

Dimension Reduction

Principle Component Analysis
Linear Discriminant Analysis

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Curse of dimensionality

Linear Algebra Background

Dimensionality Reduction

- **PCA (Principle Component Analysis)**
- **LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis)**

Application of PCA and LDA - Face Recognition

Curse of dimensionality

Curse of Dimensionality

We, as human, are experts in 1D, 2D, 3D, a bit less in 4D(time) and less so afterwards

In high dimensions (eg 20 is enough), counter intuitive properties appear

Eg:

- Sparsity
- Concentration of distances

...

Which we try to model here, to better understand why things go wrong (or not as good)

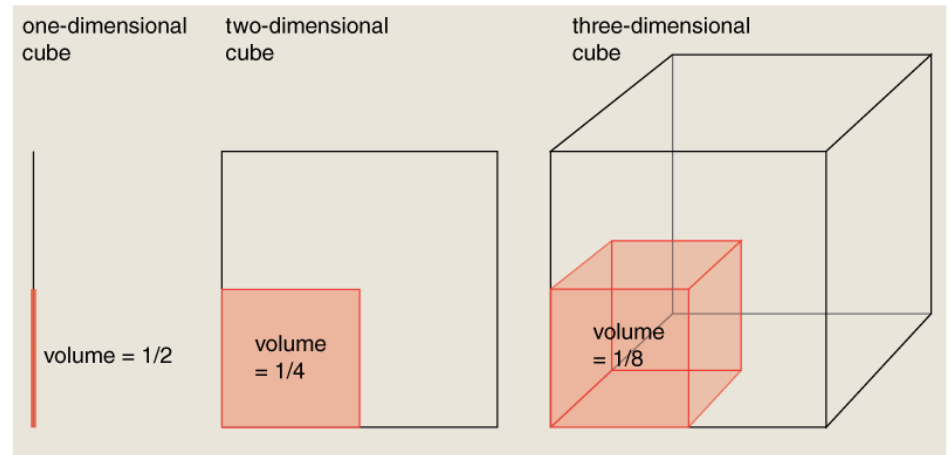
High dimensionality

Imagine a data sample in $[a, b]^M$

We quantify every dimension with k bins

To estimate the distribution
we require n sample in each bin in average

- $M = 1 : N \sim nk$
- $M = 2 : N \sim nk^2$
- $M = 3 : N \sim nk^3$
- \vdots
- $M : N \sim nk^M$



Ex) $k = 10, n = 10, M = 6$

$\Rightarrow N \sim 10,000,000$ samples required

Curse of Dimensionality

Sparsity

- N samples
- M dimensions
- k quantization steps

$\Rightarrow n$ samples per bin

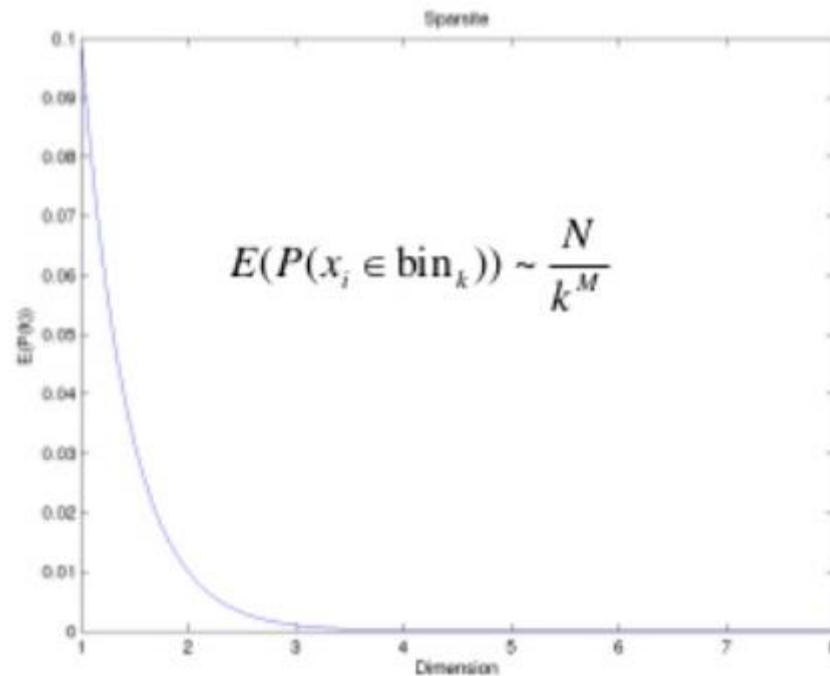
$$n \sim \frac{N}{k^M}$$

or

$$N \sim k^M$$

to maintain n constant

Curse of Dimensionality

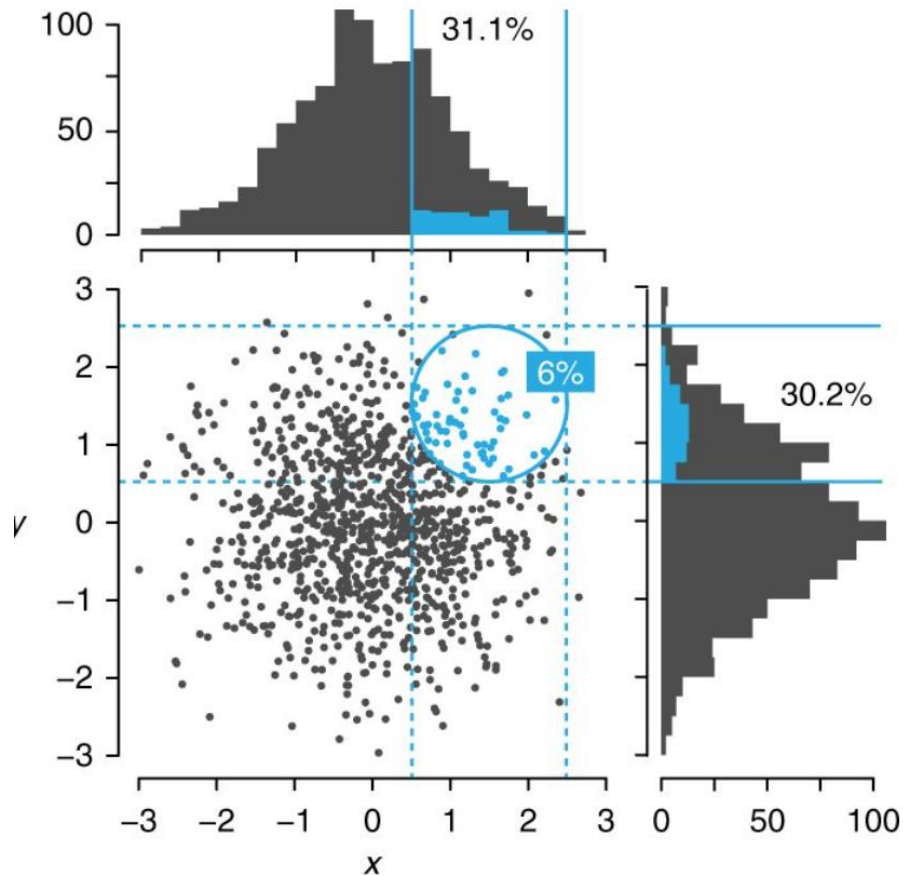


Consequences:

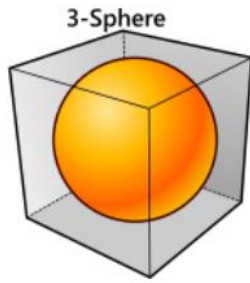
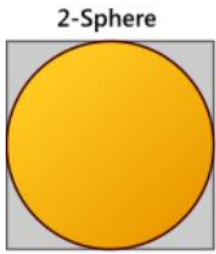
- with finite sample size (limited data collection), most of the cells are empty if the feature dimension is too high
- The estimation of probability density is unreliable

Curse of Dimensionality

Concentration of distances



Curse of Dimensionality



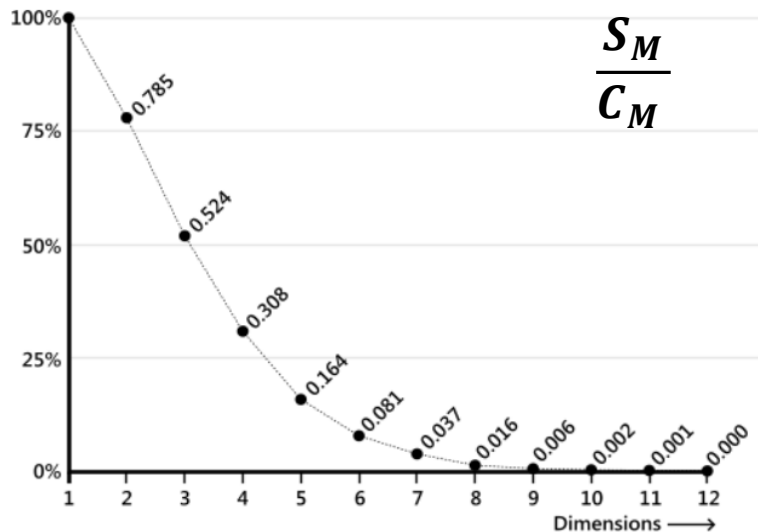
Volume of the hypersphere

$$S_M(R) = \frac{\pi^{M/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{M}{2} + 1)} R^M \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{M\pi}} \left(\frac{2\pi e}{M} \right)^{\frac{M}{2}} R^M$$

(Using Stirling's approximation)

Volume of the hypercube

$$C_M(R) = (2R)^M$$



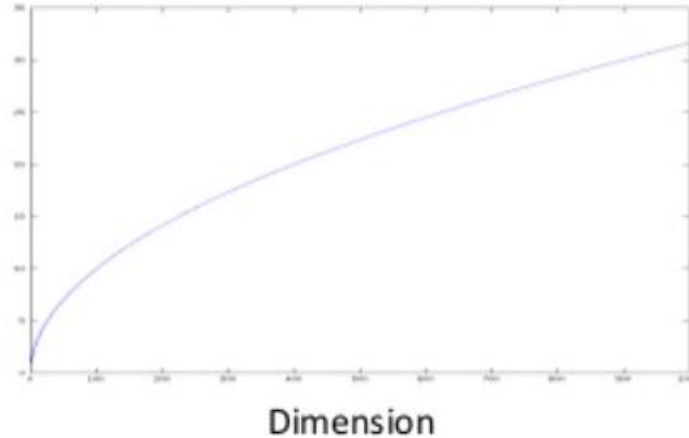
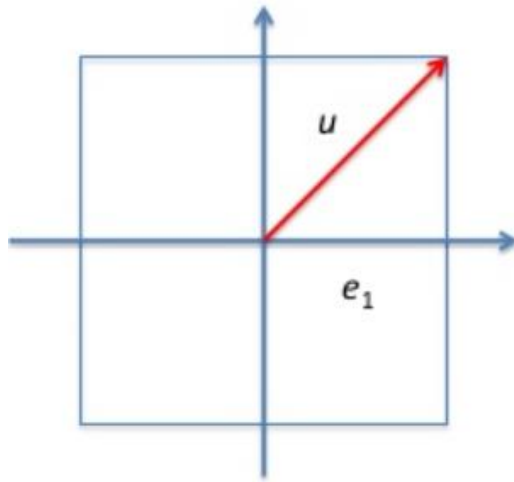
Consequences :

- The unit sphere becomes an insignificant volume relative to that of the unit cube.

In other words, almost all of the high-dimensional space is far away from the center.

High dimensional diagonals

In M dimension, the unit hypercube has as diagonal $u = [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1]^T$, then

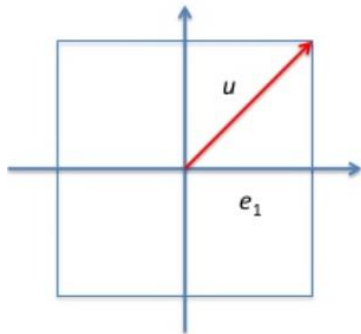


$$||u||_2 = \sqrt{M} \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } M \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\cos(\theta_M) = \cos(u, e_1) = \frac{u^T e_1}{||u||_2} = \frac{1}{||u||_2} \rightarrow 0$$

High dimensional diagonals

In M dimension, the unit hypercube has as diagonal $u = [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1]^T$, then



$$\theta_M \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}$$

- In high dimensions, all (2^{M-1}) diagonal vectors are orthogonal to the basis vectors
- High dimensional spaces have an exponential number of dimensions
- Everything along the diagonals is projected onto the origin

Dimensionality Reduction

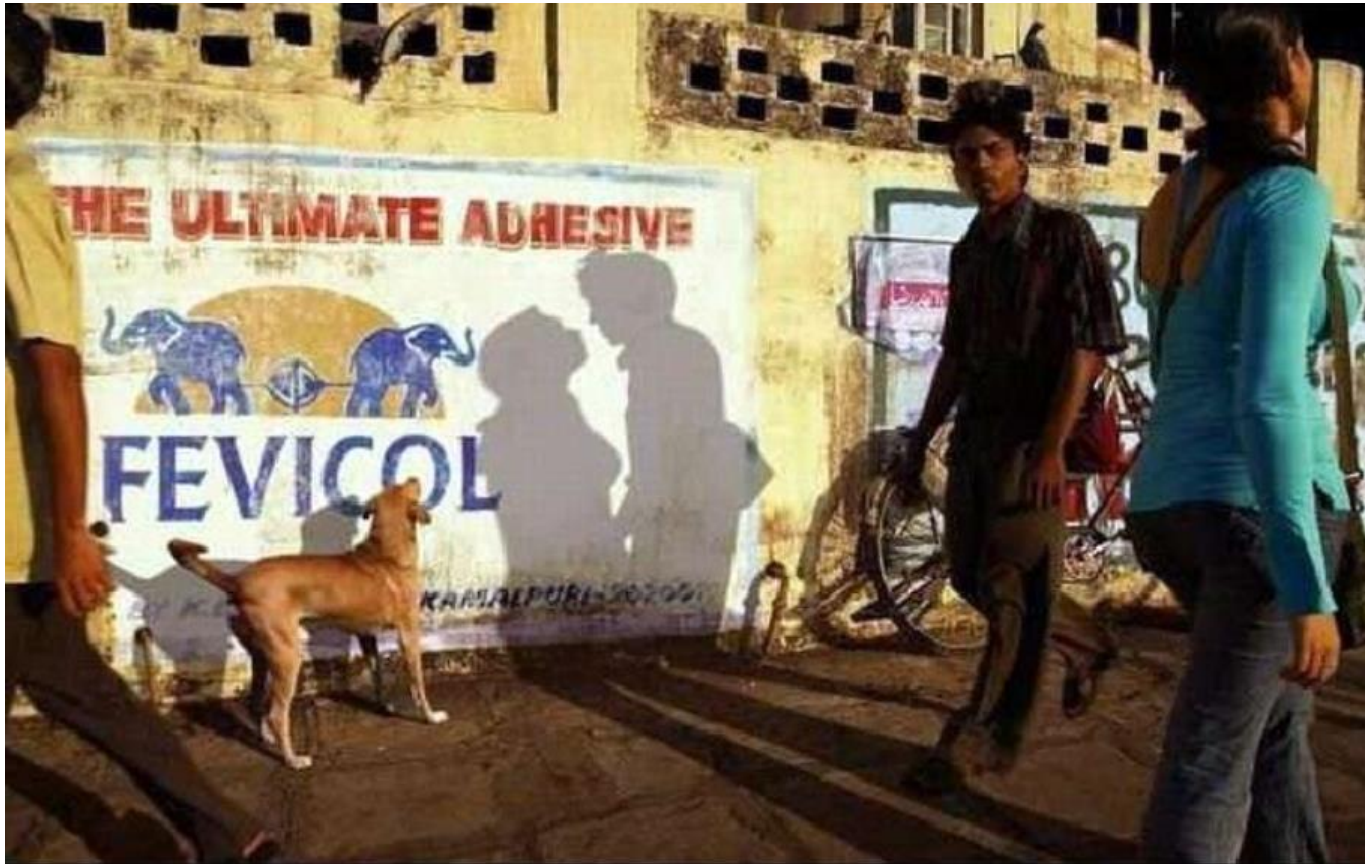
Purpose

- Avoid curse of dimensionality
- Reduce amount of time and memory required by data mining algorithms
- Allow data to be more easily visualized
- May help to eliminate irrelevant features or reduce noise

Feature Selection??

Dimensionality Reduction





While dimensionality reduction is an important tool in machine learning, we must always be aware that it can distort the data in misleading ways

Dimensionality Reduction

Feature Extraction

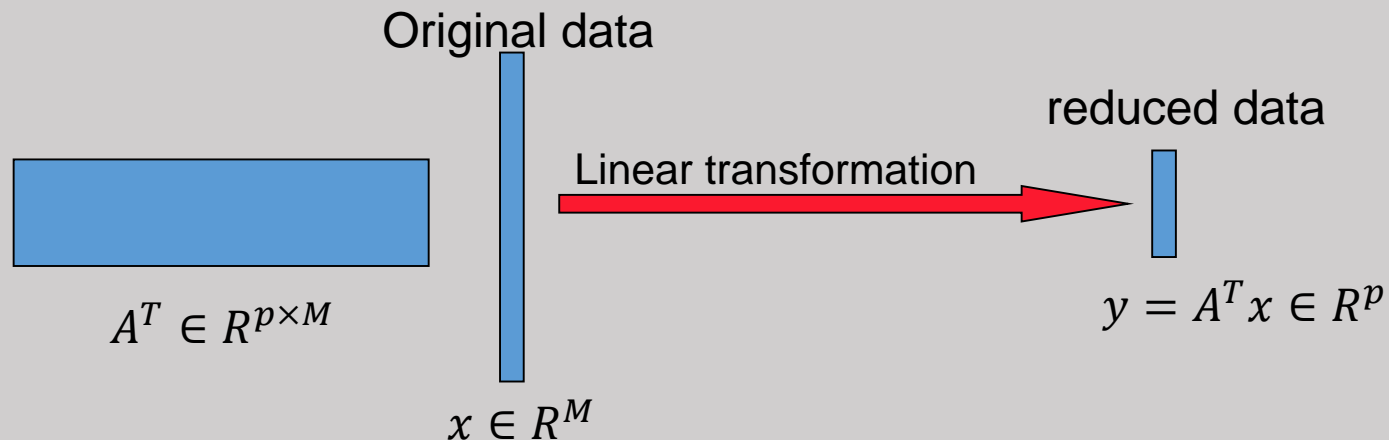
Some Techniques

- PCA (Principle Component Analysis)
- LDA (Linear Discriminant Analysis)
- Singular Value Decomposition
- Others : supervised and non-linear techniques

Dimensionality Reduction

Feature reduction refers to the **mapping of the original high dimensional data into a lower dimensional space**

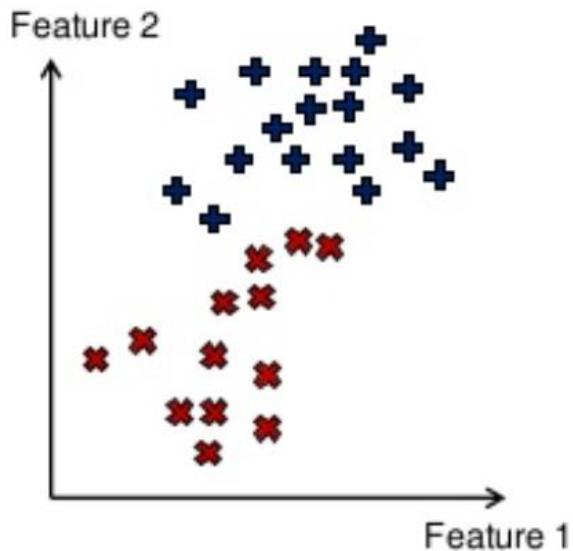
Given a set of data of M variables $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$
compute the linear transformation (Projection)



Criterion for feature reduction can be different based on different problem settings

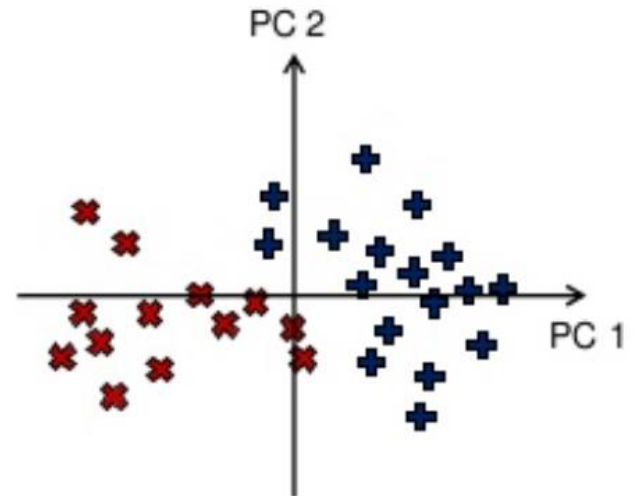
- Unsupervised setting: minimize the information loss
- Supervised setting: maximize the class discrimination

Dimensionality Reduction



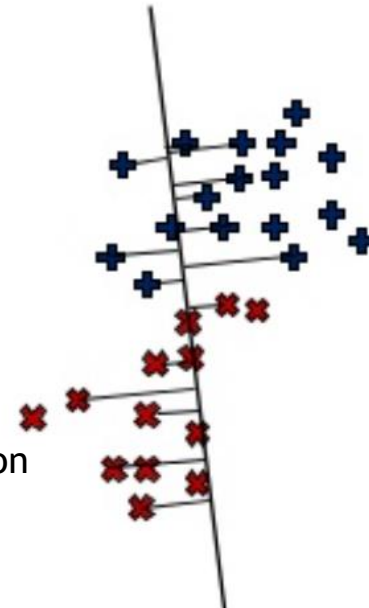
PCA

Unsupervised setting:
minimize the information loss



LDA

Supervised setting:
maximize the class discrimination



Linear Algebra Background

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

- **Eigenvector equation** (for a square $m \times m$ matrix S)

$$S\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

(right) eigenvector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m \neq \mathbf{0}$ eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

Example

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- How many eigenvalues are there at most?

$$S\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \iff (S - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$

only has a non-zero solution if $|S - \lambda\mathbf{I}| = 0$

this is a m -th order equation in λ which can have **at most m distinct solutions** (roots of the characteristic polynomial)

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

- ▶ Eigenvectors for distinct eigenvalues are **orthogonal**

$$\mathbf{S}\mathbf{v}_{\{1,2\}} = \lambda_{\{1,2\}}\mathbf{v}_{\{1,2\}}, \text{ and } \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle = 0$$

- ▶ All eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are **real**.

$$\text{for } \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, \text{ if } |\mathbf{S} - \lambda\mathbf{I}| = 0 \text{ and } \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}' \Rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

- ▶ All eigenvalues of a positive semidefinite matrix are **non-negative**

$$\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{S}\mathbf{w} \geq 0, \forall \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \text{ then if } \mathbf{S}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \Rightarrow \lambda \geq 0$$

Eigen Decomposition

- ▶ Let $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ be a **square** matrix with **m linearly independent eigenvectors** (a non-defective matrix)
- ▶ **Theorem:** Exists a (unique) **eigen decomposition** (cf. matrix diagonalization theorem)

$$S = U \Lambda U^{-1}$$

diagonal

similarity transform

- ▶ Columns of U are **eigenvectors** of S
- ▶ Diagonal elements of Λ are **eigenvalues** of S

$$\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m), \quad \lambda_i \geq \lambda_{i+1}$$

Symmetric Eigen Decomposition

- ▶ If $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is a **symmetric** matrix:
- ▶ **Theorem:** Exists a (unique) **eigen decomposition**

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^T$$

- where $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is **orthogonal**

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{U}' = \mathbf{U}^{-1} \\ \langle \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \end{array} \right.$$

*columns are orthogonal
and length normalized*

Spectral Decomposition

- ▶ **Spectral decomposition theorem** (finite dimensional, symmetric case, in general: normal matrices/operators)
- ▶ Eigenvalue subspaces

$$\mathcal{U}_\lambda = \{\mathbf{u} : \mathbf{S}\mathbf{u} = \lambda\mathbf{u}\} = \ker(\mathbf{S} - \lambda\mathbf{I})$$

- ▶ Direct sum representation

$$\mathbb{R}^m = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \lambda(\mathbf{S})} \mathcal{U}_\lambda$$

Singular Value Decomposition

- ▶ For an arbitrary matrix \mathbf{A} there exists a factorization (Singular Value Decomposition = **SVD**) as follows:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$

- ▶ Where

- (i) $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ $\mathbf{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$

- (ii) $\mathbf{U}'\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{V}'\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$ *orthonormal columns*

- (iii) $\mathbf{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k)$, $\sigma_i \geq \sigma_{i+1}$ *singular values (ordered)*

- (iv) $k = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$

Singular Value Decomposition

- ▶ Illustration of SVD dimensions and sparseness
- ▶ **Full SVD** (padded with zeros) vs. **reduced SVD**

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \bullet & & & & \\ & \bullet & & & \\ & & \bullet & & \\ & & & \bullet & \\ & & & & \bullet \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

Diagram illustrating the Full SVD decomposition of a 5x3 matrix A. Matrix A is 5x3. Matrix U is 5x5, with the last two columns highlighted in yellow. Matrix Σ is 5x5, with the last two rows highlighted in yellow. Matrix V^T is 3x3.

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \bullet & & & & \\ & \bullet & & & \\ & & \bullet & & \\ & & & \bullet & \\ & & & & \bullet \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

Diagram illustrating the Reduced SVD decomposition of a 3x5 matrix A. Matrix A is 3x5. Matrix U is 3x3. Matrix Σ is 3x5, with the last two columns highlighted in yellow. Matrix V^T is 5x5, with the last two rows highlighted in yellow.

Low-rank Approximation

- ▶ SVD can be used to compute optimal **low-rank approximations**.
- ▶ Approximation problem:

$$\mathbf{X}^* = \underset{\hat{\mathbf{X}}: \text{rank}(\mathbf{X})=q}{\text{argmin}} \quad \|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|_F \longleftarrow \text{Frobenius norm}$$

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

- ▶ Solution via SVD

$$\mathbf{X}^* = \mathbf{U} \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_q, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{\text{set small singular values to zero}}) \mathbf{V}'$$

set small singular values to zero

$$\mathbf{X}^* = \sum_{r=1}^q \sigma_r \mathbf{u}_r \mathbf{v}_r' \longleftarrow \text{column notation: } \text{sum of rank 1 matrices}$$

Pattern Matrix


- ▶ Statistics and machine learning typically starts from data given in the form of **observations**, **feature vectors** or **patterns**

- ▶ Feature vectors (in some m -dimensional Euclidean space)

$$\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

- ▶ Patterns can be summarized into the **pattern matrix**

$$\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}'_1 \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{x}'_i \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{x}'_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1m} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{i1} & x_{i2} & \dots & x_{im} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \dots & x_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

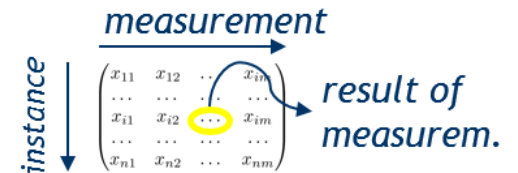
transposed i-th pattern 

Examples: Pattern Matrices

$$\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$

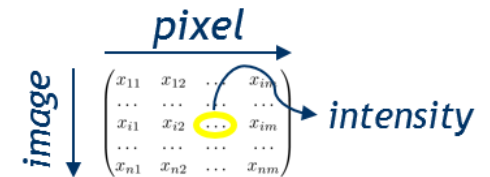
► Measurement vectors

- i : instance number, e.g. a house
- j : measurement, e.g. the area of a house



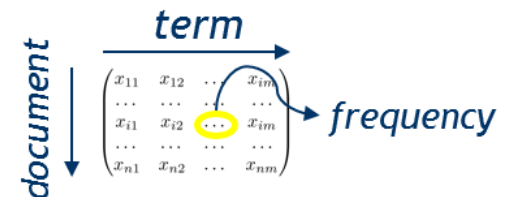
► Digital images as gray-scale vectors

- i : image number
- j : pixel value at location $j=(k,l)$



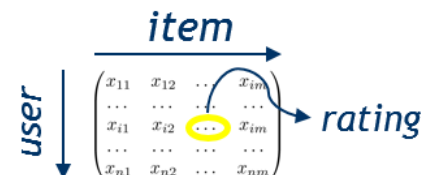
► Text documents in bag-of-words representation

- i : document number
- j : term (word or phrase) in a vocabulary



► User rating data

- i : user number
- j : item (book, movie)



Sample Covariance Matrix

- **Mean pattern and centered patterns**

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i \equiv \mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1' \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_2' \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n' \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{1}_n \bar{\mathbf{x}}'$$

- **Sample covariance matrix** measures (empirical) correlations between different features or dimensions

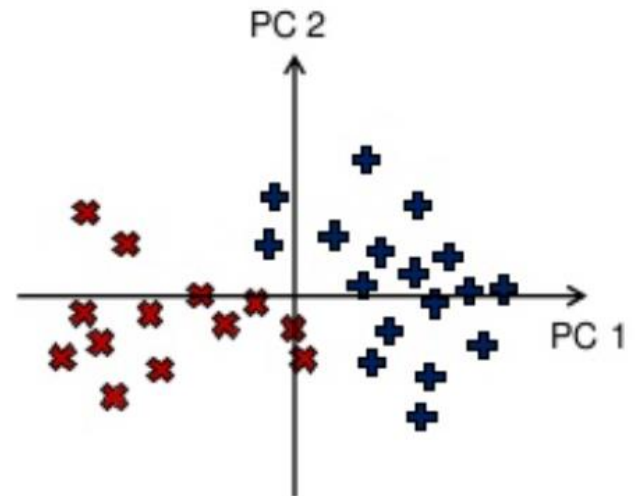
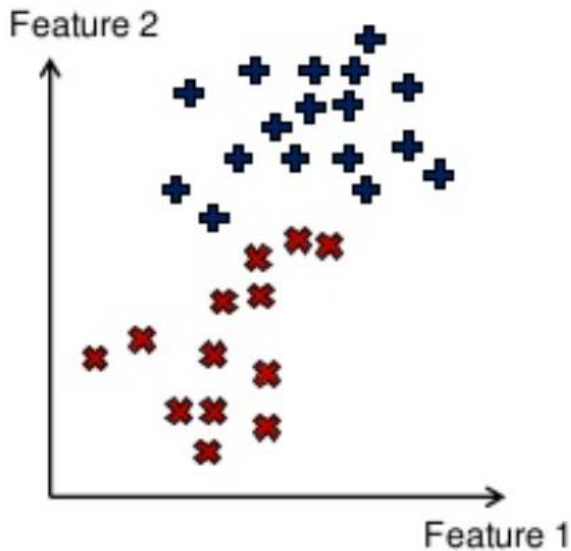
$$\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, \quad \mathbf{S} = (S_{rs})_{1 \leq r, s \leq m}, \quad S_{rs} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{x}_{ir} \tilde{x}_{is}$$

in terms of the pattern matrix

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{n} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}}$$

PCA

Principle Component Analysis



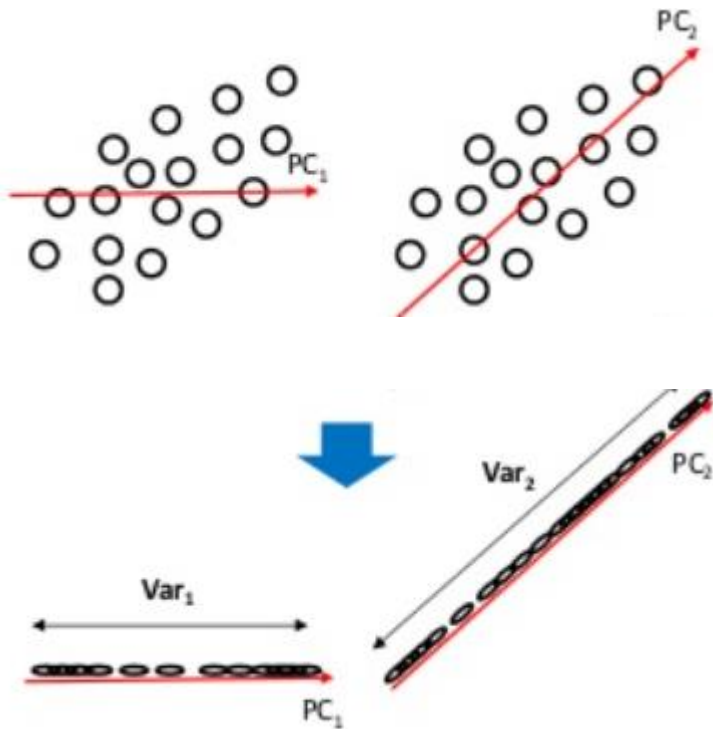
Principle Components Analysis

Idea:

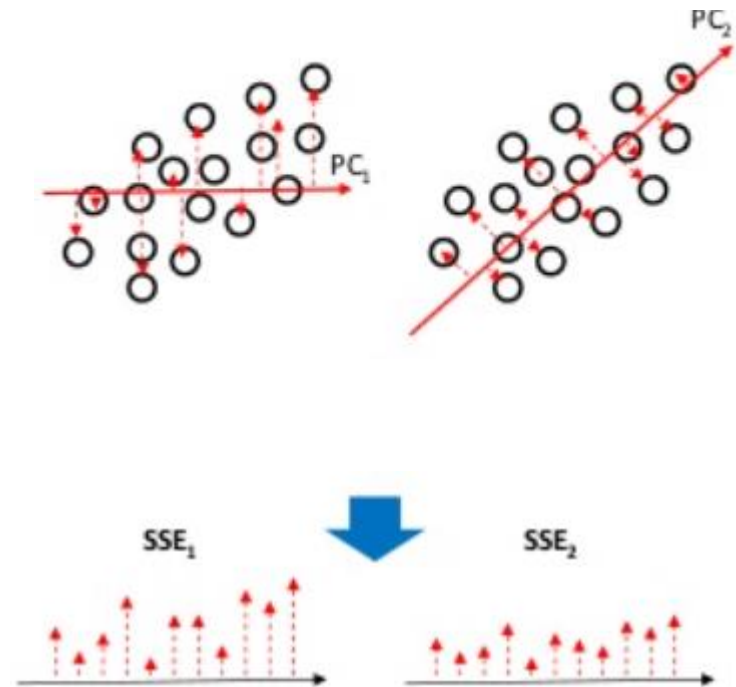
- Given data points in a M -dimensional space, project into **lower dimensional** space while **preserving as much information** as possible
Eg,
 - find best planar approximation to 3D data
 - find best 12-D approximation to 10^4 -D data
- In particular,
 - (1) choose projection that ***minimizes squared error*** in reconstructing original data
 - (2) choose projection that ***maximizes the variance*** of the projected data

Principle Components Analysis

1) Maximum variance



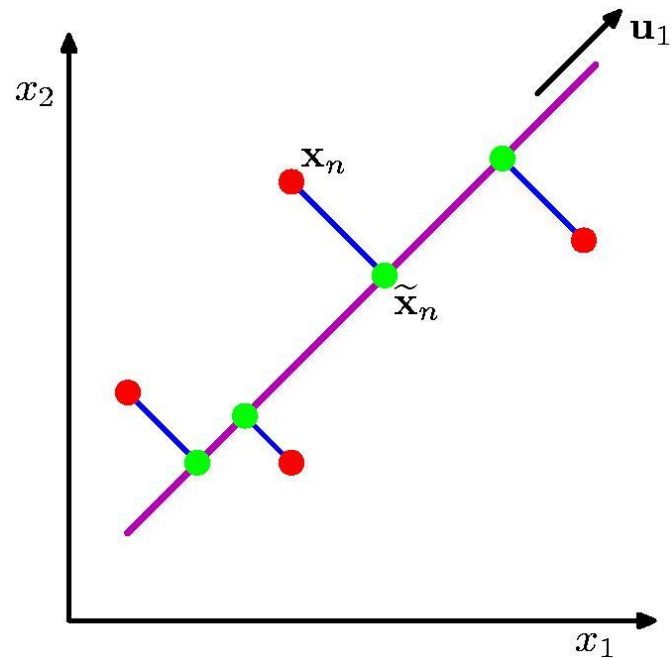
2) Minimum error



SSE: Sum of squared errors

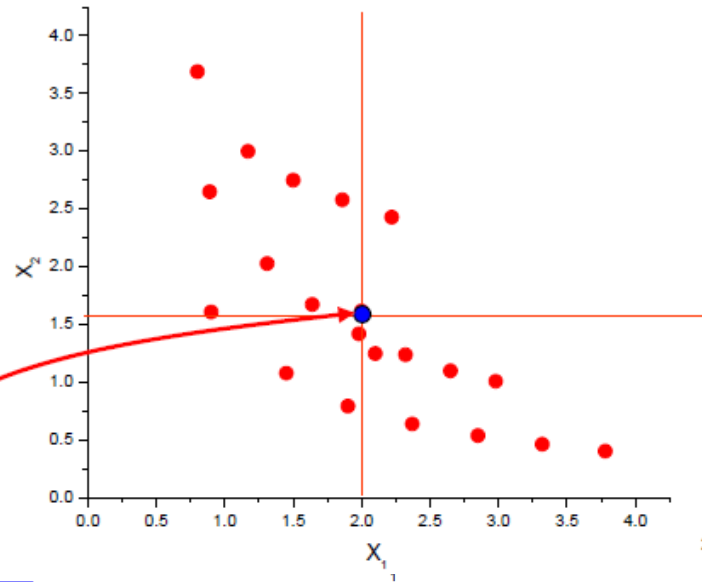
Principle Components Analysis

Given data points in a M -dimensional space, for large M , how does one project on to a 1 dimensional space?



Choose a line that fits the data so the points are spread out well along the line

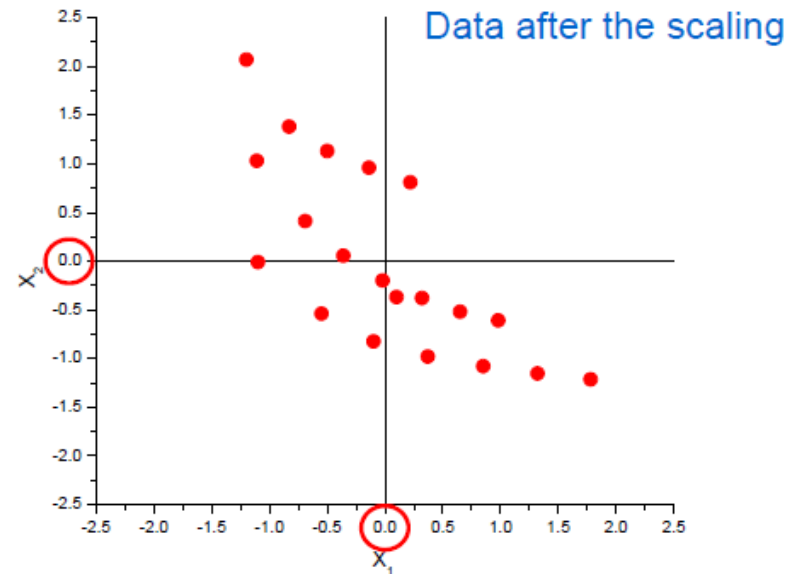
Mean centering



Avg. of X_1 Avg. of X_2

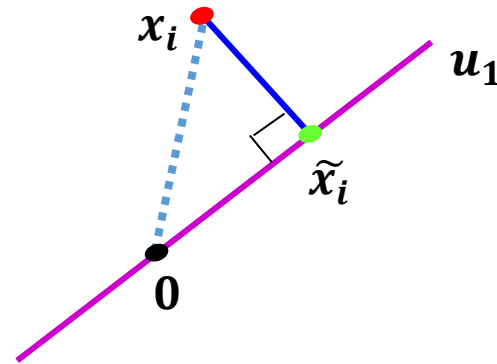
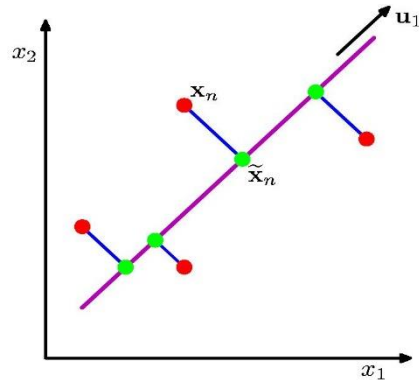
↓ ↓

(1.9995, 1.618)



Principle Components Analysis

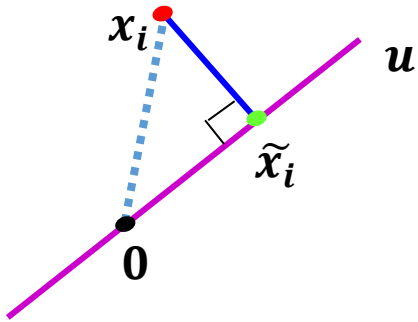
Given the **centered** data $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$, compute the principal vector:



- maximizes variance of projected data (purple line)
- minimizes mean squared distance between data point and projections (sum of blue lines)

$$\sum ||x_i||^2 = \sum (||\tilde{x}_i||^2 + ||x_i - \tilde{x}_i||^2) = \sum ||\tilde{x}_i||^2 + \sum ||x_i - \tilde{x}_i||^2$$

Principle Components Analysis



$$\tilde{x}_i = \frac{u^T x_i}{u^T u} u = (u^T x_i) u$$

$$\|u\| = 1$$

1st PCA vector

$$u_1 = \arg \max_{\|u\| = 1} \sum_{i=1}^m \|(u^T x_i) u\|^2 = \arg \max_{\|u\| = 1} \sum_{i=1}^m (u^T x_i)^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (u^T x_i)^2 = (u^T X)(u^T X)^T = u^T X X^T u = u^T (m \Sigma) u$$

$$X = (x_1 \mid x_2 \mid \dots \mid x_m)$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} X X^T = \frac{1}{m} \sum (x_i x_i^T) : \text{covariance matrix of } \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\},$$

$$u_1 = \arg \max_{\|u\| = 1} u^T \Sigma u$$

Lagrange Multipliers

$$\text{Maximize } f(x, y) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad g(x, y) = c$$

Need both f and g to have continuous partial derivatives.

We introduce a new variable λ , called a *Lagrange multiplier*, and the *Lagrangian* L defined by

$$L(x, y, \lambda) = f(x, y) - \lambda[g(x, y) - c]$$

Note that if $f(x_0, y_0)$ is a maximum of $f(x, y)$, then $\exists \lambda_0$ s.t. (x_0, y_0, λ_0) is a stationary point for the L , where the partial derivatives of L are zero.

Lagrange Multipliers

$$u_1 = \arg \max_{\|u\| = 1} u^T \Sigma u$$

- ▶ Lagrange multiplier technique

$$\mathcal{L}(u, \lambda) = \langle u^T \Sigma u + \lambda(\langle u, u \rangle - 1)$$

↓ *differentiation*

$$(\Sigma - \lambda I) u = 0 \iff \text{eigenvalue/vector equation}$$

- ▶ The solution must be an **eigenvector**. Which one?

$$u^T \Sigma u = \lambda \langle u, u \rangle = \lambda$$

↑ *eigenvector* ↑ *length one*

- ▶ The solution is the **principal** eigenvector (i.e. the one with the largest eigenvalue)

Principle Components Analysis

1st PCA vector $u_1 = \arg \max_{\|u\| = 1} \sum_{i=1}^m (u^T x_i)^2$

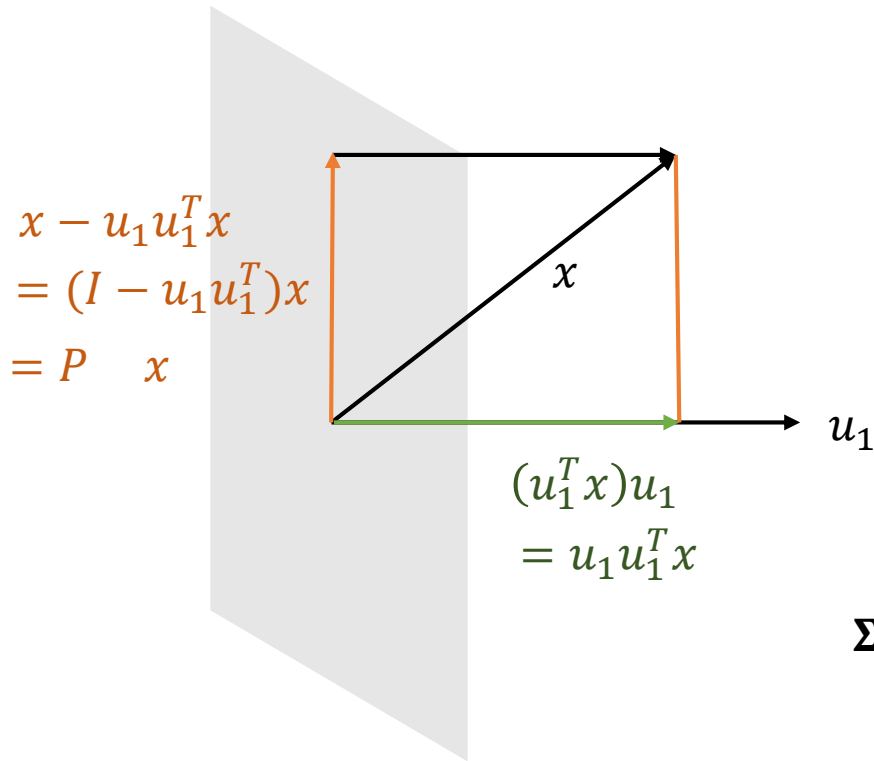
||

$$u_1 = \arg \max_{\|u\| = 1} u^T \Sigma u$$

||

1st eigenvector of Σ

Projection matrix



$$Pu_1 = (I - u_1 u_1^T)u_1 = u_1 - u_1 = 0$$

$$Pu_k = (I - u_1 u_1^T)u_k = u_k - 0 = u_k$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} X X^T$$

$$= \lambda_1 u_1 u_1^T + \lambda_2 u_2 u_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_M u_M u_M^T$$

$$P \Sigma P^T = P(\lambda_1 u_1 u_1^T + \lambda_2 u_2 u_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_M u_M u_M^T) P^T$$

$$= \lambda_1 P u_1 u_1^T P^T + \lambda_2 P u_2 u_2^T P^T + \cdots + \lambda_M P u_M u_M^T P^T$$

$$= \lambda_2 u_2 u_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_M u_M u_M^T$$

u_2 is the 1st eigenvector of $P \Sigma P^T$

Principle Components Analysis

$$\text{2nd PCA vector} \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \underset{\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \|(\mathbf{u}^T(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{x}_i))\mathbf{u}\|^2$$

$$= \underset{\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \|(\mathbf{u}^T(\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}_i))\mathbf{u}\|^2$$

$$= \underset{\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

$$= \underset{\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \quad \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{u}$$

$$= \text{1st eigenvector of} \quad \mathbf{P} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{P}^T$$

$$= \text{2nd eigenvector of} \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$$

Principle Components Analysis

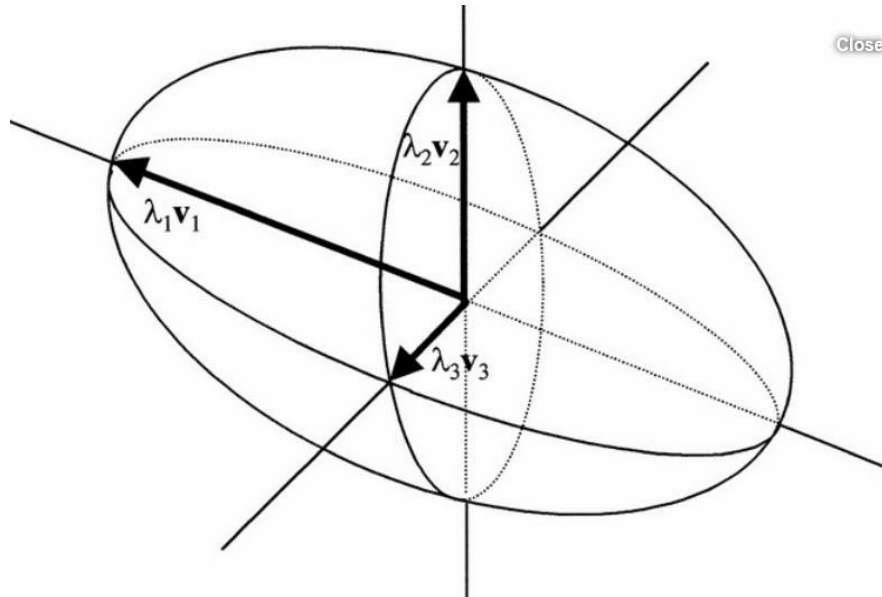
- To ensure that subsequent PCs are **uncorrelated**, search in the orthogonal complement of the directions identified so far. Spanned by remaining eigenvectors.

$$\text{Span}(\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) \perp \text{Span}(\mathbf{u}_k, \dots, \mathbf{u}_d)$$

$$\text{k}^{\text{th}} \text{ PCA vector} \quad \mathbf{u}_k = \arg \max_{\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[\mathbf{u}^T \left(\mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i \right) \right]^2$$

$$= \text{k}^{\text{th}} \text{ eigenvector of } \Sigma$$

Principle Components Analysis



PCA basis vectors = the eigenvectors of Σ

Larger eigenvalue \Rightarrow more important eigenvectors

Steps of PCA

(Step 1) **Mean centering**

Compute the average \bar{x} of given data $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$,
subtracted from the data

(Step 2) **Calculation of Covariance matrix($S = \frac{1}{m}XX^T$) of data**

**For symmetric matrices, their eigenvectors always are
at right angles to each other**

Eigenvectors of covariance matrix are orthogonal

(Step 3) **Calculation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of covariance matrix (S)**

Eigenvectors: the **orientations** of the principal axes of the ellipse

Eigenvalues: the **lengths** of each of the principal axes of ellipse

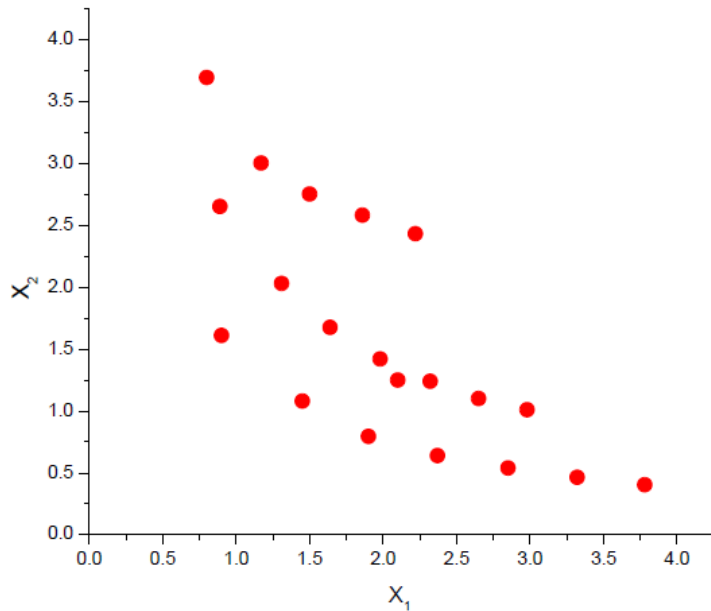
(Step 4) **Mathematical representations of transformation of axes**

Example of PCA

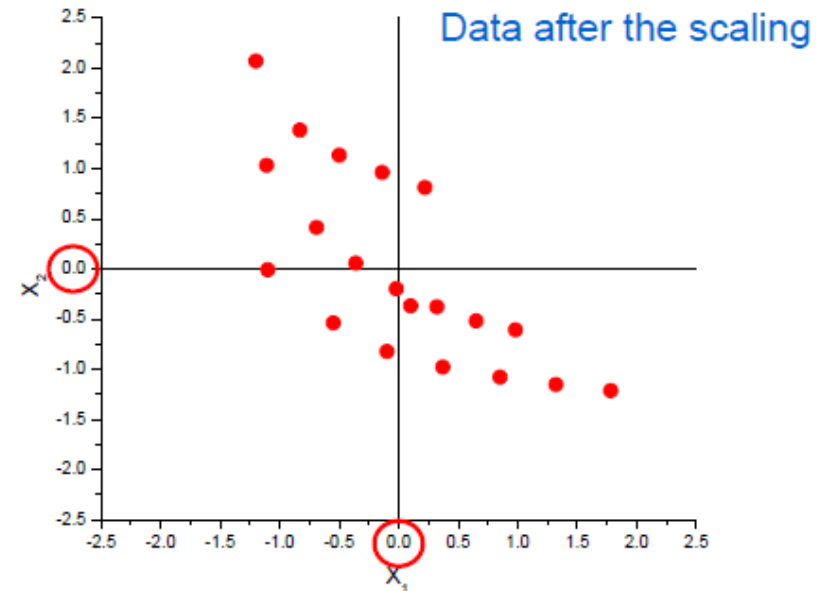
Sample NO.	Element	Martynov-Batsanov's Electronegativity (X_1)	Zunger's pseudopotential core radii sum (X_2)	Sample NO.	Element	Martynov-Batsanov's Electronegativity (X_1)	Zunger's pseudopotential core radii sum (X_2)
1	H	2.1	1.25	11	Al	1.64	1.675
2	Li	0.9	1.61	12	Si	1.98	1.42
3	Be	1.45	1.08	13	P	2.32	1.24
4	B	1.9	0.795	14	S	2.65	1.1
5	C	2.37	0.64	15	Cl	2.98	1.01
6	N	2.85	0.54	16	K	0.8	3.69
7	O	3.32	0.465	17	Ca	1.17	3
8	F	3.78	0.405	18	Sc	1.5	2.75
9	Na	0.89	2.65	19	Ti	1.86	2.58
10	Mg	1.31	2.03	20	V	2.22	2.43

Example of PCA

(Step 1) Mean centering



Avg. of X_1	Avg. of X_2
↓	↓
(1.9995,	1.618)



Example of PCA

(Step 2) **Calculation of Covariance matrix**($S = \frac{1}{m}XX^T$) of data

(Step 3) **Calculation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of covariance matrix (S)**

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6881 & -0.5929 \\ -0.5929 & 0.9026 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$$

Symmetrical

its eigenvectors are
orthogonal (90°)

See next slide...

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0.6881 - \lambda & -0.5929 \\ -0.5929 & 0.9026 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(0.6881 - \lambda)(0.9026 - \lambda) - (0.5929)^2 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 1.5907\lambda + 0.27 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1.5907 \pm \sqrt{(1.5907)^2 - 4 \times 0.27}}{2}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1.3978, \lambda_2 = 0.1928$$

Example of PCA

(Step 3) **Calculation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of covariance matrix (S)**

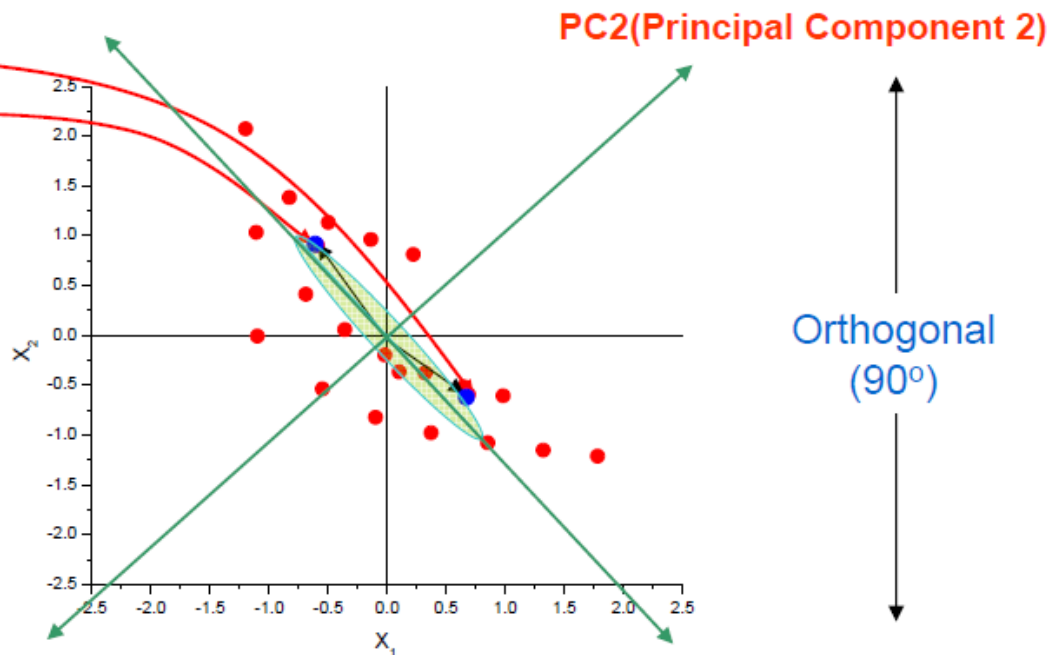
For $\lambda_1 = 1.3978$, Eigenvectors: -0.6411 & 0.7675 or (0.6411 & -0.7675)

For $\lambda_2 = 0.1928$, Eigenvectors: -0.7675 & -0.6411 or (0.7675 & 0.6411)

Covariance matrix of scaled data matrix, S

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6881 & -0.5929 \\ -0.5929 & 0.9026 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues:
the lengths of each of the principal axes
of ellipse



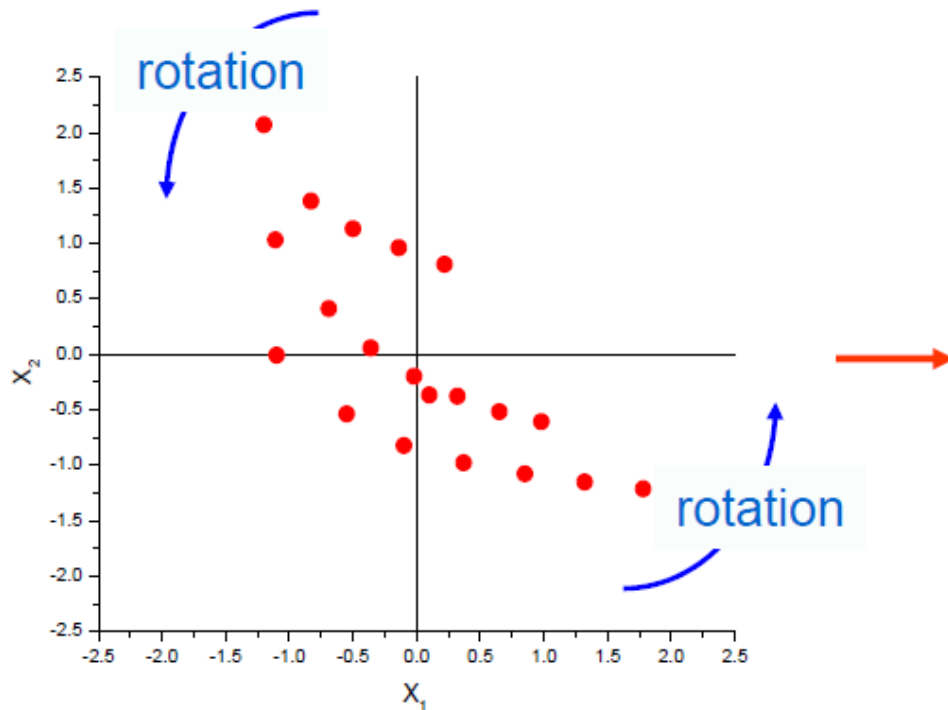
Slope of minor axis =
ratio of eigenvector of the second largest eigenvalue(λ_2)

Slope of major axis =
ratio of eigenvector of the largest eigenvalue(λ_1)

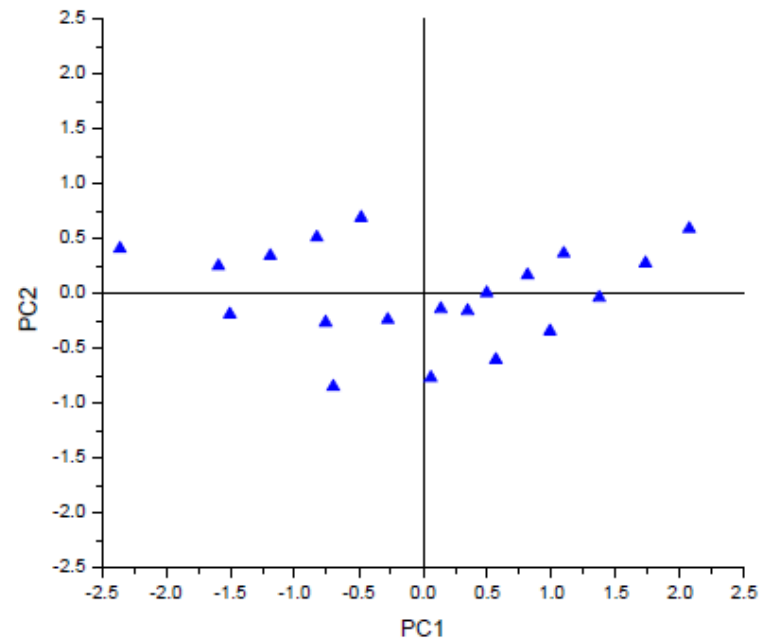
Example of PCA

(Step 4) **Mathematical representations of transformation of axes**

Original data set (scaled)



Score plot of scaled data set



LDA

Linear Discriminant Analysis

Linear discriminant analysis, two-classes

Objective

LDA seeks to **reduce dimensionality while preserving as much of the class discriminatory information as possible**

Assume we have a set M -dimensional samples $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$, N_1 of which belong to class C_1 , and N_2 to class C_2 .

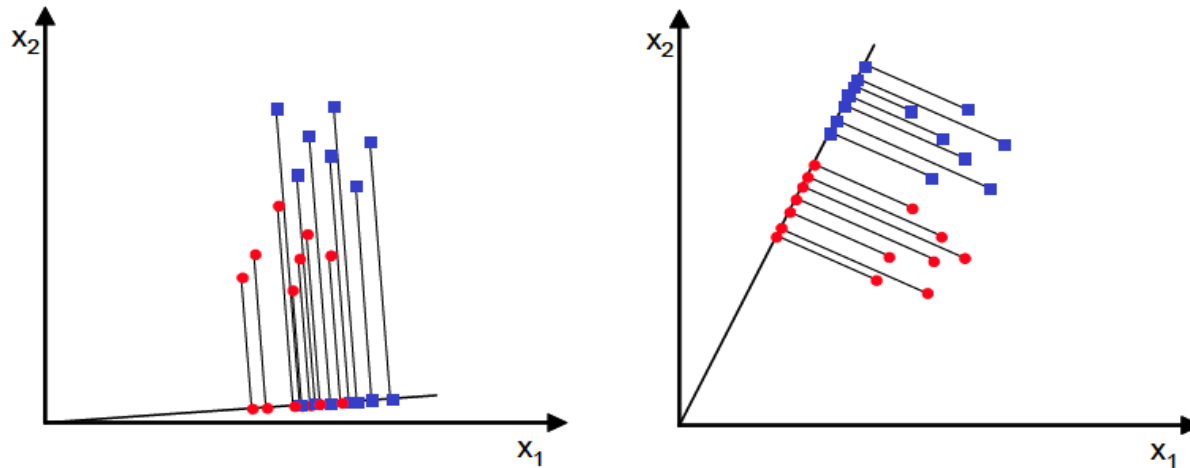
We seek to obtain a scalar y by projecting the samples x onto a line

$$y = u^T x$$

Of all the possible lines we would like to select the one that maximizes the separability of the scalars

Linear discriminant analysis, two-classes

What is a good projection vector u ?



We need to define a measure of separation

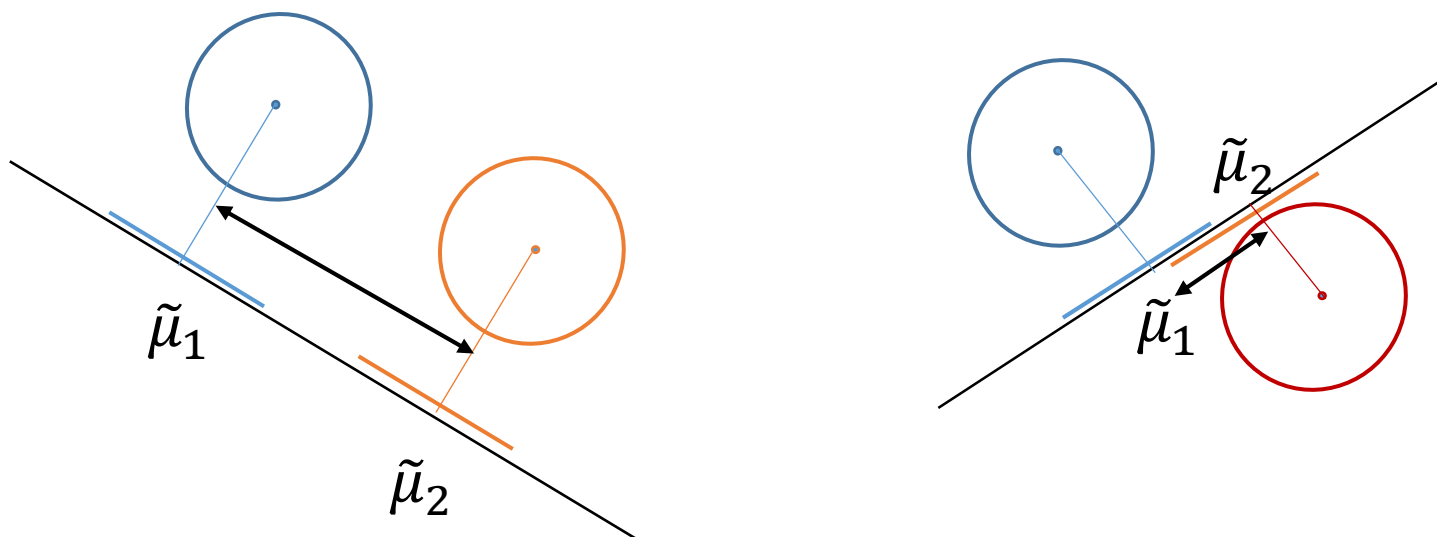
Linear discriminant analysis, two-classes

The mean vector of each class in x -space and y -space is

$$\mu_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{x \in C_i} x \quad \tilde{\mu}_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{x \in C_i} y = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{x \in C_i} u^T x = u^T \mu_i$$

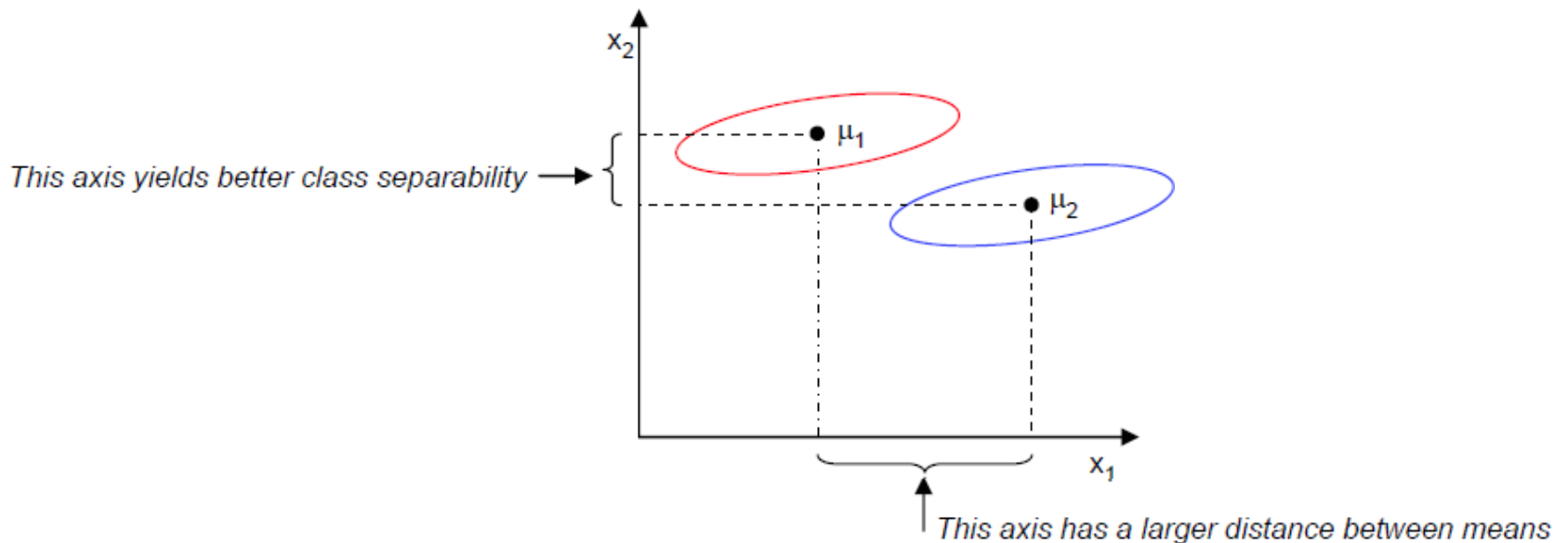
We could then choose the distance between the projected means as our objective function

$$J(w) = |\tilde{\mu}_1 - \tilde{\mu}_2| = |u^T(\mu_1 - \mu_2)|$$



Linear discriminant analysis, two-classes

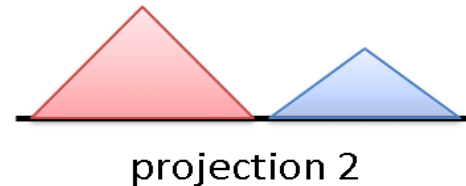
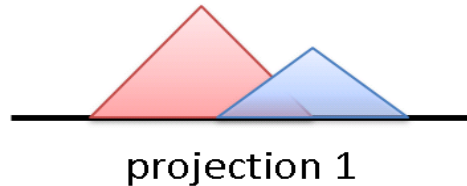
However, the distance between projected means is not good measure since it does not account for the standard deviation within classes



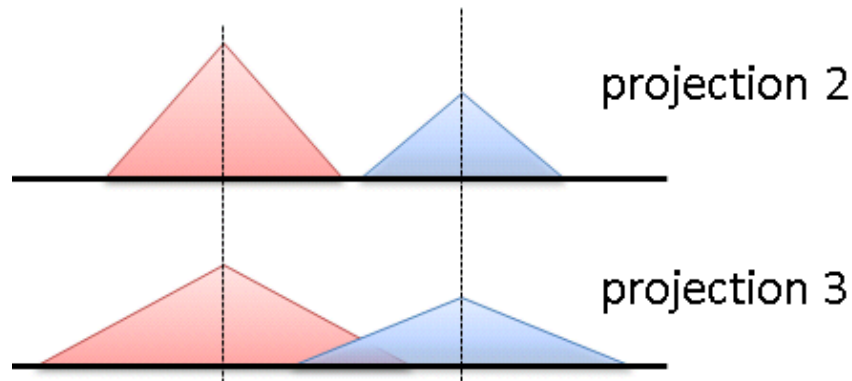
Linear discriminant analysis, two-classes

A good projection satisfies the following conditions:

The projected means are as far apart as possible



Examples from the same class are projected very close to each other



Fisher's solution

Fisher suggested maximizing the difference between the means
normalized by a measure of the within-class scatter

For each class we define the scatter, an equivalent of the variance, as

$$\tilde{s}_i^2 = \sum_{x \in C_i} (y - \tilde{\mu}_i)^2$$

$(\tilde{s}_1^2 + \tilde{s}_2^2)$ is called the **within-class scatter** of the projected examples

The Fisher linear discriminant is defined as the linear
function $u^T x$ that maximizes the criterion function

$$J(u) = \frac{|\tilde{\mu}_1 - \tilde{\mu}_2|^2}{\tilde{s}_1^2 + \tilde{s}_2^2}$$

$$J(u) = \frac{|\tilde{\mu}_1 - \tilde{\mu}_2|^2}{\tilde{s}_1^2 + \tilde{s}_2^2}$$

Within-class scatter

To find the optimum projection u^* ,
we need to **express $J(u)$ as an explicit function of u**

We define a measure of the scatter in multivariate
feature space x , which are scatter

$$S_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T \quad S_W = S_1 + S_2$$

where S_W is called the **within-class scatter matrix**

The scatter of the projection y can then be expressed as a
function of the scatter matrix in feature space x

$$\tilde{s}_i^2 = \sum_{x \in C_i} (y - \tilde{\mu}_i)^2 = \sum_{x \in C_i} (u^T x - u^T \mu_i)^2 = \sum_{x \in C_i} u^T (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T u = u^T S_i u$$

$$\tilde{s}_1^2 + \tilde{s}_2^2 = u^T S_W u$$

$$J(u) = \frac{|\tilde{\mu}_1 - \tilde{\mu}_2|^2}{\tilde{s}_1^2 + \tilde{s}_2^2}$$

Between-class scatter

The difference between the projected means can be expressed in terms of the means in the original feature space

$$\begin{aligned} (\tilde{\mu}_1 - \tilde{\mu}_2)^2 &= u^T (\mu_1 - \mu_2) u^T (\mu_1 - \mu_2) \\ &= u^T (\mu_1 - \mu_2) (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T u \\ &= u^T S_B u \end{aligned}$$

The matrix $S_B = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T$ is called the **between-class scatter**.

Note that, since S_B is the outer product of two vectors, its rank is at most one.

The Fisher criterion function
in term of S_W and S_B

$$J(u) = \frac{u^T S_B u}{u^T S_W u}$$

Fisher's linear discriminate

We need to solve

$$\max_{u \neq \mathbf{0}} \frac{u^T S_B u}{u^T S_W u}$$



$$\begin{aligned} &\max u^T S_B u \\ &\text{subject to } u^T S_W u = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Maximization problem
subject to an equality constraint

Method of Lagrange Multipliers

Lagrange Multipliers

$$L = u^T S_B u - \lambda[u^T S_W u - 1]$$

If A is a symmetric matrix $\nabla_u [u^T A u] = 2 A u$.

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } f(u) = u^T A u = a u_1^2 + (b + c) u_1 u_2 + d u_2^2$$

$$\nabla f(u) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(u)}{\partial u_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(u)}{\partial u_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2a u_1 + (b + c) u_2 \\ (b + c) u_1 + 2d u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2a & b + c \\ b + c & 2d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = (A + A^T) u$$

$$\therefore \nabla_u [u^T A u] = 2 A u$$

$$S_B = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T$$

$$S_W = S_1 + S_2, \quad S_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T \quad \text{are symmetric matrices.}$$

$$\nabla_u L = 2(S_B - \lambda S_W)u$$

Lagrange Multipliers

$$L = u^T S_B u - \lambda[u^T S_W u - 1]$$

$$\nabla_u L = 2(S_B - \lambda S_W)u = 0$$

$$S_B u = \lambda S_W u$$

The scalar λ in $S_B u = \lambda S_W u$ is **a generalized eigenvalue of the pair (S_B, S_W)** associated with the (generalized) eigenvector u .

Generalized eigenvalue

The scalar λ is called ***a generalized eigenvalue of the pair (A, B)*** associated with the (generalized) eigenvector v

$$Av = \lambda Bv \qquad (A - \lambda B)v = \mathbf{0}$$

The expression $A - \lambda B$ with indeterminate λ is called a ***matrix pencil***

The terms “matrix pair” and “matrix pencil” are used more or less interchangeably.

For example, if v is any eigenvector for the pair (A, B) , then we also say that v is any eigenvector of the matrix pencil $A - \lambda B$.

If B is nonsingular, then the generalized eigenvalue problem is equivalent to a standard eigenvalue problem

$$Av = \lambda Bv$$

$$B^{-1}Av = \lambda v$$

Generalized eigenvalue

$$S_B u = \lambda S_W u$$

Which generalized eigenvalue λ should we choose?

Recall that we want to solve $\max u^T S_B u$
subject to $u^T S_W u = 1$

Since the optimal u satisfies $S_B u = \lambda S_W u$, we have

$$u^T S_B u = \lambda (u^T S_W u) = \lambda$$

Hence we need to pick the largest generalized eigenvalue and its corresponding generalized eigenvector.

Generalized eigenvalue

- $S_B v$ for any vector v , points in the same direction as $\mu_1 - \mu_2$

$$\because S_B v = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T v = (\mu_1 - \mu_2) \alpha$$

If S_W is nonsingular, can convert this to a standard eigenvalue problem.

$$S_B u = \lambda S_W u \Rightarrow S_W^{-1} S_B u = \lambda u$$

Thus can solve the eigenvalue problem immediately

$$u = S_W^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$$

$$\because S_W^{-1} S_B u = S_W^{-1} S_B [S_W^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)] = S_W^{-1}[\alpha(\mu_1 - \mu_2)] = \alpha S_W^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2) = \alpha u$$

$$S_W = S_1 + S_2 \quad S_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T$$

LDA in 5 steps

(Step 1) Computing the M -dimensional mean vectors

(Step 2) Computing the Scatter Matrices

Within-class scatter matrix

$$S_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T$$

$$S_W = S_1 + S_2$$

Between-class scatter matrix

$$S_B = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T$$

(Step 3) Solving the generalized eigenvalue problem for the matrix

(Step 4) Selecting linear discriminants for the new feature subspace

(Step 5) Transforming the samples onto the new subspace

Example

Compute the LDA projection for the following 2D dataset

$$C_1 = \{(4,2), (2,4), (2,3), (3,6), (4,4)\}$$
$$C_2 = \{(9,10), (6,8), (9,5), (8,7), (10,8)\}$$

(Solution)

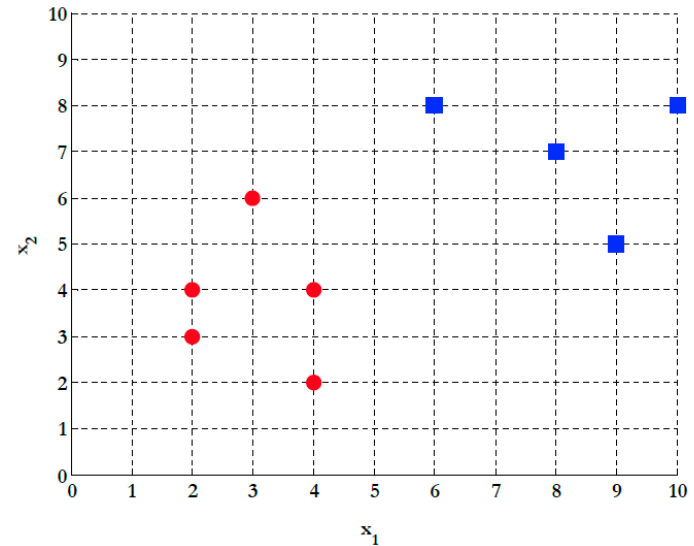
$$(\text{Step 1}) \quad \mu_1 = (3, 3.8), \mu_2 = (8.4, 7.6)$$

$$(\text{Step 2}) \quad S_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T$$

$$S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -.25 \\ -.25 & 2.2 \end{bmatrix}, S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2.3 & -.05 \\ -.05 & 3.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{The within class scatter } S_W = \begin{bmatrix} 3.3 & -.30 \\ -.30 & 5.5 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\text{between-class scatter } S_B = \begin{bmatrix} 29.16 & 20.52 \\ 20.52 & 14.44 \end{bmatrix}$$



Example

(Step 3) Solving the generalized eigenvalue problem $S_W^{-1}S_B u = \lambda u$

$$|S_W^{-1}S_B - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} 9.2213 - \lambda & 6.489 \\ 4.2339 & 2.9794 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 12.2007 \quad \lambda_2 = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 9.2213 & 6.489 \\ 4.2339 & 2.9794 \end{bmatrix} u_1 = 12.2007 u_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 9.2213 & 6.489 \\ 4.2339 & 2.9794 \end{bmatrix} u_2 = 0 u_2$$

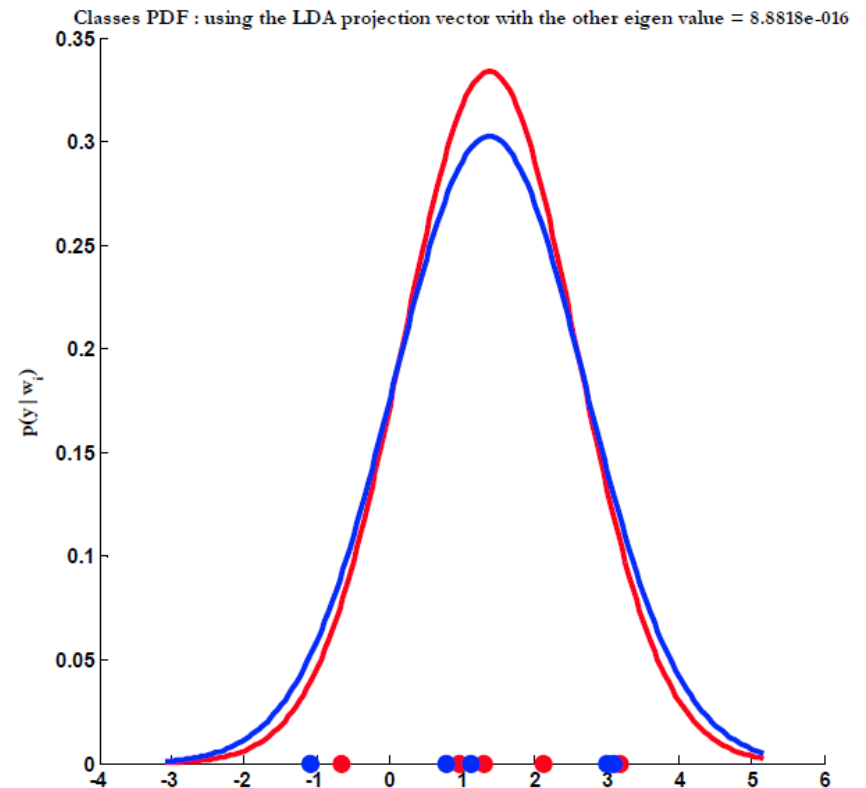
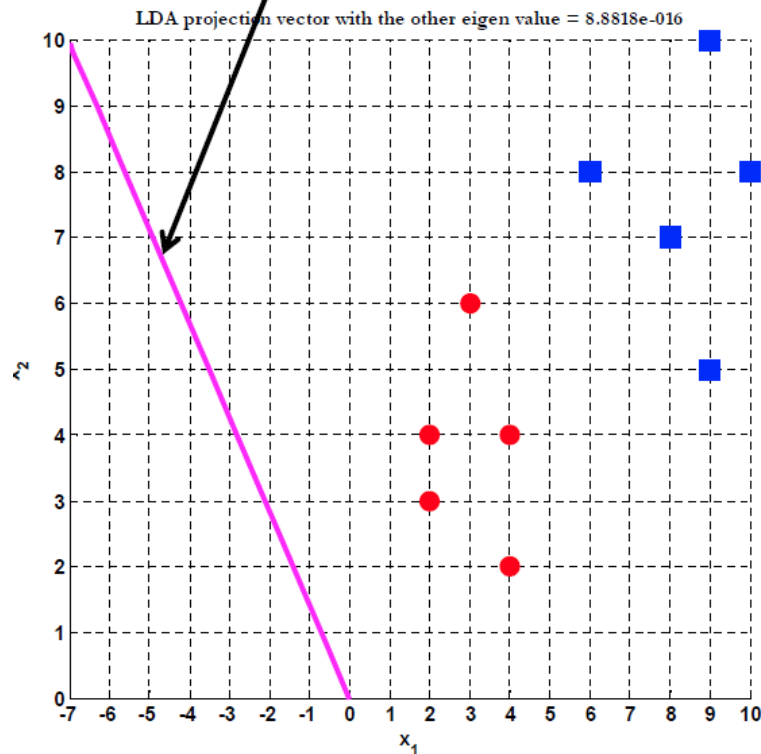
$$\Rightarrow u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9088 \\ 0.4173 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5755 \\ 0.8178 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example

$$\lambda_2 = 0 \quad u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5755 \\ 0.8178 \end{bmatrix}$$

The projection vector
corresponding to the
smallest eigen value

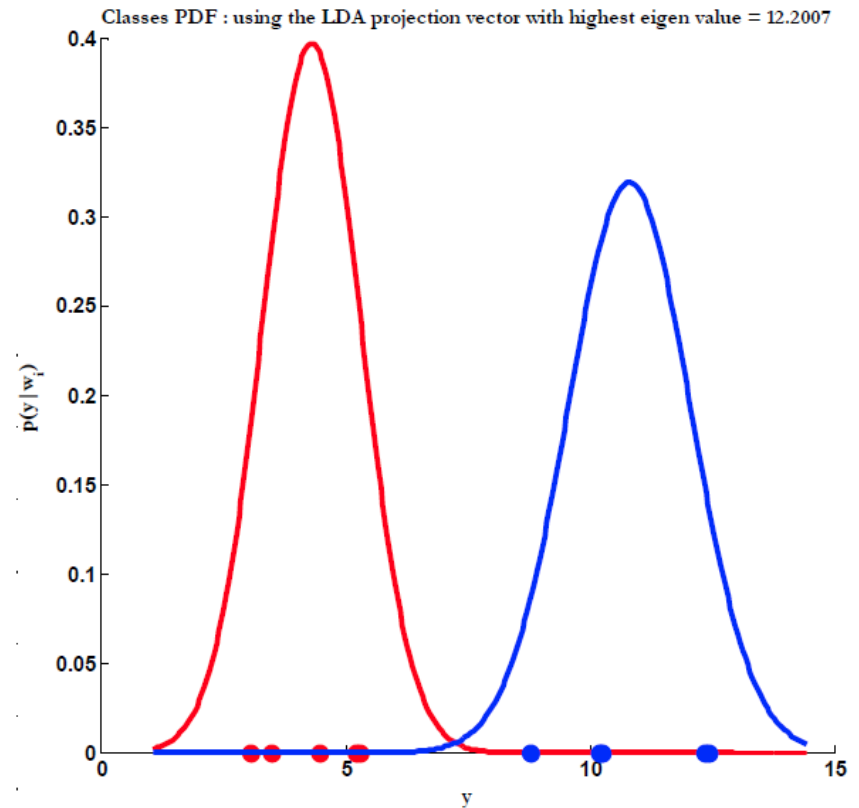
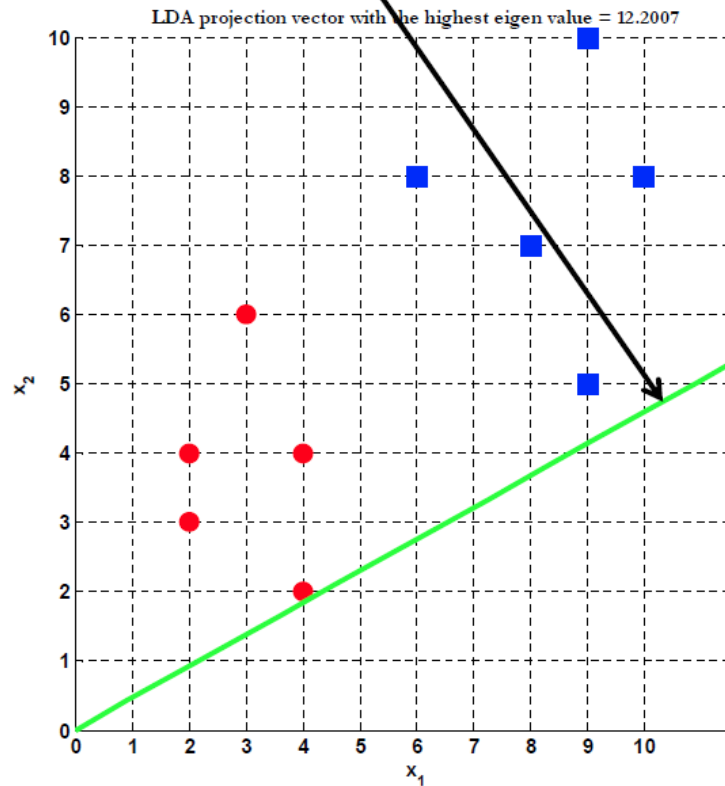


Using this vector leads to
bad separability
between the two classes

Example

$$\lambda_1 = 12.2007 \quad u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9088 \\ 0.4173 \end{bmatrix}$$

The projection vector
corresponding to the
highest eigen value



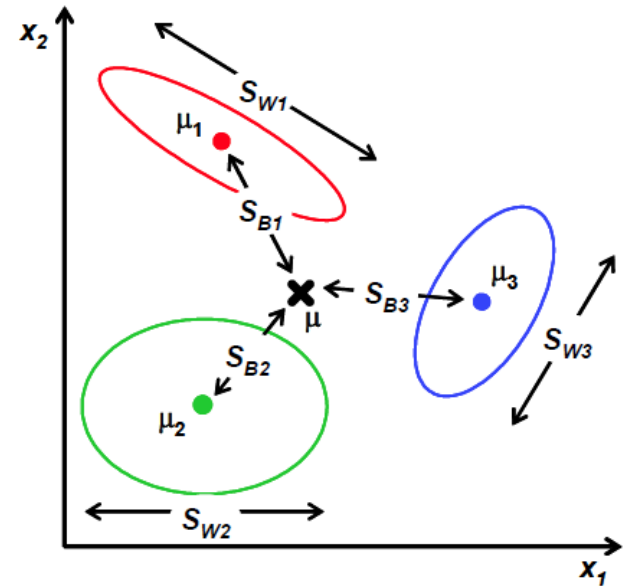
Using this vector leads to
good separability
between the two classes

LDA, C classes

Fisher's LDA generalizes for **C**-class problems

Instead of one projection y ,
we will now seek $(C - 1)$ projections $[y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{C-1}]$
by means of $(C - 1)$ projection vectors u_i
arranged by columns into a projection matrix
 $W = [u_1 | u_2 | \dots | u_{C-1}]$:

$$y_i = u_i^T x \Rightarrow y = W^T x$$



Derivation

The within class scatter generalizes as $S_W = \sum_{i=1}^C S_i$

where $S_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} (x - \mu_i)(x - \mu_i)^T$ and $\mu_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{x \in C_i} x$

The between-class scatter becomes

Where $\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\forall x} x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^C \mu_i$

$$S_B = \sum_{i=1}^C N_i (\mu_i - \mu)(\mu_i - \mu)^T$$

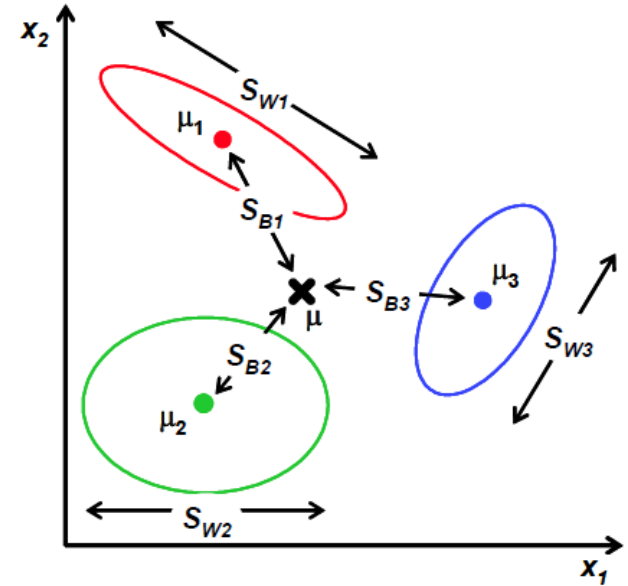
LDA, C classes

- Similarly, we define the mean vector and scatter matrices for the projected samples as

$$\tilde{\mu}_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{x \in C_i} y \quad \tilde{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\forall x} y$$

$$\tilde{S}_W = \sum_{i=1}^C \sum_{x \in C_i} (y - \tilde{\mu}_i) (y - \tilde{\mu}_i)^T$$

$$\tilde{S}_B = \sum_{i=1}^C N_i (\tilde{\mu} - \tilde{\mu}_i) (\tilde{\mu} - \tilde{\mu}_i)^T$$



LDA, C classes

- From our derivation for the two-class problem, we can write

$$\tilde{S}_W = W^T S_W W \qquad \tilde{S}_B = W^T S_B W$$

Recall that we are looking for a projection that

- **maximizes the ration of between-class to within-class scatter.**

Since **the projection is no longer a scalar** (it has $C - 1$ dimensions), we use the determinant of the scatter matrices to obtain a scalar objective function

$$J(W) = \frac{|\tilde{S}_B|}{|\tilde{S}_W|} = \frac{|W^T S_B W|}{|W^T S_W W|}$$

We will seek the projection matrix W^* that maximizes this ratio

LDA, C classes

- It can be shown that the optimal projection matrix W^* is the one whose columns are the eigenvectors corresponding to the largest eigenvalues of the following generalized eigenvalue problem

$$W^* = [w_1^* | w_2^* | \dots | w_{C-1}^*] = \arg \max \frac{|W^T S_B W|}{|W^T S_W W|} \Rightarrow (S_B - \lambda_i S_W) w_i^* = 0$$

Note that

S_B is the sum of C matrices of rank ≤ 1 and the mean vectors and constrained by

$$\frac{1}{C} \sum_{i=1}^C \mu_i = \mu$$

- therefore, S_B will be of rank $(C - 1)$ or less
- This means that only $(C - 1)$ of the eigenvalues λ_i will be non-zero

The projections with maximum class separability information are the eigenvectors corresponding to the largest eigenvalues of $S_W^{-1} S_B$

Example, Iris

The iris dataset contains measurements for 150 iris flowers from three different species.

The three classes in the Iris dataset:

Iris-setosa (n=50)

Iris-versicolor (n=50)

Iris-virginica (n=50)

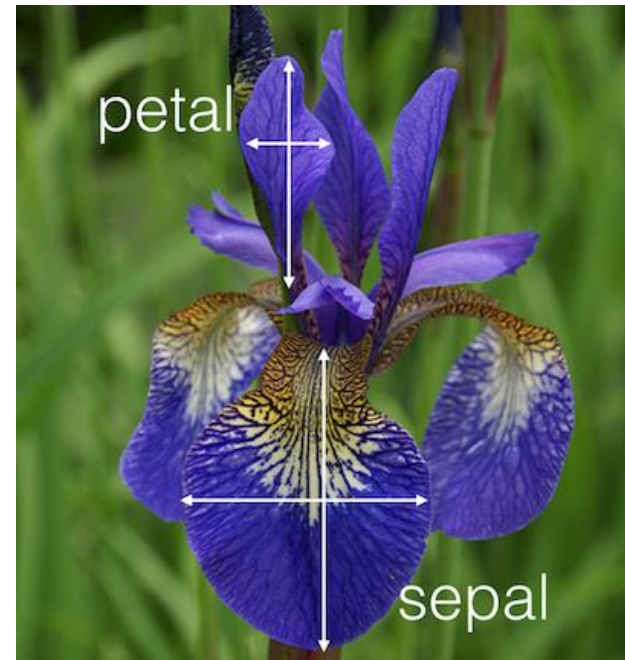
The four features of the Iris dataset:

sepal length in cm

sepal width in cm

petal length in cm

petal width in cm



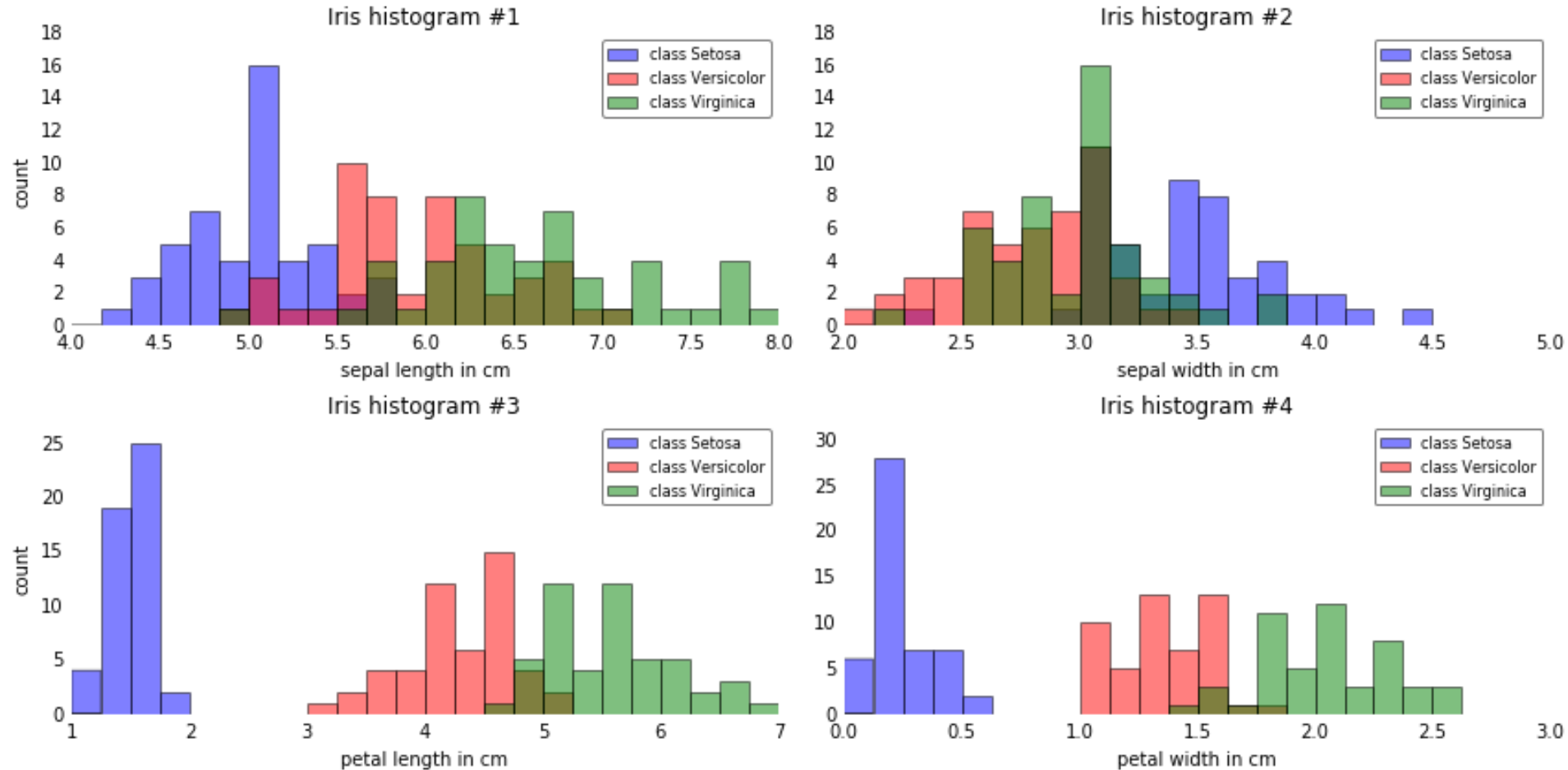
Example, Iris

	sepal length in cm	sepal width in cm	petal length in cm	petal width in cm	class label
145	6.7	3.0	5.2	2.3	Iris-virginica
146	6.3	2.5	5.0	1.9	Iris-virginica
147	6.5	3.0	5.2	2.0	Iris-virginica
148	6.2	3.4	5.4	2.3	Iris-virginica
149	5.9	3.0	5.1	1.8	Iris-virginica

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1_{\text{sepal length}}} & \mathbf{x}_{1_{\text{sepal width}}} & \mathbf{x}_{1_{\text{petal length}}} & \mathbf{x}_{1_{\text{petal width}}} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2_{\text{sepal length}}} & \mathbf{x}_{2_{\text{sepal width}}} & \mathbf{x}_{2_{\text{petal length}}} & \mathbf{x}_{2_{\text{petal width}}} \\ \dots & & & \\ \mathbf{x}_{150_{\text{sepal length}}} & \mathbf{x}_{150_{\text{sepal width}}} & \mathbf{x}_{150_{\text{petal length}}} & \mathbf{x}_{150_{\text{petal width}}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{\text{setosa}} \\ \omega_{\text{setosa}} \\ \dots \\ \omega_{\text{virginica}} \end{bmatrix}$$

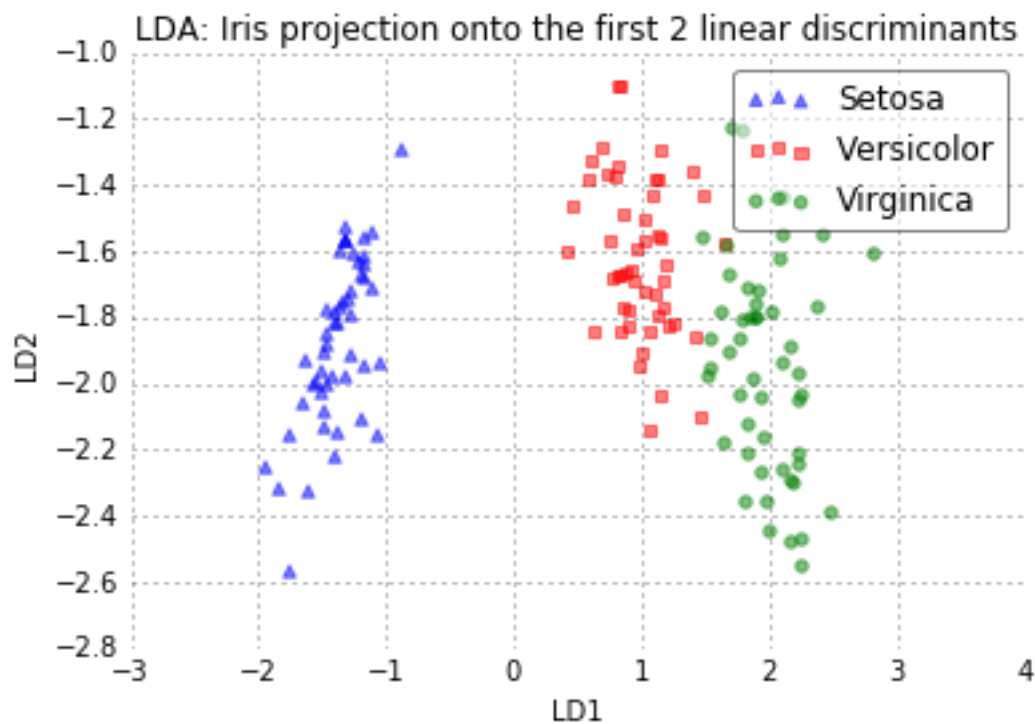
Example, Iris

Feature Selection



Example, Iris

Feature Extraction



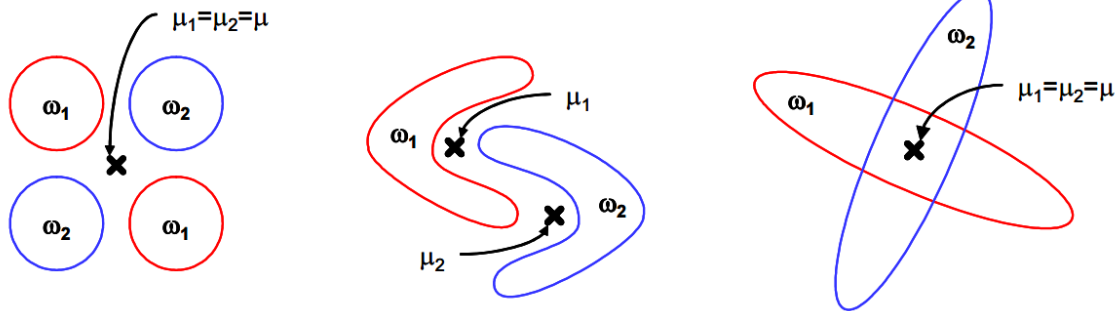
Limitations of LDA

LDA produces **at most $(C - 1)$ feature projections**

If the classification error estimates establish that more features are needed, some other method must be employed to provide those additional features

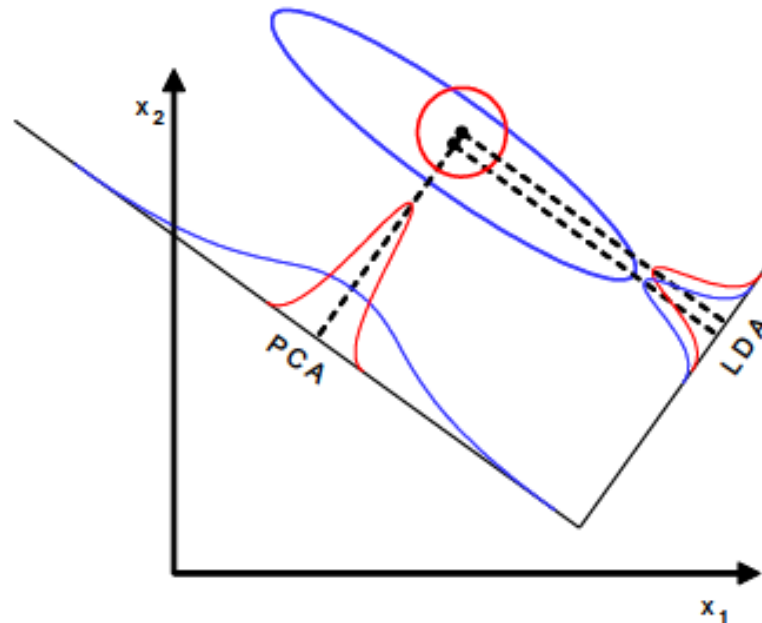
LDA is a parametric method (**it assumes unimodal Gaussian likelihoods**)

- If the distributions are significantly non-Gaussian, the LDA projections may not preserve complex structure in the data needed for classification



Limitations of LDA

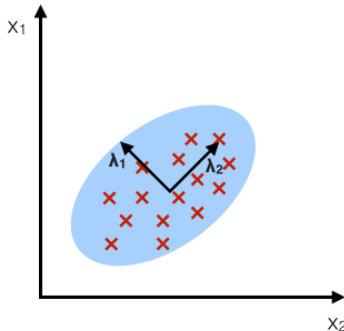
LDA will also fail if discriminatory information is not in the mean but in the variance of the data



PCA vs. LDA

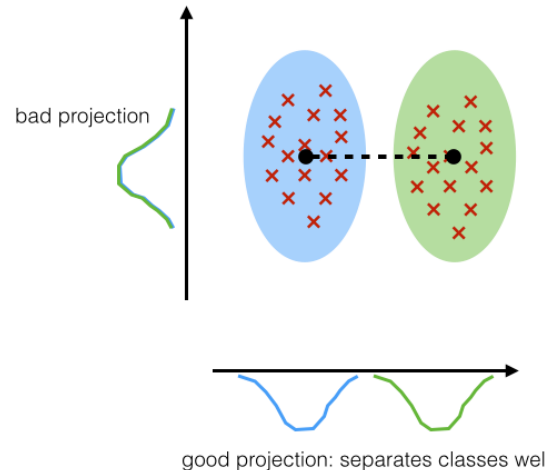
PCA:

component axes that maximize the variance



LDA:

maximizing the component axes for class-separation



Both Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are linear transformation techniques that are commonly used for dimensionality reduction.

PCA can be described as an “unsupervised” algorithm, since it “ignores” class labels and its goal is to **find the directions (the so-called principal components) that maximize the variance in a dataset.**

LDA is “supervised” and computes the directions (“linear discriminants”) **that will represent the axes that maximize the separation between multiple classes.**

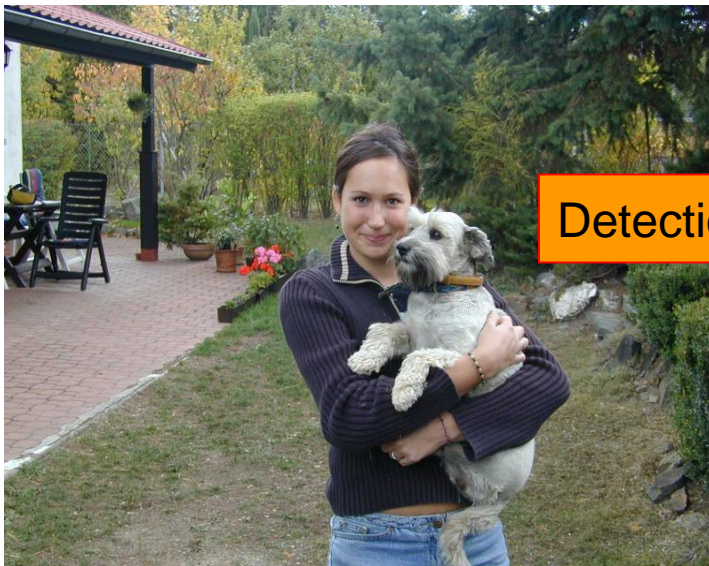
Real example



Application of PCA and LDA

- Face Recognition

Face detection and recognition



Detection



Recognition

“Sally”

Face detection and recognition

- Digital photography
- Surveillance



■ Recording

Report

Detecting....

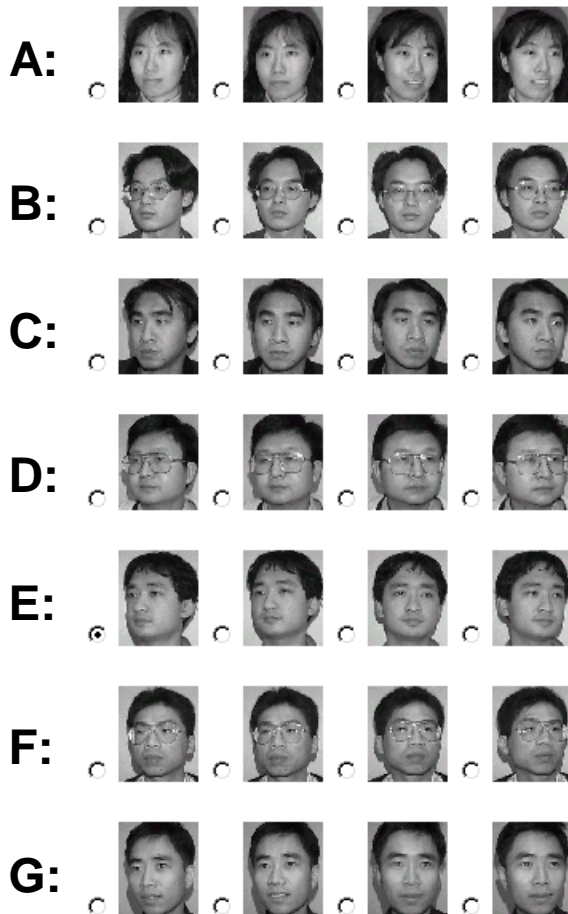
Matching with Database

Name: Alireza,
Date: 25 My 2007 15:45
Place: Main corridor

Name: **Unknown**
Date: 25 My 2007 15:45
Place: Main corridor

Face Recognition

Image database:



Test image:



Who is this guy?

Characteristics of FR:

- A mode of biometric identification
- Easy for human, hard for machine

Input

- A dataset of face images of n person
- An unknown person's face image

Output:

Determine the identity of the unknown person

Face Recognition

input: dataset of N face images



face: $K \times K$ bitmap of pixels



"unfold" each bitmap to K^2 -dimensional vector

arrange in a matrix
each face = column

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{vector 1} & \dots & \text{vector N} \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} X \\ K^2 \times N \end{matrix}$$

can visualize
eigenvectors:
 m "aspects"
of prototypical
facial features



"fold" into a $K \times K$ bitmap



PCA

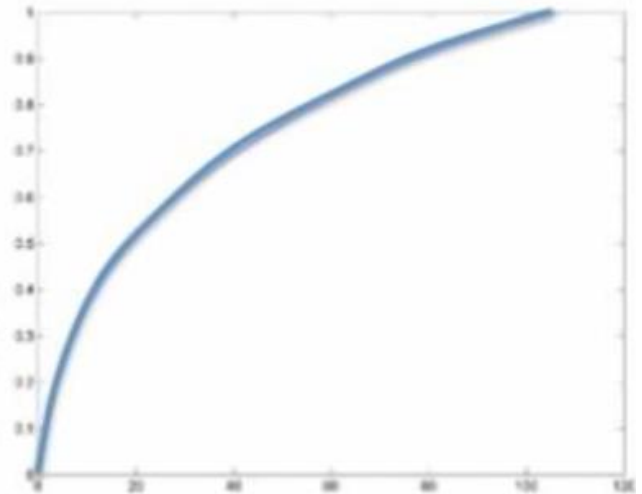
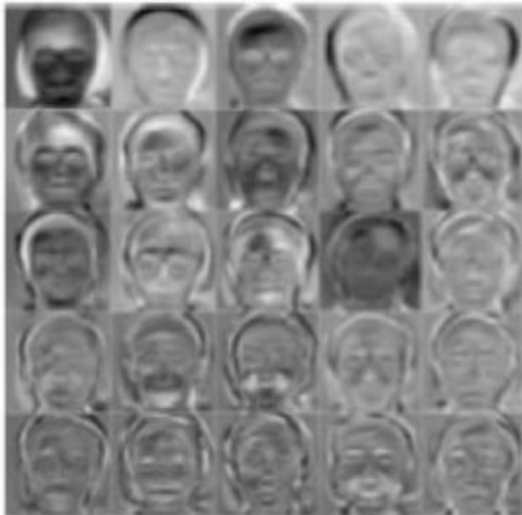
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{eigenvector 1} & \dots & \text{eigenvector m} \end{bmatrix} \quad K^2 \times m$$

set of m eigenvectors
each is K^2 -dimensional

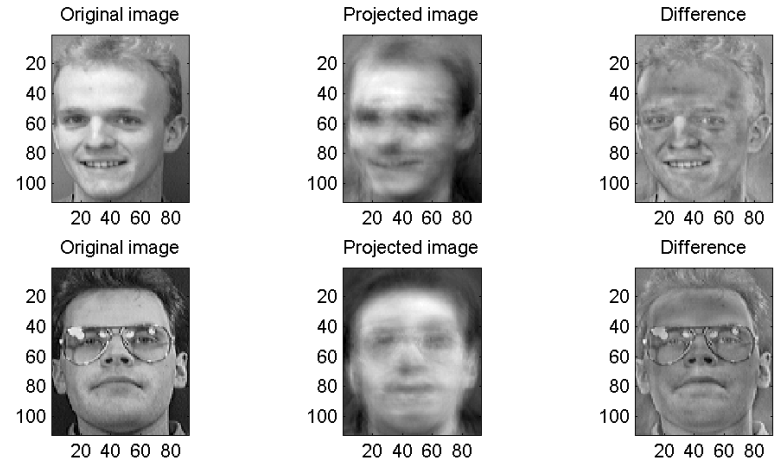
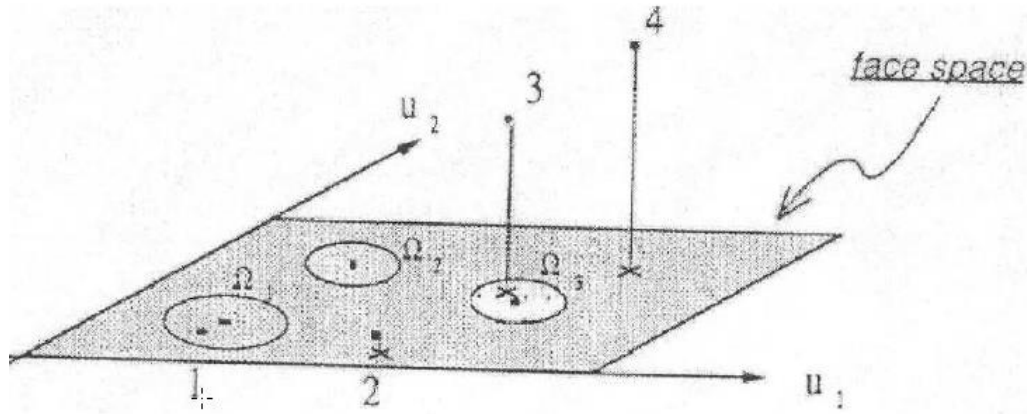
Eigen Faces: Projection


$$= \text{mean} + 0.9 * \text{eigenface}_1 - 0.2 * \text{eigenface}_2 + 0.4 * \text{eigenface}_3 + \dots$$

- Project new face to space of eigen-faces
- Represent vector as a linear combination of PCs
- How many do we need?



Face Recognition



Given an unknown image x

- Step1: compute $\phi = x - \mu$
- Step2: compute $\hat{\phi} = \sum_{i=1}^K w_i u_i$ ($w_i = u_i^T \phi$)
- Step3: compute $e_d = \|\phi - \hat{\phi}\|$
- Step4: if $e_d < T_d$, then x is a face

Steps of PCA

(Step 1) **Mean centering**

Compute the average \bar{x} of given data $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$,
subtracted from the data

(Step 2) **Calculation of Covariance matrix($S = \frac{1}{m}XX^T$) of data**

**For symmetric matrices, their eigenvectors always are
at right angles to each other**

Eigenvectors of covariance matrix are orthogonal

(Step 3) **Calculation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of covariance matrix (S)**

Eigenvectors: the **orientations** of the principal axes of the ellipse

Eigenvalues: the **lengths** of each of the principal axes of ellipse

(Step 4) **Mathematical representations of transformation of axes**

Details for Step 3: PCA

Example. $K = 100$ and $N = 50$

$X = \begin{bmatrix} \text{column 1} & \text{column 2} & \dots & \text{column 50} \end{bmatrix}_{K^2 \times N}$ is 10,000x50 size matrix.

$S = \frac{1}{50}XX^T$ is a 10,000 x 10,000 size matrix.

Problem: S is a large size matrix(10,000 x 10,000).
How to compute the eigenvectors of S ?

Observation: • $X^T X$ is a 50 x 50 size matrix

If u is the eigenvector of $X^T X$, then Xu is the eigenvector of XX^T .

If λ is the eigenvalue of $X^T X$, then λ is also the eigenvalue of XX^T .

$$(X^T X) u = \lambda u$$

$$(XX^T)(Xu) = X(X^T X) u = X(\lambda u) = \lambda(Xu)$$

Note that:

XX^T has 10,000 eigenvalues.

$X^T X$ has 50 eigenvalues, corresponding to the 50 largest eigenvalues of XX^T .

World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology
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A New Face Recognition Method using PCA, LDA and Neural Network

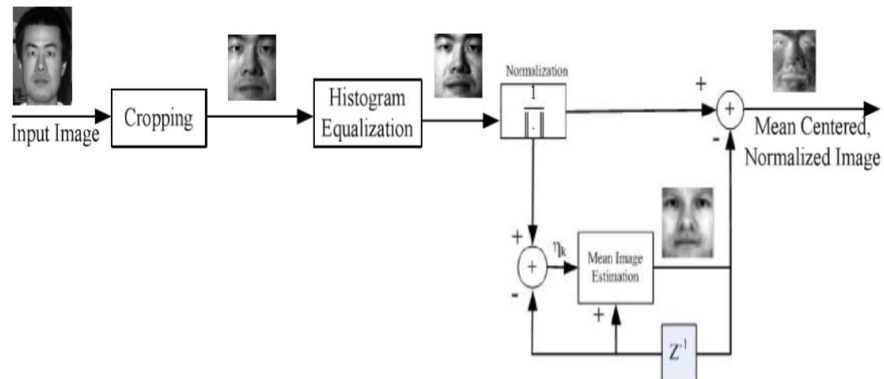
A. Hossein Sahoolizadeh, B. Zargham Heidari, and C. Hamid Dehghani



Input image (10 classes)



Mean centered data

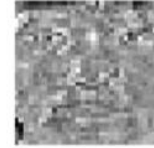


Eigen face via PCA



10 face images related to different classes

First Fisher Faces



Second Fisher Faces



Third Fisher Faces



Fourth Fisher Faces



Fifth Fisher Faces



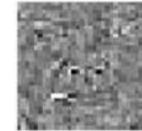
Sixth Fisher Faces



Seventh Fisher Faces



Eighth Fisher Faces

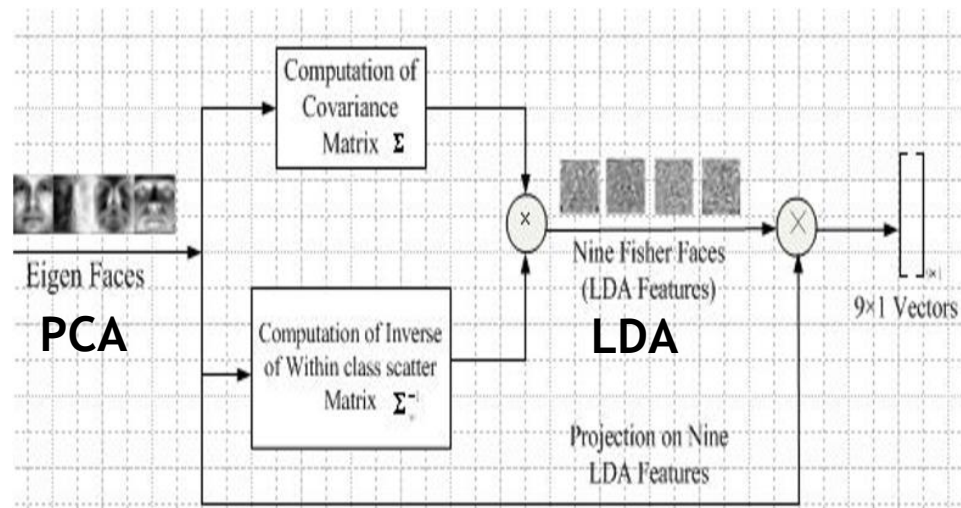
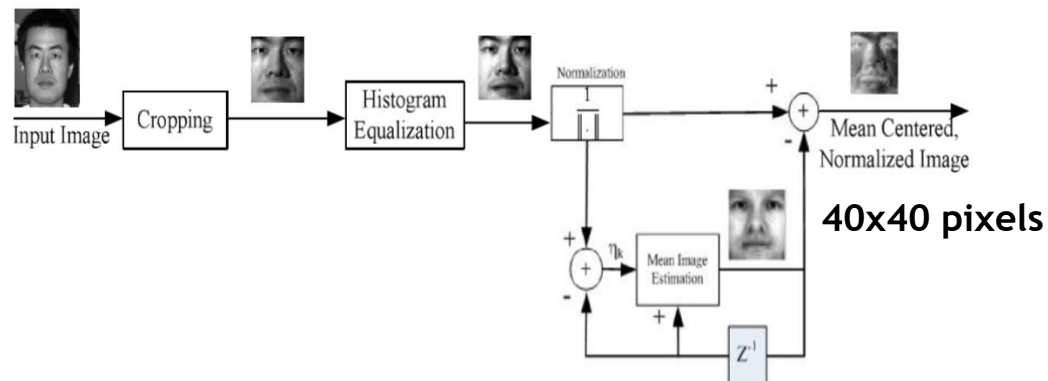


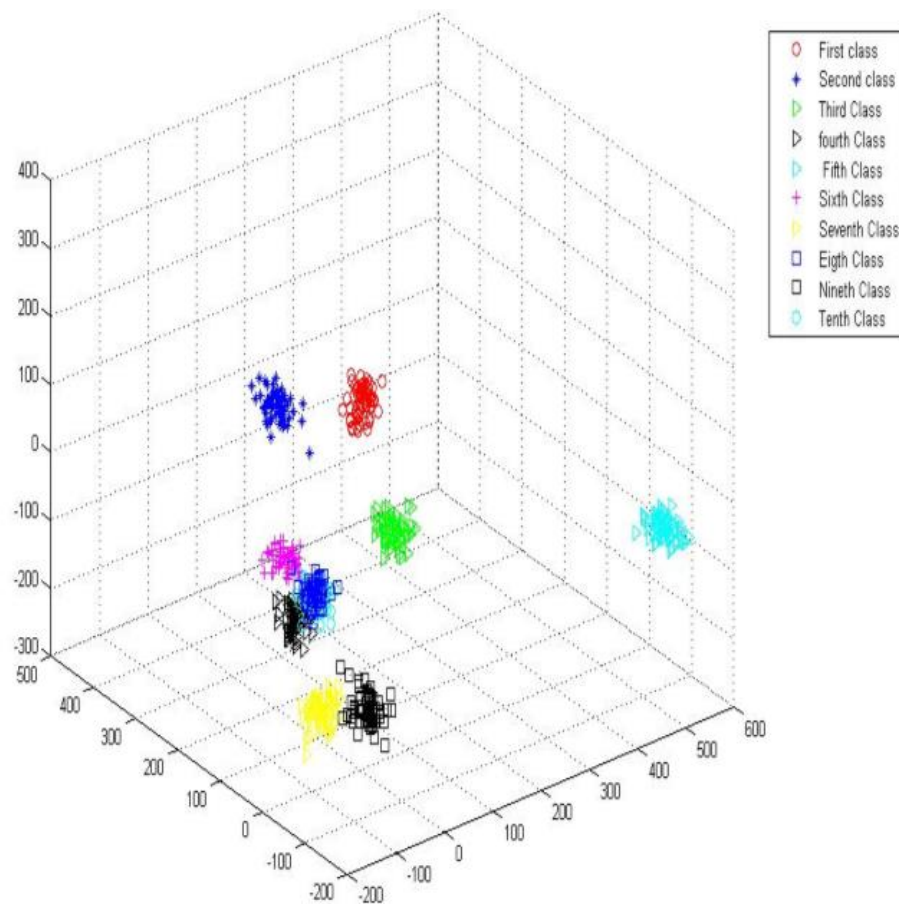
Ninth Fisher Faces



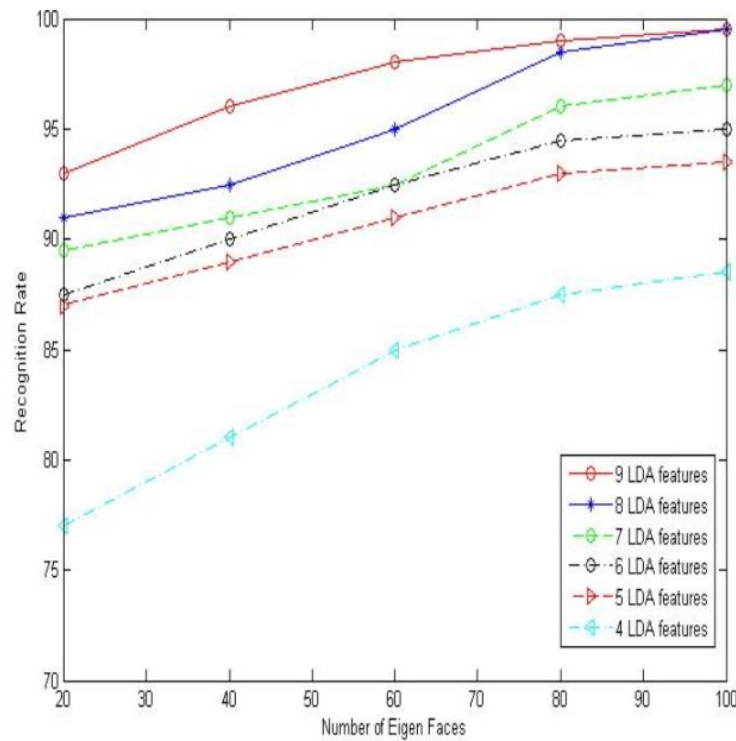
Fisher Faces via LDA

C-1 feature





Distribution of classes in three dimensional LDA feature space.
Axes are three most significant LDA features.



Comparison of recognition rate for choosing different values of PCA and LDA features

TABLE I.
Comparison of recognition rate by choosing different number of PCA and LDA features

	4 LDA features	5 LDA features	6 LDA features	7 LDA features	8 LDA features	9 LDA features
20 PCA features	77%	84%	87.5	87.5%	92%	94.5
40 PCA features	81%	86%	89.5%	90%	93.5%	96.5%
60 PCA features	85%	90.5%	93%	93%	95%	98%
80 PCA features	87.5	92%	94.5	96	98.5%	99%
100 PCA features	88.5%	92.5%	95%	97%	99.5%	99.5%

Question??

Consumer application: iPhoto 2009



Matrix Decomposition

Dictionary Learning and Sparse Coding

Nonnegative Matrix Factorization