# Machine learning for visualization

**CS424: Visualization & Visual Analytics** 

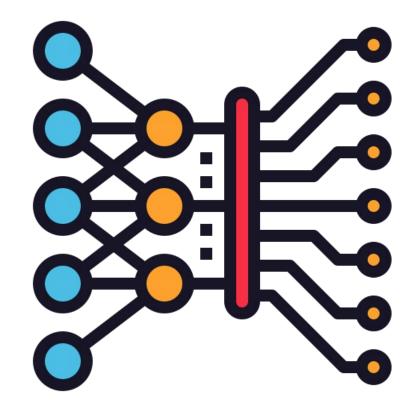
**Fabio Miranda** 

https://fmiranda.me

Slides based on Claudio Silva's ml+vis course



# Machine learning is pervasive.



### Machine learning in many domains



Banks are using tabular data to identify fraud or calculate loan risk.



Machine translation has improved remarkably over the past few years.



Healthcare providers look to interpretable models to guide decisions.

### Understanding the gap

- Model understanding has yet to catch up to model performance improvements.
- Visualization is key to improve model understanding to a wide range of audiences.
- There are many rich domains to apply VisML techniques, including industry and research.

### Where does visualization fit in?



Many tasks in machine learning inevitably involve some form of visualization.



In other cases, visualization is a byproduct of the process.



We have also seen an increase in the number of interactive visualization systems, designed with machine learning as a critical component.

#### **Visual Analytics in Deep Learning**

#### Interrogative Survey Overview

#### §4 WHY

Why would one want to use visualization in deep learning?

Interpretability & Explainability
Debugging & Improving Models
Comparing & Selecting Models
Teaching Deep Learning Concepts

#### §6 WHAT

What data, features, and relationships in deep learning can be visualized?

Computational Graph & Network Architecture Learned Model Parameters Individual Computational Units Neurons In High-dimensional Space Aggregated Information



When in the deep learning process is visualization used?

During Training
After Training











Who would use and benefit from visualizing deep learning?

Model Developers & Builders Model Users Non-experts

#### §7 HOW

How can we visualize deep learning data, features, and relationships?

Node-link Diagrams for Network Architecture
Dimensionality Reduction & Scatter Plots
Line Charts for Temporal Metrics
Instance-based Analysis & Exploration
Interactive Experimentation
Algorithms for Attribution & Feature Visualization



Where has deep learning visualization been used?

Application Domains & Models A Vibrant Research Community

[Hohman et al., 2018]



- Input data may have thousands or millions of dimensions
  - E.g., text, images, videos, ...
- Dimensionality reduction aims to represent data with fewer dimensions.
  - Easier learning: fewer parameters.
  - Discover "intrinsic dimensionality" of data.
    - High dimensional data that is truly lower dimensional.
    - Noise reduction.
  - Visualization: show high-dimensional data in a visual space (2D or 3D).
    - How are the points spread?
    - Are there well defined groups of similar instances?

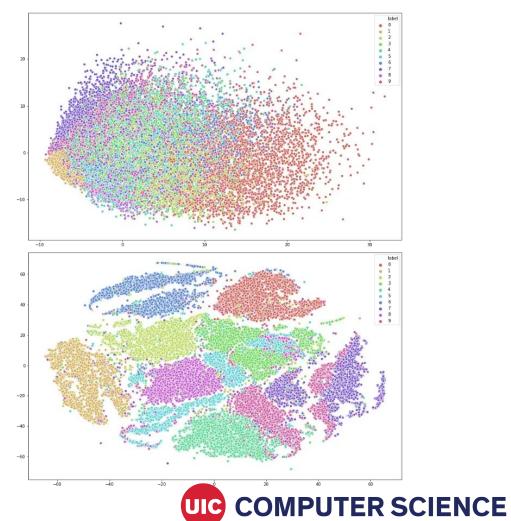


Technique	Taxonomy												
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LDA [50]			~			·	·					~	$O(np^2+p^3)$
Classical MDS [155]	~		~	•		·	•			•	•		$O(n^3)$
Kruskal [79]	~	~	~	•			•			•		•	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
NLM [132]	~		~	•			•			•		•	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
MCA [17]			•		~								$O(n^3)$
Smacof [42]	~	~	~	•			•					•	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
SOM [126]			~									~	$O(l^2np+l^2)$
FastMap [48]	~		~	•			•					•	O(n)
Chalmers [32]	~		~	•			•	•		•	0	~	O(in)
GTM [22]			~									•	$O((lnp)^3 + m^3)$
Pekalska [120]	~		~	•		V	•						$O(r^3+rn)$
CCA [43]	~		~	•			•					~	$O(l^2)$
LLE [129]	~		~	•			•		~			•	$O(n^3)$
Isomap [153]	~		~	~			•					•	O(n <sup>3</sup> )
Lapl. Eigenmaps [15]	~		~	~			•		~			•	O(n <sup>3</sup> )
Force-Directed [152]	~		~				•	•				~	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
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MVU [169]	~		~	•			•		~			•	$O(n^3)$
LSP [117]	~		~	~			•	•	V	V	0		$O(n^3)$
SNE [64]	~		~	•			•	•		0		•	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
PLMP [118]			~			•	•	•	~	~	0		$O(n^3)$
LAMP [73]			~				•	•	~	~	~	~	O(pn)
RBF-MP [2]	~		~	•			•			~	0	•	$O(r^3+n)$
LoCH [47]	~		~	•			•		~	~		~	$O(n\sqrt(n))$
ClassiMap [90]	~		~	•			~					•	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
Kelp [13]	~		~	•		•	•		~	V	0	•	$O(r^3)$

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GTM [22]			~		PC	<b>A</b> [65]	see [181] for v	variants; iPCA [71]	], PCP [182]		Many		
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SNE [64]	~		~	•	LSI	? [117]	PLP [115], E-	LSP [33], Hipp [1	16]	٥		•	O(in <sup>2</sup> )
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#### **Image embeddings**



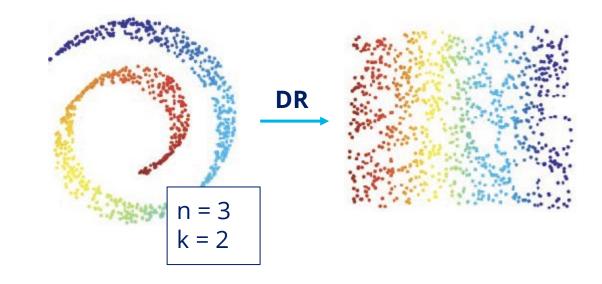






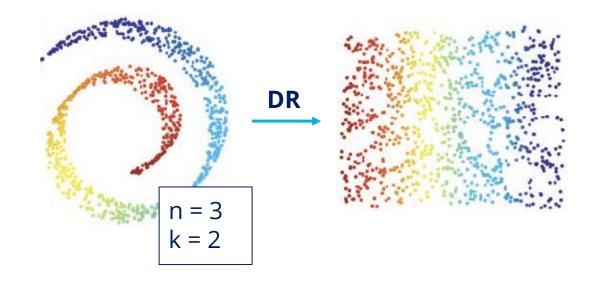
 High-dimensional data typically has an intrinsic dimension smaller than the space in which it is embedded.

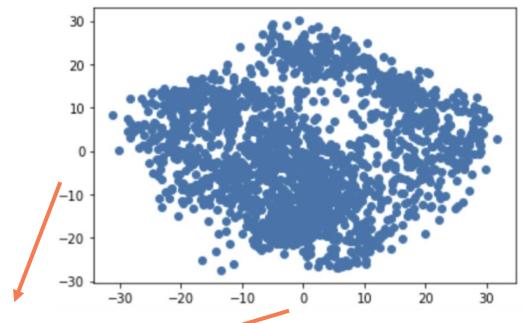
DR comprises a category of unsupervised methods that aim to capture, to a certain extent, the intrinsic dimension of the data.



 High-dimensional data typically has an intrinsic dimension smaller than the space in which it is embedded.

The goal is to perform the dimensionality reduction preserving some similarity information among data instances.





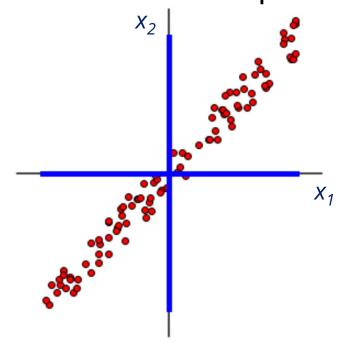
It is not possible to interpret the meaning of the axes.

Dimensionality reduction techniques embed data in a latent space where the point coordinates (axes) do not have a semantic meaning.

# $\Omega o \mathbb{R}^p$

- Dimensionality reduction is a mapping between two spaces.
- For visualization purposes, usually p = 2 or p = 3.
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA).
- Multidimensional Scaling (MDS).
- t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE).
- Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP).
- Local Affine Multidimensional Projection (LAMP).

 Given data matrix X, PCA finds a new basis to represent the data so that the coordinates of the points in the new basis are uncorrelated.



Given a dataset of n points  $a_1, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

- d = 1
  - Mean

• 
$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

Variance

• 
$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i - \mu) \in \mathbb{R}$$

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- *d* ≥ 2
  - Mean

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Covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i - \mu) (a_i - \mu)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

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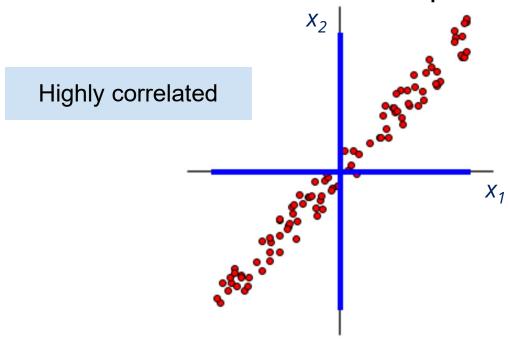
$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Covariance matrix

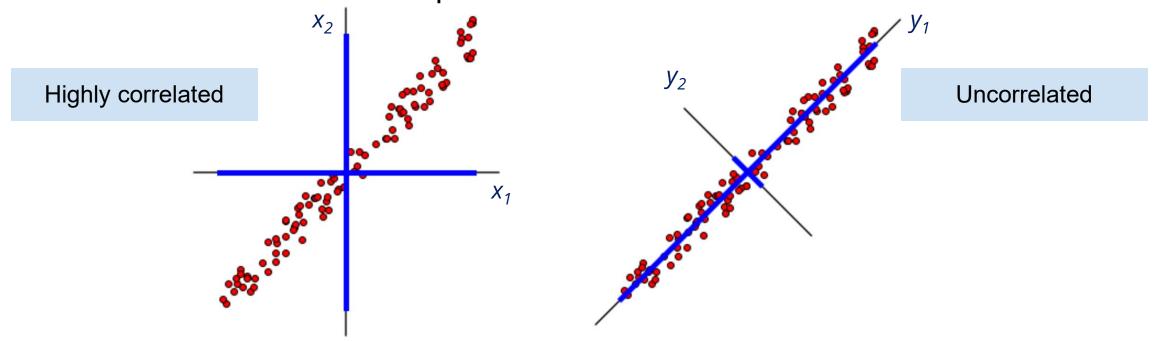
$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i - \mu) (a_i - \mu)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i a_i^T \quad if \quad \mu = 0$$

• Given data matrix **X**, PCA finds a new basis to represent the data so that the coordinates of the points in the new basis are uncorrelated.



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- Given a dataset of n points  $a_1, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , where d is large.
- Goal: represent this dataset in lower dimension, i.e., find  $a_1, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}^k$  where  $k \ll d$ .
- Assume that the dataset is centered:

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$$\mathbf{S} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i a_i^T = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$$

- Given data matrix X, PCA finds a new basis to represent the data so that the coordinates of the points in the new basis are uncorrelated.
- Therefore, the goal is to find a change of basis matrix **P** such that:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{X} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{D}$$

Coordinate system in which the variables are uncorrelated.

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Covariance matrix (new coordinates)

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- Therefore, the goal is to find a change of basis matrix **P** such that:

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$$\mathbf{YY}^{\mathrm{T}} = (\mathbf{PX})(\mathbf{PX})^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{PXX}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{T}}$$

Covariance matrix (old coordinates)

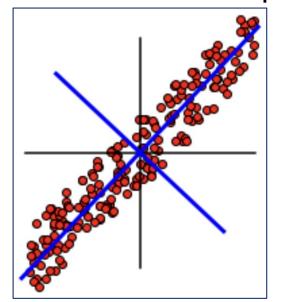
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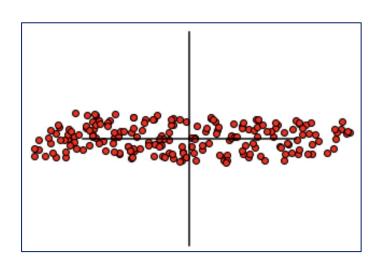
$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{PX} \Rightarrow \mathbf{YY}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{D}$$

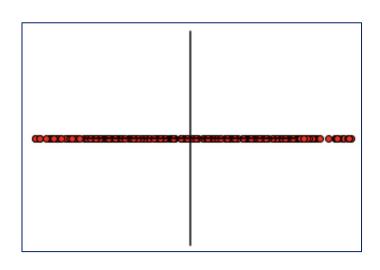
$$\mathbf{YY}^{\mathrm{T}} = (\mathbf{PX})(\mathbf{PX})^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{PXX}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{P}^{\mathrm{T}}$$

From the Spectral Theorem we conclude that rows of P must be the eigenvectors of  $XX^T$ . Moreover, the diagonal elements in D are the eigenvalues of  $XX^T$ . In other words, the eigenvalues of  $XX^T$  are the variances of each coordinate.

 Typically, the variance associated to certain principal components are close to zero, meaning that the coordinate associated to those directions corresponds to noise and can be disregarded.





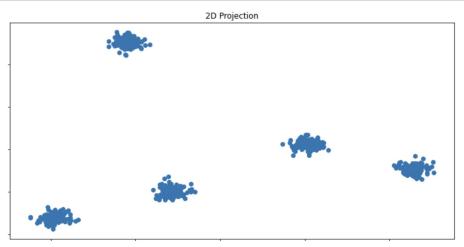


```
from sklearn.decomposition import PCA

data_pca=PCA(svd_solver='full')  # svd_solver='full' computes all the principal directions
data_transformed = data_pca.fit(X) # Computes the PC basis

var = data_transformed.explained_variance_
expl_var = data_transformed.explained_variance_ratio_

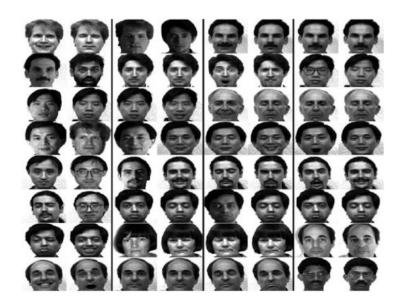
Y = np.dot(data_transformed.components_[:2,:],X.T) # projects original data onto the 2 main PC
```

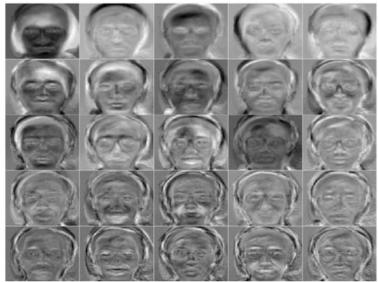


### Eigenfaces [Turk, Pentland '91]

• Input images:

Principal components:





# Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

Given the pairwise distance between data points

$$\begin{bmatrix} d_{12} & d_{13} & d_{14} & \cdots & d_{1n} \\ & d_{23} & d_{24} & \cdots & d_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & d_{(n-1)n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Find an Euclidian embedding with total minimal distortion:

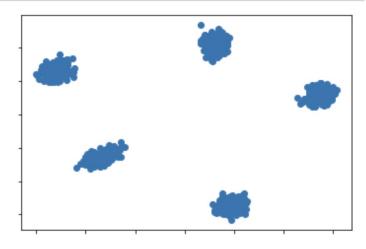
$$\min_{Y_i \in \mathbb{R}^k} \sum_{i,j} (\|Y_i - Y_j\|^2 - d_{ij}^2)^2$$

### Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

```
from sklearn.manifold import MDS
from sklearn.metrics.pairwise import euclidean_distances

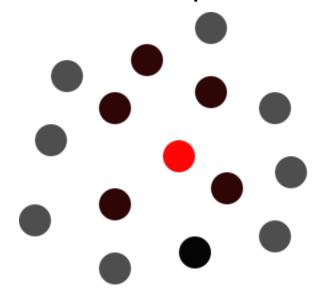
D = euclidean_distances(X) # pairwise distance matrix

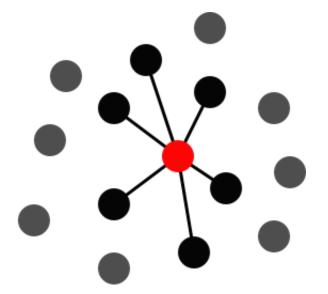
embedding = MDS(n_components=2, dissimilarity='precomputed') # 2D embedding from D
Y = embedding.fit_transform(D) # computes the embedding
```



- tSNE: tool for dimensionality reduction of high-dimensional data.
- Main idea:
  - Similarity between data points in the high-dimensional space treated as distribution P.
  - Similarity between data points in the low-dimensional space Q.
  - Achieve a representation (embedding) in the low dimension where Q faithfully represents P.
- Steps:
  - 1. Computation of similarities  $(O(n^2))$ .
  - Minimization of cost function (divergence between P and Q).

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$$p_{j|i} = \frac{\exp\left(-\|x_i - x_j\|^2 / 2\sigma_i^2\right)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp\left(-\|x_i - x_k\|^2 / 2\sigma_i^2\right)}$$

$$p_{ij} = \frac{p_{j|i} + p_{i|j}}{2n} \qquad q_{ij} = \frac{\left(1 + \|y_i - y_j\|^2\right)^{-1}}{\sum_{k \neq l} \left(1 + \|y_k - y_l\|^2\right)^{-1}}$$

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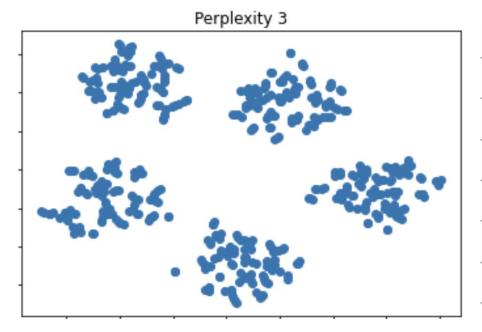
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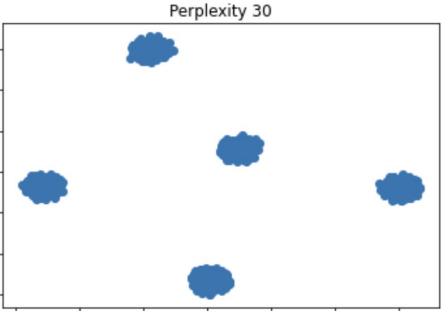
$$\operatorname{arg} \min_{y_i \in \mathbb{R}^k} \sum_{i,j} p_{ij} \log \frac{p_{ij}}{q_{ij}}$$

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```
from sklearn.manifold import TSNE

t_sne = TSNE(n_components=2, perplexity=3)
Y = t_sne.fit_transform(X)|
```

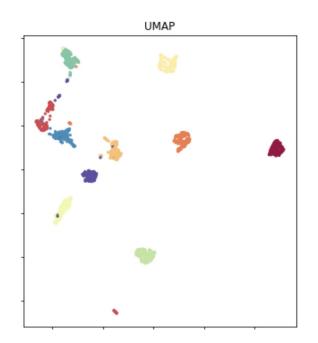


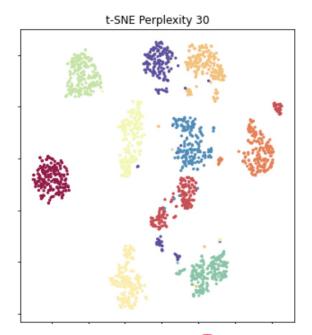


#### **UMAP**

```
conda install -c conda-forge umap-learn
```

```
import umap
umap_r = umap.UMAP()
Y = umap_r.fit_transform(X)
```





#### What about interactivity?

- Dimensionality reduction methods discussed previously are unsupervised, so users can only tune hyperparameters.
- What if users want to have some control where certain points must be in the visual space while preserving their neighborhood?

#### What about interactivity?

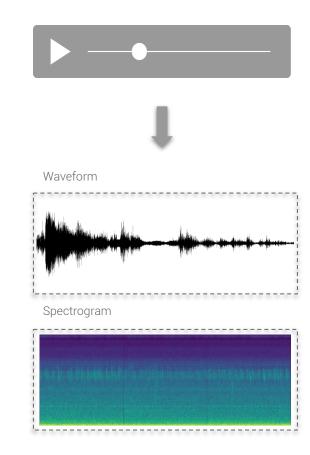
- Dimensionality reduction methods discussed previously are unsupervised, so users can only tune hyperparameters.
- What if users want to have some control where certain points must be in the visual space while preserving their neighborhood?
- Interactive dimensionality reduction methods are designed to enable users with some control over the mapping.

# Audio data

#### Urban audio data exploration

### Audio recordings are consumed in a serial way by us. To understand events happening in a 10-second audio snippet, users must listen through the entire recording.

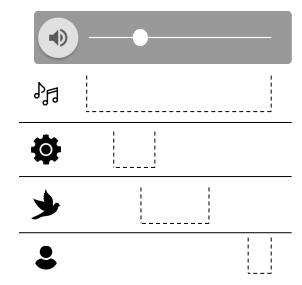
 Although the visualization of specific frequencies or loudness can help identify interest periods of the recording, it is still difficult to build a semantic understanding of the recording.



#### Urban audio data exploration

## Audio data

- Unlike images, where visual objects are opaque, sound objects are conceptually transparent, meaning that multiple objects (sound sources) can have energy at the same frequency.
- At any given instant in time, a sound recording might have a mixture of background (birds, dog barks) and foreground sounds (party, sirens).

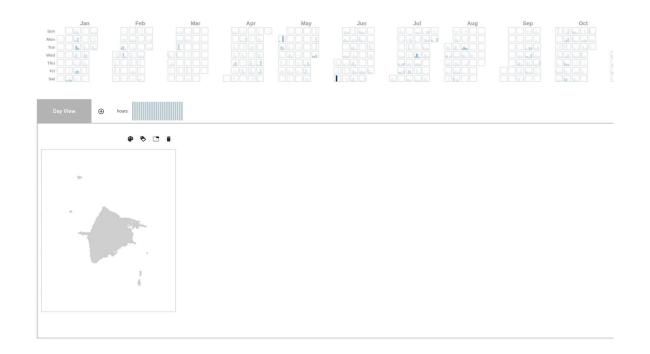


#### **Urban Rhapsody: Creating prototypes**

Binary Classification Model

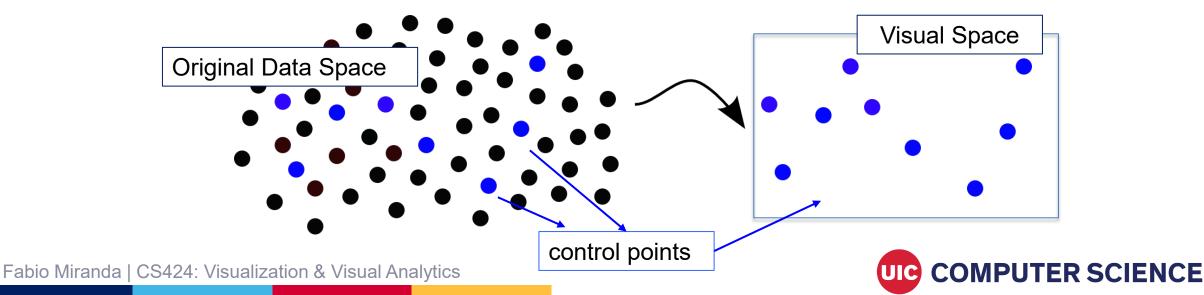


Representatives



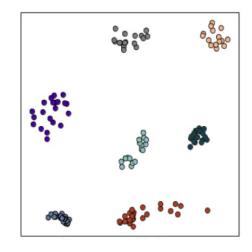
#### Interactive dimensionality reduction

- There are several interactive dimensionality reduction methods:
  - Least Squares Projection (LSP).
  - Piecewise Laplacian Projection (PLP)
  - Local Affine Multidimensional Projection (LAMP)



#### LAMP

#### Control points



Tuning the hyperparameter  $\,\sigma\,$ 

