

# **Simple linear regression and correlation**

# Brief history

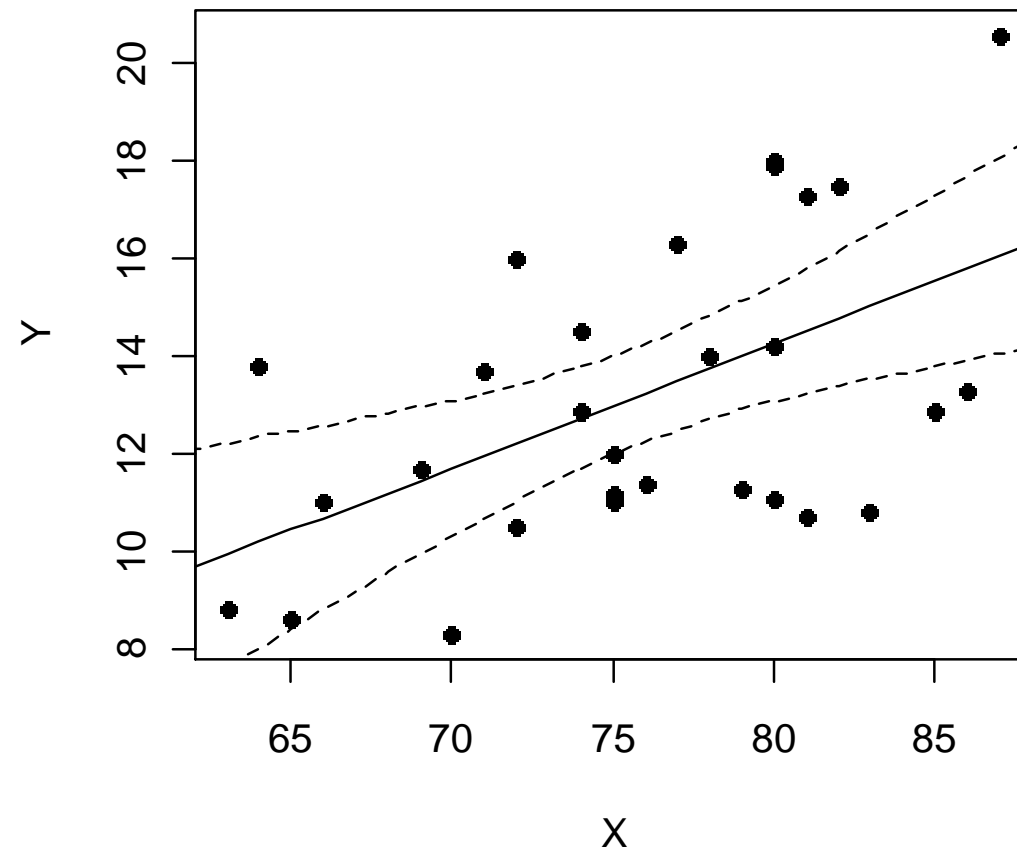
- Correlation (Auguste Bravais 1846)
- Sir Francis Galton developed the procedure of regression and correlation during 1875-1885
- Karl Pearson – correlation coefficient in 1895

# Regression vs. correlation

Two continuous variables  
(simple linear regression/correlation)

- Regression  
Y-X
  - Dependent - independent
  - Effect - cause
  - Predicted - predictor
  - Response - explanatory variable / carrier
  - Output - input
- Correlation

# Simple linear regression



$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + \varepsilon$$

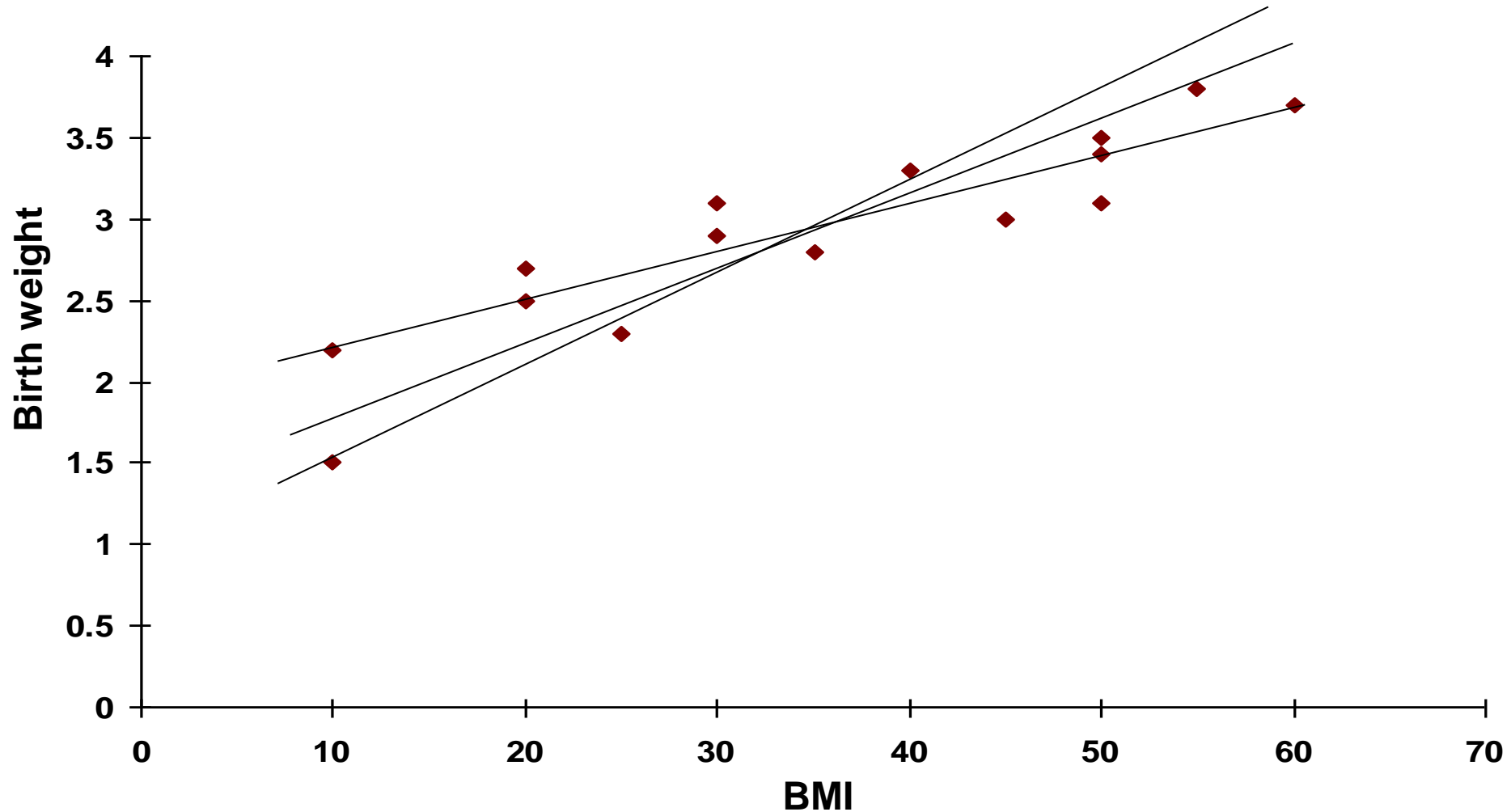
## Example

- A linear relationship between body mass index (BMI in  $\text{Kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) of pregnant mothers and the birth-weight (BW in Kg) of their newborn.
- The following data set provide information on 15 pregnant mothers.

## Data

<b>Birth-weight (Kg)</b>	<b>BMI (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>
<b>2.7</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>2.9</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>3.4</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>3.0</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>2.2</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>3.1</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>3.3</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>2.3</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>3.5</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>2.5</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>1.5</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>3.8</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>3.7</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>3.1</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>2.8</b>	<b>35</b>

# Scatter plot of BMI and birth weight

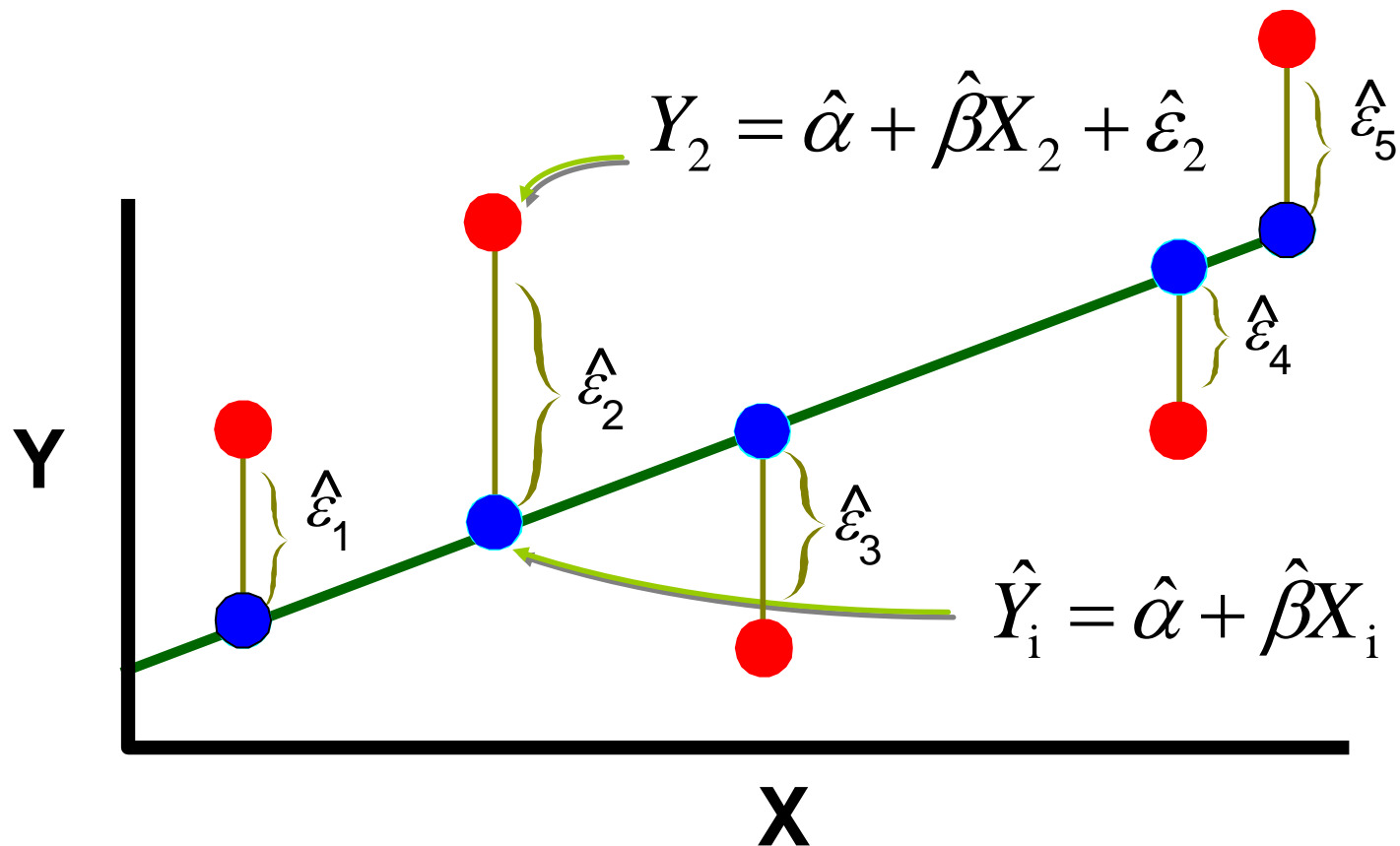


# Determining the regression line

- Although we could fit a line based on visual check, but it is a subjective approach and therefore unsatisfactory.
- An objective way of determining the position of a straight line is to use the method of **least squares**.
- Using this method, we choose a line such that the sum of squares of vertical distances of all points from the line is minimized.



# Least square



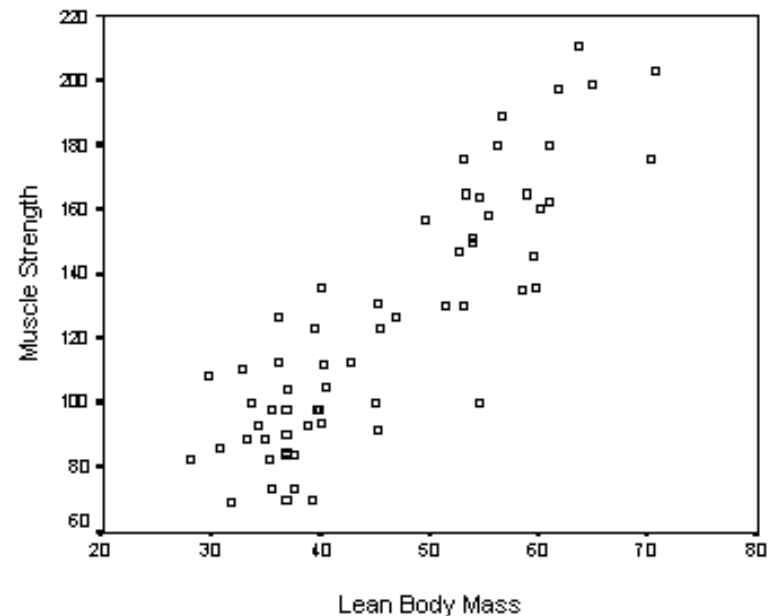
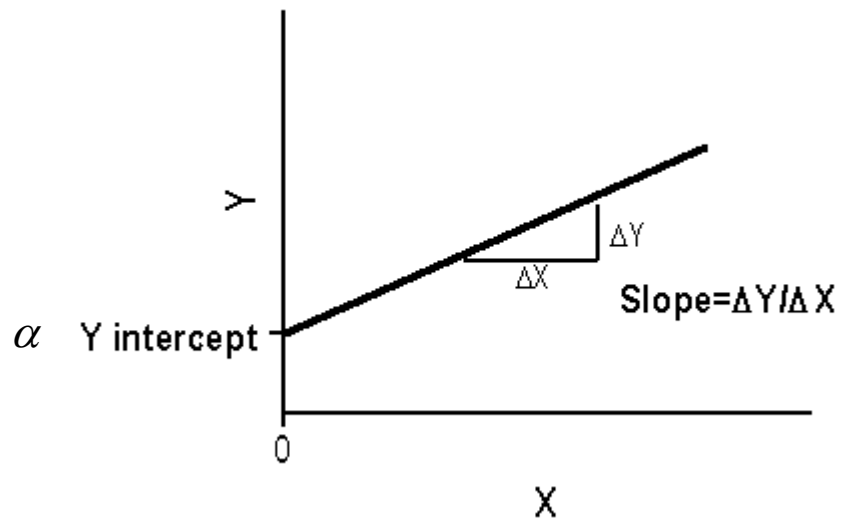
LS minimizes  $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2 = \hat{\varepsilon}_1^2 + \hat{\varepsilon}_2^2 + \hat{\varepsilon}_3^2 + \hat{\varepsilon}_4^2 + \hat{\varepsilon}_5^2$

# Regression line

- These vertical distances, i.e., the distance between  $y$  values and their corresponding estimated values on the line are called **residuals**.
- The line which fits the best is called the regression line or, sometimes, the least-squares line.
- The line always passes through the point  $(X_{\text{mean}}, Y_{\text{mean}})$ .

# Regression coefficient (slope)

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + \varepsilon$$



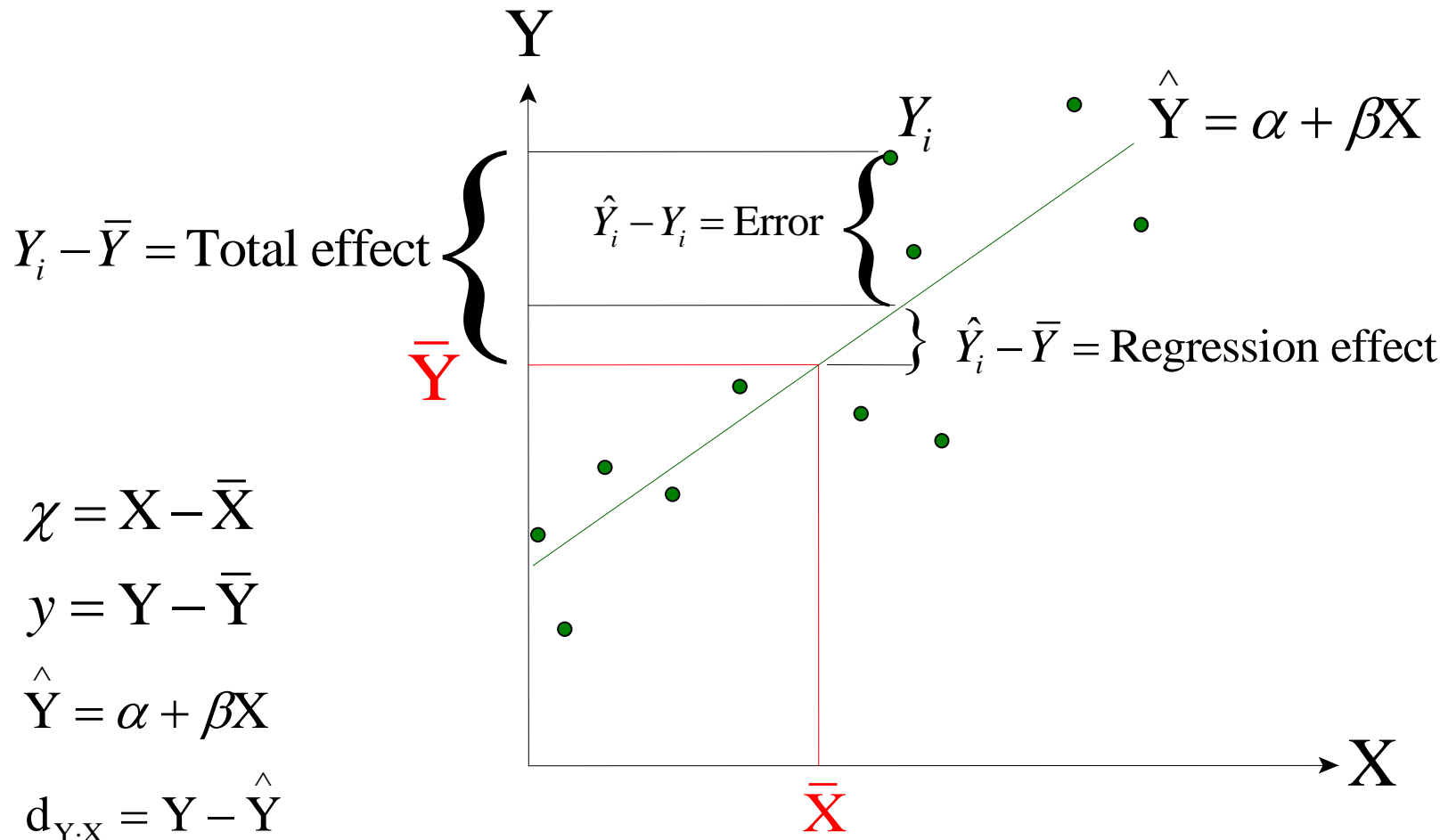
$$\beta = \frac{\sum xy}{\sum x^2}$$

$$x = X - \bar{X}$$

$$y = Y - \bar{Y}$$

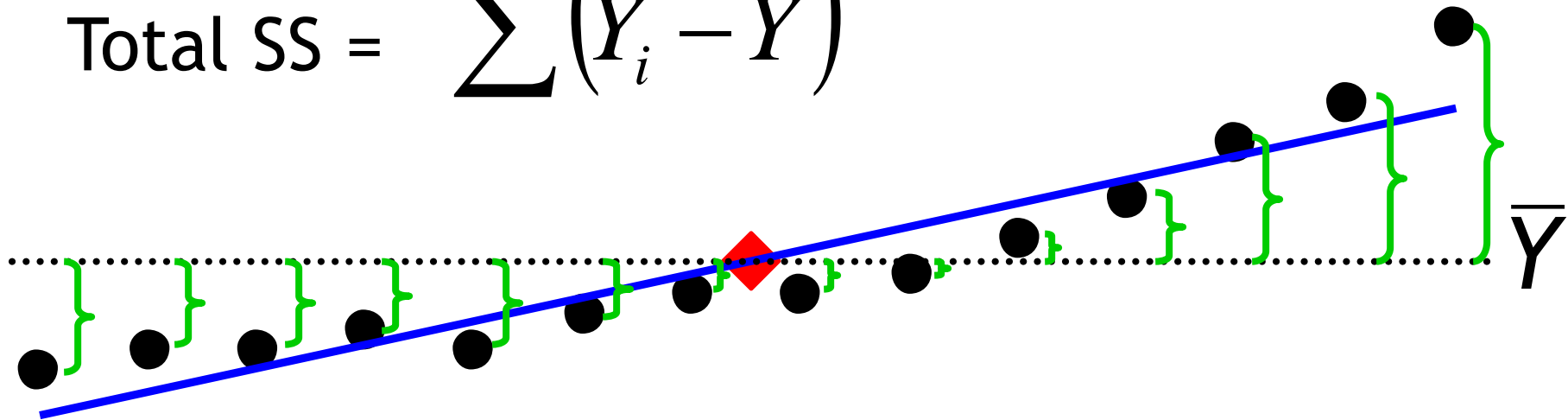
# Basic computations in regression

## Decomposition of effects



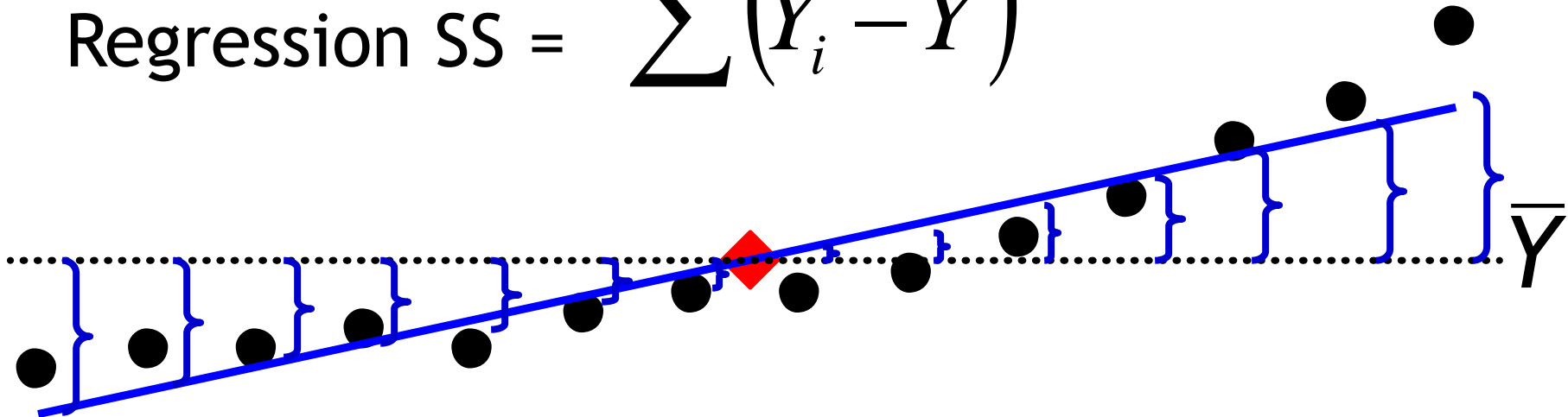
# The total variation in Y (SSY)

$$\text{Total SS} = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$



# The variation in Y accounted for by the regression (SSR)

$$\text{Regression SS} = \sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$$



# The famous five sums

trees

Girth Height Volume

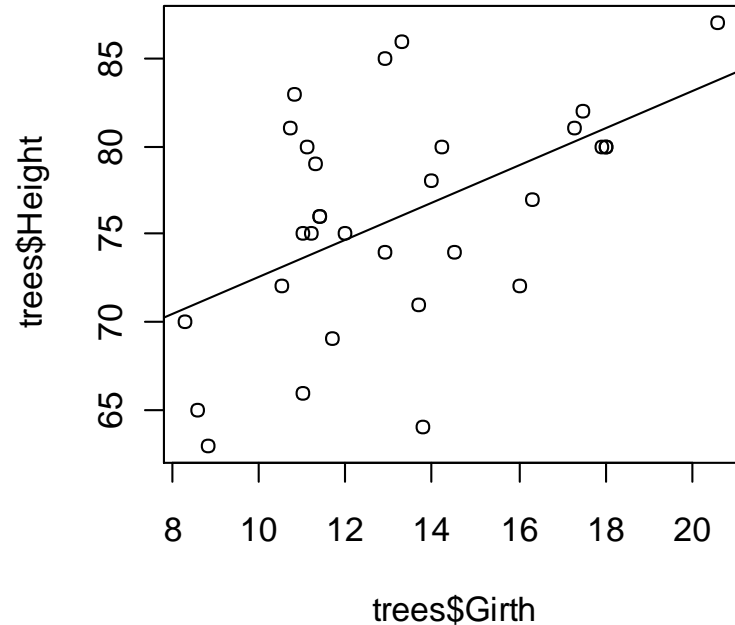
1	8.3	70	10.3
2	8.6	65	10.3
3	8.8	63	10.2
4	10.5	72	16.4
5	10.7	81	18.8
6	10.8	83	19.7
7	11.0	66	15.6
8	11.0	75	18.2
9	11.1	80	22.6
10	11.2	75	19.9
11	11.3	79	24.2
12	11.4	76	21.0
13	11.4	76	21.4
14	11.7	69	21.3
15	12.0	75	19.1
16	12.9	74	22.2
17	12.9	85	33.8
18	13.3	86	27.4
19	13.7	71	25.7
20	13.8	64	24.9
21	14.0	78	34.5
22	14.2	80	31.7
23	14.5	74	36.3
24	16.0	72	38.3
25	16.3	77	42.6
26	17.3	81	55.4
27	17.5	82	55.7
28	17.9	80	58.3
29	18.0	80	51.5
30	18.0	80	51.0
31	20.6	87	77.0

```
plot(trees$Girth, trees$Height)
```

```
abline(lm(trees$Height~trees$Girth))
```

```
X = trees$Girth
```

```
Y = trees$Height
```



```
# The famous five sums
```

```
sum(X)
```

```
sum(X^2)
```

```
sum(Y)
```

```
sum(Y^2)
```

```
sum(X*Y)
```

# Matrix multiplication

```
sum(X) ; sum(X^2) ; sum(Y) ; sum(Y^2) ; sum(X*Y)
# matrix multiplication
XY <- cbind(1,X,Y)
t(XY) %*% XY
```

trees  
Girth Height

1	8.3	70
2	8.6	65
3	8.8	63
4	10.5	72
5	10.7	81
6	10.8	83
7	11.0	66
8	11.0	75
9	11.1	80
10	11.2	75
11	11.3	79
12	11.4	76
13	11.4	76
14	11.7	69
15	12.0	75
16	12.9	74
17	12.9	85
18	13.3	86
19	13.7	71
20	13.8	64
21	14.0	78
22	14.2	80
23	14.5	74
24	16.0	72
25	16.3	77
26	17.3	81
27	17.5	82
28	17.9	80
29	18.0	80
30	18.0	80
31	20.6	87

```
> sum(X);sum(X^2);sum(Y);sum(Y^2);sum(X*Y)
[1] 410.7
[1] 5736.55
[1] 2356
[1] 180274
[1] 31524.7
> XY <- cbind(1,X,Y)
> t(XY) %*% XY
```

	X	Y	
	31.0	410.70	2356.0
X	410.7	5736.55	31524.7
Y	2356.0	31524.70	180274.0



# Sums of squares and sums of products

$$SSX = \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \quad SSY = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \quad SSXY = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})(X_i - \bar{X})$$

*# Sums of squares and sums of products*

`SSX = sum((X-mean(X))^2); SSX`

`SSY = sum((Y-mean(Y))^2); SSY`

`SSXY = sum((Y-mean(Y))*(X-mean(X))); SSXY`

$$SSX = \sum (X_i)^2 - \frac{(\sum (X_i))^2}{n} \quad SSY = \sum (Y_i)^2 - \frac{(\sum (Y_i))^2}{n} \quad SSXY = \sum (X_i Y_i) - \frac{\sum (X_i) \sum (Y_i)}{n}$$

*# The alternative way using the 5 sums*

`SSX = sum(X^2) - sum(X)^2/length(X); SSX`

`SSY = sum(Y^2) - sum(Y)^2/length(Y); SSY`

`SSXY = sum(X*Y) - sum(X)*sum(Y)/length(X); SSXY`

```
> SSX = sum((X-mean(X))^2); SSX
```

```
[1] 295.4374
```

```
> SSY = sum((Y-mean(Y))^2); SSY
```

```
[1] 1218
```

```
> SSXY = sum((Y-mean(Y))*(X-mean(X))); SSXY
```

```
[1] 311.5
```

# Model coefficients

# Model ( $Y=a+bX$ ) coefficients

$b = SS_{XY}/SS_X$ ;  $b$

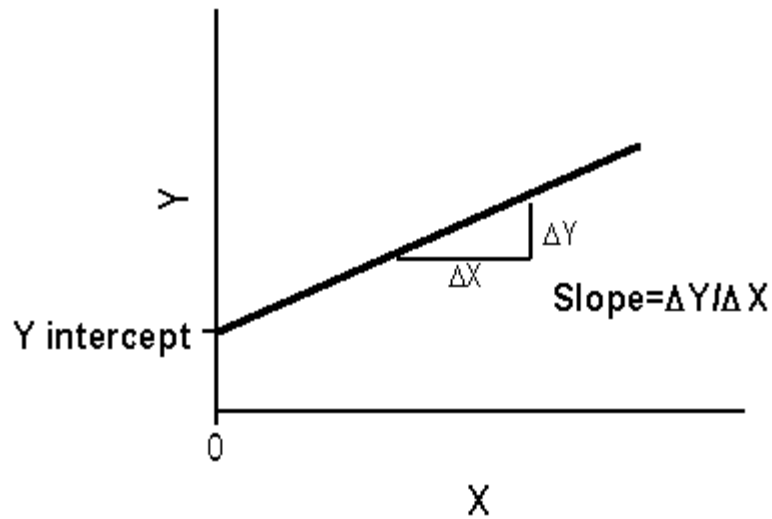
$a = \text{mean}(Y) - b * \text{mean}(X)$  ;  $a$

$\text{lm}(Y \sim X)$

```
> b = SSXY/SSX; b
[1] 1.054
> a = mean(Y)-b*mean(X); a
[1] 62.031
> lm(Y~X)
Call:
lm(formula = Y ~ X)

Coefficients:
(Intercept)      X
   62.031      1.054
```

## Derivation of the Y intercept



$$y = a + bx + e$$

$$e = y - a - bx$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i - b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Because by definition  $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i = 0$

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i - b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$na = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$a = \bar{y} - b\bar{x}$$

# Derivation of the regression coefficient

$$y = a + bx + \varepsilon$$

$$\varepsilon = y - a - bx$$

$$\varepsilon_i^2 = (y_i - a - bx_i)^2$$

$$\sum \varepsilon_i^2 = \sum (y_i - a - bx_i)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \sum \varepsilon_i^2}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial \sum (y_i - a - bx_i)^2}{\partial b}$$

$$= -2 \sum x_i (y_i - a - bx_i) \leftarrow$$

$$= -2 \sum x_i (y_i - \bar{y} + b\bar{x} - bx_i)$$

$$= -2 \sum x_i (y_i - \bar{y} - b(x_i - \bar{x})) = 0$$

$$\bar{y} = a + b\bar{x}$$

$$a = \bar{y} - b\bar{x} = \sum y_i / n - b \sum x_i / n$$

$$b \sum x_i (x_i - \bar{x}) = \sum x_i (y_i - \bar{y})$$

$$b \left( \sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n} \right) = \sum x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{n}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum \Delta x \Delta y}{\sum \Delta x^2} = \frac{SS_{xy}}{SS_{xx}}$$

# Estimated regression line

BW ~ BMI (Birth weight ~ Body mass index)

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} x = 1.775351 + 0.0330187 x$$

$$\hat{\alpha} = 1.775351$$

$$\hat{\beta} = 0.0330187$$

## Application of regression line

This equation allows you to estimate BW of other newborns when the BMI is given.

e.g., for a mother who has BMI=40, i.e.  $X = 40$  we predict BW to be:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} x = 1.775351 + 0.0330187 (40) = 3.096$$

# Testing the significance of a regression

- ANOVA Testing

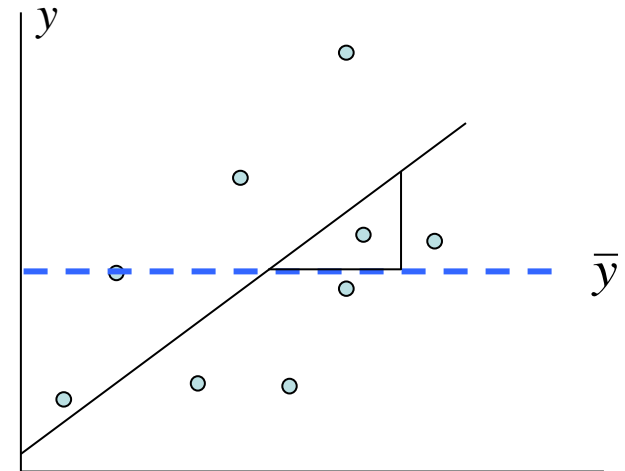
$$SSY = \text{total SS} = \sum (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum y^2$$

$$SSR = \text{regression SS} = \sum (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

$$SSE = \text{residual SS} = \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 = \text{total SS} - \text{regression SS}$$

$$\text{residual DF} = \text{total DF} - \text{regression DF} = n - 2$$

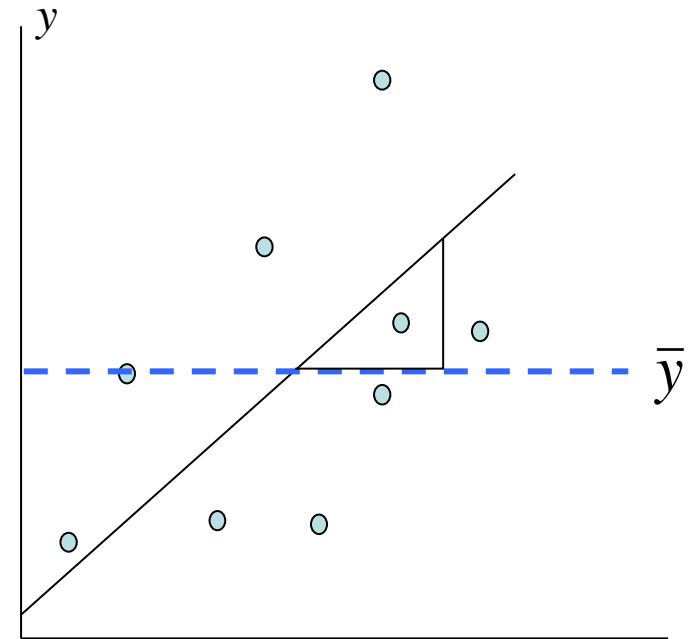
$$F = \frac{\text{regression MS}}{\text{residual MS}}$$



# How many regression $df$ ?

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$$

- Note that when  $a$  (intercept) and  $b$  (slope) are determined, SSR is determined.
- $a$  and  $b$  can freely rotated in the 2d plane, hence possible  $df = 2$
- Constrain:  $\hat{\alpha} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}$
- $df = 2 - 1 = 1$





# Analysis of variance in regression

```
# Analysis of variance in regression
anova(lm(Y~X)) # data: trees
qf(0.95,1,29) # 4.18
1-pf(10.707,1,29)
```

```
> anova(lm(Y~X))
Analysis of Variance Table
Response: Y
```

	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
X	1	328.44	328.44	10.707	0.002758 **
Residuals	29	889.56	30.67		

```
---
> qf(0.95, 1, 29)
[1] 4.182964
> 1-pf(10.707, 1, 29)
[1] 0.002757909
```

# Estimation of unreliability

*# Unreliability estimates for the parameters*

```
summary(lm(Y~X))
```

```
confint(lm(Y~X))
```

```
> summary(lm(Y~X))
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-12.5816	-2.7686	0.3163	2.4728	9.9456

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	62.0313	4.3833	14.152	1.49e-14 ***
X	1.0544	0.3222	3.272	0.00276 **

Residual standard error: 5.538 on 29 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.2697, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2445

F-statistic: 10.71 on 1 and 29 DF, p-value: 0.002758

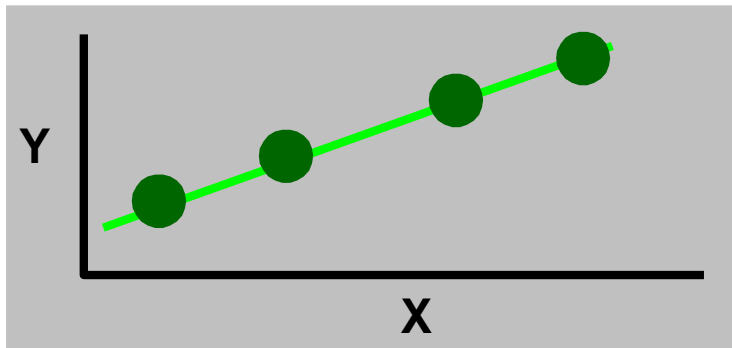
```
> confint(lm(Y~X))
```

	2.5 %	97.5 %
(Intercept)	53.0664541	70.996174
X	0.3953483	1.713389

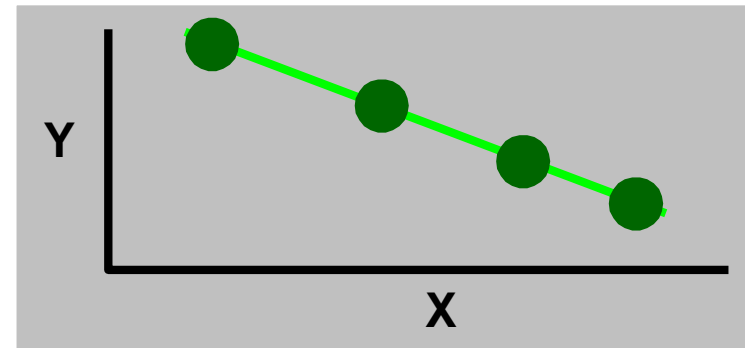
# Coefficient of determination (R square)

$$r^2 = \frac{\text{regression SS}}{\text{total SS}} = \frac{\text{SSR}}{\text{SSY}}$$

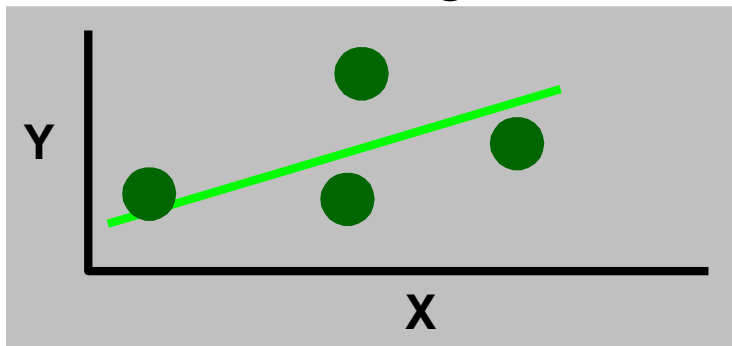
$$r^2 = 1$$



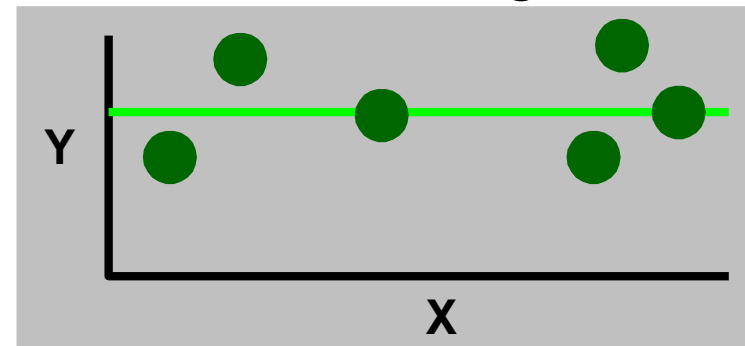
$$r^2 = 1$$



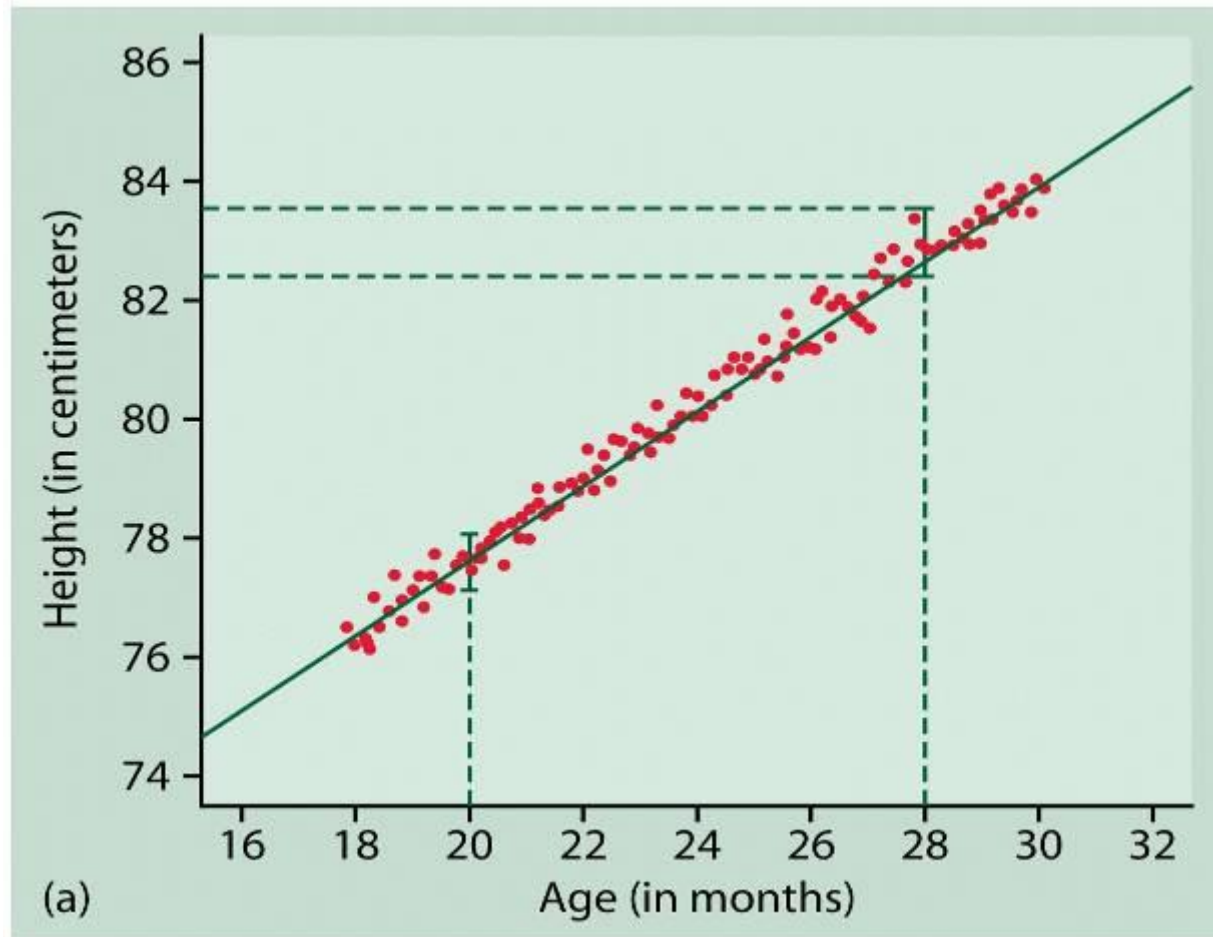
$$r^2 = 0.7$$



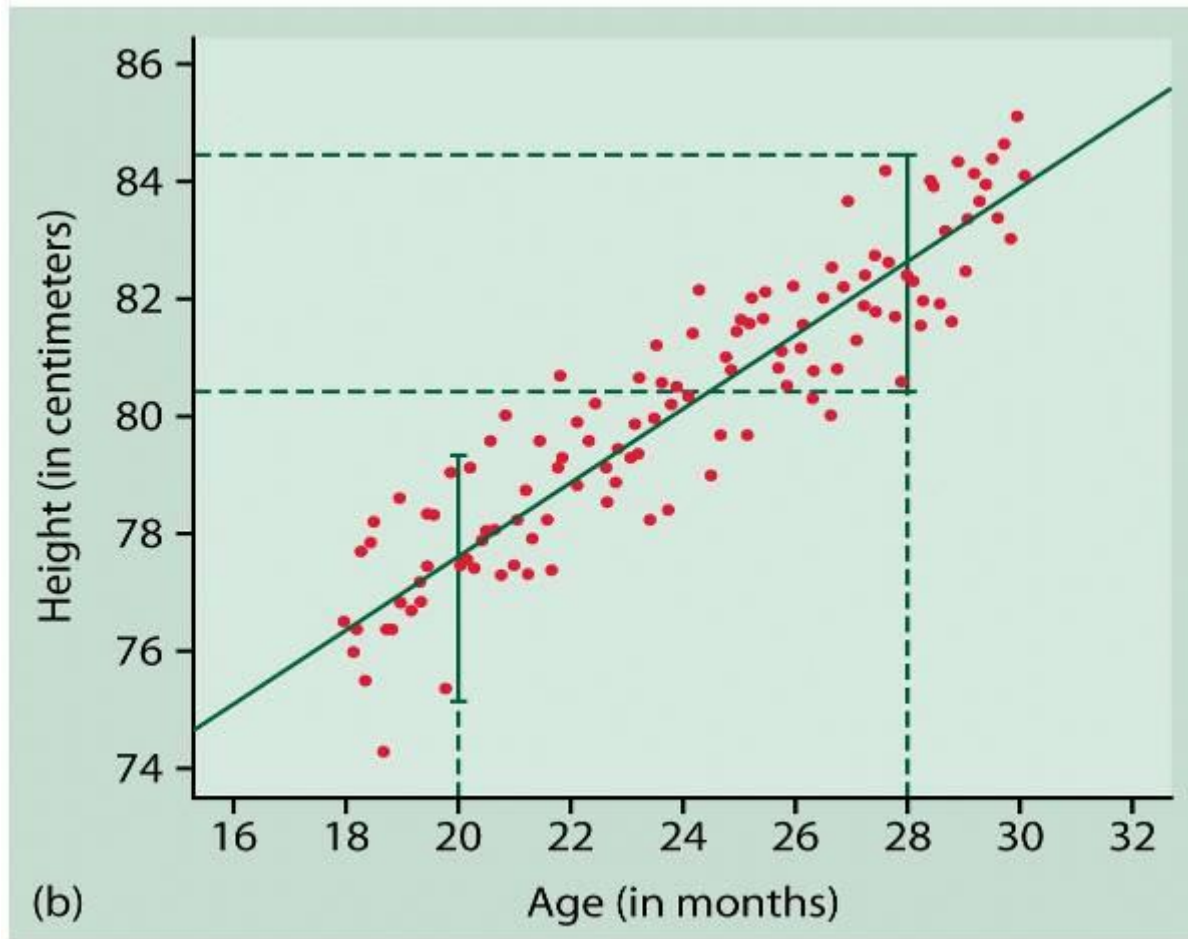
$$r^2 = 0$$



# Age vs. Height: $r^2=0.988$



# Age vs. Height: $r^2=0.849$



# Degree of scatter

*# Degree of scatter*

`SSY = deviance(lm(Y~1)) ; SSY # SSY`

`SSE = deviance(lm(Y~X)) ; SSE # SSE`

`rsq = (SSY-SSE)/SSY; rsq # R square`

`summary(lm(Y~X)) [[8]]`

```
> deviance(lm(Y~1)) # SSY
```

```
[1] 1218
```

```
> SSE = deviance(lm(Y~X)); SSE # SSE
```

```
[1] 899.5451
```

```
> rsq = (SSY-SSE)/SSY; rsq # R square
```

```
[1] 0.2696518
```

```
> summary(lm(Y~X))[[8]]
```

```
[1] 0.2696518
```

## $R^2$ Computer Output

```
summary(lm(Volume~Girth, trees))$r.squared
```

```
[1] 0.9353199
```

```
summary(lm(Volume~Girth, trees))$adj.r.squared
```

```
[1] 0.9330895
```

# R square and adjusted R square

- R square is a non-decreasing function of the number of variables in the model.
- R square therefore can not be compared of 2 models unless both have same number of variables and also the dependent variable appears in both models in the same form.
- To enable comparison of R square of different models with different numbers of variables we use Adjusted R square.

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{Explained Variation}}{\text{Total Variation}}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y} - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}$$

$$\text{adj } R^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{n - 1}{n - k}$$

K is the number of coefficients (one intercept and a number of slopes)



## Regression performance – R square and F statistic

- $R^2$  measures the proportion of explained variance
- F statistic measure the explained over unexplained

$$F = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$$

## Testing the significance of the slope

### $t$ test

- $H_0: \beta = \beta_0$
- $H_A: \beta \neq \beta_0$
- $\beta_0 \neq 0$ , or  $\beta_0 = 0$

$$t = \frac{(\text{parameter estimated}) - (\text{parameter value hypothesized})}{\text{standard error of parameter estimated}}$$

$$t = \frac{b - \beta_0}{s_b} \quad s_b^2 = \frac{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

## Confident interval for the regression coefficient

$$t = \frac{b - \beta_0}{s_b}$$

$$b \pm t_{\alpha(2), (n-2)} s_b$$

$$s_b^2 = \frac{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

## Standard errors of regression coefficients

```
summary(lm(Y~X))[[4]][4] # The standard error of the slope  
summary(lm(Y~X))[[4]]
```

```
> summary(model)[[4]][4]  
[1] 0.3222233  
> summary(model)[[4]]
```

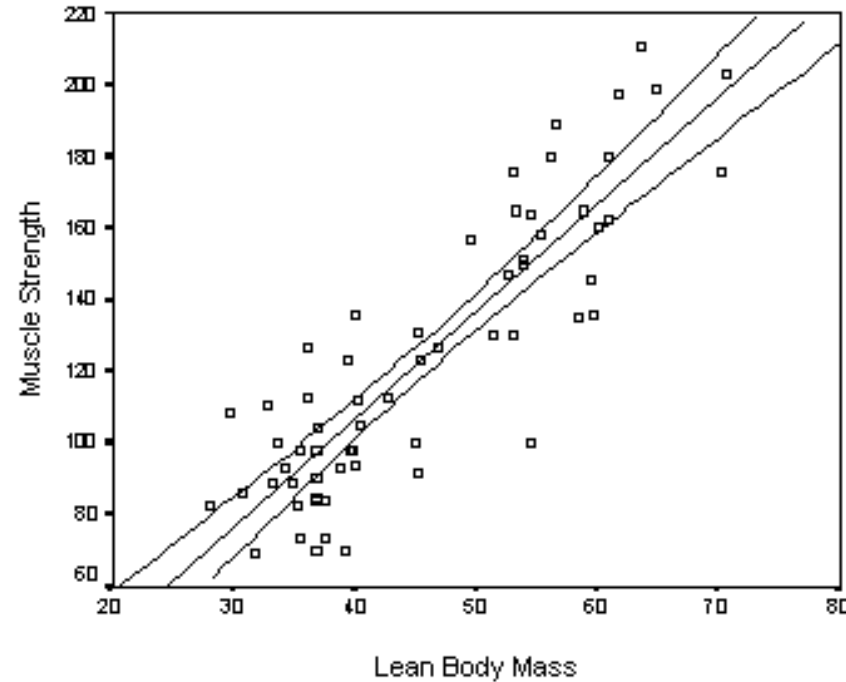
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	62.031314	4.3833023	14.151731	1.492972e-14
X	1.054369	0.3222233	3.272169	2.757815e-03

## Confidence interval for an estimated $y_j$ at $x_j$

$$E(y) \pm t_{n-2, \alpha(2)} \cdot S_{\hat{y}}$$

$$S_{\hat{y}_j} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2}{n-2} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_j - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]}$$

$$DF = n-2$$



# Factors affecting interval width

## 1. Level of Confidence ( $1 - \alpha$ )

Width decreases as confidence ( $1 - \alpha$ ) decreases

## 2. Sample Size

Width decreases as sample size increases

## 3. Error variance ( $SSE$ )

Width increases as variation increases

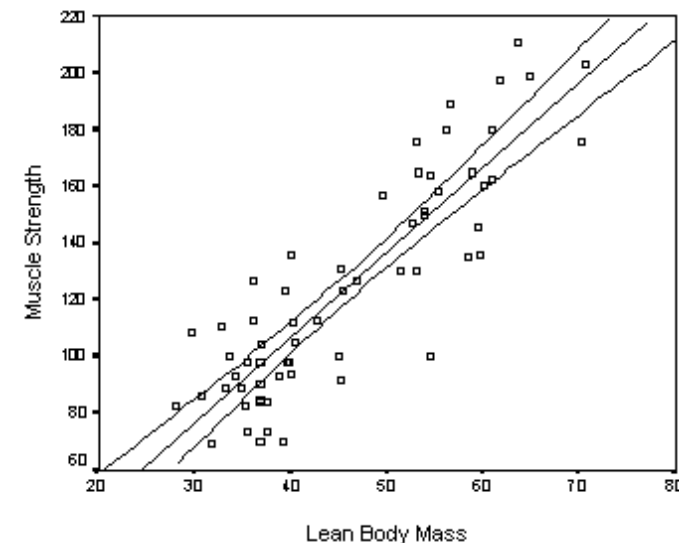
## 4. Distance of X from Mean X

Width decreases as distance decreases

## 5. Data Dispersion ( $\max(x) - \min(x)$ )

Width decreases as dispersion increases

$$S_{\hat{y}_j} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2}{n-2} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_j - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]}$$



# Interval estimate computer output

	Dep Var	Pred	Std Err	Low95%	Upp95%	Low95%	Upp95%
Obs	SALES	Value	Predict	Mean	Mean	Predict	Predict
1	1.000	0.600	0.469	-0.892	2.092	-1.837	3.037
2	1.000	1.300	0.332	0.244	2.355	-0.897	3.497
3	2.000	2.000	0.271	1.138	2.861	-0.111	4.111
4	2.000	2.700	0.332	1.644	3.755	0.502	4.897
5	4.000	3.400	0.469	1.907	4.892	0.962	5.837

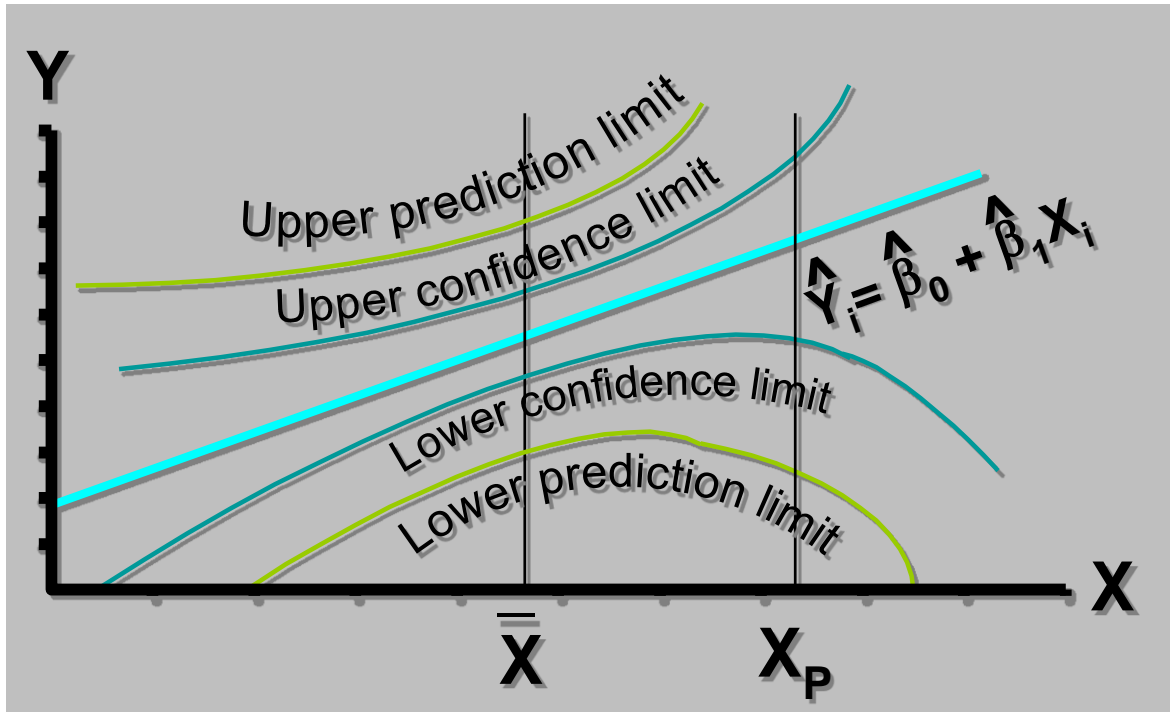
**Predicted Y  
when  $X = 4$**

**$S_{\hat{Y}}$**

**Confidence  
Interval**

**Prediction  
Interval**

# Hyperbolic interval bands



Prediction: calculate the “true” value of the dependent variable at values of the independent variables that we have not measured.

$$\text{Confidence interval} = \hat{y}_j \pm t_{n-2, \alpha(2)} \times S / \sqrt{n} = \hat{y}_j \pm t_{n-2, \alpha(2)} \times S_{\hat{y}_j}$$

$$\text{Prediction interval} = \hat{y}_j \pm t_{n-2, \alpha(2)} \times S \times \sqrt{1 + 1/n}$$

$$S_{\hat{y}_j} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y})^2}{n-2} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_j - \bar{x})^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]}$$



# Prediction using the fitted model

*# Prediction using the fitted model*

```
model <- lm(Y~X)
```

```
predict(model, list(X = c(14,15,16)))
```

```
> model<-lm(Y~X)
```

```
> predict(model,list(X=c(14,15,16)))
```

1	2	3
76.79248	77.84685	78.90121

# Plot estimation CI

```
ci.lines<-function(model){
  xm <- mean(model[[12]][,2])
  n <- length(model[[12]][[2]])
  ssx<- sum(model[[12]][,2]^2) - sum(model[[12]][2])^2/n
  s.t<- qt(0.975,(n-2))
  xv <- seq(min(model[[12]][,2]),max(model[[12]][,2]),
            (max(model[[12]][,2]) - min(model[[12]][,2]))/100)
  yv <- coef(model)[1]+coef(model)[2]*xv
  se <- sqrt(summary(model)[[6]]^2*(1/n+(xv-xm)^2/ssx))
  ci <- s.t * se
  uyv<- yv + ci
  lyv<- yv - ci
  lines(xv, uyv, lty=2)
  lines(xv, lyv, lty=2)
}
plot(X, Y, pch = 16)
abline(model)
ci.lines(model)
```

## # Another method

```
X = trees$Girth; Y = trees$Height
```

```
model <- lm(Y~X)
```

```
plot(X, Y, pch = 16, ylim=c(60,95))
```

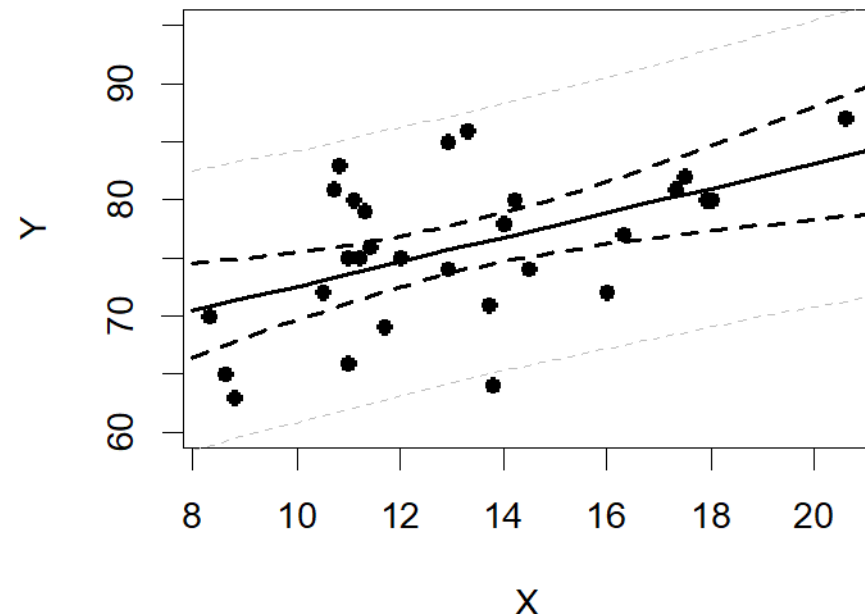
```
xv <- seq(8,22,1)
```

```
y.c <- predict(model,list(X=xv),int="c") # "c": 95% CI
```

```
y.p <- predict(model,list(X=xv),int="p") # "p": prediction
```

```
matlines(xv, y.c, lty=c(1,2,2), lwd=2, col="black")
```

```
matlines(xv, y.p, lty=c(1,2,2), lwd=1, col=c("black","grey","grey"))
```



## Error bars (for categorical levels)

```
x1 <- rep( 0:1, each=500 ); x2 <- rep( 0:1, each=250, length=1000 )
```

```
y <- 10 + 5*x1 + 10*x2 - 3*x1*x2 + rnorm(1000,0,2) #values
```

```
fit1 <- lm( y ~ x1*x2 )
```

```
newdat <- expand.grid( x1=0:1, x2=0:1 )
```

```
pred.lm.ci <- predict(fit1, newdat, interval='confidence')
```

```
pred.lm.pi <- predict(fit1, newdat, interval='prediction')
```

```
pred.lm.ci; pred.lm.pi
```

```
# function for plotting error bars from http://monkeysuncle.stanford.edu/?p=485
```

```
error.bar <- function(x, y, upper, lower=upper, length=0.1,...){
  if(length(x) != length(y) | length(y) !=length(lower) | length(lower) != length(upper))
    stop("vectors must be same length")
  arrows(x,y+upper, x, y-lower, angle=90, code=3, length=length, ...)
}
```

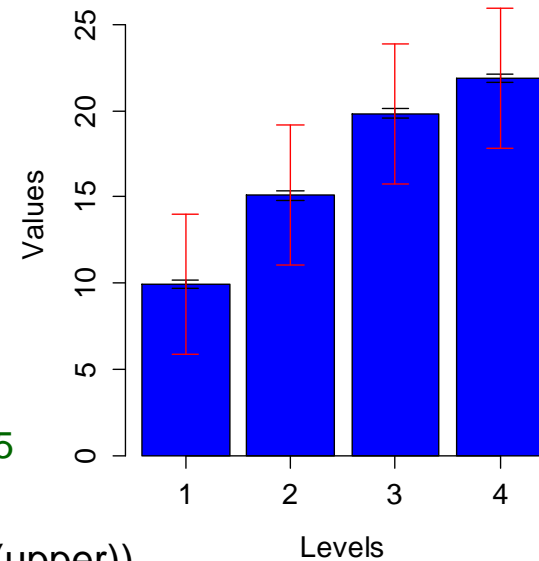
```
barx <- barplot(pred.lm.ci[,1], names.arg=1:4, col="blue", axis.lty=1, ylim=c(0,28),
  xlab="Levels", ylab="Values")
```

```
# Error bar for confidence interval
```

```
error.bar(barx, pred.lm.ci[,1], pred.lm.ci[,2]-pred.lm.ci[,1],pred.lm.ci[,1]-pred.lm.ci[,3])
```

```
# Error bar for prediction interval
```

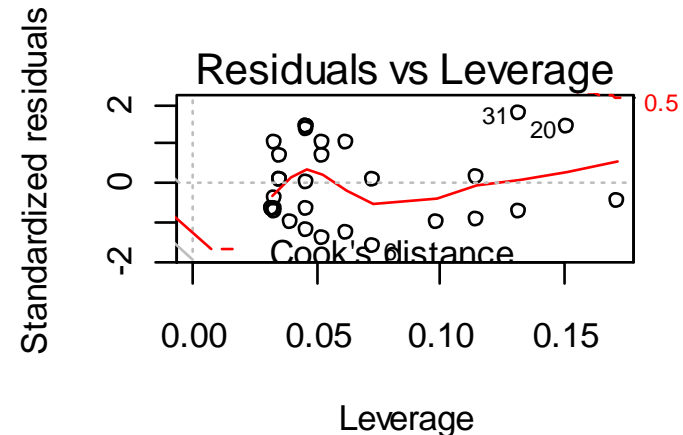
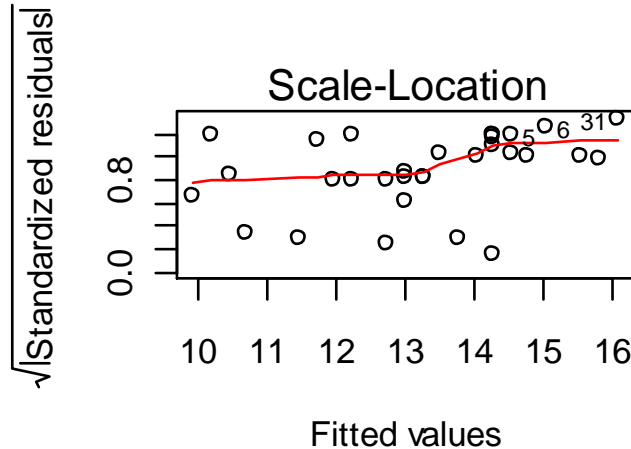
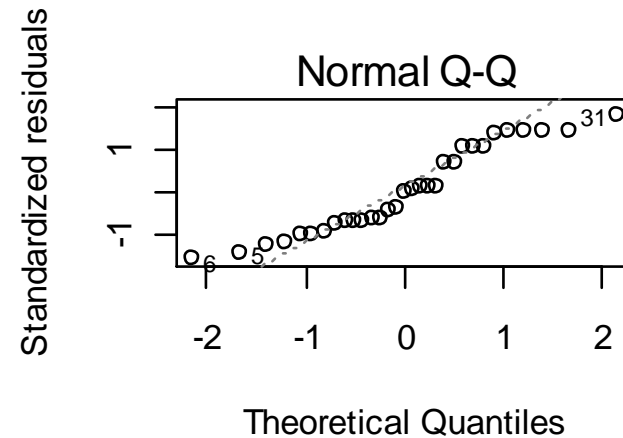
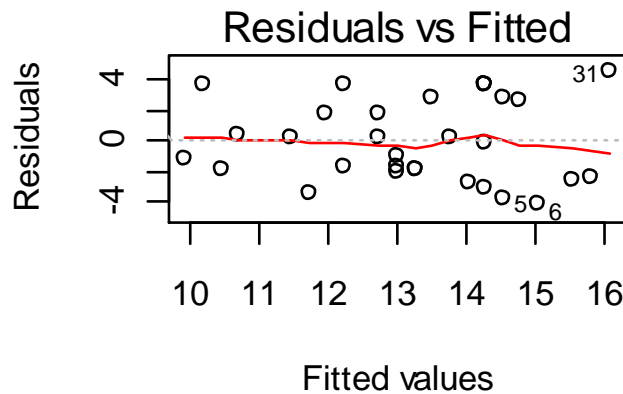
```
error.bar(barx, pred.lm.pi[,1], pred.lm.pi[,2]-pred.lm.pi[,1],pred.lm.pi[,1]-pred.lm.pi[,3],col='red')
```



# Model checking

# Model checking

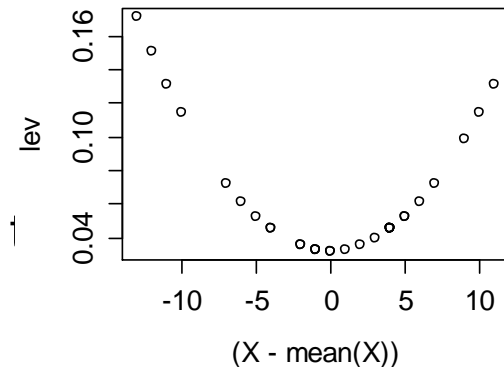
```
par(mfrow=c(2,2)); plot(model)
```



# Influence

- An observation's influence is a function of two factors: (1) leverage, (2) distance.

# Leverage



- The leverage of an observation is based on how much it differs from the mean of the predictor variable.
- The greater an observation's leverage, the more potential it has to be an influential observation.
  - For example, an observation with a value equal to the mean on the predictor variable has no influence on the slope of the regression line regardless of its value on the criterion variable.
  - On the other hand, an observation that is extreme on the predictor variable has the potential to affect the slope greatly.

In linear regression model, the leverage score (self-sensitivity or self-influence) for the data unit  $i$  is defined as:

$$h_{ii} = \frac{\partial \hat{y}_i}{\partial y_i}$$

leverage <- `hat(model.matrix(model))`

Calculation of Leverage (h)

The first step is to standardize the predictor variable (mean=0, SD=1). Then, the leverage (h) is computed by squaring the observation's value on the standardized predictor variable, adding 1, and dividing by the number of observations.  $(X_i^2 + 1)/n$

# Distance

- The distance of an observation is based on the error of prediction for the observation: The greater the error of prediction, the greater the distance.

# Cook's distance

`cooks.distance(model)`

- Estimate the **influence** of a data point when performing least squares regression analysis. It is named after the American statistician R. Dennis Cook, who introduced the concept in 1977.
- Cook's distance measures the effect of deleting a given observation. Data points with large residuals (outliers) and/or high leverage may distort the outcome and accuracy of a regression. Points with a large Cook's distance ( $D > 1$ ) are considered to merit closer examination in the analysis.

$$D_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (\hat{Y}_j - \hat{Y}_{j(i)})^2}{p \times MSE}$$

$\hat{Y}_{j(i)}$  is the prediction for observation  $j$  from a refitted regression model in which observation  $i$  has been omitted.  $P$  is the number of fitted parameters in the model.



# Model update

*# Model update (remove one outlier)*

```
model2 <- update(model, subset=(X != 15))  
summary(model2)
```

*# Slope*

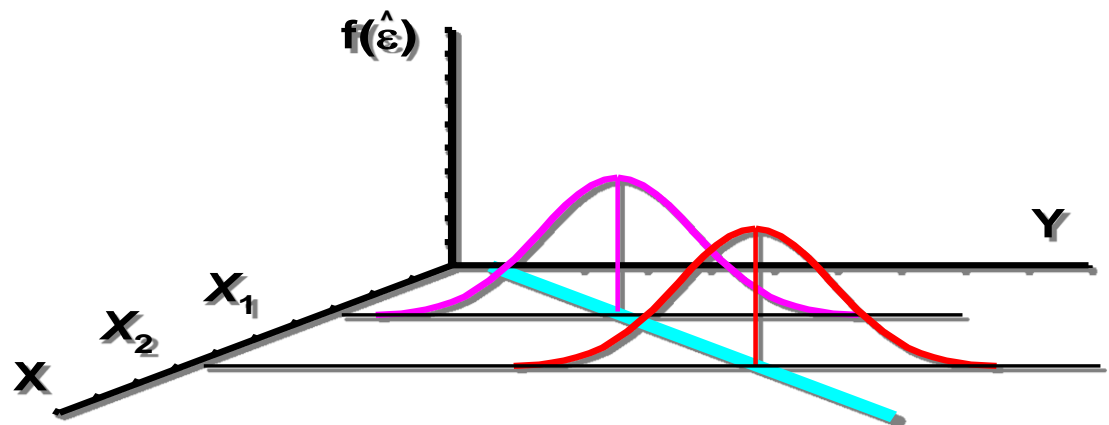
```
coef(model2)[2] # 1.054369
```

```
model2$coefficients[2] # 1.054369
```

# Assumptions of regression analysis

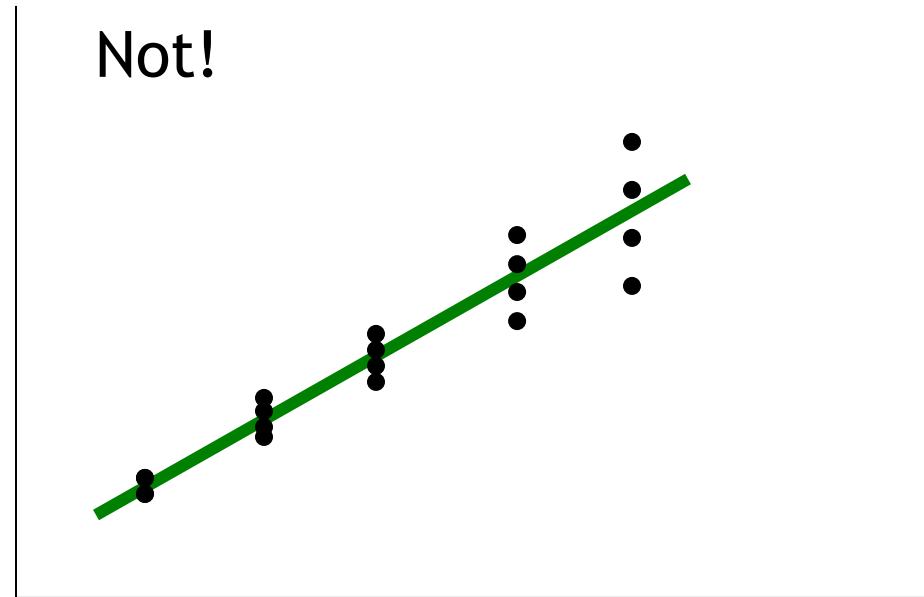
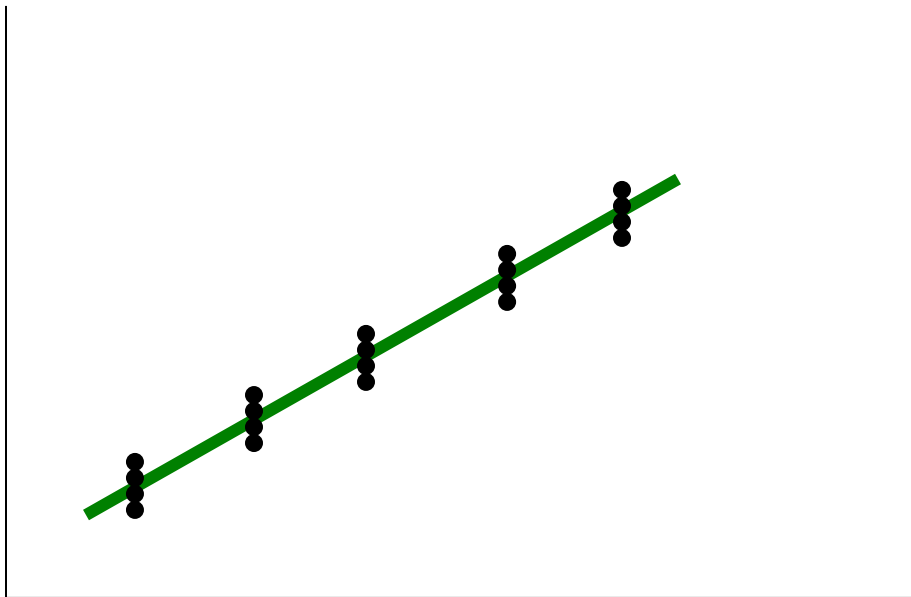
- Normal distribution of  $Y$  for value of  $X$
- Homogeneity of variance
- The actual relationship is linear
- Values of  $Y$  are independent to each other
- $X$  has no error

– Zar p332

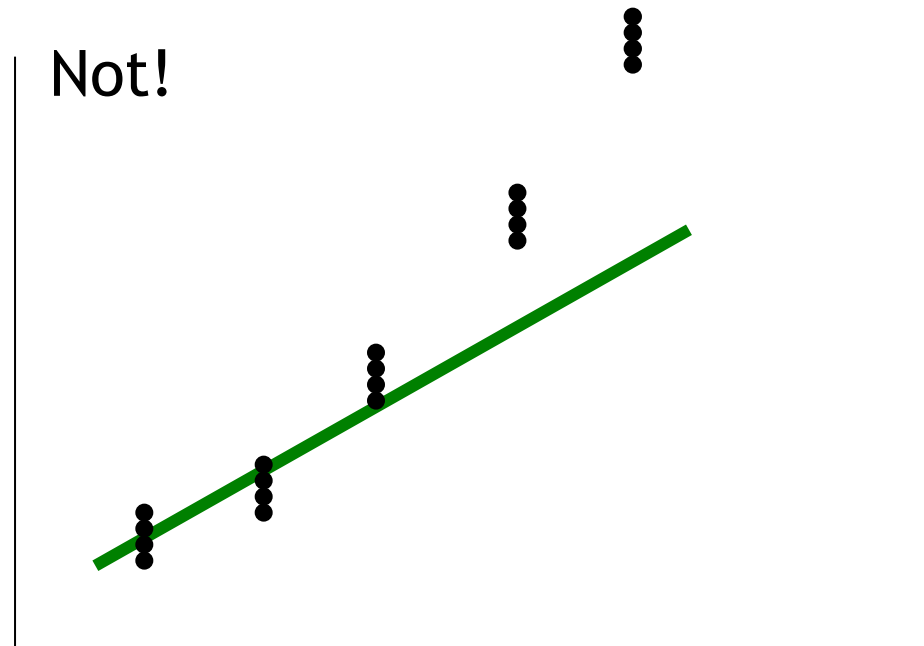
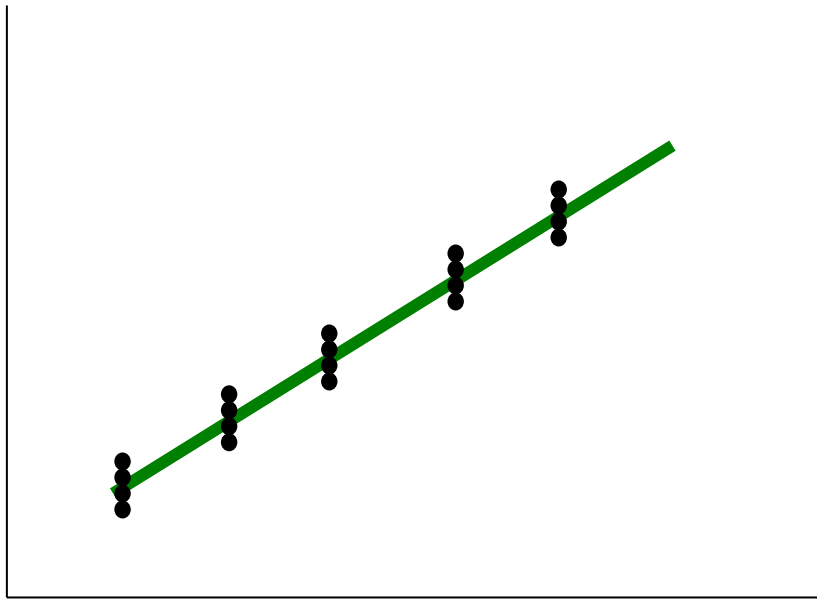


# Equality of variances of Ys across values of X

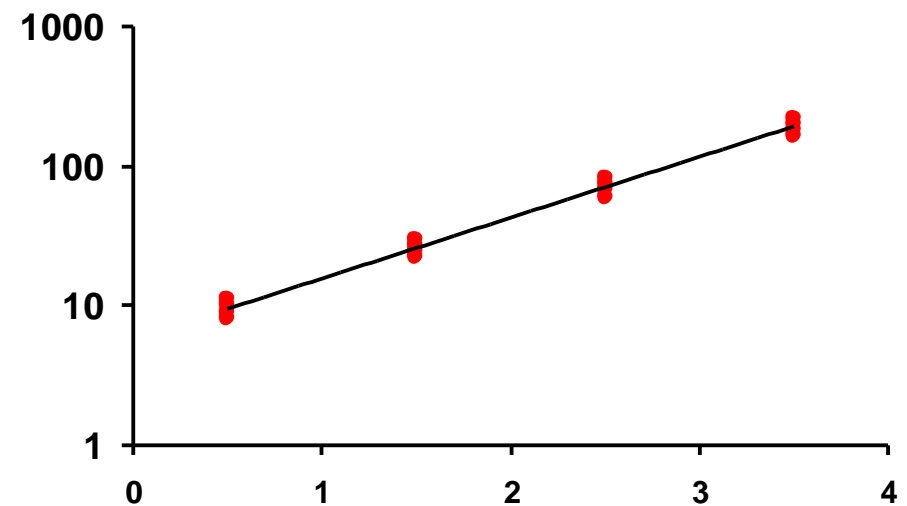
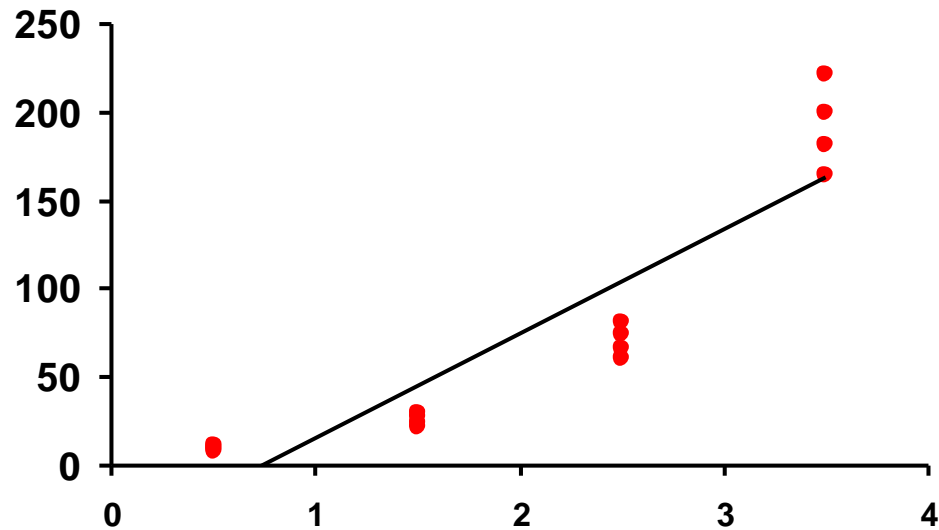
(i.e., values of residuals are not related to values of X)



# Actual relationship is linear



# Log-transforming the data *may* improve the situation



## Regression with replication

Do not use mean

Age (yr) $X$	Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) $Y$	$n_i$
30	108, 110, 106	3
40	125, 120, 118, 119	4
50	132, 137, 134	3
60	148, 151, 146, 147, 144	5
70	162, 156, 164, 158, 159	5

$$N = 20$$

$$\sum \sum X_{ij} = 1050 \quad \sum \sum Y_{ij} = 2744$$

$$\sum \sum X_{ij}^2 = 59,100 \quad \sum \sum Y_{ij}^2 = 383,346 \quad \sum \sum X_{ij} Y_{ij} = 149,240$$

$$\sum x^2 = 3975.00 \quad \sum y^2 = 6869.20 \quad \sum xy = 5180.00$$

$$\bar{X} = 52.5 \quad \bar{Y} = 137.2$$

$$b = \frac{\sum xy}{\sum x^2} = \frac{5180.00}{3975.00} = 1.303 \text{ mm Hg/yr}$$

$$a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X} = 137.2 - (1.303)(52.5) = 68.79 \text{ mm Hg}$$

Therefore, the least squares regression line is  $\hat{Y}_{ij} = 68.79 + 1.303X_{ij}$ .

# Comparing two slopes

(Zar 1999)

$$t = \frac{b_1 - b_2}{s_{b_1 - b_2}}$$

$$s_{b_1 - b_2} = \sqrt{\frac{(s_{Y \cdot X}^2)_p}{(\sum x_1^2)} + \frac{(s_{Y \cdot X}^2)_p}{(\sum x_2^2)}}$$

$$(s_{Y \cdot X}^2)_p = \frac{(\text{residual SS})_1 + (\text{residual SS})_2}{(\text{residual DF})_1 + (\text{residual DF})_2}$$

$$\text{DF} = n_1 + n_2 - 4$$

# Comparing more than two slopes and elevations (Zar 1999)

	$\sum x^2$	$\sum xy$	$\sum y^2$	Residual SS	Residual DF
Regression 1	$A_1$	$B_1$	$C_1$	$SS_1 = C_1 - \frac{B_1^2}{A_1}$	$DF_1 = n_1 - 2$
Regression 2	$A_2$	$B_2$	$C_2$	$SS_2 = C_2 - \frac{B_2^2}{A_2}$	$DF_2 = n_2 - 2$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$
Regression $k$	$A_k$	$B_k$	$C_k$	$SS_k = C_k - \frac{B_k^2}{A_k}$	$DF_k = n_k - 2$
“Pooled” regression				$SS_p = \sum_{i=1}^k SS_i$	$DF_p = \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 2)$ $= \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - 2k$
“Common” regression	$A_c = \sum_{i=1}^k A_i$	$B_c = \sum_{i=1}^k B_i$	$C_c = \sum_{i=1}^k C_i$	$SS_c = C_c - \frac{B_c^2}{A_c}$	$DF_c = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - k - 1$
“Total” regression*	$A_t$	$B_t$	$C_t$	$SS_t = C_t - \frac{B_t^2}{A_t}$	$DF_t = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - 2$
Test differences among slopes	$F = \frac{\frac{SS_c - SS_p}{k-1}}{\frac{SS_p}{DF_p}}$			Test differences among elevations	$F = \frac{\frac{SS_t - SS_c}{k-1}}{\frac{SS_c}{DF_c}}$



## R code and results

trees

	Girth	Height	Volume
1	8.3	70	10.3
2	8.6	65	10.3
3	8.8	63	10.2
4	10.5	72	16.4
5	10.7	81	18.8
6	10.8	83	19.7
7	11.0	66	15.6
8	11.0	75	18.2
9	11.1	80	22.6
10	11.2	75	19.9
11	11.3	79	24.2
12	11.4	76	21.0
13	11.4	76	21.4
14	11.7	69	21.3
15	12.0	75	19.1
16	12.9	74	22.2
17	12.9	85	33.8
18	13.3	86	27.4
19	13.7	71	25.7
20	13.8	64	24.9
21	14.0	78	34.5
22	14.2	80	31.7
23	14.5	74	36.3
24	16.0	72	38.3
25	16.3	77	42.6
26	17.3	81	55.4
27	17.5	82	55.7
28	17.9	80	58.3
29	18.0	80	51.5
30	18.0	80	51.0
31	20.6	87	77.0

```
reg.tree <- lm(Volume~Height, data=trees)
reg.tree
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = Volume ~ Height, data = trees)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	Height
-87.124	1.543

```
summary(reg.tree)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = Volume ~ Height, data = trees)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-21.274	-9.894	-2.894	12.067	29.852

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	-87.1236	29.2731	-2.976	0.005835 **
Height	1.5433	0.3839	4.021	0.000378 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

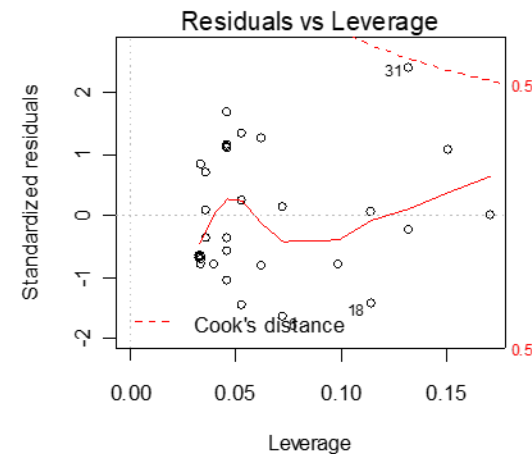
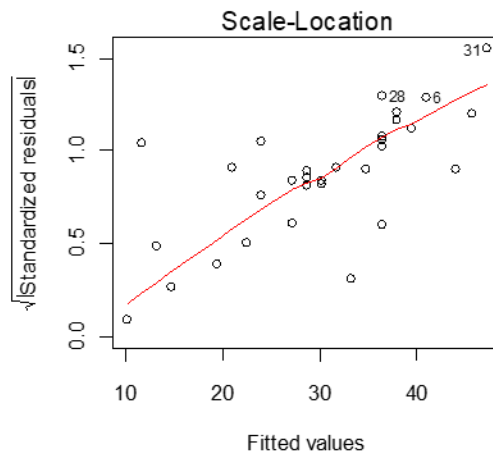
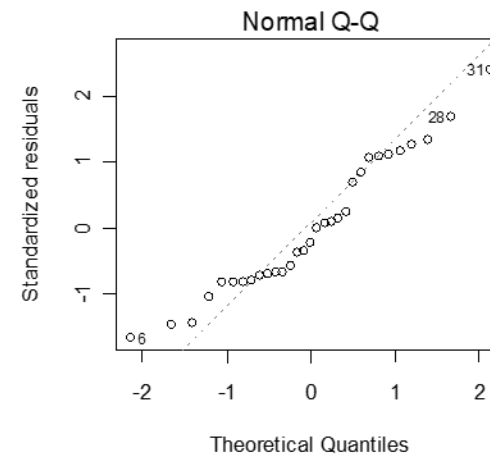
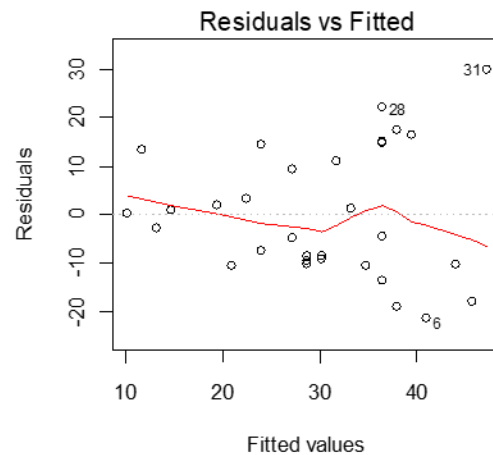
Residual standard error: 13.4 on 29 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.3579, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3358

F-statistic: 16.16 on 1 and 29 DF, p-value: 0.0003784

# Check the model

```
par(mfrow=c(2,2))
plot(lm(Volume~Height, data=trees))
```



# Check the model

```
library(car)
fit = lm(Girth ~ Height, data = trees)

# Computes residual autocorrelations and generalized Durbin-Watson statistics
# and their bootstrapped p-values
durbinWatsonTest(fit) # check independence
#  $P < 0.05$ , autocorrelation exists.

# component + residual plots (also called partial-residual plots) for linear
# and generalized linear models
crPlots(fit) # check linearity
# the red line (regression) and green line (residual) match well, the linearity is good.

# Score Test for Non-Constant Error Variance
ncvTest(fit)
#  $p = 0.15$ , error variance is homogeneous
```

# Simple linear correlation

# Simple linear correlation

1. Answer **How Strong** is the linear relationship between 2 variables?
2. Coefficient of correlation  
Values Range from -1 to +1  
Measures Degree of Association
3. Used mainly for understanding

## Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation, $r$ (Pearson correlation coefficient)

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

```
# correlation coefficient and p value
```

```
cor(X, Y, use = 'pairwise.complete.obs')
```

```
cor.test(X, Y, alternative = c("two.sided"), method = c("pearson"))$p.value
```

```
# correlation coefficient
```

```
r = SSXY / (SSX*SSY) ^ .5
```

# Understanding Pearson correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) = \text{covariance} \times n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \text{SSX}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \text{SSY}$$

# Understanding Pearson correlation coefficient

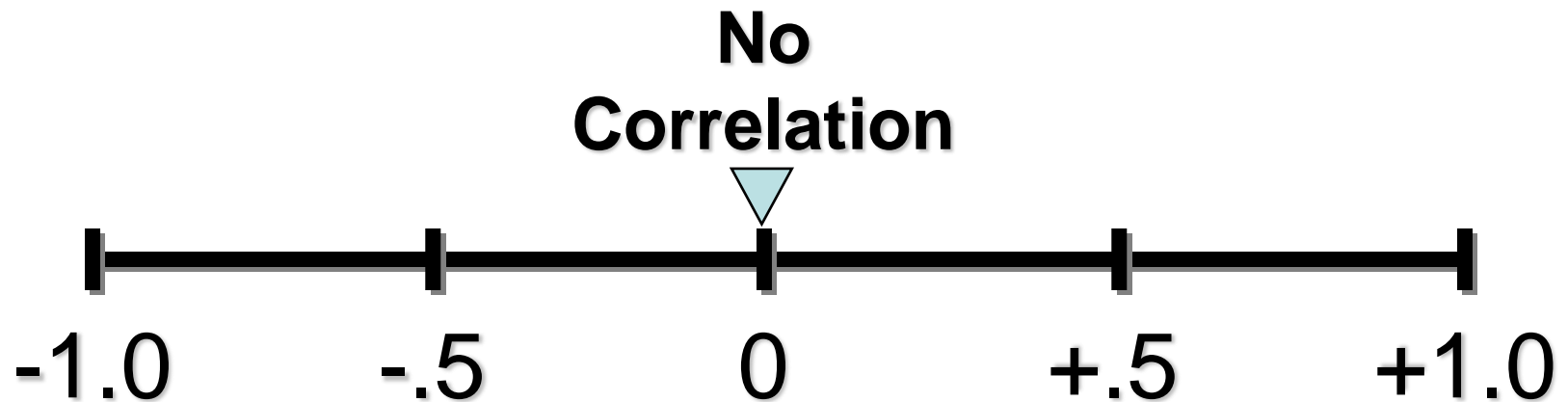
When  $(X_i - \bar{X}) = (Y_i - \bar{Y})$

$(X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$  maximized

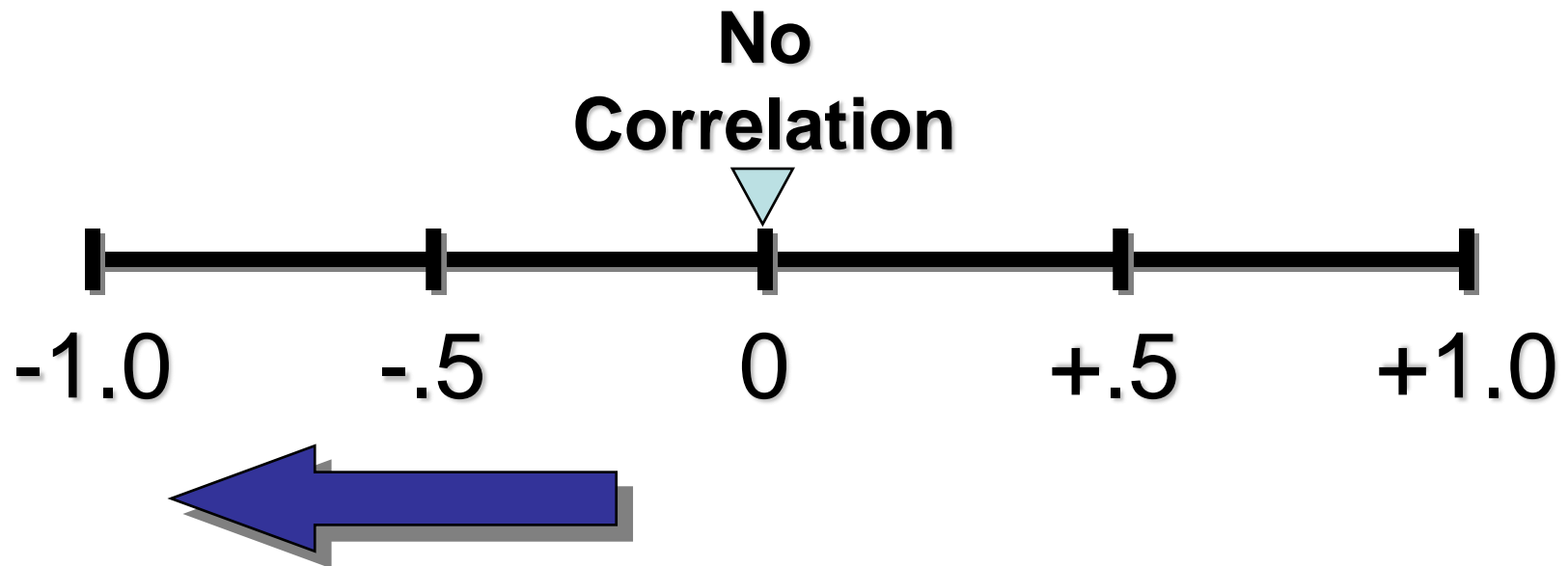
$\Delta X$	$\Delta Y$	$\Delta X + \Delta Y$	$\Delta X \Delta Y$
3	3	6	9
2	4	6	8
1	5	6	5
0.5	5.5	6	2.75



# Coefficient of Correlation Values

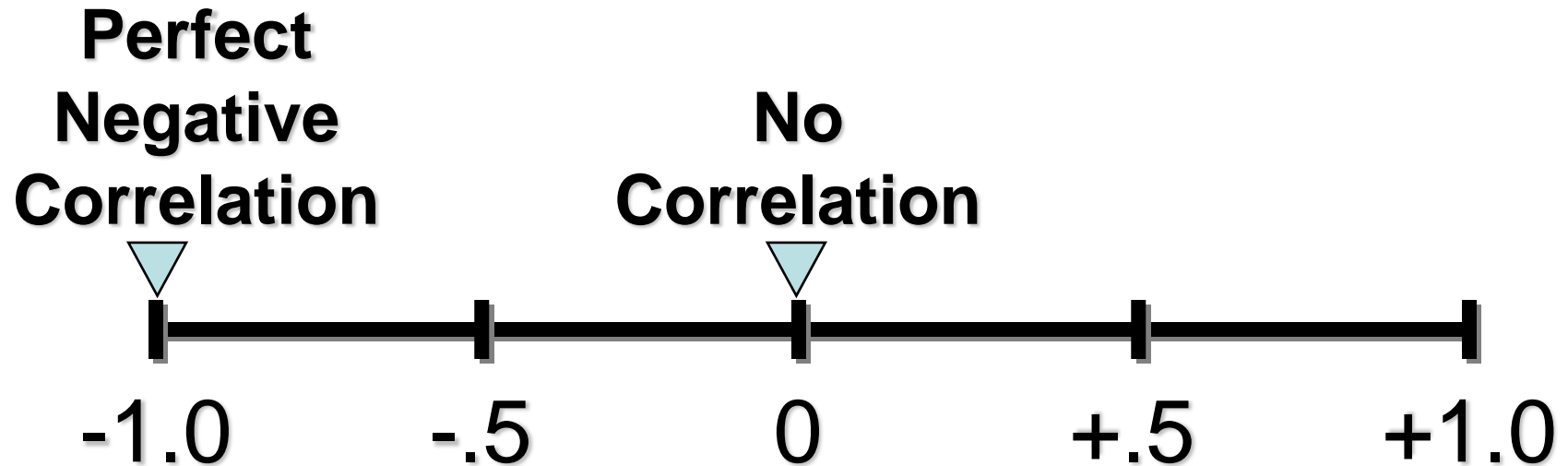


# Coefficient of Correlation Values

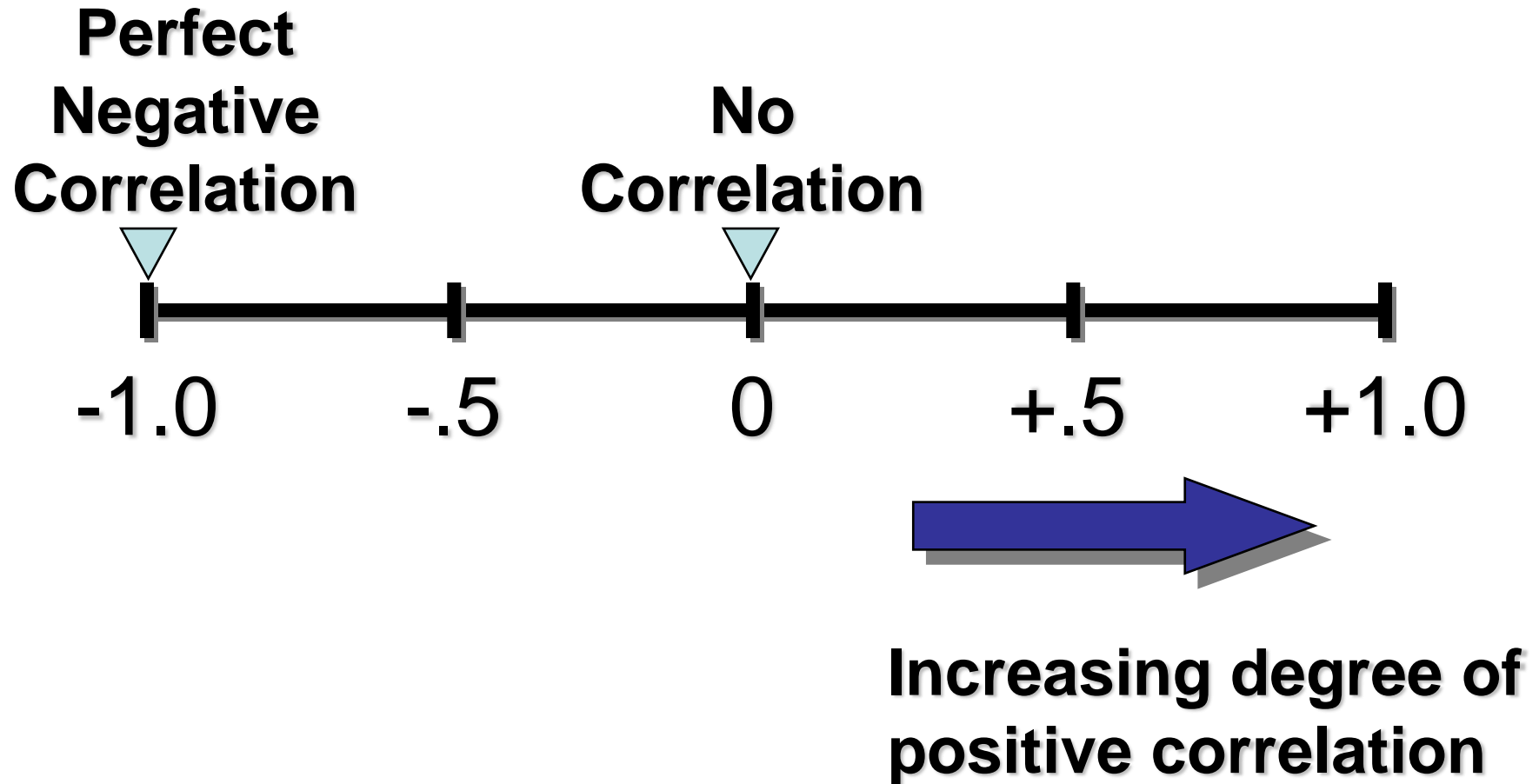


**Increasing degree of  
negative correlation**

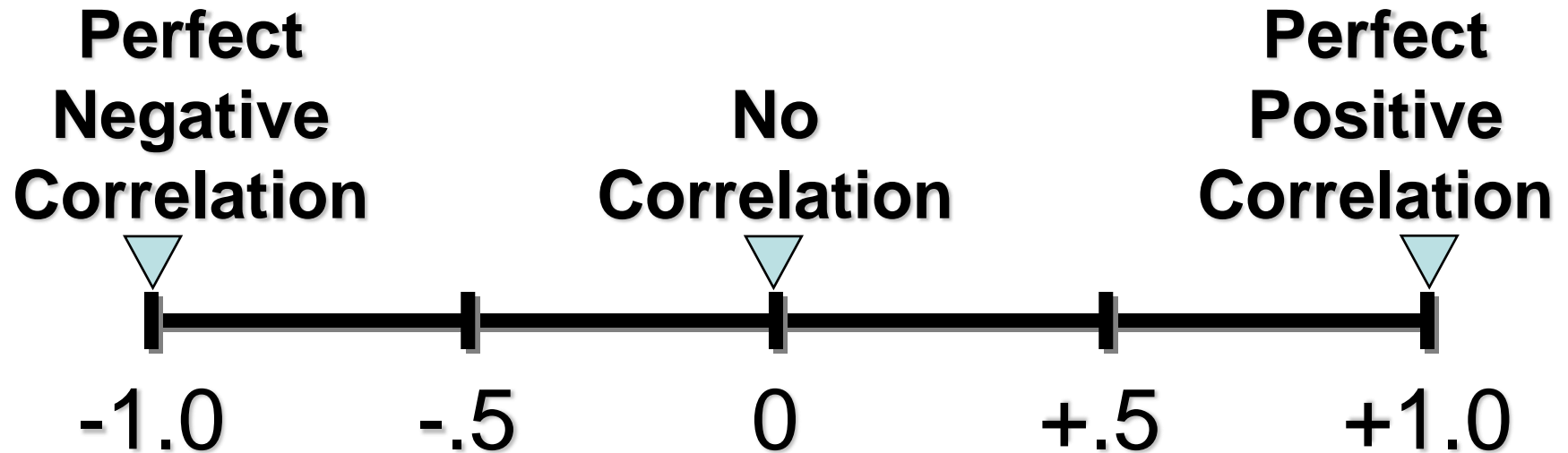
# Coefficient of Correlation Values



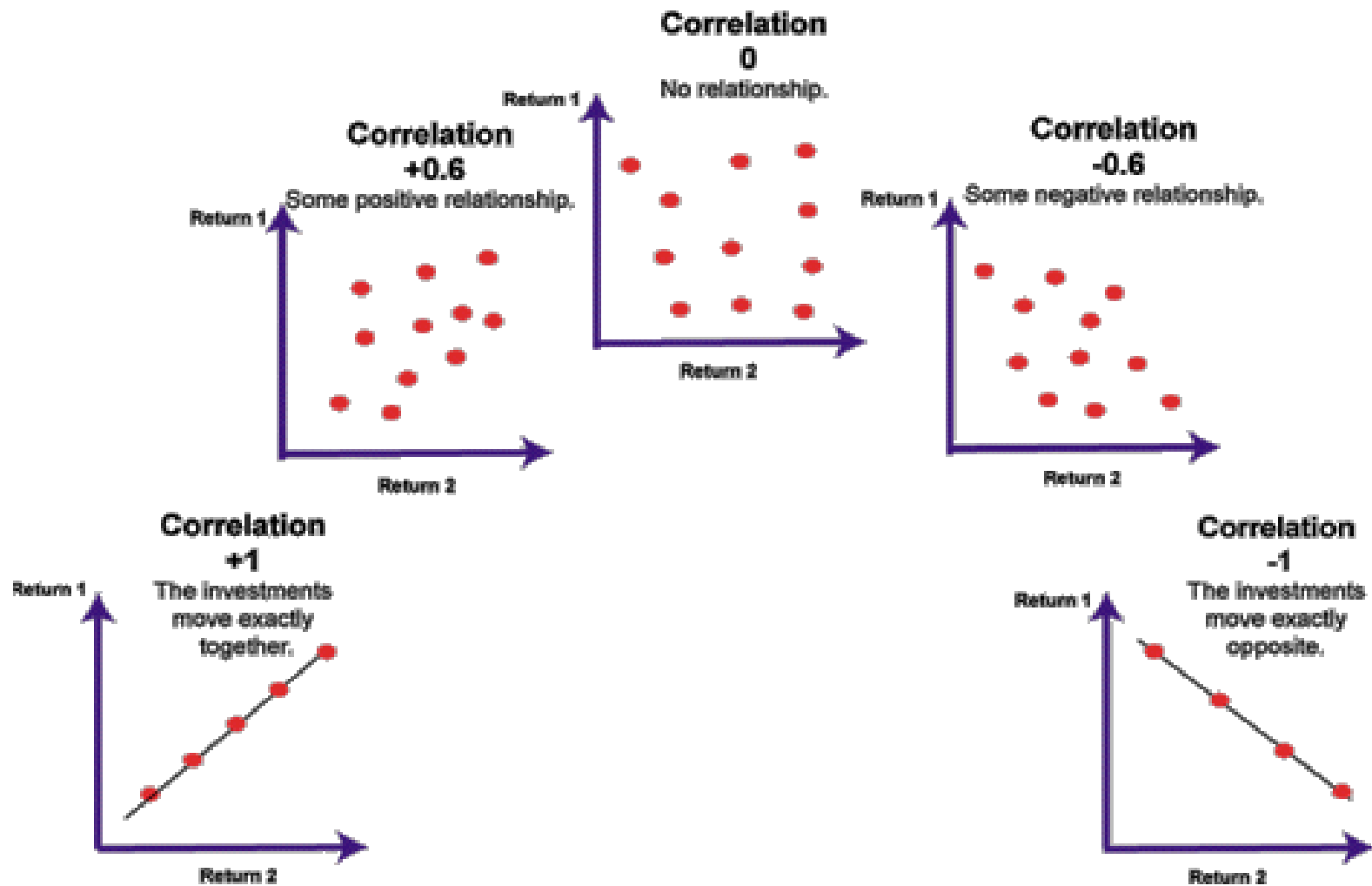
# Coefficient of Correlation Values



# Coefficient of Correlation Values



# Coefficient of Correlation



# Interpretation of Correlation

## Correlations

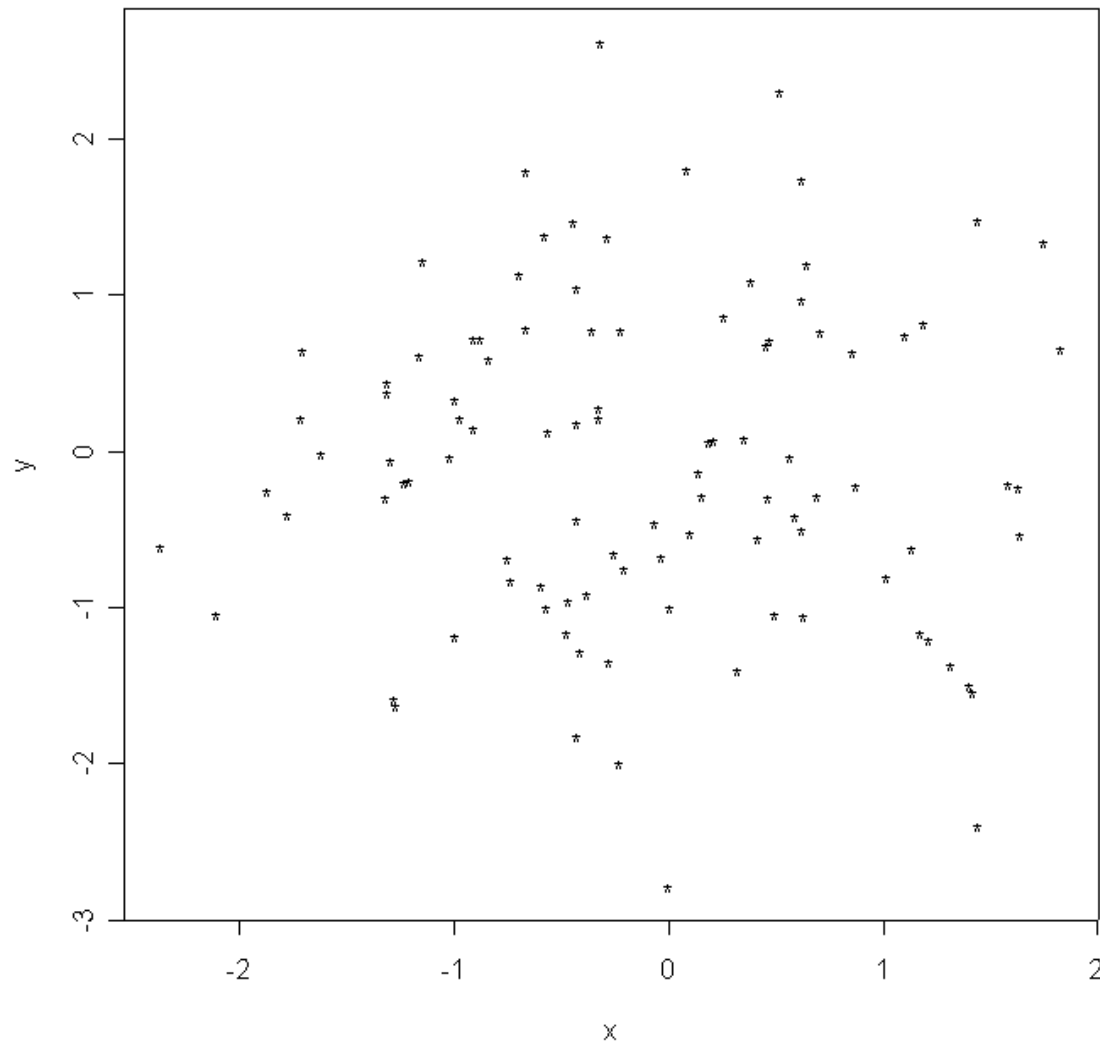
- From 0 to 0.25 (-0.25) = little or no relationship;
- From 0.25 to 0.50 (-0.25 to 0.50) = fair degree of relationship;
- From 0.50 to 0.75 (-0.50 to -0.75) = moderate to good relationship;
- Greater than 0.75 (or -0.75) = very good to excellent relationship.

# Limitations of the correlation coefficient

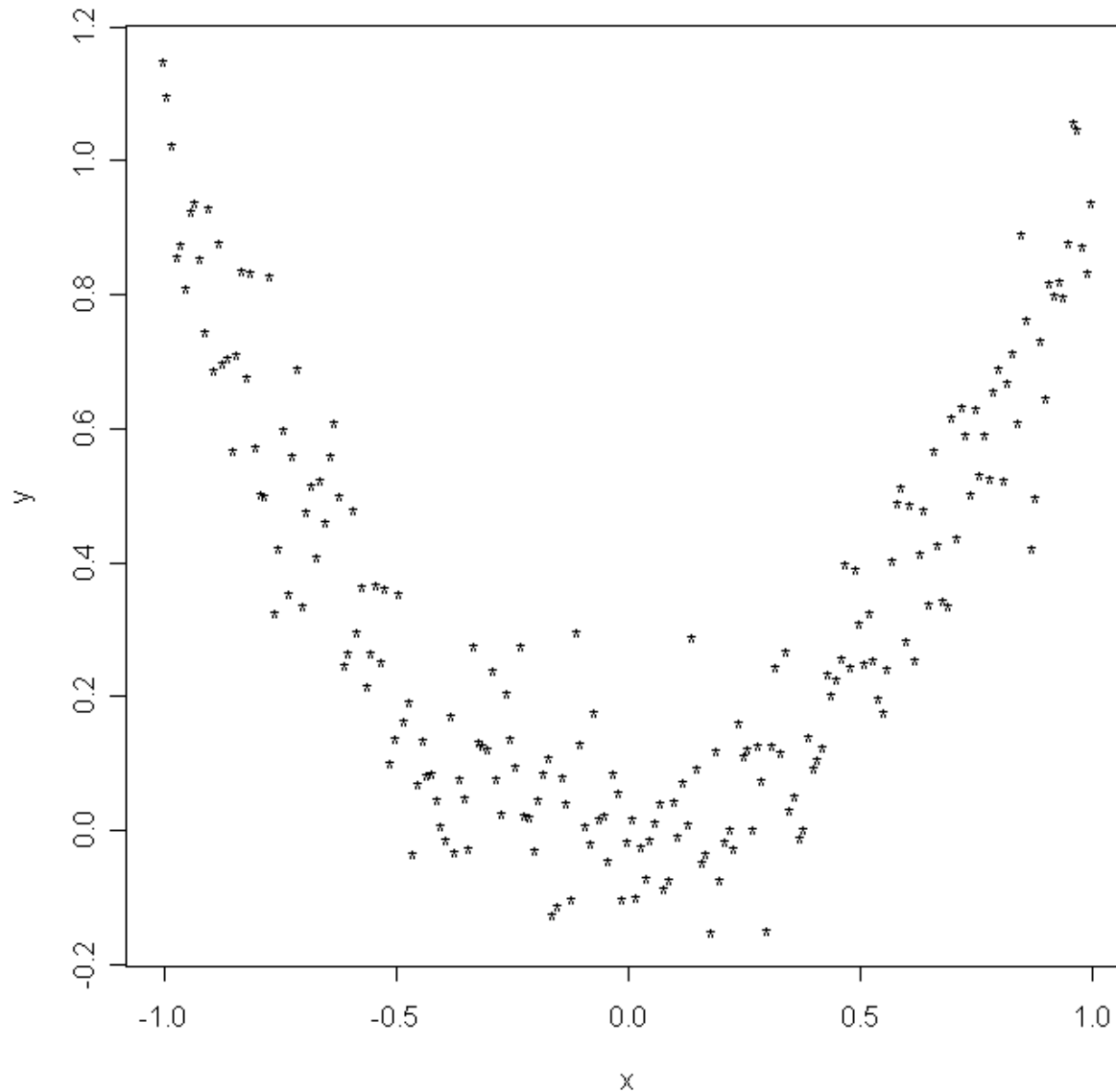
- Though  $r$  measures how closely the two variables approximate a straight line, it does not validly measures the strength of nonlinear relationship
- When the sample size,  $n$ , is small we also have to be careful with the reliability of the correlation
- Outliers could have a marked effect on  $r$



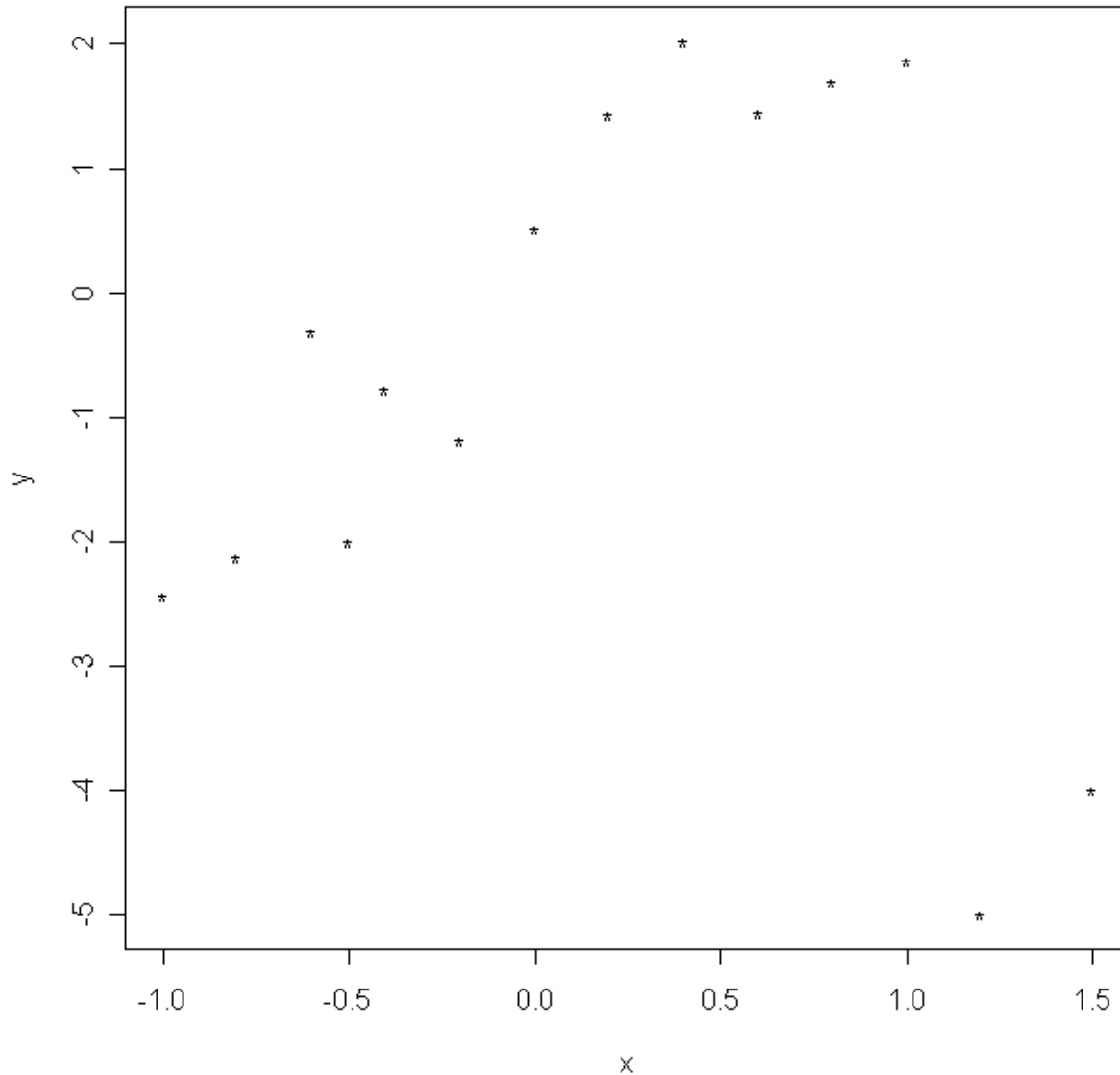
$r \approx 0$ : random scatter



# $r \approx 0$ : curved relation

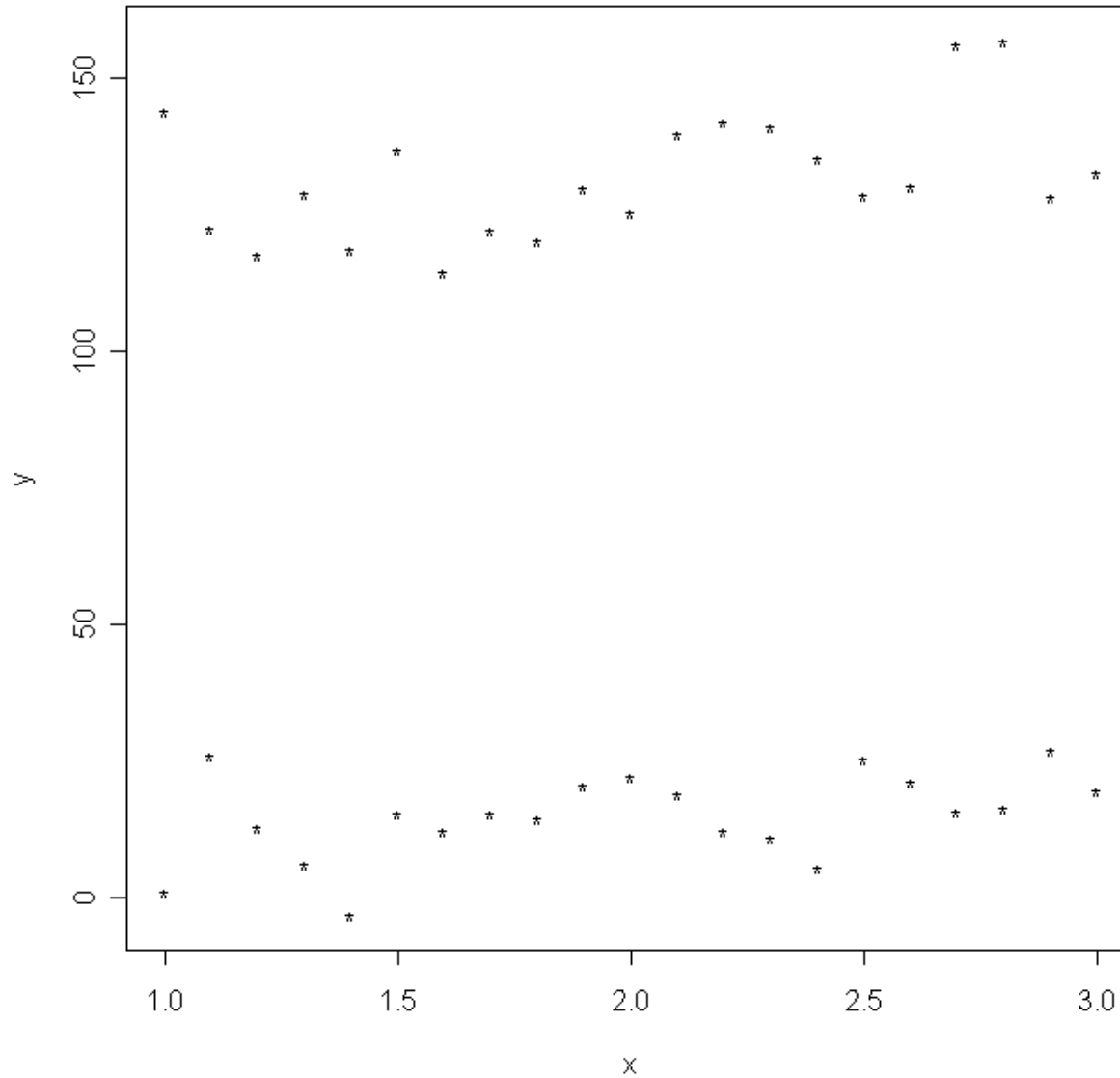


# $r \approx 0$ : outliers

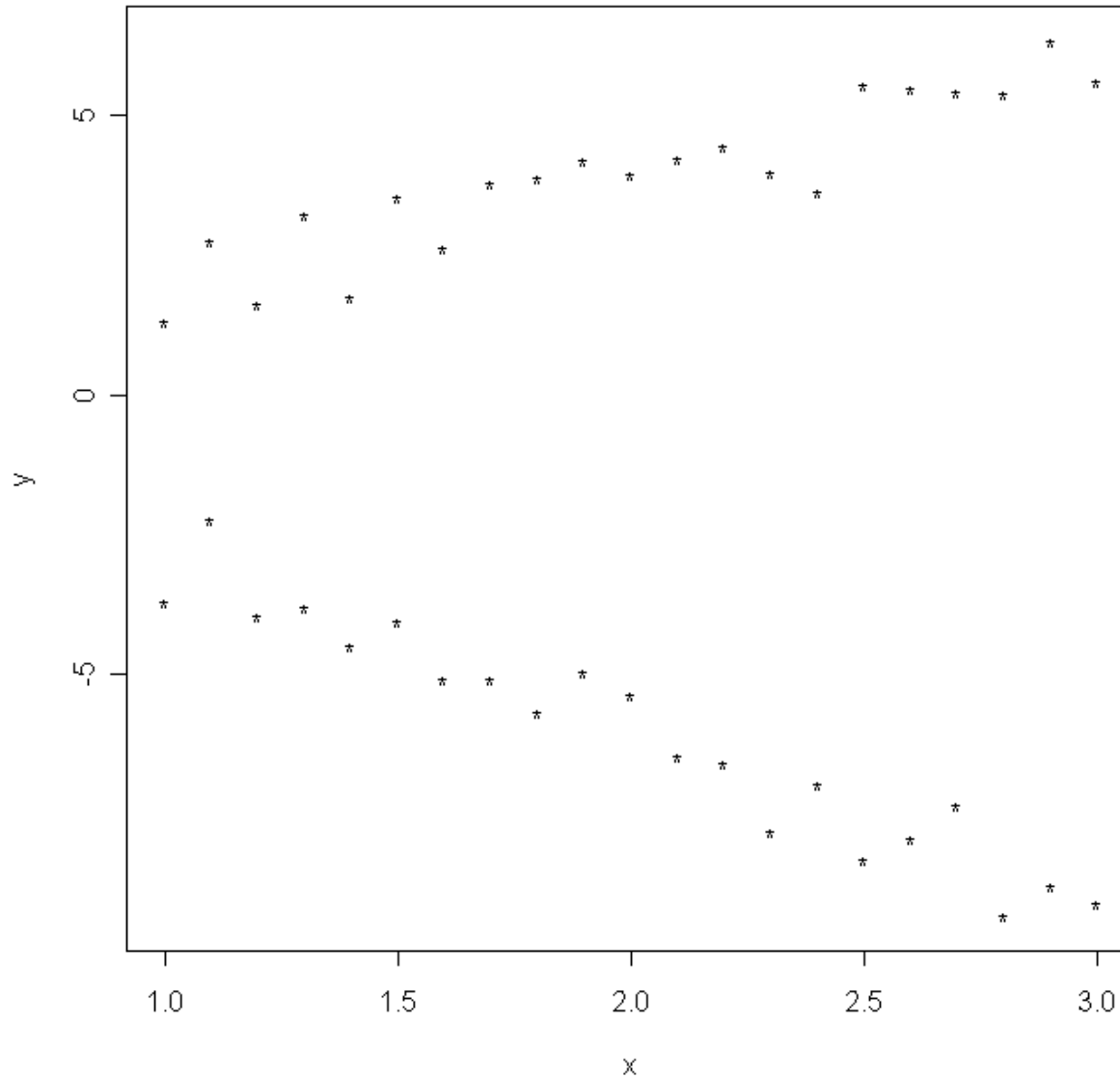


outliers

**$r \approx 0$ : parallel lines**



# $r \approx 0$ : different linear trends



# Reading Correlation Matrix

Correlations<sup>a</sup>

		Total ball toss points	Distance from target	Time spun before throwing	Aiming accuracy	Manual dexterity	College grade point avg	Confidence for task
Total ball toss points	Pearson Correlation	1	-.904*	-.582	.628	.821*	-.037	-.502
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.013	.226	.181	.045	.945	.310
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Distance from target	Pearson Correlation	-.904*	1	.279	-.653	-.883*	.228	.522
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013		.592	.159	.020	.664	.288
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Time spun before throwing	Pearson Correlation	-.582	.279	1	-.390	-.248	-.087	.267
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.226	.592		.445	.635	.869	.609
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Aiming accuracy	Pearson Correlation	.628	-.653	-.390	1	.758	-.546	-.250
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.181	.159	.445		.081	.262	.633
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Manual dexterity	Pearson Correlation	.821*	-.883*	-.248	.758	1	-.553	-.101
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.020	.635	.081		.255	.848
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
College grade point avg	Pearson Correlation	-.037	.228	-.087	-.546	-.553	1	-.524
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.945	.664	.869	.262	.255		.286
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Confidence for task	Pearson Correlation	-.502	.522	.267	-.250	-.101	-.524	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.310	.288	.609	.633	.848	.286	
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6	6

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. Day sample collected = Tuesday

$$r = -.904$$

$p = .013$  -- Probability of getting a correlation this size by sheer chance. **Reject  $H_0$  if  $p \leq .05$ .**

$$r(4) = -.904, p \leq .05$$

Distance from target	Pearson Correlation	-.904*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
	N	6

sample  
size

# Hypothesis test about correlation coefficient

$$t = \frac{r}{S_r}$$

$$S_r = \sqrt{\frac{1-r^2}{n-2}}$$

$$df = n-2$$

$$t_{\alpha(2), n-2}$$

# Hypothesis test about correlation coefficient

$$F = \frac{1 + |r|}{1 - |r|} \quad (\text{Cacoullos, 1965})$$

$$df_n = df_d = n-2$$



## Hypothesis test about correlation coefficient

(Zar 1999)

**EXAMPLE 19.1b** Testing  $H_0: \rho = 0$  vs.  $H_A: \rho \neq 0$ . The data are those of Example 19.1a.

From Example 19.1a:  $r = 0.870$ .

To test  $H_0: \rho = 0$  vs.  $H_A: \rho \neq 0$ :

$$\text{standard error of } r = s_r = \sqrt{\frac{1 - r^2}{n - 2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - (0.870)^2}{12 - 2}} = 0.156$$

$$t = \frac{r}{s_r} = \frac{0.870}{0.156} = 5.58$$

$$t_{0.05(2), 10} = 2.228$$

Therefore, reject  $H_0$ .

$$P < 0.001 \quad [P = 0.00012]$$

Or:

$$F = \frac{1 + |r|}{1 - |r|} = \frac{1.870}{0.130} = 14.4$$

$$F_{0.05(2), 10, 10} = 3.72$$

Therefore, reject  $H_0$ .

$$P < 0.001 \quad [P = 0.00014]$$

# Fisher's z transformation

(Zar 1999)

When  $r$  is not normal

$$z = 0.5 \ln \left( \frac{1+r}{1-r} \right) \quad \sigma_z = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-3}}$$

**EXAMPLE 19.2** Testing  $H_0: \rho = \rho_0$ , where  $\rho_0 \neq 0$ .

$$r = 0.870$$

$$n = 12$$

$$H_0: \rho = 0.750; \quad H_A: \rho \neq 0.750.$$

$$z = 1.3331$$

$$\zeta_0 = 0.9730$$

$$Z = \frac{z - \zeta_0}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-3}}} = \frac{1.3331 - 0.9730}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{9}}} = \frac{0.3601}{0.3333} = 1.0803$$

$$Z_{0.05(2)} = t_{0.05(2), \infty} = 1.960$$

Therefore, do not reject  $H_0$ .

$$0.20 < P < 0.50 \quad [P = 0.28]$$

# Power and sample size in correlation

$$Z_{\beta(1)} = (z - z_{\alpha})\sqrt{n - 3}$$

(Cohen 1988)

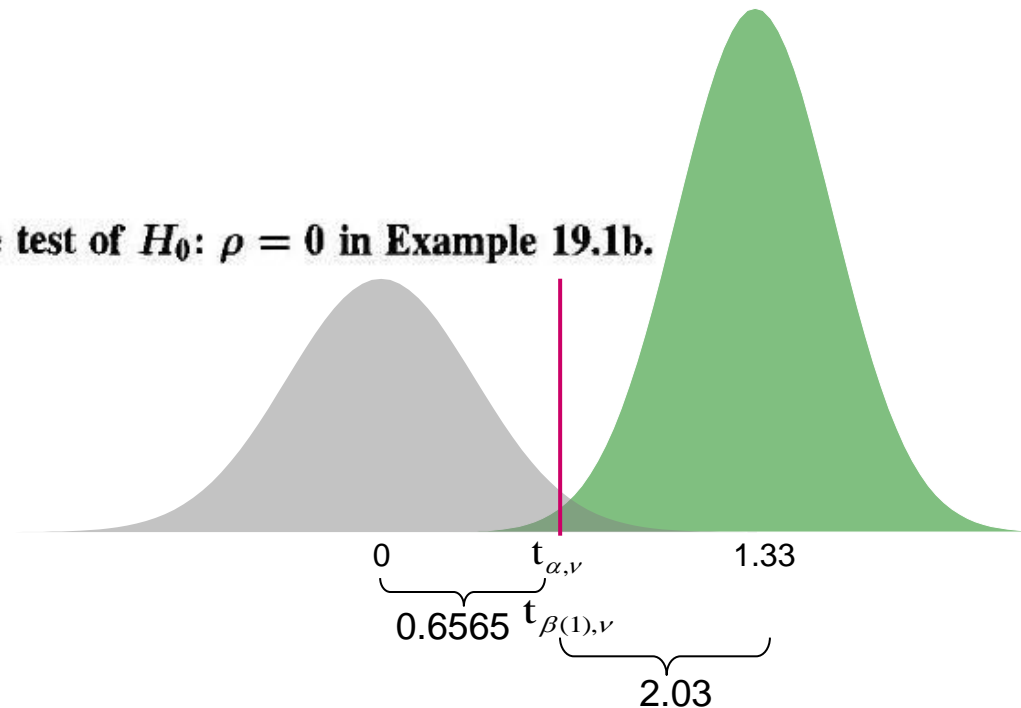
**EXAMPLE 19.4** Determination of power of the test of  $H_0: \rho = 0$  in Example 19.1b.

$$n = 12; \nu = 10$$

$$r = 0.870, \text{ so } z = 1.3331$$

$$r_{0.05(2), 10} = 0.576, \text{ so } z_{0.05} = 0.6565$$

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{\beta(1)} &= (1.3331 - 0.6565)\sqrt{12 - 3} \\ &= 2.03 \end{aligned}$$



From Appendix Table B.2,  $P(Z \geq 2.03) = 0.0212 = \beta$ . Therefore, the power of the test is  $1 - \beta = 0.98$ .

# Sample size in correlation

$$n = \left( \frac{Z_{\beta(1)} + Z_{\alpha}}{\zeta_0} \right)^2 + 3,$$

where  $\zeta_0$  is the Fisher transformation of the  $\rho_0$  specified, and the significance level, can be either one-tailed or two-tailed. This procedure is shown in Example 19.5.

---

## EXAMPLE 19.5 Determination of required sample size in testing $H_0: \rho = 0$ .

We desire to reject  $H_0: \rho = 0$  99% of the time when  $|\rho| \geq 0.5$  and the hypothesis is tested at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore,  $\beta(1) = 0.01$  and (from the last line of Appendix Table B.3) and  $Z_{\beta(1)} = 2.3263$ ;  $\alpha(2) = 0.05$  and  $Z_{\alpha(2)} = 1.9600$ ; and, for  $r = 0.5$ ,  $z = 0.5493$ .

Then,

$$n = \left( \frac{2.3263 + 1.9600}{0.5493} \right)^2 + 3 = 63.9,$$

so a sample of size at least 64 should be used.

# Types of Coefficients

Type of Data

Correlation Coefficient

---

Continuous v.  
Continuous

Pearson's  $r$

Continuous v.  
Ordinal

Jaspen's Multiserial  
Coefficient ( $M$ )

Ordinal v.  
Ordinal

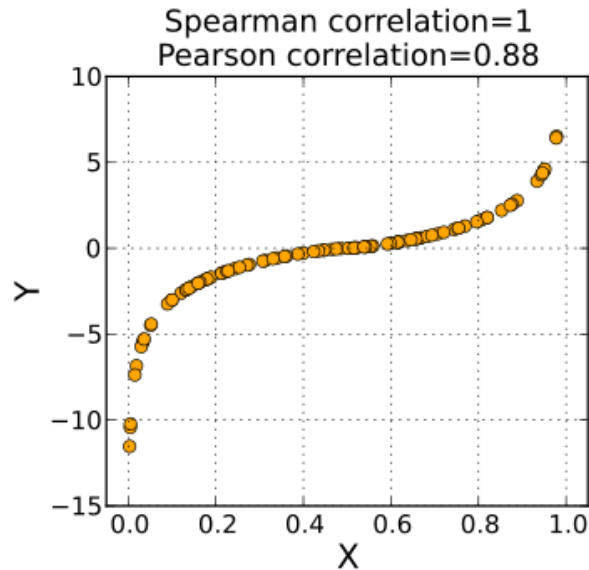
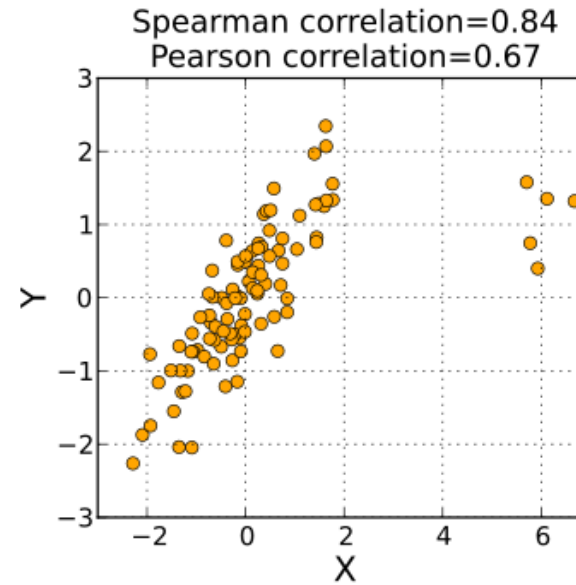
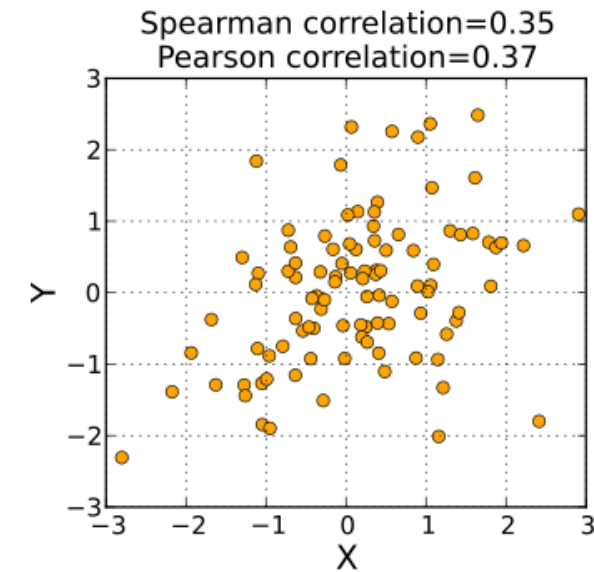
Spearman's  $\rho$  (Rho)  
Kendall's  $\tau$  (Tau)

## Spearman correlation coefficient

```
head(mtcars)
plot(mtcars$wt, mtcars$hp)
# Pearson correlation coefficient
cor(mtcars$wt, mtcars$hp) # 0.66
```

```
wt.rank = rank(mtcars$wt)
hp.rank = rank(mtcars$hp)
# Spearman correlation coefficient
cor(wt.rank, hp.rank) # 0.77
```

# Pearson's $r$ vs. Spearman's $\rho$



```
X = seq(0.5* pi, 1.5*pi, length=100)
Y = 1 - sin(X)
plot(Y, X)
cor(X, Y) # 0.99
cor(rank(X),rank(Y)) # 1
```

## Correlations with significance levels

	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
mpg	1	-0.85	-0.85	-0.78	0.68	-0.87	0.42	0.66	0.6	0.48	-0.55
cyl	-0.85	1	0.9	0.83	-0.7	0.78	-0.59	-0.81	-0.52	-0.49	0.53
disp	-0.85	0.9	1	0.78	0.71	0.89	0.48	0.71	0.59	-0.56	0.39
hp	-0.78	0.83	0.78	1	-0.71	0.89	0.48	0.71	0.59	-0.13	0.75
drat	0.68	-0.7	0.71	-0.71	1	-0.87	-0.59	-0.81	-0.52	0.7	-0.09
wt	-0.87	0.78	0.89	0.89	-0.87	1	-0.59	-0.81	-0.52	-0.58	0.43
qsec	0.42	-0.59	0.48	0.48	-0.59	-0.59	1	-0.81	-0.52	-0.21	-0.66
vs	0.66	-0.81	0.71	0.71	-0.81	-0.81	-0.81	1	-0.52	0.21	-0.57
am	0.6	-0.52	0.59	0.59	-0.52	-0.52	-0.52	-0.52	1	0.79	0.06
gear	0.48	-0.49	-0.56	-0.13	0.7	-0.58	-0.21	0.21	0.79	1	0.27
carb	-0.55	0.53	0.39	0.75	-0.09	0.43	-0.66	-0.57	0.06	0.27	1
n=	32										
P											
	mpg	cyl	disp	hp	drat	wt	qsec	vs	am	gear	carb
mpg		0	0	0	0	0	0.0171	0	0.0003	0.0054	0.0011
cyl	0		0	0	0	0	0.0004	0	0.0022	0.0042	0.0019
disp	0	0		0	0	0	0.0131	0	0.0004	0.001	0.0253
hp	0	0	0		0.01	0	0	0	0.1798	0.493	0
drat	0	0	0	0.01		0	0.6196	0.0117	0	0	0.6212
wt	0	0	0	0	0		0.3389	0.001	0	0.0005	0.0146
qsec	0.0171	0.0004	0.0131	0	0.6196	0.3389		0	0.2057	0.2425	0
vs	0	0	0	0	0.0117	0.001	0		0.357	0.2579	0.0007
am	0.0003	0.0022	0.0004	0.1798	0	0	0.2057	0.357		0	0.7545
gear	0.0054	0.0042	0.001	0.493	0	0.0005	0.2425	0.2579	0		0.129
carb	0.0011	0.0019	0.0253	0	0.6212	0.0146	0	0.0007	0.7545	0.129	

**# Correlations with significance levels**

**library(Hmisc)**

**# mtcars is a dataframe**

**head(mtcars)**

**rcorr(as.matrix(mtcars), type="pearson") #parametric**

**rcorr(as.matrix(mtcars), type="spearman") #nonparametric**



# Simple linear regression and correlation

$$r^2 = \frac{SP^2}{SS_x SS_y} = \frac{SP}{SS_x} \cdot \frac{SP}{SS_y} = b_{y/x} b_{x/y}$$

$$\beta = \frac{\sum xy}{\sum x^2}$$

# Correlation for categorical variables (contingency table)

	Treat.1	
	+	−
Treat.2	+	−
	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>
	−	
	<i>c</i>	<i>d</i>

$$r_n = \frac{ad - bc}{\sqrt{(a + b)(c + d)(a + c)(b + d)}}$$

$$-1 \leq r_n \leq +1$$

## Assignment: simple linear regression

### Tasks:

- Describe your question: dependence of one variable to another
- Point out hypothesis  $H_0$  and  $H_a$
- Develop your dataset
- List the following input and output contents
  - R Commands
  - R Output
  - R Plot -  $Y \sim X$
  - R Plot - RESIDUAL  $\sim$  PREDICTED
  - R Plot - RESIDUAL  $\sim X$
- Check assumptions
- Give  $r$  square value
- Write conclusion

# R

```
head(trees)
reg.tree = lm(Volume~Height, data=trees)
summary(reg.tree)
plot(trees$Height, trees$Volume) # x-y plot
plot(reg.tree$fitted, reg.tree$resid) # check homogeneity
shapiro.test(reg.tree$resid) # check normality
summary(lm(Volume~Height, trees))$r.squared # R square
```

	Girth	Height	Volume
1	8.3	70	10.3
2	8.6	65	10.3
3	8.8	63	10.2
4	10.5	72	16.4
5	10.7	81	18.8
6	10.8	83	19.7

# Assignment 5 (option 2): Correlation

## Tasks:

Develop a CORRELATION experimental design. Generate your own data and FORMALIZE your hypotheses.

Define 4-6 variables (all at ratio scale)

Print out the correlation matrix

Highlight the pairs with significant p values of 0.05 and 0.01 separately

Change data to reach the following results:

- same  $r$ , different p value (one significant, one not significant)
- same p value, different  $r$

List the source data and the  $r$  and p values.

## R code for producing a correlation scatter-plot matrix

```
## put (absolute) correlations on the upper panels,  
## with size proportional to the correlations.  
panel.cor <- function(x, y, digits=2, prefix="", cex.cor, ...)  
{  
  usr <- par("usr"); on.exit(par(usr))  
  par(usr = c(0, 1, 0, 1))  
  r <- abs(cor(x, y))  
  txt <- format(c(r, 0.123456789), digits=digits)[1]  
  txt <- paste(prefix, txt, sep="")  
  if(missing(cex.cor)) cex.cor <- 0.8/strwidth(txt)  
  text(0.5, 0.5, txt, cex = cex.cor * r)  
}  
pairs(sheds[,4:13], lower.panel = panel.smooth, upper.panel = panel.cor)
```

## R code for producing a correlation scatter-plot matrix for ordered-categorical data

```

panel.cor.ordered.categorical <- function(x, y, digits=2, prefix="", cex.cor) {
  usr <- par("usr"); on.exit(par(usr))
  par(usr = c(0, 1, 0, 1))

  r <- abs(cor(x, y, method = "spearman")) # notice we use spearman, non parametric correlation here
  r.no.abs <- cor(x, y, method = "spearman")

  txt <- format(c(r.no.abs, 0.123456789), digits=digits)[1]
  txt <- paste(prefix, txt, sep="")
  if(missing(cex.cor)) cex <- 0.8/strwidth(txt)

  test <- cor.test(x,y, method = "spearman")
  # borrowed from printCoefmat
  Signif <- symnum(test$p.value, corr = FALSE, na = FALSE,
    cutpoints = c(0, 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 1),
    symbols = c("****", "***", "**", ".", " "))

  text(0.5, 0.5, txt, cex = cex * r)
  text(.8, .8, Signif, cex=cex, col=2)
}

panel.smooth.ordered.categorical <- function(x, y, col = par("col"), bg = NA, pch = par("pch"),
  cex = 1, col.smooth = "red", span = 2/3, iter = 3,
  point.size.rescale = 1.5, ...)
{
  #require(reshape)
  require(reshape)
  z <- merge(data.frame(x,y), melt(table(x,y)), sort=F)$value
  #the.col <- heat_hcl(length(x))[z]
  z <- point.size.rescale*z/(length(x)) # notice how we rescale the dots according to the maximum z could have gotten

  symbols(x, y, circles = z, #rep(0.1, length(x)), #sample(1:2, length(x), replace = T),
    inches=F, bg="grey", #the.col,
    g = bg, add = T)

  # points(x, y, pch = pch, col = col, bg = bg, cex = cex)
  ok <- is.finite(x) & is.finite(y)
  if (any(ok))
    lines(stats::lowess(x[ok], y[ok], f = span, iter = iter),
      col = col.smooth, ...)
}

panel.hist <- function(x, ...) {
  usr <- par("usr"); on.exit(par(usr))
  par(usr = c(usr[1:2], 0, 1.5))
  h <- hist(x, plot = FALSE, br = 20)
  breaks <- h$breaks; nB <- length(breaks)
  y <- h$counts; y <- y/max(y)
  rect(breaks[-nB], 0, breaks[-1], y, col="orange", ...)
}

pairs.ordered.categorical <- function(xx,...) {
  pairs(xx,
    diag.panel = panel.hist,
    lower.panel=panel.smooth.ordered.categorical,
    upper.panel=panel.cor.ordered.categorical,
    cex.labels = 1.5, ...)
}

# Example
set.seed(666)
a1 <- sample(1:5, 100, replace = T)
a2 <- sample(1:5, 100, replace = T)
a3 <- round(jitter(a2, 7))
a3[a3 < 1 | a3 > 5] <- 3
a4 <- 6-round(jitter(a1, 7))
a4[a4 < 1 | a4 > 5] <- 3
aa <- data.frame(a1,a2,a3,a4)
require(reshape)
# plotting :)
pairs.ordered.categorical(aa)

```

