## Dimensionality reduction

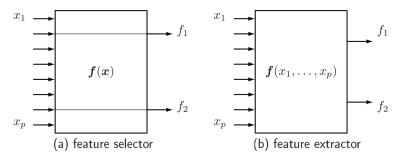
Victor Kitov

#### Table of Contents

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

## Dimensionality reduction

Feature selection / Feature extraction



**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)
- unsupervied

#### Mapping to reduced space:

- linear
- non-linear

#### Table of Contents

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

Dimensionality reduction - Victor Kitov Supervised dimensionality reduction Fisher's linear discriminant

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

#### Problem statement

Standard linear classification decision rule

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

is equivalent to

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

### Possible realization

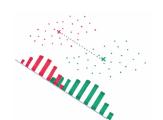
- Classification between  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$ .
- Define  $C_1 = \{i : x_i \in \omega_1\}, \quad C_2 = \{i : x_i \in \omega_2\}$  and

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

$$\mu_1 = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{m}_1, \quad \mu_2 = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{m}_2$$

Naive solution:

$$egin{cases} (\mu_1-\mu_2)^2 
ightarrow \mathsf{max}_w \ \|w\|=1 \end{cases}$$

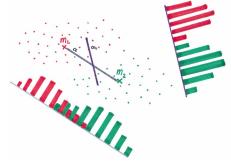


#### Fisher's LDA

• 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:  $\frac{(\mu_1-\mu_2)^2}{s_1^2+s_2^2} o \max_w$ 



Fisher's linear discriminant

## Equivalent representation

$$\frac{(\mu_{1} - \mu_{2})^{2}}{s_{1}^{2} + s_{2}^{2}} = \frac{(w^{T} m_{1} - w^{T} m_{2})^{2}}{\sum_{n \in C_{1}} (w^{T} x_{n} - w^{T} m_{1})^{2} + \sum_{n \in C_{2}} (w^{T} x_{n} - w^{T} m_{2})^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{[w^{T} (m_{1} - m_{2})]^{2}}{\sum_{n \in C_{1}} [w^{T} (x_{n} - m_{1})]^{2} + \sum_{n \in C_{2}} [w^{T} (x_{n} - m_{1})]^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{w^{T} (m_{1} - m_{2})(m_{1} - m_{2})^{T} w}{w^{T} [\sum_{n \in C_{1}} (x_{n} - m_{1})(x_{n} - m_{1})^{T} + \sum_{n \in C_{2}} (x_{n} - m_{2})(x_{n} - m_{2})^{T}] w}$$

$$= \frac{w^{T} S_{B} w}{w^{T} S_{W} w}$$

$$S_{B} = (m_{1} - m_{2})(m_{1} - m_{2})^{T},$$

$$S_W = \sum_{n \in C_1} (x_n - m_1)(x_n - m_1)^T + \sum_{n \in C_2} (x_n - m_2)(x_n - m_2)^T$$

#### Fisher's LDA solution

$$Q(w) = \frac{w^T S_B w}{w^T S_W w} \to \max_w$$
Using property that  $\frac{d}{dw} \left( w^T A w \right) = 2Aw$  for any  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}, \ A^T = A$ 

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

which is equivalent to

$$\left[w^{T}S_{W}w\right]S_{B}w=\left[w^{T}S_{B}w\right]S_{W}w$$

So

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

Dimensionality reduction - Victor Kitov Supervised dimensionality reduction Supervised discriminant analysis

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

# Idea of supervised discriminant analysis (SDA)

- We can find directions  $w_1, w_2, ... w_D$ , projections on which best separate classes.
- Ways to find w:
  - Fisher's LDA
  - Any linear classification  $\langle w, x \rangle \gtrsim threshold$  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  $(x_1, y_1), ...(x_N, y_N)$
- \* algorithm, fitting w in linear classification  $\hat{y} = sign[\langle w, x \rangle threshold]$

#### ALGORITHM:

For 
$$d=1,2,...D$$
:

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

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

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

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

**<u>OUTPUT</u>**:  $w_1, w_2, ... w_D$ .

#### Table of Contents

- Dimensionality reduction intro
- 2 Supervised dimensionality reduction
- 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

Reminder

# Scalar product reminer

- Here we will assume  $\langle a, b \rangle = a^T b$
- $||a|| = \sqrt{\langle a, a \rangle}$
- Signed projection of xonto 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:
  - $\{X^T X\}_{ij} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_{ni} x_{nj} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_{nj} x_{ni} = \{X^T X\}_{ji}$ •  $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^D : \langle a, X^T X a \rangle = a^T X^T X a = \|Xa\|^2 \ge 0$
- 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  $X^TX \succeq 0$  it follows that all its eigenvalues are non-negative.
- We will assume that eigenvalues of  $X^TX$  are  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq ... \geq \lambda_D \geq 0$ .

# 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:

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

- 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  $x_1, x_2, ...x_N$  we and subspace L we can also find:
  - projections:  $p_1, p_2, ...p_N$
  - orthogonal complements:  $h_1, h_2, ... h_N$ .

# Best hyperplane fit

#### Definition 1

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

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

#### Proposition 2

Vectors  $v_1, v_2, ... v_k$ , solving

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

also define best-fit k-dimensional subspace.

• Prove 2 using proposition 1.

## Definition of PCA

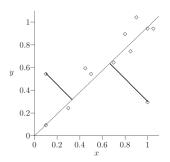
#### Definition 2

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

- Properties:
  - Not invariant to translation:
    - Before applying PCA, we replace  $x \leftarrow x \mu$ , where  $\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$ .
    - Everywhere further we assume that  $\mathbb{E}x = 0$ .
  - Not invariant to scaling:
    - need to standardize each feature

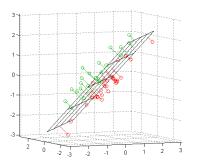
## Example: line of best fit

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



• What is the difference with least squares minimization in regression?

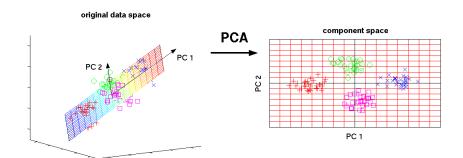
# Best hyperplane fit



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

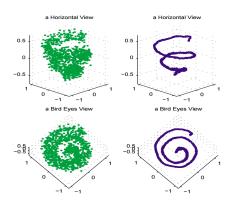
- Principal component analysis
  - Reminder
  - Definition
  - Applications of PCA
  - Application details
  - Construction of principal components
  - Proof of optimality of principal components

### 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/.

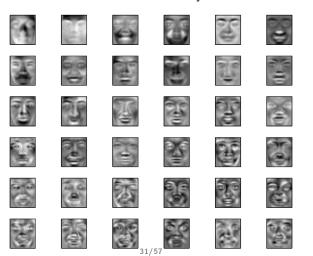
# Economic description of data

#### Faces database:

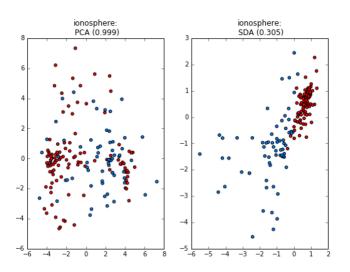


# Eigenfaces

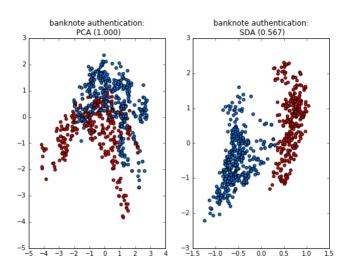
Eigenvectors are called eigenfaces. Projections on first several eigenfaces describe most of face variability.



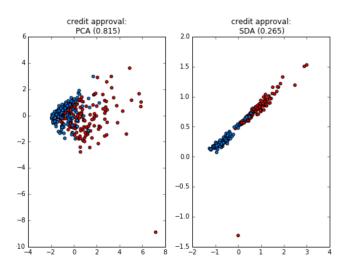
## PCA vs. SDA



### PCA vs. SDA



### PCA vs. SDA



- 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 othonormal basis, x can be written as

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

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

$$p^{K} = \langle x, a_1 \rangle a_1 + \langle x, a_2 \rangle a_2 + ... + \langle x, a_K \rangle a_K$$

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  $a_1, ... a_D$  is an orthonormal set of vectors, we get

$$\|x\|^{2} = \langle x, x \rangle = \langle x, a_{1} \rangle^{2} + \dots + \langle x, a_{D} \rangle^{2}$$
$$\|p^{K}\|^{2} = \langle p^{K}, p^{K} \rangle = \langle x, a_{1} \rangle^{2} + \dots + \langle x, a_{K} \rangle^{2}$$
$$\|h^{K}\|^{2} = \langle h^{K}, h^{K} \rangle = \langle x, a_{K+1} \rangle^{2} + \dots + \langle x, a_{D} \rangle^{2}$$

We can measure how well first K components describe our dataset  $x_1, x_2, ... x_N$  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  $x_1, x_2, ... x_N$  is:

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

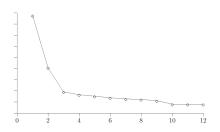
Explained variance ratio:

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

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

## 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  $L(K) \le t$  or  $S(K) \ge 1 - t$ , where typically t = 0.95.

Dimensionality reduction - Victor Kitov

Principal component analysis

Application details

## Transformation $\xi \rightleftharpoons x$

Dependence between original and transformed features:

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

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

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

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

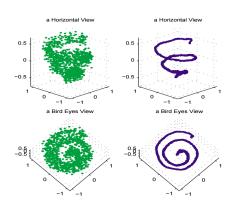
 $\xi_r$  will correspond to

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

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

 $A_r A_r^T$  is projection matrix with rank r (follows from the property  $rank \left[ AA^T \right] = rank \left[ A^T A \right]$  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  $x_i$ :  $x_{j(i,1)},...x_{j(i,K)}$
- 2) find linear hyperplane  $L_p$  of dimensionality p, describing  $x_{j(i,1)},...x_{j(i,K)}$  # hyperplane-subspace with offset
- 3) let  $\hat{x}_i$  be the projection of  $x_i$  onto this hyperplane

#### OUTPUT:

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

- 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  $a_1, a_2, ... a_D \in \mathbb{R}^D$  are found such that  $\langle a_i, a_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$
- Xa<sub>i</sub> 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:

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

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

#### Constructive definition of PCA

- **1 a**<sub>1</sub> 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

$$\begin{cases} \|Xa_1\|^2 \to \max_{a_k} \\ \|a_1\| = 1 \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

Lagrangian of optimization problem (1):

$$L(\mathbf{a}_1, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{a}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu} (\mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{a}_1 - 1) \rightarrow \mathsf{extr}_{\mathbf{a}_1, \boldsymbol{\mu}}$$

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

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

### 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 corrsponding to  $\lambda_1$  exist, select arbitrary eigenvector, satisfying constraint of (1).

Construction of principal components

## Derivation: 2nd component

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

Lagrangian of optimization problem (2):

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

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

## Derivation: 2nd component

By multiplying by  $a_1^T$  we obtain:

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

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

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  $X^TX$ .

## 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 corrsponding to  $\lambda_2$  exist, select arbitrary eigenvector, satisfying constraints of (2).

## Derivation: k-th component

$$\begin{cases} \|Xa_{k}\|^{2} \to \max_{a_{k}} \\ \|a_{k}\| = 1 \\ a_{k}^{T} a_{1} = \dots = a_{k}^{T} a_{k-1} = 0 \end{cases}$$
 (5)

Lagrangian of optimization problem (5):

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

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

## Construction of principal components

Derivation: k-th component

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

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

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

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

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, ...k - 1,  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = ... = \alpha_{k-1} = 0$  and (6) becomes

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

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

## 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 corrsponding to  $\lambda_k$  exist, select arbitrary eigenvector, satisfying constraints of (5).

- 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  $a_1, a_2, ... a_k$ . 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  $L_r$   $b_1$ ,  $b_2$ , ...  $b_r$  so that

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

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

# Componentwise optimization leads to best fit subspace

Consider the sum of squared projections:

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

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

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

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  $X^TX$ , 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

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