


Week 5: *Correlation*

 EMSE 4572: Exploratory Data Analysis

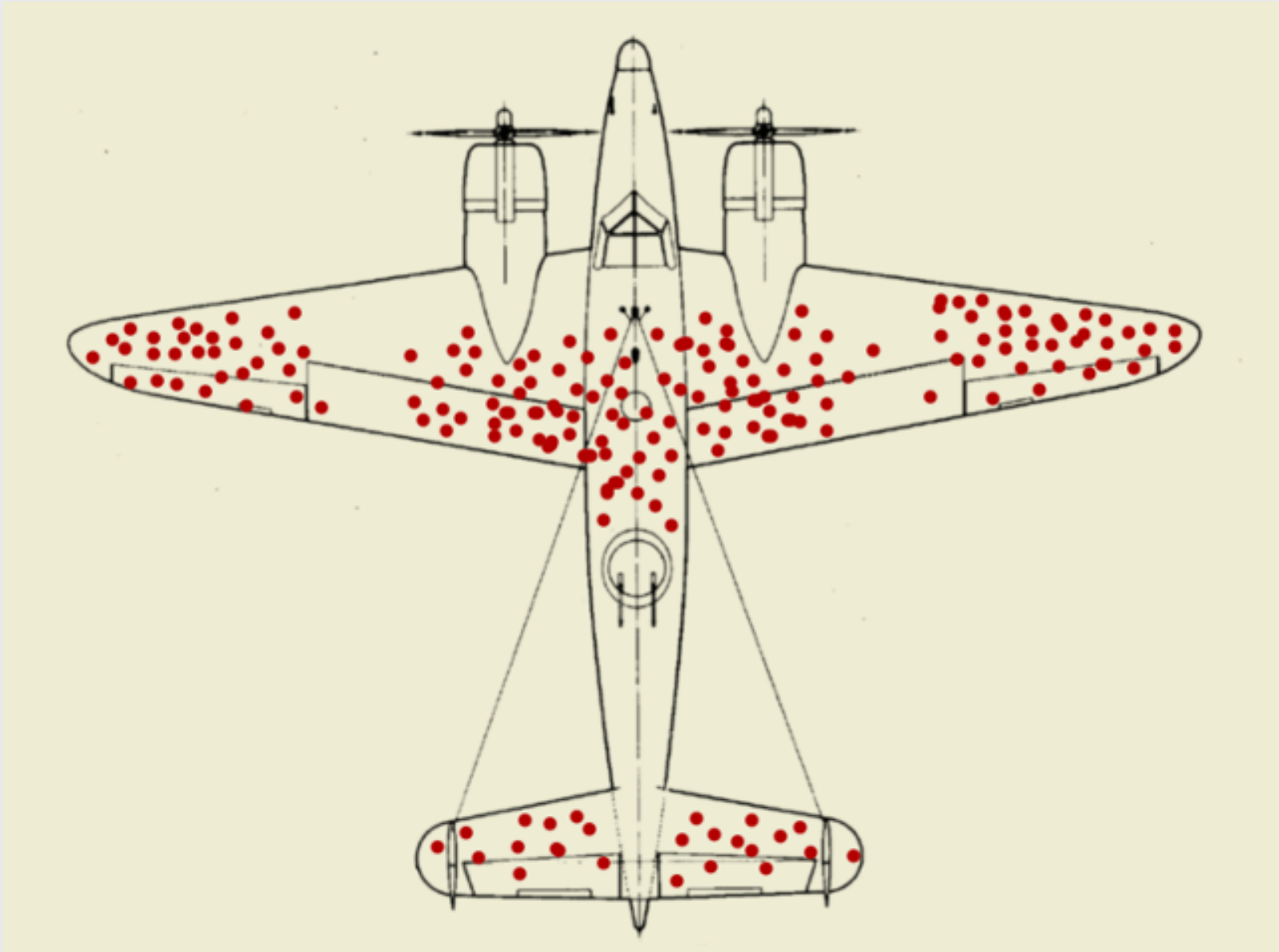
 John Paul Helveston

 September 28, 2022

Quick Rmd updates

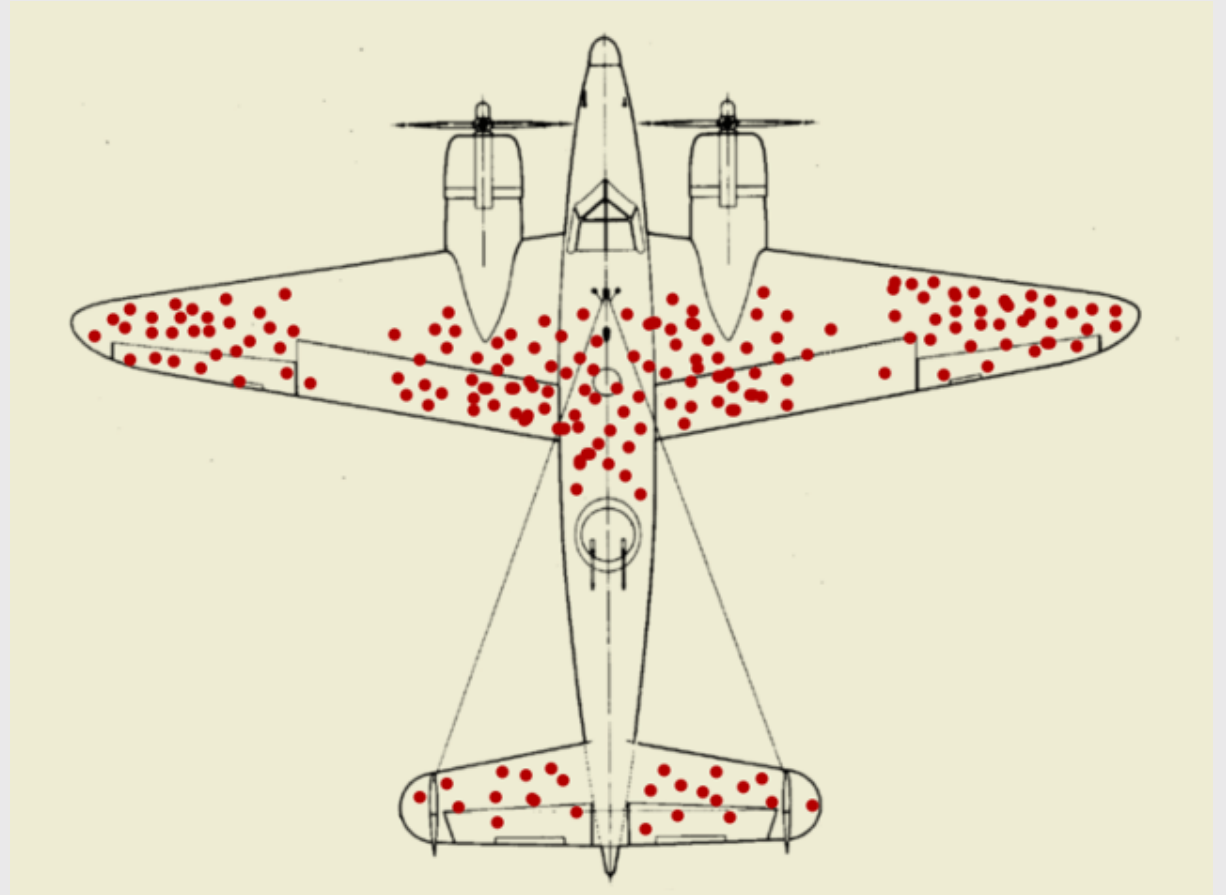
Tip of the week

All data are biased





Abraham Wald



Today's data

```
msleep <- read_csv(here::here('data', 'msleep.csv'))
```

New packages:

```
install.packages('HistData')  
install.packages('palmerpenguins')  
install.packages('GGally')
```

Week 5: *Correlation*

1. What is correlation?

2. Visualizing correlation

BREAK

3. Linear models

4. Visualizing linear models

Week 5: *Correlation*

1. What is correlation?

2. Visualizing correlation

BREAK

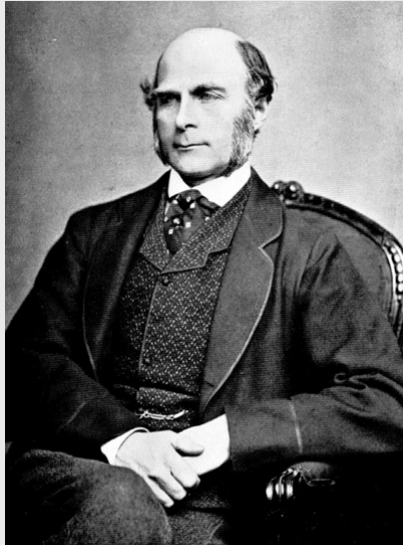
3. Linear models

4. Visualizing linear models

Some pretty racist origins in **eugenics** ("well born")

Sir Francis Galton (1822 - 1911)

- Charles Darwin's cousin.
- "Father" of **eugenics**.
- Interested in heredity.



Karl Pearson (1857 - 1936)

- Galton's (**hero-worshipping**) protégé.
- Defined correlation equation.
- "Father" of mathematical statistics.



Galton's family data

Galton, F. (1886). "Regression towards mediocrity in hereditary stature". *The Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland* 15: 246-263.

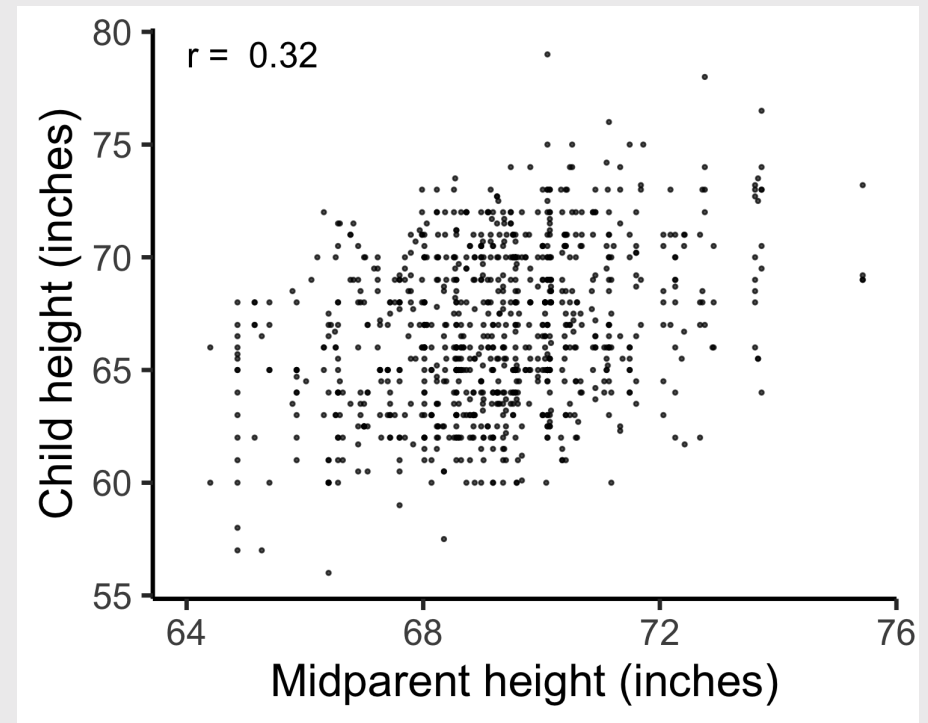
Galton's question: Does marriage selection indicate a relationship between the heights of husbands and wives? (He called this "assortative mating")

"midparent height" is just a scaled mean:

```
midparentHeight = (father + 1.08*mother)/2
```

```
library(HistData)
```

```
galtonScatterplot <- ggplot(GaltonFamilies) +  
  geom_point(aes(x = midparentHeight,  
                y = childHeight),  
            size = 0.5, alpha = 0.7) +  
  theme_classic() +  
  labs(x = 'Midparent height (inches)',  
       y = 'Child height (inches)')
```



How do you measure correlation?

Pearson came up with this:

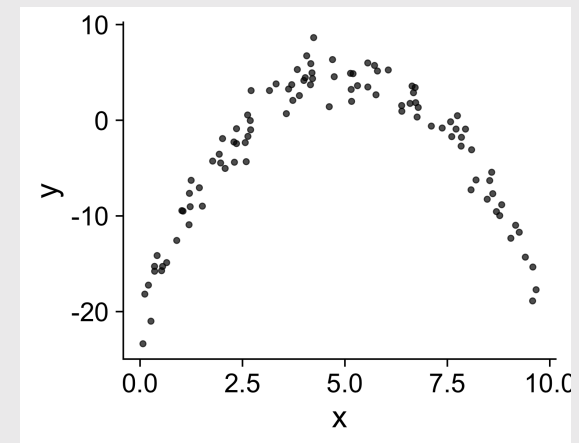
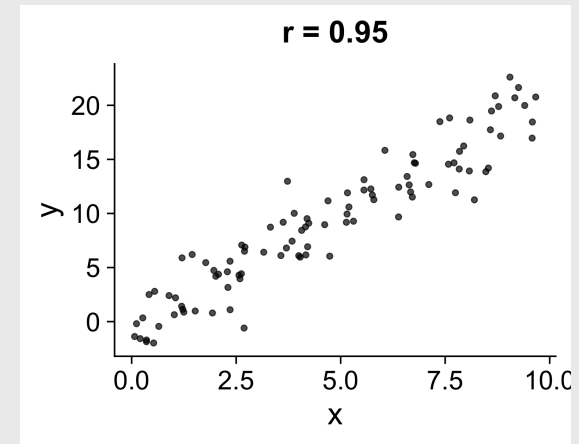
$$r = \frac{\text{Cov}(x,y)}{\text{sd}(x)*\text{sd}(y)}$$

How do you measure correlation?

$$r = \frac{\text{Cov}(x,y)}{\text{sd}(x)*\text{sd}(y)}$$

Assumptions:

1. Variables must be interval or ratio
2. Linear relationship



How do you *interpret* r ?

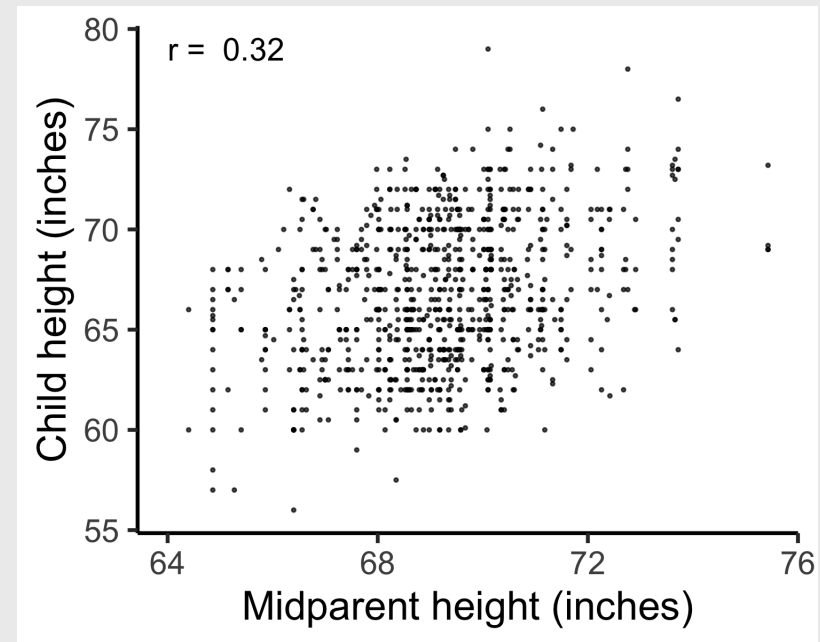
$$r = \frac{\text{Cov}(x,y)}{\text{sd}(x)*\text{sd}(y)}$$

Interpretation:

- $-1 \leq r \leq 1$
- Closer to 1 is stronger correlation
- Closer to 0 is weaker correlation

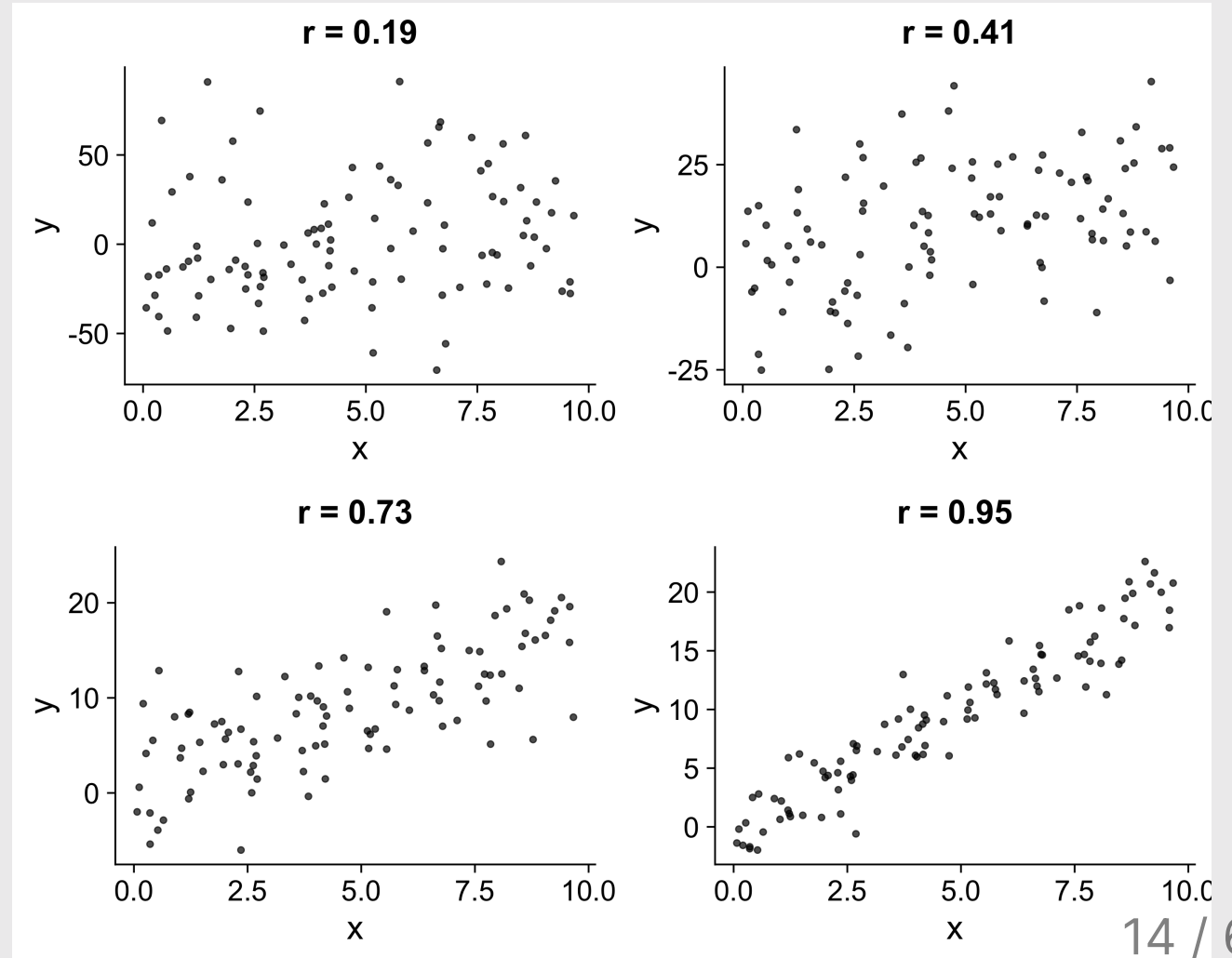
```
cor(x = GaltonFamilies$midparentHeight,  
    y = GaltonFamilies$childHeight,  
    method = 'pearson')
```

```
#> [1] 0.3209499
```



What does r mean?

- $\pm 0.1 - 0.3$: Weak
- $\pm 0.3 - 0.5$: Moderate
- $\pm 0.5 - 0.8$: Strong
- $\pm 0.8 - 1.0$: Very strong



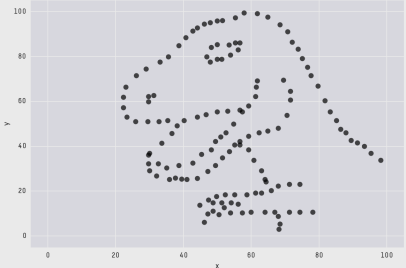
Visualizing correlation is...um...easy, right?

guessthecorrelation.com

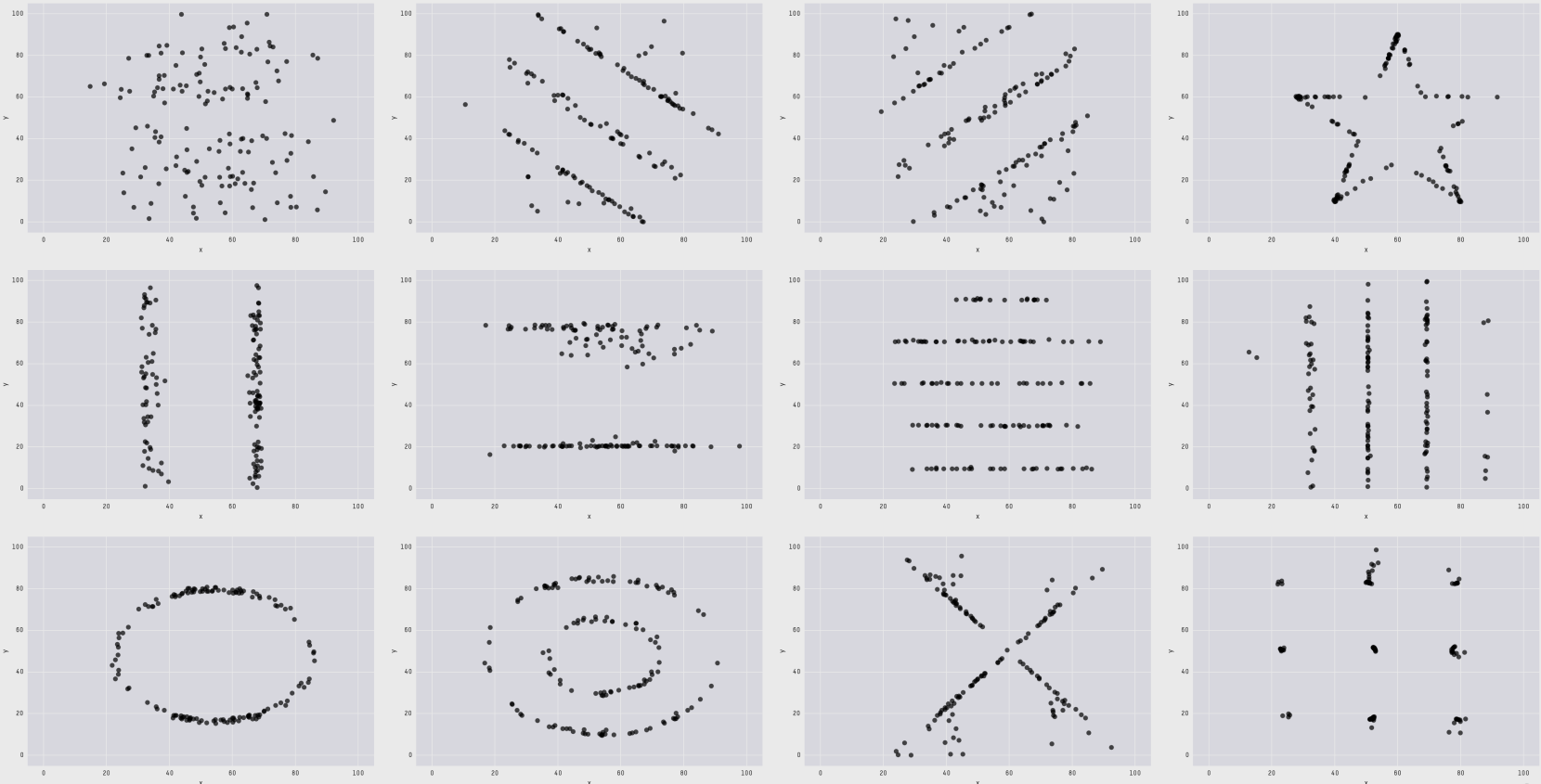
Click [here](#) to vote!

The datasaurus

(More [here](#))



X Mean: 54.26
Y Mean: 47.83
X SD : 16.76
Y SD : 26.93
Corr. : -0.06



Coefficient of determination: r^2

Percent of variance in one variable that is explained by the other variable

r	r^2
0.1	0.01
0.2	0.04
0.3	0.09
0.4	0.16
0.5	0.25
0.6	0.36
0.7	0.49
0.8	0.64
0.9	0.81
1.0	1.00

You should report both r and r^2

Correlation between parent and child height is 0.32, therefore 10% of the variance in the child height is explained by the parent height.

Correlation \neq Causation

X causes Y

- Training causes improved performance

Y causes X

- (Good / bad) performance causes people to train harder.

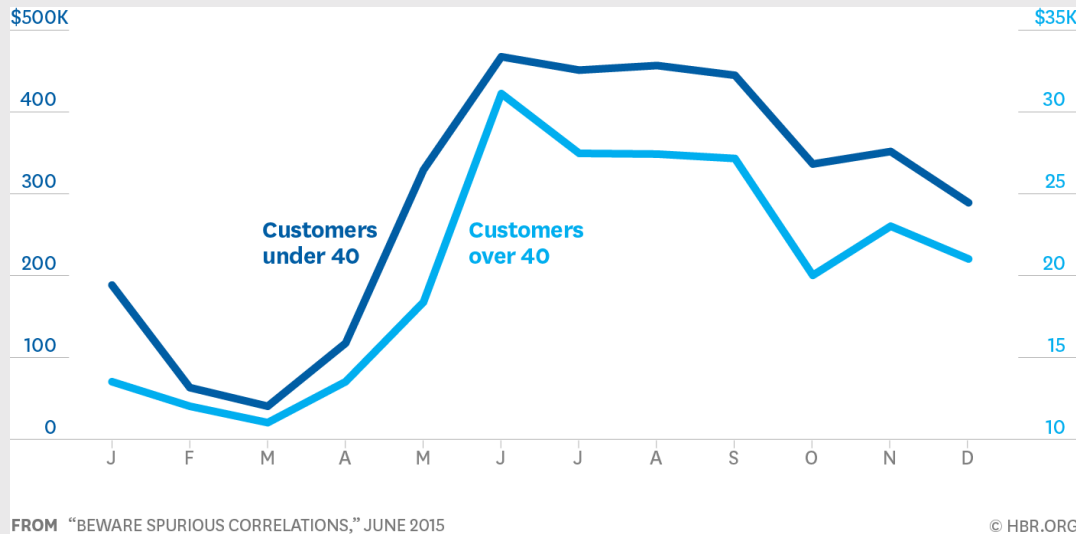
Z causes both X & Y

- Commitment and motivation cause increased training and better performance.

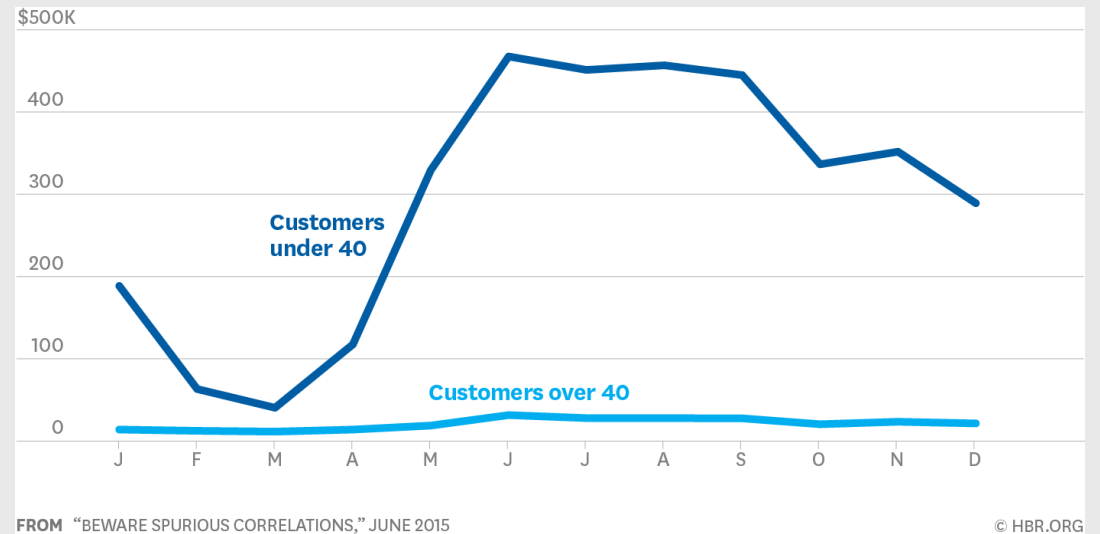
Be weary of dual axes!

(They can cause spurious correlations)

Dual axes

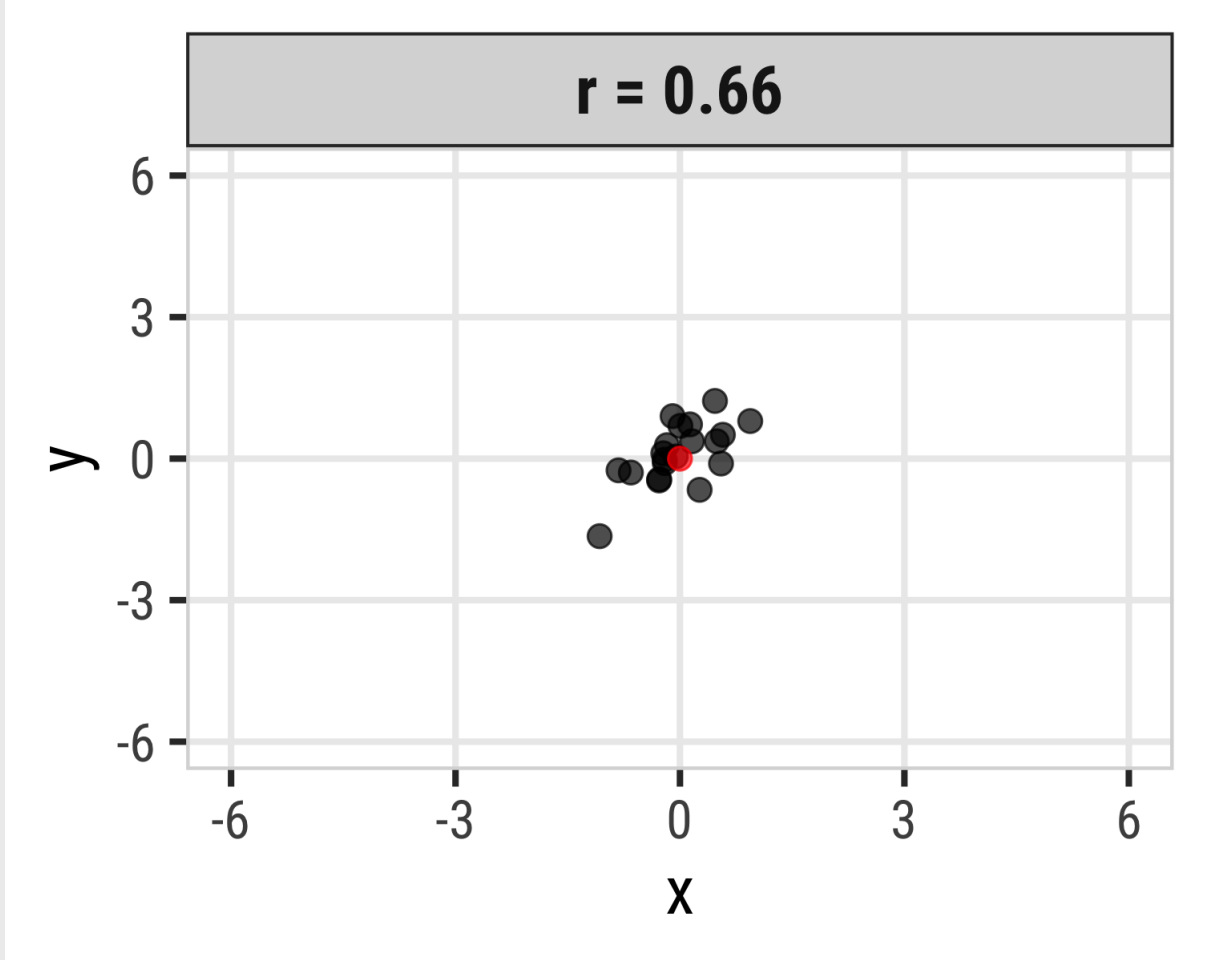


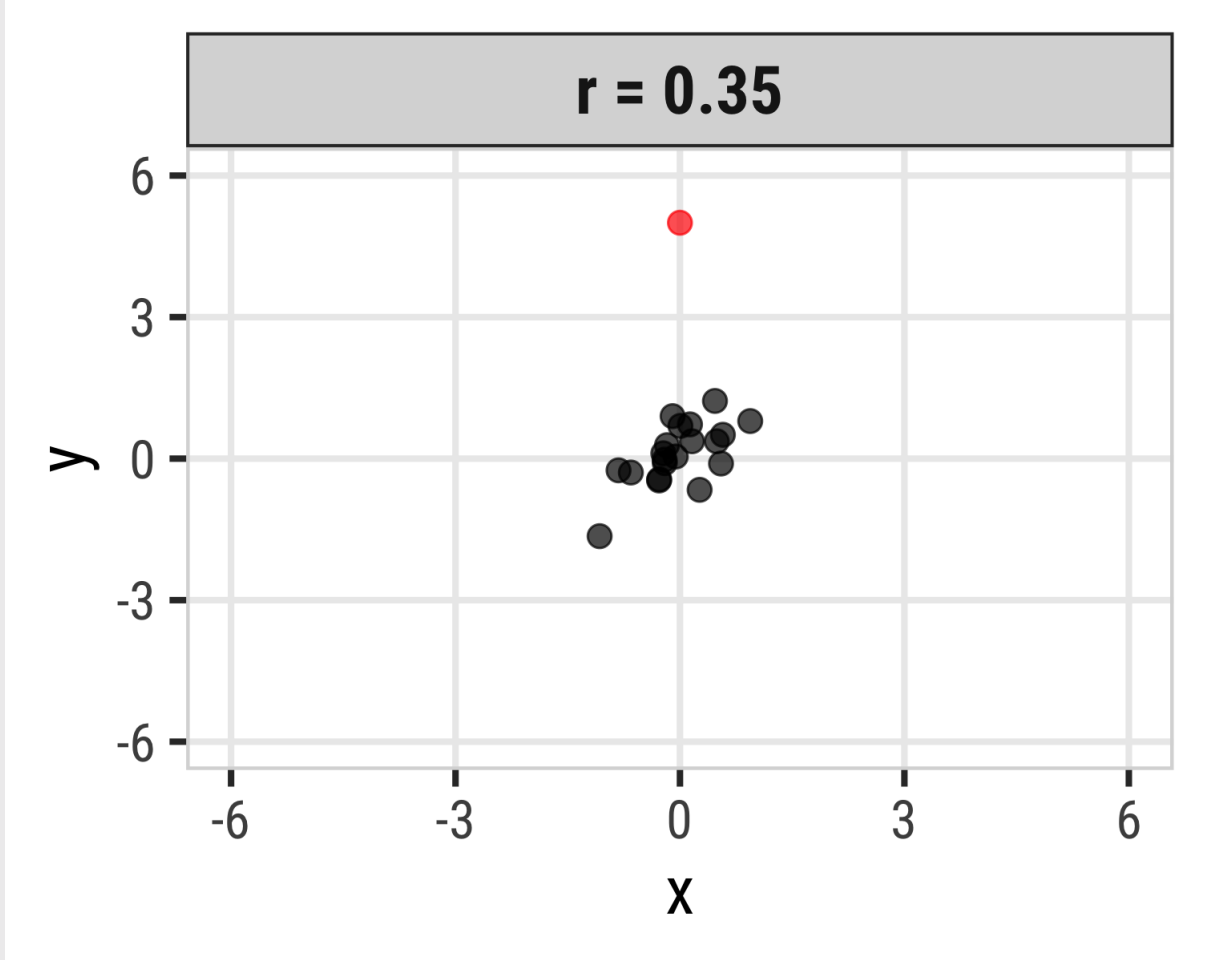
Single axis

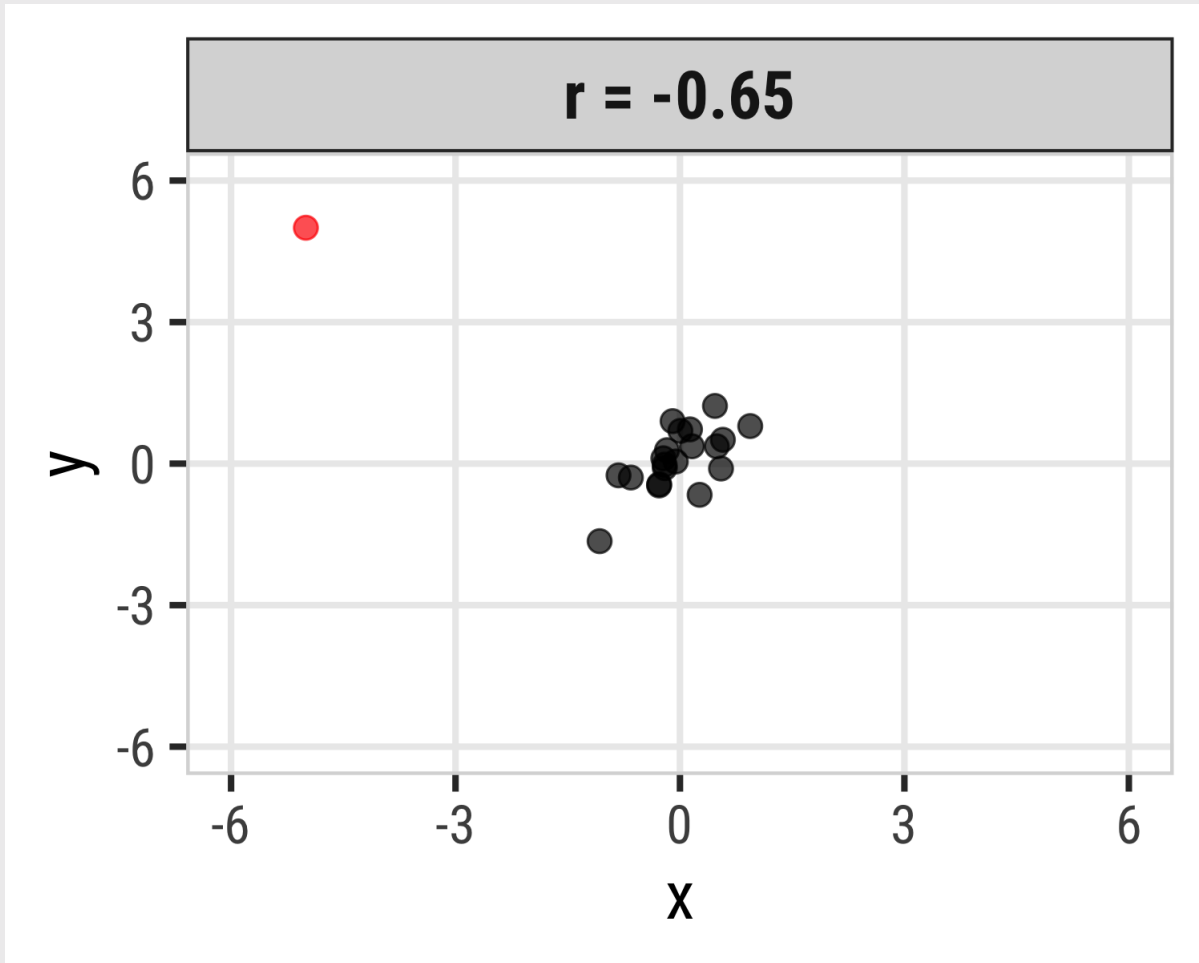


Outliers

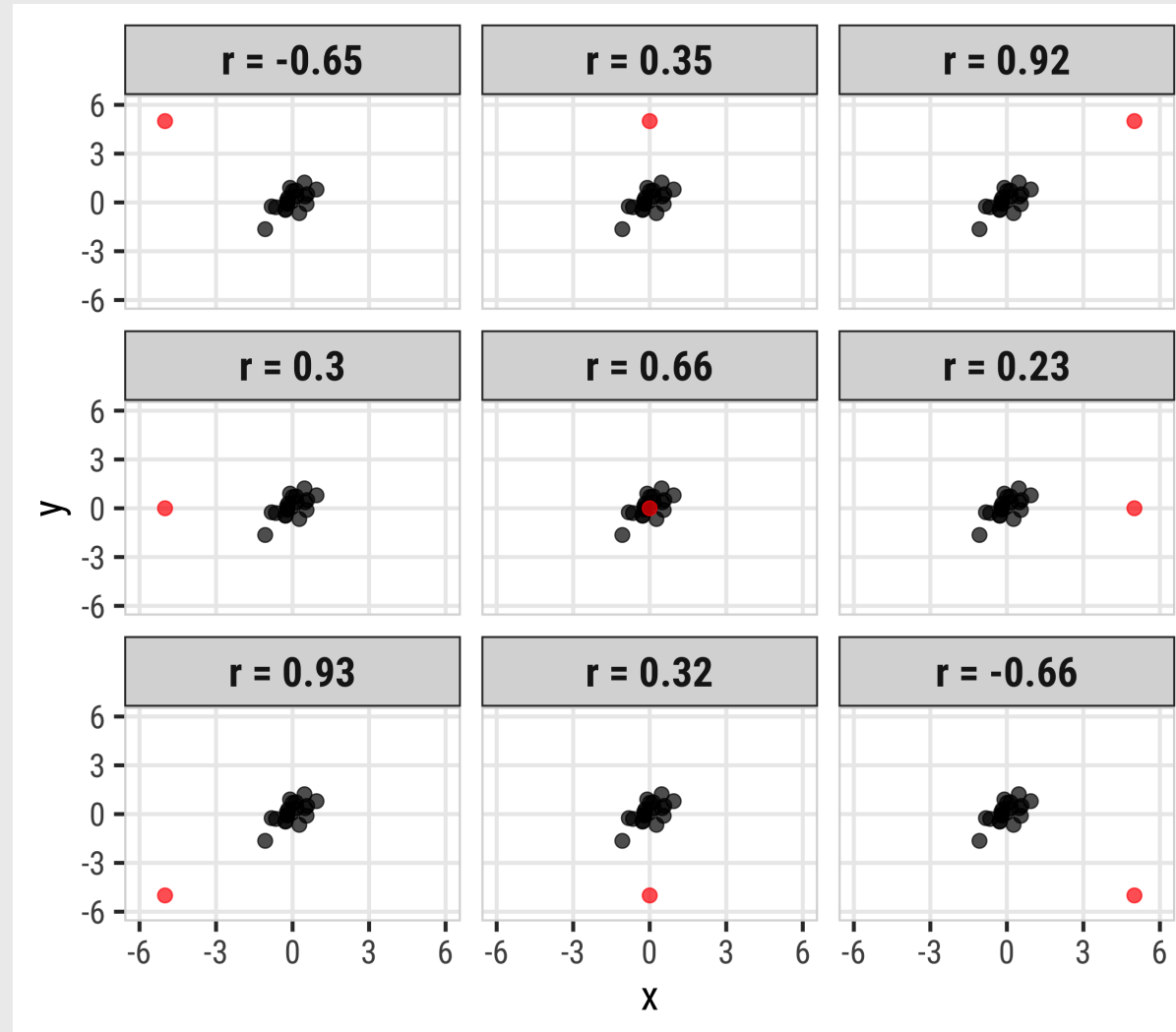








Pearson correlation is highly sensitive to outliers



Spearman's rank-order correlation

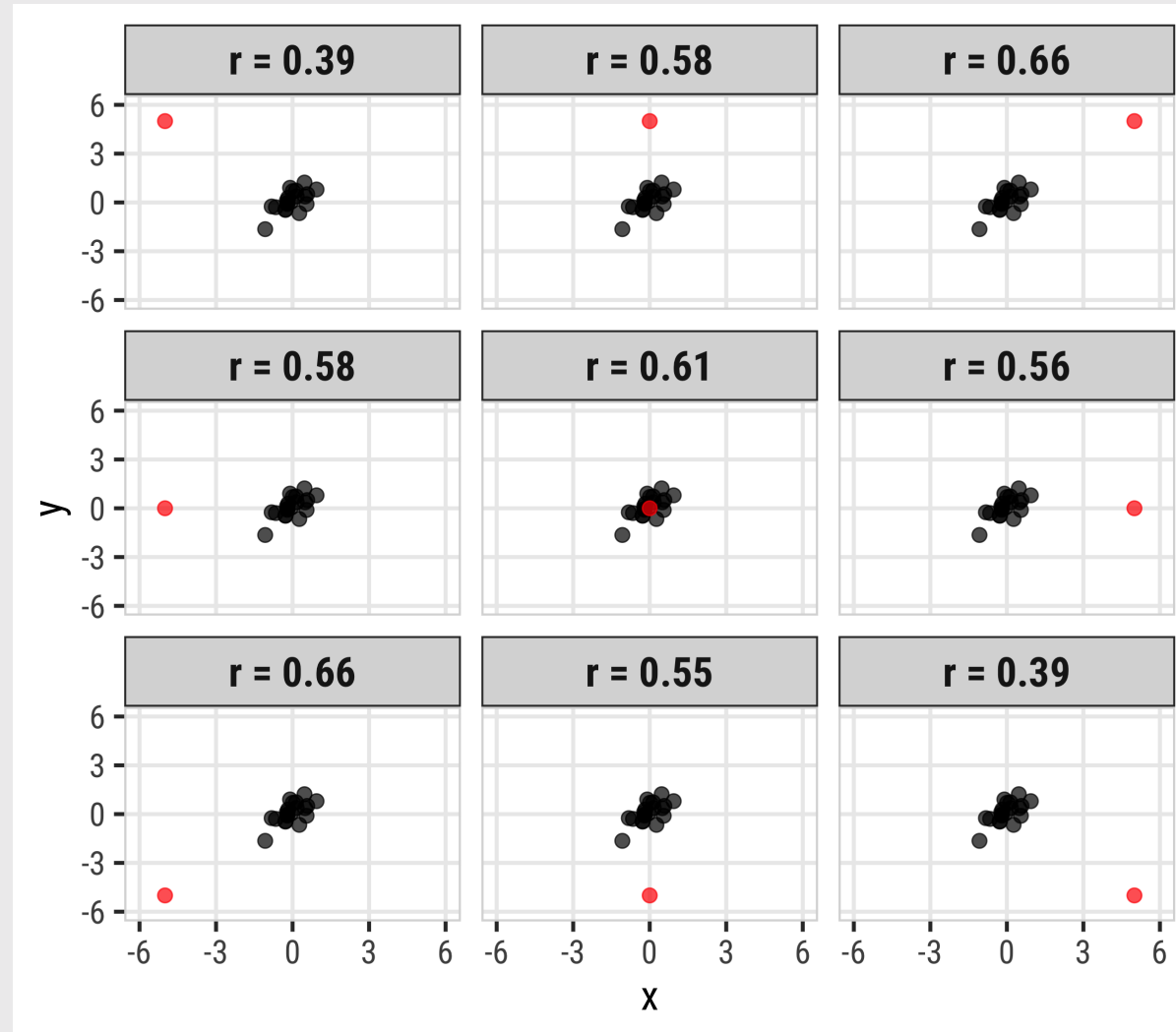
$$r = \frac{\text{Cov}(x,y)}{\text{sd}(x)*\text{sd}(y)}$$

- Separately rank the values of X & Y.
- Use Pearson's correlation on the *ranks* instead of the x & y values.

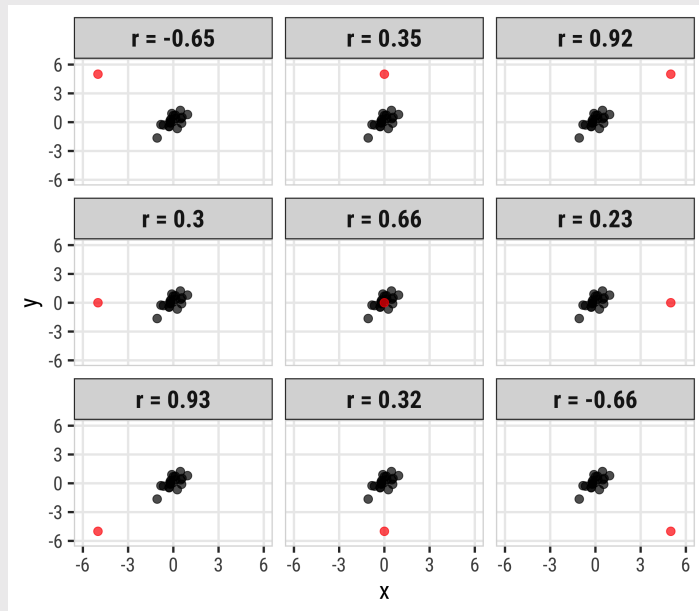
Assumptions:

- Variables can be ordinal, interval or ratio
- Relationship must be monotonic (i.e. does not require linearity)

Spearman correlation more robust to outliers

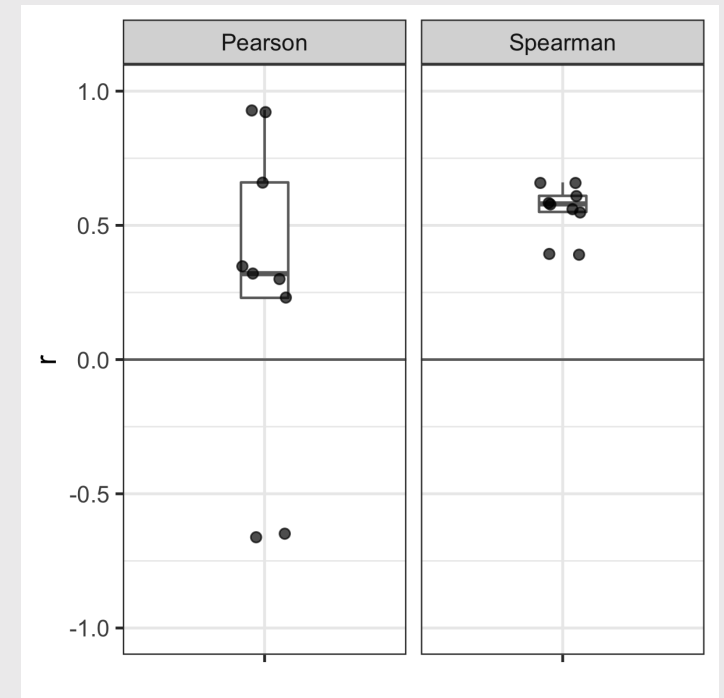


Spearman correlation more robust to outliers



Pearson Spearman

-0.56	0.53
0.39	0.69
0.94	0.81
0.38	0.76
0.81	0.79
0.31	0.70
0.95	0.81
0.51	0.75
-0.56	0.53



Summary of correlation

- **Pearson's correlation:** Described the strength of a **linear** relationship between two variables that are interval or ratio in nature.
- **Spearman's rank-order correlation:** Describes the strength of a **monotonic** relationship between two variables that are ordinal, interval, or ratio. **It is more robust to outliers.**
- The **coefficient of determination** (r^2) describes the amount of variance in one variable that is explained by the other variable.
- **Correlation != Causation**

R command (hint: add `use = "complete.obs"` to drop NA values)

```
pearson <- cor(x, y, method = "pearson", use = "complete.obs")  
spearman <- cor(x, y, method = "spearman", use = "complete.obs")
```

Week 5: *Correlation*

1. What is correlation?

2. Visualizing correlation

BREAK

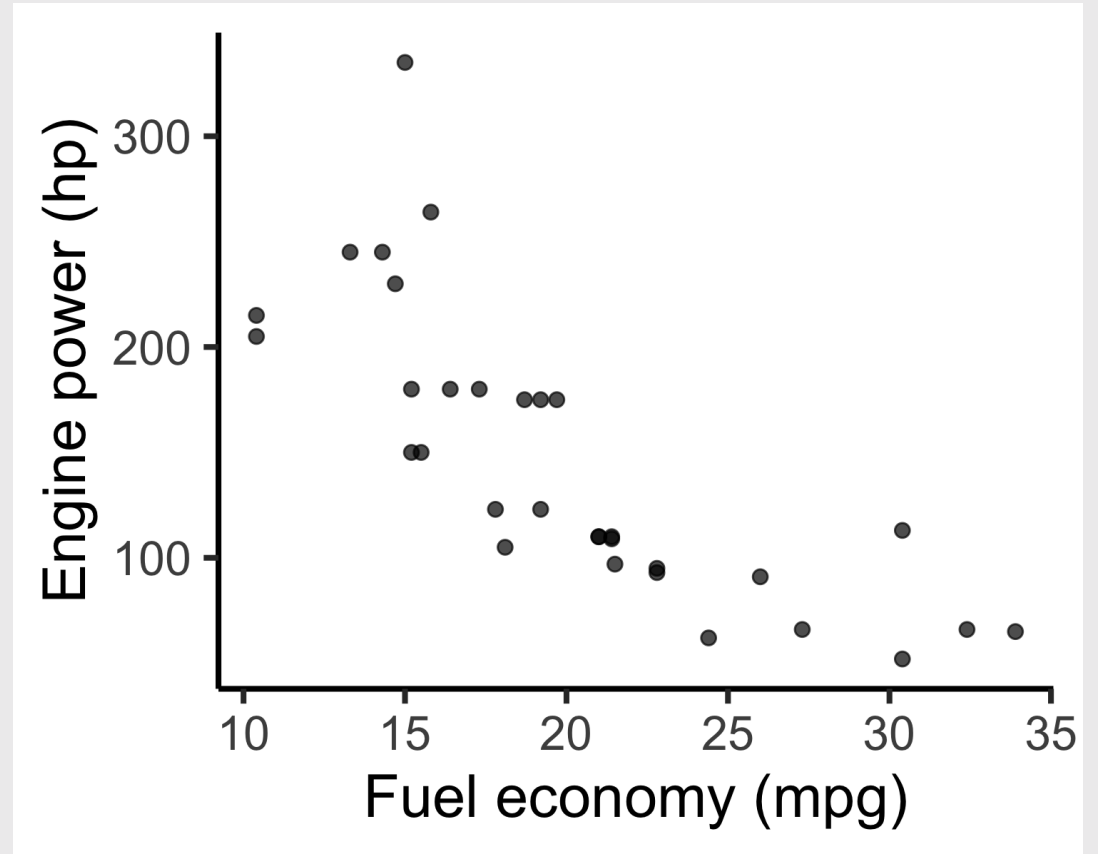
3. Linear models

4. Visualizing linear models

Scatterplots: The correlation workhorse

```
scatterplot <- ggplot(mtcars) +  
  geom_point(aes(x = mpg, y = hp),  
             size = 2, alpha = 0.7) +  
  theme_classic(base_size = 20) +  
  labs(x = 'Fuel economy (mpg)',  
       y = 'Engine power (hp)')
```

scatterplot



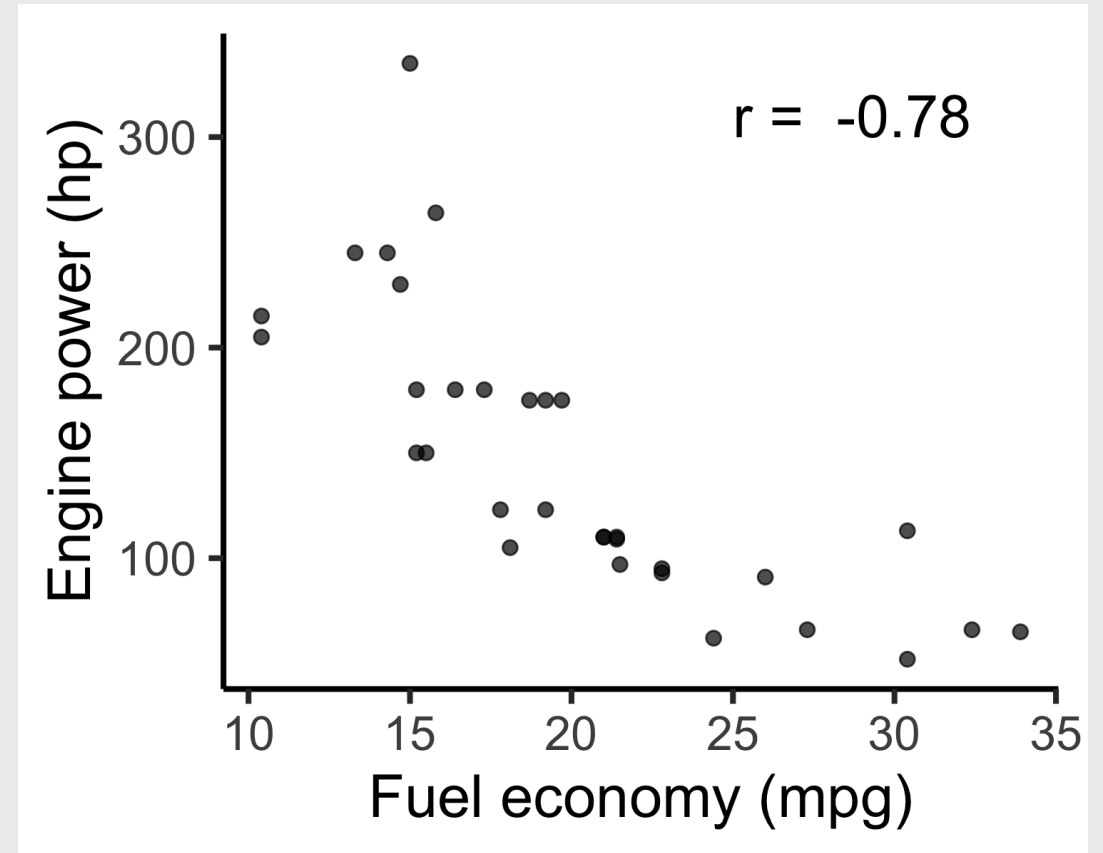
Adding a correlation label to a chart

Make the correlation label

```
corr <- cor(  
  mtcars$mpg, mtcars$hp,  
  method = 'pearson')  
corrLabel <- paste('r = ', round(corr, 2))
```

Add label to the chart with `annotate()`

```
scatterplot +  
  annotate(geom = 'text',  
    x = 25, y = 310,  
    label = corrLabel,  
    hjust = 0, size = 7)
```



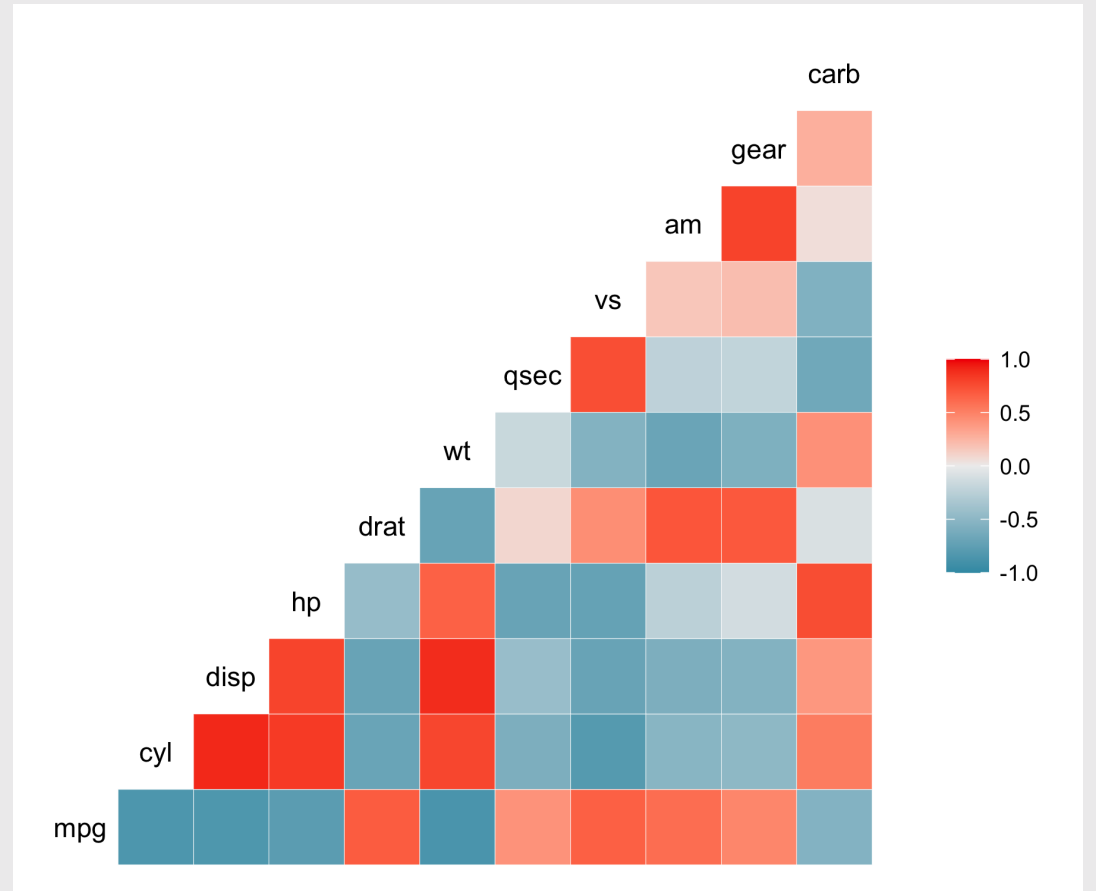
Visualize all the correlations



Visualize all the correlations: `ggcorr()`

```
library('GGally')
```

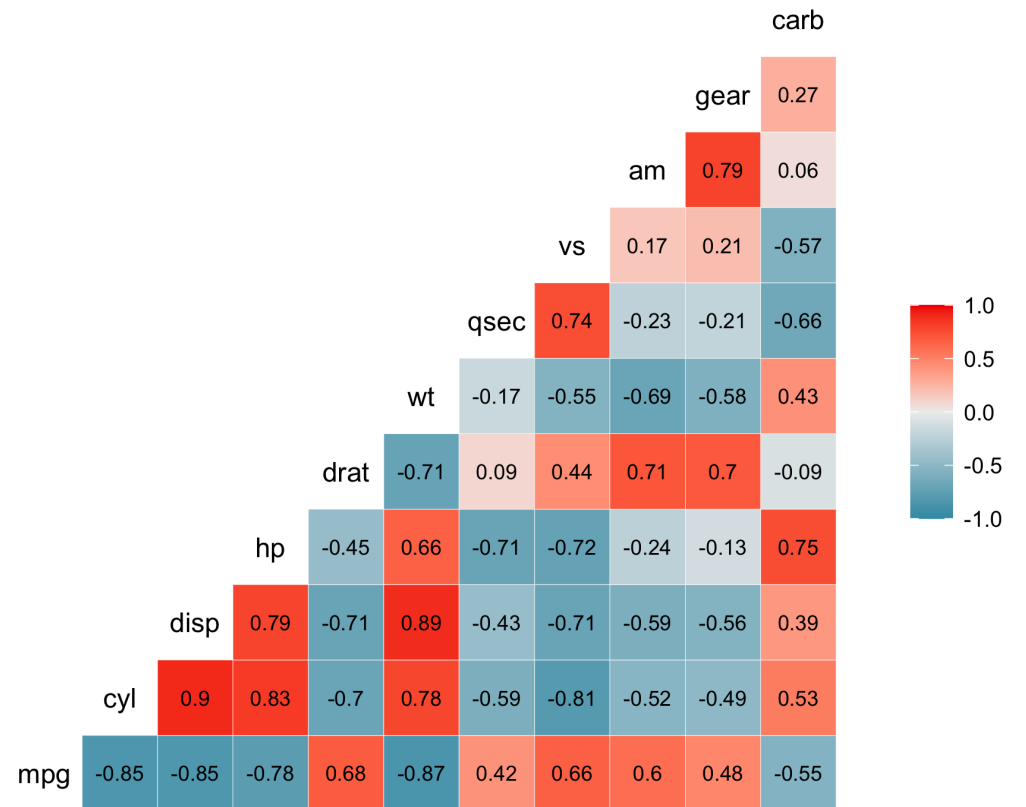
```
mtcars %>%  
  ggcorr()
```



Visualizing correlations: `ggcorr()`

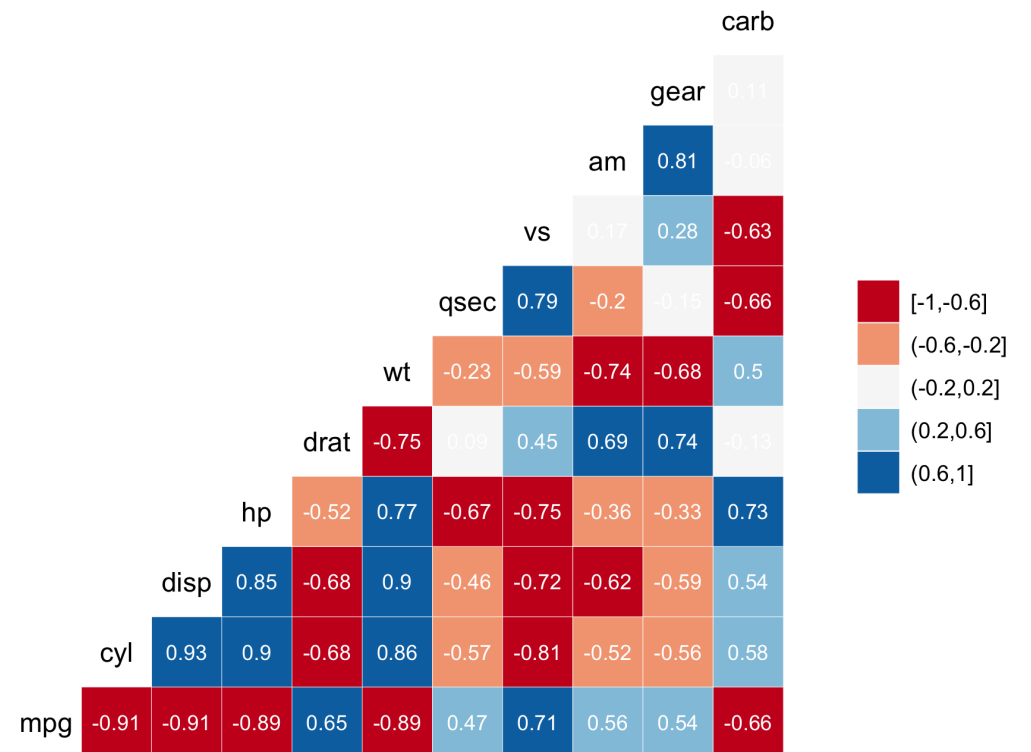
```
library('GGally')
```

```
mtcars %>%  
  ggcorr(label = TRUE,  
         label_size = 3,  
         label_round = 2)
```



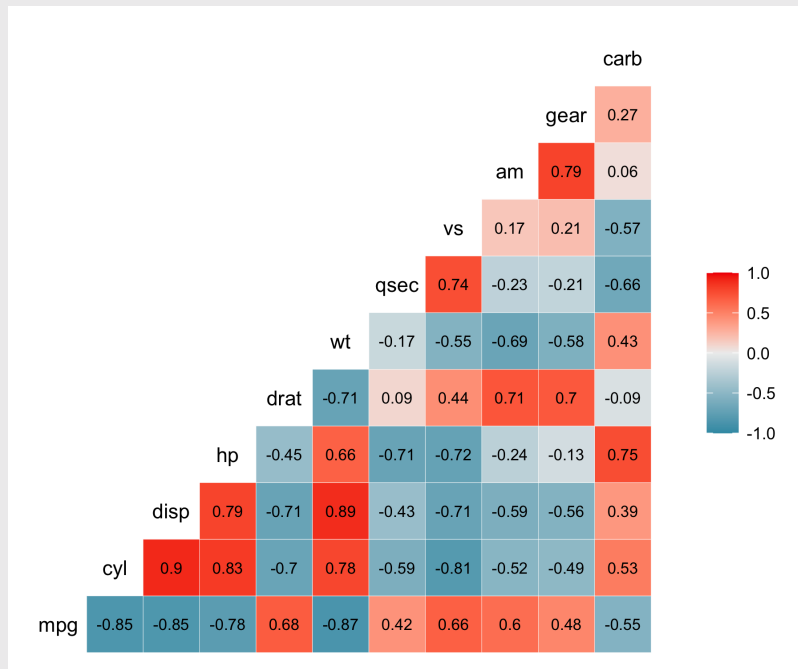
Visualizing correlations: `ggcorr()`

```
ggcor_mtcars_final <- mtcars %>%  
  ggcorr(label = TRUE,  
         label_size = 3,  
         label_round = 2,  
         label_color = 'white',  
         nbreaks = 5,  
         palette = "RdBu")
```



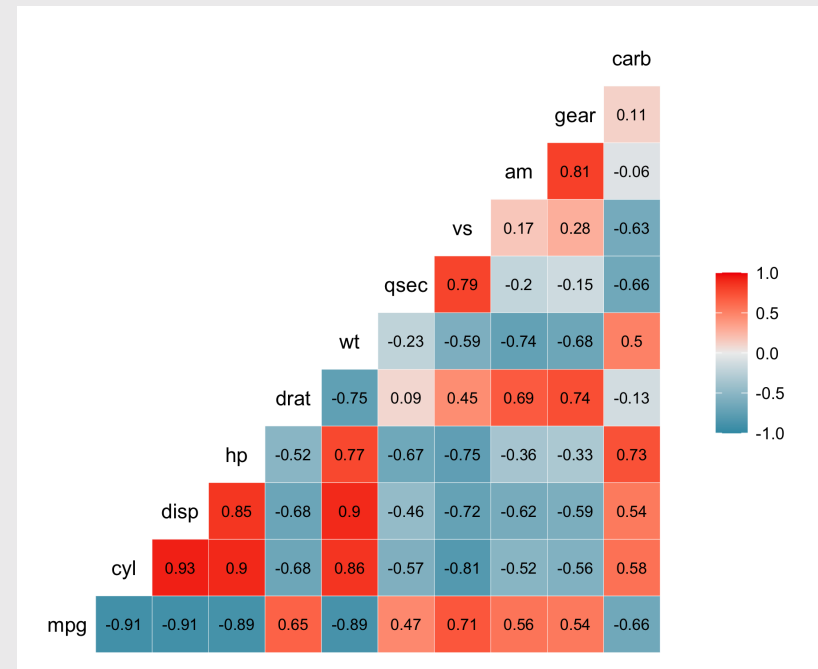
Pearson

```
mtcars %>%  
  ggcorr(label = TRUE,  
         label_size = 3,  
         label_round = 2,  
         method = c("pairwise", "pearson"))
```



Spearman

```
mtcars %>%  
  ggcorr(label = TRUE,  
         label_size = 3,  
         label_round = 2,  
         method = c("pairwise", "spearman"))
```

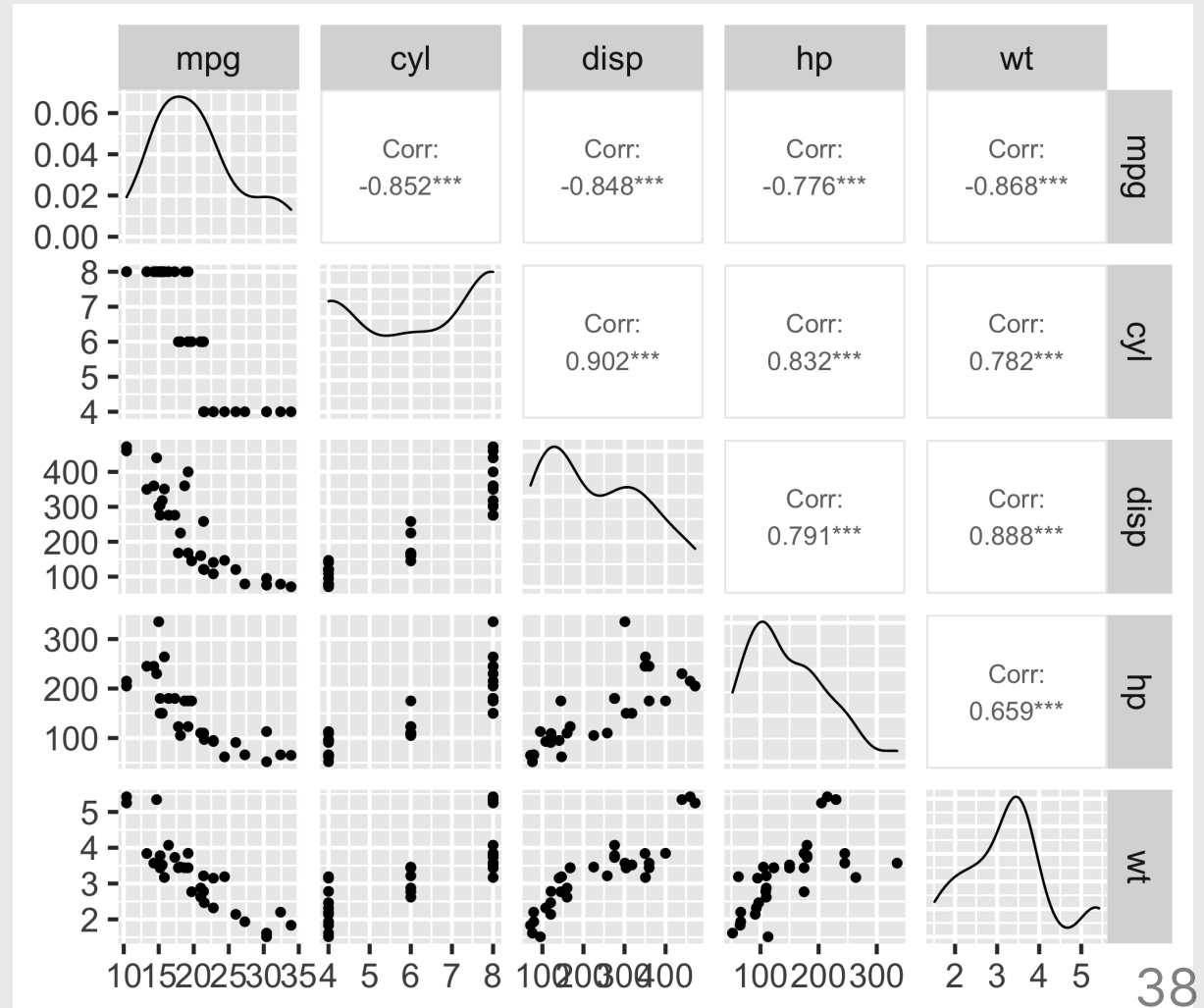


Correlograms: `ggpairs()`

```
library('GGally')
```

```
mtcars %>%  
  select(mpg, cyl, disp, hp, wt)  
  ggpairs()
```

- Look for linear relationships
- View distribution of each variable

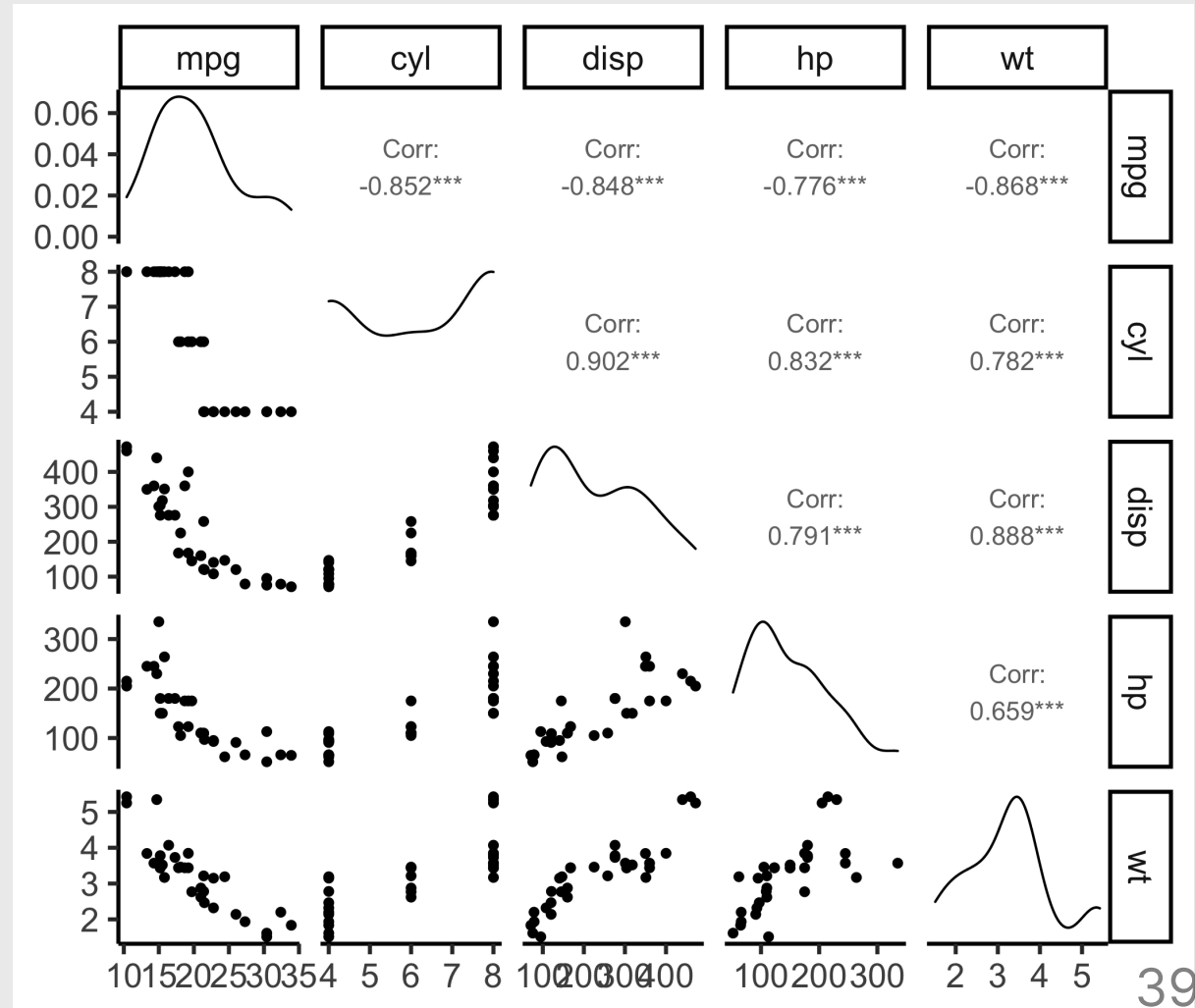


Correlograms: `ggpairs()`

```
library('GGally')
```

```
mtcars %>%  
  select(mpg, cyl, disp, hp, wt)  
  ggpairs() +  
  theme_classic()
```

- Look for linear relationships
- View distribution of each variable



Your turn

15:00

Using the `penguins` data frame:

[palmerpenguins library.](#)

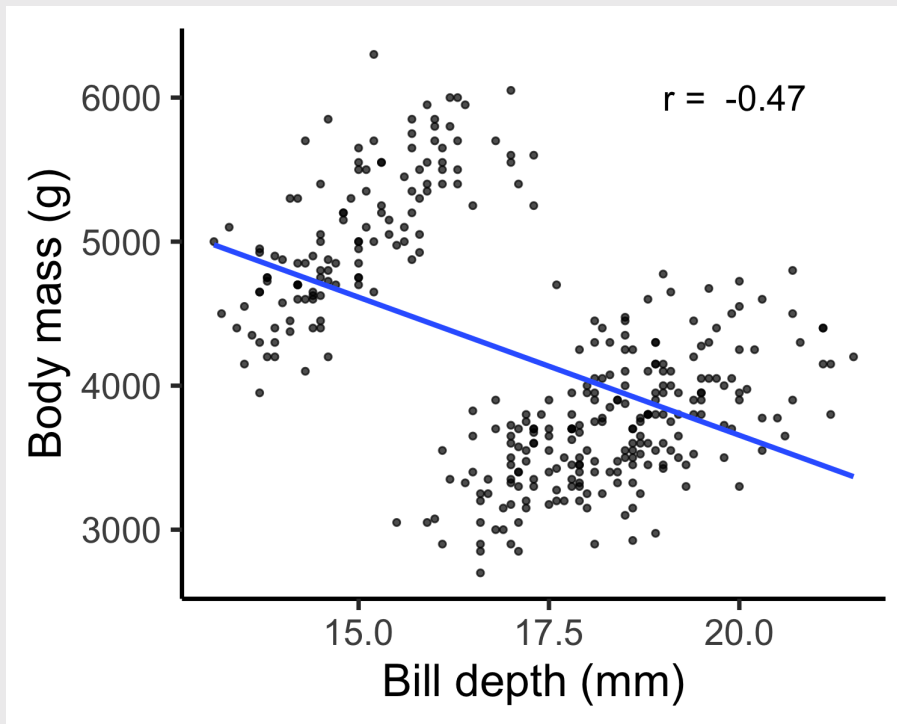
1. Find the two variables with the largest correlation in absolute value (i.e. closest to -1 or 1).
2. Create a scatter plot of those two variables.
3. Add an annotation for the Pearson correlation coefficient.



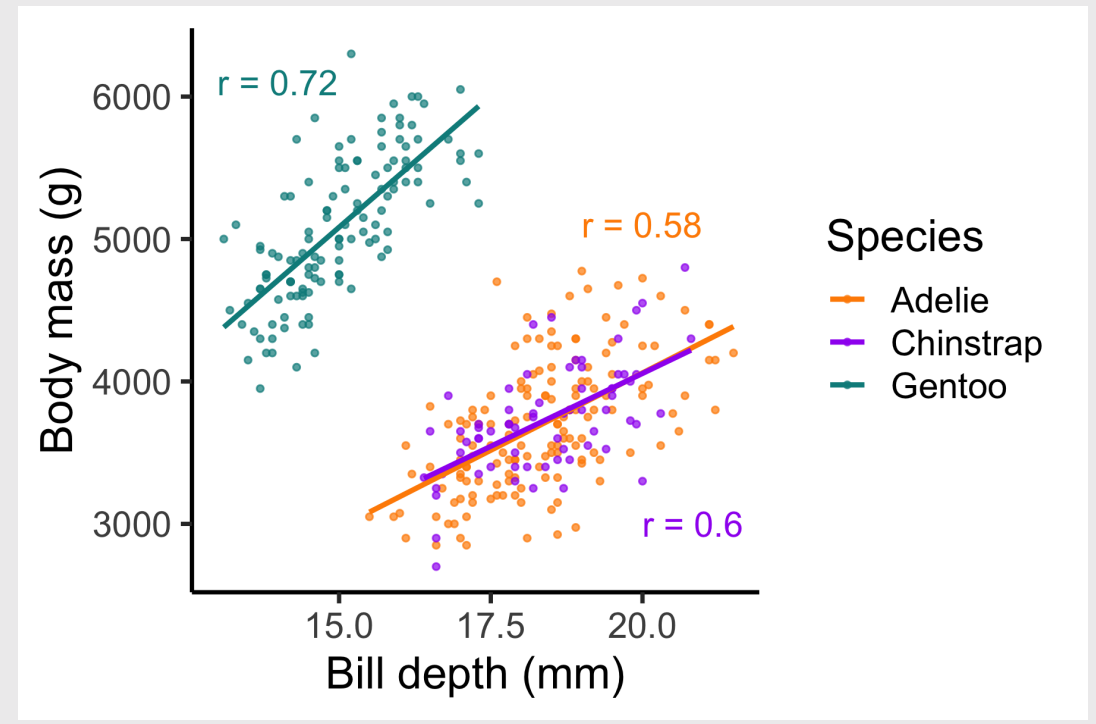
Artwork by [@allison_horst](#)

Simpson's Paradox: when correlation betrays you

Body mass vs. Bill depth



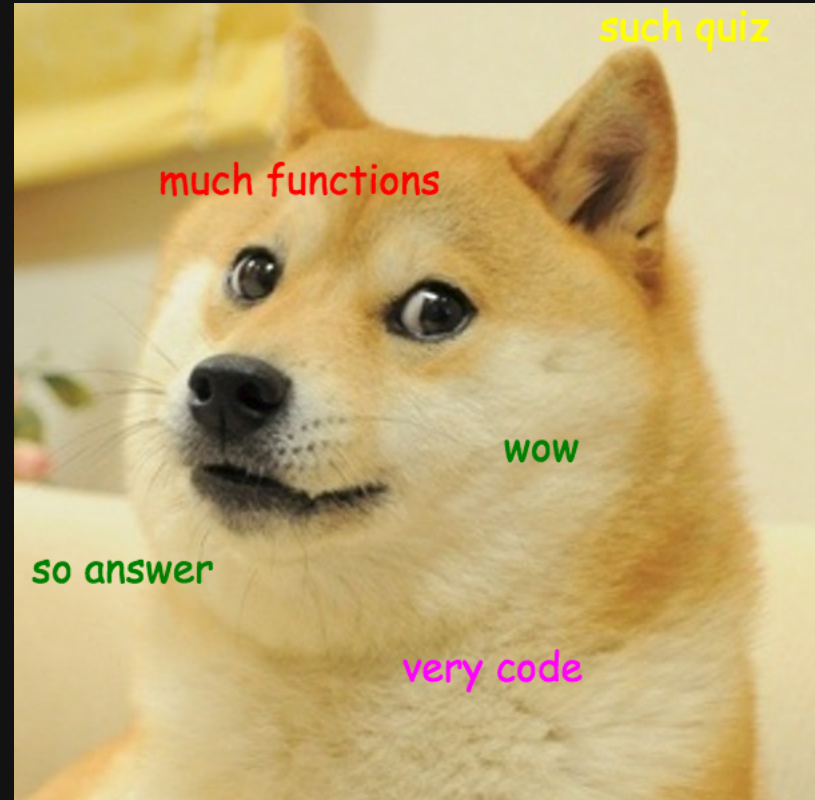
Body mass vs. Bill depth



Quiz 2

Link is in the #class channel

10:00



Week 5: *Correlation*

1. What is correlation?

2. Visualizing correlation

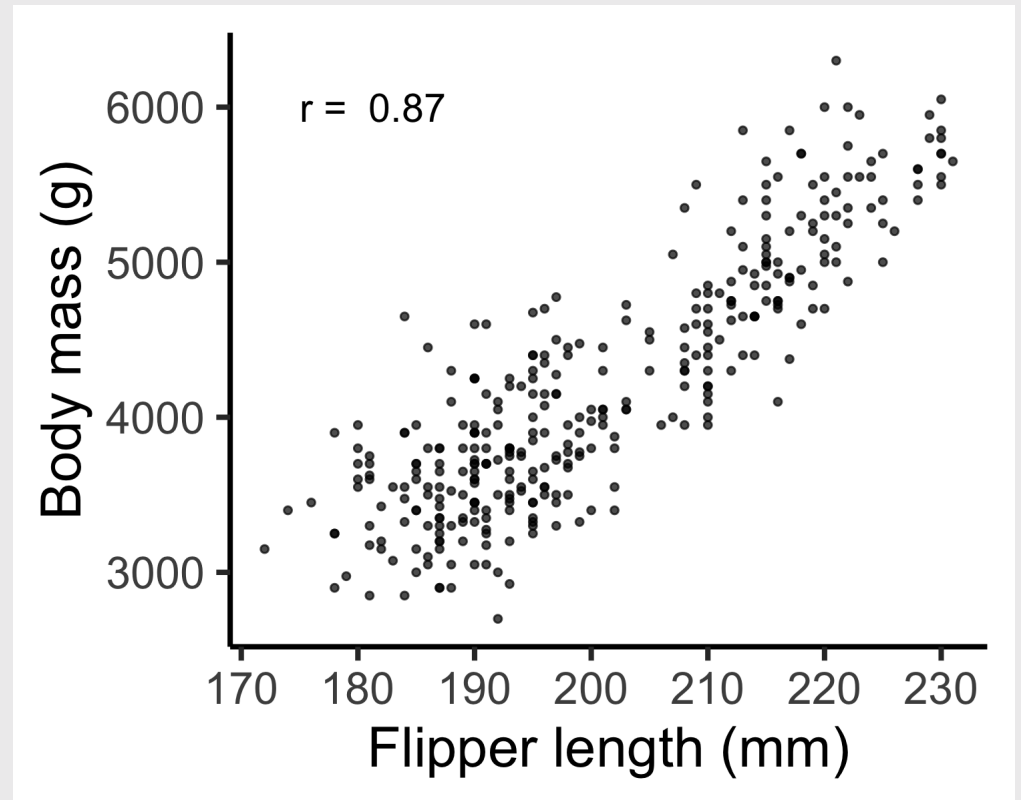
BREAK

3. **Linear models**

4. Visualizing linear models

Palmer Penguins

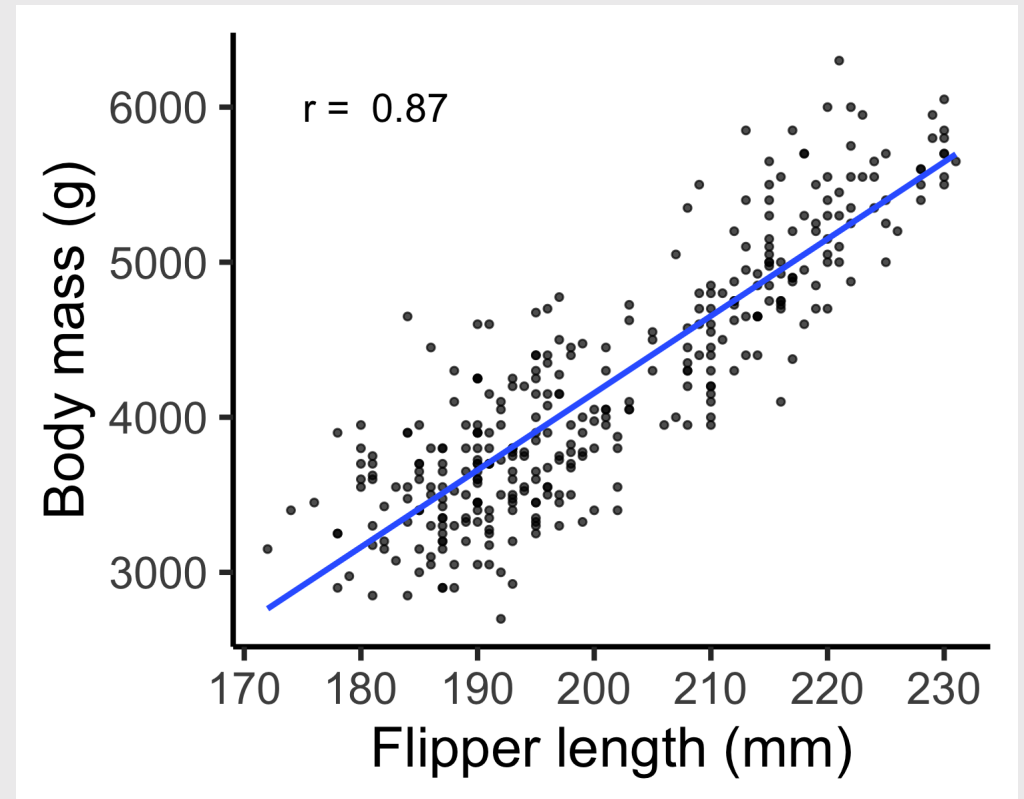
The correlation of 0.87 means that the body mass (g) explains about 75% of the variation in the flipper length (mm).



Palmer Penguins

The correlation of 0.87 means that the body mass (g) explains about 75% of the variation in the flipper length (mm).

Now let's fit a model to these points!

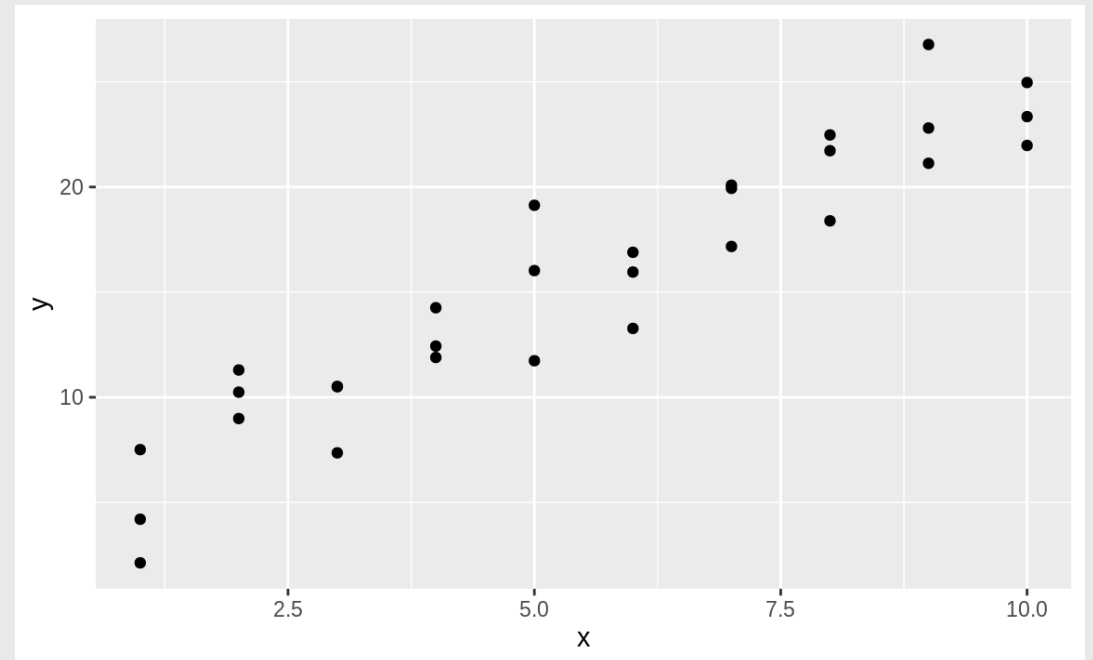


Modeling basics

Two parts to a model:

1. **Model family:** e.g., $y = ax + b$
2. **Fitted model:** e.g., $y = 3x + 7$

Here is some simulated data



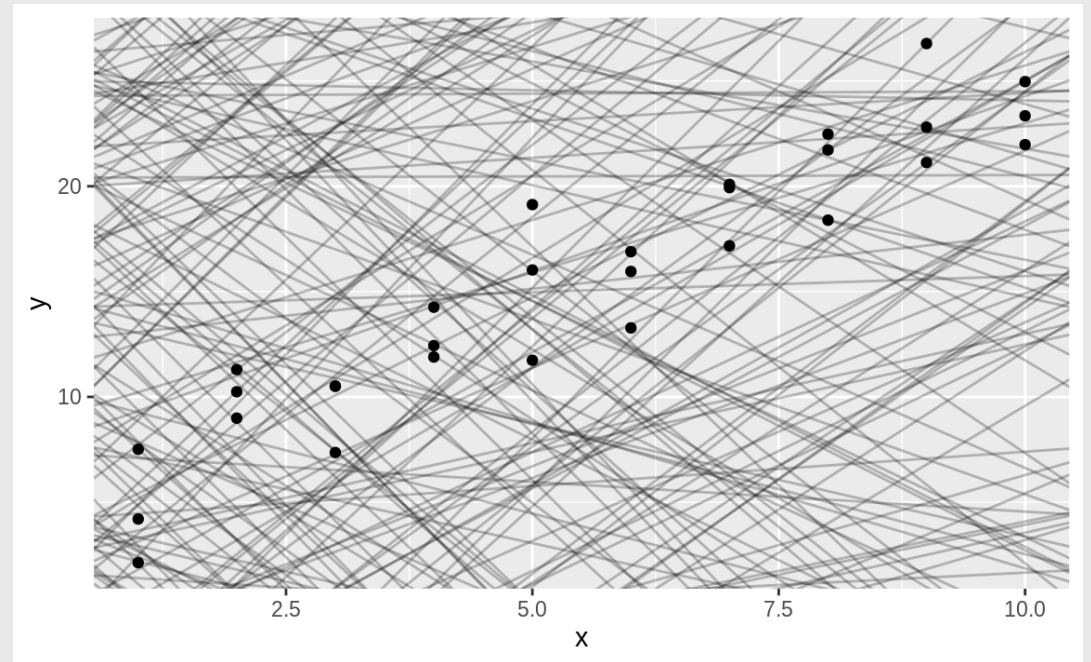
Modeling basics

Two parts to a model:

1. **Model family:** linear model:

$$y = ax + b$$

There are an infinite number of possible models



Modeling basics

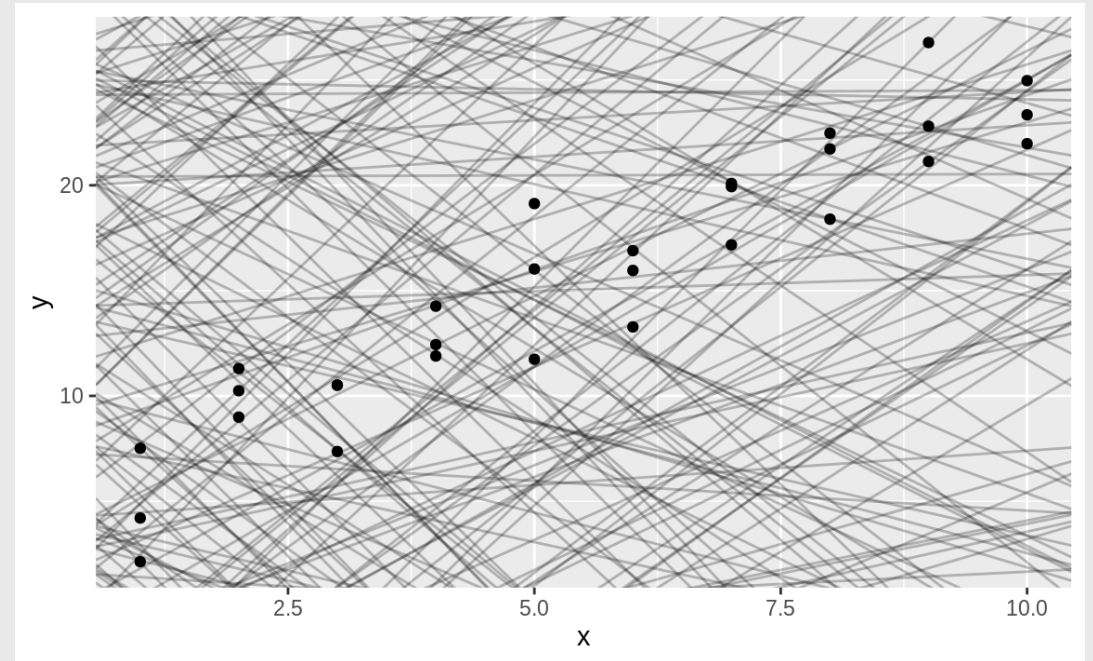
Two parts to a model:

1. **Model family:** linear model:

$$y = ax + b$$

1. **Fitted model:** How to choose the "best" a and b ?

There are an infinite number of possible models



Modeling basics

Two parts to a model:

1. **Model family:** linear model:

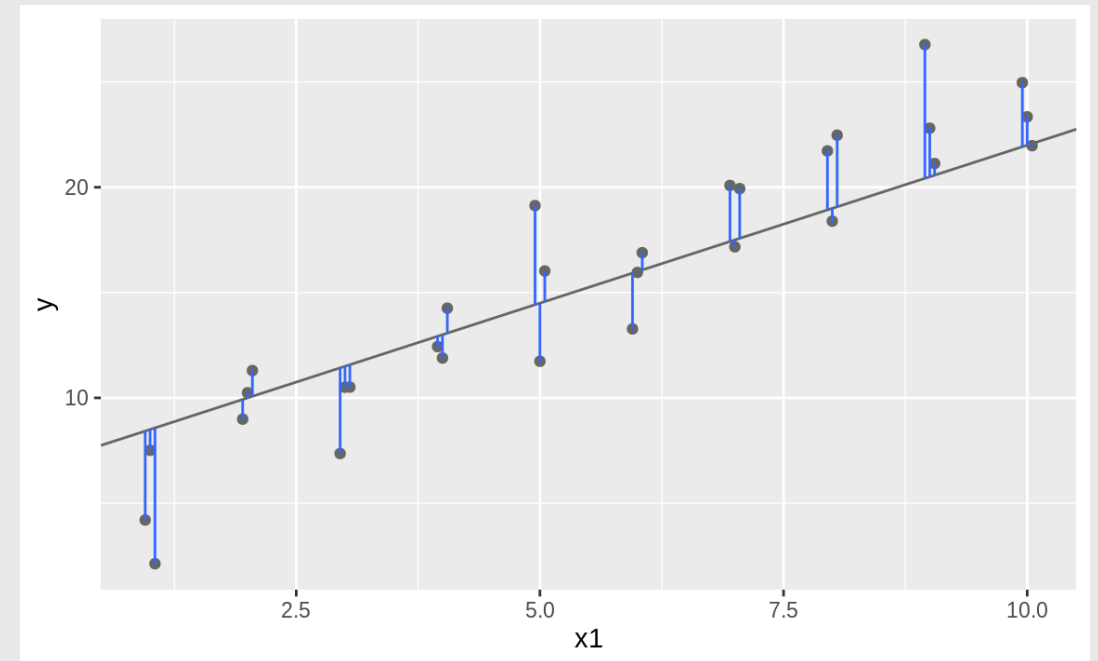
$$y = ax + b$$

2. **Fitted model:** How to choose the "best" a and b ?

We need to come up with some measure of "distance" from the model to the data

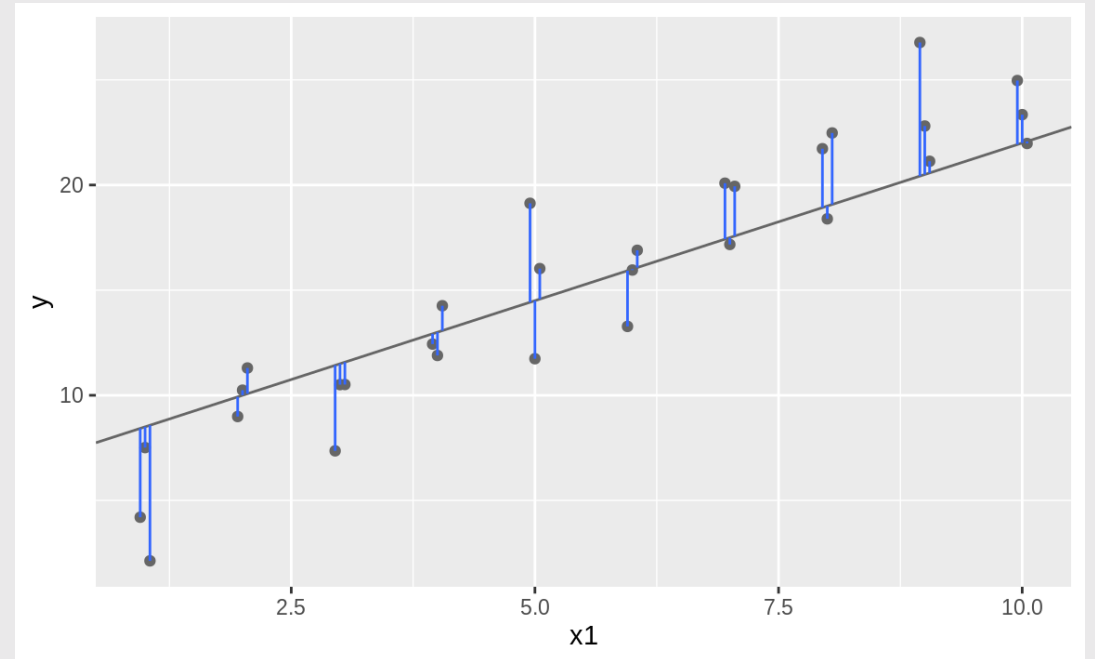
Compute the **"residuals"**:

The distance between the model line and the data



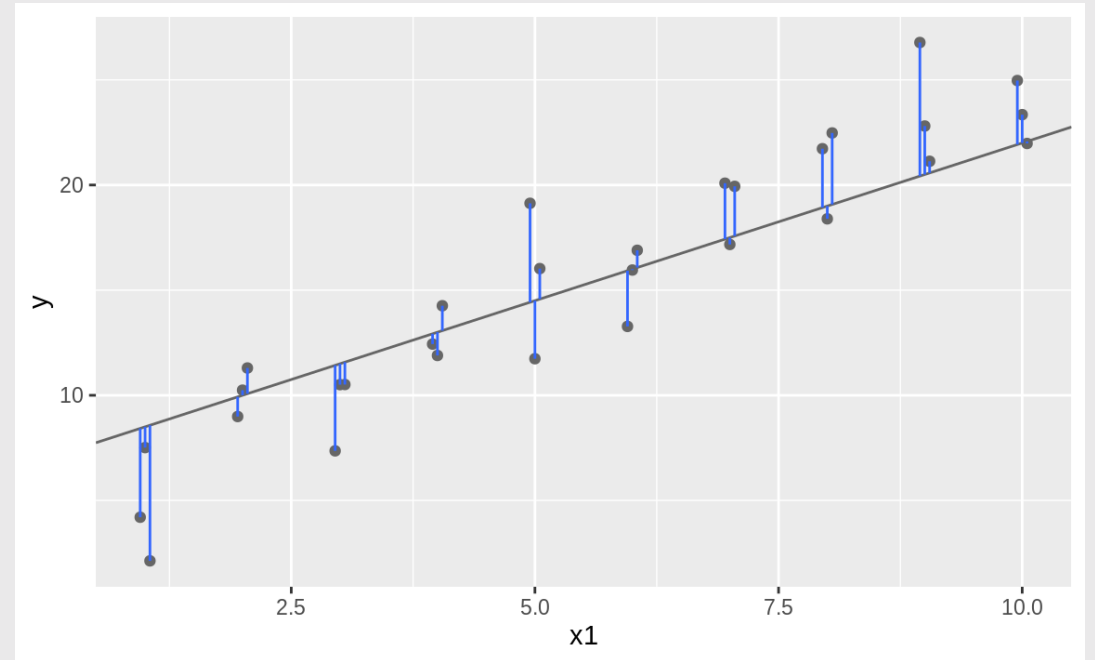
Residual: $y_i - y'_i$

Residual: The distance between the model line and the data



Sum of squared residuals: $SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y'_i)^2$

Residual: The distance between the model line and the data



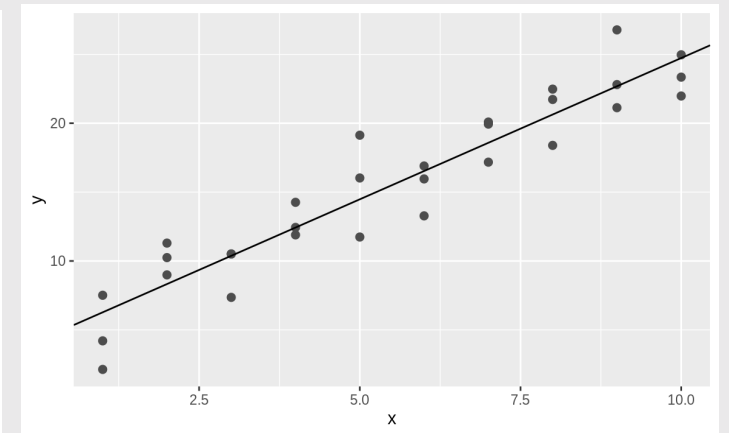
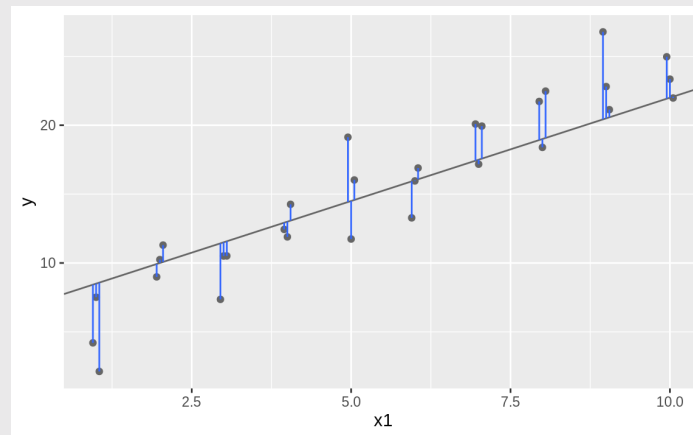
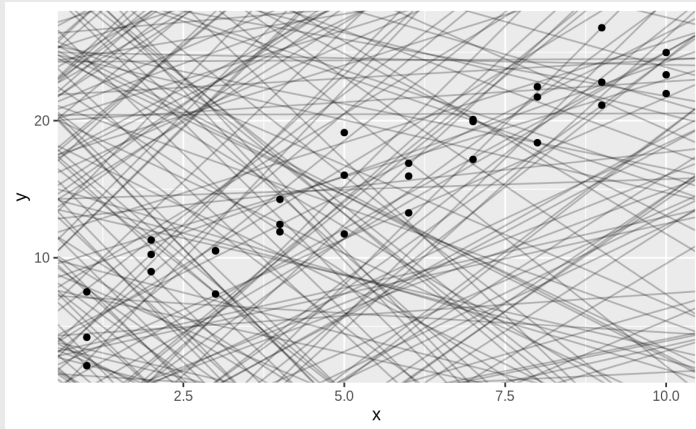
Search algorithm

1): Pick a model (a and b): 2): Compute the SSR:

$$y = ax + b$$

$$\text{SSR} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y'_i)^2$$

3): Repeat steps 1 & 2 until the smallest SSR is found



Fitting a linear model in R

```
model <- lm(formula = y ~ x, data = data)
```

Penguin data:

```
model <- lm(  
  formula = body_mass_g ~ flipper_length_mm,  
  data     = penguins)
```

Get coefficients (a & b in $y = ax + b$)

```
coef(model)
```

```
#>      (Intercept) flipper_length_mm  
#>      -5780.83136           49.68557
```

Fitting a linear model in R

```
model <- lm(formula = y ~ x,  
            data = data)
```

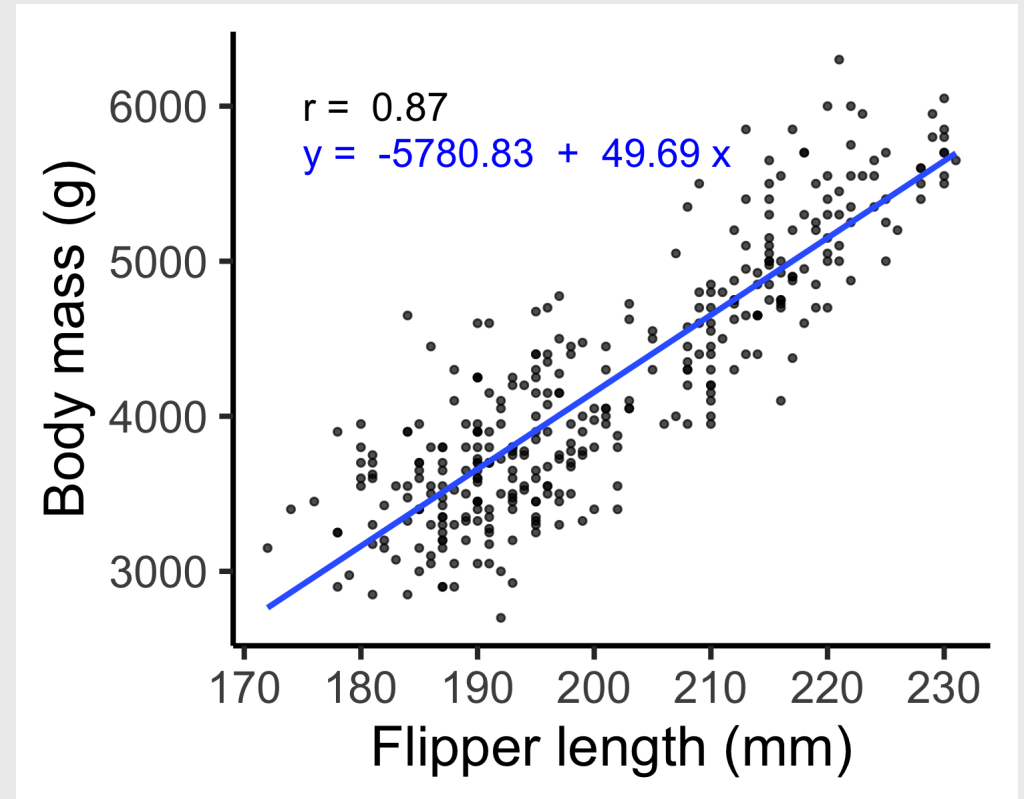
Penguin data:

```
model <- lm(  
  formula = body_mass_g ~ flipper_length_mm,  
  data    = penguins)
```

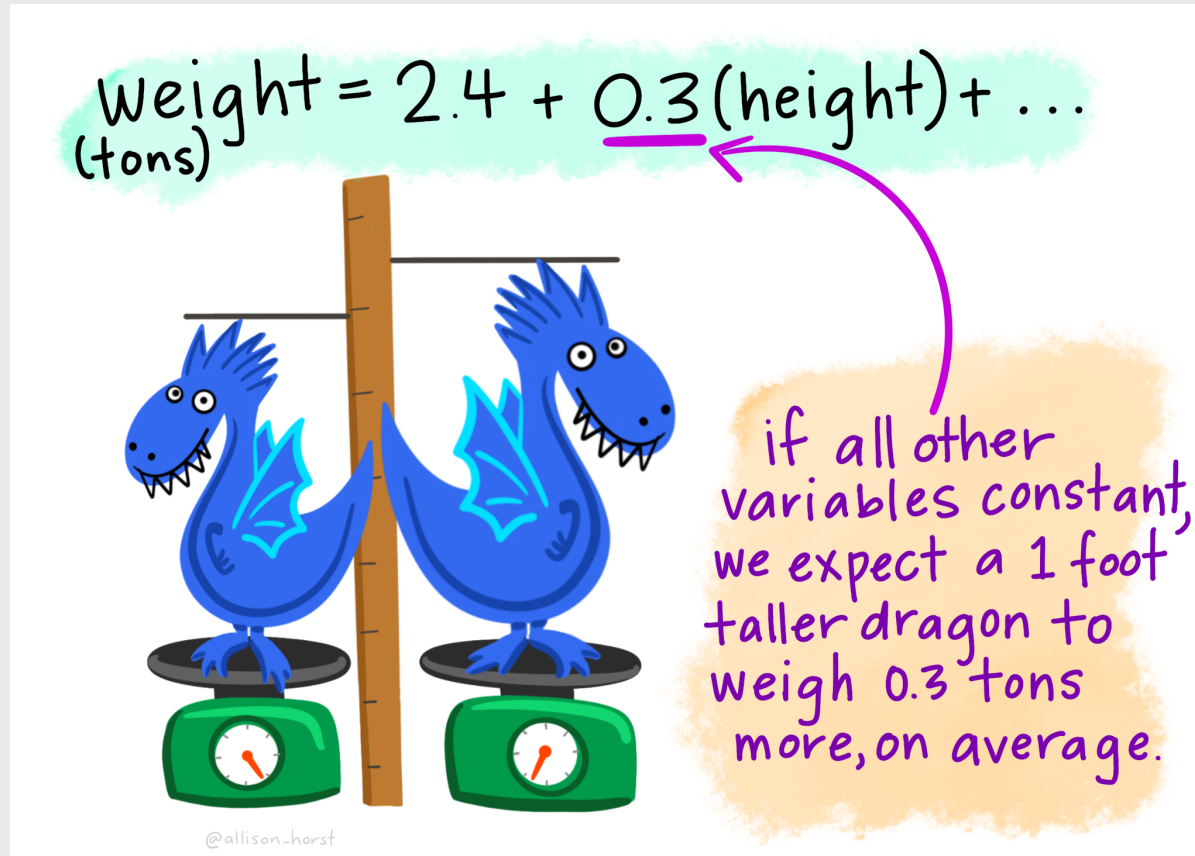
Get coefficients

```
coef(model)
```

```
#>      (Intercept) flipper_length_mm  
#>      -5780.83136          49.68557
```



Interpreting results

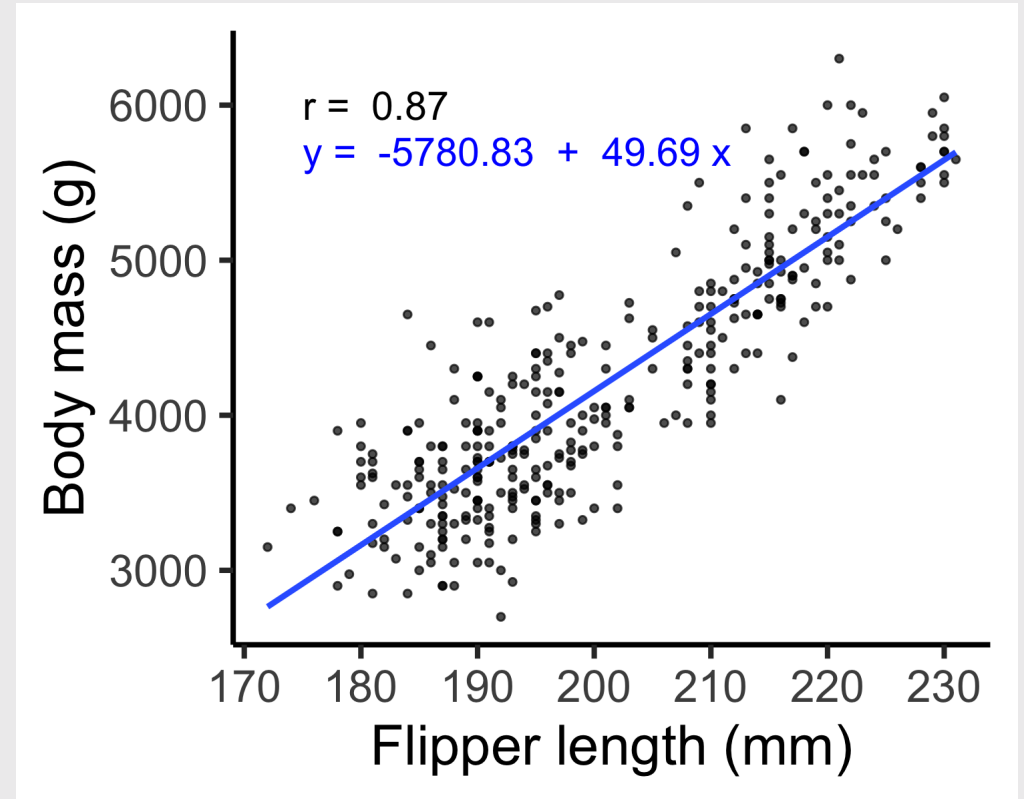


Artwork by [@allison_horst](#)

Example write up for Penguin data

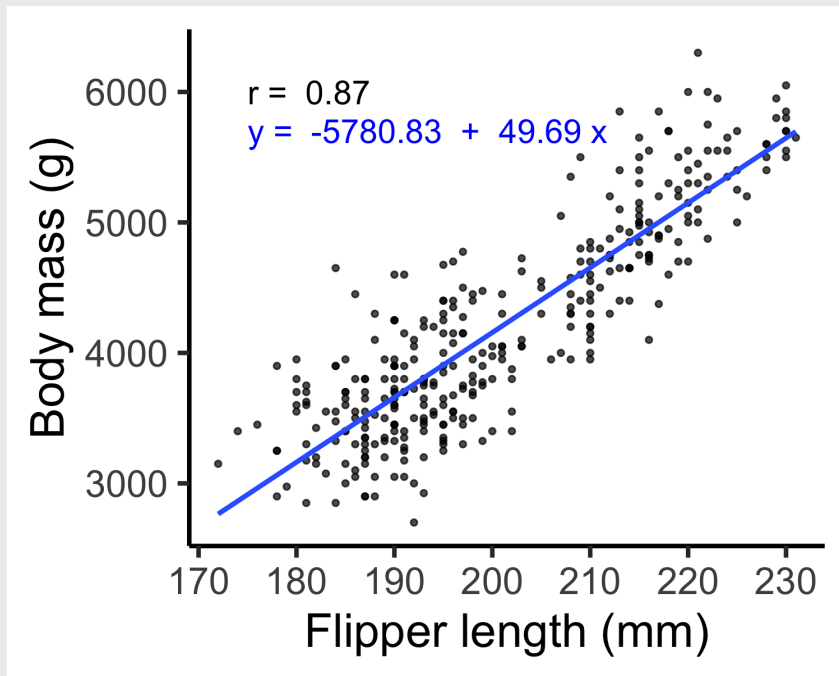
The correlation between flipper length (mm) and body mass (g) is **0.87**. Therefore, **~75%** of the variance in body mass is explained by flipper length.

The slope of the best fitting regression line indicates that body mass increased by **49.7 g** as flipper length increased by one mm.

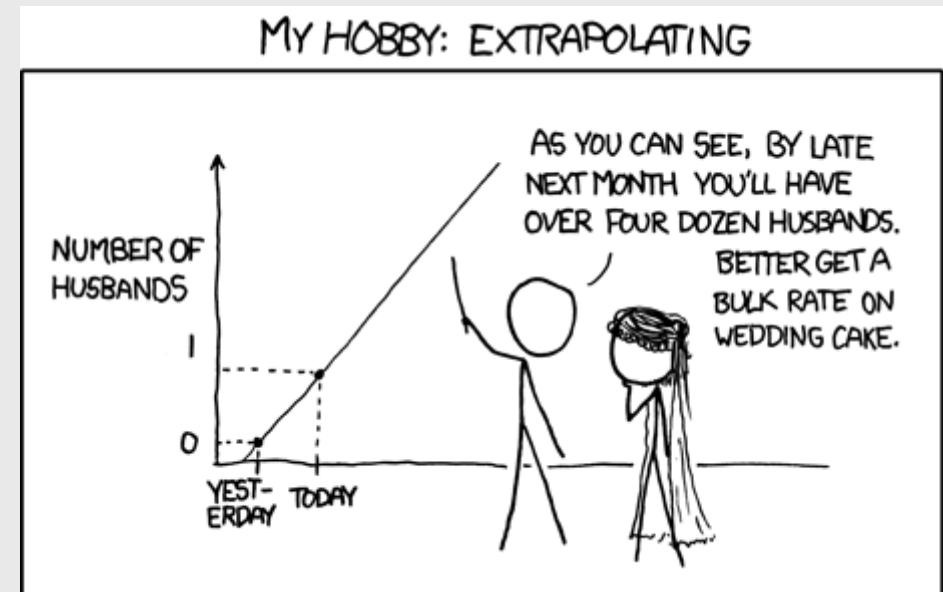


Making predictions

Interpolation is OK: You may predict values of y for values of x that were not observed but are within the range of the observed values of x .

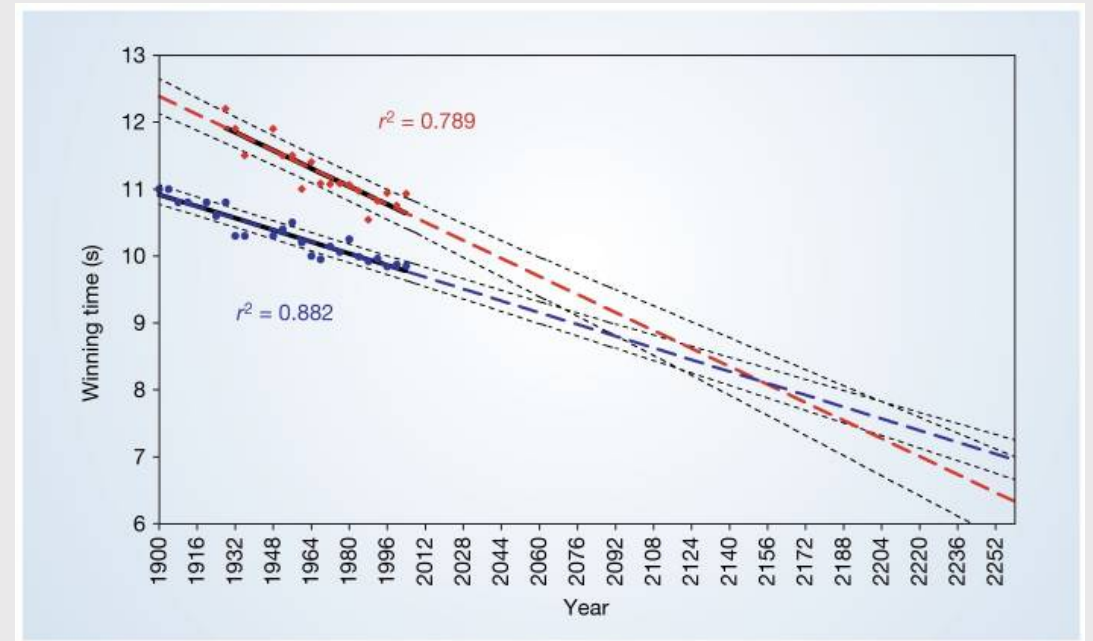


Extrapolation is DANGEROUS: You generally should NOT predict values of y using values of x that are outside the observed range of x .



Repeat: Extrapolation is **DANGEROUS**

"Extrapolation of these trends to the 2008 Olympiad indicates that the women's 100-metre race could be won in a time of 10.57 ± 0.232 seconds and the men's event in 9.73 ± 0.144 seconds. **Should these trends continue, the projections will intersect at the 2156 Olympics, when — for the first time ever — the winning women's 100-metre sprint time of 8.079 seconds will be lower than that of the men's winning time of 8.098 seconds (Fig. 1).**"



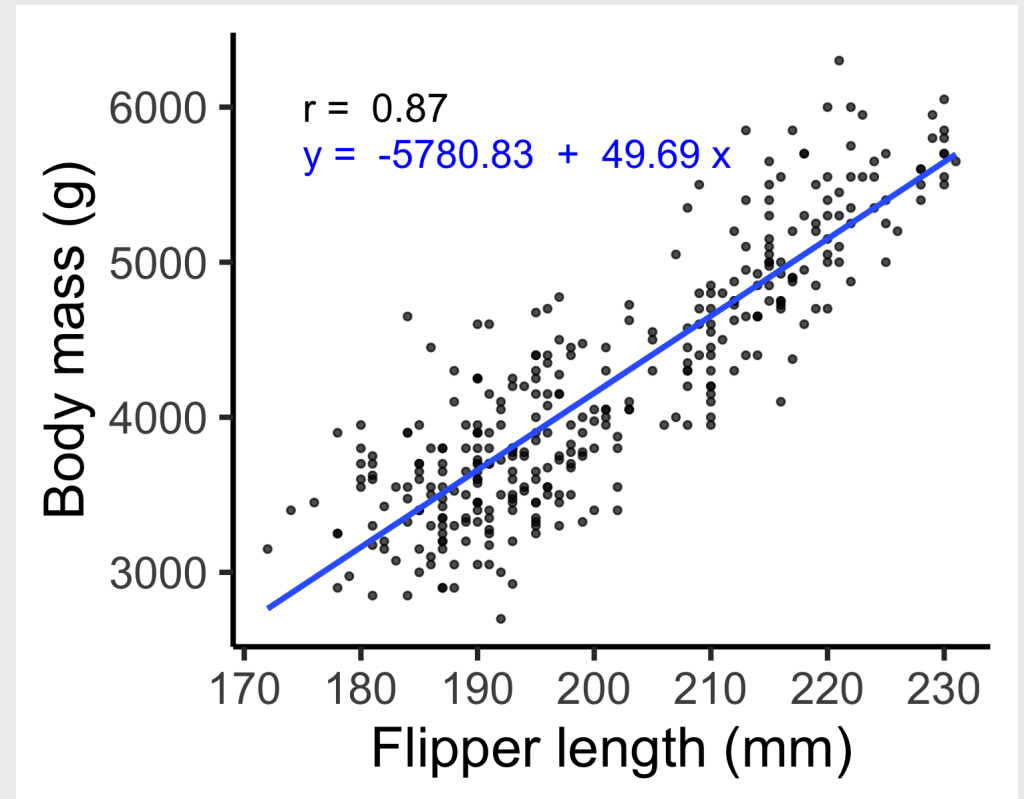
Tatem, A. J., Guerra, C. A., Atkinson, P. M., & Hay, S. I. (2004). Momentous sprint at the 2156 Olympics? *Nature*, 431(7008), 525-525. [View online](#)

Symantics

These all mean the same thing:

- "Use X to predict Y"
- "Regress Y *on* X"
- "Regression of Y *on* X"

```
model <- lm(formula = y ~ x,  
            data = data)
```



Symantics

```
model <- lm(formula = y ~ x,  
            data = data)
```

Y: Dependent variable

- Outcome variable
- Response variable
- Regressand
- Left-hand variable

X: Independent variable

- Predictor variable
- Explanatory variable
- Regressor
- Right-hand variable

Week 5: *Correlation*

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2. Visualizing correlation

BREAK

3. Linear models

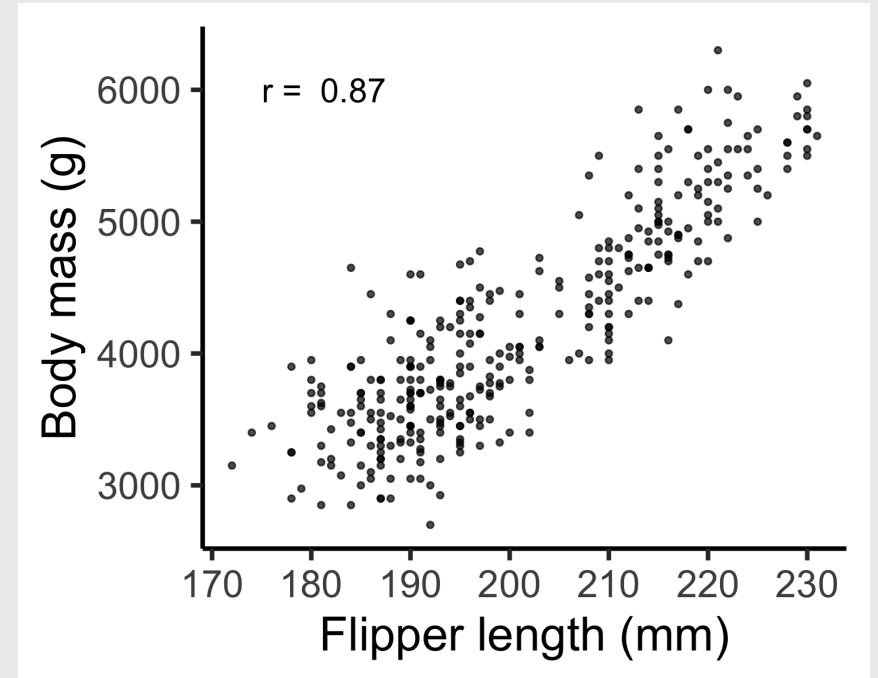
4. Visualizing linear models

Adding the correlation annotation

```
# Make the correlation label
corr <- cor(
  penguins$body_mass_g,
  penguins$flipper_length_mm,
  method = 'pearson',
  use = "complete.obs"
)

corrLabel <- paste("r = ", round(corr, 2))

# Make the chart!
penguins %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = flipper_length_mm, y = body_mass_g)) +
  geom_point(size = 1, alpha = 0.7) +
  theme_classic(base_size = 20) +
  labs(x = "Flipper length (mm)",
       y = "Body mass (g)") +
  annotate(
    geom = 'text', x = 175, y = 6000,
    label = corrLabel,
    hjust = 0, size = 5)
```



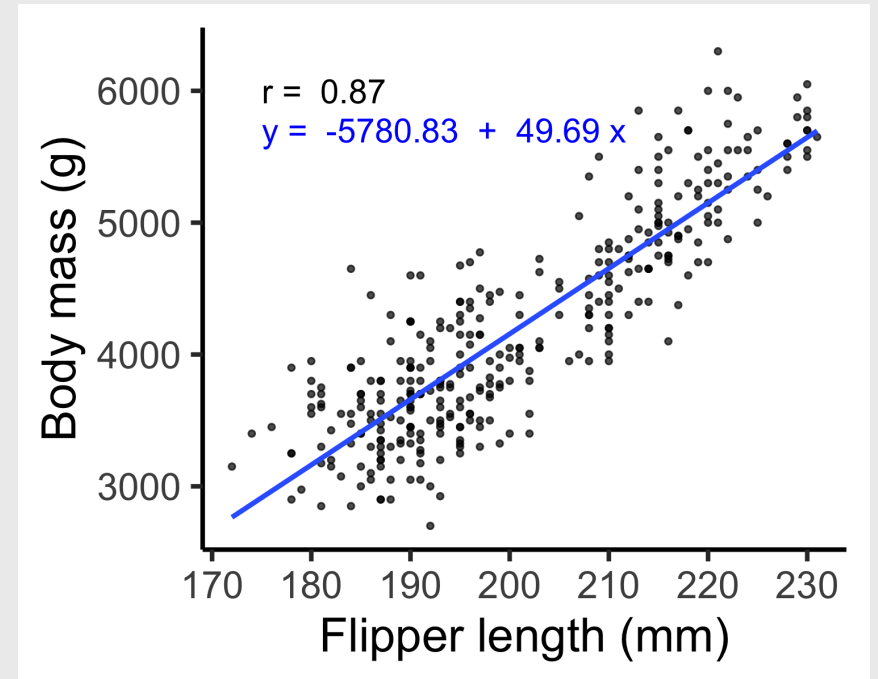
```

# Make model label
model <- lm(
  formula = body_mass_g ~ flipper_length_mm,
  data     = penguins)
coefs <- round(coef(model), 2)
modelLabel <- paste('y = ', coefs[1], ' + ', coefs[2]

# Make the chart!
penguins %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = flipper_length_mm, y = body_mass_g)) +
  geom_point(size = 1, alpha = 0.7) +
  geom_smooth(method = 'lm', se = FALSE) +
  theme_classic(base_size = 20) +
  labs(x = "Flipper length (mm)",
       y = "Body mass (g)") +
  annotate(geom = 'text', x = 175, y = 6000,
          label = corrLabel,
          hjust = 0, size = 5) +
  annotate(
    geom = 'text', x = 175, y = 5700,
    label = modelLabel, color = "blue",
    hjust = 0, size = 5)

```

Add model



Your turn

Using the `msleep` data frame:

1. Create a scatter plot of `brainwt` versus `bodywt`.
2. Include an annotation for the Pearson correlation coefficient.
3. Include an annotation for the best fit line.

Bonus: Compare your results to a log-linear relationship by converting the x and y variables to the log of x and y, like this:

```
model <- lm(log(x) ~ log(y), data = msleep)
```

You can also convert your plot to log axes by adding these layers:

```
plot +  
  scale_x_log10() +  
  scale_y_log10()
```