

Machine Learning

Lecture 10: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization

Prof. Dr. Stephan Günnemann Aleksandar Bojchevski

Data Analytics and Machine Learning Group Technical University of Munich

Winter term 2020/2021

Roadmap

- Chapter: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
 - 3. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - 4. Matrix Factorization
 - 5. Neighbor Graph Methods
 - 6. Autoencoders (Non-linear Dimensionality Reduction)

Introduction: Unsupervised Learning (I)

- Supervised learning aims to map inputs to targets with y = f(x), or in a probabilistic framework it models p(y|x)
- Unsupervised learning can be seen as modelling p(x)
- We are trying to find the (hidden / latent) structure in the data
 - e.g. find a <u>latent distribution</u> p(z) and a <u>generative transformation</u> $p(x \mid z)$ we can then obtain $p(x) = \int p(x \mid z) p(z) dz$

clusterindicator

latent z usually unknown and has to be estimated

 $Z_i \sim P(Z)$ $X_i \sim P(X|Z_i)$

- Examples:
 - Clustering: the cluster label is the latent state
 - Anomaly detection: treat instances with low p(x) as anomalies

Introduction: Unsupervised Learning (II)



Unsupervised learning can be viewed as compression

- compress a data point to a <u>single label</u> corresponding to its cluster
- compress a data point from a higher dim. to a lower dim. latent space
- Unsupervised learning can be used ...
 - ... as a <u>stand-alone method</u> (e.g. to understand your data, visualization)
 - ... as a pre-processing step (e.g. use cluster label as feature for subsequent classification task; obtain small number of relevant features)
 - ... to <u>leverage</u> large amounts of unlabeled data for pretraining
- This lecture: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization

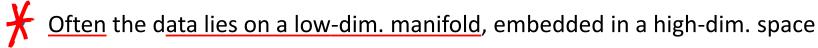
Dimensionality Reduction: Motivation

Often data has very many features, i.e. high-dimensional data



High-dimensional data is challenging:

- Similarity search/computation is expensive because of high complexity of distance functions
- Highly correlated dimension could cause trouble for some algorithms
- Curse of dimensionality: we need exponential amounts of data to characterize the density as the dimensionality goes up
- It is hard to visualize high-dimensional data



- Goal: Try to reduce the dimensionality while avoiding information loss
- Benefits:
 - Computational or memory savings
 - Uncover the intrinsic dimensionality of the data
 - (more benefits later....)

Feature (Sub-)Selection

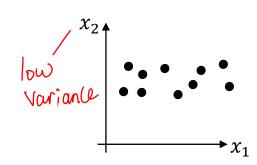


C<u>hoose</u> "<mark>good" dimensions</mark> using a-<u>priori knowledge or</u> appropriate heuristics

- e.g. remove low-variance dimensions
- Depending on the application only a few dimensions might be of interest
 - Example: shoe size interesting for shoe purchases, not so for car purchases

Advantages:

 No need for an intensive preprocessing or training phase to determine relevant dimensions



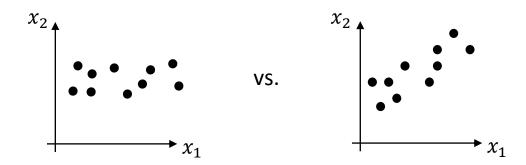
Disadvantages:

Expert knowledge required; misjudgment possible

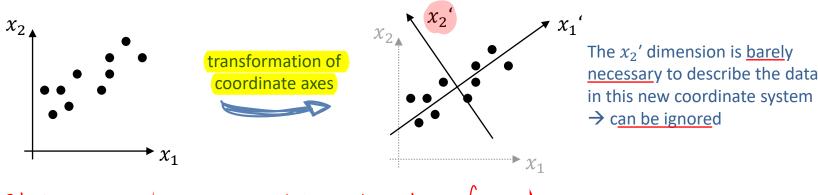
¥ Univariate feature selection ignores correlations

Beyond Feature (Sub-)Selection

- Can we do
 - better?
 - automatic?



- Obviously: Simply <u>discarding whole features not a good idea</u>
 - Features are often correlated



* I deally, we seek to capture data independent of coord sys

Dim. Reduction via Linear Transformations

preserving dot product — a



Rep<u>resent data in a different coord</u>inate system via linear transformations

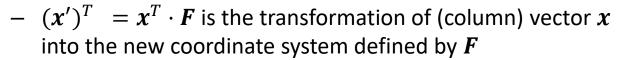
change of basis (orthogonal basis transformations)

+ potentially discarding dimensions of low variance

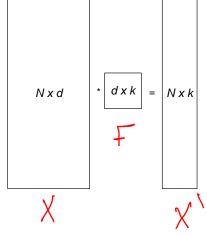
Vardim is known in advance, just remove them earlier

Technical:

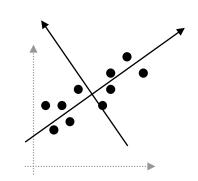
- use orthonormal transformation matrix $\mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$

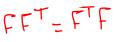


- $X' = X \cdot F$ is the matrix containing all the transformed points x_i'









Discussion: Linear Transformations

let $F = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ keep the rest



Feature selection is a linear transformation

- What is the matrix F?
- Let \overline{x} be the mean vector (here: row vector) in the original data space, the mean vector in the transformed space is given by $\overline{x'} = \overline{x} \cdot F$

• Let Σ_X be the covariance matrix in the original data space, the covariance matrix in the transformed space is then $\Sigma_{X'} = F^T \cdot \Sigma_X \cdot F$

Roadmap

- Chapter: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
 - 3. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - 4. Matrix Factorization
 - 5. Neighbor Graph Methods
 - 6. Autoencoders (Non-linear Dimensionality Reduction)

Principal Component Analysis: Motivation

- Question: Which transformation matrix F to use?
 - Is there an optimal orthogonal transformation (depending on the data)?
 - Optimality: Approximate the data with few coefficients as well as possible

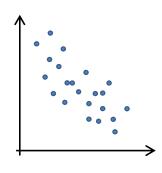




Approach: Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Find a coordinate system in which the (possibly originally correlated) points are linearly uncorrelated
- The <u>dimensions with no or low variance</u> can then be <u>ignored</u>

- Transform the data, such that the covariance between the new dimensions is 0
- The transformed data points are not linearly correlated any more



- Given: N d-dimensional data points: $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d \ \forall i \in \{1, ..., N\}$
- We represent this set of points by a matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$:

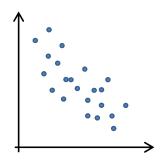
Feature
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & \cdots & x_{Nd} \end{bmatrix}$$
 instance

- The row $x_i = \{x_{i1}, ..., x_{id}\} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denotes the *i*-th point and the column $X_{:,i}$ denotes the vector containing all values from the j-th dimension



Goal:

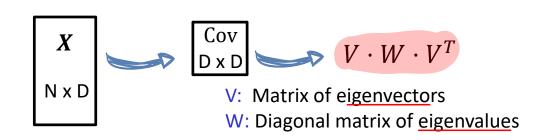
- Transform the data, such that the covariance between the new dimensions is 0
- The transformed data points are not linearly correlated any more





<u>General approach</u>

- 1. Center the data ise Zero mean
- 2. Compute the covariance matrix
- 3. Use the Eigenvector decomposition to transform the coordinate system



• Given:
$$X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$$
: $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & \cdots & x_{Nd} \end{bmatrix}$

• Shift the points by their mean $\overline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (centralized data): $\widetilde{x}_i = x_i - \overline{x}$

Statistics:

Zero order statistic : number of points N

First order statistic: the mean of the N points, the vector $\overline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{x}_d \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \boldsymbol{X}^T \cdot \boldsymbol{1}_N$$

where $\mathbf{1}_N$ is an N-dimensional vector of ones

• Determine the variances $Var(\widetilde{X}_j)$ for each dimension $j \in \{1, ... d\}$

 \widetilde{X}

Cov

 $\widetilde{\pmb{X}}^t$

- Determine the covariance $Cov(\widetilde{X}_{j_1}, \widetilde{X}_{j_2})$ between dimensions j_1 and j_2 , $\forall j_1 \neq j_2 \in \{1, ... d\}$
- \triangleright Leads to the covariance matrix $\Sigma_{\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$

Statistics:

Second order statistic: variance and covariance

The variance within the j-th dimension in X is:

$$\operatorname{Var}(X_j) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{ij} - \overline{x}_j)^2 = \frac{1}{N} \cdot X_j^T X_j - \overline{x}_j^2$$

The covariance between dimension j_1 and j_2 is:

$$Cov(X_{j_1}, X_{j_2}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{ij_1} - \overline{x}_{j_1}) \cdot (x_{ij_2} - \overline{x}_{j_2}) = \frac{1}{N} \cdot X_{j_1}^T X_{j_2} - \overline{x}_{j_1} \overline{x}_{j_2}$$

Voriation in X

equal
$$\Rightarrow$$
 Zero Correlation

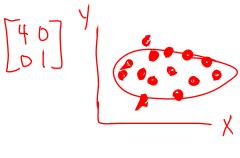
Voriation in Y

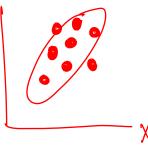
Statistics (continued):

For the set of points contained in X the corresponding covariance matrix is defined as:

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Var}(\mathbf{X}_1) & \mathbf{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2) & \dots & \mathbf{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_d) \\ \mathbf{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_2, \mathbf{X}_1) & \mathbf{Var}(\mathbf{X}_2) & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_d, \mathbf{X}_1) & \dots & \mathbf{Var}(\mathbf{X}_d) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} - \overline{\mathbf{x}} \, \overline{\mathbf{x}}^{\mathsf{T}}$$
Zero mean

Remark: Covariance matrices are symmetric





[1.5] X & Y directly correlate non-zero off-diag

Out original data is usually correlated i.e non Zero values everywhere

Goal of PCA: Transformation of the coordinate system

such that the covariances between the new axes are
$$0$$

Approach:

- Diagonalization by changing the basis (= adapt the coordinate system)
- According to the spectral theorem, the eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix form an orthogonal basis
- Eigendecomposition of the covariance matrix: $\Sigma_{\widetilde{X}} = \Gamma \cdot \Lambda \cdot \Gamma^T$

Eigendecomposition (spectral decomposition) is the factorization of $\underline{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$: $\underline{A} = \Gamma \cdot \Lambda \cdot \Gamma^{T}$

- \cap matrices $\Gamma, \Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ with columns of Γ being the n<u>ormalized eigenvectors</u> γ_i
- $ightharpoonup \Gamma$ is an <u>orthonormal matrix</u>: $\Gamma \cdot \Gamma^T = \Gamma^T \cdot \Gamma = \mathrm{Id} \ (\Gamma^T = \Gamma^{-1})$
 - $\rightarrow \Lambda$ is a <u>diagonal matrix</u> with <u>eigenvalues λ_i </u> as the <u>diagonal elem</u>ents

they don't need to have unit length

Courriance matri X 

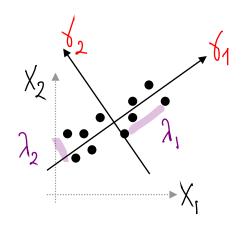
The **new coordinate system** is defined by the eigenvectors γ_i :

- Transformed data: $Y = \widetilde{X} \cdot \Gamma$
- $-\Lambda$ is the <u>covariance matrix</u> in this <u>new coord</u>inate system



 $\forall i_1 \neq i_2 : Cov(Y_{i_1}, Y_{i_2}) = 0$





Dimensionality Reduction with PCA X

- Approach
 - The coordinates with low variance (hence low λ_i) can be ignored
 - W.l.o.g. let us assume $λ_1 ≥ λ_2 ≥ \cdots ≥ λ_d$
- ightharpoonup Truncation of Γ
 - Keep only columns (i.e. eigenvectors) of Γ corresponding to the largest k eigenvalues $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k$
 - $Y_{\text{reduced}} = \widetilde{X} \cdot \Gamma_{\text{truncated}}$
- applying linear transformation to get the new mean

- How to pick k?
 - Frequently used: 90% rule; the k variances should explain 90% of the energy
 - k = smallest value ensuring $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i \ge 0.9 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i$
- The <u>modified points</u> (transformed and truncated) contain most of the <u>information of the original points</u> and are low dimensional

* So fat it's Zero mean data, sometimes we resorve this; seeking more into it lost due to subtracting the mean

Complexity

Complexity of PCA:

$$O(N \cdot d^2) + O(d^3) + O(N \cdot d \cdot k) = O(N \cdot d^2 + d^3)$$
Compute

Covariance matrix

Compute

Covariance matrix

Compute

Covariance matrix

Compute

Covariance matrix



Remarks on eigenvalue decomposition:

- directly compute K largest, no need to compute all
- Usually we are <u>interested in the reduced data only</u>
- > Only the k largest eigenvectors required (i.e. not all of them)
- Use iterative approaches (next slide) for finding eigenvectors
 - Complexity: $O(\#it \cdot d^2)$ // #it = number of iterations- For sparse data even faster: $O(\#it \cdot \#nz)$ // #nz = number of nonzero elements in the matrix

How to Compute Eigenvectors?

- Eigenvalues are important for many machine learning/data mining tasks
 - PCA, Ranking of Websites, Community Detection, ... // see our other lecture!
 - How to compute them efficiently?
- Power iteration (a.k.a. Von Mises iteration)
 - Iterative approach to compute a single eigenvector
- \bigstar Let A be a <u>matrix</u> and v be an arbitrary (<u>normalized) vecto</u>r
 - I<u>terative</u>ly compute $v \leftarrow \frac{A \cdot v}{\|A \cdot v\|}$ until convergence
 - $-\,$ in each step, $oldsymbol{v}$ is simply multiplied with $oldsymbol{A}$ and normalized
 - -v converges to the eigenvector of A with largest absolute value
 - Highly efficient for sparse data

How to Compute Eigenvectors?

- Convergence: # iter depend on >
 - Linear convergence with rate $|\lambda_2/\lambda_1|$
 - Fast convergence if <u>first and second eigenvalue</u> are <u>dissimilar</u>

How to find multiple (the k largest) eigenvectors?

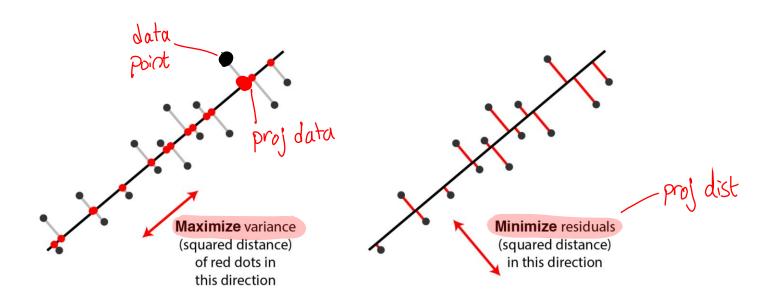
- Let us focus on symmetric matrices A
- Eigenvalue decomposition leads to: $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{\Gamma} \cdot \mathbf{\Lambda} \cdot \mathbf{\Gamma}^T = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i \cdot \mathbf{\gamma}_i \cdot \mathbf{\gamma}_i^T$
- Define deflated matrix: $\hat{A} = A \lambda_1 \cdot \gamma_1 \cdot \gamma_1^T$
 - $-\widehat{A}$ has the same eigenvectors as A except the first one has become zero
- ightharpoonup Apply power iteration on \widehat{A} to find the second largest eigenvector of A

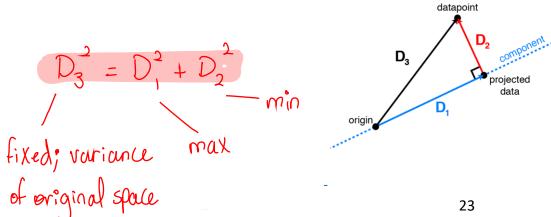


Largest λ , corresponds to the dim which have the largest Variance in the transformed space

Alternative views of PCA

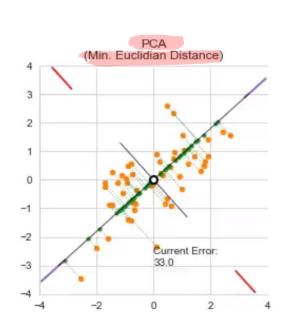
Eigenvector also called principal Component



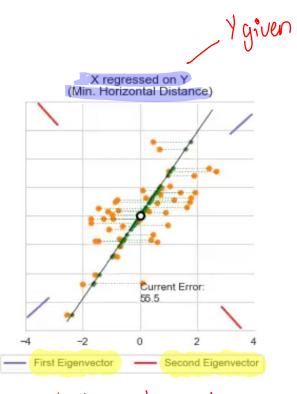


Images adapted from Alexh Williams

PCA vs. Regression



trying to min both Simultaneously



X-dir only is to be min Y, is not aligned

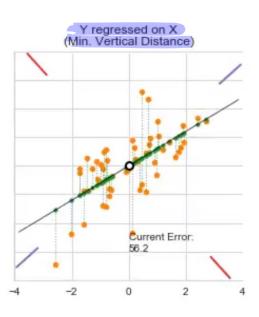


Image adapted from Quentin André

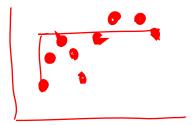
PCA: Summary

- PCA finds the <u>optimal transformation</u> by <u>deriving uncorrelated dimensions</u>
 - Exploits eigendecomposition
- Dimensionality reduction
 - After transformation simply remove dimensions with lowest variance (or use only the k largest eigenvectors for transformation)
- Limitations
 - Only captures linear relationships (one solution: Kernel PCA)

X PCA is usually the first thing to be done, when analyzing data

Roadmap

PCA is not efficient in case of non-linear data

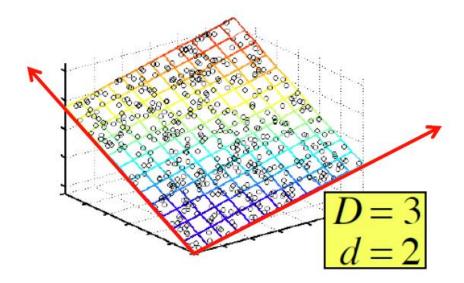


- Chapter: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
 - 3. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - Idea: Low Rank Approximation
 - SVD & Latent Factors
 - Dimensionality Reduction
 - 4. Matrix Factorization
 - 5. Neighbor Graph Methods
 - 6. Autoencoders (Non-linear Dimensionality Reduction)

→ aims to find the best low rank approximation for agiven matrix

Low-Dimensional Manifold

 Data often lies on a low-dimensional manifold embedded in higher dimensional space



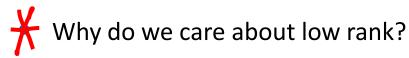


How can me measure the dimensionality of this manifold?

- put differently how to measure the <u>intrinsic dimensionality</u> of the data
- How can we find this manifold?

Rank of a Matrix

- Q: What is the rank of a matrix A?
- A: Number of linearly independent columns/rows of A
- - Why? The first two rows are linearly independent, so the rank is at least 2, but all three rows are linearly dependent (the first is equal to the sum of the second and third) so the rank must be less than 3.

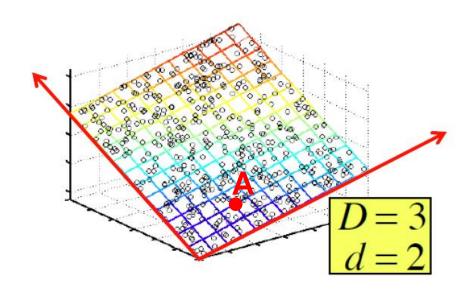


- We can write A as two "basis" vectors: [1 2 1] [-2 -3 1]
- And new coordinates of: [1 0] [0 1] [1 -1]

Rank is "Dimensionality"

- Cloud of points in 3D space:
 - Think of point positions as a matrix:

1 row per point:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 A B





We can rewrite coordinates more efficiently!

- Old basis vectors: [1 0 0] [0 1 0] [0 0 1]
- New basis vectors: [1 2 1] [-2 -3 1]
- Then <u>A has new coord</u>inates: [1 0], B: [0 1], C: [1 -1]
 - Notice: We reduced the number of coordinates!

Low Rank Approximation

Idea: approximate original data A by a low rank matrix B

A being noisy,
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.01 & 2.05 & 0.9 \\ -2.1 & -3.05 & 1.1 \\ 2.99 & 5.01 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{B}$$

Its rows dore no

rank(A) = 3to describe each point

 $rank(\mathbf{B}) = 2$ longer dependent we need 3 coordinates we need only 2 coordinates per point

all its row are linearly independent

Low Rank Approximation

Idea: approximate original data A by a low rank matrix B

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.01 & 2.05 & 0.9 \\ -2.1 & -3.05 & 1.1 \\ 2.99 & 5.01 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{B}$$

- Important: Even though both A and B are $\in R^{\underline{n} \times d}$ we need only two coordinates per point to describe B
 - rank(A)=3 vs. rank(B)=2 (3 vs. 2 coordinates per point)
- Goal: Find the best low rank approximation

best = minimize the sum of reconstruction error

- Given matrix $\pmb{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, find $\pmb{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ with rank $(\pmb{B}) = k$ that minimizes

$$\|A - B\|_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^D (a_{ij} - b_{ij})^2$$

$$\|M\|_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^D (a_{ij} - b_{ij})^2$$

We use SVD to solve it

Roadmap

- Chapter: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
 - 3. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - Idea: Low Rank Approximation
 - (SVD & Latent Factors)
 - Dimensionality Reduction
 - 4. Matrix Factorization
 - 5. Neighbor Graph Methods
 - 6. Autoencoders (Non-linear Dimensionality Reduction)

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD): Definition

- Each real matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ can be decomposed into $A = U \cdot \Sigma \cdot V^{\mathrm{T}}$ (note: exact representation, no approximation), where
 - $-U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}, \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}, V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$
 - *U*, *V*: <u>column orthonormal</u>
 - i.e. $U^TU = I$; $V^TV = I$ (I: identity matrix)
 - U are called the left singular vectors, V the right singular vectors
 - Σ: diagonal
 - $-r \times r$ diagonal matrix (r; rank of matrix A)
 - entries (called singular values) are positive, and sorted in decreasing order ($\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge ... \ge \sigma_r > 0$)
- Remark: The decomposition is (almost) unique
 - see e.g. multiplication by -1

* Orthonormal Zero dot product

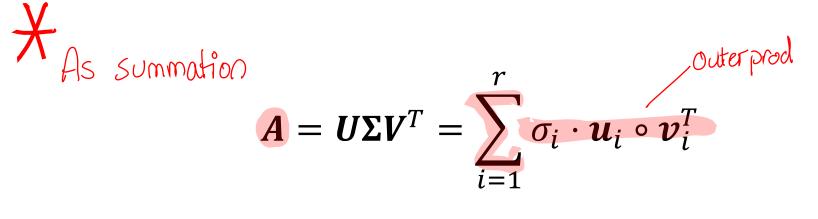
unit length

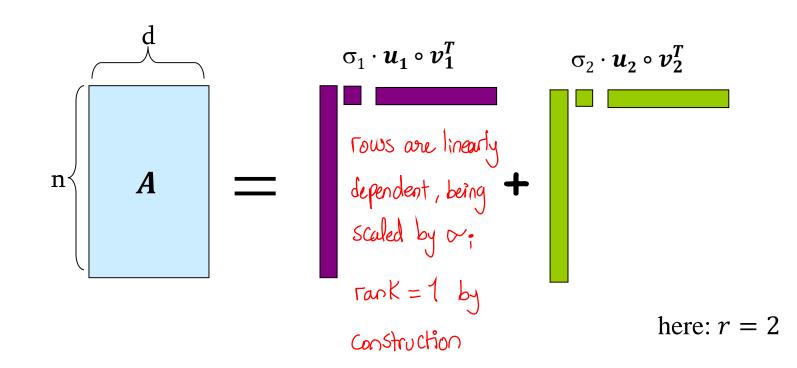
Singular Value Decomposition

 $A = U\Sigma V^T$

here: r = 2

Singular Value Decomposition

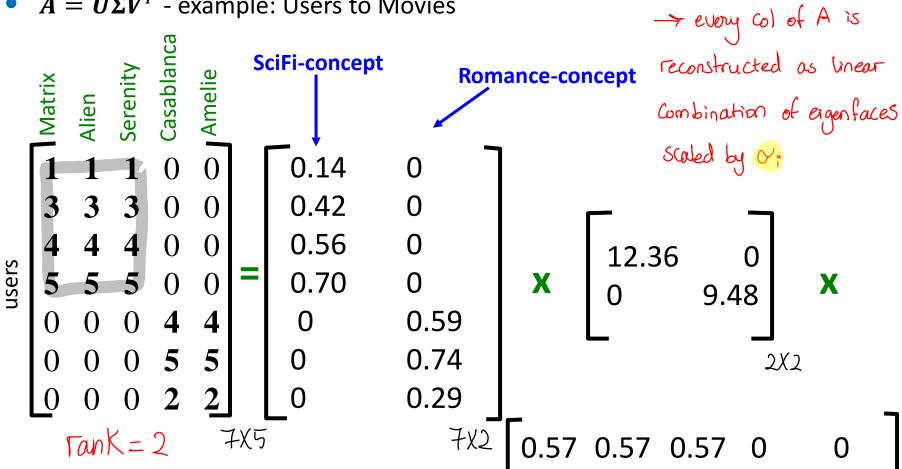




VD Example: Users-to-Movies

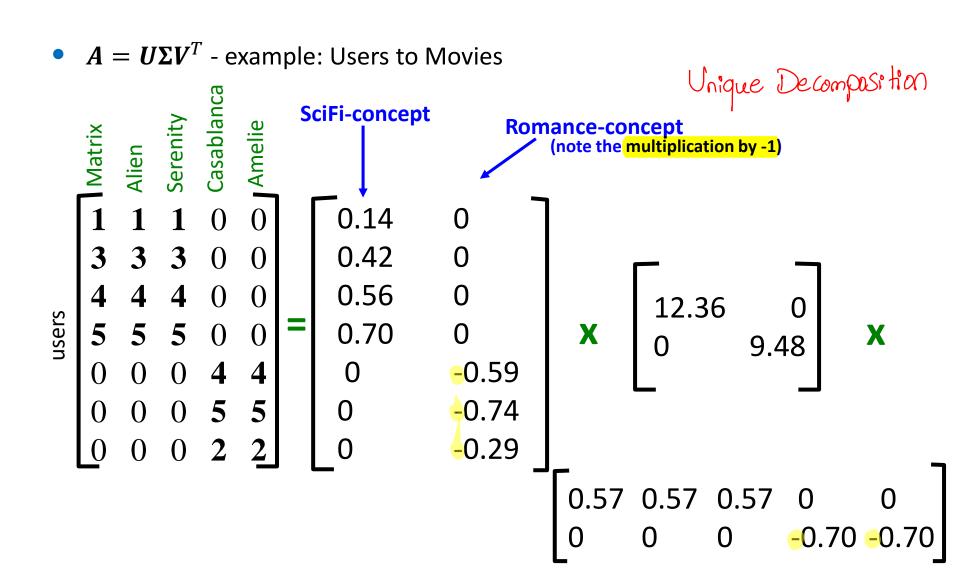
* Assuming A is face image, 1) Shall be called eigenfaces where rows express features

• $A = U\Sigma V^T$ - example: Users to Movies



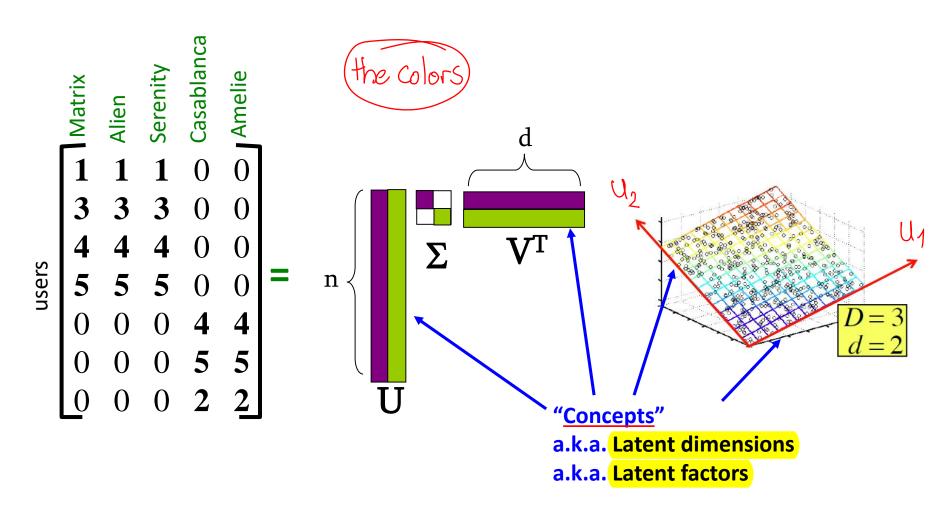
36

SVD Example: <u>Users-to-Movies</u>



SVD Example: Latent Factors

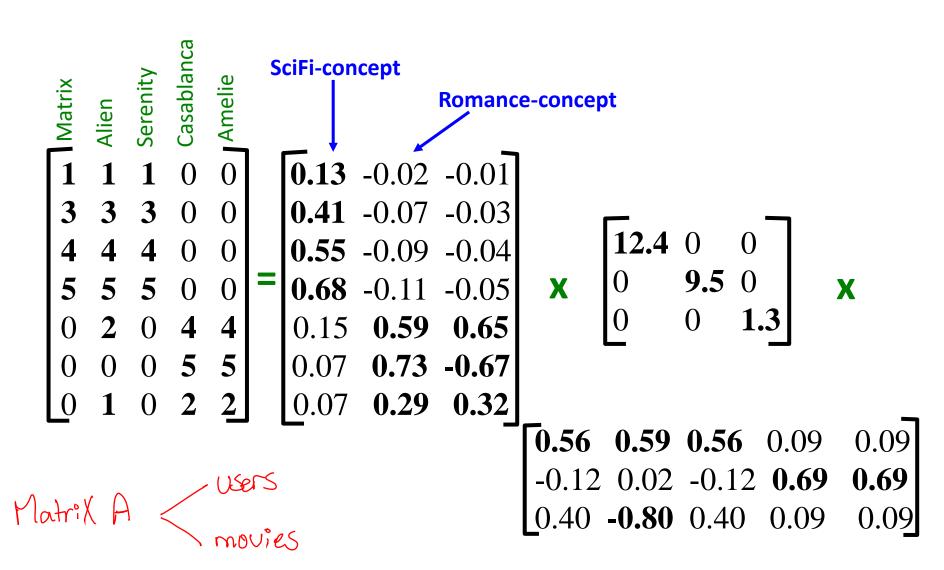
• $A = U\Sigma V^T$ - example: Users to Movies

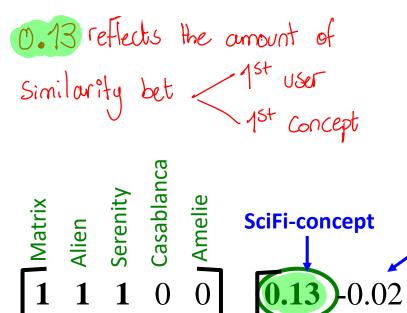


SVD Example: Beyond Blocks

Assuming we changed A

3X5





U is <u>"user-to-conce</u>pt" similarity matrix

Σ	Α	Sel	Ca	Ar				_
1	1	1	0	0	0.1	3	-0.02	-0.01
3	3	3	0	0	0.4	1	-0.07	-0.03
4	4	4	0	0	0.5	5	-0.09	-0.04
5	5	5	0	0	= 0.6	8	-0.11	-0.05
0	2	0	4	4	0.1	5	0.59	0.65
0	0	0	5	5	0.0	7	0.73	-0.67
0	1	0	2	2	0.0)7	0.29	0.32
								_

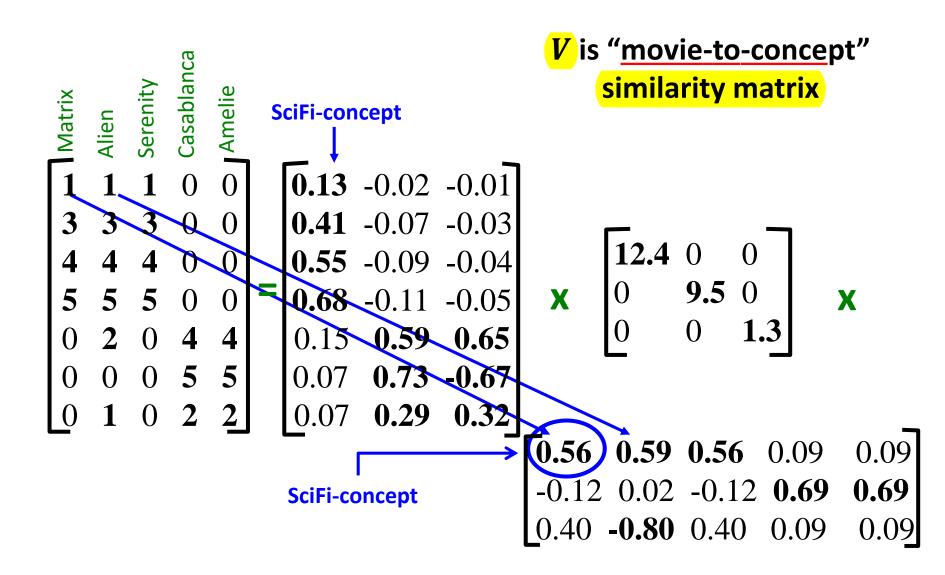
X when interpreting values, don't forget reflecting on all the multiplications UZVT

 0.56
 0.59
 0.56
 0.09
 0.09

 -0.12
 0.02
 -0.12
 0.69
 0.69

 0.40
 -0.80
 0.40
 0.09
 0.09

Romance-concept



SVD: Interpretation

X Such decomposition allows for unuealing the true latent dimensionality/rank, allowing for better interpretability of the factors U, Z & VT.

• $A = U\Sigma V^T$

* 'movies', 'users' and 'concepts':

- A original data: movies-to-users
- U: <u>user-to-conce</u>pt similarity matrix
- V: movie-to-concept similarity matrix
- Σ: its diagonal elements: 'strength' of each concept
- Benefits of SVD (or in general matrix decomposition):
 - Discover hidden correlations/topics
 - Words that occur commonly together; movies of the same genre; ...
 - Interpretation and visualization

Roadmap

- Chapter: Dimensionality Reduction & Matrix Factorization
 - 1. Introduction
 - 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
 - 3. Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - Idea: Low Rank Approximation
 - SVD & Latent Factors
 - Dimensionality Reduction
 - 4. Matrix Factorization
 - 5. Neighbor Graph Methods
 - 6. Autoencoders (Non-linear Dimensionality Reduction)

 \mathcal{O}

Recap: Dim. Reduction by Low Rank Approx.

• Idea: approximate original data A by a low rank matrix B

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1.01 & 2.05 & 0.9 \\ -2.1 & -3.05 & 1.1 \\ 2.99 & 5.01 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = B$$

- Important: Even though both A and B are $\in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ we need only two coordinates per point to describe B
 - $-\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = 3 \text{ vs. } \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{B}) = 2$ (3 vs. 2 coordinates per point)
- Goal: Find the <u>best low rank approximation</u>

best = minimize the sum of reconstruction error

- Given matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, find $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ with rank(B) = k that minimizes

$$\|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\|_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^D (a_{ij} - b_{ij})^2$$

GOAL -> finding 2 basis vectors (2, because rank=2)

be for each, getting the new coord [stide 28]

SVD: Alternative Interpretation

• A = $U\Sigma V^T$ example: Movie 2 rating first right singular vector variance ('spread') on the v_1 axis 0.13 0.02 -0.01 **Movie 1 rating** 0.41 0.07 - 0.0312.4 0.55 0.09 0 -0.040.68 0.11 -0.05 0 0.15 **-0.59 0.65** -0.73 -0.67

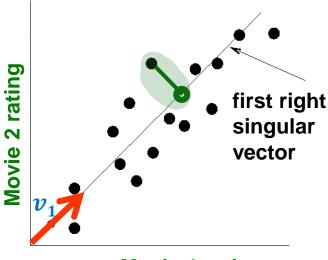
U Σ: Gives the coordinates of the points in the projection axis

"new coord"

Projection of users on the "Sci-Fi" axis U Σ :

1	1	1	0	0
3	3	3	0	0
4	4	4	0	0
5	5	5	0	0
0	2	0	4	4
0	0	0	5	5
0	1	0	2	2

_		
1.61	0.19	-0.01
5.08	0.66	-0.03
6.82	0.85	-0.05
8.43	1.04	-0.06
1.86	-5.60	0.84
0.86	-6.93	-0.87
0.86	-2.75	0.41_



Movie 1 rating

X

(8.43) -> 5th user enjoys sci-fi

SVD: Best Approximation

• How to find the best approximation?

• How to find the best approximation?

X

Set smallest singular values to zero!

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0.56} & \mathbf{0.59} & \mathbf{0.56} & 0.09 & 0.09 \\ 0.12 & -0.02 & 0.12 & -\mathbf{0.69} & -\mathbf{0.69} \\ 0.40 & -\mathbf{0.80} & 0.40 & 0.09 & 0.09 \end{bmatrix}$$

Interpretation of 1.3: how spread data around V3

L low variance, hence to be ignered

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0.13 & 0.02 & -0.01 \\ 0.41 & 0.07 & -0.03 \\ 0.55 & 0.09 & -0.04 \\ 0.68 & 0.11 & -0.05 \\ 0.15 & -0.59 & 0.65 \\ 0.07 & -0.73 & -0.67 \\ 0.07 & -0.29 & 0.32 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 12.4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 9.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \times 3 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 12.4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 9.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \times 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

 1
 1
 1
 0
 0

 3
 3
 3
 0
 0

 4
 4
 4
 0
 0

 5
 5
 5
 0
 0

 0
 2
 0
 4
 4

 0
 0
 0
 5
 5

 0
 1
 0
 2
 2

 0.13 0.02 0.41 0.0712.4 0 0 9.5 0.55 0.09 0.68 0.15 -0.59 0.07 -0.73 **0.56 0.59 0.56** 0.09 0.09 0.12 -0.02 0.12 **-0.69 -0.69** 7X2

52

$$A = \omega_1 U_1 V_1^T + \omega_2 U_2 V_2^T$$

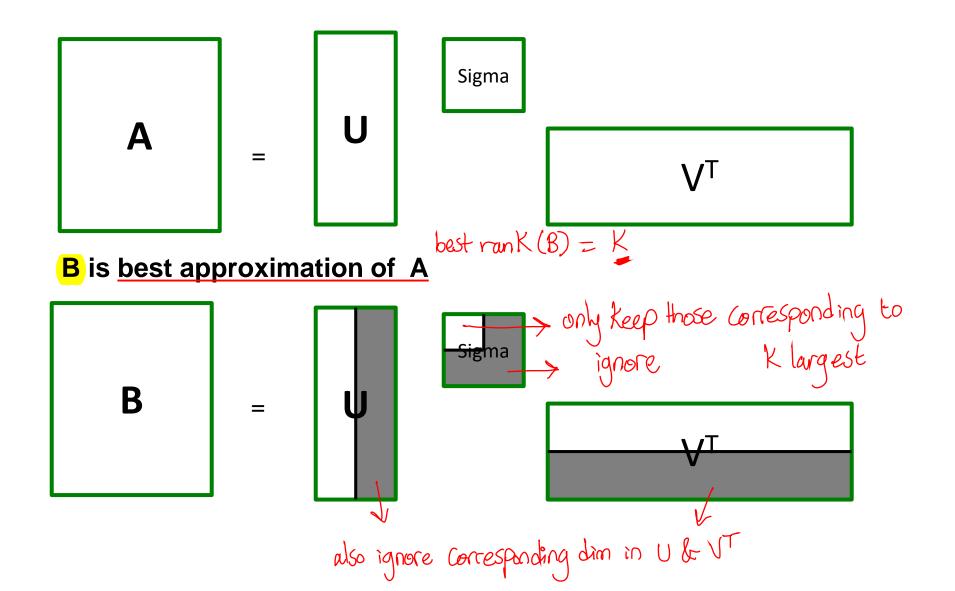
by construction, the rank of the new matrix is 2

```
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0.92 & 0.95 & 0.92 & 0.01 \\ 2.91 & 3.01 & 2.91 & -0.01 \\ 3.90 & 4.04 & 3.90 & 0.01 \\ 4.82 & 5.00 & 4.82 & 0.03 \\ 0.70 & 0.53 & 0.70 & 4.11 \\ -0.69 & 1.34 & -0.69 & 4.78 \\ 0.32 & 0.23 & 0.32 & 2.01 \end{bmatrix}
                                                                                                                                     0.32 0.23 0.32 2.01 2.01
```

we Started

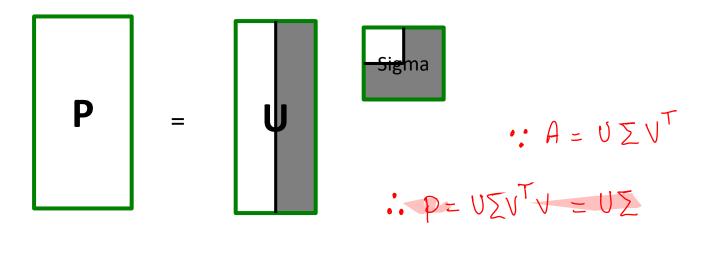
the reason for such good approximation is the value we removed is too small

SVD: Best Low Rank Approximation



SVD: Projection

Note: The actual projected/reduced data can be obtained by computing



• Or equivalently: $P = A \cdot V$

proj data Original data

right Singular values

(since V is orthonormal)

* No need to calc everything for U, I by Just largest K values

Best Approximation — Intuitive Explanation

- Recap: Vectors u_i and v_i are of unit length
- W.l.o.g.: $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \sigma_3 \ge ... \ge 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{3} & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{4} & \mathbf{4} & \mathbf{4} & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{5} & \mathbf{5} & \mathbf{5} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{2} & 0 & \mathbf{4} & \mathbf{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{5} & \mathbf{5} \\ 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1}$$

* Even having larges of u; v; would make no diff in terms of error Having both vectors u, & v; on the same scale, the resulting matrix after multiplication will also be on the same scale.

$$\sigma_1 \quad u_1 \quad v_1^T + \sigma_2 \quad u_2 \quad v_2^T + \dots$$

Q: How many σ_i to pick? A: Rule of thumb: keep 90% of 'energy' $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sigma_i^2 \ge 0.9 \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_i^2$

 $m{\gamma}$ σ_i scales the terms $m{u}_i \cdot m{v}_i^T$

laph Zeroing small σ_i introduces less error

Small Or -> Small error



O: corresponds to the variance

SVD: Best Low Rank Approximation - Proof

- Theorem: Let $A = U\Sigma V^T$ ($\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \cdots$, rank(A)=r) and $B = USV^T$ with S being a diagonal $r \times r$ matrix where
 - $s_i = \sigma_i$ for i=1...k and $s_i = 0$ else

Then B is a best rank-k approximation to A regarding Frobenius norm,

i.e. B is a solution to $\min ||A - B||_F$ where rank(B)=k

calc pullidan dist

- We have uploaded a detailed proof to the web
 - Note: Many proofs on the web and on other lecture slides are incorrect!
- Remark: B is also an optimal low-rank approximation regarding the spectral norm (operator 2-norm): $\min_{B} ||A - B||_2$
 - $||X||_2$ = largest singular value of X

SVD: Best Low Rank Approximation - Proof

Some facts:

- $\|X\|_F = \|X^T\|_F$
 - obvious from the definition
- $\|X\|_F^2 = \operatorname{trace}(X^T X)$

// trace = sum of diagonal entries

- easy homework
- Frobenius norm is invariant to orthonormal transformations U
 - Note: If $U^TU = I$ then also $UU^T = I$
 - $\|UX\|_F^2 = \operatorname{trace}((UX)^T(UX)) = \operatorname{trace}(X^TU^TUX) = \operatorname{trace}(X^TX) = \|X\|_F^2$
 - $\|XU\|_F^2 = \|(XU)^T\|_F^2 = \operatorname{trace}((XU)(XU)^T)$ $= \operatorname{trace}(XUU^TX^T) = \operatorname{trace}(XX^T) = \|X\|_F^2$
- $A = U\Sigma V^T$ then $||A||_F^2 = ||\Sigma||_F^2 = \sum_i^r \sigma_i^2$
 - follows from above results

SVD: Complexity

- To compute SVD:
- $O(n \cdot d^2)$ or $O(n^2 \cdot d)$ (whichever is less)

 But: #rows #cols
 - Less work, if we just want singular values
 - or if we want first k singular vectors
 - or if the <u>matrix is sparse</u>
- Implemented in linear algebra packages like
 - LINPACK, Matlab, SPlus, Mathematica ...

SVD is used in dimensionality reduction solving linear sys of equations $Ax = b \qquad \text{A being non-square}, \qquad \text{Solver determined}$

SVD & PCA: Comparison

- Given data X (let's assume it is already centered)
- **SVD** gives us:
 - $X = U\Sigma V^T$
 - Projected data obtained by $X \cdot V$

(or truncated V)

- PCA computes the <u>eigendecomposition</u> of the covariance matrix
 - Covariance matrix: X^TX assuming X already contered
 - Eigendecomposition leads to $X^TX = \Gamma \cdot \Lambda \cdot \Gamma^T$
 - Projected data obtained by $X \cdot \Gamma$

(or truncated Γ)

Let us calculate:

$$- X^T X = (U \Sigma V^T)^T U \Sigma V^T = V \Sigma^T U^T (U \Sigma V^T) = V \Sigma \Sigma^T V^T = V \Sigma^2 V^T$$

 $-\Gamma=V$

PCA and SVD are equivalent!

 $-\Sigma^2 = \Lambda$

squared singular values are variances in new space!

SVD & PCA: Comparison

transform the data such that dimensions of new space are uncorrelated + discard (new) dimensions with smallest variance

=

find optimal low-rank approximation (regarding Frobenius norm) SVD

Remark: Computation of SVD



We can use the <u>eigendecomposition</u> to <u>calculate</u> the <u>singular</u> <u>value</u> <u>decomposition</u>

- $X^TX = (U\Sigma V^T)^TU\Sigma V^T = V\Sigma^TU^T(U\Sigma V^T) = V\Sigma\Sigma^TV^T = V\Sigma^2V^T$ $V = \text{eigenvectors of } X^TX$
- $XX^T = U\Sigma V^T (V\Sigma^T U^T) = U\Sigma \Sigma^T U^T$ - $U = eigenvectors of XX^T$
- left singular vec

- Drawback: Numerically instable
 - better to use specialized algorithms