

Principal Component Analysis

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- ◆ Alternative name: Karhunen Loeve transform
- ◆ Used for: data approximation, identifying sources of variance in the data

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Let the data be $\{\mathbf{x}_i \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$, with sample mean $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}_n$.

Let us find the unit vector \mathbf{u}_1 to project to such that the variance $J(\mathbf{u}_1)$ of the projected data is *maximized*. The projection $\mathbf{x}_n^{(p)}$ of an \mathbf{x}_n to one-dimensional subspace generated by \mathbf{u}_1 is given by

$$\mathbf{x}_n^{(p)} = \mathbf{u}_1 (\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{x}_n), \quad \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1 = 1. \quad (1)$$

The variance $J(\mathbf{u}_1)$ of projected data is

$$J(\mathbf{u}_1) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{u}_1^T \bar{\mathbf{x}})^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{u}_1^T (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T \mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1, \quad (2)$$

where \mathbf{S} is the normalized scatter matrix:

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T. \quad (3)$$

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The Lagrangian of this optimization problem is

$$L(\mathbf{u}_1, \lambda_1) = J(\mathbf{u}_1) + \lambda_1 \underbrace{(1 - \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1)}_{\text{constraint}} = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 + \lambda_1 (1 - \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1), \quad (4)$$

where λ_1 is the Lagrange multiplier. Taking the derivative w.r.t. the vector \mathbf{u}_1 and setting it to zero gives

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{u}_1, \lambda_1)}{\partial \mathbf{u}_1} = \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 - \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 = 0, \quad (5)$$

and thus

$$\mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1. \quad (6)$$

This is the characteristic equation for the covariance matrix \mathbf{S} . Any eigenvalue λ_1 and its corresponding eigenvector \mathbf{v}_1 solves this equation, with variance $J(\mathbf{u}_1)$ equal to:

$$J(\mathbf{u}_1) = \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1^T \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 = \lambda_1. \quad (7)$$

The maximum is attained if λ_1 is the largest eigenvalue of the matrix \mathbf{S} and \mathbf{u}_1 is its corresponding eigenvector.

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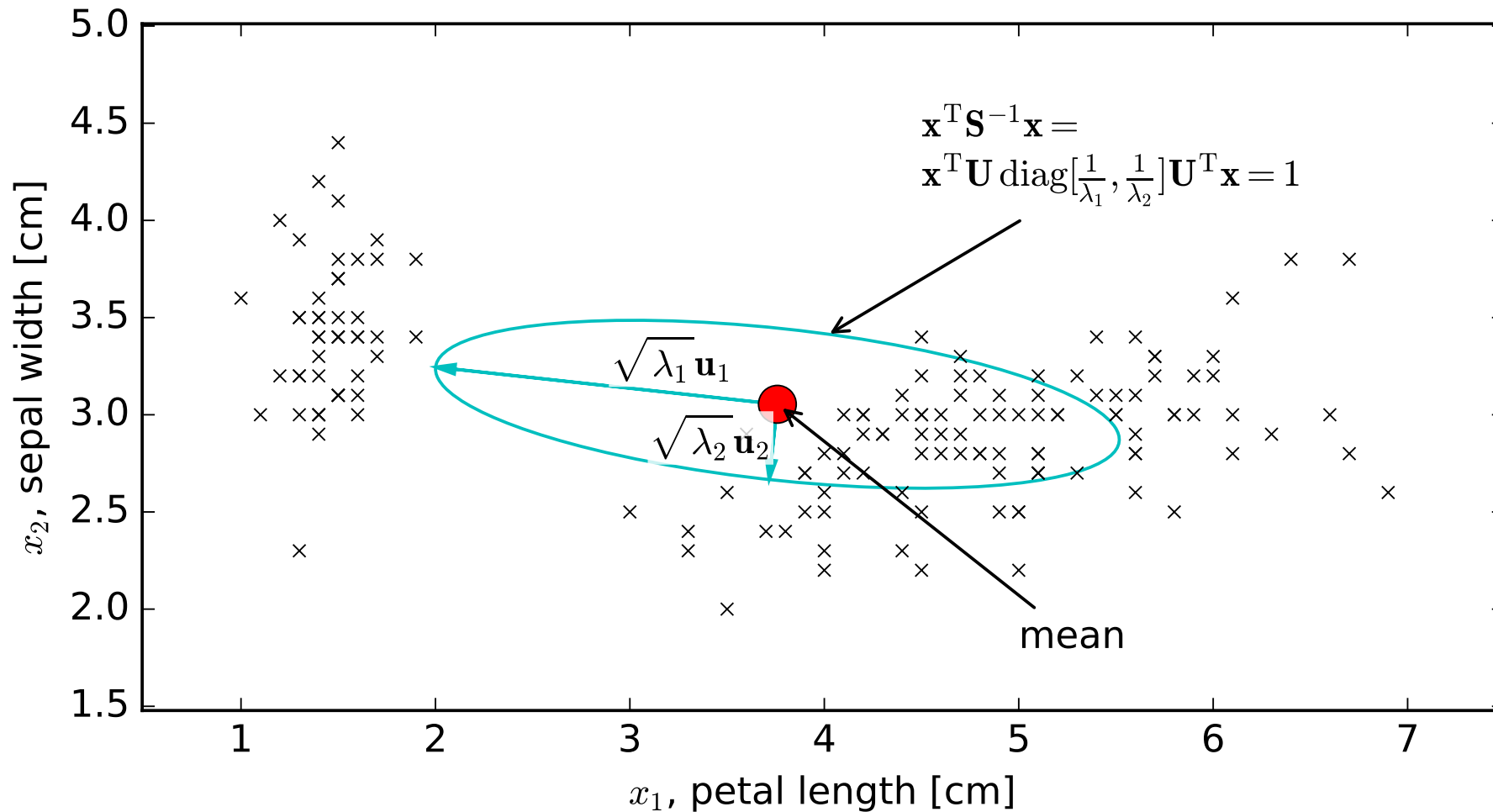
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Example 1 - Iris dataset



Data shown as crosses \times . Iris dataset: feature vectors are 4-dimensional, here dimensions 2 and 3 used (petal length and sepal width).

Eigenvalues: $\lambda_1 = 3.148$, $\lambda_2 = 0.153$, eigenvectors $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2]$. Variance is maximized when data are projected to direction \mathbf{u}_1 .

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Recall: The variance of a 1-D projection is maximized when data are projected to the direction of the eigenvector of \mathbf{S} corresponding to the largest eigenvalue.

\mathbf{S} is symmetric and positive semidefinite. The eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

It follows that the D -dimensional subspace maximizing the variance of the data is the one formed by D eigenvectors of \mathbf{S} corresponding to the D largest eigenvalues.

Note: "Variance" in the above sentence is the sum of variances in individual orthogonal directions. For a 2-D subspace,

$$J(\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N [\mathbf{u}_1^T (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})]^2 + [\mathbf{u}_2^T (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})]^2. \quad (8)$$

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Consider the complete orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ where $i = 1, \dots, D$. Thus

$$\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j = \delta_{ij} \quad (9)$$

Each point can be represented as

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \sum_{i=1}^D \alpha_{ni} \mathbf{u}_i, \quad (10)$$

and

$$\mathbf{x}_n = \sum_{i=1}^D (\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{u}_i) \mathbf{u}_i. \quad (11)$$

This is just expressing \mathbf{x}_n in a rotated coordinate system given by orthonormal system $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$. Let us create an approximation to each \mathbf{x}_n by truncating this expansion to only M components, the remaining $D - M$ components approximated by constants b_i .

The approximation $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n$:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n = \sum_{i=1}^M (\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{u}_i) \mathbf{u}_i + \sum_{i=M+1}^D b_i \mathbf{u}_i \quad (12)$$

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$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n = \sum_{i=1}^M (\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{u}_i) \mathbf{u}_i + \sum_{i=M+1}^D b_i \mathbf{u}_i \quad (12)$$

Clearly,

$$b_i = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{u}_i, i = M + 1, \dots, D \quad (13)$$

The task is to find the optimal orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ which produces the best approximation measured by

$$J(\{\mathbf{u}_i\}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_n - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n\|^2 \quad (14)$$

The minimum error criterion is the complement of the maximum variance criterion, and thus the solution to the set $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ is the same.

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Recall that the ML estimate of the Multivariate Normal Distribution is defined by sample mean $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ and sample covariance matrix \mathbf{S} . The model is

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{S}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{2}\pi\mathbf{S}|}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \right\} \quad (15)$$

Denote stacked eigenvectors in descending order of their eigenvalues as \mathbf{U} ,

$$\mathbf{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_D\} \quad (16)$$

Therefore (characteristic equation)

$$\mathbf{S}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{U} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & \lambda_D \end{bmatrix}, \quad (17)$$

and

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{U}^T. \quad (18)$$

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We approximate the data, as before, by projecting to first M eigenvectors. Thus, given data point \mathbf{x} we have

$$\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}} = (\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_M, \delta_{M+1}, \dots, \delta_D) \quad (19)$$

Note that we only can compute $\delta_1 \dots \delta_M$, as often we don't or can't store all eigenvectors for computing all δ 's. However, we can easily compute

$$\Delta = \delta_{M+1}^2 + \delta_{M+2}^2 + \dots + \delta_D^2 = \|\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}\|^2 - \delta_1^2 - \delta_2^2 - \dots - \delta_M^2 \quad (20)$$

and the exponent is then approximated as

$$-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) \simeq -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\delta_1^2}{\lambda_1} + \frac{\delta_2^2}{\lambda_2} + \frac{\delta_3^2}{\lambda_3} + \dots + \frac{\delta_M^2}{\lambda_M} + \frac{\Delta}{\lambda} \right) \quad (21)$$

Common choice: $\lambda = \lambda_{M+1}$

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Dimensionality of data can be high, and even higher than number of samples.

Consider dimensionality $D = 1\text{M}$ (one million) and number of samples $N = 100$. All analysis still applies, but it would be wasteful to compute eigenvectors for the $1\text{M} \times 1\text{M}$ matrix, as its rank will anyway be at most N (thus 100). Let us define \mathbf{X} to be a matrix formed by stacking all the data vectors (after having subtracted the mean from them): $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x}_2 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N - \bar{\mathbf{x}}]$.

Thus,

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_n - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T. \quad (22)$$

The characteristic equation is then

$$\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}. \quad (23)$$

Left-multiplying both sides by \mathbf{X}^T gives

$$\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \overbrace{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{u})}^{\mathbf{w}} = \lambda \overbrace{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{u})}^{\mathbf{w}}. \quad (24)$$

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Thus, $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$, which is only 100×100 , has exactly the same set of eigenvalues:

$$\frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \lambda\mathbf{w}. \quad (25)$$

Left-multiplying now by \mathbf{X} , we get

$$\frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) = \lambda(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}). \quad (26)$$

Conclusion: If $D \gg N$, form the matrix $\mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ and compute its eigenvalues λ 's and eigenvectors \mathbf{w} . Compute the eigenvectors of $\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T$ as

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|}. \quad (27)$$

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Example 2 - Yale database (1/5)



images of 38 subjects, each under 64 different illumination conditions:



Subject 1, 64 illumination conditions

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Example 2 - Yale database (2/5)



images of 38 subjects, each under 64 different illumination conditions:



38 subjects

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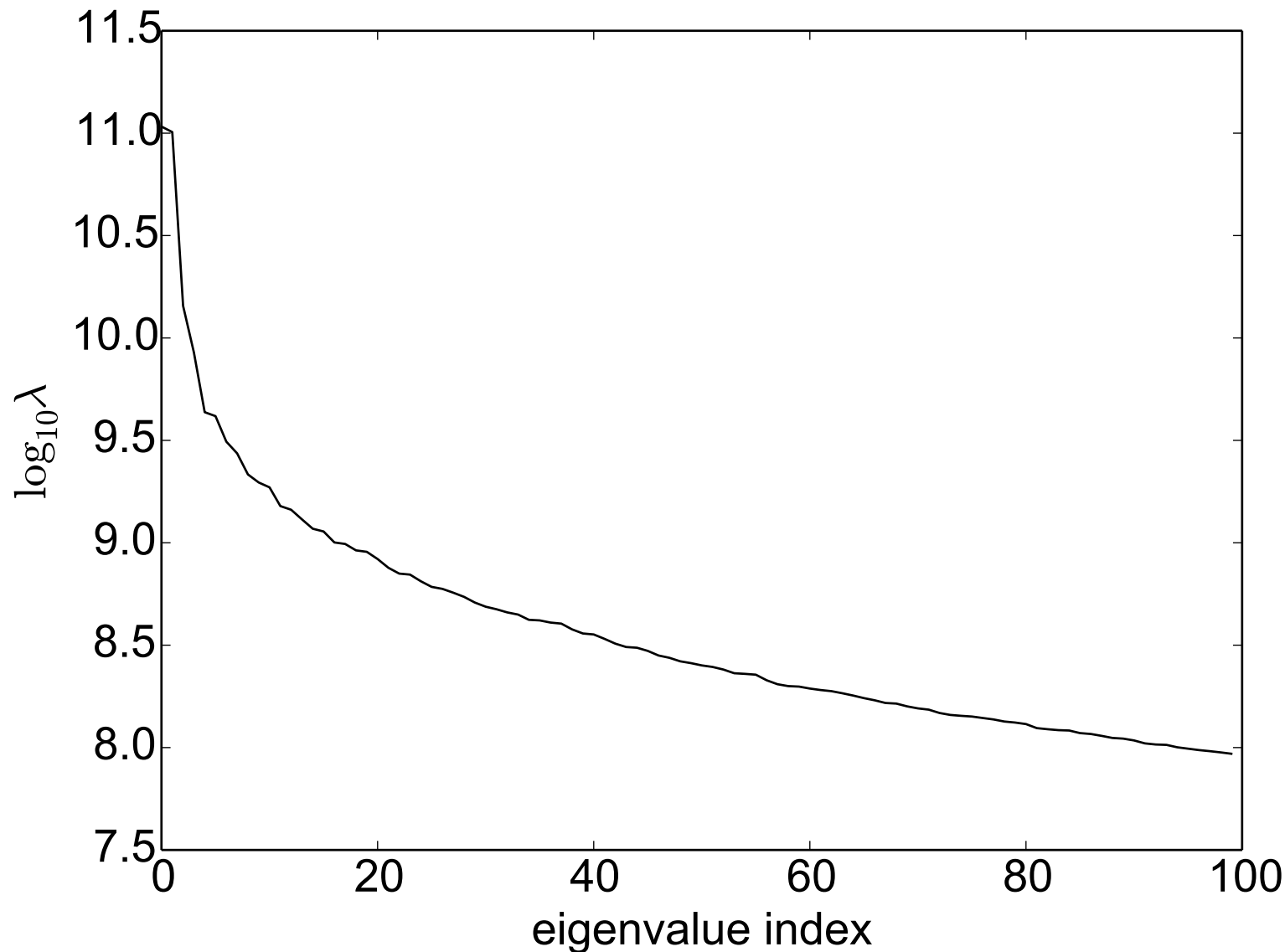
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Example 2 - Yale database (3/5)



m p

images of 38 subjects, each under 64 different illumination conditions. Thus, there is $38 \times 64 = 2432$ images in total. Each of them is a feature vector with $192 \times 168 = 32256$ dimensions (pixels). PCA gives the following eigenvalues:



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Example 2 - Yale database (4/5)



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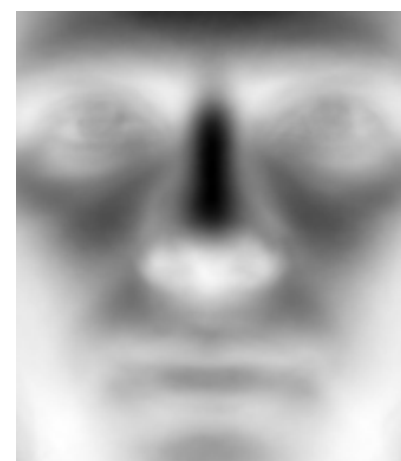
mean



1st ev



2nd ev



3rd ev



first 72 eigenvectors

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Reconstruction of original vector using eigenvectors



original



mean and 3 evs



mean and 10 evs



mean and 50 evs



mean and 100 evs



mean and 300 evs

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