Dimensionality Reduction Lecture 23

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Slides adapted from Carlos Guestrin and Luke Zettlemoyer

Dimensionality reduction

- Input data may have thousands or millions of dimensions!
 - e.g., text data has ???, images have ???
- **Dimensionality reduction**: represent data with fewer dimensions
 - easier learning fewer parameters
 - visualization show high dimensional data in 2D
 - discover "intrinsic dimensionality" of data
 - high dimensional data that is truly lower dimensional
 - noise reduction

Dimension reduction

- Assumption: data (approximately) lies on a lower dimensional space
- Examples:



Slide from Yi Zhang

Example (from Bishop)

 Suppose we have a dataset of digits ("3") perturbed in various ways:



- What operations did I perform? What is the data's intrinsic dimensionality?
- Here the underlying manifold is *nonlinear*

Lower dimensional projections

Obtain new feature vector by transforming the original features x₁ ... x_n

$$z_1 = w_0^{(1)} + \sum_i w_i^{(1)} x_i$$

In general will not be invertible – cannot go from z back to x

$$z_k = w_0^{(k)} + \sum_i w_i^{(k)} x_i$$

- New features are linear combinations of old ones
- Reduces dimension when k<n
- This is typically done in an unsupervised setting – just X, but no Y

Which projection is better?



From notes by Andrew Ng

Reminder: Vector Projections



- $-A.B = |A| \cos \theta$
- So, dot product is length of projection!

Using a new basis for the data

• Project a point into a (lower dimensional) space:

- select a basis set of unit (length 1) basis vectors (u₁,...,u_k)
 - we consider orthonormal basis:

 $-\mathbf{u}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{i} = 1$, and $\mathbf{u}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{i} = 0$ for $j \neq 1$

- select a center \overline{x} , defines offset of space
- best coordinates in lower dimensional space defined by dot-products: (z₁,...,z_k), z_iⁱ = (xⁱ-x̄)•u_i

$$\widehat{\mathbf{x}}^i = \overline{\mathbf{x}} + \sum_{j=1}^k z_j^i \mathbf{u}_j$$

Maximize variance of projection

Let $x^{(i)}$ be the ith data point minus the mean.

Choose unit-length u to maximize:

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x^{(i)^T} u)^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} u^T x^{(i)} x^{(i)^T} u$$

$$= u^T \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x^{(i)} x^{(i)^T} \right) u.$$
Covariance matrix \sum

Let ||u||=1 and maximize. Using the method of Lagrange multipliers, can show that the solution is given by the principal eigenvector of the covariance matrix! (shown on board)

Basic PCA algorithm

[Pearson 1901, Hotelling, 1933]

- Start from m by n data matrix **X**
- Recenter: subtract mean from each row of X $-X_{c} \leftarrow X - \overline{X}$
- **Compute covariance** matrix:

$$-\Sigma \leftarrow 1/m X_c^T X_c$$

- Find eigen vectors and values of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$
- Principal components: k eigen vectors with highest eigen values

PCA example

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^i = \bar{\mathbf{x}} + \sum_{j=1}^k z_j^i \mathbf{u}_j$$



Dimensionality reduction with PCA

In high-dimensional problem, data usually lies near a linear subspace, as noise introduces small variability

Only keep data projections onto principal components with large eigenvalues

Can ignore the components of lesser significance.



You might lose some information, but if the eigenvalues are small, you don't lose much Slide from Aarti Singh

Eigenfaces [Turk, Pentland '91]

• Input images: Principal components:





Eigenfaces reconstruction

 Each image corresponds to adding together (weighted versions of) the principal components:



Scaling up

- Covariance matrix can be really big!
 - $-\Sigma$ is n by n
 - 10000 features can be common!
 - finding eigenvectors is very slow...
- Use singular value decomposition (SVD)
 - Finds k eigenvectors
 - great implementations available, e.g., Matlab svd

SVD

- Write **X** = **Z S U**^T
 - -X ← data matrix, one row per datapoint
 - $-S \leftarrow singular value matrix, diagonal matrix with entries \sigma_i$
 - Relationship between singular values of X and eigenvalues of Σ given by $\lambda_{\rm i}$ = $\sigma_{\rm i}^{\ 2}/m$
 - Z ← weight matrix, one row per datapoint
 - **Z** times **S** gives coordinate of x_i in eigenspace
 - $-\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \leftarrow \text{singular vector matrix}$
 - In our setting, each row is eigenvector **u**_i

PCA using SVD algorithm

- Start from m by n data matrix **X**
- Recenter: subtract mean from each row of X $-X_{c} \leftarrow X - \overline{X}$
- Call SVD algorithm on X_c ask for k singular vectors
- Principal components: k singular vectors with highest singular values (rows of U^T)

– Coefficients: project each point onto the new vectors

Non-linear methods

• Linear

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Factor Analysis

Independent Component Analysis (ICA)

• Nonlinear

Laplacian Eigenmaps ISOMAP Local Linear Embedding (LLE)



Goal: use *geodesic* distance between points (with respect to manifold) Estimate manifold using graph. Distance between points given by distance of shortest path

Embed onto 2D plane so that Euclidean distance approximates graph distance







[Tenenbaum, Silva, Langford. Science 2000]

Table 1. The Isomap algorithm takes as input the distances $d_X(i,j)$ between all pairs *i*, *j* from N data points

Step		
1	Construct neighborhood graph	Define the graph G over all data points by connecting points i and j if [as measured by $d_x(i,j)$] they are closer than ϵ (ϵ -Isomap), or if i is one of the K nearest neighbors of j (K-Isomap). Set edge lengths equal to $d_x(i,j)$.



[Tenenbaum, Silva, Langford. Science 2000]



[Tenenbaum, Silva, Langford. Science 2000]



What you need to know

- Dimensionality reduction
 - why and when it's important
- Principal component analysis
 - minimizing reconstruction error
 - relationship to covariance matrix and eigenvectors
 - using SVD
- Non-linear dimensionality reduction