

Dimensionality Reduction



Intro

- The Curse of Dimensionality
 - Distances between points grow very fast
 - Analogy: Finding penny on a line, a football field, in a building
- Ways to reduce dimensionality
 - Feature Subset Selection
 - $O(2^n)$ if we try all
 - Forward selection – add feature that decreases the error the most
 - Backward selection – remove feature that decreases the error the most (or increases it only slightly)
 - But selection is greedy not necessarily optimal
 - Feature Extraction
 - PCA
 - LDA
 - FA
 - MDS

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

What It Does

- Comes up with a new coordinate system
- Performs a rotation of your dataset that decorrelates the features
- Allows you to reduce the dimensionality of your data

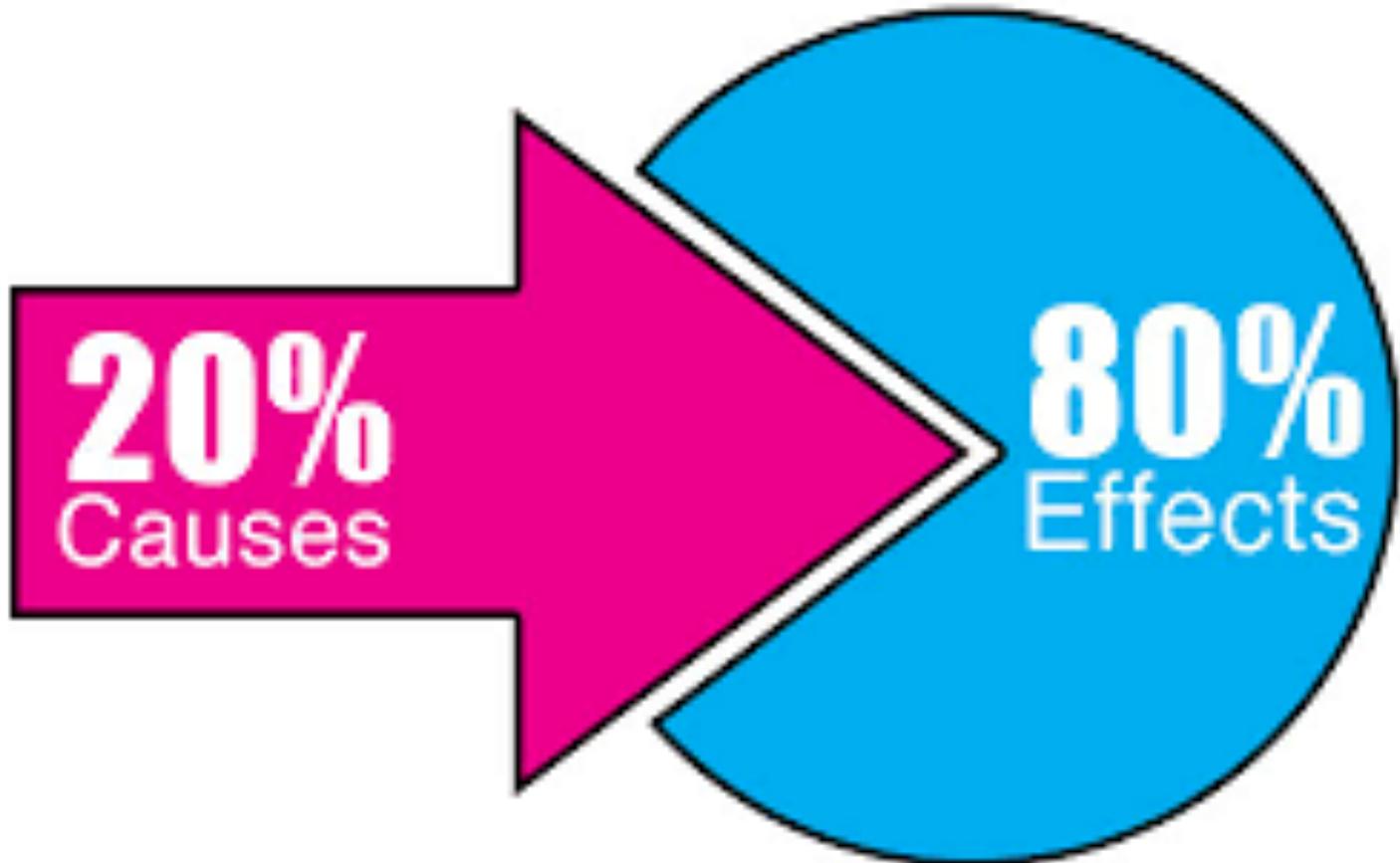
Uses

- Dimensionality reduction
- Pattern recognition (e.g. Eigenfaces)

Cinematography



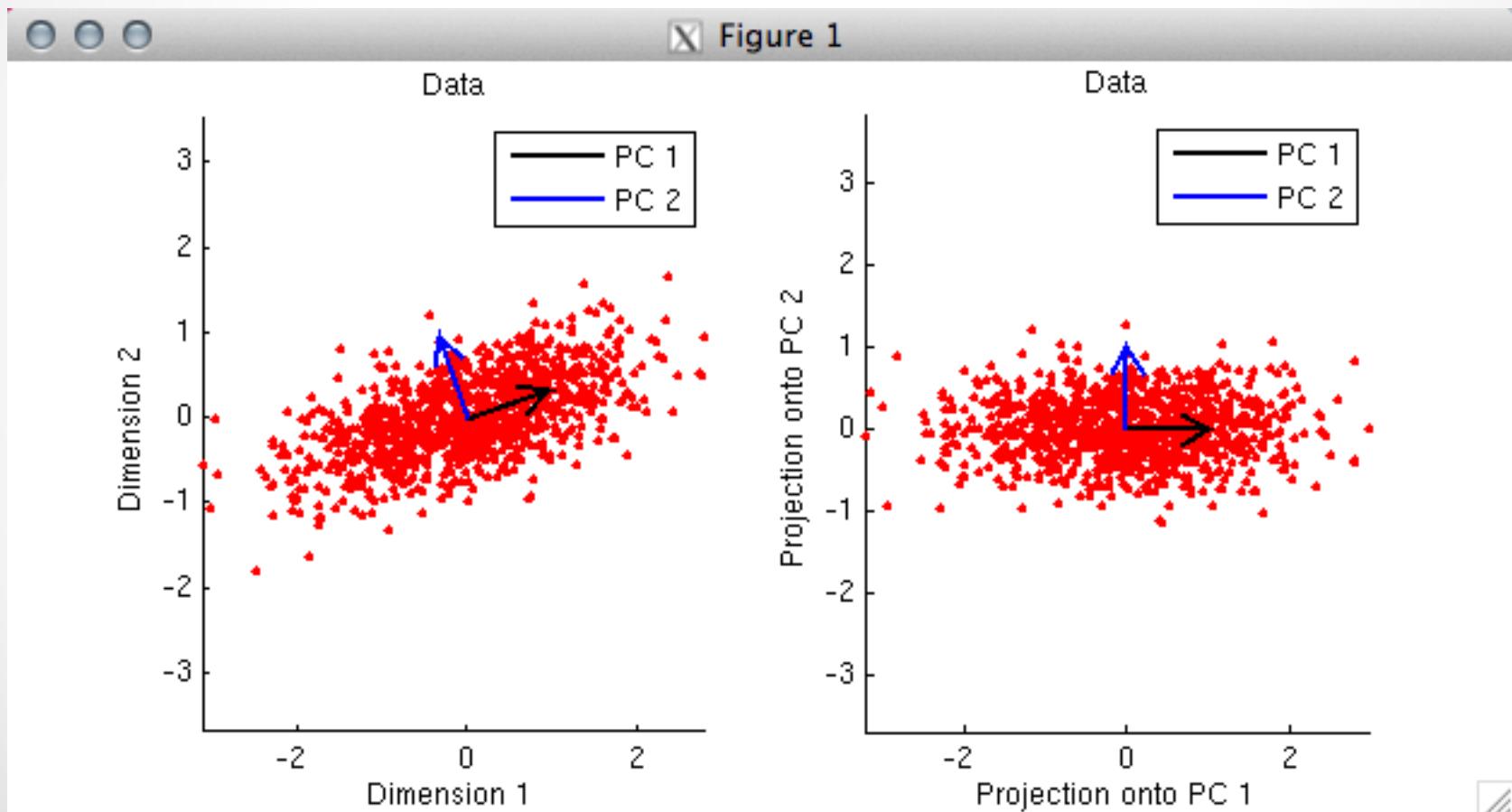
The Pareto Principle



PCA

- Creates new features that are linear combinations of the original features
- New features are orthogonal to each other
- Keep the new features that account for a large amount of the variance in the original dataset
- Re-base the dataset's coordinate system in a new space defined by its lines of greatest variance

Visualization

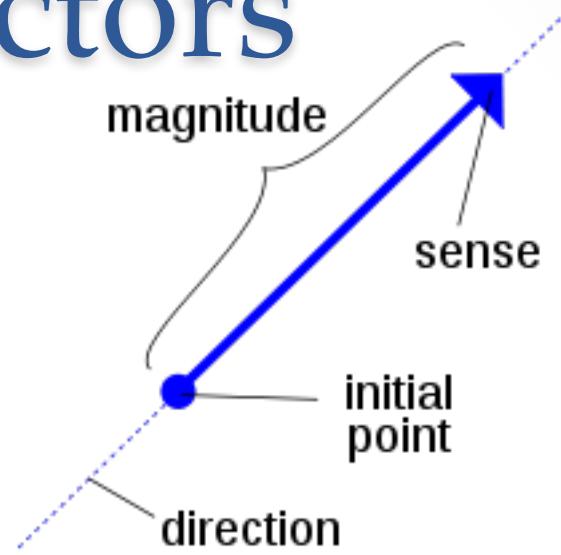


Principal Components

- Linearly uncorrelated variables
- 1st principal component has the largest possible variance
- Each succeeding component has highest possible variance. Constraint: Must be orthogonal to all the preceding components

Observation About Vectors

$$[x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_m]^T = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix},$$



- Almost all vectors change direction when multiplied by a matrix
- Certain exceptional vectors (which are called **eigenvectors**) remain in the same direction
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Eigenvector

- A vector that when multiplied by a given matrix gives a scalar multiple of itself
- The **0** vector is never considered an eigenvector
- The scalar multiple is called its **eigenvalue** λ .

Eigenvalue

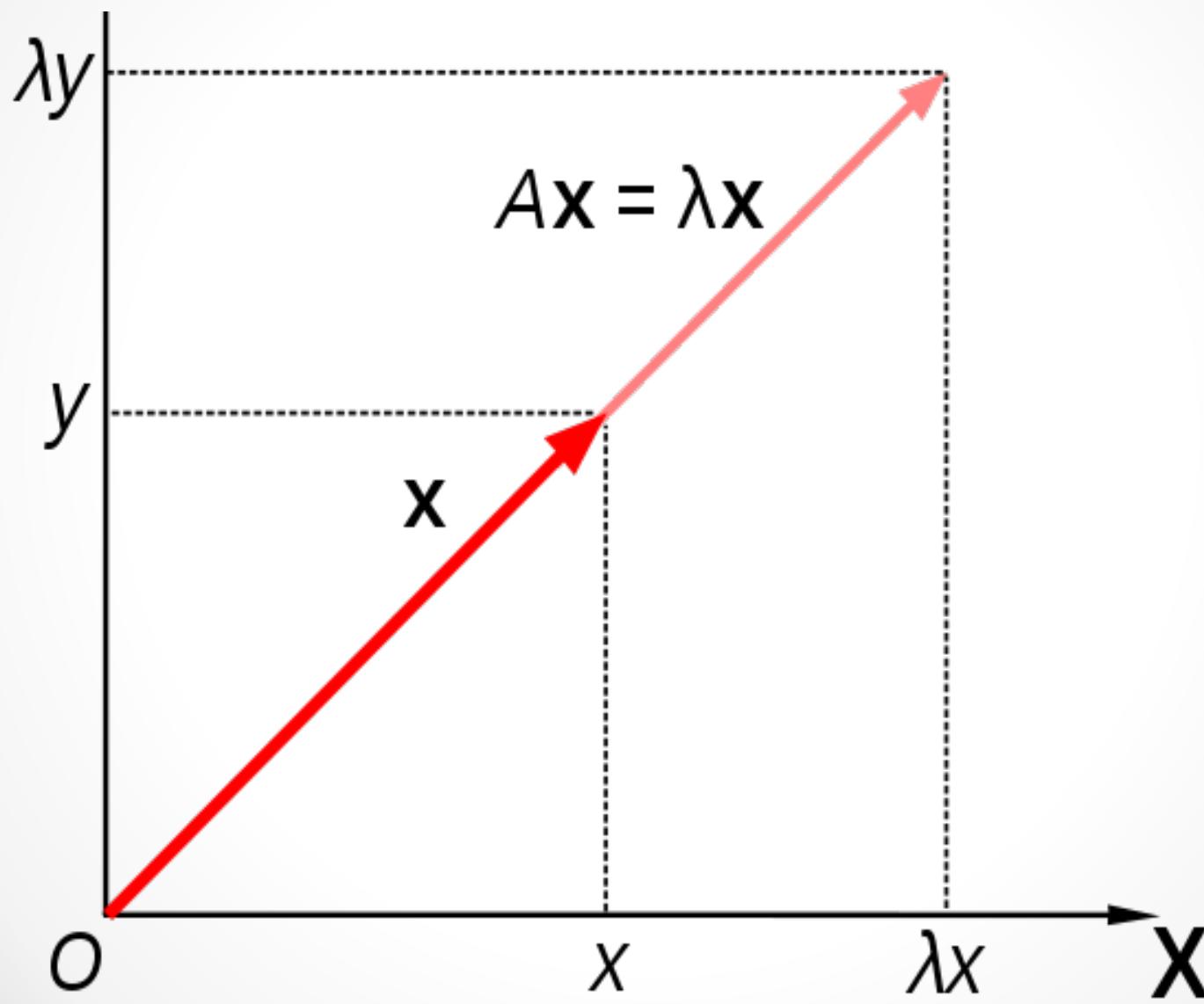
- A scalar
- Scale factor corresponding to a particular eigenvector
- Merely elongates or shrinks or reverses \mathbf{v} , or leaves it unchanged

Eigens Expressed As An Equation

- A : a square matrix
- \mathbf{x} : a nonzero vector (“eigenvector”)
- λ : a nonzero scalar (“eigenvalue of A ”)

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

Graphical Depiction



Example of Eigenvalue & Eigenvector Pair

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda = 3, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix

- A square matrix that looks like this:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$


Get the pattern?

It's ones down this **main diagonal** and zeros everywhere else.

Eigen

- German for “very own”
- “My very own apartment”:
»Meine eigene Wohnung«

Characteristic Polynomial

- Start with $A\lambda = \lambda v$
- I is the identity matrix
- Noting that $Iv = v$, rewrite as $(A - \lambda I)v = 0$
- $A - \lambda I$ is square matrix

$$p_A(\lambda) = |A - \lambda I|$$

- $| |$ is notation for determinant
-

Characteristic Equation of A

Since v is nonzero, $A - \lambda I$ is singular (non invertible); therefore its determinant is 0.

$$p_A(\lambda) = 0$$

The roots of this n -degree polynomial are the eigenvalues of A .

Example Calculation of Eigenvalues

$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{I}| = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ -2 & -3 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2 = 0$$

Solutions are $\lambda = -1$ and $\lambda = -2$

Eigenvalue Equation

- Use to obtain the corresponding eigenvector \mathbf{v} for each eigenvalue λ

$$(A - \lambda I)\mathbf{v} = 0$$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors in R

- `> eigen(x)`
- `demo`

R Functions for PCA

- `prcomp()` - Uses SVD, the preferred method
- Display shows standard deviations of the components
- > `pr<-prcomp(dataset, scale=TRUE)`
- Transform the data into the new coordinate system:
> `new<-pr$x[,1:2]`

`princomp()` uses covariance matrix—for compatibility with S-PLUS

Tips

- Dataset can have numeric values only. Need to exclude nonnumeric features with brackets or subset.
- `modelname<-princomp(dataset)`
- `summary(modelname)` gives proportion of the total variance explained by each component.
- `Modelname$loadings`
- `Modelnames$scores`

Options

- center
- scale
- scale.

Component Loadings

- Eigenvectors
- Eigenvalues
- Correlation between the component and the original features: how much variation in a feature is explained by a component

Preparation

- Center the variables
- Scale the variables
- Skewness transformation: makes the distribution more symmetrical
- Box-Cox transformation: makes the distribution more normal like

Scoring

- V : the matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix. Each eigenvector is normalized to have unit length.
- V^T now defines a rotation
- Start with original dataset \mathbf{x} .
- Calculate mean of each column to obtain row vector \mathbf{m} .
- Subtract \mathbf{m} from each row of \mathbf{x} to obtain \mathbf{z} . Multiply \mathbf{z} by V^T to obtain the new matrix of new coordinates \mathbf{c} .

Covariance

$$cov(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{n - 1}$$

(Numerator can be
expressed as XX^T)

Covariance Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(X) & \text{Cov}(X, Y) & \text{Cov}(X, Z) \\ \text{Cov}(X, Y) & \text{Var}(Y) & \text{Cov}(Y, Z) \\ \text{Cov}(X, Z) & \text{Cov}(Y, Z) & \text{Var}(Z) \end{bmatrix}$$

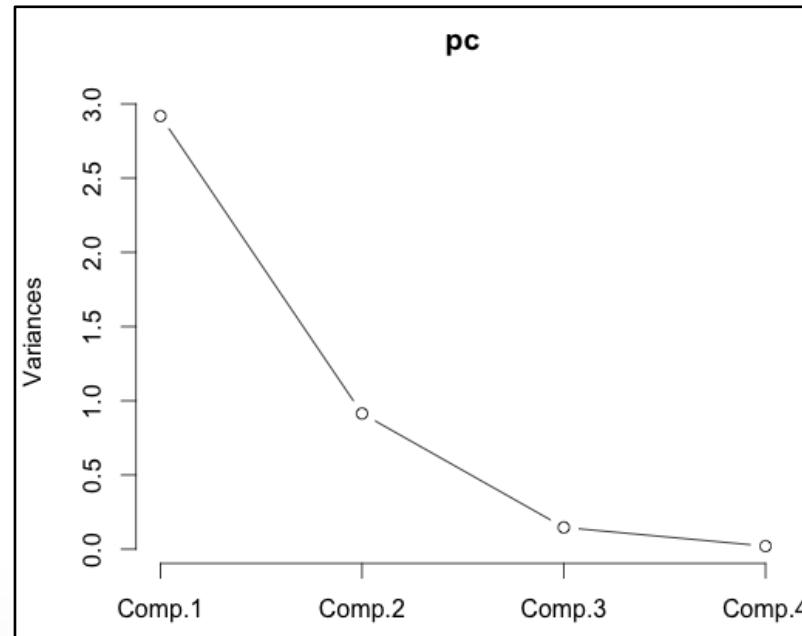
Principal Components

- The first principal component is the eigenvector of the covariance matrix that has the largest eigenvalue
- This vector points into the direction of the largest variance of the data
- The magnitude of this vector equals the corresponding eigenvalue.
- The second largest eigenvector is orthogonal to the largest eigenvector, and points into the direction of the second largest spread of the data.

Scree Plot

- Plots the variances against the number of the principal component
- Used to visually assess which components explain most of the variability
- In R:

```
fit <- princomp(dataset)
screeplot(fit)
```



Eigenfaces



Multidimensional Scaling

Overview of MDS

- You are given pairwise relationships between cases, e.g.
 - Distance between cities
 - Measures of similarity/dissimilarity
 - Importance
 - Preferences
 - MDS lays these cases out as points in an n -dimensional space
 - Traditional use is with $n=2$ or $n=3$ to visualize relationships in the data for exploratory purposes
 - In ML we can also use to reduce dimensionality of data
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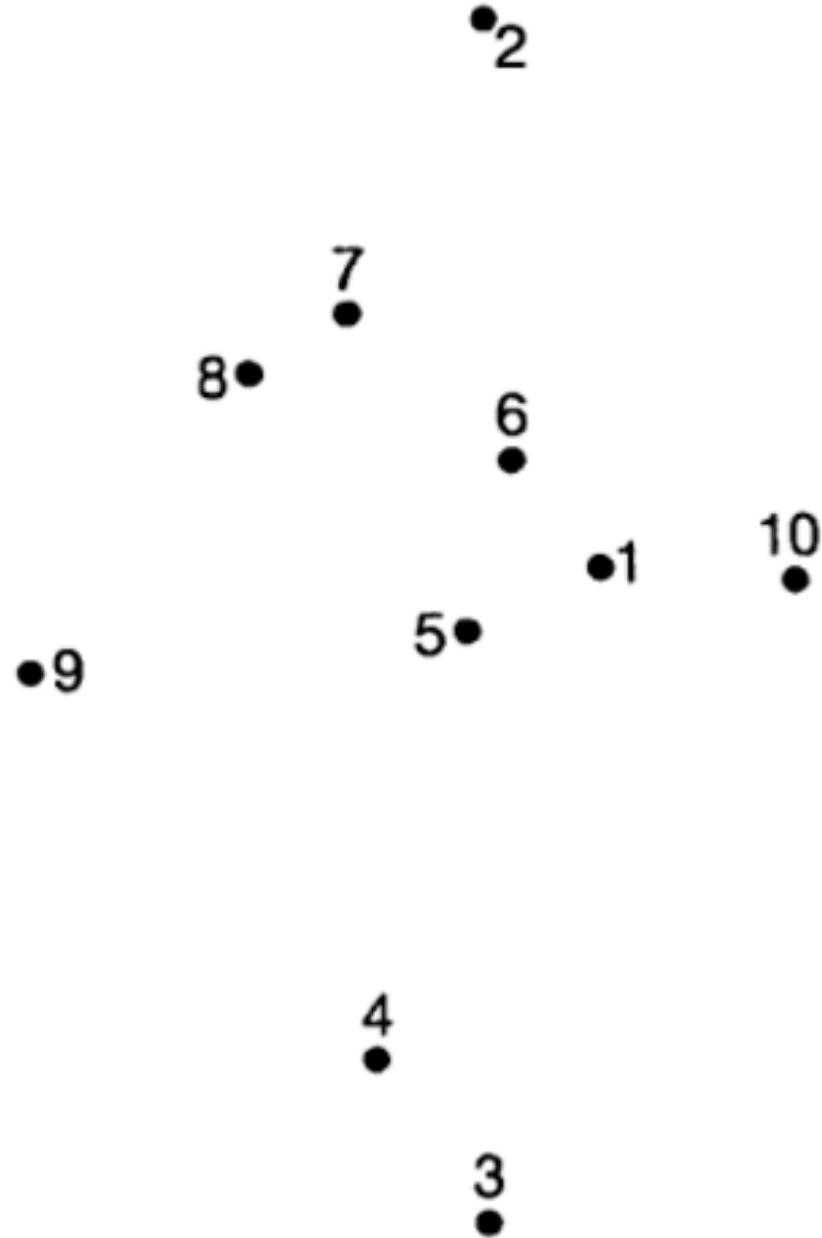
Contrast with PCA

- PCA reduces dimensionality while retaining variance
- MDS
 - Can be used to introduce dimensionality
 - Can be used to reduce dimensionality while retaining the relative distances

Distances Between Some European Cities

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	0	569	667	530	141	140	357	396	570	190
2	569	0	1212	1043	617	446	325	423	787	648
3	667	1212	0	201	596	768	923	882	714	714
4	530	1043	201	0	431	608	740	690	516	622
5	141	617	596	431	0	177	340	337	436	320
6	140	446	768	608	177	0	218	272	519	302
7	357	325	923	740	340	218	0	114	472	514
8	396	423	882	690	337	272	114	0	364	573
9	569	787	714	526	436	519	472	364	0	755
10	190	648	714	622	320	302	514	573	755	0

Constructed Space



Actual locations



For Dimensionality Reduction

- Original data matrix – Each column represents a feature. Each of the N rows represents a point.
- Create Dissimilarity Matrix storing the **dist()** distances d_0 between the points. The R function does this.

$$\begin{pmatrix} d_0(X_1, X_1) & \cdots & d_0(X_N, X_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ d_0(X_1, X_N) & \cdots & d_0(X_N, X_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

Performing MDS in R

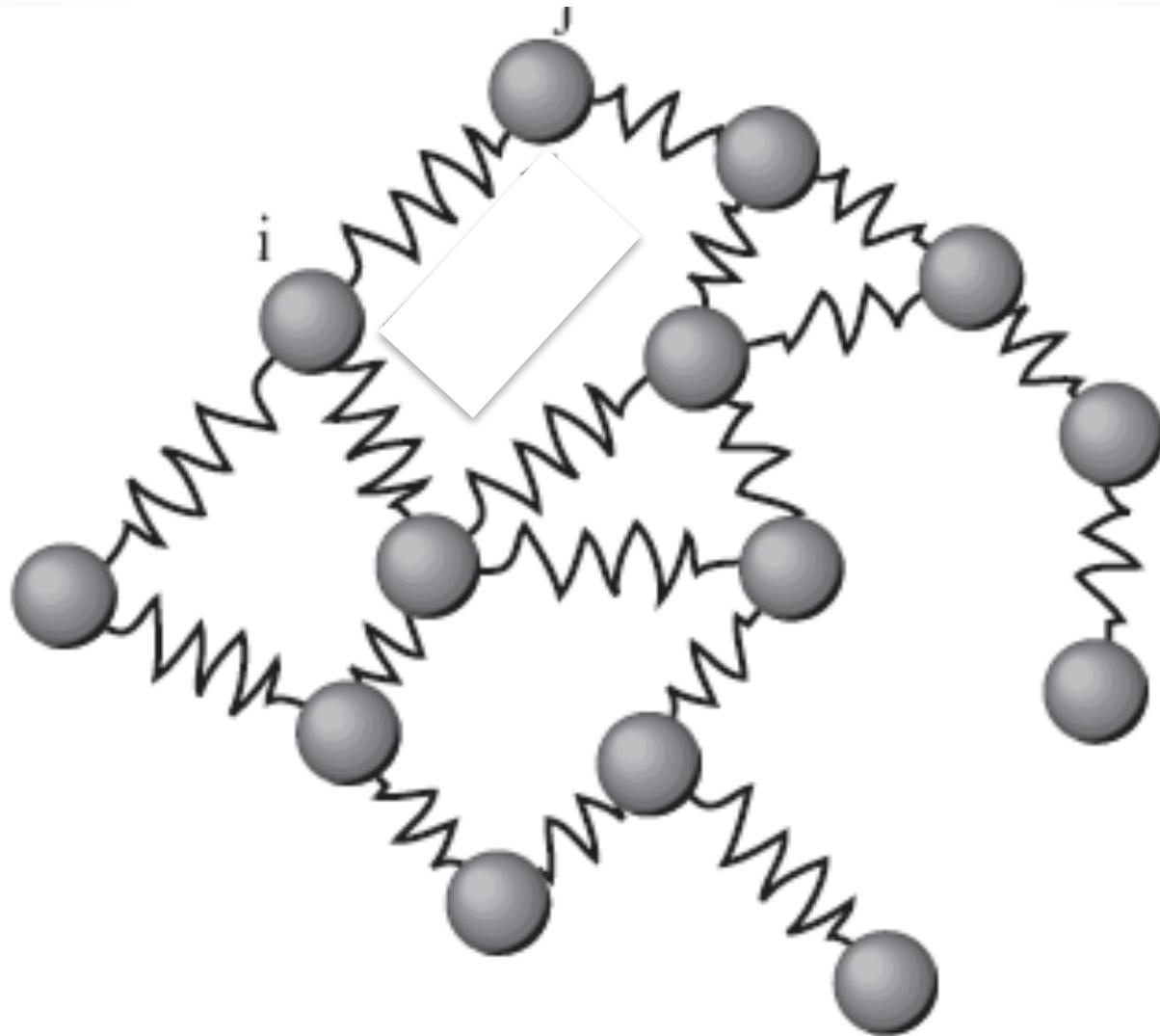
- k is number of dimensions you want for the reconstructed space
- d is full symmetric Dissimilarity Matrix
- `cmdscale(d, k=3)`
- The `c` in `cmdscale` stands for “classical”

Non-Metric MDS

- Exact distances in the reconstructed space can be off a little
- Imagine springs of the original distance between the points. Want to minimize the overall stress



Spring model



Common Stress Metrics

$$STRESS1 = \left(\frac{\sum_{i < j} (d_{ij} - \hat{d}_{ij})^2}{\sum_{i < j} d_{ij}^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$STRESS2 = \left(\frac{\sum_{i < j} (d_{ij} - \hat{d}_{ij})^2}{\sum_{i < j} (d_{ij} - \bar{d})^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

NMDS in R

- `dmat` is lower-triangle Dissimilarity Matrix
- `nmds (dmat)`

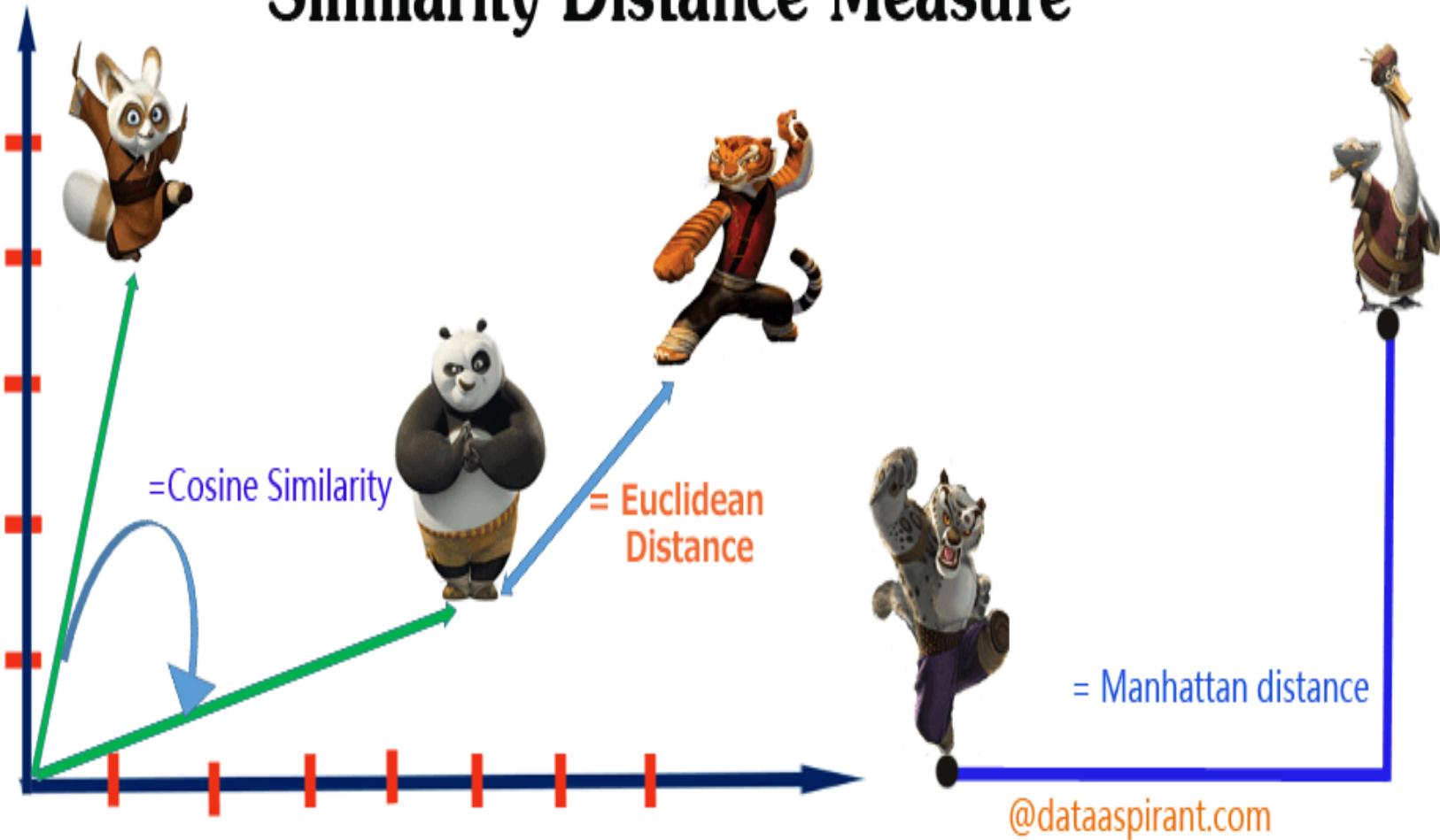
tsne

***t*-Distributed Stochastic
Neighbor Embedding**

Basic Idea

- Maps points in n dimensions onto a visualizable 2 or 3 dimensions
- Computes probability distribution of each point being similar to each other point
- Does this for both the hi dim and lo dim representations
- Then minimizes divergence between the high dimension and low dimension distributions

Similarity Distance Measure

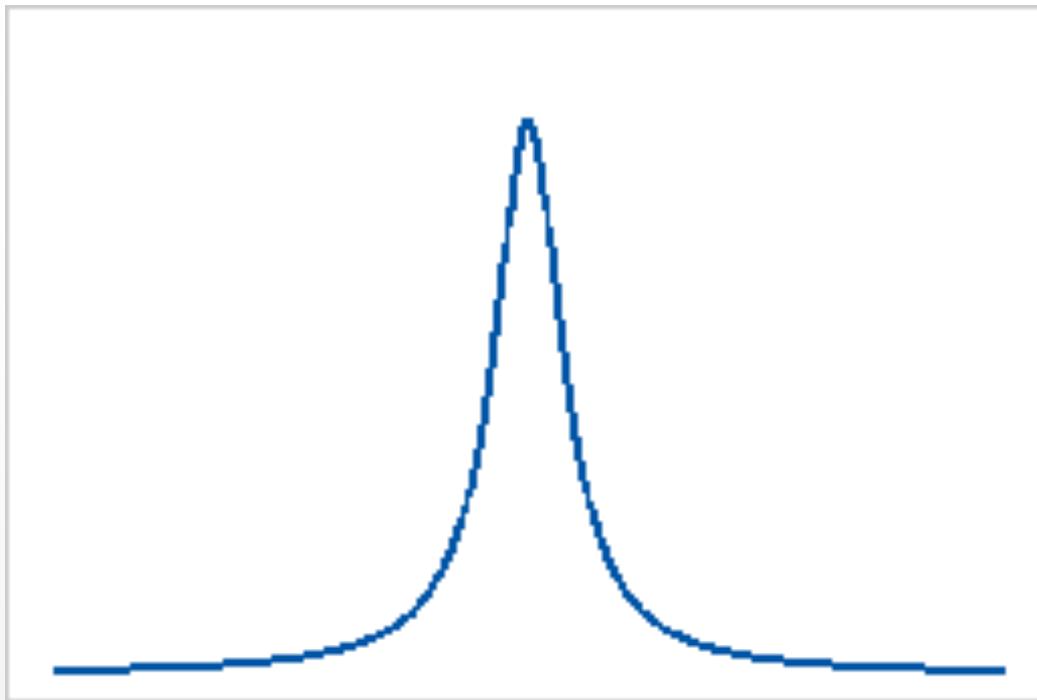
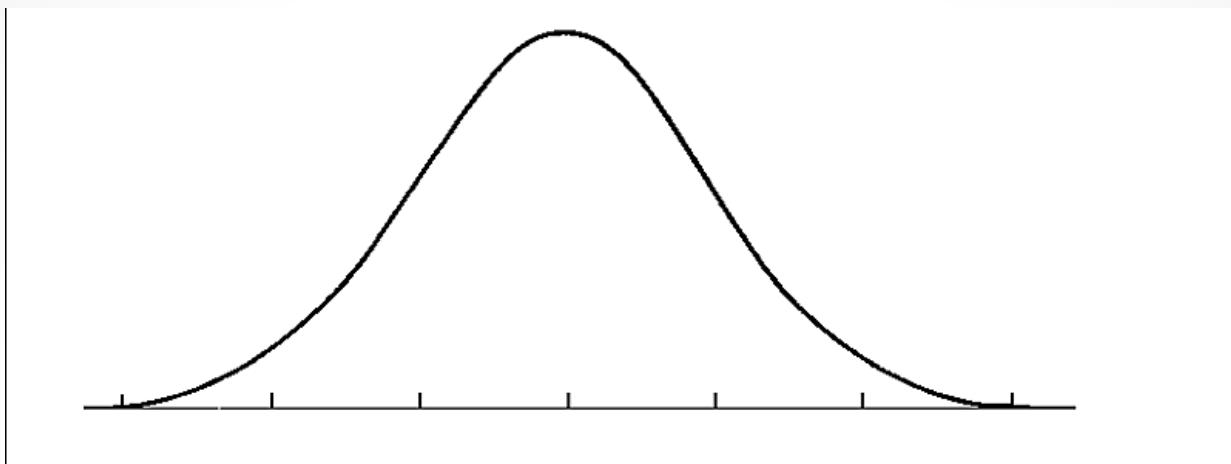


- **Euclidean distance**

$$d(p, q) = \sqrt{(p_1 - q_1)^2 + (p_2 - q_2)^2 + \cdots + (p_i - q_i)^2 + \cdots + (p_n - q_n)^2}.$$

tsne takes a Probabilistic Approach to Similarity

- Model the distance as having a probability distribution
- Treat measured distance the peak of a symmetric bell curve
- Assign lower variances to points that are in denser areas
- Originally the low dim and hi dim representations each used Gaussian distributions
- Refinement of the technique now uses the heavier-tailed Student's t -distribution for the lo dim



tsne in R

- Performs tsne dimensionality reduction on an R matrix or a "dist" object

```
tsne(X, initial_config = NULL, k = 2,  
      initial_dims = 30, perplexity = 30,  
      max_iter = 1000, min_cost = 0,  
      epoch_callback = NULL, whiten = TRUE,  
      epoch=100)
```

R Demo of tsna and Comparison with PCA

Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis

- Discovers latent factors that influence the features
- Each original feature is a linear combination of the factors