

## 1 Definition of covariance matrix

Suppose  $\mathbf{X}$  is a d-dimensional random vector (with d random variables), and  $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$  is n independent copies of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

Write  $\mathbf{X}_i = (X_i^1, \dots, X_i^d)^T$ , the subscript means the  $i_{th}$  copy, the superscript means the number of random variable (i.e. scala).

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} X^1 \\ X^2 \\ \dots \\ X^d \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Then we can know the covariance matrix, which means take two different scalas or coordinates (notice the superscript) from a vector and compute their covariance. For convenience, not use bold X again as before.

$$\Sigma = cov(X^i, X^j) \quad (2)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(X X^T) - \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(X)^T \quad (3)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}(X))(X - \mathbb{E}(X))^T] \quad (4)$$

When it comes to empirical data, we use average  $\bar{X}$  to replace expectation<sup>1</sup> and use the empirical covariance matrix  $\mathbf{S}$  to replace the  $\Sigma$ ),

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}(X^1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}(X^d) \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sum X_i^1}{n} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\sum X_i^d}{n} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

$$S = \frac{1}{n} \sum (X_i X_i^T) - \bar{X} \bar{X}^T \quad (6)$$

In order to eliminate the sum character, we multiply a  $\mathbf{1}$  to replace the average.  $\mathbf{1} = (1, \dots, 1)^T$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i \quad \mathbb{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ X_1 & X_2 & X_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \mathbb{X}^T \mathbf{1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i = \bar{X} \quad (8)$$

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<sup>1</sup>Here can be a little confused because in we used subscript before but here we have  $X_i$ . This is because in theory,  $E(X^1)$  is the expectation of random variable  $X^1$ , but empirically we sampled many times and calculate their average

And we can see that

$$M_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \vdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & X_i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \vdots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

$$\mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{X} = \sum_i^n M_i M_i^T = \sum_i^n X_i X_i^T \quad (10)$$

$$\mathbb{X}^T = M_1 + M_2 + \dots + M_n \quad (11)$$

Then in Eq.6 can be transformed into

$$S = \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{X}^T \mathbb{X} - \frac{1}{n^2} \mathbb{X}^T (\mathbb{1}\mathbb{1}^T) \mathbb{X} \quad (12)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{X}^T (I_d - \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{1}\mathbb{1}^T) \mathbb{X} \quad (13)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{X}^T H \mathbb{X} \quad (14)$$

So, obviously matrix  $H$  is a prthogonal projector (you can proof by calculate  $H^T H$ ), what's the subspace this projector project a vector to?

$$H = (I_d - \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{1}\mathbb{1}^T) \quad (15)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{n} & \dots & \frac{1}{n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n} & \dots & 1 - \frac{1}{n} \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

so for any vector  $\mathbf{v}$ , we have

$$H\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} - \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{v}^T \mathbb{1}) \mathbb{1} \quad (17)$$

$$= \mathbf{v} - \bar{\mathbf{v}} \mathbb{1} \quad (18)$$

which means a vector minus its means by all elements. And it's clear that

$$avg(H\mathbf{v}) = 0 \quad (19)$$

means  $H$  projects vector  $\mathbf{v}$  to the subspace that has the mean of 0. Or in another words,  $H\mathbf{v} \perp \text{span of } \mathbb{1}$  because  $(H\mathbf{v})^T \mathbb{1} = 0$ .

## 2 Core: $u^T \Sigma u$

Take a vector  $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (column vector), then

$$u^T \Sigma u = u^T [E(XX^T) - E(X)E(X)^T]u \quad (20)$$

$$= E[(u^T X)(X^T u)] - E(u^T X)E(X^T u) \quad (21)$$

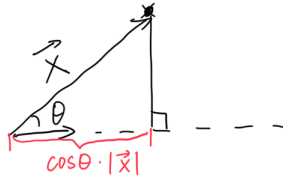
$$= E[(u^T X)^2] - [E(u^T X)]^2 \quad (22)$$

$$= \text{var}(u^T X) \quad (23)$$

The transition to Eq.22 is because  $u^T X = X^T u =$  a number. So this is the magic now, the covariance matrix is equal to the variance of  $u^T X$ . What's is  $u^T X$ ?

$u^T X$  is the the inner product between  $u$  and  $X$ . Look at my handnote, in geometric, it means the length of red line. So with multiple points, the variance means *the degree of dispersion along the vector  $u$* .

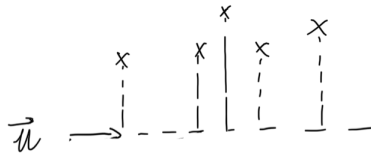
(a) one data point



$\vec{u}$  with 1 length

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u}^T \vec{X} &= |\vec{u}| |\vec{X}| \cos \theta \\ &= |\vec{X}| \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

(b) multiple data point



$\text{cov}(\vec{u}^T \vec{x}_i)$  is  
what?

Therefore, we need to find the vector  $u$  to maximize our variance, because we reduce the dimension but don't want to lose too much information (image a 3D olive, we cut it and wanna get the cross section with as long and wide as possible).

### 3 Spectral decomposition/Eigendecomposition

#### 3.1 Variance is eigenvalue

Since  $\Sigma$  and  $S$  are symmetric, we can decompose it into this form:

$$\Sigma = PDP^T \text{ (or } PDP^{-1}\text{)} \quad (24)$$

We know that matrix  $P$  consists of all eigenvectors of  $\Sigma$ , and

$$\Sigma v_1 = PDP^T v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 \quad (25)$$

$$v_1^T \Sigma v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1^T v_1 = \lambda_1 \quad (26)$$

Therefore, the variance along eigenvectors (here  $v_1$  means the first and largest eigenvector) is simply the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ .

Assume  $\bar{X} = 0$  to ensure  $\bar{X}\bar{X}^T = 0$  and make calculation easier, the Equation 6 becomes

$$S = \Sigma X_i X_i^T \quad (27)$$

#### 3.2 Another way to proof

Suppose  $y_i = P^T X_i$  (which is the projected vector). Then

$$\bar{y}_i = \overline{P^T X_i} = P^T \bar{X}_i = 0 \quad (28)$$

$$S' = \frac{1}{n} \sum y_i y_i^T \quad (29)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum (P^T X_i)(P^T X_i)^T \quad (30)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum (P^T X_i X_i^T P) \quad (31)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum (P^T S P) \quad (32)$$

And because  $S = PDP^T$ , we have

$$S' = P^T (PDP^T) P \quad (33)$$

$$= D \quad (34)$$

We know  $D$  is a diagonal matrix made up of eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ . So  $cov(y^i, y^j) = 0$  when  $i \neq j$ . In other words,  $\lambda_i = var(P^T X_i)$ .

### 3.3 Why eigenvector is best?

Here we need to proof why eigenvectors are the ones make variance largest, because there're so many choices.

Suppose  $b = P^T u$  and  $u$  is unit vector.

$$u^T S u = b^T D b = \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j b_j^2 \leq \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_1 b_j^2 \quad (35)$$

$\lambda_1$  here still means the largest eigenvalue. So for any vector  $u$ , we can know that  $\lambda_1$  is the largest variance and the Nth largest eigenvectors are called ( $N_{th}$ ) Principal Components.

In extrme cases, if  $n \gg d$ (much more data samples than dimension), then the empirical data converge to a consistent estimator (which means perfect). Otherwise, if  $d \gg n$ , the angle between eigenvectors of  $\Sigma$  and  $S$  will be very large (which means very bad estimator). And we need sparse PCA (I don't konw this either).