Understanding thy neighbors: Practical perspectives from modern analysis

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# Key questions

Statistical issues: under what conditions does NN produce good predictions, and how should it be run?

- When is 1-NN enough?
- If using k-NN, what should k be, roughly?
- Is there a curse of dimension?
- Does it adapt to latent structure: clusters, manifolds, etc?

#### 2 Algorithmic issues: how to find nearest neighbors?

- Data structures for fast NN
- Parallelizing NN
- Geometric tasks that build upon nearest neighbors: hierarchical clustering, minimum spanning tree, etc

# Outline

#### 1 Statistical properties of nearest neighbor

2 Algorithmic approaches to nearest neighbor search

# Nearest neighbor classification

Given:

- training points  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n) \in \mathcal{X} \times \{0, 1\}$
- query point x

predict the label of x by looking at its nearest neighbor(s) among the  $x_i$ .



- 1-NN returns the label of the nearest neighbor of x amongst the x<sub>i</sub>.
- k-NN returns the majority vote of the k nearest neighbors.
- $k_n$ -NN lets k grow with n.

# The data space



Data points lie in a space  $\mathcal{X}$  with distance function  $\rho: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

- Most common scenario:  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $\rho$  is Euclidean distance.
- Common more general setting: (*X*, *ρ*) is a *metric space*.
  - $\ell_p$  distances
  - Metrics obtained from user preferences/feedback
- Also of interest: more general distances.
  - KL divergence
  - Domain-specific dissimilarity measures

## Statistical learning theory setup

#### Training points come from the same source as future queries.

- Underlying measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathcal{X}$  from which all points are generated.
- We call  $(\mathcal{X}, \rho, \mu)$  a metric measure space.
- Label of x is a coin flip with bias  $\eta(x) = \Pr(Y = 1 | X = x)$ .

Question: why wouldn't  $\eta(x)$  always be either 0 or 1?

A classifier is a rule  $h: \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}.$ 

- Misclassification rate, or risk:  $R(h) = Pr(h(X) \neq Y)$ .
- The Bayes-optimal classifier

$$h^*(x) = \left\{ egin{array}{cc} 1 & ext{if } \eta(x) > 1/2 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

has minimum risk,  $R^* = R(h^*) = \mathbb{E}_X \min(\eta(X), 1 - \eta(X)).$ 

# Statistical questions

Let  $h_n$  be a classifier based on *n* labeled data points from the underlying distribution.  $R(h_n)$  is a random variable.

- **Consistency**: does  $R(h_n)$  converge to  $R^*$ ?
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• Rates of convergence: how fast does convergence occur? Rates depend upon smoothness of  $\eta(x) = Pr(Y = 1|X = x)$ :



What is a suitable notion of smoothness, and rates?

Consistency results under continuity

Assume  $\eta(x) = P(Y = 1 | X = x)$  is continuous. Let  $h_n$  be the  $k_n$ -classifier, with  $k_n \uparrow \infty$  and  $k_n/n \downarrow 0$ .

- Fix and Hodges (1951): Consistent in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .
- Cover-Hart (1965, 1967, 1968): Consistent in any metric space.

**Proof outline**: Let x be a query point and let  $x_{(1)}, \ldots, x_{(n)}$  denote the training points ordered by increasing distance from x.



- Therefore  $x_{(1)}, \ldots, x_{(k_n)}$  lie in a ball centered at x of probability mass  $\approx k_n/n$ . Since  $k_n/n \downarrow 0$ , we have  $x_{(1)}, \ldots, x_{(k_n)} \to x$ .
- By continuity,  $\eta(x_{(1)}), \ldots, \eta(x_{(k_n)}) \rightarrow \eta(x)$ .
- By law of large numbers, when tossing many coins of bias roughly  $\eta(x)$ , the fraction of 1s will be approximately  $\eta(x)$ . Thus the majority vote of their labels will approach  $h^*(x)$ .

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Geometric result: at most a constant number! And this yields consistency.

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But this argument fails in general metric measure spaces  $(\mathcal{X}, \rho, \mu)$ .

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$$\lim_{r\downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\mu(B(x,r))} \int_{B(x,r)} f d\mu = f(x)$$

for almost all ( $\mu$ -a.e.)  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ .

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- If  $k_n \to \infty$  and  $k_n/n \to 0$ , then  $R_n \to R^*$  in probability.
- If in addition  $k_n/\log n \to \infty$ , then  $R_n \to R^*$  almost surely.

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Examples of such spaces: finite-dimensional normed spaces; doubling metric measure spaces.

Query x; training points by increasing distance from x are  $x_{(1)}, \ldots, x_{(n)}$ . Since  $k_n/n \to 0$ , we have  $x_{(1)}, \ldots, x_{(k_n)} \to x$ .

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   average(η(x<sub>(1)</sub>),...,η(x<sub>(k<sub>n</sub></sub>))) is close to the average η in this ball:

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**(6)** As *n* grows, this ball B(x, r) shrinks. Thus it is enough that

$$\lim_{r\downarrow 0}\frac{1}{\mu(B(x,r))}\int_{B(x,r)}\eta \ d\mu = \eta(x).$$

# Rates of convergence

Bad news: curse of dimension

Good news: adaptive to

- Intrinsic low dimension (e.g. manifold structure)
- Smoothness of boundary

 The usual smoothness condition in ℝ<sup>d</sup>: η is α-Holder continuous if for some constant L, for all x, x',

$$|\eta(x) - \eta(x')| \leq L ||x - x'||^{\alpha}$$

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 Mammen-Tsybakov β-margin condition: For some constant C, for any t, we have μ({x : |η(x) − 1/2| ≤ t}) ≤ Ct<sup>β</sup>.

Width-*t margin* around decision boundary



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• Audibert-Tsybakov: Suppose these two conditions hold, and that  $\mu$  is supported on a *regular* set with  $0 < \mu_{min} < \mu < \mu_{max}$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}R_n - R^*$  is  $\Omega(n^{-\alpha(\beta+1)/(2\alpha+d)})$ .

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Under these conditions, for suitable  $(k_n)$ , this rate is achieved by  $k_n$ -NN.

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 $\eta$  is  $\alpha$ -Holder continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\mu$  bounded below  $\Rightarrow \eta$  is  $(\alpha/d)$ -smooth.
### Rates of convergence under smoothness

Let  $h_{n,k}$  denote the k-NN classifier based on *n* training points. Let  $h^*$  be the Bayes-optimal classifier.

Suppose  $\eta$  is  $\alpha$ -smooth in  $(\mathcal{X}, \rho, \mu)$ . Then for any n, k,

- For any  $\delta > 0$ , with probability at least  $1 \delta$  over the training set,  $\Pr_X(h_{n,k}(X) \neq h^*(X)) \leq \delta + \mu(\{x : |\eta(x) - \frac{1}{2}| \leq C_1 \sqrt{\frac{1}{k} \ln \frac{1}{\delta}}\})$ under the choice  $k \propto n^{2\alpha/(2\alpha+1)}$ .
- **2**  $\mathbb{E}_n \Pr_X(h_{n,k}(X) \neq h^*(X)) \geq C_2 \mu(\{x : |\eta(x) \frac{1}{2}| \leq C_3 \sqrt{\frac{1}{k}}\}).$

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These upper and lower bounds are qualitatively similar for *all* smooth conditional probability functions:

the probability mass of the width- $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}$  margin around the decision boundary.

## Variants of nearest neighbor rules

1 Quantization strategies

Ø Subsampling







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- Kpotufe-Verma (2017): pick Q to be an ε-net.
  Favorable empirical performance: small rise in error rate, significant speedup in query time.
- **2** Kontorovich-Weiss-Sabato (2017): pick Q to be a suitable  $\epsilon$ -cover. Then: 1-NN using Q is consistent.

Subsampling: reduce data and parallelize

**Data:**  $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i=1}^n, Y \in \{0, 1\}.$ 

Repeat for  $t = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ :

• Let  $S_t$  be a random subsample of  $m \ll n$  points

To classify x: compute 1-NN wrt to each  $S_t$ , take majority label.

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Biau-Cerou-Guyader (2010), Samworth (2010):

- This is consistent.
- In fact, it is weighted k-NN.
  Each of x's k nearest neighbors (in the original data set) will be its 1-NN in some fraction of S<sub>t</sub>.
- Asympotically more accurate than k-NN.

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## The complexity of nearest neighbor search

Given a data set of *n* points in a metric space  $(\mathcal{X}, \rho)$ , build a data structure for efficiently answering subsequent nearest neighbor queries *q*.

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Unproven but common conjecture: either data structure size or query time must be exponential in the dimension of the space. Bad case: for any  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ ,

• Pick  $2^{O(\epsilon^2 d)}$  points uniformly from the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ 

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#### How can this bad case be defeated?

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- Recently: binary hashing; resurgence of trees.

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#### Comprehensive search:

- Always returns the NN
- Can take O(n) time in some cases





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- Vantage-point (VP) trees [Yianilos '91; Uhlmann '91]

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- 1 Methods that are adaptive to intrinsic dimension.
- 2 Methods that return approximate nearest neighbors.

Cover trees for metric spaces



Beygelzimer-Kakade-Langford '06:

- Hierarchical cover of an arbitrary metric space
- Space O(n), permits dynamic insertion and deletion of data points
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A finite set X in a metric space has expansion rate c if for any point x and any radius r > 0,

 $|B(x,2r) \cap X| \leq c \cdot |B(x,r) \cap X|.$ 

### Variants of k-d trees with guarantees

**Random projection trees:** In each cell of the tree, pick split direction uniformly at random from the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ 



*Perturbed split*: after projection, pick  $\beta \in_R [1/4, 3/4]$  and split at the  $\beta$ -fractile point.

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Failure probability for defeatist search is < 1/2 if each leaf has  $O(d_o^{d_o})$  points, where  $d_o$  is the **doubling dimension** of the data. [D-Sinha '13]

# Doubling dimension

[Assouad '83; Gupta-Krauthgamer-Lee '03]

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A k-dimensional flat has doubling dimension c<sub>o</sub>k for some absolute constant c<sub>o</sub>.
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Set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  has doubling dimension  $d_o$  if for any (Euclidean) ball B, the subset  $S \cap B$  can be covered by  $2^{d_o}$  balls of half the radius.

**1** Example: S = line has doubling dimension 1.



- A k-dimensional flat has doubling dimension c<sub>o</sub>k for some absolute constant c<sub>o</sub>.
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- **4** If S has doubling dimension  $d_o$ , then so does any subset of S.

The doubling dimension of sparse sets

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 Proof: It can be covered by *n* balls of any radius.

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- **2** If sets  $S_1, \ldots, S_m$  each have doubling dimension  $\leq d_o$ , then  $S_1 \cup \cdots \cup S_m$  has doubling dimension  $\leq d_o + \log m$ . Proof:  $S_i \cap B$  can be covered by  $2^{d_o}$  balls of half the radius. Therefore, at most  $m2^{d_o}$  balls are needed for the union.

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- **8** Suppose each point in  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  has  $\leq k$  nonzero coordinates. Then S has doubling dimension  $\leq c_o k + k \log d$ . Proof: S is the union of  $\binom{d}{k}$  flats of dimension k; we've seen that each flat has doubling dimension  $\leq c_o k$ .

# The doubling dimension of manifolds

A Riemannian submanifold  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^p$  has condition number  $\leq 1/\tau$  if normals to M of length  $\tau$  don't intersect:



If  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^p$  is a k-dimensional manifold of condition number  $1/\tau$ , then its neighborhoods of radius  $\tau$  have doubling dimension O(k).

# Locality-sensitive hashing [Indyk-Motwani-Andoni]



Typical hash function  $h_i$ : random projection + binning

$$h_i(x) = \left\lfloor \frac{r_i \cdot x + b}{w} \right\rfloor$$

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- To reduce this probability, make t tables. Space: O(nt).

For data set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  and query q, a c-approximate nearest neighbor is any  $x \in S$  such that

$$\|x-q\| \leq c \cdot \min_{z \in S} \|z-q\|.$$

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Caution: the same value of c can have very different implications for different data sets.

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But LSH also does well on exact NN search!

# Hash tables versus trees



As long as these structures are randomized, can use:

- collection of LSH tables
- forest of trees

Experimental comparisons, e.g. V. Hyvonen, T. Roos et al (2016).

# Relevant books

- G. Biau and L. Devroye. *Lectures on the nearest neighbor method.* Springer, 2015.
- G.H. Chen and D. Shah. *Explaining the success of nearest neighbor methods in prediction.* Foundations and Trends in Machine Learning, 2018.