

- Practicalities
- Introduction to unsupervised learning
   Latent variables
- Clustering
   k-means
- Mixture models
- Expectation Maximization
- probabilistic PCA

## Machine learning – Block 6

Måns Magnusson Department of Statistics, Uppsala University

Autumn 2022



- Practicalities
- Introduction to unsupervised learning
   Latent variables
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- Expectation
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- probabilistic PCA

## This week's lectures

- Introduction to unsupervised learning
- k-means
- Mixture of Gaussians
- Expectation-Maximization
- Probabilistic PCA



#### Practicalities

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## **Practicalities**

- Remember the project proposition deadline the today
- Still behind with grading...



#### Practicalities

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# Assignment 5

- Difficult area in general
- More connections between the implementation and the Keras code
- Struggle with running the code



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### Section 2

Introduction to unsupervised learning



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# Supervised and Unsupervised learning

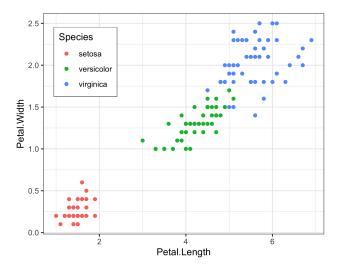


Figure: The Supervised Problem



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# Supervised and Unsupervised learning

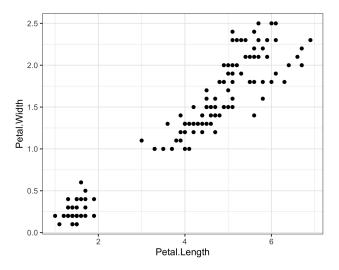


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# Supervised and Unsupervised learning

### In supervised learning:

• We have training data

$$\mathbf{d} = \{(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i), i = 1, ..., n\}.$$

- We train a model p(y|x) to predict y
- We only care about the loss function during training



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#### In unsupervised learning:

• We have training data

$$\mathbf{d} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i), i = 1, ..., n\}.$$

- We train a model p(x) to explain/model x
- Our loss function (or model) can be the goal



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# Unsupervised learning

Goal: Build a good (probabilistic) model p(x) for x



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# Unsupervised learning

Goal: Build a good (probabilistic) model p(x) for x

Other names for p(x):

- Data model p(x) is our data generating mechanism
- Generative model
   We can generate samples from p(x). Big right now!



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# Unsupervised learning

Goal: Build a good (probabilistic) model p(x) for x

Other names for p(x):

- Data model
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Common use cases for unsupervised learning:

- Generate new observations from p(x)
- Study structure in large data
- Anomaly detection
- Create representations for downstream tasks



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# The Learning Problem

- Goal: A model that can "explain" the data well
- Two main approaches:
  - Clustering: Finding similar observations (rows)
  - Dimensionality reduction: Finding similar variables (columns)



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# The Learning Problem

- Goal: A model that can "explain" the data well
- Two main approaches:
  - Clustering: Finding similar observations (rows)
  - Dimensionality reduction: Finding similar variables (columns)
- Commonly, we use parametric probabilistic models  $p(x|\theta)$  where  $\theta$  is unknown
- Learning problem: Learn  $\theta$  to explain the data as good as possible



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# Example: Autoencoder

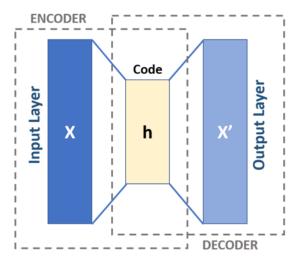


Figure: A Neural Autoencoder (Wikipedia)



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## Loss functions and evaluation

 Autoencoder uses the difference between the original and reconstructed output

$$L(x) = (d(e(h|x)|h) - x)^2,$$

where d(x|h) is the decoder and e(h|x) is the encoder.



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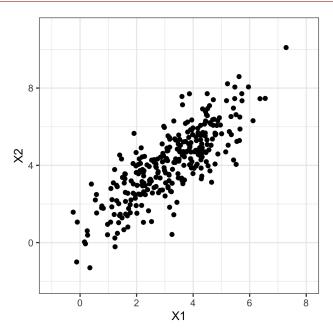
$$L(x) = (d(e(h|x)|h) - x)^2,$$

where d(x|h) is the decoder and e(h|x) is the encoder.

- In probabilistic models we can use the log-likelihood (L) Sometimes called perplexity or surprise.
  - High  $\mathcal{L}$ : The observation is well explained by the model
  - Low  $\mathcal{L}$ : The observation is badly explained by the model
- Evaluate log-likelihood on a held-out validation set



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We assume a p(x) is a Multivariate Gaussian model and estimate  $\mu, \Sigma$  from data.



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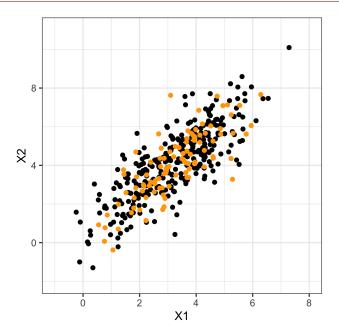
$$\hat{\mu} = [3.19, 4.11]$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.95 & 2.05 \\ 2.05 & 3.36 \end{bmatrix}$$

We can now generate new data from  $\hat{p}(x)$  as  $MVN(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma})$ .



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## Latent variables

• An unobserved or hidden variable or "factor"



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## Latent variables

- An unobserved or hidden variable or "factor"
- A parameter specific to some or a few observations or features



#### • Practicalities

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## Latent variables

- An unobserved or hidden variable or "factor"
- A parameter specific to some or a few observations or features
- Often these latent variables can be of main interest.



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# Example: Hidden Markov Model

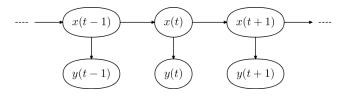


Figure: A Hidden Markov Model (Wikipedia).

Here: x is unobserved/latent and y is observed.



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# Example: Factor Analysis

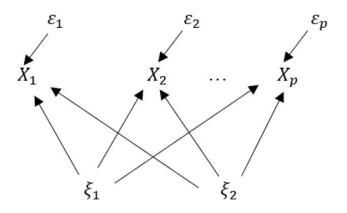


Figure: A Factor Analysis Model (Eshima, Tabata and Borroni, 2018, edited).



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Section 3

Clustering



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• Separate observations  $x_i$  into groups or segments



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- Separate observations  $x_i$  into groups or segments
- What is a cluster "is" depends on the model/(dis)similarity.
- (Dis)similarity:

$$D(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{k=1}^{P} d_k(x_{i,k}, x_{j,k})$$

A common dissimilarity is the squared distance

$$d_k(x_{i,k},x_{j,k})=(x_{i,k}-x_{j,k})^2$$



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- Clustering can be divided into:
  - Hard clustering
  - Soft clustering



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  - Hard clustering
  - Soft clustering
- Clustering can also be divided into:
  - Hiearchical clustering
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- There is a ton of different algorithms and methods...



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Popular in practice and a classic in unsupervised machine learning



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- Popular in practice and a classic in unsupervised machine learning
- Hard, flat clustering
- Simple and effective



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- Popular in practice and a classic in unsupervised machine learning
- Hard, flat clustering
- Simple and effective
- Model:  $x_i$  "is close to" one of  $m_1, ..., m_K$  vectors
- Loss function:

$$I_{\mathbf{m}}(x) = \min_{\mathbf{m}} (x_i - m_k)^2$$



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- Hyperparameter: *K* (the number of clusters)
- Parameters: **m** (a  $K \times P$  matrix).



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#### k-means

- Popular in practice and a classic in unsupervised machine learning
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- Hyperparameter: *K* (the number of clusters)
- Parameters: **m** (a  $K \times P$  matrix).
- A difficult problem:  $K^n$  possibilities



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# k-means algorithm

#### Algorithm 10.1 K-Means Clustering

- 1. Randomly assign a number, from 1 to K, to each of the observations. These serve as initial cluster assignments for the observations.
- 2. Iterate until the cluster assignments stop changing:
  - (a) For each of the K clusters, compute the cluster centroid. The kth cluster centroid is the vector of the p feature means for the observations in the kth cluster.
  - (b) Assign each observation to the cluster whose centroid is closest (where *closest* is defined using Euclidean distance).

Figure: The k-means cluster algorithm (Garreth et al, 2013, Alg. 10.1).



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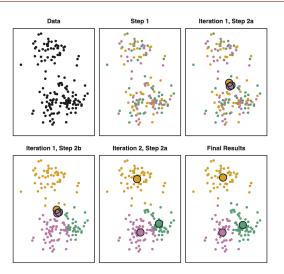


Figure: The k-means cluser algorithm (Garreth et al, 2013, Fig. 10.6).



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- k-means finds local modes
- Re-run algorithm with many different starting values
- Choose the best by the best loss



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- There exists many developments
  - scaling to large data



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- Choose the best by the best loss
- There exists many developments
  - scaling to large data
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  - approaches to find a good K



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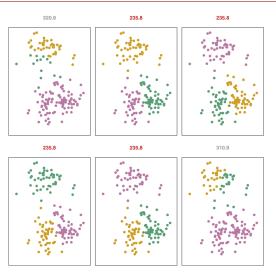


Figure: The k-means cluser algorithm (Garreth et al, 2013, Fig. 10.7).



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## Problems with k-means

- Clusters might
  - overlap
  - have different forms

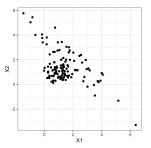


Figure: Two clusters with different shapes.



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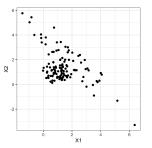


Figure: Two clusters with different shapes.

We can solve these problems using probabilistic models



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#### Section 4

#### Mixture models



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$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \phi_k(\theta_k),$$

- The parts of a (finite) mixture model:
  - The number of components: K



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  - The proportions of observation from component k:  $\pi_k$
  - The density of component k:  $\phi_k$



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  - The density of component k:  $\phi_k$
  - The parameters of component k:  $\theta_k$



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- Usually, we
  - set K, and
  - use the same density for all k.



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- Usually, we
  - set K, and
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- We can simulate data from the model as compund probability distribution:
  - 1. Simulate cluster assignments for all i:

 $z_i \sim \mathsf{Categorical}(\pi)$ 



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2. Generate  $y_i$  conditioned on  $z_i$ :

$$y_i \sim \phi_{z_i}(\theta_{z_i})$$



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• Cluster assignments  $z_i$  are the latent variables



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# Gaussian Mixture Models (GMM)

• The (finite) Gaussian mixture model:

$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k),$$

where  $\mu_k$  and  $\Sigma_k$  depend on the dimensionality of  $y_i$ .



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# Gaussian Mixture Models (GMM)

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where  $\mu_k$  and  $\Sigma_k$  depend on the dimensionality of  $y_i$ .

• GMM is a universial approximator of densities



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   probabilistic PCA

# Example: Simulate data from a GMM

1. Generate cluster assignments:

$$z_i \sim \mathsf{Categorical}(\pi = [0.4, 0.6])$$

2. Generate observation conditioned on cluster assignment:

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$
,

where

$$\mu_1 = [2, 2], \mu_2 = [1, 1]$$
 and

$$\Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2.7 \\ -2.7 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$



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# Simulated data from a GMM

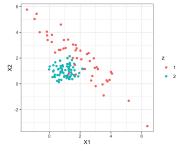


Figure: Simulated mixture data with the latent variable z.



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# Simulated data from a GMM

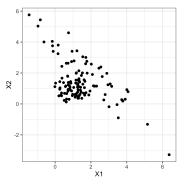


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# Mixtures of Multinomial distributions

What distribution  $(\phi)$  should I use?



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## Mixtures of Multinomial distributions

What distribution  $(\phi)$  should I use?

Depends on your data(y).



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## Mixtures of Multinomial distributions

What distribution  $(\phi)$  should I use?

Depends on your data(y).

$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathsf{Multinomial}(\mathbf{p}_k)$$

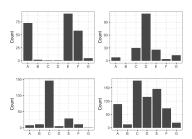


Figure: Mixture of Multinomials.



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# Estimating Mixtures Models

• We are interested in estimating  $\theta_k$  and  $\pi_k$  for the model

$$y_i = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \phi(\theta_k),$$



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# Estimating Mixtures Models

Hence we want to maximize the log-likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(\pi, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \phi(y_i | \theta_k) \right)$$

• This is difficult, although if we only knew z...



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# Estimating Mixtures Models

Hence we want to maximize the log-likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(\pi, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \phi(y_i | \theta_k) \right)$$

This is difficult, although if we only knew z...

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{full}}(\pi, \theta, \mathbf{z}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} I(z_i = k) \phi(y_i | \theta_k) \right) + \log(\pi_k^{I(z_i = k)})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} I(z_i = k) \log \phi(y_i | \theta_k) + I(z_i = k) \log(\pi_k)$$

• So if we knew  ${\bf z}$  it is essentially just maximizing  ${\cal L}$  for each cluster separately.



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# The Expectation

But, we dont know z.



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# The Expectation

- But, we dont know z.
- Although, we could compute the expected cluster assignment

$$\gamma_i = E_{z_i}(\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{full}}|\theta, y_i)$$
.

- $\gamma_i$  can be seen as observation is weights for each cluster
- $\gamma_i$  is sometimes referred to as the responsibility.



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# The Maximization

• Now, given  $\gamma$  we can (hopefully) easier maximize  $\theta$ .



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## The Maximization

- Now, given  $\gamma$  we can (hopefully) easier maximize  $\theta$ .
- We maximize  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{full}}$  given  $\gamma$  and y.



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## The Maximization

- Now, given  $\gamma$  we can (hopefully) easier maximize  $\theta$ .
- We maximize  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{full}}$  given  $\gamma$  and y.
- ullet We usually choose  $\psi$  so the maximization
  - is a nice analytical expression.
  - end up with a weighted MLE.



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## Example: EM for a Gaussian Mixture

#### Algorithm 8.1 EM Algorithm for Two-component Gaussian Mixture.

- 1. Take initial guesses for the parameters  $\hat{\mu}_1, \hat{\sigma}_1^2, \hat{\mu}_2, \hat{\sigma}_2^2, \hat{\pi}$  (see text).
- 2. Expectation Step: compute the responsibilities

$$\hat{\gamma}_i = \frac{\hat{\pi}\phi_{\hat{\theta}_2}(y_i)}{(1-\hat{\pi})\phi_{\hat{\theta}_1}(y_i) + \hat{\pi}\phi_{\hat{\theta}_2}(y_i)}, \ i = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$
 (8.42)

3. Maximization Step: compute the weighted means and variances:

$$\hat{\mu}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (1 - \hat{\gamma}_{i}) y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (1 - \hat{\gamma}_{i})}, \qquad \hat{\sigma}_{1}^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (1 - \hat{\gamma}_{i}) (y_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{1})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (1 - \hat{\gamma}_{i})},$$

$$\hat{\mu}_{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\gamma}_{i} y_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\gamma}_{i}}, \qquad \hat{\sigma}_{2}^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\gamma}_{i} (y_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{2})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\gamma}_{i}},$$

and the mixing probability  $\hat{\pi} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{\gamma}_i / N$ .

4. Iterate steps 2 and 3 until convergence.

Figure: The EM algorithm for a two component Gaussian mixture (Hastie et al 2008, Alg. 10.1)



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## The EM algorithm

- Properties of the EM algorithm:
  - The EM-algorithm will converge to a local mode



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# The EM algorithm

- Properties of the EM algorithm:
  - The EM-algorithm will converge to a local mode
  - Each iteration will always increase the likelihood
    - Can be proven straight-forward using Jensens inequality



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### The EM algorithm

- Properties of the EM algorithm:
  - The EM-algorithm will converge to a local mode
  - Each iteration will always increase the likelihood
    - Can be proven straight-forward using Jensens inequality
  - We can interpret the final  $\gamma_i$  as the expected cluster Hence, the EM algorithm is a soft clustering approach.
- Expanding the likelihood with latent variables (z) is called data augmentation.
  - *Note!* Not the same as data augmentation in CNNs.



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# Connections to other approaches

• If we set  $z_i = \operatorname{argmax}(\gamma_i)$ : k-means



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# Connections to other approaches

- If we set  $z_i = \operatorname{argmax}(\gamma_i)$ : k-means
- If we sample  $z_i$  according to  $\gamma$ : stochastic EM



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### Dimensionality reduction

- So far focus has been on (clustering) observations
- Now, we will address the other large area of UL: dimensionality reduction



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# Dimensionality reduction

- So far focus has been on (clustering) observations
- Now, we will address the other large area of UL: dimensionality reduction
- The starting point is Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- PCA can be used for
  - Reduce the dimensionality of our data
  - Produce lower-dimensional features in a prediction model
  - Discover underlying latent variables (factors)



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### Dimensionality reduction

- So far focus has been on (clustering) observations
  - Now, we will adress the other large area of UL: dimensionality reduction
- The starting point is Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
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  - Reduce the dimensionality of our data
  - Produce lower-dimensional features in a prediction model
  - Discover underlying latent variables (factors)
- More details in the multivariate course.



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# Principal Component Analysis

- Basic idea: We can summarize our data using K principal components (PC)
- The PCA "model" can be expressed as

$$X \approx b + WH^T$$
,

where  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ ,  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times p}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ .

- H can be seen as a latent factors
- W can be seen as a factor loadings
- We assume that W is orthogonal:  $W^TW = I$



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### Principal Component Analysis

• The PCA model

$$X \approx b + WH^T$$
,

• The loss function, also called reconstruction error:

$$J(b, W, H) = \sum_{i}^{N} ||x_{i} - b + Wh_{i}^{T}||^{2}$$



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### Principal Component Analysis

• The PCA model

$$X \approx b + WH^T$$
,

• The loss function, also called reconstruction error:

$$J(b, W, H) = \sum_{i}^{N} ||x_{i} - b + Wh_{i}^{T}||^{2}$$

• This can be minmized using Singular Value Decomposition



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# PCA: Conceptual depiction

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} X \\ (n \times p) \end{array}\right] \approx \left[\begin{array}{c} W \\ (p \times k) \end{array}\right] \times \left[\begin{array}{c} H^T \\ (k \times n) \end{array}\right]$$

Figure: Conceptual depiction of PCA.



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# probabilistic PCA (pPCA)

PCA is not a probabilistic model



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# probabilistic PCA (pPCA)

- PCA is not a probabilistic model
- probabilistic PCA

$$x_i = b + Wh_i^T + \epsilon_i$$

where  $\epsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \Psi)$ 

- In pPCA, we assume  $\Psi = \sigma \mathbf{I}$
- We also assume that  $h_i \sim N(0, I)$



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# probabilistic PCA (pPCA)

- PCA is not a probabilistic model
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$$x_i = b + Wh_i^T + \epsilon_i$$

where  $\epsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \Psi)$ 

- In pPCA, we assume  $\Psi = \sigma \mathbf{I}$
- We also assume that  $h_i \sim N(0, I)$
- We can integrate out H and get the model

$$x_i \sim N(b, WW^T + \Psi)$$



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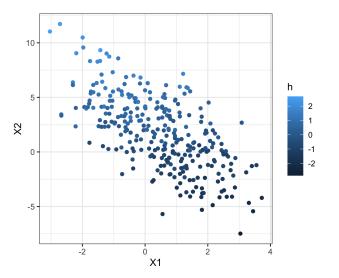


Figure: Data from a pPCA model with  $W = (-1,3)^T$ , b = (0.5,2) and  $\sigma^2 = 1$ 



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probabilistic PCA

$$x_i = b + Wh_i^T + \epsilon_i$$



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probabilistic PCA

$$x_i = b + Wh_i^T + \epsilon_i$$

- We can now estimate our parameters using EM (or Bayesian methods)
- Enables us to combine with other models (e.g. mixture of pPCA)



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probabilistic PCA

$$x_i = b + Wh_i^T + \epsilon_i$$

- We can now estimate our parameters using EM (or Bayesian methods)
- Enables us to combine with other models (e.g. mixture of pPCA)
- And as we will see next week, is the basic building block for many high-dimensional problems



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### Connections to PCA and Factor Analysis

probabilistic PCA

$$x_i = b + Wh_i^T + \epsilon_i$$

where  $\epsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \Psi)$ 

- pPCA is closely connected to PCA and Factor Analysis:
  - $\sigma I \rightarrow 0$ : pPCA  $\rightarrow$  PCA
  - $\Psi = \mathsf{diag}(\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_p, ..., \sigma_P)$ : pPCA  $\rightarrow$  Factor Analysis