

Assuming the linear function $\hat{y} = a_1 x + a_0$

$$\begin{aligned} \% \text{ exp. var.} &= \frac{\text{Exp. var.}}{\text{Tot. var.}} = \frac{\sum (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{\sum (a_1 x_{i0} - \bar{y})^2}{\sum y_i'^2} \\ &= \frac{\sum (a_1 x_i + \bar{y} - a_1 \bar{x} - \bar{y})^2}{\sum y_i'^2} = \frac{\sum (a_1 x_i')^2}{\sum y_i'^2} \end{aligned}$$

Substitute for a_1

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\sum \left(\frac{\sum x_i' y_i'}{\sum x_i'^2} \right)^2}{\sum y_i'^2} \\ &= \frac{\sum (x_i' y_i')^2}{\sum y_i'^2 \sum x_i'^2} \end{aligned}$$

Divide by N to get

$$\% \text{ exp. variance} = \left[\frac{(\overline{x' y'})^2}{\overline{y'^2} \overline{x'^2}} = r^2 \right]$$

In words, the square of the covariance divided by the variances is equal to the explained variance.

the correlation coefficient is just the square root of the explained variance.

$$r = \frac{\overline{x'y'}}{\sqrt{\overline{x'^2}}\sqrt{\overline{y'^2}}} = \frac{\overline{x'y'}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

Properties of r^2 and r .

1) r^2 is the % variance explained by linear fit $\hat{y}$

2) r^2 always is between 0 and 1

3) r varies from -1 to 1
 $r > 0 \rightarrow$ positively correlated
(variables relate in the same way)

$r < 0 \rightarrow$ negatively correlated
(variables relate in the opposite way)

Relationship of r to a_1

$$a_1 = r \cdot \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}$$

Correlation coef. $\times$ ratio of std. deviations.

What r and a_1 give physically

$$a_1 = \frac{\overline{x'y'}}{\overline{x'^2}}$$

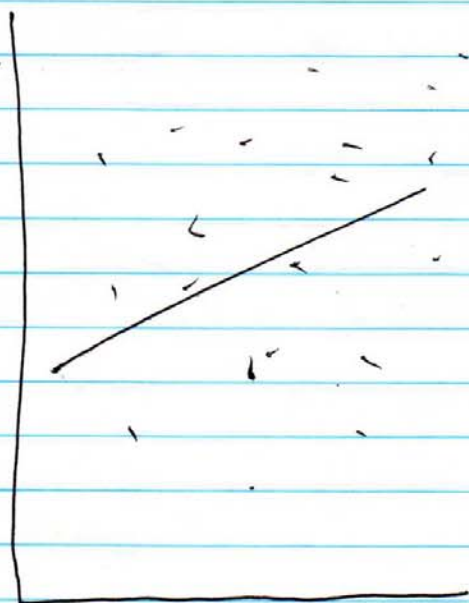
Change in y
per change in x

$$r = \frac{\overline{x'y'}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

How good the ^{regression} fit
is (the spread)

So a large value in a_1 does not necessarily mean a large correlation coefficient.

Consider the following scatter plots with the same regression line (a_1)



Weakly correlated
Lots of scatter



Highly correlated
Tightly clustered.

The quantity $\sqrt{1-r^2}$ has a special physical meaning too:

$1-r^2 \rightarrow$ Unexplained variance

$\sqrt{1-r^2} \rightarrow$ Root mean square error (RMSE)

CAVEATS ON CORRELATION:

- Only works for linear relationships
- Does not reveal quadrature relationships (when things are 90° out of phase)
- We've assumed the data ~~are~~ (x_i, y_i) are linearly independent (i.e. not autocorrelated) $\rightarrow$ A big one!!
- Correlation DOES NOT ESTABLISH PHYSICAL CAUSE AND EFFECT
C.e.g. I think this is a major handicap of any statistically-based forecasting technique.
Typically find some "cool" relationship between predictor(s) and predictand(s), establish a methodology that works in hindcast mode, apply in operational forecasting.

Hurricane forecasting: Bill Gray bases forecast on things like

- QBO
- African rainfall
- Atlantic SST
- El Niño

How do these physically interact to give more or less hurricanes? Stats. don't say...

Quote from Bill Gray at my master's defense: "Why do you want to waste your time on modeling?"

My perspective: A sound and robust approach to physical understanding + predictability should include stat. & physically based methods - the latter is next semester!!

Sampling theory of correlation.

- When we calculate the ^{sample} correlation coefficient r , we are estimating the correlation coefficient assuming an infinite sample size (p). p is the "true" correlation coefficient.

- When the true correlation coefficient is zero, then the sampling distribution of r will follow the t -distribution.

Case
 $p=0$

~~Statistic~~ Statistic is :

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{N-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}$$

Student's t -distribution with $\nu = N-2$.

Example: $N=10$ $r=0.6$.

Does r differ from $p=0$ at the 95% level?

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{N-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}} = 2.12$$

2-tailed test (95%)

$$t_{crit} = t_{0.975} = 2.31$$

X Not satisfied.

1-tailed test is satisfied

(H_0)
 $\therefore$ State that the null hypothesis that $\rho = 0$ cannot be rejected against alternative hypothesis that $\rho \neq 0$ (H_1).

When to use 1-sided vs. 2-sided test:

1-sided: Have a prior expectation that correlation should be positive or negative.

2-sided: No prior expectation that correlation should be of either sign.

Use
 $\rho \neq 0$

When the true correlation coefficient is not expected to be zero, distribution for $\rho \neq 0$ is skewed:

Use Fisher's z-transformation to convert distribution of r to normal:

$$Z = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left\{ \frac{1+r}{1-r} \right\} \rightarrow \text{z-statistic}$$

This statistic is normal with mean:

$$\mu_Z = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left\{ \frac{1+\rho_0}{1-\rho_0} \right\}$$

Std. deviation

$$\sigma_Z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-3}}$$

Example from Hartmann:

$N=21$ $r=0.8$ $\rightarrow$ What is 95% conf. interval?

$$z = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left\{ \frac{1+0.8}{1-0.8} \right\} = 1.098$$

$$z - 1.965z < \mu_z < z + 1.965z$$

$$0.6366 < \mu_z < 1.560$$

Transforming this back in terms of correlation.

$$0.56 < \rho < 0.92 \quad \rightarrow 95\% \text{ conf. interval.}$$

Also a similar test for differences in correlation, similar to t-test.

How to account for autocorrelation in evaluating statistical significance?

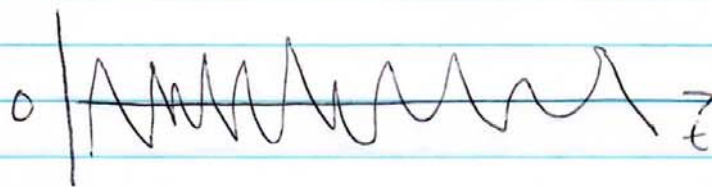
→ Problem: Data may not be independent in time. *This persistence reduces the degrees of freedom in the data.

Example mentioned before:

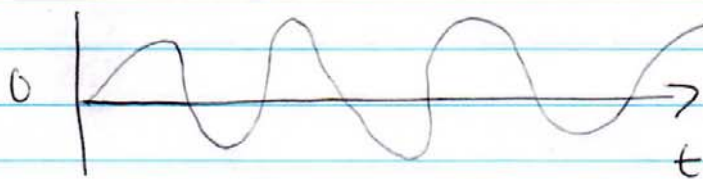
ENSO time series (of whatever index) monthly for 50 years. Is the ^{time} sample size = 50 years $\times$ 12 months = 600 months?
yr

→ Answer: NO because sea surface temperatures in the tropical Pacific are fairly persistent from month to month.

The more autocorrelated data is, the "smoother" it will appear in time.



Little correlation in time
"White"



More correlation in time
"Red"

Various ways to account for the autocorrelation
Simplest way is just to use lag-1
autocorrelation.

Lag-1 Autocorrelation

Original Data: $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots, a_n$ → time
Lagged Data: $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n$

Calculating the correlation of the
following data series: (a_i, a_{i-1})
where i = time index

This correlation is called lag-1 autocorrelation
and is denoted by ρ_1 .

Use ρ_1 to get a modified sample
size:

~~Effective~~

sample
size →

$$n' = n \frac{1 - \rho_1}{1 + \rho_1}$$

where $n' < n$

n = original # of
samples

n' = # of samples
accounting for
persistence.

The effective sample size can also be
used to inflate the variance accounting
for autocorrelation

$$\text{Adjusted variance} \rightarrow \frac{s^2}{n'} = \frac{s^2}{n} \left(\frac{1 + \rho_1}{1 - \rho_1} \right)$$