

# Locally Adaptive Nearest Neighbors

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**Abstract.** When training automated systems, it has been shown to be beneficial to adapt the representation of data by learning a problem-specific metric. This metric is global. We extend this idea and, for the widely used family of  $k$  nearest neighbors algorithms, develop a method that allows learning *locally* adaptive metrics. To demonstrate important aspects of how our approach works, we conduct a number of experiments on synthetic data sets, and we show its usefulness on real-world benchmark data sets.

## 1 Introduction

Machine learning models increasingly pervade our daily lives in the form of recommendation systems, computer vision, driver assistance, etc., challenging us to realize seamless cooperation between human and algorithmic agents. One desirable property of predictions made by machine learning models is their transparency, expressed in such a way as a statement about which factors of a given setting have the greatest influence on the decision at hand – in particular, this requirement aligns with the EU General Data Protection Regulations, which include a “right to explanation” [1]. The native transparency of machine learning models varies considerably based on the form and complexity of the models, ranging from intuitive prototype-based classifiers, which allow a substantiation of a decision in the form of a typical class representative [2], to mostly opaque black-box models found in deep learning, for which additional posterior explanation technologies are required [3]. Interestingly, several popular interpretation technologies for black-box models rely on local feature weighting schemes [4]. Moreover, machine learning models that are intrinsically based on a feature relevance weighting [5], enjoy a wide popularity in particular in medical domains to uncover relevant insight, such as the discovery of potential biomarkers [6].

Intuitive indications of which features are most or least relevant for a given model’s decision can be provided by metric-learning approaches, such as GR-LVQ [5], which adapts a diagonal matrix, scaling the relevance of the input features. Generalizations that use a full matrix, such as GMLVQ [7], exist, but a *single global* quadratic matrix remains the most common choice [8]. Large margin nearest neighbor learning (LMNN) implements this idea for a  $k$ -nearest neighbor (kNN) classification scheme [9]. A few approaches extend this setting to non-global matrices, such as LGRLVQ [10] and LGMLVQ [7], which can be accompanied by learning-theoretical guarantees, or an extension of LMNN [11]. However, the former only allow one matrix per prototype (which corresponds to one metric per Voronoi cell in the input space); the latter requires an explicit partitioning of the training data, commonly based on the respective class labels. Parametric Local Metric Learning (PLML) [12] learns a smooth metric matrix function over the data manifold, but again, specific metric matrices are based on so-called anchor points, such as the means of clusters according to some supervised algorithm. Noh et al. [13] take a different approach with Generative Local Metric Learning (GLML), where they learn an optimal local metric for a learned

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generative model. Fitting class-wise Gaussians, they inherit the inflexibilities that come with this assumption-heavy approach.

In this work, we formulate and explore an extension of kNN to local relevance matrices, which are *specific to a given point* and indicate the *local relevance* of the features in its region, i. e. the factors most relevant for a *specific decision* rather than the global model. Further, unlike LMNN, PLML, and GLML, we aim for an online adaptation technique, which can be integrated into incremental models or models for streaming data, such as the one proposed by Losing et al. [14]. In the following, we will propose a cost function, based on a differentiable approximation of the output label distribution of a kNN classifier, and we will demonstrate how to derive an intuitive local relevance learning scheme based thereon.

## 2 Local metric learning for kNN classifiers

Assume data  $X = \{\vec{x}^1, \dots, \vec{x}^m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  are given, with label  $y_i$  for data point  $\vec{x}^i$ , where labels are element of a finite number of  $L$  different labels. Assume a number  $k > 0$  is fixed. A kNN classifier crucially depends on a distance measure  $d: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Given a data point  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the *neighborhood*  $N(\vec{x})$  of  $\vec{x}$  in  $X$  is defined as the set of  $k$  points  $\vec{x}^i$  in  $X$  where  $d(\vec{x}^i, \vec{x})$  is smallest. A weighted kNN classifier computes the *support*  $S$  for label  $y$  given input  $\vec{x}$

$$S(y | \vec{x}) = \sum_{\substack{\vec{x}^i \in N(\vec{x}) \\ y_i = y}} \frac{1}{d(\vec{x}^i, \vec{x})}$$

and outputs the label  $y$  with maximum support. This definition relies on a global distance measure  $d$  such as the squared Euclidean distance measure  $d(\vec{x}^i, \vec{x}) = (\vec{x}^i - \vec{x})^\top (\vec{x}^i - \vec{x})$ . Metric learning such as LMNN [9] substitutes the Euclidean distance by a parameterized quadratic form

$$d_\Lambda(\vec{x}^i, \vec{x}) = (\vec{x}^i - \vec{x})^\top \Lambda (\vec{x}^i - \vec{x})$$

with positive semi-definite (p. s. d.) matrix  $\Lambda$ , which is determined based on given data. LMNN relies on the objective to change the distance such that intruders, i. e. points  $\vec{x}^i$  in  $N(\vec{x})$  which do not have the same label as  $\vec{x}$ , are moved outside  $N(\vec{x})$  with a margin. This problem can be phrased as a semi-convex constraint optimization problem for the metric parameters  $\Lambda$  [9]. LMNN uses a global distance measure, which does not necessarily resemble the relevance of input features for the local decision  $f(\vec{x})$ .

In the following, we want to ask and answer, whether it is possible to (i) learn local metrics without a fixed prior decomposition of the space, and (ii) develop an online learning scheme, which carries the potential of an integration into streaming and incremental scenarios such as the self-adjusting-memory kNN [14]. We assume a local distance measure

$$d_{\Lambda_i}(\vec{x}^i, \vec{x}) = (\vec{x}^i - \vec{x})^\top \Lambda_i (\vec{x}^i - \vec{x})$$

where  $d_{\Lambda_i}$  is attached to the data point  $\vec{x}^i$  and it is used whenever the distance measure from  $\vec{x}^i$  to another data point is computed. Here,  $\Lambda_i$  is an adaptive p. s. d. matrix, which can be parameterized as  $\Lambda_i = (\Omega^i)(\Omega^i)^\top$  with possibly low-rank matrix  $\Omega^i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n'}$  for some  $n' \leq n$  or even diagonal form  $\Lambda_i = \text{diag}((\lambda_1^i)^2, \dots, (\lambda_n^i)^2)$ .

Given an input  $\vec{x}$  with desired output  $y$ , we can derive a stochastic gradient scheme to adapt these metric parameters online as follows: We approximate the output of a weighted kNN using the softmax function with parameter  $\beta > 0$ , which yields a probability distribution over all possible output labels  $1, \dots, L$ :

$$P(y | \vec{x}) := \left( \frac{\exp(S(y | \vec{x})/\beta)}{\sum_{y'} \exp(S(y' | \vec{x})/\beta)} \right)_{y=1, \dots, L} \in [0, 1]^L$$

where local metrics  $d_{\Lambda_i}$  are used to evaluate the support  $S(y | \vec{x})$ , which indicates the vector of probabilities of the  $L$  output labels. Assume a desired output  $y = l$  is given, this induces a probability distribution over the labels by its one-hot encoding in  $\{0, 1\}^L$ , which we denote by  $P(y | l)$ .

Then, a suitable loss function is offered by the Kullback-Leibler-Divergence, resulting in the overall error

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \sum_{i=1}^m E(\vec{x}^i, y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^m \text{KL}(P(y | y_i) \parallel P(y | \vec{x}^i)) \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^L P(y = l | y_i) \cdot \log \frac{P(y = l | \vec{x}^i)}{P(y = l | y_i)} \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^m \log P(y = y_i | \vec{x}^i) = - \sum_{i=1}^m \log \left( \frac{\exp(S(y_i | \vec{x}^i)/\beta)}{\sum_{y'} \exp(S(y' | \vec{x}^i)/\beta)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

since  $P(y = l | y_i) = \delta_{l, y_i}$  (the Kronecker delta), where we use the identity  $0 \cdot \log 0 = 0$ . For stochastic gradient descent, we consider the derivative of a summand w. r. t. metric parameters  $\Omega_{kl}^j$  for a matrix  $\Lambda_j = (\Omega^j)(\Omega^j)^\top$ . This yields

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\partial}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} \left( - \log \left( \frac{\exp(S(y_i | \vec{x}^i)/\beta)}{\sum_{y'} \exp(S(y' | \vec{x}^i)/\beta)} \right) \right) \\ &= - \frac{1}{\beta} \cdot \frac{\partial S(y_i | \vec{x}^i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{\beta} \cdot \frac{1}{\sum_{y'} \exp(S(y' | \vec{x}^i)/\beta)} \cdot \sum_{y'} \left( \frac{1}{\beta} \cdot \exp(S(y' | \vec{x}^i)/\beta) \cdot \frac{\partial S(y' | \vec{x}^i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Further,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial S(y' | \vec{x}^i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} \sum_{\vec{x}^o \in N(\vec{x}^i), y_o = y'} \frac{1}{d_{\Lambda_o}(\vec{x}^o, \vec{x}^i)} \\ &= \begin{cases} -1/d_{\Lambda_j}(\vec{x}^j, \vec{x}^i)^2 \cdot \frac{\partial d_{\Lambda_j}(\vec{x}^j, \vec{x}^i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} & \text{if } \vec{x}^j \in N(\vec{x}^i), y_j = y' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Table 1: Accuracies (cross validation averages) for all algorithms and datasets considered in our experiments. The last four constitute real-world data.

Dataset	kNN	LMNN	LANN	LGMLVQ
Art. Classification	0.95 ± 0.0029	0.97 ± 0.0042	0.99 ± 0.0018	0.99 ± 0.0017
Breast Cancer	0.95 ± 0.0079	0.95 ± 0.0113	0.94 ± 0.0077	0.92 ± 0.0155
Adrenal	0.82 ± 0.0293	0.81 ± 0.0550	0.88 ± 0.0171	0.77 ± 0.0391
Image Segmentation	0.93 ± 0.0039	0.95 ± 0.0064	0.95 ± 0.0041	0.94 ± 0.0051
Outdoor Objects	0.80 ± 0.0070	0.83 ± 0.0084	0.87 ± 0.0085	0.83 ± 0.0117

yields the derivative 0 for all  $\Lambda_j$  where  $\vec{x}^j \notin N(\vec{x}^i)$ . For neighbors  $\vec{x}^j \in N(\vec{x}^i)$  we obtain

$$\frac{\partial E(\vec{x}^i, y_i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta \cdot d_{\Lambda_j}(\vec{x}^j, \vec{x}^i)^2} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\exp(S(y_i|\vec{x}^i)/\beta)}{\sum_{y'} \exp(S(y'|\vec{x}^i)/\beta)}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial d_{\Lambda_j}(\vec{x}^j, \vec{x}^i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} & \text{if } y_j = y_i \\ -\frac{1}{\beta \cdot d_{\Lambda_j}(\vec{x}^j, \vec{x}^i)^2} \cdot \left(\frac{\exp(S(y_j|\vec{x}^i)/\beta)}{\sum_{y'} \exp(S(y'|\vec{x}^i)/\beta)}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial d_{\Lambda_j}(\vec{x}^j, \vec{x}^i)}{\partial \Omega_{kl}^j} & \text{if } y_j \neq y_i \end{cases}$$

It is necessary to add a regularization step to prevent divergence of the parameters, e.g. a soft or hard constraint for  $\det \Lambda_j$  or a restriction of the norm of the diagonal of the matrices. If we chose the metrics in the form of diagonal matrices  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^2, \dots, \lambda_n^2)$ , the derivative yields  $\partial d_{\Lambda}(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')/\partial \lambda_l = 2\lambda_l \cdot (x_l - x'_l)^2$ . In this case, a stochastic gradient descent directly corresponds to a Hebbian scheme: for  $y_j = y_i$ , diagonal terms for those dimensions  $l$  are enhanced (after normalization) which correspond to small values  $(x_l^j - x_l^i)^2$ ; for  $y_j \neq y_i$ , we find the opposite. This behavior resembles popular metric learning schemes as proposed in the context of prototype-based classifiers [10, 7]. Yet, while these technologies restrict metric forms to receptive fields of prototypes, we are able to learn an individual weighting scheme for every data point of the kNN classifier. Apart from the different objective, this fact – a local weighting scheme – is the most distinguishing feature of the proposed method when compared to alternatives such as LMNN.

### 3 Experiments

We have implemented our proposed algorithm (henceforth referred to as LANN) in Python 3.7 within the scikit-learn<sup>1</sup> [15] framework, restricting the metrics to diagonal matrices as discussed above. We compare its performance against a standard kNN classifier (as provided by scikit-learn), against LMNN with a global adaptive metric (via the implementation PyLMNN<sup>2</sup> by John Chiotellis) – we keep  $k = 5$  fixed for all three algorithms to facilitate comparability – and against Localized Generalized Matrix Learning Vector Quantization (LGMLVQ – using the open implementation<sup>3</sup> for scikit-learn). Each algorithm is fitted and evaluated on a number of datasets:

- *Artificial Classification*: An artificial dataset provided by scikit-learn that contains strongly relevant features, weakly relevant features, as well as redundant features. We sample 2000 data points according to the default parameters, which results in 2 classes, 20 features, of which 2 are strongly relevant, and 2 are weakly relevant.

<sup>1</sup><https://scikit-learn.org/>

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/johny-c/pylmmn>

<sup>3</sup><https://github.com/MrNuggelz/sklearn-lvq>

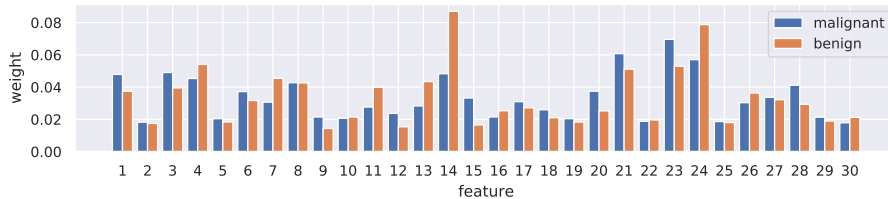


Figure 1: Aggregated per-class relevances for the Wisconsin Breast Cancer dataset, as determined by our proposed algorithm. The two different colors indicate the two classes *benign* and *malignant*.

- *Wisconsin Breast Cancer*: Classic dataset of 569 data points in 2 classes (benign and malignant) described by 30 features that relate to the properties of cells visible under a microscope.
- *Adrenal* [16]: Results from an analysis of adrenal gland metabolomics. The dataset contains 147 data points in 2 classes (adrenocortical carcinoma and adenoma), described by 32 features that relate to the underlying metabolic processes.
- *Image Segmentation* [17]: In this dataset, 2306 data points fall into 7 classes and are described by 16 features that encode several attributes of image regions. We leave out three near-constant features, as proposed by Schneider et al. [7].
- *Outdoor Objects* [18]: Here, 4000 data points correspond to images that belong to one of 40 classes, depending on objects visible in the images. Its 21 features constitute normalized color histograms.

For each algorithm and dataset we perform a 10-fold, stratified, randomly shuffled cross validation and include a z-score transformation as the only preprocessing step. We report the averaged accuracies together with their standard deviations in Table 1. LANN obtains an improvement as compared to LMNN in four out of five cases, yielding a smaller variation in all cases. Interestingly, local metric learning seems particularly profitable for the outdoor objects data, a setting with a large number of classes and comparably high degree of noise.

LANN yields an indication of relevance for each feature with respect to each individual data point. We can use these to develop a *local* understanding of feature relevance. For the Wisconsin Breast Cancer dataset, we aggregate these relevances class-wise. Our findings, presented in Figure 1, align with those previously discovered and discussed in the literature [19]. In particular, it becomes apparent that different averages result for the two classes.

## 4 Conclusions

We have proposed a metric learning scheme which assigns a separate relevance weighting vector to every data point of a kNN classifier, leading to different local relevances of the decision function. Even restricted to local diagonal matrices, the technology is as good as or surpasses popular metric learning schemes such as LNMM. More importantly, the method provides a local explanation of a specific decision of the model given an input  $\vec{x}$  rather than a global metric, and it enables online update rules in the form of a stochastic gradient. It is subject to future work to integrate this scheme into kNN methods for streaming data and to investigate the suitability to build a reject option based on this representation,

as investigated in [14, 20] for the standard Euclidean metric.

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