Principal Component of Explained Variance

High-Dimensional Estimation and Inference

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- In modern statistics, we often encounter multivariate variables of large dimension (p > n).
 - In biomedical sciences (e.g. neuroimaging, genomics), pattern recognition, text recognition, finance, etc.
- We are often faced with the following problem:
 - Given two sets of multivariate variables $\{W_1, \ldots, W_p\}$ and $\{Z_1, \ldots, Z_q\}$, how do we test for global association, and how do we identify which variables drive the association?

- Regression: $E(W|Z) = \beta Z$.
 - The regression parameter β controls the global association and the contribution of each Z.
- Regularized regression can also be used to detect sparse signals.
- However, this framework can be cumbersome when *W* has dimension greater than one, especially when we have heterogeneous variable types (e.g. continuous and categorical).

The next examples have the following in common:

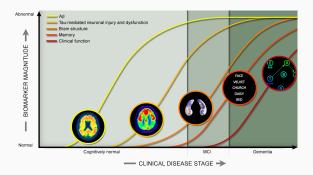
We have a (possibly high-dimensional) multivariate vector \mathbf{Y} and a set of covariates X.

We are interested in low dimensional representations of \mathbf{Y} that **summarise** the relationship between \mathbf{Y} and X.

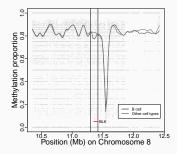


- *Digit recognition*: A famous example in machine learning coming from Le Cun *et al.* (1990).
- Consists of 16×16 gray scale images of digits (i.e. 256 pixels), where the goal is to automatically identify the digit.
- Y is the set of gray scale values for each pixel, and X is the digit to which the image corresponds
- We would like to extract lower-dimensional features to use for prediction.

- Data from 340 participants from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI)
- Brain imaging was employed to assess amyloid- β protein load in 96 brain regions
- Y is the set of Aβ load values for each brain region, and X is the (binary) disease status.



- The dataset consists of 40 blood samples, separated into different cell types (T cells, B cells, monocytes), and for which methylation levels were measured at 24,000 locations along the genome.
- Y is the set of DNA methylation values for all 24,000 locations, and X is the cell type.



- Provides an optimal strategy for selecting a low dimensional summary of Y that can be used to test for association with one or several covariates of interest.
- **Goal**: Find the linear combination (or component) that maximises the *proportion of variance explained by the covariates*

- 1. Estimation strategies
- 2. Analytical framework for hypothesis testing
 - High-dimensional inference
- 3. An R package implementing this method (pcev available on CRAN)

Methods

PCEV: Statistical Model

Let **Y** be a multivariate outcome of dimension p and X, a vector of covariates.

We assume a linear relationship:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \beta^T X + \varepsilon.$$

The total variance of the outcome can then be decomposed as

$$Var(\mathbf{Y}) = Var(\beta^T X) + Var(\varepsilon)$$
$$= V_M + V_R.$$

Decompose the total variance of $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Y}}$ into:

- 1. Variance explained by the covariates;
- 2. Residual variance.

The PCEV framework seeks a linear combination $w^T \mathbf{Y}$ such that the proportion of variance explained by X is maximised; this proportion is defined as the following Rayleigh quotient:

$$R^2(w) = \frac{w^T V_M w}{w^T (V_M + V_R) w}.$$

A solution to this maximisation problem can be obtained through a combination of Lagrange multipliers and linear algebra.

Key observation: $R^2(w)$ measures the strength of the association

- PCA: Maximise total variance
- CCA: Maximise correlation
- PLS: Maximise covariance
- RDA: Maximise redundancy index
- PCEV: Maximise proportion of variance explained

All these methods (except PCA) have serious limitations with high-dimensional data.

We propose a **block approach** to the computation of PCEV in the presence of high-dimensional outcomes.

- Suppose the outcome variables can be divided in blocks of variables in such a way that
 - Variables within blocks are correlated
 - Variables between blocks are uncorrelated

$$Cov(\mathbf{Y}) = \begin{pmatrix} * & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & * & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & * \end{pmatrix}$$

- We can perform PCEV on each of these blocks, resulting in a component for each block.
- Treating all these "partial" PCEVs as a new, multivariate pseudo-outcome, we can perform PCEV again; the result is a linear combination of the original outcome variables.

With the above assumption, I showed that this is **mathematically** equivalent to performing PCEV in a single-step. (*Stat Meth Med Res*, 2018)

Finally, we can compute p-values using a permutation procedure.

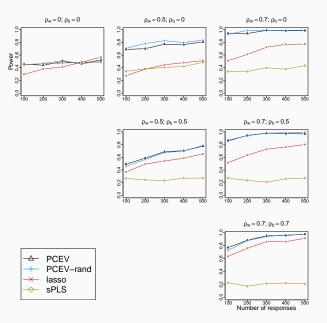
Simulations

Simulation Setting

- We compared 4 different approaches:
 - PCEV-block, with blocks assumed known a priori
 - PCEV-block, with blocks selected randomly
 - Lasso
 - Sparse Partial Least Squares (sPLS)
- We fixed the sample size at n = 100 and simulated p = 100, 200, 300, 400, 500 outcomes; we distributed the outcome variables in 10 blocks.
- We also varied the correlation between (ρ_b) and within (ρ_w) blocks (0, 0.5, 0.7).
- We simulated a single continuous covariate from a standard normal distribution. 25% of the outcomes in each block are associated with *X*.

- Whereas PCEV treats the multivariate, *p*-dimensional **Y** as the outcome variable and *X* as the covariate, we inverted these roles for both Lasso and sPLS, so that variable selection happens on **Y**.
- The test statistics for Lasso and sPLS were as follows:
 - Lasso: Correlation between X and $\hat{\beta}_L \mathbf{Y}$
 - **sPLS**: Maximised covariance
- P-values were computed using a permutation procedure.

Simulation Results: Power analysis



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Data analysis

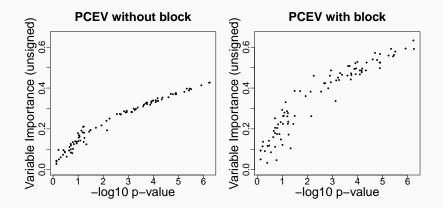
- Recall: Data on amyloid-β accumulation in 96 brain regions, measured on 340 subjects. We are interested in the association with Alzheimer's disease.
- We used this dataset to compare the block approach to the traditional approach
- We defined blocks using hierarchical clustering.

P-values for the joint association between amyloid- β accumulation and disease status. Permutation tests were performed using 100,000 permutations.

	PCEV	PCEV with blocks
Exact test	$8.13 imes 10^{-5}$	—
Permutation test	$2 imes 10^{-5}$	$5 imes 10^{-5}$

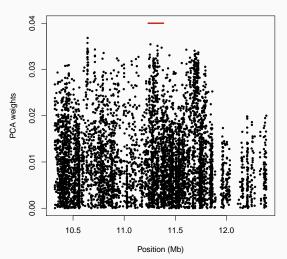
- **VIF**: Correlation between a single variable *Y_i* in **Y** and the PCEV component.
- VIF allows us to decompose the global association into individual components; the higher the VIF, the stronger the contribution of an individual variable.

Variable Importance Factor

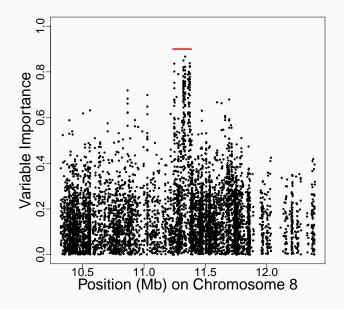


- BLK gene, located on chromosome 8
- Data provided by Tomi Pastinen (McGill)
- 40 blood samples, from 3 different cell types
 - B cells (n=8)
 - T cells (n=19)
 - Monocytes (n=13)
- 24,068 locations on the DNA

Goal: Investigate the association between methylation levels in the BLK region (outcomes) and cell type (covariate: B cell vs T cell and monocytes)



- We used the block approach, where blocks were defined using physical distance: CpGs within 500kb are grouped together
 - 951 blocks were analysed
- Using PCEV, we obtained a single p-value, which is less than 6×10^{-5} (using 100,000 permutations)
- Hence, a single test for all variables, and no tuning parameter was required.



- The block approach has good power compared to common high-dimensional methods
- Results are robust to how blocks are defined
 - P-values are similar
 - Power is similar
 - Variable Importance Factors are also similar

High-dimensional inference

• Recall that PCEV is maximising a Rayleigh quotient:

$$R^{2}(w) = \frac{w^{T} V_{M} w}{w^{T} (V_{M} + V_{R}) w}$$

 This approach is equivalent to finding the largest root λ of a double Wishart problem:

$$\det \left(\mathbf{A} - \lambda (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \right) = \mathbf{0},$$

where $A = V_M, B = V_R$.

There are many well-known examples of double Wishart problems:

- Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA);
- Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA);
- Testing for independence of two multivariate samples;
- Testing for the equality of covariance matrices of two independent samples from multivariate normal distributions;

• Principal Component of Explained Variance (PCEV).

In all the examples above, the largest root λ summarises the strength of the association.

The main contribution:

 I will provide an empirical estimate of the distribution of the largest root of the determinantal equation. This estimate can be used to compute valid p-values and perform high-dimensional inference.

I illustrate this approach using PCEV, but it is applicable to **any** double Wishart problem (e.g. CCA and LDA).

There is evidence in the literature that the null distribution of the largest root λ should be related to the **Tracy-Widom distribution**.

Theorem

(Johnstone 2008) Assume $\mathbf{A} \sim W_p(\Sigma, m)$ and $\mathbf{B} \sim W_p(\Sigma, n)$ are independent, with Σ positive-definite and $\mathbf{n} \leq \mathbf{p}$. As $p, m, n \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$\frac{\operatorname{logit} \lambda - \mu}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} TW(1),$$

where TW(1) is the Tracy-Widom distribution of order 1, and μ, σ are explicit functions of p, m, n.

- However, Johnstone's theorem requires an invertible matrix.
- The null distribution of λ is asymptotically equal to that of the largest root of a scaled Wishart (Srivastava).
 - The null distribution of the largest root of a Wishart is also related to the Tracy-Widom distribution.
- More generally, random matrix theory suggests that the Tracy-widom distribution is key in central-limit-like theorems for random matrices.

We propose to obtain an empirical estimate as follows:

Estimate the null distribution

- 1. Perform a small number of permutations (\sim 50) on the rows of ${\bf Y};$
- 2. For each permutation, compute the largest root statistic.
- 3. Fit a location-scale variant of the Tracy-Widom distribution.

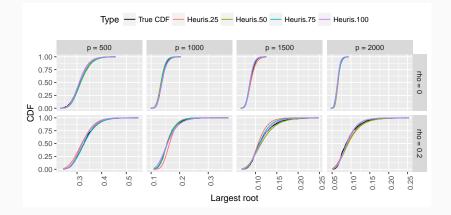
Numerical investigations support this approach for computing p-values. The main advantage over a traditional permutation strategy is the computation time.

Simulations

Distribution Estimation

- We generated 1000 pairs of Wishart variates A ~ W_p(Σ, m), B ~ W_p(Σ, n) with m = 96 and n = 4 fixed
 - MANOVA: this would correspond to four distinct populations and a total sample size of 100
- We varied *p* = 500, 1000, 1500, 2000
- We looked at two different covariance structures: Σ = I_p, and an exchangable correlation structure with parameter ρ = 0.2.
- We looked at four different numbers of permutations for the empirical estimator: K = 25, 50, 75, 100.
- We compared graphically the CDF estimated from the empirical estimate with the true CDF

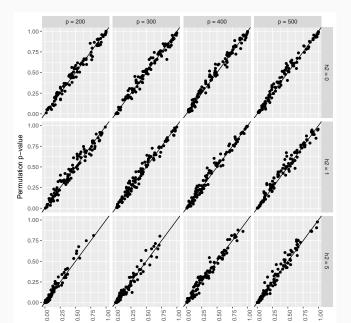
Distribution Estimation



We looked at the following high-dimensional simulation scenario:

- We fixed n = 100 and a balanced binary covariate X.
- We varied the number of response variables p = 200, 300, 400, 500 and the association between X and the first 50 response variables in Y.
- We compared the empirical estimate with a permutation procedure (250 permutations).
- Each simulation was repeated 100 times.

P-value Comparison



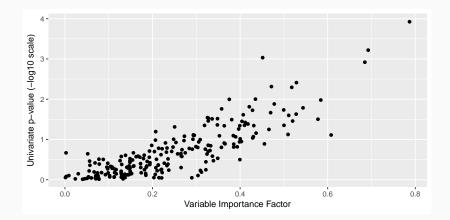
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Data Analysis

- DNA methylation measured with Illumina 450k on 28 cell-separated samples
- We focus on Monocytes only.
- 18 patients suffering from Rheumatoid arthritis, Lupus, Scleroderma
- We group locations by biological KEGG pathways
 - The number of genomic locations per pathway ranged from 39 to 21,640, with an average around 2000 dinucleotides.
 - 134,941 CpG dinucleotides were successfully matched to one of 320 KEGG pathways
 - On average, each locations appears in 4.5 pathways \Rightarrow effectively 70 independent hypothesis tests

Description	P-value	P-value (permutation)
Glutamatergic synapse	$1.91 imes 10^{-4}$	$7.00 imes10^{-4}$
Ras signaling pathway	$1.33 imes10^{-3}$	$1.40 imes10^{-3}$
Circadian rhythm	$1.52 imes 10^{-3}$	$1.00 imes10^{-4}$
Histidine metabolism	$1.59 imes10^{-3}$	$3.00 imes10^{-4}$
Pathogenic E. coli infection	$1.65 imes10^{-3}$	$5.20 imes10^{-3}$

Results



path:hsa00120—Glutamatergic synapse: Comparison of VIF and univariate p-values for the most significant pathway.

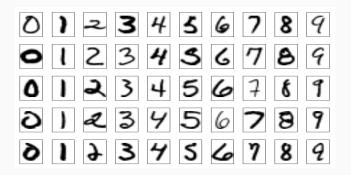
Conclusion

- Data summary is an important feature in data analysis, and this is the objective of dimension reduction techniques.
- Principal Component of Explained Variance is an interesting alternative to PCA
 - It is optimal in capturing the association with covariates
- In a high-dimensional setting, **estimation** and **inference** are more challenging
 - Estimation: Truncated SVD, or block-diagonal estimator
 - Inference: Fitted location-scale Tracy-Widom, or permutation strategy.

- Our approach is computationally simple and provides good power.
- Simulations and data analyses confirm its advantage over a more traditional approach using PCA, as well as other high-dimensional approaches such as regularized regression and sparse PLS.
- The empirical estimate of the distribution of λ has already been succesfully applied to another double Wishart problem (test of covariance equality).
- Everything presented today has been implemented in an R package called pcev (available on CRAN).

Motivating Example #1

- PCEV could be used to extract features from data and possibly increase predictive accuracy.
- However, there is evidence in the literature that linear features have limited predictive power in pattern recognition.
- We would therefore need a nonlinear variant of PCEV



- Look into nonlinear alternatives to PCEV
- Extend results on empirical estimate to different variance estimators
 - Preliminary results with Ledoit-Wolf linear shrinkage estimator are promising
- Study the correlation of pairs of largest root statistics
 - Obtain less conservative Bonferroni corrections

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Questions or comments?

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