

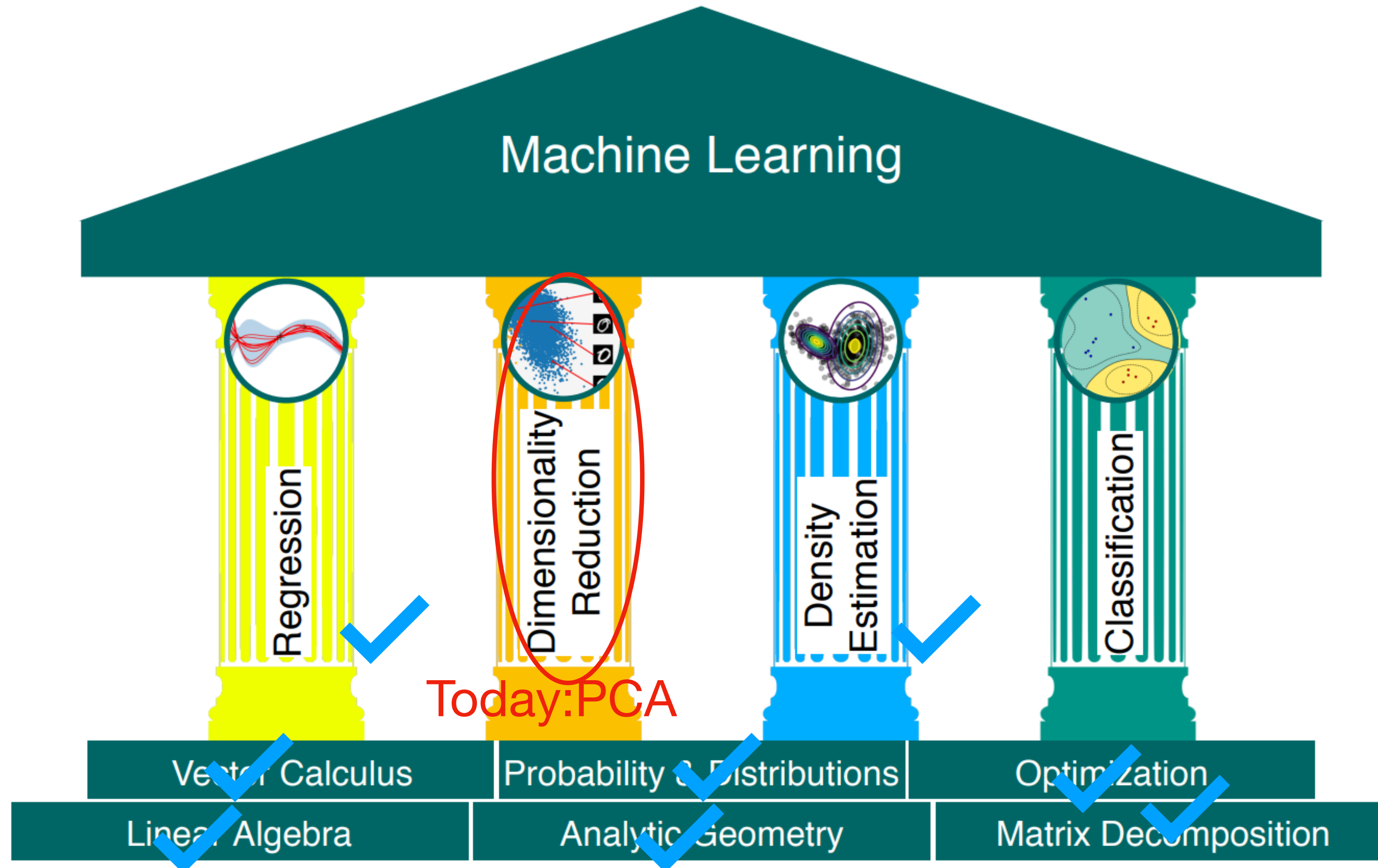
# Principal Component Analysis

Week 10 - Introduction to ML / Thang Bui / ANU / 2023 S2

# Housekeeping

- *Assignment 3* due tonight
- *Assignment 4* is now available on Wattle (due in two weeks - W12 Monday)
- *Last* tutorial this week
- *Exam* timetable is available
  - We will release past exam papers soon
- Guest lecture: W12 Monday October 23
  - Dr Zheng Yuan, King's College London
  - *Examinable!*
  - Please do show up!

# Foundations of ML



# Last week

1. **Trace** and **Determinant**
2. **Eigenvectors** and **eigenvalues**
3. **Symmetric** matrices
4. **Eigen-decomposition**: using eigenvalues and eigenvectors, for square matrices
5. **Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)**: using singular values and singular vectors, for general matrices

# Eigendecomposition

**Theorem** A square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  can be factored into  $A = PDP^{-1}$  where  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $D$  is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the eigenvalues of  $A$ , *if and only if* the eigenvectors of  $A$  form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  [ $A$  has a full set of  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors].

$$A = PDP^T = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ p_1 & p_2 & \cdots & p_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix}^T$$

eigenvectors  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  eigenvalues  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

# Singular Value Decomposition

**Theorem (SVD)** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  be a *rectangular* matrix of rank  $r \in [0, \min(m, n)]$ . The SVD of  $A$  is a decomposition of the form:

$$A = U \Sigma V^T = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_m \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_r & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ v_1 & v_2 & \cdots & v_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$        $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$        $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

left singular vectors      singular values      right singular vectors

$U$  and  $V$  are orthogonal matrices,  $U^T = U^{-1}$ ,  $V^T = V^{-1}$ . Columns are orthonormal.

By convention, the singular values are ordered  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r \geq 0$

# SVD construction: finding $V$ and $\Sigma$

We can always eigen-decompose  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$  and obtain

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{P}^T = \mathbf{P} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}^T$$

where  $\mathbf{P}$  is an orthogonal matrix, which is composed of the orthonormal eigenbasis.  $\lambda_i \geq 0$  are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ .

Let us assume the SVD of  $\mathbf{A}$  exists and takes the form of  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T)^T (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T) = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Sigma}^T \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$$
$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Sigma}^T \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}^T$$

Leading to

$$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{P}$$
$$\sigma_i^2 = \lambda_i$$

# SVD construction: finding $U$

Note:  $A = U\Sigma V^T \Leftrightarrow AV = U\Sigma V^T V = U\Sigma$  which means

$$Av_i = \sigma_i u_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, r$$

where  $r$  is the rank of  $A$ . So, we can calculate

$$u_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} Av_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, r \quad (1)$$

We look at matrices with full rank, i.e.,  $r = \min(m, n)$ . Remember that  $U$  is an  $m \times m$  matrix.

If  $m \leq n$ ,  $U = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m]$ ; All the  $u_i$  have been calculated through (1)

If  $m > n$ ,  $U = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, \dots, u_m]$ ;

$u_1, \dots, u_n$  have been calculate through (1)

In order to calculate  $u_{n+1}, \dots, u_m$ , you use the fact that  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, \dots, u_m$  are orthonormal vectors.



# Overview

This lecture: Principal component analysis (PCA)

1. **Motivation**
2. Problem set up
3. PCA from maximum variance perspective (or analysis perspective)
4. PCA from projection perspective (or synthesis perspective)

# Motivation

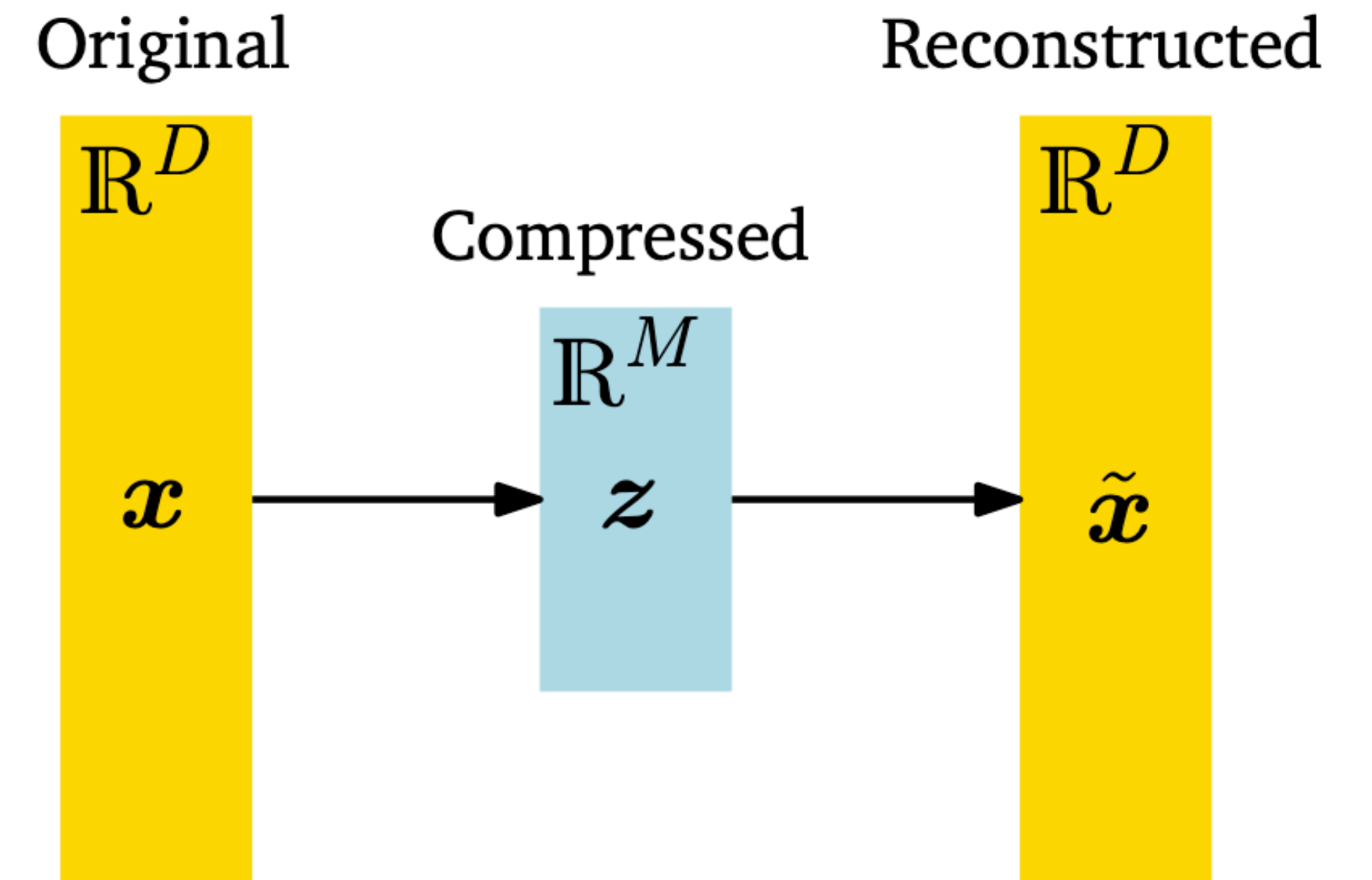
# Motivation

## Dimensionality reduction as data compression

Find lower-dimensional data without losing much information

$$M < D$$

$\mathbf{z}$  captures desirable variations in  $\mathbf{x}$   
Reconstructed data is similar to  $\mathbf{x}$



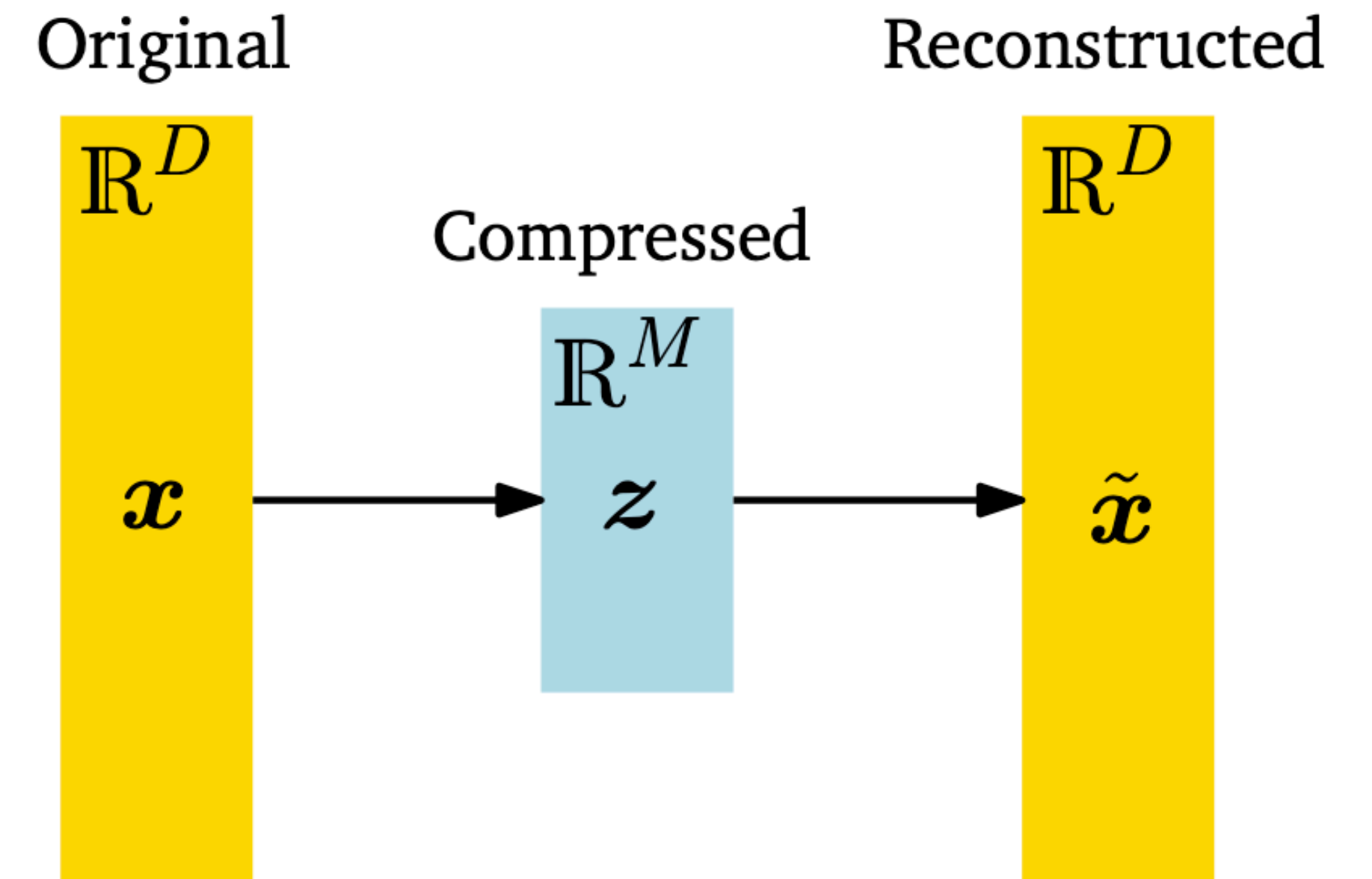
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## Why?

- + Data may have low *intrinsic* dimensionality [think about data living on a line in high dimensions]
- + visualisation / exploratory data analysis [e.g. compress 100-D data down to 2D to visualise patterns]
- + Using low dimensional data for learning [e.g. train a classifier using compressed data]

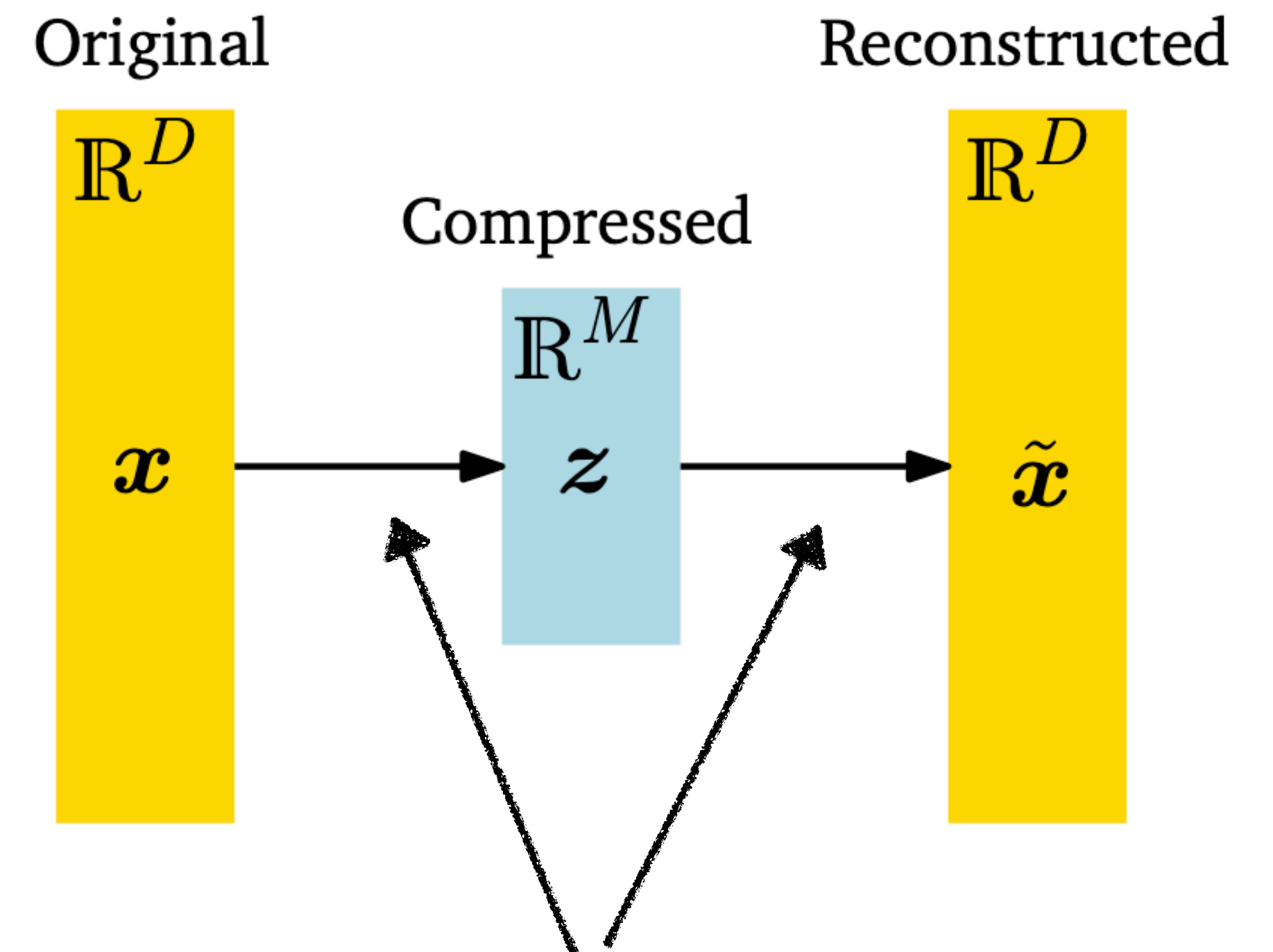
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## Why?

**Key question: how to construct these mappings?**

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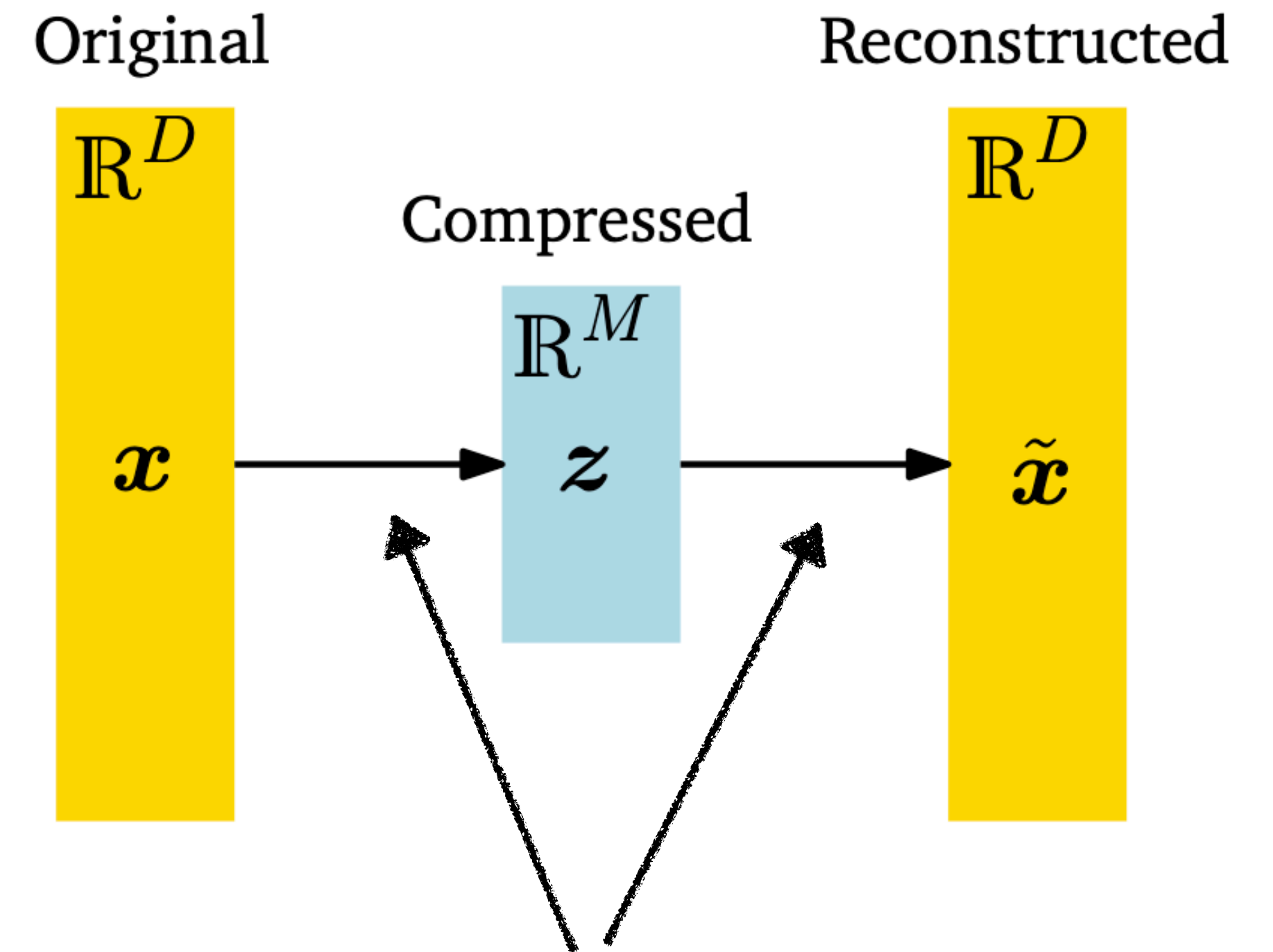
# Motivation - example

## Dimensionality reduction as data compression

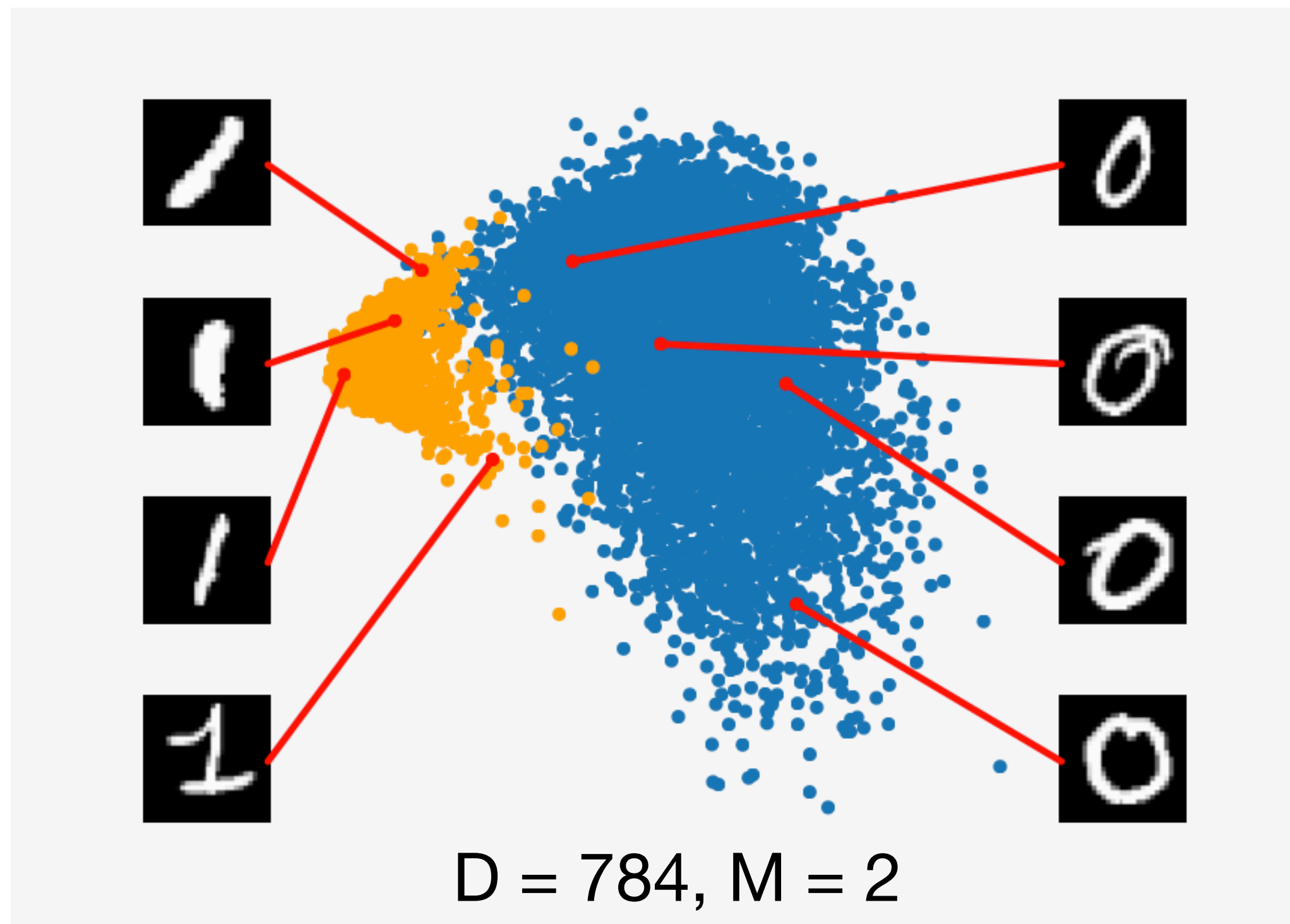
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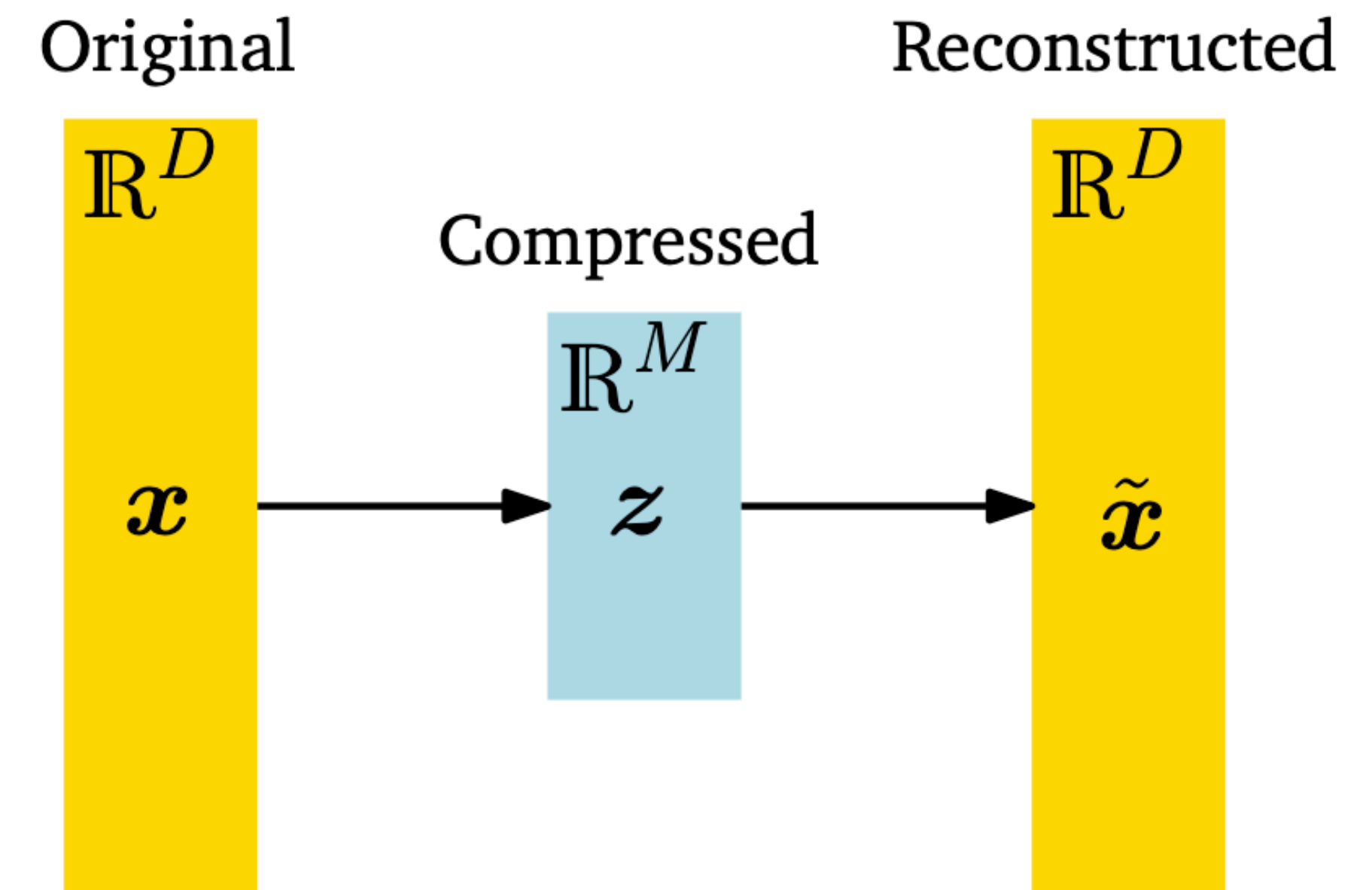


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# Problem setup





# Problem setup

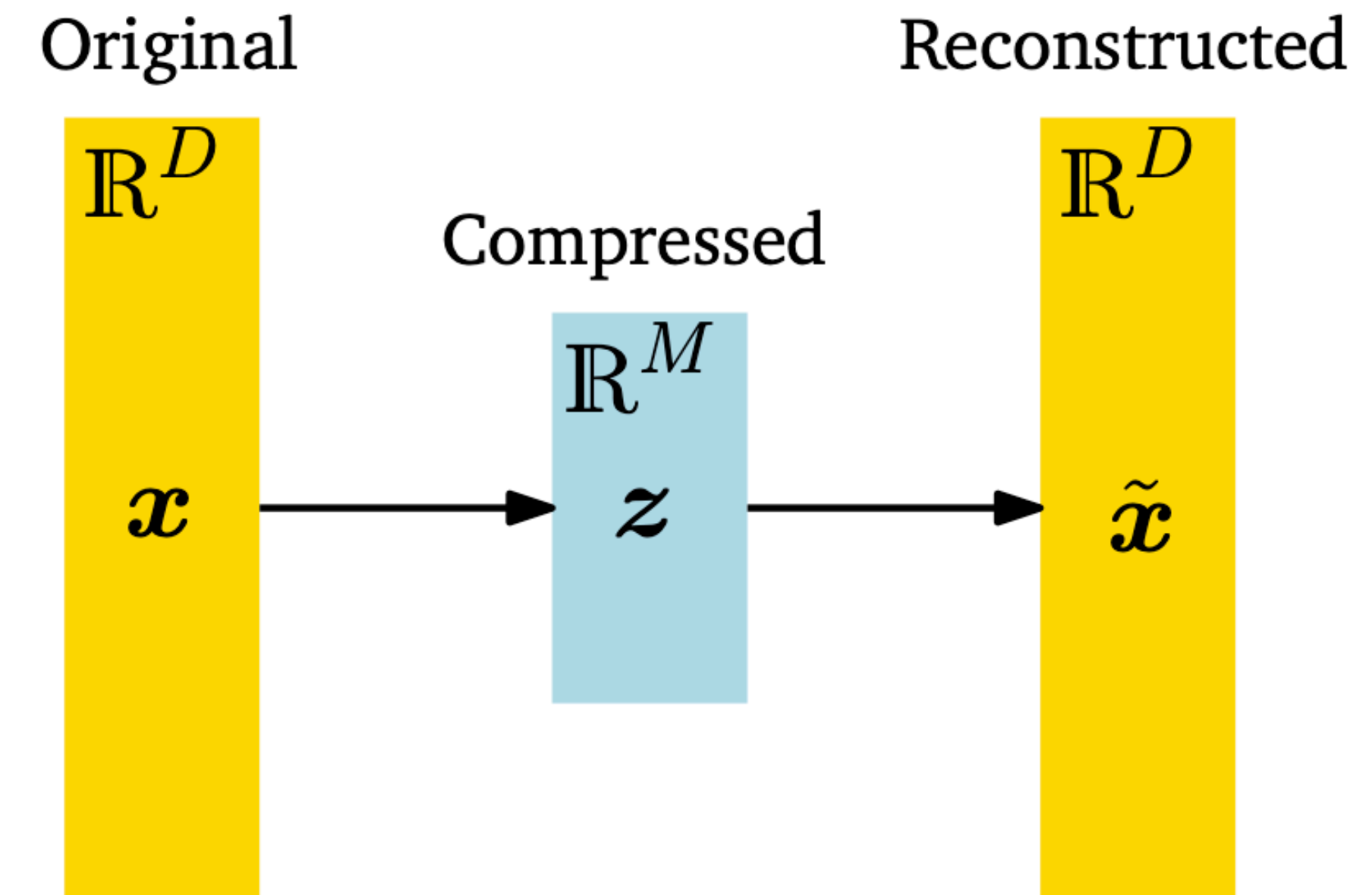
We consider an i.i.d. dataset  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$ ,  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ,

with mean  $\mathbf{0}$  and covariance matrix  $S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n x_n^\top$

We assume there exists a *low-dimensional* compressed representation (code):  $z_n = B^\top x_n$ ,  $z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M$ ,  $M < D$ .

The projection matrix:  $B = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_M] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times M}$ , columns are orthonormal.

*Reconstruction* using  $B$ :  $\tilde{x}_n = B z_n$



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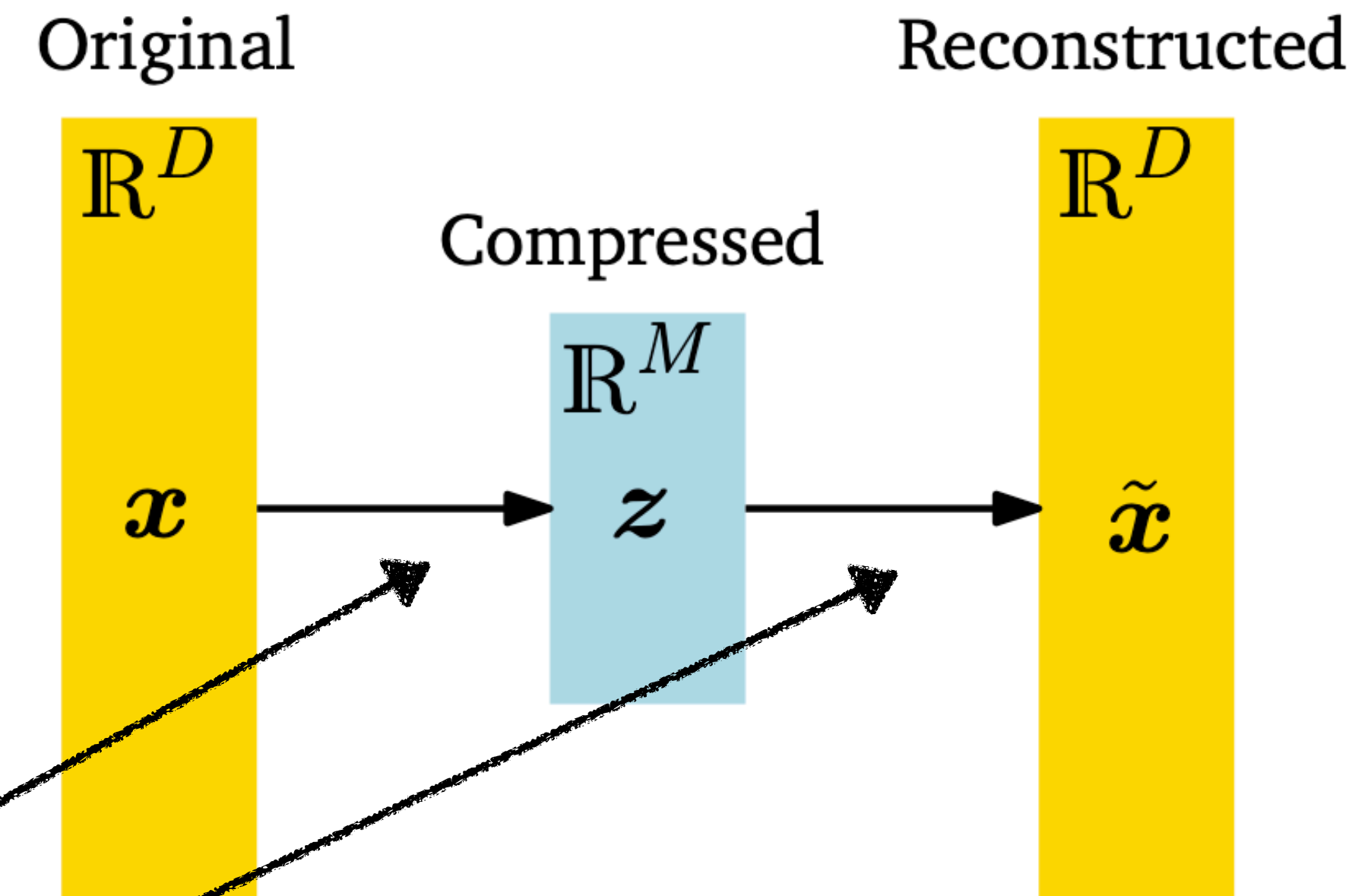
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**PCA: linear mappings**

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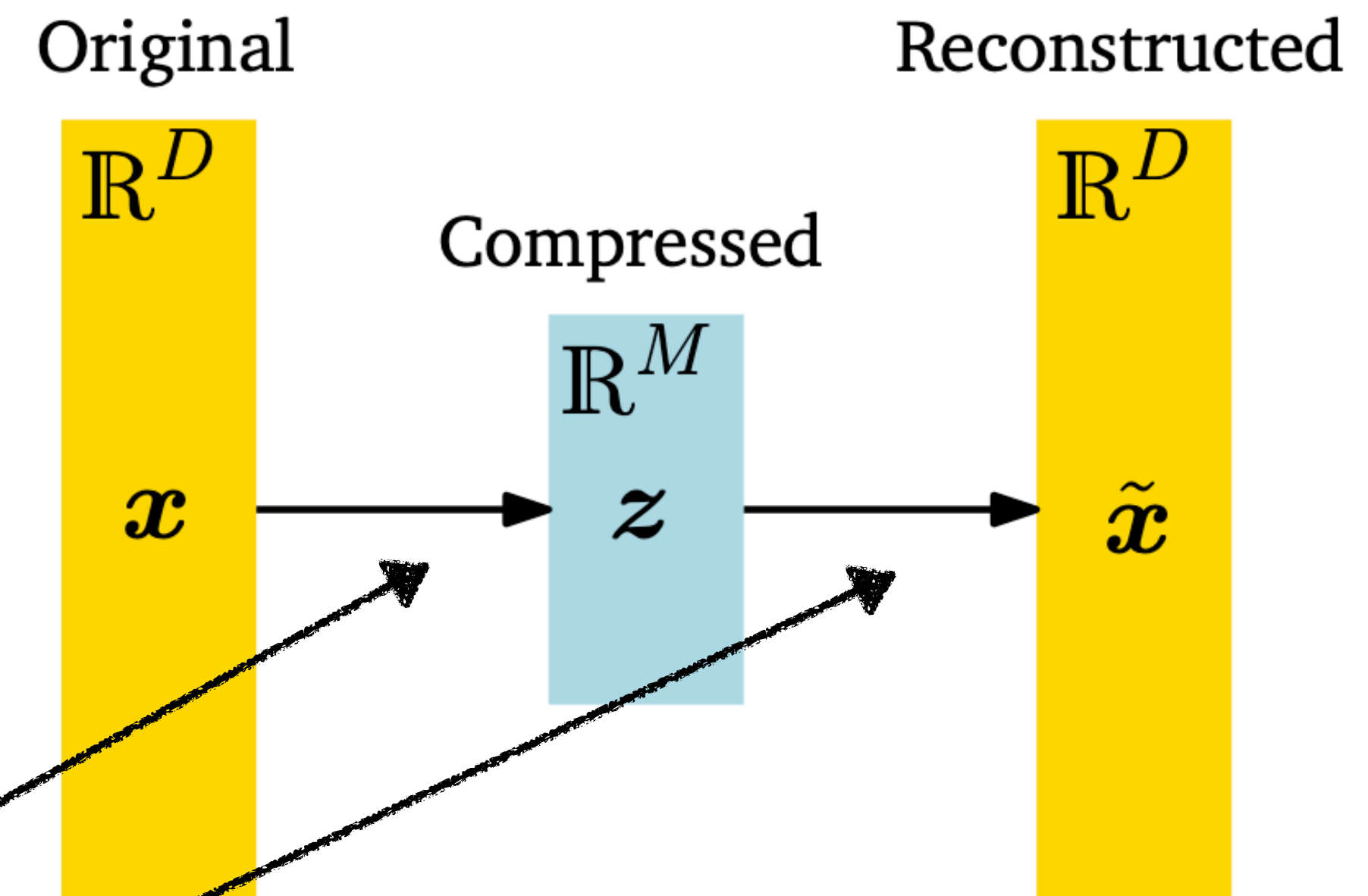
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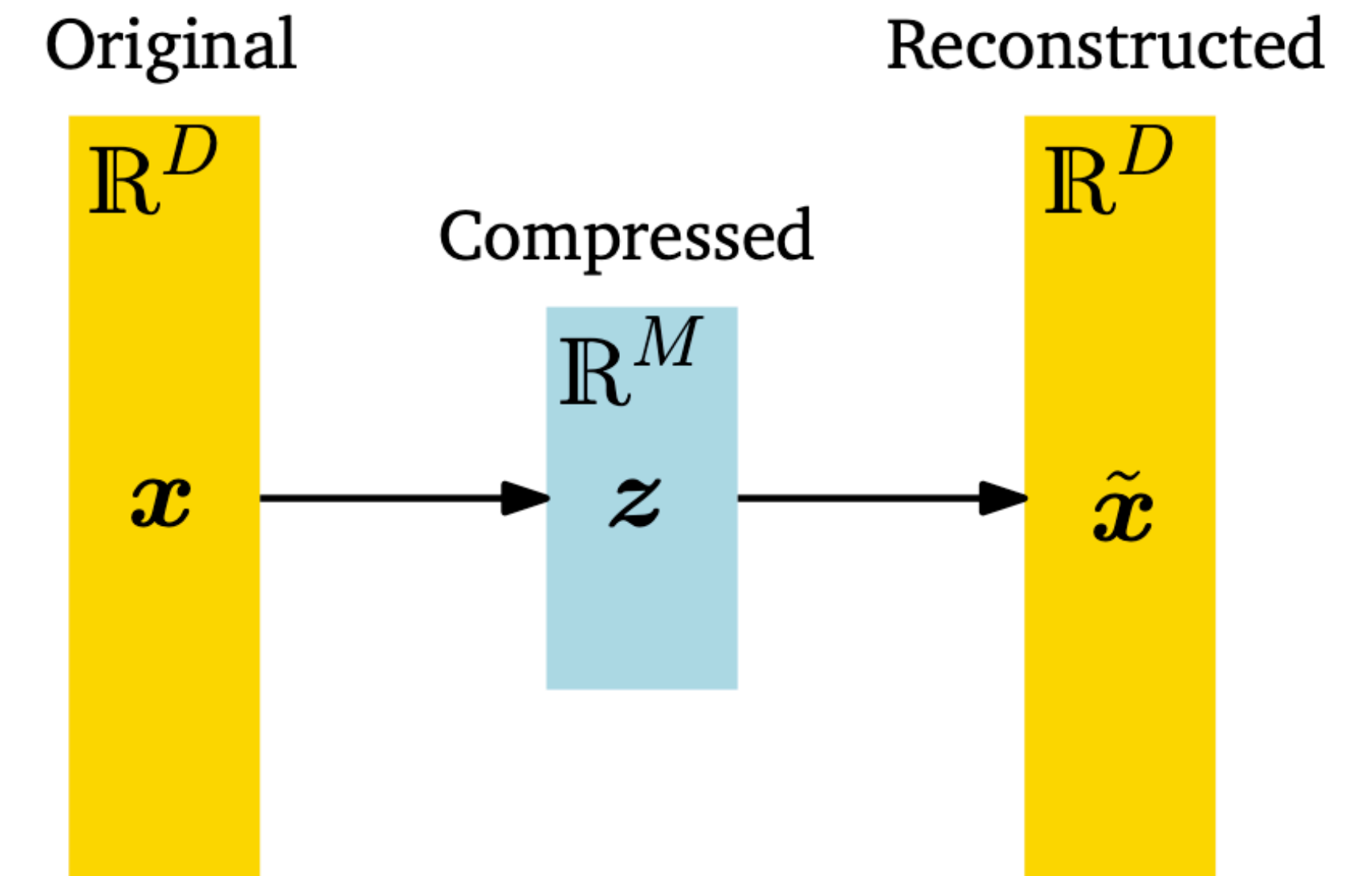
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# PCA - two perspectives



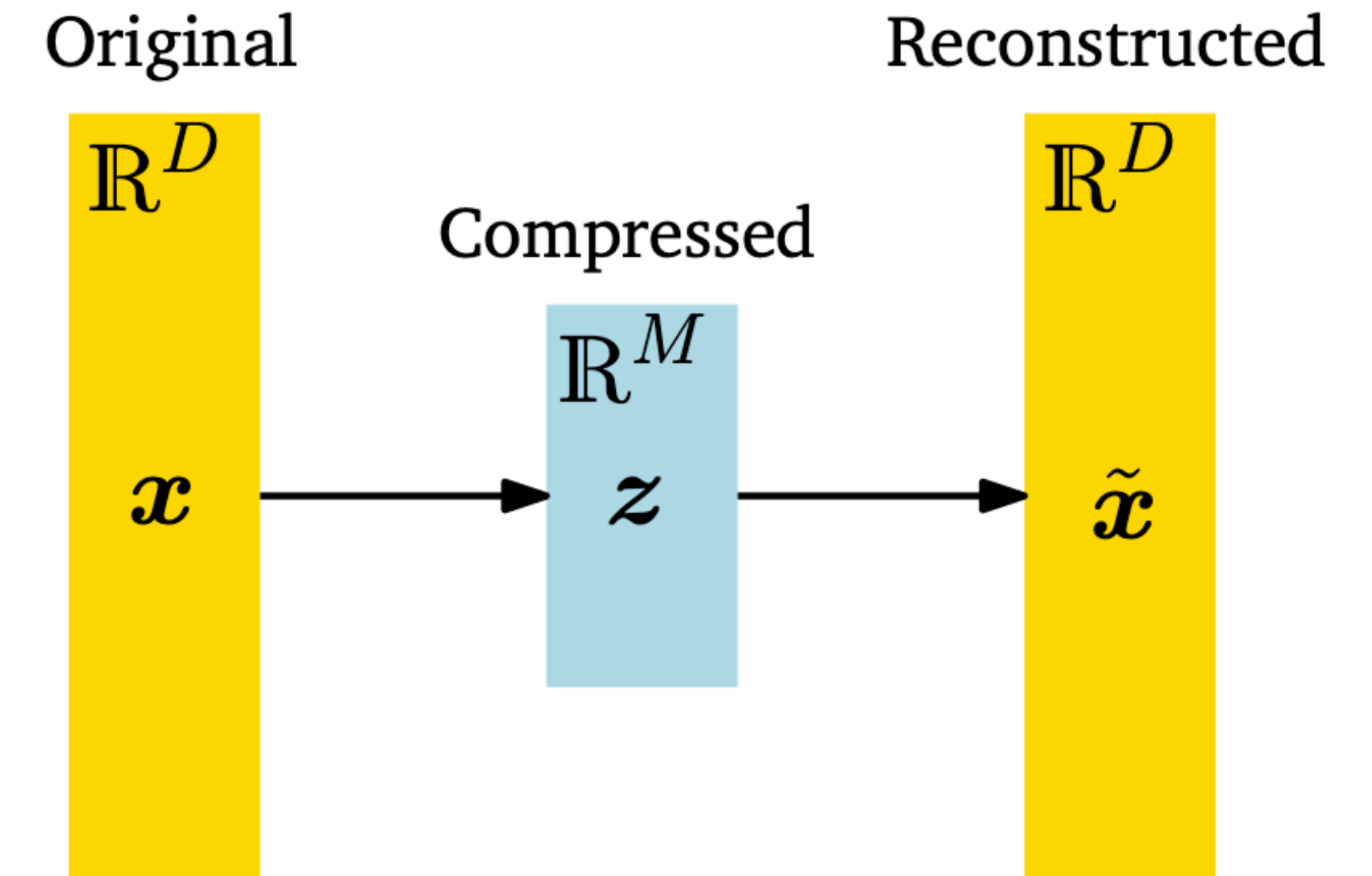
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$$z_n = B^\top x_n, z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M, M < D$$

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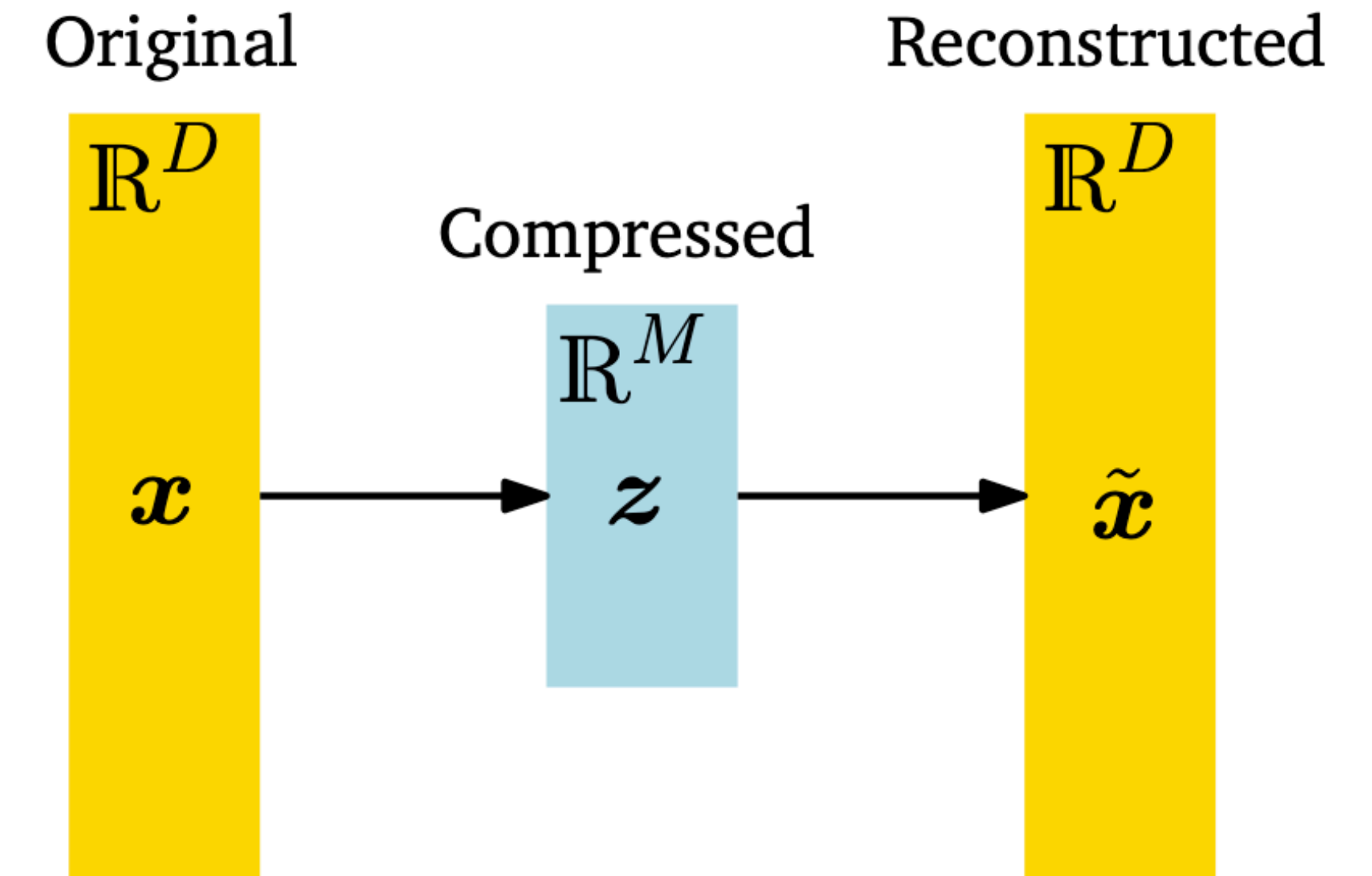
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**Question:** Next steps? Ideas?



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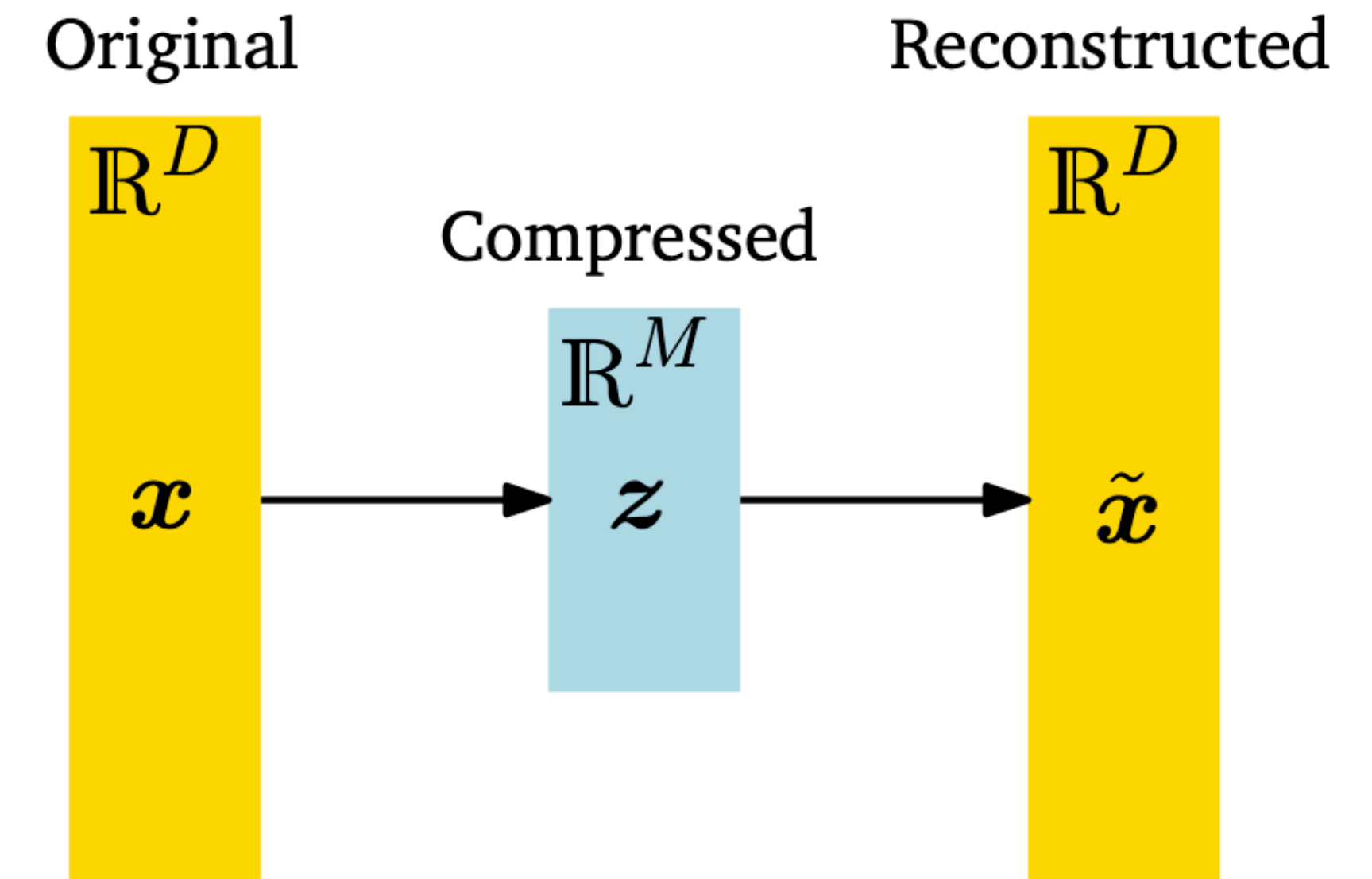
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**Question:** Next steps? Ideas?

**Answer:** Two approaches

- + Search for  $B$  that **maximises the variance** of the low-dimensional representations [analysis/max var perspective]
- + Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss [synthesis/projection perspective]

Both give *identical* solutions! **Why?**



**PCA: linear mappings**

$$z_n = B^T x_n, z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M, M < D$$

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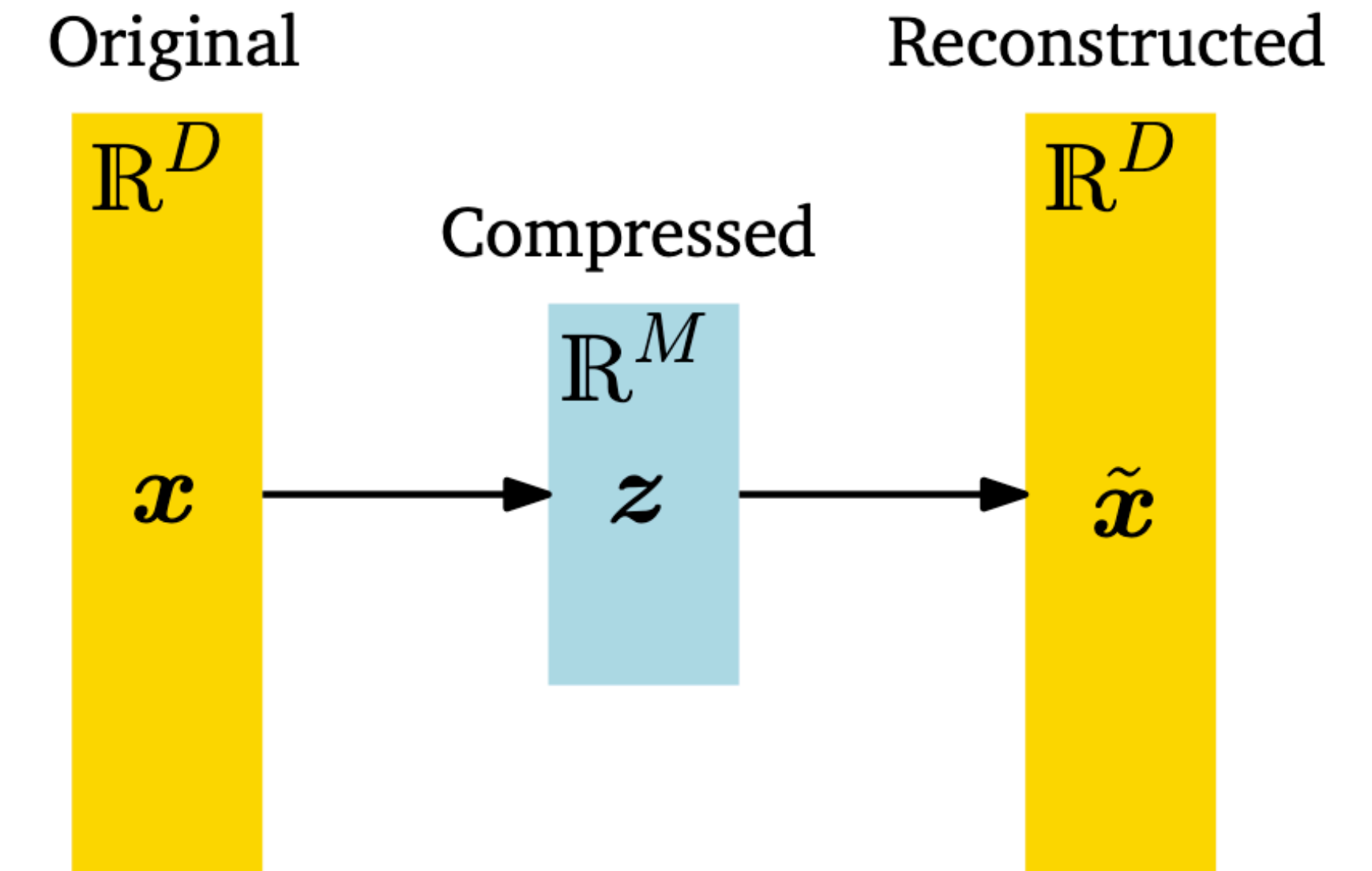


# First step: writing down the Variance

We have assumed that the mean of the data  $\mu = 0$ .

Data covariance matrix,  $S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n x_n^\top$

Variance of  $z$ :  $\mathbb{V}_z[z] = \mathbb{V}_x[B^\top(x - \mu)] = \mathbb{V}_x[B^\top x]$



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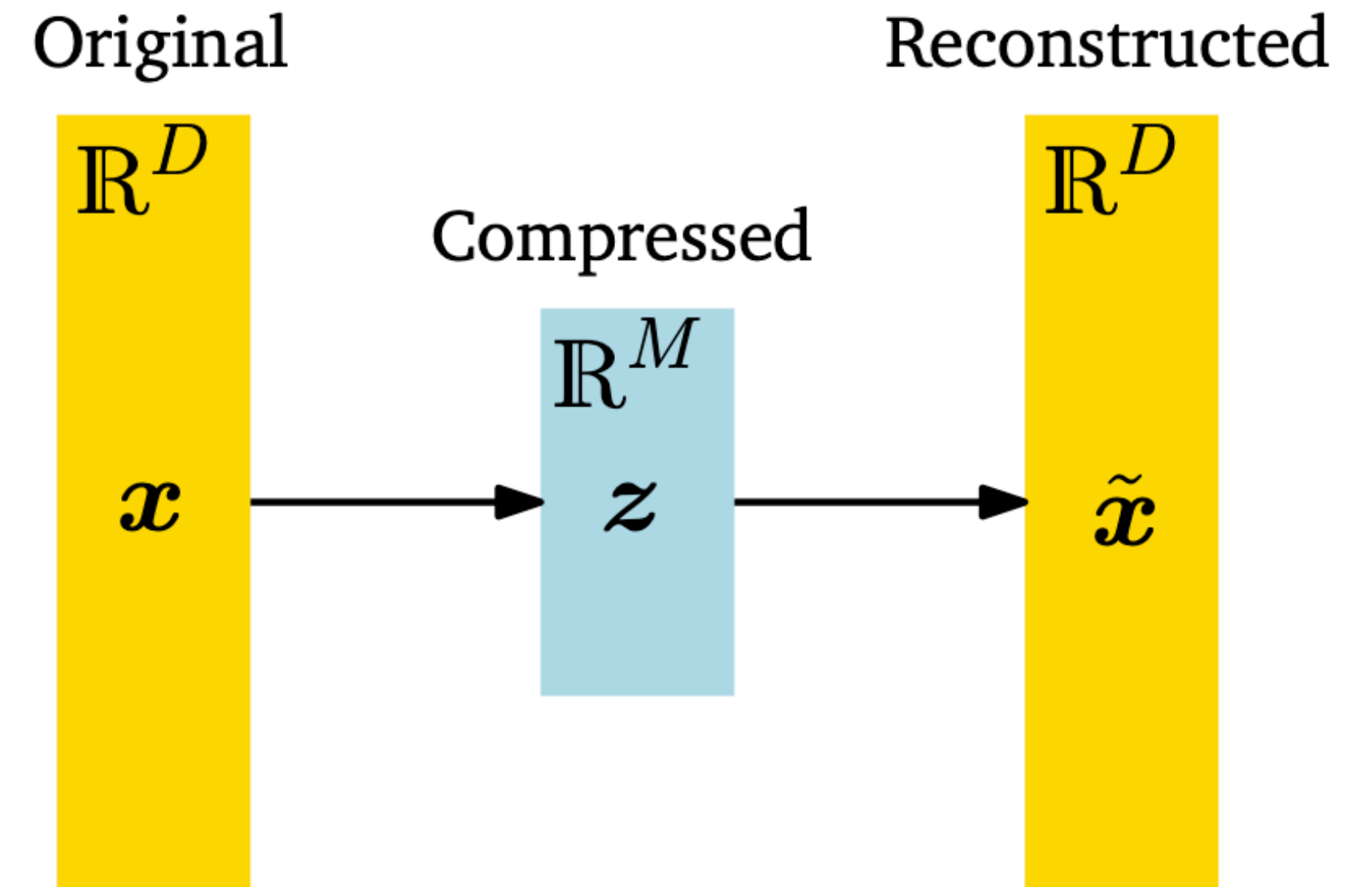
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## Strategy:

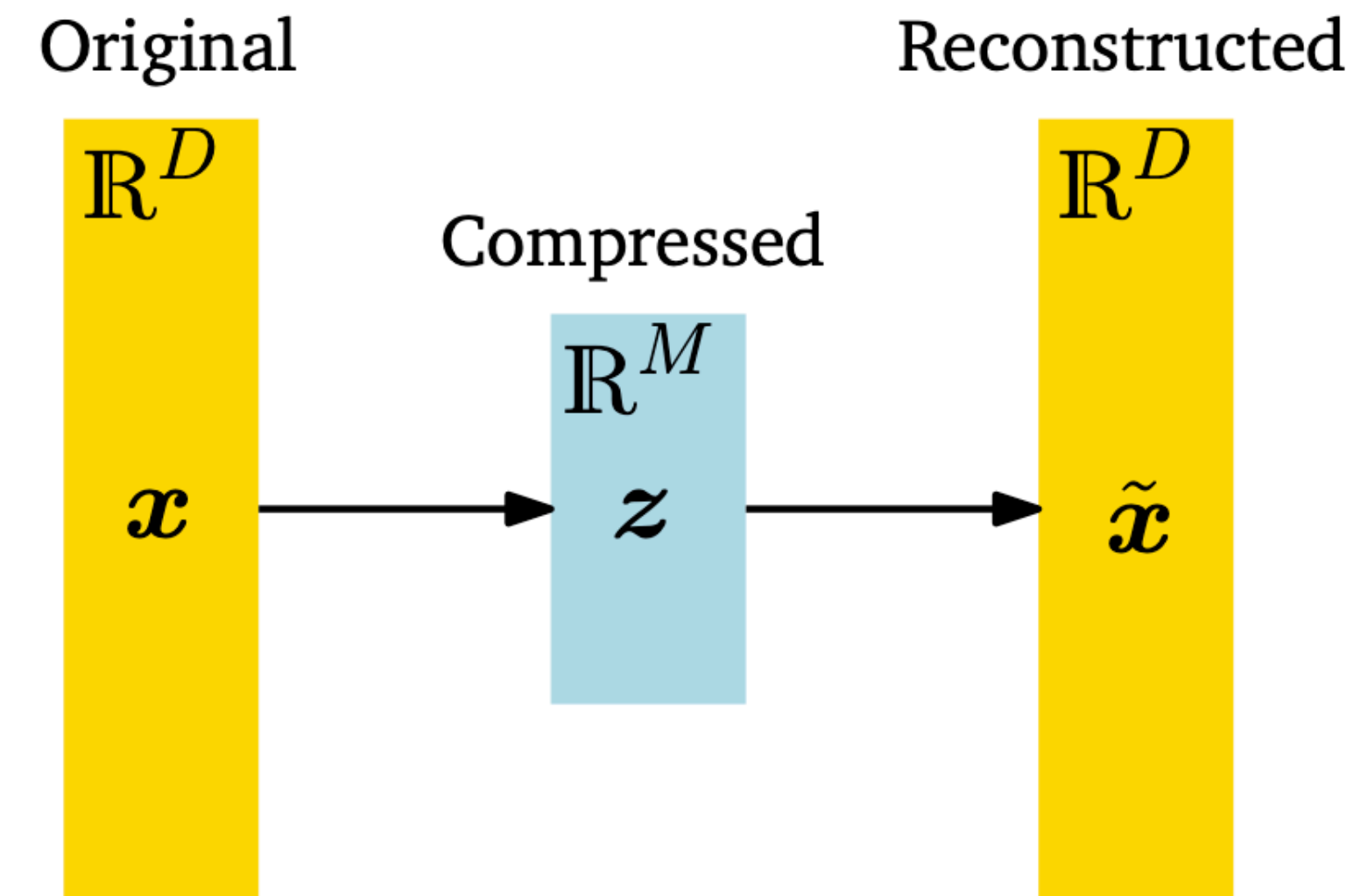
- + search for one single direction  $b_1$  that gives the largest variance
- + Search for the next direction  $b_2$  that gives the largest variance given  $b_1$
- + ... until we reach  $M$  directions

**PCA: linear mappings**

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# Direction with maximal variance



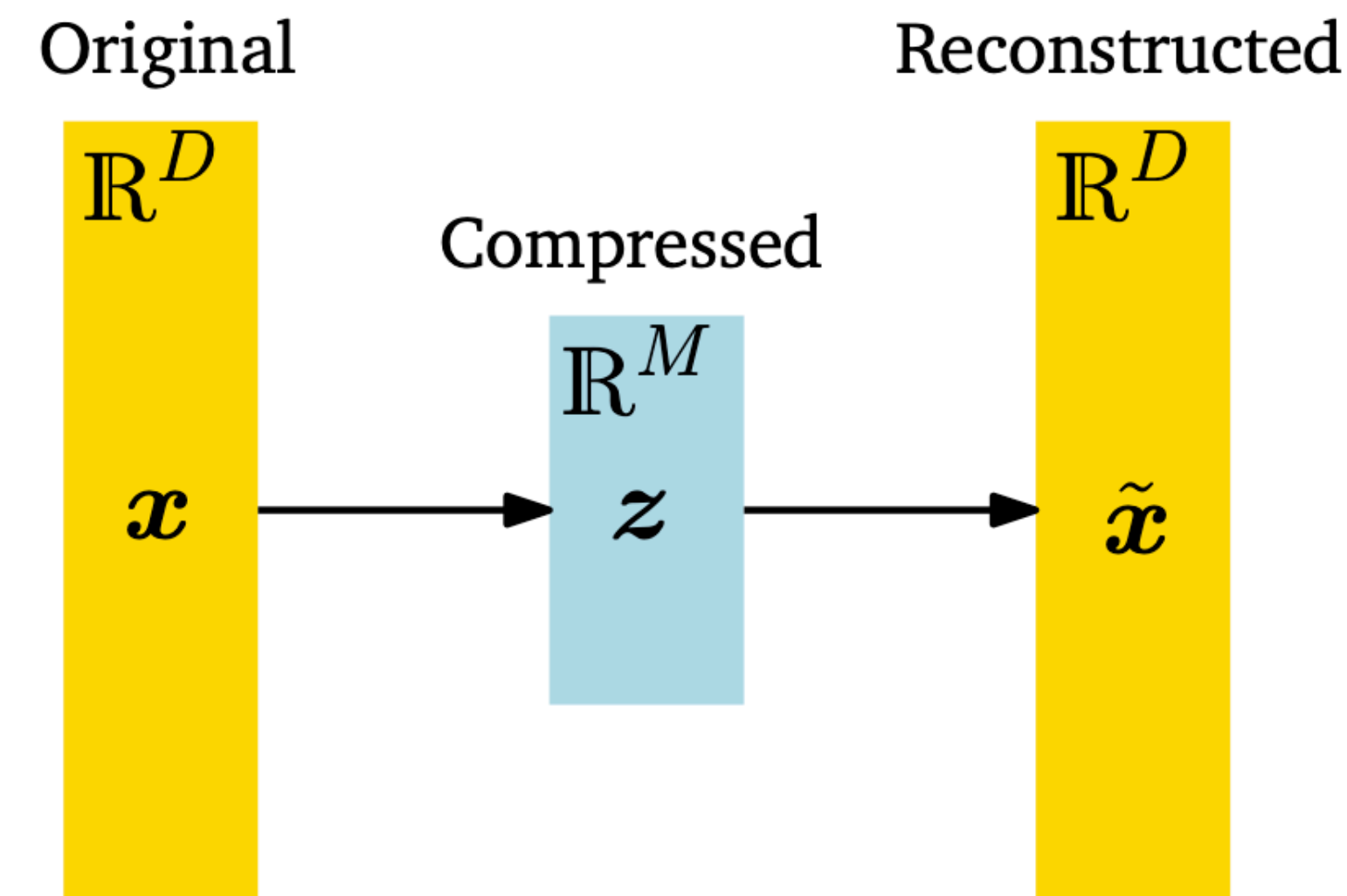
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# Direction with maximal variance

We first seek a single vector  $b_1 \in \mathbb{R}^D$  that maximises the variance of the first coordinate  $z_1$  of  $z \in \mathbb{R}^M$ :  $\mathbb{V}[z_1] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N z_{1n}^2$



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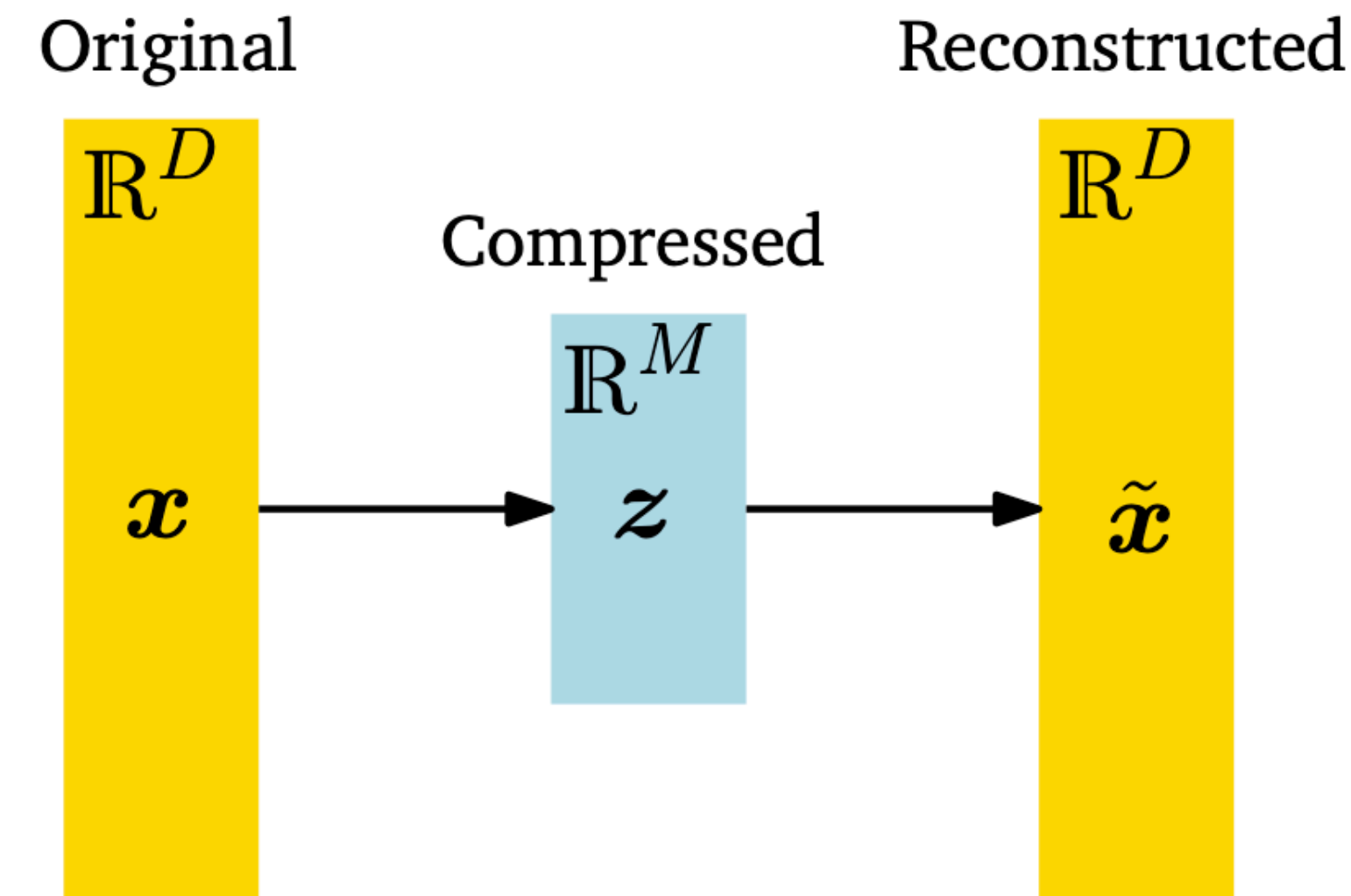
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And the variance is the corresponding *eigenvalue*.



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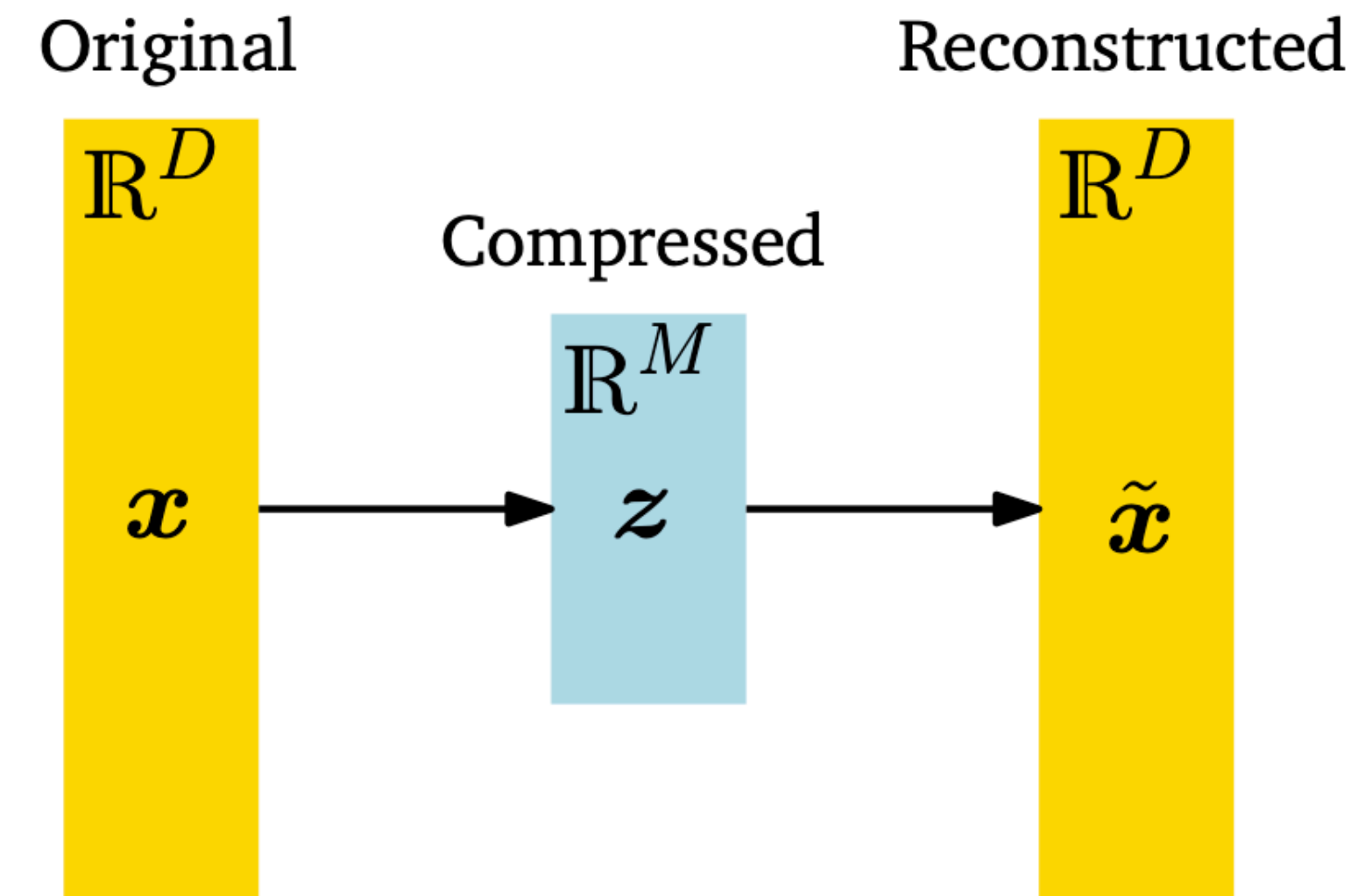
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The variance of the data projected onto a one-dimensional subspace equals the eigenvalue that is associated with the basis vector  $b_1$  that spans this subspace.



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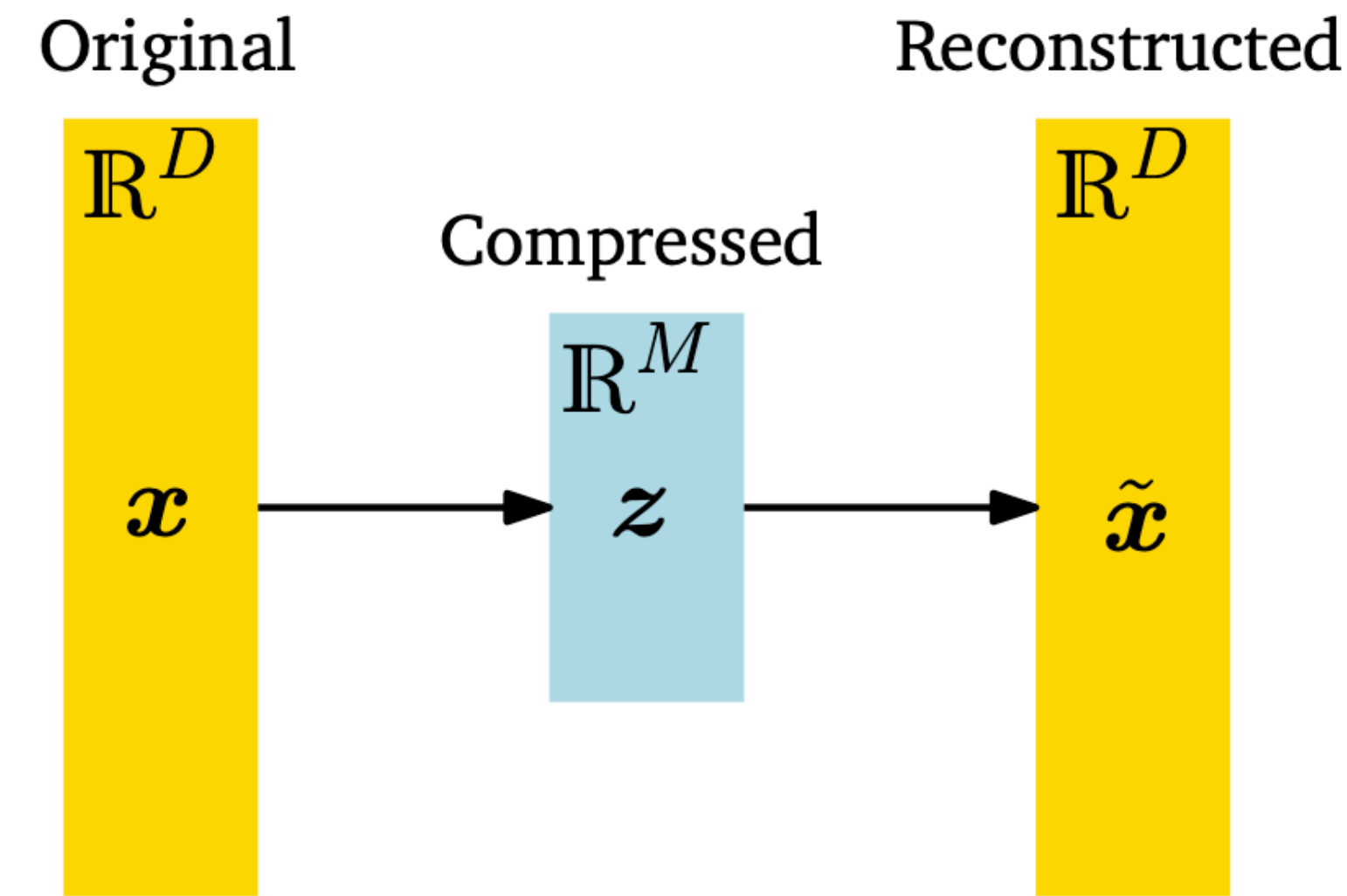
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The first basis vector is the eigenvector associated with the **largest eigenvalue** of the data covariance matrix. This eigenvector is called the first **principal component**.



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We subtract the effect of the first  $m - 1$  principal components  $b_1, \dots, b_{m-1}$  from the data, and find principal components that compress the **remaining information**. We then arrive at the new

data matrix,  $\hat{X} = X - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} b_i b_i^\top X = X - B_{m-1} X$ , where  $X, \hat{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times N}$

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To find the  $m$ -th principal component, we maximise the variance

$$\mathbb{V}[z_m] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N z_{mn}^2 = b_m^\top \hat{S} b_m$$

subject to  $\|b_m\|^2 = 1$ , and we define  $\hat{S}$  as the data covariance matrix of  $\hat{X}$ .

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The optimal  $b_m$  is the eigenvector of  $\hat{S}$  that is associated with the largest eigenvalue of  $\hat{S}$

In fact, we can derive that

$$\hat{S}b_m = Sb_m = \lambda_m b_m$$

$b_m$  is not only an eigenvector of  $S$  but also of  $\hat{S}$ .

Specifically,  $\lambda_m$  is the **largest** eigenvalue of  $\hat{S}$  and the  **$m$ -th largest** eigenvalue of  $S$ , and both have the associated eigenvector  $b_m$ .

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The variance of the data projected onto the  $m$ -th principal component is

$$V_m = b_m^\top \hat{S} b_m = b_m^\top \lambda_m b_m = \lambda_m$$

This means that the **variance of the data**, when projected onto an  $M$ -dimensional subspace, **equals the sum of the eigenvalues** that are associated with the corresponding eigenvectors of the data covariance matrix.

# Recap

**Goal:** To find an  $M$ -dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^D$  that retains as much information as possible

**Solution:** We choose the columns of  $B = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_M] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times M}$  as the  $M$  eigenvectors of the data covariance matrix  $S$  that are associated with the  $M$  largest eigenvalues.

**Captured variance:** The maximum amount of variance PCA can capture with the first  $M$

principal components is  $V_M = \sum_{m=1}^M \lambda_m$ .

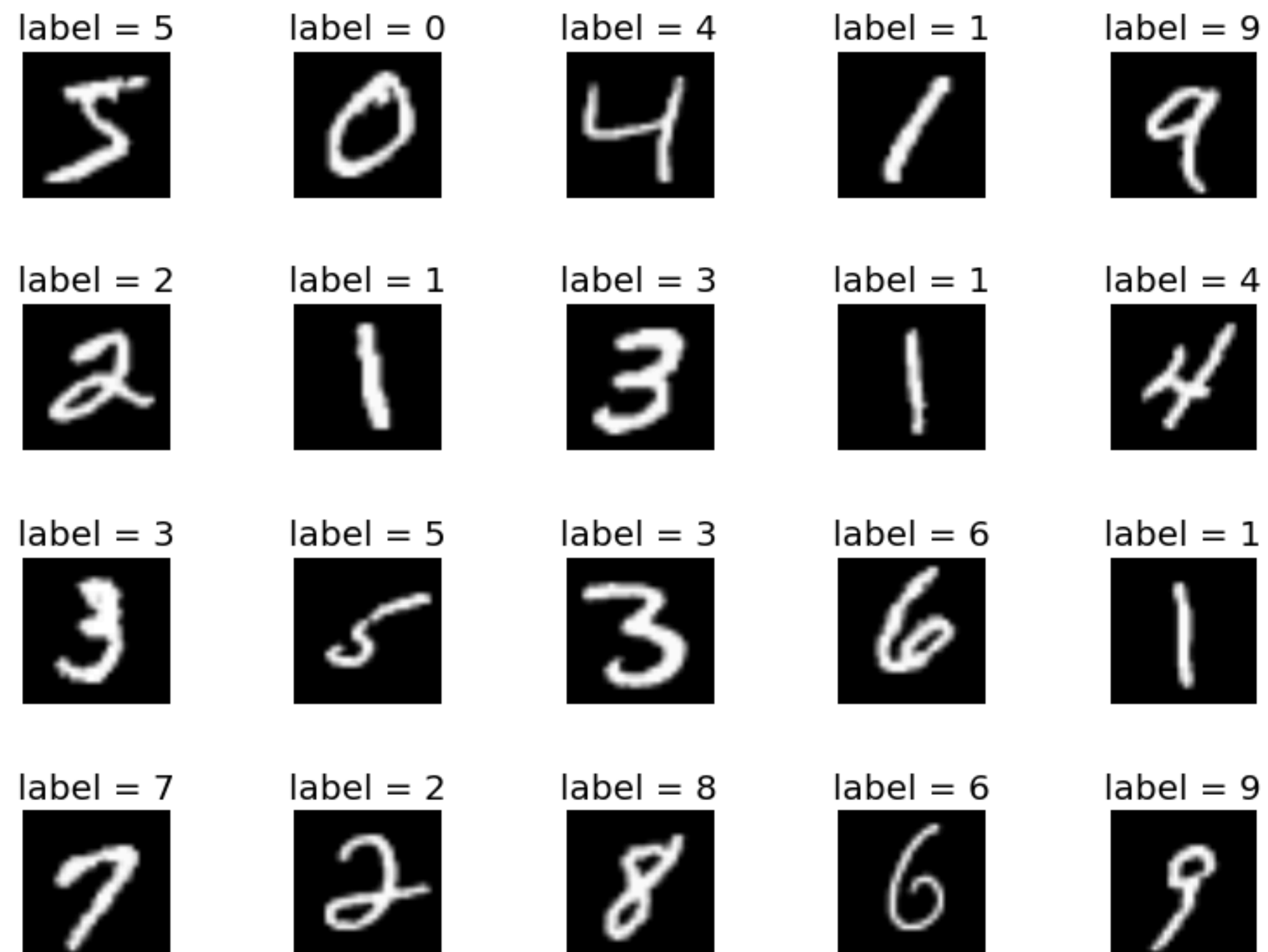
**Lost variance:**  $J_M = \sum_{m=M+1}^D \lambda_m = V_D - V_M$

Instead of these absolute quantities, we can define the relative variance captured as  $V_M/V_D$ , and the relative variance lost by compression as  $1 - V_M/V_D$ .

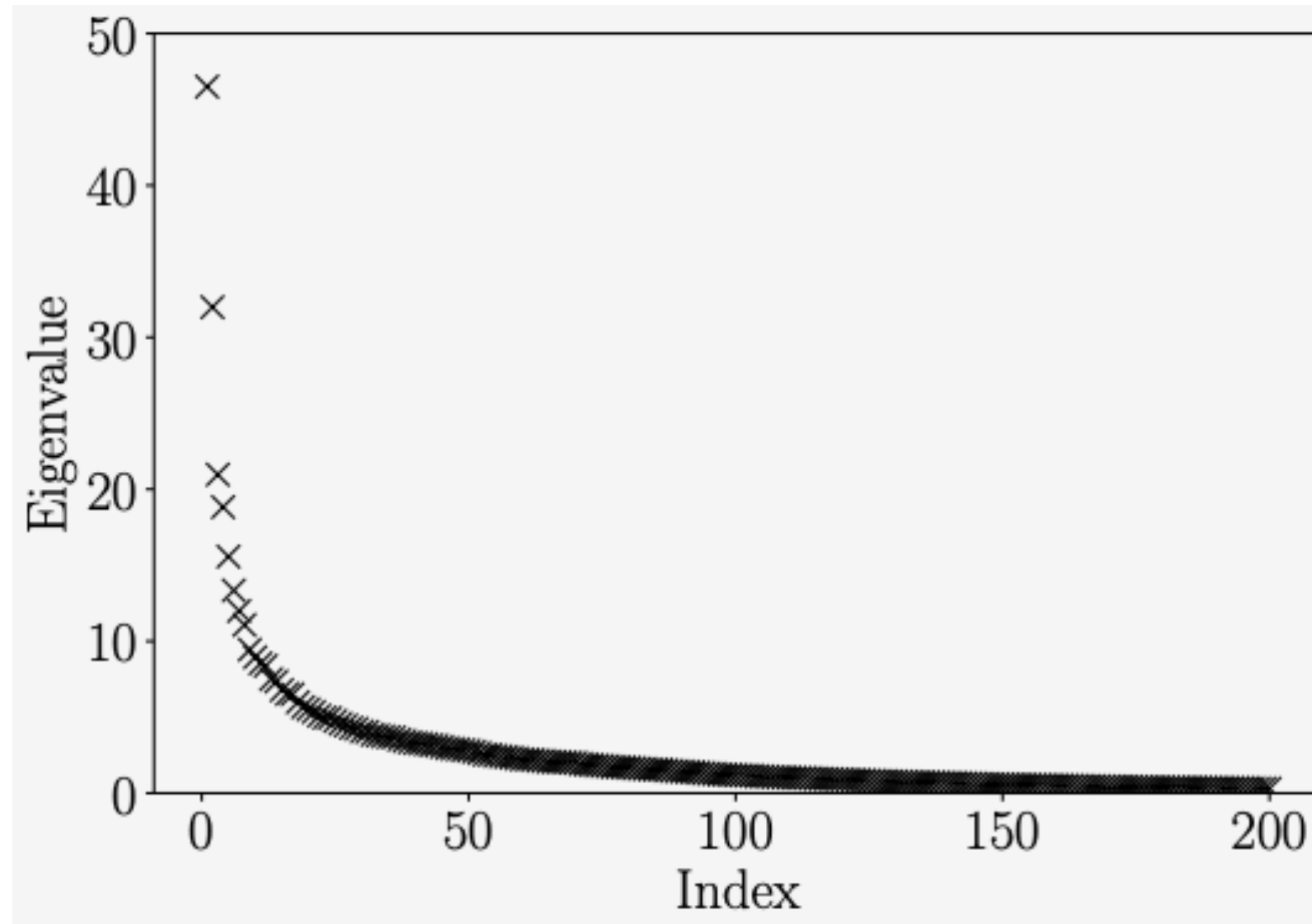


# Example - dataset

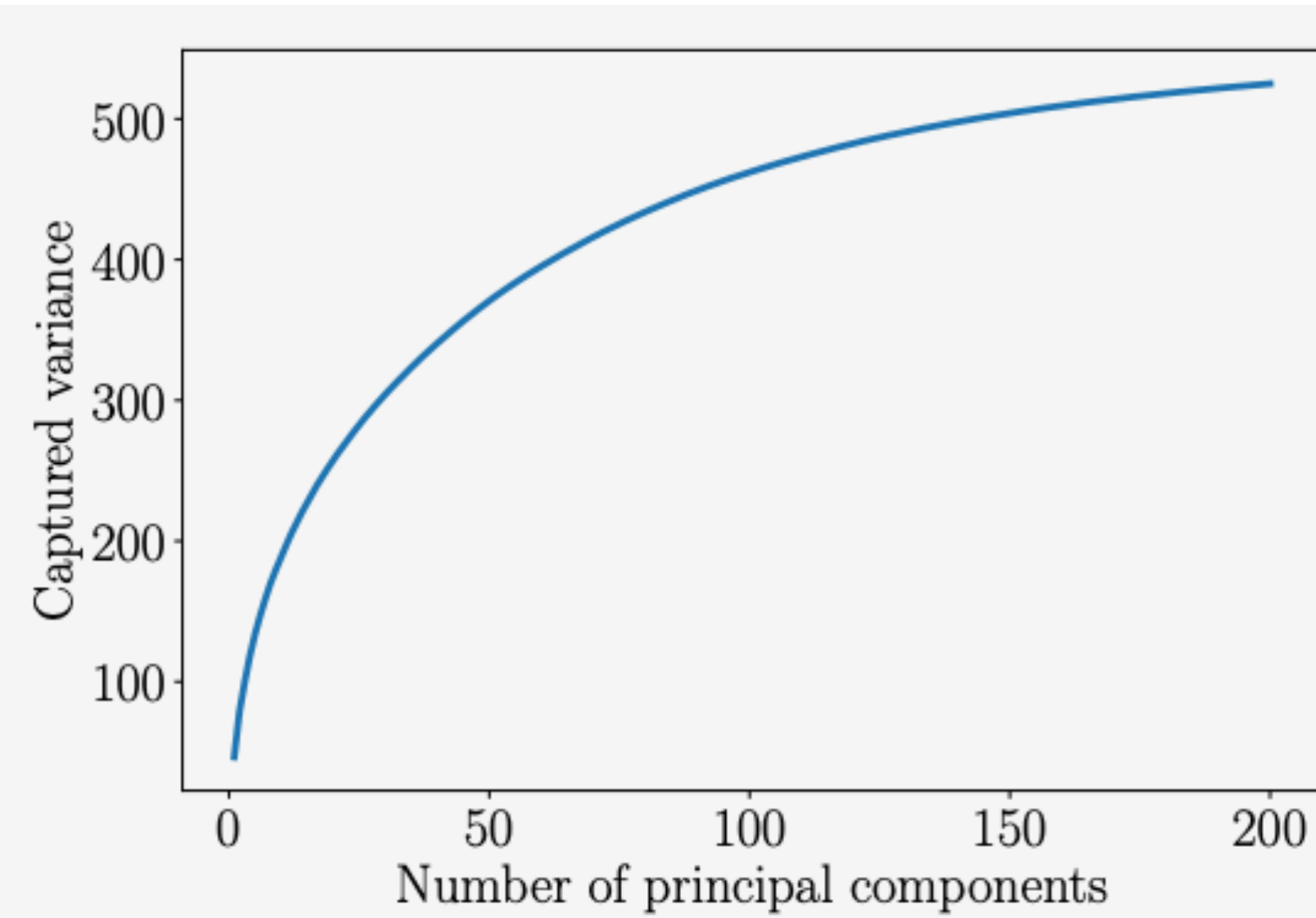
- 60,000 examples of handwritten digits 0 through 9.
- Each digit is a grayscale image of size 28×28, i.e., it contains 784 pixels.
- We can interpret every image in this dataset as a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$



# Example - captured variance



(a) Top 200 largest eigenvalues



(b) Variance captured by the principal components.

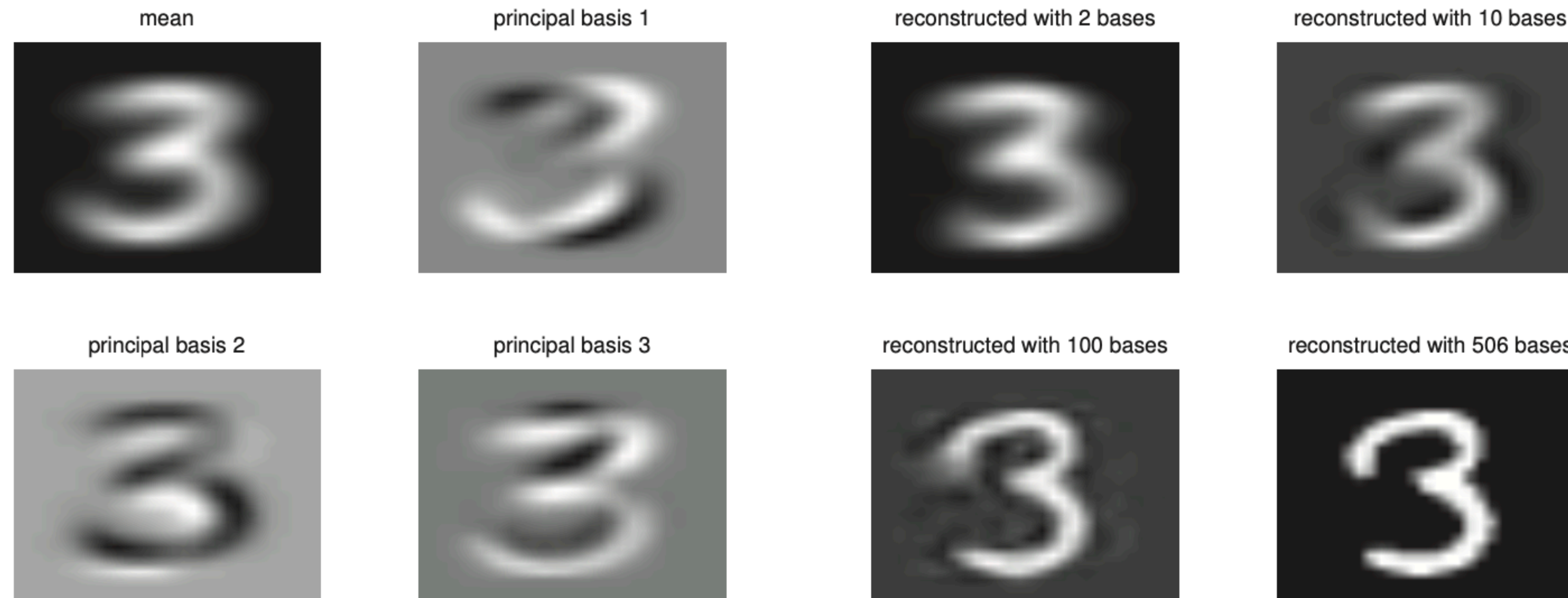
A 784-dim vector is used to represent an image

Taking all images of “8” in MNIST, we compute the eigenvalues of the data covariance matrix.

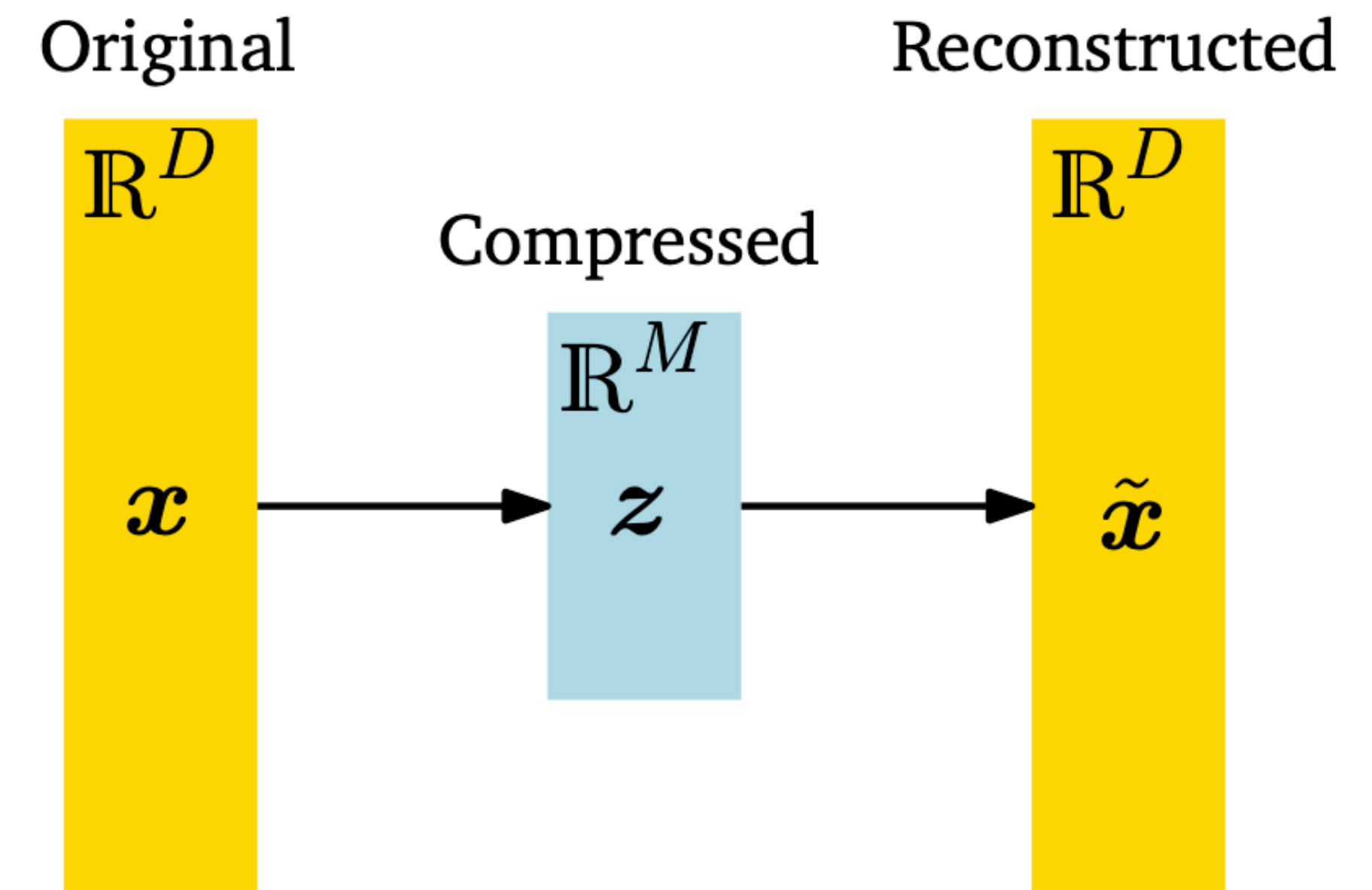
We see that only a few of them have a value that differs significantly from 0.

Most of the variance, when projecting data onto the subspace spanned by the corresponding eigenvectors, is captured by only a few principal components

# Example - reconstruction



# Recap: Problem setup



# Recap: Problem setup

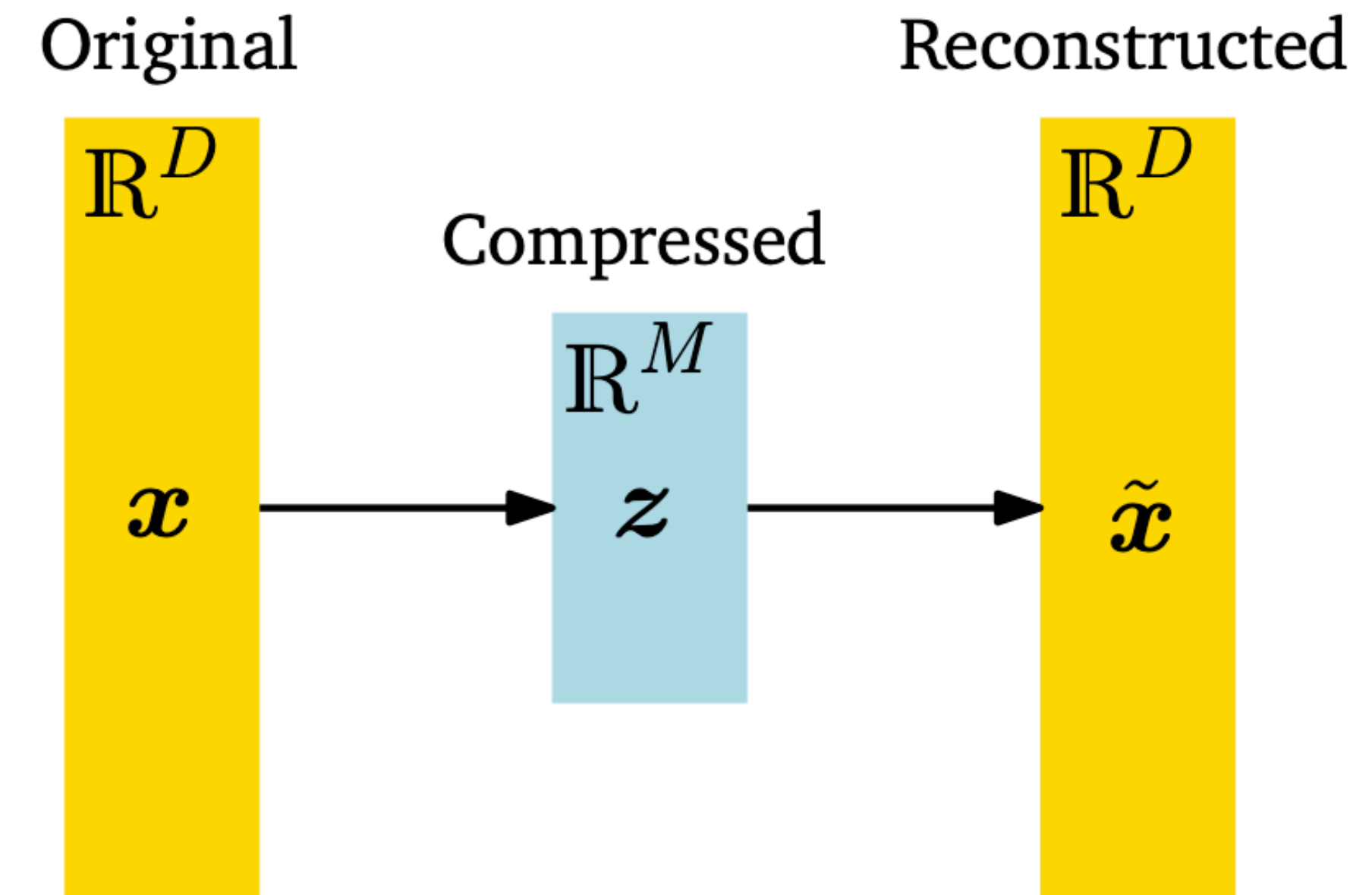
We consider an i.i.d. dataset  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$ ,  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ,

with mean  $\mathbf{0}$  and covariance matrix  $S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n x_n^\top$

We assume there exists a *low-dimensional* compressed representation (code):  $z_n = B^\top x_n$ ,  $z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M$ ,  $M < D$ .

The projection matrix:  $B = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_M] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times M}$ , columns are orthonormal.

*Reconstruction* using  $B$ :  $\tilde{x}_n = B z_n$



# Recap: Problem setup

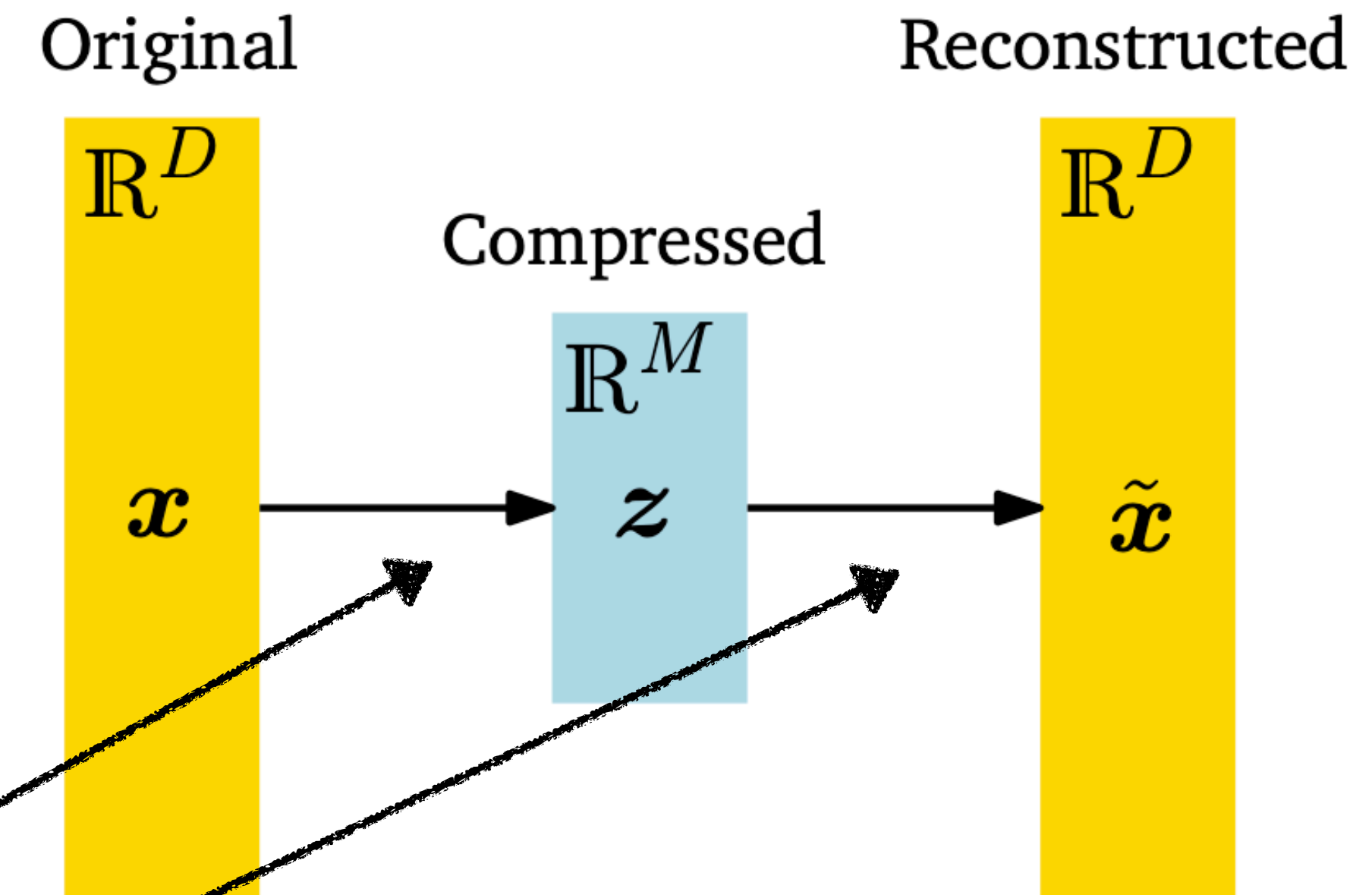
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**PCA: linear mappings**



# Recap: Problem setup

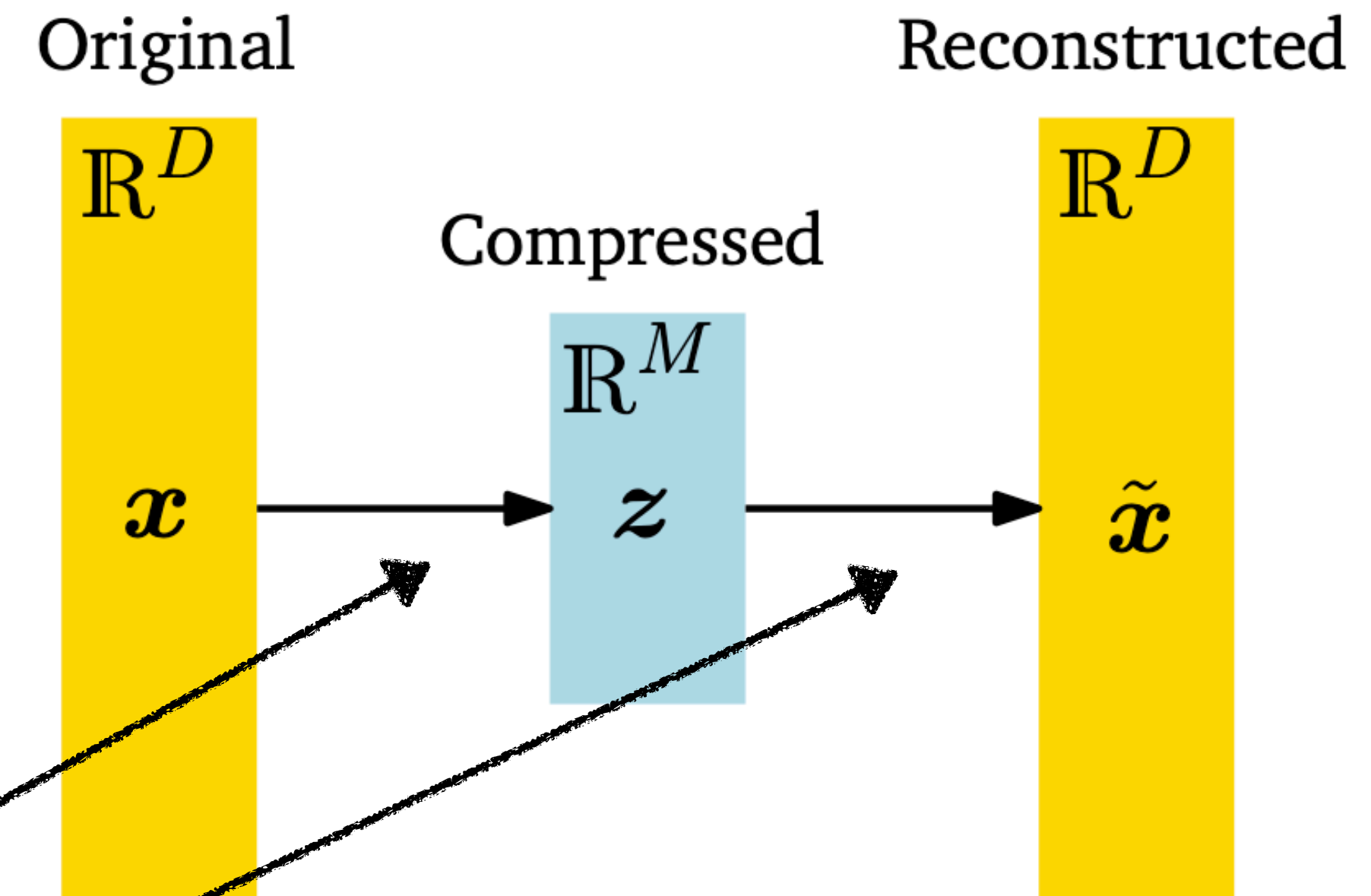
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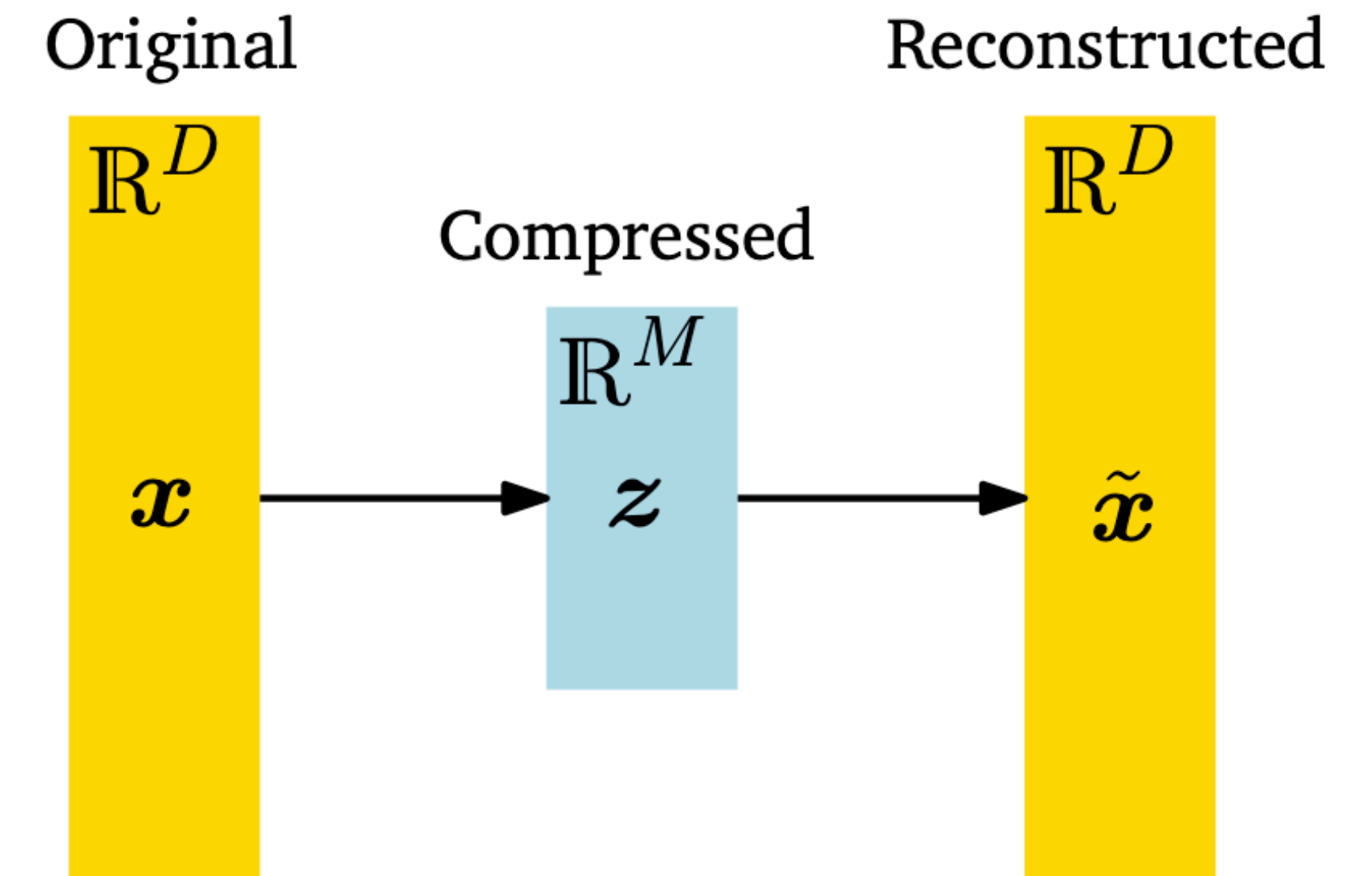
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**PCA: linear mappings**

**Goal:** find  $z_n$  and the *basis vectors*  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_M$  so that the reconstructed data are *similar* to the original data, and the compressed data retain most of the *variation* in the original data

# Recap: PCA - two perspectives



**PCA: linear mappings**

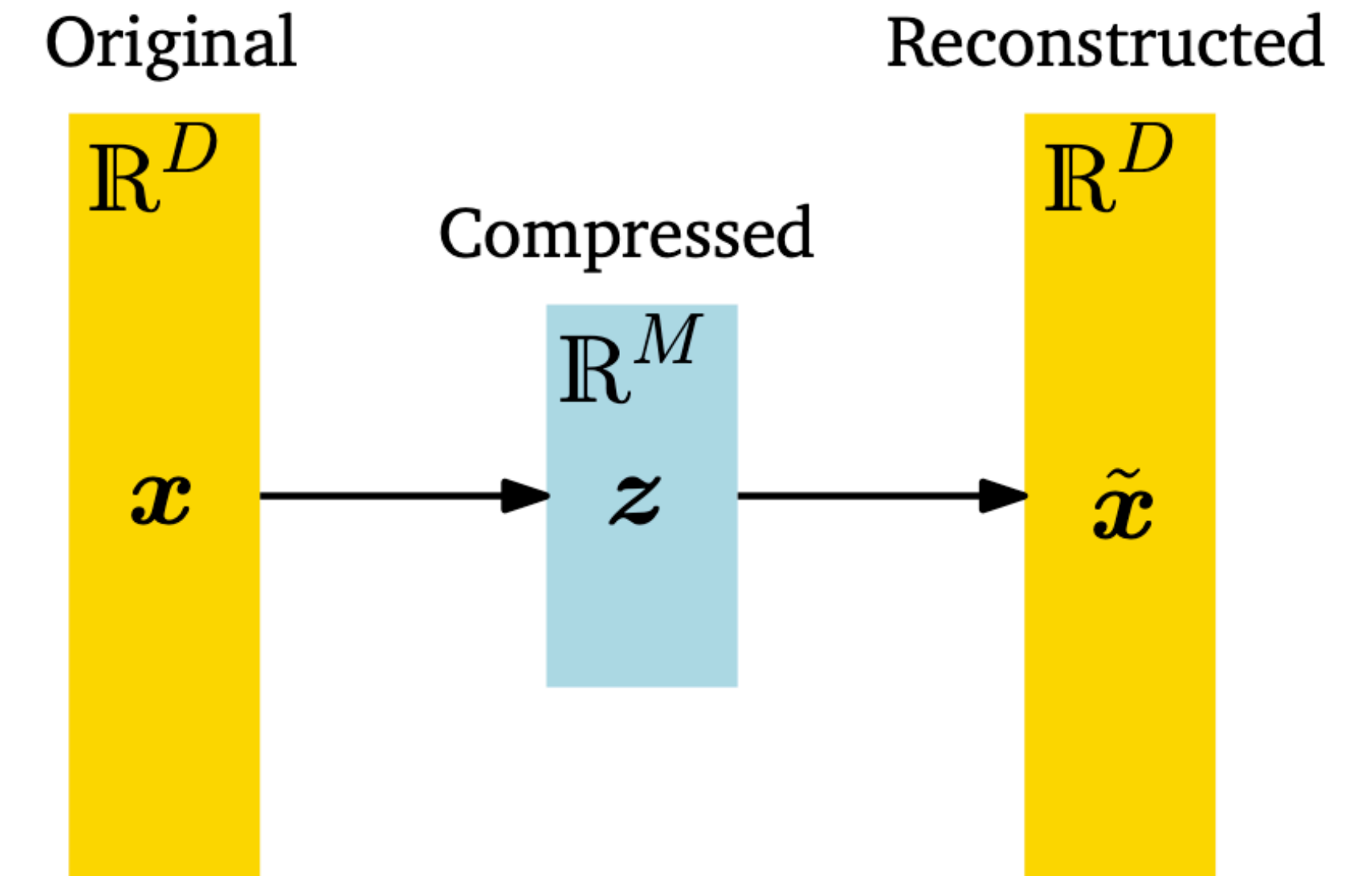
$$z_n = B^\top x_n, z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M, M < D$$

$$\tilde{x}_n = B z_n$$



# Recap: PCA - two perspectives

**Goal:** find  $z_n$  and the *basis vectors*  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_M$  so that the **reconstructed data are *similar* to the original data**, and the **compressed data retain most of the *variation*** in the original data.



**PCA: linear mappings**

$$z_n = B^\top x_n, z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M, M < D$$

$$\tilde{x}_n = B z_n$$

# Recap: PCA - two perspectives

**Goal:** find  $z_n$  and the *basis vectors*  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_M$  so that the **reconstructed data are similar to the original data**, and the **compressed data retain most of the variation** in the original data.

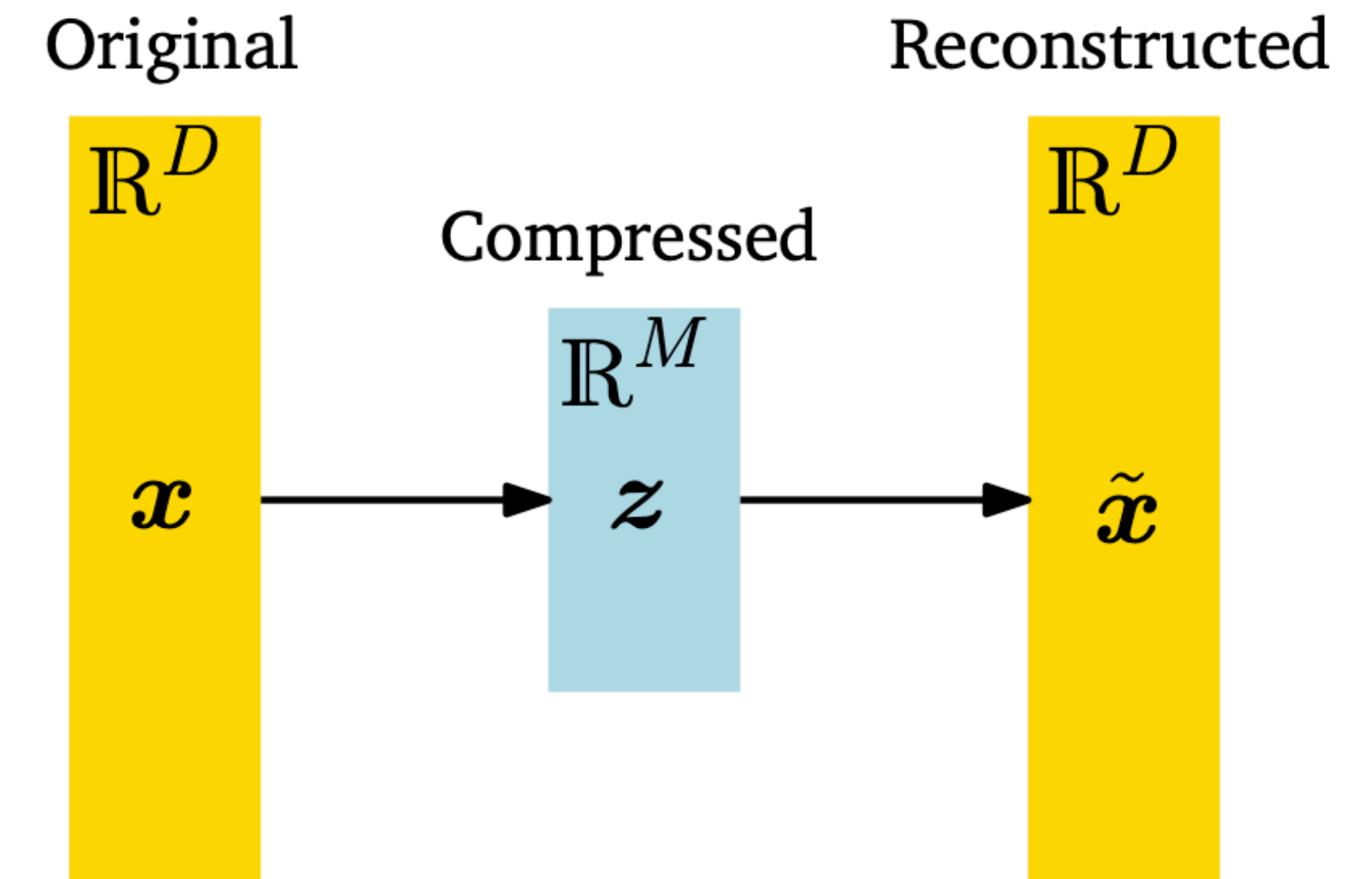
**Answer:** Two approaches

+ Search for  $B$  that **maximises the variance** of the low-dimensional representations [analysis/max var perspective]

$$\text{Variance of } z: \mathbb{V}_z[z] = \mathbb{V}_x[B^\top x]$$

+ **Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss**  
[synthesis/projection perspective]

Both give *identical* solutions!



**PCA: linear mappings**

$$z_n = B^\top x_n, z_n \in \mathbb{R}^M, M < D$$

$$\tilde{x}_n = B z_n$$

# Overview

This lecture: Principal component analysis (PCA)

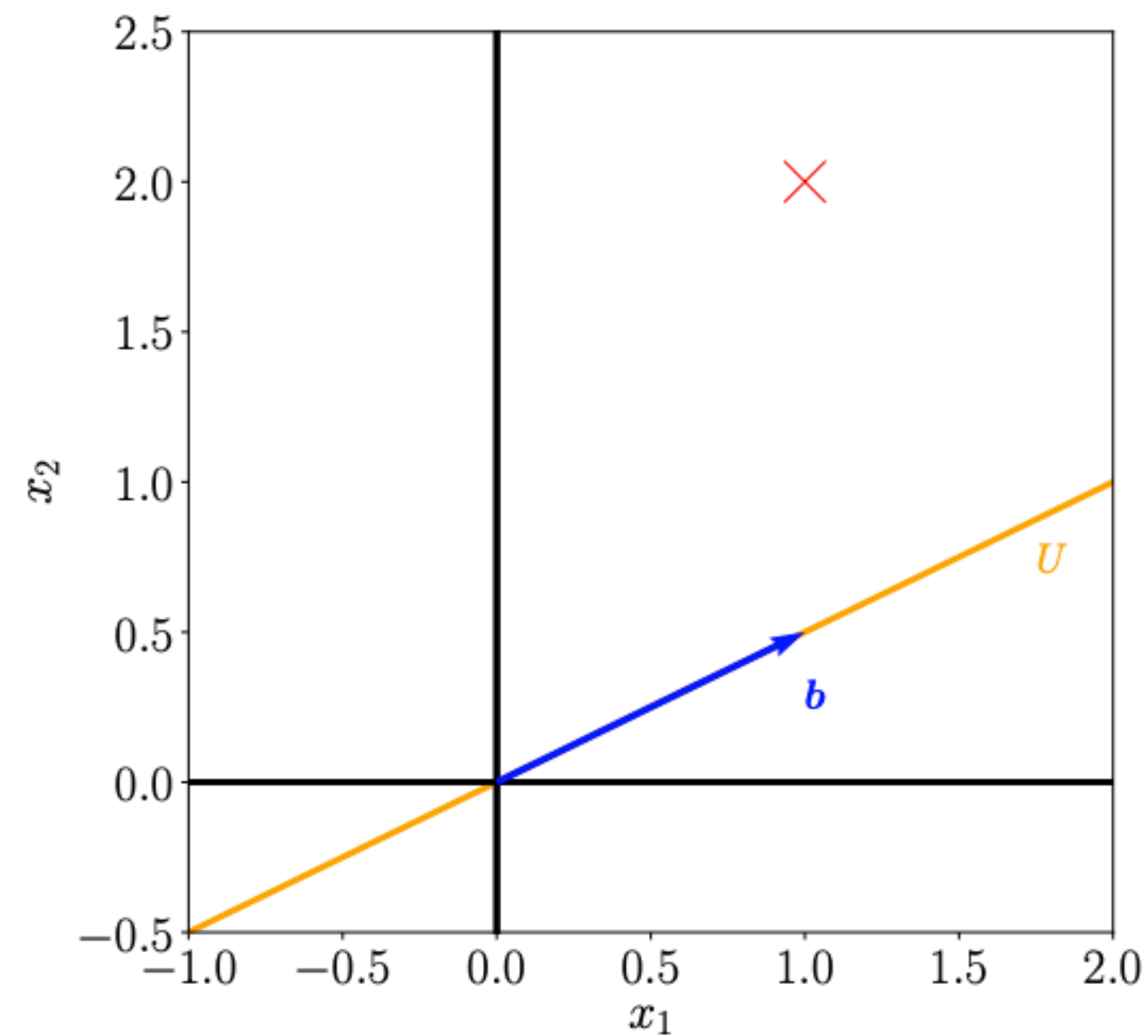
1. Motivation
2. Problem set up
3. PCA from maximum variance perspective (or analysis perspective)
4. **PCA from projection perspective (or synthesis perspective)**

# PCA - projection perspective

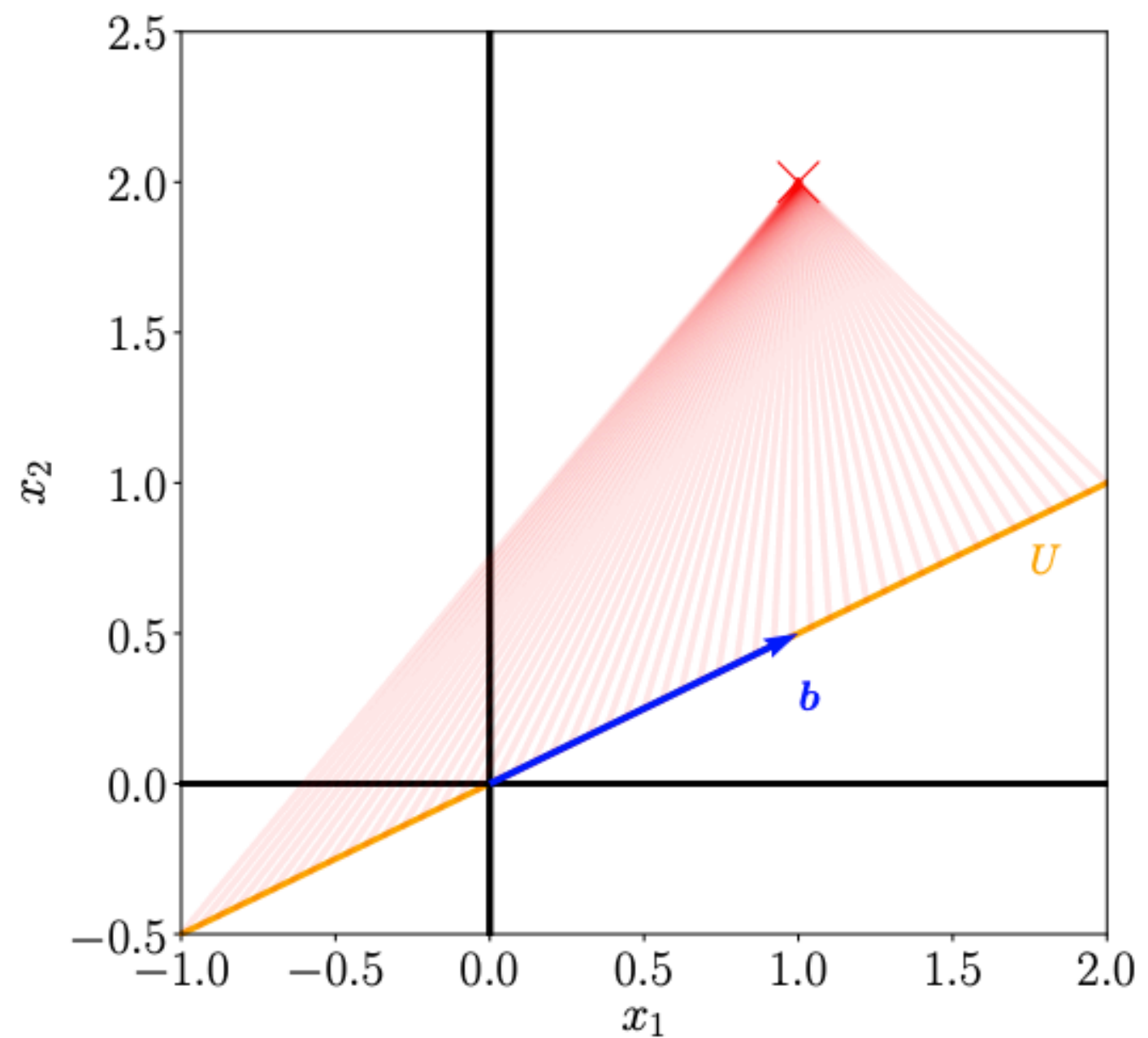
**Goal:** Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss

# PCA - projection perspective

**Goal:** Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss



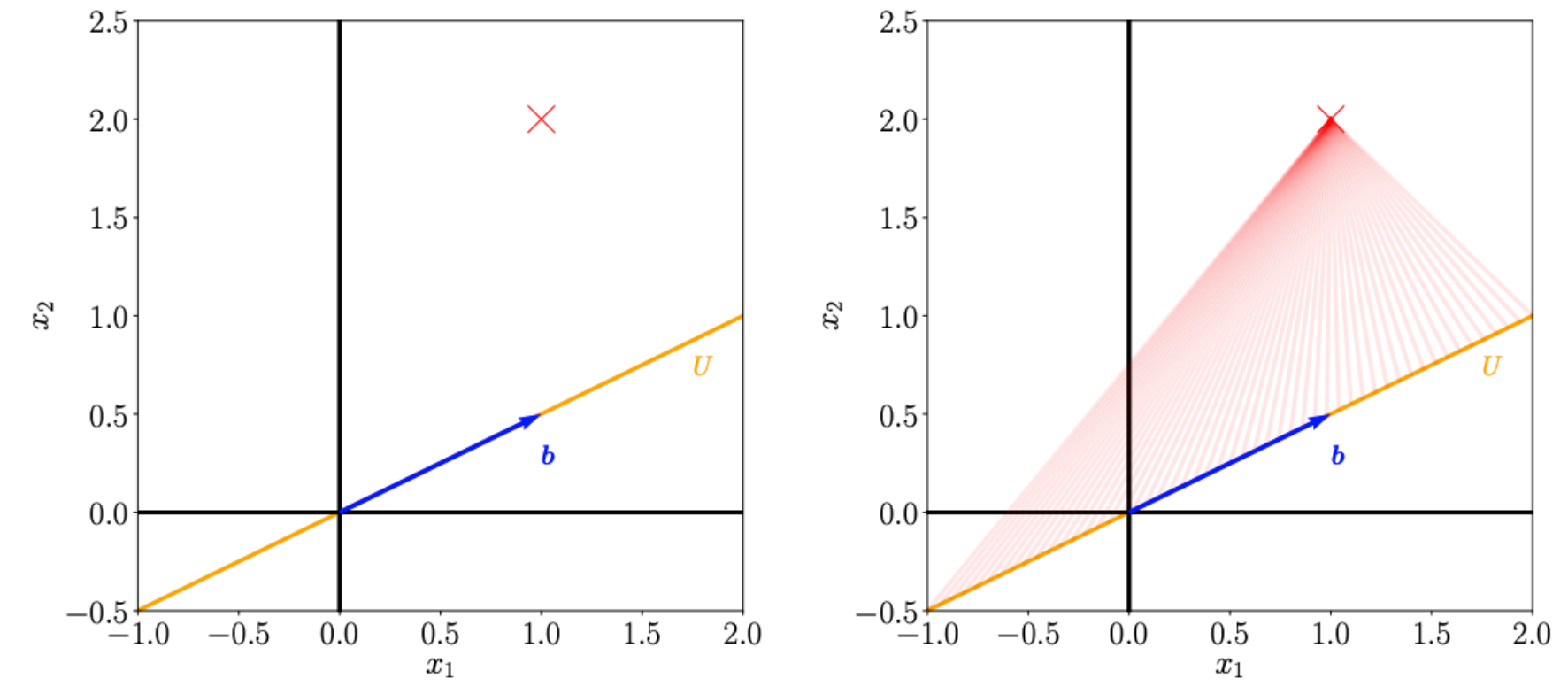
What low dimension subspace is best?



How to do projection onto that subspace?

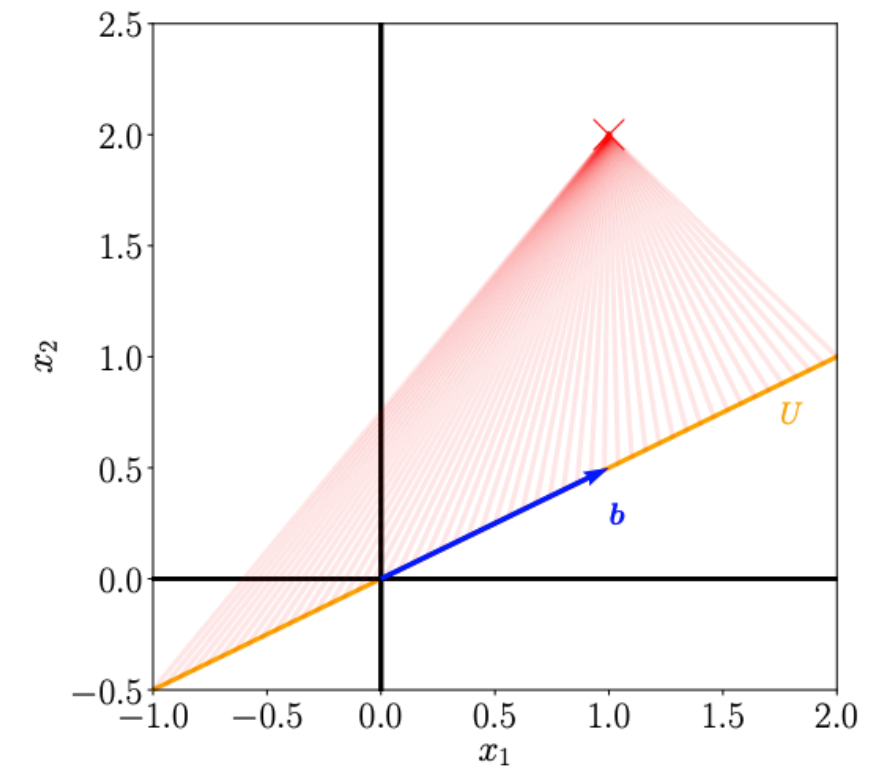
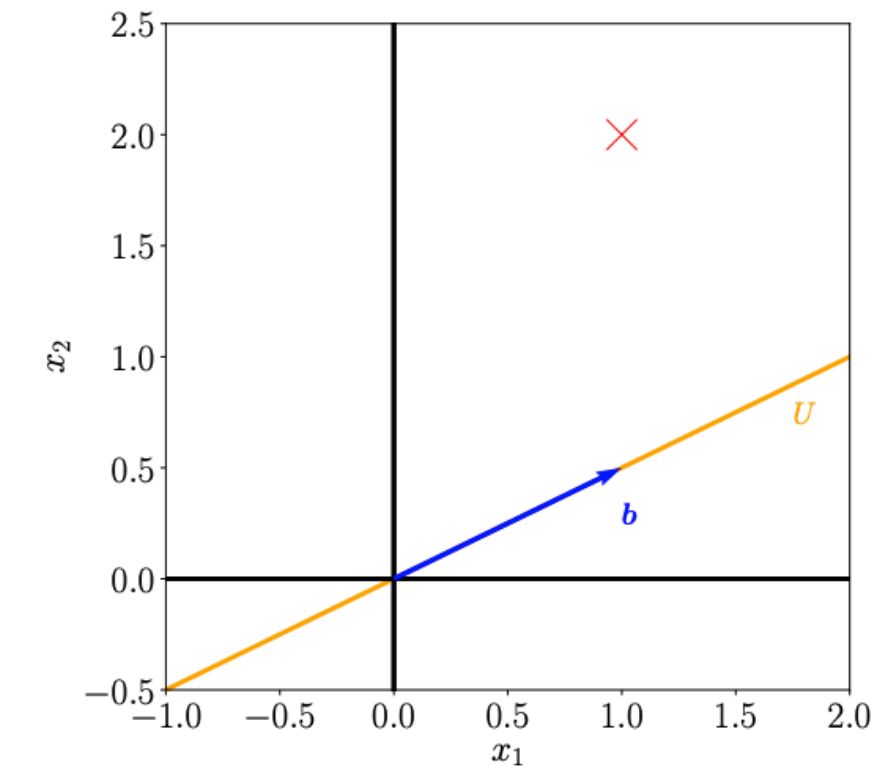
We wish to project  $x$  to  $\tilde{x}$  in a lower-dimensional subspace, such that  $\tilde{x}$  is similar to the original data point. That is, we minimise the (Euclidean) distance between the projection and the original data point.

# PCA - previous slide in maths



# PCA - previous slide in maths

**Goal:** Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss



# PCA - previous slide in maths

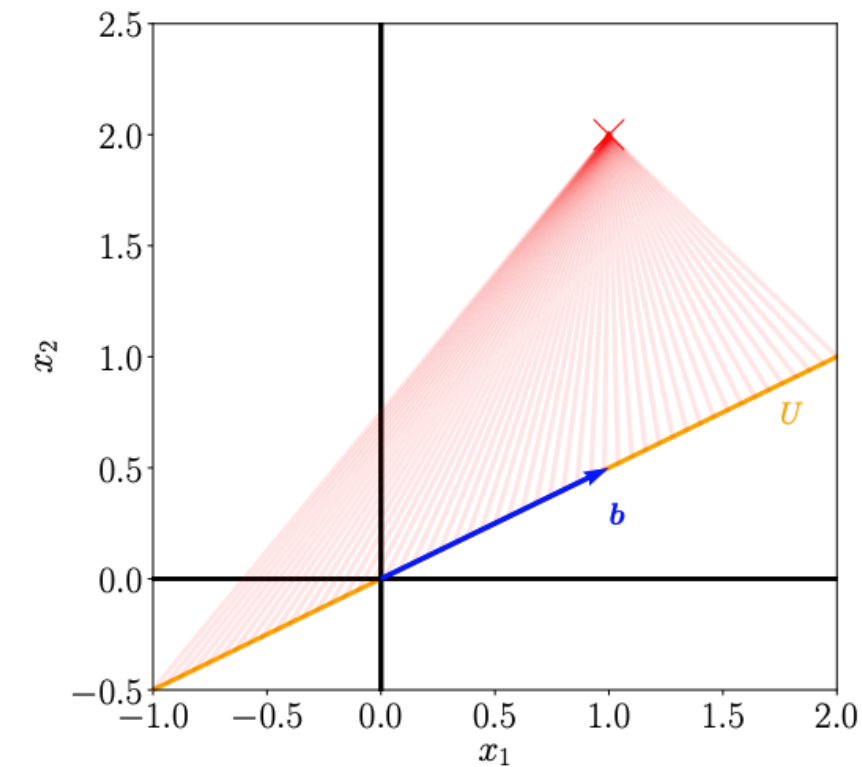
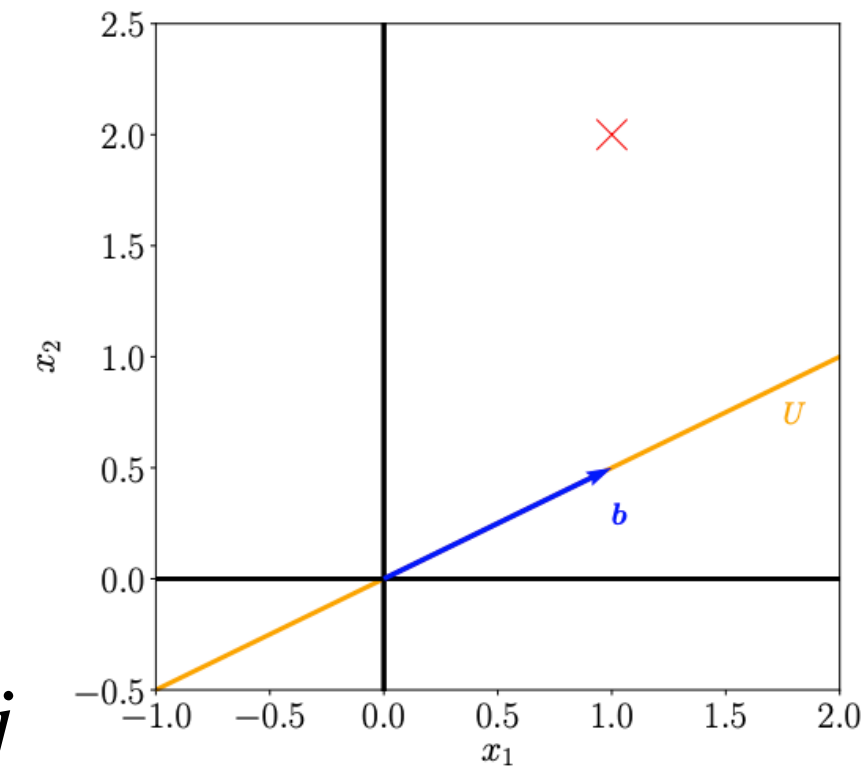
**Goal:** Search for B and z that minimises the reconstruction loss

Given an orthonormal basis  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_D\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^D$ ,

any  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$  can be written as a linear combination

of the basis vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^D$ :  $x_n = \sum_{d=1}^D \epsilon_{nd} b_d = \sum_{m=1}^M \epsilon_{nm} b_m + \sum_{j=M+1}^D \epsilon_{nj} b_j$

for suitable coordinates  $\epsilon_d \in \mathbb{R}$ .





# PCA - previous slide in maths

**Goal:** Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss

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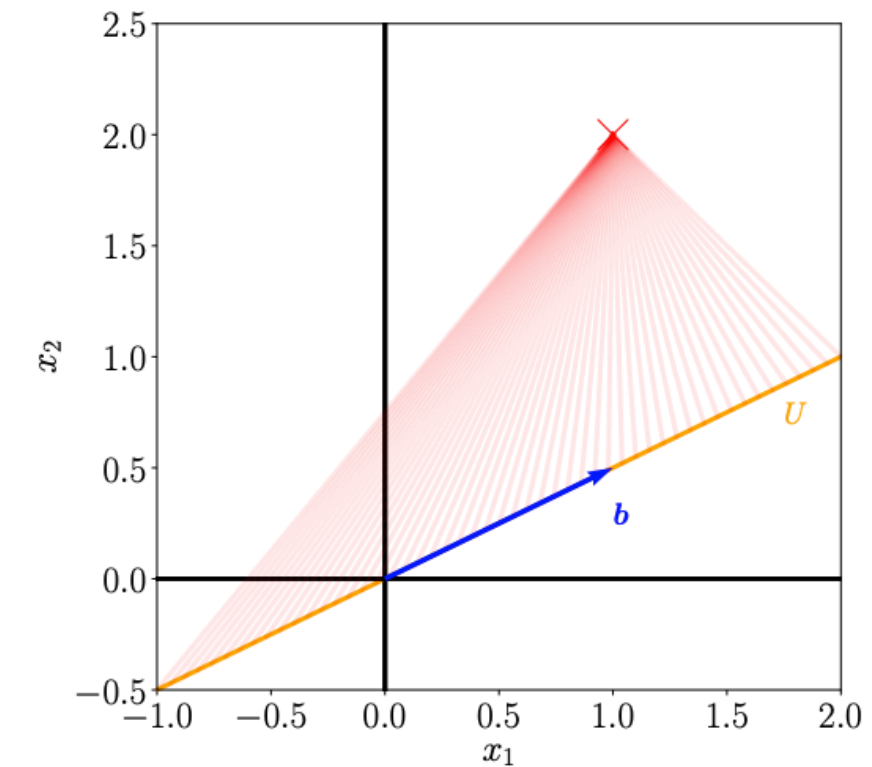
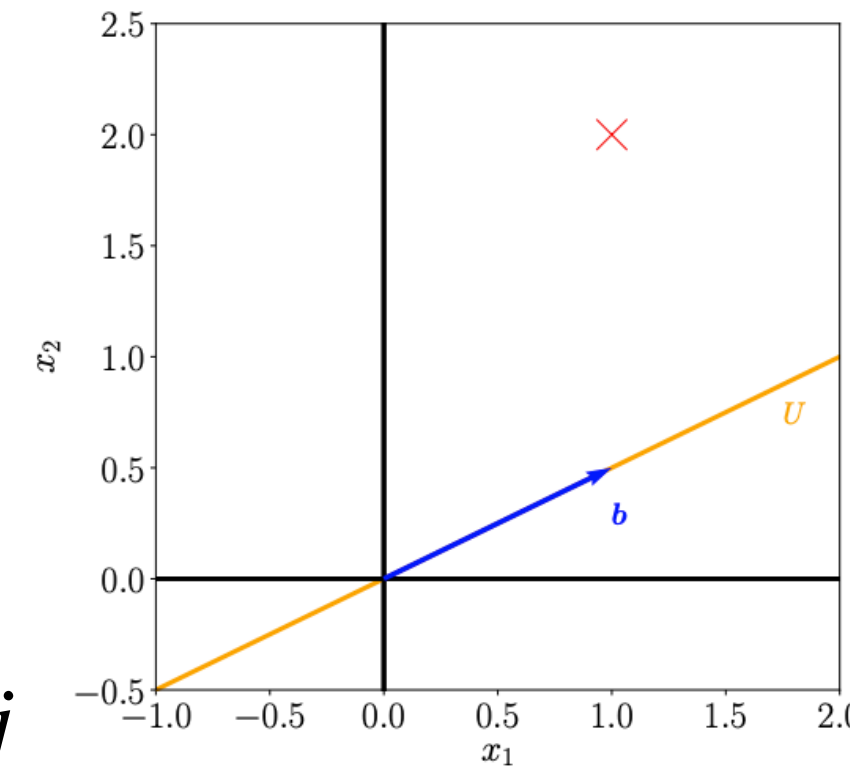
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We aim to find vectors  $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ , live in an intrinsically lower-dimensional subspace  $U$ ,  $\dim(U) = M < D$ :

$$\tilde{x}_n = \sum_{m=1}^M z_{mn} b_m = B z_n \in U$$



# PCA - previous slide in maths

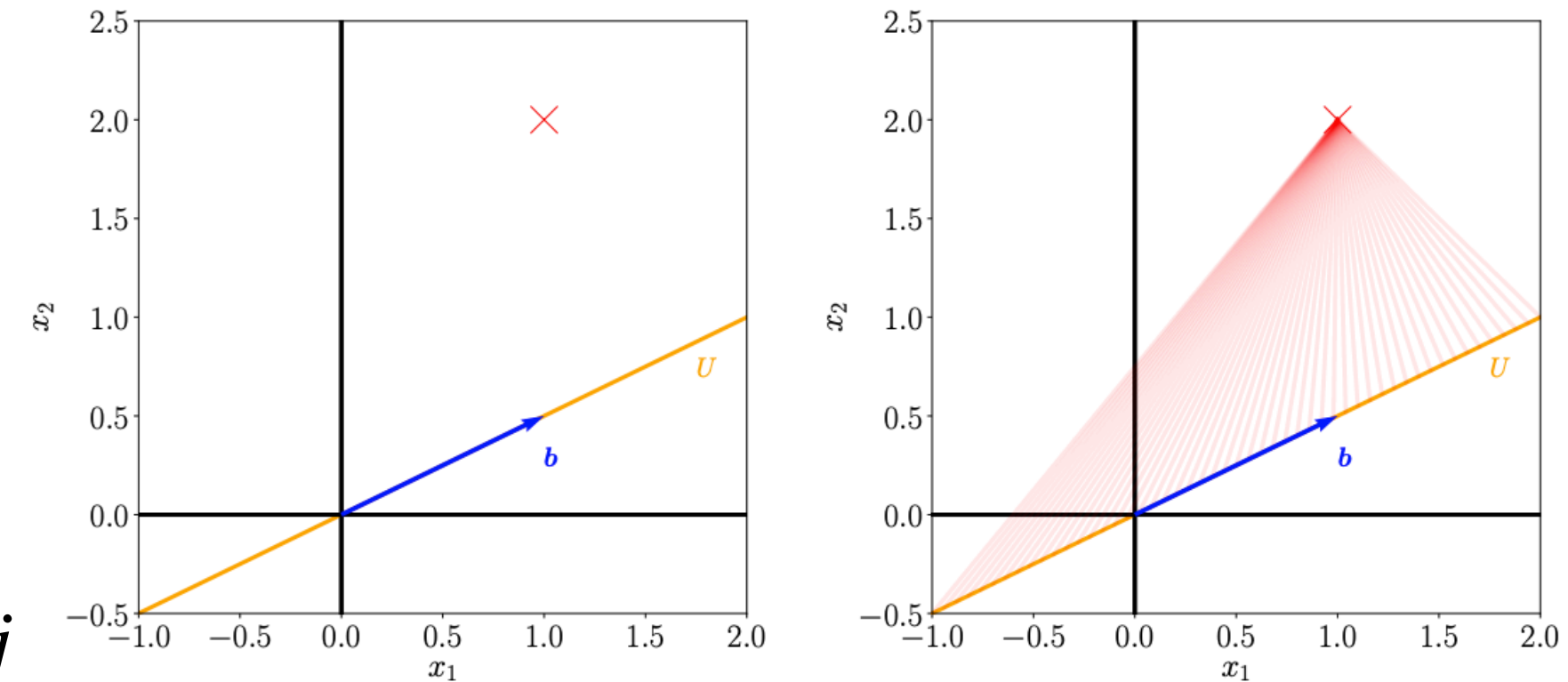
**Goal:** Search for  $B$  and  $z$  that minimises the reconstruction loss

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$U$  has orthonormal basis  $b_1, \dots, b_M$   
Called **principal subspace**

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$z_n = [z_{1n}, \dots, z_{Mn}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^M$   
coordinate of  $\tilde{x}$  wrt to the basis of  $U$

# PCA - previous slide in maths

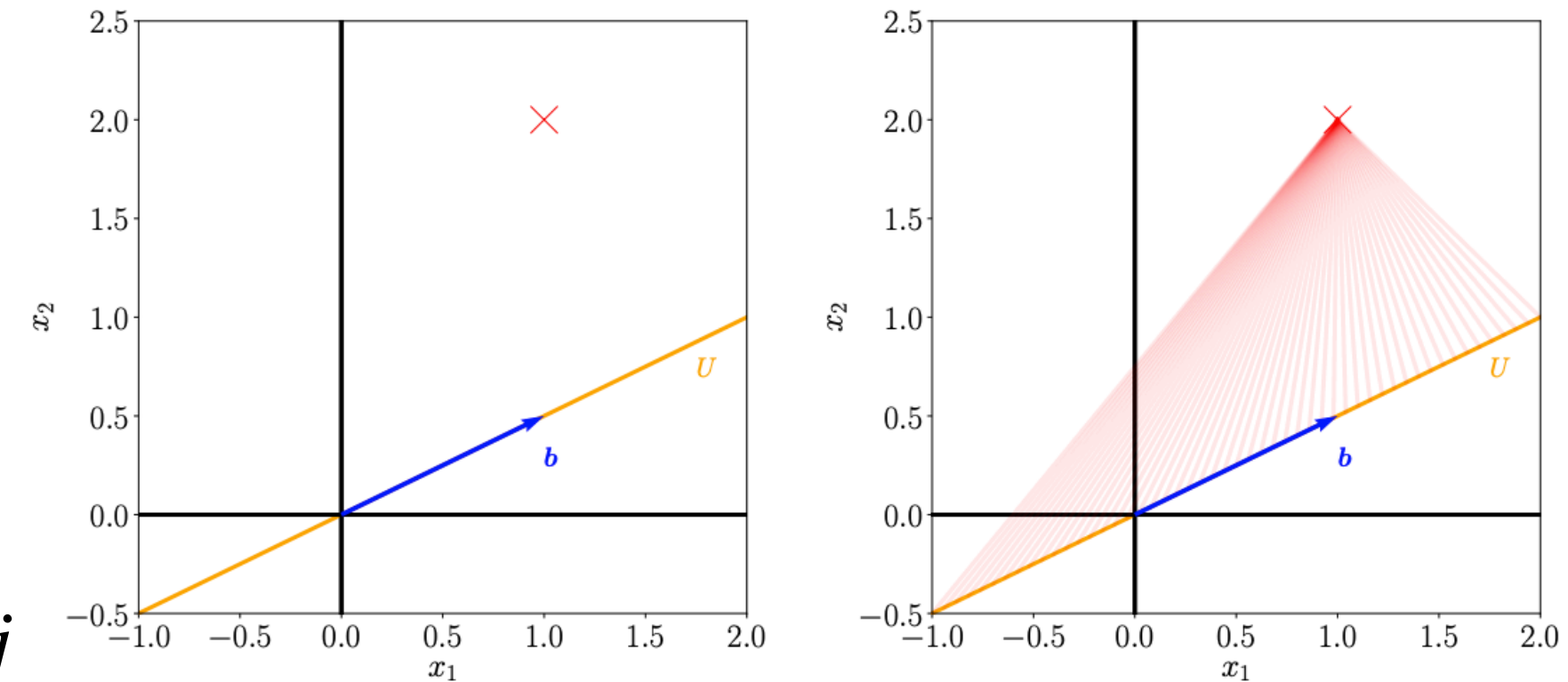
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# PCA - previous slide in maths

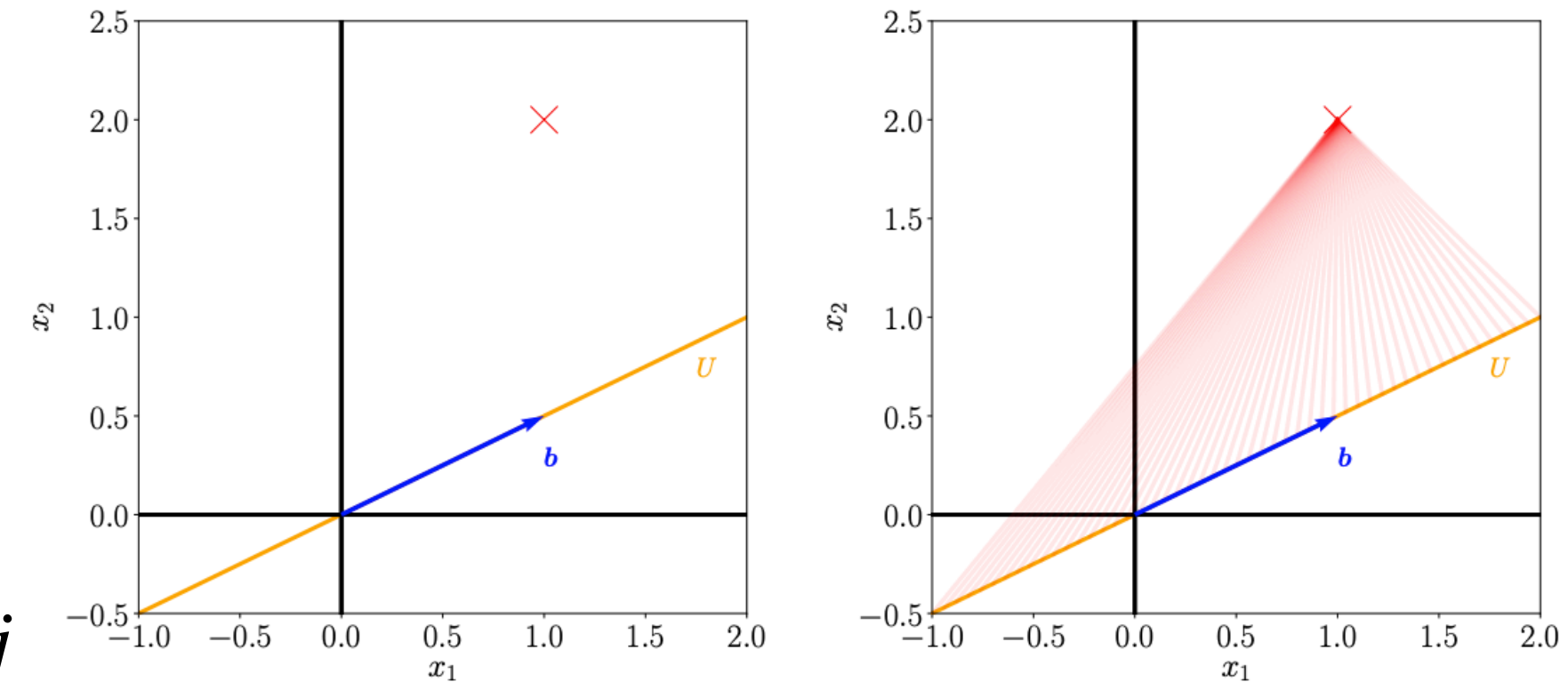
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coordinate of  $\tilde{x}$  wrt to the basis of  $U$

**Objective:** minimising  $J_M(B, \{z_n\}_{n=1}^N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - \tilde{x}_n\|_2^2$  find the orthonormal basis of the principal subspace  $B$  and the coordinates  $z$

# PCA - projection perspective

**Objective:** minimising  $J_M(B, \{z_n\}_{n=1}^N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - \tilde{x}_n\|_2^2$  find the orthonormal basis of the principal subspace B and the coordinates z

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# PCA - projection perspective

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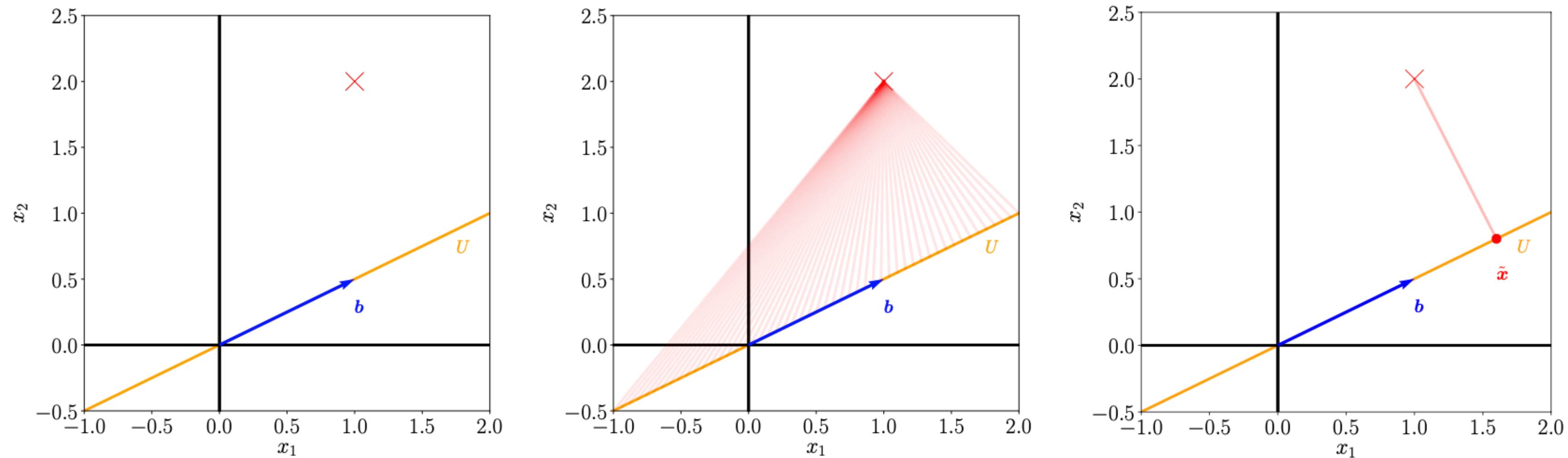
$$\tilde{x}_n = \sum_{m=1}^M z_{mn} b_m = B z_n \in U$$

**Strategy:** find the optimal coordinates given the basis, then find the optimal basis

# PCA - finding optimal coordinates

**Objective:** minimising  $J_M(B, \{z_n\}_{n=1}^N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - \tilde{x}_n\|_2^2$

$$\tilde{x}_n = \sum_{m=1}^M z_{mn} b_m = Bz_n \in U$$



The optimal coordinates  $z_{in}$  are the coordinates of the orthogonal projection of the original data point  $x_n$  onto the one-dimensional subspace that is spanned by  $b_i$ . [see handwritten notes]

The optimal linear projection  $\tilde{x}_n$  of  $x_n$  is an orthogonal projection.

The coordinates of  $\tilde{x}_n$  with respect to the basis  $(b_1, \dots, b_M)$  are the coordinates of the orthogonal projection of  $x_n$  onto the principal subspace.

## Recap - Analytic geometry - Orthogonal Projections - Week 3 L1 - Slides 12-26

If  $(\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_D)$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^D$  then

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{b}_j\|^2} \mathbf{b}_j = \mathbf{b}_j \mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$$

is the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto the subspace spanned by the  $j$ th basis vector, and  $z_j = \mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{x}$  is the coordinate of this projection with respect to the basis vector  $\mathbf{b}_j$  that spans that subspace.



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is the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto the subspace spanned by the  $j$ th basis vector, and  $z_j = \mathbf{b}_j^\top \mathbf{x}$  is the coordinate of this projection with respect to the basis vector  $\mathbf{b}_j$  that spans that subspace.

More generally, if we aim to project onto an  $M$ -dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^D$ , we obtain the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto the  $M$ -dimensional subspace with orthonormal basis vectors  $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_M$  as

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \underbrace{\mathbf{B} (\mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{B})^{-1}}_{I_M} \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{x}$$

where we defined  $\mathbf{B} := [\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_M] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times M}$ . The coordinates of this projection with respect to the ordered basis  $(\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_M)$  are  $\mathbf{z} := \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{x}$

Although  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ , we only need  $M$  coordinates to represent  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ . The other  $D - M$  coordinates with respect to the basis vectors  $(\mathbf{b}_{M+1}, \dots, \mathbf{b}_D)$  are always 0

# PCA - finding basis of principal subspace

**Objective:** minimising  $J_M(B, \{z_n\}_{n=1}^N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n - \tilde{x}_n\|_2^2$   $\tilde{x}_n = \sum_{m=1}^M z_{mn} b_m = Bz_n \in U$

**Remember:** The coordinates of  $\tilde{x}_n$  with respect to the basis  $(b_1, \dots, b_M)$  are the coordinates of the orthogonal projection of  $x_n$  onto the principal subspace.

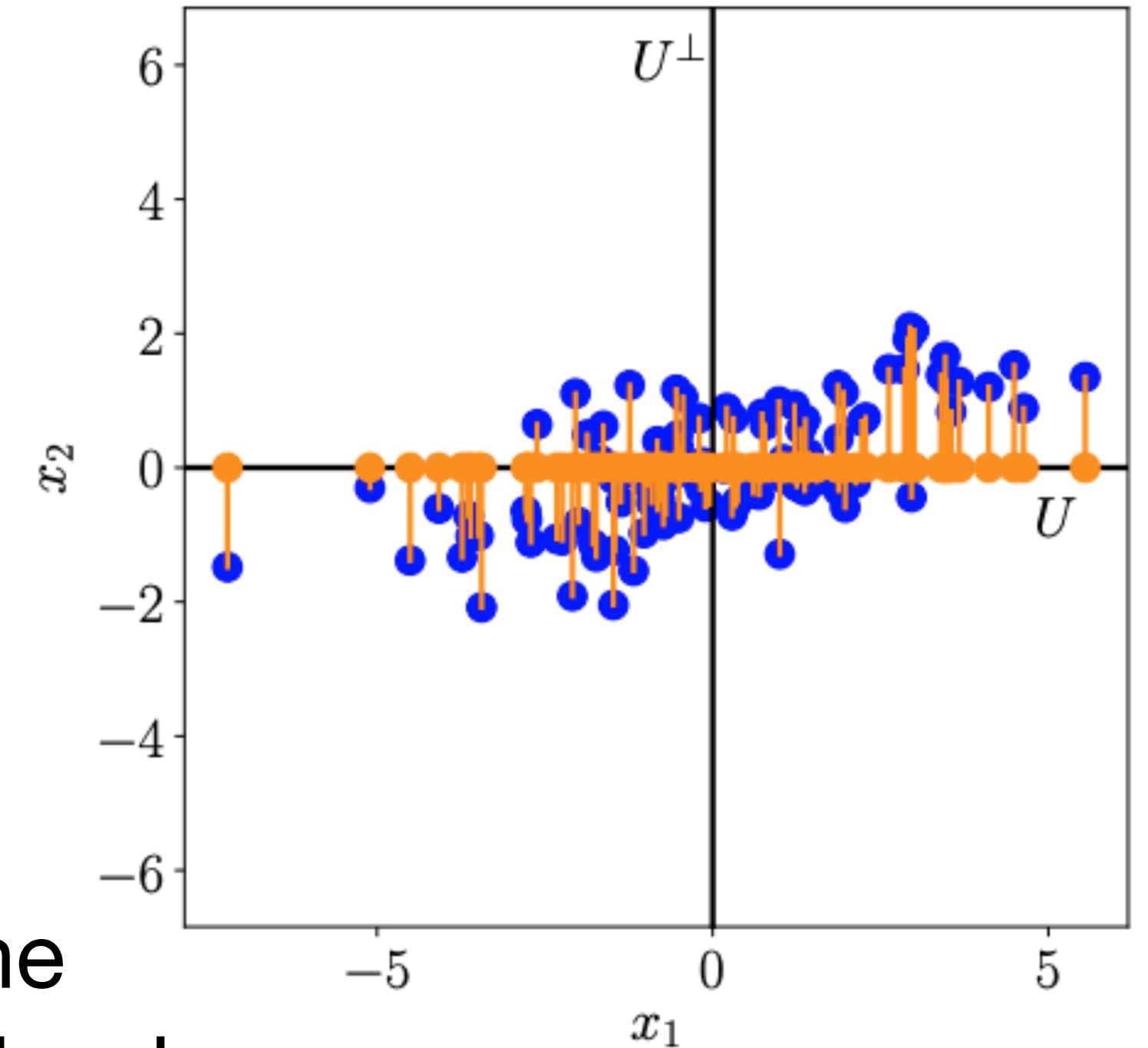
# PCA - finding basis of principal subspace

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**Remember:** The coordinates of  $\tilde{x}_n$  with respect to the basis  $(b_1, \dots, b_M)$  are the coordinates of the orthogonal projection of  $x_n$  onto the principal subspace.

## Strategy:

- + Write down the displacement vector  $x_n - \tilde{x}_n$
- + Minimising loss = minimising the variance of the data when projected onto the subspace we ignore, i.e. the orthogonal complement of the principal subspace
- + Select the smallest  $D - M$  eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors as the basis of the orthogonal complement of the principal subspace. Equivalent to selecting largest  $M$  to construct the principal subspace (aka max variance perspective)



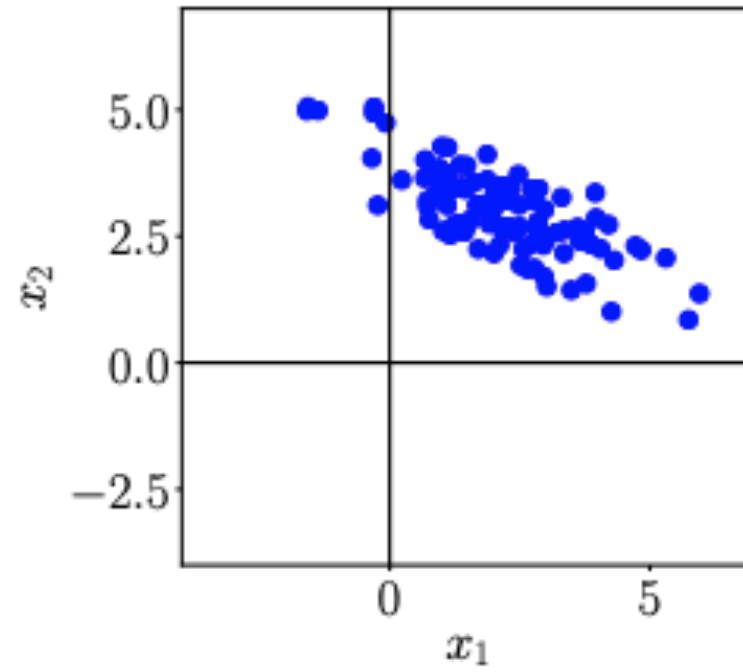
# PCA in high dimensions

Covariance matrix:  $S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n x_n^T, S \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$

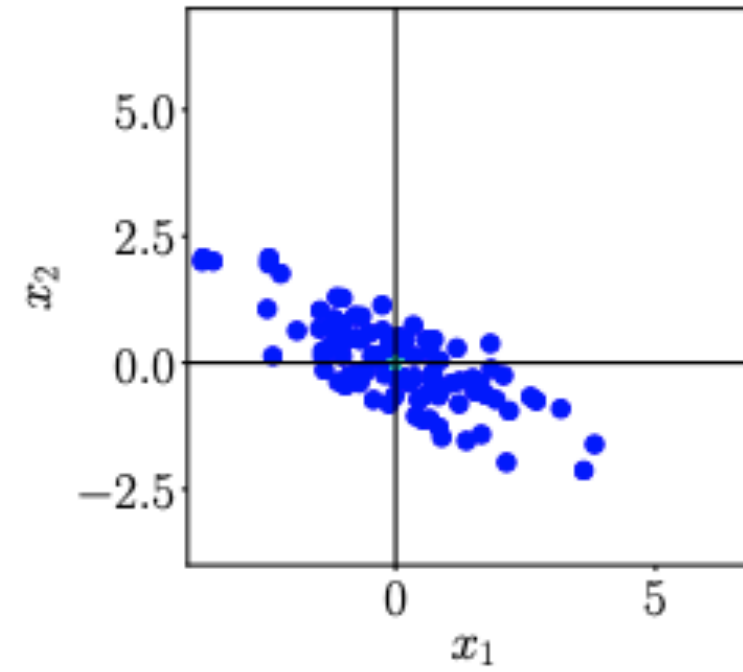
Eigendecomposition has cubic complexity  $\mathcal{O}(D^3)$ , expensive for large D

A workaround when N is small and D is large - see handwritten notes

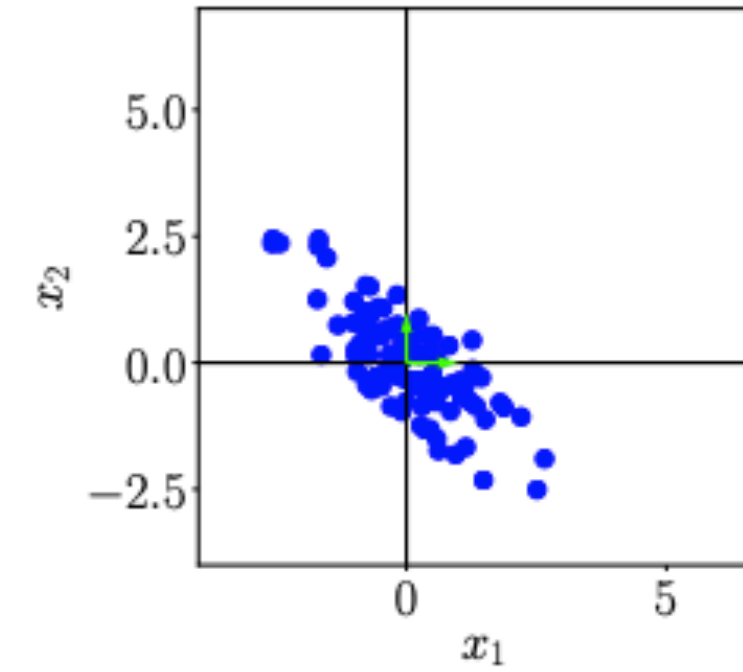
# PCA in practice



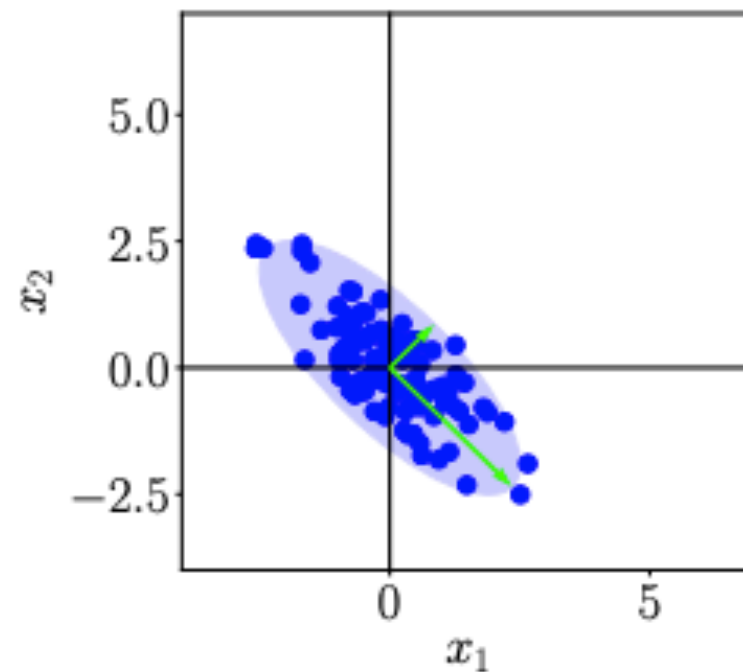
(a) Original dataset.



(b) Step 1: Centering by subtracting the mean from each data point.

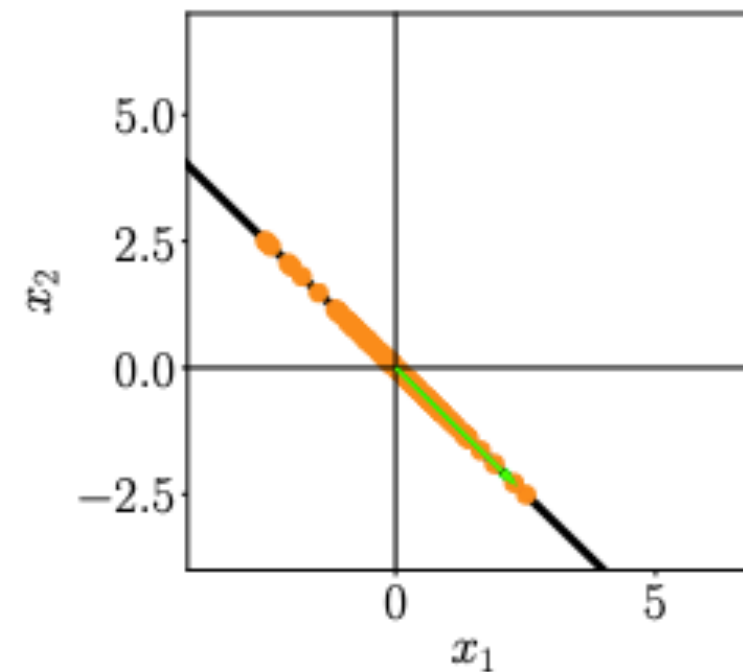


(c) Step 2: Dividing by the standard deviation to make the data unit free. Data has variance 1 along each axis.

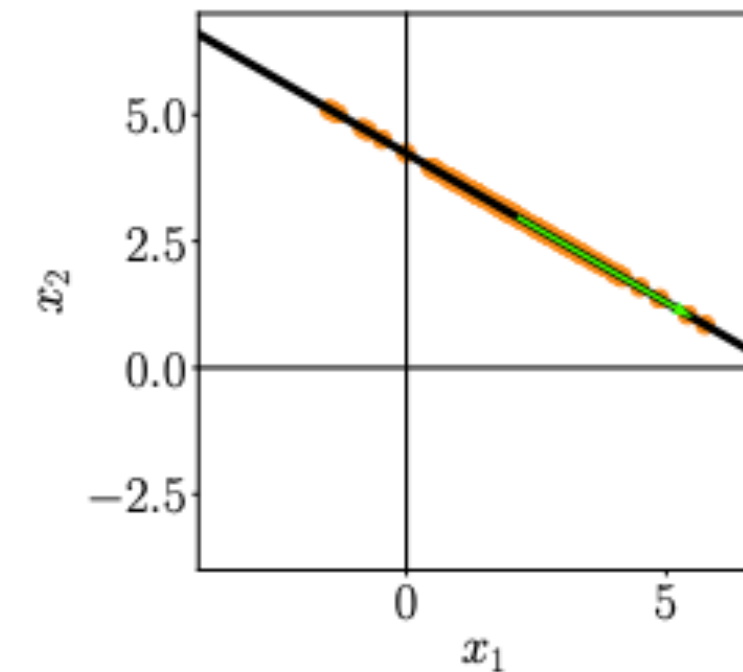


(d) Step 3: Compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors (arrows) of the data covariance matrix (ellipse).

eigendecomposition



(e) Step 4: Project data onto the principal subspace.



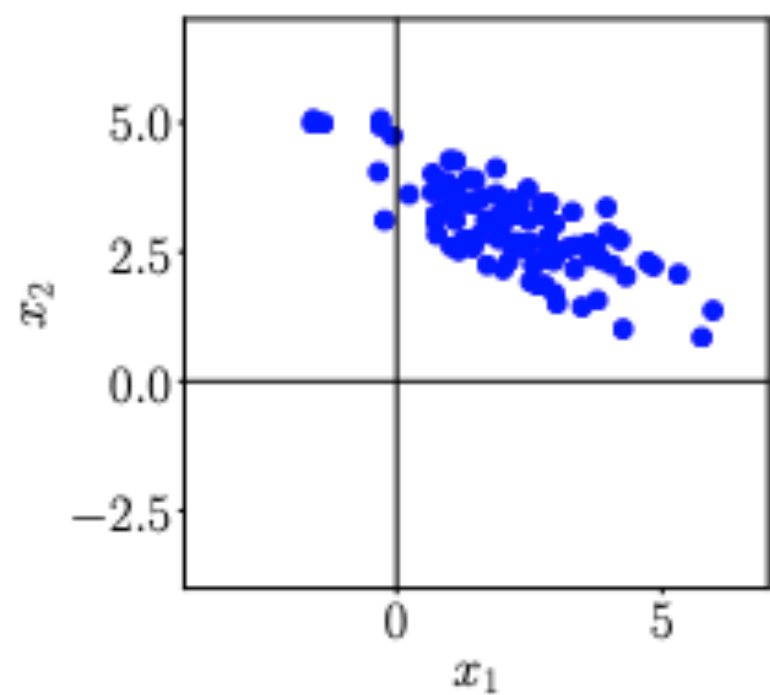
(f) Undo the standardization and move projected data back into the original data space from (a).

## Step 1. Mean subtraction

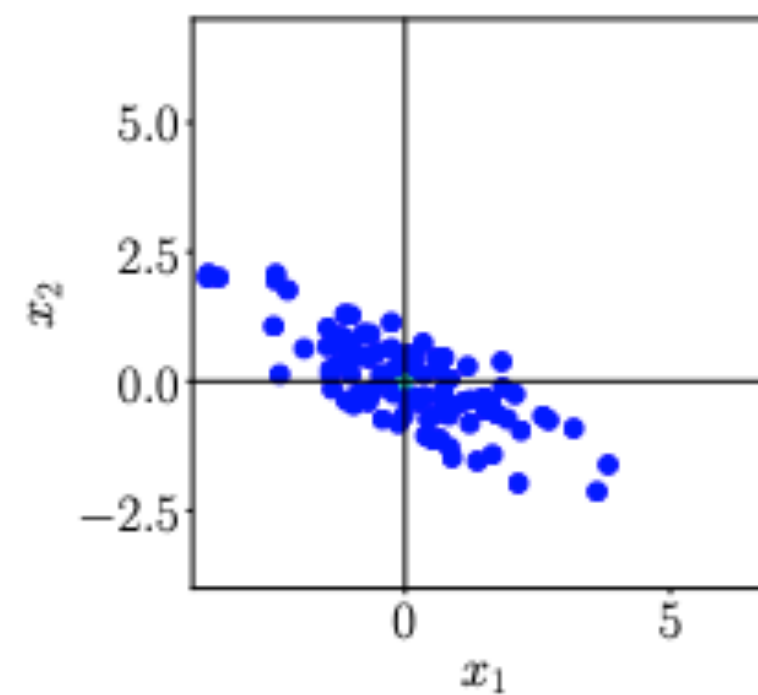
We center the data by computing the mean  $\mu$  of the dataset and subtracting it from every single data point. This ensures that the dataset has mean 0.

## Step 2. Standardisation

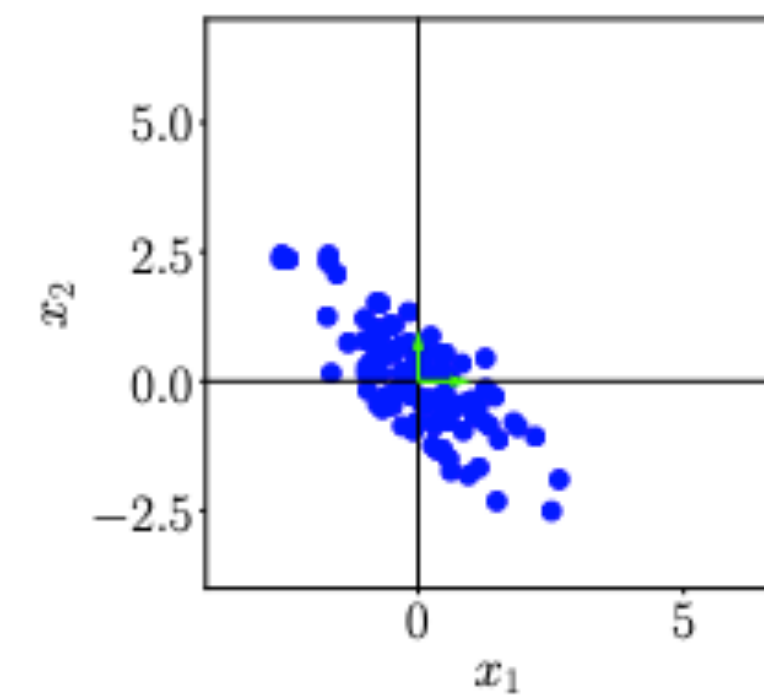
Divide the data points by the standard deviation  $\sigma_d$  of the dataset for every dimension. Now the data has variance 1 along each axis.



(a) Original dataset.



(b) Step 1: Centering by subtracting the mean from each data point.

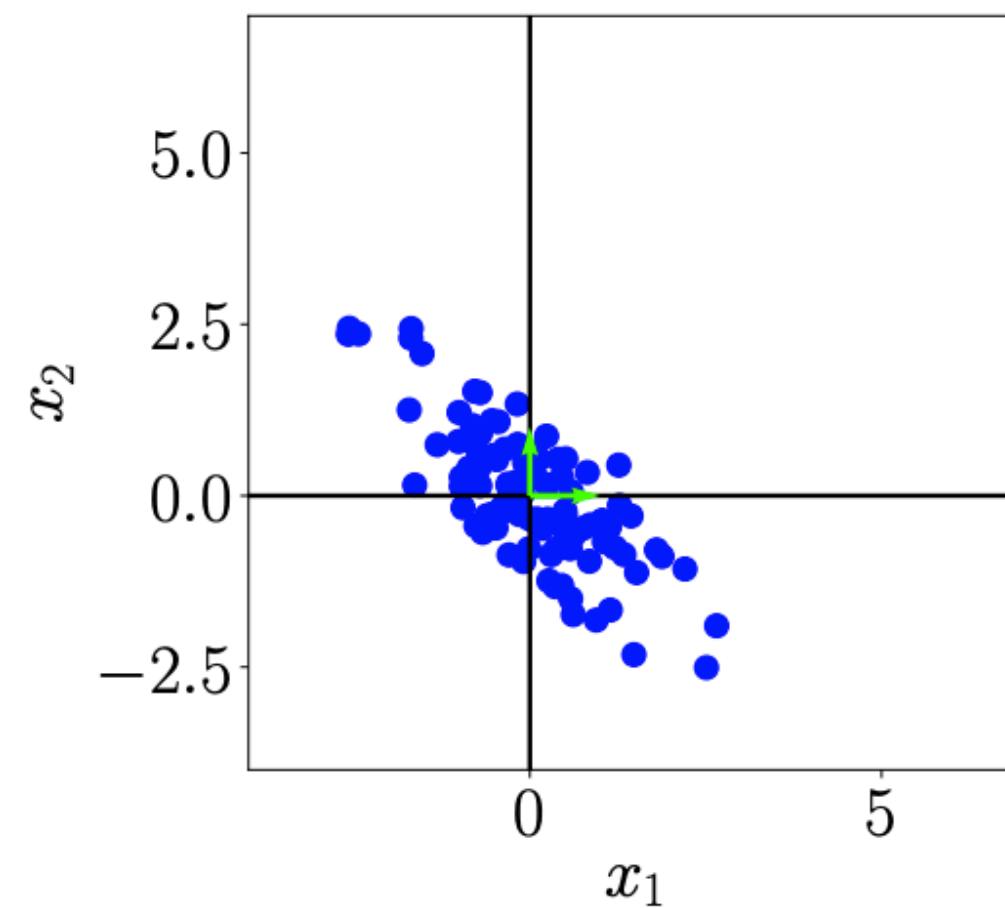


(c) Step 2: Dividing by the standard deviation to make the data unit free. Data has variance 1 along each axis.

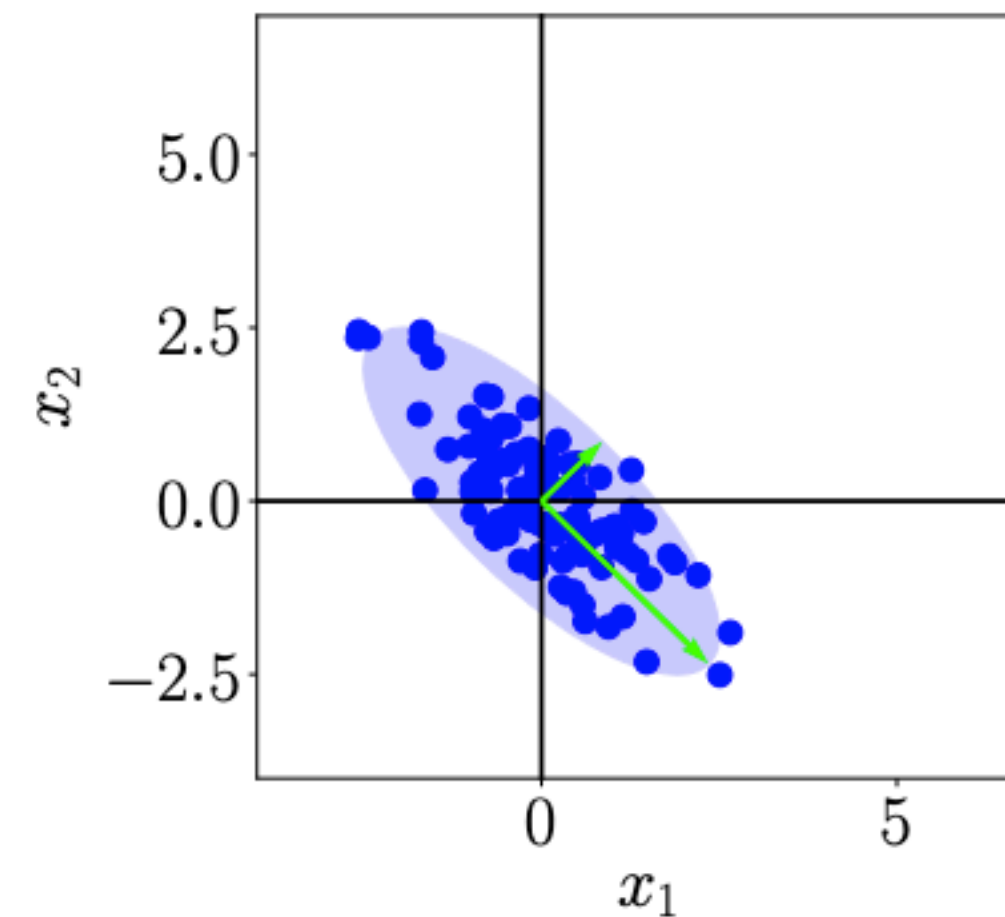


### Step 3. Eigendecomposition of the covariance matrix

Compute the data covariance matrix and its eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors. The longer vector (larger eigenvalue) spans the principal subspace  $U$



(c) Step 2: Dividing by the standard deviation to make the data unit free. Data has variance 1 along each axis.



(d) Step 3: Compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors (arrows) of the data covariance matrix (ellipse).

## 4. Projection

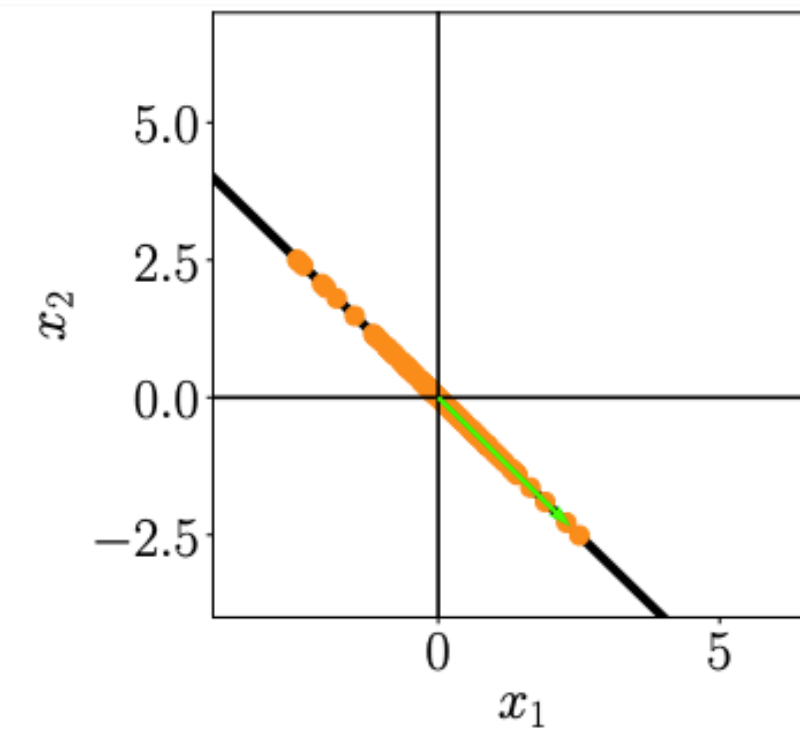
We can project any data point  $\mathbf{x}_* \in \mathbb{R}^D$  onto the principal subspace.

projection as  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_* = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{x}_*$

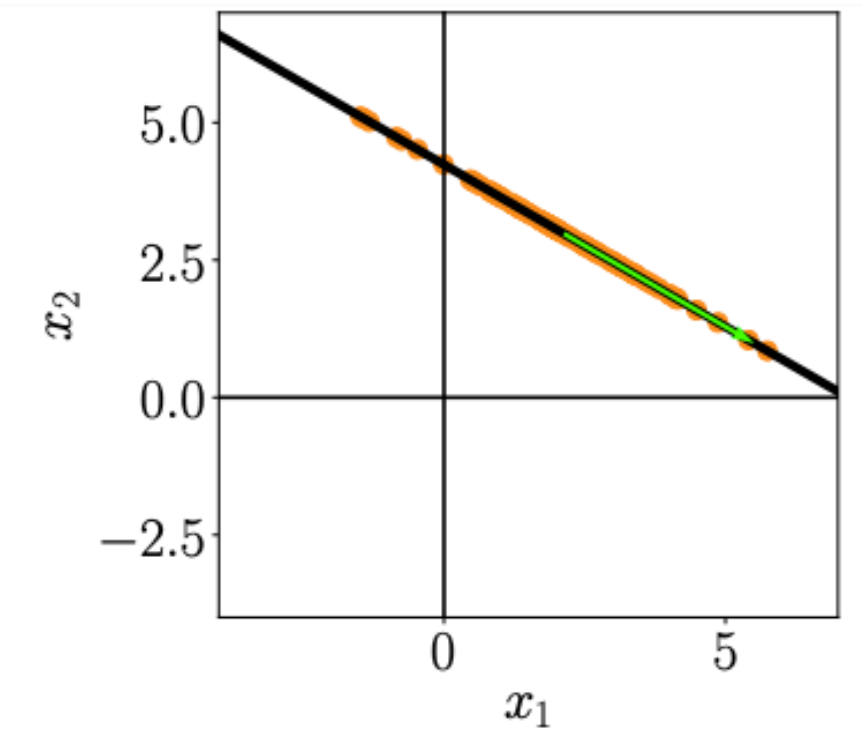
coordinates  $\mathbf{z}_* = \mathbf{B}^T\mathbf{x}_*$  with respect to the basis of the principal subspace. Here,  $\mathbf{B}$  is the matrix that contains the eigenvectors that are associated with the largest eigenvalues of the data covariance matrix as columns.

## 5. Rescaling data

To obtain our projection in the original data space (i.e., before standardization), we need to undo the standardization: multiply by the standard deviation before adding the mean.



(e) Step 4: Project data onto the principal subspace.



(f) Undo the standardization and move projected data back into the original data space from (a).