2IMW30 - Foundations of data mining TU Eindhoven, Quartile 3, 2016-2017

Anne Driemel

Why reduce the dimension?

Representation of input data often is often high dimensional (images, documents, etc.)

There are two main reasons to reduce the dimension:

- some algorithms have running time exponential in the dimension
- we want to **visualize** inherent structure in the data

Why reduce the dimension?

Representation of input data often is often high dimensional (images, documents, etc.)

There are two main reasons to reduce the dimension:

- some algorithms have running time exponential in the dimension
- we want to visualize inherent structure in the data

Overview of this lecture

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Interpretation of Principle Components
- Computing Principal Components
- Singular-Value Decomposition (SVD)
- Power Method
- Eigenvectors of the Sample Covariance Matrix
- Multidimensional scaling
- Isomap

Principal components provide a sequence of best linear approximations to a data set

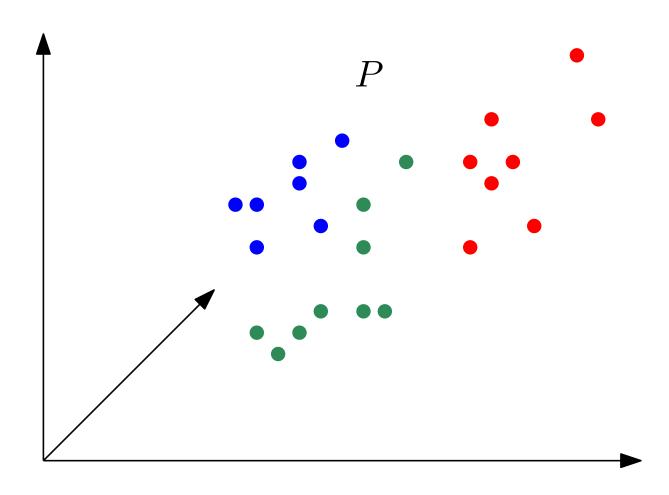
Given a data set $P = \{\mathbf{p_1}, \dots, \mathbf{p_n}\}$, we want to represent P using a k-dimensional linear model

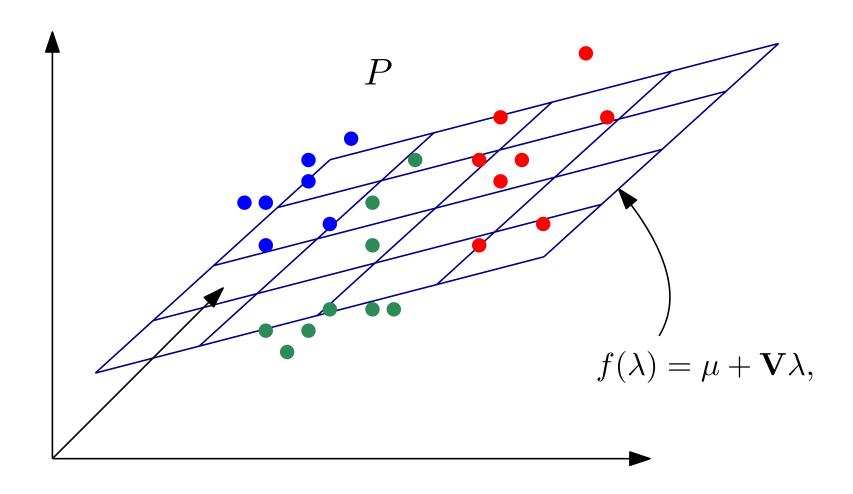
$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

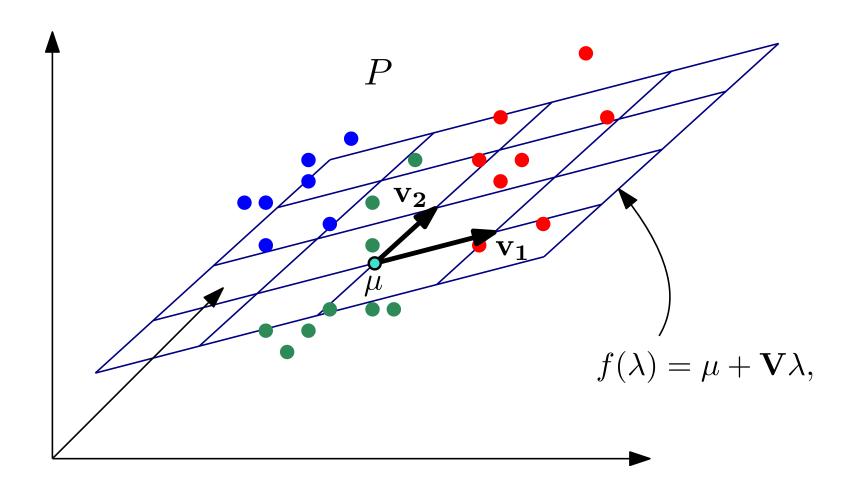
where

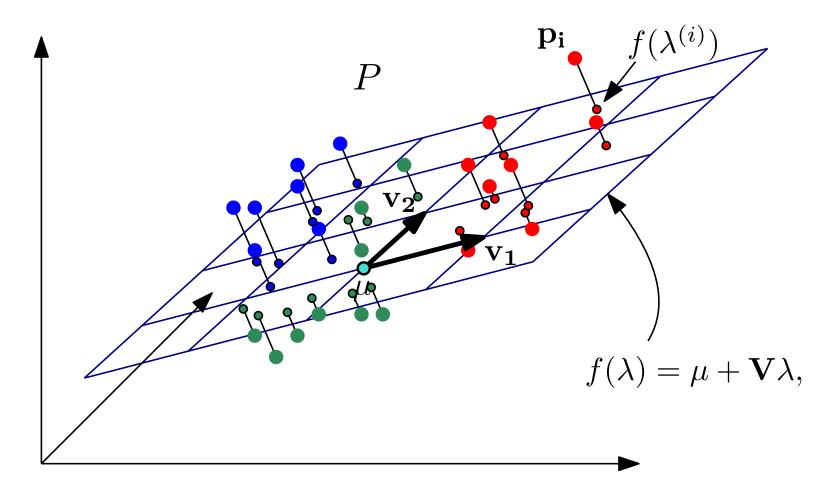
- μ is a location vector in ${\rm I\!R}^d$
- V is a $d \times k$ orthonormal matrix
- λ is a k vector of parameters

The above is a parametric representation of an affine hyperplane of dimension \boldsymbol{k}



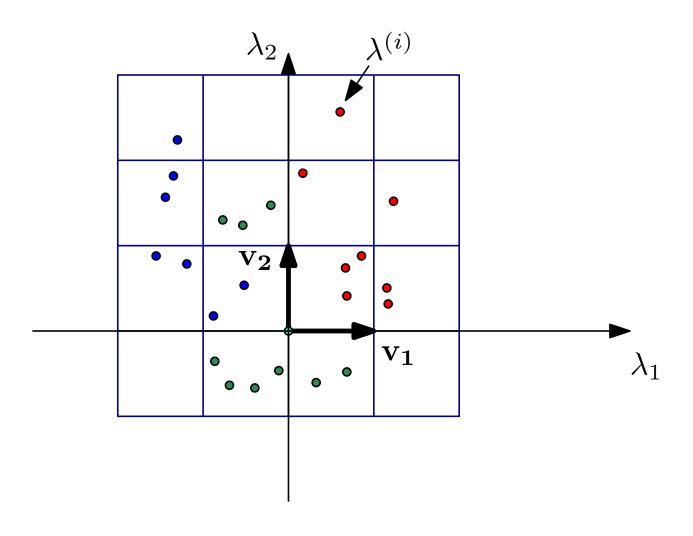






Want to find the hyperplane which minimizes sum of squared distances ("best fitting") $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|\mathbf{p_i} - f(\lambda^{(i)})\|^2$

We can visualize P in the subspace spanned by $\mathbf{v_1}$ and $\mathbf{v_2}$ by plotting the principle coordinates λ .



We have our linear model

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

where

- μ is a location vector in ${\rm I\!R}^d$
- V is a $d \times k$ matrix
- $-\lambda$ is a k vector of parameters

We have a function that defines "best fitting"

$$\min_{\mu, \mathbf{V_k}, \lambda} \sum_{1 \le i \le n} \|\mathbf{p_i} - f(\lambda^{(i)})\|^2$$

We have our linear model

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

where

- μ is a location vector in ${\rm I\!R}^d$
- V is a $d \times k$ matrix
- λ is a k vector of parameters

We have a function that defines "best fitting"

$$\min_{\mu, \mathbf{V_k}, \lambda} \sum_{1 \le i \le n} \|\mathbf{p_i} - f(\lambda^{(i)})\|^2$$

Optimizing for μ and λ gives

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{1 \le i \le n} \mathbf{p_i}$$
 and $\lambda^{(i)} = \mathbf{V}^T (\mathbf{p_i} - \mu)$

We have our linear model

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

where

- μ is a location vector in ${\rm I\!R}^d$
- \mathbf{V} is a $d \times k$ matrix
- $-\lambda$ is a k vector of parameters

We can assume that μ is the mean of the data

We have a function that defines "best fitting"

$$\min_{\mu, \mathbf{V_k}, \lambda} \sum_{1 \le i \le \mu} \|\mathbf{p_i} - f(\lambda^{(i)})\|^2$$

Optimizing for μ and λ gives

$$\mu = rac{1}{n} \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathbf{p_i}$$
 and $\lambda^{(i)} = \mathbf{V}^T (\mathbf{p_i} - \mu)$

We have our linear model

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

where

- μ is a location vector in ${\rm I\!R}^d$
- \mathbf{V} is a $d \times k$ matrix
- $-\lambda$ is a k vector of parameters

We have a function that defines "best fitting"

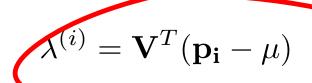
$$\min_{\mu, \mathbf{V_k}, \lambda} \sum_{1 \le i \le \mu} \|\mathbf{p_i} - f(\lambda^{(i)})\|^2$$

Optimizing for μ and λ gives

$$\mu = rac{1}{n} \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathbf{p_i}$$
 and

We can assume that μ is the mean of the data

... and we use the projection onto ${f V}$ for λ



Example: handwritten digits

3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Example: handwritten digits

Assume we computed the first two principal components We obtain an interpretable representation

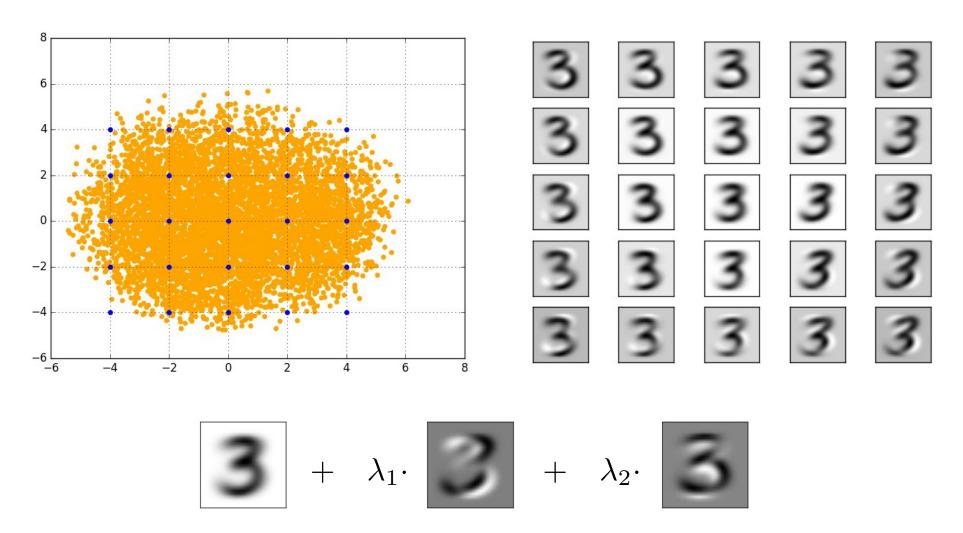
$$\widehat{f}(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

$$= \mu + \lambda_1 \mathbf{v_1} + \lambda_2 \mathbf{v_2}$$

$$= + \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 \cdot$$

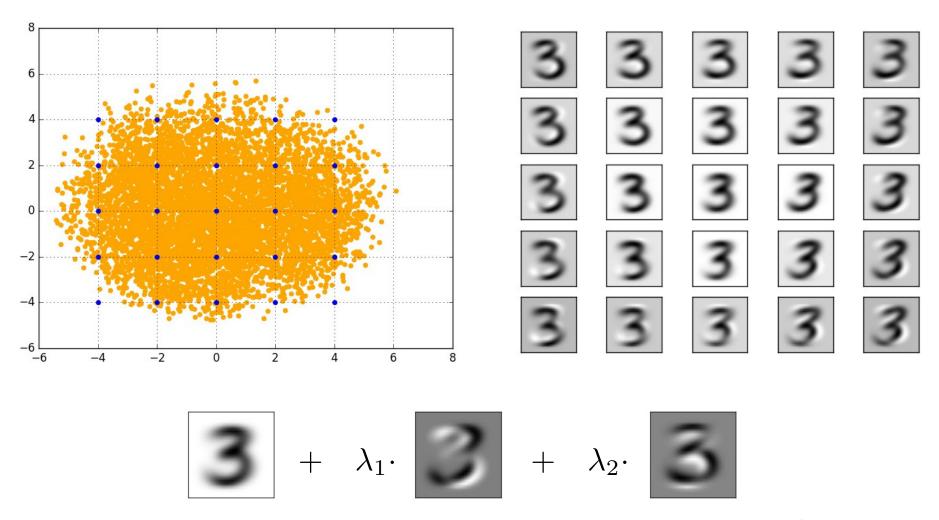
$$= \mathbf{principle components}$$

Example: handwritten digits



Interpretation?

Example: handwritten digits



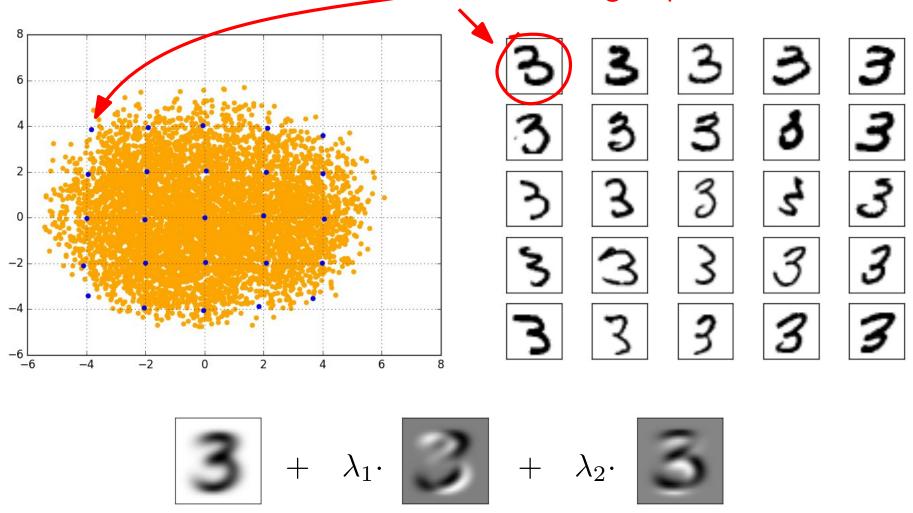
Interpretation?

"slanting"

"lengthening of lower tail"

Example: handwritten digits

Instances of which the projections are closest to the grid points



Interpretation?

"slanting"

"lengthening of lower tail"

We have defined PCA as an optimization problem: Fitting a k-dimensional hyperplane to the data

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V}\lambda,$$

We have defined PCA as an optimization problem: Fitting a k-dimensional hyperplane to the data

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V},$$

How do we compute V?

We have defined PCA as an optimization problem: Fitting a k-dimensional hyperplane to the data

$$f(\lambda) = \mu + \mathbf{V},$$

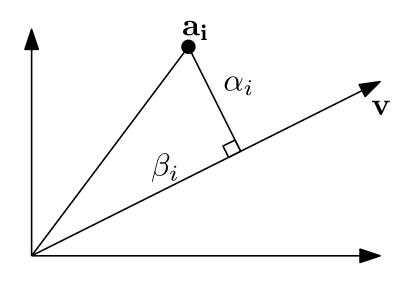
How do we compute V?

In the following, let ${\bf A}$ be a $n \times d$ matrix with row vectors ${\bf a_i}$ with

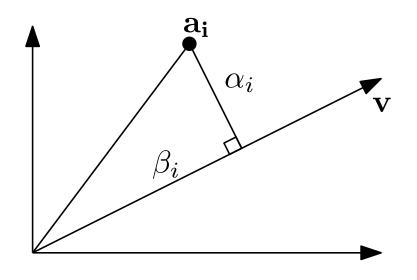
$$\mathbf{a_i} = (\mathbf{p_i} - \mu)^T$$

 $\bf A$ is a **centered** version of P

Simplest case: fitting a line through the origin to A



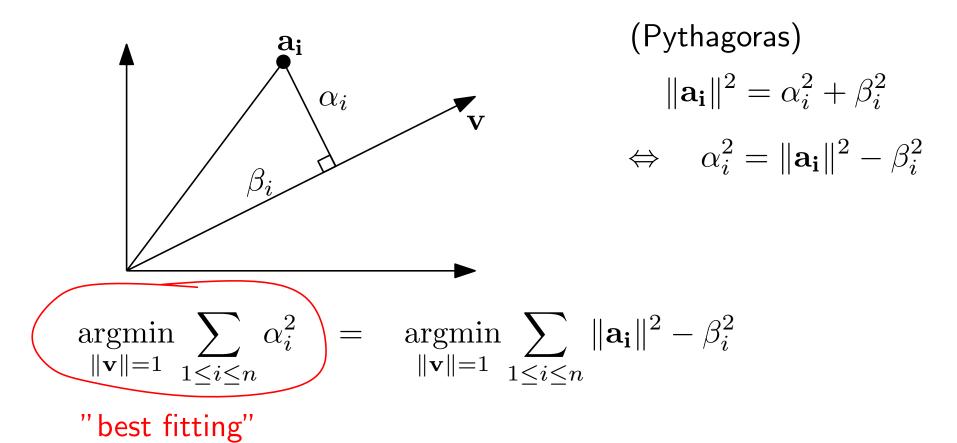
(Pythagoras) $\|\mathbf{a_i}\|^2 = \alpha_i^2 + \beta_i^2$



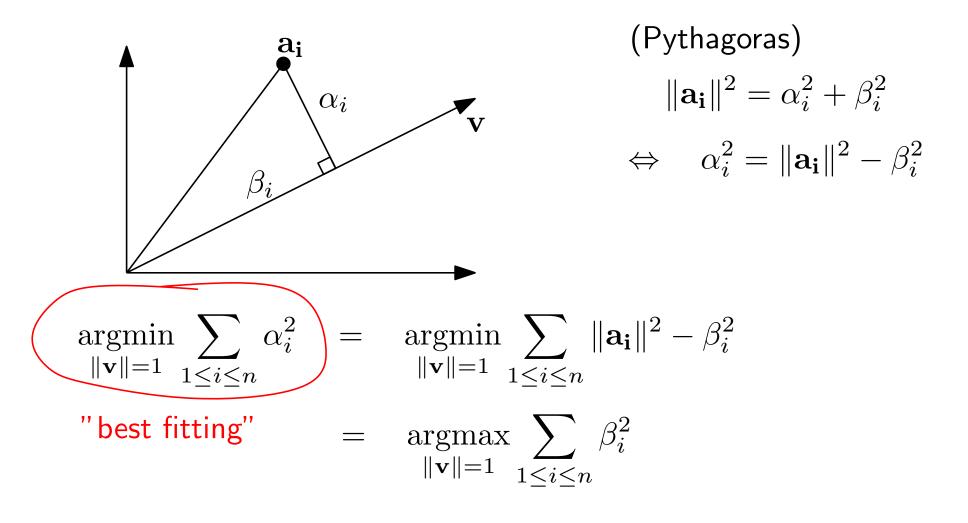
(Pythagoras)
$$\|\mathbf{a_i}\|^2 = \alpha_i^2 + \beta_i^2$$

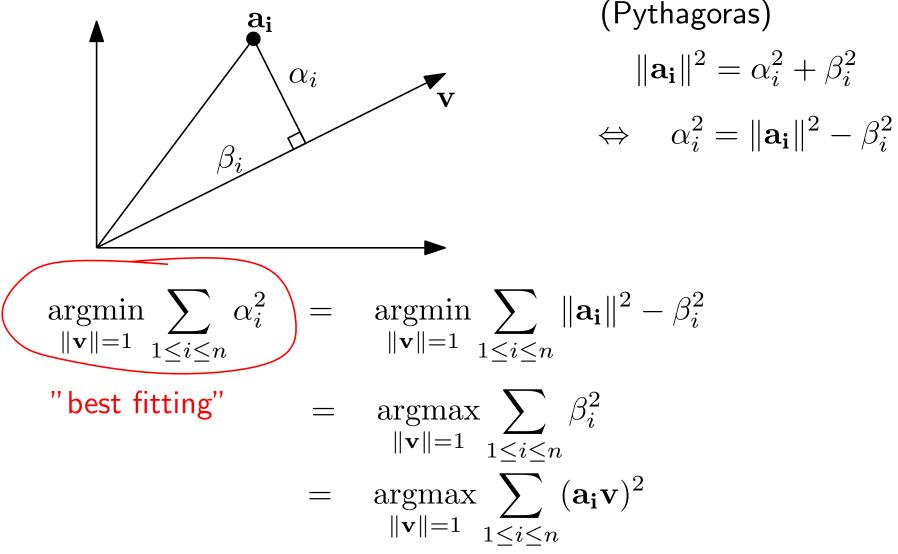
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \alpha_i^2 = \|\mathbf{a_i}\|^2 - \beta_i^2$$

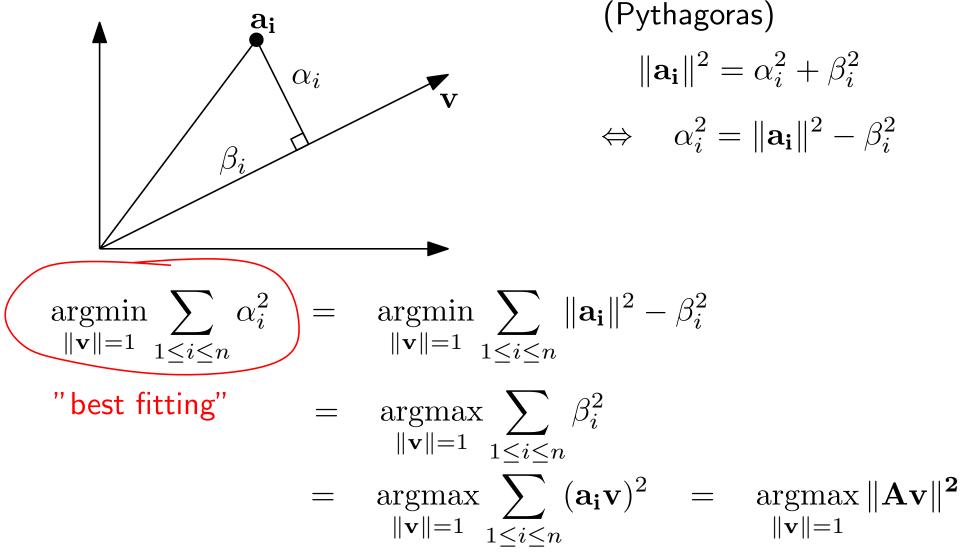
Simplest case: fitting a line through the origin to A



2IMW30 Foundations of data mining







 ${\bf A}$ is a $n \times d$ matrix with row vectors ${\bf a_i}$

The first singular vector of
$$A$$
 is: $\mathbf{v_1} = \underset{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$

The first singular value of
$$A$$
 is: $\sigma_1 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_1}\|$

 ${\bf A}$ is a $n \times d$ matrix with row vectors ${\bf a_i}$

The first singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_1} = \underset{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

The first singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_1 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_1}\|$$

The second singular vector of \boldsymbol{A} is:

$$\mathbf{v_2} = \underset{\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{v_1}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

 ${\bf A}$ is a $n \times d$ matrix with row vectors ${\bf a_i}$

The first singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_1} = \underset{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

The first singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_1 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_1}\|$$

The second singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_2} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1} \|\mathbf{Av}\|$$

The second singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_2 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_2}\|$$

 ${\bf A}$ is a $n \times d$ matrix with row vectors ${\bf a_i}$

The first singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_1} = \underset{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

The first singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_1 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_1}\|$$

The second singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_2} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\substack{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1\\\mathbf{v}\perp\mathbf{v_1}}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

The second singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_2 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_2}\|$$

. . .

 ${\bf A}$ is a $n \times d$ matrix with row vectors ${\bf a_i}$

The first singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_1} = \underset{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

The first singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_1 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_1}\|$$

The second singular vector of A is:

$$\mathbf{v_2} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|$$

The second singular value of A is:

$$\sigma_2 = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_2}\|$$

. . .

The process stops when we have found singular vectors $\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, \dots, \mathbf{v_r}$ and singular values $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$ and

$$\max_{\substack{\|\mathbf{v}\|=1\\\mathbf{v}\perp\mathbf{v}_1,\mathbf{v}_2,\dots,\mathbf{v}_r}}\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}\|=\mathbf{0}$$

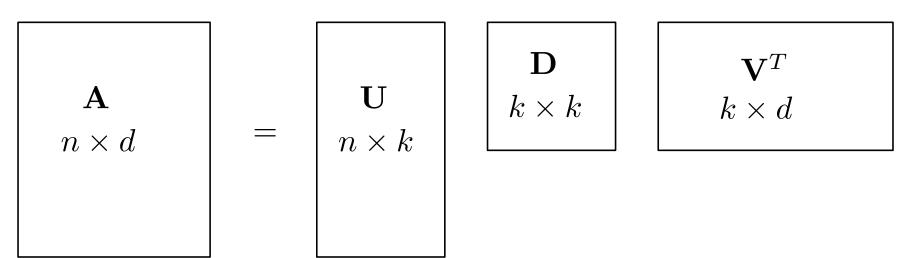
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

SVD is the factorization of a matrix A into three matrices

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

where

- ullet U and V are orthonormal
- **D** is diagonal with positive real entries σ_i
- \bullet σ_i are in descending order



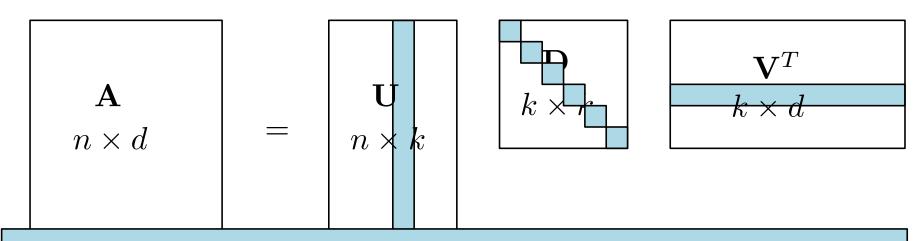
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

SVD is the factorization of a matrix A into three matrices

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

where

- U and V are orthonormal
- **D** is diagonal with positive real entries σ_i
- σ_i are in descending order



Columns of V are called **singular vectors** $v_1, v_2, ...$ Diagonal entries of D are called **singular values** $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, ...$

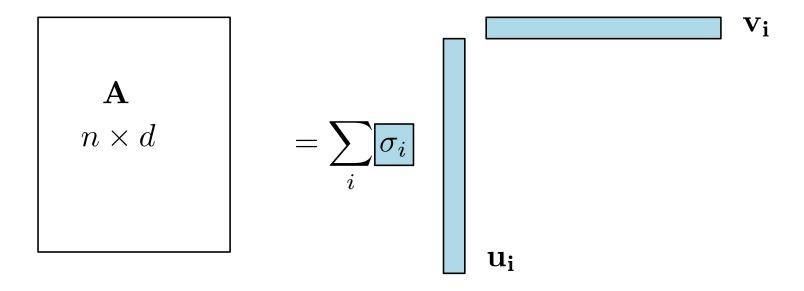
Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T$ can be rewritten using the sum of outer products

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \mathbf{u_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

where $\mathbf{u_i}$ and $\mathbf{v_i}$ are columns of \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V}

The i^{th} term in the above sum can be viewed as giving the components of the rows of ${\bf A}$ along ${\bf v_i}$



$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \left(\sum_i \sigma_i \mathbf{u_i} \mathbf{v_i}^T \right) \left(\sum_j \sigma_j \mathbf{u_j} \mathbf{v_j}^T \right)$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} = \left(\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \mathbf{u_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \right) \left(\sum_{j} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{u_{j}} \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{u_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{u_{j}} \right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \quad \text{orthogonal for } i \neq j$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} = \left(\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \mathbf{u_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \right) \left(\sum_{j} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{u_{j}} \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{u_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{u_{j}} \right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \quad \text{orthogonal for } i \neq j$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} = \left(\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \mathbf{u_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \right) \left(\sum_{j} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{u_{j}} \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{u_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{u_{j}} \right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \quad \text{orthogonal for } i \neq j$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{B}^{2} = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i}^{2} \sigma_{j}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{v_{j}} \right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} = \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{4} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} = \left(\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \mathbf{u_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \right) \left(\sum_{j} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{u_{j}} \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{u_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{u_{j}} \right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \quad \text{orthogonal for } i \neq j$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{B}^{2} = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i}^{2} \sigma_{j}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{v_{j}} \right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} = \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{4} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{B}^{k} = \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2k} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \rightarrow \sigma_{1}^{2k} \mathbf{v_{1}} \mathbf{v_{1}}^{T}$$

$$\left(\mathbf{using} \ \sigma_{1} > \sigma_{2} \right)$$

The first principal component v_1 can be computed using the **power method**:

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} = \left(\sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \mathbf{u_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}\right) \left(\sum_{j} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{u_{j}} \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{i} \sigma_{j} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{u_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{u_{j}}\right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} \quad \text{orthogonal for } i \neq j$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \mathbf{v_{i}}^{T}$$

$$= \sum_{i} \sigma_{i}^{2} \sigma_{j}^{2} \mathbf{v_{i}} \left(\mathbf{v_{i}}^{T} \mathbf{v_{j}}\right) \mathbf{v_{j}}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{We can estimate } \mathbf{v_{1}} \\ \text{using the first column of } \mathbf{B}^{k} \\ \text{normalized to } \\ \text{unit length} \end{bmatrix}$$

(using $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2$)

Interpretation of principal components (again)

Example: handwritten digits

Assume we computed the first two principal components We obtain an interpretable representation

An Alternative View

We can view a_i as an observation of a multivariate distribution

A contains n observations of d random variables X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_d

The **covariance** of two variables X_i, X_j is defined as

$$\operatorname{cov}(X_i, X_j) = \operatorname{E}\left[(X_i - \mu_i)(X_j - \mu_j)\right]$$
 with $\mu_i = \operatorname{E}\left[X_i\right]$

The sample covariance matrix is defined as

$$\mathbf{M} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{1 \le i \le n} (\mathbf{a_i} - \mu)^T (\mathbf{a_i} - \mu)$$

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

An Alternative View

A vector v such that

$$B\mathbf{v} = \gamma \mathbf{v}$$

is called an $\mathbf{eigenvector}$ of B and γ is called the $\mathbf{eigenvalue}$

An Alternative View

A vector v such that

$$B\mathbf{v} = \gamma \mathbf{v}$$

is called an **eigenvector** of B and γ is called the **eigenvalue**

The following holds true since $\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^{-1}$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i \mathbf{u_i}$$

and

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i \mathbf{v_i}$$

together this implies

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v_i}$$

Therefore, the singular vectors of A are the eigenvectors of the sample covariance matrix

Assume matrix $\bf A$ is not available, but instead we are given all squared pairwise distances as $n \times n$ matrix Δ

$$\Delta_{ij} = \|\mathbf{a_i} - \mathbf{a_j}\|^2$$

Assume matrix ${\bf A}$ is not available, but instead we are given all squared pairwise distances as $n \times n$ matrix Δ

$$\Delta_{ij} = \|\mathbf{a_i} - \mathbf{a_j}\|^2$$

We can recover inner products $\mathbf{a_i}\mathbf{a_j^T}$ of unknown \mathbf{A} as follows

Assume matrix ${\bf A}$ is not available, but instead we are given all squared pairwise distances as $n \times n$ matrix Δ

$$\Delta_{ij} = \|\mathbf{a_i} - \mathbf{a_j}\|^2$$

We can recover inner products $\mathbf{a_i}\mathbf{a_j^T}$ of unknown \mathbf{A} as follows

The following matrix is a **double-centering** of Δ

$$\mathbf{B} = \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}\right) \Delta \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}\right)$$

where

- I denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix
- ${\bf J}$ be the $n \times n$ matrix of all 1's

Assume matrix ${\bf A}$ is not available, but instead we are given all squared pairwise distances as $n\times n$ matrix Δ

$$\Delta_{ij} = \|\mathbf{a_i} - \mathbf{a_j}\|^2$$

We can recover inner products $\mathbf{a_i}\mathbf{a_j^T}$ of unknown \mathbf{A} as follows

The following matrix is a **double-centering** of Δ

$$\mathbf{B} = \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}\right) \Delta \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}\right)$$
 centering the rows of Δ

where

- I denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix
- **J** be the $n \times n$ matrix of all 1's

Assume matrix ${\bf A}$ is not available, but instead we are given all squared pairwise distances as $n\times n$ matrix Δ

$$\Delta_{ij} = \|\mathbf{a_i} - \mathbf{a_j}\|^2$$

We can recover inner products $\mathbf{a_i}\mathbf{a_j^T}$ of unknown \mathbf{A} as follows

The following matrix is a **double-centering** of Δ

$$\mathbf{B} = \underbrace{\left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}\right) \Delta \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}\right)}^{\text{centering the rows of } \Delta}$$

where

- I denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix
- J be the $n \times n$ matrix of all 1's

centering the columns of Δ

Assume matrix ${\bf A}$ is not available, but instead we are given all squared pairwise distances as $n\times n$ matrix Δ

$$\Delta_{ij} = \|\mathbf{a_i} - \mathbf{a_j}\|^2$$

We can recover inner products $\mathbf{a_i}\mathbf{a_j^T}$ of unknown \mathbf{A} as follows

The following matrix is a **double-centering** of Δ

$$\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n}) \Delta (\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{J}}{n})$$
 centering the rows of Δ

where

- I denotes the $n \times n$ identity matrix
- J be the $n \times n$ matrix of all 1's

centering the columns of Δ

If ${\bf A}$ is mean-centered, one can show that $(-{1\over 2}){\bf B}={\bf A}{\bf A}^T$

Recall that from SVD we have

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{u_i}$$
 and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{v_i}$ which implies

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v_i}$$

Recall that from SVD we have

$${f A}{f v_i}=\sigma_i{f u_i}$$
 and ${f A}^T{f u_i}=\sigma_i{f v_i}$ which implies

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v_i}$$

symmetrically, this also implies

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i^2\mathbf{u_i}$$

Recall that from SVD we have

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{u_i}$$
 and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{v_i}$ which implies

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v_i}$$

symmetrically, this also implies

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i^2\mathbf{u_i}$$

Thus, the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ are the vectors $\mathbf{u_i}$ of the SVD of \mathbf{A} and the corresponding eigenvalues are the values σ_i^2 .

Recall that from SVD we have

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{u_i}$$
 and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{v_i}$ which implies

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v_i}$$

symmetrically, this also implies

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i^2\mathbf{u_i}$$

Thus, the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ are the vectors $\mathbf{u_i}$ of the SVD of \mathbf{A} and the corresponding eigenvalues are the values σ_i^2 .

We obtain coordinates $\lambda^{(i)} = \sigma_i \mathbf{u_i}$ in the best-fit linear model.

Recall that from SVD we have

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{u_i}$$
 and $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i\mathbf{v_i}$ which implies

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{v_i} = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{v_i}$$

symmetrically, this also implies

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{u_i} = \sigma_i^2\mathbf{u_i}$$

Thus, the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ are the vectors $\mathbf{u_i}$ of the SVD of \mathbf{A} and the corresponding eigenvalues are the values σ_i^2 .

We obtain coordinates $\lambda^{(i)} = \sigma_i \mathbf{u_i}$ in the best-fit linear model.

The result is called an **embedding** of A and the process is called classical multidimensional scaling (MDS).

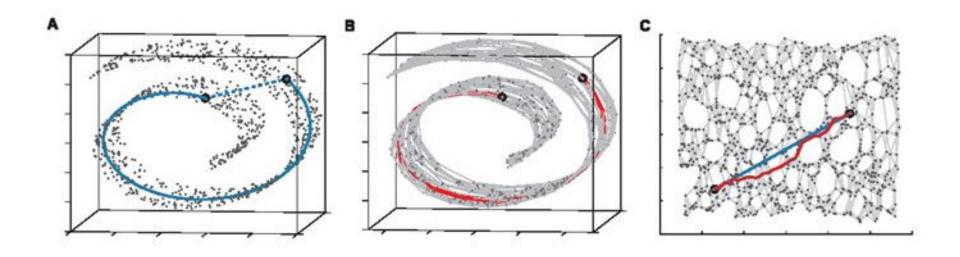
Isomap

Isomap is a non-linear embedding algorithm which assumes that the data lies on an Euclidean manifold

Isomap is due to Tenenbaum, Silva and Langford (2000)

Algorithm:

- Compute the k-nearest neighbor graph G
- Compute all pairwise shortest paths in ${\cal G}$
- Use Multidimensional scaling on the obtained distances



Summary

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Interpretation of Principal Components
- Computing Principal Components
- Singular-Value Decomposition (SVD)
- Power Method
- Eigenvectors of the Sample Covariance Matrix
- Multidimensional scaling
- Isomap

References

- Avrim Blum, John Hopcroft, Ravindran Khannan: Foundations of Data Science
- Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, Jerome Friedman: Elements of Statistical Learning
- J. B. Tenenbaum, V. de Silva, J. C. Langford, "A Global Geometric Framework for Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction", Science 290, (2000).