

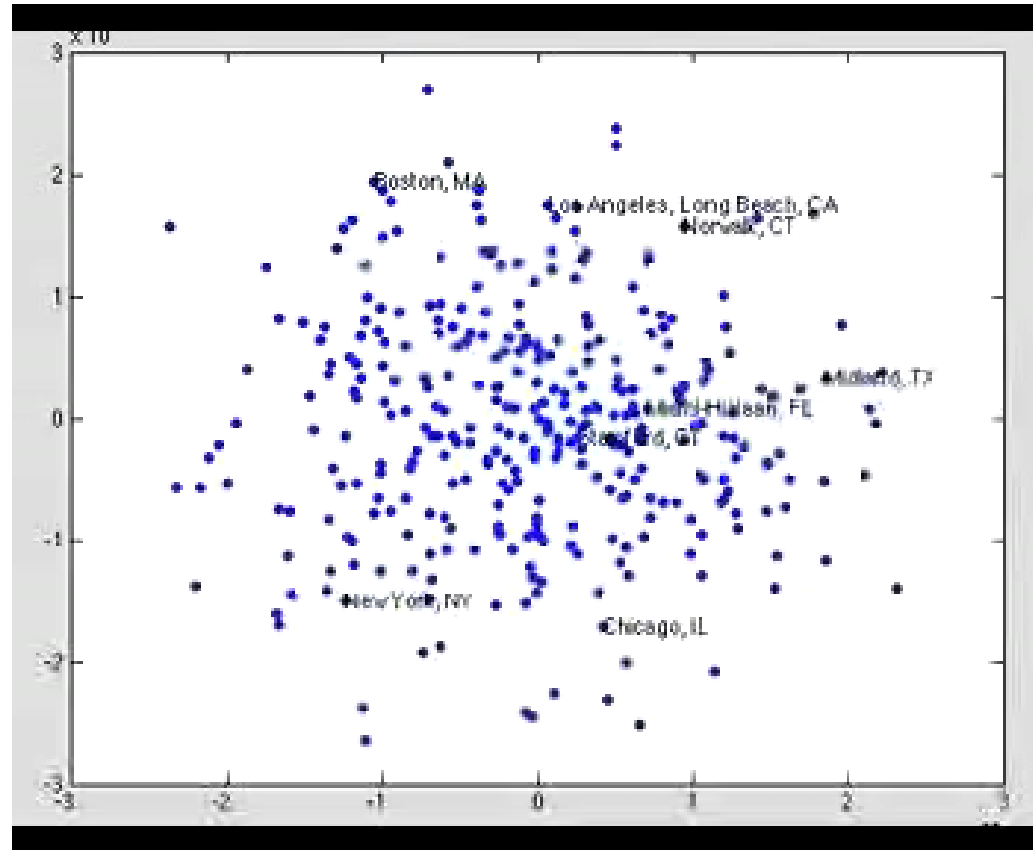
# **CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining**

**Multi-Dimensional Scaling  
Summer 2021**

# Admin

- Assignment 6 out, due Friday 11:55pm
- Today is final exam coverage cut-off
- **Final exam is next Wednesday (June 23)**
  - Prep materials go up soon
- **Course evaluation is open.**
  - Please give me an honest feedback! How did I do?

# Last Time: Multi-Dimensional Scaling



$$f(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n (\underbrace{\|z_i - z_j\|}_{\text{distance in scatterplot}} - \underbrace{\|x_i - x_j\|}_{\text{Distance between points in original 'd' dimensions}})^2$$

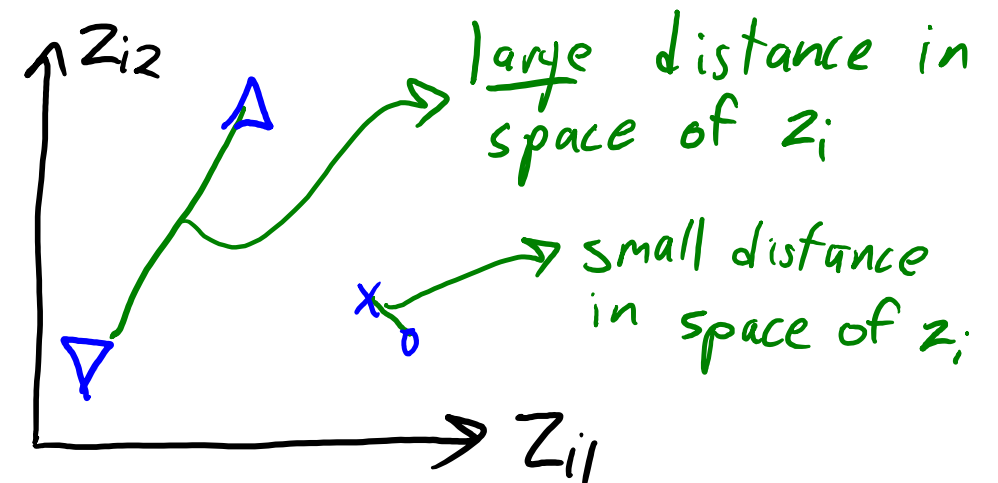
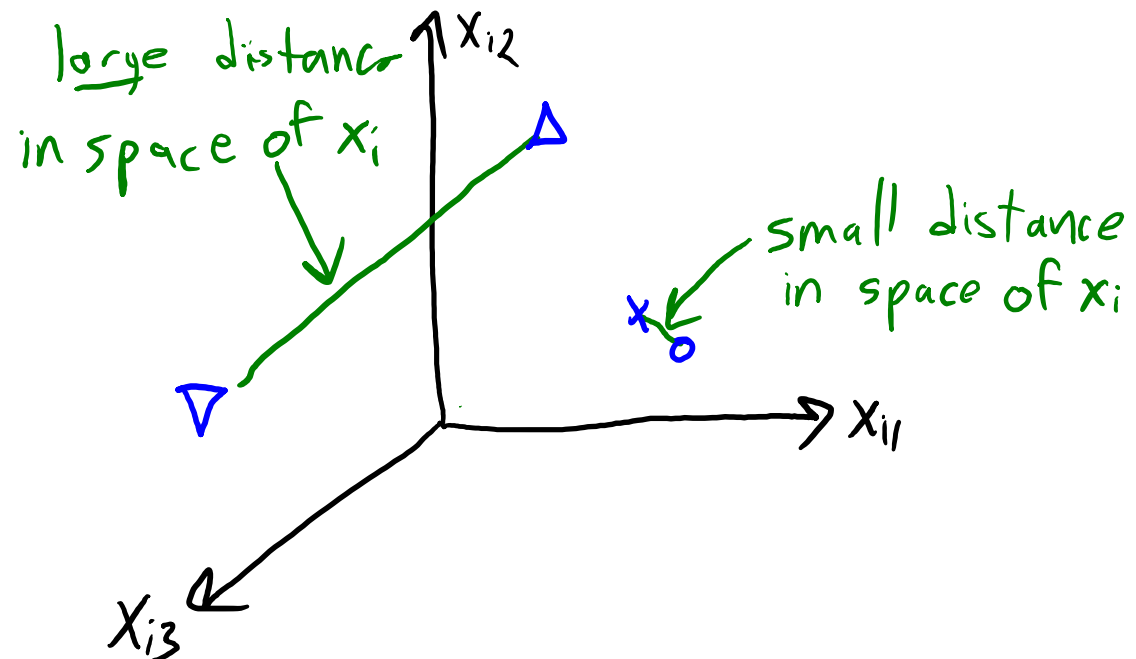
sum over pairs of examples

Try to make scatterplot distances match high-dimensional distance

# Multi-Dimensional Scaling

- Multi-dimensional scaling (MDS):
  - Optimize the final locations of the  $z_i$  values.

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n (\|z_i - z_j\| - \|x_i - x_j\|)^2$$

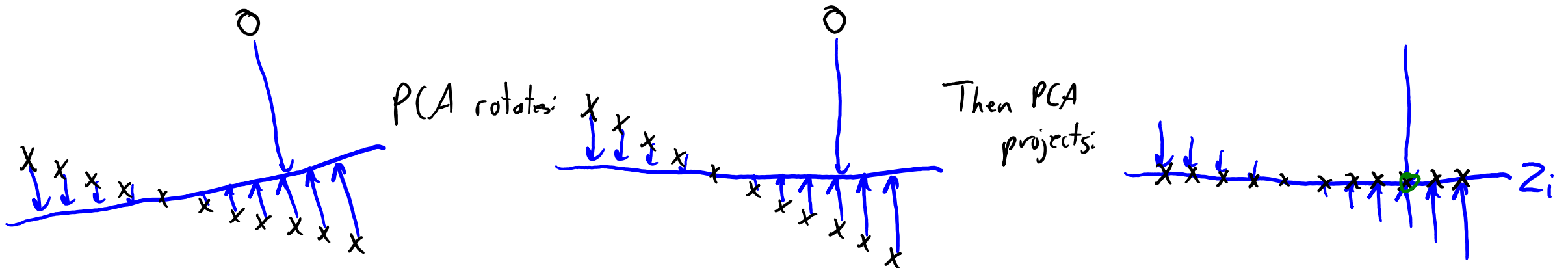


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- Non-parametric dimensionality reduction and visualization:
  - No 'W': just trying to make  $z_i$  preserve high-dimensional distances between  $x_i$ .

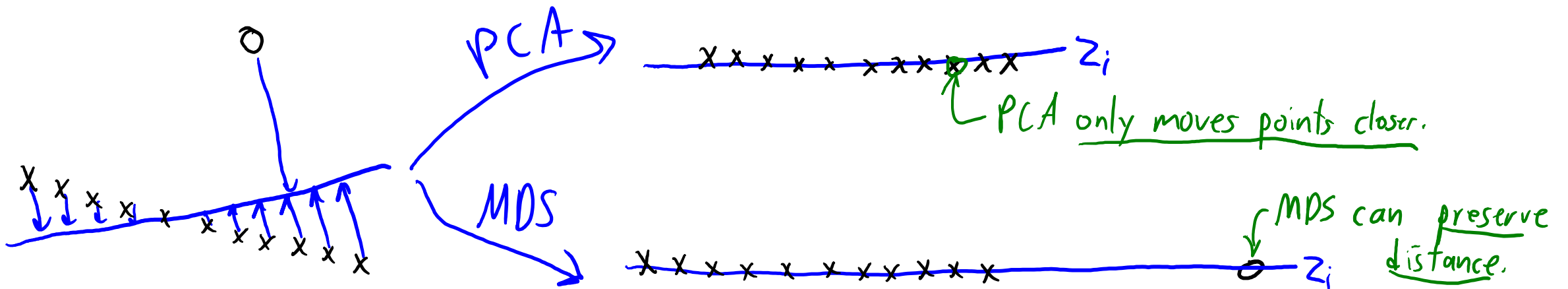


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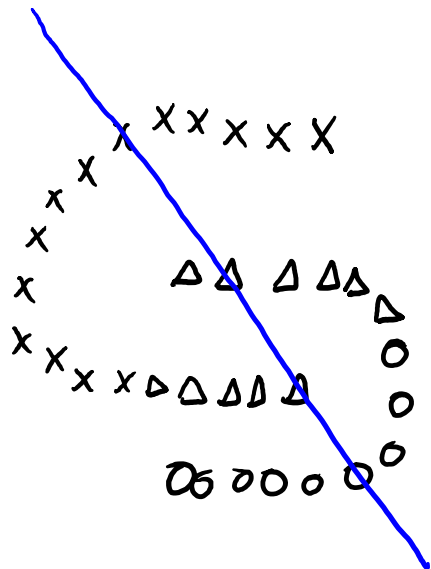


# Multi-Dimensional Scaling

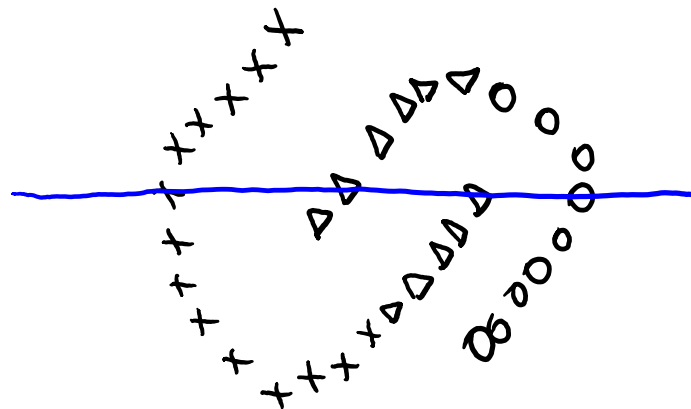
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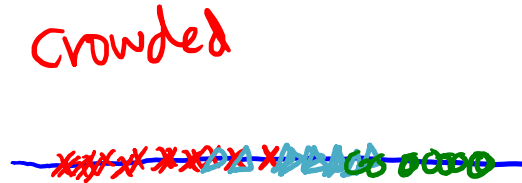
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PCA rotation:



PCA projection:

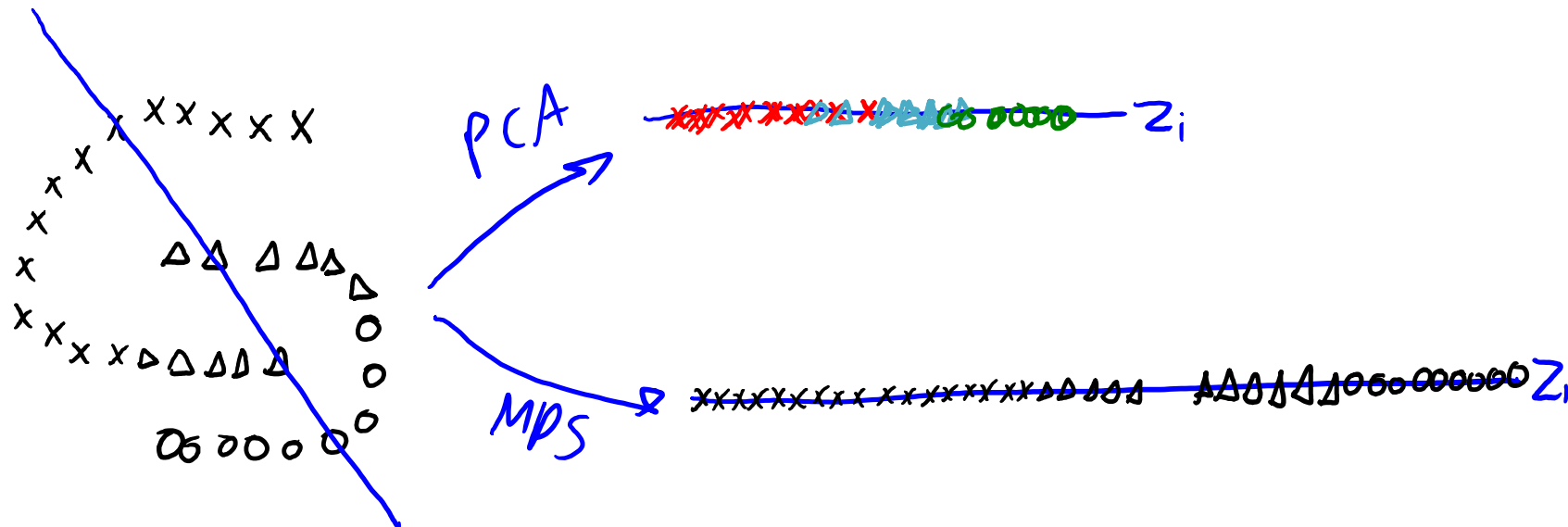


# Multi-Dimensional Scaling

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# Multi-Dimensional Scaling

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$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n (\|z_i - z_j\| - \|x_i - x_j\|)^2$$

- Cannot use SVD to compute solution:
  - Instead, do gradient descent on the  $z_i$  values.
  - You “learn” a scatterplot that tries to visualize high-dimensional data.
  - Not convex and sensitive to initialization.
    - And solution is not unique due to various factors like translation and rotation.

# In This Lecture

## 1. Multi-Dimensional Scaling

- Euclidean MDS
- Sammon Mapping
- Geodesic MDS (ISOMAP)

## 2. Latent Factors for Language (Bonus)

Coming Up Next

# **EUCLIDEAN MDS VARIANTS**

# Different MDS Cost Functions

- **MDS** default objective: squared difference of Euclidean norms:

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n \left( \underbrace{\|z_i - z_j\|}_{d_2} - \underbrace{\|x_i - x_j\|}_{d_1} \right)^2$$

The equation shows the squared difference of Euclidean norms. Red handwritten annotations label the terms:  $d_2$  is under  $\|z_i - z_j\|$ ,  $d_1$  is under  $\|x_i - x_j\|$ , and  $d_3$  is a bracket over the entire difference term.

Q: How many distance functions are involved here?

Q: Can we generalize this to other measures of distance?

# Different MDS Cost Functions

- **MDS** default objective function with **general distances/similarities**:

$$f(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n d_3(d_2(z_i, z_j) - d_1(x_i, x_j))$$

– Functions are **not necessarily the same**:

- $d_1$  := high-dimensional distance we want to match.

$$d_1 : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- $d_2$  := low-dimensional distance we can control.

$$d_2 : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- $d_3$  := how we compare high-/low-dimensional distances.

$$d_3 : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

# Different MDS Cost Functions

- **MDS** default objective function with **general distances/similarities**:

$$f(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n d_3(d_2(z_i, z_j) - d_1(x_i, x_j))$$

- **“Classic” MDS:**

- $d_1(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$ ,  $d_2(z_i, z_j) = z_i^T z_j$ ,  $d_3(a, b) = (a - b)^2$
- This is a factorless version of PCA.
- Not a great choice because it's linear model.

# Different MDS Cost Functions

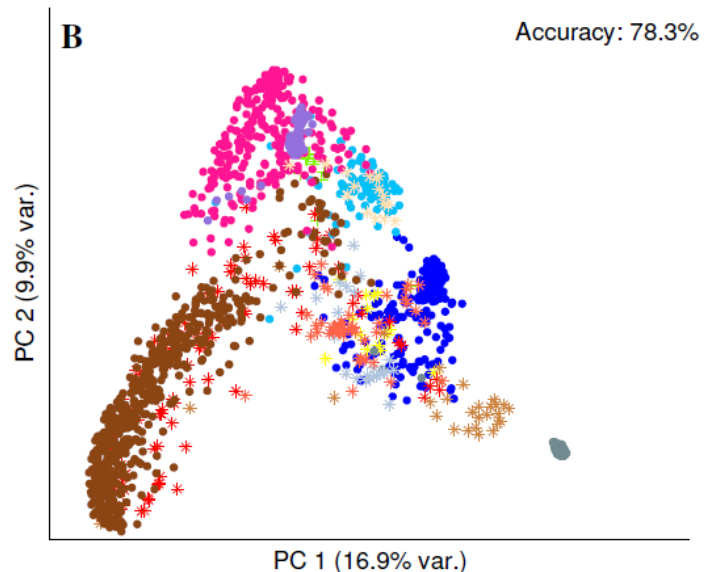
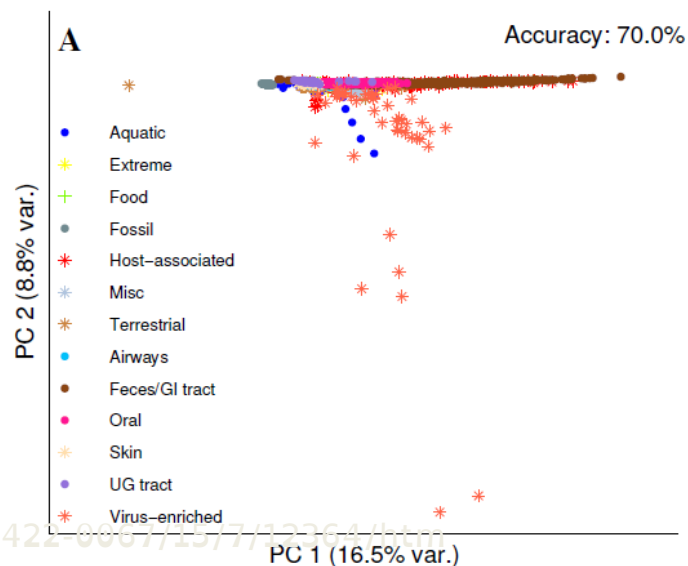
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$$f(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n d_3(d_2(z_i, z_j) - d_1(x_i, x_j))$$

$d_3$ : L2-norm.

$d_1$  is large  $\rightarrow$   $d_3$  is large  
 $\Rightarrow$  reduce  $d_3$  by  
 increasing  $d_2$ .

- Another possibility:  $d_1(x_i, x_j) = \|x_i - x_j\|_1$  and  $d_2(z_i, z_j) = \|z_i - z_j\|$ .  
 –  $z_i$  approximates high-dimensional  $L_1$ -norm distances.



# Sammon's Mapping

- Challenge for most MDS models: they **focus on large distances**.
  - Leads to “crowding” effect like with PCA.
- Early attempt to address this is **Sammon's mapping**:
  - **Weighted MDS** so large/small distances are more comparable.

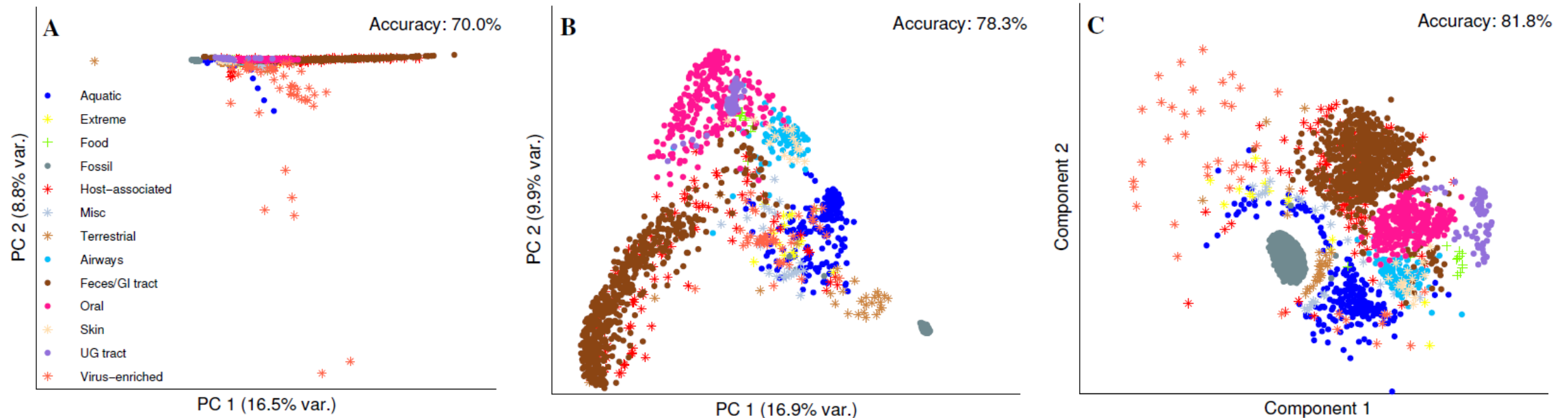
$$f(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n \left( \frac{d_2(z_i, z_j) - d_1(x_i, x_j)}{d_1(x_i, x_j)} \right)^2$$

- Denominator **reduces focus on large distances**.



# Sammon's Mapping

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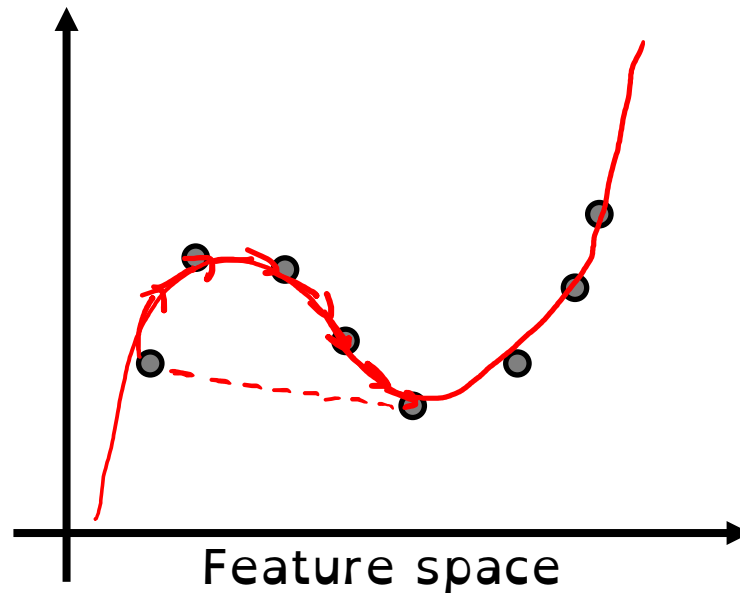


Coming Up Next

# **MANIFOLDS**

# “Manifold”

- “Manifold” := non-Euclidean subspace of feature space where datapoints live

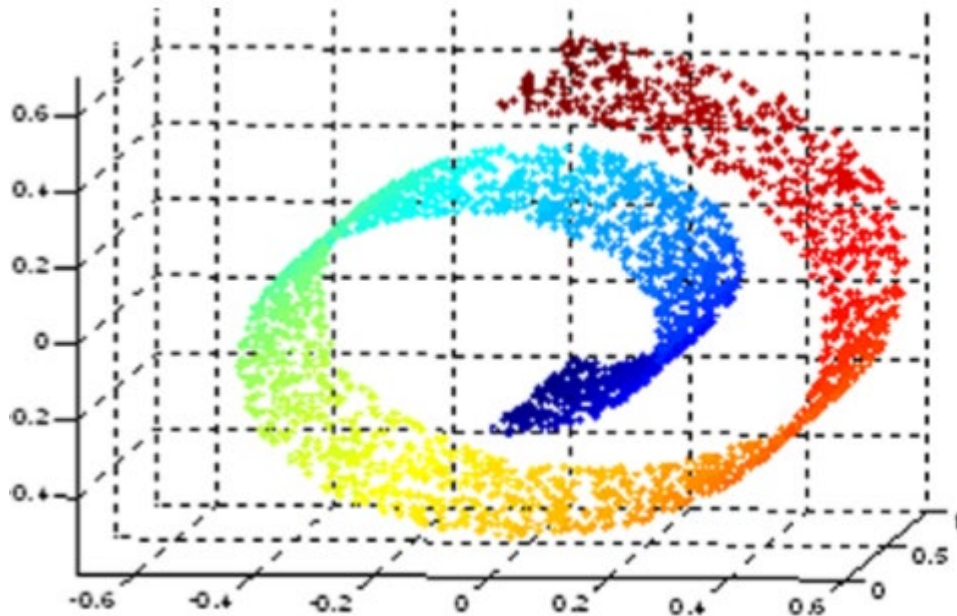


- Assumption: most data live on a manifold, not a true Euclidean feature space!

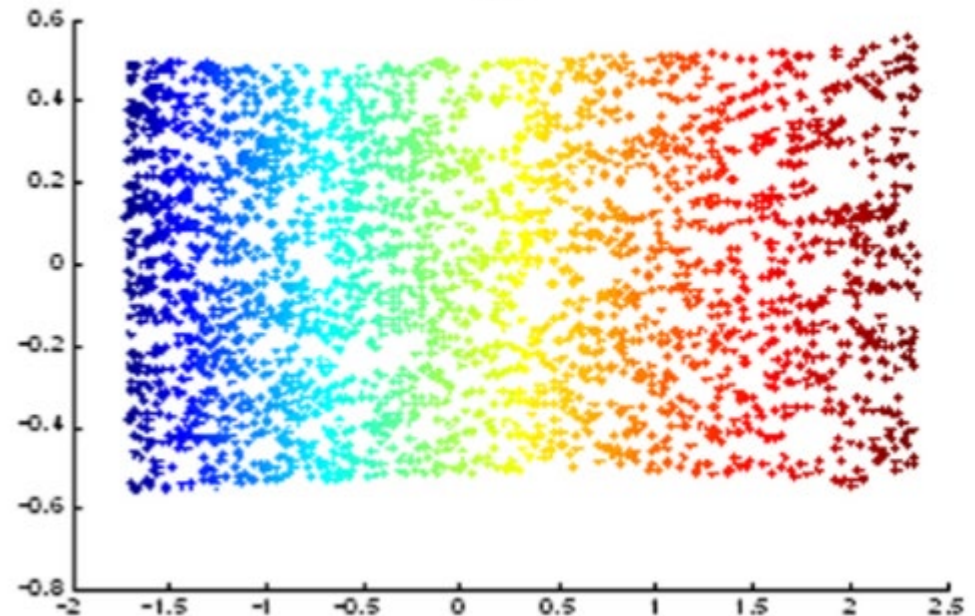
# Learning Manifolds

- Consider data that lives on a **low-dimensional “manifold”**.
- e.g. ‘Swiss roll’:

*Original data*

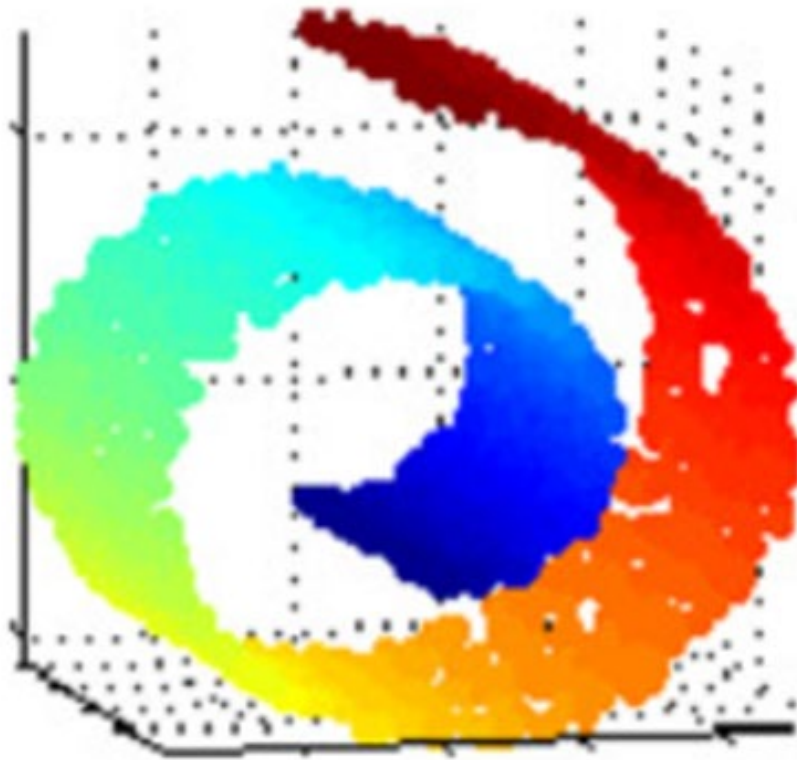


*Two-dimensional manifold*

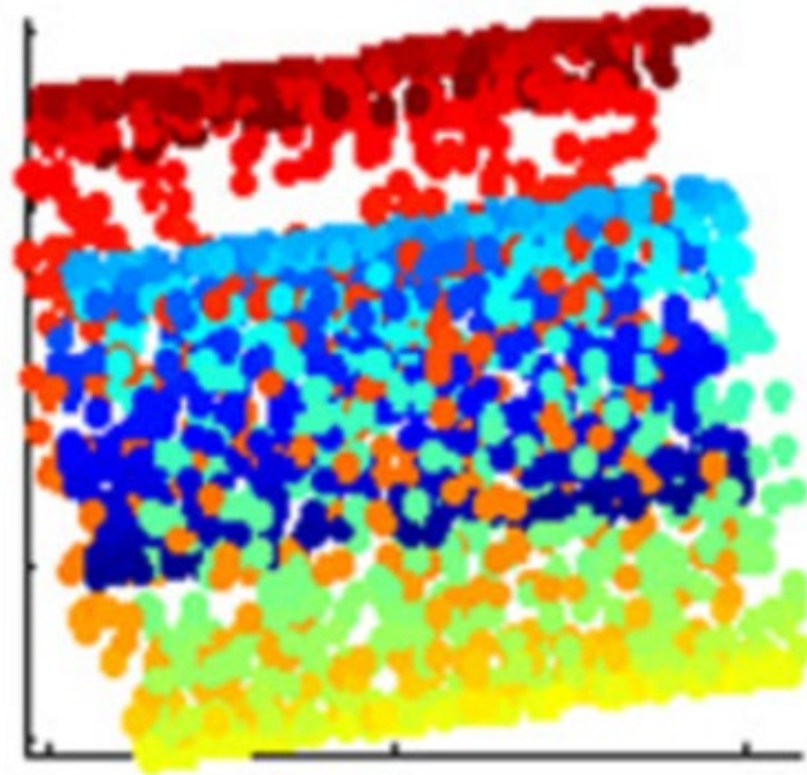


# Learning Manifolds

- Consider data that lives on a **low-dimensional “manifold”**.
  - With usual distances, **PCA/MDS will not discover non-linear manifolds.**



Original data

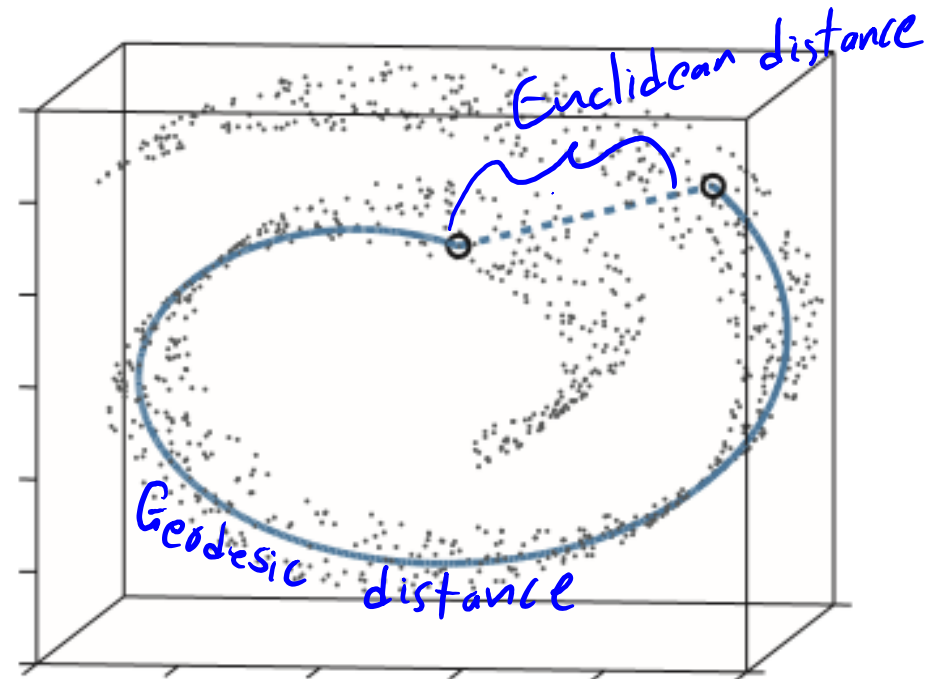
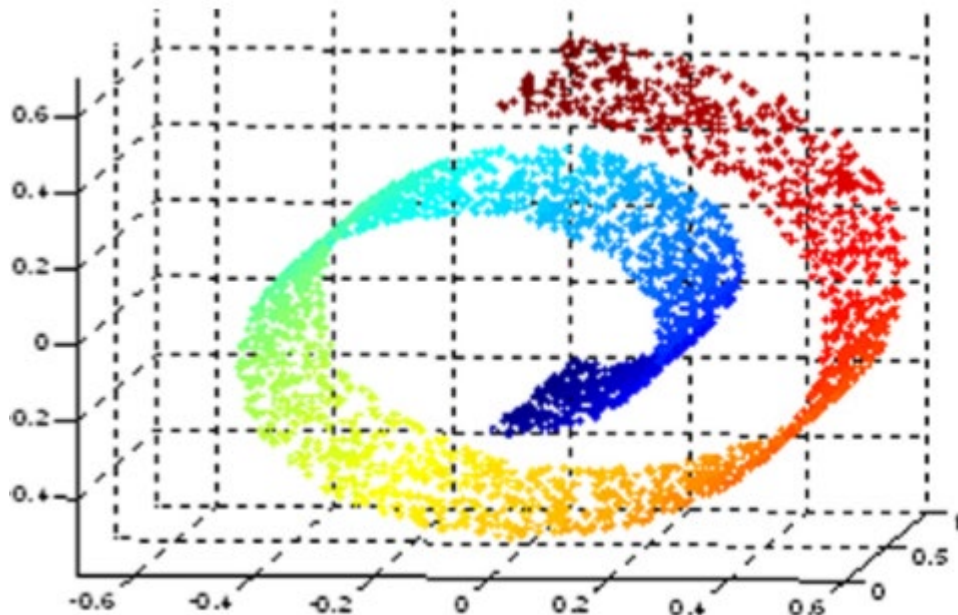


PCA



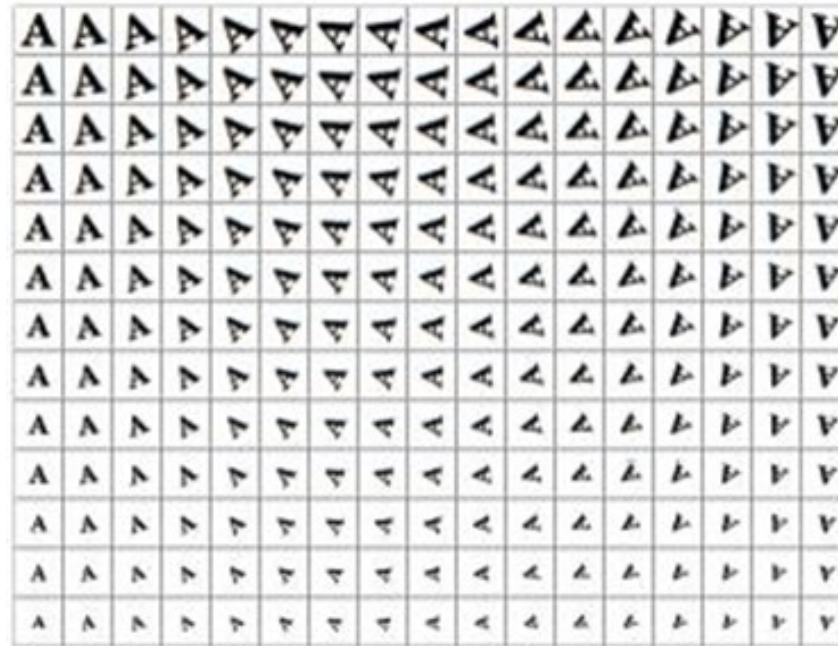
# Learning Manifolds

- Consider data that lives on a **low-dimensional “manifold”**.
  - With usual distances, **PCA/MDS will not discover non-linear manifolds**.
- We need **geodesic distance**: the distance through the manifold.



# Manifolds in Image Space

- Consider slowly-varying transformation of image:



- **Images are on a manifold** in the high-dimensional space.
  - Euclidean distance **doesn't reflect manifold structure**.
  - **Geodesic distance** is **distance through space of rotations/resizings**.

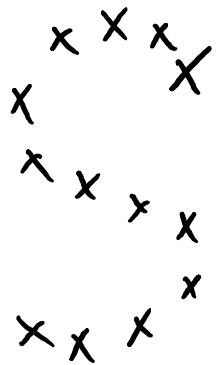
Coming Up Next

**ISOMAP**

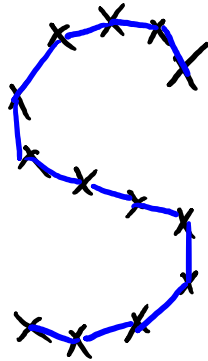


# ISOMAP

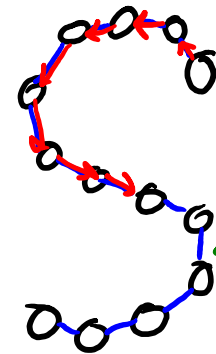
- ISOMAP is MDS on manifolds:



find "neighbours"  
of each point



Represent points  
and neighbours  
as a weighted  
graph.



"weight" on each  
edge is distance  
between points

Approximate geodesic distance  
by shortest path through  
graph.

ISOMAP  $z_i$  values in 1D or 2D

Run MDS  
with these  
approximate geodesic distances.

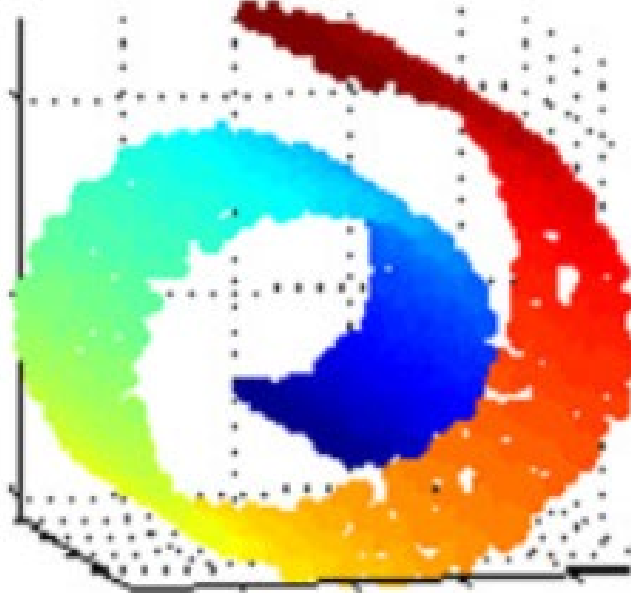
$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & \dots \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & \dots \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

# ISOMAP

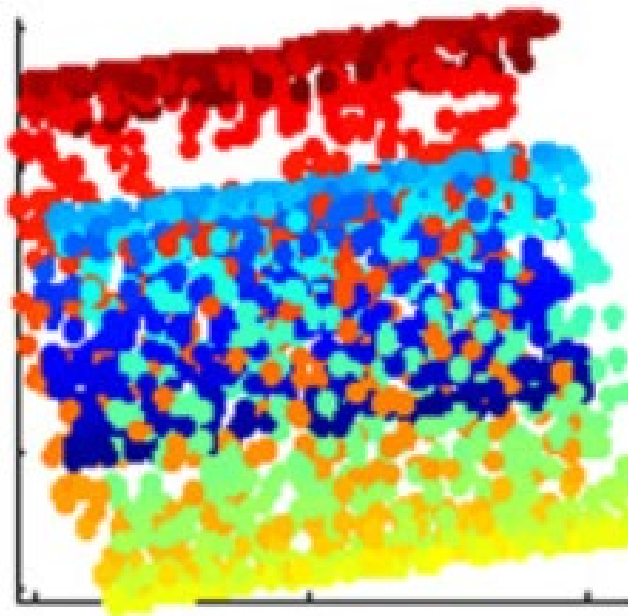
- ISOMAP can “unwrap” the roll:
  - Shortest paths are approximations to geodesic distances.

Dijkstra's

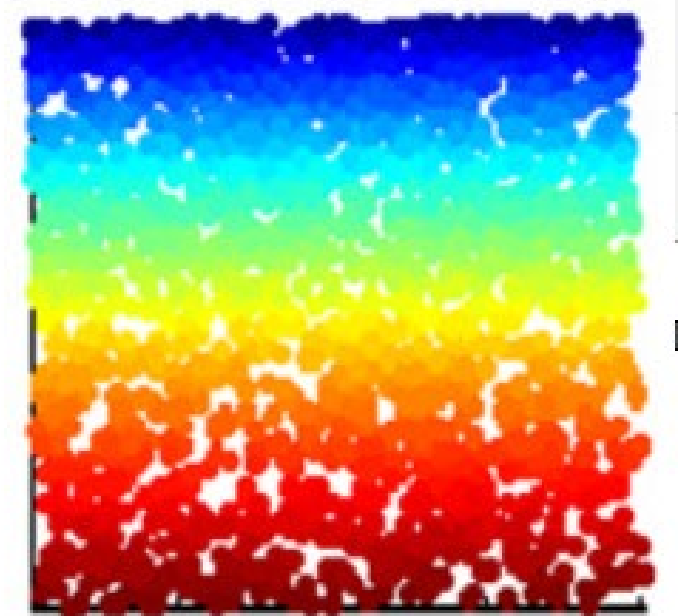
Original Data



PCA



ISOMAP



- Sensitive to having the right graph :
  - Points off of manifold and gaps in manifold cause problems.

# Constructing Neighbour Graphs

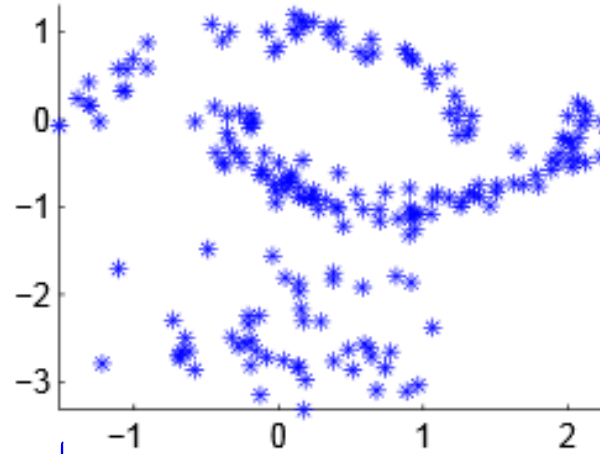
- Sometimes you can **define the graph/distance without features**:
  - Facebook friend graph.
  - Connect YouTube videos if one video tends to follow another.
- But we can also **convert from features  $x_i$  to a “neighbour” graph (A6)**:
  - Approach 1 (“**epsilon graph**”): connect  $x_i$  to all  $x_j$  within some threshold  $\epsilon$ .
    - Like we did with density-based clustering.
  - Approach 2a (“**KNN graph**”): connect  $x_i$  to  $x_j$  if:
    - $x_j$  is a KNN of  $x_i$  **OR**  $x_i$  is a KNN of  $x_j$ .
  - Approach 2b (“**mutual KNN graph**”): connect  $x_i$  to  $x_j$  if:
    - $x_j$  is a KNN of  $x_i$  **AND**  $x_i$  is a KNN of  $x_j$ .

# Converting from Features to Graph

add edge  
if  $\|x_i - x_j\| \leq 0.3$

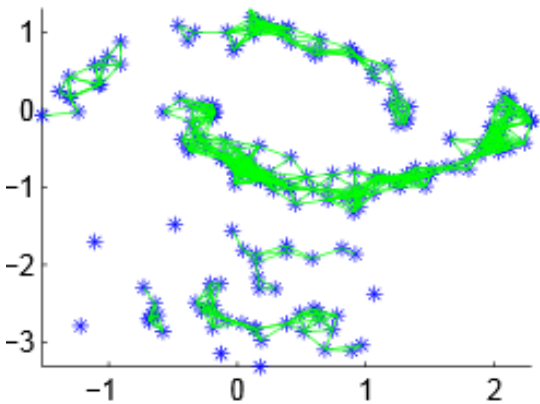
add edge if  
 $i$  is 5-NN  
of  $j$  or  
 $j$  is  
5-NN  
of  $i$

Data points

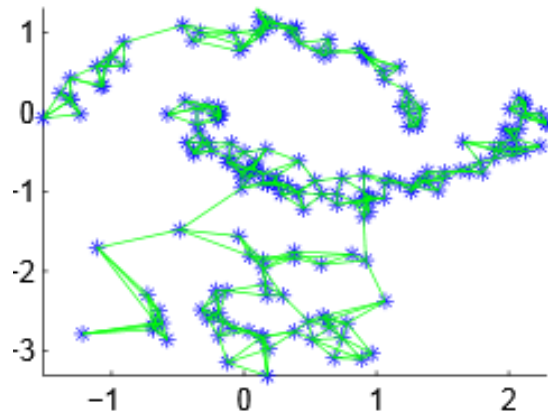


add edge if  
'i' and 'j'  
are kNNs  
of each other.

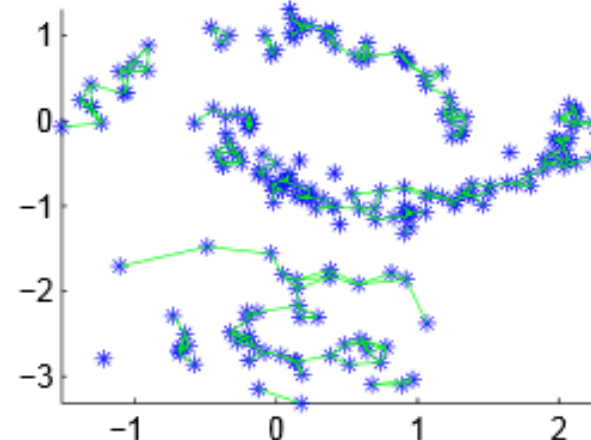
epsilon-graph, epsilon=0.3



kNN graph, k = 5

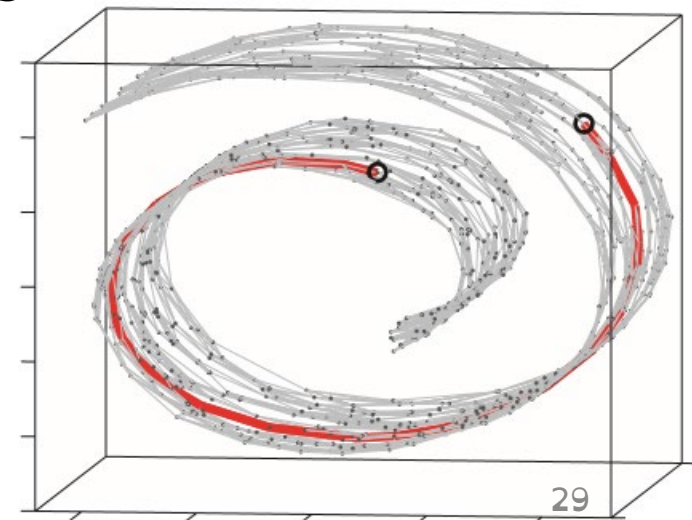


Mutual kNN graph, k = 5

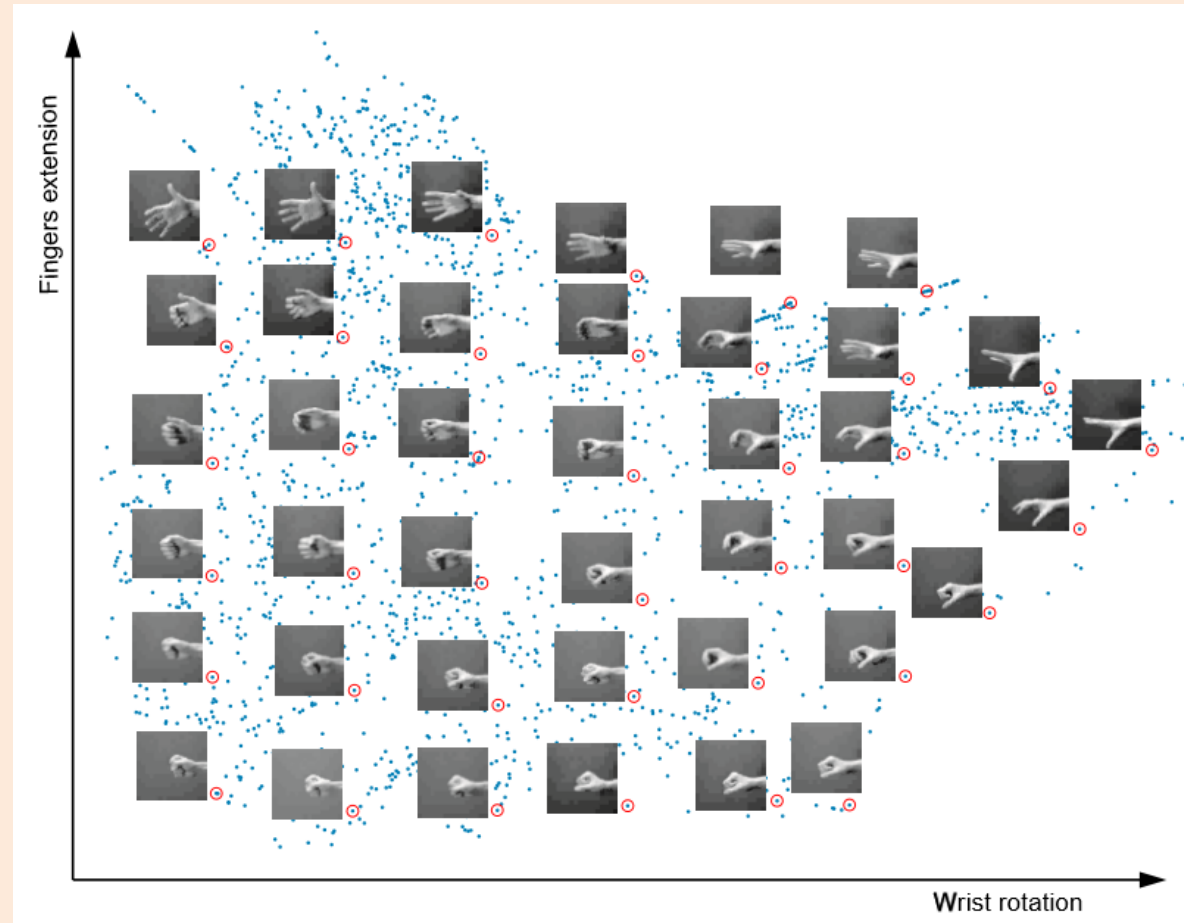


# ISOMAP

- **ISOMAP** is latent-factor model for visualizing data on manifolds:
  1. Find the **neighbours** of each point.
    - Usually “k-nearest neighbours graph”, or “epsilon graph”.
  2. Compute **edge weights**:
    - Usually distance between neighbours.
  3. Compute **weighted shortest path** between all points
    - Dijkstra or other shortest path algorithm.
  4. Run **MDS** using these distances.



# ISOMAP on Hand Images



- Related method is “local linear embedding”.



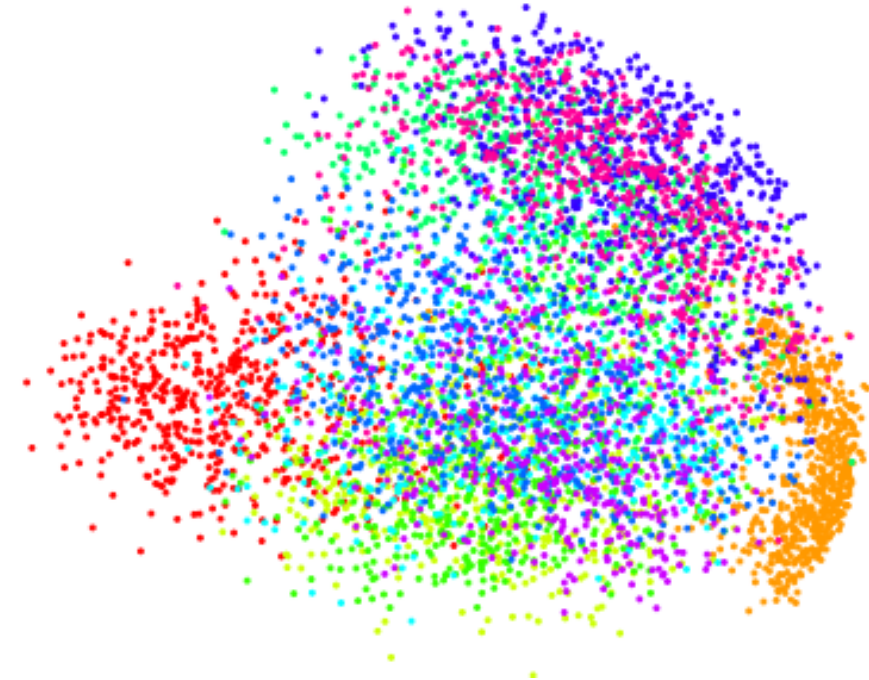
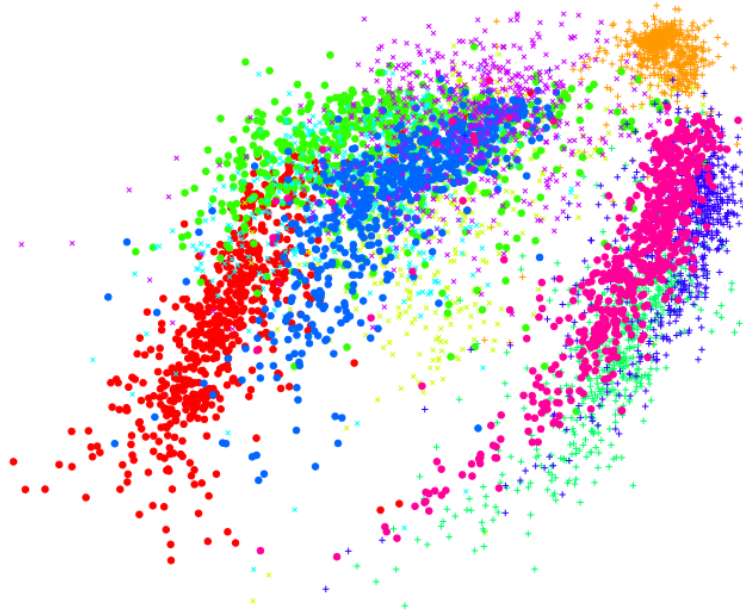
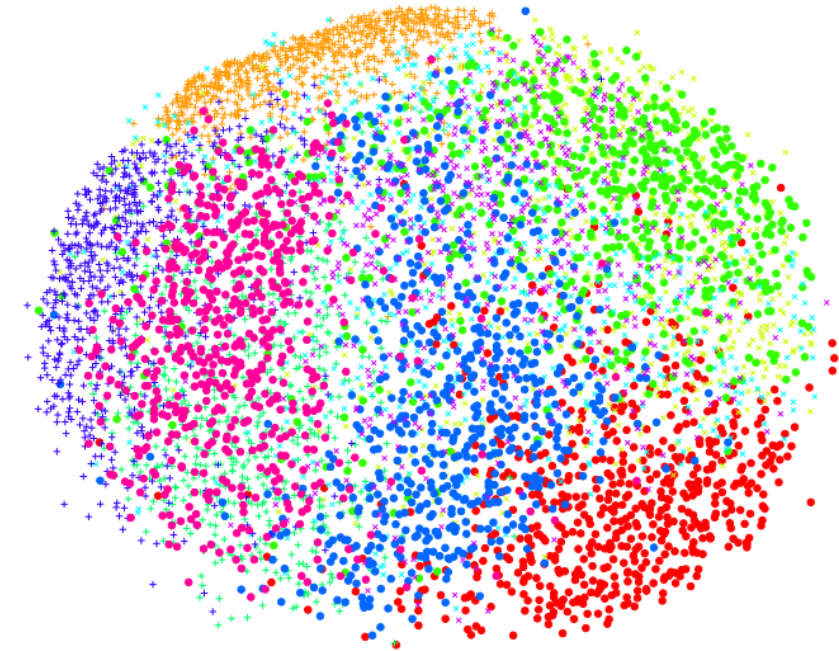
# Sammon's Map vs. ISOMAP vs. PCA



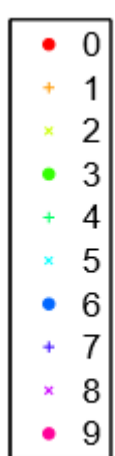
Sammon Map

ISOMAP

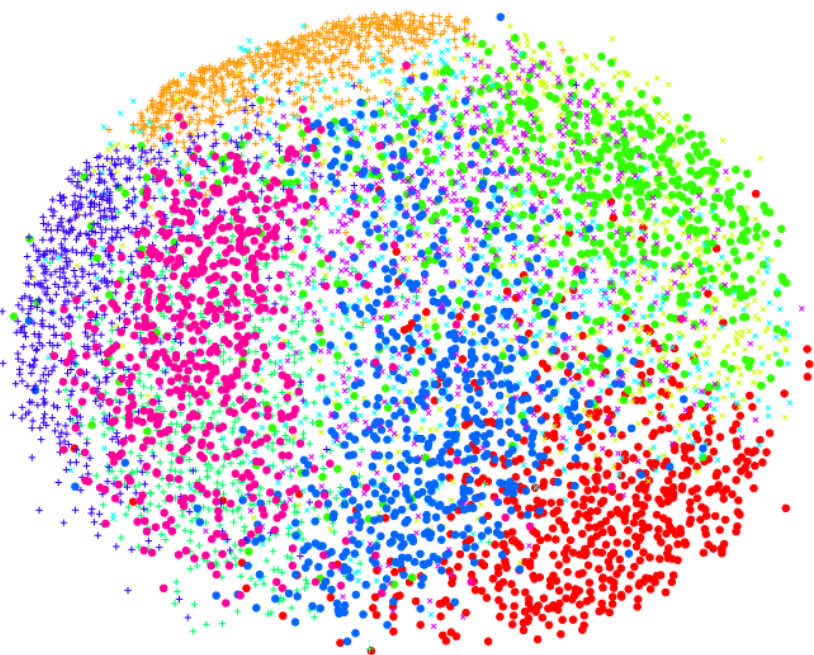
PCA



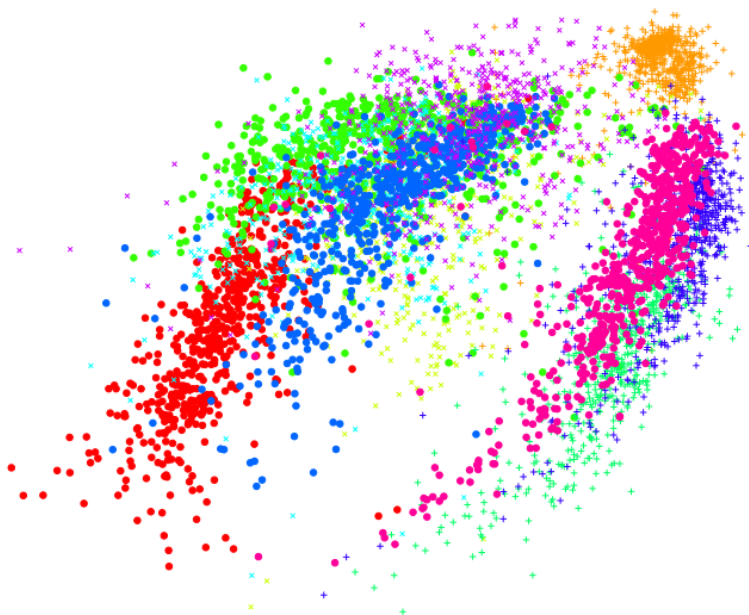
# Sammon's Map vs. ISOMAP vs. t-SNE



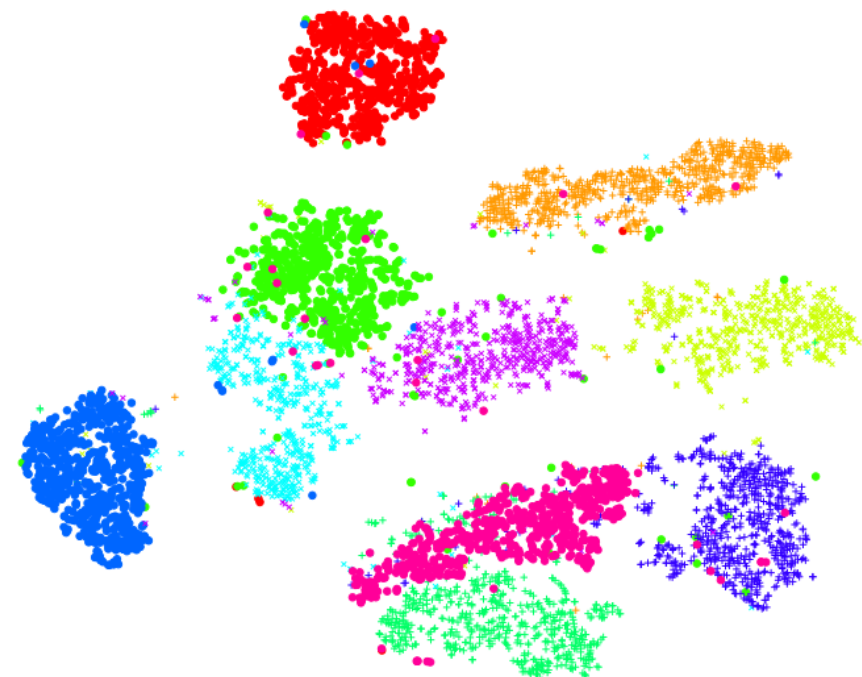
Sammon Map



ISOMAP

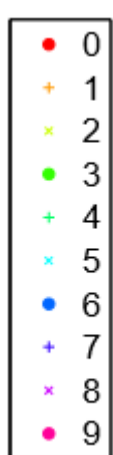


t-SNE





# Sammon's Map vs. ISOMAP vs. t-SNE



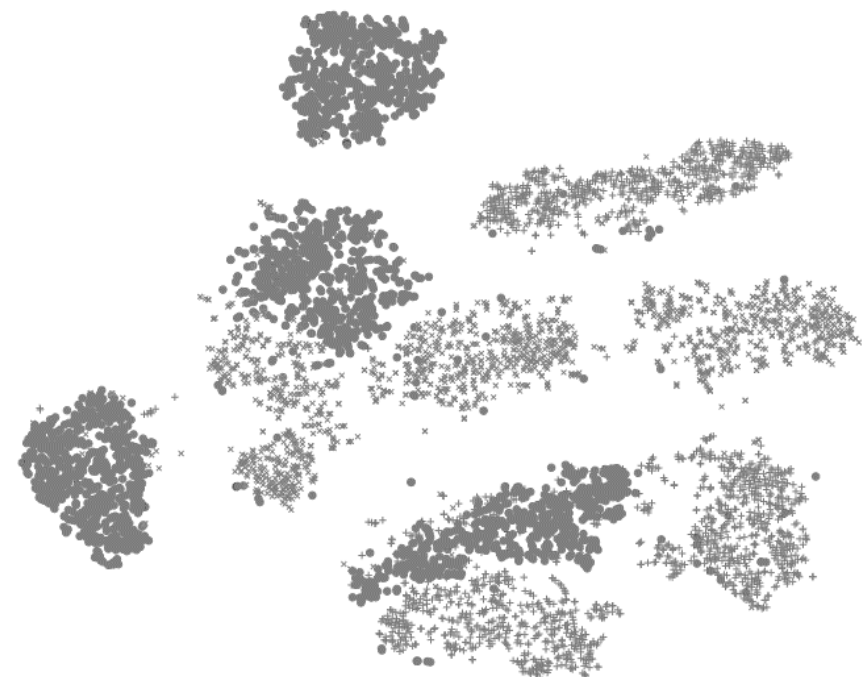
Sammon Map



ISOMAP



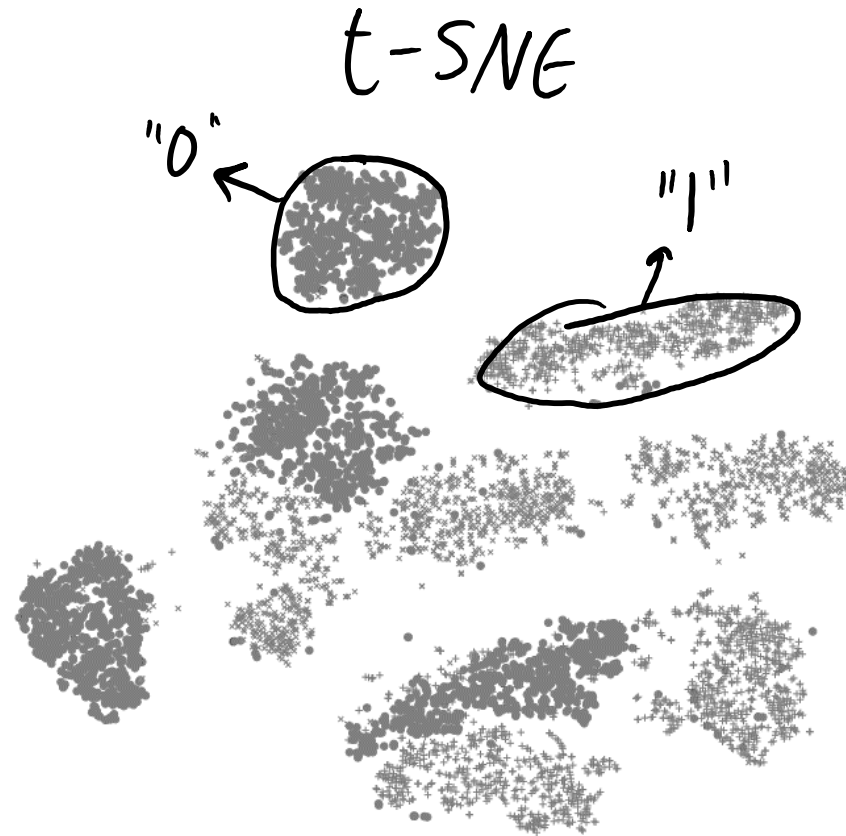
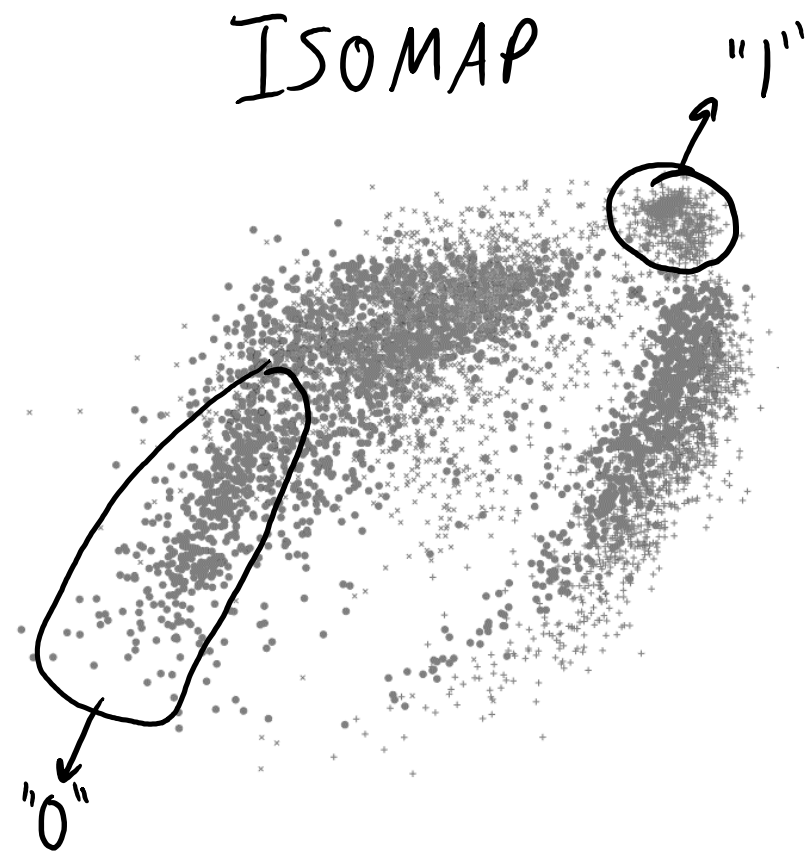
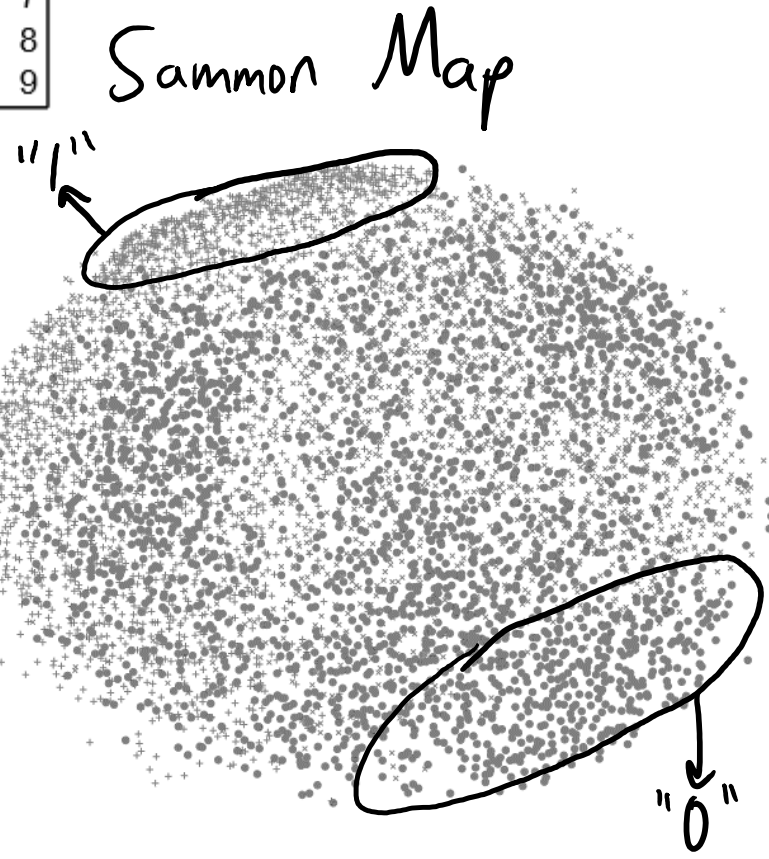
t-SNE



Remember this is unsupervised, algorithms do not know the labels.

# Sammon's Map vs. ISOMAP vs. t-SNE

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9



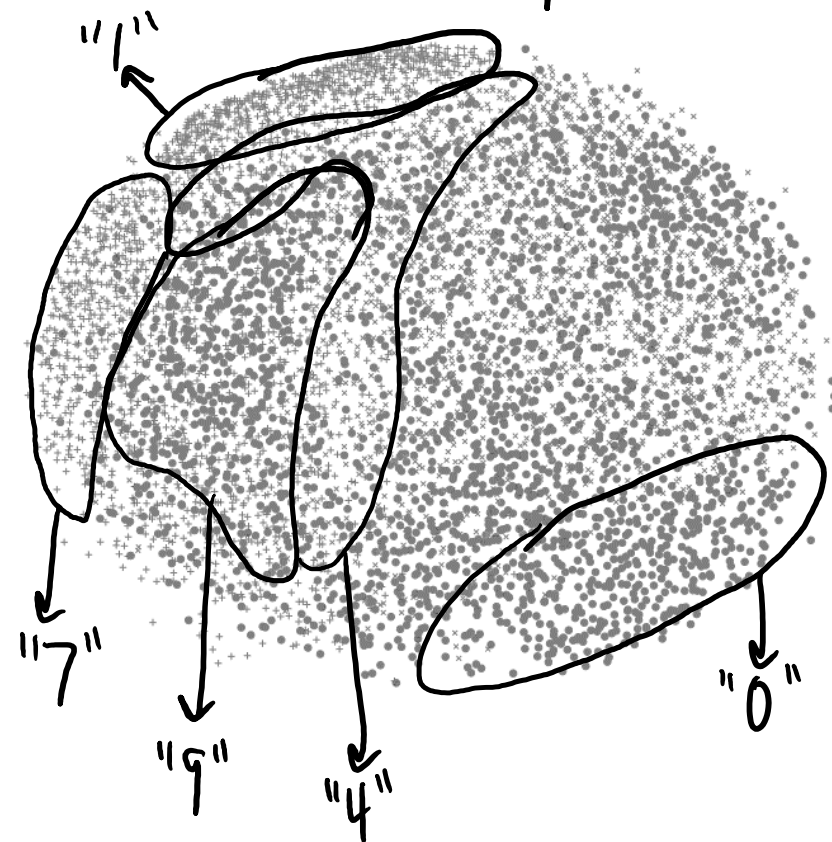
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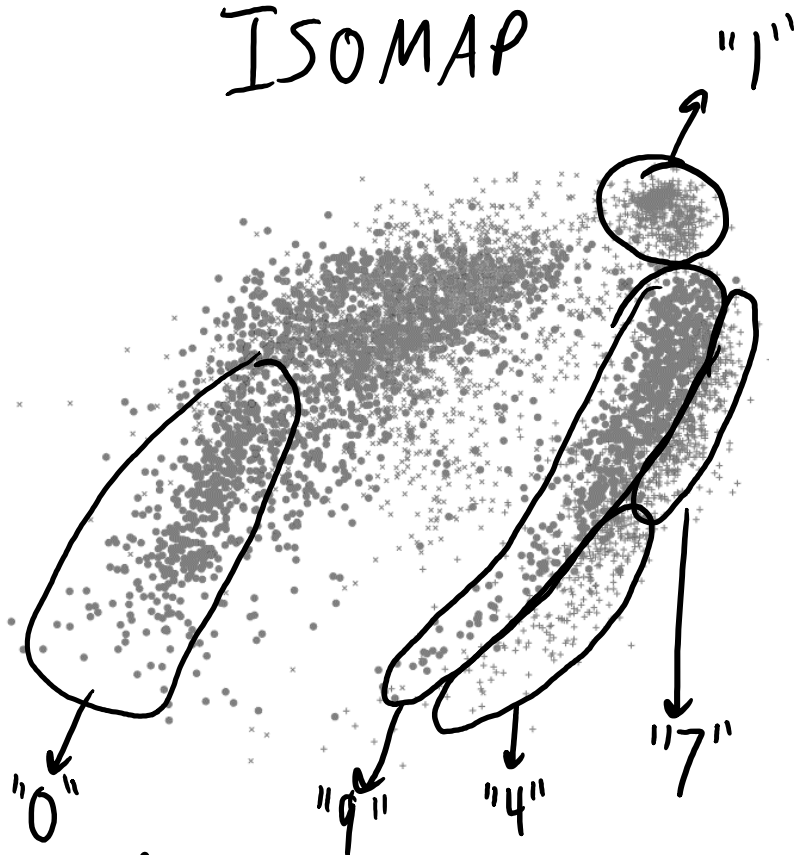
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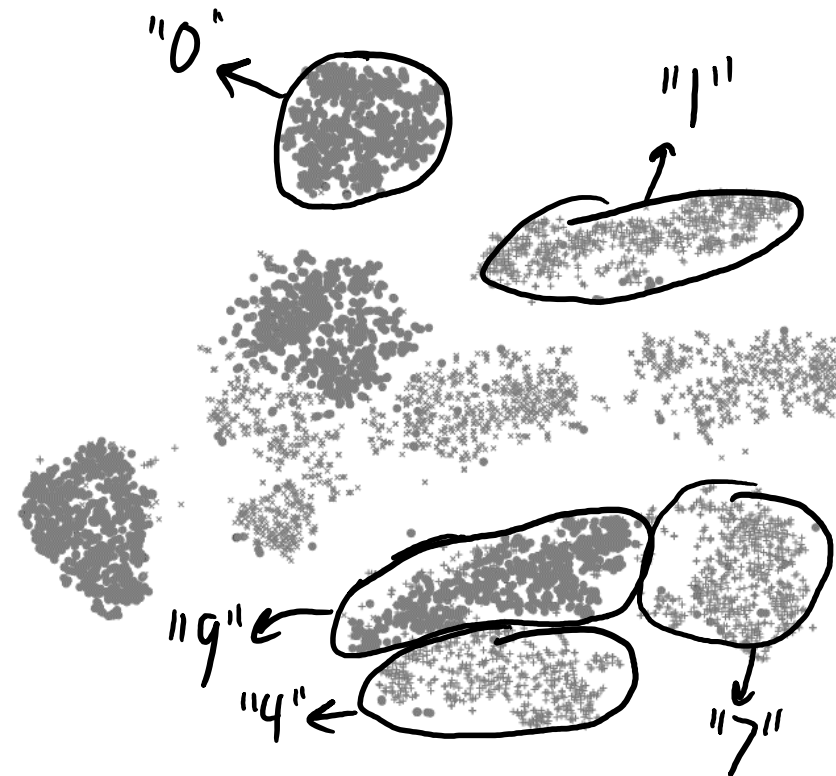
Sammon Map



ISOMAP



t-SNE

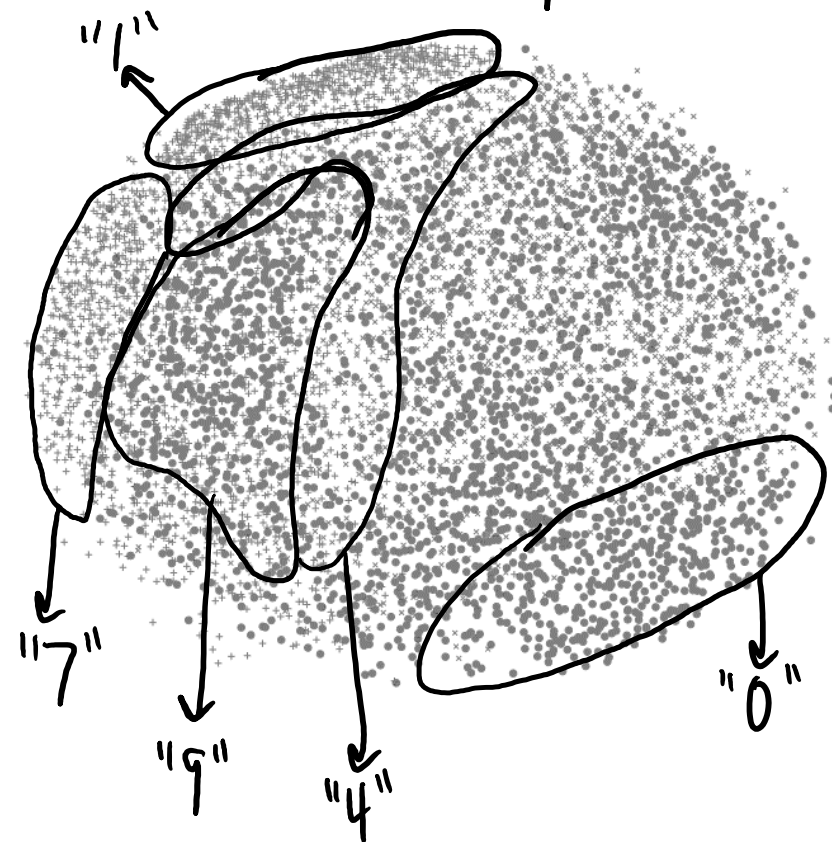


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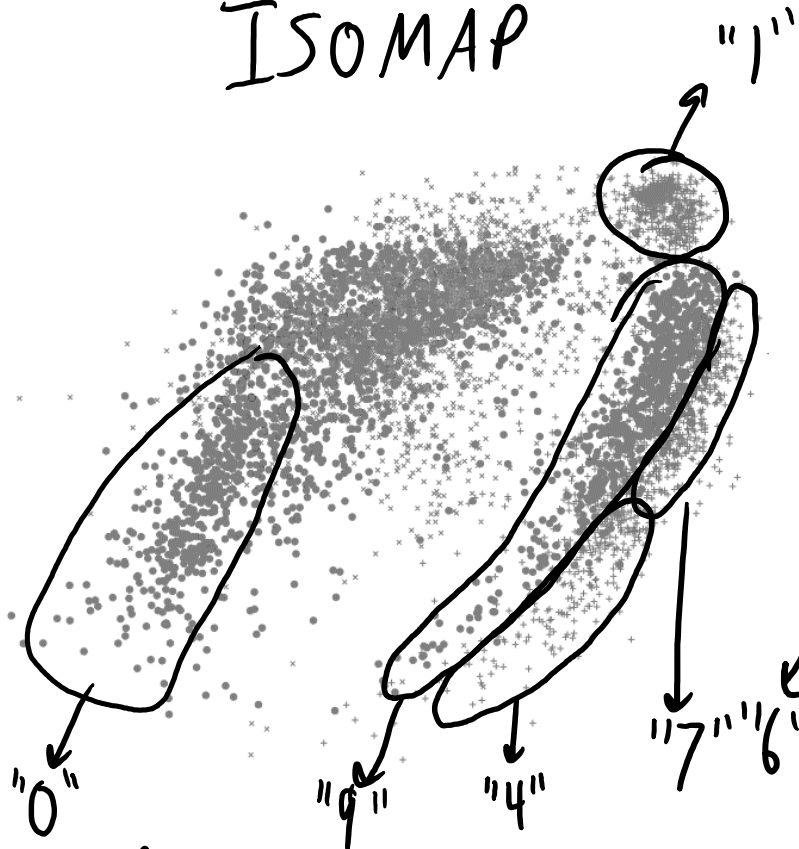
# Sammon's Map vs. ISOMAP vs. t-SNE

- 0 ●
- 1 +
- 2 ×
- 3 ●
- 4 +
- 5 ×
- 6 ●
- 7 +
- 8 ×
- 9 ●

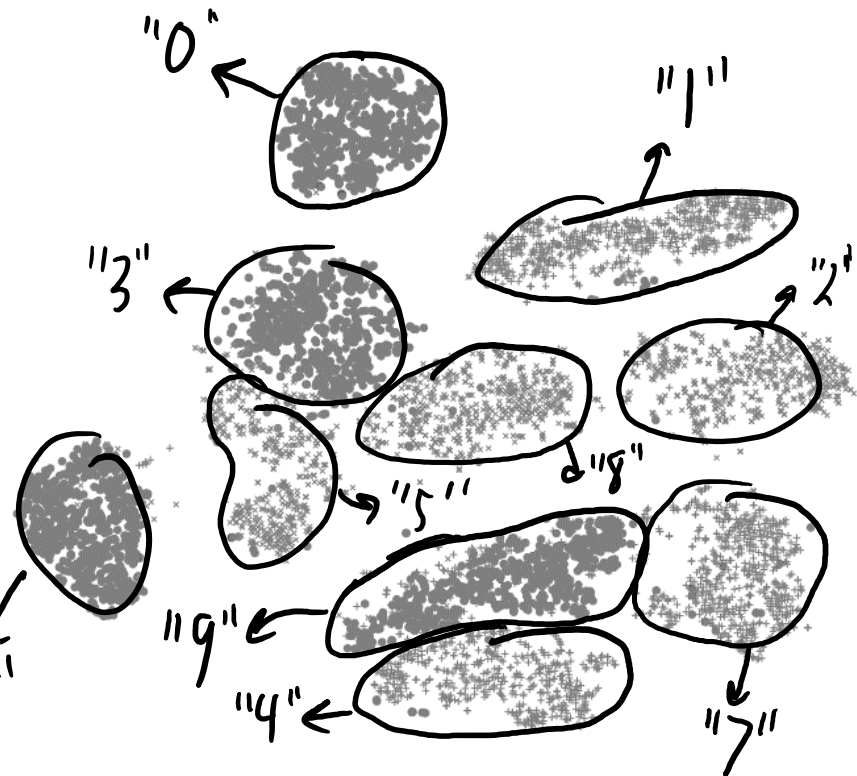
Sammon Map



ISOMAP



t-SNE



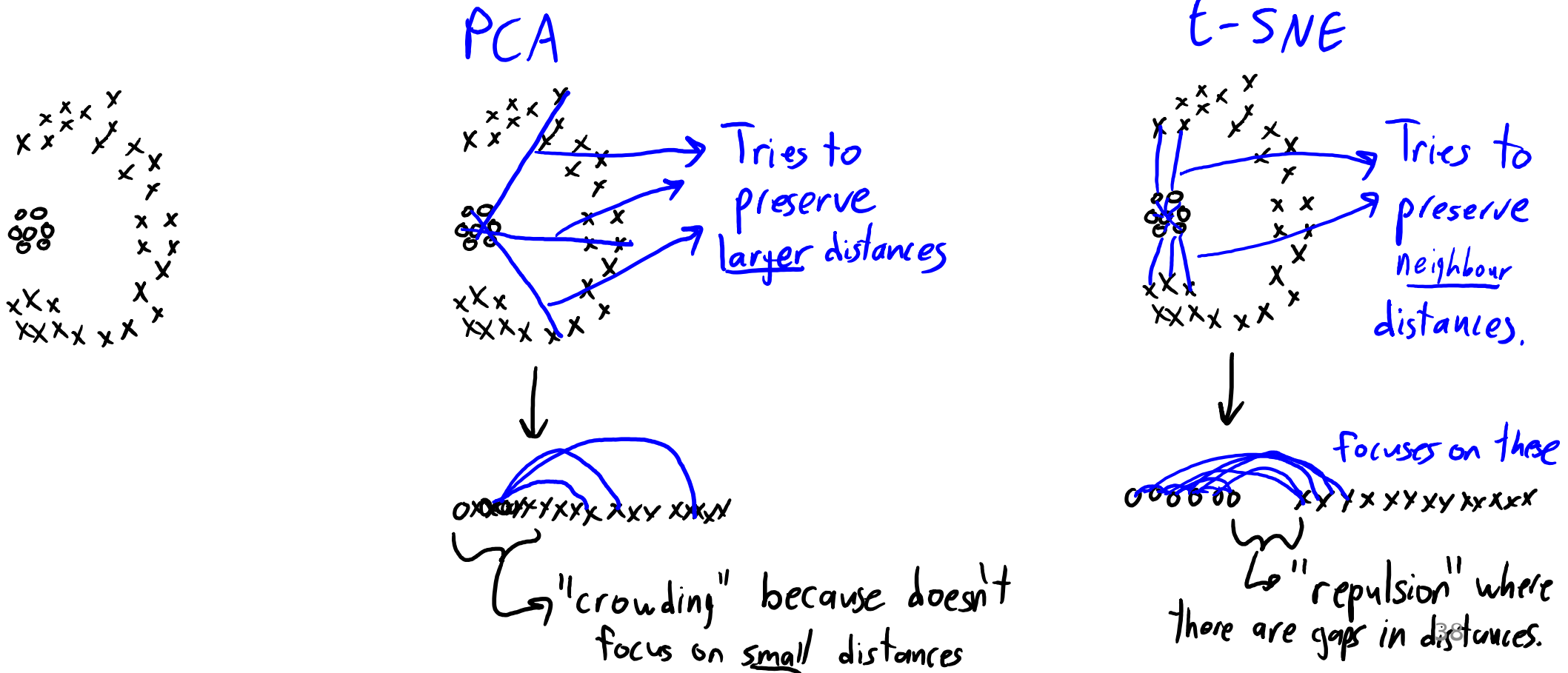
Remember this is unsupervised, algorithms do not know the labels.

Coming Up Next

**T-SNE**

# t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbour Embedding

- One key idea in **t-SNE**:
  - Focus on distance to “neighbours”  
(allow large variance in other distances)

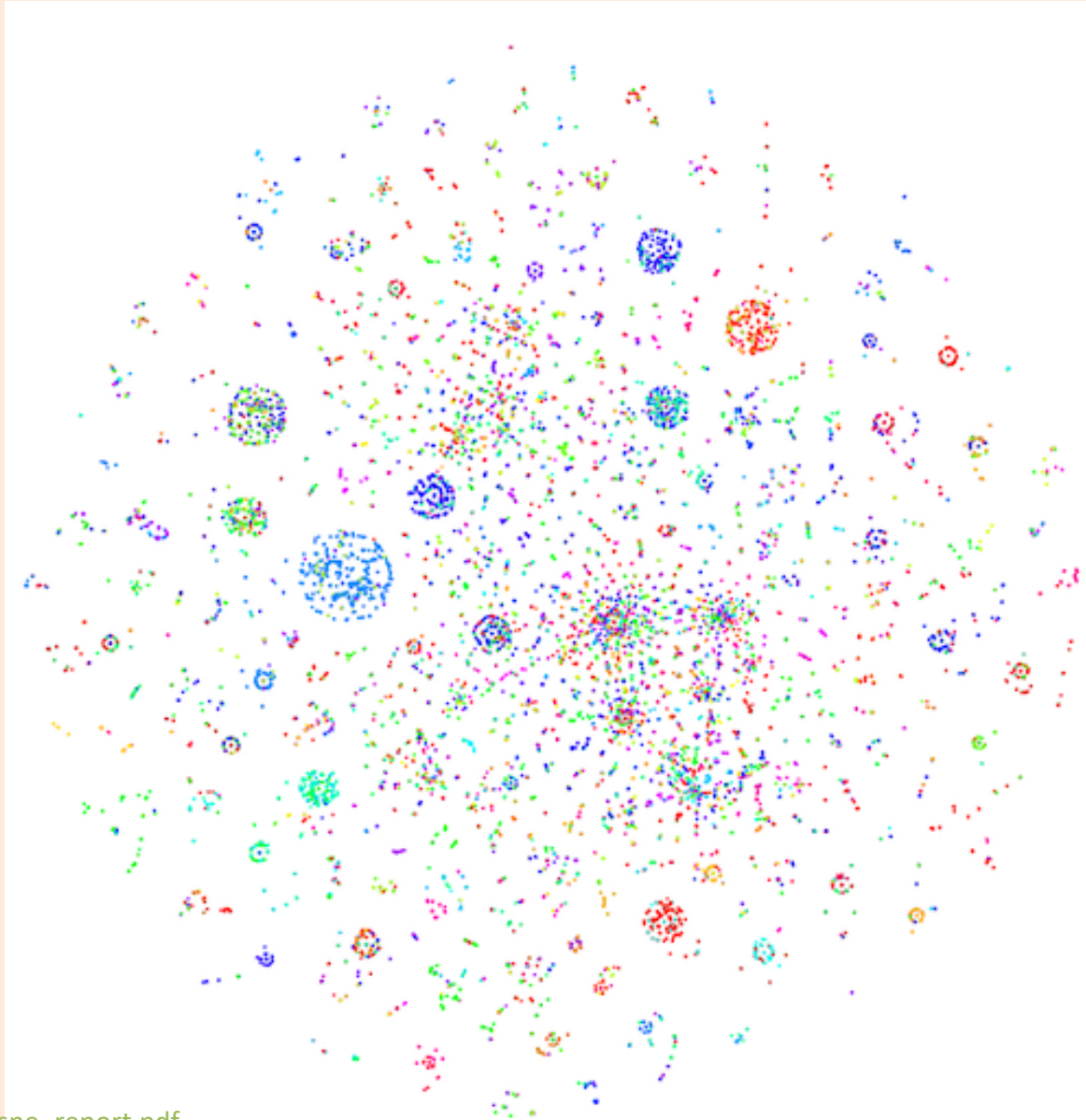


# t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbour Embedding

- **t-SNE** is a special case of MDS (specific  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$ , and  $d_3$  choices):
  - $d_1$ : for each  $x_i$ , compute 'neighbour-ness' of each  $x_j$
  - Computation is similar to k-means++, but most weight to close points (Gaussian).
    - Doesn't require explicit graph.
  - $d_2$ : for each  $z_i$ , compute 'neighbour-ness' of each  $z_j$ .
    - Similar to above, but use student's t (grows really slowly with distance).
    - Avoids 'crowding', because you have a huge range that large distances can fill.
  - $d_3$ : Compare  $x_i$  and  $z_i$  using an entropy-like measure:
    - How much 'randomness' is in probabilities of  $x_i$  if you know the  $z_i$  (and vice versa)?
- Interactive demo: <https://distill.pub/2016/misread-tsne>

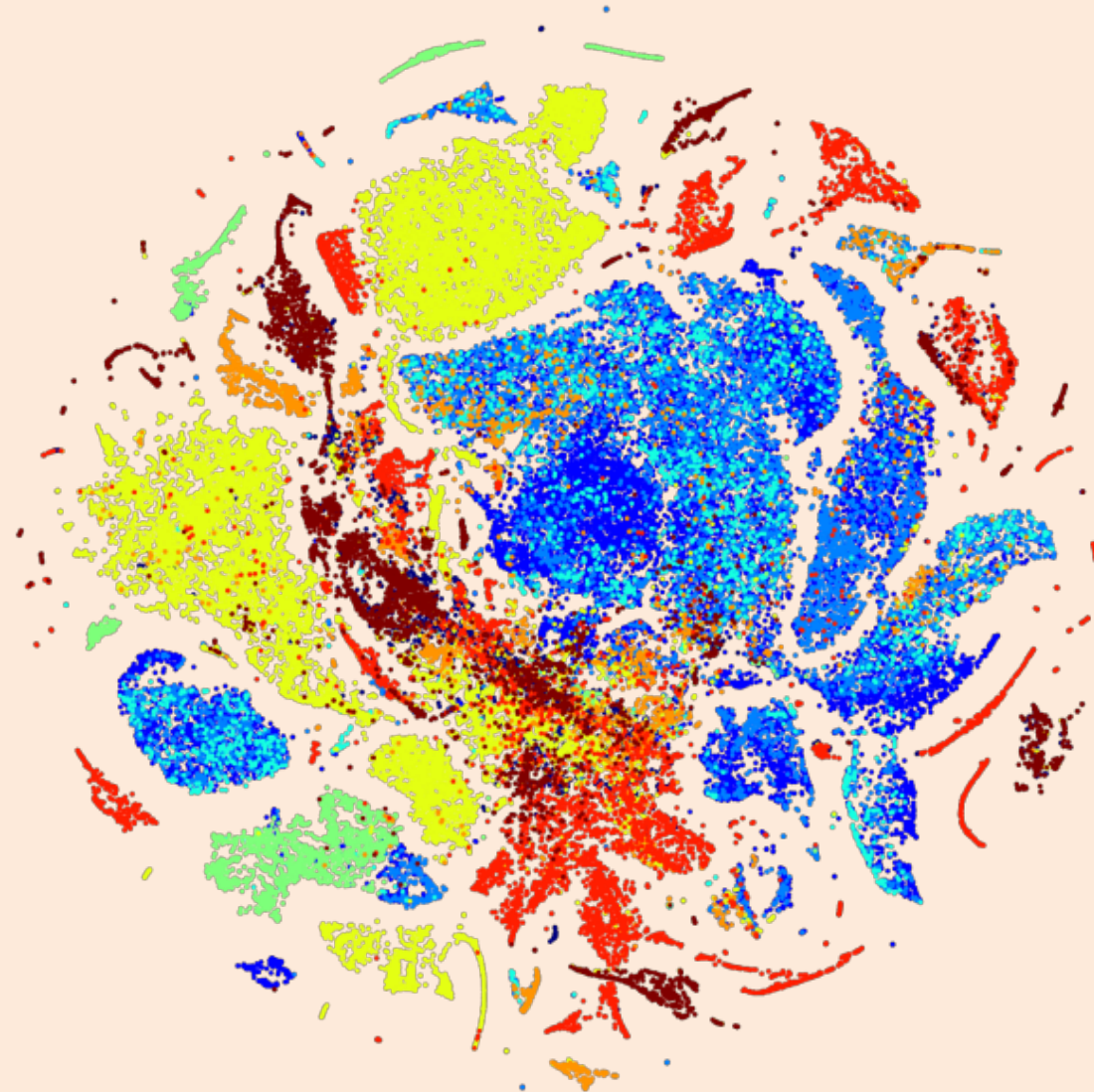


# t-SNE on Wikipedia Articles

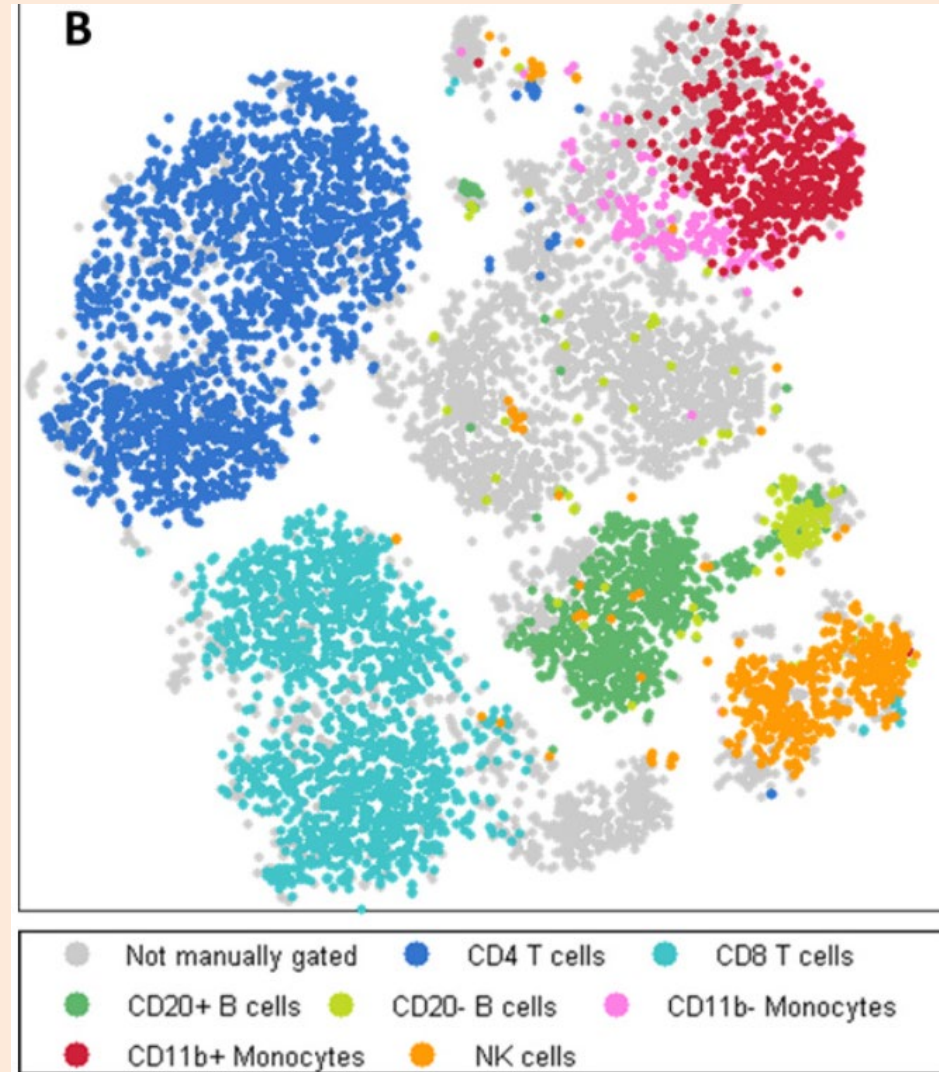




# t-SNE on Product Features



# t-SNE on Leukemia Heterogeneity



# End of Part 4: Latent Factor Models

# End of Part 4: Key Concepts

- We discussed **linear latent-factor models**:

$$\begin{aligned} f(W, Z) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d (\langle w_j, z_i \rangle - x_{ij})^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \|W^T z_i - x_i\|^2 \\ &= \|ZW - X\|_F^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Represent 'X' as linear combination of **latent factors 'w<sub>c</sub>'**.
  - **Latent features 'z<sub>i</sub>'** give a lower-dimensional version of each 'x<sub>i</sub>'.
  - When k=1, finds **direction that minimizes squared orthogonal distance**.
- Applications:
  - Outlier detection, dimensionality reduction, data compression, features for linear models, visualization, factor discovery, filling in missing entries.

# End of Part 4: Key Concepts

- We discussed **linear latent-factor models**:

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

- **Principal component analysis (PCA)**:
  - Often uses **orthogonal factors** and fits them **sequentially** (via **SVD**).
- **Non-negative matrix factorization**:
  - Uses **non-negative** factors giving sparsity.
  - Can be minimized with **projected gradient**.
- Many variations are possible:
  - Different regularizers (**sparse coding**) or loss functions (**robust/binary PCA**).
  - Missing values (**recommender systems**) or change of basis (**kernel PCA**).

# End of Part 4: Key Concepts

- We discussed **multi-dimensional scaling (MDS)**:
  - **Non-parametric** method for high-dimensional **data visualization**.
  - Tries to match distance/similarity in high-/low-dimensions.
    - “Gradient descent on scatterplot points”.
- Main **challenge in MDS methods is “crowding”** effect:
  - Methods focus on large distances and lose local structure.
- Common solutions:
  - **Sammon mapping**: use weighted cost function.
  - **ISOMAP**: approximate geodesic distance using via shortest paths in graph.
  - **T-SNE**: give up on large distances and focus on neighbour distances.

# Summary

- Different MDS distances/losses/weights usually gives better results.
- Manifold learning focuses on low-dimensional curved structures.
- ISOMAP is most common approach:
  - Approximates geodesic distance by shortest path in weighted graph.
- t-SNE is promising new data MDS method.
  
- Next time: deep learning.

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & 0 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Please Do Course Evaluation!**

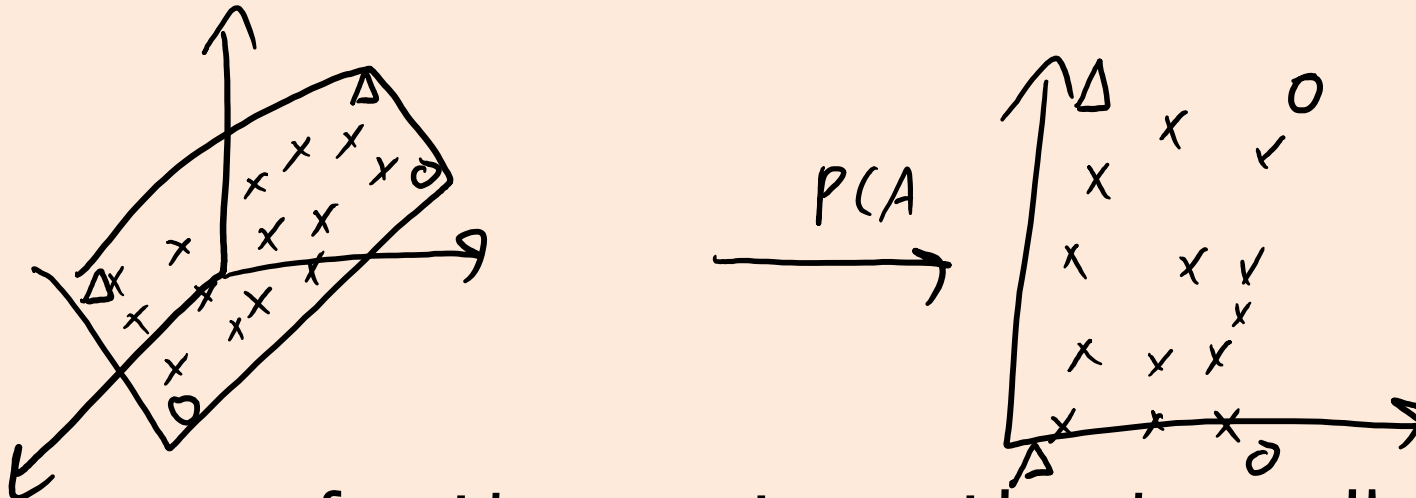


# Review Questions

- Q1: Is MDS sensitive to initialization? Why?
- Q2: What is the problem with using linear dimensionality reduction for data on manifold?
- Q3: How does ISOMAP compute pair-wise distances among examples?
- Q4: What is the key idea behind t-SNE in terms of preserving distances in 2D?

# Does t-SNE always outperform PCA?

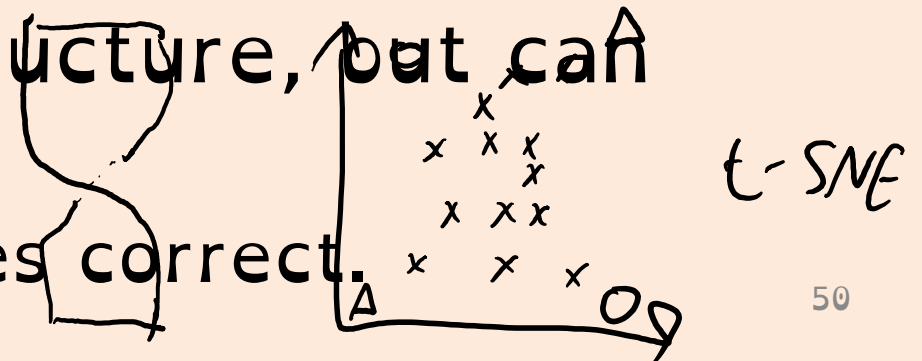
- Consider 3D data living on a 2D hyper-plane:



- PCA can perfectly capture the low-dimensional structure.

- T-SNE can capture the local structure, but can "twist" the plane.

– It doesn't try to get long distances correct.



# Graph Drawing

- A closely-related topic to MDS is **graph drawing**:
  - Given a graph, how should we display it?
  - Lots of interesting methods: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Graph\\_drawing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Graph_drawing)



# Bonus Slide: Multivariate Chain Rule

- Recall the **univariate chain rule**:  $\frac{d}{dw} [f(g(w))] = f'(g(w)) g'(w)$
- The **multivariate chain rule**:  $\underbrace{\nabla [f(g(w))]}_{1 \times 1} = \underbrace{f'(g(w))}_{1 \times 1} \underbrace{\nabla g(w)}_{d \times 1}$
- Example:

$$\nabla \left[ \frac{1}{2} (w^T x_i - y_i)^2 \right]$$

$$= \nabla [f(g(w))]$$

$$\text{with } g(w) = w^T x_i - y_i$$

$$\text{and } f(r_i) = \frac{1}{2} r_i^2$$

$$\nabla g(w) = x_i$$

$$f'(r_i) = r_i$$

$$\nabla [f(g(w))] = r_i x_i$$

$$= (w^T x_i - y_i) x_i$$

# Bonus Slide: Multivariate Chain Rule for MDS

- General **MDS** formulation:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n g(d_1(x_i, x_j), d_2(z_i, z_j))$$

- Using **multivariate chain rule** we have:

$$\nabla_{z_i} g(d_1(x_i, x_j), d_2(z_i, z_j)) = g'(d_1(x_i, x_j), d_2(z_i, z_j)) \nabla_{z_i} d_2(z_i, z_j)$$

- **Example:**

If  $d_1(x_i, x_j) = \|x_i - x_j\|$  and  $d_2(z_i, z_j) = \|z_i - z_j\|$  and  $g(d_1, d_2) = \frac{1}{2}(d_1 - d_2)^2$

$$\nabla_{z_i} g(d_1(x_i, x_j), d_2(z_i, z_j)) = \underbrace{-(d_1(x_i, x_j) - d_2(z_i, z_j))}_{g'(d_1, d_2)} \left[ \underbrace{-\frac{(z_i - z_j)}{2\|z_i - z_j\|}}_{\text{(how distance changes in } z \text{ space)}} \right] \rightarrow \nabla_{z_i} d_2(z_i, z_j)$$

↳ Assuming  $z_i \neq z_j$  (move distances closer)

# Latent-Factor Representation of Words

- For natural language, we often **represent words by an index**.
  - E.g., “cat” is word 124056 among a “bag of words”.
- But this may be inefficient:
  - Should “cat” and “kitten” **share parameters** in some way?

# Latent-Factor Representation of Words

- **Latent-factor representation** of individual words:
  - Closeness in latent space should indicate similarity.
  - Distances could represent meaning?
- Recent alternative to PCA/NMF is **word2vec...**

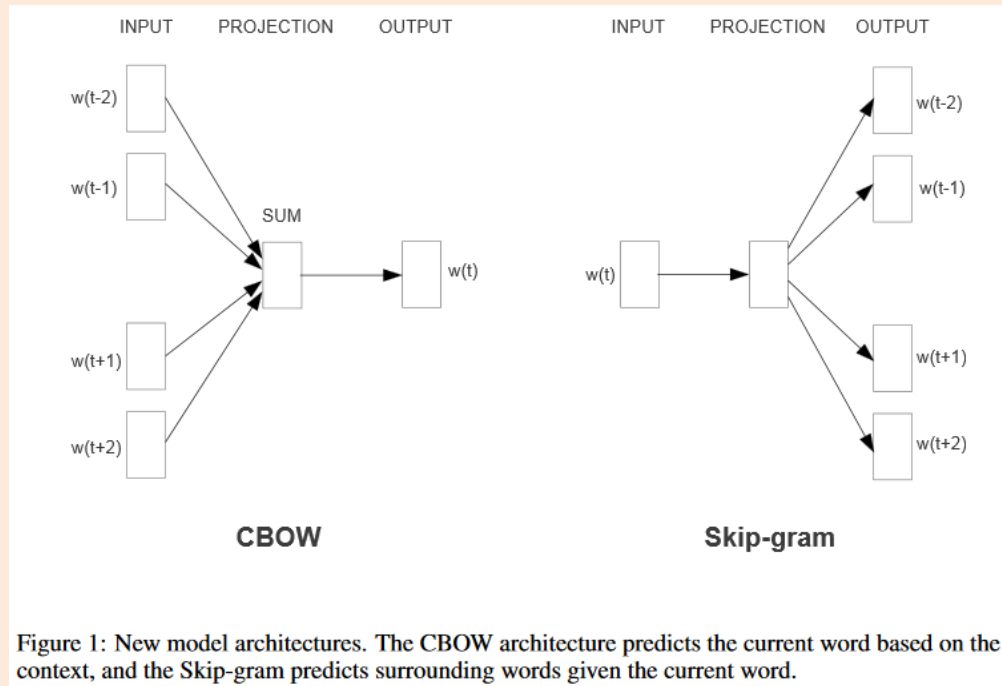
# Using Context

- Consider these phrases:
  - “the cat purred”
  - “the kitten purred”
  
  - “black cat ran”
  - “black kitten ran”
- Words that occur in the same context likely have similar meanings.
- **Word2vec** uses this insight to design an **MDS distance function**.



# Word2Vec

- Two common **word2vec** approaches:
  1. Try to **predict word from surrounding words** (continuous bag of words).
  2. Try to **predict surrounding words from word** (skip-gram).



- Train **latent-factors** to solve one of these supervised learning tasks.

# Word2Vec

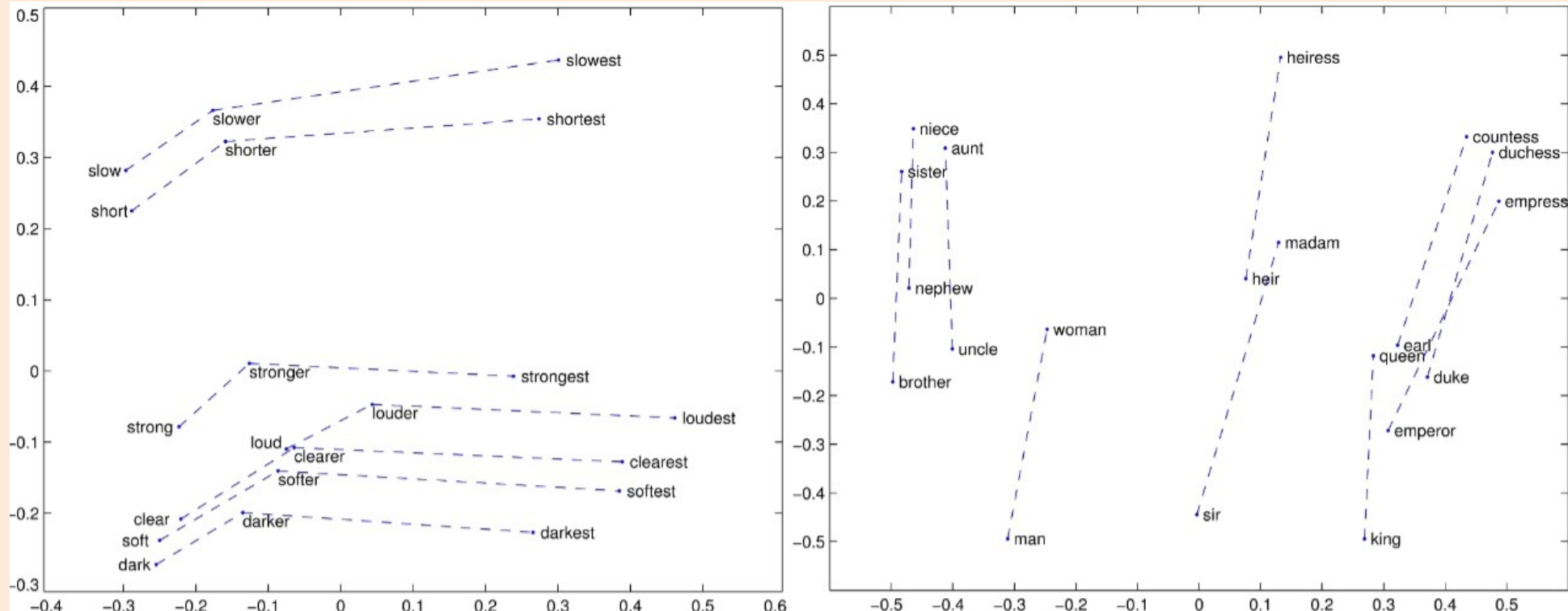
- In both cases, each word 'i' is represented by a vector  $z_i$ .
- In **continuous bag of words (CBOW)**, we optimize the following likelihood:

$$p(x_i | x_{\text{surround}}) = \prod_{j \in \text{surround}} p(x_i | x_j) \quad (\text{independence assumption})$$
$$= \prod_{j \in \text{surround}} \frac{\exp(z_i^T z_j)}{\sum_{c=1}^K \exp(z_c^T z_j)} \quad (\text{softmax over all words})$$

- Apply gradient descent to logarithm:
  - Encourages  $z_i^T z_j$  to be big for words in same context (making  $z_i$  close to  $z_j$ ).
  - Encourages  $z_i^T z_j$  to be small for words not appearing in same context (makes  $z_i$  and  $z_j$  far).
- For **CBOW**, denominator sums over all words.
- For **skip-gram** it will be over **all possible surrounding words**.
  - Common trick to speed things up: sample terms in denominator (“negative sampling”).

# Word2Vec Example

- MDS visualization of a set of related words:



- Distances between vectors might represent semantics.

# Word2Vec

- Subtracting word vectors to find related vectors.

Table 8: *Examples of the word pair relationships, using the best word vectors from Table 4 (Skip-gram model trained on 783M words with 300 dimensionality).*

| Relationship         | Example 1           | Example 2         | Example 3            |
|----------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| France - Paris       | Italy: Rome         | Japan: Tokyo      | Florida: Tallahassee |
| big - bigger         | small: larger       | cold: colder      | quick: quicker       |
| Miami - Florida      | Baltimore: Maryland | Dallas: Texas     | Kona: Hawaii         |
| Einstein - scientist | Messi: midfielder   | Mozart: violinist | Picasso: painter     |
| Sarkozy - France     | Berlusconi: Italy   | Merkel: Germany   | Koizumi: Japan       |
| copper - Cu          | zinc: Zn            | gold: Au          | uranium: plutonium   |
| Berlusconi - Silvio  | Sarkozy: Nicolas    | Putin: Medvedev   | Obama: Barack        |
| Microsoft - Windows  | Google: Android     | IBM: Linux        | Apple: iPhone        |
| Microsoft - Ballmer  | Google: Yahoo       | IBM: McNealy      | Apple: Jobs          |
| Japan - sushi        | Germany: bratwurst  | France: tapas     | USA: pizza           |

Table 8 shows words that follow various relationships. We follow the approach described above: the relationship is defined by subtracting two word vectors, and the result is added to another word. Thus for example,  $Paris - France + Italy = Rome$ . As it can be seen, accuracy is quite good, although

- Word vectors for 157 languages [here](#).

# Multiple Word Prototypes

- What about **homonyms** and **polysemy**?
  - The word vectors would **need to account for all meanings.**
- More recent approaches:
  - Try to **cluster the different contexts** where words appear.
  - Use **different vectors for different contexts.**

$$X_{\text{jaguar}} \approx \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} z_{j1} \\ z_{j2} \\ z_{j3} \end{matrix}$$

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