

Chemical Engineering 4H03

Non-Linear Iterative PArtial Least-Squares

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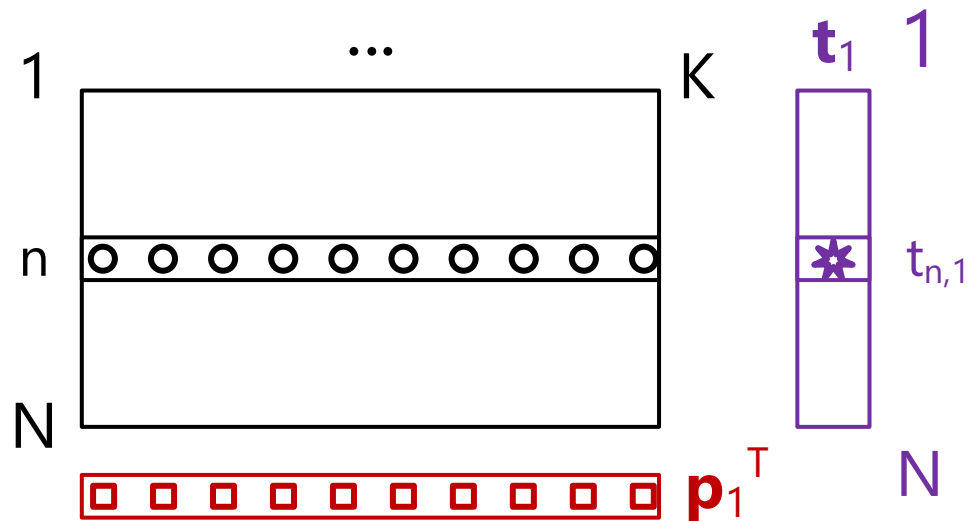
Objectives for this Class

- Where we came from...
 - Computing \mathbf{p}_k from Eigenvalue Decomposition
 - Gave us a fundamental understanding of how PCA works
 - Understand that there are **advantages** and **disadvantages**
- Now: is there a more “reliable” way to compute \mathbf{p}_k ?
 - Don’t want to compute all Eigenvectors at once
 - Want to handle missing data
- How will we do this?
 1. Introduce NIPALS (Non-Linear Iterative Partial Least-Squares)
 2. See how NIPALS can handle missing data (and what this means for our data matrix \mathbf{X})



NIPALS

Now I'll Probably Actually Lose Someone



Review: Linear Regression

- You may recall the LSOE that can be solved for the regression coefficients in our regression $\hat{y} = a_0 + a_1x$:

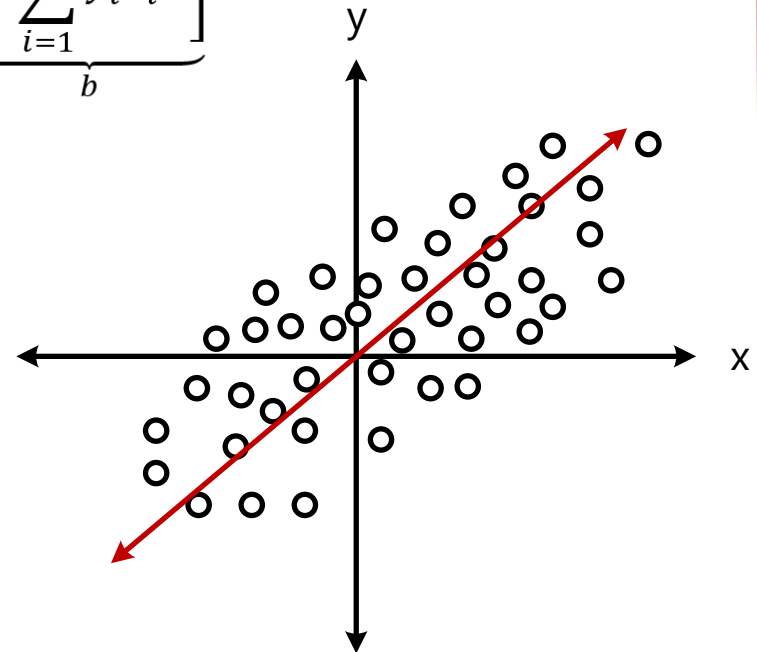
$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^N 1 & \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^N x_i & \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^N y_i x_i \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

- QUESTION**

- What is special about the data we are trying to regress in PCA?

- ANSWER**

- It is **centered**, thus $a_0 = 0$

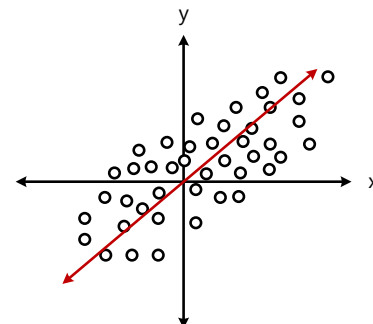


Linear Regression in Vector Form

- Our “system of equations” in that case simply boils down to one equation and one unknown:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i & \sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2 \\ \sum_{i=1}^N y_i x_i & \sum_{i=1}^N y_i^2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ x \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i x_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^N y_i^2 \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

$$a_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N y_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2}$$



- Fun fact, these sums of the elements in each vector can pretty easily be written as dot-products

$$\sum_{i=1}^N y_i x_i = y^T x$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2 = x^T x$$

- We can thus collapse our equation for a_1 into:

$$a_1 = \frac{y^T x}{x^T x}$$

At this point, I should not need to convince you that this expression is identical to the one for a_1 above



NIPALS

- Non-Linear Iterative Partial Least-Squares
- Why study it?
 - Additional insight into what loads and scores mean
 - A different way of looking at orthogonality
 - **Handles missing data**
 - Does not compute all Eigenvectors (efficient)
 - Used by most popular software packages
 - SIMCA
 - Aspen ProMV
 - Most pre-made Python packages



NIPALS: The Basic Idea

- NIPALS begins with X
 - X is pre-processed via scaling and centering
 - **NOMENCLATURE ADDITION:** X_a is the data set after a components have been fit to it (more on this later)
 - Thus, NIPALS initializes with $X_{a=0} \equiv X_0$ since no components are fit

FOR $a = 1, 2, \dots, A$:

1. Select an (arbitrary) column as t_a
2. In a loop until convergence:
 - I. Regress columns from X_{a-1} onto t_a to get p_a
 - II. Normalize p_a to unit length
 - III. Regress rows from X_{a-1} onto p_a^T to get t_a
3. Deflate component from X_{a-1} to get X_a

END

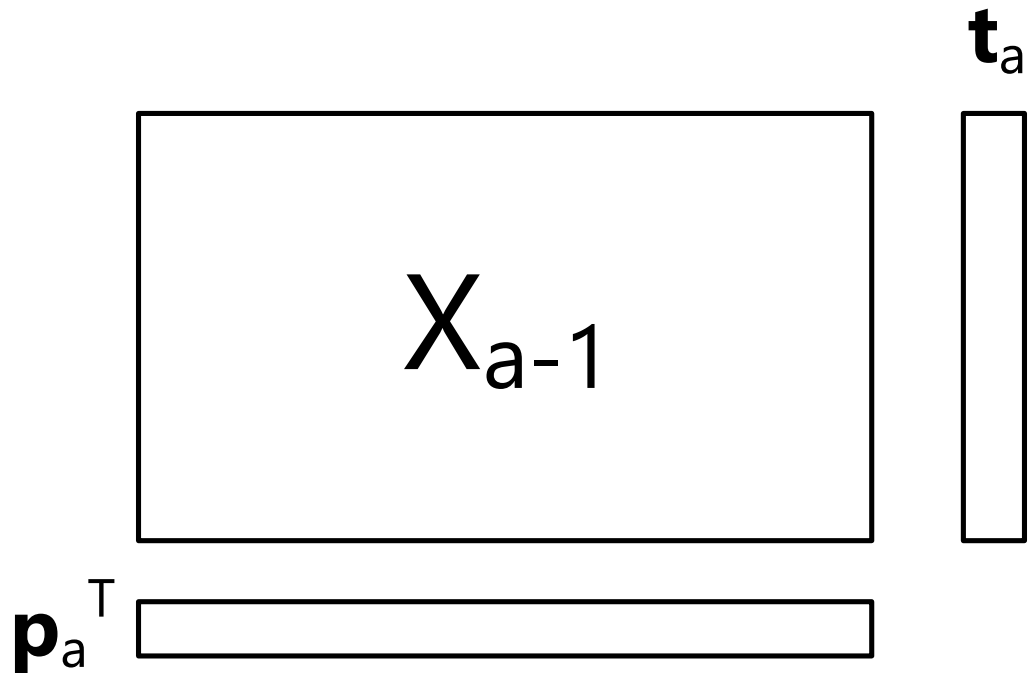
These are much easier to visualize if we use the vector regression notation just discussed

QUESTION: what do you think this means?



NIPALS Step By Step

- **STEP 1** Select an arbitrary column for \mathbf{t}_a
 - Any individual column in X
 - A column of normally distributed random numbers
 - Basically anything except the zero column (WHY??)



NIPALS Step By Step

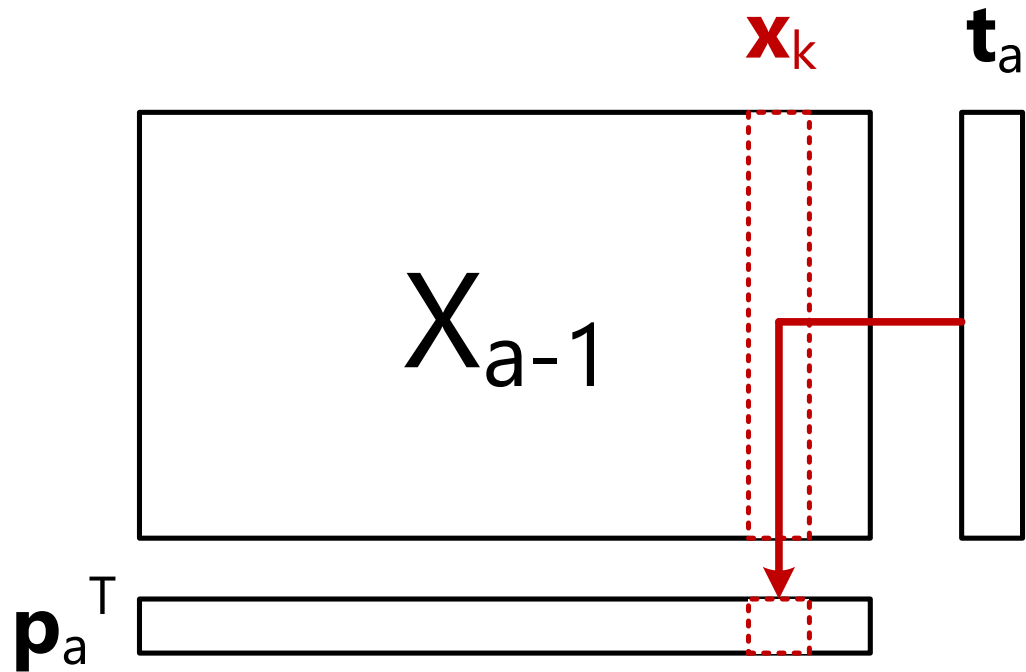
- **STEP 2.1** Regress each column of X_{a-1} (\mathbf{x}_k) onto \mathbf{t}_a
 - Perform a LS regression of \mathbf{x}_k onto \mathbf{t}_a (*regress y onto x*)
 - Store the regression coefficient as $p_{k,a}$

- Recall that a linear equation with zero intercept is $\hat{y} = a_1 x$

$$a_1 = \frac{y^T x}{x^T x}$$

- Therefore in this case:

$$p_{k,a} = \frac{\mathbf{t}_a^T \mathbf{x}_k}{\mathbf{t}_a^T \mathbf{t}_a}$$



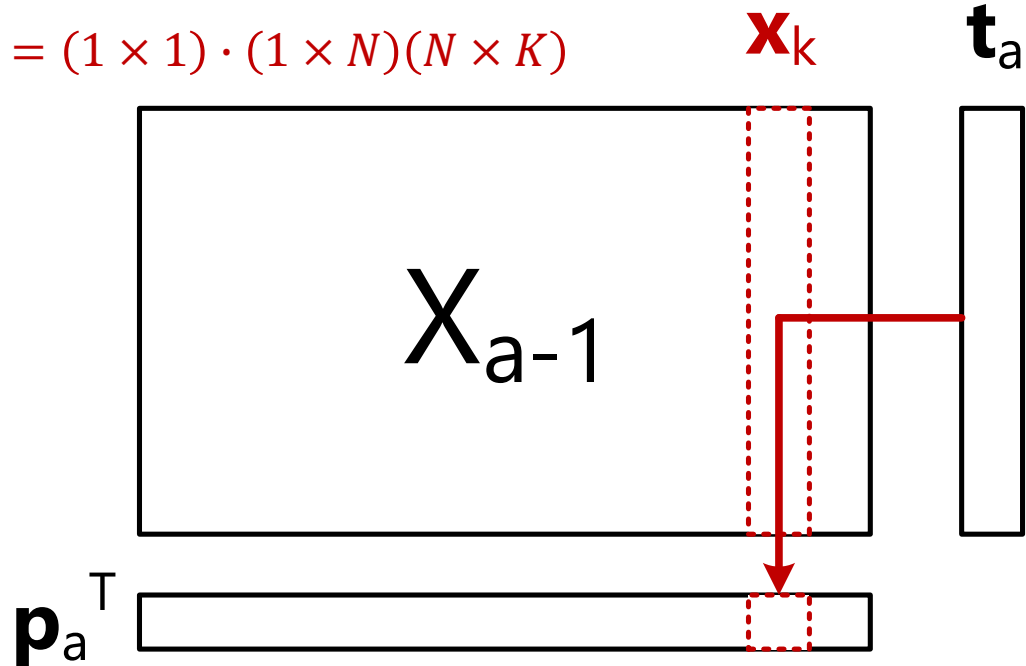
NIPALS Step By Step

- **STEP 2.1** Repeat regression for all columns in X_{a-1}
- Can compute all regressions in one go (HOW!?)

$$\mathbf{p}_a^T = \frac{1}{\mathbf{t}_a^T \mathbf{t}_a} \cdot \mathbf{t}_a^T X_{a-1}$$

$$(1 \times K) = (1 \times 1) \cdot (1 \times N)(N \times K)$$

- $\mathbf{t}_a \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 1}$
- $X_{a-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times K}$
- $\mathbf{p}_a \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times 1}$



NIPALS Step By Step

- **STEP 2.2** Normalize the loadings
 - \mathbf{p}_a will not have unit length (WHY?)
 - Rescale to magnitude of 1.0:

$$\mathbf{p}_a = \frac{\mathbf{p}_a}{\|\mathbf{p}_a\|}$$

Recall that $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots}$



NIPALS Step By Step

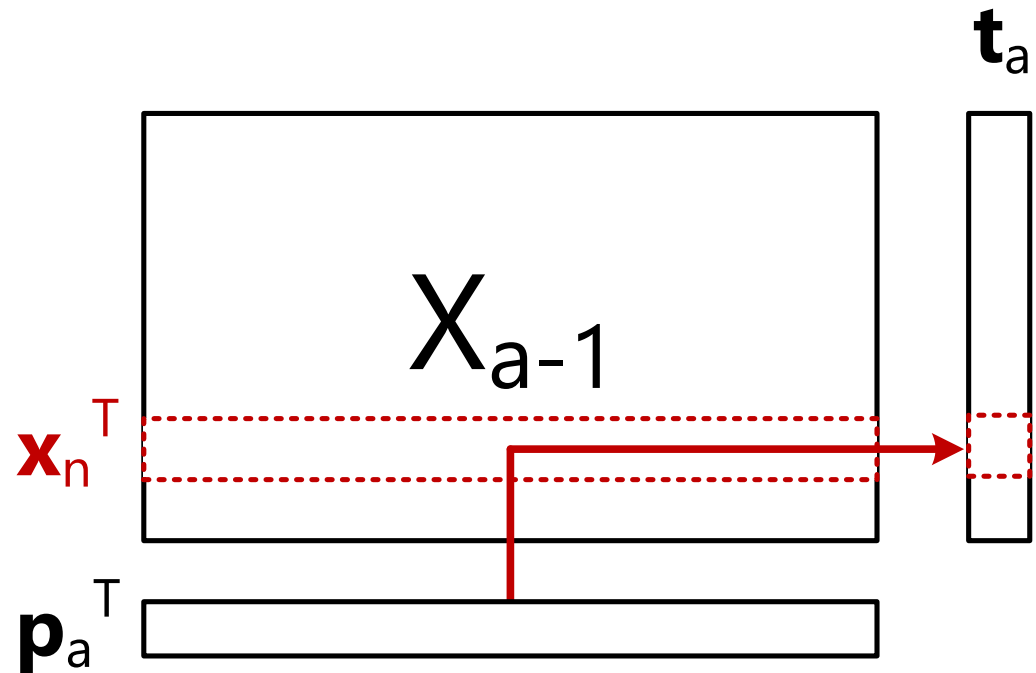
- **STEP 2.3** Regress each row of X_{a-1} (\mathbf{x}_n) onto \mathbf{p}_a^T
 - Perform a LS regression of \mathbf{x}_n onto \mathbf{p}_a^T (*regress y onto x*)
 - Store the regression coefficient as $t_{n,a}$

- Recall that a linear equation with zero intercept is $\hat{y} = a_1 x$

$$a_1 = \frac{y^T x}{x^T x}$$

- Therefore in this case:

$$t_{n,a} = \frac{\mathbf{p}_a^T \mathbf{x}_n}{\mathbf{p}_a^T \mathbf{p}_a}$$



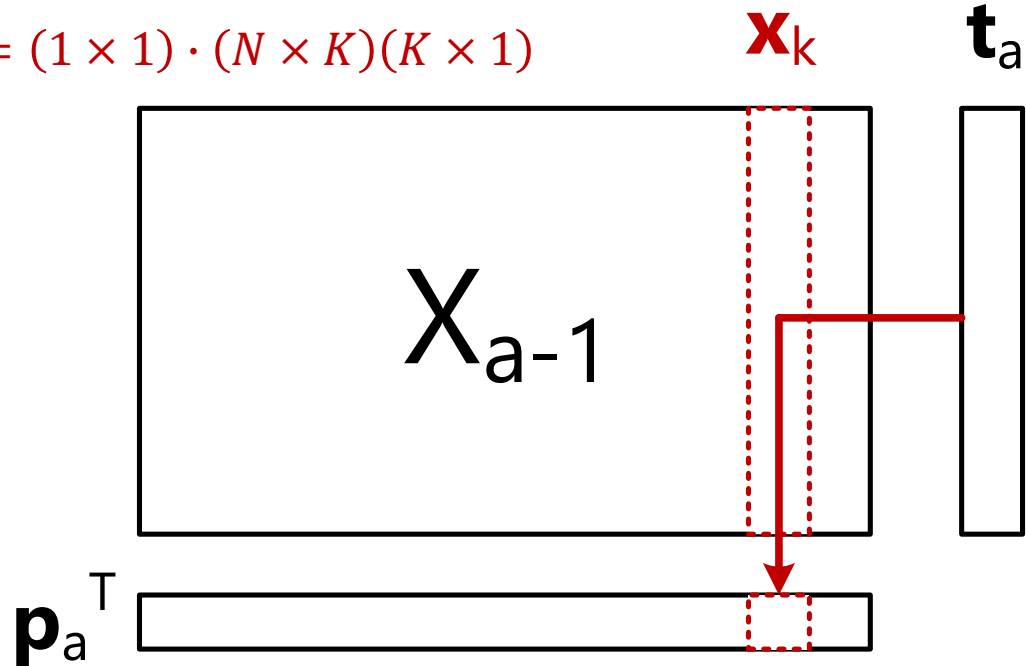
NIPALS Step By Step

- **STEP 2.3** Repeat regression for all rows in X_{a-1}
- Can compute all regressions in one go

$$\mathbf{t}_a = \frac{1}{\mathbf{p}_a^T \mathbf{p}_a} \cdot X_{a-1} \mathbf{p}_a$$

$$(N \times 1) = (1 \times 1) \cdot (N \times K)(K \times 1)$$

- $\mathbf{t}_a \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 1}$
- $X_{a-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times K}$
- $\mathbf{p}_a \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times 1}$



NIPALS Step By Step

- CHECK FOR CONVERGENCE
- WORKSHOP – What are some methods we can use?
 - Compare \mathbf{t}_a to \mathbf{t}_a from previous iteration
 - Stop if $\Delta \mathbf{t}_a \leq \sqrt{\epsilon} \approx 10^{-8}$ (**demo in MATLAB**)
 - Change could mean $\|\mathbf{t}_a^i - \mathbf{t}_a^{i-1}\| \leq \sqrt{\epsilon}$ [absolute]
 - Change could mean $\frac{\|\mathbf{t}_a^i - \mathbf{t}_a^{i-1}\|}{\|\mathbf{t}_a^{i-1}\|} \leq \sqrt{\epsilon}$ [relative]
 - ALSO probably want an iterations limit in case (500 is good)
- AT CONVERGENCE
 - t_a and p_a are the a^{th} component
 - Store in T and P , respectively!



NIPALS Step By Step

- **STEP 3** Deflate X_{a-1} to achieve X_a
- Deflation means *removing the part we can explain*
 - What can we explain? Why, \hat{X}_a of course!
 - $E_a = X_{a-1} - \hat{X}_a \Rightarrow E_a = X_{a-1} - \mathbf{t}_a \mathbf{p}_a^T$
 - E_a are the residuals after fitting the a^{th} component
 - Therefore, let $X_a = E_a$ and repeat from **step 1** for $a + 1$
 - Example: for $a = 1$, use X_0 which is preprocessed data
 - Example: for $a = 2$, use X_1 which are residuals after 1 component
- A discussion about orthogonality
 - How do we know that subsequent components are orthogonal to those that came before it?



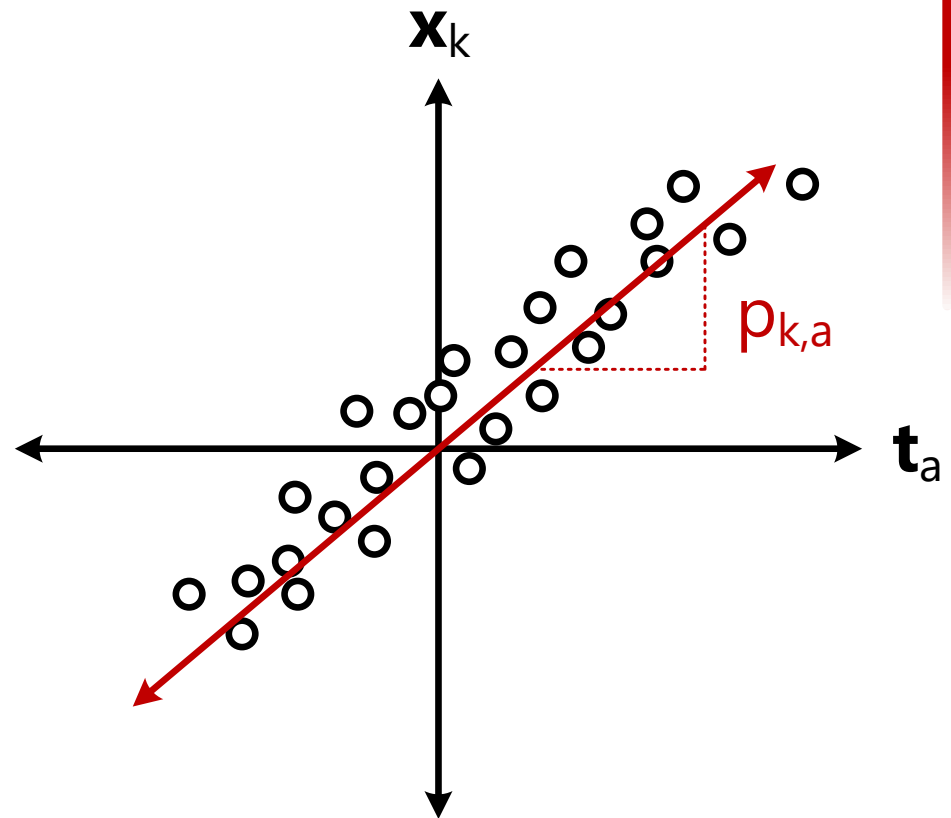
Interpretation of Regression Steps

- Let's teleport back to STEP 2.1 for a minute
 - STEP 2.1** Regress each column of X_{a-1} (\mathbf{x}_k) onto \mathbf{t}_a

$$p_{k,a} = \frac{\mathbf{t}_a^T \mathbf{x}_k}{\mathbf{t}_a^T \mathbf{t}_a}$$

- What does regression look like for a strong relationship?
- Weak relationship?
- What does that mean about $p_{k,a}$?
- Regression can be used to predict $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{t}_a^T p_{k,a}$

- WORKSHOP: interpret step 2.3 as a linear regression
 - STEP 2.3** Repeat regression for all rows in X_{a-1}



Properties After Convergence

- Dropping subscripts (for simplicity), we have
 - $\mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{X}}{\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{t}}$ $\mathbf{t} = \frac{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{p}}{\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{p}}$
 - Recall that \mathbf{p} is of unit length, thus $\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{p} = 1$
 - Substitute \mathbf{t} into equation for \mathbf{p} to get:
 - $\mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{p}}{\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{t}}$ *OR* $\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{t} \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{p}$
 - This gives $(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{t} I_K) \mathbf{p} = 0$ where I_K is a $K \times K$ identity
- And therefore*...
 - \mathbf{p} is an eigenvector of $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$
 - The eigenvalue for that eigenvector is $\lambda = \mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{t}$, which we know to be the variance explained in \mathbf{t}



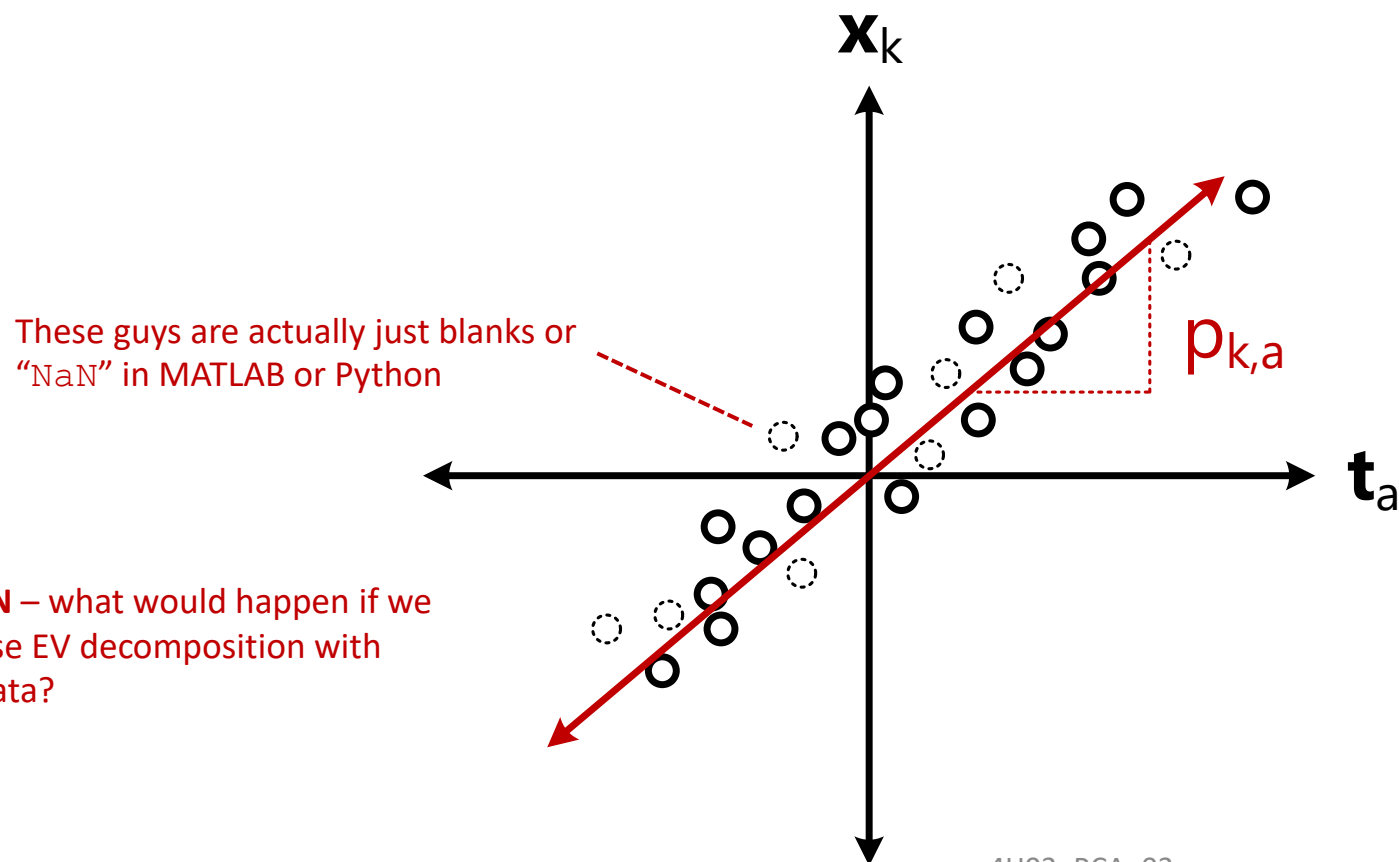
General NIPALS Comments

- In general, we can make the following remarks:
 - Convergence of NIPALS is **guaranteed** if left long enough
 - Convergence is fast if eigenvalues (variance explained by t) are well separated
 - In other words, each component fits a new source of variance
 - If two eigenvalues are close (nearly equal variance explained by each component), convergence will be slow for the first component and fast for the second
 - NIPALS is capable of handling missing data
 - More on this now...



Handling Missing Data

- Missing values are simply **ignored**
 - **WORKSHOP**: What does this mean in our algorithm?
 - **WORKSHOP**: How would you implement this in practice?



QUESTION – what would happen if we tried to use EV decomposition with missing data?



Final Remarks

- NIPALS: The GOOD
 - Calculates ONE component at a time
 - Can handle missing data
 - Convergence guaranteed
- NIPALS: The BAD
 - Round-off errors will **accumulate**
 - Can suffer from outliers
- Other points to note
 - $\hat{X} = \mathbf{t} \mathbf{p}^T \equiv (-\mathbf{t})(-\mathbf{p}^T)$
 - Flipping signs does not matter; result will be the same
 - Can happen due to initial guesses, computer, blah blah



Next Up...

- Using model fitting statistics to improve accuracy
 - Filtering outliers from dataset
 - Using PCA on-line for soft sensors
- And finally, extension of PCA to PLS
 - Not much more, just one extra regression step in NIPALS!

