should be

Nonparametric Classification

- □ Estimate $p(x|C_i)$ and use Bayes' rule
- Kernel estimator

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \frac{1}{N_i h^d} \sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right) r_i^t \quad \hat{P}(C_i) = \frac{N_i}{N}$$

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{p}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) \hat{P}(C_i) = \frac{1}{Nh^d} \sum_{t=1}^N K\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t}{h}\right) r_i^t$$

 k_i : # of k-nn in class C_i

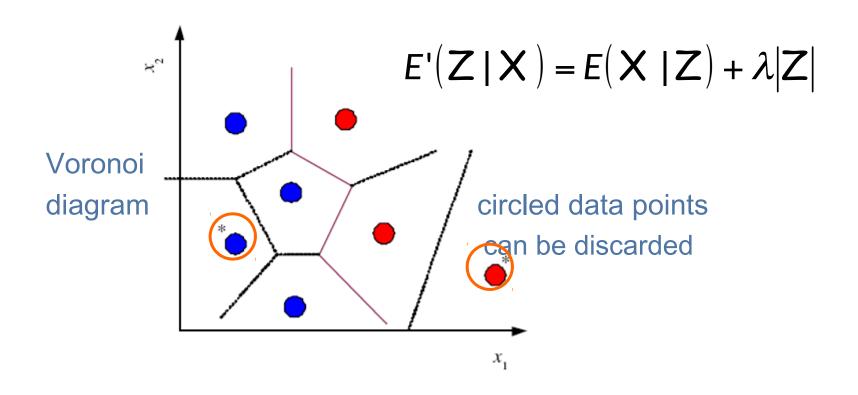
 \square particular case: k-NN estimator (x): volume of hypersphere (x): volume of hypersphere (x): volume of hypersphere

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \frac{k_i}{N_i V^k(\mathbf{x})} \quad \text{then } \hat{P}(C_i \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\hat{p}(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) \hat{P}(C_i)}{\hat{p}(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{k_i}{k}$$

assigns x to the class having more examples among the k-NN of x

Condensed Nearest Neighbor

- \square Time/space complexity of k-NN is O (N)
- □ Find a subset Z of X that is small and is accurate in classifying X (Hart, 1968)



Condensed Nearest Neighbor

Incremental algorithm: Add instance if needed

Distance-based Classification

- □ Find a distance function $D(x^r, x^s)$ such that if x^r and x^s belong to the same class, distance is small and if they belong to different classes, distance is large
- Assume a parametric model and learn its parameters using data, e.g.,

$$\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^t | \mathbf{M}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)^T \mathbf{M} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)$$

Learning a Distance Function

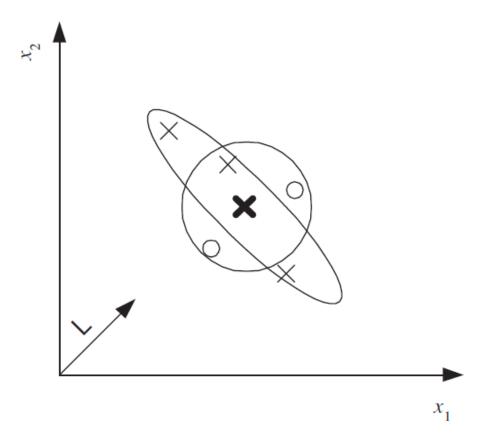
- The three-way relationship between distances, dimensionality reduction, and feature extraction.
- M=L^TL is dxd and L is kxd

$$\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^t | \mathbf{M}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)^T \mathbf{M} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)^T \mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{L} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)$$

$$= (\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t))^T (\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)) = (\mathbf{L}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{x}^t)^T (\mathbf{L}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{x}^t)$$

$$= (\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}^t)^T (\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}^t) = \|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}^t\|^2$$

- Similarity-based representation using similarity scores
- Large-margin nearest neighbor (chapter 13)



Euclidean distance (circle) is not suitable, Mahalanobis distance using an **M** (ellipse) is suitable. After the data is projected along **L**, Euclidean distance can be used

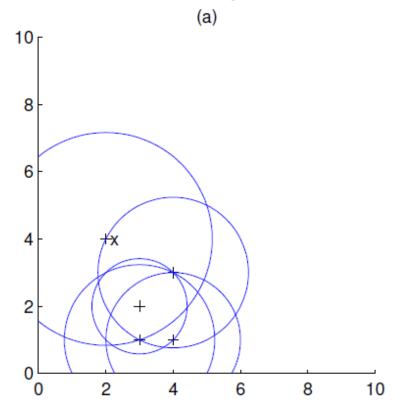
Outlier Detection

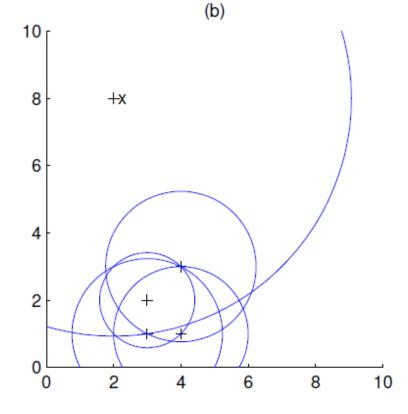
- Find outlier/novelty points
- Not a two-class problem because outliers are very few, of many types, and seldom labeled
- Instead, one-class classification problem: Find instances that have low probability
- In nonparametric case: Find instances far away from other instances

Local Outlier Factor

$$\mathrm{LOF}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{d_k(\boldsymbol{x})}{\sum_{\boldsymbol{S} \in \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{X})} d_k(\boldsymbol{s}) / |\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x})|}$$

the larger LOF(x), the most likely x is an outlier





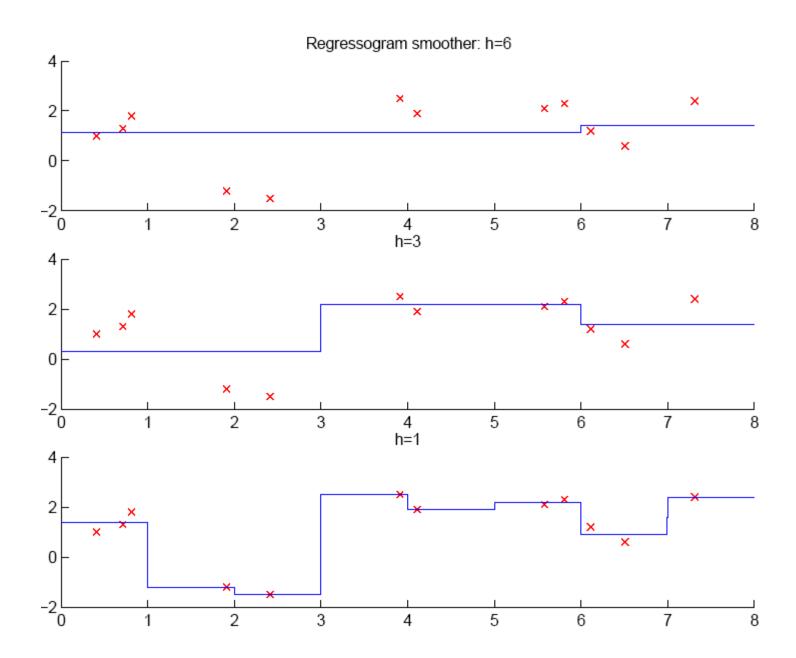
Nonparametric Regression

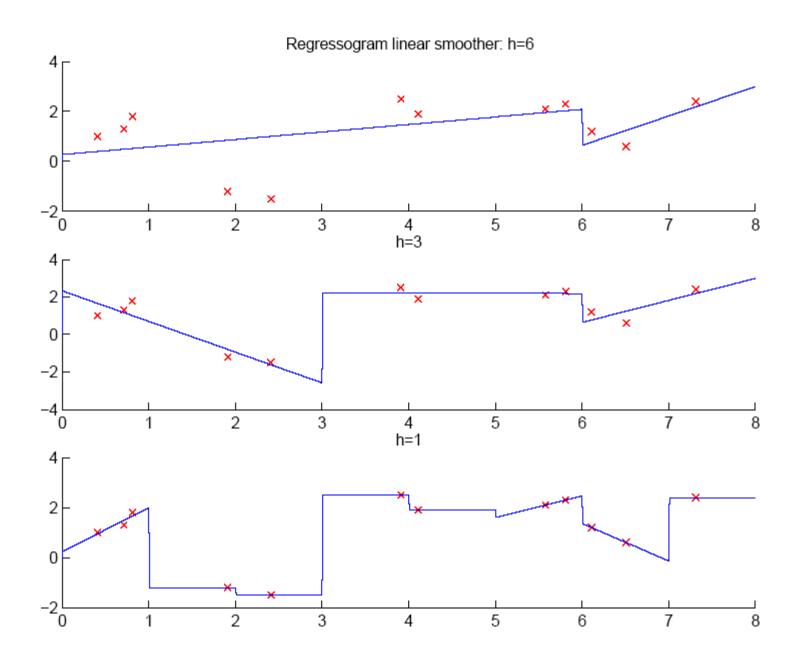
- Aka smoothing models
- Regressogram

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} b(x, x^{t}) r^{t}}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} b(x, x^{t})}$$

where

$$b(x,x^{t}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^{t} \text{ is in the same bin with } x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





Running Mean/Kernel Smoother

Running mean

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} w\left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h}\right) r^{t}}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} w\left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h}\right)}$$

where

$$w(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |u| < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

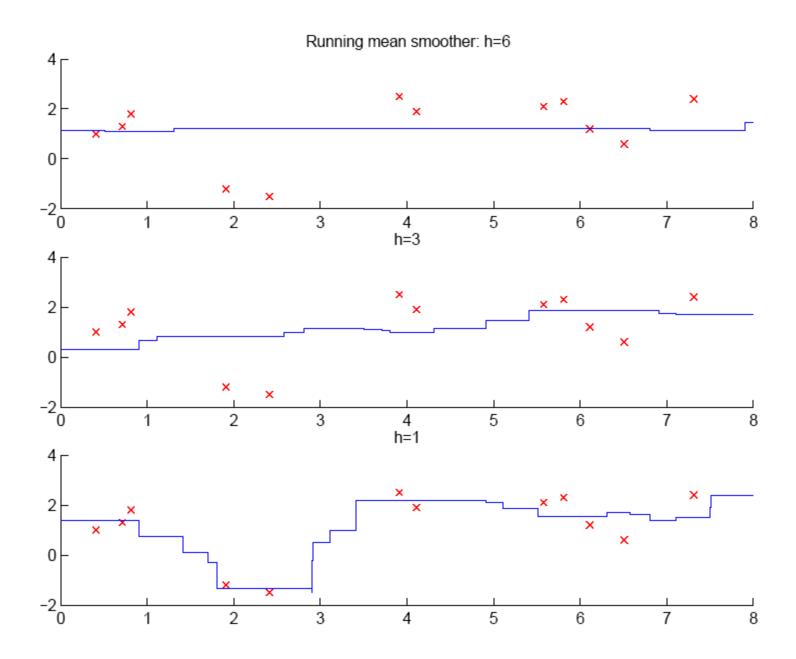
Running line smoother

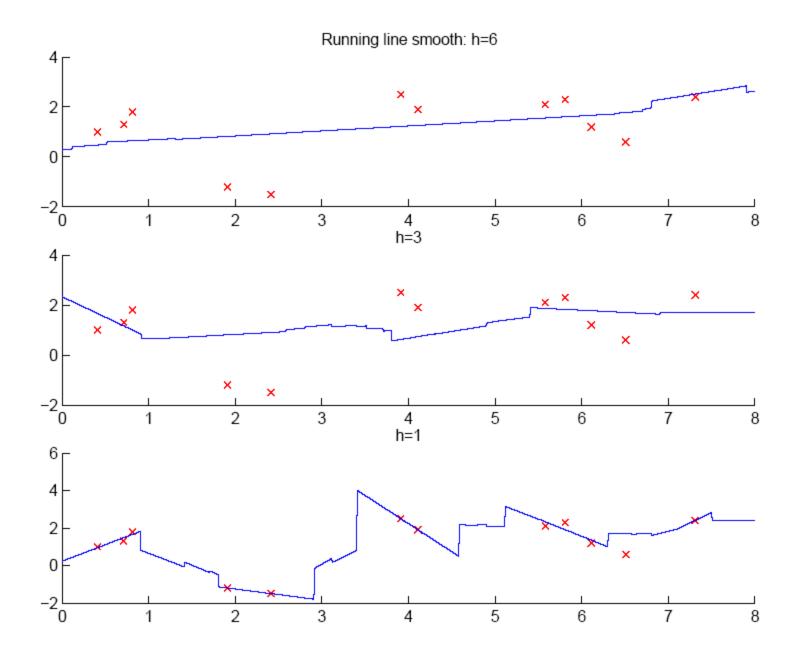
Kernel smoother

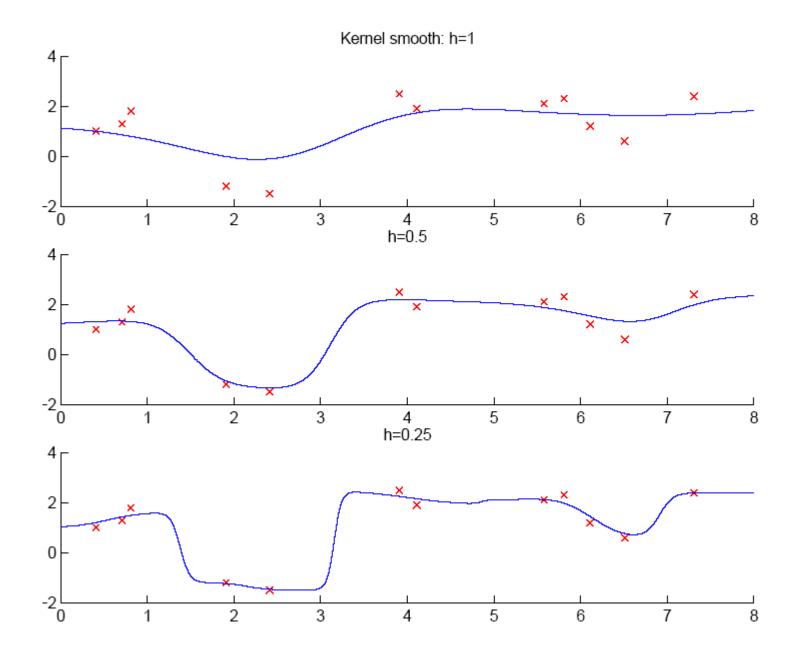
$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h}\right) r^{t}}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{x - x^{t}}{h}\right)}$$

where K() is Gaussian

Additive models (Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990)







How to Choose *k* or *h*?

- When k or h is small, single instances matter; bias is small, variance is large (undersmoothing): High complexity
- As k or h increases, we average over more instances and variance decreases but bias increases (oversmoothing): Low complexity
- Cross-validation is used to finetune k or h.

