

Principal Component Analysis

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119) key phrase... “Principal Component Analysis”

- Principal = Important
- Component = Eigen vector
- Typically used to reduce data dimensionality
- E.g. 1,000,000 dimensional data point will just become 2 dimensional!
- This dimensionality reduction is most applicable when data is already into almost clean clusters in high dimensions
- The idea is, you can project data onto vectors along which data appears to be neatly separated out
- The dimension of maximum spread of maximum variance
- However, it is not so much useful when data is convoluted
 - E.g. it is not applicable to ~~concentric circles type of data in 2D (components = 1)~~
 - E.g. it is not applicable to ~~moons type of data in 2D (components = 1)~~
 - E.g. it is not applicable to ~~concentric sine curves in 2D (components = 1)~~

Solving a system of linear equations

120) key phrase... “*Gauss-Siedel Elimination Process*”

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The Gauss-Siedel Elimination process eliminates rows to make the A matrix triangular matrix and then back substitute values to determine x . It uses *augmented matrix* to simultaneously affect b values.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 & 30 & : & 140 \\ 3 & 30 & 45 & : & 198 \\ 5 & 22 & 54 & : & 211 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & : & 14 \\ 3 & 30 & 45 & : & 198 \\ 5 & 22 & 54 & : & 211 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & : & 14 \\ 0 & 24 & 36 & : & 156 \\ 0 & 12 & 39 & : & 141 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & : & 14 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & : & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & : & 3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The *back substitution* process is the most attractive aspect of triangular form of matrices. However, in order to carry out the procedure of solving system of linear equations *every time* a *new* b is input, the row operations need to be *replayed*. A more efficient approach is to remember the effect of the triangularization process and the *LU decomposition* algorithm precisely address this problem.

The LU decomposition stands for *Lower Upper* triangular transformation of a *square matrix*.

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$$Ax = b$$

When b changes, the whole procedure has to repeat – This is not efficient idea!

Solving a system of linear equations

121) key phrase... “*LU Decomposition*”

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be replayed. A more efficient approach is to remember the effect of the triangularization process and the *LU decomposition* algorithm precisely address this problem.

The LU decomposition stands for *Lower Upper* triangular transformation of a *square matrix*.

$$A_{m \times m} = L_{m \times m} \times U_{m \times m}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 & 30 \\ 3 & 30 & 45 \\ 5 & 22 & 54 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 20 & 30 \\ 0 & 24 & 36 \\ 0 & 0 & 21 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now solving for x vector can be accomplished in *two steps* as below.

$$Ax = b \Rightarrow L \times U \times x = b$$
$$= L \times (U \times x) = b$$

Now the two steps for solving the system of linear equations is,

1. Let $y = Ux$
2. First solve $Ly = b$ using back substitution $\Rightarrow y$
3. Second solve $Ux = y$ using back substitution $\Rightarrow x$

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$$Ax = b$$

When b changes, No Need to Repeat the Upper triangulation process!

Solving a system of linear equations

122) key phrase... “Givens Rotation Matrix”

by an angle θ , the matrix is given as below.

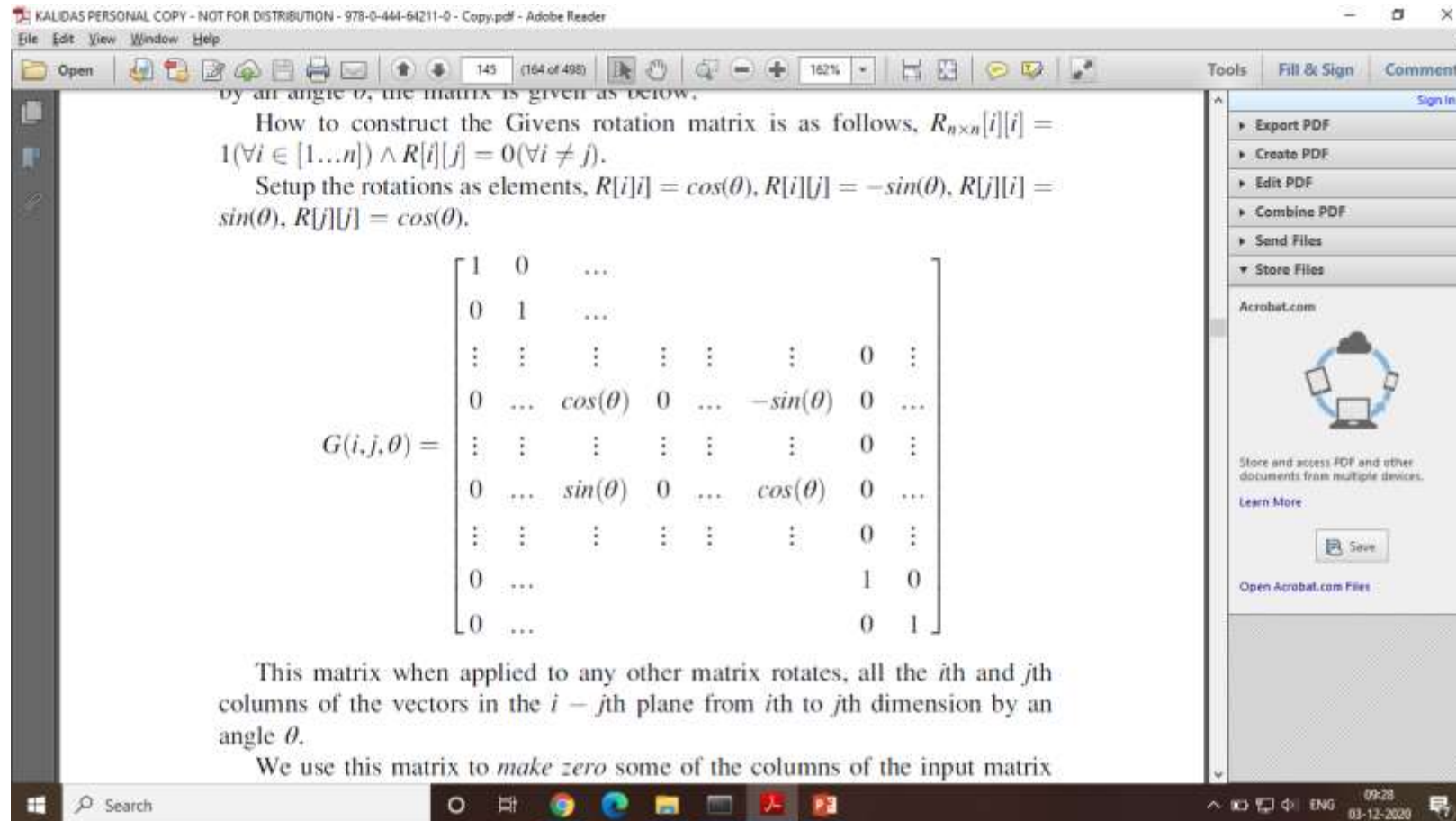
How to construct the Givens rotation matrix is as follows, $R_{n \times n}[i][i] = 1 (\forall i \in [1 \dots n]) \wedge R[i][j] = 0 (\forall i \neq j)$.

Setup the rotations as elements, $R[i][i] = \cos(\theta)$, $R[i][j] = -\sin(\theta)$, $R[j][i] = \sin(\theta)$, $R[j][j] = \cos(\theta)$.

$$G(i, j, \theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & & & & & \\ & 1 & \dots & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \ddots \\ & 0 & \dots & \cos(\theta) & 0 & \dots & -\sin(\theta) & 0 & \dots \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \ddots \\ & 0 & \dots & \sin(\theta) & 0 & \dots & \cos(\theta) & 0 & \dots \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \ddots \\ & 0 & \dots & & & & & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & \dots & & & & & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix when applied to any other matrix rotates, all the i th and j th columns of the vectors in the $i - j$ th plane from i th to j th dimension by an angle θ .

We use this matrix to *make zero* some of the columns of the input matrix



Solving a system of linear equations

123) key phrase... “QR Decomposition”

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ALGORITHM 15 QR decomposition—Simplified pseudocode.

```
1: Input: A
2:  $Q = I, R = A$ 
3: for  $i = n : 2$  do
4:   for  $j = i - 1 : 1$  do
5:      $Q = Z(i, j, R) * Q$ 
6:      $R = Q * R$ 
7:   end for
8: end for
9: return (Q,R)
```

Givens rotation matrix is a generalization of the rotation matrix to a high dimensional space. Consider an identity matrix whose each row is a vector.

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Solving a system of linear equations

124) key phrase... “Singular Value Decomposition - SVD”

ALGORITHM 16 SVD Algorithm—Simplified pseudocode.

- 1: Input : $A_{m \times n}$ matrix.
- 2: $\hat{U}_{m \times m}, Z_{m \times n} = QR(A)$ //QR factorization of A
- 3: $\Rightarrow A = \hat{U} \times Z$
- 4: Note that Z is an upper triangular matrix
- 5: Consider $Z_{n \times m}^T$ **Some iterations to happen instead of 1 step**
- 6: $V_{n \times n}, D_{n \times m} = QR(Z^T)$ //QR factorization of Z^T
- 7: $\Rightarrow Z^T = V \times D$
- 8: $A = \hat{U} \times (Z^T)^T = \hat{U} \times (V \times D)^T = U \times D^T \times V^T$
- 9: Note that D^T is still a diagonal matrix
- 10: Now, D^T needs to be cast as Σ with diagonal element ordering
- 11: Let $(\exists P) : D^T = P \times \Sigma$
- 12: Let $U = \hat{U} \times P$ // to absorb the row permutations
- 13: Then, we have $A = U \times \Sigma \times V^T$ as required by the SVD factorization

Solving a system of linear equations

125) key phrase... “*Principal Components*”

- Let $X_{N \times k}$ be the given data matrix (each data point is k dimensional)
- $X = U \Sigma V^T$
- Determine these matrices by a function call, `svd()` , $u, s, vh = \text{svd}(X)$
- Now, vh is a matrix (of $k \times k$ shape) of eigen vectors
- These eigen vectors are used for projection of input to lower dimensional space
- The 0th eigen vectors corresponds to the one with highest eigen value, 1st element the next and so on in this vh -matrix
- Example of 2d transformation
 - Lets, say, we take $vh[:,0]$ and $vh[:,1]$
 - Each xi is now projected into 2 dimensional space as,
 - $xi \mapsto (xi \cdot vh[:, 0], xi \cdot vh[:, 1])$
- Example of 3d transformation
 - Lets, say, we take $vh[:,0]$, $vh[:,1]$, $vh[:,2]$
 - Each xi is now projected into 3 dimensional space as,
 - $xi \mapsto (xi \cdot vh[:, 0], xi \cdot vh[:, 1], xi \cdot vh[:, 2])$
- Likewise...

Caveats!

- Centroid of the data matters!
- If you change the centroid, the principal components would change
- Imagine, vectors to Delhi from Tirupati
- vs, vectors from within Delhi to Delhi... *the angle subtended at the origin matters*
- PCA
 - First determines centroid of the training set (call it PCA-centroid say)
 - And then goes on to detect eigen vectors
- So, when a new data point comes..
 - 1) It will be translated to PCA-centroid
 - 2) After that, it will be projected on to the eigen vectors

126) key phrase... “PCA Transformation”

- PCA(`n_components=2`)
 - Specify the number of components to use
- Train PCA on Training set – `PCA.train(X_train)`
 - Origin translation
 - PCA_center of `X_train` will be determined
 - All the points will be ‘centered’ about
 - $X_{train_shifted} = X_{train} - PCA_center$
 - Determine top 2 eigen vectors
- Data transformation
 - Usage
 - `X_train_pca = PCA.transform(X_train)`
 - `X_test_pca = PCA.transform(X_test)`
 - What happens when a new data point `xi` comes?
 - STEP 1: Centering: (*internally*) $xi_t = xi - PCA_center$
 - STEP 2: Dimensionality transformation: $((xi_t \cdot v1), (xi_t \cdot v2))$ are the new dimensions

Actual Points
(2 + 6 dimensions)

PCA recovered
(2 dimensional)

NMF recovered
(2 dimensional)

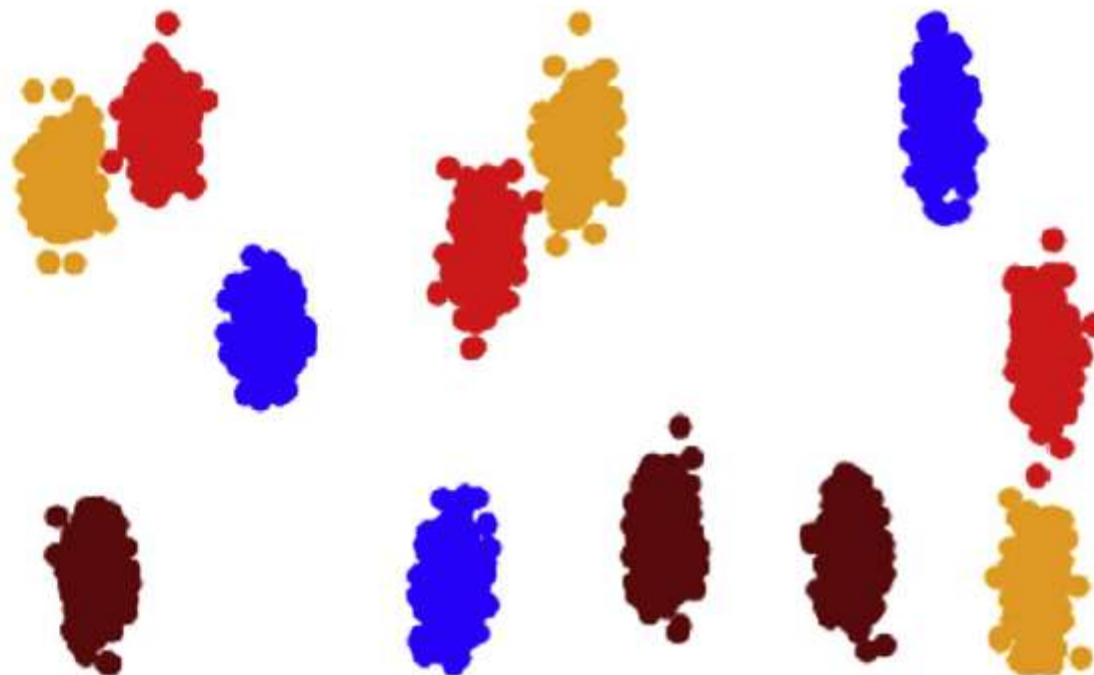


FIG. 23 Principle component analysis (PCA) and nonnegative matrix factorization (NMF)-based lower dimensional feature transformation of data points in 8 dimensions is depicted here. A set of 1000 data points are generated from four natural groups of points shown by four distinct colors (*left most figure*). The points are then transformed into 8 dimensional space by the transformation $(x_1, x_2) \mapsto (R(), R(), x_1, x_2, R(), R(), R(), R())$ where $R()$ is a function that generates a Gaussian random number $1 + 0.5 * N(0, 1)$. The input data is then transformed using PCA into a lower dimensional space by specifying number of components as 2, i.e., to consider only top

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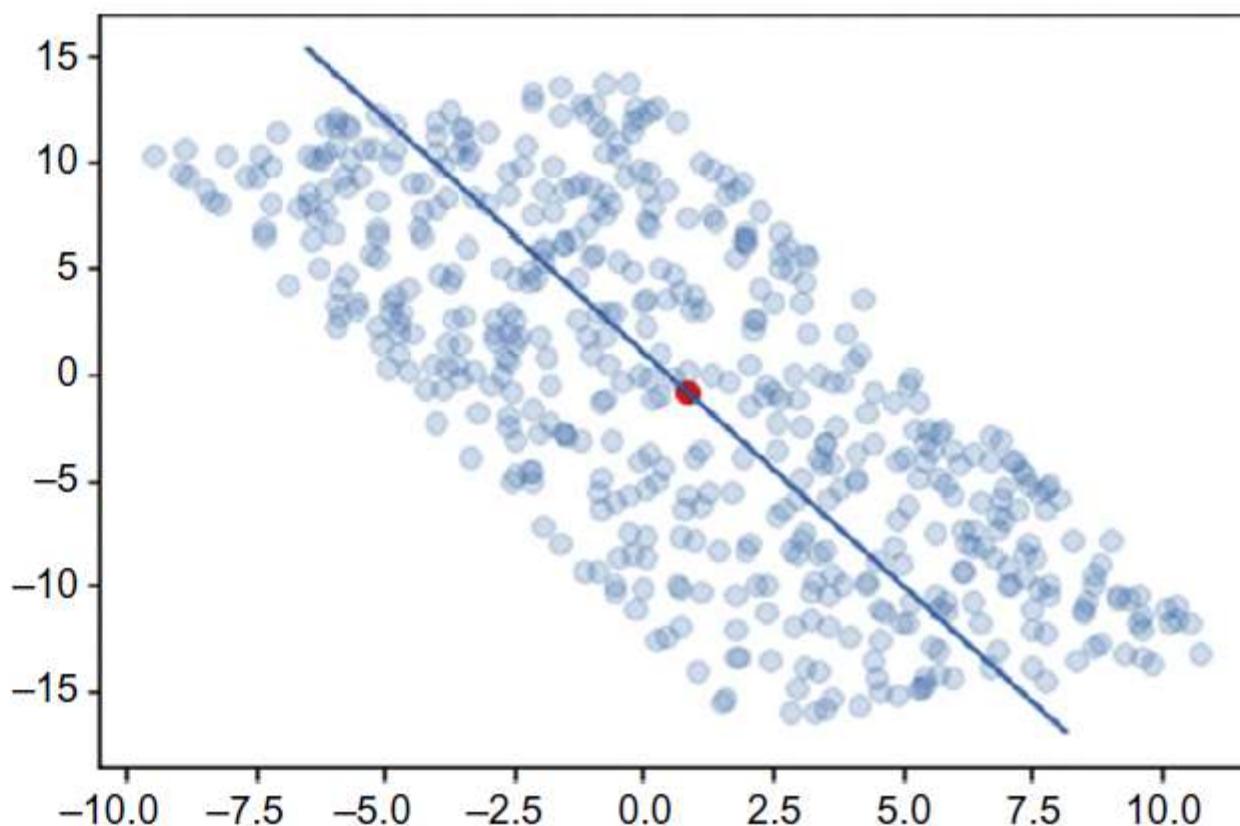


FIG. 24 Principle component analysis is used for determining major axis of a distribution of 1000 points along a parallelogram. The top eigenvector is plotted as a *line* in the 2 dimensional space. Center of the data is shown by a *red dot*.

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