## 1

# Correspondence analysis as an exploratory technique for stratigraphic abundance data

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### 1.1 Introduction

This paper describes the use of Correspondence Analysis (also known as dual scaling or Reciprocal Averaging) in initial investigations of abundance data from a sequence of strata. The technique, closely related mathematically to Principal Components Analysis, produces a graphical display of the rows and columns of a data matrix illustrating clusters within the rows and within the columns and the associations between them. Principal Components Analyses performed separately on the rows and columns would provide some of this information; Correspondence Analysis provides the link between them. The analysis is particularly appropriate to stratigraphic abundance data (of pollen, MNI indices or even artifacts) providing information on ecological groupings of layers and the associated indicator groupings of species. Initial visual inspection can be supplemented by computer-based simulation or 'bootstrapping' to assess statistical stability of observed groupings and overlaps. The techniques are illustrated on A. L. Armstrong's data from Pinhole Cave, Creswell Crags. These data give the MNI's for 148 vertebrate species in 21 stratigraphic layers. Henceforth multivariate data is taken to mean data where there are a group of objects each of which has a numerical value for each of a group of variables, and all of the objects arise 'on the same footing', that is none are viewed as responses to others. Stratigraphic abundance data are a special case of this where, depending on which is of most interest, the 'objects' are stratigraphic layers and the 'variables' species (or tool types etc) or vice-versa, and the values are the abundances.

## 1.2 Principal Components Analysis

Principal Components Analysis is a widely-used method for the preliminary investigation of multivariate data. It treats the values of the variables as the coordinates of the objects and, geometrically speaking, rotates the objects onto a new coordinate system. For example, with stratigraphic abundance data where interest is in the species (i.e. species are 'objects' and layers are 'variables') then the abundances of a species in the different layers are that species' coordinates; that is the layers are the 'dimensions' of the coordinate system. Thus each object has a new set of coordinates calculated from the old set such that each successive coordinate (i.e. dimension) accounts for the largest possible amount of the (remaining) variance (variation) in the data. The idea is that variance quantifies 'information' so that the first few coordinate axes, or 'principal components', contain the main features of the data, without a major loss

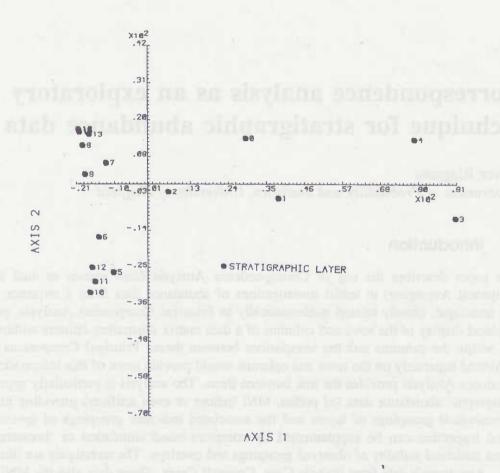


Fig. 1.1: PCA of Armstrong's data with layers as objects

of information, in a small number of dimensions, and that plotting the positions of the objects on the first few axes will reveal the structure of the data in terms of relationships between the objects. As an example Fig. 1.1 shows a plot of the first two components of a Principal Components Analysis of Armstrong's data with layers as objects, Fig. 1.2 the same with species as objects. Note that only a few species names are shown for clarity. In fact, nearly all of the structure of the data in these first two dimensions is attributable to the influence of the three 'species' which are outlying from the central cluster. These dominate the analysis because of their much greater abundances (this point is expanded below). In practice one might reanalyse the data without them in order to circumvent this. Examination of how much of the variance is accounted for by each dimension and the amount each of the old coordinates contributes to the new ones (the 'component loadings') yields an interpretation of the data which is more informative. For example, it is these that reveal the dominance of the three species in Figs. 1.1 and 1.2.

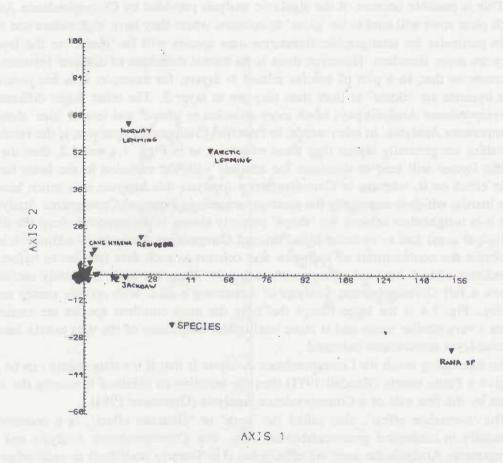


Fig. 1.2: PCA of Armstrong's data with species as objects

## 1.3 Correspondence Analysis

In some ways Correspondence Analysis can be seen as a generalisation of Principal Components Analysis. The technique is often referred to by ecologists as Reciprocal Averaging, and is algebraically similar to dual scaling (Nishisato 1980). It was developed mostly in France by Benzecri (Benzecri 1973) and translated into English by Michael Greenacre. The treatment here follows that of Greenacre (1984). In Correspondence Analysis, unlike Principal Components Analysis, both objects and variables, in other words both the rows and the columns of the data matrix, are plotted together on the same picture.

This is possible because of the algebraic analysis provided by Correspondence Analysis. In such plots rows will tend to be 'close' to columns where they have high values and *vice-versa*.

In particular for stratigraphic abundance data species will be 'closer' to the layers where they are more abundant. However, there is no formal definition of distance between rows and columns so that, in a plot of species related to layers, for example, it is not possible to say that hyaenas are 'closer' to lions than they are to layer 3. The other major difference is that Correspondence Analysis pays much more attention to 'shape' and less to 'size' than Principal Components Analysis. In other words, in Principal Components Analysis, if the values of some variables are generally higher than those of others, as in Figs. 1.1 and 1.2, then the variation in the former will tend to dominate the analysis with the variation in the latter having very little effect on it, whereas in Correspondence Analysis this happens to a much lesser extent. The inertia, which is essentially the same as variance in Principal Components Analysis except that it is weighted to achieve the 'shape' property above, is decomposed along the dimensions (principal axes) just as variance is in Principal Components Analysis; in addition it is possible to obtain the contributions of each row and column to each axis (similar to before) and the correlation of each row and column with each axis. These are again extremely useful. Fig. 1.3 shows a full Correspondence Analysis of Armstrong's data, with species names omitted for clarity. Fig. 1.4 is the same except that only the most common species are retained. This gives a very similar result and is more intelligible. Inspection of the data matrix bears out the species-layer associations indicated.

An interesting result for Correspondence Analysis is that if the data matrix can be permuted to give a Petrie matrix (Kendall 1971) then the seriation so obtained is exactly the same as is given by the first axis of a Correspondence Analysis (Greenacre 1984).

The 'horseshoe effect', also called the 'arch' or 'Guttman effect', is a common feature, especially in ecological presence/absence data. For Correspondence Analysis and Principal Components Analysis the axes are orthogonal (i.e. linearly unrelated) to each other but non-linear relationships may occur causing the data to form a 'horseshoe' on plots rather than a scatter. This is a feature that must be accepted as an inevitable consequence of the algebra and geometry of the techniques and the problem is sometimes exaggerated. Hill provides a partial solution to this problem for Correspondence Analysis by his 'detrending' in his program DECORANA. However this may well add as much 'error' and distortion as it removes since the geometry of his technique is no longer clear.

## 1.4 Bootstrapping

Bootstrapping is the general statistical term for a wide variety of data-based simulation methods. In the present context the objective is to assess the statistical stability of the displays produced by the algebraic technique of Correspondence Analysis. For example, are any observed 'groupings'

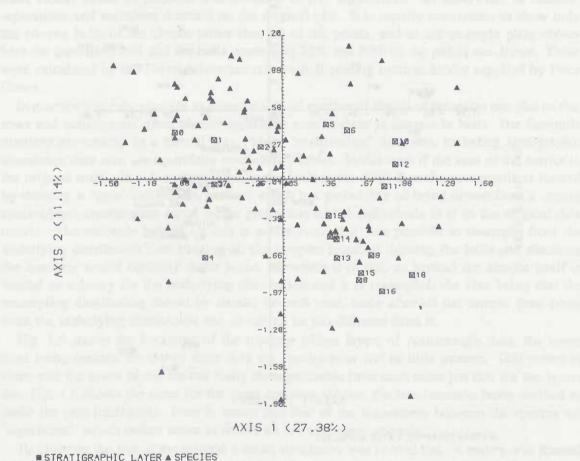
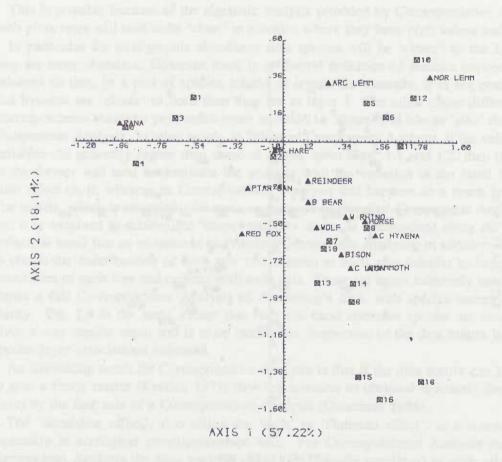


Fig. 1.3: CA of Armstrong's data



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Fig. 1.4: CA of reduced Armstrong's data

or 'separations' merely the result of chance fluctuations observable only in the actual data or are they 'real' in a wider sense? In principle, this problem could be investigated by theoretical statistical analysis. However, the mathematics required for this is prohibitively complex and so simulation methods are required. 'Bootstrapping' is a form of simulation based on statistically perturbing the observed data.

The description here is developed from Greenacre 1984, pp. 214–218. The idea is to simulate many facsimile data matrices with the same overall characteristics as the original and project each of these onto the principal axes obtained from the original Correspondence Analysis. The result is that each point is replaced by a cloud of points, where each one is a plausible position for the original data point. Examination of the overlapping (or not overlapping) nature of these clouds yields an informal determination of the 'significance' (or otherwise) of clusters, separations and seriations detected on the original plot. It is usually convenient to show only the convex hulls of the clouds rather than all of the points, and in the example plots shown here the outermost hull and the hulls containing 75% and 50% of the points are drawn. These were calculated by the Green-Silverman convex hull peeling routine, kindly supplied by Peter Green.

In practice it is only possible to examine a small number of clouds of points on one plot so that rows and columns are often plotted separately even if there is interest in both. The facsimile matrices are created in a natural way. Many 'multivariate' data sets, including stratigraphic abundance data sets, are essentially contingency tables. In this case if the sum of the entries in the original matrix is n (i.e. there are n individuals in the data) then the new matrix is formed by drawing n 'new' individuals, each of which has probability of being drawn from a certain species/layer combination equal to the proportion of the individuals in it in the original data matrix. The rationale behind all this is as follows. If it was possible to resample from the underlying distribution then plotting all the samples together, drawing the hulls and assessing the overlaps would certainly make sense. However it is not, so instead the sample itself is treated as a proxy for the underlying distribution and it is resampled, the idea being that the resampling distribution should be similar in each case, since after all the sample does come from the underlying distribution and so cannot be too different from it.

Fig. 1.5 shows the bootstrap of the topmost fifteen layers of Armstrong's data, the lower ones being omitted for clarity since they are species-poor and of little interest. This seems to show that the lower layers are not really distinguishable from each other but that the top layers are. Fig. 1.6 shows the same for the most common species, the less common being omitted to make the plot intelligible. Here it seems that few of the separations between the species are 'significant', which makes sense as nearly all are cold-stage animals.

To illustrate the use of the method a small simulation was carried out. A matrix was formed with the same dimensions as Armstrong's data, that is nineteeen layers and 148 species (ignoring the two layers where no bones were found), and with the same sum (i.e. n in the above). However the allocation of the individuals to species/layer combinations was totally random, so that the matrix had no real structure. This matrix was then subjected to Correspondence Analysis and bootstrapping of the layers as described above. Fig. 1.7 shows the Correspondence Analysis with the layers only plotted. From this alone it is not possible to tell that there is no structure to the data, although the percentages of inertia for the first two axes are both only around 8% which is an indication that this may be so. However bootstrapping (Fig. 1.8) shows a large amount of overlap between the hulls of the different layers, indicating that few if any of the layers are very different from the others. It does not immediately and obviously signal the lack of structure, but it is certainly quite a powerful indication in that direction. Note that although

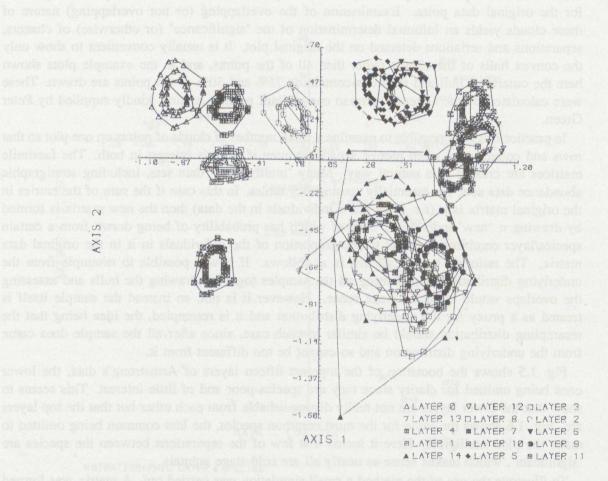


Fig. 1.5: Bootstrap of the topmost fifteen layers

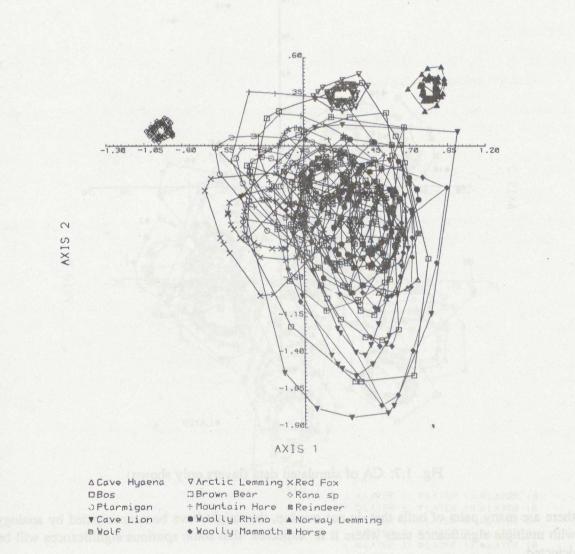


Fig. 1.6: Bootstrap of the most abundant species

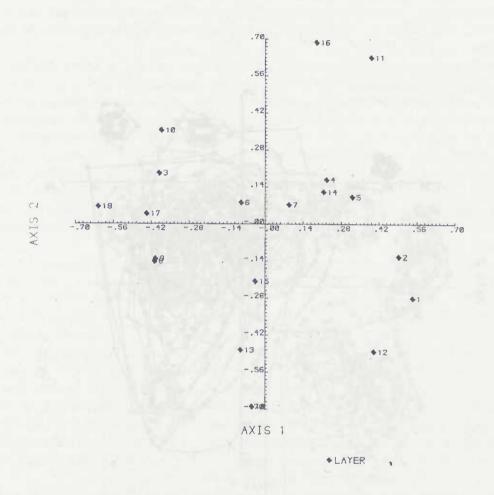


Fig. 1.7: CA of simulated data (layers only shown)

there are many pairs of hulls that do not overlap, this might have been anticipated by analogy with multiple significance tests where it is 'expected' that some spurious significances will be detected.

#### 1.5 Conclusion

Correspondence Analysis is a useful method for any application when it is desired to display the rows and columns of a data matrix, and can be profitably employed in any species by layers/locations situation. However reliance on only one technique in exploratory multivariate analysis is inadvisable. Ideally Correspondence Analysis, Principal Components Analysis, cluster analysis and perhaps other appropriate methods should be tried and the results compared to protect against the possibility that 'interesting' features are merely method-specific. It is also vitally important to look out for particularly influential rows/columns which dominate the analyses and swamp the others, as noted in the Principal Components Analysis section. All statistical techniques are imperfect in this respect and so intelligent selection and subdivision

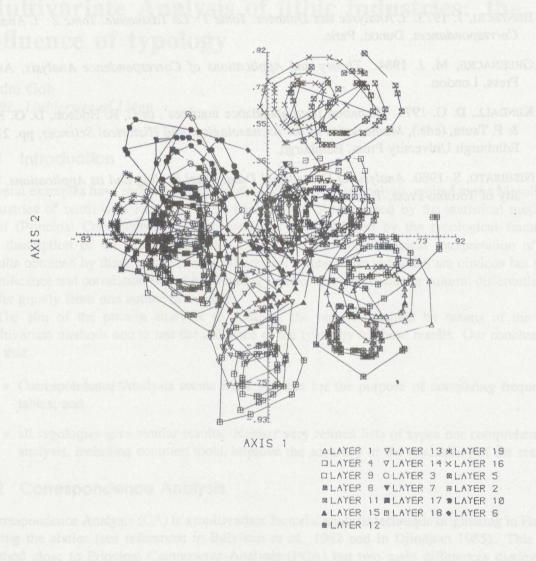


Fig. 1.8: Bootstrap simulation (layers)

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of the data is worthwhile. Examination of the contributions of rows and columns to the axes in Correspondence Analysis and Principal Components Analysis should reveal these. It is not adequate to plot the data on the first two axes and base conclusions solely on that picture, as is all too frequently the practice.

#### References

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