18-661 Introduction to Machine Learning

Dimensionality Reduction

Fall 2020

ECE - Carnegie Mellon University

Announcements

• HW 6 is due on 11/19.

Announcements

- HW 6 is due on 11/19.
- HW 7 (last homework) will be released tomorrow.

Outline

1. Recap: Gaussian Mixture Models

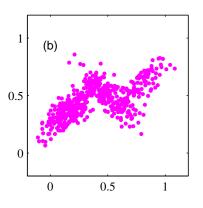
2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

 ${\it 3. \ Independent \ Component \ Analysis \ (ICA)}\\$

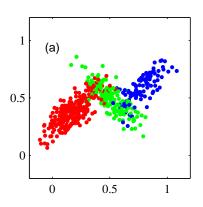
Recap: Gaussian Mixture Models

Probabilistic interpretation of clustering?

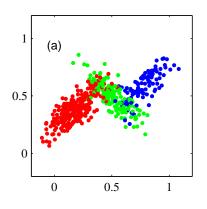
How can we model p(x) to reflect our intuition that points stay close to their cluster centers?



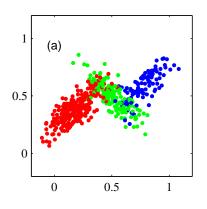
- Points seem to form 3 clusters
- We cannot model p(x) with simple and known distributions
- E.g., the data is not a Gaussian b/c we have 3 distinct concentrated regions...



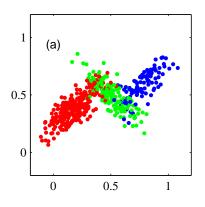
• Key idea: Model *each* region with a distinct distribution



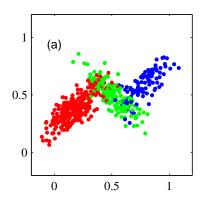
- Key idea: Model each region with a distinct distribution
- Can use Gaussians Gaussian mixture models (GMMs)



- Key idea: Model each region with a distinct distribution
- Can use Gaussians Gaussian mixture models (GMMs)



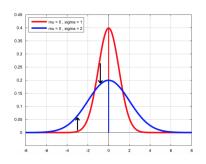
- Key idea: Model each region with a distinct distribution
- Can use Gaussians Gaussian mixture models (GMMs)
- *However*, we don't know cluster assignments (label), parameters of Gaussians, or mixture components!

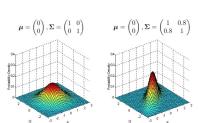


- Key idea: Model each region with a distinct distribution
- Can use Gaussians Gaussian mixture models (GMMs)
- *However*, we don't know cluster assignments (label), parameters of Gaussians, or mixture components!
- Must learn these values from unlabeled data $\mathcal{D} = \{x_n\}_{n=1}^N$

Recall: Gaussian (normal) distributions

$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$$
 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n |\mathbf{\Sigma}|}}$





Gaussian mixture models: Formal definition

GMM has the following density function for x

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

- K: number of Gaussians they are called mixture components
- μ_k and Σ_k : mean and covariance matrix of k-th component
- ω_k : mixture weights (or priors) represent how much each component contributes to final distribution. They satisfy 2 properties:

$$\forall k, \ \omega_k > 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_k \omega_k = 1$$

These properties ensure p(x) is in fact a probability density function.

GMM as the marginal distribution of a joint distribution

Consider the following joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x},z) = p(z)p(\mathbf{x}|z)$$

where z is a discrete random variable taking values between 1 and K.

GMM as the marginal distribution of a joint distribution

Consider the following joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x},z) = p(z)p(\mathbf{x}|z)$$

where z is a discrete random variable taking values between 1 and K.

Denote

$$\omega_k = p(z = k)$$

Now, assume the conditional distributions are Gaussian distributions

$$p(\mathbf{x}|z=k) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

GMM as the marginal distribution of a joint distribution

Consider the following joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x},z) = p(z)p(\mathbf{x}|z)$$

where z is a discrete random variable taking values between 1 and K.

Denote

$$\omega_k = p(z = k)$$

Now, assume the conditional distributions are Gaussian distributions

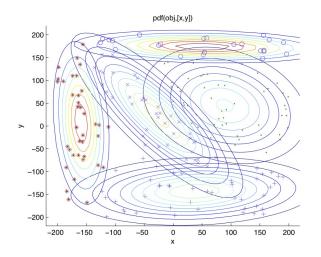
$$p(\mathbf{x}|z=k) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

Then, the marginal distribution of x is

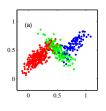
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

Namely, the Gaussian mixture model

Gaussian mixture model for clustering



GMMs: Example

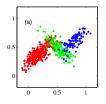


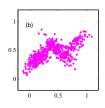
The conditional distribution between x and z (representing color) are

$$p(\mathbf{x}|z = red) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1)$$

 $p(\mathbf{x}|z = blue) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2)$
 $p(\mathbf{x}|z = green) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_3, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_3)$

GMMs: Example





The conditional distribution between x and z (representing color) are

$$p(\mathbf{x}|z = red) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1)$$

 $p(\mathbf{x}|z = blue) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2)$
 $p(\mathbf{x}|z = green) = N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_3, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_3)$

The marginal distribution is thus

$$\begin{split} \rho(\mathbf{x}) &= p(z = \underset{\text{red}}{\textit{red}}) N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1) \\ &+ p(z = \underset{\text{blue}}{\textit{blue}}) N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2) \\ &+ p(z = \underset{\text{green}}{\textit{green}}) N(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_3, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_3) \end{split}$$

Parameter estimation for Gaussian mixture models

The parameters in GMMs are:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\omega_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k\}_{k=1}^K$$

Let's first consider the (unrealistic) case where we know the labels z.

Parameter estimation for Gaussian mixture models

The parameters in GMMs are:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\omega_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k\}_{k=1}^K$$

Let's first consider the (unrealistic) case where we know the labels z.

Define
$$\mathcal{D}' = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n, z_n \}_{n=1}^N$$
, $\mathcal{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n \}_{n=1}^N$

- \mathcal{D}' is the complete data
- \bullet \mathcal{D} the incomplete data

How can we learn our parameters?

Parameter estimation for Gaussian mixture models

The parameters in GMMs are:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\omega_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k\}_{k=1}^K$$

Let's first consider the (unrealistic) case where we know the labels z.

Define
$$\mathcal{D}' = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n, z_n \}_{n=1}^N$$
, $\mathcal{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n \}_{n=1}^N$

- \mathcal{D}' is the complete data
- \bullet \mathcal{D} the incomplete data

How can we learn our parameters?

Given \mathcal{D}' , the maximum likelihood estimation of the heta is given by

$$\theta = \arg \max \sum_n \log p(x_n, z_n)$$

The complete likelihood is decomposable across the labels:

$$\sum_{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}_n, z_n) = \sum_{n} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n) = \sum_{k} \sum_{n: z_n = k} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n)$$

where we have grouped data by cluster labels z_n .

The complete likelihood is decomposable across the labels:

$$\sum_{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}_n, z_n) = \sum_{n} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n) = \sum_{k} \sum_{n: z_n = k} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n)$$

where we have grouped data by cluster labels z_n .

Let $r_{nk} \in \{0,1\}$ be a binary variable that indicates whether $z_n = k$:

The complete likelihood is decomposable across the labels:

$$\sum_{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}_n, z_n) = \sum_{n} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n) = \sum_{k} \sum_{n: z_n = k} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n)$$

where we have grouped data by cluster labels z_n .

Let $r_{nk} \in \{0,1\}$ be a binary variable that indicates whether $z_n = k$:

$$\sum_{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n) = \sum_{k} \sum_{n} r_{nk} \log p(\mathbf{z} = k) p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z} = k)$$

The complete likelihood is decomposable across the labels:

$$\sum_{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}_n, z_n) = \sum_{n} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n) = \sum_{k} \sum_{n: z_n = k} \log p(z_n) p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n)$$

where we have grouped data by cluster labels z_n .

Let $r_{nk} \in \{0,1\}$ be a binary variable that indicates whether $z_n = k$:

$$\sum_{n} \log p(\mathbf{x}_{n}, z_{n}) = \sum_{k} \sum_{n} r_{nk} \log p(z = k) p(\mathbf{x}_{n} | z = k)$$

$$= \sum_{k} \sum_{n} r_{nk} \left[\log \omega_{k} + \log N(\mathbf{x}_{n} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}) \right]$$

In the complete setting, the r_{nk} just add to the notation, but later we will 'relax' these variables and allow them to take on fractional values.

The MLE is:

$$\omega_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk}}{\sum_{k'} \sum_n r_{nk'}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_n$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\top}$$

The MLE is:

$$\omega_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk}}{\sum_{k'} \sum_n r_{nk'}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_n$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\top}$$

Since r_{nk} is binary, the previous solution is nothing but:

• ω_k : fraction of total data points whose cluster label z_n is k

The MLE is:

$$\omega_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk}}{\sum_{k'} \sum_n r_{nk'}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_n$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\top}$$

Since r_{nk} is binary, the previous solution is nothing but:

- ω_k : fraction of total data points whose cluster label z_n is k
 - note that $\sum_{k'} \sum_{n} r_{nk'} = N$

The MLE is:

$$\omega_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk}}{\sum_{k'} \sum_n r_{nk'}}, \quad \mu_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n$$
$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^{\top}$$

Since r_{nk} is binary, the previous solution is nothing but:

- ω_k : fraction of total data points whose cluster label z_n is k
 - note that $\sum_{k'} \sum_{n} r_{nk'} = N$
- μ_k : mean of all data points whose label z_n is k

The MLE is:

$$\omega_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk}}{\sum_{k'} \sum_n r_{nk'}}, \quad \mu_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n$$
$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^{\top}$$

Since r_{nk} is binary, the previous solution is nothing but:

- ω_k : fraction of total data points whose cluster label z_n is k
 - note that $\sum_{k'} \sum_{n} r_{nk'} = N$
- μ_k : mean of all data points whose label z_n is k
- Σ_k : covariance of all data points whose label z_n is k

GMM Parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\omega_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k\}_{k=1}^K$$

Incomplete Data

Our data contains observed and unobserved data, and hence is incomplete:

- Observed: $\mathcal{D} = \{x_n\}$
- Unobserved (hidden): $\{z_n\}$

GMM Parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\omega_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k\}_{k=1}^K$$

Incomplete Data

Our data contains observed and unobserved data, and hence is incomplete:

- Observed: $\mathcal{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n \}$
- Unobserved (hidden): $\{z_n\}$

Goal: Obtain the maximum likelihood estimate of θ :

$$\theta = \arg\max\log p(\mathcal{D}) = \arg\max\sum_{n}\log p(x_n)$$

GMM Parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\omega_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k\}_{k=1}^K$$

Incomplete Data

Our data contains observed and unobserved data, and hence is incomplete:

- Observed: $\mathcal{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}_n \}$
- Unobserved (hidden): $\{z_n\}$

Goal: Obtain the maximum likelihood estimate of θ :

$$heta = rg \max \log p(\mathcal{D}) = rg \max \sum_n \log p(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

$$= rg \max \sum_n \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}_n} p(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n)$$

The objective function is called the *incomplete* log-likelihood.

No simple way to optimize the incomplete log-likelihood...

No simple way to optimize the incomplete log-likelihood...

EM algorithm provides a strategy for iteratively optimizing this function!

No simple way to optimize the incomplete log-likelihood...

EM algorithm provides a strategy for iteratively optimizing this function!

E-Step: 'Guess' values of the z_n using existing values of $\theta = \{\omega_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k\}_{k=1}^K$. How do we do this?

No simple way to optimize the incomplete log-likelihood...

EM algorithm provides a strategy for iteratively optimizing this function!

E-Step: 'Guess' values of the z_n using existing values of $\theta = \{\omega_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k\}_{k=1}^K$. How do we do this?

When z_n is not given, we can guess it via the posterior probability (recall: Bayes' rule!)

$$p(z_n = k | \mathbf{x}_n) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k)p(z_n = k)}{p(\mathbf{x}_n)}$$

No simple way to optimize the incomplete log-likelihood...

EM algorithm provides a strategy for iteratively optimizing this function!

E-Step: 'Guess' values of the z_n using existing values of $\theta = \{\omega_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k\}_{k=1}^K$. How do we do this?

When z_n is not given, we can guess it via the posterior probability (recall: Bayes' rule!)

$$p(z_n = k | \mathbf{x}_n) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k) p(z_n = k)}{p(\mathbf{x}_n)}$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k) p(z_n = k)}{\sum_{k'=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k') p(z_n = k')}$$

No simple way to optimize the incomplete log-likelihood...

EM algorithm provides a strategy for iteratively optimizing this function!

E-Step: 'Guess' values of the z_n using existing values of $\theta = \{\omega_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k\}_{k=1}^K$. How do we do this?

When z_n is not given, we can guess it via the posterior probability (recall: Bayes' rule!)

$$p(z_n = k | \mathbf{x}_n) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k) p(z_n = k)}{p(\mathbf{x}_n)}$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k) p(z_n = k)}{\sum_{k'=1}^K p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_n = k') p(z_n = k')}$$

$$= \frac{N(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \times \omega_k}{\sum_{k'=1}^K N(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k'}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k'}) \times \omega_{k'}}$$

Estimation with soft r_{nk}

We define
$$r_{nk} = p(z_n = k|x_n)$$

Estimation with soft r_{nk}

We define $r_{nk} = p(z_n = k | \boldsymbol{x}_n)$

- Recall that r_{nk} was previously binary
- Now it's a "soft" assignment of x_n to k-th component
- Each x_n is assigned to a component fractionally according to $p(z_n = k|x_n)$

Estimation with soft r_{nk}

We define $r_{nk} = p(z_n = k | \mathbf{x}_n)$

- Recall that r_{nk} was previously binary
- Now it's a "soft" assignment of x_n to k-th component
- Each x_n is assigned to a component fractionally according to $p(z_n = k|x_n)$

M-Step: If we solve for the MLE of $\theta = \{\omega_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k\}_{k=1}^K$ given soft r_{nk} s, we get the same expressions as before!

$$\omega_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk}}{\sum_k \sum_n r_{nk}}, \quad \mu_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n$$
$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n r_{nk}} \sum_n r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^{\top}$$

But remember, we're 'cheating' by using θ to compute r_{nk} !

EM procedure for GMM

Alternate between estimating r_{nk} and estimating parameters θ

- Step 0: Initialize θ with some values (random or otherwise)
- Step 1: E-Step: Set $r_{nk} = p(z_n = k|x_n)$ with the current values of θ using Bayes Rule
- Step 2: M-Step: Update θ using the r_{nk} s from Step 2 using MLE
- Step 3: Go back to Step 1.

At the end convert r_{nk} back to binary by setting the largest r_{nk} for point x_n to 1 and others to 0.

GMMs and K-means

GMMs provide probabilistic interpretation for K-means

GMMs and K-means

GMMs provide probabilistic interpretation for K-means

GMMs reduce to K-means under the following assumptions (in which case EM for GMM parameter estimation simplifies to K-means):

- Assume all Gaussians have $\sigma^2 I$ covariance matrices
- ullet Further assume $\sigma o 0$, so we only need to estimate $\mu_{\it k}$, i.e., means

K-means is often called "hard" GMM or GMMs is called "soft" K-means

The posterior r_{nk} provides a probabilistic assignment for x_n to cluster k

GMMs vs. k-means

Pros/Cons

• *k*-means is a simpler, more straightforward method, but might not be as accurate because of deterministic clustering

GMMs vs. k-means

Pros/Cons

- *k*-means is a simpler, more straightforward method, but might not be as accurate because of deterministic clustering
- GMMs can be more accurate, as they model more information (soft clustering, variance), but can be more expensive to compute

GMMs vs. k-means

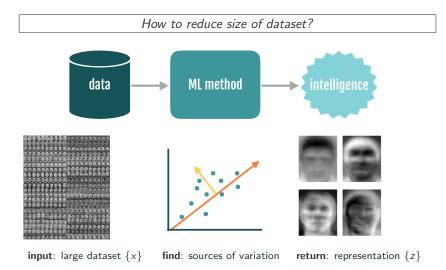
Pros/Cons

- *k*-means is a simpler, more straightforward method, but might not be as accurate because of deterministic clustering
- GMMs can be more accurate, as they model more information (soft clustering, variance), but can be more expensive to compute
- Both methods have a similar set of practical issues (having to select k, the distance, and the initialization)

Principal Component Analysis

(PCA)

Task 4: Embedding



Topics: Dimensionality Reduction, PCA

Raw data can be complex and high-dimensional

• To understand a phenomenon we measure various related quantities

Raw data can be complex and high-dimensional

- To understand a phenomenon we measure various related quantities
- If we knew what to measure or how to represent our measurements, we might find simple relationships

Raw data can be complex and high-dimensional

- To understand a phenomenon we measure various related quantities
- If we knew what to measure or how to represent our measurements, we might find simple relationships
- But in practice we often measure redundant signals, e.g., US and European shoe sizes

Raw data can be complex and high-dimensional

- To understand a phenomenon we measure various related quantities
- If we knew what to measure or how to represent our measurements, we might find simple relationships
- But in practice we often measure redundant signals, e.g., US and European shoe sizes
- We also represent data via the method by which it was gathered,
 e.g., pixel representation of brain imaging data

Dimensionality Reduction

Issues

- 1. Measure redundant signals
- 2. Represent data via the method by which it was gathered

Dimensionality Reduction

Issues

- 1. Measure redundant signals
- 2. Represent data via the method by which it was gathered

Goal:

Find a "better" representation for data

- 1. To visualize and discover hidden patterns
- 2. Preprocessing for supervised task

Dimensionality Reduction

Issues

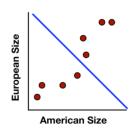
- 1. Measure redundant signals
- 2. Represent data via the method by which it was gathered

Goal:

Find a "better" representation for data

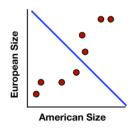
- 1. To visualize and discover hidden patterns
- 2. Preprocessing for supervised task

How do we define "better"?



We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

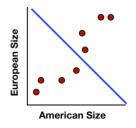
Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation



We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

 Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation

How can we do better, i.e., find a simpler, compact representation?

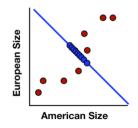


We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation

How can we do better, i.e., find a simpler, compact representation?

 Pick a direction and project onto this direction

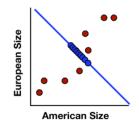


We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

 Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation

How can we do better, i.e., find a simpler, compact representation?

Pick a direction and project onto this direction



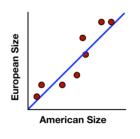
We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation

How can we do better, i.e., find a simpler, compact representation?

 Pick a direction and project onto this direction

Can we pick a better direction?

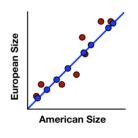


We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation

How can we do better, i.e., find a simpler, compact representation?

 Pick a direction and project onto this direction



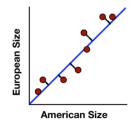
We take noisy measurements on the European and American scales

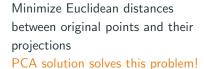
Modulo noise, we expect perfect correlation

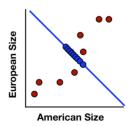
How can we do better, i.e., find a simpler, compact representation?

 Pick a direction and project onto this direction

Goal: Minimize Reconstruction Error



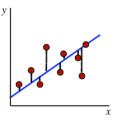




Goal: Minimize Reconstruction Error

Linear Regression

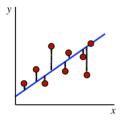
Predict y from x. Evaluate predictions (represented by blue line) by vertical distances between points and the line.



Goal: Minimize Reconstruction Error

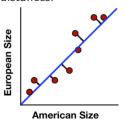
Linear Regression

Predict y from x. Evaluate predictions (represented by blue line) by vertical distances between points and the line.



PCA

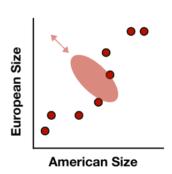
Reconstruct 2D data via 2D data with single degree of freedom. Evaluate reconstructions (represented by blue line) by Euclidean distances.



The distinction is even more apparent with high-dimensional data.

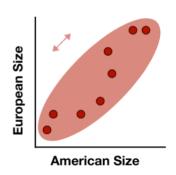
Goal: Maximize Variance and Minimize Feature-Correlation

- To identify patterns we want to study variation across observations
- Can we do "better", i.e., find a compact representation that captures variation?



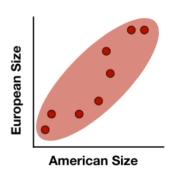
Goal: Maximize Variance and Minimize Feature-Correlation

- To identify patterns we want to study variation across observations
- Can we do "better", i.e., find a compact representation that captures variation?



Goal: Maximize Variance and Minimize Feature-Correlation

- To identify patterns we want to study variation across observations
- Can we do "better", i.e., find a compact representation that captures variation?
- PCA solution finds directions of maximal variance that are orthogonal to each other



PCA Formulation

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data, each row is a data point)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")
- Linearity assumption (Z = XP) simplifies problem

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Z} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{X} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{P} \end{array}\right]$$

PCA Formulation

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data, each row is a data point)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")
- Linearity assumption (Z = XP) simplifies problem

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Z} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{X} \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{P} \end{array}\right]$$

- Projecting each row of X along the column vectors of P
- How do we design the matrix P?

Step 1: Zero-Center All the Features

- $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$: matrix storing points
- $\mathbf{x}_{j}^{(i)}$: j^{th} feature value for i^{th} point
- μ_j : mean of j^{th} feature
- Deduct μ_j from all features

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Z} \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_d \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{X}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{P} \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 1: Zero-Center All the Features

Given n training points with d features:

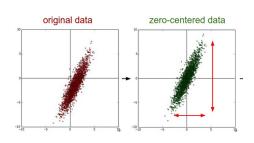
- $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$: matrix storing points
- $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{(i)}$: j^{th} feature value for i^{th} point
- μ_j : mean of j^{th} feature
- Deduct μ_i from all features

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \mathbf{Z} & \\ & \mathbf{Z} & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & | & & | & \\ \mathbf{x}_1 - \mu_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_d - \mu_d \\ & | & & | & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & \mathbf{P} & \end{bmatrix}$$

From now on, assume that all columns of X are zero-centered

Step 1: Zero-Center All the Features

- $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$: matrix storing points
- $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{(i)}$: j^{th} feature vector for i^{th} point
- μ_j : mean of j^{th} feature
- Deduct μ_i from all features



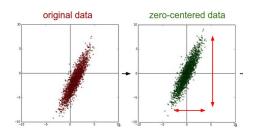
Given n training points with d features:

• Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$



Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- \bullet Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

Properties of Co-variance σ_{12}

• Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- \bullet Zero \rightarrow

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- \bullet Zero \rightarrow

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- Zero \rightarrow uncorrelated features
- ullet Large magnitude o

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- Zero \rightarrow uncorrelated features
- ullet Large magnitude o

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- Zero → uncorrelated features
- Large magnitude → (anti) correlated/ redundant
- $\bullet \ \sigma_{12}=\sigma_1^2=\sigma_2^2\to$

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- Zero → uncorrelated features
- Large magnitude → (anti) correlated/ redundant
- $\bullet \ \sigma_{12}=\sigma_1^2=\sigma_2^2\to$

Given n training points with d features:

- Variance of 1st (zero-centered) feature is $\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)})^2$
- Covariance of 1st and 2nd feature $\sigma_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_1^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}$

- Symmetric: $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21}$
- Zero → uncorrelated features
- Large magnitude → (anti) correlated/ redundant
- ullet $\sigma_{12}=\sigma_1^2=\sigma_2^2 o$ features are the same

• Covariance matrix generalizes this idea for many features

- Covariance matrix generalizes this idea for many features
- For zero-centered features this $d \times d$ matrix is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{x}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{x}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

- · Covariance matrix generalizes this idea for many features
- For zero-centered features this $d \times d$ matrix is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{x}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{x}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

ullet i^{th} diagonal entry equals variance of i^{th} feature

- Covariance matrix generalizes this idea for many features
- For zero-centered features this $d \times d$ matrix is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{x}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{x}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

- *i*th diagonal entry equals variance of *i*th feature
- $(i,j)^{th}$ diagonal entry equals covariance of i^{th} and j^{th} features

- · Covariance matrix generalizes this idea for many features
- For zero-centered features this $d \times d$ matrix is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{x}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{x}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

- *i*th diagonal entry equals variance of *i*th feature
- $(i,j)^{th}$ diagonal entry equals covariance of i^{th} and j^{th} features
- Symmetric (makes sense given definition of covariance)

- Covariance matrix generalizes this idea for many features
- For zero-centered features this $d \times d$ matrix is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{x}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{x}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{x}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{x}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

- *i*th diagonal entry equals variance of *i*th feature
- $(i,j)^{th}$ diagonal entry equals covariance of i^{th} and j^{th} features
- Symmetric (makes sense given definition of covariance)
- What is the covariance matrix in terms of mean-removed samples?

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$
$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$

$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

We want the covariance matrix C_Z to have the following properties:

ullet No feature correlation, i.e., all off-diagonals in C_Z are zero

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$

$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

We want the covariance matrix C_Z to have the following properties:

- No feature correlation, i.e., all off-diagonals in Cz are zero
- Rank-ordered features by variance, i.e., sorted diagonals of Cz

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$

$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

We want the covariance matrix C_Z to have the following properties:

- No feature correlation, i.e., all off-diagonals in Cz are zero
- Rank-ordered features by variance, i.e., sorted diagonals of Cz

- **X** is $n \times d$ (raw data)
- **P** is $d \times k$ (columns are k principal components)
- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$
$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

We want the covariance matrix C_Z to have the following properties:

- ullet No feature correlation, i.e., all off-diagonals in C_Z are zero
- Rank-ordered features by variance, i.e., sorted diagonals of Cz

Idea: Eigen-value decomposition of C_X

Eigen-value Decomposition

The covariance matrix C_X is symmetric, positive semi-definite and therefore has a singular value decomposition:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{T}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{v}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{v}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \lambda_{d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{v}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{v}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{v}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix}$$

• Eigen-values of C_X are ordered $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_d$

Eigen-value Decomposition

The covariance matrix C_X is symmetric, positive semi-definite and therefore has a singular value decomposition:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{T}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{v}_{1} & \dots & \mathbf{v}_{d} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \lambda_{d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -- & \mathbf{v}_{1}^{T} & -- \\ -- & \mathbf{v}_{2}^{T} & -- \\ & \vdots & \\ -- & \mathbf{v}_{d}^{T} & -- \end{bmatrix}$$

- Eigen-values of C_X are ordered $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_d$
- \mathbf{Q} is an matrix of d orthonormal eigen-vectors \mathbf{v}_i of $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}}$

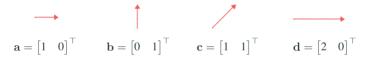
Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthogonal vectors are **perpendicular** to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthonormal vectors are orthogonal and have unit norm

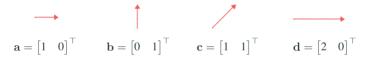


• Are **a** and **b** orthonormal?

Orthogonal vectors are **perpendicular** to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthonormal vectors are orthogonal and have unit norm



• Are **a** and **b** orthonormal?

Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthonormal vectors are orthogonal and have unit norm

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \qquad \mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \qquad \mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\top}$$

- Are a and b orthonormal? YES
- Are **b** and **d** orthonormal?

Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthonormal vectors are orthogonal and have unit norm

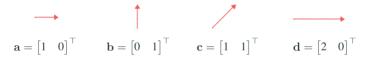
$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \qquad \mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{\top} \qquad \mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\top}$$

- Are a and b orthonormal? YES
- Are **b** and **d** orthonormal?

Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthonormal vectors are orthogonal and have unit norm



- Are a and b orthonormal? YES
- Are **b** and **d** orthonormal? **NO**

Recall: Orthogonal and Orthonormal Vectors

Orthogonal vectors are perpendicular to each other

- Equivalently, their dot product equals zero
- $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$ and $\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{b} = 0$, but \mathbf{c} isn't orthogonal to others

Orthonormal vectors are orthogonal and have unit norm



- Are a and b orthonormal? YES
- Are **b** and **d** orthonormal? **NO**

If \mathbf{Q} is an orthonormal matrix, then $\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}$

 \bullet The covariance matrix $\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}}$ is symmetric, positive semi-definite and it can be decomposed as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{X}} &= \boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{Q}^T \\ \boldsymbol{Q}^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{Q} &= \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \end{aligned}$$

 \bullet The covariance matrix $\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}}$ is symmetric, positive semi-definite and it can be decomposed as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} &= \textbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \textbf{Q}^{T} \\ \textbf{Q}^{T} \textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} \textbf{Q} &= \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \end{aligned}$$

• Recall our desired PCA solution

 \bullet The covariance matrix $\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}}$ is symmetric, positive semi-definite and it can be decomposed as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} &= \textbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \textbf{Q}^{T} \\ \textbf{Q}^{T} \textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} \textbf{Q} &= \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \end{aligned}$$

• Recall our desired PCA solution

 \bullet The covariance matrix $\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}}$ is symmetric, positive semi-definite and it can be decomposed as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} &= \textbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \textbf{Q}^{T} \\ \textbf{Q}^{T} \textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} \textbf{Q} &= \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Recall our desired PCA solution

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$

$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

• $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")

 \bullet The covariance matrix $\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}}$ is symmetric, positive semi-definite and it can be decomposed as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} &= \mathbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T \\ \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{Q} &= \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Recall our desired PCA solution

$$C_{Z} = \frac{1}{n} Z^{T} Z$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} P^{T} X^{T} X P$$

$$= P^{T} C_{X} P$$

- $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{XP}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores")
- C_Z should have zero off-diagonal entries

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} &= \boldsymbol{Q}^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{Q} \\ \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{Z}} &= \boldsymbol{P}^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{P} \end{split}$$

• Can we just take $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Z}} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$?

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} &= \boldsymbol{Q}^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{Q} \\ \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{Z}} &= \boldsymbol{P}^T \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{P} \end{split}$$

• Can we just take $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Z}} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$?

$$\Lambda = Q^T C_X Q$$

$$C_Z = P^T C_X P$$

- Can we just take $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Z}} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$? No, because $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{P}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores").
- Choose P as the first k columns of Q

$$\Lambda = Q^T C_X Q$$

$$C_7 = P^T C_X P$$

- Can we just take $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{Z}} = \mathbf{\Lambda}$? No, because $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{P}$ is $n \times k$ (reduced representation, PCA "scores").
- Choose **P** as the first *k* columns of **Q**
- Capture the *k* directions of maximum variance.

PCA: Example

Suppose the covariance of X is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Question: Find **P** for k = 1.

PCA: Example

Suppose the covariance of X is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Question: Find **P** for k = 1.

Eigen-value decomposition of C_X

$$\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

PCA: Example

Suppose the covariance of X is

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Question: Find **P** for k = 1.

Eigen-value decomposition of C_X

$$\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus
$$\mathbf{P} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right]^T$$

How should we pick the dimension of the new representation?

How should we pick the dimension of the new representation?

Visualization:

Pick top 2 or 3 dimensions for plotting purposes

How should we pick the dimension of the new representation?

Visualization:

Pick top 2 or 3 dimensions for plotting purposes

Other analyses:

Capture "most" of the variance in the data

 Recall that eigenvalues are variances in the directions specified by eigenvectors, and that eigenvalues are sorted

How should we pick the dimension of the new representation?

Visualization:

Pick top 2 or 3 dimensions for plotting purposes

Other analyses:

Capture "most" of the variance in the data

- Recall that eigenvalues are variances in the directions specified by eigenvectors, and that eigenvalues are sorted
- Fraction of retained variance: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i}$

How should we pick the dimension of the new representation?

Visualization:

Pick top 2 or 3 dimensions for plotting purposes

Other analyses:

Capture "most" of the variance in the data

- Recall that eigenvalues are variances in the directions specified by eigenvectors, and that eigenvalues are sorted
- Fraction of retained variance: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i}$

How should we pick the dimension of the new representation?

Visualization:

Pick top 2 or 3 dimensions for plotting purposes

Other analyses:

Capture "most" of the variance in the data

- Recall that eigenvalues are variances in the directions specified by eigenvectors, and that eigenvalues are sorted
- Fraction of retained variance: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i}$

Can choose k such that we retain some fraction of the variance, eg. 95%

PCA assumptions (linearity, orthogonality) not always appropriate

• Various extensions to PCA with different underlying assumptions, e.g., manifold learning, Kernel PCA, ICA

PCA assumptions (linearity, orthogonality) not always appropriate

- Various extensions to PCA with different underlying assumptions, e.g., manifold learning, Kernel PCA, ICA
- Centering is crucial, i.e., we must preprocess data so that all features have zero mean before applying PCA

PCA assumptions (linearity, orthogonality) not always appropriate

- Various extensions to PCA with different underlying assumptions, e.g., manifold learning, Kernel PCA, ICA
- Centering is crucial, i.e., we must preprocess data so that all features have zero mean before applying PCA
- PCA results dependent on scaling of data

PCA assumptions (linearity, orthogonality) not always appropriate

- Various extensions to PCA with different underlying assumptions, e.g., manifold learning, Kernel PCA, ICA
- Centering is crucial, i.e., we must preprocess data so that all features have zero mean before applying PCA
- PCA results dependent on scaling of data
- Data is sometimes rescaled in practice before applying PCA

Problem

• For high-dimensional original features (large d) computing the eigenvalue decomposition of \mathbf{C}_X , and sorting the eigenvalues can be intractable.

Problem

• For high-dimensional original features (large d) computing the eigenvalue decomposition of \mathbf{C}_X , and sorting the eigenvalues can be intractable.

Iterative Algorithm

1. Find the top principal component \mathbf{v}_1 (need an efficient method for this)

Problem

• For high-dimensional original features (large d) computing the eigenvalue decomposition of \mathbf{C}_X , and sorting the eigenvalues can be intractable.

Iterative Algorithm

- 1. Find the top principal component \mathbf{v}_1 (need an efficient method for this)
- 2. Replace each datapoint ${\bf x}$ by ${\bf x}-{\bf v}_1{\bf v}_1^T{\bf x}$, that is, remove the projection on ${\bf v}_1$

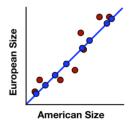
Problem

• For high-dimensional original features (large d) computing the eigenvalue decomposition of \mathbf{C}_X , and sorting the eigenvalues can be intractable.

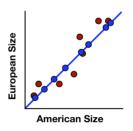
Iterative Algorithm

- 1. Find the top principal component \mathbf{v}_1 (need an efficient method for this)
- 2. Replace each datapoint ${\bf x}$ by ${\bf x}-{\bf v}_1{\bf v}_1^T{\bf x}$, that is, remove the projection on ${\bf v}_1$
- 3. Recurse until we find k components

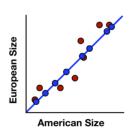
1. Find $C_X = X^T X$



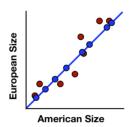
- 1. Find $C_X = X^T X$
- 2. Initialize \mathbf{v}_1 to a random normalized vector



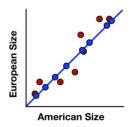
- 1. Find $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
- 2. Initialize \mathbf{v}_1 to a random normalized vector
- 3. For many iterations (or until \mathbf{v}_1 becomes stable):



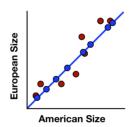
- 1. Find $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
- 2. Initialize \mathbf{v}_1 to a random normalized vector
- 3. For many iterations (or until \mathbf{v}_1 becomes stable):
 - $\mathbf{v}_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{v}_1$



- 1. Find $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
- 2. Initialize \mathbf{v}_1 to a random normalized vector
- 3. For many iterations (or until \mathbf{v}_1 becomes stable):
 - $\mathbf{v}_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{v}_1$
 - Normalize \mathbf{v}_1 so that $||\mathbf{v}_1||_2^2 = 1$



- 1. Find $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
- 2. Initialize \mathbf{v}_1 to a random normalized vector
- 3. For many iterations (or until \mathbf{v}_1 becomes stable):
 - $\mathbf{v}_1 \leftarrow \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{v}_1$
 - Normalize \mathbf{v}_1 so that $||\mathbf{v}_1||_2^2 = 1$
- 4. Return **v**₁



Why does Eigen-value Decomposition Maximize Variance?

Consider PCA with k = 1

- z = Xp is $n \times 1$
- \mathbf{p} is $d \times 1$ (first principal component)

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{z}}^{2} = \frac{1}{n} ||\mathbf{z}||_{2}^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{p}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{p}$$

Why does Eigen-value Decomposition Maximize Variance?

Consider PCA with k = 1

- z = Xp is $n \times 1$
- \mathbf{p} is $d \times 1$ (first principal component)

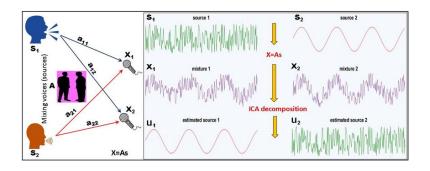
$$\sigma_{\mathbf{z}}^{2} = \frac{1}{n} ||\mathbf{z}||_{2}^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{p}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{p}^{T} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{p}$$

- Goal: $\max_{\mathbf{p}} \sigma_{\mathbf{z}}^2$ where $||\mathbf{p}||_2 = 1$
- \bullet The top eigenvector \textbf{v}_1 is known to achieve the optimum for any symmetric matrix $\textbf{C}_{\textbf{X}}$

Independent Component

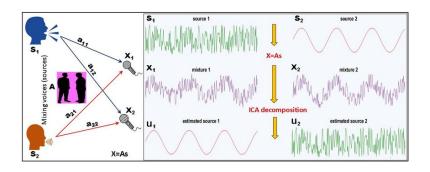
Analysis (ICA)

The Cocktail Party Problem



• PCA tries to find an orthogonal representation of the mixed data.

The Cocktail Party Problem



- PCA tries to find an orthogonal representation of the mixed data.
- ICA tries to disentangle the data sources.

How Does ICA Work?

Both ICA and PCA linearly transform the original data with matrix factorization.

PCA compresses data with low-rank matrix factorization

$$N\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} X & = & U & S \\ \hline & M & Columns of U = PCA vectors \end{array}\right\}$$

How Does ICA Work?

Both ICA and PCA linearly transform the original data with matrix factorization.

PCA compresses data with low-rank matrix factorization

$$N\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} X & = & U & S \\ \hline & M & Columns of U = PCA vectors \end{array}\right\}$$

ICA removes dependencies between data with full-rank matrix factorization

Comparing PCA and ICA

Let ${\bf S}$ denote our original data. It can be transformed to a new set of features ${\bf X}$:

 $PCA : X \approx US, U^TU = I$

 $ICA : X \approx AS$, A invertible

PCA reduces the number of features (compression). ICA does not.

Comparing PCA and ICA

Let **S** denote our original data. It can be transformed to a new set of features **X**:

 $PCA : \mathbf{X} \approx \mathbf{US}, \, \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$

ICA : $X \approx AS$, A invertible

- PCA reduces the number of features (compression). ICA does not.
- PCA removes correlations but not higher-order dependencies. ICA removes these dependencies.

Comparing PCA and ICA

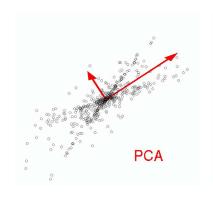
Let **S** denote our original data. It can be transformed to a new set of features **X**:

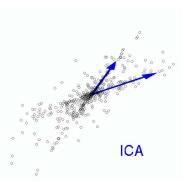
$$PCA: \mathbf{X} \approx \mathbf{US}, \, \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

ICA : $X \approx AS$, A invertible

- PCA reduces the number of features (compression). ICA does not.
- PCA removes correlations but not higher-order dependencies. ICA removes these dependencies.
- PCA allows you to rank the importance of the new features. ICA does not.

ICA vs. PCA





Applications of ICA

- Image denoising: find new representations of a set of images
- Face recognition, face expression recognition
- Feature extraction
- Clustering, classification, deep neural networks
- Timeseries applications: recall the cocktail party example

Applications of ICA

- Image denoising: find new representations of a set of images
- Face recognition, face expression recognition
- Feature extraction
- Clustering, classification, deep neural networks
- Timeseries applications: recall the cocktail party example
 - Medical signal processing: fMRI, ECG, EEG
 - Modeling of the visual cortex, hippocampus
 - Time series analysis
 - Financial applications

Summary

You should know:

• Why we use PCA

Summary

You should know:

- Why we use PCA
- How to execute the PCA algorithm and why it works

Summary

You should know:

- Why we use PCA
- How to execute the PCA algorithm and why it works
- How PCA differs from ICA