CS57300 PURDUE UNIVERSITY AUGUST 30, 2021

DATA MINING

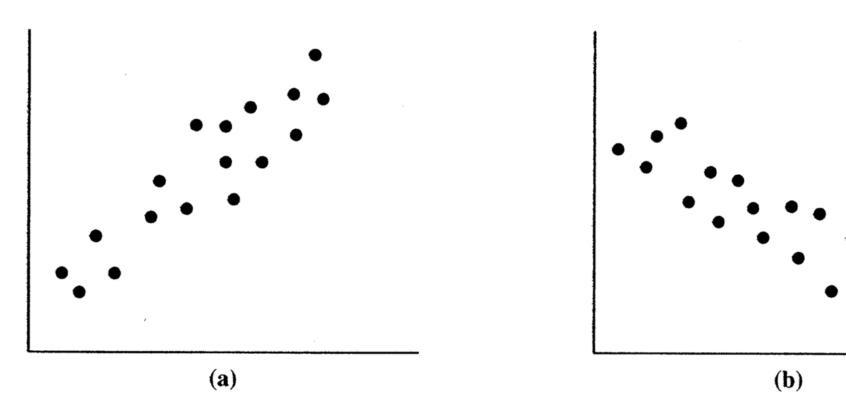
COVARIANCE AND CORRELATION

COVARIANCE

Measures how variables X and Y vary together:

$$COV(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$$
$$= E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

- Positive if large values of X are associated with large values of Y
- Negative if large values of X are associated with small values of Y



Measures linear relationship

COVARIANCE

For discrete random variable pair (X, Y) that can take on the values of $(x_{i_1}y_i)$ for i=1, ..., n with equal probabilities 1/n:

$$COV(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - E[X])(y_i - E[Y])$$

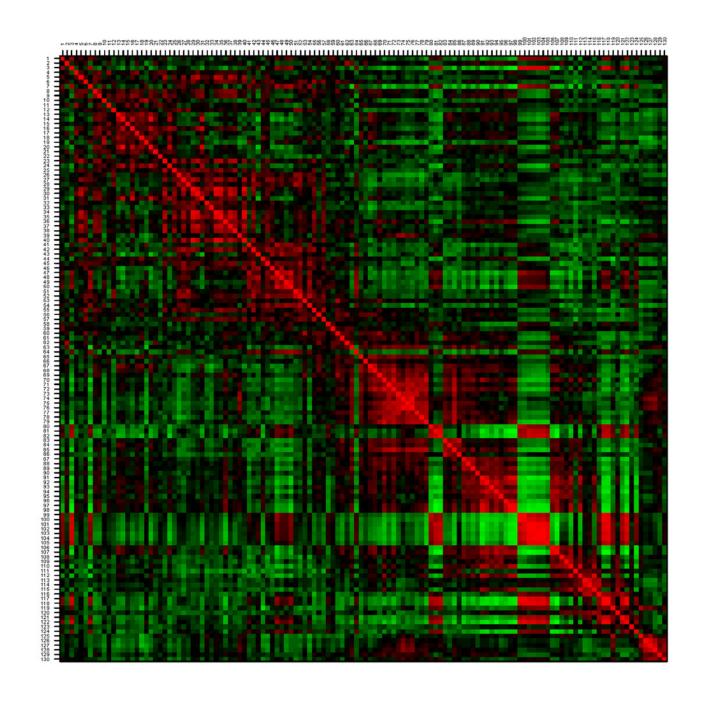
- Covariance matrix (Σ)
 - Symmetric matrix of covariances for p variables
 - $\sum_{ij} = COV(X_i, X_j)$

CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

- Covariance depends on ranges of X_j and X_k
- Correlation standardizes covariance by dividing through standard deviations

$$\rho(X_j, X_k) = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(x_{ij} - \bar{X}_j \right) \left(x_{ik} - \bar{X}_k \right)}{\sigma_{X_j} \sigma_{X_k}}$$

- Correlation matrix
 - Symmetric matrix of correlations for p variables
 - What values are on the diagonal?

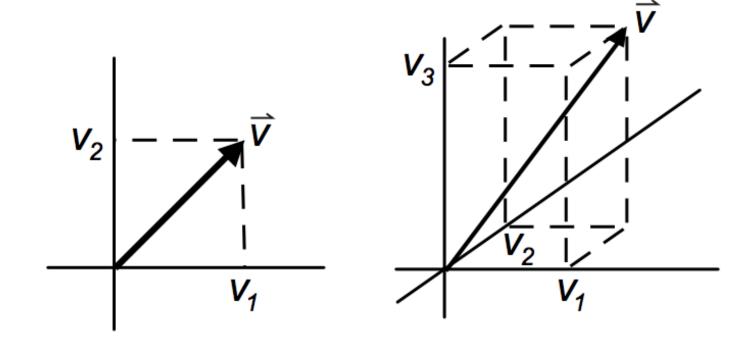


LINEAR ALGEBRA

VECTORS

- A vector is a 1D array of values
- We use the notation x_i to denote the i th entry of x

- $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$
- Vectors can be graphically depicted as arrows in n-dimensional space

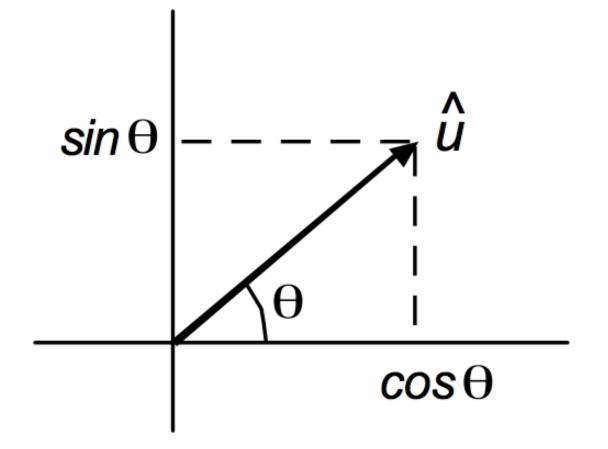


The **norm** (length) of a vector is defined as $||x|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2}$

MORE ON VECTORS

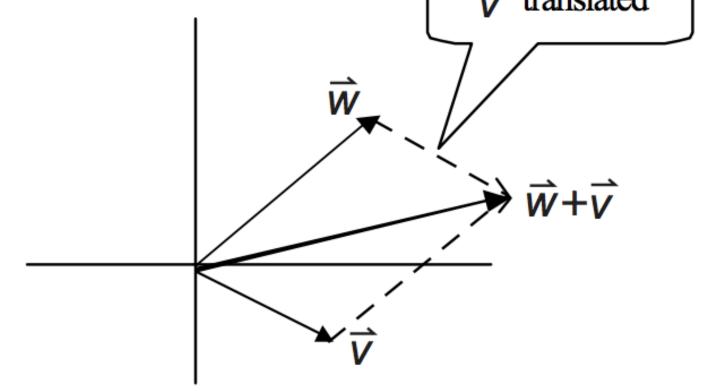
A *unit vector* is a vector of length 1. A 2-D unit vector can be parameterized as:

$$\hat{u}(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$



Multiplying a vector by a scalar simply changes the length of the vector by that factor ||ax|| = |a|||x|| (when a is negative, the direction of the vector is reversed)

▶ Vector addition: $z = w + v \Leftrightarrow z_i = w_i + v_i$



INNER PRODUCT

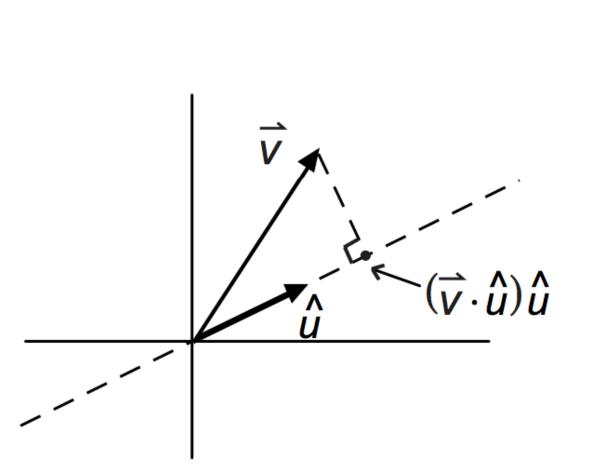
The inner product of two vectors is the sum of pairwise product of components

$$w \cdot v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i v_i$$

Its equivalent geometric definition is:

$$w \cdot v = ||w|| ||v|| \cos (\emptyset_{vw})$$

- The inner product of a vector *v* with a unit vector *u* is the length of *v*'s projection on *u*.
- Two vectors are *orthogonal* to each other if their inner product is 0.



 $\overrightarrow{w} \cdot \overrightarrow{v} = \frac{b}{\|\overrightarrow{w}\|} \cdot \|\overrightarrow{w}\| \cdot \|\overrightarrow{v}\|$

VECTOR SPACE

- A vector space can be **spanned** by a set of vectors iff one can write any vector in the vector space as a linear combination of the set
 - Can the 3D vector space be spanned by (1, 1, 0) and (0, 2, 3)?
- A set of vectors $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$ is linearly independent iff the only solution to the following equation is $\alpha_k = 0$ (for all k)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_k v_k = 0$$

BASIS

- A basis for a vector space is a linearly independent spanning set.
 - Is (1, 1, 0), (0, 2, 3), (0, 1, 0), (2, 5, 3) a basis for the 3D vector space?
- The **standard basis** of a vector space is the set of unit vectors that lie along the axes of the space
 - $e_1=(1,0,...,0), e_2=(0,1,...,0), ..., e_n=(0,0,...,1)$

MATRICES

- A matrix is a 2D array of values
- We use A_{ij} to denote the entry in row i and column j

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & A_{m2} & \cdots & A_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Higher dimensional matrices are called tensors

BASIC MATRIX OPERATIONS

For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, matrix addition/subtraction is just the elementwise addition or subtraction of entries

$$C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} = A + B \iff C_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}$$

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, transpose is an operator that "flips" rows and columns $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} = A^T \iff C_{ji} = A_{ij}$

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ matrix multiplication is defined as

$$C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p} = AB \iff C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

Note: Matrix multiplication is associative (A(BC) = (AB)C), distributive (A(B+C) = AB + AC), not commutative ($AB \neq BA$)

SPECIAL TYPES OF MATRICES

- A square matrix is a matrix with the same number of rows and columns
- A diagonal matrix is a matrix for which all entries outside the main diagonal are zero

IDENTITY AND INVERSE MATRIX

The identity matrix $I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a square matrix with ones on diagonal and zeros elsewhere, has property that for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ AI = IA = A (for different sized I)

ORTHOGONAL MATRIX

- An **orthogonal matrix** is a square matrix for which every column is a unit vector, and every pair of columns is orthogonal.
 - If A is an orthogonal matrix, then

$$A^T A = I$$
 and $A^{-1} = A^T$ and $AA^T = I$

ORTHOGONAL MATRIX

If A is an orthogonal matrix, then $A^TA = I$ and $A^{-1} = A^T$ and $AA^T = I$

So A^T is also an orthogonal matrix, which means that every row of A is a unit vector and every pair of rows of A is orthogonal.

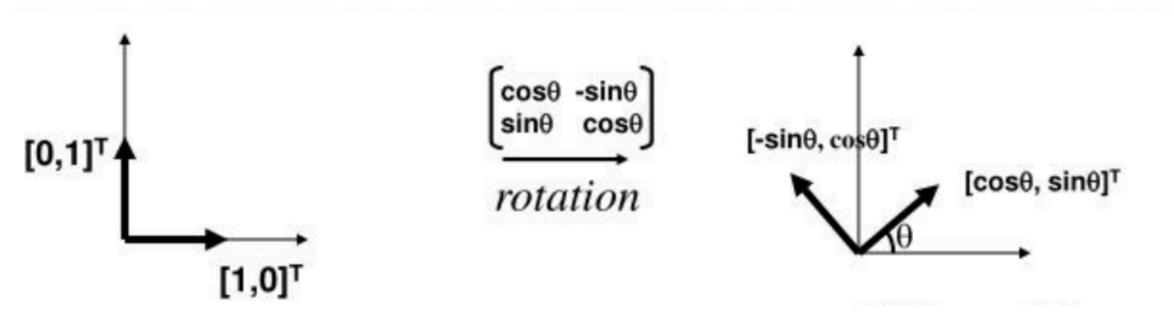
OTHER DEFINITIONS/PROPERTIES

Transpose of matrix multiplication, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

Inverse of product, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ both square and invertible $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

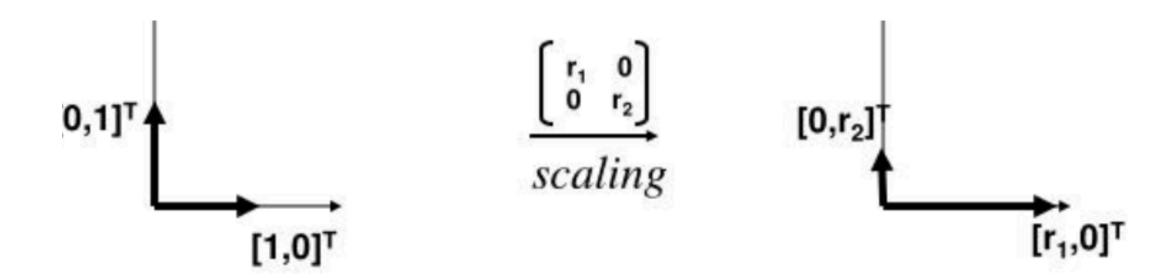
REPRESENTING LINEAR TRANSFORMATION USING MATRICES

When A is an orthogonal matrix, Ax rotates x



Can also be interpreted as change of basis

When A is an diagonal matrix, Ax stretch or squeeze the axes



More general square matrix involves both rotation and scaling

EIGENVALUES AND EIGENVECTORS

An **eigenvector** is a non-zero vector that changes by only a scalar factor when a particular linear transformation is applied to it, and the scalar is **eigenvalue**.

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

- ▶ How to calculate eigenvalues and eigenvectors?
 - $(A \lambda I)x = 0$. Let the determinant of $A \lambda I$ be 0.

EIGENDECOMPOSITION

- Let A be a square matrix with N linearly independent eigenvectors, q_i (i=1,...,N). Then A can be factorized as:
 - $A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$
 - Q is the square matrix whose *i*-th column is the eigenvector q_i of A, Λ is the diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements are the corresponding eigenvalues, i.e., $\Lambda_{ii}=\lambda_i$

DERIVATION OF EIGENDECOMPOSITION

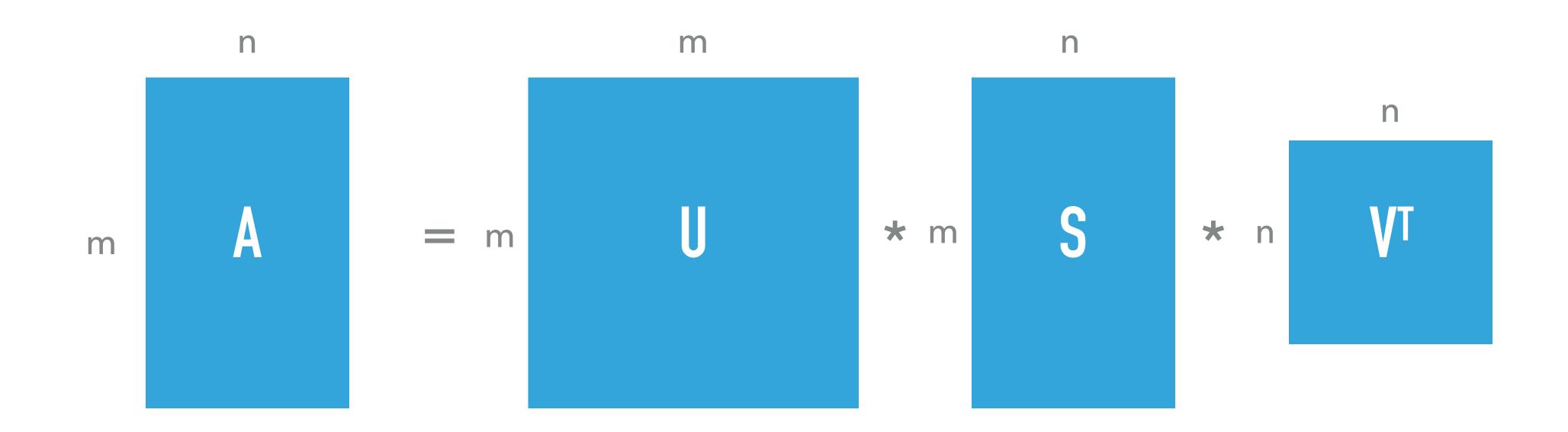
Let A be a square matrix with N linearly independent eigenvectors, q_i (i=1,...,N). Then A can be factorized as: $A=Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$

EIGENDECOMPOSITION

- Let A be a square matrix with N linearly independent eigenvectors, q_i (i=1,...,N). Then A can be factorized as:
 - $A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$
 - Q is the square matrix whose *i*-th column is the eigenvector q_i of A, Λ is the diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements are the corresponding eigenvalues, i.e., $\Lambda_{ii}=\lambda_i$
 - For a symmetric matrix A, Q is an orthogonal matrix, that is, $A=Q\Lambda Q^T$

SIGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

A rectangular matrix A can be broken down into the product of three matrices: an orthogonal matrix U, a diagonal matrix S, and the transpose of an orthogonal matrix V.



DERIVATION OF SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

- \triangleright Columns of U are eigenvectors of AA^T
- ▶ Columns of V are eigenvectors of A^TA
- ▶ Diagonal entries of S are the square roots of the non-zero eigenvalues of AA^T (as well as A^TA)