# Applied Machine Learning 

Dimensionality reduction

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## Learning objectives

What is dimensionality reduction?
What is it good for?
Linear dimensionality reduction:

- Principal Component Analysis
- Relation to Singular Value Decomposition


## Motivation

Scenario: we are given high dimensional data and asked to make sense of it!
Real-world data is high-dimensional

- Visualization: we can't visualize beyond 3D
- Compression: processing and storage is costly
- Downstrean analysis, e.g. clustering or classification
- features may not have any semantics (value of the pixel vs happy/sad)
- many features may not vary much in our dataset (e.g., background pixels in face images)

Dimensionality reduction: faithfully represent the data in low dimensions

- We can often do this with real-world data (manifold hypothesis)
- finding meaningful low-dimensional structures in high-dimensional observations


## Dimensionality reduction

Dimensionality reduction: faithfully represent the data in low dimensions

- learn a mapping between (coordinates) at low-dimension and high-dimensional data

some methods give this mapping in both directions and some only in one direction.


## Dimensionality reduction

Dimensionality reduction: faithfully represent the data in low dimensions

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## Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction method

$$
x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}
$$

$$
z^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}
$$


where $Q$ has orthonormal columns $Q^{\top} Q=I$ it follows that the pseudo-inverse of Q is $Q^{\dagger}=\left(Q^{\top} Q\right)^{-1} Q^{\top}=Q^{\top}$

## PCA: optimization objective

PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction method

$$
x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{784}
$$

each image has $28 \times 28=784$ pixels

$$
z^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}
$$



faithfulness is measured by the reconstruction error
$\min _{Q} \quad \sum_{n} \| x^{(n)}$
$-x^{z^{(n)}{ }^{\top}} Q Q^{\top} \|_{2}^{2} \quad$ s.t.
$Q^{\top} Q=I$

## PCA: optimization objective

PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction method faithfulness is measured by the reconstruction error

$$
\min _{Q} \quad \sum_{n}\left\|x^{(n)}-x_{z^{(n)}}^{(n)^{\top}} Q Q^{\top}\right\|_{2}^{2} \quad \text { s.t. } \quad Q^{\top} Q=I
$$

strategy: find $D \times D$ matrix Q , and only use $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ columns Since Q is orthogonal we can think of it as a change of coordinates


## PCA: a change of coordinates

strategy: find $D \times D$ matrix Q , and only use $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ columns
Since $Q$ is orthonormal we can think of it as a change of coordinates

we want to change coordinates such that coordinates 1,2,..., $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ best explain the data for any given $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$

example $D=2$


## PCA preserves variance <br> first new coordinate has maximum variance (lowest reconstruction error) $Q=\left[\begin{array}{c}Q_{1,1}, \cdots, Q_{1, D} \\ \vdots, \cdot, \vdots \\ Q_{D, 1}, \ldots, Q_{D, D}\end{array}\right]$

Find a change of coordinate using orthonormal matrix second coordinate has the next largest variance

## $q_{1}$

along which one of these directions the data has a higher variance? more spread out?


this direction is the vector $q_{1}$
projection is given by $\frac{x^{(n)} q_{1}}{\left\|q_{1}\right\|_{2}}=x^{(n)^{\top}} q_{1}$
projection of the whole dataset is $X q_{1}=z_{1}$

$$
z_{1}^{\top}=\left[z_{1}^{(1)}, z_{1}^{(2)}, \ldots, z_{1}^{(N)}\right\rceil_{C}
$$

## PCA preserves variance

Find a change of coordinate using orthonormal matrix
first new coordinate has maximum variance projection of the whole dataset is $\quad z_{1}=X q_{1} \quad \operatorname{Var}\left(z_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n}\left(z_{1}^{(n)}-0\right)^{2}$ assuming features have zero mean, maximize the variance of the projection: $\frac{1}{N} z_{1}^{\top} z_{1}$

$$
\max _{q_{1}} \frac{1}{N} z_{1}^{\top} z_{1}=\max _{q_{1}} \frac{1}{N} q_{1}^{\top} X^{\top} X q_{1}=\max _{q_{1}} q_{1} \Sigma q_{1}^{\top}
$$

dxd covariance matrix

$$
\Sigma=\frac{1}{N} X^{\top} X=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n}\left(x^{(n)}-0\right)\left(x^{(n)}-0\right)^{\top}
$$

because the mean is zero
$\Sigma_{i, j}$ is the sample covariance of feature $i$ and $j$

$$
\Sigma_{i, j}=\operatorname{Cov}\left[X_{:, i}, X_{:, j}\right]=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n} x_{i}^{(n)} x_{j}^{(n)}
$$

## Covariance matrix

variance of a random variable $\operatorname{Var}(x)=\mathbb{E}\left[(x-\mathbb{E}[x])^{2}\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[x^{2}\right]-\mathbb{E}[x]^{2}$
covariance of two random variable $\operatorname{Cov}(x, y)=\mathbb{E}[(x-\mathbb{E}[x])(y-\mathbb{E}[y])]=\mathbb{E}[x y]-\mathbb{E}[x] \mathbb{E}[y]$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ we have covariance matrix

$$
\Sigma=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\Sigma_{1,1} & \cdots & \Sigma_{1, D}\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right)=\operatorname{Var}\left(x_{1}, x_{D}\right) \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\Sigma_{D, 1} & \cdots & \Sigma_{D, D}
\end{array}\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[(x-\mathbb{E}[x])(x-\mathbb{E}[x])^{\top}\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[x x^{\top}\right]-\mathbb{E}[x] \mathbb{E}[x]^{\top}
$$

given a dataset $\mathcal{D}=\left\{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(N)}\right\}$ sample covariance matrix

$$
\begin{aligned}
& { }^{\Sigma^{M L E}} \hat{\Sigma}=\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left(x-\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[x]\right)\left(x-\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[x]\right)^{\top}\right] \\
& \text { the empirical estimate } \\
& x-\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} x\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Correlation and dependence

correlation is normalized covariance

$$
\operatorname{Corr}\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(x_{i}\right) \operatorname{Var}\left(x_{j}\right)}} \in[-1,+1]
$$

two variables that are independent are uncorrelated as well

$$
p\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)=p\left(x_{i}\right) p\left(x_{j}\right) \longrightarrow \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i} x_{j}\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[x_{i}\right] \mathbb{E}\left[x_{j}\right] \rightarrow \operatorname{Cov}\left(x_{i} x_{j}\right)=0
$$

the inverse is generally not true (zero correlation doesn't mean independence)

in each example above correlation between two coordinates is zero, but they are not independent

## Decomposing the covariance matrix

covariance matrix is symmetric positive semi definite

- symmetric
- $\Sigma_{d, d^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Cov}\left(x_{d}, x_{d^{\prime}}\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(x_{d^{\prime}}, x_{d}\right)=\Sigma_{d^{\prime}, d}$
- positive semi definite
- for any $y \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ we have $y^{\top} \Sigma y=\left(y^{\top} \mathbb{E}\left[(x-\mathbb{E}[x])(x-\mathbb{E}[x])^{\top}\right] y\right)=\operatorname{Var}\left(y^{\top} x\right) \geq 0$
any symmetric positive semi-definite matrix can be decomposed as



## PCA with Eigenvalue decomposition

find a change of coordinate using an orthogonal matrix
first new coordinate has maximum variance

$$
\max _{q_{1}} q_{1} \Sigma q_{1}^{\top} \quad \text { s.t. } \quad\left\|q_{1}\right\|=1
$$

covariance matrix is symmetric and positive semi-definite

$$
\left(X^{\top} X\right)^{\top}=X^{\top} X \quad a^{\top} \Sigma a=\frac{1}{N} a^{\top} X^{\top} X a=\frac{1}{N}\|X a\|_{2}^{2} \geq 0 \quad \forall a
$$

any symmetric matrix has the following decomposition

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\Sigma=Q \Lambda Q^{\top} \quad \text { (as we see shortly using } \mathrm{Q} \text { here is not a co-incidence) } \\
Q Q^{\top}=Q^{\top} Q=I \text { dxd orthogonal matrix } & \text { diagonal and sorted }\left(\lambda_{1}>\lambda_{2}>\lambda_{3}>\ldots\right) \\
\text { each column is an eigenvector } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { corresponding eigenvalues are on the diagonal } \\
\text { positive semi-definiteness means these are non-negative }
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

## PCA: Principal Component Analysis

find a change of coordinate using an orthogonal matrix
first new coordinate has maximum variance

$$
q_{1}^{*}=\arg \max _{q_{1}} q_{1}^{\top} \sum^{\top} q_{1} \quad \text { s.t. } \quad\left\|q_{1}\right\|=1
$$



## Reducing dimensionality

projection into the principal direction $q_{i}$ is given by $X q_{i}$


think of the projection XQ as a change of coordinates
we can use the first $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ coordinates $Z=X Q_{:,: D^{\prime}}$
to reduce the dimensionality while capturing a lot of the variance in the data
we can project back into original coordinates using $\underset{\text { reconstruction }}{\tilde{X}}=Z Q_{:,: D^{\prime}}^{\top}$

## Example: digits dataset

let's only work with digit $2!\quad x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$

center the data and form the covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{784 \times 784}$
find the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, the principal directions

use the first 20 directions to reduce dimensionality from 784 to 20 !


## example: digits dataset

3D embedding of MNIST digits
(https://projector.tensorflow.org/)

$$
x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{784}
$$

the embedding 3D coordinates are

$X q_{1}, X q_{2}, X q_{3}$

## example: text dataset

3D embedding of Word2Vec
embeddings (https://projector.tensorflow.org/)


## example: face dataset

$$
q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots q_{15}
$$

eigenfaces for face recognition $x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}^{64 \times 64}$ read more here

eigenface 15
mean face used for centring the data

# there is another way to do PCA 

without using the covariance matrix

## Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

any $\mathrm{N} \times \mathrm{D}$ real matrix has the following decomposition

$u_{i}^{\top} u_{j}=0 \forall i \neq j$

$$
\left\{u_{i}\right\} \text { left singular vectors singular values }
$$

## compressed SVD

assuming $N>D$ we can ignore

- the last ( $\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{D}$ ) columns of $U$ why?
- last (N-D) rows of $S$
similarly if $D>N$ we can compress $V, S$
$X=U S S_{D \times D D \times D} V^{\top}$


## Singular value \& eigenvalue decomposition

recall that for PCA we used the eigenvalue decomposition of $\quad \Sigma=\frac{1}{N} X^{\top} X$ how does it relate to SVD?

$$
X^{\top} X=\left(U S V^{\top}\right)^{\top}\left(U S V^{\top}\right)=V S^{\top} U^{\top} U S V^{\top}=V S^{2} V^{\top}
$$

compare to $\quad \frac{1}{N} X^{\top} X=Q \Lambda Q^{\top}$
eigenvectors of $\Sigma$ are right singular vectors of $\mathrm{X} \quad Q=V$
for PCA we could use SVD

- this is the standard computation which works directly with data matrix instead of the covariance matrix


## Picking the number of PCs

number of PCs in PCA is a hyper-parameter, how should we choose this?
each new principle direction explains some variance in the data $\quad a_{d}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n} z_{d}^{(n)^{2}}$
such that we have $a_{1} \geq a_{2} \geq \ldots \geq a_{D} \quad$ (by definition of PCA)
we can divide by total variance to get a ratio $r_{i}=\frac{a_{i}}{\sum_{d} a_{d}}$
example for our digits example we get
sum of variance ratios up to a PC


first few principal directions explain most of the variance in the data!

## Picking the number of PCs

recall that for picking the principal direction we maximized the variance of the PC

$$
\left.\underset{\|q\|=1}{\max _{q} \frac{1}{N} q X^{\top} X q^{\top}=\max _{\| q} q \Sigma q^{\top}}=\underset{\|q\|=1}{\mid q q \|=1} \right\rvert\,
$$

so the variance ratios are also given by $r_{i}=\frac{\lambda_{i}}{\sum_{d} \lambda_{d}}$
so we can also use eigenvalues to pick the number of PCs

digits example:
two estimates of variance ratios do match

## Matrix factorization

PCA and SVD perform matrix factorization

$Z$ this is the matrix of low-dimensional features
$N \times D^{\prime}$ pc coefficients
factor loading matrix
this gives a row-rank approximation to our original matrix $X$

- we can use this to compress the matrix
- we can find give a "smooth" reconstruction of $X$ (remove noise or fill missing values)


## Matrix factorization



changing the rank D' gives different amount of compression




## Matrix factorization

K-means also can be seen as matrix factorization

matrix product simply equates each row of $X$ with one row of the factor matrix

- instead of principal components $\rightarrow$ cluster centers
- factor loading matrix $\boldsymbol{\longrightarrow}$ one nonzero per row of $Z$ (each node belongs to one cluster)


## Autoencoders

a feed-forward neural net which predicts its input

- can be trained with reconstruction loss
- e.g. mean squared error: $\sum_{n}\left\|x^{(n)}-\hat{x}^{(n)}\right\|_{2}^{2}$
dimensionality reduction with a bottleneck layer
much smaller than input


## Autoencoders

a feed-forward neural net which predicts its input

- can be trained with reconstruction loss
- e.g. reconstruction loss: $\|x-\psi(\phi(x))\|_{2}^{2}$ $\hat{x}$
dimensionality reduction with a bottleneck layer
much smaller than input
- optimal weights for linear autoencoder are the principal components
- nonlinear dimensionality reduction if activations are not all linear
- projecting the data on a non-linear manifold
- deep autoencoders are very powerful



## Autoencoders: example



## Summary

Dimensionality reduction helps us:

- visualize our data
- compress it
- simplify the computational need of further analysis (clustering, supervised learning etc.)
- also can be used for anomaly detection (not discussed)

PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction method

- projects the data to a linear space (spanned by D' principal directions)
- directions are eigenvectors of the covariance matrix
- the projection has maximum variance (minimum reconstruction error)
- eigenvalues tell us about the contribution of each new principal direction
- PCA using Singular Value Decomposition
- Model selection for PCA
- PCA as matrix factorization and its relationship to k-means
- practical note: don't forget to subtract the mean!

