

# Lecture 3: Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

Reading: Sections 6.3.1, 10.1, 10.2, 10.4

STATS 202: Data mining and analysis

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## Announcements

- ▶ Kaggle invitations have been sent. You have to register + join the competition.
- ▶ If you want to form a team, you should do so before making any submissions.
- ▶ I'm extending my office hours on Monday for Python help.
- ▶ Warning: Some nodes on corn have a different version of IPython.

## The bias variance decomposition

Let  $x_0$  be fixed,  $y_0 = f(x_0) + \varepsilon$ , and  $\hat{f}$  be estimated from  $n$  separate training samples  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n; y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ .

Let  $E$  denote the expectation over  $\varepsilon$  and the training samples. Then, the Mean Squared Error at  $x_0$  can be decomposed:

$$MSE(x_0) = E(y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0))^2 = \text{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0)) + [\text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))]^2 + \text{Var}(\varepsilon).$$

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Irreducible error

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The variance of the estimate of  $Y$ :  $E[\hat{f}(x_0) - E(\hat{f}(x_0))]^2$

This measures how much the estimate of  $\hat{f}$  at  $x_0$  changes when we sample new training data.

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The squared bias of the estimate of  $Y$ :  $[E(\hat{f}(x_0) - f(x_0))]^2$

This measures the deviation of the average estimate  $\hat{f}$  at  $x_0$  from  $f(x_0)$ .

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Both variance and squared bias are always positive.

Higher variance  $\iff$  More flexibility  $\iff$  Lower bias.

We will aim to minimize both sources of error simultaneously.

# Principal Components Analysis

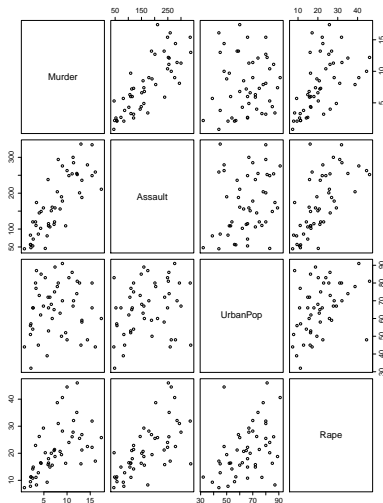
- ▶ This is the most popular unsupervised procedure ever.
- ▶ Invented by Karl Pearson (1901).
- ▶ Developed by Harold Hotelling (1933).
- ▶ **What does it do?** It provides a way to visualize high dimensional data, summarizing the most important information.



# Principal Components Analysis

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# What is PCA good for?



## What is PCA good for?

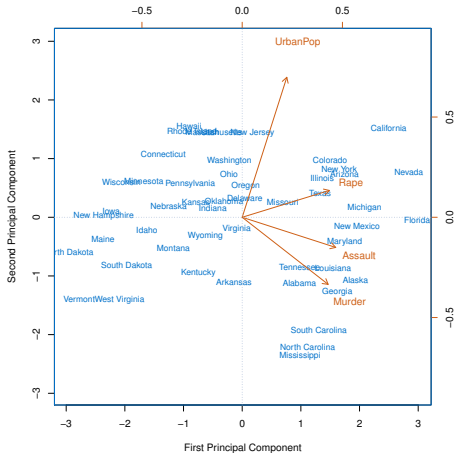
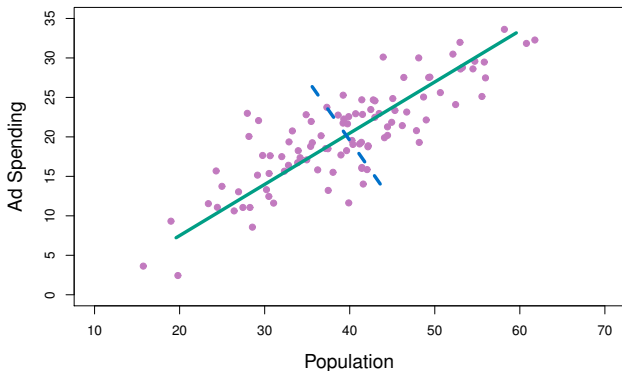


Figure 10.1

## What is the first principal component?

It is the vector which passes the closest to a cloud of samples, in terms of Euclidean distance.



i.e. The green direction minimizes the average length of the dotted lines.

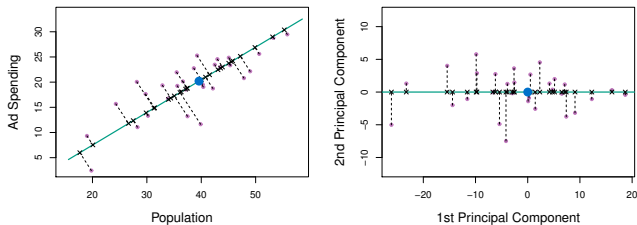


Figure 6.15

## What does this look like with 3 variables?

The first two principal components span a plane which is closest to the data.

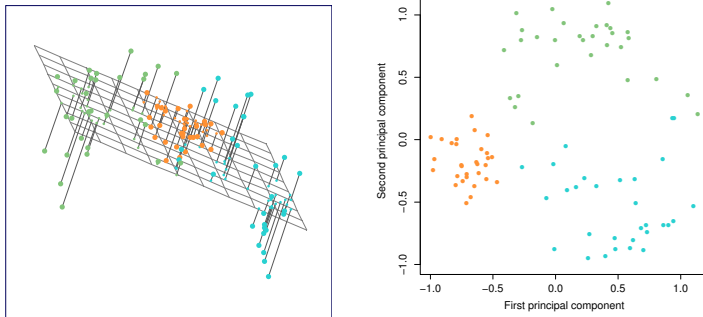


Figure 10.2

## A second interpretation

The projection onto the first principal component is the one with the **highest variance**.

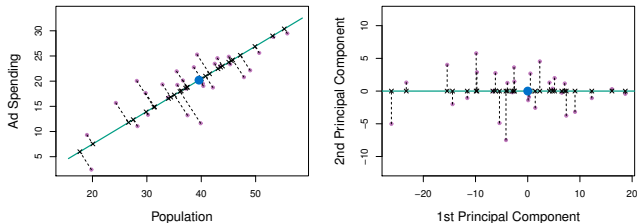


Figure 6.15

## How do we say this in math?

Let  $\mathbf{X}$  be a data matrix with  $n$  samples, and  $p$  variables. From each variable, we subtract the mean of the column; i.e. we **center** the variables.

To find the first principal component  $\phi_1 = (\phi_{11}, \dots, \phi_{p1})$ , we solve the following optimization

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\phi_{11}, \dots, \phi_{p1}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j1} x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \\ \text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j1}^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$



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Projection of the  $i$ th sample onto  $\phi_1$ . Also known as **the score**  $z_{i1}$

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Variance of the  $n$  samples projected onto  $\phi_1$ .

## How do we say this in math?

To find the second principal component  $\phi_2 = (\phi_{12}, \dots, \phi_{p2})$ , we solve the following optimization

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\phi_{12}, \dots, \phi_{p2}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j2} x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \\ & \text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j2}^2 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{j1} \phi_{j2} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

First and second principal components must be orthogonal.

Equivalent to saying that the scores  $(z_{11}, \dots, z_{n1})$  and  $(z_{12}, \dots, z_{n2})$  are uncorrelated.

## Solving the optimization

This optimization is fundamental in linear algebra. It is satisfied by either:

- ▶ The singular value decomposition (SVD) of  $\mathbf{X}$ :

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{\Phi}^T$$

where the  $i$ th column of  $\mathbf{\Phi}$  is the  $i$ th principal component  $\phi_i$ , and the  $i$ th column of  $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}$  is the  $i$ th vector of scores  $(z_{1i}, \dots, z_{ni})$ .

- ▶ The eigendecomposition of  $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ :

$$\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{\Sigma}^2\mathbf{\Phi}^T$$

## PCA in practice: The biplot

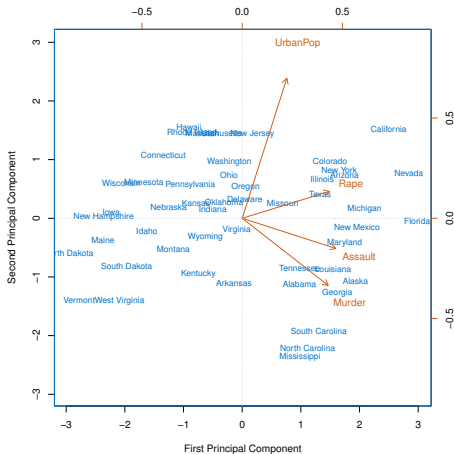


Figure 10.1

## Scaling the variables

Most of the time, we don't care about the absolute numerical value of a variable. We care about the value relative to the spread observed in the sample.

Before PCA, in addition to **centering** each variable, we also multiply it times a constant to make its variance equal to 1.

## Example: scaled vs. unscaled PCA

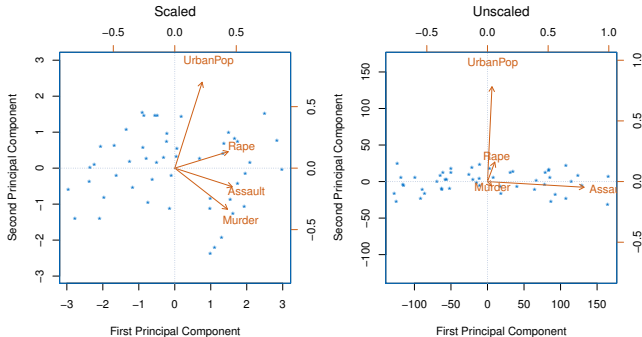


Figure 10.3

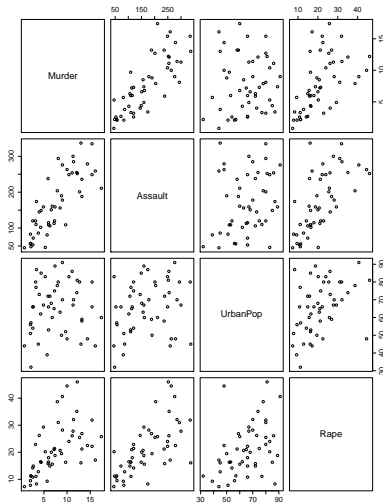
## Scaling the variables

In special cases, we have variables measured in the same unit; e.g. gene expression levels for different genes.

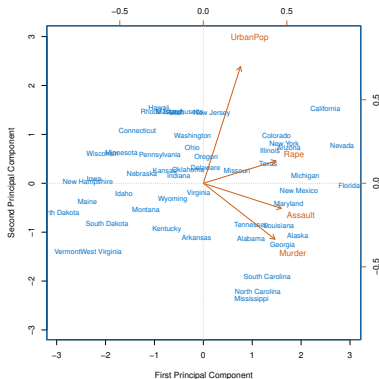
Therefore, we care about the absolute value of the variables and we can perform PCA without scaling.



# How many principal components are enough?



## How many principal components are enough?



We said 2 principal components capture most of the relevant information. But how can we tell?

## The proportion of variance explained

We can think of the top **principal components** as directions in space in which the data vary the most.

The  $i$ th **score vector**  $(z_{1i}, \dots, z_{ni})$  can be interpreted as a *new* variable. The variance of this variable decreases as we take  $i$  from 1 to  $p$ . However, the total variance of the score vectors is the same as the total variance of the original variables:

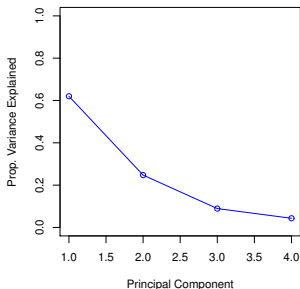
$$\sum_{k=1}^p \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n x_{jk}^2.$$

We can quantify how much of the variance is captured by the first  $m$  principal components/score variables.

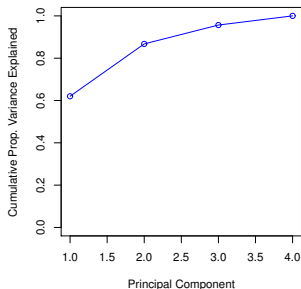
## The proportion of variance explained

The variance of the  $m$ th score variable is:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_{im}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{j=1}^p \phi_{jm} x_{ij} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \Sigma_{mm}^2.$$



Scree plot



## Generalizations of PCA

PCA works under a Euclidean geometry in the space of variables. Often, the natural geometry is different:

- ▶ We expect some variables to be “closer” to each other than to other variables.
- ▶ Some correlations between variables would be more surprising than others.

Examples:

- ▶ Variables are pixel values, samples are different images of the brain. We expect neighboring pixels to have stronger correlations.
- ▶ Variables are counts for different gut bacteria, samples are different people. We expect bacteria that are close phylogenetically to be strongly correlated.

## Generalizations of PCA

There are ways to include this knowledge in a PCA. See:

1. Susan Holmes. *Multivariate Analysis, the French way*. (2006).
2. Omar de la Cruz and Susan Holmes. *An introduction to the duality diagram*. (2011).
3. Stéphane Dray and Thibaut Jombart. *Revisiting Guerry's data: Introducing spatial constraints in multivariate analysis*. (2011).
4. Genevera Allen, Logan Grosenick, and Jonathan Taylor. *A Generalized Least Squares Matrix Decomposition*. (2011).