

Lecture 5: K-Nearest Neighbor Rules

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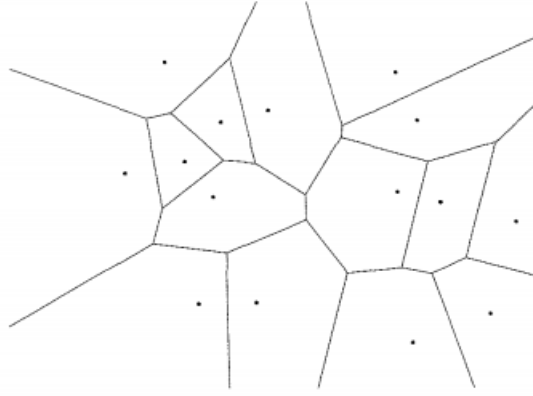


Figure 1: Voronoi partition of K-NN rules [Devroye et al., 2013].

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 $d(x, X_1), \dots, d(x, X_n)$. 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 the Voronoi cell 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 $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ 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]
If $x \in \text{support}(\mathcal{P}_X)$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} k/n = 0$, then

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

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

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

whenever $k/n \rightarrow 0$.

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 $k \leq n$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{E} [|f(X_{(i)}(X))|] \leq k\gamma_d \mathbb{E} [|f(X)|], \quad (1)$$

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 ,

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

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

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

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

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

- **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 $\mathbb{E}[f(X)] < \infty$,

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

2. For all $a > 0$,

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

- 3.

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

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 $\mathcal{D}_m = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_m, Y_m)\}$ 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,

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

- **Lemma 3.2 (Nearest Neighbor Distance Bound)** [Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014]
Let C_1, \dots, 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,

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

- **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,

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

- **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 .

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

- **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 $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $k \rightarrow \infty$ with $k/m \rightarrow 0$, 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

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

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 $m \leq (c+1)^d/2$, 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

- Luc Devroye, László Györfi, and Gábor Lugosi. *A probabilistic theory of pattern recognition*, volume 31. Springer Science & Business Media, 2013.
- Shai Shalev-Shwartz and Shai Ben-David. *Understanding machine learning: From theory to algorithms*. Cambridge university press, 2014.