

10-301/601: Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 4 –KNNs

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5/22/23

Front Matter

- Announcements:
 - PA1 released 5/18, due 5/25 at 11:59 PM
 - Quiz 1: Decision Trees on 5/19 (tomorrow!)
 - The quiz will begin promptly at 11 AM, please show up on time!
 - Closed book, closed notes, no calculators.
- Recommended Readings:
 - Daumé III, [Chapter 3: Geometry and Nearest Neighbors](#)

Real-valued Features



Fisher Iris Dataset

Fisher (1936) used 150 measurements of flowers from 3 different species: Iris setosa (0), Iris virginica (1), Iris versicolor (2) collected by Anderson (1936)

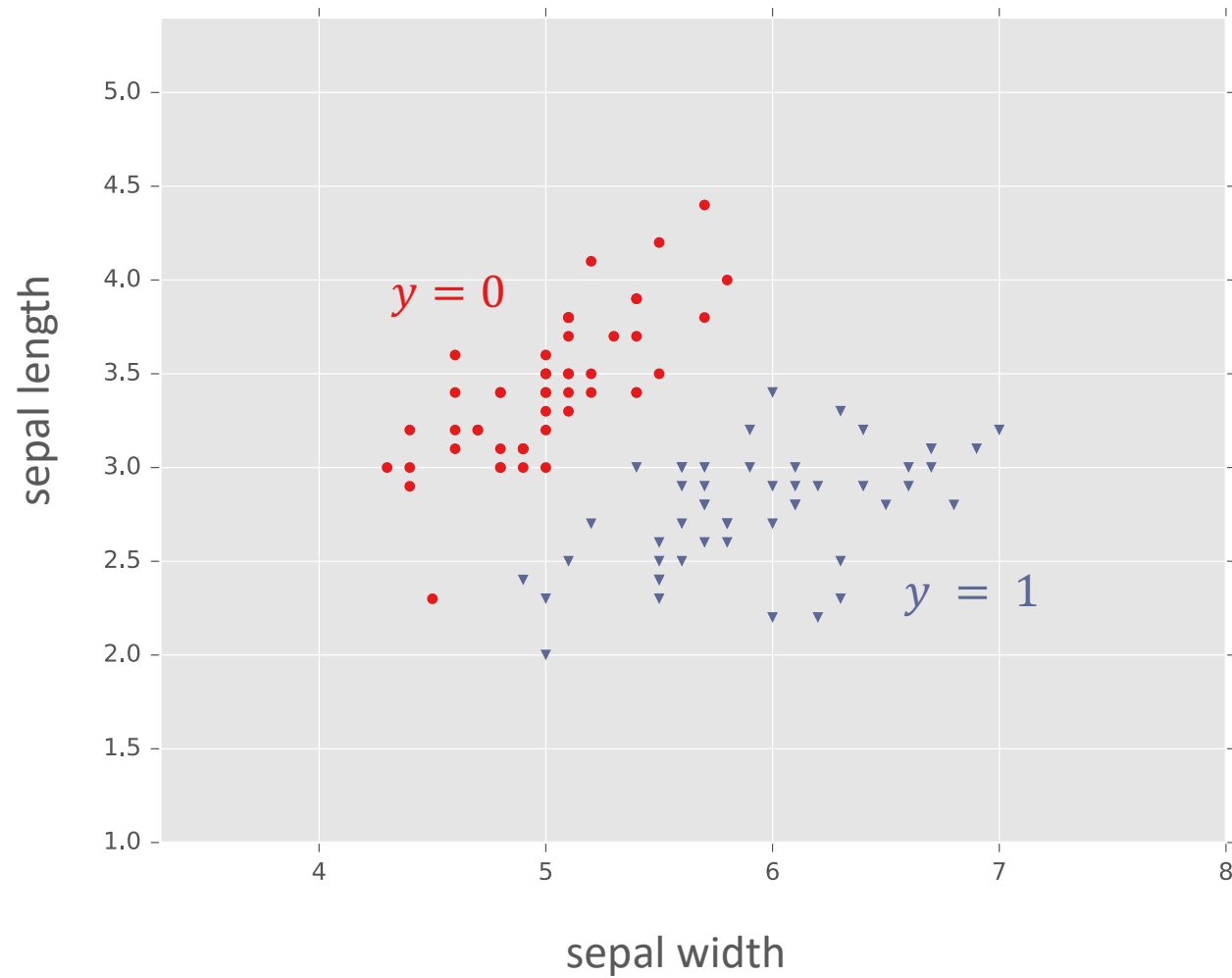
Species	Sepal Length	Sepal Width	Petal Length	Petal Width
0	4.3	3.0	1.1	0.1
0	4.9	3.6	1.4	0.1
0	5.3	3.7	1.5	0.2
1	4.9	2.4	3.3	1.0
1	5.7	2.8	4.1	1.3
1	6.3	3.3	4.7	1.6
1	6.7	3.0	5.0	1.7

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1	4.9	2.4
1	5.7	2.8
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1	6.7	3.0

Fisher Iris Dataset





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Duck test

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

For the use of "the duck test" within the Wikipedia community, see [Wikipedia:DUCK](#).

The **duck test** is a form of [abductive reasoning](#). This is its usual expression:

If it looks like a duck, swims like a duck, and quacks like a duck, then it probably *is* a duck.

The Duck Test

The Duck Test for Machine Learning

- Classify a point as the label of the “most similar” training point
- Idea: given real-valued features, we can use a distance metric to determine how similar two data points are
- A common choice is Euclidean distance:

$$d(x, x') = \|x - x'\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{d=1}^D (x_d - x'_d)^2}$$

- An alternative is the Manhattan distance:

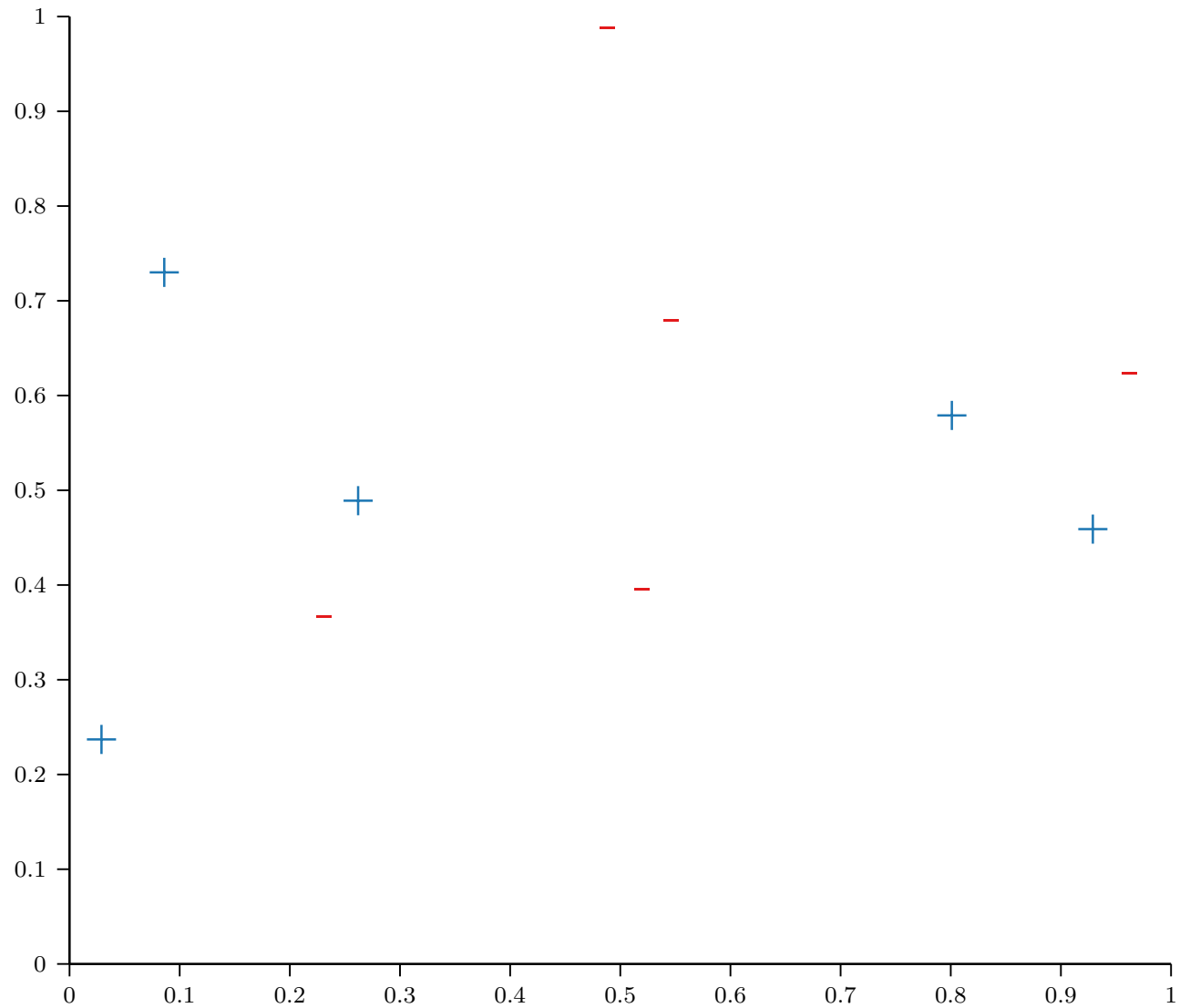
$$d(x, x') = \|x - x'\|_1 = \sum_{d=1}^D |x_d - x'_d|$$

$$L_p\text{-norm} = \sqrt[p]{\sum_{d=1}^D |x_d - x'_d|^p}$$

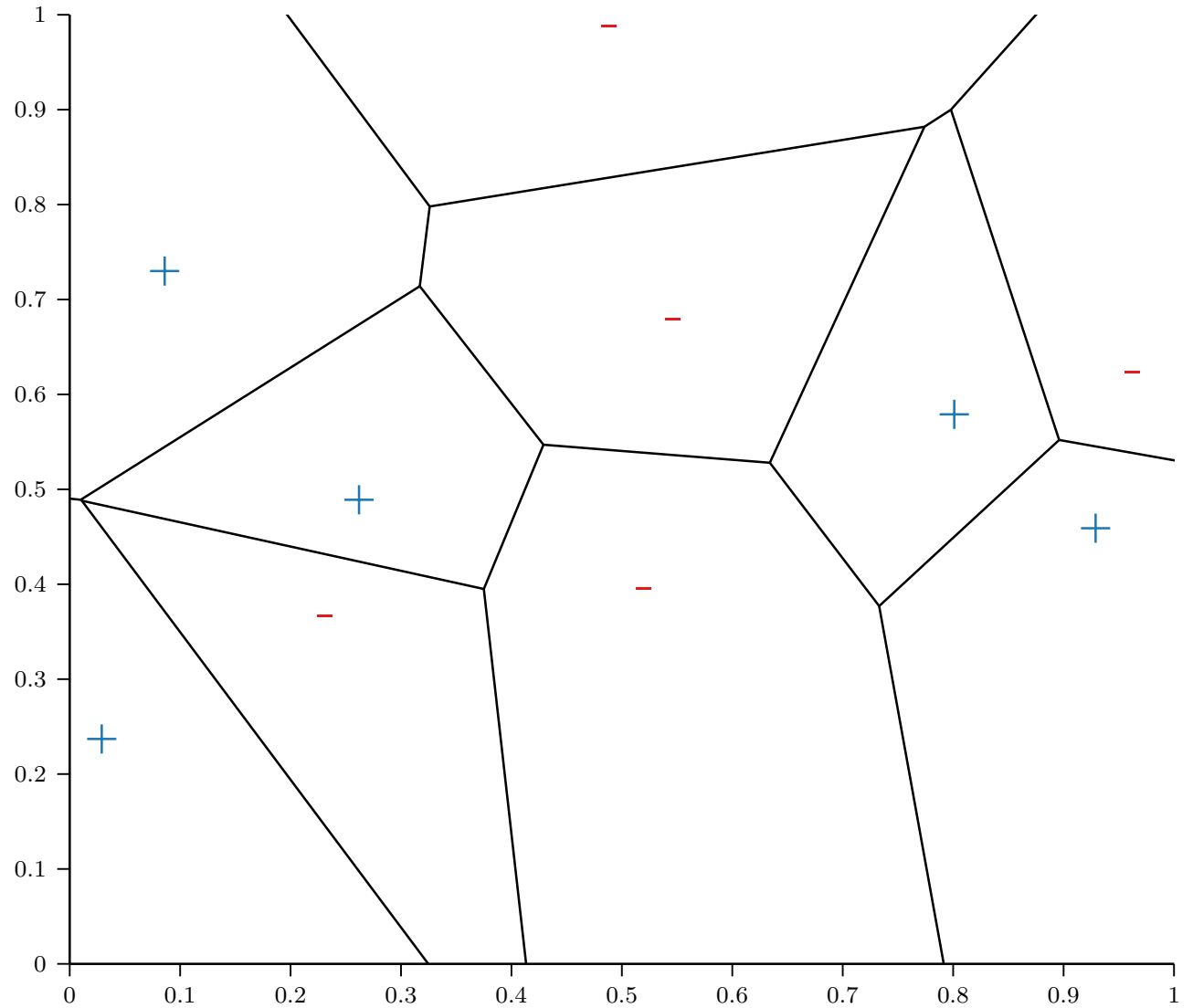
Nearest Neighbor: Pseudocode

```
def train( $D_{\text{train}}$ ):  
    store  $D_{\text{train}}$   
  
def predict( $x'$ ):  
    find the nearest neighbor to  $x'$   
    in  $D_{\text{train}}$ ,  $x^{(i)}$ , according to  
    distance metric  $d$   
    return  $y^{(i)}$ 
```

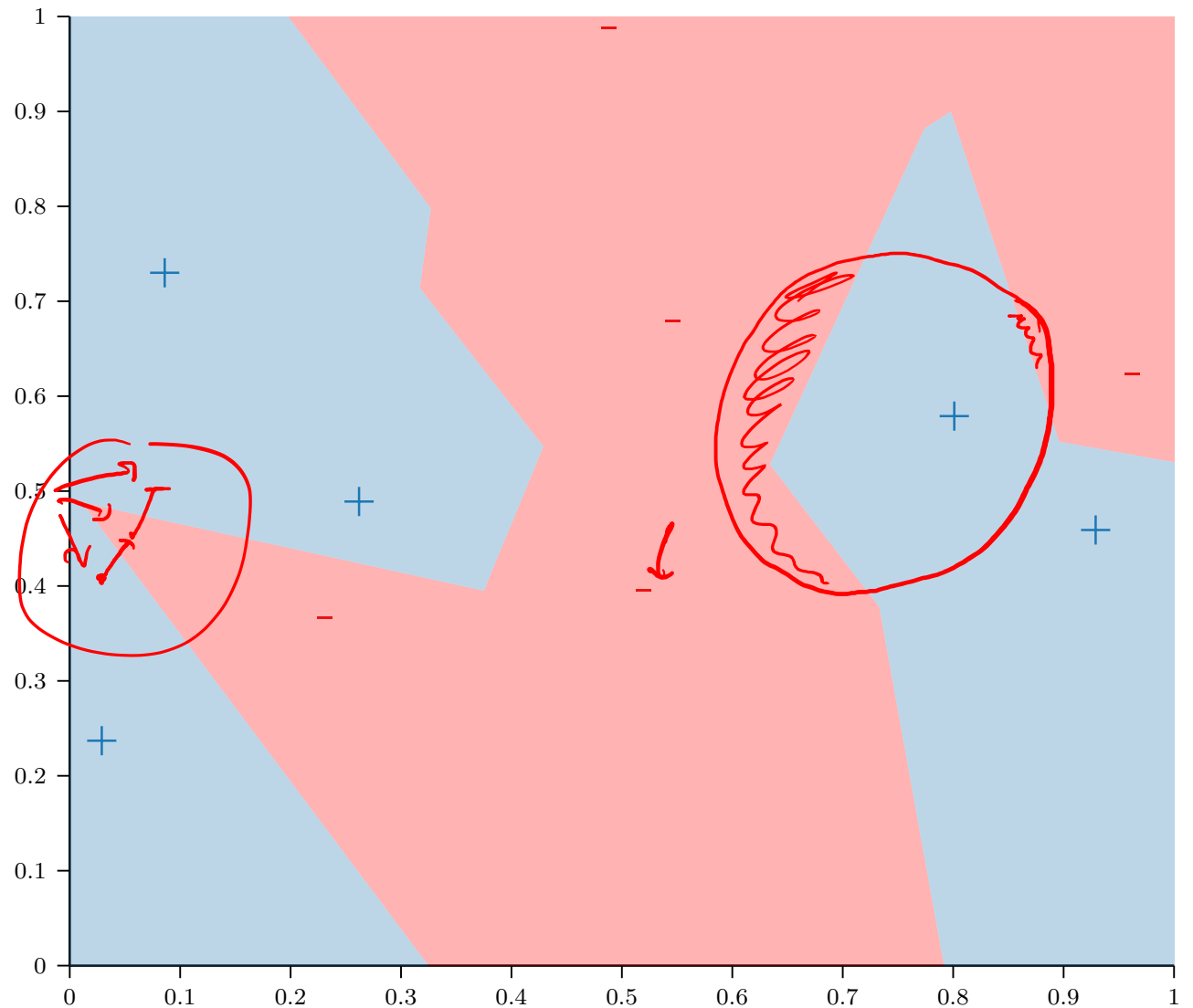
Nearest Neighbor: Example



Nearest Neighbor: Example



Nearest Neighbor: Example



The Nearest Neighbor Model

- Requires no training!
- Always has zero training error!
 - *A data point is always its own nearest neighbor*

⋮

- Always has zero training error...

Generalization of Nearest Neighbor (Cover and Hart, 1967)

- Claim: under certain conditions, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, with high probability, the true error rate of the nearest neighbor model $\leq 2 * \text{the Bayes error rate (the optimal classifier)}$
- Interpretation: “In this sense, it may be said that half the classification information in an infinite sample set is contained in the nearest neighbor.”

But why limit ourselves to just one neighbor?

- Claim: under certain conditions, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, with high probability, the true error rate of the nearest neighbor model $\leq 2 * \text{the Bayes error rate (the optimal classifier)}$
- Interpretation: “In this sense, it may be said that half the classification information in an infinite sample set is contained in the nearest neighbor.”

k -Nearest Neighbors (k NN)

- Classify a point as the most common label among the labels of the k nearest training points
- Tie-breaking (in case of even k and/or more than 2 classes)

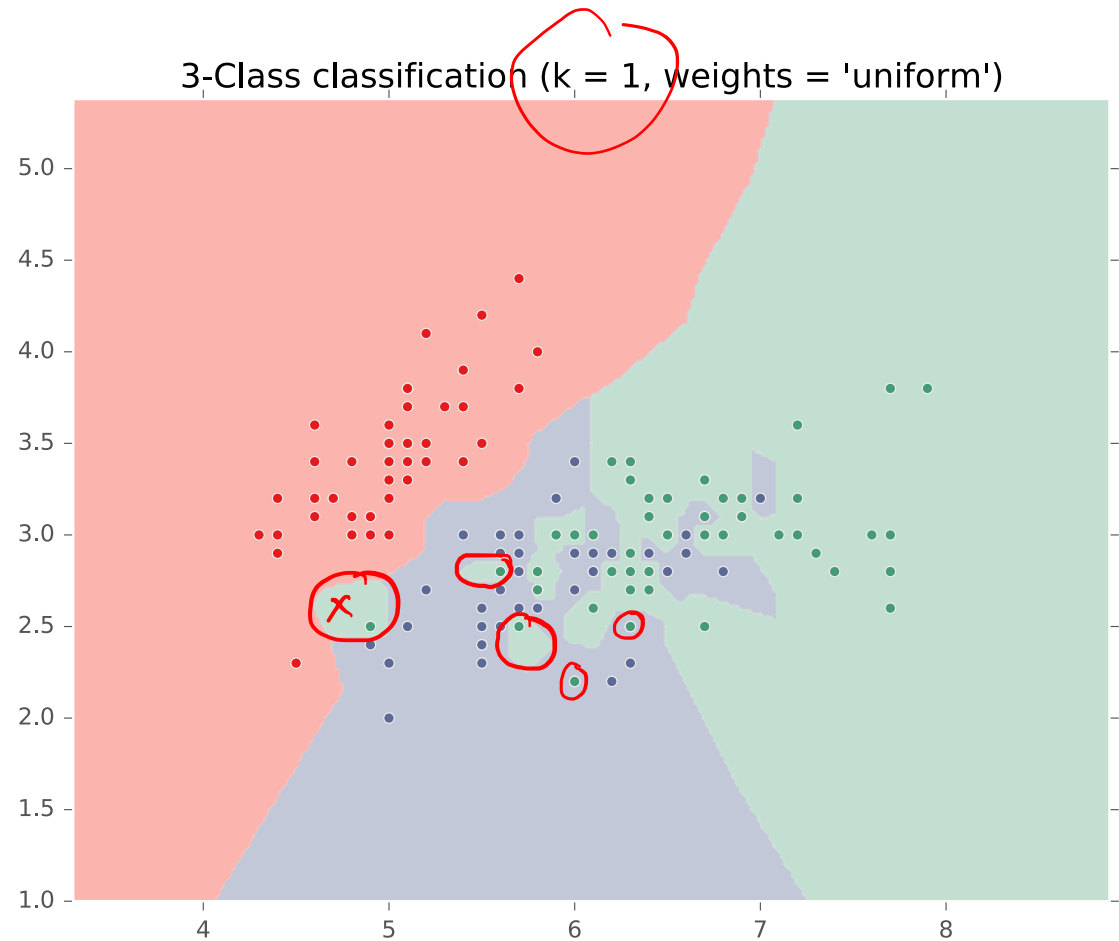
- add a neighbor
- remove a neighbor
- weight votes by distance
- draw a circle around the data point
- compute shaded areas
- return randomly or weighted randomly
- majority vote over all data points

- change d

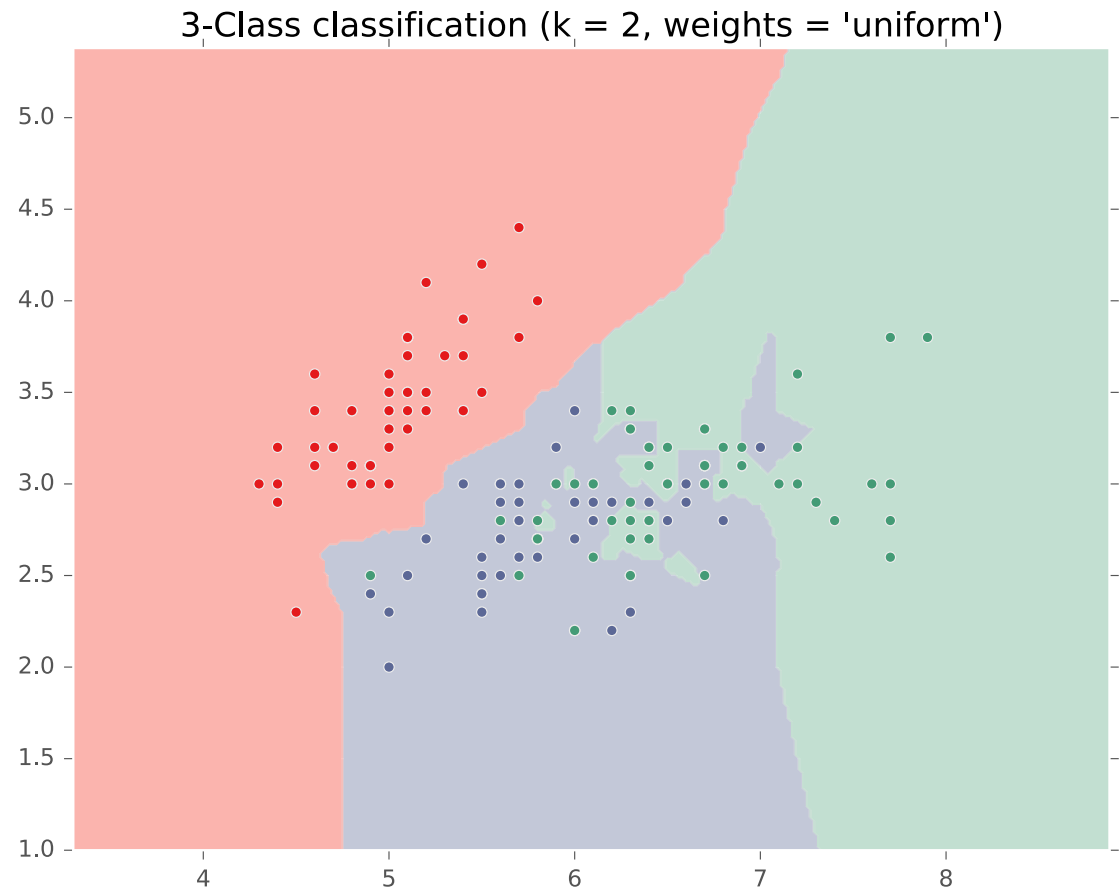
k -Nearest Neighbors (k NN): Pseudocode

```
def train ( $D_{\text{train}}$ ):  
    store  $D_{\text{train}}$   
def predict ( $x'$ ):  
    return majority_vote (labels of the  
         $k$  nearest neighbors to  
         $x'$  in  $D_{\text{train}}$  according  
        to distance metric  $d$ )
```

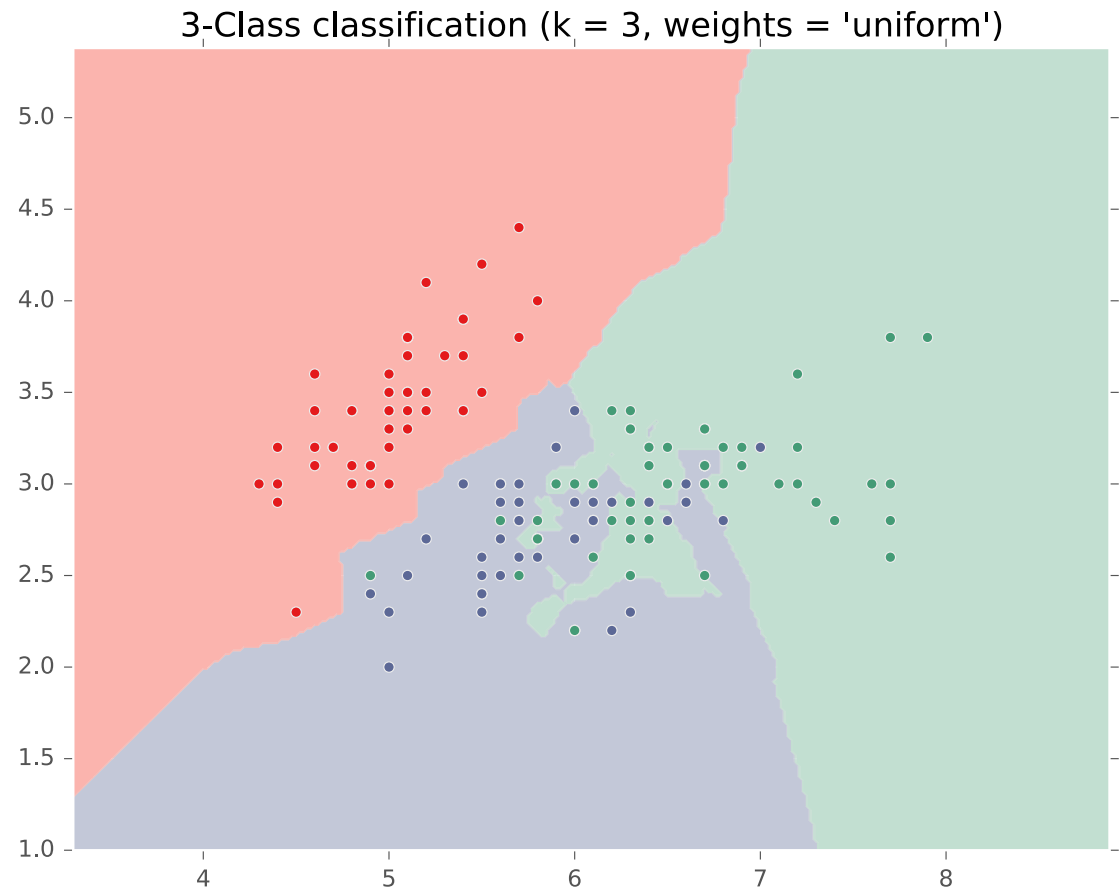
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



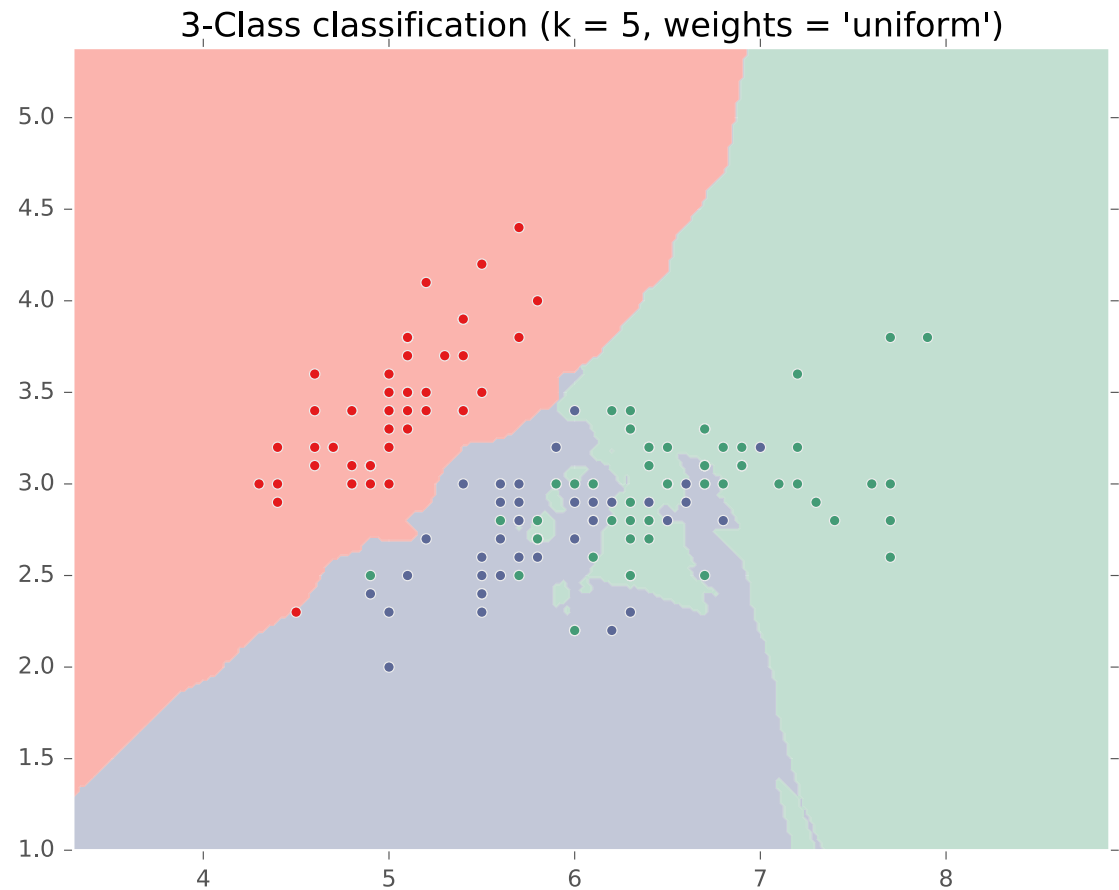
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



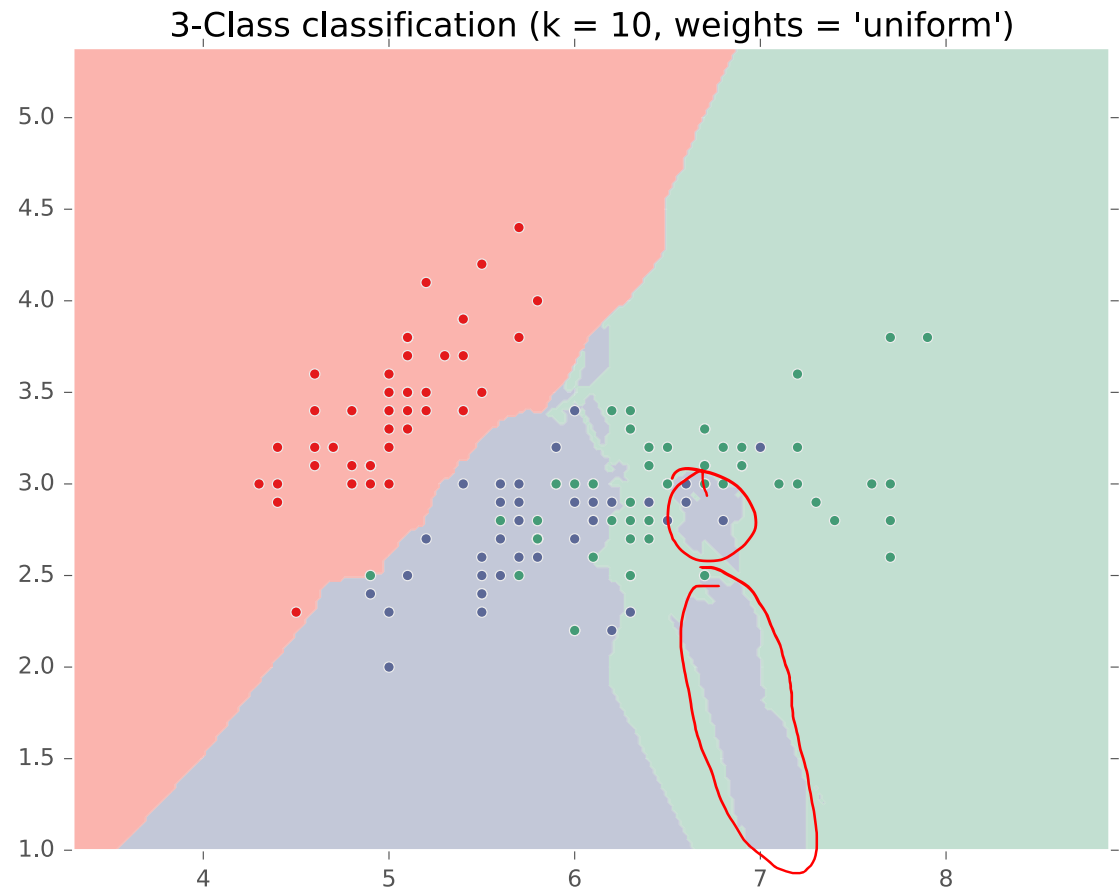
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



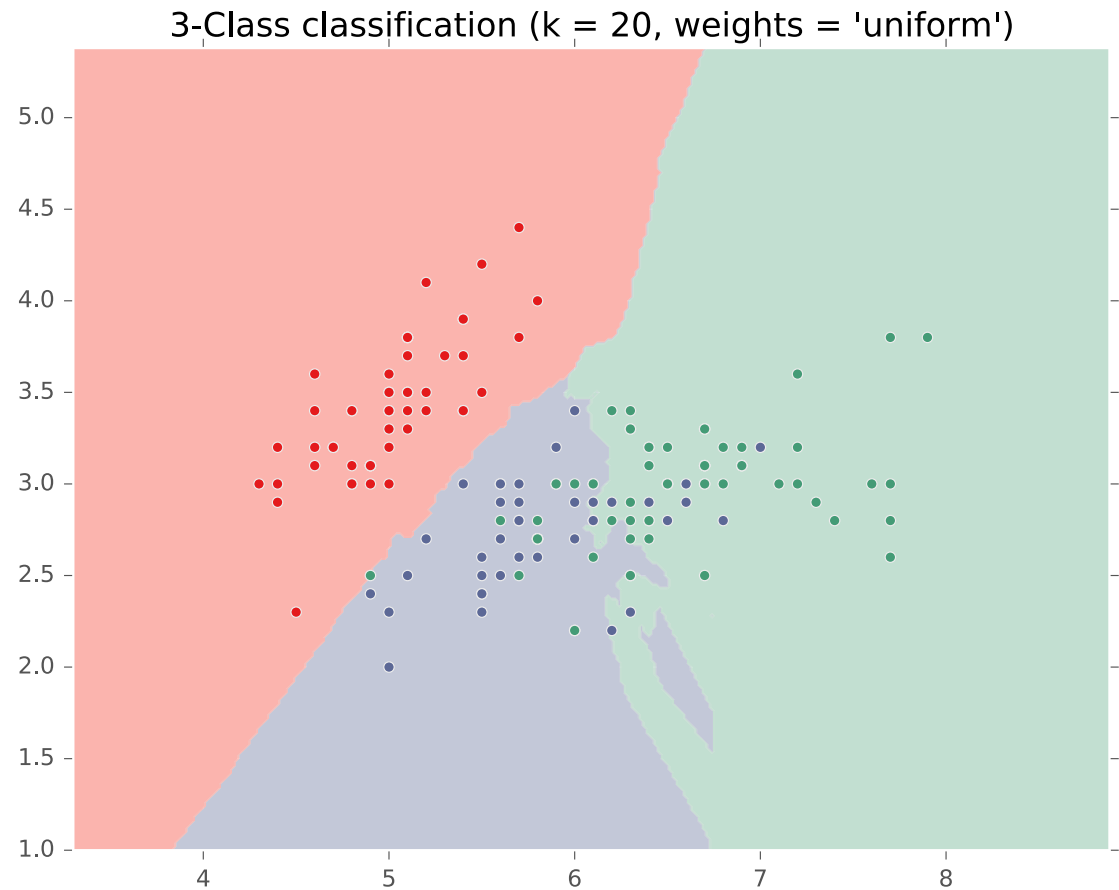
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



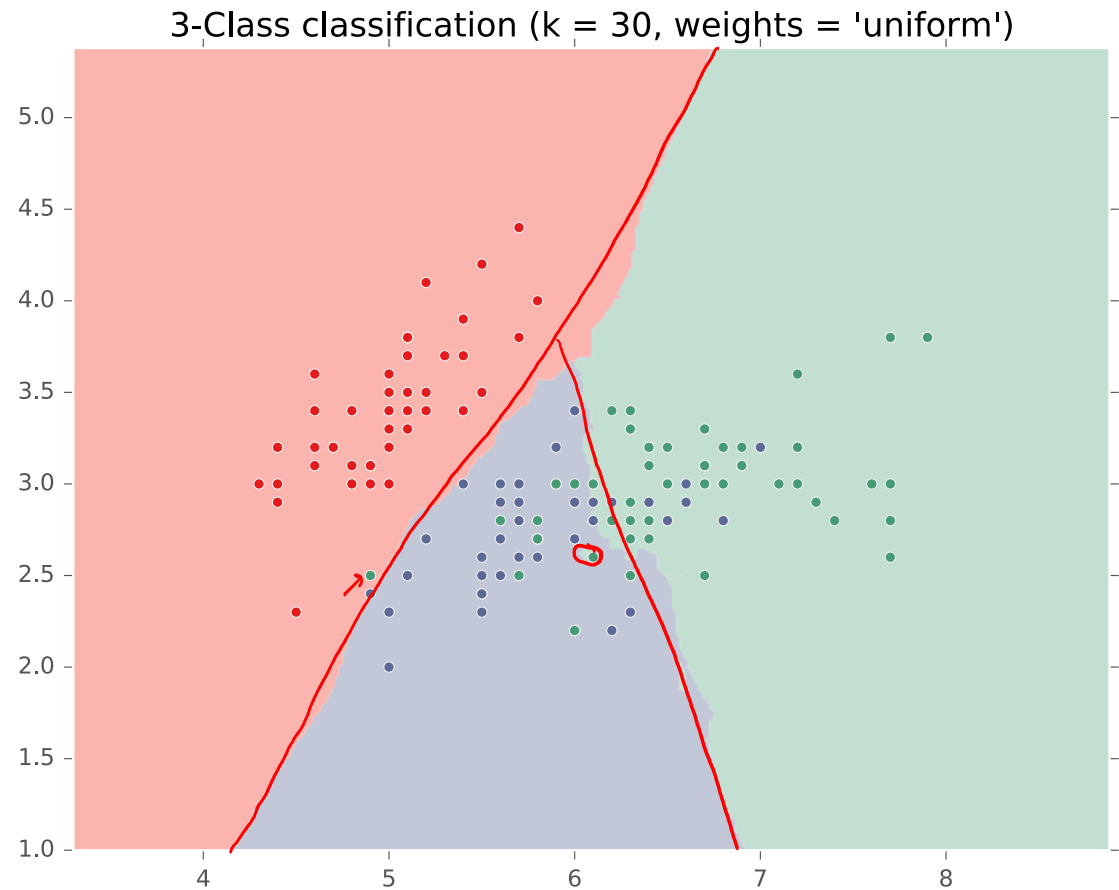
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



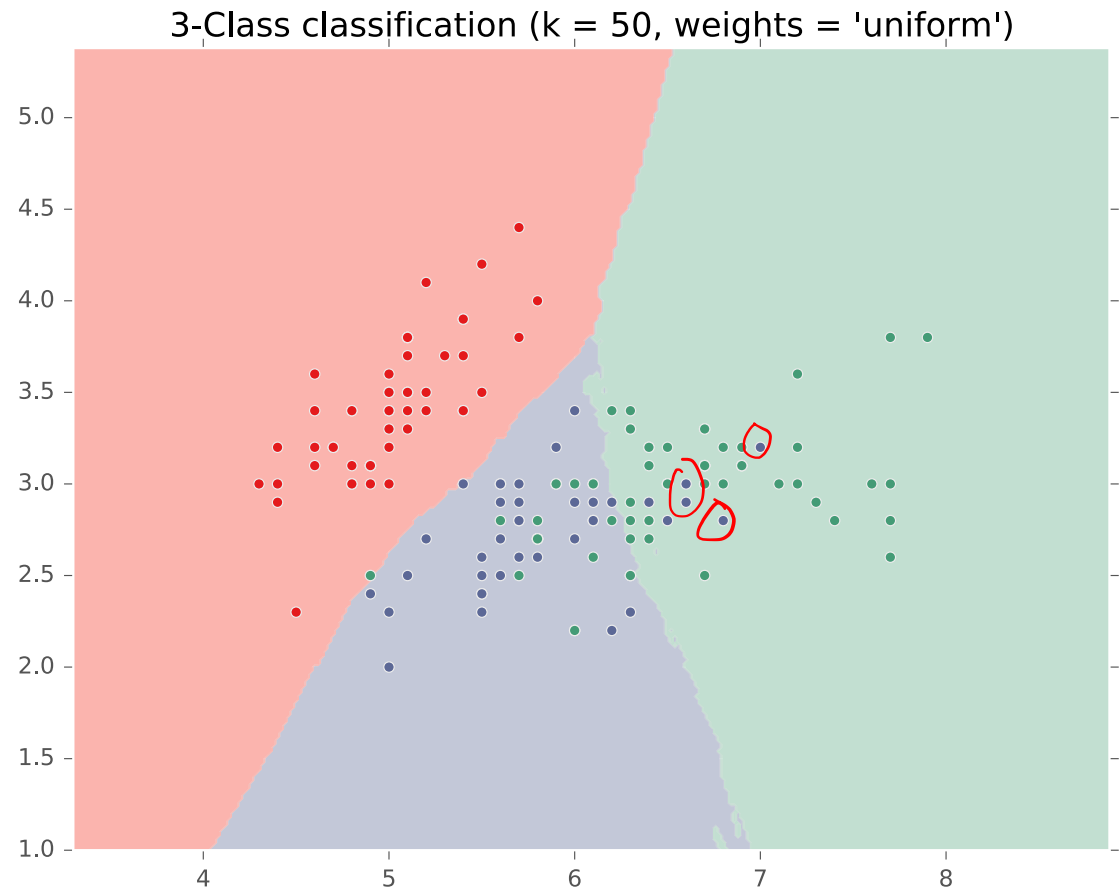
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



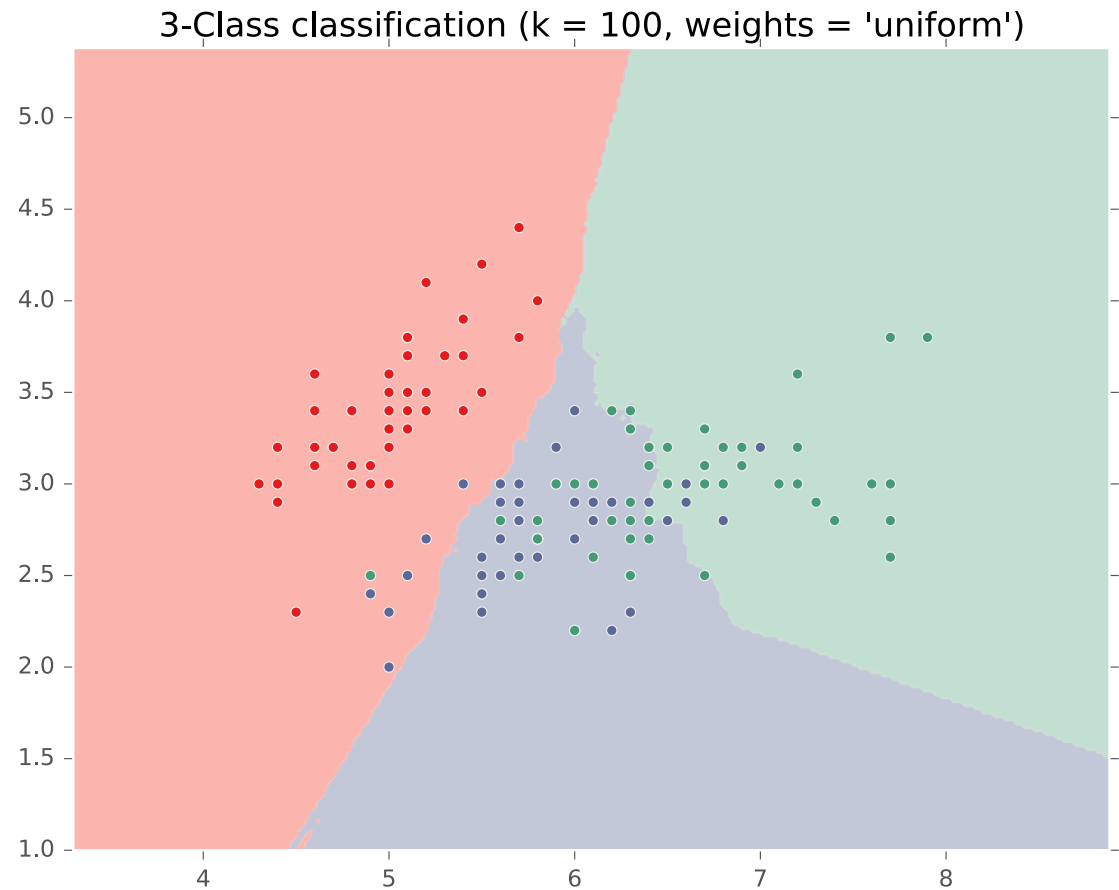
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



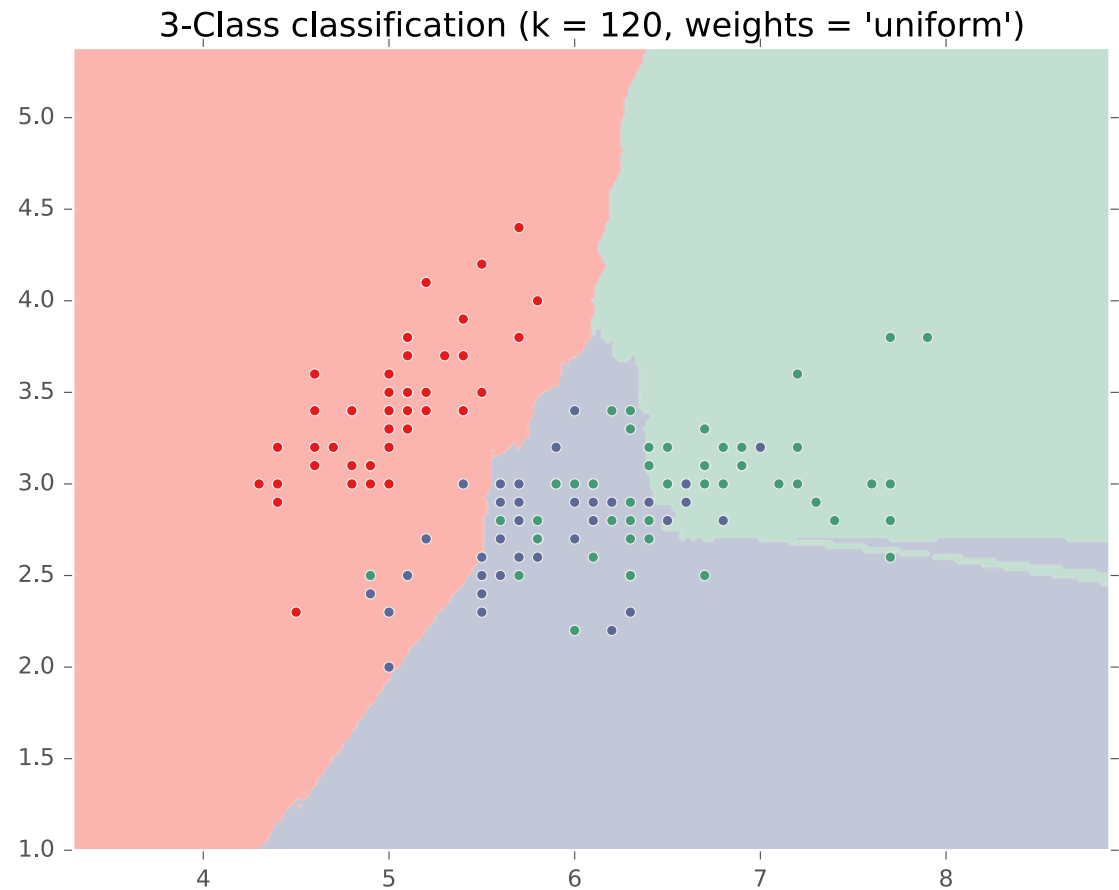
k NN on Fisher Iris Data



k NN on Fisher Iris Data

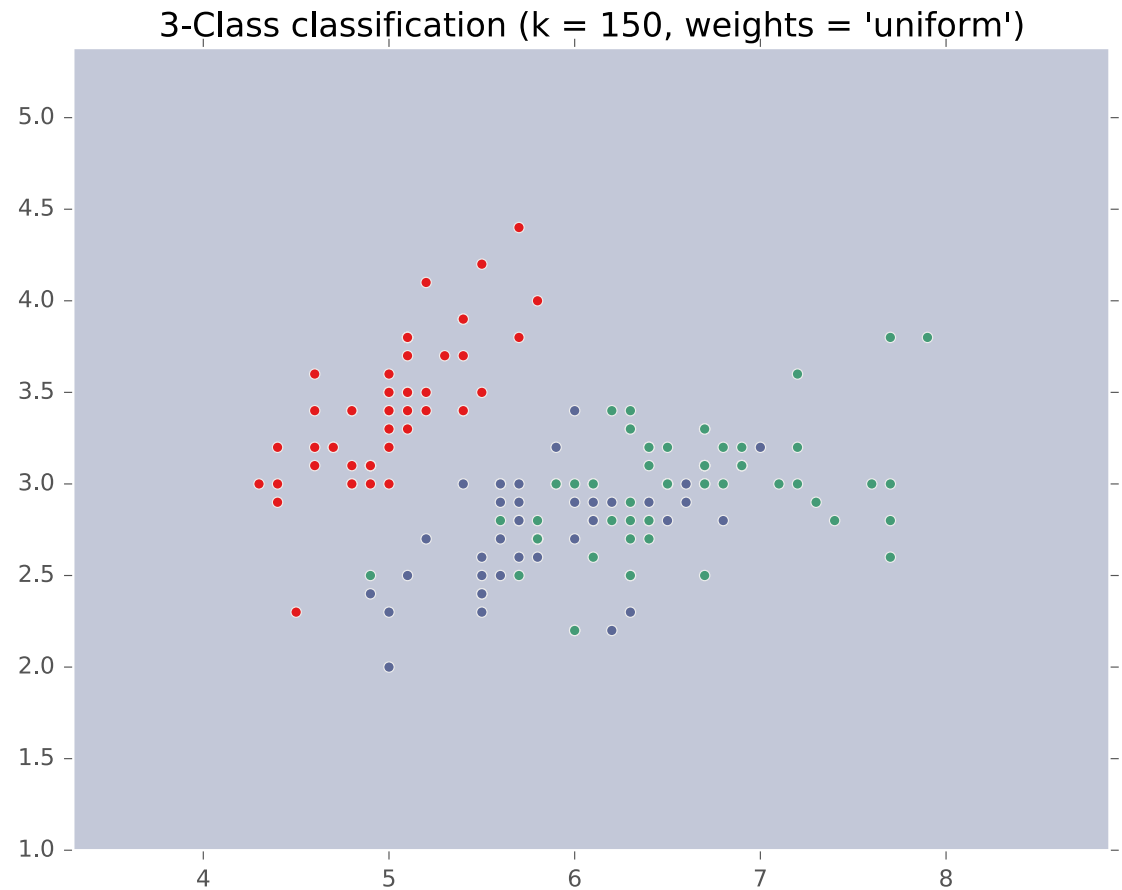


k NN on Fisher Iris Data





k NN on Fisher Iris Data



Setting k

- When $k = 1$:
 - many, complicated decision boundaries
 - may overfit
- When $k = N$:
 - no decision boundaries; always predicts the most common label in the training data
 - may underfit
- k controls the complexity of the hypothesis set $\implies k$ affects how well the learned hypothesis will generalize

Setting k

- Theorem:
 - If k is some function of N s.t. $k(N) \rightarrow \infty$ and $\frac{k(N)}{N} \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$...
 - ... then (under certain assumptions) the true error of a k NN model \rightarrow the Bayes error rate
- Practical heuristics:
 - $k = \lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor$
 - $k = 3$
- Can also set k through (cross-)validation (stay tuned)

Aside: k NN and Categorical Features

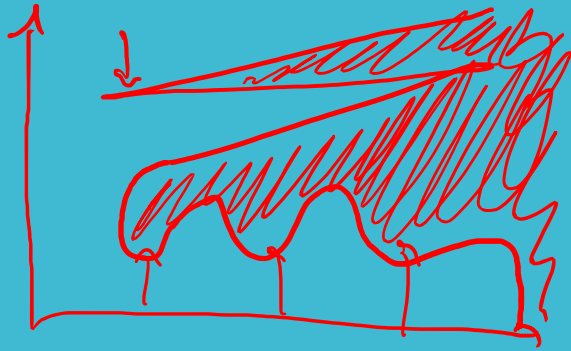
- k NNs are compatible with categorical features, either by:
 1. Converting categorical features into binary ones:

Cholesterol		Normal Cholesterol?	Abnormal Cholesterol?
Normal	→	1	0
Normal		1	0
Abnormal		0	1

2. Using a distance metric that works over categorical features e.g., the Hamming distance:

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sum_{d=1}^D \mathbb{1}(x_d \neq x'_d)$$

kNN: Inductive Bias

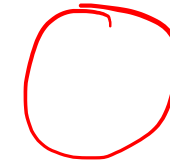
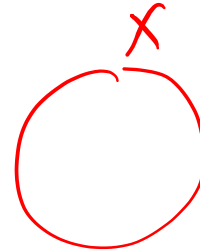


$$d(x, x') = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2}$$

$$d(x_{\text{new}}, x'_{\text{new}}) = \sqrt{2^2 + (0.0)^2} \approx \sqrt{4} = 2$$

- Similar points should have similar labels and *all features are equivalently important for determining similarity*

x'



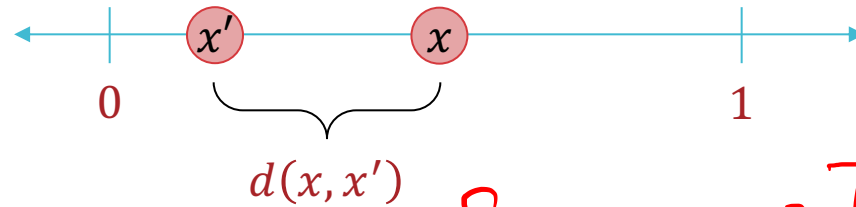
- Feature scale can dramatically influence results!

Curse of Dimensionality

- The fundamental assumption of k NN is that “similar” points or points close to one another should have the same label
- The closer two points are, the more confident we can be that they will have the same label
- As the dimensionality of the input grows, the less likely it is that two random points will be close
- As the dimensionality of the input grows, it takes more points to “cover” the input space

Curse of Dimensionality

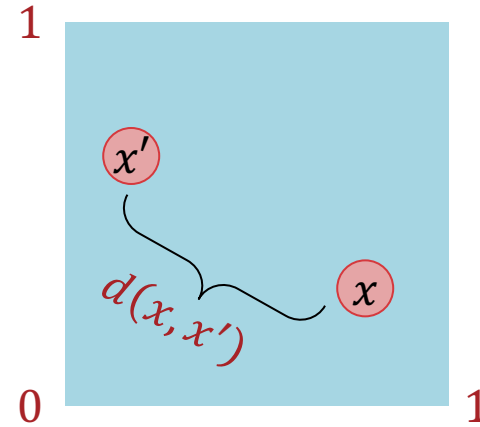
- Suppose you independently draw two one-dimensional points between 0 and 1 uniformly at random:



$$\begin{aligned} E[d(x, x')^2] &= E[(x - x')^2] \\ &= E[x^2 - 2xx' + x'^2] \\ &= E[x^2] - 2E[xx'] + E[x'^2] \\ &= E[x^2] - 2E[x]E[x'] + E[x'^2] = \frac{1}{3} - 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Curse of Dimensionality

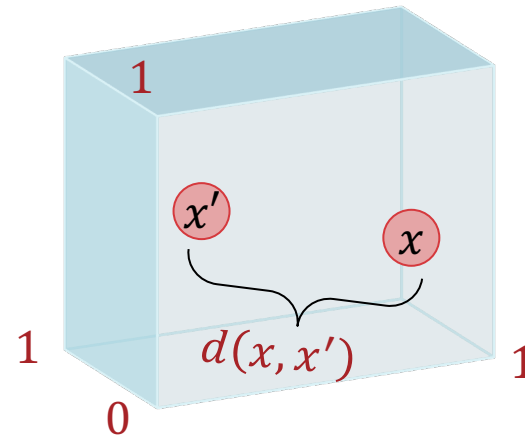
- Suppose you independently draw two two-dimensional points in the unit square uniformly at random:



$$\begin{aligned} E[d(x, x')^2] &= E[(x_1 - x'_1)^2 + (x_2 - x'_2)^2] \\ &= E[(x_1 - x'_1)^2] + E[(x_2 - x'_2)^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Curse of Dimensionality

- Suppose you independently draw two three-dimensional points in the unit cube uniformly at random:



$$E[d(x, x')^2] = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Curse of Dimensionality

- Assume all dimensions of the input are independent and identically distributed.
- Given $N + 1$ data points, $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(N)}\}$ and \mathbf{x}^* , let

$$d_+ = \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}} d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^*) \text{ and } d_- = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}} d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^*)$$

- Then

$$\lim_{D \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \left[\frac{d_+ - d_-}{d_-} \right] \rightarrow 0$$

Curing the Curse of Dimensionality

- More data
- Fewer dimensions
- Blessing of non-uniformity: data from the real world is rarely uniformly distributed across the input space

k NN: Pros and Cons

- Pros:
 - Intuitive / explainable
 - No training / retraining
 - Provably near-optimal in terms of true error rate
- Cons:
 - Computationally expensive
 - Always needs to store all data: $O(ND)$
 - Finding the k closest points in D dimensions: $O(ND + N \log(k))$
 - Can be sped up through clever use of data structures (trades off training and test costs)
 - Can be approximated using stochastic methods
 - Affected by feature scale
 - Suffers from the curse of dimensionality

Key Takeaways

- Real-valued features and decision boundaries
- Nearest neighbor model and generalization guarantees
- k NN “training” and prediction
- Effect of k on model complexity
- k NN inductive bias
- Curse of dimensionality