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Machine Learning

Data Science & Computer Science
Centre for Research in Mathematics and Data Science
Artificial Intelligence Research Group

Non-parametric methods Ref ch8

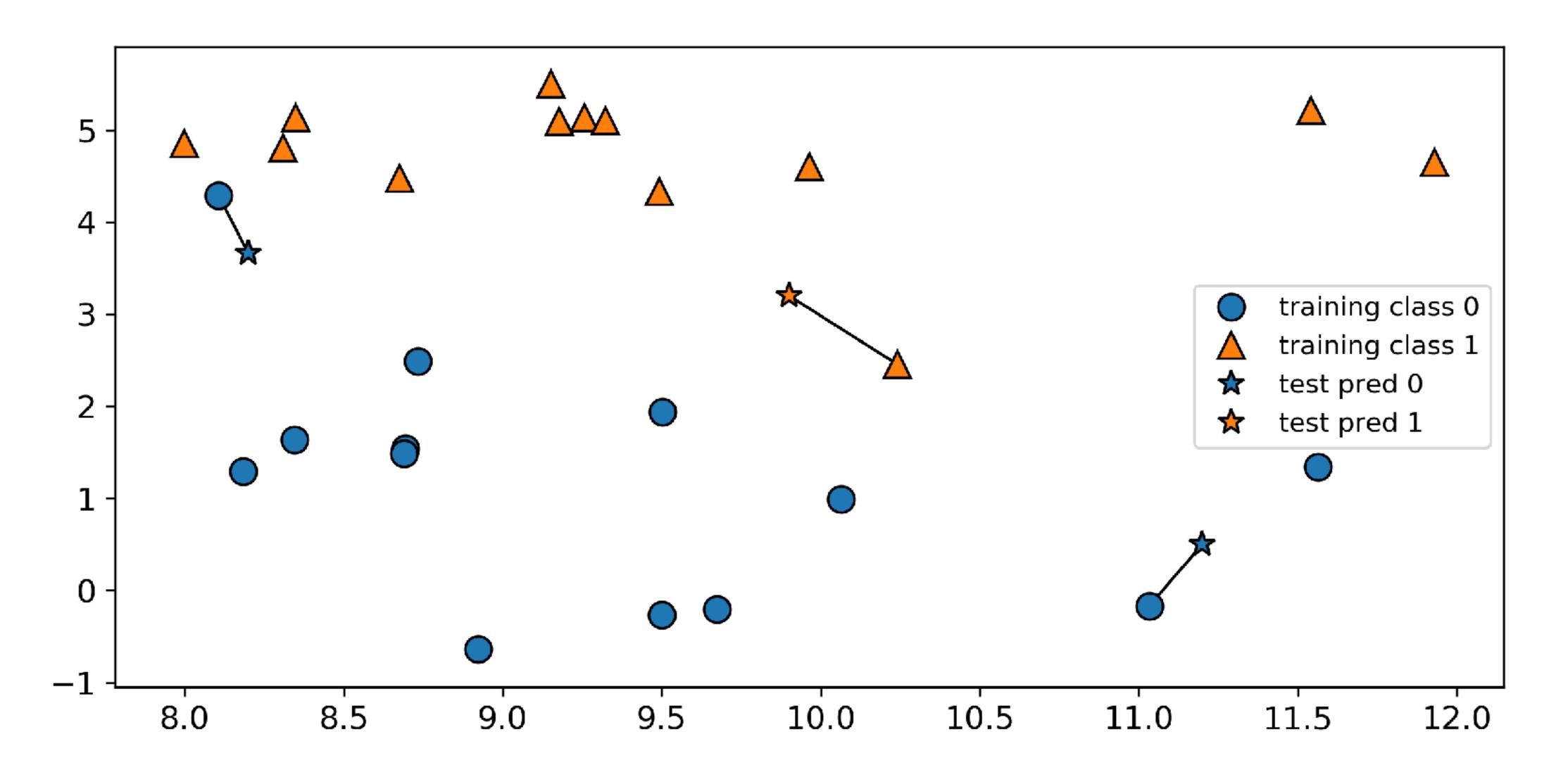
- KNN
- Kernel smoother

k-Nearest Neighbours

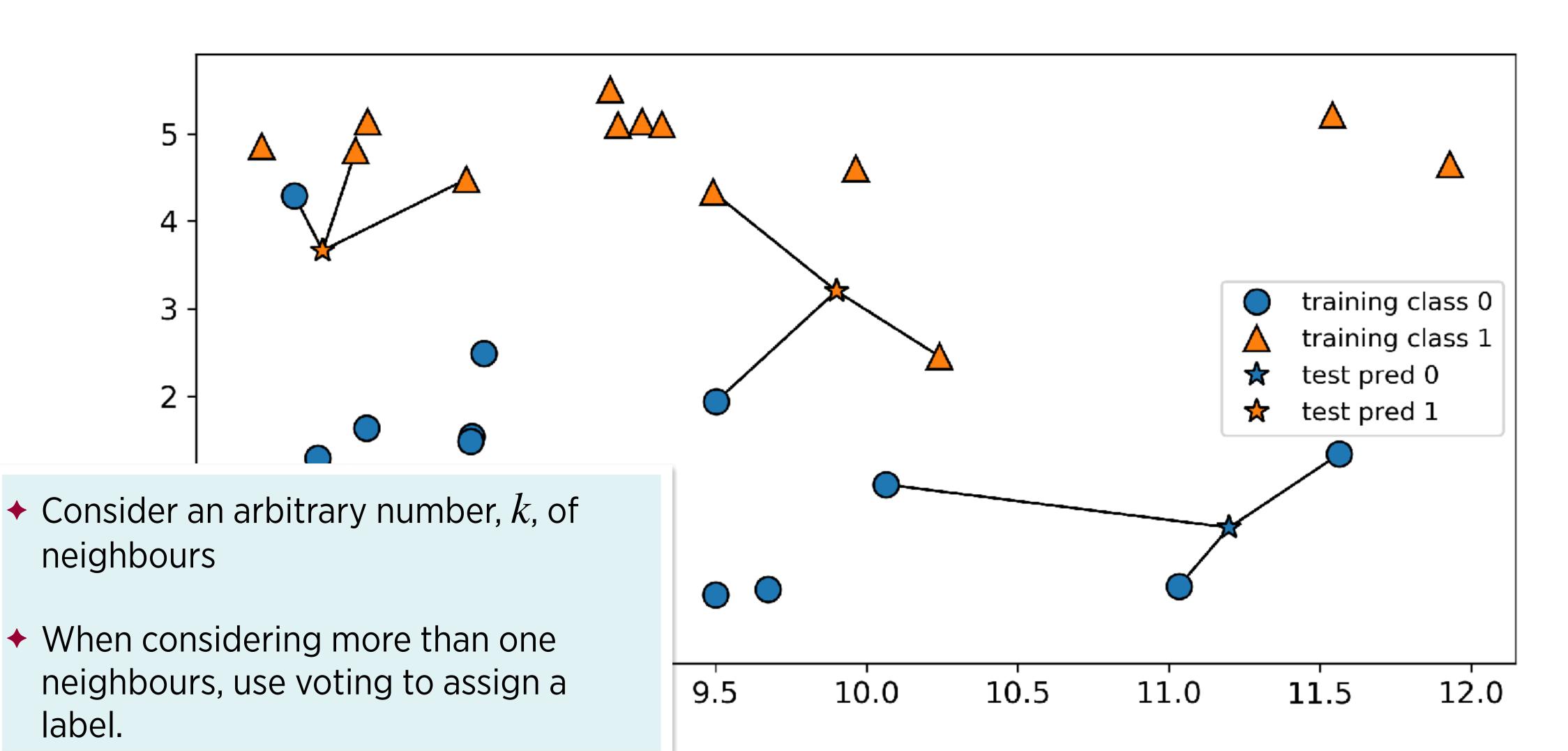
What is kNN?

- Arguably the simplest machine learning algorithm
- ◆ Building the model consists only of storing the training data set
 - a "lazy" algorithm does not learn a function from the training data
 - making a prediction for a new data point by finding the "nearest neighbours"
- ◆ A non-parametric method
 - do not assume a fixed model structure.
 - often, model size grows with the training set.
- ◆ All methods we've discussed so far have fixed model structure, with parameters learnt and we then no longer need the training data.

One nearest neighbour

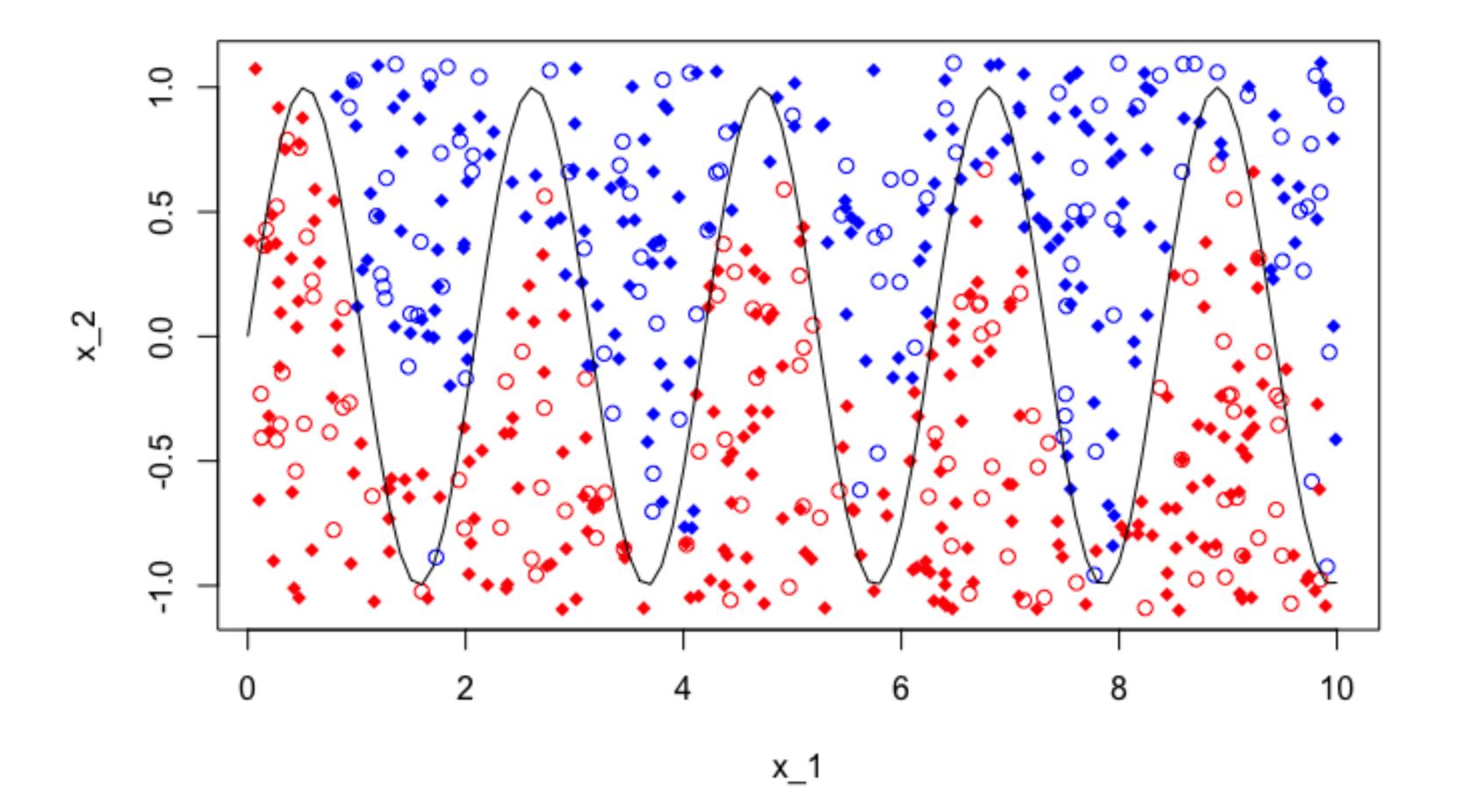


k nearest neighbours (kNN)

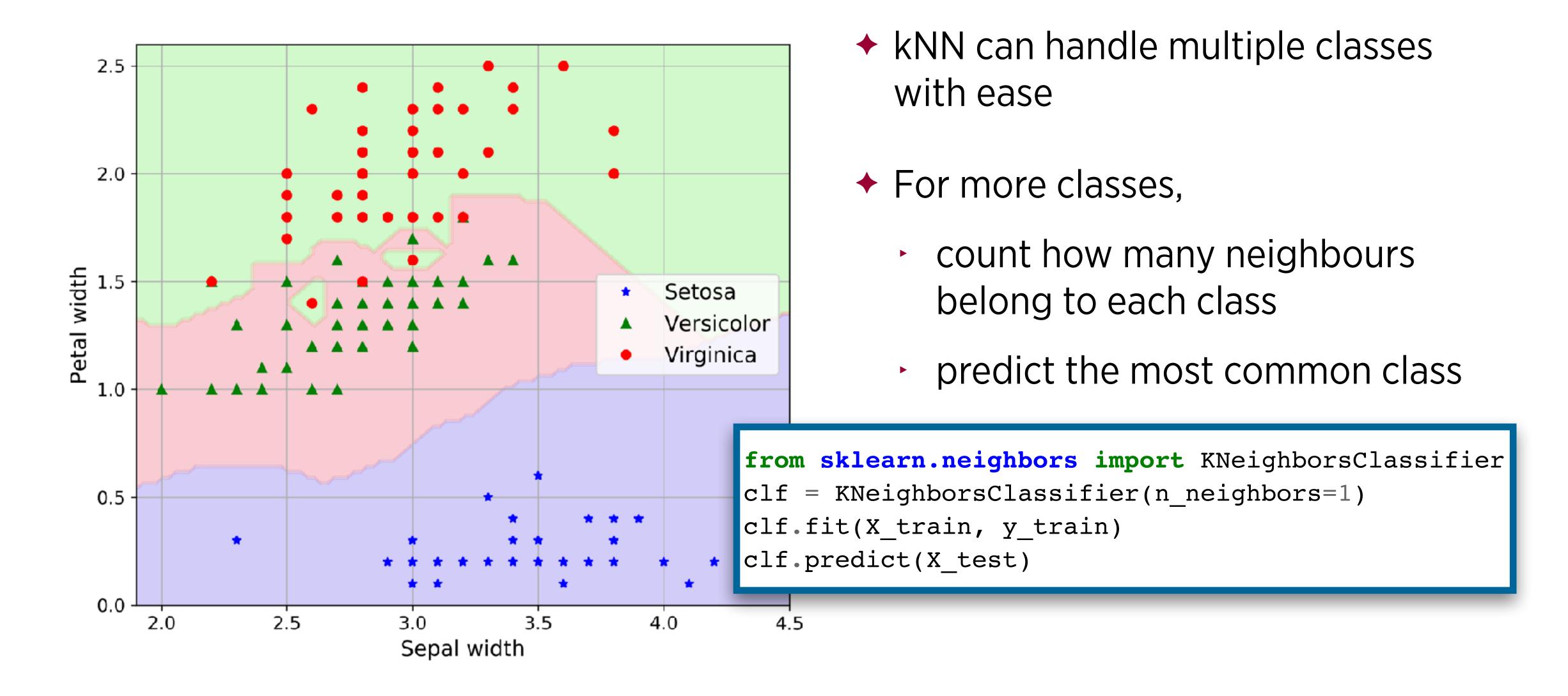


Advantage of kNN classifier

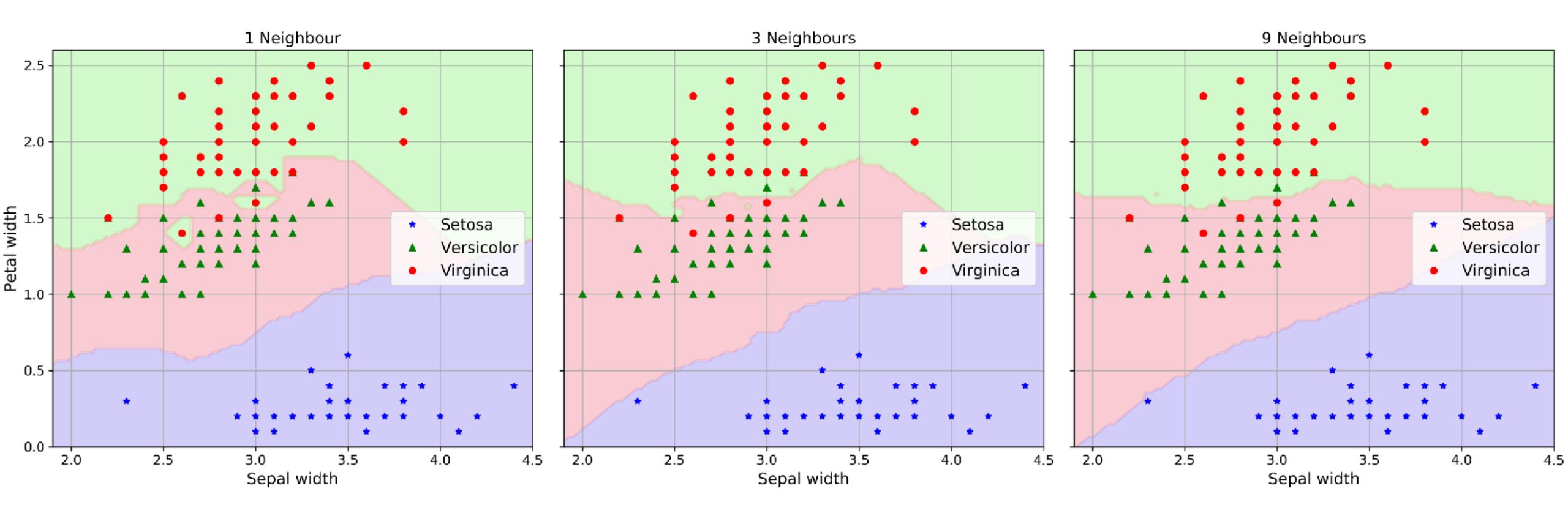
◆ Can handle problems where the decision boundary is not linear.



Advantage of kNN classifier

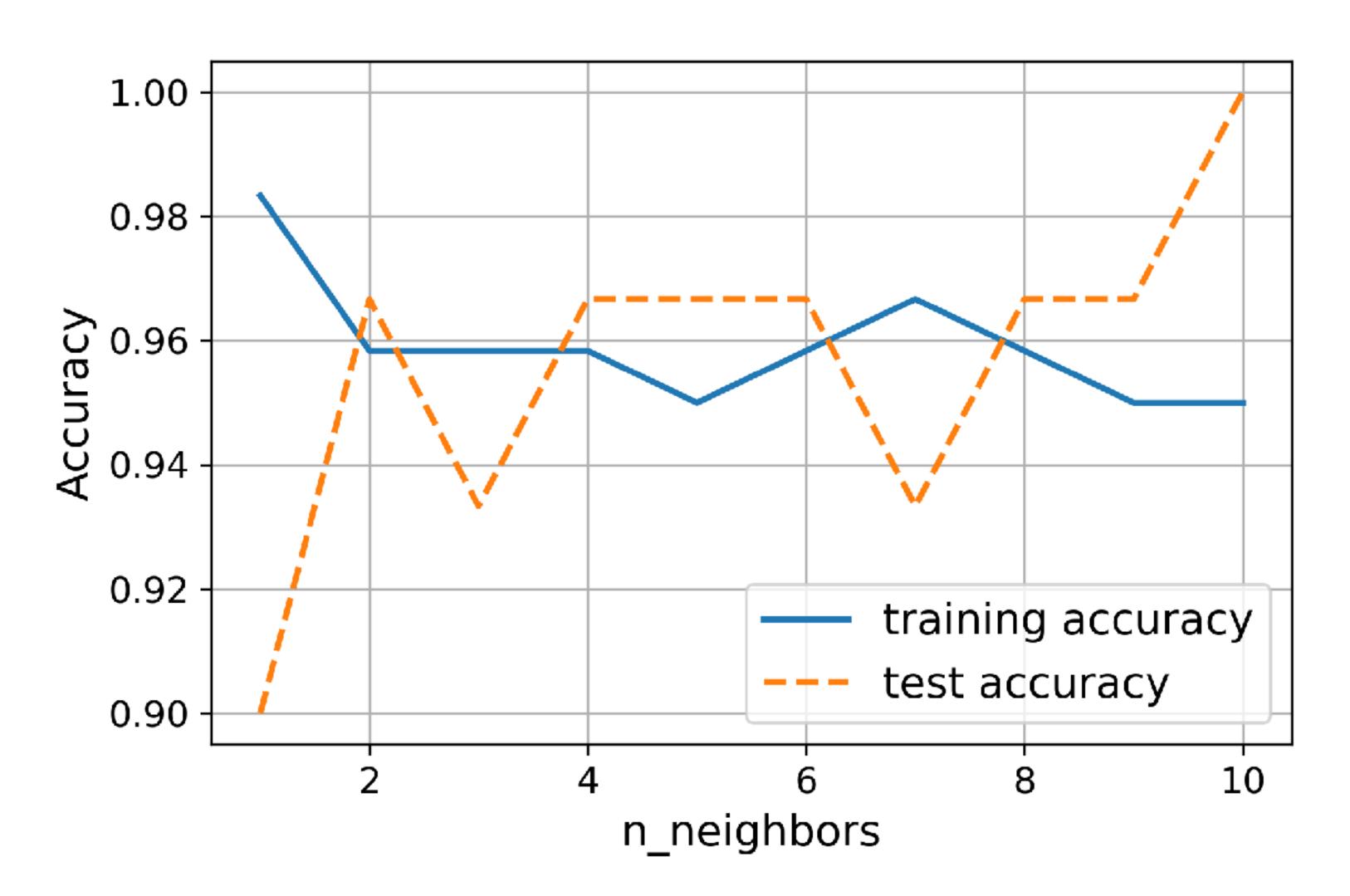


Analysing kNN classifier



Using more neighbours leads to smoother decision boundary, i.e. a simpler model (less complexity).

kNN Complexity



- Bias-variance
 - less neighbours →
 more complex model
- ◆ Overfitting when k=1

Distance measures and Other considerations

Distance measure

- ♦ We impose four requirements on any distance measure we use.
- lacktriangle For the distance $\operatorname{dist}(X,Y)$ between two points X and Y
 - 1. The distance must never be negative.
 - 2. The distance of any point from itself is zeros, i.e. dist(A, A) = 0.
 - 3. The distance from A to B is the same as the distance from B to A, i.e. dist(A,B)=dist(B,A). (the symmetry condition)
 - 4. For any points A, B and Z: $dist(A, B) \leq dist(A, Z) + dist(Z, B)$, if Z is the same point as A or B or is on the direct route between them. (the triangle inequality)

Distance measures

- ◆ There are many distance measures
 - Euclidean: $dist(A, B) = \sqrt{(a_1 b_1)^2 + (a_2 b_2)^2 + \dots + (a_p b_p)^2}$
 - Manhattan: $dist(A, B) = |a_1 b_1| + |a_2 b_b|$
 - Maximum dimension: $dist(A, B) = arg max_i (a_i b_i)$ for i = [1,p]
 - Mahalanobis: $dist(A, B) = \sqrt{(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B})^T \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B})}$, where \mathbf{S} is the covariance matrix of the distribution that A and B belong to.
 - correlation based distance
 - binary metrics
 - etc.
- ◆ For most applications, Euclidean distance is the most natural measure to use.

Normalisation

- A major problem when using distance measures is that large values frequently swamp the small ones
 - if one features has values range from [0, 1000] and another has values range from [0, 1], then the first feature will overwhelm the distance measure by one million to one.
- ◆ Therefore, we generally *normalise* the value of continuous attributes
- ◆ One possible method is to normalise the data so that all attributes have values from 0 to 1:

$$x_i' = \frac{x_i - x_{\min}}{x_{\max} - x_{\min}}$$

this is sometimes called the min-max scaling.

Importance of different attributes

- ◆ Sometimes not all attributes are equal
- ◆ Some are irrelevant, while others are more important.
- ◆ In these cases, we add weights to the attributes.
- ◆ For example, in Euclidean case:

$$dist(A, B) = \sqrt{w_1(a_1 - b_1)^2 + w_2(a_2 - b_2)^2 + \dots + w_p(a_p - b_p)^2}$$

where w_i are the weights

→ It's customary to scale the weight values so that $\sum_i w_i = 1$

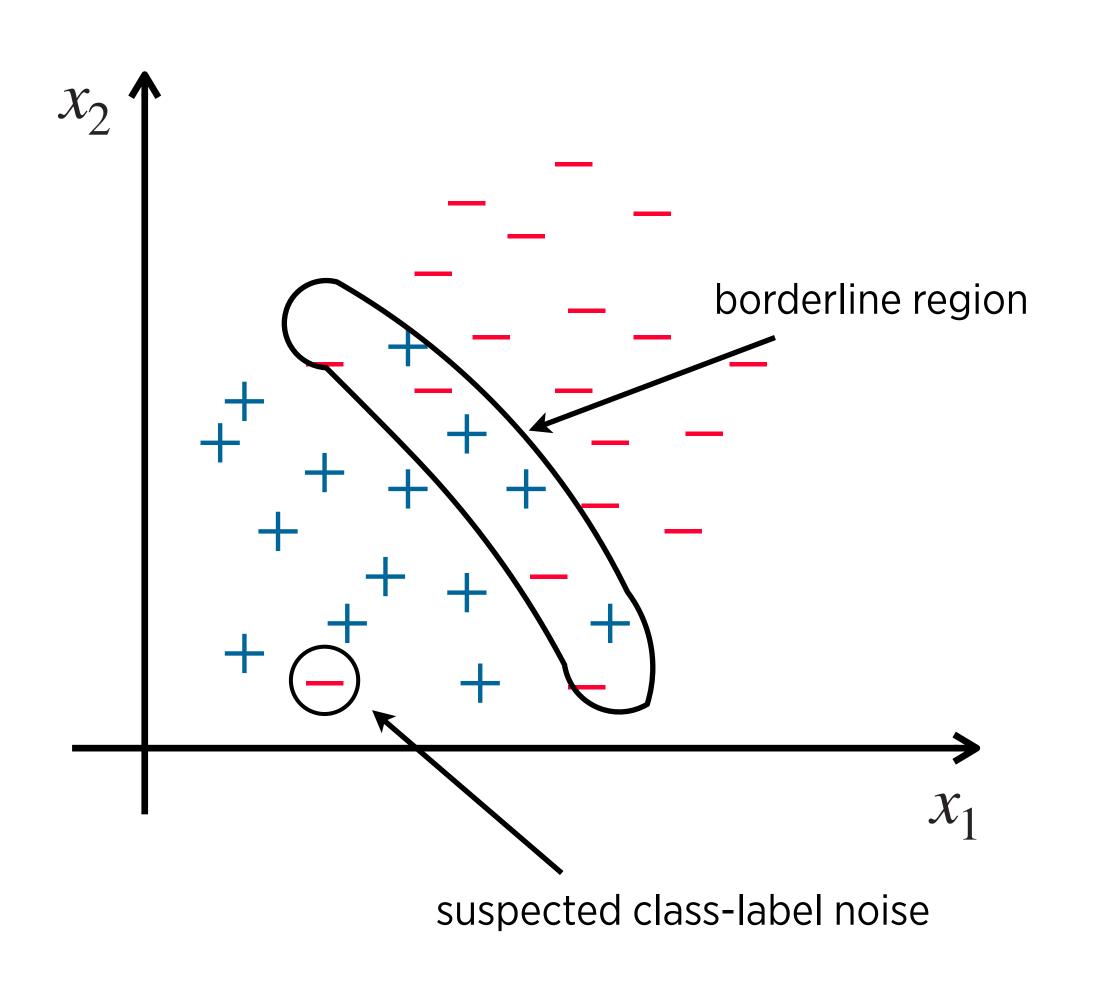
Dealing with categorical attributes

- There is no entirely satisfactory way of dealing with categorical attributes
- ◆ One possibility is to say difference between any two identical values of the attribute is 0, and any different values is 1.
 - e.g. red-red = 0, red-blue = 1, blue purple = 1, etc.
- ◆ If there is some ordering to the values, then we could put values to them.
 - e.g. {good, average, bad} = {1, 0.5, 0}

Distance can be misleading

- ◆ The distance measures should not be applied mechanically, ignoring specific aspects of the given domain
- ◆ Case study: data with attributes {size, price, season}. Observations x_1 = (2, 1.5, summer) and x_2 = (1, 0.5, winter):
 - How do we measure the distances?
- ◆ Concrete choice of class values will depend on specific needs of the given application.

Dangerous Examples



- ★ x and y forms a Tomek Link:
 - 1. **x** is the NN of **y**
 - 2. y is the NN of x
 - 3. x and y have different classes
- Can remove from training set all such pairs
- Sometimes this process need to be repeated

Advantage: Can reduce the value of k once Tomek Links have been removed.

Redundant Examples

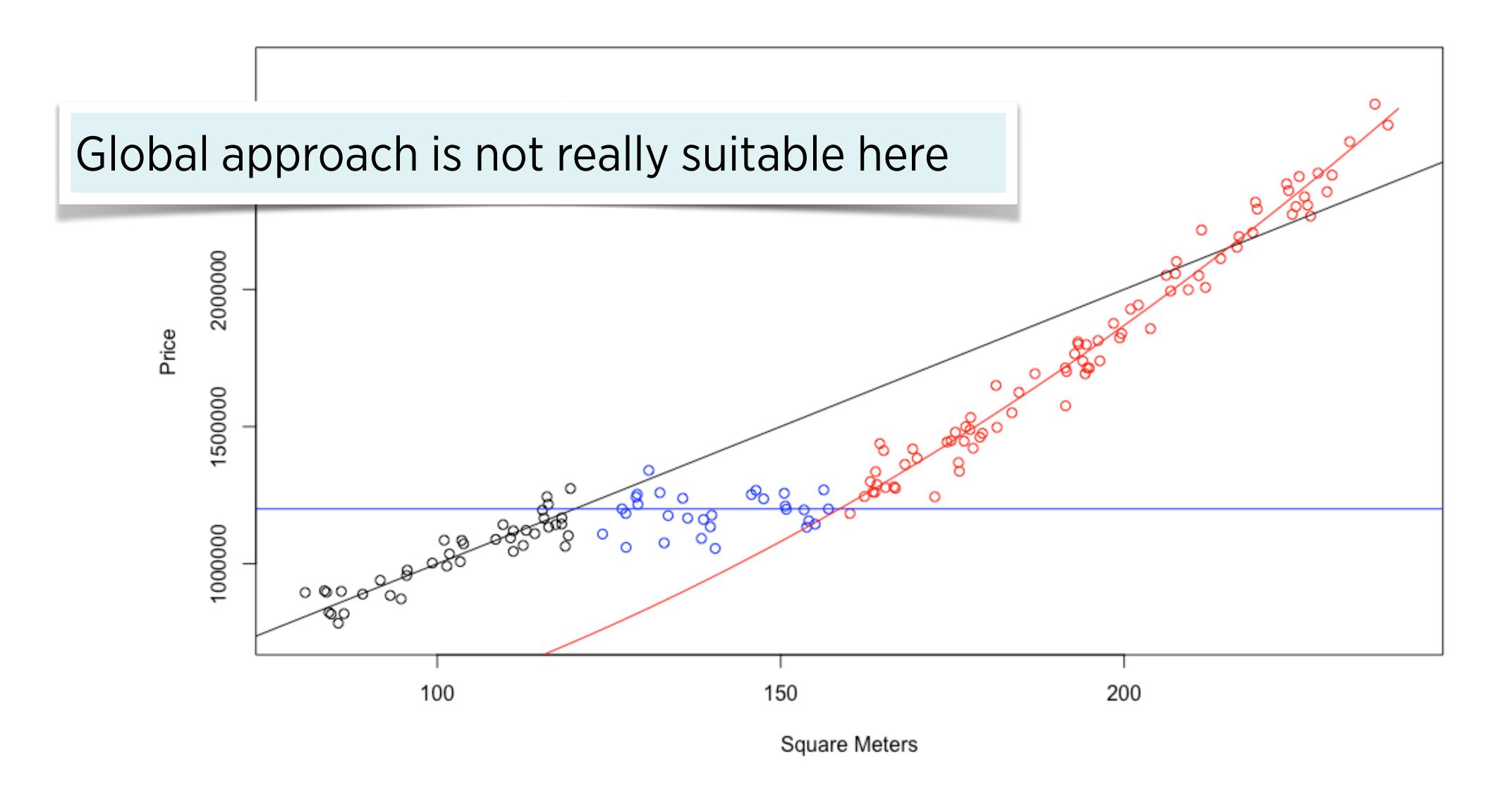
- ♦ Modern data sets are large: to classify one thousand samples using a training data set of 10^6 observations with 10^4 attributes will require $10^6 \times 10^4 \times 10^3 = 10^{13}$ operations. That is *A LOT!*
- ◆ Training sets are often redundant in that kNN behaviour will not change even if some samples were removed.
 - Often majority of the examples can be removed as they add to computational cost but not classification performance.
- ◆ We want to replace the training data, T, with its consistent subset, S, such that it will not affect the what class labels are returned by kNN.

Creating a consistent subset

- 1. Let S contain one example of each class from the training set, T.
- 2. Using examples from S, re-classify the examples in T with the I-NN classifier. Let M be the set of those examples that have in this manner received the wrong class.
- 3. Copy to S all examples from M.
- 4. If the content of S have not changed, in the previous step, then stop; otherwise go to step 1.

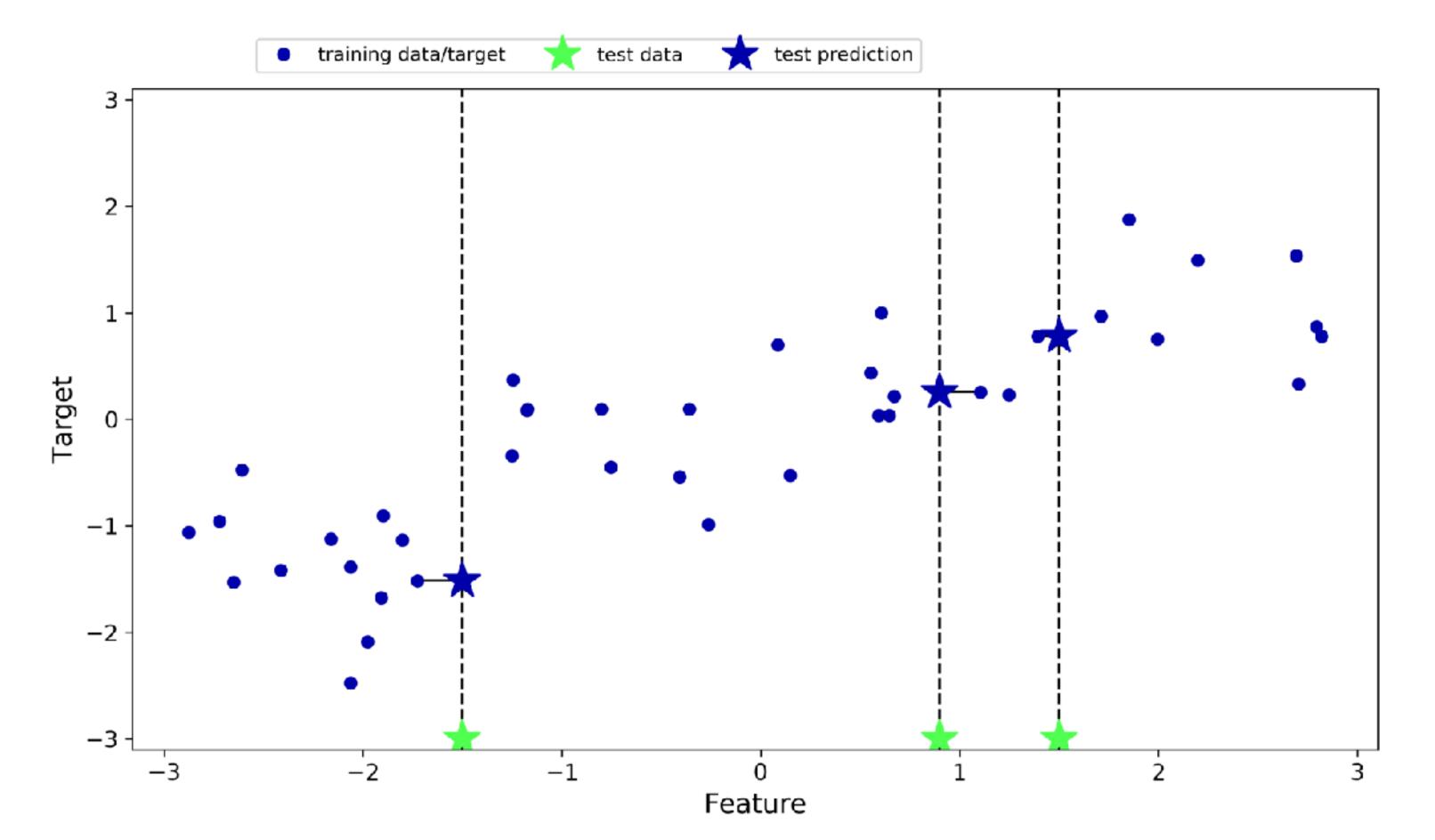
kNN Regression

kNN regression



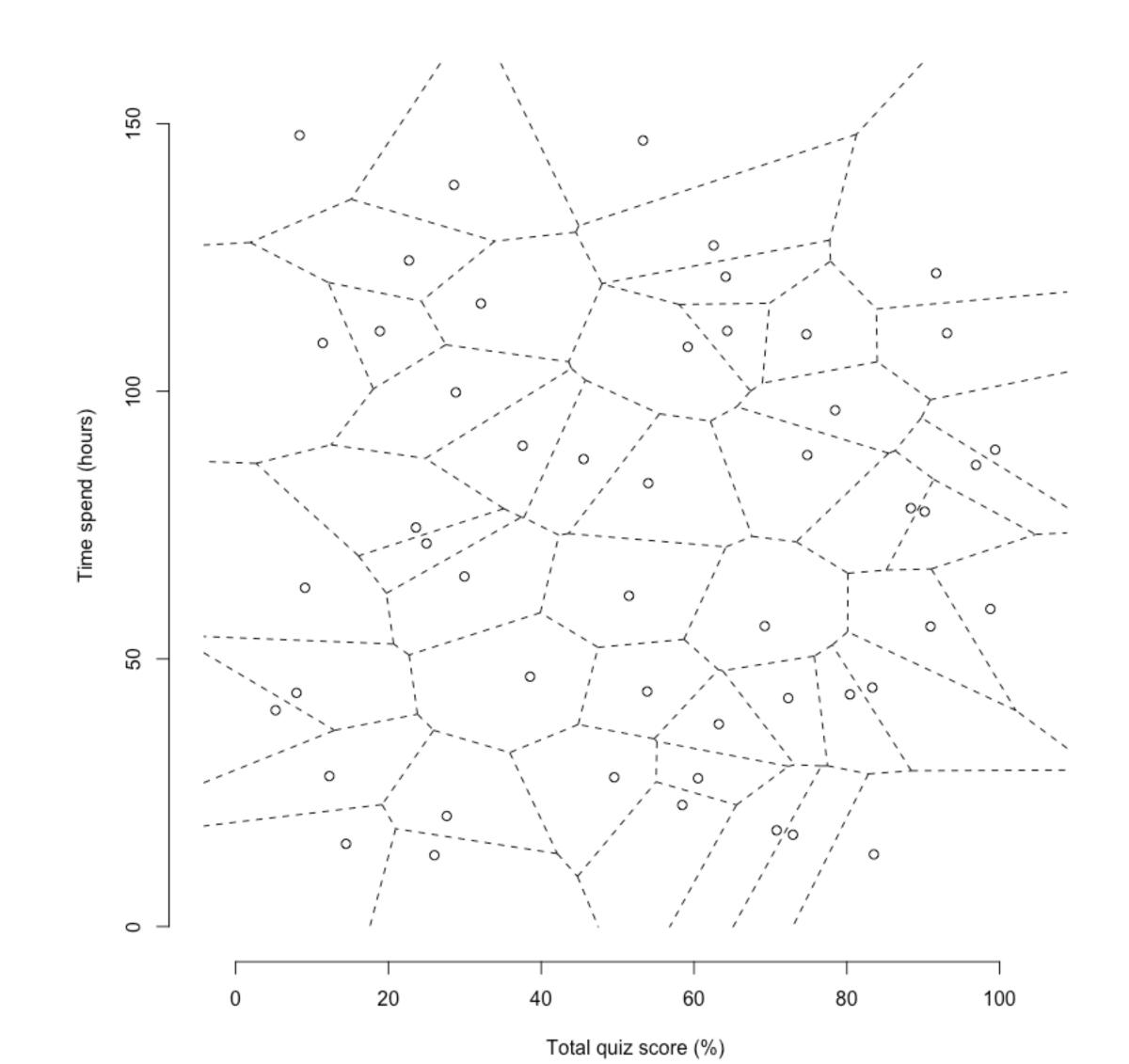
1-NN regression

• The predicted value \hat{y}_j is equal to the value y_i of the closest x_i .



1-nearest neighbours with 2 inputs

- Example: prediction of exam score, based on Quiz results and time spent for class.
- Voronoi diagram divides up the space:
 - This will create a region for each of the N data points.
 - Any point in a region is closest to the data point in that region distances to any other data point are larger.
- This is just for visualisation we don't actually need to create the Voronoi diagram.
- Same idea for higher dimensions (just not possible to visualise)



1-NN search

- Example: Exam results, based on quiz performance

- Query: performance of a student

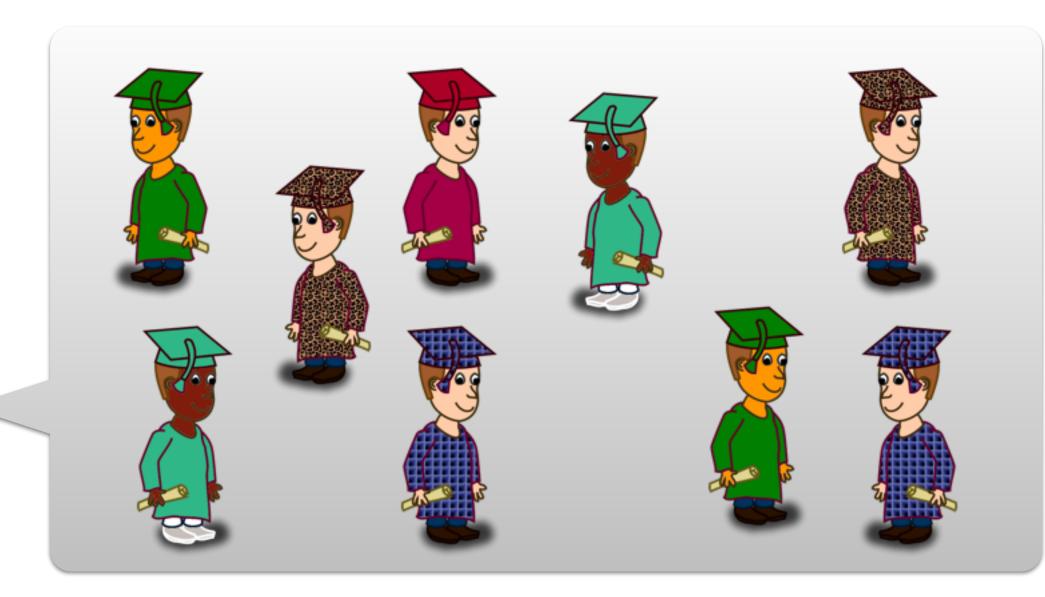


- "Training" data set - previous performance

- Select a distance metric

- Output: most similar student





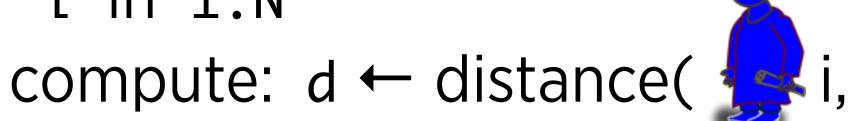
number of all students in training set

1-Ny search algorithm -

Set closestStudent

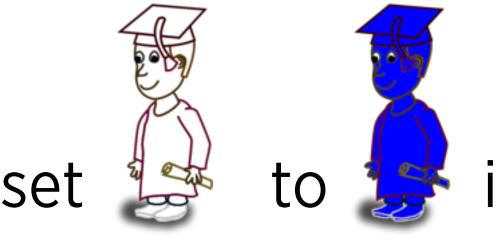
distanceToNN = ∞ NA;

for i in 1:N





if d < distanceToNN</pre>



set distanceToNN ← d

return most similar student

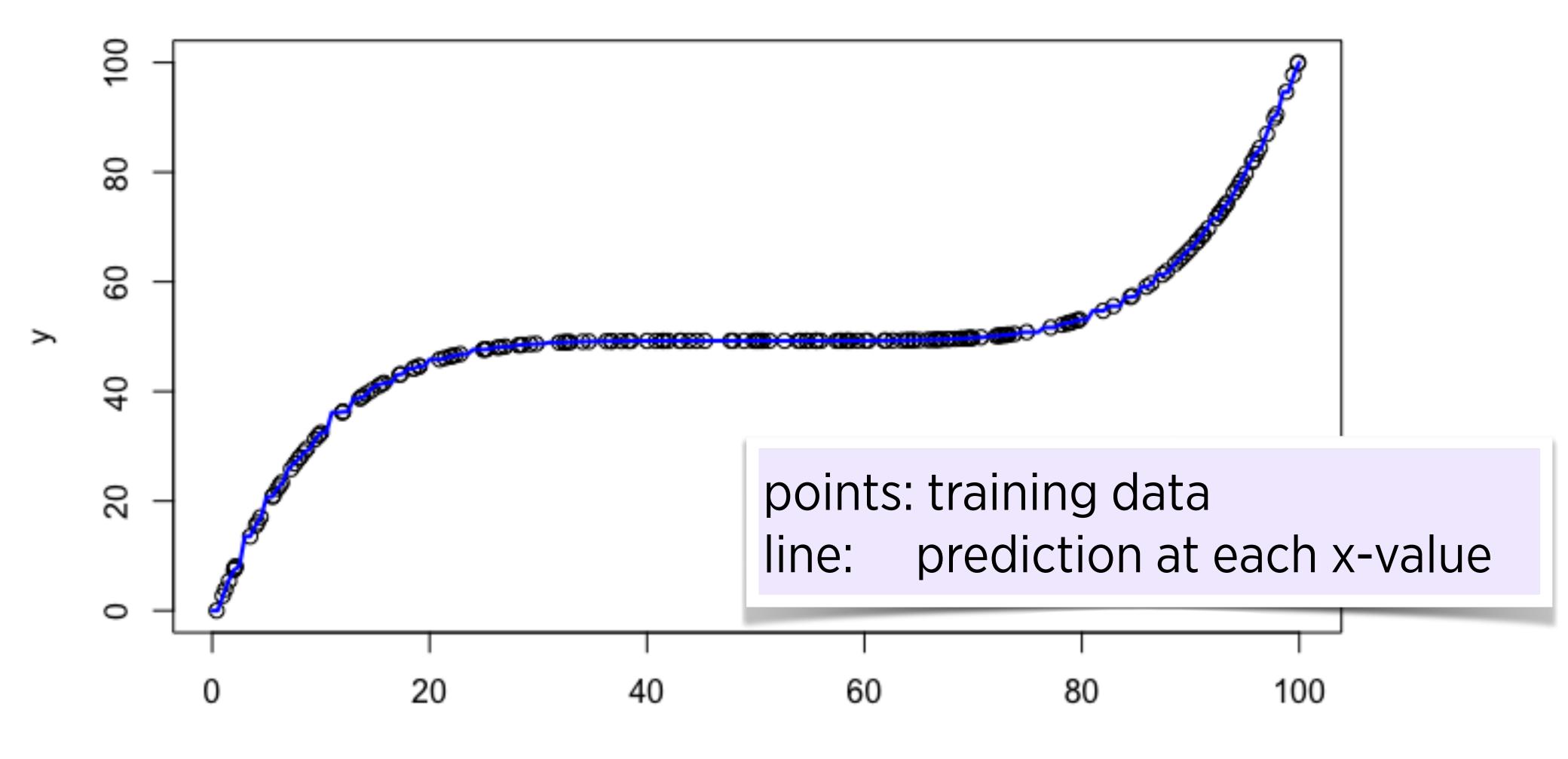




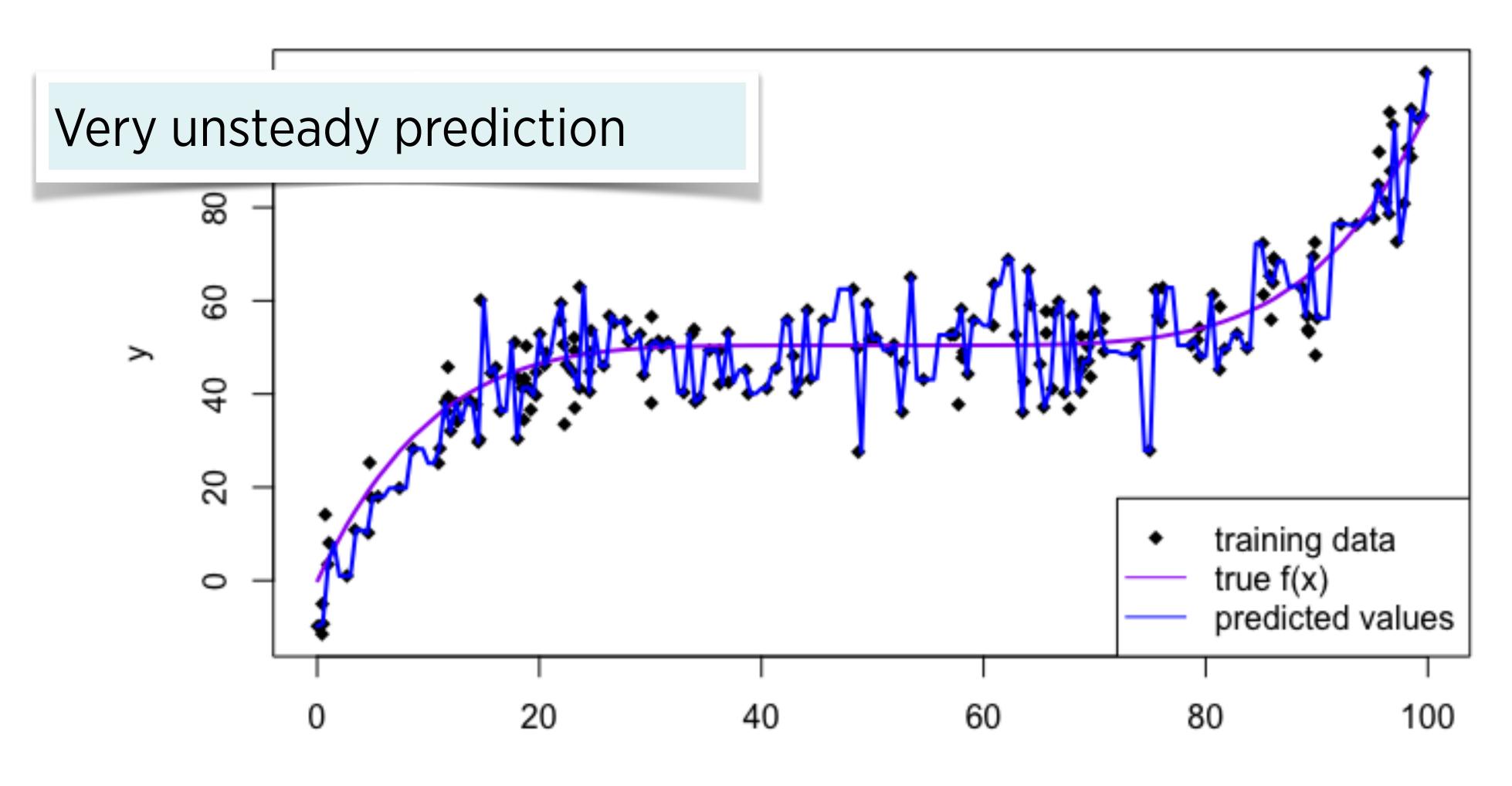




1-NN with dense data



1-NN with noisy data



k-nearest neighbours

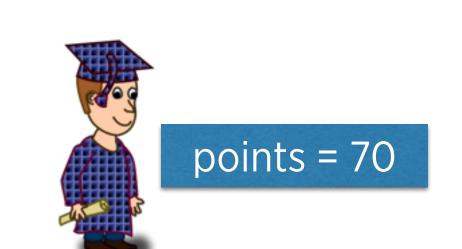
- "Training data" (students, exam points): (x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) , ..., (x_N, y_N)
- Given a new student, x_j, what exam can we expect?

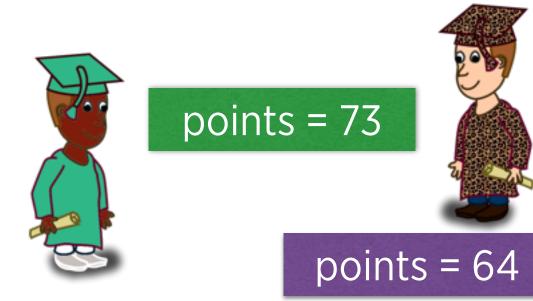


- Find the k closest x_i in our data set:
 (x_{NN1}, ..., x_{NNk}) is the ordered list of nearest neighbours (x_{NN1} closest).
 For any other x_i in the data set: distance(x_i, x_i) ≥ distance(x_{NNk}, x_i).
- 2. Predict exam points as:

$$\hat{y}_{j} = \frac{1}{k} (y_{NN_{1}} + \dots + y_{NN_{k}})$$

$$= \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_{NN_{i}}$$





k-NN search

- Query: performance of a student



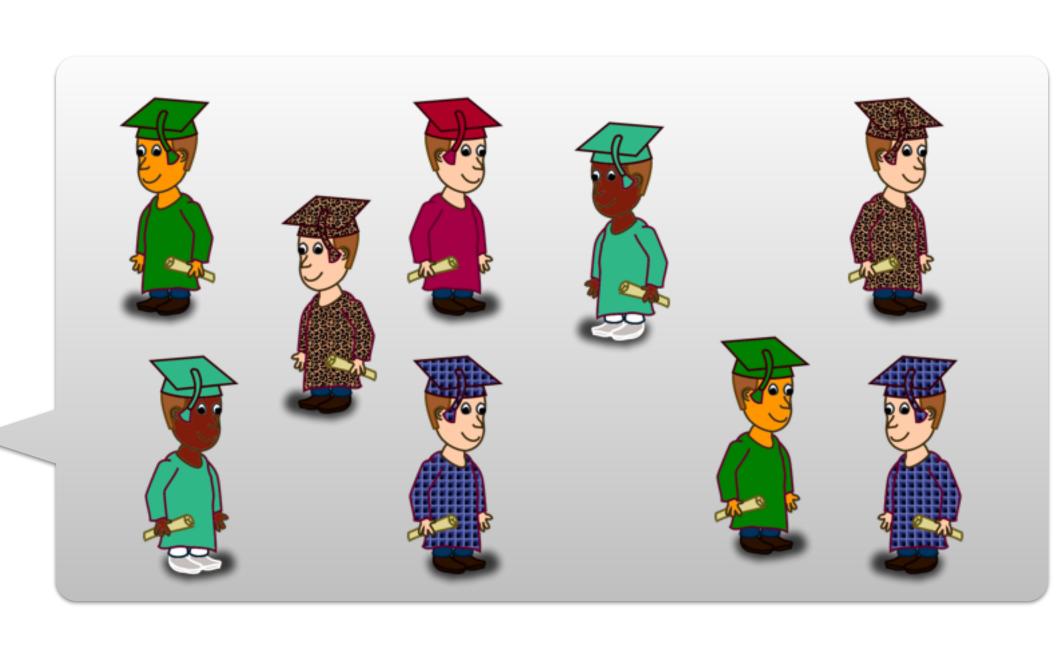
- "Training" data set previous performance
- Select a distance metric

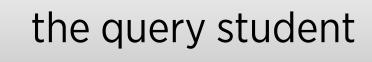
- Output: most similar students

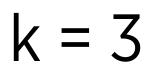


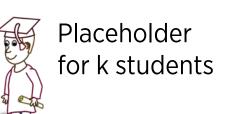


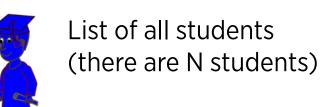


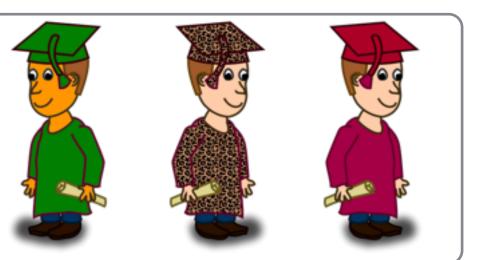












k-NN search algorithm

Set distanceToNN = $sort(d_1, ..., d_k)$

list of sorted students

take first k students from data set, sort by distance to query student





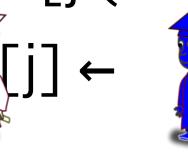
find j so that d > distanceToNN[j-1] but d < distanceToNN[j]</pre>

remove furthest student from , shift queue [(j+1):k] = [j:(k-1)]

distanceToNN[(j+1):k] = distanceToNN[j:(k-1)]

set distanceToNN[j] ← d and set

return k most similar students

















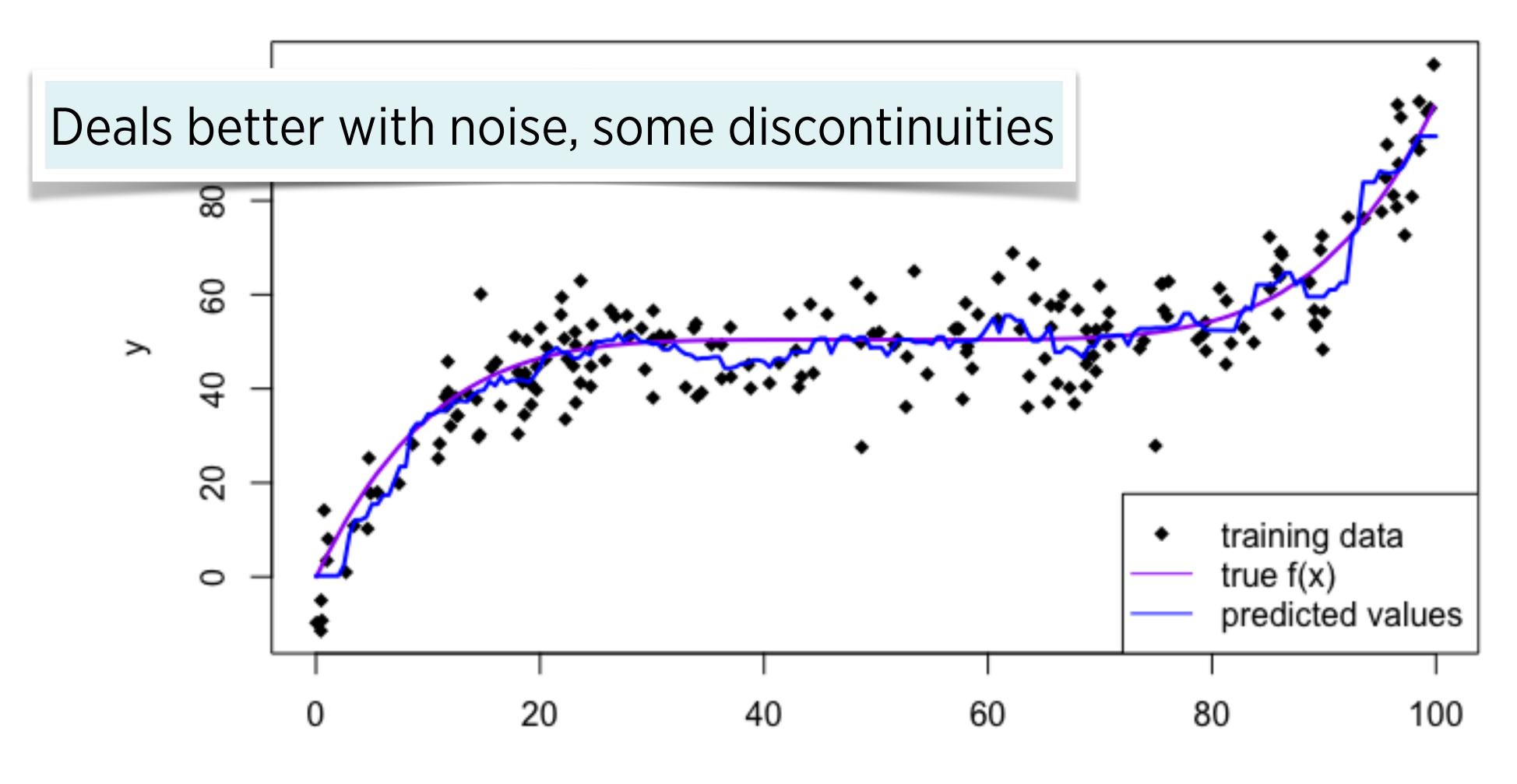


k-NN search algorithm

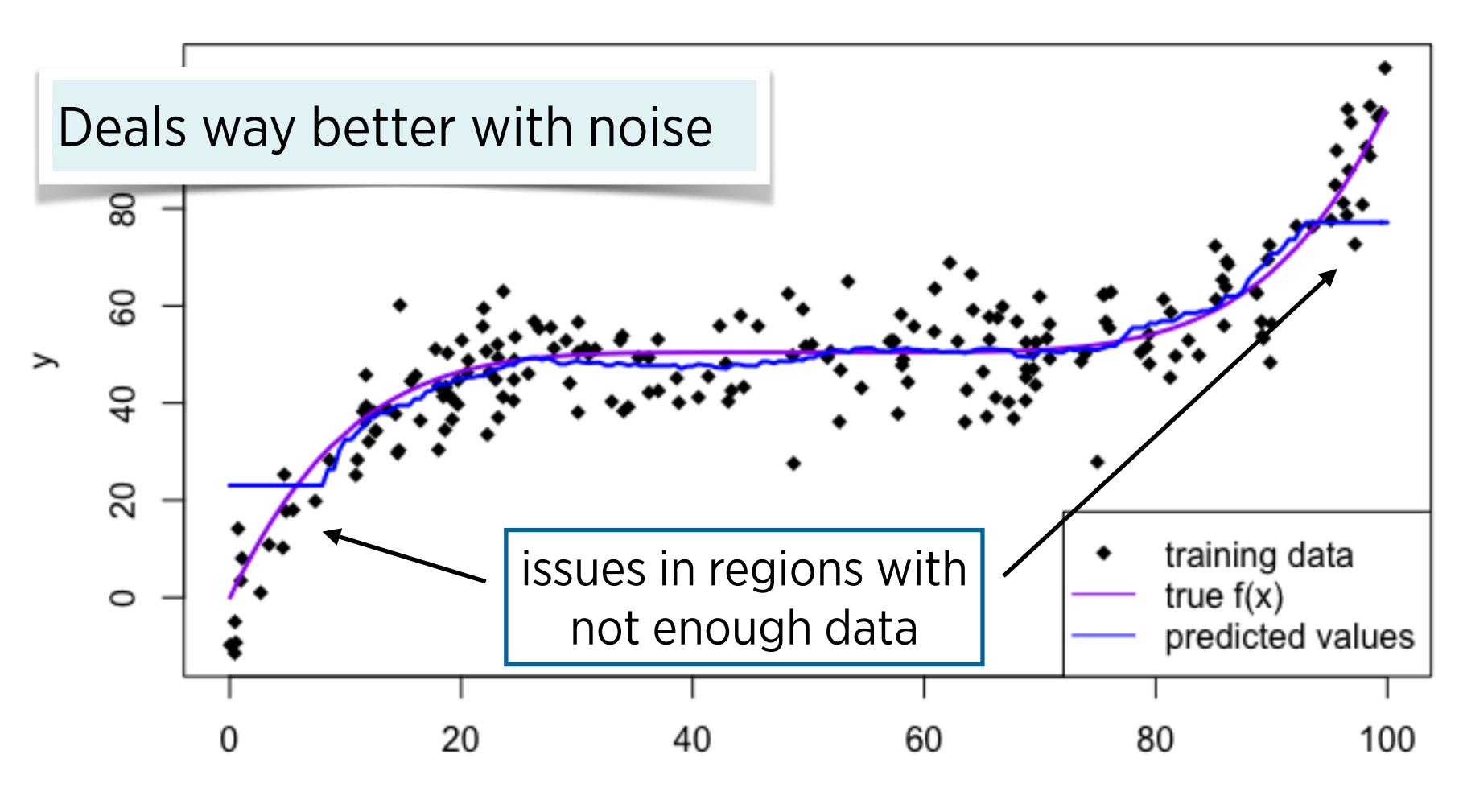
Actually you can just sort the distances and take the k smallest!



k-NN with noisy data: k=9



k-NN with noisy data: k=31



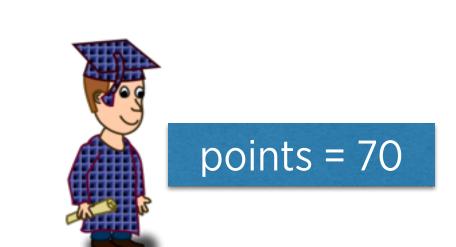
Weighted k-INN

- "Training data" (students, exam points): (x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) , ..., (x_N, y_N)
- Given a new student, x_j, what exam can we expect?



- Find the k closest x_i in our data set:
 (x_{NN1}, ..., x_{NNk}) is the ordered list of nearest neighbours (x_{NN1} closest).
 For any other x_i in the data set: distance(x_i, x_i) ≥ distance(x_{NNk}, x_i).
- 2. Predict exam points as:

$$\hat{y}_{j} = \frac{c_{j_{\text{NN1}}}y_{\text{NN}_{1}} + \dots + c_{j_{\text{NNk}}}y_{\text{NN}_{k}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{j_{\text{NNi}}}}$$





points = 73

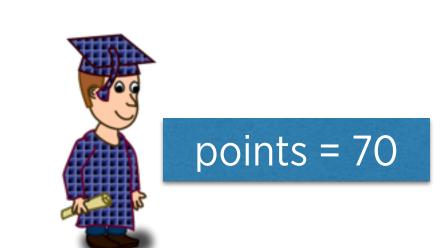


Setting the weights

- We want to set a weight c_{jNNi} to be small when distance(x_{NNi} , x_j) the distance between query and example is large.
- We want to set a weight c_{jNNi} to be large when distance(x_{NNi} , x_j) is small.

- e.g.

$$c_{j_{\mathrm{NNi}}} = rac{1}{\mathrm{distance}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)}$$

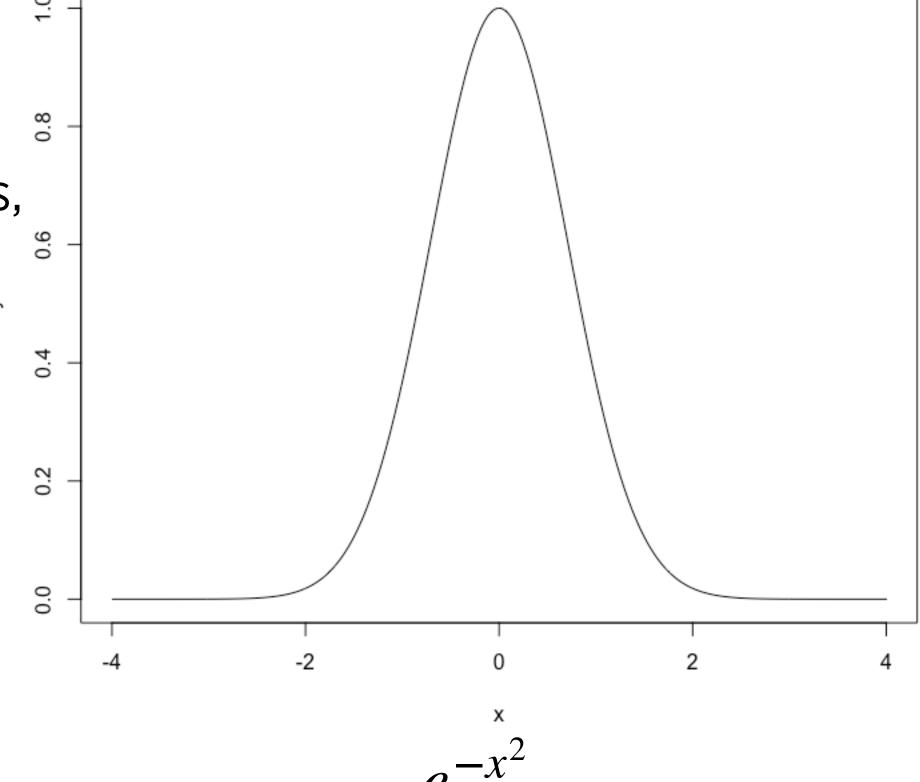






Kernel regression

- If we place smaller weights on less similar examples ...
- ... we could actually use all points in the training set.
- We use a function to compute similarities and serve as weights, then calculate weighted average.
- This is called kernel regression.
- Different kernels possible but Gaussian kernel is a popular choice: $k_h\left(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j\right) = e^{-h\|\mathbf{x}_i-\mathbf{x}_j\|^2}$
- Nadaraya-Watson kernel regression: $\widehat{m}_h(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K_h(x-x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_h(x-x_i)}$ where $\widehat{m}_h(x) = E(y \mid X=x)$.



Characteristics of nonparametric approaches

- ★ k nearest neighbours (and kernel regression) are nonparametric approaches to regression.
- Characteristics of nonparametric approaches are
 - their flexibility, and that they make only few assumptions about f(x)
 - Complexity of computation can grow with number of observations
- ◆ basic kNN has no cost in training the costs are all in the query, though.
- ◆ There are many other nonparametric approaches.

Complexity of k nearest neighbours

- The naïve approach is to search through all data points
- For a single prediction of x_i : go through all data points x_1 , ..., x_N .
- for 1-NN: O(N) distance computations per prediction
- for k-NN: O(N log k) distance computations per k-NN query

Summary

Strength, Weakness & Parameters

- ◆ Strength
 - the model is very easy to understand
 - often gives reasonable performance
 - a good baseline method to try before more advanced techniques
 - no training time

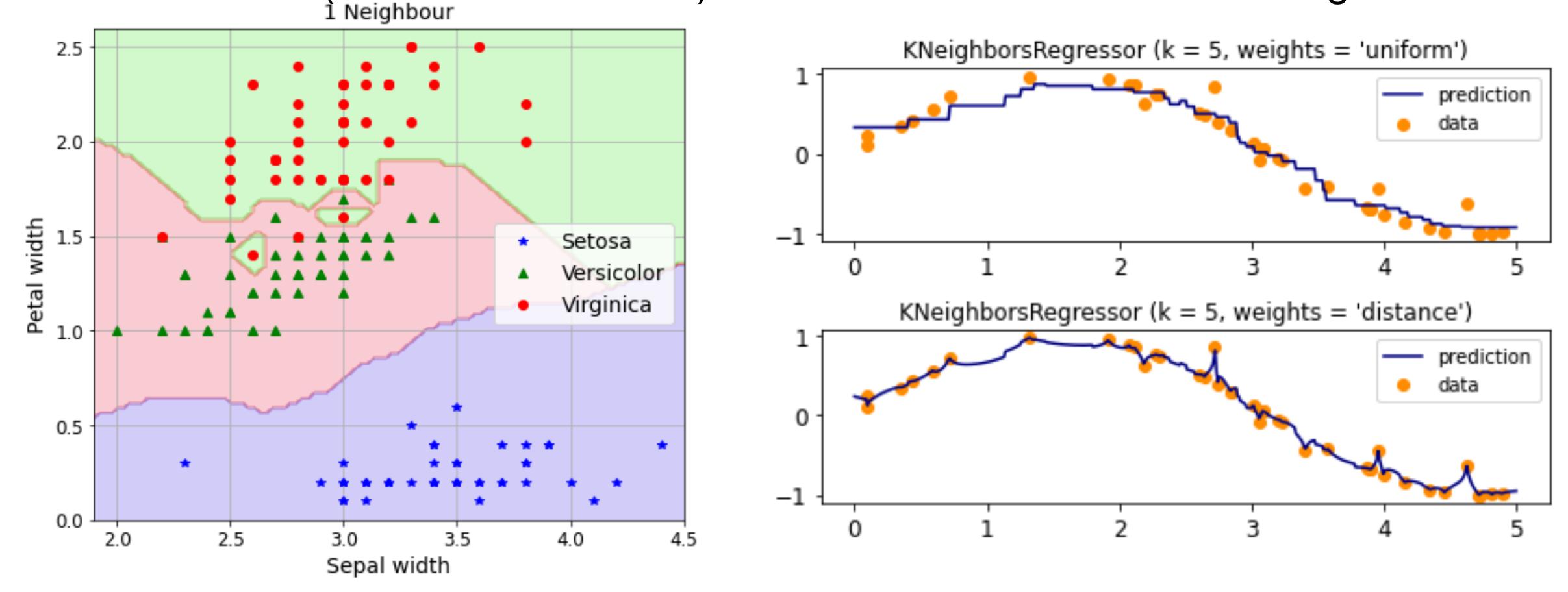
- Weakness
 - prediction is slow
 - inability to handle many features
 - need to carefully preprocess the data
- Parameters
 - number of neighbours
 - how to measure distance

Summary

- Motivation and characteristics of k nearest neighbours
- → How do kNN classification and regression work?
- What are distance measures and how do they affect prediction
- ◆ 1D cases and higher dimensions
- ◆ How to choose the best k value?
- Weighted NN and kernel regression idea
- ♦ What makes an approach non-parametric?

Module 07 Tutorial - nonparametric methods

The code is available in vUWS named: *tutorial - module07.py* **Section 1&2** (code demonstration): use KNN for classification and regression.



Module 07 Tutorial - nonparametric methods

Section 3: Based on the exercises above, do the following task.

Task: use KNN to classify handwritten digits:

- (a) Create subsets of 2 digits from both the training and test data (pick two digits, e.g. 3 and 8). Classify the test data using the training set, with k = 3.
- (b) Pick a misclassified example. How do the nearest neighbours look like?
- (c) Use the training data to create training and validation sets. Use the validation set to find the best value for k. Use the k you selected, compute the error on the test set. How does it compare with results from part (a)?
- (d) Apply the selected k to classify all digits of the test set.