



# INTRODUCTION TO PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS (PCA)

INT301 Bio-computation, Week 10, 2025



# Preliminary Knowledge

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- If  $v$  is a nonzero vector and  $\lambda$  is a number such that

$$Av = \lambda v$$

then  $v$  is said to be an *eigenvector* of  $A$  with *eigenvalue*  $\lambda$ .

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow$

$\lambda$  (eigenvalues)  
 $A$   $V$  (eigenvectors)

# Preliminary Knowledge

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- ## □ **Eigenvectors** (for a square $m \times m$ matrix S)

$$\mathbf{S}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

## *Example*

$$\begin{vmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ 4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- How many eigenvalues are there at most?

$$\mathbf{S}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v} \iff (\mathbf{S} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$

only has a non-zero solution if  $|S - \lambda I| = 0$

with at most  $m$  distinct  $\lambda$  values

# Preliminary Knowledge

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

For symmetric matrices, eigenvectors for distinct eigenvalues are **orthogonal**

$$Sv_{\{1,2\}} = \lambda_{\{1,2\}} v_{\{1,2\}}, \text{ and } \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \Rightarrow v_1 \bullet v_2 = 0$$

All eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are **real**.

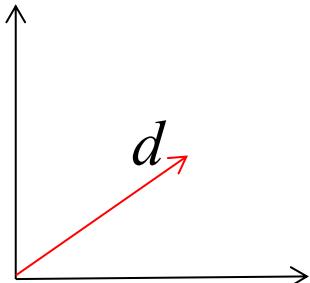
半正定矩阵

All eigenvalues of a **positive semidefinite** matrix are **non-negative**

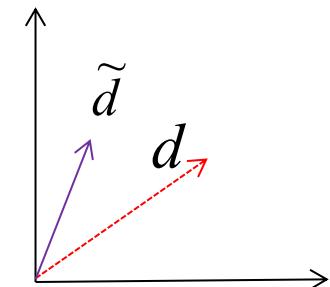
$$\forall w \in \Re^n, w^T S w \geq 0, \text{ then if } S v = \lambda v \Rightarrow \lambda \geq 0$$

# Preliminary Knowledge

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors



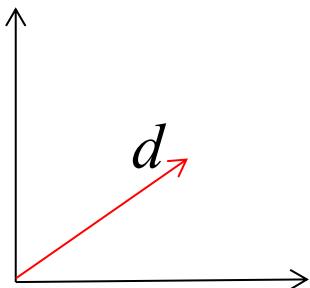
$$S = S^T, \quad S\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i, (\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 0.5)$$
$$S\mathbf{d} = \begin{bmatrix} S(1,1), S(1,2) \\ S(2,1), S(2,2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d(1) \\ d(2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S(1,1)d(1) + S(1,2)d(2) \\ S(2,1)d(1) + S(2,2)d(2) \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{\mathbf{d}}$$



$\mathbf{v}_1$

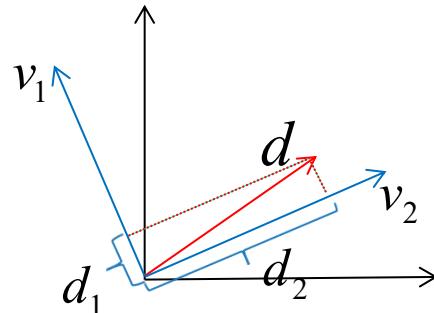
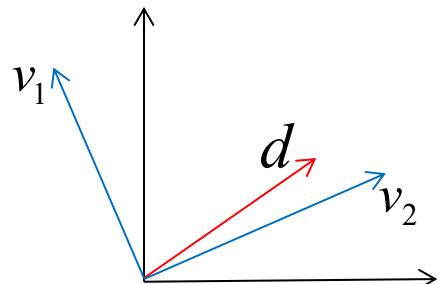
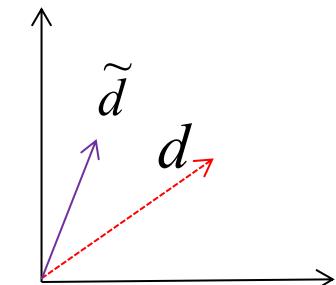
# Preliminary Knowledge

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

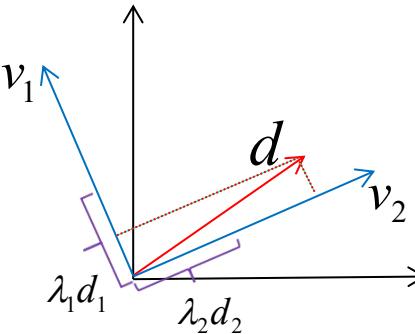


$$S = S^T, \quad S\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i, (\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 0.5)$$

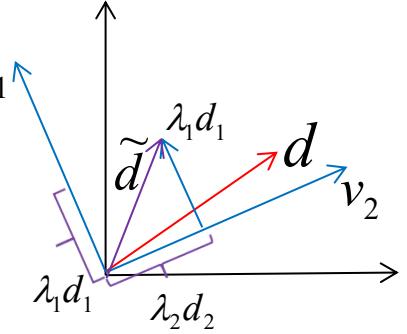
$$Sd = \begin{bmatrix} S(1,1), S(1,2) \\ S(2,1), S(2,2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d(1) \\ d(2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S(1,1)d(1) + S(1,2)d(2) \\ S(2,1)d(1) + S(2,2)d(2) \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{d}$$



Projection on the eigenvectors



Scaling with eigenvalues



Vector addition

# Preliminary Knowledge

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Let

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Real, symmetric.

- Then

$$S - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (2 - \lambda)^2 - 1 = 0.$$

- The eigenvalues are 1 and 3 (nonnegative, real).
- The eigenvectors are orthogonal (and real):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Substitute these values  
and solve for  
eigenvectors

# Diagonal Decomposition 对角分解

- Let  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  be a **square** matrix with  **$m$  linearly independent eigenvectors**
- Theorem:** Exists an **eigen decomposition**

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

diagonal

- (matrix diagonalization theorem)
- Columns of **U** are **eigenvectors** of **S**
- Diagonal elements of  **$\Lambda$**  are **eigenvalues** of **S**

$$\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m), \quad \underbrace{\lambda_i \geq \lambda_{i+1}}$$

Unique  
for  
distinct  
eigen-  
values

# Diagonal Decomposition

Write  $\mathbf{U}$  with the eigenvectors as columns:  $U = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_m \end{bmatrix}$

Then,  $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}$  can be written

$$SU = S \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 v_1 & \dots & \lambda_m v_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \dots & v_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus  $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}=\mathbf{U}\Lambda$ , or  $\mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}=\Lambda$

Therefore  $\mathbf{S}=\mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{U}^{-1}$

# Diagonal Decomposition

Recall  $S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 3.$

The eigenvectors  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  form  $U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Inverting U, we have

$$U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall  
 $UU^{-1} = 1.$

Then,  $S = U\Lambda U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$

# Diagonal Decomposition

Let's divide  $\mathbf{U}$  (and multiply  $\mathbf{U}^{-1}$ ) by  $\sqrt{2}$  单位向量

Then,  $\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$

$\mathbf{Q} \quad \Lambda \quad (\mathbf{Q}^{-1} = \mathbf{Q}^T)$

# Symmetric Diagonal Decomposition

- **Theorem:** If  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is a **symmetric** matrix, there exists an **eigen decomposition**, where  $Q$  is **orthogonal**:

$$S = Q\Lambda Q^T$$

- $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
- Columns of  $Q$  are normalized eigenvectors
- Columns are orthogonal.
- (everything is real)

奇异值分解 ·

# Singular Value Decomposition

For an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  of rank  $r$ , there exists a factorization (Singular Value Decomposition = **SVD**) as follows:

$$m \times n \quad A = U \Sigma V^T$$

m × m

m × n, nonnegative real

n × n

The columns of  $\mathbf{U}$  are orthogonal eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{AA}^T$ .

The columns of  $\mathbf{V}$  are orthogonal eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$ .

Eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r$  of  $\mathbf{AA}^T$  are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$ .

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$$

$$\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots)$$

*Singular values*

# Singular Value Decomposition

## ■ Illustration of SVD dimensions and

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

# Singular Value Decomposition

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus  $m=3, n=2$ . Its SVD is

$$\det |M - \lambda I| = 0 \Leftarrow$$

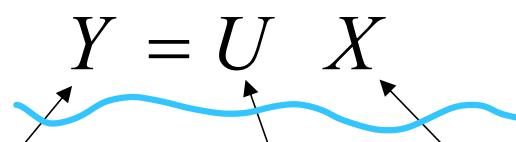
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Dimensionality Reduction

- One approach to deal with high dimensional data is by reducing their dimensionality.
- Project high dimensional data onto a lower dimensional **subspace** using linear or non-linear transformations.

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Reduce dimensionality}} \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dots \\ y_k \end{bmatrix} \quad (K \ll N)$$

- Linear transformations are simple to compute

$$Y = U X \quad (b_i = u_i^t a_i)$$


# Dimensionality Reduction



- **Find a basis in a low dimensional sub-space:**

- Approximate vectors by projecting them in a low dimensional sub-space:

(1) Original space representation:

$$x = a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_N v_N$$

where  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  is a base in the original N-dimensional space

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \dots \\ a_N \end{bmatrix}$$

(2) Lower-dimensional sub-space representation:

$$\hat{x} = b_1 u_1 + b_2 u_2 + \dots + b_K u_K$$

where  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k$  is a base in the K-dimensional sub-space ( $K < N$ )

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \dots \\ b_k \end{bmatrix}$$

# Dimensionality Reduction

- If  $K=N$ , then  $\hat{x} = x$
- Example ( $K=N$ ):

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (standard basis)}$$

$$x_v = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 3v_1 + 3v_2 + 3v_3$$

$$u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, u_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (some other basis)}$$

$$x_u = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 0u_1 + 0u_2 + 3u_3$$

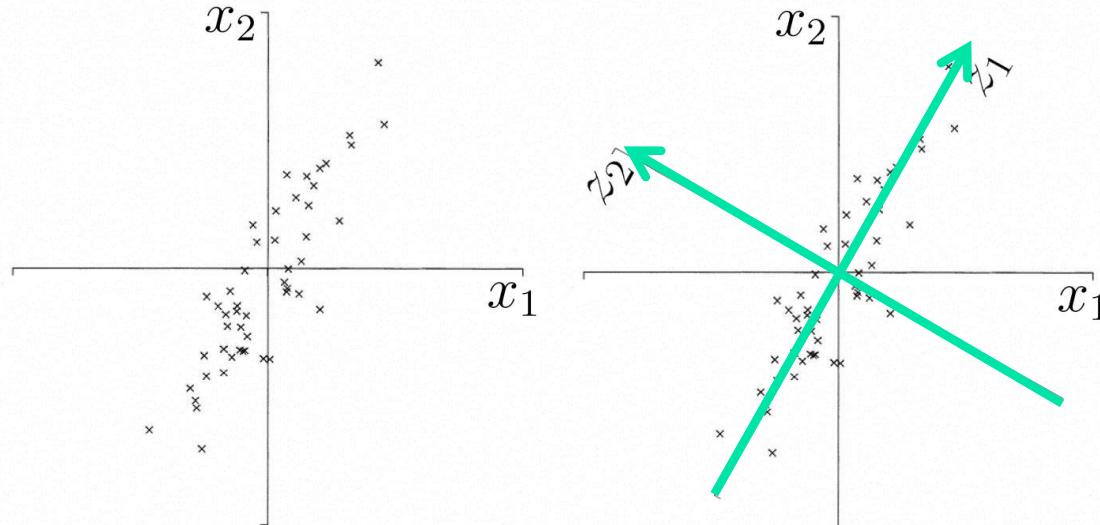
# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Each dimensionality reduction technique finds an *appropriate transformation* by satisfying certain criteria (e.g., *information loss*, *data discrimination*, etc.)
- The goal of PCA is to reduce the dimensionality of the data while *retaining as much as possible of the variation present in the dataset.*

# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

## Motivation

- Find bases which has high variance in data
- Encode data with small number of bases with low MSE



- First PC is direction of maximum variance
- Subsequent PCs are orthogonal to 1<sup>st</sup> PC and describe maximum

# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Assume that  $E[\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{0}$      $a = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{x}$      $\|\mathbf{q}\| = (\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{q})^{1/2} = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \sigma^2 &= E[a^2] - E[a]^2 = E[a^2] \\ &= E[(\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{x})(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{q})] = \mathbf{q}^T E[\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T] \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{q} \end{aligned}$$

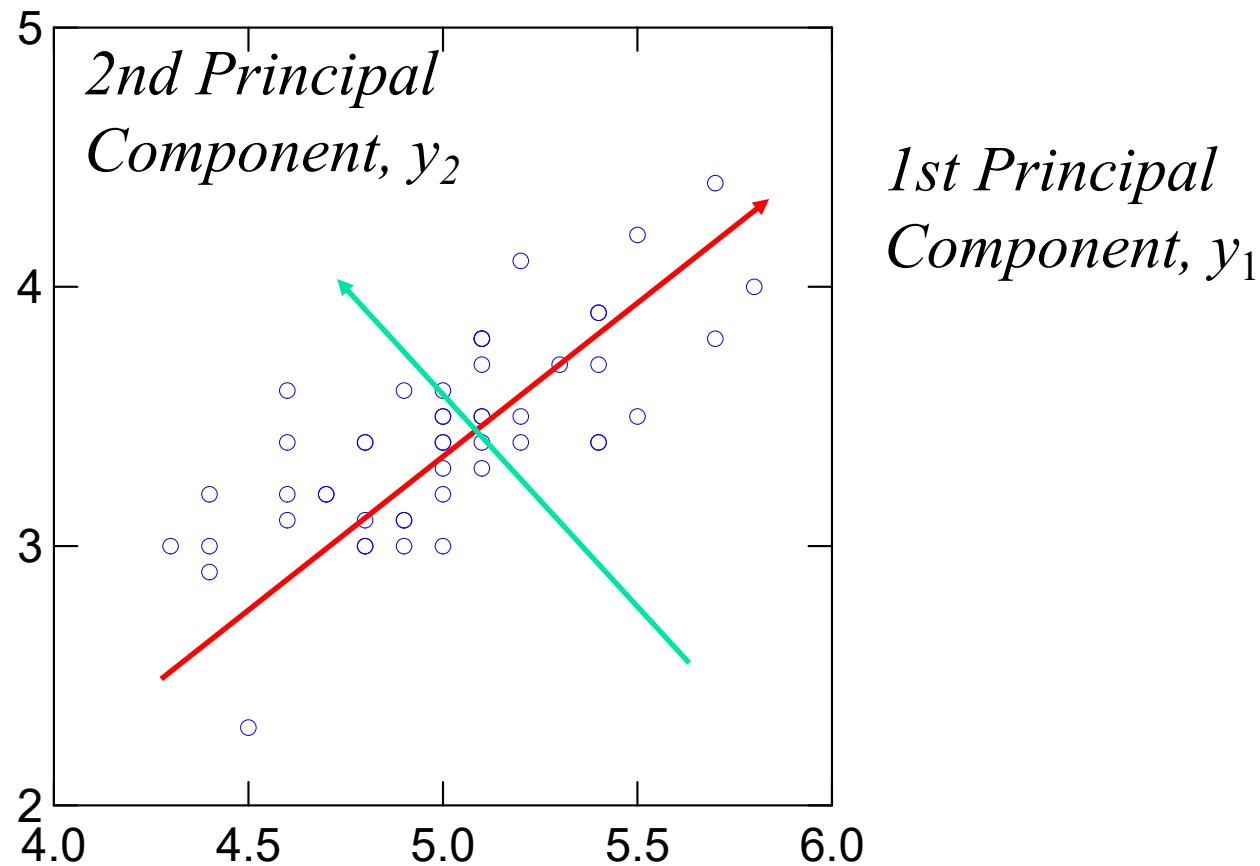
Find q's maximizing variance!!

It can be shown that variance is maximized when q is the principal component of R.

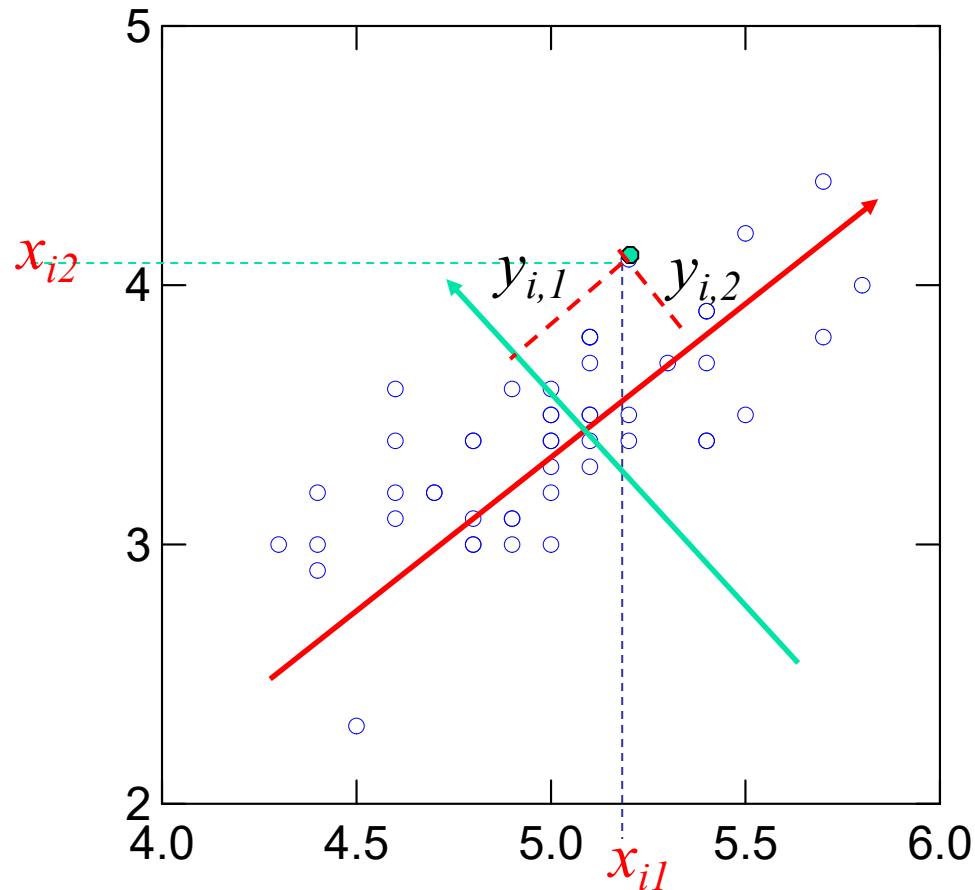
Principal component q can be obtained by **eigenvector decomposition**:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{Q} \Lambda \mathbf{Q}^T, \quad \mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_j, \dots, \mathbf{q}_m], \quad \Lambda = \text{diag}[\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_j, \dots, \lambda_m]$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{R} \mathbf{q}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{q}_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathbf{R} \mathbf{q} = \lambda \mathbf{q}$$

# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Advantage
  - Reduce the dimension of the original data
    - reduce time consumption in the training process, and improve efficiency
  - Discard some information of the original data
    - if this information is noise

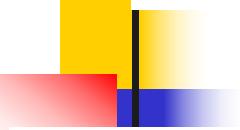
丢弃

# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

## ■ Limitation

- Discard some information of the original data
  - if the discarded information is important, it is not appropriate to apply PCA
- The meaning of the principal component
  - PC or basis may not be interpretable
- Linear model of PCA
  - not suitable for nonlinear problem
- Assume first PC has higher importance

# Case study: Eigenface

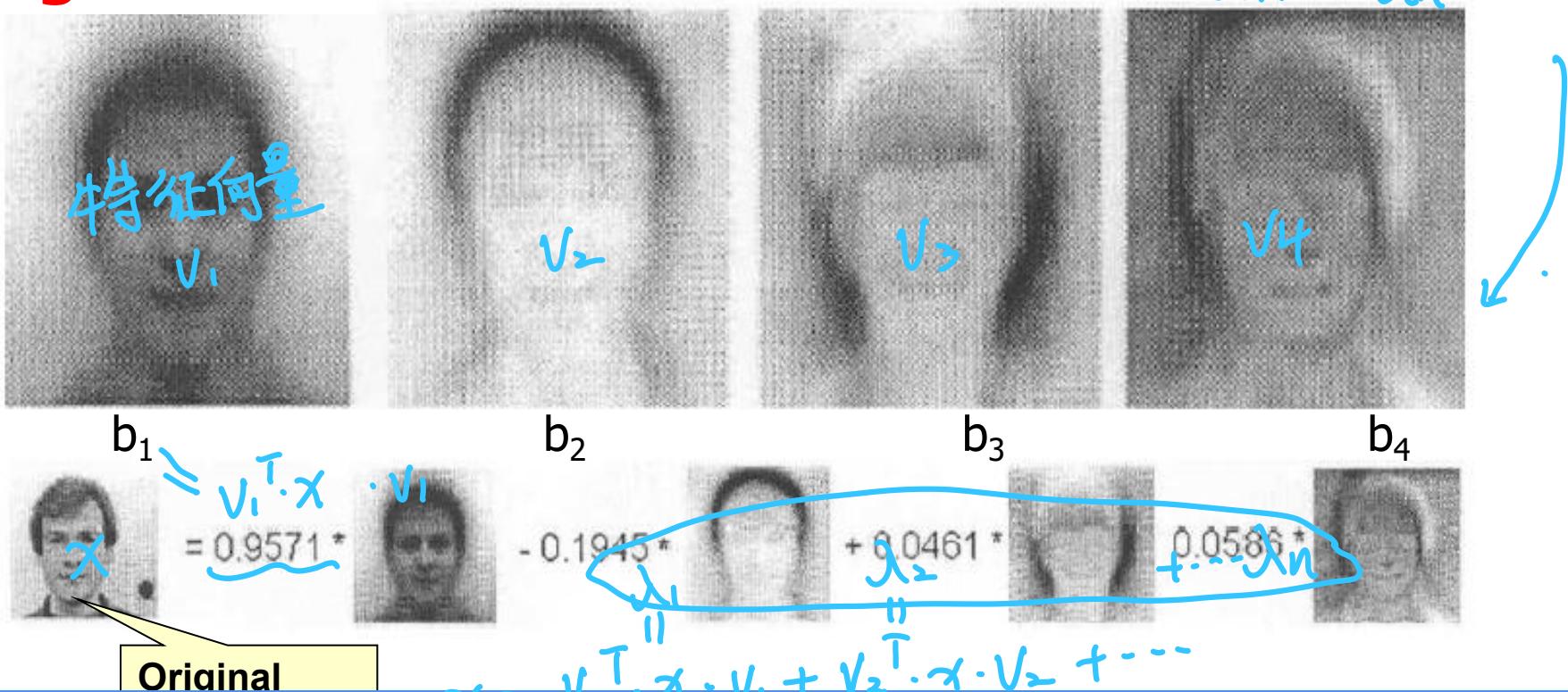
 Face image: high-dimensional vector

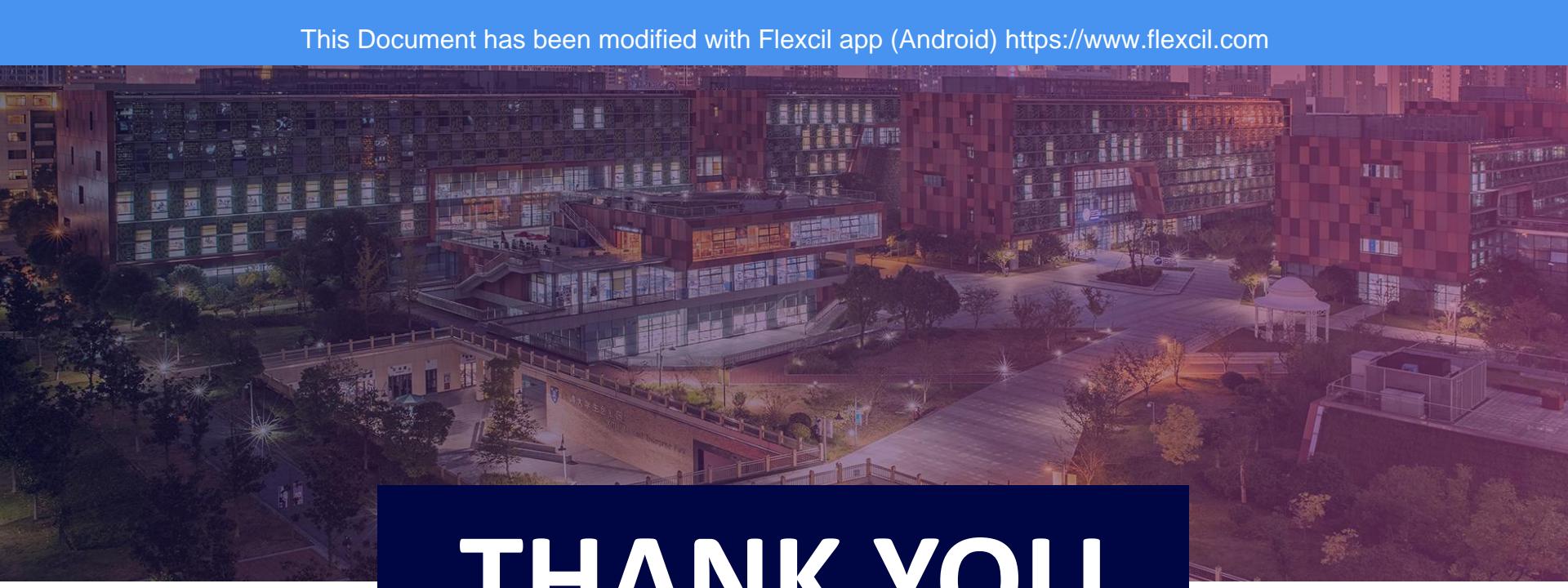
face image = linear combination of eigenvectors

The eigenvectors can be viewed as images.

Eigenfaces:

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_4}{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_n} = \text{ratio}$$





THANK YOU



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