# Homework 1: Eigendigits

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### 1 Introduction

In this report, I applied principal components analysis on digits classification problem.

In our example, the original figures are represented in 728-dimensional vectors. This is a comparatively high dimensional representation. Distance of vectors in this space would be very large. This fact is also known as "curse of dimension". It would be low efficient to do learning in this high-dimensional space, so reduction on dimension is necessary.

However, figures of digits should be easy to describe - they need far less than 728 dimensions. The motivation is that we want use a basis such that coordinates of the figures vary the most. This would be the most expressive way in a limited dimension. We could look into the covarance matrix of the data, and use its eigenvectors with maximum eigenvalues.

## 2 Algorithm

Let a figure be in size of  $n \times n$ . Let X be the matrix such that each column of it is a datum, represented as an unrolled vector of size of  $n^2 \times 1$ . Let there be K samples. Then the dimension of X is  $n^2 \times K$ . The covarance of X is defined as,

$$Cov(X) = \mathbf{E}((X - \mathbf{E}(X))(X - \mathbf{E}(X))^T)$$

Let A = X - E(X). As A is in  $n^2 \times n^2$  dimension, we don't want to find eigenspace for this directly. As we know,

$$A^T A x = \lambda x$$

$$AA^TAx = \lambda Ax$$

we can find eigenvectors of  $A^TA$ , and lefty multiply them with A to get eigenvectors of  $AA^T$ .

Let V be the set of the eigenvectors of  $AA^T$ , sorted descendingly according to the eigenvalues. It's actually a set of basis we want to use. The first 20 eigenvectors are shown in Figure 1. Intuitively, eigenvectors with smaller eigenvalues care more about details of the digits, while the ones with higher eigenvalues care more about mean feautres of the digits.

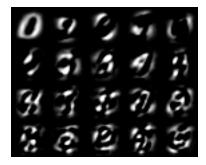


Figure 1: First 20 eigenvectors, using first 2000 training samples. They are aligned from left to right and top to down. They become dark after normalization. So in this figure, each value is multiplied by 10, i.e., each vector has norm of 100, instead of 1.

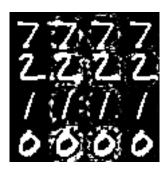


Figure 2: Reconstruction of digits. From left to right on each line, there are original digits, digits constructed by first 100 eigenvectors, digits constructed by first 200 eigenvectors, and digits constructed by first 600 eigenvectors.

If we call the basis we use as B and the eigenspace as E. V is a linear transformation from E to B, usually represented as  $P_{BE}$  in the linear algebra literature. We also need  $P_{EB}$ , which is defined as the inverse of  $P_{BE}$ . We know that  $P_{BE}$  is orthogonal, because it's the covariance matrix of a symmetrix matrix. Therefore,  $P_{EB} = P_{BE}^T$ .

Now, we can transform any vector in B or E basis to the other in the following way.

$$[v]_E = P_{EB}[v]_B$$

, which maps a vector from original space to the eigenspace.

$$[v]_B = P_{BE}[v]_E$$

, which maps a vector from the eigenspace to the original space.

We can check how digits are "reconstructed" after maping from B to E and then back to B. Figure 2 shows the reconstruction result, using 100, 200, and

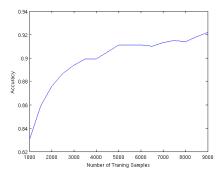


Figure 3: Comparison on using different number of training samples. Testing on first 1000 testing set. Using first 200 eigen-vectors. K for K-nearest-neighbors is 1.

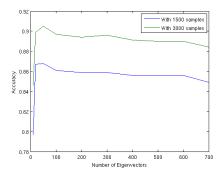


Figure 4: Comparison on using different number of eigenvectors. Testing on first 1000 testing set. Using first 1500 and 3000 training samples for each line. K for K-nearest-neighbors is 1.

600 eigenvectors respectively. The more eigenvectors used, the more close it reconstructed, and, as a cost, the heigher the dimension of E is.

For classification, I transform the training set from B to E to reduce its dimension. For a test sample, say u, I also transfermed it to E space, as  $[v]_E$ . I compute the distance of this to every training sample. The k training samples with smallest distance are selected. They majority of their labels is considered as the label of this test datum. This is the idea of K-Nearest-Neighbors algorithm.

## 3 Experiments

The first experiment tests the learning performance on different size of data, shown in Figure 3. It's not surprising that the more training data provided, the better accuracy can be achieved.

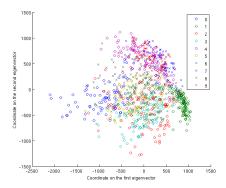


Figure 5: Data coordinates on first two basis in E space. Using first 5000 training samples. Testing on first 1000 testing samples.

The second experiment tests the learning performance on different set of eigenvectors, shown in Figure 4. Here is some interesting observation. When too few eigenvectors are used, which means E has very small dimensions, the accuracy is low. This is because vectors in E are not expressive enough. However, when there are too many eigenvectors provided, the learning performance would go worse, as it's hard to learn in a high dimensional space. Figure 4 shows that 50-100 eigenvectors have the best performance, when the training set is fixed.

Figure 5 shows the coordinates of data in E basis, but only on first two eigenvectors. They should spread the most on the first basis, which is the horizontal axis, and less, but still much, on the second basis, which is the verticle axis.

They have some clustering performance, while not disjunct. This is because we didn't take labels into consideration when designing the E basis. E basis makes data representation more efficient, but doesn't help to separate data from different labels. The performance of clustering in the figure is caused by the nature of difference looking of figures.

#### 4 Conclusion

In this assignment, I implemented principal components analysis to classify digits in the eigenspace of the covariance matrix of the data. This reduces the dimension of the data, with the least information loss. Therefore, this can be generally used for compressing data into lower dimension.

However, by observing the result in Figre 5, I believe that E could be more carefully selected, which makes data in different classes more separable for classification purpose.