



# CS 4375

## Nearest Neighbor Methods

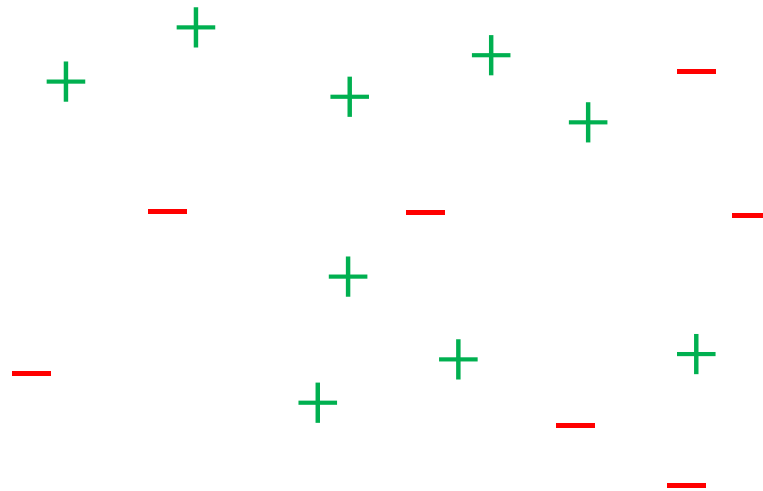
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University of Texas at Dallas

# Nearest Neighbor Methods

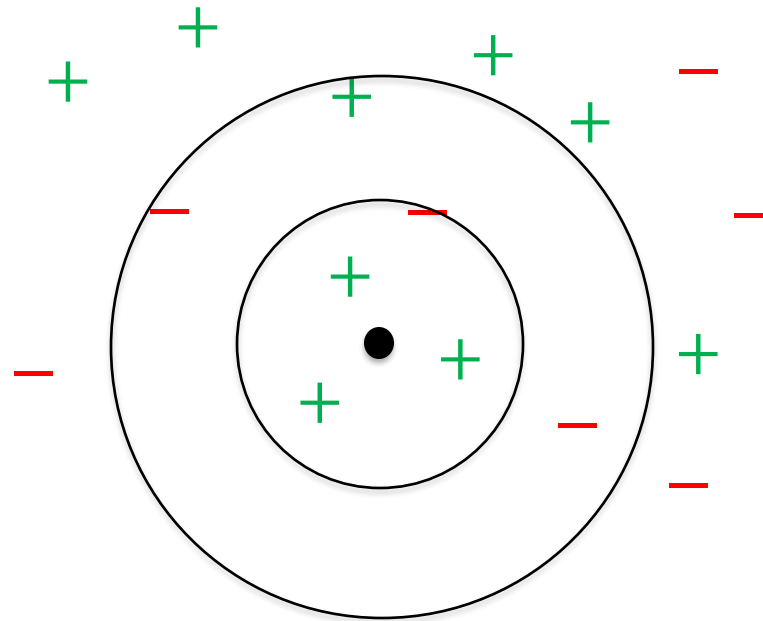


- Learning
  - Store all training examples
- Classifying a new point  $x'$ 
  - Find the training example  $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$  such that  $x^{(i)}$  is closest (for some notion of close) to  $x'$
  - Classify  $x'$  with the label  $y^{(i)}$

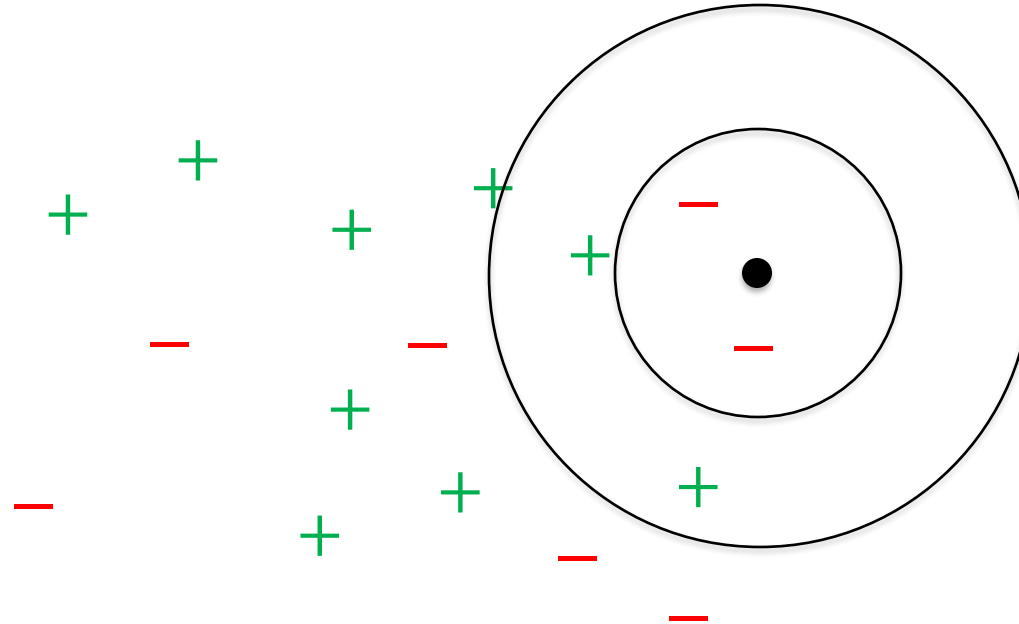
# Nearest Neighbor Methods



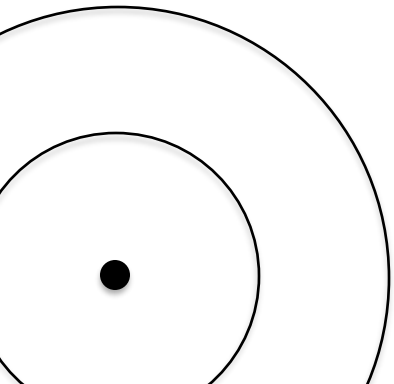
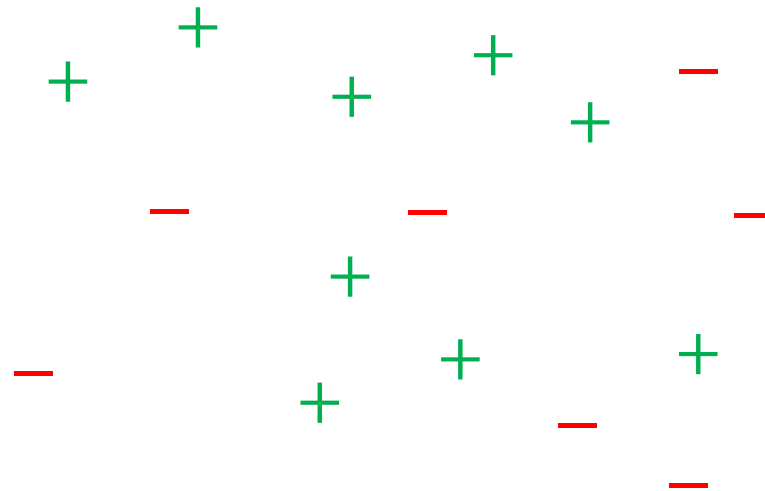
# Nearest Neighbor Methods



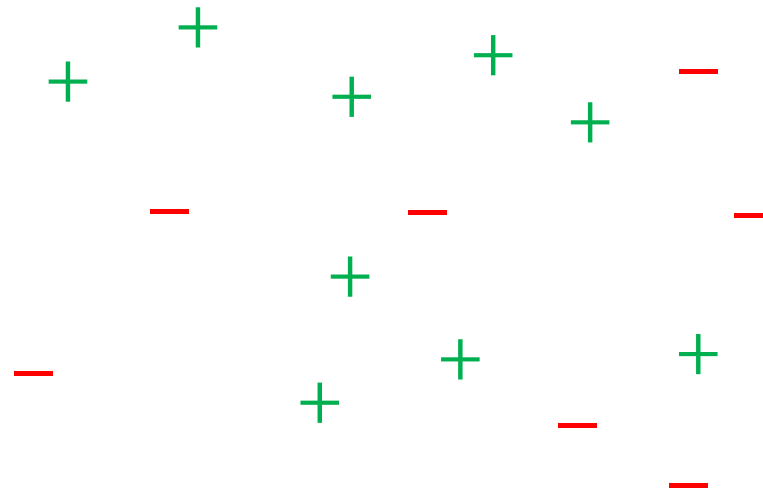
# Nearest Neighbor Methods



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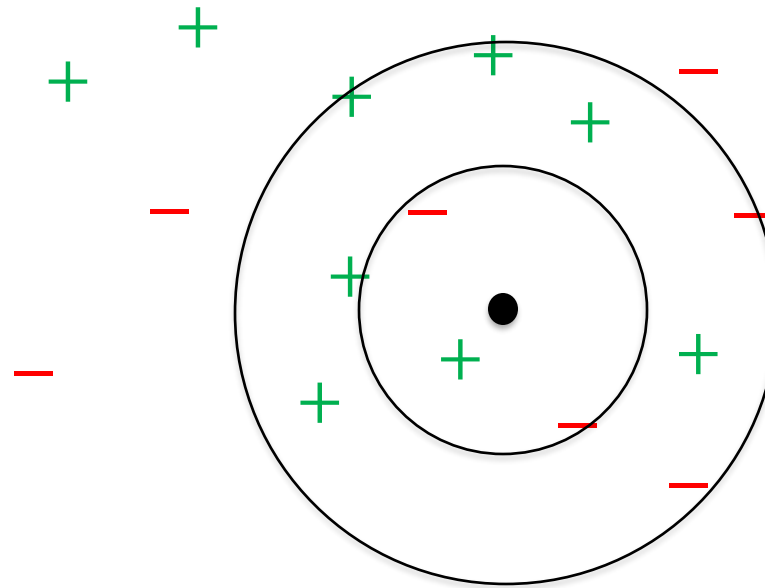


# Nearest Neighbor Methods



$k$ -nearest neighbor methods look at the  $k$  closest points in the training set and take a majority vote (should choose  $k$  to be odd)

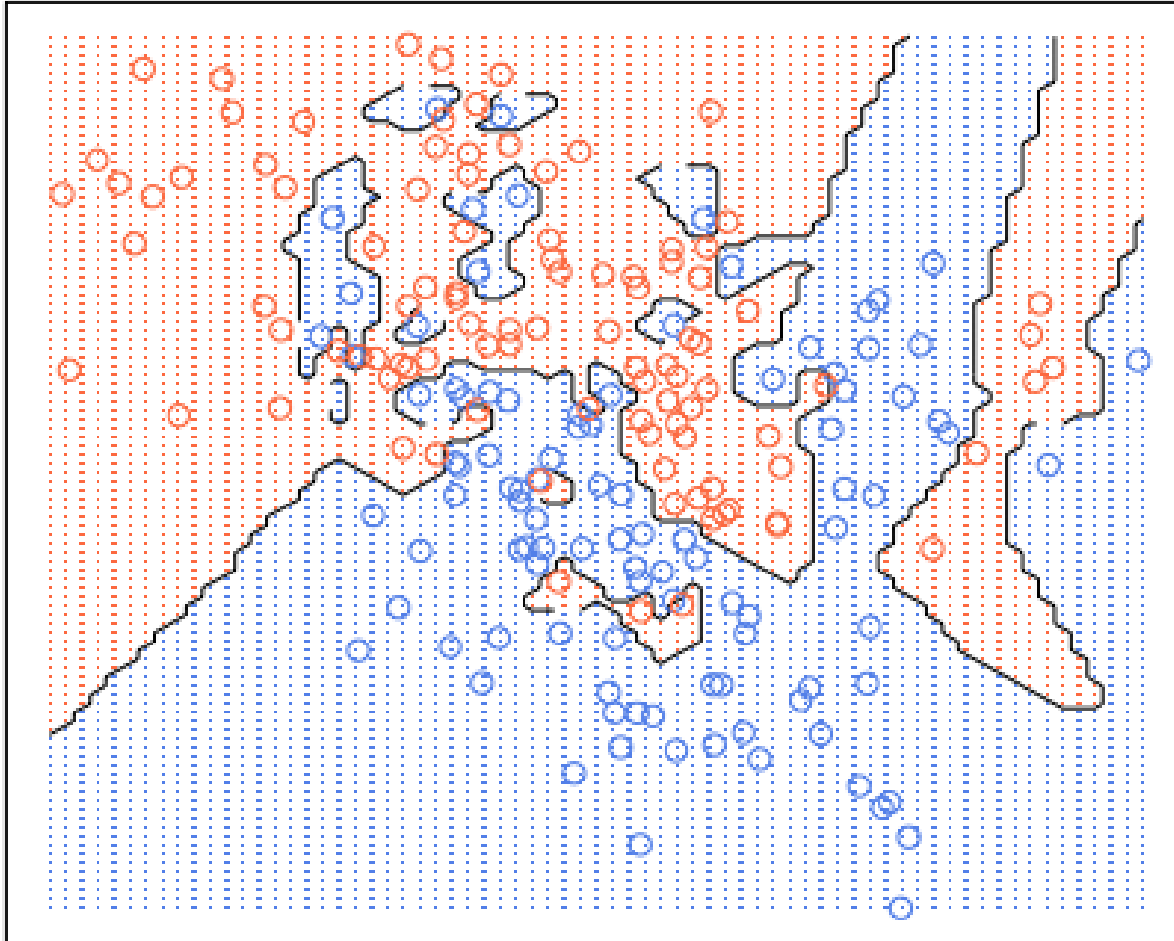
# Nearest Neighbor Methods



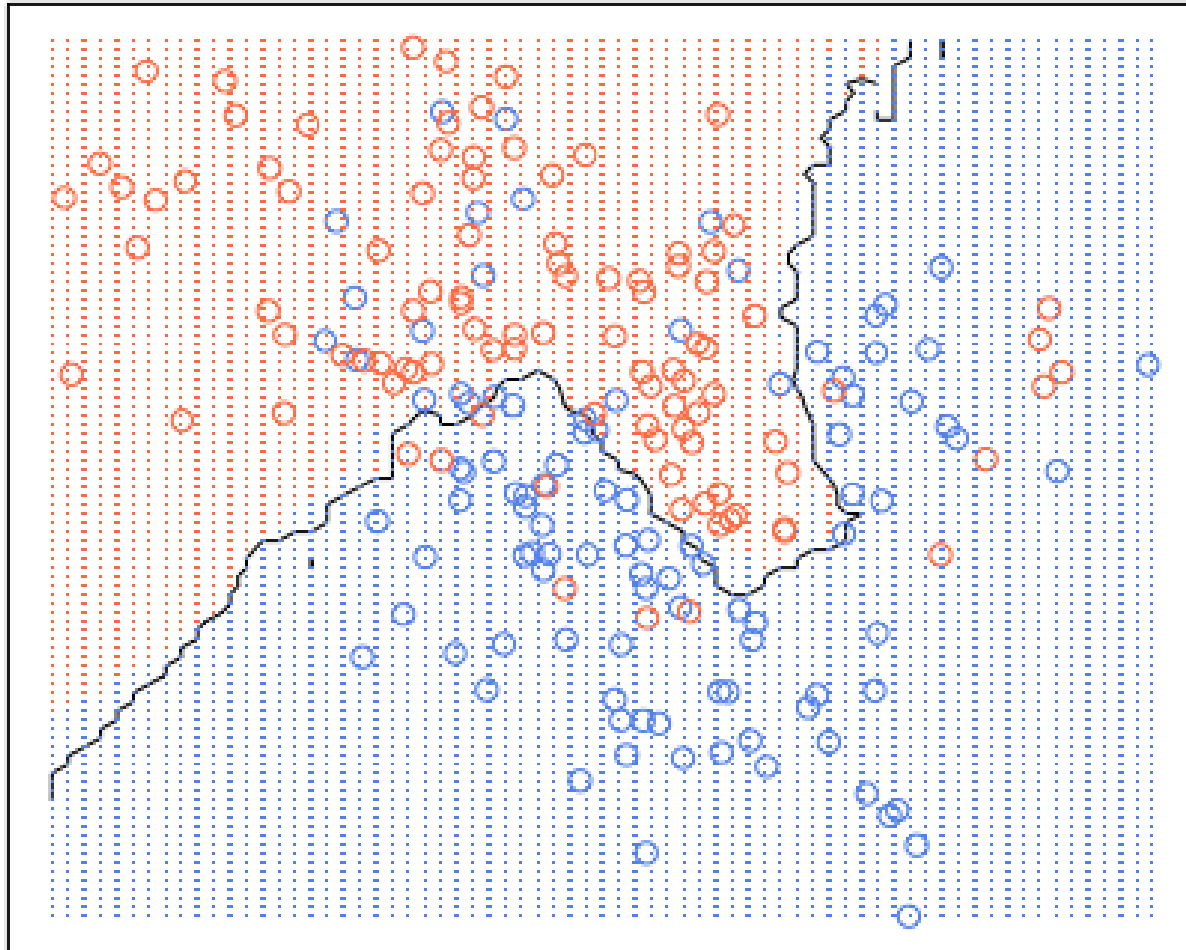
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# 1-NN Example



# 20-NN Example



# Nearest Neighbor Methods



- Applies to data sets with points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ 
  - Best for large data sets with only a few ( $< 20$ ) attributes
- Advantages
  - Learning is easy
  - Can learn complicated decision boundaries
- Disadvantages
  - Classification is slow (need to keep the entire training set around)
  - Easily fooled by irrelevant attributes

# Practical Challenges



- How to choose the right measure of closeness?
  - Euclidean distance is popular, but many other possibilities
- How to pick  $k$ ?
  - Too small and the estimates are noisy, too large and the accuracy suffers
- What if the nearest neighbor is really far away?

# Choosing the Distance



- Euclidean distance makes sense when each of the features is roughly on the same scale
  - If the features are very different (e.g., height and age), then Euclidean distance makes less sense as height would be less significant than age simply because age has a larger range of possible values
- To correct for this, feature vectors are often recentered around their means and scaled by the standard deviation over the training set

- Sample mean

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x^{(i)}$$

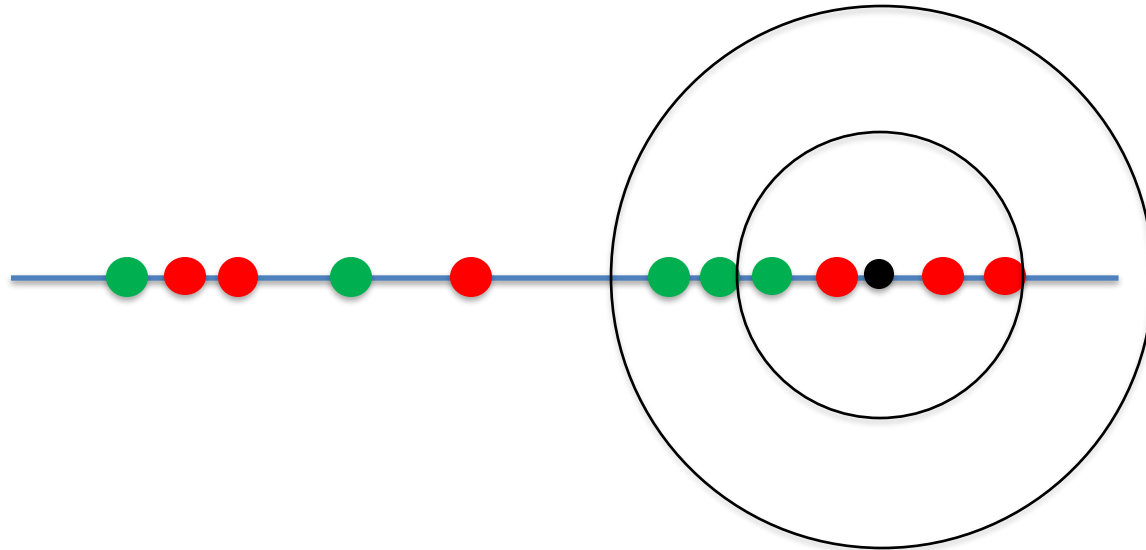
- Sample variance (biased)

$$\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( x_k^{(i)} - \bar{x}_k \right)^2$$

# Irrelevant Attributes



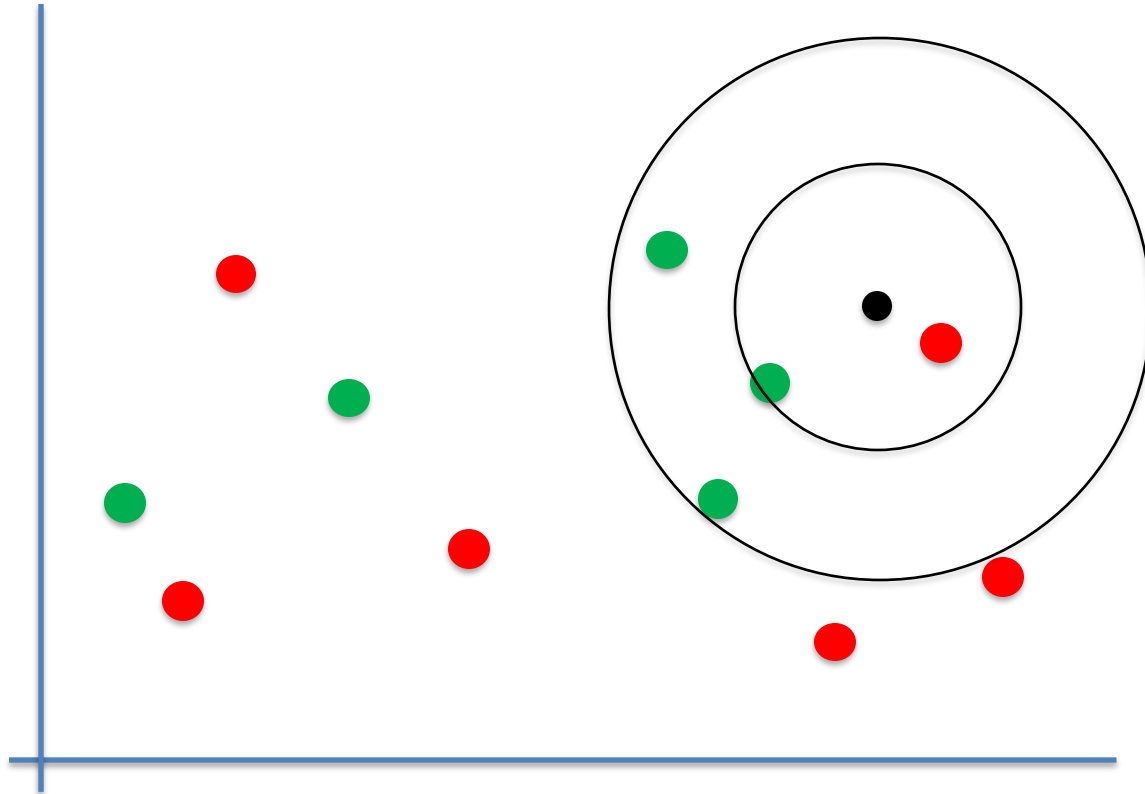
Consider the nearest neighbor problem in one dimension



# Irrelevant Attributes



Now, add a new attribute that is just random noise...

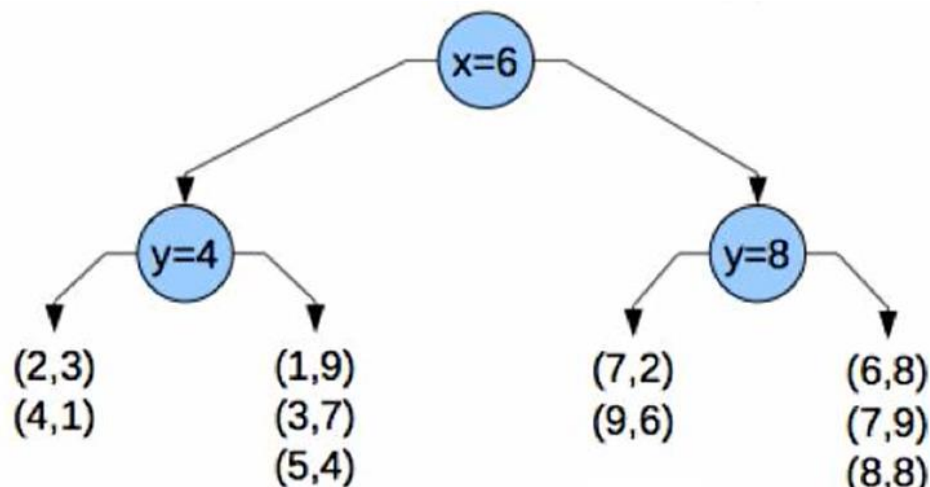




- In order to do classification, we can compute the distances between all points in the training set and the point we are trying to classify
  - With  $m$  data points in  $n$ -dimensional space, this takes  $O(mn)$  time for Euclidean distance
  - It is possible to do better if we do some preprocessing on the training data

- k-d trees provide a data structure that can help simplify the classification task by constructing a tree that partitions the search space
  - Starting with the entire training set, choose some dimension,  $i$
  - Select an element of the training data whose  $i^{th}$  dimension has the median value among all elements of the training set
  - Divide the training set into two pieces: depending on whether their  $i^{th}$  attribute is smaller or larger than the median
  - Repeat this partitioning process on each of the two new pieces separately

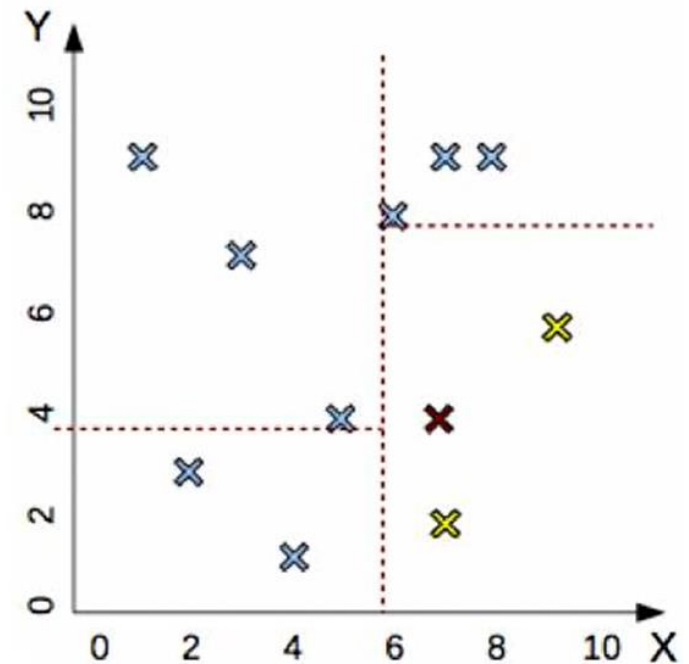
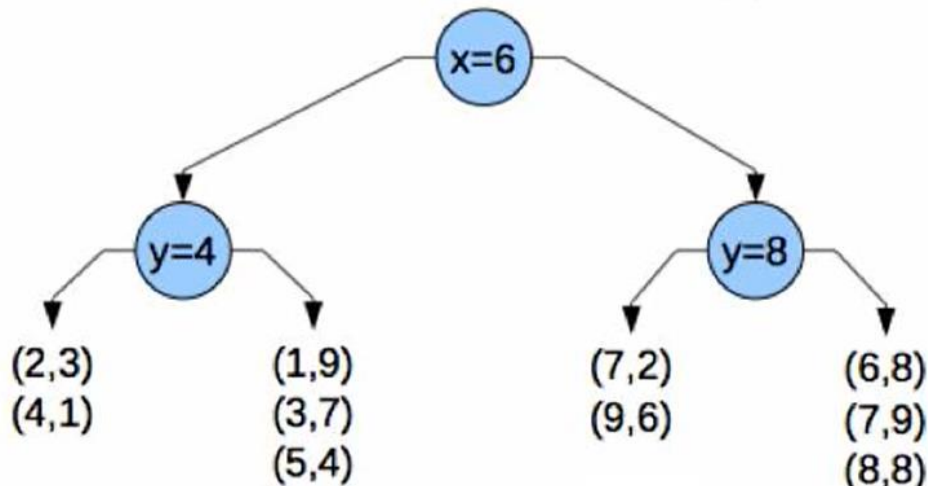
- Building a K-D tree from training data:
  - $\{(1,9), (2,3), (4,1), (3,7), (5,4), (6,8), (7,2), (8,8), (7,9), (9,6)\}$
  - pick random dimension, find median, split data, repeat



# K-Dimensional Trees



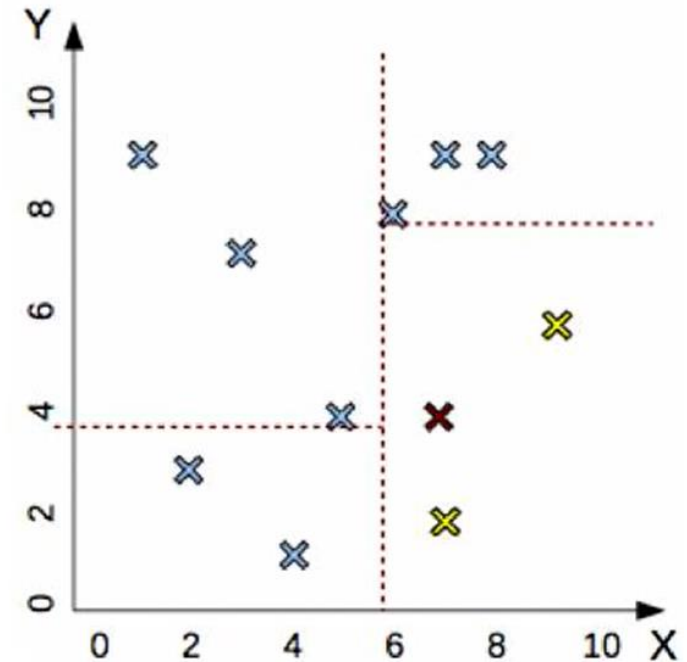
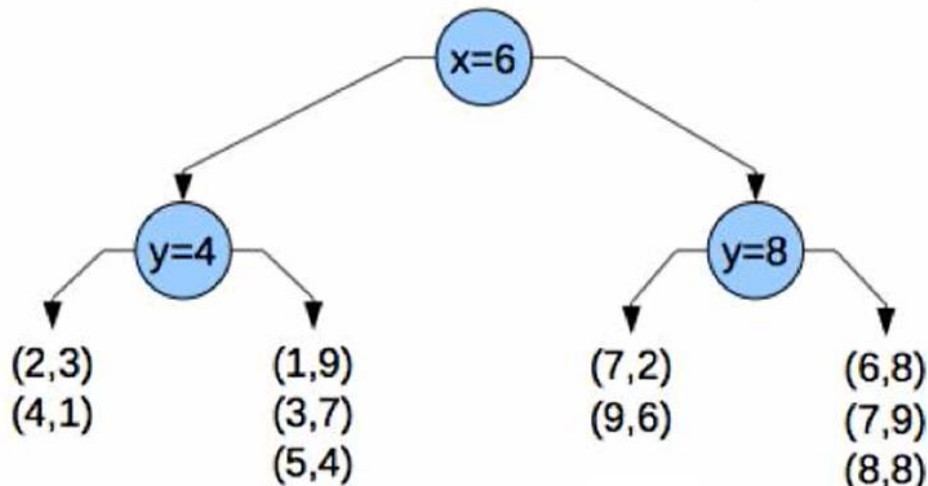
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# K-Dimensional Trees: Inference



- Find NNs for new point (7,4)
  - find region containing (7,4)
  - compare to all points in region



- By design, the constructed k-d tree is “bushy”
  - The idea is that if new points to classify are evenly distributed throughout the space, then the expected (amortized) cost of classification is approximately  $O(d \log n)$  operations
- Summary
  - k-NN is fast and easy to implement
  - No training required
  - Can be good in practice (where applicable)