

Randomized Optimization, Unsupervised Learning, and Dimensionality Reduction

Writeup for Assignment 02 - CS 6741

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ABSTRACT

An empirical analysis of randomized optimization, clustering, and dimensionality reduction algorithms.

1. PART 1: RANDOMIZED OPTIMIZATION

In order to compare and contrast the given randomized optimization algorithms, a classification task was taken from the previous assignment and each algorithm was utilized to train a neural network to perform this task. Implementation of each algorithm as well as the code for running the neural network was taken from the ABAGAIL machine learning library (<https://github.com/pushkar/ABAGAIL>).

1.1 Neural Network Training

Classification Task.

The dataset used to test our neural network optimization task was the Adult dataset from the UCI repository. This was the second of the two classification datasets used in the supervised learning assignment. To recap, these are samples of personal socioeconomic attributes with a binary classification of gross net income over or below 50k/yr.

This dataset should prove interesting as an optimization task, since we have a fairly clear intuition of the relationship between the attributes and the classifications. From the previous assignment, we could see that attributes such as capital gain or loss had a strong linear relationship to the classification, as did education level. Intuition, or in this context domain knowledge, suggests that the fitness function for our neural network will have a smooth surface with predictable gradients. This is due to belief that having a slightly higher or lower education level would have a slightly higher or lower (mostly predictable) impact on one's net worth. In the case of our neural network, the actual fitness function is the sum of squared errors between the network's output and the actual instance binary values.

The optimization task was run against a training set of 1,000 instances from the adult dataset and final classification error was then measured with a separate testing set of another 1,000 instances. 19 attributes were used from the set and nominal attributes were first converted into separate binary attributes.

Optimization Parameters.

Randomized hill climbing, simulated annealing, a genetic algorithm, and gradient decent were all utilized to train the weights for our neural network. The network consisted of 19

input nodes, 5 hidden nodes, and 1 output node. Each algorithm was given 1,000 training iterations to find an optimum set of weights. Simulated annealing was set with an initial temperature of 1×10^{11} and a cooling exponent of 0.95. The genetic algorithm used a population of 200 with a set of 100 used for crossover and another 10 used for mutation.

Optimization Results.

Using three randomized optimization algorithms, our neural network was trained over 1000 iterations each. The classification accuracy of each of these trained networks is shown in Figure 1. As shown, randomized hill climbing outperformed the rest both in terms of training the network to correctly classify instances and in the time required to train the network. Simulated Annealing was negligibly faster, but the resulting network did not perform as well in the classification task.

Results for RHC:

Correctly classified 764.0 instances.
Incorrectly classified 236.0 instances.
Percent correctly classified: 76.400%
Training time: 3.709 seconds
Testing time: 0.004 seconds

Results for SA:

Correctly classified 733.0 instances.
Incorrectly classified 267.0 instances.
Percent correctly classified: 73.300%
Training time: 3.023 seconds
Testing time: 0.004 seconds

Results for GA:

Correctly classified 763.0 instances.
Incorrectly classified 237.0 instances.
Percent correctly classified: 76.300%
Training time: 72.068 seconds
Testing time: 0.004 seconds

Results for GD:

Correctly classified 725.0 instances.
Incorrectly classified 175.0 instances.
Percent correctly classified: 72.500%
Training time: 6.560 seconds
Testing time: 0.004 seconds

Figure 1: Randomized optimization training on ANN results

This result reinforces our intuition regarding the dataset. Randomized hill climbing is similar to gradient decent in that the algorithm makes small changes in a direction that improves the fitness function result. Since we believe the profile of the adult dataset to be smooth and behaves predictably given changes in the inputs, both gradient decent and randomized hill climbing should move quickly toward a local minimum. In this case, since simulated annealing and the genetic algorithm did not find a solution that performed better than these two, we make the claim that this local minimum is in fact the global minimum.

Training Performance.

It is interesting to note the performance of each algorithm throughout the set of training cycles. This gives a better picture of how each optimization process interacted with the fitness function. In the case of randomized hill climbing (Figure 2) the learning curve appears to smoothly converge toward lower classification error rates. This shows that the algorithm works well in this case in moving the fitness function step by step towards an optimum.

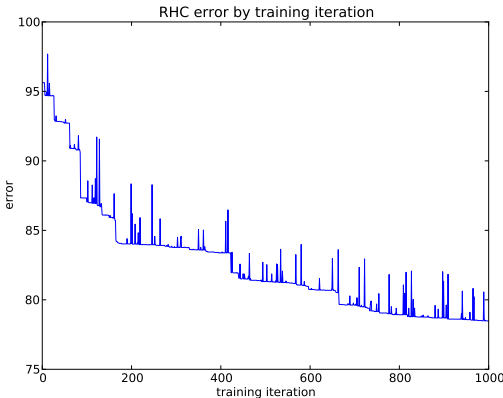


Figure 2: randomized hill climbing ANN classification error by training iterations

As the error rate does not seem to stabilize over the 1,000 iterations, an additional experiment was performed to see if it could continue to improve the weights if allowed to run for 10,000 iterations. The results are shown in Figure 3. You can see that the algorithm continues to find weights that result in a lower classification error on the training set. However, the resulting network resulted in almost the same classification error when run against the set aside testing set. This result illustrates the previous understanding of neural network performance and it's ability to overfit the training data.

Figure 4 shows the results of simulated annealing over the 1,000 training iterations. We see that, unlike randomized hill climbing, the error increases for more than a single iteration, and increases more towards the beginning of the process. When the algorithm first starts, temperature is still high enough to allow movement toward less optimal results. Around 300 iterations in we see a dramatic improvement in the error. As the temperature cools, the variation in error decreases and the algorithm converges toward local optimum. In this particular optimization problem, the result of

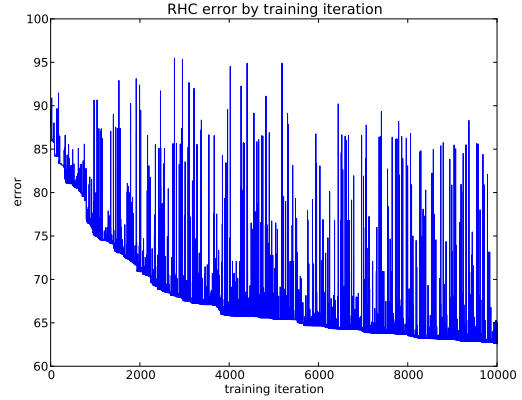


Figure 3: randomized hill climbing ANN classification error by training iterations

this movement in sub-optimal directions most likely caused a delay in reaching an optimal point. However, given a fitness function with a number of local optima, this behavior would have helped to discover remote valleys.



Figure 4: simulated annealing ANN classification error by training iterations

Our genetic algorithm converged very quickly toward an optimum set of weights. However, elapsed time was an order of magnitude greater than any of the other optimization algorithms. This is likely due to the computation involved in maintaining the population and performing crossover and mutation functions. This can be somewhat offset by the fact that the genetic algorithm reached a optimum set of weights in roughly half the number of iterations, but that still puts elapsed time near five times that of the others.

randomized hill climbing simulated annealing a genetic algorithm MIMIC

1.2 Fitness Functions

In order to examine the properties of each randomized optimization algorithm, a number of experiments were conducted on contrived fitness functions. Each of these functions accepts an arbitrary length bit string and returns a single positive value. In order to visualize the features of

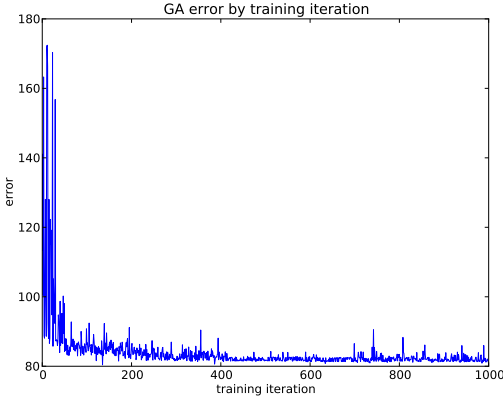


Figure 5: genetic algorithm ANN classification error by training iterations

these functions, they have each been plotted with the fitness score on the y axis and the input bit string encoded as an integer value on the x axis. Although this only presents a two dimensional projection of the function, it does provide some sense of behavior, including a view of local and global optima.

For each fitness function, a series of experiments were run against each optimization algorithm. First, each algorithm was allowed to train against a fixed input space size of 80 bits. The algorithms were allowed to perform a maximum of 10,000 function evaluations before being terminated. This experiment was repeated 10 times for each algorithm and plotted to allow us to visualize the behavior of each optimization algorithm on the given fitness function as they navigated the output terrain.

The second experiment was setup to evaluate how many fitness function evaluations each algorithm required to find one of the global optima. Each algorithm was allowed to run indefinitely, until it either became stuck at a local optimum or found one of the global optima. In the former case, the algorithm was reset and re-run. This experiment was repeated for differing input space sizes (bit string lengths). The results from this set of experiments was to see how well each algorithm performed at finding the function optimum. It also provided an understanding of how well each algorithm performed given differing input sizes.

1.2.1 Optimization Algorithm Parameters

Each algorithm was given the same set of parameters for each experiment.

Random hill climbing was setup to explore an input change of a single random bit and move in that direction if the fitness score improved. If an improved input was not found in a set number of evaluations (the number of input bits), the algorithm was restart with a new randomized input.

The temperature parameter for our simulated annealing algorithm was set at 1,000. This temperature was cooled by reducing it by 5% each iteration.

Our genetic algorithm maintained a population of 100. 50 of those were used to perform uniform bit crossover. The other 50 were mutated by swapping two random bits in their sequence.

The MIMIC algorithm was set to maintain a population

of 100.

1.2.2 Count Ones

The count ones fitness function is well understood and easy to explain. The function simply counts the number of 1s in the input bit string. Although this is an easy heuristic to follow when calculating the function return value, the function's behavior over the input space was interesting to visualize. Figure 6 shows the plot of the count ones function. As we see, there are many local optima and a single global optimum. The function has an upward trend with a stair step like behavior along the way.

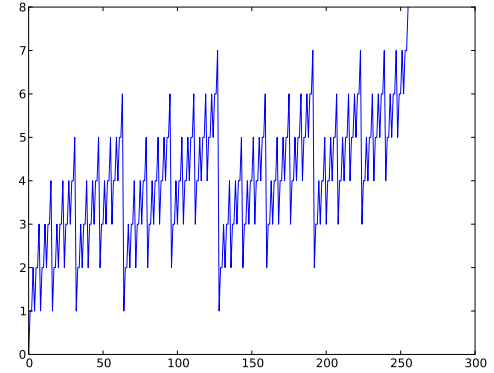


Figure 6: fitness function plot - count-ones

Figure 7 shows how our optimization algorithms performed against the count ones function with an 80 bit input. Random hill climbing appeared to discover peaks quickly. However, the global optimum was not reached in many cases until twice the number of evaluations as simulated annealing. RHC also suffered from its random restart behavior, which caused many function evaluations at much lower values of the function.

Simulated annealing was clearly the superior algorithm in this experiment. All 10 runs reached the global optimum within roughly 1,000 function evaluations, which represents $1/1 \times 10^{21}$ of the total input space. The genetic algorithm and MIMIC behaved well, making progress with each evaluation. However, they both required an order of magnitude greater evaluations to move toward the global optimum.

Given the relatively smooth trend of the function toward a global optimum, simulated annealing seems to have been able to explore the space well enough to move in that direction. As we will see later, finding a suitable temperature parameter is crucial for allowing the algorithm to move out of local optima. However, high temperatures keep the optimization task geared towards exploration longer than is necessary. In the case of this experiment, we happen to stumble on a good balance between exploration and exploitation.

Each algorithm performed reasonably well at finding the global optimum for the count ones function at various input sizes, with the exception of our genetic algorithm. Given the somewhat unstructured and independent nature of the input bits, this is not surprising. MIMIC seemed to do well in this regard, despite the lack of structure. We could understand this to be a fortunate side effect of the probabilistic sampling, which causes the algorithm to perform similar to

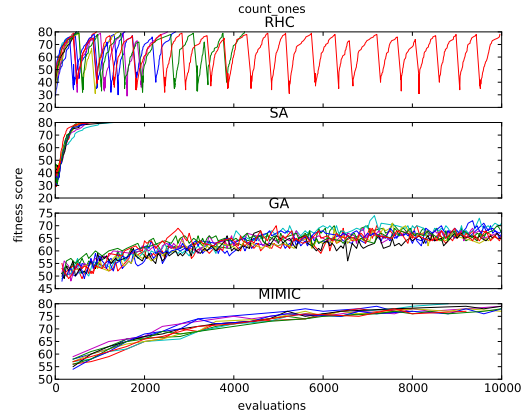


Figure 7: fitness score by iteration - count-ones

simulated annealing. Figure 8 shows this behavior.

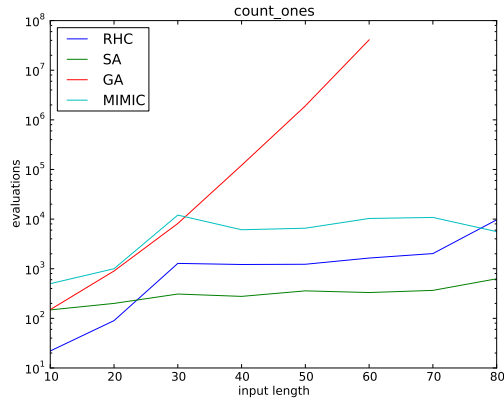


Figure 8: iterations to find max - count-ones

1.2.3 Four Peaks

The four peaks evaluation function is essentially a count of the leading 1s and trailing 0s in a bit string, with a bonus for having at least an arbitrary number of each. The plot of this function shows there are two global optima and a large number of local optima. There is also a point along the plot where values shift upwards. This is the point when the leading 1s reach the minimum number to get the bonus.

Our genetic algorithm was able to find reasonably high valued input strings with a small number of function evaluations (Figure 10). This makes sense given the structure of the input space and the fact that the algorithm would quickly evolve the population to include bit strings with better features (longer sets of leading 1s and trailing 0s). However, this algorithm did seem to struggle to find one of the two global optima.

This function also highlights the shortcomings of simulated annealing. Our plot shows that 7 out of 10 runs became permanently stuck in a local optimum. This is likely due to the sharp features of the landscape and insufficiently low temperature and overly rapid cooling rate. This caused the algorithm to get caught on a lower range of peaks.

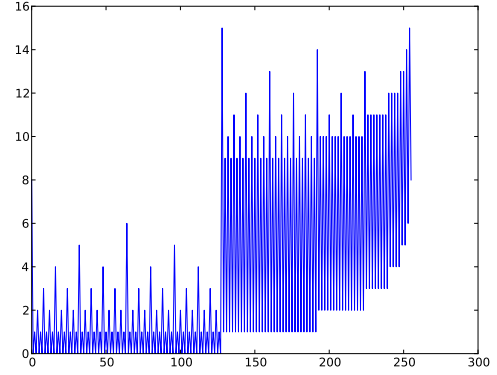


Figure 9: fitness function plot - four-peaks

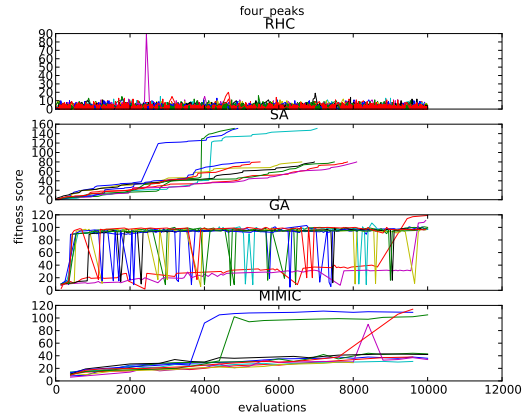


Figure 10: fitness score by iteration - four-peaks

Figure 11 shows that although our genetic algorithm was able to quickly find input strings with high values, it required many more iterations to find the global optimum for a given input size. Conversely, despite the impressive figures for simulated annealing, we noted in the previous experiment how that algorithm was too likely to get caught in a local optimum. It required many more iterations of this experiment to get simulated annealing to find the global optimum at all.

MIMIC seemed to behave well in this case. Although it did not locate optimal values as quickly as the other algorithms, it showed steadily improving results over time and did not have the same difficulty with local optima. Also, in terms of iterations to finding the global optimum, MIMIC performed significantly better than the genetic algorithm for higher input sizes.

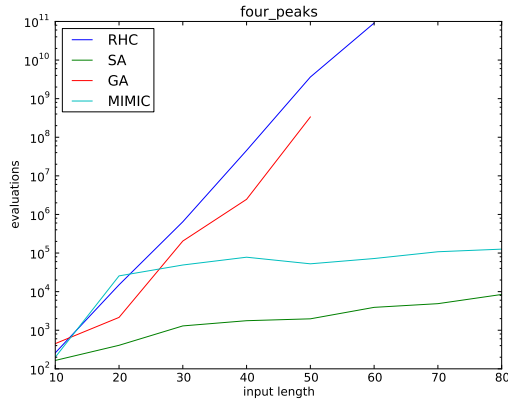


Figure 11: iterations to find max - four-peaks

1.2.4 Flip Flop

The flip flop fitness function is scored by adding one for each bit that has a different value than the next bit. There are two global optima for any given bit length and the function terrain is symmetrical over the input space, as we can see in Figure 12. This function combines features of both count ones and four peaks. It acts as a semi-structured function as each input bit has a relationship to the bit's on either side. However, there are two distinct optima with a completely opposite bit pattern.

Each of our three algorithms, not including random hill climbing, do well over time on this function. Simulated annealing is able to converge to high values of the function with significantly less evaluations than the other two. The genetic algorithm and MIMIC both move steadily toward higher values, but with many more evaluations. MIMIC is able to do so with more consistent improvement and less variance in score along the way.

Each algorithm was able to find the one of the optima within a closer number of evaluations than the previous fitness functions (Figure 14). However, simulated annealing still performed orders of magnitude better than both MIMIC and the genetic algorithm in this experiment.

2. PART 2: UNSUPERVISED LEARNING ALGORITHMS

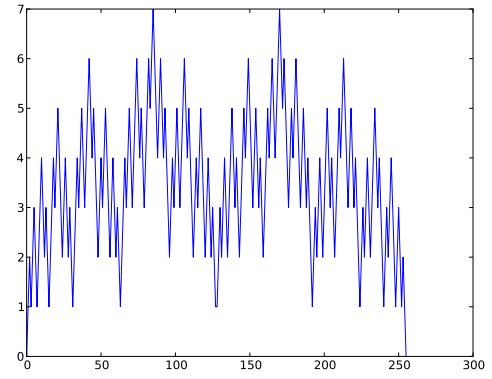


Figure 12: fitness function plot - flip-flop

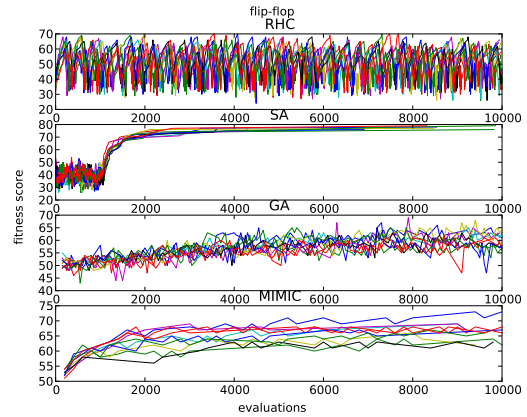


Figure 13: fitness score by iteration - flip-flop

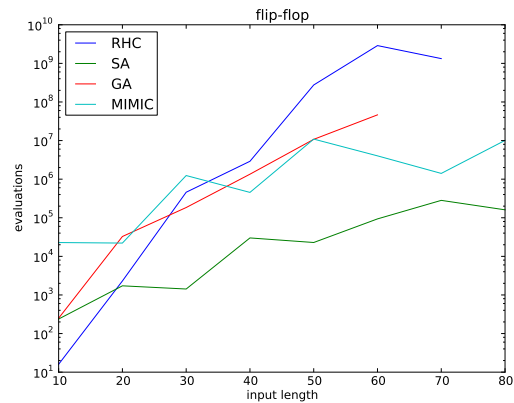


Figure 14: iterations to find max - flip-flop

2.1 Exploring Dataset 1: Adult

The first dataset we will explore is the same as from Part 1, the Adult dataset from UCI. To begin, we will first examine the distribution of instances by their class label. As we see in Figures 15 and 16, groupings by class seem to occur based on attributes such as workclass, capital-gain, hour-per-week, and education. However, these groupings are not completely obvious and there are many non-conforming samples. As we will see with the results from our clustering task, the two class labels do not segment the data as well it could be done.

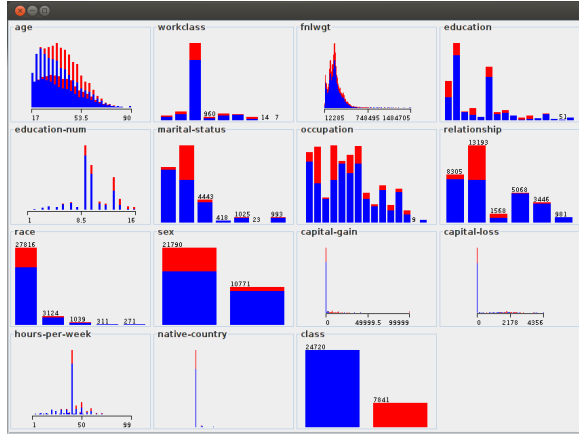


Figure 15: dataset attributes - adult

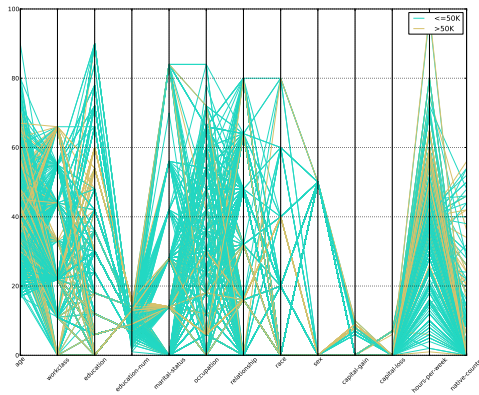


Figure 16: dataset parallel plot - adult

2.1.1 Clustering

In order to determine the optimal value for K, we can iterate through increasing values and compare a metric that gives an idea of how well our data is segmented into each cluster. In this first case, the expectation maximization algorithm was run with increasing values of K, and the resulting log likelihood value was compared. This is a default option in the Weka implementation of the algorithm. Larger and smaller values of K were run to validate the result through visual inspection of the resulting cluster features. For the Adult dataset, a cluster size of three resulted in the greatest log likelihood, and the clusters made sense when viewing the resulting cluster attributes.

From the results of k-means (Figure 17) and EM (Figure 17) clustering, three distinct profiles emerge from the data:

Cluster 1 - Young and poor.

- Young (34)
- Less educated (9.8)
- Single (Never-married, Divorced, Separated, Widowed)
- Works less hours (37.5)
- Low income (<50k)

Cluster 2 - Older and experienced.

- Older (43)
- More educated (12.5)
- Male
- High cap gain/loss (5000/475)
- Works more hours (44.8)
- High income (>50k)

Cluster 3 - Older blue collar.

- Older (43)
- less educated (9.8)
- Currently Married
- Male
- Works medium hours (43)
- Low income (<50k)

Running k-means

Within cluster sum of squared errors: 94691.74506148841
Missing values globally replaced with mean/mode

Cluster centroids:

Attribute	Full Data (32561)	Cluster# 0 (7243)	1 (14601)	2 (10717)
age	38.5816	43.6339	32.9471	42.8437
workclass	Private	Private	Private	Private
fnlwgt	189778.3665	187061.4272	192070.6165	188491.5931
education	HS-grad	Bachelors	HS-grad	HS-grad
education-num	10.0807	12.6281	9.8104	8.7273
marital-status	Married	Married	Never-married	Married
occupation	Prof-specialty	Prof-specialty	Adm-clerical	Craft-repair
relationship	Husband	Husband	Not-in-family	Husband
race	White	White	White	White
sex	Male	Male	Female	Male
capital-gain	1077.6488	3607.9214	269.1136	469.1444
capital-loss	87.3038	179.5659	50.7723	74.7204
hours-per-week	40.4375	45.0614	36.5254	42.6422
native-country	United-States	United-States	United-States	United-States
class	<=50K	>50K	<=50K	<=50K

Figure 17: k-means clustering results

Visualizing the samples based on their cluster assignments shows a somewhat clearer distinction than their class assignment plots. Figures 19 and 20 show these distributions. Figure 20 provides a better picture of the groupings. We can see in this visualization how younger individuals cluster in their marital-status, relationship, capital gains, hours-per-week, and income class. Likewise, we see the profile pattern for the older, experienced, group (yellow). These individuals share

EM
==

Number of clusters selected by cross validation: 3

Attribute	Cluster 0 (0.53)	1 (0.18)	2 (0.28)
=====			
age			
mean	34.4071	43.6058	43.2169
std. dev.	13.4275	11.5698	12.6479
education-num			
mean	9.8028	12.4534	9.07
std. dev.	2.3915	2.2579	2.1192
relationship			
Not-in-family	7417.5347	732.4946	157.9707
Husband	6.5078	4459.228	8730.2642
Wife	1044.7802	372.591	153.6288
Own-child	4842.923	166.438	61.639
Unmarried	3189.2812	193.3051	66.4137
Other-relative	899.9176	41.2378	42.8447
[total]	17400.9445	5965.2944	9212.7611
sex			
Male	7798.0266	5069.9658	8925.0076
Female	9598.9179	891.3286	283.7535
[total]	17396.9445	5961.2944	9208.7611
capital-gain			
mean	4.065	5506.3843	239.438
std. dev.	60.7467	16515.2342	873.4603
capital-loss			
mean	0	475.4836	0.9942
std. dev.	402.9602	837.7166	25.1187
hours-per-week			
mean	37.5504	44.8544	43.0332
std. dev.	12.1264	11.7279	11.7133
class			
<=50K	16342.7922	1688.2196	6691.9882
>50K	1054.1523	4273.0749	2516.7729
[total]	17396.9445	5961.2944	9208.7611

Time taken to build model (full training data) : 395.06 seconds

=== Model and evaluation on training set ===

Clustered Instances

0 17815 (55%)
1 4160 (13%)
2 10586 (33%)

Log likelihood: -46.47694

Figure 18: subset of EM clustering results

the attributes of being older, having higher education levels, higher capital-gains, and more hours-per-week. It should be noted that although these grouping are clear enough to see upon examination, they do not stand out with complete distinctiveness. There is a significant amount of noise in the data, which many samples that do not conform the to complete set of common profile attributes.

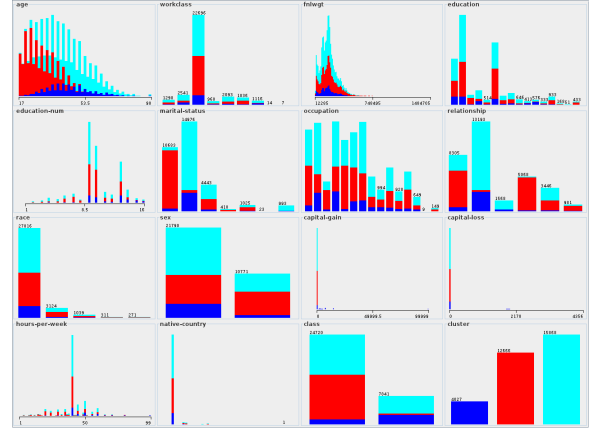


Figure 19: dataset attributes by cluster - adult

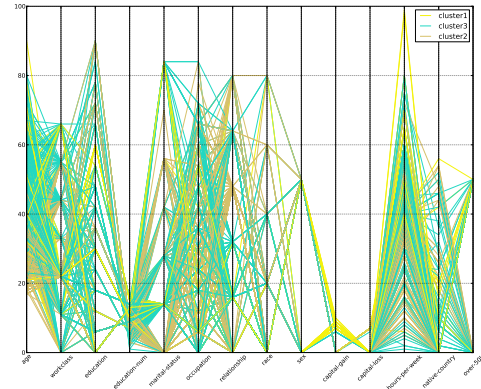


Figure 20: dataset parallel plot by cluster - adult

2.1.2 Clustering on Dimensionally Reduced Dataset

PCA.

Running PCA on the Adult dataset results in features with the characteristics shown in Figure 21. The first few principle components capture 11% of the dataset variance. The distribution of eigenvalues shows that the roughly the first five components distinguish themselves in regards to their contribution to the overall variance.

Clustering on the first five components from our resulting PCA features creates clusters with much clearer distinctions than with the original 14 attributes. Figure 22 shows the cluster assignments based on only the first component (spread out over the instance numbers). With just this single attribute, we can see a clearer segregation of our three clusters. Log likelihood from EM clustering came out to -

eigenvalue	proportion	cumulative
4.13178	0.03861	0.03861
2.89985	0.0271	0.06572
2.5952	0.02425	0.08997
2.42699	0.02268	0.11265
2.23305	0.02087	0.13352
1.90511	0.0178	0.15133
1.63445	0.01528	0.1666
1.5871	0.01483	0.18143
1.49286	0.01395	0.19539
1.42284	0.0133	0.20868
1.37072	0.01281	0.22149
1.31255	0.01227	0.23376
1.29281	0.01208	0.24584
1.2507	0.01169	0.25753
1.23304	0.01152	0.26906
1.21991	0.0114	0.28046
1.19888	0.0112	0.29166
1.17351	0.01097	0.30263
1.16087	0.01085	0.31348
1.14374	0.01069	0.32417
1.12887	0.01055	0.33472
1.12004	0.01047	0.34519
1.11544	0.01042	0.35561
1.09716	0.01025	0.36586
1.09448	0.01023	0.37609
1.08928	0.01018	0.38627
1.08335	0.01012	0.3964
1.07809	0.01008	0.40647
1.06987	0.01	0.41647

Figure 21: PCA eigenvalues - adult

9.15, which is significantly higher than -46.5 achieved with the original attributes. K-means clustering resulted in a similar plot, and a sum of squared errors within each cluster of 2,620.

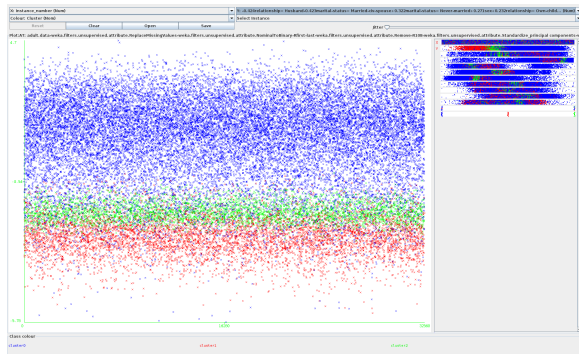


Figure 22: pca clusters on fist component - adult

ICA.

Running independent component analysis on the dataset required a decision regarding the number of independent features to output. Without foreknowledge, experimentation was necessary to find an appropriate number of components. This was accomplished by iterating up to the original number of features, running ICA with that number of target components, and comparing the resulting kurtosis to deter-

mine how well ICA was able to pull independent features from the mixed uniform distribution. The intuition begin that a set of features with a high absolute biased kurtosis (zeroed at normal distribution), would indicate significant, independent, contributing features.

The result of this experiments can be seen in Figure 23. From this data we can make an informed decision regarding how many components to output from ICA for use in our clustering task.

n	min/max	mean	var	skew	kurtosis
1	(6.217, 6.21775)	6.21775	0	0	-3
2	(35.31, 45.3218)	40.3204	50.0296	2.15814e-15	-2
3	(6.214, 154.845)	60.4781	6729.09	0.683477	-1.5
4	(0.2694, 155.271)	45.5331	5423.68	1.11028	-0.703042
5	(0.2143, 155.314)	37.0787	4428.31	1.45134	0.180383
6	(1.399, 155.273)	35.3957	3554.86	1.67272	0.985259
7	(0.222, 155.400)	30.6465	3132.59	1.90229	1.84921
8	(0.0771, 155.355)	26.9649	2793.2	2.11254	2.72931
9	(0.2083, 155.775)	24.3725	2519.2	2.31297	3.63809
10	(0.3312, 155.651)	22.0006	2291.2	2.49168	4.53032
11	(0.4255, 155.747)	20.3085	2095.81	2.66496	5.44675
12	(0.1315, 155.606)	19.2382	1914.82	2.8292	6.37344
13	(0.1338, 155.619)	20.6722	1781.69	2.78072	6.45888
14	(0.6387, 0.817448)	0.721304	0.00240131	0.167194	-0.364713

Figure 23: ICA kurtosis stats by number of features - adult

Reducing to three components resulted in kurtosis of [6.2, 154.8, 20.3]. This signifies three, non-normally distributed, independent features. Performing EM and k-means clustering on the ICA filtered dataset resulted in a tight clusters (EM log likelihood: 23.5, k-means SSE: 270.4). Visualization of these clusters is shown in Figure 24. These show much more distinct groupings than with the original data. The EM clustering task took 12 seconds with these features, which is nearly half the time it required to process the original 14 features.

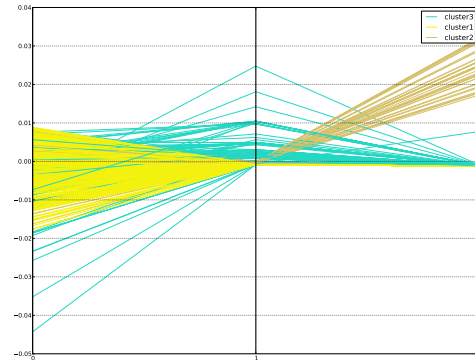


Figure 24: parallel plot ica cluster - adult

RP.

Creating random projections of the dataset onto five components resulted in mixed behavior. The distribution of values for resulting features had significantly random and differing profiles. Clustering results using those features varied both in cluster concentrations and distribution of instances into each distribution. Over five separate runs of random projection and EM clustering, we see log likelihood figures between 30 and 50. These concentrations range above and below those achieved using the original 14 attributes. Run

times for each experiment also varied significantly, ranging from 15 to 40 seconds. To compare, the same clustering task took 22 seconds on the original data.

The main issue with the random projection clustering results are with the distribution of instances across the identified clusters. Figure 25 shows distributions for each experiment run as well as from clustering on the original attributes. The distributions for remote projection runs show significant deviation, which indicates that EM and k-means clustering identified quite different cluster centroids for each projected dataset.

Cluster Distributions on Original Attributes

Clustered Instances

0	17815 (55%)
1	4160 (13%)
2	10586 (33%)

Cluster Distributions on Random Projections

Clustered Instances

0	7515 (23%)
1	20815 (64%)
2	4231 (13%)

Clustered Instances

0	8684 (27%)
1	16861 (52%)
2	7016 (22%)

Clustered Instances

0	2226 (7%)
1	2005 (6%)
2	28330 (87%)

Figure 25: random projection cluster distributions
- adult

2.2 Exploring Dataset 2: TODO

2.2.1 Clustering

2.2.2 Dimensionality Reduction

2.2.3 Clustering on Dimensionally Reduced Dataset

2.3 Neural Network Training

2.3.1 Training on Dimensionally Reduced Dataset

2.3.2 Training on Dimensionally Reduced Dataset Clusters

3. REFERENCES

- [1] K. Bache and M. Lichman UCI Machine Learning Repository 2013 <http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml>
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