

Principle Component Analysis

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Why Dimensionality Reduction?

- We have too many dimensions
 - To reason about or obtain insights from
 - To visualize
 - Too much noise in the data
 - Need to “reduce” them to a smaller set of factors
 - Better representation of data without losing much information
 - Can build more effective data analyses on the reduced-dimensional space: classification, clustering, pattern recognition

Component Analysis

- Discover a new set of factors/dimensions/axes against which to represent, describe or evaluate the data
- Factors are combinations of observed variables
 - May be more effective bases for insights
 - Observed data are described in terms of these factors rather than in terms of original variables/dimensions

Basic Concept

- Areas of variance in data are where items can be best discriminated and key underlying phenomena observed
 - Areas of greatest “signal” in the data
- If two items or dimensions are highly correlated or dependent
 - They are likely to represent highly related phenomena
 - If they tell us about the same underlying variance in the data, combining them to form a single measure is reasonable

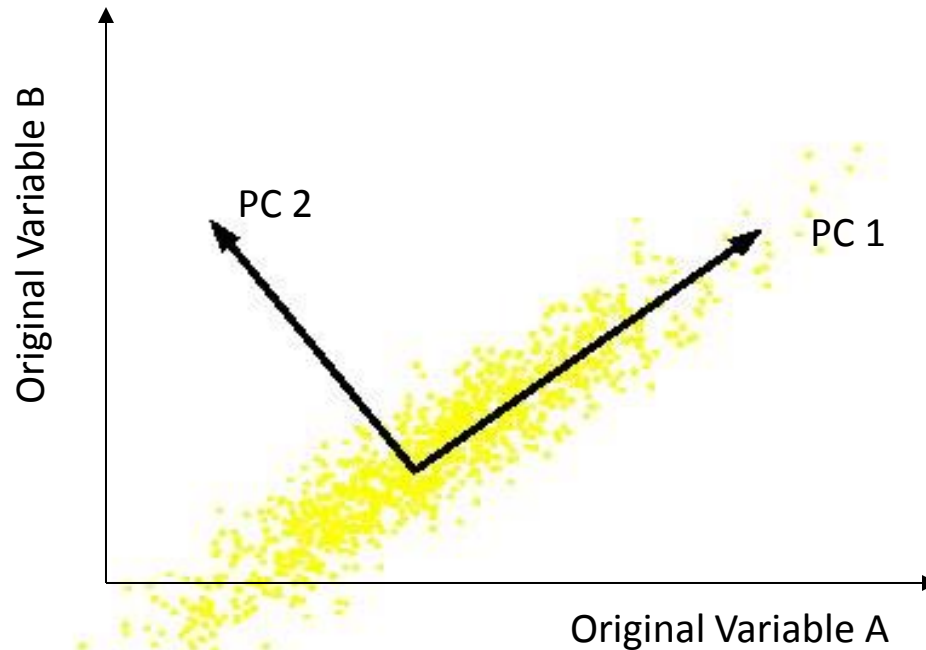
Basic Concept

- So we want to combine related variables, and focus on uncorrelated or independent ones, especially those along which the observations have high variance
- We want a smaller set of variables that explain most of the variance in the original data, in more compact and insightful form
- These variables are called “factors” or “principal components”

Principal Component Analysis

- Most common form of factor analysis
- The new variables/dimensions
 - Are linear combinations of the original ones
 - Are uncorrelated with one another
 - Orthogonal in dimension space
 - Capture as much of the original variance in the data as possible
 - Are called Principal Components

What are the new axes?



- Orthogonal directions of greatest variance in data
- Projections along PC1 discriminate the data most along any one axis

Principal Components

- First principal component is the direction of greatest variability (covariance) in the data
- Second is the next orthogonal (uncorrelated) direction of greatest variability
 - So first remove all the variability along the first component, and then find the next direction of greatest variability
- And so on ...

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

- Principle
 - Linear projection method to reduce the number of parameters
 - Transfer a set of correlated variables into a new set of uncorrelated variables
 - Map the data into a space of lower dimensionality
- Properties
 - It can be viewed as a rotation of the existing axes to new positions in the space defined by original variables
 - New axes are orthogonal and represent the directions with maximum variability

Algebraic definition of PCs

Given a sample of n observations on a vector of p variables

$$\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \in \mathfrak{R}^p$$

define the first principal component of the sample by the linear transformation

$$z_1 = a_1^T x_j = \sum_{i=1}^p a_{i1} x_{ij}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

where the vector

$$a_1 = (a_{11}, a_{21}, \dots, a_{p1})$$

$$x_j = (x_{1j}, x_{2j}, \dots, x_{pj})$$

is chosen such that $\text{var}[z_1]$ is maximum.

Algebraic derivation of PCs

To find a_1 first note that


$$\text{var}[z_1] = E((z_1 - \bar{z}_1)^2) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (a_1^T x_i - a_1^T \bar{x})^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_1^T (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})^T a_1 = a_1^T S a_1$$

where $S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x})^T$

is the covariance matrix. $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ is the mean.

In the following, we assume the Data is centered.

 $\bar{x} = 0$

Algebraic derivation of PCs

Assume $\bar{x} = 0$

Form the matrix: $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \in \mathfrak{R}^{p \times n}$

then $S = \frac{1}{n} XX^T$

Algebraic derivation of PCs

To find \mathbf{a}_1 that maximizes $\text{var}[z_1]$ subject to $\mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{a}_1 = 1$

Let λ be a Lagrange multiplier

$$L = \mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{a}_1 - \lambda (\mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{a}_1 - 1)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{a}_1} L = \mathbf{S} \mathbf{a}_1 - \lambda \mathbf{a}_1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{S} \mathbf{a}_1 = \lambda \mathbf{a}_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{a}_1 = \lambda$$

therefore \mathbf{a}_1 is an eigenvector of \mathbf{S}

corresponding to the largest eigenvalue $\lambda = \lambda_1$.

Algebraic derivation of PCs

To find the next coefficient vector a_2 maximizing $\text{var}[z_2]$

subject to $\text{cov}[z_2, z_1] = 0$

and to $a_2^T a_2 = 1$

uncorrelated

$$\text{cov}[z_2, z_1] = a_1^T S a_2 = \lambda_1 a_1^T a_2$$

then let λ and ϕ be Lagrange multipliers, and maximize

$$L = a_2^T S a_2 - \lambda(a_2^T a_2 - 1) - \phi a_1^T a_2$$

Algebraic derivation of PCs

We find that a_2 is also an eigenvector of S whose eigenvalue $\lambda = \lambda_2$ is the second largest.

In general

$$\text{var}[z_k] = a_k^T S a_k = \lambda_k$$

- The k^{th} largest eigenvalue of S is the variance of the k^{th} PC.
- The k^{th} PC z_k retains the k^{th} greatest fraction of the variation in the sample.

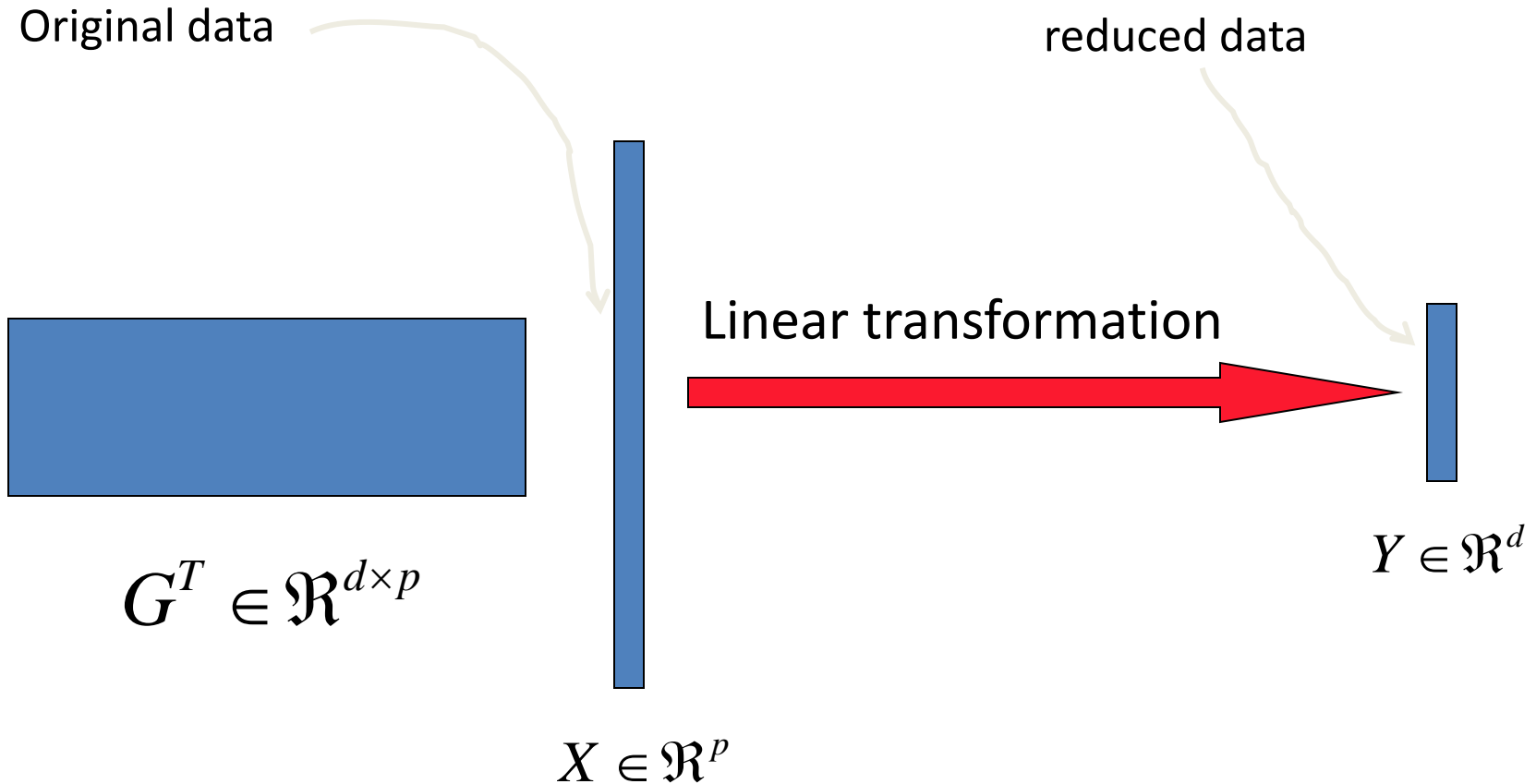
Algebraic derivation of PCs

- Main steps for computing PCs
 - Form the covariance matrix S .
 - Compute its eigenvectors: $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^p$
 - Use the first d eigenvectors $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^d$ to form the d PCs.
 - The transformation G is given by

$$G \leftarrow [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_d]$$

A test point $x \in \mathfrak{R}^p \rightarrow G^T x \in \mathfrak{R}^d$.

Dimensionality Reduction

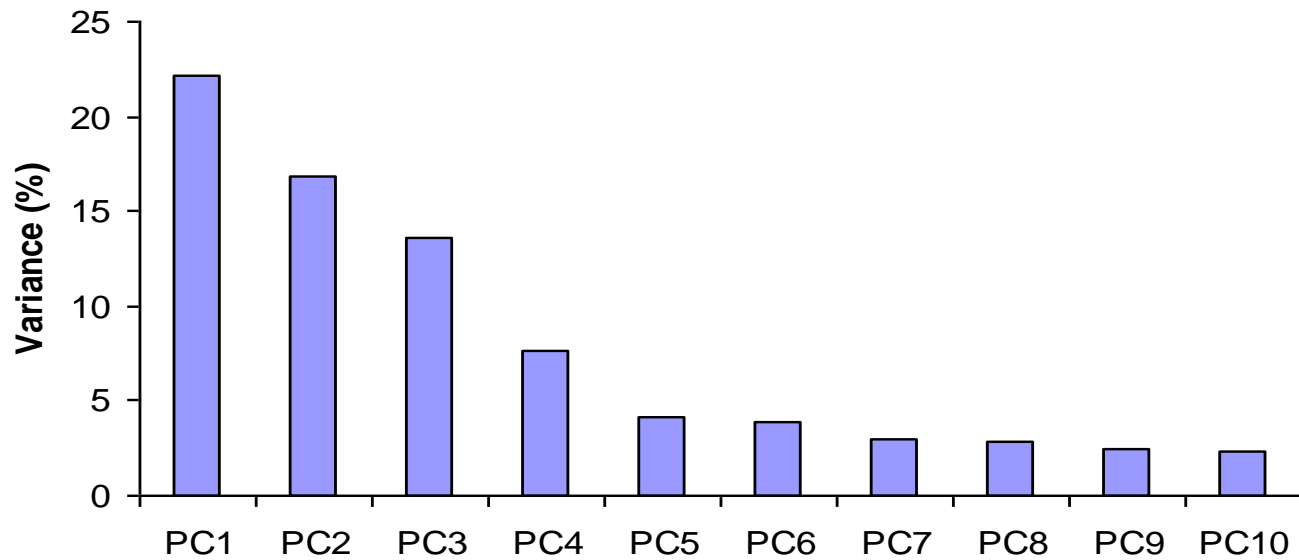


$$G \in \mathfrak{R}^{p \times d} : X \rightarrow Y = G^T X \in \mathfrak{R}^d$$

Steps of PCA

- Let \bar{X} be the mean vector (taking the mean of all rows)
- Adjust the original data by the mean
$$x' = x - \bar{X}$$
- Compute the covariance matrix S of adjusted X
- Find the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of S .

Principal components - Variance



Transformed Data

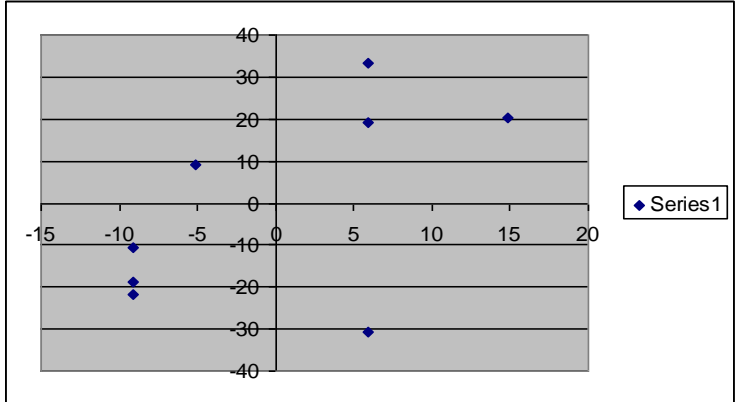
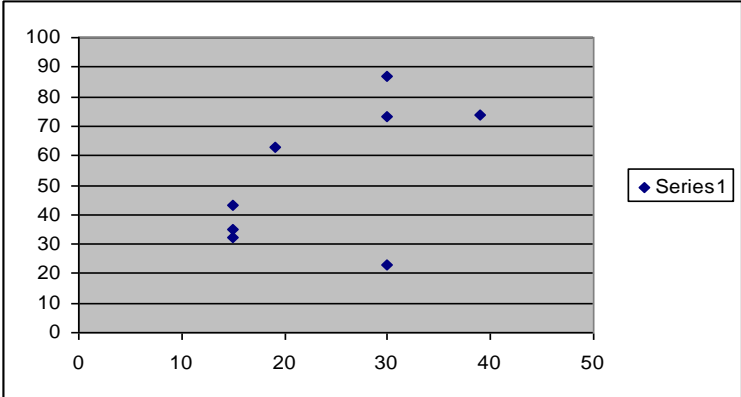
- Eigenvalues λ_j corresponds to variance on each component j
- *Thus, sort by λ_j*
- Take the first d eigenvectors \mathbf{a}_i ; where d is the number of top eigenvalues
- These are the directions with the largest variances

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_{i1} \\ y_{i2} \\ \dots \\ y_{id} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vec{a}_2 \\ \dots \\ \vec{a}_d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{i1} - \bar{x}_1 \\ x_{i2} - \bar{x}_2 \\ \dots \\ x_{in} - \bar{x}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

An Example

X1	X2	X1'	X2'
19	63	-5.1	9.25
39	74	14.9	20.25
30	87	5.9	33.25
30	23	5.9	-30.75
15	35	-9.1	-18.75
15	43	-9.1	-10.75
15	32	-9.1	-21.75
30	73	5.9	19.25

Mean1=24.1
Mean2=53.8



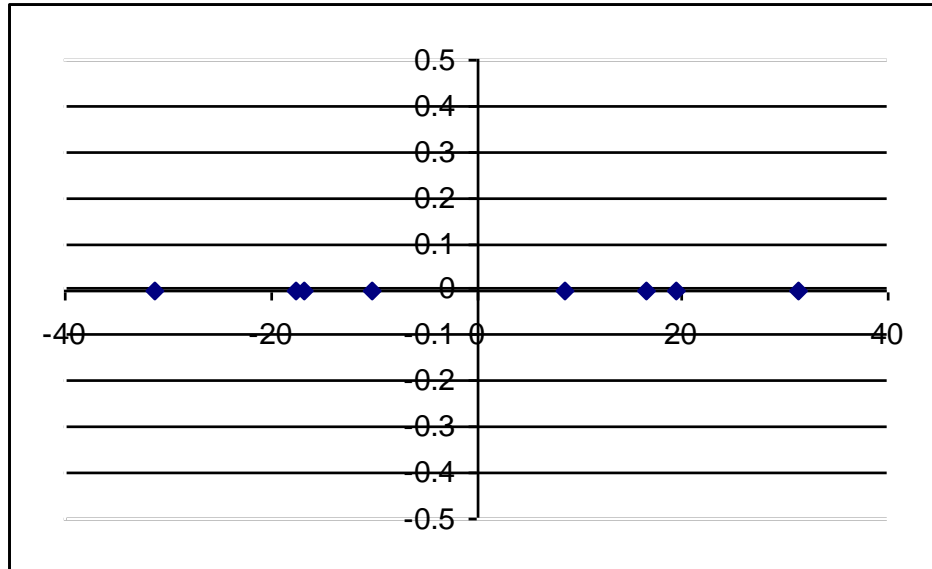
Covariance Matrix

- $C =$

75	106
106	482

- We find out:
 - Eigenvectors:
 - $a_2 = (-0.98, -0.21)$, $\lambda_2 = 51.8$
 - $a_1 = (0.21, -0.98)$, $\lambda_1 = 560.2$

Transform to One-dimension



- We keep the dimension of $a_1=(0.21,-0.98)$
- We can obtain the final data as

$$y_i = (0.21 \quad -0.98) \begin{pmatrix} x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \end{pmatrix} = 0.21 * x_{i1} - 0.98 * x_{i2}$$