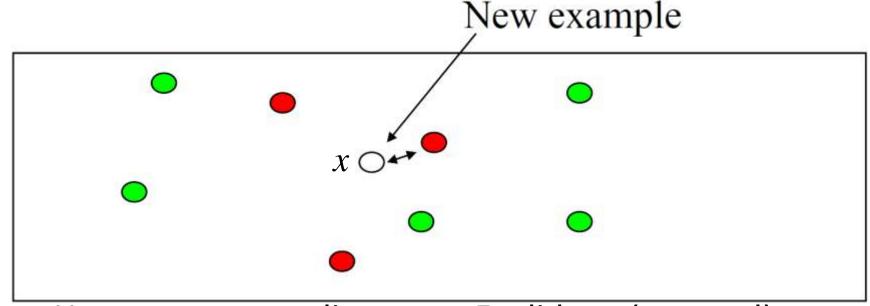
k Nearest Neighbors Algorithm

Ringo

2017.2.4

The Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

- Remember all training examples
- Given a new example x, find it's closest training example $< x^i$, $y^i >$ and predict y^i



How to measure distance – Euclidean (squared):

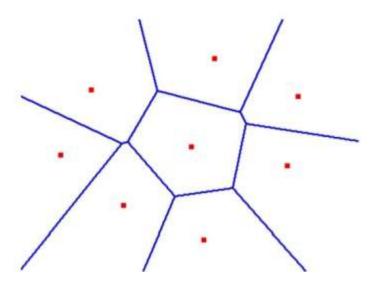
$$||x-x^i||^2 = \sum_i (x_i - x_j^i)^2$$

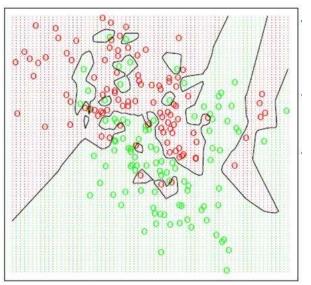
The Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

- A lazy learning algorithm
 - the "learning" does not occur until the test example is given
 - in contrast to so called "eager learning" algorithms (which carries out learning without knowing the test example, and after learning training examples can be discarded)

Decision Boundaries

- Given a set of points, a
 Voronoi diagram
 describes the areas that are nearest to any given point.
- With large number of examples and possible noise in the labels, the decision boundary can become nasty!





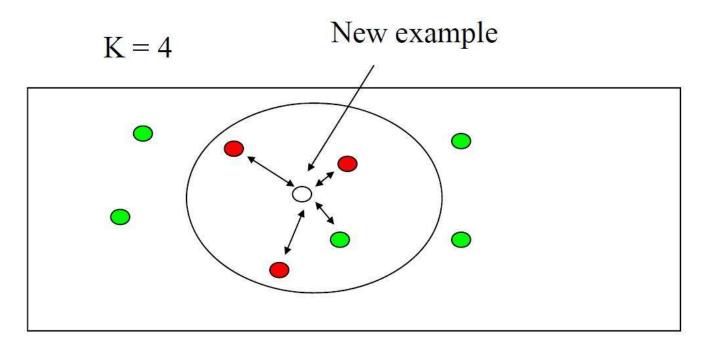
k Nearest Neighbor: Algorithm

- Remember all training samples $\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)...(x_n, y_n)\}$ x_i is the vector of a sample, y_i is the class of x_i
- Given an unlabeled example x, find k most similar labeled examples (closest neighbors among sample points)
- Assign the most frequent class among those neighbors to x (*Majority voting*)

$$y = \arg \max \sum_{x \in N_k(x)} I(y_i = c_j)$$

k Nearest Neighbor: Example

Example:

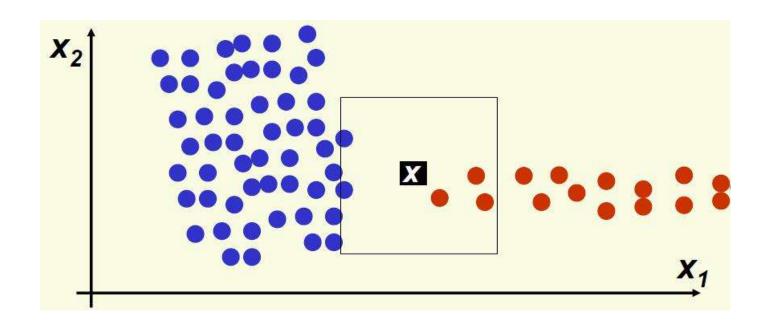


Find the **k** nearest neighbors and have them vote. Has a smoothing effect. This is especially good when there is noise in the class labels.

k Nearest Neighbor: 3 elements

- How to choose **k**?
- Classification decision rule?
- How to measure distance?

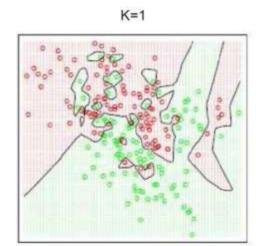
How to choose k?

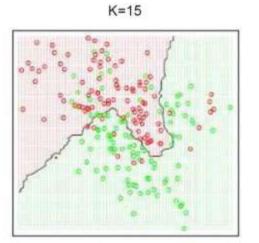


- For k = 1,...5 point x gets classified correctly
 - red class
- For larger k classification of x is wrong
 - blue class

How to choose k?

- If k is too small
 - The result can be sensitive to noise points. larger k
 produces smoother boundary effect and can reduce
 the impact of class label noise.
- If k is too large
 - The neighborhood may include too many points from other classes, especially when k = N, we always predict the majority class.





How to choose k?

- "rule of thumb": $k = \sqrt{n}$
 - can prove convergence if n goes to infinity
 - not too useful in practice, however
- K-fold cross validation
 - the meaning of "K" in K-fold is not the same with k
 - it is particularly suited for:
 - typically have only a few possible candidates for k (e.g. in order 3-10 or 50-100)
 - performance is rather monotone on the number of neighbors.

Classification decision rule?

Majority Voting Rule:

Take a majority vote class label for the new sample

Definition:

Input: D, the set of training objects, and test object z = (X', y')

Process:

- 1. Compute d(X',X), the distance between z and every object, $(X,y) \in D$.
- 2. Select $D_z \in D$, the set of $\emph{\textbf{k}}$ closest training objects to z

Output:
$$y' = \arg \max_{v} \sum_{(X_i, y_i) \in D_z} I(v = y_i)$$

Majority Voting: Interpretation

Assumption:

0-1 loss function:
$$I(Y, f(X)) = \begin{cases} 1, Y \neq f(X) \\ 0, Y = f(X) \end{cases}$$

classification function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_m\}$

So:

Misclassification rate for z = (X, Y):

$$P(Y \neq f(X)) = 1 - P(Y = f(X)) = 1 - I(Y, f(X))$$

 $N_k(z)$ is the set of ${\bf k}$ closest training objects to z, if the class of z is c_j , then the misclassification rate is:

$$P(Y \neq f(X)) = 1 - I(Y, f(X)) = 1 - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{x_i \in N_k(x)} I(y_i, c_j)$$

Majority Voting: Interpretation

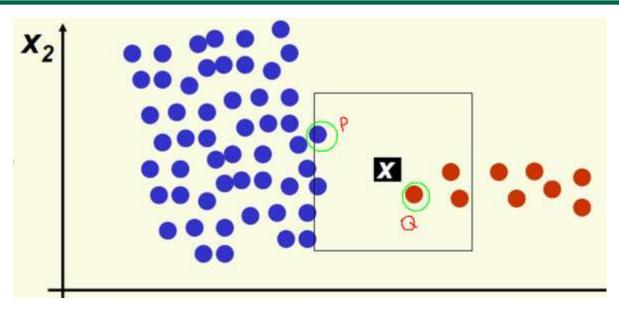
$$P(Y \neq f(X)) = 1 - I(Y, f(X)) = 1 - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{x_i \in N_k(x)} I(y_i, c_j)$$

$$\min P(Y \neq f(X)) \Rightarrow \max \frac{1}{k} \sum_{x_i \in N_k(x)} I(y_i, c_j)$$

$$\Rightarrow c_j = \arg \max_{p \in \{1, ...m\}} \sum_{i=1}^k I(y_i, c_p)$$

So majority voting is equivalent to empirical risk minimization.

Majority Voting: Go farther



Can *P* and *Q* be treated equally?

Improvement: weights each object's vote by its distance.

Suppose:
$$\omega_i = \frac{1}{d(X', X_i)^2}$$

Distance-Weighted Voting:
$$y' = \arg \max_{v} \sum_{(X_i, y_i) \in D_z} \omega_i \times I(v = y_i)$$

Majority Voting: Go farther

Distance-Weighted Voting:
$$y' = \arg \max_{v} \sum_{(X_i, y_i) \in D_z} \omega_i \times I(v = y_i)$$

Advantage:

- closer neighbors more reliably indicate the class of the object
- much less sensitive to the choice of **k**

How to measure distance?

Aim: a smaller distance between two objects implies a greater likelihood of having the same class.

Choice:

Euclidean Distance

$$L(x_i, x_j) = \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} |x_i^{(l)} - x_j^{(l)}|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

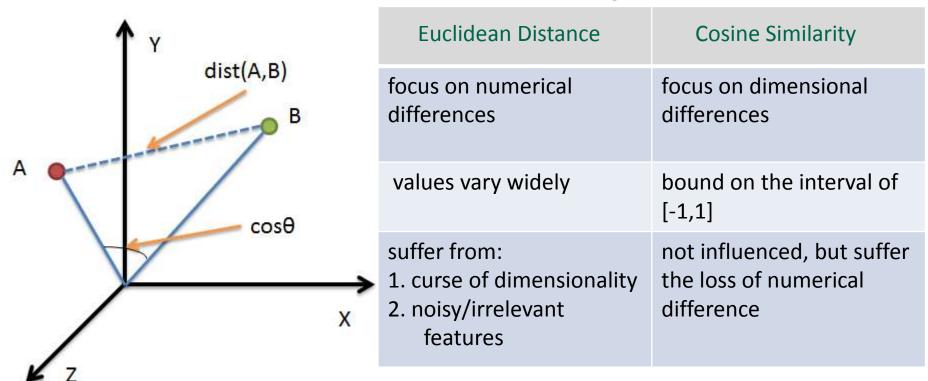
Cosine Similarity

$$sim(X,Y) = \cos \theta = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}$$

•

How to measure distance?

Euclidean Distance vs Cosine Similarity:



Tips for using Euclidean Distance:

- feature normalization(e.g $x_1 = [1,100], x_2 = [2,150]$)
- feature weighting
- not a good distance in high dimensions

kNN: Computational Complexity

Basic kNN algorithm stores all examples. Suppose we have n examples each of dimension d, requiring O(nd) memory

- O(d) to compute distance to one training example
- O(nd) to compute distances to all examples, storage takes O(n) memory
- For i = 1:k, loop through all training set, selecting the smallest $dist_i$ that has not been selected before, O(nk)

Time complexity: O(nd + nk) Space complexity: O(nd + n)

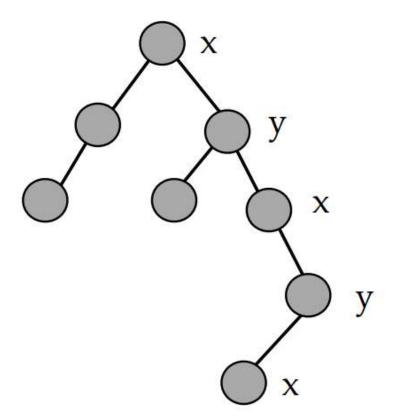
Paradox:

- it's expensive for large number of samples
- but we need large number of samples for kNN to work well!

Solution: kd-Tree

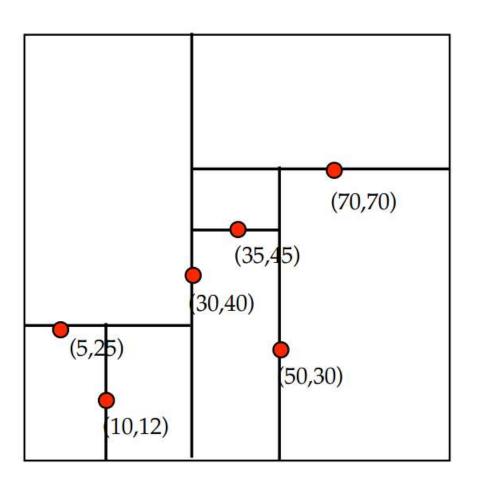
kd-Tree

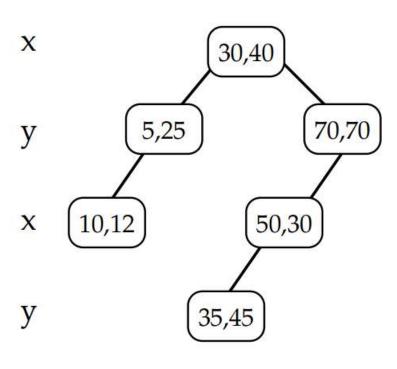
- Each level has a "cutting dimension"
- Cycle through the dimensions as you walk down the tree
- Each node contains a point P = (x', y')
- To find (x', y') you only compare coordinate from the cutting dimension
 - e.g. if cutting dimension is x, then you ask: is x' < x?



kd-Tree: Example

Insert: (30,40), (5,25), (10,12), (70,70), (50,30), (35,45)



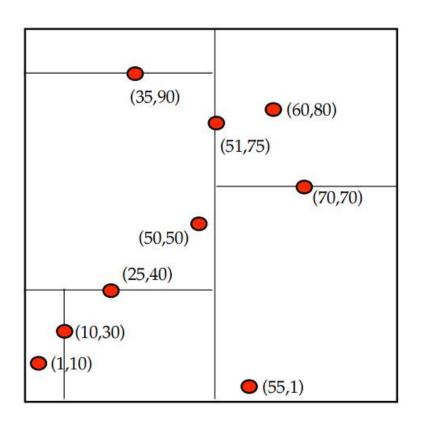


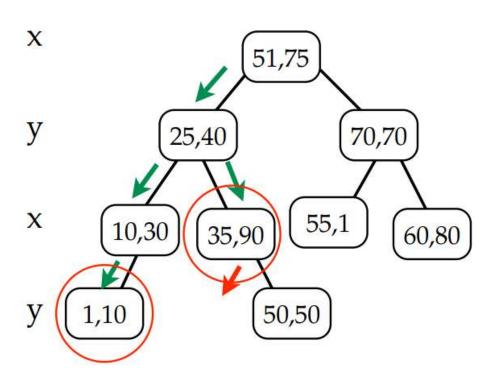
kd-Tree: FindMin

- FindMin(d): find the point with the smallest value in the d th dimension
- Recursively traverse the tree
 - If curr_dim = d, then the minimum can't be in right subtree, so recurse on just the left subtree
 - If curr_dim ≠ d, then the minimum could be in either subtree, so recurse on both subtree.

kd-Tree: FindMin

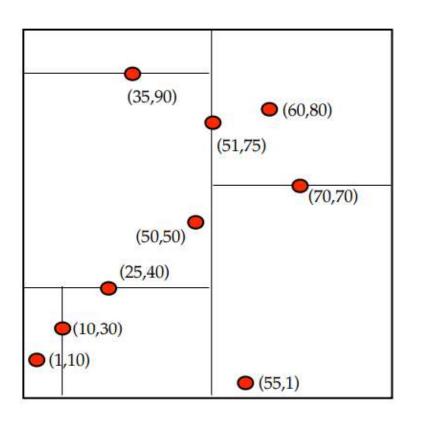
FindMin(x-dimension):

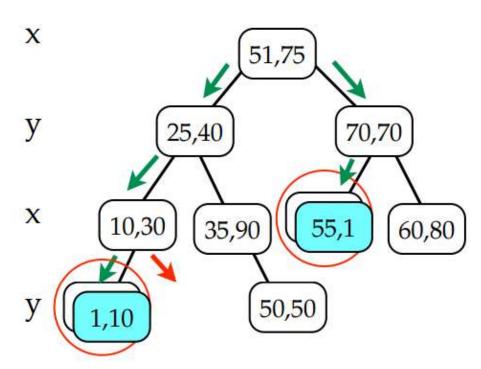




kd-Tree: FindMin

FindMin(y-dimension):





Nearest Neighbor Searching in kd-trees

 Nearest Neighbor Queries: given a point Q find the point P in the data set that is closest to Q

Algorithm:

Input: kd-tree of training data set, point x

Process:

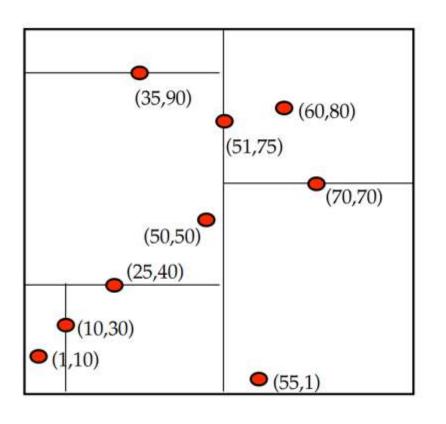
1. Recursive search:

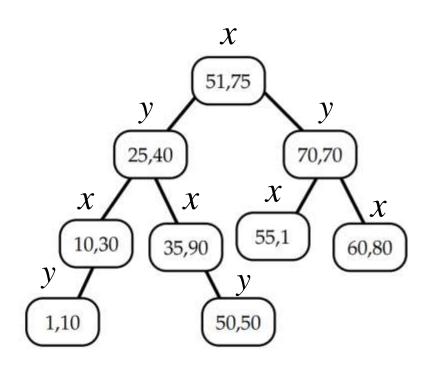
```
Value_{curr\ node}(curr\ dim) > x(curr\ dim)? TurnLeft: TurnRights
```

- 2. Take final node P as "current nearest neighbor"
- 3. Back to the upper nodes recursively:
 - move to neighbor tree of P, if exists closer node to x, update
- else, back to father node, till the root node Output: nearest neighbor of \mathcal{X}

Nearest Neighbor Searching in kd-trees

E.g. NN(52, 52):





Computation Complexity with kd-trees

Space Complexity: O(n) Search Complexity: $O(\log n)$ (avg)

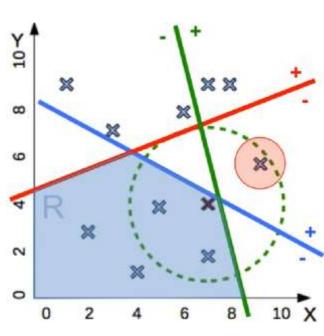
Limitation:

- Curse of dimensionality in high-dimensions
 - need to visit more branches
- When number of points is only slightly higher than the number of dimensions, only slightly better than linear search.

Solution: Locality-Sensitive Hashing (LSH)

Locality-Sensitive Hashing (LSH)

- Random hyper-planes $h_1...h_k$
 - space sliced into 2^k regions
 - compare x only to training points in the same region
- Complexity: $O(kd + dn/2^k) \approx O(d \log n)$
 - O(kd) to find region R, $k \ll n$
 - dot-product x with $h_1...h_k$
 - compare to $n/2^k$ points in R
 - dot-product X with each point
- Inexact: missed neighbors
 - repeat with different $h_1...h_k$



kNN Summary

- Advantages
 - very simple and intuitive
 - good classification if the number of samples is large enough
- Disadvantages
 - choosing best k may be difficult
 - computationally heavy, but improvements possible
 - need large number of samples for accuracy

Thanks!