

# UNSUPERVISED LEARNING 2011

## LECTURE : MANIFOLD LEARNING

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slides are due to L.Saul and A. Ghodsi

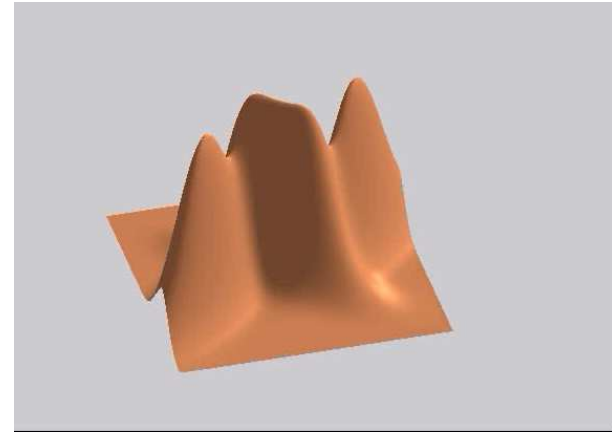
# Topics

- PCA
- MDS
- IsoMap
- LLE
- EigenMaps

# Types of Structure in High Dimension

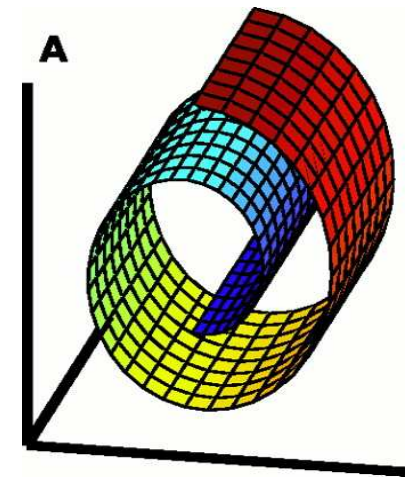
- Clumps

- Clustering
- Density Estimation



- Low Dimensional Manifolds

- Linear
- NonLinear



# Dimensionality Reduction

- Data representation

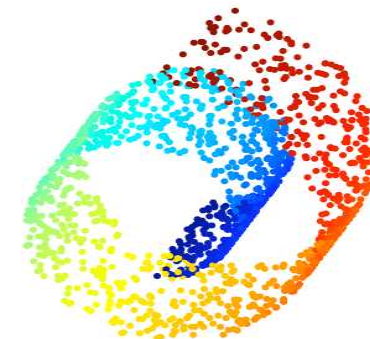
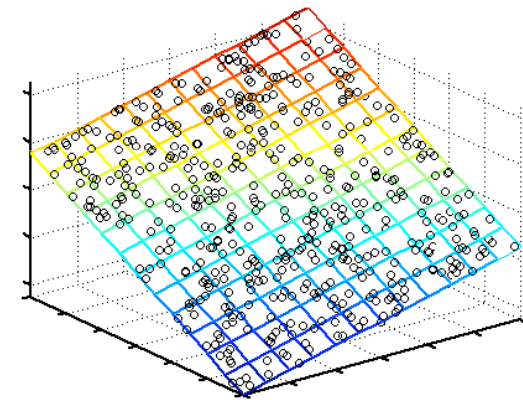
Inputs are real-valued vectors in a high dimensional space.

- Linear structure

Does the data live in a low dimensional subspace?

- Nonlinear structure

Does the data live on a low dimensional submanifold?



# Dimensionality Reduction

## ◎ Question

How can we detect low dimensional structure in high dimensional data?

## ◎ Applications

- Digital image and speech processing
- Analysis of neuronal populations
- Gene expression microarray data
- Visualization of large networks

# Notations

- Inputs (**high dimensional**)

$\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^D$

- Outputs (**low dimensional**)

$\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  ( $d \ll D$ )

- Goals

Nearby points remain nearby.

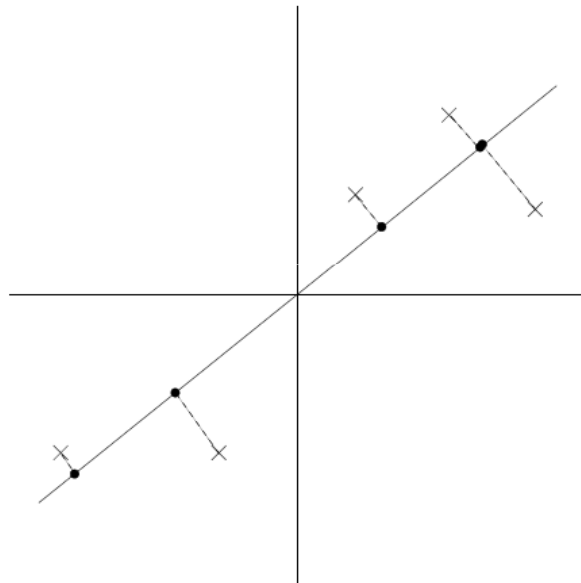
Distant points remain distant.

# Linear Methods

- PCA
- MDS

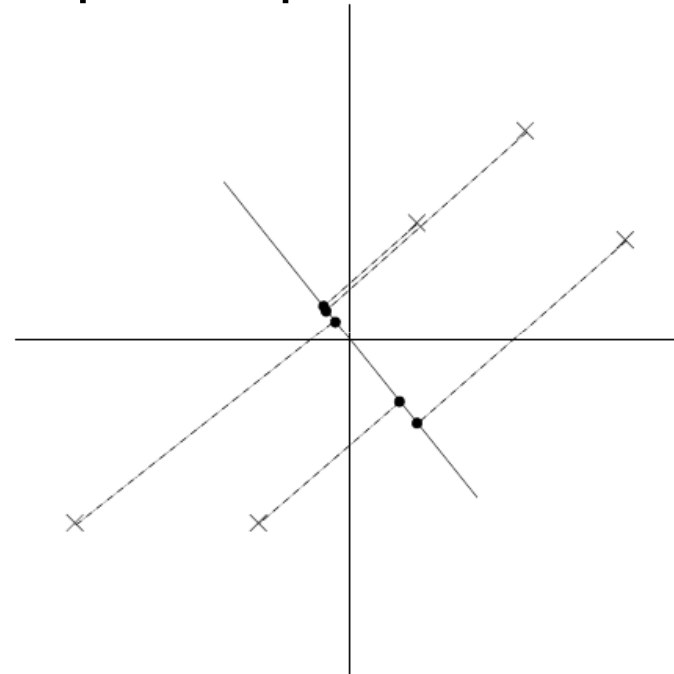
# Principle Component Analysis

good representation



the projected data has a fairly large variance, and the points tend to be far from zero.

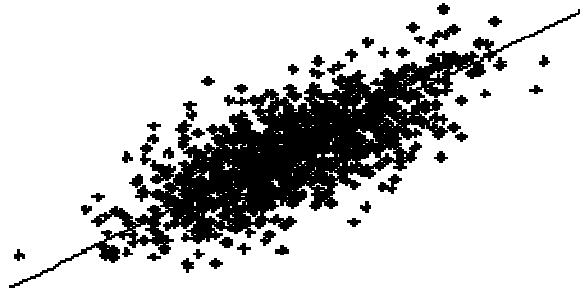
poor representation



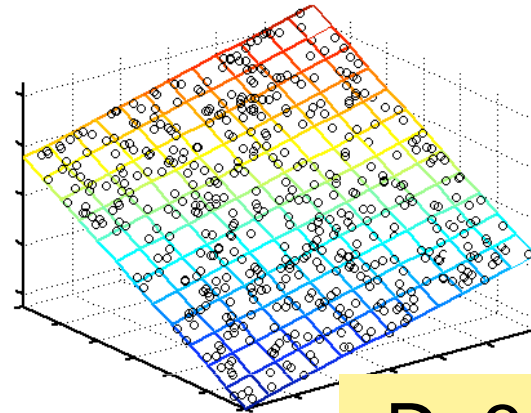
the projections have a significantly smaller variance, and are much closer to the origin.



# Principle Component Analysis



$D=2, d=1$



$D=3, d=2$

- Seek most accurate data representation in a lower dimensional space.
- The good direction/subspace to use for projection lies in the direction of largest variance.

# Maximum Variance Subspace

- Assume inputs are centered:  $\sum_i x_i = 0$
- Given a unit vector  $u$  and a point  $x$ , the length of the projection of  $x$  onto  $u$  is given by  $x^T u$
- Maximize projected variance:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(y) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (x_i^T u)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i u^T x_i x_i^T u \\ &= u^T \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i x_i^T \right) u\end{aligned}$$

# 1D Subspace

- Maximizing  $u^T C u$  subject to  $\|u\| = 1$

where  $C = n^{-1} \sum_i x_i x_i^T$  is the empirical

covariance matrix of the data,  
gives the principle eigenvector of  $C$ .

# d-dimensional Subspace

- to project the data into a d-dimensional subspace ( $d \ll D$ ), we should choose  $u_1, \dots, u_d$  to be the top d eigenvectors of  $C$ .
- $u_1, \dots, u_d$  now form a new, orthogonal basis for the data.
- The low dimensional representation of  $x$  is given by

$$y_i = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^T x_i \\ u_2^T x_i \\ \vdots \\ u_k^T x_i \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^d.$$

# Interpreting PCA

- Eigenvectors:  
principal axes of maximum variance subspace.
- Eigenvalues:  
variance of projected inputs along principle axes.
- Estimated dimensionality:  
number of significant (nonnegative) eigenvalues.

# PCA summary

Input:  $z_i \in R^D, i=1, \dots, n$     Output:  $y_i \in R^d, i=1, \dots, n$

1. Subtract sample mean from the data

$$x_i = z_i - \hat{\mu}, \quad \hat{\mu} = 1/n \sum_i z_i$$

2. Compute the covariance matrix

$$C = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i^t$$

3. Compute eigenvectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_d$  corresponding to the  $d$  largest eigenvalues of  $C$  ( $d \ll D$ ).

4. The desired  $y$  is

$$y = P^t x, \quad P = [\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_d]$$

# Equivalence

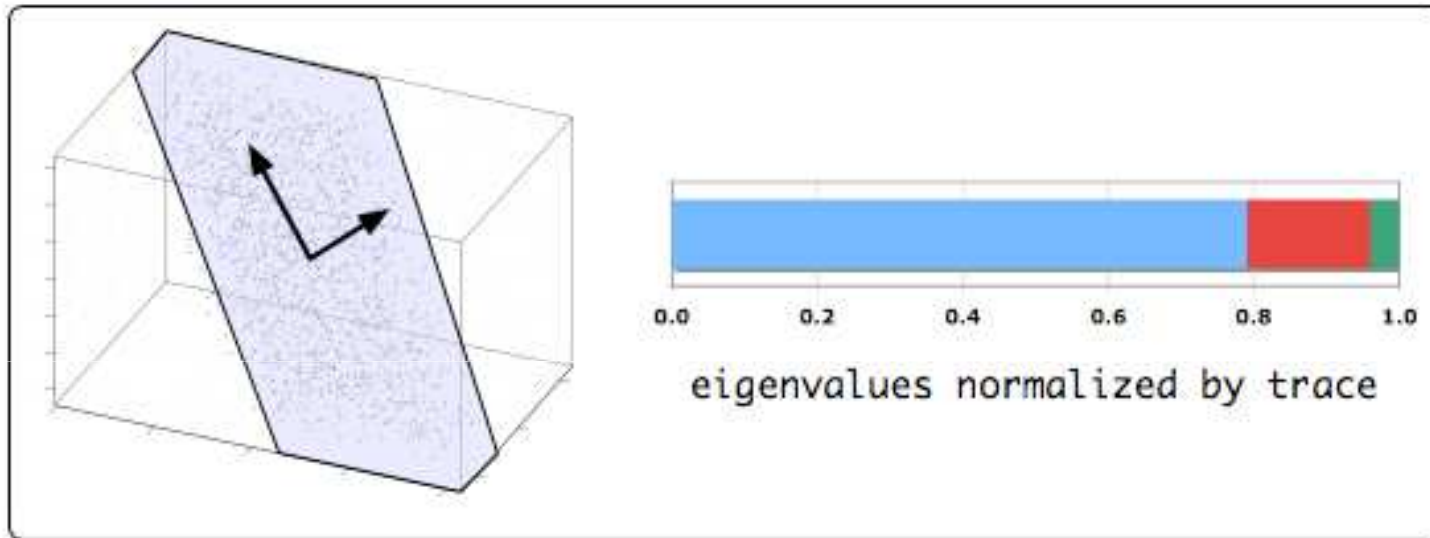
- PCA finds the directions that have the most variance.

$$\text{var}(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left\| P^T x_i \right\|^2$$

- Same result can be obtained by minimizing the squared reconstruction error.

$$\text{err}(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left\| x_i - PP^T x_i \right\|^2$$

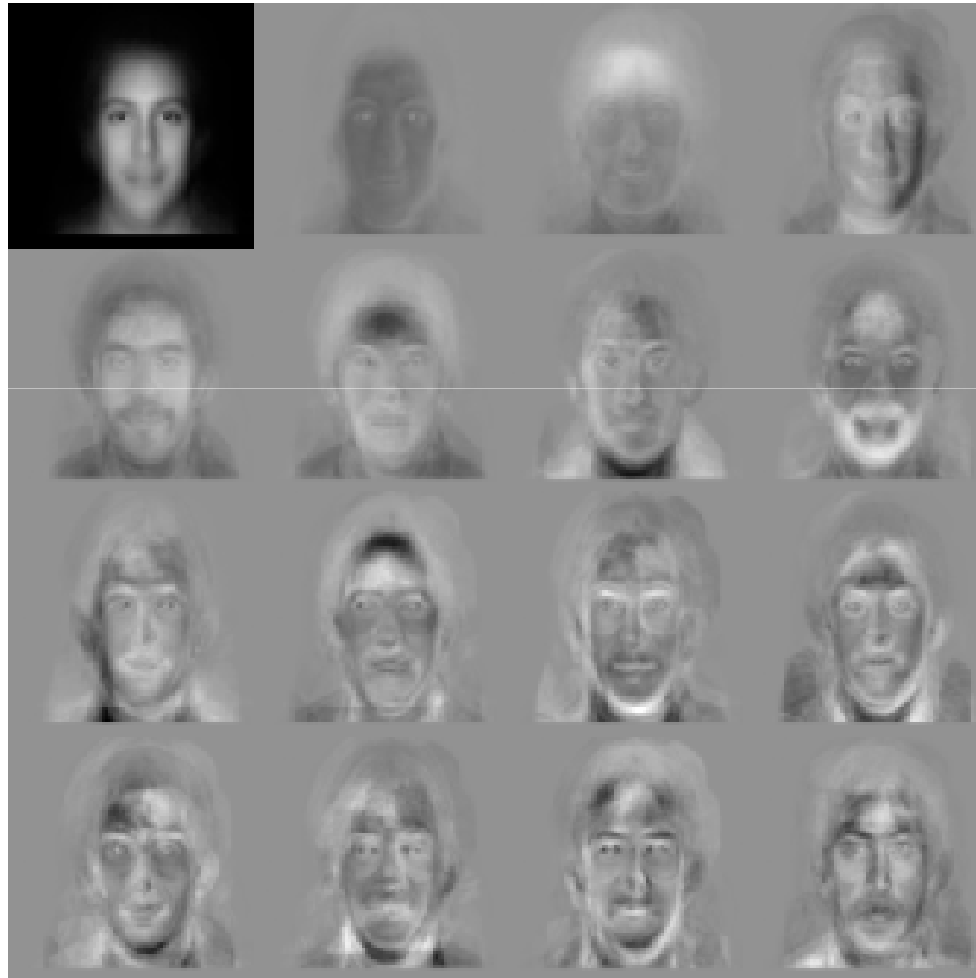
# Example of PCA



Eigenvectors and eigenvalues of covariance matrix for  $n=1600$  inputs in  $d=3$  dimensions.



# Example: faces



Eigenfaces from 7562  
Images:  
top left image  
is linear  
combination  
of the rest.

Sirovich & Kirby (1987)  
Turk & Pentland (1991)

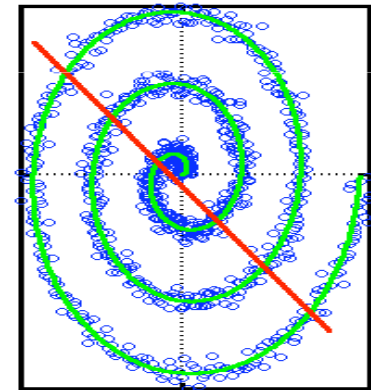
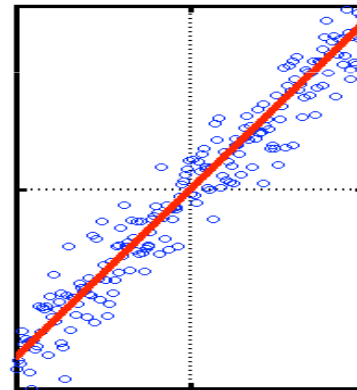
# Properties of PCA

## Strengths:

- Eigenvector method
- No tuning parameters
- Non-iterative
- No local optima

## Weaknesses:

- Limited to second order statistics
- Limited to linear projections

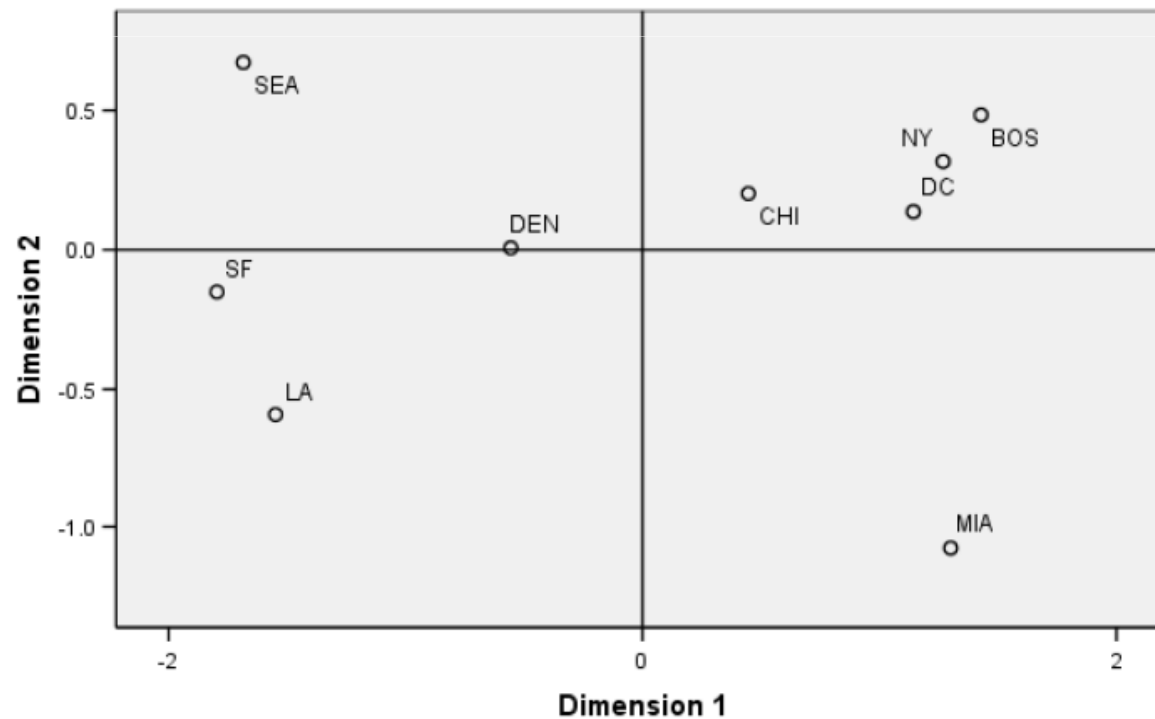


# Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

- MDS attempts to preserve pairwise distances.
- Attempts to construct a configuration of  $n$  points in Euclidian space by using the information about the distances between the  $n$  patterns.

# Example : Distances between US Cities

	BOS	CHI	DC	DEN	LA	MIA	NY	SEA	SF
BOS	0	963	429	1,949	2,979	1,504	206	2,976	3,095
CHI	963	0	671	996	2,054	1,329	802	2,013	2,142
DC	429	671	0	1,616	2,631	1,075	233	2,684	2,799
DEN	1,949	996	1,616	0	1,059	2,037	1,771	1,307	1,235
LA	2,979	2,054	2,631	1,059	0	2,687	2,786	1,131	379
MIA	1,504	1,329	1,075	2,037	2,687	0	1,308	3,273	3,053
NY	206	802	233	1,771	2,786	1,308	0	2,815	2,934
SEA	2,976	2,013	2,684	1,307	1,131	3,273	2,815	0	808
SF	3,095	2,142	2,799	1,235	379	3,053	2,934	808	0



# Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

- A  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathcal{D}$  is called a distance or affinity matrix if it is symmetric,  $\mathbf{d}_{ii} = 0$ , and  $\mathbf{d}_{ij} > 0$ ,  $i \neq j$ .
- Given a distance matrix  $\mathcal{D}^{(X)}$ , MDS attempts to find  $n$  data points  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  in  $d$  dimensions, such that if  $d_{ij}^{(Y)}$  denotes the Euclidean distance between  $y_i$  and  $y_j$ , then  $\mathcal{D}^Y$  is similar to  $\mathcal{D}^{(X)}$ .

# Metric MDS

- Metric MDS minimizes

$$\min_Y \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n (d_{ij}^{(X)} - d_{ij}^{(Y)})^2$$

where

$$d_{ij}^{(X)} = \|x_i - x_j\| \quad \text{and} \quad d_{ij}^{(Y)} = \|y_i - y_j\|.$$

# Metric MDS

- The distance matrix  $D^{(X)}$  can be converted to a Gram matrix  $K$  by

$$K = -\frac{1}{2} H (D^{(X)})^2 H$$

where  $H = I - \frac{1}{n} ee^T$  and  $e$  is the vector of ones.

# Metric MDS

⊙  $K$  is *p.s.d.*, thus it can be written as  $K = X^T X$

⊙  $\min_Y \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n (d_{ij}^{(X)} - d_{ij}^{(Y)})^2$  is equivalent to

$$\min_Y \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n (x_i^T x_j - y_i^T y_j)^2$$

⊙ The norm can be converted to a trace:

$$\min_Y \text{Tr} \left( X^T X - Y^T Y \right)^2$$



# Metric MDS

- Using Singular Value Decomposition we can decompose:

$$X^T X = V \Lambda V^T$$

$$Y^T Y = Q \hat{\Lambda} Q^T$$

- Since  $Y^T Y$  is *p.s.d.*,  $\hat{\Lambda}$  has no negative values, thus

$$Y = \hat{\Lambda}^{1/2} Q^T$$

# Metric MDS

- Returning to the minimization, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{Q, \hat{\Lambda}} \text{Tr} \left( V \Lambda V^T - Q \hat{\Lambda} Q^T \right)^2 \\ &= \min_{Q, \hat{\Lambda}} \text{Tr} \left( \Lambda - \underbrace{V^T Q \hat{\Lambda} Q^T V}_G \right)^2 \\ &= \min_{G, \hat{\Lambda}} \text{Tr} \left( \Lambda - G \hat{\Lambda} G^T \right)^2 \\ &= \min_{G, \hat{\Lambda}} \text{Tr} \left( \Lambda^2 + G \hat{\Lambda} G^T G \hat{\Lambda} G^T - 2 \Lambda G \hat{\Lambda} G^T \right) \end{aligned}$$

# Metric MDS

- For a fixed  $\hat{\Lambda}$  we can minimize for  $G$ , obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} G &= I \\ \min_{\hat{\Lambda}} \text{Tr} \left( \Lambda^2 + \hat{\Lambda}^2 - 2\Lambda\hat{\Lambda}G \right) \\ &= \min_{\hat{\Lambda}} \text{Tr} \left( \Lambda - \hat{\Lambda} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

# Metric MDS

- To make the two matrices  $\Lambda$  and  $\hat{\Lambda}$  similar, we can make  $\hat{\Lambda}$  to be the top  $d$  diagonal elements of  $\Lambda$ .
- Also  $G = V^T Q$  and  $G = I$  imply that  $V = Q$ .
- Therefore,

$$Y = \hat{\Lambda}^{1/2} Q^T \quad \longrightarrow \quad Y = \hat{\Lambda}^{1/2} V^T$$

where  $V$  comprises the eigenvectors of  $X^T X$  corresponding to the top  $d$  eigenvalues and  $\hat{\Lambda}$  comprises the top  $d$  eigenvalues of  $X^T X$ .

# Interpreting MDS

- Eigenvectors:

  - Ordered, scaled, and truncated to yield low dimensional embedding.

- Eigenvalues:

  - Measure how each dimension contributes to dot products.

- Estimated dimensionality:

  - Number of significant (nonnegative) eigenvalues.

# Relation to PCA

	<b>PCA</b>	<b>MDS</b>
Spectral Decomposition	Covariance matrix ( $D \times D$ )	Gram matrix ( $n \times n$ )
Eigenvalues	Matrices share nonzero eigenvalues up to constant factor	
Results	Same	
Computation	$O((n+d)D^2)$	$O((D+d)n^2)$

# Non-Metric MDS

- ⊙ Transform pairwise distances:  $\delta_{ij} \rightarrow g(\delta_{ij})$ 
  - Transformation: nonlinear, but monotonic.
  - Preserves rank order of distances.
- ⊙ Find vectors  $y_i$  such that  $\|y_i - y_j\| \approx g(\delta_{ij})$

$$Cost = \min_y \sum_{ij} \left( g(\delta_{ij}) - \|y_i - y_j\| \right)^2$$

# Non-Metric MDS

- Possible objective function:

$$Cost = \sum_{i,j} \left( \frac{\| \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j \| - \| \mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_j \|}{\| \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j \|} \right)^2$$



# Properties of non-metric MDS

## ⦿ Strengths

- Relaxes distance constraints.
- Yields nonlinear embeddings.

## ⦿ Weaknesses

- Highly nonlinear, iterative optimization with local minima.
- Unclear how to choose distance transformation.