## Week 4 Assessment: Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

## **Learning Objective**

In this notebook, we will implement PCA. We will implement the two versions of PCA as described in the lectures, which handles the when the dataset size exceeds the dataset dimensionality, as well as the case when we have the dimensionality greater than the size of the dataset.

We will break down the task of implementing PCA into small components and combine them in the end to produce the final algorithm. We will apply PCA to the MNIST dataset and observe how the reconstruction changes as we change the number of principal components used.

```
In [1]: # PACKAGE: DO NOT EDIT
    import numpy as np
    import timeit

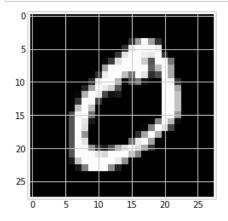
In [2]: # PACKAGE: DO NOT EDIT
    import matplotlib as mpl
    mpl.use('Agg')
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    plt.style.use('fivethirtyeight')
```

Now, let's plot a digit from the dataset:

```
In [3]: from ipywidgets import interact

from sklearn.datasets import fetch_mldata
MNIST = fetch_mldata('MNIST original', data_home='./MNIST')
%matplotlib inline

plt.figure(figsize=(4,4))
plt.imshow(MNIST.data[0].reshape(28,28), cmap='gray');
```



Before we implement PCA, we will need to do some data preprocessing. In this assessment, some of them will be implemented by you, others we will take care of. However, when you are working on real world problems, you will need to do all these steps by yourself!

The preprocessing steps we will do are

- 1. Convert unsigned interger 8 (uint8) encoding of pixels to a floating point number between 0-1.
- 2. Subtract from each image the mean  $\mu$ .
- 3. Scale each dimension of each image by  $\frac{1}{\sigma}$  where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of this dimension across the whole dataset.

The steps above ensure that our images will have zero mean and one variance. These preprocessing steps are also known as <u>Data Normalization or Feature Scaling</u> (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feature scaling).

## 1. PCA

Now we will implement PCA. Before we do that, let's pause for a moment and think about the steps for performing PCA. Assume that we are performing PCA on some dataset X for M principal components. We then need to perform the following steps, which we break into parts:

- 1. Data normalization (normalize).
- 2. Find eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors for the covariance matrix S. Sort by the largest eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors (eig).

After these steps, we can then compute the projection and reconstruction of the data onto the spaced spanned by the top M eigenvectors.

```
In [14]: # GRADED FUNCTION: DO NOT EDIT THIS LINE
         # ===YOU SHOULD EDIT THIS FUNCTION===
         def normalize(X):
             """Normalize the given dataset {\tt X}
             Args:
                 X: ndarray, dataset
             Returns:
                 (Xbar, mean, std): ndarray, Xbar is the normalized dataset
                 with mean 0 and standard deviation 1; mean and std are the
                 mean and standard deviation respectively.
             Note:
                 You will encounter dimensions where the standard deviation is
                 zero, for those when you do normalization the normalized data
                 will be NaN. Handle this by setting using `std = 1` for those
                 dimensions when doing normalization.
             mu = np.mean(X,axis=0)
             std = np.std(X, axis=0)
             std filled = std.copy()
             std_filled[std==0] = 1.
             Xbar = (X-mu)/std filled
             return Xbar, mu, std
```

```
In [15]: # GRADED FUNCTION: DO NOT EDIT THIS LINE
         # ===YOU SHOULD EDIT THIS FUNCTION===
         def eig(S):
             """Compute the eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors
                 for the covariance matrix S.
             Args:
                 S: ndarray, covariance matrix
             Returns:
                 (eigvals, eigvecs): ndarray, the eigenvalues and eigenvectors
                 the eigenvals and eigenvecs SHOULD BE sorted in descending
                 order of the eigen values
                 Hint: take a look at np.argsort for how to sort in numpy.
             eigenValues, eigenVectors = np.linalg.eig(S)
             idx = eigenValues.argsort()[::-1]
             eigvals = eigenValues[idx]
             eigvecs = eigenVectors[:,idx]
             return (eigvals, eigvecs) # EDIT THIS
```

```
In [16]: # GRADED FUNCTION: DO NOT EDIT THIS LINE

# ===YOU SHOULD EDIT THIS FUNCTION===
def projection_matrix(B):
    """Compute the projection matrix onto the space spanned by `B`
Args:
    B: ndarray of dimension (D, M), the basis for the subspace

Returns:
    P: the projection matrix
    """
    P = B@np.linalg.inv(np.transpose(B)@B)@np.transpose(B)
    return P
```

Now, with the help of the functions you have implemented above, let's implement PCA! When you implement PCA, do take advantage of the functions that you have implemented above.

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```
In [72]: # GRADED FUNCTION: DO NOT EDIT THIS LINE
         # ===YOU SHOULD EDIT THIS FUNCTION===
         def PCA(X, num_components):
             Aras:
                 X: ndarray of size (N, D), where D is the dimension of the data,
                    and N is the number of datapoints
                 num components: the number of principal components to use.
             Returns:
                 X reconstruct: ndarray of the reconstruction
                 of X from the first `num_components` principal components.
             # Compute the data covariance matrix S
             S = np.cov(X, rowvar=False, bias=True)
             # Next find eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors for S by implementing eig(
             eig_vals, eig_vecs = eig(S)
             # Reconstruct the images from the lowerdimensional representation
             # To do this, we first need to find the projection matrix (which you implemented
             # which projects our input data onto the vector space spanned by the eigenvectors
             B = eig_vecs[:, 0:num_components]
             nu=np.linalg.norm(B,axis=0,keepdims=True)
             # Then for each data point x_i in the dataset X
             # we can project the original x_i onto the eigenbasis.
             B = B/nu
             P = projection_matrix(B) # projection matrix
             X reconstruct = (P @ X.T).T
             return X reconstruct
```

```
In [73]: ## Some preprocessing of the data
    NUM_DATAPOINTS = 1000
    X = (MNIST.data.reshape(-1, 28 * 28)[:NUM_DATAPOINTS]) / 255
    Xbar, mu, std = normalize(X)
```

The greater number of of principal components we use, the smaller will our reconstruction error be. Now, let's answer the following question:

How many principal components do we need in order to reach a Mean Squared Error (MSE) of less than 100 for our dataset?

```
In [74]: def mse(predict, actual):
    return np.square(predict - actual).sum(axis=1).mean()
```

```
In [*]: loss = []
    reconstructions = []
    for num_component in range(1, 100):
        reconst = PCA(Xbar, num_component)
        error = mse(reconst, Xbar)
        reconstructions.append(reconst)
        # print('n = {:d}, reconstruction_error = {:f}'.format(num_component, error))
        loss.append((num_component, error))

    reconstructions = np.asarray(reconstructions)
    reconstructions = reconstructions * std + mu # "unnormalize" the reconstructed image loss = np.asarray(loss)
```

```
In [ ]: loss
```

We can also put these numbers into perspective by plotting them.

```
In [ ]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
    ax.plot(loss[:,0], loss[:,1]);
    ax.axhline(100, linestyle='--', color='r', linewidth=2)
    ax.xaxis.set_ticks(np.arange(1, 100, 5));
    ax.set(xlabel='num_components', ylabel='MSE', title='MSE vs number of principal components')
```

But *numbers don't tell us everything*! Just what does it mean *qualitatively* for the loss to decrease from around 450.0 to less than 100.0?

Let's find out! In the next cell, we draw the original eight as the leftmost image. Then we show the reconstruction of the image on the right, in descending number of principal components used.

We can also browse throught the reconstructions for other digits. Once again, interact becomes handy.

```
In []: @interact(i=(0, 10))
    def show_pca_digits(i=1):
        plt.figure(figsize=(4,4))
        actual_sample = X[i].reshape(28,28)
        reconst_sample = (reconst[i, :] * std + mu).reshape(28, 28)
        plt.imshow(np.hstack([actual_sample, reconst_sample]), cmap='gray')
        plt.show()
```

## 2. PCA for high-dimensional datasets

Sometimes, the dimensionality of our dataset may be larger than the number of data points we have. Then it might be inefficient to perform PCA with the implementation above. Instead, as mentioned in the lectures, we can implement PCA in a more efficient manner, which we call PCA for high-dimensional data (PCA\_high\_dim).

Consider the **normalized** data matrix  $\bar{X}$  of size  $N \times D$  where D > N. To do PCA we perform the following steps:

ullet We solve the following eigenvalue/eigenvector equation for the matrix  $rac{1}{N}ar{X}ar{X}^T$ , i.e. we solve for  $\lambda_i, c_i$  in

$$\frac{1}{N}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{c}_i=\lambda_i\boldsymbol{c}_i.$$

- We want to recover original eigenvectors  $m{b}_i$  of the data covariance matrix  $m{S} = \frac{1}{N} m{\bar{X}}^T m{\bar{X}}$ .
- ullet Left-multiply the eigenvectors  $oldsymbol{c}_i$  by  $ar{oldsymbol{X}}^T$  yields

$$\frac{1}{N}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{c}_i = \lambda_i\bar{\boldsymbol{X}}^T\boldsymbol{c}_i$$

and we recover  $oldsymbol{b}_i = ar{oldsymbol{X}}^T oldsymbol{c}_i$  as eigenvector of  $oldsymbol{S}$  with the eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ .

```
In [ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: DO NOT EDIT THIS LINE
        def PCA high dim(X, num components):
            """Compute PCA for small sample size.
                X: ndarray of size (N, D), where D is the dimension of the data,
                   and N is the number of data points in the training set. You may assume the
                   has been normalized.
                num_components: the number of principal components to use.
            Returns:
                X_reconstruct: (N, D) ndarray. the reconstruction
                of X from the first `num_components` principal components.
            N, D = X.shape
            M = (1/N)*(X @ X.T)
            eig vals, eig vecs = eig(M) # EDIT THIS, compute the eigenvalues.
            U = (X.T) @ eig vecs
            nu=np.linalg.norm(U,axis=0,keepdims=True)
            U = U/nu
            P = projection_matrix(U[:, :num_components]) # projection matrix
            X_reconstruct = (P @ X.T).T
            return X_reconstruct
```

Given the same dataset, PCA\_high\_dim and PCA should give the same output. Assuming we have implemented PCA correctly, we can then use PCA to test the correctness of PCA high dim.

We can use this **invariant** to test our implementation of PCA\_high\_dim, assuming that we have correctly implemented PCA.

```
In [ ]: np.testing.assert_almost_equal(PCA(Xbar, 2), PCA_high_dim(Xbar, 2))
# In fact, you can generate random input dataset to verify your implementation.
print('correct')
```

Now let's compare the running time between PCA and PCA\_high\_dim.

**Tips** for running benchmarks or computationally expensive code:

When you have some computation that takes up a non-negligible amount of time. Try separating the code that produces output from the code that analyzes the result (e.g. plot the results, comput statistics of the results). In this way, you don't have to recompute when you want to produce more analysis.

```
In []: def time(f, repeat=100):
    times = []
    for _ in range(repeat):
        start = timeit.default_timer()
        f()
        stop = timeit.default_timer()
        times.append(stop-start)
    return np.mean(times), np.std(times)
```

```
In []: times_mm0 = []
    times_mm1 = []

for datasetsize in np.arange(4, 784, step=20):
    XX = Xbar[:datasetsize]
    mu, sigma = time(lambda : XX.T @ XX)
    times_mm0.append((datasetsize, mu, sigma))

mu, sigma = time(lambda : XX @ XX.T)
    times_mm1.append((datasetsize, mu, sigma))

times_mm0 = np.asarray(times_mm0)
    times_mm1 = np.asarray(times_mm1)
```

```
In [ ]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
    ax.set(xlabel='size of dataset', ylabel='running time')
    bar = ax.errorbar(times_mm0[:, 0], times_mm0[:, 1], times_mm0[:, 2], label="$X^T X$ (
    ax.errorbar(times_mm1[:, 0], times_mm1[:, 1], times_mm1[:, 2], label="$X X^T$ (PCA_hi
    ax.legend();
```

We first benchmark the time taken to compute  $X^TX$  and  $XX^T$ . Jupyter's magic command %time is quite handy.

Next we benchmark PCA, PCA\_high\_dim.

```
In []: times0 = []
    times1 = []

for datasetsize in np.arange(4, 784, step=100):
        XX = Xbar[:datasetsize]
        npc = 2
        mu, sigma = time(???)
        times0.append((datasetsize, mu, sigma))

        mu, sigma = time(???)
        times1.append((datasetsize, mu, sigma))

times0 = np.asarray(times0)
    times1 = np.asarray(times1)
```

Alternatively, use the time magic command.

```
In [ ]: %time Xbar.T @ Xbar
%time Xbar @ Xbar.T
pass # Put this here, so that our output does not show the result of computing `Xbar
```

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We can also compare the running time for **PCA** and **PCA\_high\_dim** directly. Spend some time and think about what this plot means. We mentioned in lectures that  $PCA_high_dim$  are advantageous when we have dataset size N < data dimension D. Although our plot for the two running times does not intersect exactly at N = D, it does show the trend.

```
In [ ]: fig, ax = plt.subplots()
    ax.set(xlabel='number of datapoints', ylabel='run time')
    ax.errorbar(times0[:, 0], times0[:, 1], times0[:, 2], label="PCA", linewidth=2)
    ax.errorbar(times1[:, 0], times1[:, 1], times1[:, 2], label="PCA_high_dim", linewidth
    ax.legend();
```

Again, with the magic command time.

In [	]:	<pre>%time PCA(Xbar, 2) %time PCA_high_dim(Xbar, 2) pass</pre>
In [	]:	
In [	]:	
In [	]:	