

EECS 245, Spring 2026

LEC 13

Singular Value Decomposition,
Principal Components Analysis

→ Read: Ch. 10

Agenda

Ch. 10

SVD

- Singular value decomposition

$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

- where did it come from?
- what can it be used for?

PCA

- Principal components analysis:
a cool application of the
SVD

Announcements

- Lab 11 solutions up
- Deadlines:
 - HW 10 today
 - HW 11 Sunday
 - Lab 12 Monday
- Final Exam on Wednesday,
8-10AM
- After HW 10, fill out the
End-of-Semester Survey and
official Evals for 1% EC

Equation that relates cols of U to cols of V :

$$\cancel{X} \vec{v}_i = \sigma_i \vec{u}_i$$

\vec{v}_i is the i^{th} column of V
 $\vec{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$

\vec{u}_i is the i^{th} column of U
 $\vec{u}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} = 15 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 0 \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

\vec{v}_1 σ_1 \vec{u}_1

$$X = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_\Sigma \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

Where does the SVD come from?

$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

X is not square, so it doesn't have any eigen-things.

But $X^T X$ and $X X^T$ are both square!

They are also symmetric, thus the spectral theorem tells us they are diagonalizable with orthogonal eigenvectors.

Recap: diagonalizable matrices and the spectral theorem

- If A ($n \times n$) diagonalizable, then exists

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$

cols are eigenvectors of A

- Spectral theorem says if A symmetric ($A = A^T$), then

$$A = Q \Lambda Q^T$$

$$Q^T Q = I, \text{ so } Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

cols are eigenvectors of A

$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

not summation!

$$X^T X = (U \Sigma V^T)^T U \Sigma V^T$$

$$= V \Sigma^T \underbrace{U^T U}_{I} \Sigma V^T$$

$$= V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T$$

looks like $Q \Lambda Q^T$

$$X X^T = U \Sigma V^T (U \Sigma V^T)^T = U \Sigma V^T \underbrace{V \Sigma^T U^T}_{I}$$

$$= U \Sigma \Sigma^T U^T$$

also looks like $Q \Lambda Q^T$

$$\Sigma \quad n \times d$$

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma \quad d \times d$$

$$\Sigma \Sigma^T \quad n \times n$$

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

square,
diagonal

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{example})$$

eg. $X \quad 5 \times 3, \text{rank} = 2$

$$\Sigma \Sigma^T = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & & & \\ & \sigma_2^2 & & & \\ & & 0 & & \\ & & & 0 & \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

square,
diagonal

$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

$$X^T X = V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T = V \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \sigma_2^2 & \\ & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} V^T$$

→ $X^T X$ is a symmetric matrix!

→ $V(\Sigma^T \Sigma)V^T$ is just the spectral decomposition

→ columns of V are eigenvectors of $X^T X$

→ $\sigma_i^2 = \lambda_i$ of $X^T X$

→ $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ of $X^T X$

$X^T X$'s eigenvalues
are ≥ 0 ,
since $X^T X$ is
positive semi-definite!

$$X = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & \dots & | \\ \bar{u}_1 & \dots & \bar{u}_r \\ | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & \dots & | \\ \bar{u}_{r+1} & \dots & \bar{u}_n \\ | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix}}_V$$

basis for $\text{colsp}(X)$ basis for $\text{nullsp}(X^T)$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_r & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma}$$

number of non-zero σ_i 's = $\text{rank}(X) = r$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -\bar{v}_1^T & - \\ \vdots & \\ -\bar{v}_r^T & - \\ -\bar{v}_{r+1}^T & - \\ \vdots & \\ -\bar{v}_d^T & - \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

basis for $\text{colsp}(X^T)$ basis for $\text{nullsp}(X)$

$\bar{u}_1, \dots, \bar{u}_n$ of XX^T $\bar{v}_1, \dots, \bar{v}_d$ (columns of V)
 eigenvectors of $X^T X$ eigenvectors of $X^T X$

One example SVD

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X X^T = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 12 \\ 12 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find SVD of X
 $\text{rank}(X) = 2$

→ eigenvalues:

- since $\text{rank}(X) = \text{rank}(X^T X) = 2$,

$X^T X$ not invertible,

so 0 is an eigenvalue

→ what are the other 2?

$$\leadsto \lambda_1 \lambda_2 = 170 - 144 = 26$$

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 27$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 26$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1$$

26
1
0

$$\sigma_1 = \sqrt{26}$$

$$\sigma_2 = 1$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{26} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

eigenvalue 26: $\vec{v}_1 = ?$

$$X^T X - 26I = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & -25 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & -25 \end{bmatrix}$$

→ could find vector in $\text{nullsp}(X^T X - 26I)$

→ or, could solve

$$\begin{bmatrix} 25 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 26a \\ 26b \\ 26c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow 25a + 3b + 4c = 26a$$

$$\Rightarrow a = 3b + 4c$$

$$\Rightarrow 3a + b = 26b$$

$$3a = 25b$$

$$a = 3b + 4c$$

$$3a = 25b$$

set $c = 1$

$$a = 3b + 4$$

$$3(3b + 4) = 25b$$

$$9b + 12 = 25b$$

$$12 = 16b$$

$$b = \frac{12}{16} = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 25/4 \\ 3/4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

⇒ convert to unit vector, becomes first col of V

$$3a = 25 \cdot \frac{3}{4}$$

$$a = 25 \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \\ = \frac{25}{4}$$

🔗 Computing the SVD By Hand

To conclude, we found $X = U\Sigma V^T$ by:

1. Computing $X^T X$.
2. Finding the eigenvalues of $X^T X$; their square roots are the singular values of X .

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$$

These singular values are placed in the diagonal of Σ in decreasing order.

3. For each eigenvalue λ_i , finding an orthonormal eigenvector \vec{v}_i of $X^T X$ and placing it in the i th column of V .
4. For each $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$, finding \vec{u}_i by solving

$$\vec{u}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} X \vec{v}_i$$

and placing it in the i th column of U .

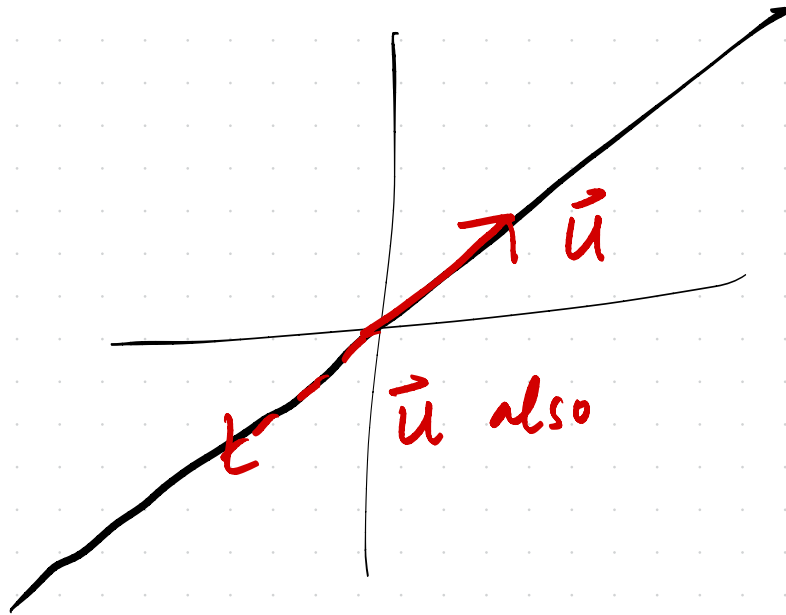
5. Filling the rest of U with orthonormal vectors that form a basis for $\text{nullsp}(X^T)$.

This is not the only possible sequence of steps to follow; for instance, once you find the singular values $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$, you can independently find orthonormal eigenvectors of $X^T X$ and XX^T and use them to form U and V . Just make sure you place the \vec{u}_i 's and \vec{v}_i 's in the correct order, corresponding to the order of the singular values in Σ .

$\sigma_i, \vec{u}_i, \vec{v}_i$
triplet of friends,
need to satisfy

$$X \vec{v}_i = \sigma_i \vec{u}_i$$

eigvec of XX^T
eigvec of $X^T X$



$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 10 \end{bmatrix}}_X = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_\Sigma \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix}}_{V^T}$$

The summation view of the SVD says that:

$$X = \underbrace{\sigma_1}_{15} \underbrace{u_1}_{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix}} \underbrace{v_1^T}_{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix}} + \underbrace{3}_{\sigma_2} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{u_2} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{v_2^T}$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 10 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{rank-one matrix}} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{rank-one matrix}}$$

Frobenius norm : pretend A is a vector
and compute its (L_2) norm

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

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2}$$

How do we measure how close X_{approx} is from X ?

Compute

$$\|X - X_{\text{approx}}\|_F$$

SVD says that any rank- r matrix X can be written as a sum of r rank-1 matrices

$$X = \sigma_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \underbrace{\sigma_2 \vec{u}_2 \vec{v}_2^T}_{\text{outer product: rank-1}} + \dots + \sigma_r \vec{u}_r \vec{v}_r^T$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$$

Low-rank approximation

Suppose X is a rank- r matrix,

$$k \leq r$$

then the best rank- k approximation of X is

$$X_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i \vec{u}_i \vec{v}_i^T$$

X_k minimizes $\|X - X_k\|_F^2$ ← see HW 11
just take the first k outer products!

summing up k rank-one matrices.

$$\text{rank } k \text{ approximation of image} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i \vec{u}_i \vec{v}_i^T$$

A slider should appear below, allowing you to select a value of k and see the corresponding rank- k approximation of Junior.



Rank k: 40



$$(1+n+d)k$$

Here:

$$(1 + 400 + 300) 40$$

$$\approx 28000$$

$$\ll 120000$$

(if you stored all
400 x 300
pixels)

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Advice to the Student

Chapter 1: Introduction to
Supervised Learning >

Chapter 2: Simple Linear
Regression >

Chapter 3: Vectors >

Chapter 4: Linear
Independence >

Chapter 5: Matrices >

Chapter 6: Linear
Transformations and
Projections >

Chapter 7: Regression
using Linear Algebra >

Chapter 8: Gradients >

Chapter 9: Eigenvalues
and Eigenvectors >

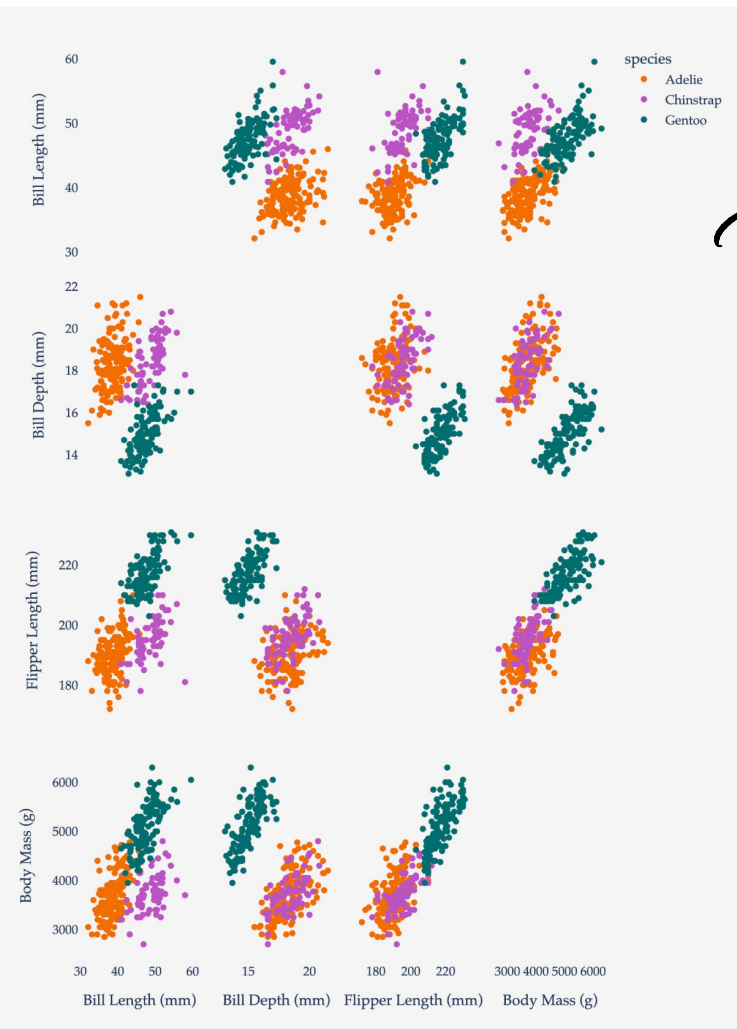
**Chapter 10: Singular
Value Decomposition** ✓

10.1. Computing the Singular

Chapter 10.3

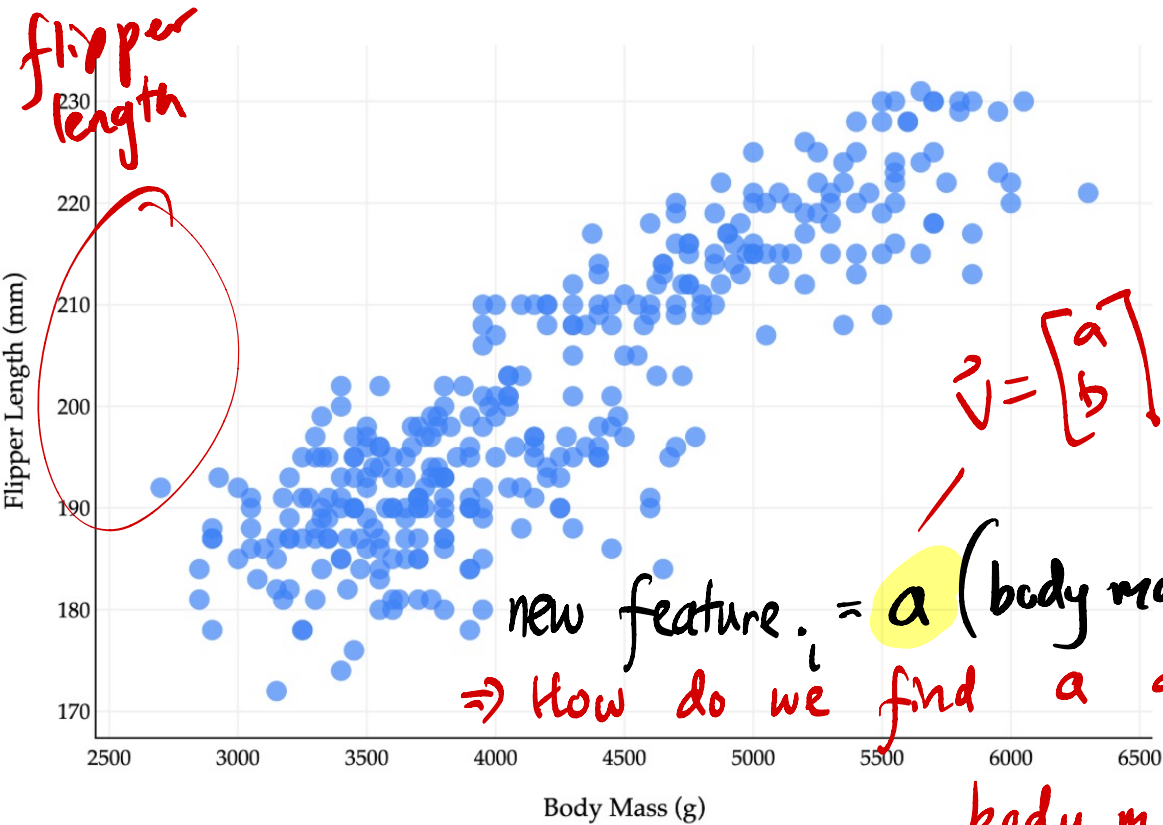
each row : 1 penguin

species	island	bill_length_mm	bill_depth_mm	flipper_length_mm	body_mass_g	sex
Adelie	Torgersen	39.1	18.7	181.0	3750.0	Male
Adelie	Torgersen	39.5	17.4	186.0	3800.0	Female
Adelie	Torgersen	40.3	18.0	195.0	3250.0	Female
Adelie	Torgersen	36.7	19.3	193.0	3450.0	Female
Adelie	Torgersen	39.3	20.6	190.0	3650.0	Male
...
Gentoo	Biscoe	47.2	13.7	214.0	4925.0	Female
Gentoo	Biscoe	46.8	14.3	215.0	4850.0	Female
Gentoo	Biscoe	50.4	15.7	222.0	5750.0	Male
Gentoo	Biscoe	45.2	14.8	212.0	5200.0	Female
Gentoo	Biscoe	49.9	16.1	213.0	5400.0	Male



~ hard to deal with several numerical features simultaneously

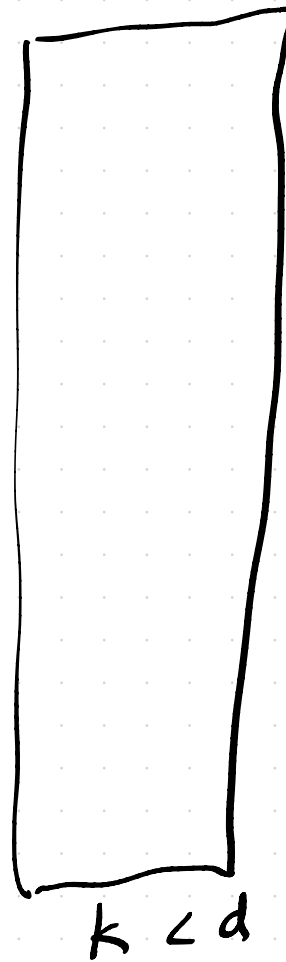
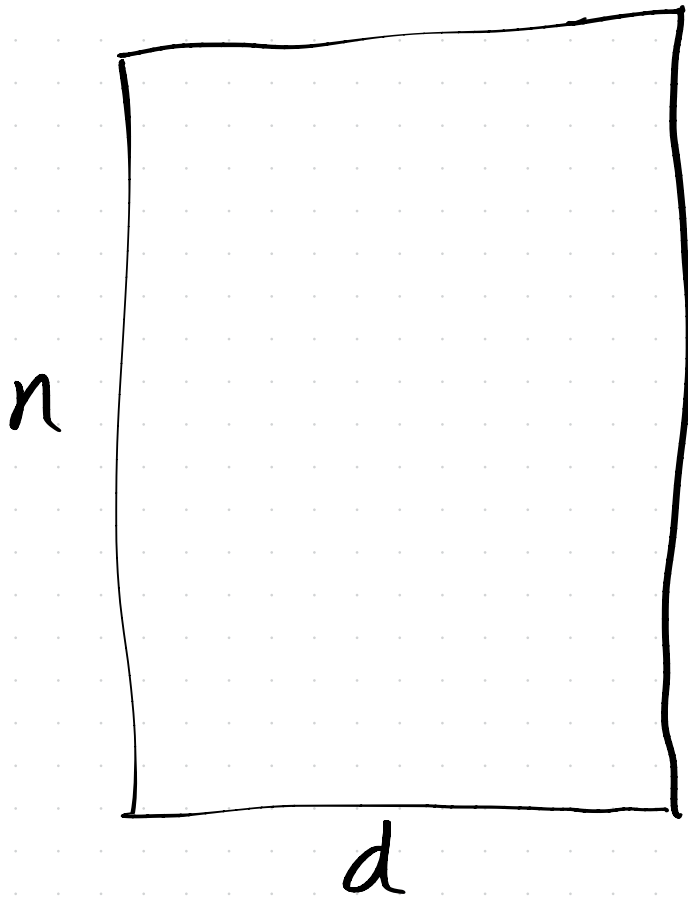
- idea: what if we create one new feature using all of the existing features?



Goal: produce one new feature using a combination of both existing features

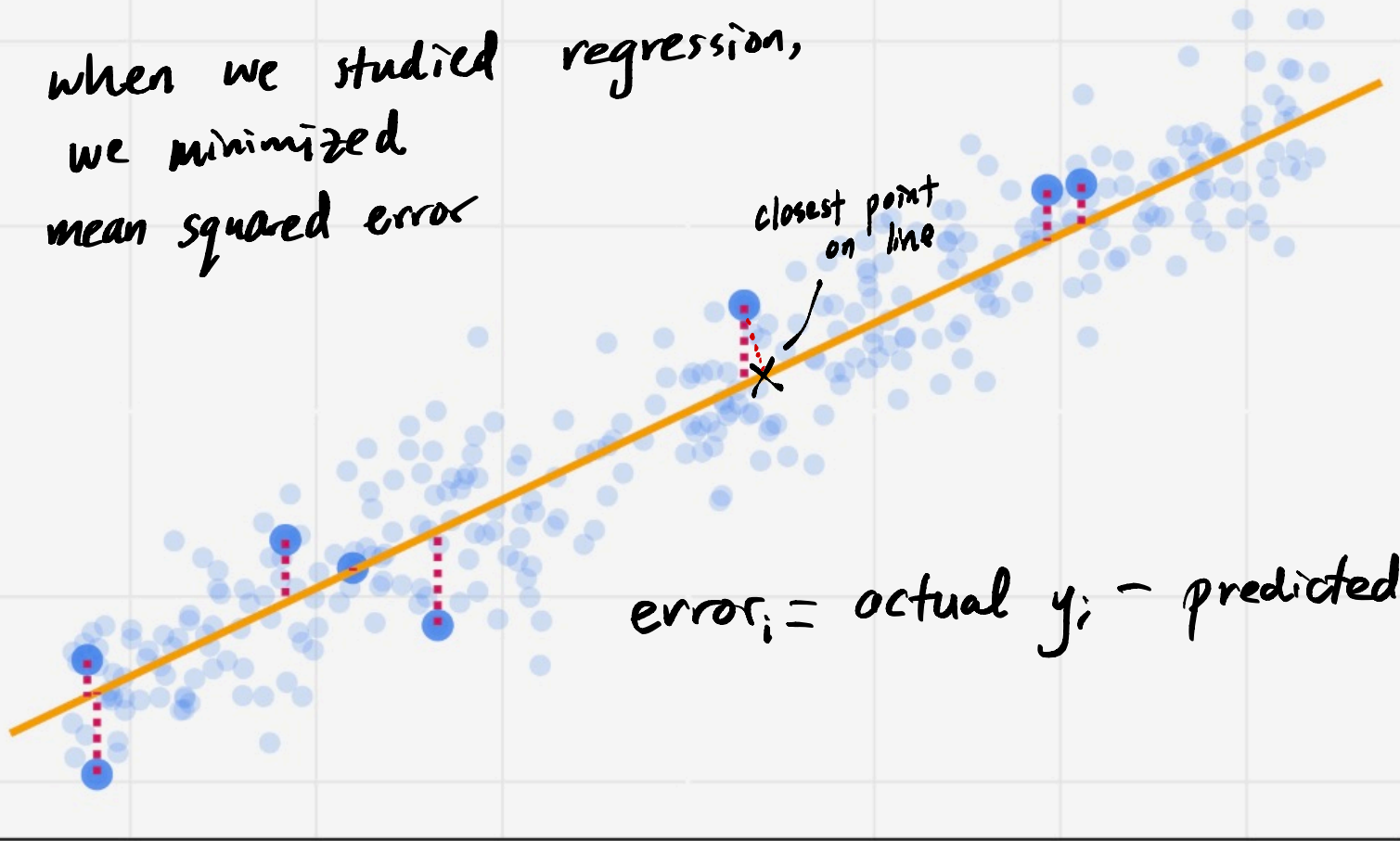
$$\text{new feature}_i = a(\text{body mass}_i) + b(\text{flipper length}_i)$$

\Rightarrow How do we find a and b ?



this
is
dimensionality
reduction,
which is a
form of
unsupervised
learning

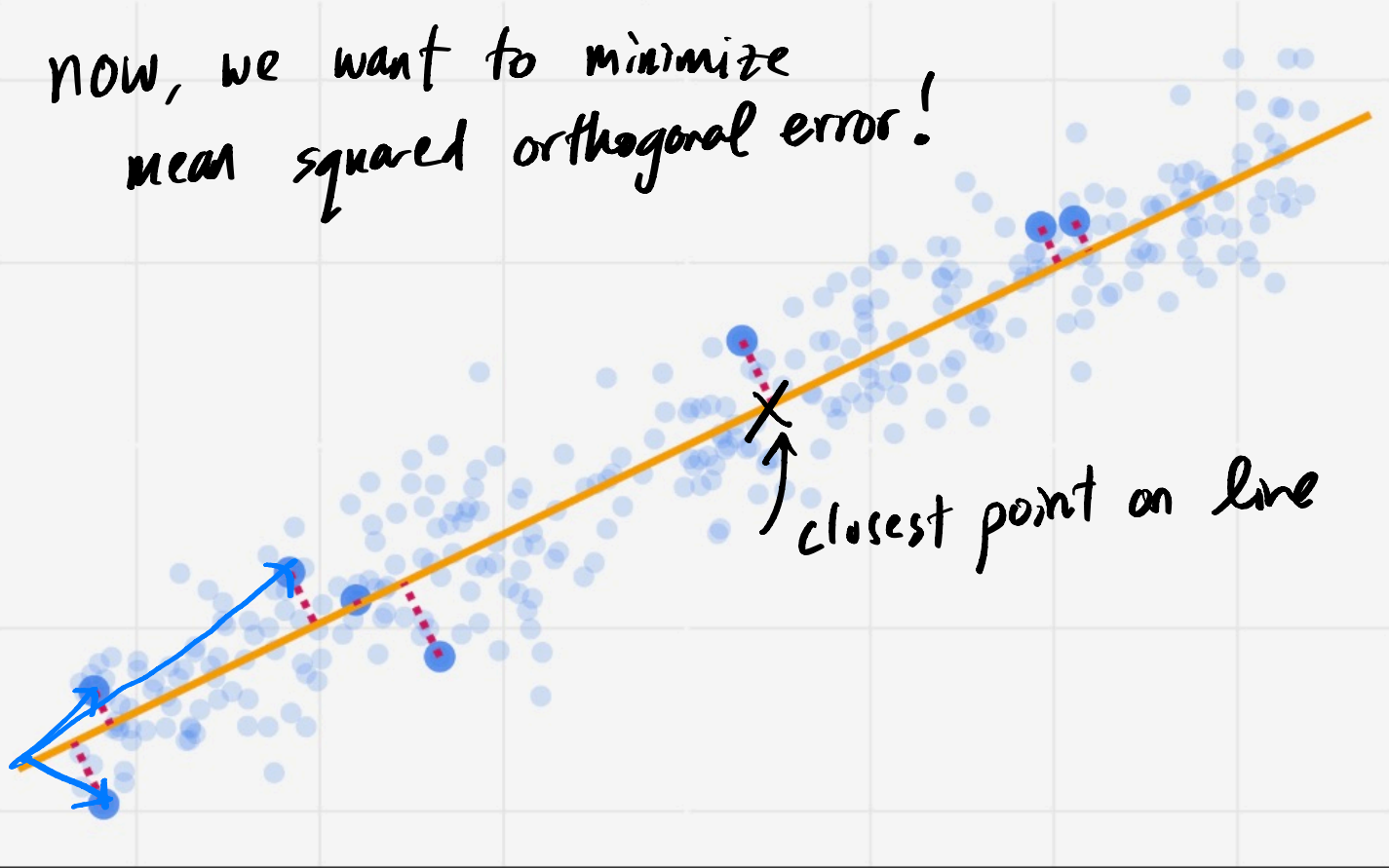
when we studied regression,
we minimized
mean squared error



$$\text{error}_i = \text{actual } y_i - \text{predicted } y_i$$

Orthogonal Errors

now, we want to minimize
mean squared orthogonal error!



Key idea : we have hundreds of vectors
(rows of dataset),

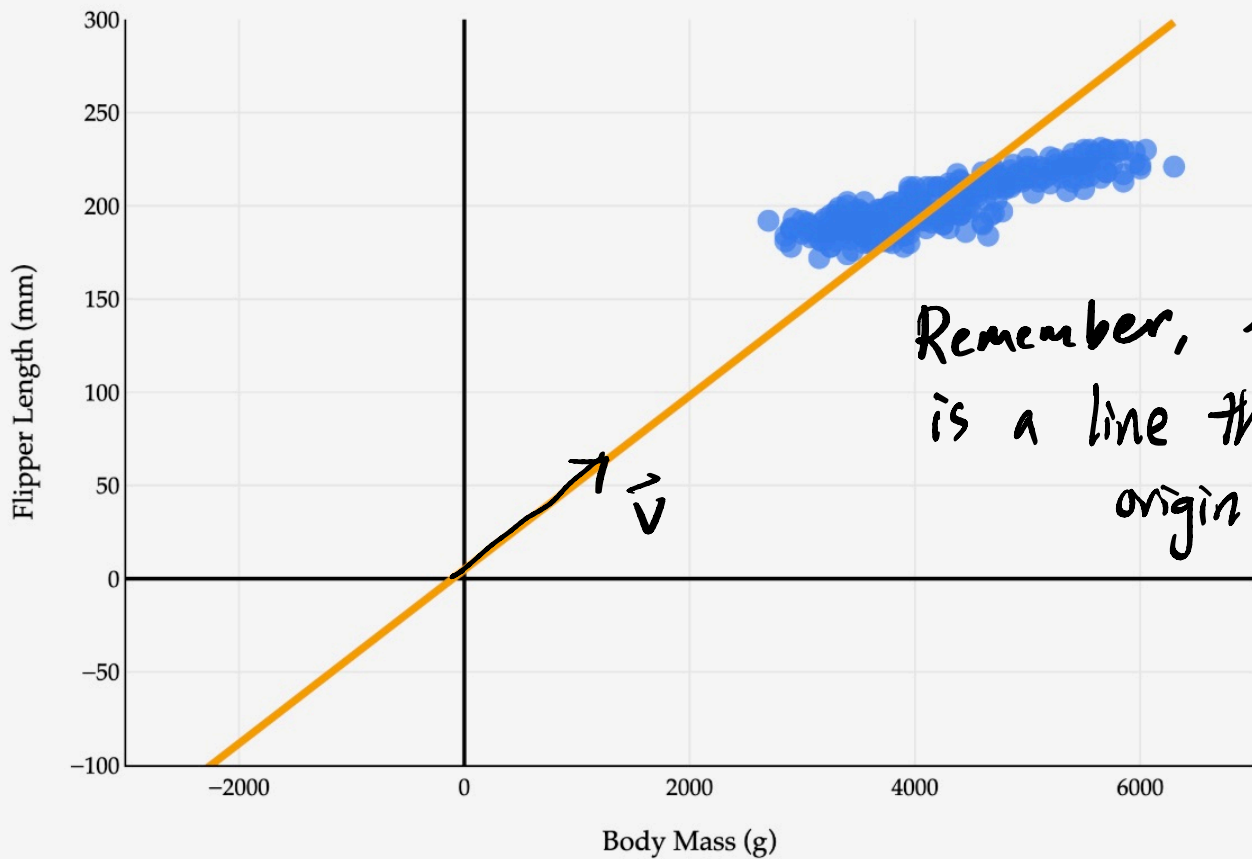
all being projected onto one vector :

\vec{v} .

Q : what is the best \vec{v} ?

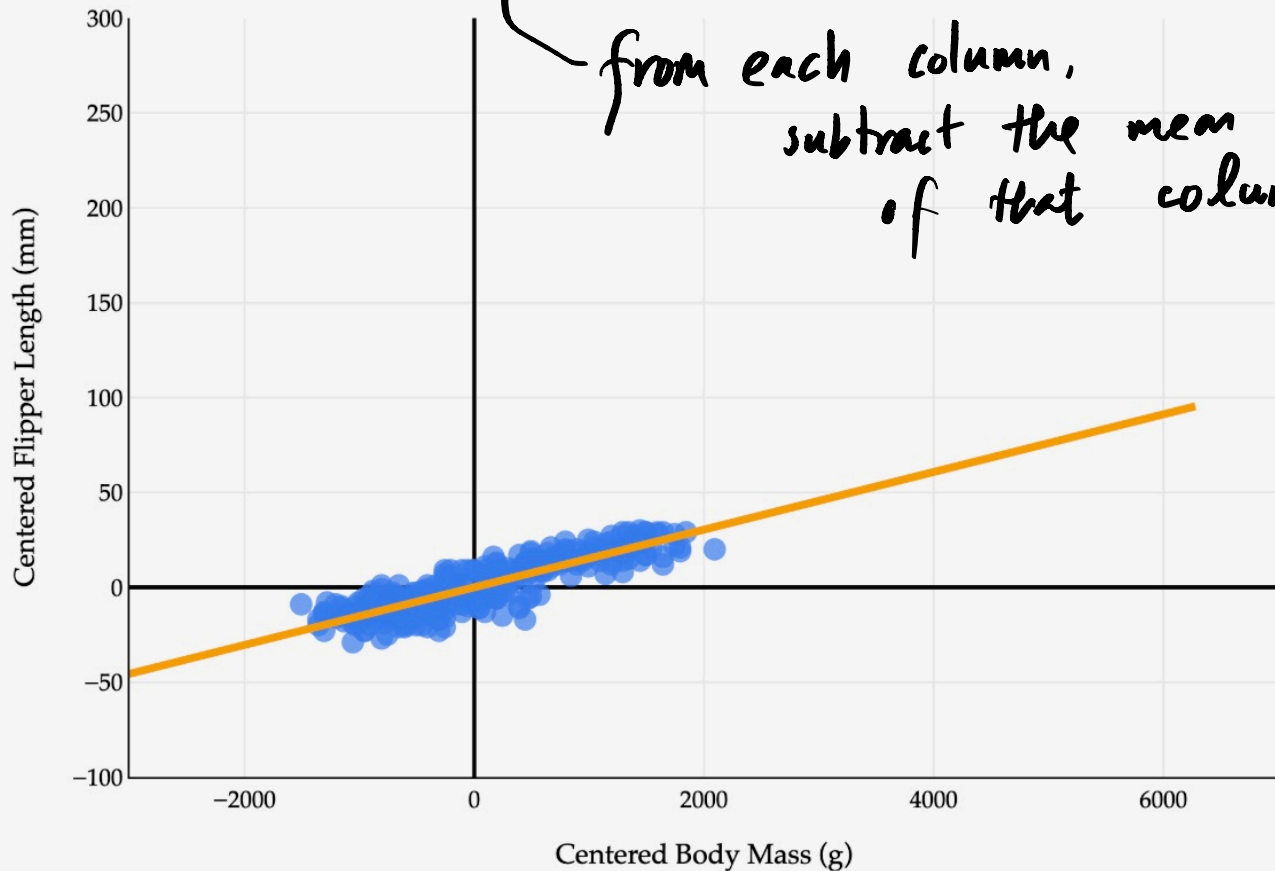
A : \vec{v} that minimizes
mean squared orthogonal error!

Our data isn't usually located near the origin...



Remember, $\text{span}(\{\vec{v}\})$
is a line through the
origin!

...which is why we center the data first! This doesn't change its shape.

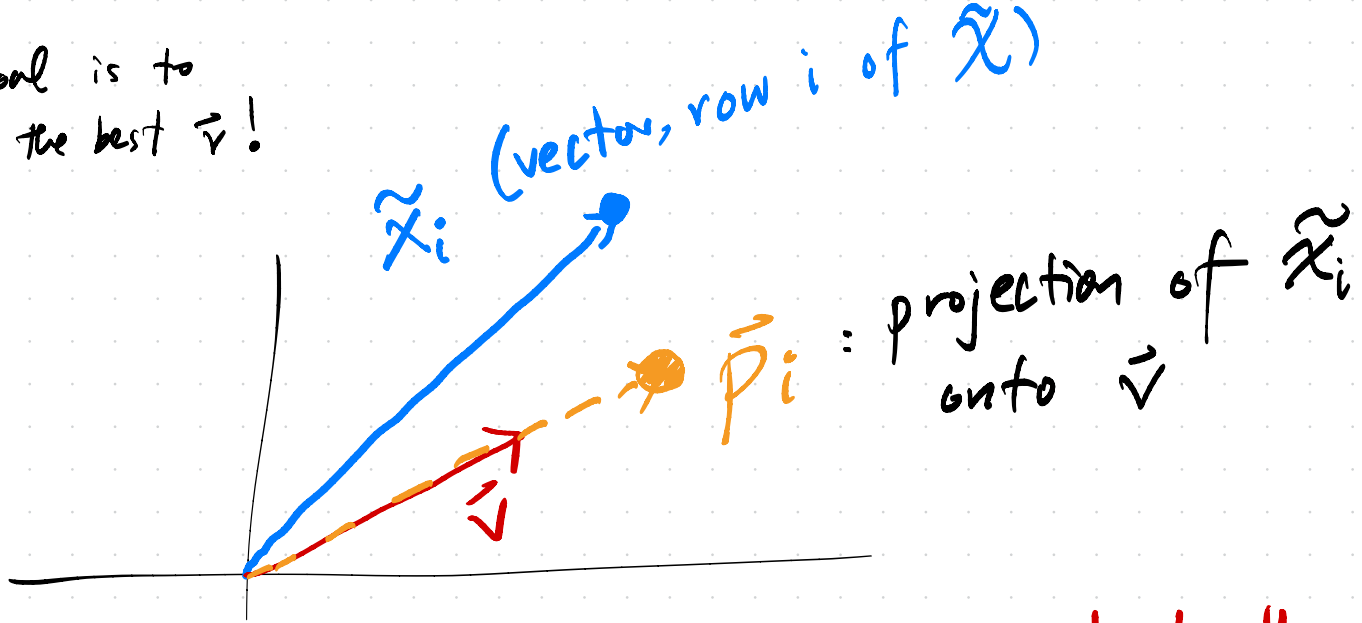


Suppose X is our original $n \times d$ matrix.

\tilde{X} is the mean-centered version of X ,
produced by subtracting the mean of each column
from each column

What is $\tilde{X}^T \vec{1}$? $\tilde{X}^T \vec{1}$ contains the sum of
each col of \tilde{X} ,
each sum is 0, so
 $\tilde{X}^T \vec{1} = \vec{0}$!

Remember, goal is to find the best \vec{v} !



$$\vec{p}_i = \left(\frac{\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}}{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} \right) \vec{v}$$

For simplicity, since its length doesn't matter, assume $\|\vec{v}\|=1$.

Then,

$$\vec{p}_i = (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v}$$

$$\vec{p}_i = (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v}$$

Goal: Minimize mean squared orthogonal error.

Formula?

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\tilde{x}_i - \vec{p}_i\|^2$$

$$J(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\tilde{x}_i - (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v}\|^2$$

"objective function"

what \vec{v} minimizes $J(\vec{v})$?

Observation: if \vec{v} minimizes mean squared projection error,
it maximizes the variance of the \bar{p}_i 's!

Why is that?

$$\begin{aligned} J(\vec{v}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\| \tilde{x}_i - (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v} \right\|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\tilde{x}_i - (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v} \right) \cdot \left(\tilde{x}_i - (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v} \right) \\ &= \dots \text{algebra skipped} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\tilde{x}_i\|^2}_{\text{constant!}} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v})^2 \end{aligned}$$

So, minimizing $J(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\tilde{x}_i - (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v}\|^2$
is the same as maximizing

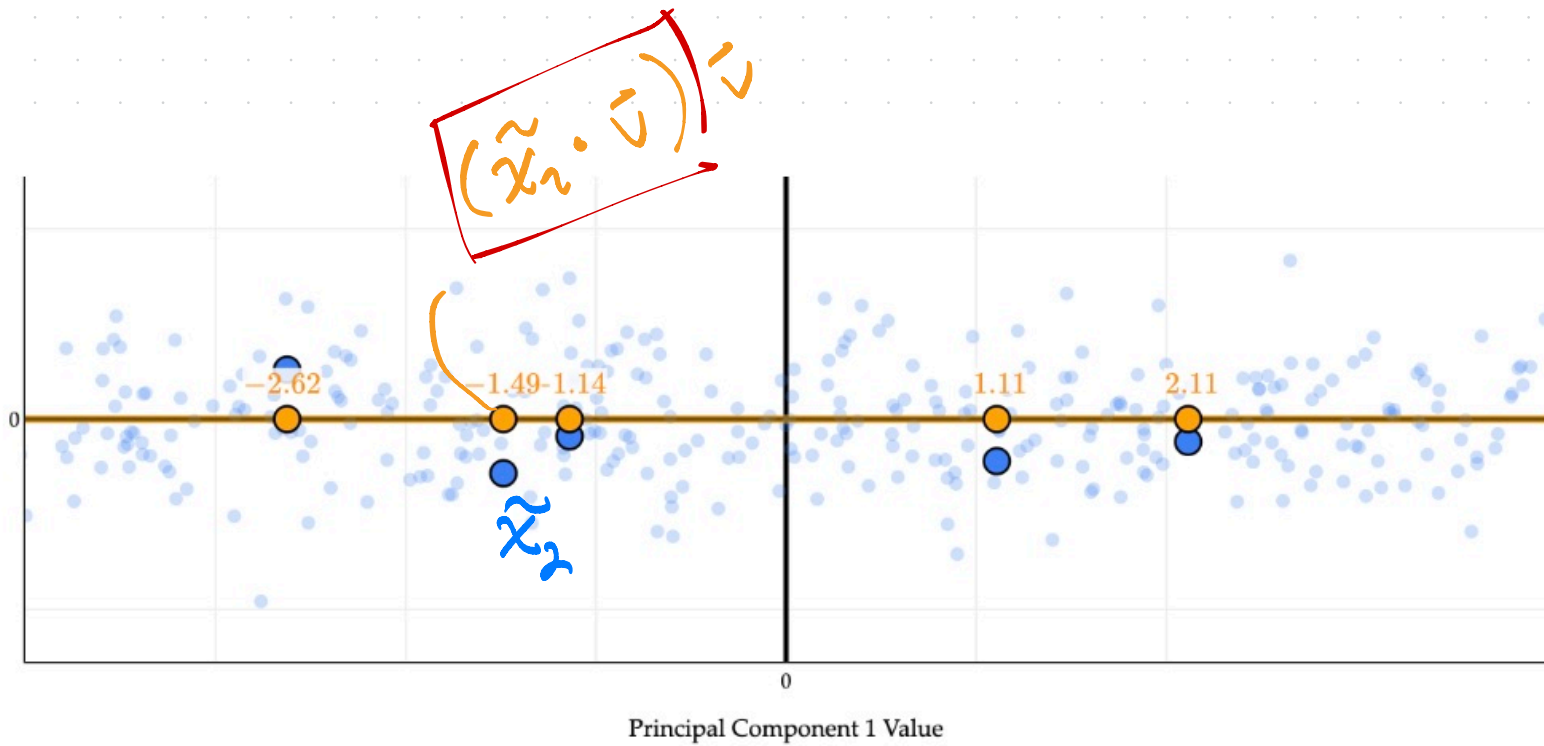
$$PV(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v})^2$$

"projected variance" of new feature values

new feature_i = $\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}$

$$\sigma_x^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

but these new feature values
have a mean of 0!



$$PV(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v})^2$$

projected variance

→ Goal: Find the \vec{v} that maximizes $PV(\vec{v})$

→ why is this easier than finding the \vec{v} that minimizes $J(\vec{v})$?

→ Insight:

$$PV(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \|\tilde{X}\vec{v}\|^2$$

→ How does this help?

Aside

$$\underline{\tilde{x}}_1 \cdot \vec{v}, \quad \underline{\tilde{x}}_2 \cdot \vec{v}, \quad \dots, \quad \underline{\tilde{x}}_n \cdot \vec{v}$$

→ these are the dot products of the
with \vec{v}

→ these all get computed when we multiply

$$\tilde{X} \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_1 \cdot \vec{v} \\ \tilde{x}_2 \cdot \vec{v} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{x}_n \cdot \vec{v} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{X} = \begin{bmatrix} -\tilde{x}_1^T - \\ -\tilde{x}_2^T - \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

rows of \tilde{X}

Goal: Maximize

$$PV(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{n} \|\tilde{X}\vec{v}\|^2,$$

or equivalently just $\|\tilde{X}\vec{v}\|^2$

Subject to the constraint that $\|\vec{v}\| = 1$

→ Issue: constrained optimization is complicated,
not in scope for us

+ but... there's a solution!

Goal:

$$\text{maximize } \|\tilde{\chi} \vec{v}\|^2 \text{ subject to } \|\vec{v}\| = 1$$

Equivalent goal:

$$\text{maximize } f(\vec{v}) = \frac{\|\tilde{\chi} \vec{v}\|^2}{\|\vec{v}\|^2}$$

if \vec{v} not a unit vector, its length
cancels out in $\frac{\text{numerator}}{\text{denominator}}$

Goal: maximize

$\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$

$$f(\vec{v}) = \frac{\|\tilde{\chi}\vec{v}\|^2}{\|\vec{v}\|^2} = \frac{\vec{v}^T \tilde{\chi}^T \tilde{\chi} \vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|^2}$$

Now, take gradient of $f(\vec{v})$!

$$\nabla f(\vec{v}) = \frac{2}{\|\vec{v}\|^2} (\tilde{\chi}^T \tilde{\chi} \vec{v} - f(\vec{v}) \vec{v})$$

set to 0: $\tilde{\chi}^T \tilde{\chi} \vec{v} - f(\vec{v}) \vec{v} = \vec{0}$

$$\tilde{\chi}^T \tilde{\chi} \vec{v} = f(\vec{v}) \vec{v}$$

see HW 8 gradient
problem
for derivation

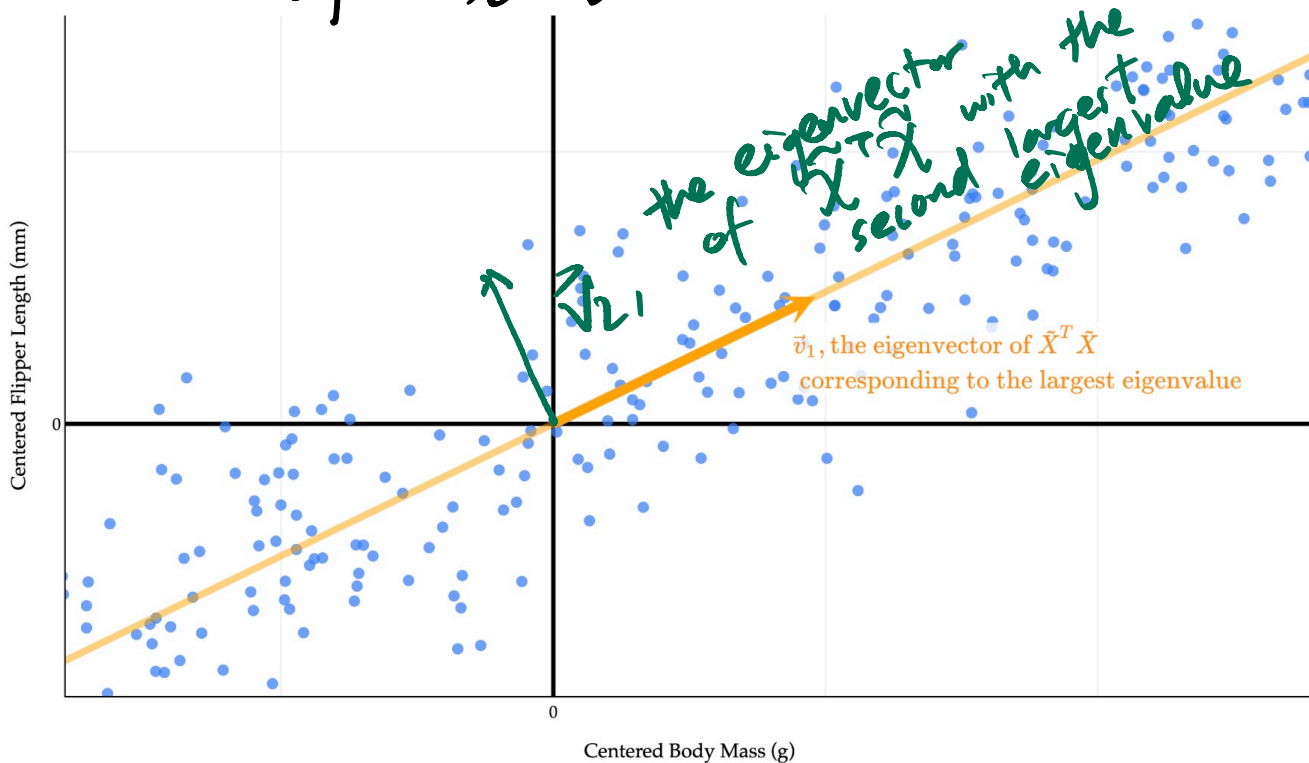
$$\tilde{X}^T \tilde{X} \vec{v} = f(\vec{v}) \vec{v}$$

- If \vec{v} maximizes $f(\vec{v})$, it satisfies the above equation

- Look carefully: it is saying \vec{v} is an eigenvector of $\tilde{X}^T \tilde{X}$!

- If we want to maximize $f(\vec{v})$, choose \vec{v} to be the eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue!

Important: in the SVD of \tilde{X} ,
the first column of V is the eigenvector
of $\tilde{X}^T \tilde{X}$ with the largest eigenvalue!!!



$$(\text{new feature 1})_i = (\tilde{X} \vec{v}_1)_i = \tilde{x}_i \cdot \vec{v}_1$$

where \vec{v}_1 is first column of V in

$$\tilde{X} = U \Sigma V^T$$

$$(\text{new feature 2})_i = (\tilde{X} \vec{v}_2)_i$$

$V^T V = I$,
so the columns of
 V are unit vectors
and orthogonal to
one another

Principal components analysis

- "Principal component" = "new feature"
- "Principal components analysis" = act of producing several new features, e.g. for visualization, or for model building

To do PCA, first, construct \tilde{X} by mean-centering \bar{X} .
Then, $\tilde{X} = U \Sigma V^T$ find the SVD of \tilde{X} .

Then,

$$\text{PC } j = \tilde{X} \vec{v}_j = \sigma_j \vec{u}_j$$

(new feature j)

my data

tells me what linear combination of my original features is "best"

