

# Training Set Size Reduction by Replacing Neighbouring Prototypes <sup>\*</sup>

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**Abstract.** In this paper, some new approaches to training set size reduction are presented. These schemes basically consist of defining a small number of prototypes that represent all the original instances. Although the ultimate aim of the algorithms proposed here is to obtain a strongly reduced training set, the performance is empirically evaluated over nine real datasets by comparing the reduction rate and the classification accuracy with those of other condensing techniques.

## 1 Introduction

Currently, in many domains (e.g., in text categorisation, biometrics, and retrieval of multimedia databases) the size of the datasets is so extremely large that real-time systems cannot afford the time and storage requirements to process them. Under these conditions, classifying, understanding or compressing the available information can become a very problematic task. This problem is specially dramatic in the case of using some distance-based learning algorithm, such as the Nearest Neighbour (NN) rule [6]. The basic NN scheme must search through all the available training instances (large memory requirements) to classify a new input sample (slow during classification). On the other hand, since the NN rule stores every prototype in the training set (TS), noisy instances are stored as well, which can considerably degrade the classification accuracy.

Among the many proposals to tackle this problem, a traditional method consists of removing some of the training prototypes. In the Pattern Recognition literature, those methods leading to reduce the TS size are generally referred to as *prototype selection* [8]. Two different families of prototype selection methods can be defined. First, the *editing* approaches eliminate erroneously labelled prototypes from the original TS and "clean" possible overlapping among regions from different classes. Second, the *condensing* algorithms aim at selecting a small subset of prototypes without a significant degradation of classification accuracy.

Wilson introduced the first editing method [15]. Briefly, it consists of using the  $k$ -NN rule to estimate the class of each prototype in the TS, and removing

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those whose class label does not agree with that of the majority of its  $k$ -NN. This algorithm tries to eliminate mislabelled prototypes from the TS as well as those close to the decision boundaries. Subsequently, many researchers have addressed the problem of editing by proposing alternative schemes [1, 6, 8, 16].

Within the condensing perspective, the many existing proposals can be categorised into two main groups. First, those schemes that merely select a subset of the original prototypes [1, 7, 9, 12, 13] and second, those that modify them [2, 3, 5]. One problem related with using the original instances is that there may not be any vector located at the precise point that would make the most accurate learning algorithm. Thus, prototypes can be artificially generated to exist exactly where they are needed.

This paper focuses on the problem of appropriately reducing the TS size by selecting a subset of prototypes. The primary aim of the proposal presented in this paper is to obtain a considerable size reduction rate, but without an important decrease in classification accuracy.

The structure of the rest of this paper is as follows. Section 2 briefly reviews a set of TS size reduction techniques. The condensing algorithms proposed here are introduced in Section 3. The databases used and the experiments carried out are described in Section 4. Results are shown and discussed in Section 5. Finally, the main conclusions along with further extensions are depicted in Section 6.

## 2 Training Set Size Reduction Techniques

The problem of prototype selection is primarily related to prototype deletion as irrelevant and harmful prototypes are removed. This is the case, e.g., of Hart's condensing [9], Tomek's condensing [12], proximity graph-based condensing [13] and MCS scheme of Dasarathy [7], in which only critical prototypes are retained. Some other algorithms artificially generate prototypes in locations accurately determined in order to reduce the TS size. Within this category, we can find the algorithms presented by Chang [3] and by Chen and Józwick [5].

Hart's algorithm [9] is based on reducing the set size by eliminating prototypes. It is the earliest attempt at minimising the size set by retaining only a consistent subset. A consistent subset,  $S$ , of a TS,  $T$ , is a subset that correctly classifies every prototype in  $T$  using the 1-NN rule. The minimal consistent subset is the most interesting to minimise the cost of storage and the computing time. Hart's condensing does not guarantee finding the minimal subset.

Tomek's condensing [12] consists of Hart's condensing, adding an appropriate selection strategy. It consists of selecting a subset with the boundary prototypes (the closest to the decision boundaries). Some negative aspects are its computational cost  $O(N^3)$  and that the boundary subset chosen is not consistent.

The Voronoi's condensing [14] is the only scheme able to obtain a reduced set that satisfies the consistency criterions with respect to a) the decision boundaries, and b) the TS. Despite this, the Voronoi condensing presents two important problems. First its high computational cost, since the calculation of the Voronoi

Diagram (VD) associated to the prototypes set is required. And second, it deals with every representation space region in the same way.

In [13] an alternative similar to Voronoi condensing is proposed, with the aim of solving these two important drawbacks. This new alternative is based on two proximity graph models: the Gabriel Graph (GG) and the Relative Neighbourhood Graph (RNG). The main advantages of this algorithm are that a) it ignores the TS prototypes that maintain the decision boundaries out of the interest region, and b) it reduces the computational cost ( $O(dN^2)$ ). The GG condensed set does not satisfy any consistency condition, although it does not suppose a significant degradation in its practical behaviour. As the RNG is a subgraph of the GG, the RNG condensed set is a subset of the one corresponding to the condensing based on the GG as well. As a consequence, this set is not consistent with respect to the decision boundaries and therefore, it is not consistent with respect to the TS either.

Within the group of condensing proposals that are based on generating new prototypes, Chang's algorithm [3] consists of repeatedly attempting to merge the nearest two existing prototypes into a new single one. Two prototypes  $p$  and  $q$  are merged only if they are from the same class and, after replacing them with prototype  $z$ , the consistency property can be guaranteed.

Chen and Jóźwik [5] proposed an algorithm which consists of dividing the TS into some subsets using the concept of *diameter of a set* (distance between the two farthest points). It starts by partitioning the TS into two subsets by the middle point between the two farthest cases. The next division is performed for the subset that contains prototypes from different classes. If more than one subset satisfies this condition, then that with the largest diameter is divided. The number of partitions will be equal to the number of instances initially defined. Finally, each resulting subset is replaced by its centroid, which will assume the same class label as the majority of instances in the corresponding subset.

Recently, Ainslie and Sánchez introduced the family of *IRSP* [2], which are based on the idea of Chen's algorithm. The main difference is that by Chen's any subset containing prototypes from different classes could be chosen to be divided. On the contrary, by *IRSP*, the subset with the highest overlapping degree (ratio of the average distance between prototypes from different classes, and the average distance between instances from the same class) is split. Furthermore, with *IRSP* the splitting process continues until every subset is homogeneous.

### 3 A New Approach to Training Set Size Reduction

The geometrical distribution among prototypes in a TS can become even more important than just the distance between them. In this sense, the *surrounding neighbourhood-based rules* [11] try to obtain more suitable information about prototypes in the TS and specially, for those being close to decision boundaries. This can be achieved by taking into account not only the proximity of prototypes to a given input sample but also their *symmetrical distribution* around it.

Chaudhuri [4] proposed a neighbourhood concept, the Nearest Centroide Neighbourhood (NCN), a particular realization of the surrounding neighbourhood. Let  $p$  be a given point whose  $k$  NCN should be found in a TS,  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . These  $k$  neighbours can be searched for by an iterative procedure like the next:

1. The first NCN of  $p$  corresponds to its NN,  $q_1$ .
2. The  $i$ -th NCN,  $q_i$ ,  $i \geq 2$ , is such that the centroide of this and previously selected NCN,  $q_1, \dots, q_i$  is the closest to  $p$ .

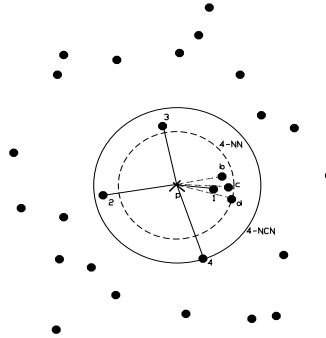


Fig. 1. Example of the NCN concept.

The neighbourhood obtained satisfies some interesting properties that can be used to reduce the TS size: the NCN search method is incremental and the prototypes around a given sample have a geometrical distribution that tends to surround the sample. It is also important to note that in general, the region of influence of the NCN results bigger than that of the NN, as can be seen in Fig. 1.

### 3.1 Basic Algorithm Outline

The TS size reduction technique here proposed rests upon the NCN algorithm. NCN search is used as an exploratory tool to bring out how prototypes in the data set are geometrically distributed. The use of the NCN of a given sample can provide local information about what is the shape of the probability class distribution depending on the nature and class of its NCN. The rationale behind it is that prototypes belonging to the same class are located in a neighbouring area and could be replaced by a single representative without significantly affecting the original boundaries. The main reason to use the NCN instead of the NN is to benefit from the aforementioned properties: that the NCN covers a bigger region, and that these neighbours are located in an area of influence around a given sample which is compensated in terms of their geometrical distribution.

The algorithm attempts to replace a group of neighbouring prototypes from the same class by a representative. In order to decide which group of prototypes are to be replaced, the NCN of each prototype  $p$  in the TS is computed until reaching a neighbour from a different class than that of  $p$ . The prototype with

the largest number of neighbours is defined as a representative of its corresponding group, which lies in the area of influence defined by the NCN distribution and consequently, all its members can be now removed from the TS. Another possibility is to replace the group by its centroide. In this case, the reduction of the data set is done by introducing new samples that replace existing groups.

For each prototype remaining in the set, we update the number of its neighbours if some were previously eliminated as belonging to the group of an already chosen representative. This is repeated until there is no group of prototypes to be replaced. The basic scheme has been named *MaxNCN*. A further extension consists of iterating the general process until no more prototypes are removed from the TS. The iterative version can be written as follows:

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**Algorithm 1** *IterativeMaxNCN*

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while eliminated_prototypes > 0 do
  for i = eachprototype(TS) do
    neighbours_number[i] = 0
    neighbour = next_neighbour(i)
    while neighbour.class == i.class do
      neighbours_vector[i] = Id(neighbour)
      neighbours_number[i] ++
      neighbour = next_neighbour(i)
    end while
  end for
  while Max_neighbours() > 0 do
    EliminateNeighbours(id_Max_neighbours)
  end while
end while

```

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Apart from the basic *MaxNCN* and its iterative version, other alternatives have been implemented and tested: *IterativekNeighbours*, *Centroide* and *WeightedCentroide* among others. *IterativekNeighbours* is similar to Algorithm 1. The main difference relies on the number of neighbours allowed to be represented by a prototype:  $k$ . One of its main properties is that the limit of neighbours can be selected, depending on the TS size (here  $k$  is a percentage of the TS size).

In *Centroide*, the main difference to Algorithm 1 is that instead of using an original prototype as a representative, it computes the respective centroide of the NCN. The rationale behind this is that a new artificial prototype could represent better a neighbourhood because it can be placed in the best location.

*WeightedCentroide* uses the same idea, but each centroide is calculated weighting each prototype by the number of neighbours that it represents.

### 3.2 Consistent Algorithm Outline

Over the basic algorithm described in the previous subsection, we tried to do an important modification. The aim is to obtain a consistent condensed subset. The primary idea is that if the subset is consistent with the TS, a better classification should be obtained. Using the *MaxNCN* algorithm, some prototypes in the decision boundaries are removed because of the condensing order. We

try to solve this problem by a new consistent approach. Other alternatives have been implemented. Two of them are presented here. The simplest one consists of applying *MaxNCN* and, after that, estimating the class of each prototype in the TS by NN, using the reduced set obtained. Every prototype misestimated is added to the reduced set. This algorithm has been here named *Consistent*.

*Reconsistent* is based on the same idea as *Consistent*. In this case, the new prototypes to be added will previously be condensed using as reference the original TS. Algorithmically, it can be written as it is shown in Algorithm 2.

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**Algorithm 2** *Reconsistent*

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for  $i = \text{eachprototype}(TS)$  do
  neighbours_number[i] = 0
  neighbour = next_neighbour(i)
  while neighbour.class == i.class do
    neighbours_vector[i] = Id(neighbour)
    neighbours_number[i] ++
    neighbour = next_neighbour(i)
  end while
end for
while Max_neighbours() > 0 do
  EliminateNeighbours(id_Max_neighbours)
end while
count = 0
for  $i = \text{eachprototype}(TS)$  do
  if Classify(i) != i.class then
    incorrect_class[count ++] = i
  end if
end for
for  $i = \text{eachprototype}(\text{incorrect\_class}[])$  do
  neighbours_number_inc[i] = 0
  neighbour_inc = next_neighbour_inc(i)
  while neighbour_inc.class == i.class do
    neighbours_vector_inc[i] = Id(neighbour_inc)
    neighbours_number_inc[i] ++
    neighbour_inc = next_neighbour_inc(i)
  end while
end for
while Max_neighbours_inc() > 0 do
  EliminateNeighbours_inc(id_Max_neighbours_inc)
end while
AddCondensedIncToCondensedTS()

```

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## 4 Databases and Experiments

Nine real data sets (Table 1) have been taken from the UCI Repository [10] to assess the behaviour of the algorithms introduced in this paper. The experiments have been conducted to compare *MaxNCN*, *IterativeMaxNCN*, *IterativekNeighbours*, *Centroides*, *WeightedCentroides*, *Consistent* and *Reconsistent*, among other

algorithms to Chen’s scheme, *IRSP4* and Hart’s condensing, in terms of both TS size reduction and accuracy of the condensed 1-NN classification rule.

The algorithms proposed in this paper, as in the case of Chen’s, *IRSP4*, *MaxNCN* and *IterativeMaxNCN* need to be applied in practice to overlap-free (no overlapping among different class regions) data sets. Thus, as a general rule and according to previously published results [2, 16], the Wilson’s editing has been considered to properly remove possible overlapping between classes. The parameter involved ( $k$ ) has been obtained in our experiments by performing a five-fold cross-validation experiment using only the TS and computing the average classification accuracies for different values of  $k$  and comparing them with the “no editing” option. The best edited set (including the non-edited TS) is thus selected as input for the different condensing schemes.

Data set	No. classes	No. features	TS size	Test set size
Cancer	2	9	546	137
Pima	2	6	615	153
Glass	6	9	174	40
Heart	2	13	216	54
Liver	2	6	276	69
Vehicle	4	18	678	168
Vowel	11	10	429	99
Wine	3	13	144	34
Phoneme	2	5	4324	1080

**Table 1.** Data sets used in the experiments.

## 5 Experimental Results

Table 2 reports the 1-NN accuracy results obtained by using the different condensed set. Values in brackets correspond to the standard deviation. Analogously, the reduction rates with respect to the edited TS are provided in Table 3. The average values for each method are also included. Several comments can be made from the results in these tables. As expected, classification accuracy strongly depends on the number of prototypes in the condensed set. Correspondingly, *IRSP4*, Hart’s algorithm, *Consistent* and *Reconsistent* obtain the highest classification accuracy almost without exception for all the data sets, but they also retain more prototypes than Chen’s scheme, *MaxNCN* and *IterativeMaxNCN*.

It is important to note that, in terms of reduction rate, *IterativeMaxNCN* is the best. Nevertheless, it also obtains the worst accuracy. On the contrary, *IRSP4* shows the highest accuracy but the lowest reduction rate. Thus, looking for balancing between accuracy and reduction, one can observe that the best options are Hart’s, Chen’s, the plain *MaxNCN* and the *Reconsistent* approach. In particular, *MaxNCN* provides an average accuracy of 69,52% (only 4 points less than *IRSP4*, which is the best option in accuracy) with an average reduction of 78,24% (approximately 20 points higher than *IRSP4*). Results given by Chen’s algorithm are similar to those of the *MaxNCN* procedure in accuracy, but

	Chen	IRSP4	Hart	Iterat.	MaxNCN	Cons.	Recons.
Cancer	96.78 (1.25)	93.55 (3,70)	94.61 (2,94)	68,60 (3,42)	89,92 (4,61)	94,14 (2,64)	92,39 (4,36)
Pima	73.64 (2.85)	72,01 (4,52)	73,31 (3,69)	53,26 (5,80)	67,71 (5,45)	73,05 (3,62)	71,74 (5,93)
Glass	67.18 (3.90)	71,46 (3,13)	67,91 (4,60)	57,19 (9,69)	66,65 (6,28)	69,08 (3,90)	69,08 (3,90)
Heart	61.93 (5.22)	63,01 (5,11)	62,87 (4,27)	58,16 (7,26)	59,92 (5,53)	63,96 (6,87)	63,59 (5,98)
Liver	59.58 (5.15)	63,89 (7,73)	62,40 (5,76)	53,31 (8,55)	60,65 (6,74)	63,23 (3,55)	62,13 (6,76)
Vehicle	58.56 (2,46)	63,47 (1,96)	62,17 (2,16)	55,20 (4,42)	59,33 (2,17)	62,76 (1,04)	62,65 (1,88)
Vowel	60.16 (9.27)	96,02 (1,77)	90,74 (2,30)	78,63 (5,18)	90,73 (1,78)	94,93 (1,63)	94,73 (1,53)
Wine	69.31 (7.31)	69,66 (3,47)	71,71 (6,72)	62,50 (6,65)	60,77 (6,19)	69,05 (6,40)	68,56 (6,18)
Phoneme	70.03 (9.14)	71,60 (8,74)	71,04 (7,90)	65,06 (7,57)	70,00 (8,05)	72,17 (7,72)	70,96 (7,13)
Average	68.57 (5.17)	73,85 (4,46)	72,97 (4,48)	61.32 (9,95)	69,52 (5,20)	73,60 (4,15)	72,87 (4,85)

**Table 2.** Experimental results: 1-NN classification accuracy.

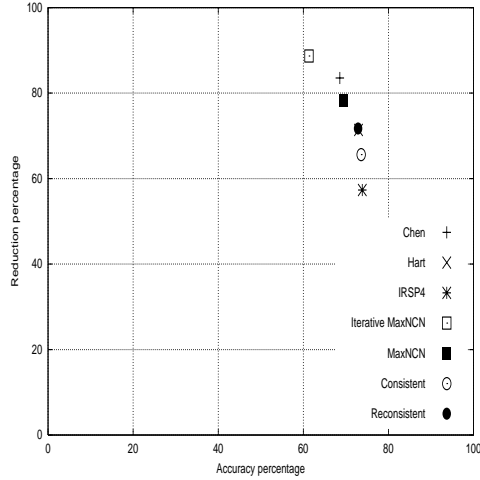
	Chen	IRSP4	Hart	Iterat.	MaxNCN	Cons.	Recons.
Cancer	98.79	93,72	93,09	99,11	96,10	86,91	94,09
Pima	90.61	70,03	79,04	95,99	85,35	73,01	80,19
Glass	67.58	32,71	51,33	73,13	62,15	47,43	50,00
Heart	85.18	55,80	67,22	92,53	78,35	64,18	69,59
Liver	82.97	45,41	63,20	91,21	74,83	57,85	65,65
Vehicle	65.79	35,60	45,98	74,85	56,59	40,28	44,71
Vowel	79.64	39,54	75,97	84,23	75,09	72,21	73,11
Wine	86.75	73,13	78,79	89,03	84,83	65,63	79,71
Phoneme	94.51	69,90	87,91	98,16	90,88	83,06	88,26
Average	83.54	57,32	71,39	88,69	78,24	65,62	71,70

**Table 3.** Experimental results: set size reduction rate.

5 points higher in reduction percentage. The *Reconsistent* approach provides results similar to Hart’s algorithm: an average accuracy of 72,87% (only 0,93 less than *IRSP4*) with an average reduction rate of 71,70% (around 14 points higher than *IRSP4*).

In order to assess the performance of these two competing goals simultaneously, Fig. 2 represents the normalised Euclidean distance between each pair (accuracy, reduction) and the origin (0, 0), in such a way that the “best” technique can be deemed as the one that is farthest from the origin. Thus, it is possible to see that the proposed *Reconsistent*, along with *MaxNCN*, Hart’s and Chen’s algorithms represent a good trade-off between accuracy and reduction.





**Fig. 2.** Averaged accuracy and reduction rates.

About the other algorithms exposed here, as they are not considered so important as the ones compared until now, they are not drawn in Fig. 2, in order to do it more comprehensible. Anyway, their results are commented here. *IterativeNeighbours* obtains a good reduction rate but not the best accuracy rate (similar to *IterativeMaxNCN*). Anyway, comparing it to Hart, the positive difference in reduction is bigger than the negative difference in accuracy.

*Centroide* obtains more or less the same reduction as *IterativeNeighbours*. But its accuracy rate is a little bit bigger than the one of *IterativeNeighbours*.

*WeightedCentroide* obtains more or less the same reduction rate as *IterativeNeighbours* and *Centroide*, and a little bit bigger accuracy rate than them.

Finally, it is to be noted that several alternatives to the algorithms here introduced have also been analysed, although some of them had a behaviour similar to that of *MaxNCN*. Other alternatives, as for example *MaxNN*, consisting of using the NN instead of the NCN, have a performance systematically worst.

Many algorithms have been tested. In Fig. 2 a curve formed by the results for some of them can be observed. It seems that not great improvements can be obtained from now on. It seems maybe because when the classification accuracy increases, the reduction percentage decreases; and when the reduction percentage increases, the classification accuracy decreases. It makes sense because it should be any limit to the reduction. That is, a set can not be reduced as much as we want without influencing the classification accuracy.

## 6 Conclusions

In this paper, new approaches to TS size reduction have been introduced. These algorithms primarily consist of replacing a group of neighbouring prototypes that belong to a same class by a single representative. This group of prototypes is built by using the NCN, instead of the NN, of a given sample because in general, those

cover a bigger region. It is also important to note that the method presented here can be scaled up in order to be applied to huge datasets.

From the experiments carried out, it seems that *Reconsistent* and *MaxNCN* provide a well balanced trade-off between accuracy and TS size reduction rate, in clear contrast to the behaviour of the iterative version, which results in maximum reduction percentage but very poor accuracy performance.

From the experimental study carried out with these databases and this type of condensing algorithms, we could draw the preliminary conclusion that we have to arrive to a trade-off between the amount of reduction of the TS and the classification accuracy.

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