

# Lecture 13: Dimensionality Reduction

Chapter 5

# Basic concepts

- **Feature selection:** maintain the original features
- **Feature extraction:** transform or project the data onto a new feature space.
  - Improve storage space
  - Improve the computational efficiency of the learning algorithm
  - Improve the predictive performance by reducing the *curse of dimensionality*. This is particularly useful when we work with non-regularized models.
  - Principal component analysis (**PCA**) for unsupervised dimensionality reduction
  - Linear discriminant analysis (**LDA**) as supervised dimensionality reduction
  - Kernel principal component analysis (**KPCA**) for nonlinear dimensionality reduction

# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is an unsupervised linear transformation technique.
- PCA helps identify patterns in data based on the **correlation** between features.
  - PCA aims to find the directions of **maximum variance** in high-dimensional data and projects it onto a new subspace with equal or fewer dimensions than the original one.
  - The new feature axes are orthogonal to each other.
  - The orthogonal axes (principal components) of the new subspace can be interpreted as the directions of maximum variance.

# PCA

- We construct a  $d \times k$ -dimensional transformation matrix  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ .
- This matrix allows us to map a vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , which is a training sample, to a new  $k$ -dimensional feature subspace  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ .
- Given  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d]$
- Calculate a transformation matrix  $\mathbf{W}$
- Project  $\mathbf{x}$  to the new space:  $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{z}$  and get  $\mathbf{z} = [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k]$

# PCA

- Transforming  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  to  $z \in \mathbb{R}^k$  where  $d \gg k$ 
  - Typically,  $k$  is much smaller than  $d$ .
  - The first principal component will have the largest possible variance.
  - The resulting principal components are uncorrelated (orthogonal) to each other.
  - PCA directions are highly sensitive to data scaling. We **need to standardize the features prior to PCA** if the features were in different scales.

# Background

- The **covariance** between two features  $j$  and  $k$  is calculated as

$$\sigma_{jk} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( x_j^{(i)} - \mu_j \right) \left( x_k^{(i)} - \mu_k \right)$$

- where  $\mu_j$  and  $\mu_k$  are the sample mean of features  $j$  and  $k$ .
- Note that the mean is zero if we standardize the data.
- **Covariance matrix:**  $d \times d$  where  $d$  is the number of dimensions in the dataset.

- A  $3 \times 3$  covariance matrix can be represented as  $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_3^2 \end{pmatrix}$

# Covariance properties

- A positive covariance between two features indicates that the features increase or decrease together.
- A negative covariance indicates that the features vary in opposite directions.
- The first principal component will have the largest possible variance.

# Eigenvectors of covariance matrix

- The eigenvectors of the covariance matrix represent the principal components.
- The corresponding eigenvalues define their magnitude.
- An eigenvector  $\mathbf{v}$  satisfies the equation  $\Sigma \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$ 
  - $\lambda$  is a scalar, called the eigenvalue.
- Eigenvalues define the magnitude of eigenvectors.
- For PCA analysis, we need to sort eigenvalues by decreasing magnitude.



# Get eigenpairs

- We can use the **linalg.eig** function from the NumPy to obtain the eigenpairs.
- **numpy.cov** function calculates the covariance matrix of a dataset.
  - Note the dataset needs to be represented in the format of  $d \times n$  format where each row represent one feature. Otherwise, the covariance matrix is the covariance of the instances.
- **linalg.eig** function conducts the eigen decomposition
  - Returns (i) a vector (eigen\_vals) of  $d$  eigenvalues and (ii) the corresponding eigenvectors stored as columns in a  $d \times d$  matrix (eigen\_vecs)

# Example

```
# import wine dataset
# partition the data to training and testing datasets
# standardize the features, X_train_std

cov_mat = np.cov(X_train_std.T)
eigen_vals, eigen_vecs = np.linalg.eig(cov_mat)

print('\nEigenvalues \n%s' % eigen_vals)
```

```
Eigenvalues
[4.84274532 2.41602459 1.54845825 0.96120438 0.84166161 0.6620634
0.51828472 0.34650377 0.3131368 0.10754642 0.21357215 0.15362835
0.1808613 ]
```

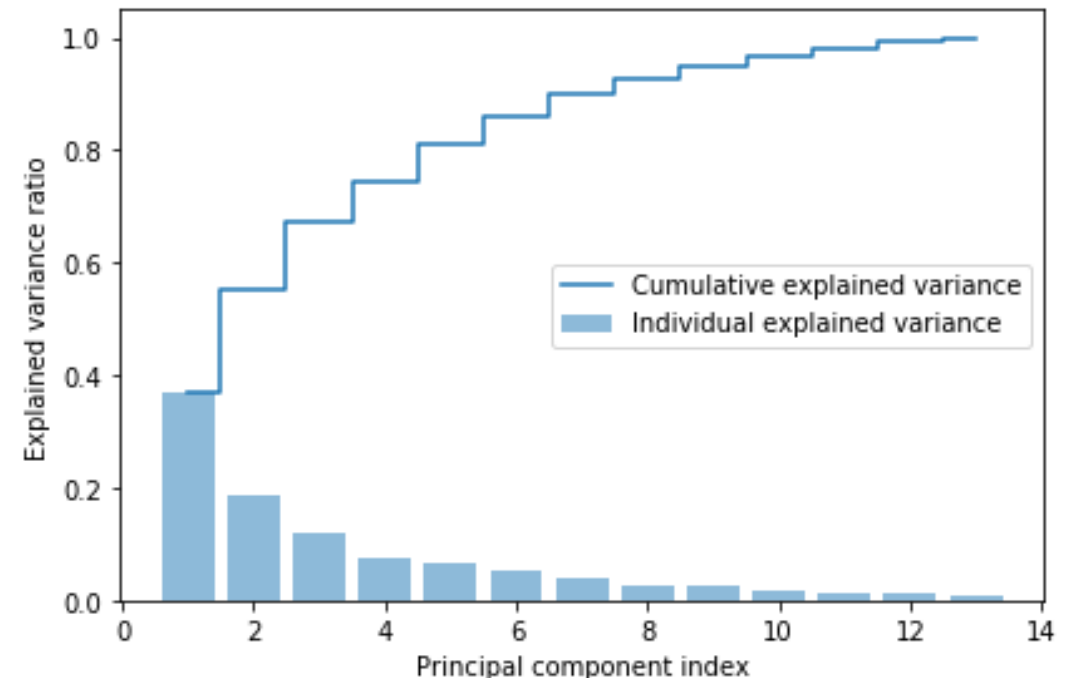
# Variance explained ratios

- The variance explained ratios of an eigenvalue  $\lambda_j$  is  $\frac{\lambda_j}{\sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i}$
- The first PC accounts for  $\sim 40\%$  of the variance, the first two PCs account for almost 60% of the variance.

```
# calculating eigen values (see previous slides)
```

```
tot = sum(eigen_vals)  
var_exp = [(i / tot) for i in sorted(eigen_vals, reverse=True)]  
cum_var_exp = np.cumsum(var_exp)
```

```
# plotting code (see text book)
```



# Conduct PCA step by step

- Standardize the  $d$ -dimensional dataset
- Construct the covariance matrix.
- Decompose the covariance matrix into its eigenvectors and eigenvalues.
- Select  $k$  eigenvectors which correspond to the  $k$  largest eigenvalues, where  $k$  is the dimensionality of the new feature subspace.
- Construct a projection matrix  $\mathbf{W}$  from the top  $k$  eigenvectors.
- Transform the  $d$ -dimensional input dataset  $\mathbf{X}$  using the projection matrix  $\mathbf{W}$  to obtain the new  $k$ -dimensional feature subspace.

# Steps 1-3: standardization, covariance matrix, eigen-decomposition

```
# import wine dataset
# partition the data to training and testing datasets

# STEP 1: Standardize the d-dimensional dataset
sc = StandardScaler()
X_train_std = sc.fit_transform(X_train)
X_test_std = sc.transform(X_test)

# STEP 2: Construct the covariance matrix
print(X_train_std.T.shape)
cov_mat = np.cov(X_train_std.T)

# STEP 3: Decompose the covariance matrix into its eigenvectors and eigenvalues
eigen_vals, eigen_vecs = np.linalg.eig(cov_mat)
```

# Step 4: select $k$ eigenvectors which correspond to the $k$ largest eigenvalues

```
# STEP 4: Select k eigenvectors which correspond to the k largest eigenvalues
# Make a list of (eigenvalue, eigenvector) tuples
eigen_pairs = [(np.abs(eigen_vals[i]), eigen_vecs[:, i])
               for i in range(len(eigen_vals))]

# Sort the (eigenvalue, eigenvector) tuples from high to low
eigen_pairs.sort(key=lambda k: k[0], reverse=True)
```

- Python list's sort function. **sort(\*, key=None, reverse=False)**.
  - **key** specifies a function to be called on each list element prior to making comparisons. (for example, `key=str.lower`).
  - **reverse** is a boolean value. If set to True, then the list elements are sorted as if each comparison were reversed.
- More explanations about [sort function](#) and python [lambda](#) function.

# Step 4

```
print(eigen_pairs[0])  
print(eigen_pairs[1])  
  
print(eigen_pairs[0][1])
```

```
(4.842745315655895, array([-0.13724218, 0.24724326, -0.02545159, 0.20694508, -0.15436582, -0.39376952, -  
0.41735106, 0.30572896, -0.30668347, 0.07554066, -0.32613263, -0.36861022, -0.29669651]))  
(2.416024587035225, array([ 0.50303478, 0.16487119, 0.24456476, -0.11352904, 0.28974518, 0.05080104, -  
0.02287338, 0.09048885, 0.00835233, 0.54977581, -0.20716433, -0.24902536, 0.38022942]))  
  
[-0.13724218 0.24724326 -0.02545159 0.20694508 -0.15436582 -0.39376952 -0.41735106 0.30572896 -  
0.30668347 0.07554066 -0.32613263 -0.36861022 -0.29669651]
```

# Step 5: Construct a projection matrix $W$ from the top $k$ eigenvectors

```
w = np.hstack((eigen_pairs[0][1][:, np.newaxis],  
               eigen_pairs[1][1][:, np.newaxis]))  
print('Matrix W:\n', w)
```

Matrix W:

```
[[-0.13724218 0.50303478]  
 [ 0.24724326 0.16487119]  
 [-0.02545159 0.24456476]  
 [ 0.20694508 -0.11352904]  
 [-0.15436582 0.28974518]  
 [-0.39376952 0.05080104]  
 [-0.41735106 -0.02287338]  
 [ 0.30572896 0.09048885]  
 [-0.30668347 0.00835233]  
 [ 0.07554066 0.54977581]  
 [-0.32613263 -0.20716433]  
 [-0.36861022 -0.24902536]  
 [-0.29669651 0.38022942]]
```

- **numpy.hstack()**: Stack arrays in sequence horizontally (column wise). This is equivalent to concatenation along the second axis



Step 6: Transform  $\mathbf{X}$  to obtain the new  $k$ -dimensional feature subspace.

- We can transform one instance in the original space to the new space by calculating  $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{W}$ .
- Or, we can transform the entire training dataset onto the two principal components by calculating  $\mathbf{X}' = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}$ .

# Step 6

```
# STEP 6: Transform the d-dimensional input dataset X using the projection matrix W
# to obtain the new k-dimensional feature subspace
X_train_pca = X_train_std.dot(w)
print("1st original instance: ", X_train_std[0])
print("Instance in PC space: ", X_train_pca[0])
print("Variance in PC1 = %.2f" % np.var(X_train_pca[:,0]))
print("Variance in PC2 = %.2f" % np.var(X_train_pca[:,1]))
```

```
1st original instance: [ 0.71225893  2.22048673 -0.13025864  0.05962872 -0.50432733 -0.52831584 -
1.24000033  0.84118003 -1.05215112 -0.29218864 -0.20017028 -0.82164144 -0.62946362]
Instance in PC space: [2.38299011  0.45458499]
Variance in PC1 = 4.80
Variance in PC2 = 2.40
```

- It is clear that the data is more spread along the first PC than the second PC. This is consistent with the explained variance ratio plot.

# Using scikit-learn library to conduct PCA

- Check the explained variance ratios of the different PCs, we can set **n\_components** to be None (which keeps all the PCs). Then, we can assess the explained variance ratio via the **explained\_variance\_ratio\_** attribute.
- Implement Steps 2-6 in a black box

```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
```

```
pca = PCA()  
X_train_pca = pca.fit_transform(X_train_std)  
pca.explained_variance_ratio_
```

```
array([0.36951469, 0.18434927, 0.11815159, 0.07334252, 0.06422108, 0.05051724, 0.03954654, 0.02643918,  
0.02389319, 0.01629614, 0.01380021, 0.01172226, 0.00820609])
```

# Example

```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score

pca = PCA(n_components=2)
X_train_pca = pca.fit_transform(X_train_std)

tree_model = DecisionTreeClassifier(criterion='gini',
                                   max_depth=4, random_state=1)
tree_model.fit(X_train_lda, y_train)

X_test_pca = pca.transform(X_test_std)
y_pred = tree_model.predict(X_test_pca)

acc = accuracy_score(y_pred, y_test)
print("DT+PCA acc=", acc)

DT+PCA acc= 0.9259259259259259
```

- Wine dataset
  - Accuracy (DT) is 0.89
  - Accuracy (DT+PCA) is 0.92

# Discussions

- A natural measure is to pick the eigenvectors that explain  $p\%$  of the data variance.
- PCA is not optimal for classification
  - There is no mention of the class label.
  - Keeping the dimensions of largest energy (variance) is a good idea but not always.
  - The discriminant dimensions could be thrown out.