

Dimensionality Reduction	
Representation Spaces	
 Usually several changes of representation (and con are needed. 	rresponding spaces)
 We concentrate here in the domain-independent part of the process 	
were no explicit apriori knowledge is used.	
 Usually, there is no change of domain and transforms are restricted to 	
subspaces or manifolds of the initial representation space.	
	
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Dimensionality reduction	
The process can be seen as decomposing the original r	aroblem
	Jobien
$\mathbb{R}^{\nu} \longrightarrow classifier \longrightarrow \Omega$	
into two different problems:	
dimensionality	
$\mathbb{R}^{D} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{unitensionality} & \mathbb{R}^{D} \\ \text{reduction} & \end{array} \qquad \qquad$	er 🖂 > Ω
in such a way that new learning problem (in a <i>d</i> -dimensional space) is significantly easier.	
This is usually related to the fact that $d < < D$	
This is usually related to the fact that $u < D$.	
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Motivation

There is a number of reasons to consider dimensionality reduction:

- Some of the attributes (dimensions) may contain no information or just noise.
- Large dimensionalities may lead to numerical instabilities when learning or estimating parameters.
- Too much dimensions obviously imply more computational cost and more hardware/space/transmission demands.
- Some of the measurements may imply an economic cost (medical diagnosis), which can be avoided if there is no significant impact of these in the learning/classification results.
- Obviously, there is a trade-off between the number of different measurements (dimensions) about a particular phenomenon and how particular learning methods make use of these to solve the classification problem.

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The peaking phenomenon

Theoretically, in the asymptotic case, the more dimensions the better (even if just noise is added).

On the other hand, taking into account that we are usually interested in inductive learning where there is a process that depends on a training set of a particular size.

Consequently, there is a value over which adding new measures (dimensions) progressively degrades the results of any learning process based on a fixed size training set.





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The Feature Selection Problem

In the most general case, the only optimal way of solvint the FS problem is though **exhaustive exploration**.

The search space can be of size $\begin{pmatrix} D \\ d \end{pmatrix}$ (subsets of size d) or 2^D (all subsets of \mathcal{U}).

For each subset, the criterion J must be computed. Apart from the search problem, the computation of J may lead to significantly different methods.

Monotonic criteria

A function $J: 2^{\mathcal{U}} \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **monotonic** if

$$\chi_i \subset \chi_j \Rightarrow J(\chi_i) \leq J(\chi_j), \quad \forall \chi_i, \chi_j \subseteq \mathcal{U}$$

Most probabilistic distances, entropy and dependence measures are monotonic.

Feature Selection

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Optimization

Once the criterion has been selected, the problem can be formulated in two different ways.

Minimize d subject to $J(\chi_d) > t$ (given t) Maximize $J(\chi_d)$ subject to d < d' or d = d') (given d')

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Some methods give as a result a sequence of subjects of all dimensionalities.





Optimal feature selection: bounding

As J is monotonic and all subsets along any of the branches of the trees are nested, one can stop exploring a subtree as soon as a value worse than the best subset so far.

This search can be improved if features are ordered at each node according to partial values of the criterion computed.



This is known as the branch and bound algorithm for feature selection.

Bad news: exponential worst case!!

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Feature Extraction

Principal Component Analysis

The goal is to find a linear transformation, $y = A^T x$, that gives optimally uncorrelated data. That is, $E[y_i y_j] = 0 \ \forall i \neq j$.

Equivalently, the correlation matrix, $R_x = E[xx^T]$ should be diagonal.

Two almost equivalent matrices also used in this context are the **covariance matrix**, $\Sigma_x = E[(x - \mu)(x - \mu)^T]$, and the **scatter matrix**, $S_x = \sum_k (x_k - \mu)(x_k - \mu)^T$.

The transform A is obtained by eigenanalysis of any of the above matrices.

$$A = (\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_D)$$
$$S_x \mathbf{u}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{u}_k$$
$$A^T S_x A = \Lambda$$

where Λ is a diagonal matrix with all eigenvalues, λ_k .

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 Feature Extraction

Principal Component Analysis

If less than D eigenvectors are used, we have a $D \times d$ matrix and the transformation cannot be exactly inverted.

 $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = A\mathbf{x}$ is the reconstruction of \mathbf{x} . It can be shown that the reconstruction error is given by

$$E[||\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}||^2] = \sum_{discarded} \lambda_k$$

This transform is usually applied with a target dimension d or a fixed percentage of variance preserved.

This is referred to also as Karhunen-Loeve, Hotelling, or Whitening.

Feature Extraction

The Fisher mapping

Let $S_W = \sum_{i=1}^{c} S_i$ be the within-class scatter matrix (S_i is the *i*-th class scatter matrix).

And let $S_B = \sum_{i}^{c} n_i (\mu_i - \mu) (\mu_i - \mu)^T$ the between-class scatter matrix $(S_T = S_W + S_B)$

The generalized Fisher criterion is

$$J(A) = \frac{|A^T S_B A|}{|A^T S_W A|}$$

which gives rise to a generalized eigenvalue problem $S_B \mathbf{w} = \lambda S_W \mathbf{w}$.

The solution is given by the eigenvectors of $S_W^{-1}S_B$ (if S_W is invertible) (c-1 at most).

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