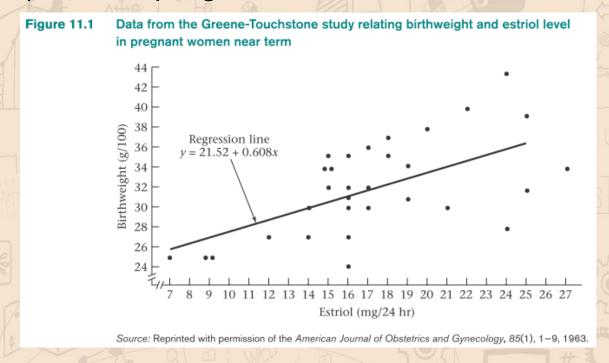




- 1. Methods of regression and correlation analysis
- 2. Multiple-regression analysis
- 3. Linear regression methods

Example: Some researchers (Greene and Touchstone) conducted a study to relate birthweight and estriol (a female hormone) level in pregnant women



- x = estriol level
 y = birthweight
- we can postulate a linear relationship between y and x: $E(y|x) = \alpha + \beta x$
- $y = \alpha + \beta x$: regression line; α : intercept; β : slope of the line

Table 11.1 Sample data from the Greene-Touchstone study relating birthweight and estriol level in pregnant women near term

	Estriol (mg/24 hr)	Birthweight (g/100)		Estriol (mg/24 hr)	Birthweight (g/100)
i	X_{j}	<i>y</i> _i	i	X_{j}	y_i
1	7	25	17	17	32
2	9	25	18	25	32
3	9	25	19	27	34
4	12	27	20	15	34
5	14	27	21	15	34
6	16	27	22	15	35
7	16	24	23	16	35
8	14	30	24	19	34
9	16	30	25	18	35
10	16	31	26	17	36
11	17	30	27	18	37
12	19	31	28	20	38
13	21	30	29	22	40
14	24	28	30	25	39
15	15	32	31	24	43
16	16	32			

Source: Reprinted with permission of the American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology, 85(1), 1-9, 1963.

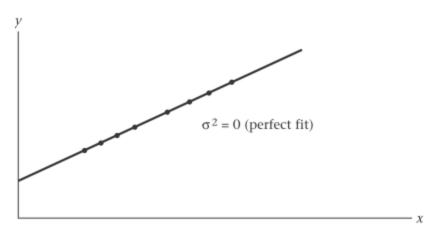
 $y = \alpha + \beta x$: not expected to be true for every woman

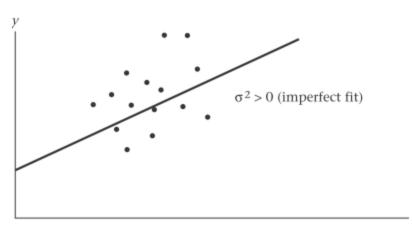
- e: error term ~N(0, σ²)
- Full regression line: $y = \alpha + \beta x + e$

Linear-regression equation: $y = \alpha + \beta x + e$

- y : dependent variable
- x: independent variable (predict y as a function of x)
- · Birthweight: dependent variable
- Estriol level: independent variable (used to predict birthweight)

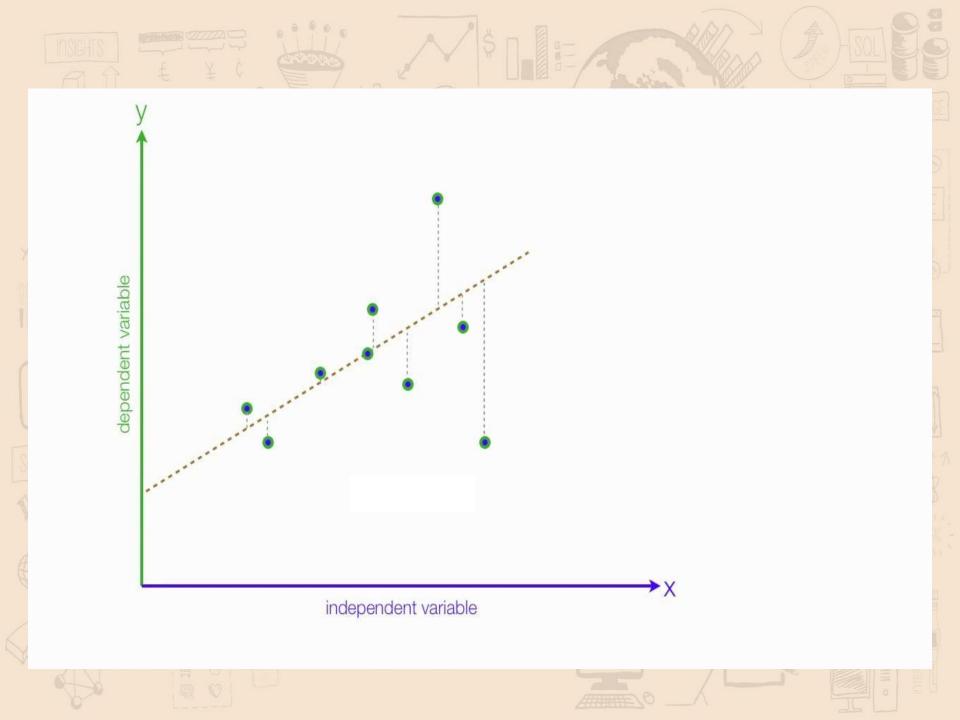
Figure 11.2 The effect of σ^2 on the goodness of fit of a regression line

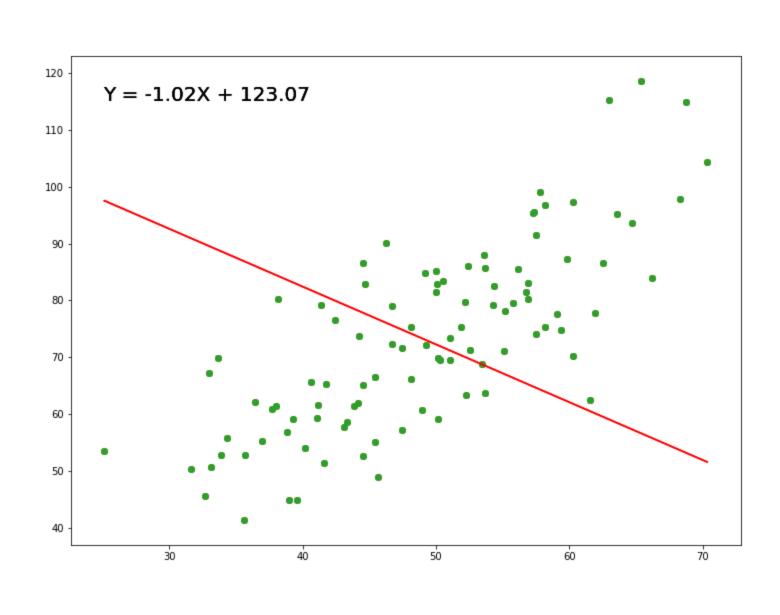




Interpretation of regression line:

- For a women with estriol level x: her birthweight will be normally distributed with mean $\alpha+\beta^*x$ and variance σ^2
- σ² = 0:
 every point falls exactly on the regression line
- Larger σ²: more scatter occurs about the regression line
- β > 0: x increases \rightarrow expected value y = α + βx increases





The <u>raw sum of squares for x is defined by</u>

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l^2$$

The **corrected sum of squares for** x is denoted by \underline{L}_{xx} and defined by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 / n$$

It represents the sum of squares of the deviations of the x_i from the mean. Similarly, the raw sum of squares for y is defined by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2$$

The <u>corrected sum of squares for y</u> is denoted by \underline{L}_{yy} and defined by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right)^2 / n$$

Notice that L_{xx} and L_{yy} are simply the numerators of the expressions for the sample variances of x (i.e., s_x^2) and y (i.e., s_y^2), respectively, because

$$s_x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \overline{x})^2 / (n-1)$$
 and $s_y^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \overline{y})^2 / (n-1)$

The raw sum of cross products is defined by

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

The corrected sum of cross products is defined by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})$$

which is denoted by L_{xy} .

It can be shown that a short form for the corrected sum of cross products is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right) / n$$

Estimation of the Least-Squares Line

The coefficients of the least-squares line y = a + bx are given by

$$b = L_{xy}/L_{xx}$$
 and $a = \overline{y} - b\overline{x} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i - b\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)/n$

Sometimes, the line y = a + bx is called the <u>estimated or fitted regression line</u> or, more briefly, the <u>regression line</u>.

Table 11.1 Sample data from the Greene-Touchstone study relating birthweight and estriol level in pregnant women near term

	Estriol (mg/24 hr)	Birthweight (g/100)		Estriol (mg/24 hr)	Birthweight (g/100)
i	\boldsymbol{x}_{i}	\mathbf{y}_{i}	i	X,	\mathbf{y}_{i}
1	7	25	17	17	32
2	9	25	18	25	32
3	9	25	19	27	34
4	12	27	20	15	34
5	14	27	21	15	34
6	16	27	22	15	35
7	16	24	23	16	35
8	14	30	24	19	34
9	16	30	25	18	35
10	16	31	26	17	36
11	17	30	27	18	37
12	19	31	28	20	38
13	21	30	29	22	40
14	24	28	30	25	39
15	15	32	31	24	43
16	16	32			

Source: Based on the American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology, 85(1), 1–9, 1963.

Example:

Q: Derive the estimated regression line for the data in Table 11.1.

• Equation 11.3 Estimation of the Least-Squares Line

The coefficients of the least-squares line y=a+bx are given by

$$b = L_{xy} / L_{xx}$$
 and $a = \bar{y} - \bar{x} = (\sum_{i=1}^{31} \gamma_i - b \sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i)/n$

Sometimes, the line y = a + bx is called the *estimated or fitted* regression line or, more briefly, the regression line.

Solution: First,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i = 534 \quad \sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i^2 = 9876 \quad \sum_{i=1}^{31} \gamma_i = 992 \quad \sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i \gamma_i = 17,500$$

Then, compute L_{xy} and L_{xx} :

$$L_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i \gamma_i - (\sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i)(\sum_{i=1}^{31} \gamma_i)/31 = 17,500 - \frac{(534)(992)}{31} = 412$$

$$L_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i\right)^2}{31} = 9876 - \frac{(534)^2}{31} = 677.42$$

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n} (x_l - \overline{x})^2 =$$

$$L_{xx} = \sum_{l=1}^{n} (x_l - \overline{x})^2 = \sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l^2 - \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l\right)^2 / n$$

$$L_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})$$

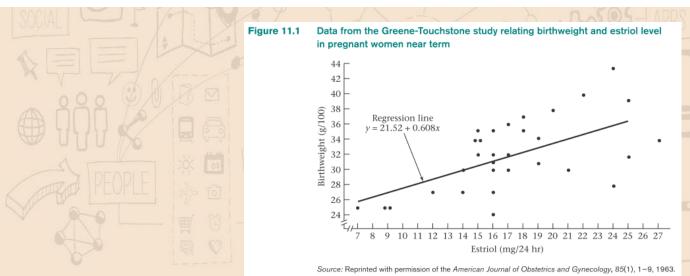
Finally, compute the slope of the regression line:

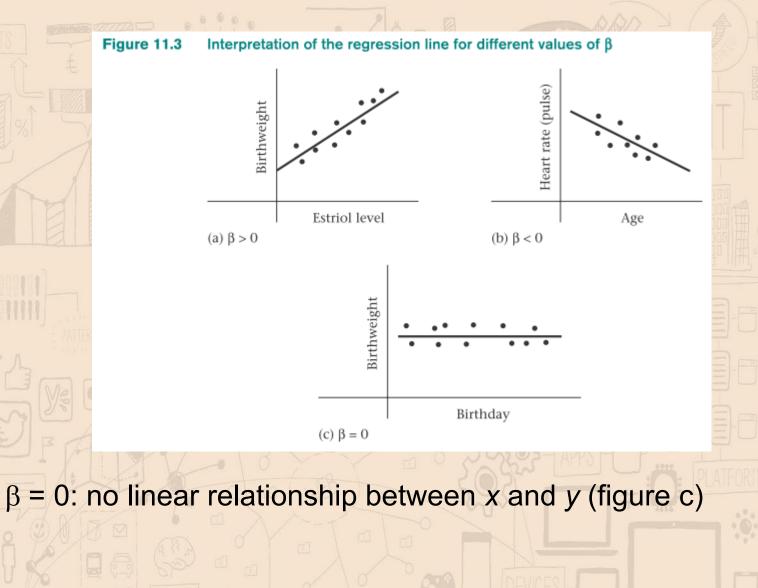
$$b = L_{xy} / L_{xx} = \frac{412}{677.42} = 0.608$$

The intercept of the regression line can also be computed. Note from Equation 11.3 that

$$a = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{31} \gamma_i - 0.608 \sum_{i=1}^{31} x_i\right)}{31} = \frac{\left[992 - 0.608(534)\right]}{31} = 21.52$$

Thus, the regression line is given by y = 21.52 + 0.608x. This regression line is shown in Figure 11.1.





Residuals and fitted regression line

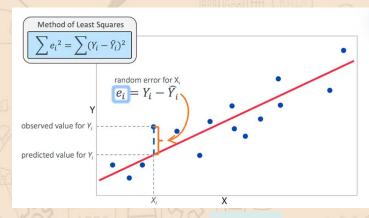
 (x_i, y_i) : regression line, $y = \alpha + \beta x$.

If y = a + bx is the estimated regression line and

 $\frac{\hat{e}_i}{1}$ = residual for the point (x_i, y_i) about the estimated regression line,

then

$$\hat{e}_i = y_i - (a + bx_i)$$
 and $sd(\hat{e}_i) = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \left[1 - \frac{1}{n} - \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{L_{xx}} \right]}$



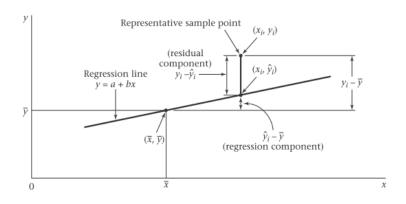
The **Studentized residual** corresponding to the point (x_i, y_i) : $\hat{e}_i / sd(\hat{e}_i)$

Unequal residual variances:

 Variance-stabilizing transformation: transform y to a different scale e.g. In and square-root

Figure 11.11 Plot of Studentized residuals vs. the predicted value of birthweight for the birthweight-estriol data in Table 11.1

- Compute residuals about fitted regression line
- Construct a scatter plot of residuals vs. estriol values (x) or predicted birthweights (ŷ)





Data points with lowest predicted values_{-2.5}.
 have residuals close to 0

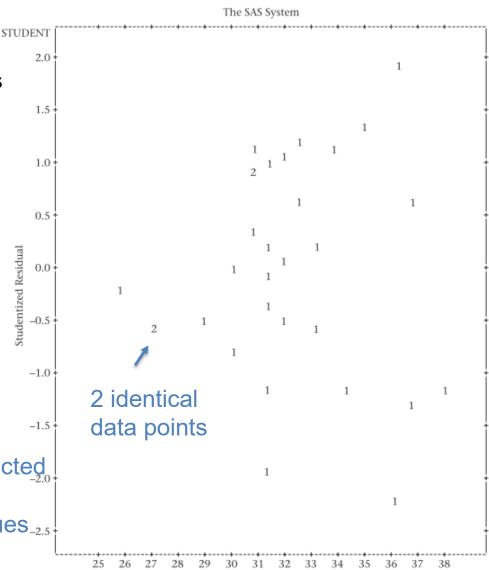
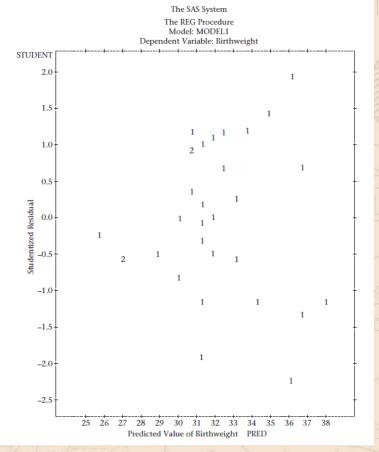
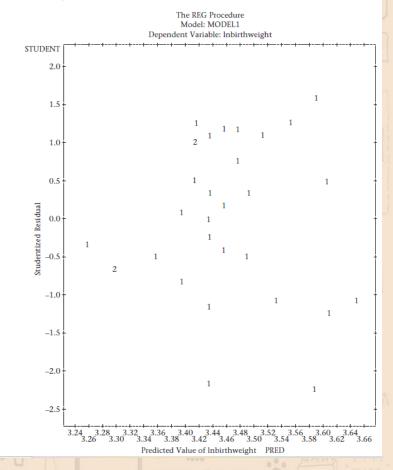


FIGURE 11.11 Plot of Studentized residuals vs. the predicted value of birthweight for the birthweight–estriol data in Table 11.1



Plot of Studentized residuals vs. the predicted value of ln(birthweight) for the birthweight-estriol data in Table 11.1

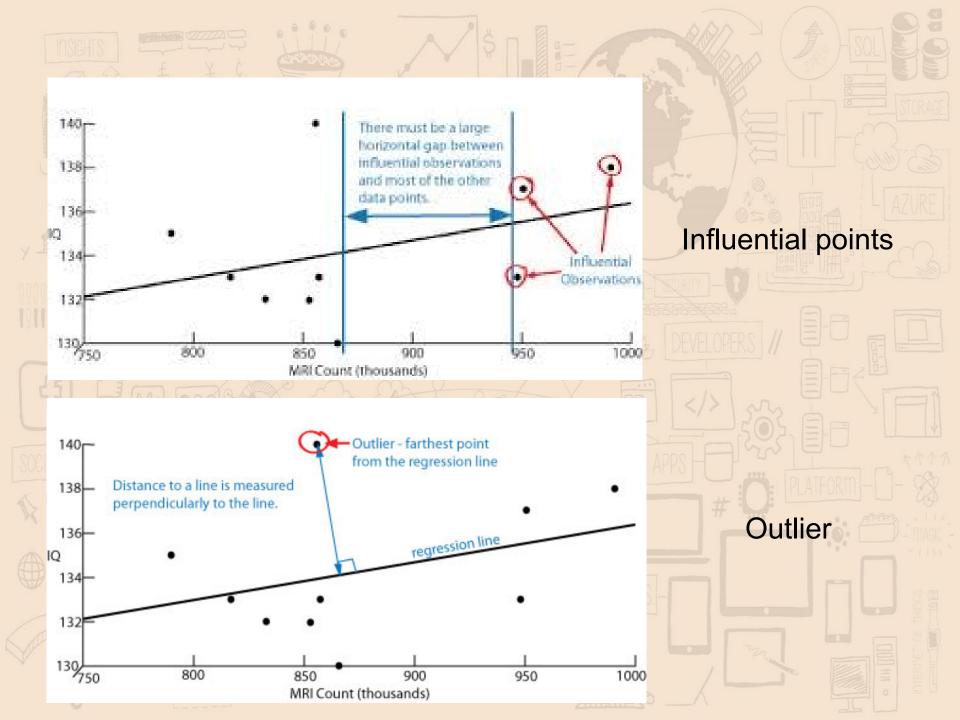


- The two plots are similar
- Simplicity: keep the data in the original scale
- *Appropriate transformation is critical > meeting linearity, equal-variance and normality assumptions (conflict between different assumptions e.g. equal-variance and linearity)

- Residual variance is proportional to average value of y: squareroot transformation is useful
- Residual variance is proportional to the square of the average values: log transformation is useful

Outliers and influential points: goodness-of-fit of a regression line

- Influential points: have an important influence on the coefficients of the fitted regression lines
- Outlier (x_i, y_i) : may or may not be influential, depends on its location relative to the remaining sample points
- If $|x_i \overline{x}|$ is small: even a gross outlier will have a relatively small influence on the slope estimate, but important influence on the intercept estimate



$$L_{xy} = \sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l y_l - \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l\right) \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} y_l\right) / n$$

Correlation Coefficient $L_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 / n$

Sample (Pearson) correlation coefficient (r) : $L_{xy}/\sqrt{L_{xx}}L_{yy}$.

- not affected by changes in location or scale in either variable
- lie between -1 and +1
- useful for quantifying relationship between variables

Interpretation of the sample correlation coefficient

- Correlation > 0: variables are positively correlated
- Correlation < 0: variables are negatively correlated
- Correlation = 0: variables are uncorrelated

R command to obtain a correlation coefficient

#use cor.test command

>a=cor.test(Birthweight, Estriol)

#obtain the estimate

>a\$estimate

Correlation coefficient: a *quantitative* measure of the dependence between two variables

- closer |r| is to 1: more closely related the variables are
- $|\mathbf{r}| = 1$: one variable can be predicted exactly from the other
- Interpretation of the sample correlation coefficient (r): degree of dependence is only correct if the variables x and y are normally distributed

Example on Correlation Coefficient

- FEV is related to both age and height.
- Focus: boys who are ages 10–15 and postulate a regression model of the form FEV = α + β(height) + e.
- Data were collected on FEV and height for 655 boys in this age group residing in Tecumseh, Michigan.
- Table 11.4 presents the mean FEV in liters for each of twelve 4-cm height groups.

Table 11.4. Mean FEV by height group for boys ages 10–15 in Tecumseh, Michigan

Height (cm)	Mean FEV (L)	Height (cm)	Mean FEV (L)
134ª	1.7	158	2.7
138	1.9	162	3.0
142	2.0	166	3.1
146	2.1	170	3.4
150	2.2	174	3.8
154	2.5	178	3.9

^aThe middle value of each 4-cm height group is given here.

Source: Based on the American Review of Respiratory Disease, 108, 258–272, 1973.

Question: Compute the correlation coefficient between FEV and height for the pulmonary-function data in Example 11.15 (on p. 471).

Solution: From table 11.4 (previous slide)

$$L_{xy} = 5156.20 - \frac{(1872)(32.3)}{12} = 117.4$$

$$L_{xx} = 294,320 - \frac{1872^2}{12} = 2288$$

$$L_{yy} = 93.11 - \frac{32.3^2}{12} = 6.169$$

So,
$$L_{xy} = 117.4$$
 $L_{xx} = 2288$ $L_{yy} = 6.269$
Therefore, $r = \frac{117.4}{\sqrt{2288(6.169)}} = \frac{117.4}{118.81} = 0.988$

$$L_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right) / n$$

$$L_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 / n$$

$$r = L_{xy} / \sqrt{L_{xx} L_{yy}}$$

Conclusion: a very strong positive correlation exists between FEV and height

Multiple Regression

- Multiple regression analysis: examine relationship between each of the more than one independent variables (x₁,...,x_k) and the dependent variable (y) after taking into account the remaining independent variables
- Estimation of the regression equation: $y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + e$ e is an error: normally distributed with mean 0 and variance σ^2 (y=SBP, x_1 =birthweight, x_2 = age in days)
- If we have k independent variables $x_1, ..., x_k$ then a linear-regression model relating y to $x_1, ..., x_k$: $y = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i x_i + e$

Example: Pediatrics Hypertension

- Investigate how the relationship between the blood-pressure levels
 of newborns and infants relate to subsequent adult blood pressure.
- Problem: blood pressure of a newborn is affected by several extraneous factors that make this relationship difficult to study.
- Newborn blood pressures are influenced by:
- (1) Birthweight
- (2) the day of life on which blood pressure is measured

- Infants: weighed at the time of the blood-pressure measurements
- Expect: infants seen at 5 days of life would on average have a greater weight than those seen at 2 days of life
- Dependent variable: SBP
- Independent variables: age and birthweight

TABLE 11.8 Sample data for infant blood pressure, age, and birthweight for 16 infants

	Age	Birthweight	SBP
i	(days) (x ₁)	(oz) (x_2)	(mm Hg) (y)
1	3	135	89
2	4	120	90
3	3	100	83
4	2	105	77
5	4	130	92
6	5	125	98
7	2	125	82
8	3	105	85
9	5	120	96
10	4	90	95
11	2	120	80
12	3	95	79
13	3	120	86
14	4	150	97
15	3	160	92
16	3	125	88

Estimates were obtained with SAS PROC REG program

TABLE 11.9 Least-squares estimates of the regression parameters for the newborn blood-pressure data in Table 11.8 using the SAS PROC REG program

The REG Procedure

Model: MODEL1

Dependent Variable: sysbp

Number of Observations Read 16 Number of Observations Used 16

Analysis of Variance

		Sum of	Mean		
Source	DF	Squares	Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	591.03564	295.51782	48.08	<.0001
Error	13	79.90186	6.14630		
Corrected Total	15	670.93750			
Root MSE		2.47917	R-Square	0.8809	
Dependent Mean		88.06250	Adj R-Sq	0.8626	
Coeff Var		2.81524			

Parameter Estimates

					squared
	Parameter	Standard			Partial
DF	Estimate	Error	t Value	Pr > t	Corr Type II
1	53.45019	4.53189	11.79	<.0001	
1	5.88772	0.68021	8.66	<.0001	0.85214
1	0.12558	0.03434	3.66	0.0029	0.50715
	DF 1 1	DF Estimate 1 53.45019 1 5.88772	DF Estimate Error 1 53.45019 4.53189 1 5.88772 0.68021	DF Estimate Error t Value 1 53.45019 4.53189 11.79 1 5.88772 0.68021 8.66	DF Estimate Error t Value Pr > t 1 53.45019 4.53189 11.79 <.0001 1 5.88772 0.68021 8.66 <.0001

 $y=53.45+5.89x_1+0.126x_2$

For a newborn, the average blood pressure increases by an estimated 5.89 mm Hg per day of age, and 0.126 mm Hg per ounce of birthweight.

Multiple-regression model:

$$y = \alpha + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \beta_j x_j + e \text{ where } e \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\beta_j, j = 1, 2..., k$$

- partial-regression coefficients:
 - represents the average increase in y per unit increase in x_j , with all other variables held constant (adjusting all other variables)
 - estimated by the parameter b_i
- Partial regression coefficients vs. simple linear-regression coefficients
- Simple linear-regression coefficients: average increase in y per unit increase in x (do not consider any other independent variables)
- Strong relationships among the independent variables in a multiple-regression model: partial-regression coefficients and simple linear-regression coefficients are different considerably

- ranking the independent variables according to their predictive relationship with the dependent variable y
 - hard to rank based on magnitude of partial-regression coefficients (different units)

Standardized regression coefficient (b_s) : $b \times (s_x/s_y)$

- represents the estimated average increase in y per standard deviation increase in x, after adjusting for all other variables in the model
- useful measure for comparing the predictive value of several independent variables
- can control for differences in the units of measurement for different independent variables by expressing change in standard-deviation units of x

Example: Pediatrics Hypertension

Question: Calculate the predicted average SBP of a three-day-old baby with birthweight 8 lb (128 oz).

Solution: The average SBP is estimated by 53.45 + 5.89(3) + 0.126(128) = 87.2 mm Hg
The regression coefficients in Table 11.9 are called partial-regression coefficients.

Example: Pediatrics Hypertension

Question: Compute the standardized regression coefficients for age in days and birthweight using the data in Tables 11.8 and 11.9.

Solution: From Table 11.8, s_y = 6.69, s_{x_1} = 0.946, s_{x_2} = 18.75. Therefore,

 b_s (age in days) = 5.888 × 0.946/6.69 = 0.833 b_s (birthweight) = 0.1256 × 18.75/6.69 = 0.352

$$s_x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \overline{x})^2 / (n-1)$$

$$s_y^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \overline{y})^2 / (n-1)$$

- The average increase in SBP is 0.833 standard-deviation units of blood pressure per standard-deviation increase in age, holding birthweight constant, and 0.352 standard-deviation units of blood pressure per standard-deviation increase in birthweight, holding age constant
- Age: more important variable after controlling for both variables simultaneously in the multiple- regression model

Hypothesis Testing

$$H_0$$
: $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = ... = \beta_k = 0$

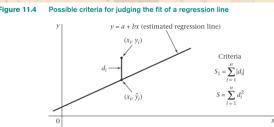
vs. H_1 : at least one of the $\beta_i \neq 0$ in multiple linear regression

1. Estimate the regression parameters and compute Reg SS and Res SS using method of least squares

Res SS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

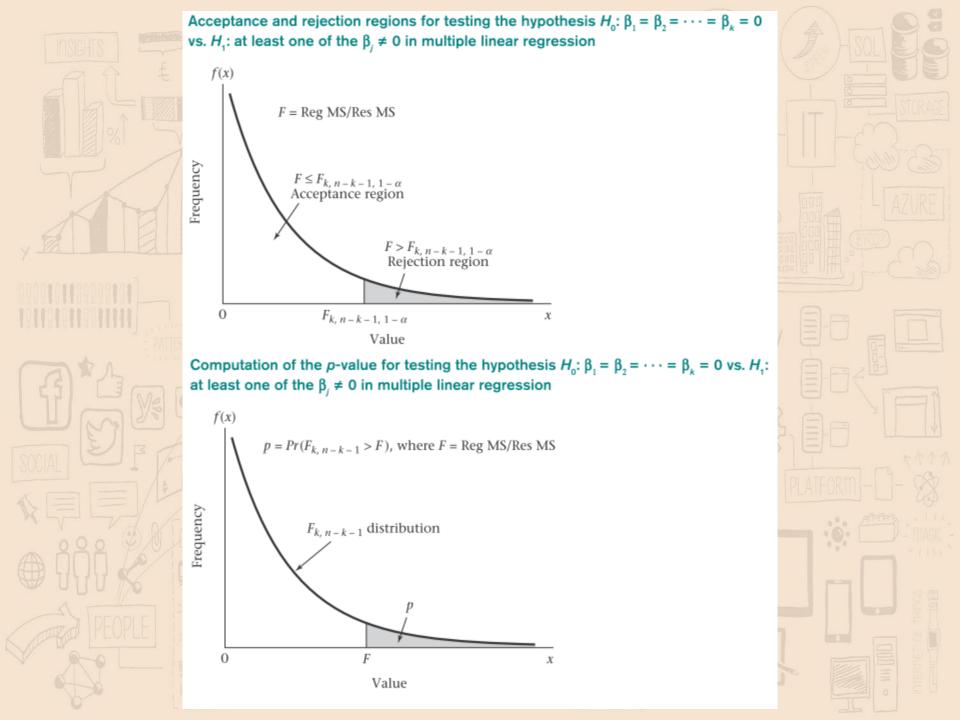
Reg SS = Total SS – Res SS

Total SS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2$$
$$\hat{y}_i = a + \sum_{j=1}^{k} b_j x_{ij}$$



xij = jth independent variable for the *i*th subject, j = 1,...,k; i = 1,...,n

- 2.Compute Reg MS = Reg SS/k, Res MS = Res SS/(n-k-1)
- 3. Compute the test statistic $F = \text{Reg MS/Res MS following an } F_{k,n-k,k-1}$ distribution under H_0 .
- 4. For a level α test:
- F > F_{k,n-k-1,1-α} → reject H_{0.}
 F ≤ F_{k,n-k-1,1-α} → accept H_{0.}
- 5. Exact p-value : area to the right of F under an F > $F_{k,n-k-1}$ distribution $= Pr(F_{k,n-k-1} > F)$



t test for testing the hypothesis H_0 : $\beta_l = 0$, All other $\beta_j \neq 0$ vs. H_1 : $\beta_l \neq 0$, all other $\beta_j \neq 0$ in multiple linear regression

Compute $t = b_l/se(b_l)$ which should follow a t distribution with n - k - 1 df under H_0 .

- If $t < t_{n-k-1,\alpha/2}$ or $t > t_{n-k-1,\alpha/2} \rightarrow \text{reject } H_0$
- If $t_{n-k-1,\alpha/2} \le t \le t_{n-k-1,1-\alpha/2} \rightarrow \text{accept } H_0$

The exact p-value:

- $t \ge 0$: $2 \times Pr(t_{n-k-1} > t)$
- $t < 0: 2 \times Pr(t_{n-k-1} \le t)$

FIGURE 11.22 Acceptance and rejection regions for the t test for multiple linear regression

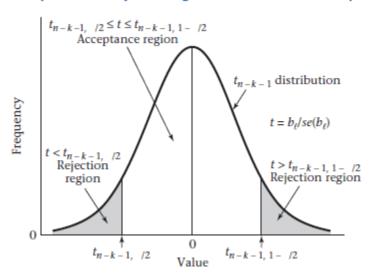
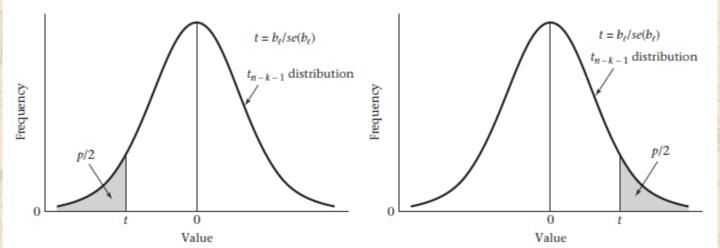


FIGURE 11.23 Computation of the exact p-value for the t test for multiple linear regression



Example: Pediatrics Hypertension

Question: Test the hypothesis H_0 : $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0 \ vs$. H_1 : either $\beta_1 \neq 0$ or $\beta_2 \neq 0$ using the data in Tables 11.8 and 11.9.

Solution: Refer to Table 11.9 and note that

Reg SS = 590.98 (called Model SS)

Reg MS = 590.98/2 = 295.49 (called Model MS)

Res SS = 79.9558 (called Error SS)

Res MS = 79.9558/13 = 6.150 (called Error MS)

F = Reg MS/Res MS = 48.05 $\sim F_{2,13}$ under H_0

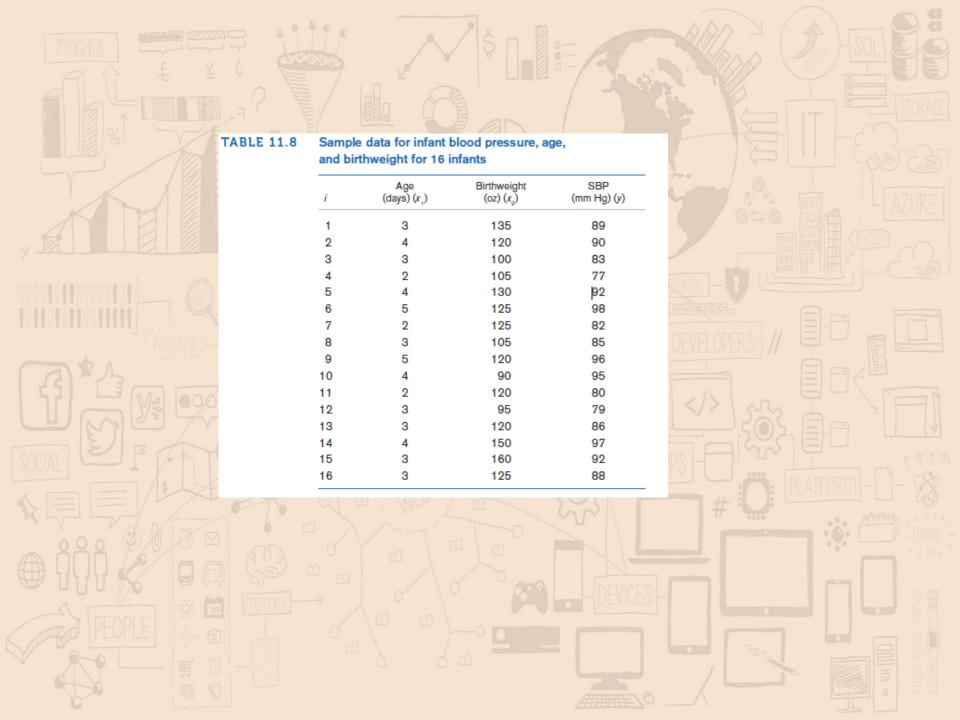
Res SS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Reg SS = Total SS – Res SS

Reg MS = Reg SS/k
Res MS = Res SS/(n-k-1)

Using R, the $p-value = Pr(F_{2,13} > 48.05) = 1 - pf(48.05, 2, 13) < 0.01$

 Conclusion: the two variables, when considered together, are significant predictors of blood pressure.





Res SS= = (yi-qi)* = 0.7567 = 79.9558 = (89-88.13)2 + (90-92.13) + 4.5369 + (83 - 83.72) + 0.5184 + 2.1316 + (77 - 78.46)2 + (92-93.39)" + 1.9321 + (98 - 98.65)2 + 0.4225 + 1.0404 + (82 - 80.93)2 + 0.4225 + (85 - 84-35)2 t (96 - 98.02)2 + 4.0804 + 195 - 88.35)2 + 44.2225 + (80-80.35) t 0.1225 + (79 - 83.09)2 +16.7281 + (86-86.24) to.0576 + (97 - 95.91)2 +1.1881 + (92 - 91.28)2 + O.T184 + (88 - 86.87) + 1.2767

Total 55= = (41-9)2 y = 89 + 90 + 83 + 77 + 92 + 98 + 82 + 85 + 96 + 95 + 80 + 79 + 86 + 97 + 92 + 88 = 88.0625 Total SS= (89-88.06x1)" = 0.8789 = 670.9375 + (90-88.0625)" + #3.7539 + 25.6289 t (83-88.0625)2 + 122.3789 + (77 - 88.06-5)2 + (92-88.0(35)2 + 15.5039 + (98-88.0175)~ + 98.7539 + (82 - 88.0673)2 + 36.7539 + (85-88.0675)2 + 9.3789 + (76-88.0675) + 63.0037 + (75 - 88.0625)2 + 48.1289 + 65.0037 + (80 - 88.0625) + 82.1289 + (79-88.0625)* + 4.2537 + (86-88.0(x)" + 79.8789 + (97-88.6(25)2 + 15.5037 + (92-88 0/25)2 + 0.00391 + (88 - 88 0625)

Reg SS = Total SS - Res SS = 670.9375 - 79.9558. Reg Ms = Rig SS/K = 590.98 Res SS = 79.9558 Res MS = $\frac{\text{Res SS}}{16-2-1} = \frac{79.9558}{13} = 6.150.$ $F = \frac{\text{Reg MS}}{\text{Ros MS}} = \frac{295.49}{6.15} = 48.05$

Example: Pediatrics Hypertension

Question: Test for the independent contributions of age and birthweight in predicting SBP in infants, using the output in Table 11.9.

Solution: From Table 11.9,

$$t = b_{l}/\text{se}(b_{l})$$
 se: standard error $b_{1} = 5.888$ $se(b_{1}) = 0.6802$ $p = 2 \times \text{Pr}(t_{13} > 8.66) < 0.001$ $b_{2} = 0.1256$ $se(b_{2}) = 0.0343$ $t(birthweight) = b_{2}/\text{se}(b_{2}) = 3.66$ $p = 2 \times \text{Pr}(t_{13} > 3.66) = 0.003$ $2^{*}(1-\text{pt}(3.66, 13))$

 Conclusion: both age and birthweight have highly significant associations with SBP, even after controlling for the other variable.

TABLE 11.9 Least-squares estimates of the regression parameters for the newborn blood-pressure data in Table 11.8 using the SAS PROC REG program

The REG Procedure

Model: MODEL1

Dependent Variable: sysbp

Number of Observations Read 16 Number of Observations Used 16

Analysis of Variance

		Sum of	Mean		
Source	DF	Squares	Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	591.03564	295.51782	48.08	<.0001
Error	13	79.90186	6.14630		
Corrected Total	15	670.93750			
Root MSE		2.47917	R-Square	0.8809	
Dependent	Mean	88.06250	Adj R-Sq	0.8626	
Coeff Var		2.81524			

Parameter Estimates

Sangrad

						bquarea
		Parameter	Standard			Partial
Variable	DF	Estimate	Error	t Value	Pr > t	Corr Type II
Intercept	1	53.45019	4.53189	11.79	<.0001	
agedys	1	5.88772	0.68021	8.66	<.0001	0.85214
brthwgt	1	0.12558	0.03434	3.66	0.0029	0.50715

	TABLE 5	Percentage	points of th	ne t distribut	tion (t _{do})*					
	Degrees of					и				
	freedom, d	.75	.80	.85	.90	.95	.975	.99	.995	.9995
	1	1.000	1.376	1.963	3.078	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657	636.619
	2	0.816	1.061	1.386	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925	31.598
	3	0.765	0.978	1.250	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841	12.924
	4	0.741	0.941	1.190	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604	8.610
	5	0.727	0.920	1.156	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	6.869
	6	0.718	0.906	1.134	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	5.959
X	7	0.711	0.896	1.119	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499	5.408
	8	0.706	0.889	1.108	1.397	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355	5.041
	9	0.703	0.883	1.100	1.383	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250	4.781
	10	0.700	0.879	1.093	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	4.587
	11	0.697	0.876	1.088	1.363	1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106	4.437
	12	0.695	0.873	1.083	1.356	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055	4.318
	13	0.694	0.870	1.079	1.350	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012	4.221
	14	0.692	0.868	1.076	1.345	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977	4.140
	15	0.691	0.866	1.074	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	4.073
12) W/3.	16	0.690	0.865	1.071	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	4.015
	17	0.689	0.863	1.069	1.333	1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898	3.965
	18	0.688	0.862	1.067	1.330	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.922
- 1000 C	19	0.688	0.861	1.066	1.328	1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861	3.883
	20	0.687	0.860	1.064	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.850
CIAL [21	0.686	0.859	1.063	1.323	1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831	3.819
	22	0.686	0.858	1.061	1.321	1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819	3.792
	23	0.685	0.858	1.060	1.319	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	3.767
	24	0.685	0.857	1.059	1.318	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	3.745
	25	0.684	0.856	1.058	1.316	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787	3.725
A MAN A	26	0.684	0.856	1.058	1.315	1.706	2.056	2.479	2.779	3.707
# 111717 SC	27	0.684	0.855	1.057	1.314	1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771	3.690
O D U X	28	0.683	0.855	1.056	1.313	1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763	3.674
	29	0.683	0.854	1.055	1.311	1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756	3.659
PEOPL	30	0.683	0.854	1.055	1.310	1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750	3.646
	40	0.681	0.851	1.050	1.303	1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704	3.551
	60	0.679	0.848	1.046	1.296	1.671	2.000	2.390	2.660	3.460
	120	0.677	0.845	1.041	1.289	1.658	1.980	2.358	2.617	3.373
	00	0.674	0.842	1.036	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576	3.291

o energy

Spearman rank-correlation coefficient (r_s): ordinary correlation coefficient based on ranks

- $r_s = L_{xy} / \sqrt{L_{xx}} \times L_{xy}$
- L's are computed from the rank (not actual score)

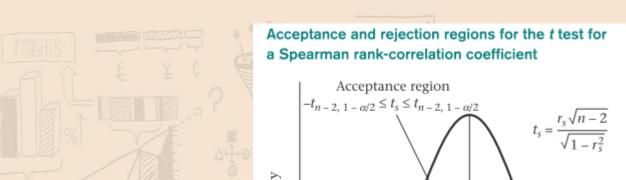
t test for Spearman Rank Correlation

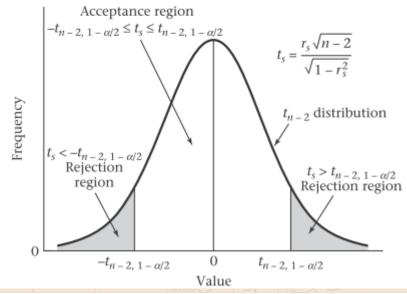
- H₀: no correlation
 - o test statistic $t_s = r_s(\sqrt{n-2})/\sqrt{1-r_s^2}$ follows a t distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom.
- For a two-sided level α test:
 - o if $t_s > t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2}$ or $t_s < t_{n-2,\alpha/2} = -t_{n-2,1-\alpha/2}$ then reject H_0
 - o otherwise, accept H_0 .
- The exact p-value :

 $t_s < 0$: p = 2 × (area to the left of t_s under a t_{n-2} distribution)

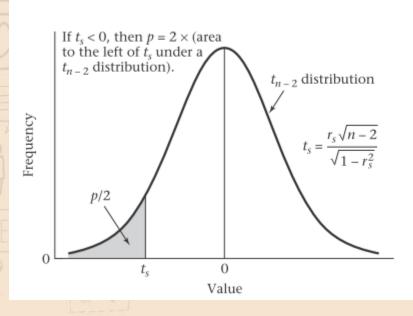
 $t_s \ge 0$: p = 2 × (area to the right of t_s under a t_{n-2} distribution)

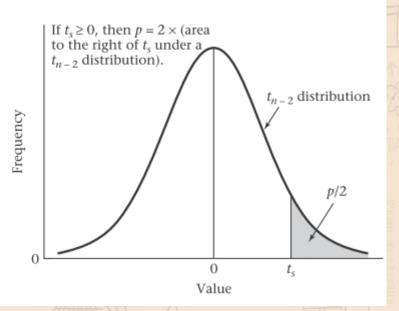
*This test is valid only if n ≥ 10





Computation of the exact p-value for the t test for a Spearman rank-correlation coefficient





Summary

- 1.Statistical inference methods for investigating the relationship between two or more variables
- 2.If only two variables, both of which are continuous, are being studied, and we wish to predict one variable (the dependent variable) as a function of the other variable (the independent variable) then **simple linear regression analysis** is used.
- 3.Pearson correlation methods are used to determine the association between two normally distributed variables without distinguishing between dependent and independent variables.
- **4.Rank correlation** may be used if both variables are continuous but not normally distributed or are ordinal variables.
- **5.Multiple regression methods** may be used to predict the value of one variable (the dependent variable which is normally distributed) as a function of several independent variables.