Lecture 1: k-Nearest Neigbhor Rules

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Dec. 19th., 2022

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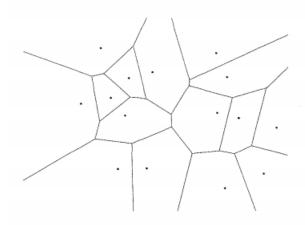


Figure 1: Varona partition of K-NN rules [Devroye et al., 2013].

1 Nearest Neighbor Rules

1.1 The Classification Rule

• Remark (Memorization of Training Set and Learning by Similarity Search)

Nearest Neighbor algorithms are among the simplest of all machine learning algorithms.

The idea is to memorize the training set and then to predict the label of any new instance on the basis of the labels of its closest neighbors in the training set.

The **rationale** behind such a method is based on the assumption that the features that are used to describe the domain points are relevant to their labelings in a way that makes **close-by points likely to have the same label**. Furthermore, in some situations, even when the training set is immense, finding a nearest neighbor can be done extremely fast (for example, when the training set is the entire Web and distances are based on links).

• **Definition** (Nearest Neighbor Rules) Formally, we define the k-NN rule by

$$g_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \sum_{i=1}^n w_{n,i} \mathbb{1} \{Y_i = 1\} > \sum_{i=1}^n w_{n,i} \mathbb{1} \{Y_i = 0\} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

where $w_{n,i} = 1/k$ if X_i is among the k nearest neighbors of x, and $w_{n,i} = 0$ elsewhere.

 X_i is said to be **the** k-**th nearest neighbor** of x if the distance $d(x, X_i)$ is the k-th smallest among $d(x, X_1), \ldots, d(x, X_n)$ In case of a distance tie, the candidate with the smaller index is said to be closer to x. The decision is based upon a **majority vote**. It is convenient to let k be odd, to avoid voting ties.

• Remark (Voronoi Partition)

At every point the decision is the label of the closest data point. The set of points whose nearest neighbor is X_i is called <u>the Voronoi cell</u> of X_i . The partition induced by the Voronoi cells is a **Voronoi partition**.

• Remark (*Ordered Statistic*) We fix $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and *reorder* the data $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$ according to *increasing values*

of $d(x, X_i)$. The reordered data sequence is denoted by

$$(X_{(1)}(x), Y_{(1)}(x)), \dots, (X_{(n)}(x), Y_{(n)}(x))$$

where $X_{(k)}(x)$ is the k-th nearest neighbor of x. For short, we write it as $(X_{(k)}, Y_{(k)})$.

• Remark (*Efficient Learning Without Hypothesis Class*) [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014]

Note that, in contrast with the algorithmic paradigms that we have discussed so far, like ERM, SRM, MDL, or RLM, that are determined by some hypothesis class, \mathcal{H} , the Nearest Neighbor method figures out a label on any test point without searching for a predictor within some predefined class of functions.

2 Asymptotic Analysis

2.1 Consistency of k-Nearest Neighbor Statistics

- **Definition** Denote the probability measure for X by \mathcal{P}_X and let $B_{x,\epsilon}$ be the **closed ball** centered at x of radius $\epsilon > 0$. The collection of all x with $\mathcal{P}_X(B_{x,\epsilon}) > 0$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ is called **the support** of X or \mathcal{P}_X .
- Lemma 2.1 [Devroye et al., 2013] Let $x \in support(\mathcal{P}_X)$ and let $X_{(k)}(x)$ be the k-th nearest neighbor of x among n i.i.d. samples $\mathcal{D}_n = \{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$ drawn according to \mathcal{P}_X^n . If $n \to \infty$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} k/n = 0$, then

$$d(x, X_{(k)}(x)) \to 0$$
, a.s.

If X is independent of the data \mathcal{D}_n and has probability measure \mathcal{P}_X , then

$$d(X, X_{(k)}(x)) \to 0, \quad a.s.$$

whenever $k/n \to 0$.

2.2 Stone's Lemma and Function of k-Nearest Neighbor

• Lemma 2.2 (Stone's Lemma) [Devroye et al., 2013] For any integrable function f, any n, and any $k \le n$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\left[\left|f\left(X_{(i)}(X)\right)\right|\right] \le k\gamma_d \mathbb{E}\left[\left|f(X)\right|\right],\tag{1}$$

where $\gamma_d \leq \left(1 + 2/\sqrt{2 - \sqrt{3}}\right)^d - 1$ depends upon the **dimension** only.

• Lemma 2.3 (Approximation with K-NN) [Devroye et al., 2013] For any integrable function f,

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\left[\left| f(X) - f\left(X_{(i)}(X)\right) \right| \right] \to 0$$

as $n \to \infty$ whenever $k/n \to 0$.

2.3 Stone's Theorem and Universal Consistency of k-NN Rules

• Remark (Estimate Posterior Conditional Probability with Weighted Averages) Consider a rule based on an estimate of the a posteriori probability η of the form

$$\eta_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1} \{Y_i = 1\} W_{n,i}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i W_{n,i}(x)$$

where the weights $W_{n,i}(x) = W_{n,i}(x, X_1, \dots, X_n)$ are nonnegative and sum to one:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_{n,i}(x) = 1.$$

 η_n is a weighted average estimator of η .

The *classification rule* is defined as

$$g_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1} \{Y_i = 1\} W_{n,i}(x) \le \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1} \{Y_i = 0\} W_{n,i}(x) \\ 1 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} 0 & \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i W_{n,i}(x) \le \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

- Remark It is intuitively clear that pairs (X_i, Y_i) such that X_i is close to x should provide more information about $\eta(x)$ than those far from x. Thus, the weights are typically much larger in the neighborhood of X, so η_n is roughly a (weighted) relative frequency of the X_i 's that have label 1 among points in the neighborhood of X. Thus, η_n might be viewed as a local average estimator, and g_n a local (weighted) majority vote.
- Theorem 2.4 (Stone's Theorem, Universal Consistency of Local Average Estimator) | Devroye et al., 2013|

Assume that for any distribution of X, the weights satisfy the following three conditions:

1. There is a constant c such that, for every **nonnegative** measurable function f satisfying $\mathbb{E}[f(X)] < \infty$,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_{n,i}(X) f(X_i)\right] \le c \mathbb{E}\left[f(X)\right].$$

2. For all a > 0,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_{n,i}(X) \mathbb{1}\left\{d(X, X_i) > a\right\}\right] = 0$$

3.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E} \left[\max_{1 \le i \le n} W_{n,i}(X) \right] = 0.$$

Then g_n is universally consistent.

- Remark 1. Condition (1) is technical.
 - 2. Condition (2) requires that **the overall weight** of X_i 's **outside** of any **ball** of a fixed radius **centered at** X must go to zero. In other words, only points in a **shrinking neighborhood** of X should be taken into account in the **averaging**.
 - 3. Condition (3) requires that **no single** X_i has **too large** a contribution to the estimate. Hence, the **number of points** encountered in the **averaging** must tend to **infinity**.

3 Non-Asymptotic Analysis

3.1 A Generalization Bound for the k-NN Rule

• Lemma 3.1 (Lipschitz Bayes Classifier Case) [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014] Let $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$, $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$, and \mathcal{P} be a distribution over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ for which **the conditional probability function**, η , is a c-Lipschitz function. Let $\mathcal{D}_m = \{(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_m, Y_m)\}$ be an i.i.d. sample and let g_m be its corresponding 1-NN hypothesis. Let g^* be the Bayes optimal rule for η . Then,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_m} \left[L(g_m) \right] \le 2L(g^*) + c \, \mathbb{E}_{X, \mathcal{D}_m} \left[\left\| X - X_{(1)}(X) \right\| \right]$$

• Lemma 3.2 (Nearest Neighbor Distance Bound) [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014] Let C_1, \ldots, C_r be a collection of subsets of some domain set, \mathcal{X} . Let \mathcal{D} be a sequence of m points sampled i.i.d. according to some probability distribution, \mathcal{P} over \mathcal{X} . Then,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_m} \left[\sum_{i: C_i \cap \mathcal{D}_m = \emptyset} \mathcal{P} \left\{ C_i \right\} \right] \le \frac{r}{e \, m}$$

• Proposition 3.3 (Generalization Bounds for 1-NN Rule) [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014]

Let $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$, $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$, and \mathcal{P} be a distribution over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ for which **the conditional probability function**, η , is a c-**Lipschitz function**. Let g_m denote the result of applying the 1-NN rule to a sample $\mathcal{D}_m \sim \mathcal{P}^m$. Then,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_m} [L(g_m)] \le 2L(g^*) + 4 c \sqrt{d} \, m^{-\frac{1}{d+1}}$$

• Proposition 3.4 (Generalization Bounds for k-NN Rule) [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014]

Let $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$, $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$, and \mathcal{P} be a distribution over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ for which **the conditional probability function**, η , is a c-**Lipschitz function**. Let g_m denote the result of applying the k-NN rule to a sample $\mathcal{D}_m \sim \mathcal{P}^m$ where $k \geq 10$. Let g^* be the **Bayes optimal rule** for η .

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_m} \left[L(g_m) \right] \le \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{8}{k}} \right) L(g^*) + (6 c \sqrt{d} + k) m^{-\frac{1}{d+1}}.$$

• Remark The theorem implies that if we first fix the data-generating distribution and then let m go to infinity, then the error of the 1-NN rule converges to twice the Bayes error. The analysis can be generalized to larger values of k, showing that the expected error of the k-NN rule converges to $\left(1+\sqrt{8/k}\right)$ times the error of the Bayes classifier. So when $m\to\infty$ and $k\to\infty$ with $k/m\to0$, we have universal consistency result.

3.2 The "Curse of Dimensionality"

• Remark (Sample Complexity Exponentially Growth with Dimensionality)

The upper bound given above grows with c (the Lipschitz coefficient of η) and with d, the Euclidean dimension of the domain set \mathcal{X} . In fact, it is easy to see that a necessary condition for the last term to be smaller than ϵ is that

$$m \ge \left(\frac{4 \, c \sqrt{d}}{\epsilon}\right)^{d+1}.$$

That is, the size of the training set should increase exponentially with the dimension.

- Proposition 3.5 [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014] For any c > 1, and every learning rule, L, there exists a distribution over $[0,1]^d \times \{0,1\}$, such that $\eta(x)$ is c-Lipschitz, the Bayes error of the distribution is 0, but for sample sizes $m \le (c+1)^d/2$, the true error of the rule L is greater than 1/4.
- Remark (The Curse of Dimensionality)

 The exponential dependence on the dimension is known as the curse of dimensionality.

As we saw, the 1-NN rule might fail if the number of examples is smaller than $\Omega((c+1)^d)$. Therefore, while the 1-NN rule does not restrict itself to a predefined set of hypotheses, it still relies on some **prior knowledge** since its success depends on the **assumption** that the **dimension** and **the Lipschitz constant** of the underlying distribution, η , are **not too** high.

References

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Shai Shalev-Shwartz and Shai Ben-David. *Understanding machine learning: From theory to algorithms*. Cambridge university press, 2014.