

ASSIGNMENT 2B: PRINCIPLE COMPONENT ANALYSIS



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Agenda

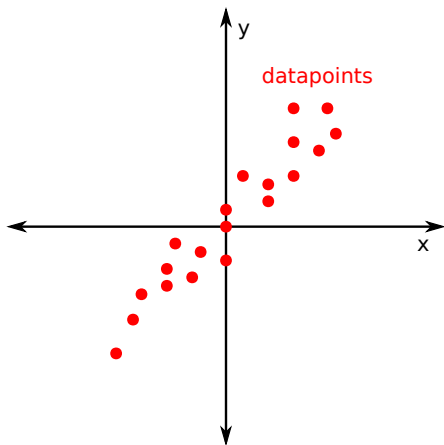
- PCA Intuition
- PCA Derivation
- Lecture notes (Hochreiter, 2014)
- Mathematics for Machine Learning (Deisenroth et al., 2018)

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Idea: Reduce dimensionality of the dataset, while still preserving as much information as possible.
- Method: Use variance as measure of information.

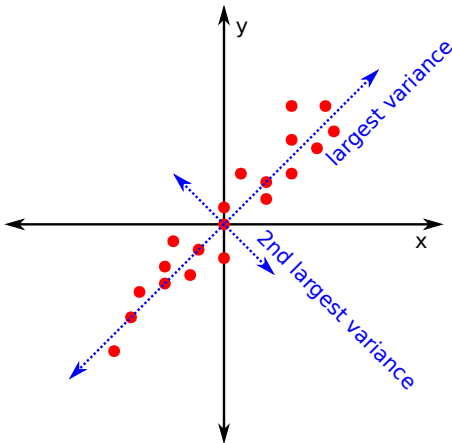
PCA – Intuition

- Starting point: we have some (centered) two dimensional data with coordinates $(x_1 = x, x_2 = y)$
- Note: usually we have high dimensional data; 2D for visualization



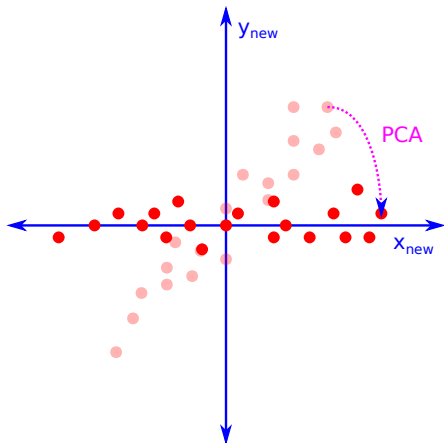
PCA – Intuition

- Sometimes data is correlated \rightarrow find direction of largest variance (i.e. 1st principal component), then orthogonal direction of 2nd largest variance (i.e. 2nd principal component), and so on for higher dim.



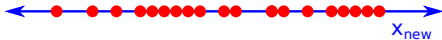
PCA – Intuition

- We can use these (orthogonal) directions of the largest variances as axes for a new coordinate system (= PCA):



PCA – Intuition

- Now we may omit axes with smaller variance, i.e. down-project our data. This can be useful for compression of our data for further processing or provide a means of visualization:



PCA – Derivation

- We use the **variance** as measure of information.
- Require that new dimensions are orthogonal to each other (so they are uncorrelated).
- Assume we are given n data points $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_i^{(1)}, \dots, x_i^{(d)})$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, each of dimension d .
- Write data into data matrix $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$.
- Rows of the data matrix \mathbf{X} contain the observations; columns contain the features.
- If not already the case, shift data such that it is centered, i.e. has mean = 0 for every feature/dimension:
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^{(j)} = 0 \text{ for every } j = 1, \dots, d.$$
- Compute the (symmetric and positive definite) sample covariance matrix: $\mathbf{C} = \text{Covar}(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$.

PCA – Derivation (2)

- Let's consider the first principal component¹: vector \mathbf{u} such that $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{u}$ retains as much variance as possible.
- Variance of projection:

$$\text{Covar}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u}$$

- If we want $\max_{\mathbf{u}} \text{Covar}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{u})$, we have to constrain \mathbf{u} , otherwise trivial solution: $\mathbf{u} = \infty$
- Constraint: \mathbf{u} must be a unit vector: $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$.

¹We'll write \mathbf{u} instead of \mathbf{u}_1 for now

PCA – Derivation (3)

- With Lagrange multipliers we can find the extrema of a function of several variables subject to one or more constraints.
- Given the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{array}{ll}\max_x & f(x) \\ \text{s.t.} & g(x) = 0 \\ & h(x) = 0\end{array}$$

- The Lagrangian is given by

$$\mathcal{L} = f(x) - \lambda g(x) - \phi h(x)$$

where λ and ϕ are Lagrange multipliers.

PCA – Derivation (4)

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{u}} \text{Covar}(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{u}) \\ \text{s.t. } \|\mathbf{u}\| = 1 \end{aligned}$$

■ Lagrangian:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} - \lambda (\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} - 1) \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} &= 2 \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} - 2 \lambda \mathbf{u} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} &= 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \end{aligned}$$

■ So we need to find \mathbf{u} such that $\mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$

■ Have you seen such an equation before?

PCA – Derivation (4)

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{u}} \text{Covar}(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{u}) \\ \text{s.t. } \|\mathbf{u}\| = 1 \end{aligned}$$

■ Lagrangian:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} - \lambda (\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} - 1) \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} &= 2 \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} - 2 \lambda \mathbf{u} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} &= 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \end{aligned}$$

- So we need to find \mathbf{u} such that $\mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$
- Have you seen such an equation before?
- λ is an Eigenvalue of \mathbf{C} , and \mathbf{u} is its Eigenvector

PCA – Derivation (5)

- Which of the Eigenvalues of \mathbf{C} do we want?
- Don't forget what we want to maximize:

$$\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}^T \lambda \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} = \lambda$$

- The constraint was: $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} = 1$
- So we want to find the largest Eigenvalue

PCA – Derivation (6)

- What's the next Principal Component, \mathbf{u}_2 ?
- \mathbf{u}_2 must be uncorrelated/orthogonal with \mathbf{u}_1 : $\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 = 0$.
- Adds a new constraint to the Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u}_2 - \lambda(\mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_2 - 1) - \phi(\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) \cdots \Rightarrow \mathbf{C} \mathbf{u}_2 = \lambda \mathbf{u}_2$$

- We just look for the 2nd largest Eigenvalue and its Eigenvector.
- Derivation works just the same for all the following PCs as well.
- PCA is unique up to the directions (signs) of the eigenvectors.

PCA – Derivation (7)

- PCA is the singular value decomposition of the data matrix \mathbf{X} :

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U}^T$$

with $n > d$, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ orthogonal, $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ diagonal (rectangular) with positive diagonal entries $\sqrt{\lambda_j}$, $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ orthogonal.

- Equivalently, PCA is the eigenvalue decomposition of the covariance matrix \mathbf{C} :

$$\mathbf{C} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D}_d \mathbf{U}^T$$

with $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ symmetric and positive definite, $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ orthogonal, $\mathbf{D}_d \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ diagonal with positive diagonal entries λ_j .

PCA – Derivation (8)

- \mathbf{D}_d is a diagonal $d \times d$ matrix of the (ordered) eigenvalues of $n \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$:

$$\mathbf{D}_d = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_d \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_d$.

- \mathbf{U} is an orthogonal (in fact orthonormal) $d \times d$ matrix of the eigenvectors:

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \mathbf{u}_3 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_d \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{u}_k = \delta_{j,k}$.

PCA – Derivation (9)

- PCA projection (onto new representation of the data):

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{U}$$

- In case you want to downproject onto a smaller-dimensional space of dimension $k < d$, construct $\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ of only the first k eigenvectors and compute

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{W}$$

Explained Variance

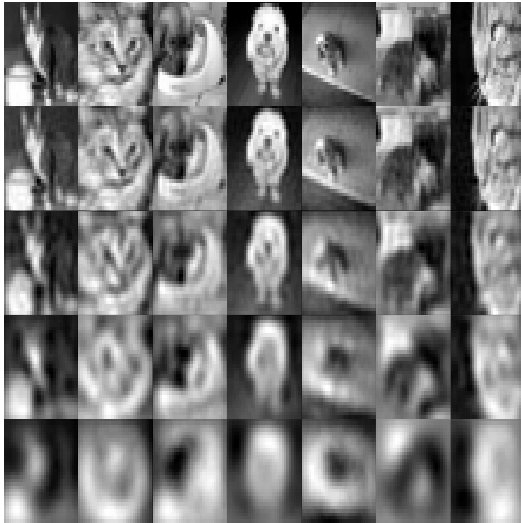
- PCA defines a new space for the data, where each dimension explains less of the original variance than the last.
- Amount of variance explained can be seen from the Eigenvectors:

$$\text{Covar}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{C} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_j \mathbf{u}_j^T$$

- The amount of “explained variance” by principal component j is

$$v_j = \frac{\lambda_j}{\sum_{k=1}^d \lambda_k}$$

Example



Recapitulation: Pros and Cons of PCA

- We provided some intuition and a proof how to derive PCA

Recapitulation: Pros and Cons of PCA

- We provided some intuition and a proof how to derive PCA
- PCA is used to visualize data: downproject data to a small number of dimensions and plot it
(sometimes insightful even for very high-dimensional data)
- In Machine Learning, PCA is often used to reduce dimensionality:
use enough components to explain 75 %, 90 % or 95 % of the variance:
 - + often drastically reduces amount of data → faster algorithms, less memory needed
 - + often performs (much) better, since less overfitting/noise
 - – destroys sparseness
 - – no guarantees (maybe you throw away important information)