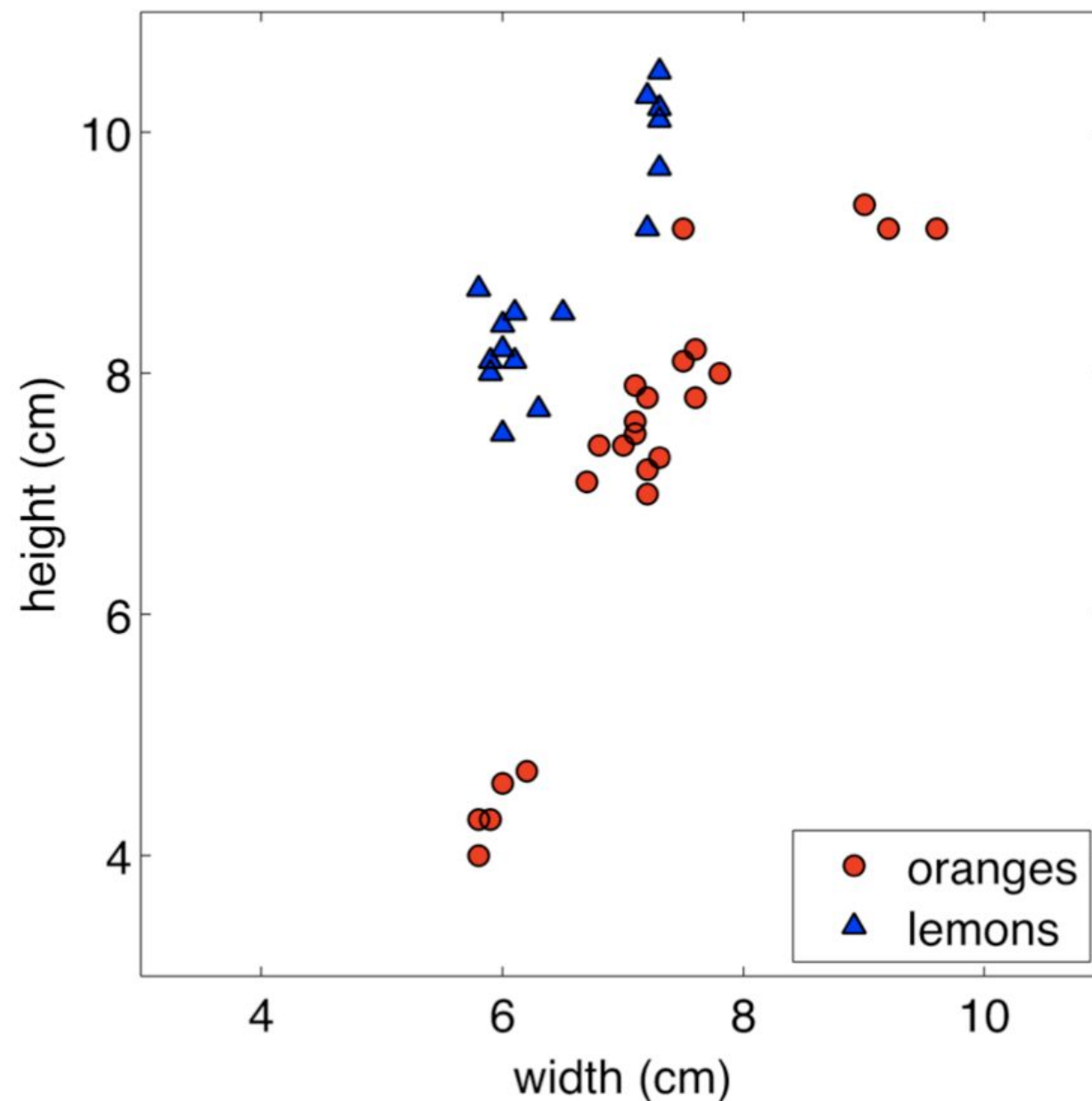


The background of the slide features a large, faint, circular watermark of the University of Padua seal. The seal contains the Latin text "UNIVERSITAS STUDII PADUENSIS" around the perimeter and "MCCXXII" at the bottom. In the center is a shield with two figures: on the left, a woman holding a wheel and a staff; on the right, a man holding a staff and a book. There are also stars above the figures.

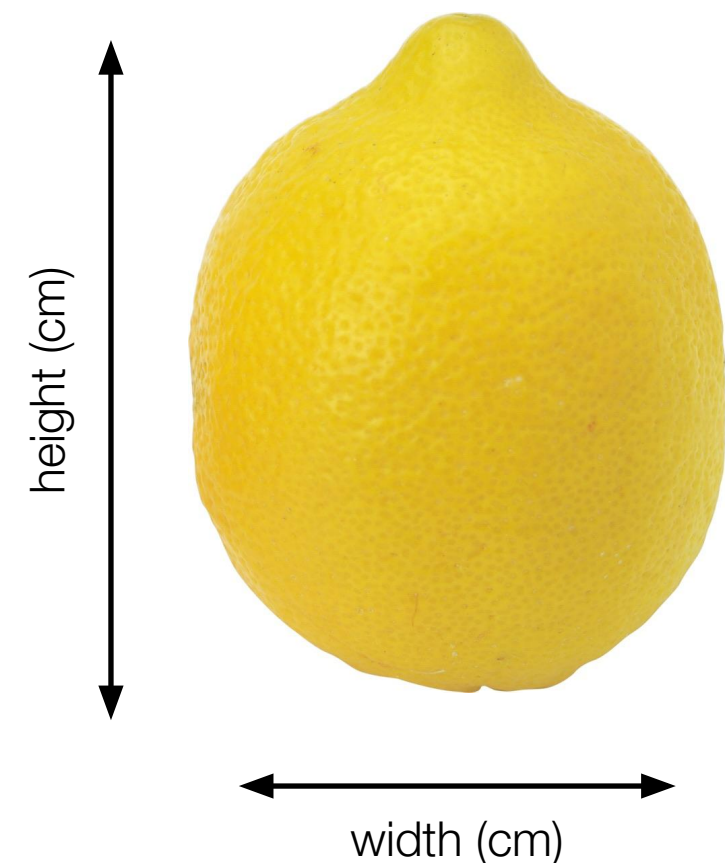
# k-Nearest Neighbors

# Intuition

- An example: “oranges” vs “lemons”



Binary classifier based on two simple features:



# Nearest Neighbors

- Assume that your training examples corresponds to points in d-dimensional Euclidean space
  - Key idea: the value of the target function for a new sample is estimated from the known (stored) training examples
    - This is done by computing distances between the new sample and all the training samples
    - Decision rule: assign the label of the nearest example

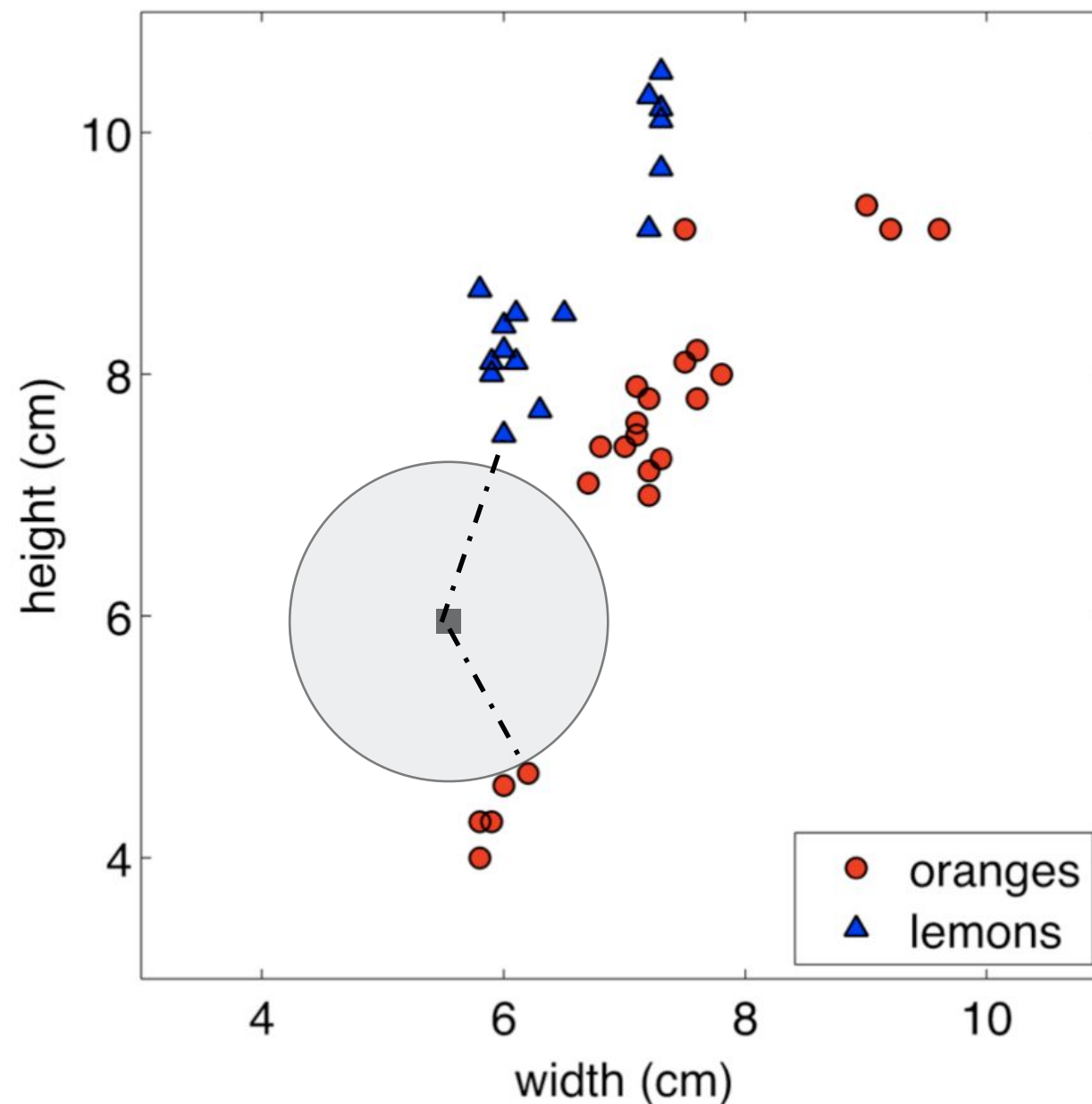
## Algorithm:

Find  $(x^*, y^*)$  (from the stored training set) closest to the test sample  $x$

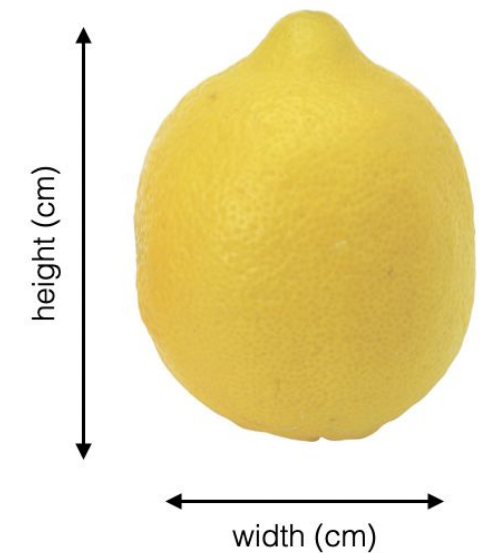
i.e.  $x^* = \arg \min_{x^{(i)} \in \text{TrainSet}} \text{Distance}(x^{(i)}, x)$ . Output:  $y = y^*$

# Nearest Neighbors

- An example: “oranges” vs “lemons”



Binary classifier  
based on two  
simple features:



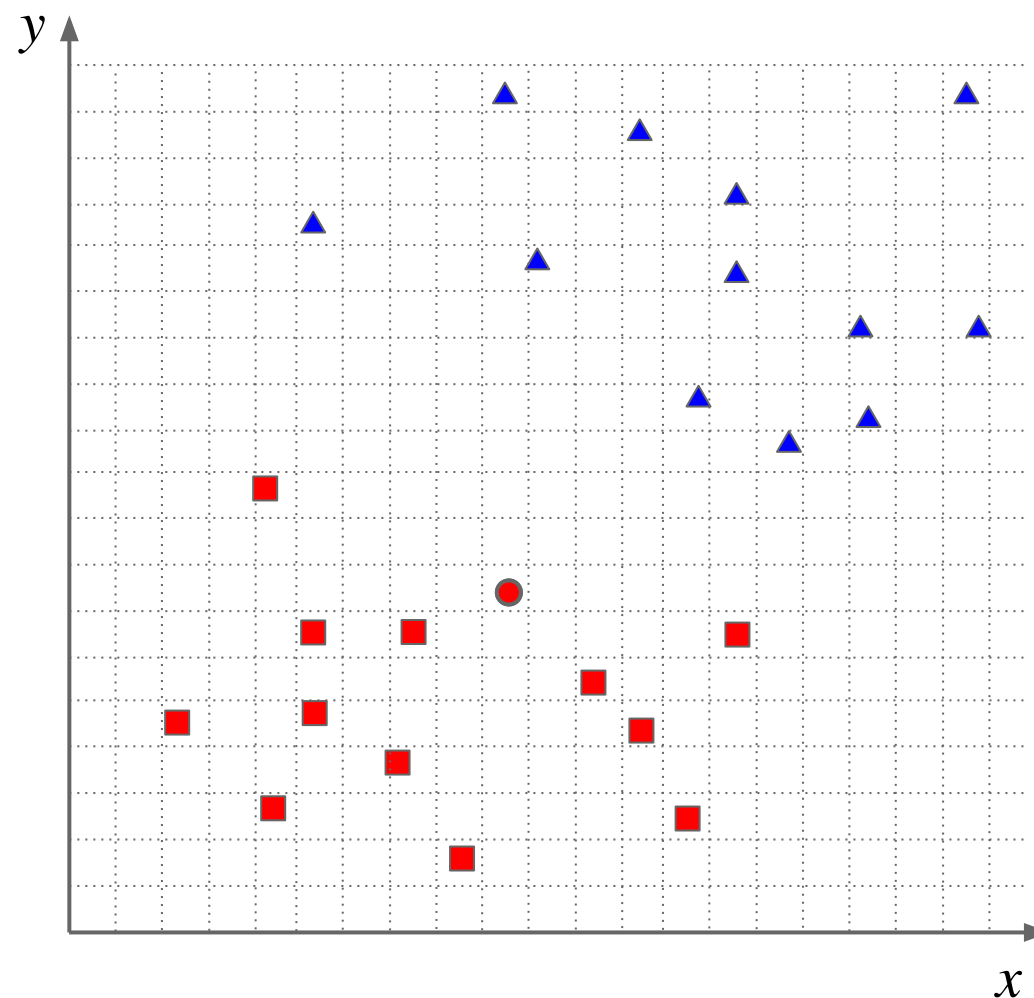
$$= |X - Y| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

# Nearest Neighbor classifier

- Compute distances (Euclidean):

$$d = \text{sqrt}((x_q - x_p)^2 + (y_q - y_p)^2)$$

▲ Class 1  
■ Class 2



$x_q$	$y_q$
10	8

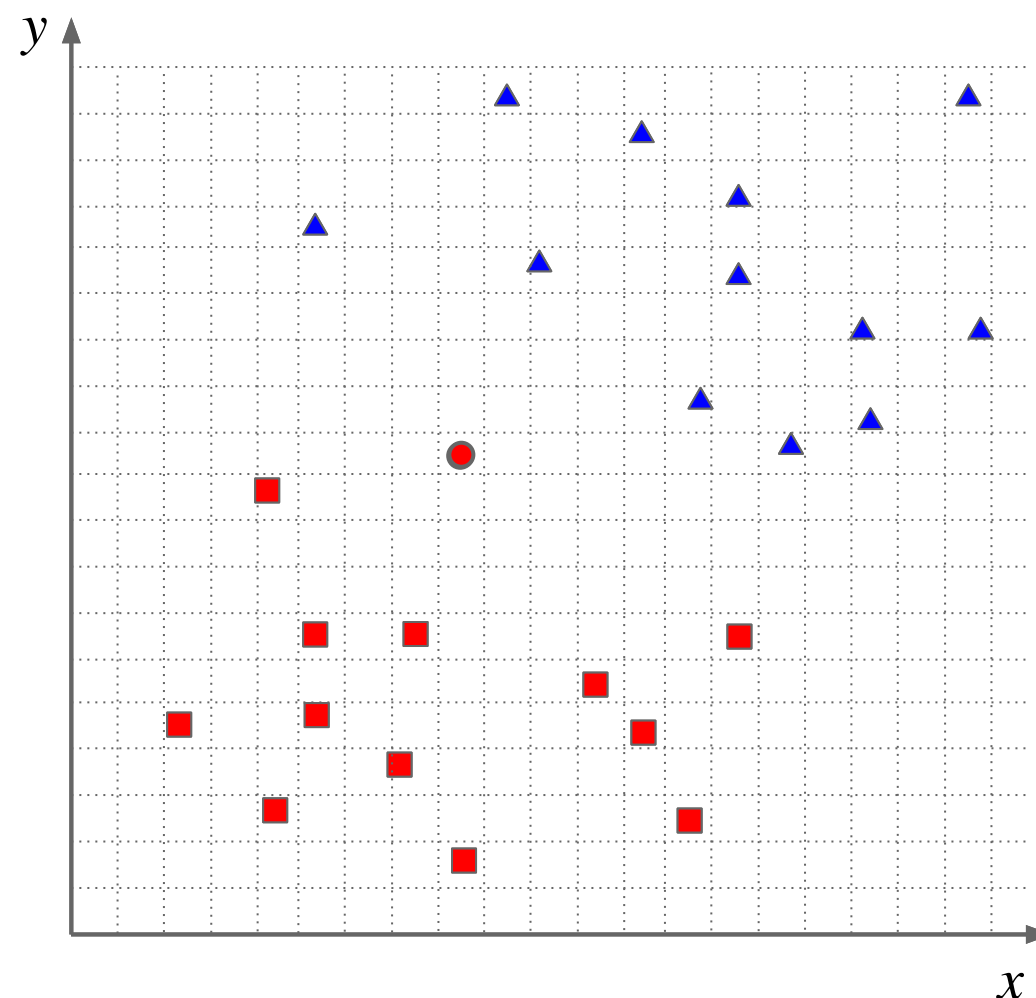
$x_q$	$y_q$	$d$	$x_q$	$y_q$	$d$
9	2	6.1	16	11	6.7
5	3	7.1	14	12	5.7
14	3	6.4	18	12	8.9
8	4	4.5	18	14	10
3	5	7.6	20	14	11.7
6	5	5.0	11	15	7.1
13	5	4.2	15	15	8.6
12	6	2.8	6	16	8.9
6	7	4.1	15	17	10.3
8	7	2.2	13	18	10.4
15	7	5.1	10	19	11
5	10	5.4	20	19	14.9
15	7		10	19	
5	10		20	19	

# Nearest Neighbor classifier

- Compute distances (Euclidean):

$$d = \text{sqrt}((x_q - x_p)^2 + (y_q - y_p)^2)$$

▲ Class 1  
■ Class 2

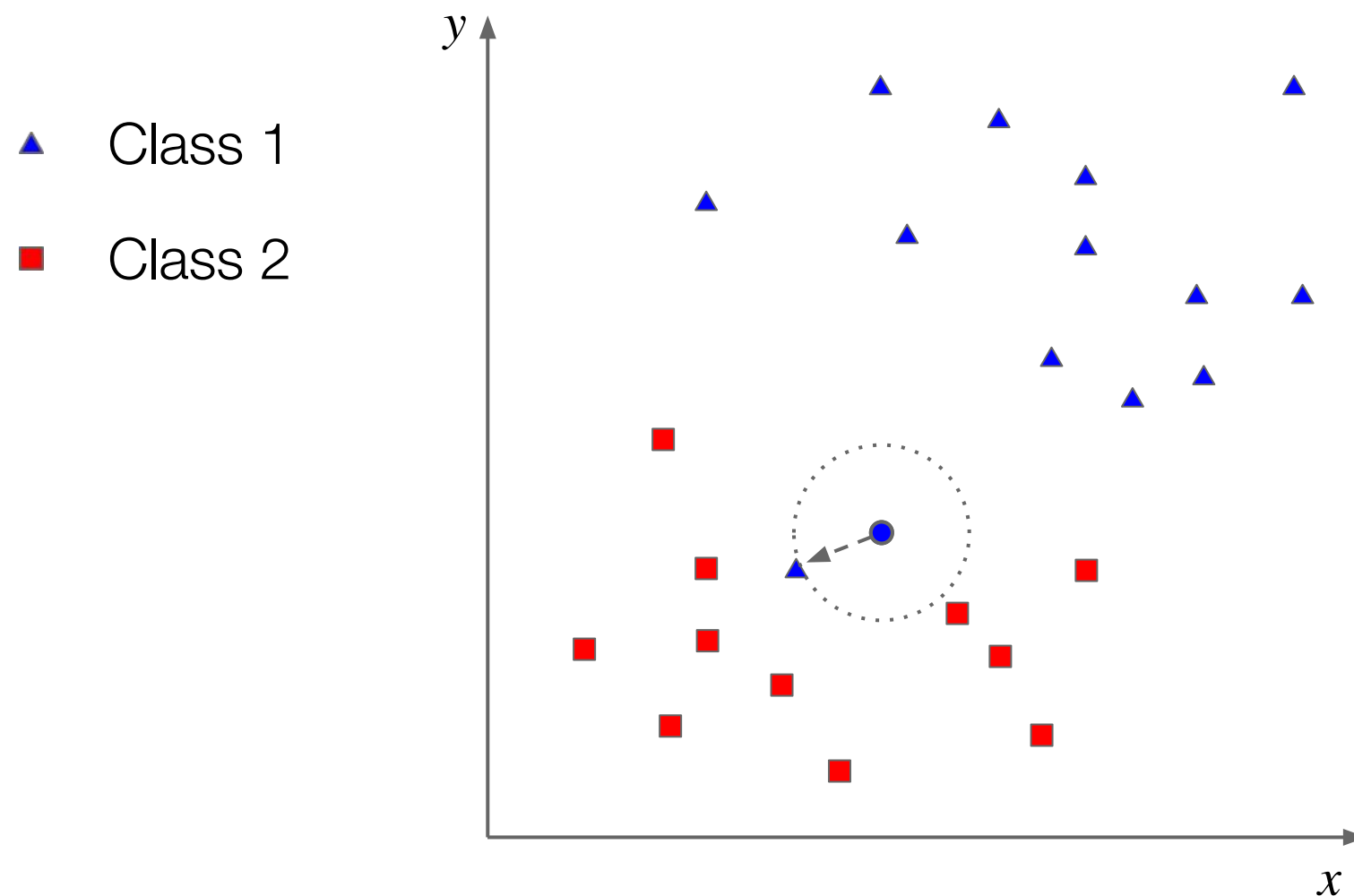


$x_q$	$y_q$
9	11

$x_q$	$y_q$	$d$	$x_q$	$y_q$	$d$
9	2	9.0	16	11	7.0
5	3	8.9	14	12	5.1
14	3	9.4	18	12	9.1
8	4	7.1	18	14	9.5
3	5	8.5	20	14	11.4
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13	5	7.2	15	15	7.2
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8	7	4.1	13	18	8.1
15	7	7.2	10	19	8.1
5	10	4.1	20	19	13.6
15	7		10	19	
5	10		20	19	

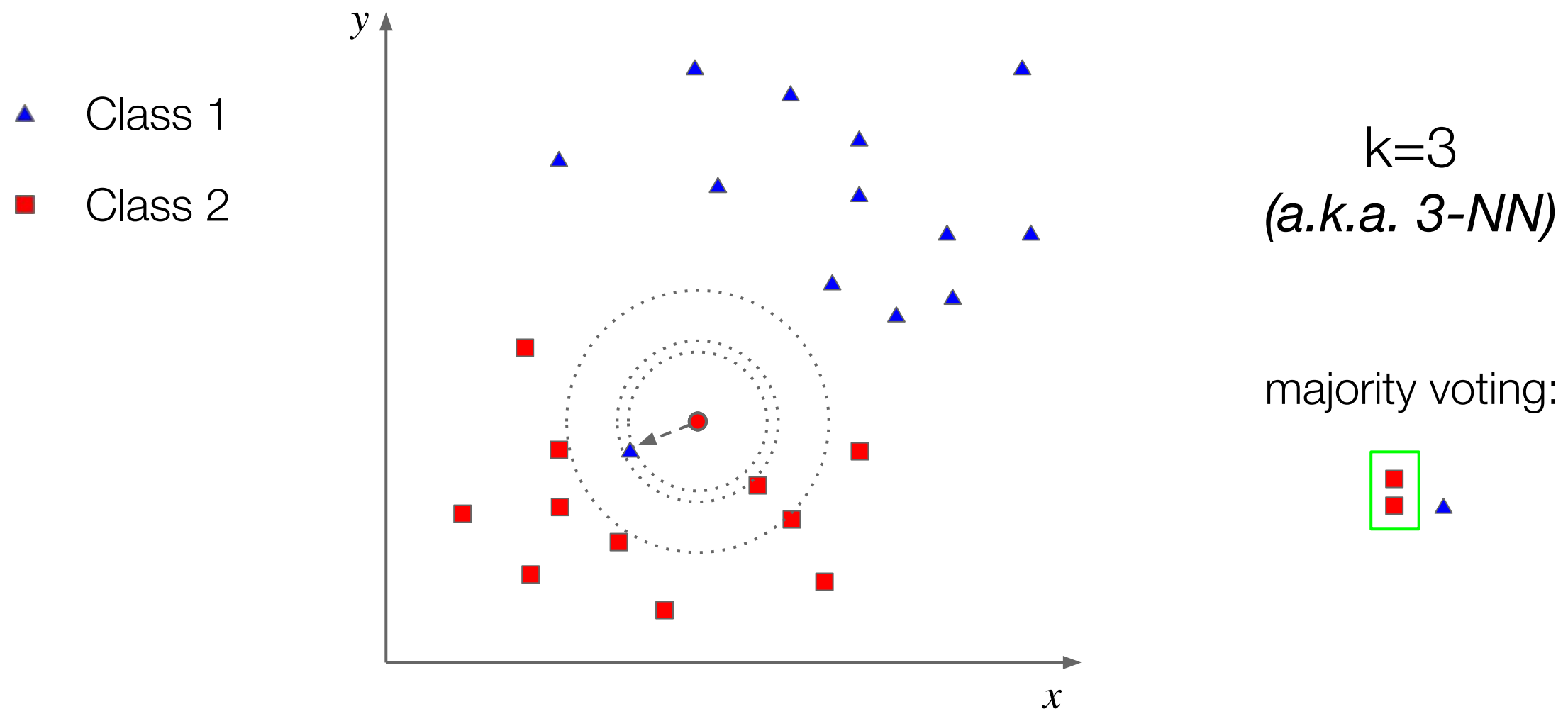
# Nearest Neighbor classifier

- NN is sensitive to the outliers!



# k-Nearest Neighbors classifier

- A “generalization”: from NN to k-NN





# k-Nearest Neighbors

- Assume that your training examples corresponds to points in d-dimensional Euclidean space
  - Key idea: the value of the target function for a new sample is estimated from the known (stored) training examples
    - This is done by computing distances between the new sample and all the training samples
    - Decision rule: assign the label of the majority class among the k nearest neighbors

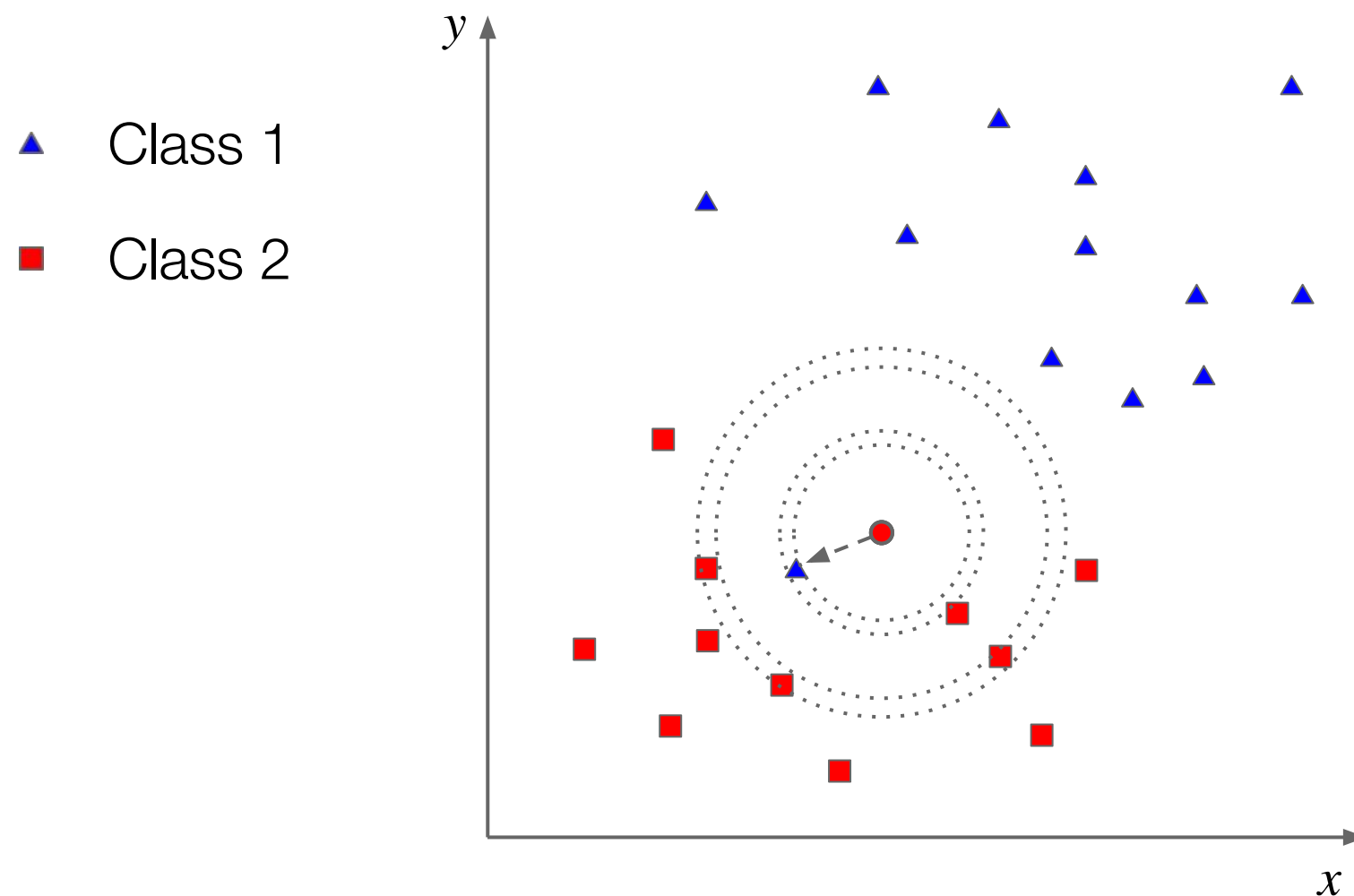
## Algorithm:

Find  $k$  examples  $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$  (from training set) closest to the test sample  $x$

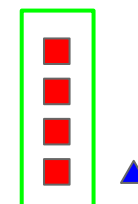
Output:  $y = \operatorname{argmax}_{y^{(z)}} \sum_{j=1}^k \delta(y^{(z)}, y^{(j)})$

# k-Nearest Neighbors classifier

- Small k: sensitive to outliers

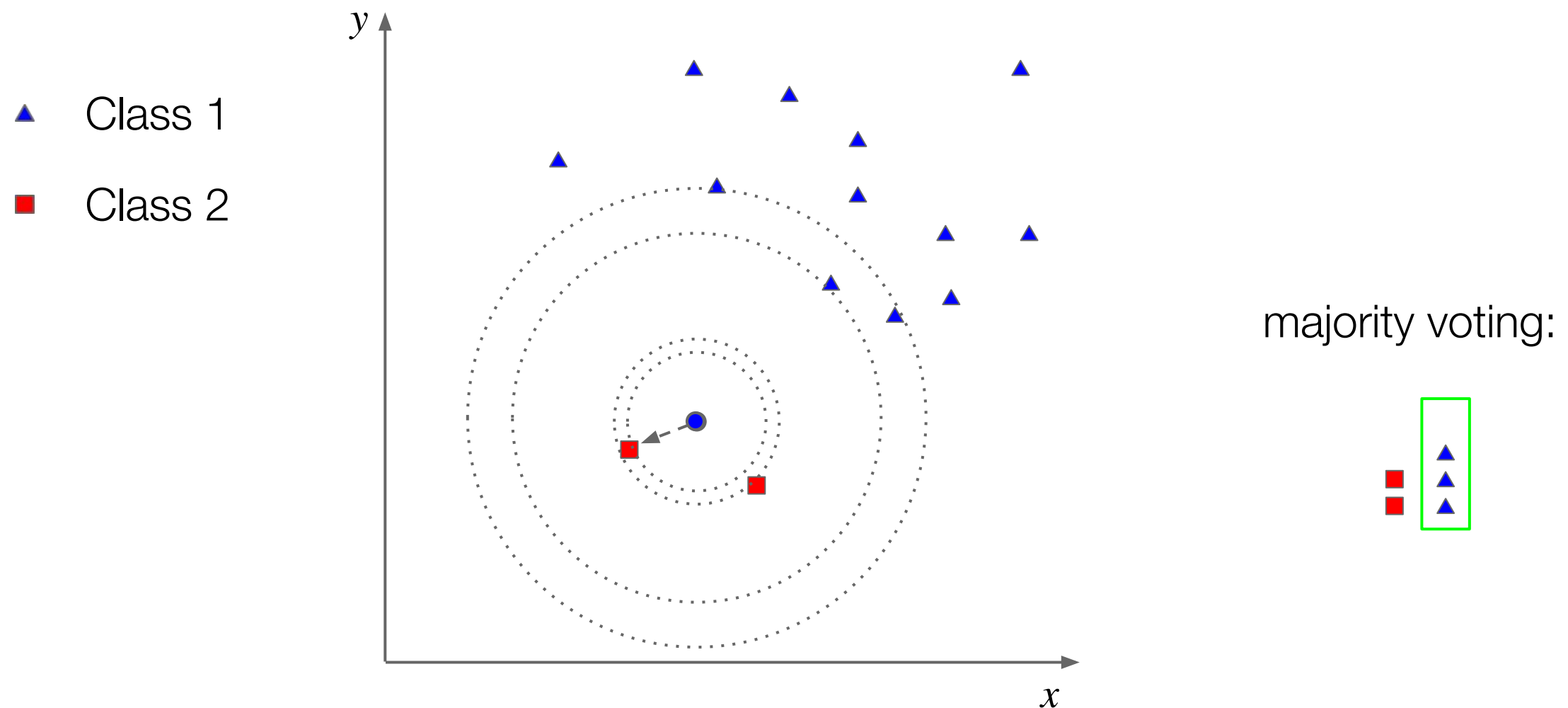


majority voting:



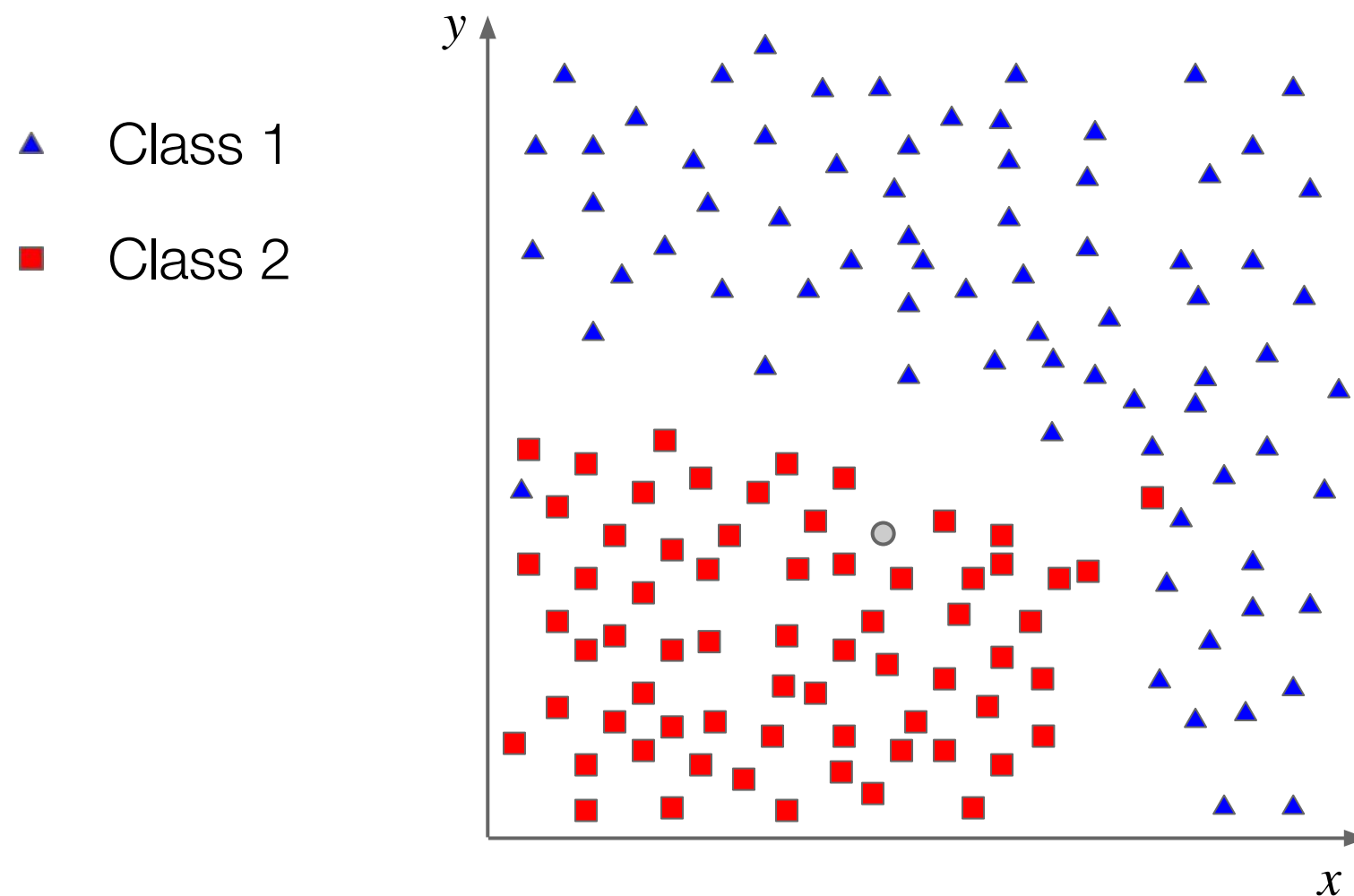
# k-Nearest Neighbors classifier

- Parameter  $k$  has a very strong effect
  - Large  $k$ : everything is classified as the most frequent class



# k-Nearest Neighbors classifier

the more data, the better! .. we might have issues with areas not well covered



# k-Nearest Neighbors classifier

- k-NN recipe: how do we choose  $k$ ?
  - Large  $k$  may lead to better performance (if the training set is sufficiently large)
  - If we pick  $k$  too large we may end up looking at examples that are not “real” neighbors (are far away the test sample)

# Hyperparameter Selection

- For knn,  $k$  (the number of nearest neighbours) is an **hyperparameter**
- Different hyperparameters will affect how model generalizes over unknown data points
- How do we calculate the optimal hyperparameter?
  - The process is called **model selection**
    - we will see how we can do model validation in the next set of slides

# Limitations of KNN

- Think about the inference stage, what do we need to compute the classification?

# Limitations of KNN

- Think about the inference stage, what do we need to compute the classification?
  - The **entire training set**
    - it means that every time we want to infer the class of a data point
    - We need to compute its distance for each training point
    - Computationally expensive at testing time!!



# Limitations of KNN

- What about the impact of the features?

# Limitations of KNN

- What about the impact of the features?
  - In the exemple, we used height and width, which are expressed with the same unit measure
  - What if it was height, width, and weight? how do you compare cm and grams?
- A possible solution is called feature scaling
  - e.g., Each numerical feature is transformed in a range [0, 1]
  - e.g., have each feature with mean = 0 and variance = 1

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

# k-NN Summary

- k-NN naturally forms complex decision boundaries; it adapts to data density
- If we have lots of samples, k-NN typically works well
- Main limitations/problems:
  - Sensitive to class noise and scales of features (attributes)
  - Distances are less meaningful in high dimensions
  - Scales linearly with number of training examples: i.e. it is extremely expensive at test time

# Restriction Bias

- How we Limit the Hypothesis Space
- KNN does not explicitly restrict the hypothesis space to a predefined set of functions like parametric models (e.g., linear regression). However, it implicitly limits the hypothesis space by assuming that:
  - The possible hypotheses are constrained to those that assign labels based on local neighborhoods.
  - The function is **non-parametric**, meaning it does not assume any specific functional form (e.g., linear or polynomial).

# Preference Bias

- How we Order the Hypothesis Space
  - As we do not learn a real algorithm, we do not assume explicitly an “order” of the hypotheses
- KNN makes implicit assumptions about the data distribution and prioritizes certain hypotheses over others:
  - Locality assumption: Closer points are more relevant for classification or regression.
  - Majority rule: In classification, the label is determined by the majority vote within the neighborhood, preferring piecewise constant decision boundaries (region-based).
  - Distance metric matters: The preference is heavily influenced by the choice of the distance metric (e.g., Euclidean, Manhattan).