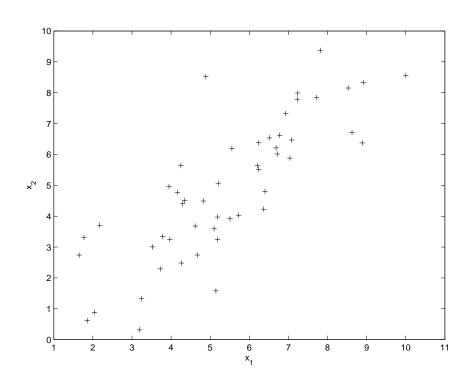
### **Principal Components Analysis**

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### **PCA** (Motivation)



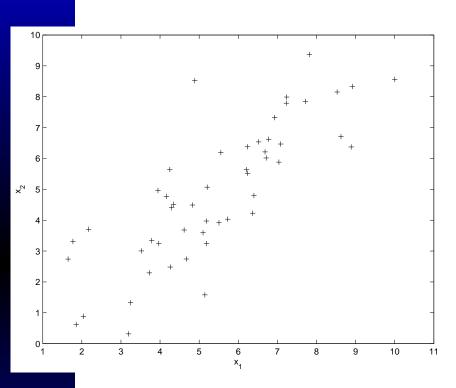
- This data is in two dimensions but the two attributes  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are strongly correlated
- We can view that the data originally lies along a diagonal axis, with some noise

### **PCA** (Motivation)

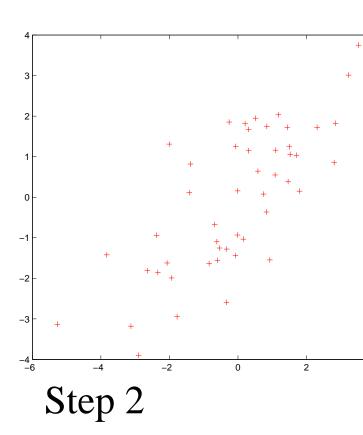
- We shall try to device a method to try to find the best direction in which the data can be projected so as to maximize the variance in the data.
- By PCA we can find a lower dimensional representation of a given data. Thus, this is a dimensionality reduction technique.

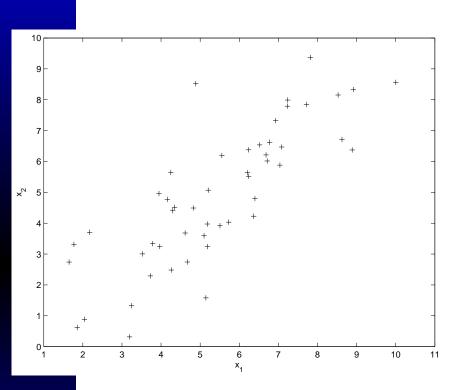
- Assume the data set to be  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$
- 1. Let  $\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}$
- 2. Replace each  $\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}$  with  $\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \mu$ .
- 3. Let  $\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\boldsymbol{x}_j^{(i)})^2$
- 4. Replace each  $\boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{(i)}$  with  $\boldsymbol{x}_{j}^{(i)}/\sigma_{j}$

- Steps 1-2 zero out the mean
- Steps 3-4 rescale each co-ordinate to have unit variance
- These steps can be omitted for data which are known to have zero mean and unit variance in all attributes.
- This rescaling keeps the data in same scale for each attribute, and makes the individual attributes comparable.
- This does not hamper the structure of the data.

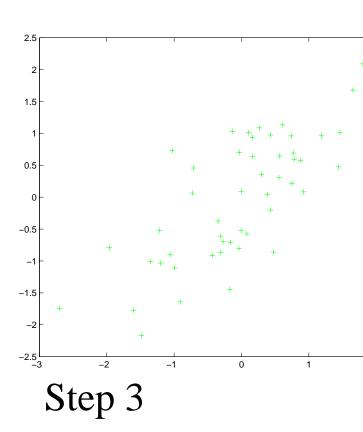


Original





Original



- Now after this normalization, our task would be to compute the major axis of variation of the data.
- We can pose this problem in the following manner:

Find the unit vector u so that when the data is projected in the direction corresponding to u, the variance of the projected data is maximized

- Given an unit vector  $\boldsymbol{u}$  and a point  $\boldsymbol{x}$ , the length of the projection  $\boldsymbol{x}$  onto  $\boldsymbol{u}$  is given by  $\boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{u}$ .
- Hence to maximize the variance of the projections, we can propose the following optimization problem:

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{u}} \quad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)^T} \boldsymbol{u})^2$$
 such that 
$$||\boldsymbol{u}|| = 1$$

• Now,

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)T} \boldsymbol{u})^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{u}^T \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)T} \boldsymbol{u}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{u}^T \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)T} \right) \boldsymbol{u}$$

• Let

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)^{T}}$$

• This is the empirical covariance matrix of the data (assuming, the data is zero mean)

PCA - p. 10/1

• The optimization problem now can be posed as

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{u}} \quad \boldsymbol{u}^T \left( \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \right) \boldsymbol{u}$$
 such that 
$$||\boldsymbol{u}|| = 1$$

**Result :** The u which is a solution to this problem is the principal eigenvector of  $\Sigma$ .

### Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

• Given a  $d \times d$  matrix M, a very important class of linear equations is of the form

$$Mx = \lambda x$$

where  $\lambda$  is a scalar

• The above eq. can be rewritten as

$$(M - \lambda I)\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0},$$

where I is the identity matrix and  $\mathbf{0}$  is the zero vector.

• The solution vector  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_i$  and the corresponding scalar  $\lambda_i$  is called the eigenvector and associated eigenvalue respectively.

## Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- If M is real symmetric, there are d (possibly nondistinct) solution vectors  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_d\}$  each with an associated eigenvalue  $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_d\}$ .
- Under multiplication by M the eigenvectors are changed only in magnitude, not in direction:

$$M oldsymbol{e}_j = \lambda_j oldsymbol{e}_j$$

• If M is diagonal, then he eigenvectors are parallel to the coordinate axes.

## Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

• One method of finding the eigenvectors and eigenvalues is to solve the *characteristic equation* 

$$det(M - \lambda I) = 0$$

- The above equation in  $\lambda$  has d roots (possibly nondistinct).
- For each such root, we then solve a set of linear equations to find its associated eigenvector.

- In the general case if we wish to project our data into a k dimensional subspace where k < n, we should choose  $u_1, u_2, ..., u_k$  to be the eigenvectors corresponding to the top k eigenvalues of the matrix  $\Sigma$ .
- To represent  $x^{(i)}$  in the new basis, we need only to compute the corresponding vector

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(i)} = egin{bmatrix} u_1^T oldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \ u_2^T oldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \ dots \ u_k^T oldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \in \Re^k$$

#### More references

- Andrew Ng's notes, (has a link in the website)
- Duda, Hart, Stork (Chap. 3, Page 115) (It has a bit different treatment)