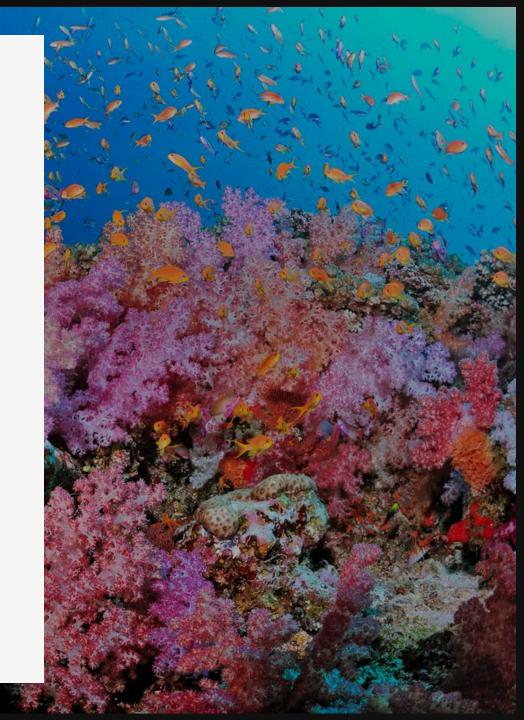
FW 599 Special Topics: Multivariate Analysis of Ecological Data in R

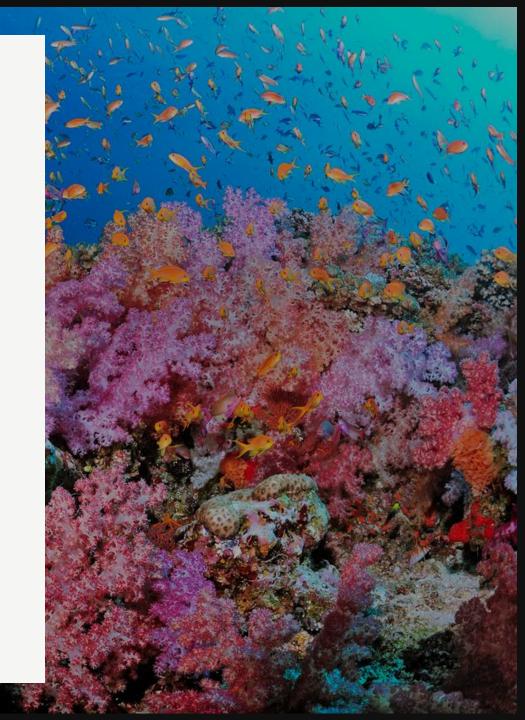
Lecture 3: Matrix Notation and Association Matrices

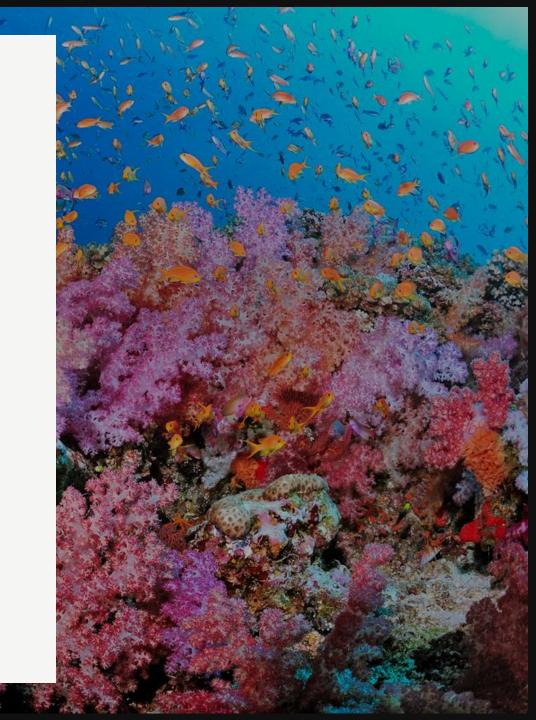
Tuesday, October 8, 2024



Lecture 3: Matrix Notation and Association Matrices

- Types of Matrices
- Matrix (Linear) Algebra
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- Association Matrices
- Q vs. R Analysis

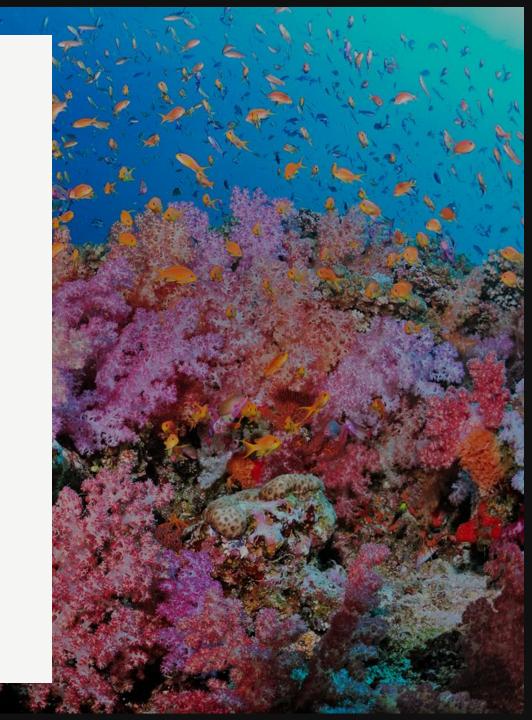




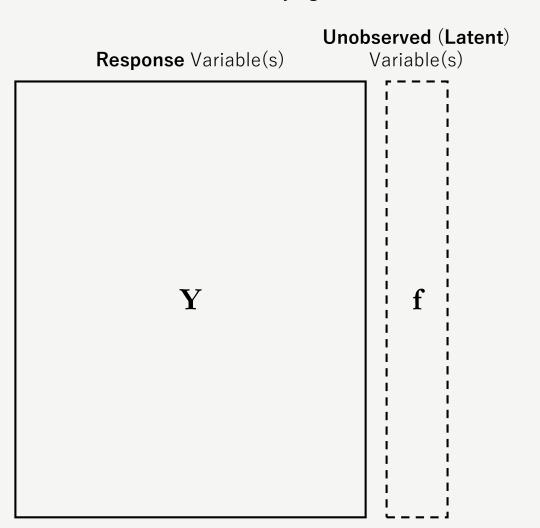
Variable(s) of Interest [Descriptors]

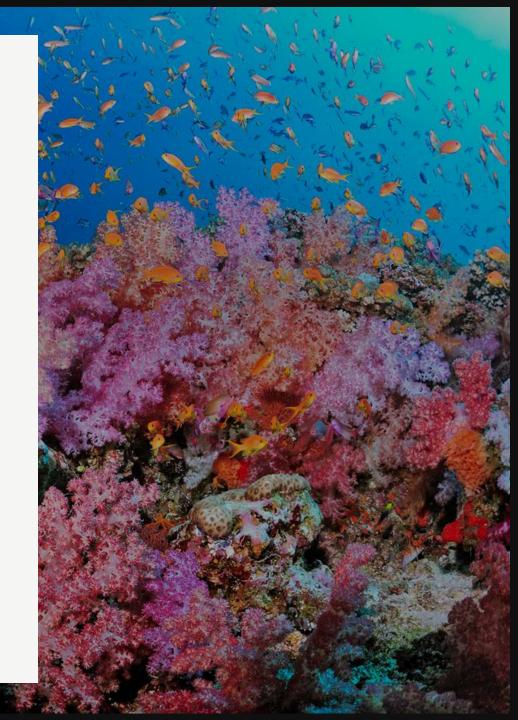
Sampling Units [Objects]

Y



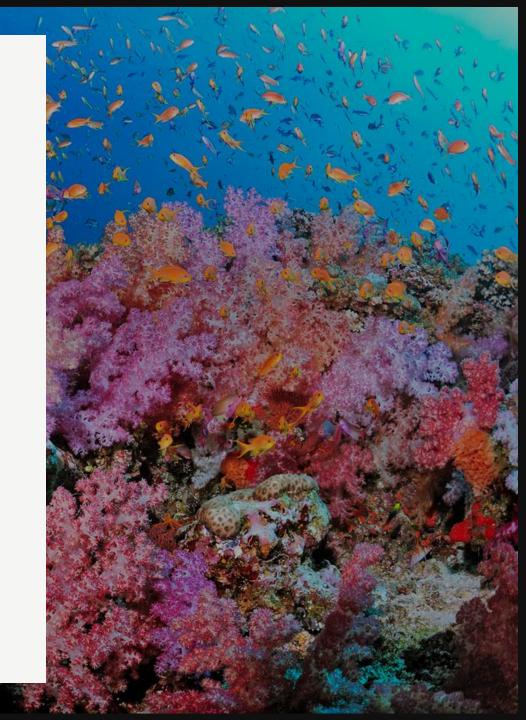
Structural Methods: look for structure underlying the data matrix **Y**.



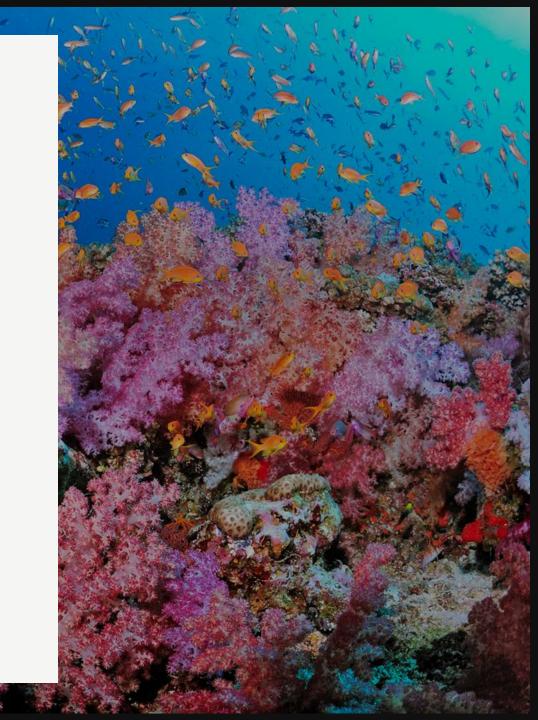


Functional Methods: relate the response variable(s) **Y** as a function of the predictor variable(s) **X**.

Predictor or **Response** Variable(s) **Explanatory** Variable(s)



Matrix Notation

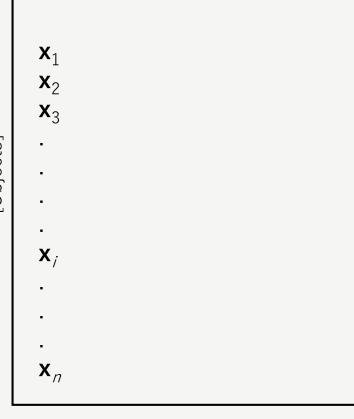


Matrix Notation: Ecological Matrices

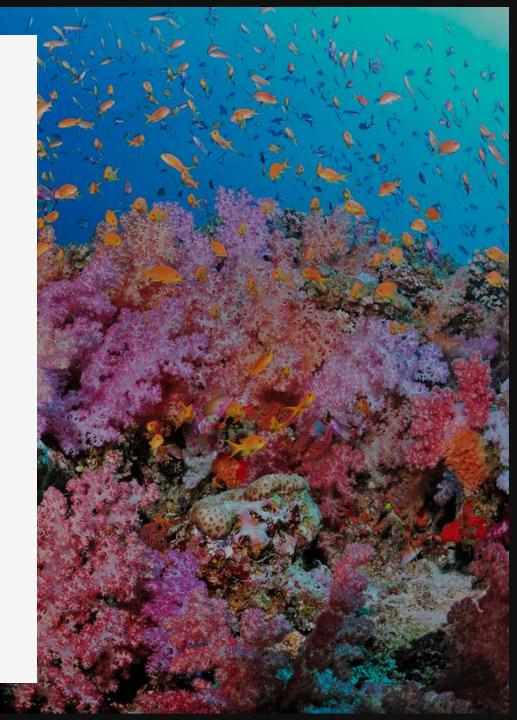
Objects (row *i*): Defined *a priori*. E.g., sites, locations, individuals, observations

Variable(s) of Interest [Descriptors]

Sampling Units [Objects]



Which variable can be increased to infinity?



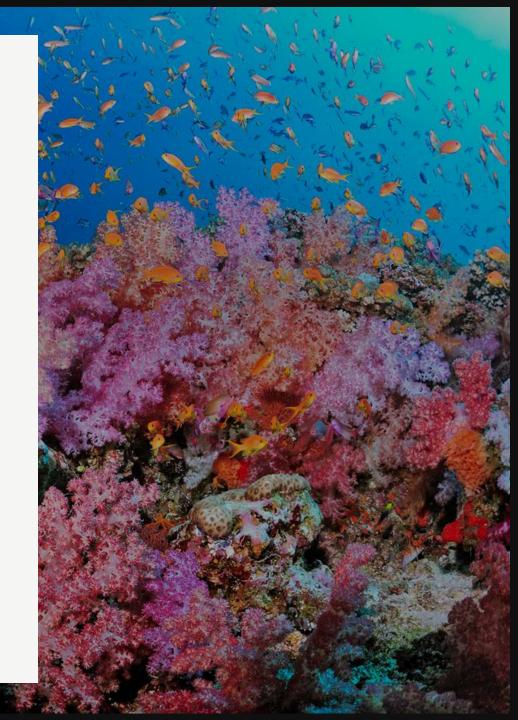
Matrix Notation: Ecological Matrices

Descriptors (column *j*): The measured or observed variable. E.g., species, traits, environmental characteristics

Variable(s) of Interest [Descriptors]

Sampling Units [Objects]

| | \mathbf{y}_1 | y ₂ | y ₃ | y _j | $\mathbf{y}_{ ho}$ |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| \mathbf{x}_1 | y ₁₁ | y ₁₂ | y ₁₃ | у _{1<i>j</i>} | $y_{1\rho}$ |
| x ₂ | | | y ₂₃ | | |
| x ₃ | y ₃₁ | y ₃₂ | y ₃₃ | у _{3<i>j</i>} | y _{3p} |
| | • | • | • | • | • |
| | | • | • | - | • |
| | | • | • | - | • |
| | • | • | - | - | - |
| \mathbf{X}_{j} | y _{/1} | y _{/2} | у _{/3} | у _{іј} | у _{<i>ір</i>} |
| | • | • | • | • | • |
| | | • | • | - | • |
| | - | • | • | - | - |
| \mathbf{X}_n | y _{n1} | y _{n2} | у _л з : | у _{пј} | y _{np} |



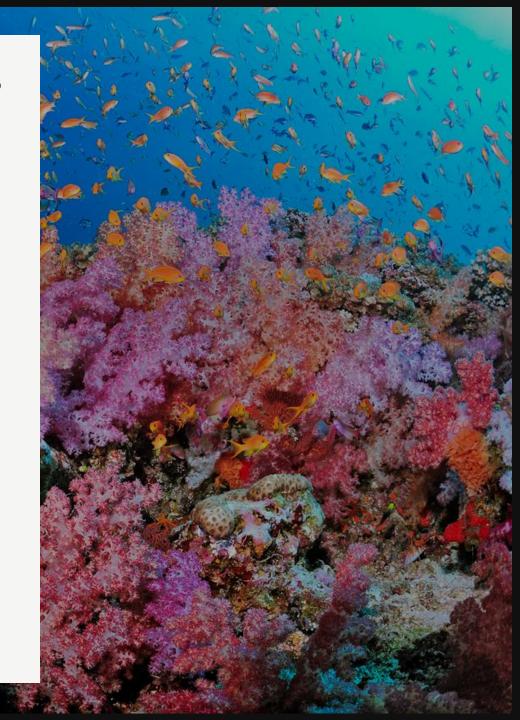
Matrix Notation: Ecological Matrices

A matrix of **order** (i.e., dimensions) $n \times p$ is denoted \mathbf{Y}_{np} where any given **element** within the matrix is denoted y_{ij} .

Variable(s) of Interest [Descriptors]

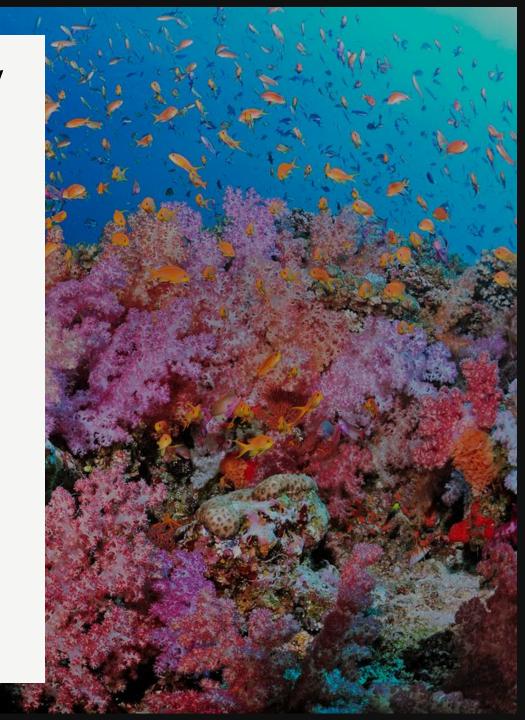
Sampling Units [Objects]

| | \mathbf{y}_1 | y ₂ | y ₃ | y _j | $\mathbf{y}_{ ho}$ |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| \mathbf{x}_1 | y ₁₁ | y ₁₂ | y ₁₃ | у _{1<i>j</i>} | У _{1р} |
| x ₂ | | | y ₂₃ | | |
| x ₃ | y ₃₁ | y ₃₂ | y ₃₃ | у _{3<i>j</i>} | y _{3p} |
| | • | | • | • | • |
| | | • | • | - | • |
| | | | • | | • |
| - | • | • | - | - | • |
| \mathbf{X}_{j} | y _{/1} | y _{/2} | у _{/3} | у _{іј} | y_{ip} |
| | | • | • | • | • |
| | • | | • | • | • |
| - | • | • | - | - | • |
| \mathbf{x}_n | y _{n1} | y _{n2} | у _л з : | у _{пј} | У _{пр} |



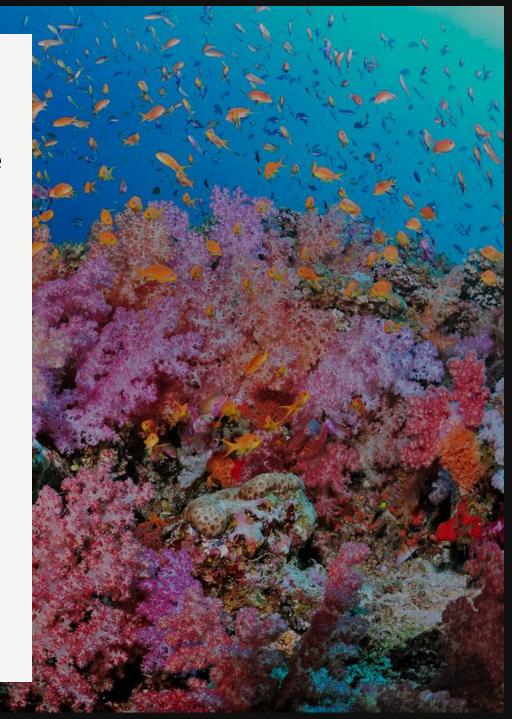
An **association matrix** (**A**) assesses the degree of resemblance among objects (*Q-mode*) or descriptors (*R-mode*) for all element pairs.

$$\mathbf{A}_{nn} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$



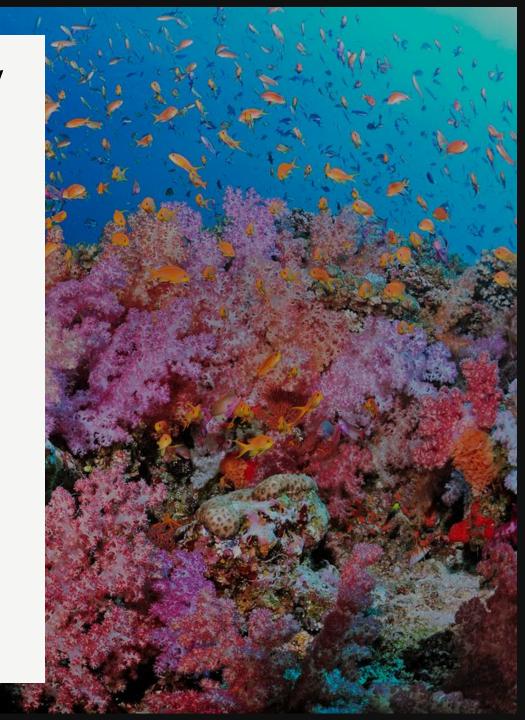
Association matrices are **square matrices** where the number of rows is equal to the number of columns (which is equal to the number of objects, n or descriptors, p).

$$\mathbf{A}_{nn} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$



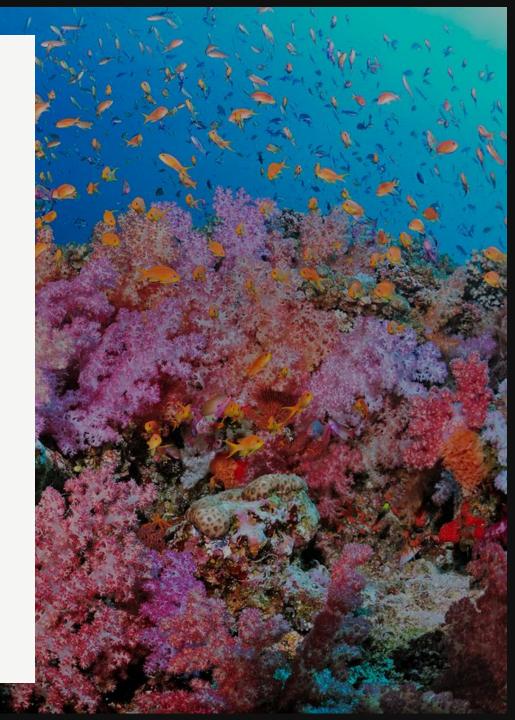
Association matrices are almost always **symmetric**, where elements in the upper right triangle are equal to elements in the lower left triangle $(a_{ij} = a_{jj})$.

$$\mathbf{A}_{nn} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$



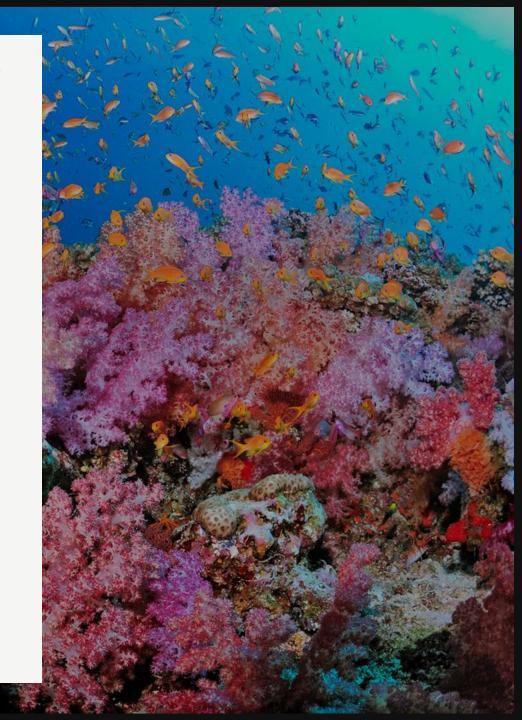
The measure of association between an object/descriptor and itself usually takes a value of **1** (similarity) or **0** (dissimilarity/distance).

$$\mathbf{A}_{nn} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{12} & 1 & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & \ddots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

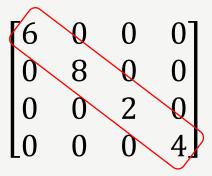


• A diagonal matrix (**D**) is a square matrix where all non-diagonal elements are zero.

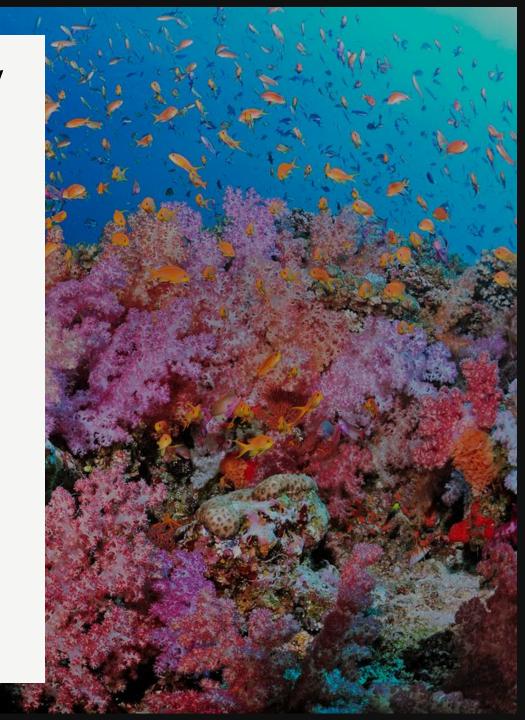
$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$



• A diagonal matrix (**D**) is a square matrix where all non-diagonal elements are zero.



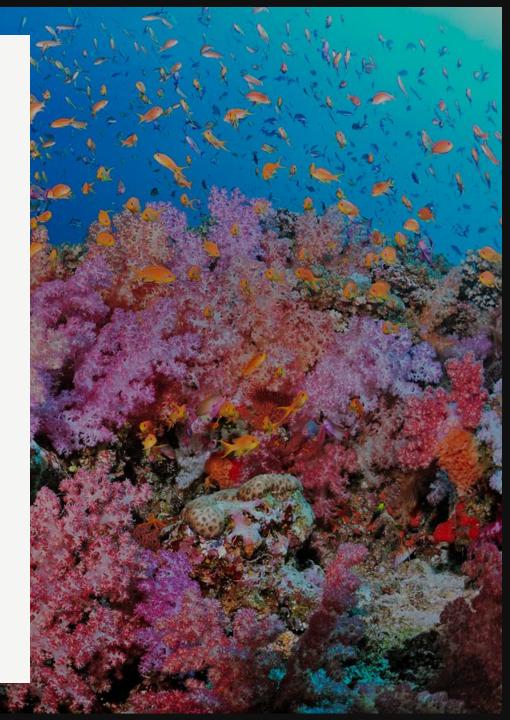
The **trace** of a matrix is the sum of its diagonal elements. In this case, trace = 20



An identity matrix (I) is a diagonal matrix where all diagonal elements are equal to unity.

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{tabular}{l}{l} Plays the same role in matrix algebra as the scalar value 1.} \\$

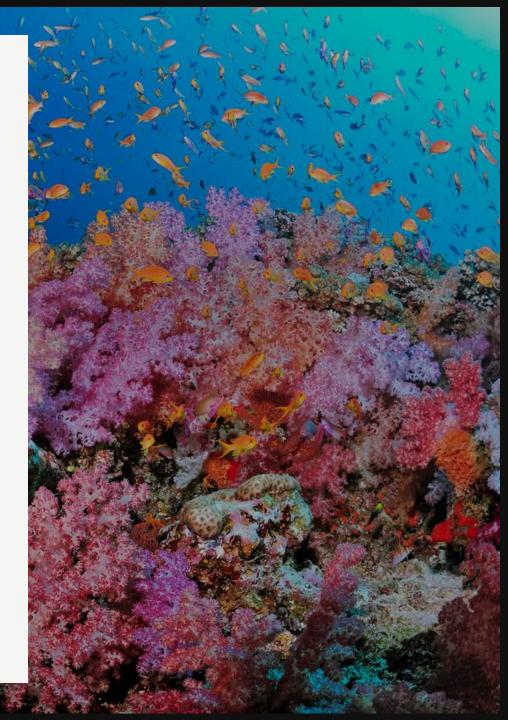
Plays the same



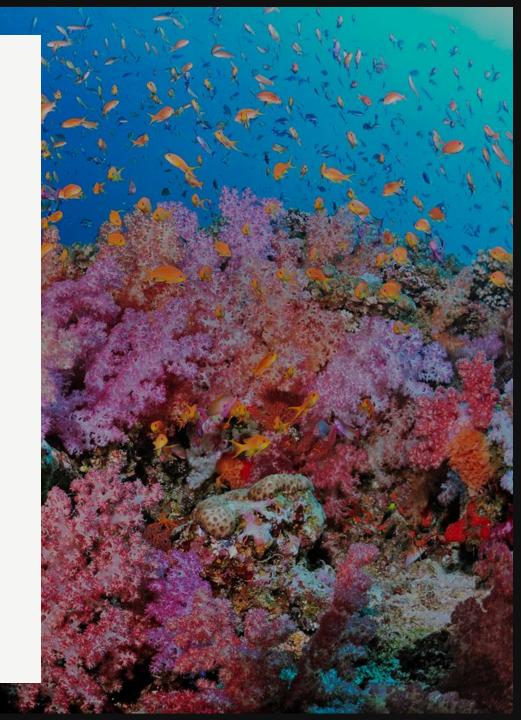
An **scalar matrix** is a diagonal matrix where all diagonal elements are equal.

 $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{tabular}{l} Plays the same role in matrix algebra as the scalar value n. } \\$

Plays the same



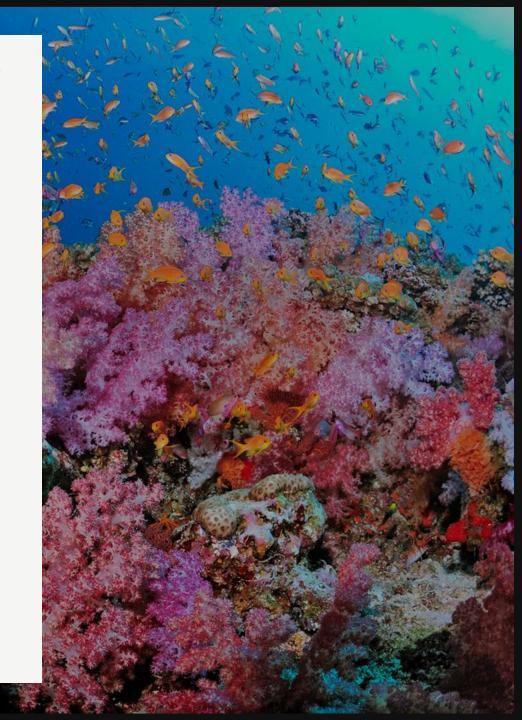
• A **null matrix** is any matrix (square or rectangular) where all elements are 0.



• The **transpose** of a matrix **B** is denoted **B'** in which $b_{ij} = b_{jj}$.

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \\ 10 & 11 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

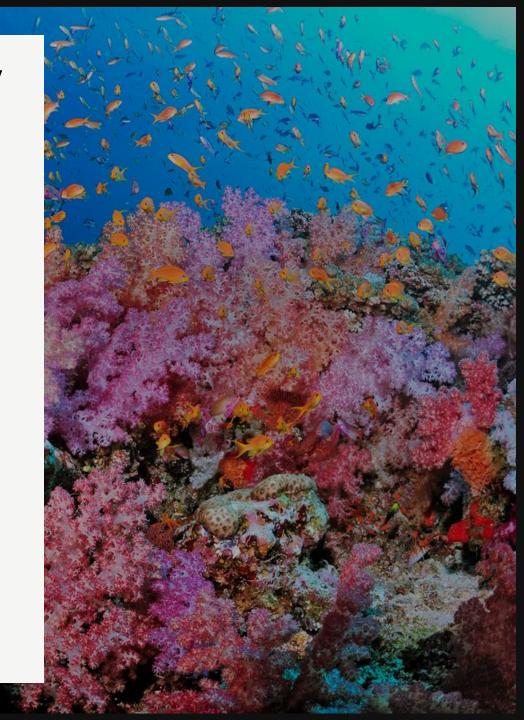
$$\mathbf{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 & 10 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 & 11 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$



A square matrix that is equal to its transpose is **symmetric**.

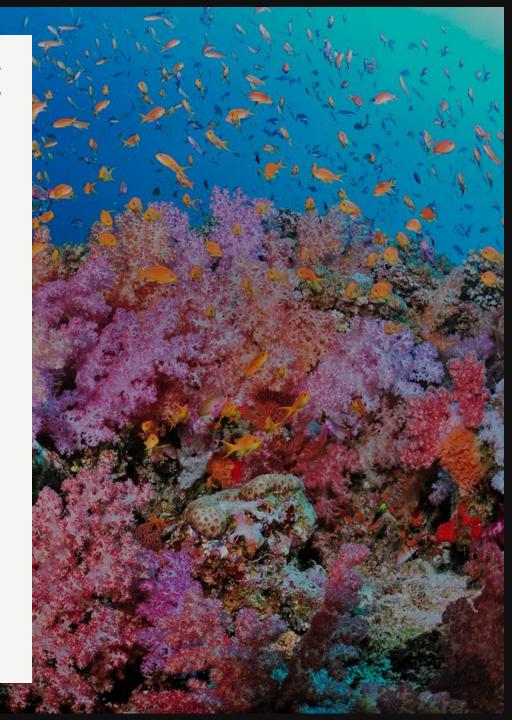
$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Association $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ matrices are almost always symmetric across the diagonal



A vector is a column matrix with format (n x
 1) or row matrix with format (1 x p).

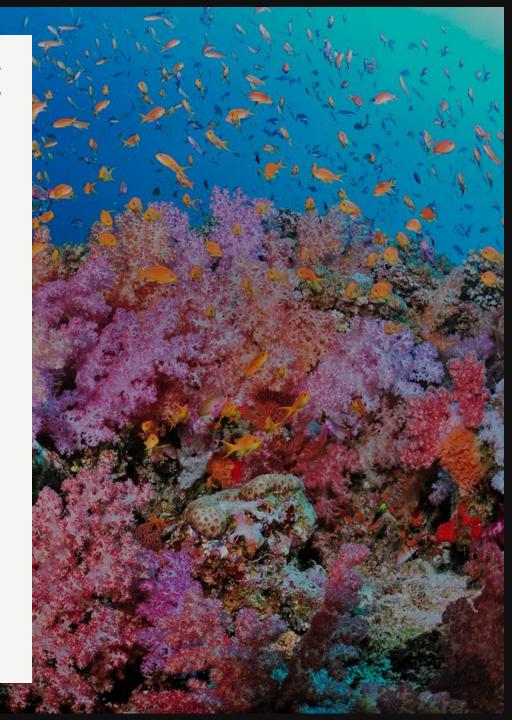
$$\mathbf{b} = egin{bmatrix} b_1 \ b_2 \ \vdots \ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

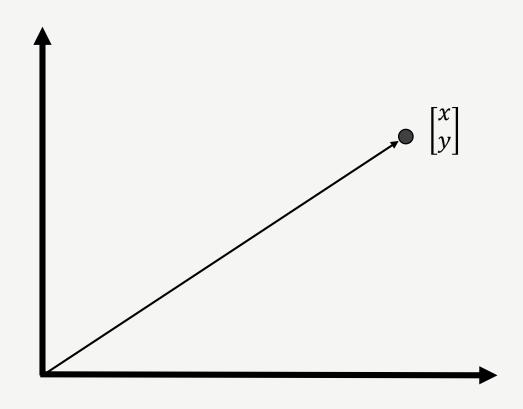


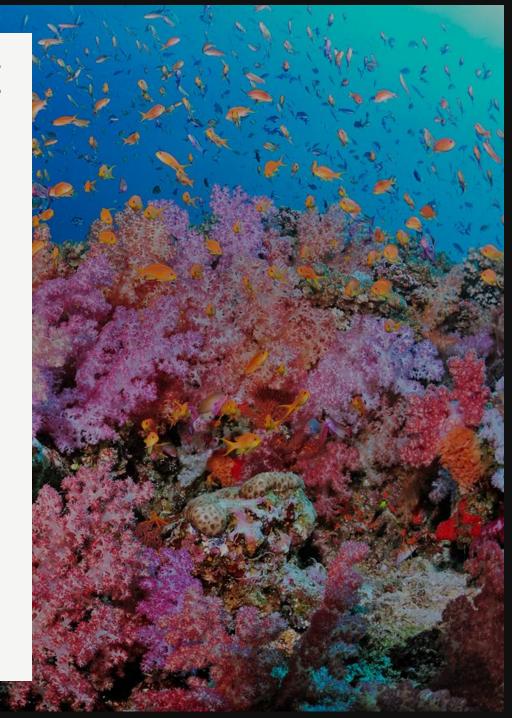
A vector is a column matrix with format (n x
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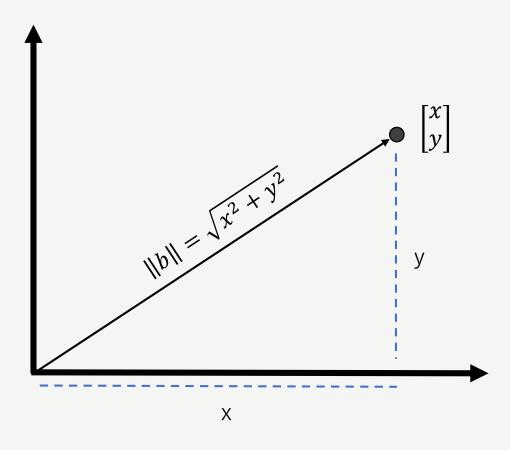
$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

A vector graphically refers to the end-point of a line segment in *n*-dimensional Euclidean space.

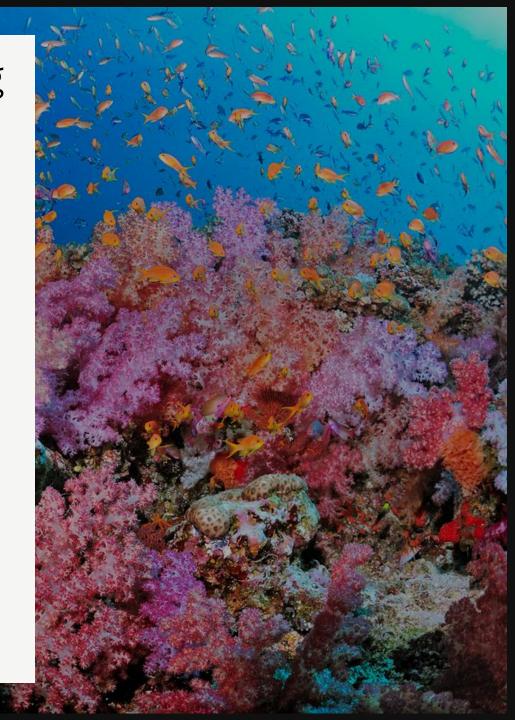




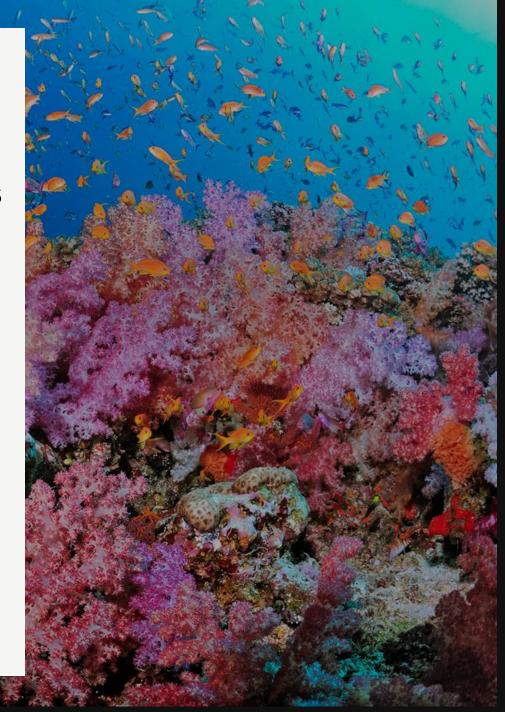




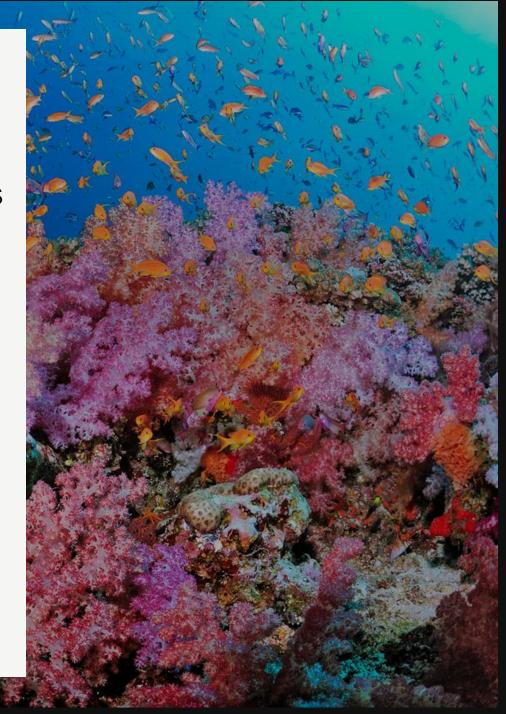
Thus, the length (or norm) of any vector ($\parallel \mathbf{b} \parallel$) can be calculated using Pythagorean's theorem



 A scaled vector whereby all elements are divided by the same characteristic value allows for direct comparison among vectors.



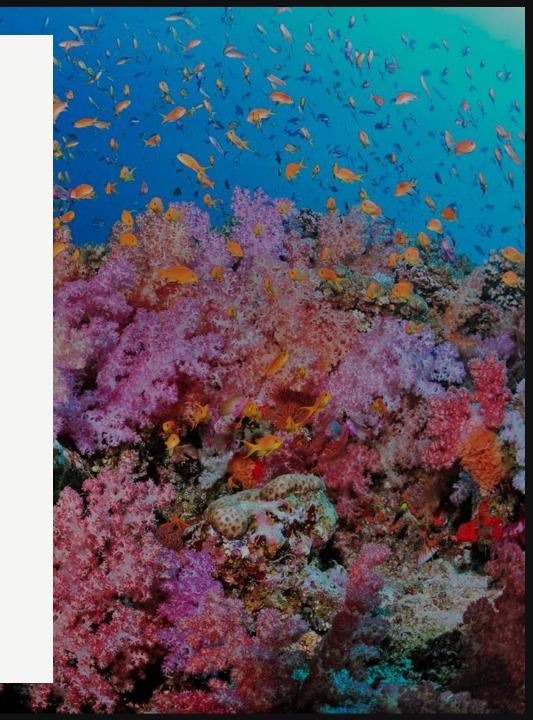
- A scaled vector whereby all elements are divided by the same characteristic value allows for direct comparison among vectors.
- A normalized vector is scaled by the length of the vector (|| b ||). The length of any normalized vector in n-dimensional space is equal to 1.



 Matrix addition is the process of adding two matrices by adding their corresponding elements.

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} \text{ where } \mathbf{C}_{ij} = \mathbf{A}_{ij} + \mathbf{B}_{ij}$$

Matrices must be of the same dimensions (i.e., both matrices must have the same number of rows and columns).

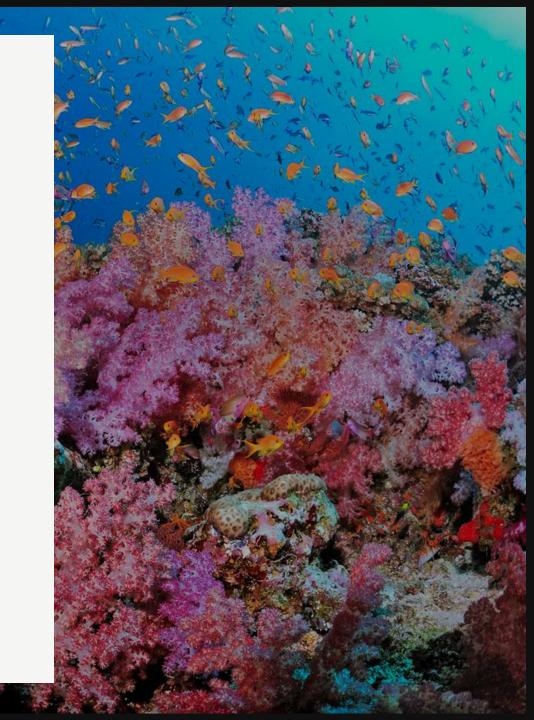


 Matrix addition is the process of adding two matrices by adding their corresponding elements.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

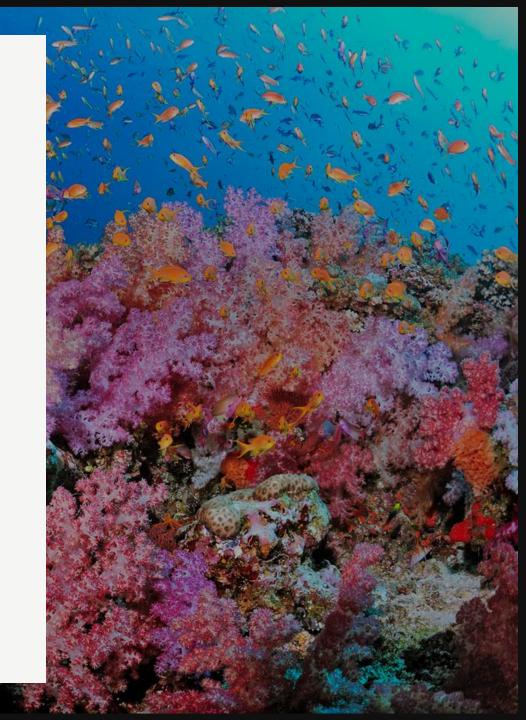
Example application: combining environmental variables from two different datasets for the same set of sampling locations.



 Matrix multiplication involves multiplying rows of the first matrix by columns of the second matrix and summing the products.

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} \text{ where } \mathbf{C}_{ij} = \sum_{k} \mathbf{A}_{ik} \times \mathbf{B}_{kj}$$

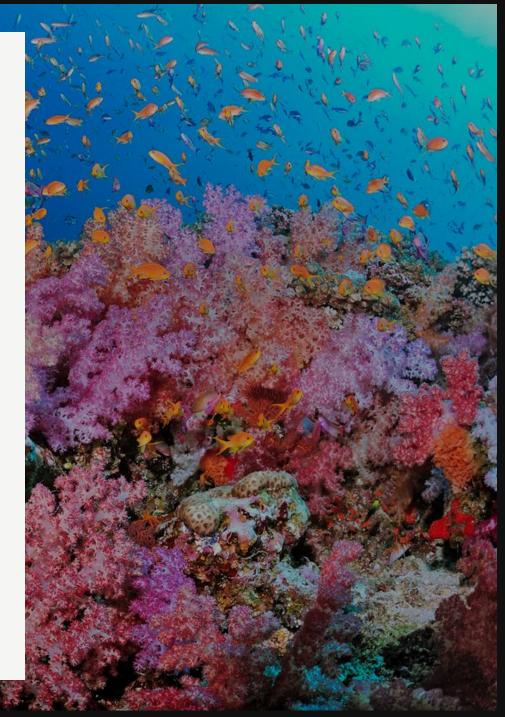
The number of columns in the first matrix (A) must equal the number of rows in the second matrix (B).



 Matrix multiplication involves multiplying rows of the first matrix by columns of the second matrix and summing the products.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example application: Transforming species abundance data by a matrix representing environmental influence factors.



 Matrix multiplication involves multiplying rows of the first matrix by columns of the second matrix and summing the products.

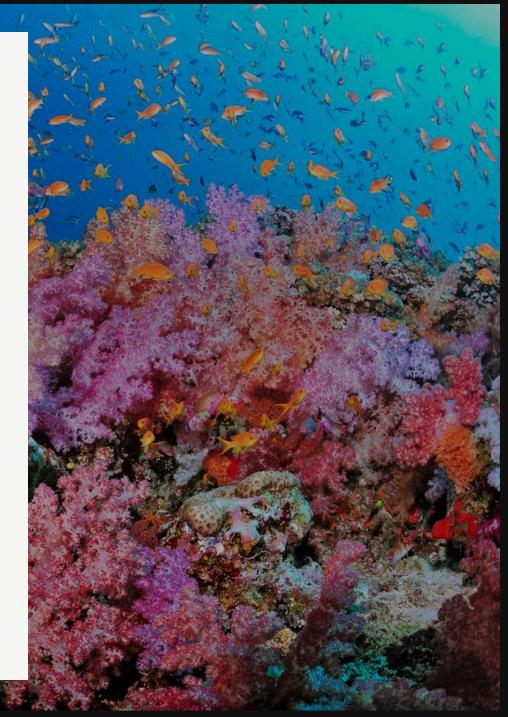
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \times 1 + 1 \times 2 & 0 \times 1 + 2 \times 2 & 3 \times 1 + 1 \times 2 \\ 2 \times 3 + 1 \times 4 & 0 \times 3 + 2 \times 4 & 3 \times 3 + 1 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} =$$

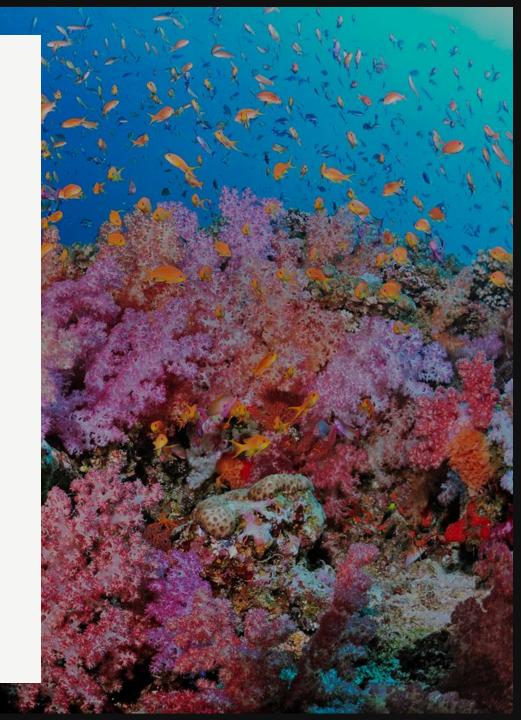
$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 & 5 \\ 10 & 8 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example application: Transforming species abundance data by a matrix representing sampling effort.



 The dot product (or scalar product) of two vectors is a single number obtained by multiplying corresponding entries and summing those products.

$$\mathbf{b} \bullet \mathbf{c} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{b}_i \times \mathbf{c}_i$$

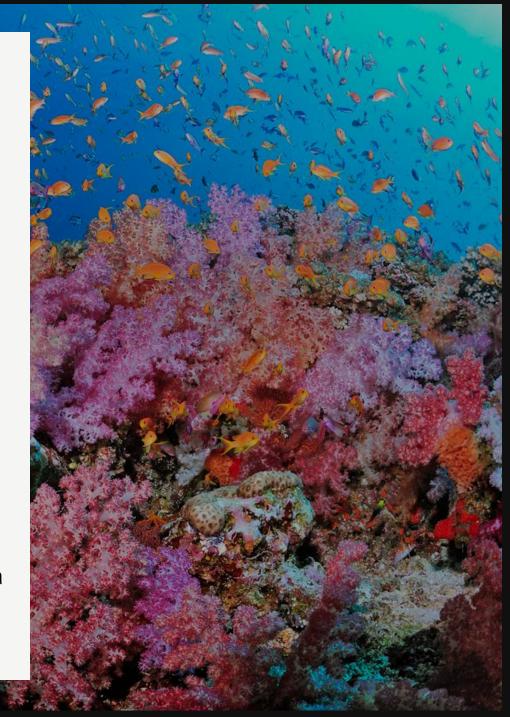


 The dot product (or scalar product) of two vectors is a single number obtained by multiplying corresponding entries and summing those products.

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 \\ 0.5 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 15 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 0.3 \times 10 + 0.5 \times 15 + 0.2 \times 5 = 11.5$$

Example application: Transforming species abundance data by a matrix representing sampling effort.

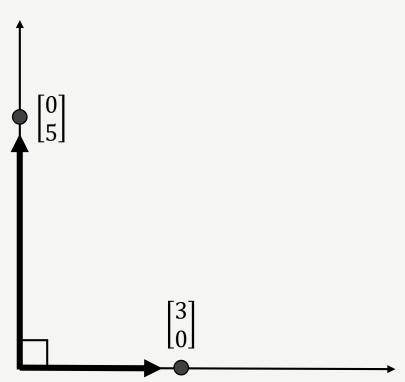


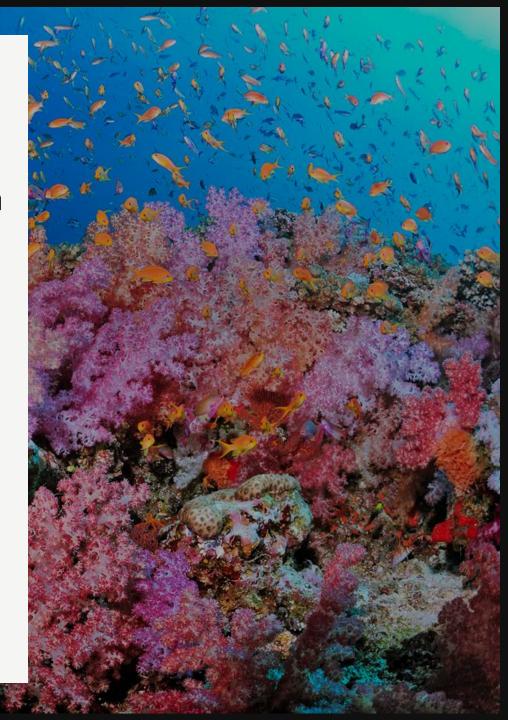
• If the scalar product is zero, the two vectors are said to be **orthogonal** (at a 90° angle) from one-another.

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

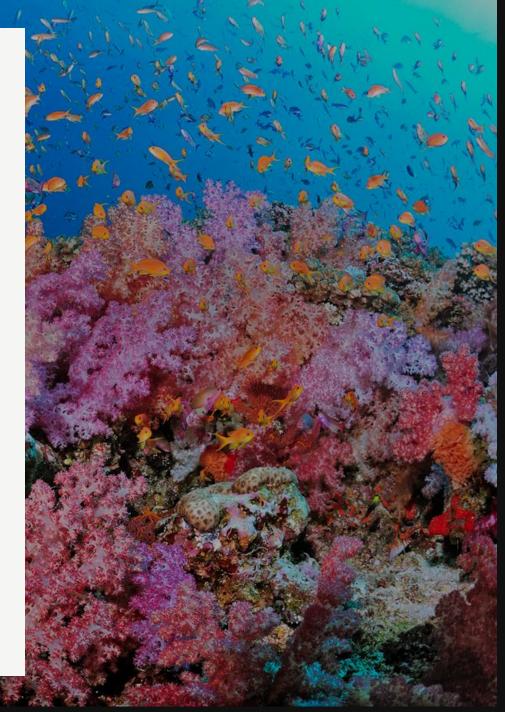
$$\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c} = \\ \mathbf{3} \times \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{5} = \mathbf{0}$$





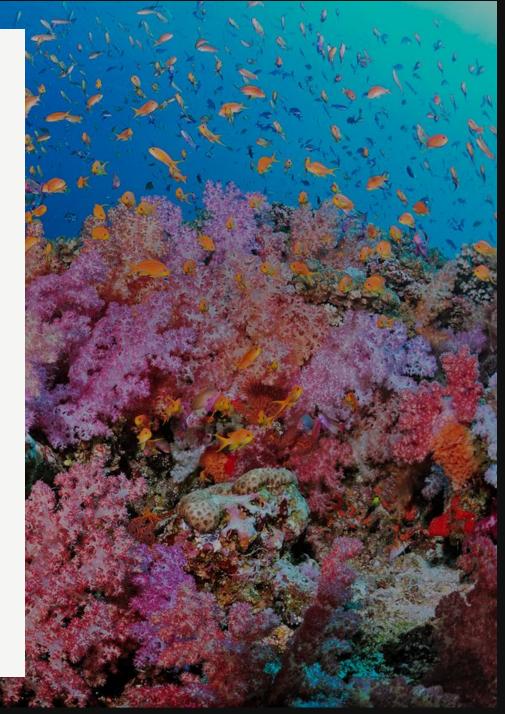
Matrix Notation: Determinants and Ranks

• The **determinant** of a <u>square</u> matrix (|**B**|) is a scalar value that captures important properties of the matrix, including whether the matrix is invertible.



• The **determinant** of a <u>square</u> matrix (|**B**|) is a scalar value that captures important properties of the matrix, including whether the matrix is invertible.

A matrix is invertible only if its determinant is non-zero!

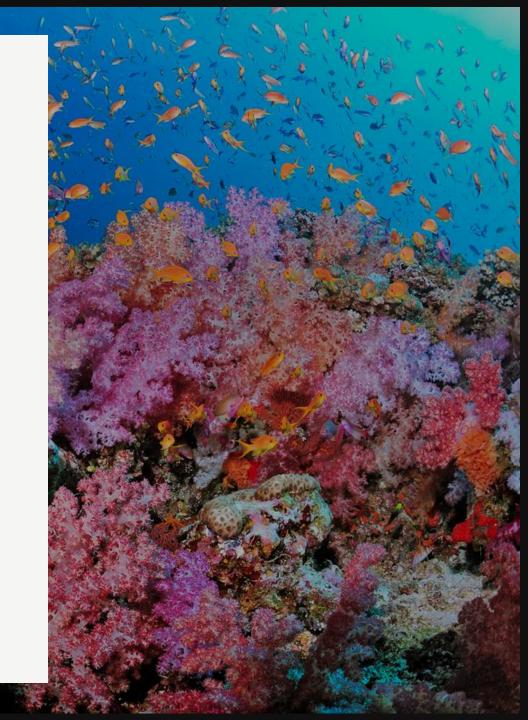


• For a 2 x 2 matrix:
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

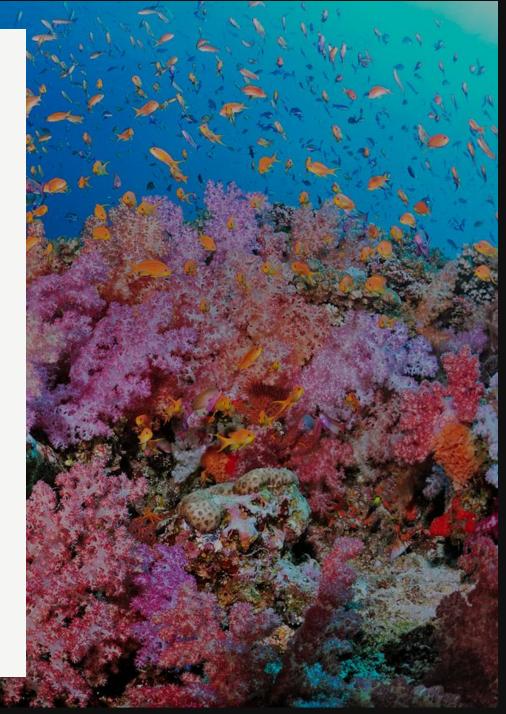
$$|\mathbf{A}| = ad - bc$$

• For a 3 x 3 matrix:
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

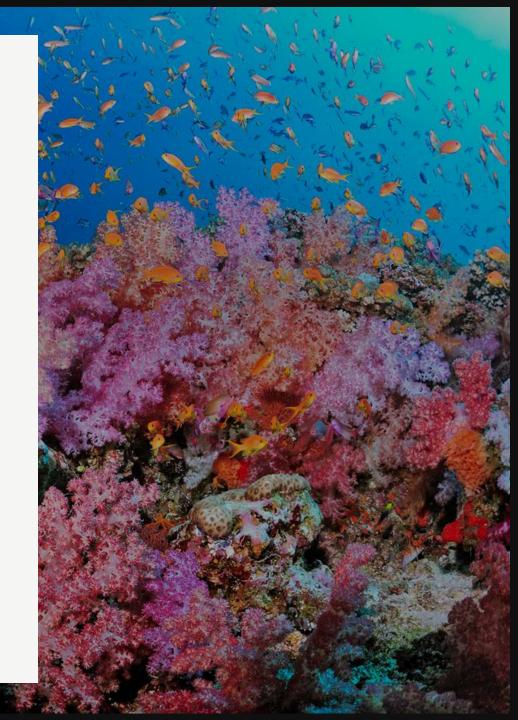
$$|\mathbf{A}| = a(ei - fh) - b(di - fg) + c(dh - eg)$$



Understanding Matrix Invertibility: A matrix is **invertible** if its determinant is non-zero. In ecological data analysis, many methods require the inversion of matrices (e.g., solving systems of linear equations, canonical correspondence analysis).

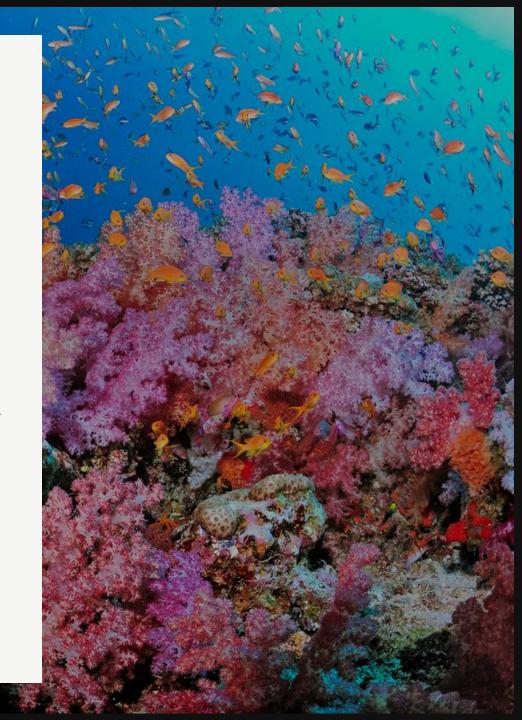


- The rank of a <u>square</u> matrix is the maximum number of linearly independent rows or columns in the matrix.
- A set of vectors (rows or columns of a matrix)
 is linearly independent if no vector in the set
 can be expressed as a linear combination of
 the others.

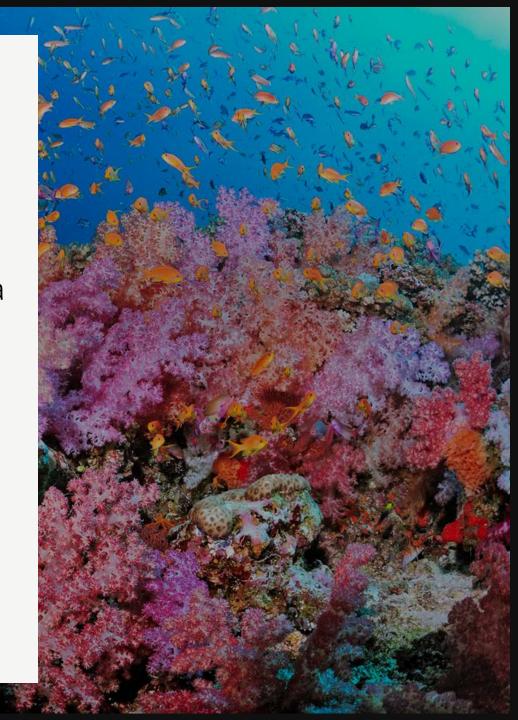


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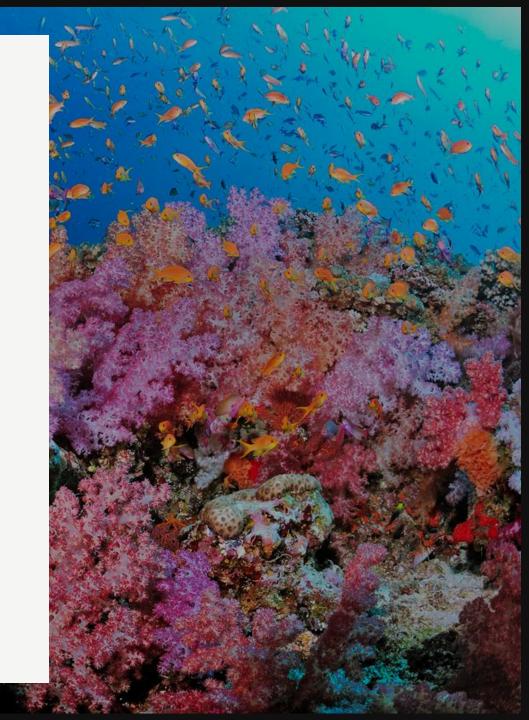
A matrix with a rank lower than its order has a determinant of zero and is not invertible.



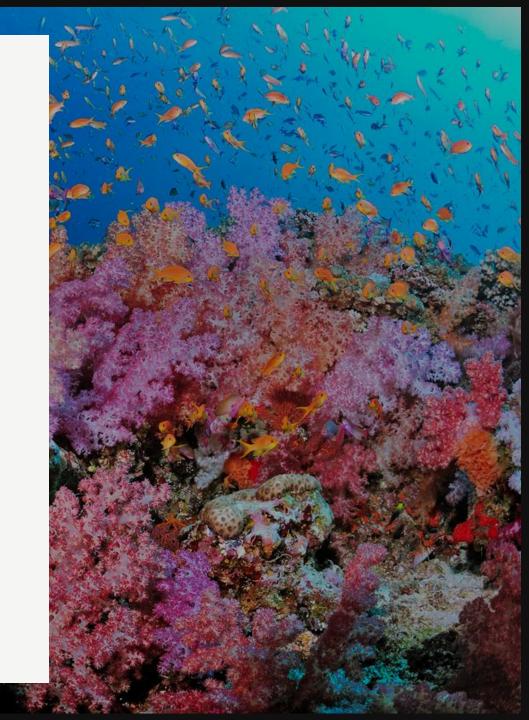
- **Eigenvalues** (λ) are scalars that satisfy the equation $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$, where \mathbf{A} is a square matrix (for example, an association matrix) and \mathbf{u} is a non-zero vector.
- **Eigenvectors** (**u**) are non-zero vectors that, when multiplied by the matrix **A**, result in a vector that is a scalar multiple of itself.



 The goal is to generate a small number of linearly independent variables, each explaining a large portion of the variation.

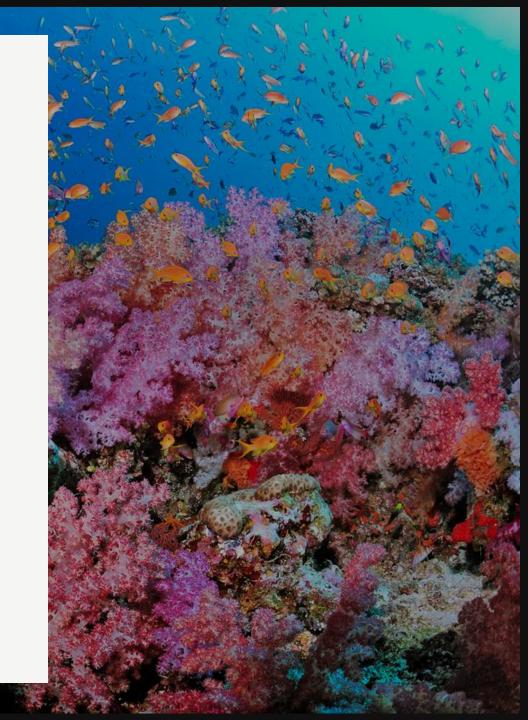


- The goal is to generate a small number of linearly independent variables, each explaining a large portion of the variation.
- i.e., generate a diagonal matrix equivalent to the square matrix A



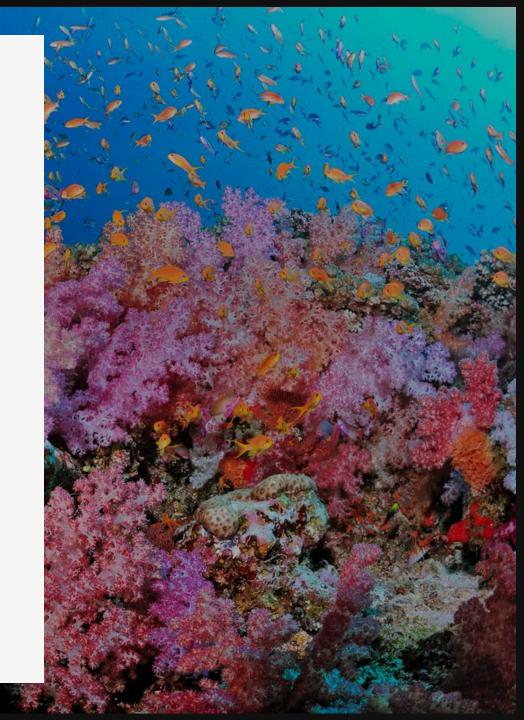
Solving for eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$



- Solving for eigenvalues and eigenvectors:
- 1) Form the characteristic equation

$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = \begin{bmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 1 \\ 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$



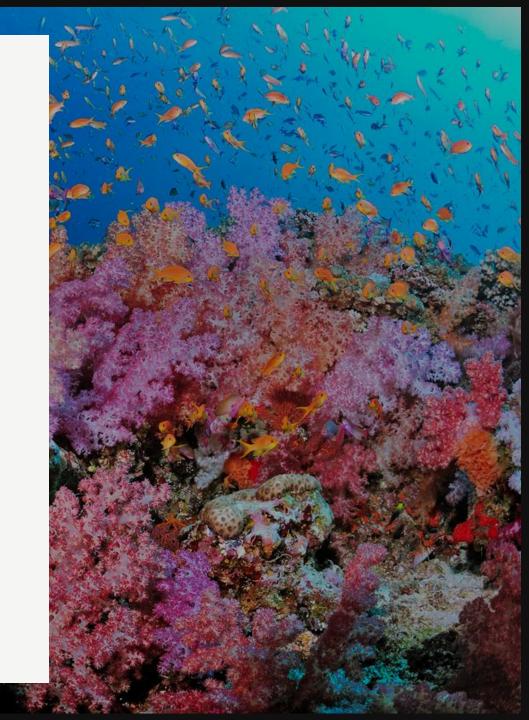
- Solving for eigenvalues and eigenvectors:
- 2) Solve for eigenvalues (λ)

$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = \begin{bmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 1 \\ 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$(4 - \lambda) \times (3 - \lambda) - 2 \times 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 = 0$$

$$(\lambda - 2) \times (\lambda - 5) = 0$$



- Solving for eigenvalues and eigenvectors:
- 2) Solve for eigenvalues (λ)

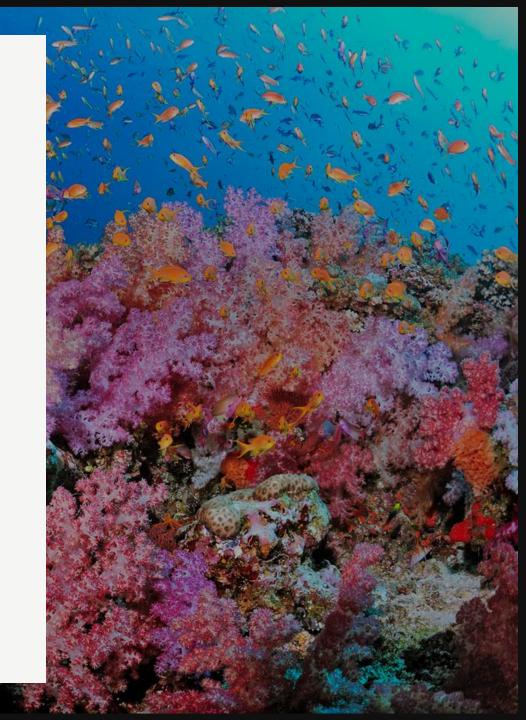
$$|\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = \begin{bmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 1 \\ 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$(4 - \lambda) \times (3 - \lambda) - 2 \times 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 = 0$$

$$(\lambda - 2) \times (\lambda - 5) = 0$$

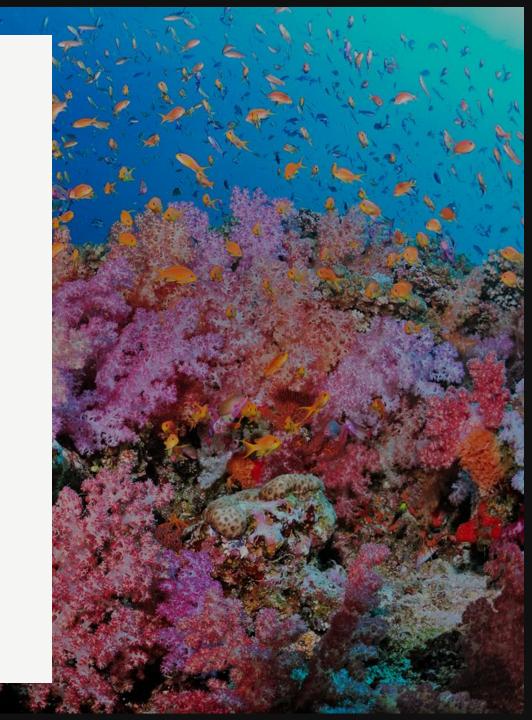
$$\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 5$$



- Solving for eigenvalues and eigenvectors:
- 3) Solve for eigenvectors (**u**)

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{u} = 0$$

$$(\mathbf{A} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}_1 \mathbf{I}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\mathbf{A} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}_2 \mathbf{I}) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

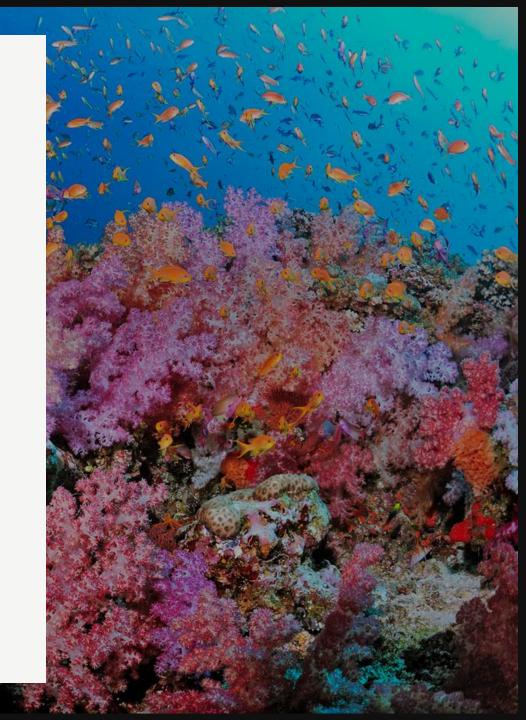


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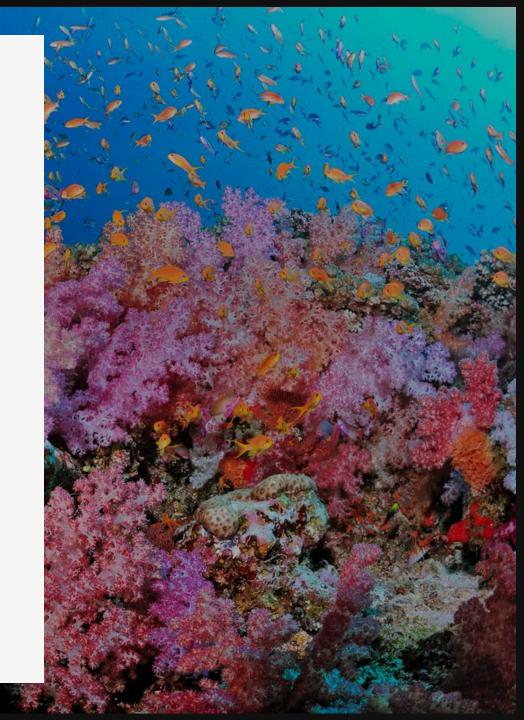
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$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$

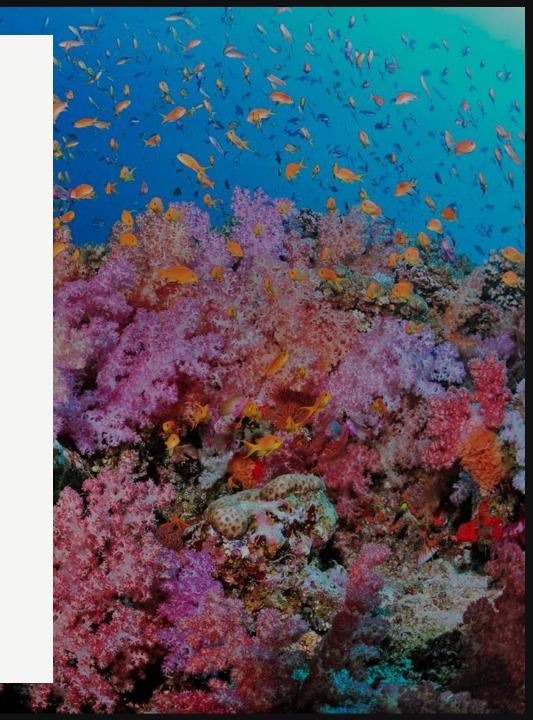


Properties:

- 1. The sum of the eigenvalues (λ) equals the trace of the matrix A.
- 2. The product of the eigenvalues (λ) equals the determinant of the matrix A.
- 3. Eigenvectors (\mathbf{u}) corresponding to distinct eigenvalues ($\boldsymbol{\lambda}$) are linearly independent.
- 4. Eigenvectors (**u**) are orthogonal.

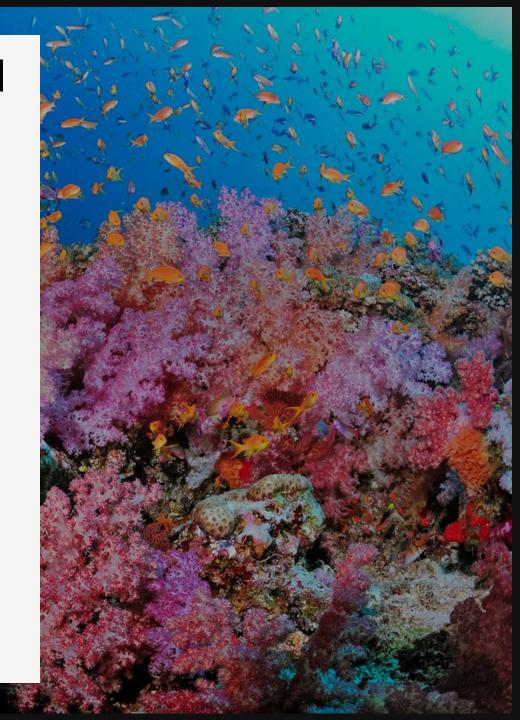


Association Matrices



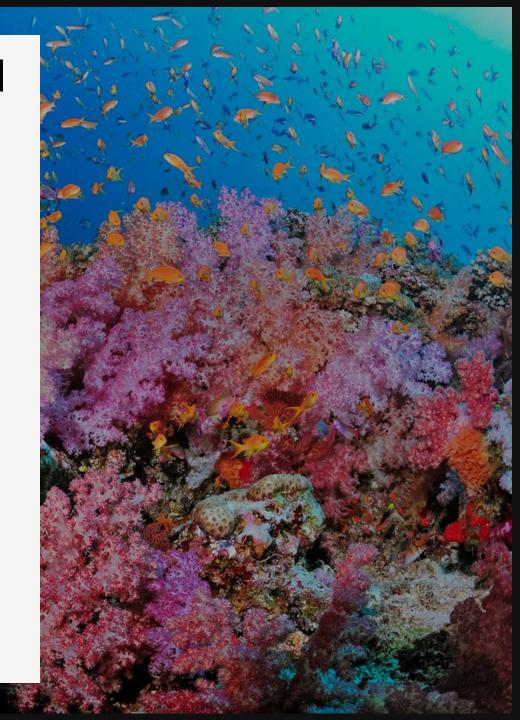
An **association matrix** (**A**) assesses the degree of resemblance among objects (*Q-mode*) or descriptors (*R-mode*) for all element pairs.

Producing an association matrix is the first step in the numerical analysis of ecological data!



An **association matrix** (**A**) assesses the degree of resemblance among objects (*Q-mode*) or descriptors (*R-mode*) for all element pairs.

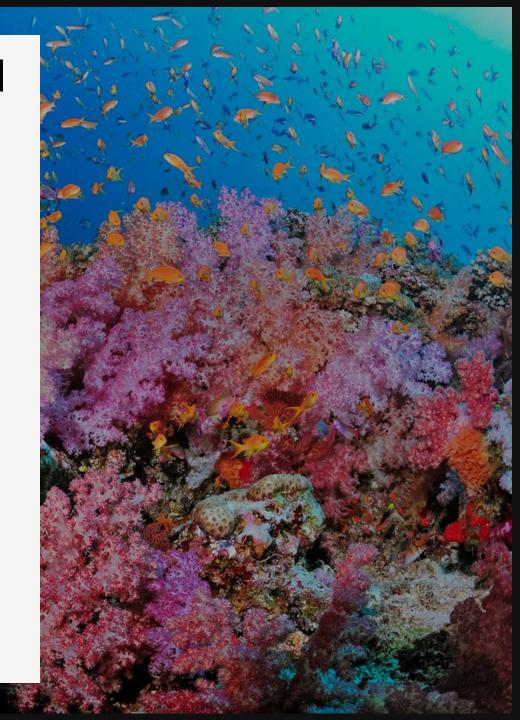
Similarity coefficients are maximum (S = 1) when two objects are identical and minimum (S = 0) when two objects are completely different.



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Dissimilarities follow the opposite rule.

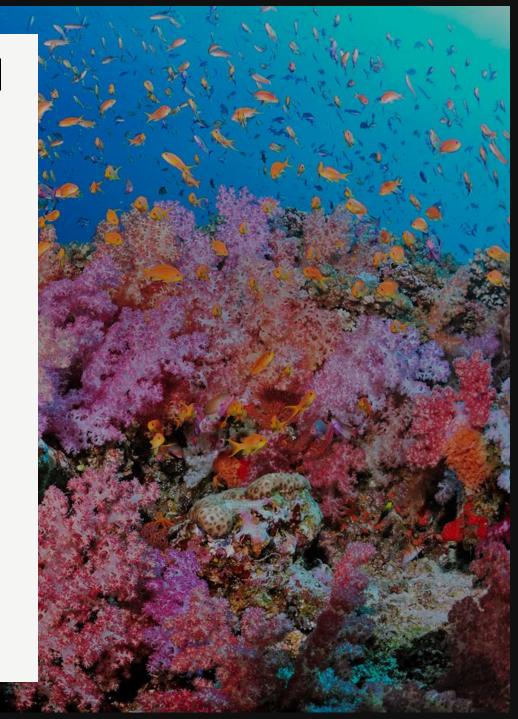


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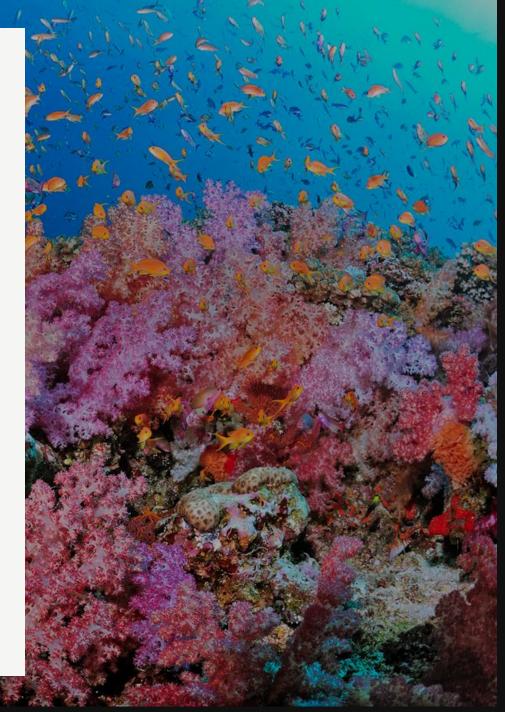
Similarity coefficients are maximum (S = 1) when two objects are identical and minimum (S = 0) when two objects are completely different.

Dissimilarities follow the opposite rule.

Distances may not be bound by a predetermined upper limit, but can be normalized.

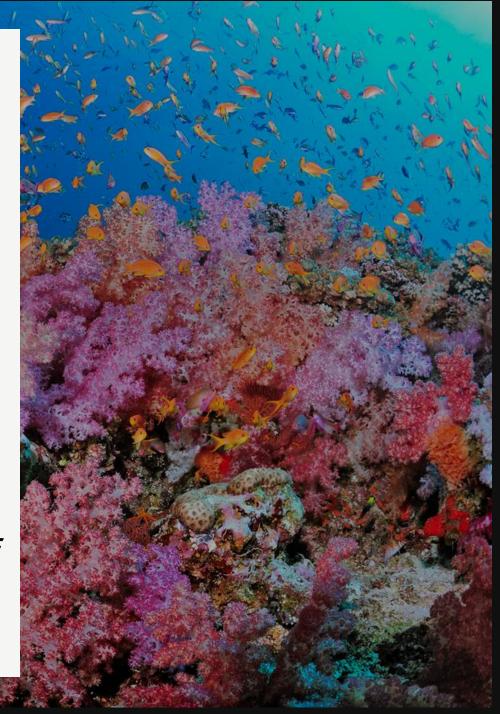


• If a species is present at two sites, it is generally an indicator of similarity (favorability, tolerability) between these two sites...



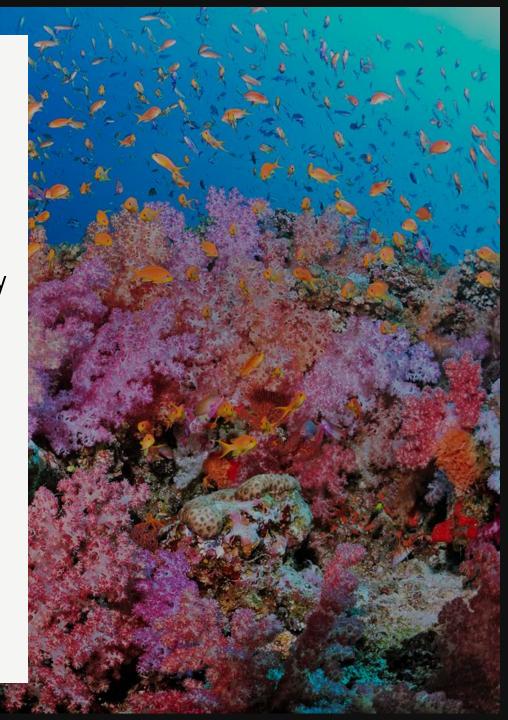
- If a species is present at two sites, it is generally an indicator of similarity (favorability, tolerability) between these two sites...
- However, absences can occur for many reasons, indicate a variety of environmental conditions, and do not necessarily signify environmental similarity

Most scientists do not consider the absence of a species at two sites to provide useful information.



• Here, we encounter the double zero problem.

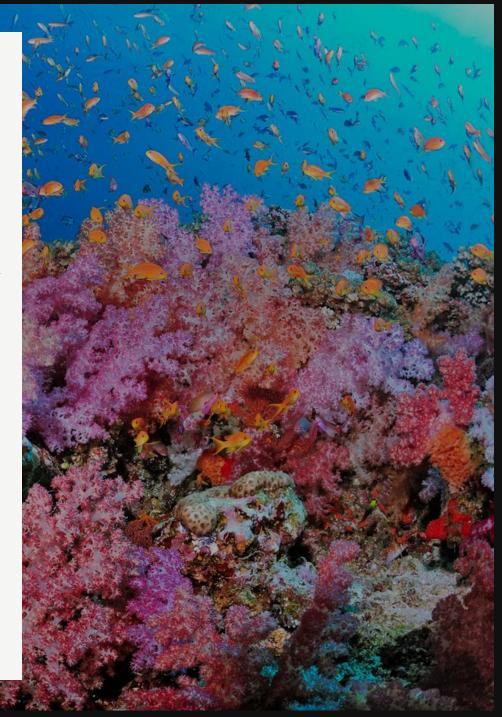
Is the value of an association coefficient affected by inclusion of double zeros in its calculation?



• Here, we encounter the double zero problem.

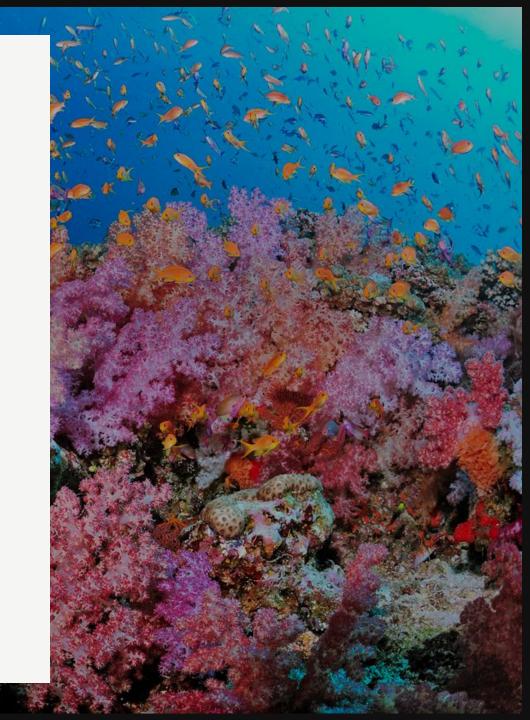
Is the value of an association coefficient affected by inclusion of double zeros in its calculation?

- Symmetrical association coefficients treat a zero value for a pair of objects as a complete similarity.
- **Asymmetrical** association coefficients ignore double zeros or treat them differently.

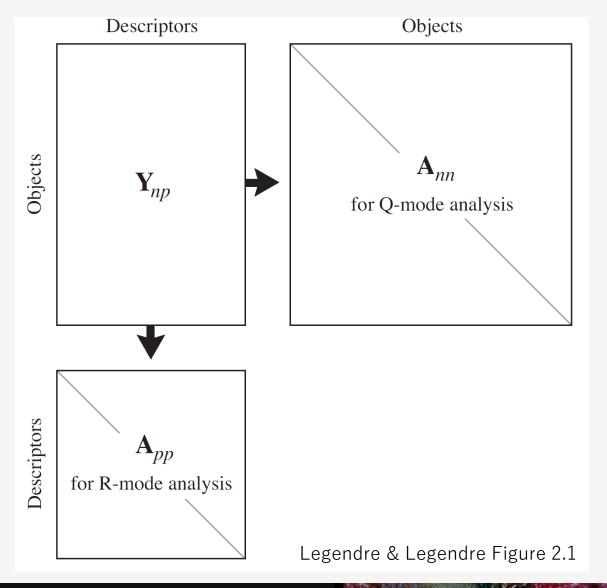


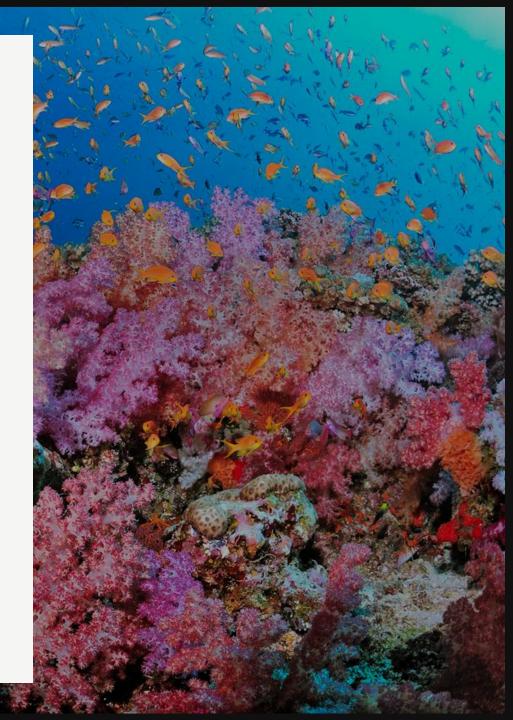
Association Matrices: Q vs. R Mode

An **association matrix** (**A**) assesses the degree of resemblance among objects (**Q-mode**) or descriptors (**R-mode**) for all element pairs.



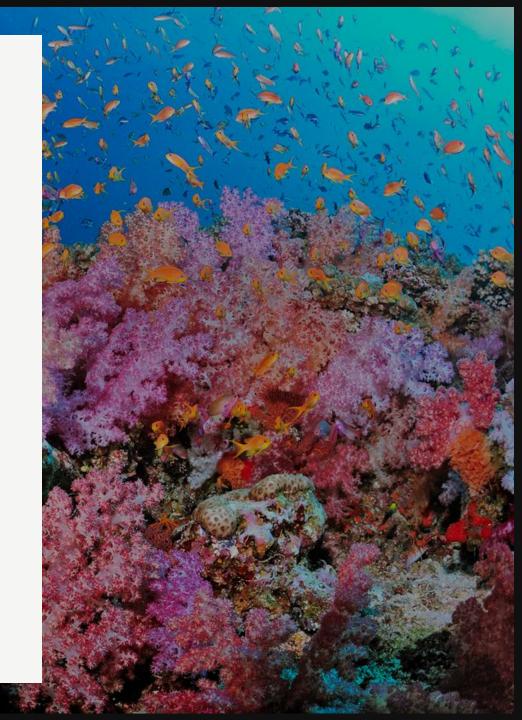
Association Matrices: Q vs. R Mode



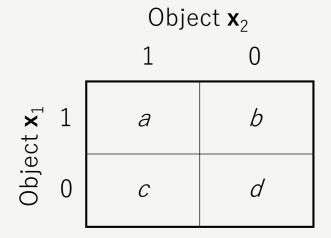


Association Matrices: Relationships Among Objects (Q Mode)

- Binary, presence/absence
- Quantitative, metric
- Quantitative, semimetric



Association Matrices: Simple Matching Coefficient



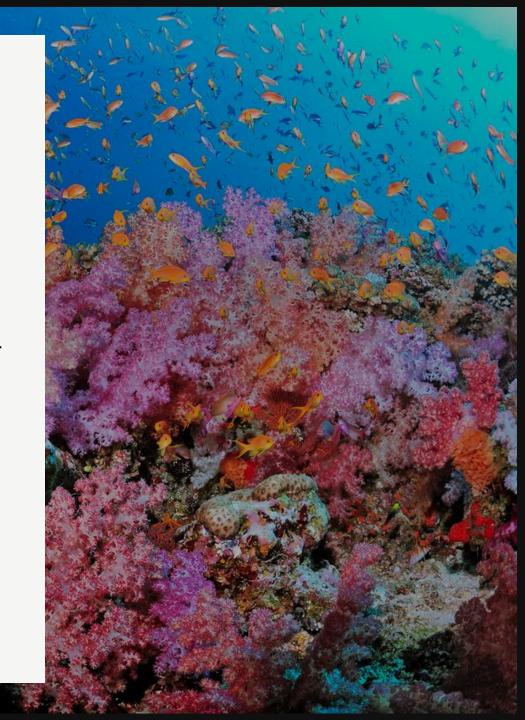
$$S(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{a+d}{a+b+c+d}$$

Use: Binary or presence/absence data

Association Type: Similarity

Range: 0–1

Symmetrical: Yes



Association Matrices: Jaccard's Coefficient

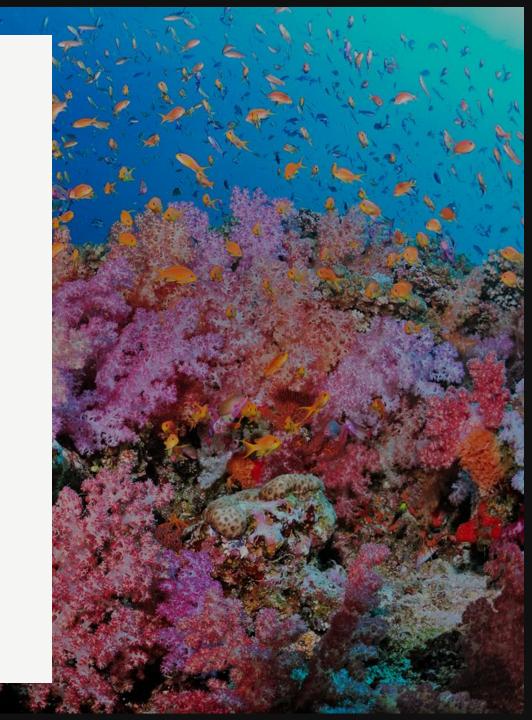
$$S\left(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}\right) = \frac{a}{a+b+c}$$

Use: Binary or presence/absence data

Association Type: Similarity

Range: 0–1

Symmetrical: No



Association Matrices: Sørensen Coefficient

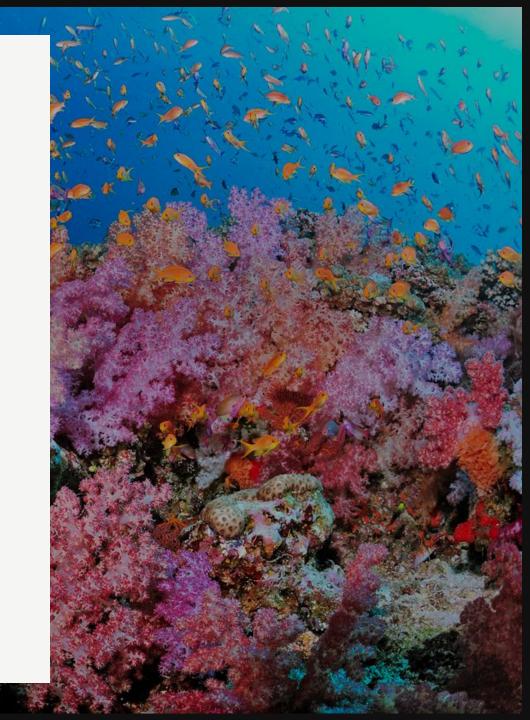
$$S\left(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}\right) = \frac{2a}{2a+b+c}$$

Use: Binary or presence/absence data

Association Type: Similarity

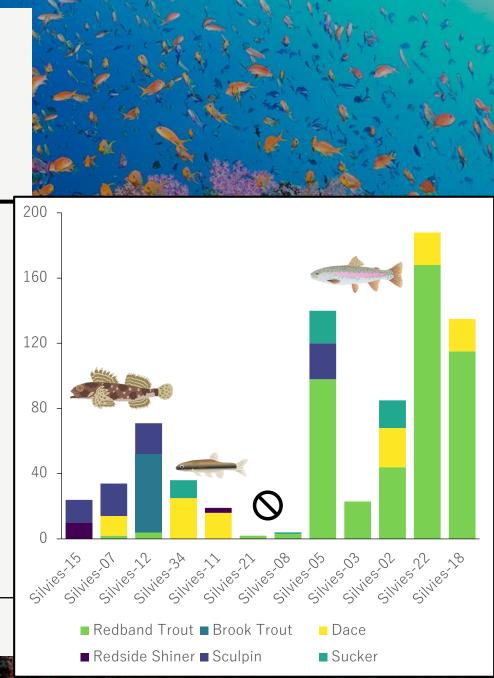
Range: 0–1

Symmetrical: No Metric: Semimetric



Association Matrices: Example Dataset

| | band Brod out Tro | | Redsi e Shin | | in Sucker |
|--------------|----------------------|----|-----------------|----|-----------|
| Silvies-15 | 0 0 | 0 | 10 | 14 | 0 |
| Silvies-07 | 2 0 | 12 | 0 | 20 | 0 |
| Silvies-12 | 4 48 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 0 |
| Silvies-34 | 0 0 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 11 |
| Silvies-11 | 0 0 | 16 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Silvies-21 | 2 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Silvies-08 | 3 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Silvies-05 | 0 88 | 0 | 0 | 22 | 20 |
| Silvies-03 2 | 23 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Silvies-02 4 | 14 0 | 24 | 0 | 0 | 17 |
| Silvies-22 1 | 68 0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Silvies-18 1 | 15 0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 |



Association Matrices: Euclidean Distance

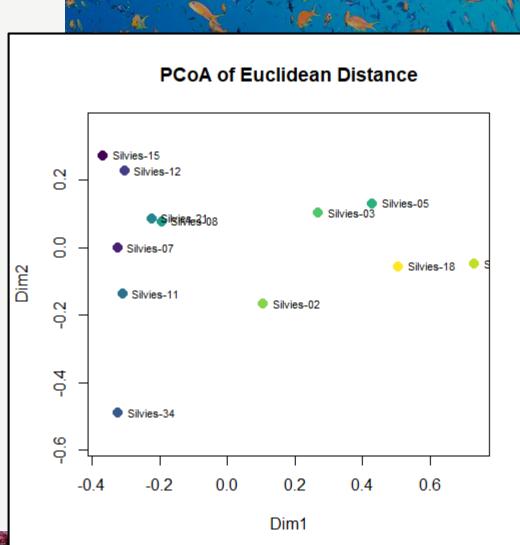
$$D(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (y_{1j} y_{2j})^{2}}$$

Use: Quantitative environmental data (*do not use for species abundance*)

Association Type: Distance

Range: $0-\infty$ (value depends on descriptor scale)

Symmetrical: Yes



Association Matrices: Manhattan Distance

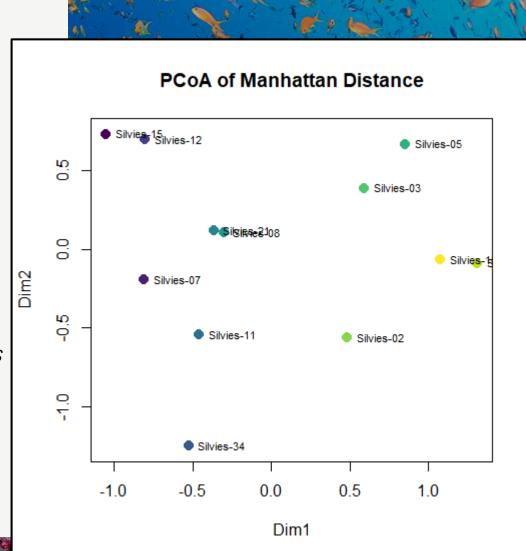
$$D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} |y_{1j} - y_{2j}|$$

Use: Quantitative environmental data (*do not use for species abundance*)

Association Type: Distance

Range: $0-\infty$ (value depends on descriptor scale)

Symmetrical: Yes



Association Matrices: Canberra Distance

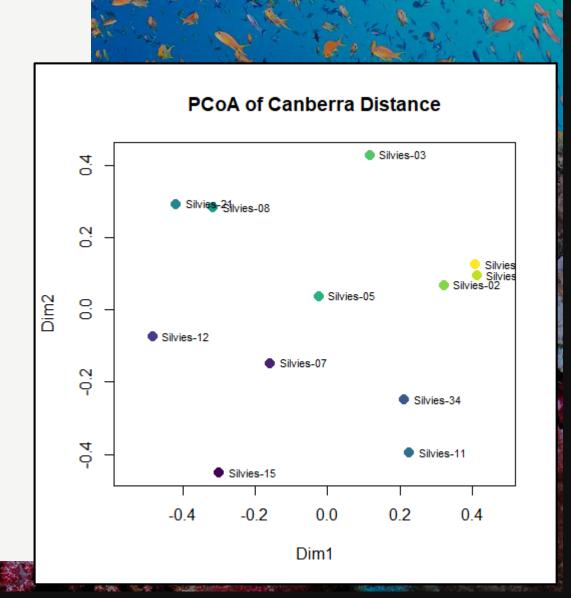
D
$$(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left[\frac{|y_{1j} - y_{2j}|}{(y_{1j} - y_{2j})} \right]$$

Use: Quantitative data; *rarer species contribute more to differences than abundant species*

Association Type: Distance

Range: $0-\infty$ (value depends on descriptor scale)

Symmetrical: No



Association Matrices: Chi-square Coefficients

$$D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \frac{1}{y_{+j}} \left(\frac{y_{1j}}{y_{1+}} - \frac{y_{2j}}{y_{2+}} \right)^2}$$

X² Metric

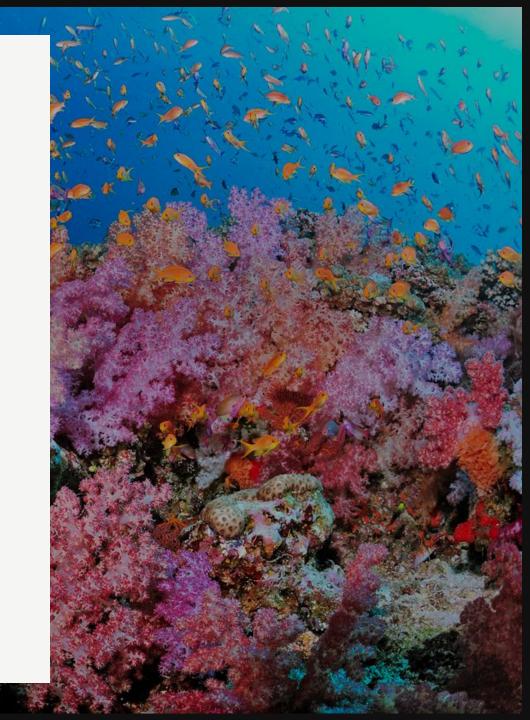
Use: Quantitative data; rarer species contribute more to

differences than abundant species

Association Type: Distance

Range: $0 - \sqrt{2}$

Symmetrical: No



Association Matrices: Chi-square Coefficients

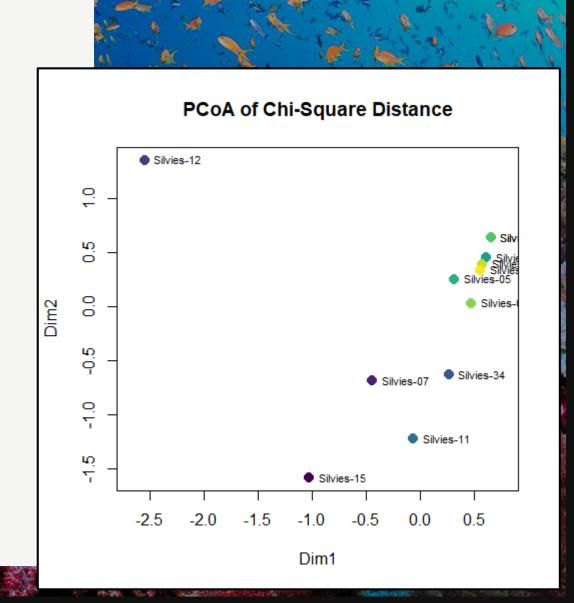
$$D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \sqrt{y_{++}} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \frac{1}{y_{+j}} \left(\frac{y_{1j}}{y_{1+}} - \frac{y_{2j}}{y_{2+}} \right)^2}$$

X² Distance

Use: Quantitative data; *rarer species contribute more to differences than abundant species*

Association Type: Distance

Range: $0 - \sqrt{2}y_{++}$ Symmetrical: No



Association Matrices: Percentage Difference/Bray-Curtis Dissimilarity

$$D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} |y_{1j} - y_{2j}|}{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (y_1 + y_{2j})}$$

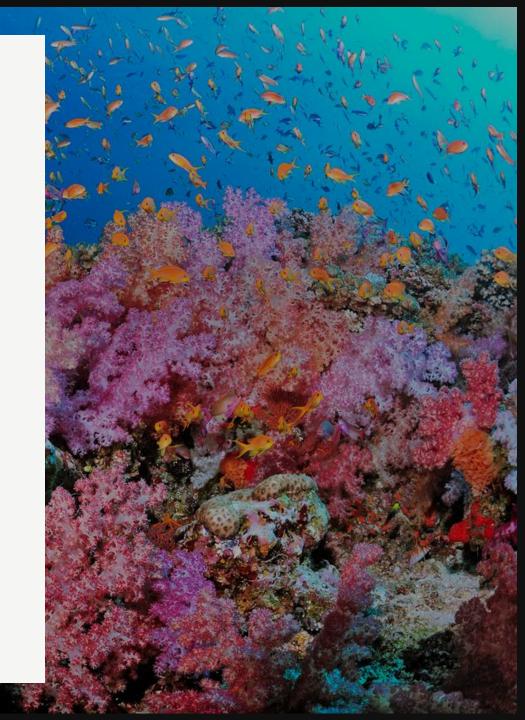
Use: Quantitative data; particularly suited to species

abundance

Association Type: Distance (Similarity = 1-D)

Range: 0–1

Symmetrical: No Metric: Semimetric



Association Matrices: Percentage Difference/Bray-Curtis Dissimilarity

$$D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p} |y_{1j} - y_{2j}|}{\sum_{j=1}^{p} (y_1 + y_{2j})} = 1 - \frac{2W}{A + B}$$

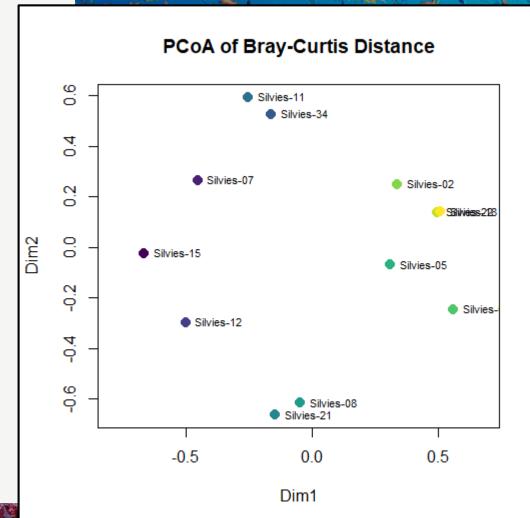
Where A and B are the sums of abundances of all species at each of the two sites and W is the sum of the minimum abundances of the species.

Use: Quantitative data; *particularly suited to species abundance*

Association Type: Distance (Similarity = 1-D)

Range: 0–1

Symmetrical: No Metric: Semimetric



Association Matrices: Gower's Coefficient

$$D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{p} partial \ similarity_{x_1, x_2}$$

Where the "partial similarity" value depends on data type.

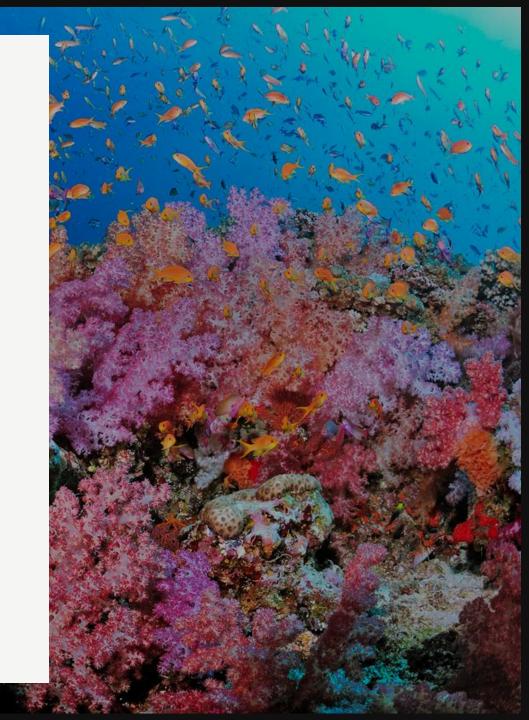
Use: Quantitative descriptors of mixed types

Association Type: Similarity

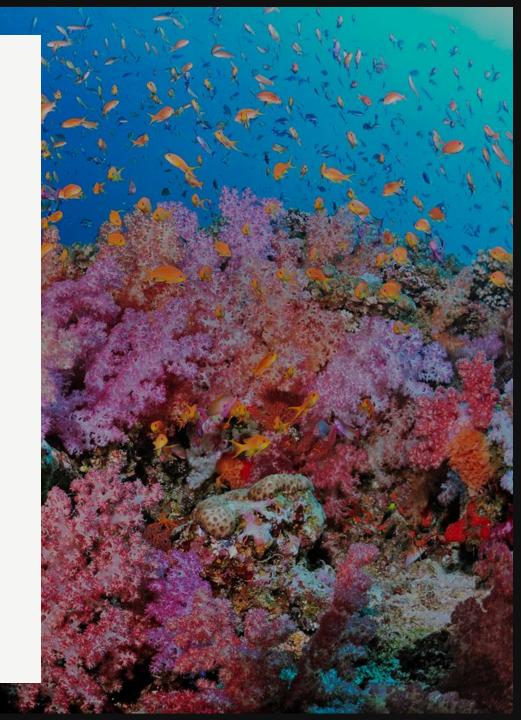
Range: 0–1

Symmetrical: Yes

Metric: Yes



- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's *r*
- Kendall's tau

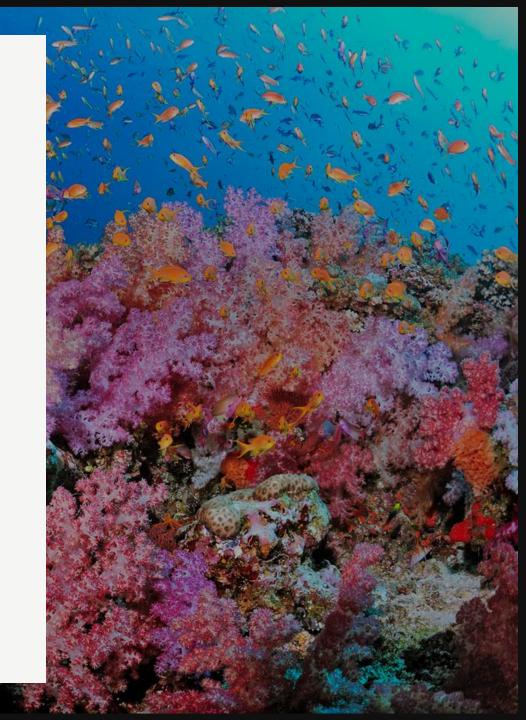


- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's *r*
- Kendall's tau

Pearson's correlation coefficient is a **parametric** measure of dependence.

Use: Quantitative descriptors (standardized) or species abundances

Range: -1 - 1 where 0 indicates complete independence

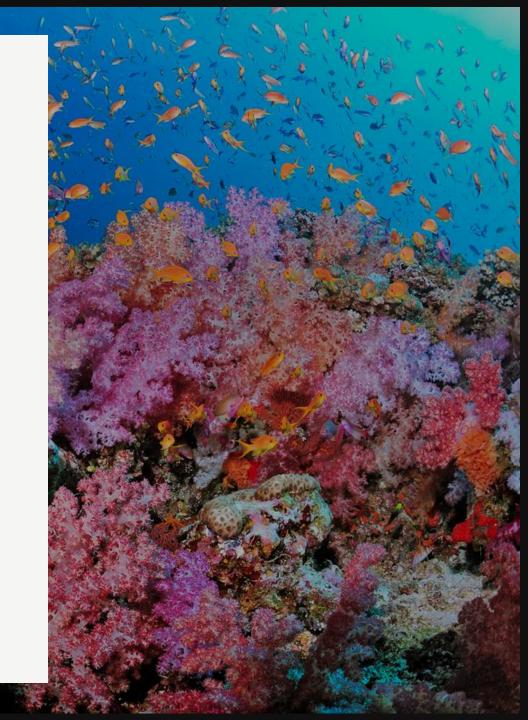


- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's r
- Kendall's tau

Spearman's *r* is a **nonparametric** measure of dependence whereby values are ranked prior to calculating Pearson's correlation coefficient.

Use: Quantitative descriptors (standardized) or species abundances

Range: -1 - 1 where 0 indicates complete independence

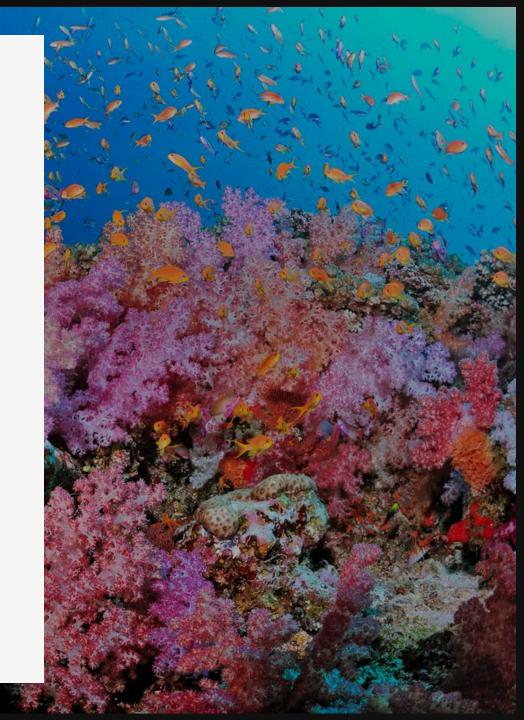


- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's *r*
- Kendall's tau

Kendall's tau is a **nonparametric** measure of dependence and is also a "rank" correlation coefficient.

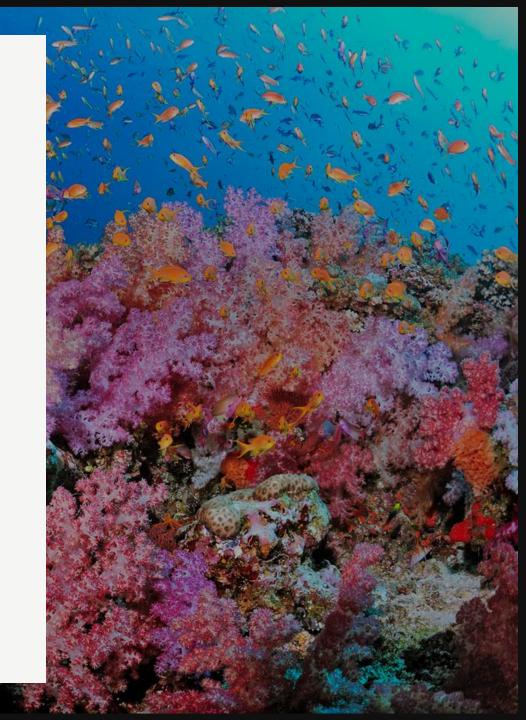
Use: Quantitative descriptors (standardized)

Range: -1 - 1 where 0 indicates complete independence



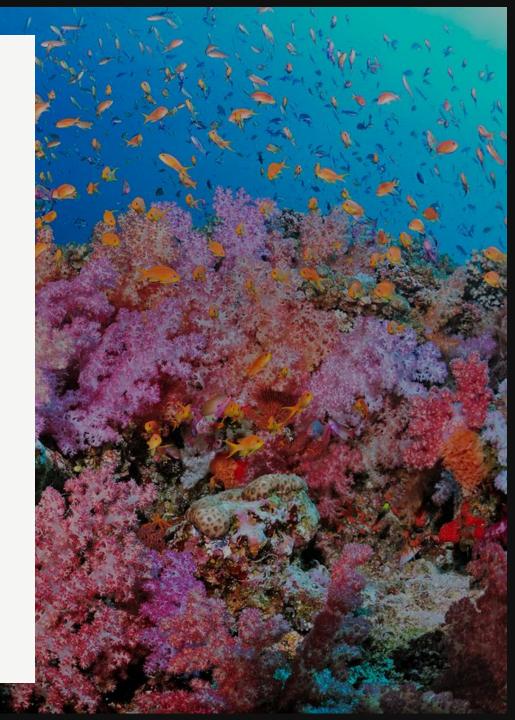
- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's *r*
- Kendall's tau

These coefficients are *not* to be used for Q-mode analysis.

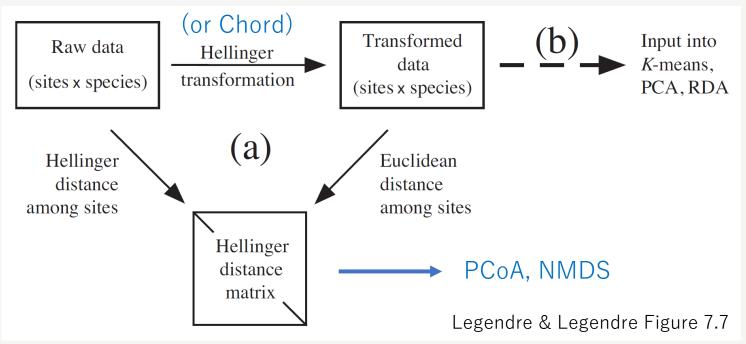


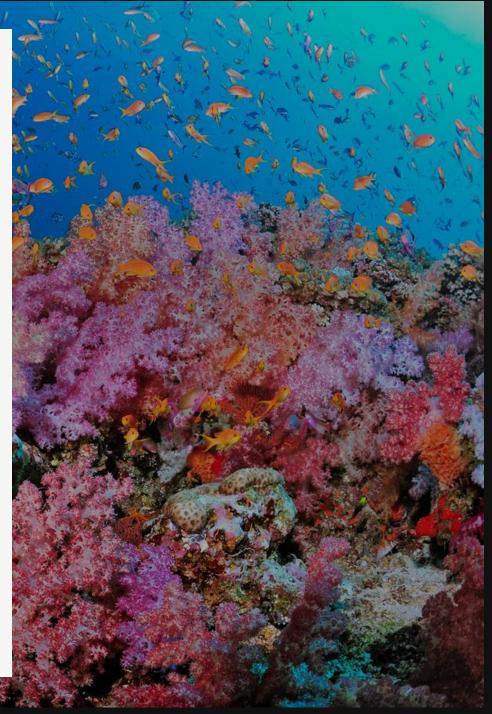
- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- Spearman's *r*
- Kendall's tau

Simple matching, Jaccard, and Sørensen's coefficients can be used for R-mode analysis of presence/absence data.



Association Matrices: Transformations Revisited





Association Matrices: Hellinger Distance

$$D(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{p} \left[\sqrt{\frac{y_{1j}}{y_{1+}}} - \sqrt{\frac{y_{2j}}{y_{2+}}} \right]^{2}}$$

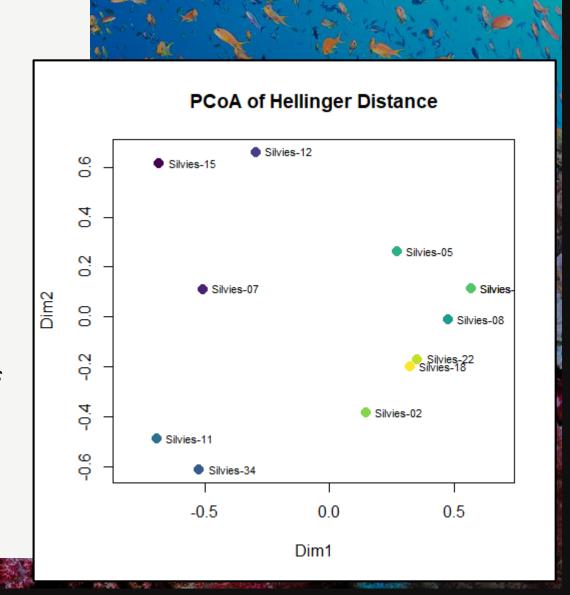
Use: Quantitative data; well suited for species abundances

Association Type: Distance

Range: $0 - \sqrt{2}$

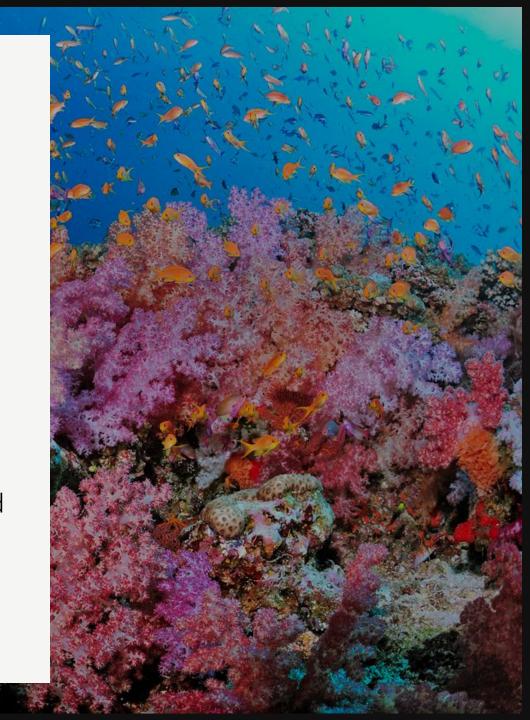
Symmetrical: No

Metric: Yes



Conclusion: Summary of Key Points

- An association matrix (A) assesses the degree of resemblance among:
 - Objects (Q-mode) or
 - Descriptors (**R-mode**) for all element pairs
- Association matrices are almost always square and symmetrical
- Similarity matrices indicate complete similarity when the coefficient = 1, while difference matrices are vice versa
 - Distance matrices may not have a pre-determined upper bound
- The double zero problem occurs when concurrent absences count toward the association coefficient



Questions?

