Multivariate Analysis Lecture 11: Applications of **PCA**

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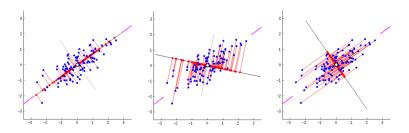
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Section 1

Review of PCA

PCA: Different Directions Have Different Variances

- PCA projects the original data onto a lower-dimensional space using linear combinations of the original features.
- Click the link to see the animated version!



- Let $\Sigma_{p \times p}$ be the covariance matrix of a random vector $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}$.
- A Covariance matrix is a positive definite or positive semi-definite.
- Spectral decomposition:

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \Gamma \Lambda \Gamma^T$$

where Λ is the diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \lambda_p \geq 0$

• The Eigenvectors are the columns of $\Gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_p)$, where γ_i is the *i*th eigenvector.

• Let $Y_1 = a^T \mathbf{X}$ denote the first principal component, which is defined as the linear combination reaches the maximum variance subject to ||a|| = 1. Mathematically, we are looking for a s.t.

$$a = \underset{a^T a = 1}{\operatorname{arg max}} a^T \mathbf{\Sigma} a$$

• First Principal Component. Among all the linear combinations of \mathbf{X} , the one with the maximum variance is $Y_1 = \gamma_1^T \mathbf{X}$ and the corresponding variance is λ_1 .

zna PC

• Second Principal Component. Mathematically, we are looking for a s.t.

$$a = \underset{a^T a = 1, a^T \gamma_1 = 0}{\operatorname{arg max}} a^T \mathbf{\Sigma} a$$

The second PC is

$$Y_2 = \gamma_2^T \mathbf{X}$$

ith PC

• For the ith principal component, we are looking for a linear combination in terms of $a^T X$ such as

$$a = \underset{a^T a = 1, a^T \gamma_1 = 0, \cdots, a^T \gamma_{i-1} = 0}{\text{arg max}} a^T \mathbf{\Sigma} a$$

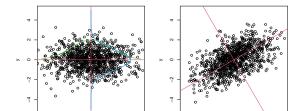
• The ith principal component is

$$Y_i = \gamma_i^T \mathbf{X}$$

```
n=1000; set.seed(1)
Sigma1=diag(c(4,1), 2, 2); Sigma2=diag(c(1,4), 2, 2)
theta=pi/6
R1=matrix(c(cos(theta), sin(theta), -sin(theta), cos(theta)), 2,2)
R2=matrix(c(cos(theta), sin(theta), -sin(theta), cos(theta)), 2,2)
Sigma3=R1%*%Sigma1%*%t(R1)
Sigma4=R2%*%Sigma1%*%t(R2)
set.seed(1)
X1=data.frame(mvrnorm(n, rep(0,2), Sigma1)); names(X1)=c("x","y")
X2=data.frame(mvrnorm(n, rep(0,2), Sigma2)); names(X2)=c("x","y")
X3=data.frame(mvrnorm(n, rep(0,2), Sigma3)); names(X3)=c("x","y")
X4=data.frame(mvrnorm(n, rep(0,2), Sigma4)); names(X4)=c("x","y")
Sigma3
```

```
## [,1] [,2]
## [1,] 3.250000 1.299038
## [2,] 1.299038 1.750000
```

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2),pty="s")
plot(X1, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5));
abline(0,0, col=2); abline(v=0, col=2)
lines(seq(-5,5,0.1), 10*dnorm(seq(<math>-5,5,0.1), 0, 2), col=3, lwd=2)
lines(10*dnorm(seq(-5,5,0.1), 0, 1), seq(-5,5,0.1), col=4, lwd=2)
plot(X3, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5));
abline(0,1/sqrt(3), col=2); abline(0, -sqrt(3), col=2)
```



0.5000000 - 0.8660254

[1]

```
gamma1=eigen(Sigma3)$vectors[,1]
gamma1
## [1] -0.8660254 -0.5000000
gamma2=eigen(Sigma3)$vectors[,2]
gamma2
```

- 1st PC: -0.8660254x 0.5y, in the direction of γ_1 .
- 2nd PC: 0.5x 0.8660254y, in the direction of γ_2 .

Example: Project An Observation to 1st PC

• Consider a, the first observation in X_3 :

```
a=as.matrix(X3[1,],1,2)
a
   1 1.20705 2.447848
```

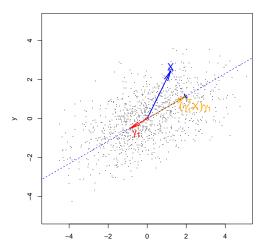
We project it to the direction

$$\gamma_1 = (-0.8660254, -0.5)^T$$
.
Because γ_1 is a unit vector

(a%*%gamma1)%*%gamma1 #projection

```
a
##
## 1 1.20705 2.447848
gamma1
## [1] -0.8660254 -0.5000000
a%*%gamma1 #inner product
         [,1]
##
## 1 -2.26926
a[1]*gamma1[1]+a[2]*gamma1[2] #inner product
## [1] -2.26926
```

Example: Project An Observation to 1st PC



Example: Project All Observations to 1st PC

- The data matrix X_3 is a 1000×2 matrix, where each row is an observation.
- The projected values of all observations to the first PC is given by

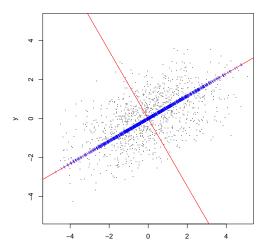
$$Y_1 = \mathbf{X}_3 \gamma_1$$

where

- X₃ is 1000-bv-2
- γ_1 is 2-by-1, the first eigenvector of the covariance matrix Σ .

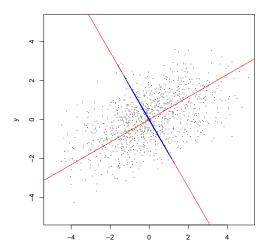
```
par(mfrow=c(1,1),pty="s")
plot(X3, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5), col=8, pch=".");
abline(0,1/sqrt(3), col="red"); abline(0, -sqrt(3), col="red")
points(x=0,y=0, col="red")
proj=as.matrix(X3)%*%gamma1 %*%gamma1
text(x=proj[,1],y=proj[,2], labels="|", col="blue", srt=30, cex=0.5)
```

Example: Project All Observations to 1st PC



```
par(mfrow=c(1,1),pty="s")
plot(X3, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5), col=8, pch=".");
abline(0,1/sqrt(3), col="red"); abline(0, -sqrt(3), col="red")
points(x=0,y=0, col="red")
proj=as.matrix(X3)%*%gamma2 %*%gamma2
text(x=proj[,1],y=proj[,2], labels="|", col="blue", srt=30, cex=0.5)
```

Example: Project All Observations to 2nd PC



• The projected values on the first and second PCs are given by

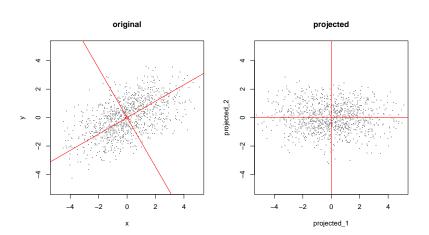
$$PC_1 = \mathbf{X}_3 \gamma_1,$$

$$PC_2 = \mathbf{X}_3 \gamma_2$$

- Note, the above are values on the two directions, not the projections; in other words, the directional information is not included.

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2),pty="s")
plot(X3, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5), col=8, pch=".", main="original");
abline(0,1/sqrt(3), col="red"); abline(0, -sqrt(3), col="red")
points(x=0,y=0, col="red")
projected_1=as.matrix(X3)%*%gamma1
projected 2=as.matrix(X3)%*%gamma2
plot(projected_1, projected_2, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5), col=8, pch="
abline(h=0, v=0, col="red")
```

Example: The Two PCs



Example: Centered Data

- In the example, the data were generated from mean 0.
- In practice, the data may not be centered. Although the center information is not essential for PCA, it is often useful to center the data before applying PCA.
- Centering the data is equivalent to subtracting the mean from each observation.

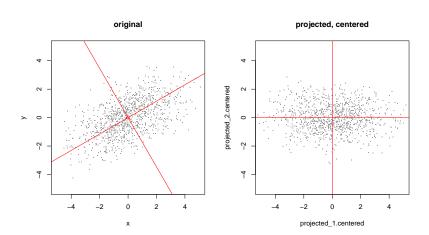
Example: Centered Data

```
X3_centered=scale(X3, scale=FALSE)
projected_1.centered=as.matrix(X3_centered)%*%gamma1
projected_2.centered=as.matrix(X3_centered)%*%gamma2

par(mfrow=c(1,2),pty="s")
plot(X3, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-5,5), col=8, pch=".", main="original");
abline(0,1/sqrt(3), col="red"); abline(0, -sqrt(3), col="red")
points(x=0,y=0, col="red")

plot(projected_1.centered, projected_2.centered, xlim=c(-5,5), ylim=c(-abline(h=0, v=0, col="red")
```

Example: Centered Data



Section 2

Variance Exaplained

Dimensionality Reduction Using PCA

- PCA aims to reduce the dimensionality of a dataset while preserving as much variance as possible.
- Dimensionality reduction using PCA can
 - ease visualization and analysis
 - help identify underlying patterns or structure in the data.
 - improve the performance of machine learning algorithms by reducing noise and collinearity.
- PCA is most effective when the majority of the variance can be captured by a small number of principal components.

- There are at least two justifications to use $\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i$ as the total variance:
 - One way to quantify the total variance in **X** is the trace of the covariance matrix Σ
 - Recall that $tr(\mathbf{\Sigma}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$
 - 2 The variance of ith PC is $Var(Y_i) = Var(\gamma_i^T \mathbf{X}) = \lambda_i$. Thus, the total variance of PCs is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p} Var(Y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i$$

Variance Explained

• The proportion of the variance explained by ith PC explains is

$$\lambda_i / \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i$$

 Cumulative Explained Variance is the proportion of the total variance explained by the first k PCs is

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i}$$

```
lambda=eigen(Sigma3)$values
# Prop of Variance explained by 1st PC
lambda[1]/sum(lambda)
```

```
## [1] 0.8
```

```
# Prop of Cumulative Variance explained by two PCs
sum(lambda[1:2])/sum(lambda)
```

```
## [1] 1
```

 In this example, 1st PC explains 80% of variance, 2nd PC explains 20% of variance.

Section 3

Apply PCA to Data

Estimate Σ .

- We have discussed how to find PCs for a random vector $\mathbf{X}_{p\times 1} \sim (0, \mathbf{\Sigma})$, where $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ is a known covariance matrix.
- In practice,
 - the observed data is an $n \times p$ data matrix $\mathbf{X}_{n \times p}$
 - Σ is unknown, which can be estimated by the sample covariance matrix S.

- **1** Estimate Σ by the sample covariance matrix S
- Compute the eigenvectors of S, and denote them by $\gamma_1, \cdots, \gamma_p$
- Compute the PCs
 - PC1: $Y_1 = \mathbf{X}\gamma_1$, which is a $n \times 1$ vector
 - PC2: $Y_2 = \mathbf{X}\gamma_2$, which is a $n \times 1$ vector
 -
 - PCi: $Y_i = \mathbf{X}\gamma_i$, which is a $n \times 1$ vector
 - Equivalently, compute

$$Y_{pc} = \mathbf{X}\Gamma$$

which is the $n \times p$ matrix with the ith column being the ith PC.

Section 4

Example: Iris Data

Outline

- PCA using raw data
- PCA using centered data
- PCA using standardized data
- Scree plot
- Biplot

PCA Using Raw Data

Subsection 1

PCA Using Raw Data

Estimate Σ

```
## iris data
##rearrange the data such as the response matrix is an n-by-p matrix
Y=cbind(SepalL=c(iris3[,1,1],iris3[,1,2],iris3[,1,3]),
SepalW=c(iris3[,2,1],iris3[,2,2],iris3[,2,3]),
PetalL=c(iris3[,3,1],iris3[,3,2],iris3[,3,3]),
PetalW=c(iris3[,4,1],iris3[,4,2],iris3[,4,3]))
#for unknown reasons, data.frame won't work but chind works
#alternatively, we can use the following way to define y
#y=aperm(iris3, c(1,3,2)); dim(y)=c(150,4)
S=cov(Y)
```

PCA Using Raw Data

Compute PCs

```
eigen.vec=eigen(S)$vectors
eigen.val=eigen(S)$values
gamma1=eigen.vec[,1]
gamma2=eigen.vec[,2]
gamma3=eigen.vec[,3]
gamma4=eigen.vec[,4]
# The four pcs:
pc1=Y%*%gamma1
pc2=Y%*%gamma2
pc3=Y%*%gamma3
pc4=Y%*%gamma4
# Equivalently, we can obtain the nx4 matrix of PCs
PCs=Y%*%eigen.vec
```

[1]

```
gamma1
## [1]
       0.36138659 -0.08452251
                                0.85667061
                                            0.35828920
gamma2
## [1] -0.65658877 -0.73016143 0.17337266
                                            0.07548102
gamma3
## [1] -0.58202985 0.59791083
                                0.07623608
                                            0.54583143
gamma4
```

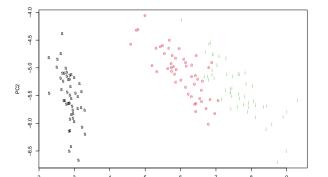
0.7536574

0.3154872 -0.3197231 -0.4798390

The Four PCs

- PC 1: $Y_1 = 0.36SL 0.08SW + 0.86PL + 0.36PL$
- PC 2: $Y_2 = -0.66SL 0.73SW + 0.17PL + 0.08PL$
- PC 3: $Y_3 = -0.60SL 0.60SW + 0.08PL + 0.55PL$
- PC 4: $Y_4 = 0.32SL 0.32SW 0.48PL + 0.75PL$
- Note that PC1 loads the most on PL. This is not surprising because PL has the largest variance among all the four features.

```
plot(pc1,pc2,xlab="PC1", ylab="PC2", type="n")
points(pc1[1:50], pc2[1:50], col=1, pch="s")
points(pc1[51:100], pc2[51:100], col=2, pch="e")
points(pc1[101:150], pc2[101:150], col=3, pch="i")
```

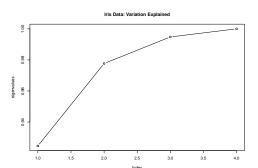


Proportions of Variation Explained (Cumulative)

```
cumsum(eigen.val/sum(eigen.val))
```

```
## [1] 0.9246187 0.9776852 0.9947878 1.0000000
```

```
plot(cumsum(eigen.val)/sum(eigen.val), type="b", main="Iris Data: Varia
ylab="eigenvalues")
```



PCA Using Centered Data

Subsection 2

PCA Using Centered Data

PCA Using Centered Data

```
# The four pcs:
pc1_c=scale(Y, scale=FALSE)%*%gamma1
pc2_c=scale(Y, scale=FALSE)%*%gamma2
pc3_c=scale(Y, scale=FALSE)%*%gamma3
pc4_c=scale(Y, scale=FALSE)%*%gamma4
# or
PCs_c=scale(Y, scale=FALSE)%*%eigen(S)$vectors
```

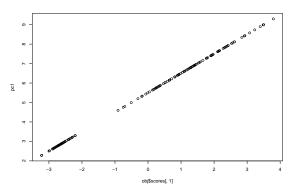
The PCs from R

```
#help(princomp), pay attention to fix_sign
obj=princomp(Y)
names(obj)

## [1] "sdev" "loadings" "center" "scale" "n.obs" "scores"

#help(loadings), pay attention to cutoff
#check loadings and scores to verify that
#they are same as what we calculated
```

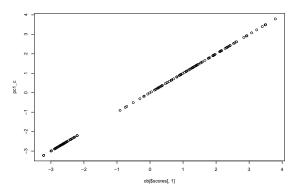
```
plot(obj$scores[,1], pc1)
```



- The diffence is due to not centering vs centering

R Uses Centered Data to Compute PCA

plot(obj\$scores[,1], pc1_c)



They are identical

PCA Using Standardized Data

Subsection 3

PCA Using Standardized Data

• The covariance matrix using standardized data

```
cov(scale(Y, scale=TRUE))
```

```
##
              SepalL
                         SepalW
                                     Petall.
                                                PetalW
           1.0000000 -0.1175698
                                  0.8717538
                                             0.8179411
  SepalL
   SepalW -0.1175698
                       1.0000000 -0.4284401 -0.3661259
## Petall.
           0.8717538 -0.4284401
                                  1.0000000
                                             0.9628654
## PetalW
           0.8179411 -0.3661259
                                  0.9628654
                                             1,0000000
```

Correlation Matrix

 The correlation matrix is the covariance matrix of standardized data

```
cor(Y)
```

```
##
              SepalL
                                     PetalL
                                                PetalW
                          SepalW
           1.0000000 -0.1175698
  SepalL
                                  0.8717538
                                             0.8179411
   SepalW -0.1175698
                       1.0000000 -0.4284401 -0.3661259
## PetalL
           0.8717538 -0.4284401
                                  1.0000000
                                             0.9628654
## PetalW
           0.8179411 -0.3661259
                                  0.9628654
                                              1.0000000
```

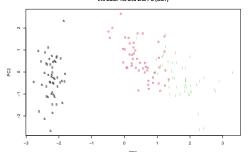
PCA Using Standardized Data

PCA Based on Correlation Matrix

```
gamma1_s=eigen(cor(Y))$vectors[,1]
gamma2_s=eigen(cor(Y))$vectors[,2]
gamma3_s=eigen(cor(Y))$vectors[,3]
gamma4_s=eigen(cor(Y))$vectors[,4]
```

The PCs based on Correlation Matrix

Iris Data: 1st and 2nd PC (Corr)



PCA with Standardized Data in R

 The princomp function in R has an option to use correlation matrix rather than covariance matrix

```
obj.cor=princomp(Y, cor=TRUE)
```

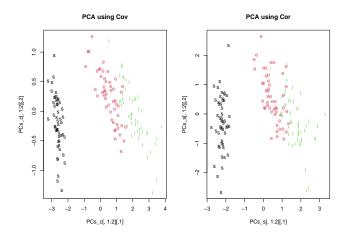
Loadings

```
obj$loadings[,1:4]
##
               Comp. 1
                           Comp.2
                                        Comp.3
                                                   Comp.4
## SepalL
           0.36138659
                       0.65658877
                                    0.58202985
                                                0.3154872
## SepalW
          -0.08452251
                       0.73016143 -0.59791083 -0.3197231
## Petall.
           0.85667061 - 0.17337266 - 0.07623608 - 0.4798390
## PetalW 0.35828920 -0.07548102 -0.54583143
                                                0.7536574
obj.cor$loading[,1:4]
```

```
##
              Comp. 1
                         Comp.2
                                     Comp.3
                                                Comp.4
  SepalL
           0.5210659 0.37741762
                                 0.7195664
                                             0.2612863
  SepalW
          -0.2693474 0.92329566 -0.2443818 -0.1235096
## PetalL
           0.5804131 0.02449161 -0.1421264 -0.8014492
## PetalW 0.5648565 0.06694199 -0.6342727
                                             0.5235971
```

PCA based on Cov vs Cor: 1st and 2nd PC

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(PCs_c[,1:2], main="PCA using Cov", type="n")
points(PCs_c[1:50, 1:2], col=1, pch="s")
points(PCs_c[51:100, 1:2], col=2, pch="e")
points(PCs_c[101:150, 1:2], col=3, pch="i")
plot(PCs_s[,1:2], main="PCA using Cor", type="n")
points(PCs_s[1:50, 1:2], col=1, pch="s")
points(PCs_s[51:100, 1:2], col=2, pch="e")
points(PCs_s[101:150, 1:2], col=3, pch="i")
```

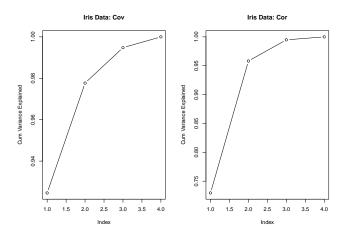


PCA Using Standardized Data

PCA based on Cov vs Cor: Variance Explained (Cumulatively)

0000000000000000

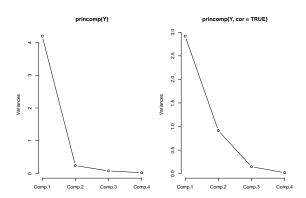
[1] 0.7296245 0.9581321 0.9948213 1.0000000



0000000000000000

PCA based on Cov vs Cor: Variances (Scree Plot)

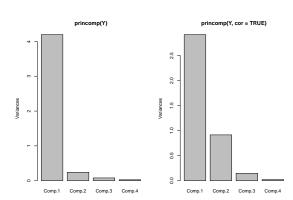
```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(princomp(Y), type="l")
plot(princomp(Y, cor=TRUE), type="l")
```



0000000000000000

PCA based on Cov vs Cor: Variances (Scree Plot)

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(princomp(Y))
plot(princomp(Y, cor=TRUE))
```



Visualizing PCA

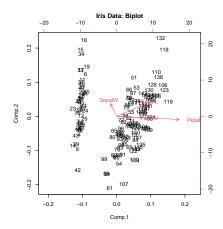
- We have seen scree plots for visualizing the variance explained by each PC
- Biplots are another way to visualize PCA results
- A biplot is a visualization tool that combines:
 - Scores (projected data points)
 - Loadings (variable vectors) from Principal Component Analysis (PCA).
- A biplot shows relationships between observations and between variables in reduced dimensions (e.g., PC1 vs. PC2).

Biplot: loadings

```
obj$loadings
```

```
##
## Loadings:
##
         Comp.1 Comp.2 Comp.3 Comp.4
          0.361 0.657
                        0.582 0.315
  SepalL
  SepalW
                 0.730 -0.598 -0.320
## PetalL
          0.857 - 0.173
                              -0.480
          0.358
                               0.754
## PetalW
                       -0.546
##
##
                 Comp.1 Comp.2 Comp.3 Comp.4
                          1.00
## SS loadings
                   1.00
                                 1.00
                                        1.00
                          0.25 0.25
  Proportion Var
                  0.25
                                        0.25
## Cumulative Var
                   0.25
                          0.50
                                 0.75
                                        1.00
```

biplot(obj, main="Iris Data: Biplot")



Biplot: the scale parameter

- The loadings and scores often have very different scales.
- The scale parameter harmonizes them for visualization.
- The default value is 1, which means the loadings are scaled by 1 and the scores are scaled by 1, i.e., cores and loadings are scaled equally.
- ullet Make scale < 1 if variable arrows are too small to interpret.
- ullet Use scale > 1 if data points are too crowded.

Section 5

Example: Wine Data

The Wine Data

```
wine = read.csv("http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/machine-learning-databas
dim(wine)
```

hond(mino)

[1] 4898

12

пеа	u (wille)				
##		fixed.acidity	volatile.acidity	citric.acid	residual.sugar	chloride
##	1	7.0	0.27	0.36	20.7	0.04

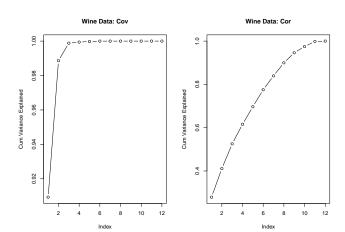
#	# 2	6.3	0.30	0.34	1.6	0.04
#:	# 3	8.1	0.28	0.40	6.9	0.05
#:	# 4	7.2	0.23	0.32	8.5	0.05
ш.	4 F	7 0	0.00	0.30	0 5	0.05

ππ	J	1.2	0.25	0.52			0.0	0.	U
##	6	8.1	0.28	0.40			6.9	0.0	05
##		${\tt free.sulfur.dioxide}$	total.sulfur.dioxi	de den	sity	pН	sulphate	s	a]
##	1	45	1	70 1.	0010 3.	00	0.4	.5	

2 14 132 0.9940 3.30 0.49 ## 3 30 97 0.9951 3.26 0.44 --

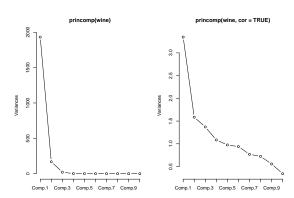
```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
cumsum(eigen(cov(wine))$values)/sum(eigen(cov(wine))$values)
plot(cumsum(eigen(cov(wine))$values)/sum(eigen(cov(wine))$values),
     type="b", main="Wine Data: Cov", ylab="Cum Variance Explained")
cumsum(eigen(cor(wine))$values)/sum(eigen(cor(wine))$values)
plot(cumsum(eigen(cor(wine))$values)/sum(eigen(cor(wine))$values),
     type="b", main="Wine Data: Cor", ylab="Cum Variance Explained")
```

- ## [1] 0.9093312 0.9886453 0.9987968 0.9994164 0.9997397 0.9999753 0.9 ## [8] 0.9999906 0.9999960 0.9999998 1.0000000 1.0000000
- ## [1] 0.2788891 0.4110633 0.5253276 0.6157327 0.6970063 0.7752366 0.8 ## [8] 0.8996651 0.9460402 0.9746180 0.9982942 1.0000000

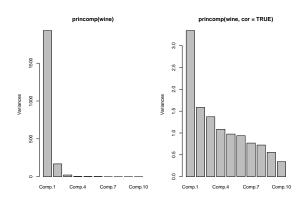


PCA based on Cov vs Cor: Variances (Scree Plot)

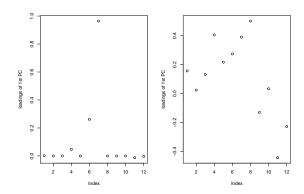
```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(princomp(wine), type="l")
plot(princomp(wine, cor=TRUE), type="1")
```



```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(princomp(wine))
plot(princomp(wine, cor=TRUE))
```



```
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
plot(princomp(wine)$loadings[,1], ylab="loadings of 1st PC")
plot(princomp(wine, cor=TRUE) $loadings[,1], ylab="loadings of 1st PC")
```



Wine Data: PCA_COV and PCA_COR Are Different

- In the wine data, raw data and standardized data give very different results
- Raw Data: the first PC dominants the rest
- Standardized data: the variances of the PCs are less different
- Why?

Wine Data: The measurements

- There are 12 measurements / features in the wine data
- The variances are very different

```
apply(wine, 2, var)
```

##	fixed.acidity	volatile.acidity	citric.acid
##	7.121136e-01	1.015954e-02	1.464579e-02
##	residual.sugar	chlorides	free.sulfur.dioxide
##	2.572577e+01	4.773337e-04	2.892427e+02
##	total.sulfur.dioxide	density	рН
##	1.806085e+03	8.945524e-06	2.280118e-02
##	sulphates	alcohol	quality
##	1.302471e-02	1.514427e+00	7.843557e-01

Standardized vs Not-Standardized

- PCA depends on the measurement scale
- When features are not standardized, the leading PCs tend to give larger loadings for features with large variances
- When similar variables are measured using different units, standardization is typically recommended before PCA

Section 6

Choose k

Choose the Number of PCs

- A rule of thumb? Choose the PC's that contain more information than the average amount of information per PC.
- People often choose k such that at least a certain percentage of the total variance is explained. E.g., 80%, 90%, 95%, 99%
- Scree Plots:
 - A scree plot is a plot of the eigenvalues against the number of PCs
 - we look for an "elbow point" where the decrease in eigenvalues becomes less steep. The number of PCs corresponding to the elbow point can be chosen.
- No unified solution. The choice of the number of PCs may depend on the specific problem

Choose the Number of PCs

- Balancing dimensionality reduction and information retention.
- Too few PCs may result in significant loss of information
- Too many PCS is not efficient in dimension reduction application or research question

The Remaining Lectures Will Cover

- Lec 12: Linear Discriminant Analysis
- Lec 13: Linear Discriminant Analysis
- Lec 14: Factor Analysis
- Lec 15: Cluster Analysis
- Lec 16: Canonical Analysis
- Lec 17: Structural Equation Modeling
- Lec 18: Conclusion