

LEARN. DO. EARN

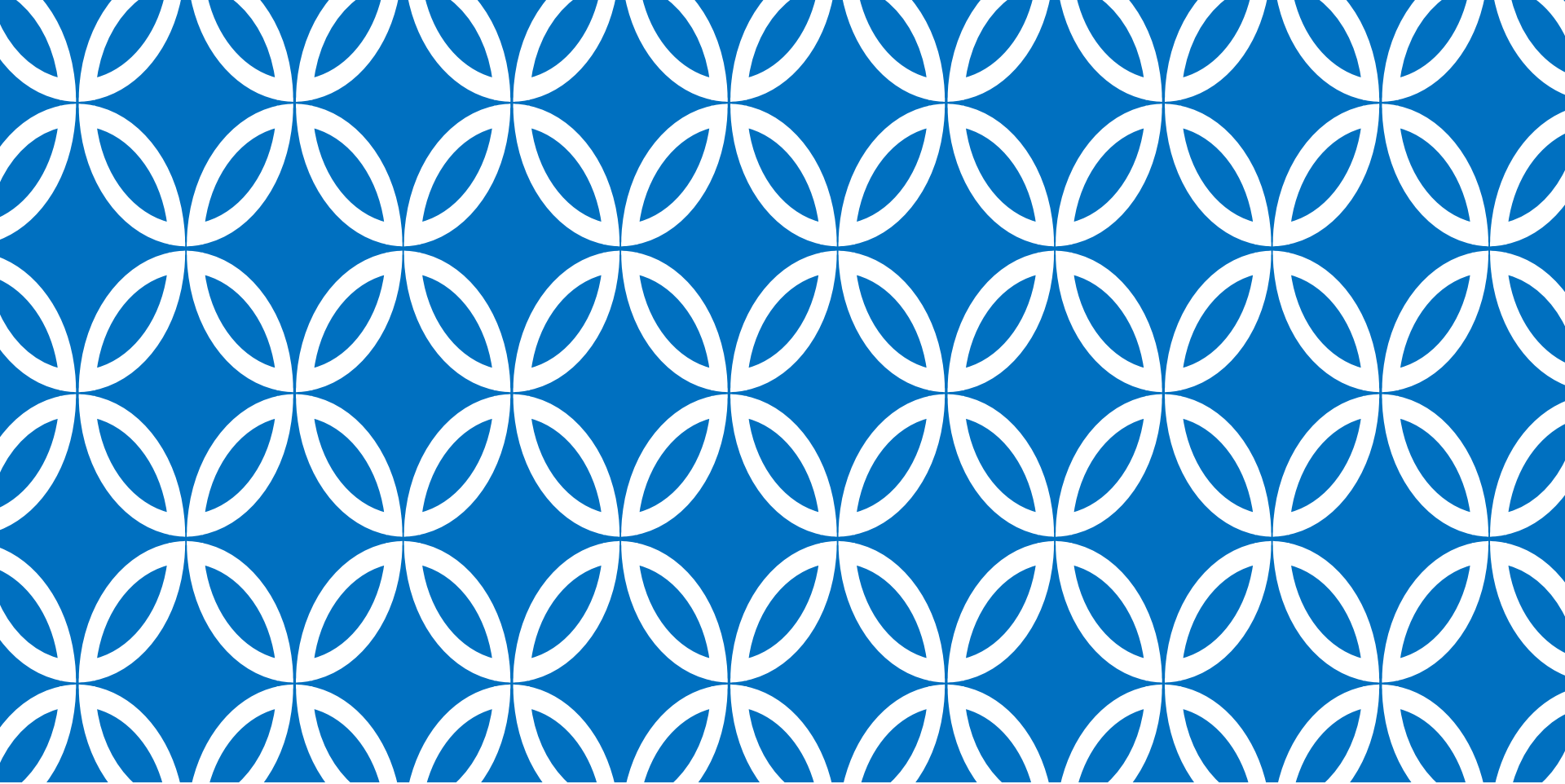
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MACHINE LEARNING WITH R

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Session 2: Nearest Neighbor Classification





Agenda

| Sl. No. | Agenda Topics |
|---------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. | Instance Based Classifiers |
| 2. | Nearest Neighbor Classifiers |
| 3. | Definition of Nearest Neighbor |
| 4. | 1 Nearest-Neighbor |
| 5. | Nearest Neighbor Classification |
| 6. | Lazy vs. Eager Learning |
| 7. | Lazy Learner: Instance-Based Methods |
| 8. | Nearest Neighbor Search |
| 9. | Non-Numeric Data |
| 10. | Dealing With Non-numeric Data |
| 11. | Preprocessing Your Dataset |

| Sl. No. | Agenda Topics |
|---------|--|
| 12. | K-NN Variations |
| 13. | How To Determine The Good Value For K? |
| 14. | Other Distance Measures |
| 15. | K-NN Time Complexity |
| 16. | Curse of Dimensionality |
| 17. | When to Consider Nearest Neighbors |
| 18. | Proximity Graphs |
| 19. | Nearest Neighbour Issues |





Instance Based Classifiers

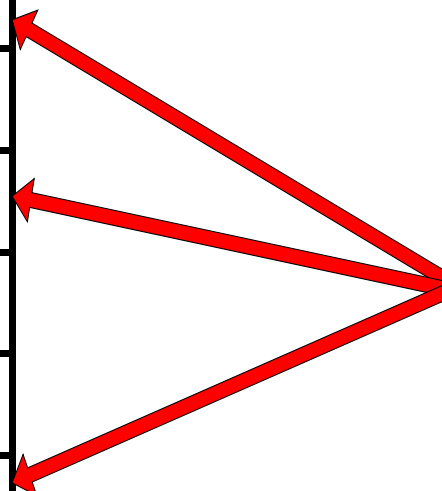
Set of Stored Cases

| Atr1 | | AtrN | Class |
|------|-------|------|-------|
| | | | A |
| | | | B |
| | | | B |
| | | | C |
| | | | A |
| | | | C |
| | | | B |

- Store the training records
- Use training records to predict the class label of unseen cases

Unseen Case

| Atr1 | | AtrN |
|------|-------|------|
| | | |





Instance Based Classifiers (Contd.)

Examples:

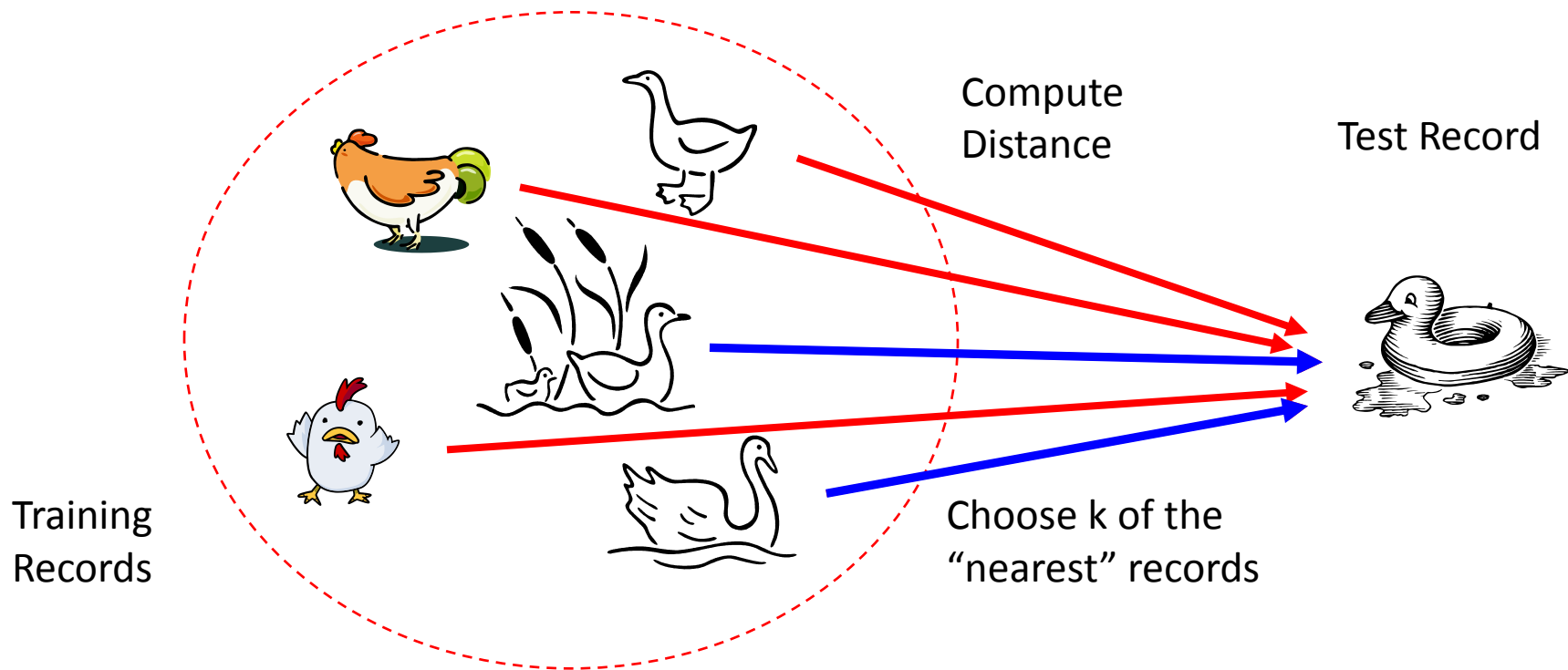
- Rote-learner
 - Memorizes entire training data and performs classification only if attributes of record match one of the training examples exactly
- Nearest neighbor
 - Uses k “closest” points (nearest neighbors) for performing classification





Nearest Neighbor Classifiers

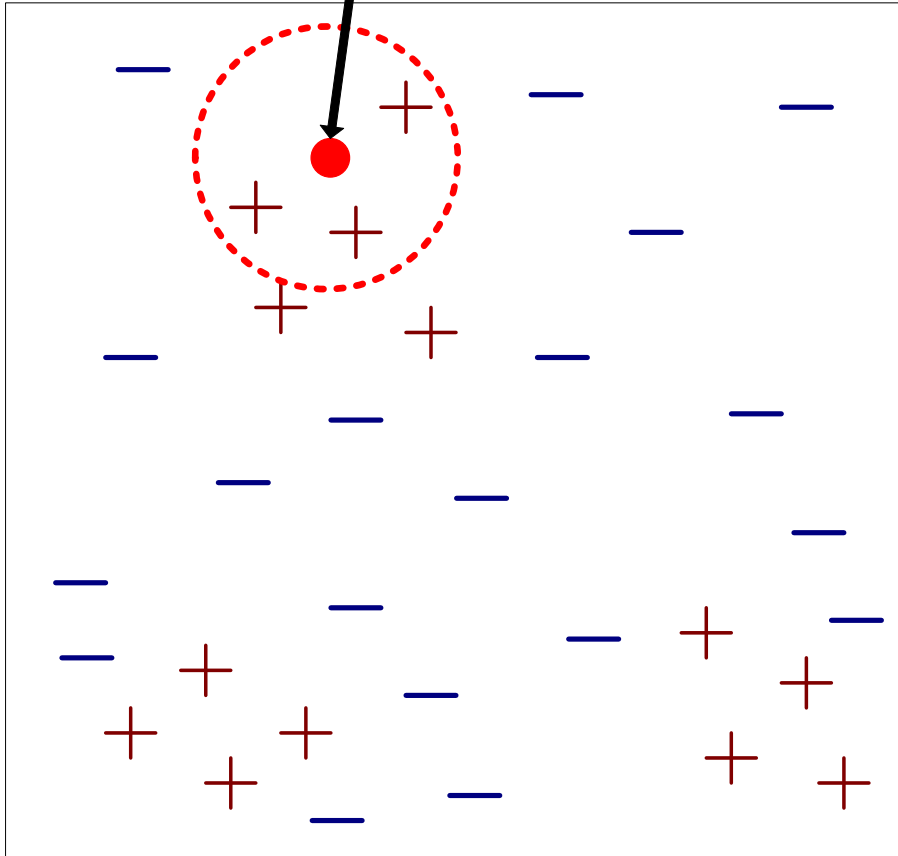
- Basic idea:
 - If it walks like a duck, quacks like a duck, then it's probably a duck





Nearest Neighbor Classifiers (Contd.)

Unknown record

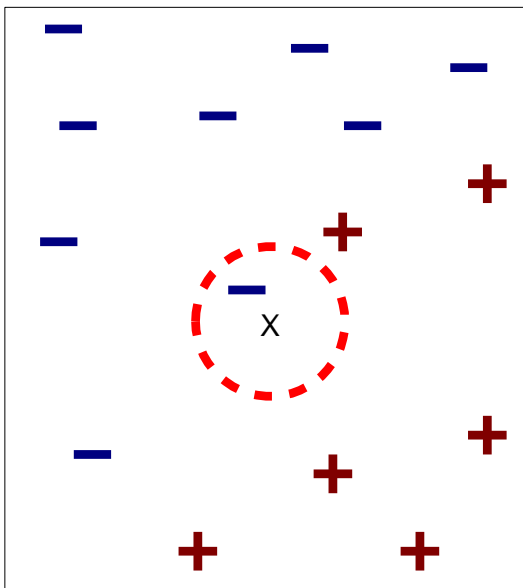


- Requires three things:
 - The set of stored records
 - Distance Metric to compute distance between records
 - The value of k , the number of nearest neighbors to retrieve
- To classify an unknown record:
 - Compute distance to other training records
 - Identify k nearest neighbors
 - Use class labels of nearest neighbors to determine the class label of unknown record (e.g., by taking majority vote)

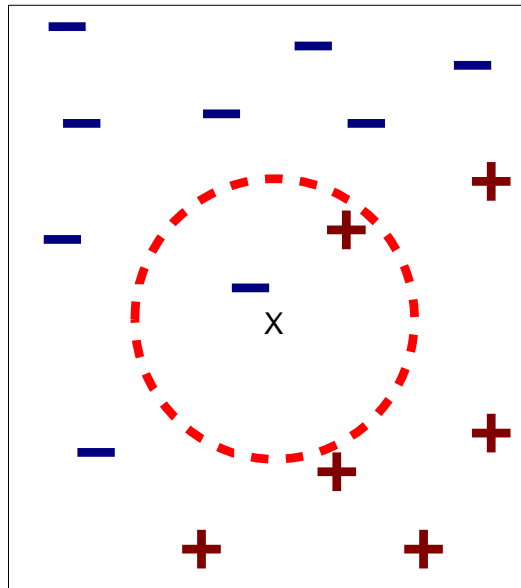




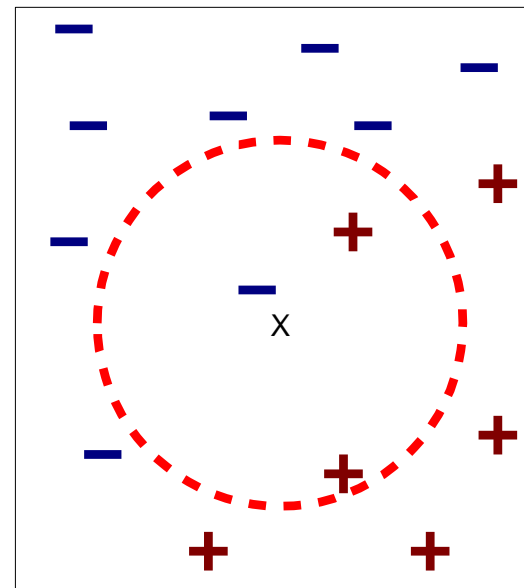
Definition of Nearest Neighbor



(a) 1-nearest neighbor



(b) 2-nearest neighbor



(c) 3-nearest neighbor

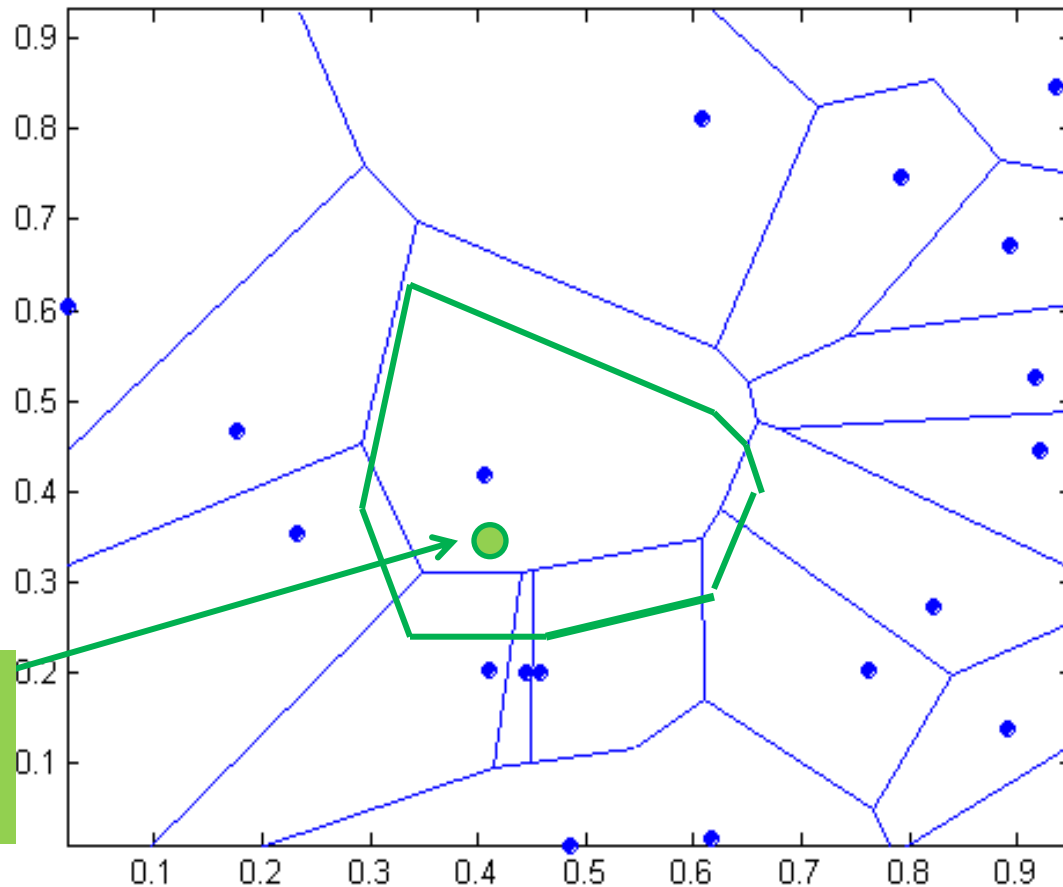
K-nearest neighbors of a record x are data points that have the k smallest distance to x





1 Nearest-Neighbor

- Voronoi Diagram defines the classification boundary



The area takes the class of the green point





Nearest Neighbor Classification

- Compute distance between two points:

- Euclidean distance

$$d(p, q) = \sqrt{\sum_i (p_i - q_i)^2}$$

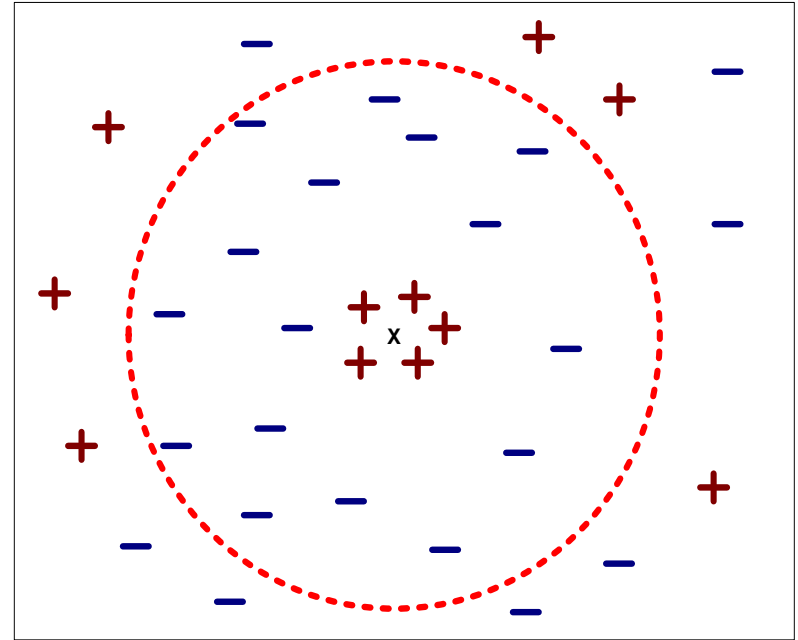
- Determine the class from nearest neighbor list
 - take the majority vote of class labels among the k-nearest neighbors
 - Weigh the vote according to distance
 - weight factor, $w = 1/d^2$





Nearest Neighbor Classification (Contd.)

- Choosing the value of k :
 - If k is too small, sensitive to noise points
 - If k is too large, neighborhood may include points from other classes





Nearest Neighbor Classification (Contd.)

- Scaling issues
 - Attributes may have to be scaled to prevent distance measures from being dominated by one of the attributes

Example:

- height of a person may vary from 1.5m to 1.8m
- weight of a person may vary from 90lb to 300lb
- income of a person may vary from \$10K to \$1M





Nearest Neighbor Classification (Contd.)

- Problem with Euclidean measure:
 - High dimensional data
 - curse of dimensionality
 - Can produce counter-intuitive results

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0

0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

$d = 1.4142$

VS

1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1

$d = 1.4142$

◆ Solution: Normalize the vectors to unit length





Nearest neighbor Classification (Contd.)

- k-NN classifiers are lazy learners
 - It does not build models explicitly
 - Unlike eager learners such as decision tree induction and rule-based systems
- Classifying unknown records are relatively expensive
 - Naïve algorithm: $O(n)$
 - Need for structures to retrieve nearest neighbors fast.
 - The Nearest Neighbor Search problem.





Lazy vs. Eager Learning

- Lazy vs. eager learning
 - Lazy learning (e.g., instance-based learning): Simply stores training data (or only minor processing) and waits until it is given a test tuple
 - Eager learning (the above discussed methods): Given a set of training set, constructs a classification model before receiving new (e.g., test) data to classify
- Lazy: less time in training but more time in predicting
- Accuracy
 - Lazy method effectively uses a richer hypothesis space since it uses many local linear functions to form its implicit global approximation to the target function
 - Eager: must commit to a single hypothesis that covers the entire instance space





Lazy Learner: Instance-Based Methods

- Instance-based learning:
 - Store training examples and delay the processing (“lazy evaluation”) until a new instance must be classified
- Typical approaches
 - k-nearest neighbor approach
 - Instances represented as points in a Euclidean space.
 - Locally weighted regression
 - Constructs local approximation
 - Case-based reasoning
 - Uses symbolic representations and knowledge-based inference





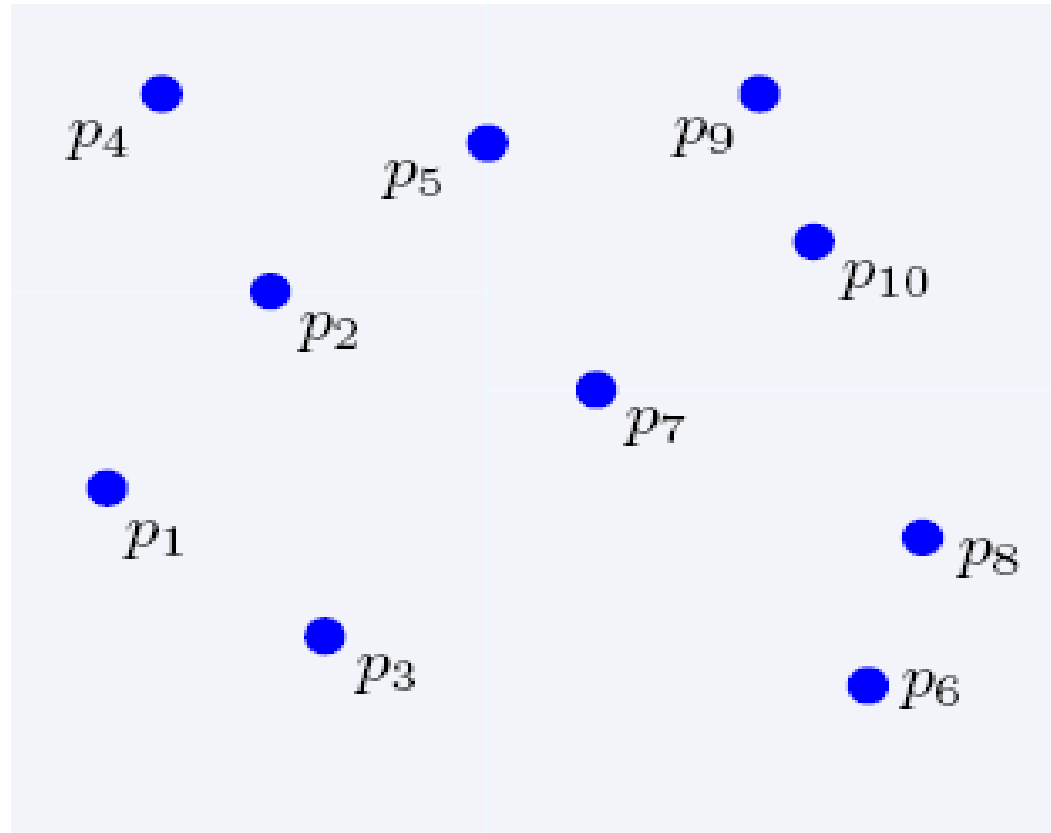
Nearest Neighbor Search

- Two-dimensional kd-trees
 - A data structure for answering nearest neighbor queries in R^2
- kd-tree construction algorithm
 - Select the x or y dimension (alternating between the two)
 - Partition the space into two with a line passing from the median point
 - Repeat recursively in the two partitions as long as there are enough points





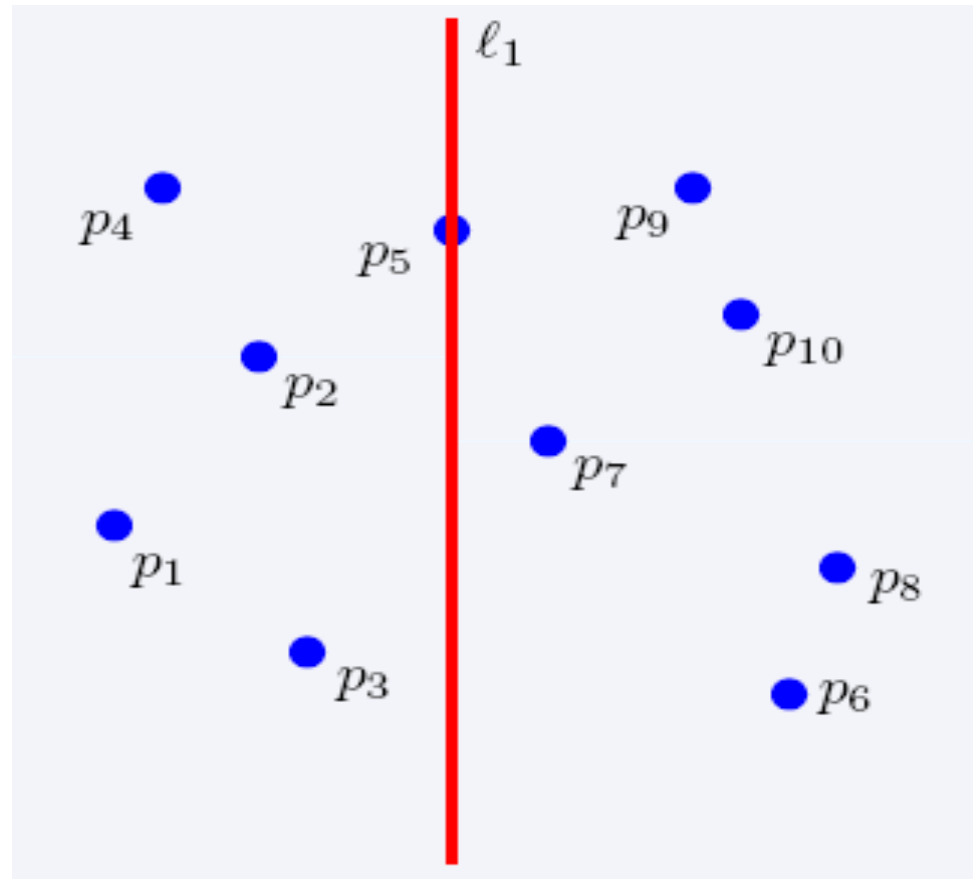
Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)



2-dimensional kd-trees



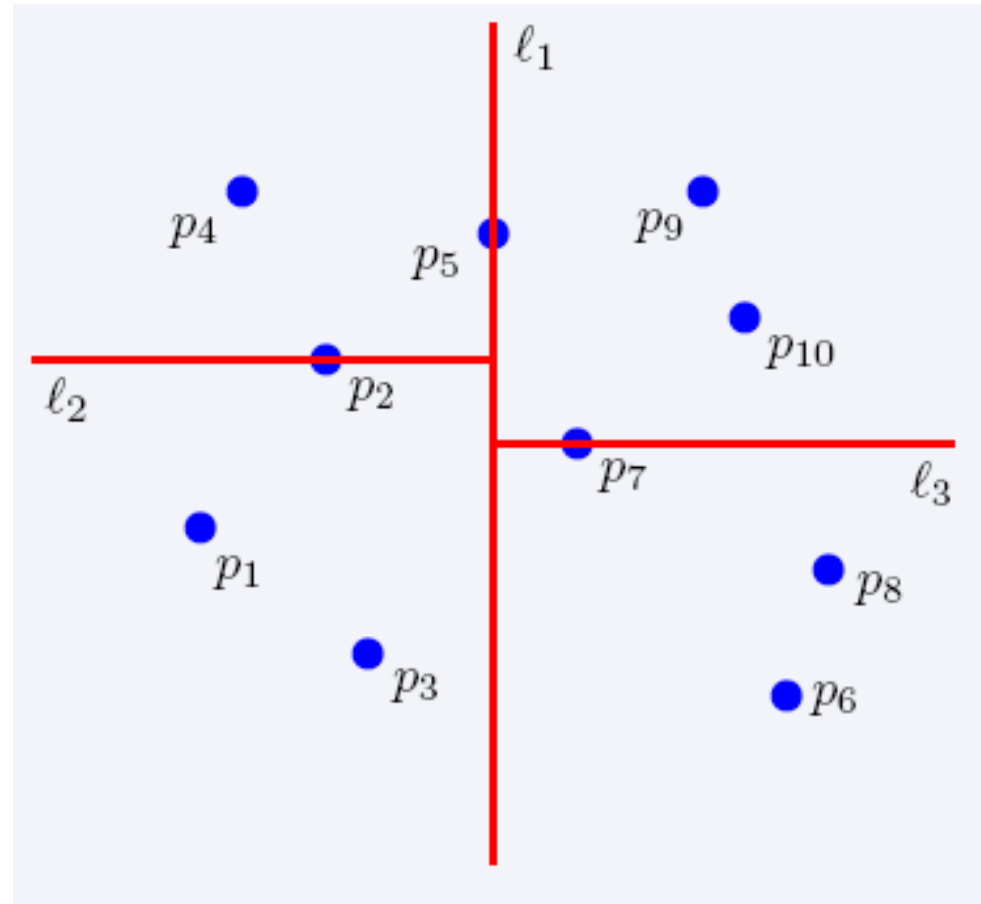
Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)



2-dimensional kd-trees

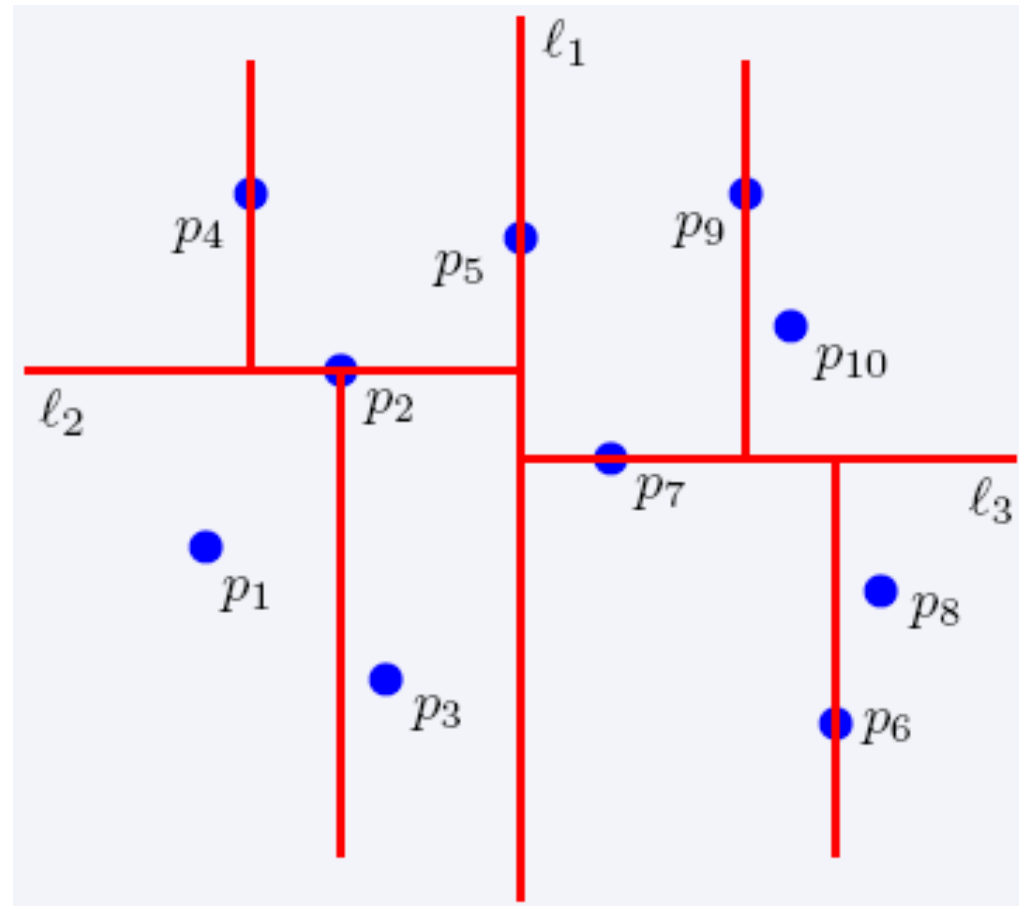


Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)





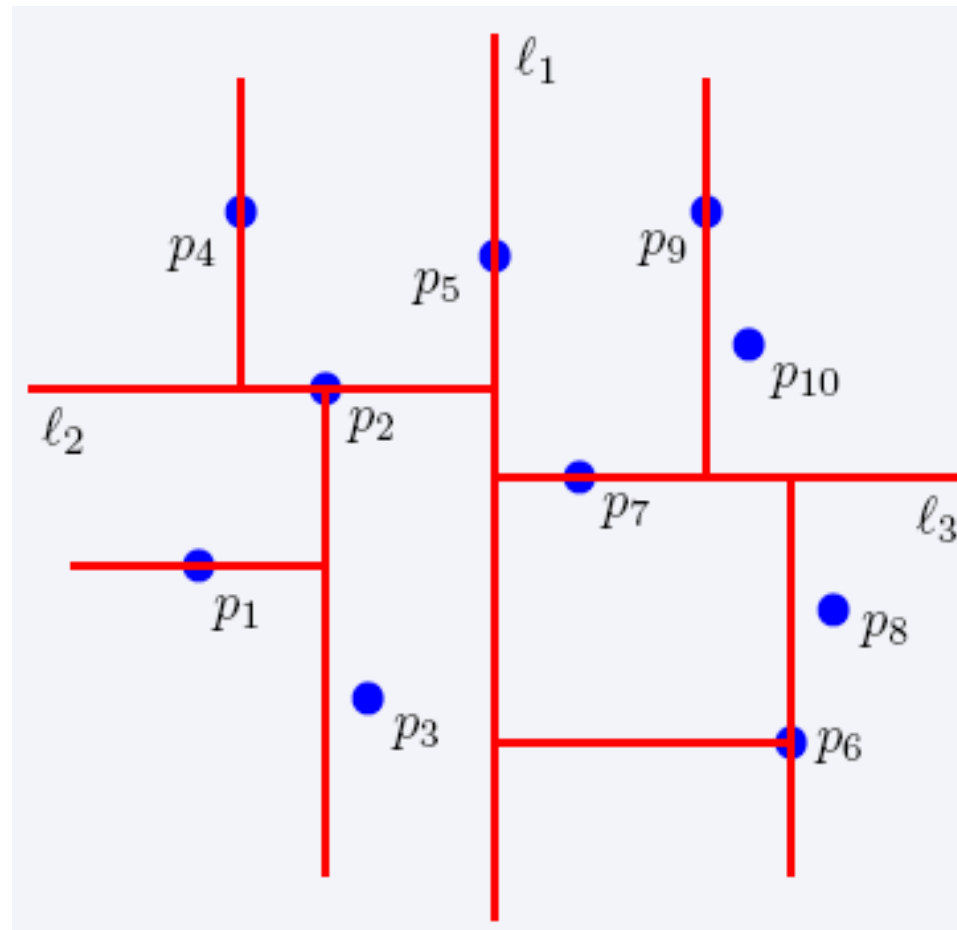
Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)



2-dimensional kd-trees



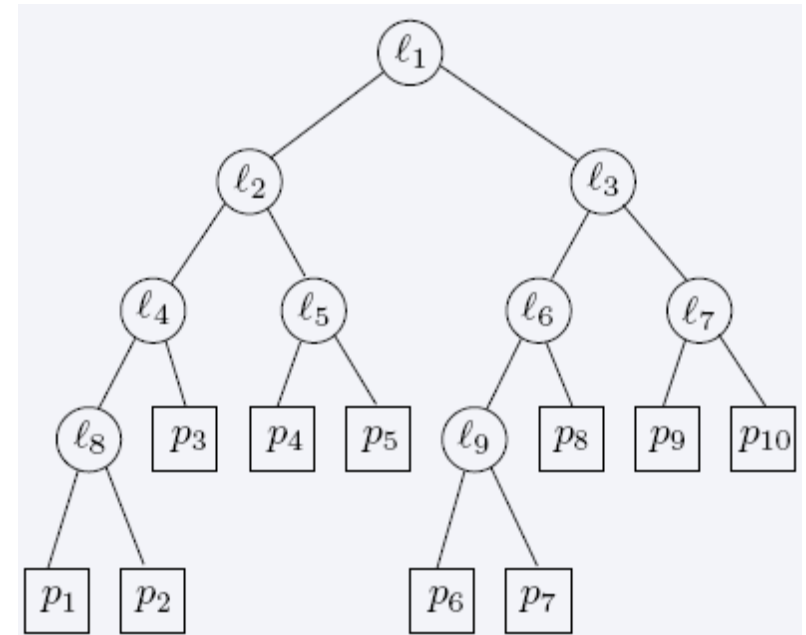
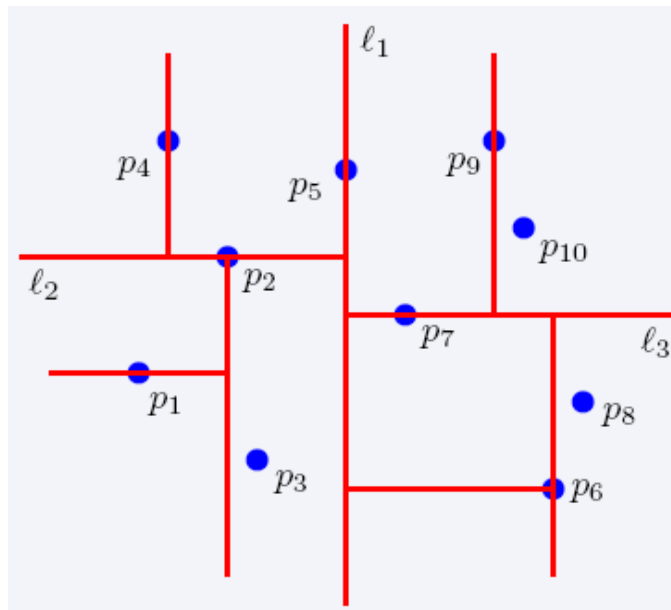
Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)





Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)

2-dimensional kd-trees

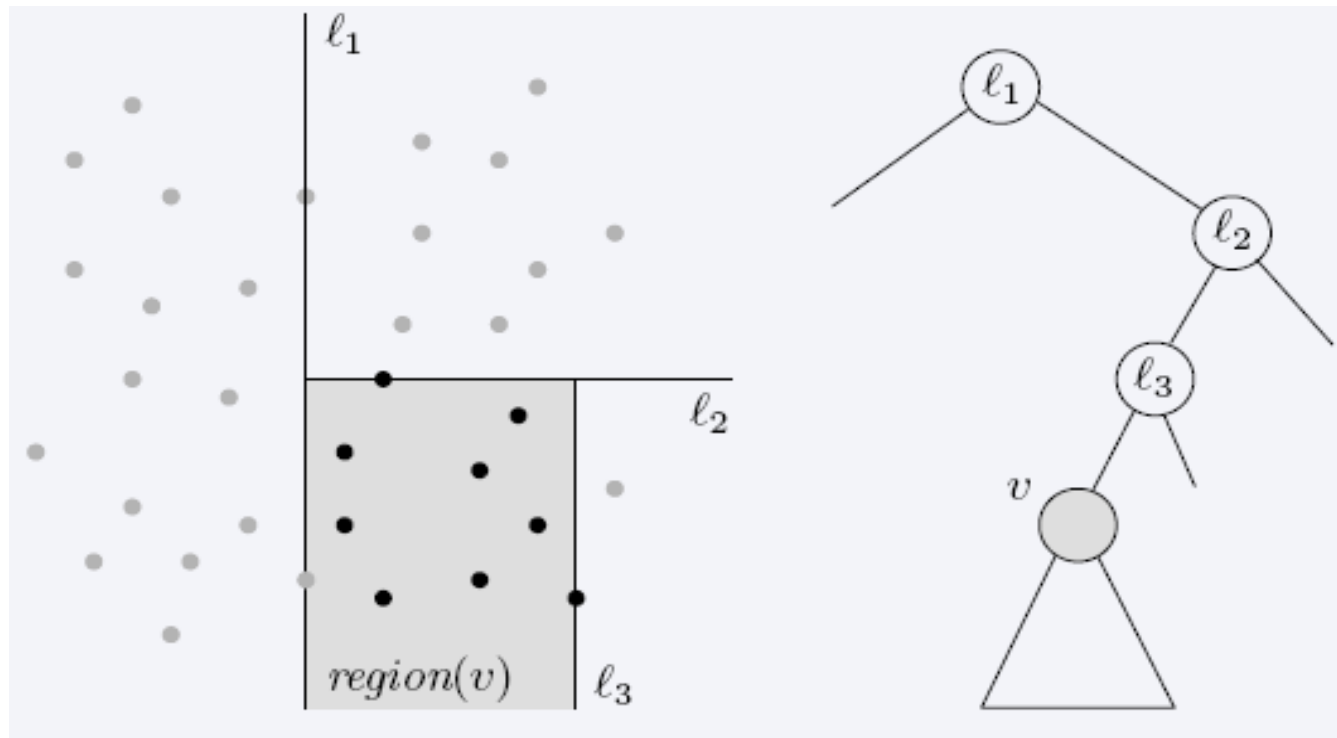




Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)

2-dimensional kd-trees

$\text{region}(u)$ – all the black points in the subtree of u





Nearest Neighbor Search (Contd.)

2-dimensional kd-trees

- A binary tree:
 - Size $O(n)$
 - Depth $O(\log n)$
 - Construction time $O(n \log n)$
 - Query time: worst case $O(n)$, but for many cases $O(\log n)$
- Generalizes to d dimensions
- Example of Binary Space Partitioning





Non-Numeric Data

- Feature values are not always numbers

Example

- Boolean values: Yes or no, presence or absence of an attribute
- Categories: Colors, educational attainment, gender
- How do these values factor into the computation of distance?





Dealing With Non-numeric Data

- Boolean values => convert to 0 or 1
 - Applies to yes-no/presence-absence attributes
- Non-binary characterizations
 - Use natural progression when applicable; e.g., educational attainment: GS, HS, College, MS, PHD => 1,2,3,4,5
 - Assign arbitrary numbers but be careful about distances; e.g., color: red, yellow, blue => 1,2,3
- How about unavailable data?
(0 value not always the answer)





Preprocessing Your Dataset

- Dataset may need to be preprocessed to ensure more reliable data mining results
- Conversion of non-numeric data to numeric data
- Calibration of numeric data to reduce effects of disparate ranges
 - Particularly when using the Euclidean distance metric





K-NN Variations

- Value of k
 - Larger k increases confidence in prediction
 - Note that if k is too large, decision may be skewed
- Weighted evaluation of nearest neighbors
 - Plain majority may unfairly skew decision
 - Revise algorithm so that closer neighbors have greater “vote weight”
- Other distance measures





How To Determine The Good Value For K?

- Determined experimentally
- Start with $k=1$ and use a test set to validate the error rate of the classifier
- Repeat with $k=k+2$
- Choose the value of k for which the error rate is minimum

Note: k should be odd number to avoid ties





Other Distance Measures

- City-block distance (Manhattan dist)
 - Add absolute value of differences
- Cosine similarity
 - Measure angle formed by the two samples (with the origin)
- Jaccard distance
 - Determine percentage of exact matches between the samples (not including unavailable data)
- Others





K-NN Time Complexity

- Suppose there are m instances and n features in the dataset
- Nearest neighbor algorithm requires computing m distances
- Each distance computation involves scanning through each feature value
- Running time complexity is proportional to $m \times n$





Curse of Dimensionality

- Imagine instances described by 20 features (attributes) but only 3 are relevant to target function
- Curse of dimensionality: nearest neighbor is easily misled when instance space is high-dimensional
- Dominated by large number of irrelevant features

Possible solutions:

- Stretch j -th axis by weight z_j , where z_1, \dots, z_n chosen to minimize prediction error (weight different features differently)
- Use cross-validation to automatically choose weights z_1, \dots, z_n
- Note setting z_j to zero eliminates this dimension altogether (feature subset selection)
- PCA





When to Consider Nearest Neighbors

- Instances map to points in R^d
- Less than 20 features (attributes) per instance, typically normalized
- Lot of training data

Advantages:

- Training is very fast
- Learn complex target functions
- Do not lose information

Disadvantages:

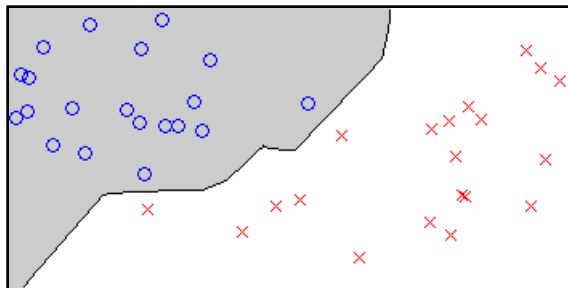
- Slow at query time
 - Presorting and indexing training samples into search trees reduces time
- Easily misled by irrelevant features (attributes)



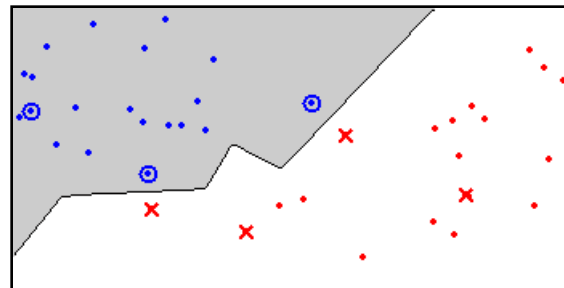


Condensing

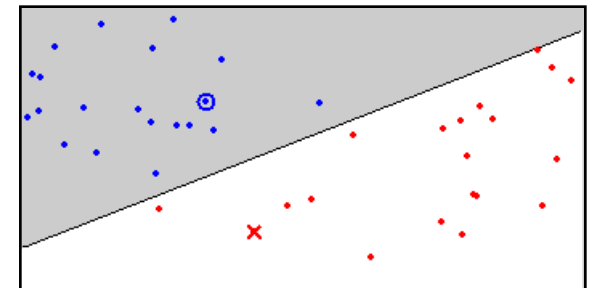
- Aim is to reduce the number of training samples
- Retain only the samples that are needed to define the decision boundary
- This is reminiscent of a Support Vector Machine
- Decision Boundary Consistent – a subset whose nearest neighbour decision boundary is identical to the boundary of the entire training set
- Minimum Consistent Set – the smallest subset of the training data that correctly classifies all of the original training data



Original data



Condensed data



Minimum Consistent Set



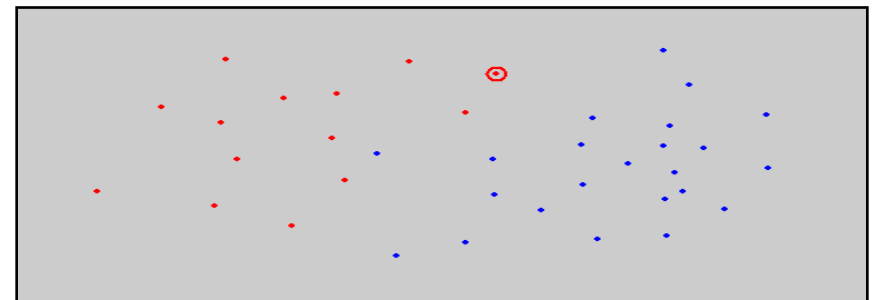
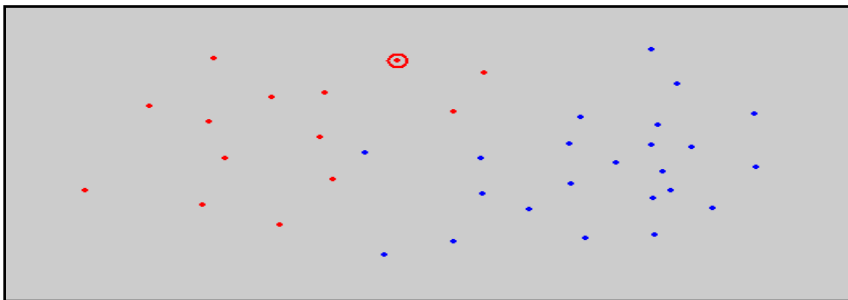


Condensing (Contd.)

- Condensed Nearest Neighbour (CNN)-Hart 1968
 - Incremental
 - Order dependent
 - Neither minimal nor decision boundary consistent
 - $O(n^3)$ for brute-force method
 - Can follow up with reduced NN [Gates72]

Remove a sample if doing so does not cause any incorrect classifications

1. Initialize subset with a single training example
2. Classify all remaining samples using the subset, and transfer any incorrectly classified samples to the subset
3. Return to 2 until no transfers occurred or the subset is full



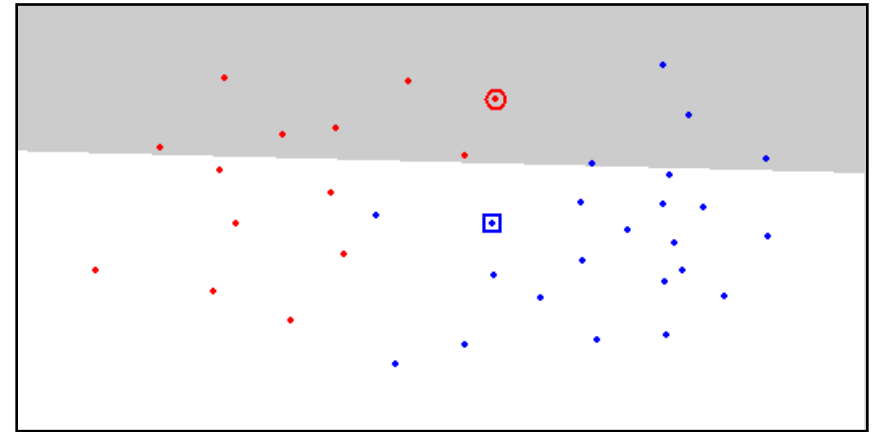
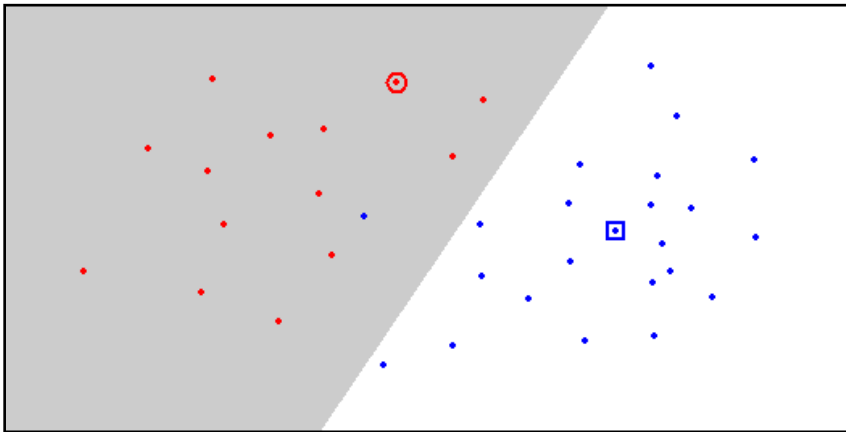


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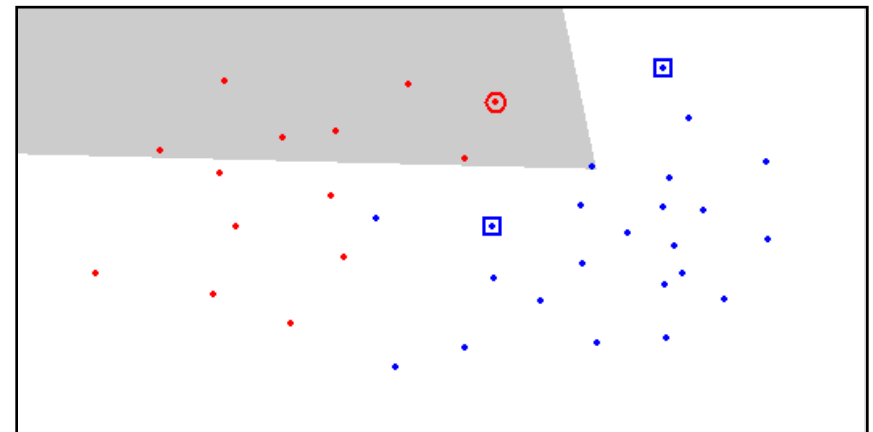
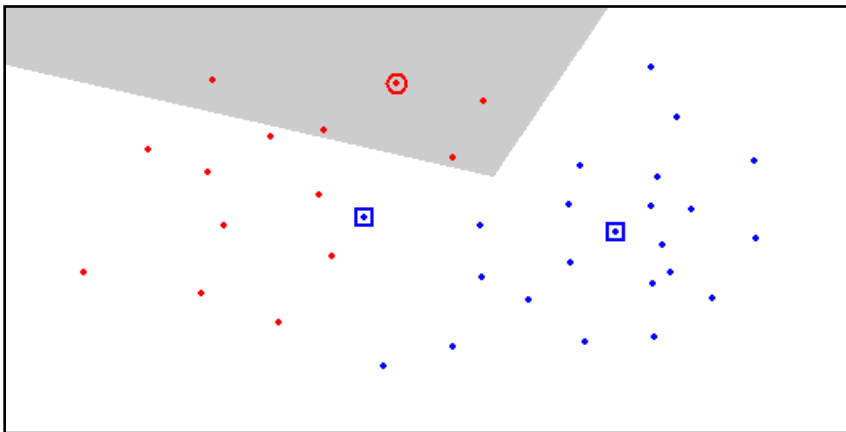


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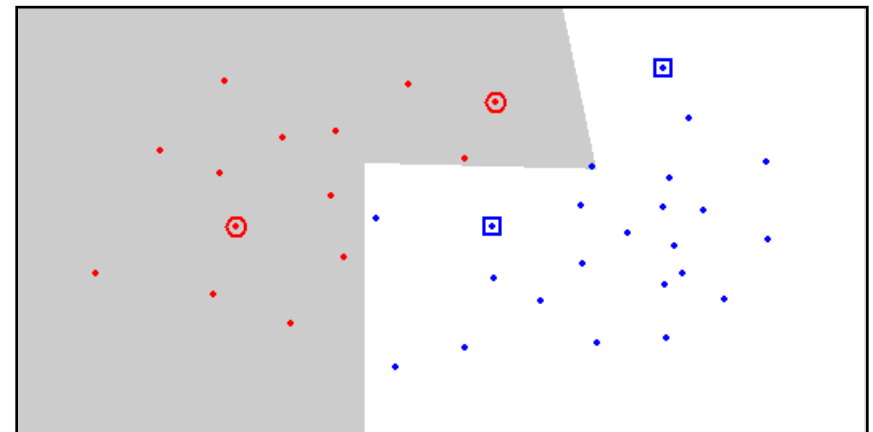
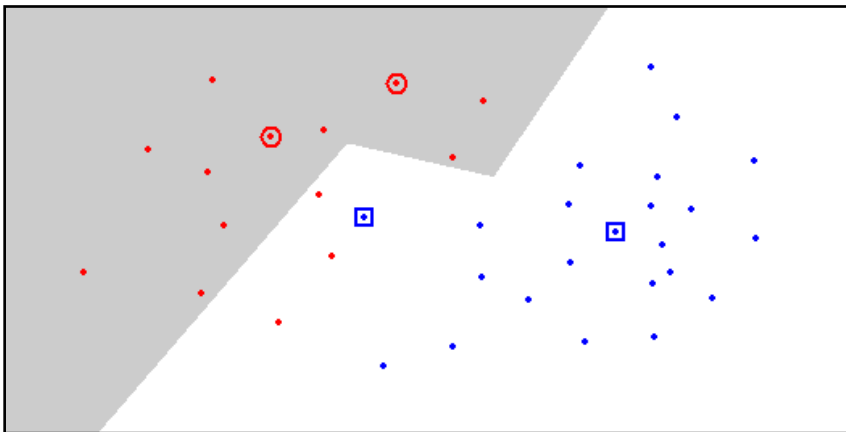


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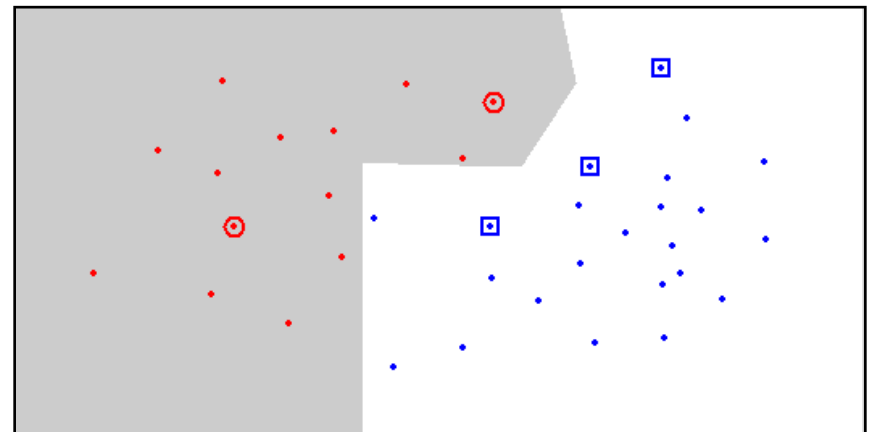
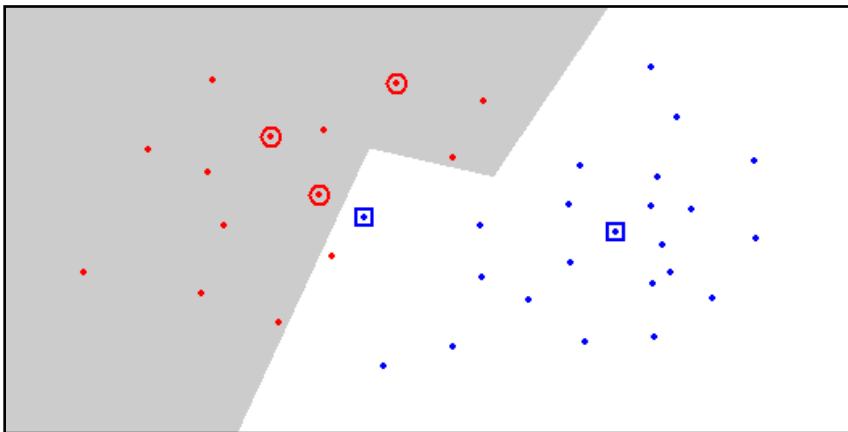




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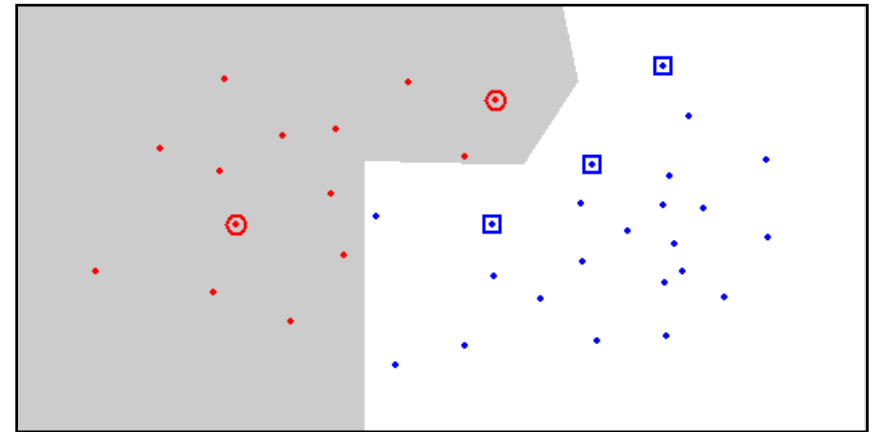
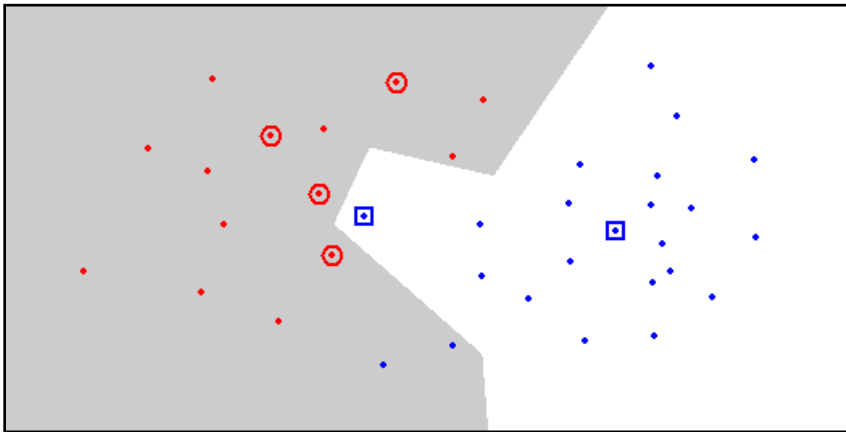


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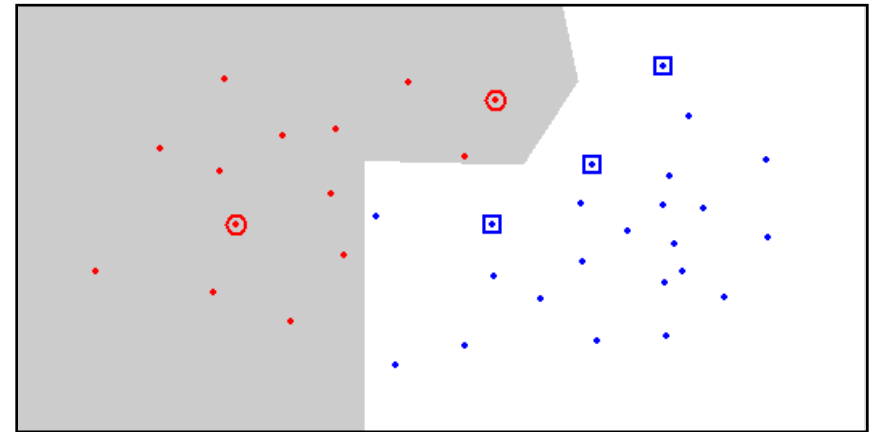
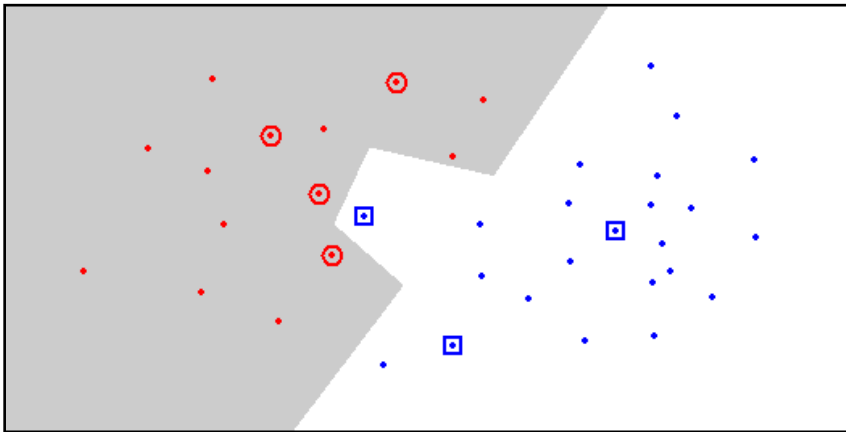


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Proximity Graphs

- Condensing aims to retain points along the decision boundary
- How to identify such points?
 - Neighbouring points of different classes
- Proximity graphs provide various definitions of “neighbour”

$$\text{NNG} \subseteq \text{MST} \subseteq \text{RNG} \subseteq \text{GG} \subseteq \text{DT}$$

NNG = Nearest Neighbour Graph

MST = Minimum Spanning Tree

RNG = Relative Neighbourhood Graph

GG = Gabriel Graph

DT = Delaunay Triangulation





Nearest Neighbour Issues

- Expensive
 - To determine the nearest neighbour of a query point q , must compute the distance to all N training examples
 - Pre-sort training examples into fast data structures (kd-trees)
 - Compute only an approximate distance (LSH)
 - Remove redundant data (condensing)
- Storage Requirements
 - Must store all training data P
 - Remove redundant data (condensing)
 - Pre-sorting often increases the storage requirements
- High Dimensional Data
 - “Curse of Dimensionality”
 - Required amount of training data increases exponentially with dimension
 - Computational cost also increases dramatically
 - Partitioning techniques degrade to linear search in high dimension





Next Class: Naïve Bayes

| Sl. No. | Agenda Topics |
|---------|---|
| 1. | Things We'd Like To Do |
| 2. | Classification Problem |
| 3. | Another Application |
| 4. | Naïve Bayes Learning |
| 5. | A Refresher on Probability |
| 6. | Back to the Naïve Bayes Classifier |
| 7. | Bayesian Theorem: Basics |
| 8. | Deriving the Naïve Bayes |
| 9. | Estimating Parameters For the Target Function |
| 10. | Naïve Assumptions of Independence |
| 11. | Again About Estimation |

| Sl. No. | Agenda Topics |
|---------|--|
| 12. | The Bayes Classifier |
| 13. | Model Parameters |
| 14. | The Naïve Bayes Model |
| 15. | Why Is This Useful? |
| 16. | Naïve Bayes Training |
| 17. | Naïve Bayes Classification |
| 18. | Another Example of the Naïve Bayes Classifier |
| 19. | The Naive Bayes Classifier for Data Sets with Numerical Attribute Values |
| 20. | Numeric Weather Data with Summary Statistics |
| 21. | Output Probabilities |
| 22. | Performance on a Test Set |
| 23. | Naïve Bayes Assumption |
| 24. | Exclusive-OR Example |

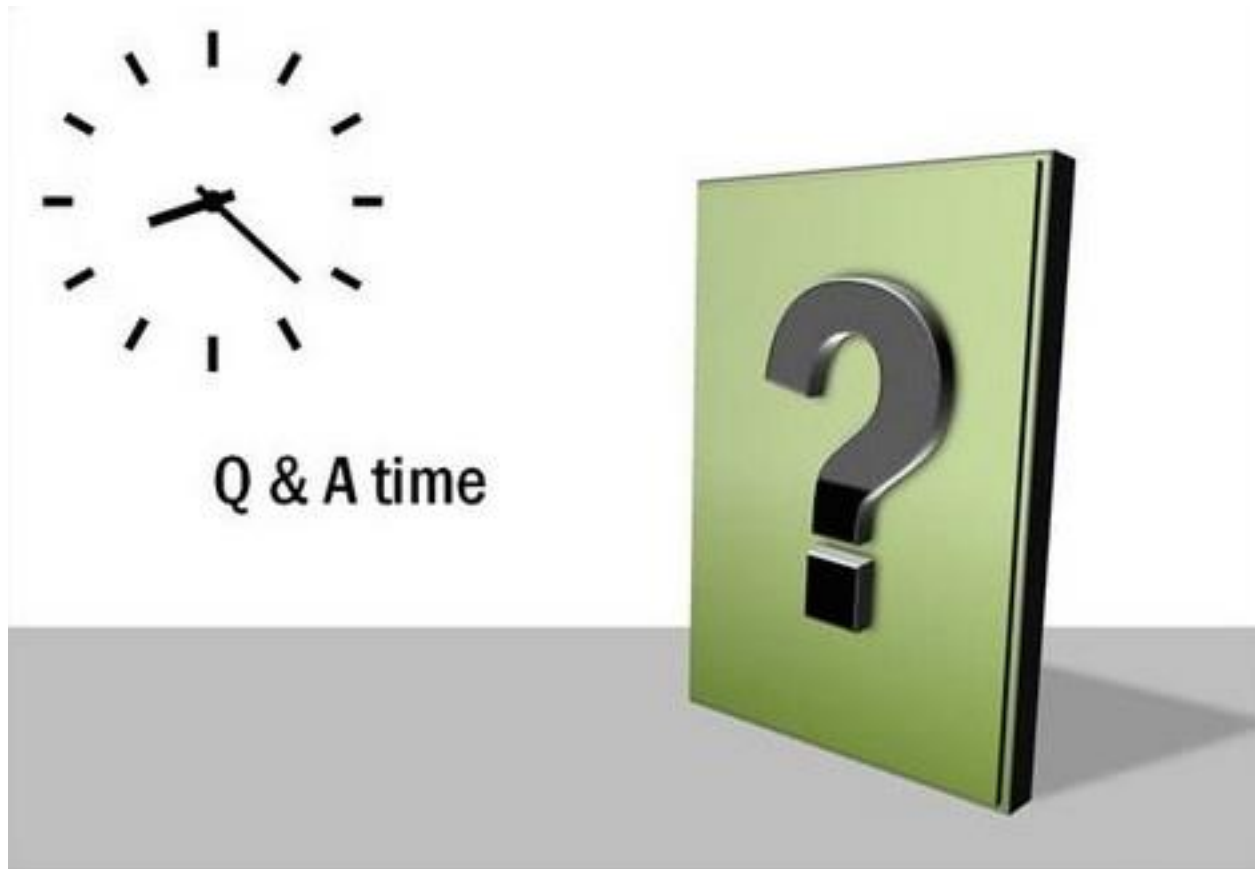




Next Class: Naïve Bayes (Contd.)

| Sl. No. | Agenda Topics |
|---------|--------------------------------------|
| 25. | Evaluating Classification Algorithms |
| 26. | Types of Errors |
| 27. | Sensitivity and Specificity |
| 28. | The ROC Space |
| 29. | The ROC Curve |
| 30. | ROC Analysis |
| 31. | Holdout Estimation |
| 32. | Repeated Holdout Method |
| 33. | Cross-Validation |
| 34. | Leave-One-Out Cross-Validation |
| 35. | Leave-One-Out-CV and Stratification |
| 36. | Points to Remember |







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