

Instance Based Learning

Based on “Machine Learning”, T. Mitchell, McGRAW Hill, 1997, ch. 8

Acknowledgement:

The present slides are an adaptation of slides drawn by T. Mitchell

Key ideas:

training: simply store all training examples

classification: compute only locally the target function

inductive bias:

the classification of query/test instance x_q will be most similar to the classification of training instances that are nearby

Advantages:

can learn very complex target functions

training is very fast

don't lose information

robust to noisy training

Disadvantages:

slow at query time

easily fooled by irrelevant attributes

Methods

1. k -Nearest Neighbor;
Distance-weighted k -NN
2. A generalization of k -NN:
Locally weighted regression
3. Combining instance-based learning and neural networks:
Radial basis function networks

1. k -Nearest Neighbor Learning

[E. Fix, J. Hodges, 1951]

Training:

Store all training examples

Classification:

Given a query/test instance x_q ,

first locate the k nearest training examples x_1, \dots, x_k ,

then estimate $\hat{f}(x_q)$:

- in case of **discrete-valued** $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow V$,
take a vote among its k nearest neighbors

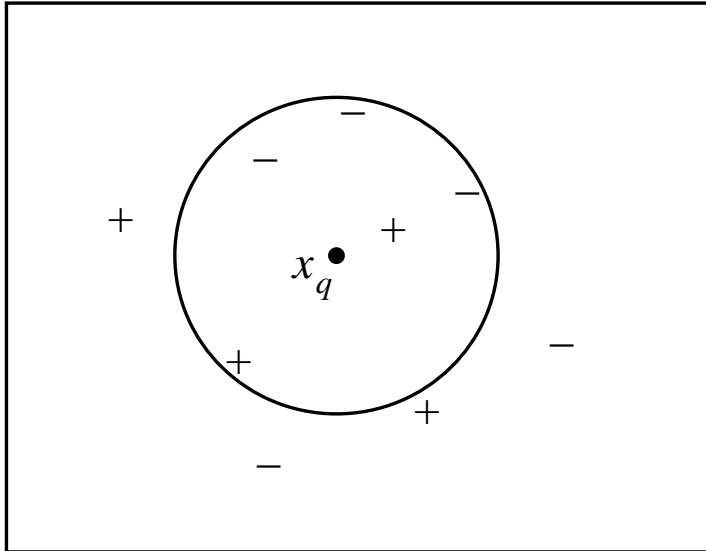
$$\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{v \in V} \sum_{i=1}^k \delta(v, f(x_i))$$

where $\delta(a, b) = 1$ if $a = b$, and $\delta(a, b) = 0$ if $a \neq b$

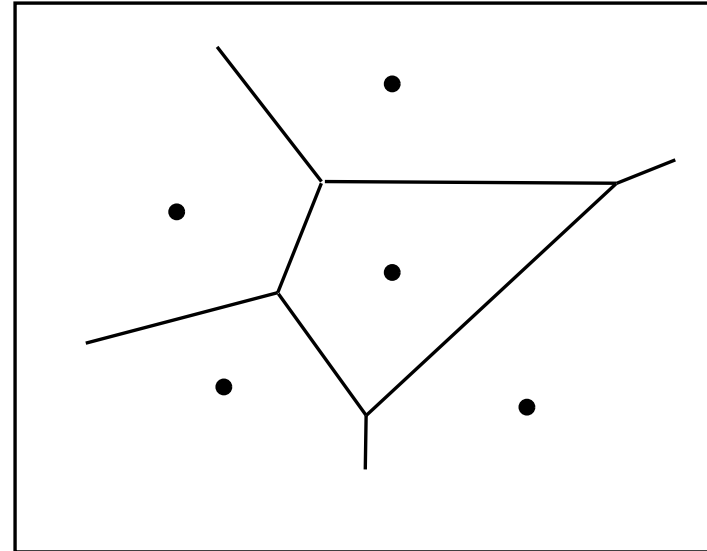
- in case of **continuous-valued** f ,
take the mean of the f values of its k nearest neighbors

$$\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i)}{k}$$

Illustrating k -NN; Voronoi Diagram



Note that
1-NN classifies x_q as +
5-NN classifies x_q as -



Above: The decision surface induced
by 1-NN for a set of training examples.

The convex polygon surrounding each training
example indicates the region of the instance space
closest to that examples;

1-NN will assign them the same classification as
the corresponding training example.

When To Consider k -Nearest Neighbor

- instances map to points in \mathbb{R}^n
- less than 20 attributes per instance
- lots of training data

Efficient memory indexing for the retrieval of the nearest neighbors

kd-trees ([Bentley, 1975] [Friedman, 1977])

Each leaf node stores a training instance. Nearby instances are stored at the same (or nearby) nodes.

The internal nodes of the tree sort the new query x_q to the relevant leaf by testing selected attributes of x_q .

k -NN: The Curse of Dimensionality

Note: k -NN is easily misled when X is highly-dimensional, i.e. irrelevant attributes may dominate the decision!

Example:

Imagine instances described by $n = 20$ attributes, but only 2 are relevant to the target function. Instances that have identical values for the 2 attributes may be distant from x_q in the 20-dimensional space.

Solution:

- Stretch the j -th axis by weight z_j , where z_1, \dots, z_n are chosen so to minimize the prediction error.
- Use an approach similar to cross-validation to automatically choose values for the weights z_1, \dots, z_n (see [Moore and Lee, 1994]).
- Note that setting z_j to zero eliminates this dimension altogether.

A k -NN Variant: Distance-Weighted k -NN

We might want to weight nearer neighbors more heavily:

- for discrete-valued f : $\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{v \in V} \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \delta(v, f(x_i))$

where

$$w_i \equiv \frac{1}{d(x_q, x_i)^2}$$

$d(x_q, x_i)$ is the distance between x_q and x_i

but if $x_q = x_i$ we take $\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow f(x_i)$

- for continuous-valued f : $\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i f(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i}$

Remark: Now it makes sense to use *all* training examples instead of just k . In this case k -NN is known as **Shepard's method** (1968).

A link to Bayesian Learning (Ch. 6)

k -NN: Behavior in the Limit

Let $p(x)$ be the probability that the instance x will be labeled 1 (positive) versus 0 (negative).

k -Nearest neighbor:

- If the number of training examples $\rightarrow \infty$ and k gets large, k -NN approaches the **Bayes optimal** learner.

Bayes optimal: if $p(x) > 0.5$ then predict 1, else 0.

Nearest neighbor ($k = 1$):

- If the number of training examples $\rightarrow \infty$, 1-NN approaches the **Gibbs algorithm**.

Gibbs algorithm: with probability $p(x)$ predict 1, else 0.

2. Locally Weighted Regression

Note that k -NN forms a local approximation to f for each query point x_q

Why not form an explicit approximation $\hat{f}(x)$ for the region surrounding x_q :

- Fit a **linear function** (or: a quadratic function, a multi-layer neural net, etc.) to k nearest neighbors

$$\hat{f} = w_0 + w_1 a_1(x) + \dots + w_n a_n(x)$$

where $a_1(x), \dots, a_n(x)$ are the attributes of the instance x .

- Produce a “piecewise approximation” to f , by learning w_0, w_1, \dots, w_n

Minimizing the Error in Locally Weighted Regression

- Squared error over k nearest neighbors

$$E_1(x_q) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in k \text{ nearest nbrs of } x_q} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2$$

- Distance-weighted squared error over all neighbors

$$E_2(x_q) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in D} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2 K(d(x_q, x))$$

where the “kernel” function K decreases over $d(x_q, x)$

- A combination of the above two:

$$E_3(x_q) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in k \text{ nearest nbrs of } x_q} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2 K(d(x_q, x))$$

In this case, applying the gradient descent method, we obtain the training rule $w_j \leftarrow w_j + \Delta w_j$, where

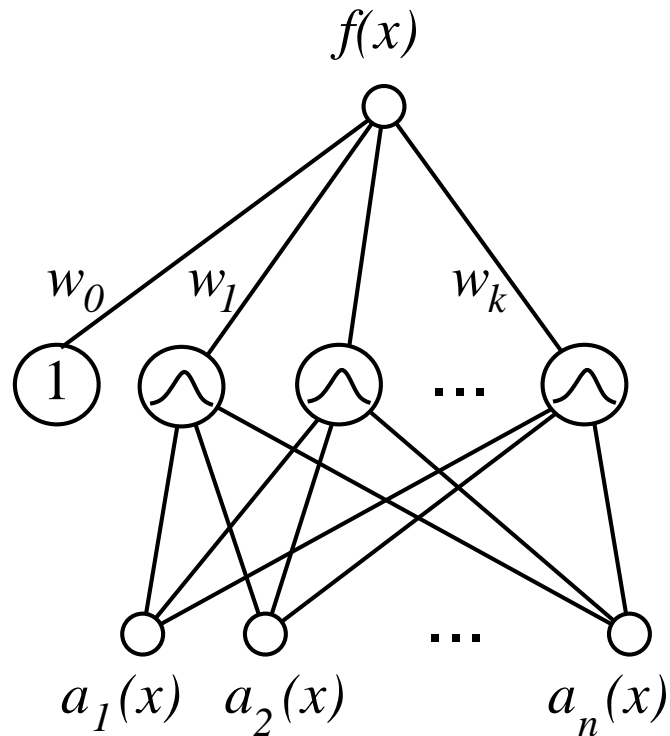
$$\Delta w_j = \eta \sum_{x \in k \text{ nearest nbrs of } x_q} K(d(x_q, x))(f(x) - \hat{f}(x))a_j(x)$$

Combining instance-based learning and neural networks:

3. Radial Basis Function Networks

- Compute a global approximation to the target function f , in terms of linear combination of local approximations (“kernel” functions).
- Closely related to distance-weighted regression, but “eager” instead of “lazy”.
- Can be thought of as a different kind of (two-layer) neural networks: The hidden units compute the values of kernel functions. The output unit computes f as a linear combination of kernel functions.
- Used, e.g. for image classification, where the assumption of spatially local influences is well-justified.

Radial Basis Function Networks



a_i are the attributes describing the instances.

Target function:

$$f(x) = w_0 + \sum_{u=1}^k w_u K_u(d(x_u, x))$$

The kernel functions are commonly chosen as Gaussians:

$$K_u(d(x_u, x)) \equiv e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} d^2(x_u, x)}$$

The activation of hidden units will be close to 0 unless x is close to x_u .

As it will be shown on the next slide, the two layers are trained separately (therefore more efficiently than in NNs).

Training Radial Basis Function Networks

Q1: What x_u to use for each kernel function $K_u(d(x_u, x))$:

- use the training instances;
- or scatter them throughout the instance space, either uniformly or non uniformly (reflecting the distribution of training instances);
- or form prototypical clusters of instances, and take one K_u centered at each cluster.

We can use the EM algorithm (see Ch. 6.12) to automatically choose the mean (and perhaps variance) for each K_u .

Q2: How to train the weights:

- hold K_u fixed, and train the linear output layer to get w_i

Theorem
[Hartman *et al.*, 1990]

The function f can be approximated with arbitrarily small error, provided

- a sufficiently large k , and
- the width σ_u^2 of each kernel K_u can be separately specified.

Remark

Instance-based learning was also applied to instance spaces $X \neq \mathbb{R}^n$, usually with rich **symbolic logic** descriptions. Retrieving similar instances in this case is much more elaborate. It is

This learning method, known as **Case-Based Reasoning**, was applied for instance to

- conceptual design of mechanical devices,
based on a stored library of previous designs
[Sycara, 1992]
- reasoning about new legal cases,
based on previous rulings
[Ashley, 1990]
- scheduling problems,
by reusing/combining portions of solutions to similar problems
[Veloso, 1992]