

# CS145: INTRODUCTION TO DATA MINING

## 7: Vector Data: K Nearest Neighbor

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# Methods to Learn: Last Lecture


	Vector Data	Set Data	Sequence Data	Text Data
Classification	Logistic Regression; Decision Tree; KNN SVM; <b>NN</b>			Naïve Bayes for Text
Clustering	K-means; hierarchical clustering; DBSCAN; Mixture Models			PLSA
Prediction	Linear Regression GLM*			
Frequent Pattern Mining		Apriori; FP growth	GSP; PrefixSpan	
Similarity Search			DTW	

# Methods to Learn

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# K Nearest Neighbor

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- Introduction 
- kNN
- Similarity and Dissimilarity
- Summary

# Lazy vs. Eager Learning

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- 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 tuples, 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 an 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

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- 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, e.g., a Euclidean space.
  - Locally weighted regression
    - Constructs local approximation

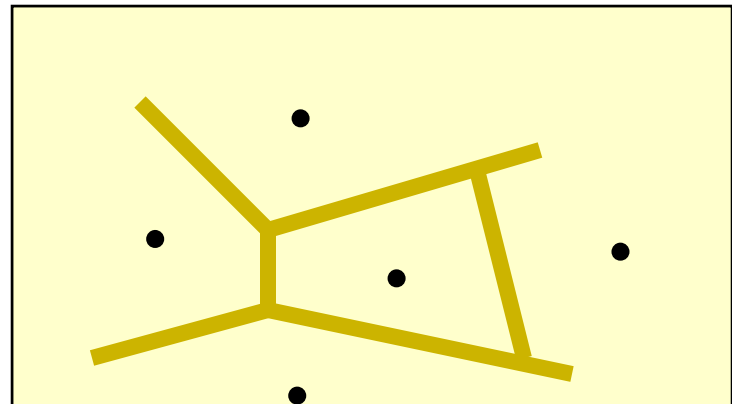
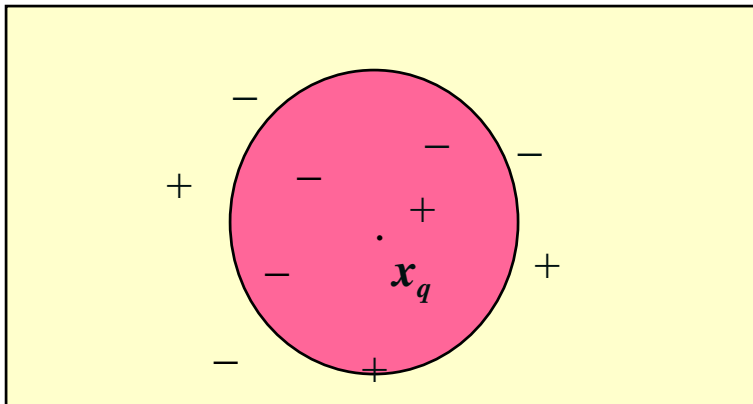
# K Nearest Neighbor

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# The $k$ -Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

- All instances correspond to points in the  $n$ -D space
- The nearest neighbor are defined in terms of a distance measure,  $\text{dist}(\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2)$
- Target function could be discrete- or real- valued
- For discrete-valued,  $k$ -NN returns the **most common value** among the  $k$  training examples nearest to  $x_q$
- Voronoi diagram: the decision surface induced by 1-NN for a typical set of training examples



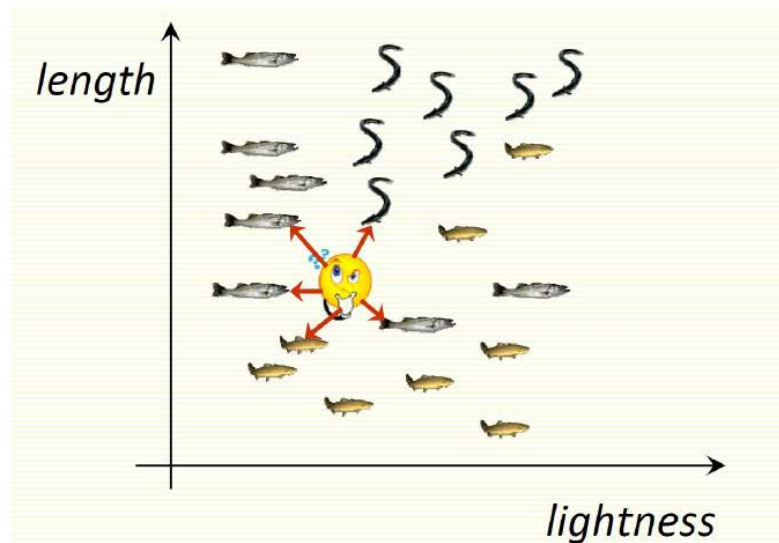


# kNN Example

$X = (\text{length}, \text{lightness})$

Classes = {salmon, sea bass, eel}

Task: Identify fish given its (length, lightness)



$K = 5 : 3 \text{ sea bass}, 1 \text{ eel}, 1 \text{ salmon} \Rightarrow \text{sea bass}$

# kNN Algorithm Summary

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- Choose  $K$
- For a given new instance  $X_{new}$ , find  $K$  closest training points w.r.t. a distance measure
- Classify  $X_{new}$  = majority vote among the  $K$  points

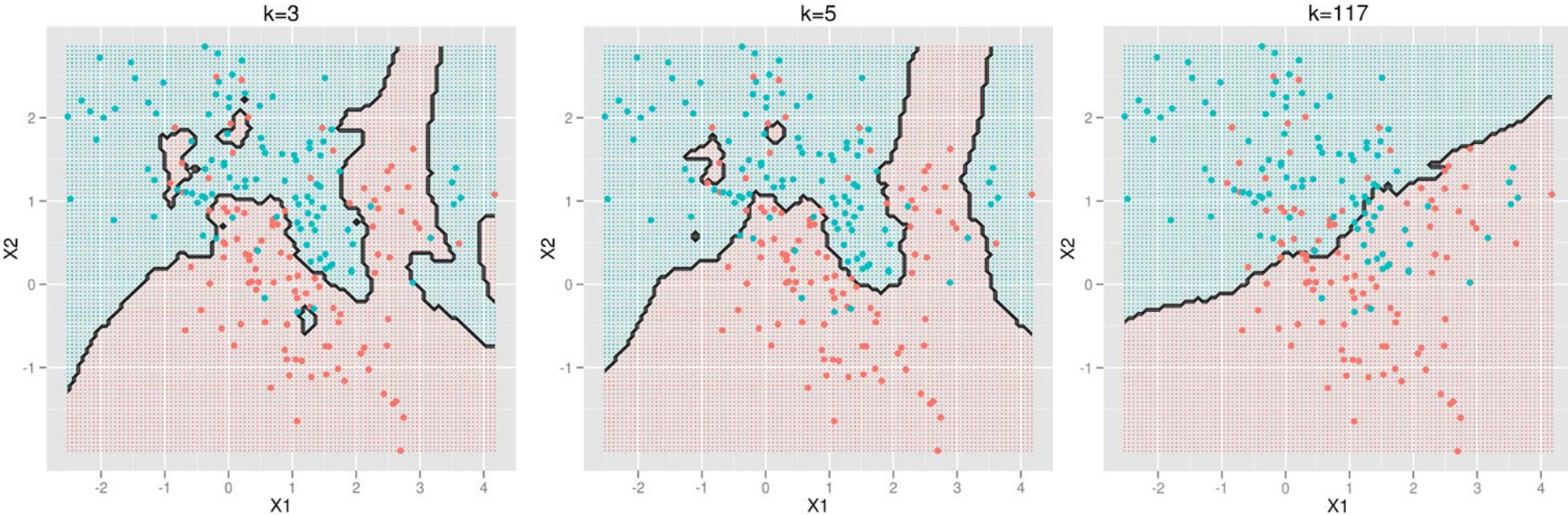
# Discussion on the $k$ -NN Algorithm

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- $k$ -NN for real-valued prediction for a given unknown tuple
  - Returns the mean values of the  $k$  nearest neighbors
- Distance-weighted nearest neighbor algorithm
  - Weight the contribution of each of the  $k$  neighbors according to their distance to the query  $x_q$ 
    - Give greater weight to closer neighbors  $e.g., w_i = \frac{1}{d(x_q, x_i)^2}$
    - $y_q = \frac{\sum w_i y_i}{\sum w_i}$ , where  $x_i$ 's are  $x_q$ 's nearest neighbors  $w_i = \exp(-d(x_q, x_i)^2 / 2\sigma^2)$
- Robust to noisy data by averaging  $k$ -nearest neighbors
- Curse of dimensionality: distance between neighbors could be dominated by irrelevant attributes
  - To overcome it, axes stretch or elimination of the least relevant attributes

# Selection of k for kNN

- The number of neighbors  $k$ 
  - Small  $k$ : overfitting (high var., low bias)
  - Big  $k$ : bringing too many irrelevant points (high bias, low var.)




- More discussions:

<http://scott.fortmann-roe.com/docs/BiasVariance.html>

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# Similarity and Dissimilarity

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- **Similarity**
  - Numerical measure of how alike two data objects are
  - Value is higher when objects are more alike
  - Often falls in the range  $[0,1]$
- **Dissimilarity** (e.g., distance)
  - Numerical measure of how different two data objects are
  - Lower when objects are more alike
  - Minimum dissimilarity is often 0
  - Upper limit varies
- **Proximity** refers to a similarity or dissimilarity

# Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix

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- Data matrix

- n data points with p dimensions
- Two modes

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \dots & x_{1f} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{i1} & \dots & x_{if} & \dots & x_{ip} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{n1} & \dots & x_{nf} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

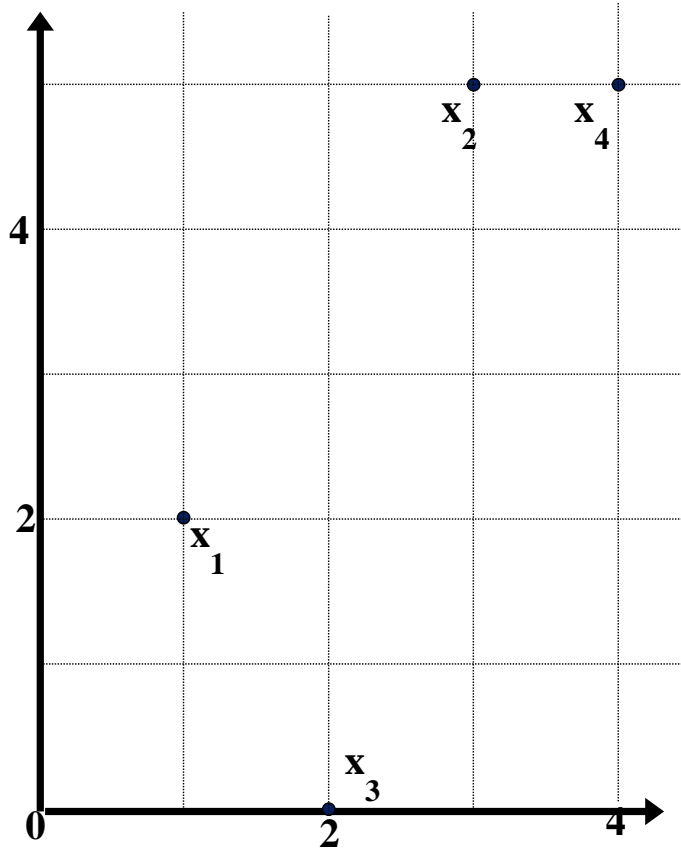
- Dissimilarity matrix

- n data points, but registers only the distance
- A triangular matrix
- Single mode

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ d(2,1) & 0 & & & \\ d(3,1) & d(3,2) & 0 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \\ d(n,1) & d(n,2) & \dots & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Example:

## Data Matrix and Dissimilarity Matrix



**Data Matrix**

point	attribute1	attribute2
$x_1$	1	2
$x_2$	3	5
$x_3$	2	0
$x_4$	4	5

**Dissimilarity Matrix**  
(with Euclidean Distance)

	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$
$x_1$	0			
$x_2$	3.61	0		
$x_3$	2.24	5.1	0	
$x_4$	4.24	1	5.39	0



# Distance on Numeric Data: Minkowski Distance

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- *Minkowski distance*: A popular distance measure

$$d(i, j) = \sqrt[h]{|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^h + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^h + \dots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^h}$$

where  $i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$  and  $j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, \dots, x_{jp})$  are two  $p$ -dimensional data objects, and  $h$  is the order (the distance so defined is also called  $L$ - $h$  norm)

- Properties
  - $d(i, j) > 0$  if  $i \neq j$ , and  $d(i, i) = 0$  (Positive definiteness)
  - $d(i, j) = d(j, i)$  (Symmetry)
  - $d(i, j) \leq d(i, k) + d(k, j)$  (Triangle Inequality)
- A distance that satisfies these properties is a **metric**

# Special Cases of Minkowski Distance

- $h = 1$ : **Manhattan** (city block,  $L_1$  norm) **distance**
  - E.g., the Hamming distance: the number of bits that are different between two binary vectors

$$d(i, j) = |x_{i_1} - x_{j_1}| + |x_{i_2} - x_{j_2}| + \dots + |x_{i_p} - x_{j_p}|$$

- $h = 2$ : ( $L_2$  norm) **Euclidean** distance

$$d(i, j) = \sqrt{(|x_{i_1} - x_{j_1}|^2 + |x_{i_2} - x_{j_2}|^2 + \dots + |x_{i_p} - x_{j_p}|^2)}$$

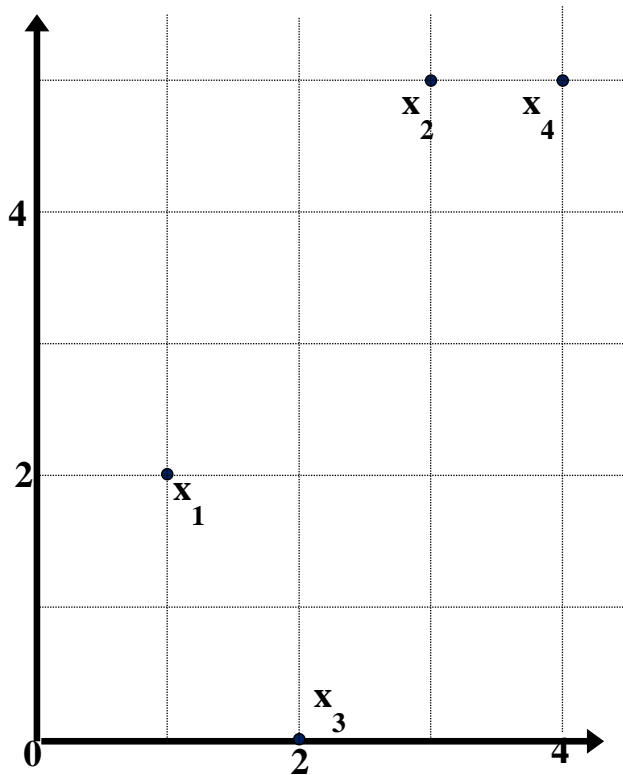
- $h \rightarrow \infty$ . **“supremum”** ( $L_{\max}$  norm,  $L_{\infty}$  norm) distance.
  - This is the maximum difference between any component (attribute) of the vectors

$$d(i, j) = \lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{f=1}^p |x_{if} - x_{jf}|^h \right)^{\frac{1}{h}} = \max_f |x_{if} - x_{jf}|$$

# Example: Minkowski Distance

## Dissimilarity Matrices

point	attribute 1	attribute 2
x1	1	2
x2	3	5
x3	2	0
x4	4	5



### Manhattan ( $L_1$ )

L	x1	x2	x3	x4
x1	0			
x2	5	0		
x3	3	6	0	
x4	6	1	7	0

### Euclidean ( $L_2$ )

L2	x1	x2	x3	x4
x1	0			
x2	3.61	0		
x3	2.24	5.1	0	
x4	4.24	1	5.39	0

### Supremum

$L_\infty$	x1	x2	x3	x4
x1	0			
x2	3	0		
x3	2	5	0	
x4	3	1	5	0

# Standardizing Numeric Data

- Z-score: 
$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$
  - X: raw score to be standardized,  $\mu$ : mean of the population,  $\sigma$ : standard deviation
  - the distance between the raw score and the population mean in units of the standard deviation
  - negative when the raw score is below the mean, “+” when above
- An alternative way: Calculate the mean absolute deviation

where

$$s_f = \frac{1}{n} (|x_{1f} - m_f| + |x_{2f} - m_f| + \dots + |x_{nf} - m_f|)$$
$$m_f = \frac{1}{n} (x_{1f} + x_{2f} + \dots + x_{nf}).$$

- standardized measure (z-score): 
$$z_{if} = \frac{x_{if} - m_f}{s_f}$$
- Using mean absolute deviation is more robust than using standard deviation

# Proximity Measure for Nominal Attributes

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- Can take 2 or more states, e.g., red, yellow, blue, green (generalization of a binary attribute)
- Method 1: Simple matching
  - $m$ : # of matches,  $p$ : total # of variables

$$d(i, j) = \frac{p - m}{p}$$

- Method 2: Use a large number of binary attributes
  - creating a new binary attribute for each of the  $M$  nominal states

# Proximity Measure for Binary Attributes

- A contingency table for binary data
- Distance measure for symmetric binary variables:
- Distance measure for asymmetric binary variables:
- Jaccard coefficient (*similarity* measure for *asymmetric* binary variables):

		Object $j$		sum
		1	0	
Object $i$	1	$q$	$r$	$q+r$
	0	$s$	$t$	$s+t$
sum		$q+s$	$r+t$	$p$

$$d(i, j) = \frac{r + s}{q + r + s + t}$$

$$d(i, j) = \frac{r + s}{q + r + s}$$

$$sim_{Jaccard}(i, j) = \frac{q}{q + r + s}$$

# Dissimilarity between Binary Variables

- Example

Name	Gender	Fever	Cough	Test-1	Test-2	Test-3	Test-4
Jack	M	Y	N	P	N	N	N
Mary	F	Y	N	P	N	P	N
Jim	M	Y	P	N	N	N	N

- Gender is a symmetric attribute
- The remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
- Let the values Y and P be 1, and the value N 0

$$d(jack, mary) = \frac{0 + 1}{2 + 0 + 1} = 0.33$$

$$d(jack, jim) = \frac{1 + 1}{1 + 1 + 1} = 0.67$$

$$d(jim, mary) = \frac{1 + 2}{1 + 1 + 2} = 0.75$$

# Ordinal Variables

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- Order is important, e.g., rank
- Can be treated like interval-scaled
  - replace  $x_{if}$  by their rank  $r_{if} \in \{1, \dots, M_f\}$
  - map the range of each variable onto  $[0, 1]$  by replacing  $i$ -th object in the  $f$ -th variable by

$$z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$$

- compute the dissimilarity using methods for interval-scaled variables



# Attributes of Mixed Type

- A database may contain all attribute types
  - Nominal, symmetric binary, asymmetric binary, numeric, ordinal
- One may use a weighted formula to combine their effects

$$d(i, j) = \frac{\sum_{f=1}^p \delta_{ij}^{(f)} d_{ij}^{(f)}}{\sum_{f=1}^p \delta_{ij}^{(f)}}$$

- $f$  is binary or nominal:

$d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$  if  $x_{if} = x_{jf}$ , or  $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$  otherwise

- $f$  is numeric: use the normalized distance
- $f$  is ordinal

- Compute ranks  $r_{if}$  and  $z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$

- Treat  $z_{if}$  as interval-scaled

# Cosine Similarity

- A **document** can be represented by thousands of attributes, each recording the *frequency* of a particular word (such as keywords) or phrase in the document.

<i>Document</i>	<i>teamcoach</i>	<i>hockey</i>	<i>baseball</i>	<i>soccer</i>	<i>penalty</i>	<i>score</i>	<i>win</i>	<i>loss</i>	<i>season</i>	
Document1	5	0	3	0	2	0	0	2	0	0
Document2	3	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
Document3	0	7	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	0
Document4	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	3	0

- Other vector objects: gene features in micro-arrays, ...
- Applications: information retrieval, biologic taxonomy, gene feature mapping, ...
- Cosine measure: If  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are two vectors (e.g., term-frequency vectors), then

$$\cos(d_1, d_2) = (d_1 \bullet d_2) / (||d_1|| ||d_2||),$$

where  $\bullet$  indicates vector dot product,  $||d||$ : the length of vector  $d$

# Example: Cosine Similarity

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- $\cos(d_1, d_2) = (d_1 \bullet d_2) / (||d_1|| ||d_2||)$ ,  
where  $\bullet$  indicates vector dot product,  $||d||$ : the length of vector  $d$
- Ex: Find the **similarity** between documents 1 and 2.

$$d_1 = (5, 0, 3, 0, 2, 0, 0, 2, 0, 0)$$

$$d_2 = (3, 0, 2, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1)$$

$$d_1 \bullet d_2 = 5 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 2 + 0 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 = 25$$


$$||d_1|| = (5^2 + 0^2 + 3^2 + 0^2 + 2^2 + 0^2 + 0^2 + 2^2 + 0^2 + 0^2)^{0.5} = (42)^{0.5} = 6.481$$

$$||d_2|| = (3^2 + 0^2 + 2^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 + 0^2 + 1^2)^{0.5} = (17)^{0.5} = 4.12$$

$$\cos(d_1, d_2) = 0.94$$

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# Summary

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- Instance-Based Learning
  - Lazy learning vs. eager learning; K-nearest neighbor algorithm; Similarity / dissimilarity measures