# QBUS6850 Lecture 6 Neural Networks IV Representation Learning

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#### □ Topics covered

- Feature Engineering
- Feature Extraction
- Representation Learning
- Principal Component Analysis
- Spectral Clustering
- Classification Criteria



## **Learning Objectives**

- Understand different types of features and feature extraction
- Be able to extract features for text data
- Be able to conduct feature engineering by deep learning
- Be able to use classic algorithms for feature engineering and visualisation



# Feature Extraction and Representation



### **Processing Features**

- □ All we have assumed so far is that data come to us in good shape and most of them are in numeric format and possibly in a categorical form
- ☐ In Python machine learning, we normally organise data into a matrix (or multidimensional arrays)
- □ However data coming from application domains could be in any forms or categories
- ☐ For business applications, we may have data in the form of text (or natural language), or in media such as audio and videos
- □ It is easy to deal with numeric data which can be sent to a machine learning straightaway



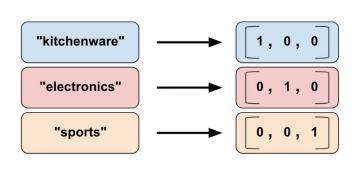
#### How the real data look like?

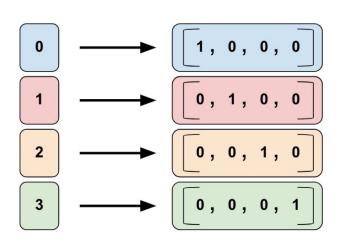
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0	No	441.7383	36012.24		
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0	No	95.14768	51371.2		
0	No	1015.615	43218.79		
0	No	1258.567	44931.67		
0	Yes	1178.244	7750.289		
0	No	731.5327	43956.06		



# **Categorical Features**

- ☐ In raw data, they are represented by strings. For example "Red", "Green", "Blue", "Yellow", and "White".
- ☐ They are not suitable to machine learning. We need engineer them into numeric numbers.
  - ➤ Label Representation: For example "Red" to 4, "Green" to 3, "Blue" to 2, "Yellow" to 1, and "White" to 0.
  - One-hot Encoding:





Use scikit-learn to make this transform or pandas' get dummies:

Lecture06\_Example01.py



# Transforming Categorical Features in scikit-learn

#### □ Encoding categorical features

Converting a categorical feature to one-hot coding by OneHotEncoder

#### □ Loading features from dicts

#### The number of features increased

from scikit-learn documentation



#### **Ordinal Features**

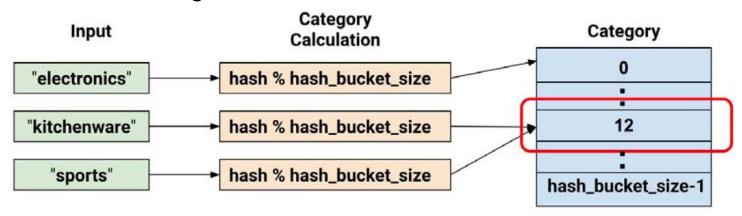
- ☐ In raw data, they are represented by strings. For example "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Neutral", "Disagree", and "Strongly Disagree".
- ☐ The order information is important for modelling. Most time, we can encode such feature in terms of integers, such as "Strongly Agree" to 5, "Agree" to 4, "Neutral" to 3, "Disagree" to 2, and "Strongly Disagree" to 1.
- OrdinalEncoder in scikit-learn can be used to transform such nonnumerical labels to numerical labels

from scikit-learn documentation



### **Feature Hashing**

- ☐ If a categorical feature has huge of different values, then the one-hot coding is a long (sparse) vector
- □ Instead of using a long 0-1 vector, we use a hash function which calculates a hash code. We are forcing the different input values to a smaller set of categories



☐ Collision: Both "kitchenware" and "sports" may be mapped to the same values

```
hasher = FeatureHasher(input_type='string')
```

X = hasher.transform(raw\_X)



#### **Hashed Label Encoder**

- keras package offers a very sophisticated one hot label encoder:
  from keras.preprocessing.text import one hot
- ➤ It is useful to convert a chunk of text into a set of unique integer label. For example:

```
doc = "This is a demo for one hot encoder. # The text (one
document) can be converted to integer labels. "
```

With a larger dictionary size, we may convert it to

```
label = [927, 367, 59, 18, 858, 864, 405, 481, 875, 451, 864, 334, 307, 574, 817, 85, 263, 629]
```

#### where we have

```
This -> 927 is -> 367
```

See Lecture06\_Example02.py



#### **Bag-of-Words**

- In Business Intelligence, we analyse texts such business plan, business report, even news.
- Machine learning algorithms cannot work with raw text directly and the text must be converted in to numbers.
- The BoW representation of text describes the occurrence of words within a document
- ➤ For example, suppose we have a vocabulary of 1000 words. We have a document in which ``ours' appears 3 times, ``competition' appears 1 time and ``managers' 10 times.
- ➤ We will represent this document as a vector of dimension 1000 (such as each component in the vector corresponds to a word in the vocabulary) such that 3 will be in the position of the vector corresponding to ``ours", 1 at the position corresponding to `` competition" and 15 at the position corresponding ``managers".
- All other positions have values of 0. So the vector looks like

$$x = (0, ..., 0, 3, 0, ..., 0, 1, 0, ..., 15, 0, ..., 0)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{1000}$$

which is sparse. Why?

Poll



### **Bag-of-Words**

- Sciki-learn can extract numerical features from text content such as counting the occurrence of tokens in each document
- ➤ A corpus of documents can thus be represented by a matrix with one row per document and one column per token (e.g. word) occurring in the corpus
- > See Lecture06\_Example03.py



#### **Text Feature Extraction**

- > tf-idf Term Weighting
  - ❖ tf-idf(t, d) is defined as

There are other definitions for these two "frequencies"

$$tf-idf(t,d) = tf(t,d) \times idf(t)$$

- ❖ tf(t,d) (term frequency): is the frequency of a term t in a document d, i.e., the ratio of the occurring count number of t in d to the number of different words in d
- ❖ idf(t) inverse document frequency: a measure of how much information the word t provides, that is, whether the term is common or rare across all documents  $idf(t) = log\left(\frac{the number of documents}{the number of documents in corpus containing term <math>t$
- How is this done in scikit-learn? Lecture06\_Example04.py



# **Representation Learning**



#### Representation Learning

- ➤ Both One-hot Encoding and BoW may produce feature representations which are of large dimension and sparse.
- ➤ High dimension will result in the so-called curse of dimensionality problem in many machine learning algorithms.
- ➤ Each of these has its own drawback. For example, if we use one-hot encoding for Colour names like Red, Green and Madder, there is no way for us to tell Red and Madder is much more similar than Red and Green. Although BoW can tell frequency information, it does not tell any "semantic" information of text.
- Is there a way for us to do better?
- ➤ The so-called Representation Learning (*extension of dimensionality reduction*) can achieve this goal.



#### Representation Learning

- Representation learning automatically discovers the feature patterns in the data according to certain task goals.
- ➤ We will provide the (raw) data to the machine, it learns the representation itself without any human intervention.
- ➤ The goal of representation learning is to train machine learning algorithms to learn useful representations, such as those that are interpretable, incorporate latent features, or can be used for transfer learning.
- We will discuss the concept of representation learning along with its need and different approaches through demonstration.
- ➤ Representation learning should not be "new" to us, indeed when after train a deep neural network, you can use the hidden layer as a new representation of data.



### **Embedding Layer**

- ➤ An embedding layer can be used to conduct representation learning, which convert categorical index (hot-one code) to vectorial representation in much lower dimension
- ➤ You can imagine that an embedding layer is a normal linear layer which connects the input layer and a hidden layer to a hidden layer with only given number of neurons.
- The inputs are normally the hot-one features or categorical indices
- This is particularly useful in feature engineering words.

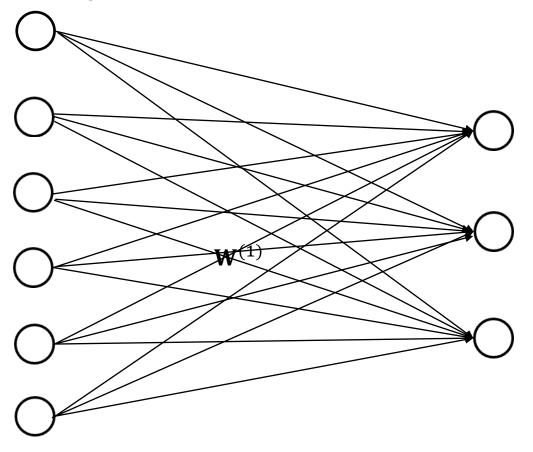


- ➤ Both Pytorch and Keras implement their Embedding layers.
- ➤ Let us explain it from a Linear layer view in this example:
- consider a color bank ={red, limegreen, yellow, blue, peru, magenta} and their one-hot coding

```
red = (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)
limegreen = (0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0)
yellow = (0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0)
blue = (0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0)
peru = (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0)
magenta = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1)
```



Consider the following linear layer with their connecting weights.

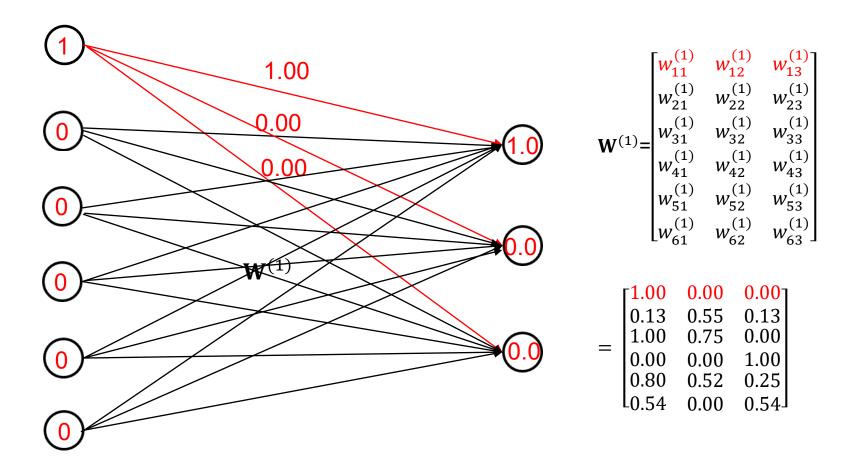


$$\mathbf{W}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11}^{(1)} & w_{12}^{(1)} & w_{13}^{(1)} \\ w_{21}^{(1)} & w_{22}^{(1)} & w_{23}^{(1)} \\ w_{31}^{(1)} & w_{32}^{(1)} & w_{33}^{(1)} \\ w_{41}^{(1)} & w_{42}^{(1)} & w_{43}^{(1)} \\ w_{51}^{(1)} & w_{52}^{(1)} & w_{53}^{(1)} \\ w_{61}^{(1)} & w_{62}^{(1)} & w_{63}^{(1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.13 & 0.55 & 0.13 \\ 1.00 & 0.75 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 1.00 \\ 0.80 & 0.52 & 0.25 \\ 0.54 & 0.00 & 0.54 \end{bmatrix}$$

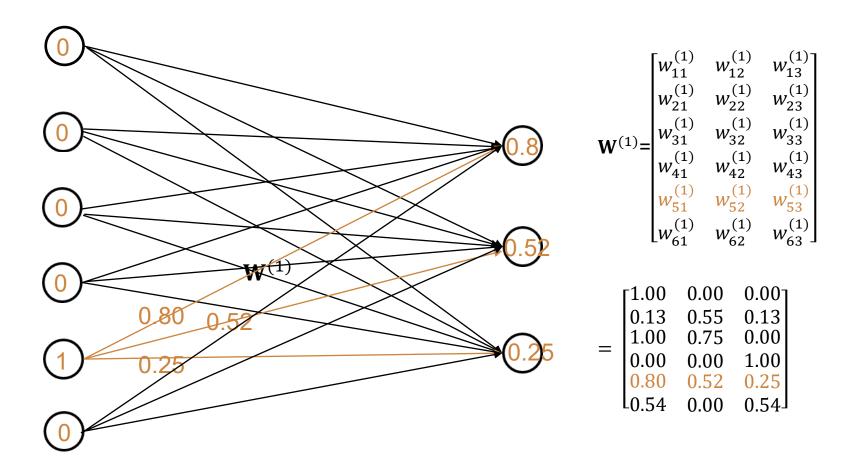


 $\triangleright$  Take input **red** = (1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)





ightharpoonup Take input peru = (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0)





- $\succ$  This linear layer operation is equivalent to pick up a row from the layer weight matrix  $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}$
- ➤ By this equivalence, we don't need explicitly use one-hot coding and the linear layer, instead we only need the index (which color) and the linear weight matrix.
- ➤ This is how pytorch or keras implements such a so-called embedding layer, in which a weight matrix is maintained, and forward operation is to pick a row from the matrix according to the index. This is a look-up table way.
- The matrix row now becomes the feature of the index (e.g a colour name)



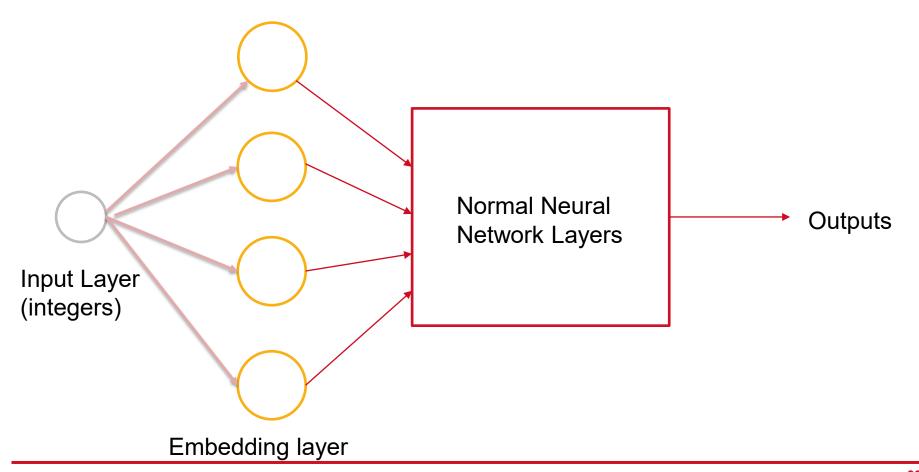
### Using Embedding Layer

- ➤ In the previous example, the weight matrix values are given, indeed they are color RGB values
- ➤ However we can turn this matrix into parameter matrix, and put this Embedding layer in our neural networks (as the first hidden layer), then we can learn embeddings for all the index (e.g. for color names)
- ➤ This is particularly useful in coding words in business applications (or Natural Language Processing NLP)
- ➤ In tutorial, we will learn how to build a neural network model to learn our own color name embedding, rather than RGB



### **Using Embedding Layer**

A typical neural network architecture with embedding layer(s)



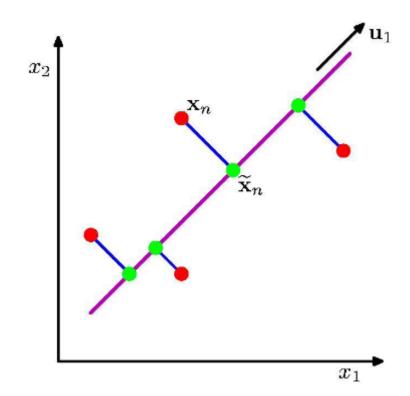


# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



#### **Principle Component Analysis (PCA)**

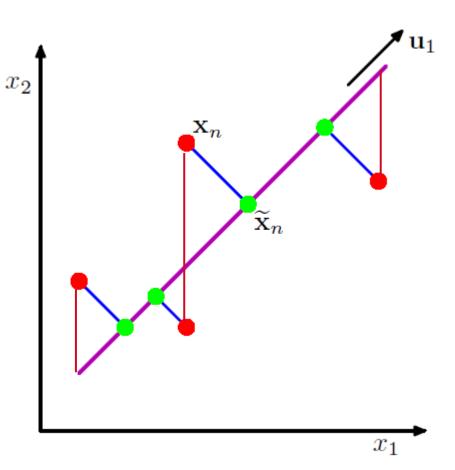
- Principal component analysis seeks a space of lower dimensionality, known as the principal subspace and denoted by the magenta line, such that the orthogonal projection of the data points (red dots) onto this subspace maximizes the variance of the projected points (green dots).
- How can we find this line? Can we do this by linear regression?





#### **Principle Component Analysis (PCA)**

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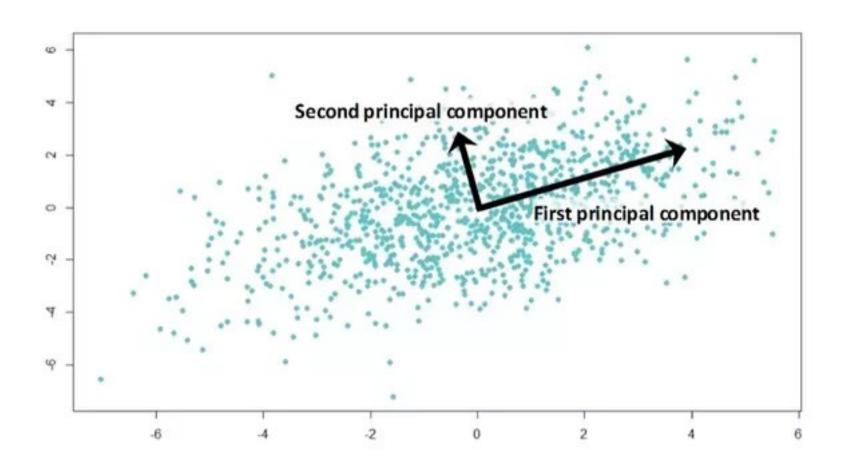


#### **Principle Component Analysis (PCA)**

- $\blacktriangleright$  Objective: given a set of d measurements on N individuals, we aim at determining  $r \leq d$  orthogonal (uncorrelated) variables, called principal components, defined as linear combinations of the original ones
- > The PCs are uncorrelated and have decreasing variance
  - Synthesis: information dimensionality reduction
  - Interpretation: express the original data in terms of a reduced number of underlying variables (factors)
  - Score the individual proles, with a summary score
  - Obtain multivariate displays (scatterplot) of the units in two or three dimensions
- ➤ The first component is designed to capture as much of the variability in the data as possible, and the succeeding components in turn extract as much of residual variability as possible



#### **2D Gaussian Dataset**



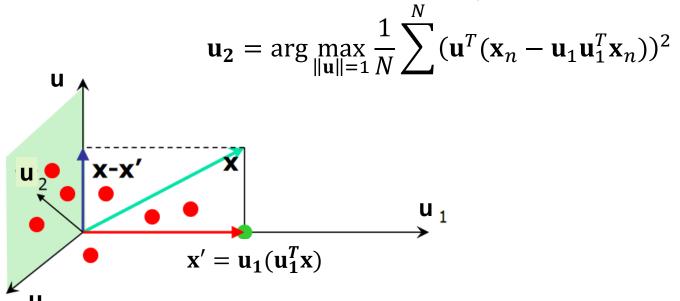


#### **Mathematical Problem of PCA**

 $\triangleright$  Given the centred d-dimensional data  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ , compute the first PCA vector  $\mathbf{u}_1$  of dimension d as solving for

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \arg\max_{\|\mathbf{u}\|=1} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_n)^2$$

- $\triangleright$  To find  $\mathbf{u}_1$ , we are maximizing the variance of project of  $\mathbf{x}$
- The second PCA vector is solved by





#### **Mathematical Problem of PCA\***

Given the centred d-dimensional data  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ , the first  $r \ (1 \le r \le d)$  PCA components  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, ..., \mathbf{u}_r]$  are defined as the solution of the following optimization problem:

$$\mathbf{U}_r = \arg\min_{\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}} \frac{1}{N} \| \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T \|_{2}^{2}$$

➤ There is a very nice closed-form solution for this problem. This is the classic PCA algorithm. See the next slide



#### **PCA: The Algorithm**

#### Size $N \times d$

- Given a set of data  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ . Suppose they have been centralised, i.e., removing the mean from them. Collect them in a data matrix  $\mathbf{X}^*$  Size  $d \times d$
- $\triangleright$  Calculate the variance matrix  $\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
- ➤ Conduct the eigen-decomposition of **S** such that

$$S = U \Lambda U^T$$

where  $\mathbf{U}^{\mathbf{T}}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I_d}$  and  $\Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_d)$  where  $\lambda_i$  in descending order, ie.  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_d \geq 0$ .

ightharpoonup The first  $r \ (r \le d)$  principal components of **X** are given by

Size 
$$N \times r$$

$$ightharpoonup \mathbf{Z}_r = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{U}_r$$

where  $\mathbf{U}_r$  is the matrix of the first r columns of  $\mathbf{U}$ .

Each row of  $\mathbf{Z}_r$  (in r new factors/features) is a new representation of the given data, i.e., the corresponding row in  $\mathbf{X}$  (in d attributes/features)

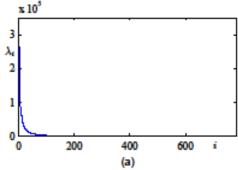


#### **PCA:** Selecting r

ightharpoonup Consider the share of the total variance absorbed by the first r components  $\mathbf{Z}_r$ 

$$Q_r = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^r \lambda_h}{\sum_{h=1}^d \lambda_h}$$

Select r so that  $Q_r \ge 0.95$  for example



Kaiser criterion: compute the average eigenvalues

$$\bar{\lambda} = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{h=1}^{d} \lambda_h$$

> Select the first r components for which  $\lambda_h > \bar{\lambda}$ . Note: if the variables are standardised  $\bar{\lambda} = 1$ .



# **Python Example**

(Lecture06\_Example05.py)



# **Autoencoder**



#### PCA as a Neural Network

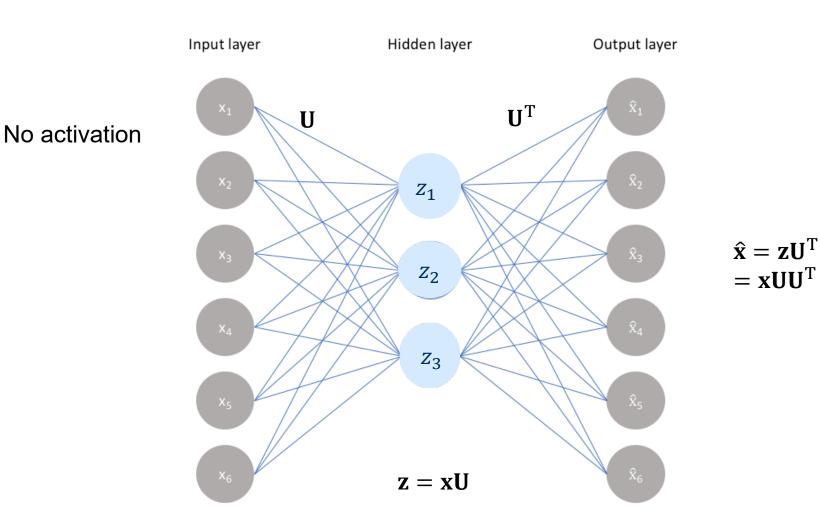
PCA definition: Given the centred d-dimensional data  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$ , the first  $r \ (1 \le r \le d)$  PCA components  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, ..., \mathbf{u}_r]$  are defined as the solution of the following optimization problem:

$$\mathbf{U}_r = \arg\min_{\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}} \frac{1}{N} \| \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T \|_2^2$$

- ➤ We can use a 3-layer neural network to unfold the PCA problem. The network consists of two linear layers, one with connection matrix U and the other with U<sup>T</sup>.
- ➤ Please note that in general neural networks, connection weight matrices W<sup>(l)</sup> are different in each layer. However here we take a special requirement.



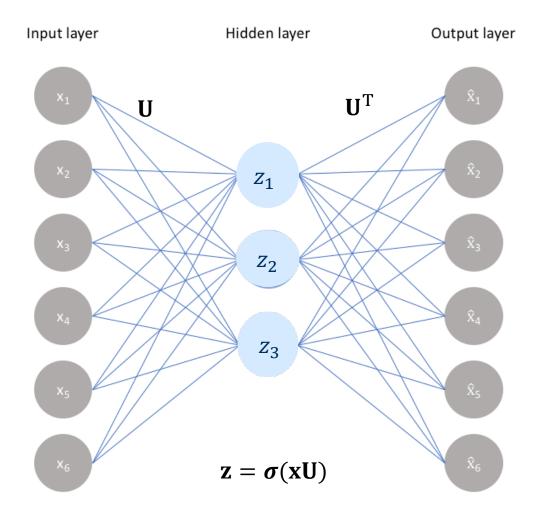
#### **PCA** as a Neural Network





#### **Autoencoders**

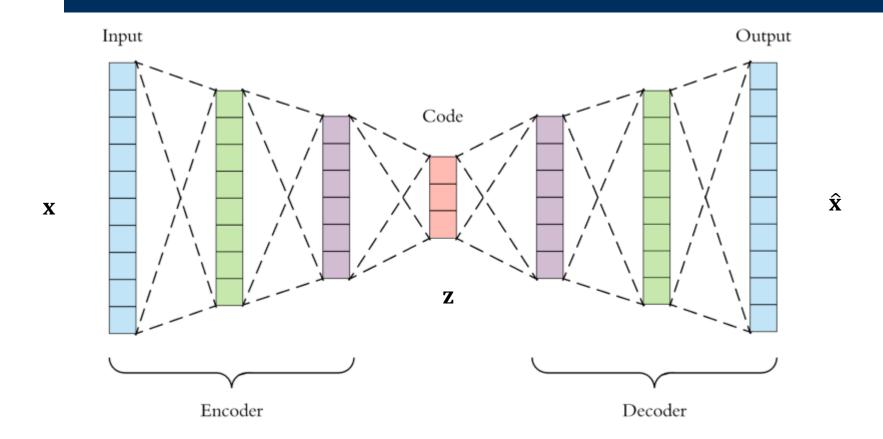
- 1. Add activation
- 2. Remove the condition  $\mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$
- 3. Increase the number of layers



$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{z}\mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{U})\mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}}$$



#### **Autoencoders**



Objective: min  $||x - \hat{x}||^2$ 



#### **Summary (Representation Learning)**

- Representation learning can improve the model's performance in three learning frameworks – supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and reinforcement learning (not covered in this unit)
- Advantages include:
  - Improved performance of model using representation learning.
  - Interpretability gets improved when we are using featured representation which is a prime business constraint for any ML task
  - Automatic feature learning can be done through neural networks which eliminates the need of domain expert while solving a real world problem as model learns in an incremental manner. No human designed feature engineering is required
  - We can get better results using unlabelled data.





## **Manifold Learning\***

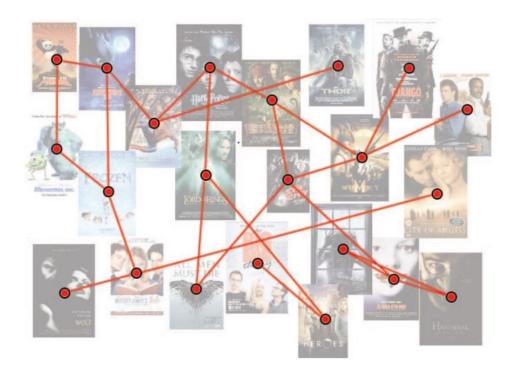
- PCA is a linear model. It is not good for data on a lower dimensional "manifold" space.
- ➤ For example, if the data cloud is around a sphere in 3D space, which is indeed of two freedom. How could we find its 2D representation
- This is particularly useful for reducing the dimensionality for data corrupted in a much higher dimension space.
- ➤ The way of nonlinearly inferring low dimensional representation for high dimensional data is called "manifold learning"
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nonlinear\_dimensionality\_reduction
- Among those state-of-the-art manifold learning method, t-SNE has been demonstrated most powerful
- You can use t-SNE to reduce dimensional of data (e.g., Bag-of-Words vectors) to lower dimensional, e.g., 2D or 3D, and visualize your data.
- See Lecture06\_Example06.py



- Clustering is a typical type of unsupervised learning techniques.
- k-Means is a representative clustering method in machine learning (covered by QBUS6810)
- Another widely used clustering method is the so-called Spectral Clustering which take the relation information among data into account.
- Spectral clustering has become increasingly popular due to its simple implementation and promising performance in many graphbased clustering



Step 1: The dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N\}$  is presented in the form of a similarity graph G = (V, E) where V is the node set defined by the data  $\mathcal{D}$  while E is the relation information between each pair of data  $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  https://towardsdatascience.com/spectral-clustering-for-beginners-d08b7d25b4d8

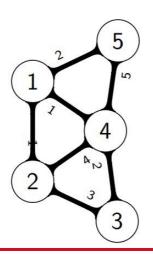




➤ Step 2: From the graph, we can form the so-called Laplacian matrix **L** from the adjacency matrix **A** and/or weight matrix **W** 

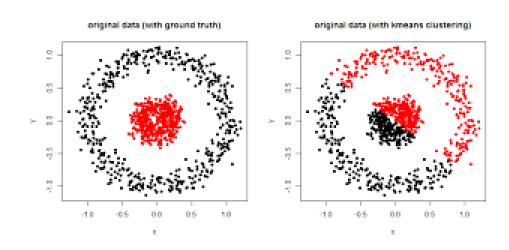
$$\begin{array}{ccc} \textbf{A} & \text{adjacency matrix} \\ \textbf{W} & \text{weight matrix} \\ \textbf{D} & \text{(diagonal) degree matrix} \\ \textbf{L} = \textbf{D} - \textbf{W} & \text{graph Laplacian matrix} \\ \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{L} = \left( \begin{array}{ccccc} 4 & -1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 8 & -3 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 5 & -2 & 0 \\ -1 & -4 & -2 & 12 & -5 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 & -5 & 7 \end{array} \right)$$





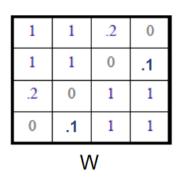
- Step 3: Construct the eigen-decomposition of L such that  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{U}^T$  where  $\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}_N$  and  $\Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N)$  where  $\lambda_i$  in increasing order, ie.  $0 = \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_N$ .[How different from PCA?]
- > Step 4: Choose the first r columns  $U_r$  from U, here  $U_r$  is  $N \times r$  matrix
- Step 5: Run k-Means on the data from all the rows of U<sub>r</sub>

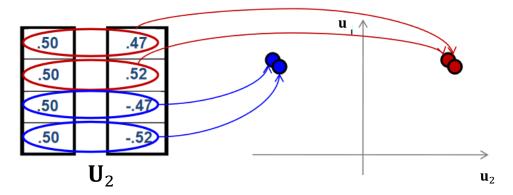




## **Example: Spectral Clustering\***

Embed data points into blocks using eigenvectors:





> Embedding is same regardless of data ordering:

