

Principal Component Analysis

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Necessity of Feature Reduction

Curse of dimensionality

✓ Avoid Curse of Dimensionality:

- High-dimensional data often leads to sparse distributions, reducing model performance

✓ Improve Computational Efficiency:

- Lower-dimensional representations reduce the time and resources required for training and inference

✓ Enhance Generalization:

- Reducing noise and irrelevant features prevents over-fitting and improves model accuracy

Focus

Understand a feature reduction technique, called **Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**

→ no correlation, dimensionality reduction

Intuition for Selecting a New Set of Features

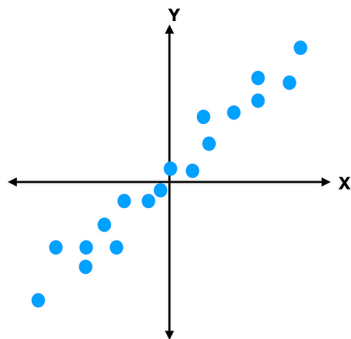
- ✓ Features should provide clear separability for data points:
 - Ensure high variance along each feature direction
- ✓ Each feature should contribute unique information:
 - Features must be uncorrelated (covariance between features = 0)
- ✓ Dimensionality reduction should preserve essential information:
 - Minimize information loss during the reduction process

PCA is an unsupervised linear feature reduction technique that aligns with the intuition for selecting a new set of features

Introducing Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- **Clear Separability Through Variance:** *# variance maximise*
 - PCA identifies principal components by maximizing variance along new orthogonal axes, ensuring that the data points are distributed distinctly in the transformed feature space
- **Capturing Unique Information:**
 - By constructing uncorrelated principal components (zero covariance), PCA ensures that each component contributes non-redundant information about the data
- **Minimizing Information Loss:**
 - PCA ranks components based on their contribution to total variance, allowing for dimensionality reduction while preserving most of the essential information
- **Efficient Dimensionality Reduction:**
 - Reduces the number of features, addressing issues of high dimensionality such as sparsity, computational complexity, and overfitting

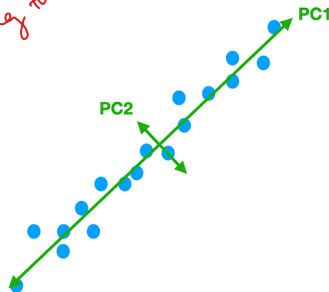
Visualization



Original Variables

PCA
→

*It Maximise
the variance
along the orthogonal
axis*



Principle Components

- Consider x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m as m data points
- Each data point $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is represented as an n -dimensional vector
- Let $X_{m \times n}$ represent the data matrix, where x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m are the rows of X
- Assumption: The data is preprocessed to have 0-mean and unit variance:
 - Feature scaling is performed using standardization

$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots, x_m$ ← data points

$x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$

data $\mu = 0$
variance = 1

feature scaling is necessary because if they are not scaled, larger number will dominate the variance.



PCA
↓
feature scaling needed

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- Each data point $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is represented as an n -dimensional vector
- Let $X_{m \times n}$ represent the data matrix, where x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m are the rows of X
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PCA applies a linear transformation to project the data onto a new coordinate system

- Let z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n denote a set of n orthonormal vectors forming the new basis
- Define Z as an $n \times n$ matrix where z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n are the column vectors
- Using this new basis, each x_i can be expressed as: $x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij} z_j$

We aim to derive Z that satisfies feature reduction criteria while balancing dimensionality reduction and information retention

$$x_i = \alpha_{i1}z_1 + \alpha_{i2}z_2 + \dots + \alpha_{in}z_n$$

The z_i 's being orthonormal exhibit the following characteristics:

$$\langle z_i, z_j \rangle = 0, \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

$$\|z_i\| = \langle z_i, z_i \rangle = 1, \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Thus, for an orthonormal basis, the coefficients α_{ij} can be expressed as:

$$\alpha_{ij} = \langle x_i, z_j \rangle = \left[\leftarrow x_i^T \rightarrow \right] \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow \\ z_j \\ \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

The transformed data \hat{x}_i is given by:

$$\hat{x}_i^T = x_i^T Z = \left[\leftarrow x_i^T \rightarrow \right] \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \dots & \uparrow \\ z_1 & z_2 & \dots & z_n \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \dots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

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Thus, the transformed data \hat{X} is given by:

$$\hat{X} = XZ = \begin{bmatrix} \leftarrow x_1^T \rightarrow \\ \leftarrow x_2^T \rightarrow \\ \vdots \\ \leftarrow x_m^T \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ z_1 & z_2 & \dots & z_n \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

We aim for the covariance between the features of the transformed data to be zero.

Covariance Matrix of X

The covariance matrix of X , denoted Σ , is given by:

covariance

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} X^T X$$

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Each entry Σ_{ij} represents the covariance between the i^{th} and j^{th} columns of X . [▶ Proof](#)

We aim for the covariance between the features of the transformed data to be zero.

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Covariance Matrix of Transformed Data \hat{X}

The covariance matrix of the transformed data \hat{X} , denoted $\hat{\Sigma}$, is given by:

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{m} \hat{X}^T \hat{X}$$

Since X has zero-mean columns and $\hat{X} = XZ$, the columns of \hat{X} will also have zero mean. [► Proof](#)

We aim for covariance between features of transformed data to be zero.

We can derive the following expression for the covariance matrix of the transformed data:

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{m} \hat{X}^\top \hat{X} = \frac{1}{m} (XZ)^\top (XZ) = \frac{1}{m} Z^\top X^\top X Z = Z^\top \left(\frac{1}{m} X^\top X \right) Z = Z^\top \Sigma Z$$

Each element $\hat{\Sigma}_{ij}$ of the covariance matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$ represents the covariance between the i^{th} and j^{th} columns of \hat{X} .

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Each element $\hat{\Sigma}_{ij}$ of the covariance matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$ represents the covariance between the i^{th} and j^{th} columns of \hat{X} .

We want the following conditions to hold:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ij} = \left(\frac{1}{m} \hat{X}^T \hat{X} \right)_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ij} = \left(\frac{1}{m} \hat{X}^T \hat{X} \right)_{ij} \neq 0 \quad \text{for } i = j$$

This implies that we want: $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{m} \hat{X}^T \hat{X} = Z^T \Sigma Z = \mathcal{D}$, where \mathcal{D} is a diagonal matrix.

We aim to ensure that the covariance between the features of the transformed data is zero.

To achieve this, we want $Z^T \Sigma Z$ to be a diagonal matrix \mathcal{D} .

- $\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} X^T X$ is a square symmetric matrix of dimension $n \times n$.
- Z is an orthogonal matrix.

Which orthogonal matrix diagonalizes Σ ?

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Which orthogonal matrix diagonalizes Σ ?

The matrix Z , whose columns are the eigenvectors of Σ .

► Explanation

Why do the vectors in Z form a good basis?

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Which orthogonal matrix diagonalizes Σ ?

The matrix Z , whose columns are the eigenvectors of Σ .

► Explanation

Why do the vectors in Z form a good basis?

- Because the eigenvectors of Σ are linearly independent:
 - A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with distinct eigenvalues has linearly independent eigenvectors.
- Because the eigenvectors of Σ are orthogonal:
 - The eigenvectors of a square symmetric matrix are orthogonal.

► Explanation

This method is called Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for transforming the data to a new basis where the dimensions are non-redundant (low covariance) and not noisy (high variance).

In practice, we select only top-k dimensions along which the variance is high.

Self-study: Scree Plot

Our next objective is to minimize the information loss.

- Given n orthogonal linearly independent vectors $Z = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$, we can represent x_i exactly as a linear combination of these vectors:

$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij} z_j$$

where α_{ij} are the coefficients

- Top- k Dimensional Approximation: We are interested in reducing noisy and redundant dimensions by keeping only the top- k dimensions. The approximated vector \hat{x}_i is given by:

$$\hat{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j$$

- We aim to select z_j such that the reconstruction error e is minimized:

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m ((x_i - \hat{x}_i)^\top (x_i - \hat{x}_i))$$

where m is the total number of data points

- The reconstruction error e is given by:

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \hat{x}_i)^\top (x_i - \hat{x}_i)$$

Substituting $\hat{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j$, we get:

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(x_i - \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j \right)^\top \left(x_i - \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j \right)$$

Expanding, we obtain:

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (\alpha_{ij} z_j)^\top (\alpha_{ij} z_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (\alpha_{ij}^2 \|z_j\|^2) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (x_i^\top z_j)^2$$

- The reconstruction error e is given by:

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \hat{x}_i)^\top (x_i - \hat{x}_i)$$

Substituting $\hat{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j$, we get:

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(x_i - \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j \right)^\top \left(x_i - \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_{ij} z_j \right)$$

Expanding, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} e &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (\alpha_{ij} z_j)^\top (\alpha_{ij} z_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (\alpha_{ij}^2 \|z_j\|^2) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (x_i^\top z_j)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^n (z_j^\top x_i) (x_i^\top z_j) = \sum_{j=k+1}^n z_j^\top \left(\sum_{i=1}^m x_i x_i^\top \right) z_j = \sum_{j=k+1}^n z_j^\top (m \Sigma) z_j \end{aligned}$$

We aim to minimize the error:

$$\min_{z_{k+1}, z_{k+2}, \dots, z_n} \sum_{j=k+1}^n z_j^\top (m\Sigma) z_j$$

subject to the constraint:

$$z_j^\top z_j = 1 \quad \forall j = k+1, k+2, \dots, n$$

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subject to the constraint:

$$z_j^\top z_j = 1 \quad \forall j = k+1, k+2, \dots, n$$

Solution

- The solution to the above problem is given by the eigenvectors corresponding to the **smallest eigenvalues of Σ**
- Thus, we select $Z = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$ as the eigenvectors of Σ and retain only the top- k eigenvectors to express the data (or discard the eigenvectors z_{k+1}, \dots, z_n).

► Explanation

Our final goal is to maximize the variance along the chosen feature direction.

The i^{th} dimension of the transformed data \hat{X} can be expressed as:

$$\hat{X}_i = Xz_i$$

The variance along this dimension is calculated as:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ii} = \frac{1}{m} \hat{X}_i^\top \hat{X}_i = \frac{1}{m} (Xz_i)^\top (Xz_i) = \frac{1}{m} z_i^\top X^\top X z_i = z_i^\top \left(\frac{1}{m} X^\top X \right) z_i = z_i^\top \lambda_i z_i$$

where z_i is the eigenvector of $\frac{1}{m} X^\top X$. Therefore, $\left(\frac{1}{m} X^\top X \right) z_i = \lambda_i z_i$

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ii} = \lambda_i z_i^\top z_i = \lambda_i \quad (\text{Since } z_i^\top z_i = 1)$$

Conclusion

Thus, the variance along the i^{th} dimension, which corresponds to the eigenvector of $\frac{1}{m} X^\top X$, is determined by the associated eigenvalue. Therefore, we make the correct choice by discarding the dimensions (eigenvectors) linked to smaller eigenvalues!

Summary

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is
 - A dimensionality reduction technique
 - Used to transform data into a new coordinate system
- The key objectives of PCA are:
 - ✓ • **Maximize Variance:** It identifies new axes (principal components) that capture the maximum variance in the data, helping to retain important information while reducing dimensionality.
 - ✓ • **Minimize Covariance:** PCA ensures that the transformed dimensions are uncorrelated, minimizing the covariance between them.
 - ✓ • **Feature Reduction:** By selecting the top principal components, PCA reduces the number of dimensions required to represent the data, focusing on the most significant features.
- In essence, PCA helps in simplifying complex data, making it easier to analyze and visualize, while preserving its core structure.

Thank You!

The covariance matrix Σ of X is given by: $\Sigma = \frac{1}{m}X^T X$

Each entry Σ_{ij} represents the covariance between i^{th} and j^{th} columns of X .

Let μ_i and μ_j represent the means of the i^{th} and j^{th} columns of X , respectively, which are both zero since the data has been preprocessed to have zero mean.

By the definition of covariance, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma_{ij} &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m (X_{ki} - \mu_i)(X_{kj} - \mu_j) \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m X_{ki} X_{kj} \quad (\because \mu_i = \mu_j = 0) \\ &= \frac{1}{m} X_i^T X_j \\ &= \frac{1}{m} (X^T X)_{ij}\end{aligned}$$

Zero-Mean Columns in \hat{X}

If X is a matrix such that its columns are zero-mean and $\hat{X} = XZ$, then the columns of \hat{X} will also be zero-mean.

- Let $\mathbf{1}$ represent an m -dimensional column vector with entries equal to 1.
- The product $\mathbf{1}^\top X$ results in a row vector, where the i^{th} entry is the sum of the i^{th} column of X .
- Since the columns of X are zero-centered, we have $\mathbf{1}^\top X = 0$.

Consider the following:

$$\mathbf{1}^\top \hat{X} = \mathbf{1}^\top XZ = (\mathbf{1}^\top X)Z = 0$$

Thus, the transformed matrix \hat{X} also has columns with zero-sum.

- Let u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n be the eigenvectors of a matrix A and let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ be the corresponding eigenvalues
- Consider a matrix U whose columns are u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n

$$\begin{aligned}
 AU &= A \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_n \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ Au_1 & Au_2 & \dots & Au_n \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \lambda_1 u_1 & \lambda_2 u_2 & \dots & \lambda_n u_n \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_n \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = U\Lambda
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Lambda = U^{-1}AU$$

U^{-1} exists if columns of U are linearly independent

Λ is a diagonal matrix

» Go back

Theorem

The eigenvectors of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent.

- Let u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r be the eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r$ of an $n \times n$ matrix A . The set $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$ is linearly independent.
- ****Assumption:**** Suppose $U = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$ is linearly dependent. Let us order the set U such that u_{p+1} is the first vector in the set that can be expressed as:

$$u_{p+1} = c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2 + \dots + c_p u_p, \quad c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p \in \mathbb{R}, \quad (1)$$

- ****Being an eigenvector:****

$$A u_{p+1} = \lambda_{p+1} u_{p+1}, \quad (2)$$

- Multiplying A on both sides of (1):

$$A u_{p+1} = c_1 (A u_1) + c_2 (A u_2) + \dots + c_p (A u_p)$$

- Using the eigenvalue equation $Au_i = \lambda_i u_i$, we have:

$$Au_{p+1} = c_1(\lambda_1 u_1) + c_2(\lambda_2 u_2) + \dots + c_p(\lambda_p u_p), \quad (3)$$

- Multiplying λ_{p+1} on both sides of (1) and subtracting it from (3):

$$0 = c_1(\lambda_1 - \lambda_{p+1})u_1 + c_2(\lambda_2 - \lambda_{p+1})u_2 + \dots + c_p(\lambda_p - \lambda_{p+1})u_p, \quad (4)$$

- Since the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p, \lambda_{p+1}$ are distinct, $(\lambda_i - \lambda_{p+1}) \neq 0$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$. This implies that the coefficients c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p must all be zero for the equality to hold. This contradicts the assumption that u_{p+1} is linearly dependent, proving that $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$ is linearly independent.

►► Go back

Theorem

The eigenvectors of a square symmetric matrix corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

Let x and y be eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, corresponding to eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 , respectively, with $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$. Then:

$$Ax = \lambda_1 x \quad \text{and} \quad Ay = \lambda_2 y.$$

Since A is symmetric ($A = A^T$):

$$y^T Ax = \lambda_1 y^T x \quad \text{and} \quad x^T A^T y = \lambda_2 x^T y.$$

Subtracting these two equations:

$$y^T Ax - x^T A^T y = \lambda_1 y^T x - \lambda_2 x^T y.$$

Using the symmetry of the scalar product ($y^T x = x^T y$):

$$0 = (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) y^T x.$$

Since $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, it must be that:

$$y^T x = 0.$$

Thus, x and y are orthogonal.

» Go back

Theorem

Each covariance matrix is positive semi-definite:

$$a^T \Sigma_{XX} a \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } a \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Proof:

The covariance matrix of X can be expressed in terms of expected values as:

$$\Sigma_{XX} = \Sigma(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^T]. \quad (1)$$

A matrix M is positive semi-definite if and only if:

$$M \text{ is pos. semi-def.} \iff x^T M x \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (2)$$

For an arbitrary real column vector $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have:

$$a^T \Sigma_{XX} a = a^T \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^T] a. \quad (3)$$

Using the linearity of the expected value, we can rewrite this as:

$$a^\top \Sigma_{XX} a = \mathbb{E}[a^\top (X - \mathbb{E}[X])(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^\top a]. \quad (4)$$

Define the scalar random variable:

$$Y = a^\top (X - \mu_X), \quad (5)$$

where $\mu_X = \mathbb{E}[X]$, and note that:

$$a^\top (X - \mu_X) = (X - \mu_X)^\top a. \quad (6)$$

Substituting this into equation (4), we get:

$$a^\top \Sigma_{XX} a = \mathbb{E}[Y^2]. \quad (7)$$

Since Y^2 is a non-negative random variable, and the expected value of a non-negative random variable is also non-negative, we conclude:

$$a^\top \Sigma_{XX} a \geq 0. \quad (8)$$

Thus, Σ_{XX} is positive semi-definite.

Theorem

If A is a square symmetric $N \times N$ matrix, then:

- The solution to the following optimization problem:

$$\max_x x^T A x \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|x\| = 1$$

is given by the eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue of A .

- The solution to the following optimization problem:

$$\min_x x^T A x \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|x\| = 1$$

is given by the eigenvector corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue of A .

Solving the Optimization Problem Using Lagrange Multipliers

This is a constrained optimization problem that can be solved using Lagrange Multipliers:

$$\mathcal{L} = x^T A x - \lambda(x^T x - 1)$$

Taking the derivative with respect to x :

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} = 2Ax - \lambda(2x) = 0 \implies Ax = \lambda x$$

Hence, x must be an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ .

Critical Points

Multiplying both sides of $Ax = \lambda x$ by x^T :

$$x^T A x = \lambda x^T x = \lambda \quad (\text{since } x^T x = 1).$$

Therefore, the critical points of this constrained problem are the eigenvalues of A .

Conclusion

- The ****maximum value**** of $x^T Ax$ is the largest eigenvalue of A .
- The ****minimum value**** of $x^T Ax$ is the smallest eigenvalue of A .

▶▶ Go back