# Multivariate Data and Matrix Algebra Review 

Biometry 726
Fall 2010

## What is 'multivariate' data?

Data in which each sampling unit contributes more than one outcome.
$\left.\left.\begin{array}{l|l}\hline \text { Sampling unit } & \text { Multivariate outcome } \\ \hline \text { Person } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Duplicate serum concentration measures } \\ \text { of a panel of cytokines (e.g. IL6, TNF } \alpha, \text { etc. } \\ \text { Chick embryo heart }\end{array} \\ \text { Number of cells in the superior and inferior } \\ \text { atrioventricular cushions measured in six } \\ \text { serial confocal planes }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { Third grade students' test scores } \\ \text { Age of death of each member } \\ \text { Twin pair } \\ \text { Cancer patient }\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { Tumor response measured at 3 weeks, } \\ 2 \text { months and 6 months post treatment }\end{array}\right]$.

## Multivariate data properties

What property/ies of multivariate data make commonly used statistical approaches inappropriate or impractical?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

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## Goals of multivariate data analysis

1. $\qquad$
$\qquad$
2. $\qquad$
$\qquad$
3. $\qquad$
$\qquad$
4. $\qquad$
$\qquad$
5. $\qquad$

## Random vectors

Because each 'subject' contributes multiple outcome measures to the analysis, it is convenient to organize subject $i$ 's $n_{i}$ outcomes as a column vector.

$$
\mathbf{Y}_{i}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
Y_{i 1} \\
Y_{i 2} \\
\vdots \\
Y_{i, n_{i}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- $Y_{i}$ 's dimension is $\qquad$
- $Y_{i}$ is a random variable as are its individual elements
- The typeset depiction of a random vector uses bold face $\mathbf{Y}_{i}$ rather than $Y_{i}$
- The handwritten depiction of a random vector is


## Random vectors (cont.)

Representing vectors as columns can take up a lot of space. To get around this, we often use the transpose operator to depict vectors. Therefore, we might write

$$
\mathbf{Y}_{i}=\left(Y_{i 1}, Y_{i 2}, \ldots, Y_{i, n_{i}}\right)^{\prime}
$$

where ' means transpose. Notice this representation states that $\mathbf{Y}_{i}$ is the transpose of a $1 \times n_{i}$ row vector, which makes it an $n_{i} \times 1$ column vector. Vectors are, by default, column vectors unless otherwise stated.

Matrix algebra - basic terminology
A rectangular array of real numbers arranged in $m$ rows and $n$ columns is called an $m \times n$ matrix.

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{11} & a_{12} & \ldots & a_{1 n} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & \ldots & a_{2 n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
a_{m 1} & a_{m 2} & \ldots & a_{m n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

We write $\mathbf{A}=\left\{a_{i j}\right\}$ to represent the matrix A whose $i j$ th element is $a_{i j}$.

## Matrix operations

- Addition: $\quad \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}=\left\{a_{i j}+b_{i j}\right\}$ for $m \times n$ matrices $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$
- Matrices $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are conformal for addition (or subtraction) if the row dimensions of $A$ and $B$ are equal, and the column dimensions of A and B are equal.
- Matrix addition is commutative. $\qquad$
- Matrix addition is associative.
- Scalar multiplication: $c \mathbf{A}=\left\{c a_{i j}\right\}$


## Matrix multiplication

- Matrix multiplication: For $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ and $n \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{B}$, the matrix product $\mathbf{A B}$ is the $m \times p$ matrix $\mathbf{C}$ where

$$
c_{i j}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{i k} b_{k j} .
$$

- Matrices A and B are conformal for the product AB if the column dimension of $\mathbf{A}$ equals the row dimension of $\mathbf{B}$.

Let $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}2 & -3 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 2\end{array}\right]$ and $\mathbf{B}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}3 & 4 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 2\end{array}\right]$. Find $\mathbf{A B}$.

## Matrix multiplication (cont.)

- AB is the pre-multiplication of B by A or equivalently, the post-multiplication of A by B.
- Matrix multiplication does not necessarily commute.

That is, $\qquad$

- e.g. Let $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2\end{array}\right]$ and let $\mathbf{B}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right]$. Then $\mathrm{AB}=\quad$ and $\mathrm{BA}=$
- Matrix multiplication is associative.
- Matrix multiplication distributes over addition.
- The transpose of an $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$, denoted $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$, is the $n \times m$ matrix whose $i j$ th element is the $j i$ th element of $\mathbf{A}$.
- More succinctly, let $\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$. Then $c_{i j}=a_{j i}$.
- $\left[\begin{array}{rrr}2 & -3 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 2\end{array}\right]^{\prime}=$
- $\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\mathbf{A}$
- $(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})^{\prime}=\mathbf{A}^{\prime}+\mathbf{B}^{\prime}$
- $(\mathbf{A B})^{\prime}=\mathbf{B}^{\prime} \mathbf{A}^{\prime}$


## Types of matrices

- Square matrices have the same number of rows and columns. The row (or column) dimension is called the order of the matrix.
- Note that the matrix product $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}$ is defined only if $\mathbf{A}$ is square.
- If $\mathbf{A}^{2}=\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}=\mathbf{A}$ then $\mathbf{A}$ is said to be idempotent.
- $\mathbf{A}$ is a symmetric matrix if $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}=\mathbf{A}$.
- A square matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is diagonal if $a_{i j}=0$ for all $i \neq j$, that is to say, if all off-diagonal elements are zero.
- The order $n$ identity matrix, $\mathbf{I}_{n}$, is a diagonal matrix with diagonal elements equal to 1 .


## Triangular matrices

- Square matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is upper-triangular if $a_{i j}=0$ for $i>j$.
- Square matrix A is lower-triangular if $a_{i j}=0$ for $i<j$.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{11} & a_{12} & \ldots & a_{1 n} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & \ldots & a_{2 n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
a_{n 1} & a_{n 2} & \ldots & a_{n n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- $a_{i j} \quad i=j$
- $a_{i j} i<j$
- $a_{i j} i>j$


## Matrix inverse definition

- An $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is said to be nonsingular or invertible if there exists $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{B}$ such that

$$
\mathbf{A B}=\mathbf{B A}=\mathbf{I}
$$

B is called the multiplicative inverse of A . We write $\mathbf{B}=\mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

- A square matrix with no multiplicative inverse is said to be singular.



## Matrix determinant

- The determinant of the square $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is a scalar given by

$$
|\mathbf{A}|= \begin{cases}a_{11} & \text { if } n=1 \\ \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{1 j} A_{1 j} & \text { if } n>1\end{cases}
$$

- $A_{1 j}$ is called the cofactor of $a_{1 j}$, and is defined as

$$
A_{1 j}=\left|\mathbf{A}_{1 j}\right|(-1)^{1+j}
$$

where $\mathbf{A}_{1 j}$ is the $(n-1) \times(n-1)$ matrix obtained by deleting the first row and $j$ th column of A.

## Determinant of a $2 \times 2$ matrix

Find $|\mathbf{A}|$ where $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22}\end{array}\right]$

## Determinant of a $3 \times 3$ matrix

Find $|\mathbf{A}|$ where $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33}\end{array}\right]$

- In general, $A_{i j}=\left|\mathbf{A}_{i j}\right|(-1)^{i+j}$ is the cofactor of $a_{i j}$.
- For $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 2\end{array}\right]$, find $A_{21}$, the cofactor of $a_{21}$.
- It can be shown that

$$
a_{i 1} A_{j 1}+a_{i 2} A_{j 2}+\ldots+a_{i n} A_{j n}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
|\mathbf{A}| & \text { if } i=j \\
0 & \text { if } i \neq j
\end{array}\right.
$$

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## Matrix adjoint

- Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. We define a new matrix called the adjoint of $\mathbf{A}$ by

$$
\operatorname{adj} \mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
A_{11} & A_{21} & \ldots & A_{n 1} \\
A_{12} & A_{22} & \ldots & A_{n 2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
A_{1 n} & A_{2 n} & \ldots & A_{n n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- In words, the adjoint of $\mathbf{A}$ is formed by replacing each term by its cofactor, and then transposing the resulting matrix.


## Matrix inverse revisited

$\mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{a d j} \mathbf{A})=\left[\begin{array}{rrlr}a_{11} & a_{12} & \ldots & a_{1 n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \ldots & a_{2 n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n 1} & a_{n 2} & \ldots & a_{n n}\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rrrr}A_{11} & A_{21} & \ldots & A_{n 1} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & \ldots & A_{n 2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{1 n} & A_{2 n} & \ldots & A_{n n}\end{array}\right]=$

## Result: $\mathbf{A}^{-1}=$

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Finding matrix inverse
Use the result on the previous slide to find the inverse of
$\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right]$.

## Vectors

- A column vector is an $m \times 1$ matrix.
- A row vector is a $1 \times n$ matrix.
- By default, vectors are assumed to be column vectors unless indicated otherwise.
- The number of vector elements is called its dimension.
- Inner product: The inner product or dot product of two $m$-dimensional vectors x and y is defined as

$$
\mathbf{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{y}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
x_{1} & x_{2} & \ldots & x_{m}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
y_{1} \\
y_{2} \\
\vdots \\
y_{m}
\end{array}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} y_{i}
$$

- For scalar $c, c \mathbf{x}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}c x_{1} & c x_{2} & \ldots & c x_{m}\end{array}\right]^{\prime}$


## Linear regression example

Let $Y_{i}$ be the response for the $i$ th subject with $k$ covariates $x_{i 1}, x_{i 2}, \ldots, x_{i k}$. Recall that for multiple linear regression, we assume

$$
Y_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} x_{i 1}+\beta_{2} x_{i 2}+\ldots+\beta_{k} x_{i k}+\varepsilon_{i}
$$

The right hand side of this expression can be written as the inner product of two vectors, as follows:

## Vector norm

Let $\mathbf{x}^{\prime}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}x_{1} & x_{2} & \ldots & x_{m}\end{array}\right]$.

- The norm (or length or magnitude) of x is given by:
- z is the vector x normalized to unit length if

$$
\mathrm{z}=\frac{\mathrm{x}}{\|\mathrm{x}\|}
$$

To see that z has unit length, note that:

## Angle between two vectors

Let x and y be two m -dimensional vectors. The angle $\theta$ between the two vectors is defined such that

$$
\cos (\theta)=\frac{\mathbf{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\|}
$$

Proof for 2-dimensional case:
(Use fact that $\left.\cos \left(\theta_{1}-\theta_{2}\right)=\cos \left(\theta_{1}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)+\sin \left(\theta_{1}\right) \sin \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right)$.

## Orthogonal and orthonormal vectors

- The collection of equally-dimensioned vectors, $\mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{2}, \ldots$, $\mathbf{x}_{p}$, are orthogonal if $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}_{j}=0$ whenever $i \neq j$.
- The collection of equally-dimensioned vectors, $\mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{2}, \ldots$, $\mathbf{x}_{p}$, are orthonormal if they are orthogonal and $\left\|\mathbf{x}_{i}\right\|=1$ for all $i$. That is to say,

$$
\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}_{j}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text { if } i=j\end{cases}
$$

## Linear dependence

- Let $\mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{2}, \ldots, \mathrm{x}_{p}$ be a collection of vectors of equal dimension. We say $\mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{2}, \ldots, \mathrm{x}_{p}$ are linearly dependent if there exist constants $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{p}$ not all zero such that

$$
c_{1} \mathbf{x}_{1}+c_{2} \mathbf{x}_{2}+\ldots+c_{p} \mathbf{x}_{p}=\mathbf{0}
$$

Linear dependence means at least one vector in the set can be written as a linear combination of the other vectors.

- Vectors of the same dimension that are not linearly dependent are said to be linearly independent.


## Row rank and column rank

- The row rank of a matrix is the maximum number of linearly independent rows.
- The column rank of a matrix is the maximum number of linearly independent columns.
- E.g. Find the row and column rank of

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrr}
1 & 2 & 4 \\
3 & 0 & 6 \\
5 & 3 & 13
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Rank (cont.)

- row rank = column rank
- If the rank of $m \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is $\min (m, n)$, then $\mathbf{A}$ is said to be of full rank. Otherwise, $\mathbf{A}$ is said to be rank deficient.


## Linear regression example - dummy variables

```
data one;
    input y group;
    datalines;
    0.62 2
-0.55 2
-0.50 1
    0.41 1
-0.55 3
    0.067 1
    1.27 3
-0.11 1
-0.33 2
-0.54 3
;
run;
```

```
data two;
```

data two;
set one;
set one;
if group = 1 then x1 = 1; else x1 = 0;
if group = 1 then x1 = 1; else x1 = 0;
if group = 2 then x2 = 1; else x2 = 0;
if group = 2 then x2 = 1; else x2 = 0;
if group = 3 then x3 = 1; else x3 = 0;
if group = 3 then x3 = 1; else x3 = 0;
run;
run;
proc reg data = two;
proc reg data = two;
model y = x1 x2 x3;
model y = x1 x2 x3;
run;

```
run;
```


## Linear reg example - dummy variables (cont.)

## Output

NOTE: Model is not full rank. Least-squares solutions for the parameters are not unique. Some statistics will be misleading. A reported DF of 0 or $B$ means that the estimate is biased.
NOTE: The following parameters have been set to 0, since the variables are a linear combination of other variables as shown.

$$
\text { x3 }=\text { Intercept - x1 - x2 }
$$

## Matrix trace

- Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a square $n \times n$ matrix. The trace of $\mathbf{A}$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A})=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i i} .
$$

- Trace is the sum of the diagonal elements of $\mathbf{A}$
- Properties
- $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A B})=\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{B A})$
- $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A B})=\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{B}^{\prime} \mathbf{A}^{\prime}\right)$
$\Rightarrow \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A B})=\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime} \mathbf{B}^{\prime}\right)$


## Orthogonal matrices

- An $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is orthogonal if its columns, considered as vectors, form an orthonormal set.
- A is an orthogonal matrix if $\mathbf{A}^{\prime} \mathbf{A}=\mathbf{I}$.
- From the previous result, we conclude that for orthogonal matrix $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}^{-1}=$ $\qquad$


## Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an $n \times n$ matrix. A scalar $\lambda$ is said to be an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{A}$ if there exists $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ such that $\mathbf{A x}=\lambda \mathbf{x}$. The vector x is said to be an eigenvector of $\lambda$.
- Show that $\mathbf{x}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}2 & 1\end{array}\right]^{\prime}$ is an eigenvector for $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}4 & -2 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}\right]$, and find the corresponding eigenvalue.


## Characteristic equation

1. Recall from Slide $21, \mathbf{A}^{-1}=\frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \operatorname{adj} \mathbf{A}$. It follows that $\underline{\mathbf{A} \text { is singular if }|\mathbf{A}|=0 .}$
2. Further, it can be shown that for any square matrix $\mathbf{A}$, the solution x to the matrix equation $\mathrm{Ax}=\mathbf{0}$ is non-zero only if $A$ is singular.

- We can rewrite $\mathbf{A x}=\lambda \mathbf{x}$ as $\mathbf{A x}-\lambda \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}$ or equivalently

$$
(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{0}
$$

From 1 and 2 above, we know that a non-zero solution exists only if

$$
|\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I}|=0
$$

- $|\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I}|=0$ is called the characteristic equation and is used to find the eigenvalues of a square matrix.

Finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors
Find the eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors for
$\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rr}3 & 2 \\ 3 & -2\end{array}\right]$.

## Quadratic forms

- Let $\mathbf{x}$ be an $n$-dimensional vector and let $\mathbf{A}$ be a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix. The scalar

$$
\mathbf{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{A x}
$$

is called a quadratic form.

- E.g. Find the matrix associated with the quadratic form $3 x_{1}^{2}-5 x_{1} x_{2}+x_{2}^{2}$ where $\mathbf{x}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}x_{1} & x_{2}\end{array}\right]^{\prime}$.


## Positive definite matrices

A real symmetric matrix A is said to be
i. Positive definite if $\mathrm{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{A x}>0$ for all nonzero x
ii. Negative definite if $\mathrm{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{A x}<0$ for all nonzero x
iii. Positive semi-definite if $\mathrm{x}^{\prime} \mathrm{Ax} \geq 0$ for all nonzero x
iv. Negative semi-definite if $\mathrm{x}^{\prime} \mathbf{A x} \leq 0$ for all nonzero x

