

Machine Learning Methods

Principal Component Analysis

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Principal component analysis (PCA) is a powerful statistical tool for dimension reduction, which has been applied widely in many areas.

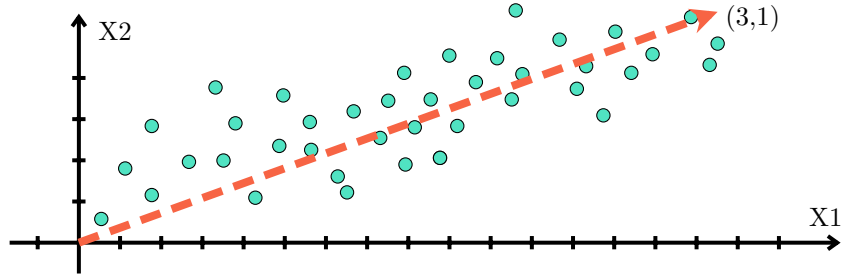
1 Settings and Goals

Suppose we are having such kind of data:

Table 1: Raw data of sample size N and dimension $(q + 4)$

Patient	Response	Age	Gender	Gene 1	Gene 2	...	Gene q
#1							
#2							
#3							
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots	\vdots
#N							

The number of column of a data matrix is called the *dimension*. In this case, we are having a data with sample size N and dimension $q + 4$. Now we further assume that $N \ll q$, which means the row vectors could not span the \mathbb{R}^q space, and they lie mostly near a low dimensional linear space \mathbb{R}^p ($p \ll q$). This is the setting of PCA. And here below is an illustration.



As we see, the data do not lie on the whole \mathbb{R}^2 space, but nearly concentrate on a line, which is a \mathbb{R}^1 linear subspace. And the similar situation may happen in the high dimensional data. Maybe for a 100000-dimensional data, the dimension of the linear space spanned by its row vectors is only 1000. With some

approximation, then it could be further reduced to 200-dimension. Our goal with PCA is to find the lower dimensional space \mathbb{R}^p , which could characterize the original space \mathbb{R}^q .

The most extreme situation is: the n row vectors span a \mathbb{R}^n space. In this case, no lower dimension space could be used for approximation. Therefore, we need to assume that the raw data $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_N\} \in \mathbb{R}^q$ lie mostly near a low dimension linear space \mathbb{R}^p , say \mathcal{M} . For this \mathcal{M} , there exists an orthogonal base:

$$\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q \quad \text{such that} \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{M}, \quad \mathbf{v} = x_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + x_p \mathbf{u}_p = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_p \end{pmatrix}.$$

For convenience, we denote

$$U_{q \times p} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{with} \quad U^\top U = I_p \quad (\text{note the order!}).$$

Then every vector in this \mathcal{M} space has a representation using the basis of U 's column vectors. Because we assume the raw data \mathbf{y} nearly sits in this space, we have

$$\forall \mathbf{y}_i, \quad i \in \{1, \dots, N\}: \quad \mathbf{y}_i \approx x_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + x_p \mathbf{u}_p = U \mathbf{x}_i,$$

where $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})$ is the coordinates under basis U . Now we formally state our assumption of PCA.

Problem Setup. (PCA) Suppose the raw observed data are q -dimensional $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n$ from an unknown population $Y \sim \text{Dist}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$, and the components of \mathbf{y} nearly lie in a lower p -dimensional linear subspace ($p < q$). Our goal is to find out the p -dimensional subspace, more specifically, to find out the orthogonal basis matrix $U_{q \times p}$ to get

$$\mathbf{y}_{q \times 1} \mapsto \mathbf{x}_{p \times 1} \quad \text{such that} \quad \mathbf{x} = U^\top \mathbf{y} \quad \text{with} \quad U_{q \times p} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{pmatrix}$$

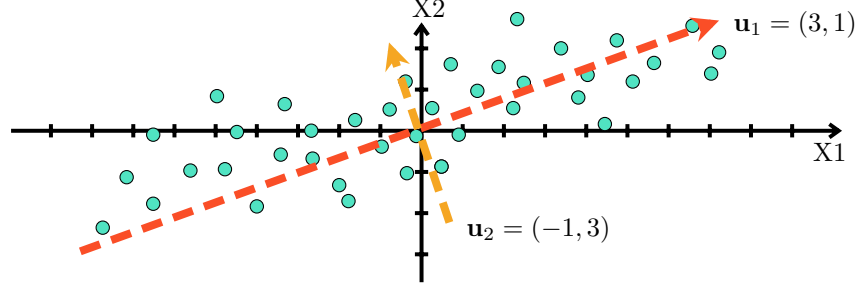
Here diverge two version. If we know the population covariance matrix Σ , then we are doing population PCA, using Σ . However, if we have the sample, we are doing the sample version PCA, using S .

2 Estimation of the Lower Dimensional Space

Now we suppose we are dealing with sample data, instead of the population. There are many ways to estimate the U , one of which was introduced in MA304, using sequential selection by maximization lemma. Now, we introduce another way to derive the first p PCs simultaneously, using SVD or spectral decomposition.

2.1 Case I: $p = 1$

We first deal with the easiest situation: all data nearly lie on a 1 dimensional space. So, our goal is to find the unit direction vector \mathbf{u}_1 such that $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$. For illustration, let's consider the following example.



If we project the sample on the \mathbf{u}_1 direction, the variance of the coordinates will be much larger than that if we project on the \mathbf{u}_2 direction. Note that we are projecting only on one direction, so we can express

$$\text{Proj}_{\mathbf{u}_1}(\mathbf{y}_i) = \mathbf{u}_1(\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1)^{-1} \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{y}_i = (\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{y}_i) \mathbf{u}_1 = x_{i1} \mathbf{u}_1,$$

where all x_{i1} 's are scalar, not vector, whose first index i of x_{i1} indicates the obs number, the second 1 indicates the projection on the first direction. If \mathbf{u}_1 direction makes the variance of projection coordinates $\{x_{11}, x_{21}, \dots, x_{N1}\}$ largest, we say \mathbf{u}_1 direction captures the most variation of \mathbf{y} 's.

Proposition 1. To find the first PC of the sample \mathbb{Y} , we optimize the following function:

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^q} \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{i1} - \bar{x}_1)^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1, \quad \text{where} \quad \bar{x}_1 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N x_{j1}.$$

The solution is

\mathbf{u}_1 = the eigenvector of S with the largest eigenvalue.

Proof. It is derived that $x_{i1} = \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{y}_i$, and then $\bar{x}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1^\top \bar{\mathbf{y}}$. It then follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{i1} - \bar{x}_1)^2 &= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{u}_1^\top \bar{\mathbf{y}})^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N [\mathbf{u}_1^\top (\mathbf{y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{y}})(\mathbf{y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{y}})^\top \mathbf{u}_1] \\ &= \mathbf{u}_1^\top \left[\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{y}})(\mathbf{y}_i - \bar{\mathbf{y}})^\top \right] \mathbf{u}_1 \\ &= \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, our goal becomes to

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^q} \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1 \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1. \quad (1)$$

Introducing a Lagrange multiplier for $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$, we set

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}_1} \left\{ \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1 - \lambda(\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 - 1) \right\} \Big|_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad S \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 = \lambda \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1. \quad (2)$$

This means, the optimization is obtained only if $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1$ is an eigenvector of S . But which eigenvector is the

solution? We need to plug (2) back to (1), and see the value of $\mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{u}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^q} \{ \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1 - \lambda(\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 - 1) \} &= \max_{\mathbf{u}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^q} \{ \mathbf{u}_1^\top \lambda \mathbf{u}_1 - \lambda(\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 - 1) \} \\ &= \max_{\mathbf{u}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^q} \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

By (2), λ is the eigenvalue corresponding to the eigenvector \mathbf{u}_1 . So, by choosing \mathbf{u}_1 to be the eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue, we get this optimized. \square

2.2 Case II: $p > 1$

Now we relax the condition $p = 1$, assuming the raw data $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_N\} \in \mathbb{R}^q$ lie nearly on a p dimensional subspace. Suppose $(\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p)$ is an orthogonal basis of this \mathbb{R}^p space, and we write

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{bmatrix}_{q \times p}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{u}_k \in \mathbb{R}^q \text{ for all } k \in \{1, 2, \dots, p\}.$$

Then every observation \mathbf{y}_i has p projection coordinates now:

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, N\}: \quad \mathbf{y}_i \in \mathbb{R}^q \implies \mathbf{x}_i = \begin{pmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{ip} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{y}_i \\ \mathbf{u}_2^\top \mathbf{y}_i \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_p^\top \mathbf{y}_i \end{pmatrix} = U^\top \mathbf{y}_i.$$

And as usual, we call \mathbf{x}_i as the projection coordinates of \mathbf{y}_i on the basis U . In fact, we are using the projection to approximate the true \mathbf{y}_i , i.e.

$$\mathbf{y}_i \approx x_{i1}\mathbf{u}_1 + x_{i2}\mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + x_{ip}\mathbf{u}_p = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{ip} \end{pmatrix} = U_{q \times p} U_{p \times q}^\top \mathbf{y}_i.$$

This is an interpretation of what we are doing. Now, let's begin the estimation. Similarly, we also want the projection coordinates capture more variation of \mathbf{y} 's.

Proposition 2. *To find the first p PC's of the sample \mathbb{Y} , we optimize the following function:*

$$\max_{U \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times p}} \left(\text{sum of sample variance of } \begin{bmatrix} \{x_{11} & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{N1}\} \\ \{x_{12} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{N2}\} \\ \vdots \\ \{x_{1p} & x_{2p} & \cdots & x_{Np}\} \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad \text{subject to } U^\top U = I_p.$$

One solution is $U = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{bmatrix}$, where

\mathbf{u}_k = the eigenvector of S with the k -th largest eigenvalue.

And any rotation of the p column vectors $U_{q \times p} O_{p \times p}$, where $O^\top O = I_p$, is another solution.

Proof. Let's first simplify the optimization function. In Proposition 2, we showed

$$\text{sample variance of } \{x_{11}, \dots, x_{N1}\} = \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1.$$

So, with the same argument, we have

$$\text{sample variance of } \{x_{11}, \dots, x_{N1}\} = \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\text{sample variance of } \{x_{1p}, \dots, x_{Np}\} = \mathbf{u}_p^\top S \mathbf{u}_p.$$

This leads to

$$\text{sum of sample variance of } \begin{bmatrix} \{x_{11} & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{N1}\} \\ \{x_{12} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{N2}\} \\ \vdots \\ \{x_{1p} & x_{2p} & \cdots & x_{Np}\} \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^p \mathbf{u}_i^\top S \mathbf{u}_i.$$

Our restrictions for \mathbf{u}_i 's are

$$U^\top U = I_p \iff \begin{cases} \mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_i = 1 & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, p, \\ \mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_j = 0 & \text{for } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Introducing λ_{ij} for every restriction, our optimization function becomes

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^p \mathbf{u}_i^\top S \mathbf{u}_i - \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{ii} (\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_i - 1) - \sum_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq p} \lambda_{ij} (\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_j - 0) \right\}. \quad (3)$$

If we write the Lagrange multipliers as a matrix

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{11} & \lambda_{12} & \cdots & \lambda_{1p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \lambda_{p1} & \lambda_{p2} & \cdots & \lambda_{pp} \end{pmatrix},$$

optimization (3) becomes

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \left\{ \text{tr}(U^\top S U) - \text{tr}[\Lambda (U^\top U - I_p)] \right\}.$$

Using matrix derivative, and setting the derivative to be zero, we get

$$\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial U} \left\{ \text{tr}(U^\top S U) - \text{tr}[\Lambda (U^\top U - I_p)] \right\} \right|_{\hat{U}} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow S \hat{U} = \hat{U} \Lambda.$$

Note that the Λ matrix is symmetric, so we use spectral decomposition, and it follows that

$$\Lambda = O \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_p \end{pmatrix} O^\top \Rightarrow S \hat{U} O = \hat{U} O \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_p \end{pmatrix}.$$

For convenience, denote $U^* := \hat{U}O$ and suppose $U^* = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^* & \dots & \mathbf{u}_p^* \end{bmatrix}$. Then we have a very simple expression

$$SU^* = U^* \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_p \end{pmatrix} \iff \begin{pmatrix} S\mathbf{u}_1^* & S\mathbf{u}_2^* & \dots & S\mathbf{u}_p^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1\mathbf{u}_1^* & d_2\mathbf{u}_2^* & \dots & d_p\mathbf{u}_p^* \end{pmatrix}.$$

This means, the optimization is obtained only if every \mathbf{u}_k^* above is an eigenvector of S , and correspondingly, d_k is the eigenvalue. And here comes the same question: which eigenvectors should we take since S has $\min(N, q)$ eigenvectors? We also plug the possible solution into the maximization function. Before plugging, note that

$$S\hat{U} = \hat{U}\Lambda, \quad U^* = UO \quad \text{and} \quad U^\top U = O^\top (U^*)^\top (U^*)O = I_p,$$

where the last equality holds because $U^* = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^* & \dots & \mathbf{u}_p^* \end{bmatrix}$ with each \mathbf{u}_k^* being an eigenvectors of S (eigenvectors are orthogonal). Then we look back at the maximization:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \left\{ \text{tr}(U^\top SU) - \text{tr}[\Lambda(U^\top U - I_p)] \right\} &= \max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \left\{ \text{tr}(U^\top U \Lambda) - \text{tr}[\Lambda(U^\top U - I_p)] \right\} \\ &= \max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \left\{ \text{tr}(\Lambda) \right\} \\ &= \max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \text{tr} \left\{ O \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_p \end{pmatrix} O^\top \right\} \\ &= \max_{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p \in \mathbb{R}^q} \sum_{i=1}^p d_i. \end{aligned}$$

Since every d_k is the eigenvalue corresponding to the eigenvector \mathbf{u}_k^* of S , we choose d_1, \dots, d_p to be the largest eigenvalues, and \mathbf{u}_k^* is the corresponding eigenvectors, it gets optimized. \square

Note that the last word of Proposition 2 says: the first p PC's of the sample \mathbb{Y} is NOT unique. The reason for it is we are doing optimization on p PC's simultaneously. This means, **we can rotate** the first p PC's, but remain at the same explained proportion of total variance. However, the explained proportion of each *PC* from 1 to p may change.