

# **Introduction to Machine Learning**

# **PCA**

Bernd Bischl, Christoph Molnar, Daniel Schalk, Fabian Scheipl

Department of Statistics - LMU Munich

# Introduction

#### SUGGESTED LITERATURE

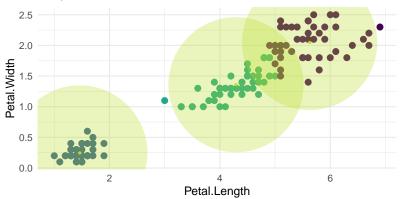
- Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., Friedman, J. (2009): The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction.
  Springer.
- James, G., Witten, D., Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R. (2013): An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R. Springer.
- Aggarwal, C. C., & Reddy,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

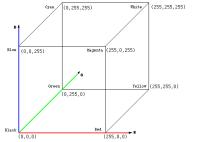
- In marketing, customer segmentation is an important task to understand customer needs and to meet with customer expectations.
- Customer data is partitioned in terms of similiarities and the characteristics of each group are summarized.
- Marketing strategies are designed and prioritized according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

#### Example Use Cases:

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

### **CLUSTERING: IMAGE COMPRESSION**

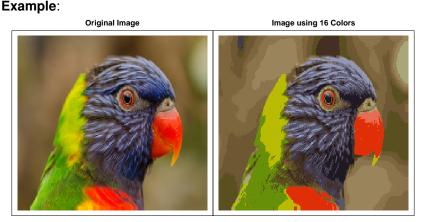
- An image consists of pixels arranged in rows and columns.
- Each pixel contains RGB color information, i.e., a mix of the intensity of 3 primary colors: Red, Green and Blue.
- Each primary color takes intensity values between 0 and 255.



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

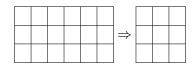
# **CLUSTERING: IMAGE COMPRESSION**

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**

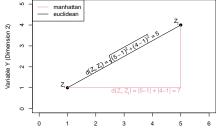
Normalizing all variables in a data set, can have several advantages:

- 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.,

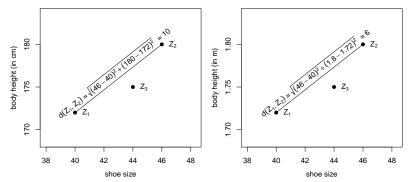
 $Z_i = (X_i, Y_i)$  and  $Z_j = (X_j, Y_j)$ :



- 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  $Z_2$ :



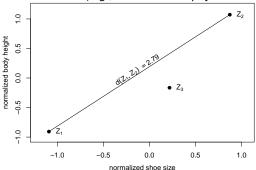
On the right plot, the distance is dominated by "shoe size".

# **NORMALIZING DATA: DISTANCES**

The normalized variable  $\tilde{X}_{\text{shoe.size}}$  is computed by <!- Normalization of the shoe.size variable means: ->

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

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

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