
Introduction to SAS Vectors and Matrices

Lecture 2

August 31, 2005
Multivariate Analysis

Today's Lecture

Overview

● Today's Lecture

Introduction to SAS

Matrix Algebra

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Vector Definitions

Matrix Properties

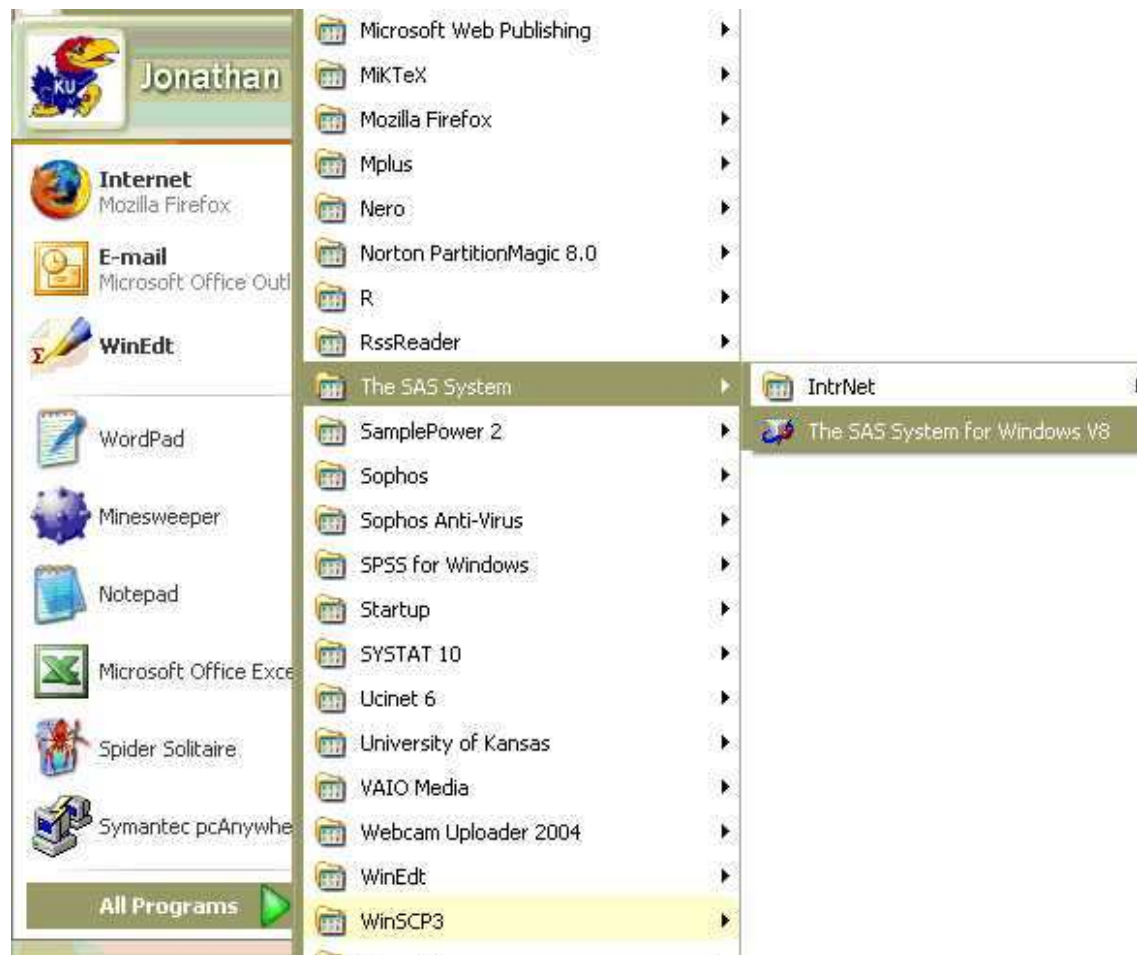
Advanced Topics

Wrapping Up

- Introduction to SAS.
- Vectors and Matrices (Supplement 2A - augmented with *SAS proc iml*).

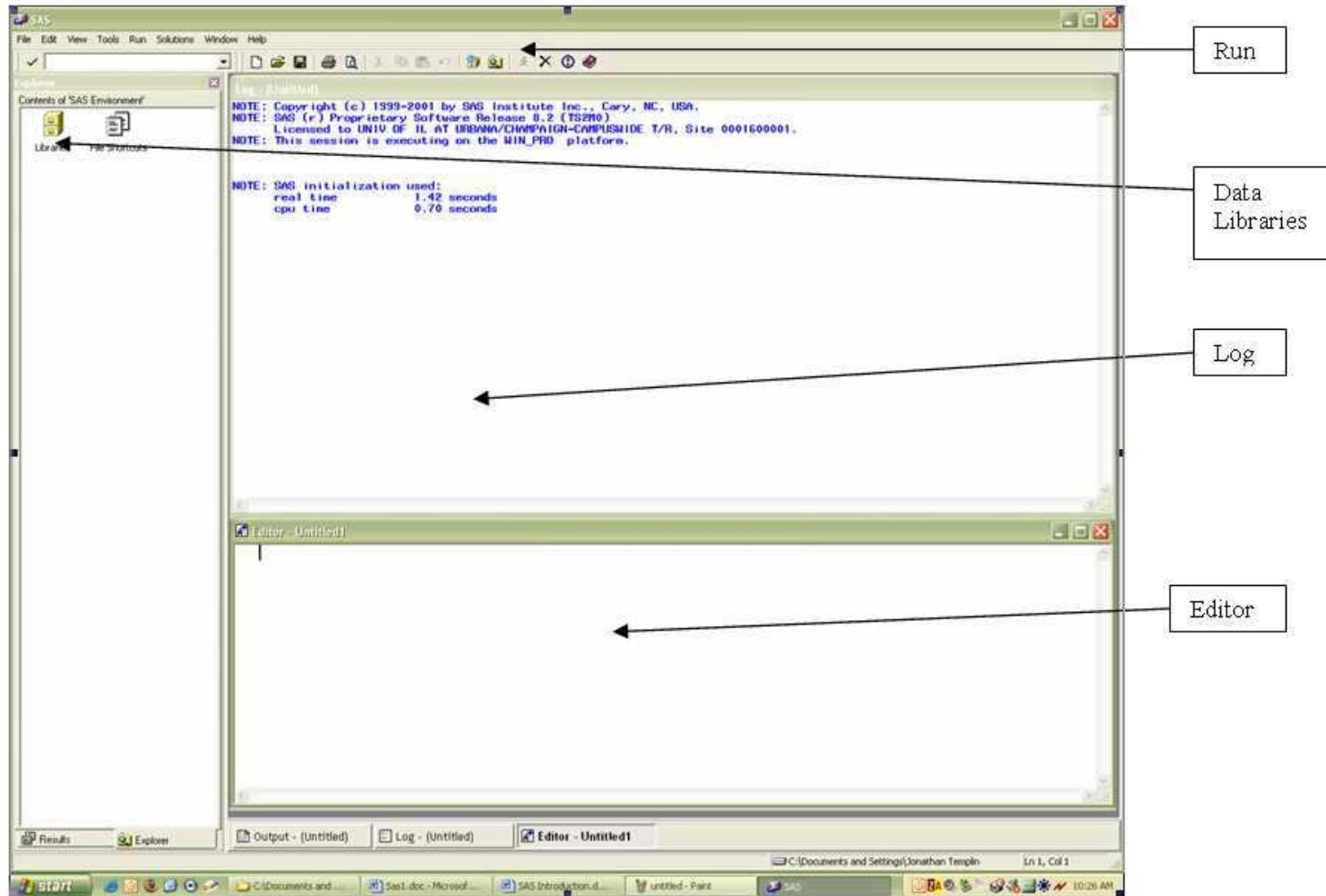
SAS

- To start SAS, on a Windows PC, go to Start...All Programs...The SAS System...The SAS System for Windows V8.



Main Program Window

- The SAS program looks like this (some helpful commands are shown with the arrows):



SAS Editor

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- **SAS Editor**

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- To run SAS you must create a file of SAS code, which the SAS processor reads and uses to run the program.
- Simply type your SAS code into the Program Editor window.
- For our example today, we will create (and save to) a new SAS code file, so to do that be sure to have your curser inside of the editor window and go to File...Save...
- SAS code files usually end with the extension *.sas.

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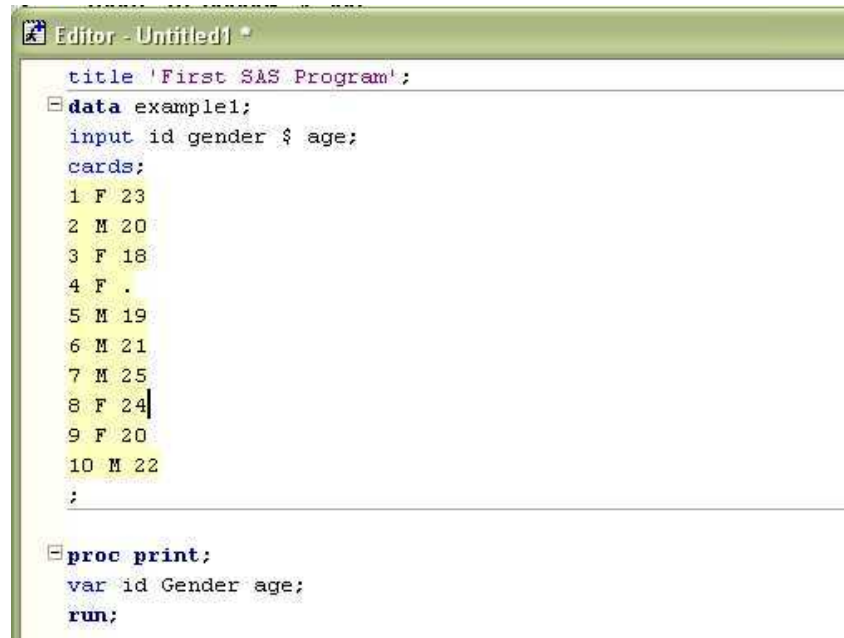
- For use in day-to-day statistical applications, SAS code consists of two components:
 - ◆ Data steps (where data input *usually* happens.
 - ◆ Proc steps (where statistical analyses *usually* happen.
- General exceptions to these rules exist.
- All statements terminate with a semicolon (this is usually where errors can occur).
- Commented code can begin with:
 - ◆ An asterisk (*) for single lines - terminated with a semicolon.
 - ◆ /* for multiple lines, terminated with an ending */.
- Enough talk...how about an example? Type the following into the SAS Editor:

First SAS Program

```
title 'First SAS Program';  
data example1;  
input id gender $ age;  
cards;  
1 F 23  
2 M 20  
3 F 18  
4 F .  
5 M 19  
6 M 21  
7 M 25  
8 F 24  
9 F 20  
10 M 22  
;  
  
proc print;  
var id gender age;  
run;
```

First SAS Program

Notice the color scheme of the SAS Enhanced Editor (note: if you do not see color, do not panic, you may not have the Enhanced Editor installed).



```
title 'First SAS Program';  
data example1;  
input id gender $ age;  
cards;  
1 F 23  
2 M 20  
3 F 18  
4 F .  
5 M 19  
6 M 21  
7 M 25  
8 F 24  
9 F 20  
10 M 22  
;  
proc print;  
var id Gender age;  
run;
```

- Items in light blue are command words (like “input” or “var”).
- Items in dark blue are procedural words (like “proc,” “data,” or “run”).

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Run the SAS Program

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- To run the program you just entered, press the running man icon at the center of the top of the SAS main program.
- Once you press the “run” button, the log window will become active, giving you information about the program as it executes.
- In this window you will see errors (in red), or warnings (in green I think).
- As multivariate progresses, you will become aware of instances where warnings will be present because of problems in your analysis.
- Also now appearing is a new window called output...this is where the output of the procedure that was just run is displayed.

SAS Data Libraries

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- The data set you just entered is now part of a SAS data library that can be referenced at any point during the remainder of the program.
- The default SAS data library is called “work,” and can be accessed by clicking through the explorer window on the left hand side of the program.
- Double click on Libraries...Work...Example1 and you will see the data displayed in a grid.
- To familiarize you with SAS, here are some handouts (also available on the BlackBoard Site)...

SAS Procedures

- The bulk of the statistical work done in SAS is through procedure statements.
- Proc statements follow a flexible syntax that typically has the following:

```
proc -statement_name- data=-data_name- [options];  
var [included variables];  
[options];  
run;
```

- The names and options are all found in the SAS manual, which is freely (shhh) available online at:
<http://www.id.unizh.ch/software/unix/statmath/sas/sasdoc/main.htm>

SAS Procedures Example

- Using the Example1 data set, type the following into the editor:

```
proc sort data=example1;  
by gender;  
run;
```

```
proc univariate data=example1 plots;  
by gender;  
var age;  
run;
```

- The univariate procedure produces univariate statistics, the manual entry can be at found:

<http://www.id.unizh.ch/software/unix/statmath/sas/sasdoc/proc/z0146802.htm>

Matrix Introduction

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- Imagine you are interested in studying the cultural differences in student achievement in high school.
- Your study gets IRB approval and you work hard to get parental approval.
- You go into school and collect data using many different instruments.
- You then input the data into your favorite stat package, like SAS (or MS Excel).
- How do you think the data is stored?

Why Learn Matrix Algebra?

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- Nearly all multivariate techniques are founded in matrix algebra.
- Often times when statistics break down, the cause of the failure can be traced through matrix procedures.
- If you are trying to apply a new method, most of the technical statistical literature uses matrix algebra assuming a basic to advanced knowledge of matrices - you may need to read these articles.
- Have you seen:
 - ◆ $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$?
 - ◆ $\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{\Lambda}' + \mathbf{\Psi}$?
 - ◆ $\mathbf{F}_1\mathbf{F}_2\mathbf{F}_3\mathbf{L}\mathbf{F}_3^{-1}\mathbf{F}_2^{-1}\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{F}_2^{-1})'(\mathbf{F}_3^{-1})'\mathbf{L}'\mathbf{F}_3'\mathbf{F}_2'\mathbf{F}_1' + \mathbf{U}^2$?
- Warning: using matrix algebra lingo is a great way to end conversations or break up parties.

Definitions

- We begin this class with some general definitions (from dictionary.com):

- ◆ Matrix:

1. A rectangular array of numeric or algebraic quantities subject to mathematical operations.
2. The substrate on or within which a fungus grows.

- ◆ Algebra:

1. A branch of mathematics in which symbols, usually letters of the alphabet, represent numbers or members of a specified set and are used to represent quantities and to express general relationships that hold for all members of the set.
2. A set together with a pair of binary operations defined on the set. Usually, the set and the operations include an identity element, and the operations are commutative or associative.

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Proc IML

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- To help demonstrate the topics we will discuss today, I will be showing examples in SAS proc iml.
- The Interactive Matrix Language (IML) is a scientific computing package in SAS that typically used for complicated statistical routines.
- Of course, other matrix programs exist - for many statistical applications MATLAB is very useful.
- SPSS and SAS both have matrix computing capabilities, but (in my opinion) neither are as efficient, as user friendly, or as flexible as MATLAB.
 - ◆ It is better to leave most of the statistical computing to the computer scientists.

Proc IML Basics

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Wrapping Up

- Proc IML is a proc step in SAS that runs without needing to use a preliminary data step.

- To use IML, make sure the following are placed in a SAS code file.

```
proc iml;  
  
reset print;  
  
quit;
```

- The “reset print;” line makes every result get printed in the output window.
- The IML code will go between the “reset print;” and the “quit;”

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- Away from the definition, a matrix is simply a rectangular way of storing data.
- Matrices can have unlimited dimensions, however for our purposes, all matrices will be in two dimensions:
 - ◆ Rows
 - ◆ Columns
- Matrices are symbolized by **boldface** font in text, usually with capital letters.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 & 5 \\ 6 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vectors

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- A vector is a matrix where one dimension is equal to size one.
 - ◆ Column vector: A column vector is a matrix of size $r \times 1$.
 - ◆ Row vector: A row vector is a matrix of size $1 \times c$.
- Vectors allow for geometric representations of matrices.
- The Pearson correlation coefficient is a function of the angle between vectors.
- Much of the statistical theory underlying linear models (ANOVA-type) can be conceptualized by projections of vectors (think of the dependent variable Y as a column vector).
- Vectors are typically symbolized by **boldface** font in text, usually with lowercase letters.

Scalars

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Wrapping Up

- A scalar is a matrix of size 1×1 .
- Scalars can be thought of as any single value.
- The difficult concept to get used to is seeing a number as a matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2.759 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Elements

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- A matrix is composed of a set of elements, each denoted its row and column position within the matrix.
- For a matrix **A** of size $r \times c$, each element is denoted by:

$$a_{ij}$$

- ◆ The first subscript is the index for the rows: $i = 1, \dots, r$.
- ◆ The second subscript is the index for the columns: $j = 1, \dots, c$.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1c} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2c} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{r1} & a_{r2} & \dots & a_{rc} \end{bmatrix}$$

Transpose

- The transpose of a matrix is simply the switching of the indices for rows and columns.
- An element a_{ij} in the original matrix (in the i^{th} row and j^{th} column) would be a_{ji} in the transposed matrix (in the j^{th} row and the i^{th} column).
- If the original matrix was of size $i \times j$ the transposed matrix would be of size $j \times i$.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 & 5 \\ 6 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}' = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 6 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Types of Matrices

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- Square Matrix: A matrix that has the same number of rows and columns.

- ◆ Correlation and covariance matrices are examples of square matrices.

- Diagonal Matrix: A diagonal matrix is a square matrix with non-zero elements down the diagonal and zero values for the off-diagonal elements.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.759 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.643 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.879 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Symmetric Matrix: A symmetric matrix is a square matrix where $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all elements in i and j .
 - ◆ Correlation/covariance and distance matrices are examples of symmetric matrices.

Algebraic Operations

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Wrapping Up

- As mentioned in the definition at the beginning of class, algebra is simply a set of math that defines basic operations.

- ◆ Identity

- ◆ Zero

- ◆ Addition

- ◆ Subtraction

- ◆ Multiplication

- ◆ Division

- Matrix algebra is simply the use of these operations with matrices.

Matrix Addition

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- Matrix addition is very much like scalar addition, the only constraint is that the two matrices must be of the same size (same number of rows and columns).
- The resulting matrix contains elements that are simply the result of adding two scalars.

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} \\ a_{31} + b_{31} & a_{32} + b_{32} \\ a_{41} + b_{41} & a_{42} + b_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

IML Addition

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```
proc iml;  
reset print;
```

```
A={10 15, 11 9, 1 -6};
```

```
B={5 2, 1 0, 10 7};
```

```
C=A+B;
```

```
quit;
```

Matrix Subtraction

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- Matrix subtraction is identical to matrix addition, with the exception that all elements of the new matrix are the subtracted elements of the previous matrices.
- Again, the only constraint is that the two matrices must be of the same size (same number of rows and columns).
- The resulting matrix contains elements that are simply the result of subtracting two scalars.

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - b_{11} & a_{12} - b_{12} \\ a_{21} - b_{21} & a_{22} - b_{22} \\ a_{31} - b_{31} & a_{32} - b_{32} \\ a_{41} - b_{41} & a_{42} - b_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

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```
proc iml;  
reset print;
```

```
A={10 15, 11 9, 1 -6};
```

```
B={5 2, 1 0, 10 7};
```

```
C=A-B;
```

```
quit;
```

Matrix Multiplication

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- Unlike matrix addition and subtraction, matrix multiplication is much more complicated.
- Matrix multiplication results in a new matrix that can be of differing size from either of the two original matrices.
- Matrix multiplication is defined only for matrices where the number of columns of the first matrix is equal to the number of rows of the second matrix.
- The resulting matrix has the same number of rows as the first matrix, and the same number of columns as the second matrix.

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} & = & \mathbf{C} \\ (r \times c) & (c \times k) & & (r \times k) \end{matrix}$$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} & a_{11}b_{13} + a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & a_{21}b_{13} + a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} & a_{31}b_{13} + a_{32}b_{23} \\ a_{41}b_{11} + a_{42}b_{21} & a_{41}b_{12} + a_{42}b_{22} & a_{41}b_{13} + a_{42}b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} & a_{11}b_{13} + a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & a_{21}b_{13} + a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} & a_{31}b_{13} + a_{32}b_{23} \\ a_{41}b_{11} + a_{42}b_{21} & a_{41}b_{12} + a_{42}b_{22} & a_{41}b_{13} + a_{42}b_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \\ \textcolor{red}{a_{41}} & \textcolor{red}{a_{42}} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \textcolor{red}{b_{13}} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \textcolor{red}{b_{23}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} & a_{11}b_{13} + a_{12}b_{23} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} & a_{21}b_{13} + a_{22}b_{23} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} & a_{31}b_{13} + a_{32}b_{23} \\ a_{41}b_{11} + a_{42}b_{21} & a_{41}b_{12} + a_{42}b_{22} & \textcolor{red}{a_{41}b_{13} + a_{42}b_{23}} \end{bmatrix}$$

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```
proc iml;  
reset print;
```

```
A={10 15, 11 9, 1 -6};
```

```
B={5 2, 1 0, 10 7};
```

```
C=A*T(B);
```

```
D=T(B)*(A);
```

```
quit;
```

Multiplication and Summation

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- Because of the additive nature induced by matrix multiplication, many statistical formulas that use:

$$\sum$$

can be expressed by matrix notation.

- For instance, consider a single variable X_i , with $i = 1, \dots, N$ observations.
- Putting the set of observations into the column vector \mathbf{X} , of size $N \times 1$, we can show that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N X^2 = \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X}$$

Matrix Multiplication by Scalar

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- Recall that a scalar is simply a matrix of size (1×1) .
- Matrix multiplication by a scalar causes all elements of the matrix to be multiplied by the scalar.
- The resulting matrix has all elements multiplied by the scalar.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} \end{bmatrix} \quad s \times \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} s \times a_{11} & s \times a_{12} \\ s \times a_{21} & s \times a_{22} \\ s \times a_{31} & s \times a_{32} \\ s \times a_{41} & s \times a_{42} \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix

- The identity matrix is defined as a matrix that when multiplied with another matrix produces that original matrix:

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

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

- The identity matrix is simply a square matrix that has all off-diagonal elements equal to zero, and all diagonal elements equal to one.

$$\mathbf{I}_{(3 \times 3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Zero Matrix

- The zero matrix is defined as a matrix that when multiplied with another matrix produces the matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\mathbf{0} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{0}$$

- The zero matrix is simply a square matrix that has all elements equal to zero.

$$\mathbf{0}_{(3 \times 3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Matrix “Division”: The Inverse

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- Recall from basic math that:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{1}{b}a = b^{-1}a$$

- And that:

$$\frac{a}{a} = 1$$

- Matrix inverses are just like division in basic math.

The Inverse

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- For a square matrix, an inverse matrix is simply the matrix that when pre-multiplied with another matrix produces the identity matrix:

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$$

- Matrix inverse calculation is complicated and unnecessary since computers are much more efficient at finding inverses of matrices.
- One point of emphasis: just like in regular division, division by zero is undefined.
- By analogy - not all matrices can be inverted.

Singular Matrices

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- A matrix that cannot be inverted is called a *singular* matrix.
- In statistics, common causes of singular matrices are found by linear dependence among the rows or columns of a square matrix.
- Linear dependence can be caused by combinations of variables, or by variables with extreme correlations (either near 1.00 or -1.00).

Linear Combinations

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- Vectors can be combined by adding multiples:

$$\mathbf{y} = a_1\mathbf{x}_1 + a_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + a_k\mathbf{x}_k$$

- The resulting vector, \mathbf{y} , is called a linear combination.
- All for k vectors, the set of all possible linear combinations is called their span.

Linear Dependencies

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- A set of vectors are said to be linearly dependent if a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k exist, and:
 - ◆ $a_1\mathbf{x}_1 + a_2\mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + a_k\mathbf{x}_k = 0$.
 - ◆ a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k are not all zero.
- Such linear dependencies occur when a linear combination is added to the vector set.
- Matrices comprised of a set of linearly dependent vectors are singular.
- A set of linearly independent vectors forms what is called a basis for the vector space.
- Any vector in the vector space can then be expressed as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

Vector Length

- The length of a vector emanating from the origin is given by the Pythagorean formula:

$$L\mathbf{x} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_k^2}$$

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Inner Product

- The inner (or dot) product of two vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} is the sum of element-by-element multiplication:

$$\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ky_k$$

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Vector Angle

- The angle formed between two vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} is

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y}}{\sqrt{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}}\sqrt{\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{y}}}$$

- If $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y} = 0$, vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are perpendicular, as noted by $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$
- All basis vectors are perpendicular.

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Vector Projections

- The projection of a vector \mathbf{x} onto a vector \mathbf{y} is given by:

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y}}{L_{\mathbf{y}}^2}\mathbf{y}$$

- Through such projections, a set of linear independent vectors can be created from any set of vectors.
- One process used to create such vectors is through the Gram-Schmidt Process.

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Matrix Properties

The following are some algebraic properties of matrices:

■ $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) + \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})$ - Associative

■ $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A}$ - Commutative

■ $c(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = c\mathbf{A} + c\mathbf{B}$ - Distributive

■ $(c + d)\mathbf{A} = c\mathbf{A} + d\mathbf{A}$

■ $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})' = \mathbf{A}' + \mathbf{B}'$

■ $(cd)\mathbf{A} = c(d\mathbf{A})$

■ $(c\mathbf{A})' = c\mathbf{A}'$

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Matrix Properties

The following are more algebraic properties of matrices:

- $c(\mathbf{AB}) = (c\mathbf{A})\mathbf{B}$

- $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BC}) = (\mathbf{AB})\mathbf{C}$

- $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{AC}$

- $(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{BA} + \mathbf{CA}$

- $(\mathbf{AB})' = \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{A}'$

- For \mathbf{x}_j such that \mathbf{Ax}_j is defined:

- ◆ $\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{Ax}_j = \mathbf{A} \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{x}_j$

- ◆ $\sum_{j=1}^n (\mathbf{Ax}_j)(\mathbf{Ax}_j)' = \mathbf{A} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{x}_j \mathbf{x}_j' \right) \mathbf{A}'$

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Advanced Matrix Functions/Operations

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● Advanced Topics

● Determinants

● Orthogonality

● Eigenspaces

● Decompositions

Wrapping Up

- We end our matrix discussion with some advanced topics.
- All of these topics are related to multivariate analyses.
- None of these will seem too straight forward today, but next week we will use some of these results to demonstrate properties of sample statistics.

Matrix Determinants

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● Advanced Topics

● **Determinants**

● Orthogonality

● Eigenspaces

● Decompositions

Wrapping Up

- A square matrix can be characterized by a scalar value called a determinant.

$$\det \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}|$$

- Much like the matrix inverse, calculation of the determinant is very complicated and tedious, and is best left to computers.
- What can be learned from determinants is if a matrix is singular.
- Matrices with determinants that are greater than zero are said to be “positive definite,” a byproduct of which is that a positive matrix is non-singular.

Matrix Orthogonality

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● Advanced Topics

● Determinants

● Orthogonality

● Eigenspaces

● Decompositions

Wrapping Up

- A square matrix (**A**) is said to be *orthogonal* if:

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

- Orthogonal matrices are characterized by two properties:
 1. The product of all row vector multiples is the zero matrix (perpendicular vectors).
 2. For each row vector, the sum of all elements is one.

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

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Wrapping Up

- A square matrix can be decomposed into a set of eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

- From a statistical standpoint:
 - ◆ Principal components are comprised of linear combination of a set of variables weighed by the eigenvectors.
 - ◆ The eigenvalues represent the proportion of variance accounted for by specific principal components.
 - ◆ Each principal component is orthogonal to the next, producing a set of uncorrelated variables that may be used for regression purposes.

Spectral Decompositions

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Wrapping Up

- Imagine that a matrix \mathbf{A} is of size $k \times k$.
- \mathbf{A} then has:
 - ◆ k eigenvalues: $\lambda_i, i = 1, \dots, k$.
 - ◆ k eigenvectors: $\mathbf{e}_i, i = 1, \dots, k$ (each of size $k \times 1$).
- \mathbf{A} can be expressed by:

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i'$$

- This expression is called the *Spectral Decomposition*, where \mathbf{A} is decomposed into k parts.
- One can find \mathbf{A}^{-1} by taking $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ in the spectral decomposition.

Final Thought

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● Final Thought

● Next Class

- The SAS learning curve is small, but once you have the basics, all you need is the manual and you can do almost anything.
- Proc IML is useful for matrices, but probably not so useful to you.
- Matrix algebra makes the technical things in life easier.
- The applications of matrices will be demonstrated throughout the rest of this course.



Next Time

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● Next Class

- Applications of matrix algebra in statistics (Chapter 2 section six and on).
- Geometric implications of multivariate descriptive statistics (more applications).