# Machine/Statistical Learning PCA and Kernel PCA

Nicolas Keriven CNRS, IRISA, Rennes

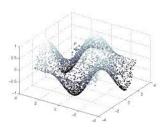
**ENSTA 2025** 

#### Dimension Reduction: motivation

- Compression : reduction of the size of the data
- Interpretability: which dimensions are important/linked for prediction, data visualization

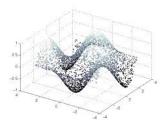
#### Dimension Reduction: motivation

- Compression : reduction of the size of the data
- Interpretability: which dimensions are important/linked for prediction, data visualization
- Curse of dimensionality: the amount of data to "fill" the space is exponential in the dimension. High dimensional spaces are mostly empty!
- ► Intrinsic dim. ≪ representation dim. : high-dim data often live in an (unknown) lower dimensional space



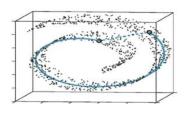
#### Dimension Reduction: motivation

- Compression : reduction of the size of the data
- Interpretability: which dimensions are important/linked for prediction, data visualization
- Curse of dimensionality: the amount of data to "fill" the space is exponential in the dimension. High dimensional spaces are mostly empty!
- ► Intrinsic dim. ≪ representation dim. : high-dim data often live in an (unknown) lower dimensional space
- ▶ dimension reduction → noise reduction : noise "visits" all possible dimensions



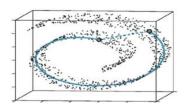
# Extraction techniques (manifold learning)

- Physically based methods, k-NN graphs, geodesic distances...
- Statistical methods, dictionary learning
- ► Filtering (linear/non linear)
- Deep autoencoders...



# Extraction techniques (manifold learning)

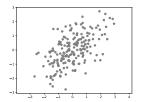
- Physically based methods, k-NN graphs, geodesic distances...
- Statistical methods, dictionary learning
- ► Filtering (linear/non linear)
- Deep autoencoders...



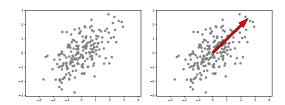
Finding/learning data representation ("features extraction") is somehow the core of modern ML. PCA is a foundational idea.

▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method

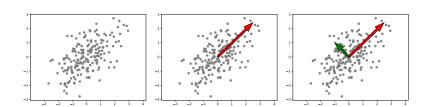
- ▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :



- ▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :
  - the first explains most the variation of the data



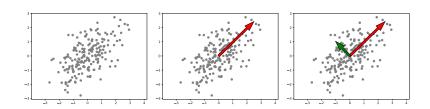
- ▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :
  - the first explains most the variation of the data
  - the second most of the remaining variation (while being orthogonal to the first)
  - etc. (here d = 2 but usually d very high!)



- ▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :
  - the first explains most the variation of the data
  - the second most of the remaining variation (while being orthogonal to the first)
  - etc. (here d = 2 but usually d very high!)

#### Mathematically:

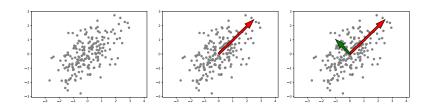
Find p orthonormal vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  where  $p \ll d$  such that :



- ▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :
  - the first explains most the variation of the data
  - the second most of the remaining variation (while being orthogonal to the first)
  - etc. (here d = 2 but usually d very high!)

#### Mathematically:

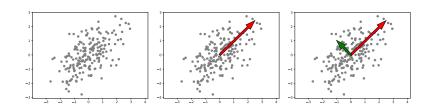
- Find p orthonormal vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  where  $p \ll d$  such that :
  - $ightharpoonup v_1 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_v \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right] \text{ s.t. } \|v\| = 1$



- PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :
  - the first explains most the variation of the data
  - the second most of the remaining variation (while being orthogonal to the first)
  - etc. (here d = 2 but usually d very high!)

#### Mathematically:

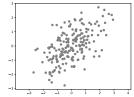
- Find p orthonormal vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  where  $p \ll d$  such that :
  - $\mathbf{v}_1 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{\mathbf{v}} \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle) \right] \text{ s.t. } \|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$
  - $ightharpoonup v_2 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_v \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right] \text{ s.t. } \|v\| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$

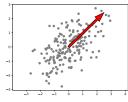


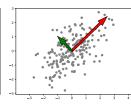
- ▶ PCA is a linear dimension reduction method
- ▶ Idea : find "directions" in the data such that :
  - the first explains most the variation of the data
  - the second most of the remaining variation (while being orthogonal to the first)
  - etc. (here d = 2 but usually d very high!)

#### Mathematically:

- Find p orthonormal vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  where  $p \ll d$  such that :
  - $\triangleright$   $v_1 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_v \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right] \text{ s.t. } ||v|| = 1$
  - $ightharpoonup v_2 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_v \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right] \text{ s.t. } \|v\| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$
  - $ightharpoonup v_3 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{v}\left[\operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle)\right] \text{ s.t. } \|v\| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0, \langle v, v_2 \rangle = 0, \text{ etc}$







Find  $v_1 = \arg \max_{v} \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right]$  s.t. ||v|| = 1: we have  $\operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) = \mathbb{E}(\langle v, x - \mathbb{E}(x) \rangle)^2 = v^\top \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}(x))(x - \mathbb{E}(x))^\top] v = v^\top \Sigma v$ where  $\Sigma = \operatorname{Cov}(x)$ .

Find  $v_1 = \arg \max_v [var(\langle v, x \rangle)]$  s.t. ||v|| = 1: we have

$$\operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) = \mathbb{E}(\langle v, x - \mathbb{E}(x) \rangle)^{2} = v^{\top} \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}(x))(x - \mathbb{E}(x))^{\top}] v = v^{\top} \Sigma v$$
where  $\Sigma = \operatorname{Cov}(x)$ .

Form the Lagrangian (Recall : constrained optimization)

$$\mathcal{L}(v,\lambda) = v^{\top} \Sigma v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v)$$

Find  $v_1 = \arg \max_{v} [var(\langle v, x \rangle)]$  s.t. ||v|| = 1: we have

$$\operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) = \mathbb{E}(\langle v, x - \mathbb{E}(x) \rangle)^{2} = v^{\top} \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}(x))(x - \mathbb{E}(x))^{\top}] v = v^{\top} \Sigma v$$
where  $\Sigma = \operatorname{Cov}(x)$ .

Form the Lagrangian (Recall : constrained optimization)

$$\mathcal{L}(v,\lambda) = \mathsf{v}^{\top} \mathsf{\Sigma} v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v)$$

Compute the gradient wrt v

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}} \mathcal{L} = 2 \Sigma \mathbf{v} - 2 \lambda \mathbf{v}$$

ightharpoonup v is an eigenvector of  $\Sigma$ ,  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue :

$$[\nabla \mathcal{L} = 0] \Leftrightarrow [\Sigma v = \lambda v]$$

► The variance is  $v^{\top}\Sigma v = \lambda$ .

Find  $v_1 = \arg \max_v [var(\langle v, x \rangle)]$  s.t. ||v|| = 1: we have

$$\operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) = \mathbb{E}(\langle v, x - \mathbb{E}(x) \rangle)^{2} = v^{\top} \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}(x))(x - \mathbb{E}(x))^{\top}] v = v^{\top} \Sigma v$$
where  $\Sigma = \operatorname{Cov}(x)$ .

Form the Lagrangian (Recall : constrained optimization)

$$\mathcal{L}(v,\lambda) = \mathsf{v}^{\top} \mathsf{\Sigma} v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v)$$

Compute the gradient wrt v

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}} \mathcal{L} = 2 \Sigma \mathbf{v} - 2 \lambda \mathbf{v}$$

ightharpoonup v is an eigenvector of  $\Sigma$ ,  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue :

$$[\nabla \mathcal{L} = 0] \Leftrightarrow [\Sigma v = \lambda v]$$

- ► The variance is  $v^{\top} \Sigma v = \lambda$ .
- v<sub>1</sub> is the eigenvector that corresponds to the maximum eigenvalue of the covariance of the data

# Let's do $v_2$ !

▶ Find  $v_2 = \arg\max_{v} \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right]$  s.t.  $\|v\| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$ 

# Let's do v2!

- Find  $v_2 = \arg \max_{v} \left[ var(\langle v, x \rangle) \right]$  s.t.  $||v|| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$
- Form the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(v, \lambda, \beta) = v^{\top} \Sigma v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v) + \beta (0 - v_1^{\top} v)$$

► Compute the gradient

$$\nabla \mathcal{L} = 2\Sigma v - 2\lambda v - \beta v_1 = 0$$

# Let's do $v_2$ !

- Find  $v_2 = \arg \max_{v} \left[ var(\langle v, x \rangle) \right]$  s.t.  $||v|| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$
- Form the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(v, \lambda, \beta) = v^{\top} \Sigma v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v) + \beta (0 - v_1^{\top} v)$$

► Compute the gradient

$$\nabla \mathcal{L} = 2\Sigma v - 2\lambda v - \beta v_1 = 0$$

- ▶ Multiplying by  $v_1^\top$ , and using  $v_1^\top v = 0$ ,  $||v_1|| = 1$ ,  $\sum v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 : \beta = 0$
- Finally,  $\Sigma v = \lambda v : (\lambda, v)$  is again a pair eigval./eigvec., and thus  $\lambda = \lambda_2$

# Let's do v2!

- Find  $v_2 = \arg \max_{v} \left[ var(\langle v, x \rangle) \right]$  s.t.  $||v|| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$
- ► Form the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(v, \lambda, \beta) = v^{\top} \Sigma v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v) + \beta (0 - v_1^{\top} v)$$

Compute the gradient

$$\nabla \mathcal{L} = 2\Sigma v - 2\lambda v - \beta v_1 = 0$$

- ▶ Multiplying by  $v_1^\top$ , and using  $v_1^\top v = 0$ ,  $||v_1|| = 1$ ,  $\sum v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 : \beta = 0$
- Finally,  $\Sigma v = \lambda v : (\lambda, v)$  is again a pair eigval./eigvec., and thus  $\lambda = \lambda_2$
- v<sub>2</sub> is the eigenvector that corresponds to the second maximum eigenvalue of the covariance of the data

# Let's do v2!

- Find  $v_2 = \operatorname{arg\,max}_v \left[ \operatorname{var}(\langle v, x \rangle) \right] \text{ s.t. } \|v\| = 1, \langle v, v_1 \rangle = 0$
- ► Form the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(v, \lambda, \beta) = v^{\top} \Sigma v + \lambda (1 - v^{\top} v) + \beta (0 - v_1^{\top} v)$$

► Compute the gradient

$$\nabla \mathcal{L} = 2\Sigma v - 2\lambda v - \beta v_1 = 0$$

- ▶ Multiplying by  $v_1^\top$ , and using  $v_1^\top v = 0$ ,  $||v_1|| = 1$ ,  $\sum v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 : \beta = 0$
- Finally,  $\Sigma v = \lambda v : (\lambda, v)$  is again a pair eigval./eigvec., and thus  $\lambda = \lambda_2$
- w v<sub>2</sub> is the eigenvector that corresponds to the **second maximum** eigenvalue of the covariance of the data
- $\square$  Same for  $v_3, \ldots, v_p$

# Computing PCA in practice

 $\blacktriangleright$  Of course, for real data, we use the empirical covariance  $\hat{\Sigma}$ 

## Computing PCA in practice

ightharpoonup Of course, for real data, we use the empirical covariance  $\hat{\Sigma}$ 

#### Algorithm: PCA

- 1. Compute empirical mean :  $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \; (\text{cost } O(nd))$
- 2. Compute empirical cov. matrix :  $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \hat{\mu})(x_i \hat{\mu})^{\top}$  (cost  $O(nd^2)$ )
- 3. Compute the eigenvectors of the p largest eigenvalues of  $\hat{\Sigma}$  (cost  $O(d^3)$ )

## Computing PCA in practice

ightharpoonup Of course, for real data, we use the empirical covariance  $\hat{\Sigma}$ 

#### Algorithm: PCA

- 1. Compute empirical mean :  $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \text{ (cost } O(nd))$
- 2. Compute empirical cov. matrix :  $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \hat{\mu}) (x_i \hat{\mu})^{\top}$  (cost  $O(nd^2)$ )
- 3. Compute the eigenvectors of the p largest eigenvalues of  $\hat{\Sigma}$  (cost  $O(d^3)$ )

#### Remark: SVD

Taking  $X_c$  the matrix of centered data  $x_i - \hat{\mu}$ , such that  $\hat{\Sigma} = X_c^\top X_c / (n-1)$ , and the Singular Value Decomposition

$$X_c = U\Gamma V^{\top} \qquad (\cos t O(nd^2 + d^3))$$

we have directly  $\hat{\Sigma} = V\Gamma^2 V^\top/(n-1)$ . SVD is often "more convenient" (more algorithms available, more stable, etc.)

#### PCA: remarks

#### Standardization matter

- Often center and "whiten" data to unit norm column  $\tilde{x}_i = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_k)(x_i \hat{\mu})$
- ▶ The low-dimensional representation of x is  $z = [\tilde{x}^\top v_k]_k \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . Don't forget the same pre-processing!! Scikit-learn does it automatically.

#### PCA: remarks

#### Standardization matter

- ▶ Often center and "whiten" data to unit norm column  $\tilde{x}_i = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_k)(x_i \hat{\mu})$
- ▶ The low-dimensional representation of x is  $z = [\tilde{x}^\top v_k]_k \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . Don't forget the same pre-processing!! Scikit-learn does it automatically.

#### Computational cost

SVD is costly for high n or d, but we need only the p first eigenvectors! There are strategies: power iterations/Lanczos, randomized SVD...

## PCA: remarks

#### Standardization matter

- Often center and "whiten" data to unit norm column  $\tilde{x}_i = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_k)(x_i \hat{\mu})$
- ▶ The low-dimensional representation of x is  $z = [\tilde{x}^\top v_k]_k \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . Don't forget the same pre-processing!! Scikit-learn does it automatically.

#### Computational cost

SVD is costly for high n or d, but we need only the p first eigenvectors! There are strategies: power iterations/Lanczos, randomized SVD...

#### Model selection

Popular criterion: increase p until the "explained variance"

$$\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{p} \lambda_k}{\sum_{k=1}^{d} \lambda_k}$$

is close enough to 1. But computing full SVD may be too costly! Myriad of other strategies.

▶ When d is high, we want to avoid the cost  $O(d^3)$ .

- ▶ When d is high, we want to avoid the cost  $O(d^3)$ .
- ▶ Remember : the eigenvalue equation

$$\sum v = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c^{\top} X_c v = \lambda v$$

- ▶ When d is high, we want to avoid the cost  $O(d^3)$ .
- Remember : the eigenvalue equation

$$\sum v = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c^{\top} X_c v = \lambda v$$

This can be written as

$$\frac{1}{n-1}X_cX_c^{\top}X_cv = \lambda X_cv \Leftrightarrow Su = \lambda u$$

with  $u = X_c v$ , i.e. an eigenvalue problem on  $S = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c X_c^{\top}$  instead.

- ▶ When d is high, we want to avoid the cost  $O(d^3)$ .
- Remember : the eigenvalue equation

$$\sum v = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c^{\top} X_c v = \lambda v$$

This can be written as

$$\frac{1}{n-1}X_cX_c^{\top}X_cv = \lambda X_cv \Leftrightarrow Su = \lambda u$$

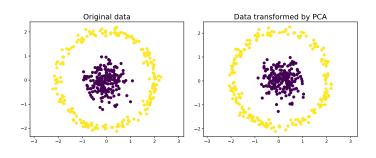
with  $u = X_c v$ , i.e. an eigenvalue problem on  $S = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c X_c^{\top}$  instead.

- ▶ Properties :
  - the matrix  $\Sigma$  is rank n < d, it has only n non-zero eigenvalues.
  - ► Same non-zero eigenvalues as full-rank S.
  - ▶ Given  $v_i$ ,  $X_c v_i$  is an eigenvector of S, and given  $u_i$ ,  $X_c^\top v_i$  is an eigenvector of  $\Sigma$ . Not necessarily normalized!!
- ▶ The decomposition can be done on S instead! Cost  $O(n^3)$ . Given  $u_i$  with  $||u_i|| = 1$ ,  $v_i$  can be recovered (after normalization  $||v_i|| = 1$ ) as

$$v_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)\lambda_i}} X_c^T u_i$$

#### Kernel PCA

What to do when data are far from being linearly "oriented"?



#### Kernel PCA

What to do when data are far from being linearly "oriented"?

▶ Assume the data is centered  $\hat{\mu} = 0$ . Then  $S_{ij} = \frac{1}{n-1}x_i^{\top}x_j$ .

#### Kernel PCA

What to do when data are far from being linearly "oriented"?

▶ Assume the data is centered  $\hat{\mu} = 0$ . Then  $S_{ij} = \frac{1}{n-1}x_i^{\top}x_j$ .

► (High-dim) PCA depends only on the inner products between samples.

What to do when data are far from being linearly "oriented"?

▶ Assume the data is centered  $\hat{\mu} = 0$ . Then  $S_{ij} = \frac{1}{n-1}x_i^{\top}x_j$ .

► (High-dim) PCA depends only on the inner products between samples.

▶ We can improve PCA by transforming the data into a higher-dimensional space  $\Phi(x_i) \in \mathcal{H}$ , as long as we know how to compute  $\langle \Phi(x), \Phi(x') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ 

## Definition (Positive semi-definite kernel)

A symmetric kernel  $k:\mathbb{R}^d imes\mathbb{R}^d o\mathbb{R}$  is said to be positive semi-definite (psd) iff

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall \xi_1 \dots \xi_n \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall \mathsf{x}_1 \dots \mathsf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, \sum_{i,j}^n \xi_i \xi_j k(\mathsf{x}_i, \mathsf{x}_j) \geq 0$$

## Definition (Positive semi-definite kernel)

A symmetric kernel  $k: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is said to be positive semi-definite (psd) iff

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall \xi_1 \dots \xi_n \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall x_1 \dots x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, \sum_{i,j}^n \xi_i \xi_j k(x_i, x_j) \geq 0$$

This is true for any inner product :  $\sum_{i,j} \xi_i \xi_j \langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \| \sum_i \xi_i \phi(x_i) \|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ .

## Definition (Positive semi-definite kernel)

A symmetric kernel  $k: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is said to be positive semi-definite (psd) iff

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall \xi_1 \dots \xi_n \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall \mathsf{x}_1 \dots \mathsf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, \sum_{i,j}^n \xi_i \xi_j k(\mathsf{x}_i, \mathsf{x}_j) \geq 0$$

This is true for any inner product :  $\sum_{i,j} \xi_i \xi_j \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \| \sum_i \xi_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ . But the converse is also true!!

### Theorem (Mercer Theorem)

For every positive semi-definite kernel k, there exists a Hilbert space  $\mathcal H$  and a feature map  $\phi:\mathbb R^d\to\mathcal H$  such that  $k(x,x')=\langle\phi(x),\phi(x')\rangle_{\mathcal H}$ .

### Definition (Positive semi-definite kernel)

A symmetric kernel  $k: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is said to be positive semi-definite (psd) iff

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \forall \xi_1 \dots \xi_n \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall \mathsf{x}_1 \dots \mathsf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, \sum_{i,j}^n \xi_i \xi_j k(\mathsf{x}_i, \mathsf{x}_j) \geq 0$$

This is true for any inner product :  $\sum_{i,j} \xi_i \xi_j \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \| \sum_i \xi_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$ . But the converse is also true!!

### Theorem (Mercer Theorem)

For every positive semi-definite kernel k, there exists a Hilbert space  $\mathcal H$  and a feature map  $\phi: \mathbb R^d \to \mathcal H$  such that  $k(x,x') = \langle \phi(x), \phi(x') \rangle_{\mathcal H}$ .

It is possible to choose  $\mathcal H$  as a space of functions, such that  $k(\cdot,x)\in\mathcal H$ , and  $\langle f,k(\cdot,x)\rangle_{\mathcal H}=f(x)$ . It is called the Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) associated to k.

# Operations on kernels

Let  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  be psd, and  $\lambda_{1,2} > 0$  then :

- 1.  $\lambda_1 k_1$ , (multiplication by a positive scalar)
- 2.  $\lambda_1 k_1 + \lambda_2 k_2$ , (sum of kernels),
- 3.  $k_1k_2$ , (product of kernels),
- 4.  $\exp(k_1)$ , (exponential of kernel),
- 5.  $(x_i, x_j) \mapsto g(x_i)g(x_j)k_1(x_i, x_j)$ , with  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ , (multiplication by a function)

are all positive semi-definite, hence valid kernels.

These operations allow us to create more complicated kernels by combining simple ones.

# Choosing the Kernel function

#### Usual kernel functions

- ▶ Linear kernel (  $\mathcal{F} \equiv \mathbb{R}^d$ ) :  $k(x, x') = x^T x'$
- ▶ Polynomial kernel (dimension of  $\mathcal{F}$  increases with the order d)

$$k(x, x') = (x^T x')^d$$
 or  $(x^T x' + 1)^d$ 

Gaussian radial function (F with infinite dimension)

$$k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\gamma ||x - x'||^2\right)$$

Neural net kernel ( $\mathcal{F}$  with infinite dimension)

$$k(x, x') = \tanh\left(\kappa_1 x^T x' + \kappa_2\right)$$

standard practice is to estimate the optimal kernel parameters by cross-validation

#### Idea

Replace 
$$x_i^{\top} x_j$$
 with  $k(x_i, x_j) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}...$ 

In Just replace 
$$S = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c X_c^{\top}$$
 with  $S_K = \frac{1}{n-1} K$ , where  $K = [k(x_i, x_j)]_{ij}$ .

#### Idea

Replace  $x_i^{\top} x_j$  with  $k(x_i, x_j) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}...$ 

In Just replace 
$$S = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c X_c^{\top}$$
 with  $S_K = \frac{1}{n-1} K$ , where  $K = [k(x_i, x_j)]_{ij}$ .

▶ Compute the eigenvalues/eigenvectors  $(\lambda_k, u_k)$  of  $S_K$ .

#### Idea

Replace  $x_i^{\top} x_j$  with  $k(x_i, x_j) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}...$ 

If Just replace 
$$S = \frac{1}{n-1} X_c X_c^{\top}$$
 with  $S_K = \frac{1}{n-1} K$ , where  $K = [k(x_i, x_j)]_{ij}$ .

- ▶ Compute the eigenvalues/eigenvectors  $(\lambda_k, u_k)$  of  $S_K$ .
- ▶ It is generally impossible to compute  $v_k = \frac{\sum_i \Phi(x_i)(u_k)_i}{\sqrt{(n-1)\lambda_k}}$  since it is in  $\mathcal{H}$ ...
- ... however for any x we can compute the projection on the components  $\langle \Phi(x), v_k \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)\lambda_k}} \sum_i k(x,x_i) (u_k)_i$

#### Idea

Replace  $x_i^{\top} x_j$  with  $k(x_i, x_j) = \langle \Phi(x_i), \Phi(x_j) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}...$ 

If 
$$S_K = \frac{1}{n-1}X_cX_c^{\top}$$
 with  $S_K = \frac{1}{n-1}K$ , where  $K = [k(x_i, x_j)]_{ij}$ .

- ▶ Compute the eigenvalues/eigenvectors  $(\lambda_k, u_k)$  of  $S_K$ .
- ▶ It is generally impossible to compute  $v_k = \frac{\sum_i \Phi(x_i)(u_k)_i}{\sqrt{(n-1)\lambda_k}}$  since it is in  $\mathcal{H}$ ...
- ... however for any x we can compute the projection on the components  $\langle \Phi(x), v_k \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)\lambda_k}} \sum_i k(x, x_i) (u_k)_i$

### Centering

- ▶ Recall that we have assumed  $\hat{\mu} = 0$ , or equivalently, we work with  $\tilde{x} = x \hat{\mu}$ .
- ▶ In the kernel space, we would like to work with  $\tilde{\Phi}(x) = \Phi(x) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} \Phi(x_i)$ .
- The inner product becomes  $\langle \tilde{\Phi}(x), \tilde{\Phi}(x') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = k(x, x') \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} [k(x, x_i) + k(x', x_i)] + \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{ij} k(x_i, x_j)$

# Kernel PCA summary

### Kernel PCA

1. Construct the normalized Kernel Matrix

$$\tilde{K} = K - UK - KU + UKU$$

where  $U = 1_{n \times n}/n$ .

# Kernel PCA summary

### Kernel PCA

1. Construct the normalized Kernel Matrix

$$\tilde{K} = K - UK - KU + UKU$$

where  $U = 1_{n \times n}/n$ .

2. Solve the eigenvalue problem

$$S_{\tilde{K}}u_k = \lambda_k u_k$$

# Kernel PCA summary

#### Kernel PCA

1. Construct the normalized Kernel Matrix

$$\tilde{K} = K - UK - KU + UKU$$

where  $U = 1_{n \times n}/n$ .

2. Solve the eigenvalue problem

$$S_{\tilde{K}}u_k = \lambda_k u_k$$

3. The projection of x is  $z_k = \langle \tilde{\Phi}(x), v_k \rangle$  with  $v_k = \frac{\sum_i (u_k)_i \Phi(x_i)}{\sqrt{\lambda_k (n-1)}}$ , i.e.

$$z_k = \frac{\tilde{K}_x^\top u_k}{\sqrt{\lambda_k(n-1)}}$$

where  $K_x = [k(x, x_i)]_i$  and  $\tilde{K}_x = K_x - UK_x - K\frac{1_n}{n} + UK\frac{1_n}{n}$ .

# Example of KPCA

