

Multivariate Statistics in Ecology and Quantitative Genetics

Principal component analysis

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http://evol.bio.lmu.de/_statgen

May 21 2010

1 Principal component analysis

- Motivation
- Background on rotation matrices
- Example: Weight and height
- Example: Countries
- Background: PCA
- Biplots
- How many components?
- Example: European currency union
- Correlation versus covariance
- Summary

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in order to identify patterns.

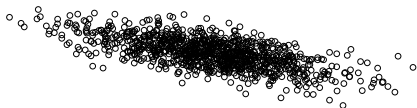
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How do we visualize
multi-dimensional data???

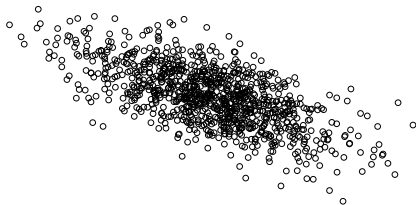
Example: 2-dim data in 3 dimensions
(Imagine the cloud to be rotated in 3 dimensions)



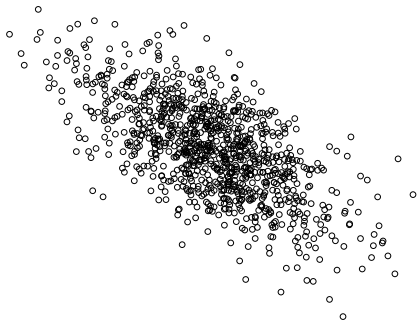
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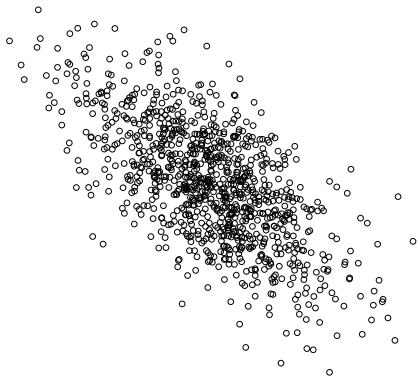
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To have a good view on the data,
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which contribute most of the variation.

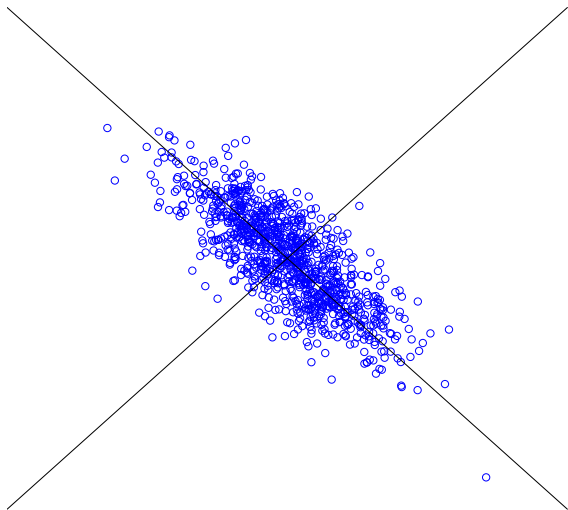
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The component with the most variation
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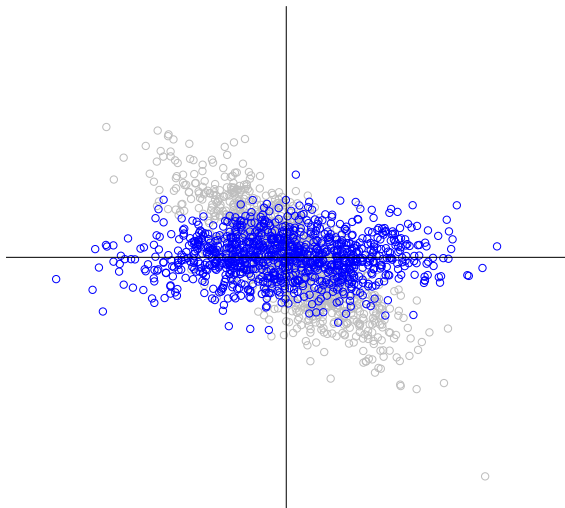
To have a good view on the data,
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which contribute most of the variation.

The component with the most variation
is rotated onto the x-axis,
the component with the second most variation
is rotated onto the y-axis.

Example: 2-dim data



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The **principal component analysis** finds the components with the most contribution to the total variance.

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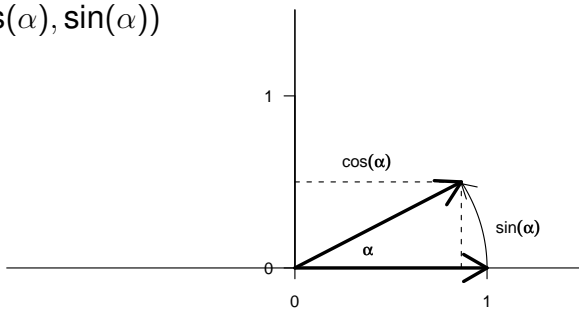
Before we investigate how to obtain the optimal transformation, we need to understand how to rotate a data cloud.

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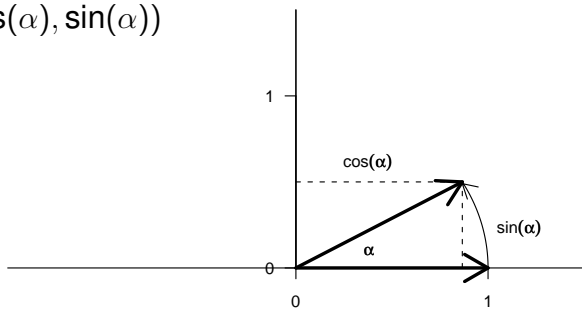
Rotation by angle α .

$$(1, 0) \rightarrow (\cos(\alpha), \sin(\alpha))$$

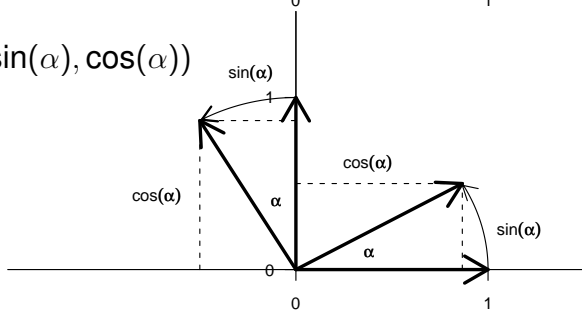


Rotation by angle α .

$$(1, 0) \rightarrow (\cos(\alpha), \sin(\alpha))$$



$$(0, 1) \rightarrow (-\sin(\alpha), \cos(\alpha))$$



Rotation by angle α of a vector (x, y) :

$$(x, y) \rightarrow (x, y) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\alpha) & \sin(\alpha) \\ -\sin(\alpha) & \cos(\alpha) \end{pmatrix}$$

Every rotation matrix R has the property $R^T \cdot R = \mathbb{1}$.

Example

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\alpha) & -\sin(\alpha) \\ \sin(\alpha) & \cos(\alpha) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\alpha) & \sin(\alpha) \\ -\sin(\alpha) & \cos(\alpha) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \sin^2(\alpha) + \cos^2(\alpha) & 0 \\ 0 & \sin^2(\alpha) + \cos^2(\alpha) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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From now on we consider matrices U with the property

$$U^T \cdot U = \mathbb{1}$$

These matrices are called **orthogonal** (also called orthonormal) and preserve distances. Such transformations are mixtures of rotations and reflections.

A didactic Example

Before we go into applications,
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We simulate a data cloud from a
multi-variate normal distribution with covariance matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

that is, the two components are independent
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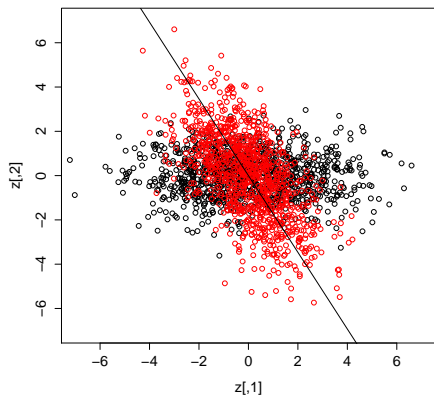
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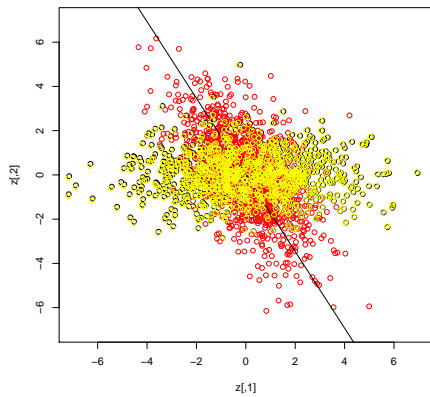
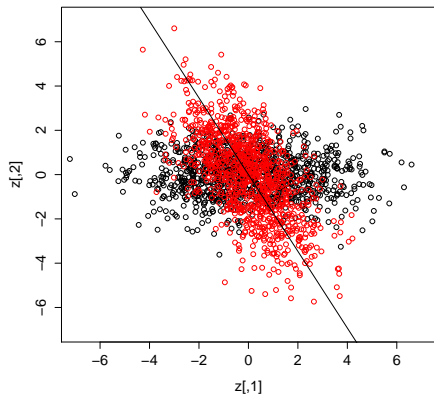
$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

that is, the two components are independent
and normally distributed with variances 5 and 1, respectively.

We rotate the cloud by -60°
and apply the R-command `prcomp()`.

```
> library("mvtnorm")
> z <- rmvnorm(1000,sigma=matrix(c(5,0,0,1),nrow=2))
> RotMat <- matrix(c(cos(pi/3),sin(pi/3),
+                   -sin(pi/3),cos(pi/3)),nrow=2)
> x <- z %*% RotMat
> plot(z,xlim=c(-7,7),ylim=c(-7,7))
> points(x,col="red")
> abline(b=tan(-pi/3),a=0)
> pca <- prcomp(x)
> points(pca$x,col="yellow")
```





Further observations:

```
> names(pca)
[1] "sdev"      "rotation"  "center"    "scale"     "x"
> pca
Standard deviations:
[1] 2.232067 1.008979

Rotation:
PC1      PC2
[1,]  0.5027292 0.8644439
[2,] -0.8644439 0.5027292

> ( pca$sdev )^2
[1] 4.982122 1.018038
```

```
> RotMat %*% pca$rotation
              PC1          PC2
[1,] 0.999995025 -0.003154303
[2,] 0.003154303  0.999995025
> t( pca$rotation ) %*% pca$rotation
      PC1 PC2
PC1   1   0
PC2   0   1
> cov(z)
      [,1]      [,2]
[1,] 4.98180617 0.01204928
[2,] 0.01204928 1.01732926
> t( pca$rotation ) %*% cov(x) %*% pca$rotation
              PC1          PC2
PC1  4.9818427419 -0.0004560566
PC2 -0.0004560566  1.0172926950
```

The vector `pca$sdev` is approx. $(\sqrt{5}, \sqrt{1})$

The matrix `pca$rotation` is the transformation matrix

The matrix `pca$x` is the transformed data

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Obviously the height (in cm) and the shoe size of human beings are correlated variables. We also consider the weight (in kg). The following data is from a test questionnaire from a statistics course in 1999/2000 in Göttingen.

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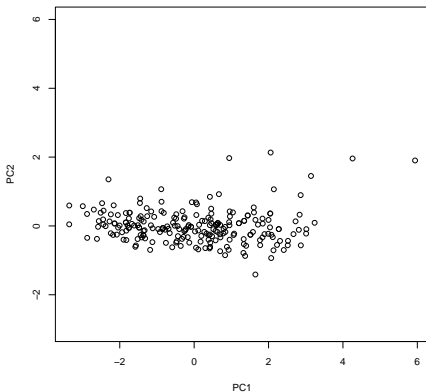
This leads to considering **correlation matrices** instead of covariance matrices.

In R simply use the option `scale=TRUE`.

```
shsw <- read.table("HeightShoeWeight.txt", header=TRUE)
attach(shsw)
head(shsw)
hsw <- shsw[,2:4]
head(hsw)
hsw.pca <- prcomp(hsw, scale=TRUE)
hsw.pca
fm.col <- character()
fm.col[sex==0] <- "blue"
fm.col[sex==1] <- "red"
sqrt( length(sex)-1 )      # = 15
```

Let us plot the transformed data.

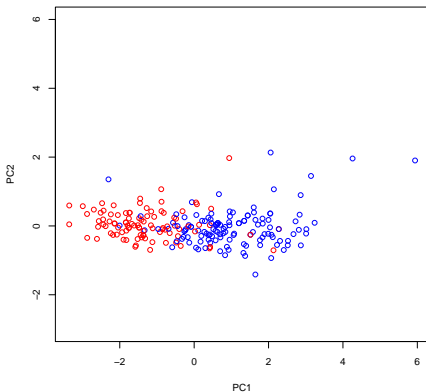
```
plot(hsw.pca$x,ylim=c(-3,6))
```



There is nothing special to see.

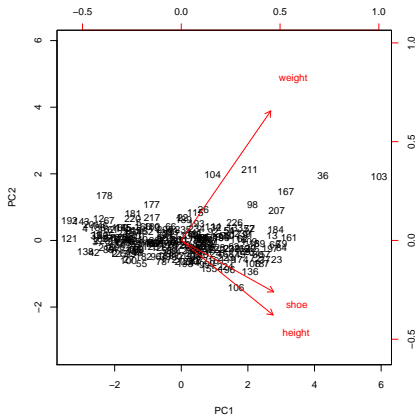
Which observation is from which sex:

```
plot(hsw.pca$x,ylim=c(-3,6),col=fm.col)
```

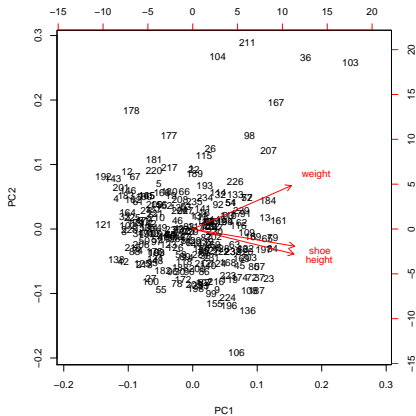


Why are guys on the right and girls on the left?

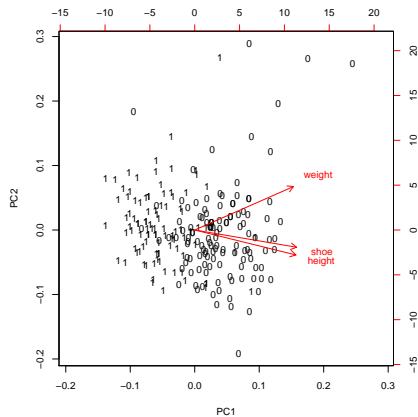

```
biplot(hsw.pca, scale=0)
```



```
biplot(hsw.pca, scale=1)
```



```
biplot(hsw.pca,scale=1,xlabs=sex)
```



The first component can be interpreted as size.
As guys are on average taller than girls, this explains
why guys are on the right and girls on the left.

The first component can be interpreted as size. As guys are on average taller than girls, this explains why guys are on the right and girls on the left.

The second component is „weight which is not explained by the first component 'size' “. Thus students with overweight are on top of the last figure whereas students with underweight are on the bottom of the last figure.

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The file Countries.txt contains data from
Kockluner: Angewandte Regessionsanalyse mit SPSS, Vieweg
1988, S. 7:

Variables:

ERN: nutrition index (Ernährungsindex)

BSP: gross national product per person
(Bruttosozialprodukt pro Kopf)

LWS: agriculture index (Landwirtschaftsindex)

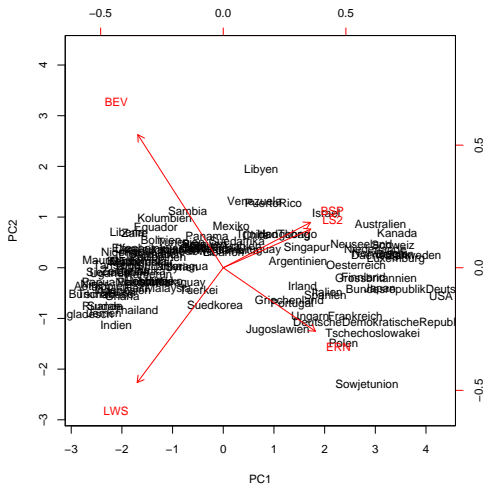
LS2: cost of living index (Lebenshaltungsindex 2)

BEV: index of inhabitants (Bevölkerungsindex)

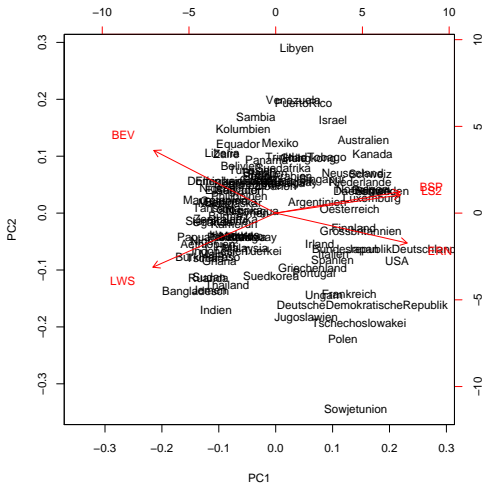
```

countries <- read.table("Countries.txt",header=TRUE)
cntr.pca <- prcomp(countries,scale=TRUE); cntr.pca
plot(cntr.pca$x)
biplot(cntr.pca,scale=0)

```




```
biplot(cntr.pca,scale=1)
```



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The mathematical background is explained on the board.

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Reading biplots

Distance biplot (scale=0)

- Angles between lines are meaningless.
- The lines are projections of length 1 vectors into the plane of the first two principal components. So the length indicates how well the corresponding variable is represented by the first two components.
- Distances between points/labels approximate distances of the observations for different objects.
- The projection of a point onto a vector at right angle approximates the position of the corresponding object along the corresponding variable.

Correlation biplot (scale=1)

- The cosine of the angle between two lines is approximately equal to the correlation between the corresponding variables.
- If the PCA used `scale=FALSE`, then the length of a line is approximately $\sqrt{N-1}$ times the estimated standard deviation of the corresponding variable. If the PCA used `scale=TRUE`, then the lines are projections of length $\sqrt{N-1}$ vectors into the plane of the first two principal components. So the length indicates how well the corresponding variable is represented by the first two components.
- Distances between points/labels are meaningless.
- The projection of a point onto a vector at right angle approximates the position of the corresponding object along the corresponding variable.

Due to the projection, the approximation of quantities such as distance between points or correlation between variables can be poor.

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In applications the first two components typically explain far less than 70% of the total variation. PCA is still used as there is not better method. But be careful and think twice.

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One problem with PCA is to decide how many components to present, and there are various rules of thumb.

- 80%-rule: Present the first k axes that explain 80% of the total variation.

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- elbow-rule: Plot the eigenvalues as vertical lines or bars next to each other. Use k axes if the 'elbow' is at $k + 1$.

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- elbow-rule: Plot the eigenvalues as vertical lines or bars next to each other. Use k axes if the 'elbow' is at $k + 1$.
- broken-stick-rule: If a stick of unit length is broken at random in p pieces, then the expected length of piece number j is given by

$$L_j = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=j}^p \frac{1}{i} \quad (1)$$

If the eigenvalue of the j -th axis is larger than L_j , then it can be considered as important.

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If the eigenvalue of the j -th axis is larger than L_j , then it can be considered as important.

The broken-stick-model is the most reliable rule of thumb.

Example: Height and weight data.

```
> gsg.pca$sdev^2/sum( (gsg.pca$sdev)^2 )  
[1] 0.86984879 0.08035589 0.04979531  
> cumsum( gsg.pca$sdev^2/sum( (gsg.pca$sdev)^2 ) )  
[1] 0.8698488 0.9502047 1.0000000  
> screeplot( gsg.pca, type="lines")
```

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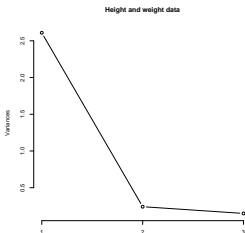
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80%-rule: one component is enough

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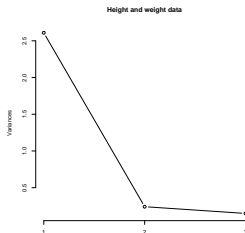
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80%-rule: one component is enough



elbow-rule: one component is enough

```
> gsg.pca$sdev^2/sum( (gsg.pca$sdev)^2 )
[1] 0.86984879 0.08035589 0.04979531
> p<-length(gsg.pca$sdev)
> L<-matrix(ncol=p)
> for (i in 1:p) {
+ L[i]<-round(1/p*sum(1/seq(from=i, to=p)),2)
+ }
> L
      [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 0.61 0.28 0.11
```

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+ }
> L
      [,1] [,2] [,3]
[1,] 0.61 0.28 0.11
```

broken-stick-rule: one component is enough
($0.87 \geq 0.61$, $0.08 < 0.28$, $0.05 < 0.11$)

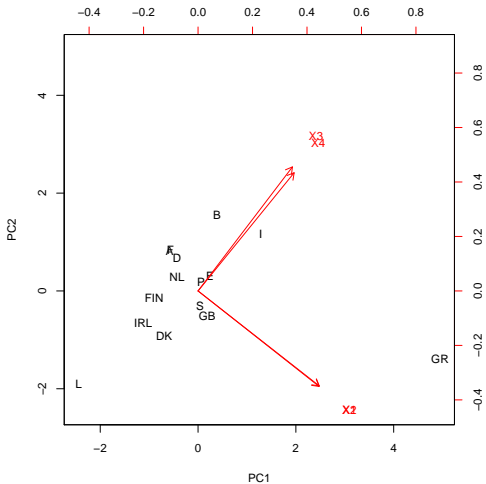
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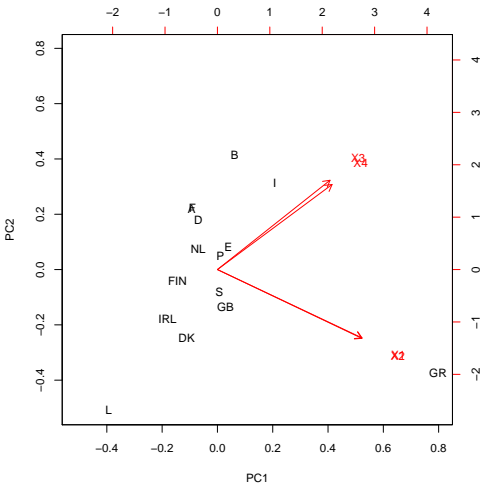
The file 'EWU.txt' contains data of European countries. (From Rinne (2000,p21.)). Let's find out.

```
ewu <- read.table("EWU.txt",header=TRUE)
ewu1 <- ewu[,2:5]
ewu.pca <- prcomp(ewu1)
biplot(ewu.pca,scale=0,xlabs=ewu$Staat)
biplot(ewu.pca,scale=1,xlabs=ewu$Staat)
```

Distance biplot (scale=0):



Correlation biplot (scale=1):



The variables X_1 and X_2 are highly positively correlated.
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Thus the data depends only on two variables
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Thus the data depends only on two variables
namely on $X_1(X_2)$ and on $X_3(X_4)$.

So what are X_1 , X_2 , X_3 and X_4 ?

- X_1 is the inflation rate 1997 in %
- X_2 is the long term interest rate 1997 in %
- X_3 is the new indebtedness 1997 in % of the GDP
- X_4 is the public debt level 1997 in % of the GDP

The fitness of candidates for the European currency union has
been measured with these four variables.

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In many cases the different variables are on different scales. Then you are recommended to scale the variables with their standard deviations, that is, to use the correlation matrix rather than the covariance matrix. Otherwise the first principal component might be dominated by the variable with the largest scale.

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For you this means to use the argument `scale=TRUE` in the `prcomp()` command.

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Otherwise the first principal component might be dominated by the variable with the largest scale.

For you this means to use the argument `scale=TRUE` in the `prcomp()` command.

If the values of the variables are of comparable order, then it is also fine to not scale the variables, that is, to apply PCA to the covariance matrix.

In R this means to use the argument `scale=FALSE`.

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Summary

Principal component analysis is a transformation (rotation and reflection) of the data such that **most of the variation is on the first axis, the second most variation is on the second axis...**

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- Find clusters in the variables
(e.g. $\{X1, X2\}$ and $\{X3, X4\}$ in the EWU data set)
- Find clusters in the set of objects/individuals
(e.g. girls and guys in the height and weight data)

Be aware:

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- If first two principal components explain less than 70%, then consider forgetting PCA
- Biplots are easily misread. Be careful!
- It's spelled 'principal' (main, Haupt-), not 'principle' (Prinzip, Grundsatz)