#### Statistical Learning

Dimension Reduction Techniques

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Principal component analysis

Sparse principal component analysis

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Sparse principal component analysis

- Well-structured data set: Consider any well-structured data set.
- Data matrix: X, with size  $n \times p$ .
- Sample size: n.
- Dimension: p.
- Curse of dimensionality: If the ratio n/p is not large enough, some problems might be intractable.
- Particularly: If *p* is large (even larger than *n*), data visualization becomes very difficult (if not impossible) and standard classification methods perform poorly.
- Thus: In these scenarios, it is very complicated to find interesting features in the data because of the accumulation of noise.

- Noise features: Data sets with many variables use to contain many uninformative features.
- Dimension reduction: The main idea of dimension reduction techniques is to transform the data matrix X into another data matrix with a smaller dimension (same sample size).
- Important: The transformed data set should maintain the important features in X and should not contain the irrelevant features (noise) in X.
- Thus: The resulting transformed data matrix should:
  - ▶ Be more simple to analyze and to visualize.
  - ▶ Have larger discrimination power than the original data set, if possible.
- Note: A dimension reduction tool is more of a means to an end rather than an end in themselves, because they frequently serve as an intermediate step in another analysis.

- Principal component analysis (PCA): The most popular method for dimension reduction.
- Idea: Perform a linear transformation of the original data matrix, X, preserving its important features and reducing the noise.
- Properties of PCA:
  - The transformed variables are uncorrelated, thus they do not share linear information.
  - Powerful method to interpret the relationship between the variables that form the data set.
  - Use to reveal unsuspected relationships and thereby allows interesting interpretations.
  - Clusters and outliers in the original data set are usually clearly shown in the transformed data set.
  - Sometimes increases the discriminatory power of the data set.



- As we shall see: PCA depends solely on the sample covariance (or correlation) matrix of *X*.
- Sparse PCA: Similar to PCA but attempt to simplify the interpretation of the PCs.
- Independent Component Analysis (ICA): Tries to obtain independent variables instead of uncorrelated variables.
- Nevertheless: The mathematical treatment of ICA and other alternatives becomes more difficult and computation becomes more complex.

- The rest of this chapter is devoted to:
  - Establish the main ideas of the principal component analysis.
  - Describe how to perform principal component analysis in practice.
  - Introduce sparse principal component analysis and independent component analysis.
  - Illustrate these techniques with real data examples.

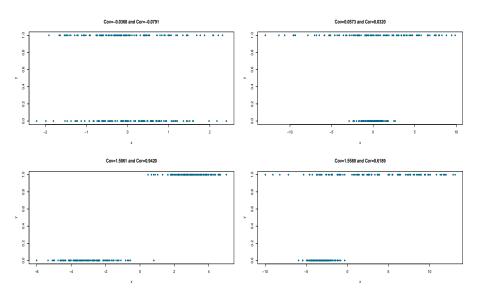
Principal component analysis

Sparse principal component analysis

- Data matrix: X, with size  $n \times p$ .
- Quantitative variables: X should only contains quantitative variables.
- Binary variables: There is not a consensus on the inclusion of binary variables in a PCA.
- Sample covariance and sample correlation matrices: PCA are based on the information given by one of these two matrices.
- Interpretation: The interpretation of the sample covariance and correlation coefficients between a quantitative variable and a binary variable differ from those between quantitative variables.

- Four different situations with a quantitative variable and a qualitative variable:
  - $x \sim N(0,1)$ , for y = 0, and  $x \sim N(0,1)$ , for y = 1.
  - $x \sim N(0,1)$ , for y = 0, and  $x \sim N(0,5)$ , for y = 1.
  - $x \sim N(-3,1)$ , for y = 0, and  $x \sim N(3,1)$ , for y = 1.
  - ▶  $x \sim N(-3,1)$ , for y = 0, and  $x \sim N(3,5)$ , for y = 1.
- Dependency structure: There is no linear dependency between the variables.
- However: The sample covariance and correlation coefficients are quite different.
- High correlations: Appear because the two groups are well separated.
- Conclusion: Better not to include them.

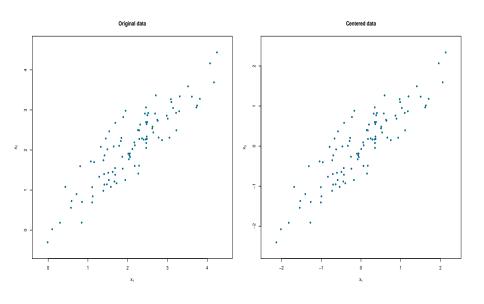




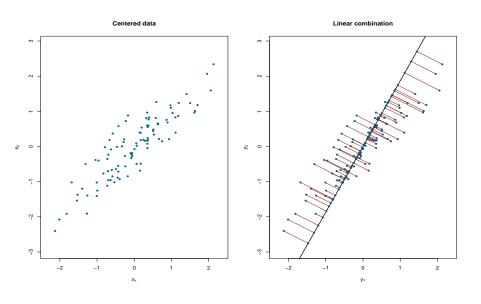
- Center the data: PCA starts by centering the variables in the data matrix.
- Why?: The linearly transformed data set will be centered as well, thus, we avoid sample mean vectors for the new variables.
- Centered data matrix:  $\widetilde{X} = X 1_n \overline{x}'$ , where  $\overline{x}$  be the sample mean vector of X and  $1_n$  is the  $n \times 1$  vector of ones.
- Goal of PCA: Obtain a linear transformation of  $\widetilde{X}$ ,  $Z = \widetilde{X}C$ , where C is a matrix of size  $p \times r$  such that:
  - **1** Z has smaller dimension than  $\widetilde{X}$ , i.e., r < p.
  - ${f 2}$  Z contains the important features in  $\widetilde{X}$ .

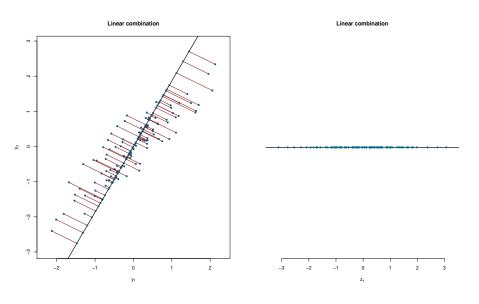
- Assume we want r = 1: Then, the new data matrix Z has dimension  $n \times 1$ .
- ullet Then: We want to obtain a linear combination of  $\widetilde{X}$  that contains the most important features in the data.
- In other words: Find the vector  $c = (c_1, \ldots, c_p)'$  such that:
  - $ightharpoonup Z = \widetilde{X}c.$
  - ightharpoonup Z represents  $\widetilde{X}$  best.
- The question is: What does best mean here?
- Toy example: Simple example with p = 2.

- Sample size: n = 100.
- Dimension: p = 2.
- Data matrix: X with size  $100 \times 2$ .
- First thing to do: Center the data, i.e., from X, we obtain the centered data matrix  $\widetilde{X} = X 1_n \overline{x}'$ , that also has size  $100 \times 2$ .

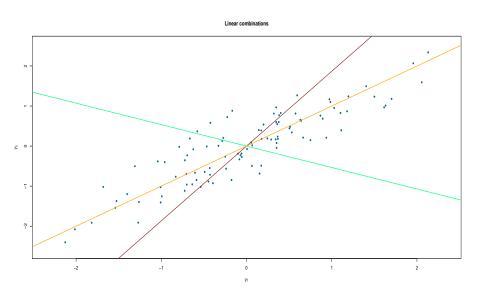


- Linear combination of  $\widetilde{X}$ :  $Z = \widetilde{X}c$ , where  $c = (c_1, c_2)'$ .
- Size of Z:  $100 \times 1$ .
- What is Z from a geometrical point of view?
- Idea: Project orthogonally the points in  $\widetilde{X}$  into the straight line with slope given by  $\frac{c_2}{c_1}$ .
- Then: The points in Z are the points obtained after rotating this line (and thus the projected points) to the horizontal axe.

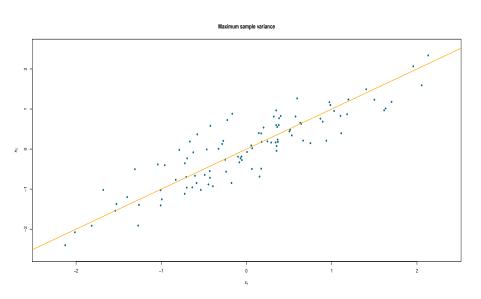




- The question is: Which vector  $c = (c_1, c_2)'$  represents  $\widetilde{X}$  best?
- See several possibilities in the next slide.
- Which one is the best option?



- ullet PCA: The linear combination that represents X best is the one that maximizes the sample variance of the projected data.
- Problem: How to get such linear combination in practice?



- First principal component:  $Z = z_1 = \widetilde{X} c_1$  such that  $z_1$  has maximum sample variance.
- Sample variance of  $z_1$ :  $s_{z_1}^2 = c_1' S_x c_1$ , where  $S_x$  is the sample covariance matrix of X.
- However:  $c'_1 S_x c_1$  can be increased by multiplying  $c_1$  with any constant larger than 1.
- Eliminate this indeterminacy: Restrict attention to coefficient vector of unit length, i.e., assume that  $c'_1c_1=1$ .
- Then: First PC corresponds to the linear combination,  $c_1$ , that solves:

$$\underset{s.t. \ c_1' c_1 = 1}{\text{arg max } c_1' S_x c_1}$$



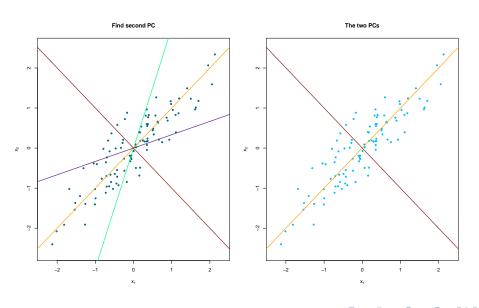
- Remember:  $S_x$  is a positive semi-definite matrix.
- Thus:  $S_x$  has p positive eigenvalues,  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_p \geq 0$  with associated eigenvectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$ , such that,  $S_x v_j = \lambda_j v_j$ , for  $j = 1, \ldots, p$ .
- Solution to the optimization problem:  $c_1$  is the eigenvector of  $S_x$ ,  $v_1$ , associated with the largest eigenvalue,  $\lambda_1$ .
- First PC:  $z_1 = \widetilde{X}v_1$ .
- Sample variance of  $z_1$ :

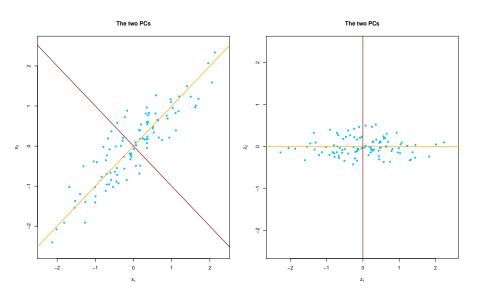
$$s_{z_1}^2 = v_1' S_x v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1' v_1 = \lambda_1$$

• In other words: The sample variance of the first PC is the largest eigenvalue of  $S_x$ ,  $\lambda_1$ .



- Assume we want r = 2:  $Z = \widetilde{X}C$ , where C is a  $p \times 2$  matrix.
- First PC: First column of Z is  $z_1 = \widetilde{X}v_1$ .
- Second PC: Second column of Z is  $z_2 = \widetilde{X}c_2$ .
- How to define  $c_2$ ?
- See several possibilities in the next slide.
- Which one is the best option?





- Thus: The second PC is obtained with a similar argument adding the property that it is uncorrelated with the first PC.
- Why?: The new variables do not share common information.
- Second principal component:  $z_2 = \widetilde{X}c_2$  such that  $z_2$  has maximum sample variance and it is uncorrelated to  $z_2$ .
- Sample variance of  $z_2$ :  $s_{z_2}^2 = c_2' S_x c_2$ .
- Then: Second PC corresponds to the linear combination,  $c_2$ , that solves:

$$\underset{s.t. \ c'_2 c_2 = 1, \ c'_1 S_x c_2 = 0}{\text{arg max}} c'_2 S_x c_2$$

- Solution to the optimization problem:  $c_2$  is the eigenvector of  $S_x$ ,  $v_2$ , associated with the second largest eigenvalue,  $\lambda_2$ .
- Second PC:  $z_2 = \widetilde{X}v_2$ .
- Sample variance of  $z_2$ :

$$s_{z_2}^2 = v_2' S_x v_2 = \lambda_2 v_2' v_2 = \lambda_2$$

• In other words: The sample variance of the second PC is the second largest eigenvalue of  $S_x$ ,  $\lambda_2$ .

- More PCs: This argument can be extended for successive principal components.
- Assume we want r PCs: Define  $V_r = [v_1|\dots|v_r]$  with columns the eigenvectors of  $S_x$  linked to the r largest eigenvalues  $\lambda_1,\dots,\lambda_r$ .
- Then: The r PCs are given by the  $n \times r$  matrix:

$$Z = \widetilde{X} V_r$$

- Characteristics of Z:
  - **1** Sample mean vector of Z:  $\overline{z} = 0_r$ .
  - **2** Sample covariance matrix of Z:  $S_z$ , is the diagonal matrix with elements  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_r$ .
- PC scores: The observations in Z are usually called PC scores.



- Indeed: It is possible to take r = p, as in the two dimensional data set of the example.
- Total variability of X:

$$Tr(S_x) = \sum_{j=1}^p s_{x_j}^2$$

• Total variability of  $Z = \widetilde{X} V_p$ :

$$Tr(S_z) = \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_j$$

• Total variability of *X* is preserved after a PCA transformation:

$$Tr(S_x) = Tr(S_z)$$



- Different units of measurement: X should be standardized first.
- Why?: Variables with large sample variances (due to the effect of the units of measurement) will tend to dominate the early components.
- Consequence: First, obtain  $Y = \widetilde{X}D_x^{-1/2}$ , where  $D_x$  is the diagonal matrix that contains the sample variances of the variables in X, and then, obtain PCs.
- Sample covariance of *Y* is the sample correlation of *X*:

$$S_y = D_x^{-1/2} S_x D_x^{-1/2} = R_x$$

• Therefore: The PCs are constructed with the eigenvectors of  $R_x$ .

- How many PCs to select?
- Proportion of variability explained by *r*-th PC:

$$PV_r = \frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_p}$$
  $r = 1, \dots, p$ 

where  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_p$  are the eigenvalues of either  $S_x$ , or  $R_x$ .

Accumulated proportion of variability explained by the first r PCs:

$$APV_r = \frac{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_r}{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_p}$$
  $r = 1, \dots, p$ 

- Select r:  $APV_r$  larger than a certain quantity, such as 0.7, 0.8 or 0.9.
- Take into account: Trade off between  $APV_r$  and the number of PCs selected.

- Chapter 2.R script:
  - ► PCA: NCI60 data set.
  - ► PCA: College data set.
  - ▶ Detect outliers after a PCA: College data set.

Principal component analysis

Sparse principal component analysis

- Non-zero weights: As can be seen in the College data set, the PCAs are usually constructed with weights that are non-zero.
- All the variables contribute to all the PCs: This can be problematic when the number of variables is large.
- Two main reasons:
  - 1 Interpretation can be difficult.
  - Estimation of eigenvectors can underweight important variables.

- Sparse principal components: PCs with many weights forced to be 0.
- Idea: Maximize the variance of linear combinations subject to a norm restriction on the weights and shrinking some of the weights to 0.
- First PC: Solve the following optimization problem:

$$\mathop{\arg\max}_{s.t.\ c_1'c_1=1,\ \|c_1\|_1\leq k} c_1' S_x c_1$$

where  $||c_1||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^p |c_{1j}| \le k$ , and k is an integer number.

• The number k: Controls the number of weights that are different than 0.



- First sparse principal component: Say  $w_1$ .
- Second sparse principal component: Solve the following optimization problem:

$$\mathop{\arg\max}_{s.t.\ c_2'c_2=1,\ w_1'S_xc_2=0,\ \|c_2\|_1\leq k} c_2'S_xc_2$$

where  $\|c_2\|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{p} |c_{2j}| \le k$ , and k is an integer number (the same used before).

• Others: Follow the same arguments to get the p sparse principal components, say  $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p$ .

- Complex optimization procedures: Resolution of the optimization problems is quite hard.
- Non-orthogonal scores: Usually, the solution obtained in general does not provide with orthogonal scores.
- Nevertheless: Sample correlations between sparse PCs are usually small.

- Chapter 2.R script:
  - ► SPCA: College data set.

2 Principal component analysis

Sparse principal component analysis

- PCA: Given X obtain  $Z = \widetilde{X}C$ , such that Z of size  $n \times r$  with r < p, contains uncorrelated variables.
- ICA: Given X obtain  $Z = \widetilde{X}C$ , such that Z of size  $n \times r$  with r < p, contains independent variables.
- Mathematical complexity: ICA is much more mathematically challenging than PCA, which is only based on eigenvectors and eigenvalues.
- Idea: Maximize the statistical independence of the independent component scores in Z by maximizing the non Gaussianity of the components of Z.

- Standardization: If the variables in *X* have different units of measurement, it is better to standardize the data first.
- Fix r: It is necessary to fix r in advance.
- Role of *r*: Different values of *r* give different ICs.
- New variables: Z have sample mean vector  $0_r$  and sample covariance matrix  $I_r$  (at least, it is expected).

- Chapter 2.R script:
  - ► ICA: College data set.

Principal component analysis

Sparse principal component analysis