FYS-2021 Machine Learning

Dimensionality reduction

Slides: Stine Hansen

Guest Lecture: Elisabeth Wetzer



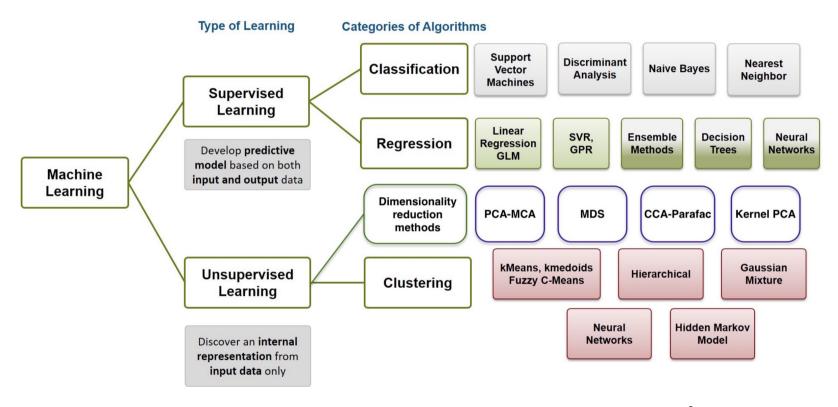
Roadmap

- 1. Dimensionality reduction: what and why
- 2. Inner product as similarity measure
- 3. Multidimensional scaling (from samples)
- 4. Practical example

Break

- 5. Multidimensional scaling (from distances)
- 6. Practical examples
- 7. Forward selection
- 8. Practical example

Machine Learning Taxonomy

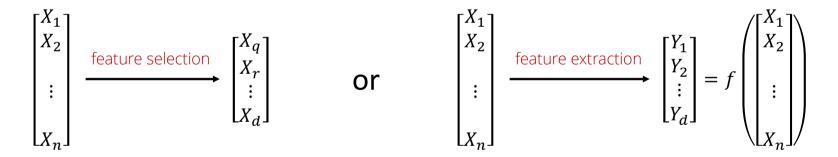


Source:

https://jchiquet.github.io/ds4m/Overview DimensionReduction.pdf

Dimensionality reduction

Given a set of n features, the goal in dimensionality reduction is to reduce the number of features to d features (d < n), while retaining a meaningful representation of the data.

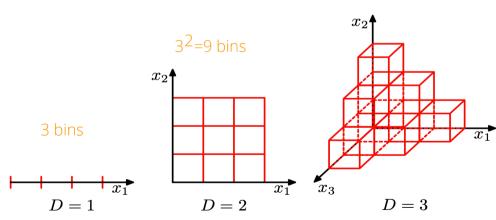


Selects a subset of important features

Extracts a set of new features as a function of the original features

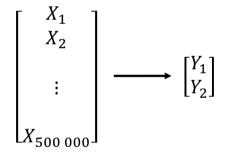
Why dimensionality reduction?

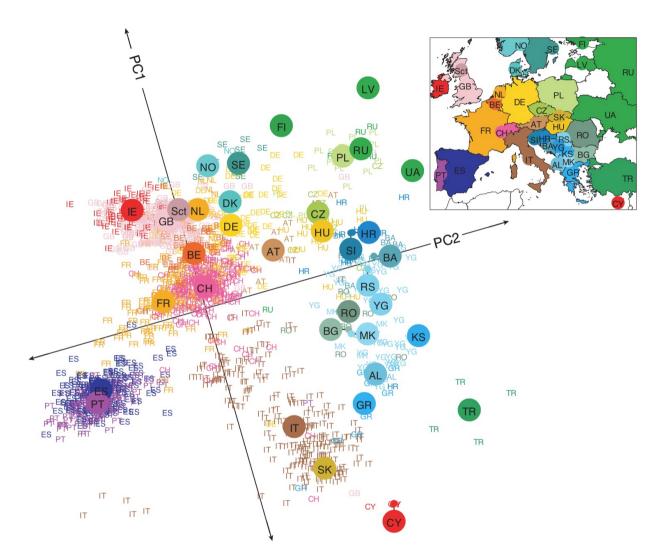
- Compression: Reduce computational complexity/memory usage
- Visualization: Enable visualization of high-dimensional data
- "Curse of dimensionality"



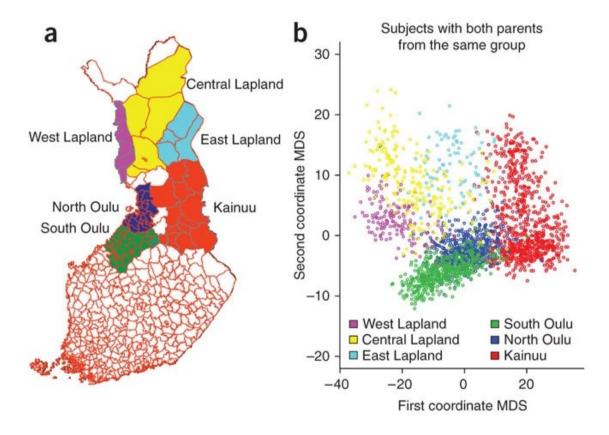
 $3^3 = 27 \text{ bins}$

example: DNA





example: DNA



Dimensionality reduction methods

Feature extraction

- Principal component analysis (PCA)
- Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)
- Multidimensional scaling (MDS)
- t-distributed stochastic neighborhood embedding (t-SNE)
- Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP)

•

Feature selection

- Forward selection
- Backward elimination
- Variance threshold
- L1 regularization

• ..

Dimensionality reduction methods

Feature extraction

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Will give abstract features which may be non-linear combination of the original features

Feature selection

- Forward selection
- Backward elimination
- Variance threshold
- L1 regularization

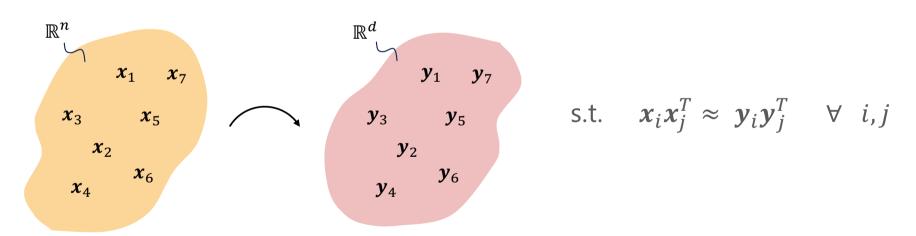
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Selects a suitable subset of existing features

MDS: Multi-Dimensional Scaling

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_d \end{bmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix}$$

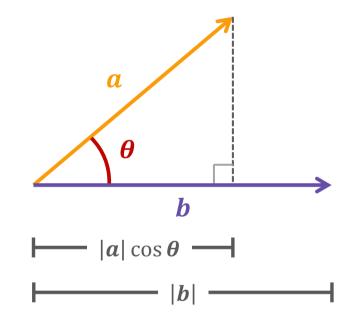
is an unsupervised feature extraction method that aims to *preserve inner products*.



Inner product: geometric interpretation

measure of the *similarity* between vectors

$$ab^{T} = \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_{i}b_{i}$$
$$= |a||b|\cos(\theta)$$





$$ab^T = \frac{3}{3} \cdot 3 \cos \frac{5\pi}{6} \approx -7.8$$



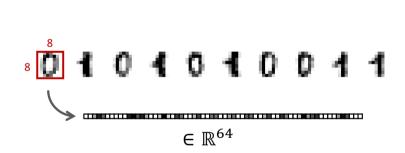
$$ab^T = 3 \cdot 3 \cos \frac{\pi}{12} \approx 8.7$$

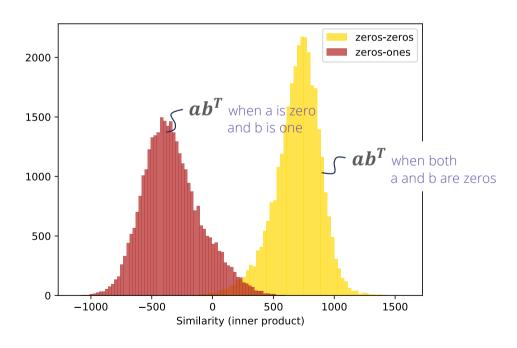


$$ab^{T} = \frac{3}{3} \cdot 3 \cos \frac{5\pi}{6} \approx -7.8$$
 $ab^{T} = \frac{3}{3} \cdot 3 \cos \frac{\pi}{12} \approx 8.7$ $ab^{T} = \frac{3}{3} \cdot 4 \cos \frac{\pi}{12} \approx 11.6$

example: inner product as similarity measure

vectorize images (size 8x8) of zeros and ones from the digits dataset¹ and compute inner products



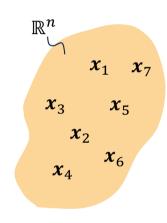


¹ https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.datasets.load_digits.html

The Gram matrix

Let

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x^1 & \to \\ x^2 & \to \\ \vdots & & \\ x^N & \to \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n} \quad \text{the rows in X are the samples}$$
 (feature vectors of length n)



Then

$$\boldsymbol{B} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{X}^T = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{x}^1(\boldsymbol{x}^1)^T & \cdots & \boldsymbol{x}^1(\boldsymbol{x}^N)^T \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{x}^N(\boldsymbol{x}^1)^T & \cdots & \boldsymbol{x}^N(\boldsymbol{x}^N)^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N} \quad \text{element ij in B is the inner product between } \boldsymbol{x}_i \text{ and } \boldsymbol{x}_j$$

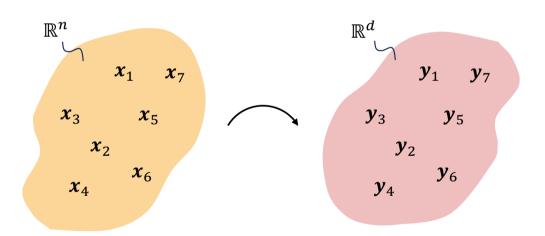
is called the Gram matrix/inner product matrix and contains all possible inner products between the samples.

MDS: preserving inner products (similarities)

Gram matrix of Low dim. samples

high dim. samples

we want to find $y^1, y^2, ..., y^N \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $YY^T \approx XX^T$



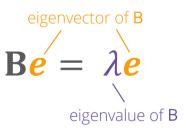
Properties of the Gram matrix

The Gram matrix $\mathbf{B} = XX^T$ is:

- 1. Real all elements are real numbers
- 2. Symmetric: $\mathbf{B}^T = \mathbf{B}$ remember: $(A \cdot B)^T = B^T A^T$

Which means that:

- 1. The eigenvalues of **B** are real
- 2. The eigenvectors of **B** are orthonormal



Eigen-decomposition of the Gram matrix

Can rewrite the Gram matrix as:

$$B = E^{T} \Lambda E = E^{T} \Lambda^{1/2} \Lambda^{1/2} E$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{1} & e^{2} & e^{N} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda^{1} & \lambda^{2} \\ e^{2} & \rightarrow \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ e^{N} & \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^{1}} & \sqrt{\lambda^{2}} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ e^{N} & \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^{1}} & \sqrt{\lambda^{2}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \sqrt{\lambda^{N}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^{1}} & \sqrt{\lambda^{2}} \\ \ddots & \sqrt{\lambda^{N}} \end{bmatrix}$$

MDS: Putting it together

Given our original samples $x^1, x^2, ..., x^N \in \mathbb{R}^n$ MDS aims to find a lower dimensional representation of our data $y^1, y^2, ..., y^N \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (d < n) while preserving the inner products (similarities) between samples, $YY^T \approx XX^T$.

Have that

$$XX^T = \mathbf{B} = (E^T \Lambda^{1/2})(\Lambda^{1/2}E) = (E^T \Lambda^{1/2})(E^T \Lambda^{1/2})^T$$

 $(A \cdot B)^T = B^T A^T$

If we now let $Y = E^T \Lambda^{1/2}$, then $XX^T = YY^T$! Y as expression of eigenvectors and eigenvalues of XX^T

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e^1} & \mathbf{e^2} & \mathbf{e^N} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \cdots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^1} \\ \sqrt{\lambda^2} \\ \ddots & \sqrt{\lambda^N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^1} \mathbf{e^1} & \sqrt{\lambda^2} \mathbf{e^2} & \sqrt{\lambda^N} \mathbf{e^N} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \cdots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$$
remember: we wanted to reduce the dimensionality to d (d

MDS: Putting it together

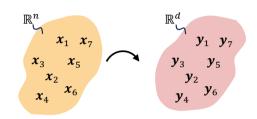
To obtain d dimensional representations for $y^1, y^2, ..., y^N$ such that YY^T is as close as possible to XX^T , we can choose to set $Y = E_d^T \Lambda_d^{1/2}$, where E_d^T is the matrix of eigenvectors corresponding to the d largest eigenvalues and $\Lambda_d^{1/2}$ is the diagonal matrix with the d largest eigenvalues.

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}^1 & \mathbf{e}^2 & \mathbf{e}^d \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \cdots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^1} \\ \sqrt{\lambda^2} \\ \ddots \\ \sqrt{\lambda^d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda^1} \mathbf{e}^1 \sqrt{\lambda^2} \mathbf{e}^2 & \sqrt{\lambda^d} \mathbf{e}^d \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \cdots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$$

$$N \times d \qquad d \times d$$

MDS: algorithm

Given our original samples $x^1, x^2, ..., x^N \in \mathbb{R}^n$ MDS aims to find a lower dimensional representation of our data $y^1, y^2, ..., y^N \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (d < n) while preserving the inner products (similarities) between samples, $YY^T \approx XX^T$.



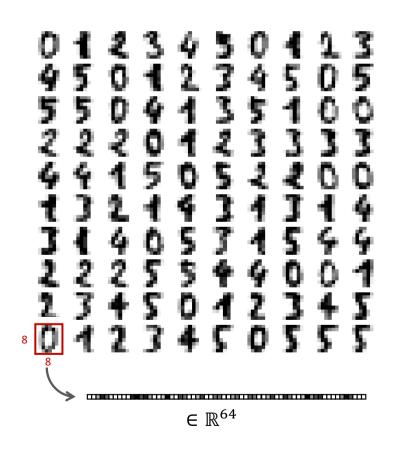
eigenvalues, eigenvectors = np.linalg.eig(B)

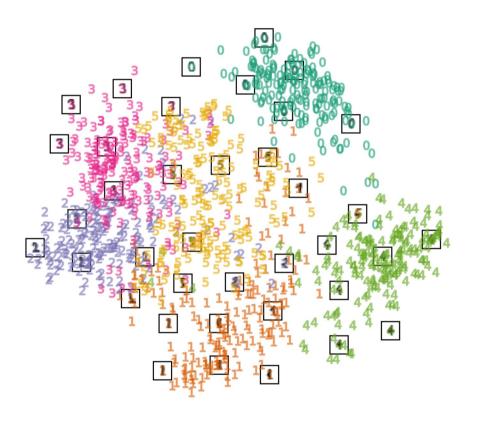
column eigenvectors[:,i] is the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue eigenvalues[i]

 $[\lambda^1, \lambda^2, \dots, \lambda^N]$

- 1. Compute the Gram matrix $\mathbf{B} = XX^T$
- 2. Compute eigenvectors and eigenvalues of B
- 3. Sort eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- 4. Construct a matrix Λ_d with the d largest eigenvalues on the diagonal
- 5. Construct a matrix \mathbf{E}_d^T where the columns are the eigenvectors corresponding to the d largest eigenvalues
- 6. Obtain $\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, ..., \mathbf{y}^N$ as the rows of $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{E}_d^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_d^{1/2}$

example: image dataset





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Gram matrix from pairwise distances

can **not** compute inner products directly

What if we don't have access to the original samples $x^1, x^2, ..., x^N \in \mathbb{R}^n$, but only to the matrix $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ containing all squared pairwise distances $d_{ij} = \|\mathbf{x}^i - \mathbf{x}^j\|^2$?

$$\mathbf{Z}_{1} \quad \mathbf{X}_{7} \quad \mathbf{X}_{5} \quad \mathbf{Z}_{6}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & d_{12} & d_{13} & d_{14} & d_{15} & d_{16} & d_{17} \\
0 & d_{23} & d_{24} & d_{25} & d_{26} & d_{27} \\
0 & d_{34} & d_{35} & d_{36} & d_{37} \\
0 & d_{45} & d_{46} & d_{47} \\
0 & d_{56} & d_{57} \\
0 & 0 & d_{67} \\
0
\end{bmatrix}$$

We can compute the Gram matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ consistent with these distances as a function of elements in \mathbf{D} !

$$B=XX^T=-rac{1}{2}CDC^T$$
 assumption: the data is centered around the origin ("double-centering")

where $C = I - \frac{1}{N} J_N$, and I is the identity matrix and J_N is an NxN matrix of all ones. Thus use MDS to obtain a set of samples $y^1, y^2, ..., y^N \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $YY^T \approx XX^T$.

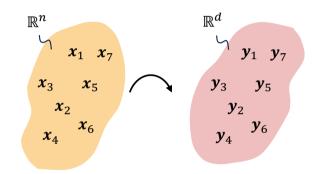
MDS: algorithm

- 1. If samples X are available: Compute the Gram matrix $\mathbf{B} = XX^T$
 - else if only pairwise distances **D** are available: Compute the Gram matrix $\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{C}^T$

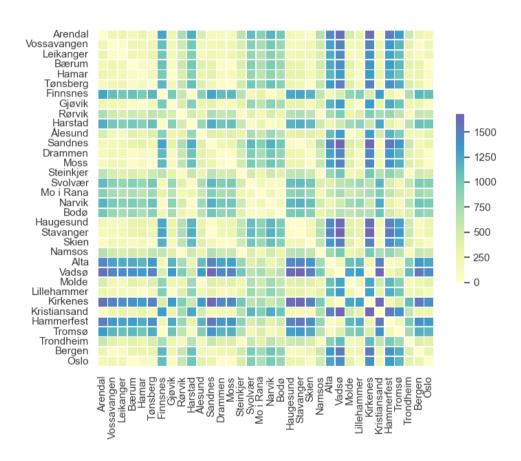


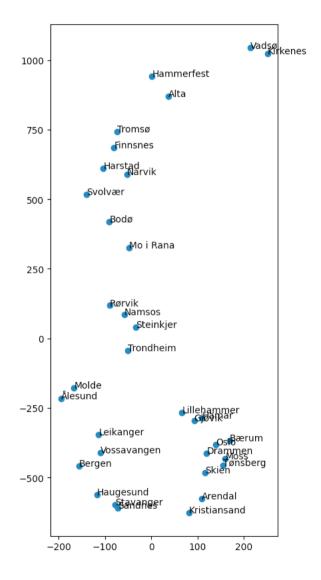


- 4. Construct a matrix Λ_d with the d largest eigenvalues on the diagonal
- 5. Construct a matrix \mathbf{E}_d^T where the columns are the eigenvectors corresponding to the d largest eigenvalues
- 6. Obtain $\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, ..., \mathbf{y}^N$ as the rows of $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{E}_d^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_d^{1/2}$



example: city distances



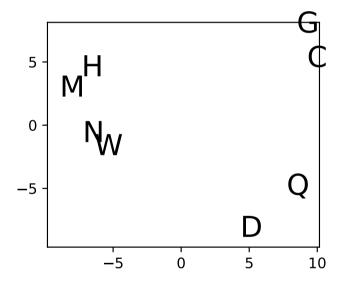


example: letter recognition

Letter	С	D	G	Н	M	N	Q	W
C	_				of times	õ		
D	5	_		and "C nfused	" were			
G	12	2	_	nasca				
Н	2	4	3	_				
M	2	3	2	19	_			
N	2	4	1	18	16	_		
Q	9	20	9	1	2	8	_	
W	1	5	2	5	18	13	4	_

...these numbers represent similarities

$$d_{ij} = \begin{cases} c - sim_{ij}, & if \ i \neq j \\ 0, & if \ i = j \end{cases}$$



MDS can work with pairwise distances – they do **not** have to be metrics! Can be (dis-)similiarities!

Drawback of feature extraction

The new features are some combination of the original features, but what do they represent?

Depending on application, interpretability can be important!

Feature selection: Selects a subset of the original features.

the features still have an interpretation!

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{feature extraction}} \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_d \end{bmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_d \end{bmatrix}$$
 feature selection
$$\begin{bmatrix} X_q \\ X_r \\ \vdots \\ X_d \end{bmatrix}$$

Feature types

- 1. Relevant features: important for the predictive task weight [kg], blood pressure, age, ...
- 2. Irrelevant features: unimportant for the predictive task favorite movie
- 3. Redundant features: become irrelevant in the presence of other features weight [g]

Feature selection algorithms aim to find the relevant features!

Dimensionality reduction methods

Feature extraction

- Principal component analysis (PCA)
- Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)
- Multidimensional scaling (MDS)
- t-distributed stochastic neighborhood embedding (t-SNE)
- Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP)

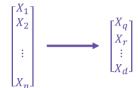
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Feature selection

- Forward selection
- Backward elimination
- Variance threshold
- L1 regularization

• ..

Forward selection



is a supervised feature selection method that aims to find the **best subset of features**.

Best subset: the least number of features that most contribute to accuracy

forward selection is done in the context of a model and a prediction task!

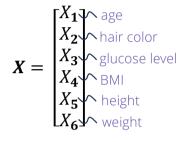
Forward selection: algorithm

n number of features: $x_1^i, x_2^i, ..., x_n^i$

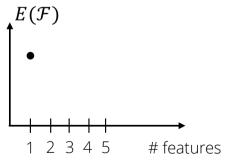
Aim: Given a model f and a labeled dataset $\{x^i, y^i\}_{i=1}^N$, where $x^i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, select the set of features \mathcal{F} that "work best" together.

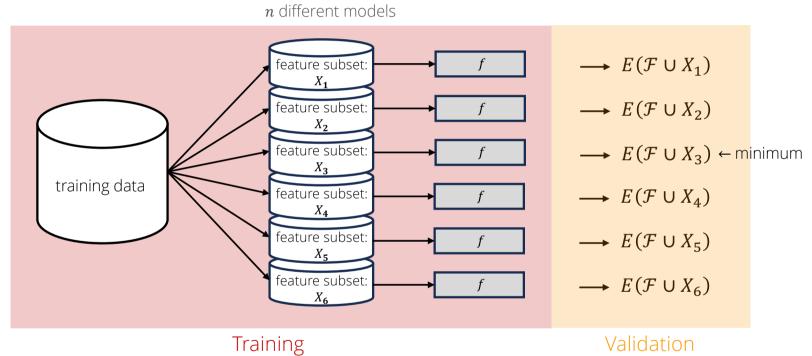
- 0. Shuffle the data and split into training, validation, and test
- 1. Init: $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$ starting with an empty set
- 2. Repeat:
 - for each feature $x_i \notin \mathcal{F}$, train f on the set of features $\mathcal{F} \cup x_i$ (training data)
 - find the feature yielding the lowest validation error: $j = \arg\min_{i} E(\mathcal{F} \cup x_i)$
 - add x_i to \mathcal{F} if $E(\mathcal{F} \cup x_i) < E(\mathcal{F})$

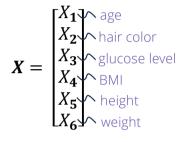
Until: $E(\mathcal{F} \cup x_j) \geq E(\mathcal{F})$ stop when adding a feature does not decrease the validation error



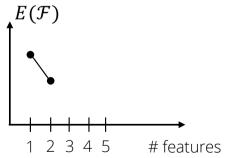
$$\mathcal{F} = \{X_3\}$$

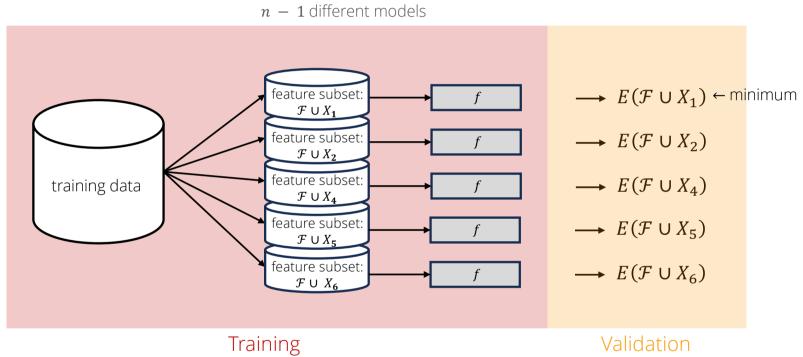


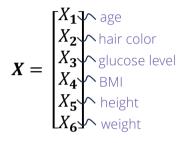




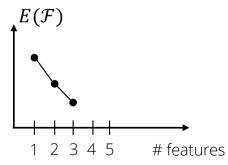
$$\mathcal{F} = \{X_3, X_1\}$$

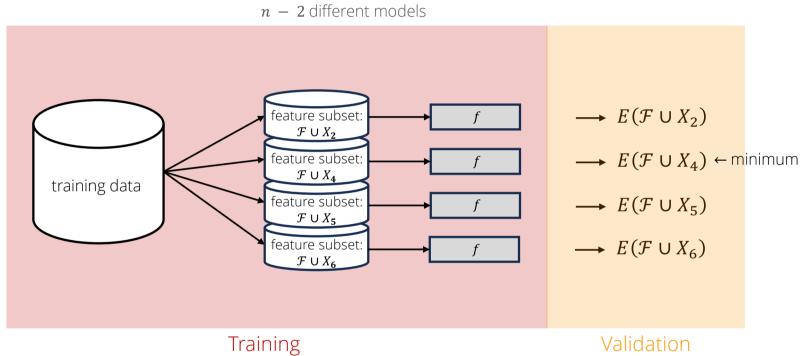


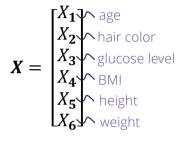




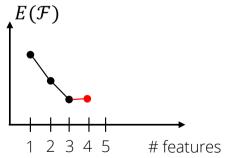
$$\mathcal{F} = \{X_3, X_1, X_4\}$$

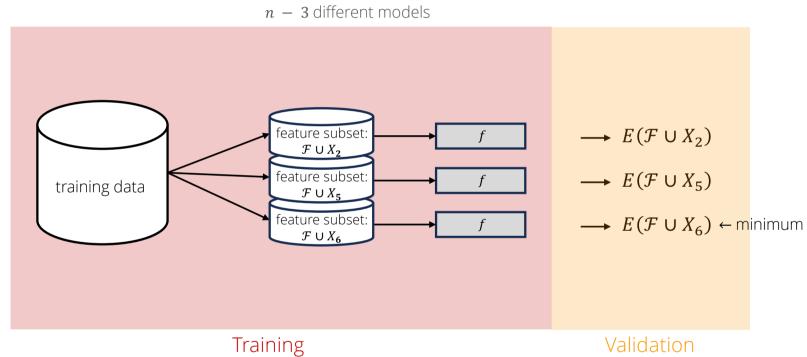






$$\mathcal{F} = \{X_3, X_1, X_4\}$$





Forward selection: remarks

- To go from n to d features, we need to train n+(n-1)+(n-2)+...+(n-d) models, which might become costly
- The selected features depend heavily on the model and the prediction task
- The selected features might depend on the train/validation split

improve robustness through cross validation!

Finding the optimal subset is **not** guaranteed (context/dependencies)

Conclusion

- Visited two methods for dimensionality reduction:
 - Unsupervised feature extraction method: Multidimensional scaling
 - Supervised feature **selection** method: Forward selection
- MDS from high dimensional data (samples)
- MDS from pairwise distances
- Forward selection (in the context of a model)
- Choice of method depends on the data and the problem setting