

### Machine Learning

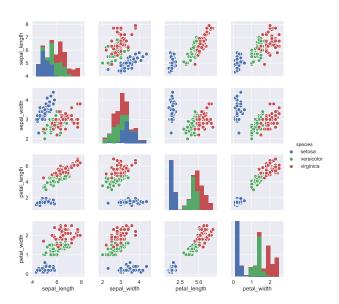
Lecture 2: k-Nearest Neighbors

Prof. Dr. Stephan Günnemann

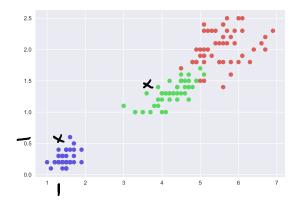
Data Analytics and Machine Learning Technical University of Munich

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# fix - 25, VE, v.3



#### Iris dataset: 2 features



How do we intuitively label new samples by hand? Look at the *surrounding* points. Do as your neighbor does.

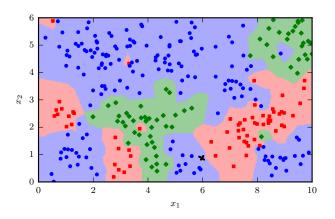
### 1-NN algorithm

Given a training dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$  where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^D$  are features and  $y_i \in \{1, \dots, C\}$  are class labels

To classify new observations:

- define a distance measure (e.g. Euclidean distance)
- compute the nearest neighbor for all new data points
- and label them with the label of their nearest neighbor

This works for both classification and regression.



This corresponds to a Voronoi tesselation. And results in poor generalization...

### k-Nearest Neighbor classification

More *robust* against errors in the training set:

Look at multiple nearest neighbors and pick the majority label.

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Let  $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$  be the k nearest neighbors of a vector x, then in classification tasks:

$$p(y = c \mid \boldsymbol{x}, k) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k(\boldsymbol{x})} \mathbb{I}(y_i = c), \qquad \text{a (y.1)}$$

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max p(y = c \mid \boldsymbol{x}, k)$$

with the *indicator variable*  $\mathbb{I}(e)$  is defined as:

$$\mathbb{I}(e) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } e \text{ is true} \\ 0 \text{ if } e \text{ is false.} \end{cases}$$

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i.e., the vector will be labeled by the mode of its neighbors' labels.

# $k ext{-Nearest Neighbor classification: weighted}$



Look at multiple nearest neighbors and pick the weighted majority label.

### k-Nearest Neighbor classification: weighted

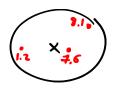
Look at multiple nearest neighbors and pick the weighted majority label. The weight is inversely proportional to the distance.

Let  $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$  be the k nearest neighbors of a vector x, then in classification tasks:

$$p(y = c \mid \boldsymbol{x}, k) = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k(\boldsymbol{x})} \frac{1}{\mathrm{d}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)} \mathbb{I}(y_i = c),$$
$$\hat{y} = \arg \max p(y = c \mid \boldsymbol{x}, k)$$

with  $Z = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x)} \frac{1}{\mathrm{d}(\boldsymbol{x}, x_i)}$  the normalization constant and  $\mathrm{d}(\boldsymbol{x}, x_i)$  being a distance measure between  $\boldsymbol{x}$  and  $x_i$ .

### k-Nearest-Neighbor regression



Regression is similar:

Let  $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$  be the k nearest neighbors of a vector x, then for regression:

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k(\boldsymbol{x})} \frac{1}{\mathrm{d}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}_i)} y_i,$$

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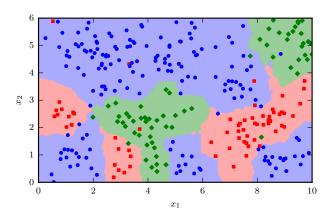
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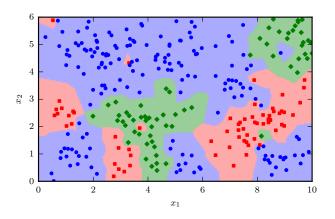
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i.e., the vector will be labeled by a weighted mean of its neighbors' values.

Note:  $y_i$  is a real number here (rather than categorical label).



So, how many neighbors are best?



Compare the decision boundaries of 1-NN and 3-NN

### Choosing k

Goal is generalization: pick k (called a *hyper-parameter*) that performs best<sup>1</sup> on unseen (future) data.

Unfortunately, no access to future data, so split the dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ :

<b>8</b> 0%	10%	
Training set $\mathcal{D}_T$	Validation set $\mathcal{D}_V$	
		10 y.
Learning set $\mathcal{D}_L$		Test set $\mathcal{D}_t$
	$\check{\mathcal{D}}$	

Hyper-parameter tuning procedure

RANDOM

• Learn the model using the training set

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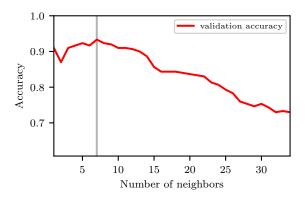
- Evaluate performance with different k on the validation set picking the best k
- Report final performance on the test set.<sup>2</sup>



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In terms of some predefined metric, i.e. accuracy

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Good data science practices: See slides on Decision Trees

## Using validation set to choose k



We choose k = 7.

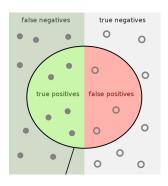
## Measuring classification performance

How can we assess the performance of a (binary) classification algorithm?

 $\Rightarrow$  Confusion table

	True condition	
Predicted	y=1	y = 0
y = 1	TP	FP
y = 0	FN	TN

$$\begin{array}{ll} TP & = \text{true prositive} \\ TN & = \text{true negative} \end{array} \right\} \text{correct predictions} \\ \hline \textbf{\textit{FP}} & = \text{false prositive} \\ FN & = \text{false negative} \end{array} \right\} \text{wrong predictions}$$



## Measuring classification performance

 $\Rightarrow$  Trade-off between precision and recall: increasing one (most often) leads to decreasing the other

General note: Be careful when you have imbalanced classes!

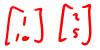






- ullet K-NN can be used with various distance measures o highly flexible
- Euclidean distance ( $L_2$  norm):  $\sqrt{\sum_i (u_i v_i)^2}$

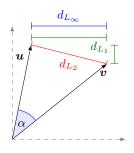
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- Angle:

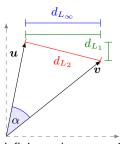
$$\cos\alpha = \frac{\boldsymbol{u}^T\boldsymbol{v}}{\|\boldsymbol{u}\|\|\boldsymbol{v}\|}$$





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$$\cos \alpha = \frac{\boldsymbol{u}^T \boldsymbol{v}}{\|\boldsymbol{u}\| \|\boldsymbol{v}\|}$$



• Mahalanobis distance ( $\Sigma$  is positive (semi) definite and symmetric):



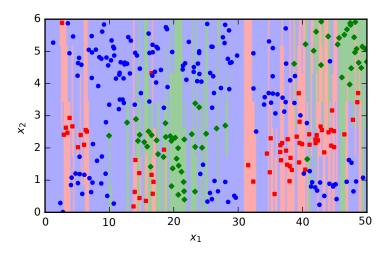


$$\sqrt{(\boldsymbol{u}-\boldsymbol{v})^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{u}-\boldsymbol{v})}$$

• Hamming distance, Edit distance, . . .



### Scaling issues



The same old example but one of our features is in the order of meters, the other in the order of centimeters. (k=1)

## Circumventing scaling issues

Data standardization
 Scale each feature to zero mean and unit variance.

$$x_{i,\text{std}} = \frac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$$

(This is a standard procedure in machine learning. Many models are sensitive to differences in scale.)

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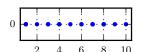
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Use the Mahalanobis distance.

$$\text{mahalanobis}(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2) = \sqrt{(\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{x}_2)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{x}_2)}$$

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma} = \left[egin{array}{ccc} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_n^2 \end{array}
ight]$$
 is equal to Euclidean distance on normalized data



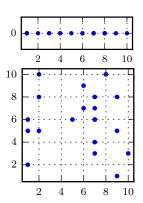
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For N=20 uniformly distributed samples the data covers 100% of the input space.

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Add a second dimension (now  $x \in \{1, \dots, 10\}^2$ ) and your data only covers 18% of the input space.

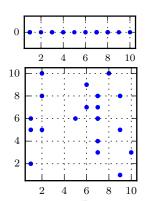


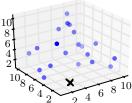
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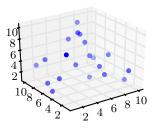
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Once you add a third dimension you only cover 2%.





- The nearest neighbor will now be pretty far away..
- N has to grow exponentially with the number of features. Consider this when using k-NN on high-dimensional data.

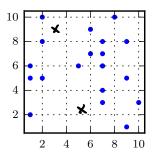


#### Practical considerations

Expensive: memory and naive inference are both O(N):

we need to store the entire training data and compare with all training instances to find the nearest neighbor

Solution: use tree-based search structures (e.g. k-d tree) for efficient (approximate) NN  $^{\rm 3}$ 



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>At the expense of an additional computation performed only once

#### What we learned

- k-NN Algorithm
- Train-validation-test split
- Measuring classification performance
- Distance metrics
- Curse of dimensionality

## Reading material

#### Main reading

 "Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective" by Murphy [ch. 1.4.1 - 1.4.3]

#### Extra reading

 "Bayesian Reasoning and Machine Learning" by Barber [ch. 14]