

DIMENSION REDUCTION TECHNIQUES: A REVIEW

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The Relevance of Dimensionality Reduction

- Advances in data collection and storage capabilities have led to an information overload
- A system processes data in the form of a collection of real-valued vectors: speech signals, images, etc.
- Suppose the system is effective if the dimension of the vector is not *too high*
- Problem of Dimensionality Reduction appears when the data are of a higher dimension than tolerated
- Example: Stat Analysis of a Multivariate Population—interested in finding structures and/or interpreting the variables
 - Convenient to visualize the data, i.e., reducing their dimensionality to 2 or 3.
- In general, when the **intrinsic** dimensionality of the data is smaller than the actual, DR brings improved understanding of the data and their structure
 - Feature extraction
 - Representation in a different coordinate system

In Mathematical Terms

- Given the p -dimensional Random vector
 $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)^T$
- Find a lower representation $\mathbf{S} = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k)^T$,
 $k \leq p$, with the same "information content" as \mathbf{X}
 - Have to select a criterion
- The \mathbf{S} -components are called hidden or latent variables
- Two Types of DR Problems: Linear and Non-Linear
- Concentrate on Linear DR Techniques– Result in

$$\mathbf{S}_{k \times n} = \mathbf{W}_{k \times p} \mathbf{X}_{p \times n}$$

where $\mathbf{W}_{k \times p}$ is the transformation weight matrix

$$\mathbf{X}_{p \times n} = \mathbf{A}_{p \times k} \mathbf{S}_{k \times n}$$

General Definition of DR

- Suppose we have a sample $\{\mathbf{X}\}_{i=1}^n$ of p -dimensional vectors lying in a data space $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^p$
- Fundamental Assumption for DR: the sample actually lies, at least approximately, on a manifold (linear or nonlinear) of smaller dimension than the data space.
- Goal of DR: find a representation of this manifold (a coordinate system) that will allow to project the data vectors on it and obtain a low-dimensional, compact representation of the data
- Formally, given $\{\mathbf{X}\}_{i=1}^n \in \mathcal{X}$, find
 - A space $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^k$
 - A **dimensionality reduction mapping F** :

$$F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$$
$$\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{S} = F(\mathbf{X})$$

- a smooth, nonsingular **reconstruction mapping f** :

$$f : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$$
$$\mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{X} = f(\mathbf{S})$$

- such that

1. $k \leq p$ is as small as possible
2. The manifold $\mathcal{M} = f(\mathcal{S})$ approximately contains all the sample points $\{\mathbf{X}\}_{i=1}^n$
3. Or, the reconstruction error of the sample,

$$E_d(\{\mathbf{X}\}_{i=1}^n) = \sum_{i=1}^n d(\mathbf{X}_n, \mathbf{X}'_n)$$

where $\mathbf{X}'_n = f(F(\mathbf{X}_n))$ is the reconstructed vector for \mathbf{X}_n and d is a suitable distance in \mathcal{X}

- Conditions 2 and 3 are not equivalent: 3 implies 2 but not vice versa – $F \circ f \neq 1$
 - E.g., when \mathbf{X} has a distribution on \mathcal{X} , this is typically the case.

The Curse of Dimensionality (Bellman, 1961)

- In the absence of simplifying assumptions, **sample size** required to estimate a function of several variables **grows exponentially with the number of variables**
- *Empty Space Phenomenon*: high-dimensional spaces are inherently sparse
 - one-dimensional standard normal: 68% of the mass is contained in $[-1,1]$
 - 10-dimensional standard normal, the same hypersphere contains only 0.02% of the mass

Supervised and Unsupervised Learning

- **Unsupervised Learning:** \mathbf{X}_n comprise all the data
 - **Principal Component Analysis:** finds a few orthogonal linear combinations of the \mathbf{X} -components with the largest variance
 - **Factor Analysis and Principal Factor Analysis:** estimates unknown common factors
 - **Projection Pursuit:** given a projection index that defines the "interestingness" of a direction, PP finds directions maximizing the index
 - **Independent Component Analysis:** finds linear projections that are as nearly statistically independent as possible
 - **Multidimensional Scaling:** finds a k -dimensional representation of \mathbf{X} so that the distances among the points in the new space reflect the proximities in the data
 - **Neural Nets**

Supervised Learning: Prediction

- a response variable or vector is available
- try to reduce the dimension of \mathbf{X} *after* imposing a specific structure on the regression curve $E(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$
 - *additive, generalized additive and projection pursuit models* (Friedman and Stuetzle, 1981; Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990), ACE (Breiman and Friedman, 1985), MARS (Friedman, 1991), *partially linear or spline models* (Green and Silverman, 1994), *single- and multi-index models* along with different fitting methods such as *average derivatives* (Härdle, 1990; Newey and Stoker, 1989; Samarov, 1993), *interaction splines*, and CART (Breiman, Friedman, Olshen and Stone, 1984)
 - A concise discussion of the above and additional nonparametric modelling techniques can be found in Fan and Gijbels (1996)

Pre-Modelling Approach

- Reduce the regressor dimension prior to assuming any model for the regression relationship
 - **Partial Least Squares**: SVD on \mathbf{XY}
 - * extensively used in chemometrics
 - * emphasis on predicting the response and not on understanding the underlying relationship of the variables
 - **”Global” methods** – involving a spectral decomposition of an appropriate matrix
 - **”Local” methods** – Structure Adaptive Approaches

Global Methods for Dimension Reduction

- \mathbf{Y} is a $q \times 1$ response vector
- \mathbf{X} is a $p \times 1$ predictor vector

Sufficient dimension reduction in regression

focuses on finding $k \leq p$ linear combinations

$$\boldsymbol{\eta}_1^T \mathbf{X}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\eta}_k^T \mathbf{X}$$

that can replace \mathbf{X}

- without loss of information
- without requiring restrictive conditions on $\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}$

If $\boldsymbol{\eta} = (\boldsymbol{\eta}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\eta}_k) : p \times k$ matrix, the previous statement is expressed by

$$\mathbf{Y} \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{X}$$

- **Goal:** Estimate the smallest subspace spanned by $\boldsymbol{\eta}$.

Definitions:

- $S(\boldsymbol{\eta})$, the subspace spanned by the columns of $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, is called a dimension reduction subspace.
- The **Central Subspace** $S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}} = \cap S(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ is the smallest dimension-reduction subspace which provides the greatest dimension reduction in the predictor vector.
- The dimension of the Central Subspace is the **Structural Dimension** of the regression
- Problem: estimate (1) the dimension of $S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}$ and (2) basis elements of $S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}$

- The estimation is based on finding a kernel matrix \mathbf{M} so that $S(\mathbf{M}) \subset S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}$

Estimation Methods

Two main approaches

- First moment methods

- SIR and variations (Li, 1991): $\mathbf{M} = \text{Cov}(E(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}))$
- polynomial inverse regression (Bura and Cook, 2001):
 $\mathbf{M} = E(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y})$

- Second moment methods

- pHd (Li, 1991): $\mathbf{M} = E((\mathbf{Y} - E(\mathbf{Y}))\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T)$
- SAVE (Cook and Weisberg, 1991):
 $\mathbf{M} = E(\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}) - \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}))^2$
- SIRII (Li, 1991):
 $\mathbf{M} = E(\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}) - E(\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y})))^2$.

- Sliced Average Variance Estimation (SAVE) is possibly the most exhaustive:

- it gains information from both the inverse mean function and the differences of the inverse covariances.
- Schott (1993) essentially showed: $\text{SAVE} = \text{SIR} \oplus \text{SIRII}$

Continuous Response - Continuous predictors

Let $\mathbf{Z} = \Sigma^{-1/2}(\mathbf{X} - E(\mathbf{X}))$. Assume there exists a $k \times d$ matrix $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ such that

$$\mathbf{Y} \perp \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{Z}$$

with $d \ll k$.

- $S(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ is the range space of $\boldsymbol{\eta}$: a dimension reduction subspace
- $S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{Z}}$: Central Subspace in the \mathbf{Z} -scale
- $S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}} = \Sigma_{\mathbf{X}}^{-1/2} S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{Z}}$
- The estimation of the central subspace in the two scales yields equivalent results

- All first and second moment methods can be used to estimate directions in $S_{Y|Z}$

- **The Inverse Mean Subspace:**

$$S_{E(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})} = \text{span } E(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})$$

- **The Inverse Covariance Subspace:**

$$S_{\text{Var}(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{I} - \text{Var}(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})\}^2$$

- Two Important Conditions:

1. **Linearity Condition:** $E(\mathbf{Z}|\boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{Z})$ is linear in $\boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{Z}$
2. **Constant Variance Condition:** $\text{Var}(\mathbf{Z}|\boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{Z})$ is constant

- Linearity Condition yields:

$$S_{E(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})} \subseteq S_{Y|Z}$$

- The Linearity and Constant Variance Conditions yield:

$$S_{\text{Var}(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})} \subseteq S_{Y|Z}$$

- Under both conditions, any weighted average of $E(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})$, $E(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})E(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})^T$ or $\mathbf{I} - \text{Var}(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{Y})$ span a subspace of $S_{Y|Z}$

- Both conditions refer to the marginal distribution of the predictors
- They are satisfied when \mathbf{Z} is normal but normality is not necessary
- Ellipticity of the regressor vector guarantees the linearity condition
- They can be empirically checked by considering the scatterplot matrix of the predictors.
- The linearity of $E(\mathbf{Z}|\boldsymbol{\eta}^T\mathbf{Z})$ can be ascertained if the scatterplots look roughly linear or random, and the homogeneity of the variance holds if there are no apparent fluctuations in data density
- Only substantial departures from both conditions are problematic: Transformations of the regressors

Estimation of the Structural Dimension

- Let $d = \dim S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{Z}}$
- Let $\hat{\mathbf{M}}$ be a sample estimate of the kernel matrix \mathbf{M}
- Let $(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_p)^T$ be the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues (or singular values)
 $\hat{\lambda}_1 \geq \hat{\lambda}_2 \geq \dots \geq \hat{\lambda}_p$ of $\hat{\mathbf{M}}$
- Let $\hat{\Lambda}_k \sim n \sum_{j=k+1}^p \hat{\lambda}_j$ be a test statistic
- $\hat{\Lambda}_d$ has an **asymptotic weighted chi-squared distribution**
- $\hat{d} = k$ if $\hat{\Lambda}_{k-1}$ is large whereas $\hat{\Lambda}_k$ is small

Marginal moment based dimension reduction

k -th Moment Dimension Reduction Subspaces

- Let $M^{(k)}(Y|\mathbf{X})$ denote the k th centered moment of $F(Y|\mathbf{Y})$
- $M^{(1)}(Y|\mathbf{X}) = E(Y|\mathbf{X})$
- $M^{(2)}(Y|\mathbf{X}) = \text{Var}(Y|\mathbf{X})$

If

$$Y \perp\!\!\!\perp \{M^{(1)}(Y|\mathbf{X}), \dots, M^{(k)}(Y|\mathbf{X})\} | \boldsymbol{\eta}^T \mathbf{X},$$

then $\mathcal{S}(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ is called a k -th moment dimension reduction subspace (DRS) for the regression of Y on \mathbf{X}

- **The central k -th moment subspace (CKMS)**
 $\mathcal{S}_{Y|\mathbf{X}}^{(k)}$ is the intersection of all k -th moment DRSs

$$\mathcal{S}_{Y|\mathbf{X}}^{(1)} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathcal{S}_{Y|\mathbf{X}}^{(k)}$$

The First Moment of $F(Y|\mathbf{X})$

- The regression function $E(Y|\mathbf{X})$
 - Central Mean Subspace: $S_{E(Y|\mathbf{X})} \subset S_{Y|\mathbf{X}}$
 - $S_{E(Y|\mathbf{X})} = S_{Y|\mathbf{X}}$ when $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{X} | E(Y|\mathbf{X})$, e.g.,
$$Y = f(\boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{X}) + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{X}$$
 - Inference for the Central Mean Subspace $S_{E(Y|\mathbf{X})}$ in Cook and Li (2002)
 - Investigated OLS, SIR, pHd, SAVE and proposed alternatives

In general, marginal methods like Cov_k (Yin and Cook 2002) and pHd (Li 1992)

- use moment estimates of moments of functions of the response and predictor vectors avoiding nonparametric estimation
- they can be easily extended to multivariate response regressions, e.g., *multi* Cov_k (Yin and Bura, 2003)

Categorical Response – Continuous Predictors

- Both SIR and SAVE can be used to estimate directions in $S_{Y|Z}$
- Cook and Lee (1999): Binary Response
- Cook and Critchley (2000) and Cook and Yin (2001): Generalization and Discriminant Analysis
- SIR is equivalent to Linear Discriminant Analysis in the sense that they both estimate the same discriminant linear combinations of the predictors when they are normal.
 - Disadvantage: LDA and SIR find at most $C - 1$ linear combinations for discrimination. In binary regression, **at most 1**.
- SAVE is equivalent to Quadratic Discriminant Analysis when predictors are normal

Continuous Response – Mixed Type Predictors

- Projections of Categorical Variables are not well defined
- *Partial Dimension Reduction*: One Categorical Predictor W and continuous random vector \mathbf{X}
- Chiaromonte, Cook and Li (2001) and Li, Cook and Chiaromonte (2003) developed *Partial Sliced Inverse Regression* for the subpopulations in (Y, \mathbf{X}) defined by the W -categories
- Problematic when there are many categorical predictors, if not all – e.g. epidemiological studies

Discussion and Limitations

- At least the linearity condition has to be satisfied for any of these methods to apply
- First moment methods are sensitive to linear trends in dependence of Y on \mathbf{X}
 - $Y = (\beta^T \mathbf{X})^2 + \epsilon$, with $\mathbf{X} \sim N(0, \mathbf{I}_p)$
 - SIR will estimate 0 and miss β
- All estimators are \sqrt{n} -consistent
- **But** $\hat{S}_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}$ is not an exhaustive estimate for $S_{\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}}$
- The tests for dimension are sequential. Not much is known about their power or "optimality".
- What is the structural dimension of non-linear manifolds?
A measure of complexity and hence non-discrete?
- Other?

Local Methods: concentrate on local features

- Multi-index NP-regression modelling
- not quite pre-modelling: NP-estimation of the link function along with the index space
- virtually no assumptions on \mathbf{X}
- slower than \sqrt{n} -convergence
- computationally intensive
- Xia, Tong, Li and Zhu (2002) and Hristache, Juditsky, Polzehl, Spokoiny (2001)