

# Multivariate Analysis

## A Unified Perspective

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# Outline

- Introduction
  - Some Multivariate Methods
    - Fisher Linear Discriminant (FLD)
    - Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
    - Independent Component Analysis (ICA)
  - Self Organizing Map (SOM)
  - Random Grid Search (RGS)
  - Probability Density Estimation (PDE)
  - Artificial Neural Network (ANN)
  - Support Vector Machine (SVM)
- Comments
  - Summary

# Introduction – i

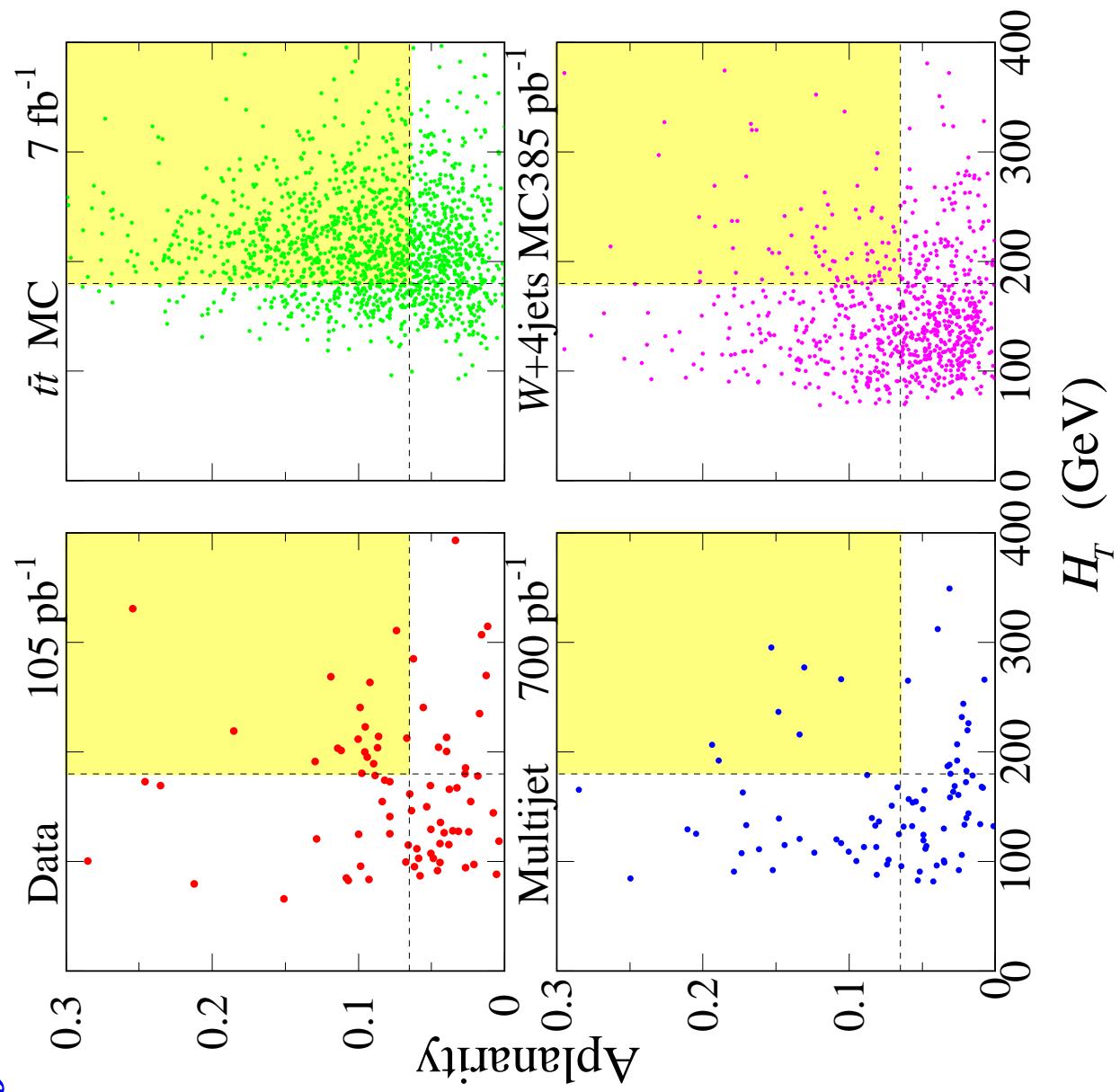
- Multivariate analysis is hard!
  - Our mathematical intuition based on analysis in one dimension often fails rather badly for spaces of very high dimension.
- One should distinguish the problem to be solved from the algorithm to solve it.
- Typically, the problems to be solved, when viewed with sufficient detachment, are relatively few in number whereas algorithms to solve them are invented every day.

# Introduction – ii

- So why bother with multivariate analysis?
- Because:
  - The variables we use to describe events are usually *statistically dependent*.
  - Therefore, the N-d density of the variables contains more information than is contained in the set of 1-d marginal densities  $f_i(x_i)$ .
  - This extra information may be useful

# $p\bar{p} \rightarrow t\bar{t} \rightarrow l + jets$

Dzero 1995  
Top  
Discovery

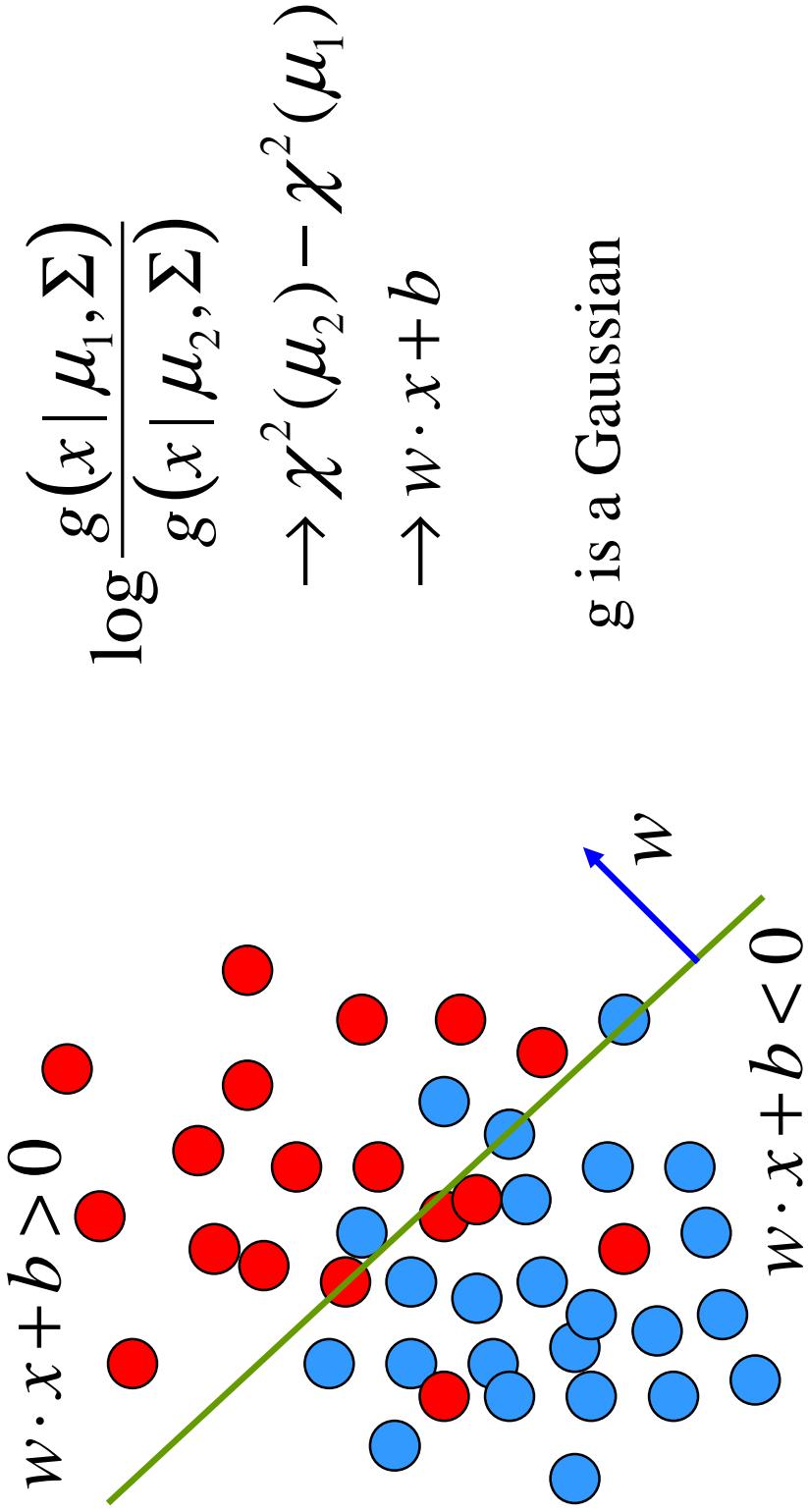


# Introduction - iii

- Problems that may benefit from multivariate analysis:
  - Signal to background discrimination
  - Variable selection (e.g., to give maximum signal/background discrimination)
  - Dimensionality reduction of the *feature space*
  - Finding *regions of interest* in the data
  - Simplifying optimization (by  $f: \Re^N \rightarrow U^1$ )
  - Model comparison
  - Measuring stuff (e.g.,  $\tan\beta$  in SUSY)

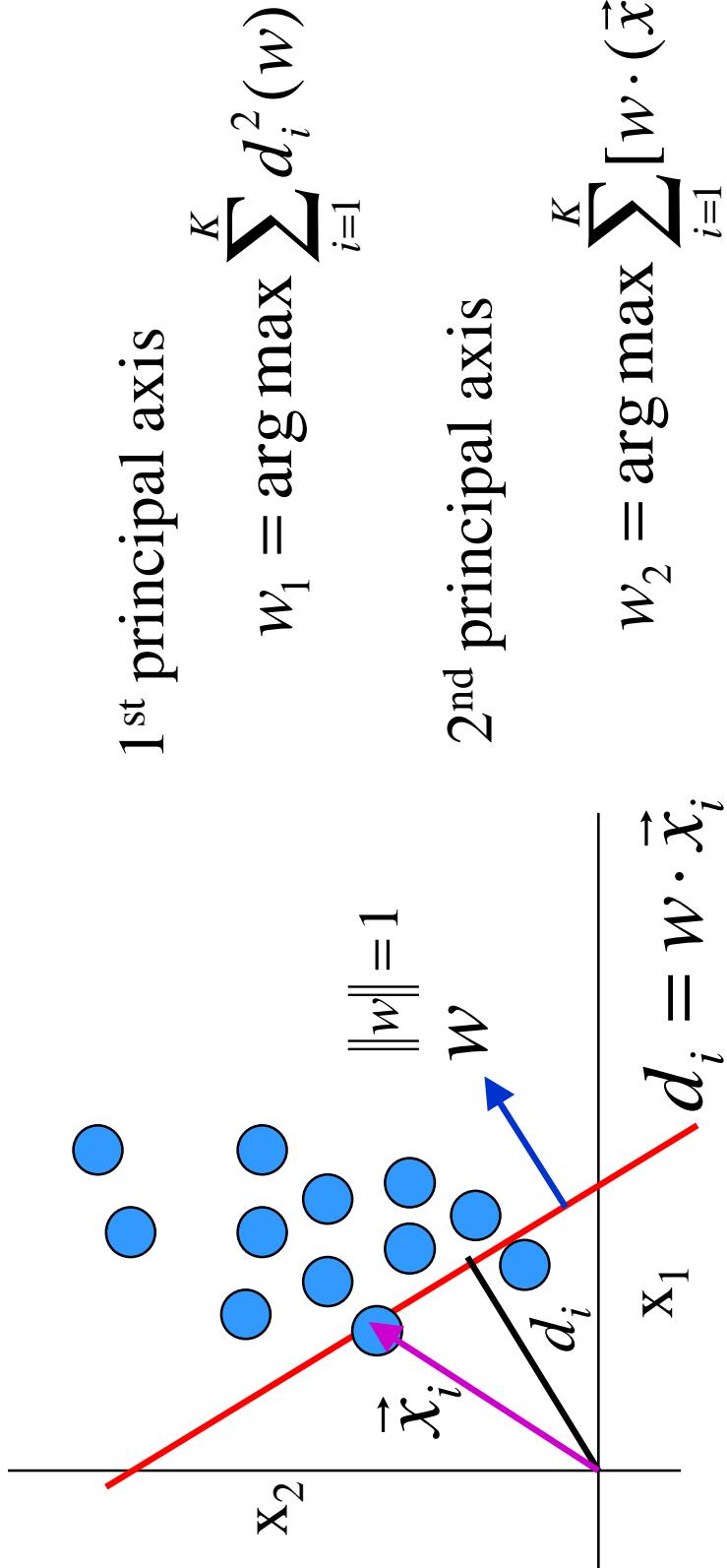
# Fisher Linear Discriminant

- Purpose
  - Signal/background discrimination



# Principal Component Analysis

- Purpose
  - Reduce dimensionality of data



# PCA algorithm in practice

- Transform from  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)^T$  to  $\mathbf{U} = (\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_N)^T$  in which lowest order correlations are absent.
- Compute  $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X})$
- Compute its eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  and eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_i$
- Construct matrix  $\mathbf{T} = \text{Col}(\mathbf{v}_i)^T$
- $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{X}$
- Typically, one eliminates  $\mathbf{u}_i$  with smallest amount of variation

# Independent Component Analysis

- Purpose
  - Find statistically independent variables.
  - Dimensionality reduction
- Basic Idea
  - Assume  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)^T$  is a linear sum  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{AS}$  of independent sources  $\mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_N)^T$ . Both  $\mathbf{A}$ , the *mixing matrix*, and  $\mathbf{S}$  are *unknown*.
  - Find a *de-mixing* matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  such that the components of  $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{TX}$  are *statistically independent*

# ICA-Algorithm

Given two densities  $f(U)$  and  $g(U)$  one measure of their “closeness” is the Kullback-Leibler divergence

$$K(f \mid g) \equiv \int f(U) \log \left( \frac{f(U)}{g(U)} \right) dU \geq 0$$

which is *zero* if, and only if,  $f(U) = g(U)$ .

We set

$$g(U) = \prod_i f_i(u_i)$$

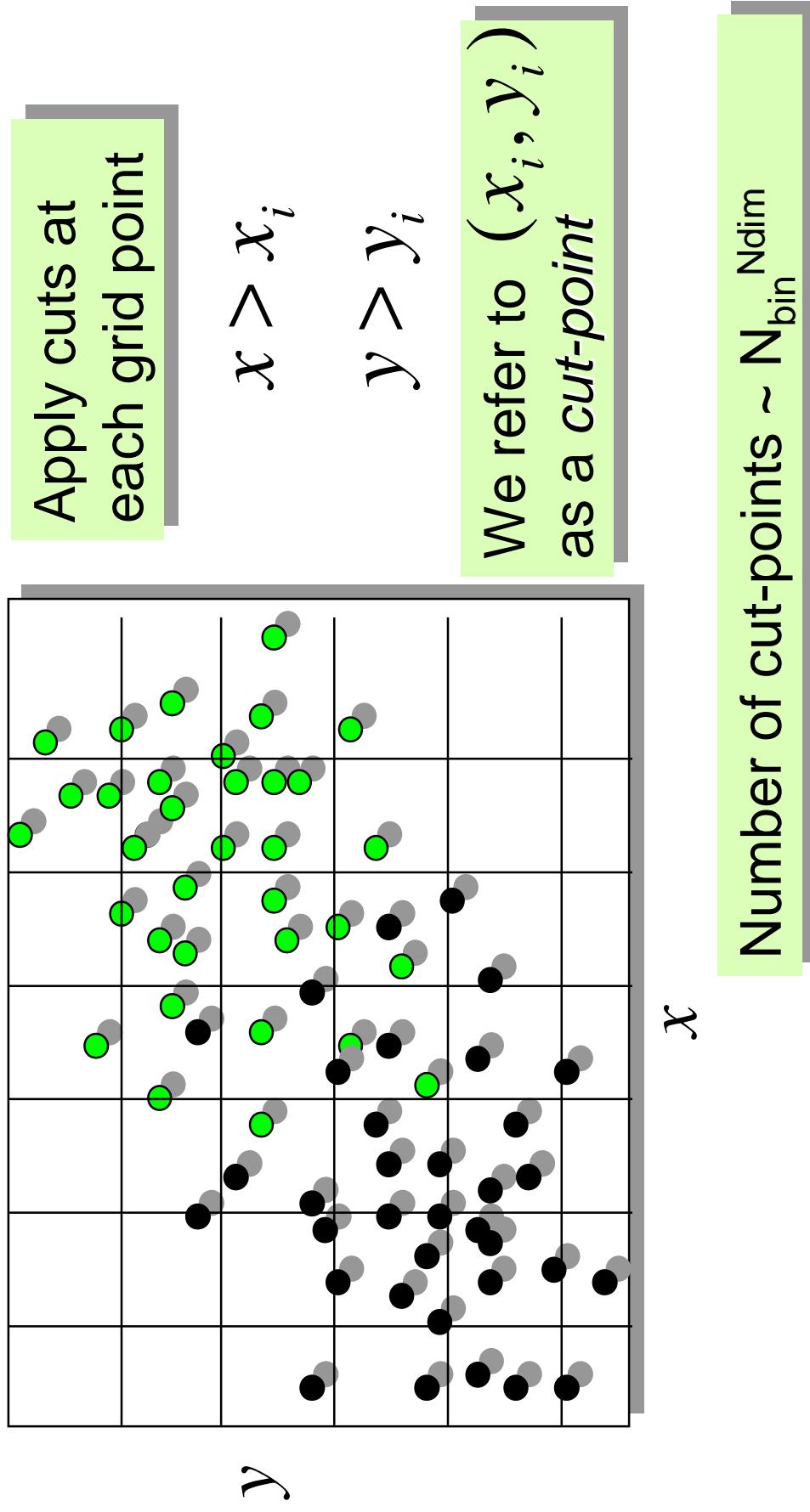
and minimize  $K(f \mid g)$  (now called the *mutual information*) with respect to the de-mixing matrix  $\mathbf{T}$ .

# Self Organizing Map

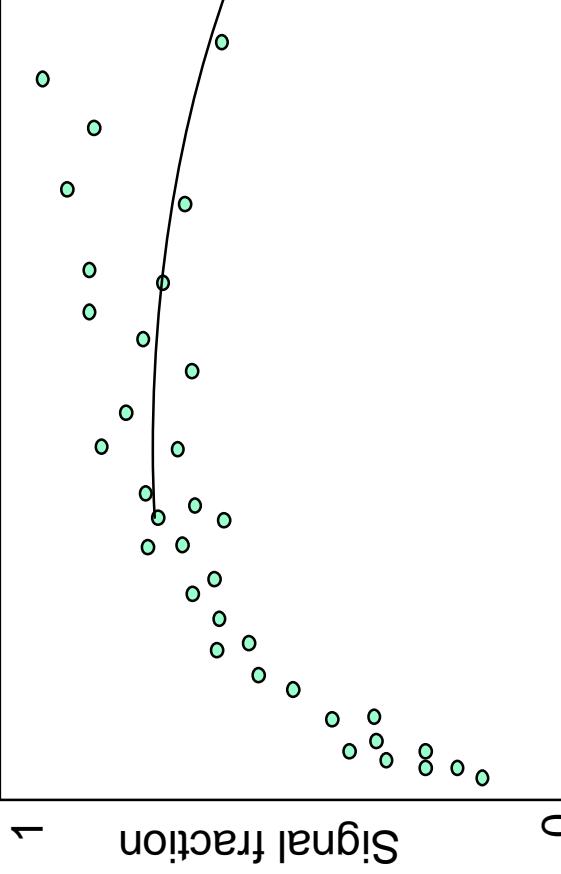
- Purpose
  - Find regions of interest in data; that is, clusters.
  - Summarize data
- Basic Idea (Kohonen, 1988)
  - Map each of  $\mathbf{K}$  feature vectors  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)^T$  into one of  $\mathbf{M}$  regions of interest defined by the vector  $\mathbf{w}_m$  so that all  $\mathbf{X}$  mapped to a given  $\mathbf{w}_m$  are closer to it than to all remaining  $\mathbf{w}_m$ .
  - Basically, perform a coarse-graining of the feature space.

# Grid Search

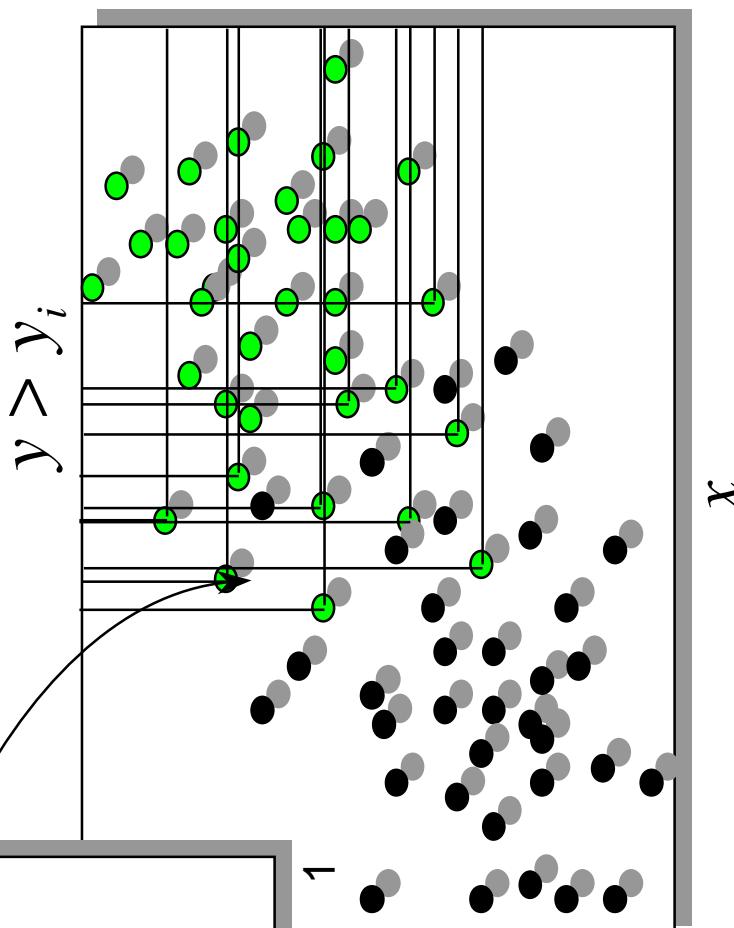
Purpose: Signal/Background discrimination



# Random Grid Search



Take each point of  
the signal class as  
a cut-point



$$\begin{aligned}N_{\text{tot}} &= \# \text{ events before cuts} \\N_{\text{cut}} &= \# \text{ events after cuts} \\ \text{Fraction} &= N_{\text{cut}} / N_{\text{tot}}\end{aligned}$$

H.B.P. et al, Proceedings, CHEP 1995

# Probability Density Estimation

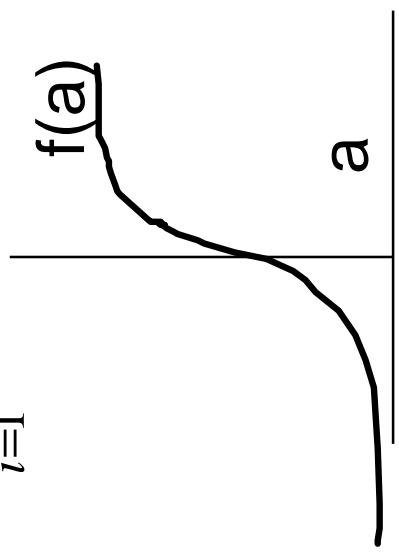
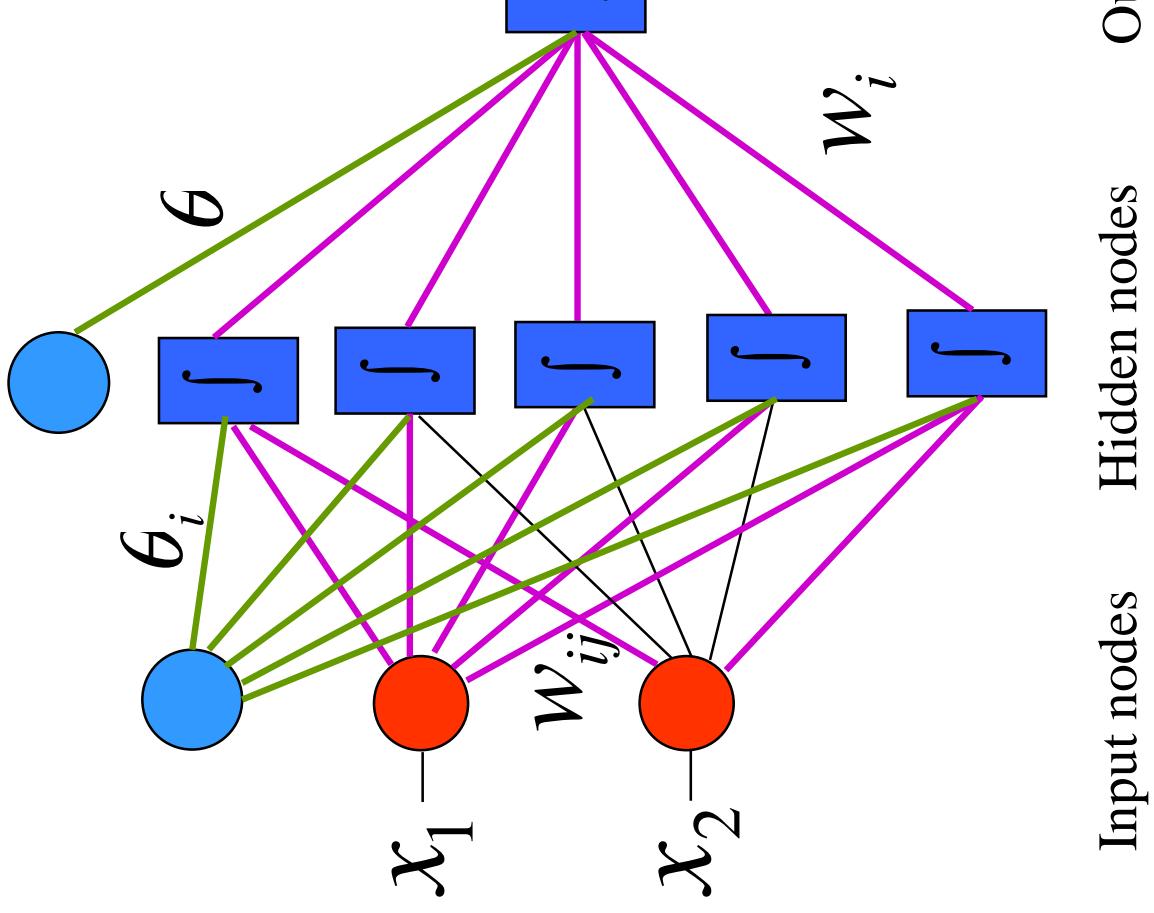
- Purpose
  - Signal/background discrimination
  - Parameter estimation
- Basic Idea
- Parzen Estimation (1960s)
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \frac{1}{h^d} \phi\left(\frac{x - x_n}{h}\right) \quad 1 \leq n \leq N$$
- Mixtures

$$p(x) = \sum_j \varphi(x \mid j) q(j) \quad j << N$$

# Artificial Neural Networks

- Purpose
  - Signal/background discrimination
  - Parameter estimation
  - Function estimation
  - Density estimation
- Basic Idea
  - Encode mapping (Kolmogorov, 1950s).
$$f : U^N \rightarrow U^M \quad f(x) = F[\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_K]$$
  - Using a set of 1-D functions.

# Feedforward Networks



Input nodes      Hidden nodes      Output node

# ANN- Algorithm

Minimize the *empirical risk function* with respect to  $\omega$

$$R(\omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i [t_i - n(x_i, \omega)]^2$$

Solution (for large N)

$$n(x, \omega) \rightarrow \int t(x) p(t \mid x) dt$$

If  $t(x) = k\delta[1-I(x)]$ , where  $I(x) = 1$  if  $x$  is of class  $k$ , 0 otherwise

$$n(x, \omega) \rightarrow p(k \mid x) = p(x \mid k) p(k) / \sum_k p(x \mid k) p(k)$$

D.W. Ruck *et al.*, IEEE Trans. Neural Networks 1(4), 296-298 (1990)  
E.A. Wan, IEEE Trans. Neural Networks 1(4), 303-305 (1990)

# Support Vector Machines

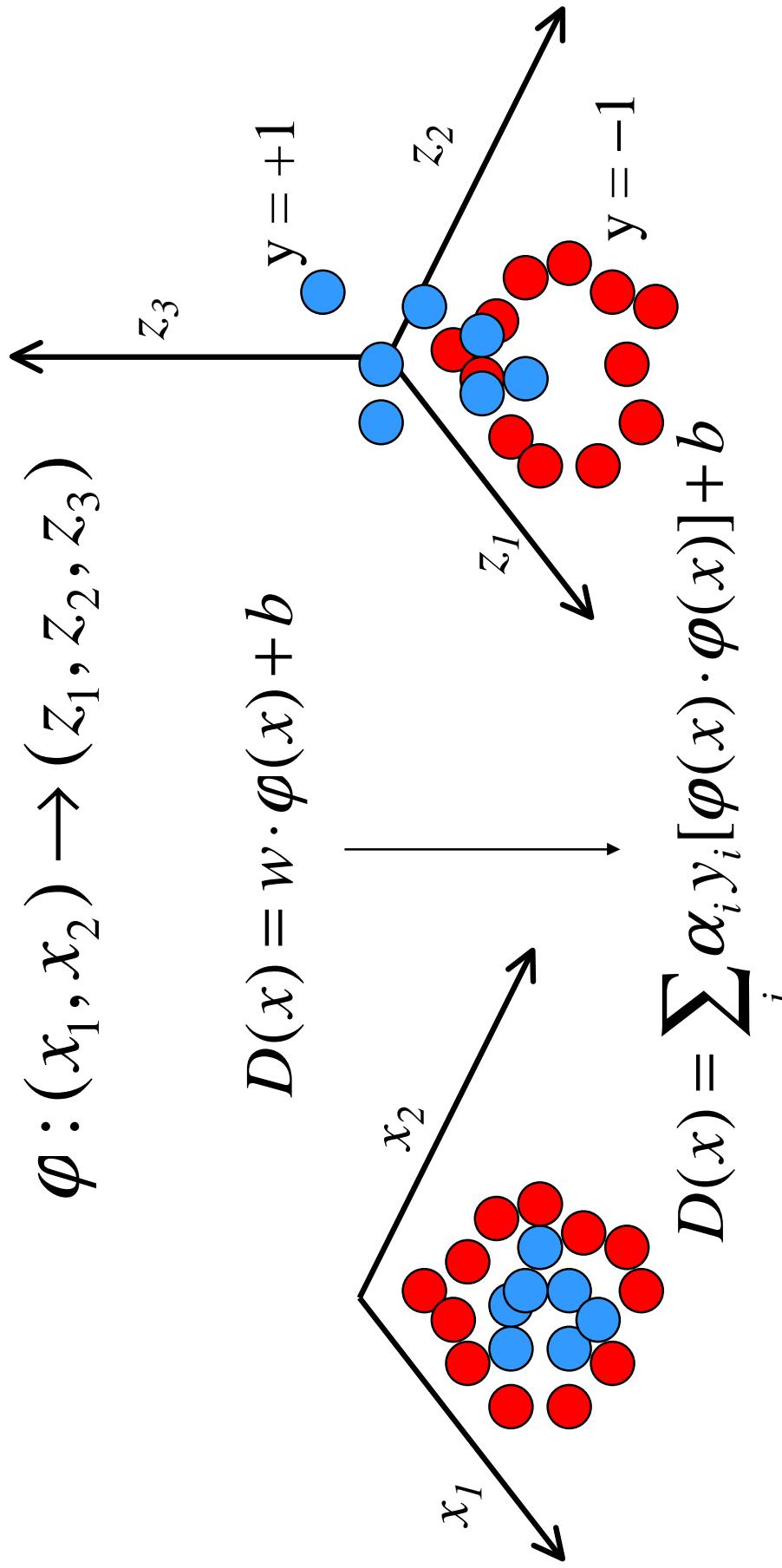
- Purpose
  - Signal/background discrimination
- Basic Idea
  - Data that are non-separable in N-dimensions have a higher chance of being separable if mapped into a space of higher dimension
- Use a linear discriminant to partition the high dimensional feature space.

$$\varphi: \Re^N \rightarrow \Re^{Huge}$$

$$D(x) = w \cdot \varphi(x) + b$$

# SVM – Kernel Trick

Or how to cope with a possibly infinite number of parameters!



Try different  $K(x, x_j) \equiv \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(x_j)$  because mapping unknown!

# Comments – i

- Every classification task tries to solves the *same* fundamental problem, which is:
  - After adequately pre-processing the data
    - ...find a *good*, and *practical*, approximation to the *Bayes decision rule*: Given  $\mathbf{X}$ , if  $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{S}|\mathbf{X}) > \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{X})$ , choose hypothesis  $\mathbf{S}$  otherwise choose  $\mathbf{B}$ .
  - If we knew the densities  $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{S})$  and  $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{B})$  and the priors  $p(\mathbf{S})$  and  $p(\mathbf{B})$  we could compute the *Bayes Discriminant Function* (BDF):
    - $D(\mathbf{X}) = P(\mathbf{S}|\mathbf{X})/P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{X})$

## Comments – ii

- The Fisher discriminant (FLD), random grid search (RGS), probability density estimation (PDE), neural network (ANN) and support vector machine (SVM) are simply different algorithms to approximate the Bayes discriminant function  $D(X)$ , or a function thereof.
- It follows, therefore, that if a method is already close to the Bayes limit, then *no* other method, however sophisticated, can be expected to yield dramatic improvements.

# Summary

- Multivariate analysis is hard, but useful if it is important to extract as much information from the data as possible.
- For classification problems, the common methods provide different approximations to the Bayes discriminant.
- There is considerably empirical evidence that, as yet, no uniformly most powerful method exists. Therefore, be wary of claims to the contrary!