

CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining

Sparse Matrix Factorization
Summer 2021

Admin

- Assignment 5 is **due 11:55pm today**
- Assignment 6 will be released today

- **Final exam is Wednesday, June 23**
 - 24-hour take-home exam (NOT timed!)
 - Prep materials will go up Wednesday, June 16

Assignment 7

- Assignment 7 will be released next Friday-ish
 - Optional, but “due” Wednesday, June 30
 - Outside final exam coverage
 - Covers things previously not covered in assignments
 - E.g. automatic differentiation and backpropagation
- Graded on completeness not correctness
 - If you submit A7, I will
replace your lowest assignment grade with A7 grade
- Office hours will be upon request for A7

In This Lecture

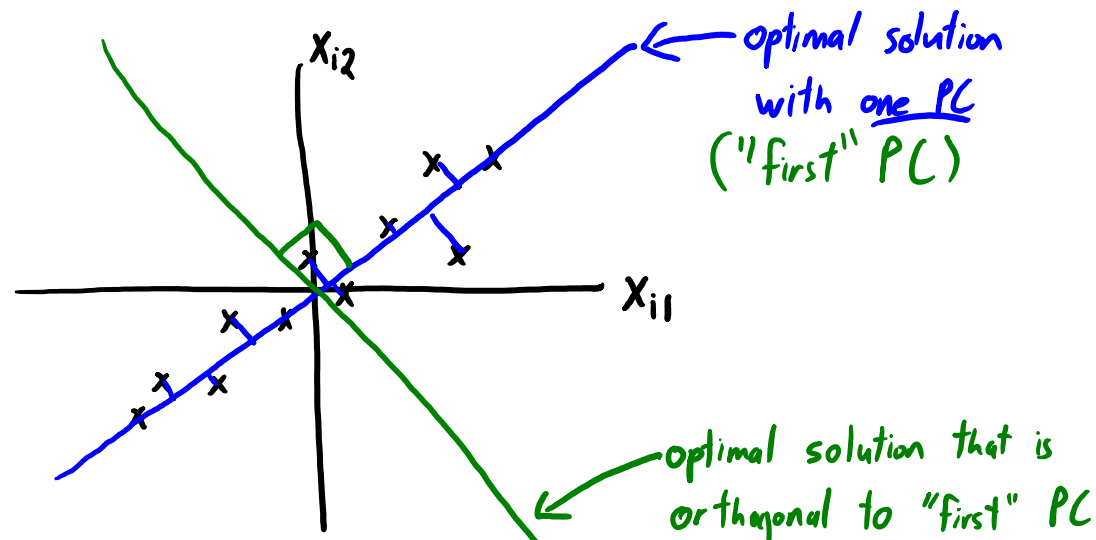
1. Non-Negative Matrix Factorization
 - Projected gradient method
2. Other Matrix Factorization Methods

Last Time: PCA with Orthogonal/Sequential Basis

- When $k = 1$, PCA has a **scaling problem**.
- When $k > 1$, have **scaling, rotation, and label switching**.
 - Standard fix: use **normalized orthogonal rows** W_c of 'W'.

$$\|w_c\| = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad w_c^T w_{c'} = 0 \quad \text{for } c' \neq c$$

- And **fit the rows in order**:
 - First row “explains the most variance” or “reduces error the most”.



Last Time: SVD and Other Methods

- **SVD**: linear-algebraic solution to get $X = ZW$
 - Enforces normalization and orthogonality
- **Alternating minimization**: use gradients!
 - Optimize $f(W,Z)$ with respect to W
 - Then optimize $f(W,Z)$ with respect to Z
 - Repeat until happy

$$\nabla_W f(W,Z) = Z^T Z W - Z^T X \quad \text{so} \quad W = (Z^T Z)^{-1} (Z^T X)$$

(writing gradient as a matrix)

$$\nabla_Z f(W,Z) = Z W W^T - X W^T \quad \text{so} \quad Z = X W^T (W W^T)^{-1}$$

These are usually invertible since $k \ll n$ and $k \ll d$

Coming Up Next

MORE EIGENFACES

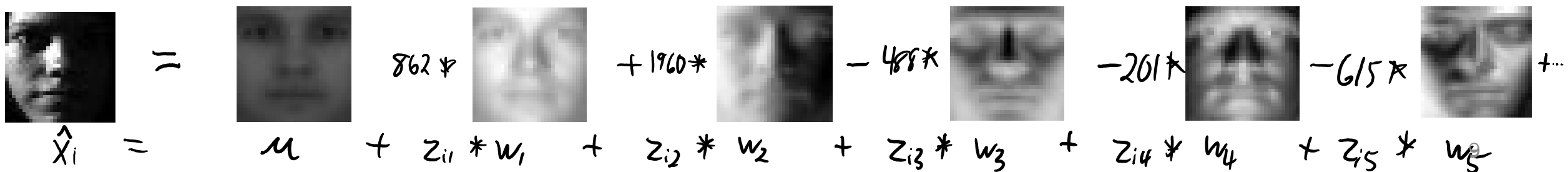
VQ vs. PCA vs. NMF

- How should we represent faces?
 - **Vector quantization** (k-means).
 - Replace face by a _____.
 - **Can't distinguish between people** in the same cluster (only 'k' possible faces).
 - Almost certainly not true: too few canonical faces.

$$\hat{X}_i = z_{i1} * w_1 + z_{i2} * w_2 + z_{i3} * w_3 + z_{i4} * w_4 + z_{i5} * w_5 + z_{i6} * w_6 + \dots$$

VQ vs. PCA vs. NMF

- How should we represent faces?
 - Vector quantization (k-means).
 - PCA (orthogonal basis).
 - Global average plus _____ of “eigenfaces”.
 - But “eigenfaces” are **not intuitive** ingredients for faces.
 - PCA tends to use positive/negative **cancelling** bases.


$$\hat{x}_i = \mu + z_{i1} * w_1 + z_{i2} * w_2 + z_{i3} * w_3 + z_{i4} * w_4 + z_{i5} * w_5 + \dots$$

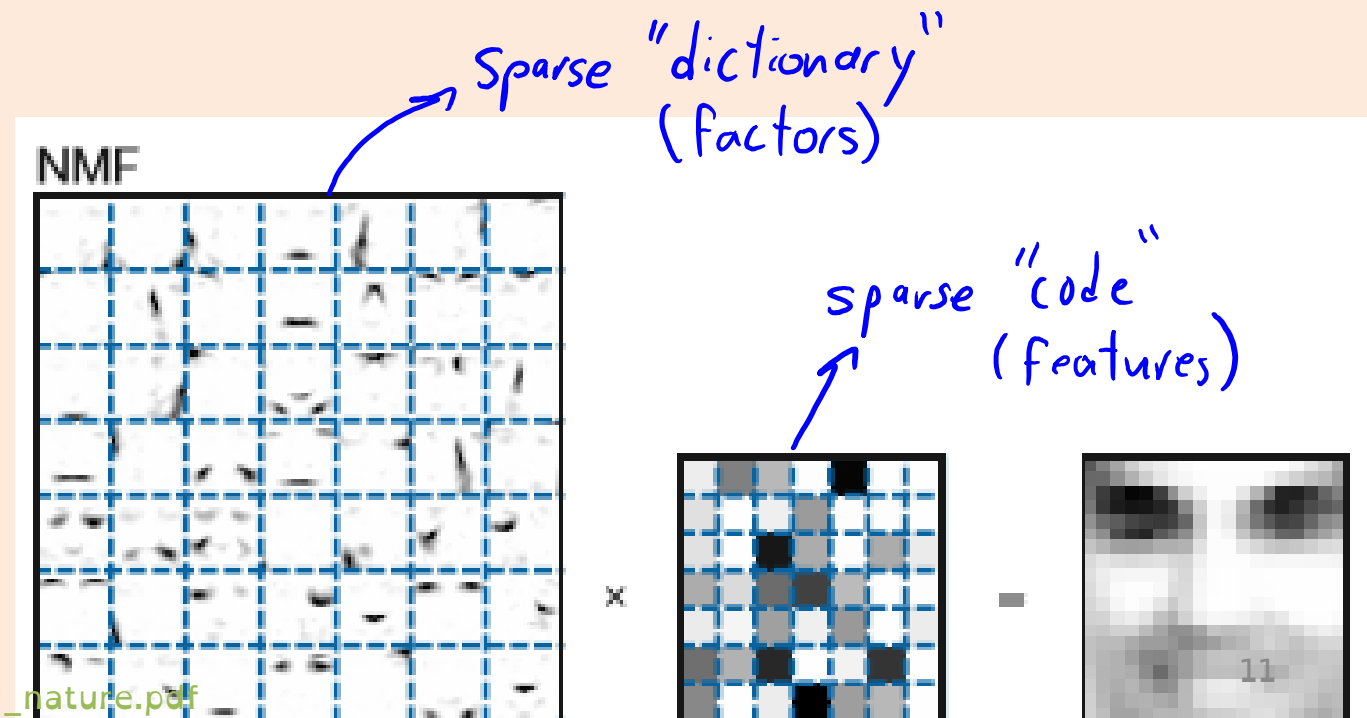
VQ vs. PCA vs. NMF

- How should we represent faces?
 - Vector quantization (k-means).
 - PCA (orthogonal basis).
 - NMF (non-negative matrix factorization):
 - Instead of orthogonality/ordering in W , require W and Z to be non-negative.
 - Example of “sparse coding”:
 - The z_i are sparse so each face is coded by a small number of eigenfaces.
 - The w_c are sparse so eigenfaces tend to be “parts” of the face.

$$\hat{X}_i = 4.2 * w_1 + 0 * w_2 + 0 * w_3 + 3.3 * w_4 + 0 * w_5 + \dots$$

Why sparse coding?

- "Parts" are intuitive, and brains seem to use sparse representation.
- Energy efficiency if using sparse code.
- Increase number of concepts you can memorize
 - Some evidence in fruit fly olfactory system.



Coming Up Next

NON-NEGATIVE MATRIX FACTORIZATION

Warm-up to NMF: Non-Negative Least Squares

- Consider our usual **least squares** problem:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

- But assume **y_i and elements of x_i are non-negative**:
 - Could be sizes ('height', 'milk', 'km') or counts ('vicodin', 'likes', 'retweets').

Q: Does it make sense to have any $w_j < 0$?

Warm-up to NMF: Non-Negative Least Squares

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2$$

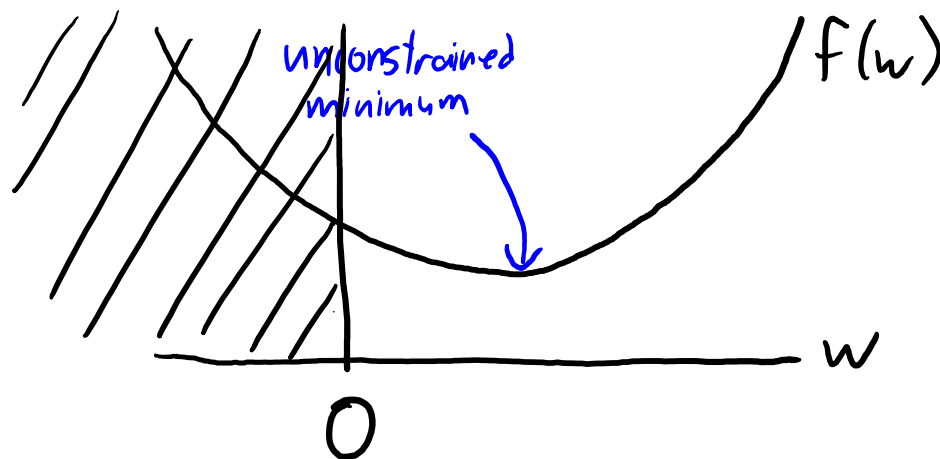
- Allow $w_j \in (-\infty, +\infty)$ → some weights are negative
to cancel out _____ weights
- Idea: constrain $w_j \in [0, +\infty)$ → **sparsity** and **regularization**

Sparsity and Non-Negative Least Squares

- Consider 1D non-negative least squares objective:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w x_i - y_i)^2 \quad \text{with } w \geq 0$$

- Plotting the (constrained) objective function:



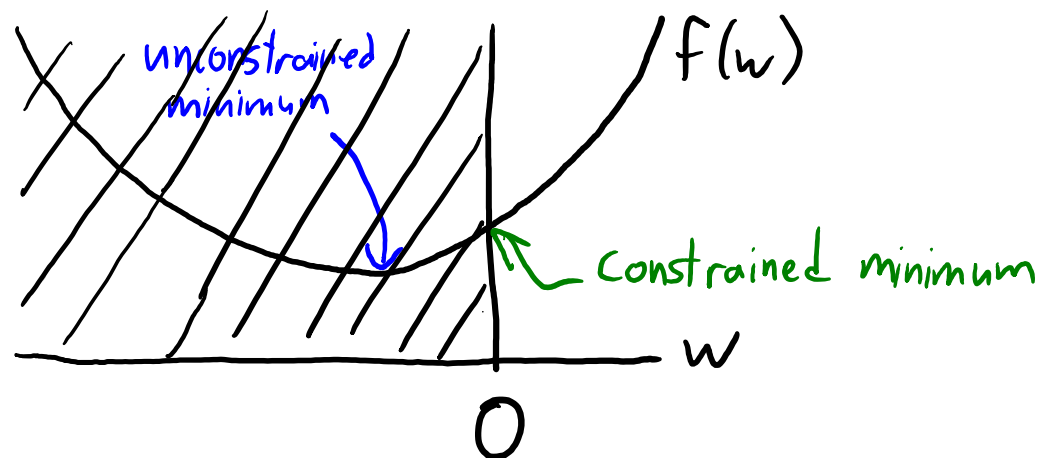
- In this case, non-negative solution is least squares solution.

Sparsity and Non-Negative Least Squares

- Consider 1D non-negative least squares objective:

$$f(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (w x_i - y_i)^2 \quad \text{with } w \geq 0$$

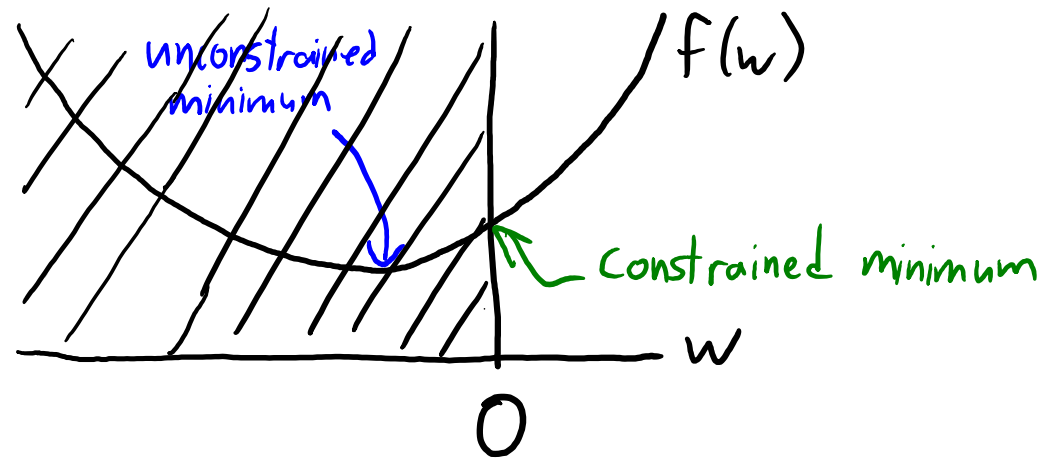
- Plotting the (constrained) objective function:



- In this case, **non-negative solution is $w = 0$.**

Sparsity and Non-Negativity

- Similar to L1-regularization, **non-negativity leads to sparsity**.
 - Also **regularizes**: w_j are smaller since can't "cancel" negative values.
 - Sparsity leads to **cheaper predictions** and often to more interpretability.
 - Non-negative weights are often also **more interpretable**.



Sparsity and Non-Negativity

- How can we minimize $f(w)$ with **non-negative constraints**?
 - **Naive approach**: solve least squares problem, set negative w_j to 0.

$$\text{Compute } w = (X^T X)^{-1} (X^T y)$$

$$\text{Set } w_j = \max\{0, w_j\}$$

- This is correct when $d = 1$.
- **Can be worse than setting $w = 0$** when $d \geq 2$.

Coming Up Next

PROJECTED GRADIENT

Projected Gradient

- Use **projected gradient** algorithm:

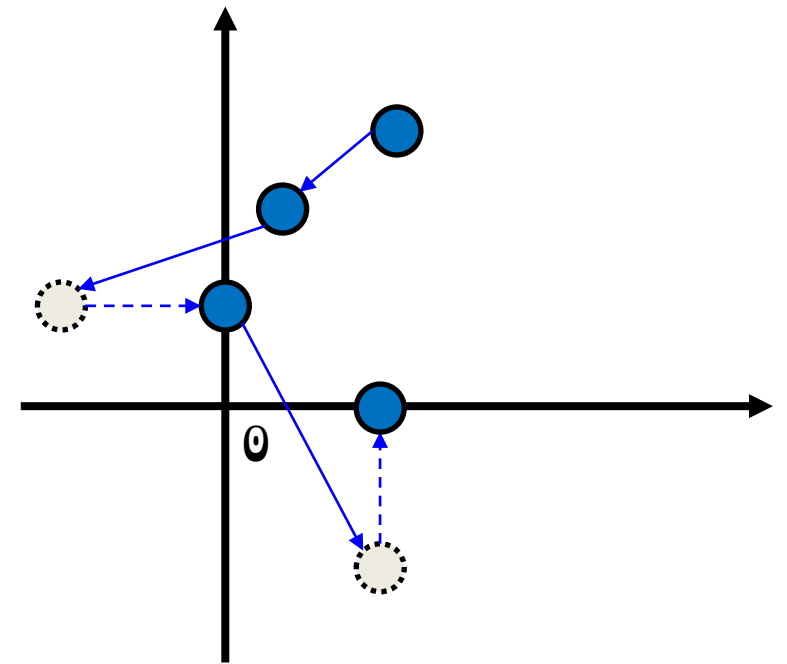
- Run a **gradient descent** iteration:

$$w^{t+1/2} = w^t - \alpha^t \nabla f(w^t)$$

- After each step, set negative values to 0.

$$w_j^{t+1} = \max\{0, w_j^{t+1/2}\}$$

- Repeat.



Parameter space

Projected Gradient

- Projected gradient algorithm:

$$w^{t+1/2} = w^t - \alpha^t \nabla f(w^t) \quad w_j^{t+1} = \max\{0, w_j^{t+1/2}\}$$

- Similar properties to gradient descent:

- Guarantees decrease if step size α^t is small enough.
- Reaches local minimum under weak assumptions (global minimum for convex 'f').
 - Least squares objective is still convex when restricted to non-negative variables.
- Solution is a “fixed point”: $w^* = \max\{0, w^* - \alpha^t \nabla f(w^*)\}$.
 - Use this to decide when to stop.

- A generalization is “proximal gradient”:

- Instead of constraints, allows non-smooth terms (OptimizerGradientDescentProximalL1).

Projected Gradient for NMF

- Back to the **non-negative matrix factorization (NMF)** objective:

$$f(W, Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d (\langle w_j, z_i \rangle - x_{ij})^2 \quad \text{with } w_{cj} \geq 0 \\ \text{and } z_{ij} \geq 0$$

– Different ways to use **projected gradient**:

- Alternate between projected gradient steps on 'W' and on 'Z'.
- Or run projected gradient on both at once.
- Or sample a random 'i' and 'j' and do **stochastic projected gradient**.

Set $z_i^{t+1} = z_i^t - \alpha^t \nabla_{z_i} f(W, Z)$ and $(w_j)^{t+1} = (w_j)^t - \alpha^t \nabla_{w_j} f(W, Z)$ for selected i and j
(keep other values of W and Z fixed)

Then set negative values to 0.

Projected Gradient for NMF

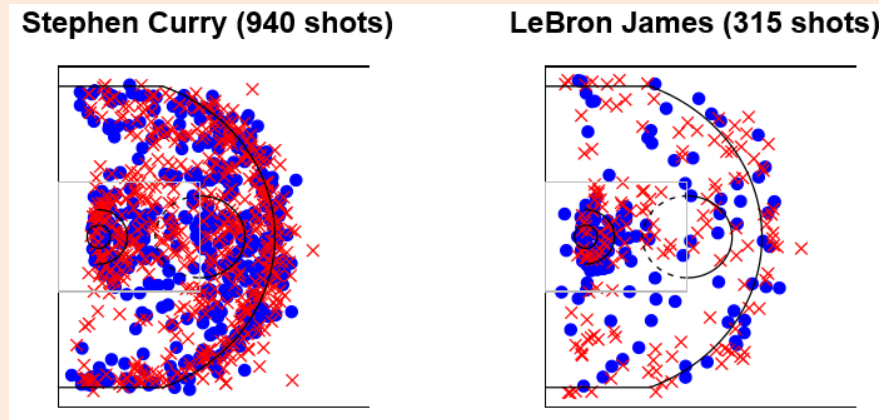
$$f(W, Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d (\langle w_j, z_i \rangle - x_{ij})^2 \quad \text{with } w_{cj} \geq 0 \\ \text{and } z_{ij} \geq 0$$

$$\text{Set } z_i^{t+1} = z_i^t - \alpha^t \nabla_{z_i} f(W, Z) \text{ and } (w_j)^{t+1} = (w_j)^t - \alpha^t \nabla_{w_j} f(W, Z)$$

- **Non-convex**
- **Sensitive to initialization** (unlike PCA)
- Hard to find the global optimum.
 - Typically use **random initialization**.
 - Also, we **usually don't center the data** with NMF.

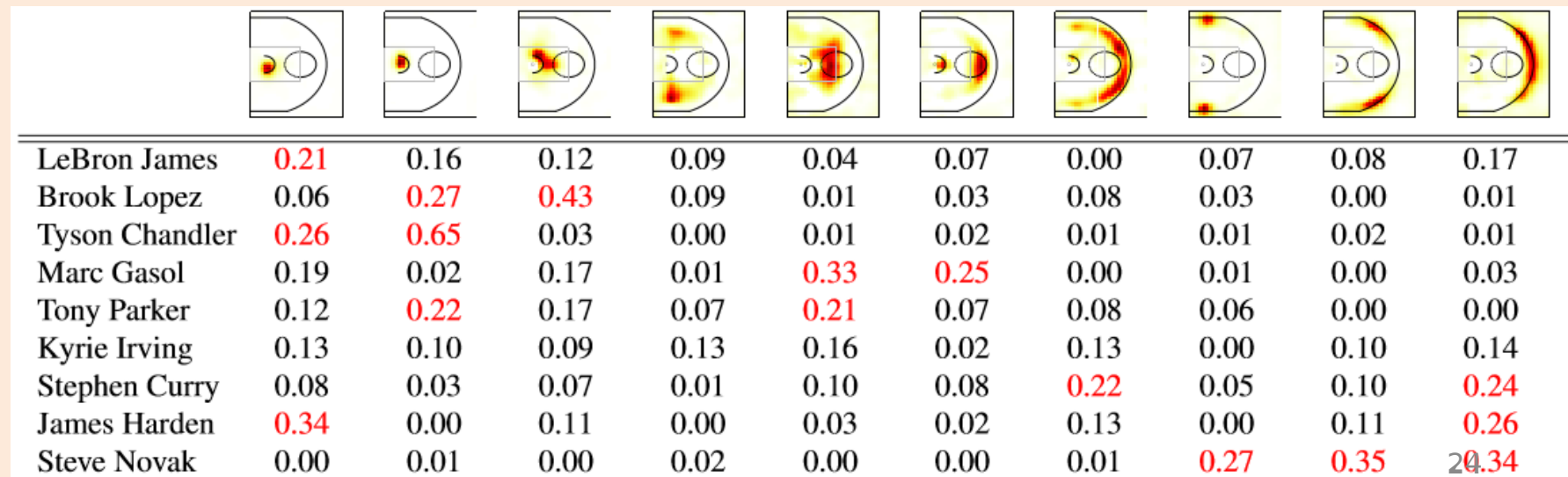
Application: Sports Analytics

- NBA shot charts:



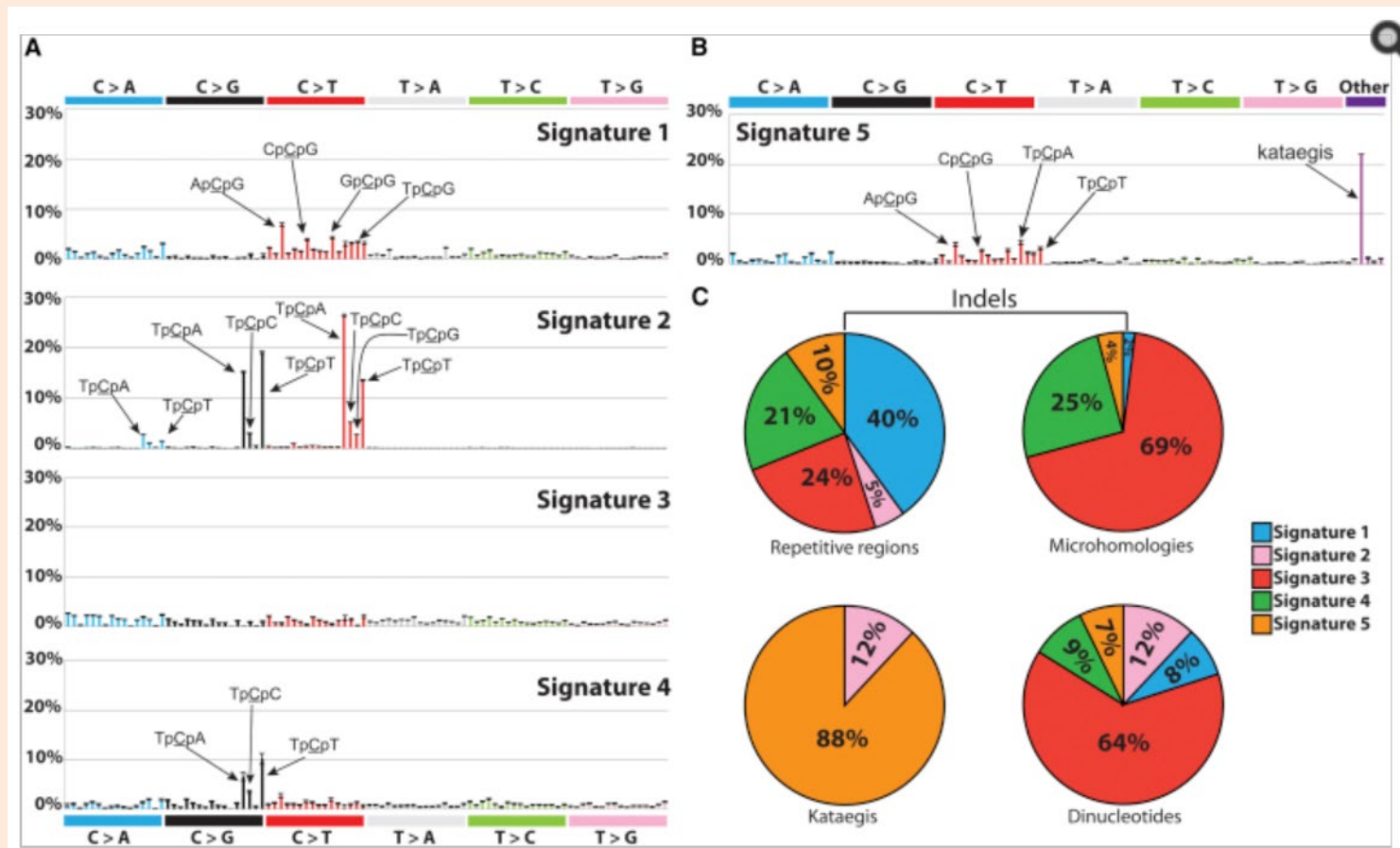
- NMF (using “KL divergence” loss with $k=10$ and smoothed data).

- Negative values would not make sense here.



Application: Cancer “Signatures”

- What are common sets of mutations in different cancers?
 - May lead to new treatment options.



Coming Up Next

OTHER MATRIX FACTORIZATIONS

Beyond Squared Error

- Our objective for **latent-factor models** (LFM):

$$f(W, Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d (\langle w_j^i, z_i \rangle - x_{ij})^2$$

- As before, there are **alternatives to squared error**.

$$f(W, Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d \text{loss}(\langle w_j^i, z_i \rangle, x_{ij})$$

Error for predicting $\langle w_j^i, z_i \rangle$ when true value is x_{ij}

- If X consists of +1 and -1 values, we could use **logistic loss**:

$$f(W, Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d \log(1 + \exp(-x_{ij} \langle w_j^i, z_i \rangle))$$

Robust PCA (A6)

- Robust PCA methods use the absolute error:

$$f(W, Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d | \langle w_j^i, z_i \rangle - x_{ij} |$$

- Will be robust to outliers in the matrix 'X'.
- Encourages "residuals" r_{ij} to be _____.
 - Non-zero r_{ij} are where the "outliers" are.

x_{ij} $(w_j)^T z_i$ r_{ij}

Applying robust PCA
to video frames



Regularized Matrix Factorization

- Consider **L2-regularized PCA**:

$$f(W, Z) = \frac{1}{2} \|ZW - X\|_F^2 + \frac{\lambda_1}{2} \|W\|_F^2 + \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \|Z\|_F^2$$

- **Replaces normalization/orthogonality/sequential-fitting.**
 - Often gives **lower reconstruction error on test data.**
 - But requires **hyper-parameters** λ_1 and λ_2 .
- **Need to regularize both W and Z** because of scaling problem.
 - **If you only regularize 'W' it doesn't do anything. (WHY?)**
 - **Similarly, if you only regularize 'Z' it doesn't do anything.**

Sparse Matrix Factorization

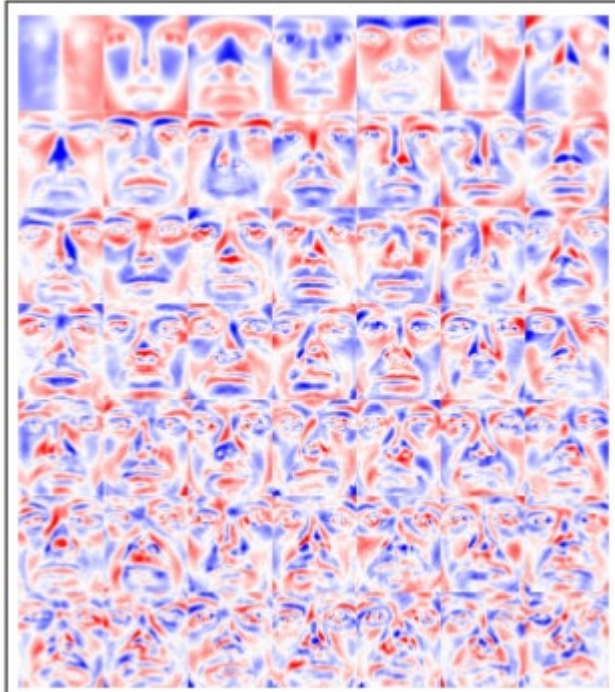
- Instead of non-negativity, we could use L1-regularization:

$$f(W, Z) = \frac{1}{2} \|ZW - X\|_F^2 + \frac{\lambda_1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \|z_i\|_1 + \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \sum_{j=1}^d \|w_j\|_1$$

- Called **sparse coding** (L1 on 'Z') or **sparse dictionary learning** (L1 on 'W').
- **Disadvantage of using L1-regularization** over non-negativity:
 - Sparsity controlled by λ_1 and λ_2 so you need to set these.
- **Advantage of using L1-regularization:**
 - Sparsity controlled by λ_1 and λ_2 , so you can **control amount of sparsity**.
 - Negative coefficients often do make sense. **(WHY?)**

Matrix Factorization with L1-Regularization

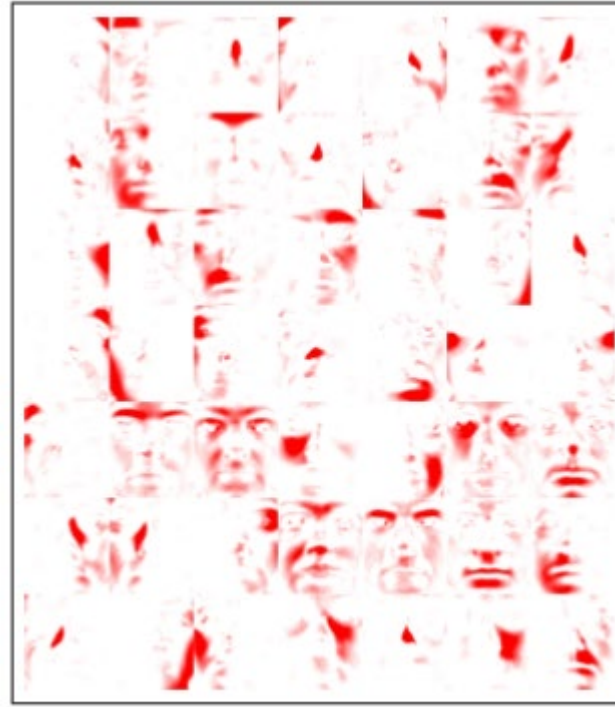
blue: negative
red: positive



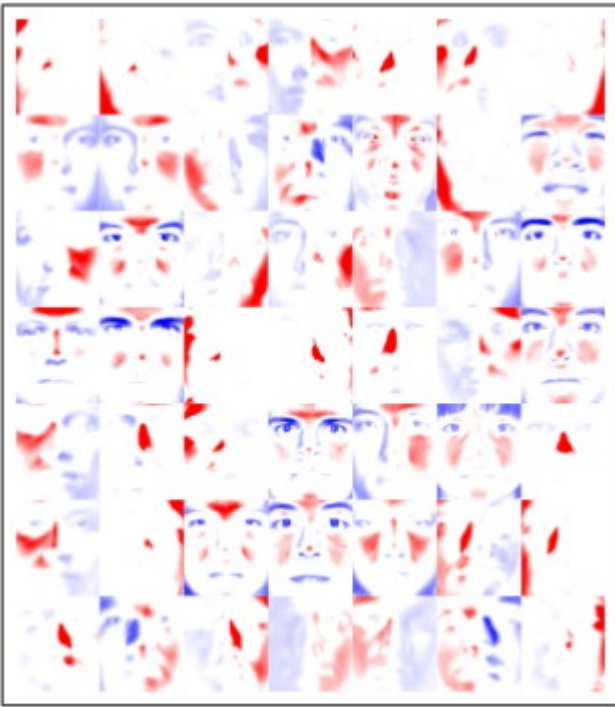
(a) PCA



(e) Dictionary Learning



(c) NMF



(d) SPCA, $\tau = 30\%$

PCA without orthogonality

sparsity due to non-negativity

sparsity due to L_1 -regularization

Sparse Matrix Factorization

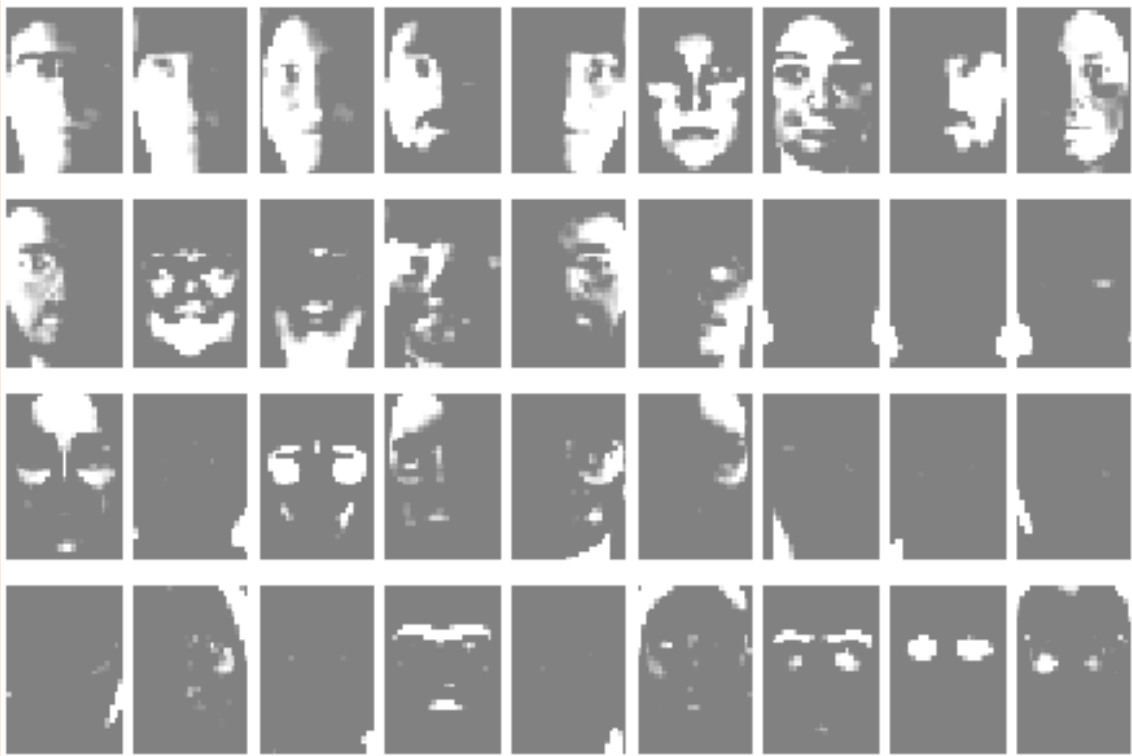
- Instead of non-negativity, we could use L1-regularization:

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- Called **sparse coding** (L1 on 'Z') or **sparse dictionary learning** (L1 on 'W').
- Many variations exist:
 - Mixing L2-regularization and L1-regularization.
 - Or normalizing 'W' (in L2-norm or L1-norm) and regularizing 'Z'.
 - **K-SVD** constrains each z_i to have at most 'k' non-zeroes:
 - K-means is special case where $k = 1$.
 - PCA is special case where $k = d$.

Recent Work: Structured Sparsity

- “Structured sparsity” considers dependencies in sparsity patterns.
 - Can enforce that “parts” are convex regions.



NMF



Sparse PCA with “structured” sparsity ³³

Summary

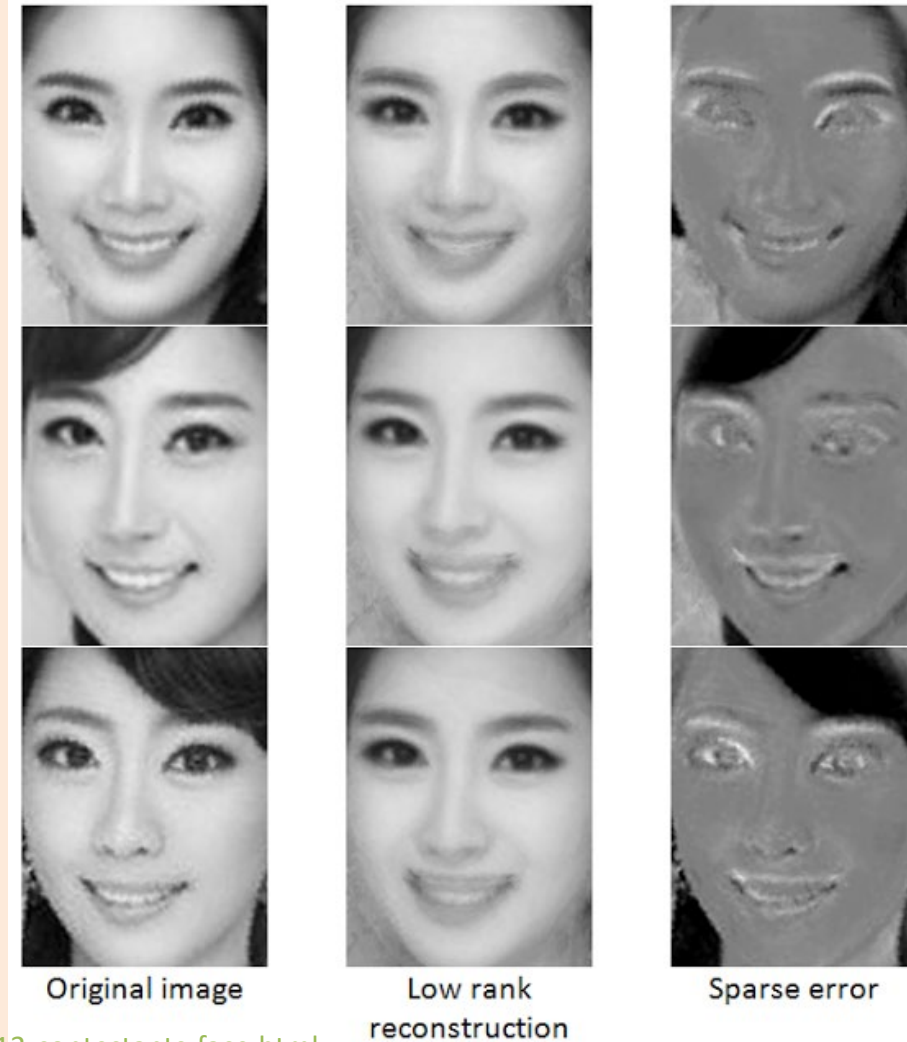
- **Non-negative matrix factorization**: LFM with no negative values.
 - **Non-negativity** constraints lead to sparse solution.
 - **Projected gradient** adds constraints to gradient descent.
- Many of our regression tricks can be used with LFMs:
 - **Robust PCA** uses absolute error to be robust to outliers.
 - **L1-regularization** leads to sparse factors/weights.
- Next time: the million-dollar Netflix challenge.

Review Questions

- Q1: How is k-means clustering an instance of latent factor methods?
- Q2: How do we encourage sparsity and regularization for Z and W without penalty terms?
- Q3: How are PCA with L1-loss and PCA with L1-regularization different?
- Q4: Why is it necessary to regularize for both Z and W for matrix factorization?
- Q5: Why would L1-regularization make negative coefficients more interpretable?

Robust PCA

- Miss Korea contestants and robust PCA:



Proof: "Synthesis" View = "Analysis" View ($WW^T = I$)

- The **variance of the z_{ij}** (maximized in "analysis" view):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{i=1}^n \|z_i - \mu_z\|^2 &= \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{i=1}^n \|W x_i\|^2 \quad (\mu_z = 0 \text{ and } z_i = W x_i \text{ if } \|W_c\|=1 \text{ and } W_c^T W_c = 0) \\ &= \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^T W^T W x_i = \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Tr}(x_i^T W^T W x_i) = \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Tr}(W^T W x_i x_i^T) \\ &= \frac{1}{nk} \text{Tr}(W^T W \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i^T}_{X^T X}) = \frac{1}{nk} \text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X) \end{aligned}$$

linearity of trace (pointing to the sum in the third term)

"cyclic" property of trace (pointing to the transition from the second to the third term)

- The **distance to the hyper-plane** (minimized in "synthesis" view):

$$\begin{aligned} \|ZW - X\|_F^2 &= \|XW^T W - X\|_F^2 = \text{Tr}((XW^T W - X)^T (XW^T W - X)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X W^T W) - 2 \text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X) + \text{Tr}(X^T X) \\ &= \text{Tr}(W^T \underbrace{W W^T}_I W X^T X) - 2 \text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X) + \text{Tr}(X^T X) \\ &= -\text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X) + (\text{constant}) \end{aligned}$$

$\|A\|_F^2 = \text{Tr}(A^T A)$ (pointing to the first term)

$= XW^T$ (pointing to the second term)

Solved by same 'W'

Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA)

- Suppose we have two matrices, 'X' and 'Y'.
- Want to find matrices W_X and W_Y that maximize correlation.
 - “What are the latent factors in common between these datasets?”
- Define the correlation matrices:

$$\Sigma_{XX} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i^T \quad \Sigma_{YY} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i y_i^T \quad \Sigma_{XY} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i^T$$

- Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) maximizes

$$\text{Tr}(W_Y^T W_X \Sigma_{XX}^{-1/2} \Sigma_{XY} \Sigma_{YY}^{-1/2})$$

- Subject to W_X and W_Y having orthogonal rows.
- Computationally, equivalent to **PCA with a different matrix**.
 - Using the “analysis” view that PCA maximizes $\text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X)$.

Kernel PCA

- From the “analysis” view (with orthogonal PCs) PCA maximizes:

$$\text{Tr}(W^T W X^T X)$$

- It can be shown that the solution has the form (see [here](#)):

$$W = U X$$

$k \times d$ $k \times n$ $n \times 1$

- Re-parameterizing in terms of ‘U’ gives a **kernelized PCA**:

$$\text{Tr}(X^T U^T U X X^T X) = \text{Tr}(U^T U \underbrace{X X^T}_K \underbrace{X X^T}_K)$$

- It’s hard to initially center data in ‘Z’ space, but you can **form the centered kernel matrix** (see [here](#)).

Probabilistic PCA

- With zero-mean (“centered”) data, in PCA we assume that

$$x_i \approx W^T z_i$$

- In **probabilistic PCA** we assume that

$$x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(W^T z_i, \sigma^2 I) \quad z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

- Integrating over ‘Z’ the marginal likelihood given ‘W’ is Gaussian,

$$x_i | W \sim \mathcal{N}(0, W^T W + \sigma^2 I)$$

- Regular PCA is obtained as the limit of σ^2 going to 0.

Generalizations of Probabilistic PCA

- Probabilistic PCA model:

$$x_i | W \sim N(0, W^T W + \sigma^2 I)$$

- Why do we need a probabilistic interpretation?
- Shows that **PCA fits a Gaussian with restricted covariance.**
 - Hope is that $W^T W + \sigma^2 I$ is a good approximation of $X^T X$.
- Gives precise connection between PCA and **factor analysis.**

Factor Analysis

- Factor analysis is a method for discovering latent factors.
- Historical applications are measures of intelligence and personality.

Trait	Description
O penness	Being curious, original, intellectual, creative, and open to new ideas.
C onscientiousness	Being organized, systematic, punctual, achievement-oriented, and dependable.
E xtraversion	Being outgoing, talkative, sociable, and enjoying social situations.
A greeableness	Being affable, tolerant, sensitive, trusting, kind, and warm.
N euroticism	Being anxious, irritable, temperamental, and moody.

- A standard tool and widely-used across science and engineering.

PCA vs. Factor Analysis

- PCA and FA both write the matrix 'X' as

$$X \approx ZW$$

- PCA and FA are both based on a Gaussian assumption.
- Are PCA and FA the same?
 - Both are more than 100 years old.
 - People are still arguing about whether they are the same:
 - Doesn't help that some packages run PCA when you call their FA method.

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[PDF] Principal Component Analysis versus Exploratory Factor ...

www2.sas.com/proceedings/sugi30/203-30.pdf

by DD Suhr - Cited by 118 - Related articles

1. Paper 203-30. Principal Component Analysis vs. Exploratory Factor Analysis. Diana D. Suhr, Ph.D. University of Northern Colorado. Abstract. Principal ...

pca - What are the differences between Factor Analysis and ...

stats.stackexchange.com/.../what-are-the-differences-between-factor-anal...

Aug 12, 2010 - Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Common Factor Analysis (CFA) differently one has to interpret the strength of loadings in PCA vs.

What are the differences between principal components ...

support.minitab.com/.../factor-analysis/differences-between-pca-and-facto...

Principal Components Analysis and Factor Analysis are similar because both procedures are used to simplify the structure of a set of variables. However, the ...

[PDF] Principal Components Analysis - UNT

<https://www.unt.edu/rss/class/.../Principal%20Components%20Analysis.p...>

PCA vs. Factor Analysis. • It is easy to make the mistake in assuming that these are the same techniques, though in some ways exploratory factor analysis and ...

Factor analysis versus Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

psych.wisc.edu/henriques/pca.html

Jun 19, 2010 - Factor analysis versus PCA. These techniques are typically used to analyze groups of correlated variables representing one or more common ...

[PDF] Principal Component Analysis and Factor Analysis

www.stats.ox.ac.uk/~ripley/MultAnal_HT2007/PC-FA.pdf

where D is diagonal with non-negative and decreasing values and U and V Factor analysis and PCA are often confused, and indeed SPSS has PCA as.

How can I decide between using principal components ...

https://www.researchgate.net/.../How_can_I_decide_between_using_prin...

Factor analysis (FA) is a group of statistical methods used to understand and simplify patterns ... Retrieved from <http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=10&n=7> ... Principal component analysis (PCA) is a method of factor extraction (the second step ...

[PDF] Exploratory Factor Analysis and Principal Component An...

www.lesahoffman.com/948/948_Lecture2_EFA_PCA.pdf

2 very different schools of thought on exploratory factor analysis (EFA) vs. principal components analysis (PCA): > EFA and PCA are TWO ENTIRELY ...

Factor analysis - Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

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

Jump to **Exploratory factor analysis versus principal components ...** - [edit]. See also: Principal component analysis and Exploratory factor analysis.

[PDF] The Truth about PCA and Factor Analysis

www.stat.cmu.edu/~cshalizi/350/lectures/13/lecture-13.pdf

Sep 28, 2009 - nents and factor analysis, we'll wrap up by looking at their uses and

PCA vs. Factor Analysis

- In probabilistic PCA we assume:

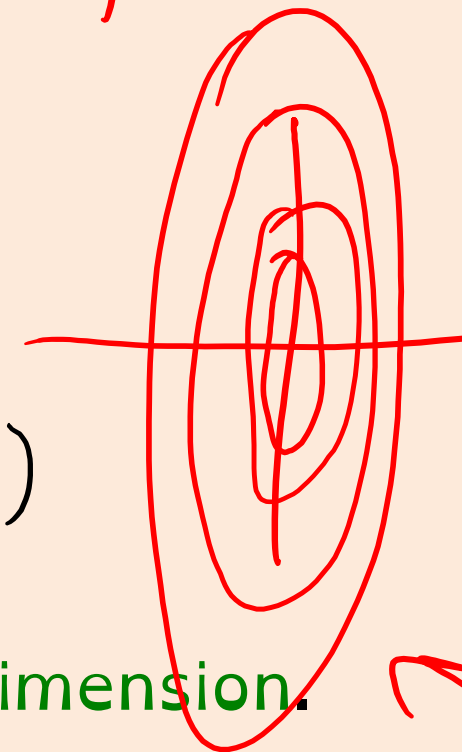
$$x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(W^T z_i, \sigma^2 I)$$

- In FA we assume for a diagonal matrix D that:

$$x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(W^T z_i, D)$$

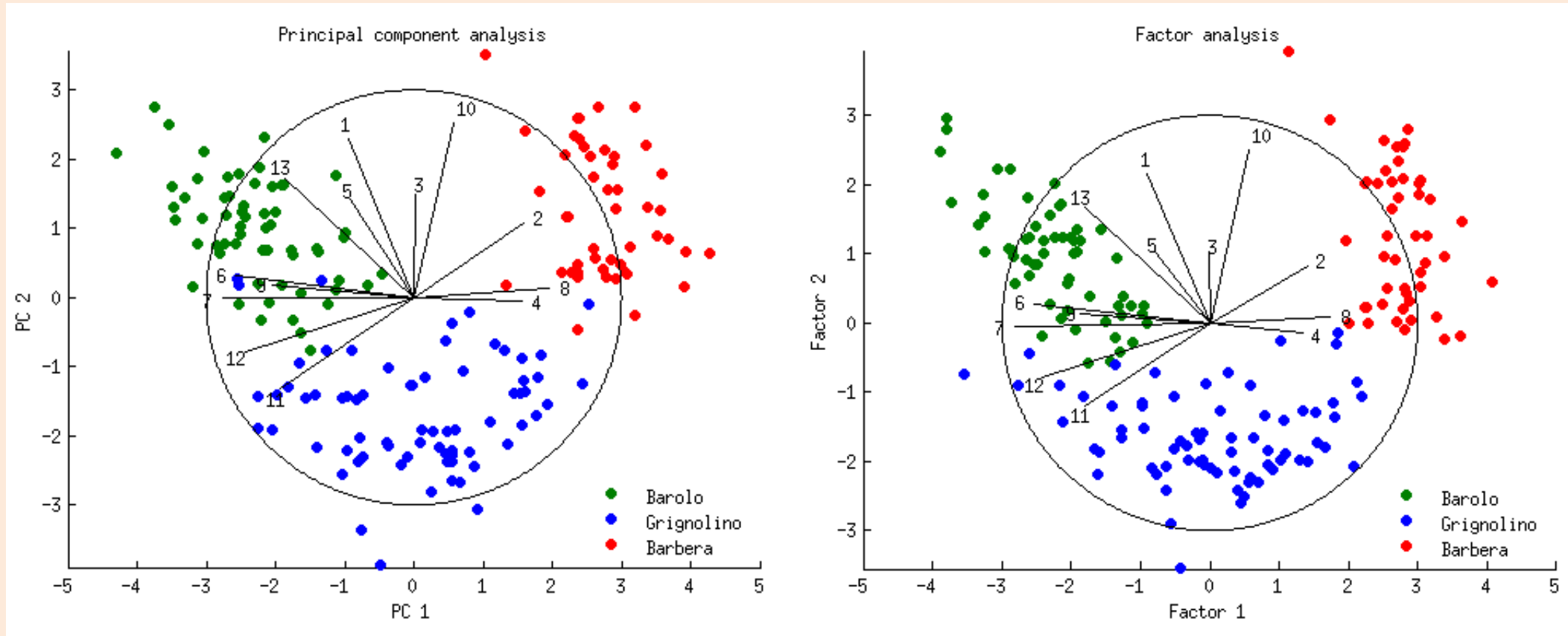
- The posterior in this case is: $x_i | W \sim \mathcal{N}(0, W^T W + D)$

- The difference is you have a **noise variance for each dimension**.
 - FA has extra degrees of freedom.



PCA vs. Factor Analysis

- In practice there often isn't a huge difference:



Factor Analysis Discussion

- Differences with PCA:
 - Unlike PCA, **FA is not affected by scaling** individual features.
 - But unlike PCA, it's **affected by rotation of the data**.
 - No nice "SVD" approach for FA, you can get **different local optima**.
- Similar to PCA, FA is invariant to rotation of 'W'.
 - So as with PCA you **can't interpret multiple factors as being unique**.

Motivation for ICA

- Factor analysis has found an enormous number of applications.
 - People really want to find the “hidden factors” that make up their data.
- But PCA and FA **can't identify the factors.**

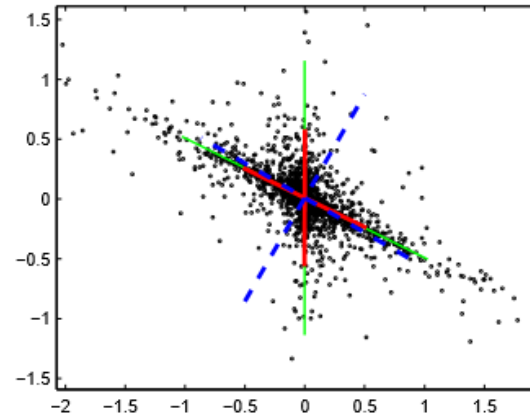


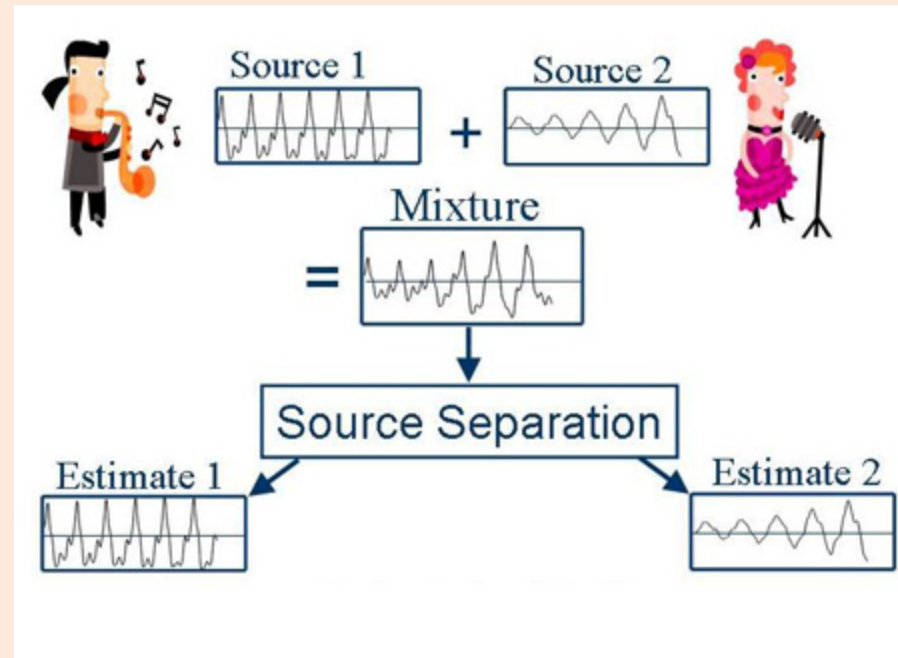
Figure : Latent data is sampled from the prior $p(x_i) \propto \exp(-5\sqrt{|x_i|})$ with the mixing matrix A shown in green to create the observed two dimensional vectors $y = Ax$. The red lines are the mixing matrix estimated by `ica.m` based on the observations. For comparison, PCA produces the blue (dashed) components. Note that the components have been scaled to improve visualisation. As expected, PCA finds the orthogonal directions of maximal variation. ICA however, correctly estimates the directions in which the components were independently generated.

Motivation for ICA

- Factor analysis has found an enormous number of applications.
 - People really want to find the “hidden factors” that make up their data.
- But PCA and FA **can't identify the factors**.
 - We can rotate W and obtain the same model.
- **Independent component analysis (ICA)** is a more recent approach.
 - Around 30 years old instead of > 100 .
 - Under certain assumptions it can **identify factors**.
- The canonical application of ICA is **blind source separation**.

Blind Source Separation

- Input to **blind source separation**:
 - **Multiple microphones** recording **multiple sources**.



- Each microphone gets different mixture of the sources.
 - Goal is reconstruct sources (factors) from the measurements.

Independent Component Analysis Applications

- ICA is replacing PCA and FA in many applications:

Some ICA applications are listed below:^[1]

- optical Imaging of neurons^[17]
- neuronal spike sorting^[18]
- face recognition^[19]
- modeling receptive fields of primary visual neurons^[20]
- predicting stock market prices^[21]
- mobile phone communications ^[22]
- color based detection of the ripeness of tomatoes^[23]
- removing artifacts, such as eye blinks, from EEG data.^[24]

- Recent work shows that ICA can often resolve **direction of causality**.

Limitations of Matrix Factorization

- ICA is a **matrix factorization** method like PCA/FA,

$$X = ZW$$

- Let's assume that $X = ZW$ for a "true" W with $k = d$.
 - Different from PCA where we assume $k \leq d$.
- There are only **3 issues stopping us from finding "true" W .**

3 Sources of Matrix Factorization Non-Uniqueness

- **Label switching:** get same model if we **permute rows** of W .
 - We can exchange row 1 and 2 of W (and same columns of Z).
 - Not a problem because we don't care about order of factors.
- **Scaling:** get same model if you **scale a row**.
 - If we multiply row 1 of W by α , could multiply column 1 of Z by $1/\alpha$.
 - Can't identify sign/scale, but might hope to identify direction.
- **Rotation:** get same model if we **rotate W** .
 - Rotations correspond to orthogonal matrices Q , such matrices have $Q^T Q = I$.
 - If we rotate W with Q , then we have $(QW)^T QW = W^T Q^T QW = W^T W$.
- **If we could address rotation, we could identify the “true” directions.**

A Unique Gaussian Property

- Consider an **independent prior on each latent features z_c** .
 - E.g., in PPCA and FA we use $N(0,1)$ for each z_c .
- If prior $p(z)$ is independent and **rotation-invariant** ($p(Qz) = p(z)$), then it must be Gaussian (only Gaussians have this property).
- The (non-intuitive) magic behind ICA:
 - If the priors are all **non-Gaussian**, it **isn't rotationally symmetric**.
 - In this case, we can **identify factors W** (up to permutations and scalings).

PCA vs. ICA

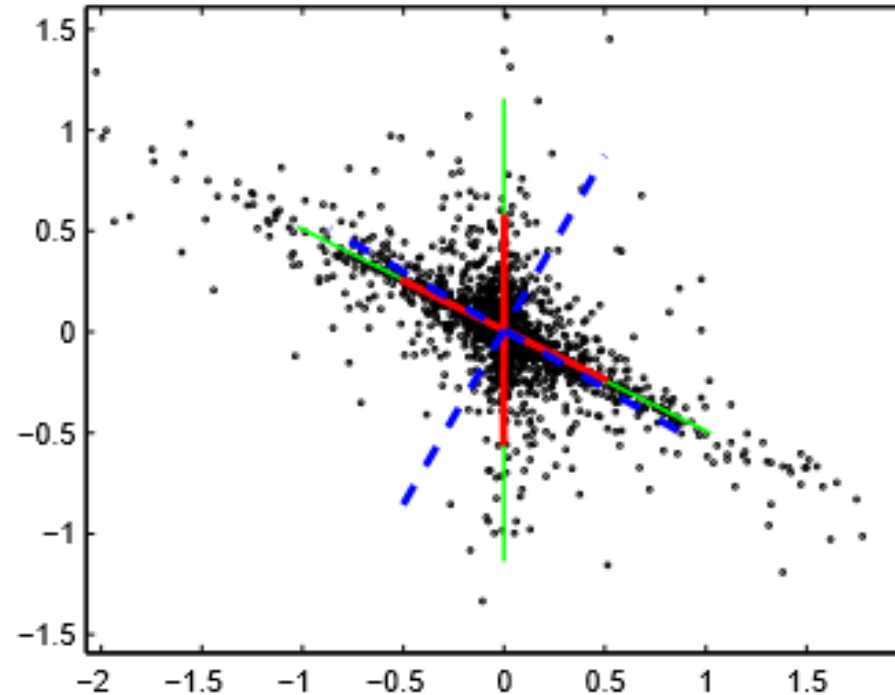


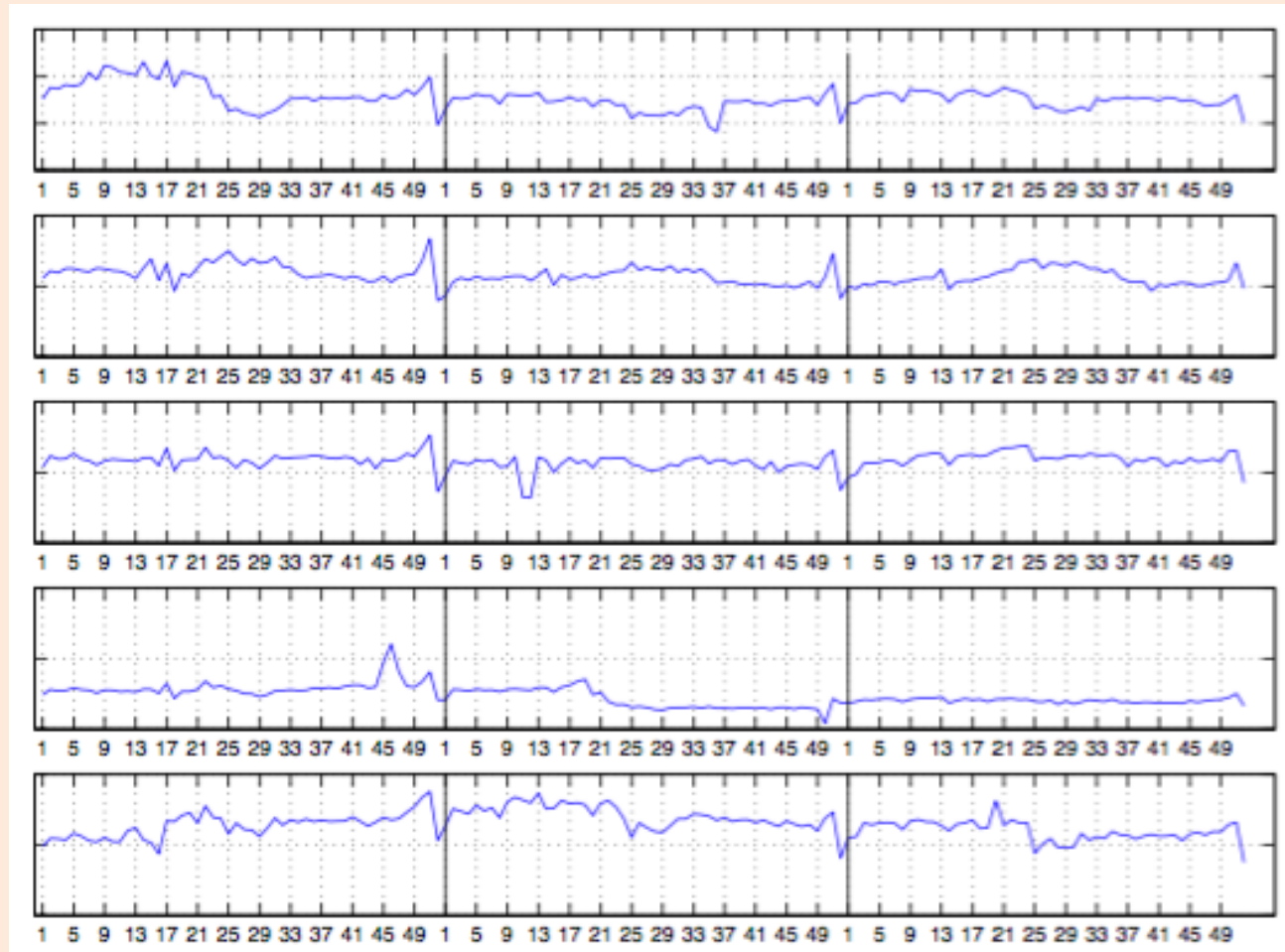
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Independent Component Analysis

- In ICA we approximate X with ZW , assuming $p(z_{ic})$ are **non-Gaussian**.
- Usually we “center” and “whiten” the data before applying ICA.
- There are several penalties that encourage non-Gaussianity:
 - Penalize low **kurtosis**, since kurtosis is minimized by Gaussians.
 - Penalize high **entropy**, since entropy is maximized by Gaussians.
- The **fastICA** is a popular method maximizing kurtosis.

ICA on Retail Purchase Data

- Cash flow from 5 stores over 3 years:



ICA on Retail Purchase Data

- Factors found using ICA:

