

# Introduction to Data Science

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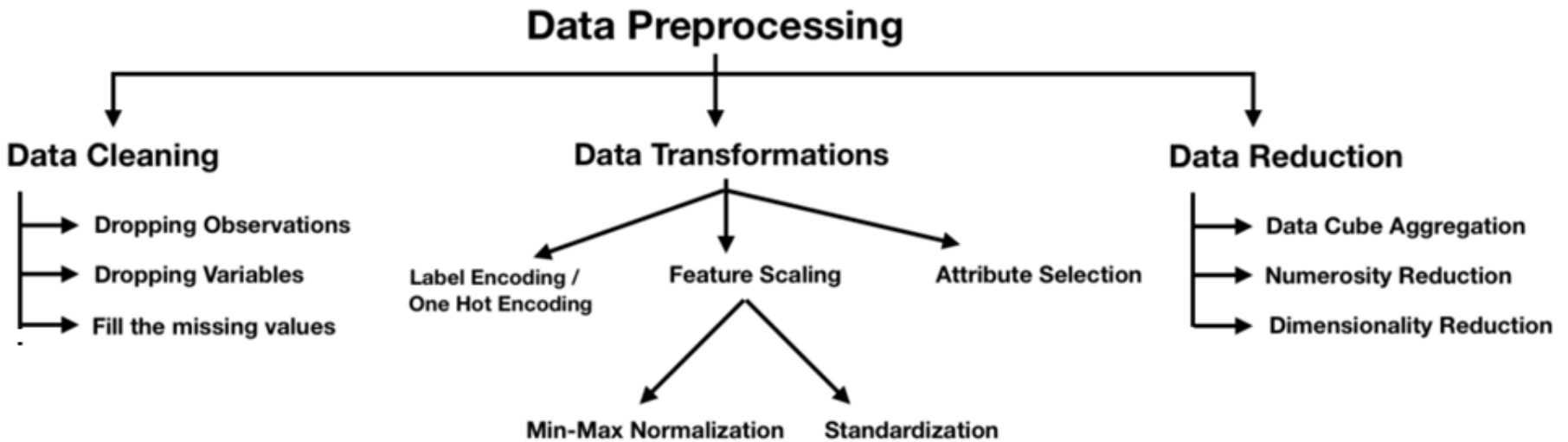
UET, Lahore

(Week 14; April 22 - 26, 2024)

# Outline

- Eigenvectors
- Dimensionality Reduction
  - Principle Component Analysis
  - Singular Value Decomposition

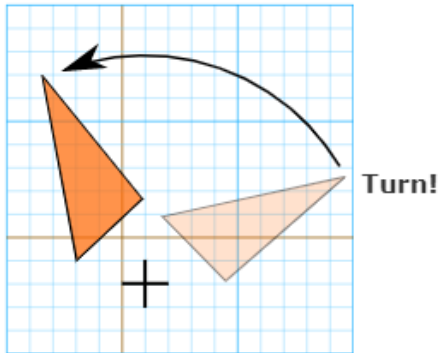
# Data Preprocessing



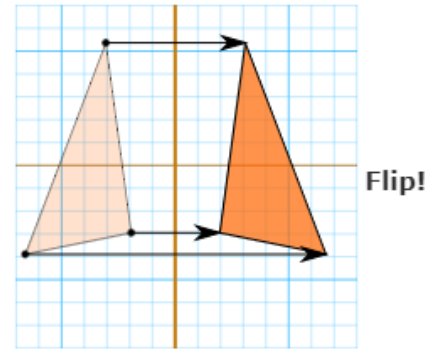
# Transformation

- In geometry, transformation refers to the **movement of objects in the coordinate plane**.
- In mathematics, a transformation is a function  $f$  (usually with some geometrical meanings) that maps a set  $X$  to itself.

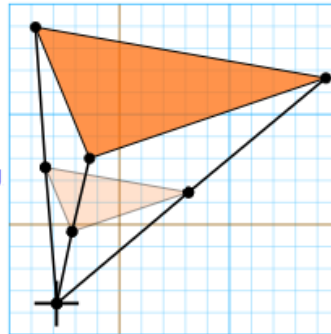
Rotation



Reflection

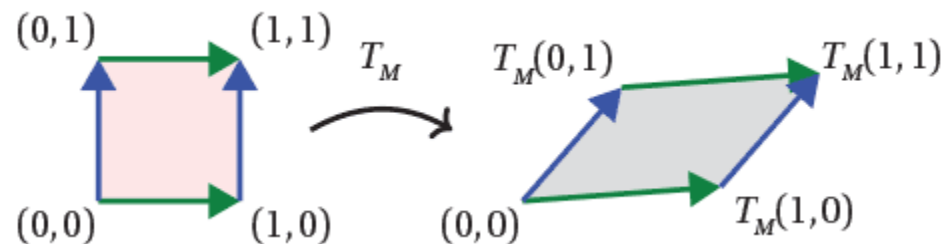
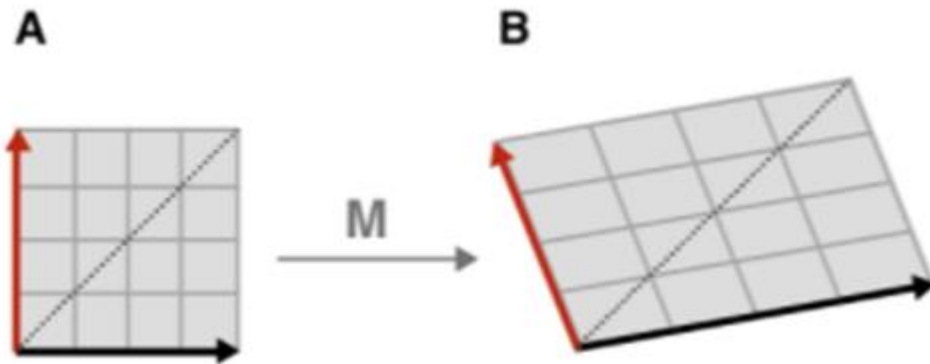


Resizing



# Linear Transformation

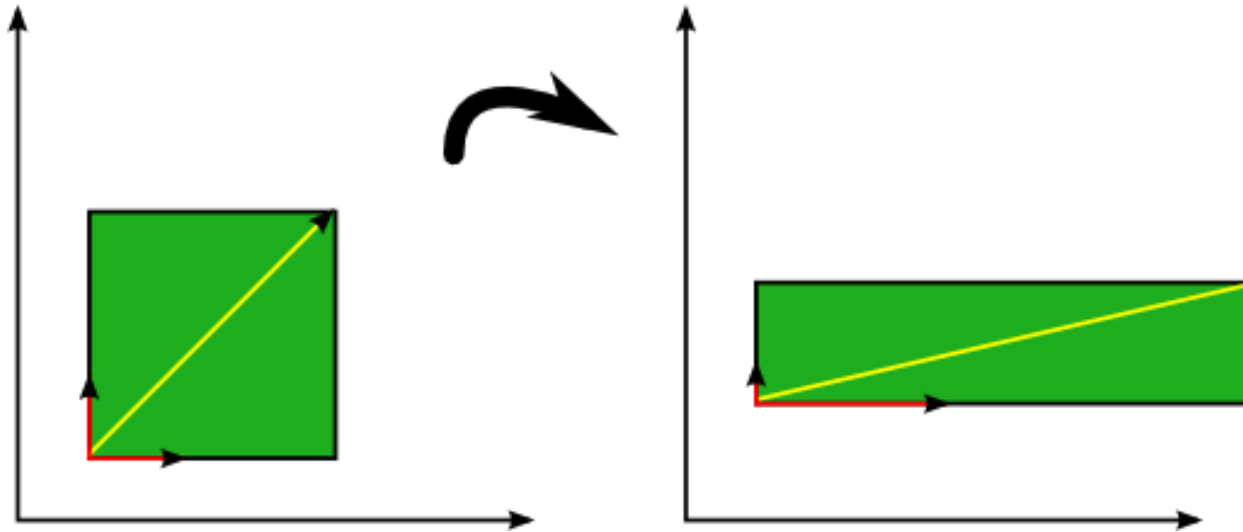
- A **linear transformation** is one in which a straight line before the transformation results in a straight line after the transformation.



# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

- In linear algebra, an **eigenvector** or **characteristic vector** of a linear transformation is a nonzero vector that **changes at most by a scalar factor** when that linear transformation is applied to it.
- The corresponding **eigenvalue**, often denoted by  $\lambda$  (Lambda) is the factor by which the eigenvector is scaled.

# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues



- An eigenvector is a vector whose direction remains unchanged when a linear transformation is applied to it. (Eigen means **Specific** in German)
- The transformation in this case is a simple scaling with factor 2 in the horizontal direction and factor 0.5 in the vertical direction, such that the transformation matrix  $A$  is defined as:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

- **Matrix:** A rectangular array of numbers.
- **Vector:** A matrix with a single column.
- **Eigenvector:** Given a square matrix  $A$ , a vector  $v$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  if multiplying  $A$  by  $v$  results in a scaled version of  $v$ . In other words, the direction of  $v$  doesn't change. Mathematically:  
$$A \cdot v = \lambda \cdot v$$
where  $\lambda$  is a scalar.
- **Eigenvalue:** The scalar  $\lambda$  is the eigenvalue corresponding to the eigenvector  $v$ .
  - An **eigenvector** defines a *direction* in which a space is **scaled** by a transform.
  - An **eigenvalue** defines a *length* of scaled change related to the eigenvector.



# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

In general, the eigenvector  $\vec{v}$  of a matrix  $A$  is the vector for which the following holds:

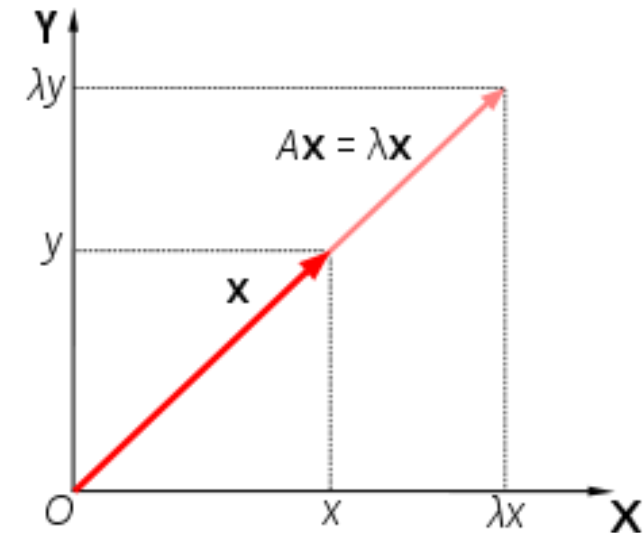
$$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$$

where  $\lambda$  is a scalar value called the ‘eigenvalue’. This means that the linear transformation  $A$  on vector  $\vec{v}$  is completely defined by  $\lambda$ .

$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{v} - \lambda\vec{v} &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \vec{v}(A - \lambda I) &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $I$  is the identity matrix of the same dimensions as  $A$ .

# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues



$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

Diagram illustrating the equation  $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ . Arrows point from the labels below to the terms in the equation: "Matrix" points to  $A$ , "Eigenvector" points to  $\mathbf{v}$ , and "Eigenvalue" points to  $\lambda$ .

Example: For this matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} -6 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

an eigenvector is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

with a matching eigenvalue of 6

$A\mathbf{v}$  gives us:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -6 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \times 1 + 3 \times 4 \\ 4 \times 1 + 5 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 24 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\lambda\mathbf{v}$  gives us :

$$6 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 24 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

Start with  $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\left| \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right| = 0$$

Which is:

$$\begin{vmatrix} -6-\lambda & 3 \\ 4 & 5-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

Calculating that determinant gets:

$$(-6-\lambda)(5-\lambda) - 3 \times 4 = 0$$

Which then gets us this [Quadratic Equation](#):

$$\lambda^2 + \lambda - 42 = 0$$

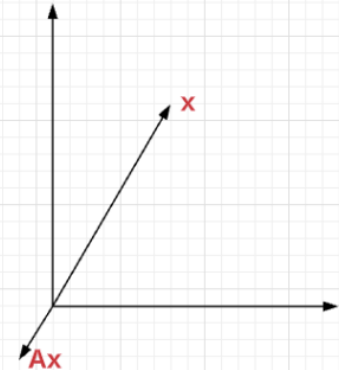
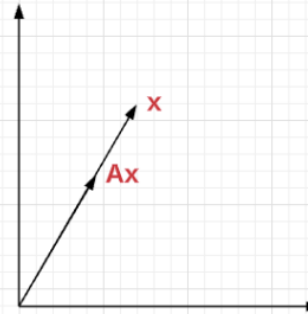
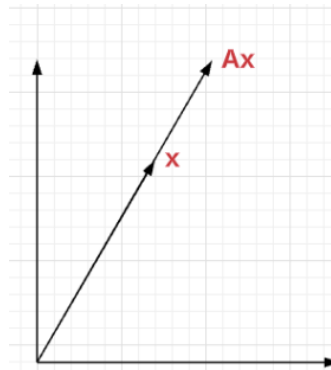
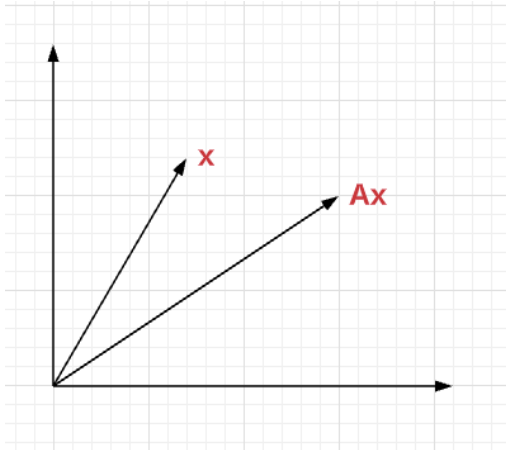
And [solving it](#) gets:

$$\lambda = -7 \text{ or } 6$$

And yes, there are **two** possible eigenvalues.

# Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

- When the matrix multiplication with vector results in another vector in the same/opposite direction but scaled in forward / reverse direction by a magnitude of scalar multiple (eigenvalue) then the vector is called the eigenvector of that matrix.
- The diagram representing the eigenvector  $x$  of matrix  $A$  because the vector  $Ax$  is in the same/opposite direction of  $x$ .



# Eigenvectors in Data Science

- The concept of Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues is used to determine a set of important variables (in form of vector) along with **scale along different dimensions** (key dimensions based on variance) for analyzing the data in a better manner.



When you look at the picture (data) and identify it as tiger, what are some of the key information (dimensions / principal components) you use to call it out as tiger? Is it not body, face, legs etc. information?

# Eigenvectors in Data Science

- Predicting the stock prices
  - This is a machine learning / predictive analytics problem. Here the dependent value is stock price and there are a large number of independent variables on which the stock price depends.
- Can we use the information stored in these variables and **extract a smaller set of variables** (features) to train the models and do the prediction while ensuring that most of the information contained in the original variables is retained / maintained.

# Dimensionality Reduction

- Dimensionality reduction is the process of reducing the number of random variables under consideration, by obtaining **a set of principal variables**.
- The **number of input variables or features** for a dataset is referred to as its **dimensionality**.
- More input features often make a predictive modeling task more challenging to model.
- Sometimes, most of these features are correlated, and hence redundant

# Dimensionality Reduction Methods

- The various methods used for dimensionality reduction include:
  - Principal Component Analysis
  - Singular Value Decomposition

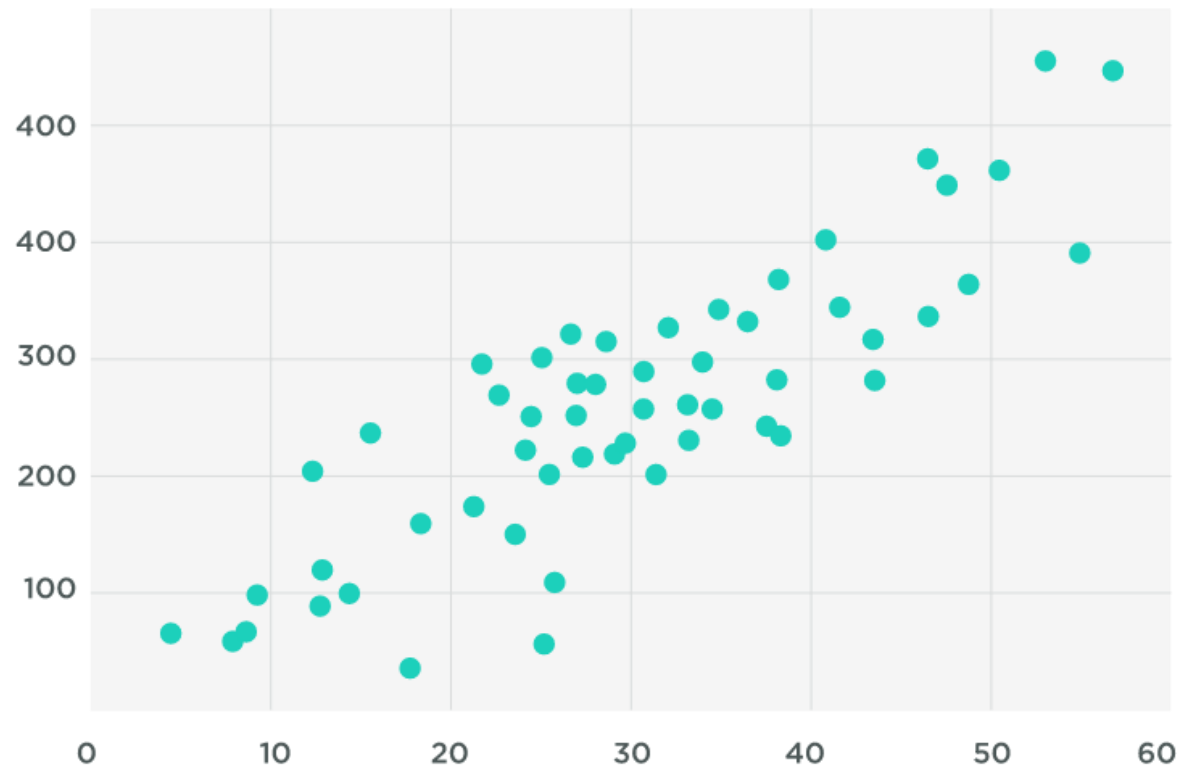


# Principal Component Analysis

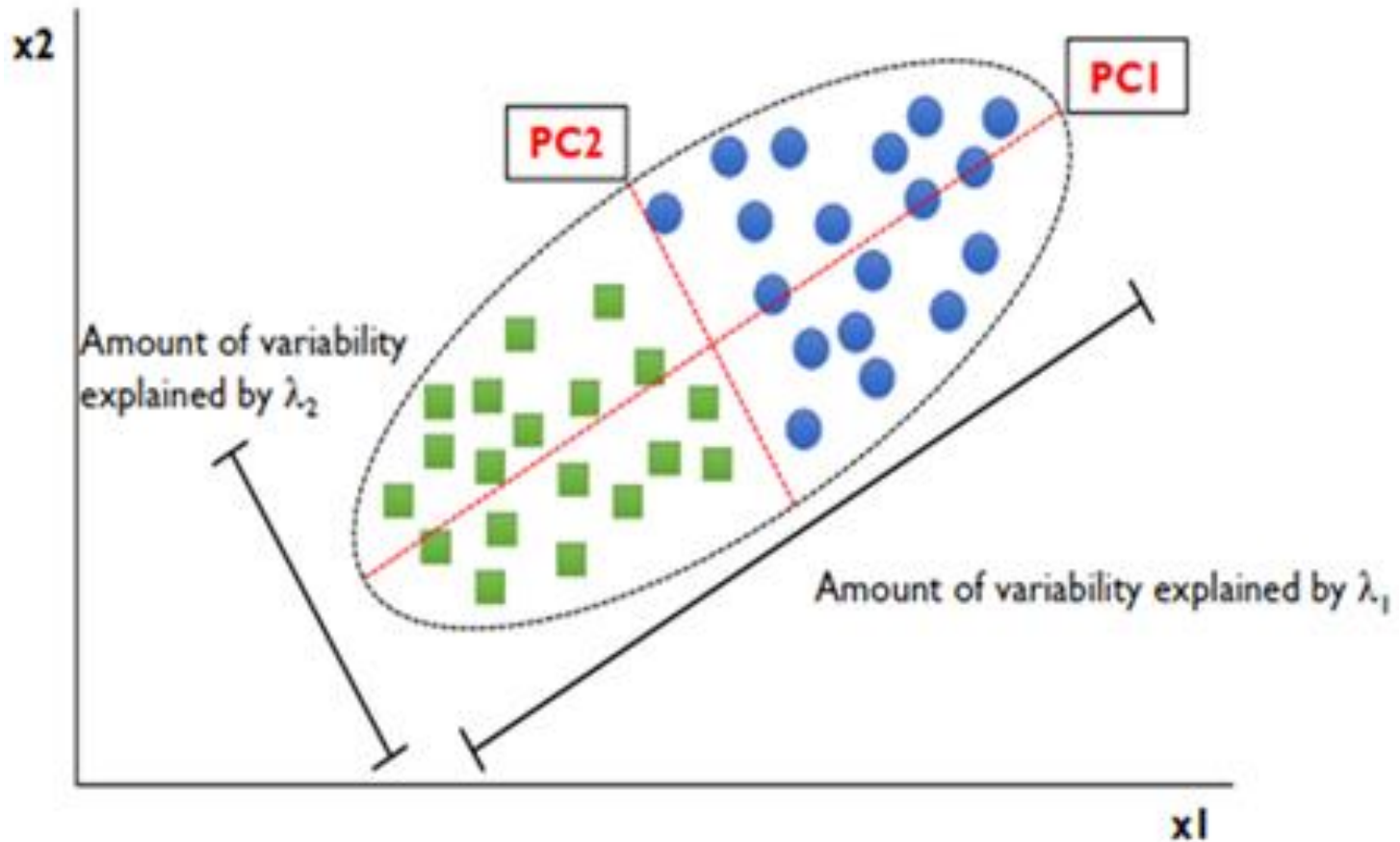
- Principal Component Analysis, or PCA, is a dimensionality-reduction method that is often used to reduce the dimensionality of large data sets, by **transforming** a large set of variables into a smaller one that still contains most of the information of the large set.
- Reducing the number of variables of a data set naturally comes at the expense of accuracy, but **the trick in dimensionality reduction is to trade a little accuracy for simplicity.**
- So, to sum up, the idea of PCA is simple — **reduce the number of variables of a data set**, while preserving as much information as possible.

# Principal Component Analysis

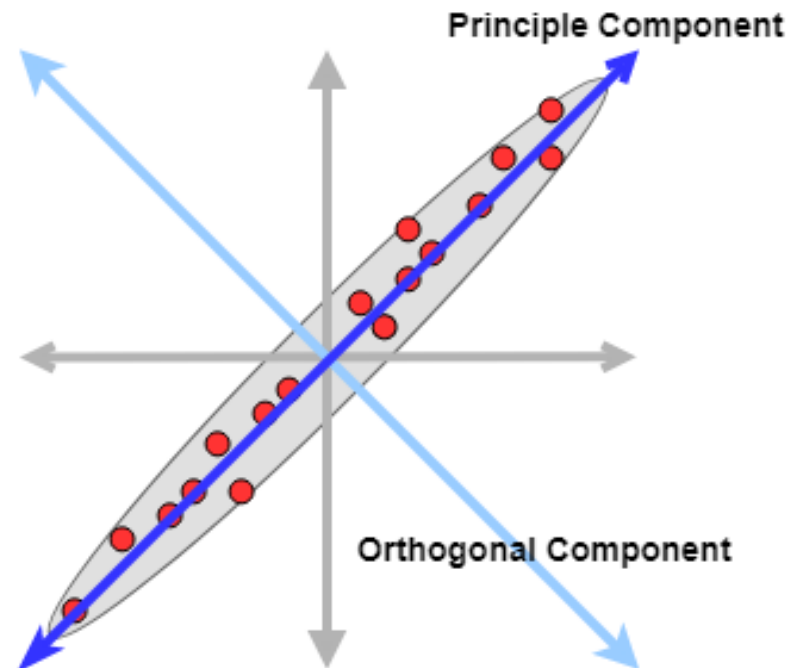
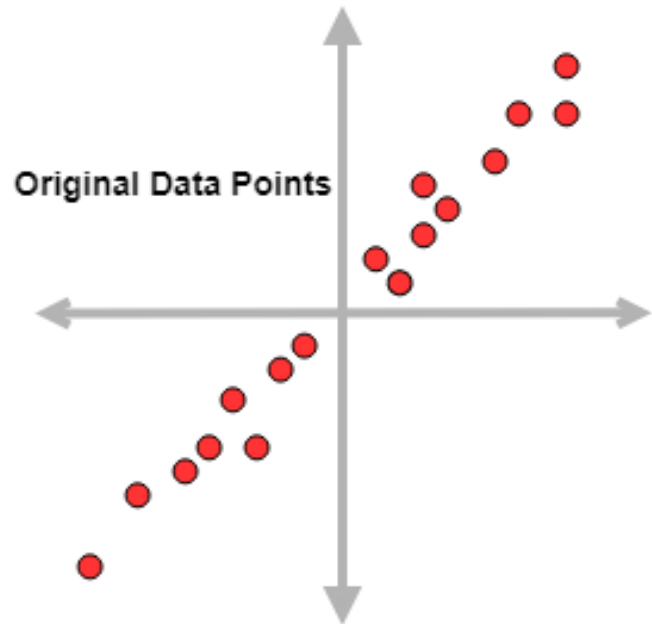
In what direction we can find more information?



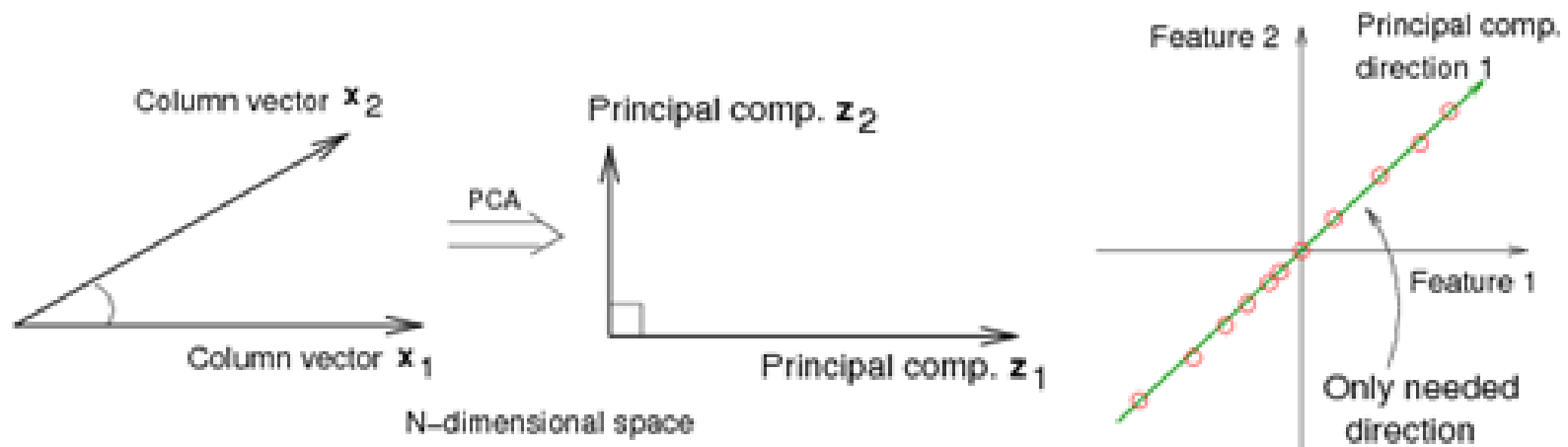
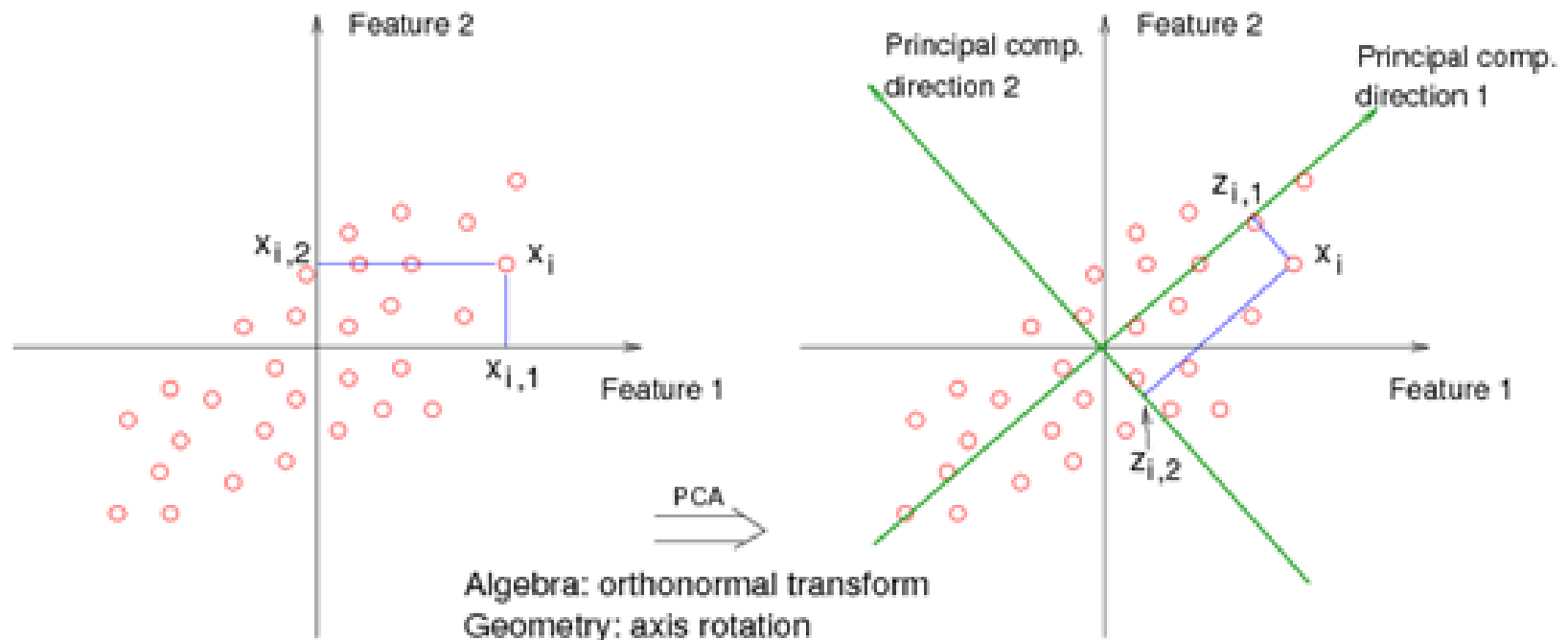
# Principal Component Analysis



# Principal Component Analysis

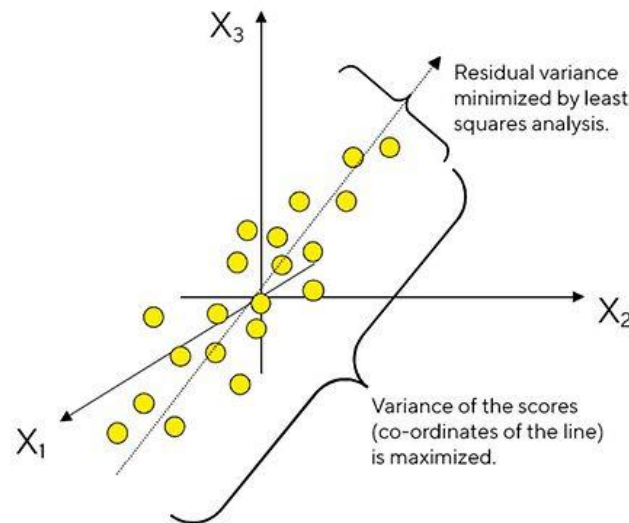


# Principal Component Analysis



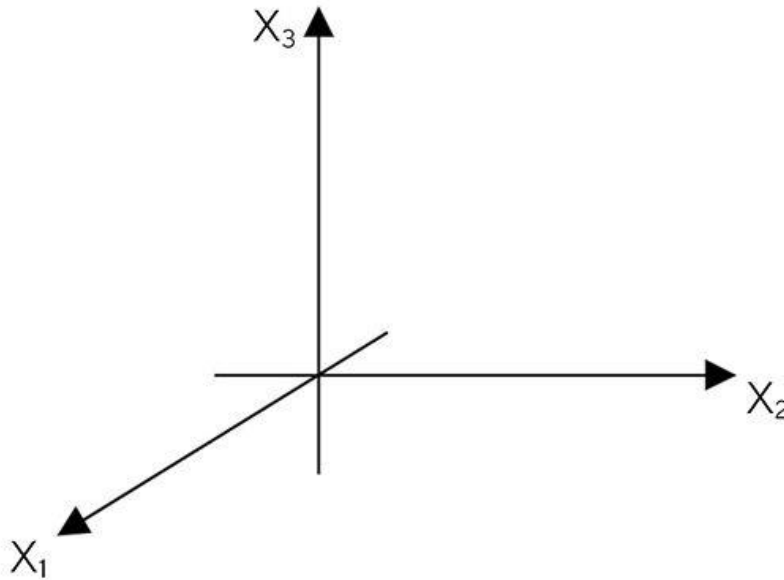
# Principal Component Analysis

- Statistically, PCA finds lines, planes and hyper-planes in the  $K$ -dimensional space that approximate the data as well as possible in the least squares sense.
- A line or plane that is the least squares approximation of a set of data points makes the **variance of the coordinates** on the line or plane as large as possible.
- Eigenvectors of a matrix are **directions of maximum spread** or variance of data



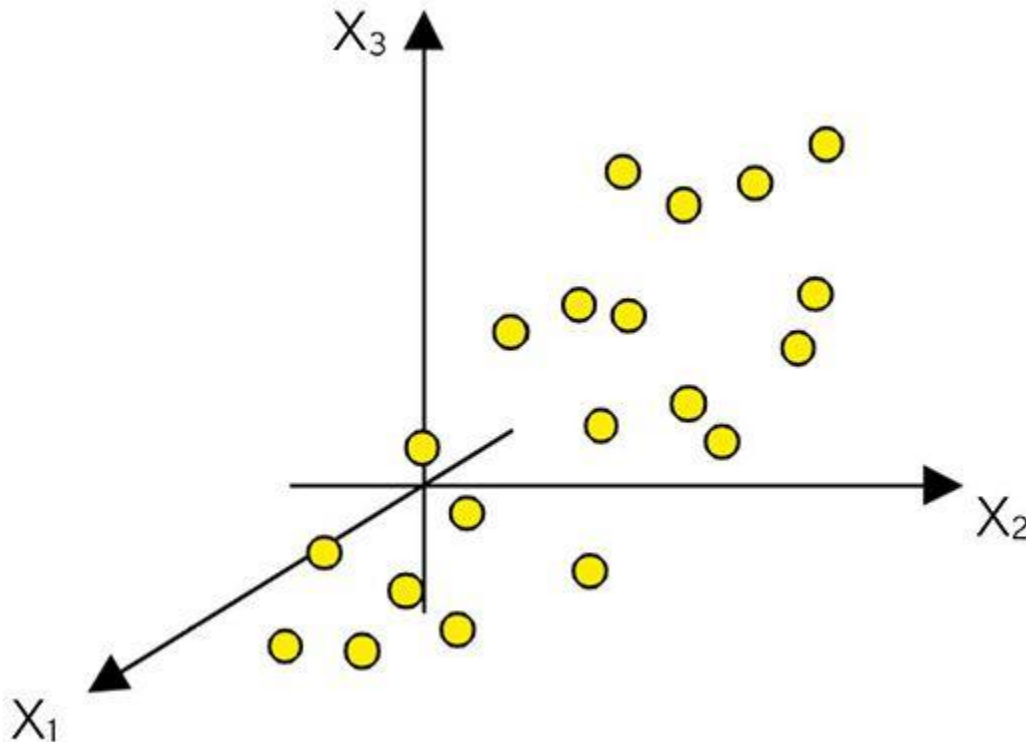
# How PCA Works?

- Consider a matrix  $X$  with  $N$  rows (aka "observations") and  $K$  columns (aka "variables").
- For this matrix, we construct a variable space with as many dimensions as there are variables, i.e.,  $K$ .
- Each variable represents one coordinate axis.



# How PCA Works?

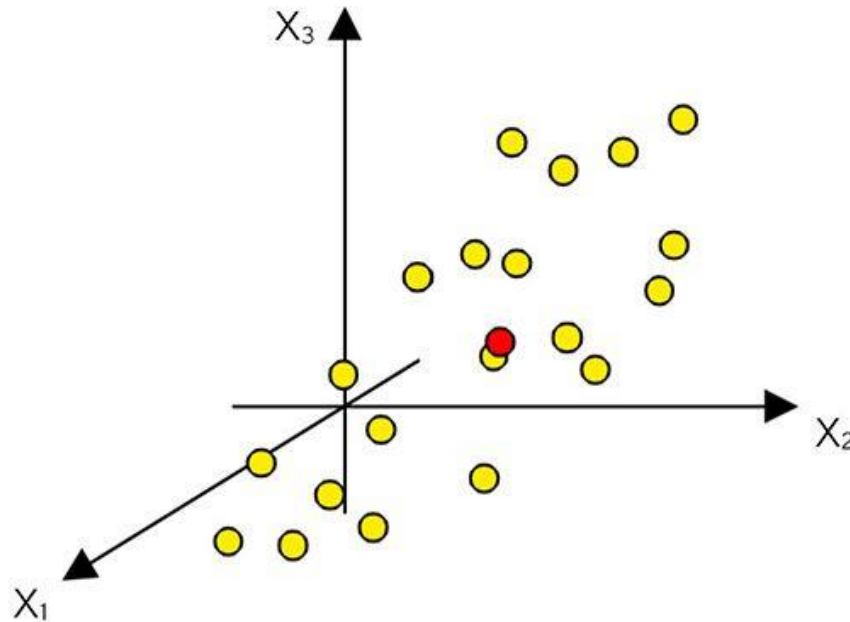
- In the next step, each observation (row) of the  $X$ -matrix is placed in the  $K$ -dimensional variable space.





# How PCA Works?

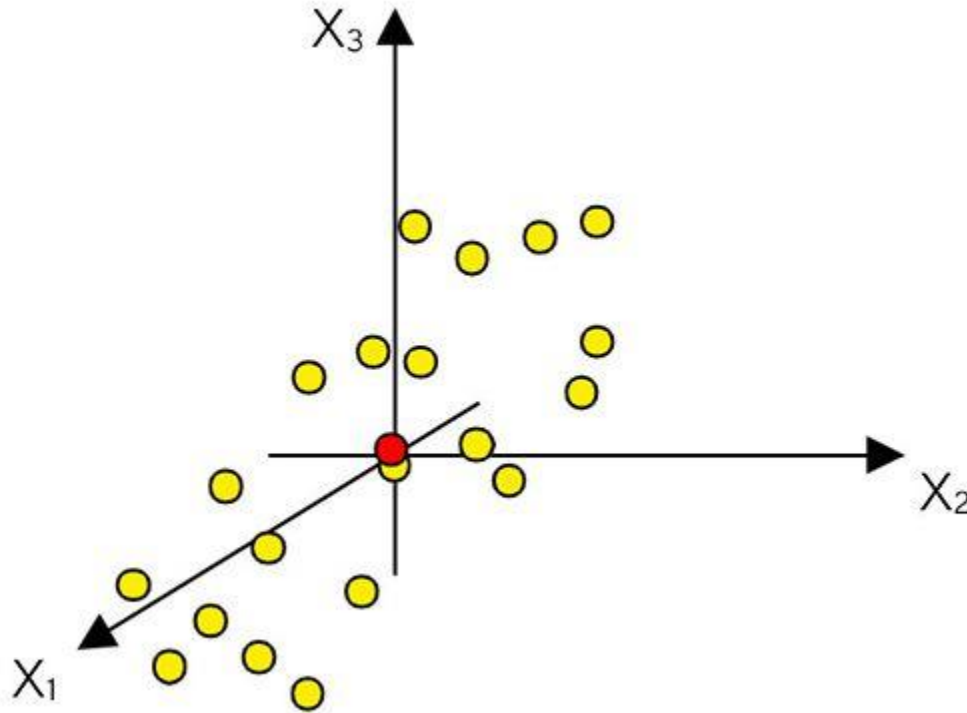
- Next, mean-centering involves the subtraction of the variable averages from the data. The vector of averages corresponds to a point in the K-space.



In the **mean-centering procedure**, we first compute the variable averages. This vector of averages is interpretable as a point (here in red) in space.

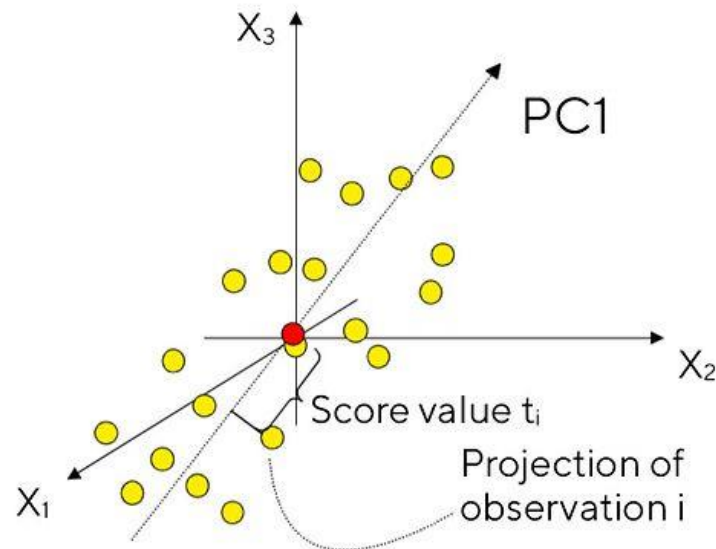
# How PCA Works?

- The subtraction of the averages from the data corresponds to a re-positioning of the coordinate system, such that the average point now is the origin.



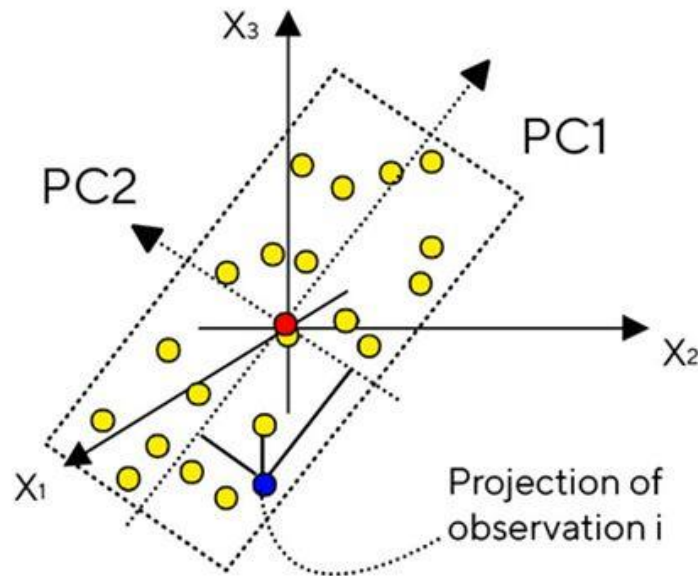
# How PCA Works?

- The **first principal component (PC1)** is the line in the  $K$ -dimensional variable space that best approximates the data in the least squares sense.
- This **line goes through the average point**. Each observation (yellow dot) may now be projected onto this line in order to get a coordinate value along the PC-line. This new coordinate value is also known as the score.



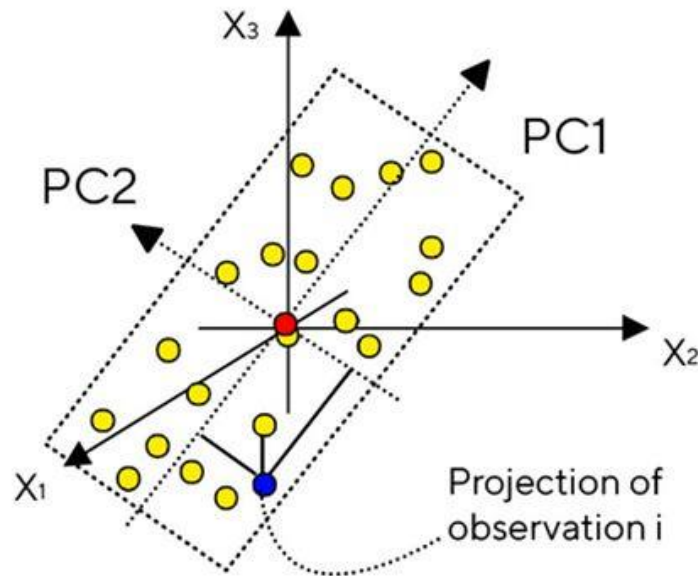
# How PCA Works?

- One principal component is insufficient to model the systematic variation of a data set. Thus, a second **principal component (PC2)** is calculated.
- PC2 is also represented by a line in the K-dimensional variable space, which is **orthogonal to the first PC (i.e., PC1)**. This line also passes through the average point, and improves the approximation of the X-data as much as possible



# How PCA Works?

- Two PCs form a plane. This plane is a window into the multidimensional space, which can be visualized graphically. Each observation may be projected onto this plane, giving a score for each.



# PCA Working Example

- Standardize the dataset.
- Calculate the **covariance matrix** for the features in the dataset.
- Calculate the **eigenvalues and eigenvectors** for the covariance matrix.
- Sort eigenvalues and their corresponding eigenvectors.
- Pick  $k$  eigenvalues and form a matrix of eigenvectors.
- Transform the original matrix.

# Principal Component Analysis

## PCA

Large Table

X1	X2	X3	X4	X5
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*
*	*	*	*	*

Covariance matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenstuff

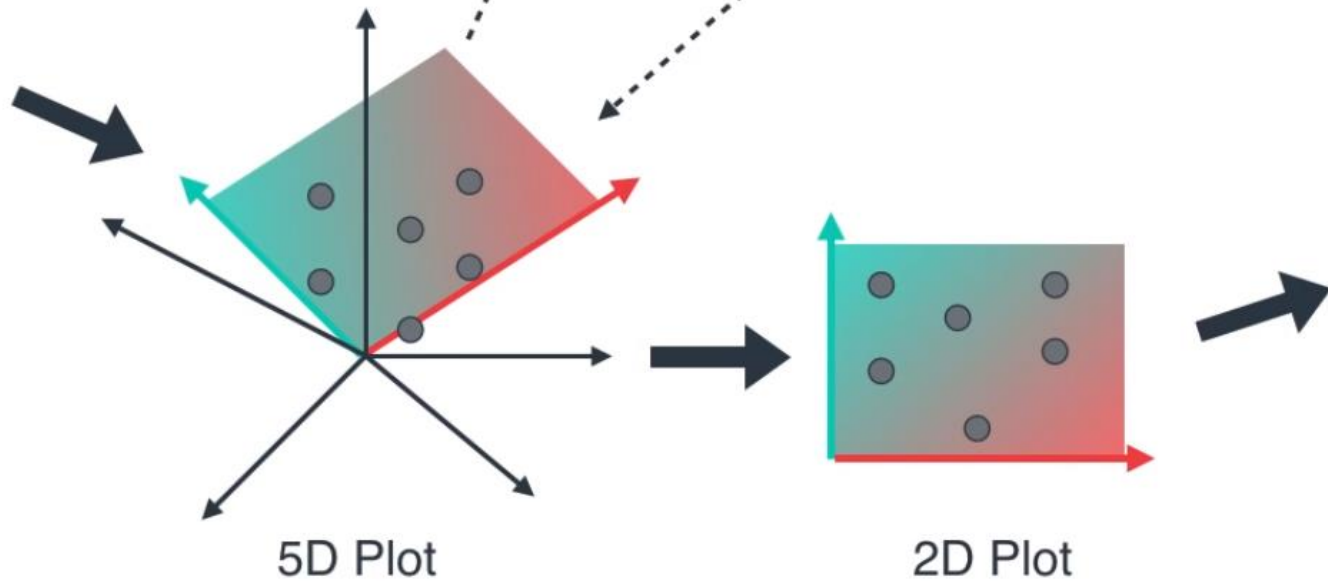
$V_1$   $\lambda_1$   
 $V_2$   $\lambda_2$

Big

Small

Small Table

W1	W2
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*
*	*



# PCA Working Example: Data

- Dataset with 4 features and 5 observations

f1	f2	f3	f4
1	2	3	4
5	5	6	7
1	4	2	3
5	3	2	1
8	1	2	2

<https://medium.com/analytics-vidhya/understanding-principle-component-analysis-pca-step-by-step-e7a4bb4031d9>



# PCA Working Example: Step 1

- First, we need to standardize the dataset and for that, we need to calculate the mean and standard deviation for each feature.

$$x_{new} = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

f1	f2	f3	f4
1	2	3	4
5	5	6	7
1	4	2	3
5	3	2	1
8	1	2	2

	f1	f2	f3	f4
$\mu$ =	4	3	3	3.4
$\sigma$ =	3	1.58114	1.73205	2.30217

f1	f2	f3	f4
-1	-0.63246	0	0.26062
0.33333	1.26491	1.73205	1.56374
-1	0.63246	-0.57735	-0.17375
0.33333	0	-0.57735	-1.04249
1.33333	-1.26491	-0.57735	-0.60812

# PCA Working Example: Step 2

- Calculate the covariance matrix for the whole dataset.
- **Variance** is a measure of the variability or spread in a set of data.

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum (X - \mu)^2}{N}$$

- **Covariance** is a measure of the **joint variability** of two random variables. It is a measure of the relationship between two random variables. The metric evaluates how much – to what extent – the variables change together.

$$COV(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{n - 1}$$

## PCA Working Example: Step 2

- Calculate the covariance matrix for the whole dataset.
- The diagonal entries of the covariance matrix are the variances and the other entries are the covariances.

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_a & C_{a,b} & C_{a,c} & C_{a,d} & C_{a,e} \\ C_{a,b} & V_b & C_{b,c} & C_{b,d} & C_{b,e} \\ C_{a,c} & C_{b,c} & V_c & C_{c,d} & C_{c,e} \\ C_{a,d} & C_{b,d} & C_{c,d} & V_d & C_{d,e} \\ C_{a,e} & C_{b,e} & C_{c,e} & C_{d,e} & V_e \end{bmatrix}$$

# PCA Working Example: Step 2

- Calculate the covariance matrix for the whole dataset.

	f1	f2	f3	f4
f1	$\text{var}(f1)$	$\text{cov}(f1,f2)$	$\text{cov}(f1,f3)$	$\text{cov}(f1,f4)$
f2	$\text{cov}(f2,f1)$	$\text{var}(f2)$	$\text{cov}(f2,f3)$	$\text{cov}(f2,f4)$
f3	$\text{cov}(f3,f1)$	$\text{cov}(f3,f2)$	$\text{var}(f3)$	$\text{cov}(f3,f4)$
f4	$\text{cov}(f4,f1)$	$\text{cov}(f4,f2)$	$\text{cov}(f4,f3)$	$\text{var}(f4)$

	f1	f2	f3	f4
f1	0.8	-0.25298	0.03849	-0.14479
f2	-0.25298	0.8	0.51121	0.4945
f3	0.03849	0.51121	0.8	0.75236
f4	-0.14479	0.4945	0.75236	0.8

# PCA Working Example: Step 3

- Calculate eigenvalues and eigen vectors

	f1	f2	f3	f4
f1	$0.8 - \lambda$	-0.25298	0.03849	-0.14479
f2	-0.25298	$0.8 - \lambda$	0.51121	0.4945
f3	0.03849	0.51121	$0.8 - \lambda$	0.75236
f4	-0.14479	0.4945	0.75236	$0.8 - \lambda$

$$A - \lambda I = 0$$

$$\lambda = 2.51579324, 1.0652885, 0.39388704, 0.02503121$$

# PCA Working Example: Step 3

- Calculate eigenvalues and eigen vectors

Solving the  $(A-\lambda I)v = 0$  equation for  $v$  vector with different  $\lambda$  values:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.800000 - \lambda & -(0.252982) & 0.038490 & -(0.144791) \\ -(0.252982) & 0.800000 - \lambda & 0.511208 & 0.494498 \\ 0.038490 & 0.511208 & 0.800000 - \lambda & 0.752355 \\ -(0.144791) & 0.494498 & 0.752355 & 0.800000 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

For  $\lambda = 2.51579324$ , solving the above equation using Cramer's rule, the values for  $v$  vector are

$$v_1 = 0.16195986$$

$$v_2 = -0.52404813$$

$$v_3 = -0.58589647$$

$$v_4 = -0.59654663$$

# PCA Working Example: Step 3

- Calculate eigenvalues and eigen vectors

$$\lambda = 2.51579324, 1.0652885, 0.39388704, 0.02503121$$

e1	e2	e3	e4
0.161960	-0.917059	-0.307071	0.196162
-0.524048	0.206922	-0.817319	0.120610
-0.585896	-0.320539	0.188250	-0.720099
-0.596547	-0.115935	0.449733	0.654547

# PCA Working Example: Step 4

- Sort eigenvalues and their corresponding eigenvectors.

**Already Sorted**

$$\lambda = 2.51579324, 1.0652885, 0.39388704, 0.02503121$$

e1	e2	e3	e4
0.161960	-0.917059	-0.307071	0.196162
-0.524048	0.206922	-0.817319	0.120610
-0.585896	-0.320539	0.188250	-0.720099
-0.596547	-0.115935	0.449733	0.654547



# PCA Working Example: Step 5

- Pick  $k$  (here  $k=2$ ) eigenvalues and form a matrix of eigenvectors

	e1	e2
	0.161960	-0.917059
	-0.524048	0.206922
	-0.585896	-0.320539
	-0.596547	-0.115935

# PCA Working Example: Step 6

- Transform the original matrix.

Feature matrix \* top k eigenvectors = Transformed Data

f1	f2	f3	f4		e1	e2		nf1	nf2
-1.000000	-0.632456	0.000000	0.260623		0.161960	-0.917059		0.014003	0.755975
0.333333	1.264911	1.732051	1.563740	*	-0.524048	0.206922		-2.556534	-0.780432
-1.000000	0.632456	-0.577350	-0.173749		-0.585896	-0.320539	=	-0.051480	1.253135
0.333333	0.000000	-0.577350	-1.042493		-0.596547	-0.115935		1.014150	0.000239
1.333333	-1.264911	-0.577350	-0.608121					1.579861	-1.228917
			(5,4)		(4,2)			(5,2)	

# PCA: Important Notes

- PCA tries to summarize as much information as possible in the first PC, the rest in the second, and so on...
- PC's **do not have an interpretable meaning**, being a linear combination of features.
- Eigenvectors of the covariance matrix are actually directions of the axes where there is most variance.

# Advantages of PCA

- Eradication of correlated features.
- Speeds-up algorithm
- Reduces overfitting
- Improves visualization

# Disadvantages of PCA

- Less interpretable
- Data standardization is necessary
- Loss of Information

# Principal Component Analysis

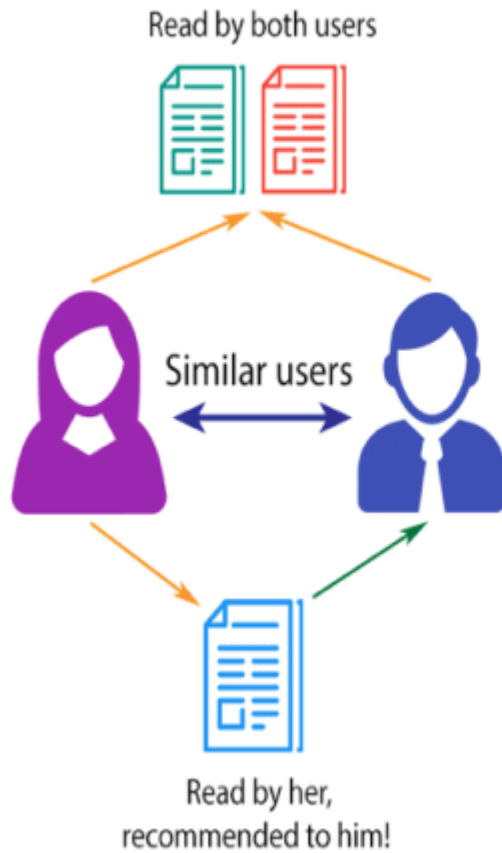
## Implementation

# Recommendation Systems

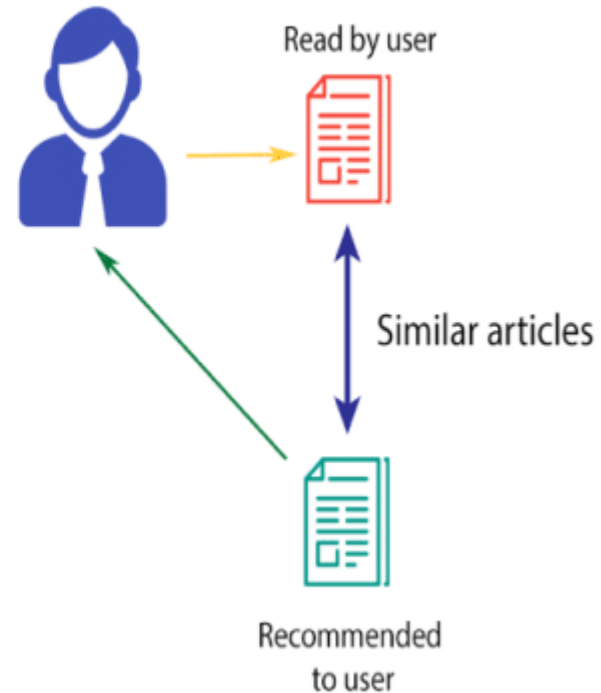
- Recommender systems are the systems that are designed to recommend things to the user based on different factors.
- These systems predict the most likely product that are of interest to the user.
- The recommender system deals with a large volume of information present by filtering the most important information based on the data provided by a user and other factors that take care of the user's preference and interest.

# Types of recommender Systems

## COLLABORATIVE FILTERING



## CONTENT-BASED FILTERING

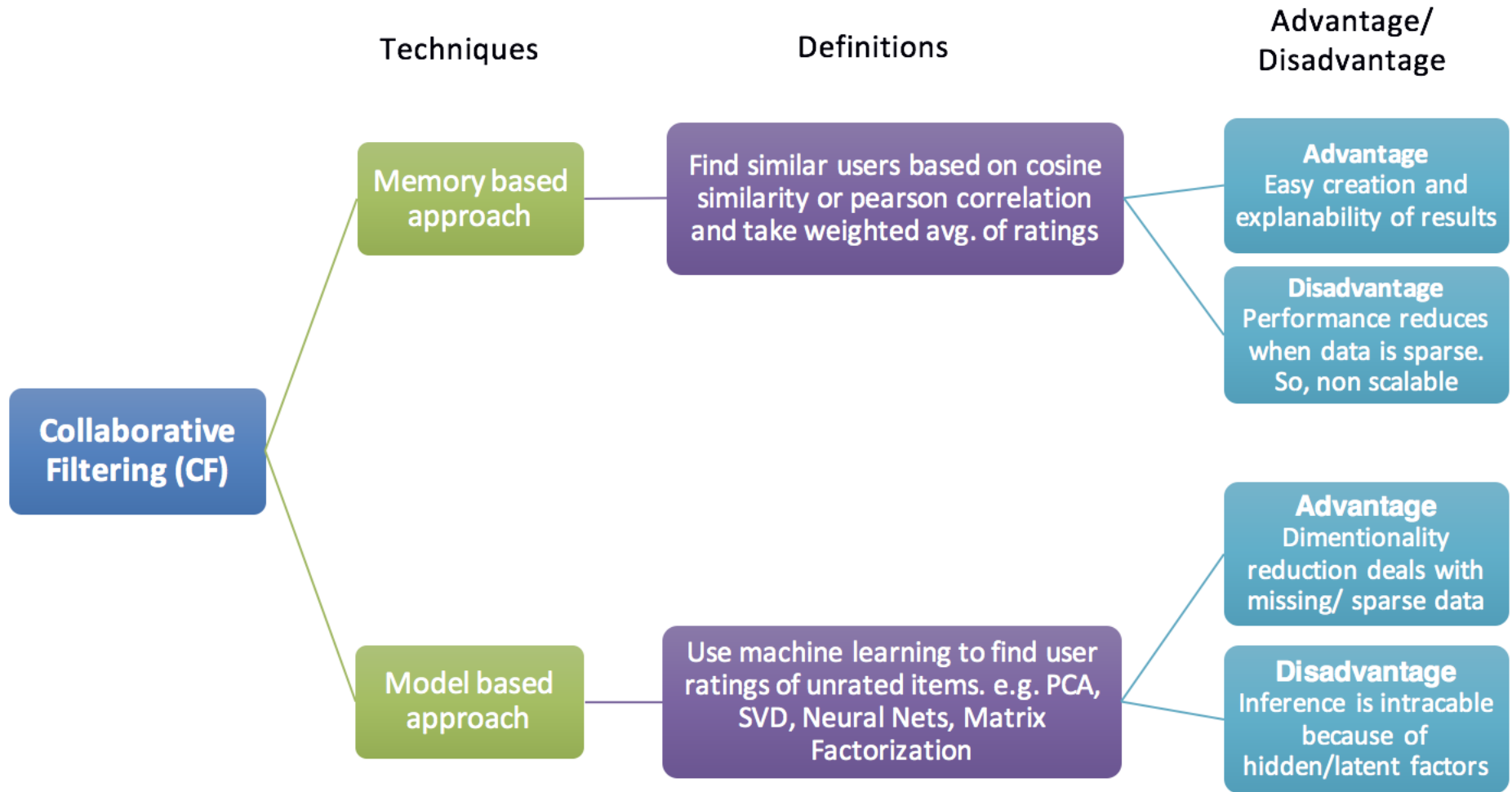




# Collaborative Filtering

- Collaborative filtering technique works by building a database (**user-item matrix**) of preferences for items by users.
- It then matches users with relevant interest and preferences by calculating similarities between their profiles to make recommendations. Such users build a group called neighborhood.
- A user gets recommendations to those items that he has not rated before but that were already positively rated by users in his neighborhood.

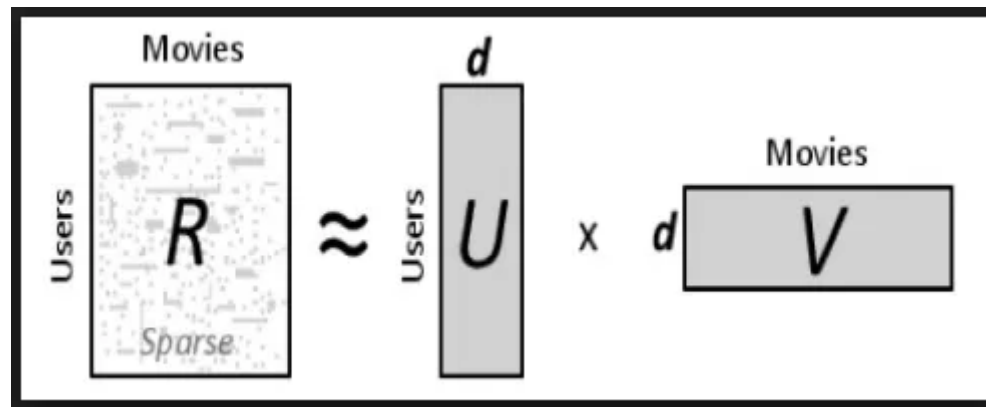
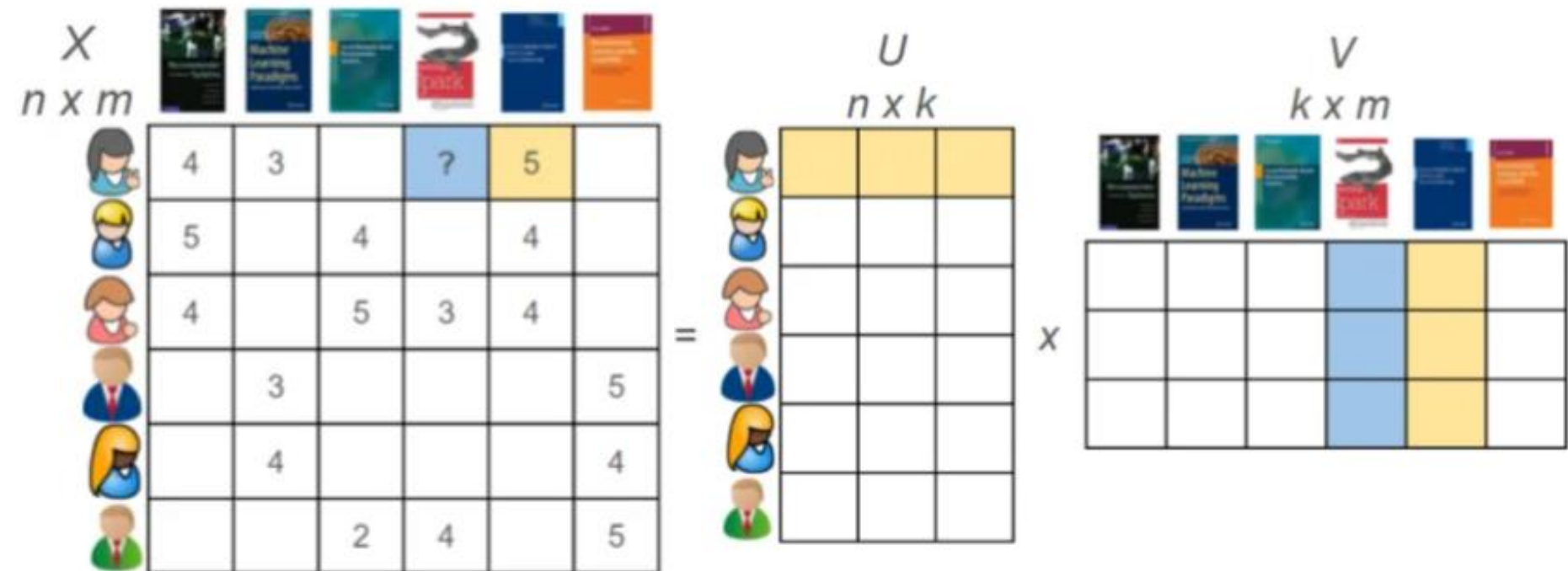
# Types of Collaborative Filtering



# Matrix Factorization

- Matrix factorization is used to factorize a matrix, i.e., to find out two (or more) matrices such that when you multiply them, you'll get back the original matrix.
- Matrix factorization can be used to discover features underlying the interactions between two different kinds of entities.
- One obvious application is to predict ratings in collaborative filtering—in other words, to recommend items to users.

# Matrix Factorization



# Singular Value Decomposition

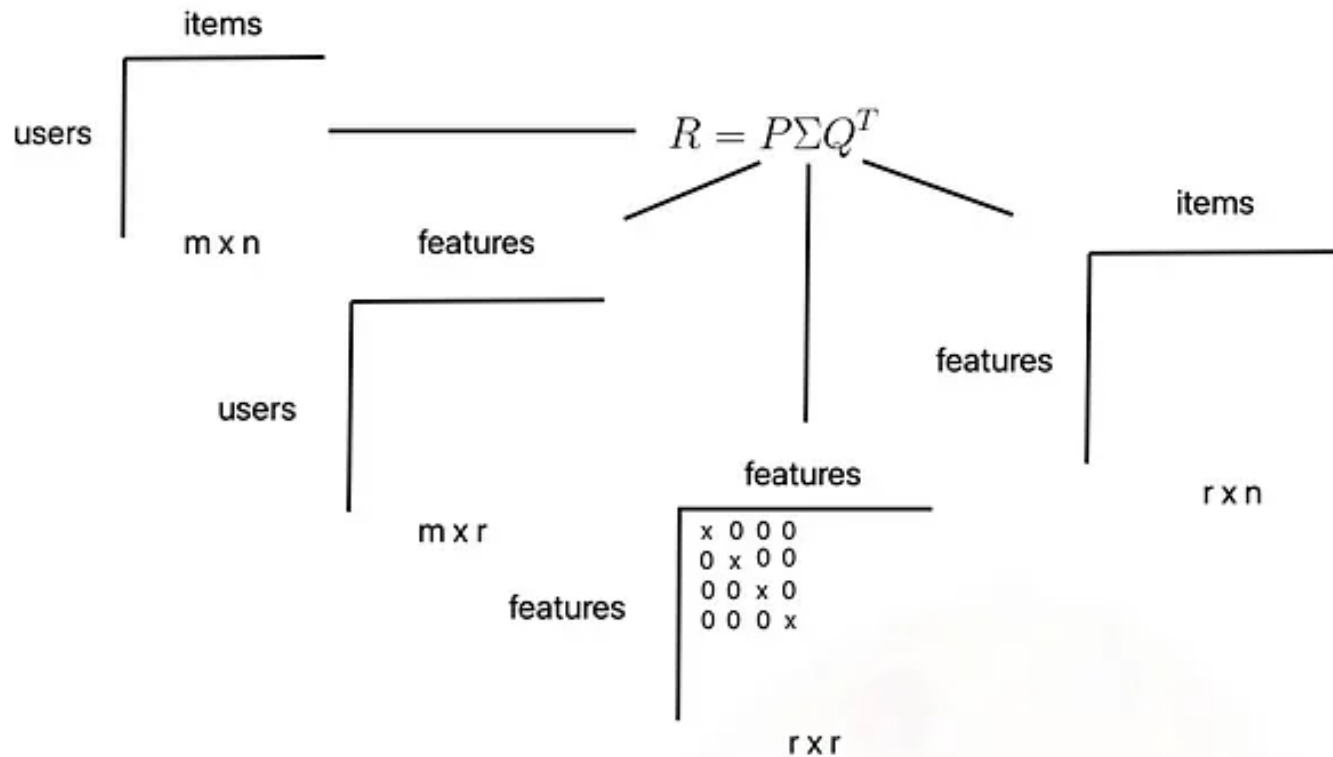
- When we have millions of users and/or items, computing pairwise correlations is expensive and slow.
- Is it possible to reduce the size of the ratings matrix?
- Is it really critical that we store every single item?
- For example, if a user liked a movie and its sequels (e.g. The Terminator, The Matrix). Do we really need to have a column in our ratings matrix for each movie?
- What if the set of movies could be represented using only  $k$  latent features where each feature corresponds to a category (e.g. genre) with common characteristics?

# Singular Value Decomposition

- Similarly, the users could be represented using  $k$  dimensions.
- We can think of each feature as a demographic group (e.g. age, occupation) with similar preferences.

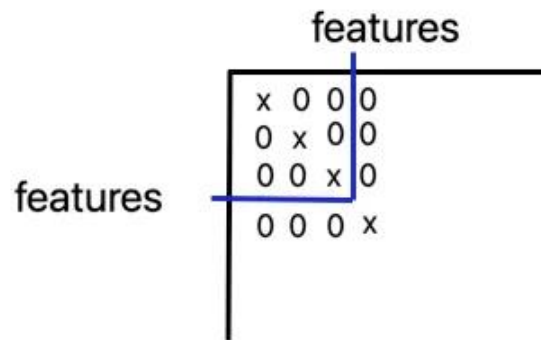
# Singular Value Decomposition

- Suppose we had a ratings matrix with **m users** and **n items**. We can factor the matrix into two other matrices P and Q, and a diagonal matrix Sigma.



# Singular Value Decomposition

- The key piece of information here is that each of the absolute values in the **diagonal matrix Sigma** represent how important the associated dimension is in terms of expressing the original ratings matrix.
- If we sort those values in descending order and pick top k (user defined) features, we can obtain the best approximation of the ratings matrix by multiplying the truncated matrices back together.

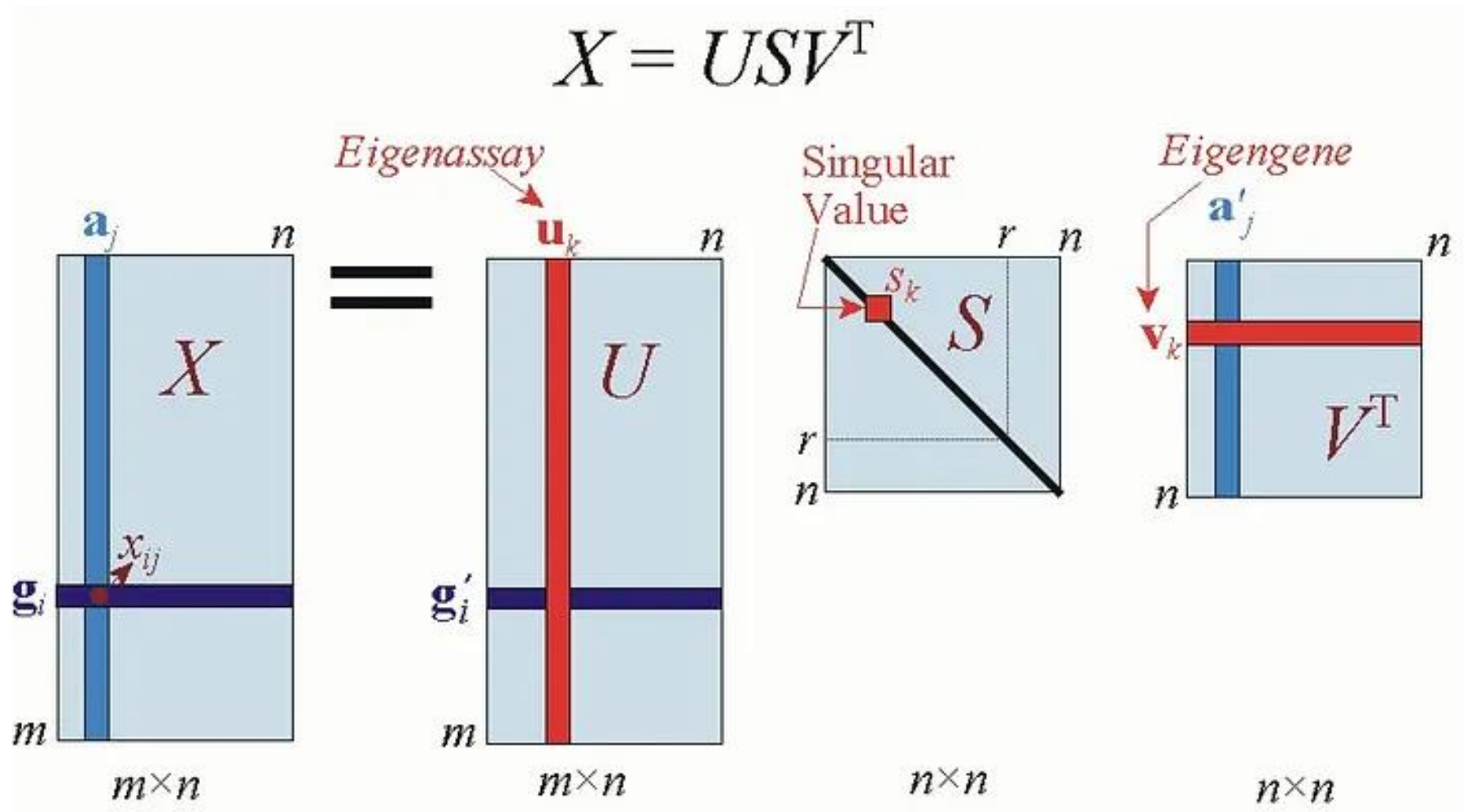




# Singular Value Decomposition

- The Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) of a matrix is a factorization of that matrix into **three** matrices.
- It has some interesting algebraic properties and conveys important geometrical and theoretical insights about linear transformations.

# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)



# Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

The diagram shows the equation  $A = U D V^T$ . Matrix  $A$  is represented by a rectangle with dimensions  $m \times n$ . Matrix  $U$  is a rectangle with dimensions  $m \times r$ . Matrix  $D$  is a square with dimensions  $r \times r$  and a dashed diagonal line. Matrix  $V^T$  is a rectangle with dimensions  $r \times n$ .

Rank: maximal number of linearly independent columns of  $A$

$$A_{[m \times n]} = U_{[m \times r]} \Sigma_{[r \times r]} (V_{[n \times r]})^T$$

- **A: Input (data) matrix**
  - $m \times n$  matrix (e.g.,  $m$  users,  $n$  products)
- **U: Left singular vectors**
  - $m \times r$  matrix (e.g.,  $m$  users,  $n$  'concepts')
- **$\Sigma$ : Singular values**
  - $r \times r$  diagonal matrix (strength of each 'concept')
    - ✓ ( $r$ : rank of matrix  $A$ )
- **V: Right singular vectors**
  - $n \times r$  matrix ( $n$  products,  $r$  'concepts')

# SVD: Example

	Data	Information	Retrieval	Brain	Lungs
<b>CS1</b>	1	1	1	0	0
<b>CS2</b>	2	2	2	0	0
<b>CS3</b>	1	1	1	0	0
<b>CS4</b>	5	5	5	0	0
<b>MD1</b>	0	0	0	2	2
<b>MD2</b>	0	0	0	3	3
<b>MD3</b>	0	0	0	1	1

# SVD: Example

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \uparrow \\
 \text{CS} \\
 \downarrow \\
 \uparrow \\
 \text{MD} \\
 \downarrow
 \end{array}
 \begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & \text{retrieval} & & \\
 & \text{data} & \text{inf.} \downarrow & \text{brain} & \text{lung} \\
 \begin{bmatrix}
 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 5 & 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1
 \end{bmatrix}
 & = &
 \begin{bmatrix}
 0.18 & 0 \\
 0.36 & 0 \\
 0.18 & 0 \\
 0.90 & 0 \\
 0 & 0.53 \\
 0 & 0.80 \\
 0 & 0.27
 \end{bmatrix}
 & \times &
 \begin{bmatrix}
 9.64 & 0 \\
 0 & 5.29
 \end{bmatrix}
 & \times &
 \begin{bmatrix}
 0.58 & 0.58 & 0.58 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.71 & 0.71
 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

# SVD: Example

$$\mathbf{A}_{[n \times m]} = \mathbf{U}_{[n \times r]} \mathbf{\Lambda}_{[r \times r]} (\mathbf{V}_{[m \times r]})^T$$

- $\mathbf{A}$ :  $n \times m$  matrix (eg.,  $n$  documents,  $m$  terms)
- $\mathbf{U}$ :  $n \times r$  matrix ( $n$  documents,  $r$  concepts)
- $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ :  $r \times r$  diagonal matrix (strength of each 'concept') ( $r$  : rank of the matrix)
- $\mathbf{V}$ :  $m \times r$  matrix ( $m$  terms,  $r$  concepts)

# SVD: Example

- $A = U \Lambda V^T$  - example:

doc-to-concept  
similarity matrix

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{c} \uparrow \\ \text{CS} \\ \downarrow \\ \uparrow \\ \text{MD} \\ \downarrow \end{array}
 \end{array}
 \begin{array}{c}
 \text{data} \quad \text{inf.} \downarrow \quad \text{retrieval} \quad \text{brain} \quad \text{lung} \quad \text{CS-concept} \quad \text{MD-concept} \\
 \begin{bmatrix}
 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 5 & 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1
 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix}
 0.18 & 0 \\
 0.36 & 0 \\
 0.18 & 0 \\
 0.90 & 0 \\
 0 & 0.53 \\
 0 & 0.80 \\
 0 & 0.27
 \end{bmatrix}
 \times
 \begin{bmatrix}
 9.64 & 0 \\
 0 & 5.29
 \end{bmatrix}
 \times
 \begin{bmatrix}
 0.58 & 0.58 & 0.58 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.71 & 0.71
 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

# SVD: Example

- $A = U \Lambda V^T$  - example:

retrieval  
inf. ↓ brain lung

‘strength’ of CS-concept

↑

CS

↓

↑

MD

↓

1	1	1	0	0
2	2	2	0	0
1	1	1	0	0
5	5	5	0	0
0	0	0	2	2
0	0	0	3	3
0	0	0	1	1

=

0.18	0
0.36	0
0.18	0
0.90	0
0	0.53
0	0.80
0	0.27

×

9.64	0
0	5.29

×

0.58	0.58	0.58	0	0
0	0	0	0.71	0.71

Activate Windows



# SVD: Example

- $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^T$  - example:

retrieval  
inf. ↓  
data    brain    lung

term-to-concept  
similarity matrix

CS  
↑  
↓  
MD  
↑  
↓

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 5 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.18 & 0 \\ 0.36 & 0 \\ 0.18 & 0 \\ 0.90 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.53 \\ 0 & 0.80 \\ 0 & 0.27 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 9.64 & 0 \\ 0 & 5.29 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 0.58 & 0.58 & 0.58 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.71 & 0.71 \end{bmatrix}$$

CS-concept

X

X

0.58

# Summary

- Eigenvectors
- Dimensionality Reduction
  - Principle Component Analysis
  - Singular Value Decomposition