## 004 - Exploring Data - Part II

#### EPIB 607 - FALL 2020

Sahir Rai Bhatnagar Department of Epidemiology, Biostatistics, and Occupational Health McGill University

sahir.bhatnagar@mcgill.ca

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# Summarizing relationships between two variables

Approaches for summarizing relationships between two variables vary depending on variable types:

- Two numerical variables
- Two categorical variables
- One numerical variable and one categorical variable

#### Two numerical variables and the correlation coefficient

Two categorical variables and contingency tables

A numerical variable and a categorical variable

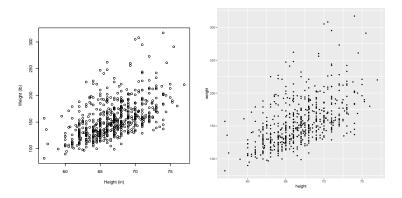
Summary

## Scatterplots

```
library(ggplot2); library(oibiostat);
data(famuss)

plot(famuss$height, famuss$weight, xlab = "Height (in)", ylab = "Weight (lb)")

ggplot(data = famuss, mapping = aes(x = height, y = weight)) +
    geom_point(size = 0.8, pch = 21)
```



#### Pearson's correlation coefficient

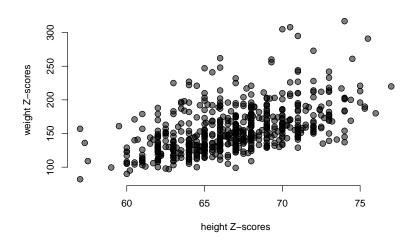
• The **sample** correlation (*r*) between two variables *X* and *Y* is given by:

$$r = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_X \cdot z_Y \tag{1}$$

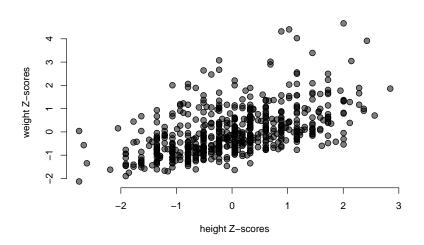
$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_X} \right) \left( \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s_Y} \right) \tag{2}$$

- $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  the *n* paired sample values of *X* and *Y*
- $z_X$  and  $z_Y$  are the sample Z-scores of the X and Y variables, respectively
- $s_X$  and  $s_Y$  are the sample standard deviations of the X and Y variables, respectively
- $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are the sample means of the X and Y variables, respectively
- The correlation coefficient quantifies the strength of a linear trend.

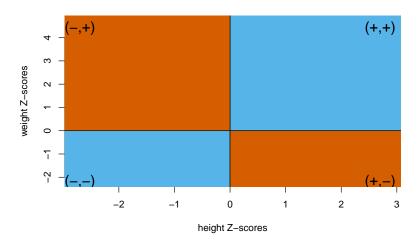
# Plot of weight vs. height in famuss dataset



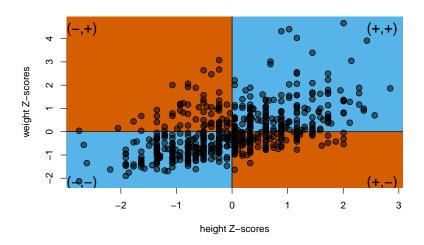
# Plot of Z-scores weight vs. Z-scores height in famuss dataset



# Partition the graph into four quadrants (x, y)



# Correlation depends on which quadrants the points are on



#### Pearson's correlation coefficient

- The correlation coefficient *r* takes on values between -1 and 1.
- The closer r is to  $\pm 1$ , the stronger the linear association.
- Two variables *X* and *Y* are
  - ightharpoonup positively associated if Y increases as X increases (r > 0)
  - ▶ *negatively associated* if *Y* decreases as *X* increases (r < 0)
- Since the formula for calculating the correlation coefficient standardizes the variables, changes in scale or units of measurement will not affect its value

# Exercise: Show mathematically that the correlation (r) is bounded by -1 and 1

Consider that we can't have higher correlation than when we compare a list to itself (perfect correlation).

# Correlation and Simple linear Regression

• If we are predicting a random variable *Y* knowing the value of another variable *X* = *x* using a regression line, then the formula for the regression can be given by:

$$\left(\frac{Y-\bar{y}}{s_Y}\right) = r\left(\frac{x-\bar{x}}{s_X}\right) \tag{3}$$

This can be rewritten as:

$$Y = \bar{y} + r \left( \frac{x - \bar{x}}{s_X} \right) s_Y \tag{4}$$

#### Correlation in R.

• Correlation between weight and height in the famuss dataset:

```
cor(famuss$height, famuss$weight)
## [1] 0.53
```

 We can also obtain the correlation between weight and height from a simple linear regression:

```
summary(lm(height ~ weight, data = famuss))
## Coefficients:
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 58.2952   0.5732   101.7   <2e-16 ***
## weight   0.0548   0.0036   15.2   <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 3 on 593 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.282,^îlAdjusted R-squared: 0.281
## F-statistic: 233 on 1 and 593 DF, p-value: <2e-16</pre>
```

• Exercise: calculate the correlation coefficient from the regression coefficient for weight.

# Let's remind ourselves about random variability

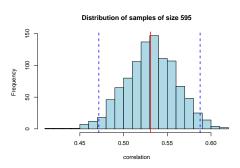
- In many cases, we do not observe data for the entire population of interest but rather for a random sample.
- As with the mean and standard deviation, the sample correlation is the most commonly used estimator of the population correlation.
- This implies that the correlation we compute and use as a summary is a random variable.

### Let's remind ourselves about random variability

Lets create a pseudo population from the 595 observations by sampling with replacement, and calculate the correlation. Lets repeat this process 1000 times:

```
hist(R, breaks = 20, col = "lightblue", xlab = "correlation",
main = "Distribution of samples of size 595")
abline(v = mean(R), col = "red", lvd = 2)
abline(v = quantile(R, probs = c(0.025, 0.975)), col = "blue",
lty = 2, lvd = 2)
```

```
mean(R)
## [1] 0.53
quantile(R, probs = c(0.025, 0.975))
## 2.5% 98%
## 0.47 0.59
```



# Another example: NHANES<sup>2</sup>

- The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES)
  consists of a set of surveys and measurements conducted by the US
  CDC to assess the health and nutritional status of adults and children
  in the United States.
- The following example uses data from a sample of 500 adults (individuals ages 21 and older) from the NHANES dataset<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> The sample is available as nhanes.samp.adult.500 in the R oibiostat package

<sup>2</sup> http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes.htm

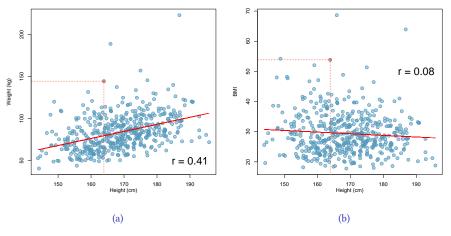


Figure: (a) A scatterplot showing height versus weight from the 500 individuals in the sample from NHANES. One participant 163.9 cm tall (about 5 ft, 4 in) and weighing 144.6 kg (about 319 lb) is highlighted. (b) A scatterplot showing height versus BMI from the 500 individuals in the sample from NHANES. The same individual highlighted in (a) is marked here, with BMI 53.83. Fitted regression lines are shown in red with correlation coefficient r. BMI = weight/height<sup>2</sup> ×703.

## Cautionary notes

- The formulas above are for a <u>particular sample</u>, hence the lower case letters r, x, y. In statistical terms, r is the **estimator** for the population-level correlation  $\rho$  (the **estimand**) of the random variables X and Y. The actual value of the sample correlation is denoted by  $\hat{r}$  and is called the **estimate**
- This implies that we are not 100% confident in our estimate and therefore should provide a confidence interval as well.
- A strong linear relationship is not necessarily a **causal** relationship, that is, just because  $r \approx 1$  (or  $r \approx -1$ ) does not mean that x **causes** changes in y (we may have a *spurious* correlation).
- Just because  $r \approx 0$  does not mean that that x and y are unrelated, merely that they are **uncorrelated**. That is, it is possible to construct examples where x and y have a strong functional relationship, but where r = 0.
- X, Y independent  $\Rightarrow r_{XY} = 0$
- $r_{XY} = 0 \Rightarrow X$ , Y are independent

## Anscombe's quartet<sup>3</sup>

library(datasets);data("anscombe")

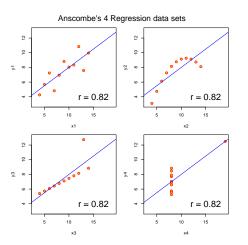
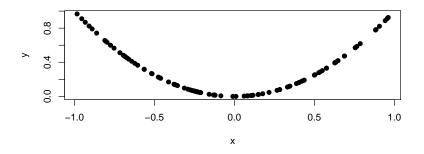


Figure: All four panels have the exact same linear correlation coefficient

 $<sup>{}^3\</sup>mathrm{Anscombe, Francis J. (1973). \ Graphs \ in \ statistical \ analysis. \ The \ American Statistician, 27, 17–21. \ doi: 10.2307/2682899.}$ 

# Zero linear correlation does not imply independence

```
set.seed(12)
x <- runif(100,-1,1)
y <- x^2
plot(x,y, pch = 19)</pre>
```



```
cor(x,y)
## [1] -0.023
```

Another	example of san	ne summary	statistics	but	very
different	relationships				

https://www.autodeskresearch.com/publications/samestats

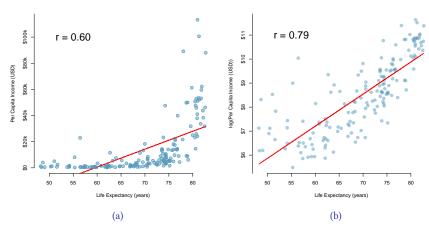


Figure: (a) per capita income vs. life expectancy (b) log per capita income vs. life expectancy. Fitted regression line in red with correlation coefficient r.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>The World Development Indicators (WDI) is a database of country-level variables (i.e., indicators) recording outcomes for a variety of topics, including economics, health, mortality, fertility, and education

Two numerical variables and the correlation coefficient

Two categorical variables and contingency tables

A numerical variable and a categorical variable

Summary

# Two categorical variables

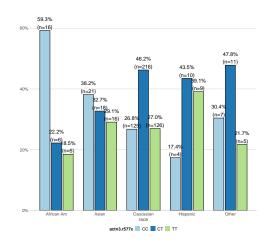
A contingency table summarizes data for two categorical variables:

```
tab1 <- table(famuss$race.
            famuss$actn3.r577x)
tab1
##
##
               CC CT
                      TT
    African Am 16 6
##
               21 18 16
##
    Asian
    Caucasian 125 216 126
##
    Hispanic 4 10 9
    Other
                7 11 5
##
addmargins(tab1)
##
##
                     TT Sum
##
    African Am 16 6 5
                          27
##
    Asian
               21 18 16 55
    Caucasian 125 216 126 467
    Hispanic 4 10
                         23
##
##
    Other
              7 11 5 23
              173 261 161 595
##
    Sum
```

# Conditional distribution of genotype given race

The distributions we create this way are called **conditional distributions**, because they show the distribution of one variable for just those cases that satisfy a condition on another variable

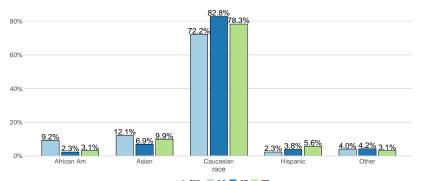
```
addmargins(
  prop.table(tab1, margin = 1)
##
##
##
    African Am 0.59 0.22 0.19 1.00
                0.38 0.33 0.29 1.00
    Asian
    Caucasian 0.27 0.46 0.27 1.00
    Hispanic
                0.17 0.43 0.39 1.00
##
                0.30 0.48 0.22 1.00
    Other
    Sum
                1.72 1.93 1.35 5.00
```



# Conditional distribution of race given genotype

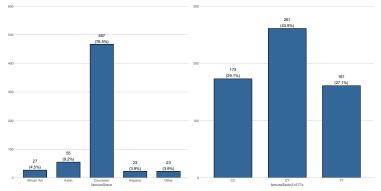
```
## ## CC CT TT Sum
## African Am 0.092 0.023 0.031 0.147
## Asian 0.121 0.069 0.099 0.290
## Caucasian 0.723 0.828 0.783 2.333
## Hispanic 0.023 0.038 0.056 0.117
## Other 0.040 0.042 0.031 0.114
## Sum 1.000 1.000 1.000 3.000
```

```
sjPlot::plot_xtab(famuss$race, famuss$actn3.r577x, margin = "col", show.total = F, show.n = F)
```



# Marginal distributions of race and genotype

Given a contingency table, the frequency distribution of one of the variables is called its **marginal distribution**.

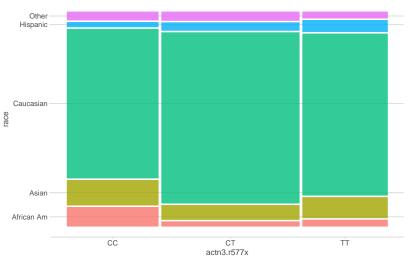


# Mosaic plots

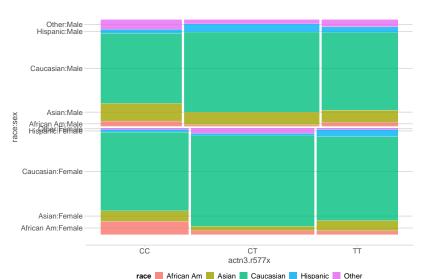
- A mosaic plot is a graphical display that allows you to examine the relationship among two or more categorical variables.
- The mosaic plot starts as a square with length one. The square is divided first into horizontal bars whose widths are proportional to the probabilities associated with the first categorical variable.
- Then each bar is split vertically into bars that are proportional to the conditional probabilities of the second categorical variable. Additional splits can be made if wanted using a third, fourth variable, etc.

# Mosaic plots - race and genotype

```
# devtools::install qithub("haleyjeppson/qqmosaic")
pacman::p load(ggmosaic)
ggplot(data = famuss) +
  geom_mosaic(aes(x = product(race, actn3.r577x),
                  fill = race))
```



# Mosaic plots - race, genotype and sex



Two numerical variables and the correlation coefficien

Two categorical variables and contingency tables

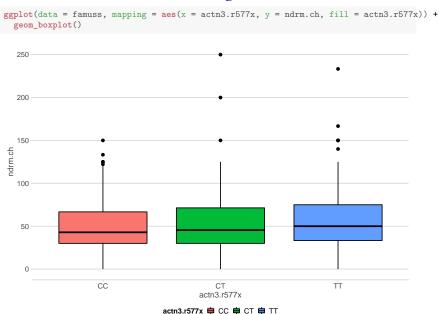
A numerical variable and a categorical variable

Summary

# A numerical variable and a categorical variable

- *FAMuSS* was designed to study the relationship between genotype at the location *r577x* in the gene *ACTN3* and muscle strength.
- Muscle strength was assessed by the percent change in non-dominant arm strength after resistance training (ndrm.ch).
- What visualization would be a good choice to make this comparison?

# A numerical variable and a categorical variable



Two numerical variables and the correlation coefficien

Two categorical variables and contingency tables

A numerical variable and a categorical variable

Summary

# Summary of exploring data slides

• Two types of variables:

▶ Numeric: Discrete, Continuous

► Categorical: Ordinal, Nominal

- The collection of values for a numerical or categorical is called the distribution of that variable
- Measures of center include mean and median.
- Measures of spread include standard deviation, interquartile range
- Median and IQR are robust to outliers
- Histograms, boxplots, violin plots, and scatterplots are useful graphical summaries of numerical data, which can also be grouped by a categorical variable
- Bar plots, contingency tables, mosaic plots are useful summaries of categorical data

dummary 35/37.

# Summary of exploring data slides continued

- Correlation coefficient (*r*) quantifies the strength of a linear trend.
- The multiple R-squared in a simple linear regression output is equal to  $r^2$ .
- Transformation (e.g. log) can produce better linear associations for highly skewed data. But be careful about the interpretation!
- Given a contingency table, the frequency distribution of one of the variables is called its marginal distribution
- Conditional distributions show the distribution of one variable for just those cases that satisfy a condition on another variable
- See https://www.r-graph-gallery.com/ and https://www.data-to-viz.com/ for a collection of graphical displays

Summary 36/37 •

#### Session Info

```
R version 3.6.2 (2019-12-12)
Platform: x86_64-pc-linux-gnu (64-bit)
Running under: Pop!_OS 19.10
Matrix products: default
BLAS: /usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/openblas/libblas.so.3
LAPACK: /usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libopenblasp-r0.3.7.so
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                        graphics grDevices utils
[1] tools
              stats
                                                       datasets methods
[8] base
other attached packages:
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                         cowplot_1.0.0
                                              openintro 2.0.0
 [4] usdata 0.1.0
                         cherryblossom 0.1.0 airports 0.1.0
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                         NCStats 0.4.7
                                              FSA 0.8.30
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                         stringr_1.4.0
                                             dplyr_1.0.2
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                         readr 1.3.1
                                             tidvr 1.1.2
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                         ggplot2_3.3.2.9000 tidyverse_1.3.0
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loaded via a namespace (and not attached):
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                                                               R6_2.4.1
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