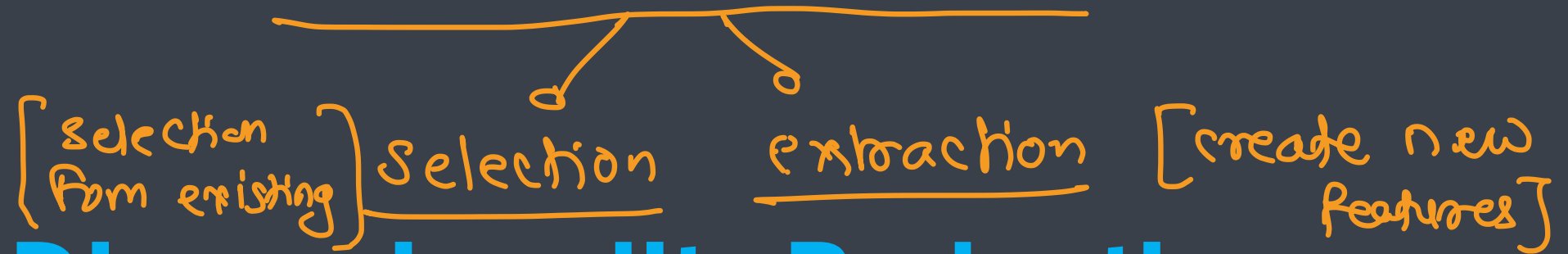




Feature Engineering



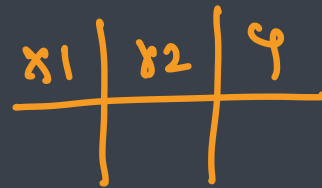
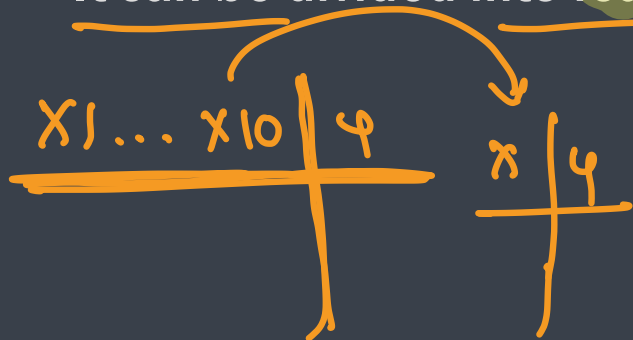
Dimensionality Reduction

features



Dimensionality Issue

- In machine learning classification problems, there are often too many factors on the basis of which the final classification is done
- These factors are basically **variables** called **features**
- The higher the number of features, the harder it gets to **visualize** the training set and then work on it
- Sometimes, most of these features are **correlated**, and hence redundant
- This is where dimensionality reduction algorithms come into play
- Dimensionality reduction is the process of reducing the number of random variables under consideration, by obtaining a set of **principal variables**
- It can be divided into **feature selection** and **feature extraction**





Advantages of Dimensionality Reduction

- It helps in data compression, and hence reduced storage space
- It reduces computation time
- It also helps remove redundant features, if any

* Not used for improving model accuracy *

– visualization



Disadvantages of Dimensionality Reduction

- It may lead to some amount of data loss
- PCA tends to find linear correlations between variables, which is sometimes undesirable
- PCA fails in cases where mean and covariance are not enough to define datasets
- We may not know how many principal components to keep- in practice, some thumb rules are applied





Components of dimensionality reduction

- There are two components of dimensionality reduction:
- **Feature selection:** In this, we try to find a subset of the original set of variables, or features, to get a smaller subset which can be used to model the problem. It usually involves three ways:
 - Filter
 - Wrapper
 - Embedded

} correlation coe / cov
- **Feature extraction:** This reduces the data in a high dimensional space to a lower dimension space, i.e. a space with lesser no. of dimensions.



Methods of Dimensionality Reduction

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA) ✖✖
- Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
- Generalized Discriminant Analysis (GDA)



PCA

Overview



- Is a dimensionality-reduction method that is often used to reduce the dimensionality of large data sets
- Reduces dimensions by transforming a large set of variables into a smaller one that still contains most of the information in the large set
- Reducing the number of variables of a data set naturally comes at the expense of accuracy, but the trick in dimensionality reduction is to trade a little accuracy for simplicity
- Because smaller data sets are easier to explore and visualize and make analyzing data much easier and faster for machine learning algorithms without extraneous variables to process



What is PCA?

- This method was introduced by Karl Pearson
- It works on a condition that while the data in a higher dimensional space is mapped to data in a lower dimension space, the **variance** of the data in the lower dimensional space should be maximum

Step 1: Standardization → Scaling



- The aim of this step is to standardize the range of the continuous initial variables so that each one of them contributes equally to the analysis

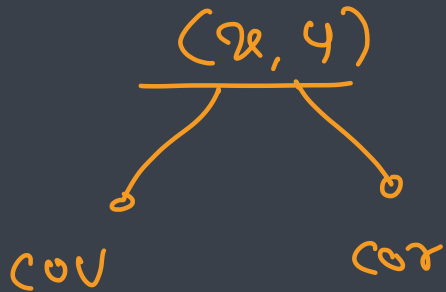
$$z = \frac{\text{value} - \text{mean}}{\text{standard deviation}}$$

- Once the standardization is done, all the variables will be transformed to the same scale.



Step 2: Covariance Matrix computation

- The aim of this step is to understand how the variables of the input data set are varying from the mean with respect to each other
- In other words, to see if there is any relationship between them
- Because sometimes, variables are highly correlated in such a way that they contain redundant information
- So, in order to identify these correlations, we compute the covariance matrix



$$\text{cov}(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{cov}(x, x) & \text{cov}(x, y) \\ \text{cov}(y, x) & \text{cov}(y, y) \end{bmatrix}$$



Step 2: Covariance Matrix computation

- The covariance matrix is a $p \times p$ symmetric matrix (where p is the number of dimensions) that has as entries the covariances associated with all possible pairs of the initial variables
- For example, for a 3-dimensional data set with 3 variables x , y , and z , the covariance matrix is a 3×3 matrix of this form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}(x, x) & \text{Cov}(x, y) & \text{Cov}(x, z) \\ \text{Cov}(y, x) & \text{Cov}(y, y) & \text{Cov}(y, z) \\ \text{Cov}(z, x) & \text{Cov}(z, y) & \text{Cov}(z, z) \end{bmatrix}$$



Step 2: Covariance Matrix computation

- Since the covariance of a variable with itself is its variance ($\text{Cov}(a,a)=\text{Var}(a)$), in the main diagonal (Top left to bottom right) we actually have the variances of each initial variable
- Since the covariance is commutative ($\text{Cov}(a,b)=\text{Cov}(b,a)$), the entries of the covariance matrix are symmetric with respect to the main diagonal, which means that the upper and the lower triangular portions are equal.
- if positive then
 - the two variables increase or decrease together (correlated)
- if negative then
 - One increases when the other decreases (Inversely correlated)

if zero then
a not correlated



Step 3: Compute eigenvectors eigenvalues

- Eigenvectors and eigenvalues are the linear algebra concepts that we need to compute from the covariance matrix in order to determine the **principal components** of the data
- Principal components are **new variables** that are constructed as linear combinations or mixtures of the initial variables
- These combinations are done in such a way that the new variables (i.e., principal components) are uncorrelated and most of the information within the initial variables is squeezed or compressed into the first components
- Organizing information in principal components this way, will allow you to reduce dimensionality without **losing much information**, and this by discarding the components with low information and considering the remaining components as your new variables
- the principal components are less interpretable and **don't have any real meaning** since they are constructed as linear combinations of the initial variables.





Step 4: Feature vector

- choose whether to keep all these components or discard those of lesser significance (of low eigenvalues), and form with the remaining ones a matrix of vectors that we call **Feature vector**
- feature vector is simply a matrix that has as columns the eigenvectors of the components that we decide to keep

λ_1 and λ_2





Statistical Calculations



Example



- Calculate PCA for the following dataset : reduce the dataset to one dimension

X	Y
4	11
8	4
13	5
7	14

Step 1: Calculate Mean



$$\bar{x} = (4 + 8 + 13 + 7) / 4 = 32 / 4 = \underline{\underline{8}}$$

$$\bar{y} = (11 + 4 + 5 + 14) / 4 = 34 / 4 = \underline{\underline{8.5}}$$

$$\boxed{\bar{x} = 8}$$

$$\boxed{\bar{y} = 8.5}$$

x	y	$x - \bar{x}$	$(x - \bar{x})^2$	$(y - \bar{y})$	$(y - \bar{y})^2$	$(x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})$
4	11	-4	16	2.5	6.25	-10
8	4	0	0	-4.5	20.25	0
13	5	5	25	-3.5	12.25	-17.5
7	14	-1	1	5.5	30.25	-5.5
			42	69		-33

$$\bar{x} = 8, \quad \bar{y} = 8.5$$

Step 2: Calculate Covariance Matrix



$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{cov}(x, x) & \text{cov}(x, y) \\ \text{cov}(y, x) & \text{cov}(y, y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & -11 \\ -11 & 23 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{cov}(x, x) = \frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})(x - \bar{x})}{N-1} = \frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{N-1} = \frac{42}{3} = 14$$

$$\text{cov}(x, y) = \frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})}{N-1} = \frac{-33}{3} = -11$$

$$\text{cov}(y, y) = \frac{\sum (y - \bar{y})^2}{N-1} = \frac{69}{3} = 23$$

Step 3: Calculate eigenvalues of Covariance Matrix



$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\left| \begin{bmatrix} 14 & -11 \\ -11 & 23 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \right| = \left| \begin{bmatrix} 14 - \lambda & -11 \\ -11 & 23 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \right| = 0$$

$$(14 - \lambda)(23 - \lambda) - (-11 \times -11) = 0$$

$$14 \times 23 - 14\lambda - 23\lambda + \lambda^2 - 121 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 37\lambda + 201 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 37\lambda + 201 = 0$$

$$\text{roots} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$a = 1, b = -37, c = 201$$

$$\lambda = \frac{37 \pm \sqrt{(-37)^2 - 4 \times 201}}{2} = \frac{37 \pm \sqrt{1369 - 804}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{37 \pm \sqrt{565}}{2} = \frac{37 \pm 23.76}{2}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{37 + 23.76}{2} = \underline{\underline{30.38}}, \quad \lambda = \frac{37 - 23.76}{2} = \frac{13.24}{2} = \underline{\underline{6.62}}$$

Step 4: Calculate eigenvector

$$(A - \lambda I) u = 0$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} 14-\lambda & -11 \\ -11 & 23-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(14-\lambda)u_1 - 11u_2 = 0 \Rightarrow (14-\lambda)u_1 = 11u_2$$

$$-11u_1 + (23-\lambda)u_2 = 0$$

$$\frac{u_1}{11} = \frac{u_2}{14-\lambda}$$

$$\underline{u_1 = 11}, \quad \underline{u_2 = (14-\lambda) = 14 - 30.38 = \underline{\underline{-16.38}}}$$

Step 5: Normalize unit eigenvector



$$u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ -16.38 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|u\| &= \sqrt{(u_1)^2 + (u_2)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{11^2 + (-16.38)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$e = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 / \|u\| \\ u_2 / \|u\| \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \sqrt{121 + 268.30}$$

$$= \sqrt{389.3}$$

$$\underline{e} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 / 19.73 \\ -16.38 / 19.73 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.55 \\ -0.83 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 19.73$$

Step 6: Calculate first principal component

$$\text{principal component} = e^T \begin{bmatrix} x - \bar{x} \\ y - \bar{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

①

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0.55 & -0.83 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 0.55 \times -4 - 0.83 \times 2.5 = -2.2 - 2.07$$

$$= -4.27$$

$$\bar{x} = 8$$

$$\bar{y} = 8.5$$

x	y	PC
4	11	-4.27
8	4	3.73
13	5	5.65
7	14	-5.11



$$\textcircled{2} \quad 0.55 \times 0 - 0.83 \times (-4.5) = 3.73$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad 0.55 \times 5 - 0.83 \times (-3.5) = 2.75 + 2.90 \\ = 5.65$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad -0.55 \times 1 - 0.83 \times 5.5 = -0.55 - 4.56 \\ = -5.11$$