

MATH 637: Mathematical Techniques in Data Science

Principal component analysis

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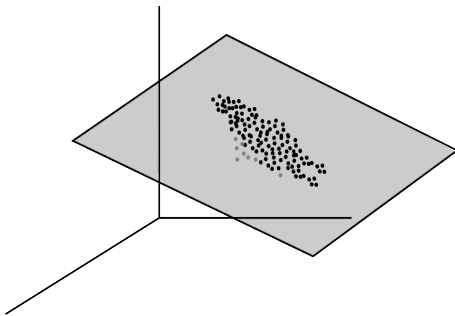
April 13, 2020

Motivation

- High-dimensional data often has a low-rank structure.
- Most of the “action” may occur in a subspace of \mathbb{R}^p .

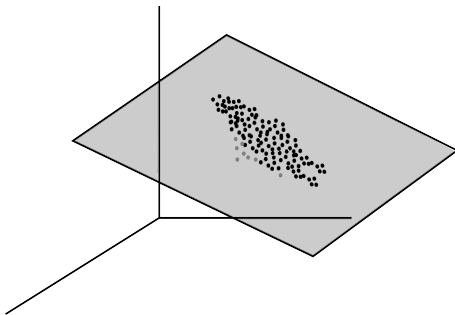
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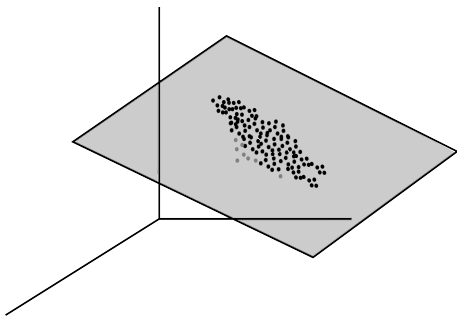
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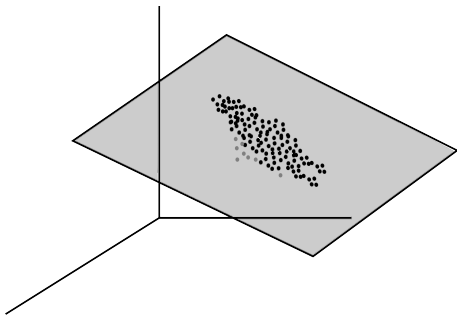


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- Principal components analysis: construct projections of the data that capture most of the *variability* in the data.
- Provides a low-rank approximation to the data.
- Can lead to a significant dimensionality reduction.

Principal component analysis (PCA)

- Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ with rows $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$. We think of X as n observations of a random vector $(X_1, \dots, X_p) \in \mathbb{R}^p$.

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We solve:

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Claim: w is an eigenvector associated to the largest eigenvalue of $X^T X$.

Proof of claim: Rayleigh quotients

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ be a symmetric (or Hermitian) matrix. The *Rayleigh quotient* is defined by

$$R(A, x) = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x} = \frac{\langle Ax, x \rangle}{\langle x, x \rangle}, \quad (x \in \mathbb{R}^p, x \neq \mathbf{0}_{p \times 1}).$$

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Observations:

- 1 If $Ax = \lambda x$ with $\|x\|_2 = 1$, then $R(A, x) = \lambda$. Thus,

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- ② Let $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p\}$ denote the eigenvalues of A , and let $\{v_1, \dots, v_p\} \subset \mathbb{R}^p$ be an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of A . If $x = \sum_{i=1}^p \theta_i v_i$, then $R(A, x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \theta_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^p \theta_i^2}$.

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It follows that

$$\sup_{x \neq \mathbf{0}} R(A, x) \leq \lambda_{\max}(A).$$

Thus, $\sup_{x \neq \mathbf{0}} R(A, x) = \sup_{\|x\|_2=1} x^T A x = \lambda_{\max}(A)$.

Previous argument shows that

$$w^{(1)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\|w\|_2=1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^T w)^2 = \operatorname{argmax}_{\|w\|_2=1} w^T X^T X w$$

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- The linear combination $\sum_{i=1}^p w_i^{(1)} X_i$ is the *first principal component* of (X_1, \dots, X_p) .
- Alternatively, we say that $Xw^{(1)}$ is the first (sample) principal component of X .

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Second principal component: We look for a new linear combination of the X_i 's that

- 1 Is orthogonal to the first principal component, and
- 2 Maximizes the variance.

In other words:

$$w^{(2)} := \underset{\substack{\|w\|_2=1 \\ w \perp w^{(1)}}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^T w)^2 = \underset{\substack{\|w\|_2=1 \\ w \perp w^{(1)}}}{\operatorname{argmax}} w^T X^T X w.$$

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- Using a similar argument as before with Rayleigh quotients, we conclude that $w^{(2)}$ is an eigenvector associated to the second largest eigenvalue of $X^T X$.
- Similarly, given $w^{(1)}, \dots, w^{(k)}$, we define

$$w^{(k+1)} := \operatorname{argmax}_{\substack{\|w\|_2=1 \\ w \perp w^{(1)}, w^{(2)}, \dots, w^{(k)}}} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^T w)^2 = \operatorname{argmax}_{\substack{\|w\|_2=1 \\ w \perp w^{(1)}, w^{(2)}, \dots, w^{(k)}}} w^T X^T X w.$$

As before, the vector $w^{(k+1)}$ is an eigenvector associated to the $(k+1)$ -th largest eigenvalue of $X^T X$.

In summary, suppose

$$X^T X = U \Lambda U^T$$

where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ is an orthogonal matrix and $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ is diagonal.
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- Write $U = (u_1, \dots, u_p)$. Then the variance of the i -th principal component is

$$(Xu_i)^T (Xu_i) = u_i^T X^T X u_i = (U^T X^T X U)_{ii} = \Lambda_{ii}.$$

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Conclusion: The variance of the i -th principal component is the i -th eigenvalue of $X^T X$.

- We say that the first k PCs *explain* $(\sum_{i=1}^k \Lambda_{ii}) / (\sum_{i=1}^p \Lambda_{ii}) \times 100$ percent of the variance.

Example: zip dataset

Recall the zip dataset:

- 1 9298 images of digits 0 – 9.
- 2 Each image is in black/white with $16 \times 16 = 256$ pixels.

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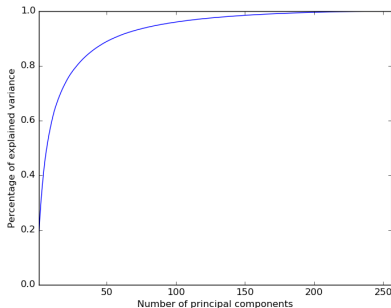
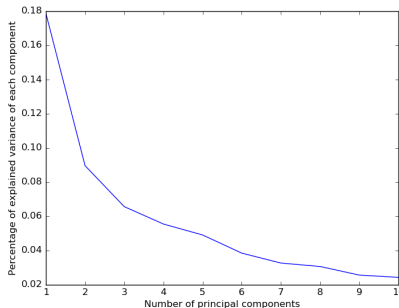
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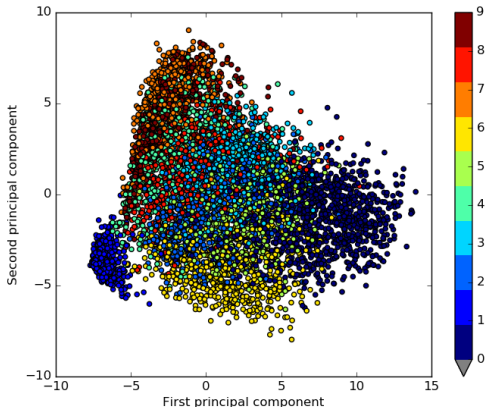
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- Note: $\approx 27\%$ variance explained by the first two PCAs.
- $\approx 90\%$ variance explained by first 55 components.

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Note: k is a parameter that needs to be chosen (using CV or another method). Typically, one picks k to be significantly smaller than p .

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- Can maximize/minimize the kurtosis to find subspaces where data looks Gaussian/non-Gaussian (e.g. to detect outliers).