

# **Introduction to Machine Learning**

# **PCA**

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# Introduction

#### SUGGESTED LITERATURE

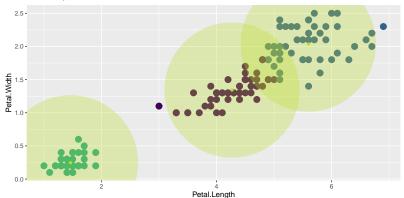
- Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., Friedman, J. (2009): The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction. Springer.
- James, G., Witten, D., Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R. (2013): An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R. Springer.
- Aggarwal, C. C., & Reddy, C. K. (Eds.). (2013). Data Clustering: Algorithms and Applications. CRC press.

#### **UNSUPERVISED LEARNING**

- Supervised machine learning deals with labeled data, i.e., we have input data x and the outcome y of past events.
- Here, the aim is to learn relationships between x and y.
- Unsupervised machine learning deals with data that is unlabeled,
   i.e., there is no real output y.
- Here, the aim is to search for patterns within the inputs x.

# **CLUSTERING TASK**

**Goal:** Group data into similar clusters (or estimate fuzzy membership probabilities)



### **CLUSTERING: CUSTOMER SEGMENTATION**

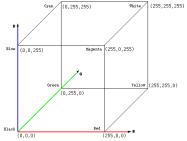
- In marketing, customer segmentation is an important task to understand customer needs and to meet with customer expectations.
- Customer data is partitioned in terms of similiarities and the characteristics of each group are summarized.
- Marketing strategies are designed and prioritized according to the group size.

#### Example Use Cases:

- Personalized ads (e.g., recommend articles).
- Music/Movie recommendation systems.

### **CLUSTERING: IMAGE COMPRESSION**

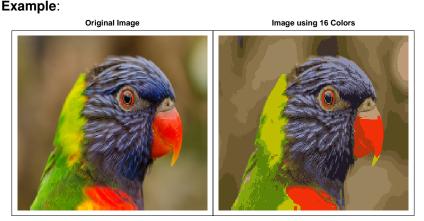
- An image consists of pixels arranged in rows and columns.
- Each pixel contains RGB color information, i.e., a mix of the intensity of 3 primary colors: Red, Green and Blue.
- Each primary color takes intensity values between 0 and 255.



Source: By Ferlixwangg CC BY-SA 4.0, from Wikimedia Commons.

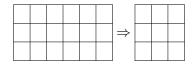
# **CLUSTERING: IMAGE COMPRESSION**

An image can be compressed by reducing its color information, i.e., by replacing similar colors of each pixel with, say, *k* distinct colors.



### **DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION TASK**

**Goal**: Describe data with fewer features (reduce number of columns). ⇒ there will always be an information loss.



#### Unsupervised Methods:

- Principle Component Analysis (PCA).
- Factor Analysis (FA).
- Feature filter methods.

#### Supervised Methods:

- Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA).
- Feature filter methods.

# **Principal Component Analysis**

# **NORMALIZING DATA**

A variable X can be normalized by substracting its values with the mean  $\bar{X}$  and dividing by the standard deviation  $s_X$ , e.g.  $\tilde{X} = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s_X}$ .

# Example:

Consider the following body heights measured in different units:

	Person A	Person B	Person C	mean	sd
body height (cm)	180.00	172.00	175.00	175.67	4.04
body height (m)	1.80	1.72	1.75	1.76	0.04
body height (feet)	5.91	5.64	5.74	5.76	0.13

After normalizing, we always obtain the normalized body height (no matter which unit was used):

	Person A	Person B	Person C	mean	sd
normalized body height	1.07	-0.91	-0.16	0.00	1.00

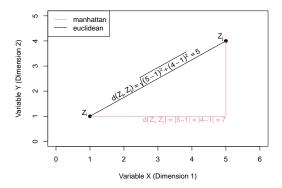
#### **NORMALIZING DATA**

Normalizing all variables in a data set, can have several advantages:

- It puts all variables into *comparable* units, i.e., we make sure that all normalized variables have mean 0 and standard deviation of 1.
- It can avoid numerical instabilities in several algorithms, e.g. if a variable has very low / high values.
- It helps in computing meaningful distances between observations.

# **NORMALIZING DATA: DISTANCES**

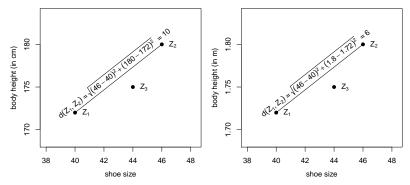
There are many ways to define the distance between two points, e.g.,  $Z_i = (X_i, Y_i)$  and  $Z_j = (X_j, Y_j)$ :



- manhattan: sum up the absolute distances in each dimension.
- euclidean: remember Pythagoras theorem from school?

# NORMALIZING DATA:DISTANCES

It is often a good idea to *normalize* the data before computing distances, especially when the scale of variables is different, e.g. the euclidean distance between the point  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$ :



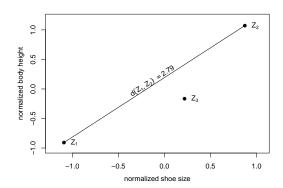
On the right plot, the distance is dominated by shoe size.

# NORMALIZING DATA: DISTANCES

The normalized variable  $\tilde{X}_{\mathtt{shoe.size}}$  is computed by

$$ilde{X}_{ ext{shoe.size}} = rac{X_{ ext{shoe.size}} - ar{X}_{ ext{shoe.size}}}{s_{X_{ ext{shoe.size}}}}.$$

Distances based on normalized data are better comparable and **robust** in terms of linear transformations (e.g., conversion of physical units).



# NORMALIZING: COVARIANCE VS. CORRELATION

The variance of a normalized variable is always 1, its mean is always 0.

The **covariance** of two normalized variables  $\tilde{X} = \frac{X - \bar{X}}{s_X}$  and  $\tilde{Y} = \frac{Y - \bar{Y}}{s_Y}$  is the same as the **correlation** of the non-normalized variables X and Y.

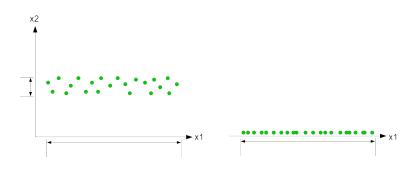
One can proof this with the help of

$$s_{\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\tilde{x}_i - \overline{\tilde{x}})(\tilde{y}_i - \overline{\tilde{y}}) = \ldots = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(x_i - \overline{x})}{s_X} \frac{(y_i - \overline{y})}{s_Y} = r_{XY}.$$

#### **PCA INTUITION**

# Motivational example I:

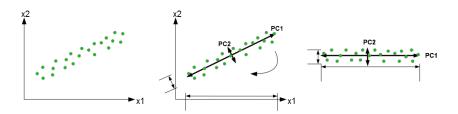
- Variable  $x_1$  explains most of the variation.
- Variable  $x_2$  has a lower variance than  $x_1$ .
- If we disregard  $x_2$  and project the points into the 1-dimensional space of  $x_1$ , we do not lose much information w.r.t. variability.



### **PCA INTUITION**

### Motivational example II:

- $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are correlated and have similar variances.
- Find a new orthogonal axes (e.g. PC1 and PC2), where PC1 explains most of the variation.
- Rotate the points and consider PC1 and PC2 as new coordinate system (situation as in the previous example).
- We can now project points onto PC1 and disregard PC2 (hopefully without losing much information).

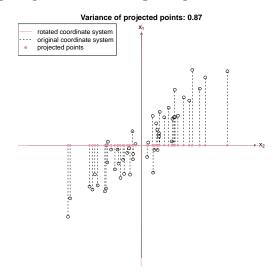


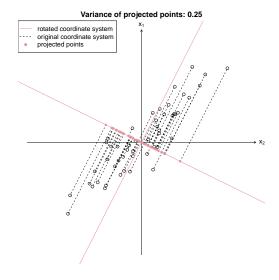
#### **PCA INTUITION**

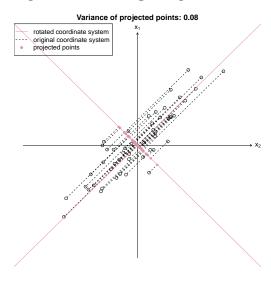
# General procedure:

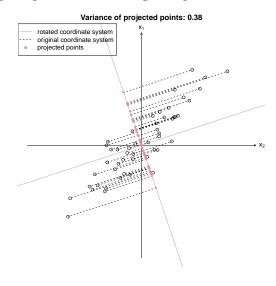
- Rotate the original *p*-dimensional coordinate system until the first PC that explains most of the variation is found.
- ② Fix the first PC and proceed with rotating the remaining p-1 coordinates until the second PC (which is orthogonal to the first PC) is found that explains most of the *remaining* variation, etc.
- **3** We can reduce the dimensions by projecting the points onto the first, say k < p, PC.



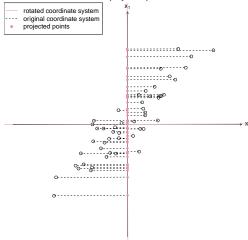


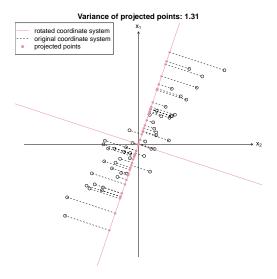


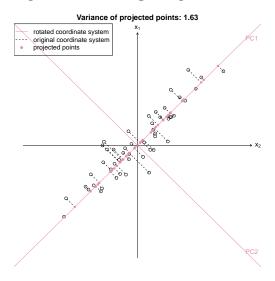






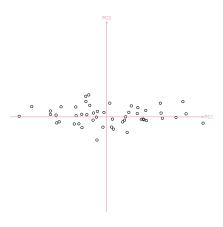






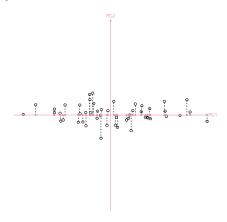
### PCA INTUITION: REDUCE DIMENSIONALITY

Rotate the points and use PC1 and PC2 as new coordinate system. Here, the PC1 axis explains most of the variance:



#### PCA INTUITION: REDUCE DIMENSIONALITY

Dimensionality can be reduced by projecting the points onto the PC1 (and by disregarding PC2). The hope is that we won't lose much information this way.



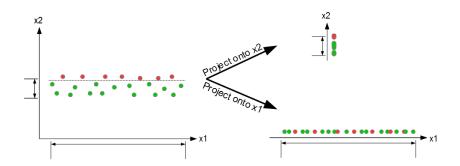
### **PCA INTUITION: SUMMARY**

**Idea:** Transform an original set of correlated metric variables to a new set of uncorrelated (orthogonal) metric variables, called principal components (PC), that explain the variability in the data.

- The objective is to investigate if only a few PC account for most of the variability in the original data.
- If the objective is fulfilled, we can use fewer PCs to reduce the dimensionality.
- The PCs remove collinearity of the input variables as they are orthogonal to each other.

# PCA INTUITION: FINAL REMARKS

- PCA is used for dimensionality reduction by disregaring dimensions with lower variability.
- There is always an information loss, especially for other criteria.
- E.g., dimensionality reduciton can worsen the classification accuracy when the task is to classify two groups:



#### DERIVING THE FIRST PC MATHEMATICALLY

Aim: Find a new set of variables (PC scores)  $\mathbf{pc}_1, \dots, \mathbf{pc}_p$  based on the original data  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p]$  so that

• each PC score  $\mathbf{pc}_1, \dots, \mathbf{pc}_p$  is a linear combination of the original metric variables with coefficient weights (so-called **loading vectors**)  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_p$ , i.e.

$$\mathbf{pc}_i = a_{i1}\mathbf{x}_1 + a_{i2}\mathbf{x}_2 + \ldots + a_{ip}\mathbf{x}_p = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{a}_i.$$

- the set is mutually uncorrelated:  $Cov(\mathbf{pc}_i, \mathbf{pc}_k) = 0, \ \forall j \neq k.$
- the variances of the PC scores decrease:

$$\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \ldots > \lambda_p$$
, where  $\lambda_k := Var(\mathbf{pc}_k)$ .

#### DERIVING THE FIRST PC MATHEMATICALLY

We look for the loading vector  $\mathbf{a}_1 = (a_{11}, a_{21}, \dots, a_{p1})^{\top}$  that maximizes the variance of  $\mathbf{pc}_1$ :

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{a}_1} \ \textit{Var}(\boldsymbol{pc}_1) = \textit{Var}(\boldsymbol{Xa}_1) = \boldsymbol{a}_1^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{a}_1$$

subject to the normalization constraint  $\mathbf{a}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{a}_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{k1}^2 = 1$ .

The constraint is required for identifiability reasons, otherwise we could maximize the variance by just increasing the values in  $\mathbf{a}_1$ .

Repeat this maximization step for the other PCs and additionally use the orthogonality constraint, i.e. for the second PC:

$$\mathbf{a}_{2}^{\top}\mathbf{a}_{1}=0.$$

#### **EXAMPLE: THE OLYMPIC HEPTATHLON DATA**

The heptathlon data set in the R package "HSAUR3" contains the competition results of 25 athletes in 7 disciplines for the Olympics held in Seoul in 1988.

```
## install.packages("HSAUR3")
data(heptathlon, package = "HSAUR3")
```

**Aim**: Rank the athletes according to their overall performance in all 7 disciplines.

**Idea**: Use PCA to reduce the dimensionality (i.e., reduce the results of the 7 disciplines to one dimension) and compare the scores of the first PC with the official scores.

### **EXAMPLE: THE OLYMPIC HEPTATHLON DATA**

#### Variables of the heptathlon data:

- hurdles: results 100m hurdles (in seconds).
- highjump: results high jump (in m).
- shot: results shot putt (in m).
- run200m: results 200m race (in seconds).
- longjump: results long jump (in m).
- javelin: results javelin (in m).
- run800m: results 800m race (in seconds).
- score: total score of the official scoring system.

#### **EXAMPLE: THE OLYMPIC HEPTATHLON DATA**

The variables hurdles, run200m and run800m are time measurements, i.e. low values are better. For all other variables high values are better.

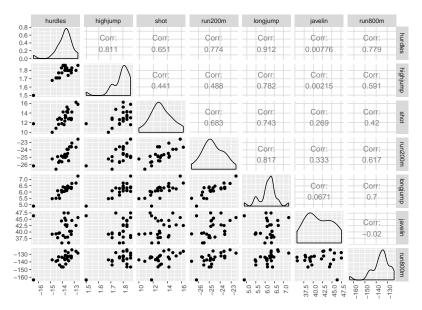
#### Results of the best and worst participant:

	hurdles	highjump	shot	run200m	longjump	javelin	run800m	score
Joyner-Kersee (USA)	12.69	1.86	15.80	22.56	7.27	45.66	128.5	7291
Launa (PNG)	16.42	1.50	11.78	26.16	4.88	46.38	163.4	4566

We use negative time measurements so that higher values are better and therefore all variables have the same direction:

	hurdles	highjump	shot	run200m	longjump	javelin	run800m	score
Joyner-Kersee (USA)	-12.69	1.86	15.80	-22.56	7.27	45.66	-128.5	7291
Launa (PNG)	-16.42	1.50	11.78	-26.16	4.88	46.38	-163.4	4566

# **SCATTER PLOT MATRIX**



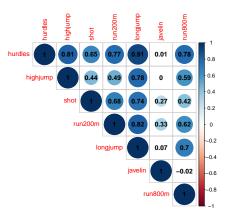
### **CORRELATION MATRIX**

We can compute all pairwise correlations of the variables (without the score column):

```
hurdles highjump shot run200m longjump
                                                     javelin
                                                              run800m
##
  hurdles 1.000000 0.811403 0.6513
                                           0.91213
                                                    0.007763
                                                              0.77926
                                    0.7737
  highjump 0.811403 1.000000 0.4408
                                    0.4877
                                           0.78244 0.002153
                                                              0.59116
  shot
           0.651335 0.440786 1.0000
                                    0.6827
                                           0.74307
                                                    0.268989
                                                              0.41962
  run200m 0.773721 0.487664 0.6827
                                    1.0000
                                           0.81721 0.333043
                                                              0.61681
  longjump 0.912134 0.782442 0.7431
                                    0.8172
                                           1.00000 0.067108
                                                              0.69951
## javelin 0.007763 0.002153 0.2690
                                    0.3330
                                           0.06711 1.000000 -0.02005
## run800m
          0.779257 0.591163 0.4196
                                    0.6168
                                           0.69951 - 0.020049
                                                              1.00000
```

## **CORRELOGRAM**

```
library(corrplot)
corrplot(cor.mat, type = "upper", addCoef.col = "black")
```



# PERFORM PCA USING PRINCOMP()

Remember: The first PC is the linear combination

$$\mathbf{pc}_1 = a_{11}\mathbf{x}_1 + a_{12}\mathbf{x}_2 + \cdots + a_{1p}\mathbf{x}_p$$

and has the largest sample variance among all other PCs.

- In R, the princomp() function carries out a PCA via an eigendecomposition of the sample covariance matrix Σ.
- If variables are on very different scales, PCA should be carried out on the correlation matrix (which is equivalent to the correlation matrix if normalized variables are used).

# PERFORM PCA USING PRINCOMP()

As the variables of the heptathlon data are on different scales, we perform the PCA based on the correlation matrix.

```
hept.pca = princomp(heptathlon[, -8], cor = TRUE)
```

Alternatively, we could also perform the PCA based on the covariance matrix but on the normalized heptathlon data.

The resulting object of princomp() contains at least:

- The loadings  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_p$ ,
- The PC scores  $\mathbf{pc}_1, \dots, \mathbf{pc}_p$  and
- The variance  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$  (or standard deviation) of the PC scores.

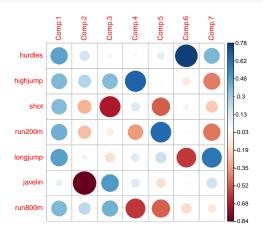
# The loadings $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_p$ are contained in

hept.pca\$loadings

	Comp.1	Comp.2	Comp.3	Comp.4	Comp.5	Comp.6	Comp.7
hurdles	0.45	0.16	0.05	0.03	0.09	0.78	0.38
highjump	0.38	0.25	0.37	0.68	-0.02	-0.10	-0.43
shot	0.36	-0.29	-0.68	0.12	-0.51	0.05	-0.22
run200m	0.41	-0.26	-0.08	-0.36	0.65	-0.02	-0.45
longjump	0.46	0.06	-0.14	0.11	0.18	-0.59	0.61
javelin	0.08	-0.84	0.47	0.12	-0.14	0.03	0.17
run800m	0.37	0.22	0.40	-0.60	-0.50	-0.16	-0.10

Visualize the coefficient weights (loadings) of the linear combinations of the PC scores:

corrplot(hept.pca\$loadings, is.corr = FALSE)



#### Check the normalization constraint of the first PC:

```
(a1 = hept.pca$loadings[, 1]) # loadings of the first PC

## hurdles highjump shot run200m longjump javelin run800m
## 0.45287 0.37720 0.36307 0.40790 0.45623 0.07541 0.37496

a1 %*% a1 # check constraint: is sum of squares equal to legin{vbframe}?

## [,1]
## [1,] 1
```

### Check the orthogonality constraint of the first two PCs:

```
(a2 = hept.pca$loadings[, 2]) # loadings of the second PC

## hurdles highjump shot run200m longjump javelin run800m

## 0.15792 0.24807 -0.28941 -0.26039 0.05587 -0.84169 0.22449

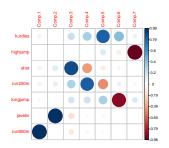
a1 %*% a2 # check if 1st and 2nd PC are orthogonal

## [,1]

## [1,] 5.551e-17
```

If we perform PCA on the covariance matrix (without normalizing the data), each component mainly loads on a single variable:

```
hept.pca.cov = princomp(heptathlon[, -8], cor = FALSE)
corrplot(hept.pca.cov$loadings, is.corr = FALSE)
```



Reason: Variables have very different scales (e.g., time measurement of 200m and 800m run).

## PROPORTION OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE

 The total variance of the p PC scores is equal the total variance of the original variables, i.e.,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{p} \lambda_{j} = s_{1}^{2} + s_{2}^{2} + \cdots + s_{p}^{2},$$

where  $\lambda_j$  is the variance of the *j*th PC and  $s_j^2$  is the sample variance of variable  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .

• The proportion of explained variance of the j-th PC is

$$\frac{\lambda_j}{\sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_j}$$
.

• The first k PCs account for a proportion

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j}{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_j}.$$

### PROPORTION OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE

In R, the proportion of explained variance can be obtained by

```
## Importance of components:

## Comp.1 Comp.2 Comp.3 Comp.4

## Standard deviation 2.1119 1.0928 0.72181 0.67614

## Proportion of Variance 0.6372 0.1706 0.07443 0.06531

## Cumulative Proportion 0.6372 0.8078 0.88223 0.94754

## Comp.5 Comp.6 Comp.7

## Standard deviation 0.49524 0.27010 0.2214

## Proportion of Variance 0.03504 0.01042 0.0070

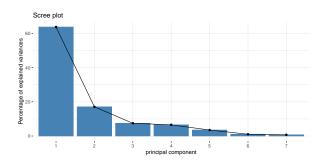
## Cumulative Proportion 0.98258 0.99300 1.0000
```

Question: How do we choose the number of PCs?

## CHOOSING THE NUMBER OF PCS

Two simple rules of thumb for choosing the number of PCs:

- Retain the first *k* components, which explain a large proportion of the total variation, e.g., 70-80%.
- ② Use a scree plot: Plot the component variances vs. the component number and look for an *elbow*. For components after the *elbow*, the variance decreases more slowly.



## PC SCORES VS. OFFICIAL SCORES

The first PC explains 63,72% of the variation, the loadings of the first PC are:

```
hept.pca$loadings[,1]

## hurdles highjump shot run200m longjump javelin run800m

## 0.45287 0.37720 0.36307 0.40790 0.45623 0.07541 0.37496
```

## Dimensionality reduction:

- Project all 8 features onto the first PC.
- Compare the scores of the first PC with the official scores used to rank the athletes.

## PC SCORES VS. OFFICIAL SCORES

The scores of the first PC  $pc_1$  have a similar ranking as the scores of the official scoring system, i.e., we can reduce the dimension to the first PC without losing much information:

