

INTRO to DATA SCIENCE

LECTURE 12: DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION

LAST TIME:

- SVM'S
- HARD/SOFT MARGIN CLASSIFIERS
- KERNEL METHODS FOR NONLINEAR CLASSIFICATION

I. DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION

II. PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS ANALYSIS

III. SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

IV. OTHER METHODS

EXERCISE:

IV. DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION IN SCIKIT-LEARN

I. DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION

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In general, the idea is to regard the dataset as a matrix and to decompose the matrix into simpler, meaningful pieces.

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Dimensionality reduction is frequently performed as a pre-processing step before another learning algorithm is applied.

Q: What are the motivations for dimensionality reduction?

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The number of features in our dataset can be difficult to manage, or even misleading (eg, if the relationships are actually simpler than they appear).

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*If these relationships are *linear*, then we can use well-established techniques like PCA/SVD.*

EXAMPLE: 1D HARMONIC OSCILLATOR

14

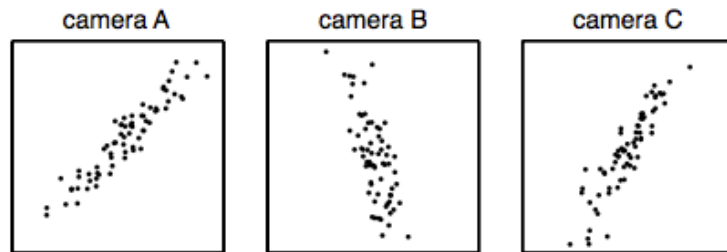
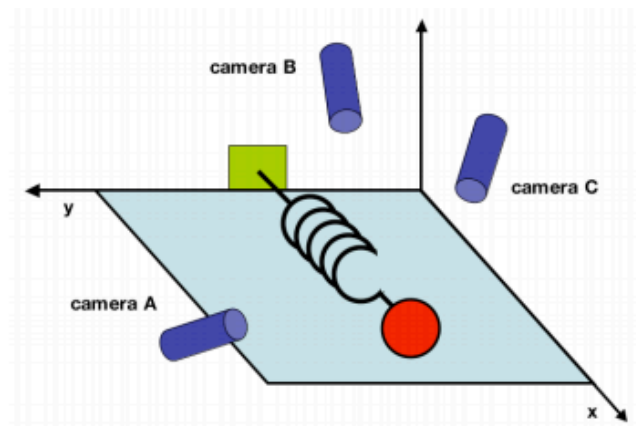


FIG. 1 A toy example. The position of a ball attached to an oscillating spring is recorded using three cameras A, B and C. The position of the ball tracked by each camera is depicted in each panel below.

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(More precisely, the sample size grows exponentially with $l \leq d$, the dimension of the manifold embedded in the feature space).

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ex: A high-dimensional orange contains most of its volume in the rind!

ex: A high-dimensional hypercube contains most of its volume in the corners!

In either case, most of the points in the space are “far” from the center.

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This illustrates the fact that local methods will break down in these circumstances (eg, in order to collect enough neighbors for a given point, you need to expand the radius of the neighborhood so far that locality is not preserved).

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This illustrates the fact that local methods will break down in these circumstances (eg, in order to collect enough neighbors for a given point, you need to expand the radius of the neighborhood so far that locality is not preserved).

The bottom line is that high-dimensional spaces can be problematic.

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More precisely: given an $n \times d$ matrix A (encoding n observations of a d -dimensional random variable), we want to find a k -dimensional representation of A ($k < d$) that captures the information in the original data, according to some criterion.

Q: What is the goal of dimensionality reduction?

- reduce computational expense*
- reduce susceptibility to overfitting*
- reduce noise in the dataset*
- enhance our intuition*

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NOTE

We've already seen one example of feature selection for regression: backward elimination.

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feature extraction – *mapping the features to a lower dimensional space*

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The goal of feature extraction is to create a new set of coordinates that simplify the representation of the data.

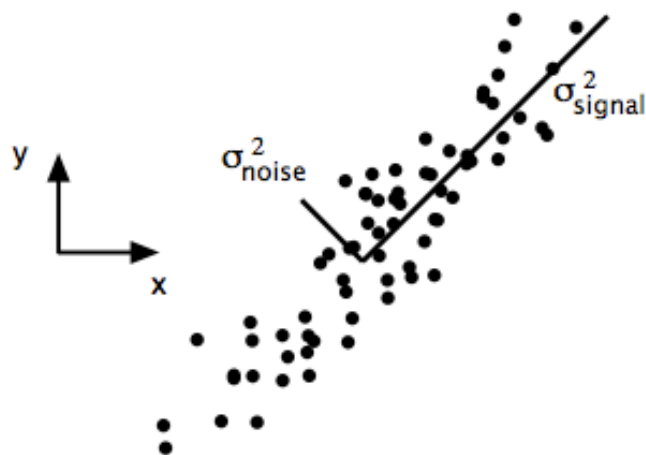


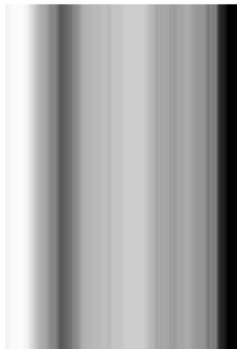
FIG. 2 Simulated data of (x, y) for camera A. The signal and noise variances σ_{signal}^2 and σ_{noise}^2 are graphically represented by the two lines subtending the cloud of data. Note that the largest direction of variance does not lie along the basis of the recording (x_A, y_A) but rather along the best-fit line.

Q: What are some applications of dimensionality reduction?

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- topic models (document clustering)*
- image recognition/computer vision*
- bioinformatics (microarray analysis)*
- speech recognition*
- astronomy (spectral data analysis)*
- recommender systems*

PCs # 0



PCs # 10



PCs # 20



PCs # 30



PCs # 40



PCs # 50



II. PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

Principal component analysis is a dimension reduction technique that can be used on a matrix of any dimensions.

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*The PCA of a matrix A boils down to the **eigenvalue decomposition** of the **covariance matrix** of A .*

The covariance matrix C of a matrix A is always square:

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_1 - \mu_1)] & E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] & \cdots & E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_n - \mu_n)] \\ E[(X_2 - \mu_2)(X_1 - \mu_1)] & E[(X_2 - \mu_2)(X_2 - \mu_2)] & \cdots & E[(X_2 - \mu_2)(X_n - \mu_n)] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E[(X_n - \mu_n)(X_1 - \mu_1)] & E[(X_n - \mu_n)(X_2 - \mu_2)] & \cdots & E[(X_n - \mu_n)(X_n - \mu_n)] \end{bmatrix}.$$

off-diagonal elements C_{ij} give the covariance between X_i, X_j ($i \neq j$)

diagonal elements C_{ii} give the variance of X_i

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$$A = Q \Lambda Q^{-1}$$

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*The columns of Q are the **eigenvectors** of A , and the values on the diagonal of Λ are the associated **eigenvalues** of A .*

NOTE

This relationship defines what it means to be an eigenvector of A .

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The eigenvectors form a basis of the vector space on which A acts (eg, they are orthogonal).

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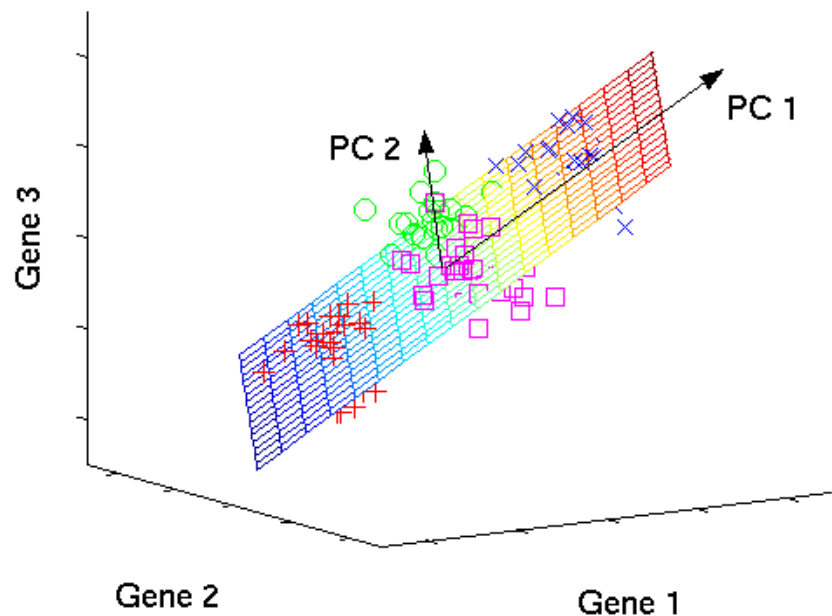
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*This can be visualized in a **scree plot**, which shows the amount of variance explained by each basis vector.*

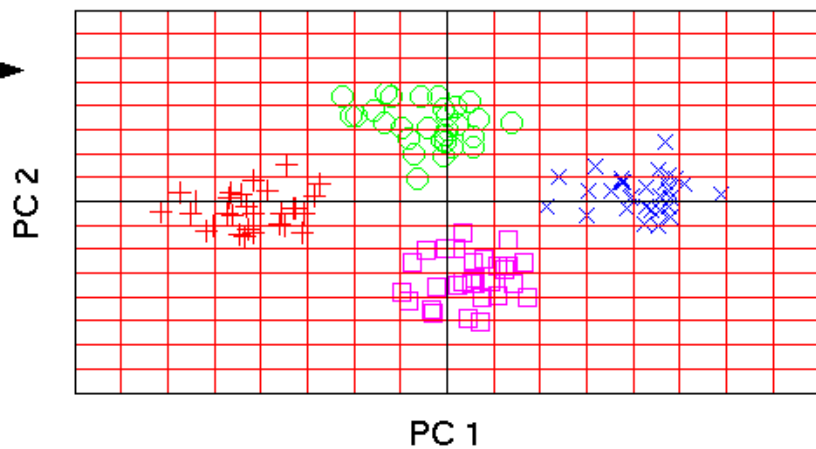
original data space

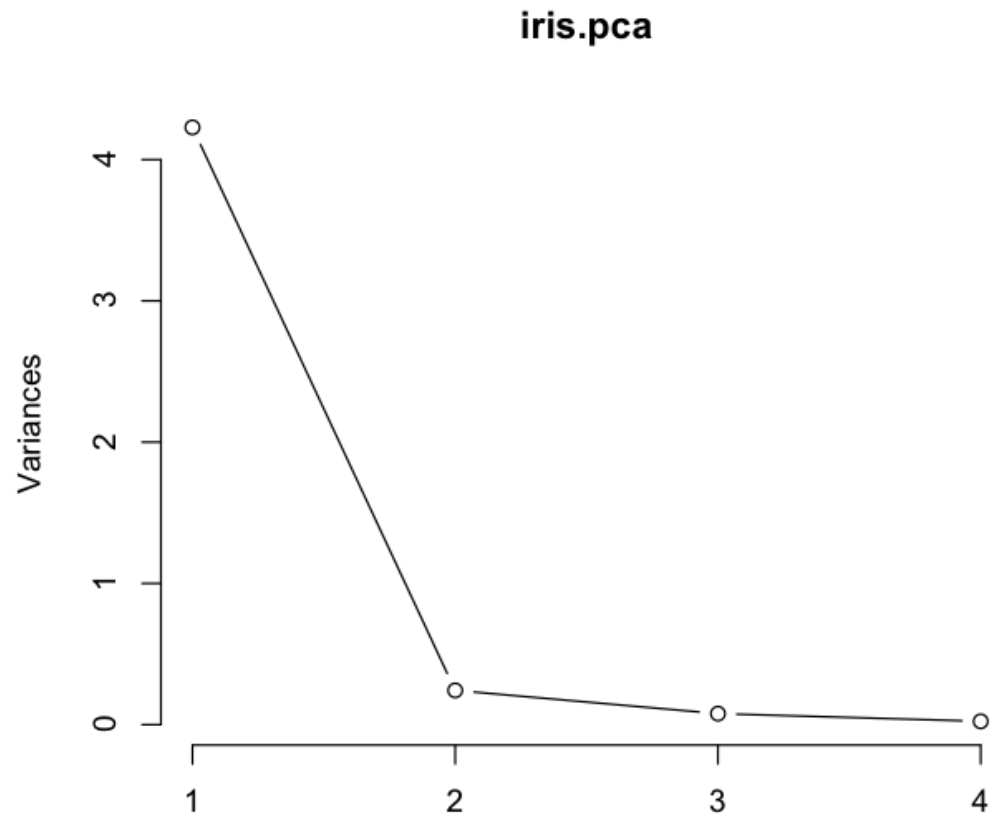


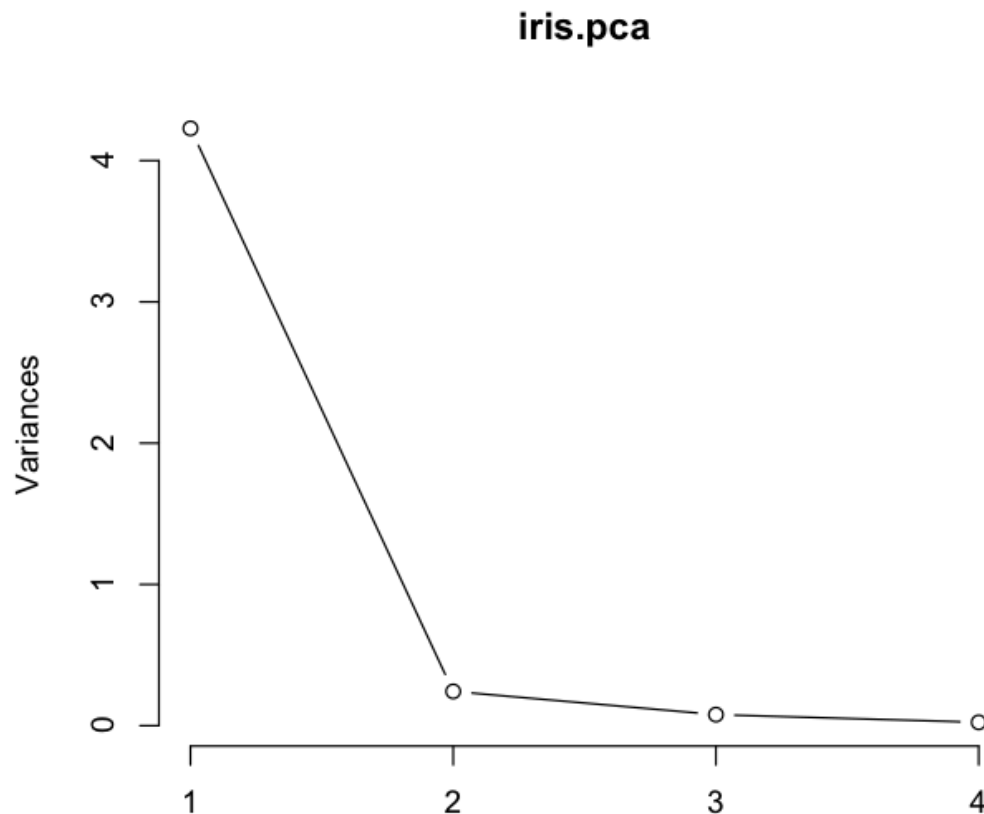
PCA



component space







NOTE

Looking at this plot also gives you an idea of how many principal components to keep.

Apply the *elbow test*: keep only those pc's that appear to the left of the elbow in the graph.

III. SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

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$$\rightarrow UU^T = I_n, \quad VV^T = I_d \qquad \rightarrow \Sigma_{ij} = 0 \quad (i \neq j)$$

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*The columns of U & V are the (left- and right-) **singular vectors** of A .*

*These singular vectors provide **orthonormal bases** for the spaces K_n & K_d (columns of U & V , respectively).*

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NOTE

The number of singular values is equal to the *rank* of A .

The rank of a matrix measures its *non-degeneracy*.

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For a general SVD, the columns of U are the eigenvectors of AA^T , and the columns of V are the eigenvectors of A^TA .

Also, the singular values of A are the square roots of the eigenvalues of AA^T and A^TA .

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NOTE

Here “best” refers to the representation that minimizes the squared orthogonal distances from the points to the subspace.

Q: How do you interpret the SVD?

A: Recall that given a set of n points in d -dimensional space (eg, a matrix A), we want to find the best $k < d$ dimensional subspace to represent the data.

For $k = 1$, this subspace is a line passing through the origin.

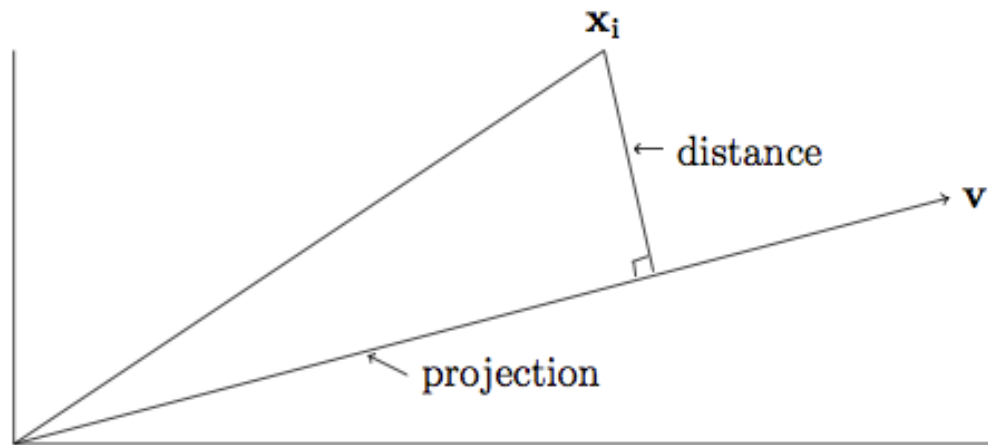


Figure 4.1: The projection of the point \mathbf{x}_i onto the line through the origin in the direction of \mathbf{v}

For a geometric interpretation of the singular values, consider a unit sphere in \mathbb{R}_n and a linear map T (eg, a rotation and a stretch) that sends this sphere to an ellipsoid in \mathbb{R}_d .

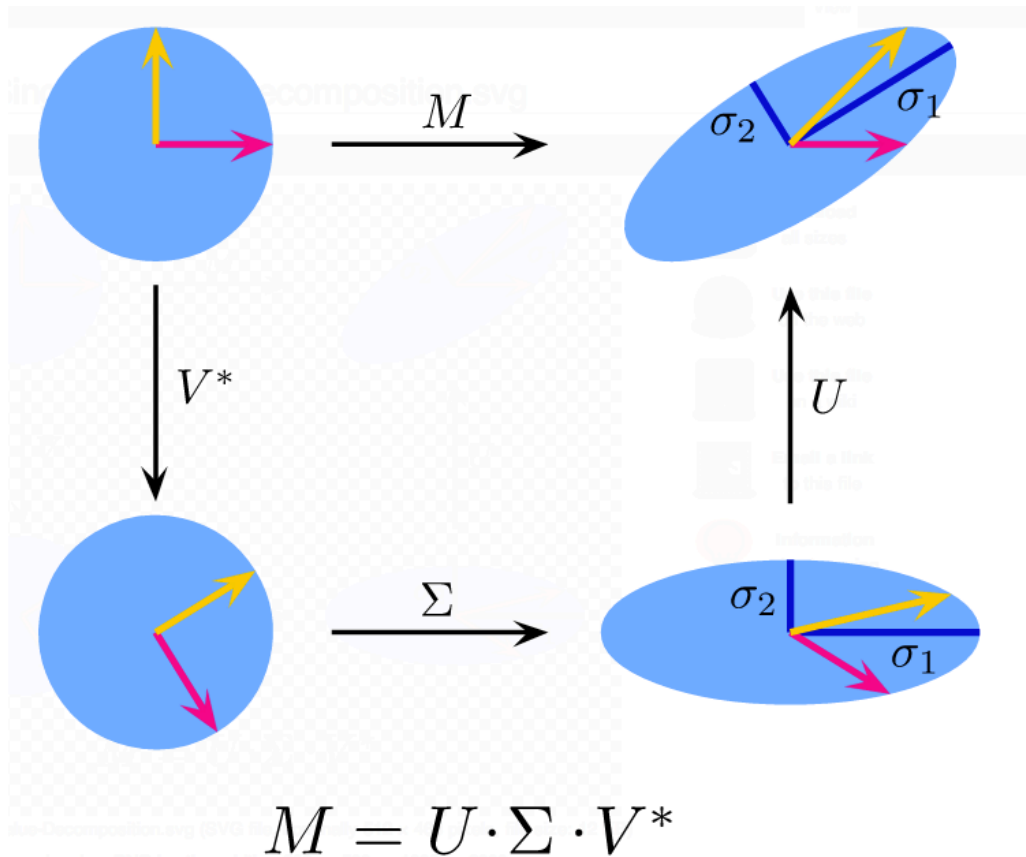
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The singular values give the magnitudes of the projection of each column of the original dataset on the elements of the new basis.



III. OTHER METHODS

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*These new coordinates are associated with *hidden* or *latent* features that we think our data depends on.*

The old coordinates are then modeled as linear combinations of the latent features.

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Though this dataset contains 10 features X_i , we may be interested in modeling these features as functions of latent variables such as the speed and strength of the participants:

$$X_i = \lambda_1 f_1 + \lambda_2 f_2 + \varepsilon$$

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This would allow us to analyze the data in a more fundamental way.

SVD, PCA, and factor analysis are all linear techniques (eg, we use a linear transformation to embed the in a lower-dimensional space).

But as we saw with SVM's, sometimes linear techniques are not sufficient.

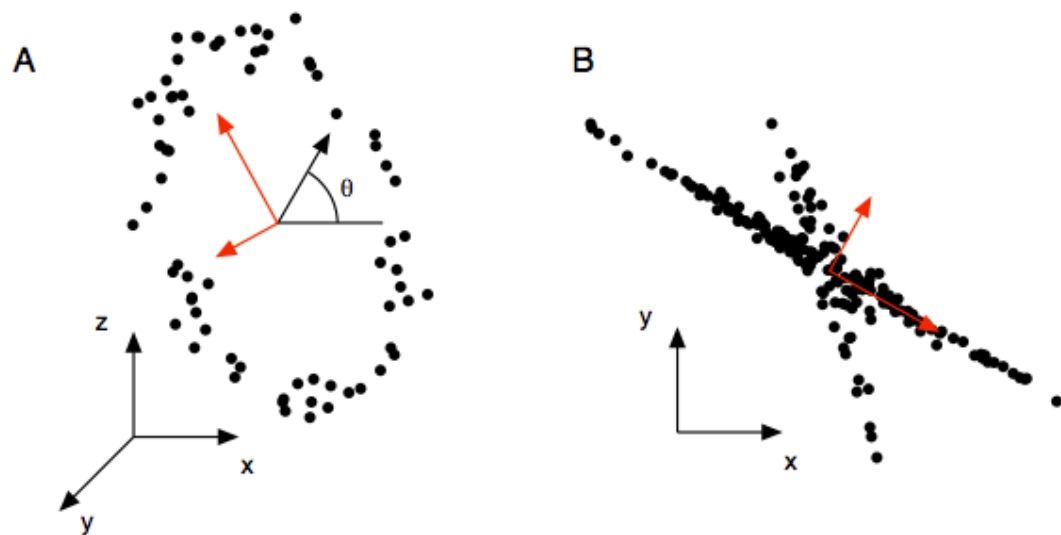
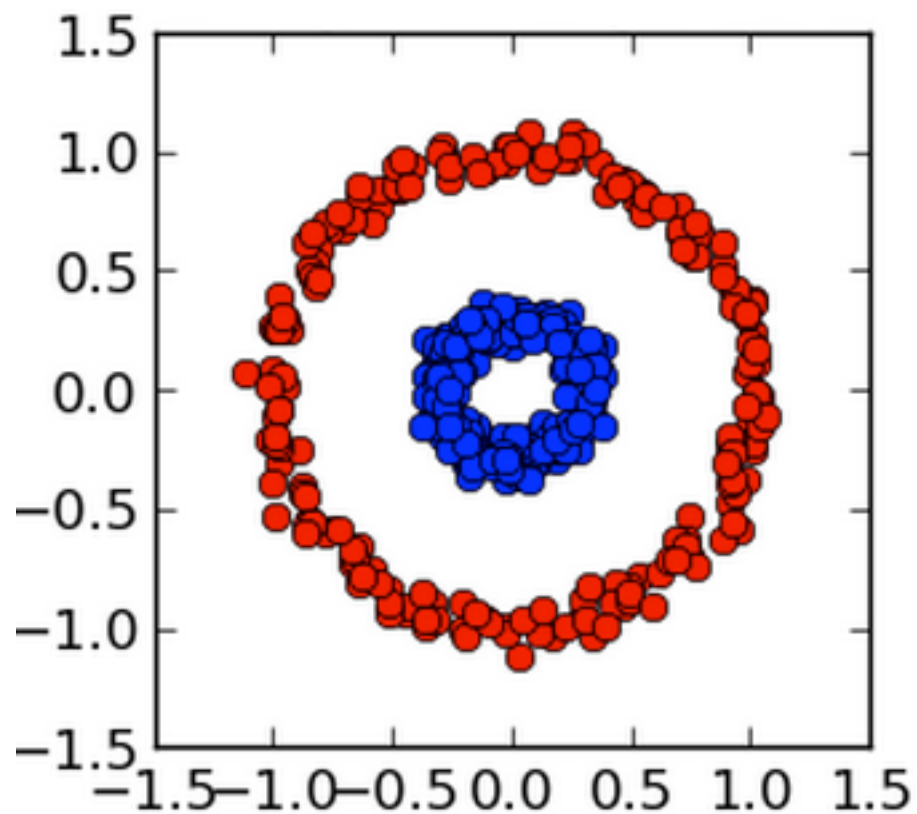


FIG. 6 Example of when PCA fails (red lines). (a) Tracking a person on a ferris wheel (black dots). All dynamics can be described by the phase of the wheel θ , a non-linear combination of the naive basis. (b) In this example data set, non-Gaussian distributed data and non-orthogonal axes causes PCA to fail. The axes with the largest variance do not correspond to the appropriate answer.



Some methods for nonlinear dimensional reduction (or manifold learning) include:

multidimensional scaling: *low-dim embedding that preserves pairwise distances*

locally linear embedding: *approximates local structure of data (nbd preserving embedding)*

Some methods for nonlinear dimensional reduction (or manifold learning) include:

kernel PCA: *exploits PCA dependence on inner product (same logic as SVM)*

isomap: *nonlinear dim reduction via MDS using geodesic (surface-bound) distances*

In any case, the key difficulties with dimensionality reduction are time/space complexity, randomness (eg different results for different runs), and selecting the number of dimensions in the lower-dim subspace.

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Furthermore, there's an obvious (bias/variance) tradeoff between the number of subspace dimensions and the size of approximation error.