
Machine Learning

CSE 6363 (Fall 2019)

Lecture 4 SVD and PCA

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Orthogonal Matrix

- Suppose \mathbf{A} is a square matrix. \mathbf{A} is called orthogonal matrix if

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

where \mathbf{I} is an identity matrix, \mathbf{A}^T is the transpose of \mathbf{A} .

- For an orthogonal matrix, we have

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^T$$

Eigenvalue & Eigenvector

- Suppose \mathbf{A} is a square matrix. If having a number, λ , and a non-zero vector, \mathbf{X} , satisfy

$$\mathbf{AX} = \lambda\mathbf{X}$$

- We called λ the eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} , and \mathbf{X} is the eigenvector of \mathbf{A}
- If we know the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} , the eigenvectors can be determined by substituting the eigenvalues into above equation.

Calculation of Eigenvalues

- We can determine the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} by solving the following equation:

$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}| = 0$$

where \mathbf{I} is an identity matrix

What is SVD?

- Find something important!
- Decompose into “concepts” and tell us the order of their importance!

What is SVD?

Any $m \times n$ matrix **A** with rank of r , can be decomposed into

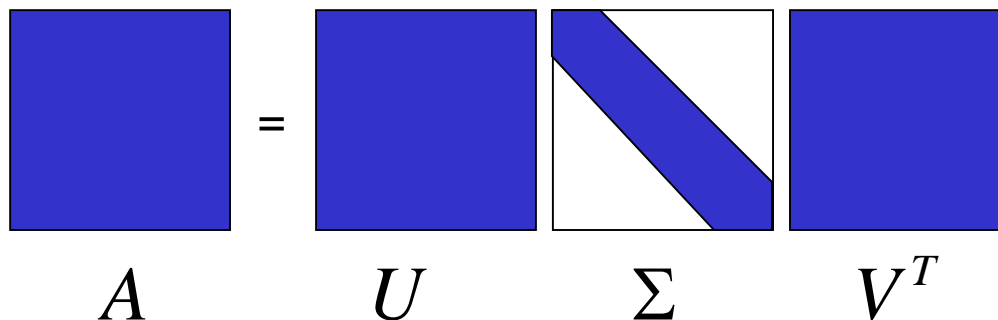
$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$$

where **U** and **V** are orthogonal matrices and **D** is a diagonal matrix containing singular values, $\{\mu_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, r\}$. This factored matrix representation is known as the SVD.

SVD More Formally

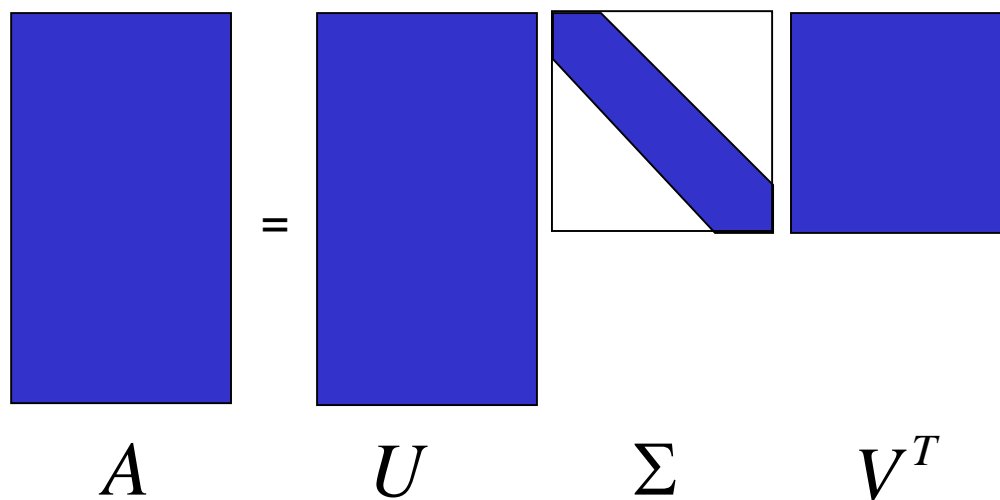
- The diagonal values of Σ (μ_1, \dots, μ_n) are called the **singular values**. It is accustomed to sort them: $\mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \geq \dots \geq \mu_n$
- The columns of U ($\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n$) are called the **left singular vectors**.
- The columns of V ($\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$) are called the **right singular vectors**.

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$



Reduced SVD

- For rectangular matrices, we have two forms of SVD. The reduced SVD looks like this:
 - The columns of U are orthonormal
 - Cheaper form for computation and storage

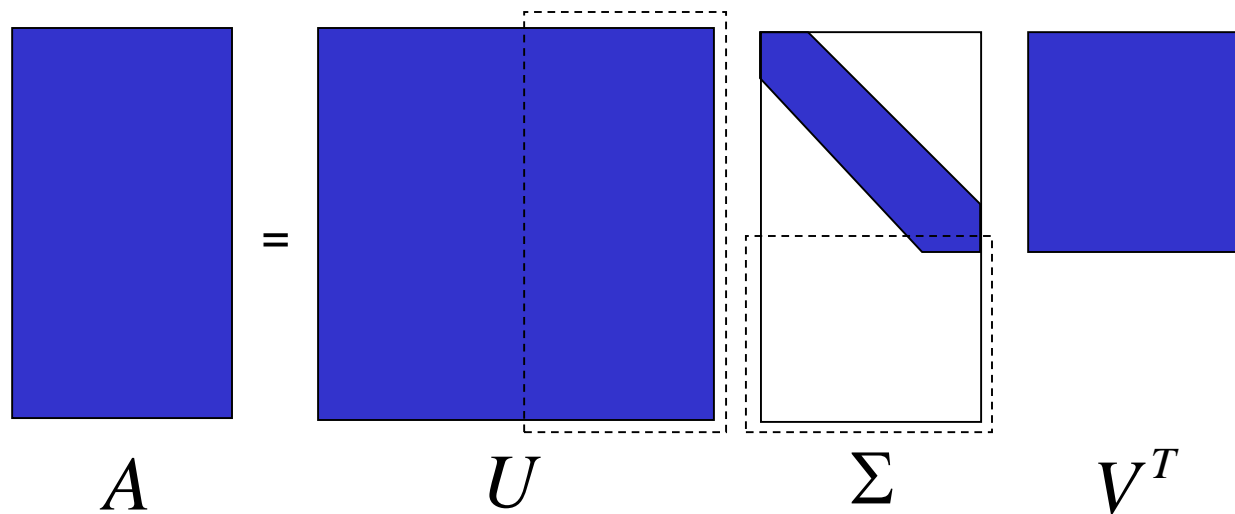


The diagram illustrates the Reduced SVD decomposition of a matrix A . It shows four rectangular blocks arranged horizontally, separated by an equals sign. The first block is a tall blue rectangle labeled A . The second block is a tall blue rectangle labeled U . The third block is a square labeled Σ , which is white with a blue diagonal line from the top-left to the bottom-right. The fourth block is a tall blue rectangle labeled V^T .

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

Full SVD

- We can complete U to a full orthogonal matrix and pad Σ by zeros accordingly



How to do SVD

$$A = U\Sigma V^T$$

How about AA^T and $A^T A$?

How to do SVD

A simple demonstraton of SVD:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 5 \\ -1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Singular Values

- Suppose \mathbf{A} is a $m \times n$ matrix and its rank is r ($r \leq n$).
We can calculate the non-zero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$,
e.g.,
$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \cdots \geq \lambda_r$$
- We call $\mu_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i} (i = 1, 2, \dots, r)$ as the singular values of \mathbf{A}

Matrix Inverse and Solving Linear Systems

- Matrix inverse: $A = U \Sigma V^T$

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1} &= (U \Sigma V^T)^{-1} = (V^T)^{-1} \Sigma^{-1} U^{-1} = \\ &= V \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sigma_n} \end{bmatrix} U^T \end{aligned}$$

- So, to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

$$\mathbf{x} = V \Sigma^{-1} U^T \mathbf{b}$$

Application: Image Compression

- Uncompressed m by n pixel image: $m \times n$ numbers
- Rank q approximation of image:
 - q singular values
 - The first q columns of \mathbf{U} (m -vectors)
 - The first q columns of \mathbf{V} (n -vectors)
 - Total: $q \times (m + n + 1)$ numbers

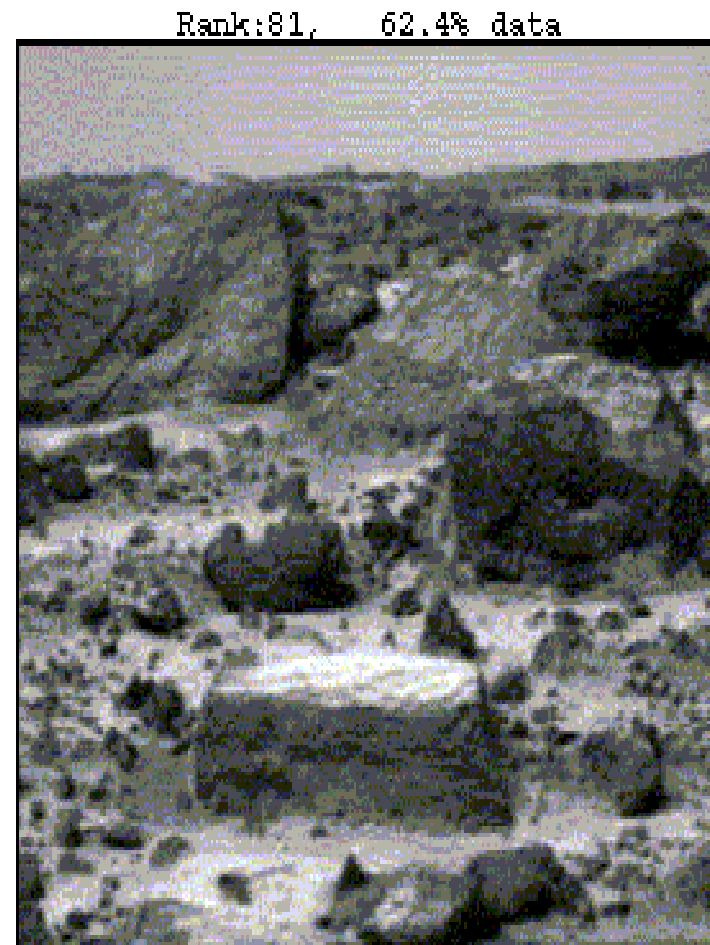
Example: Yogi (Uncompressed)

- Source: [Will]
- Yogi: Rock photographed by Sojourner Mars mission.
- 256×264 grayscale bitmap $\rightarrow 256 \times 264$ matrix \mathbf{M}
- Pixel values $\in [0,1]$
- ~ 67584 numbers



Example: Yogi (Compressed)

- \mathbf{M} has 256 singular values
- Rank 81 approximation of \mathbf{M} :
- $81 \times (256 + 264 + 1) =$
 ~ 42201 numbers

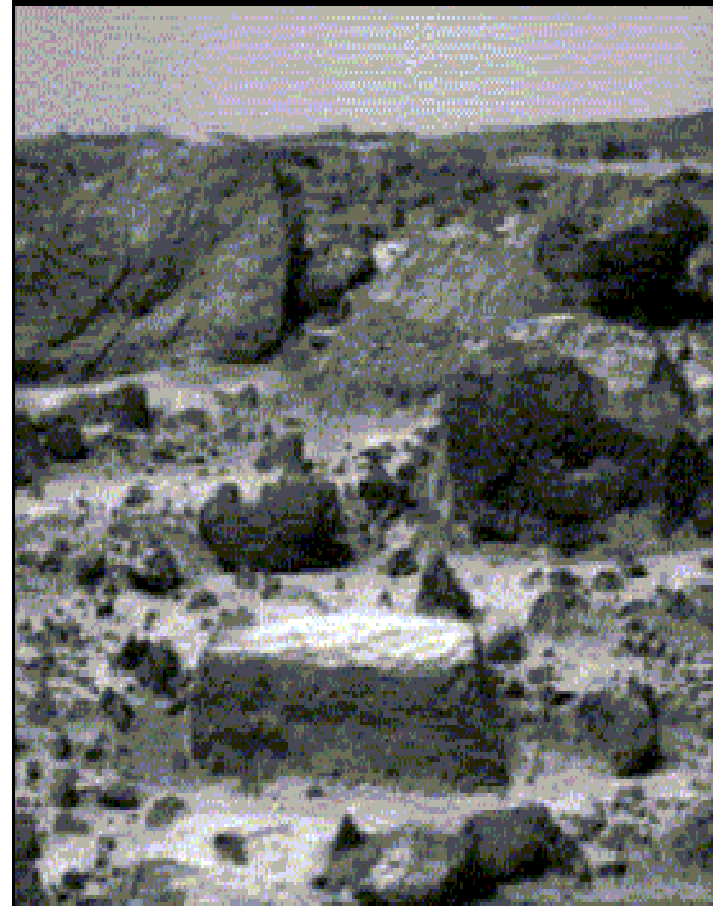


Example: Yogi (Both)

Yogi



Rank:81, 62.4% data



Application: Noise Filtering

- Data compression: Image degraded to reduce size
- Noise Filtering: Lower-rank approximation used to improve data.
 - Noise effects primarily manifest in terms corresponding to smaller singular values.
 - Setting these singular values to zero removes noise effects.

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

Question:

- Is there another basis, which is a linear combination of the original basis, that best re-expresses our data set?

Following questions:

1. What is the “best way” to re-express our data?
2. What is a good choice of basis P for $P X = Y$.

An Vision Application: Facial Recognition

- Want to identify specific person, based on facial image
- Robust to ...
 - Facial hair, glasses, ...
 - Different lighting
- ⇒ Can't just use given 256 x 256 pixels
- Need another option!



Why Do We Care

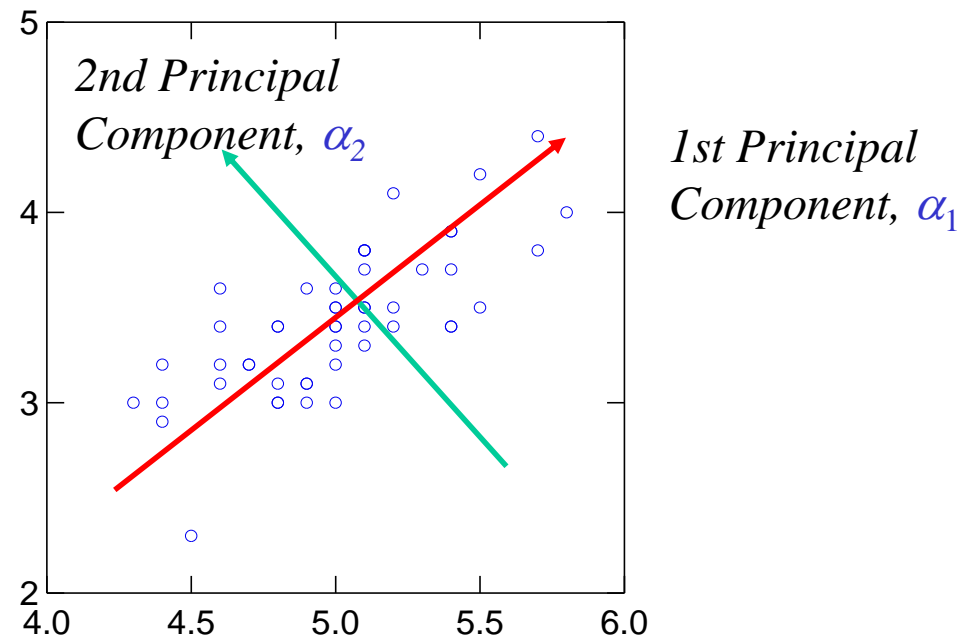
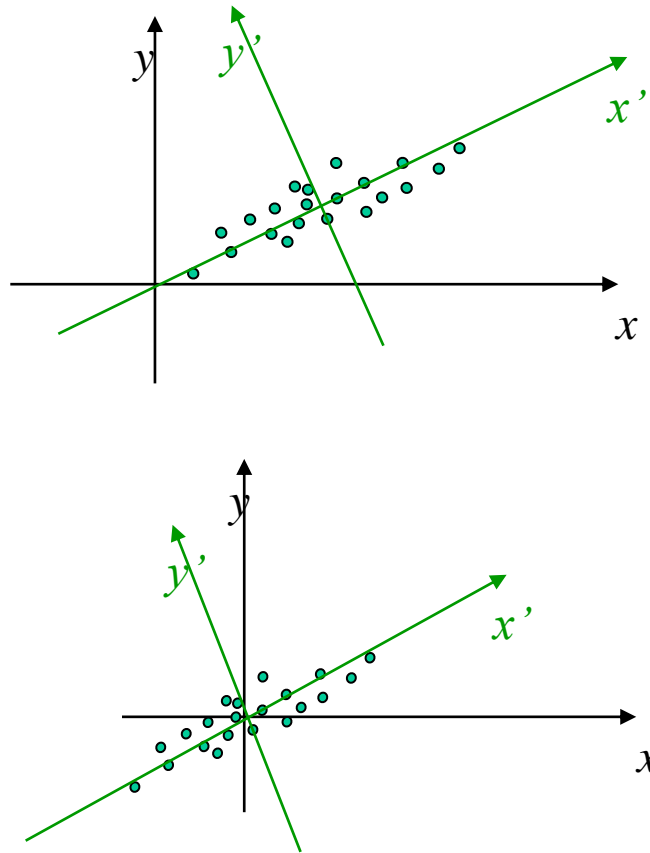
- Lower dimensional representations permit
 - Compression
 - Noise filtering
- As preprocessing for classification:
 - Reduces feature space dimension
 - Simpler Classifiers
 - Possibly better generalization
 - May facilitate simple (nearest neighbor) methods

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

- Idea:

- Given data points in d -dimensional space, project into *lower dimensional* space while *preserving as much information* as possible
 - Eg, find best planar approximation to 3D data
 - Eg, find best 12-D approximation to 10^4 -D data
- In particular, choose projection that *minimizes squared error* in reconstructing original data

Principal Components Analysis



Projection

- Orthonormal basis \rightarrow trivial projection

- Given basis $U = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$

can project any d -dim \mathbf{x} to k values

- $\alpha_1 = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{x} \quad \alpha_2 = \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{x} \quad \dots \quad \alpha_k = \mathbf{u}_k^T \mathbf{x}$
- $\alpha = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{x}$
- $\mathbf{x} \approx \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i = \sum_i (\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{u}_i \quad [“\approx” \text{ if all } d \text{ values}]$

- We will use “centered” vectors:

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x} - \underline{\mathbf{x}} \quad \text{where} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}^n$$

$$\alpha_i = \mathbf{u}_i^T (\mathbf{x} - \underline{\mathbf{x}})$$

Minimize Reconstruction Error

- Assume data is set of N d -dimensional vectors, $\mathbf{x}^n = \langle x_1^n \dots x_d^n \rangle$
- Represent each in terms of any d orthogonal basis vectors

$$\mathbf{x}^n = \sum_{i=1}^d z_i^n \mathbf{u}_i; \quad \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = \delta_{ij}$$

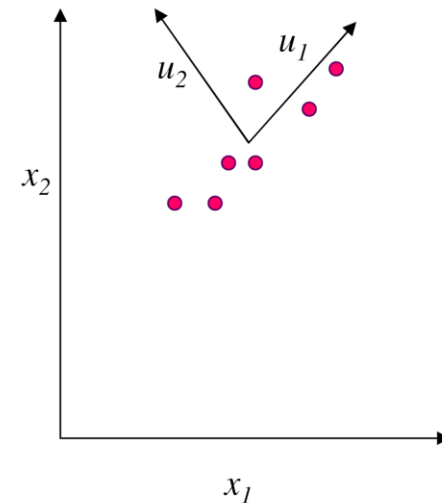
PCA: given $k < d$. Find $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$

that minimizes $E_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}^n - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^n\|_2^2$

where $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^n = \underline{\mathbf{x}} + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^n \mathbf{u}_i$

Mean

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}^n$$



PCA

- Note $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_d^n = \mathbf{x} + \sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i^n \mathbf{u}_i \equiv \mathbf{x}^n$
- So... $\mathbf{x}^n - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^n = \sum_{i=k+1}^d \alpha_i^n \mathbf{u}_i = \sum_{i=k+1}^d ((\mathbf{x}^n - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{u}_i) \mathbf{u}_i$
- So... $E_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \left\| \sum_{i=k+1}^d ((\mathbf{x}^n - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{u}_i) \mathbf{u}_i \right\|^2 = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{i=k+1}^d [(\mathbf{x}^n - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{u}_i]^2$
 $= \sum_{i=k+1}^d \sum_{n=1}^N [\mathbf{u}_i^T (\mathbf{x}^n - \mathbf{x})][(\mathbf{x}^n - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{u}_i]$
 $= \sum_{i=k+1}^d \mathbf{u}_i^T \Sigma \mathbf{u}_i$

Covariance matrix:

$$\Sigma = \sum_n (\mathbf{x}^n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}^n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T$$

PCA: given $k < d$. Find $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$

that minimizes $E_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}^n - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^n\|_2^2$

where $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^n = \mathbf{x} + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^n \mathbf{u}_i$

Justifying Use of Eigenvectors

- Goal

- minimize: $\mathbf{u}^T \Sigma \mathbf{u}$
- subject to: $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} = 1$

- Use Lagrange Multipliers... minimize:

$$f(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{u}^T \Sigma \mathbf{u} - \lambda[\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} - 1]$$

- Set derivative to 0:

$$\Sigma \mathbf{u} - \lambda \mathbf{u} = 0$$

- Def'n of eigenvalue λ , eigenvector \mathbf{u} !

- If multiple vectors \mathbf{u}_i :

- Minimize sum of independent terms...
- Each is eigen value/vector

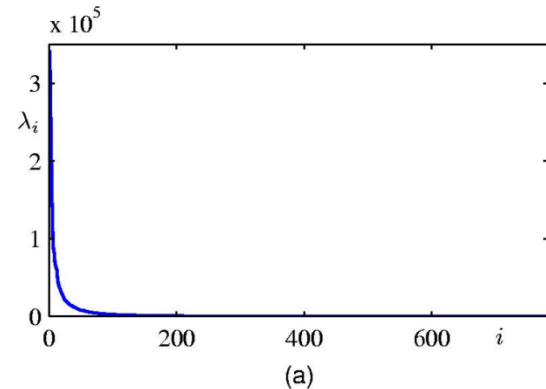
PCA

$$\text{Minimize } E_k = \sum_{i=k+1}^d \mathbf{u}_i^\top \Sigma \mathbf{u}_i$$

$$\rightarrow \Sigma \mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

Eigenvalue Eigenvector

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow E_k &= \sum_{i=k+1}^d \mathbf{u}_i^\top \Sigma \mathbf{u}_i = \sum_{i=k+1}^d \mathbf{u}_i^\top \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \\ &= \sum_{i=k+1}^d \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_i = \sum_{i=k+1}^d \lambda_i \end{aligned}$$



So... to minimize E_k , take **SMALLEST** eigenvalues $\{ \lambda_i \}$

PCA Algorithm

PCA algorithm(\mathbf{X} , k): top k eigenvalues/eigenvectors

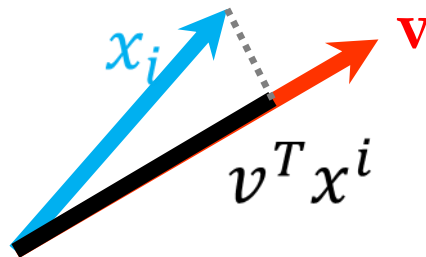
% $\mathbf{X} = d \times N$ data matrix,

% ... each data point \mathbf{x}^n = column vector

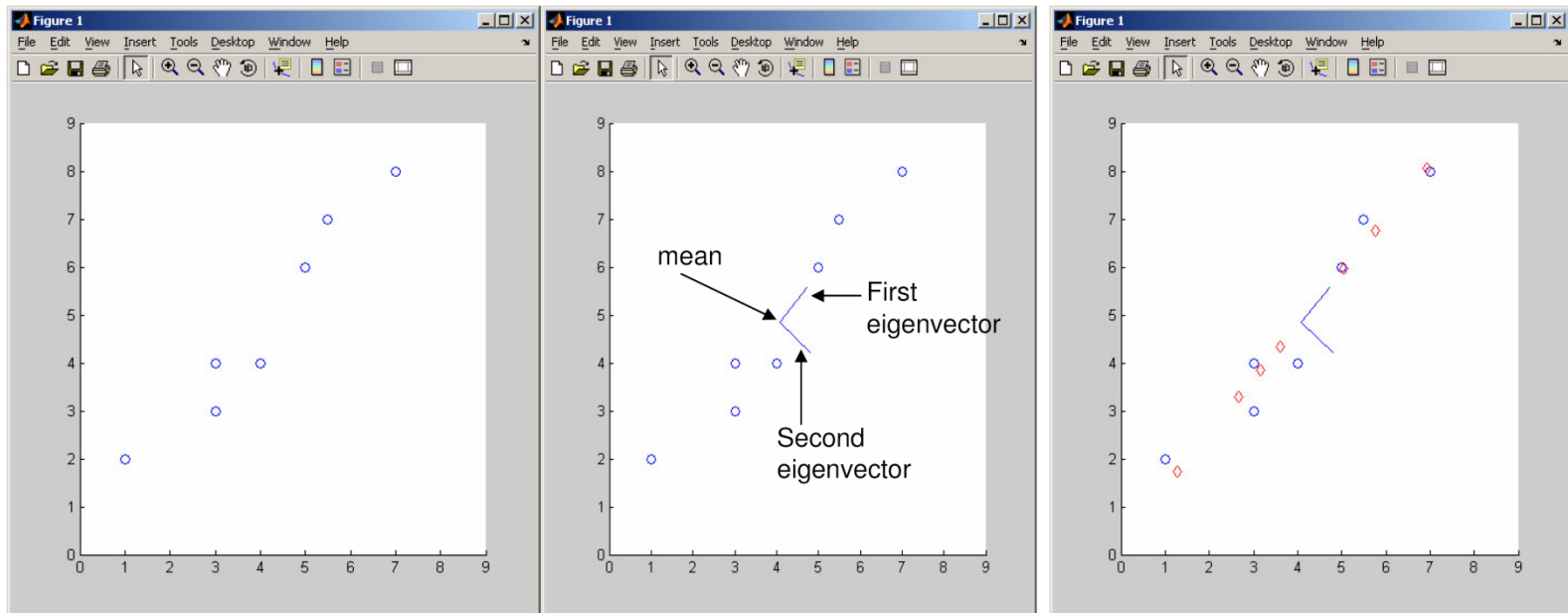
- $\underline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}^n$
- $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow$ subtract mean $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ from each column vector \mathbf{x}^n in \mathbf{X}
- $\Sigma \leftarrow \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$... covariance matrix of \mathbf{A}
- $\{ \lambda_i, \mathbf{u}_i \}_{i=1..d}$ = eigenvectors/eigenvalues of Σ
... $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_d$
- Return $\{ \lambda_i, \mathbf{u}_i \}_{i=1..k}$
% top k principle components

Different interpretation of PCA

- **Minimum Reconstruction Error:** PCA finds vectors v such that projection on to the vectors yields minimum MSE reconstruction (As we just used)
- **Maximum Variance Subspace:** PCA finds vectors v such that projections on to the vectors capture maximum variance in the data



PCA Example



Reconstructed data using
only first eigenvector ($k=1$)

PCA and SVD

- We can compute the principal components by SVD of X :

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{X} &= U \Sigma V^T \\ \underline{X X^T} &= U \Sigma V^T (U \Sigma V^T)^T = \\ &= U \Sigma \color{blue}{V^T V} \color{red}{\Sigma^T} U^T = \underline{U \tilde{\Sigma}^2 U^T} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, the **left singular vectors** of X are the principal components! We sort them by the size of the singular values of X .

PCA for Image Compression



d=1



d=2



d=4



d=8

**Original
Image**

d=16



d=32



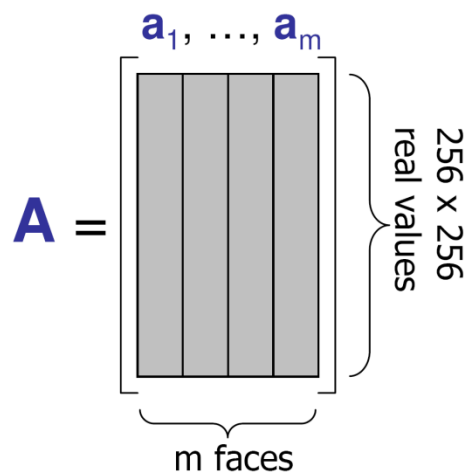
d=64



d=100



Eigenfaces



- Example data set: Images of faces
 - Famous Eigenface approach
[Turk & Pentland], [Sirovich & Kirby]
- Each face \mathbf{a} is ...
 - 256 x 256 values (luminance at location)
 - \mathbf{a} in $\Re^{256 \times 256}$ (view as 1D vector)
- Form $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m]$
- Compute $\Sigma = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$
- Problem: Σ is $64K \times 64K$... HUGE!!!

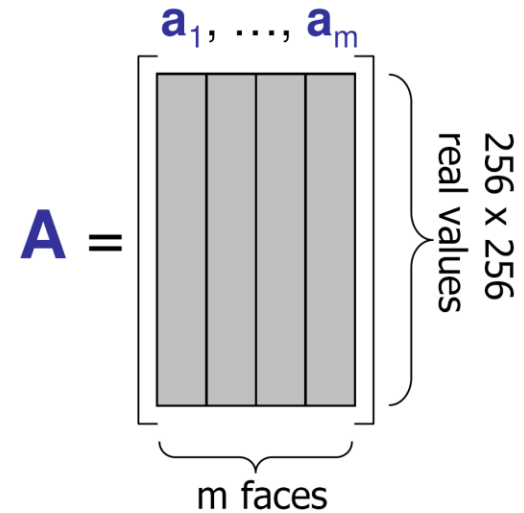
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Computational Complexity

- Suppose m instances, each of size d
 - Eigenfaces: $m=500$ faces, each of size $d=64K$
- Given $d \times d$ covariance matrix Σ , can compute
 - all d eigenvectors/eigenvalues in $O(d^3)$
 - first k eigenvectors/eigenvalues in $O(k d^2)$
- But if $d=64K$, EXPENSIVE!

A Clever Workaround

- Note that $m \ll 64K$
- Use $L = A^T A$ instead of $\Sigma = A A^T$
- If \mathbf{v} is eigenvector of L
then $A\mathbf{v}$ is eigenvector of Σ



Principle Components



Principle Components

Pros and Cons



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



- Limited to second order statistics
- Limited to linear projections

