

1 Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant analysis is essentially “supervised machine learning” applied to “classification” problems. One can also view discriminant analysis as a form of regression analysis in which the criterion variables are discrete.

In a typical discriminant analysis problem,

- Given:
 - A finite collection of observation units, enumerated by $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.
 - For each observation unit, i , measurements $\mathbf{v}_i^T = (v_{i1}, v_{i2}, \dots, v_{in}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ on $n \in \mathbb{N}$ of the observation unit on n predictor variables V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n . Thus, $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1}^N \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a set of N points in $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$.
 - A classification of the N observational units into g groups.
- Want to determine:
 - A linear function $L = \beta_1 V_1 + \beta_2 V_2 + \dots + \beta_n V_n$ that can be used to “predict” the given classification of observational units. L is called a *discriminant function*.

2 Principal Component Analysis

In a typical discriminant analysis problem,

- Given:
 - A finite collection of observation units, enumerated by $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.
 - For each observation unit, i , measurements $\mathbf{v}_i^T = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ of the observation unit on $n \in \mathbb{N}$ predictor variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . Thus, $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1}^N \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a set of N points in \mathbb{R}^n .
- Want to determine:
 - A linear transformation $(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n) = \mathcal{L}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ such that the correlation matrix with respect to the coordinates (Y_1, \dots, Y_n) is a diagonal matrix with non-negative and non-decreasing entries. The new coordinates Y_1, \dots, Y_n are called the *principal components*.

For each $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$,

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1k} \\ x_{2k} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ x_{Nk} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Correlation matrix: For $k, l = 1, 2, \dots, n$,

$$R_{kl} := \text{Cor}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_l) := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)(x_{il} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_l)}{(N-1) \text{SE}(\mathbf{x}_k) \text{SE}(\mathbf{x}_l)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)(x_{il} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_l)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{il} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_l)^2}},$$

where

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{ik}, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{SE}(\mathbf{x}_k) := \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)^2}.$$

$R := (R_{kl})_{k,l=1,\dots,n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a real symmetric matrix. Note that the diagonal entries of R are all 1:

$$R_{kk} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{x}_k)(x_{ik} - \bar{x}_k)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{x}_k)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ik} - \bar{x}_k)^2}} = 1,$$

which furthermore implies that $\text{trace}(R) = n$. Now, recall:

Theorem 2.1 *A real square matrix is symmetric if and only if it has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors.*

Theorem 2.2 *Every real symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonally diagonalizable, i.e. there exists an orthogonal matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that*

$$D := Q^T A Q$$

is a diagonal matrix. Moreover, the set of eigenvalues of A is equal to the set of diagonal entries of D . The i^{th} column of Q is an eigenvector of A corresponding to the i^{th} diagonal entry of D .

Let D be the diagonalization of R which has non-decreasing diagonal entries. Note that $\text{trace}(D) = \text{trace}(R) = n$. Recall also that the diagonal entries of D are necessarily non-negative and they are the eigenvalues of R . Consequently, the k^{th} diagonal entry $\lambda_k \geq 0$ of D (or eigenvalue of R) can be interpreted as the number of dimension(s) “explained” by the corresponding principal component $\text{span}(Y_k)$.

3 Factor Analysis