

# CS 189/289

Today's lecture outline

1. Finish Transformers
2. Unsupervised learning, dimensionality reduction
3. PCA

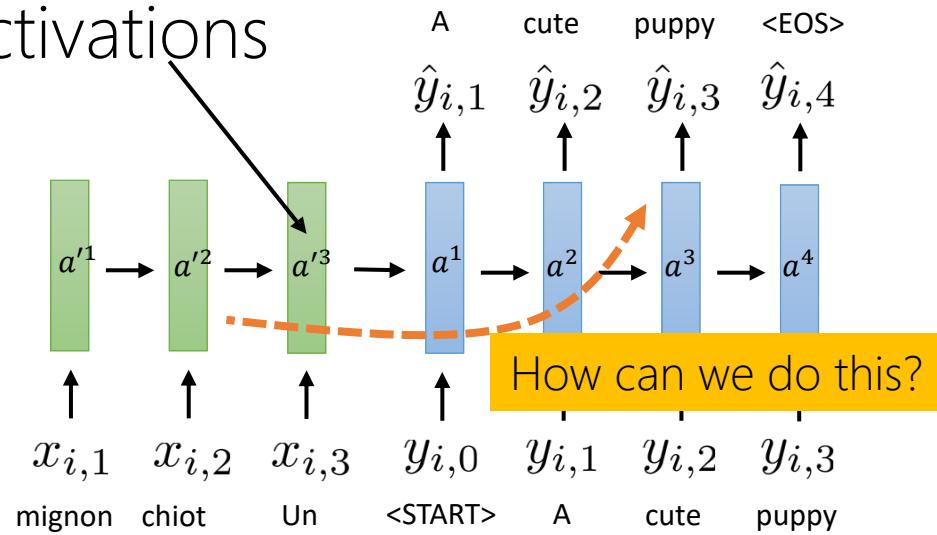
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# Recall: RNN bottleneck problem

all information about the conditioned sequence is contained in these activations



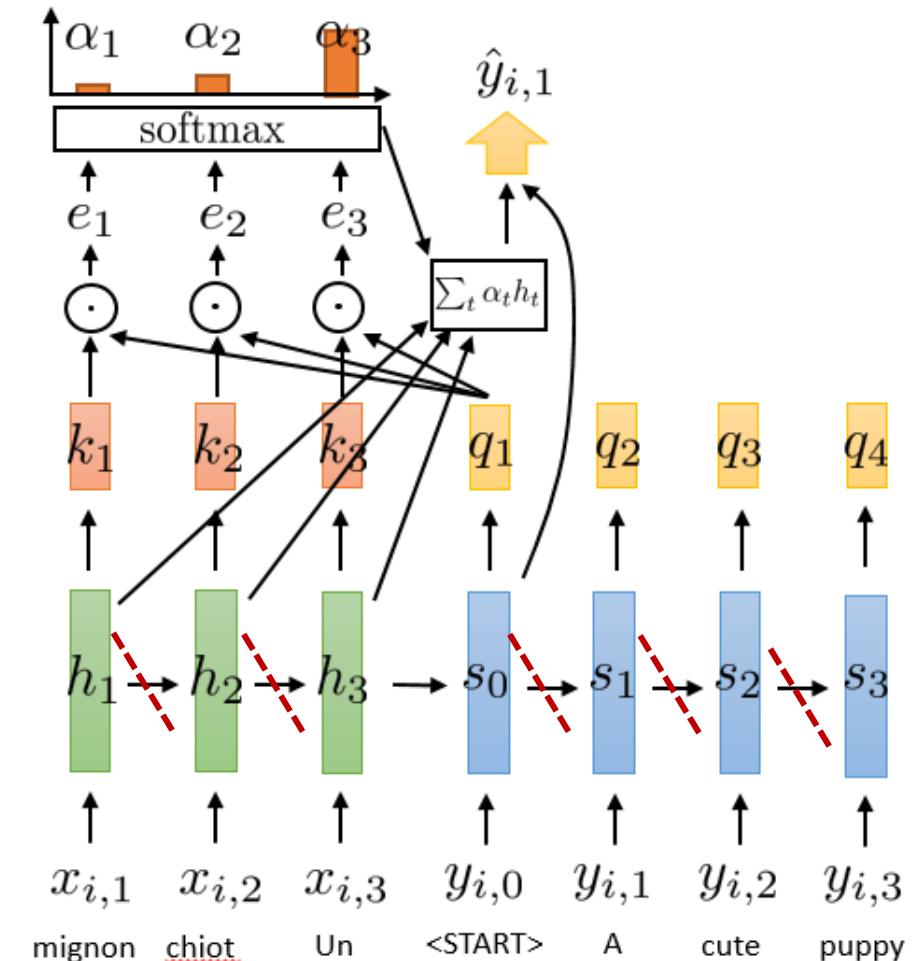
Idea: what if we could somehow “peek” at the source sentence while decoding?  
Attention to the rescue!

# Recall: Is Attention All We Need?

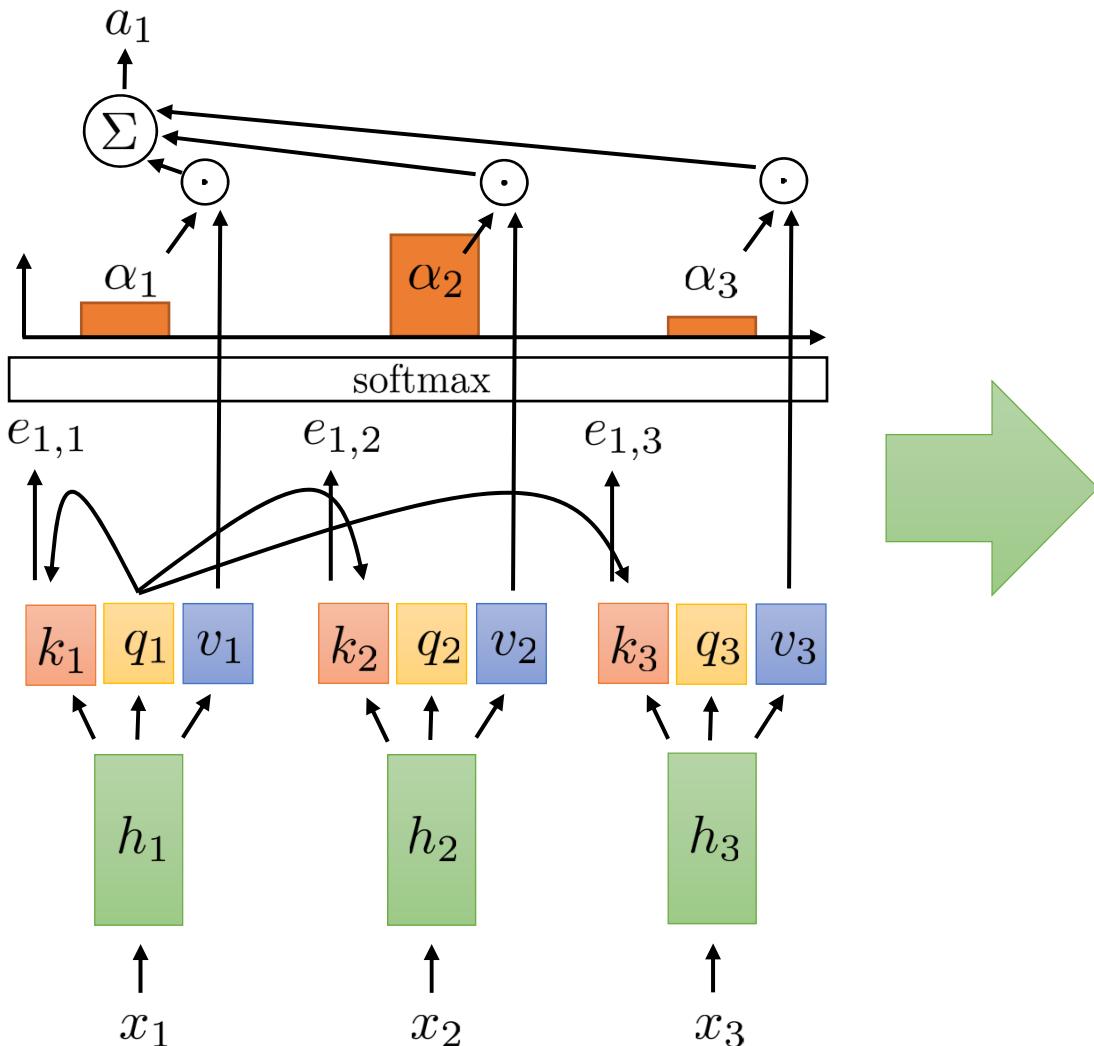
- If we have attention, do we even need recurrent connections?
- Can we transform our RNN into a purely attention-based model?

This has a few issues we must overcome:

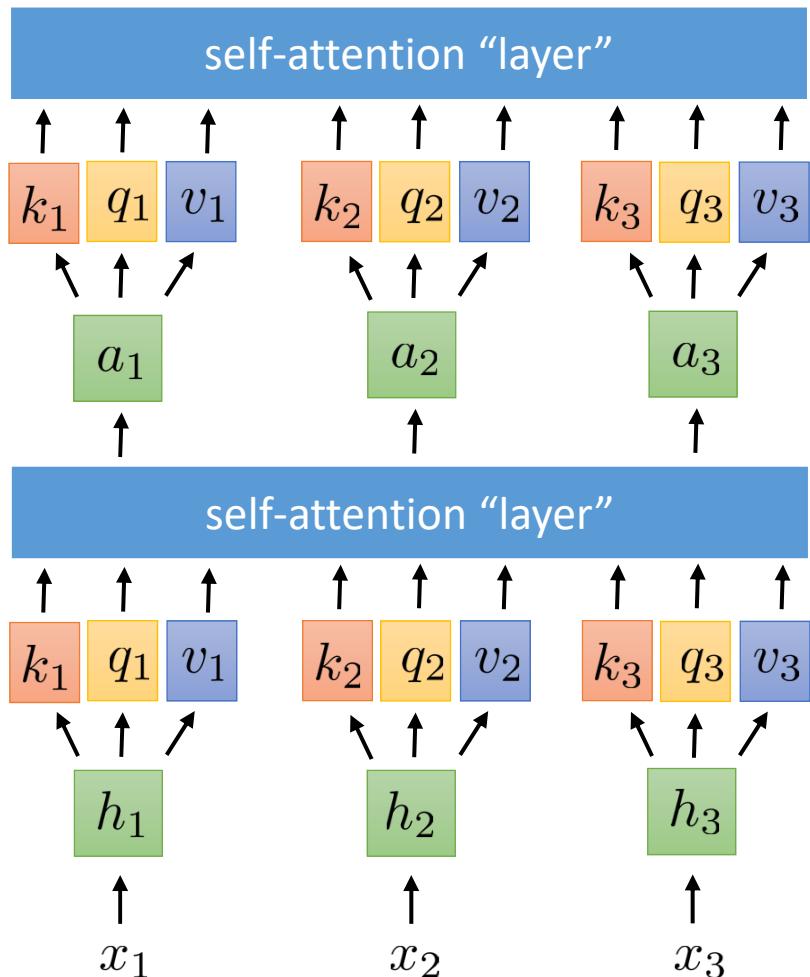
- Decoding position 3 can't access  $s_1$  or  $s_0$ .
- Solution: self-attention.



# Recall: Self-Attention



keep repeating until we've  
processed this enough  
then hand off to next part of overall  
model



# From Self-Attention to Transformers

- Self-attention lets us remove recurrence entirely, yielding the now pervasively used Transformer model for sequences.
- But we need a few additional components to fix some problems:

1. Positional encoding

addresses lack of sequence information

2. Multi-headed attention

allows querying multiple positions at each layer

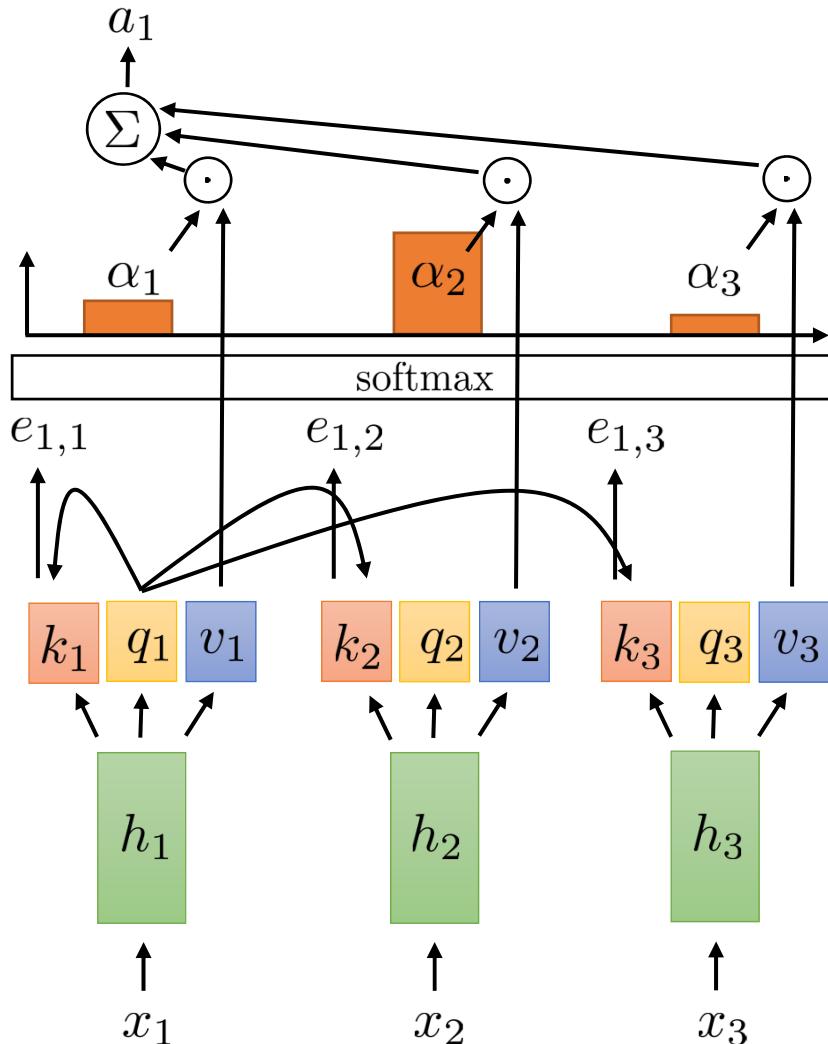
3. Adding nonlinearities

so far, each successive layer is *linear* in the previous one

4. Masked decoding

how to prevent attention lookups into the future?

# Positional encoding: what is the order?



**what we see:**

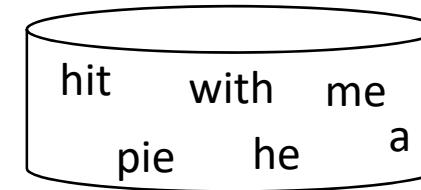
he hit me with a pie

**what naïve self-attention sees:**

a pie hit me with he

a hit with me he pie

he pie me with a hit



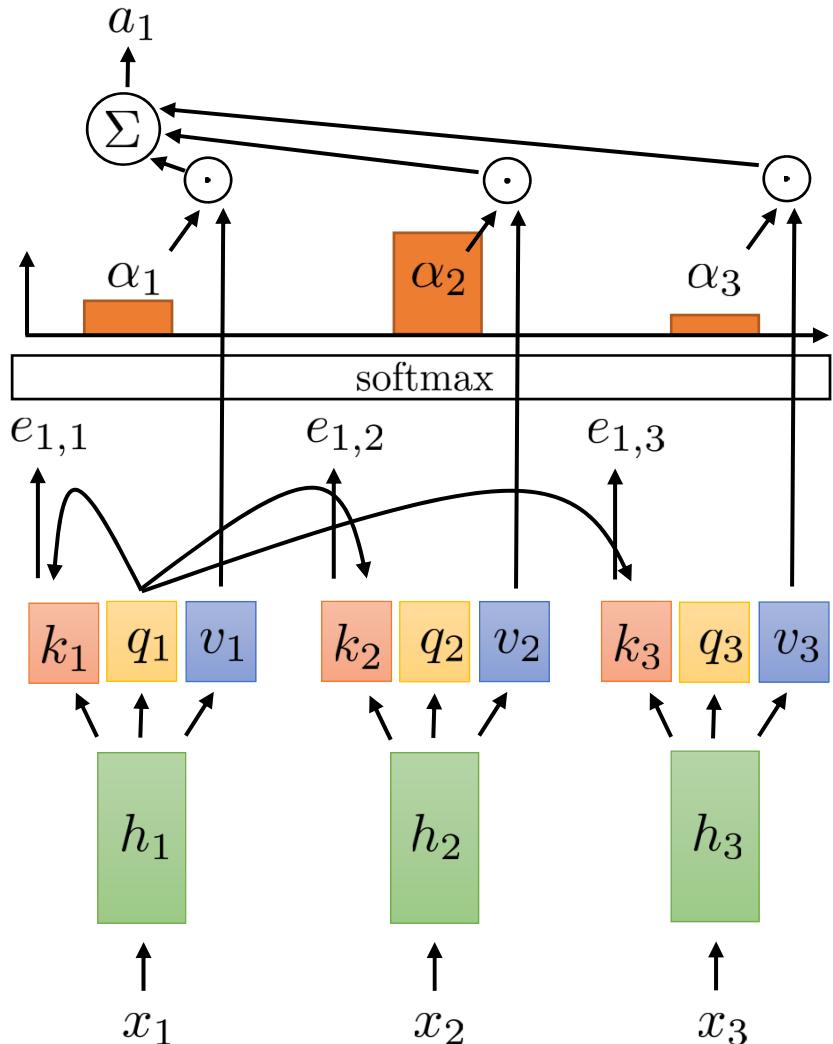
Permutation Equivariant!

**Idea:** add “positional” information, i.e. that indicates where it is in the sequence!

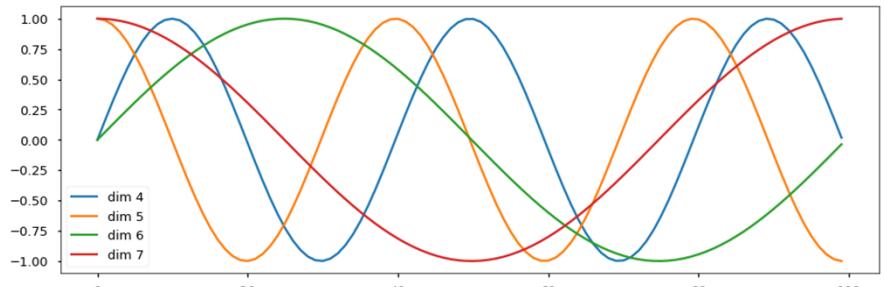
$$h_t = f(x_t, t)$$

some function

# Positional encoding: what is the order?



$$p_t = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(t/10000^{2*1/d}) \\ \cos(t/10000^{2*1/d}) \\ \sin(t/10000^{2*2/d}) \\ \cos(t/10000^{2*2/d}) \\ \vdots \\ \sin(t/10000^{2*\frac{d}{2}/d}) \\ \cos(t/10000^{2*\frac{d}{2}/d}) \end{bmatrix}$$



$d$ , is the dimensionality of  
positional encoding

$$h_t = f(x_t, t)$$

some function

# From Self-Attention to Transformers

- The basic concept of **self-attention** can be used to develop a very powerful type of sequence model, called a **transformer**
- But to make this actually work, we need to develop a few additional components to address some fundamental limitations

1. Positional encoding

addresses lack of sequence information

2. Multi-headed attention

allows querying multiple positions at each layer

3. Adding nonlinearities

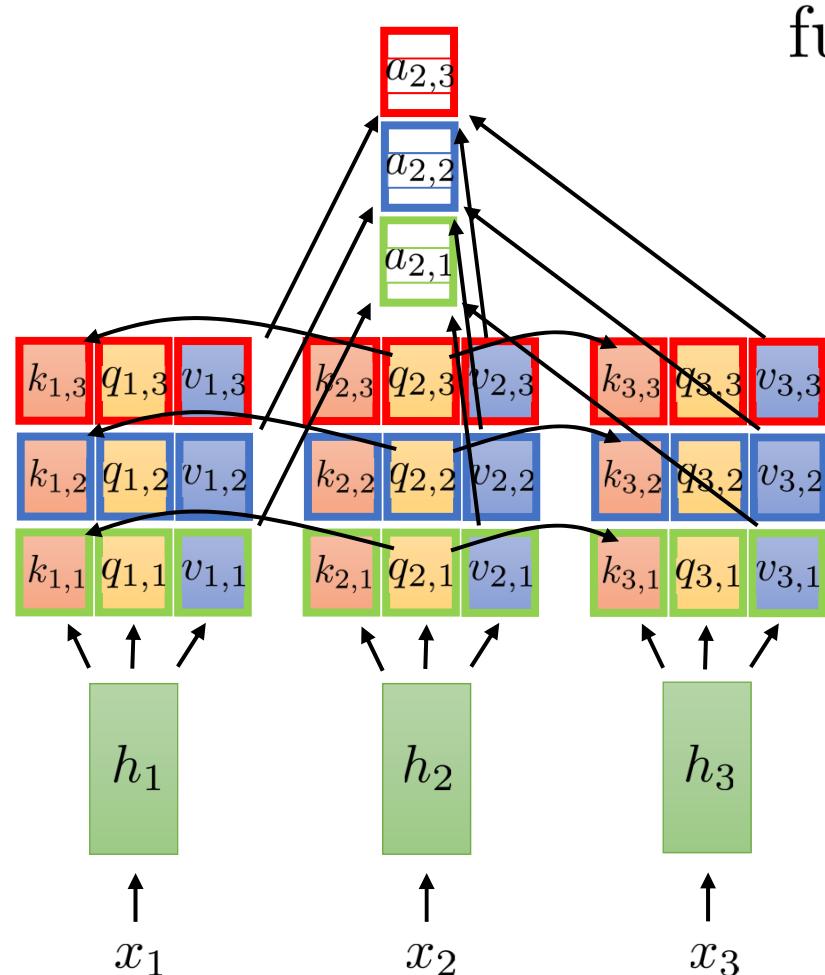
so far, each successive layer is *linear* in the previous one

4. Masked decoding

how to prevent attention lookups into the future?

# Multi-head attention

Idea: have multiple keys, queries, and values for every time step!



full attention vector formed by concatenation:

$$a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{2,1} \\ a_{2,2} \\ a_{2,3} \end{bmatrix}$$

compute weights **independently** for each head

$$e_{l,t,i} = q_{l,i} \cdot k_{l,i}$$

$$\alpha_{l,t,i} = \exp(e_{l,t,i}) / \sum_{t'} \exp(e_{l,t',i})$$

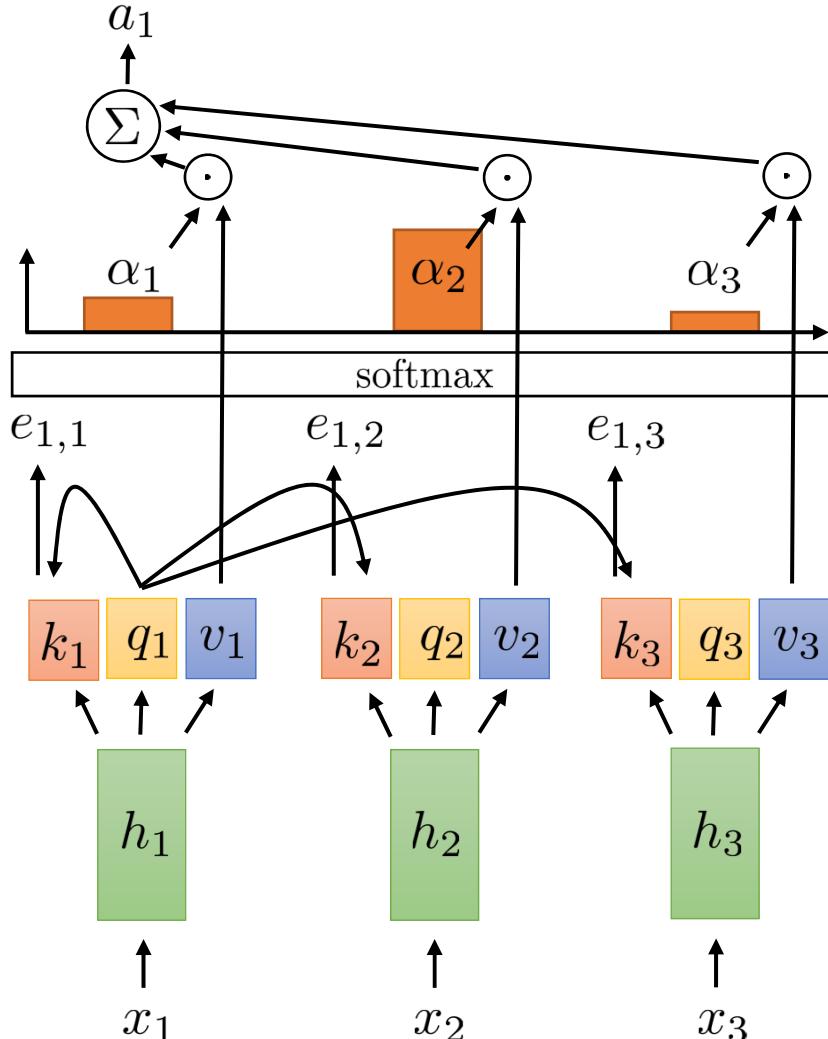
$$a_{l,i} = \sum_t \alpha_{l,t,i} v_{t,i}$$

around 8 heads seems to work  
pretty well for big models

# From Self-Attention to Transformers

- The basic concept of **self-attention** can be used to develop a very powerful type of sequence model, called a **transformer**
  - But to make this actually work, we need to develop a few additional components to address some fundamental limitations
- |                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. Positional encoding    | addresses lack of sequence information                             |
| 2. Multi-headed attention | allows querying multiple positions at each layer                   |
| 3. Adding nonlinearities  | so far, each successive layer is <i>linear</i> in the previous one |
| 4. Masked decoding        | how to prevent attention lookups into the future?                  |

# Self-Attention is Linear



$$k_t = W_k h_t \quad q_t = W_q h_t \quad v_t = W_v h_t$$

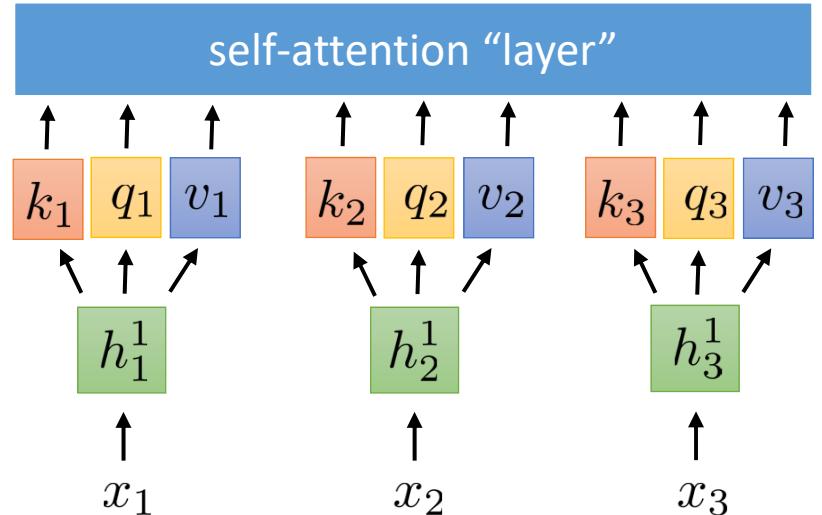
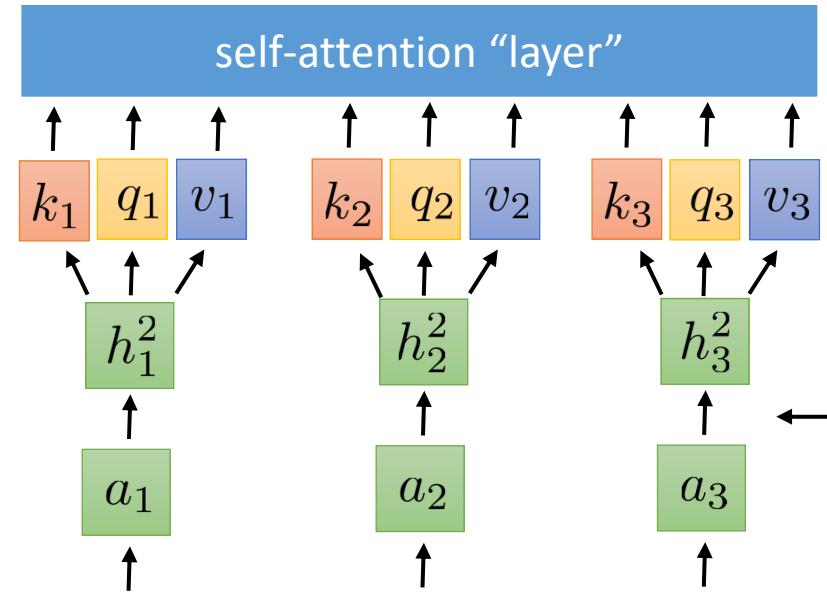
$$\alpha_{l,t} = \exp(e_{l,t}) / \sum_{t'} \exp(e_{l,t'})$$

$$e_{l,t} = q_l \cdot k_t$$

$$a_l = \sum_t \alpha_{l,t} v_t = \sum_t \alpha_{l,t} W_v h_t = W_v \sum_t \alpha_{l,t} h_t$$

Every self-attention “layer” is a linear transformation of the previous layer

# Alternating self-attention & non-linearity



some non-linear (learned) function  
e.g.,  $h_t^\ell = \sigma(W^\ell a_t^\ell + b^\ell)$

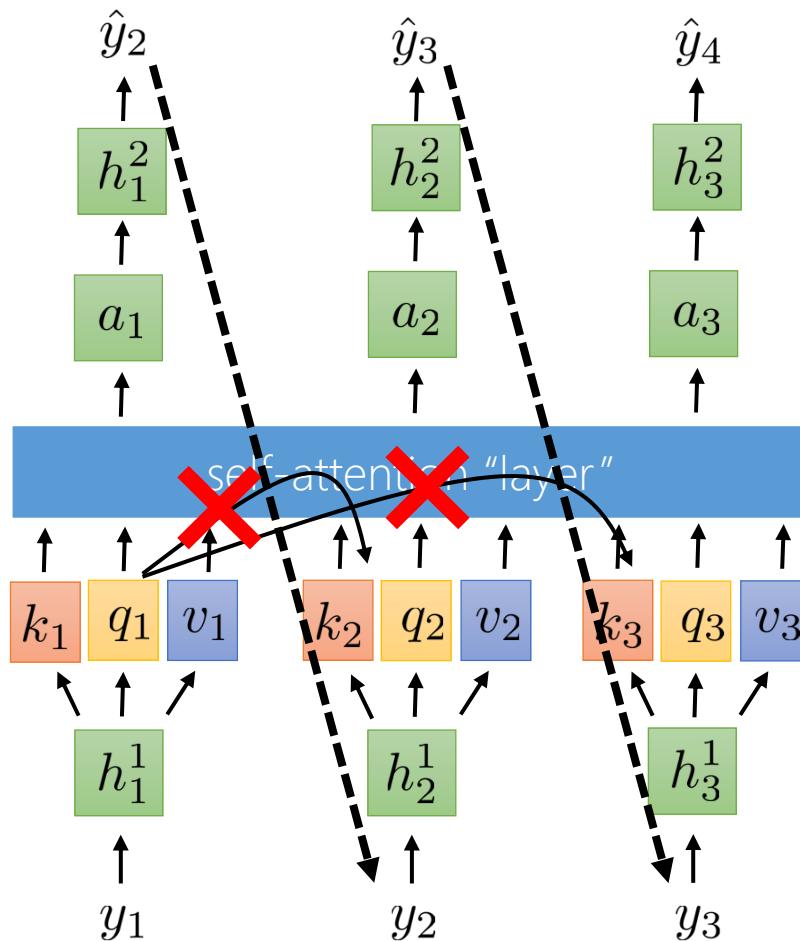
just a neural net applied at every  
position after every self-attention layer

# From Self-Attention to Transformers

- The basic concept of **self-attention** can be used to develop a very powerful type of sequence model, called a **transformer**
- But to make this actually work, we need to develop a few additional components to address some fundamental limitations
  - 1. Positional encoding addresses lack of sequence information
  - 2. Multi-headed attention allows querying multiple positions at each layer
  - 3. Adding nonlinearities so far, each successive layer is *linear* in the previous one
  - 4. Masked decoding how to prevent attention lookups into the future?

# Self-attention can see the future!

e.g. self-attention “language model”:



## Problem:

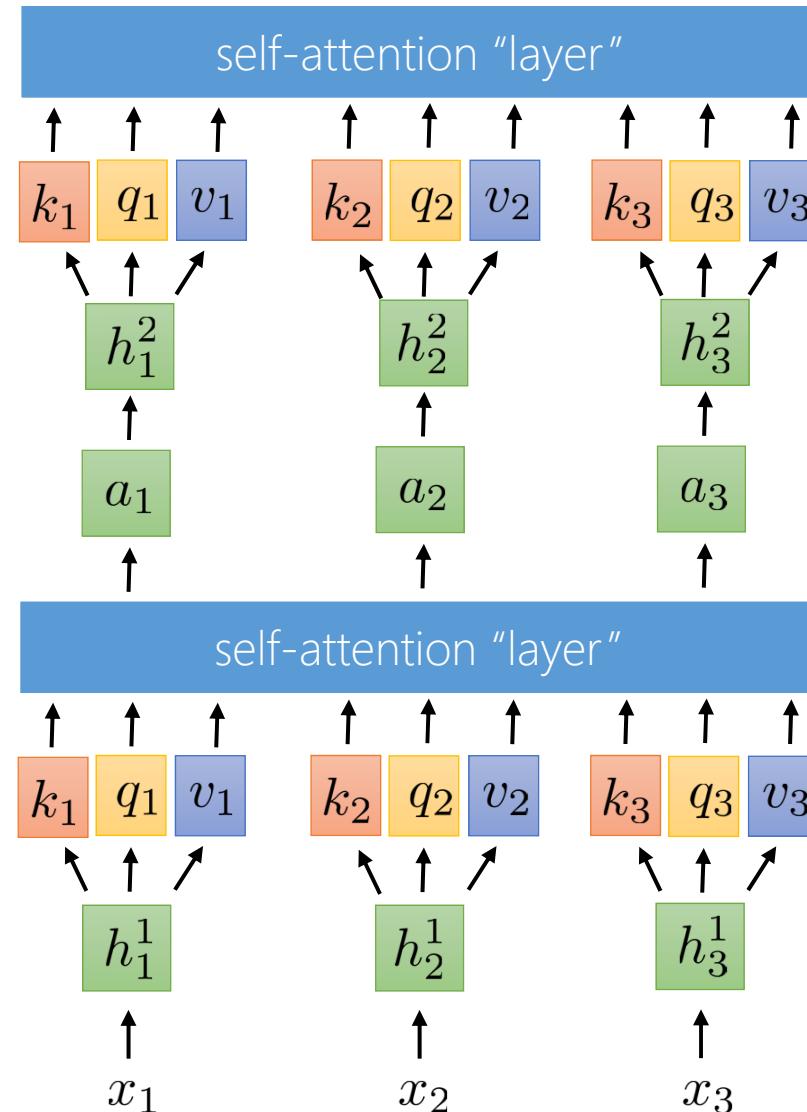
- Step 1 can look at future values (hence inputs).
- At test time (“decoding”), the output at step 1 will see the input at step 2 ...
- Also cyclic: output 1 depends on input 2 which depends on output 1.
- So it can see itself, thereby “cheating”.

Solution: 
$$e_{l,t} = \begin{cases} q_l \cdot k_t & \text{if } t \leq l \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$a_l = \sum_t \alpha_{l,t} v_t$$
$$\alpha_{l,t} = \exp(e_{l,t}) / \sum_{t'} \exp(e_{l,t'})$$

Now we are read for  
The Transformer!

# Sequence-to-sequence with self-attention



"*Transformer*" architecture:

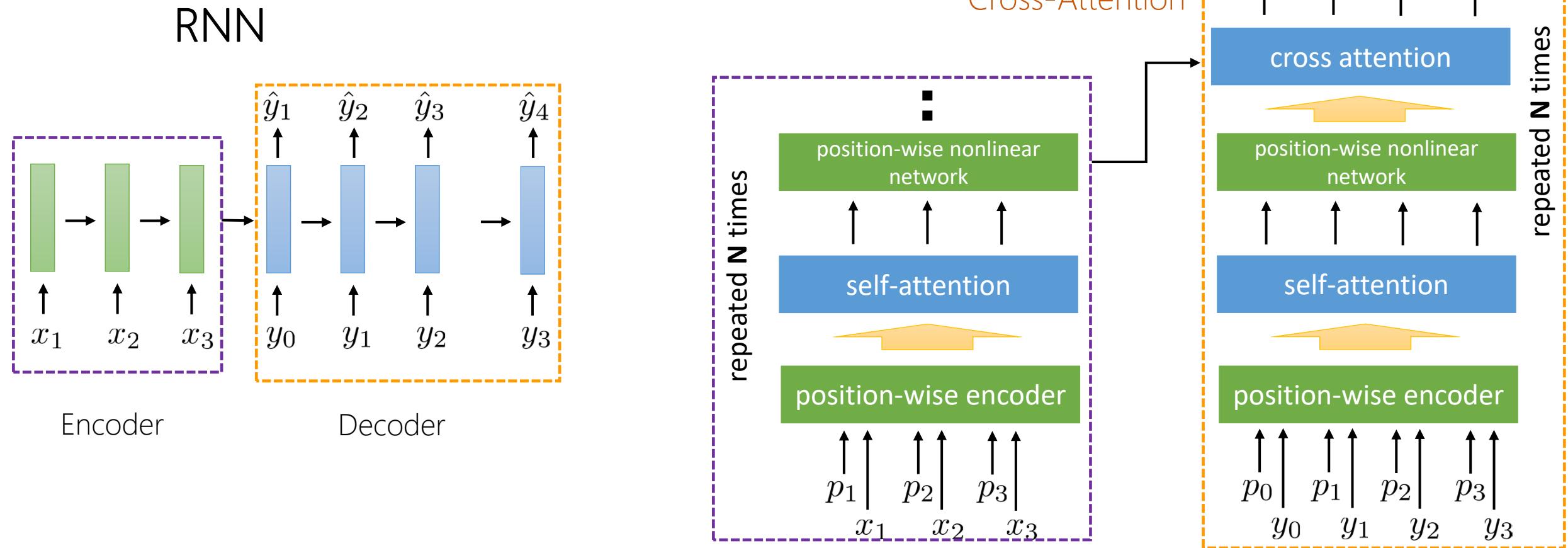
- Stacked self-attention layers with position-wise nonlinearities.
- *Transform* one sequence into another at **each** layer.
- For sequence data.

[Vaswani et al. Attention Is All You Need. 2017]

# Encoder-Decoder Transformer

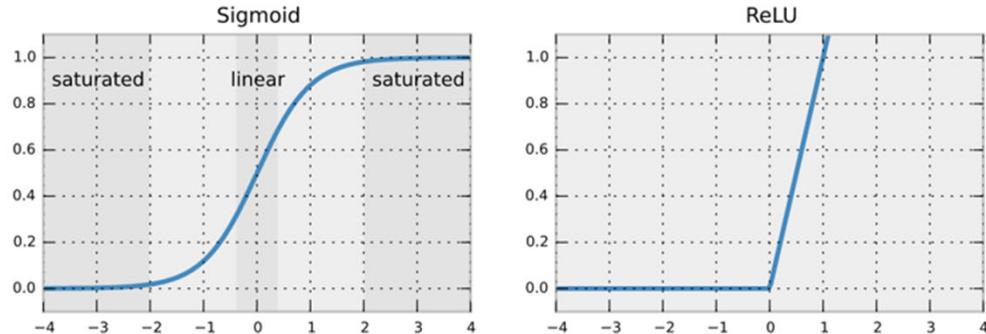
Similar to the standard (non-self) attention from the previous lecture

Transformer



# Recall: batch normalization

"Vanishing gradient" from saturating non-linearities



$$\begin{aligned} z^{(1)} &= W^{(1)}x \\ h^{(1)} &= \sigma(z^{(1)}) \end{aligned}$$

Activation functions saturating (problem amplified by depth)—fixed with *normalizations* (e.g. "batch normalization").

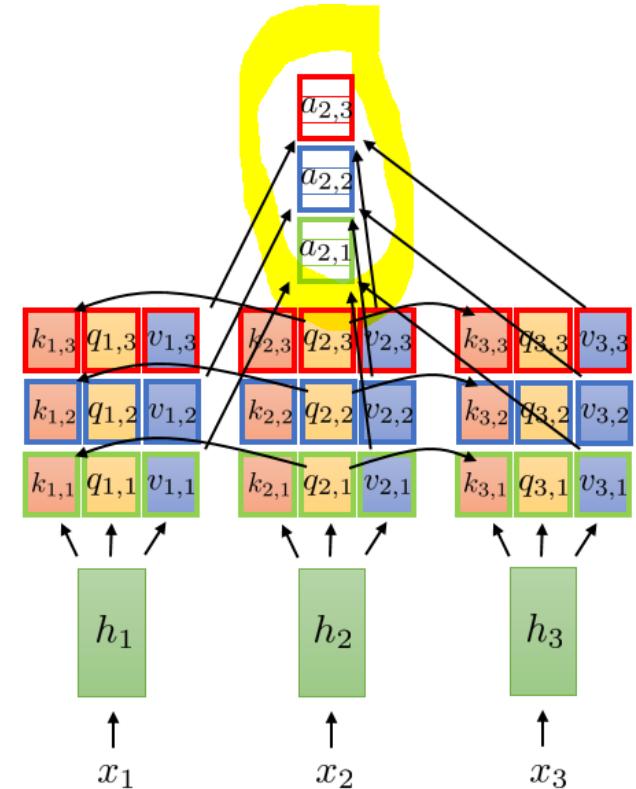
1. Normalize data in the mini-batch
2. Add scale and shift parameters,  $\gamma, \beta$ :

$$\widehat{z^{(1)}} = \frac{z^{(1)} - E[z^{(1)}]}{\sqrt{Var[z^{(1)}]}}$$

$$h^{(1)} = \sigma(\gamma \widehat{z^{(1)}} + \beta)$$

# From batch to layer normalization

- Batch normalization tricky in sequence models:  
long sequences have small batches/poor stats.
- *Layer normalization*: multi-headed attention vectors for one position in a layer are stacked together to form vector  $\mathbf{a}$ , over which mean & std. dev. are computed for one sample.
- Layer normalization is independent of the batch size.



$$\widehat{z^{(1)}} = \frac{z^{(1)} - E[z^{(1)}]}{\sqrt{Var[z^{(1)}]}}$$

$$h^{(1)} = \sigma(\gamma \widehat{z^{(1)}} + \beta)$$

# Transformers pros and cons

Downsides:

- Attention computations are theoretically\*  $O(n^2)$ .
- Somewhat more complex to implement (positional encodings, etc.)

Benefits:

- + Better long-range connections (compared to RNN).
- + \*Much easier to parallelize.
- + In practice, can make it much deeper (more layers) than RNN.

- Benefits often vastly outweigh the downsides.
- Transformers work much better than RNNs in general.
- One of the most important sequence modeling improvements of the past decade.
- Can use just encoder, just decoder.

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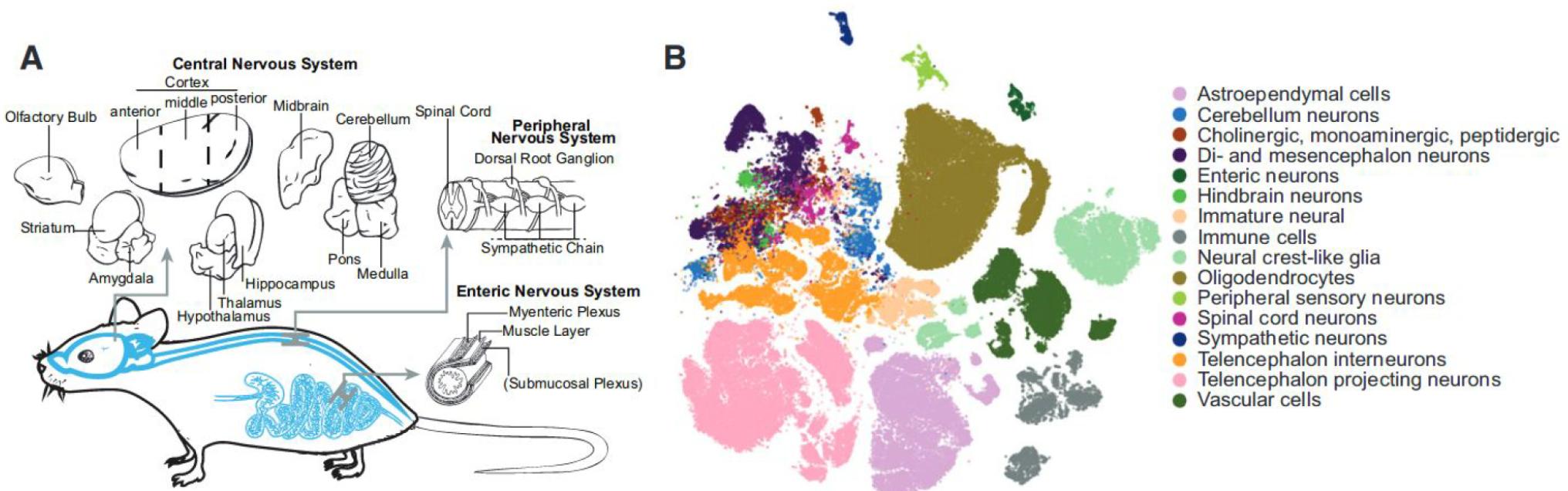
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# Unsupervised learning

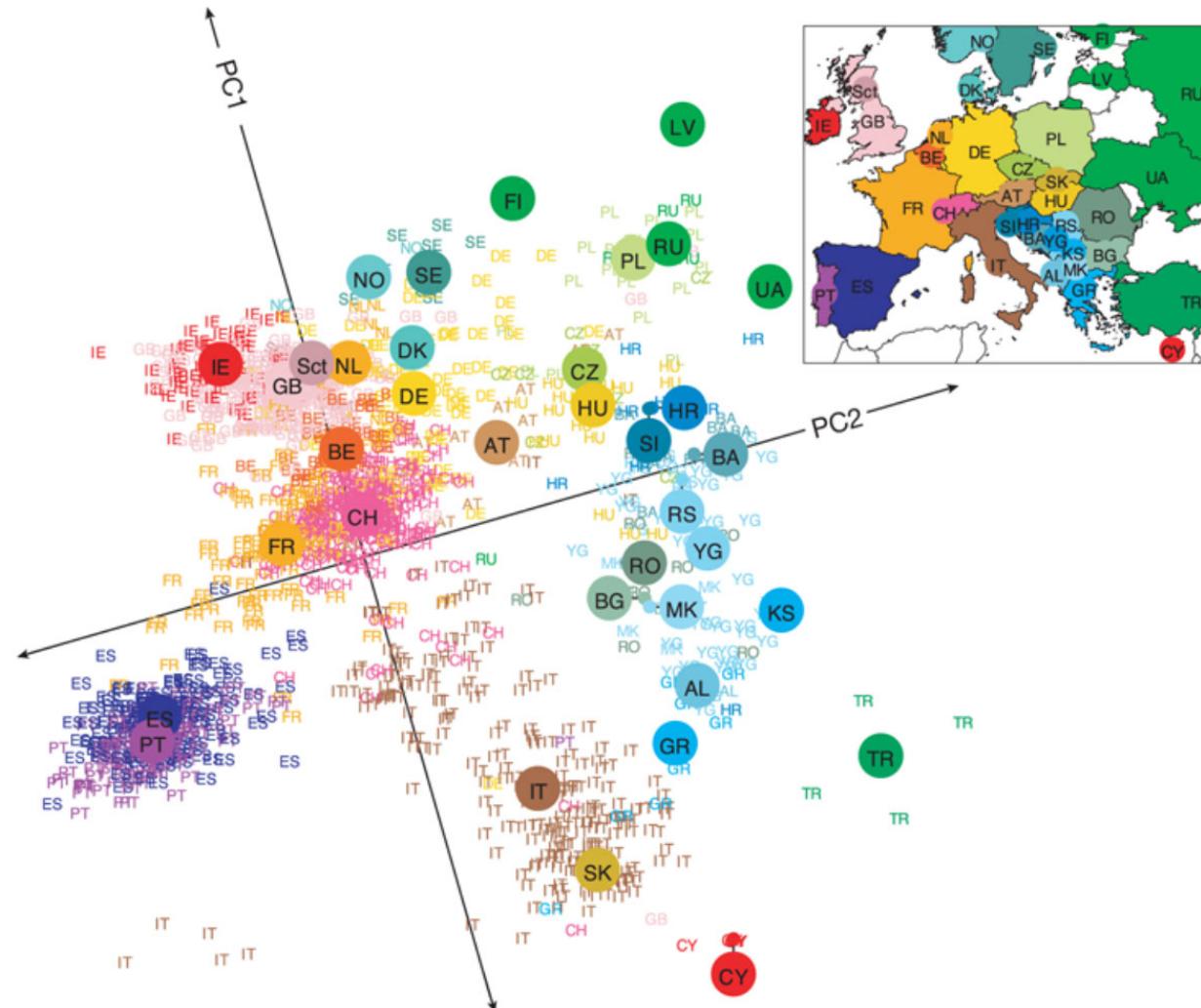
- So far: *supervised learning*,  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  or  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- Often model just  $\{x_i\}$ : *unsupervised learning*, includes:
  - i. *Dimensionality reduction*,  $z \in \mathbb{R}^m = f_\theta(x \in \mathbb{R}^d)$ ,  $m \ll d$ .
  - ii. *Clustering*, for each  $x_i$ , assign cluster label,  $z_i \in \{1,2,3 \dots K\}$
  - iii. *Representation learning*,  $z \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $z = f_\theta(x)$ , or  $z \sim p_\theta(x)$ .
  - iv. *Density estimation*, evaluate  $p_\theta(x)$ .
  - v. "Generative" modeling,  $x \sim p_\theta(x)$

# e.g. of Dimensionality reduction

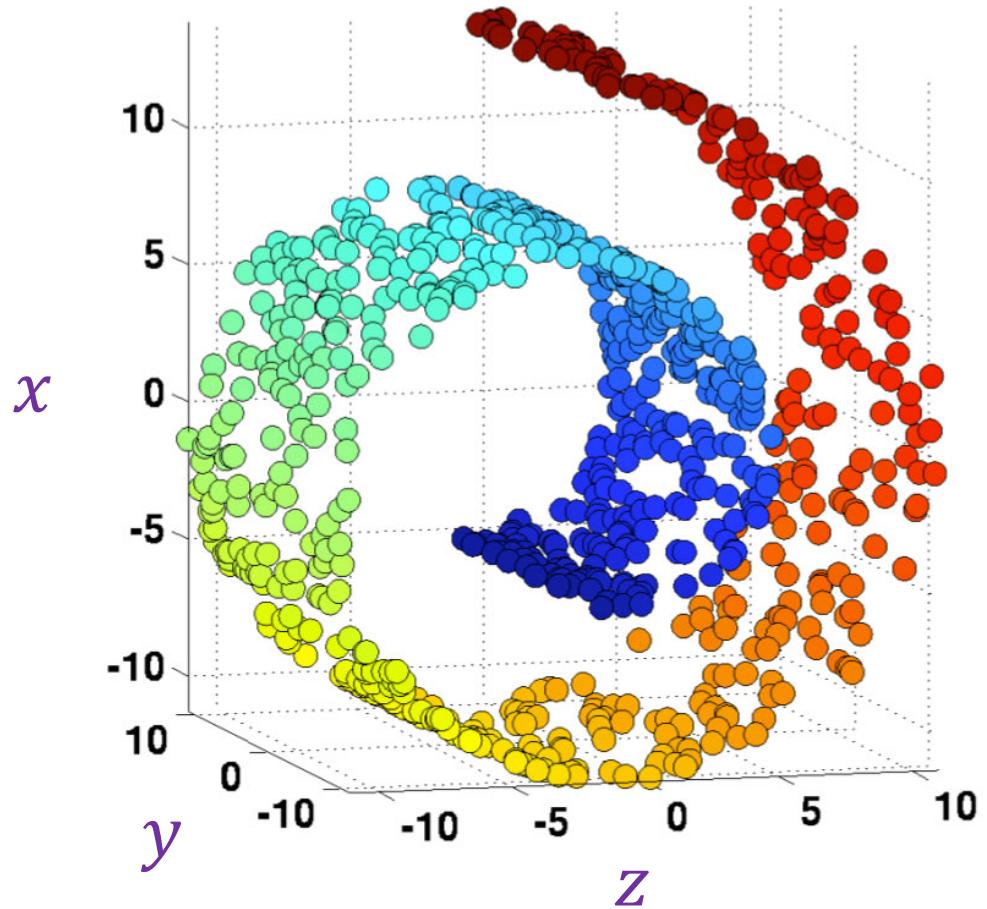
Single-cell transcriptomics (single-cell RNA sequencing): samples are cells, features are genes.



# e.g. of Dimensionality reduction

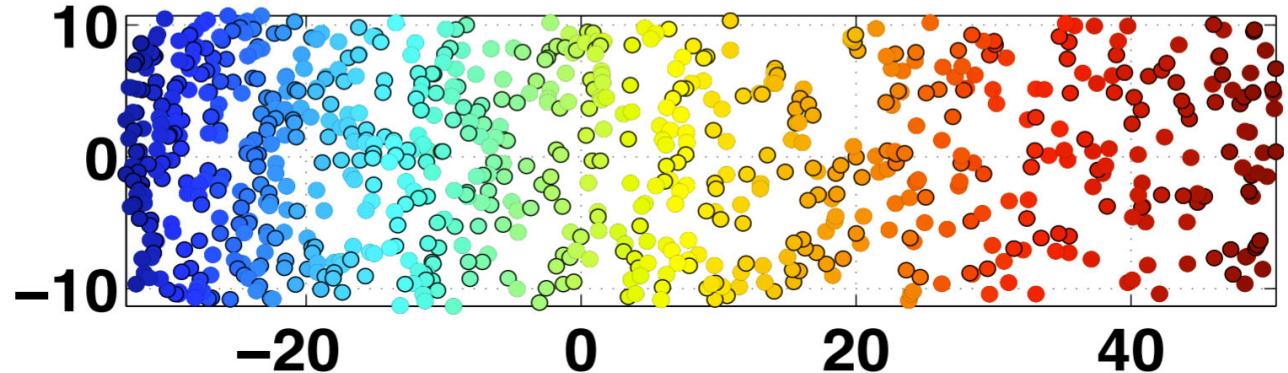


# What dimensionality do these points live in?

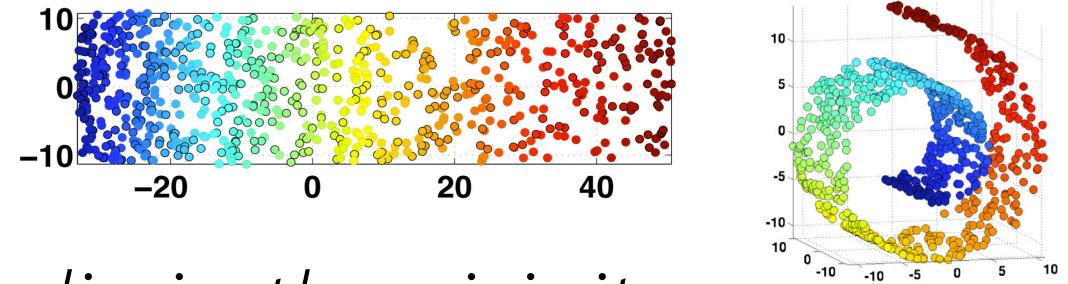


$$x \in \mathbb{R}^3 = [x, y, z].$$

But could uniquely describe each point with just 2 coordinates.



# The “manifold hypothesis”



- *“High dimensional data tend to lie in the vicinity of a low dimensional manifold”* e.g. [Fefferman 2013]
- Manifold: roughly speaking, a space that locally feels like a Euclidean space.
- For us: a manifold is a lower dimensional part of the observation space in which the data tend to lie.
- *“embedding the data in a lower dimensional manifold”, or “an embedding of the data”.*

# What dimensionality do these points live in?



- 5000 faces,  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{32 \times 32=1024}$
- How low a dimension do you think we can go and still “keep” the image?
- Turns out we can go down to  $\sim 100$  from the “ambient” **1024** dimensions!
- Trick: carefully create 100 special “basis” images.
- Principal Components Analysis (PCA) will yield the PC basis vectors.

# What dimensionality do these points live in?



- 5000 faces
  - How low can we go?
  - Turns 1000 dimensions into 1024 “basis” images
  - Trick: consider PCA “basis” images
  - Principal components A) will tell us
- 
- A 5x5 grid of 25 grayscale images. Each image is a small square showing a different face, but they are heavily processed to extract specific facial features like eyes, noses, and mouths. The images are arranged in a single row.

PCA “basis” images,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1024}$

# What dimensionality do these points live in?

original faces,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1024}$

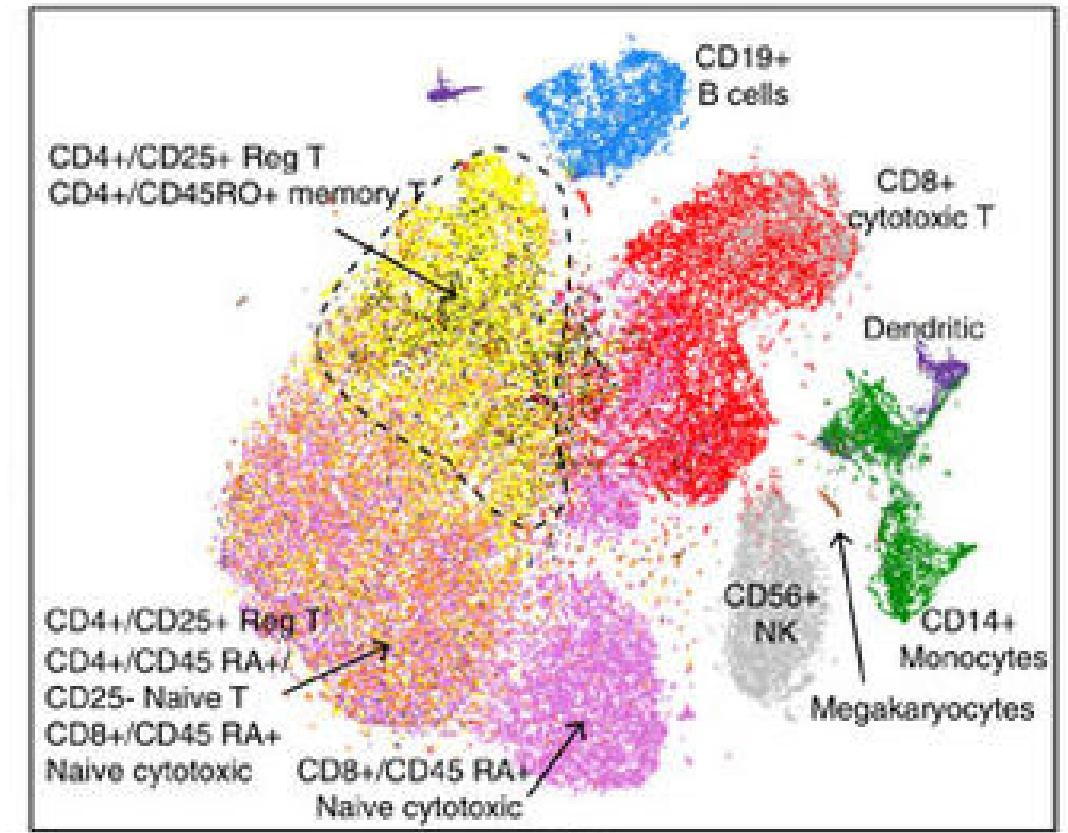


approximate faces,  $x' \in \mathbb{R}^{100}$



# Why might we want to reduce dimensionality?

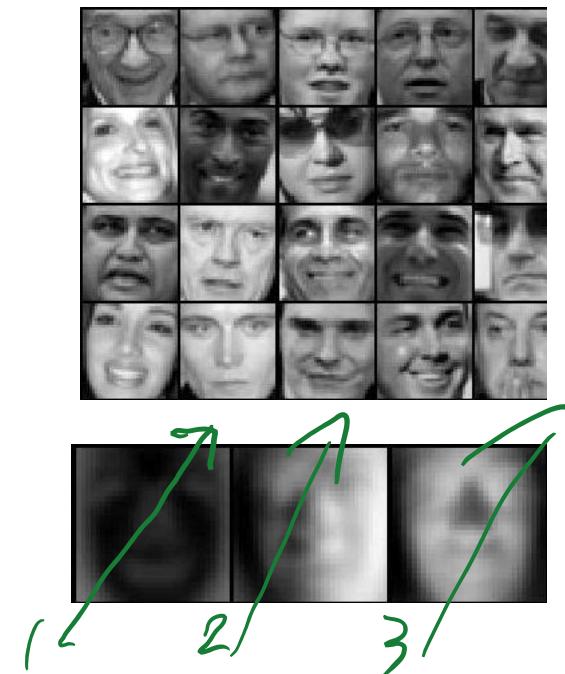
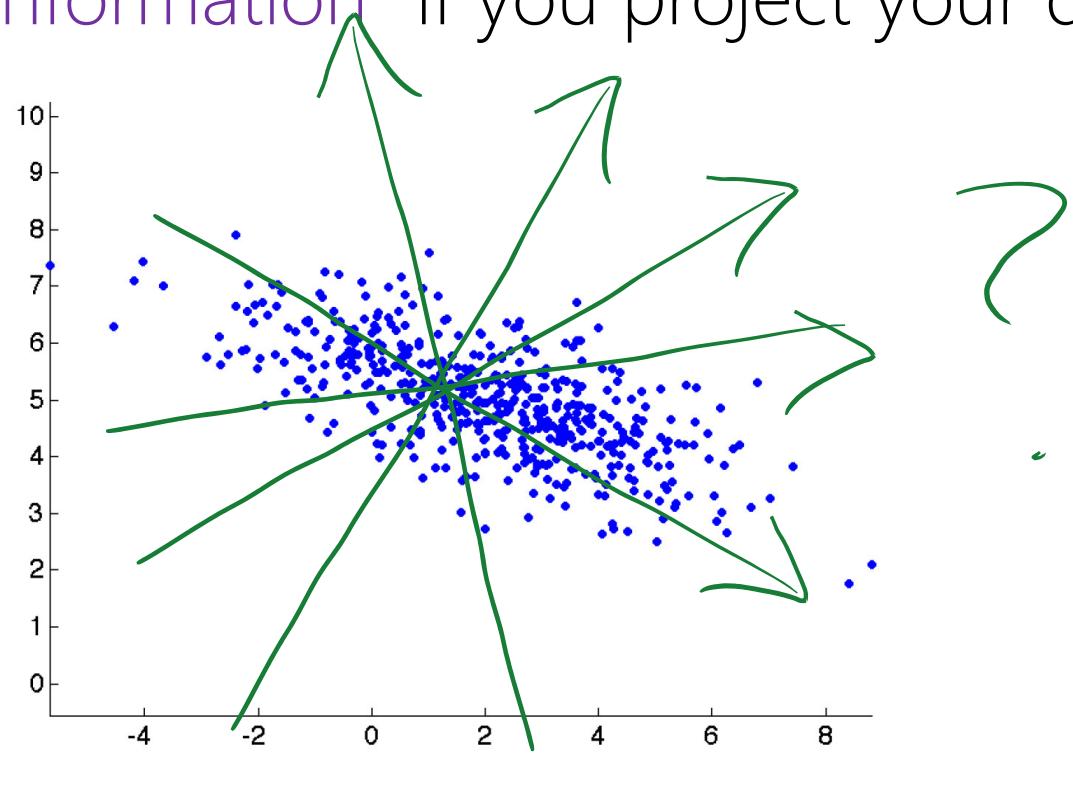
- Visualization, e.g. 2D plots.
- To denoise the data, or remove systematic artifacts (big one in biology).
- To compress the data (e.g. audio, images).
- To speed up supervised learning, or other analyses.



<https://www.nature.com/articles/ncomms14049/figures/3>

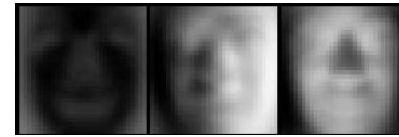
# Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

- Those special faces, “eigenfaces”, are the Principal Component basis vectors that PCA yields:
- Look for the direction in the original space that “retains most of the “information” if you project your data down on to it.

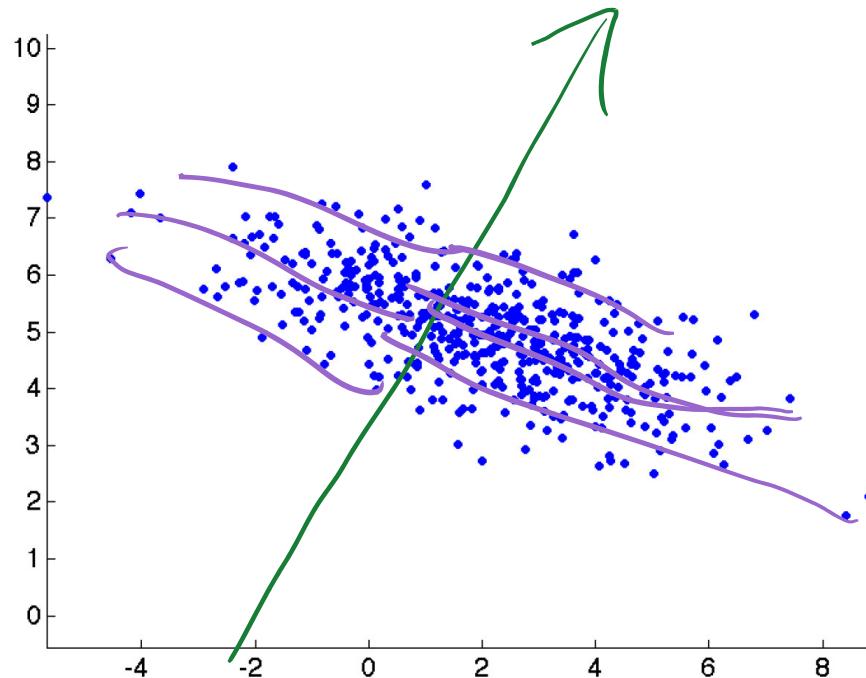


# Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

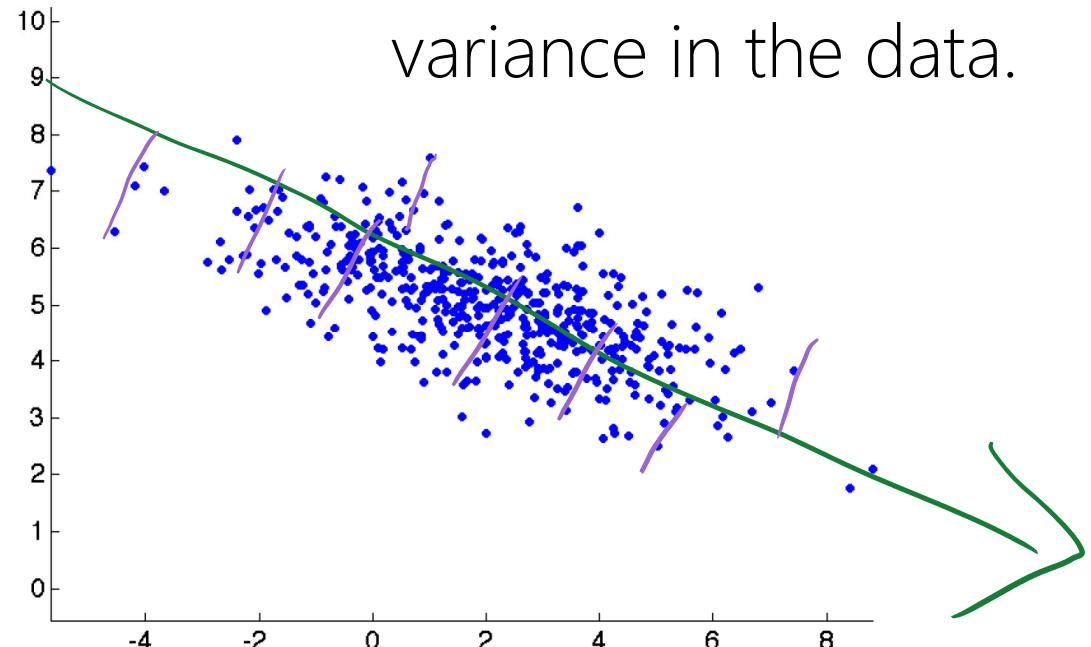
- “eigenfaces” are the PCA basis



- Look for the **direction** in the original space that “retains most of the “**information**” if you project your data down on to it.



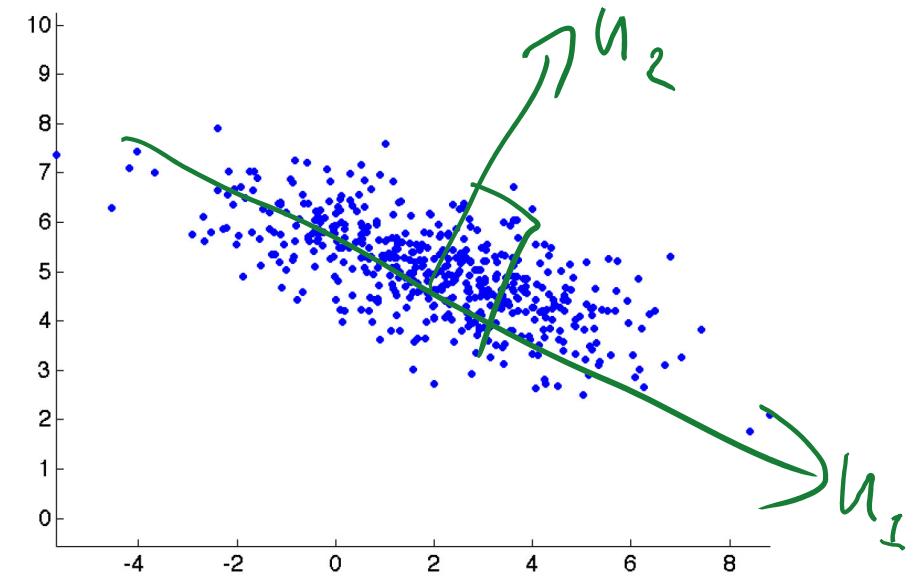
Direction with lowest *reconstruction loss*, is the direction with maximal variance in the data.



# Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

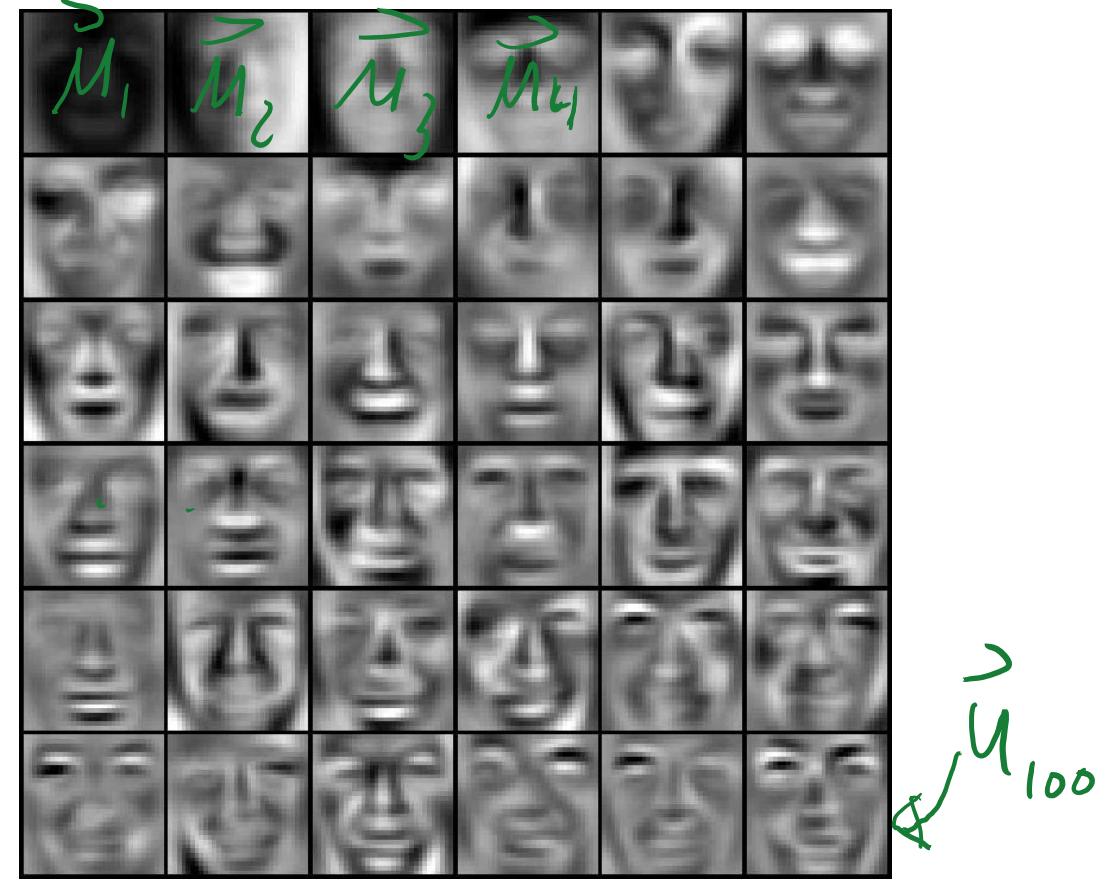
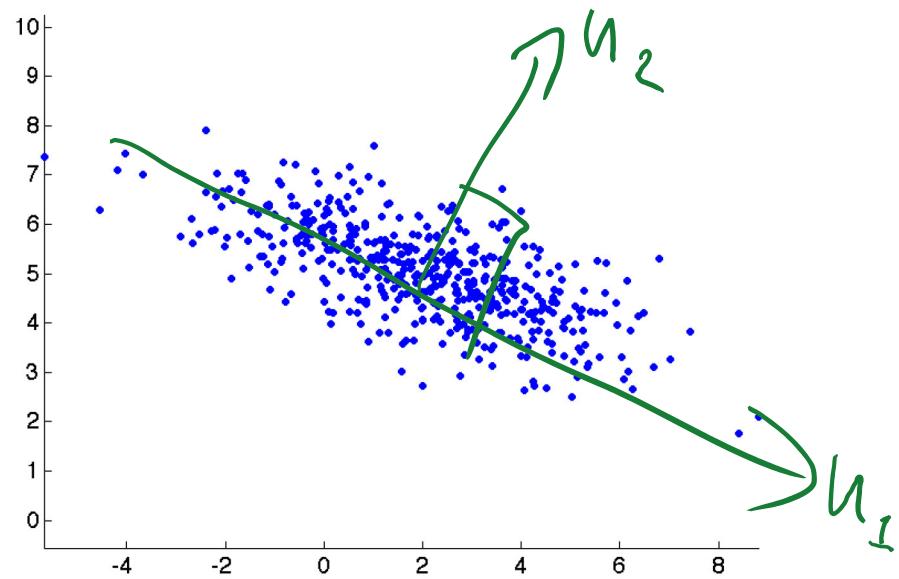
Recursively apply this idea to find 2<sup>nd</sup> best direction, then 3<sup>rd</sup> best:

- 2<sup>nd</sup> direction should be orthogonal to the first... and...
- ... be direction of most variance subject to that constraint.
- What's the maximum number of such directions we can find?



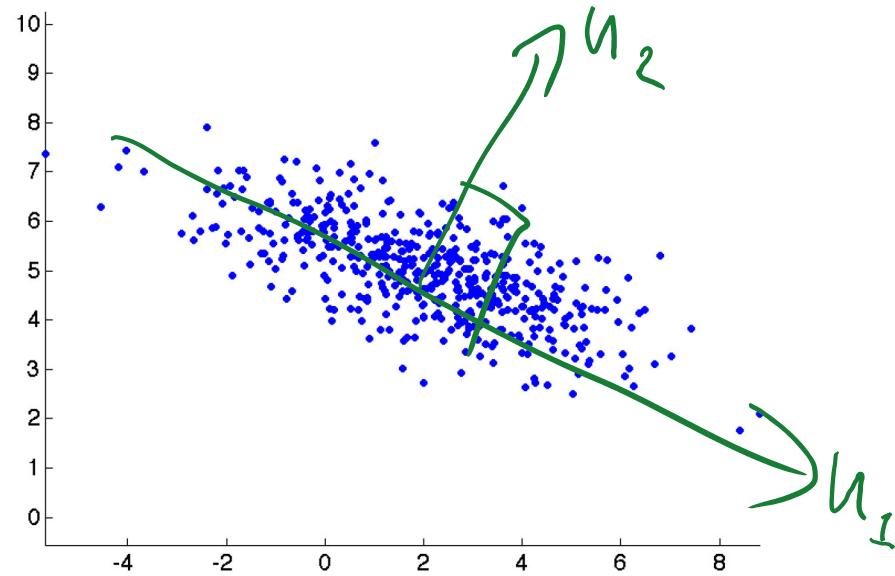
# Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

- Each of the 100 eigenfaces was one of these special directions in the original 1024-dimensional image space.



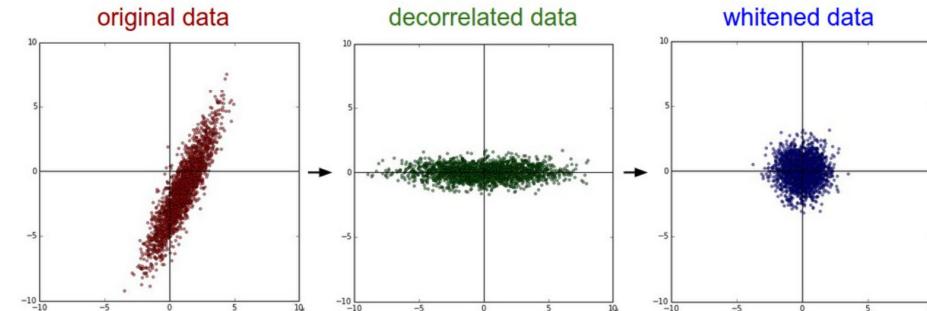
# Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

Is this starting to remind you of anything?



## Diagonalizing a MVG ("spherizing")

- To sphere a MVG is to make all its contour lines be spheres (also called "whitening").
- Thus we need to make the ellipses look like spheres.
- To do this, we need to understand how to diagonalize a matrix.



Can be derived with MLE for params  $\mu, W$ , assuming  $p(x \in \mathbb{R}^d) = N(\mu + xW; I\sigma^2)$ , for  $\sigma^2 \rightarrow 0$  and  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ .

# Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

Recall: to diagonalize a MVG distribution, we made use of a special factorization of its covariance matrix,  $A = QDQ^T$ , an "eigen" or "spectral"-decomposition:

## Linear Algebra: Diagonalizing a matrix

Spectral theorem:

When  $A$  is symmetric  $A = A^T$

$A = QDQ^T$  with real eigenvalues in  $D$

and orthonormal vectors in  $S = Q$

$Q$  is an orthonormal matrix

$[q_1 \ q_2 \dots \ q_n]$

each is  
of length 1

any two  
are orthogonal

true for col and row

$$\downarrow$$

$$Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

(rotations & reflections)

$$A = QDQ^{-1}$$

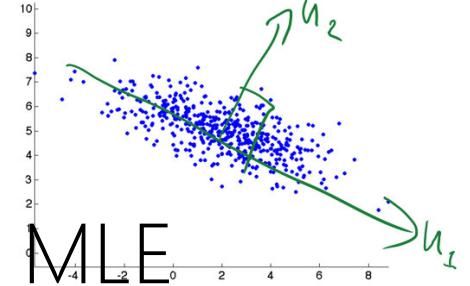
Can use this to do PCA.

(Even if data are not Gaussian).

# PCA overview

Intuitively: pretend our data are Gaussian; compute the MLE “covariance matrix”; and pick off the directions with the top  $k$  eigenvalues (all  $\lambda_i \geq 0$  because covariance is PSD).

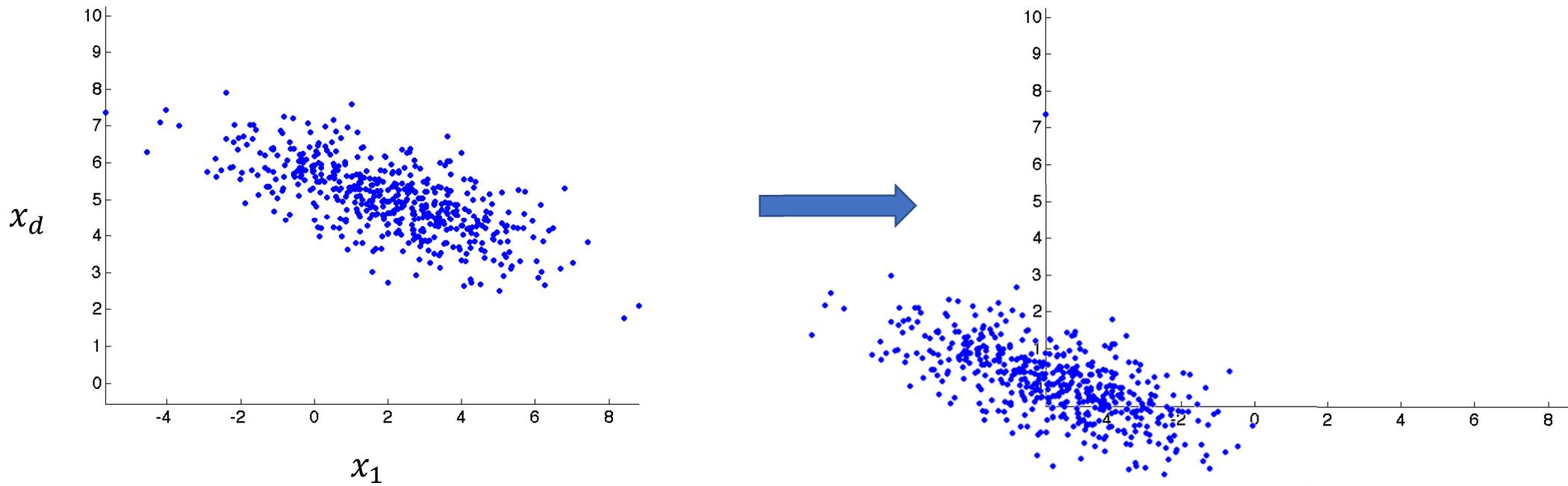
- Given data matrix,  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ .
- Construct,  $X^T X \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  (after mean-centering each feature).
- Apply spectral theorem,  $X^T X = Q D Q^T$  to pick off  $k$  directions.
- Now approximate this covariance matrix with the “best” low rank approximation to it (rank  $k$ ).
- Best: lowest “reconstruction loss”, and highest variance directions.



# PCA step-by-step

Given  $n$  data points of dimension  $d$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ , to perform PCA, we:

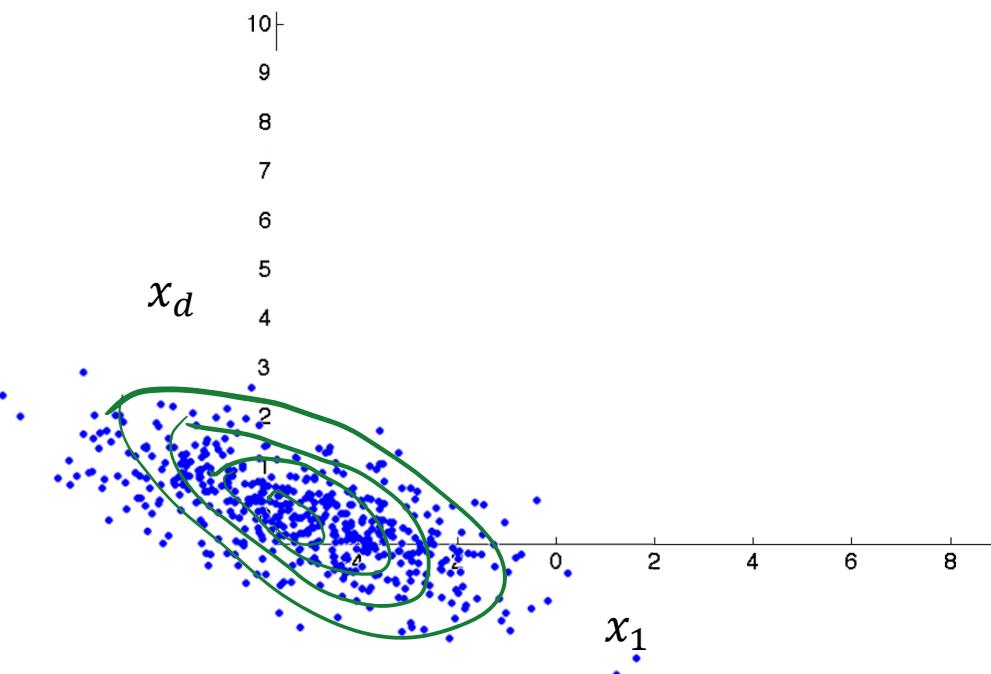
1. Center the data (make each feature zero mean),  $\bar{X} = X - [\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_d]$ . (We will continue on only with the matrix  $\bar{X}$ ).



# PCA step-by-step

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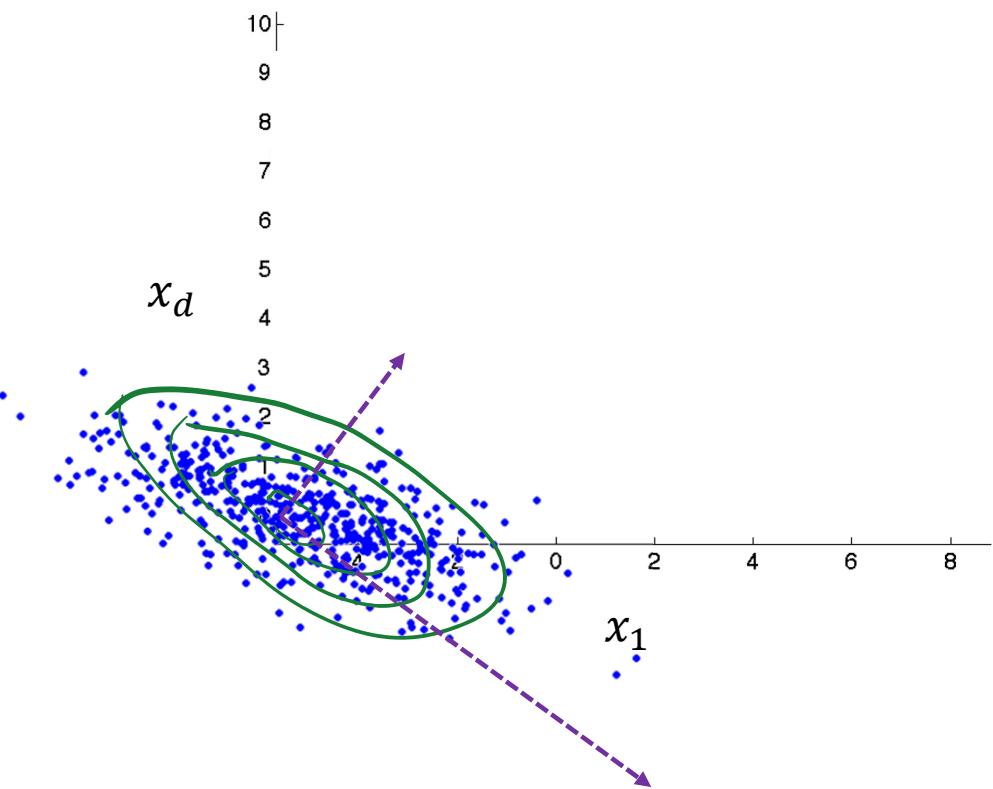
2. Compute the covariance matrix,  $\Sigma = \bar{X}^T \bar{X}$ .



# PCA step-by-step

Given  $n$  data points of dimension  $d$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ , to perform PCA, we:

2. Compute the covariance matrix,  $\Sigma = \bar{X}^T \bar{X}$ .
3. Compute  $\bar{X}^T \bar{X} = Q D Q^T$  to get eigenvectors (aka *principal directions*).

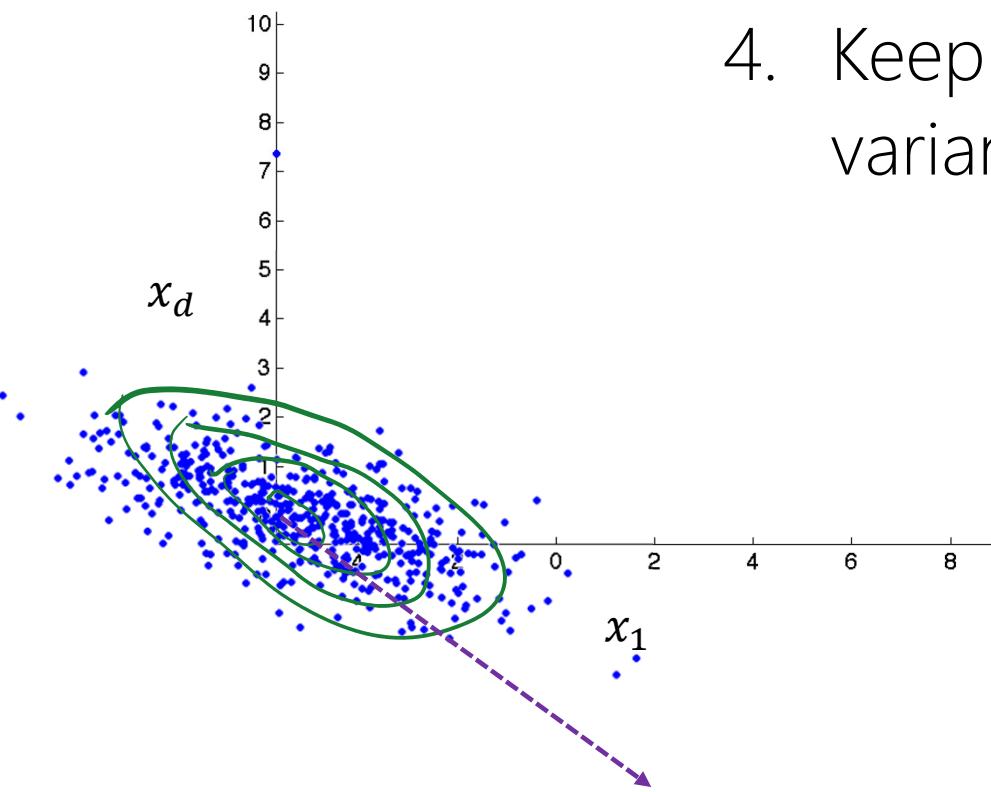


- This decomposition is typically implemented with a call to "eig" function (linalg package in python), but can also be obtained from "svd".
- Are the same for PSD matrices, but svd may be more stable.

# PCA step-by-step

Given  $n$  data points of dimension  $d$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ , to perform PCA, we:

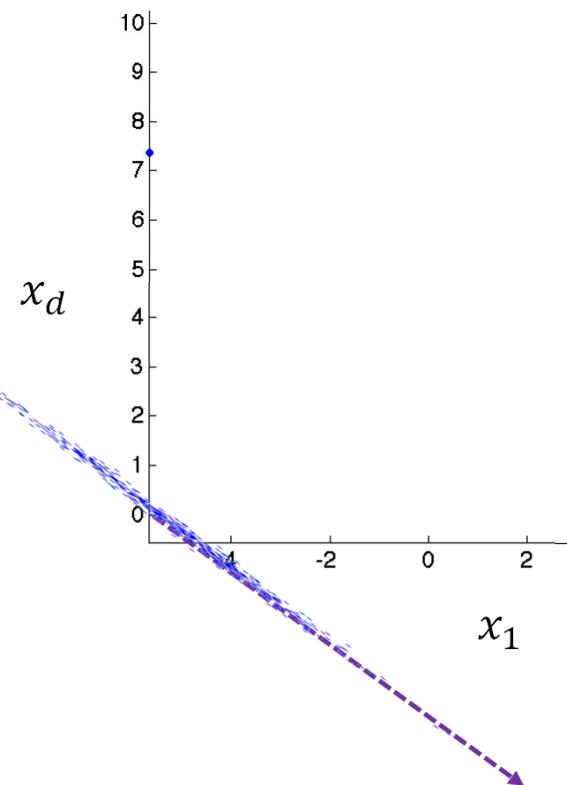
2. Compute the covariance matrix,  $\Sigma = \bar{X}^T \bar{X}$ .
3. Compute  $\bar{X}^T \bar{X} = Q D Q^T$  to get eigenvectors (aka *principal component axes*).
4. Keep the  $k$  eigenvectors,  $Q_k \equiv Q_{:,1:k}$ , with the most variance (highest eigenvalues in  $D$ ).



# PCA step-by-step

Given  $n$  data points of dimension  $d$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ , to perform PCA, we:

2. Compute the covariance matrix,  $\Sigma = \bar{X}^T \bar{X}$ .
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4.
  4. Keep the  $k$  eigenvectors,  $Q_k \equiv Q_{:,1:k}$ , with the most variance (highest eigenvalues in  $D$ ).
  5. Project your points (original, or new ones) down to this subspace,  $\bar{X}_k = \bar{X} Q_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ , these are your *principal components scores*.

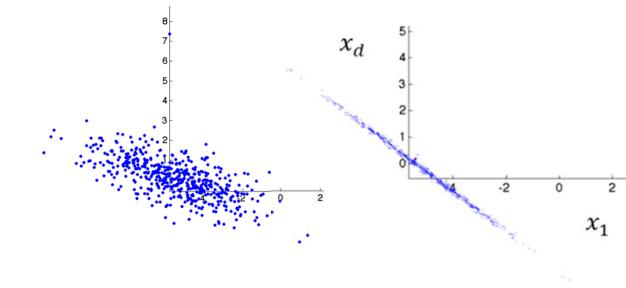


Final, dimensionality-reduced data is.

# PCA step-by-step

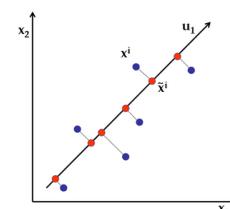
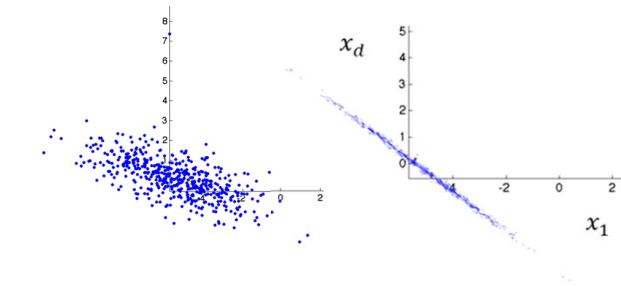
- Final, dimensionality-reduced data is  $\bar{X}_k = \bar{X}Q_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ .
- What if we wanted our data in the original dimension ( $d$ ), but with only the information retained from our PCA- $k$  analysis? (e.g. reconstructed faces)
- We need to “reconstruct” the original points. We can do this by [expanding back from PCA basis to original basis](#), but with only the first  $k$  PCA basis vectors,  $\bar{X}_{recon-k} = \bar{X}_k Q_k^T = \bar{X}Q_k Q_k^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$

$$\begin{matrix} n \times k & k \times d \\ \text{---} & \text{---} \\ d \times d & \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} d \times k \\ \text{---} \\ \text{rank } k \times d \end{matrix}$$



# PCA step-by-step

- Final, dimensionality-reduced data is  $\bar{X}_k = \bar{X}Q_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ .
- What if we wanted our data in the original dimension ( $d$ ), but with only the information retained from our PCA- $k$  analysis? (e.g. reconstructed faces)
- We need to “reconstruct” the original points. We can do this by [expanding back from PCA basis to original basis](#), but with only the first  $k$  PCA basis vectors,  $\bar{X}_{recon-k} = \bar{X}_k Q_k^T = \bar{X}Q_k Q_k^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$
- Now we talk about the “reconstruction loss”, as the difference between original and reconstructed data,  $\|\bar{X}_{recon-k} - \bar{X}\|_F$ .
- The larger the reconstruction loss, the more information we have lost.



and Frobenius norm as

$$\|X\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{ij} X_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(X^\top X)} = \sqrt{\sum s_i^2},$$

where  $s_i$  are singular values of  $X$ , i.e. diagonal

# Original, and reconstructed faces

original faces,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1024}$

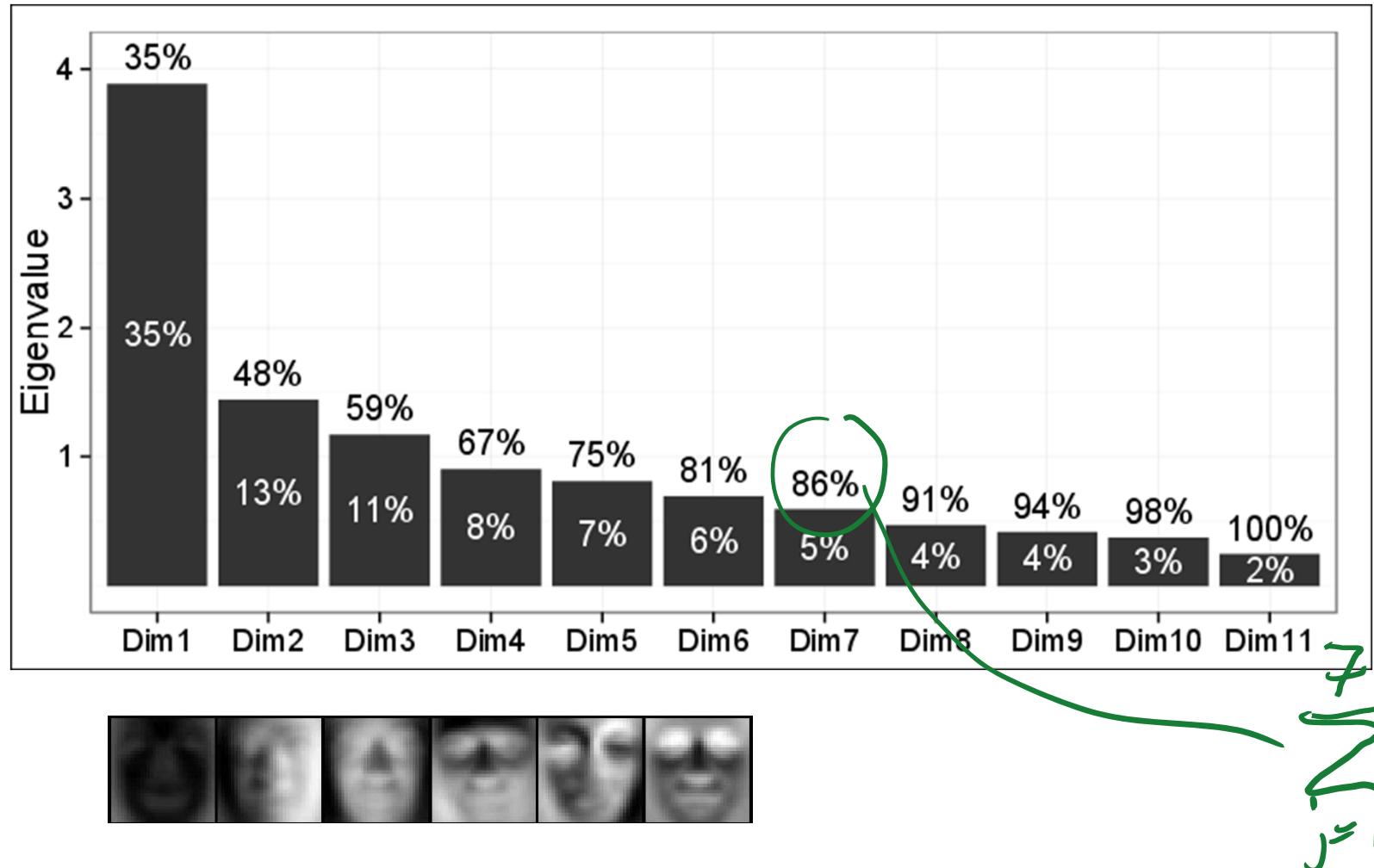


reconstructed faces

$$x' \in \mathbb{R}^{100} \rightarrow x_k \in \mathbb{R}^{1024}$$



# PCA: % variance explained to help pick hyper-parameter, $k$



$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Q}^T$$

If you normalize the eigenvalues in  $\mathbf{D}$  by their sum, then they correspond to % variance explained.

$$V_i \equiv \frac{D_{i,i}}{\sum D_{j,j}}$$

$$V_j \quad j=1$$

# PCA: reconstruction loss and % variance

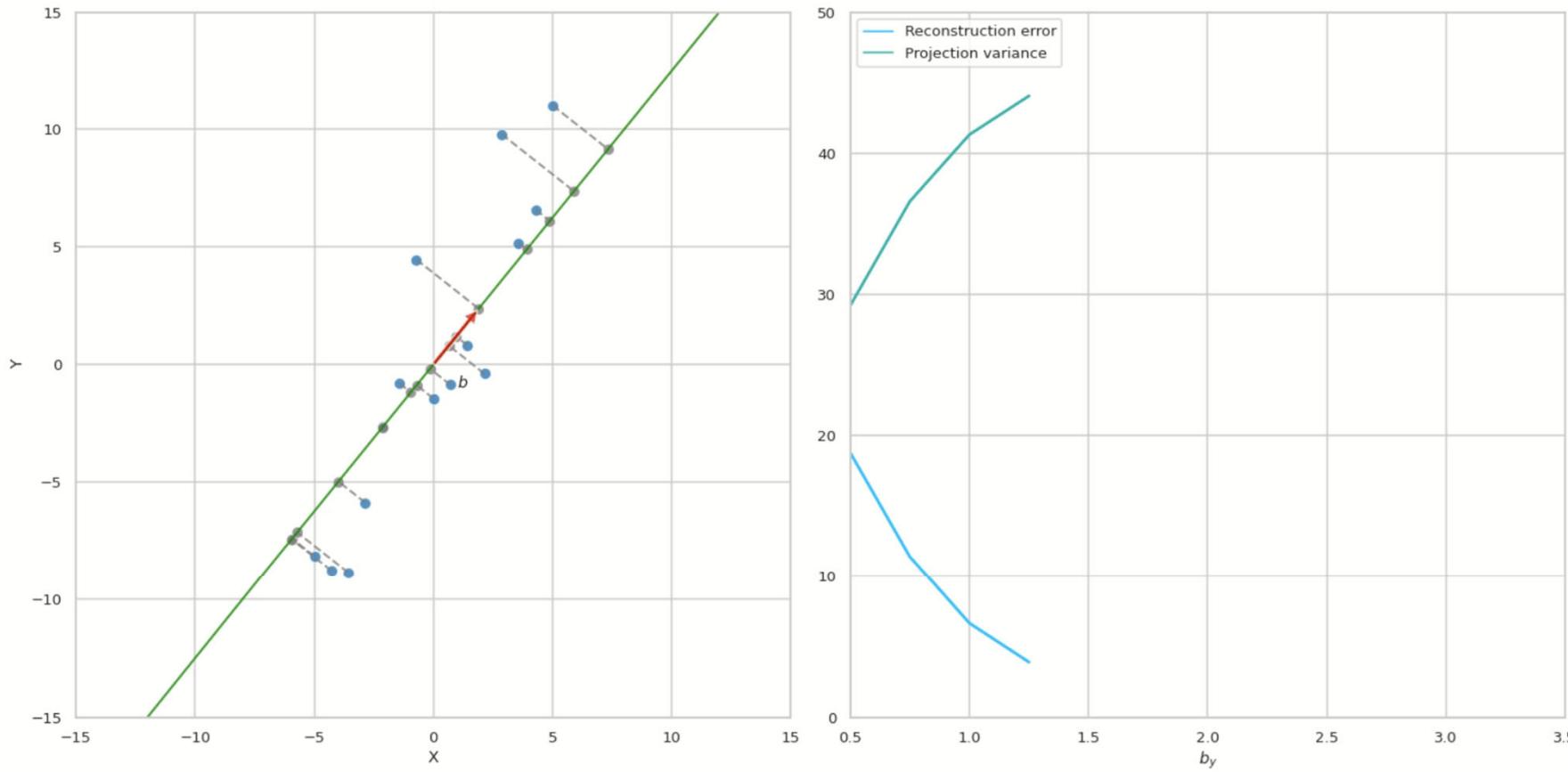
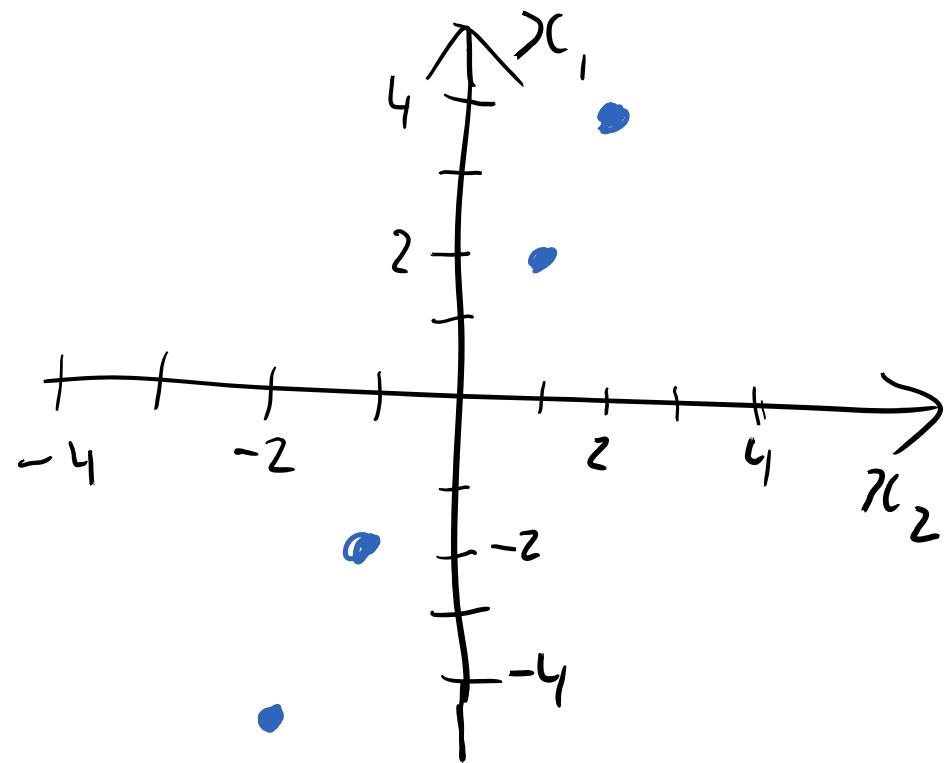


Fig.5. We rotate basis vector  $b$  and project data on corresponding subspace, then calculate reconstruction error  $L$  and projection variance  $\text{Var}(\lambda)$ .

# Example of PCA

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad n=4 \quad d=2$$

$x_1 \quad x_2$



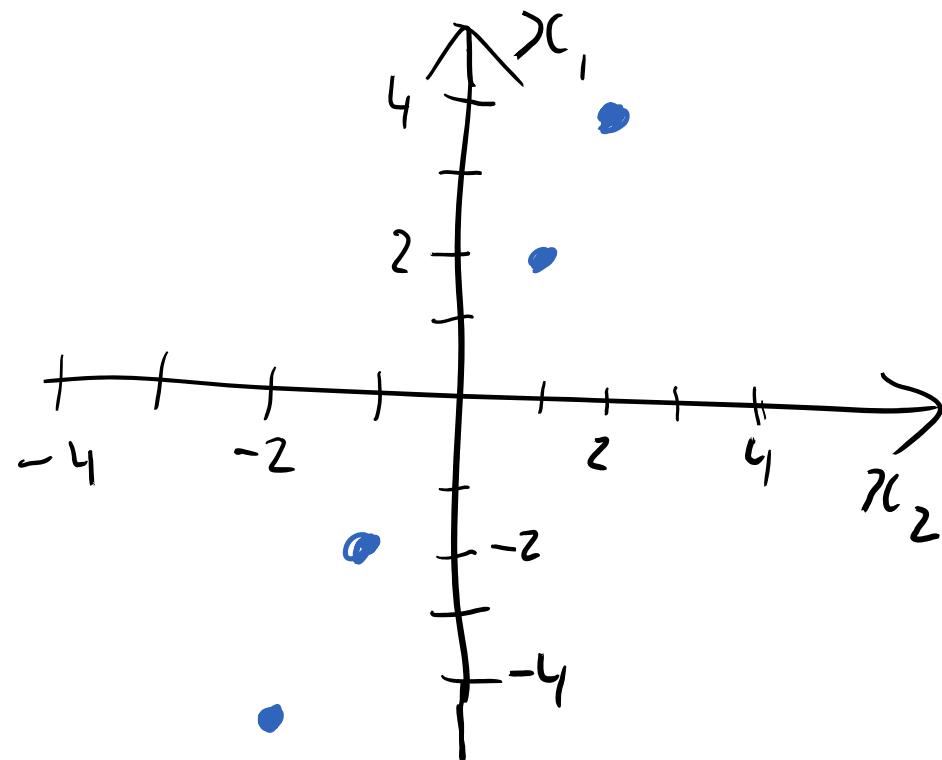
# Example of PCA

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad n=4 \quad d=2$$

$x_1 \quad x_2$

mean  
of  
each  
dimension

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{X} = X$$

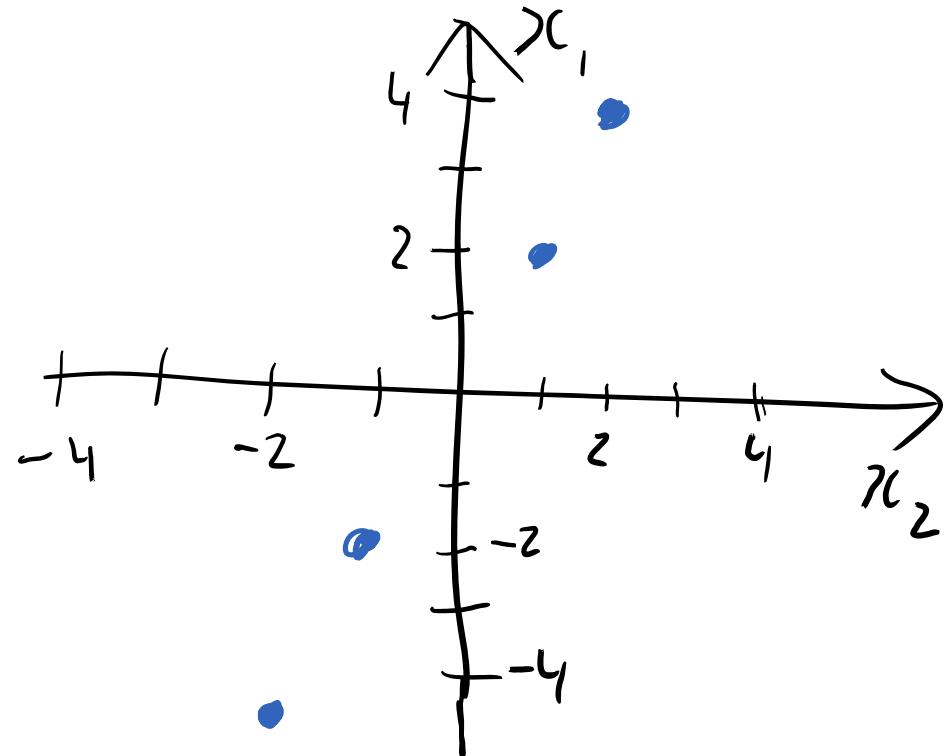


# Example of PCA

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad d=2 \quad n=4$$

$x_1 \quad x_2$

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & -2 \\ 2 & 4 & -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 \\ 20 & 40 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Example of PCA

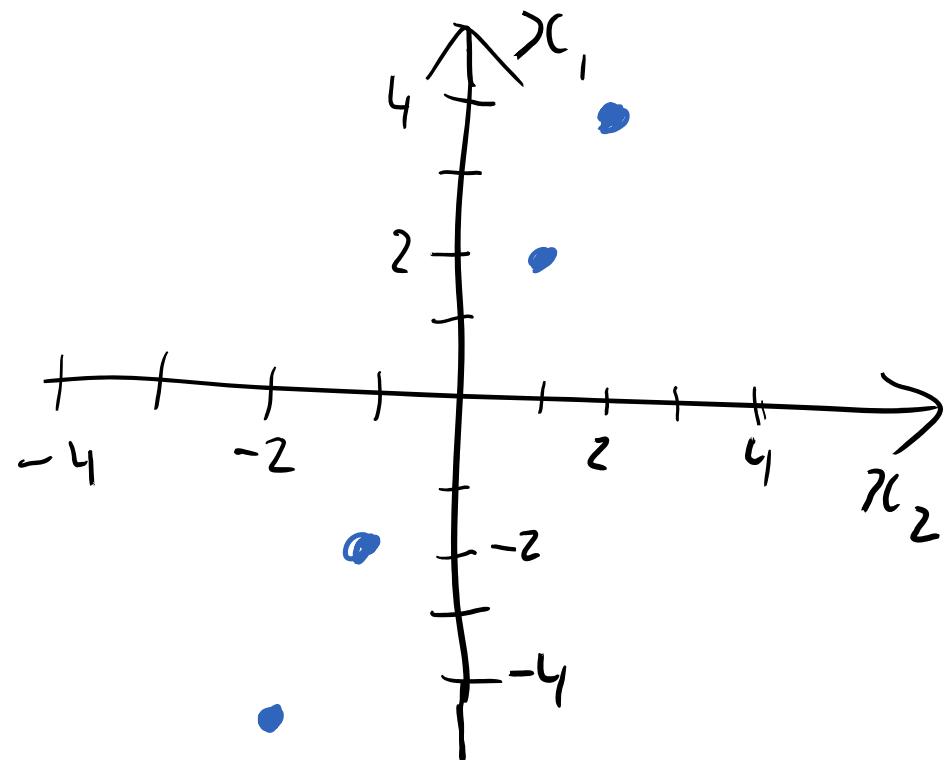
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$n \times d$

$x_1 \quad x_2$

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 \\ 20 & 40 \end{bmatrix}$$

$d \times d$



# Example of PCA

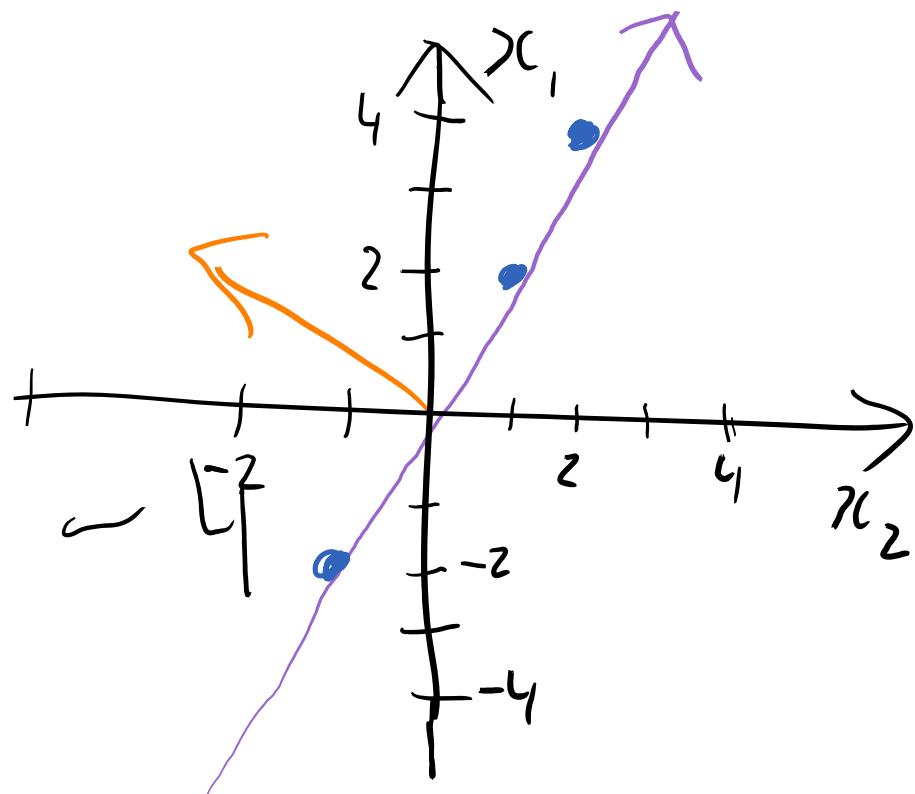
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{linalg.eig}(X^T X)$$

$n \times d$

$x_1 \quad x_2$

$\Rightarrow$  eigenvalues [50] [0]

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 \\ 20 & 40 \end{bmatrix} \quad d \times d$$



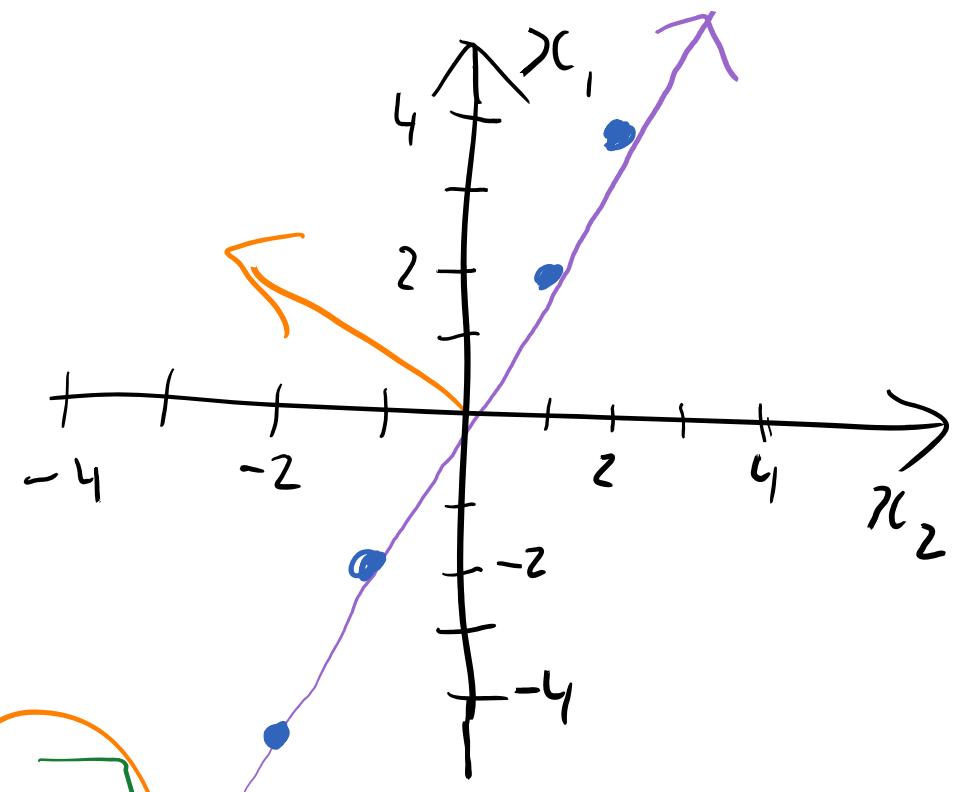
# Example of PCA

$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$   $\text{linalg.eig}(X^T X)$   
 $n \times d$   $\Rightarrow$  eigenvalues [50] (purple) [0] (orange)  
\$x\_1\$ \$x\_2\$  
& eigen vectors

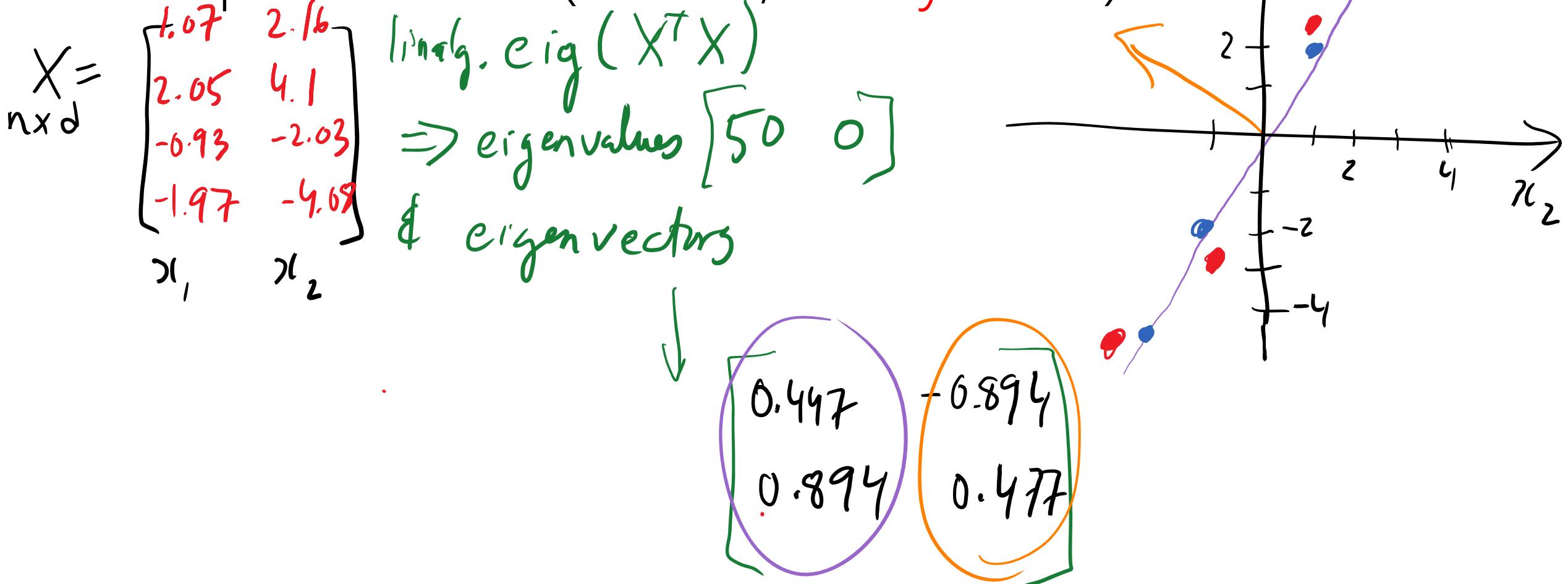
$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 \\ 20 & 40 \end{bmatrix}$

↓

0.447	-0.894
0.894	0.477



# Example of PCA (take 2, noisy data)



# Example of PCA (take 2, noisy data)

$X =$   
 $n \times d$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.07 & 2.16 \\ 2.05 & 4.1 \\ -0.93 & -2.03 \\ -1.97 & -4.69 \end{bmatrix}$$

$x_1 \quad x_2$

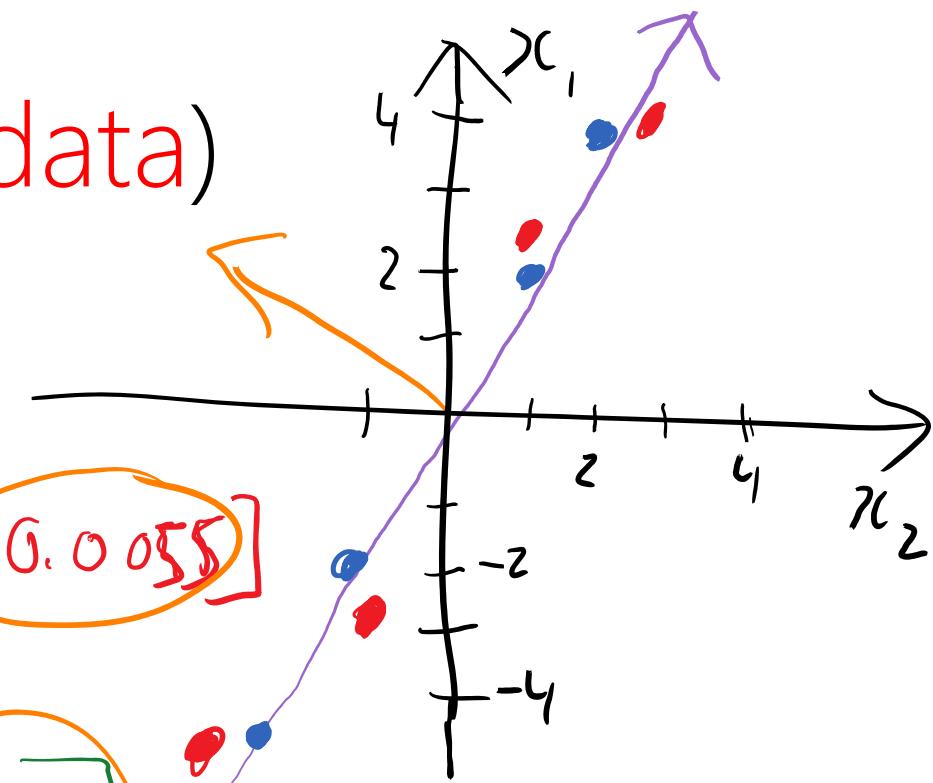
linalg.eig( $X^T X$ )

$\Rightarrow$  eigenvalues  $[50 \quad 0]$   
\$ \& \$ eigen vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 52.34 \\ 0.0055 \end{bmatrix}$

$\downarrow$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.439 \\ 0.898 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -0.898 \\ 0.439 \end{bmatrix}$$

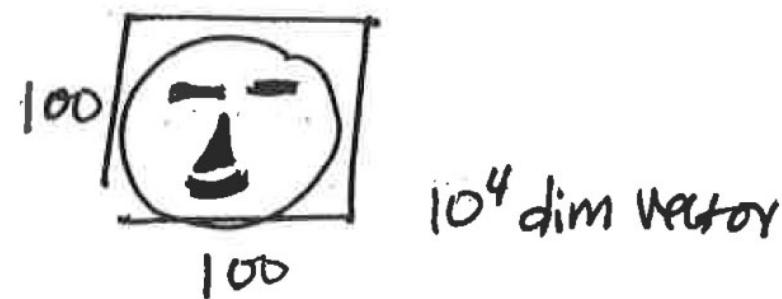
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.447 \\ 0.894 \\ -6.894 \\ 0.477 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Linear algebra for PCA

$$\bar{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$$

- Need to compute the principal axes,  $Q$ , of  $\bar{X}^T \bar{X} = Q D Q^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ .
- This is an *eigendecomposition* of the matrix  $\bar{X}^T \bar{X}$ .
- Computing its eigendecomposition has time complexity  $O(d^3)$ .
- What if  $d \gg n$ ? e.g., images of  $d = 100 \times 100 = 10^4$  pixels, and  $n = 1,000$  images.
- Could we do something cheaper?
- Yes. Need to understand the SVD.



$$\bar{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$$

# Linear algebra for PCA

Recall the spectral theorem (principal axis theorem) from MVG lecture, which gives a *spectral (eigen) decomposition*:

When  $A$  is symmetric  $A = A^T$

$A = Q D Q^T$  with real eigenvalues in  $D$  and orthonormal vectors in  $S = Q$

$Q$  is an orthonormal matrix  $[q_1 \ q_2 \dots \ q_n]$

$\Downarrow$

$Q^{-1} = Q^T$   
(rotations & reflections)

each is of length 1  
any two are orthogonal  
true for col and row

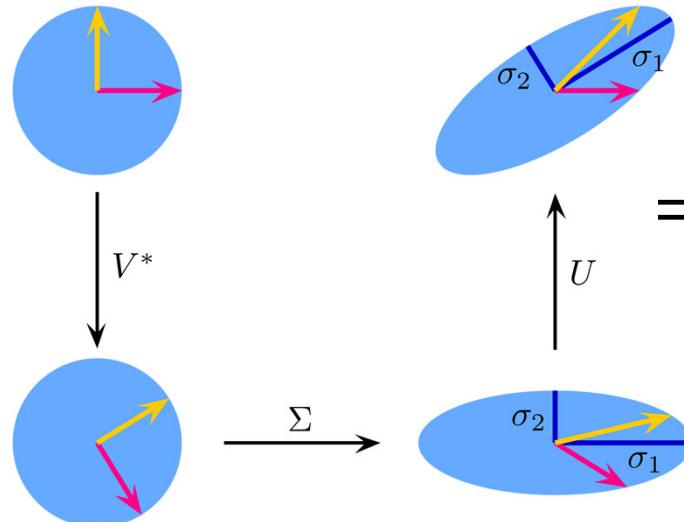
$A = Q D Q^{-1}$

- The covariance matrix for PCA,  $\bar{X}^T \bar{X}$ , is symmetric (and PSD).
- It turns out, there is a generalization of the spectral decomposition, for non-symmetric and non-square matrices, the SVD that will be helpful.

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Can think of  $M$  as linear transformation broken down into three steps, by looking at its effect on the unit disc and the two canonical unit vectors  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ :

1. **Left:**  $V^T$  rotates the disc and unit vectors.
2. **Bottom:**  $\Sigma$  stretches scales axes by  $\sigma_i = \Sigma_{i,i}$  (singular values).
3. **Right:**  $U$  performs another rotation.



$$M = U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^*$$

Can be applied to any matrix  $M$ .

$$\begin{matrix} \text{Matrix } M \\ m \times n \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} \text{Orthogonal Matrix } U \\ m \times m \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{Diagonal Matrix } \Sigma \\ m \times n \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{Orthogonal Matrix } V^* \\ n \times n \end{matrix}$$

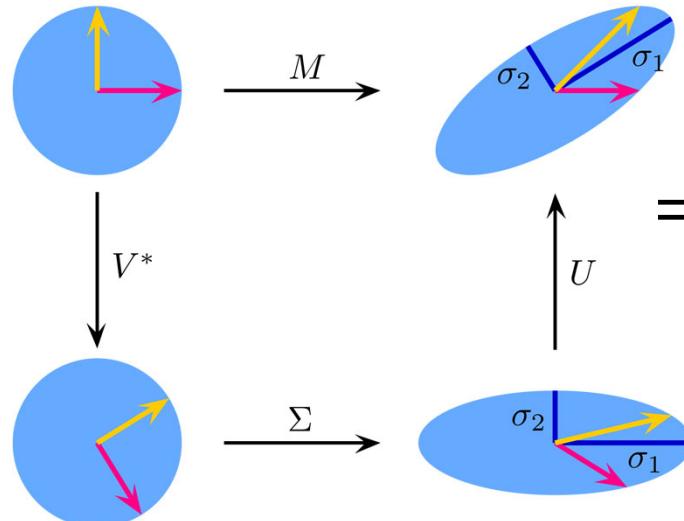
$$\begin{aligned} Mv_1 &= \Sigma_{1,1}u_1 \\ Mv_2 &= \Sigma_{2,2}u_2 \\ &\dots \\ Mv_r &= \Sigma_{r,r}u_r \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \text{rank}(M) \\ &\leq \min(m, n) \end{aligned}$$

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

Can think of  $M$  as linear transformation broken down into three steps, by looking at its effect on the unit disc and the two canonical unit vectors  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ :

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3. **Right:**  $U$  performs another rotation.



$$M = U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^*$$

Can be applied to any matrix  $M$ .

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \text{M} & = & \mathbf{U} & \Sigma & \mathbf{V}^* \\ m \times n & & m \times m & m \times n & n \times n \\ \hline \mathbf{U} & & \mathbf{U}^* & = & \mathbf{I}_m \\ \hline \mathbf{V} & & \mathbf{V}^* & = & \mathbf{I}_n \end{array}$$

- Has time complexity  $O(m^2n + mn^2)$ .
- $\Sigma$  is unique (if in descending order), but  $V$  and  $U$  are generally not: e.g. sign flips.
- (Eigendecomposition is unique if all eigenvalues are unique)
- If  $M$  is square+symmetric, yields the spectral decomposition.

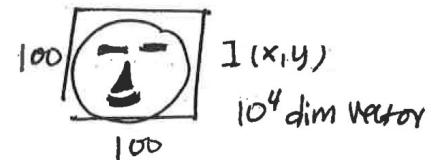
# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- Columns in  $\mathbf{U}$  are the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T$ , called the *left singular vectors* of  $\mathbf{M}$  ( $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T = \mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V}\Sigma^T\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}\Sigma^2\mathbf{U}^T$ ). Can be applied to any matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .
- Columns in  $\mathbf{V}$  are the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}$ , called the *right singular vectors* of  $\mathbf{M}$  ( $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{V}\Sigma^T\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}\Sigma^2\mathbf{V}^T$ ).
- Both spectral decompositions at once!
- Eigenvalues are the same, given by  $\lambda_i = \Sigma_{i,i}^2$  ( $\Sigma_i$ ,  $i$  are the *singular values* of  $\mathbf{M}$ ):
  - Since  $v_i$  is an eigenvector for  $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}v_i = \lambda_i v_i$ . It follows that...
  - .... $(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T)\mathbf{M}v_i = \lambda_i(\mathbf{M}v_i)$  thus  $\mathbf{M}v_i$  is an eigenvector for  $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ !

$$\mathbf{M}_{m \times n} = \mathbf{U}_{m \times m} \Sigma_{m \times n} \mathbf{V}^*_{n \times n}$$
$$\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^* = \mathbf{I}_m$$
$$\mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^* = \mathbf{I}_n$$

$$X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$$

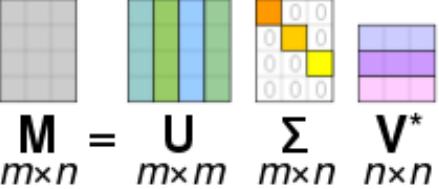
# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)



- Recall this example with  $d \gg n$ , e.g.  $d = 10^4$  pixels,  $n = 1000$  images.
- How can we make use of what we just learned to do PCA faster than the eigendecomposition  $O(d^3)$ ?
- Instead of spectral decomposition of  $X^T X$ ...
- ...directly use SVD of the data matrix:  $SVD(X) = U\Sigma V^T$
- SVD has time complexity  $O(dn^2)$ .
- $V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  are the needed eigenvectors for  $X^T X \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ .
- $\lambda_i = \Sigma_{i,i}^2$  are needed eigenvalues.

$$\begin{matrix} M \\ m \times n \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} U \\ m \times m \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \Sigma \\ m \times n \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} V^* \\ n \times n \end{matrix}$$

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$\mathbf{M}_{m \times n} = \mathbf{U}_{m \times m} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{m \times n} \mathbf{V}^*_{n \times n}$$


For PCA we want projections onto top  $k$  PCs.

- When we used a spectral decomposition,  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Q}^T$ , we compute:  $\mathbf{X}_k = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{Q}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$  ( $\mathbf{Q}$  are eigvecs of  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ ).
- When using the SVD of  $\mathbf{X}$ , we can instead get this from:
- $\mathbf{X}_k = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_{:,1:k} = \mathbf{U}_{:,1:k} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{1:k,1:k} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$  ("scores" in PCA basis).  $Xv_i = \sigma_i u_i$
- We don't need to compute covariance matrix, or do the projections, we just need  $SVD(\mathbf{X})$ !

# “Eckart Young theorem” 1936

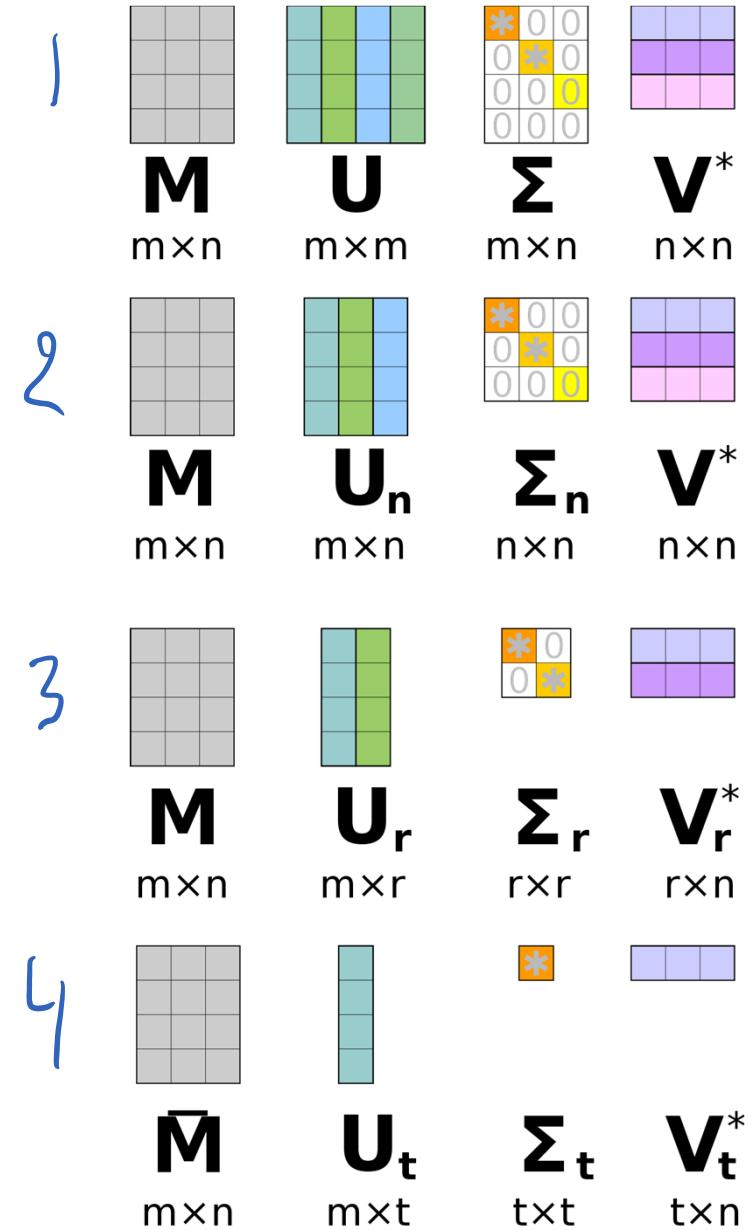
- The SVD “k-reconstruction” produces the best  $k$ -rank approximation by the matrix norm,  $\|X - X_{\text{recon}-k}\|_F$ .
- First proven by Schmidt (of Gram-Schmidt fame) in 1907 for Froebenius norm.
- Later rediscovered by Eckart & Young 1936, also generalized to other norms..
- Thus, PCA provides the best low rank approximation to the data matrix.

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F \equiv \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2}$$

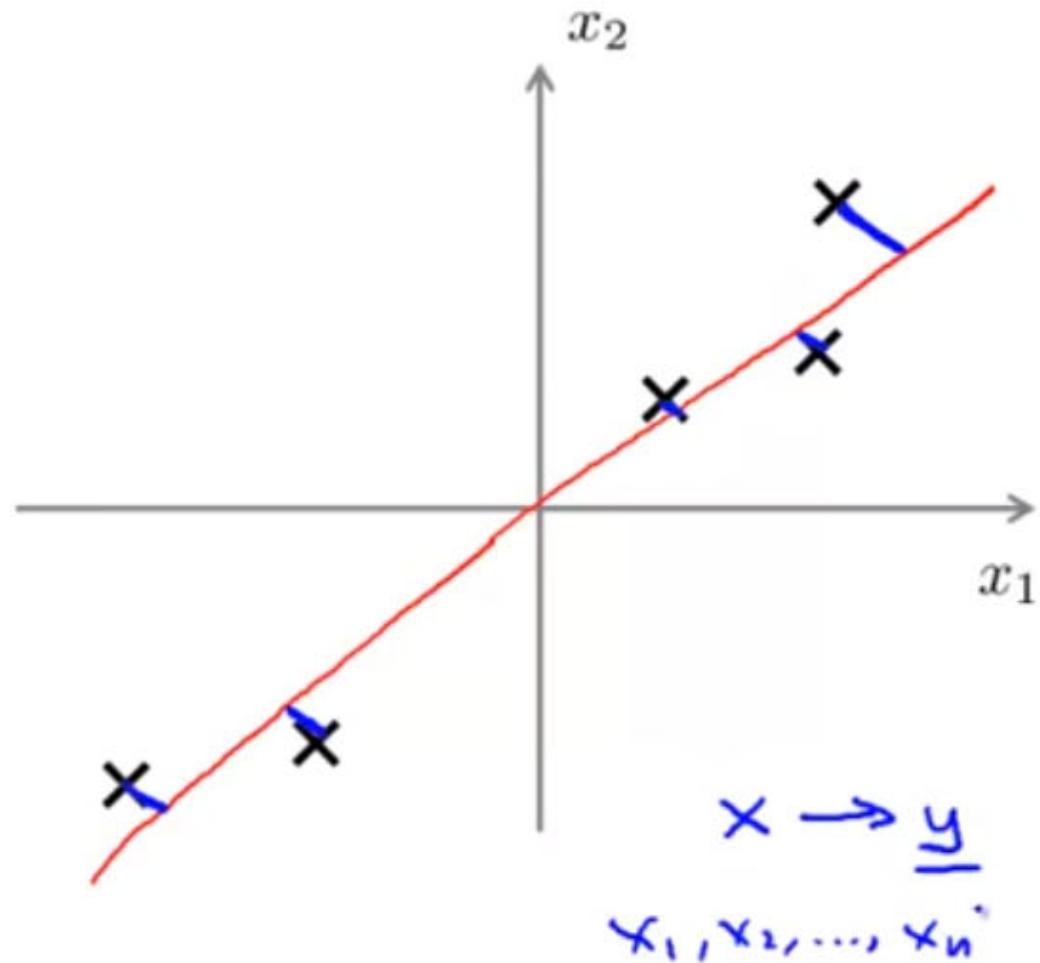
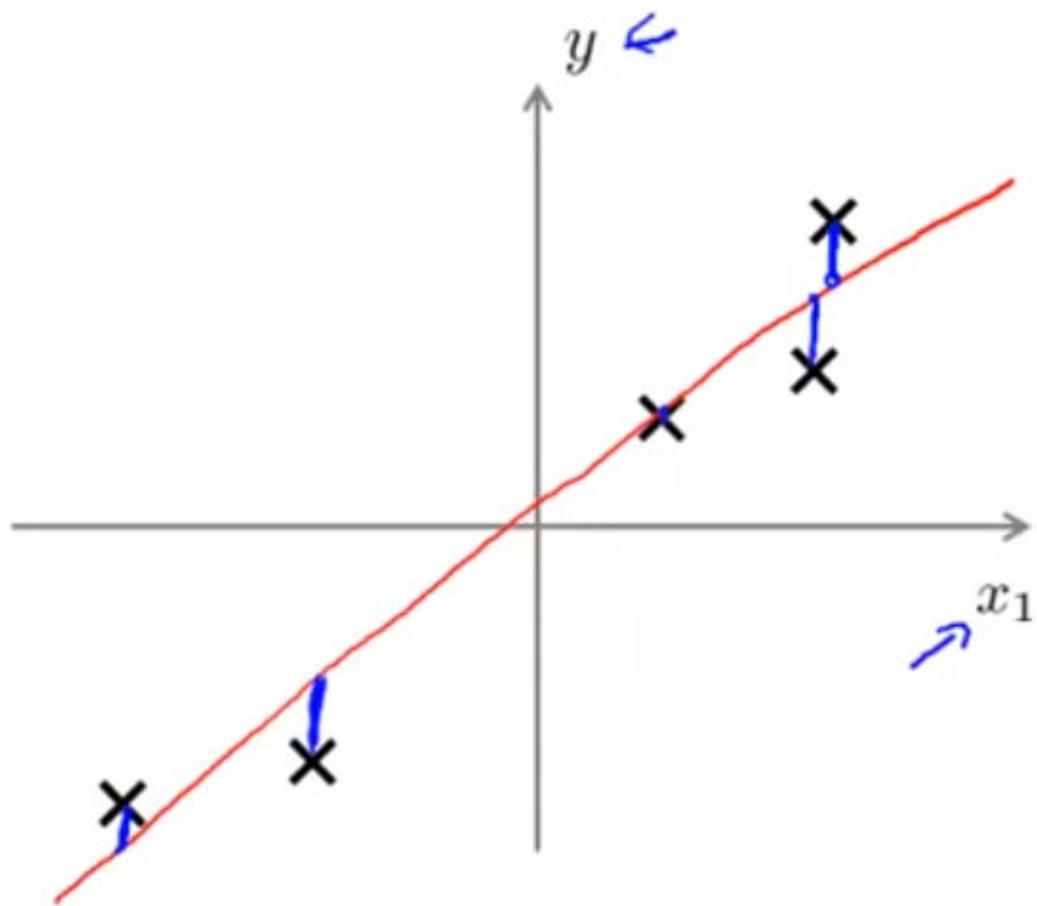
# Practicalities: Reduced SVDs

For PCA and other applications, don't need the entire SVD, and can make do with "trimmed down" versions:

1. Full SVD
2. Thin SVD (remove columns of  $U$  not corresponding to rows of  $V^*$ )
3. Compact SVD (remove vanishing singular values and corresponding columns/rows in  $U$  and  $V^*$ ),
4. Truncated SVD (keep only largest  $t$  singular values and corresponding columns/rows in  $U$  and  $V^*$ )

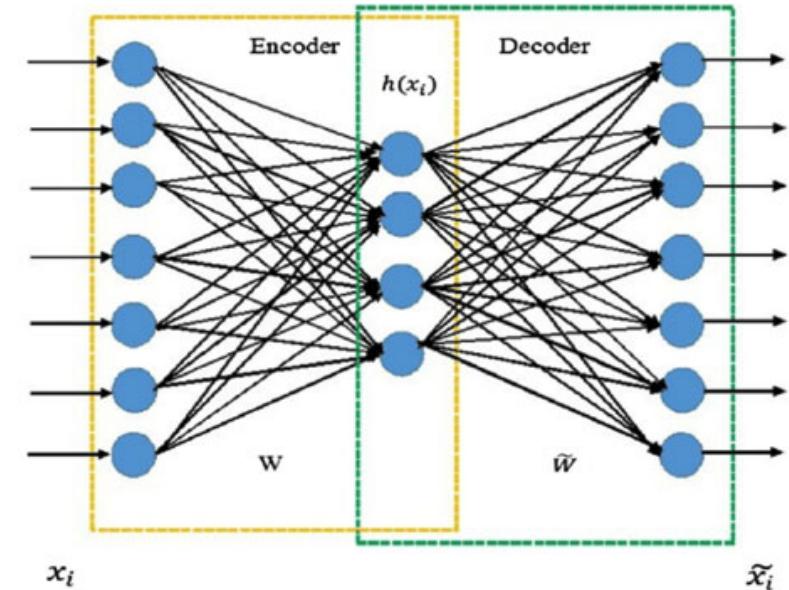


# PCA is not linear regression



# PCA from neural networks!

- Special kind of neural network, called an *autoencoder* recovers the same subspace as PC-k.
- Autoencoder tries to compress a data set by trying to predict itself back after going through a bottleneck.



- For a linear autoencoder with one hidden layer containing  $k$  nodes, using squared loss, the hidden layer representation is equivalent to that found from PCA-k (although  $W$  may correspond to different eigenvectors that span the same space).
- Can generalize by making non-linear transfers, and more layers, etc.