# CSE8803/CX4803 Machine Learning in Computational Biology

Lecture 8: Learning from high-dimensional data: MDS, tSNE, UMAP

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# Logistics

 Submit your bid for presentation dates by Feb. 7, 11:59pm https://forms.gle/YJYDxDRavjPNoQRc7

- Comments on Canvas assignment submissions
  - Are typically not noticeable
  - For post-submission comments please email instructors/TAs
  - Ed is the primary place to ask questions

# Dimensionality reduction methods

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

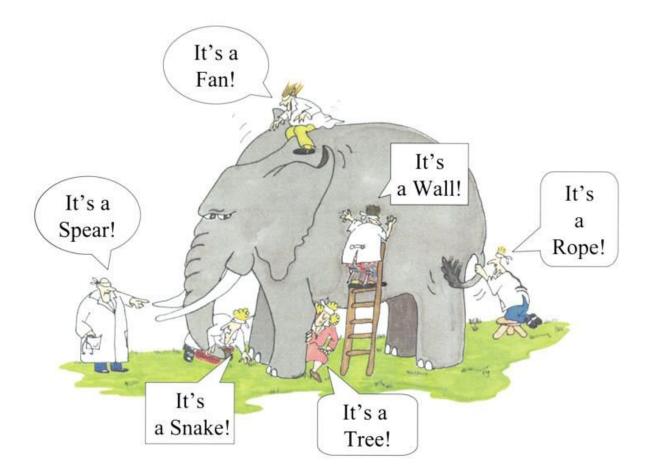
Autoencoder

Variational autoencoder (VAE)

Multidimensional scaling (MDS)

t-SNE (t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding)

UMAP (Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection)



Different
Objectives give us
different results

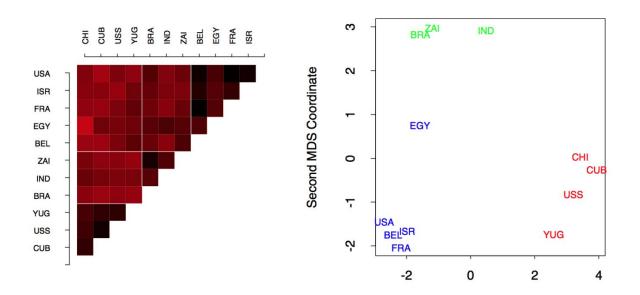
#### MDS

Represent high-dimensional point cloud in few (usually 2) dimensions keeping distances between points similar

- Classical multidimensional scaling
- Metric multidimensional scaling (mMDS)
- Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS)
- Generalized multidimensional scaling (GMDS)

# **MDS**

Given pairwise dissimilarities, reconstruct a map (in *p*-dimensional space) that preserves distances.



#### **MDS**

High-dimensional input: distance matrix between n samples  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$   $D = [d_{ij}]$ 

Low-dimensional embedding:  $\mathbf{x}_1,\dots,\mathbf{x}_n\in\mathbb{R}^p$  such that  $\left.d_{ij}pprox\left\|\mathbf{x}_i-\mathbf{x}_j\right\|_2$  .

- If *D* is Euclidean distance, there exists a *p*, where we can find exact match for  $d_{ij} \approx \|\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j\|_2$
- If D is not Euclidean distance (eg. Radian distance function on a circle), we often can not find exact match. Nevertheless, MDS seeks to find an optimal configuration  $\mathbf{x}_i$  that gives  $d_{ij} \approx \|\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j\|_2$  as close as possible.

Suppose D is Euclidean distance.

Objective: find  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$  such that  $\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2 = d_{ij}$ .

Question: is this solution unique?

Answer: no.

Center the points:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ik} = 0, \text{ for all } k$$

#### Steps:

- 1. Calculate  $A = \left[ -\frac{1}{2}d_{ij}^2 \right]$  .
- 2. Calculate B = HAH, where  $H = I \frac{1}{n}ee^{T}$  (e =  $(1, ..., 1)^{T}$ )
- 3. Eigenvalue decomposition on B

$$B = V\Lambda V^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_{p} \\ & \ddots & \mathbf{0} \\ & & \lambda_{p} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_{1}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_{p}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_{n}^{T} \end{bmatrix}$$

4. 
$$X=\Lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}V^T$$
,  $X_p=\Lambda_p^{\frac{1}{2}}V_p^T$ 

Proof.

Our goal is to find the low-dimensional representation of the n samples,  $X_{(qxn)}$ , q>p

Objective: 
$$\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2 = d_{ij}$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|_2 = d_{ij}^2$$

$$\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{x}_j^T \mathbf{x}_j - 2\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_j = b_{ii} + b_{jj} - 2b_{ij}$$

Introduce matrix  $B=X^TX$ :

 $b_{ii}$ : inner product of  $x_i$  and  $x_i$  $b_{ij}$ : inner product of  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ 

Proof.

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Objective: 
$$\|\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|_{2} = d_{ij}$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|_{2}^{2} = d_{ij}^{2}$$

$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} - 2b_{ij} = d_{ij}^{2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ik} = 0, \text{ for all } k$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{q} x_{ik} x_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^{q} x_{jk} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ik} = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ii} + n \cdot b_{jj}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{jj} + n \cdot b_{ii}$$

Proof.

Our goal is to find the low-dimensional representation of the n samples,  $X_{(qxn)}$ 

Objective: 
$$\|\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|_{2} = d_{ij}$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|_{2}^{2} = d_{ij}^{2}$$

$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} - 2b_{ij} = d_{ij}^2$$

$$T = \text{trace}(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ii} \implies \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = T + nb_{jj}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = T + nb_{ii} \implies \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = 2nT$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ii} + n \cdot b_{jj}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{jj} + n \cdot b_{ii}$$

Proof.

Our goal is to find the low-dimensional representation of the n samples,  $X_{(qxn)}$ 

Objective: 
$$\|\mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{x}_{j}\|_{2} = d_{ij}$$

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$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} - 2b_{ij} = d_{ij}^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ii}^2 = T + r$$

$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} - \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{2} d_{ij}^{2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = T + nb_{jj}, \ \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = T + nb_{ii}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{ij}^{2} = 2nT$$

$$\boxed{1}$$

Proof.

Our goal is to find the low-dimensional representation of the n samples,  $X_{(qxn)}$ 

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$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} - 2b_{ij} = d_{ij}^2$$

$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} - 2b_{ij} = d_{ij}^2$$

$$b_{ii} + b_{jj} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_{ij}^2 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n d_{ij}^2 - \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^2 d_{ij}^2$$

$$b_{ij} = -\frac{1}{2}(d_{ij}^2 - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n d_{ij}^2 - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^n d_{ij}^2 + \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^2 d_{ij}^2) \implies \begin{cases} A = \left[-\frac{1}{2}d_{ij}^2\right] \\ H = I - \frac{1}{n}ee^T \text{ (e = (1, ..., 1)^T)} \\ B = HAH. \end{cases}$$

#### Steps:

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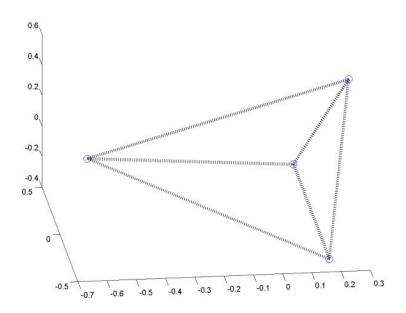
4. 
$$X = \Lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} V^T$$
,  $X_p = \Lambda_p^{\frac{1}{2}} V_p^T$ 

Example: tetrahedron

$$D = egin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

eigenvalues (.5, .5, .5, 0)

Set p=3:



# Dimensionality reduction methods

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t-SNE (t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding)

UMAP (Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection)

- PCA, MDS try to find a global structure
- t-SNE tries to preserve local structure
  - Low dimensional neighborhood should be the same as original neighborhood.
  - Used mainly for visualization

- Represents the distance relationships between samples in high dimensional space by probability distribution (neighborhood)
- Find low dimensional points such that their neighborhood distribution is similar.
- Compare the two distributions: KL divergence

KL (Kullback–Leibler) divergence: 
$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(P \parallel Q) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \log \left( rac{p(x)}{q(x)} 
ight) dx$$

- Consider the neighborhood around an input data point  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- Imagine that we have a Gaussian distribution centered around  $\mathbf{x}_i$
- Then the probability that  $\mathbf{x}_i$  chooses some other datapoint  $\mathbf{x}_j$  as its neighbor is in proportion with the density under this Gaussian
- A point closer to  $x_i$  will be more likely than one further away

 High dimensional space: The probability that point  $x_i$ 

The probability that point 
$$x_i$$
 chooses  $x_j$  as its neighbor: 
$$P_{j|i} = \frac{\exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(j)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2\right)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2\right)} \frac{\text{function) kernel Gaussian kernel}}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2\right)}$$

 Low dimensional space: Find embedding  $\mathbf{y}^{(1)},..,\mathbf{y}^{(N)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ And define the distribution in the d-dim space:

$$Q_{ij} = \frac{\exp(-||\mathbf{y}^{(i)} - \mathbf{y}^{(j)}||^2)}{\sum_{k} \sum_{l \neq k} \exp(-||\mathbf{y}^{(l)} - \mathbf{y}^{(k)}||^2)}$$
?

Such that the KL divergence between P and Q is minimized

$$\mathit{KL}(Q||P) = \sum_{ii} Q_{ij} \log \left( rac{Q_{ij}}{P_{ij}} 
ight)$$

RBF (radial basis

High dimensional space: The probability that point  $x_i$ 

High dimensional space: The probability that point 
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RBF (radial basis function) kernel Gaussian kernel

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 Crowding problem.  
Use t-distribution instead of

instead of Gaussian-like

Such that the KL divergence between P and Q is minimized

$$\mathit{KL}(Q||P) = \sum_{ii} Q_{ij} \log \left( rac{Q_{ij}}{P_{ij}} 
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- High dimensional space: The probability that point  $x_i$ chooses  $x_i$  as its neighbor:
- Low dimensional space: Find embedding  $\mathbf{y}^{(1)},..,\mathbf{y}^{(N)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ And define the distribution in the d-dim space:
- Such that the KL divergence between P and Q is minimized

RBF (radial basis function) kernel  $P_{j|i} = rac{\left[\exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(j)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2
ight)
ight]}{\sum_{k 
eq i} \exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2
ight)}$ Gaussian kernel

$$Q_{ij} = \frac{(1 + ||\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_j||^2)^{-1}}{\sum_k \sum_{l \neq k} (1 + ||\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{y}_l||^2)^{-1}}$$
 Crowding problem Use t-distribution instead of

Crowding problem. Gaussian-like

$$KL(Q||P) = \sum_{ij} Q_{ij} \log \begin{pmatrix} \rho(x) \propto (1 + \frac{x^2}{v})^{-(v+1)/2} \\ 0.40 \\ 0.35 \\ 0.30 \\ 0.25 \\ 0.20 \\ 0.15 \\ 0.10 \\ 0.05 \\ 0.00 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### Parameters

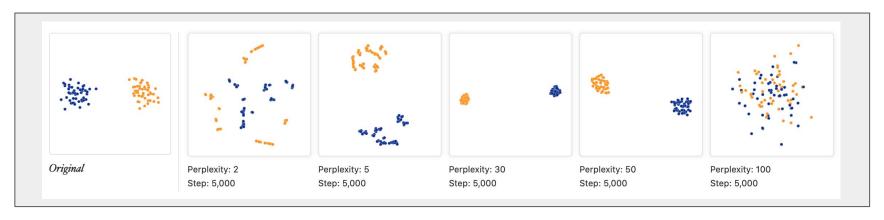
Perplexity
$$perp(P_{j|i}) = 2^{H(P_{j|i})}$$

$$P_{j|i} = \frac{\exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(j)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2\right)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp\left(-||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}||^2/2\sigma_i^2\right)}$$

$$H(P) = -\sum_i P_i \log(P_i)$$
If P is uniform over k elements - perplexity is k

In practice, we give perplexity, and the algorithm adjusts  $\sigma$ Low perplexity  $\to$  smaller  $\sigma \to$  considers smaller neighborhood High perplexity  $\to$  larger  $\sigma \to$  considers larger neighborhood

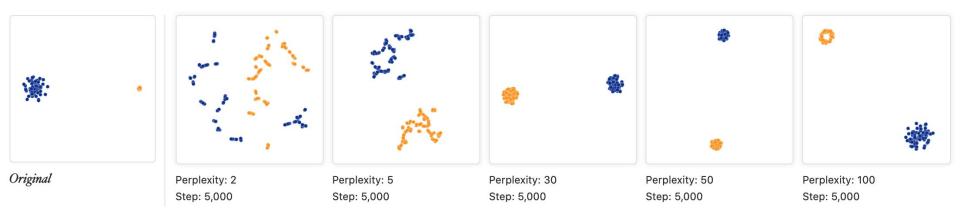
 Balances between local and global structure. Value between 5-50.



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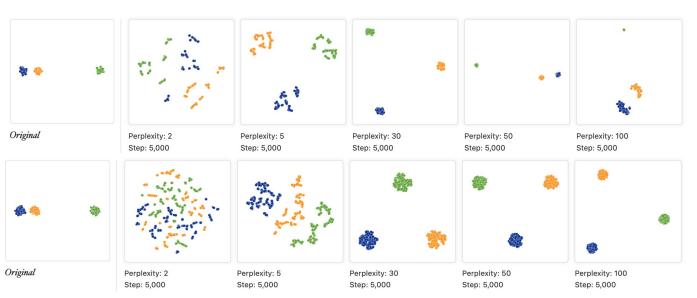
 Balances between local and global structure. Value between 5-50.

- Other practical aspects
  - Does cluster size mean heterogeneity in the cluster?



No.

- Other practical aspects
  - Does the distance between clusters mean anything?



Not always

Figure credit: https://distill.pub/2016/misread-tsne/

#### MDS vs t-SNE

#### **MDS**

Given a dissimilarity matrix, find low-dimensional embeddings of data points where the distance between points in the low-dimensional space is as close as possible to D.

#### **tSNE**

Given data in high-dim space, calculate probability distribution P which represents the chance of a point being a neighbor of another point. low-dimensional embeddings of data points where such a probability distribution Q is as close as possible to P.

#### t-SNE

Why its output (the low-dimensional representations of data) is more often used for visualization than for further downstream analysis (clustering, etc)?

- It doesn't learn a function from high-dim data to low-dim, so if new data points come we can't directly convert it to low-dim.
- It doesn't directly preserve distance but rather preserves the neighborhood of every datapoint. So the distance between points in low-dim space can't be interpreted as close representation of the original distance. Distance-based clustering methods should be used with caution to the output of tSNE. In particular, larger distances are not preserved.
- It's output is often good for human eyes (also considering the effect of varying parameters), but not good for automatic clustering methods like k-means.
- Still controversial.

# UMAP Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection

MDS: preserving distance

tSNE: preserving neighborhood

UMAP: preserving graph topology

Compared to t-SNE, UMAP seems to be

- faster
- deterministic

Very similar intuition but different mathematical framework

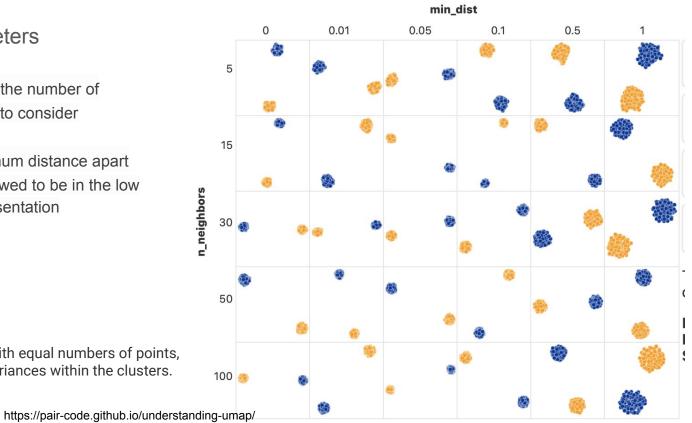
# UMAP Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection

Hyper-parameters

N neighbors: the number of nearest neighbors to consider

Min dist: minimum distance apart that points are allowed to be in the low dimensional representation

> Two clusters with equal numbers of points, but different variances within the clusters.

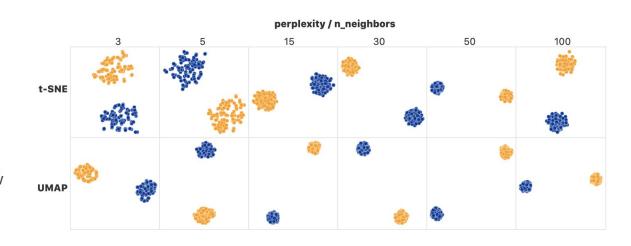


# UMAP Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection

#### Hyper-parameters

N\_neighbors: the number of nearest neighbors to consider

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Two clusters with equal numbers of points.

https://pair-code.github.io/understanding-umap/