Data and Data Exploration

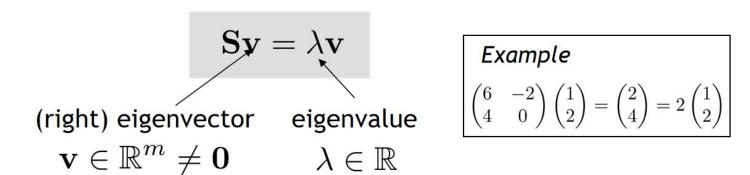
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Outline

- Additional remarks on Principal component analysis
- Remaining Data Preprocessing
 - 1) Feature Subset Selection
 - 2) Attribute Transformation
- Measure of Similarity & Dissimilarity
- What is data exploration?

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

Eigenvectors (for a square m×m matrix S)



How many eigenvalues are there at most?

$${f Sv}=\lambda {f v}\iff ({f S}-\lambda {f I})\, {f v}={f 0}$$
 only has a non-zero solution if $|{f S}-\lambda {f I}|=0$

this is a m-th order equation in λ which can have at most m distinct solutions (roots of the characteristic polynomial) – can be complex even though S is real.

Matrix-vector multiplication

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $S = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$ has eigenvalues 3, 2, 0 with corresponding eigenvectors

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

On each eigenvector, S acts as a multiple of the identity matrix: but as a different multiple on each.

Any vector (say $x = {2 \choose 4 \choose 6}$) can be viewed as a combination of the eigenvectors: $x = 2v_1 + 4v_2 + 6v_3$

Matrix vector multiplication

• Thus a matrix-vector multiplication such as Sx can be rewritten in terms of the eigenvalues/vectors:

$$Sx = S(2v_1 + 4v_2 + 6v_3)$$

$$Sx = 2Sv_1 + 4Sv_2 + 6Sv_3 = 2\lambda_1 v_1 + 4\lambda_2 v_2 + 6\lambda_3 v_3$$

- Even though x is an arbitrary vector, the action of S
 on x is determined by the eigenvalues/vectors.
- Suggestion: the effect of "small" eigenvalues is small.

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

For symmetric matrices, eigenvectors for distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal

$$Sv_{\{1,2\}} = \lambda_{\{1,2\}} v_{\{1,2\}}$$
, and $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \Rightarrow v_1 \bullet v_2 = 0$

All eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are real.

All eigenvalues of a positive semidefinite matrix are non-negative

$$\forall w \in \Re^n, w^T S w \ge 0$$
, then if $S v = \lambda v \Rightarrow \lambda \ge 0$

Example

Let

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Real, symmetric.

Then

$$S - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (2 - \lambda)^2 - 1 = 0.$$

- The eigenvalues are 1 and 3 (nonnegative, real).
- The eigenvectors are orthogonal (and real):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ Plug in these values and solve for eigenvectors.

Eigen/diagonal Decomposition

- Let $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ be a square matrix with m linearly independent eigenvectors (a "non-defective" matrix)
- Theorem: Exists an eigen decomposition

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{U}^{-1}$$
 distinct eigenvalues

- (cf. matrix diagonalization theorem)
- Columns of *U* are eigenvectors of *S*
- Diagonal elements of Λ are eigenvalues of S

$$\Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m), \ \lambda_i \ge \lambda_{i+1}$$

for

Diagonal decomposition - example

Recall
$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 3.$$

The eigenvectors
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ form $U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Inverting, we have
$$U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Recall UU-1 = 1.

Then,
$$S=U \wedge U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example continued

Let's divide \boldsymbol{U} (and multiply \boldsymbol{U}^{-1}) by $\sqrt{2}$

Then,
$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q \qquad \Lambda \qquad (Q^{-1} = Q^T)$$

Symmetric Eigen Decomposition

- If $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is a symmetric matrix:
- Theorem: Exists a (unique) eigen decomposition

$$S = Q\Lambda Q^T$$

- where Q is orthogonal:
 - $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
 - Columns of Q are normalized eigenvectors
 - Columns are orthogonal.
 - (everything is real)

The SVD is a factorization of a $m \times n$ matrix into

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

where U is a $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix, V^T is a $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix and Σ is a $m \times n$ diagonal matrix.

For a square matrix (m = n):

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3 \dots$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ & \ddots \\ & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \mathbf{v}_1^T & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \dots & \mathbf{v}_n^T & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ & \ddots \\ & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}^T$$

What happens when \boldsymbol{A} is not a square matrix?

1)
$$m > n$$

$$A = U \Sigma V^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ u_{1} & \dots & u_{n} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \dots \quad \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots \\ u_{m} \\ \vdots \\ u_{m} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \vdots$$

We can instead re-write the above as:

$$A = U_R \Sigma_R V^T$$

Where U_R is a $m \times n$ matrix and Σ_R is a $n \times n$ matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \, \mathbf{\Sigma} \, \mathbf{V}^T = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_m \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_m \end{pmatrix} \qquad \ddots \qquad 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \mathbf{V}_1^T & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \dots & \mathbf{V}_n^T & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$m \times m \qquad m \times n \qquad n \times n$$

We can instead re-write the above as:

$$A = U \Sigma_R V_R^T$$

where V_R is a $n \times m$ matrix and Σ_R is a $m \times m$ matrix

In general:

$$A = U_R \Sigma_R V_R^T$$

$$V_R \text{ is a } m \times k \text{ matrix}$$

$$\Sigma_R \text{ is a } k \times k \text{ matrix}$$

$$V_R \text{ is a } n \times k \text{ matrix}$$

$$k = \min(m, n)$$

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Let's take a look at the product $\Sigma^T \Sigma$, where Σ has the singular values of a A, a $m \times n$ matrix.

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}^{T}\mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{1} & 0 & \\ & \ddots & \\ & \sigma_{n} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{1} & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \\ & \vdots & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{1}^{2} & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_{n}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$m > n \qquad n \times m \qquad m \times n$$

Assume A with the singular value decomposition $A = U \Sigma V^T$. Let's take a look at the eigenpairs corresponding to $A^T A$:

$$A^{T}A = (U \Sigma V^{T})^{T} (U \Sigma V^{T})$$
$$(V^{T})^{T} (\Sigma V^{T})^{T} (U \Sigma V^{T}) = V \Sigma^{T} U^{T} U \Sigma V^{T} = V \Sigma^{T} \Sigma V^{T}$$

Hence
$$A^T A = V \Sigma^2 V^T$$

Recall that columns of V are all linear independent (orthogonal matrix), then from diagonalization ($B = XDX^{-1}$), we get:

- the columns of V are the eigenvectors of the matrix A^TA
- The diagonal entries of Σ^2 are the eigenvalues of A^TA

Let's call λ the eigenvalues of A^TA , then $\sigma_i^2 = \lambda_i$

In a similar way,

$$AA^{T} = (U \Sigma V^{T}) (U \Sigma V^{T})^{T}$$
$$(U \Sigma V^{T}) (V^{T})^{T} (\Sigma)^{T} U^{T} = U \Sigma V^{T} V \Sigma^{T} U^{T} = U \Sigma \Sigma^{T} U^{T}$$

Hence
$$AA^T = U \Sigma^2 U^T$$

Recall that columns of \boldsymbol{U} are all linear independent (orthogonal matrices), then from diagonalization ($\boldsymbol{B} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{X}^{-1}$), we get:

• The columns of \boldsymbol{U} are the eigenvectors of the matrix $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{A}^T$

How can we compute an SVD of a matrix A?

- 1. Evaluate the n eigenvectors \mathbf{v}_i and eigenvalues λ_i of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$
- 2. Make a matrix V from the normalized vectors \mathbf{v}_i . The columns are called "right singular vectors".

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

3. Make a diagonal matrix from the square roots of the eigenvalues.

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \sigma_3 \dots$$

4. Find $U: A = U \Sigma V^T \Rightarrow U \Sigma = A V \Rightarrow U = A V \Sigma^{-1}$. The columns are called the "left singular vectors".

Singular values cannot be negative since A^TA is a positive semidefinite matrix (for real matrices A)

- A matrix is positive definite if $x^T B x > 0$ for $\forall x \neq 0$
- A matrix is positive semi-definite if $x^T B x \ge 0$ for $\forall x \ne 0$
- What do we know about the matrix $A^T A$? $x^T A^T A x = (Ax)^T A x = ||Ax||_2^2 \ge 0$
- Hence we know that A^TA is a positive semi-definite matrix
- A positive semi-definite matrix has non-negative eigenvalues

$$Bx = \lambda x \Longrightarrow x^T Bx = x^T \lambda x = \lambda ||x||_2^2 \ge 0 \Longrightarrow \lambda \ge 0$$

- The SVD is a factorization of a $m \times n$ matrix into $A = U \Sigma V^T$ where U is a $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix, V^T is a $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix and Σ is a $m \times n$ diagonal matrix.
- In reduced form: $A = U_R \Sigma_R V_R^T$, where U_R is a $m \times k$ matrix, Σ_R is a $k \times k$ matrix, and V_R is a $n \times k$ matrix, and $k = \min(m, n)$.
- The columns of V are the eigenvectors of the matrix A^TA , denoted the right singular vectors.
- The columns of *U* are the eigenvectors of the matrix *AA^T*, denoted the left singular vectors.
- The diagonal entries of Σ^2 are the eigenvalues of A^TA . $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ are called the singular values.
- The singular values are always non-negative (since A^TA is a positive semi-definite matrix, the eigenvalues are always $\lambda \geq 0$)

Low-Rank Approximation

Another way to write the SVD (assuming for now m > n for simplicity)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_m \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & \ddots & \cdots \\ \sigma_n & \sigma_n & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n^T & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n^T & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_n \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \sigma_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \dots & \sigma_n \mathbf{v}_n^T & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \sigma_2 \mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T + \dots + \sigma_n \mathbf{u}_n \mathbf{v}_n^T$$

The SVD writes the matrix A as a sum of outer products (of left and right singular vectors).

Low-Rank Approximation

The best **rank-**k approximation for a $m \times n$ matrix A, (where $k \le min(m, n)$) is the one that minimizes the following problem:

$$\min_{A_k} \|A - A_k\|$$

such that $\operatorname{rank}(A_k) \le k$.

When using the induced 2-norm, the best rank-k approximation is given by:

$$\mathbf{A}_k = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + \sigma_2 \mathbf{u}_2 \mathbf{v}_2^T + \dots + \sigma_k \mathbf{u}_k \mathbf{v}_k^T$$
$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \sigma_3 \dots \ge 0$$

Note that rank(A) = n and $rank(A_k) = k$ and the norm of the difference between the matrix and its approximation is

$$\|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}_k\|_2 = \|\sigma_{k+1}\mathbf{u}_{k+1}\mathbf{v}_{k+1}^T + \sigma_{k+2}\mathbf{u}_{k+2}\mathbf{v}_{k+2}^T + \dots + \sigma_n\mathbf{u}_n\mathbf{v}_n^T\|_2$$

Image compression

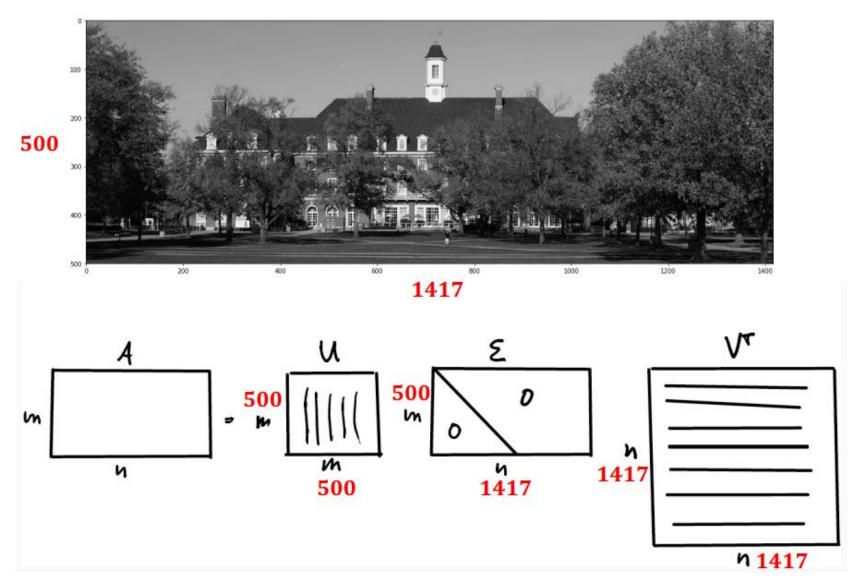
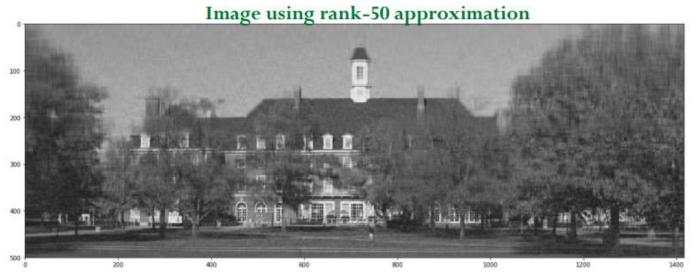
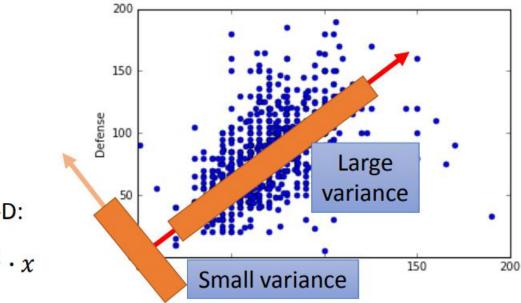
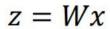


Image compression



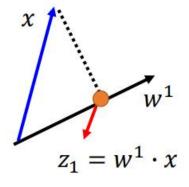






Reduce to 1-D:

$$z_1 = w^1 \cdot x$$



Project all the data points x onto w^1 , and obtain a set of z_1

We want the variance of z_1 as large as possible

$$Var(z_1) = \sum_{z_1} (z_1 - \bar{z_1})^2 \quad ||w^1||_2 = 1$$

$$z = Wx$$

Reduce to 1-D:

$$z_1=w^1\cdot x$$

$$z_2 = w^2 \cdot x$$

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} (w^1)^T \\ (w^2)^T \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Orthogonal matrix

Project all the data points x onto w^1 , and obtain a set of z_1

We want the variance of z_1 as large as possible

$$Var(z_1) = \sum_{z_1} (z_1 - \overline{z_1})^2 \quad ||w^1||_2 = 1$$

We want the variance of z_2 as large as possible

$$Var(z_2) = \sum_{z_2} (z_2 - \bar{z_2})^2 \quad ||w^2||_2 = 1$$
$$w^1 \cdot w^2 = 0$$

$$z_{1} = w^{1} \cdot x$$

$$\bar{z}_{1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum z_{1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum w^{1} \cdot x = w^{1} \cdot \frac{1}{N} \sum x = w^{1} \cdot \bar{x}$$

$$Var(z_{1}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{z_{1}} (z_{1} - \bar{z}_{1})^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x} (w^{1} \cdot x - w^{1} \cdot \bar{x})^{2} = a^{T}ba^{T}b$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x} (w^{1} \cdot (x - \bar{x}))^{2} = a^{T}b(a^{T}b)^{T} = a^{T}bb^{T}a$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x} (w^{1} \cdot (x - \bar{x}))^{2}$$
Find w^{1} maximizing
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x} (w^{1})^{T} (x - \bar{x})(x - \bar{x})^{T}w^{1}$$

$$= (w^{1})^{T} \sum_{x} (x - \bar{x})(x - \bar{x})^{T}w^{1}$$

Find w¹ maximizing

$$(w^1)^T S w^1$$

$$||w^1||_2 = (w^1)^T w^1 = 1$$

$$= (w^1)^T Cov(x) w^1 \quad S = Cov(x)$$

$$S = Cov(x)$$

Find
$$w^1$$
 maximizing $(w^1)^T S w^1$ $(w^1)^T w^1 = 1$

$$S = Cov(x)$$
 Symmetric positive-semidefinite (non-negative eigenvalues)

Using Lagrange multiplier [Bishop, Appendix E]

$$g(w^{1}) = (w^{1})^{T}Sw^{1} - \alpha((w^{1})^{T}w^{1} - 1)$$

$$\partial g(w^{1})/\partial w_{1}^{1} = 0$$

$$\partial g(w^{1})/\partial w_{2}^{1} = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Sw^{1} - \alpha w^{1} = 0$$

$$Sw^{1} = \alpha w^{1} \quad w^{1} : \text{eigenvector}$$

$$(w^{1})^{T}Sw^{1} = \alpha(w^{1})^{T}w^{1}$$

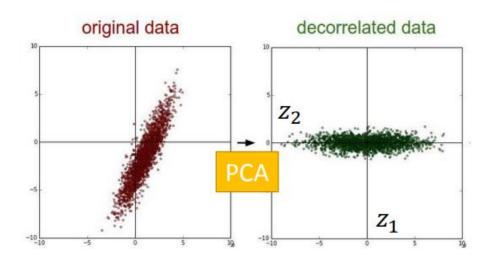
$$= \alpha \quad \text{Choose the maximum one}$$

 w^1 is the eigenvector of the covariance matrix S Corresponding to the largest eigenvalue λ_1

 w^2 is the eigenvector of the covariance matrix S Corresponding to the $2^{
m nd}$ largest eigenvalue λ_2

$$z = Wx$$
$$Cov(z) = D$$

Diagonal matrix



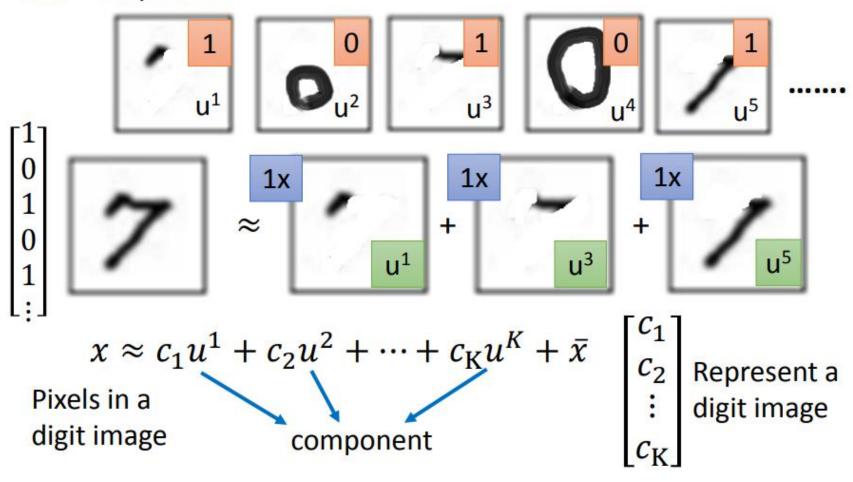
$$Cov(z) = \frac{1}{N} \sum (z - \bar{z})(z - \bar{z})^T = WSW^T \qquad S = Cov(x)$$

$$= WS[w^1 \quad \cdots \quad w^K] = W[Sw^1 \quad \cdots \quad Sw^K]$$

$$= W[\lambda_1 w^1 \quad \cdots \quad \lambda_K w^K] = [\lambda_1 Ww^1 \quad \cdots \quad \lambda_K Ww^K]$$

$$= [\lambda_1 e_1 \quad \cdots \quad \lambda_K e_K] = D \qquad \text{Diagonal matrix}$$

Basic Component:



$$x - \bar{x} \approx c_1 u^1 + c_2 u^2 + \dots + c_K u^K = \hat{x}$$

Reconstruction error:

$$\|(x-\bar{x})-\hat{x}\|_2$$

Find $\{u^1, ..., u^K\}$ minimizing the error

$$L = \min_{\{u^1, ..., u^K\}} \sum \left\| (x - \bar{x}) - \left(\sum_{k=1}^K c_k u^k \right) \right\|_2$$

z = Wx

$$\begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_K \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (w_1)^{\mathrm{T}} \\ (w_2)^{\mathrm{T}} \\ \vdots \\ (w_K)^{\mathrm{T}} \end{bmatrix} x$$

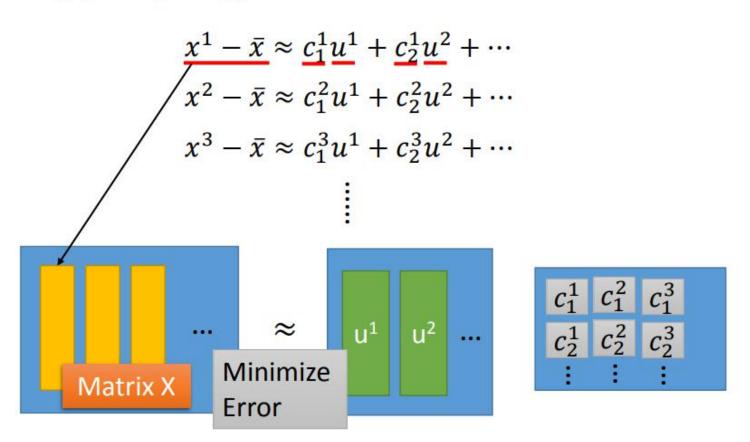
 $\begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_K \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (w_1)^T \\ (w_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ (w_N)^T \end{bmatrix} x \begin{cases} \{w^1, w^2, \dots w^K\} \text{ is the component} \\ \{u^1, u^2, \dots u^K\} \text{ minimizing L} \\ \text{Proof in [Bishop, Chapter 12.1.2]} \end{cases}$

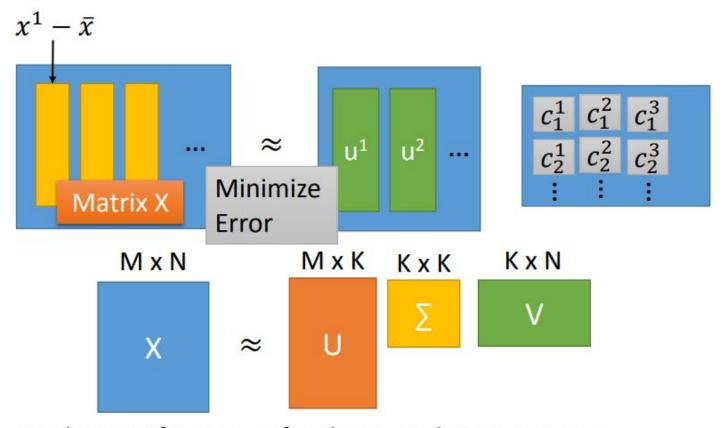
$$x - \bar{x} \approx c_1 u^1 + c_2 u^2 + \dots + c_K u^K = \hat{x}$$

Reconstruction error:

$$\|(x-\bar{x})-\hat{x}\|_2$$

Find $\{u^1, ..., u^K\}$ minimizing the error



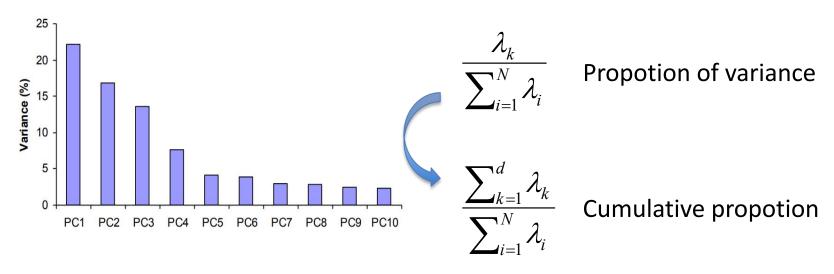


K columns of U: a set of orthonormal eigen vectors corresponding to the k largest eigenvalues of XX^T

This is the solution of PCA

Additional remarks

- How many PCs?
 - We want to retain as much information as possible using these components.
 - We can compute each PC explains how much variance and then makes decision (still a parameter)

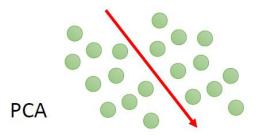


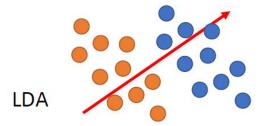
Weakness of PCA

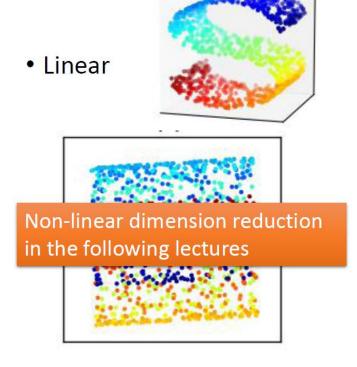
To be continued . . .

Kernel PCA、 Probabilistic PCA
Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
Matrix factorization
Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA)
Deep Autoencoder . . .

Unsupervised



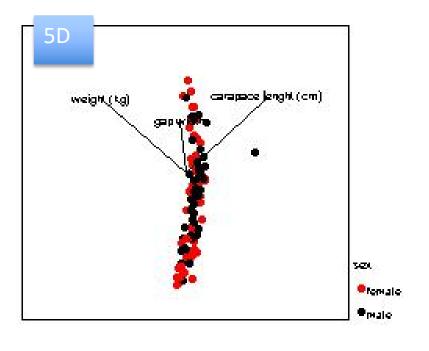


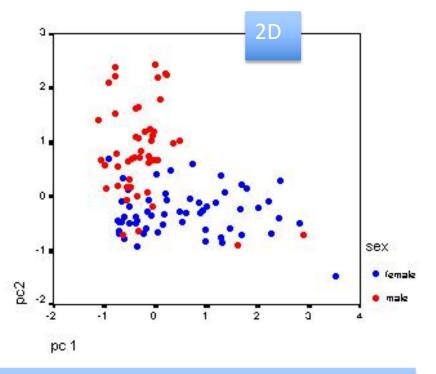


http://www.astroml.org/book_figures/c hapter7/fig_S_manifold_PCA.html

Example: The data matrix

case	ht (x ₁)	$wt(x_2)$	$age(x_3)$	sbp(x ₄)	heart rate (x ₅)
1	175	1225	25	117	56
2	156	1050	31	122	63
m	202	1350	58	154	67





Allow us choose small number of uncorrelated varies to perform machine learning tasks

Dimensionality Reduction: PCA

Dimensions = 206



Example of a data: Iris Flower Data Set

- Many of the exploratory data techniques are illustrated with the famous *Iris Flower* data set (a.k.a. "Iris").
 - Available at the UCI Machine Learning Repository http://www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html
 - From the statistician R.A. Fisher
 - Three flower types (classes):
 - Iris Setosa
 - Iris Versicolour
 - Iris Virginica
 - Four (non-class) attributes
 - Sepal width
 - Sepal length
 - Petal width
 - Petal length
 - Total number Instances = 150









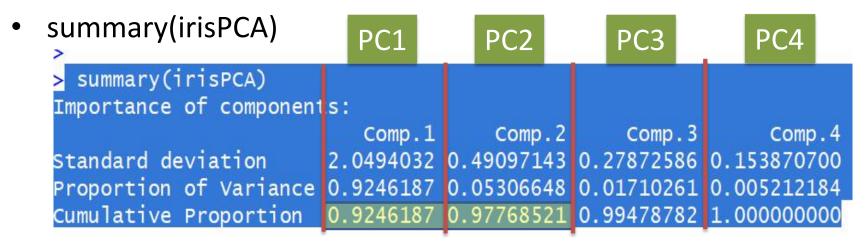
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iris_flower_data_set

R Example using Iris data

Iris

```
> head(iris)
  Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width Species
                        3.5
                                                        setosa
                        3.0
                                                       setosa
                        3.2
                                                       setosa
                        3.1
           4.6
                                                  0.2
                                                       setosa
                                                  0.2
           5.0
                        3.6
                                                       setosa
                        3.9
                                                       setosa
```

irisPCA<-princomp(iris[-5]) # Exclude Species and perform PCA

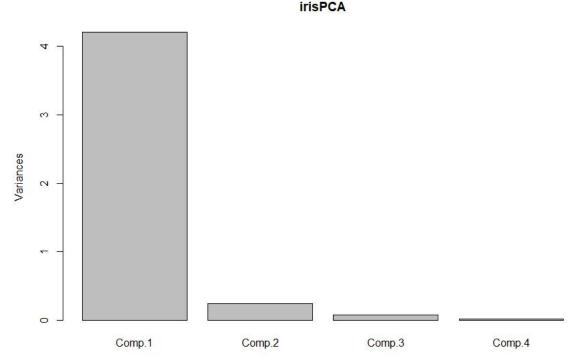


92.5% of variation is explained by PC1 alone; 97.8% is explained by PC1 and PC2

Screen plot

 It shows the proportion of the total variation that is explained by each of the components. Perhaps 1 or 2 PC2 will be sufficient

screeplot(irisPCA)





While **dimensionality reduction** is an important tool in machine learning/data mining, we must always be aware that it can *distort* the data in misleading ways.

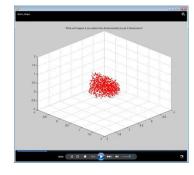
Above is a two dimensional projection of an intrinsically three dimensional world....



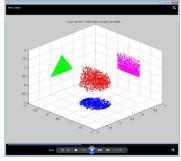
Original photographer unknown/ See also www.cs.gmu.edu/~jessica/DimReducDanger.htm

We may lose some important information when we perform feature selection

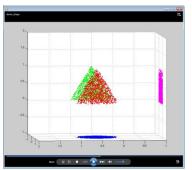
A cloud of points in 3D



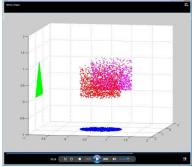
Can be projected into 2D XY or XZ or YZ



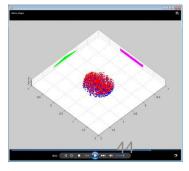
In 2D XZ we see a triangle



In 2D YZ we see a square



In 2D XY we see a circle



Screen dumps of a short video from www.cs.gmu.edu/~jessica/DimReducDanger.htm

MNIST
$$= a_1 \underline{w}^1 + a_2 \underline{w}^2 + \cdots$$
 images

30 components:



Eigen-digits

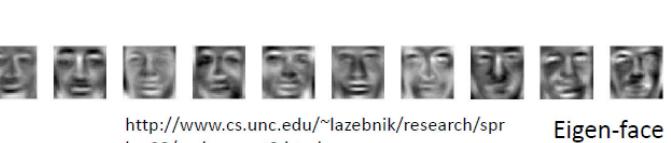
Face



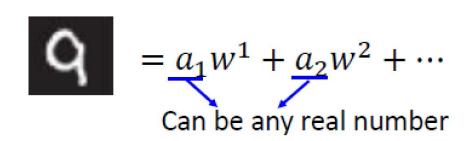
30 components:





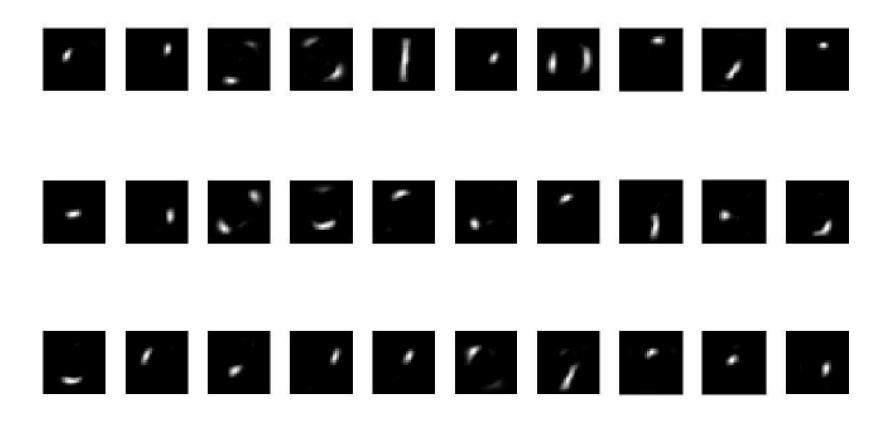


ing08/assignment3.html



- PCA involves adding up and subtracting some components (images)
 - Then the components may not be "parts of digits"
- Non-negative matrix factorization (NMF)
 - Forcing a_1, a_2 be non-negative
 - · additive combination
 - Forcing w^1 , w^2 be non-negative
 - More like "parts of digits"
- Ref: Daniel D. Lee and H. Sebastian Seung. "Algorithms for non-negative matrix factorization." Advances in neural information processing systems. 2001.

NMF on MNIST



NMF on Face

