

Top highlight

Understanding Principal Component Analysis



Rishav Kumar

[Follow](#)

Jan 2, 2018 · 8 min read

The purpose of this post is to give the reader detailed understanding of Principal Component Analysis with the necessary mathematical proofs.

Should be read on big screen. Phone screen doesn't render the png images properly, and images are important. :)

I have used text and formulas in images because medium doesn't support latex. So, I had to export latex to png to display it here.

You can skip the proofs if you don't want to indulge in Linear Algebra.

It's my first medium post and I expect the readers to really try to understand what

I'm showing here.

In real world data analysis tasks we analyze complex data i.e. multi dimensional data. We plot the data and find various patterns in it or use it to train some machine learning models. One way to think about dimensions is that suppose you have an data point \mathbf{x} , if we consider this data point as a physical object then dimensions are merely a basis of view, like where is the data located when it is observed from horizontal axis or vertical axis.

As the dimensions of data increases, the difficulty to visualize it and perform computations on it also increases. So, how to reduce the dimensions of a data-

- * Remove the redundant dimensions
- * Only keep the most important dimensions

break1

First try to understand some terms -

Variance : It is a measure of the variability or it simply measures how spread the data set is. Mathematically, it is the average squared deviation from the mean score. We use the following formula to compute variance $var(x)$.

$$var(x) = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{N} \qquad cov(x, y) = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{N}$$

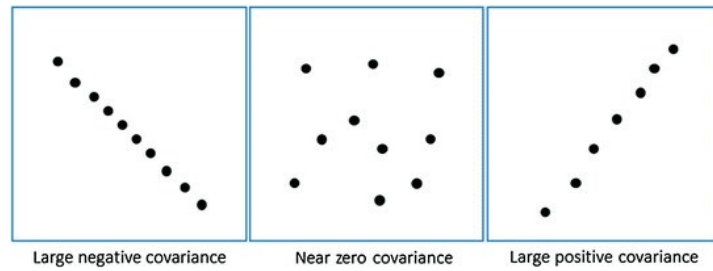
Covariance : It is a measure of the extent to which corresponding elements from two sets of ordered data move in the same direction. Formula is shown

above denoted by $cov(x,y)$ as the covariance of x and y .

Here, x_i is the value of x in i th dimension.

\bar{x} and \bar{y} denote the corresponding mean values.

One way to observe the covariance is how interrelated two data sets are.



Positive covariance means X and Y are positively related i.e. as X increases Y also increases. Negative covariance depicts the exact opposite relation.

However zero covariance means X and Y are not related.

Continue break1

Now let's think about the requirement of data analysis.

Since we try to find the patterns among the data sets so we want the data to be spread out across each dimension. Also, we want the dimensions to be independent. Such that if data has high covariance when represented in some n number of dimensions then we replace those dimensions with *linear combination* of those n dimensions. Now that data will only be dependent on linear combination of those related n dimensions. (*related = have high covariance*)

So, what does Principal Component Analysis (PCA) do?

PCA finds a new set of dimensions (or a set of basis of views) such that all the dimensions are orthogonal (and hence linearly independent) and ranked according to the variance of data along them. It means more important principle axis occurs first. (more important = more variance/more spread out data)

How does PCA work -

1. Calculate the covariance matrix X of data points.
2. Calculate eigen vectors and corresponding eigen values.
3. Sort the eigen vectors according to their eigen values in decreasing order.
4. Choose first k eigen vectors and that will be the new k dimensions.
5. Transform the original n dimensional data points into k dimensions.

To understand the detail working of PCA, you should have knowledge of eigen vectors and eigen values. Please refer to this [visual explanation of eigen vectors and values](#).

Make sure you understand the eigenvectors and eigen values before proceeding

further.

$$[Covariance\ matrix] \cdot [Eigenvector] = [eigenvalue] \cdot [Eigenvector]$$

Assuming we have the knowledge of variance and covariance, Lets look into what a **Covariance matrix** is.

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_a & C_{a,b} & C_{a,c} & C_{a,d} & C_{a,e} \\ C_{a,b} & V_b & C_{b,c} & C_{b,d} & C_{b,e} \\ C_{a,c} & C_{b,c} & V_c & C_{c,d} & C_{c,e} \\ C_{a,d} & C_{b,d} & C_{c,d} & V_d & C_{d,e} \\ C_{a,e} & C_{b,e} & C_{c,e} & C_{d,e} & V_e \end{bmatrix}$$

A covariance matrix of some data set in 4 dimensions a,b,c,d.
Va : variance along dimension a
Ca,b : Covariance along dimension a and b

If we have a matrix X of m*n dimension such that it holds n data points of m dimensions, then covariance matrix can be calculated as

$$C_x = \frac{1}{n-1} (X - \bar{X})(X - \bar{X})^T \quad X^T = \text{Transpose of } X$$

It is important to note that the covariance matrix contains -

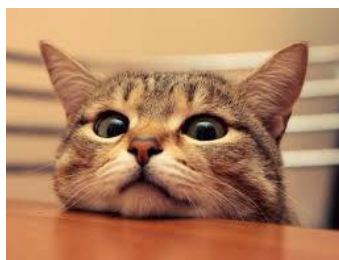
- * variance of dimensions as the main diagonal elements.
- * covariance of dimensions as the off diagonal elements.

Also, covariance matrix is symmetric. (observe from the image above)

As, we discussed earlier we want the data to be spread out i.e. it should have high variance along dimensions. Also we want to remove correlated dimensions i.e. covariance among the dimensions should be zero (they should be linearly independent). Therefore, our covariance matrix should have -

- * large numbers as the main diagonal elements.
- * zero values as the off diagonal elements.

We call it a *diagonal matrix*.



A cat, just to get your attention. :)

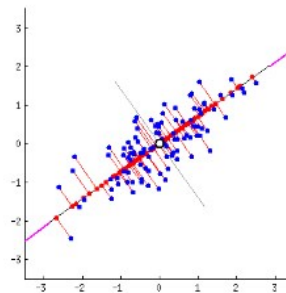
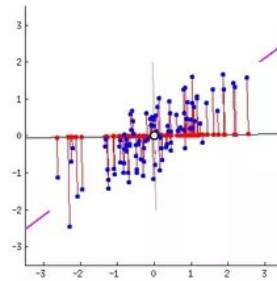
So, we have to transform the original data points such that their covariance is a diagonal matrix. The process of transforming a matrix to diagonal matrix is called *diagonalization*.

Always normalize your data before doing PCA because if we use data(features here) of different scales, we get misleading components. We can also simply use correlation matrix instead of using covariance matrix if features are of different scales. For the simplicity of the post,

This defines the goal of PCA -

1. Find linearly independent dimensions (or basis of views) which can losslessly represent the data points.
2. Those newly found dimensions should allow us to predict/reconstruct the original dimensions. The reconstruction/projection error should be minimized.

Lets try to understand what I mean by projection error. Suppose we have to transform a 2 dimensional representation of data points to a one dimensional representation. So we will basically try to find a straight line and project data points on them. (A straight line is one dimensional). There are many possibilities to select the straight line. Lets see two such possibilities -



Say magenta line will be our new dimension.

If you see the red lines (connecting the projection of blue points on magenta line) i.e. the perpendicular distance of each data point from the straight line is the projection error. Sum of the error of all data points will be the total projection error.

Our new data points will be the projections (red points) of those original blue data points. As we can see we have transformed 2 dimensional data points to one dimensional data points by projection them on 1 dimensional space i.e. a straight line. That magenta straight line is called *principal axis*. Since we are projecting to a single dimension, we have only one principal axis.

Clearly, Second choice of straight line is better because -

- * The projection error is less than that in the first case.
- * Newly projected red points are more widely spread out than the first case. i.e. more variance.

The above mentioned two points are related i.e. if we minimize the reconstruction error, the variance will increase.

How ?

Proof : (Optional) <https://stats.stackexchange.com/questions/32174/pca-objective-function-what-is-the-connection-between-maximizing-variance-and-m/136072#136072>

Steps we have performed so far -

* We have calculated the covariance matrix of original data set matrix **X**.

Now we want to transform the original data points such that the covariance matrix of transformed data points is a diagonal matrix. How to do that ?

$$\begin{aligned} C_x &= \text{covariance matrix of original data set } X \\ C_y &= \text{covariance matrix of transformed data set } Y \\ \text{such that,} \\ Y &= PX \\ \text{For simplicity, we discard the mean term and assume the} \\ \text{data to be centered. i.e. } X &= (X - \bar{X}) \\ \text{So, } C_x &= \frac{1}{n} X X^T \\ C_y &= \frac{1}{n} Y Y^T \\ &= \frac{1}{n} (PX)(PX)^T \\ &= \frac{1}{n} P X X^T P^T \\ &= P \left(\frac{1}{n} X X^T \right) P^T \\ &= P C_x P^T \end{aligned}$$

Here's the trick- If we find the matrix of eigen vectors of C_x and use that as P (P is used for transforming X to Y , see the image above) , then C_y (covariance of transformed points) will be a diagonal matrix. Hence Y will be the set of new/transformed data points.

Now, if we want to transform points to k dimensions then we will select first k eigen vectors of the matrix C_x (sorted decreasingly according to eigen values) and form a matrix with them and use them as P .

So, if we have m dimensional original n data points then

$$X: m * n$$

$$P: k * m$$

$$Y = PX: (k * m)(m * n) = (k * n)$$

Hence, our new transformed matrix has n data points having k dimensions.

But why does this trick work ?

Proof:

First lets look at some theorems -

- Theorem-1 :

The inverse of an orthogonal matrix is its transpose, why?

*Let A be an $m * n$ orthogonal matrix where a_i is the i th column vector. The ij th element of $A^T A$ is*

$$\begin{aligned} (A^T A)_{ij} &= a_i^T a_j = \\ &\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, because $A^T A = I$, it follows that $A^{-1} = A^T$

it follows that $A^{-1} = A^T$.

- Theorem-2 :

Let A be a real symmetric matrix and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ be distinct eigenvalues of A .
Let $u_i \in R^n$ be nonzero such that, $1 \leq i \leq k$.
Then $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$ forms an orthonormal set.

Proof :

For $i \neq j$, $1 \leq i, j \leq k$, since $A^T = A$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_i \langle u_i, u_j \rangle &= \langle \lambda_i u_i, u_j \rangle \\ &= \langle Au_i, u_j \rangle = \langle u_i, A^T u_j \rangle = \langle u_i, Au_j \rangle \\ &= \lambda_j \langle u_i, u_j \rangle\end{aligned}$$
 Since, $i \neq j$ we have $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$ and hence $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = 0$

- Theorem-3 :

Let A be $n \times n$ real symmetric matrix such that all its eigenvalues are distinct. Then, there exists an orthogonal matrix P such that,

$$P^{-1}AP = D$$
 where D is a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries being the eigenvalues of A .

Proof :

Let A has eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ with $u_i \in R^n$ such that $|u_i| = 1$ and $Au_i = \lambda_i u_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$.
By corollary, the matrix

$$P = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]$$
 is invertible and $P^{-1}AP = D$, is diagonal with diagonal entries.
Further, by theorem - 2, (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) is an orthogonal set. Hence P is in fact an orthogonal matrix.

Having these theorems, we can say that

A symmetric matrix is diagonalized by a matrix of its orthonormal eigenvectors. Orthonormal vectors are just normalized orthogonal vectors. (what normalization is? google ;))

$$\begin{aligned}C_y &= PC_x P^T \\ &= P(E^T D E) P^T \\ &= P(P^T D P) P^T \\ &= (PP^T) D (PP^T) \\ &= (PP^{-1}) D (PP^{-1}) \\ C_Y &= D\end{aligned}$$

It is evident that the choice of P diagonalizes C_y . This was the goal for PCA. We can summarize the results of PCA in the matrices P and C_y .

- The principal components of X are the eigenvectors of C_x .
- The i th diagonal value of C_y is the variance of X along p_i

Conclusion -

$$[new\ data]_{k \times n} = [top\ k\ eigenvectors]_{k \times m} [original\ data]_{m \times n}$$

In the next post we will be implementing PCA in python and using it for color data augmentation.

Note: *PCA is an analysis approach. You can do PCA using SVD, or you can do PCA doing the eigen-decomposition (like we did here), or you can do PCA using many other methods. SVD is just another numerical method. So, don't confuse the terms PCA and SVD. However, there are some performance factors of sometimes choosing SVD over eigen-decomposition or the other way around(not that you should care much about). We will explore SVD in our upcoming posts.*

Let's discuss in comments if you find anything wrong in the post or if you have anything to add. and give me claps :P
Thanks.

Data Science

Machine Learning

Deep Learning

Statistics

Linear Algebra



2.4K claps



WRITTEN BY

Rishav Kumar

Follow

I like to write about machine learning.. Contact me -
code.rishus23@gmail.com

[See responses \(21\)](#)

More From Medium

Related reads

Linear Regression Simplified - Ordinary Least Square vs Gradient Descent



Prabhu in Towards Data Science
May 15, 2018 · 6 min read



1.5K



Related reads

Understanding Support Vector Machine: Part 2: Kernel Trick; Mercer's Theorem



Saptashwa in Towards Data Science
Dec 19, 2018 · 6 min read ★



254



Related reads



Chaitanya Reddy in Towards Data Science

Dec 10, 2018 · 7 min read



271



Discover Medium

Welcome to a place where words matter. On Medium, smart voices and original ideas take center stage - with no ads in sight. [Watch](#)

Make Medium yours

Follow all the topics you care about, and we'll deliver the best stories for you to your homepage and inbox. [Explore](#)

Become a member

Get unlimited access to the best stories on Medium — and support writers while you're at it. Just \$5/month. [Upgrade](#)

Medium

AboutHelpLegal