

# INT104 ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

## LECTURE 3- DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION

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2

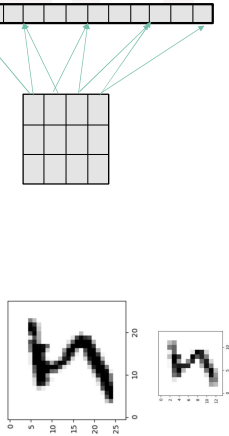
### CONTENT

- Why need Dimensionality Reduction
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)
- Other Dimensionality Reduction Techniques

### Dimensionality Reduction

Data with high dimensions:

- High computational complexity
- May contain many irrelevant or redundant features
- Difficulty in visualization
- With high risk of getting an overfitting model



3

### Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Preserving the Variance:

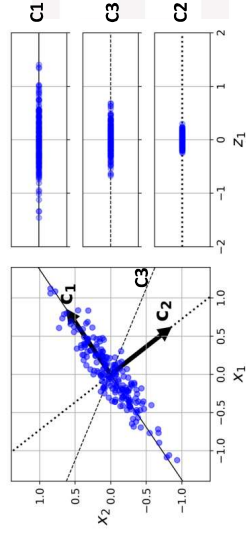


Figure 8-7. Selecting the subspace to project on

PCA identifies the axis that accounts for the largest amount of variance in the training set.

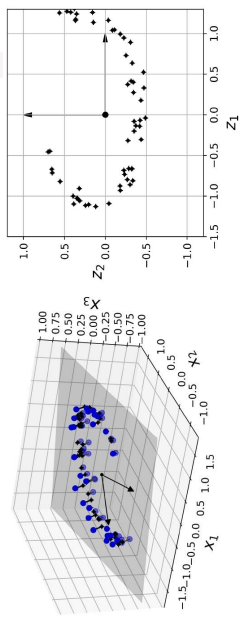


5

### Approaches for Dimensionality Reduction

Projection:

- Data is not spread out uniformly across all dimensions. (All the data lies within (or close to) a much lower-dimensional subspace of the high-dimensional space.



4

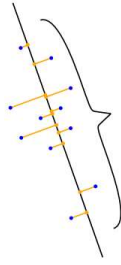
### Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

-Variance on C1

$$V_1 = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M (c_1^T x^{(i)})^2 = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M c_1^T x^{(i)} x^{(i)T} c_1 = c_1^T \left( \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M x^{(i)} x^{(i)T} \right) c_1$$

-Data covariance matrix

$$S = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M x^{(i)} x^{(i)T}$$



-S is an N\*N matrix, N is the number of features, M is the total number of data points.



6

## Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

-Constrained optimization problem

$$\max_{c_1} c_1^T S c_1$$

subject to  $\|c_1\|^2 = 1$

-Lagrange equation  $\mathcal{L}(c_1, \lambda_1) = c_1^T S c_1 + \lambda_1 (1 - c_1^T c_1)$

-Solve this constrained optimization problem

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial c_1} = 2S c_1 - 2\lambda_1 c_1 \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda_1} = 1 - c_1^T c_1$$

- Setting these partial derivatives to 0 gives us the relations:

$$S c_1 = \lambda_1 c_1 \quad \text{and} \quad c_1^T c_1 = 1$$

- Variance on C1

$$V_1 = c_1^T S c_1 = \lambda_1 c_1^T c_1 = \lambda_1$$



7

## Practice: PCA

Given a dataset that consists of the following points below:

$$A=(2, 3), B=(5, 5), C=(6, 6), D=(8,9)$$

1. Calculate the covariance matrix for the dataset.

2. Calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix.



8

## PCA

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

**Theorem:** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  be a rectangular matrix of rank  $r \in [0, \min(m, n)]$ . The SVD of A is a decomposition of the form

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

-  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is an orthogonal matrix with column vectors  $u_i, i = 1, \dots, m$ ,

-  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  an orthogonal matrix with column vectors  $v_j, j = 1, \dots, n$ .

-  $\Sigma$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix with  $\Sigma_{ii} = \sigma_i \geq 0$  and  $\Sigma_{ij} = 0, i \neq j$

- *The singular value matrix  $\Sigma$  is unique*



9

## PCA

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$A = [x_1 \dots x_n]_{m \times n} = U \Sigma V^T = [u_1 \dots u_m]_{m \times m} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_n \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} [v_1 \dots v_n]_{n \times n}^T$$

$V$  contains the unit vectors that define all the principal components that we are looking for.

```
X_centered = (X - X.mean(axis=0)) / X.std(axis=0)
U, s, Vt = np.linalg.svd(X_centered)
c1 = Vt.T[:, 0]
c2 = Vt.T[:, 1]
```



10

## Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Principal components matrix

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_n \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix}$$

$c_1, c_2 \dots c_n$  are orthogonal

**Projecting Down to d Dimension:**

$$X_{d-proj} = X V_d$$

$V_d$  is the first d eigen vectors of data covariance matrix

**Explained Variance Ratio**

$$\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n} \text{ (eigenvalue/ total eigenvalue)}$$

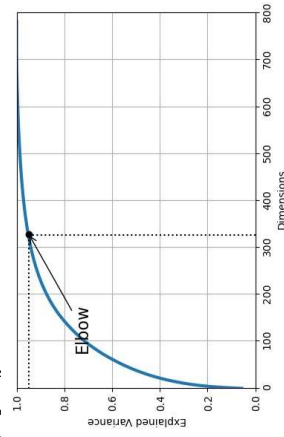


11

## PCA

Choosing the Right Number of Dimensions:

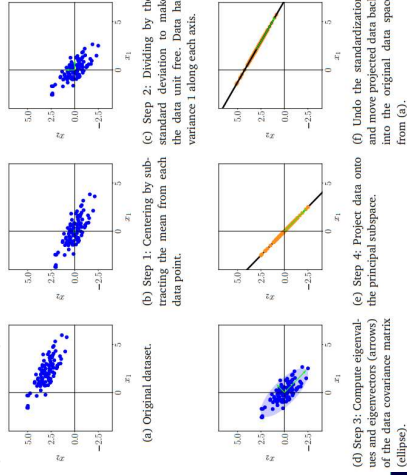
- Choose the number of dimensions that add up to sufficiently large portion of the variance (e.g., 95%)
- $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_d > 95\%$



12

## PCA

### Key steps of PCA in practice

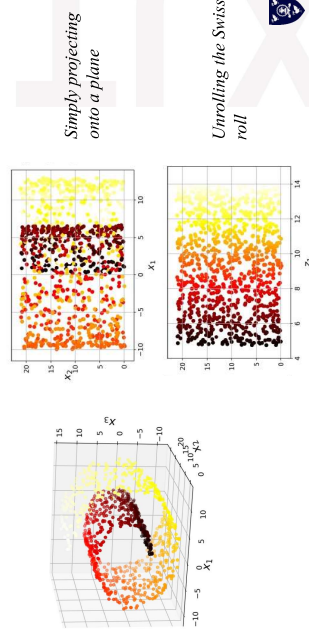


13

## Approaches for Dimensionality Reduction

### Manifold Learning

- Data lies on d-dimensional manifold is a part of an n-dimensional space (where  $d < n$ )



15

## Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)

```
from sklearn.manifold import LocallyLinearEmbedding
lle = LocallyLinearEmbedding(n_components=2, n_neighbors=10)
X_reduced = lle.fit_transform(X)
```

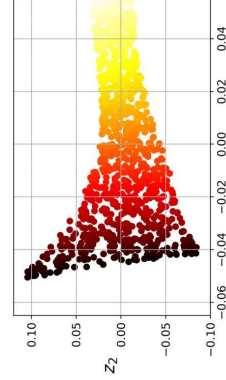


Figure 8-12: Unrolled Swiss roll using LLE.

17

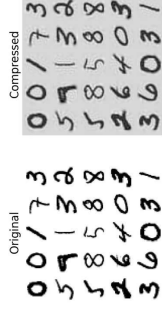
## PCA

### PCA for Compression

- Projecting Down to d Dimension
- PCA inverse transformation, back to the original number of dimensions

$$X_{d \rightarrow proj} = XV_d$$

$$X_{recovered} = X_{d \rightarrow proj} V_d^T$$



(Example MNIST data: 40% original size preserves 95% variance)

14

## Locally Linear Embedding (LLE)

LLE is a powerful *nonlinear dimensionality reduction* (NLDR) technique. It is a Manifold Learning technique that does not rely on projections

Step one: Linearly modeling local relationships

$$\hat{W} = \underset{W}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^m w_{ij} \mathbf{x}^{(j)} \right)^2$$

subject to  $\begin{cases} w_{ij} = 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}^{(j)} \text{ is not one of the } k \text{ c.n. of } \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \\ \sum_{j=1}^m w_{ij} = 1 & \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, m \end{cases}$

Step two: Reducing dimensionality while preserving relationships

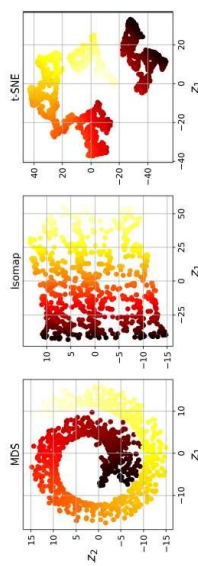
$$\hat{Z} = \underset{Z}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \mathbf{z}^{(i)} - \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{w}_{ij} \mathbf{z}^{(j)} \right)^2$$



16

## Other Techniques

- Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)  
Trying to preserve the distances between the instances.
- Isomap
- Trying to preserve the geodesic distances between the instances.
- t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE)  
Trying to keep similar instances close and dissimilar instances apart.



18