Lecture 12: Instance-Based Learning

- *k*-Nearest Neighbor
- Radial Basis Functions
- Locally weighted regression
- Case-based reasoning

Instance-Based Learning

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- Key idea: just store all training examples $\langle x_i, f(x_i) \rangle$
- When a query is made, compute the value of the new instance based on the values of the closest points
- There are different ways of evaluating distance, and different ways of computing the resulting value.

Nearest-neighbor

Given query instance x_q , first locate nearest training example x_n , then estimate $\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow f(x_n)$

k-Nearest neighbor:

- Take vote among its k nearest neighbors (if discrete-valued target function)
- Take mean of f values of k nearest neighbors (if real-valued)

$$\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i)}{k}$$



When To Consider Nearest Neighbor

- Instances map to points in \Re^n
- Less than 20 attributes per instance
- Lots of training data

Advantages:

- Training is very fast
- Learn complex target functions
- Don't lose information

Disadvantages:

- Slow at query time
- Easily fooled by irrelevant attributes

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Behavior in the Limit

- Consider p(x) defines probability that instance x will be labeled
 1 (positive) versus 0 (negative).
- Nearest neighbor:

As number of training examples $\rightarrow \infty$, approaches Gibbs Algorithm: with probability p(x) predict 1, else 0

• *k*-Nearest neighbor:

As number of training examples $ightarrow\infty$ and k gets large,

approaches Bayes optimal: if p(x) > .5 then predict 1, else 0

 Note Gibbs has at most twice the expected error of Bayes optimal

Distance-Weighted *k***NN**

• We might want to weight nearer neighbors more heavily:

$$\hat{f}(x_q) \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i f(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i}$$

where

$$w_i \equiv \frac{1}{d(x_q, x_i)^2}$$

and $d(x_q, x_i)$ is distance between x_q and x_i

 Note now it makes sense to use *all* training examples instead of just k (Shepard's method)

Irrelevant attributes

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 Imagine instances described by 20 attributes, but only 2 are relevant to target function

What happens with the distance metric?

- *Curse of dimensionality*: nearest neighbor is easily mislead when high-dimensional *X*
- One approach (Moore & Lee, 1994):
 - "Stretch" *j*th axis by weight z_j , where z_1, \ldots, z_n chosen to minimize prediction error
 - Use cross-validation to automatically choose weights

 z_1,\ldots,z_n

Locally Weighted Regression

- kNN forms local approximation to f for each query point x_q
- Why not form an *explicit approximation* $\hat{f}(x)$ for region surrounding x_q
 - Fit linear function to k nearest neighbors
 - Fit quadratic, ...
 - Produces "piecewise approximation" to f
- Very popular for some applications (e.g., robotics)

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Error functions

• Squared error over k nearest neighbors

$$E_1(x_q) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in k \text{ nearest nbrs of } x_q} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2$$

• Distance-weighted squared error over all neighbors

$$E_2(x_q) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in D} (f(x) - \hat{f}(x))^2 K(d(x_q, x))$$

• Other schemes are possible too

Radial Basis Function (RBF) Networks

- Many parts of the brain have neurons which are "locally tuned" to respond only if the input is within a certain range
 E.g., neurons in the auditory part of the brain are tuned to respond to different frequencies
- But sigmoid neurons do not have this characteristic!
- Main idea: have Gaussian fields around known data points
- Like a nearest-neighbor, but creates an *explicit* representation of the function, ahead of time.

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Structure of an RBF Network

• There are a number of hidden units of the form:

$$z_i(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mu_i||}{2\sigma_i^2}$$

I.e. every unit is a Gaussian of mean μ_i and standard deviation σ_i , which will get "activated" if the input vector \mathbf{x} is close to the mean μ_i

• The outputs are just linear combinations of the hidden units:

$$y_j = w_0 + \sum_i w_i z_i(\mathbf{x})$$

• Other choices of z_i are possible besides the Gaussian

Training RBF networks

- We want to find good values for the weights w_i , the centers μ_i and the widths σ_i
- Main idea: gradient descent!
- We can compute the derivative of the error function with respect to each parameter and get a learning rule that way
- The performance of this procedure is similar to that of sigmoid multi-layered networks. But one would hope for a faster learning process...
- Idea: Train the hidden units first, then it will be easy to determine weights for them

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Training RBF Networks (2)

- Heuristics for determining means: choose randomly a number of training examples; use clustering
- Heuristic to determine widths: choose the distance to the closest other unit as a width
- These ensure fast training, but generalization performance is worse

Case-Based Reasoning

- We can apply instance-based learning even when $X \neq \Re^n$, we just need a different "distance" metric
- Case-Based Reasoning is instance-based learning applied to instances with symbolic logic descriptions, e.g.

```
((user-complaint error53-on-shutdown)
```

```
(cpu-model PowerPC)
```

```
(operating-system Windows)
```

```
(network-connection PCIA)
```

```
(memory 48meg)
```

(installed-applications Excel Netscape VirusScan)

(likely-cause ???))

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Case-Based Reasoning in CADET

CADET: 75 stored examples of mechanical devices

- Each training example: (qualitative function, mechanical structure)
- New query: desired function,
- Target value: mechanical structure for this function

Distance metric: match qualitative function descriptions





Lazy and Eager Learning

Lazy: wait for query before generalizing
E.g. k-Nearest Neighbor, Case based reasoning
Eager: generalize before seeing query
E.g. Radial basis function networks, Decision trees, Backpropagation, Naive Bayes, ...
Does it matter?
Eager learner must create global approximation
Lazy learner can create many local approximations

 If they use same hypothesis space *H*, a lazy learner can represent more complex functions (e.g., consider *H* = linear functions)

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