Lazy Learning Classification Using Nearest Neighbors

Things that are alike are likely to have properties that are alike.

Machine learning uses this principle to classify data by placing it in the same category as similar or "nearest" neighbors.

 classifying unlabeled examples by assigning them the class of similar labeled examples

extremely powerful

well-suited for classification tasks

- used successfully for
 - Computer vision applications, including optical character recognition and facial recognition in both still images and video
 - Predicting whether a person will enjoy a movie or music recommendation
 - Identifying patterns in genetic data, perhaps to use them in detecting specific proteins or diseases

- well-suited for classification tasks,
 - where relationships among the features and the target classes are numerous,
 - complicated, or extremely difficult to understand,
 - items of similar class type tend to be fairly homogeneous.

• If a concept is difficult to define, but you know it when you see it, then nearest neighbors might be appropriate.

• If the data is noisy and thus no clear distinction exists among the groups, the nearest neighbor algorithms may struggle to identify the class boundaries.

 nearest neighbors approach to classification is illustrated by the k-nearest neighbors algorithm (k-NN).

• One of the simplest machine learning algorithms, used widely.

Strengths and weaknesses of the algorithm

Strengths	Weaknesses
 Simple and effective Makes no assumptions about the underlying data distribution Fast training phase 	 Does not produce a model, limiting the ability to understand how the features are related to the class Requires selection of an appropriate k Slow classification phase Nominal features and missing data require additional processing

• The k-NN algorithm gets its name from the fact that it uses information about an example's k-nearest neighbors to classify unlabeled examples.

• The letter k is a variable term implying that any number of nearest neighbors could be used.

- After choosing k, the algorithm requires a training dataset made up of examples that have been classified into several categories, as labeled by a nominal variable.
- Then, for each unlabeled record in the test dataset, k-NN identifies k records in the training data that are the "nearest" in similarity.
- The unlabeled test instance is assigned the class of the majority of the k nearest neighbors.

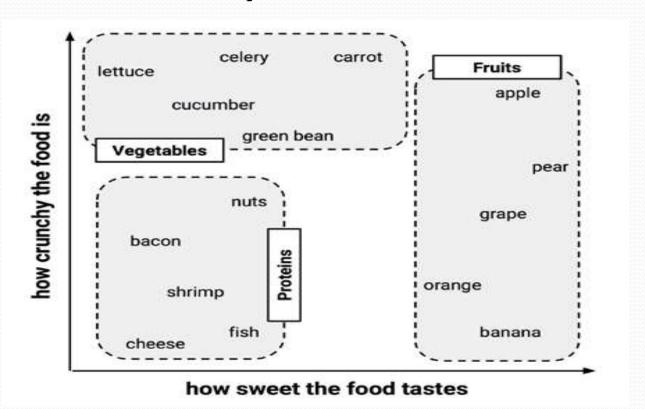
- The k-NN algorithm treats the features as coordinates in a multidimensional feature space.
- Dataset includes only two features, the feature space is two-dimensional.

Ingredient	Sweetness	Crunchiness	Food type
apple	10	9	fruit
bacon	1	4	protein
banana	10	1	fruit
carrot	7	10	vegetable
celery	3	10	vegetable
cheese	1	1	protein

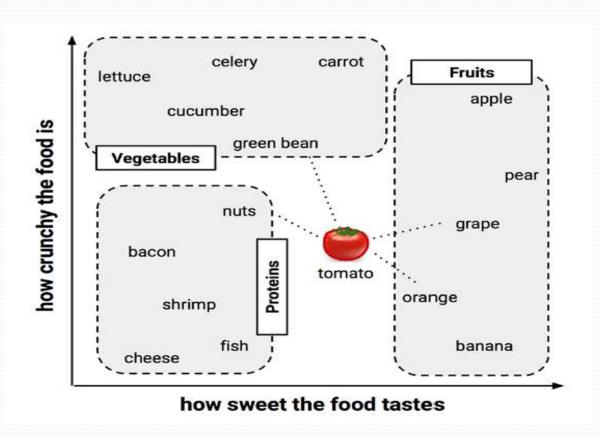
• A scatter plot, with the *x* dimension indicating the ingredient's sweetness and the *y* dimension, the crunchiness. After adding a few more ingredients to the taste dataset, the scatter plot might look similar to this:



- Similar types of food tend to be grouped closely together.
- Vegetables tend to be crunchy but not sweet, fruits tend to be sweet and either crunchy or not crunchy, while proteins tend to be neither crunchy nor sweet



- Is tomato a fruit or vegetable?
- We can use the nearest neighbor approach to determine which class is a better fit



• Locating the tomato's nearest neighbors requires a **distance function**, or a formula that measures the similarity between the two instances.

- There are many different ways to calculate distance.
- Traditionally, the k-NN algorithm uses **Euclidean distance**, which is the distance one would measure if it were possible to use a ruler to connect two points.

Euclidean distance formula

• dist (p,q) =
$$\sqrt{(p_1 - q_1)^2 + (p_2 - q_2)^2 + \dots + (p_n - q_n)^2}$$

- where p and q are the examples to be compared, each having n features.
- The term p₁ refers to the value of the first feature of example p,
- while q1 refers to the value of the first feature of example q.

- The distance formula involves comparing the values of each feature.
- For example, to calculate the distance between the tomato (*sweetness* = 6, *crunchiness* = 4), and the green bean (*sweetness* = 3, *crunchiness* = 7), we can use the formula as follows:
- dist (tomato, green bean) = $\sqrt{(6-3)^2 + (4-7)^2}$ = 4.2

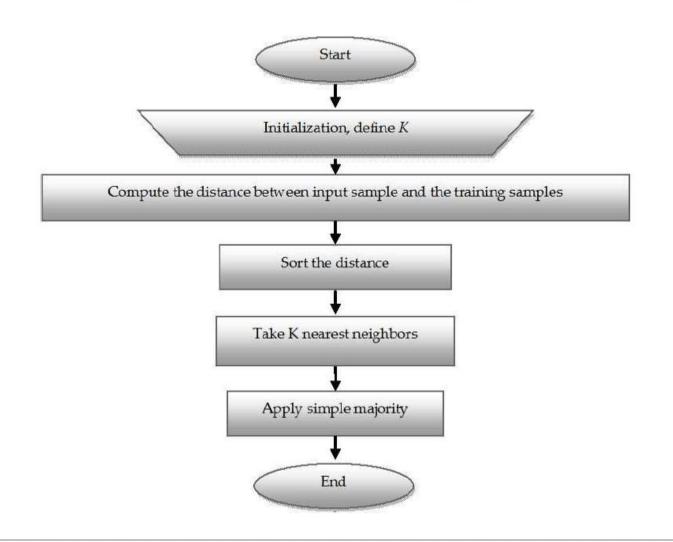
Similarly, we can calculate the distance between the tomato and several of its closest neighbors as follows:

Ingredien	Sweetnes	Crunchine	Food	Distance to the tomato
t	S	SS	type	Distance to the tomato
grape	8	5	fruit	$\sqrt{(6-8)^2 + (4-5)^2}) =$ 2.2
green bean	3	7	vegetabl e	$\sqrt{(6-3)^2 + (4-7)^2} = 4.2$
Nuts	3	6	protein	$\sqrt{(6-3)^2 + (4-6)^2} = 3.6$
Orange	7	3	Fruit	$\sqrt{(6-7)^2 + (4-3)^2} = 1_{4}$

- To classify the tomato as a vegetable, protein, or fruit, we'll begin by assigning the tomato, the food type of its single nearest neighbor.
- This is called 1-NN classification because *k* = 1. The orange is the nearest neighbor to the tomato, with a distance of 1.4.
- As orange is a fruit, the 1-NN algorithm would classify tomato as a fruit.

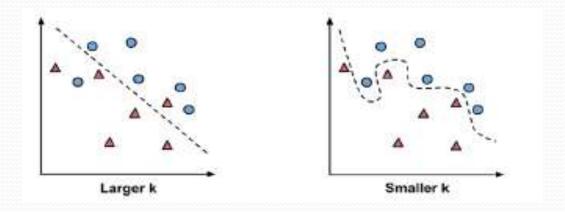
- If we use the k-NN algorithm with k = 3 instead, it performs a vote among the three nearest neighbors: orange, grape, and nuts.
- Since the majority class among these neighbors is fruit (two of the three votes), the tomato again is classified as a fruit.

KNN Classifier Algorithm



- How many neighbors to use for k-NN determines how well the model will generalize to future data.
- The balance between overfitting and underfitting the training data is a problem known as **bias-variance tradeoff**.
- Choosing a large *k* reduces the impact or variance caused by noisy data, but can bias the learner so that it runs the risk of ignoring small, but important patterns.

• Obviously, the best *k* value is somewhere between these two extremes.



- Choosing *k* depends on the difficulty of the concept to be learned, and the number of records in the training data.
- One common practice is to begin with *k* equal to the square root of the number of training examples.
- If there are 15 example ingredients in the training data and the square root of 15 is 3.87. we might set k=4.

- However, such rules may not always result in the single best *k*.
- An alternative approach is to test several *k* values on a variety of test datasets and choose the one that delivers the best classification performance.
- That said, unless the data is very noisy, a large training dataset can make the choice of *k* less important.

- A less common, but interesting solution to this problem is to choose a larger *k*,
- but apply a **weighted voting** process in which the vote of the closer neighbors is considered more authoritative than the vote of the far away neighbors.
- Many k-NN implementations offer this option.

- Features are typically transformed to a standard range prior to applying the k-NN algorithm
- Since distance formula is highly dependent on how features are measured
- if certain features have a much larger range of values than the others, the distance measurements will be strongly dominated by the features with larger ranges

- The solution is to rescale the features by shrinking or expanding their range such that each one contributes relatively equally to the distance formula.
- The traditional method of rescaling features for k-NN is min-max normalization
- This process transforms a feature such that all of its values fall in a range between o and
 1.

min-max normalization formula

$$X_{\text{new}} = \frac{X - \min(X)}{\max(X) - \min(X)}$$

- Another common transformation is called z-score standardization. The following formula subtracts the mean value of feature X, and divides the outcome by the standard deviation of X:
- The z-scores fall in an unbound range of negative and positive numbers.

$$X_{\text{new}} = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{X - \text{Mean}(X)}{\text{StdDev}(X)}$$

- The Euclidean distance formula is not defined for nominal data.
- Therefore, to calculate the distance between nominal features, we need to convert them into a numeric format.
- A typical solution utilizes **dummy coding**, where a value of *i* indicates one category, and *o*, the other.

$$male = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = male \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Why is the k-NN algorithm lazy?

- Under the strict definition of learning, a lazy learner is not really learning anything.
- Abstraction and generalization processes are skipped
- It merely stores the training data.
- This allows the training phase, which is not actually training anything, to occur very rapidly.
- Due to the heavy reliance on the training instances rather than an abstracted model, lazy learning is also known as **instance-based learning** or **rote learning**.

Why is the k-NN algorithm lazy?

- As instance-based learners do not build a model, the method is said to be in a class of non-parametric learning methods—no parameters are learned about the data.
- Without generating theories about the underlying data, non-parametric methods limit our ability to understand how the classifier is using the data.