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COGS 118A, Spring 2019

Supervised Machine Learning Algorithms

Lecture 12: Cross-Validation and  
Nearest Neighborhood Classifier

Zhuowen Tu

# Midterm II

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Midterm II, 02/27/2020 (Thursday)

Time: 12:30-13:50PM

Location: Ledden Auditorium

You can bring one page “cheat sheet”. No use of computers/smart-phones during the exam.

Bring your pen.

Bring your calculator.

A study guide and practice questions will be provided.

## Intuition about classification **power**

$$e_{testing}^{(f)} = e_{training}^{(f)} + e_{gen}(f)$$

- Typically, **more powerful** a classifier  $f$  is, the **smaller** the **training error** it can achieve.

$$e_{training}^{(f)} \rightarrow 0$$

- However, more powerful a classifier  $f$  is, the **larger** the **generalization error** it incurs.

$$e_{gen}(f) \rightarrow 0.5$$

- The power of a classifier is dependent on the **type of classifier** (e.g. perceptron, decision tree, nearest neighborhood, etc.) and **how many parameters** are being learned.
- The power of a classifier **doesn't depend** on the exact **optimal parameters** learned after training on a specific task.

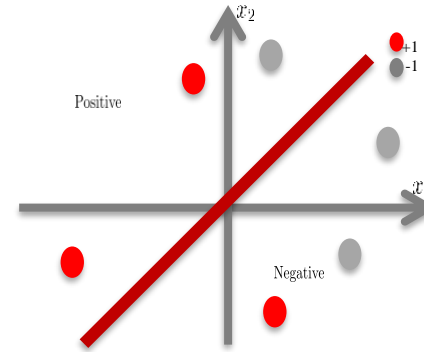
## Intuition about **shattering**

- We want to come up a way to characterize the **classification power** of a given type of classifier that should be **agnostic** across ALL types of classifiers (**disqualifying** counting the number of parameters since they have different interpretations for different classifier types).
- Using the concept of shattering allows us to find out the **capability** of a classifier, given a number of **non-overlapping** points, by successfully classifying them under **all possible labeling** configurations.
- If you are checking on  $n$  points, then there are  $2^n$  possibilities to verify. Failing on **any one** of the situations will deem the classifier **incapable** of shattering  $n$  points.
- This is like a bank stress test.

$$f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}, b) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^r, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

VC dimension for the linear classifiers we have learned so far.



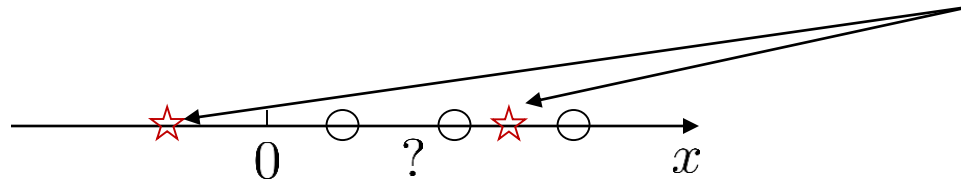
- Perceptron
- Logistic regression classifier
- Support vector machine (SVM)

Their VC dimension ( $h$ ) is  $r + 1$  in these **linear** classifier cases.

# Understanding shattering

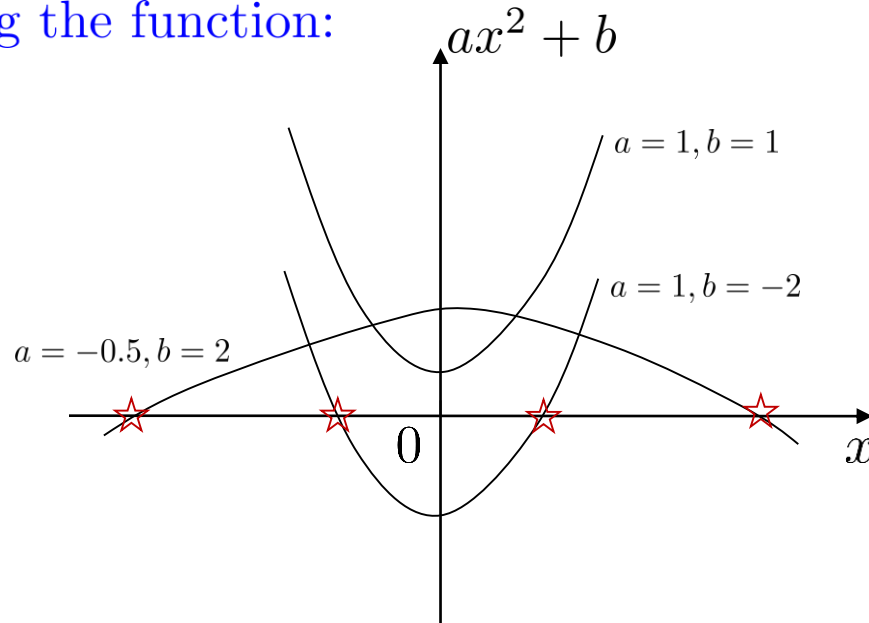
**Example:** What is the VC-dimension for  $f(x; a, b) = \text{sign}(ax^2 + b)$ ,  $x, a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ?

**Understanding the problem:** Decision boundary consists of a set of points on the axis.



e.g. for  $\forall x$  such that  $ax^2 + b = 0$ .

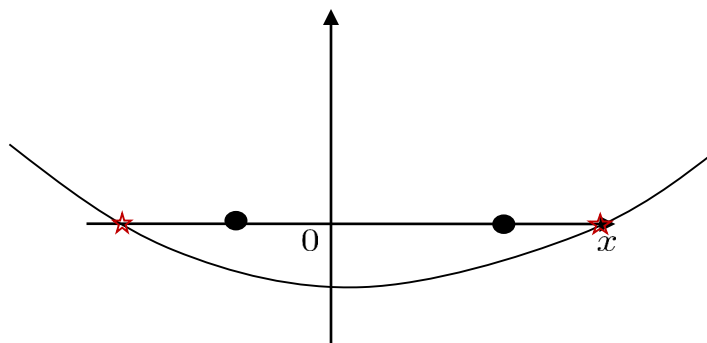
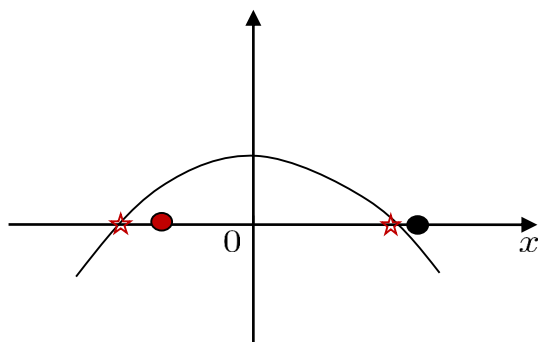
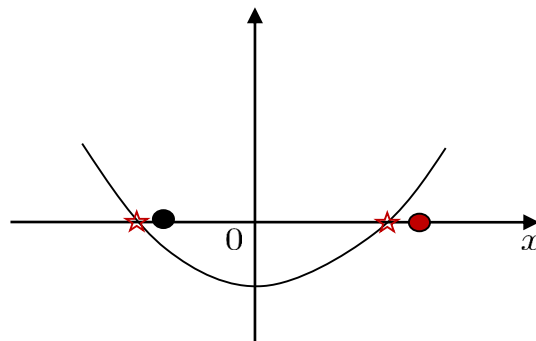
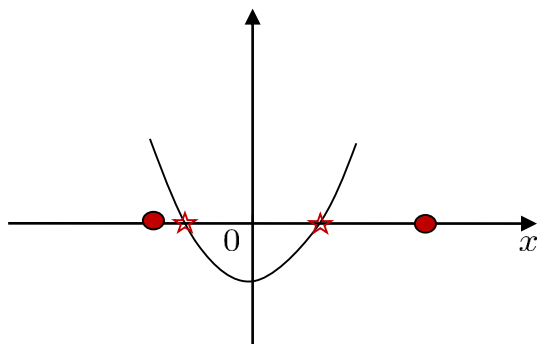
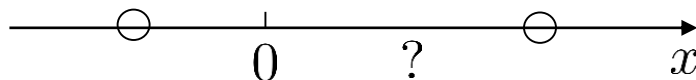
**Understanding the function:**



# Understanding shattering

**Example:** What is the VC-dimension for  $f(x; a, b) = \text{sign}(ax^2 + b)$ ,  $x, a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ?

Two points:



# VC-dimension

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Theory: The VC dimension (h) of the set of oriented hyperplanes in  $\mathbb{R}^r$  is  $r + 1$ , since we can always choose  $r+1$  points, and then choose one of the points as origin, such that the position vectors of the remaining  $r$  points are linearly independent, but can never choose  $r+2$  such points.

For a linear classifier:

$$f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}, b) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b),$$

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^r, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

Total number of parameters:  $r + 1$ .

- VC dimension (h) reports the **maximum number** of points a classifier  $f$  can **shatter**.
- It is done by checking the number of shattering sequentially from **1,2,3,... until it fails**.



## VC Dimension

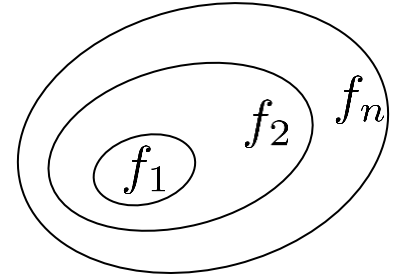
- The concept and theory of VC dimension, named after Vapnik and Chervonenkis, defines the **maximum capability** of a classifier  $f$ .
- VC dimension ( $h$ ) reports the **maximum number** of points a classifier  $f$  can **shatter**.
- It is done by checking the number of shattering sequentially from **1,2,3,... until it fails**.
- When checking on number  $n$ , you only need to find **an existence** of  $n$  non-overlapping points (**no need** to shatter all possible  $n$  points).
- However, once the  $n$  points are given, you need to make sure **ALL possible** labeling configurations for these  $n$  points can be **well classified**. Otherwise, it's a failure.

# Structural Risk Minimization

Let:  $\phi(f)$ =the set of functions representable by  $f$












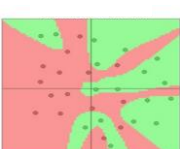






Suppose:  $\phi(f_1) \subseteq \phi(f_2) \subseteq \dots \phi(f_n)$

Then:  $h(f_1) \leq h(f_2) \leq \dots h(f_n)$



We are trying to decide which machine to use.

We train each machine and make a table:  $e_{testing} \leq e_{training} + \sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1) - \log(\eta/4))}{n}}$

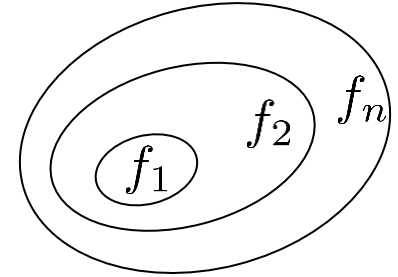
	$i$	$f_i$	$e_{training}$	$\sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1) - \log(\eta/4))}{n}}$ generalization	upper bound $e_{testing}$	choice
A	1	$f_1$				
B	2	$f_2$				
C	3	$f_3$				
D	4	$f_4$				
E	5	$f_5$				

# Structural Risk Minimization

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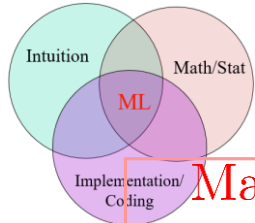


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	$i$	$f_i$	$e_{training}$	$\sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1) - \log(\eta/4))}{n}}$ generalization	upper bound $e_{testing}$	choice
A	1	$f_1$	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	
B	2	$f_2$	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	
C	3	$f_3$	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	
D	4	$f_4$	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	
E	5	$f_5$	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	<div><div></div></div>	





# Recap: Classifier Complexity and VC Dimension

**Math:**

$$e_{testing} \leq e_{training} + \sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1)) - \log(\eta/4)}{n}}$$

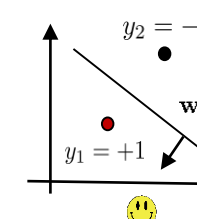
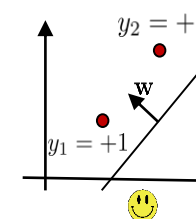
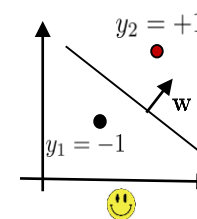
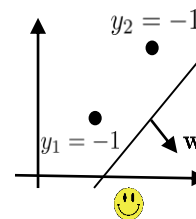
$h$  : the complexity (VC dimension) of a classifier

$n$ : the number of training samples

$\eta$ : confidence level, can be ignored for the moment

**Intuition:**

- The concept and theory of VC dimension, named after Vapnik and Chervonenkis, defines the **maximum capability** of a classifier  $f$ .
- VC dimension ( $h$ ) reports the **maximum number** of points a classifier  $f$  can **shatter**.
- It is done by checking the number of shattering sequentially from **1,2,3,... until it fails**.



To obtain a good classifier

Which is the least effective  
when dealing with big data?

- A. Increase your training data size.
- B. Reduce your classifier complexity.
- C. Design/learn good features.

To obtain a good classifier

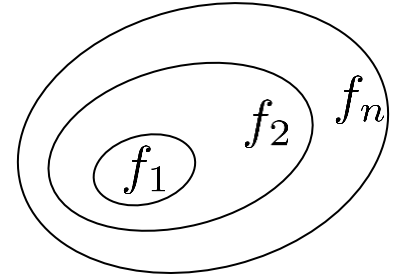
1. **Increase** your training data size (big data)!
2. **Reduce** your classifier complexity.
3. After the training dataset is given for the chosen classifier, perform optimization to find the **optimal parameters/hyper-parameters**.

# Structural Risk Minimization

Let:  $\phi(f)$ =the set of functions representable by  $f$

Suppose:  $\phi(f_1) \subseteq \phi(f_2) \subseteq \dots \phi(f_n)$

Then:  $h(f_1) \leq h(f_2) \leq \dots h(f_n)$



We are trying to decide which machine to use.

We train each machine and make a table:  $e_{testing} \leq e_{training} + \sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1) - \log(\eta/4))}{n}}$

	$i$	$f_i$	$e_{training}$	$\sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1) - \log(\eta/4))}{n}}$ generalization	upper bound $e_{testing}$	choice
A	1	$f_1$				
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# Cross-Validation

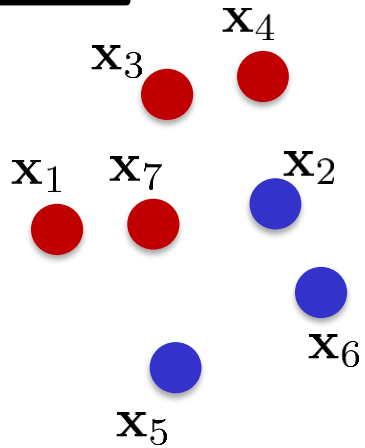
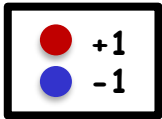
Why?

The VC dimension theory is nice but impractical in many real-world situations.



# Cross-validation

(works for both regression and classification)



$$S_{training} =$$

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_1, +1), (\mathbf{x}_2, -1), (\mathbf{x}_3, +1), (\mathbf{x}_4, +1), (\mathbf{x}_5, -1), (\mathbf{x}_6, -1), (\mathbf{x}_7, +1)\}$$

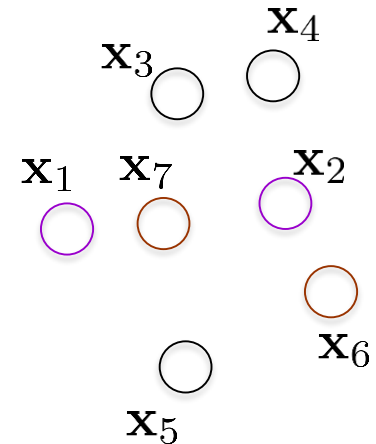


$$S_{training} = \{Sub_1, Sub_2, Sub_3\}$$

$$Sub_1 = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, +1), (\mathbf{x}_2, -1)\}$$

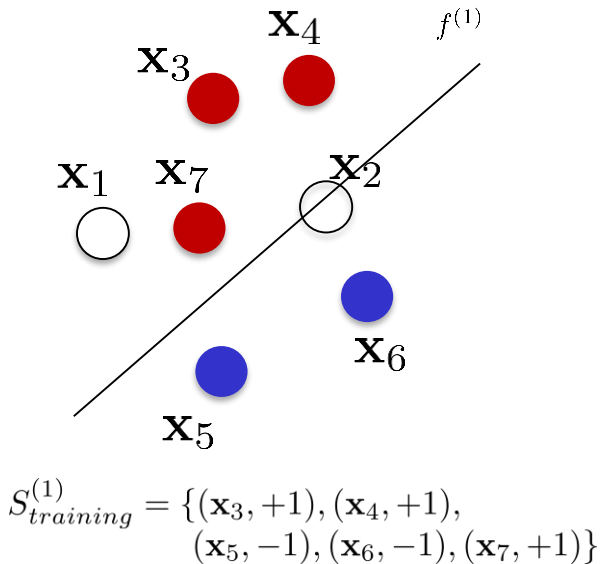
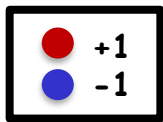
$$Sub_2 = \{(\mathbf{x}_6, -1), (\mathbf{x}_7, +1)\}$$

$$Sub_3 = \{(\mathbf{x}_3, +1), (\mathbf{x}_4, +1), (\mathbf{x}_5, -1)\}$$



# Cross-validation

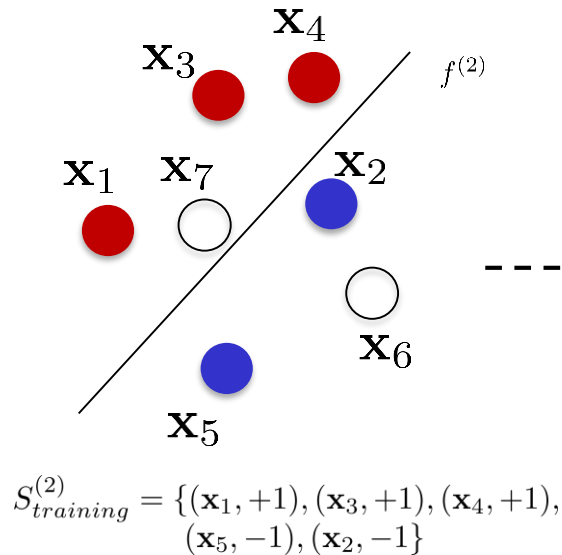
(works for both regression and classification)



Perform training to obtain  $f^{(1)}$

$$S_{testing}^{(1)} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, +1), (\mathbf{x}_2, -1)\}$$

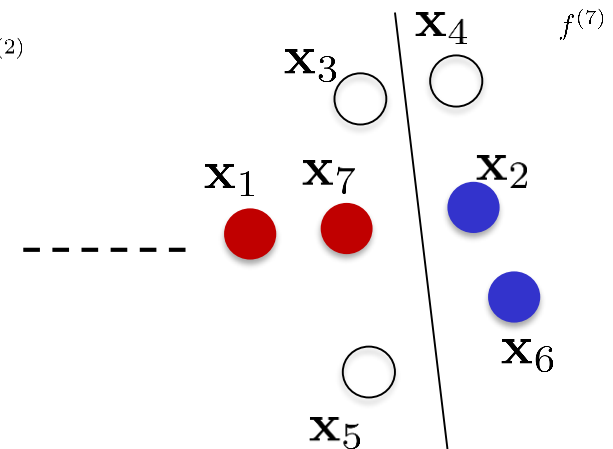
$$e_{testing}(f^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{2}[\mathbf{1}(y_1 \neq f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}_1)) + \mathbf{1}(y_2 \neq f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}_2))]$$



Perform training to obtain  $f^{(2)}$

$$S_{testing}^{(2)} = \{(\mathbf{x}_6, -1), (\mathbf{x}_7, +1)\}$$

$$e_{testing}(f^{(2)})$$



Perform training to obtain  $f^{(k)}$

$$S_{testing}^{(k)} = \{(\mathbf{x}_3, +1), (\mathbf{x}_4, +1), (\mathbf{x}_5, -1)\}$$

$$e_{testing}(f^{(k)})$$

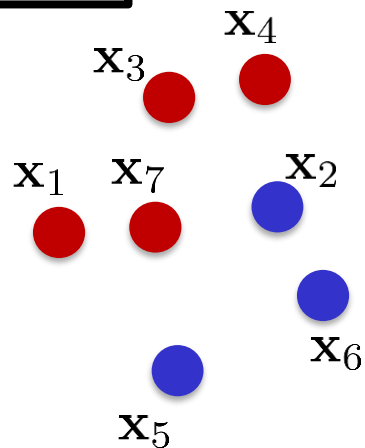
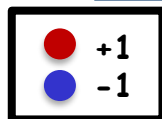
We compute the cross-validation error by

$$\bar{e} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_i e_{testing}(f^{(i)})$$

$$var = \frac{1}{k} \sum_i (e_{testing}(f^{(i)}) - \bar{e})^2$$

# K-fold cross-validation

(works for both regression and classification)



$$S_{training} =$$

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_1, +1), (\mathbf{x}_2, -1), (\mathbf{x}_3, +1), (\mathbf{x}_4, +1), (\mathbf{x}_5, -1), (\mathbf{x}_6, -1), (\mathbf{x}_7, +1)\}$$

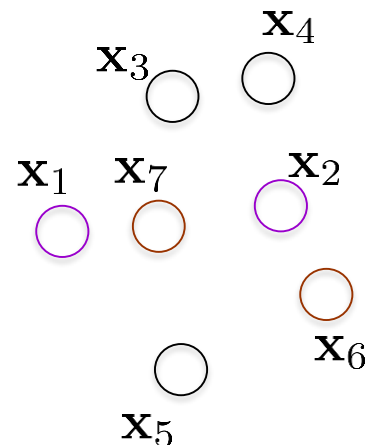


$$S_{training} = \{Sub_1, Sub_2, Sub_3\}$$

$$Sub_1 = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, +1), (\mathbf{x}_2, -1)\}$$

$$Sub_2 = \{(\mathbf{x}_6, -1), (\mathbf{x}_7, +1)\}$$

$$Sub_3 = \{(\mathbf{x}_3, +1), (\mathbf{x}_4, +1), (\mathbf{x}_5, -1)\}$$



For  $i=1$  to  $k$

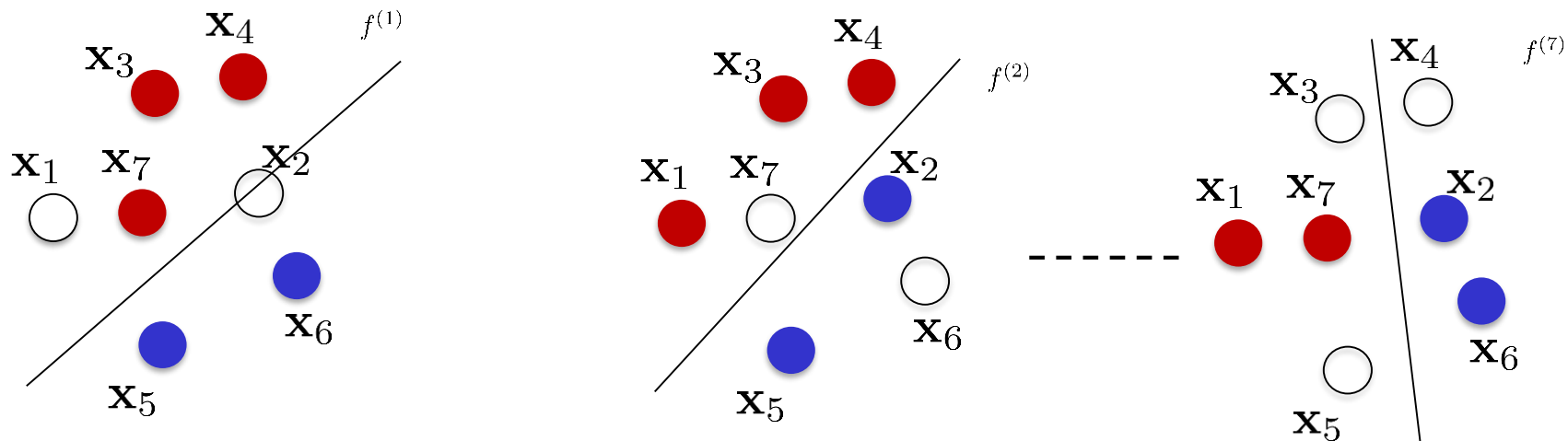
Train classifier  $f^{(i)}$  on a set that includes all the subsets but  $Sub_i$  and compute the corresponding training error  $e_{train}(f^{(i)})$ .

Compute the testing error  $e(f^{(i)})$  on  $Sub_i$ .

Fine-tune the model and hyper-parameter to minimize:  $\bar{e} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_i e(f^{(i)})$ .

# K-fold Cross-validation

(works for both regression and classification)



We use  $\bar{e} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_i e(f^{(i)})$  and  $var$  to decide on:

- Which model (linear or nonlinear ones) we should use?
- How to fine-tune the hyper-parameter?
- Have we collected enough data for training?
- Is our hypothesis valid statistically significant?

We are supposed to have small values for both  $\bar{e}$  and  $var$  if our hypothesis is statistically significant.

# Cross-validation

(works for both regression and classification)

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## Pros:

Easy to implement.

Works well on both small training data and large training data.

Widely used in data analysis.

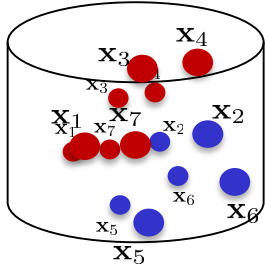
## Cons:

It is time-consuming to compute.

Not needed when your data is truly large: keep a hold-out dataset is sufficient.

# How would you use cross-validation: example 1

your boss

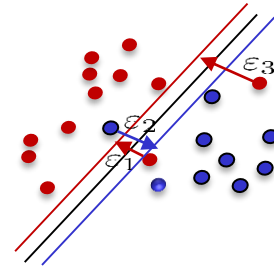


Labeled  
Training Data



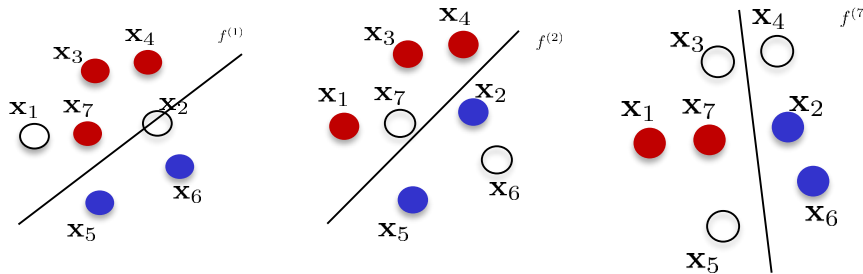
Your task:

To obtain the “**optimal**”  
classifier using the given  
training data. Find the best  
hyper-parameter value for  
**C**.



Minimize:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b))_+$$



$e(f^{(1)})$

$e(f^{(2)})$

$e(f^{(3)})$

$$\bar{e} = \frac{1}{3} [e(f^{(1)}) + e(f^{(2)}) + e(f^{(3)})]$$

A.  $\bar{e}_{C=0} = 0.38$

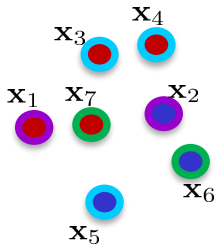
B.  $\bar{e}_{C=0.1} = 0.30$

C.  $\bar{e}_{C=1.0} = 0.15$



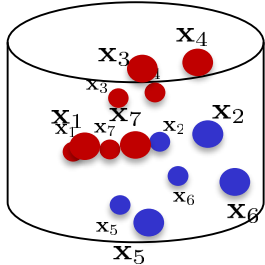
D.  $\bar{e}_{C=10.0} = 0.10$

E.  $\bar{e}_{C=100.0} = 0.25$



# How would you use cross-validation: **example 2**

your boss



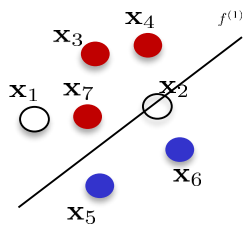
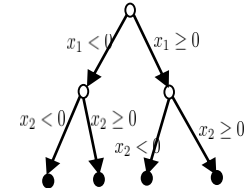
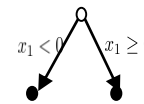
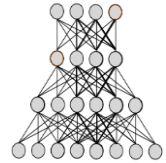
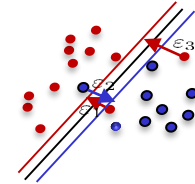
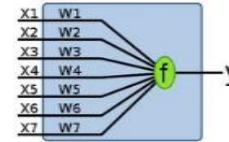
Labeled  
Training Data



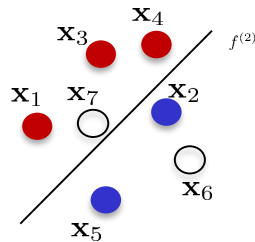
Your task:

To obtain the  
“**optimal**” classifier  
using the given  
training data.

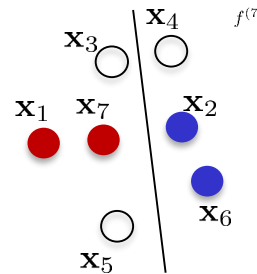
But there are so many design choices for what types of classifiers and configurations (often decided by the hyper-parameters) to use.



$e(f^{(1)})$



$e(f^{(2)})$



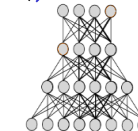
$e(f^{(3)})$



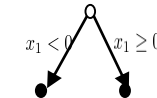
A.  $\bar{e}_{\text{perceptron}} = 0.39$



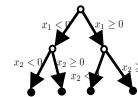
B.  $\bar{e}_{SVM} = 0.19$



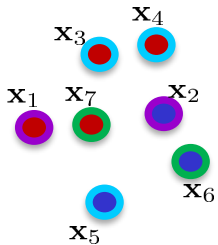
C.  $\bar{e}_{NN} = 0.27$



D.  $\bar{e}_{Tree1} = 0.38$



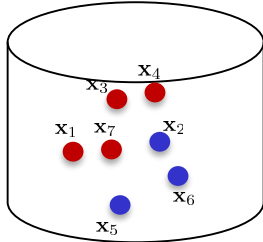
E.  $\bar{e}_{Tree2} = 0.35$



$$\bar{e} = \frac{1}{3}[e(f^{(1)}) + e(f^{(2)}) + e(f^{(3)})]$$

# Now you have chosen SVM

your boss



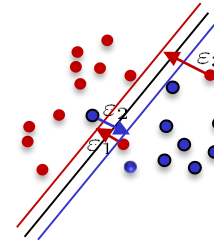
Labeled Training Data



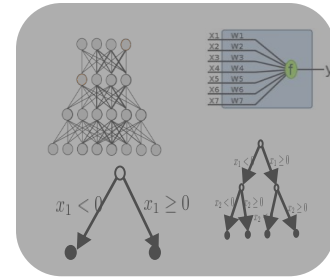
Your task:

To obtain the  
“**optimal**” classifier  
using the given  
training data.

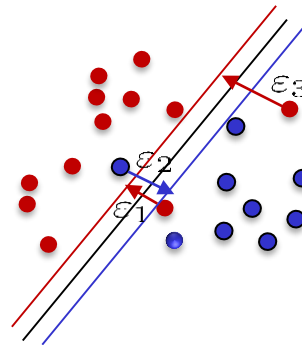
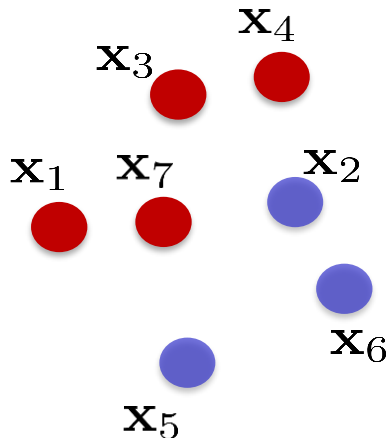
After cross-validation,  
you have chosen SVM.



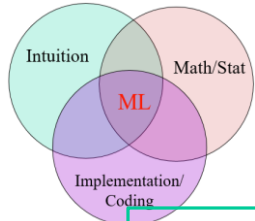
Yes



No







## Recap: Structural risk minimization and cross-validation

1. Given a set of training data:  $S_{training} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1..n\}$

$$e_{testing} \leq e_{training} + \sqrt{\frac{h(\log(2n/h+1)) - \log(\eta/4)}{n}}$$

where  $e_{testing}$  is unobserved but can be estimated.

2. To achieve the minimal testing error for a given classifier  $f(x; \theta)$ , we want to: **(a)** attain a small training error  $e_{training}$ , and **(b)** adopt a large training set of large  $n$  **(c)** while making  $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$  as simple as possible (characterized by the power/VC dimension of  $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$  —  $h$ ).

3. The optimal choice for  $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$  can be guided by the structural risk minimization principle (in theory). Typically, there will additional hyper-parameters  $\gamma$ .

4. In practice, we use e.g. cross-validation to do hyper-parameter tuning on  $\gamma$  to choose  $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$ .  $\gamma$  can be e.g. the parameter  $C$  in SVM, the choice between L2 vs. L1, the type of classifier, etc.

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# Nearest Neighborhood Classifier

Chapter, “Non-parametric Techniques”, R. Duda, P. Hart, D. Stork, "Pattern Classification", second edition, 2000

# Nonparametric estimation

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Parametric

$$y = f(x)$$

Flooding?

weather + month + location

Non-parametric

$$y = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k f_k(x)$$

Flooding?

Every 12/06 in the history.

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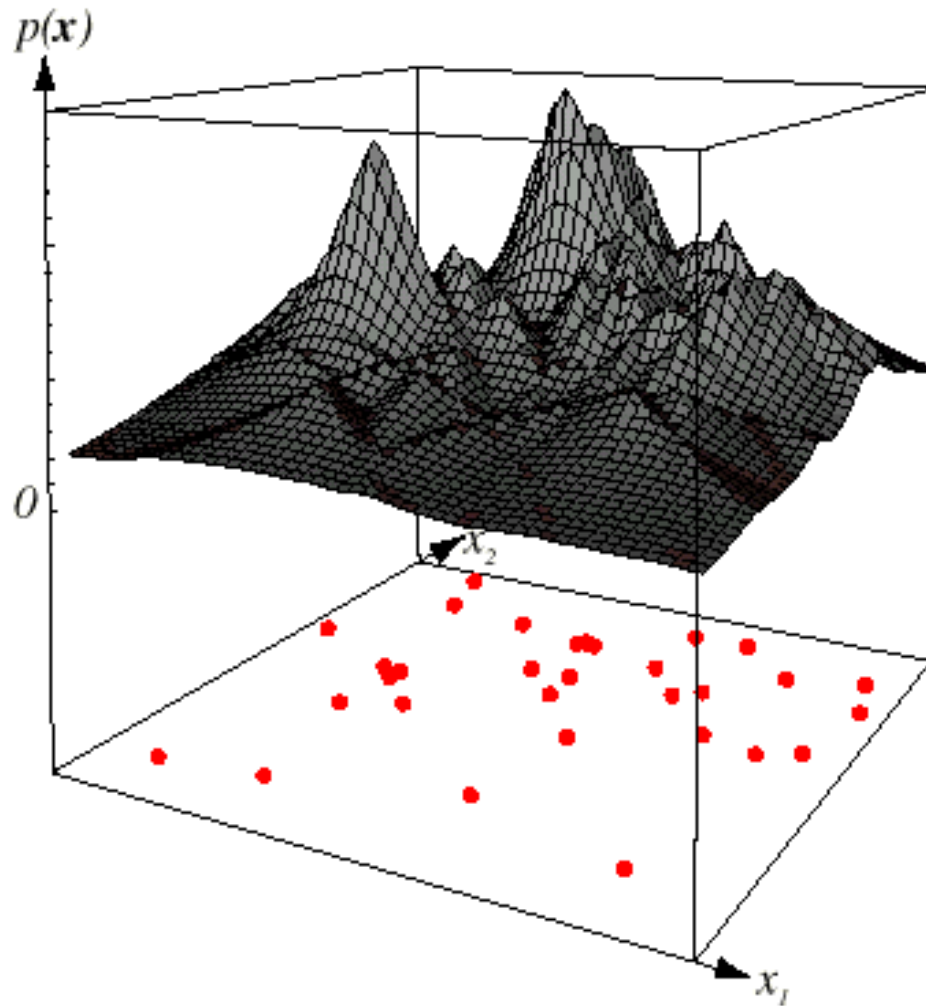
In practical applications, it is often difficult to know the parametric forms of underlying distributions ([exemplar-based](#))

Parametric methods may lead to underfitting

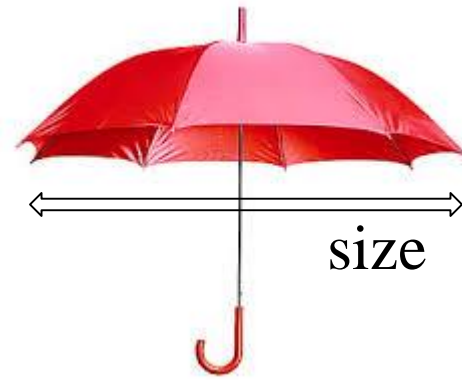
Non-parametric models are direct and easier to implement.

# $K_n$ -Nearest Neighbor Estimation Examples – cont.

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## Understanding the **Kernel**



Kernel function  $f(x)$ .

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Adding up all the  $K$  points attached with a kernel for each point:

$$\sum_{k=1}^K f_k(x)$$



# Nonparametric Estimation

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If we assume  $p(\mathbf{x})$  to be continuous and the region  $R$  to be small, we have

$$P = \int_R p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \approx p(\mathbf{x}) \times V$$

where  $V$  refers to the volume of region  $R$ .

Overall:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V(\mathbf{x})}$$

To remove the potential confusion, lest use  $l$  instead.

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

$\mathbf{x}$ : a test/query data sample

$l$ : a hyper-parameter

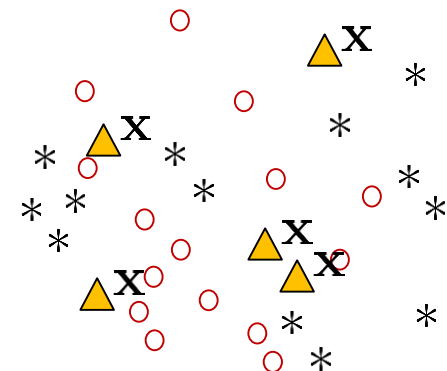
$k_l(\mathbf{x})$ : number of samples within the **Region**.

$V_l(\mathbf{x})$ : the volume of the **Region**.

How to compute?

$$S_{training} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1..n\}$$

- $y = +1$
- \*  $y = -1$



## How to compute? Strategy I

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

$\mathbf{x}$ : a test/query data sample

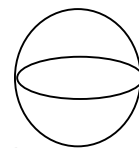
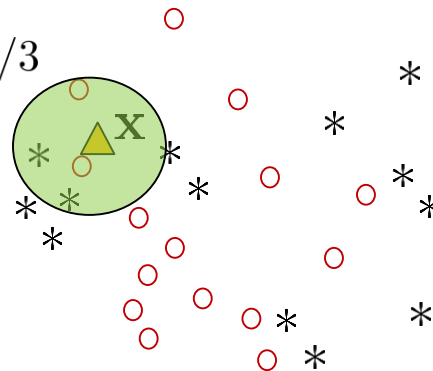
$l$ : a hyper-parameter

$k_l(\mathbf{x})$ : number of samples within the **Region**.

$V_l(\mathbf{x})$ : the volume of the **Region**.

○  $y = +1$    \*  $y = -1$

$$V_9(\mathbf{x}) = 1/3$$



**Strategy 1:**  $V_l(\mathbf{x}) = 1/\sqrt{l}$ : fixed region

Say:  $l = 9 \rightarrow$ : fixed region/ball size of  $1/3$ .

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = +1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{2}{9 \times (1/3)} \propto \frac{2}{3}$$

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{2}{9 \times (1/3)} \propto \frac{2}{3}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.5$$



$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

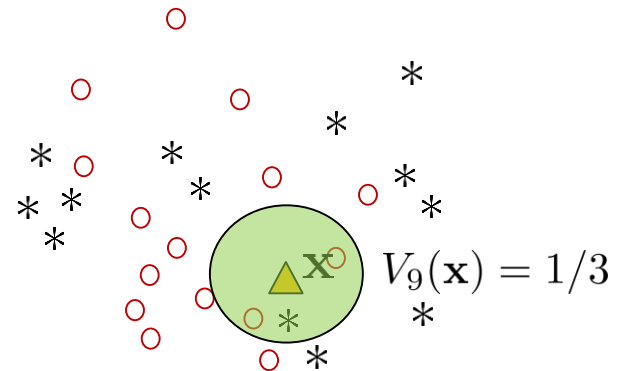
$\mathbf{x}$ : a test/query data sample

$l$ : a hyper-parameter

$k_l(\mathbf{x})$ : number of samples within the **Region**.

$V_l(\mathbf{x})$ : the volume of the **Region**.

○  $y = +1$    \*  $y = -1$



How to compute?  
**Strategy I**

**Strategy 1:**  $V_l(\mathbf{x}) = 1/\sqrt{l}$ : fixed region

Say:  $l = 9 \rightarrow$ : fixed region/ball size of  $1/3$ .

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = +1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{2}{9 \times (1/3)} \propto \frac{2}{3}$$

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{1}{9 \times (1/3)} \propto \frac{1}{3}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.66$$

## How to compute? Strategy I

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

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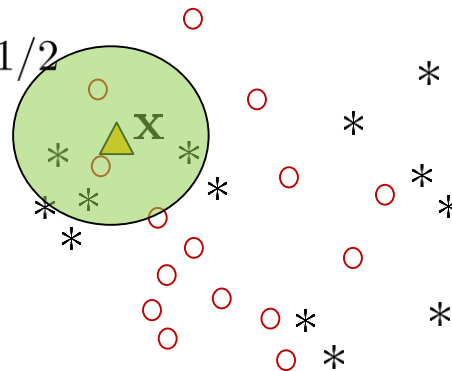
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○  $y = +1$    \*  $y = -1$

$$V_4(\mathbf{x}) = 1/2$$



**Strategy 1:**  $V_l(\mathbf{x}) = 1/\sqrt{l}$ : fixed region

Say:  $l = 4 \rightarrow$ : fixed region/ball size of  $1/2$ .

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = +1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{2}{4 \times (1/2)} \propto 1$$

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{3}{4 \times (1/2)} \propto \frac{3}{2}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.4$$

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

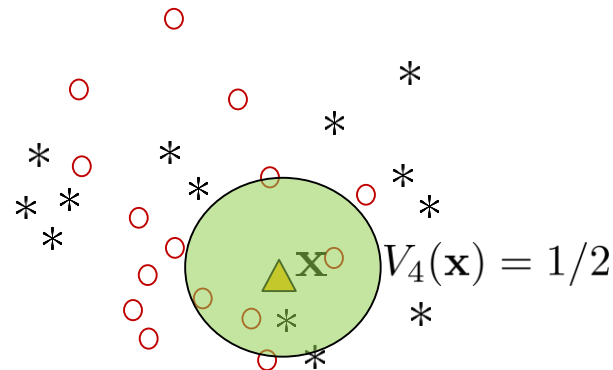
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$k_l(\mathbf{x})$ : number of samples within the **Region**.

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○  $y = +1$    \*  $y = -1$



How to compute?  
**Strategy I**

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Say:  $l = 4 \rightarrow$ : fixed region/ball size of  $1/2$ .

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$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{1}{4 \times (1/2)} \propto \frac{1}{2}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.75$$

## How to compute? Strategy II

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

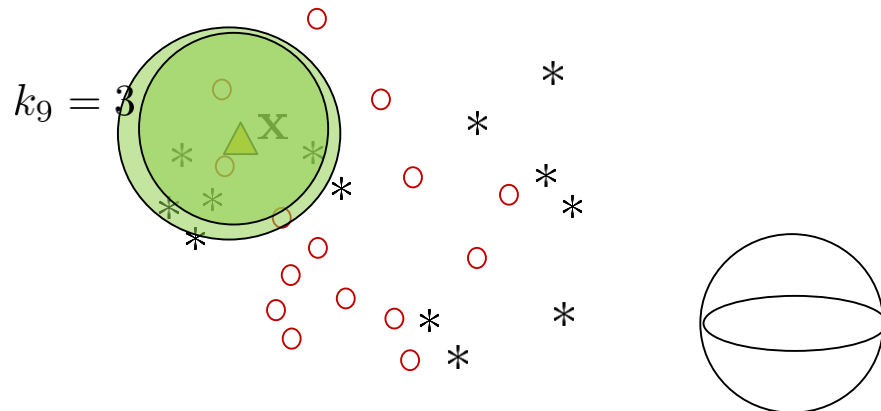
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$k_l(\mathbf{x})$ : number of samples within the **Region**.

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○  $y = +1$    \*  $y = -1$



**Strategy 1I:**  $k_l = \sqrt{l}$ : grow region

Say:  $l = 9 \rightarrow$ : grow the ball to include  $\sqrt{9} = 3$  points.

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = +1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{3}{9 \times 0.6} \propto \frac{3}{5.4}$$

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{3}{9 \times 0.55} \propto \frac{3}{4.95}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.48$$

## How to compute? Strategy II

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

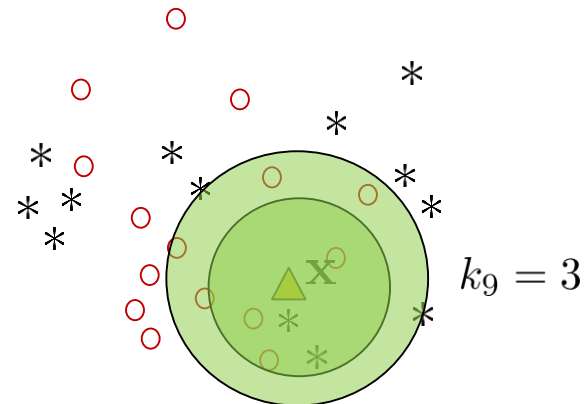
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$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = +1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{3}{9 \times 0.5} \propto \frac{3}{4.5}$$

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{3}{9 \times 0.8} \propto \frac{3}{7.2}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.62$$

## How to compute? Strategy II

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

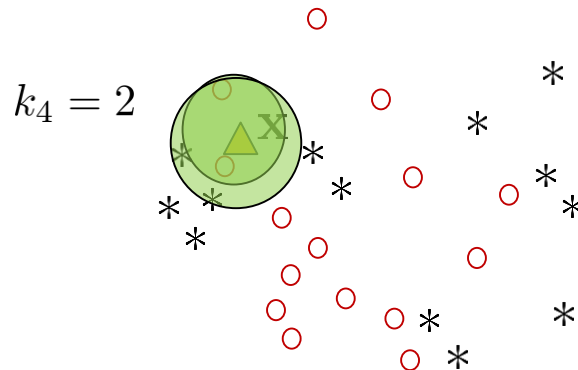
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$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{2}{4 \times 0.35} \propto \frac{2}{1.4}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.53$$

## How to compute? Strategy II

$$p_l(\mathbf{x}) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})}$$

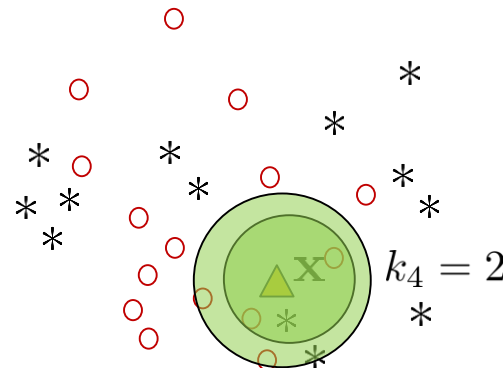
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$$p_l(\mathbf{x}|y = -1) \cong \frac{k_l(\mathbf{x})}{l \times V_l(\mathbf{x})} \propto \frac{2}{4 \times 0.4} \propto \frac{2}{1.6}$$

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)}{p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=-1) + p_l(\mathbf{x}|y=+1)} = 0.57$$

# The k-Nearest Neighbor Rule

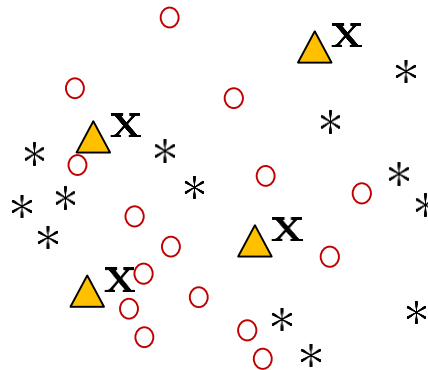
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$$S_{training} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1..n\}$$

An extension of the nearest neighbor rule:

The k-nearest neighbor rule classifies  $\mathbf{x}$  by assigning it the label most frequently represented among the  $k$  nearest samples. In other words, given  $\mathbf{x}$ , we find the  $k$  nearest labeled samples. The label appeared most is assigned to  $\mathbf{x}$ .

- $y = +1$
- \*  $y = -1$





# The k-Nearest Neighbor Rule

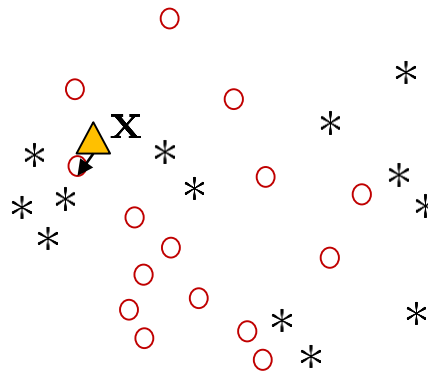
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- $y = +1$
- \*  $y = -1$



$k = 1$

$y = +1 \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$

# The k-Nearest Neighbor Rule

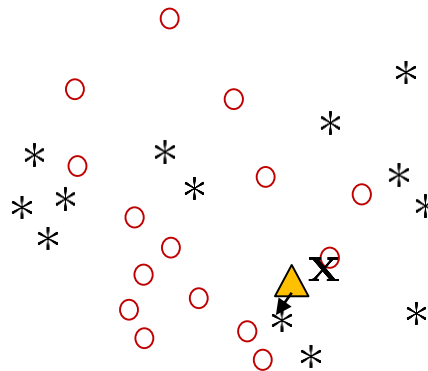
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- $y = +1$
- \*  $y = -1$



$k = 1$

$y = -1 \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$

# The k-Nearest Neighbor Rule

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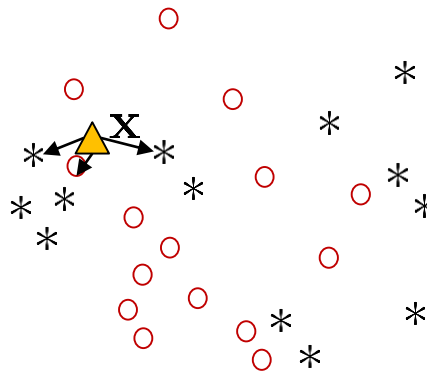
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- $y = +1$
- \*  $y = -1$

$$k = 3$$



1 positives

2 negative

$y = -1 \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$

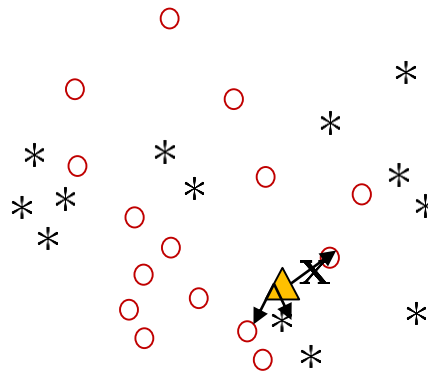
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- $y = +1$
- \*  $y = -1$



$k = 3$

2 positives

1 negative

$y = +1 \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$

## K-Nearest Neighborhood Classifier

1. Very easy to implement.
2. Works very well in practice.
3. Non-parametric model.
4. Model complexity is too high when the training set is large.
5. Computational complexity is high.