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Today's Goals:

- Matrices, vectors, and scalars
- Basic matrix operations
- Linear combinations in matrix form

A *matrix* is a rectangular array of numbers with *n* rows and *m* columns. It is symbolized with a bold, upper case letter, and subscripted to indicate its *order*.



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The individual elements in a matrix are called *scalars*, subscripted to indicated their position in the matrix.

The columns in a matrix are called *vectors*, and are symbolized with lower case, bold letters. This matrix has two vectors $(\mathbf{g_1}, \mathbf{g_2})$, each containing three scalars.

$$\mathbf{g}_{3,1} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} \\ g_{21} \\ g_{31} \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \text{This vector is also a} \\ 3 \text{ x 1 matrix. When} \\ \text{displayed as a row, it} \\ \text{is symbolized} \\ \text{differently:} \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{g'}_{1,3} = \begin{bmatrix} g_{11} & g_{21} & g_{31} \end{bmatrix}$$

This is called the *transpose* of the vector.

The standard data matrix	
V ₁ V ₂ V ₃ V ₄ V ₅ V ₈ V ₈ V ₈ ··· V ₈ ··· V ₈ P ₁ ··· V ₈ P ₁ ··· V ₈ P ₁ ··· ··· V ₈ ··· V ₈	
can be transposed	
to change the	
to change the object of measurement and	
shift the focus of the analysis	
- the analysis	
(This matrix is	
$\mathbf{G}_{3,2}$ = $\begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}$ rectangular. When the number of rows and	
columns are equal, the matrix is square:	
(, , ,)	
$\mathbf{F}_{3,3} = \begin{bmatrix} f_{11} & f_{12} & f_{13} \\ & f_{21} & f_{22} & f_{23} \\ & f_{31} & f_{32} & f_{33} \end{bmatrix}$	
f ₃₁ f ₃₂ f ₃₃	
Data matrices are typically rectangular;	
correlation matrices and covariance matrices are always square.	
Square matrices have some additional useful	
properties.	

F _{3,3} =	$ \begin{pmatrix} f_{11} & f_{12} & f_{13} \\ f_{21} & f_{22} & f_{23} \\ f_{31} & f_{32} & f_{33} \end{pmatrix} $	A square matrix has a <i>main</i> diagonal. The sum of the elements of the main diagonal is called the <i>trace</i> of the matrix.
	trace(F) =	$=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\mathbf{f}_{i,i}$

If $f_{i,j} = f_{j,i}$ for all i and j, the matrix is symmetric.

$$\mathbf{F}_{3,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -4 \\ 3 & 11 & 7 \\ -4 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

F is a symmetric matrix with a trace of 14. Correlation matrices and covariance matrices are symmetric.

If all elements of a symmetric matrix except the main diagonal are zero, the matrix is a diagonal matrix:

$$\mathbf{F}_{3,3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 11 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

F is a symmetric, diagonal matrix with a trace of 14.

Matrix Addition and Subtraction:

- Matrices of the <u>same order</u> can be added and subtracted.
- These operations take place element by element.

$$\mathbf{F}_{3,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 11 \\ -4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{H}_{3,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 6 & 2 \\ 12 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{K}_{3,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & 11 \\ 4 & -1 & 3 & 11 \\ 3 & 4 & 11 + 2 \\ 4 & 4 & 12 & 7 + 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 3 & 13 \\ 9 & 13 & 8 & 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\mathbf{F}_{3,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	(3) 11 7	(4)-1) 6 2 (12) 8
F - H = K _{3,2} =	$ \begin{pmatrix} 1-4 & (3-(-1)) \\ 3-6 & 11-2 \\ (4-12) & 7-8 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & -5 \\ -16 & -5 \\ -16 & -5 \\ -16 & -5 \\ -16 & -5 \\ -16 & -5 \\ -17 & -5 \\ -18 & -5 \\ -1$	3 4 3 9 3 -1

Matrix addition is commutative and associative:

$$A + B = B + A$$

$$A + B + C = (A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$$

Matrix subtraction is distributive:

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

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

A matrix of zeros is called a *zero matrix* or a *null matrix*. It is used in solving equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 4 & 2 \\ 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} \\ y_{31} & y_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -1 \\ 7 & 4 \\ 8 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X \qquad Y \qquad Z$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
5 & 7 \\
4 & 2 \\
6 & 1
\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}
y_{11} & y_{12} \\
y_{21} & y_{22} \\
y_{31} & y_{32}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
7 & -1 \\
7 & 4 \\
8 & 3
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$X \qquad Y \qquad Z$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
-5 & -7 \\
-4 & -2 \\
-6 & -1
\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}
5 & 7 \\
4 & 2 \\
6 & 1
\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}
y_{11} & y_{12} \\
y_{21} & y_{22} \\
y_{31} & y_{32}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
-5 & -7 \\
-4 & -2 \\
-6 & -1
\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}
7 & -1 \\
7 & 4 \\
8 & 3
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$-X \qquad X \qquad Y \qquad -X \qquad Z$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
-5 & -7 \\
-4 & -2 \\
-6 & -1
\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}
5 & 7 \\
4 & 2 \\
6 & 1
\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}
y_{11} & y_{12} \\
y_{21} & y_{22} \\
y_{31} & y_{32}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
-5 & -7 \\
-4 & -2 \\
-6 & -1
\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}
7 & -1 \\
7 & 4 \\
8 & 3
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}
y_{11} & y_{12} \\
y_{21} & y_{22} \\
y_{31} & y_{32}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
2 & -8 \\
3 & 2 \\
2 & 2
\end{bmatrix}$$

Scalar multiplication is accomplished by multiplying every element of a matrix by a constant scalar:

$$\mathbf{F}_{3,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -4 \\ 3 & 11 & 7 \\ -4 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad k=5$$

$$k\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \times 1 & 5 \times 3 & 5 \times -4 \\ 5 \times 3 & 5 \times 11 & 5 \times 7 \\ 5 \times -4 & 5 \times 7 & 5 \times 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication requires attending to a few important rules:

- The order of multiplication is important.
- Matrices can only be multiplied if the number of columns of the first matrix is equal to the number of rows of the second matrix.
- The resulting matrix has an order equal to the number of rows of the first matrix and the number of columns of the second matrix.

$\mathbf{A}_{ji} \mathbf{B}_{jk} = \mathbf{C}_{jk}$	These two must be the same.	
The elements of C are defined as:		
$c_{j,k} = \sum_{i} a_{j,i} b_{i,k}$		

$ \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 7 & 0 \\ \hline 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 0 \\ 4 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 26 & -6 \\ 7 & 49 & 0 \end{bmatrix} $
$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 2 \\ A_{3,2} \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 14 & 46 & 12 \\ C_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$
$(4 \times 1) + (-1 \times 4) = 0$ $(6 \times 0) + (2 \times 6) = 12$

Matrix multiplication is not commutative:

- It may not be possible:
 A_{2.3}B_{3.5} = C_{2.5} but B_{3.5}A_{2.3} is impossible
- When possible, the results may not be equal: $\mathbf{A}_{1,3}\mathbf{B}_{3,1}=\mathbf{C}_{1,1}$ but $\mathbf{B}_{3,1}\mathbf{A}_{1,3}=\mathbf{C}_{3,3}$

ABC = (AB)C = A(BC)	
Matrix multiplication is distributive:	
A(B+C) = AB + AC	
But order is important:	
XA + BX ≠ X(A + B)	
arr array agree a	
Every matrix has a <i>transpose</i> that is	
obtained by exchanging the rows and	
columns:	
columns:	
columns:	
columns: $ \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 7 & 0 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 7 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} $ X '	
columns:	
columns: $ \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 7 & 0 \\ 6 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 7 & 6 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} $ X '	

Transposes are useful for arranging a matrix so that matrix multiplication is possible.

Example: A common statistical requirement is to generate the sums of squares and cross-products for a data matrix. If $\mathbf{X}_{n,v}$ is a matrix of deviation scores, then $\mathbf{X}_{nv}\mathbf{X}_{nv}$ is not possible. But, $\mathbf{X}'_{vn}\mathbf{X}_{nv}$ can be carried out.

Sum of devia	ation cross-products
$\begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & d_{21} & d_{31} & d_{41} & d_{51} \\ d_{12} & d_{22} & d_{32} & d_{42} & d_{52} \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} d_{11} & d_{12} \end{pmatrix}$
[u ₁₂ u ₂₂ u ₃₂ u ₄₂ u ₅₂]	$\begin{vmatrix} d_{21} & d_{22} \end{vmatrix}$
D´	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
	d ₄₁ d ₄₂
D is a matrix of deviation scores for 5 individuals on	$\left(\begin{array}{cc} d_{51} & d_{52} \end{array}\right)$
2 variables.	Sum of Squared deviations

 $\mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{nv}}$ is a People x Variables matrix of deviation scores.

This matrix is one step away from what other matrix?

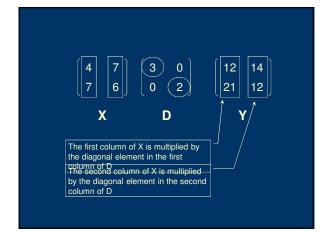
The *identity matrix* is a diagonal matrix with ones on the main diagonal:

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

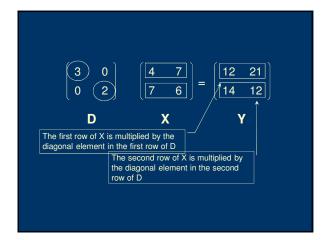
The identity matrix is often a useful target matrix in statistics.

Multiplication by diagonal matrices is especially important in statistics and is used to accomplish rescaling (expanding, shrinking, standardizing).

Post-multiplication of a matrix **X** by a diagonal matrix **D** results in the columns of **X** being multiplied by the corresponding diagonal element in **D**.



Pre-multiplication of a matrix ${\bf X}$ by a diagonal matrix ${\bf D}$ results in the rows of ${\bf X}$ being multiplied by the corresponding diagonal element in ${\bf D}$.



Scalar multiplication is just multiplication by a diagonal matrix with a constant in the diagonal.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 21 \\ 21 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 \\ 7 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 21 \\ 21 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

Variance-covariance matrices and correlation matrices can be characterized by a single number called the *determinant* that represents the "generalized variance."

For the correlation matrix, this number can take on values from 0 to 1. When all variables are independent (an identity matrix), the determinant is 1. As variables increase in their interdependence, the determinant approaches 0. A *singular matrix* has a determinant of 0.

The determinant thus indexes the redundancy among variables in a correlation matrix.

The determinant of the matrix, A , is symbolized:	
A	
The determinant of an identity matrix, $ \mathbf{I} $, equals 1.	
	-
Some square matrices have an inverse	
such that AA ⁻¹ = I . The inverse is useful in solving matrix equations:	
Y = BR Solving for B: This is equal to an	
YR-1 = BRR-1 equal to an identity matrix and	
YR ⁻¹ = B so drops out.	
	1
$X_{10,20} = (Z_{10,5} + B_{10,5}) A_{5,20}$ solve for B:	
$X_{10,20} = Z_{10,5}A_{5,20} + B_{10,5}A_{5,20}$ $X_{10,20} - Z_{10,5}A_{5,20} = B_{10,5}A_{5,20}$	
$(X_{10,20} - Z_{10,5}A_{5,20})A'_{20,5} = B_{10,5}A_{5,20}A'_{20,5}$	
$(X_{10,20} - Z_{10,5}A_{5,20})A'_{20,5}(A_{5,20}A'_{20,5})^{-1} = B_{10,5}(A_{5,20}A'_{20,5})(A_{5,20}A'_{20,5})^{-1}$	
ľ	

If I create the following linear combinations of the original variables:

Everything we need to know about the variances and covariances of the linear combinations is contained in the variance-covariance matrix of the original variables (Σ) .

If Y = XW, then $\Sigma_v = W' \Sigma W$

Another common set of transformations that will be made can be summarized as:

LXM

In which **X** is a Groups x Variables matrix of means, **L** is matrix of weights used to create linear combinations of groups (e.g., group contrasts), and **M** is a matrix of weights used to create linear combinations of variables.

By carefully constructing ${\bf L}$ and ${\bf M}$, we can make any group comparisons for any combinations of variables.

Next time:	
Univariate statistics and the use of L and M .	-
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