## Scientific Computing for Biologists

Data as Vectors: Geometry of Bivariate Relationships I

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#### Overview of Lecture

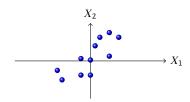
- Variable space/Subject space representations
- Vector Geometry
  - Vectors are directed line segments
  - Vector length
- Vector Arithmetic
  - Addition, subtraction
  - Scalar multiplication
  - Linear combinations of vectors
  - Dot product and projection
- Vector representations of multivariate data
  - Mean as projection in subject space
  - Bivariate regression in geometric terms

## Variable Space Representation of a Data Set

Consider a data set in which we've measured variables  $X = X_1, X_2, ..., X_p$ , on a set of subjects (objects)  $a_1, ..., a_n$ .

	$X_1$	$X_2$
$\overline{a_1}$	0.9	1.4
$a_2$	1.1	1.7
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$a_n$	0.5	1.55

Such data is most often represented by drawing the objects as points in space of dimension p. This is the *variable space* representation of the data.

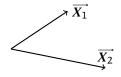


# Subject Space Representation of a Data Set

An alternate representation is to consider the variables in the space of the subjects. This is the *subject space* representation.

How do we come up with a useful representation of variables in subject space?

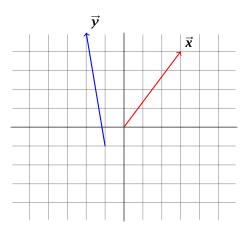
- Let the variables be represented by centered vectors
  - lengths of vectors are proportional to standard deviation
  - angle between vectors represents association or similarity



This representation of variables as vectors in the space of the subjects is the view that we'll develop over the next few lectures.

## **Vector Geometry**

Vectors are directed line segments.

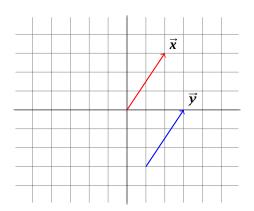


All of the figures and algebraic formulas I show you apply to n-dimensional vectors.

## **Vector Geometry**

Vectors have direction and length:

$$\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2]' = [2, 3]'; |\vec{x}| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

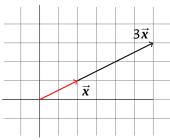


Often starting point is ignored, in which case  $\vec{x} = \vec{y}$ .

## Scalar Multiplication of a Vector

Let k be a scalar.

$$k\vec{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} kx_1 \\ kx_2 \\ \vdots \\ kx_n \end{bmatrix}$$

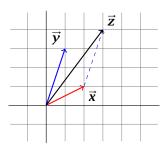


$$\vec{x} = [2,1]'; \ 3\vec{x} = [6,3]'.$$

## **Vector Addition**

Let 
$$\vec{x} = [2, 1]'; \ \vec{y} = [1, 3]'$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{z}} = \vec{\mathbf{x}} + \vec{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_2 + y_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

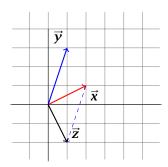


Addition follows the 'head-to-tail' rule.

#### **Vector Subtraction**

Let 
$$\vec{x} = [2, 1]'; \vec{y} = [1, 3]'$$

$$\vec{z} = \vec{x} - \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - y_1 \\ x_2 - y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

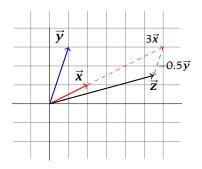


Follow the addition rule for  $-1\vec{y}$ .

#### **Linear Combinations of Vectors**

A linear combination of vectors is of the form  $z = b_1 \vec{x} + b_2 \vec{y}$ 

$$\vec{z} = 3\vec{x} - 0.5\vec{y} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} - 0.5 \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

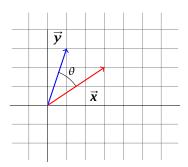


#### **Dot Product**

The dot (inner) product of two vectors,  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$  is a scalar.

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$$
$$= |\vec{x}| |\vec{y}| \cos \theta$$

where heta is the angle (in radians) between  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$ 



$$\vec{x} = [3, 2]', \vec{y} = [1, 3]'; \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = \sqrt{13}\sqrt{10}\cos\theta = 9$$

## Useful Geometric Quantities as Dot Product

Length:

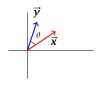
$$|\vec{x}|^2 = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2$$
  
$$|\vec{y}|^2 = \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y}$$

Distance:

$$|\vec{x} - \vec{y}|^2 = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y} - 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

Angle:

$$\cos\theta = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}/(|x||y|)$$



## **Dot Product Properties**

Some additional properties of the dot product that are useful to know:

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = \vec{y} \cdot \vec{x}$$
 (commutative)  
 $\vec{x} \cdot (\vec{y} + \vec{z}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{z}$  (distributive)  
 $(k\vec{x}) \cdot \vec{y} = \vec{x} \cdot (k\vec{y}) = k(\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y})$  where  $k$  is a scalar  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$  iff  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  are orthogonal

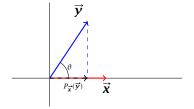
## **Vector Projection**

The projection of  $\vec{y}$  onto  $\vec{x}$ ,  $P_{\vec{x}}(\vec{y})$ , is the vector obtained by placing  $\vec{y}$  and  $\vec{x}$  tail to tail and dropping a line, perpendicular to  $\vec{x}$ , from the head of  $\vec{y}$  onto the line defined by  $\vec{x}$ .

$$P_{\vec{x}}(\vec{y}) = \left(\frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{|\vec{x}|}\right) \frac{\vec{x}}{|\vec{x}|} = \left(\frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{|\vec{x}|^2}\right) \vec{x}$$

The component of  $\vec{y}$  in  $\vec{x}$ ,  $C_{\vec{x}}(\vec{y})$ , is the length of  $P_{\vec{x}}(\vec{y})$ .

$$C_{\vec{x}}(\vec{y}) = \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{|\vec{x}|} = |\vec{y}| \cos \theta$$

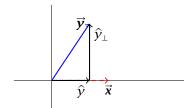


## Vector Projection II

 $\vec{y}$  can be decomposed into two parts:

- 1. a vector parallel to  $\vec{x}$ ,  $\hat{y} = P_{\vec{y}}(\vec{y})$ ,
- 2. a vector perpendicular to  $\vec{x}$ ,  $\hat{y}_{\perp}$ .

$$\vec{\pmb{y}} = \hat{y} + \hat{y}_{\perp}$$



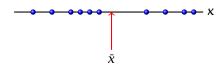
- $\hat{y}_{\perp}$  is orthogonal to  $\hat{y}$  and  $\vec{x}$ .
- $\hat{y}$  is the closest vector to  $\vec{y}$  in the subspace defined by  $\vec{x}$

# Vector Geometry of Simple Statistics

# Geometry of the Mean in Variables Space

The mean is a single number summary of a set (vector) of values,  $\vec{x}$ . Mathematically, the mean is the value that minimizes the following quantity:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$



# Algebraic and Vector Formulas for the Mean

Let 
$$\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]'$$

Algebraic formula for the mean of  $\vec{x}$ :

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

Vector formula for the mean:

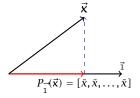
$$\bar{X} = \frac{\vec{1} \cdot \vec{x}}{\vec{1} \cdot \vec{1}} \\
= \frac{\vec{1} \cdot \vec{x}}{|\vec{1}|^2}$$

Where  $\vec{1} = [1, 1, ..., 1]'$  is the 1-vector of dimension n. (Note that the 1-vector is not the same as a unit vector!)

# Geometry of the Mean in Subject Space

■ The mean can be interpretted in terms of the projection of  $\vec{x}$  onto the 1-vector:

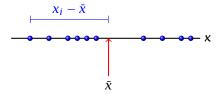
$$P_{\vec{1}}(\vec{x}) = \left(\frac{\vec{1} \cdot \vec{x}}{|\vec{1}|^2}\right) \vec{1}$$
$$= \vec{x} \vec{1}$$
$$= [\vec{x}, \vec{x}, \dots, \vec{x}]'$$



# Variable Space Geometry of Sample Variance

Sample variance is proportional to the sum of squared deviates about the mean:

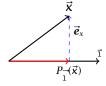
$$S_{x}^{2} = \frac{1}{(n-1)} \sum (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2}$$



## Vector Geometry of Sample Variance

- Let  $\overrightarrow{e_x} = \overrightarrow{x} \overline{x}\overrightarrow{1}$
- The sample variance can be expressed in terms of dots products of  $\overrightarrow{e_x}$  with itself:

$$S_x^2 = \frac{\vec{e}_x \cdot \vec{e}_x}{n-1} = \frac{|\vec{e}_x|^2}{n-1}$$



## Mean centering

In the previous slide, we considered the vector:

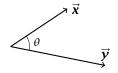
$$\overrightarrow{e_x} = \overrightarrow{x} - \overline{x}\overrightarrow{1}$$

We can think of  $\vec{e}_x$  as a "mean centered" version of  $\vec{x}$ , i.e. it's the vector we get when we subtract the mean of  $\vec{x}$ ,  $\bar{x}$ , from every element of  $\vec{x}$ .

For convenience, I will sometimes state the variables of interest are mean centered and use the notation  $\vec{x}$  instead of  $\vec{e}_x$  so as to avoid a proliferation of subscripts.

### Covariance and Correlation in Vector Geometric Terms

Let X and Y be mean centered variables, and let  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  be their corresponding mean centered vector representations.



Vector formulas for covariance and correlation:

Covariance: 
$$cov(X, Y) = \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{n-1}$$
  
Correlation:  $corr(X, Y) = \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{|\vec{x}||\vec{y}|} = \cos \theta$ 

#### Geometric interpretation of correlation

The correlation between two variables X and Y is equivalent to the cosine of the angle between their mean-centered vector representations!