Statistical Learning. Dimension reduction

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Introduction

- In the session about regression we discussed some ways to deal with a large set of correlated variables $X_1, ..., X_n$
 - Subset Selection. Methods for selecting a subset of the p predictors. We then fit a model using least squares on the reduced set of variables
 - Best subset selection, stepwise selection, AIC, BIC, adjusted R², cross-validation methods,...
 - Shrinkage (regularization). This approach involves fitting a model involving all p predictors. But the estimated coefficients are shrunken towards zero relative to the least squares estimates.
 - Ridge regression, Lasso,...
 - Dimension Reduction. Methods for projecting the p predictors into a lower-dimensional subspace. Then, the projections are used as predictors to fit a linear regression model by least squares.

- Suppose that we have a random vector $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$
- The components of the random vector are usually dependent and contain redundant information
- It can be useful, for example, to look for linear combinations of the original variables keeping as much of the original information as possible
- Principal component analysis (PCA) is possibly the dimension reduction technique most widely used in practice

■ In practice we have n observations on the set of p features, X_1, \ldots, X_p .

$$\mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{array} \right)$$

- The objective is to reduce the dimensionality of a data set
 - interpretation
 - avoid overfitting
- Each of the n observations lives in p-dimensional space, but not all of these dimensions are equally interesting
- We would like to find a low-dimensional representation of the data that captures as much of the information as possible
- Principal component analysis (PCA) finds a low-dimensional representation of a data set that contains as much as possible of the variation

- Suppose that we have a random vector $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$
- The population mean vector is μ

$$\mu = \left(\begin{array}{c} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_p \end{array} \right)$$

■ The population covariance matrix is Σ .

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Var}(X_1) & \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_2) & \dots & \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_p) \\ \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \operatorname{Var}(X_2) & \dots & \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_p) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \operatorname{Cov}(X_p, X_1) & \operatorname{Cov}(X_p, X_2) & \dots & \operatorname{Var}(X_p) \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose that we have n observations on the set of p features, X_1, \ldots, X_p .

$$\mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{array} \right)$$

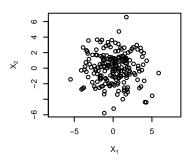
We can estimate μ with

$$\bar{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{x}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{x}_p \end{pmatrix}$$

 \blacksquare We can estimate Σ with the sample covariance matrix

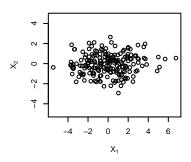
$$S = \begin{pmatrix} s_1^2 & s_{12} & \dots & s_{1d} \\ s_{21} & s_2^2 & \dots & s_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ s_{d1} & s_{d2} & \dots & s_d^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $X = (X_1, X_2)^t$ normal with $\mu = (0, 0)^t$ and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$



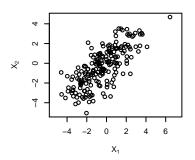
```
> colMeans(x)
```

 $X = (X_1, X_2)^t$ normal with $\mu = (0, 0)^t$ and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$



```
> colMeans(x)
```

I $X = (X_1, X_2)^t$ normal with $\mu = (0, 0)^t$ and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3.2 \\ 3.2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$



```
> colMeans(x)
```

- PCA finds a low-dimensional representation of a data set that contains as much as possible of the variation
- PCA is concerned with explaining the variance-covariance structure of $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$ through a smaller number of uncorrelated variables (the principal components)
- The principal components are the uncorrelated linear combinations of the features $X_1, ..., X_p$ whose variances are as large as possible.
- Recall that a linear combination of the features $X_1, ..., X_p$ can be written as

$$Z = a_1 X_1 + \ldots + a_p X_p = a^t X$$

where $a = (a_1, ..., a_p)^t$.

■ If $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$ is a random vector with covariance matrix Σ, then for a given linear combination $Z = a^t X$, we have:

$$Var(Z) = a^t \Sigma a$$

If $Y = b^t X$,

$$Cov(Z, Y) = a^t \Sigma b$$

- The principal components are the uncorrelated linear combinations of the features $X_1, ..., X_p$ whose variances are as large as possible.
- The first principal component of $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$ is the linear combination

$$Z_1 = \phi_{11}X_1 + \ldots + \phi_{1p}X_p = \phi_1^t X$$

maximizing $\operatorname{Var}(Z_1) = \phi_1^t \Sigma \phi_1$ subject to $\|\phi_1\| = 1$

■ The second principal component of $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$ is the linear combination

$$Z_2 = \phi_{21}X_1 + \ldots + \phi_{2p}X_p = \phi_2^t X$$

maximizing $Var(Z_2) = \phi_2^t \Sigma \phi_2$ subject to $||\phi_2|| = 1$ and $Cov(Z_1, Z_2) = 0$

-
- The k-th principal component of $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$ is the linear combination

$$Z_k = \phi_{k1}X_1 + \ldots + \phi_{kp}X_p = \phi_k^t X$$

maximizing $Var(Z_k) = \phi_k^t \Sigma \phi_k$ subject to $\|\phi_k\| = 1$ and $Cov(Z_k, Z_j) = 0$ for j < k.



- Let $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)^t$ be a random vector with covariance matrix Σ
- let $\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \ldots \ge \lambda_p \ge 0$ denote the eigenvalues of the covariance matrix Σ
- Let the vectors e_1, \ldots, e_p denote the corresponding eigenvectors with $||e_i|| = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, p$.
- The variance for the k-th principal component is equal to the k-th eigenvalue and the elements of e_k will be the coefficients of the k-th principal component
- In particular,
 - \blacksquare the first principal component direction is the eigenvector associated with the largest eigenvalue λ_1
 - $Z_1 = e_1^t X$ has the largest variance amongst all normalized linear combinations of X

- Interpretation of the components in terms of the proportion of the full variation explained by each component
- \blacksquare The proportion of variation explained by the k-th principal component is

$$\frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_1+\ldots+\lambda_p}$$

The proportion of variation explained by the first k principal components is

$$\frac{\lambda_1+\ldots+\lambda_k}{\lambda_1+\ldots+\lambda_p}$$

■ Suppose that we have n observations on the set of p features, X_1, \ldots, X_p .

$$\mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{array} \right)$$

■ The first sample principal component is the linear combination

$$Z_1 = \phi_{11}X_1 + \ldots + \phi_{1\rho}X_{\rho} = \phi_1^t X$$

maximizing $\phi_1^t S \phi_1$ subject to $\|\phi_1\| = 1$

-
- The *k*-th sample principal component is the linear combination

$$Z_k = \phi_{k1}X_1 + \ldots + \phi_{kp}X_p = \phi_k^t X$$

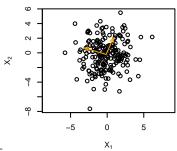
maximizing $\phi_k^t S \phi_k$ subject to $\|\phi_k\| = 1$ and $\phi_j^t S \phi_k = 0$ for j < k.

Suppose that we have n observations on the set of p features, X_1, \ldots, X_p .

$$\mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{array} \right)$$

- Let $\hat{\lambda}_1 \ge \hat{\lambda}_2 \ge \ldots \ge \hat{\lambda}_p \ge 0$ denote the eigenvalues of the sample covariance matrix S
- Let the vectors $\hat{e}_1,\ldots,\hat{e}_p$ denote the corresponding eigenvectors with $\|\hat{e}_i\|=1$ for $i=1,\ldots,p$.
- The variance for the k-th sample principal component is equal to the k-th eigenvalue and the elements of $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_k$ will be the coefficients of the k-th sample principal component

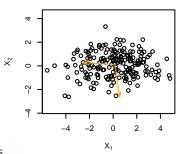
$$X = (X_1, X_2)^t$$
 normal with $\mu = (0, 0)^t$ and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$



> eigen(S)\$values

> eigen(S)\$vectors

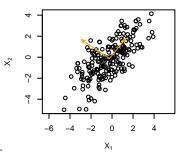
$$X = (X_1, X_2)^t$$
 normal with $\mu = (0, 0)^t$ and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$



> eigen(S)\$values

> eigen(S)\$vectors

Theorem 5.1
$$X = (X_1, X_2)^t$$
 normal with $\mu = (0, 0)^t$ and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3.2 \\ 3.2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$



> eigen(S)\$values

> eigen(S)\$vectors

```
## [,1] [,2]
## [1,] 0.6893498 -0.7244286
## [2,] 0.7244286 0.6893498
```

- The results of PCA depend on the scaling of the data
- Variables with the highest sample variances will tend to be emphasized in the first few principal components
- Principal component analysis using the covariance matrix is appropriate when the variables are measured in comparable units of measurement
- Principal component analysis using the correlation matrix is appropriate when the variables are measured in very different units of measurement

- Suppose that we have a random vector $X = (X_1, ..., X_p)^t$
- The correlation between variables X_i and X_j is

$$\rho_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_i \sigma_j}$$

where σ_{ij} denotes de covariance between X_i and X_j and σ_i and σ_j denote the standard deviation of X_i and X_j , respectively

Then the correlation matrix is

$$\rho = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & \rho_{12} & \dots & \rho_{1p} \\ \rho_{21} & 1 & \dots & \rho_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{p1} & \rho_{p2} & \dots & 1 \end{array} \right).$$

■ Suppose that we have n observations on the set of p features, X_1, \ldots, X_p .

$$\mathbf{X} = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1p} \\ x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{np} \end{array} \right)$$

 We can estimate the correlation matrix with the sample correlation matrix

$$R = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & r_{12} & \dots & r_{1p} \\ r_{21} & 1 & \dots & r_{2p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ r_{p1} & r_{p2} & \dots & 1 \end{array} \right),$$

where

$$r_{jk} = \frac{s_{jk}}{s_i s_k}.$$

 Example: Principal Component Analysis applied to digital image compression (The Migrant Mother by Dorothea Lange)



```
> library(jpeg)
> imOrig <- readJPEG("lange.jpg")
> dim(imOrig)
## [1] 633 487
```

 Example: Principal Component Analysis applied to digital image compression (The Migrant Mother by Dorothea Lange)







Original image (633×487) and image reconstruction from k = 20 (middle) and k = 40 (left) principal components. The proportion of variation explained by the first 20 principal components is 93.77%. The proportion of variation explained by the first 40 principal components is 97.09%.

- Principal component analysis can be used as a dimension reduction technique for regression
- Suppose that we observe a quantitative response Y and preditor variables $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$
- The principal components regression (PCR) approach involves constructing the first k principal components, Z_1, \ldots, Z_k , and then using these components as the predictors in a linear regression model that is fit using least squares.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Z_1 + \ldots + \beta_k Z_k + \epsilon$$

- We assume that the directions in which $X_1, ..., X_p$ show the most variation are the directions that are associated with Y
- Estimating $k \ll p$ coefficients can mitigate overfitting

- **Example:** data on samples of finely chopped pure meat
- 215 samples were measured
- For each sample, the fat content was measured along with a 100 channel spectrum of absorbances
- > library(faraway)
- > data(meatspec)

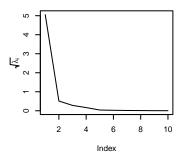
```
V1 V2 V3 V4 ... V100 fat
1 2.61776 2.61814 2.61859 2.61912 ... 2.81920 22.5
2 2.83454 2.83871 2.84283 2.84705 ... 3.17942 40.1
3 2.58284 2.58458 2.58629 2.58808 ... 2.54816 8.4
```

- **Example:** data on samples of finely chopped pure meat
- We partition the data into a training sample (172 observations) and a test sample (43 observations)
- We fit a linear regression model with p = 100 predictors
- > fit.lm <- lm(fat ~ ., data = train)</pre>
 - We compute the MSE in the training sample and the MSE in the test sample
- > MSEtrain
- ## [1] 0.4765372
- > MSEtest
- ## [1] 14.54659

- Example: data on samples of finely chopped pure meat
- We partition the data into a training sample (172 observations) and a test sample (43 observations)
- Now we compute the PCA on the training sample predictors:

```
> trainx <- train[, 1:p]</pre>
```





- **Example:** data on samples of finely chopped pure meat
- We partition the data into a training sample (172 observations) and a test sample (43 observations)
- We use the first four PCs to predict the response:

```
> k <- 4
> fit.pcr <- lm(train[, "fat"] ~ pca$x[, 1:k])</pre>
```

- We compute the MSE in the training sample and the MSE in the test sample
- > MSEtrain

```
## [1] 16.52215
```

> MSEtest

```
## [1] 20.45754
```

- **Example:** data on samples of finely chopped pure meat
- We partition the data into a training sample (172 observations) and a test sample (43 observations)
- We use the first 20 PCs to predict the response:

```
> k <- 20
> fit.pcr <- lm(train[, "fat"] ~ pca$x[, 1:k])</pre>
```

- We compute the MSE in the training sample and the MSE in the test sample
- > MSEtrain

```
## [1] 3.93473
```

> MSEtest

[1] 5.238566