

# Dimensionality reduction

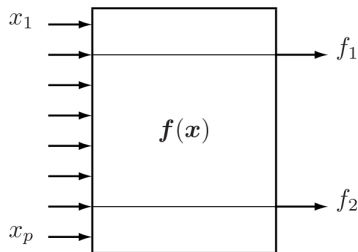
Victor Kitov

# Table of Contents

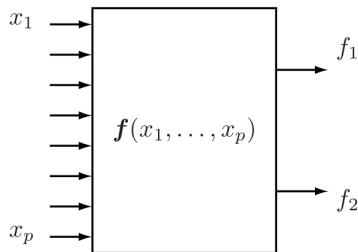
- 1 Dimensionality reduction intro
- 2 Supervised dimensionality reduction
- 3 Principal component analysis

# Dimensionality reduction

## Feature selection / Feature extraction



(a) feature selector



(b) feature extractor

**Feature extraction:** find transformation of original data which extracts most relevant information for machine learning task.

We will consider unsupervised dimensionality reduction methods, which try to preserve geometrical properties of the data.

# Applications of dimensionality reduction

## Applications:

- visualization in 2D or 3D
- reduce operational costs (less memory, disc, CPU usage on data transfer)
- remove multi-collinearity to improve performance of machine-learning models

# Categorization

Supervision in dimensionality reduction:

- supervised (such as Fisher's direction)
- unsupervised

Mapping to reduced space:

- linear
- non-linear

# Table of Contents

- 1 Dimensionality reduction intro
- 2 Supervised dimensionality reduction
  - Fisher's linear discriminant
  - Supervised discriminant analysis
- 3 Principal component analysis

- 2 Supervised dimensionality reduction
  - Fisher's linear discriminant
  - Supervised discriminant analysis

## Problem statement

- Standard linear classification decision rule

$$\hat{c} = \begin{cases} 1, & w^T x \geq -w_0 \\ 2, & w^T x < -w_0 \end{cases}$$

is equivalent to

- 1 dimensionality reduction to 1-dimensional space (defined by  $w$ )
  - 2 making classification in this space
- Idea of Fisher's LDA: find direction, giving most class discriminative projections.



## Possible realization

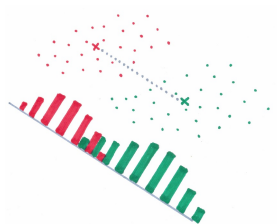
- Classification between  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$ .
- Define  $C_1 = \{i : x_i \in \omega_1\}$ ,  $C_2 = \{i : x_i \in \omega_2\}$  and

$$m_1 = \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{n \in C_1} x_n, \quad m_2 = \frac{1}{N_2} \sum_{n \in C_2} x_n$$

$$\mu_1 = w^T m_1, \quad \mu_2 = w^T m_2$$

Naive solution:

$$\begin{cases} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2 \rightarrow \max_w \\ \|w\| = 1 \end{cases}$$

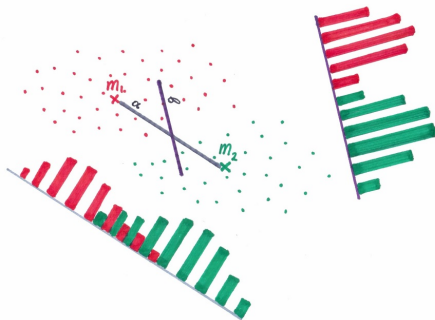


# Fisher's LDA

- Define projected within class variances:

$$s_1 = \sum_{n \in C_1} (w^T x_n - w^T m_1)^2, \quad s_2 = \sum_{n \in C_2} (w^T x_n - w^T m_2)^2$$

- Fisher's LDA criterion:  $\frac{(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2}{s_1^2 + s_2^2} \rightarrow \max_w$



## Equivalent representation

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2}{s_1^2 + s_2^2} &= \frac{(w^T m_1 - w^T m_2)^2}{\sum_{n \in C_1} (w^T x_n - w^T m_1)^2 + \sum_{n \in C_2} (w^T x_n - w^T m_2)^2} \\
 &= \frac{[w^T (m_1 - m_2)]^2}{\sum_{n \in C_1} [w^T (x_n - m_1)]^2 + \sum_{n \in C_2} [w^T (x_n - m_1)]^2} \\
 &= \frac{w^T (m_1 - m_2)(m_1 - m_2)^T w}{w^T \left[ \sum_{n \in C_1} (x_n - m_1)(x_n - m_1)^T + \sum_{n \in C_2} (x_n - m_2)(x_n - m_2)^T \right] w} \\
 &= \frac{w^T S_B w}{w^T S_W w}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_B &= (m_1 - m_2)(m_1 - m_2)^T, \\
 S_W &= \sum_{n \in C_1} (x_n - m_1)(x_n - m_1)^T + \sum_{n \in C_2} (x_n - m_2)(x_n - m_2)^T
 \end{aligned}$$

## Fisher's LDA solution

$$Q(w) = \frac{w^T S_B w}{w^T S_W w} \rightarrow \max_w$$

Using property that  $\frac{d}{dw} (w^T A w) = 2Aw$  for any  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$ ,  $A^T = A$

$$\frac{dQ(w)}{dw} \propto 2S_B w [w^T S_W w] - 2 [w^T S_B w] S_W w = 0$$

which is equivalent to

$$[w^T S_W w] S_B w = [w^T S_B w] S_W w$$

So

$$w \propto S_W^{-1} S_B w \propto S_W^{-1} (m_1 - m_2)$$

- 2 Supervised dimensionality reduction
  - Fisher's linear discriminant
  - Supervised discriminant analysis

## Idea of supervised discriminant analysis (SDA)

- We can find directions  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_D$ , projections on which best separate classes.
- Ways to find  $w$ :
  - Fisher's LDA
  - Any linear classification  $\langle w, x \rangle \geq \textit{threshold}$  gives valuable supervised 1-D dimension  $w$ .
- We can find an orthonormal basis of such directions.

# SDA algorithm

**Listing 1:** Finding orthonormal basis of supervised directions

**INPUT:**

- \* training set  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$
- \* algorithm, fitting  $w$  in linear classification  
 $\hat{y} = \text{sign}[\langle w, x \rangle - \text{threshold}]$

**ALGORITHM:**

**for**  $d = 1, 2, \dots, D$ :

$w_d$  - classifier\_direction $[(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)]$

$$w_d = \frac{w_d}{\|w_d\|}$$

**for**  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ : # project to orthogonal supplement of  $w(d)$

$$x_n = x_n - \langle x_n, w_d \rangle w_d$$

**OUTPUT:**  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_D$ .

# Table of Contents

- 1 Dimensionality reduction intro
- 2 Supervised dimensionality reduction
- 3 **Principal component analysis**
  - Reminder
  - Definition
  - Applications of PCA
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components



- 3 Principal component analysis
  - **Reminder**
  - Definition
  - Applications of PCA
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

# Scalar product reminder

- Here we will assume  $\langle a, b \rangle = a^T b$
- $\|a\| = \sqrt{\langle a, a \rangle}$
- Signed projection of  $x$  onto  $a$  is equal to  $\langle x, a \rangle / \|a\|$
- Unsigned projection (length) of  $x$  onto  $a$  is equal to  $|\langle x, a \rangle| / \|a\|$

## Useful properties

- For any matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$   $X^T X \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  is symmetric and positive semi-definite:
  - $\{X^T X\}_{ij} = \sum_{n=1}^N x_{ni} x_{nj} = \sum_{n=1}^N x_{nj} x_{ni} = \{X^T X\}_{ji}$
  - $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^D : \langle a, X^T X a \rangle = a^T X^T X a = \|X a\|^2 \geq 0$
- General properties:
  - if all eigenvalues are unique, eigenvectors are also unique (up to scalar multipliers).
  - if  $A \succeq 0$  then all its eigenvalues are non-negative
- Since  $X^T X \succeq 0$  it follows that all its eigenvalues are non-negative.
- We will assume that eigenvalues of  $X^T X$  are  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_D \geq 0$ .

# Useful properties

For any  $x, b \in \mathbb{R}^D$  it holds that:

$$\frac{\partial [b^T x]}{\partial x} = b$$

For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$  and symmetric  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  it holds that:

$$\frac{\partial [x^T B x]}{\partial x} = 2Bx$$

- 3 Principal component analysis
  - Reminder
  - **Definition**
  - Applications of PCA
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

## Best hyperplane fit

- For point  $x$  and subspace  $L$  denote:
  - $p$ -the projection of  $x$  on  $L$
  - $h$ -orthogonal complement
- $x = p + h$ ,  $\langle p, h \rangle = 0$ .

### Proposition 1

*For  $x$ , its projection  $p$  and orthogonal complement  $h$*

$$\|x\|^2 = \|p\|^2 + \|h\|^2.$$

- **Prove proposition 1.**
- For training set  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  we and subspace  $L$  we can also find:
  - projections:  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N$
  - orthogonal complements:  $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_N$ .

# Best hyperplane fit

## Definition 1

Best-fit  $k$ -dimensional subspace for a set of points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  is a subspace, spanned by  $k$  vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$ , solving

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \|h_n\|^2 \rightarrow \min_{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k}$$

## Proposition 2

Vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$ , solving

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \|p_n\|^2 \rightarrow \max_{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k}$$

also define best-fit  $k$ -dimensional subspace.

- Prove 2 using proposition 1.

# Definition of PCA

## Definition 2

Principal components  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  are vectors, forming orthonormal basis in the subspace of best fit.

- Properties:
  - Not invariant to translation:
    - Before applying PCA, it is recommended to center objects:

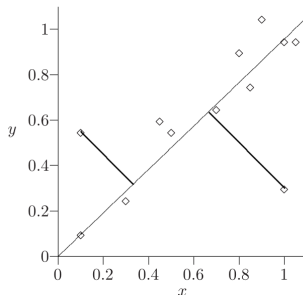
$$x \leftarrow x - \mu \text{ where } \mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$$

- Not invariant to scaling:
  - scale features to have unit variance



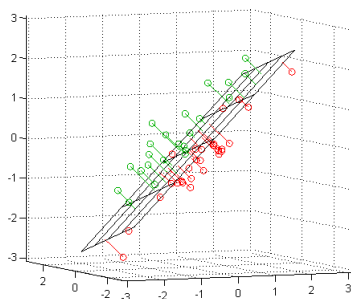
## Example: line of best fit

- In PCA sum of squared of perpendicular distances to line is minimized.



- *What is the difference with least squares minimization in regression?*

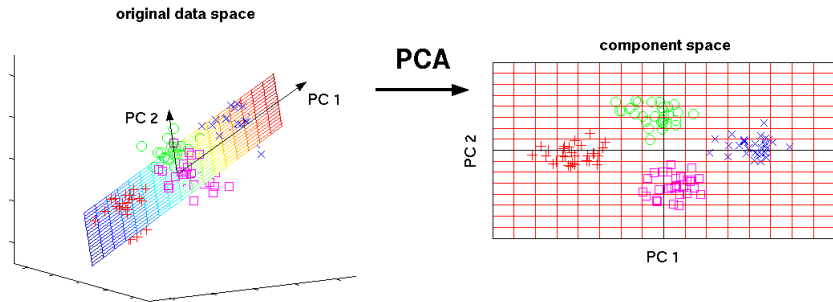
# Best hyperplane fit



Subspace  $L_k$  or rank  $k$  best fits points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D$ .

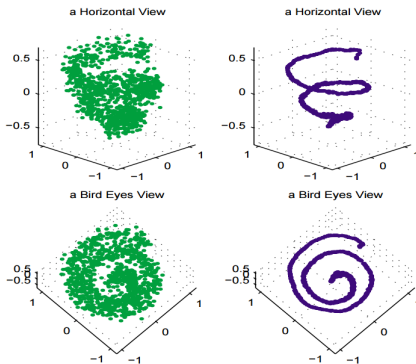
- 3 Principal component analysis
  - Reminder
  - Definition
  - **Applications of PCA**
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

# Visualization



# Data filtering

Remove noise to get a cleaner picture of data distribution:



X. Huo and Jihong Chen (2002). Local linear projection (LLP). First IEEE Workshop on Genomic Signal Processing and Statistics (GENSIPS), Raleigh, NC, October. <http://www.gensips.gatech.edu/proceedings/>.

# Economic description of data

Faces database:

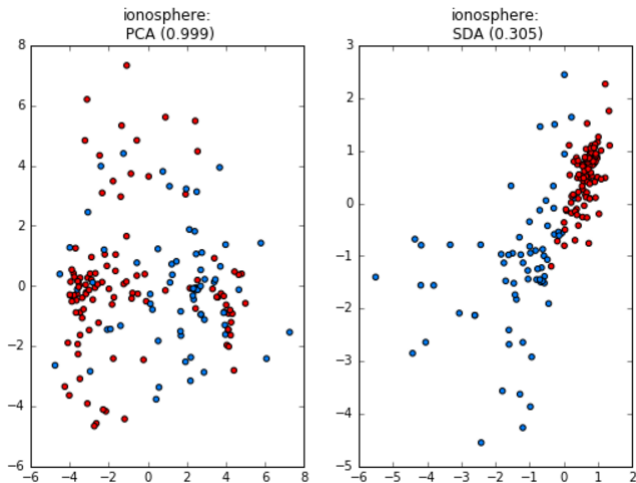


# Eigenfaces

Eigenvectors are called eigenfaces. Projections on first several eigenfaces describe most of face variability.

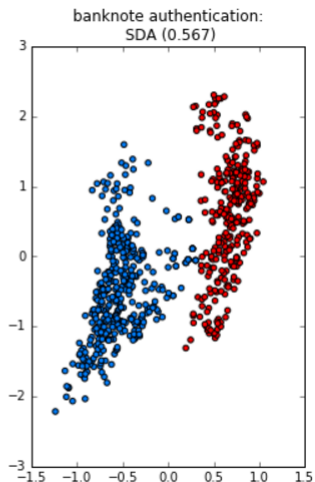
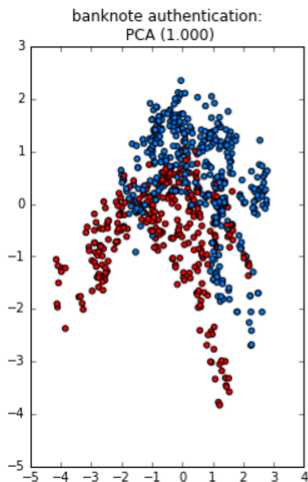


## PCA vs. SDA

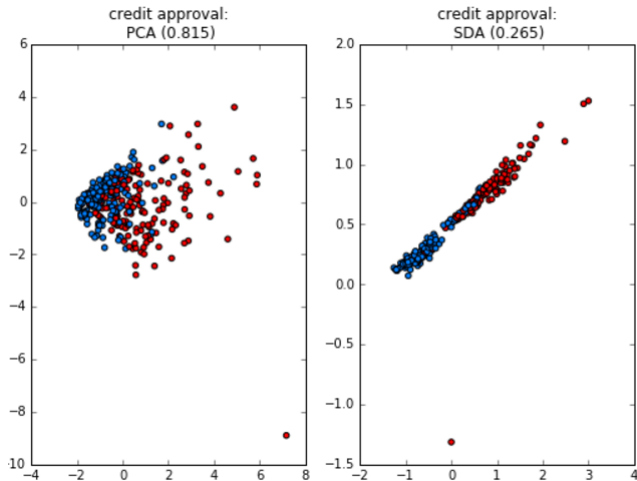




## PCA vs. SDA



## PCA vs. SDA



- 3 Principal component analysis
  - Reminder
  - Definition
  - Applications of PCA
  - **Application details**
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

## Quality of approximation

Consider vector  $x$ . Since all  $D$  principal components form a full orthonormal basis,  $x$  can be written as

$$x = \langle x, a_1 \rangle a_1 + \langle x, a_2 \rangle a_2 + \dots + \langle x, a_D \rangle a_D$$

Let  $p^K$  be the projection of  $x$  onto subspace spanned by first  $K$  principal components:

$$p^K = \langle x, a_1 \rangle a_1 + \langle x, a_2 \rangle a_2 + \dots + \langle x, a_K \rangle a_K$$

Error of this approximation is

$$h^K = x - p^K = \langle x, a_{K+1} \rangle a_{K+1} + \dots + \langle x, a_D \rangle a_D$$

## Quality of approximation

Using that  $a_1, \dots, a_D$  is an orthonormal set of vectors, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\|x\|^2 &= \langle x, x \rangle = \langle x, a_1 \rangle^2 + \dots + \langle x, a_D \rangle^2 \\ \|p^K\|^2 &= \langle p^K, p^K \rangle = \langle x, a_1 \rangle^2 + \dots + \langle x, a_K \rangle^2 \\ \|h^K\|^2 &= \langle h^K, h^K \rangle = \langle x, a_{K+1} \rangle^2 + \dots + \langle x, a_D \rangle^2\end{aligned}$$

We can measure how well first  $K$  components describe our dataset  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  using relative loss

$$L(K) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \|h_n^K\|^2}{\sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n\|^2}$$

or relative score

$$S(K) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \|p_n^K\|^2}{\sum_{n=1}^N \|x_n\|^2}$$

Evidently  $L(K) + S(K) = 1$ .

## Contribution of individual component

Contribution of  $a_k$  for explaining  $x$  is  $\langle x, a_k \rangle^2$ .

Contribution of  $a_k$  for explaining  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  is:

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \langle x_n, a_k \rangle^2$$

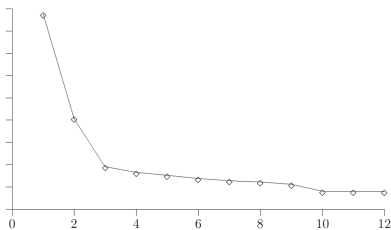
Explained variance ratio:

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \langle x_n, a_k \rangle^2}{\sum_{d=1}^D \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x_n, a_d \rangle^2}$$

Explained variance ratio measures relative contribution of component  $a_k$  to explaining our dataset  $x_1, \dots, x_N$ .

## How many principal components to select?

- Data visualization: 2 or 3 components.
- Take most significant components until their variance falls sharply down:



- Or take minimum  $K$  such that  $L(K) \leq t$  or  $S(K) \geq 1 - t$ , where typically  $t = 0.95$ .

## Transformation $\xi \rightleftharpoons x$

Dependence between original and transformed features:

$$\xi = A^T(x - \mu), \quad x = A\xi + \mu,$$

where  $\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$ .

Taking first  $r$  components -  $A_r = [a_1|a_2|\dots|a_r]$ , we get the image of the reduced transformation:

$$\xi_r = A_r^T(x - \mu)$$

$\xi_r$  will correspond to

$$x_r = A \begin{pmatrix} \xi_r \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \mu = A_r \xi_r + \mu$$

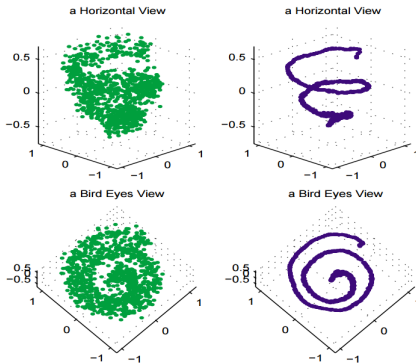
$$x_r = A_r A_r^T(x - \mu) + \mu$$

$A_r A_r^T$  is projection matrix with rank  $r$

(follows from the property  $\text{rank}[AA^T] = \text{rank}[A^T A]$  for any  $A$ ).



# Local linear projection



X. Huo and Jihong Chen (2002). Local linear projection (LLP). First IEEE Workshop on Genomic Signal Processing and Statistics (GENSIPS), Raleigh, NC, October. <http://www.gensips.gatech.edu/proceedings/>.

## Local linear projection

Local linear projection method makes denoised version of original data by locally projecting it onto hyperplane of small rank.

**INPUT:**

p-local dimensionality of data  
K-number of nearest neighbours

**for each  $x_i$  in X:**

- 1) find K nearest neighbours of  $x_i$ :  $x_{j(i,1)}, \dots, x_{j(i,K)}$
- 2) find linear hyperplane  $L_p$  of dimensionality  $p$ , describing  $x_{j(i,1)}, \dots, x_{j(i,K)}$  # hyperplane-subspace with offset
- 3) let  $\hat{x}_i$  be the projection of  $x_i$  onto this hyperplane

**OUTPUT:**

denoised version of objects  $\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2, \dots, \hat{x}_K$ .

- 3 Principal component analysis
  - Reminder
  - Definition
  - Applications of PCA
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

# Constructive definition of PCA

- Principal components  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_D \in \mathbb{R}^D$  are found such that

$$\langle a_i, a_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

- $Xa_i$  is a vector of projections of all objects onto the  $i$ -th principal component.
- For any object  $x$  its projections onto principal components are equal to:

$$p = A^T x = [\langle a_1, x \rangle, \dots, \langle a_D, x \rangle]^T$$

where  $A = [a_1; a_2; \dots, a_D] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ .

# Constructive definition of PCA

- 1  $a_1$  is selected to maximize  $\|Xa_1\|$  subject to  $\langle a_1, a_1 \rangle = 1$
- 2  $a_2$  is selected to maximize  $\|Xa_2\|$  subject to  $\langle a_2, a_2 \rangle = 1$ ,  
 $\langle a_2, a_1 \rangle = 0$
- 3  $a_3$  is selected to maximize  $\|Xa_3\|$  subject to  $\langle a_3, a_3 \rangle = 1$ ,  
 $\langle a_3, a_1 \rangle = \langle a_3, a_2 \rangle = 0$

etc.

## Derivation: 1st component

$$\begin{cases} \|Xa_1\|^2 \rightarrow \max_{a_k} \\ \|a_1\| = 1 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Lagrangian of optimization problem (1):

$$L(a_1, \mu) = a_1^T X^T X a_1 - \mu(a_1^T a_1 - 1) \rightarrow \text{extr}_{a_1, \mu}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial a_1} = 2X^T X a_1 - 2\mu a_1 = 0$$

so  $a_1$  is selected from a set of eigenvectors of  $X^T X$ .

## Derivation: 1st component

Since

$$\|Xa_1\|^2 = (Xa_1)^T Xa_1 = a_1^T X^T Xa_1 = \lambda a_1^T a_1 = \lambda$$

$a_1$  should be the eigenvector, corresponding to the largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$ .

Comment: If many many eigenvector directions corresponding to  $\lambda_1$  exist, select arbitrary eigenvector, satisfying constraint of (1).

## Derivation: 2nd component

$$\begin{cases} \|Xa_2\|^2 \rightarrow \max_{a_k} \\ \|a_2\| = 1 \\ a_2^T a_1 = 0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Lagrangian of optimization problem (2):

$$L(a_2, \mu) = a_2^T X^T X a_2 - \mu(a_2^T a_2 - 1) - \alpha a_1^T a_2 \rightarrow \text{extr}_{a_2, \mu, \alpha}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial a_2} = 2X^T X a_2 - 2\mu a_2 - \alpha a_1 = 0 \quad (3)$$



## Derivation: 2nd component

By multiplying by  $a_1^T$  we obtain:

$$a_1^T \frac{\partial L}{\partial a_1} = 2a_1^T X^T X a_2 - 2\mu a_1^T a_2 - \alpha a_1^T a_1 = 0 \quad (4)$$

Since  $a_2$  is selected to be orthogonal to  $a_1$ :

$$2\mu a_1^T a_2 = 0$$

Since  $a_1^T X^T X a_2$  is scalar and  $a_1$  is eigenvector of  $X^T X$ :

$$a_1^T X^T X a_2 = \left( a_1^T X^T X a_2 \right)^T = a_2^T X^T X a_1 = \lambda_1 a_2^T a_1 = 0$$

It follows that (4) simplifies to  $\alpha a_1^T a_1 = \alpha = 0$  and (3) becomes

$$X^T X a_2 - \mu a_2 = 0$$

So  $a_2$  is selected from a set of eigenvectors of  $X^T X$ .

## Derivation: 2nd component

Since

$$\|Xa_2\|^2 = (Xa_2)^T Xa_2 = a_2^T X^T Xa_2 = \lambda a_2^T a_2 = \lambda$$

$a_2$  should be the eigenvector, corresponding to second largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_2$ .

Comment: If many many eigenvector directions corresponding to  $\lambda_2$  exist, select arbitrary eigenvector, satisfying constraints of (2).

## Derivation: k-th component

$$\begin{cases} \|Xa_k\|^2 \rightarrow \max_{a_k} \\ \|a_k\| = 1 \\ a_k^T a_1 = \dots = a_k^T a_{k-1} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Lagrangian of optimization problem (5):

$$L(a_k, \mu) = a_k^T X^T X a_k - \mu(a_k^T a_k - 1) - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \alpha_j a_k^T a_j \rightarrow \text{extr}_{a_k, \mu, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{k-1}}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial a_k} = 2X^T X a_k - 2\mu a_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \alpha_j a_j = 0 \quad (6)$$

## Derivation: k-th component

By multiplying by  $a_i^T$  for any  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$  we obtain:

$$a_i^T \frac{\partial L}{\partial a_1} = 2a_i^T X^T X a_k - 2\mu a_i^T a_k - \alpha_1 a_i^T a_1 - \dots - \alpha_{k-1} a_i^T a_{k-1} = 0 \quad (7)$$

Since  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are selected to be orthogonal for  $i \neq j$ , we have:

$$2\mu a_i^T a_k = 0, \quad \alpha_j a_i^T a_j = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$$

Since  $a_i^T X^T X a_2$  is scalar and  $a_i$  is eigenvector of  $X^T X$ :

$$a_i^T X^T X a_2 = \left( a_i^T X^T X a_k \right)^T = a_k^T X^T X a_i = \lambda_i a_k^T a_i = 0$$

It follows that (7) simplifies to  $\alpha_i a_i^T a_i = \alpha_i = 0$ . Since  $i$  was selected arbitrary from  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$ ,  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_{k-1} = 0$  and (6) becomes

$$X^T X a_k - \mu a_k = 0$$

So  $a_k$  is selected from a set of eigenvectors of  $X^T X$ .

## Derivation: k-th component

Since

$$\|Xa_k\|^2 = (Xa_k)^T Xa_k = a_k^T X^T Xa_k = \lambda a_k^T a_k = \lambda$$

$a_k$  should be the eigenvector, corresponding to the k-th largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_k$ .

Comment: If many many eigenvector directions corresponding to  $\lambda_k$  exist, select arbitrary eigenvector, satisfying constraints of (5).

- 3 Principal component analysis
  - Reminder
  - Definition
  - Applications of PCA
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

# Componentwise optimization leads to best fit subspace

## Theorem 1

*Let  $L_k$  be the subspace spanned by  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$ . Then for each  $k$   $L_k$  is the best-fit  $k$ -dimensional subspace for  $X$ .*

Proof: use induction. For  $r = 1$  the statement is true by definition since projection maximization is equivalent to distance minimization.

Suppose theorem holds for  $r - 1$ . Let  $L_r$  be the plane of best-fit of dimension with  $\dim L = r$ . We can always choose a orthonormal basis of  $L_r$   $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r$  so that

$$\begin{cases} \|b_r\| = 1 \\ b_r \perp a_1, b_r \perp a_2, \dots, b_r \perp a_{r-1} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

by setting  $b_r$  perpendicular to projections of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{r-1}$  on  $L_r$ .

## Componentwise optimization leads to best fit subspace

Consider the sum of squared projections:

$$\|Xb_1\|^2 + \|Xb_2\|^2 + \dots + \|Xb_{r-1}\|^2 + \|Xb_r\|^2$$

By induction proposition  $L[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{r-1}]$  is space of best fit of rank  $r - 1$  and  $L[b_1, \dots, b_{r-1}]$  is some space of same rank, so sum of squared projections on it is smaller:

$$\|Xb_1\|^2 + \|Xb_2\|^2 + \dots + \|Xb_{r-1}\|^2 \leq \|Xa_1\|^2 + \|Xa_2\|^2 + \dots + \|Xa_{r-1}\|^2$$

and

$$\|Xb_r\|^2 \leq \|Xa_r\|^2$$

since  $b_r$  by (8) satisfies constraints of optimization problem (??) and  $a_r$  is its optimal solution.



## Conclusion

- For  $x \in \mathbb{R}^D$  there exist  $D$  principal components.
- Principal component  $a_i$  is the  $i$ -th eigenvector of  $X^T X$ , corresponding to  $i$ -th largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$ .
- Sum of squared projections onto  $a_i$  is  $\|Xa_i\|^2 = \lambda_i$ .
- *Explained variance ratio* by component  $a_i$  is equal to

$$\frac{\lambda_i}{\sum_{d=1}^D \lambda_d}$$