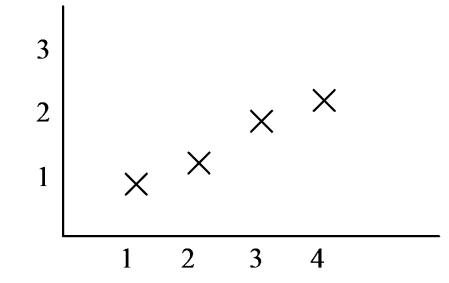
#### **Dimensionality reduction**

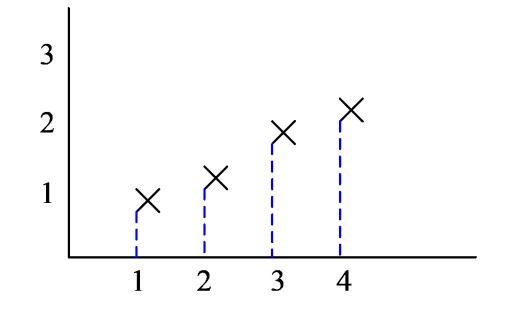
Usman Roshan

# **Dimensionality reduction**

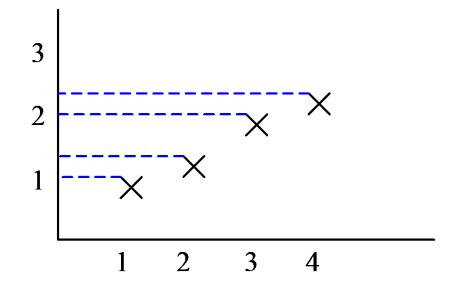
- What is dimensionality reduction?
  - Compress high dimensional data into lower dimensions
- How do we achieve this?
  - PCA (unsupervised): We find a vector w of length 1 such that the variance of the projected data onto w is maximized.
  - Binary classification (supervised): Find a vector w that maximizes ratio (Fisher) or difference (MMC) of means and variances of the two classes.



Projection on x-axis



Projection on y-axis



#### Mean and variance of data

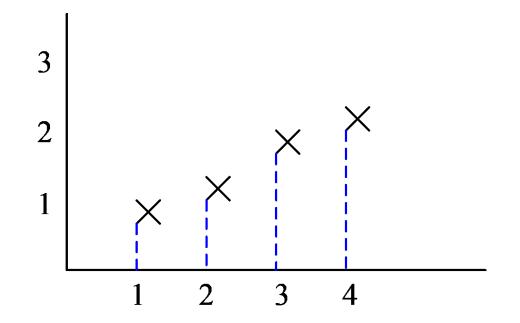
Original data

Projected data

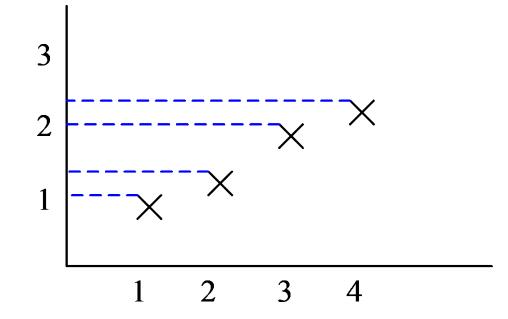
Mean: 
$$m = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$
  
Variance  $= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - m)^2$ 

Mean: 
$$m' = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} w^T x_i = w^T m$$
  
Variance  $= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^T x_i - w^T m)^2$ 

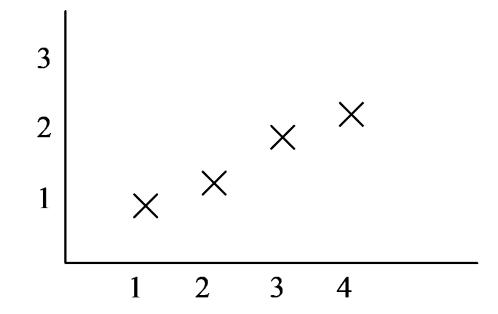
What is the mean and variance of projected data?



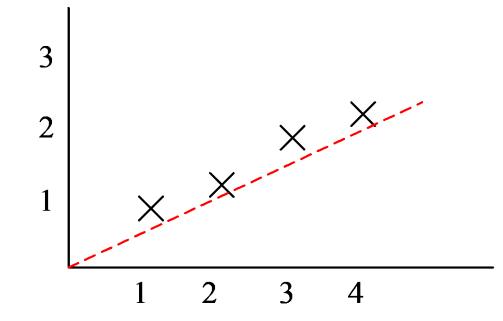
• What is the mean and variance here?



• Which line maximizes variance?



• Which line maximizes variance?



# Principal component analysis

 Find vector w of length 1 that maximizes variance of projected data

### PCA optimization problem

$$\arg\max_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{T} x_{i} - w^{T} m)^{2} \text{ subject to } w^{T} w = 1$$

The optimization criterion can be rewritten as

 $\arg\max_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{T}(x_{i}-m))^{2} =$  $\arg \max_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{T}(x_{i} - m))^{T}(w^{T}(x_{i} - m)) =$  $\arg\max\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}((x_{i}-m)^{T}w)(w^{T}(x_{i}-m)) =$  $\arg\max_{w} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} w^{T} (x_{i} - m) (x_{i} - m)^{T} w =$  $\arg \max_{w} w^{T} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - m)(x_{i} - m)^{T} w =$  $\arg \max w^T \sum w$  subject to  $w^T w = 1$ w

### PCA optimization problem

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - m)(x_i - m)^T$$

is also called the scatter matrix

If we let  $X = [x_1 - m, x_2 - m, \Box, x_n - m]$ where each  $x_i$  is a column vector then  $\Sigma = XX^T$ 

## PCA solution

- Using Lagrange multipliers we can show that w is given by the largest eigenvector of  $\sum$ .
- With this we can compress all the vectors  $x_i$  into  $w^T x_i$
- Does this help? Before looking at examples, what if we want to compute a second projection  $u^T x_i$  such that  $w^T u=0$  and  $u^T u=1$ ?
- It turns out that u is given by the second largest eigenvector of  $\sum d$ .

# PCA space and runtime considerations

- Depends on eigenvector computation
- BLAS and LAPACK subroutines
  - Provides Basic Linear Algebra Subroutines.
  - Fast C and FORTRAN implementations.
  - Foundation for linear algebra routines in most contemporary software and programming languages.
  - Different subroutines for eigenvector computation available

# PCA space and runtime considerations

- Eigenvector computation requires quadratic space in number of columns
- Poses a problem for high dimensional data
- Instead we can use the Singular Value Decomposition

# PCA via SVD

- Every n by n symmetric matrix Σ has an eigenvector decomposition Σ=QDQ<sup>T</sup> where D is a diagonal matrix containing eigenvalues of Σ and the columns of Q are the eigenvectors of Σ.
- Every m by n matrix A has a singular value decomposition A=USV<sup>T</sup> where S is m by n matrix containing singular values of A, U is m by m containing left singular vectors (as columns), and V is n by n containing right singular vectors. Singular vectors are of length 1 and orthogonal to each other.

# PCA via SVD

- In PCA the matrix Σ=XX<sup>T</sup> is symmetric and so the eigenvectors are given by columns of Q in Σ=QDQ<sup>T</sup>.
- The data matrix X (mean subtracted) has the singular value decomposition X=USV<sup>T</sup>.
- This gives
  - $-\Sigma = XX^{T} = USV^{T}(USV^{T})^{T}$
  - USV<sup>T</sup>(USV<sup>T</sup>)<sup>T</sup>= USV<sup>T</sup>VSU<sup>T</sup>

- USV<sup>T</sup>VSU<sup>T</sup> = US<sup>2</sup>U<sup>T</sup>

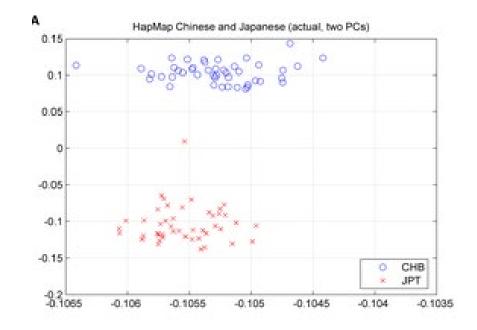
- Thus  $\Sigma = XX^T = US^2U^T => XX^TU = US^2U^TU = US^2$
- This means the eigenvectors of Σ (principal components of X) are the columns of U and the eigenvalues are the diagonal entries of S<sup>2</sup>.

# PCA via SVD

- And so an alternative way to compute PCA is to find the left singular values of X.
- If we want just the first few principal components (instead of all cols) we can implement PCA in rows x cols space with BLAS and LAPACK libraries
- Useful when dimensionality is very high at least in the order of 100s of thousands.

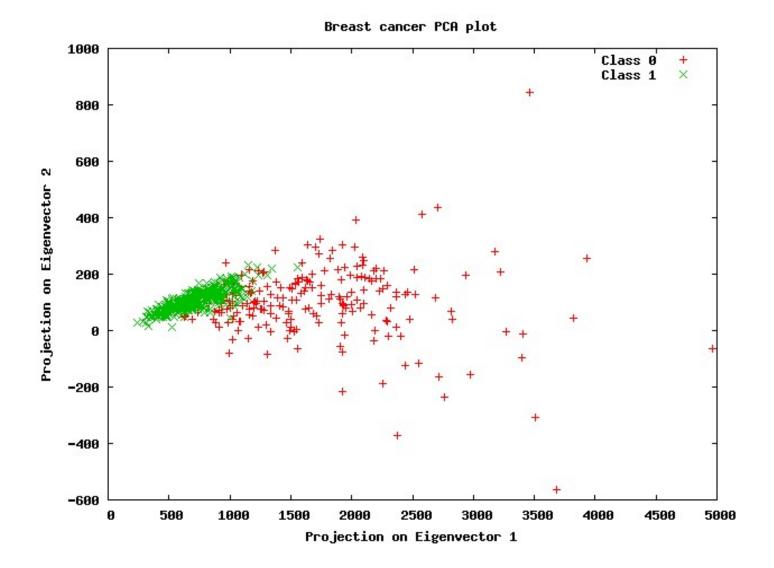
# PCA on genomic population data

- 45 Japanese and 45 Han Chinese from the International HapMap Project
- PCA applied on 1.7 million SNPs

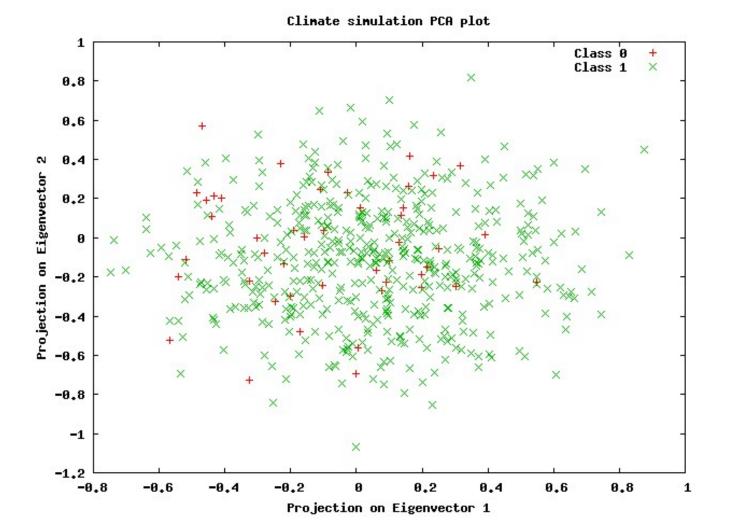


Taken from "PCA-Correlated SNPs for Structure Identification in Worldwide Human Populations" by Paschou et. al. in PLoS Genetics 2007

#### PCA on breast cancer data

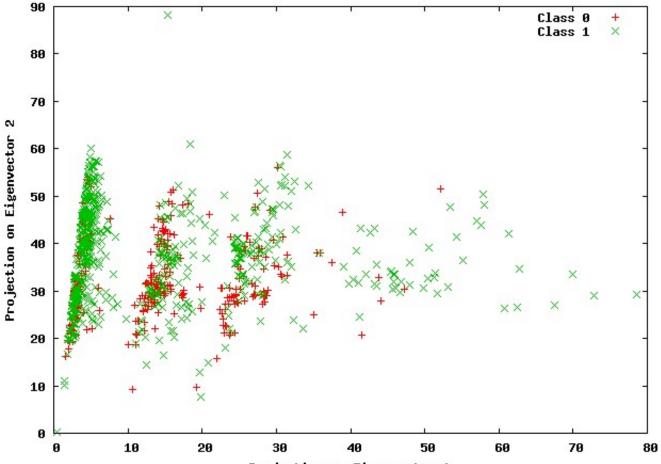


#### PCA on climate simulation



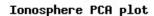
#### PCA on QSAR

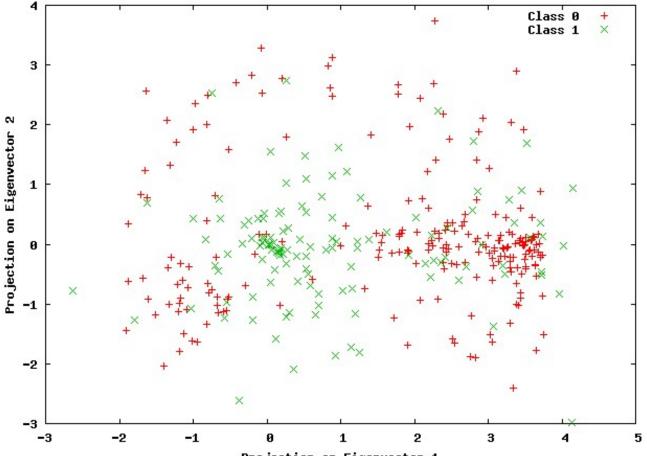




Projection on Eigenvector 1

#### PCA on lonosphere





Projection on Eigenvector 1

- Main idea of kernel version
  - $XX^{T}w = \lambda w$
  - $X^{\mathsf{T}} X X^{\mathsf{T}} w = \lambda X^{\mathsf{T}} w$
  - $(X^T X) X^T w = \lambda X^T w$
  - X<sup>T</sup>w is projection of data on the eigenvector w and also the eigenvector of X<sup>T</sup>X
- This is also another way to compute projections in space quadratic in number of rows but only gives projections.

• In feature space the mean is given by

$$m_{\Phi} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Phi(x_i)$$

 Suppose for a moment that the data is mean subtracted in feature space. In other words mean is 0. Then the scatter matrix in feature space is given by

$$\Sigma_{\Phi} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Phi(x_i) \Phi^T(x_i)$$

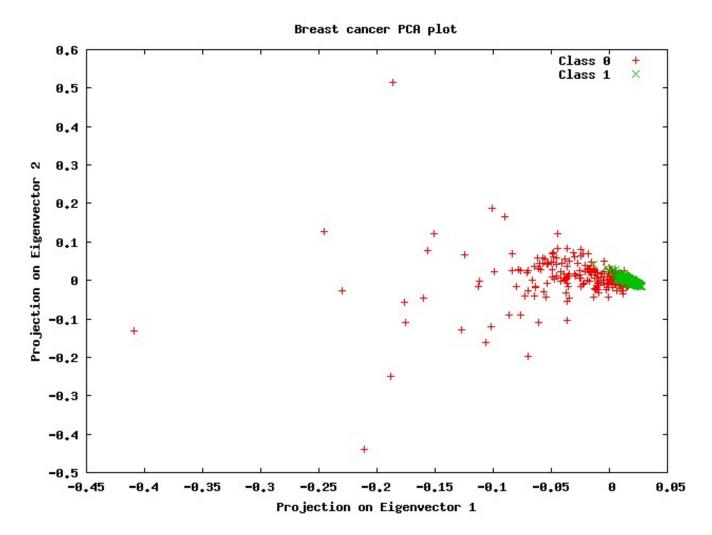
- The eigenvectors of  $\Sigma_{\Phi}$  give us the PCA solution. But what if we only know the kernel matrix?
- First we center the kernel matrix so that mean is 0

$$\hat{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{K} - rac{1}{\ell} \mathbf{j} \mathbf{j}' \mathbf{K} - rac{1}{\ell} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{j} \mathbf{j}' + rac{1}{\ell^2} \left( \mathbf{j}' \mathbf{K} \mathbf{j} 
ight) \mathbf{j} \mathbf{j}'$$

where j is a vector of 1's.K = K

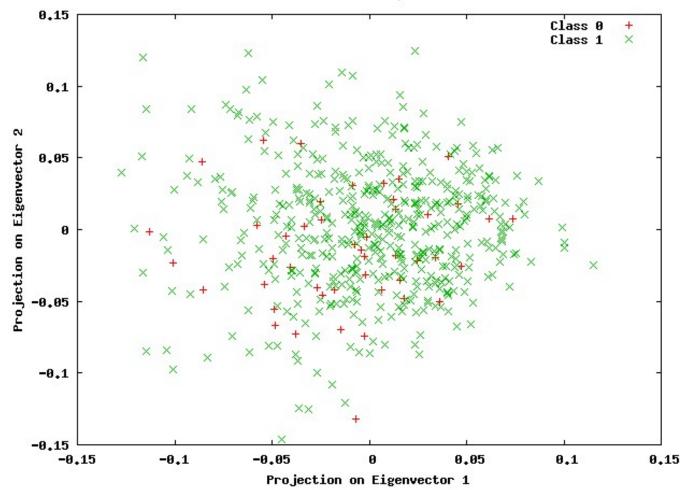
- Recall from earlier
  - $XX^{T}w = \lambda w$
  - $X^{\mathsf{T}} X X^{\mathsf{T}} w = \lambda X^{\mathsf{T}} w$
  - $(X^{\mathsf{T}}X)X^{\mathsf{T}}w = \lambda X^{\mathsf{T}}w$
  - X<sup>T</sup>w is projection of data on the eigenvector w and also the eigenvector of X<sup>T</sup>X
  - $X^T X$  is the linear kernel matrix
- Same idea for kernel PCA
- The projected solution is given by the eigenvectors of the centered kernel matrix.

## Polynomial degree 2 kernel Breast cancer



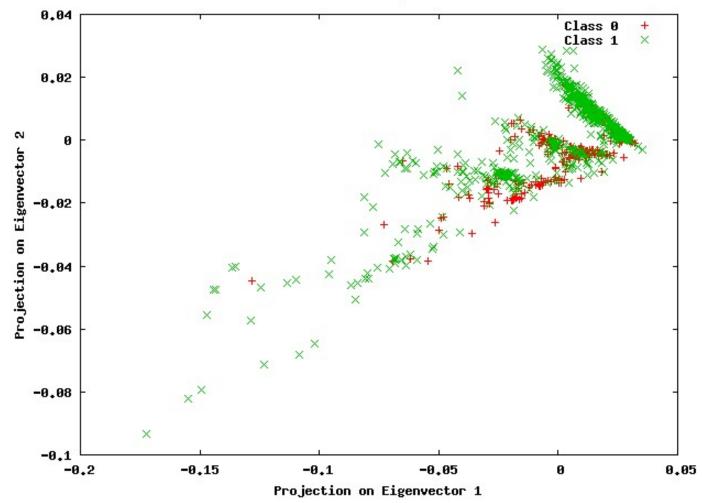
# Polynomial degree 2 kernel Climate

Climate PCA plot



## Polynomial degree 2 kernel Qsar

Qsar PCA plot



# Polynomial degree 2 kernel Ionosphere

Ionosphere PCA plot

0.3 Class 0 + Class 1 × 0,25 0.2 0,15 ŝ Projection on Eigenvector 0.1 0.05 Ø 0,05 -0.1 × -0,15 -0.2 -0,25 -0.08 -0.06 -0,04 -0,02 Ø 0.02 0.04 0,06 0,08 0.1 0,12 -0.1

**Projection on Eigenvector 1** 

# Random projections

- What if we projected our data onto random vectors instead of PCA or LDA?
- Turns out that random projections preserve distances upto a certain error

#### Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma

 Given any ε and n and k >= O(log(n)/ε<sup>2</sup>), for any set of P of n points in R<sup>d</sup> there exists a lower dimensional mapping f(x) (x in P) to R<sup>k</sup> such that for any u,v in P

$$(1-\varepsilon)||u-v||^2 \le ||f(u)-f(v)||^2 \le (1+\varepsilon)||u-v||^2$$

- Furthermore, this mapping can be found in randomized polynomial time. Simply let each random vector be randomly sampled from thenormal Gaussian distribution.
- Why does this work? Because random projections of vectors preserve length and we model distance between vectors u and v as vectors.