



الجامعة السورية الخاصة
SYRIAN PRIVATE UNIVERSITY

المحاضرة 8

كلية الهندسة المعلوماتية

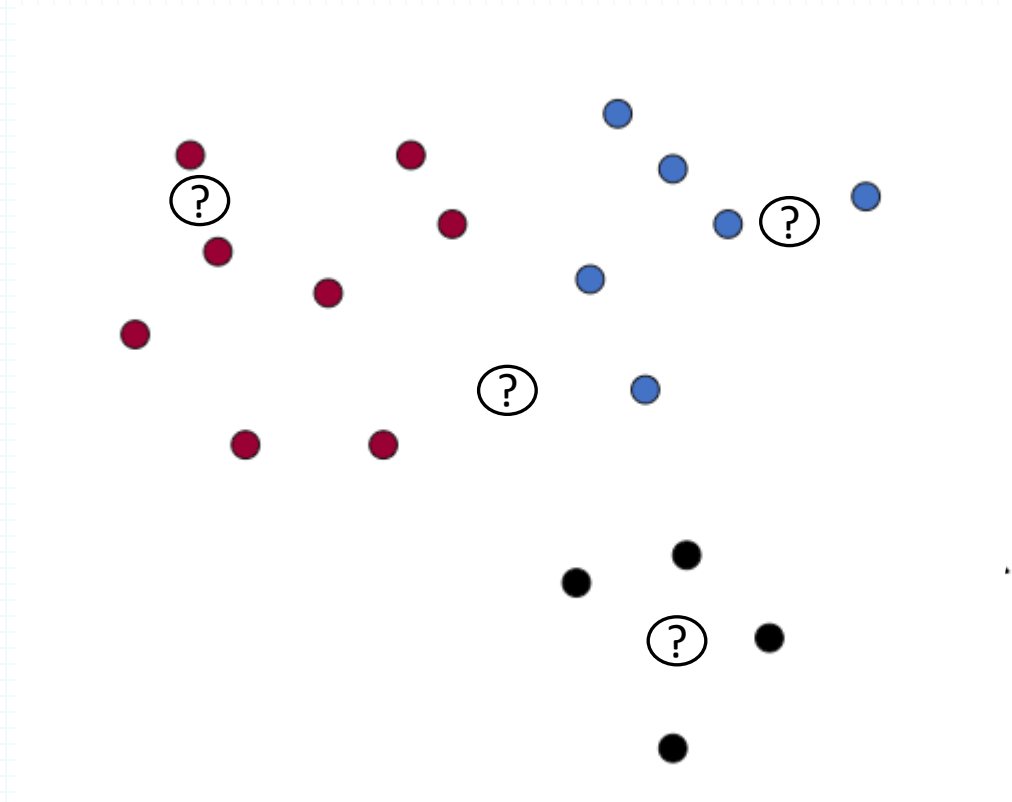
مقرر تعلم الآلة

K Nearest Neighbor (KNN)

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Basic Idea

- Each instance is represented as a vector of features.



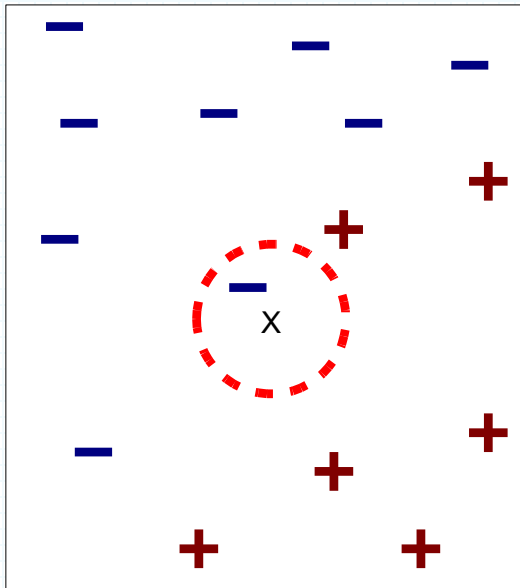
- Use closest training instances to predict the class of a new instance
- The instances themselves represent the knowledge!

● Sports
● Science
● Arts

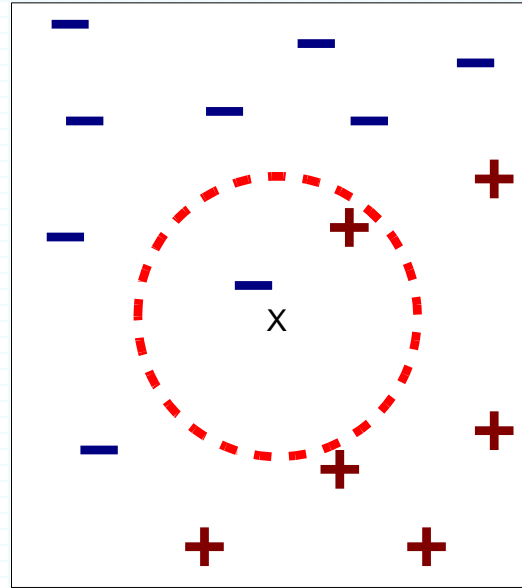
Basic Idea

- k -NN classification rule is to assign to a test sample the majority category label of its k nearest training samples
- In practice, k is usually chosen to be odd, so as to avoid ties
- The $k = 1$ rule is generally called the nearest-neighbor classification rule

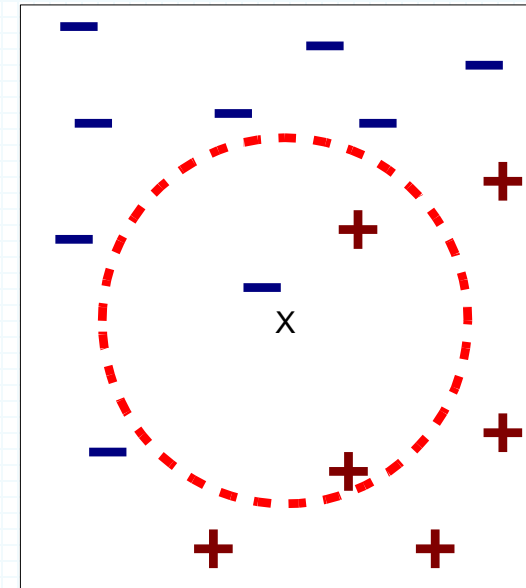
Definition of Nearest Neighbor



(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

Bayes optimal classifier and NN

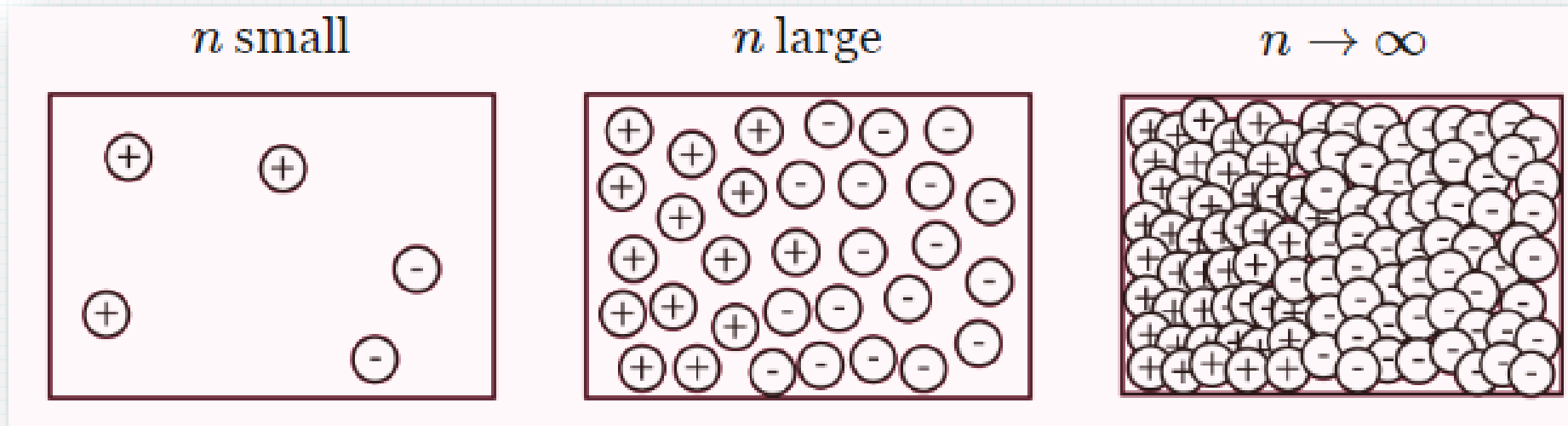
- Assume (and this is almost never the case) you knew $P(y|x)$, then you would simply predict the most likely label.

The Bayes optimal classifier predicts: $y^* = h_{\text{opt}}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(y|\mathbf{x})$

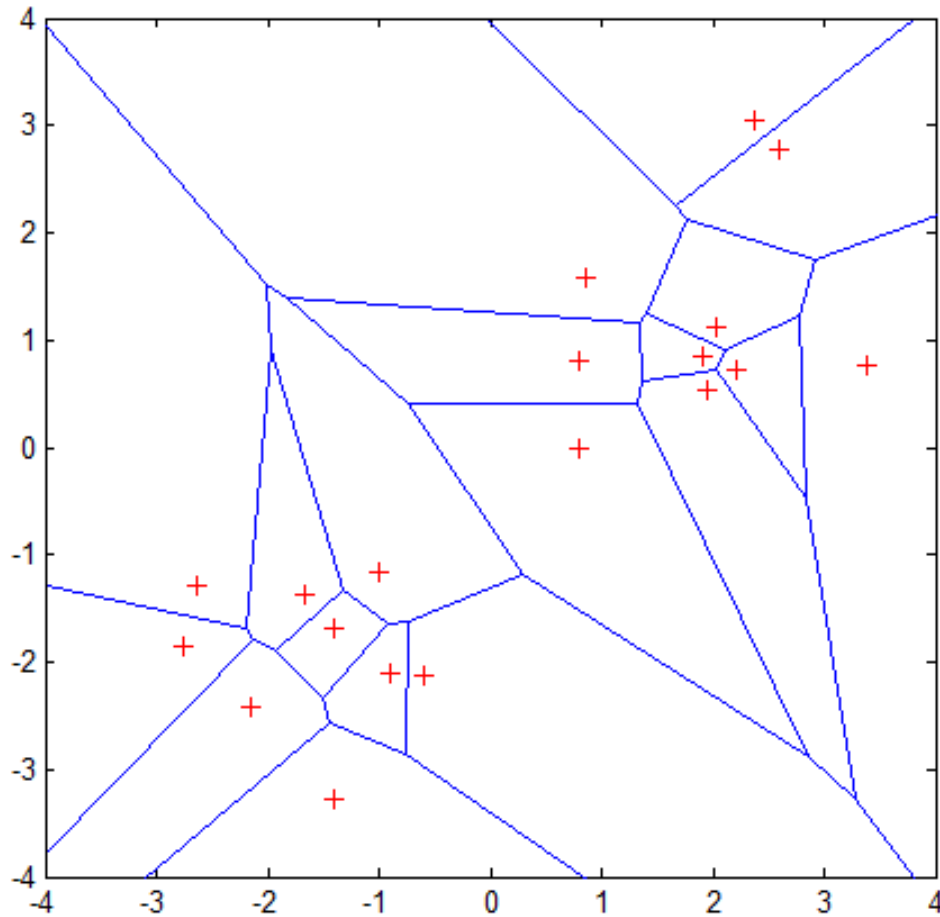
- Although the Bayes optimal classifier is as good as it gets, it still can make mistakes.
- **Why is the Bayes optimal classifier interesting, if it cannot be used in practice?** The reason is that it provides a highly informative lower bound of the error rate. With the same feature representation **no classifier can obtain a lower error.**

Bayes optimal classifier and NN

- As $n \rightarrow \infty$, the 1-NN classifier is only a factor 2 worse than the best possible classifier.



Voronoi Diagram

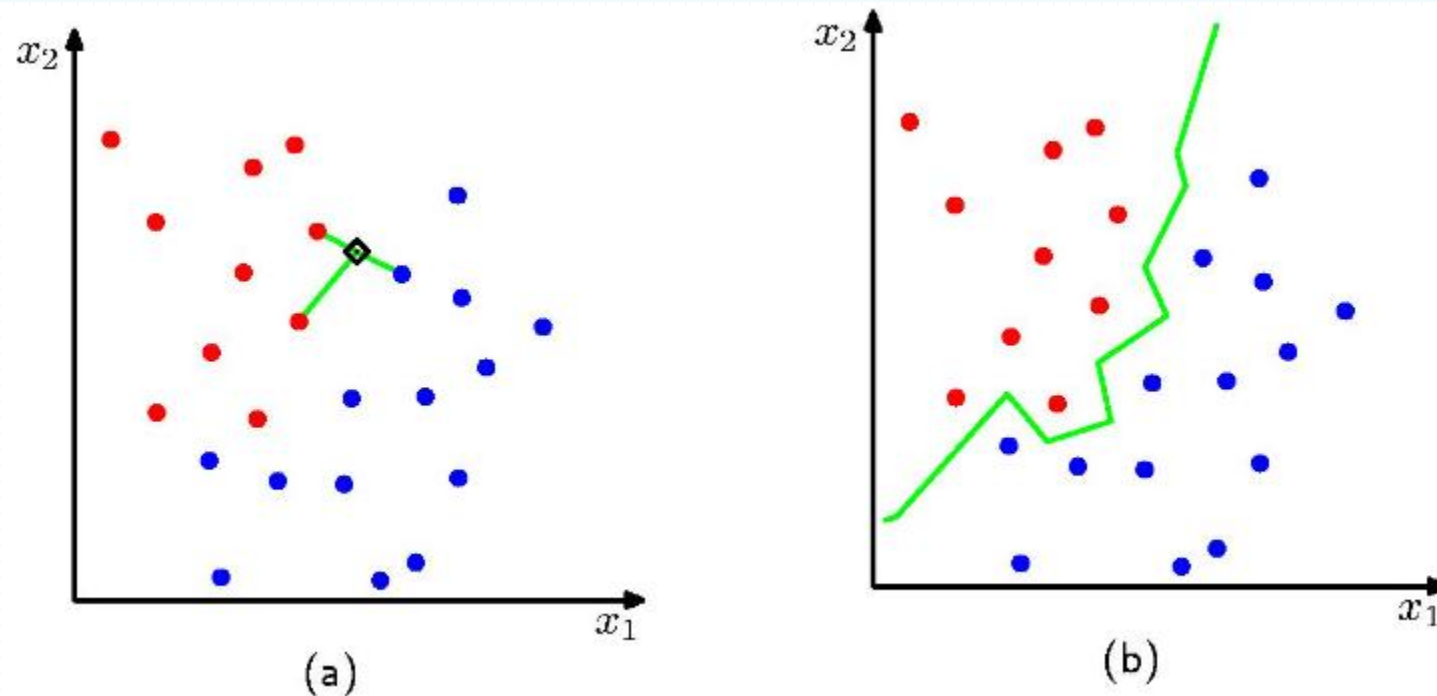


Properties:

- 1) All possible points within a sample's Voronoi cell are the nearest neighboring points for that sample
- 2) For any sample, the nearest sample is determined by the closest Voronoi cell edge

Decision boundary implemented by 3NN

- The boundary is always the perpendicular bisector of the line between two points (Vornoi tessellation)
 - k-nearest neighbors of a sample x are data points that have the k smallest distances to x



Nearest-Neighbor Classifiers: Issues

- (1) The value of k , the number of nearest neighbors to retrieve
- (2) Choice of Distance Metric to compute distance between records
- (3) The weight of each neighbor.
- (4) Computational complexity
 - Size of training set
 - Dimension of data

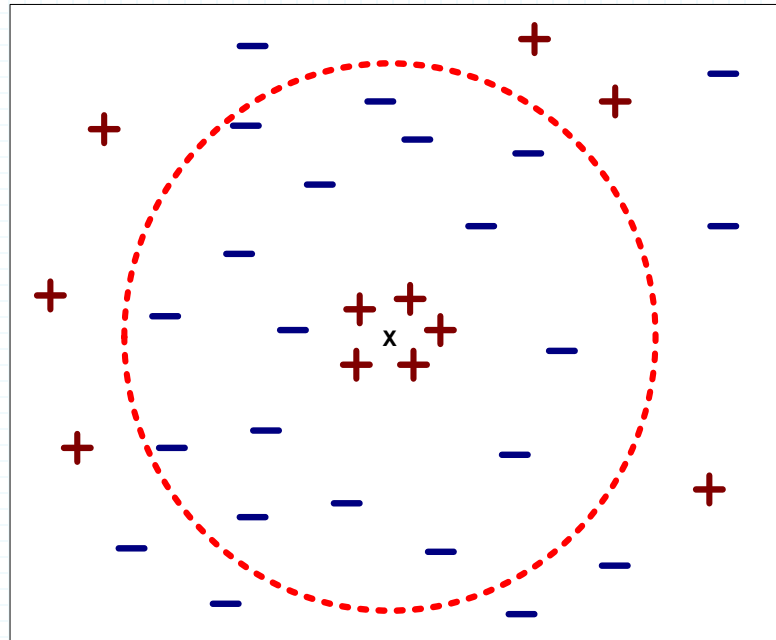
(1) Value of K

- 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

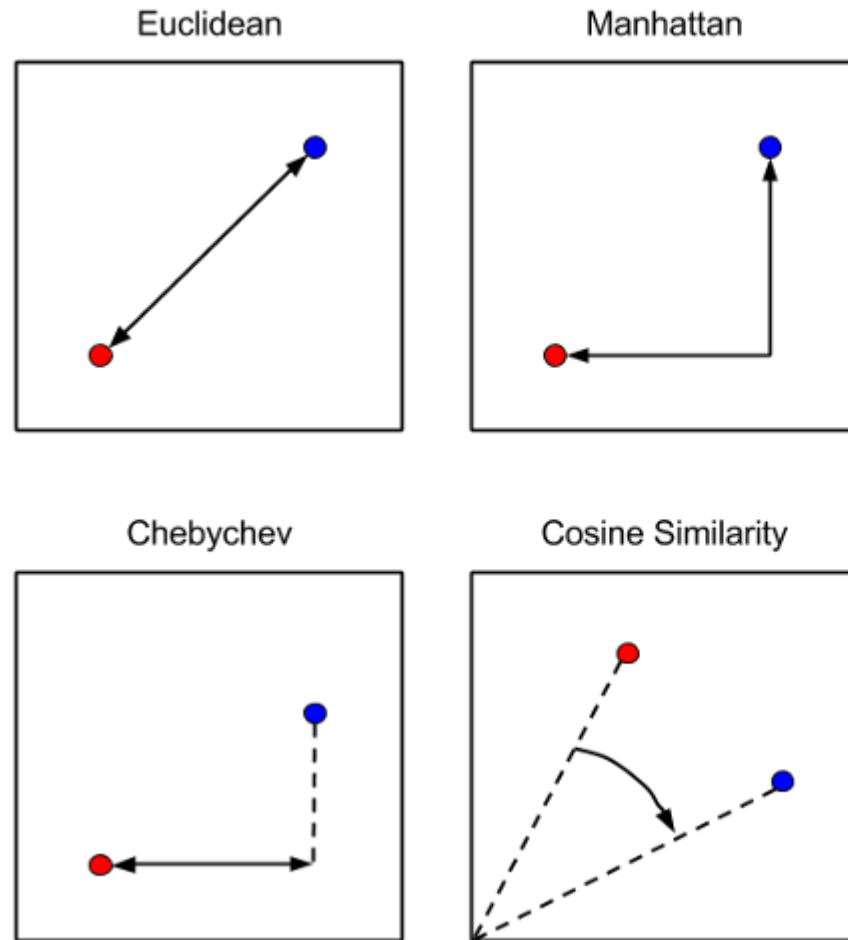
Rule of thumb:

$K = \sqrt{N}$

N: number of training points



(2) Distance Metrics



Minkowsky:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m |x_i - y_i|^r \right)^{1/r}$$

Euclidean:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

Manhattan / city-block:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^m |x_i - y_i|$$

Camberra:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{|x_i - y_i|}{|x_i + y_i|}$$

Chebychev:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \max_{i=1}^m |x_i - y_i|$$

Quadratic:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{Q} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \left(\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - y_i) q_{ji} \right) (x_j - y_j)$$

\mathbf{Q} is a problem-specific positive definite $m \times m$ weight matrix

Mahalanobis:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = [\det \mathbf{V}]^{1/m} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{V}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$

\mathbf{V} is the covariance matrix of $A_1..A_m$, and A_j is the vector of values for attribute j occurring in the training set instances $1..n$.

Correlation:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x}_i)(y_i - \bar{y}_i)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \bar{x}_i)^2 \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - \bar{y}_i)^2}}$$

$\bar{x}_i = \bar{y}_i$ and is the average value for attribute i occurring in the training set.

Chi-square:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{sum_i} \left(\frac{x_i}{size_x} - \frac{y_i}{size_y} \right)^2$$

sum_i is the sum of all values for attribute i occurring in the training set, and $size_x$ is the sum of all values in the vector \mathbf{x} .

Kendall's Rank Correlation:

$$D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1 - \frac{2}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \text{sign}(x_i - x_j) \text{sign}(y_i - y_j)$$

$\text{sign}(x) = -1, 0$ or 1 if $x < 0$, $x = 0$, or $x > 0$, respectively.

Figure 1. Equations of selected distance functions.
(\mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are vectors of m attribute values).

(2) Distance Measure: Scale Effects

- Different features may have different measurement scales
 - E.g., patient weight in kg (range [50,200]) vs. blood protein values in ng/dL (range [-3,3])
- Consequences
 - Patient weight will have a much greater influence on the distance between samples
 - May bias the performance of the classifier

(2) Distance Measure: Standardization

- Transform raw feature values into z-scores

$$z_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij} - \mu_j}{\sigma_j}$$

- x_{ij} is the value for the i^{th} sample and j^{th} feature
 - μ_j is the average of all x_{ij} for feature j
 - σ_j is the standard deviation of all x_{ij} over all input samples
- Range and scale of z-scores should be similar (providing distributions of raw feature values are alike)