

# K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) – Full Notes

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## 1 Definition

**K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)** is a **supervised machine learning algorithm** used for **classification and regression**, based on the idea that **similar data points exist close to each other**.

**KNN predicts the label of a new sample by looking at the 'K' closest labeled points in training data.**

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## 2 Real-Life Intuition

Imagine you moved to a new city and want to predict your personality type.

You look at **your 5 nearest neighbors (K=5)**—if **3 are extroverts** and **2 are introverts**, you say **you are extrovert**.

**Example:**

Nearest neighbors labels = [1, 1, 1, 0, 0]

Prediction = majority vote = 1

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## 3 Why do we need KNN?

Reason	Explanation
Easy & intuitive	Based on similarity concept
Works without assumptions	Non-parametric → no underlying distribution
Good baseline model	Simple, interpretable
Real world is similarity-based	Example: recommendation systems, medical diagnosis

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## 4 When did KNN come / why was it introduced?

KNN originated in **1951 (Fix & Hodges)** as a statistical method for **pattern classification**.  
It was introduced because many datasets do **not fit linear equations** like regression or SVM  
— **we need similarity-based models**.

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## 5 How KNN works (Step by Step)

**Given: New data point  $x$**

1. **Choose K** (number of neighbors)
  2. **Calculate distance** between  $x$  and all points
  3. **Sort distances** in ascending order
  4. **Pick first K nearest points**
  5. **Majority vote** → classification  
or **mean of neighbors** → regression
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## 6 Mathematical Explanation

### Distance Formula Used

Most common distance: **Euclidean Distance**

$$d(x,y)=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n(x_i-y_i)^2}$$

Other distances:

Metric	Formula	Use Case
Manhattan	$\sum  x_i - y_i $	

Minkowski  $(\sum x_i - y_i)$

Cosine similarity  $(\frac{A \cdot B}{\|A\| \|B\|})$

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## 7 Example Calculation

Assume we want to classify a new point  $X = (3, 4)$   
with 3 nearest neighbors ( $K=3$ )

Point	Class	Distance
(2,2)	0	$\sqrt{(3-2)^2 + (4-2)^2} = \sqrt{5}$
(4,4)	1	$\sqrt{(3-4)^2 + (4-4)^2} = 1$
(3,7)	1	3

Nearest 3 classes =  $[1, 1, 0]$

Prediction = 1

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## 8 Hyperparameters

Parameter	Meaning
$K$	number of neighbors
distance metric	euclidean, manhattan, cosine
weights	uniform / distance weighted
algorithm	brute, kd_tree, ball_tree

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## How to Choose the Best K in KNN

A commonly used **rule of thumb** is:

$$K = \sqrt{N}$$

Where:

- **K** = number of nearest neighbors
  - **N** = total number of training samples
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## Simple Example

If you have:

**N = 100 samples**

Then:

$$K = \sqrt{N} = \sqrt{100} = 10$$

So you should start with **K = 10** and then test other values near it (like 9, 11, 12).

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## Why this rule exists

- If **K is too small**, model becomes **noisy & overfits**  
→ sensitive to outliers
- If **K is too large**, model becomes **too simple / underfits**  
→ loses important patterns

Choosing K around  $\sqrt{N}$  gives a **balanced starting point**.

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Then you test 5–10 values near it using **cross-validation**.

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## Final Notes

- $\sqrt{N}$  is **only a starting point**, not exact best value always
  - You still tune K using **accuracy scores & validation curve**
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## One-line exam answer

We usually select K by starting around  $\sqrt{N}$  (square root of total samples), because too small K causes overfitting and too large K causes underfitting, and  $\sqrt{N}$  gives a balanced choice.

### Errors:

K small	K large
Overfitting	Underfitting
Highly sensitive to noise	Too generalized

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## Advantages & Disadvantages

### ✓ Advantages

- Simple to understand & implement
- Non-parametric (no assumption)
- Works well with small, clean datasets
- Flexible for classification & regression

### ✗ Disadvantages

- Slow prediction for large data
- Sensitive to irrelevant features & scaling

- Memory expensive
- Bad with high dimensional data

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## 11 Need for Feature Scaling

Because distance depends on value magnitude:

$$X' = \frac{X - \text{mean}}{\text{std}} \quad X' = \frac{X - \text{mean}}{\text{std}}$$

Example:

Height range: 150-200

Weight range: 40-80

Weight becomes less important → wrong results

So use: **StandardScaler** or **MinMaxScaler**

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## 12 Applications

Field	Use
Healthcare	cancer detection
Finance	credit score risk
Recommendation systems	movie similarity
Handwritten digits	MNIST dataset

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## 13 Python Code

```
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler




scaler = StandardScaler()
X_train = scaler.fit_transform(X_train)
```

```
X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)

knn = KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=5)
knn.fit(X_train, y_train)
y_pred = knn.predict(X_test)
```

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## 14 When not to use KNN

-  Very large datasets
  -  High-dimensional datasets
  -  Real-time prediction required
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## Summary in One Line

KNN predicts using similarity (distance) to nearest neighbors instead of learning a mathematical model.

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## Different Algorithms Used in KNN

When KNN predicts, it must **search for the K nearest points**.

Doing this on large datasets can be slow, so sklearn gives different search algorithms:

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## 1 Brute Force (Exhaustive Search)

### Definition

Compares the distance from the query point to **every other point** in the dataset.

### Time Complexity

$O(n \times d)$   $O(n \times d)$   $O(n \times d)$

$n$  = number of samples  
 $d$  = number of dimensions

## When to Use

- Small datasets
- Low dimensions
- Very accurate results

## Example

```
KNeighborsClassifier(algorithm='brute')
```

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## 2 KD-Tree (K-Dimensional Tree)

### Definition

A **binary tree structure** that divides data space into halves recursively.  
Used for **fast nearest neighbor search**.

### Time Complexity

Average:

$O(\log n)$

Worst case:

$O(n)$

### When to Use

Requirements	Reason
Numeric data	KD tree works only for numeric values
Low dimensions ( $d < 30$ )	Performance decreases when dimensions increase



## Example

```
KNeighborsClassifier(algorithm='kd_tree')
```

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## 3 Ball Tree

### Definition

Divides space into **hyperspheres (balls)** instead of splitting along axes (like KD-tree).  
Better for **high-dimensional and complex data**.

### Time Complexity

Better performance than KD-tree when dimensions are high.

### When to Use

Condition	Why
High-dimensional data	handles spherical clusters better
Mixed type distributions	more stable

## Example

```
KNeighborsClassifier(algorithm='ball_tree')
```

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## 4 Auto (Default)

### Definition

Automatically selects the best algorithm among:

```
kd_tree → ball_tree → brute
```

depending on data size & dimension.

## Example

```
KNeighborsClassifier(algorithm='auto')
```

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## Which algorithm is best?

Data Type	Best Algorithm
Small dataset	brute
Low dimensions ( $d < 30$ )	kd_tree
High dimensions	ball_tree
Not sure	auto

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## Why do we need these algorithms?

Because KNN is **slow during prediction**

$O(n)$  per prediction  $O(n)$  per prediction  $O(n)$  per prediction

To improve **speed / runtime**, we need efficient searching structures (KD tree, Ball tree).

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## Summary Table

Algorithm	Works How	Best Use	Weakness
Brute	checks every point	small dataset	slow for large data
KD-tree	axis split tree	low-d high speed	bad when dims high
Ball-tree	spherical clustering	high-dimensional	complex
Auto	auto selection	general usage	none

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## KNN Parameters Recap

```
KNeighborsClassifier(  
    n_neighbors=5,  
    weights='uniform',  
    metric='minkowski',  
    algorithm='auto'  
)
```

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## Interview Question

**Q: Why is KNN called a lazy learner?**

Because it does **not train a model** — it stores data and **waits until prediction time**, where it performs heavy computation.



## Final Answer (Simple)

**KNN is called a lazy learner because it does not build a model during training. Instead, it waits until prediction time and then performs all computations (like finding distances) to make a prediction.**