

# Data-dependent and a priori representations

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# Outline

## 1 Lecture 3: Data-dependent Representations

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# Diversity of basis representations

- Let us start by recalling that a **basis** is a set of linearly independent vectors which can represent every vector in a given vector space through their linear combinations.
- An **orthogonal basis** for a vector space with an inner product, is a basis with vectors which are mutually orthogonal (perpendicular). If the vectors of an orthogonal basis are of length (norm) 1, the resulting basis is an **orthonormal basis (ONB)**.
- Many examples of bases exist in a given Euclidean  $D$ -dimensional vector space, ranging from classical 0 – 1 bases, through Fourier, Gabor, wavelet, shearlet, curvelet, etc etc.

# Fourier Basis

Given  $D > 0$ , define the following  $D \times D$  matrix:

$$F(m, n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} e^{2\pi imn/D}, \quad m, n = 0, \dots, D - 1.$$

The columns (or rows) of this matrix form an orthonormal basis for the space of  $D$ -dimensional complex vectors  $\mathbb{C}^D$ . This basis is called the **Fourier basis**. And the matrix  $F$  is known as the Discrete Fourier Transform. Clearly  $F$  is a unitary matrix, and as such invertible.

# Bases

The role of a basis is to allow us to **represent** elements of the vector space in terms of sequences of scalars (numbers), which are called vector coordinates. This is an important step, because thanks to this **representation**, abstract or complicated objects obtain a uniform mathematical format. The reason for this may not necessarily be clear when we think of the most typical example of a vector space:  $d$ -dimensional Euclidean vector space. This is because the Euclidean space is not just a good example of a vector space, it is also a prototypical example, and last but not least - a finite dimensional vector space.

Infinite dimensional vector spaces provide us with more intriguing examples of objects, and the role of a basis which allows us to replace these complicated objects by sequences of numbers becomes much more clear.

- Vector spaces of polynomials;
- Function spaces (Lipschitz, integrable, finite energy functions, etc.)

# From data to frame operators

- Given data space  $X$  of  $N$  vectors  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ . Without loss of generality, assume  $\sum x_n = 0$  (subtract mean).
- Let  $P$  be  $D \times N$  matrix whose columns are the data vectors  $x_n$ .
- Let  $\mathbb{H} = \text{span}\{x_n\}_{n=1}^N \subseteq \mathbb{R}^D$ . Define  $L : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ ,

$$v \mapsto P^* v = L(v) = \{\langle v, x_n \rangle\} \in \mathbb{R}^N,$$

and its Hilbert space adjoint  $L^* : \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{H} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^D$ ,

$$w \mapsto L^*(w) = \sum_{n=1}^N w[n]x_n, \quad w = (w[1], w[2], \dots, w[N]).$$

- $L$  is the *Bessel (analysis)* operator, and  $L^*$  is the *synthesis* operator.

# The role of covariance

- The frame operator  $S$  can be written as

$$S : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}, v \mapsto \sum_{n=1}^N \langle v, x_n \rangle x_n = (PP^*)v,$$

where  $PP^*$  is  $D \times D$ .

- Hence, up to a scaling factor and a translation,  $S$  is the linear operator identified with the  $D \times D$  symmetric covariance matrix  $C = \frac{1}{N}PP^*$  of the data space, i.e.

$$C = \frac{1}{N} \left( \sum_{j=1}^N x_j[m]x_j[n] \right)_{m,n=1}^D, \quad x_j = (x_j[1], \dots, x_j[D]) \in \mathbb{R}^D.$$



# Principal Component Analysis

- The covariance matrix  $C$  we have just defined is certainly symmetric and also positive semidefinite, since for every vector  $y$ , we have

$$\langle y, Cy \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N |\langle y, x_j \rangle|^2 \geq 0.$$

- Thus,  $C$  can be diagonalized, and its eigenvalues are all nonnegative. If  $K$  denotes the orthogonal matrix that diagonalizes  $C$ , then we have that  $K^*CK$  is diagonal and the whole process of analyzing data using the eigenbases of covariance matrix is known as **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**.  $K$  is also known as principal orthogonal decomposition or Karhunen-Loeve transform.
- The columns of  $K$  are the eigenvectors of  $C$ . The number of positive eigenvalues is the actual number of uncorrelated parameters, or degrees of freedom in the original data set  $X$ . Each eigenvalue is the variance of its degree of freedom.