SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)/PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS ANALYSIS (PCA)
**SVD - EXAMPLE**

\[ U, S, V^T = \text{numpy.linalg.svd(img)} \]
SVD - EXAMPLE

full rank 600 300

U[:, k]S[:, k]V^T[:, k, :]
PCA - INTRODUCTION

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 10 \\ 4 & 3 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \]
### PCA - INTRODUCTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sepal_length</th>
<th>sepal_width</th>
<th>petal_length</th>
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<th>species</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>2.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>setosa</td>
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<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
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<td>3.0</td>
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<td>2.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>versicolor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PCA - INTRODUCTION
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PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

• A technique to find the directions along which the points (set of tuples) in high-dimensional data line up best.

• Treat a set of tuples as a matrix $M$ and find the eigenvectors for $MM^T$ or $M^TM$.

• The matrix of these eigenvectors can be thought of as a rigid rotation in a high-dimensional space.

• When this transformation is applied to the original data - the axis corresponding to the principal eigenvector is the one along which the points are most “spread out”.
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

• When this transformation is applied to the original data - the axis corresponding to the principal eigenvector is the one along which the points are most “spread out”.

• This axis is the one along which variance of the data is maximized.

• Points can best be viewed as lying along this axis with small deviations from this axis.

• Likewise, the axis corresponding the second eigenvector is the axis along which the variance of distances from the first axis is greatest, and so on.
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

• Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a dimensionality reduction method.

• The goal is to embed data in high dimensional space, onto a small number of dimensions.

• It most frequent use is in exploratory data analysis and visualization.

• It can also be helpful in regression (linear or logistic) where we can transform input variables into a smaller number of predictors for modeling.
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

- Mathematically,

  Given: Data set \( \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\} \)

  where, \( x_i \) is the vector of \( p \) variable values for the \( i \)-th observation.

  Return:

  Matrix \( [\phi_1, \phi_2, \ldots, \phi_p] \)

  of linear transformations that retain maximal variance.

- You can think of the first vector \( \phi_1 \) as a linear transformation that embeds observations into 1 dimension

  \[
  Z_1 = \phi_{11}X_1 + \phi_{21}X_2 + \ldots + \phi_{p1}X_p
  \]
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

• You can think of the first vector $\phi_1$ as a linear transformation that embeds observations into 1 dimension

\[ Z_1 = \phi_{11}X_1 + \phi_{21}X_2 + \ldots + \phi_{p1}X_p \]

where $\phi_1$ is selected so that the resulting dataset \{ $z_i$, $z_2$, $z_n$ \} has maximum variance.

• In order for this to make sense, mathematically, data has to be centered
  • Each $X_i$ has zero mean
  • Transformation vector $\phi_1$ has to be normalized, i.e., $\sum_{j=1}^{p} \phi_j^2 = 1$
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

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  • Each $X_i$ has zero mean
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• We can find $\phi_1$ by solving an optimization problem:

$$\max_{\phi_{11}, \phi_{21}, \ldots, \phi_{p1}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{j1} x_{ij} \right)^2 \text{ s.t. } \sum_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{j1}^2 = 1$$

Maximize variance but subject to normalization constraint.
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Maximize variance but subject to normalization constraint.

• The second transformation, $\phi_2$ is obtained similarly with the added constraint that $\phi_2$ is orthogonal to $\phi_1$

• Taken together $[\phi_1, \phi_2]$ define a pair of linear transformations of the data into 2 dimensional space

$$Z_{n \times 2} = X_{n \times p}[\phi_1, \phi_2]_{p \times 2}$$
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

• Taken together \([\phi_1, \phi_2]\) define a pair of linear transformations of the data into 2 dimensional space
  \[ Z_{n \times 2} = X_{n \times p}[\phi_1, \phi_2]_{p \times 2} \]

• Each of the columns of the \(Z\) matrix are called Principal components.

• The units of the PCs are meaningless.

• In practice we may also scale \(X_j\) to have unit variance.

• In general if variables \(X_j\) are measured in different units (e.g., miles vs. liters vs. dollars), variables should be scaled to have unit variance.
SPECTRAL THEOREM

Using Spectral theorem

\[(X^T X)\phi = \lambda \phi\]

\[XX^T(X\phi) = \lambda (X\phi)\]

Conclusion:

The matrices \(XX^T\) and \(X^TX\) share the same nonzero eigenvalues.

To get an eigenvector of \(XX^T\) from \(X^TX\) multiply \(\phi\) on the left by \(X\).

Very powerful, particularly if number of observations, \(m\), and the number of predictors, \(n\), are drastically different in size.

For PCA:

\[\text{Cov}(X, X) = XX^T\]
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \]

Eigen Values and Eigen Vectors?
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \]

From spectral theorem:

\[ (X^T X) \phi = \lambda \phi \]

\[ X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix} \]
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \]

From spectral theorem:

\[(X^T X)\phi = \lambda \phi \implies (X^T X)\phi - \lambda I \phi = 0 \]

\[((X^T X) - \lambda I)\phi = 0 \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} 30 - \lambda & 28 \\ 28 & 30 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0 \implies \lambda = 58 \text{ and } \lambda = 2
\]
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \]

From spectral theorem:

\[(X^T X)\phi = \lambda \phi\]

\[\begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{11} \\ \phi_{12} \end{bmatrix} = 58 \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{11} \\ \phi_{12} \end{bmatrix} \implies \phi_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}\]
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \]

From spectral theorem: \( (X^T X)\phi = \lambda \phi \)

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{11} \\ \phi_{12} \end{bmatrix} = 58 \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{11} \\ \phi_{12} \end{bmatrix} \implies \phi_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{21} \\ \phi_{22} \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{21} \\ \phi_{22} \end{bmatrix} \implies \phi_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \]
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \]

From spectral theorem:
\[ (X^T X)\phi = \lambda \phi \]

\[ \phi_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_1 = 58 \]

\[ \phi_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_2 = 2 \]

\[ \phi = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \]
EXAMPLE - PCA

\[
X = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
2 & 1 \\
3 & 4 \\
4 & 3
\end{bmatrix}
\quad \phi_1 = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
1 \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{bmatrix}
\quad \lambda_1 = 58
\quad \phi_2 = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
1 \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{bmatrix}
\quad \lambda_2 = 2
\]

\[
Z = X\phi = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
2 & 1 \\
3 & 4 \\
4 & 3
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{7}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{7}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{bmatrix}
\]
EXAMPLE - PCA

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{7}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{7}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$
PCA STEPS -
STEP 1 MEAN SUBTRACTION
PCA STEPS -
STEP 2 COVARIANCE MATRIX

array([[84.07963403, -29.20401342],
        [-94.40799878, -24.21822549],
        [-20.0794366 , -18.24247399],
        [ 62.63769935,  46.8234735 ]])

top 5 rows of mean centered data

array([[3881.30854873, 1897.16347756],
        [1897.16347756, 1557.15527689]])

covariance matrix
PCA STEPS -
STEP 3 EIGEN VALUES & EIGEN VECTORS OF COVARIANCE MATRIX

```
eig_vals, eig_vecs = np.linalg.eig(cov)
```

```
eig_vals
array([[4944.01310842, 494.4507172 ]])
```

```
eig_vecs
array([ [ 0.87244857, -0.48870594],
        [ 0.48870594,  0.87244857]])
```
PCA STEPS -
STEP 4 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS

Multiply each eigen vector by its corresponding eigen value (usually square root)

Plot them on top of the data
PCA STEPS -
STEP 5 - PROJECT DATA ALONG DOMINANT PC

newData = PC1 \times oldData
HOW MANY PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS?

• How many PCs should we consider in post-hoc analysis?

• One result of PCA is a measure of the variance to each PC relative to the total variance of the dataset.

• We can calculate the percentage of variance explained for the m-th PC:

\[
PVE_m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{im}^2}{\frac{p}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2}}
\]
HOW MANY PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS?

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\[
PVE_m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{im}^2}{\frac{p}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2}
\]