

linear algebra

Saad Jbabdi

- Matrices & GLM
- Eigenvectors/eigenvalues
- PCA

linear algebra

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- Eigenvectors/eigenvalues
- PCA

The GLM

$$y = M * x$$

There is a linear relationship between M and y

find x?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.4613 \\ 0.8502 \\ -0.3777 \\ 0.5587 \\ 0.3956 \\ -0.0923 \end{bmatrix}$$

y

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0000 & 0.5377 \\ 1.0000 & 1.8339 \\ 1.0000 & -2.2588 \\ 1.0000 & 0.8622 \\ 1.0000 & 0.3188 \\ 1.0000 & -1.3077 \end{bmatrix}$$

M

$$\begin{bmatrix} ? \\ ? \end{bmatrix}$$

x?

Simultaneous equations

$$\begin{aligned} 1.0000 x_1 + 0.5377 x_2 &= 0.4613 \\ 1.0000 x_1 + 1.8339 x_2 &= 0.8502 \\ 1.0000 x_1 + -2.2588 x_2 &= -0.3777 \\ 1.0000 x_1 + 0.8622 x_2 &= 0.5587 \\ 1.0000 x_1 + 0.3188 x_2 &= 0.3956 \\ 1.0000 x_1 + -1.3077 x_2 &= -0.0923 \end{aligned}$$

Examples

$$y = M * x$$

y

FMRI Time series
from one voxel

some measure
across subjects
from one voxel

Behavioural scores
across subjects

M

“regressors”
(e.g.: the task)

“regressors”
(e.g.: group membership)

Age, #Years at school

x

PEs
(parameter estimates)

PEs
(parameter estimates)

PEs
(parameter estimates)

The GLM

$$y = M * x$$

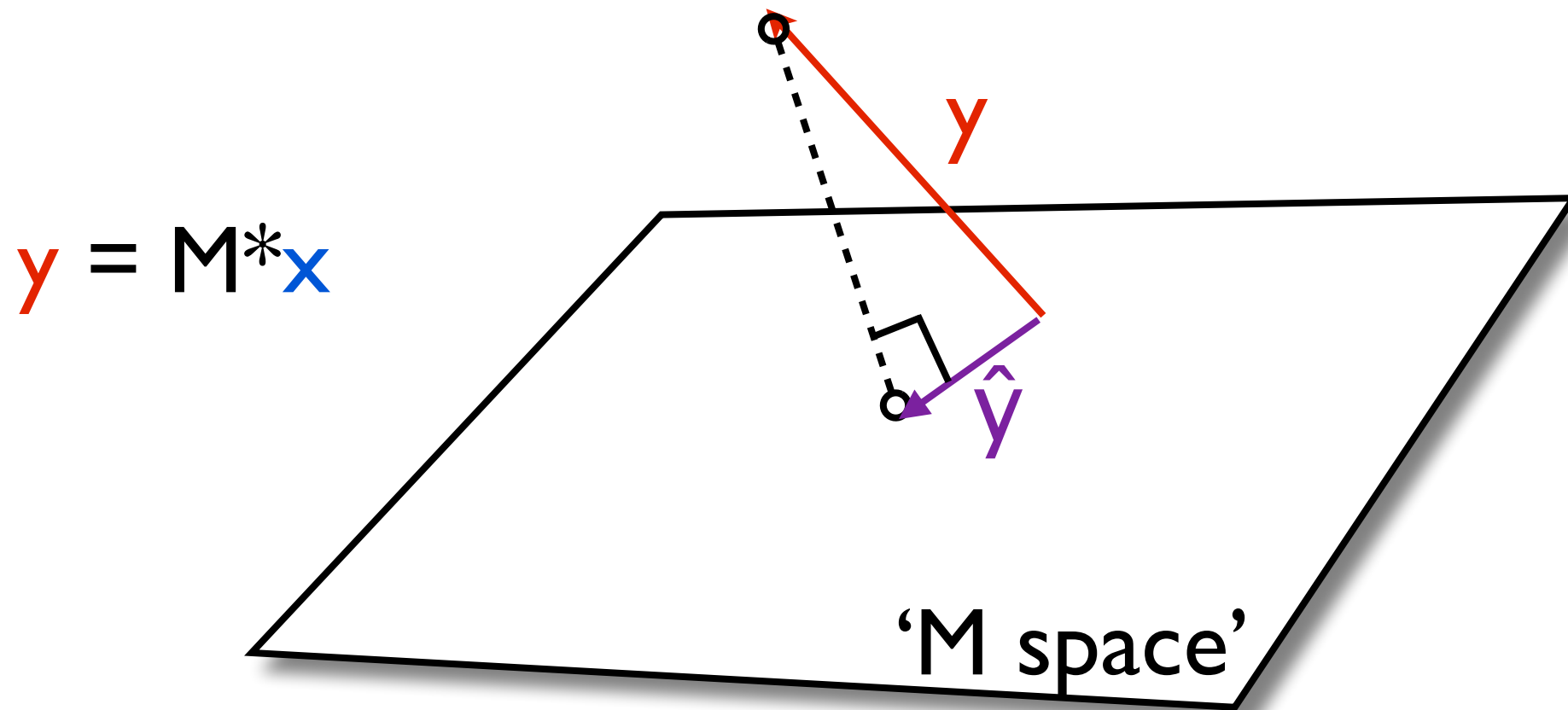
There is a linear relationship between M and y

find x?

solution : $x = \text{pinv}(M) * y$

(the actual matlab command)

what is the pseudo-inverse pinv ?



Must find the best (x, \hat{y}) such that $\hat{y} = M * x$ (we can't get out of M space)

\hat{y} is the projection of y onto the 'M space'

x are the coordinates of \hat{y} in the 'M space'

$\text{pinv}(M)$ is used to project y onto the 'M space'

This section is about the 'M space'

In order to understand the 'M space', we need to talk about these concepts:

- vectors, matrices
- dimension, independence
- sub-space, rank

definitions

- Vectors and matrices are *finite* collections of “*numbers*”
- Vectors are columns of numbers
- Matrices are rectangles/squares of numbers

x_1
x_2
x_3
x_4
x_5

x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}
x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}
x_{41}	x_{42}	x_{43}
x_{51}	x_{52}	x_{53}

vectors

x_1

vector in a 1-dimensional space

x_1
 x_2
 x_3

vector in a 3-dimensional space

x_1
 x_2
 x_3
...
 x_{d-2}
 x_{d-1}
 x_d

vector in d-dimensional space

vectors

- Adding vectors

- add element-wise

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+2 \\ 3+1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scaling of vectors

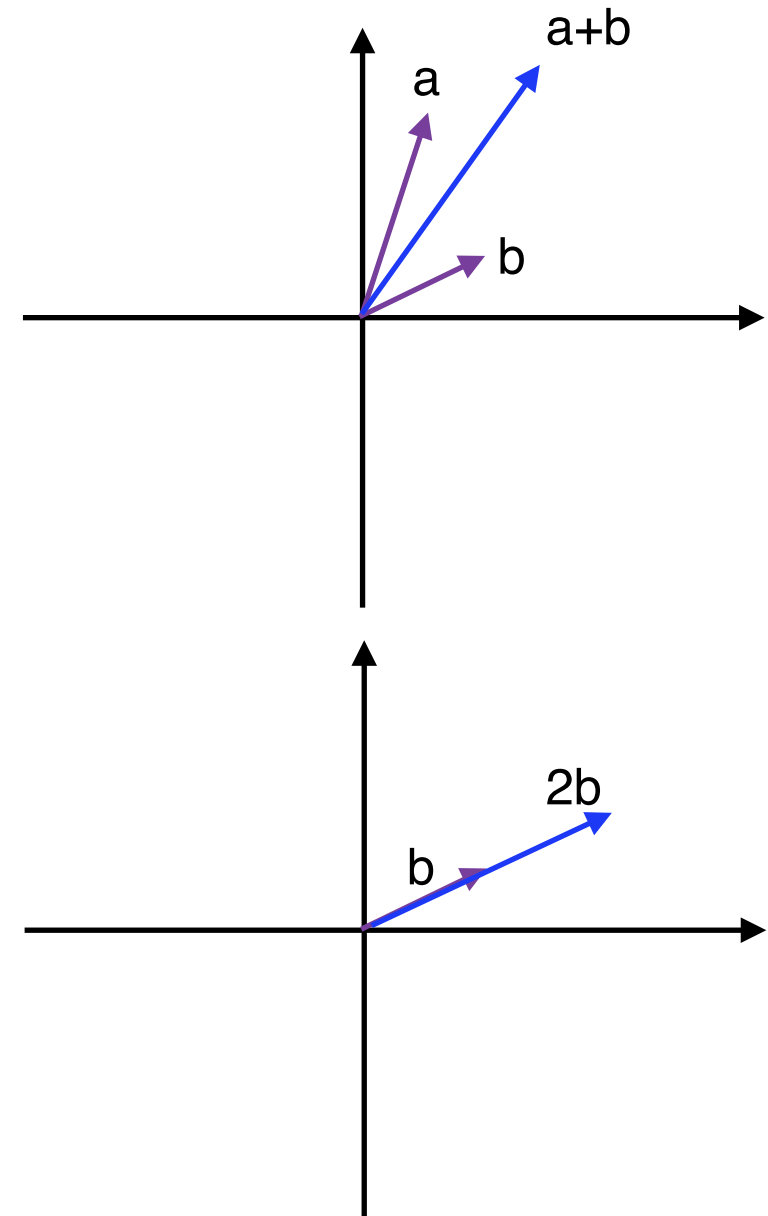
- multiply element-wise

$$c\mathbf{b} = 2 \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \times 2 \\ 2 \times 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Linear combinations of vectors

$$\mathbf{c} = g.\mathbf{a} + h.\mathbf{b}$$

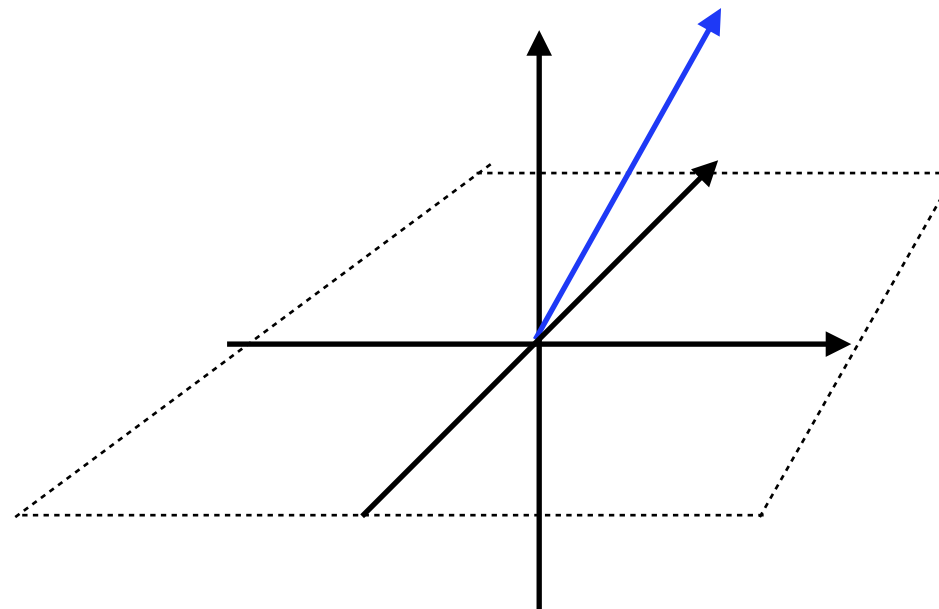
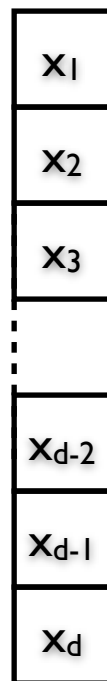
\mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} in the same d-dimensional space



vectors

About d-dimensional vectors

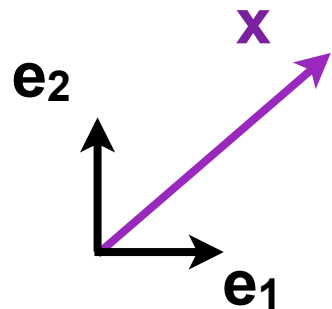
The “arrow” picture is also useful in d-dimensions, as any vector is in effect one-dimensional.



vectors

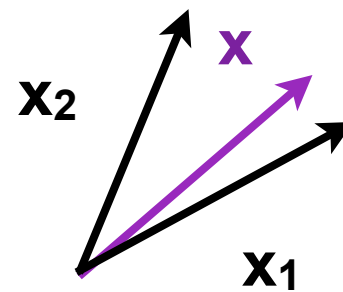
■ Linear combinations of vector

$$\mathbf{c} = g.\mathbf{a} + h.\mathbf{b}$$



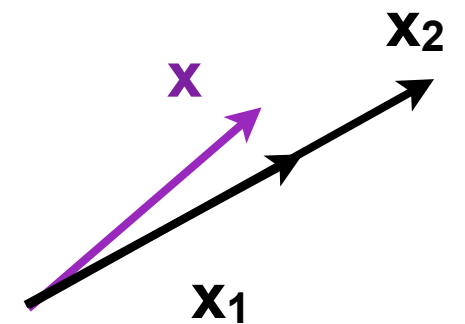
$$\mathbf{x} = a.\mathbf{e}_1 + b.\mathbf{e}_2$$

any 2D vector is a linear combination of \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_2



$$\mathbf{x} = a.\mathbf{x}_1 + b.\mathbf{x}_2 \quad ?$$

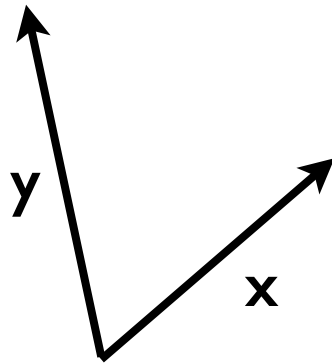
what about a linear combination of any 2 vectors?



$$\mathbf{x} = a.\mathbf{x}_1 + b.\mathbf{x}_2 \quad ?$$

what if the two vectors are co-linear?

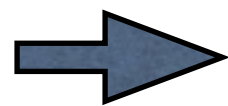
“spanning”



spanning means covering using linear combinations

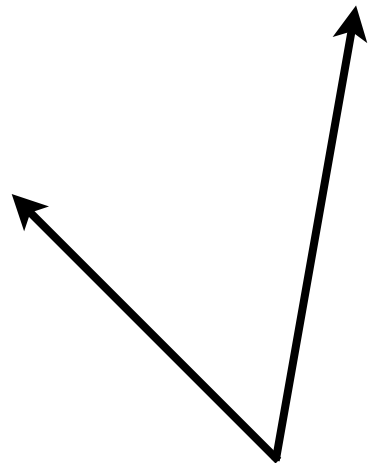
E.g.: $z = a \cdot x + b \cdot y$

space covered by z for all a and b is the space that x and y span



x and y span a 2D space

“spanning”



these two vectors span 2 dimensions
can they span 3?

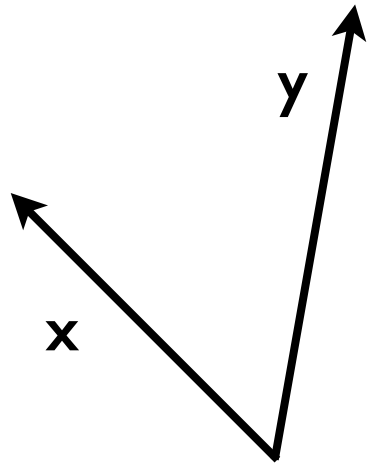


these two vectors
span 1 dimension

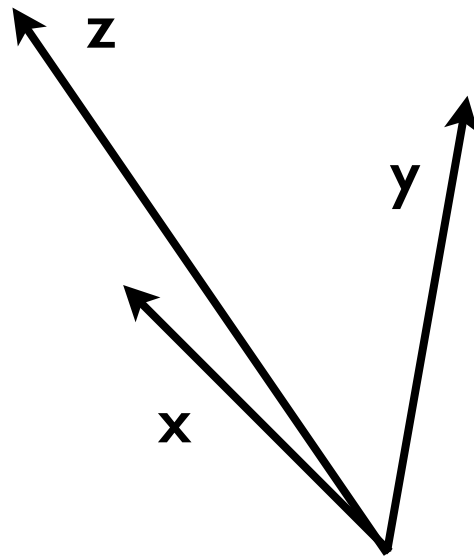
vectors can span a “sub-space”

dimensions of the sub-space relates to “linear independence”

linear independence



can we write $x = a \cdot y$?



can we write $x = a \cdot y + b \cdot z$?

the vectors x_1 x_2 x_3 ... x_n are linearly independent if none of them is a linear combination of the others

In higher dimensions

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 10 \\ 14 \\ 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

x_1

x_2

these two vectors
are *not* linearly independent
($x_2 = 2 * x_1$)

what about these?
how many “linearly independent”
vectors?

0.9298	1.1921	1.0205	-2.4863	0.0799	0.8577
0.2398	-1.6118	0.8617	0.5812	-0.9485	-0.6912
-0.6904	-0.0245	0.0012	-2.1924	0.4115	0.4494
-0.6516	-1.9488	-0.0708	-2.3193	0.6770	0.1006

x_1

x_2

x_3

x_4

x_5

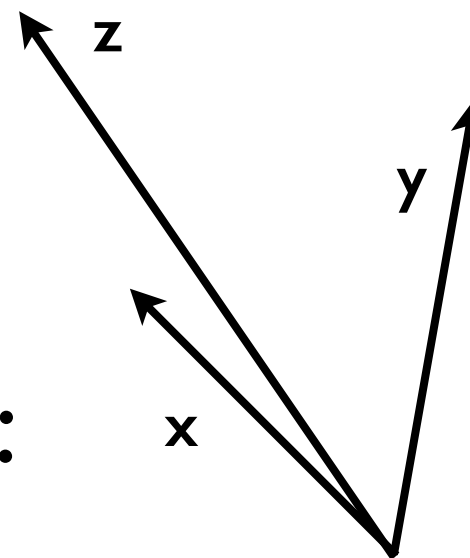
x_6

hard to tell, but there
can't be more than 4

Theorem

The number of independent vectors is smaller than the dimension of the space

2D example:



Theorem

Given a collection of vectors, the space of all linear combinations has dimension equal to the number of linearly independent vectors

This space is called a “sub-space”

2D example:

(dimension of sub-space spanned by $\{x, y\}$ is 1)



Matrices

Matrices

- Matrices, what are they?

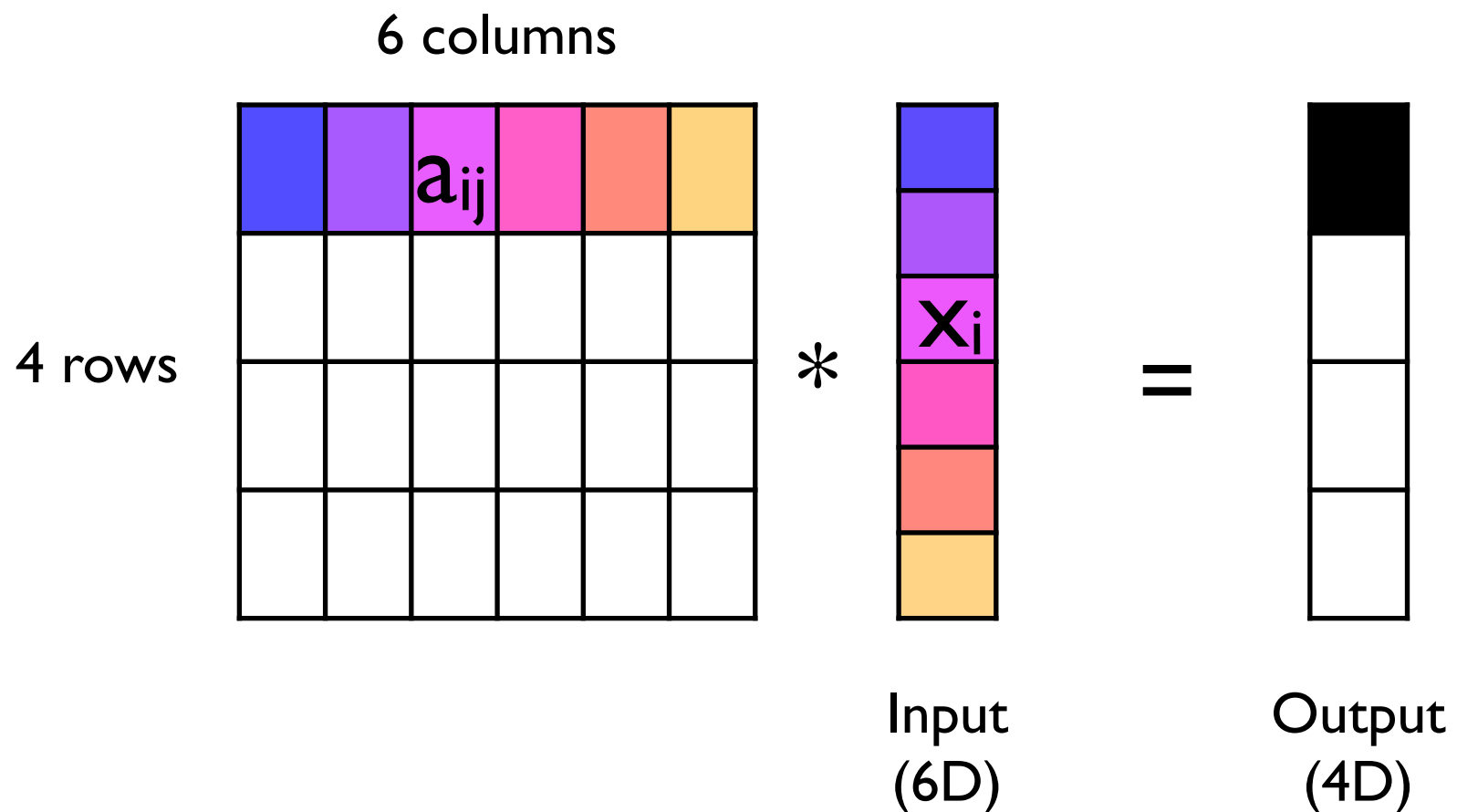
- A matrix is a rectangular arrangement of values and is usually denoted by a **BOLD UPPER CASE** letter, e.g.

and $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ Is an example of a 2-by-2 matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 7 & 6 \\ 4 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ Is an example of a 2-by-3 matrix}$$

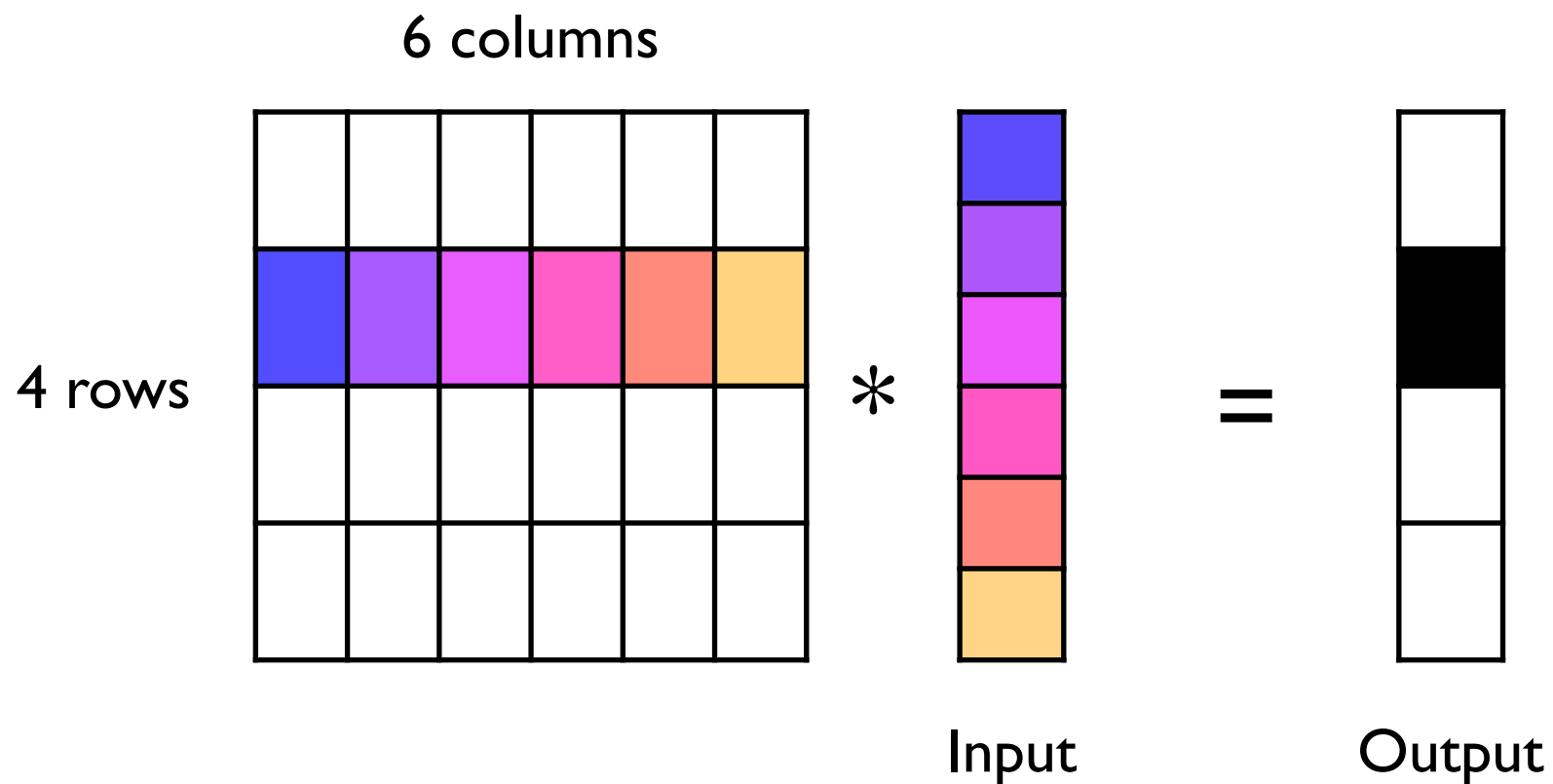
Matrices

Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions



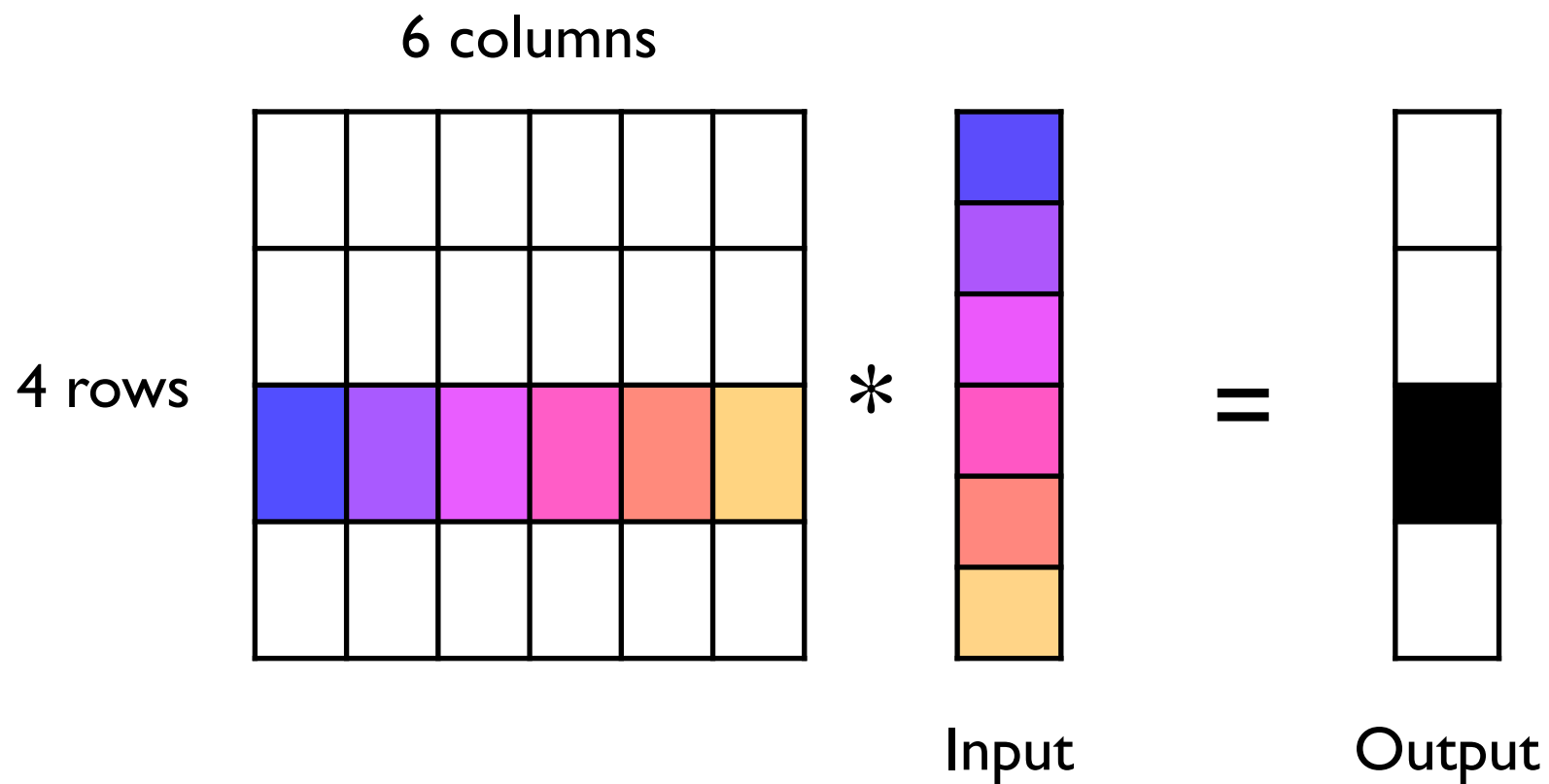
Matrices

Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions



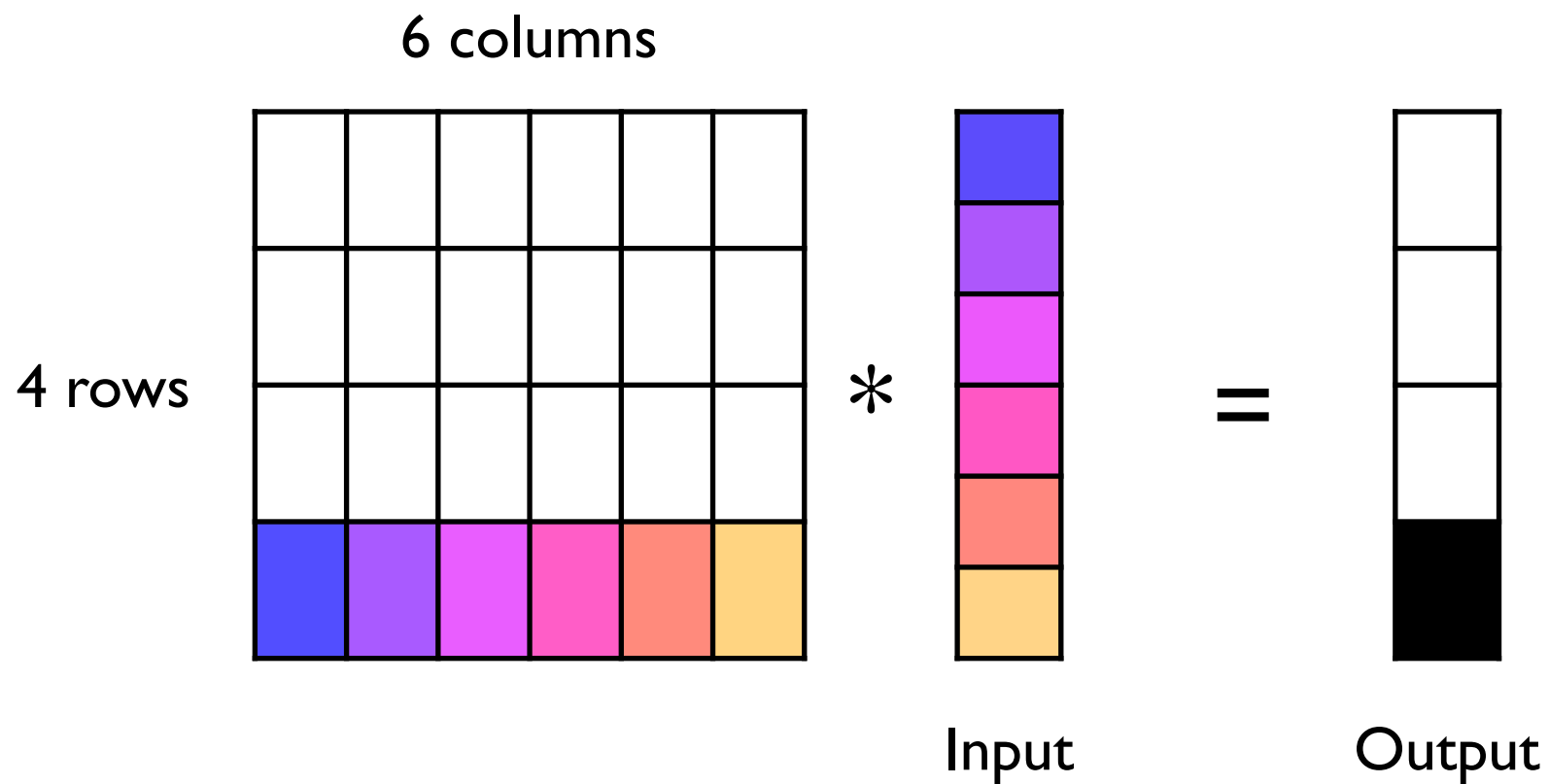
Matrices

Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions



Matrices

Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions



definitions

- Matrix multiplication as linear combinations of vectors

- Let

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2] \text{ and } \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- then

i.e. the vector \mathbf{Ab} is a linear combination of the vectors constituting the columns of \mathbf{A} , i.e. it lies in the “column space” of \mathbf{A} .

$$\mathbf{Ab} = b_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + b_2 \mathbf{a}_2 = b_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \end{bmatrix} + b_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

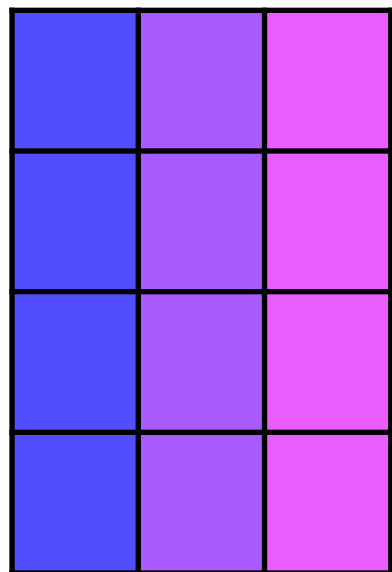
what does this imply?

The output is a linear combination of the columns

The output sub-space is the space spanned by the columns

The dimension of the output sub-space is smaller or equal to the number of columns

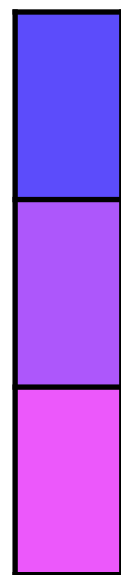
3 columns



4 rows

*

=



Input



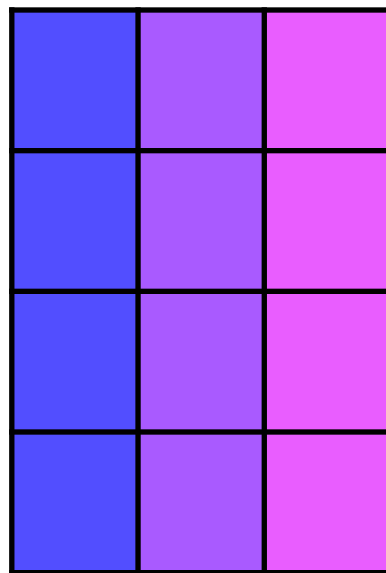
Output

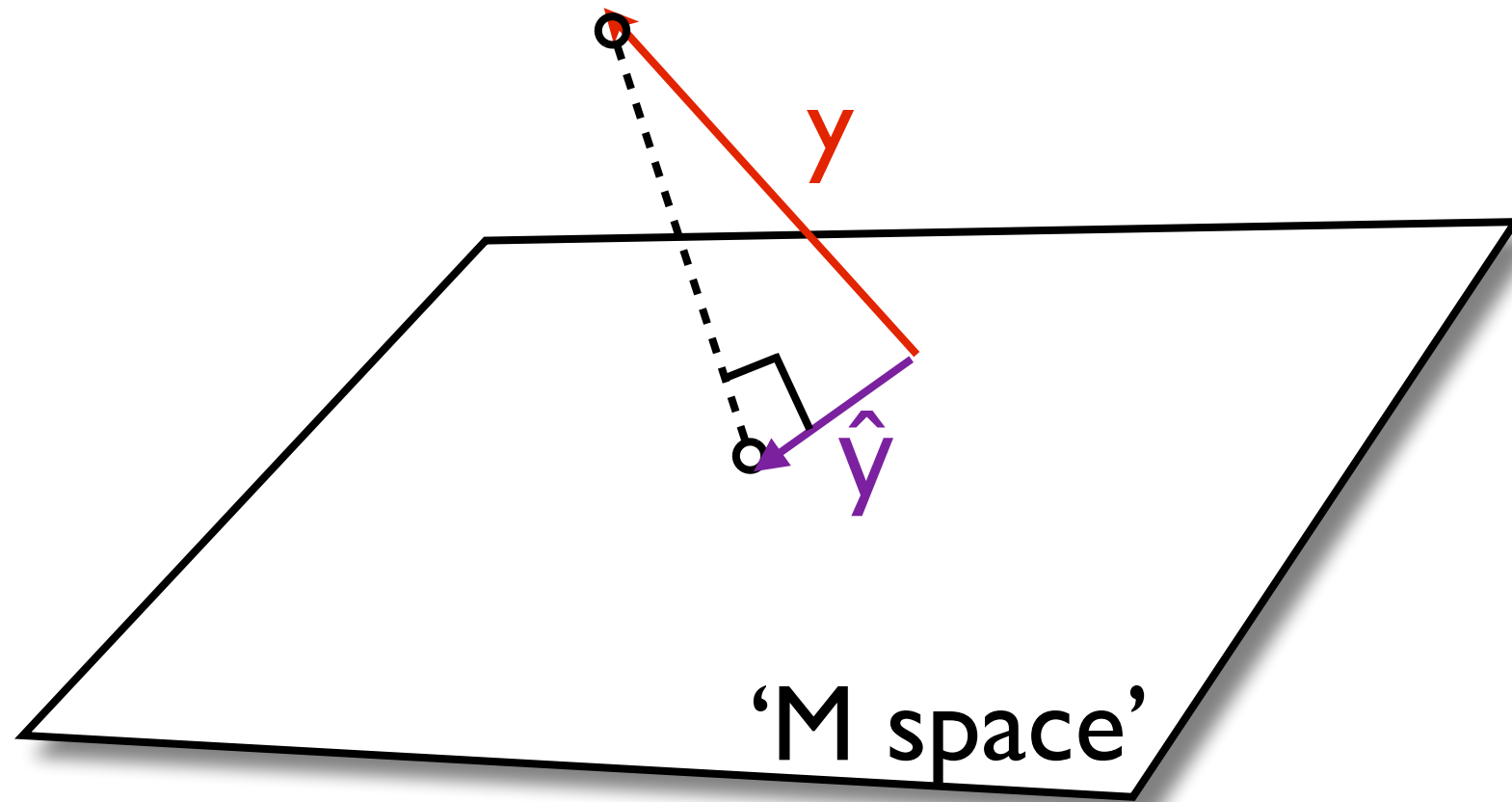
rank

The rank of a matrix is the number of independent columns

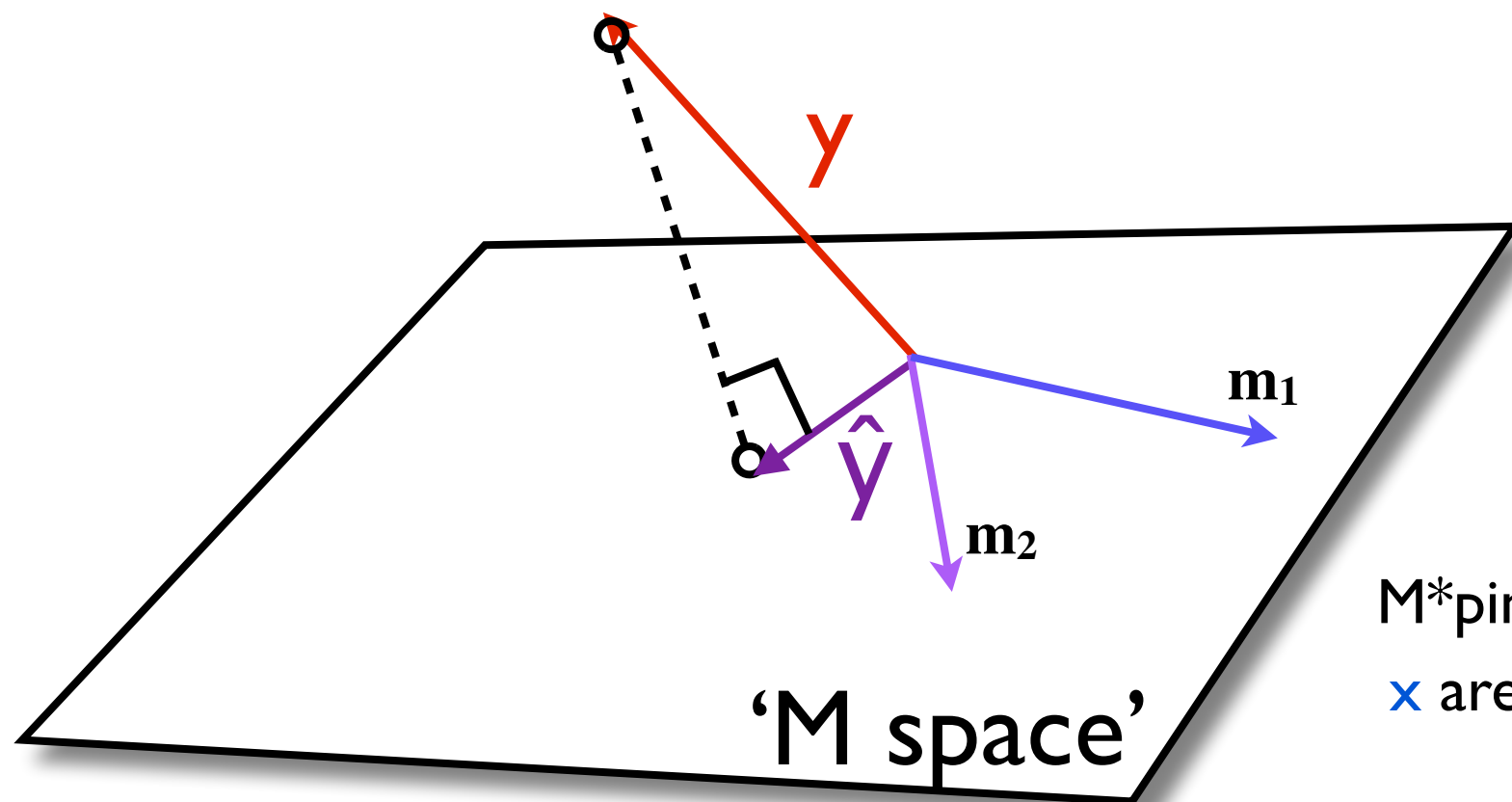
Full rank means equal to the maximum possible

Otherwise it is said to be rank deficient





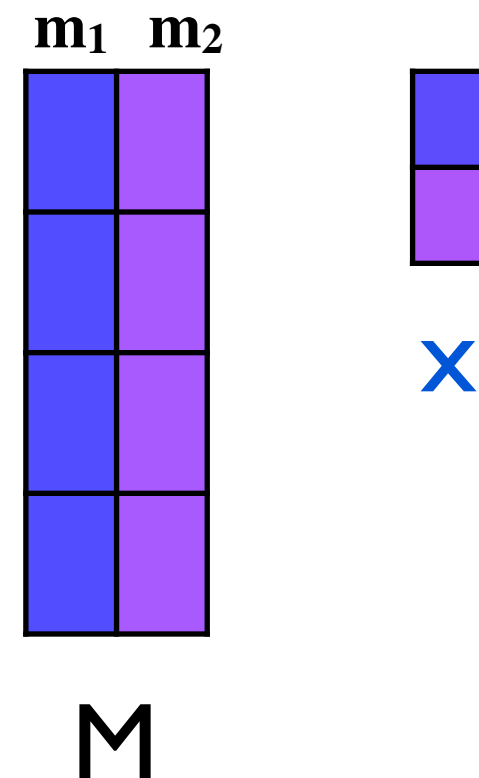
$M^*pinv(M)$ is the projector on the 'M space'
 x are the coordinates of \hat{y} in the 'M space'

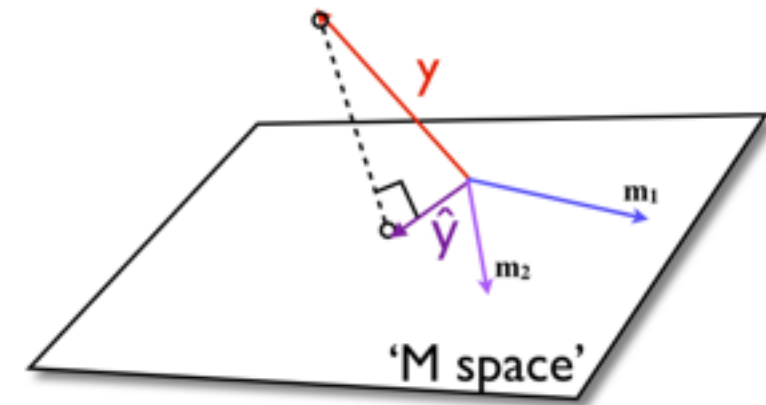


$M * \text{pinv}(M)$ is the projector on the 'M space'
 x are the coordinates of \hat{y} in the 'M space'

$$x = \text{pinv}(M) * y$$

$$\hat{y} = M * x = \underbrace{M * \text{pinv}(M)}_{\text{projector}} * y$$





- x are the coordinates of \hat{y} in the space spanned by the columns of M
- x tells us “how much” of each column we need to approximate y
- the best approximation we can get is the projection onto the ‘ M space’
- we cannot get closer (out of ‘ M space’) because that is what the columns of M span
- But if y is already in M -space, we get a perfect fit

End of part one

- The columns of the design matrix span the space “available” from the regressors (M-space)
- The pseudo-inverse finds the best vector of the M-space
- Next: Eigen-values/Eigen-vectors

Part two.

- Eigenvectors and eigenvalues
- PCA

$$y = Mx$$

output

input

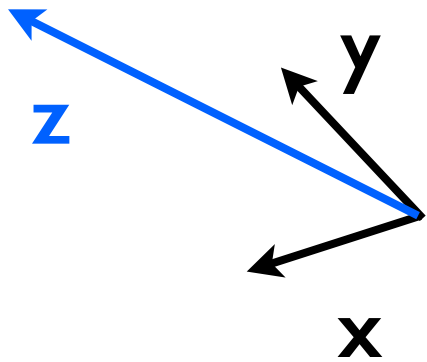
linear combination of columns of M

coefficients of the linear combination

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.4613 \\ 0.8502 \\ -0.3777 \\ 0.5587 \\ 0.3956 \\ -0.0923 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0000 & 0.5377 \\ 1.0000 & 1.8339 \\ 1.0000 & -2.2588 \\ 1.0000 & 0.8622 \\ 1.0000 & 0.3188 \\ 1.0000 & -1.3077 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 \\ 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

y
 M
 x

Special vectors

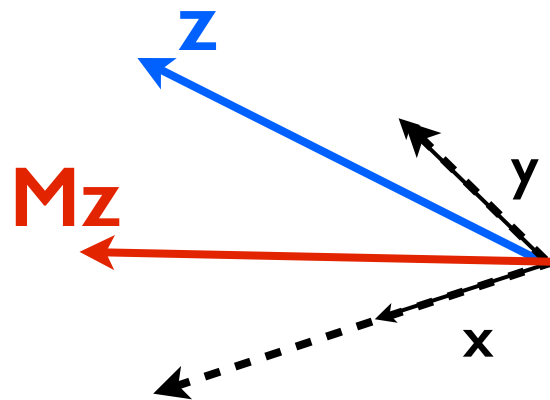


$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} + 2\mathbf{y}$$

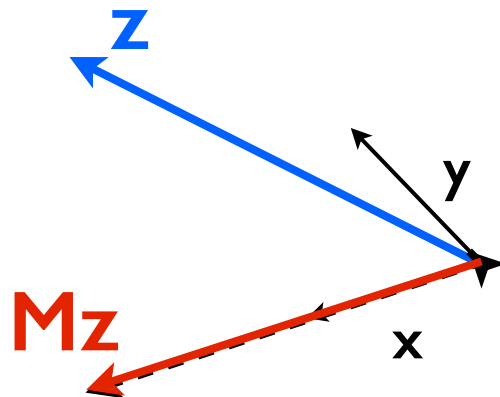
$$\mathbf{Mz} = \mathbf{Mx} + 2\mathbf{My}$$

If \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are such that:
 $\mathbf{Mx} = a\mathbf{x}$
 $\mathbf{My} = b\mathbf{y}$

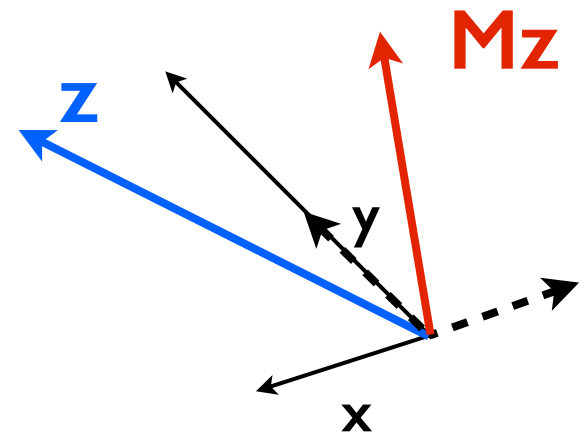
Then: $\mathbf{Mz} = a\mathbf{x} + 2b\mathbf{y}$



$a=2, b=1$



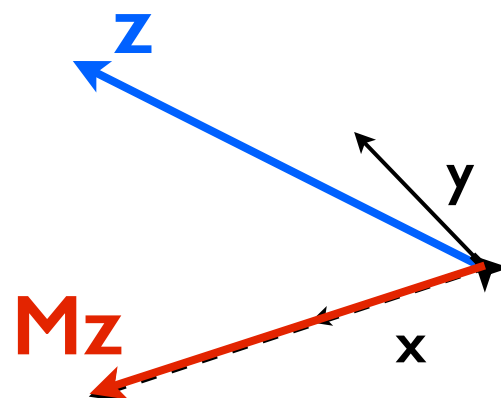
$a=2, b=0$



$a=-1, b=2$

Special vectors

- (\mathbf{x}, a) and (\mathbf{y}, b) are “intrinsic properties” of \mathbf{M} that tell us how to transform any vector
- Easy to see what happens if an eigenvalue dominates the others
- Intuition for why small eigenvalue means close to rank deficiency



need huge input to create
output along weaker
eigenvectors

$$\mathbf{Mz} = a\mathbf{x} + 2b\mathbf{y}$$

$$a=2, b=0.0001$$

Eigenvector

$$Mx = \lambda x$$

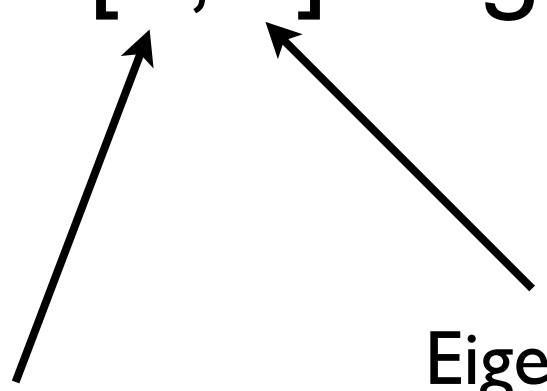
Eigenvalue

Special vectors

- $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ This means \mathbf{M} is a square matrix

How do we find \mathbf{x} ?

Matlab: $[V,D]=\text{eig}(M)$



Eigenvectors

Eigenvalues

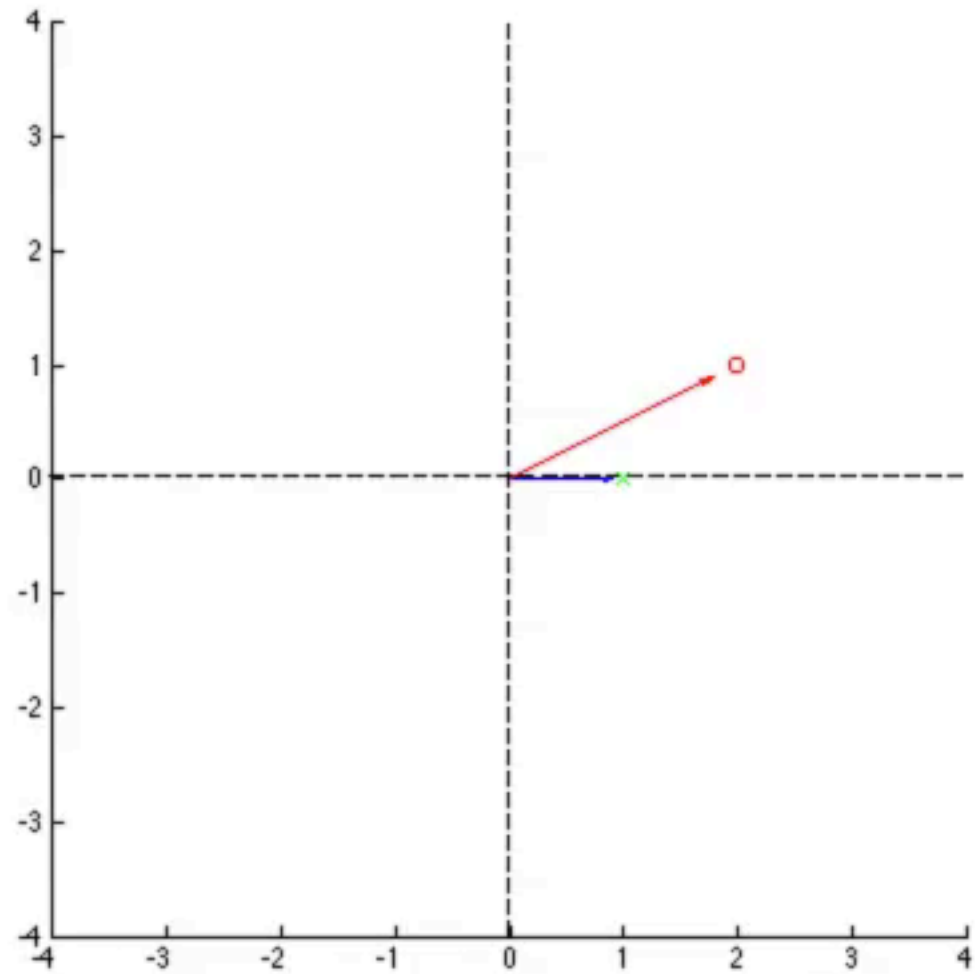
Examples in 2D

Positive definite matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} M = & 2 & 0 \\ & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2$$



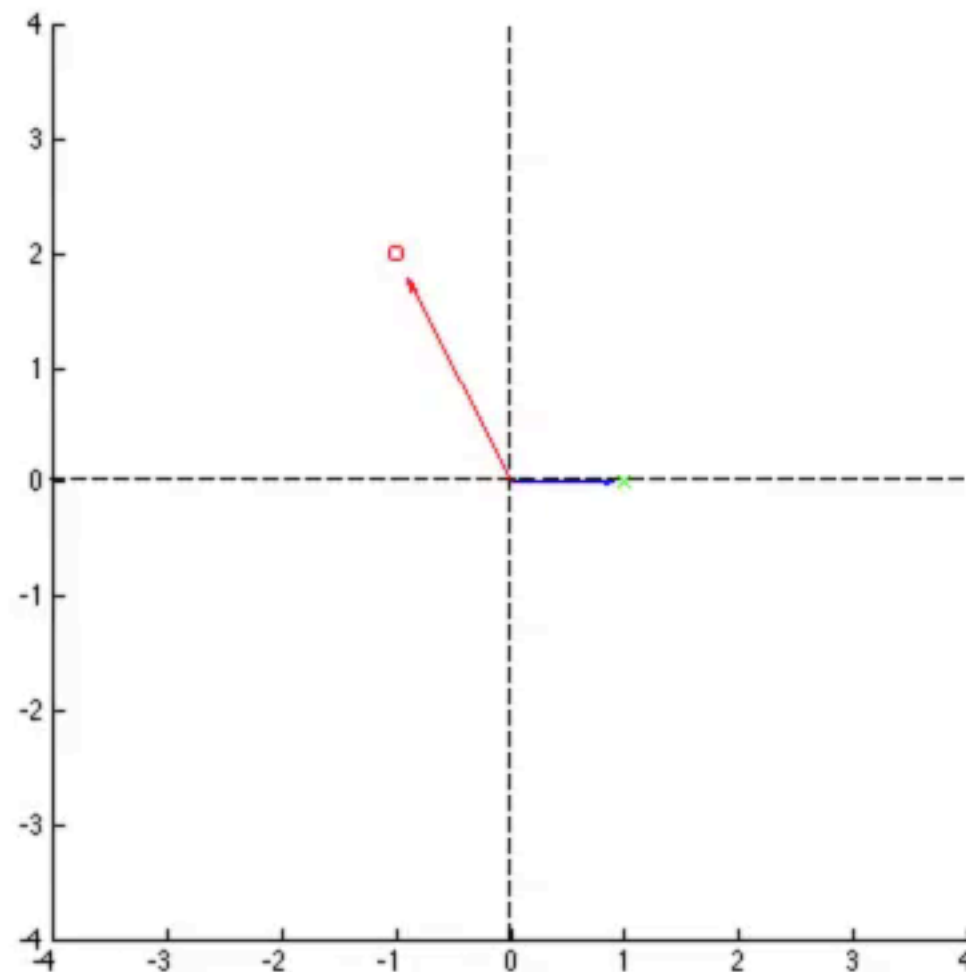
Examples in 2D

Negative eigenvalue

$$\begin{pmatrix} M = \begin{matrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{matrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = -1.4495$$

$$\lambda_2 = 3.4495$$



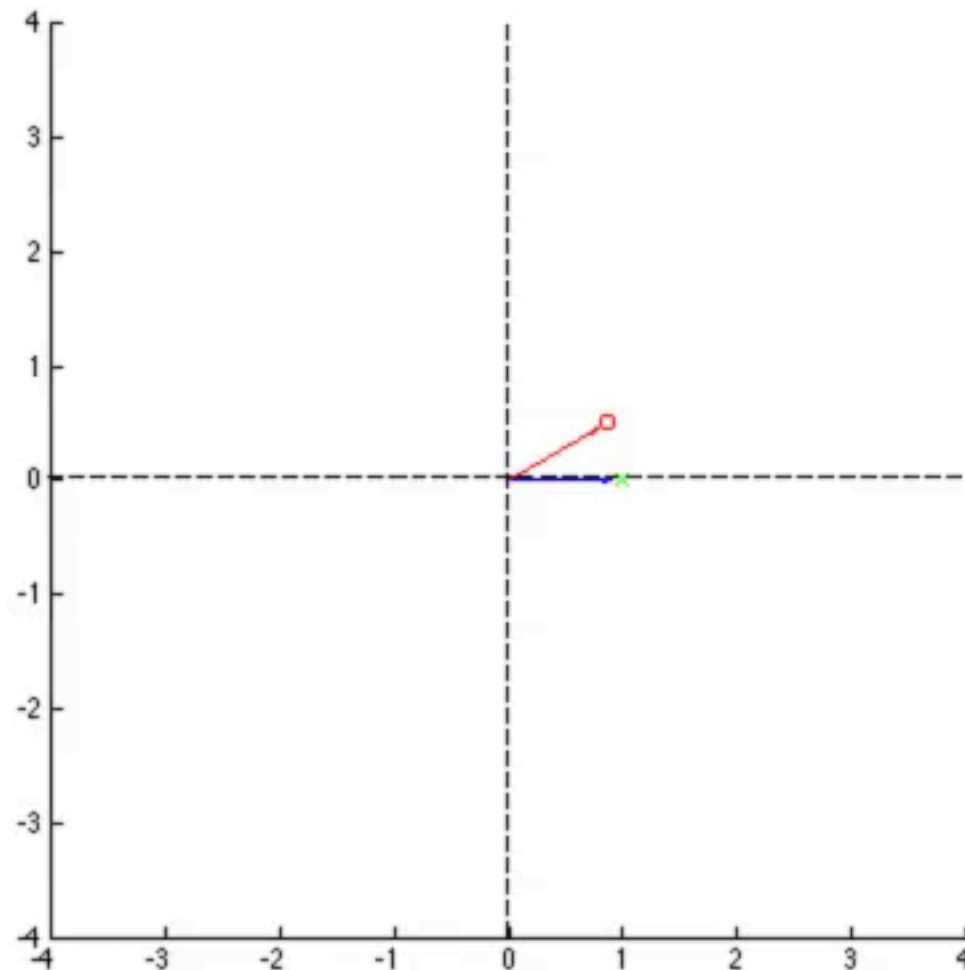
Examples in 2D

Rotation matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0.866 & -0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.866 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = ???$$

$$\lambda_2 = ???$$



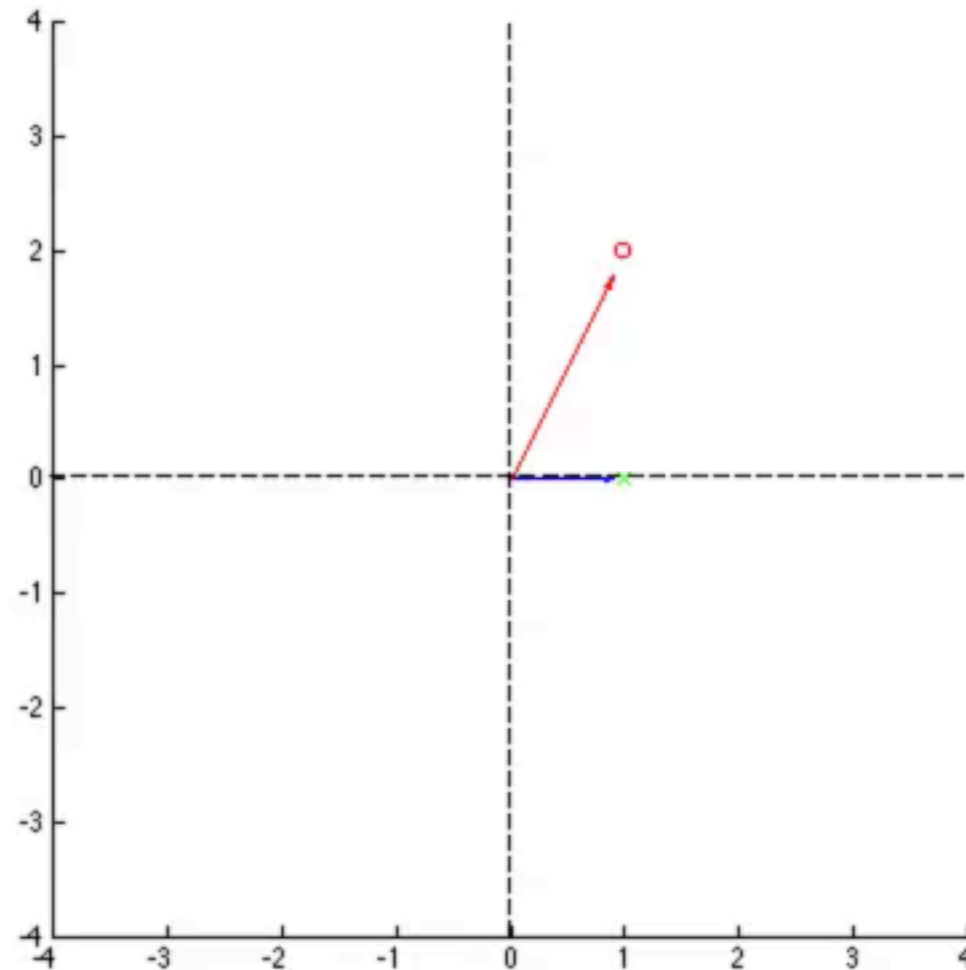
Examples in 2D

Rank deficient matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} M = & 1 & 2 \\ & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0$$

$$\lambda_2 = 5$$



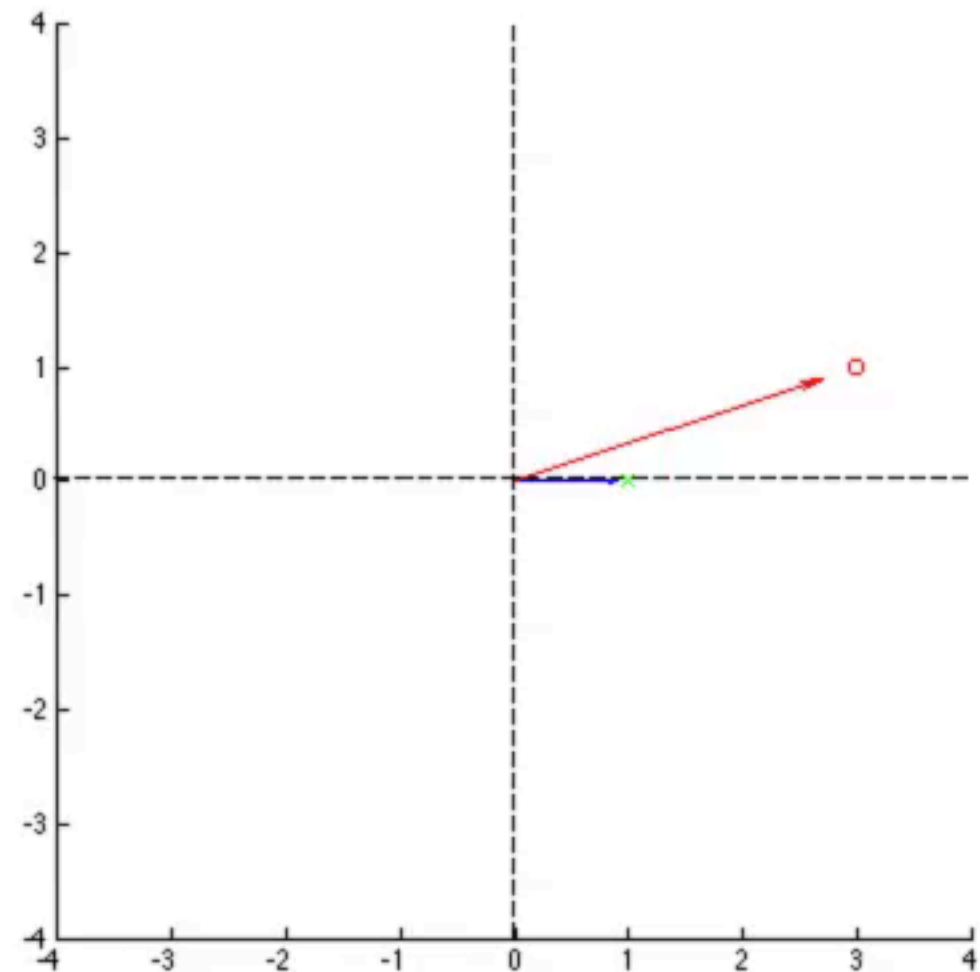
Examples in 2D

Symmetric matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 2$$

$$\lambda_2 = 4$$



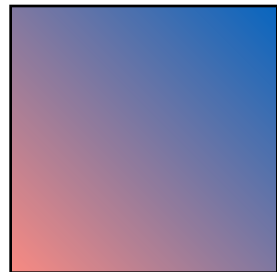
Symmetric matrices

examples

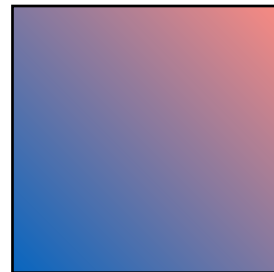
Covariance matrix

Correlation matrix

$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T$ and $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}$ for any rectangular matrix \mathbf{M}



\mathbf{M}



\mathbf{M}^T

Why is this interesting?

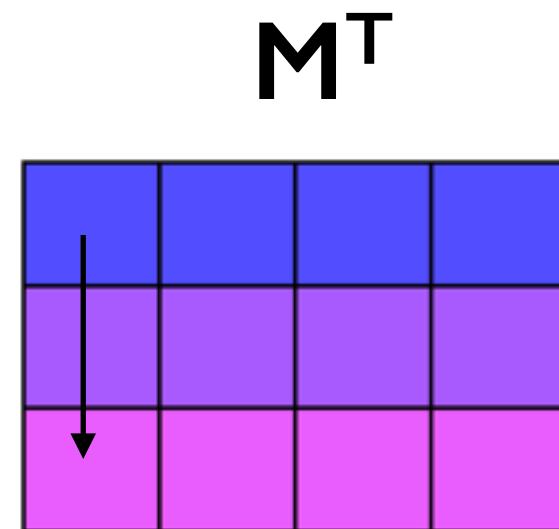
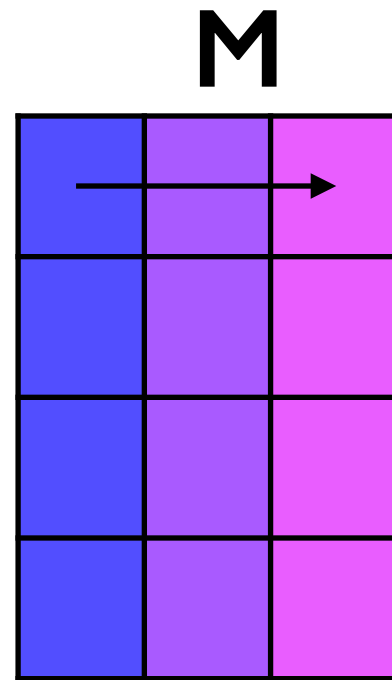
- We can generalise eigenvectors/values to rectangular matrices (by looking at $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}$ or $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T$)

what is this for?

- Approximate rank
- Approximate matrix

Rank and transpose

Remember: the rank of a matrix is the dimension of the output sub-space



theorem

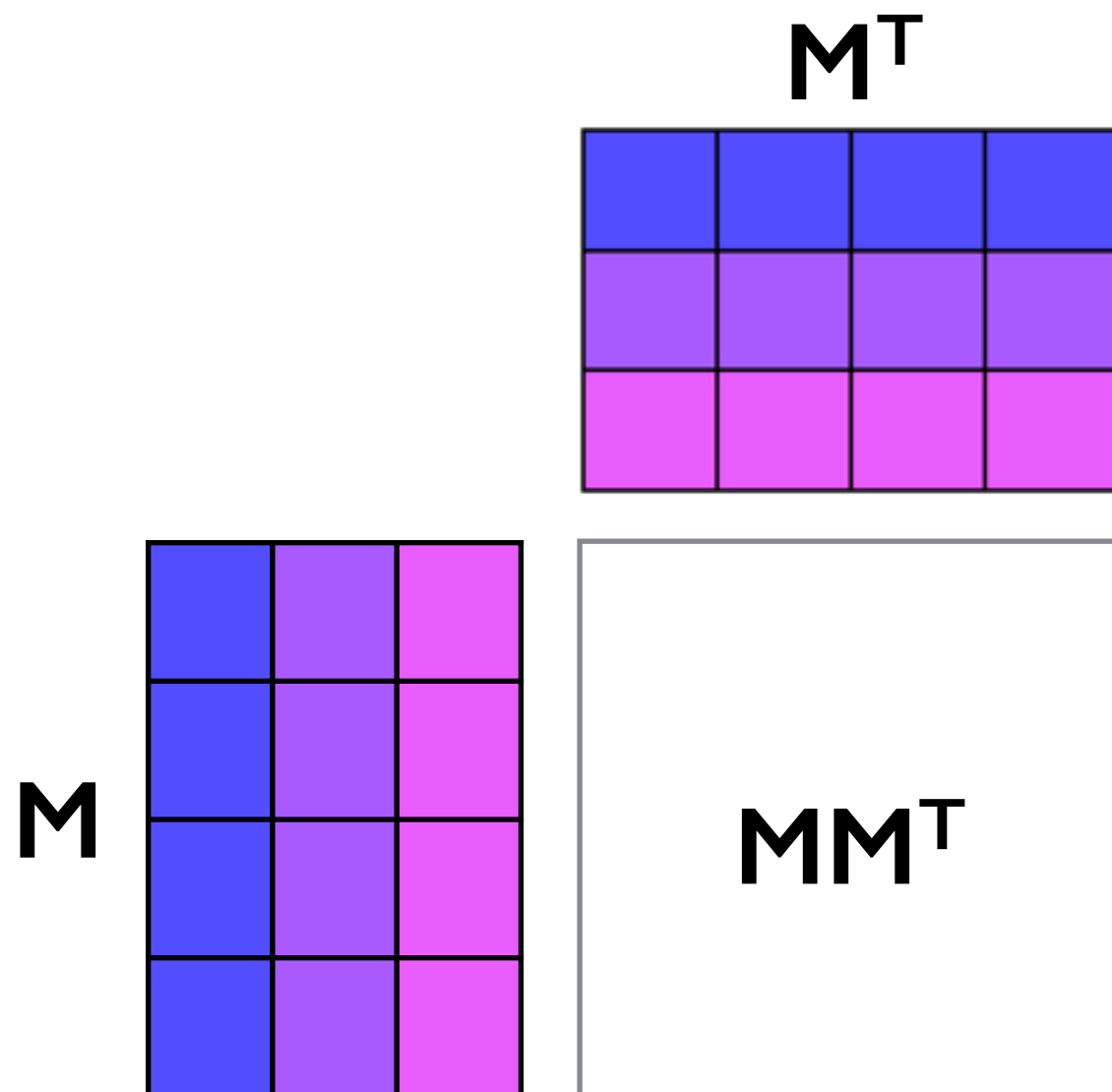
- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{M}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{M}^T) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M})$

Approximate the rank

I can calculate the eigenvalues of MM^T (always)

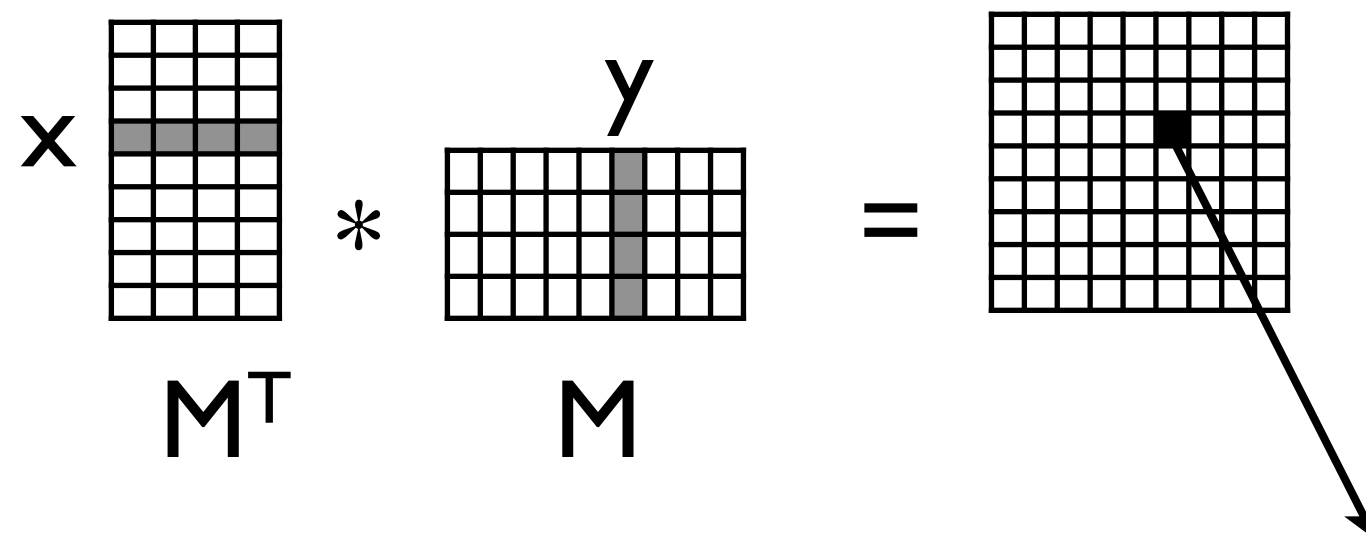
Let's say I find them to be 1.5, 2.0, 0.0001, 0

Then the approximate rank of M is 2



Approximate a matrix

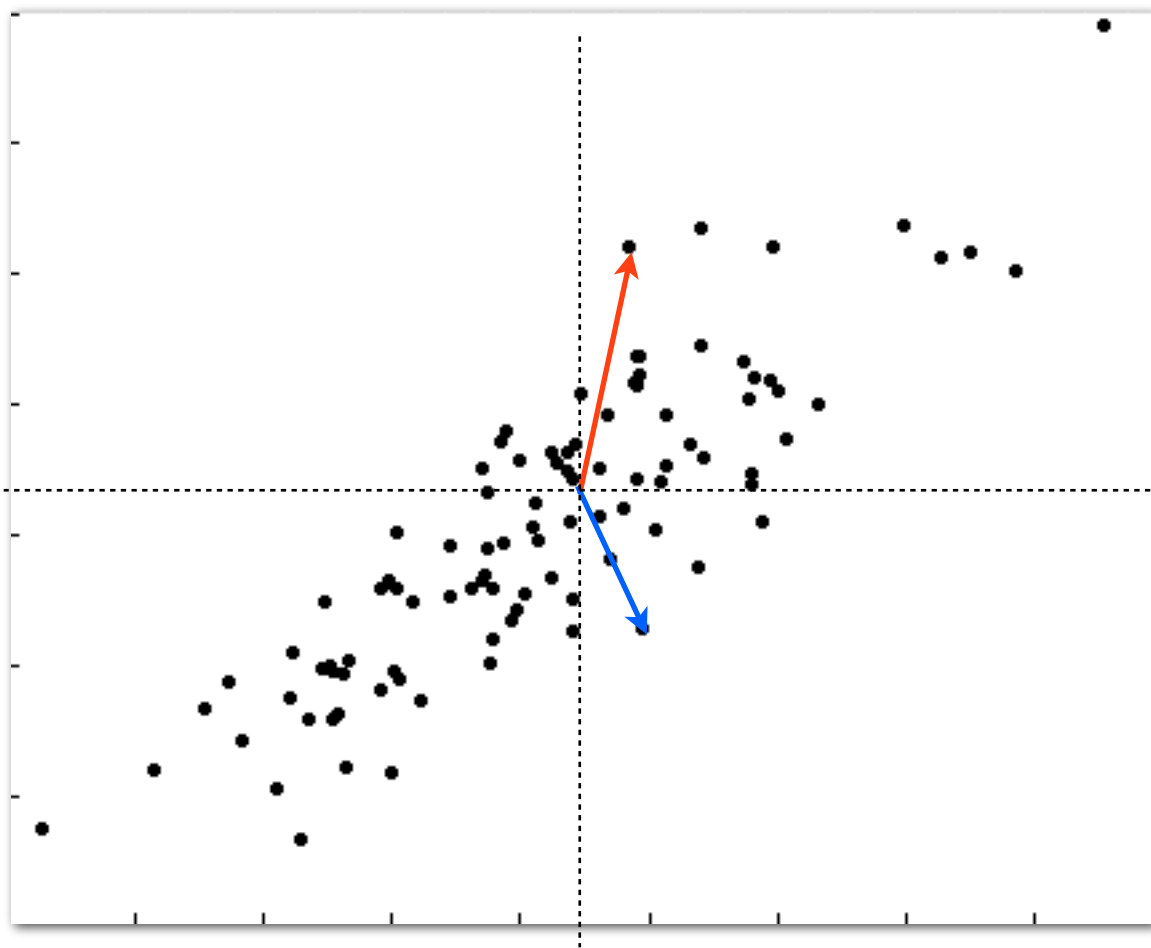
When the columns of M are demeaned, $M^T M$ is the covariance



$$\text{Sum}\{ (x_i - \text{mean}(x)) \cdot (y_i - \text{mean}(y)) \}$$

data

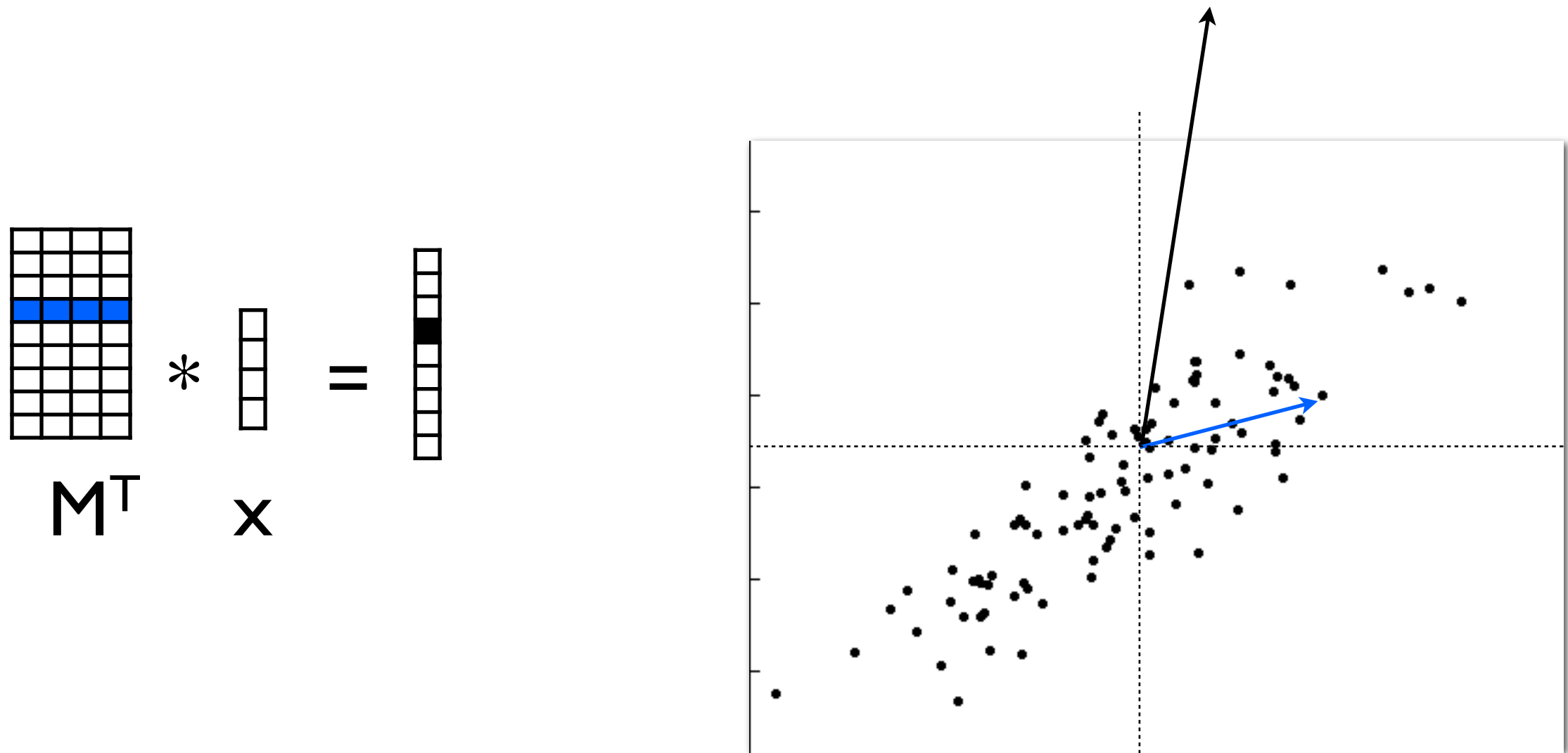
$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1.3401 & 2.1599 & -0.4286 & 1.5453 & 1.2016 & 0.1729 & 0.7258 & 1.2167 & 3.2632 & 2.7515 \\ 2.9208 & 3.0004 & 0.2012 & 2.3979 & 2.4349 & 0.5834 & 1.9231 & 2.7030 & 5.9159 & 4.1647 & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \square \\ \hline \end{array} \\ M^T \end{matrix} * \begin{matrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \end{array} \\ M \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \end{array} \end{matrix}$$

The diagram illustrates a matrix multiplication operation. On the left, a vertical vector \mathbf{x} (represented by a 10x1 grid with the second row highlighted in blue) is labeled M^T . This is multiplied (indicated by $*$) by a horizontal vector \mathbf{y} (represented by a 1x10 grid with the sixth column highlighted in red) labeled M . The result is a 10x10 grid where the element at the intersection of the second row and sixth column is highlighted in black, representing the dot product of the two vectors.

Now what is $M^T x$?



We want an x that “looks like” most of the data points

i.e. maximise $|M^T x|$

(with $|x|=1$ for example, otherwise take $|x|=\text{infinity!}$)

Some maths

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{x}|^2$$

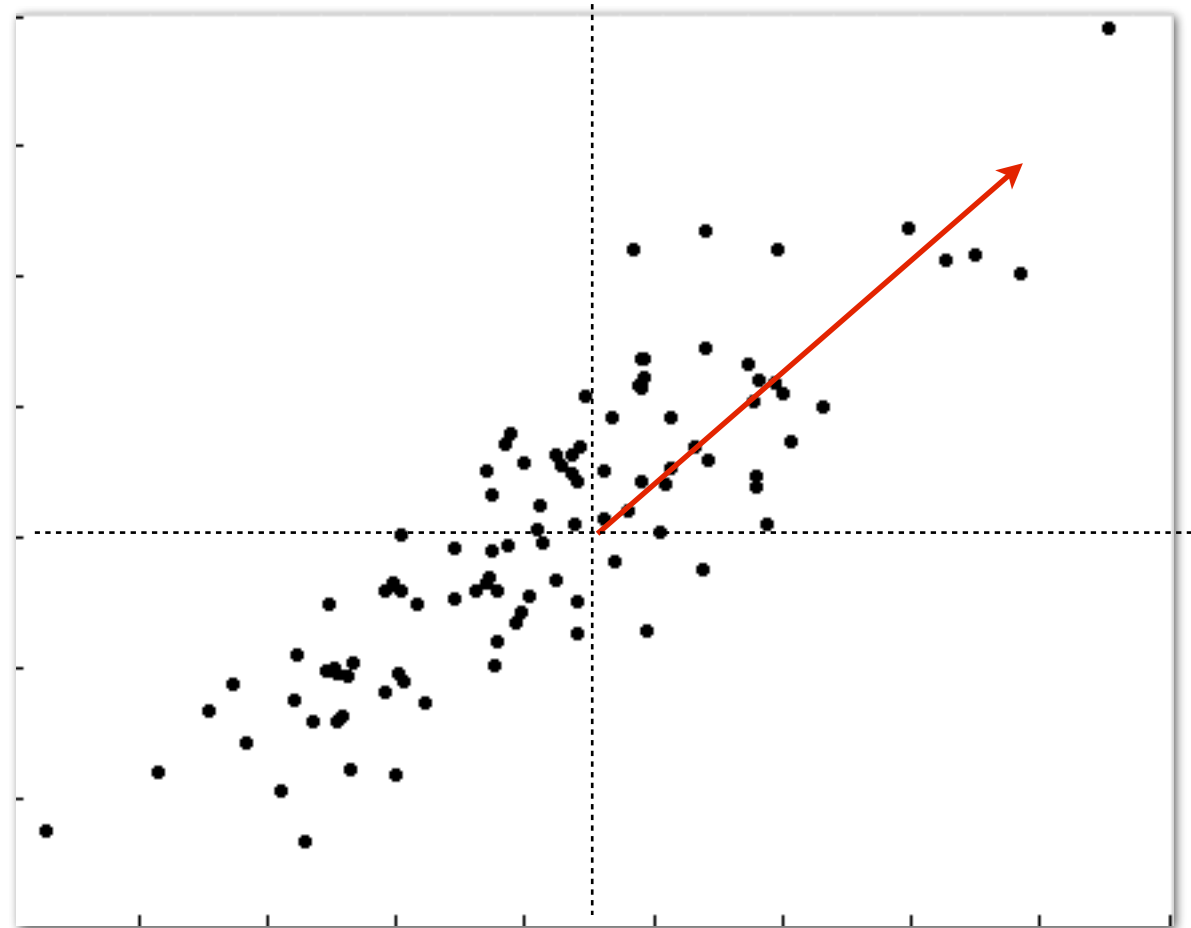
max

max

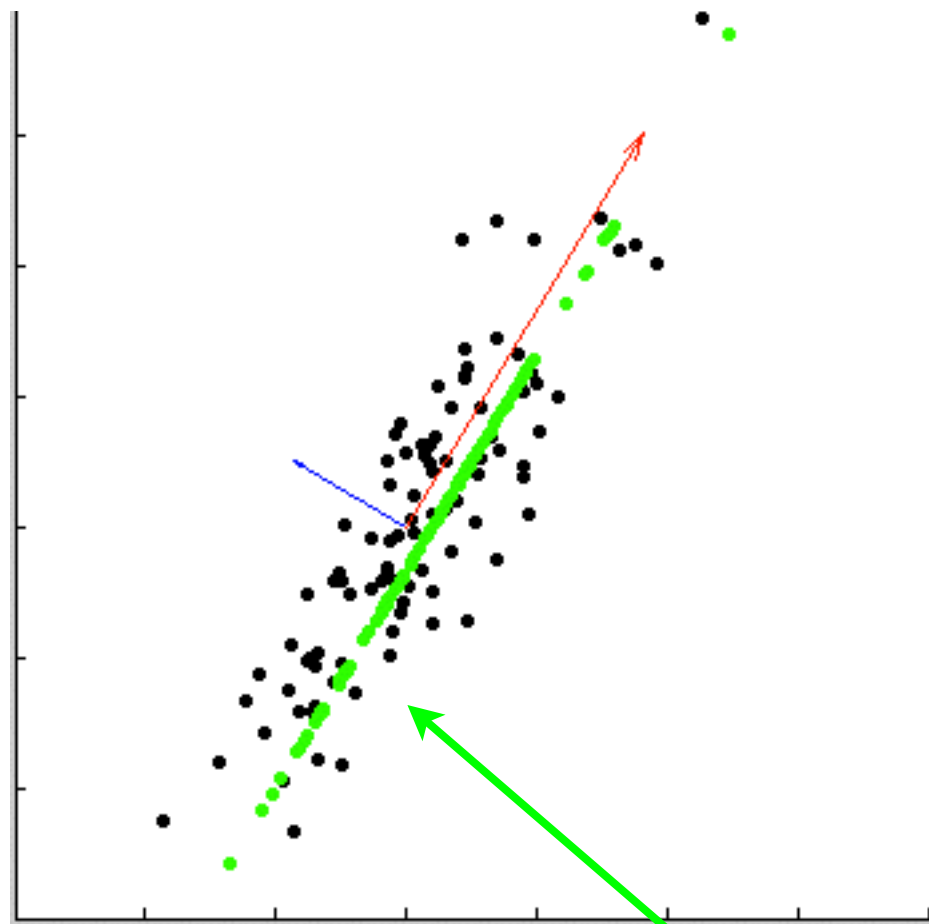
$\mathbf{M} \mathbf{M}^T$ is symmetric! Max is along first eigenvector!

“Principal” eigenvector of MM^T is
best 1D approx to the data

$$MM^T \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$



Principal component analysis



reduced data = $M\mathbf{v}$

reduced data in original space = $M\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^T$

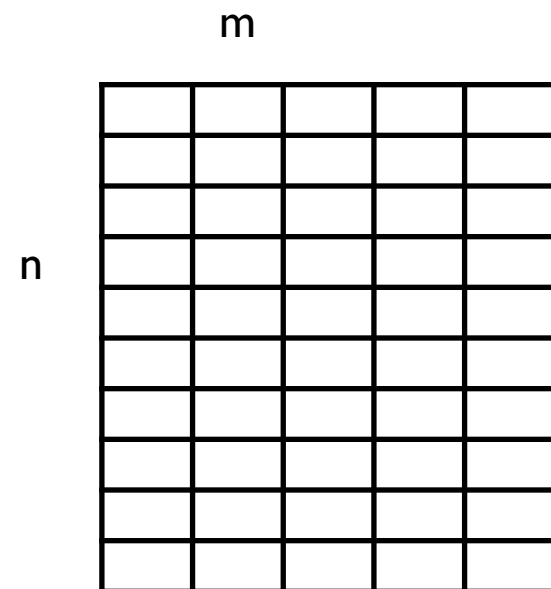
Data projected onto first principal component

Principal component analysis

Identifying directions of large variance in data

- . dimensionality reduction
- . denoising
- . finding patterns

data →



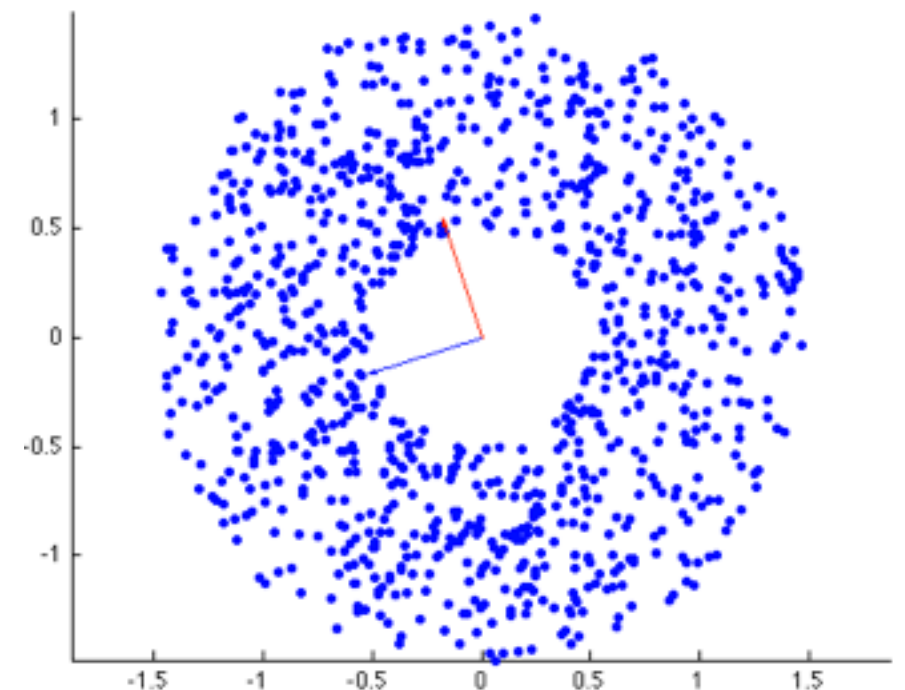
Assumptions in PCA

- The data is a linear combination of “interesting” components
- Variance is a good (sufficient?) feature
- Large variance is “interesting”

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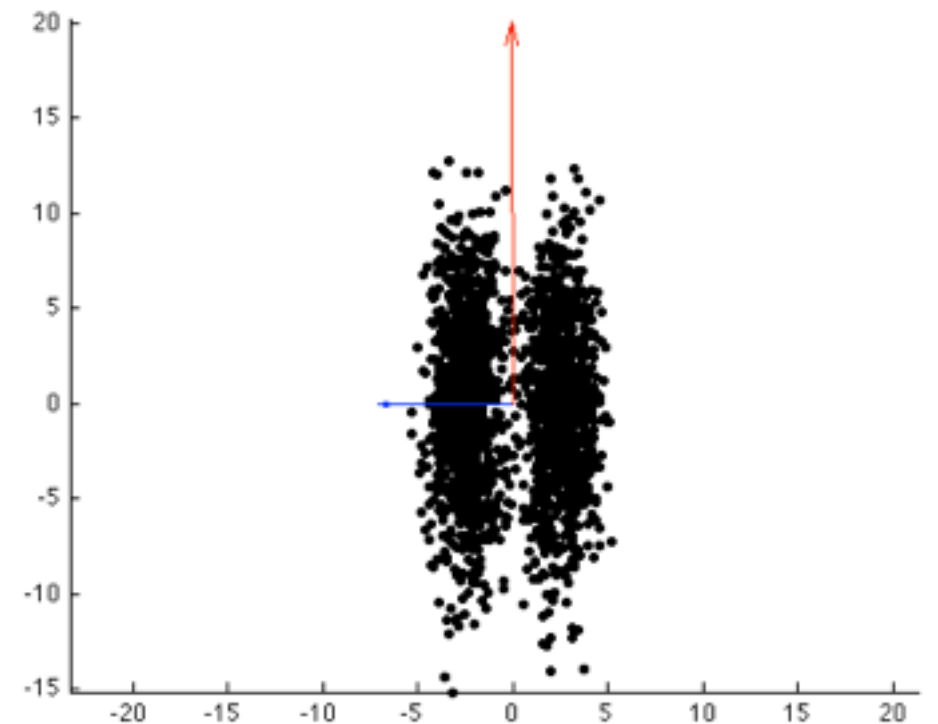
Alternatives:
Kernel PCA, MDS, Laplacian
eigenmaps, etc.



Assumptions in PCA

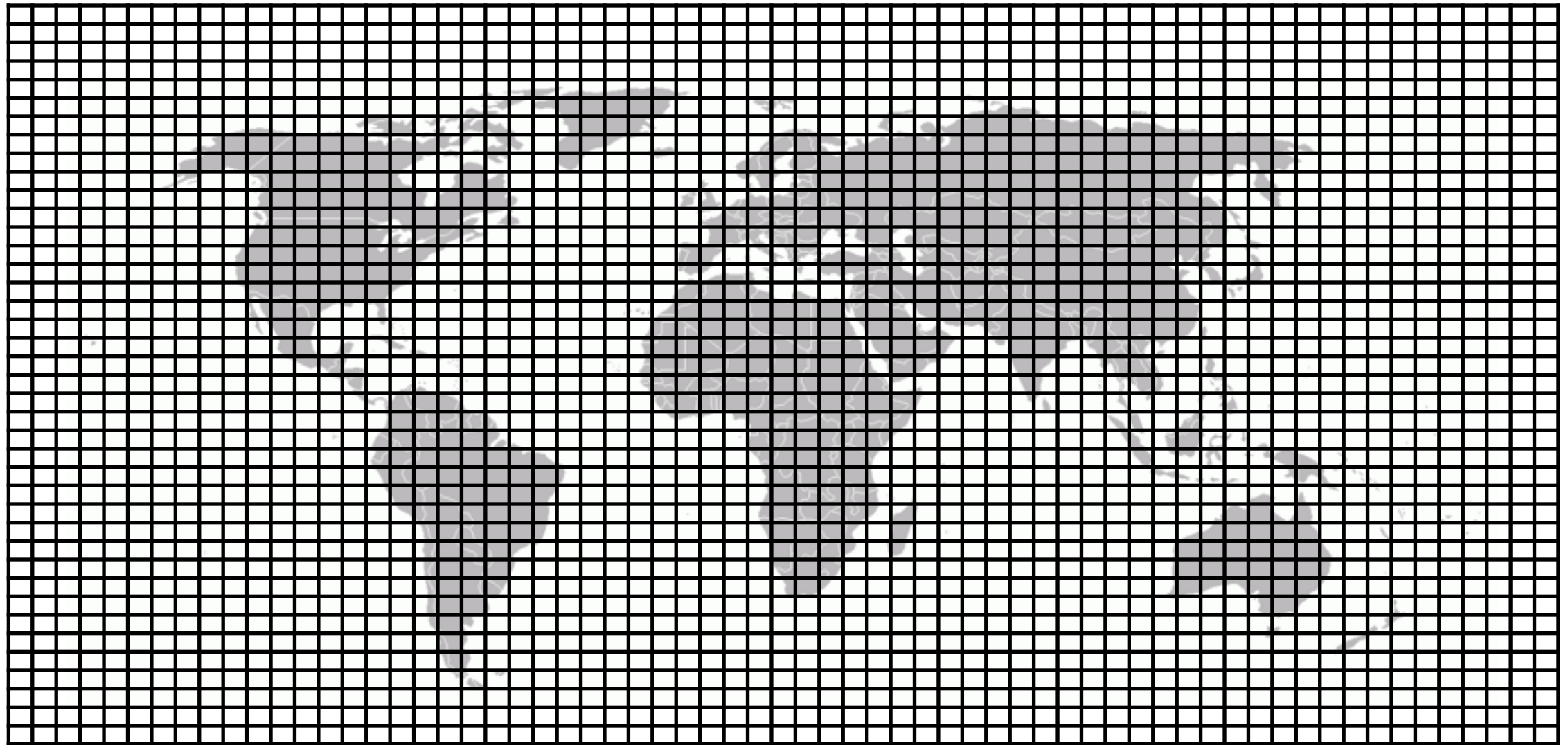
- The data is a linear combination of “interesting” components
- Variance is a good (sufficient?) feature
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(Alternative: LDA)



Example

PCA of the world

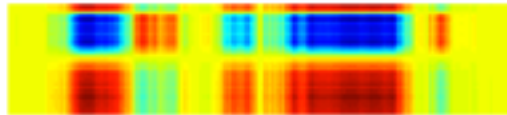


Example

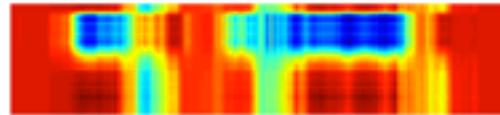
PCA of the world

I (38%)

new data



add mean



original data



ONBI - GLM Practical. 2014/15

Practical Overview

This practical requires Matlab. Go through the page and execute the listed commands in the Matlab command window (you can copy-paste). Don't click on the "answers" links until you have thought hard about the question. Raise your hand should you need any help.

Contents:

- **General Linar Model**
Fitting the General Linar Model to some data
- **Principal Component Analysis**
Doing PCA on some data

Simple GLM

Let's start simple. Open matlab, and generate noisy data **y** using a linear model with one regressor **x** and an intercept. I.e. $y=a+b*x$

```
x = (1:20)';  
intercept = -10;  
slope = 2.5;  
y = intercept + slope*x;  
y = y + 10*randn(size(y)); % add some noise
```

Now plot the data against **x**:

```
figure  
plot(x,y,'.');  
xlabel('x');  
ylabel('y');
```

Let's compare fitting a linear model with and without the intercept. First, set up two design matrices:

```
M1 = [x]; % w/o intercept  
M2 = [ones(size(x)) x]; % w/ intercept
```

That's all folks.