

Chapter 10: U^hsupervised Learning



IN CS, IT CAN BE HARD TO EXPLAIN
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE EASY
AND THE VIRTUALLY IMPOSSIBLE.

Credit: <https://xkcd.com/1425/>

This chapter will focus on methods intended for the setting in which we only have a set of features X_1, \dots, X_p measured on n observations. *no longer have Y !*

We are not interested in prediction because we have no associated Y .

Goal: discover interesting things about measurements X_1, \dots, X_p

- Is there an informative way to plot the data?
- Can we discover subgroups among variables or observations?

1 The Challenge of Unsupervised Learning

Supervised learning is a well-understood area.

You now have a good grasp of supervised learning.

If you were asked to predict a binary response -

Logistic regression, SVM, LDA, classification trees, RF, bagged trees, boosted trees, and a clear understanding of how to assess your results -

validation on an independent test set

Cross-validation error.

In contrast, unsupervised learning is often much more challenging.

More subjective, no simple goal for the analysis, e.g. prediction.

Unsupervised learning is often performed as part of an exploratory data analysis.

1st part of an analysis, before fitting any models.

It can be hard to assess the results obtained from unsupervised learning methods.

No universally accepted mechanism for performing cross-validation or validation on a test set.

Because there is no way to "check our work" with no response variable.

→ We don't know the true answer!

Techniques for unsupervised learning are of growing importance in a number of fields.

cancer research assay gene expression levels in 100 patients and look for subgroups among cancer sample to better understand the disease.

online shopping identify similar groups of shoppers show preferential items that they might be particularly interested.

Entity resolution Many noisy databases without unique identifying attributes → can we find the matches/links? 2

2 Principal Components Analysis

We have already seen principal components as a method for dimension reduction.

When faced w/ a large set of correlated variables, we can use principal components to summarize this set by a smaller number of representative variables that collectively explain most of the variability in the original data set.

Principal component directions = directions in feature space along which original data are highly variable.
define linear subspaces that are close as possible to the data cloud.

Principal component regression

use principal components as predictors in a regression model instead of original variables.

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) refers to the process by which principal components are computed and the subsequent use of these components to understand the data.

Unsupervised approach

involves only features X_1, \dots, X_p , no response Y .

Apart from producing derived variables for use in supervised learning, PCA also serves as a tool for data visualization.

Visualize observations or of variables.

as a tool for visualization / EDA.

2.1 What are Principal Components?

x_1, \dots, x_p

Suppose we wish to visualize n observations with measurements on a set of p features as part of an exploratory data analysis.

We could do this by examining 2D plots of n data which contain n observations measured on 2 features.

gg pairs, pairs

$$\Rightarrow \binom{p}{2} = \frac{p(p-1)}{2} \text{ plots. e.g. w/ } p=10 \Rightarrow 45 \text{ plots!}$$

- Too many to look at

- likely no plot will be informative because they contain a small fraction of information present in our data.

For visualization
in high dimensions

Goal: We would like to find a low-dimensional representation of the data that captures as much of the information as possible.

Then plot observations in low-dimensional space.

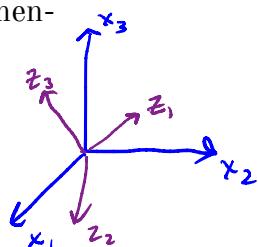
PCA provides us a tool to do just this.

It finds low dimensional representation of a data set that contains as much as possible of the variation (information).

Idea: Each of the n observations lives in p dimensional space, but not all of these dimensions are equally interesting.

PCA seeks a small number of dimensions that are as interesting as possible.

"interesting" = amount the observations vary along each dimension.



Each dimension found by PCA is a linear combination of the p factors.

The *first principal component* of a set of features X_1, \dots, X_p is the normalized linear combination of the features

$$Z_1 = \phi_{11}X_1 + \phi_{21}X_2 + \dots + \phi_{p1}X_p$$

normalized: $\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{ji}^2 = 1 \leftarrow$ otherwise could result in arbitrarily large variances

$\phi_{11}, \dots, \phi_{p1}$ are called "loadings" of the first principal component.

$\phi_i = (\phi_{1i}, \dots, \phi_{pi})^T =$ "loading vector".

that has the largest variance. of Z_1 ,

$$\text{Var}(\phi_{11}X_1 + \dots + \phi_{p1}X_p).$$

Given a $n \times p$ data set \mathbf{X} , how do we compute the first principal component?

① Assume each variable has been centered (i.e. columns have mean 0) — only care about maximizing variance.
(do it)

② look for linear combinations of the form

$$Z_{ii} = \phi_{11}x_{i1} + \phi_{21}x_{i2} + \dots + \phi_{p1}x_{ip}$$

w/ largest sample variance. subject to $\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{ji}^2 = 1$.

i.e. solve the following optimization problem:

$$\underset{\phi_{11}, \dots, \phi_{p1}}{\text{maximize}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{ji}x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\}$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{ji}^2 = 1$$

can write this way because columns centered
 $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_{ii} = 0$
 \Rightarrow this is sample variance
of $Z_{ii}, i=1, \dots, n$.

Z_{11}, \dots, Z_{nn} are called "scores" of the first principal component.

There is a nice geometric interpretation for the first principal component.

The loading vector ϕ_1 defines a direction in the feature space along which the data vary the most.

If we project n data points onto this direction we get

the scores Z_{11}, \dots, Z_{n1}

After the first principal component Z_1 of the features has been determined, we can find the second principal component, Z_2 . The second principal component is the linear combination of X_1, \dots, X_p that has maximal variance out of all linear combinations that are uncorrelated with Z_1 .

\uparrow
First principal component.

The second principal component score are

$$Z_{12} = \phi_{12}x_{11} + \dots + \phi_{p2}x_{1p}$$

ϕ_2 = second principal component loading vector.

Z_2 uncorrelated w/ Z_1



ϕ_2 orthogonal to ϕ_1 ,

$$\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j2} \cdot \phi_{j1} = 0$$

$p=2$ in 2D space, there only one possibility for ϕ_2 .
But w/ $p>2$, there are multiple ϕ_2 orthogonal to ϕ_1

To find $\phi_2(Z_2)$, solve a similar optimization problem w/ additional constraint.

maximize $\left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j2} x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\}$ subject to $\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j2}^2 = 1$ and $\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j2} \phi_{j1} = 0$.

Once we have computed the principal components, we can plot them against each other to produce low-dimensional views of the data.

each of the 50 states, # arrests per 100,000 residents for each of 3 arrester.

```
str(USArrests)
```

% pop in state living in urban area

```
## 'data.frame': 50 obs. of 4 variables:
 1 ## $ Murder : num 13.2 10 8.1 8.8 9 7.9 3.3 5.9 15.4 17.4 ...
 2 ## $ Assault : int 236 263 294 190 276 204 110 238 335 211 ...
 3 ## $ UrbanPop: int 58 48 80 50 91 78 77 72 80 60 ...
 3 ## $ Rape    : num 21.2 44.5 31 19.5 40.6 38.7 11.1 15.8 31.9 25.8 ...
```

```
pca <- prcomp(USArrests, center = TRUE, scale = TRUE) # get loadings

summary(pca) # summary
```

PVE

```
## Importance of components:
##                               PC1     PC2     PC3     PC4
## Standard deviation      1.5749 0.9949 0.59713 0.41645
## Proportion of Variance 0.6201 0.2474 0.08914 0.04336
## Cumulative Proportion  0.6201 0.8675 0.95664 1.00000
```

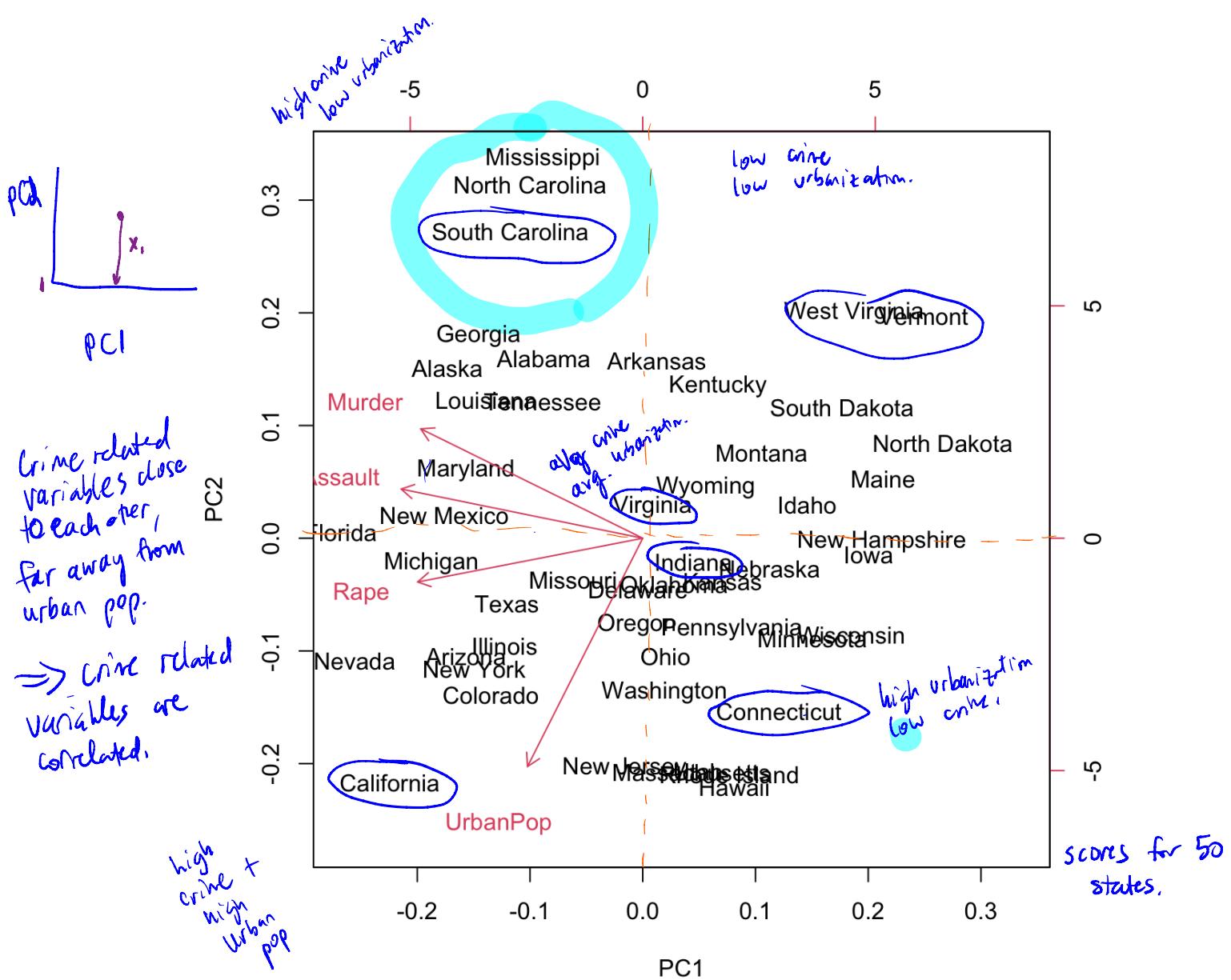
Cumulative PVE visualize 87% of variability retained.

pca\$rotation # principal components loading matrix \Rightarrow missing 13% variability

(-.58, 0.18)

	ϕ_1	ϕ_2	ϕ_3	ϕ_4
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
## Murder	-0.5358995	0.4181809	-0.3412327	0.64922780
## Assault	-0.5831836	0.1879856	-0.2681484	-0.74340748
## UrbanPop	-0.2781909	-0.8728062	-0.3780158	0.13387773
## Rape	-0.5434321	-0.1673186	0.8177779	0.08902432

```
## plot scores + directions
biplot(pca)
```



First loading places approximately equal weight on murder, assault, rape.
less weight on Urban pop.

⇒ this first component ≈ measure of rate of serious crimes

Second loading places most weight on Urban population.

⇒ 2nd component ≈ level of urbanization of a state.

2.2 Scaling Variables

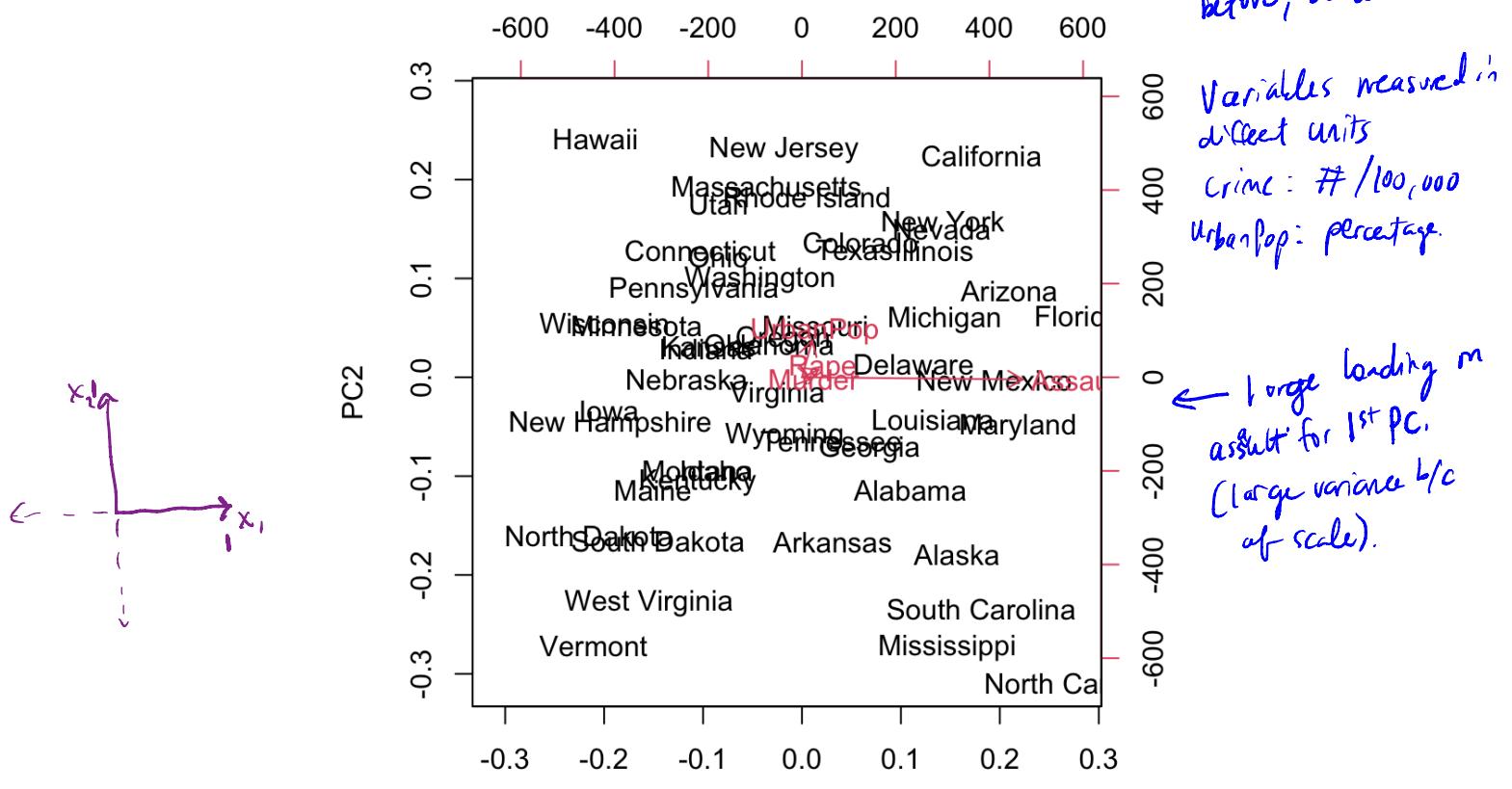
We've already talked about how when PCA is performed, the variables should be centered to have mean zero.

Also results depend on whether variables have been individually scaled.
(to have same sd).

This is in contrast to other methods we've seen before.

e.g. linear regression when multiply by \mathbf{C} , the corresponding coefficient is changed by a factor \mathbf{C} .

e.g. LASSO is scale dependent
ridge regression.



Undesirable for PCA to depend on something as arbitrary as scale \Rightarrow scale each variable to have $sd = 1$.

UNLESS: all variables are measured on same units \Rightarrow might not want to scale them.

2.3 Uniqueness

Each principal component loading vector is unique, up to a sign flip.

\Rightarrow software should result in same princ. comp. loading vectors, but sign might flip.

Signs might differ because each princ. comp. loading specifies a direction in p-space.

Flipping sign has no effect since the directions.

Similarly, the score vectors are unique up to a sign flip.

$$\text{Var}(Z) = \text{Var}(-Z)$$

Line that extends in either direction.

2.4 Proportion of Variance Explained

We have seen using the USArrests data that we can summarize 50 observations in 4 dimensions using just the first two principal component score vectors and the first two principal component vectors.

Question:

How much of the information in a given data set is lost by projecting observations onto first 2 princ. comp?

i.e., how much of variability is not contained in the first 2 princ. comp?

More generally, we are interested in knowing the proportion of variance explained (PVE) by each principal component.

$$\text{Total Variance} : \sum_{j=1}^p \text{Var}(X_{ij}) = \sum_{j=1}^p \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij}^2$$

$$\text{Variance explained by } m^{\text{th}} \text{ Prin. Comp.} : \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_{im}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{im} X_{ij} \right)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{PVE by } m^{\text{th}} \text{ Prin. Comp.} : \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{im} X_{ij} \right)^2}{\sum_{j=1}^p \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij}^2} \quad (\text{positive quantity}).$$

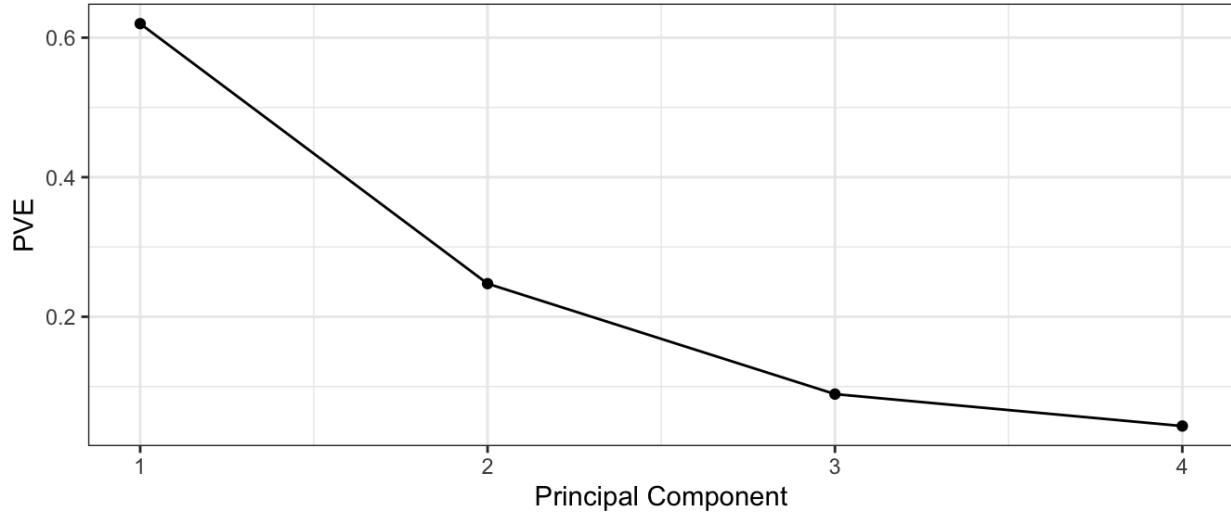
Cumulative PVE for 1st m components: sum PVE first M.

2.5 How Many Principal Components to Use

In general, a $n \times p$ matrix \mathbf{X} has $\min(n - 1, p)$ distinct principal components.

Rather, we would like to just use the first few principal components in order to visualize or interpret the data.

We typically decide on the number of principal components required by examining a *scree plot*.



2.6 Other Uses for Principal Components

We've seen previously that we can perform regression using the principal component score vectors as features for dimension reduction.

Many statistical techniques can be easily adapted to use the $n \times M$ matrix whose columns are the first $M << p$ principal components.

This can lead to *less noisy* results.