Numerical Algorithms

Signal Data Science

Finding maxima and minima

Gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent

Newton's method

The expectation-maximization algorithm

Markov chain Monte Carlo

Iterative principal component extraction

The technique of principal component analysis (PCA) can be conceptualized in the following manner: First, we find the direction along which the data varies the most (analogous to the semi-major axis of an ellipse). That is the first principal component. We then 'subtract off' that dimension of variation from the data and then find the direction of greatest variation in the *reduced* data. This is the second principal component. Repeating this process, we end up with p principal components for a dataset of dimension p (containing p variables).

With a matrix of data **X**, PCA is ordinarily calculated through the computation of the singular value decomposition of **X** or an eigendecomposition of the covariance matrix of **X**. However, the procedure outlined above illustrates more of the *intuition* behind PCA. The first principal component (PC1) is the dimension which accounts for as much variation as possible, PC2 accounts for as much variation as possible after PC1 is removed, PC3 accounts for as much variation as possible after PC1 and PC2 are removed, and so on and so forth.

In the following, we will implement our own version of PCA using the method of iterative principal component extraction described above and compare our

answer to the PCA method implemented in R's prcomp() (which uses a SVD-based method).

Initialize a random matrix with set.seed(1); X = matrix(sample(0:1, 100, replace=TRUE), nrow=10); X = scale(X).

Extracting the first principal component

Given X, the vector representing the direction of greatest variation is given by the vector \mathbf{w} which *maximizes* the expression $(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) / (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w})$, where \mathbf{X}^T represents the transpose operation (calculated in R with t()). We call the expression which we wish to maximize our objective function.

• Write a function objective(w, X) which calculates the value of the objective function for a given matrix X and vector w. Verify that objective(1:10, X) returns 19.023.

Instead of implementing our own numerical optimization algorithm, we will use R's optim(), which implements a variety of different optimization techniques.

- Write a function vnorm(v) which calculates the magnitude (*i.e.*, the L^2 norm) of v. Verify that vnorm(1:10) returns 19.621.
- Write a function extract_pc(X, method) which uses optim() to maximize the objective function and calculate the first principal component of X using the optimization method specified by method. Keep the following in mind, referring to the documentation as necessary:
 - By default, optim() tries to minimize the objective function. Modify the parameters as necessary for maximization.
 - Change the default behavior of optim() so that the maximum number of iterations is 10,000.
 - For an initial starting point (the par parameter of optim()), use a vector of all 1s with length equal to the dimensionality of X.
 - Passing in the matrix X to objective() can be accomplished by passing in X=X to optim() (accomplished via the . . . parameter).
 - Return the calculated vector w which maximizes objective(w, X)
 normalized by dividing by its

Moreover, we can use prcomp() to verify that extract_pc() works as desired.

• Write a function prcomp_pc(X) which runs prcomp() on X and returns the loadings of the first principal component.

In order to compare the outputs of extract_pc() and prcomp_pc(), we need to check if their output vectors point in the same direction. To determine if two vectors point in the same direction, we can't just compare the elements of

the vectors; for example, (1,1) and (10,10) point in the same direction but are clearly quite different on an element-by-element basis.

The key is to look at the dot product of the two vectors, given by $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \sum_i v_i w_i$. We can use the identity $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\| \cos \theta$, where $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ is the L^2 norm of \mathbf{v} and θ is the *angle* between the two vectors \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} . If the angle between two vectors is close to either 0 or 180° , then they point along the same direction (an angle of 180° indicates that one vector points in the *exact opposite* direction of the other, like (1,1) and (-1,-1)).

- Write a function dot_prod(v, w) which calculates the dot product of v and w.
- Write a function angle (v, w) which calculates the angle θ between v and w in degrees rather than radians and returns the smaller of θ and 180θ . You may find the inverse cosine function acos() useful. Verify that angle (1:5, 6:10) returns 15.214 and that angle (1:5, -5:-1) returns 50.479.

Finally, we're ready to compare the output of our home-grown extract_pc() with the R-based prcomp_pc(). We will use the Nelder–Mead method (also called the downhill simplex method or the amoeba method), a classic technique of numerical optimization developed in 1965, to perform our optimization.

• Use extract_pc() with method="Nelder-Mead" to estimate the first principal component of X. Calculate the angle between the output of extract_pc() and the output of prcomp_pc(). Your answer should be 6.065 degrees.

Unfortunately, the Nelder–Mead method does not perform well on more difficult optimization problems; indeed, it can often converge to suboptimal points. However, optim() also implements the Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno algorithm (BFGS), which is an approximation of Newton's method that does not need to directly calculate the second derivatives of the objective function. (Such methods are known as Quasi-Newton methods; BFGS is one of the most popular.)

 How well does extract_pc() perform if you use BFGS for the optimization instead of Nelder-Mead?

Extracting every principal component

After having calculated the *first* principal component of X, we need to remove all the information in X which is captured by the direction of PC1 before we can extract the *second* principal component. In general, given an "intermediate" matrix of data X^* (which may be equal to X but may also already have had multiple principal components "removed"), we can remove the information captured by the direction of the vector \mathbf{w} by computing $X^* - XW$, where $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}$

 $\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}$ is the outer product of \mathbf{w} with itself. (\mathbf{W} is a *matrix*, in contrast with $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$, which evaluates to a single number.)

- Write a function remove_pc(Xorig, Xinit, pc) which takes the *original* data matrix **X** as Xorig, the *intermediate* data matrix **X*** as Xinit, and a vector of weights pc corresponding to the principal component to be removed from **X***. It should return the result of removing the information along the direction of pc from Xinit as described by the above explanation. Verify that norm(remove_pc(X, X, 1:10)) returns 1475.395.
- Write a function extract_all(X, method) which combines extract_pc() and remove_pc() to calculate every principal component of X with the optimization method specified by method, returning a matrix where the *i*th column corresponds to the weights of the *i*th principal component. Write a function prcomp_all(X) analogously.

We're ready to see how well our method performs for extraction of *every* principal component.

- Write a function angles_all(X, method) which runs both extract_all() and prcromp_all() on X and returns a vector where the ith entry corresponds to the angle between the ith principal component as computed by our home-grown optimization method and the ith principal component as computed by R's prcomp().
- Use angles_all() to compare the performance of Nelder–Mead and BFGS for principal component extraction.
- Why is the last value of the output of angles_all() so much higher than the others? Provide an intuitive explanation for this phenomenon.