# CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining 

More PCA

## Last Time: Latent-Factor Models

- Latent-factor models take input data ' $X$ ' and output ' $Z$ ':

- Usually, 'Z' has fewer features than ' $X$ '.
- Uses: dimensionality reduction, visualization, factor discovery.


| Trait | Description |
| :--- | :--- |
| Openness | Being curious, original, intellectual, creative, and open to <br> new ideas. |
| Conscientiousness | Being organized, systematic, punctual, achievement- <br> oriented, and dependable. |
| Extraversion | Being outgoing, talkative, sociable, and enjoying <br> social situations. |
| Agreeableness | Being affable, tolerant, sensitive, trusting, kind, <br> and warm. |
| Neuroticism | Being anxious, irritable, temperamental, and moody. |

Last Time: Principal Component Analysis

- Principal component analysis (PCA) is a linear latent-factor model:
- These models "factorize" matrix X into matrices Z and W :

$$
X \underset{n \times d}{ } \approx \prod_{n \times k} W_{k \times d} \quad x_{i} \approx W^{\top} z_{i} \quad x_{i j} \approx\left\langle w^{j}, z_{i}\right\rangle
$$

- We can think of rows $w_{c}$ of $W$ as " $k$ ' fixed "part" (used in all examples).
$-z_{i}$ is the "part weights" for example $x_{i}$ : "how much of each part $w_{c}$ to use".



## Top-10 ML Algorithms

1. Decision trees
2. Naïve Bayes classification
3. Ordinary least squares regression
4. Logistic regression
5. Support vector machines
6. Ensemble methods
7. Clustering algorithms
8. Principal component analysis
9. Singular value decomposition
10. Independent component analysis (bonus)

> The 10 Algorithms Machine Learning Engineers Need to Know

Next Topic: PCA Loss Function and Prediction

## PCA Objective Function

- In PCA we minimize the squared error of the approximation:

$$
f(W, 2)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\|\underbrace{W^{\top} z_{i}}_{\text {aproximation in }}-\underbrace{x_{i}}_{\text {example }}\|^{2}
$$

- This is equivalent to the $k$-means objective:
- In $k$-means $z_{i}$ only has a single ' 1 ' value and other entries are zero.
- But in PCA, $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i}}$ can be any real number.
- We approximate $x_{i}$ as a linear combination of all means/factors.

PCA Objective Function

- In PCA we minimize the squared error of the approximation:
- We can also view this as solving 'd' regression problems:
- Each w' is trying to predict column ' $x$ ' from the low-dimensional representation $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i}}$.
- The output " $y_{i}$ " we try to predict here is actually the features " $x_{i}$ ".
- Unlike in regression we are also learning the features $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i}}$.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- The 3 different ways to write the PCA objective function:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(W, z) & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{d}\left(\left\langle W^{j}, z_{i}\right\rangle-x_{j}\right)^{2} & & \text { (approximating } x_{i j} \text { by }\left\langle w^{j} z_{i}\right\rangle \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|W^{\top} z_{i}-x_{i}\right\|^{2} & & \text { (approximations } \left.x_{i} \text { by } W_{z_{i}}^{\top}\right) \\
& =\|Z W-X\|_{F}^{2} & & \text { (approximatio ny } x \text { by } Z W)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Digression: Data Centering (Important)

- In PCA, we assume that the data $X$ is "centered".
- Each column of $X$ has a mean of zero.
- It's easy to center the data:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Set } \mu_{j}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i j} \quad \text { (mean of colum }{ }_{j} \text { ) } \\
& \text { Replace each } x_{i j} \text { with }\left(x_{i j}-\mu_{j}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- There are PCA variations that estimate "bias in each coordinate".
- In basic model this is equivalent to centering the data.


## Digression: Data Centering (Important)



Next Topic: Eigenfaces

## Application: Face Detection

- Consider the problem of face detection:

- Classic methods use "eigenfaces" as basis:
- PCA applied to images of faces.


Eigenfaces

- Collect a bunch of images of faces under different conditions:


Eigenfaces

Compute mean $\mu_{j}$ of each column. Each row of $x$ will be parks in one image.


$$
X=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-x_{1}-\mu \\
x_{2}-\mu \\
\vdots \\
\vdots \\
-x_{n}-\mu
\end{array}\right]
$$

Replace each $x_{i j}$ by $x_{i j}-\mu_{j}$

Eigenfaces

Compute top ' $k$ ' PCs on centers doa: Each row of $X$ will be pipits in one mages


$$
X=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-x_{1}-\mu \\
x_{2}-\mu \\
\vdots \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}-\mu
\end{array}\right]
$$

Eigenfaces

Compute toos ' $k$ ' $P C_{s}$ on centered dula:


Eigenfaces

Compute top ' $k$ ' PCs on centered data:


Eigenfaces
100 of the original faces:

"Eigenface" representation:


Eigenfaces
Reconstruction with $k=0$


Eigenfaces



Eigenfaces
Reconstruction with $k=3$


Eigenfaces


Variance explained: $80 \%$

## Eigenfaces

Reconstruction with $k=10$


Variance explained: $85 \%$


Eigenfaces


Variance explained: $90 \%$


Eigenfaces


Variance explained: $95 \%$


Eigenfaces


Next Topic: Non-Uniqueness of PCA

## Non-Uniqueness of PCA

- Unlike k-means, we can efficiently find global optima of $f(\mathrm{~W}, \mathrm{Z})$.
- Algorithms coming later.
- Unfortunately, there never exists a unique global optimum.
- There are actually several different sources of non-uniqueness.
- To understand these, we'll need idea of "span" from linear algebra.
- This also helps explain the geometry of PCA.
- We'll also see that some global optima may be better than others.


## Span of 1 Vector

- Consider a single vector $\mathrm{w}_{1}(\mathrm{k}=1)$.



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- The $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}\right)$ is all vectors of the form $z_{i} w_{1}$ for a scalar $z_{i}$.



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- The $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}\right)$ is all vectors of the form $z_{i} w_{1}$ for a scalar $z_{i}$.

- If $\mathrm{w}_{1} \neq 0$, this forms a line.


## Span of 1 Vector

- But note that the "span" of many different vectors gives same line.
- Mathematically: $\alpha w_{1}$ defines the same line as $w_{1}$ for any scalar $\alpha \neq 0$.

- PCA solution can only be defined up to scalar multiplication.
- If $(W, Z)$ is a solution, then $(\alpha W,(1 / \alpha) Z)$ is also a solution. $\left\|(\alpha W)\left(\frac{1}{\alpha} Z\right)-X\right\|_{f}^{2}=\|W Z-X\|_{f}^{2}$


## Span of 2 Vectors

- Consider two vector $\mathrm{w}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{w}_{2}(\mathrm{k}=2)$.



## Span of 2 Vectors

- Consider two vector $\mathrm{w}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{w}_{2}(\mathrm{k}=2)$.
- The $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)$ is all vectors of form $\mathrm{z}_{i 1} \mathrm{w}_{1}+\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i} 2} \mathrm{w}_{2}$ for a scalars $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i} 1}$ and $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i}}$.



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- For most non-zero 2 d vectors, $\operatorname{span}\left(\mathrm{w}_{1}, \mathrm{w}_{2}\right)$ is a plane.
- In the case of two vectors in $R^{2}$, the plane will be *all* of $R^{2}$.


## Span of 2 Vectors

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- For most non-zero $2 d$ vectors, $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)$ is plane.
- Exception is if $w_{2}$ is in span of $w_{1}$ ("collinear"), then $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)$ is just a line.


## Span of 2 Vectors

- Consider two vector $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}(k=2)$.
- The $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)$ is all vectors of form $\mathrm{z}_{i 1} \mathrm{w}_{1}+\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i} 2} \mathrm{w}_{2}$ for a scalars $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i} 1}$ and $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{i}}$.

- We have label switching: $\operatorname{span}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)=\operatorname{span}\left(w_{2}, w_{1}\right)$.
- We can rotate factors within the plane (if not rotated to be collinear).


## Span of 2 Vectors

- 2 tricks to make vectors defining a plane "more unique":
- Normalization: enforce that $\left|\left|w_{1}\right|\right|=1$ and $\left|\left|w_{2}\right|\right|=1$.



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## Span of 2 Vectors

- 2 tricks to make vectors defining a plane "more unique":
- Normalization: enforce that $\left|\left|w_{1}\right|\right|=1$ and $\left|\left|w_{2}\right|\right|=1$.
- Orthogonality: enforce that $\mathrm{w}_{1}{ }^{\top} \mathrm{w}_{2}=0$ ("perpendicular").



## Digression: PCA only makes sense for $\mathrm{k} \leq \mathrm{d}$

- Remember our clustering dataset with 4 clusters:

- It doesn't make sense to use PCA with $\mathrm{k}=4$ on this dataset.
- We only need two vectors [10] and [0 1] to exactly represent all 2d points.
- With $k=2$, $I$ could set $Z=X$ and $W=I$ to get $X=Z W$ exactly.


## Span in Higher Dimensions

- In higher-dimensional spaces:
- Span of 1 non-zero vector $w_{1}$ is a line.
- Span of 2 non-zero vectors $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ is a plane (if not collinear).
- Span of 3 non-zeros vectors $\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, w_{3}\right\}$ is a $3 d$ space (if not "coplanar").
- ...
- This is how the W matrix in PCA defines lines, planes, spaces, etc.
- Each time we increase ' $k$ ', we add an extra "dimension" to the "subspace".


## Making PCA (More) Unique

- We've identified several reasons that optimal $W$ is non-unique:
- I can multiply any $w_{c}$ by any non-zero $\alpha$.
- I can rotate any $w_{c}$ almost arbitrarily within the span.
- I can switch any $w_{c}$ with any other $w_{c^{\prime}}$.
- PCA implementations add constraints to make solution unique:
- Normalization: we enforce that $\|\left|w_{c}\right| \mid=1$.
- Orthogonality: we enforce that $w_{c}^{\top} w_{c^{\prime}}=0$ for all $c \neq c^{\prime}$.
- Sequential fitting: We first fit $w_{1}$ ("first principal component") giving a line.
- Then fit $w_{2}$ given $w_{1}$ ("second principal component") giving a plane.
- Then we fit $w_{3}$ given $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ ("third principal component") giving a space.


## Basis, Orthogonality, Sequential Fitting



Basis, Orthogonality, Sequential Fitting

Any non-parrallel line gives optimal solution to second PC (who nd=2)
$\square$ I can get 0 error on every data point.

(both PG g give similar information)

Basis, Orthogonality, Sequential Fitting

Any non-parrallel line gives optimal solution to second PC (whe nd=2)


## Basis, Orthogonality, Sequential Fitting



Next Topic: Optimizing the PCA Objective

## Finding the First Principal Axis

Let $\mathbf{z}_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$ be the coefficients associated with $\mathbf{w}_{1}$ across all the $N$ data points
We first find $\mathbf{w}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{z}_{1}$. We assume that $\mathbf{w}_{i}$ are unit vectors.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{w}_{1}, \mathbf{z}_{1}\right) & =\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{n}-z_{n, 1} \mathbf{w}_{1}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{n}-z_{n, 1} \mathbf{w}_{1}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_{n}-2 z_{n, 1} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}+z_{n, 1}^{2} \mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, we get

$$
z_{n, 1}=\frac{\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}}{\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}}=\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}
$$

## Finding the First Principal Axis

Back-substituting $z_{n, 1}$ into $\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{w}_{1}, \mathbf{z}_{1}\right)$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{w}_{1}, \mathbf{z}_{1}\right) & =-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}+\text { const } \\
& =-\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}+\text { const }
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is the empirical covariance matrix
To minimize $-\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}$, we add a constraint $\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}=1$ to prevent trival solution

## Finding the First Principal Axis

The constrained optimization problem is as follows:

$$
\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{w}_{1}, \mathbf{z}_{1}\right)=-\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}+\lambda\left(\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}-1\right)
$$

We further get $-2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}+2 \lambda \mathbf{w}_{1}=0 \Leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}=\lambda \mathbf{w}_{1}$
To minimize $-\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}=-\lambda, \mathbf{w}_{1}$ must be the first eigenvector of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ with the largest eigen value

We can then find $\mathbf{z}_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$ and $\mathbf{w}_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}$ after subtracting $\mathbf{z}_{1} \mathbf{w}_{1}^{T}$ from $\mathbf{X}$
This process can be repeated and we get $\mathbf{W}$ whose rows (for our course) are the top $K$ eigenvectors of the empirical covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$

## Maximizing the Variance of the Projected Data

Let $\mathbf{z}_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$ be the coefficients associated with $\mathbf{w}_{1}$ across all the $N$ data points

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{E}\left(Z_{n, 1}\right)=\mathbb{E}\left(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}\right)=\left(\mathbb{E}\left(\mathbf{x}_{n}\right)\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}=0 \\
& \mathbb{V}\left(Z_{n, 1}\right)=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_{n} \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{w}_{1}=\mathbf{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{w}_{1}=\lambda_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$




## PCA Workflow



## PCA Computation: SVD

- How do we fit with normalization/orthogonality/sequential-fitting?
- It can be done with the "singular value decomposition" (SVD).
- Take CPSC 302.
- 4 lines of Python code:
$-\mathrm{mu}=\mathrm{np} . \operatorname{mean}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{axis}=0)$
- X-= mu
$-\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{Vh}=\mathrm{np} . \operatorname{linalg} . \operatorname{svd}(\mathrm{X})$
$-\mathrm{W}=\mathrm{Vh}[: \mathrm{k}]$
- Computing $\tilde{Z}$ is cheaper now:

$$
\tilde{\Sigma}=\tilde{X} W^{\top}(\underbrace{W} W^{\top})^{-1}=\tilde{X} W^{\top}
$$

$$
W W^{\top}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-w_{1} \\
-w_{2} \\
\vdots \\
w_{k}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 1 & 1 \\
w_{1}^{\top} & 1 & 1 \\
w_{2}^{\top} & w_{k}^{\top} \\
1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

$$
=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
6 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -0 & 0
\end{array}\right]=I
$$

PCA Computation: Prediction

- At the end of training, the "model" is the $\mu_{\mathrm{j}}$ and the W matrix.
- PCA is parametric.
- PCA prediction phase:
- Given new data $\tilde{X}$, we can use $\mu_{\mathrm{j}}$ and W to form $\tilde{Z}$ :

1. Center: replace each $\tilde{x}_{i j}$ with $\left(\tilde{x}_{i j}-\mu_{j}\right)$
2. Find $\tilde{Z}$ minimizing squared error:

$$
\tilde{z}=\tilde{\chi} \underbrace{w^{\top}\left(w w^{\top}\right)^{-1}}_{\substack{\text { Could just store } \\ \text { this d dk matrix) }}}
$$

Choosing ' $k$ ' by "Variance Explained"

- Common to choose ' $k$ ' based on variance of the $x_{i j}$.

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left(x_{i j}\right)=\underbrace{E}_{\begin{array}{c}
\text { definition of } \\
\text { variance }
\end{array}}[(x_{i j}-\underbrace{}_{\substack{\mu_{i j}}})^{2}]=E\left[x_{i j}^{2}\right]=\frac{1}{\text { assumed to }} \text { be zero } \underbrace{E}_{\begin{array}{c}
\text { definition of } \\
\text { expectation }
\end{array}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{d} x_{i j}^{2}}_{\text {Frobomius norm }}=\frac{1}{n d}\|X\|_{F}^{2}
$$

- For a given ' k ' we compute (variance of errors)/(variance of $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{ij}}$ ):

$$
\frac{\|2 W-X\|_{F}^{2}}{\|x\|_{F}^{2} T}
$$

- Gives a number between $0(k=d)$ and $1(k=0)$, giving "variance remaining".
- If you want to "explain $90 \%$ of variance", choose smallest ' $k$ ' where ratio is $<0.10$.


## "Variance Explained" in the Doom Map

- Recall the Doom latent-factor model (where map ignores height):

- Interpretation of "variance remaining" formula:
- If we had a 3D map the "variance remaining" would be 0.


## Summary

- PCA objective:
- Minimizes squared error between elements of $X$ and elements of $Z W$.
- Eigenfaces
- PCA non-uniqueness:
- Due to scaling, rotation, and label switching.
- Orthogonal basis and sequential fitting of PCs (via SVD):
- Leads to non-redundant PCs with unique directions.
- Choosing ' $k$ ':
- We can choose ' $k$ ' to explain "percentage of variance" in the data.
- Next time: cancer signatures and NBA shot charts.

