

Linear algebra

Saad Jbabdi

- Matrices & GLM
- Eigenvectors/eigenvalues
- PCA

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- 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

$$y = M * x$$

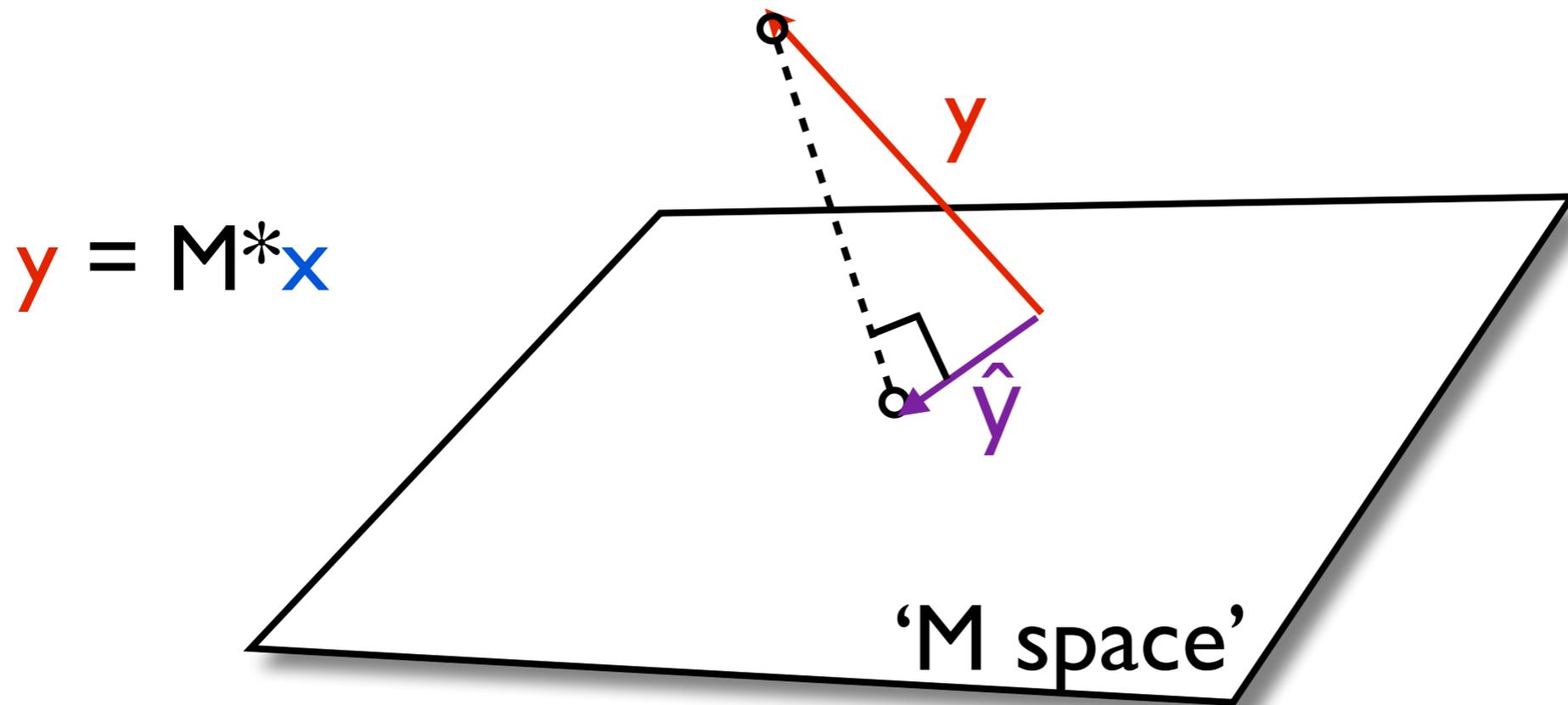
There is a linear relationship between M and y

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

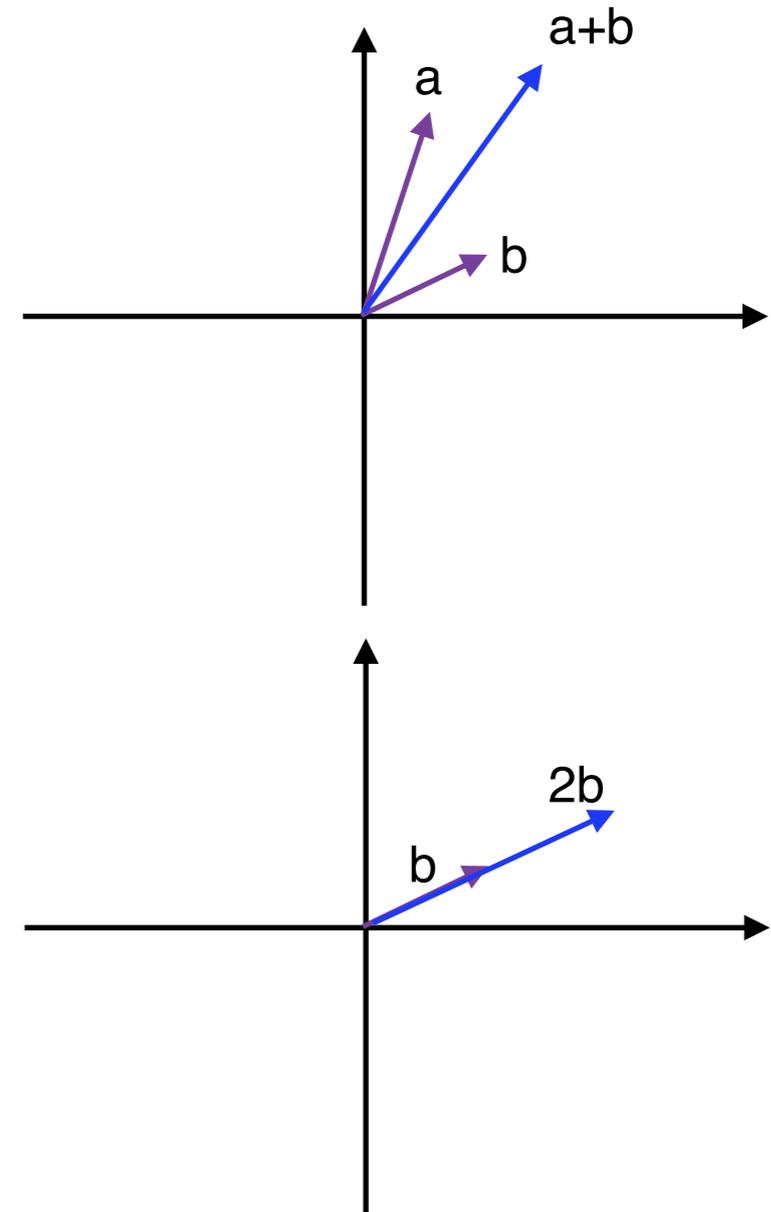
- multiply element-wise

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

- Linear combinations of vectors

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

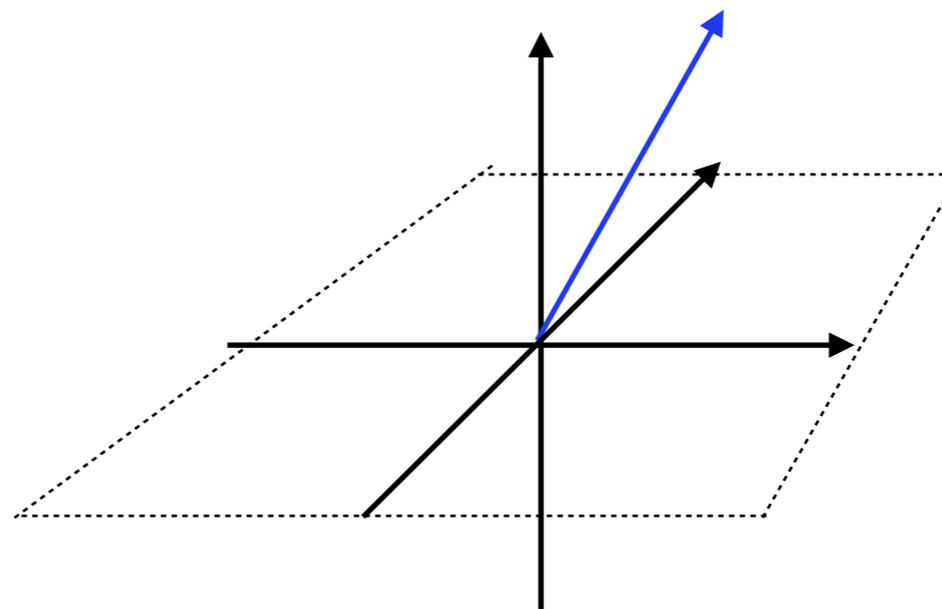
\mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} in the same d-dimensional space



vectors

About d-dimensional vectors

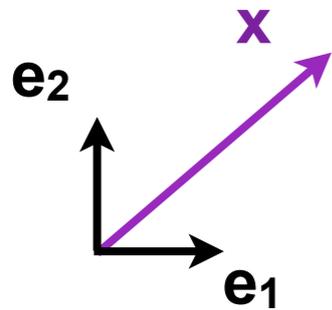
The “arrow” picture is also useful in d-dimensions, as any vector is in effect one-dimensional.



vectors

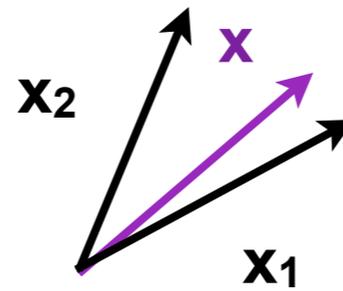
- Linear combinations of vector

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



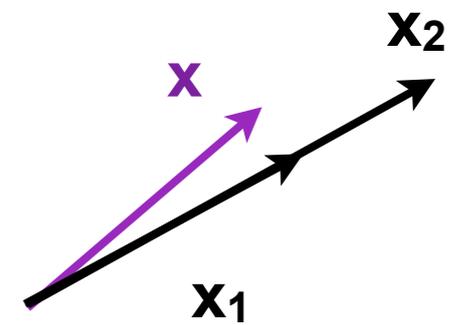
$$\mathbf{x} = a.\mathbf{e}_1 + b.\mathbf{e}_2$$

any 2D vector is a linear combination of e_1 and e_2



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

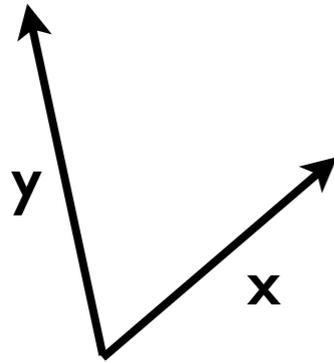
what about a linear combination of any 2 vectors?



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

what if the two vectors are collinear?

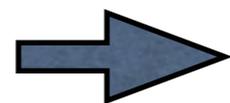
“spanning”



spanning means covering using linear combinations

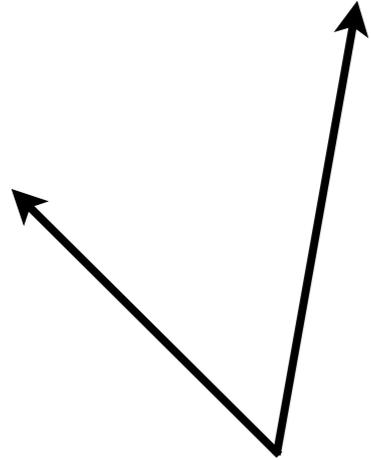
E.g.: $z = a \cdot x + b \cdot y$

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?

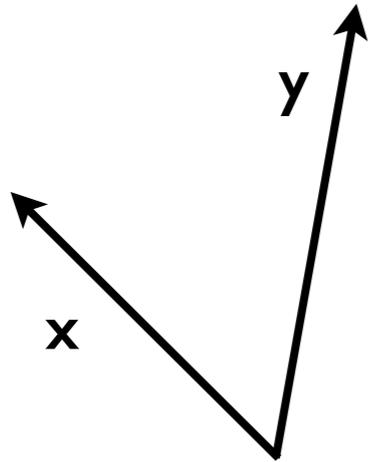


these two vectors
span 1 dimension

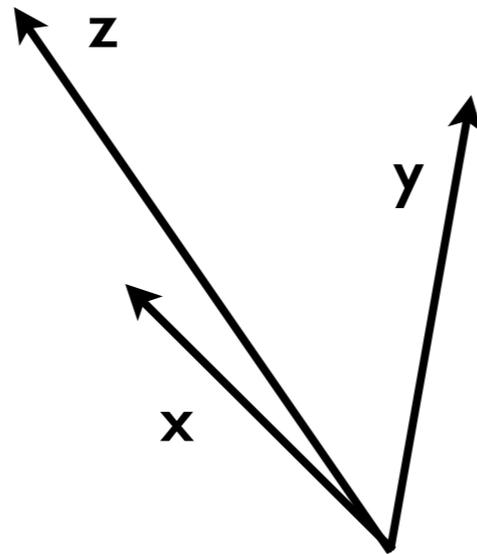
vectors can span a “sub-space”

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

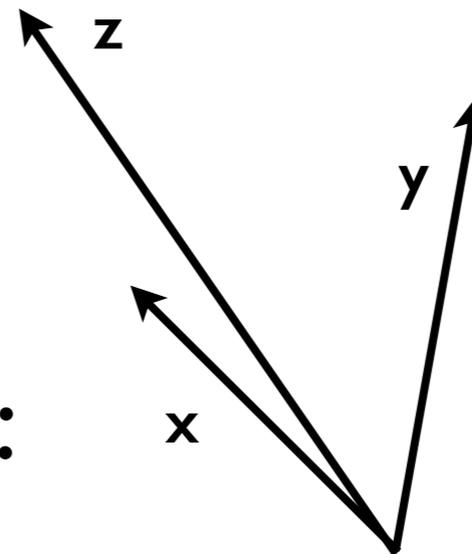
x_6

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?

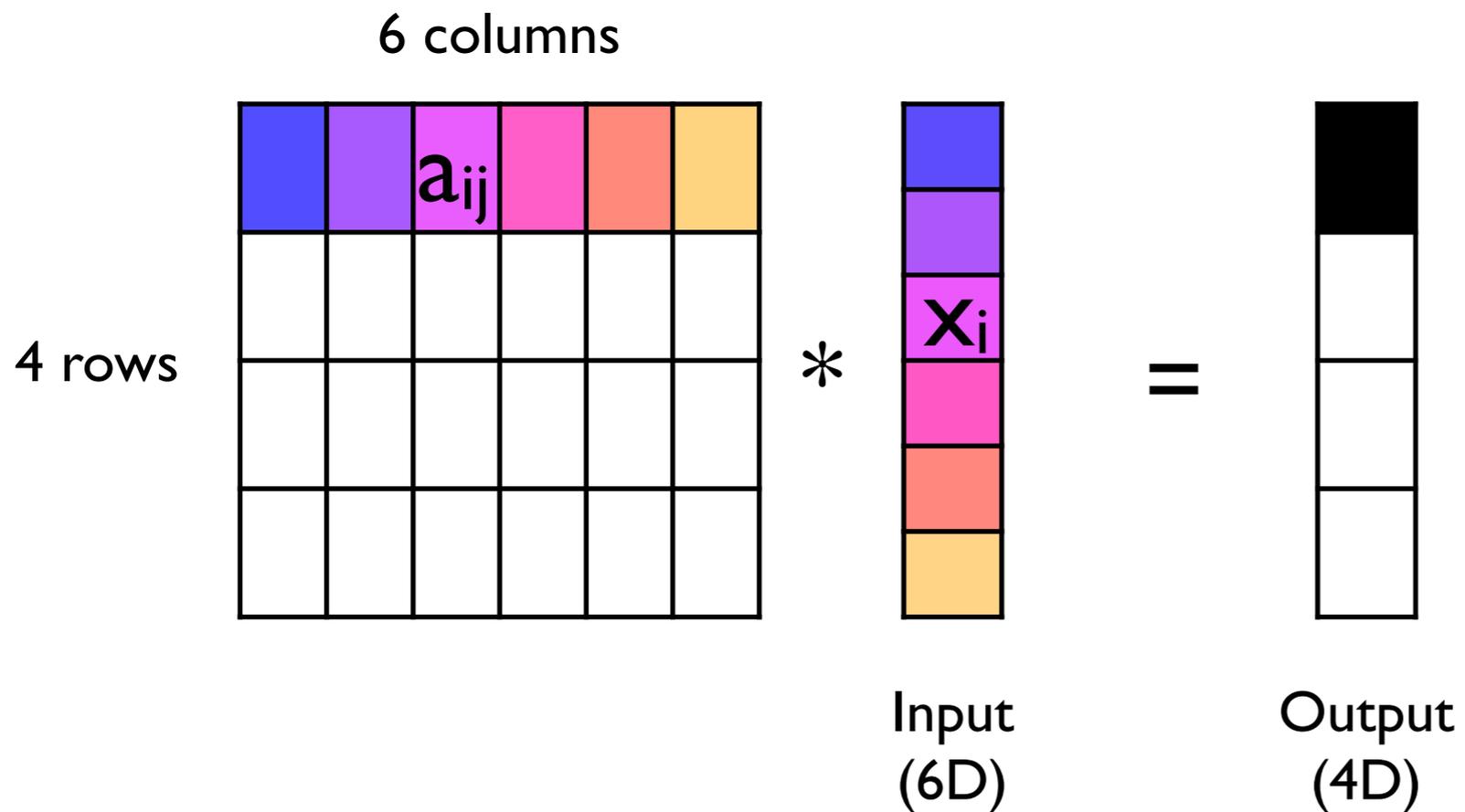
- A matrix is a rectangular arrangement of values and is usually denoted by a **BOLD UPPER CASE** letter, e.g.

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

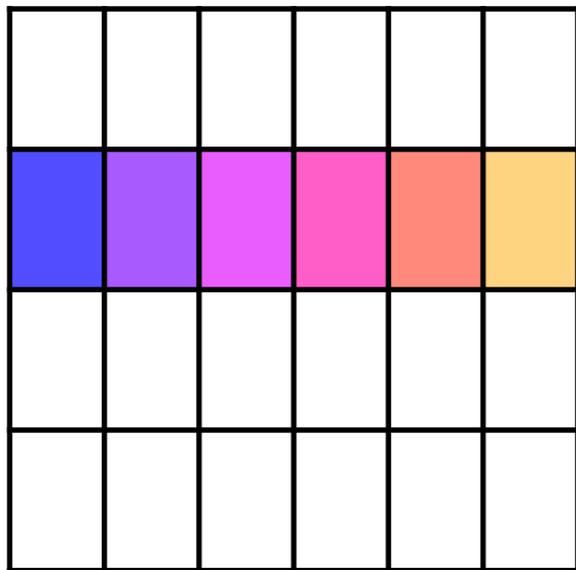


Matrices

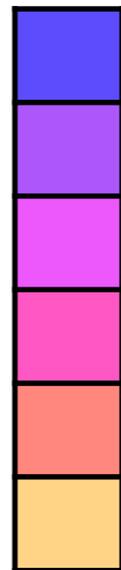
Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions

6 columns

4 rows



*



Input

=



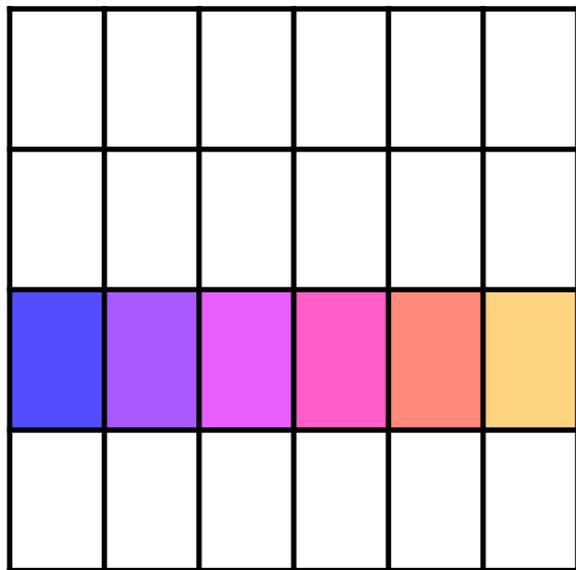
Output

Matrices

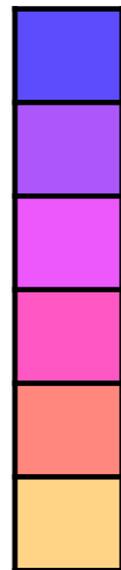
Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions

6 columns

4 rows



*



=



Input

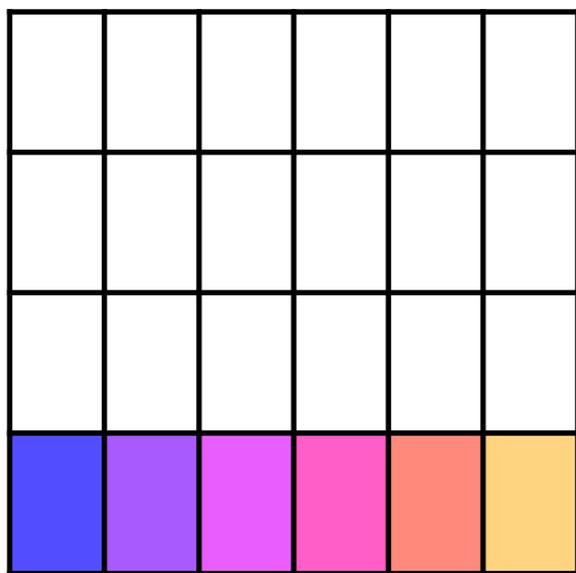
Output

Matrices

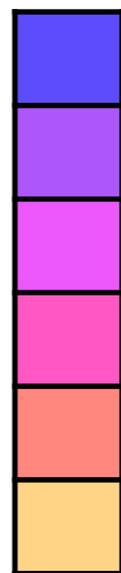
Multiplying a matrix by a vector
6 dimensions \mapsto 4 dimensions

6 columns

4 rows



*



Input

=



Output

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} .

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

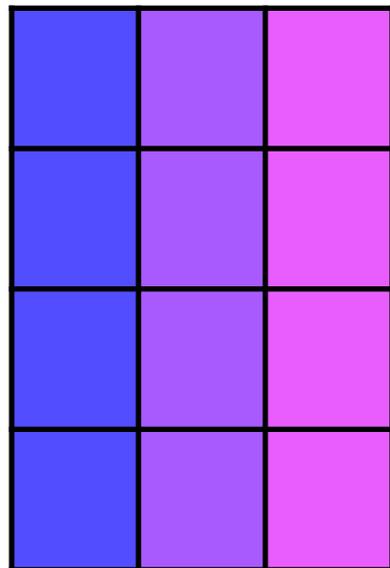
what does this imply?

The output is a linear combination of the columns

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

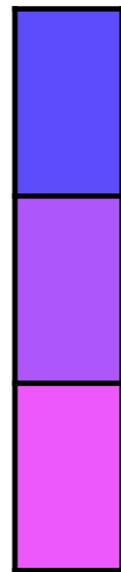
The dimension of the output sub-space is smaller or equal to the number of columns

3 columns



4 rows

*



Input

=



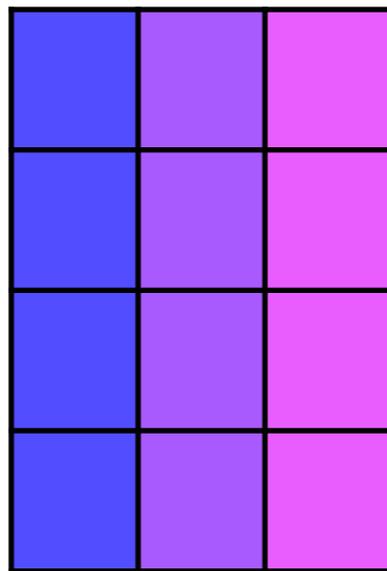
Output

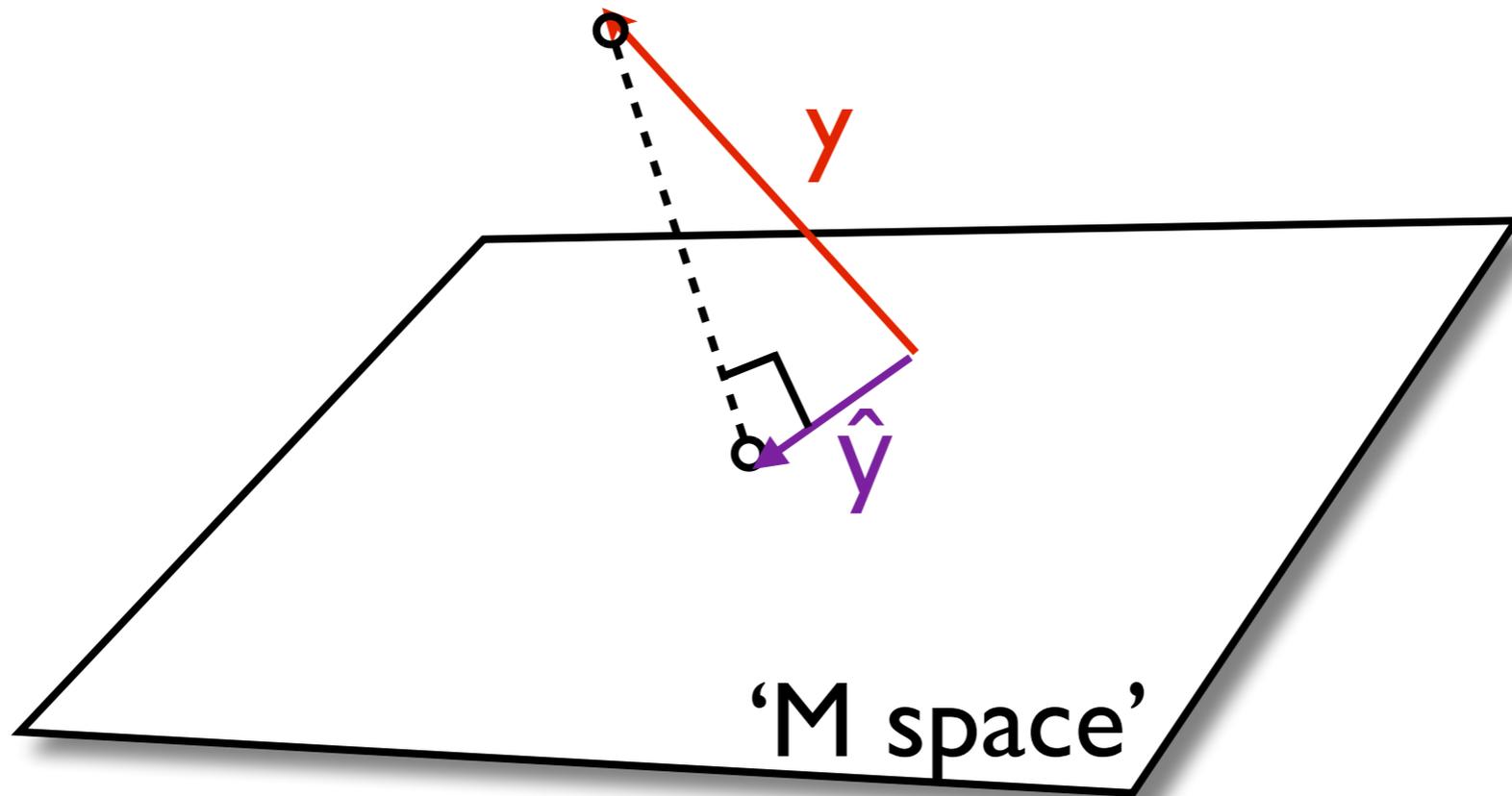
rank

The rank of a matrix is the number of independent columns

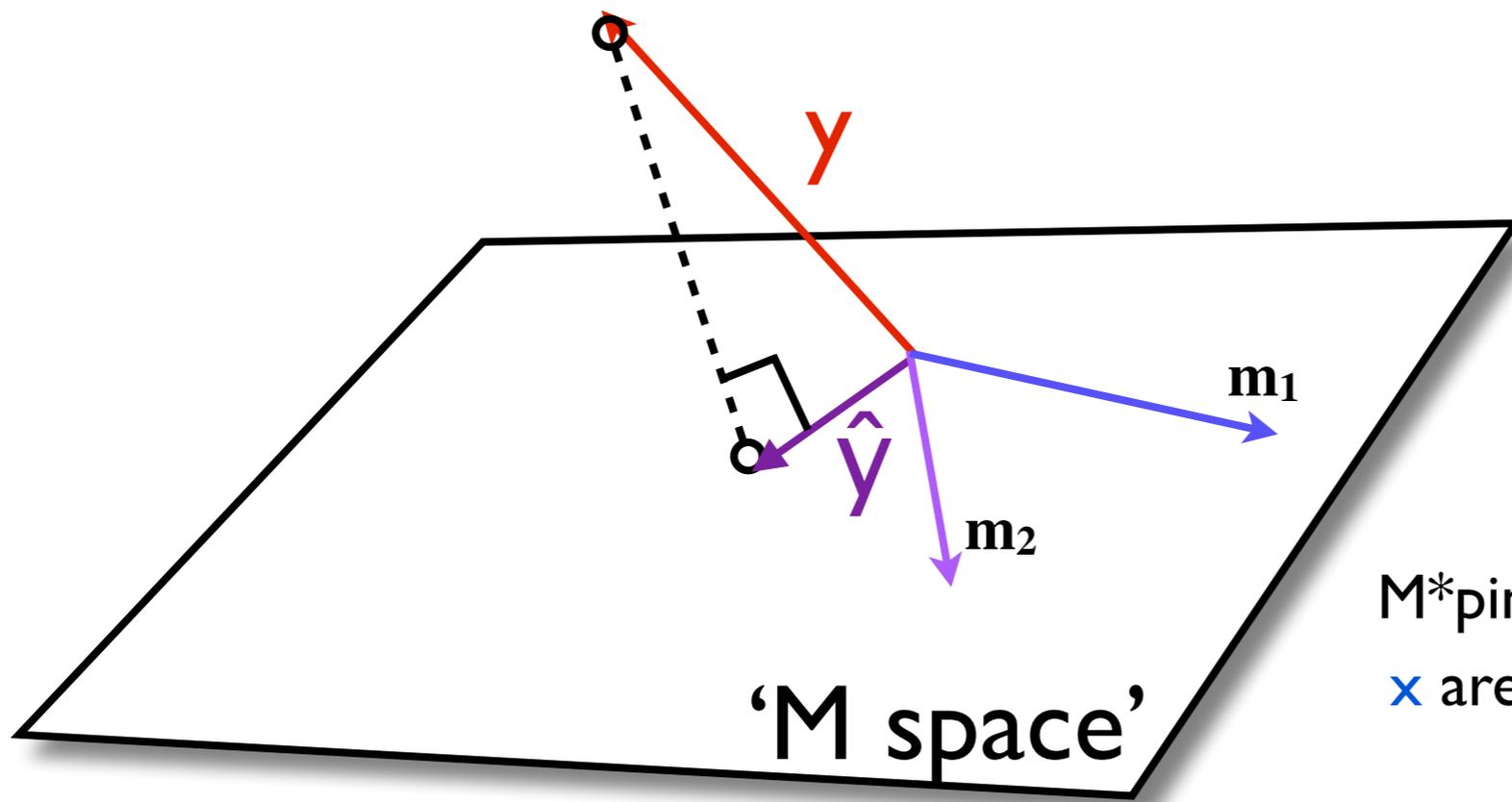
Full rank means equal to the maximum possible

Otherwise it is said to be rank deficient





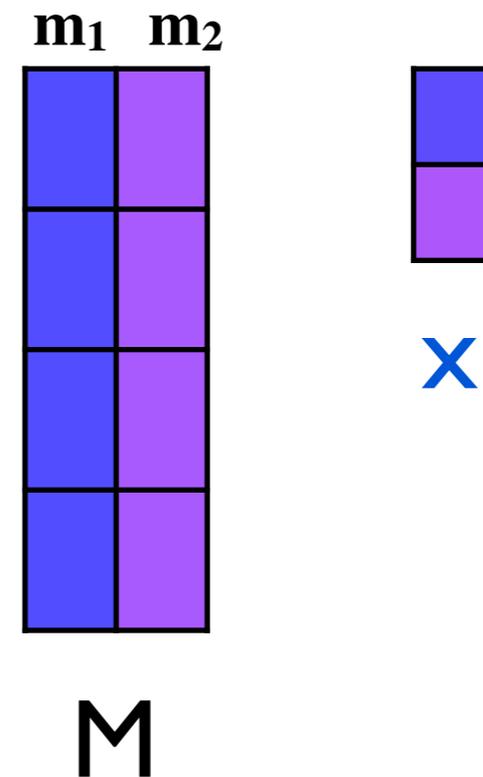
$M^*pinv(M)$ is the projector on the 'M space'
 x are the coordinates of \hat{y} in the 'M space'

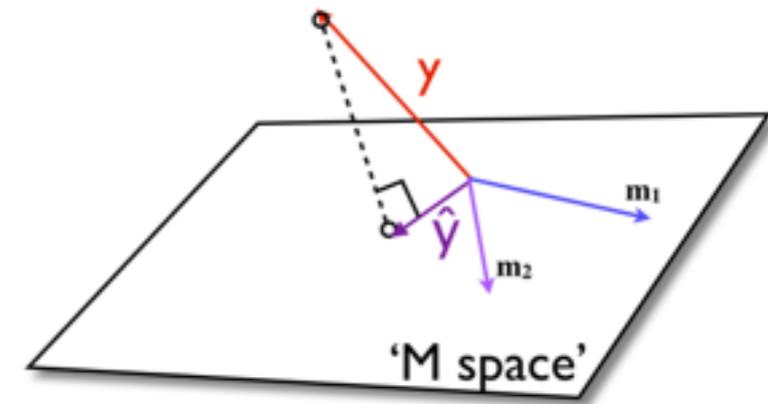


$M \cdot \text{pinv}(M)$ is the projector on the 'M space'
 x are the coordinates of \hat{y} in the 'M space'

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

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





- 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

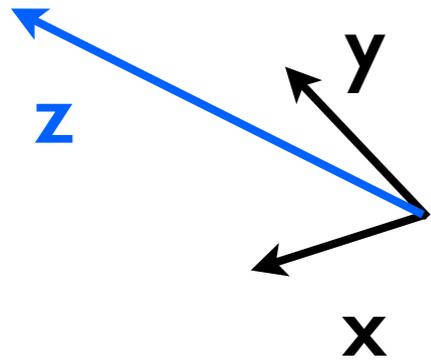
coefficients of the linear combination

The diagram illustrates the matrix equation $y = Mx$ with numerical values. The output vector y is shown as a column vector with values 0.4613, 0.8502, -0.3777, 0.5587, 0.3956, and -0.0923. The matrix M is a 6x2 matrix with values 1.0000, 0.5377, 1.0000, 1.8339, 1.0000, -2.2588, 1.0000, 0.8622, 1.0000, 0.3188, 1.0000, and -1.3077. The input vector x is a column vector with values 0.3 and 0.3. Arrows indicate the flow of information: one arrow points from the x vector to the M matrix, and another arrow points from the M matrix to the y vector.

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

y M x

Special vectors

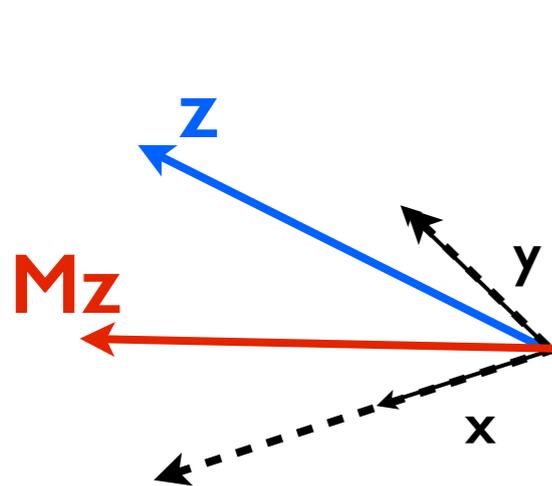


$$z = x + 2y$$
$$M_z = M_x + 2M_y$$

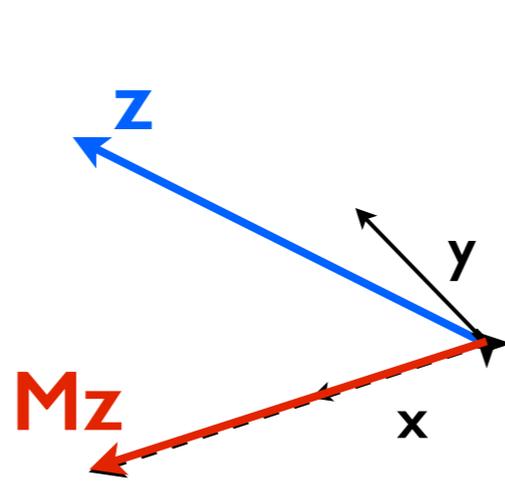
If x and y are such that:

$$M_x = ax$$
$$M_y = by$$

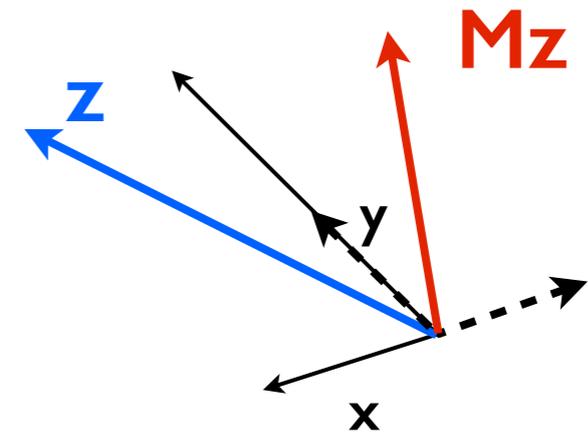
Then: $M_z = ax + 2by$



$a=2, b=1$



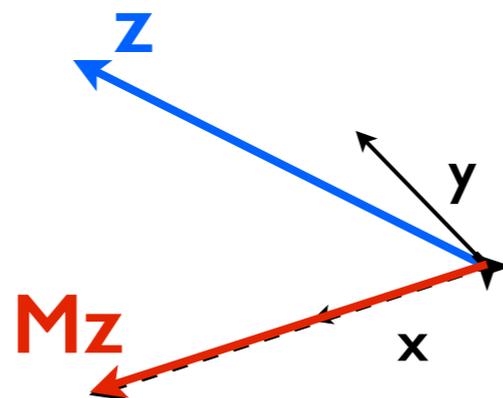
$a=2, b=0$



$a=-1, b=2$

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

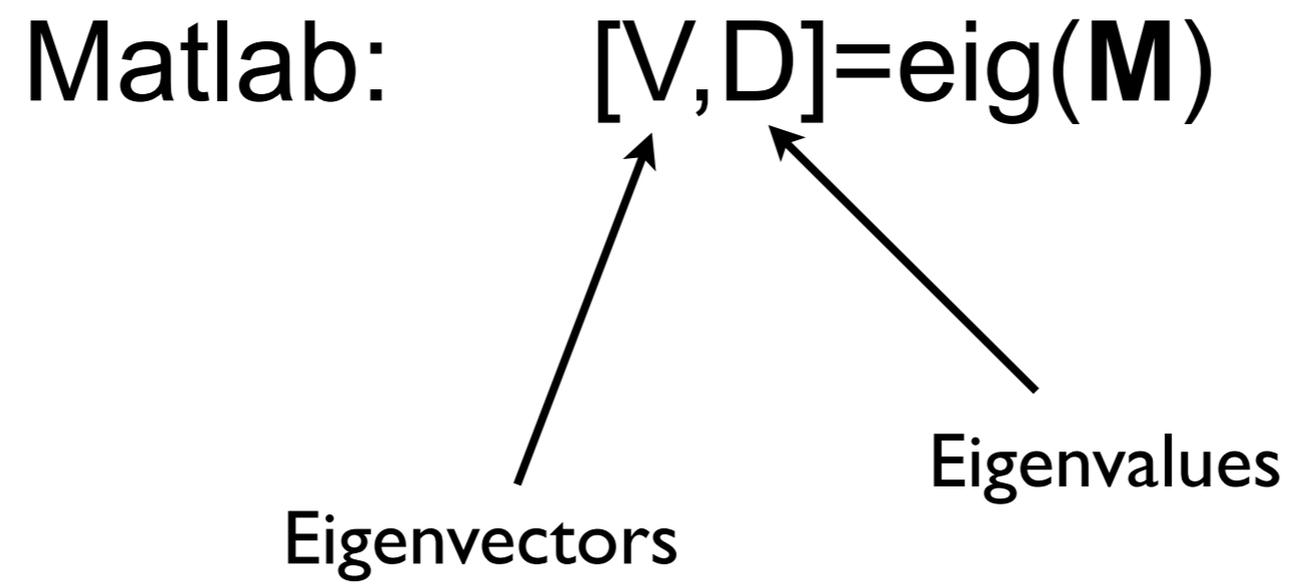
$$Mx = \lambda x$$

Eigenvalue

Special vectors

- $Mx = \lambda x$ This means M is a square matrix

How do we find x ?



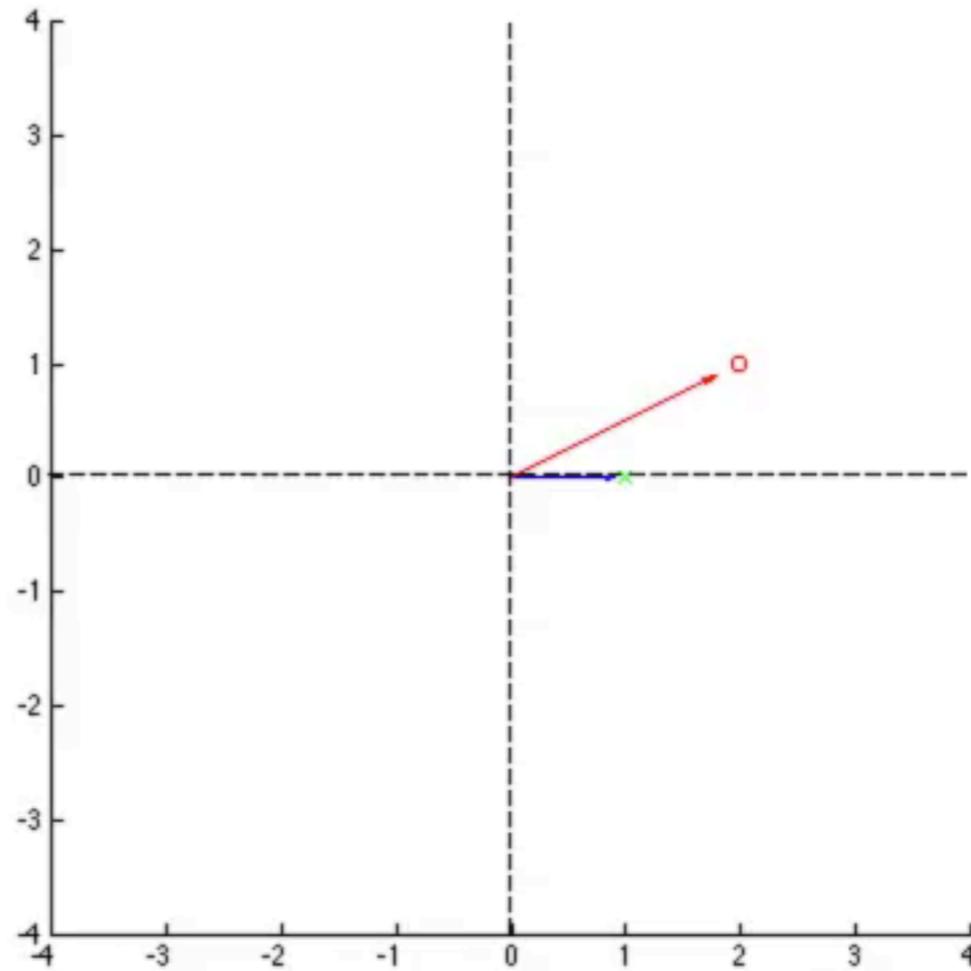
Examples in 2D

Positive definite matrix

$$\left(M = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2$$



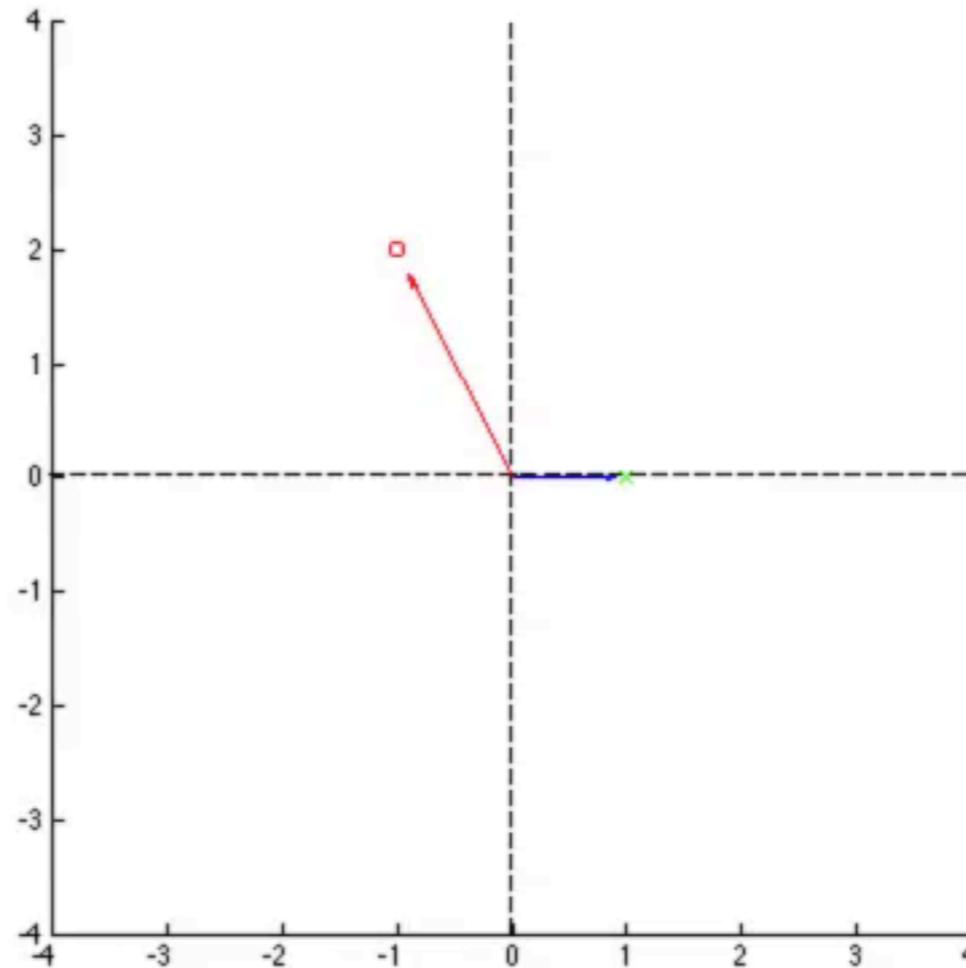
Examples in 2D

Negative eigenvalue

$$\left(M = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

$$\lambda_1 = -1.4495$$

$$\lambda_2 = 3.4495$$



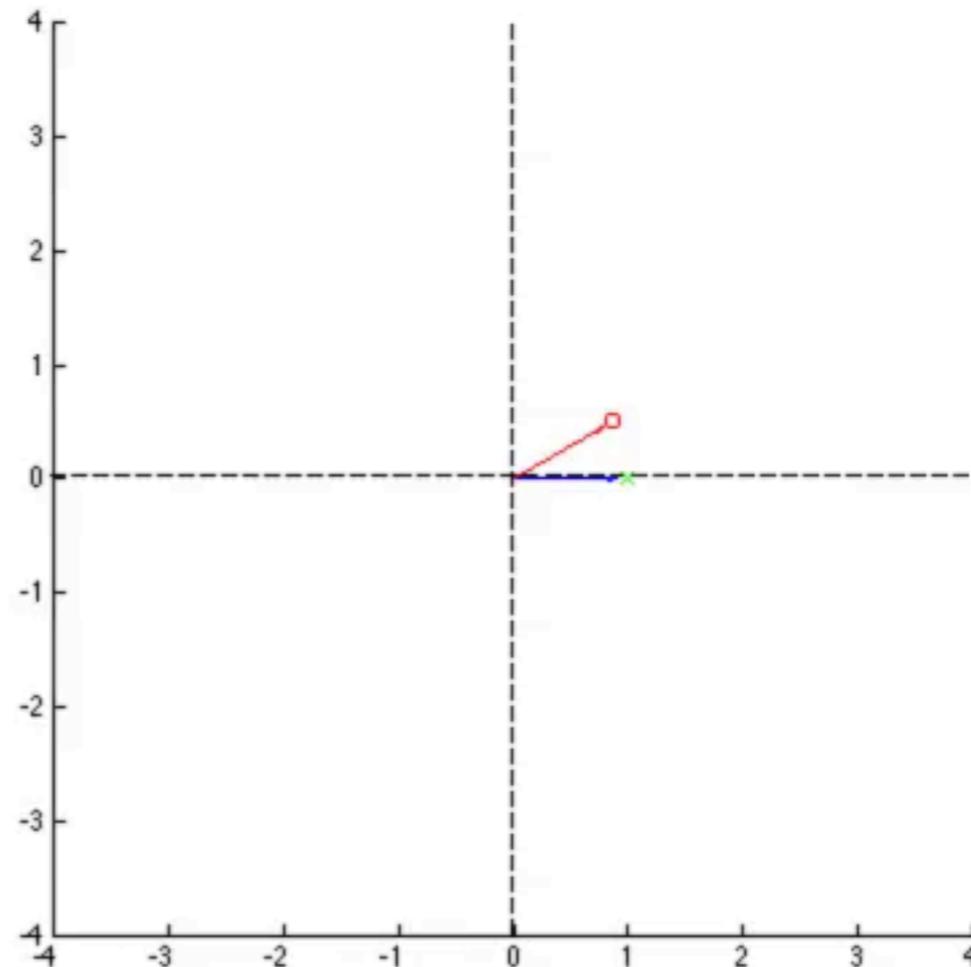
Examples in 2D

Rotation matrix

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

$$\lambda_1 = ???$$

$$\lambda_2 = ???$$



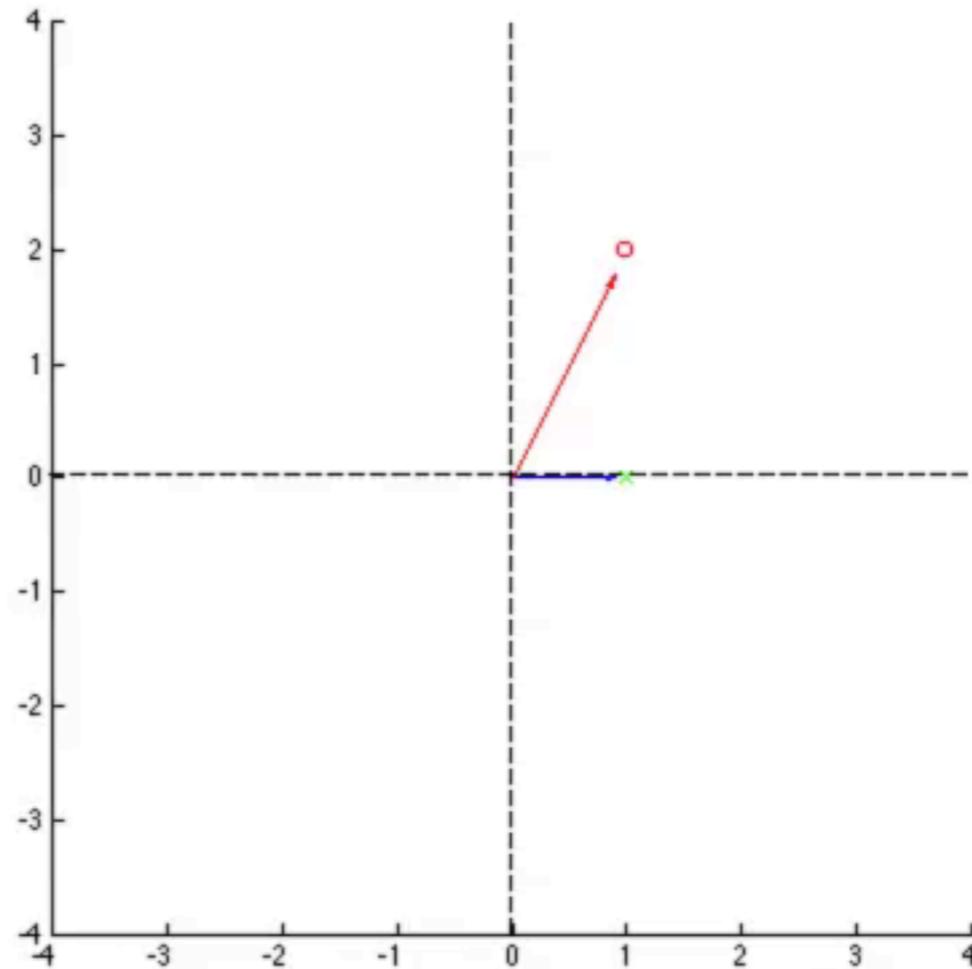
Examples in 2D

Rank deficient matrix

$$\left(M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0$$

$$\lambda_2 = 5$$



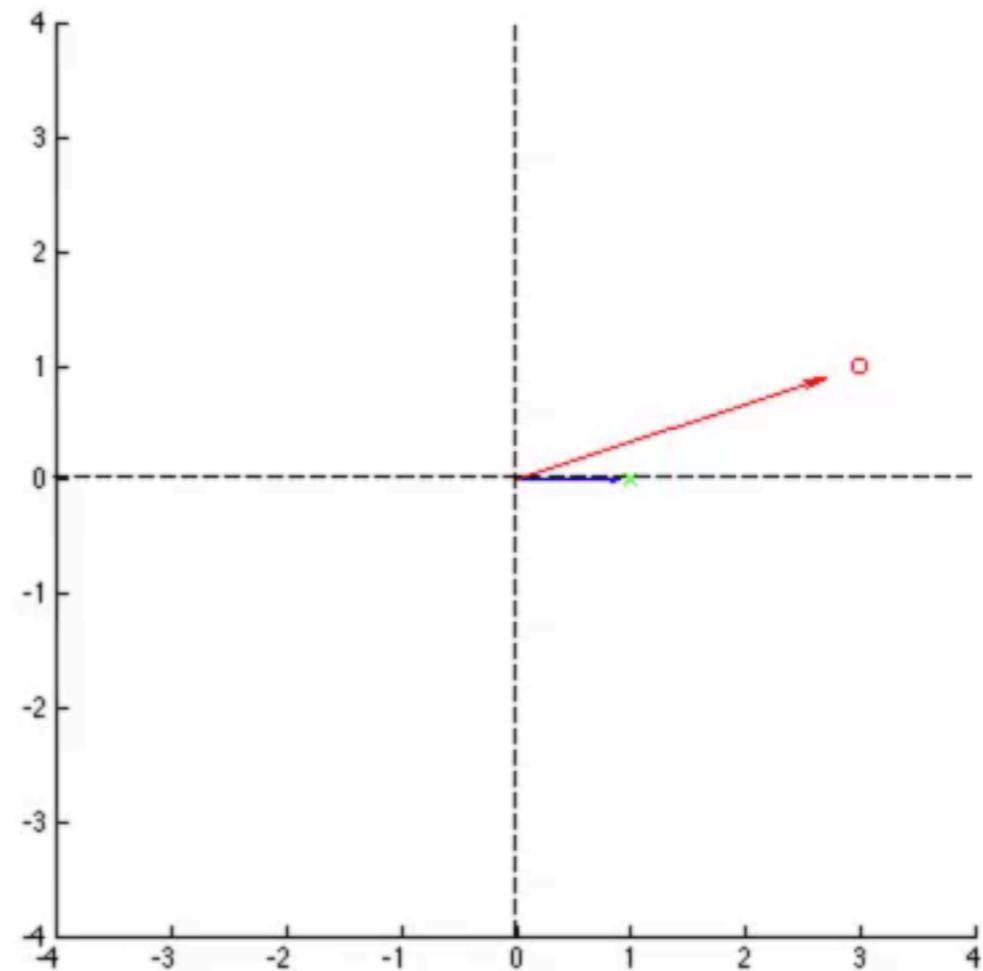
Examples in 2D

Symmetric matrix

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

$$\lambda_1 = 2$$

$$\lambda_2 = 4$$



Symmetric matrices

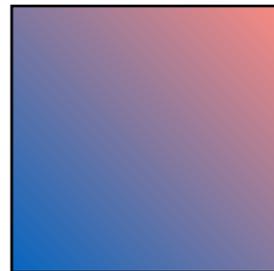
examples

Covariance matrix
Correlation matrix

MM^T and $M^T M$ for any rectangular matrix M



M



M^T

Why is this interesting?

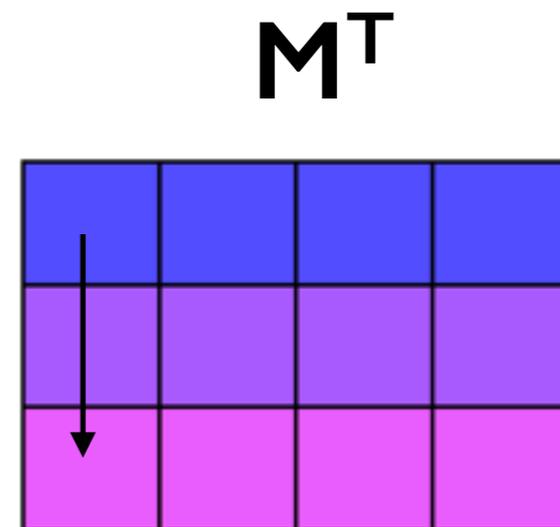
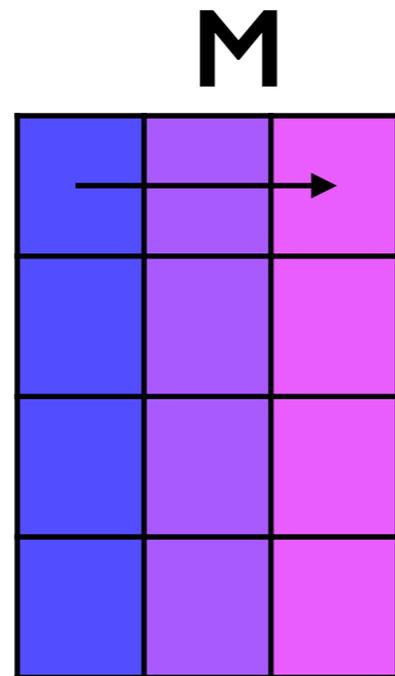
- We can generalise eigenvectors/values to rectangular matrices (by looking at $\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M}$ or $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T$)

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

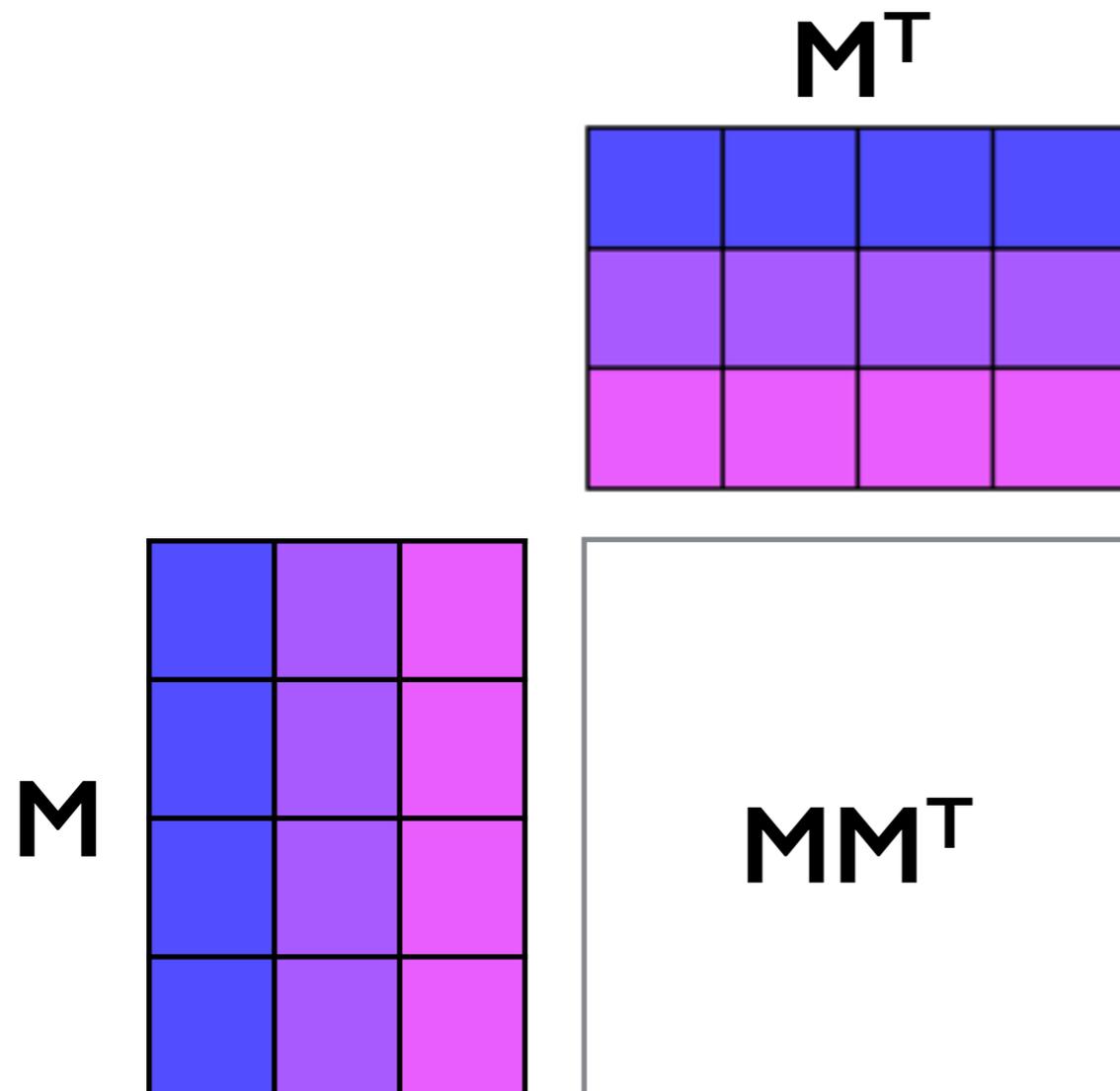
- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{M}) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{M}^T) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^T) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{M})$

Approximate the rank

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

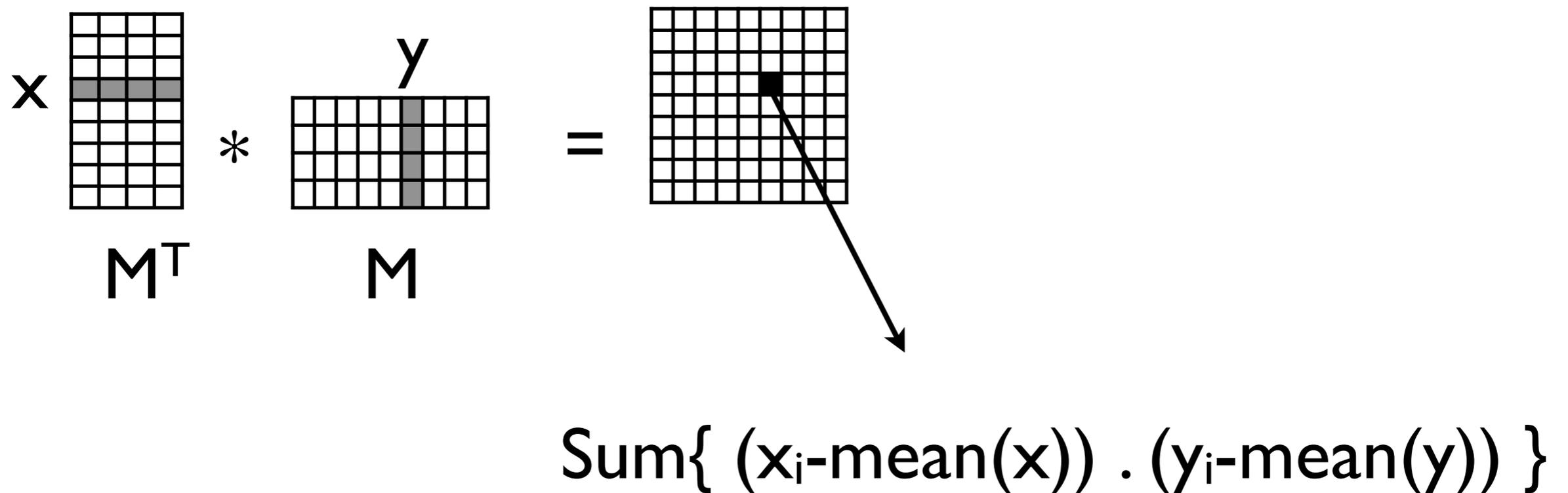
Let's say I find them to be 1.5, 2.0, 0.0001, 0

Then the approximate rank of M is 2



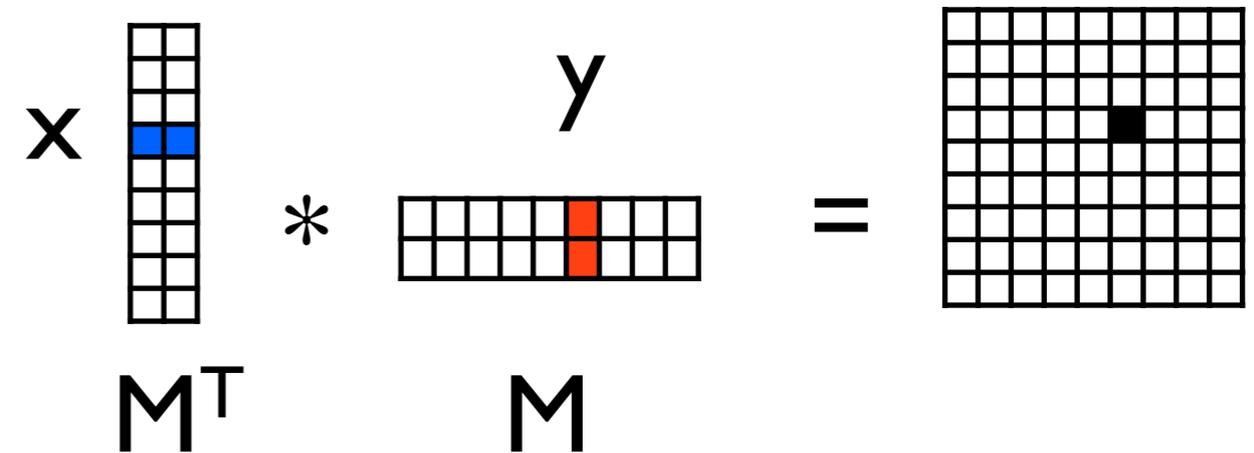
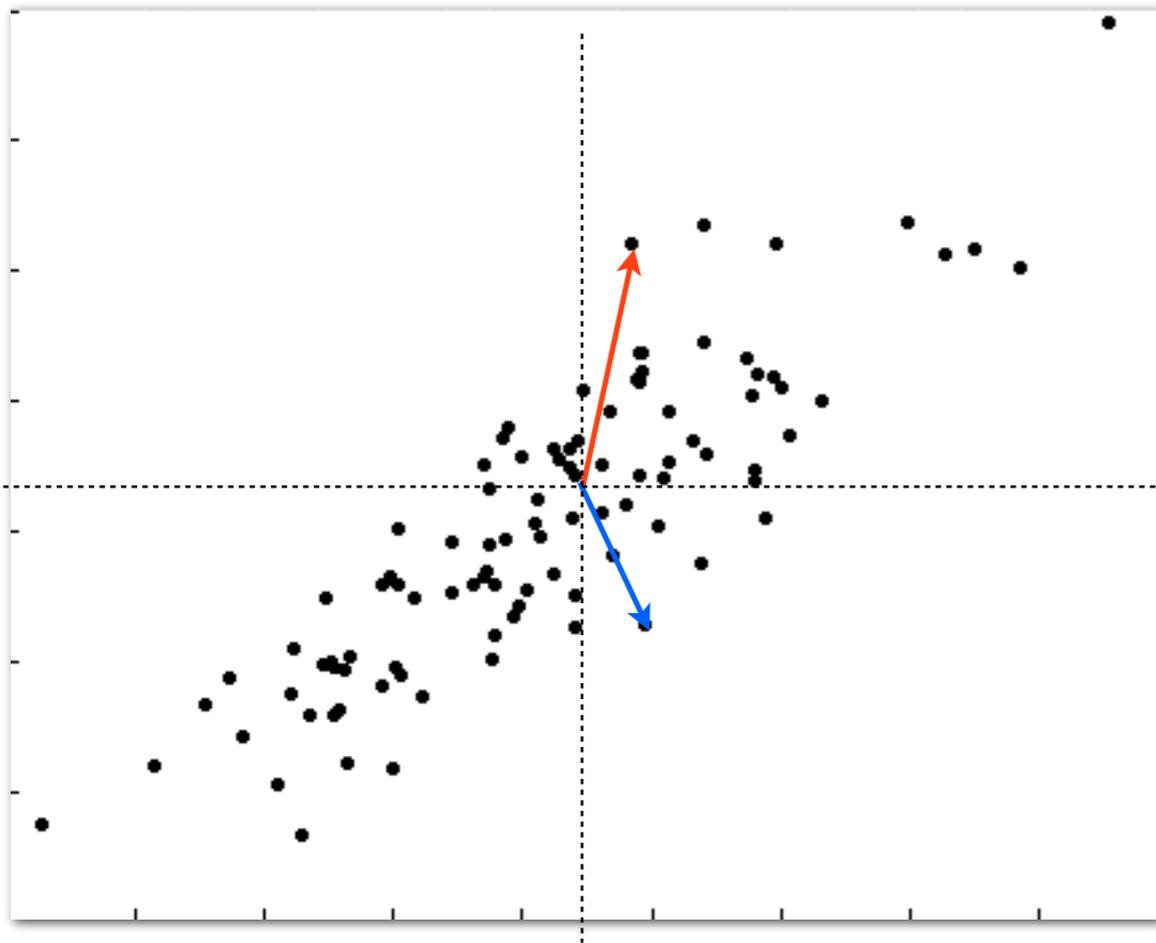
Approximate a matrix

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

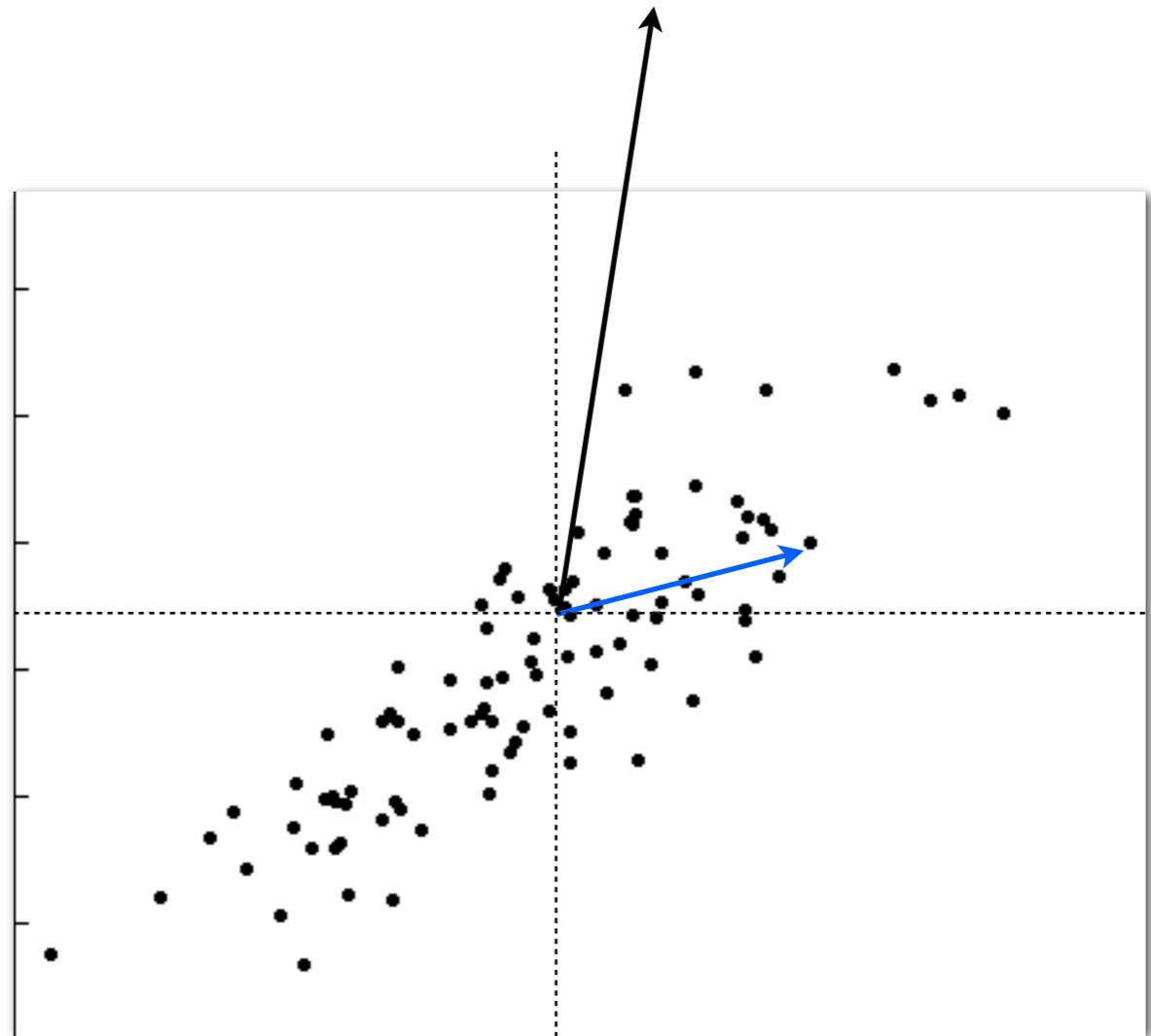
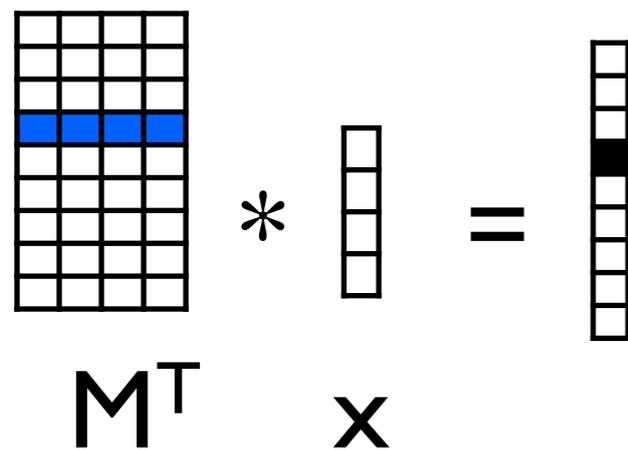


data

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



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

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

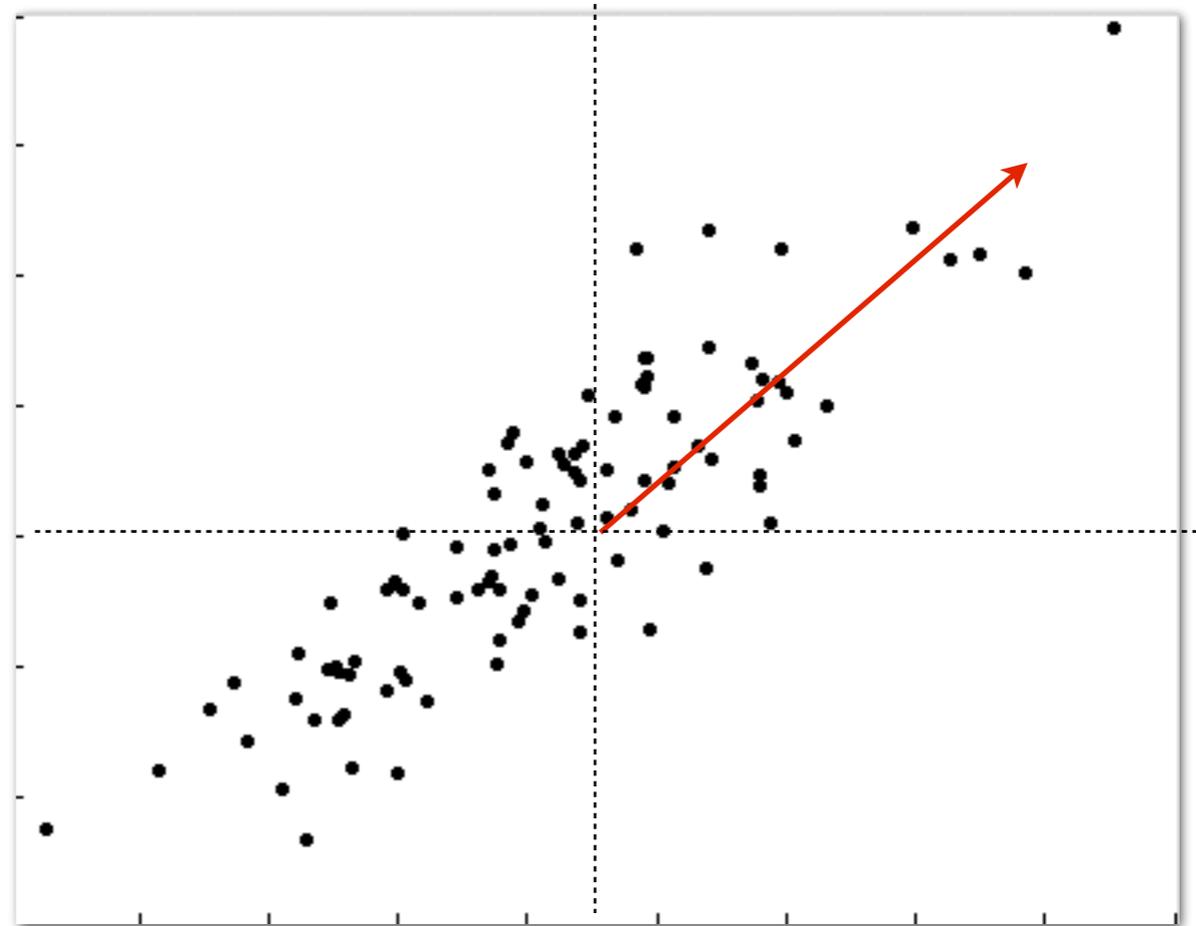
max

max

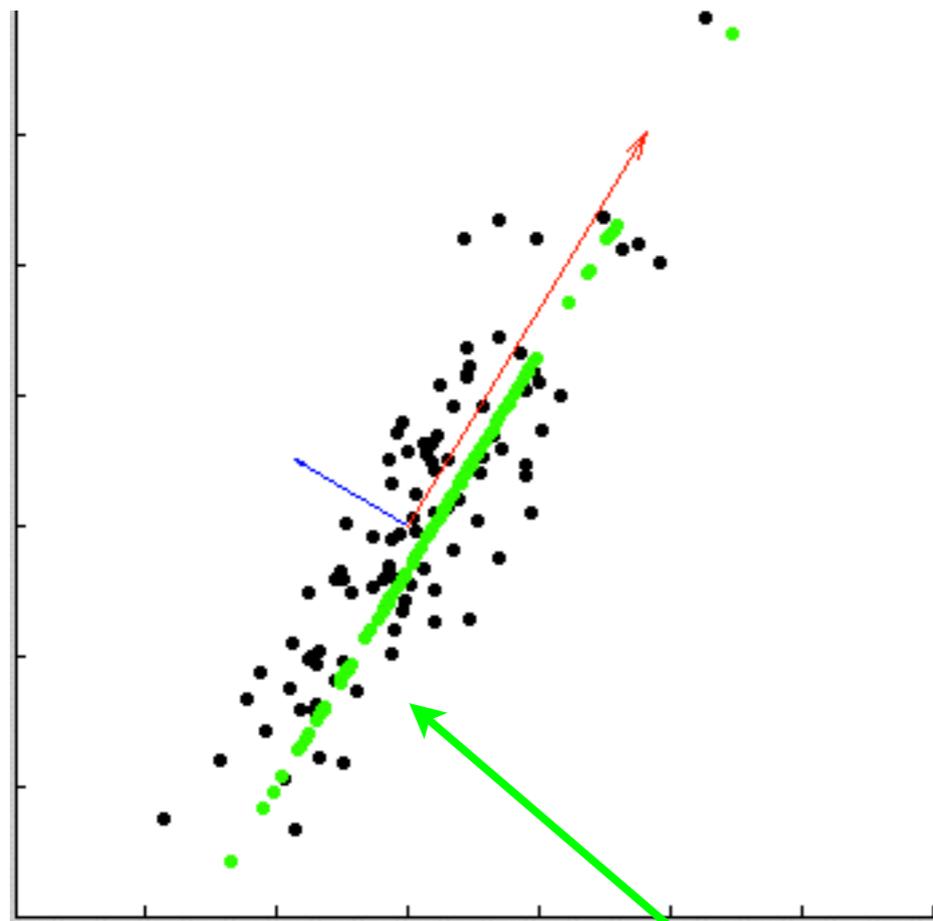
$\mathbf{M} \mathbf{M}^T$ is symmetric! Max is along first eigenvector!

“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 = $M\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^T$

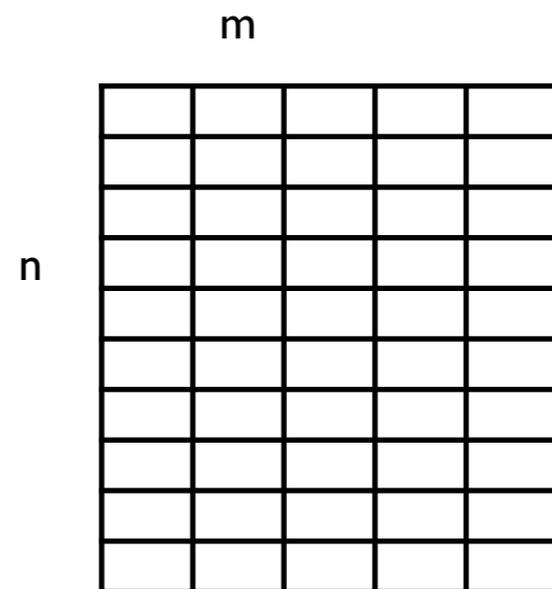
Data projected onto first principal component

Principal component analysis

Identifying directions of large variance in data

- . dimensionality reduction
- . denoising
- . finding patterns

data →



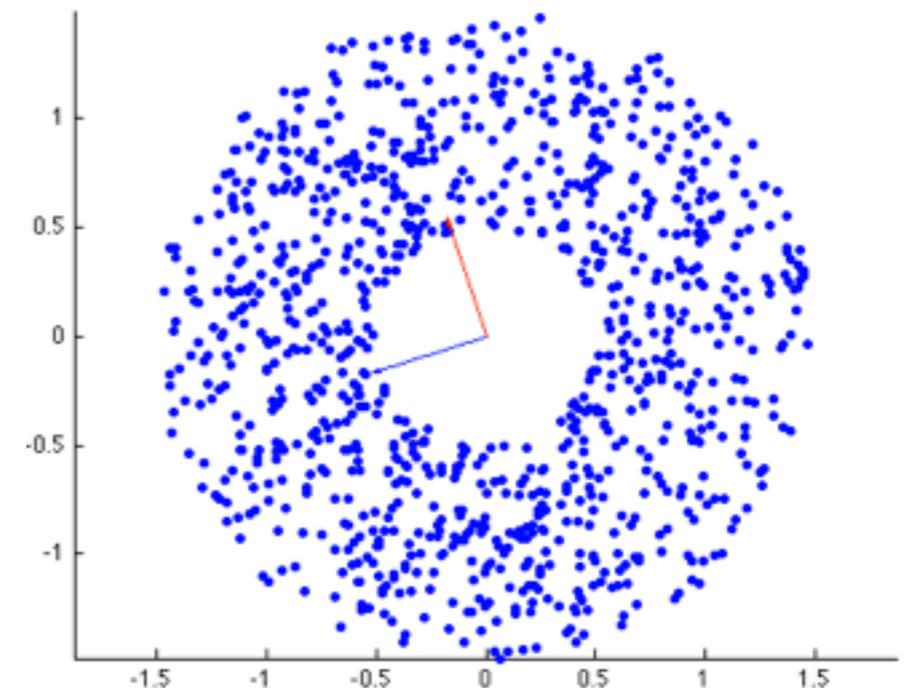
Assumptions in PCA

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

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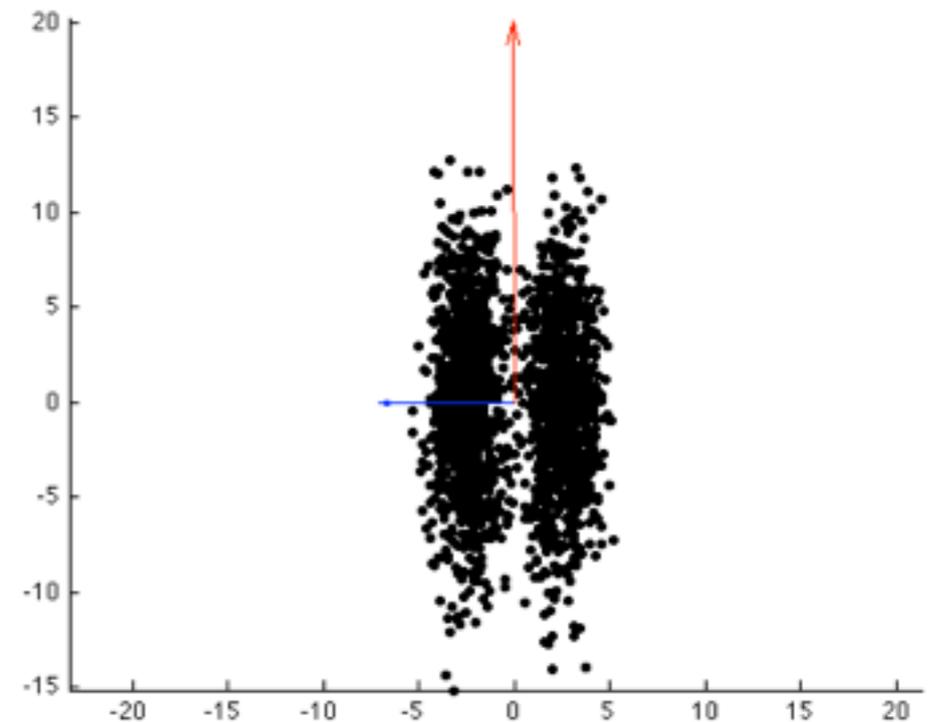
Alternatives:
Kernel PCA, MDS, Laplacian
eigenmaps, etc.



Assumptions in PCA

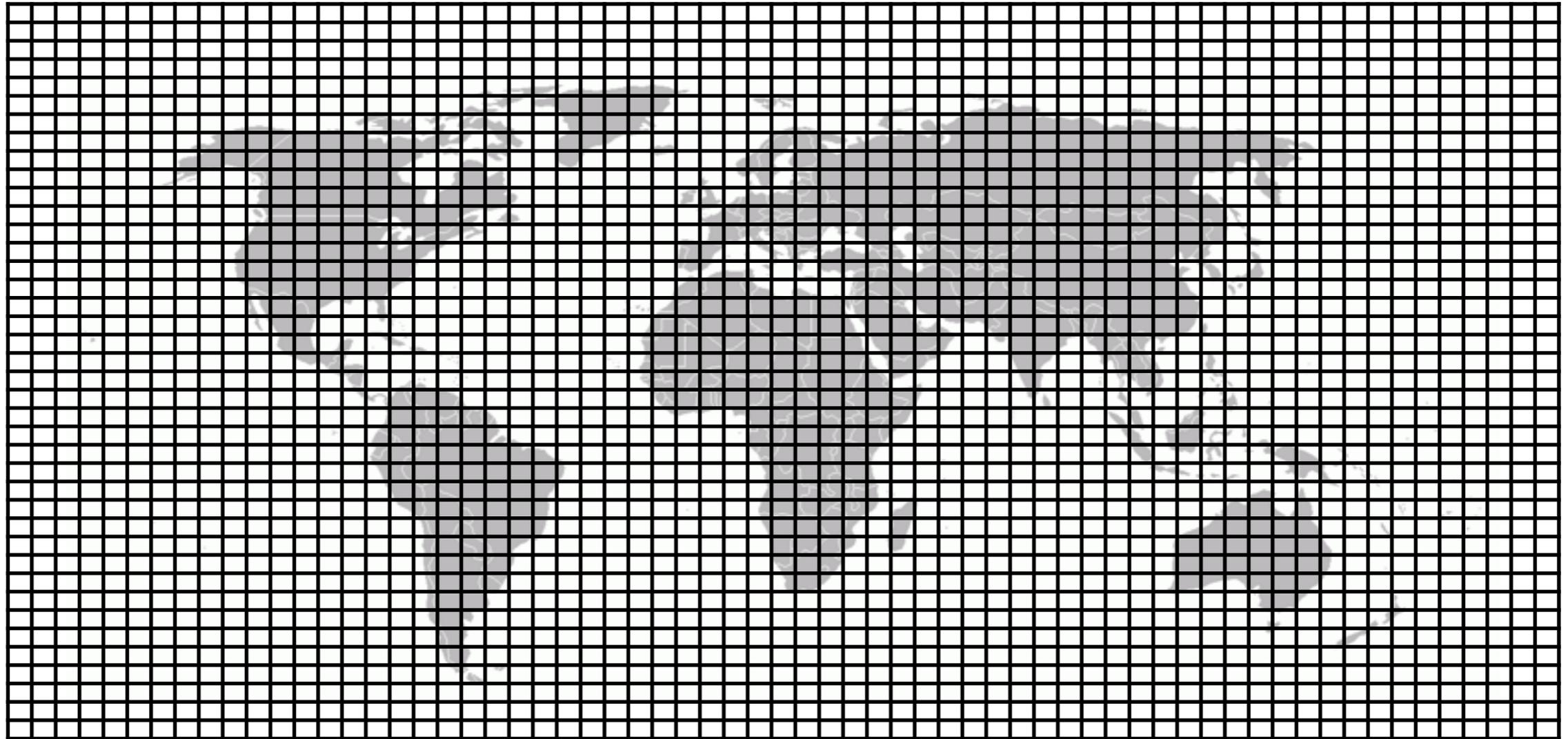
- The data is a linear combination of “interesting” components
- Variance is a good (sufficient?) feature
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(Alternative: LDA)



Example

PCA of the world

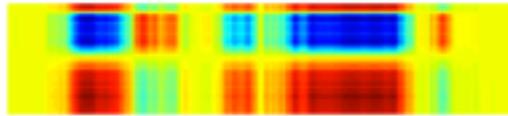


Example

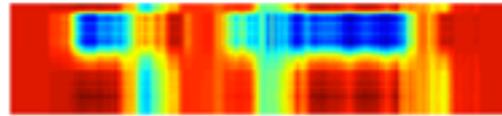
PCA of the world

1 (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 Linear Model**
Fitting the General Linear 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.