# ECE 1513: Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 3: Principle Component Analysis

Ali Bereyhi

ali.bereyhi@utoronto.ca

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering
University of Toronto

Winter 2025

## Quick Recap: ML General Recipe

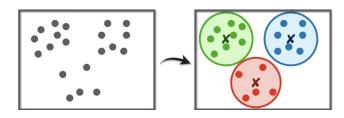
#### We defined ML as

the set of data-driven approaches that help us understand the environment and its behavior, and generalize it!

#### Any learning task is accomplished by ML through three major steps

- Collect data
- Specify a model that captures the pattern
- Develop a learning algorithm

## Quick Recap: Clustering



- Data
  - $\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,$  Collection of samples  $\mathbb{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n : n = 1, \dots, N \}$
- Model
- Learning algorithm
  - $\downarrow$  It takes  $\mathbb{D}$  and returns a good clustering

Where Are We?

```
K-Means():
 1: Initiate \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K
 2: while \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K changing do
 3: Set \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_K \leftarrow \text{Cluster\_Assignment}(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K)
        Update \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K \leftarrow \text{Centroid\_Update}(\mathcal{C}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{C}_K)
 5: end while
 6: Return \mu_1, \ldots, \mu_K
```

## Quick Recap: Density Estimation

We look at the data as a stochastic process

• We sample the dataset

$$\mathbb{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n : n = 1, \dots, N \}$$

- We know (assume) some distribution for the process
  - $\rightarrow$  Model:  $P_{\theta}$  for some unknown  $\theta$
- Learning algorithm
  - $\downarrow$  Infers a good  $\theta$  by observing  $\mathbb{D}$

## Quick Recap: Maximum Likelihood

The learning algorithm is maximum likelihood

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathcal{L}_{\mathbb{D}} \left( \boldsymbol{\theta} \right)$$

$$= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} P_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( \mathbb{D} \right)$$

$$= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} P_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_{N} \right)$$

# Today's Agenda: Dimensionality Reduction

In today's lecture, we study our last unsupervised learning task, i.e.,

#### dimensionality reduction

#### through the following steps

- Representing data in lower dimension
- Principle component analysis
- A look at particular applications

  - **→** *Recommendation systems*
- Wrapping up unsupervised learning

#### **Motivation:** Compression

Say we have data samples in D-dimensional space

$$\mathbb{D} = \left\{ \boldsymbol{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D : n = 1, \dots, N \right\}$$

? Can we represent it in lower dimension?

$$f: \boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_D \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \boldsymbol{z} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_K \end{bmatrix}$$

#### **Example:** Image Compression

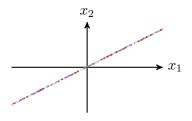
#### Consider a 60K pixel image



? Can we represent it with much less pixel while maintaining quality?

## Representing Data in Lower Dimensions: Example I

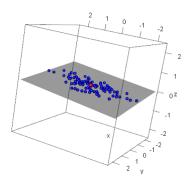
Consider the example where all samples lie on a line



Doviously, we can represent each sample with only one scalar!

### Representing Data in Lower Dimensions: Example II

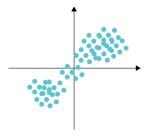
Consider the example where all samples lie on a 2D plane



• We can represent each sample with a 2D vector

### Representing Data in Lower Dimensions: General Form

In reality, the samples might be more spread in one direction



! We can have an approximate low-dimensional representation

#### **Orthonormal Bases**

 $\mathbf{u}_i \in \mathbb{R}^D$  form an orthonormal base if

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_D] \leadsto \begin{cases} \mathbf{u}_j^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \\ \|\mathbf{u}_i\| = 1 \end{cases} \iff \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}_D$$

#### Classic Base

Classic base is given by the identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}_D$ 

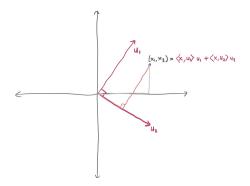
#### **Key Feature**

Orthonormal base only rotates and does not change the norm

$$\|\mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{x}\| = \|\boldsymbol{x}\|$$

#### **Orthonormal Bases**

We can use orthonormal bases to represent a vector



#### Recall

In D-dimensional space, we have only D orthogonal vectors

## **Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors**

Say we have a square matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ 

#### Eigenvalue and Eigenvector

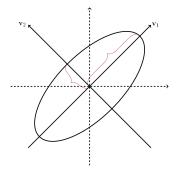
 $(\lambda, \mathbf{v})$  is an eigenvalue and eigenvector pair if

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

#### Recall

We consider eigenvectors to be unit-norm, i.e.,  $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$ 

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors: Visualization



Eigenvectors describe an orthonormal base

## **Matrix Decomposition**

Let's put everything in a matrix form

$$\mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \lambda_D \mathbf{v}_D \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_D \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Eigendecomposition

We can hence say that

$$A = V\Lambda V^{\mathsf{T}}$$

where  ${f V}$  is an orthonormal base and  ${f \Lambda}$  is diagonal matrix of eigenvalues

## **Key Features**

We can compute determinant from eigenvalues

$$\det \mathbf{A} = \prod_{i=1}^{D} \lambda_i$$

We can compute trace from eigenvalues

$$\operatorname{tr}\{\mathbf{A}\} = \sum_{i=1}^{D} \lambda_i$$

A positive semi-definite matrix has only non-negative eigenvalues

$$\mathbf{A} \geq 0 \rightsquigarrow \lambda_i \geqslant 0$$

→ Famous example of a positive semi-definite matrix

$$A = XX^T$$

Single direction  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

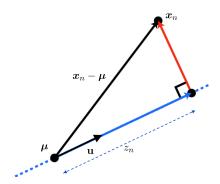
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n = z_n \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

Of course u is a base, i.e.,

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$$

How to find  $z_n$ ?

$$z_n = \mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)$$



Two directions  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

$$egin{aligned} \hat{oldsymbol{x}}_n &= z_{n,1} \mathbf{u}_1 + z_{n,2} \mathbf{u}_2 + oldsymbol{\mu} \ &= \left[ \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2 
ight] egin{bmatrix} z_{n,1} \ z_{n,2} \end{bmatrix} + oldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{U} oldsymbol{z}_n + oldsymbol{\mu} \end{aligned}$$

How to find  $z_n$ ?

$$z_{n,1} = \mathbf{u}_1^\mathsf{T} \left( x_n - \mu \right)$$
  $z_{n,2} = \mathbf{u}_2^\mathsf{T} \left( x_n - \mu \right)$   $x_n - \mu$   $x_n - \mu$   $x_n - \mu$ 

So we can write

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{z}_n &= egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{z}_{n,1} \ oldsymbol{z}_{n} &= egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}_1^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight) \ oldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}_1^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight) \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}_1^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight) \ &= oldsymbol{\mathbf{u}}_1^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight) \ &= oldsymbol{\mathbf{U}}^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight) \ &= oldsymbol{\mathbf{U}}^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight) \end{aligned}$$

 $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  are bases, i.e.,

$$\|\mathbf{u}_1\| = \|\mathbf{u}_2\| = 1 \qquad \qquad \mathbf{u}_1^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{u}_2 = 0$$

So we can say

$$\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \|\mathbf{u}_1\|^2 & \mathbf{u}_1^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}_2 \\ \mathbf{u}_1^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u}_2 & \|\mathbf{u}_2\|^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}_2$$

Orthonormal bases!

K < D directions  $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

$$egin{aligned} \hat{oldsymbol{x}}_n &= \sum_{k=1}^K z_{n,k} \mathbf{u}_k + oldsymbol{\mu} \ &= \left[ \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K 
ight] egin{bmatrix} z_{n,1} \ dots \ z_{n,K} \end{bmatrix} + oldsymbol{\mu} \ &= \mathbf{U} oldsymbol{z}_n + oldsymbol{\mu} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we can find

$$\boldsymbol{z}_n = \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu} \right)$$

We know that U contains orthonormal bases

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K] \leadsto \begin{cases} \mathbf{u}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \\ \|\mathbf{u}_k\| = 1 \end{cases} \iff \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}_K$$

#### **Attention**

Note that  $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times K}$  and that

$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \neq \mathbf{I}_D$$

## **Latent Space ← Reconstruction**

#### Dimensionality Reduction: Latent Variable

Dimensionality is reduced linearly via  $\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T}: \mathbb{R}^D \mapsto \mathbb{R}^K$  as

$$oldsymbol{z}_n = \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu} 
ight)$$

We call  $z_n$  latent variable

#### Higher Dimensional Recovery: Reconstruction

We reconstruct a sample  $\boldsymbol{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$  from its latent variable  $\boldsymbol{z}_n \in \mathbb{R}^K$  as

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n = \mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{z}_n + \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

# Dimensionality Reduction as Learning Task

- Data
- Model
  - ightharpoonup Linear transform  $oldsymbol{z} = \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \left( oldsymbol{x} oldsymbol{\mu} 
    ight)$
- Learning algorithm
  - $\hookrightarrow$  We look for algorithm  $\mathcal{A}: \mathbb{D} \mapsto \mathbf{U}^{\star}, \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}$
  - $\downarrow$  U\*,  $\mu$ \* are good ones!
- ? How can we define a good transform?
- It should not kill to much information!

# **Preserving Information Maximally**

Say we specify  ${\bf U}$  and  $\mu$  and compute latent variable z of sample x: if we want the data sample back, we reconstruct from the latent space as

$$\hat{x} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

The information on  $x_n$  is preserved if

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} \stackrel{!}{=} \boldsymbol{x} \leftrightsquigarrow \|\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} - \boldsymbol{x}\|^2 \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

But, we know that it's not happening perfectly; thus, we try

$$\|\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} - \boldsymbol{x}\|^2 \stackrel{!}{\approx} 0$$

- ? We cannot check it for every data sample!
- But, we can check it for samples in D!

# Information Preservation $\equiv$ Minimum Representation Error

We want U and  $\mu$  to make  $\|\hat{x}_n - x_n\|^2$  as small as possible for  $x_n \in \mathbb{D}$ : so we could try to make the average

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{x}_n||^2$$

is minimized  $\leadsto$  if  $\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = 0$ ; then,  $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n = \boldsymbol{x}_n$  for all n

#### Dimensionality Reduction via Minimum Representation Error

Optimal  $\mathbf{U}^{\star}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}$  are defined as

$$\mathbf{U}^{\star}, \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star} = \underset{\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\mu}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{U}, \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

# Optimal Bias ≡ Data Centroid

Let's start with simpler one: we want to find  $\mu^{\star}$ 

$$\mathcal{J} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\hat{x}_n - x_n||^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{U}z_n + \boldsymbol{\mu} - x_n||^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} (x_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) + \boldsymbol{\mu} - x_n||^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} - \mathbf{I}_D) (x_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})||^2$$

Let's call  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} - \mathbf{I}_D$ : we want to find  $\boldsymbol{\mu}^\star$  which minimizes

$$\mathcal{J} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{x}_n - \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}\|^2$$

## Optimal Bias ≡ Data Centroid

If we call  $\boldsymbol{y}_n = \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{x}_n$  and  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ; then, we look for

$$\mathbf{a}^{\star} = \underset{\mathbf{a}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{y}_{n} - \mathbf{a}\|^{2}$$

which is its centroid, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{a}^{\star} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{y}_{n}$$

So, we have

$$\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{x}_{n} \leadsto \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}$$

Let's now have a few observations: call the error of sample n

$$\mathbf{e}_n = \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{x}_n$$

We compute the inner product of  $\mathbf{e}_n$  and  $\hat{x}_n - \mu^{\star}$ , i.e.,

$$\phi_n = (\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{n}}$$

We know that  $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star} = \mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{z}_n$ , so we can write

$$\phi_n = (\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^*)^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{e}_n = \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{e}_n$$

We can also open  $e_n$  as

$$\mathbf{e}_n = \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{z}_n + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star} - \boldsymbol{x}_n$$

$$= \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{z}_n - (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star})$$

So, the inner product reads

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_n &= \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{e}_n \\ &= \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \left( \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{z}_n - (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^\star) \right) \\ &= \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{z}_n - \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^\star \right) \end{aligned}$$

Recall that  $\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}_K$ , so we can write

$$\boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U} \boldsymbol{z}_n = \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{z}_n$$

Also we know that  $\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T}\left(oldsymbol{x}_n-oldsymbol{\mu}^\star
ight)=oldsymbol{z}_n$ , so we could say

$$\boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \left( \boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^\star \right) = \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{z}_n$$

This means that

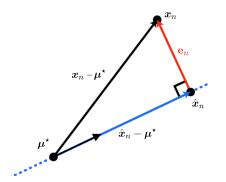
$$\phi_n = \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{z}_n - \boldsymbol{z}_n^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{z}_n = 0$$

#### **Orthogonality Principle**

The error  $\mathbf{e}_n$  and unbiased estimate  $\hat{x}_n - \mu^\star$  are orthogonal

We can hence write

$$\|\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{e}_n\|^2 = \|\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}\|^2$$



We have seen that

$$\|\hat{m{x}}_n - m{\mu}^{\star}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{U}m{z}_n\|^2 = \|m{z}_n\|^2$$

and also know that  $\|\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}\|^2$  has nothing to do with  $\mathbf{U}$ ; thus,

$$\|\boldsymbol{z}_n\|^2 + \|\mathbf{e}_n\|^2 = \text{constant}$$

If we average over n, we conclude

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{z}_n\|^2 + \mathcal{J} = \text{constant} \leadsto \mathcal{J} = \text{constant} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{z}_n\|^2$$

### Alternative Formulation: Maximal Representation Variance

#### Dimensionality Reduction via Minimum Representation Error

Optimal  $\mathbf{U}^{\star}$  is given by

$$\mathbf{U}^{\star} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mathbf{U}} \mathcal{J}$$

#### Dimensionality Reduction via Maximal Representation Variance

Optimal  $U^*$  is given by

$$\mathbf{U}^{\star} = \underset{\mathbf{U}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{z}_{n}\|^{2}$$

#### Notion of Correlation in Data

? Why do we call it variance?

We know that  $\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T}\left(oldsymbol{x}_n-oldsymbol{\mu}^\star
ight)=oldsymbol{z}_n$ , so can say

$$\|\boldsymbol{z}_n\|^2 = \|\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\mu}^\star\|^2 = \|\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_n\|^2$$

$$= \|\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_n - \operatorname{avg}\left(\mathbf{U}^\mathsf{T} \mathbb{D}\right)\|^2$$

Therefore, we could say

$$rac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\lVert oldsymbol{z}_{n}
Vert^{2}= ext{var}\left(\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbb{D}
ight)$$

= variance in the latent space

#### Notion of Variance in Data

? How can we maximize the variance?

Say 
$$K=1$$
, i.e.,  $\mathbf{U}=\mathbf{u} \leadsto z_n=\mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_n-\boldsymbol{\mu}^\star\right)$ 

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_n|^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |\mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}^*)|^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} ||\mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}||^2$$

where we define

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = [\boldsymbol{x}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\star}] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times N}$$

### Sample Covariance

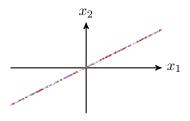
The sample covariance of the dataset is given by

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^\mathsf{T}$$

In case of K=1, we can write the variance as

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_n|^2 = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{u}$$
$$= \mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u}$$

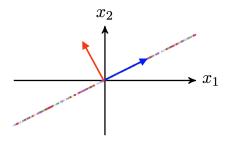
Let's compute sample covariance for the line example



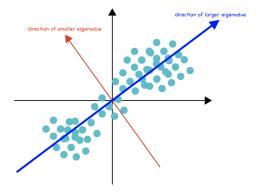
$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 20 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The large eigenvalue shows us where the data spans more



#### This applies to any dataset



It can tell us right direction for dimensionality reduction!

## Optimal Transform $\equiv$ Principle Components of Covariance

 $\Sigma$  is positive semi-definite: we thus have

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_D^\mathsf{T} \end{bmatrix}$$

with  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_D \geqslant 0$ . Let's replace in the variance expression

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_n|^2 = \mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u}$$

$$= \mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\mathsf{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_D^\mathsf{T} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{D} \lambda_i (\mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{v}_i)^2$$

## Optimal Transform = Principle Components of Covariance

We want to find optimal **u**: it should maximize the following term

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_n|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{D} \lambda_i \left( \mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{v}_i \right)^2$$

•  $\mathbf{v}_i$ 's are bases; thus, we always have

$$\left(\mathbf{u}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{v}_i\right)^2 \leqslant 1$$

•  $[\mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \mathbf{v}_D]$  is an orthonormal matrix; thus,

$$\|\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}[\mathbf{v}_1 \cdots \mathbf{v}_D]\| = \sum_{i=1}^{D} (\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v}_i)^2 = 1$$

## Optimal Transform = Principle Components of Covariance

We want to find optimal **u**: its should be set to

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}_{\max}$$

where  ${f v}_{
m max}$  corresponds to the maximum eigenvalue  $\lambda_{
m max}$ 

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_n|^2 = \lambda_{\text{max}}$$

## Optimal Transform $\equiv$ Principle Components of Covariance

Say 
$$K=2$$
, i.e.,  $\mathbf{U}=\left[\mathbf{u}_{1},\mathbf{u}_{2}\right] \leadsto z_{n,1},z_{n,2}$ 

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{z}_n||^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_{n,1}|^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} |z_{n,2}|^2$$
$$= \mathbf{u}_1^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{u}_2$$

With same lines of derivations, we could say

- ullet Optimal  $\mathbf{u}_1$  is  $\mathbf{v}_{\max_1}$  corresponding to the largest eigenvalue
- ullet Optimal  ${f u}_2$  is  ${f v}_{{
  m max}_2}$  corresponding to the second largest eigenvalue

## Principle Component Analysis: General Algorithm

#### PCA():

1: Set  $\mu$  to the centroid of dataset

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{x}_n$$

2: Construct the sample covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^\mathsf{T}$$

- 3: Decompose  $\Sigma$  in terms of its eigenvalues an eigenvectors as  $\Sigma = V\Lambda V^T$
- 4: Find the K largest eigenvalues and set  $\mathbf{u}_k = \mathbf{v}_{\text{max}_k}$
- 5: Set the projection matrix to

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K]$$

### Formulating the Problem

We can look at an image as a data sample



This is a  $300 \times 200$  image

we can look at it as a 60000-dimensional sample  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ 

### Formulating the Problem

- **?** How many samples then we need?
- lacksquare Obviously large enough to build sample covariance  $oldsymbol{\Sigma}$

Recall that the sample covariance is of the size  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ 

? This would be a huge matrix to decompose!

We can alternatively look at the image as

 $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{300 \times 200}$  and treat each column as a single 300-dimensional sample

So, the image itself is a dataset!

$$\mathbf{X} = [\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_{200}]$$

- ? How well we can compress?
- Let's look at the case with K=0!



- ? How well we can compress?
- Let's look at the case with K = 10!



- ? How well we can compress?
- Let's look at the case with K=20!



- ? How well we can compress?
- Let's look at the case with K = 30!



- ? How well we can compress?
- Let's look at the case with K=40!



- ? How well we can compress?
- Let's look at the case with K = 50!



Sounds to be good enough!

### Sample Example: Face Recognition

One classic application of PCA is face recognition

- We compress high-dimensional images via PCA to latent space
- We use the latent representations to compare two pictures
- ullet If we choose K properly then we could have right latent representation







## Formulating the Problem

? How to find missing rating?



### Formulating the Problem as PCA

? How to find missing rating?

We can look at it as a completion problem

rating user 
$$n = x_n = \begin{bmatrix} \text{movie } 1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{movie } D \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{k=1}^K z_{n,k} \mathbf{u}_k$$

- There are K eigenratings!
- ullet Each user is almost perfectly by its latent representation  $oldsymbol{z}_n$

It sounds like PCA!

## Sample Example: Recommendation System

This approach is used in many recommendation systems

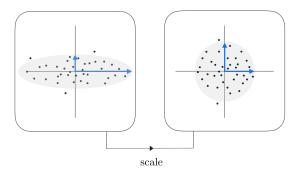
- Our ratings in online shops are used to find the eigenratings
- Eigenratings approximate our true ratings from latent space
- The shop will the decide what to advertise

In 2009, this idea won the \$ 1M Netflix Prize



## Sensitivity to Scaling

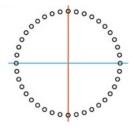
PCA is sensitive to scaling



• We typically normalize the data before applying PCA

### PCA is Linear!

PCA cannot capture nonlinear patterns



Extending PCA to nonlinear patterns gave birth to Autoencoders

#### **Further Read**

- Bishop
- ESL
  - → Chapter 14: Section 14.1
- Goodfellow

  - → Chapter 5: Section 5.8.1
- MacKay

PCA

**Principle Components** 

Review on Linear Algebra

PCA

Latent Space Design

### Where are We?

#### We studied three major unsupervised learning tasks

- Clustering
  - → Data
- Distribution Learning
  - □ Data
  - → Model: a distribution with unknowns
- Dimensionality Reduction
  - □ Data

### **Next Stop**

#### We next look at supervised learning

- Linear regression
- Linear classification
- Support vector machines
- Neural networks