CS4104 Applied Machine Learning Dimensionality Reduction

Dimensionality Reduction

- The input space of many learning problems is of high dimensionality
- This has computational implications and, it makes finding the intrinsic information content difficult
- Context: unsupervised learning
- given a collection of data points in an n-dimensional space a good representation of the data in r-dimensional

Dimensionality Reduction

m examples; n dimensional space

The dimensionality reduction is to reduce dimensions n to r

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{m1} & \cdots & x_{nr} \end{bmatrix}$$

Dimensionality Reduction Techniques

- Visualize, categorize, or simplify large datasets
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA): Finds the dimensions that capture the most variance
- Multidimensional Scaling (MDS): Finds data points in lower dimensional space that best preserves the inter-point distance.
- Isomap: Estimates the distance between two points on a manifold by following a chain of points with shorter distances between them. (More accurate in representing global distances than LLE; slower than LLE)
- Local Linear Embedding (LLE): Only worries about representing the distances between local points. Faster than Isomap (no worry about global distances)
- Decision Tree based Selection

Feature Selection

- In many applications, we often encounter a very large number of potential features that can be used
- Which subset of features should be used for the best classification?
- Need for a small number of discriminative features
 - To avid "curse of dimensionality"
 - To reduce feature measurement cost
 - To reduce computational burden
- Given an nxd pattern matrix (n patterns in d-dimensional feature space), generate an nxm pattern matrix, where m << d

Feature Selection vs. Extraction

- Both are collectively known as dimensionality reduction
- Selection: choose a best subset of size m from the available d features
- Extraction: given d features (set *Y*), extract m new features (set *X*) by linear or non-linear combination of all the d features
 - Linear feature extraction: X = TY, where T is a mxd matrix
 - Non-linear feature extraction: X = f(Y)
- New features by extraction may not have physical interpretation/meaning
- Examples of linear feature extraction
 - Unsupervised: PCA; Supervised: LDA/MDA
- Criteria for selection/extraction: either improve or maintain the classification accuracy, simplify classifier complexity

Feature Selection

- How to find the best subset of size m?
- Recall, best means classifier based on these m features has the lowest probability of error of all such classifiers
- Simplest approach is to do an exhaustive search; computationally prohibitive
 - For d=24 and m=12, there are about 2.7 million possible feature subsets! Cover & Van Campenhout (IEEE SMC, 1977) showed that to guarantee the best subset of size m from the available set of size d, one must examine all possible subsets of size m
- Heuristics have been used to avoid exhaustive search
- How to evaluate the subsets?
 - Error rate; but then which classifier should be used?
 - Distance measure; Mahalanobis, divergence,...
- Feature selection is an optimization problem

Feature Selection: Evaluation, Application, and Small Sample Performance (Jain & Zongker, IEEE Trans. PAMI, Feb 1997)

- Value of feature selection in combining features from different data models
- Potential difficulties feature selection faces in small sample size situation
- Let Y be the original set of features and X is the selected subset
- Feature selection criterion function for the set X is J(X); large values of J indicates better feature subset; problem is to find subset X such that $J(X) = \max_{Z \in Y, |Z| = d} J(Z)$

$$J(X) = \max_{Z \subseteq Y, |Z| = d} J(Z)$$

Taxonomy of Feature Selection Algorithms

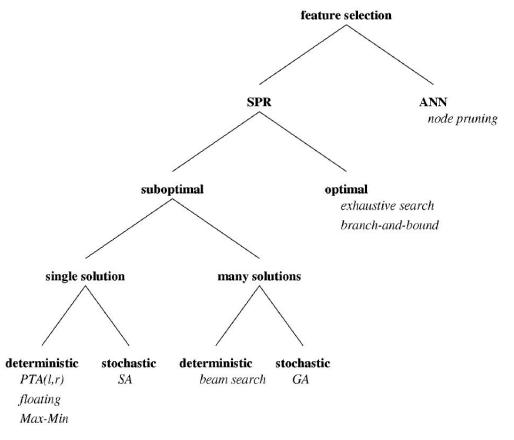


Fig. 1. A taxonomy of feature selection algorithms.

Deterministic Single-Solution Methods

- Begin with a single solution (feature subset) & iteratively add or remove features until some termination criterion is met
- Also known as sequential methods; most popular
 - Bottom up/forward methods: begin with an empty set & add features
 - Top-down/backward methods: begin with a full set & delete features
- Since they do not examine all possible subsets, no guarantee of finding the optimal subset
- Pudil introduced two floating selection methods: SFFS, SFBS
- 15 feature selection methods listed in Table 1 were evaluated

Sequential Forward Selection (SFS)

- Start with empty set, X=0
- Repeatedly add most significant feature with respect to X
- Disadvantage: Once a feature is retained, it cannot be discarded; nesting problem

Sequential Backward Selection (SBS)

- Start with full set, X=Y
- Repeatedly delete least significant feature in *X*
- Disadvantage: SBS requires more computation than SFS; Nesting problem

CS4104 Applied Machine Learning

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

PCA

- PCA was invented in 1901 by Karl Pearson
- statistical procedure that uses an orthogonal transformation $(T: V \to V: \forall (u, v) \in V \text{ then } (u, v) = (Tu, Tv))$ to convert a set of observations of possibly correlated variables into a set of values of linearly uncorrelated variables called principal components.
- Example: marks of quiz and midterm can be correlated in a dataset and PCA will convert it into a non-correlated set of variables/components.

PCA for Features Reduction

- Computation of Covariance Matrix (M)
- Compute the Eigen values
- Sort the Eigen values
- For first k (all non zero) Eigen values
 - Compute the Eigen vectors
- Use the Eigen Vectors as features

Covariance Matrix

- The relationship between attributes/features
- Provided the dataset of n elements as $Data = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, ..., p_n\}$ where each data point is of d dimensions $p = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_d\}$. The dataset can be represented as a matrix of n rows and d columns as

Example

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -20 & -11 \\ -2 & -30 & -7 \\ 0 & -10 & -3 \\ 1 & 60 & 6 \\ 5 & 0 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M^{T}M = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -2 & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ -20 & -30 & -10 & 60 & 0 \\ -11 & -7 & -3 & 6 & 15 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -20 & -11 \\ -2 & -30 & -7 \\ 0 & -10 & -3 \\ 1 & 60 & 6 \\ 5 & 0 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigen values

- $AV = \lambda V$
 - A is an n-by-n matrix
 - V is a non-zero n-by-1 vector
 - \cdot λ is a scalar/eigenvalue

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigen values

- $AV = \lambda V$
- $AV \lambda V = 0$
- $AV \lambda . I . V = 0$
- $(A \lambda I)$. V = 0
- for $V \neq 0$
- $\bullet (A \lambda I) = \mathbf{0}$

zeshan.khan@nu.edu.pk

Example

•
$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 6 - \lambda & 1 \\ 4 & 5 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 6 - \lambda & 1 \\ 4 & 5 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

•
$$((6 - \lambda) * (5 - \lambda) - (4)) = 0$$

•
$$30 - 11\lambda - \lambda^2 - 4 = 0$$

•
$$\lambda^2 + 11\lambda - 26 = 0$$

•
$$\lambda^2 + 13\lambda - 2\lambda - 26 = 0$$

•
$$\lambda(\lambda + 13) - 2(\lambda + 13) = 0$$

•
$$\lambda = 2$$
, $\lambda = -13$

Example: 2

Example: 2

$$(46 - \lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 5000 - \lambda & 1360 \\ 1360 & 440 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

•
$$-(440)\begin{vmatrix} 440 & 1360 \\ 139 & 440 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$+(139)\begin{vmatrix} 440 & 5000 - \lambda \\ 139 & 1360 \end{vmatrix}$$

• ...

zeshan.khan@nu.edu.pk

Eigen Vector

•
$$AV = \lambda V$$

• For
$$\lambda = 2$$

$$\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$6v_1 + 1v_2 = 2v_1, 4v_1 + 5v_2 = 2v_2$$

•
$$4v_1 + v_2 = 0$$
, $4v_1 + 3v_2 = 0$

•
$$For v_1 = 1$$

•
$$v_2 = -4$$

• Eigen Vector
$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

• The unit vector $e_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{17}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$

•
$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(17)}} \\ -\frac{4}{\sqrt{(17)}} \end{bmatrix}$$

zeshan.khan@nu.edu.pk

Eigen Vector

•
$$AV = \lambda V$$

• **For**
$$\lambda = -13$$

$$\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} = -13 \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$6v_1 + 1v_2 = -13v_1, 4v_1 + 5v_2 = -13v_2$$

•
$$19v_1 + v_2 = 0.4v_1 + 18v_2$$

= 0

• For
$$v_1 = 1$$

•
$$v_2 = -19$$

• Eigen Vector
$$e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -19 \end{bmatrix}$$

• The unit vector $e_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{362}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -19 \end{bmatrix}$

•
$$e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{362}} \\ -\frac{19}{\sqrt{362}} \end{bmatrix}$$

PCA: Feature Vector

• Eigen Vector
$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(17)}} \\ -\frac{4}{\sqrt{(17)}} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Eigen Vector
$$e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{362}} \\ -\frac{19}{\sqrt{362}} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Feature Vector
$$E = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(17)}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{362}} \\ \frac{-4}{\sqrt{(17)}} & -\frac{19}{\sqrt{362}} \end{bmatrix}$$