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```
In [1]: # load in basic libraries and autograd wrapped numpy
        import sys
        sys.path.append('../')
        import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import autograd.numpy as np
        from sklearn import datasets
        import pandas as pd
        datapath = '../mlrefined_datasets/unsuperlearn_datasets/'
        from autograd import numpy as np
        # import custom libraries
        from mlrefined_libraries import unsupervised_library as unsuplib
        from mlrefined_libraries import superlearn library as superlearn
        from mlrefined_libraries import math optimization library as optlib
        # demos for this notebook
        regress plotter = superlearn.lin regression demos
        optimizers = optlib.optimizers
        static_plotter = optlib.static_plotter.Visualizer();
        plotter = superlearn.multi outupt plotters
        # this is needed to compensate for matplotlib notebook's tendancy to blow up imag
        es when plotted inline
        %matplotlib notebook
        from matplotlib import rcParams
        rcParams['figure.autolayout'] = True
```

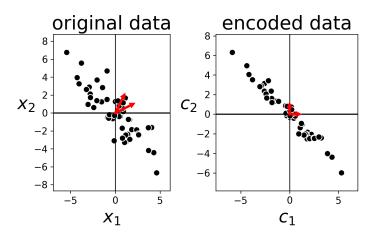
Exercise 8.1. The standard basis

To represent a data point \mathbf{x}_p over the standard basis is a trivial affair, and one can easily check that the perfect weights must be defined as

$$w_{n,p} = x_{n,p}$$

i.e., each weight is simply equal to the value of the data point we aim to represent. For most any other spanning set however these weights must be solved for numerically, which we frame in terms of a cost function minimization after the examples below.

Exercise 8.2. Encoding data



Exercise 8.3. Orthogonal matrices and eigenvalues

First suppose that \mathbf{C} is an $N \times K$ orthogonal matrix. Note that if λ is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{CC}^T , then by definition $\mathbf{CC}^T\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$

for some corresponding eigenvector \mathbf{v} . It then follows that multiplying both sides of the above by \mathbf{C}^T we have

$$\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C} \left(\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{v} \right) = \lambda \left(\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{v} \right).$$

This implies that λ is an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C}$ with corresponding eigenvector $\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{v}$. But $\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I}_{K\times K}$, so all of its eigenvalues equal precisely $\lambda = +1$. This implies that the non-zero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^T$ all equal $\lambda = +1$.

Now suppose the opposite, that all non-negative eigenvalues of \mathbb{CC}^T equal +1. Using the Raleigh quotient this means that for any eigenvector \mathbf{v} associated to a non-negative eigenvalue we have

$$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}.$$

Multiplying each side of this by \mathbb{C}^T

$$\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{v}.$$

That this is true for all K eigenvectors of \mathbf{CC}^T means that $\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{I}_{K \times K}$.

Exercise 8.4. Nonconvexity of the linear Autoencoder

and

Exercise 8.5. Minimizing the linear Autoencoder over a toy dataset

Now we use our standard gradient descent optimizer to tune the parameters of the autoencoder for an N=2 dimensional dataset, which has already been centered. Here we will seek out only a single learned basis vector, and examine its final encoded and decoded versions visually.

Below we plot a number of pictures resulting from minimizing the autoencoder. Here we show the original data along with the learned basis element shown in the left panel, the encoded data in the middle panel i.e., the value of each learned weight $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}_p = w_p$, and the decoded data $\mathbf{c}\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}_p = \mathbf{c}w_p$ in the right panel. In the right panel we also show the linear subspace (the span of the single basis vector \mathbf{c} found) in red.

```
In [4]: # a quick mockup of the autoencoder model
def model(x,C):
    # perform encoding
    W = np.dot(C.T,X)

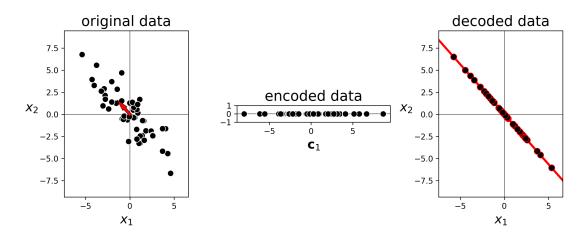
# perform decoding
    a = np.dot(C,W)
    return a

# an implementation of the least squares cost function for linear regression
def autoencoder(C):
    cost = np.sum((model(X,C) - X)**2)
    return cost/float(X.shape[1])
```

```
In [5]: # This code cell will not be shown in the HTML version of this notebook
# load in a dataset to learn a PCA basis for via the autoencoder
x = np.loadtxt(datapath + '2d_span_data_centered.csv',delimiter=',')

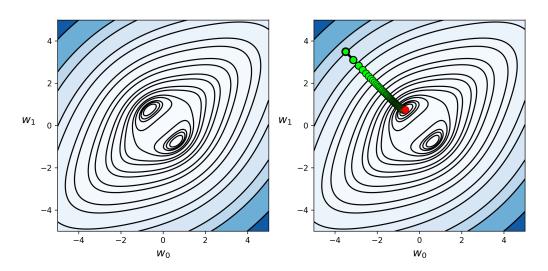
# tune the autoencoder via gradient descent
g = autoencoder; alpha_choice = 10**(-4); max_its = 1000; C = 0.1*np.random.randn
(2,1);
C = np.array([[-3.5],[3.5]])
weight_history,cost_history = optimizers.gradient_descent(g,alpha_choice,max_its,C)

# display results of the autoencoder
unsuplib.autoencoder_demos.show_encode_decode(X,cost_history,weight_history,show_pc = True,scale = 150,encode_label = r'$\mathbf{c}_1$',projmap = False)
```



Interestingly, examining the contour plot of the autoencoder in this instance we can see that it has two global minima - located precisely at the location of the *first principal component* of the dataset - a term we define in the subsection that follows. We show the contour plot of the autoencoder in the left panel below, and this contour plot along with the steps of gradient descent plotted on top (colored green to red, when the run starts to when it halts) in the right panel below.

```
In [6]: # This code cell will not be shown in the HTML version of this notebook
# show run on contour plot
static_plotter.two_input_contour_plot(autoencoder, weight_history, xmin = -5, xmax =
5, ymin = -5, ymax = 5, num_contours = 40, show_original = True)
```



Exercise 8.6. Producing a PCA basis

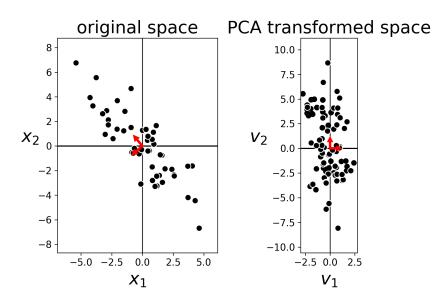
```
In [17]: def center(X):
             A function for normalizing each feaure dimension of an input array, mean-cent
         ering
             and division by its standard deviation
             X_means = np.mean(X,axis=1)[:,np.newaxis]
             X_normalized = X - X_means
             return X normalized
         def compute_pcs(X,lam):
             A function for computing the principal components of an input data matrix. B
         oth
             principal components and variance parameters (eigenvectors and eigenvalues of
         XX^T
             are returned
             # create the correlation matrix
             P = float(X.shape[1])
             Cov = 1/P*np.dot(X,X.T) + lam*np.eye(X.shape[0])
             # use numpy function to compute eigenvalues / vectors of correlation matrix
             D,V = np.linalg.eigh(Cov)
             return D, V
         def pca_transform_data(X,**kwargs):
             A function for producing the full PCA transformation on an input dataset X.
             # user-determined number of principal components to keep, and regularizer pen
         alty param
             num_components = X.shape[0]
             if 'num_components' in kwargs:
                 num_components = kwargs['num_components']
             lam = 10**(-7)
             if 'lam' in kwargs:
                 lam = kwargs['lam']
             # compute principal components
             D,V = compute pcs(X,lam)
             V = V[:,-num components:]
             D = D[-num components:]
             # compute transformed data for PC space: V^T X
             W = np.dot(V.T,X)
             return W, V
```

```
In [8]: # load in dataset to perform PCA on, and mean-center
    X_original = np.loadtxt(datapath + '2d_span_data.csv',delimiter=',')

# mean-center the data
    X = center(X_original)

# compute the full PCA transformation of dataset
    W,V = pca_transform_data(X)

# plot data in original and pca-transformed spaces
    unsuplib.PCA_demos.pca_visualizer(X,W,V)
```

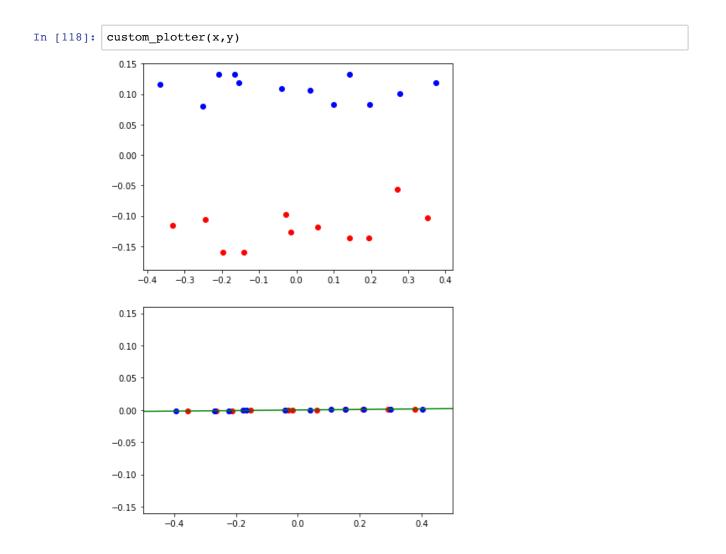


Exercise 8.7. A warning example

```
In [5]: data = np.loadtxt(datapath + 'PCA_class_data.csv',delimiter=',')
    x = data[:,:2]
    y = data[:,-1]
```

```
In [117]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
          def custom_plotter(x,y):
              x = center(x.T).T
              ind0 = np.argwhere(y == 1)
              plt.scatter(x[ind0,0],x[ind0,1],c='r')
              ind0 = np.argwhere(y == -1)
              plt.scatter(x[ind0,0],x[ind0,1],c='b')
              plt.show()
              # project data onto first pc
              C,x trans = pca transform data(x,num components=2)
              C = C[-1,:][:,np.newaxis].T
              x = np.dot(C.T, np.dot(C, x.T)).T
              ind0 = np.argwhere(y == 1)
              plt.scatter(x[ind0,0],x[ind0,1],c='r')
              ind0 = np.argwhere(y == -1)
              plt.scatter(x[ind0,0],x[ind0,1],c='b')
              plt.ylim([-0.16,0.16])
              plt.xlim([-0.5,0.5])
              # plot plane spanned by C
              C_line = np.array([t*C for t in np.linspace(-1,1,100)])
              C_line = C_line[:,0,:]
              plt.plot(C_line[:,0],C_line[:,1],c='g')
              plt.show()
```

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Exercise 8.8. Perform K-Means

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```
In [9]: ###### K-means functionality ######
        # function for updating cluster assignments
        def update assignments(data,centroids):
            P = np.shape(data)[1]
            assignments = []
            for p in range(P):
                # get pth point
                x_p = data[:,p][:,np.newaxis]
                # compute distance between pth point and all centroids
                # using numpy broadcasting
                diffs = np.sum((x p - centroids)**2,axis = 0)
                # determine closest centroid
                ind = np.argmin(diffs)
                assignments.append(ind)
            return np.array(assignments)
        # update centroid locations
        def update centroids(data,old centroids,assignments):
            K = old centroids.shape[1]
            # new centroid container
            centroids = []
            for k in range(K):
                # collect indices of points belonging to kth cluster
                S k = np.argwhere(assignments == k)
                # take average of points belonging to this cluster
                c k = 0
                if np.size(S k) > 0:
                    c_k = np.mean(data[:,S_k],axis = 1)
                else: # what if no points in the cluster? keep previous centroid
                    c k = copy.deepcopy(old centroids[:,k])[:,np.newaxis]
                centroids.append(c k)
            centroids = np.array(centroids)[:,:,0]
            return centroids.T
        # main k-means function
        def my kmeans(data,centroids,max its):
            # outer loop - alternate between updating assignments / centroids
            for j in range(max its):
                # update cluter assignments
                assignments = update assignments(data,centroids)
                # update centroid locations
                centroids = update centroids(data,centroids,assignments)
            # final assignment update
            assignments = update assignments(data,centroids)
            return centroids, assignments
```

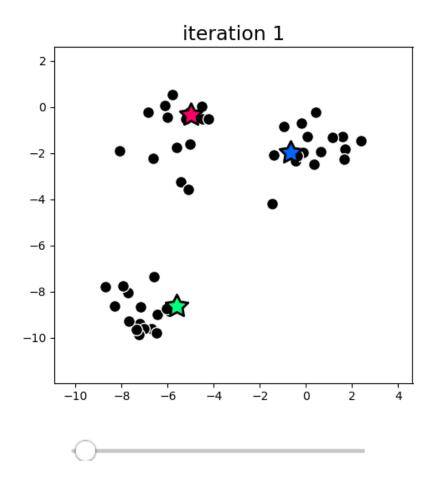
```
In [22]: # Loading the data
P = 50 # Number of data points
blobs = datasets.make_blobs(n_samples=P,centers = 3)
data = np.transpose(blobs[0])

# scatter plot the dataset
plt.scatter(data[0,:],data[1,:],c = 'k')
plt.show()
```

```
In [23]: # initial centroids - here particular chosen
    pt_inds = [20,21,22]
    init_centroids = data[:,pt_inds]

# run K-means animator using Python implementation above
    unsuplib.K_means_demos.run_animated_demo(data,init_centroids,max_its = 5)
```

Out[23]:

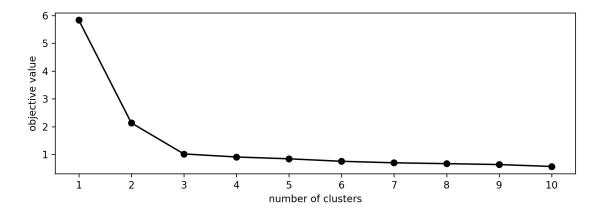


Exercise 8.9. Making a scree plot

1/11/20, 9:25 AM

```
In [24]: # Loading the data
P = 50 # Number of data points
blobs = datasets.make_blobs(n_samples=P, random_state=1,centers = 3)
data = np.transpose(blobs[0])

# scree plot
K_range = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
unsuplib.K_means_demos.scree_plot(data,K_range,max_its = 10)
```



Exercise 8.10. Alternating minimization

While the orthonormal PCA solution is by far more popular, we could in theory recover an infinite variety of spanning sets for our data in minimizing the Least Squares cost in equation (2) using standard optimization techniques including gradient descent and block-coordinate descent. Here we discuss in particular the block-coordinate descent approach hinted at in Section 9.2.1 above, where we will use $K \leq N$ elements. The main value in going through this exercise basis is that - as we will see - PCA is the prototypical method on which all other fundamental unsupervised methods (where we cannot derive special orthonormal solutions like we can with PCA) are based. Because of this we will often see the use of block-coordinate descent in the future, with updates that closely mirror what we derive (in the relatively simpler context of PCA).

So - how do we go about cooking up a block-coordinate descent method for minimizing the Least Squares cost for PCA in equation (2) - again assuming we use an arbitrary $K \leq N$ basis elements? First note that there are a number of ways we can express equation (2) and multiple orders in which we could perform block-updates on its parameters. For the sake of consistency with the natural block-update structure we will see with further unsupervised learning methods, here update *one column of parameters at a time*. To do this we first re-write equation (2) by expressing each multiplication $\mathbf{C} \ \mathbf{w}_p = \sum_{n=1}^K \mathbf{c}_n w_{n,p}$ in terms of the *columns* of \mathbf{C} (as in equation (1)). Doing this we can write equation (2) equivalently (again assuming the use of $K \leq N$ basis vectors $\mathbf{c}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{c}_K$) exposing each set of parameters as a column vector as

$$g(\mathbf{w}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{w}_P,\mathbf{c}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{c}_K) = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=1}^{P} \left\| \sum_{n=1}^{K} \mathbf{c}_n w_{n,p} - \mathbf{x}_p \right\|_2^2$$

where $w_{n,p}$ denotes the n^{th} element of \mathbf{w}_{p} .

To minimize our cost function one-column of parameters at a time we first sweep through \mathbf{w}_1 through \mathbf{w}_P , solving the first order system in each case (keeping all other parameters fixed). Then we do the same for \mathbf{c}_1 through \mathbf{c}_K . Beginning with the weights it is straight forward to confirm (as we computed in Section 9.1.1 when computing weights for a fixed basis representation) that the first order system for each \mathbf{w}_D is given as

$$\mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C} \ \mathbf{w}_p = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{x}_p \qquad p = 1...P.$$

Since \mathbb{C} is an $N \times K$ matrix, each of these systems is $K \times K$, symmetric, and linear. Hence we can solve the p^{th} easily via e.g., coordinate descent in the individual elements of \mathbf{w}_p .

Remember that *regularizing* a system like this often helps avoid numerical instability issues associated with solving linear systems like this in practice. To do this we add a weighted identity to the matrix of the system - here $\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C}$ - meaning that in practice here we often solve linear systems of the following adjusted form

$$\left(\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{K \times K}\right) \mathbf{w}_p = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{x}_p \qquad p = 1...P$$

where $\lambda \ge 0$ is typically set to some small value (like e.g., 10^{-5}).

Once each of these weight updates is made we can then move on to solve the first order system in each column of \mathbb{C} . Again one can quickly check (using the re-written form of equation (2) above) that the n^{th} of these updates each these updates takes the exceedingly simple form

$$\mathbf{c}_n = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{P} \mathbf{x}_p w_{n,p}}{\sum_{p=1}^{P} w_{n,p}^2} \qquad n = 1...K.$$

Practically speaking, to guard against the possibility where the denominator of one of these fractions is extremely small or zero it is commonplace here to also *regularize* each 'system' by adding a small nonnegative value to the denominator of each update formula above. Hence instead of the updates above we typically in practice solve for the related updates

$$\mathbf{c}_{n} = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{P} \mathbf{x}_{p} w_{n, p}}{\sum_{p=1}^{P} w_{n, p}^{2} + \lambda} \qquad n = 1...K$$

where $\lambda \ge 0$ is some small value (like e.g., 10^{-5}).

Taken together, the regularization of both sets of optimization vectors introduced to avoid numerical issues is actually equivalent to regularizing both in the original cost function. Using the same parameter λ for both sets of variables this regularized Least Squares cost function PCA looks like the following

$$g(\mathbf{w}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{w}_P,\mathbf{c}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{c}_K) = \frac{1}{P}\sum_{p=1}^{P}\left\|\sum_{n=1}^{K}\mathbf{c}_nw_{n,p} - \mathbf{x}_p\right\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{P}\sum_{n=1}^{K}\|\mathbf{c}_n\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{P}\sum_{p=1}^{P}\|\mathbf{w}_p\|_{2}^{2}.$$

And indeed checking the first order condition in each vector of parameters will find that they lead precisely to the regularized update formula given above.

In any case - repeating these updates multiple times produces convergence to an ideal basis / set of weight vectors for the dataset. Moreover this particular formulation of the block-coordinate approach is simple to implement and - as we will see - is a prototype algorithm for many other fundamental linear unsupervised learning methods (as we will see in the forthcoming Sections). Pseudo-code containing this algorithm is given below, followed by a Python implementation and computational example employing it.

end for

16:

PCA algorithm (block-coordinate descent)

17: output: optimal PCA basis $\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_K$ and weights $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_P$

```
1: input: a number K \leq N of desired principal components, dataset \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_P, initializations for basis \mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_K,
reguliarzation parameter \lambda, and maximum number of iterations max_its
      compute mean of dataset \pmb{\mu} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=1}^{P} \mathbf{x}_p and center data as \mathbf{x}_p \longleftarrow \mathbf{x}_p - \pmb{\mu} for p=1,\ldots,P
      for i = 1, ..., max_its
             # Update weight vectors
4:
              for p = 1, \dots, P
5:
                        solve (\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{K \times K}) \mathbf{w}_D = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{x}_D for \mathbf{w}_D
6:
7:
             end for
             # Update basis
             for n = 1, \dots, K
9:
                          solve \mathbf{c}_n = rac{\sum_{p=1}^P \mathbf{x}_p w_{n,p}}{\sum_{p=1}^P w_{n,p}^2 + \lambda}
10:
11:
              end for
12: end for
       # Update weights on final basis
         for p = 1, \dots, P
14:
                 solve (\mathbf{C}^T\mathbf{C} + \lambda \mathbf{I}_{K \times K}) \mathbf{w}_D = \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{x}_D for \mathbf{w}_D
15:
```

In []: