# Foundations of Machine Learning CentraleSupélec Paris — Fall 2016

# 7. Nearest neighbors

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### **Practical matters**

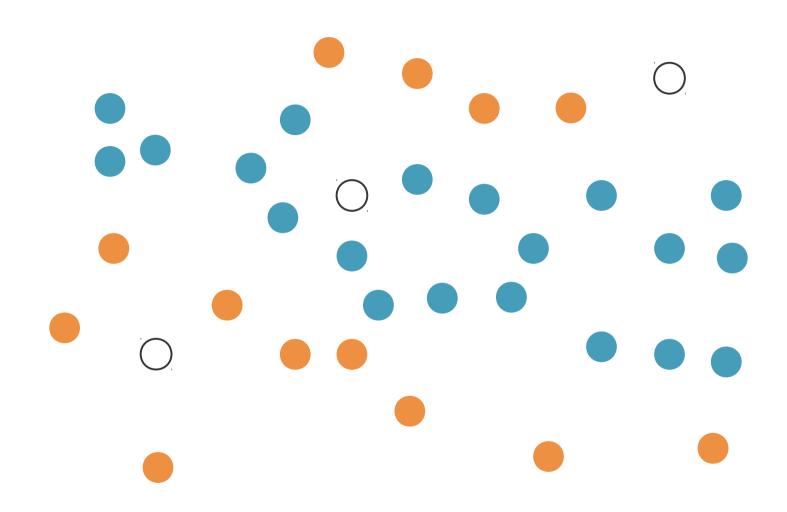
- Homework solutions
- Kaggle project
  - Get started early
  - You can do as many submissions as you want (! daily limit)
  - Submissions that will count towards your grade:
    - Last 3 submissions
    - Submissions I asked for, i.e. your best
      - linreg
      - regul\_linreg
      - knn
      - trees
      - svm.

# **Learning objectives**

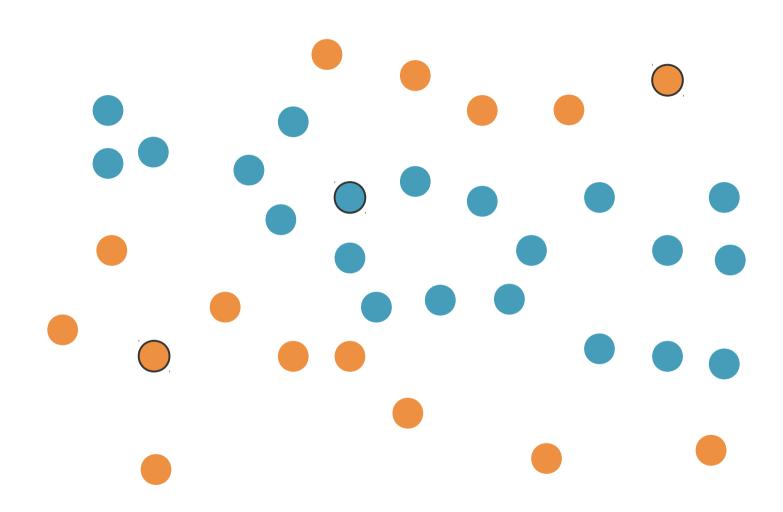
- Implement the nearest-neighbor and k-nearest-neighbors algorithms.
- Compute distances between real-valued vectors as well as objects represented by categorical features.
- Define the decision boundary of the nearestneighbor algorithm.
- Explain why kNN might not work well in high dimension.

# **Nearest neighbors**

### How would you color the blank circles?

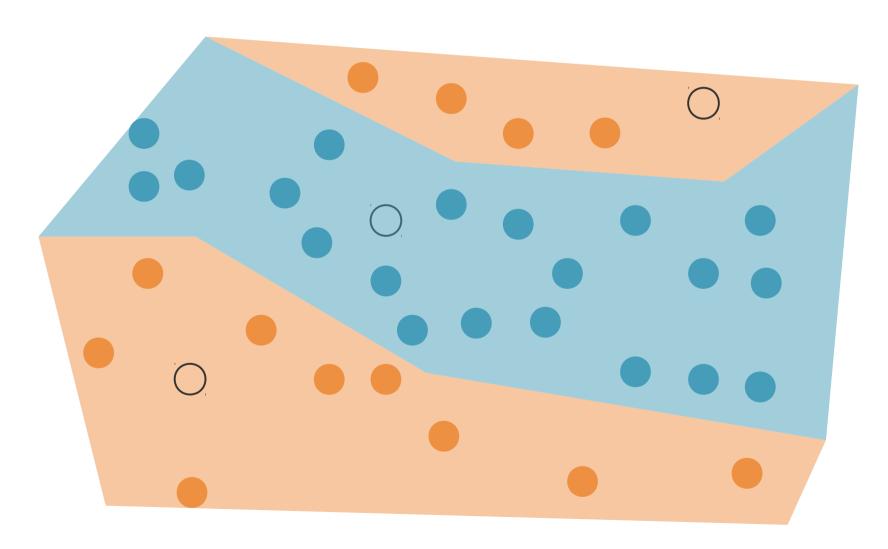


### How would you color the blank circles?



# **Partitioning the space**

The training data partitions the entire space



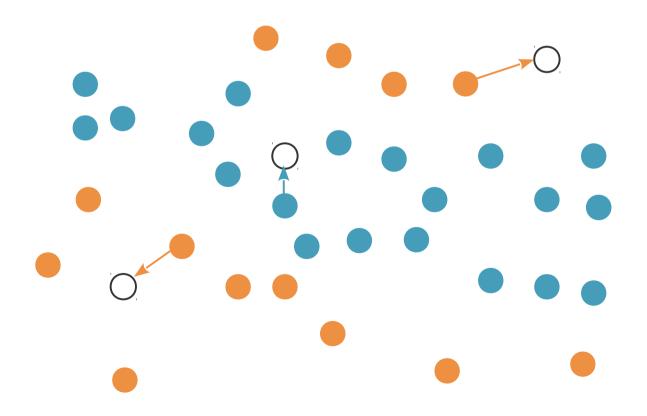
### Nearest neighbor

#### • Learning:

Store all the training examples

#### • Prediction:

- For x: the label of the training example closest to it



#### • Learning:

Store all the training examples

#### • Prediction:

- Find the k training examples closest to x
- Classification?

#### Learning:

Store all the training examples

#### Prediction:

- Find the k training examples closest to x
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Majority vote: Predict the class of the most frequent label among the k neighbors.

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– Regression?

#### Learning:

Store all the training examples

#### Prediction:

Find the k training examples closest to x

#### Classification

Majority vote: Predict the class of the most frequent label among the k neighbors.

#### Regression

Predict the average of the labels of the k neighbors.

### Choice of k

Small k: noisy

The idea behind using more than 1 neighbor is to average out the noise

Large k: computationally intensive

Also, what happens if k = n?

### Choice of k

Small k: noisy

The idea behind using more than 1 neighbor is to average out the noise

• Large k: computationally intensive

If k=n, then we predict

- for classification: the majority class
- for regression: the average value
- Set k by cross-validation
- Heuristic: k ≈ √n

### Non-parametric learning

#### Non-parametric learning algorithm:

- the complexity of the decision function grows with the number of data points.
- contrast with linear regression (≈ as many parameters as features).
- Usually: decision function is expressed directly in terms of the training examples.
- Examples:
  - kNN (this chapter)
  - tree-based methods (Chap. 8)
  - SVM (Chap. 9)
  - neural networks (Chap. 10), in some cases.

# Instance-based learning

#### Learning:

Storing training instances.

#### Predicting:

 Compute the label for a new instance based on its similarity with the stored instances.

- Also called lazy learning.
- Similar to case-based reasoning
  - Doctors treating a patient based on how patients with similar symptoms were treated,
  - Judges ruling court cases based on legal precedent.

# Instance-based learning

#### Learning:

Storing training instances.

#### Predicting:

Compute the label for a new instance based on its similarity with the stored instances.

where the magic happens!

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# **Computing distances & similarities**

#### Distance

$$d: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}_+$$

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$$d: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}_+$$

1. 
$$d(x, x) = 0$$

2. 
$$d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) = d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})$$

3. 
$$d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}) + d(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{x})$$

 $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

Euclidean distance

$$d(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = ||\mathbf{x}^1 - \mathbf{x}^2||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^p (x_j^1 - x_j^2)^2}$$

 $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

Euclidean distance

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}^1,\boldsymbol{x}^2) = ||\boldsymbol{x}^1-\boldsymbol{x}^2||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^p \left(x_j^1-x_j^2\right)^2}$$
 • Manhattan distance

$$d(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = ||\mathbf{x}^1 - \mathbf{x}^2||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^p |x_j^1 - x_j^2|$$

Why is this called the Manhattan distance?

 $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

Euclidean distance

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}^1,\boldsymbol{x}^2) = ||\boldsymbol{x}^1-\boldsymbol{x}^2||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^p \left(x_j^1-x_j^2\right)^2}$$
 • Manhattan distance

$$d(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = ||\mathbf{x}^1 - \mathbf{x}^2||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{P} |x_j^1 - x_j^2|$$

Lq-norm

orm 
$$d(\boldsymbol{x}^1, \boldsymbol{x}^2) = ||\boldsymbol{x}^1 - \boldsymbol{x}^2||_q = \left(\sum_{j=1}^p |x_j^1 - x_j^2|^q\right)^{1/q}$$

- L1 = Manhattan.
- L2 = Euclidean.
- What's L<sub>∞</sub>?

 $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

Euclidean distance

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}^1,\boldsymbol{x}^2) = ||\boldsymbol{x}^1-\boldsymbol{x}^2||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^p \left(x_j^1-x_j^2\right)^2}$$
 • Manhattan distance

$$d(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = ||\mathbf{x}^1 - \mathbf{x}^2||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{r} |x_j^1 - x_j^2|$$

orm 
$$d(m{x}^1,m{x}^2) = ||m{x}^1-m{x}^2||_q = \left(\sum_{j=1}^p |x_j^1-x_j^2|^q
ight)^{1/q}$$

- L1 = Manhattan.
- L2 = Euclidean.
- What's L<sub>∞</sub>?  $L_{\infty} = \max_{i} (|x_j^1 - x_j^2|)$

# Similarity between instances

$$s = \frac{1}{1+d}$$

Pearson's correlation

$$\rho(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{z}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(x_{j} - \bar{x}\right) \left(z_{j} - \bar{z}\right)}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(x_{j} - \bar{x}\right)^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(z_{j} - \bar{z}\right)^{2}}}$$
• Assuming the data is centered 
$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}$$

$$\rho(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_j z_j}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_j^2} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} z_j^2}}$$

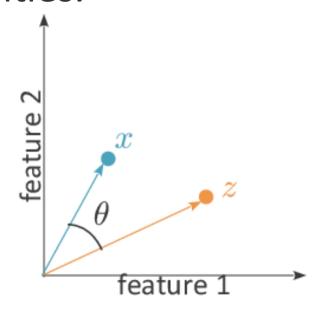
**Geometric interpretation?** 

# Similarity between instances

Pearson's correlation (centered data)

$$\rho(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j} z_{j}}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{j}^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} z_{j}^{2}}} = \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle}{||\boldsymbol{x}||.||\boldsymbol{z}||} = \cos \theta$$

 Cosine similarity: the dot product can be used to measure similarities.



- Represent object as the list of presence/absence (or counts) of features that appear in it.
- Example: small molecules

features = atoms and bonds of a certain type

- C, H, S, O, N...

### **Binary representation**

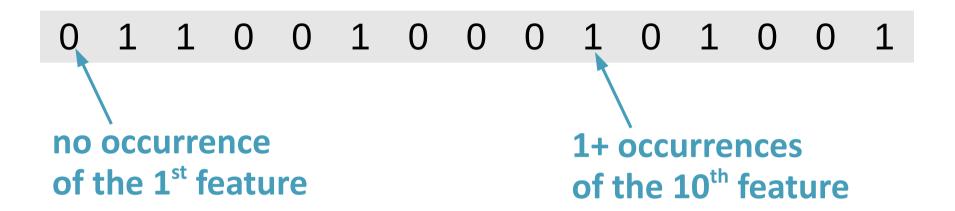


#### Hamming distance

Number of bits that are different

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}^1,\boldsymbol{x}^2) = \sum_{j=1} (x_j^1 \text{ XOR } x_j^2)$$
 Equivalent to?

### **Binary representation**



#### Hamming distance

Number of bits that are different

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}^1,\boldsymbol{x}^2) = \sum_{j=1} (x_j^1 \ \mathrm{XOR} \ x_j^2)$$
 Equivalent to

$$d(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = \sum_{j=1}^p |x_j^1 - x_j^2| = \sum_{j=1}^p (x_j^1 - x_j^2)^2$$

# **Binary representation**

0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1

#### Tanimoto similarity

Number of shared features (normalized)

$$s(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_j^1 \text{ AND } x_j^2)}{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_j^1 \text{ OR } x_j^2)}$$

### **Counts representation**

0 1 2 0 0 1 0 0 0 4 0 1 0 0 7

no occurrence
of the 1<sup>st</sup> feature

# occurrences
of the 10<sup>th</sup> feature

#### MinMax similarity

Number of shared features (normalized)

$$s(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \min(x_j^1, x_j^2)}{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \max(x_j^1, x_j^2)}$$

If x is binary, MinMax and Tanimoto are equivalent

$$s(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_j^1 \text{ AND } x_j^2)}{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (x_j^1 \text{ OR } x_j^2)}$$

Features



 Compute the Hamming distance and Tanimoto and MinMax similarities between these objects:







Features



 Compute the Hamming distance and Tanimoto and MinMax similarities between these objects:







- A = 100011010110 / 300011010120
- B = 111011011110 / 211021011120
- C = 111011010100 / 311011010100

#### Hamming distance

$$d(A, B) = 3$$
  $d(A, C) = 3$ 

$$d(A, C) = 3$$

$$d(B, C) = 2$$

#### Tanimoto similarity

$$s(A, B) = 6/9$$
  $s(A, C) = 5/8$ 

$$s(A, C) = 5/8$$

$$s(B, C) = 7/9$$

$$= 0.67$$

$$= 0.63$$

$$= 0.78$$

#### MinMax similarity

$$s(A, B) = 8/13$$
  $s(A, C) = 7/11$   $s(B, C) = 8/13$ 

$$s(A, C) = 7/11$$

$$s(B, C) = 8/13$$

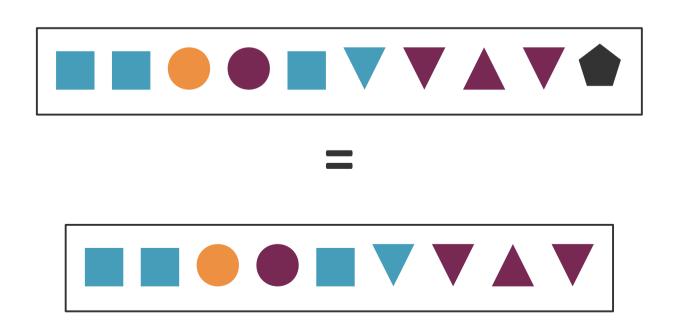
$$= 0.62$$

$$= 0.64$$

Features



When new data has unknown features: ignore them.



# **Back to nearest neighbors**

## Advantages of kNN

- Training is very fast
  - Just store the training examples.
  - Can use smart indexing procedures to speed-up testing (slower training).
- Keeps the training data
  - Useful if we want to do something else with it.
- Rather robust to noisy data (averaging k votes)

Can learn complex functions

#### **Drawbacks of kNN**

- Memory requirements
- Prediction can be slow.
  - What is the complexity of labeling 1 new data point?

#### Drawbacks of kNN

- Memory requirements
- Prediction can be slow.

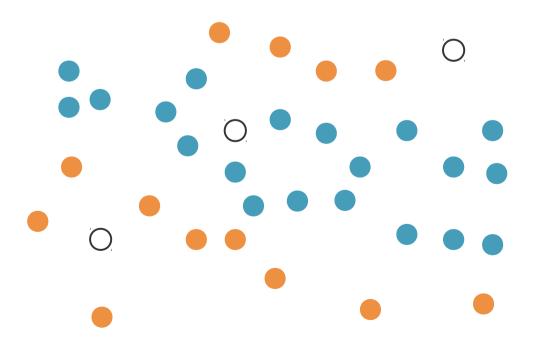
Complexity of labeling 1 new data point: O(pn + n log k) But kNN works best with lots of samples...

- → Efficient data structures (k-D trees)
- → Approximate solutions based on hashing
- kNN are fooled by irrelevant attributes.

E.g. p=1000, only 10 features are relevant; distances become meaningless.

## **Decision boundary of kNN**

- Classification
- Decision boundary: Line separating the positive from negative regions.
- What decision boundary is the kNN building?



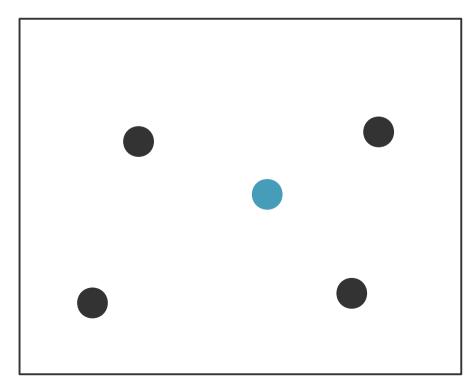
#### Voronoi tesselation

- Voronoi cell of x:
  - set of all points of the space closer to x than any other point of the training set
  - polyhedron

Voronoid tesselation of the space: union of all

Voronoi cells.

Draw the Voronoi cell of the blue dot.

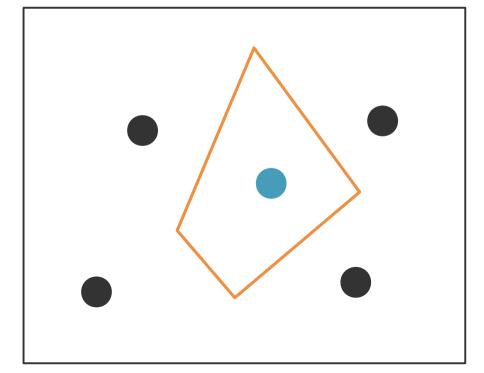


#### Voronoi tesselation

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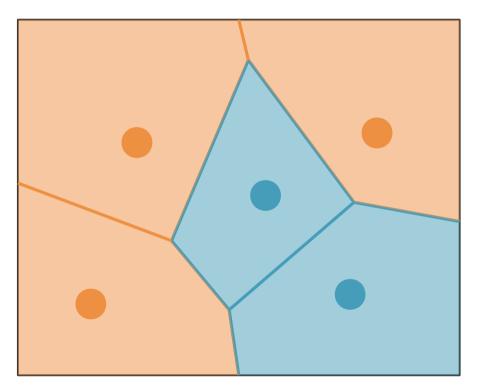
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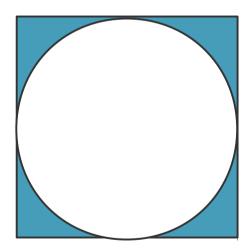
#### Voronoi tesselation

• The Voronoi tesselation defines the decision boundary of the 1-NN.

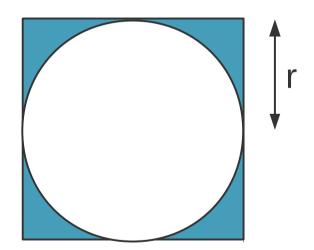


 The kNN also partitions the space (in a more complex way).

- Methods / intuitions that work in low dimension may not apply to high dimensions.
- p=2: What fraction of the points within a square fall outside of the circle inscribed in it?

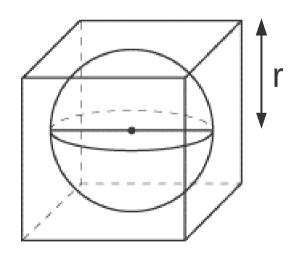


- Methods / intuitions that work in low dimension may not apply to high dimensions.
- p=2: What fraction of the points within a square fall outside of the circle inscribed in it?



$$1 - \frac{\pi r^2}{4r^2} = 1 - \frac{\pi}{4}$$

- Methods / intuitions that work in low dimension may not apply to high dimensions.
- p=3: What fraction of the points within a cube fall outside of the sphere inscribed in it?



$$1 - \frac{4/3\pi r^3}{8r^3} = 1 - \frac{\pi}{6}$$

• Volume of a p-sphere:  $\frac{2r^p\pi^{p/2}}{p\Gamma(p/2)}$ 

The Gamma function  $\Gamma$  generalizes the factorial.  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ 

When p 

 ¬ the proportion of a hypercube outside of its inscribed hypersphere approaches 1.

- What this means:
  - hyperspace is very big
  - all points are far apart
  - dimensionality reduction needed (see Chap 11).

#### **kNN** variants

- ε-ball neighbors
  - Instead of using the k nearest neighbors, use all points within a distance  $\varepsilon$  of the test point.
  - What if there are no such points?

#### **kNN** variants

#### Weighted kNN

 Weigh the vote of each neighbor according to the distance to the test point.

$$w_l = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^l)\right)$$

Variant: learn the optimal weights [e.g. Swamidass,
 Azencott et al. 2009, Influence Relevance Voter]

# **Collaborative filtering**

 Collaborative filtering: recommend items that similar users have liked in the past

similar users = users with similar tastes

- item-based kNN
  - similarity between items: adjusted cosine similarity

Sum over the users that rated both item A and item B

$$s(A,B) = \frac{\sum_{u} (R(u,A) - \bar{R}(u))(R(u,B) - \bar{R}(u))}{\sqrt{\sum_{u} (R(u,A) - \bar{R}(u))^{2} \sum_{u} (R(u,B) - \bar{R}(u))^{2}}}$$

Rating of item A by user u 

Average rating by user u

## **Collaborative filtering**

– score of item A for user u:

$$S(u, A) = \frac{\sum_{B \in \mathcal{N}_u^k(A)} s(A, B) R(u, B)}{\sum_{B \in \mathcal{N}_u^k(A)} |s(A, B)|}$$

k nearest neighbors of A according to s among the items rated by user u

### Summary

#### kNN

- very simple training
- prediction can be expensive
- Relies on a "good" distance/similarity between instances
- Decision boundary = Voronoi tesselation
- Curse of dimensionality: the hyperspace is very big.