## A tutorial on Manifold Learning for real data

The Fields Institute Workshop on Manifold and Graph-based learning

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## Outline

(1) What is manifold learning good for? $\downarrow$
(2) Manifolds, Coordinate Charts and Smooth Embeddings
(3) Non-linear dimension reduction algorithms

- Local PCA
- PCA, Kernel PCA, MDS recap
- Principal Curves and Surfaces (PCS)
- Embedding algorithms
- Heuristic algorithms

4 Metric preserving manifold learning - Riemannian manifolds basics $<$

- Embedding algorithms introduce distortions
- Metric Manifold Learning - Intuition
- Estimating the Riemannian metric
(5) Neighborhood radius and other choices 5
- What graph? Radius-neighbors vs. k nearest-neighbors
- What neighborhood radius/kernel bandwidth?


## Non-linear dimension reduction: Three principles

Algorithm given $\mathcal{D}=\left\{\xi_{1}, \ldots \xi_{n}\right\}$ from $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^{D}$, map them by Algorithm $f$ to $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots y_{n}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{m}$
Assumption if points from $\mathcal{M}, n \rightarrow \infty, f$ is embedding of $\mathcal{M}$
( $f$ "recovers" $\mathcal{M}$ of arbitrary shape).
(1) Local (weighted) PCA (IPCA)

Principal Curves and Surfaces (PCS)
(3) Embedding algorithms (Diffusion Maps/Laplacian Eigenmaps, Isomap, LTSA, MVU, Hessian Eigenmaps,...)
© [Other, heuristic] t-SNE, UMAP, LLE
What makes the problem hard?

- Intrinsic dimension d
- must be estimated (we assume we know it)
- sample complexity is exponential in $d$ - NONPARAMETRIC
- non-uniform sampling
- volume of $\mathcal{M}$ (we assume volume finite; larger volume requires more samples)
- injectivity radius/reach of $\mathcal{M}$
- curvature
- ESSENTIAL smoothness parameter: the neighborhood radius


## Neighborhood graphs

- All ML algorithms start with a neighborhood graph over the data points
- neigh ${ }_{i}$ denotes the neighbors of $\xi_{i}$, and $k_{i}=\mid$ neigh $_{i} \mid$.
- $\Xi_{i}=\left[\xi_{i^{\prime}}\right]_{i^{\prime} \in \text { neigh }}^{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times k_{i}}$ contains the coordinates of $\xi_{i^{\prime}}$ 's neighbors
- In the radius-neighbor graph, the neighbors of $\xi_{i}$ are the points within distance $r$ from $\xi_{i}$, i.e. in the ball $B_{r}\left(\xi_{i}\right)$.
- In the $\mathbf{k}$-nearest-neighbor ( $\mathbf{k}-\mathbf{n n}$ ) graph, they are the $k$ nearest-neighbors of $\xi_{i}$.
- k-nn graph has many computational advantages
- constant degree $k$ (or $k-1$ )
- connected for any $k>1$
- more software available

- but much more difficult to use for consistent estimation of manifolds (see later, and )

data $\xi_{1}, \ldots \xi_{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{D}$

neighborhood graph

$A$ (sparse) matrix of distances between neighbors


## Local Principal Components Analysis (LPCA)

Idea Approximate $\mathcal{M}$ with tangent subspaces at a finite number of data points
(1) Pick a point $\xi_{i} \in \mathcal{D}$
(2) Find neigh ${ }_{i}$, perform PCA on neigh ${ }_{i} \cup\left\{\xi_{i}\right\}$ and obtain (affine) subspace with basis $T_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}$
(3) Represent $\xi_{i^{\prime}} \in$ neigh $_{i}$ by $y_{i}=\operatorname{Proj}_{T_{i}} \xi_{i^{\prime}}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i^{\prime}}=T_{i}^{T}\left(\xi_{i^{\prime}}-\xi_{i}\right) \quad \text { new coordinates of } \xi_{i^{\prime}} \text { in } \mathcal{T}_{\xi_{i}} \mathcal{M} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$



Repeat for a sample of $n^{\prime}<n$ data points

## Local PCA

- For $n, n^{\prime}$ sufficiently large, $\mathcal{M}$ can be approximated with arbitrary accuracy

So, are we done?
Some issues with LPCA

- Point $\xi_{j}$ may be represented in multiple $T_{i}$ 's (minor)
- New coordinates $y_{j}$ are relative to local $T_{i}$
- Fine for local operations like regression
- Number of charts depends on extrinsic properties
- Cumbersome for larger scale operations like following a curve on $\mathcal{M}$
- Biased in noise



## Multi-dimensional scaling (MDS)

- (See notes for PCA, Kernel PCA, centering matrix H, MDS for details)
- Problem Given matrix of (squared) distances $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, find a set of $n$ points in $d$ dimensions $Y=d \times n$ so that

$$
D_{Y}=\left[\left\|y_{i}-y_{j}\right\|^{2}\right]_{i, j} \approx D
$$

- Useful when
- original points are not vectors but we can compute distances (e.g string edit distances, philogenetic distances)
- original points are in high dimensions
- original distances are geodesic distances on a manifold $\mathcal{M}$


## MDS Algorithm

(9) Calculate $K=-\frac{1}{2} H D H^{T}$
(2) Compute its $d$ principal e-vectors/values: $K=V \Sigma^{2} V^{T}$
(3) $Y=\Sigma V^{T}$ are new coordinates

The Centering Matrix H

$$
H=I-\frac{1}{n} 1_{n \times n}
$$

Q: Could MDS be an embedding algorithm? What is different about MDS and upcoming algorithms?

## Principal Curves and Surfaces (PCS)

??


- Elegant algorithm, most useful for $d=1$ (curves)
- Also works in noise ??
- data in $\mathbb{R}^{D}$ near a curve (or set of curves)
- Goal: track the ridge of the data density (will be biased estimator of curve $\mathcal{M}$ )

What is a density ridge


$$
\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned}
& \nabla p=0 \\
& \nabla^{2} p \prec 0
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

$\nabla p=0$

$$
\nabla p=0 \text { in } \operatorname{span}\left\{v_{2: D}\right\}
$$

$\nabla^{2} p$ has $\lambda_{1}>0, \lambda_{2: D}<0$ $\nabla^{2} p$ has $\lambda_{2: D}<0,\left(v_{1: D}\right.$ e－vectors $\left.\nabla^{2} p\right)$

In other words，on a ridge
－$\nabla p \propto v_{1}$ direction of least negative curvature（LNC）of $\nabla^{2} p$
－$\nabla p, v_{1}$ are tangent to the ridge
$P()$ sampling density on $\mathbb{R}^{D}$
$\rightarrow$ estimated by KDE

## Gradient and Hessian for Gaussian KDE

- Data $\xi_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$
- Let $p()$ be the kernel density estimator with some kernel width $h$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(\xi)=\frac{1}{n h^{d}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \kappa\left(\frac{\xi-\xi_{i}}{h}\right)=\frac{1}{n h^{d}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp \left(-\frac{\left(\xi-\xi_{i}\right)^{2}}{2 h^{2}}\right) / \omega_{d} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

- We prefer to work with $\ln p$ which has the same critical points/ridges as $p$
- $\nabla \ln p=\frac{1}{p} \nabla p=g$
- $\nabla^{2} \ln p=-\frac{1}{p^{2}} \nabla p \nabla p^{T}+\frac{1}{p} \nabla^{2} p=H$


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$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\xi)=-\frac{1}{h^{2}}[\xi-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{\xi_{i}}_{w_{i}} \underbrace{\left(-\frac{\left(\xi-\xi_{i}\right)^{2}}{2 h^{2}}\right) / \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{\exp \left(-\frac{\left(\xi-\xi_{i}\right)^{2}}{2 h^{2}}\right)}_{\text {exp }}]}_{W_{i} \geq 1}=-\frac{1}{h^{2}}[\underbrace{\xi-m(\xi)}_{\text {Mean-shift }}] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Gradient and Hessian for Gaussian KDE

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- $H(\xi)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} u_{i} u_{i}^{T}-g(\xi) g(\xi)^{T}-\frac{1}{h^{2}} l$

$$
u_{i}=\frac{\xi_{i}-\xi}{h^{2}}
$$

## SCMS Algorithm

## SCMS $=$ Subspace Constrained Mean Shift

Init any $\xi^{1}$
Density estimated by $p=$ data $\star$ Gaussian kernel of width $h$ for $k=1,2, \ldots$
(1) calculate $g^{k} \propto \nabla \ln p\left(\xi^{k}\right)$
by Mean-Shift $\mathcal{O}(n D)$
(2) $H^{k}=\nabla^{2} \ln p\left(\xi^{k}\right)$
(3) compute $v_{1}$ principal e-vector of $H^{k}$
$\mathcal{O}\left(n D^{2}\right)$
(9) $\xi^{k+1} \leftarrow \xi^{k}+\operatorname{Proj}_{v_{1} \perp} g^{k}$
until convergence

- Algorithm SCMS finds 1 point on ridge; $n$ restarts to cover all density
- Run time $\propto n D^{2} /$ iteration
- Storage $\propto D^{2}$


## Principal curves found by SCMS




LBFGS = accelerated, approximate SCMS - coming next!

## Accelerating SCMS

- reduce dependency on $n$ per iteration
- ignore points far away from $\xi$
- use approximate nearest neighbors (clustering, KD-trees,... )
- reduce number of SCMS runs: start only from $n^{\prime}<n$ points
- reduce number iterations: track ridge instead of cold restarts
- project $\nabla p$ on $v_{1}$ instead of $v_{1}^{\perp}$
- tracking ends at critical point (peak or saddle)
- reduce dependence on $D$
- approximate $v_{1}$ without computing whole $H$
- $D^{2} \leftarrow m D$ with $m \approx 5$

Non-linear dimension reduction algorithms summary

| Paradigm | Input | Output | $f($ new $\xi$ ) | $f^{-1}($ new $p$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| local PCA | $\xi_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ | $y_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ local maps (many) | $\checkmark$ | ? |
| Principal Curves SCMS | $\xi_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ | $\xi_{1: n}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ global map | (if data kept) | N/A |
| Embedding Algorithm | $\xi_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ | $y_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ global map or $\in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ local maps | ad-hoc or interpolation | ad-hoc or interpolation |
| e.gkernel cegression |  |  |  |  |

## Embedding algorithms

Diffusion Maps/Laplacian Eigenmaps, Isomap, LTSA, MVU, Hessian Eigenmaps,...

- Map $\mathcal{D}$ to $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ where $m \geq d$ (global coordinates)
- Can also map a local neighborhood $U \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ to $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ (local, intrinsic coordinates)


## Input

- embedding dimension $m$
- neighborhood radius/kernel width $\epsilon$
- usually radius $r \approx 3 \times \epsilon$
- neighborhood graph
$\left\{\right.$ neigh $_{i}, \Xi_{i}$, for $\left.i=1: n\right\}$
$A=\left[\left\|\xi_{i}-\xi_{j}\right\|\right]_{i, j=1}^{n}$ distance matrix, with $A_{i j}=\infty$ if $i \notin$ neigh $_{j}$


## The Isomap algorithm

Isomap Algorithm [Tennenbaum, deSilva \& Langford 00]
Input $A$, dimension $d$
(1) Find all shortest path distances in neighborhood graph $\approx$ geodesic disfance if $A_{i j}=\infty$, then $A_{i j} \leftarrow$ graph distance between $i, j$
(2) Construct matrix of squared distances

$$
M=\left[\left(A_{i j}\right)^{2}\right]
$$

(3) use Multi-Dimensional Scaling $\operatorname{MDS}(M, d)$ to obtain $d$ dimensional coordinates $Y$ for $\mathcal{D}$

- Works also for $m>d$


## The Diffusion Maps (DM)/ Laplacian Eigenmaps (LE) Algorithm

## Diffusion Maps Algorithm

Input distance matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, bandwidth $\epsilon$, embedding dimension $m$
(1) Compute Laplacian $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
(2) Compute eigenvectors of $L$ for smallest $m+1$ eigenvalues $\left[\phi_{0} \phi_{1} \ldots \phi_{m}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

- $\phi_{0}$ is constant and not informative

The embedding coordinates of $p_{i}$ are ( $\phi_{i 1}, \ldots \phi_{i s}$ )


## The (renormalized) Laplacian

## Laplacian

Input distance matris $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, bandwidth $\epsilon$
(1) Compute similarity matrix $S_{i j}=\exp \left(-\frac{A_{i j}^{2}}{\epsilon^{2}}\right)=\kappa\left(A_{i j} / \epsilon\right)$
(2) Normalize columns $d_{j}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} S_{i j}, \tilde{L}_{i j}=S_{i j} / d_{j}$
(3) Normalize rows $d_{i}^{\prime}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \tilde{L}_{i j}, P_{i j}=\tilde{L}_{i j} / d_{i}^{\prime}$
(9) $L=\frac{1}{\epsilon^{2}}(I-P)$
(6) Output $L, d_{i}^{\prime} / d_{i}$

- Laplacian $L$ central to understanding the manifold geometry
- $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} L=\Delta_{\mathcal{M}}$ [Coifman,Lafon 2006]
- Renormalization trick cancels effects of (non-uniform) sampling density [Coifman \& Lafon 06]

Other Laplacians

- $L^{u n}=\operatorname{diag}\left\{d_{1: n}\right\}-\mathbb{S}$
- $L^{r w}=I-\operatorname{diag}\left\{d_{1: n}\right\}^{-1} \leftrightarrows$
- $L^{n}=I-\operatorname{diag}\left\{d_{1: n}\right\}^{-1 / 2} \operatorname{g} d i a g\left\{d_{1: n}\right\}^{-1 / 2}$
unnormalized Laplacian
random walk Laplacian normalized Laplacian


Isomap

- Preserves geodesic distances
- but only when $\mathcal{M}$ is flat and "data" convex
- Computes all-pairs shortest paths $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{3}\right)$
- Stores/processes dense matrix
- t-SNE, UMAP visualization algorithms


DiffusionMap

- Distorts geodesic distances
- Computes only distances to nearest neighbors $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{1+\epsilon}\right)$
- Stores/processes sparse matrix


## ML Software

scikit-learn.org
mmp2.github.io/megaman

## Heuristic algorithms

- Local Linear Embedding (LLE)
- one of the first embedding algorithms
- later analysis showed that LLE has no limit when $n \rightarrow \infty$
- closest modern version is Local Tangent Space Alignment (LTSA)
- t-Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE)

Input similarity matrix $S$, embedding dimension $s$
Init choose embedding points $y_{1: n} \in \mathbb{R}^{s}$ at random
(1) $S_{i i} \leftarrow 0$, normalize rows $d_{i}=\sum_{j} S_{i j}, P_{i j}=S_{i j} / d_{i}$
(2) symmetrize $P=\frac{1}{2 n}\left(P+P^{T}\right) P$ is distribution over pairs of neighbors $(i, j)$
(3) $\tilde{S}_{i j}=\tilde{\kappa}\left(\left\|y_{i}-y_{j}\right\|\right)$ compute similarity in output space
where $\tilde{\kappa}(z)=\frac{1}{1+z^{2}}$ the Cauchy (Student $t$ with 1 degree of freedom)
(9) Define distribution $Q$ with $Q_{i j} \propto S_{i j}$
(9) Change $y_{i: n}$ to decrease the Kullbach-Leibler divergence $K L(P \| Q)=\sum_{i, j} P_{i j} \ln \frac{P_{i j}}{Q_{i j}}$ (by gradient descent) and repeat from step 3

- t-SNE is empirically useful for visualizing clusters
- $t$-SNE is proved to create artefacts

UMAP: Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection [Mclnnes, Healy, Melville,2018]

Input $k$ number nearest neighbors, $d$,
(1) Find $k$-nearest neighbors
(2) Construct (asymmetric) similarities $w_{i j}$, so that $\sum_{j} w_{i j}=\log _{2} k . W=\left[w_{i j}\right]$.
(3) Symmetrize $S=W+W^{\top}-W . * W^{\top}$ is similarity matrix.
(9) Initialize embedding $\phi$ by LaplacianEigenmaps.
© Optimize embedding.
Iteratively for $n_{\text {iter }}$ steps
(1) Sample an edge $i j$ with probability $\propto \exp -d_{i j}$
(2) Move $\phi_{i}$ towards $\phi_{j}$
(3) Sample a random $j^{\prime}$ uniformly

- Move $\phi_{i}$ away from $\phi_{j^{\prime}}$

Stochastic approximate logistic regression of $\left\|\phi_{i}-\phi_{j}\right\|$ on $d_{i j}$.
Output $\phi$

## Embedding algorithms summary

- Many different algorithms exist
- All start from neighborhood graph and distance matrix $A$
- Most use e-vectors of a tranformation of $A$ (preserve the sparsity pattern)
- DiffusionMaps - can separate manifold shape from sampling density
- LTSA - "correct" at boundaries
- Isomap - best for flat manifolds with no holes, small data
- Most embeddings sensitive to
- choice of radius $\epsilon$ (within "correct" range)
- sampling density $p$
- neighborhoods K-nn vs. radius
i.e. most embeddings introduce distortions

Manifold Learning as a sandwich


## Manifold Learning as a sandwich



- what distance measure?
- what graph? [Maier,von Luxburg, Hein 2009]
- what kernel width $\epsilon$ ? [Perrault-Joncas,M,McQueen NIPS17]
- what intrinsic dimension $d$ ?
[Chen,Little,Maggioni,Rosasco ] and variant by [Perrault-Joncas,M,McQueen NIPS17]
- what embedding dimension 1 P $\geq d$ ? [Chen, M,NeurIPS19] ML Algorithm: DiffMAPS, LTSA
- Cluster [M,Shi 00],[M,Shi 01]. . . [M NeurIPS18]
- Estimate/correct distortion: Metric Learning and Riemannian Relaxation [McQueen, M, Perrault-Joncas NIPS16]
- Validate $\boldsymbol{d}$, $\mathbf{A}$ [ $[$ select eigenvectors] [Chen, M NeurIPS19]
- Topological Data Analysis (TDA)
- Meaning of coordinates [M,Koelle,Zhang, 2018,2022]
- Manifolds with vector fields [Perrault-Joncas, M, 2013, Chen, M, Kevrekidis 2021]
- Finding ridges and saddle points (in progress)


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- Local PCA
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- Principal Curves and Surfaces (PCS)
- Embedding algorithms
- Heuristic algorithms

4. Metric preserving manifold learning - Riemannian manifolds basics

- Embedding algorithms introduce distortions
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- Estimating the Riemannian metric
(5) Neighborhood radius and other choices
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Embedding in 2 dimensions by different manifold learning algorithms

Original data
(Swiss Roll with hole)


Hessian Eigenmaps (HE)



Local Linear Embedding (LLE)

Isomap


Local Tangent Space Alignment (LTSA)

affine disfoction

## Failures vs. distortions

- Distortion vs failure
- $\phi$ distorts if distances, angles, density not preserved, but $\phi$ smooth and invertible
- If $\phi$ does not preserve topology (=preserve neighborhoods), then we call it a failure, for simplicity.
- Examples: points $\xi_{i}, \xi_{j}$ are not neighbors in $\mathcal{M}$ but are neighbors in $\phi(\mathcal{M})$, or viceversa (hence $\phi$ is not invertible, or not continuous)
- Most common modes of failure
- distance matrix $A$ does not capture topology (artificial "holes" or "bridges")
- usually becasuse kernel width $\epsilon$ too small or too large
- choice of e-vectors


## Artefacts

- Artefacts=features of the embedding that do not exist in the data (clusters, holes, "arms", "horseshoes")
- What to beware of when you compute an embedding
- algorithms that claim to choose $\epsilon$ automatically
- confirming the embedding is "correct" by visualization: tends to over-smooth, i.e. $\epsilon$ over-estimated
- K-nn (default in sk-learn!) instead of radius-neighbors: tends to create clusters
- large variations in density: subsample data to make it more uniform
- "horseshoes": choose other e-vectors ( $\phi$ is almost singulare)
- Very popular heuristics (no guarantees/artefacts probable): LLE, t-SNE, UMAP, neural networks



## Preserving topology vs. preserving (intrinsic) geometry

- Algorithm maps data $p \in \mathbb{R}^{D} \longrightarrow \phi(p)=x \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$
- Mapping $\mathcal{M} \longrightarrow \phi(\mathcal{M})$ is diffeomorphism

- Mapping $\phi$ is isometry
- preserves distances along curves in $\mathcal{M}$, angles, volumes For most algorithms, in most cases, $\phi$ is not isometry

Preserves topology


Preserves topology + intrinsic geometry


## Theoretical results in isometric embedding

## Positive results

General theory

- Nash's Theorem: Isometric embedding is possible.
- Diffusion Maps embedding is isometric in the limit
[Berard,Besson,Gallot 94],[Portegies:16]
Special cases
- Isomap [Bernstein, Langford, Tennenbaum 03] recovers flat manifolds isometrically
- LE/DM recover sphere, torus with equal radii (sampled uniformly)
- Follows from consistency of Laplacian eigenvectors [Hein \& al 07,Coifman \& Lafon 06, Singer 06, Ting \& al 10, Gine \& Koltchinskii 06]

Negative results

- Obvious negative examples
- No affine recovery for normalized Laplacian algorithms [Goldberg\&al 08]

Empirically, most algorithms

- preserve neighborhoods (=topology)
- distort distances along manifold (=geometry)
- distortions occur even in the simplest cases
- distortion persists when $n \rightarrow \infty$
- one cause of distortion is variations in sampling density $p$; [Coifman\& Lafon 06] introduced Diffusion Maps (DM) to eliminate these


## Metric Manifold Learning

Wanted

- eliminate distortions for any "well-behaved" $\mathcal{M}$
- and any any "well-behaved" embedding $\phi(\mathcal{M})$
- in a tractable and statistically grounded way


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Idea
Given data $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{M}$, some embedding $\phi(\mathcal{D})$ that preserves topology (true in many cases)

- Estimate distortion of $\phi$ and correct it!


## Metric Manifold Learning

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- eliminate distortions for any "well-behaved" $\mathcal{M}$
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Idea
Given data $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{M}$, some embedding $\phi(\mathcal{D})$ that preserves topology (true in many cases)

- Estimate distortion of $\phi$ and correct it!
- The correction is called the pushforward Riemannian Metric $g$ $G_{i} \geqslant 0$ ran
$H_{i} \geqslant 0$
at point ic

Corrections for 3 embeddings of the same data


Laplacian Eigenmaps

## What is a (Riemannian) metric?

- In Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, the scalar product $\langle u, v\rangle=u^{T} v$
- From the scalar product we derive norms $\|u\|^{2}=\langle u, u\rangle$, distances $\|u-v\|$, angles $\cos (u, v)=\langle u, v\rangle /(\|u\|\|v\|)$.
- Any other scalar product on $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ is defined by $\langle u, v\rangle_{G}=u^{T} G v=\left(G^{1 / 2} u\right)^{T}\left(G^{1 / 2} v\right)$, with $G \succ 0$ defines the metric
- Note that whenever $G \succ 0, H=G^{-1} \succ 0$ also defines a metric
- On a manifold $\mathcal{M}$, at each $p \in \mathcal{M}$ we have a different $G_{p}$
- The function $g(p)=G_{p}$ is called the Riemannian metric


All (intrinsic) geometric quantities on $\mathcal{M}$ involve $g$

- Volume element on manifold

$$
\operatorname{Vol}(W)=\int_{W} \sqrt{\operatorname{det}(g)} d x^{1} \ldots d x^{d}
$$

- Length of curve $\gamma$

$$
I(\gamma)=\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\sum_{i j} g_{i j} \frac{d x^{i}}{d t} \frac{d x^{j}}{d t}} d t
$$

- Under a change of parametrization, $g$ changes in a way that leaves geometric quantities invariant


## Calculating distances in the manifold $\mathcal{M}$

Original


Isomap


Laplacian Eigenmaps

| true distance $d=1.57$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Embedding | $\left\\|f(p)-f\left(p^{\prime}\right)\right\\|$ | Shortest <br> Path | Metric <br> $\hat{d}$ | Rel. <br> error |  |
| Original data | 1.41 | 1.57 | 1.62 | $3.0 \%$ |  |
| Isomap $m=2$ | 1.66 | 1.75 | 1.63 | $3.7 \%$ |  |
| LTSA $m=2$ | 0.07 | 0.08 | 1.65 | $4.8 \%$ |  |
| LE $m=2$ | 0.08 | 0.08 | 1.62 | $3.1 \%$ |  |
| curve $\gamma \approx\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots y_{K}\right)$ path in graph |  |  |  |  |  |

$$
\text { geodesic distance } \hat{d}=\sum_{k=0}^{K} \sqrt{\left(y_{k}-y_{k-1}\right)^{T} \frac{G\left(y_{k}\right)+G\left(y_{k-1}\right)}{2}\left(y_{k}-y_{k-1}\right)}
$$

G for Sculpture Faces

- $n=698$ gray images of faces in $D=64 \times 64$ dimensions
- head moves up/down and right/left



## Problem: Estimate the $g$ associated with $\phi$

- Given:
- data set $\mathcal{D}=\left\{p_{1}, \ldots p_{n}\right\}$ sampled from Riemannian manifold $\left(\mathcal{M}, g_{0}\right), \mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^{D}$
- embedding $\left\{y_{i}=\phi\left(p_{i}\right), p_{i} \in \mathcal{D}\right\}$ by e.g DiffusionMap, Isomap, LTSA, ...
- Estimate $G_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ the pushforward Riemannian metric at $p_{i} \in \mathcal{D}$ in the embedding coordinates $\phi$
- The embedding $\left\{y_{1: n}, G_{1: n}\right\}$ will preserve the geometry of the original data


## Relation between $g$ and $\Delta$

- $\Delta=$ Laplace-Beltrami operator on $\mathcal{M}$
- $\Delta=\operatorname{div} \cdot \operatorname{grad}$
- on $C^{2}, \Delta f=\sum_{j} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial \xi_{j}^{2}}$
- on weighted graph with similarity matrix $S$, and $t_{p}=\sum_{p p^{\prime}} S_{p p^{\prime}}, \Delta=\operatorname{diag}\left\{t_{p}\right\}-S$
- $\Delta=$ Laplace-Beltrami operator on $\mathcal{M}$
- $G$ Riemannian metric (in coordinates)
- $H=G^{-1}$ matrix inverse
(Differential geometric fact)

$$
\Delta f=\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)} \sum_{l} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\prime}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(H)}} \sum_{k} H_{l k} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{k}} f\right)
$$

- $L$ the renormalized Laplacian estimates $\Delta$ (very well studied $\checkmark$ )

Estimation of $G^{-1}$

Let $\Delta$ be the Laplace-Beltrami operator on $\mathcal{M}, H=G^{-1}$, and $k, I=1,2, \ldots d$.

$$
\left.\frac{1}{2} \Delta\left(\phi_{k}-\phi_{k}(p)\right)\left(\phi_{l}-\phi_{l}(p)\right)\right|_{\phi_{k}(p), \phi_{l}(p)}=H_{k l}(p)
$$

Intuition:

- $\Delta$ applied to test functions $f=\phi_{k}^{\text {centered }} \phi_{l}^{\text {centered }}$
- this produces $H(p)$ in the given coordinates
- consistent estimation of $\Delta$ is well studied [Coifman\&Lafon 06,Hein\&al 07]


## Metric Manifold Learning algorithm

Given dataset $\mathcal{D}$
(1) Preprocessing (construct neighborhood graph, ...)
(2) Find an embedding $\phi$ of $\mathcal{D}$ into $\mathbb{R}^{m}$
(3) Estimate discretized Laplace-Beltrami operator $L$
(9) Estimate $H_{p}$ and $G_{p}=H_{p}^{\dagger}$ for all $p$
(1) For $i, j=1: m$,
$H^{i j}=\frac{1}{2}\left[L\left(\phi_{i} * \phi_{j}\right)-\phi_{i} *\left(L \phi_{j}\right)-\phi_{j} *\left(L \phi_{i}\right)\right]$
where $X * Y$ denotes elementwise product of two vectors $X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$
(2) For $p \in \mathcal{D}, H_{p}=\left[H_{p}^{i j}\right]_{i j}$
(3) For $p \in \mathcal{D},(V, \Sigma) \leftarrow \operatorname{SVD}\left(H_{p}, d\right)$ and $G_{p}=V \Sigma^{-1} V^{T}=H_{p}^{\dagger}$ (rank $d$ (pseudo)inverse of $H_{p}$ ) Output $\left(\phi_{p}, G_{p}\right)$ for all $p$

## Computational cost

$n=|\mathcal{D}|, D=$ data dimension, $m=$ embedding dimension
(1) Neighborhood graph +
(2) Similarity matrix $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2} D\right)$ (or less)
(3) Laplacian $\mathcal{O}\left(n^{2}\right)$
(9) EmbeddingAlg e.g. $\mathcal{O}\left(m n^{2}\right)$ (eigenvector calculations)

- Embedding metric
- $\mathcal{O}\left(n m^{2}\right)$ obtain $g^{-1}$ or $h^{\dagger}$
- $\mathcal{O}\left(n m^{3}\right)$ obtain $g$ or $h$
- Steps 1-3 are part of many embedding algorithms
- Steps 3-5 independent of ambient dimension $D$
- Matrix inversion/pseudoinverse can be performed only when needed


## Metric Manifold Learning summary

Why useful

- Measures local distortion induced by any embedding algorithm
$G_{i}=I_{d}$ when no distortion at $p_{i}$
- Corrects distortion
- Integrating with the local volume/length units based on $G_{i}$
- Riemannian Relaxation [McQueen, M, Perrault-Joncas NIPS16]
- Algorithm independent geometry preserving method
- Outputs of different algorithms on the same data are comparable Applications
- Estimation of neighborhood radius [Perrault-Joncas,M,McQueen NIPS17]
- Helps with estimation of intrinsic dimension d (variant of [Chen,Little,Maggioni,Rosasco ])
- selecting eigencoordinates [Chen, M NeurIPS19]


## Outline

(1) What is manifold learning good for?
(2) Manifolds, Coordinate Charts and Smooth Embeddings

3 Non-linear dimension reduction algorithms

- Local PCA
- PCA, Kernel PCA, MDS recap
- Principal Curves and Surfaces (PCS)
- Embedding algorithms
- Heuristic algorithms

4. Metric preserving manifold learning - Riemannian manifolds basics

- Embedding algorithms introduce distortions
- Metric Manifold Learning - Intuition
- Estimating the Riemannian metric
(5) Neighborhood radius and other choices
- What graph? Radius-neighbors vs. k nearest-neighbors
- What neighborhood radius/kernel bandwidth?

What graph? Radius-neighbors vs. k nearest-neighbors

- $k$-nearest neighbors graph: each node has degree $k$
- radius neighbors graph: $p, p^{\prime}$ neighbors iff $\left\|p-p^{\prime}\right\| \leq r$
- Does it matter?


## What graph? Radius-neighbors vs. k nearest-neighbors

- $k$-nearest neighbors graph: each node has degree $k$
- radius neighbors graph: $p, p^{\prime}$ neighbors iff $\left\|p-p^{\prime}\right\| \leq r \rightarrow L$ unbiased
- Does it matter?
- Yes, for estimating the Laplacian and distortion
- Why? [Hein 07, Coifman 06, Ting 10, ...] k-nearest neighbor Laplacians do not converge to Laplace-Beltrami operator $\Delta$
- but to $\Delta+2 \nabla(\log p) \cdot \nabla$ (bias due to non-uniform sampling)


K-nearest neighbor radius neighbor
configurations of ethanol $d=2$

## Effect of re-normalization



## Choosing $\epsilon$

- Every manifold learning algorithm starts with a neighborhood graph
- Parameter $\epsilon$
- is neighborhood radius
- and/or kernel banwidth
- recall $\kappa\left(p, p^{\prime}\right)=e^{-\frac{\left\|p-p^{\prime}\right\|^{2}}{\epsilon^{2}}}$ if $\left\|p-p^{\prime}\right\|^{2} \leq c \epsilon$ and 0 otherwise $(c \in[1,10])$

$\epsilon$ too small


$\epsilon$ too large


## Methods for choosing $\epsilon$

- Theoretical (asymptotic) result $\sqrt{\epsilon} \propto n^{-\frac{1}{d+6}}$ [Singer06]

In practice: $\rightarrow$ tends to orecomooth

- Visual inspection?
- Cross-validation ?
- only if related to prediction task
- [Chen\&Buja09] heuristic for $k$-nearest neighbor graph
- unsupervised
- depends on embedding method used
- optimizes consistency of k-nn graph in data and embedding
- k-nearest neighbor graph has different convergence properties than $\epsilon$ neighborhood
- Geometric Consistency heuristic [Perrault-Joncas\&Meila17]
- unsupervised
- optimizes Laplacian, does not require embedding
- computes "isometry" in 2 different ways and minimizes distortion between them

Geometric Consistency (GC): Idea

- Idea: choose $\epsilon$ so that geometry encoded by $L_{\epsilon}$ is closest to data geometry

- For given $\epsilon$ and data point $p$
(1) Project neighbors of $p$ onto tangent subspace
- local embedding around $p$
- approximately isometric to original data
(2) Calculate Laplacian $L(\epsilon)$ at $p$ and estimate distortion
- $H_{\epsilon, p}$ must be $\approx I_{d}$ identity matrix
dual dual
push-forwand R.m


## The distortion measure

Input: data set $\mathcal{D}$, dimension $d^{\prime} \leq d$, scale $\epsilon$
(1) Estimate Laplacian $L(\epsilon)$ and weights $w_{i}(\epsilon)$ with Laplacian
(2) Project data on tangent plane at $p$

- For each $p$
- Let neigh $p_{p, \epsilon}=\left\{p^{\prime} \in \mathcal{D},\left\|p^{\prime}-p\right\| \leq c \epsilon\right\}$ where $c \in[1,10]$
- Calculate (weighted) local PCA wLPCA( neigh $_{p, \epsilon}, d^{\prime}$ ) (with weights $w_{i}(\epsilon)$ )
- Calculate coordinates $z_{i}$ in PCA space for points in neigh ${ }_{p, \epsilon}$
(3) Estimate $H_{\epsilon, p} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{\prime} \times d^{\prime}}$ by RMETRIC
- For each $p$
- Use row $p$ of $L(\epsilon)$
- $z_{i}$ 's play the role of $\phi$
( ( Compute squared Loss over all p's $\operatorname{Loss}(\epsilon)=\sum_{p \in \mathcal{D}}\left\|H_{\epsilon, p}-I_{d}\right\|_{2}^{2}$ Output Loss $(\epsilon)$
- Select $\epsilon^{*}=\operatorname{argmin}_{\epsilon} \operatorname{Loss}(\epsilon)$
- $d^{\prime} \leq d$ (more robust)
- minimize by 0 -th order optimization (faster than grid search)


Example $\epsilon$ and distortion for aspirin

- Each point $=$ a configuration of the aspirin molecule
- Cloud of point in $D=47$ dimensions embedded in $m=3$ dimensions
- (only 1 cluster shown)




## Bonus: Intrinsic Dimension Estimation in noise

- Geometric consistency + eigengap method of [Chen,Little,Maggioni,Rosasco,2011]
(1) do local PCA for a range of $\epsilon$ values
(2) choose appropriate radius $\epsilon$ (by Geometric consistency)
(3) dimension $=$ largest eigengap between $\lambda_{k}$ and $\lambda_{k+1}$ at radius $\epsilon$ (proof by Chen\&al) ("largest" $=$ most frequent largest over a sample)
$\operatorname{Loss}(\epsilon)$ vs. $\epsilon$


Singular values of LPCA vs. $\epsilon$


## Example: Intrinsic Dimension Estimation results



## Summary



