## Spectral Methods for Dimensionality Reduction

## Prof. Lawrence Saul

## Dept of Computer \& Information Science University of Pennsylvania

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## Dimensionality reduction

- Question

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

- Applications
- Digital image and speech libraries
- Neuronal population activities
- Gene expression microarrays
- Financial time series


## Framework

- 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?


## Linear vs nonlinear



What computational price must we pay for nonlinear dimensionality reduction?

## Spectral methods

- Matrix analysis

Low dimensional structure is revealed by eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

- Links to spectral graph theory

Matrices are derived from sparse weighted graphs.


- Usefulness

Tractable methods can reveal nonlinear structure.

## Notation

- Inputs (high dimensional)

$$
\vec{x}_{i} \in \mathfrak{R}^{D} \text { with } i=1,2, \ldots, n
$$

- Outputs (low dimensional)
$\vec{y}_{i} \in \mathfrak{R}^{d}$ where $d \ll D$
- Goals

Nearby points remain nearby. Distant points remain distant. (Estimate d.)

## Manifold learning

## Given high dimensional data sampled from a low dimensional submanifold, how to compute a faithful embedding?



## Image Manifolds



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$c$
 (Tenenbaum et al, 2000)

## Outline

- Day 1 - linear, nonlinear, and graph-based methods
- Day 2 - sparse matrix methods
- Day 3-semidefinite programming
- Day 4 - kernel methods


## Questions for today

- How to detect linear structure?
- principal components analysis
- metric multidimensional scaling
- How (not) to generalize these methods?
- neural network autoencoders
- nonmetric multidimensional scaling
- How to detect nonlinear structure?
- graphs as discretized manifolds
- Isomap algorithm


## Linear method \#1

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

## Principal components analysis



Does the data mostly lie in a subspace? If so, what is its dimensionality?

## Maximum variance subspace

- Assume inputs are centered:

$$
\sum_{i} \vec{x}_{i}=\overrightarrow{0}
$$

- Project into subspace:

$$
\vec{y}_{i}=P \vec{x}_{i} \text { with } P^{2}=P
$$

- Maximize projected variance:

$$
\operatorname{var}(\vec{y})=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}\left\|P \vec{x}_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

## Matrix diagonalization

- Covariance matrix

$$
\operatorname{var}(\vec{y})=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P C P^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \text { with } C=n^{-1} \sum_{i} \vec{x}_{i} \vec{x}_{i}^{T}
$$

- Spectral decomposition

$$
C=\sum_{\alpha=1}^{D} \lambda_{\alpha} \vec{e}_{\alpha} \vec{e}_{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \text { with } \lambda_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{D} \geq 0
$$

- Maximum variance projection

$$
P=\sum_{\alpha=1}^{d} \vec{e}_{\alpha} \vec{e}_{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}
$$

Projects into subspace spanned by top $d$ eigenvectors.

## Interpreting PCA

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


## Example of PCA



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

## Example: faces



## Eigenfaces from 7562 images:

top left image
is linear combination of rest.

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

## Another interpretation of PCA:

- Assume inputs are centered:

$$
\sum_{i} \vec{x}_{i}=\overrightarrow{0}
$$

- Project into subspace:

$$
\vec{y}_{i}=P \vec{x}_{i} \text { with } P^{2}=P
$$

- Minimize reconstruction error:

$$
\operatorname{err}(\vec{y})=n^{-1} \sum_{i}\left\|\vec{x}_{i}-P \vec{x}_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

## Equivalence

- Minimum reconstruction error:

$$
\operatorname{err}(\vec{y})=n^{-1} \sum_{i}\left\|\vec{x}_{i}-P \vec{x}_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

- Maximum variance subspace

$$
\operatorname{var}(\vec{y})=n^{-1} \sum_{i}\left\|P \vec{x}_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

Both models for linear dimensionality reduction yield the same solution.

## PCA as linear autoencoder

- Network

Each layer implements a linear transformation.

- Cost function

Minimize

reconstruction error through bottleneck:

$$
\operatorname{err}(P)=n^{-1} \sum_{i}\left\|\vec{x}_{i}-P^{\mathrm{T}} P \vec{x}_{i}\right\|^{2}
$$

## Summary of PCA

1) Center inputs on origin.
2) Compute covariance matrix.
3) Diagonalize.
4) Project.

5) $\overrightarrow{0}=\sum_{i} \vec{x}_{i}$
6) $C=n^{-1} \sum_{i} \vec{x}_{i} \vec{x}_{i}^{\text {T }}$
7) $C=\sum_{\alpha} \lambda_{\alpha} \vec{e}_{\alpha} \vec{e}_{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}$
8) $\vec{y}_{i}=P \vec{x}_{i}$ with $P=\sum_{\alpha \leq d} \vec{e}_{\alpha} \vec{e}_{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D=3 \\
& d=2
\end{aligned}
$$

## Properties of PCA

- Strengths
-Eigenvector method
- No tuning parameters
-Non-iterative
-No local optima
- Weaknesses
-Limited to second order statistics
-Limited to linear projections


## So far..

- Q: How to detect linear structure? A: Principal components analysis - Maximum variance subspace
- Minimum reconstruction error
-Linear network autoencoders
- Q: How (not) to generalize for manifolds?



## Nonlinear autoencoder

- Neural network Each layer parameterizes a nonlinear transformation.
- Cost function Minimize reconstruction error:


$$
\operatorname{err}(W)=n^{-1} \sum_{i} \| \vec{x}_{i}-l_{W}\left(h _ { W } \left(g _ { W } \left(f_{W}\left(\vec{x}_{i}\right) \|^{2}\right.\right.\right.
$$

## Properties of neural network

- Strengths
- Parameterizes nonlinear mapping (in both directions).
-Generalizes to new inputs.
- Weaknesses
-Many unspecified choices: network size, parameterization, learning rates.
-Highly nonlinear, iterative optimization with local minima.


## Linear vs nonlinear



What computational price must we pay for nonlinear dimensionality reduction?

## Linear method \#2

Metric Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

## Multidimensional scaling



Given $n(n-1) / 2$ pairwise distances $\Delta_{i j}$, find vectors $\vec{y}_{i}$ such that $\left\|\vec{y}_{i}-\vec{y}_{j}\right\| \approx \Delta_{i j}$.

## Metric Multidimensional Scaling

- Lemma

If $\Delta_{i j}$ denote the Euclidean distances of zero mean vectors, then the inner products are:

$$
G_{i j}=\frac{1}{2}\left[\sum_{k}\left(\square_{i k}^{2}+\square_{k j}^{2}\right)-\square_{i j}^{2}-\sum_{k l} \square_{k l}^{2}\right]
$$

- Optimization

Preserve dot products (proxy for distances). Choose vectors $\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{y}}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ to minimize:

$$
\operatorname{err}(\vec{y})=\sum_{i j}\left(G_{i j}-\vec{y}_{i} \cdot \vec{y}_{j}\right)^{2}
$$

## Matrix diagonalization

- Gram matrix "matching"

$$
\operatorname{err}(\vec{y})=\sum_{i j}\left(G_{i j}-\vec{y}_{i} \cdot \vec{y}_{j}\right)^{2}
$$

- Spectral decomposition

$$
G=\sum_{\alpha=1}^{n} \lambda_{\alpha} \vec{v}_{\alpha} \vec{v}_{\alpha}^{\mathrm{T}} \text { with } \lambda_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n} \geq 0
$$

- Optimal approximation

$$
y_{i \alpha}=\sqrt{\lambda_{\alpha}} v_{\alpha i} \text { for } \alpha=1,2, \ldots, d \text { with } d \leq n
$$

(scaled truncated eigenvectors)

## Interpreting MDS

$y_{i \alpha}=\sqrt{\lambda_{\alpha}} v_{\alpha i}$ for $\alpha=1,2, \ldots, d$ with $d \ll n$

- 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

- Dual matrices

$$
\begin{array}{|llr|}
\hline C_{\alpha \beta} & =n^{-1} \sum_{i} x_{i \alpha} x_{i \beta} & \text { covariance matrix }(D \times D) \\
G_{i j} & =\vec{x}_{i} \bullet \vec{x}_{j} & \text { Gram matrix } \quad(n \times n) \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

- Same eigenvalues

Matrices share nonzero eigenvalues up to constant factor.

- Same results, different computation PCA scales as $O\left((n+d) D^{2}\right)$. MDS scales as $O\left((D+d) n^{2}\right)$.


## So far..

- Q: How to detect linear structure? A1: Principal components analysis A2: Metric multidimensional scaling
- Q: How (not) to generalize for manifolds?


## Nonmetric MDS



Transform pairwise distances: $\Delta_{i j} \longrightarrow g\left(\Delta_{i j}\right)$. Find vectors $\vec{y}_{i}$ such that $\left\|\vec{y}_{i} \vec{y}_{j}\right\| \approx g\left(\Delta_{i j}\right)$.

## Non-Metric MDS

- Distance transformation

Nonlinear, but monotonic. Preserves rank order of distances.

- Optimization

Preserve transformed distances. Choose vectors $\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{y}}_{i}$ to minimize:

$$
\operatorname{err}(\vec{y})=\sum_{i j}\left(g\left(\square_{i j}\right)-\left\|\vec{y}_{i}-\vec{y}_{j}\right\|\right)^{2}
$$

## 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.


## Non-metric MDS for manifolds?

## Rank ordering of Euclidean distances is NOT preserved in "manifold learning".


$d(A, C)<d(A, B)$
$d(A, C)>d(A, B)$

## Linear vs nonlinear



What computational price must we pay for nonlinear dimensionality reduction?

## Graph-based method \#1

## Isometric mapping of data manifolds (ISOMAP)

(Tenenbaum, de Silva, \& Langford, 2000)

## Dimensionality reduction

- Inputs

$$
\vec{x}_{i} \in \Re^{D} \text { with } i=1,2, \ldots, n
$$

- Outputs
$\vec{y}_{i} \in \mathfrak{R}^{d}$ where $d \ll D$
- Goals

Nearby points remain nearby. Distant points remain distant. (Estimate d.)

## Isomap

- Key idea:

Preserve geodesic distances as measured along submanifold.

- Algorithm in a nutshell:

Use geodesic instead of (transformed) Euclidean distances in MDS.


## Step 1. Build adjacency graph.

- Adjacency graph Vertices represent inputs. Undirected edges connect neighbors.
- Neighborhood selection Many options: $\boldsymbol{k}$-nearest neighbors, inputs within radius $r$, prior knowledge.


Graph is discretized approximation of submanifold.

## Building the graph

- Computation
kNN scales naively as $O\left(n^{2} D\right)$.
Faster methods exploit data structures.
- Assumptions

1) Graph is connected.
2) Neighborhoods on graph reflect neighborhoods on manifold.


## No "shortcuts" connect different arms of swiss roll.

## Step 2. Estimate geodesics.

- Dynamic programming

Weight edges by local distances. Compute shortest paths through graph.

- Geodesic distances

Estimate by lengths $\Delta_{i j}$ of shortest paths: denser sampling = better estimates.

- Computation

Djikstra's algorithm for shortest paths scales as $O\left(n^{2} \log n+n^{2} k\right)$.

## Step 3. Metric MDS

- Embedding

Top $d$ eigenvectors of Gram matrix yield embedding.

- Dimensionality

Number of significant eigenvalues yield estimate of dimensionality.

- Computation

Top $d$ eigenvectors can be computed in $O\left(n^{2} d\right)$.

## Summary

- Algorithm

1) $k$ nearest neighbors
2) shortest paths through graph
3) MDS on geodesic distances

- Impact

Much simpler than earlier algorithms for manifold learning. Does it work?

## Examples

- Swiss roll


$$
\begin{aligned}
& n=1024 \\
& k=12 \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

- Wrist images

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n=2000 \\
& k=6 \\
& D=64^{2} \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$



## Examples

- Face images

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n=698 \\
& k=6
\end{aligned}
$$

- Digit images

$$
\begin{aligned}
n & =1000 \\
r & =4.2 \\
D & =20^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$



# Interpolations <br> A. Faces <br> B. Wrists <br> C. Digits 



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Linear in Isomap feature space. Nonlinear in
pixel space.


## Properties of Isomap

- Strengths
-Polynomial-time optimizations
-No local minima
-Non-iterative (one pass thru data)
-Non-parametric
-Only heuristic is neighborhood size.
- Weaknesses
-Sensitive to "shortcuts"
-No out-of-sample extension


## Large-scale applications

## Problem:

Too expensive to compute all shortest paths and diagonalize full Gram matrix.
Solution:
Only compute shortest paths in green and diagonalize submatrix in red.

## Landmark Isomap

- Approximation
- Identify subset of inputs as landmarks.
- Estimate geodesics to/from landmarks.
- Apply MDS to landmark distances.
- Embed non-landmarks by triangulation.
-Related to Nystrom approximation.
- Computation
-Reduced by $l / n$ for $l<n$ landmarks.
-Reconstructs large Gram matrix from thin rectangular sub-matrix.


## Example

## Embedding of sparse music similarity graph

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n=267 \mathrm{~K} \\
& e=3.22 \mathrm{M} \\
& \ell=400 \\
& \tau=6 \text { minutes }
\end{aligned}
$$

(Platt, 2004)


## Theoretical guarantees

- Asymptotic convergence

For data sampled from a submanifold that is isometric to a convex subset of Euclidean space, Isomap will recover the subset up to rotation \& translation. (Tenenbaum et al; Donoho \& Grimes)

- Convexity assumption

Geodesic distances are not estimated correctly for manifolds with holes...

## Connected but not convex

- 2d region with hole
input


Isomap

- Images of $360^{\circ}$ rotated teapot

eigenvalues of Isomap


## Connected but not convex

- Occlusion Images of two disks, one occluding the other.

- Locomotion

Images of periodic gait.


## Linear vs nonlinear



What computational price must we pay for nonlinear dimensionality reduction?

## Nonlinear dimensionality reduction since 2000...

## These

 strengths and weaknesses are typical of graph-based spectral methods for dimensionality reduction.
## Properties of Isomap

- Strengths
- Polynomial-time optimizations
- No local minima
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- Weaknesses
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## Spectral Methods

- Common framework

1) Derive sparse graph from $k N N$.
2) Derive matrix from graph weights.
3) Derive embedding from eigenvectors.

- Varied solutions

Algorithms differ in step 2.
Types of optimization: shortest paths, least squares fits, semidefinite programming.

## Algorithms


(Roweis \& Saul)

## Looking ahead

- Trade-offs

Sparse vs dense eigensystems? Preserving distances vs angles? Connected vs convex sets?

- Connections

Spectral graph theory
Convex optimization Differential geometry

## Tuesday



## Sparse Matrix Methods

## Wednesday


(Roweis \& Saul)

## Semidefinite Programming

# To be continued.... 

See you tomorrow.

