

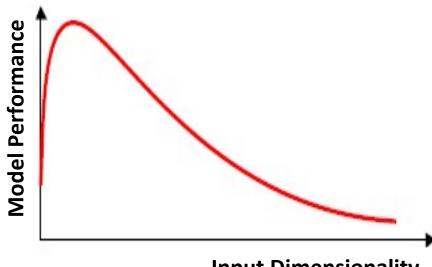
High-Dimensional Data Visualization, Feature Extraction & Selection

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- Phenomena that arises when analyzing data in high-dimensional spaces
 - # of Input variables
- As dimensionality increases, volume of space increases so fast that available data become sparse
- With a fixed number of training samples, predictive power of model reduces as dimensionality increases (even if variables have useful information)
 - Hughes phenomenon



Input Dimensionality

For a given sample size, there is a maximum number of features above which the model performance degrades!



Curse of Dimensionality ...

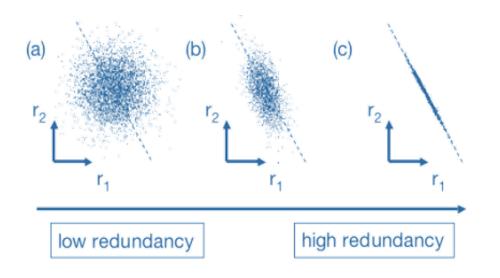
Example: k-Nearest Neighbor (kNN) Approach

- kNN breaks down in high-dimensional space
 - "Neighborhood" becomes very large
- Assume 5,000 points uniformly distributed in a "unit" hypercube and we want to apply 5-NN
- Suppose that the query point is at the origin:
 - In 1-dimension, we must go a distance of 5/5000=0.001 on average to capture 5 nearest neighbors (on a scale of "1" unit, these neighbors are close)
 - In 2-dimensions, we must go $\sqrt{0.001}$ distance in each dimension to get a square that contains 0.001 of the area
 - In d-dimensions, we must go $(0.001)^{1/d}$ distance in each dimension
 - In 10-dimensions, we must go 0.5012 distance! Are they close neighbors?



Feature Extraction

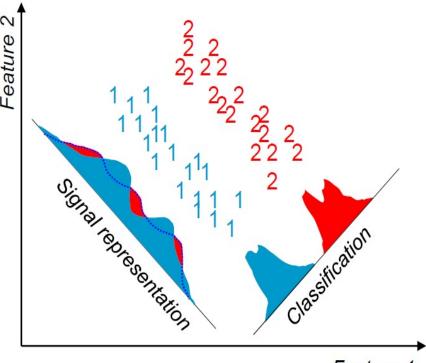
- To reduce dimensionality, need feature extraction/selection techniques
- Goal: Extract features that eliminate noise and remove redundancy
- Feature Engineering: Expert constructs application-specific features
 - Example: Cepstral features for speech recognition (link)
 - Difficult and time consuming
- If expert knowledge is not available, general dimensionality reduction techniques may help





Feature Extraction

- *Signal Representation*: Represent samples accurately in a lower-dimensional space
 - Unsupervised learning
 - Popular methods: Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Kernel PCA, Independent Component Analysis (ICA), Autoencoders (Neural Networks)
- *Classification*: Enhance class-discriminatory information in lower-dimensional space
 - Supervised learning
 - Example method: Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

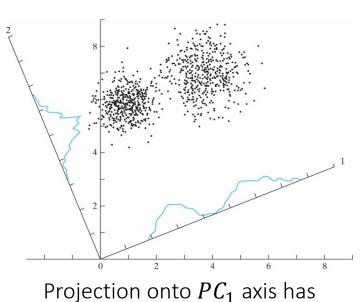


Feature 1



Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Statistical procedure that transforms a dataset of possibly correlated variables into a set of <u>linearly uncorrelated</u> variables called *principal components*
 - Principal components are NOT "independent"!
 - # of principal components is \leq number of variables
- First principal component has the largest possible variance
 - Each succeeding component has highest variance possible under the constraint that it is orthogonal to preceding components
- PCA is done by <u>eigenvalue decomposition</u> of data <u>covariance</u> matrix or <u>singular value decomposition</u> of data matrix
 - Usually after normalizing data matrix (e.g., N(0,1)) for each attribute



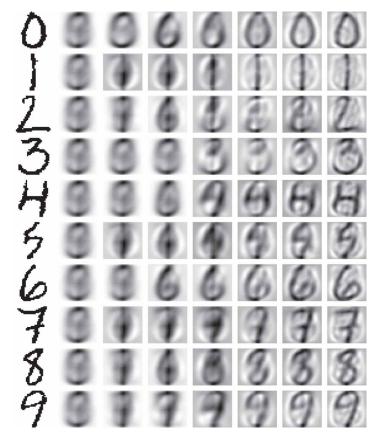
maximum variance.

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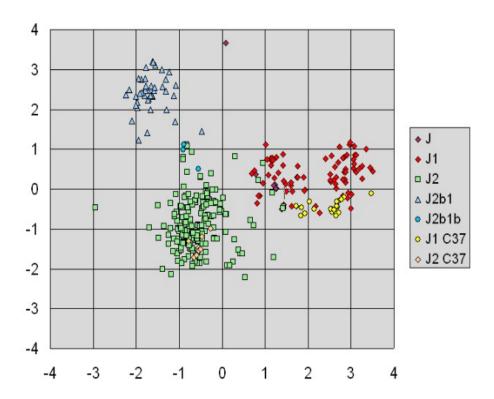
- PCs are difficult to explain (eigen vector combinations of original variables)
- Typically exhibit a Pareto structure (few PCs explain most of the dataset variance)
- Unlike variable selection methods, PCA does not eliminate or reduce the burden of maintaining/collecting all the original variables.



PCA Examples



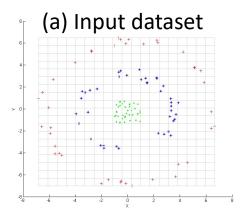
Digital compression of handwritten digits (32x32 = 1,024 pixels) using PCA (1,700 samples). First column is a sample original image and 2^{nd} column shows computed means across dataset. Remaining columns show reconstructed images with increasing number of PCs (1, 2, 5, 16, 32,and 64). (Source: Dr. Juha Karhunen through Haykin 2009). See example R code here.



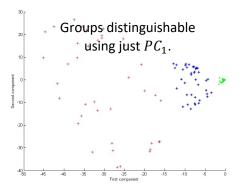
Scatterplot (1st two PCs) of Y-STR haplotypes from 37 Y-chromosomal STR markers from 354 individuals. PCA nicely separates clusters corresponding to genetic descent. (Wikipedia)

Kernel PCA: Non-linear Features

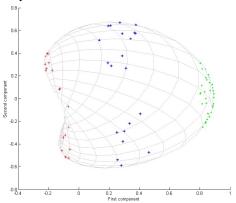
- Given that PCA only explores linear transformations, depending on application, it might be necessary to explore non-linear feature extraction methods.
- Kernel-PCA involves mapping original data into the high dimensional feature space with the hope that nonlinearities that are present in original input space might become linear in feature space.
 - If true, PCA can be carried out in feature space
- Using the kernel trick, we can avoid making calculations in the feature space.
- For Matlab, the <u>Kernel Methods Toolbox</u> from Matlab Central supports Kernel PCA and other kernel-based algorithms.



(b) Polynomial kernel of 2nd order with unit additive constant.



(c) Output with a Gaussian kernel.

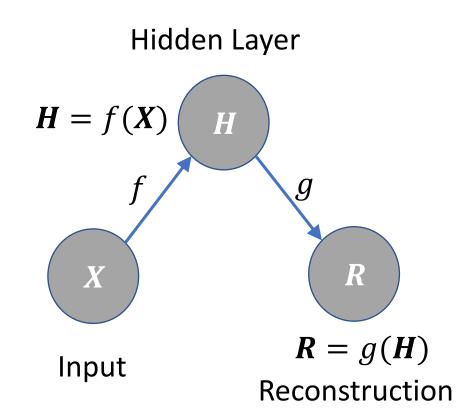


Feature Extraction:

Autoencoders for Dimensionality Reduction



- An autoencoder is a neural network trained to copy its input to its output
- Network has encoder and decoder functions
- Autoencoders should not copy perfectly
 - Restricted by design to copy only approximately
 - Doing so, it learns useful properties of data
- Output of hidden layer extracts features
- Modern autoencoders use stochastic mappings (variational autoencoders)





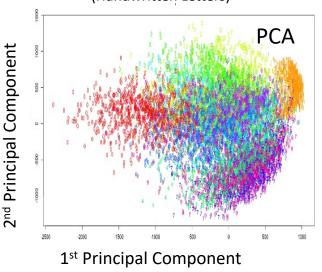
Mapping Data to Low Dimensions: Visualization

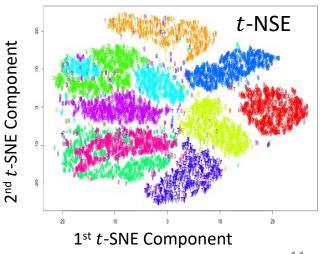
t-SNE¹: Popular unsupervised non-linear method for high-dimensional data

- PCA not that useful for high-dimensional data
- t-SNE creates compelling 2-D "maps" from data with hundreds or even thousands of dimensions
- Goal: Find a faithful representation for highdimensional data in 2D or 3D space
- Algorithm is non-linear and adapts to underlying data, performing different transformations on different regions
- A tunable parameter ("perplexity") balances attention between local and global aspects of data
- Original t-SNE only works with data it is given
 - It does *not* produce a model that you can then apply to "new" data; Cannot extract features!!!



Visualizing MNIST Dataset (Handwritten Letters)









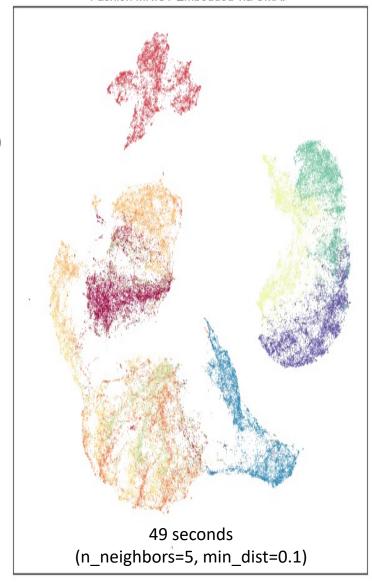
- Models' probability distribution of neighbors around each point
 - In the original high-dimensional space, modeled as a Gaussian distribution
 - In 2-D output space, this is modeled as a t-distribution
 - Fatter tails of t-distribution help to spread points more evenly in 2-D space
- Perplexity: Equivalent to number of nearest neighbors considered when matching the original and fitted distributions for each point
 - Low perplexity: We care about local scale and focus on closest other points
 - High perplexity takes more of a "big picture" approach
- Because distributions are distance based, all data must be numeric
 - · Convert categorical to numeric variables by encoding or a similar method
- Normalize data to ensure each variable is on same scale
- Great Playground: LINK
- Post with Examples & Code: LINK
- Implementations in R & Python: LINK



Mapping Data to Low Dimensions: Visualization

Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP): Dimension reduction technique for visualization, but also for general non-linear dimension reduction.

- **UMAP** is fast. Handles large datasets and high dimensional data without much difficulty (even with > million dimensions)
- UMAP can be used for dimensionality reduction. Can feed other ML models.
- UMAP often performs better than t-SNE
- UMAP supports a variety of distance functions, including non-metric distance functions (cosine & correlation).
- UMAP supports adding new points to existing embedding. E.g., can be used as a preprocesser in sklearn pipelines.
- UMAP supports supervised and semi-supervised dimension reduction. If you have label information (even if just partial labelling)—simply providing it as y parameter in fit method.
- It has theoretical foundations in manifold learning (paper).



Fashion MNIST Embedded via UMAP

VERSITY

Ankle boot

Sneaker

Sandal

Pullover

T-shirt/top

Source: UMAP I GitHu





How to use UMAP (Python)

UMAP package inherits from sklearn classes:

```
import umap
from sklearn.datasets import load_digits
digits = load_digits()
embedding = umap.UMAP().fit transform(digits.data)
```

- Several parameters can be set; major ones are:
 - **n_neighbors**: Determines # of neighboring points used in local approximations of manifold structure.
 - min_dist: Controls how tightly embedding is allowed compress points together.
 - metric: Metric used to measure distance. User defined function can also be passed as long.
- An example of making use of these options:

metric='correlation').fit_transform(digits.data) umap.plot.points(mapper, label=digits.target)

Installation (Python)

- UMAP depends upon scikit-learn, and thus scikitlearn's dependencies such as numpy and scipy. UMAP adds a requirement for numba for performance reasons.
- Requirements:

```
numpy
scipy
scikit-learn
numba
```

Recommended packages:

```
pynndescent
```

```
For plotting:
matplotlib
datashader
holoviews
```

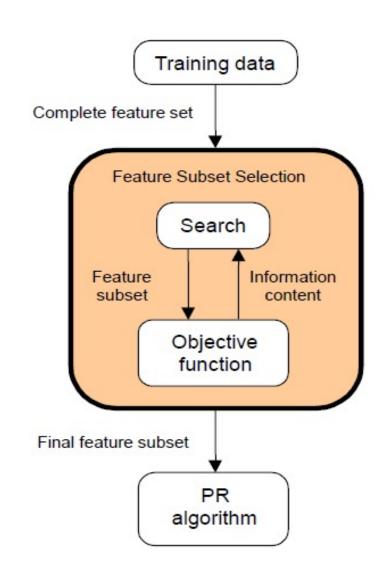
Installation:

```
pip install umap-learn
```



Feature Selection

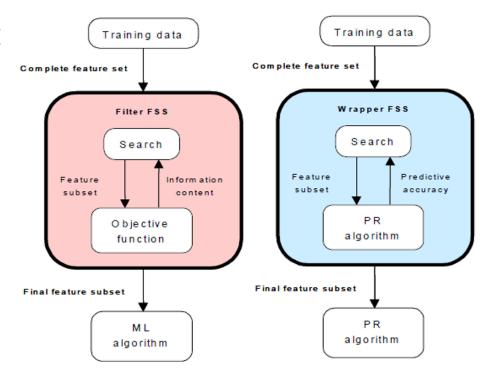
- Process of selecting a subset of relevant features (variables) for use in model
- Premise: Data contains features that are redundant or irrelevant
- Involves a combination of search technique and evaluation measure
- Total enumeration not practical
 - 10 out of 100 variables involves $>10^{13}$ subsets
- Choice of evaluation metric matters
 - Wrappers, Filters and Embedded Methods





Feature Selection: Filters, Wrappers, Embedded Methods

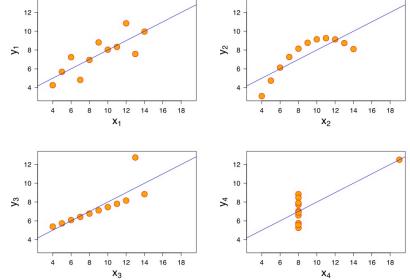
- *Wrappers*: Use a predictive model to score feature subsets
 - Computationally intensive, but provide best feature set for that particular type of model
- *Filters*: Use a proxy measure instead of error rate to score a feature subset
 - Measure is chosen to be fast to compute, while still capturing usefulness
 - Examples: Mutual Information, Correlations
- *Embedded Methods*: Perform feature selection as part of model construction
 - Lasso, Stepwise Regression, Decision Trees



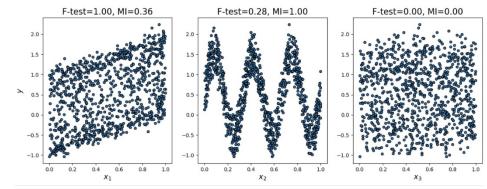
Filters: Few Examples & Python Code

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- *F-Test*: Hypothesis test to compare **regression** models: $Y=\beta_0+\epsilon$ and $Y=\beta_0+\beta_1X+\epsilon$, where X is feature of interest.
 - Errors from both models are compared for significant difference
 - Only captures linear relationship
 - Equivalent to working with statistical correlation
 - Python: Scikit learn package <u>sklearn.feature selection.f regression</u> <u>sklearn.feature selection.f classif</u>
- <u>Chi-Square Test</u>: Used for categorical features and classification
 - Sensitive to small frequencies
 - Python: Scikit learn package sklearn.feature selection.chi2(X, y)
- **Mutual Information**: Determines how similar the joint distribution p(X,Y) is to the products of factored marginal distribution p(X)p(Y); If two variables are independent, their MI is zero. $0 \le MI \le 1$
 - Unlike correlation, mutual information contains information about all dependence—linear and nonlinear.
 - Handles both continuous and discrete values easily
 - Python: Scikit learn package | <u>Example</u>
 <u>sklearn.feature selection.mututal info regression</u>
 sklearn.feature selection.mututal info classif



Anscombe's quartet. All four sets are identical when examined using simple summary statistics. | Source



F-Test captures the linear relationship well. MI captures any kind of relationship between two variables. | Source

Python Code



High-Dimensional Data Visualization & Feature Selection: Python Case Study



Feature Selection & Visualization: Breast Cancer Dataset

Sources:

- Primary: Kaggle Blog
- Secondary: Scikit Learn Feature Selection

The goal here is to illustrate feature visualization and selection using several methods.

- Feature selection with correlation, univariate feature selection, recursive feature elimination, recursive feature elimination with cross validation and tree based feature selection methods are used with random forest classification.
- · Apart from these, principle component analysis are used to observe number of components.

Breast Cancer Wisconsin (Diagnostic) Dataset: Predict whether the cancer is benign or malignant!

Features are computed from a digitized image of a fine needle aspirate (FNA) of a breast mass. They describe characteristics of the cell nuclei present in the image. n the 3-dimensional space is that described in this paper: Bennett, K. P., & Mangasarian, O. L. (1992). Robust linear programming discrimination of two linearly inseparable sets. Optimization methods and software, 1(1), 23-34. | Link | Dataset: UCI Machine Learning Repository

Attribute Information:

- ID number.
- Diagnosis (M = malignant, B = benign),
- Ten real-valued features are computed for each cell nucleus: a) radius (mean of distances from center to points on the perimeter) b) texture (standard deviation of gray-scale values) c) perimeter d) area e) smoothness (local variation in radius lengths) f) compactness (perimeter^2 / area 1.0) g) concavity (severity of concave portions of the contour) h) concave points (number of concave portions of the contour) i) symmetry j) fractal dimension ("coastline approximation" 1.0).
- The mean, standard error and "worst" or largest (mean of the three largest values) of these features were computed for each image, resulting in 30 features. For instance, field 3 is Mean Radius, field 13 is Radius SE, field 23 is Worst Radius.

All feature values are recoded with four significant digits. Missing attribute values: none. Class distribution: 357 benign, 212 malignant.

If there is abundant data, *feature selection* might not be necessary for modeling.

Feature selection becomes more important with data sparsity. We of course always prefer compact models with fewer features and decent accuracy over complex models with slightly better performance (Occam's Razor)!

Canvas Course Website:

- Python Jupyter
 Notebook Code
- HTML Output
- Breast Cancer Dataset

The Breast Cancer Dataset is somewhat sparse with over 30 features and 569 observations.



References

- Jacqes Peeters (April 2020) A framework for feature engineering and machine learning pipelines | <u>Link</u>
 - Very good general outline on how to write effective code
- Emre Rençberoğlu (April 2019) Fundamental Techniques of Feature Engineering for Machine Learning | Link