# Homework 9-2: Getting comfortable with PCA

#### **Table of Contents**

(a-d) Initialize and generate data	1
(b) In large-dimensional spaces, random vectors are almost orthogonal	2
(e) Plot in the XY plane	2
(f,g) A random projection does no better:	3
(h, i) Let's do PCA!	
Some sanity checks:	6
(j) How well do the recovered directions correspond to the modes we "programmed in"?	6
(k) Compute the Marchenko-Pastur distribution	7
(l) How many datapoints to see a weak signal?	8

#### (a-d) Initialize and generate data

```
D=100; % number of dimensions
N=500; % number of datapoints
sigma = 1; % noise magnitude
axisLim = 20; % For plotting
% Generate data
rng(0); % for reproducibility
% The variances along the three dominant directions
trueSignalVars = [20 5 0.5];
% The three dominant directions -> select them randomly (and
normalize).
% When the number of dimensions is large, any two random vectors
% are almost orthogonal!
vs = randn(D,3);
norms = sqrt(sum(vs.^2));
vs = vs./norms;
v1 = vs(:,1);
v2 = vs(:,2);
v3 = vs(:,3);
% Generate the data that looks like an ellipsoid with the main
principal
% directions we chose.
coef = sqrt(trueSignalVars);
X = coef(1)*randn(N,1)*v1'+...
    coef(2)*randn(N,1)*v2'+...
    coef(3)*randn(N,1)*v3'+...
```

sigma\*randn(N,D);

### (b) In large-dimensional spaces, random vectors are almost orthogonal

Why do we expect random vectors to be almost orthogonal, and how much is "almost"? First, recall a useful implication of central limit theorem: if we have a long sum of D random terms, some positive, some negative, so each term zero on average, but each individually of order 1 -- what's the expected magnitude of the sum? The answer is  $\sqrt{D}$ . Indeed: this is just like a sum of D independent draws from a Gaussian of width 1, and when summing independent random variables, their variances add. And if the variance of the sum is D, then the typical value is of order  $\sqrt{D}$ .

Now, back to scalar products of random vectors. If  $\vec{a}$ ,  $\vec{b}$  are unit vectors, then:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{D} a_i^2 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |a_i| \simeq 1/\sqrt{D}$$

and similarly for  $\vec{b}$ . For the scalar product we then have:

$$(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}) = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \ldots + a_D b_D.$$

This is a sum of D random terms (which can be of either sign), each with average zero, and each of magnitude  $\left(1/\sqrt{D}\right)^2=1/D$ . We conclude that the expected value of the scalar product is:

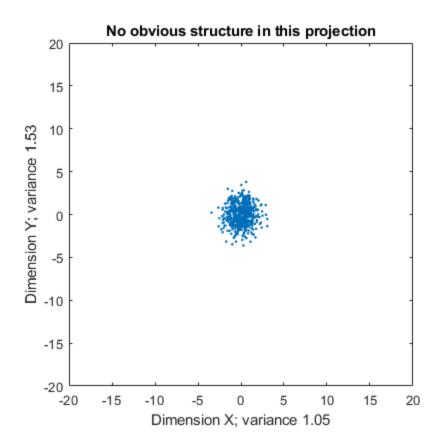
$$(\vec{a}\cdot\vec{b})\simeq\sqrt{D}\ \frac{1}{D}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{D}}$$

In this respect the dimension 100 considered here is not actually that big, and we expect a scalar product of  $\sim$ 0.1. But as *D* increases, expected scalar product goes to zero.

#### (e) Plot in the XY plane

```
xs = X(:,1);
ys = X(:,2);
clf;
plot(xs, ys,'.')
axis(axisLim*[-1 1 -1 1]);
```

```
axis square
xlabel(sprintf('Dimension X; variance %.2f',var(xs)))
ylabel(sprintf('Dimension Y; variance %.2f',var(ys)))
title('No obvious structure in this projection')
```



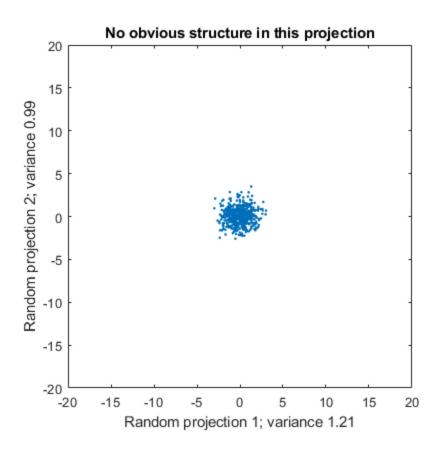
#### (f,g) A random projection does no better:

The projection of x onto a unit vector u is given by the scalar product (x.u) (and if u weren't a unit vector, we would have had to divide this scalar product by u).

```
randDirs = randn(2,D);
norms = sqrt(sum(randDirs.^2,2));
randDirs = randDirs./norms;

xs = X*randDirs(1,:)';
ys = X*randDirs(2,:)';

clf;
plot(xs, ys,'.')
axis(axisLim*[-1 1 -1 1]);
axis square
xlabel(sprintf('Random projection 1; variance %.2f',var(xs)))
ylabel(sprintf('Random projection 2; variance %.2f',var(ys)))
title('No obvious structure in this projection')
```



#### (h, i) Let's do PCA!

```
C = X'*X/N; % The correlation matrix
% Digonalize the correlation matrix, and determine the three leading
 modes
[v, lambdas] = eig(C); % The eigenvectors are the COLUMNS of V
lambdas = diag(lambdas); % The vector of eigenvalues
% Sort the eigenvalues and find the top 3
[lambdas, ord] = sort(lambdas, 'descend');
v = v(:,ord);
% let's make sure the eigenmodes are normalized (this step is actually
% unnecessary, because MatLab computes _normalized_ eigenvectors)
normV = sqrt(sum(v.^2));
v = v./normV;
fprintf('The top 3 eigenvalues (expecting ~%.1f, %.1f, %.1f):\n',
 trueSignalVars+sigma^2);
disp(lambdas(1:3));
The top 3 eigenvalues (expecting ~21.0, 6.0, 1.5):
   20.2275
    6.7466
    2.0020
```

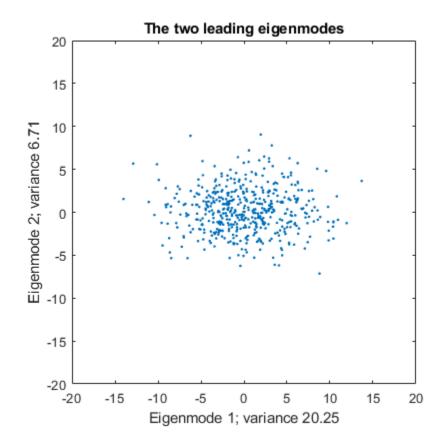
We expect these values to be close to  $\simeq \lambda_{a,b,c} + \sigma^2$ , because we programmed in a signal of the respective variance, and on top of that we have noise of variance  $\sigma^2$  -- and once again, variances of independent variables add.

```
xInNewBasis = X*v; % Data projected onto the eigenmodes = converting
into a new basis

eigModel23 = v(:,1:3);

% Projections of data on these directions:
pl23 = X*eigModel23;

xs = pl23(:,1);
ys = pl23(:,2);
clf;
plot(xs, ys,'.')
axis(axisLim*[-1 1 -1 1]);
axis square
xlabel(sprintf('Eigenmode 1; variance %.2f',var(xs)))
ylabel(sprintf('Eigenmode 2; variance %.2f',var(ys)))
title('The two leading eigenmodes')
```



#### Some sanity checks:

```
fprintf('Total variance of data computed in two ways (should be same):
\n');
totalVar = sum(X(:).^2)
totalVar = sum(xInNewBasis(:).^2)

fprintf('First two dimensions capture only %.2g%% of this total
  variance.\n', 100*sum(sum(X(:,1:2).^2))/totalVar);
fprintf('In contrast, two eigenmodes capture %.2g%%!\n',
  100*sum(sum(xInNewBasis(:,1:2).^2))/totalVar);

Total variance of data computed in two ways (should be same):

totalVar =
  6.1947e+04

totalVar =
  6.1947e+04

First two dimensions capture only 2.1% of this total variance.
In contrast, two eigenmodes capture 22%!
```

## (j) How well do the recovered directions correspond to the modes we "programmed in"?

```
fprintf('Projections of recovered directions on the "true" signal:
\n');
disp(diag(eigModel23'*vs))

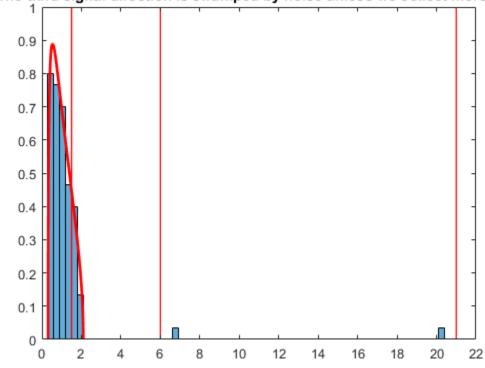
% For unit vectors, the scalar product is the angle between them.
Scalar
% products 1 and -1 mean angle 0 or pi -- both mean perfect alignment
(an
% eigenvector is only defined up to a sign anyway! -- If u is an
% eigenvector, then so is -u). We see that the first two directions are
% recovered near perfectly. But the third signal direction is receovered
% very poorly. Should we be surprised by this, or was this expected?

Projections of recovered directions on the "true" signal:
    -0.9912
    0.9723
    0.4034
```

### (k) Compute the Marchenko-Pastur distribution

```
r=D/N;
lambdaMin = sigma^2*(1-sqrt(r))^2;
lambdaMax = sigma^2*(1+sqrt(r))^2;
xs = linspace(lambdaMin, lambdaMax, 1000);
dxStep = xs(2)-xs(1);
mp = 1/(2*pi*sigma^2)*sqrt((lambdaMax-xs).*(xs-lambdaMin))./(r*xs);
% Compare the eigenvalues
histogram(lambdas, 'BinWidth', 0.3, 'Normalization', 'pdf');
hold on;
plot(xs, mp, 'r-', 'LineWidth', 2);
axis([0 max([trueSignalVars+sigma^2, lambdas'])+1, 0, 1])
axLim = axis;
for i=1:length(trueSignalVars)
    plot((trueSignalVars(i)+sigma^2)*[1 1],[0
 axLim(4)], 'r-', 'LineWidth', 1);
title({ 'The eigenmode spectrum: expected (red) and actual (blue) ',...
    'The third signal direction is swamped by noise unless we collect
 more data'})
```

The eigenmode spectrum: expected (red) and actual (blue)
The third signal direction is swamped by noise unless we collect more data



#### (I) How many datapoints to see a weak signal?

To be able to recover a weak signal like  $\lambda_c=0.5$ , we must have this stand out from the Marchenko-Pastur "bulk". Requiring that

$$\lambda_+ = \sigma^2 \left( 1 + \sqrt{rac{D}{N}} 
ight)^2 < \sigma^2 + 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{rac{D}{N}} < \sqrt{1 + rac{\lambda_c}{\sigma^2}} - 1$$

In the case at hand, this gives us  $N \sim 2000$ . But to get a better feeling for how the required number of datapoints depends on various parameters, we note that if signal is weak, we can Taylor-expand the square root. This yields:

$$\sqrt{\frac{N}{D}} > \frac{2\sigma^2}{\lambda_c}$$

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