

# Manifold Methods for Dimension Reduction

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# This Lecture

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What's a manifold

Manifold Methods

- t-SNE
- UMAP

You should read...

- Chapter 14 of the text book.
- The original t-SNE paper <https://www.jmlr.org/papers/volume9/vandermaaten08a/vandermaaten08a.pdf> and the paper explaining its pitfalls: <https://distill.pub/2016/misread-tsne/>
- The intro, experiments and appendix C of the UMAP paper: <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1802.03426.pdf> and its more colloquial explanation <https://towardsdatascience.com/how-exactly-umap-works-13e3040e1668>

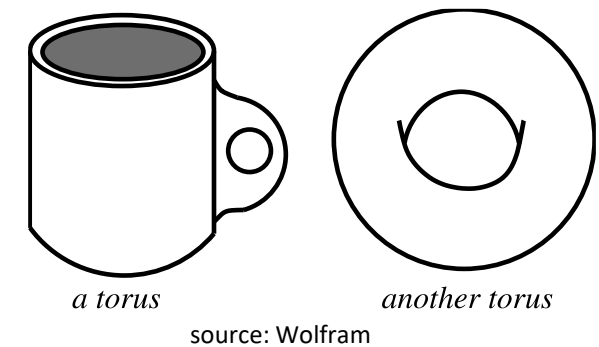
# Manifolds

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A **manifold** is a topological space that is **locally Euclidian**

- This means that, around every point, we can put an open unit ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Any object that, at small scales, looks nearly flat is a manifold.
- Can it be “charted”? Then it’s a manifold!

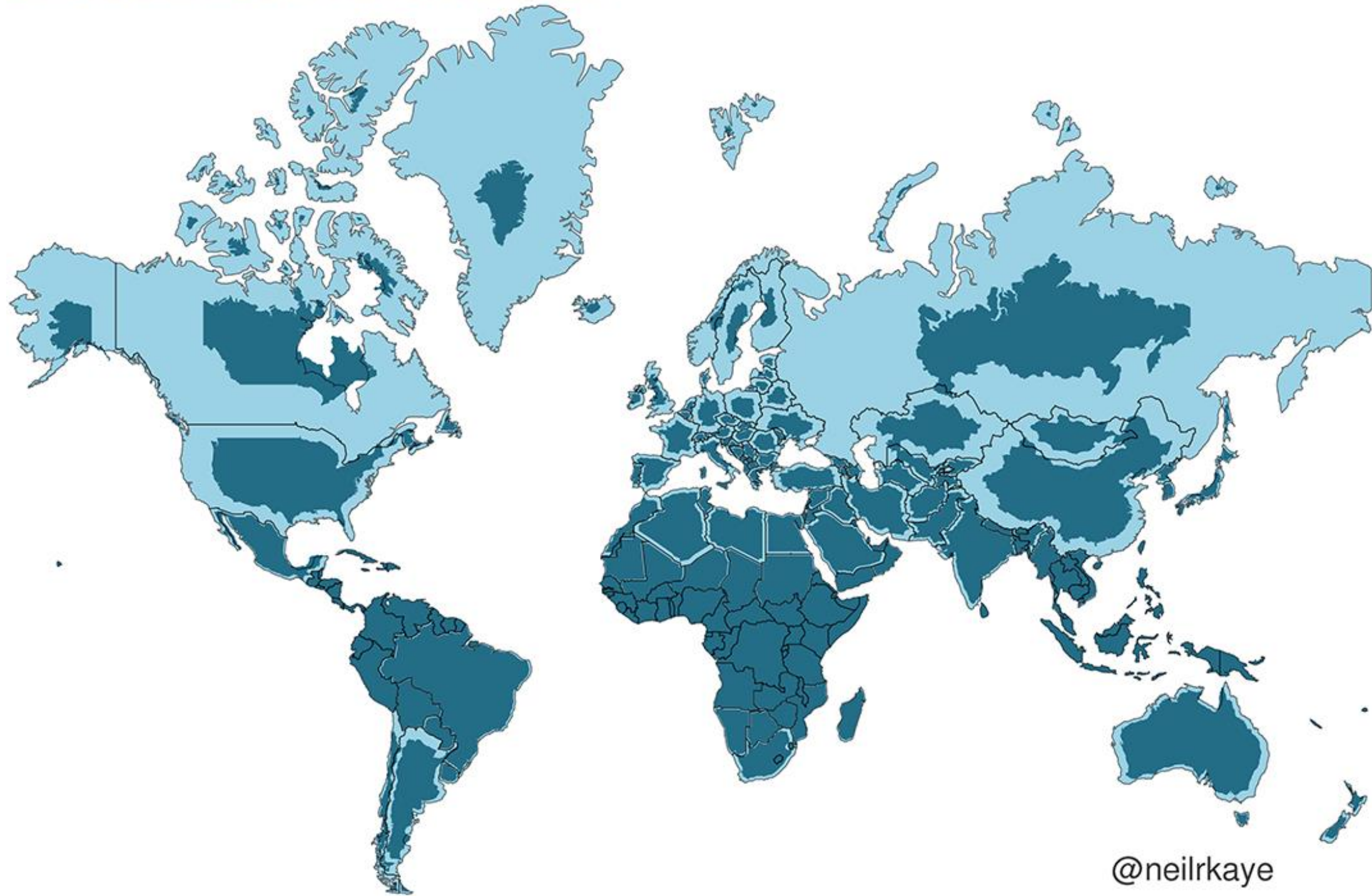
The key is that the distance needs not be consistent in different parts of the space.



Think of a Mercator Projection.

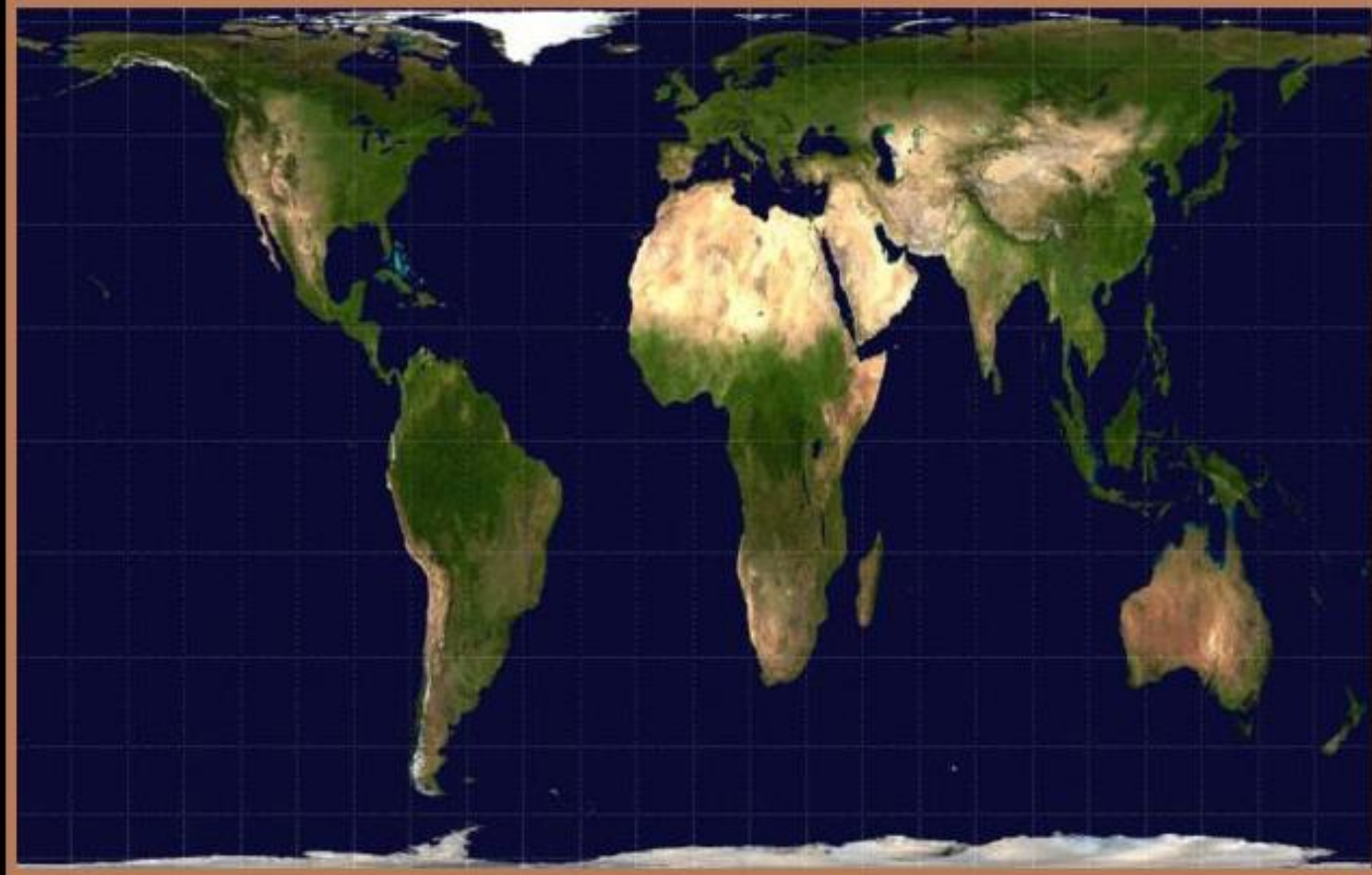
- It’s locally Euclidian (measuring distance on a piece of the map is consistent).
- But it is globally distorted!

MERCATOR PROJECTION VS THE TRUE SIZE OF COUNTRIES



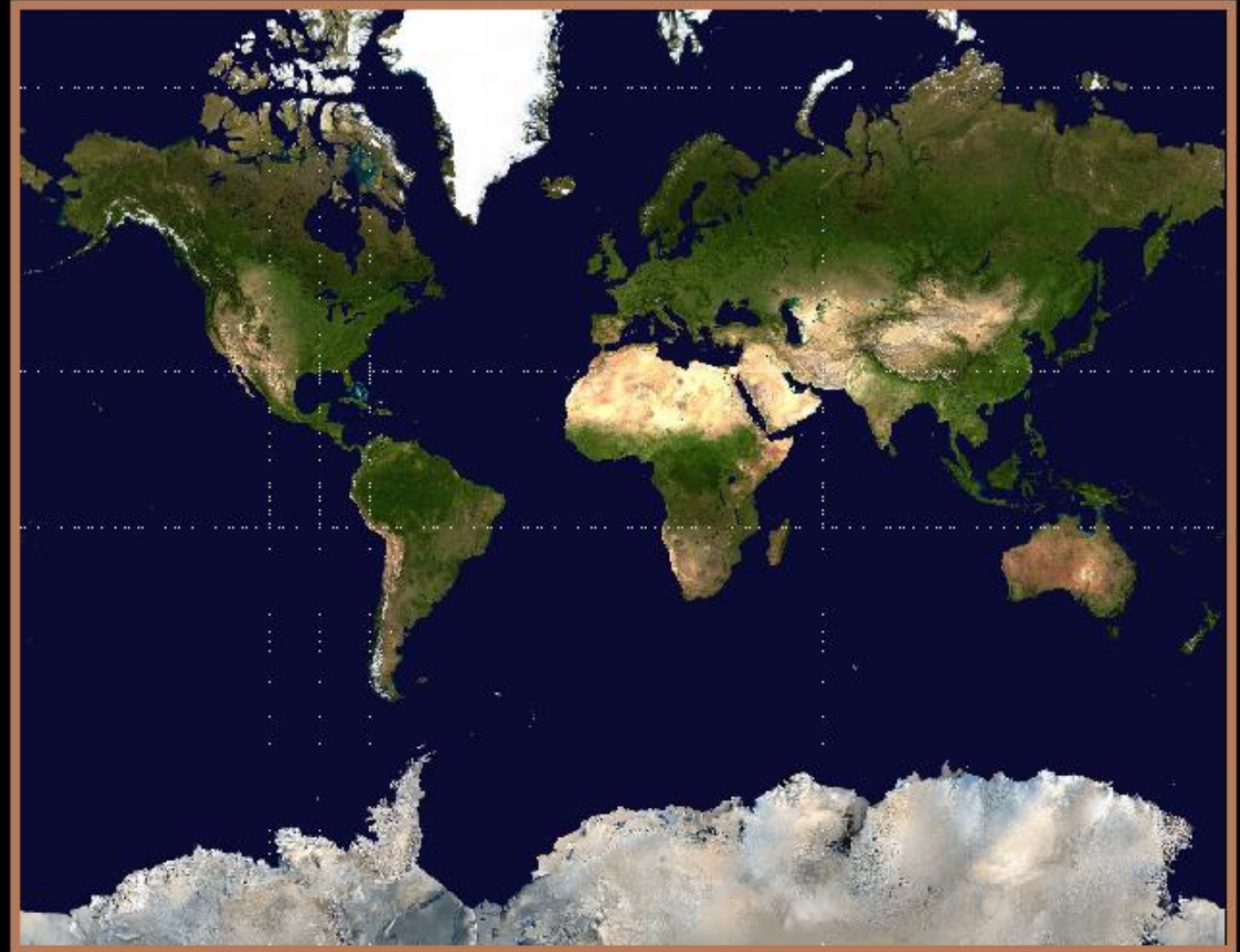
@neilrkaye





## **Peters Projection**

The true representation of land area  
(the "size" of continents and countries)



## **Mercator Projection**

Incorrect/false representation of land area

# Why is this useful?

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When doing **non-linear dimensionality reduction** this is what we are doing!

- Compare this to PCA, that creates a rotation of the space, but leaves the distances alone.

A non-linear method will **modify the distances locally** to accomplish compression.

- Some distances will be preserved.
- Some will be distorted.

The idea is to preserve the **topology** of the space when reducing dimensions.

- Topology “studies properties of spaces that are invariant under any continuous deformation. It is sometimes called ‘rubber-sheet geometry’”

# Methods

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Many sophisticated mathematical concepts are part of this area. Most of these concepts come from Manifold Theory in mathematics.

There are many methods, but we will focus on two:

- t-SNE: t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding.
- UMAP: Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection.

I will be skimming most of the math, but the papers are a great source of information if you want to get into detail!

# t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding

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# t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding

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Method proposed by van der Maaten and Hinton in 2008. The method is based **on defining a probability distribution around each point**. For this, we will define the following:

- **Perplexity**: How well a probability distribution predicts a sample.
- $p_{j|i}$ : Probability that

What is the probability that element  $i$  picks  $j$  as its neighbour?

- It should depend on the distance between the points.
- It should depend on the shape of the distribution we chose.

Picking a Gaussian with standard deviation (*bandwidth*)  $\sigma_i$  (unique for each point and a function of the perplexity) we can use:

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

# Creating a Projection

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Now that we have a probability we can think on creating distances. The probability  $p_{j|i}$  is not symmetric. To make symmetric we simply calculate

$$p_{ij} = \frac{p_{j|i} + p_{i|j}}{2N}$$

We will now build a projection  $y \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  with  $d < V$  (usually just 2 or 3) so that its probabilities  $q_{ij}$  look as similar as possible to  $p_{ij}$ . We cannot use the same Gaussian given the tails can be lost. But we **can** use a t-distribution.

Defining

$$q_{ij} = \frac{(1 + \|y_i - y_j\|^2)^{-1}}{\sum_k \sum_{k \neq l} (1 + \|y_k - y_l\|^2)^{-1}}$$

(a t distribution with one degree of freedom) then we have two distributions that **we want to make as similar as possible!**

# A Loss for Manifold Projection

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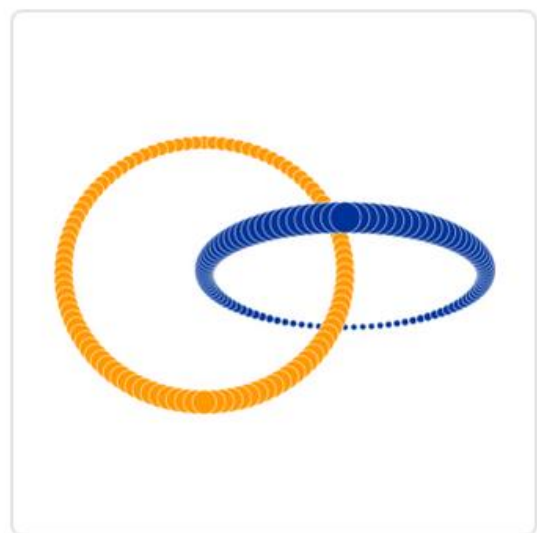
How can we measure if two distributions are similar?

We can measure the difference between two distributions using the **Kullback-Leibler Divergence**.

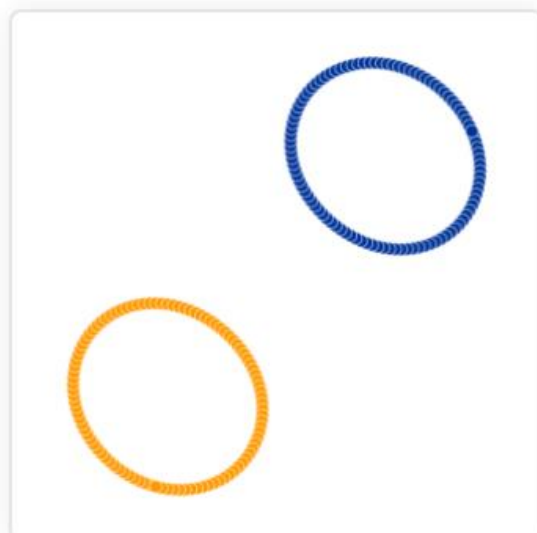
This divergence is such that:

$$D_{p||q} = \sum_{i \neq j} p_{ij} \log \left( \frac{p_{ij}}{q_{ij}} \right)$$

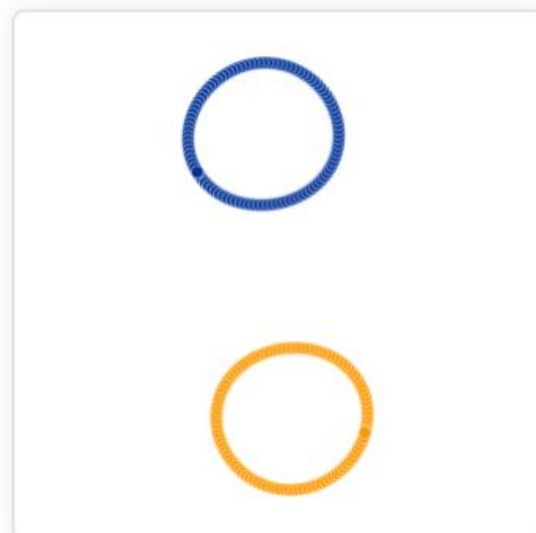
**This is our loss function.** t-SNE will minimize this divergence to obtain the best projection.



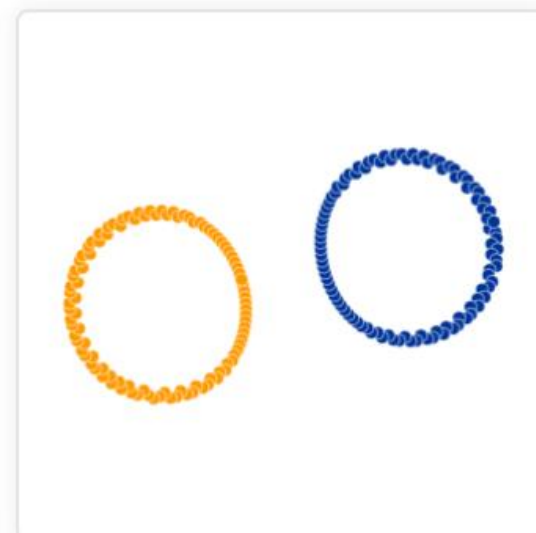
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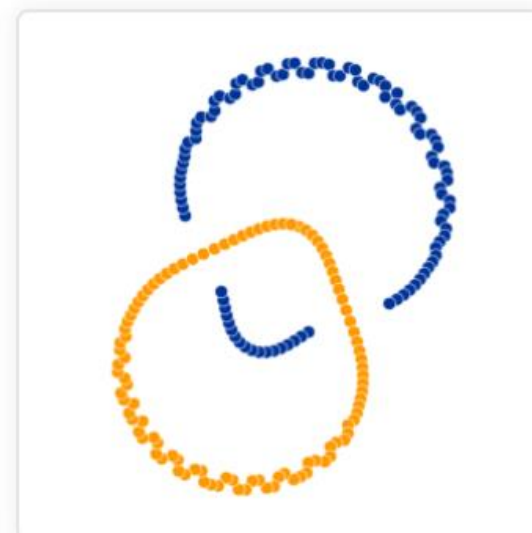
Perplexity: 2  
Step: 5,000



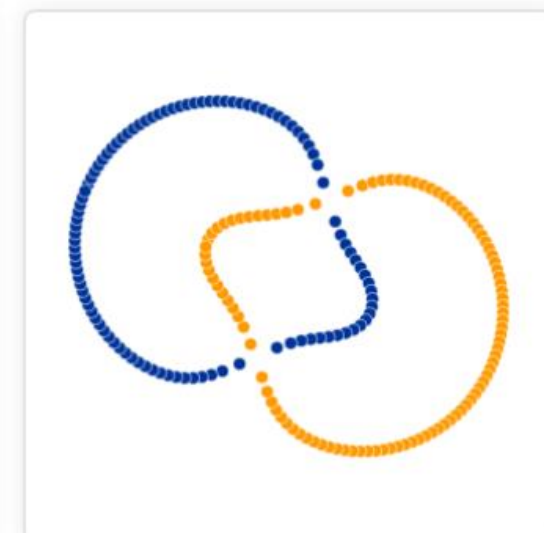
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Step: 5,000



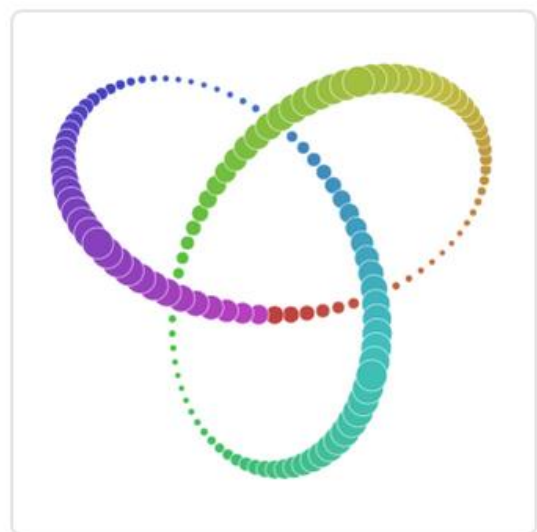
Perplexity: 30  
Step: 5,000



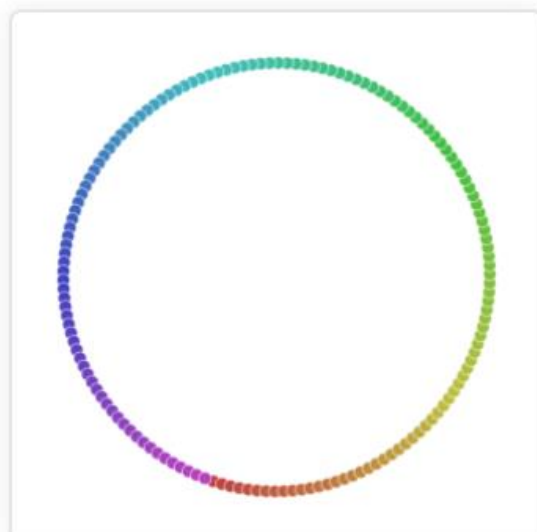
Perplexity: 50  
Step: 5,000



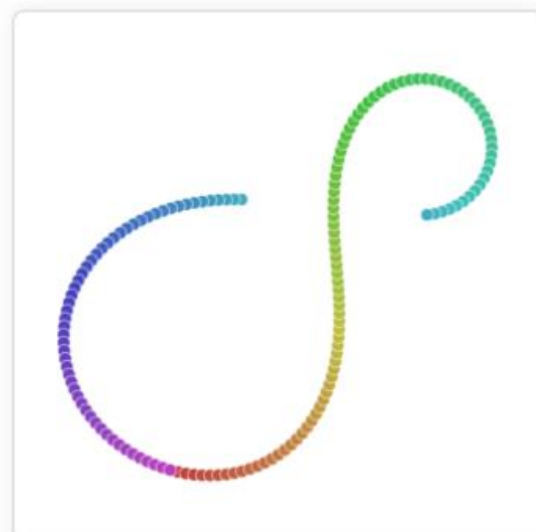
Perplexity: 100  
Step: 5,000



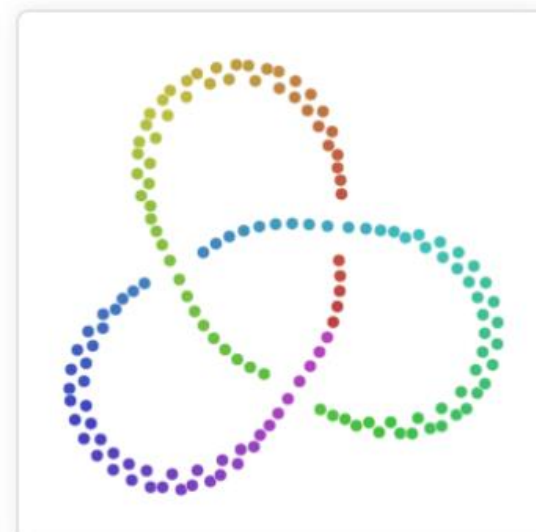
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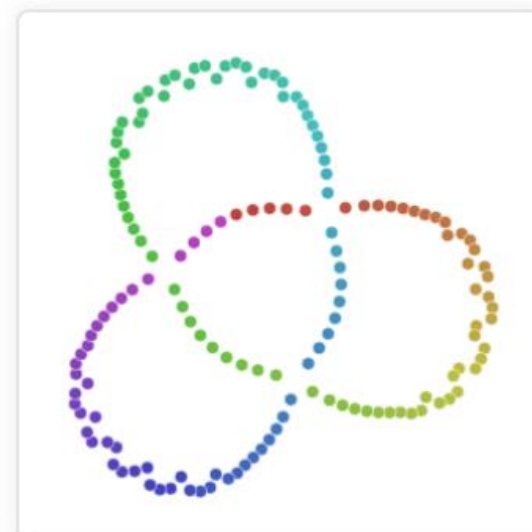
Perplexity: 2  
Step: 5,000



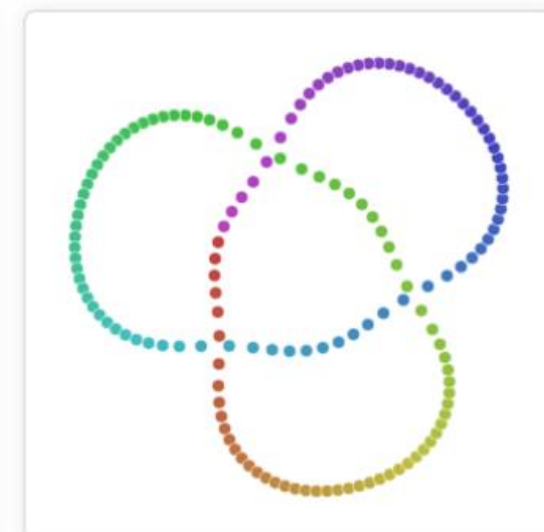
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Step: 5,000



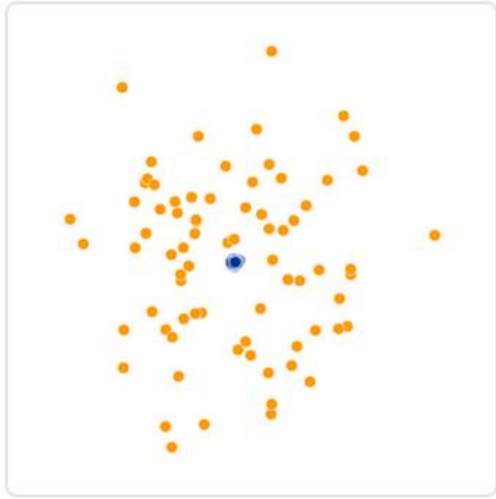
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Step: 5,000



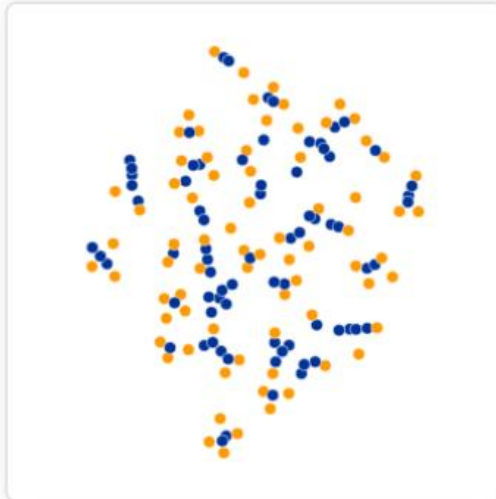
Perplexity: 50  
Step: 5,000



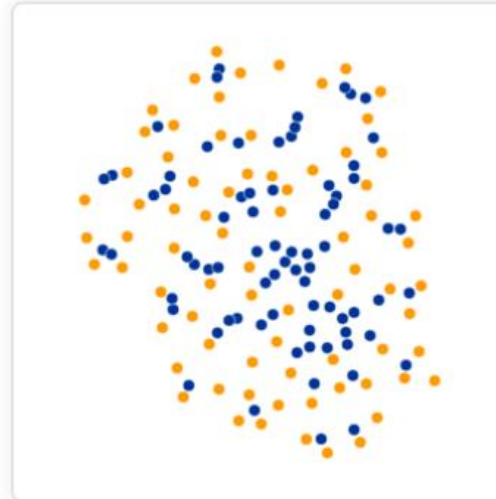
Perplexity: 100  
Step: 5,000



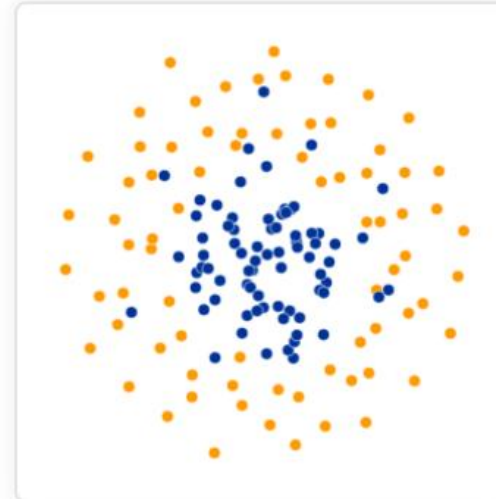
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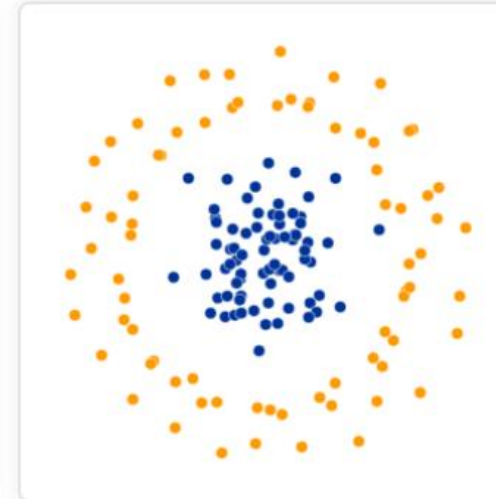
Perplexity: 2  
Step: 5,000



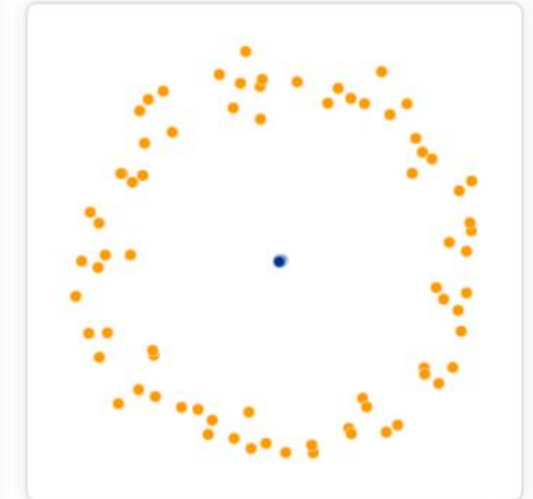
Perplexity: 5  
Step: 5,000



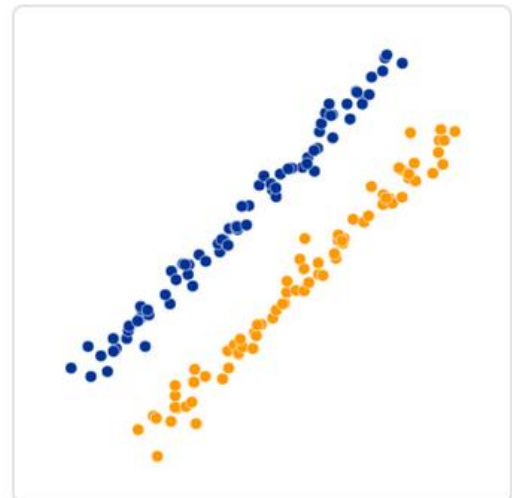
Perplexity: 30  
Step: 5,000



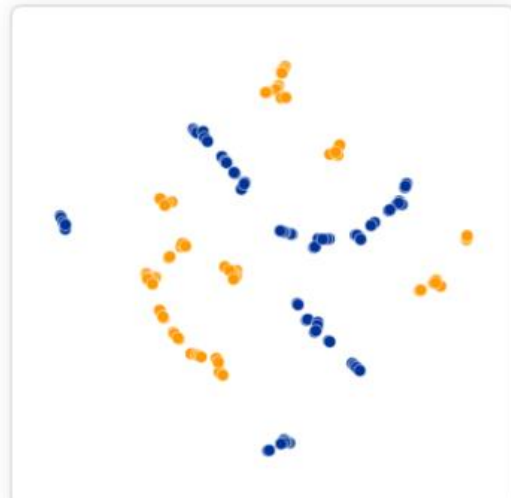
Perplexity: 50  
Step: 5,000



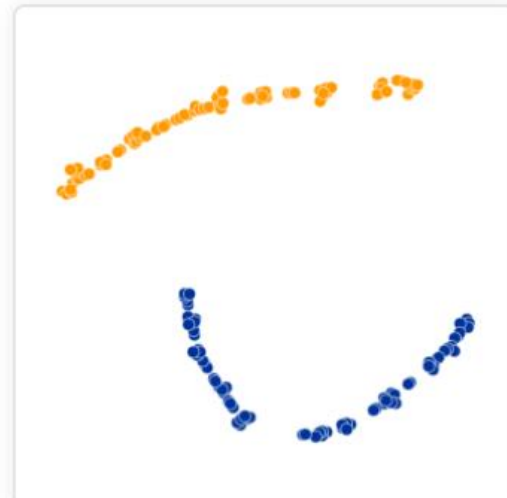
Perplexity: 100  
Step: 5,000



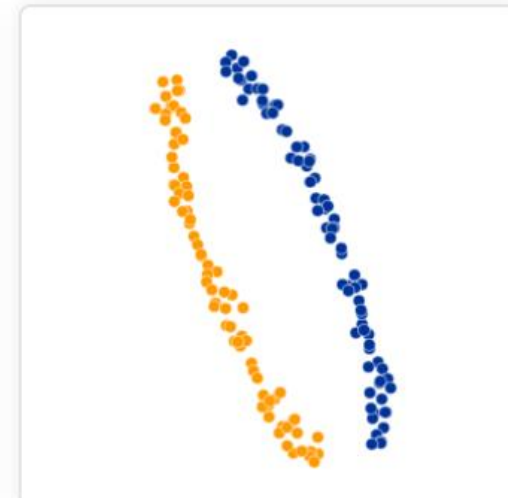
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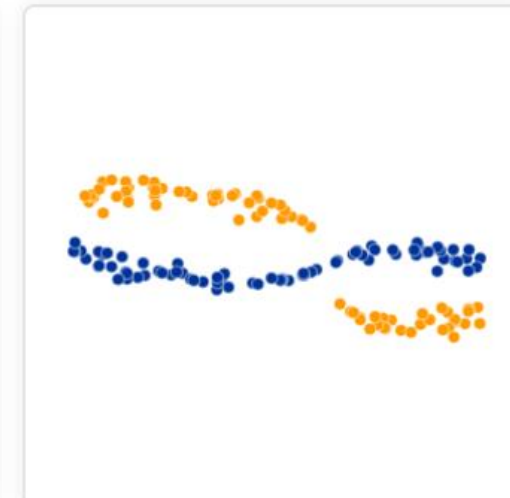
Perplexity: 2  
Step: 5,000



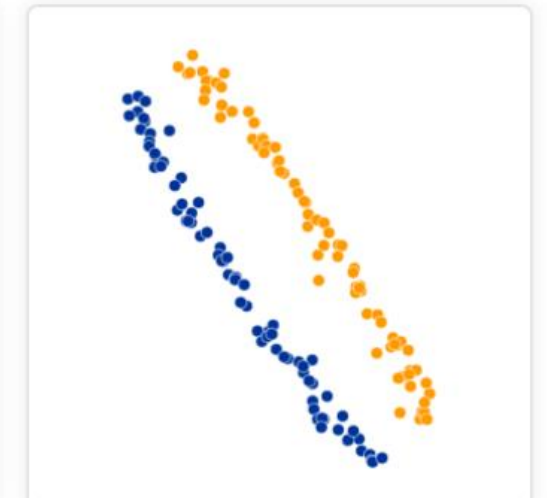
Perplexity: 5  
Step: 5,000



Perplexity: 30  
Step: 5,000



Perplexity: 50  
Step: 5,000



Perplexity: 100  
Step: 5,000



# t-SNE in Practice

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The method requires several parameters, but the most important ones are:

- The perplexity: Complex, depends on the problem. Try several in a wide range and choose.
- The number of epochs: enough to get convergence!

The method is supposed to work for more than 3 dimensions, but it is exponentially more expensive to do so!

- In practice this means t-SNE can only be used for plotting high dimensional spaces.
- We may lose a lot of information.

Read <https://distill.pub/2016/misread-tsne/>

These shortcomings lead to new methods. The most important (and modern one) is **Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection** (UMAP).

# Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection

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# The Problems with t-SNE

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1. It does not scale well. Calculating

$$\sum_k \sum_{k \neq l} (1 + \|y_k - y_l\|^2)^{-1}$$

In the  $q_{ij}$  equation is very costly.

2. It cannot work on sparse high-dimensional data directly! Normally it first compresses the data with PCA.

3. It is very expensive in memory as it works with large dense matrices.

4. **It only preserves local structure.** And you have to be very careful with the perplexity parameter.

# Enter UMAP

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UMAP tries to handle these problems by dealing with more expensive parts of the t-SNE equations, while also adding a few intelligent tricks. Its principles are the same though!

In UMAP case:

- The probability  $p_{i|j}$  is now modelled as an exponential. It is also allowed to use any distance  $d(x_i, x_j)$  not just Euclidian

$$p_{i|j} = \exp\left(-\frac{d(x_i, x_j) - \rho_i}{\sigma_i}\right)$$

Where  $\rho_i$  is the **minimum distance parameter**, or the closest distance we will allow a point to look for neighbours (closer points are ignored, or “clumped” together. Note that the probabilities are **not normalized** thus making UMAP significantly more efficient than t-SNE.

- UMAP also **does not use perplexity** but uses the number of nearest neighbours to determine the distributions.

$$k = 2^{\sum p_{ij}}$$

# UMAP Assumptions (cont'd)

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The  $\rho_i$  parameter also causes that some points are together, so to make the probabilities symmetric we need to correct the probabilities.

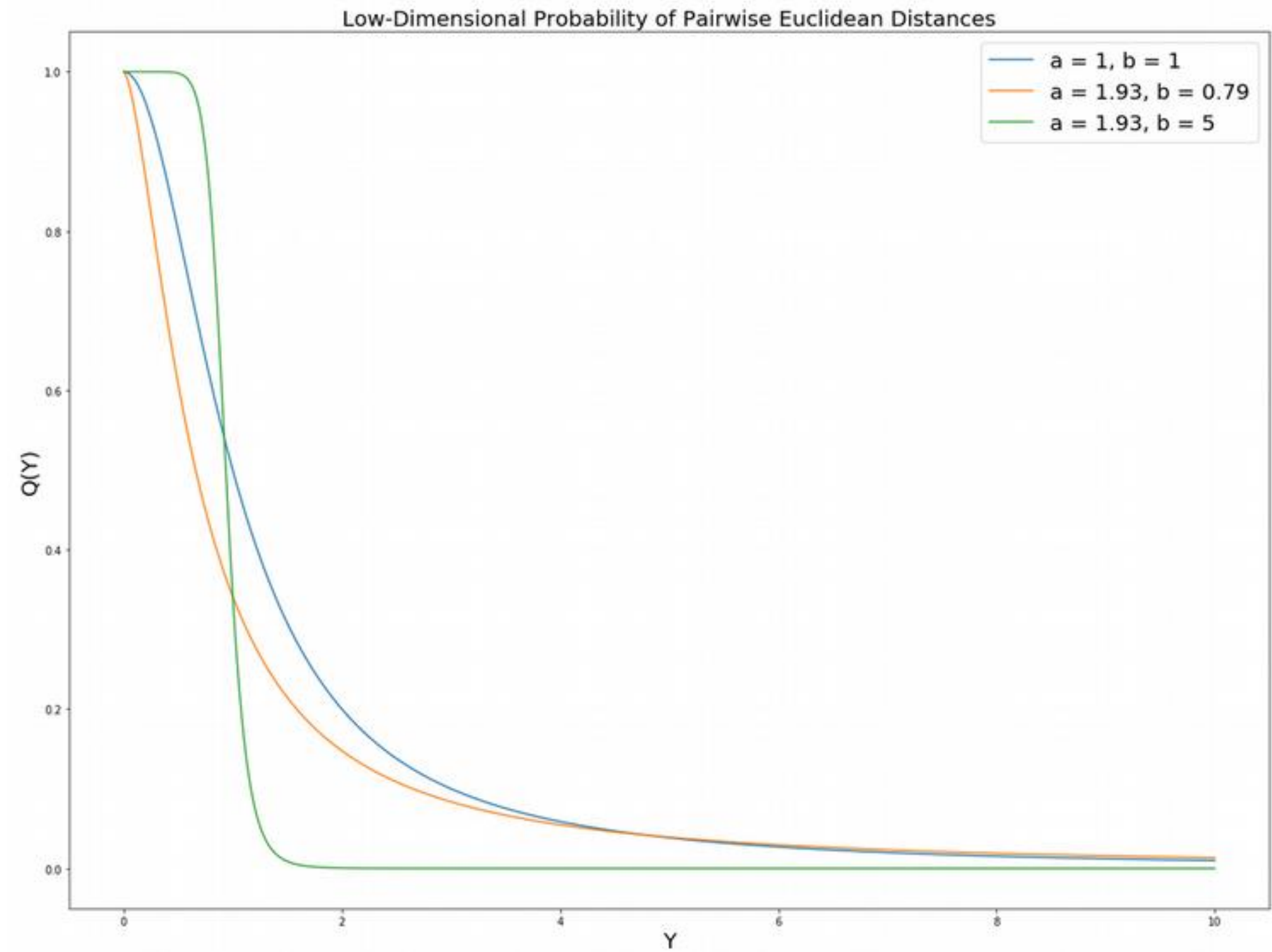
$$p_{ij} = p_{i|j} + p_{j|i} - p_{i|j} \cdot p_{j|i}$$

Given these corrections, it is also necessary to adjust the t-distribution accordingly. To calculate the distribution  $q_{ij}$  UMAP uses the following:

$$q_{ij} = \left(1 + a(y_i - y_j)^{2b}\right)^{-1}$$

This is close to a t-distribution, but has the two parameters  $a$  and  $b$ , and it is also not normalized. In practice, this is found





Source: Oskolov (2019, TDS)

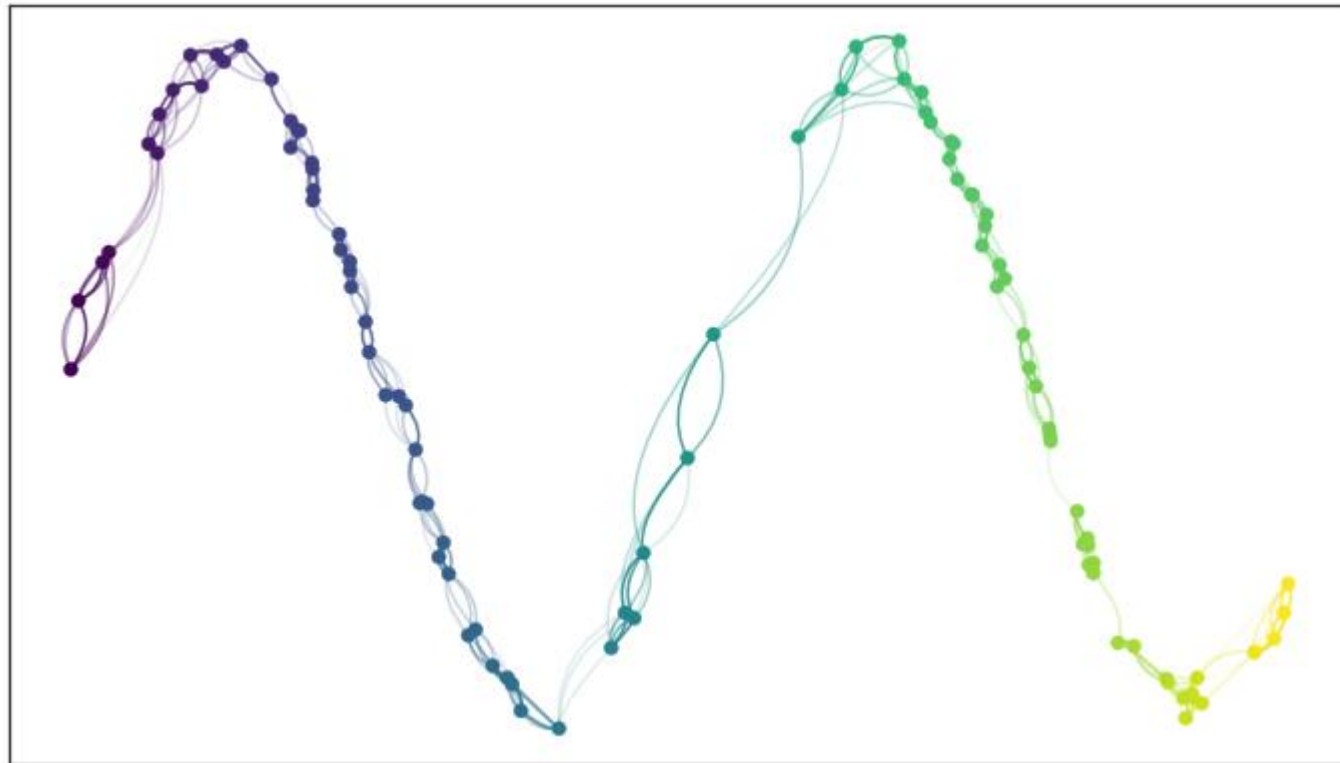
# UMAP's Loss Function

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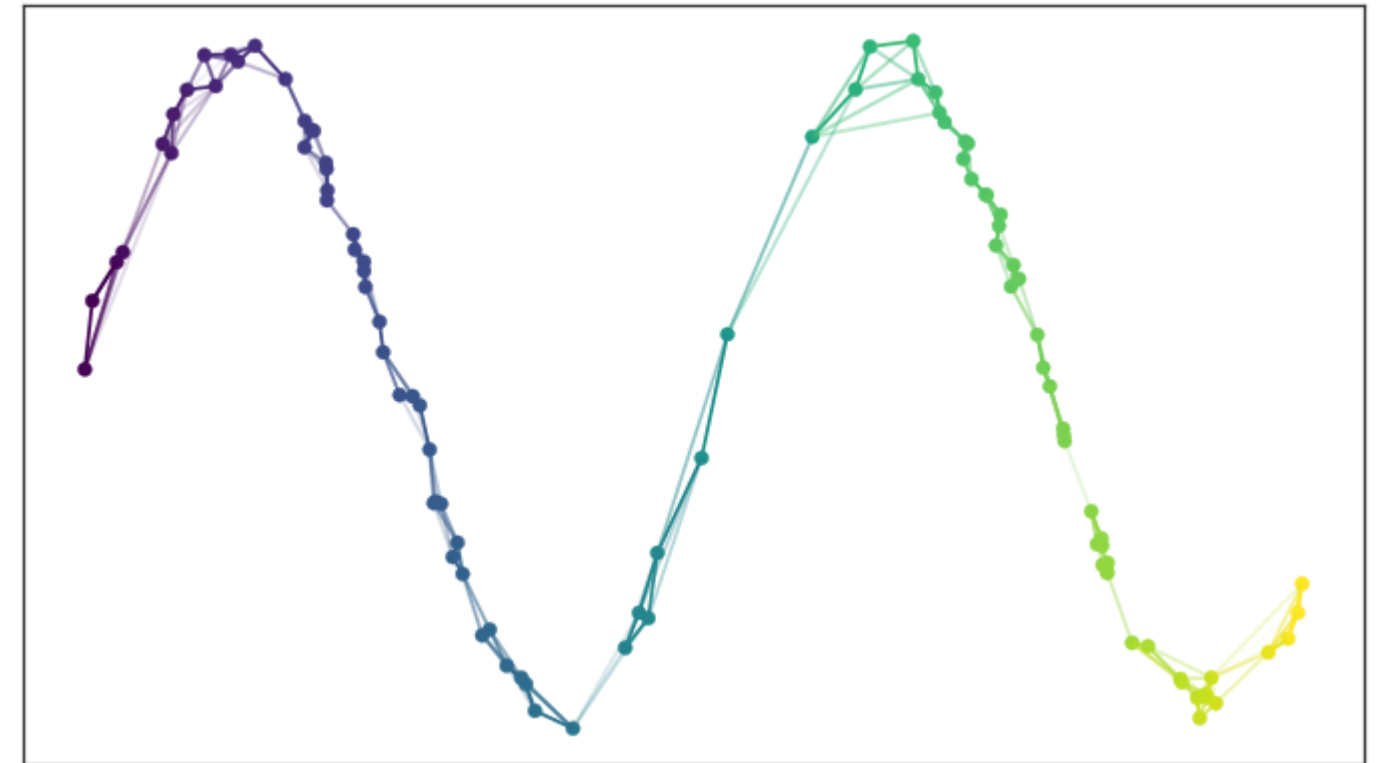
Finally, UMAP uses a different loss function. **Binary Cross-Entropy**. This follows likelihood methods, trees, etc.

$$CE(X, Y) = \sum_i \sum_j \left[ p_{ij}(X) \log \left( \frac{p_{ij}(X)}{q_{ij}(Y)} \right) + (1 - p_{ij}(X)) \log \left( \frac{1 - p_{ij}(X)}{1 - q_{ij}(Y)} \right) \right]$$

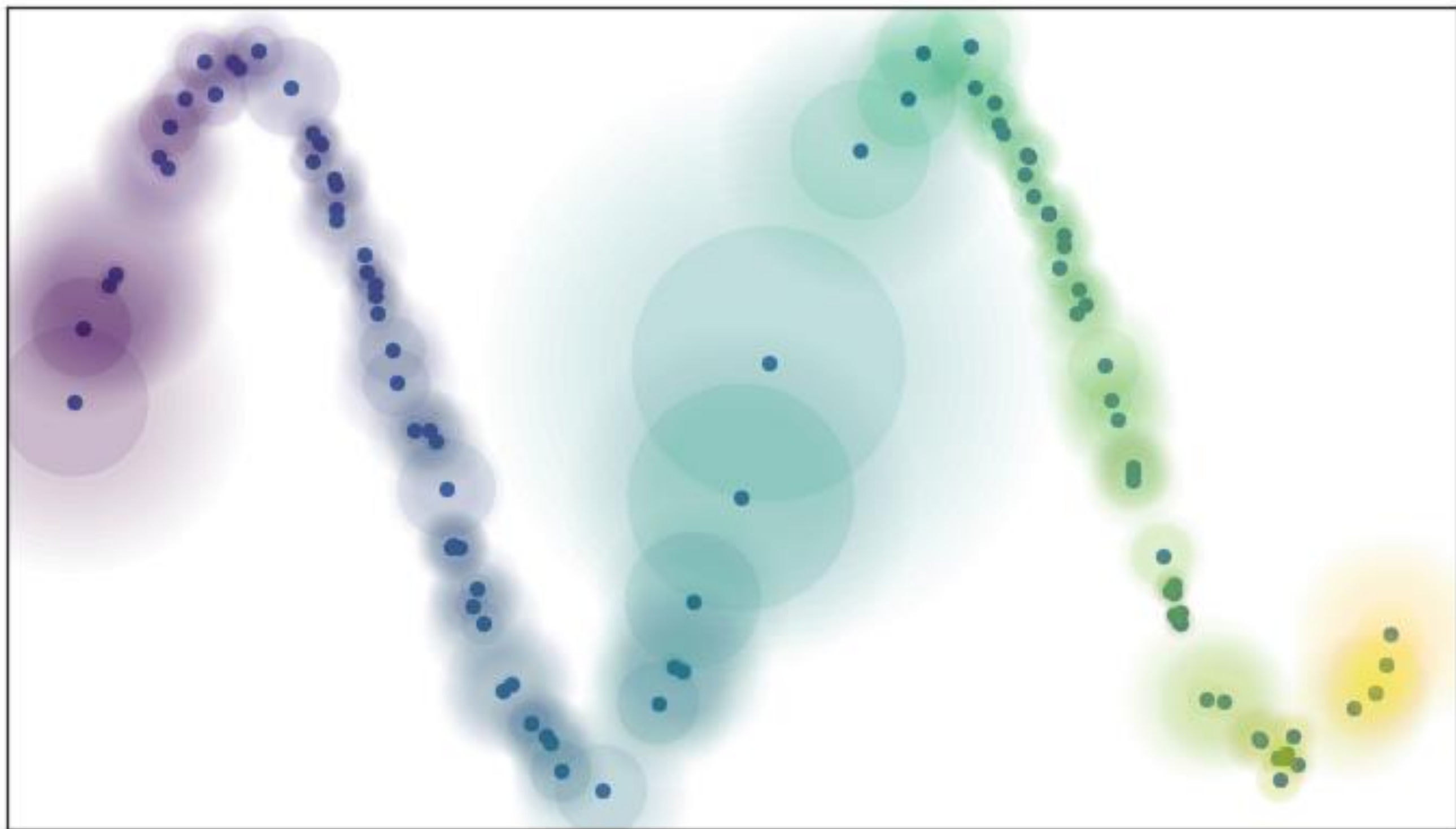
Also, and finally, UMAP initializes the mapping using spectral clustering instead of



Nearest neighbours without grouping.



Nearest neighbours with grouping.



Fitting a fuzzy distribution around each point

# UMAP in Practice

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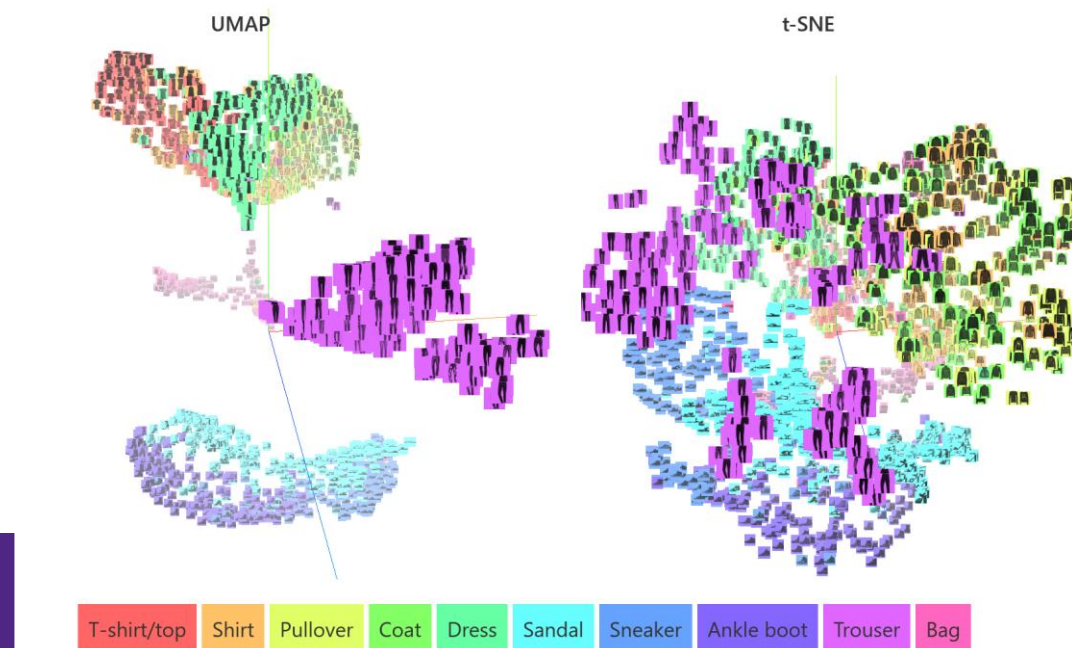
As with t-SNE, there are two very important parameters

- The number of nearest neighbours.
- The minimum distance.

And also make sure to use the correct distance for your problem!

Determining the optimal values is up to you. Check the coursework to study its effects!

- Experiment in this site: <https://pair-code.github.io/understanding-umap/>





# Takeaways

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Manifold methods work by compressing the space in a non-linear manner.

As such, they can be arbitrary and require careful selection of parameters.

Two methods: t-SNE and UMAP.

UMAP is better grounded in theory and more efficient, but less accepted than t-SNE.

t-SNE is only good for plotting in two or three dimensions, use UMAP for more.