## Lecture 24

Computer Experiments \& Principal Component Analysis

STAT 8020 Statistical Methods II
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Agenda

Computer Experiments
(2) Multivariate Analysis

3 Principal component analysis (PCA)

What is a Computer Experiment
In some situations it is economically, ethically, or simply not possible to run a physical experiment. Instead, the following scenario might be feasible:

- the physical process can be described by a mathematical model (e.g., a system of differential equations)
- computer code (simulator) can be written to compute the response from the mathematical model


In this case, a researcher can conduct a computer experiment by running the computer code, which serves as a proxy for the physical process, to compute a "response" at any combination of values of the inputs
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Examples of Computer Models


Computer Experiments vs. Physical Experiments

- "Experimental results are believed by everyone, except for the person who ran the experiment"
- "Computational results are believed by no one, except the person who wrote the code"

Replication, randomization and blocking are irreverent for a computer experiment because many computer codes are deterministic and all the inputs to the code are known and can be controlled


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Design \& Analysis of Computer Experiments

## - Design:

where to make the runs, i.e., the selection of inputs $\left\{\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ where $\boldsymbol{x}_{i}=\left(x_{1, i}, x_{2, i}, \cdots x_{d, i}\right)$

## - Analysis:

fit a statistical model using the model inputs-output $\left\{y_{i}, \boldsymbol{x}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ to "emulate" the simulator and to quantify the prediction uncertainty for $y\left(x_{\text {new }}\right)$, usually via a Gaussian Process Model GP $(m(\cdot), K(\cdot, \cdot))$, where

- $m(\boldsymbol{x})=\mathrm{E}[y(x)]$ is the mean function
- $K\left(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(y(\boldsymbol{x}), y\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is the covariance function

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## An Overview of Multivariate Analysis

- In many studies, observations are collected on several variables on each experimental/observational unit
- Multivariate analysis is a collection of statistical methods for analyzing these multivariate data sets


## - Common Objectives

- Dimensionality reduction
- Classification
- Grouping (Clustering)

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Sea Surface Temperatures and Anomalies

- The "data" are gridded at a $2^{\circ}$ by $2^{\circ}$ resolution from $124^{\circ} \mathrm{E}-70^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$ and $30^{\circ} \mathrm{S}-30^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. The dimension of this SST data set is
2303 (number of grid points in space) $\times$
552 (monthly time series from 1970 Jan. to 2015 Dec.)
- Sea-surface temperature anomalies are the temperature differences from the climatology (ie. long-term monthly mean temperatures)
- We will demonstrate the use of Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) analysis to uncover the low-dimensional structure of this spatio-temporal data set

The Emipirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) Decomposition

Empirical orthogonal functions (EOFs) are the geophysicist's terminology for the eigenvectors in the eigen-decomposition of an empirical covariance matrix. In its discrete formulation, EOF analysis is simply Principal Component Analysis (PCA). EOFs are usually used

- To find principal spatial structures
- To reduce the dimension (spatially or temporally) in large spatio-temporal datasets


Computer Experiments
Principal Component Analysis

Multivariate Analysis

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Perform EOF Decomposition and Plot the First Three Modes


EOF1: The classic ENSO pattern

EOF2: A modulation of the center

EOF3: Messing with the coast of SA and the Northern Pacific.
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## Principal <br> Principal component

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Finding Principal Components Principal Components (PC) are uncorrelated linear combinations $\tilde{X}_{1}, \tilde{X}_{2}, \cdots, \tilde{X}_{p}$ determined sequentially, as follows:

- The first PC is the linear combination
$\tilde{X}_{1}=\boldsymbol{c}_{1}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}=\sum_{i=1}^{p} c_{1 i} X_{i}$ that maximize $\operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{1}\right)$
subject to $c_{1}^{T} c_{1}=1$
(2) The second PC is the linear combination
$\tilde{X}_{2}=\boldsymbol{c}_{2}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}=\sum_{i=1}^{p} c_{2 i} X_{i}$ that maximize $\operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{2}\right)$ subject to $\boldsymbol{c}_{2}^{T} \boldsymbol{c}_{2}=1$ and $\boldsymbol{c}_{2}^{T} \boldsymbol{c}_{1}=0$
(3) The $j_{t h} \mathrm{PC}$ is the linear combination $\tilde{X}_{j}=\boldsymbol{c}_{j}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}=\sum_{i=1}^{p} c_{j i} X_{i}$ that maximize $\operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{j}\right)$ subject to $c_{j}^{T} c_{j}=1$ and $c_{j}^{T} c_{k}=0 \forall k<j$

Principal Components

- Let $\Sigma$, the covariance matrix of $\boldsymbol{X}$, have eigenvalue-eigenvector pairs $\left(\lambda_{i}, \boldsymbol{e}_{i}\right)_{i=1}^{p}$ with with $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{p} \geq 0$ Then, the $k_{t h}$ principal component is given by

$$
\tilde{X}_{k}=\boldsymbol{e}_{k}^{T} \boldsymbol{X}=e_{k 1} X_{1}+e_{k 2} X_{2}+\cdots e_{k p} X_{p}
$$

- Then,

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{i}\right)=\lambda_{i}, \quad i=1, \cdots, p
$$

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(\tilde{X}_{j}, \tilde{X}_{k}\right)=0, \quad \forall j \neq k
$$

PCA and Proportion of Variance Explained

- It can be shown that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{p} \operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{i}\right)=\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\cdots+\lambda_{p}=\sum_{i=1}^{p} \operatorname{Var}\left(X_{i}\right)
$$

- The proportion of the total variance associated with the $k_{t h}$ principal component is given by

$$
\frac{\lambda_{k}}{\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\cdots+\lambda_{p}}
$$

- If a large proportion of the total population variance (say $80 \%$ or $90 \%$ ) is explained by the first k PCs, then we can restrict attention to the first k PCs without much loss of information
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Toy Example 1
Suppose we have $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)^{T}$ where $X_{1} \sim \mathrm{~N}(0,4)$, $X_{2} \sim \mathrm{~N}(0,1)$ are independent

- Total variation $=\operatorname{Var}\left(X_{1}\right)+\operatorname{Var}\left(X_{2}\right)=5$
- $X_{1}$ axis explains $80 \%$ of total variation
- $X_{2}$ axis explains the remaining $20 \%$ of total variation


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## Toy Example 2

Suppose we have $\boldsymbol{X}=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)^{T}$ where $X_{1} \sim \mathrm{~N}(0,4)$,
$X_{2} \sim \mathrm{~N}(0,1)$ and $\operatorname{Cor}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)=0.8$

- Total variation
$=\operatorname{Var}\left(X_{1}\right)+\operatorname{Var}\left(X_{2}\right)=\operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{1}\right)+\operatorname{Var}\left(\tilde{X}_{2}\right)=5$
- $\tilde{X}_{1}=.9175 X_{1}+.3975 X_{2}$ explains $93.9 \%$ of total variation
- $\tilde{X}_{2}=.3975 X_{1}-.9176 X_{2}$ explains the remaining $6.1 \%$ of total variation




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