

MATH 503: Mathematical Statistics

Lecture 10: Linear Regression

Reading: C&B Sections 11.3, 12.1-12.2.4

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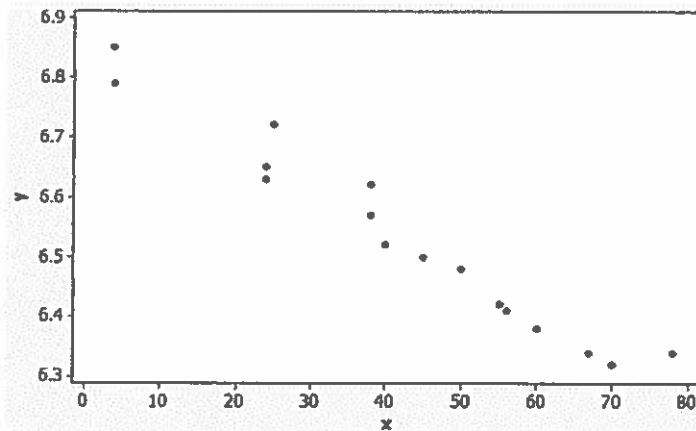
Today's Topics

- What's the point?
- Method of least squares
- Best linear unbiased estimators (BLUEs)
- Simple regression model assumptions
- Point estimation
- Sampling distributions
- Inference and testing

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What's the point?

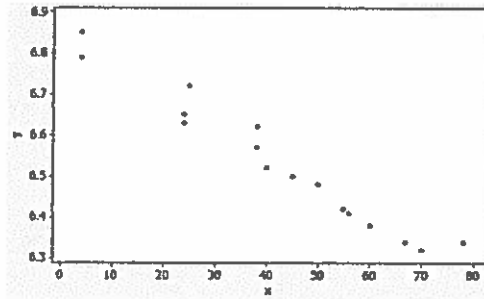
Given the values (x, y) , we want to see if there is a relationship between X and Y .



What's the point? (cont.)

- Simple (linear) regression refers to regression with one predictor variable
- "Linear" regression \Rightarrow linear in the parameters
- Which of the following are linear models?
 - ✓ • $Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$
 - ✓ • $\log(Y_i) = \alpha + \beta x_i^2 + \epsilon_i$
 - ✗ • $Y_i = \alpha + \beta^2 x_i + \epsilon_i$
not linear in β

What's the point?



- For simple regression, we want to find a line $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_i$ that best describes the relationship displayed in the scatterplot.
- We may think of the value $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_i$ as predicting Y_i , and then define the i th residual as $r_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_i)$. To judge the quality of the fit of the line, examine the r_i 's.

Notation

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

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

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

$$S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$$

Method of Least Squares

The method of least squares chooses the line that has the smallest residual sum of squares, $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2$

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\alpha + \beta x_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)(-1) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\alpha - \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0 \rightarrow \hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum y_i - \beta \sum x_i}{n} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}$$

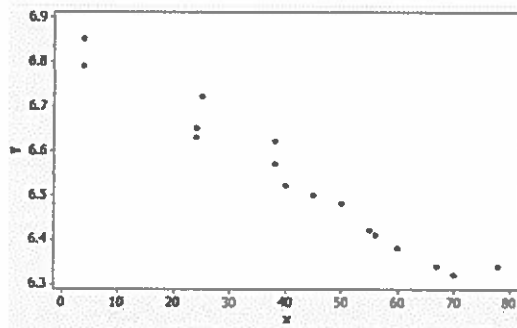
$$\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)(-x_i) = 0$$

$$\sum x_i y_i - \alpha \sum x_i - \beta \sum x_i^2 = 0$$

$$\sum x_i y_i - \frac{1}{n} (\sum y_i - \beta \sum x_i) \sum x_i - \beta \sum x_i^2 = 0$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{n}}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}} = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}} \quad (\text{see scrap for details})$$

Why is the least squares approach reasonable?



- Least squares is only one way to fit lines, and it has good and bad properties
 - Good: easily computable and have some nice mathematical properties
 - Bad: heavily influenced by outliers

$$\text{Show } S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)}{n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pf} | S_{xy} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i y_i - \bar{x} y_i - x_i \bar{y} + \bar{x} \bar{y}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n \bar{x} \bar{y} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} \right) \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} \right) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} \right) \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{n} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Show } S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pf} | S_{xx} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^2 - 2x_i \bar{x} + \bar{x}^2) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2\bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n\bar{x}^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2\bar{x}(n\bar{x}) + n\bar{x}^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n \left(\frac{\sum x_i}{n} \right) \left(\frac{\sum x_i}{n} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Another Reasonable Approach

- Use horizontal distances instead of vertical distances
- The resulting line would be

$$x^* = a^* + b^*y$$

where $b^* = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{yy}}$ and $a^* = \bar{x} - b^*\bar{y}$

- Re-expressing the line as a function of y on x implies

$$\hat{y} = \frac{-a^*}{b^*} + \frac{1}{b^*}x$$

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What's the difference?

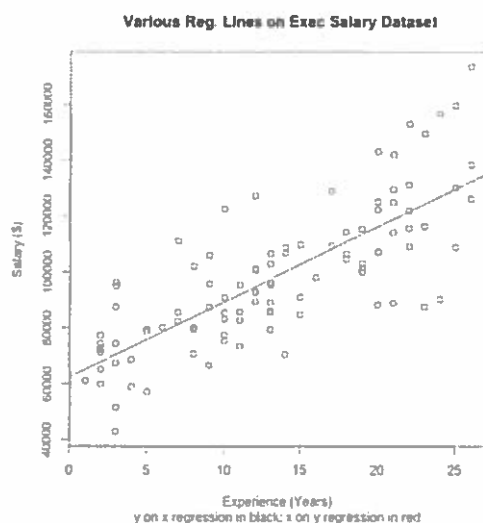
- If the two lines were the same, then the slopes would be equal, i.e.

$$b/(1/b^*) = 1$$

- In actuality,

$$b/(1/b^*) = bb^* = \frac{(S_{xy})^2}{S_{xx}S_{yy}} \leq 1$$

- Problem when there is no distinction between predictor and response variables

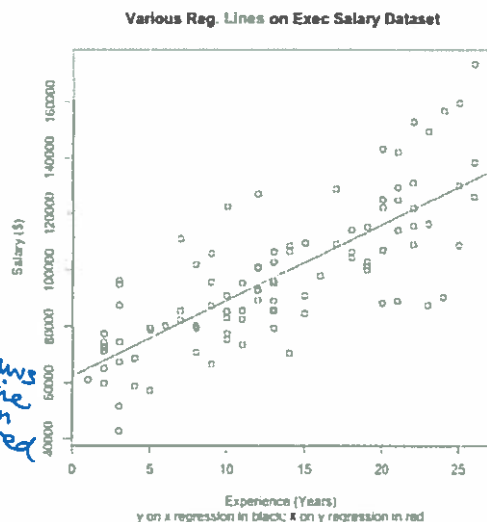


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In RStudio,
can use "Import
Dataset" ; "Text"

R code (if you were wondering)

```
> exec <- read.table("MATH 651/data/
  ExecSalary.txt")
> View(exec)
> plot(exec$Experience,
  exec$Salary, xlab="Experience
  (Years)", ylab="Salary ($)")
> exec.lm1 <- lm(Salary~Experience,
  data=exec)
> exec.lm2 <- lm(Experience~Salary,
  data=exec)
> abline(exec.lm1)
> abline(-exec.lm2$coefficients[1]/
  exec.lm2$coefficients[2],
  1/exec.lm2$coefficients[2] col=2)
> title(main="Various Reg. Lines on
  Exec Salary Dataset", sub="y on x
  regression in black; x on y
  regression in red")
```



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Best Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUEs)

- Setup:
 - Assume x_i 's known & fixed
 - y_i 's observed values from uncorrelated rv's Y_i 's
 - Consider model $Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$, where ϵ_i 's uncorrelated rv's with $E(\epsilon_i)=0$ and $\text{Var}(\epsilon_i)=\sigma^2$ unknown
 - Goal: determine estimates for α, β
- Restrict choice of estimators to class of linear estimators (i.e. of the form $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i Y_i$ where d_i 's known & fixed)
 - “Unbiased” is self-explanatory
 - “Best” refers to estimator with smallest variance

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Example

What specifications must be in place to satisfy a BLUE of β ?

Estimator has the form $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i Y_i$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \text{"Unbiased"} \Rightarrow E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i Y_i\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n d_i E(Y_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n d_i (\alpha + \beta x_i) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n d_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i \stackrel{!}{=} \beta \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i = 1$$

"Best" $\Rightarrow \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i Y_i\right)$ minimized, where

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i Y_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2 \text{Var}(Y_i) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2$$

\therefore we want to minimize $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2$

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Result

(Casella & Berger, Lemma 11.2.7)

Let (v_1, \dots, v_k) be constants and let (c_1, \dots, c_k) be positive constants. Then, for

$$A = \{a = (a_1, \dots, a_k) : \sum_{i=1}^k a_i = 0\},$$

$$\max_{a \in A} \left\{ \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^k a_i v_i\right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^k a_i^2 / c_i} \right\} = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i (v_i - \bar{v}_c)^2,$$

where $\bar{v}_c = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k c_i}$. The maximum is attained at any a of the form $a_i = K c_i (v_i - \bar{v}_c)$ where K is a nonzero constant.

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What is the BLUE of β ?

Using Lemma 11.2.7 ($k = n$, $v_i = x_i$, $c_i = 1$, $a_i = d_i$), d_i 's maximize

$$\frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2} \Leftrightarrow \text{minimize } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2$$

Among all d_i 's that satisfy $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 0$, assuming d_i has the form

$$d_i = K c_i (v_i - \bar{v}_c) = K(x_i - \bar{x}), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

Thus, because $d_i = K(x_i - \bar{x})$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n K(x_i - \bar{x}) x_i \stackrel{\text{by the BLUE constraint}}{=} K S_{xx} \Rightarrow K = \frac{1}{S_{xx}} \\ \Rightarrow d_i &= K(x_i - \bar{x}) = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{S_{xx}} \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{S_{xx}} \right) y_i = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}} \end{aligned}$$

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} S_{xx} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(x_i - \bar{x}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) x_i \\ &\quad - \bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) x_i \end{aligned}$$

BLUE Results

- $b = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$ is the BLUE of β .
- $\text{Var}(b) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{xx}} = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$
- Similar analysis used to determine BLUE for α $E(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i y_i) = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n d_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i \doteq \alpha \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i = 0$
- Constants d_1, \dots, d_n must satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n d_i x_i = 0$$

Model & Distribution Assumptions

- Conditional normal model:
 1. x_i s known and fixed; y_i s observed from Y_i s
 2. $Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$; $i = 1, \dots, n$ holds (linearity of the model)
 3. $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ iid

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Model & Distribution Assumptions (cont.)

- Bivariate normal model:
 1. x_i s can be observed from X_i s; y_i s observed from Y_i s
 2. $(X_i, Y_i) \sim \text{BivariateNormal}(\mu_x, \mu_y, \sigma_x^2, \sigma_y^2, \rho)$
 3. $E(Y | x) = \mu_Y + \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_x} (x - \mu_x)$

$$= \left(\mu_Y - \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_x} \mu_x \right) + \left(\rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_x} \right) x$$
 4. $\text{Var}(Y | x) = \sigma_Y^2 (1 - \rho^2)$

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Point Estimation

- Inference based on point estimators, intervals, tests same for both models
- Determine MLEs for α, β, σ^2 under conditional normal model:

$$Y_i \sim N(\alpha + \beta x_i, \sigma^2), \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

i.e.

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

where $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

SEE SCRAP

Point Estimation (cont.)

- $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}$ BLUEs for $\alpha, \beta \Rightarrow$ both are unbiased
- $\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n} RSS$ biased for σ^2 because

$$E(\widehat{\sigma^2}) = \frac{n-2}{n} \sigma^2$$

- What is an unbiased estimator for σ^2 ?

$$\sigma^2 = E\left(\frac{n}{n-2} \widehat{\sigma^2}\right) = E\left(\frac{n}{n-2} \cdot \frac{RSS}{n}\right) = E\left(\frac{RSS}{n-2}\right)$$

$\therefore \frac{RSS}{n-2}$ is unbiased estimator for σ^2

$Y_i \sim N(\alpha + \beta x_i, \sigma^2)$ where α, β, σ^2 unknown

$$f(y_i; \frac{\alpha + \beta x_i}{\mu_i}, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2; y) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2\right]$$

$$\log \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2; y) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \log \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2)}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{-1}{\sigma^2} \sum (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)(-1) = 0$$

$$\sum y_i - n\alpha - \beta \sum x_i = 0 \quad \therefore \hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum y_i - \beta \sum x_i}{n} = \bar{Y} - \beta \bar{X}$$

$$\frac{\partial \log \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{-1}{\sigma^2} \sum (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)(-x_i) = 0$$

$$\sum x_i y_i - \alpha \sum x_i - \beta \sum x_i^2 = 0$$

$$\sum x_i y_i - \left(\frac{\sum y_i}{n} - \beta \frac{\sum x_i}{n}\right) \sum x_i - \beta \sum x_i^2 = 0$$

$$\sum x_i y_i - \frac{\sum x_i \sum y_i}{n} - \beta \left(\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}\right) = 0$$

$$\therefore \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{n}}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}} = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \log \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta, \sigma^2)}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2} \left(\frac{2\pi}{2\pi\sigma^2}\right) + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2 = 0$$

$$2\sigma^4 \left(\frac{-n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2}{2\sigma^4}\right) = 0 \quad (2\sigma^4)$$

$$-n\sigma^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2 = 0$$

$$\therefore \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} x_i)^2}{n} = \frac{RSS}{n}$$

Summarizing the extent to which the line fits the data: s

- Error standard deviation, σ , represents average size of the error
- σ tells how far off, on average, we expect line to be in predicting a value y at any given x_i
- Estimated by $s = \sqrt{s^2}$ where

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x_i))^2 = \frac{RSS}{n-2}$$

called the "residual mean squared error"

- Thought of as the standard deviation of the residuals
- Provides summary of the average deviation of Y_i values from the corresponding values predicted by the line
- Has the same units as Y

Sampling Distributions Theorem

Under conditional normal regression model, sampling distributions of $\hat{\alpha}$, $\hat{\beta}$, and S^2 are

$$\hat{\alpha} \sim N\left(\alpha, \frac{\sigma^2}{nS_{xx}} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2\right)$$

$$\hat{\beta} \sim N\left(\beta, \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{xx}}\right)$$

with $\text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) = \frac{-\sigma^2 \bar{x}}{S_{xx}}$. Further, $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ and S^2 are independent and $\frac{(n-2)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-2}^2$.

Inference Results

$$\frac{\hat{\alpha} - \alpha}{S \sqrt{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2) / (nS_{xx})}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

and

$$\frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{S / \sqrt{S_{xx}}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

This serves as the basis for determining CIs, decision rules for hypothesis tests!

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Confidence Intervals for Slope

- To compute the $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI, use

$$\hat{\beta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

- For small samples, substitute $t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ for $z_{\alpha/2}$. Thus, we use

$$\hat{\beta} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

as $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI for β .

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Model Utility Test (t-test)

- Understanding the association (increasing or decreasing tendency) between two variables can be essential in analyses
 - Assume that y is approximately linear in x
 - Consider the possibility that the slope of the line is zero, i.e. $H_0: \beta = 0$ vs. $H_1: \beta \neq 0$

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Testing Approaches

- There are three approaches to solve this hypothesis test:

- Find $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI for β : $\hat{\beta} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$

- Using p-value or rejection region method associated with t-statistic,

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{S/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}$$

and t -distribution with $n - 2$ degrees of freedom

- Use ANOVA with $F_{1, n-2}(\alpha)$: $\left(\frac{\hat{\beta}}{S/\sqrt{S_{xx}}}\right)^2 = \frac{\hat{\beta}^2}{S^2/S_{xx}} > F_{1, n-2}(\alpha)$

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Simple Regression ANOVA Table

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean square	F statistic
Regression (slope)	1	$SS(\text{Reg}) = S_{xy}^2 / S_{xx}$	$MS(\text{Reg}) = S_{xy}^2 / S_{xx}$	$F = \frac{MS(\text{Reg})}{MSE}$
Residual	$n - 2$	$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}^2$	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n - 2}$	
Total	$n - 1$	$SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$		

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Summarizing the extent to which the line fits the data: R^2

- R^2 interpreted as fraction of variability in Y attributable to the regression (i.e. proportion of variability in Y explained by X);

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST} = \frac{SS\text{Reg}}{SST} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{S_{xy}^2}{S_{xx}S_{yy}}$$

where SSE = "sum of squares due to error" = s^2 , and
 SST = "total sum of squares" = $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$

- $\frac{SSE}{SST}$ is proportion of variability in Y attributable to error
- Interpreted as "proportion of variability of Y explained by X "

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Coefficient of Determination (cont.)

- $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$
- R^2 is dimensionless (no reference units)
- No universal rule as to what constitutes a “large R^2 ”

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Example (and R code)

The prevalence of respiratory symptoms was recorded for 9 groups of subjects exposed to differing levels of dust in their work environment. Dust exposure was measured as particles/ft³/year scaled by 10⁶. The direct outcome variable is “relative risk”, the ratio of symptom prevalence at a given exposure level to symptom prevalence in the absence of workplace dust.

```
> dust <-  
  data.frame(exposure=c(75,100,150,350,600,900,1300,1650,2250),  
    RR=c(1.10,1.05,0.97,1.9,1.83,2.45,3.70,3.52,4.16))  
> summary(lm(RR ~ exposure,data=dust))
```

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R Output

Call:

lm(formula = RR ~ exposure, data = dust)

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.34055	-0.13997	-0.05667	0.02818	0.66226

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	1.0359939	0.1688447	6.136	0.000474 ***
exposure	0.0015398	0.0001541	9.993	2.15e-05 ***

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

Residual standard error: 0.3363 on 7 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-Squared: 0.9345, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9251

F-statistic: 99.85 on 1 and 7 DF, p-value: 2.150e-05

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SAS Code

```
data symptoms;
  input exposure RR;
  cards;
75 1.10
100 1.05
150 0.97
350 1.9
600 1.83
900 2.45
1300 3.70
1650 3.52
2250 4.16
;
proc print data=symptoms; run;

proc glm data=symptoms;
  model RR=exposure;
  ;
run;
```

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SAS Output

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: RR

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	1	11.29121174	11.29121174	99.85	<.0001
Error	7	0.79154382	0.11307769		
Corrected Total	8	12.08275556			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	RR Mean
0.934490	14.63459	0.336270	2.297778

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
exposure	1	11.29121174	11.29121174	99.85	<.0001

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
exposure	1	11.29121174	11.29121174	99.85	<.0001

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept	1.035993934	0.16884466	6.14	0.0005
exposure	0.001539804	0.00015409	9.99	<.0001

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