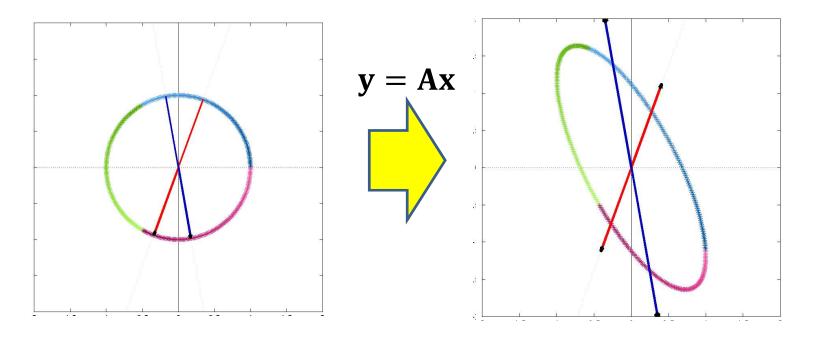


#### Machine Learning for Signal Processing Data driven representations: 1. Eigenrepresentations

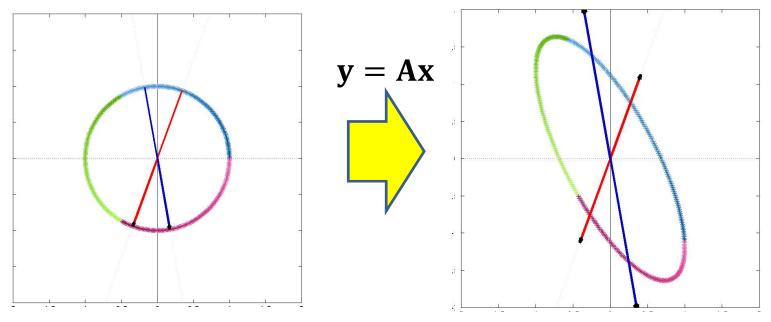
Instructor: Bhiksha Raj

#### Linear Algebra Reminders: 1



- A matrix transforms a sphereoid to an ellipsoid
- The Eigenvectors of the matrix are the vectors who do not change direction during this transformation

#### **Linear Algebra Reminders: 1.5**



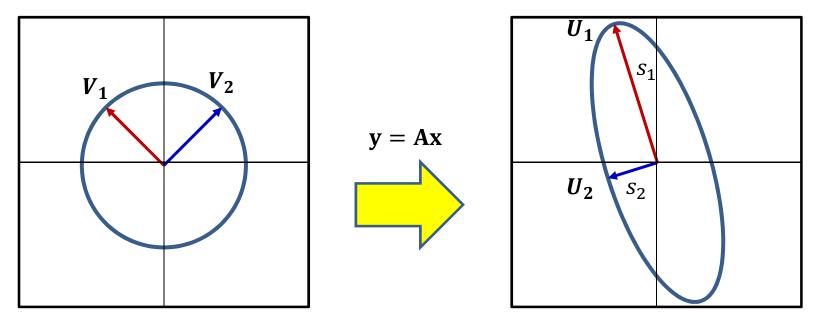
- Any square matrix **A** can be "Eigen decomposed" as  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^{-1}$ 
  - V is the set of Eigen vectors. A is a diagonal matrix of scaling terms
- If **A** is symmetric, we will get

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T$$

- The vectors in **V** are orthogonal to one another. **V** is an *orthogonal matrix*
- $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$

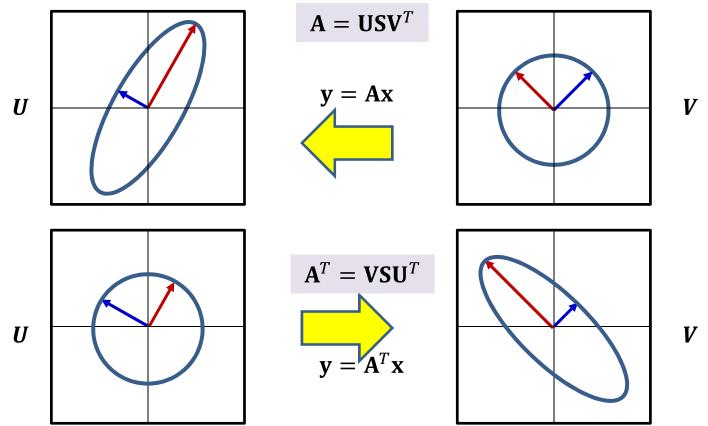
# Linear Algebra Reminders: 2

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{V}^T$ 

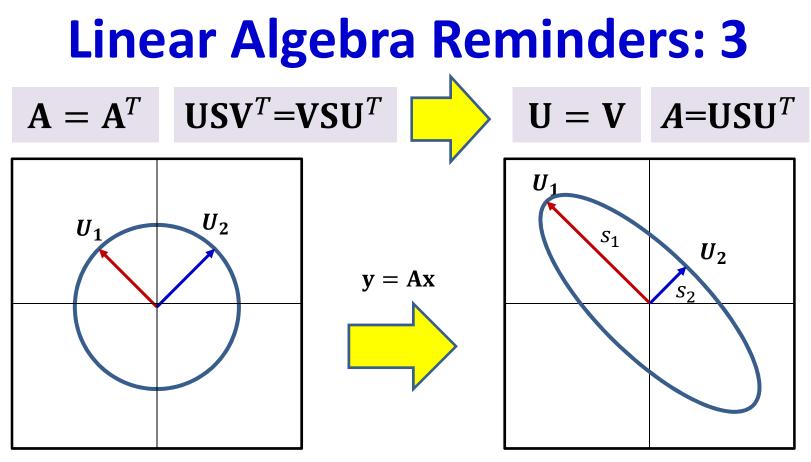


- A matrix transforms the orthogonal set of right singular vectors to the orthogonal set of left singular vectors
  - These are the major axes of the ellipsoid obtained from the sphereoid
  - The scaling factors are the singular values

#### Linear Algebra Reminders: 2



- A matrix transforms the orthogonal set of right singular vectors to the orthogonal set of left singular vectors
  - These are the major axes of the ellipsoid obtained from the sphereoid
  - The scaling factors are the singluar values
- The *transpose* of a matrix transforms the left singular vectors to the right singular vectors 11-755/18-797

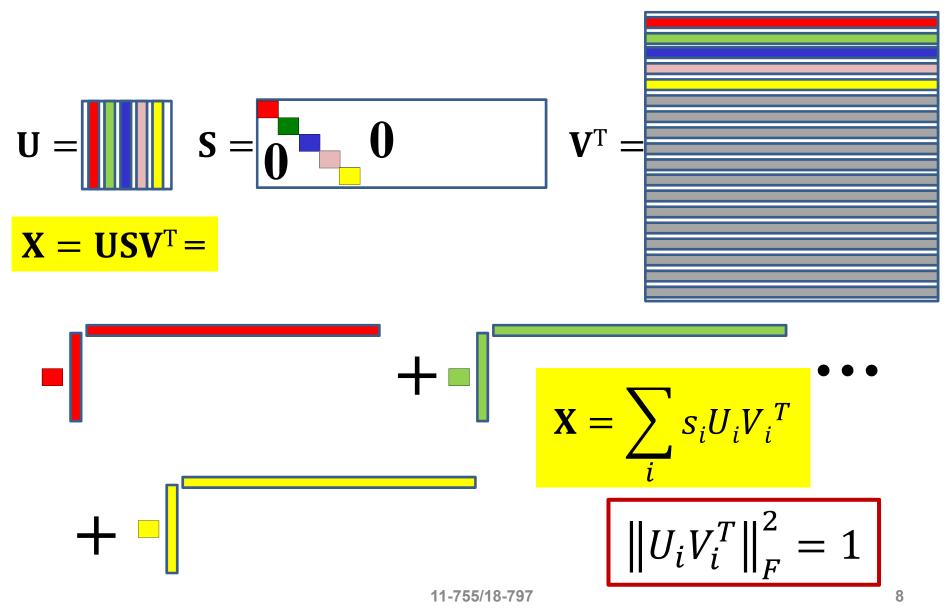


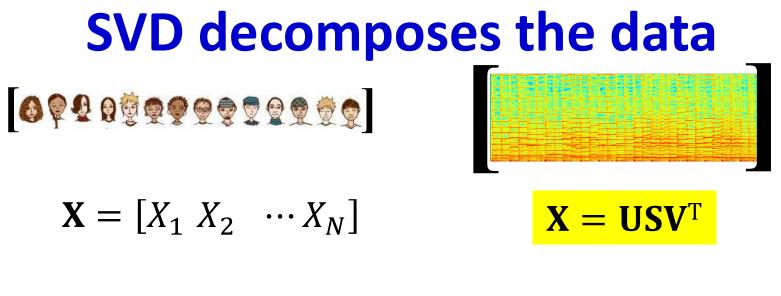
- For a symmetric matrix left and right singular vectors are identical
  - Orthogonal vectors which do not change direction from the transform
  - These are the major axes of the ellipsoid obtained from a sphereoid
- These are also the *eigenvectors* of the matrix
  - Since they do not change direction
  - SVD gives you Eigen decomposition, with  $\Lambda=S^2$

#### Linear Algebra Reminders: 4 -> SVD

- SVD decomposes a matrix into a the sum of a sequence of "unit-energy" matrices weighted by the corresponding singular values
- Retaining only the "high-singular-value" components retains most of the energy in the matrix

#### **SVD on data-container matrices**





$$\mathbf{X} = s_1 U_1 V_1^T + s_2 U_2 V_2^T + s_3 U_3 V_3^T + s_4 U_4 V_4^T + \dots$$

- Each left singular vector and the corresponding right singular vector contribute one "basic" component to the data
- The "magnitude" of its contribution is the corresponding singular value

# **Expanding the SVD** $\mathbf{X} = s_1 U_1 V_1^T + s_2 U_2 V_2^T + s_3 U_3 V_3^T + s_4 U_4 V_4^T + \dots$

- Each left singular vector and the corresponding right singular vector contribute on "basic" component to the data
- The "magnitude" of its contribution is the corresponding singular value
- Low singular-value components contribute little, if anything
  - Carry little information
  - Are often just "noise" in the data

# Expanding the SVD $\mathbf{X} = s_1 U_1 V_1^T + s_2 U_2 V_2^T + s_3 U_3 V_3^T + s_4 U_4 V_4^T + \dots$ $\mathbf{X} \approx s_1 U_1 V_1^T + s_2 U_2 V_2^T$

- Low singular-value components contribute little, if anything
  - Carry little information
  - Are often just "noise" in the data
- Data can be recomposed using only the "major" components with minimal change of value
  - Minimum squared error between original data and recomposed data
  - Sometimes eliminating the low-singular-value components will, in fact "clean" the data

#### Linear Algebra recall

• What is  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ 

– When y is unit length

# Linear Algebra recall

• What is  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ 

– When **y** is unit length

What is the projection of x onto y – When y is unit length

# Linear Algebra recall

• What is  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$ 

– When **y** is unit length

- What is the projection of x onto y
   When y is unit length
- What is the projection of **x** onto  $\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_1 \dots \mathbf{y}_K]$ - When **Y** is an orthogonal matrix

• On with the topic for today...

#### **Recall: Representing images**





aboard Apollo space capsule. 1038 x 1280 - 142k LIFE



Apollo Xi 1280 x 1255 - 226k LIFE



aboard Apollo space capsule. 1029 x 1280 - 128k LIFE



Building Apollo space ship. 1280 x 1257 - 114k LIFE



aboard Apollo space capsule. 1017 x 1280 - 130k LIFE





Apollo Xi 1228 x 1280 - 181k LIFE



LIFE

Apollo 10 space ship, w. 1280 x 853 - 72k



1280 x 866 - 184k 1280 x 839 - 60k LIFE





Apollo Xi 844 x 1280 - 123k LIFE



working on Apollo space project. 1280 x 956 - 117k LIFE



LIFE

LIFE

Apollo 11 1280 x 1277 - 142k

LIFE

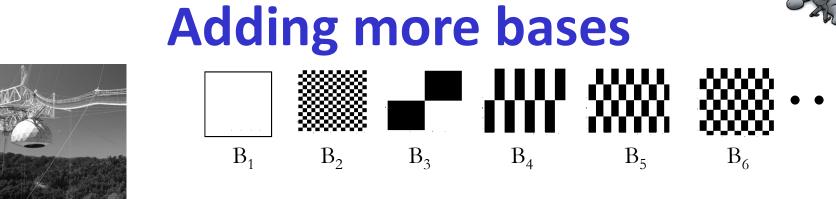




968 x 1280 - 125k LIFE

- The most common element in the image: background
  - Or rather large regions of relatively featureless shading
  - Uniform sequences of numbers

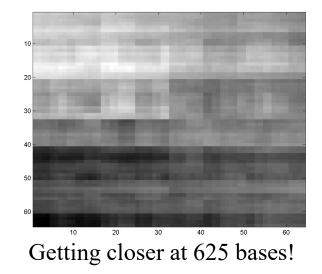


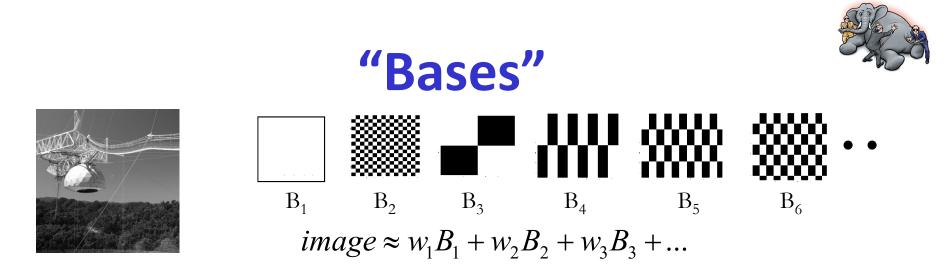


Checkerboards with different variations

$$\operatorname{Im} age \approx w_{1}B_{1} + w_{2}B_{2} + w_{3}B_{3} + \dots$$
$$W = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1} \\ w_{2} \\ w_{3} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} B_{1} & B_{2} & B_{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$BW \approx \operatorname{Im} age$$

 $W = pinv(B) \operatorname{Im} age$ PROJECTION = BW





- "Bases" are the "standard" units such that all instances can be expressed a weighted combinations of these units
- Ideal requirements: Bases must be orthogonal
- Checkerboards are one choice of bases
  - Orthogonal
  - But not "smooth"
- Other choices of bases: Complex exponentials, Wavelets, etc..



# **Data specific bases?**

- Issue: The bases we have considered so far are *data agnostic* 
  - Checkerboards, Complex exponentials, Wavelets..
  - We use the same bases regardless of the data we analyze
    - Image of face vs. Image of a forest
    - Segment of speech vs. Seismic rumble
- How about data specific bases
  - Bases that consider the underlying data
    - E.g. is there something better than checkerboards to describe faces
    - Something better than complex exponentials to describe music?











- A collection of images
  - All normalized to 100x100 pixels
- What is common among all of them?
  - Do we have a common descriptor?

# A typical face











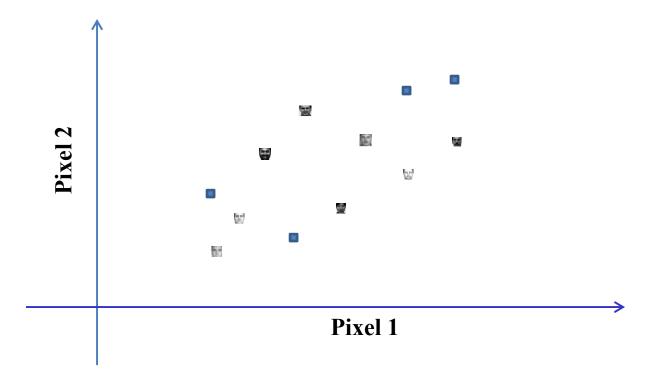


The typical face

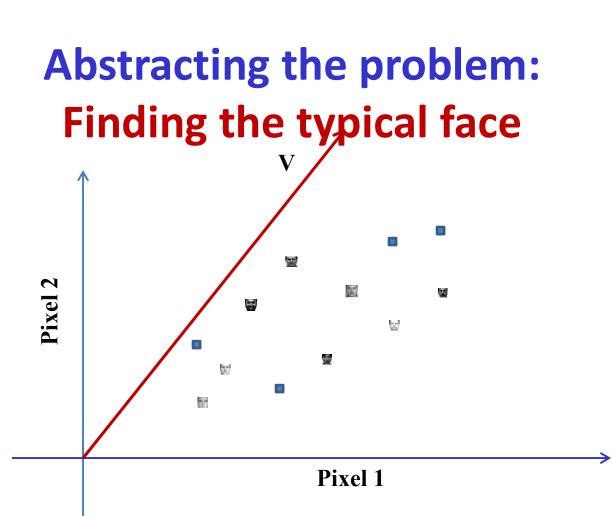
- Assumption: There is a "typical" face that captures most of what is common to all faces
  - Every face can be represented by a scaled version of a typical face
  - We will denote this face as  $\rm V$
- Approximate every face f as  $f = w_f V$
- Estimate V to minimize the squared error
  - How? What is V?



#### **Abstracting the problem: Finding the typical face**



• Each "point" represents a face in "pixel space"

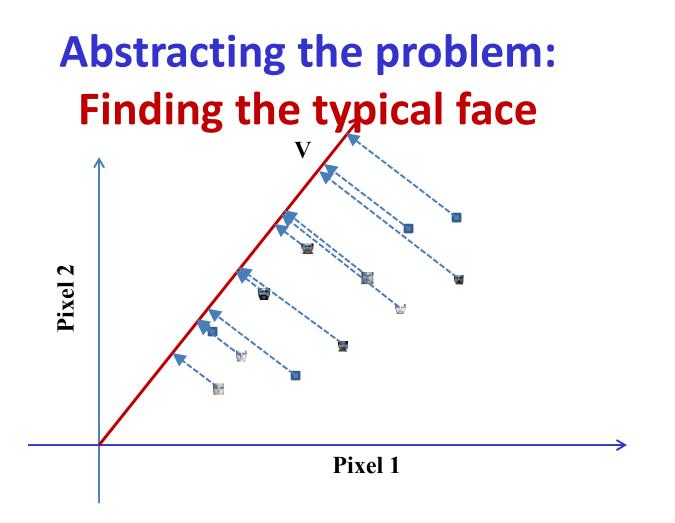


- Each "point" represents a face in "pixel space"
- Any "typical face"  ${\rm V}$  is a vector in this space

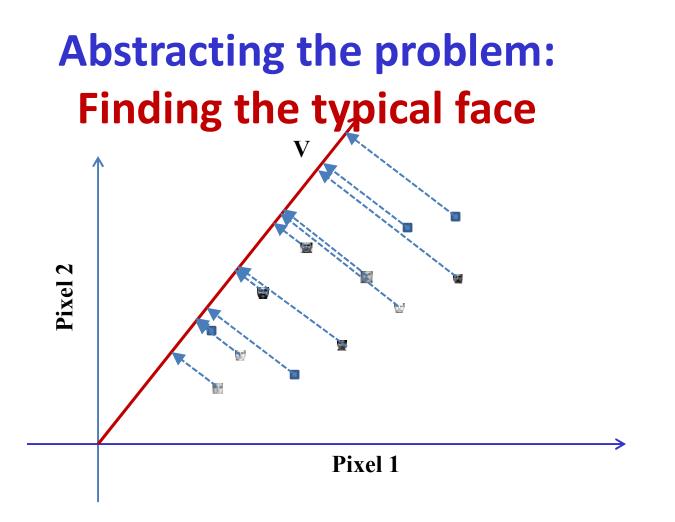
#### 

Pixel 1

- Each "point" represents a face in "pixel space"
- The "typical face" V is a vector in this space
- The *approximation*  $w_{f_{x}} V$  for any face f is the *projection* of f onto V
- The distance between f and its projection  $w_f V$  is the *projection error* for f

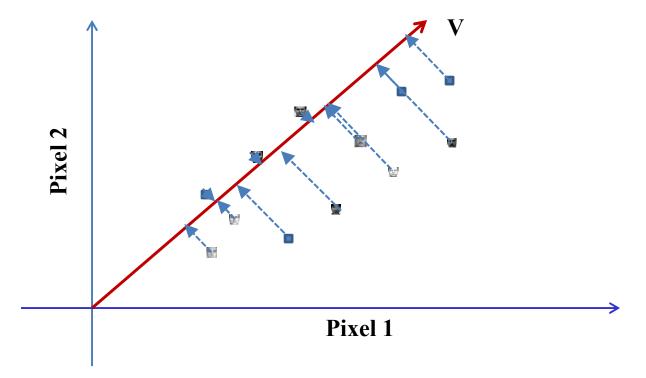


- *Every* face in our data will suffer error when approximated by its projection on V
- The total squared length of all error lines is the *total* squared projection error



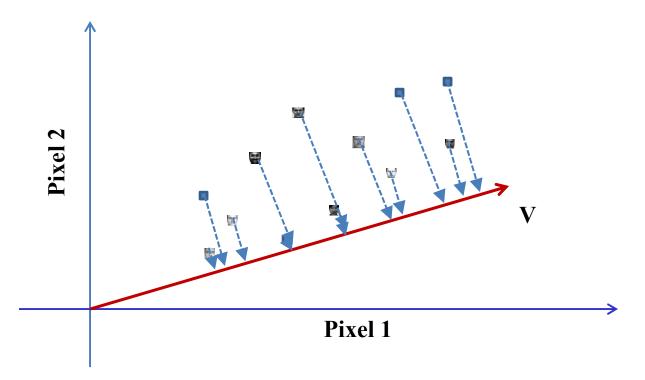


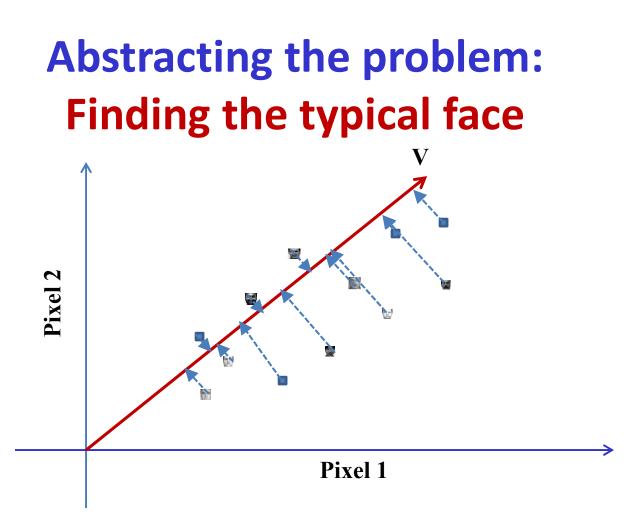
#### Abstracting the problem: Finding the typical face





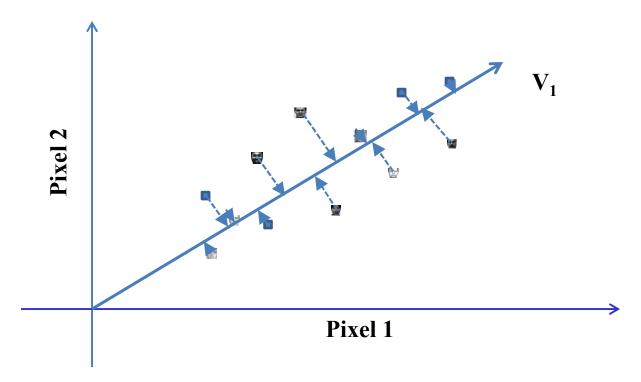
#### **Abstracting the problem: Finding the typical face**



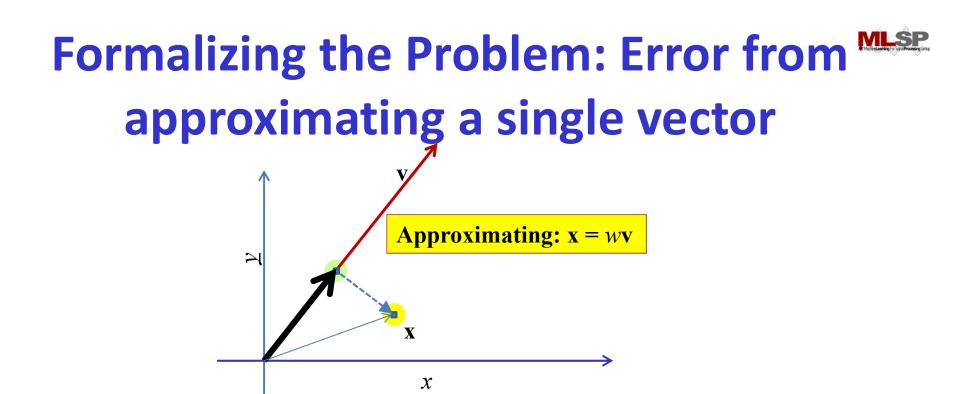




#### **Abstracting the problem:** Finding the typical face



- The problem of finding the first typical face  $V_1$ : Find the V for which the total projection error is minimum!
- This "minimum squared error" V is our "best" first typical face
- It is also the first *Eigen face*



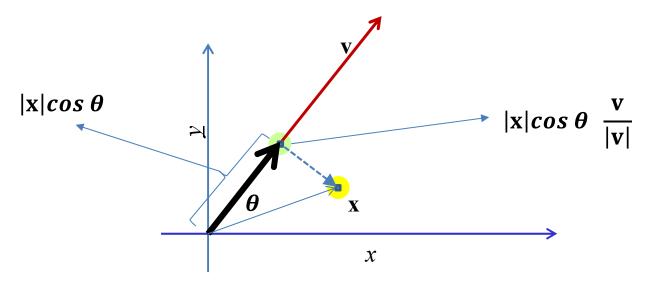
• Consider: approximating **x** = w**v** 

– E.g x is a face, and "v" is the "typical face"

- Finding an approximation wv which is closest to x
  - In a Euclidean sense
  - Basically projecting x onto v



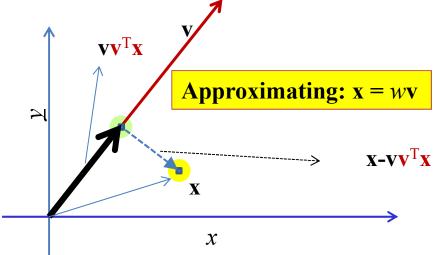
#### **Projection of a vector on another**



- The black arrow is the *projection* of  $\mathbf{x}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$
- $\frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}$  is a *unit* vector in the direction of v

• 
$$\mathbf{x}_{proj} = |\mathbf{x}| \cos \theta \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|^2}$$
  
=  $\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{v} \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|^2}$ 

# Formalizing the Problem: Error from approximating a single vector

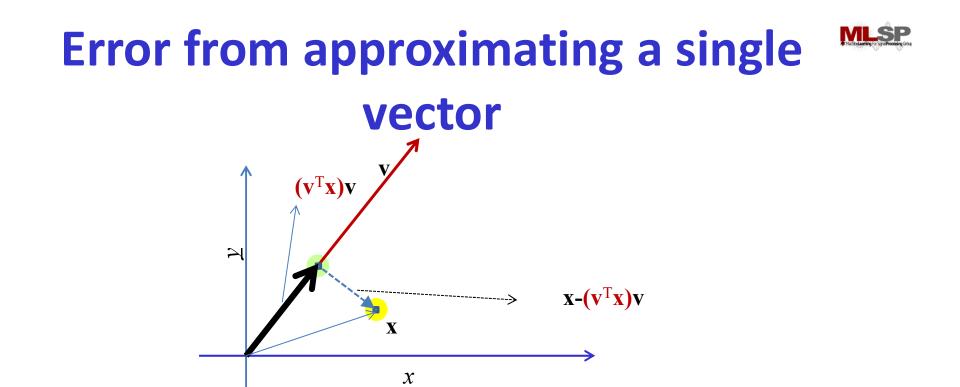


Projection of a vector x on to a vector v

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v}}{\left|\mathbf{v}\right|^2} \mathbf{v}$$

• Assuming v is of unit length:  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v}$ 

error = 
$$\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v}$$
 squared error =  $\|\mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v})\mathbf{v}\|^2$ 

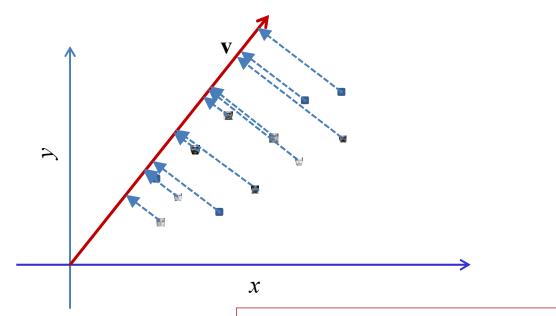


- Projection  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v}$
- Squared length of projection  $\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\|^2 = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v})^2 = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v})^T (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v}$
- Pythogoras theorem: Squared length of error  $e(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\|^2$

$$e(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v}$$



#### **Error for many vectors**



- Error for one vector:  $e(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{v}$
- Error for many vectors

$$E = \sum_{i} e(\mathbf{x}_{i}) = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \sum_{i} \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{v}^{T} \left(\sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}\right) \mathbf{v}$$

• Goal: Estimate v to minimize this error!



# **Definition: The correlation matrix** $\underbrace{\sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T}}_{i}$

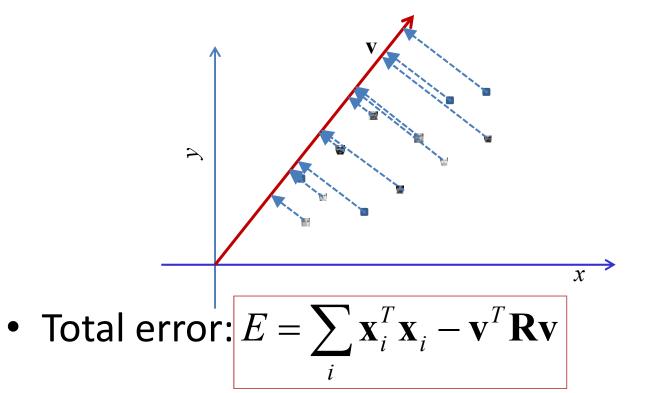
• The encircled term is the *correlation matrix* 

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{x}_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{T} = \mathbf{R}$$



#### **Error for many vectors**



- Add constraint:  $\mathbf{v}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{v} = 1$
- Constrained objective to minimize:

$$L = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{v} + \lambda (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v} - 1)$$



#### **Two Matrix Identities**

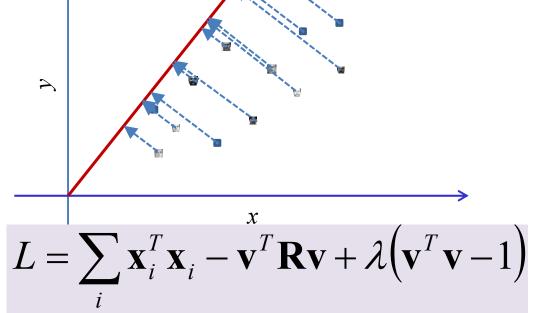
Derivative w.r.t v

$$L = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{v} + \lambda \left( \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v} - 1 \right)$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{v}) = 2\mathbf{v}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{v}^{T}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v}$$





• Differentiating w.r.t  $\,v$  and equating to 0

$$-2\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v}+2\lambda\mathbf{v}=0$$

$$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$



# The best "basis"

- The minimum-error basis is found by solving  $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$
- v is an Eigen vector of the correlation matrix  ${\bm R}$   $-\,\lambda$  is the corresponding Eigen value



#### What about the total error?

$$E = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{v}$$

$$=\sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \mathbf{v}^{T} \lambda \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \lambda \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}$$

$$E = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \lambda$$



#### Minimizing the error

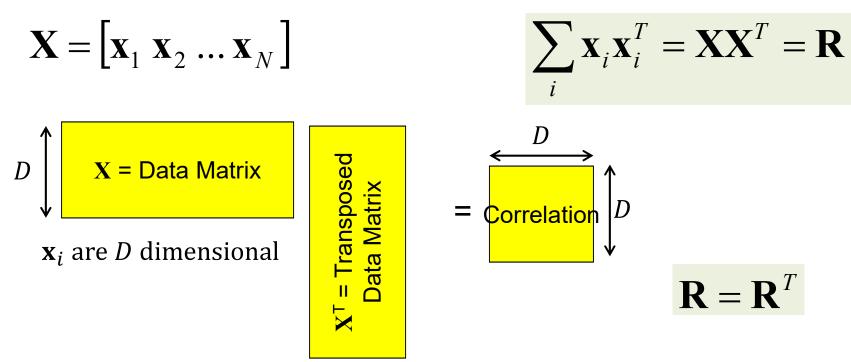
- The total error is  $E = \sum \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i \lambda$
- We already know that the optimal basis is an Eigen vector
- The total error depends on the *negative* of the corresponding Eigen value
- To *minimize* error, we must *maximize*  $\lambda$
- i.e. Select the Eigen vector with the largest Eigen value



#### A detour: The correlation matrix

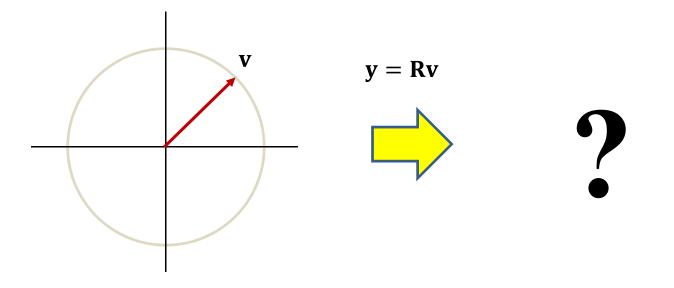


#### A new definition: The *correlation* matrix



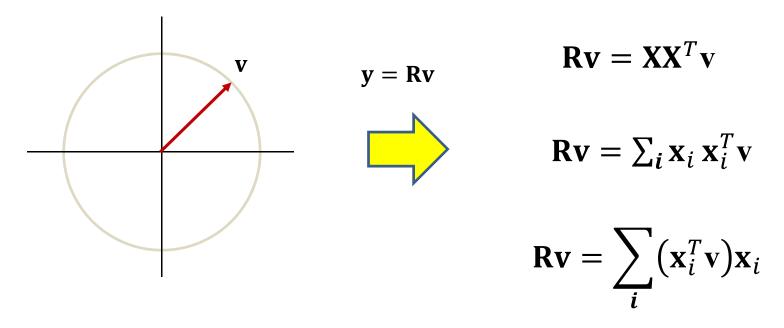
- For data-holder matrices: the product of a matrix and its transpose
  - Also equal to the sum of the outer products of the columns of the matrix
  - The correlation matrix is symmetric
  - It quantifies the average dependence of individual *components* of the data on other components





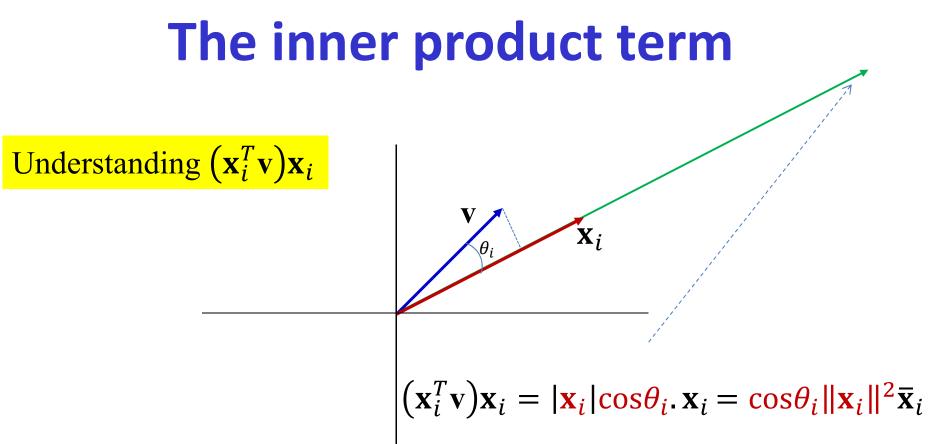
 Consider the effect of multiplying a unit vector by R





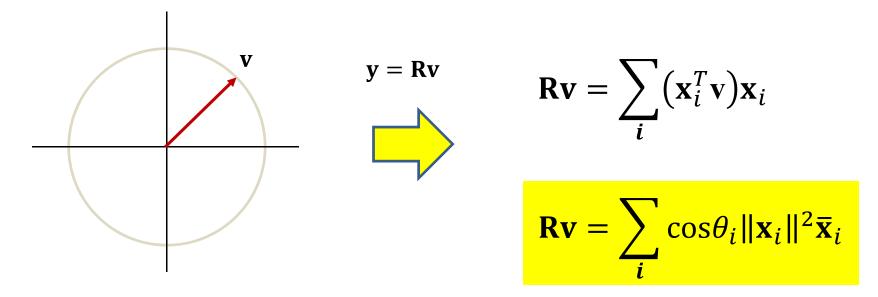
 Consider the effect of multiplying a unit vector by R





- Consider  $(\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{x}_i$
- This is the projection of unit vector v on x<sub>i</sub>, scaled by the squared length of x<sub>i</sub>





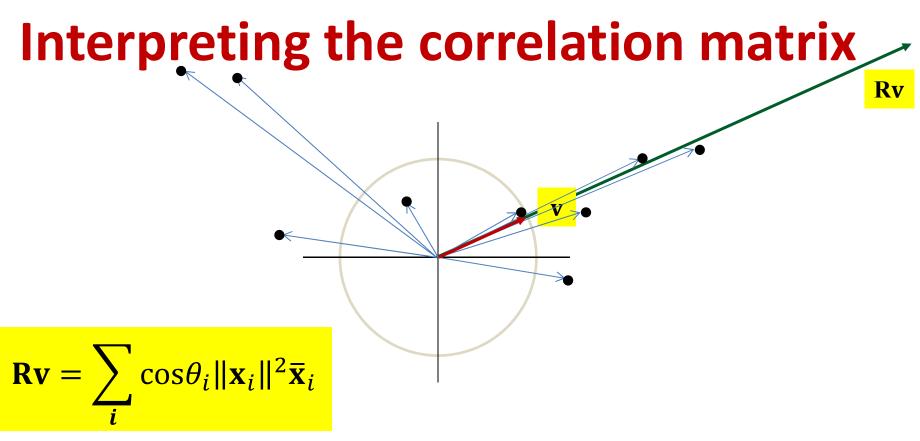
Consider the effect of multiplying a unit vector
 by R



### Interpreting the correlation matrix $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v} = \sum \cos\theta_i \|\mathbf{x}_i\|^2 \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$ Where will **Rv** be?

- Each unit vector is transformed to the sum of cosineweighted squared-length versions of the individual vectors
  - Approximately the sum of the squared-length version of vectors that are close to it in angle





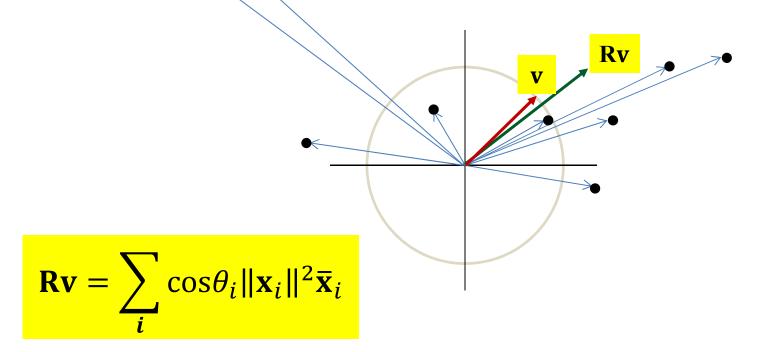
- Each unit vector is transformed to the sum of cosineweighted squared-length versions of the individual vectors
  - Approximately the sum of the squared-length version of vectors that are close to it in angle



$$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i} \cos\theta_{i} \|\mathbf{x}_{i}\|^{2} \overline{\mathbf{x}}_{i}$$
 Where will  $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{v}$  be?

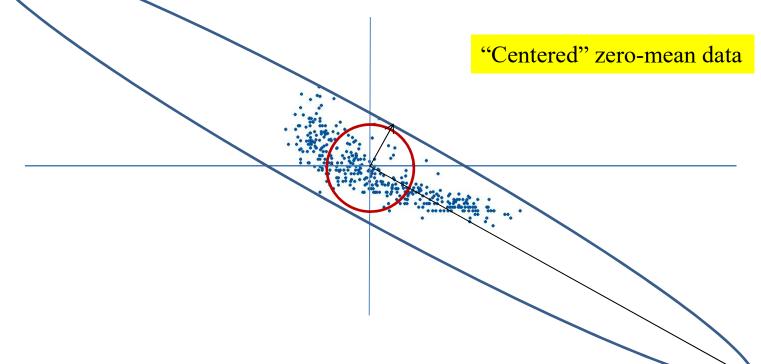
- Each unit vector is transformed to the sum of cosineweighted squared-length versions of the individual vectors
  - Approximately the sum of the squared-length version of vectors that are close to it in angle





- Each unit vector is transformed to the sum of cosineweighted squared-length versions of the individual vectors
  - Approximately the sum of the squared-length version of vectors that are close to it in angle

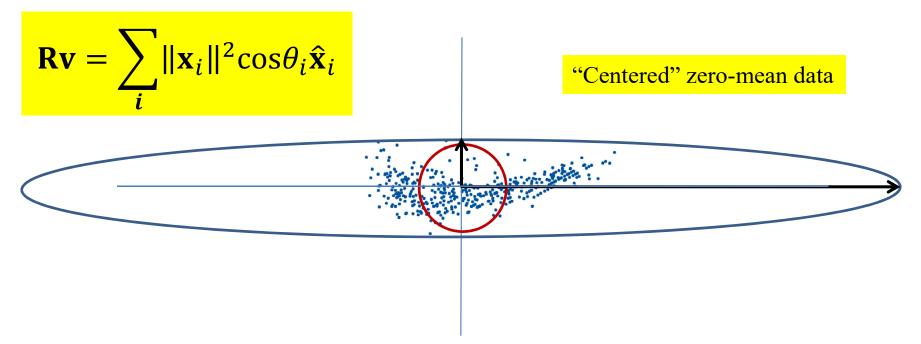




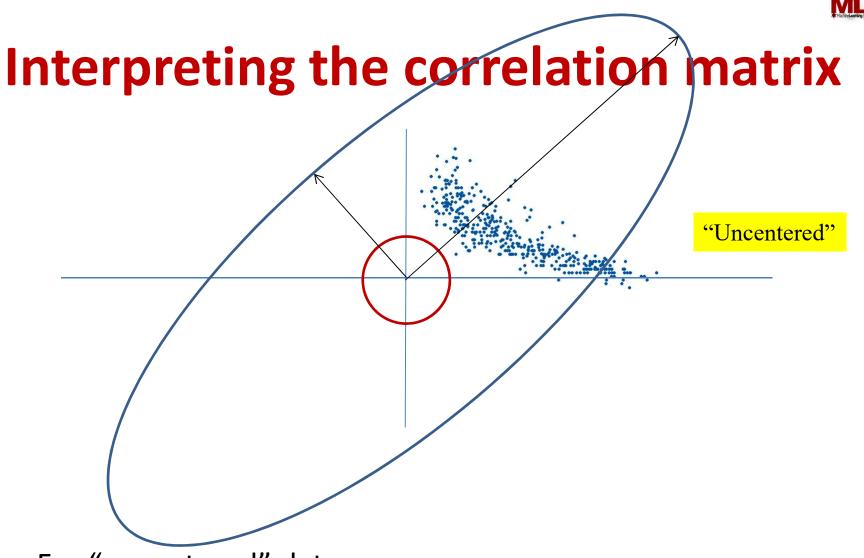
- The unit sphereoid is converted to an ellipsoid
  - The major axes point to the directions of greatest energy
  - These are the *eigenvectors*
  - Their length is proportional to the square of the lengths of the data vectors
    - Why?



#### "Uncorrelated" data



- When the scatter of the data is aligned to the axes, the transformed ellipse is also aligned to the axes
  - The data are "uncorrelated"



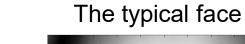
- For "uncentered" data..
  - Note although the vectors near the major axis are shorter, there are more of them, so the ellipse is wider in that direction



#### **Returning to our problem..**



#### The typical face





- Compute the correlation matrix for your data
  - Arrange them in matrix **X** and compute  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}$
- Compute the *principal* Eigen vector of R
  - The Eigen vector with the largest Eigen value
  - Explains most of the "energy" in the faces
- This is the typical face

#### The approximation with the first MLSP typical face













- The first typical face models some of the characteristics of the faces
  - Simply by scaling its grey level
- But the approximation has error

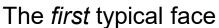




Can we do better?



#### The second typical face













20







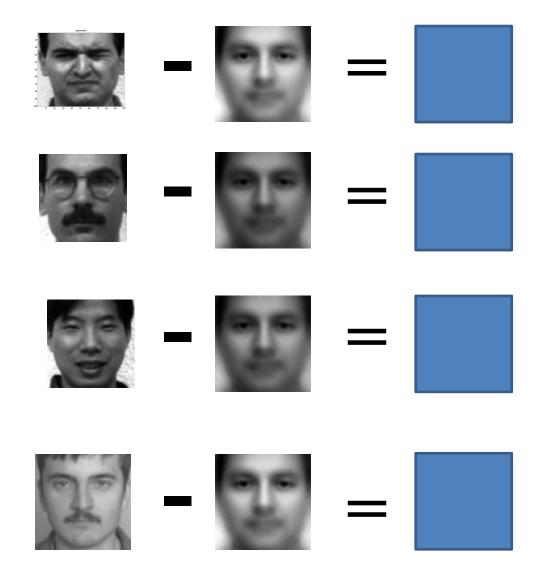
The second typical face?



- Approximation with only one typical face  $\mathrm{V}_1$  has error
  - Approximating every face as  $\mathrm{f}=\mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{f1}}\,\mathrm{V}_1$  is incomplete
- Lets add second face to explain this error
  - Add a second typical face  $V_1$ . Explain each face now as
  - $f = w_{f1} V_1 + w_{f2} V_2$
- How do we find this second face?



#### **Solution: Iterate**



 Get the "error" faces by subtracting the first-level approximation from the original image

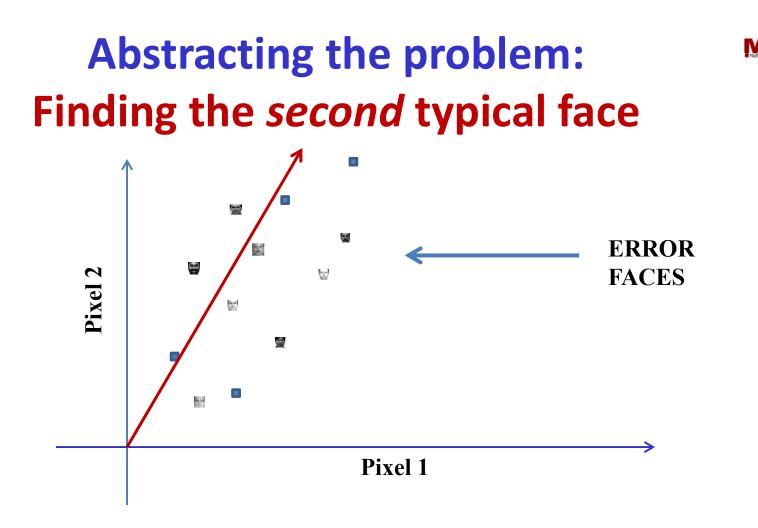


#### **Solution: Iterate**



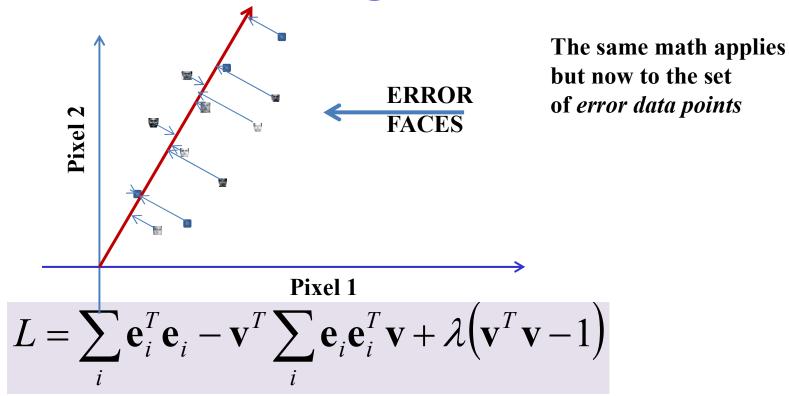
Get the "error"
faces by
subtracting the
first-level
approximation
from the original
image

 Repeat the estimation on the "error" images



- Each "point" represents an *error* face in "pixel space"
- Find the vector V<sub>2</sub> such that the projection of these error faces on V<sub>2</sub> results in the least error

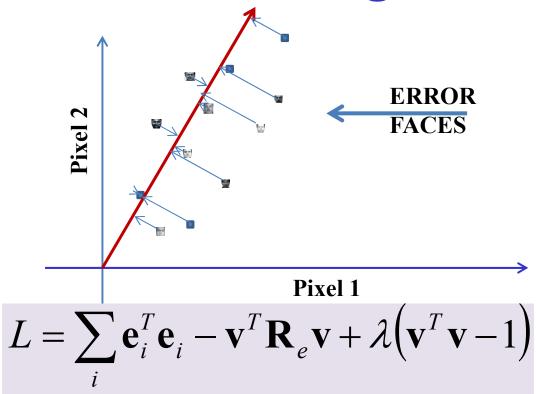




• Defining the autocorrelation of the error

$$\mathbf{R}_{e} = \sum_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{e}_{i} - \mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{R}_{e} \mathbf{v} + \lambda (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v} - 1)$$





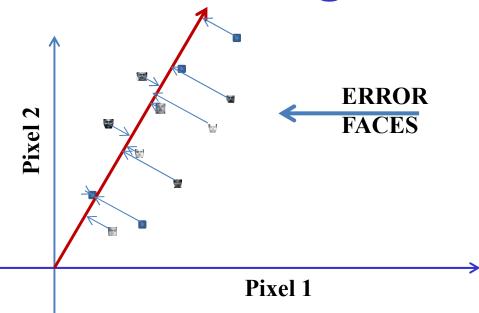
The same math applies but now to the set of *error data points* 

• Differentiating w.r.t v and equating to 0

$$-2\mathbf{R}_{e}\mathbf{v}+2\lambda\mathbf{v}=0$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{e}\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$



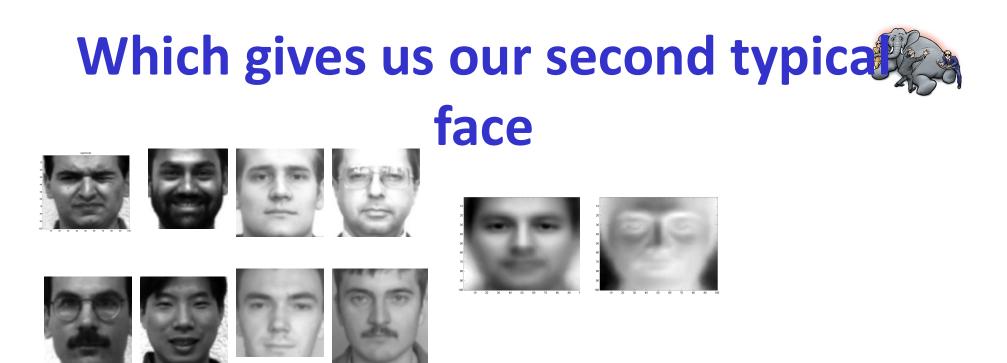


The same math applies but now to the set of *error data points* 

• The minimum-error basis is found by solving

$$\mathbf{R}_{e}\mathbf{v}_{2} = \lambda \mathbf{v}_{2}$$

v<sub>2</sub> is an Eigen vector of the correlation matrix R<sub>e</sub> corresponding to the largest eigen value λ of R<sub>e</sub>



- But approximation with the two faces will *still* result in error
- So we need more typical faces to explain *this* error
- We can do this by subtracting the appropriately scaled version of the second "typical" face from the error images and repeating the process



#### Solution: Iterate

#### **Error face**

	=	
	=	
20	=	
	=	

 Get the secondlevel "error" faces by subtracting the scaled second typical face from the first-level error

 Repeat the estimation on the second-level "error" images



#### An interesting property

- Each "typical face" will be orthogonal to all other typical faces
  - Because each of them is learned to explain what the rest could not
  - None of these faces can explain one another!



#### To add more faces

- We can continue the process, refining the error each time
  - An instance of a procedure is called "Gram-Schmidt" orthogonalization
- So what are we really doing?



#### A collection of least squares typical faces<sup>2</sup>









- Assumption: There are a set of K "typical" faces that captures most of all faces
- Approximate every face f as  $f=w_{f,1} \ V_1 + w_{f,2} \ V_2 + w_{f,3} \ V_3 + .. + w_{f,k} \ V_k$ 
  - $\,V_2$  is used to "correct" errors resulting from using only  $V_1^{}.$  So on average

$$\left\|f - (w_{f,1}V_{f,1} + w_{f,2}V_{f,2})\right\|^{2} < \left\|f - w_{f,1}V_{f,1}\right\|^{2}$$

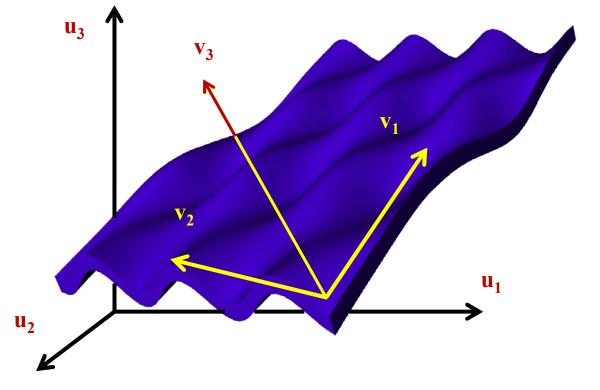
 $-~V_3$  corrects errors remaining after correction with  $V_2$ 

$$\left\|f - (w_{f,1}V_{f,1} + w_{f,2}V_{f,2} + w_{f,3}V_{f,3})\right\|^2 < \left\|f - (w_{f,1}V_{f,1} + w_{f,2}V_{f,2})\right\|^2$$

- And so on..
- $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{V}_1 \, \mathbf{V}_2 \, \mathbf{V}_3]$
- Estimate V to minimize the squared error
  - What is V?



#### **Recall: Basis based representation**



• The most important challenge in ML: Find the best set of bases for a given data set



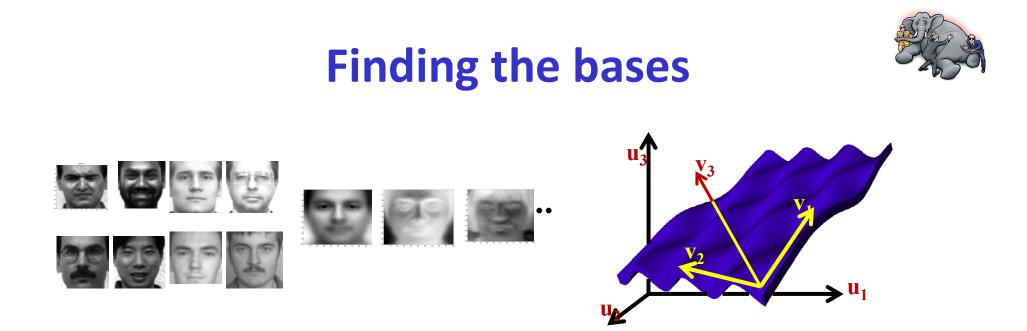
#### **The Energy Compaction Property**

- Define "best"?
- The description

 $X = w_1 B_1 + w_2 B_2 + w_3 B_3 + \dots + w_N B_N$ 

- The ideal:  $\hat{X}_i \approx w_1 B_1 + w_2 B_2 + \dots + w_i B_i$   $Error_i = \left\| X - \hat{X}_i \right\|^2$   $Error_i < Error_{i-1}$ 
  - If the description is terminated at any point, we should still get most of the information about the data
    - No other set of bases should result in lower

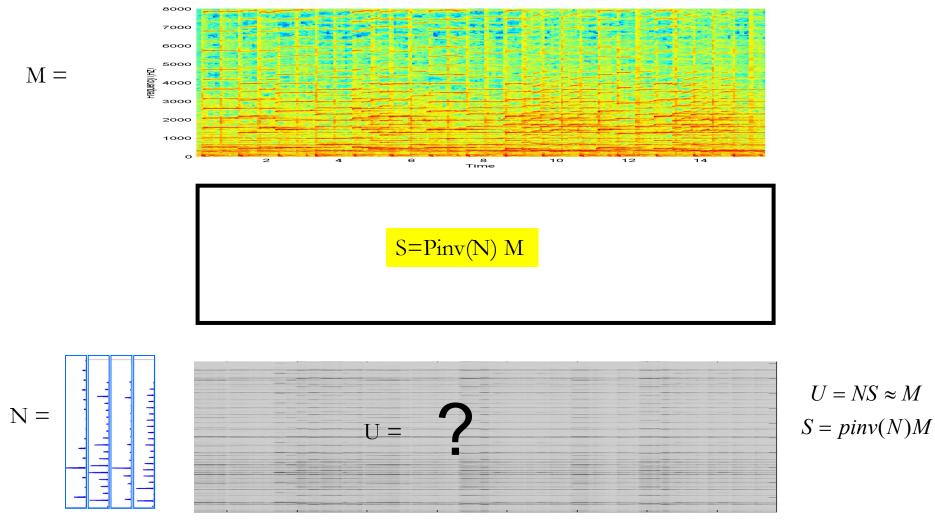
$$Error_{i-1} - Error_i$$



 Finding the optimal set of "typical faces" in this example is the problem of finding the optimal basis set for the data



#### **A recollection**

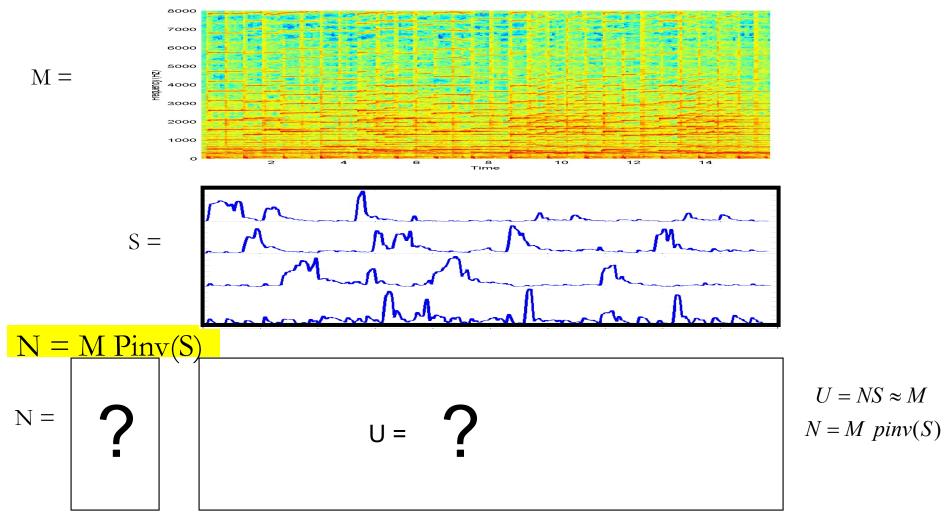


- Finding the best explanation of music  ${\rm M}$  in terms of notes  ${\rm N}$
- Also finds the score  ${\rm S}$  of  ${\rm M}$  in terms of  ${\rm N}$

11-755/18-797



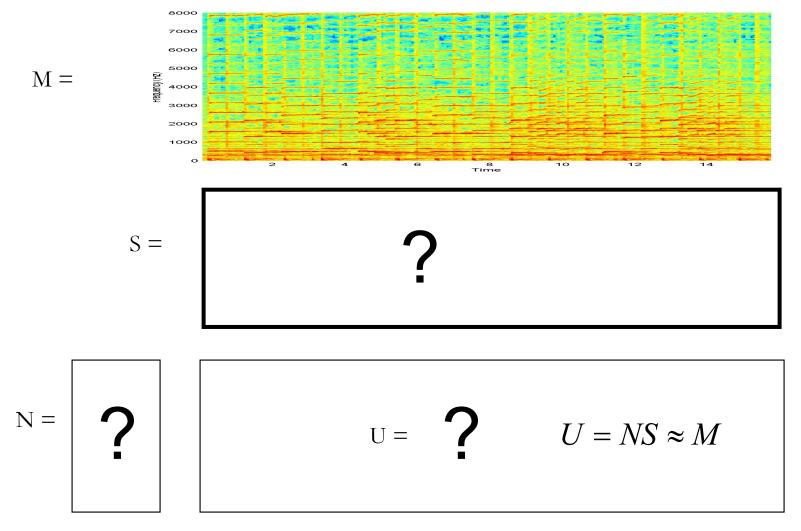
# How about the other way?



- Finding the notes  ${\bf N}$  given music  ${\bf M}$  and score  ${\bf S}$
- Also finds best explanation of  ${\rm M}$  in terms of  ${\rm S}$



#### **Finding Everything**

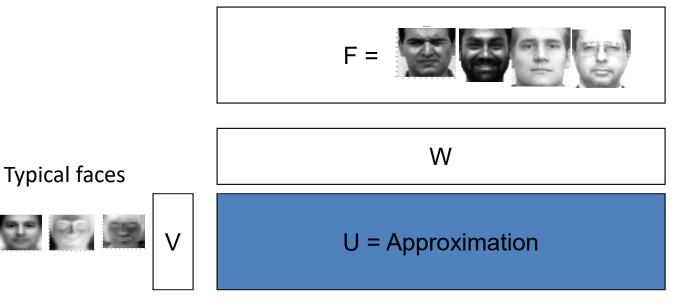


 Find the four notes and their score that generate the closest approximation to M

11-755/18-797



#### **The Same Problem**



- Here U, V and W are all unknown and must be estimated
  - Such that the total squared error between F and U is minimized
- For each face *f* 
  - $f = w_{f,1}V_1 + w_{f,2}V_2 + \dots + w_{f,K}V_K$
- For the collection of faces  $F \approx VW$ 
  - V is  $D \times K$ , W is  $K \times N$ 
    - D is the number of pixels, N is the number of faces in the set

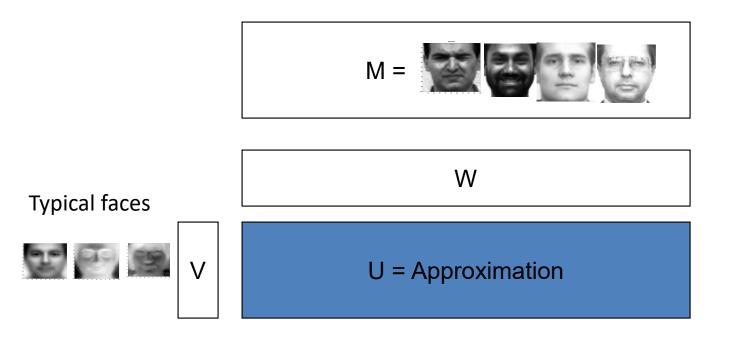


# **Finding the bases**

- We just saw an incremental procedure for finding the bases
  - Finding one new basis at a time that explains residual error not explained by previous bases
  - An instance of a procedure is called "Gram-Schmidt" orthogonalization
- We can also do it all at once



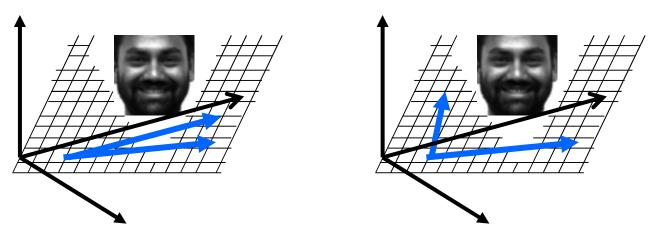
# With many typical faces



- Approximate every face f as  $f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k$
- Here W, V and U are ALL unknown and must be determined
  - Such that the squared error between U and M is minimum



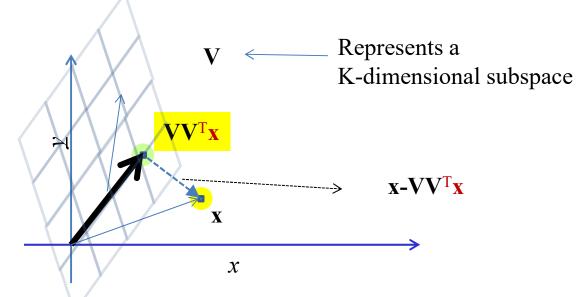
#### With multiple bases



- Assumption: all bases v<sub>1</sub> v<sub>2</sub> v<sub>3</sub>.. are unit length
- Assumption: all bases are orthogonal to one another:  $v_i^T v_j = 0$  if i != j
  - We are trying to find the optimal K-dimensional subspace to project the data
  - Any set of basis vectors in this subspace will define the subspace
  - Constraining them to be orthogonal does not change this
- I.e. if  $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \, \mathbf{v}_2 \, \mathbf{v}_3 \, \dots ], \quad \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$ 
  - Pinv(V) =  $V^T$
- Projection matrix for  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V} \mathsf{Pinv}(\mathbf{V}) = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$



#### With multiple bases



- Error length =

$$e(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$$



# With multiple bases

- x
- Error for one vector:

$$e(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{x}$$

• Error for many vectors

$$E = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}$$

• Goal: Estimate V to minimize this error!



#### **Minimizing Error**

• With constraint  $\mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}$ , we get the modified objective

$$L = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + trace(\Lambda(\mathbf{V}^{T} \mathbf{V} - \mathbf{I}))$$

–  $\Lambda$  is a symmetric Lagrangian matrix

- Constraints are  $\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_i = 1$  and  $\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$
- Differentiating w.r.t V and equation to 0

$$-2\left(\sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i}\right) \mathbf{V} + 2\mathbf{V}\Lambda = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{R}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda$$



# Finding the optimal K bases

#### $\mathbf{RV} = \Lambda \mathbf{V}$

- Compute the Eigendecompsition of the correlation matrix
- Select *K* Eigen vectors
- But which K?
- Total error =

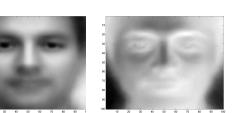
$$E = \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{K} \lambda_{j}$$

Select K eigen vectors corresponding to the K largest Eigen values



#### **Eigen Faces!**



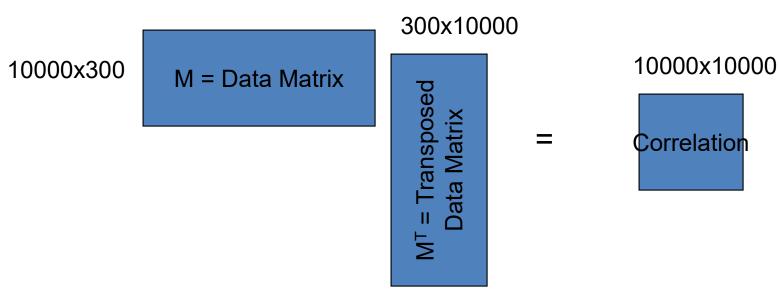




- Arrange your input data into a matrix  ${\bf X}$
- Compute the correlation  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}$
- Solve the Eigen decomposition:  $\mathbf{RV} = \Lambda \mathbf{V}$
- The Eigen vectors corresponding to the *K* largest eigen values are our optimal bases
- We will refer to these as *eigen faces*.



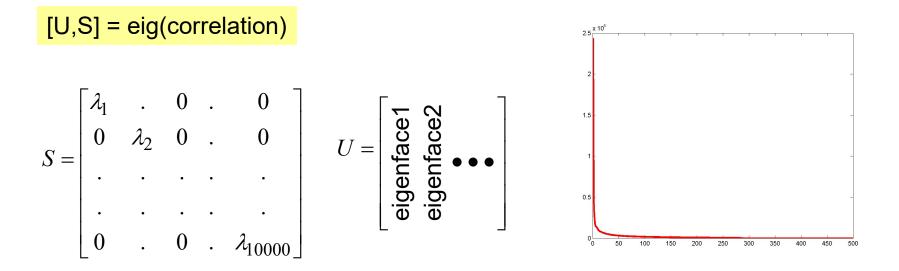
# How many Eigen faces



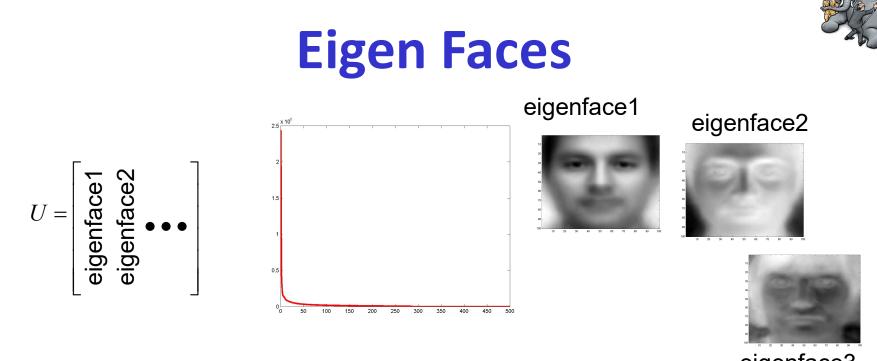
- How to choose "K" (number of Eigen faces)
- Lay all faces side by side in vector form to form a matrix
   In my example: 300 faces. So the matrix is 10000 x 300
- Multiply the matrix by its transpose
  - The correlation matrix is 10000x10000



# **Eigen faces**



- Compute the eigen vectors
  - Only 300 of the 10000 eigen values are non-zero
    - Why?
- Retain eigen vectors with high eigen values (>0)
  - Could use a higher threshold

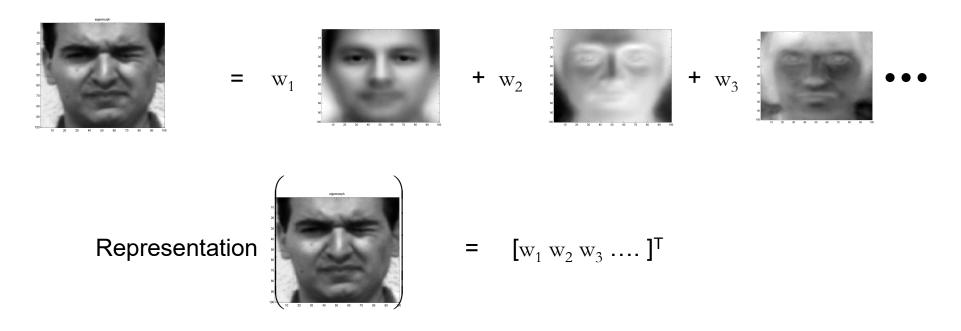


eigenface3

- The eigen vector with the highest eigen value is the first typical face
- The vector with the second highest eigen value is the second typical face.
- Etc.



#### **Representing a face**



 The weights with which the eigen faces must be combined to compose the face are used to represent the face!



 One outcome of the "energy compaction principle": the approximations are recognizable



• Approximating a face with one basis:

$$f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1$$



 One outcome of the "energy compaction principle": the approximations are recognizable



• Approximating a face with one Eigenface:

 $f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1$ 



 One outcome of the "energy compaction principle": the approximations are recognizable



• Approximating a face with 10 eigenfaces:

$$f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + w_{10} \mathbf{v}_{10}$$



 One outcome of the "energy compaction principle": the approximations are recognizable



• Approximating a face with 30 eigenfaces:

```
f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + w_{10} \mathbf{v}_{10} + \dots + w_{30} \mathbf{v}_{30}
```



 One outcome of the "energy compaction principle": the approximations are recognizable

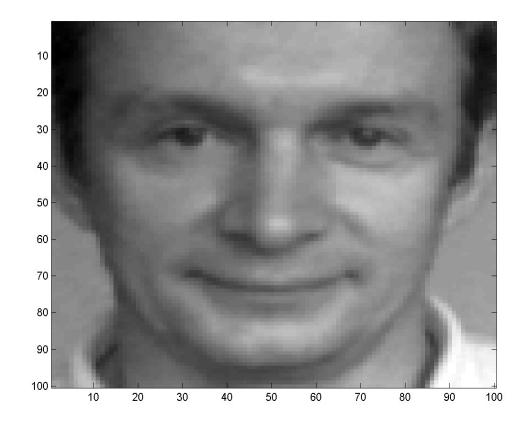


• Approximating a face with 60 eigenfaces:

 $f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \ldots + w_{10} \mathbf{v}_{10} + \ldots + w_{30} \mathbf{v}_{30} + \ldots + w_{60} \mathbf{v}_{60}$ 

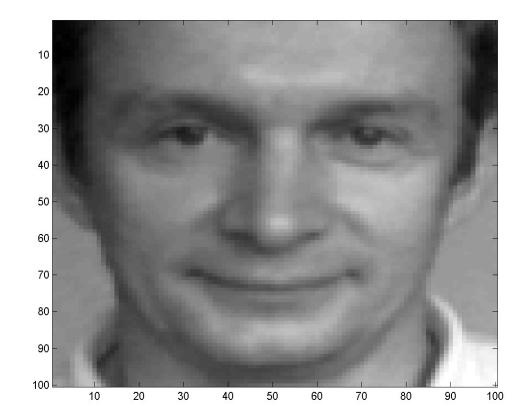


#### How did I do this?





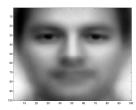
#### How did I do this?



• Hint: only changing weights assigned to Eigen faces..



eigenface1



eigenface2



eigenface3

- The Eigenimages (bases) are very specific to the class of data they are trained on
  - Faces here
- They will not be useful for other classes



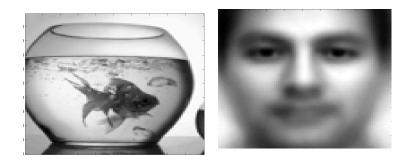
• Eigen bases are class specific



• Composing a fishbowl from Eigenfaces



• Eigen bases are class specific



- Composing a fishbowl from Eigenfaces
- With 1 basis

$$f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1$$



• Eigen bases are class specific



- Composing a fishbowl from Eigenfaces
- With 10 bases

$$f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + w_{10} \mathbf{v}_{10}$$



• Eigen bases are class specific



- Composing a fishbowl from Eigenfaces
- With 30 bases

$$f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + w_{10} \mathbf{v}_{10} + \dots + w_{30} \mathbf{v}_{30}$$



• Eigen bases are class specific



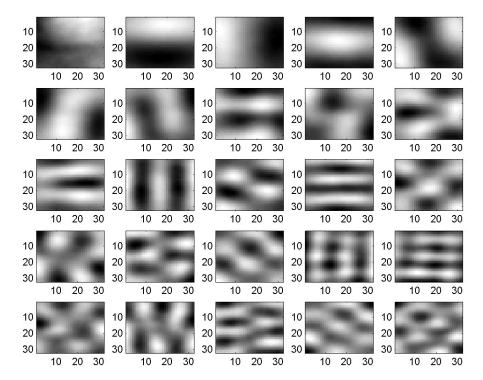
- Composing a fishbowl from Eigenfaces
- With 100 bases

 $f = w_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + w_{10} \mathbf{v}_{10} + \dots + w_{30} \mathbf{v}_{30} + \dots + w_{100} \mathbf{v}_{100}$ 



#### **Universal bases**

• Universal bases..



- End up looking a lot like *discrete cosine transforms*!!!!
- DCTs are the best "universal" bases
  - If you don't know what your data are, use the DCT



Eigen Decomposition of the Correlation Matrix

 $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{E}^T$ 

SVD of the Data Matrix

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{V}^T$$
$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{V}^T \ \mathbf{V}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}^2\mathbf{U}^T$$

Comparing $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{U}$  $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{S}^2$ 

• Eigen decomposition of the correlation matrix gives you left singular vectors of data matrix



# **Dimensionality Reduction**

•  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{E}^T$ 

– The columns of **E** are our "Eigen" bases

- We can express any vector X as a combination of these bases  $X = w_D^X E_1 + w_D^X E_D + \dots + w_D^X E_D$
- Using only the "top" K bases – Corresponding to the top K Eigen values  $X \approx w_D^X E_1 + w_D^X E_D + \dots + w_K^X E_K$



# **Dimensionality Reduction**

- Using only the "top" K bases
  - Corresponding to the top K Eigen values  $X \approx w_D^X E_1 + w_D^X E_D + \dots + w_K^X E_K$
- In vector form:

$$X \approx \boldsymbol{E}_{1:K} \boldsymbol{w}_{K}^{X}$$
$$\boldsymbol{w}_{K}^{X} = Pinv(\boldsymbol{E}_{1:K})X = \boldsymbol{E}_{1:K}^{T}X$$
$$\boldsymbol{W}_{K}^{X} = \boldsymbol{E}_{1:K}^{T}\boldsymbol{X}$$

- If "E" is agreed upon, knowing  $\mathbf{W}_{K}^{X}$  is sufficient to reconstruct  $\mathbf{X}$ 
  - Store only K numbers per vector instead of D without losing too much information
  - Dimensionality Reduction



# Lets give it a name $R = EDE^T$

E are the "Eigen Bases"

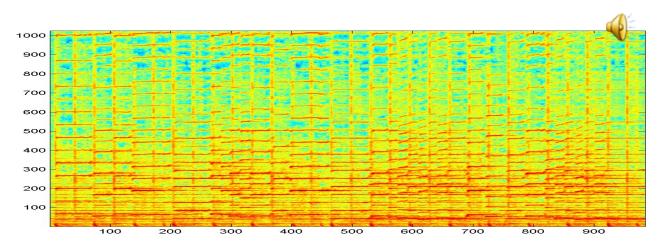
#### $\mathbf{W}_{K}^{X} = \boldsymbol{E}_{1:K}^{T} \mathbf{X}$

- Retaining only the top *K* weights for every data vector
  - Computed by multiplying the data matrix by the transpose of the top K Eigen vectors of R
- This is called the *Karhunen Loeve Transform*

- Not PCA!



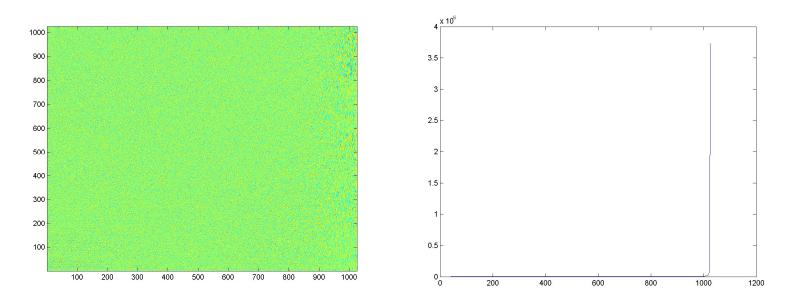
#### An audio example



- The spectrogram has 974 vectors of dimension 1025
- The covariance matrix is size 1025 x 1025
- There are 1025 eigenvectors



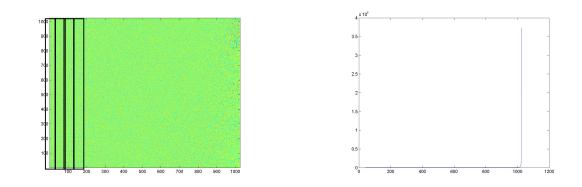
#### **Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors**



- Left panel: Matrix with 1025 eigen vectors
- Right panel: Corresponding eigen values
  - Most Eigen values are close to zero
    - The corresponding eigenvectors are "unimportant"

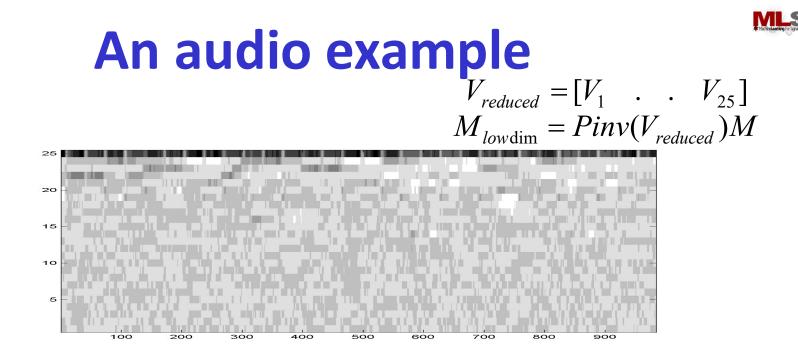


# **Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors**



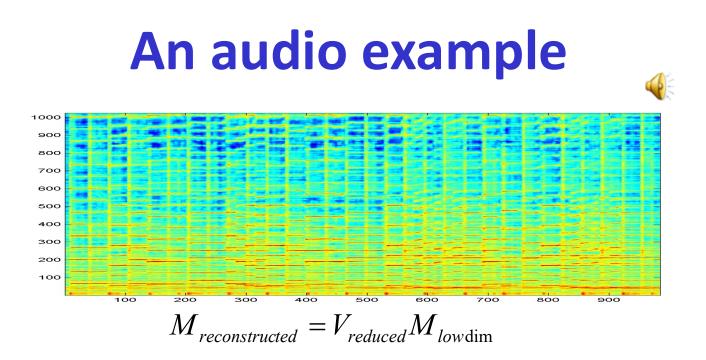
Vec = a1 \*eigenvec1 + a2 \* eigenvec2 + a3 \* eigenvec3 ...

- The vectors in the spectrogram are linear combinations of all 1025 Eigen vectors
- The Eigen vectors with low Eigen values contribute very little
  - The average value of a<sub>i</sub> is proportional to the square root of the Eigenvalue
  - Ignoring these will not affect the composition of the spectrogram



- The same spectrogram projected down to the 25 eigen vectors with the highest eigen values
  - Only the 25-dimensional weights are shown
    - The weights with which the 25 eigen vectors must be added to compose a least squares approximation to the spectrogram

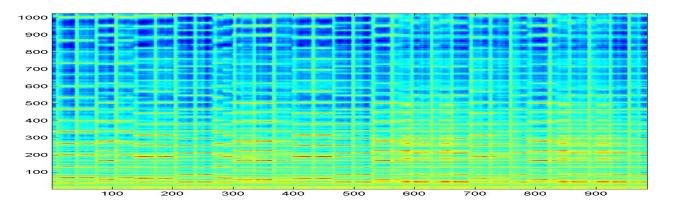




- The same spectrogram constructed from only the 25 Eigen vectors with the highest Eigen values
  - Looks similar
    - With 100 Eigenvectors, it would be indistinguishable from the original
  - Sounds pretty close
  - But now sufficient to store 25 numbers per vector (instead of 1024)



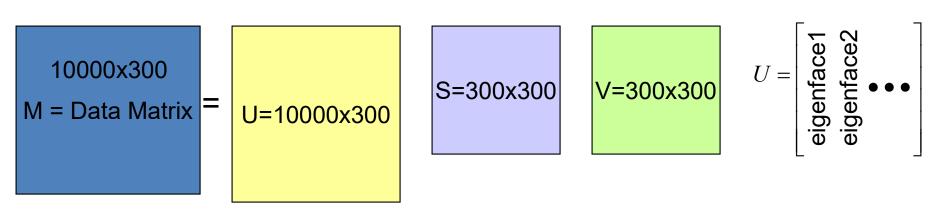
#### With only 5 eigenvectors



- The same spectrogram constructed from only the 5 Eigen vectors with the highest Eigen values
  - Highly recognizable



# **SVD instead of Eigen**



- Do we need to compute a 10000 x 10000 correlation matrix and then perform Eigen analysis?
  - Will take a very long time on your laptop
- SVD
  - Only need to perform "Thin" SVD. Very fast
    - U = 10000 x 300
      - The columns of U are the eigen faces!
      - The Us corresponding to the "zero" eigen values are not computed
    - S = 300 x 300
    - V = 300 x 300



## **Using SVD to compute Eigenbases**

#### [U, S, V] = SVD(X)

- U will have the Eigenvectors
- Thin SVD for 100 bases:

[U,S,V] = svds(X, 100)

• Much more efficient



## **Eigen Decomposition of data**

- Nothing magical about faces or sound can be applied to any data.
  - Eigen analysis is one of the key components of data compression and representation
  - Represent N-dimensional data by the weights of the K leading Eigen vectors
    - Reduces effective dimension of the data from N to K
    - But requires knowledge of Eigen vectors



# What kind of representation?

- What we just saw: Karhunen Loeve Expansion
- What you may be familiar with: *Principal Component Analysis*
- The two are similar, but not the same!!



#### Linear vs. Affine

- The model we saw (KLE)
  - Approximate **every** face f as
    - $f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k$
  - Linear combination of bases
- If you add a constant (PCA)

$$f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k + m$$

- Affine combination of bases



#### **Affine expansion**

• Estimate

$$f = m + w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k$$

- Using the *energy compaction* principle leads to the usual incremental estimation rule
  - m must explain most of the energy
  - Each new basis must explain most of the residual energy



#### **Estimation with the constant**

• Estimate

$$f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k + m$$

- Lets do this incrementally first:
- $f \approx m$ 
  - For every face
  - Find *m* to optimize the approximation



#### **Estimation with the constant**

• Estimate

f ≈ m

- for every f!

- Error over all faces  $E = \sum_{f} ||f m||^2$
- Minimizing the error with respect to *m*, we simply get

$$-m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{f} f$$

• The *mean* of the data



#### **Estimation the remaining**

- Same procedure as before:
  - Remaining "typical faces" must model what the constant m could not
- Subtract the constant from every data point

$$-\hat{f}=f-m$$

• Now apply the model:

$$-\hat{f} = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k$$

 This is just Eigen analysis of the "mean-normalized" data

Also called the "centered" data



#### **Estimating the Affine model**

$$f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + \dots + w_{f,k} V_k + m$$

• First estimate the mean *m* 

$$m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{f} f$$

• Compute the correlation matrix of the "centered" data  $\hat{f} = f - m$ 

$$- \mathbf{C} = \sum_{f} \hat{f} \hat{f}^{T} = \sum_{f} (f - m)(f - m)^{T}$$

- This is the *covariance* matrix of the set of f



#### **Estimating the Affine model**

$$f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k + m$$

• First estimate the mean m

$$m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{f} f$$

• Compute the covariance matrix

$$- C = \sum_{f} (f - m)(f - m)^{T}$$

• Eigen decompose!

#### $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{V} = \Lambda\mathbf{V}$

 The Eigen vectors corresponding to the top k Eigen values give us the bases V<sub>k</sub>



#### Linear vs. Affine

- The model we saw
  - Approximate **every** face f as
    - $f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k$
  - The Karhunen Loeve Expansion
  - Retains maximum *Energy* for any order k
- If you add a constant

$$f = w_{f,1} V_1 + w_{f,2} V_2 + ... + w_{f,k} V_k + m$$

- Principal Component Analysis
- Retains maximum Variance for any order k



## How do they relate

Relationship between correlation matrix and covariance matrix

 $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{C} + mm^{\mathrm{T}}$ 

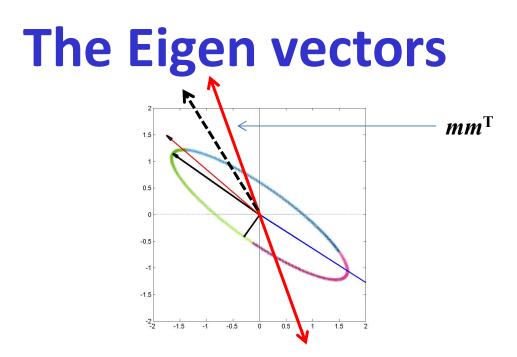
- *Karhunen Loeve* bases are Eigen vectors of **R**
- PCA bases are Eigen vectors of C
- How do they relate
  - Not easy to say..



#### 

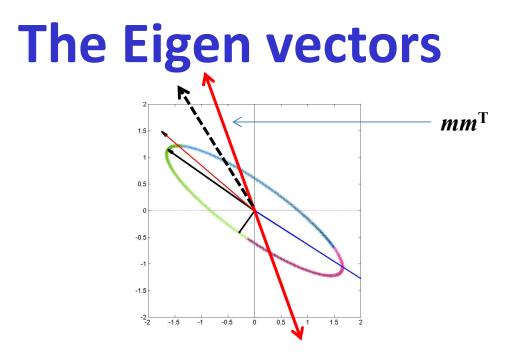
 The Eigen vectors of *C* are the major axes of the ellipsoid *Cv*, where *v* are the vectors on the unit sphere





- The Eigen vectors of *R* are the major axes of the ellipsoid *Cv* + *mm<sup>T</sup>v*
- Note that *mm<sup>T</sup>* has rank 1 and *mm<sup>T</sup>v* is a line





• The principal Eigenvector of **R** lies between the principal Eigen vector of **C** and **m**  $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ 

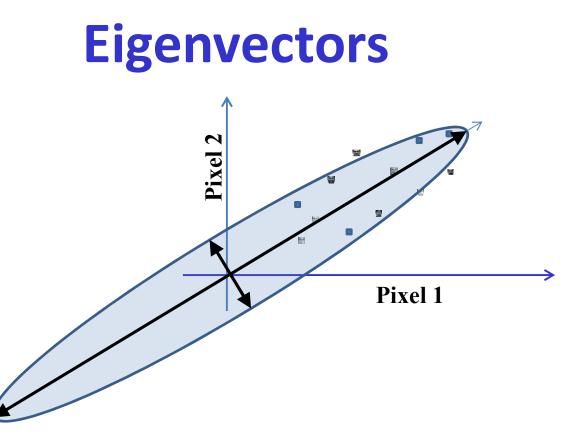
$$\mathbf{e}_{R} = \alpha \mathbf{e}_{C} + (1 - \alpha) \frac{\mathbf{m}}{\|\mathbf{m}\|}$$

• Similarly the principal Eigen *value* 

$$\lambda_R = \alpha \lambda_C + (1 - \alpha) \|\mathbf{m}\|^2$$

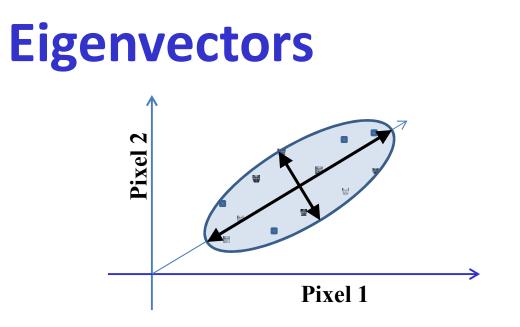
• Similar logic is not easily extendable to the other Eigenvectors, however





- Turns out: Eigenvectors of the *correlation* matrix represent the major and minor axes of an ellipse centered at the origin which encloses the data most compactly
- The SVD of data matrix X uncovers these vectors
  - KLT



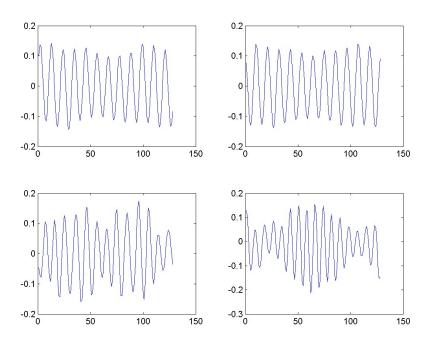


- Turns out: Eigenvectors of the *covariance* represent the major and minor axes of an ellipse centered at the *mean* which encloses the data most compactly
- PCA uncovers these vectors
- In practice, "Eigen faces" refers to PCA faces, and not KLT faces



#### What about sound?

- Finding Eigen bases for speech signals:
- Look like DFT/DCT
- Or wavelets



• DFTs are pretty good most of the time



#### **Eigen Analysis**

- Can often find surprising features in your data
- Trends, relationships, more
- Commonly used in recommender systems
- An interesting example..



#### **Eigen Analysis**



Figure 1. Experiment setup @Wean Hall mechanical space. Pipe with arrow indicates a 10" diameter hot water pipe carrying pressurized hot water flow, on which piezoelectric sensors are installed every 10 ft. A National instruments data acquisition system is used to acquire and store the data for later processing.

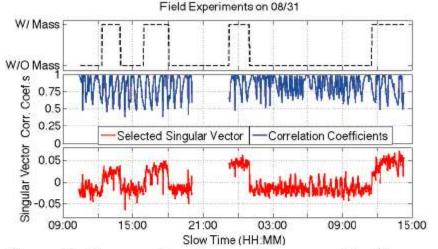


Figure 2. Damage detection results compared with conventional methods. Top: Ground truth of whether the pipe is damaged or not. Middle: Conventional method only captures temperature variations, and shows no indication of the presence of damage. Bottom: The SVD method clearly picks up the steps where damage are introduced and removed.

- Cheng Liu's research on pipes..
- SVD automatically separates useful and uninformative features