

10-301/10-601 Introduction to Machine Learning

Machine Learning Department School of Computer Science Carnegie Mellon University

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Matt Gormley Lecture 23 Nov. 20, 2023

Reminders

- Homework 7: Transformer in PyTorch
 - Out: Sat, Nov. 11
 - Due: Mon, Nov. 20 at 11:59pm
- Homework 8: Reinforcement Learning
 - Out: Mon, Nov. 20
 - Due: Fri, Dec. 1 at 11:59pm

Playing Atari games with Deep RL



DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION

Examples of high dimensional data:

- High resolution images (millions of pixels)







Examples of high dimensional data:

– Multilingual News Stories

(vocabulary of hundreds of thousands of words)

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Examples of high dimensional data: – Brain Imaging Data (100s of MBs per scan)



Image from (Wehbe et al., 2014)

Image from https://pixabay.com/en/brain-mrt-magnetic-resonance-imaging-1728449/

Examples of high dimensional data:

– Customer Purchase Data



Learning Representations

Dimensionality Reduction Algorithms:

Powerful (often unsupervised) learning techniques for extracting hidden (potentially lower dimensional) structure from high dimensional datasets.

Examples:

PCA, Kernel PCA, ICA, CCA, t-SNE, Autoencoders, Matrix Factorization

Useful for:

- Visualization
- More efficient use of resources (e.g., time, memory, communication)
- Statistical: fewer dimensions \rightarrow better generalization
- Noise removal (improving data quality)

This section in one slide...

1. Dimensionality reduction:



2. Random Projection:

FJ (1) Randonly sample matrix VERKXM (2) Project down: $\vec{U}^{(i)} = V\vec{x}^{(i)}$

4. Algorithm for PCA:

3. Definition of PCA:

Choose the matrix V that either...

- 1. minimizes reconstruction error
- 2. consists of the K eigenvectors with largest eigenvalue

The above are equivalent definitions.

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The option we'll focus on:

Run Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) to obtain all the eigenvectors. Keep just the top-K to form V. Play some tricks to keep things efficient.

5. An Example



DIMENSIONALITY REDUCTION BY RANDOM PROJECTION



Random Projection Example: 2D to 1D 2D input dat V ∈ ℝ^{1x2} <u>Goal</u>: project from M-dimensions down to K-dimensions Data: $\mathcal{D} = { \mathbf{x}^{(i)} }_{i=1}^{N}$ where $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{M}$ <u>Algorithm</u>: > 1. Randomly sample matrix: $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times M}$ $V_{km} \sim \text{Gaussian}(0,1)$ 2. Project down: $\mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ $K \times 1$ $K \times MM \times T$ 3. Project up: $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} = \mathbf{V}^T \mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \mathbf{V}^T (\mathbf{V} \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ Х $M \times KK \times 1$

Problem: a random projection might give us a poor low dimensional representation of the data

Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma

- **Q:** But how could we ever hope to preserve any useful information by randomly projecting into a low-dimensional space?
- A: Even random projection enjoys some surprisingly impressive properties. In fact, a standard of the J-L lemma starts by assuming we have a random linear projection obtained by sampling each matrix entry from a Gaussian(0,1).

An Elementary Proof of a Theorem of Johnson and Lindenstrauss

Sanjoy Dasgupta,¹ Anupam Gupta²

ABSTRACT: A result of Johnson and Lindenstrauss [13] shows that a set of *n* points in high dimensional Euclidean space can be mapped into an $O(\log n/\epsilon^2)$ -dimensional Euclidean space such that the distance between any two points changes by only a factor of $(1 \pm \epsilon)$. In this note, we prove this theorem using elementary probabilistic techniques. © 2003 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. Random Struct. Alg., 22: 60-65, 2002

DEFINITION OF PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS (PCA)

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Assumption: the data lies on a low Kdimensional linear subspace
- **Goal:** identify the axes of that subspace, and project each point onto hyperplane
- Algorithm: find the K eigenvectors with largest eigenvalue using classic matrix decomposition tools



PCA Example: 2D Gaussian Data





We assume the data is **centered**, i.e. the **sample mean** is zero

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} = \mathbf{0}$$

Q: What if your data is **not** centered?

A: Subtract off the sample mean $ilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, orall i$

Background: Sample Variance

Suppose we have a sequence of random samples $\{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(N)}\}$ from a random variable X.

The (biased) sample variance $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is given by:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu})^2$$

where $\hat{\mu}$ is the sample mean.

Sample Covariance Matrix

The sample covariance matrix $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}$ is given by: $\sum_{jj} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{j}^{(i)} - u_{j})^{2} = \operatorname{caple} u_{i} \cdot \mathcal{F}_{j} + f_{af}$ $\Sigma_{jk} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{j}^{(i)} - \mu_{j}) (x_{k}^{(i)} - \mu_{k})$

Since the data matrix is centered, we rewrite as:

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{x}^{(1)})^T \\ (\mathbf{x}^{(2)})^T \\ \vdots \\ (\mathbf{x}^{(N)})^T \end{bmatrix}$$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Linear Projection: Given KxM matrix V, and Mx1 vector $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ we obtain the Kx1 projection $\mathbf{u}^{(i)}$ by: $\mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} - \vec{v}_{1}^{T} \\ - \vec{v}_{2}^{T} \\ - \vec{v}_{k}^{T} \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition of PCA:

PCA repeatedly chooses a next vector \mathbf{v}_j that minimizes the reconstruction error s.t. \mathbf{v}_j is orthogonal to $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, ..., \mathbf{v}_{j-1}$.

Vector \mathbf{v}_{i} is called the **jth principal component**.

Notice: Two vectors **a** and **b** are **orthogonal** if $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$. The K-dimensions in PCA are uncorrelated

$$\begin{bmatrix} U_{i}^{(i)} \\ U_{2}^{(i)} \\ \vdots \\ U_{k}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}^{(i)} \\ \vec{v}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}^{(i)} \\ \vec{v}_{i}^{T} \vec{x}^{(i)} \\ \vec{v}_{k}^{T} \vec{x}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} -$$

Vector Projection





Projection Example

Question: Below are two plots of the same dataset D. Consider the two projections shown. Which maximizes the variance? 1.

Which minimizes the reconstruction error? 2.



fg'%

85%

%

15%

PCA Objective Functions

What is the first principal component v_1 chosen by PCA?

Option 1: The vector that minimizes the reconstruction error

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} = \underset{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^{2}=1}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \mathbf{v}||^{2}$$

Option 2: The vector that maximizes the variance

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^2 = 1} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$

Equivalence of Maximizing Variance and Minimizing Reconstruction Error

Claim: Minimizing the reconstruction error is equivalent to maximizing the variance.

Proof: First, note that: $\|a - b\|_2^2 = a^T a - 2a^T b + b^T b$

$$||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})\mathbf{v}||^2 = ||\mathbf{x}^{(i)}||^2 - (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$
(1)

since $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} = ||\mathbf{v}||^2 = 1$.

Substituting into the minimization problem, and removing the extraneous terms, we obtain the maximization problem.

$$\mathbf{v}^{*} = \underset{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^{2}=1}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)})\mathbf{v}||^{2}$$
(2)
$$= \underset{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^{2}=1}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}^{(i)}||^{2} - (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^{2}$$
(3)

$$= \underset{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^2=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$
(4)

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PCA Objective Functions

What is the first principal component v_1 chosen by PCA?

Option 1: The vector that minimizes the reconstruction error

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^{2}=1} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \mathbf{v}||^{2}$$

Option 2: The vector that *maximizes* the **variance**

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \underset{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^2=1}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$

Question: \bigcirc ³ Why can't we just use gradient descent to find the minimum of the PCA optimization problem?



Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Linear Projection:

Given KxM matrix **V**, and Mx1 vector $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ we obtain the Kx1 projection $\mathbf{u}^{(i)}$ by: $\mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$



Question:

Why can't we just use gradient descent to find the minimum of the PCA optimization problem?

Definition of PCA:

PCA repeatedly chooses a next vector \mathbf{v}_j that minimizes the reconstruction error s.t. \mathbf{v}_j is orthogonal to $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, ..., \mathbf{v}_{j-1}$.

Vector **v**_i is called the **jth principal component**.

Notice: Two vectors **a** and **b** are **orthogonal** if $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$. The K-dimensions in PCA are uncorrelated

Answer:

Background: Eigenvectors & Eigenvalues For a square matrix A (n x n matrix), the vector v (n x 1 matrix) is an eigenvector iff there exists eigenvalue λ (scalar) such that:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$



The linear transformation **A** is only stretching vector **v**.

That is, $\lambda \mathbf{v}$ is a scalar multiple of \mathbf{v} .

Background: Eigenvectors & Eigenvalues

Fact #1: The eigenvectors of a **symmetric matrix** are **orthogonal** to each other.

Fact #2: The **covariance matrix Σ** is **symmetric**.

The First Principal Component

PCA

Claim: The vector that maximizes the variances is the eigenvector of Σ with largest eigenvalue.

Proof Sketch: To find the first principal component, we wish to solve the following constrained optimization problem (variance minimization).

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{v}^{T}} \mathbf{\nabla} \mathbf{v} \qquad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v} = | \implies (\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v})^{\mathbf{v}:||\mathbf{v}||^{2} = 1} \qquad (1)$$

So we turn to the method of Lagrange multipliers. The Lagrangian is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{v},\lambda) = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{v} - \lambda (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} - 1)$$
(2)

Taking the derivative of the Lagrangian and setting to zero gives:

$$\frac{d}{d\mathbf{v}} \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{v}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{v}}_{-\lambda} (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} - 1) \right) = 0$$
 (3)

$$\Sigma \mathbf{v} - \underline{\lambda} \mathbf{v} = 0 \tag{4}$$

$$\Sigma \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$
 (5)

Recall: For a square matrix **A**, the vector **v** is an **eigenvector** iff there exists **eigenvalue** λ such that:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \tag{6}$$

Rewriting the objective of the maximization shows that not only will the optimal vector v_1 be an eigenvector, it will be one with maximal eigenvalue.

$$\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T \lambda \mathbf{v}$$
(7)

$$= \lambda \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}$$
(8)

$$=\lambda ||\mathbf{v}||^2 \tag{9}$$

$$= \lambda$$
 (10)

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

 $(X X^T)v = \lambda v$, so v (the first PC) is the eigenvector of sample correlation/covariance matrix $X X^T$

Sample variance of projection $\mathbf{v}^T X X^T \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v} = \lambda$ $\sqrt{\mathbf{v}} \leq \sqrt{\mathbf{v}} \leq \mathbf{v}$



Thus, the eigenvalue λ denotes the amount of variability captured along that dimension (aka amount of energy along that dimension).

Eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_3 \geq \cdots$

- The 1st PC v_1 is the the eigenvector of the sample covariance matrix $X X^T$ associated with the largest eigenvalue
- The 2nd PC v_2 is the the eigenvector of the sample covariance matrix $X X^T$ associated with the second largest eigenvalue
- And so on ...

Slide from Nina Balcan

ALGORITHMS FOR PCA

Algorithms for PCA

How do we find principal components (i.e. eigenvectors)?

- Power iteration (aka. Von Mises iteration)
 - finds each principal component one at a time in order
- Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
 - finds all the principal components at once
 - two options:
 - Option A: run SVD on $X^TX = 2$
 - Option B: run SVD on X ◀ ____ N×M (not obvious why Option B should work...)
- Stochastic Methods (approximate)

- very efficient for high dimensional datasets with lots of points



Singular Value Decomposition

To generate principle components:

- Subtract mean $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}^n$ from each data point, to create zero-centered data
- Create matrix X with one row vector per (zero centered) data point
- Solve SVD: $X = USV^T$
- Output Principle components: columns of V (= rows of V^T)
 - Eigenvectors in V are sorted from largest to smallest eigenvalues
 - S is diagonal, with s_k^2 giving eigenvalue for kth eigenvector

Singular Value Decomposition

To project a point (column vector x) into PC coordinates: $V^T x$

If x_i is ith row of data matrix X, then

• (ith row of US) = $V^T x_i^T$

•
$$(US)^T = V^T X^T$$

To project a column vector x to M dim Principle Components subspace, take just the first M coordinates of $V^T x$

How Many PCs?

- For M original dimensions, sample covariance matrix is MxM, and has up to M eigenvectors. So M principal components (PCs).
- Where does dimensionality reduction come from? Can *ignore* the components of lesser significance.



- You do lose some information, but if the eigenvalues are small, you don't lose much
 - M dimensions in original data
 - calculate M eigenvectors and eigenvalues
 - choose only the first D eigenvectors, based on their eigenvalues
 - final data set has only D dimensions

PCA EXAMPLES

Projecting MNIST digits

Task Setting:

- 1. Take each 28x28 image of a digit (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ of length 784) and project it down to K components (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{u}^{(i)}$)
- 2. Report percent of variance explained for K components
- 3. Then project back up to 28x28 image (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{\tilde{x}}^{(i)}$ of length 784) to visualize how much information was preserved



Projecting MNIST digits

Task Setting:

- 1. Take each 28x28 image of a digit (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ of length 784) and project it down to K=2 components (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{u}^{(i)}$)
- 2. Plot the 2 dimensional points **u**⁽ⁱ⁾ and label with the (unknown to PCA) label y⁽ⁱ⁾ as the color
- 3. Here we look at all ten digits 0 9



Projecting MNIST digits

Task Setting:

- 1. Take each 28x28 image of a digit (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ of length 784) and project it down to K=2 components (i.e. a vector $\mathbf{u}^{(i)}$)
- 2. Plot the 2 dimensional points $\mathbf{u}^{(i)}$ and label with the (unknown to PCA) label $y^{(i)}$ as the color
- 3. Here we look at just four digits 0, 1, 2, 3



Takeaway: Even with a tiny number of principal components K=2, PCA learns a representation that captures the latent information about the type of digit

Learning Objectives

Dimensionality Reduction / PCA

You should be able to...

- 1. Define the sample mean, sample variance, and sample covariance of a vector-valued dataset
- 2. Identify examples of high dimensional data and common use cases for dimensionality reduction
- 3. Draw the principal components of a given toy dataset
- 4. Establish the equivalence of minimization of reconstruction error with maximization of variance
- 5. Given a set of principal components, project from high to low dimensional space and do the reverse to produce a reconstruction
- 6. Explain the connection between PCA, eigenvectors, eigenvalues, and covariance matrix
- 7. Use common methods in linear algebra to obtain the principal components