ITCS 6156/8156 Fall 2023 Machine Learning

Principal Components Analysis & Autoencoders

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Class Meeting: Mon & Wed, 4:00 PM - 5:15 PM, CHHS 376



Example

• What are the intrinsic latent dimensions in these two datasets?



• How can we find these dimensions from the data?

PCA Toy Example

Consider the following 3D points

1	2	4	3	5	6
2	4	8	6	10	12
3	6	12	9	15	18

If each component is stored in a byte, we need $18 = 3 \times 6$ bytes

PCA Toy Example

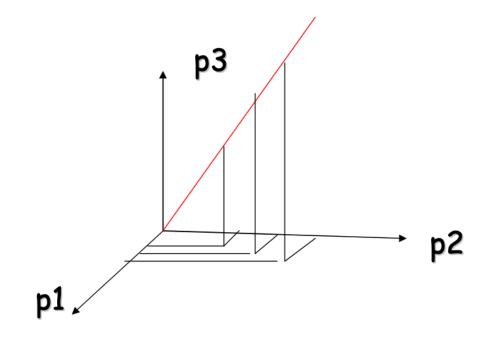
Looking closer, we can see that all the points are related geometrically: they are all the same point, scaled by a factor:

PCA Toy Example

They can be stored using only 9 bytes (50% savings!): Store one point (3 bytes) + the multiplying constants (6 bytes)

Geometrical Interpretation

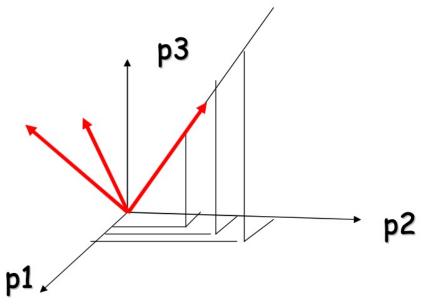
View each point in 3D space.



But in this example, all the points happen to belong to a line: a 1D subspace of the original 3D space.

Geometrical Interpretation

Consider a new coordinate system where one of the axes is along the direction of the line:



In this coordinate system, every point has <u>only one</u> non-zero coordinate: we <u>only</u> need to store the direction of the line (a 3 bytes image) and the non-zero coordinate for each of the points (6 bytes).

Principal Components Analysis

- Given a set of points, how do we know if they can be compressed like in the previous example?
 - The answer is to look into the correlation between the points
 - The tool for doing this is called PCA

Principal Components Analysis

- An exploratory technique used to reduce the dimensionality of the data set to 2D or 3D
- Aim: find a small number of "directions" in input space that explain variation in input data; re-represent data by projecting along those directions
- Important assumption: variation contains information
- Can be used to:
 - Reduce number of dimensions in data
 - Find patterns in high-dimensional data
 - Visualize data of high dimensionality
- Example applications:
 - Face recognition
 - Image compression
 - Gene expression analysis

- Variance and Covariance are a measure of the "spread" of a set of points around their center of mass (mean)
- Variance measure of the deviation from the mean for points in one dimension e.g. heights
- Covariance as a measure of how much each of the dimensions vary from the mean with respect to each other.
- Covariance is measured between 2 dimensions to see if there is a relationship between the 2 dimensions e.g. number of hours studied & marks obtained.
- The covariance between one dimension and itself is the variance

covariance (X,Y) =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X}) (Y_i - \overline{Y})$$
 (n -1)

 So, if you had a 3-dimensional data set_(x,y,z), then you could measure the covariance between the x and y dimensions, the y and z dimensions, and the x and z dimensions. Measuring the covariance between x and x, or y and y, or z and z would give you the variance of the x, y and z dimensions respectively.

Covariance Matrix

 Representing Covariance between dimensions as a matrix e.g. for 3 dimensions:

$$C = cov(x,x) cov(x,y) cov(x,z)$$

$$cov(y,x) cov(y,y) cov(x,z)$$

$$cov(z,x) cov(z,y) cov(z,z)$$
Variances

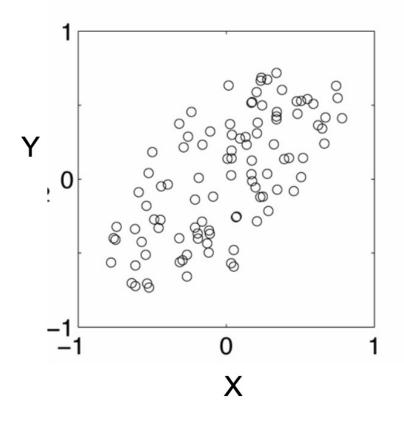
- Diagonal is the variances of x, y and z
- cov(x,y) = cov(y,x) hence matrix is symmetrical about the diagonal
- N-dimensional data will result in NxN covariance matrix

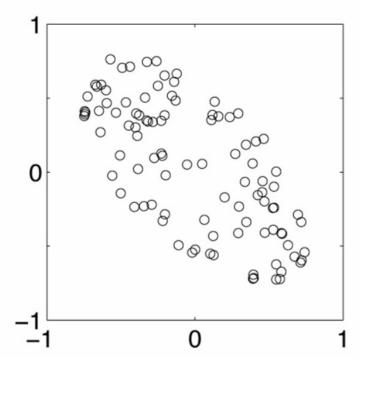
 What is the interpretation of covariance calculations?

e.g.: 2 dimensional data set x: number of hours studied for a subject y: marks obtained in that subject covariance value is say: 104.53 what does this value mean?

positive covariance

negative covariance





- Exact value is not as important as it's sign.
- A <u>positive value</u> of covariance indicates both dimensions increase or decrease together e.g. as the number of hours studied increases, the marks in that subject increase.
- A <u>negative value</u> indicates while one increases the other decreases, or vice-versa e.g. active social life at UNCC vs performance in CS dept.
- If <u>covariance</u> is <u>zero</u>: the two dimensions are independent of each other e.g. heights of students vs the marks obtained in a subject

 Why bother with calculating covariance when we could just plot the 2 values to see their relationship?

Covariance calculations are used to find relationships between dimensions in high dimensional data sets (usually greater than 3) where visualization is difficult.

Eigenvalues & eigenvectors

• $Ax = \lambda x \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)x = 0$

- How to calculate x and λ :
 - Calculate $det(A-\lambda I)$, yields a polynomial (degree n)
 - Determine roots to $det(A-\lambda I)=0$, roots are eigenvalues λ
 - Solve (A- λI) **x**=0 for each λ to obtain eigenvectors **x**

Eigenvalues & eigenvectors

- Vectors x having same direction as Ax are called eigenvectors of A (A is an n by n matrix).
- In the equation $A\mathbf{x}=\lambda\mathbf{x}$, λ is called an *eigenvalue* of A.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} x \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \square \begin{pmatrix} 12 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} \square 4x \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

PCA

- By finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, we find that the eigenvectors with the largest eigenvalues correspond to the dimensions that have the strongest correlation in the dataset.
- This is the principal component.

Principle of Maximal Variance

- Least loss of information
- Best capture the "spread"
- What is the direction of maximal variance?
- Given any direction $(\hat{\mathbf{u}})$, the projection of \mathbf{x} on $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ is given by:

$$\mathbf{x}_i^ op \hat{\mathbf{u}}$$
 Centered data

• Direction of maximal variance can be obtained by maximizing

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \hat{\mathbf{u}})^{2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \hat{\mathbf{u}}$$

$$= \hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\top} \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \right) \hat{\mathbf{u}}$$

Finding Direction of Maximal Variance

Find:

$$\max_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}:\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}\hat{\mathbf{u}}=1}\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}\mathbf{S}\hat{\mathbf{u}}$$

where:

$$\mathbf{S} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^{ op}$$

• S is the sample (empirical) covariance matrix of the mean-centered data

Solution

The solution to the above constrained optimization problem may be obtained using the Lagrange multipliers method. We maximize the following w.r.t. $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$:

$$(\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{S}\hat{\mathbf{u}}) - \lambda(\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\mathsf{T}}\hat{\mathbf{u}} - 1)$$

to get:

$$\frac{d}{d\hat{\mathbf{u}}}(\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}\mathbf{S}\hat{\mathbf{u}}) - \lambda(\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{\top}\hat{\mathbf{u}} - 1) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{S}\hat{\mathbf{u}} - \lambda\hat{\mathbf{u}} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{S}\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \lambda\hat{\mathbf{u}}$$

Obviously, the solution to the above equation is an eigen vector of the matrix **S**. But which **S**? Note that for the optimal solution:

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{ op}\mathbf{S}\hat{\mathbf{u}} = (\hat{\mathbf{u}}^{ op}\lambda\hat{\mathbf{u}}) = \lambda$$

Thus we should choose the largest possible λ which means that the first solution is the eigen vector of **S** with largest eigen value.

PCA Algorithm

1. Center X

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$$

2. Compute sample covariance matrix:

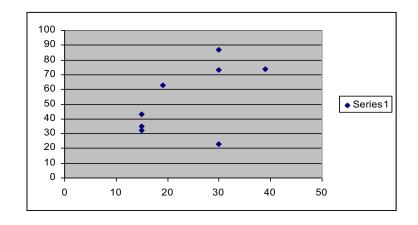
$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N-1} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}$$

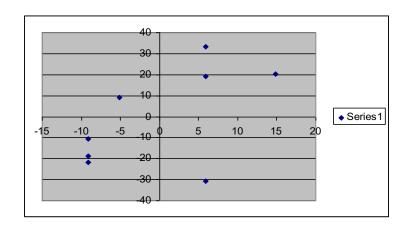
- 3. Find eigen vectors and eigen values for S
- 4. W consists of first L eigen vectors as columns
 - Ordered by decreasing eigen-values
 - W is $D \times L$
- 5. Let $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}$
- 6. Each row in **Z** (or \mathbf{z}_i^{\top}) is the lower dimensional embedding of \mathbf{x}_i

An Example

X1	X2	X1'	X2'
19	63	-5.1	9.25
39	74	14.9	20.25
30	87	5.9	33.25
30	23	5.9	-30.75
15	35	-9.1	-18.75
15	43	-9.1	-10.75
15	32	-9.1	-21.75
30	73	5.9	19.25

Mean1=24.1 Mean2=53.8





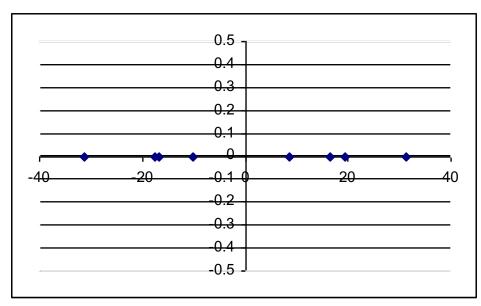
An Example

- Using MATLAB, we find out:
 - Eigenvectors:
 - e1=(-0.98,-0.21), λ 1=51.8
 - $e2=(0.21,-0.98), \lambda 2=560.2$
 - Thus the second eigenvector is more important!

An Example

• If we only keep one dimension: e2

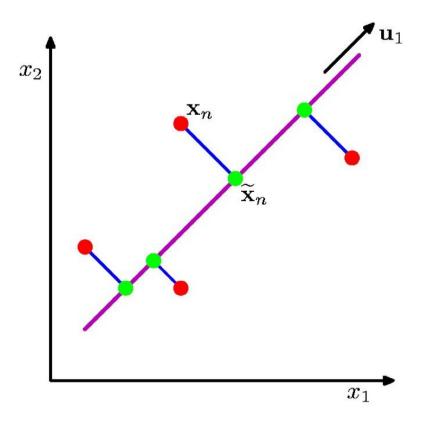
- We keep the dimension of e2=(0.21,-0.98)
- We can obtain the final data as



$$y_i \square \boxed{0.21} -0.98 \boxed{\begin{pmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \end{pmatrix}} \square 0.21 * x_{i1} -0.98 * x_{i2}$$

Two Derivations of PCA

- Two views/derivations:
 - Maximize variance (scatter of green points)
 - ► Minimize error (red-green distance per datapoint)



Applying PCA to faces

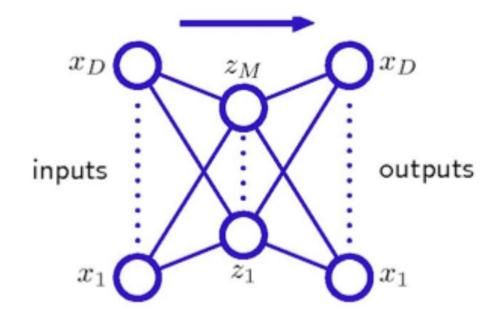
- Run PCA on 2429 19x19 grayscale images (CBCL data)
- Compresses the data: can get good reconstructions with only 3 components



- PCA for pre-processing: can apply classifier to latent representation
 - ▶ PCA with 3 components obtains 79% accuracy on face/non-face discrimination on test data vs. 76.8% for GMM with 84 states
- Can also be good for visualization

Relation to Neural Networks

- PCA is closely related to a particular form of neural network
- An autoencoder is a neural network whose outputs are its own inputs



The goal is to minimize reconstruction error

Autoencoders

Define

$$z = f(Wx); \hat{x} = g(Vz)$$

Goal:

$$\min_{\mathbf{W},\mathbf{V}} \ \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}^{(n)} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)}||^2$$

If g and f are linear

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{V}} \ \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}^{(n)} - VW\mathbf{x}^{(n)}||^2$$

In other words, the optimal solution is PCA.

Autoencoders: Nonlinear PCA

- What if g() is not linear?
- Then we are basically doing nonlinear PCA
- Some subtleties but in general this is an accurate description

Comparing Reconstructions



Real data

30-d deep autoencoder

30-d logistic PCA

30-d PCA

Questions?

