



#### CHAPTER OUTLINE

- 11-1 EMPIRICAL MODELS
- 11-2 SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION
- 11-3 PROPERTIES OF THE LEAST SQUARES ESTIMATORS
- 11-4 HYPOTHESIS TESTS IN SIMPLE LINEAR REGRESSION
  - 11-4.1 Use of t-Tests
  - 11-4.2 Analysis of Variance Approach to Test Significance of Regression
- 11-8 CORRELATION



#### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After careful study of this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

- 1. Use simple linear regression for building empirical models to engineering and scientific data
- Understand how the method of least squares is used to estimate the parameters in a linear regression model
- Analyze residuals to determine if the regression model is an adequate fit to the data or to see if any underlying assumptions are violated
- 4. Test statistical hypotheses and construct confidence intervals on regression model parameters
- Use the regression model to make a prediction of a future observation and construct an appropriate prediction interval on the future observation
- 6. Apply the correlation model
- 7. Use simple transformations to achieve a linear regression model



- •Regression analysis is the process of building mathematical models or mathematical functions that can describe, predict or control of a variable from one or more other variables.
- •Many problems in engineering and science involve exploring the relationships between two or more variables.
- Regression analysis is a statistical technique that is very useful for these types of problems.

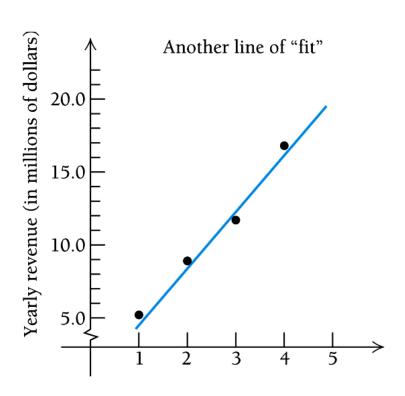


For example, suppose that a car rental company that offers hybrid vehicles charts its revenue as shown below. How best could we predict the company's revenue for the year 2016?

Year, x	1996	2001	2006	2011	2016
Yearly Revenue, y (in millions of dollars)	5.2	8.9	11.7	16.8	?



Suppose that we plot these points and try to draw a line through them that fits. Note that there are several ways in which this might be done. (See the graphs below.) Each would give a different estimate of the company's total revenue for 2016.



Based on the scatter diagram, it is probably reasonable to assume that the mean of the random variable Y is related to x by the following straight-line relationship:

$$E(Y|X) = \mu_{Y|X} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

where the slope and intercept of the line are called **regression** coefficients.

The simple linear regression model is given by

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the random error term.

We think of the regression model as an empirical model.

Suppose that the mean and variance of  $\epsilon$  are 0 and  $\sigma^2$ , respectively, then

$$E(Y|x) = E(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + E(\epsilon) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

The variance of *Y* given *x* is

$$V(Y|x) = V(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon) = V(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x) + V(\epsilon) = 0 + \sigma^2 = \sigma^2$$

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## 11-1 Empirical Models

• The true regression model is a line of mean values:

$$\mu_{Y|x} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

where  $\beta_1$  can be interpreted as the change in the mean of *Y* for a unit change in *x*.

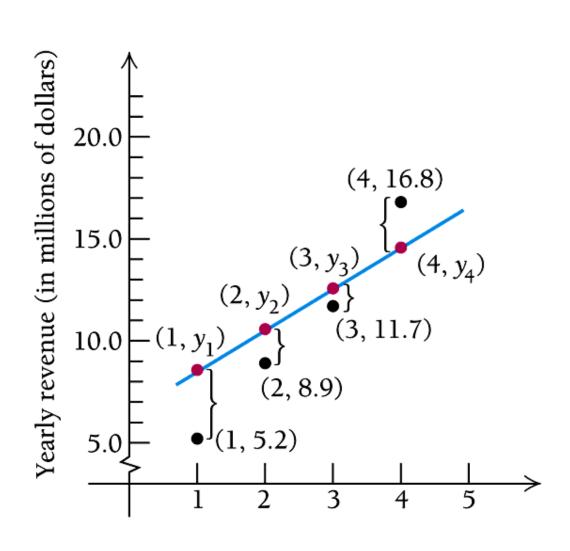
- Also, the variability of Y at a particular value of x is determined by the error variance,  $\sigma^2$ .
- This implies there is a distribution of *Y*-values at each *x* and that the variance of this distribution is the same at each *x*.



To determine the equation of the line that "best" fits the data, we note that for each data point there will be a deviation, or error, between the *y*-value at that point and the *y*-value of the point on the line that is directly above or below the point.

Those deviations, in the example,  $y_1 - 5.2$ ,  $y_2 - 8.9$ ,  $y_3 - 11.7$ , and  $y_4 - 16.8$ , will be positive or negative, depending on the location of the line.







We wish to fit these data points with a line,

$$y = \beta_1 x + \beta_0,$$

that uses values of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_0$  that, somehow, minimize the deviations in order to have a good fit.

One way of minimizing the deviations is based on the *least-squares assumption*.



Note that squaring each *y*-deviation gives us a sum of nonnegative terms. Were we to simply add the deviations, positive and negative deviations would cancel each other out.

Using the least-squares assumption with the yearly revenue data, we want to minimize.

$$(y_1 - 5.2)^2 + (y_2 - 8.9)^2 + (y_3 - 11.7)^2 + (y_4 - 16.8)^2$$

Also, since the points  $(1, y_1)$ ,  $(2, y_2)$ ,  $(3, y_3)$ , and  $(4, y_4)$  must be solutions of  $y = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$ , it follows that

$$y_{1} = \beta_{1}(1) + \beta_{0} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{0}$$

$$y_{2} = \beta_{1}(2) + \beta_{0} = 2\beta_{1} + \beta_{0}$$

$$y_{3} = \beta_{1}(3) + \beta_{0} = 3\beta_{1} + \beta_{0}$$

$$y_{4} = \beta_{1}(4) + \beta_{0} = 4\beta_{1} + \beta_{0}$$

Substituting these values for each *y* in the previous equation, we now have a function of two variables.

$$L(\beta_1, \beta_0) = (\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 5.2)^2 + (2\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 8.9)^2 + (3\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 11.7)^2 + (4\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 16.8)^2$$

Thus, to find the regression line for the given set of data, we must find the values of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  that minimize the function L given by the sum above.

We first find  $\partial L/\partial \beta_0$  and  $\partial L/\partial \beta_1$ .



$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_0} = 2(\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 5.2) + 2(2\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 8.9)$$

$$+ 2(3\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 11.7) + 2(4\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 16.8)$$

$$= 20\beta_1 + 8\beta_0 - 85.2$$
and
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} = 2(\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 5.2) + 2(2\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 8.9)2$$

$$+ 2(3\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 11.7)3 + 2(4\beta_1 + \beta_0 - 16.8)4$$

 $=60\beta_1 + 20\beta_0 - 250.6$ 



We set the derivatives equal to 0 and solve the resulting system:

$$20\beta_1 + 8\beta_0 - 85.2 = 0$$

$$60\beta_1 + 20\beta_0 - 250.6 = 0$$

It can be shown that the solution to this system is

$$\beta_0 = 1.25, \qquad \beta_1 = 3.76.$$

We leave it to the student to complete the D-test to verify that (1.25, 3.76) does, in fact, yield a minimum of L.

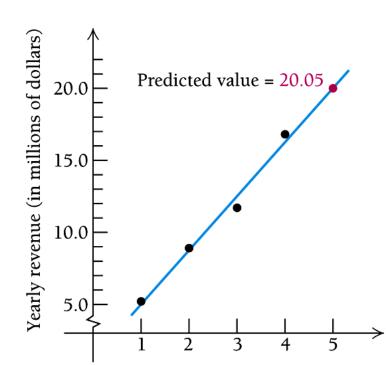


There is no need to compute L(1.25, 3.76). The values of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_0$  are all we need to determine

$$y = \beta_1 x + \beta_0$$
. The regression line is

$$y = 3.76x + 1.25$$
.

The graph of this "best-fit" regression line together with the data points is shown below. Compare it to the graphs before.



Now, we can use the regression equation to predict the car rental company's yearly revenue in 2016.

y = 3.76(5) + 1.25 = 20.05 or about \$20.05 million.

- The case of **simple linear regression** considers a single **regressor** or **predictor** *x* and a **dependent** or **response variable** *Y*.
- The expected value of Y at each level of x is a random variable:

$$E(Y|x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

 We assume that each observation, Y, can be described by the model

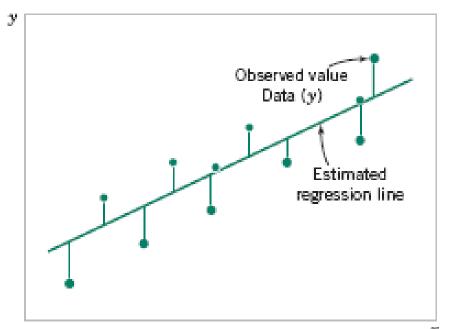
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$$



• Suppose that we have n pairs of observations  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n).$ 

#### **Figure 11-3**

Deviations of the data from the estimated regression model.

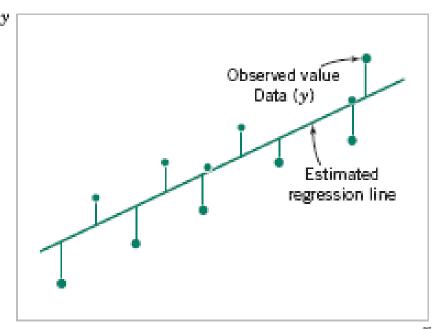




• The method of least squares is used to estimate the parameters,  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  by minimizing the sum of the squares of the vertical deviations in Figure 11-3.

#### **Figure 11-3**

Deviations of the data from the estimated regression model.



• Using Equation 11-2, the *n* observations in the sample can be expressed as

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

• The sum of the squares of the deviations of the observations from the true regression line is

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$$

The least squares estimators of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ , say,  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ , must satisfy

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_0} \Big|_{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta_1} \Big|_{\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) x_i = 0$$

Simplifying these two equations yields

$$n\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} + \hat{\beta}_{1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}x_{i}$$
(11-6)

Equations 11-6 are called the **least squares normal equations.** The solution to the normal equations results in the least squares estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ .

#### **Definition**

The least squares estimates of the intercept and slope in the simple linear regression model are

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \overline{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \overline{x} \tag{11-7}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} x_{i} - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\right)}{n}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\right)^{2}}{n}}$$
(11-8)

where  $\overline{y} = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$  and  $\overline{x} = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ .

The fitted or estimated regression line is therefore

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x \tag{11-9}$$

Note that each pair of observations satisfies the relationship

$$y_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i + e_i, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

where  $e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  is called the **residual**. The residual describes the error in the fit of the model to the *i*th observation  $y_i$ . Later in this chapter we will use the residuals to provide information about the adequacy of the fitted model.



#### Example

To study the relationship between ticket prices and number of passengers on each flight, research, 11 commercial flights, we have the following data table:

Find regression line of the number of
passengers in term of ticket prices.

<b>y</b> =	- 24	.53+2	21.6	7.x

Number of passengers	Cost (1000\$)
61	4.28
63	4.08
69	4.17
70	4.48
74	4.30
76	4.82
81	4.70
86	5.11
91	5.13
95	5.64
97	5.56

#### **Notation**

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

$$S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i (x_i - \overline{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right)}{n}$$

### Estimating $\sigma^2$

The error sum of squares is

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

It can be shown that the expected value of the error sum of squares is  $E(SS_E) = (n-2)\sigma^2$ .



#### Estimating $\sigma^2$

An unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$  is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{SS_E}{n-2} \tag{11-13}$$

where  $SS_{\rm F}$  can be easily computed using

$$SS_E = SS_T - \hat{\beta}_1 S_{xy} \tag{11-14}$$

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



# 11-3 Properties of the Least Squares Estimators

Slope Properties

$$E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta_1$$
  $V(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{xx}}$ 

• Intercept Properties

$$E(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0) = \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 \text{ and } V(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0) = \sigma^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\overline{x}^2}{S_{\infty}} \right]$$



# 11-3 Properties of the Least Squares Estimators

In simple linear regression the estimated standard error of the slope and intercept are

$$se(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{S_{xx}}}$$
 and  $se(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\overline{x}^2}{S_{xx}}\right]}$ 

respectively, where  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  is computed from 11 -13.



# 11-4 Hypothesis Tests in Simple Linear Regression

#### 11-4.1 Use of *t*-Tests

Suppose we wish to test

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_{1,0}$$
  
 $H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_{1,0}$ 

An appropriate test statistic would be

$$T_0 = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_{1,0}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 / S_{xx}}}$$



# 11-4 Hypothesis Tests in Simple Linear Regression

#### 11-4.1 Use of *t*-Tests

The test statistic could also be written as:

$$T_0 = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_{1,0}}{se(\hat{\beta}_1)}$$

We would reject the null hypothesis if

$$|t_0| > t_{\alpha/2,n-2}$$



# 11-4 Hypothesis Tests in Simple Linear Regression

#### 11-4.1 Use of *t*-Tests

Suppose we wish to test

$$H_0$$
:  $\beta_0 = \beta_{0,0}$ 

$$H_1$$
:  $\beta_0 \neq \beta_{0,0}$ 

An appropriate test statistic would be

$$T_{0} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{0} - \beta_{0,0}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{2} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\overline{x}^{2}}{S_{rr}} \right]}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_{0} - \beta_{0,0}}{se(\hat{\beta}_{0})}$$



#### 11-4.1 Use of *t*-Tests

We would reject the null hypothesis if

$$|t_0| > t_{\alpha/2,n-2}$$



#### 11-4.1 Use of *t*-Tests

An important special case of the hypotheses of Equation 11-18 is

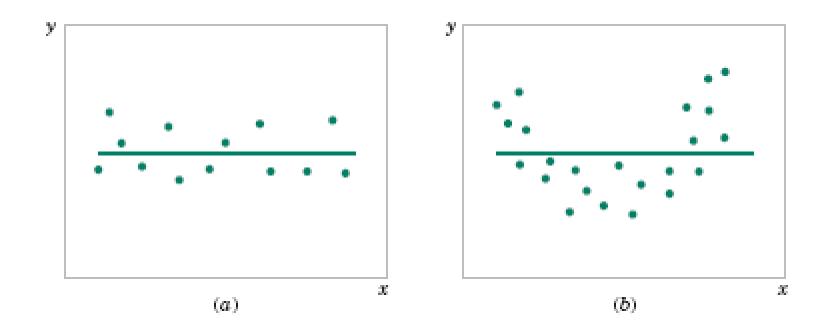
$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$$

$$H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$$

These hypotheses relate to the significance of regression.

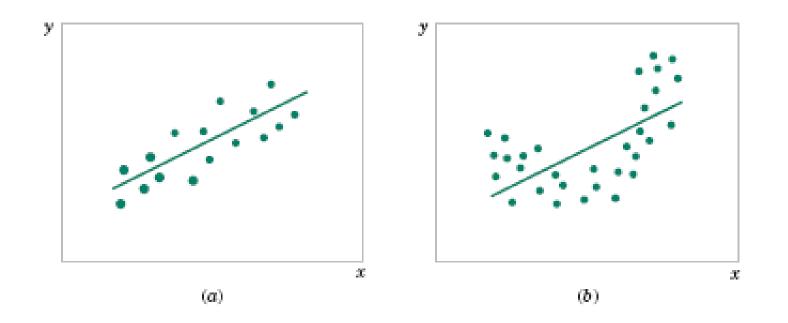
Failure to reject  $H_0$  is equivalent to concluding that there is no linear relationship between x and Y.





**Figure 11-5** The hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  is not rejected.





**Figure 11-6** The hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  is rejected.



- For example, in a chemical process, suppose that the yield of the product is related to the process-operating temperature.
- Regression analysis can be used to build a model to predict yield at a given temperature level.



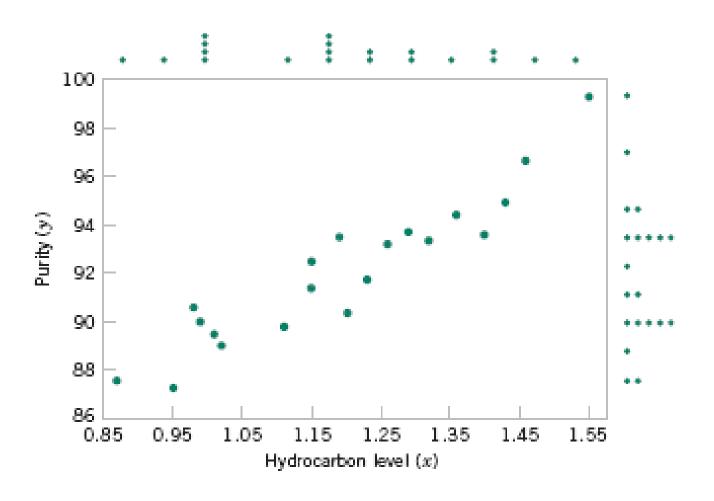
# **11-1 Empirical Models**

Table 11-1 Oxygen and Hydrocarbon Levels

Observation	Hydrocarbon Level	Purity
Number	x(%)	y(%)
1	0.99	90.01
2	1.02	89.05
3	1.15	91.43
4	1.29	93.74
5	1.46	96.73
6	1.36	94.45
7	0.87	87.59
8	1.23	91.77
9	1.55	99.42
10	1.40	93.65
11	1.19	93.54
12	1.15	92.52
13	0.98	90.56
14	1.01	89.54
15	1.11	89.85
16	1.20	90.39
17	1.26	93.25
18	1.32	93.41
19	1.43	94.98
20	0.95	87.33



## 11-1 Empirical Models



**Figure.** Scatter Diagram of oxygen purity versus hydrocarbon level from Table 11-1.

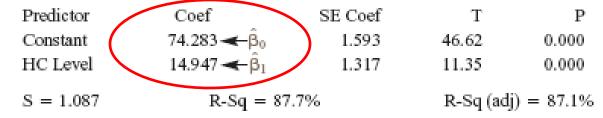


Table 11-2 Minitab Output for the Oxygen Purity Data in Example 11-1

#### Regression Analysis

The regression equation is

Purity = 74.3 + 14.9 HC Level



#### Analysis of Variance

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Regression	1	152.13	152.13	128.86	0.000
Residual Error	18	$21.25 \leftarrow SS_E$	$1.18 \leftarrow \hat{\sigma}^2$		
Total	19	173.38			

#### Predicted Values for New Observations

New Obs	Fit	SE Fít	95.0%	CI	95.0%	PI
1	89.231	0.354	(88.486,	89.975)	(86.830,	91.632)

#### Values of Predictors for New Observations

New Obs HC Level 1 1.00



#### Example 11-2

We will test for significance of regression using the model for the oxygen purity data from Example 11-1. The hypotheses are

$$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$$
$$H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$$

and we will use  $\alpha = 0.01$ . From Example 11-1 and Table 11-2 we have

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 14.97$$
  $n = 20$ ,  $S_{xx} = 0.68088$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = 1.18$ 

so the t-statistic in Equation 10-20 becomes

$$t_0 = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2/S_{min}}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{se(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{14.947}{\sqrt{1.18/0.68088}} = 11.35$$

Since the reference value of t is  $t_{0.005,18} = 2.88$ , the value of the test statistic is very far into the critical region, implying that  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$  should be rejected. The P-value for this test is  $P \simeq 1.23 \times 10^{-9}$ . This was obtained manually with a calculator.



We assume that the joint distribution of  $X_i$  and  $Y_i$  is the bivariate normal distribution presented in Chapter 5, and  $\mu_Y$  and  $\sigma_Y^2$  are the mean and variance of Y,  $\mu_X$  and  $\sigma_X^2$  are the mean and variance of X, and  $\rho$  is the **correlation coefficient** between Y and X. Recall that the correlation coefficient is defined as

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \tag{11-35}$$

where  $\sigma_{XY}$  is the covariance between Y and X.

The conditional distribution of Y for a given value of X = x is

$$f_{Y|x}(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{Y|x}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x}{\sigma_{Y|x}}\right)^2\right]$$
(11-36)

where

$$\beta_0 = \mu_Y - \mu_X \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_Y} \tag{11-37}$$

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X} \rho \tag{11-38}$$



It is possible to draw inferences about the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  in this model. The estimator of  $\rho$  is the **sample correlation coefficient** 

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i (X_i - \overline{X})}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2\right]^{1/2}} = \frac{S_{XY}}{(S_{XX}SS_T)^{1/2}}$$
(11-43)

Note that

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \left(\frac{SS_T}{S_{XX}}\right)^{1/2} R \tag{11-44}$$

We may also write:

$$R^2 = \hat{\beta}_1^2 \frac{S_{XX}}{S_{YY}} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 S_{XY}}{SS_T} = \frac{SS_R}{SS_T}$$

It is often useful to test the hypotheses

$$H_0: \rho = 0$$

$$H_1: \rho \neq 0$$

The appropriate test statistic for these hypotheses is

$$T_0 = \frac{R\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-R^2}} \tag{11-46}$$

Reject  $H_0$  if  $|t_0| > t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ .

The test procedure for the hypothesis

$$H_0$$
:  $\rho = \rho_0$ 

$$H_1: \rho \neq \rho_0$$

where  $\rho_0 \neq 0$  is somewhat more complicated. In this case, the appropriate test statistic is

$$Z_0 = (\operatorname{arctanh} R - \operatorname{arctanh} \rho_0)(n-3)^{1/2}$$
 (11-49)

Reject 
$$H_0$$
 if  $|z_0| > z_{\alpha/2}$ .

The approximate  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval is

$$\tanh\left(\operatorname{arctanh} r - \frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n-3}}\right) \le \rho \le \tanh\left(\operatorname{arctanh} r + \frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n-3}}\right)$$
 (11-50)

where  $\tanh u = (e^u - e^{-u})/(e^u + e^{-u}).$ 



#### Example 11-8

In Chapter 1 (Section 1-3) an application of regression analysis is described in which an engineer at a semiconductor assembly plant is investigating the relationship between pull strength of a wire bond and two factors: wire length and die height. In this example, we will consider only one of the factors, the wire length. A random sample of 25 units is selected and tested, and the wire bond pull strength and wire length are observed for each unit. The data are shown in Table 1-2. We assume that pull strength and wire length are jointly normally distributed.

Figure 11-13 shows a scatter diagram of wire bond strength versus wire length. We have used the Minitab option of displaying box plots of each individual variable on the scatter diagram. There is evidence of a linear relationship between the two variables.



Table 1-2 Wire Bond Pull Strength Data

Table 1-2 Wi	ite Dolla I ali Strengtii	L/ata	
Observation Number	Pull Strength y	Wire Length	Die Height $x_2$
1	9.95	2	50
2	24.45	8	110
3	31.75	11	120
4	35.00	10	550
5	25.02	8	295
6	16.86	4	200
7	14.38	2	375
8	9.60	2	52
9	24.35	9	100
10	27.50	8	300
11	17.08	4	412
12	37.00	11	400
13	41.95	12	500
14	11.66	2	360
15	21.65	4	205
16	17.89	4	400
17	69.00	20	600
18	10.30	1	585
19	34.93	10	540
20	46.59	15	250
21	44.88	15	290
22	54.12	16	510
23	56.63	17	590
24	22.13	6	100
25	21.15	5	400



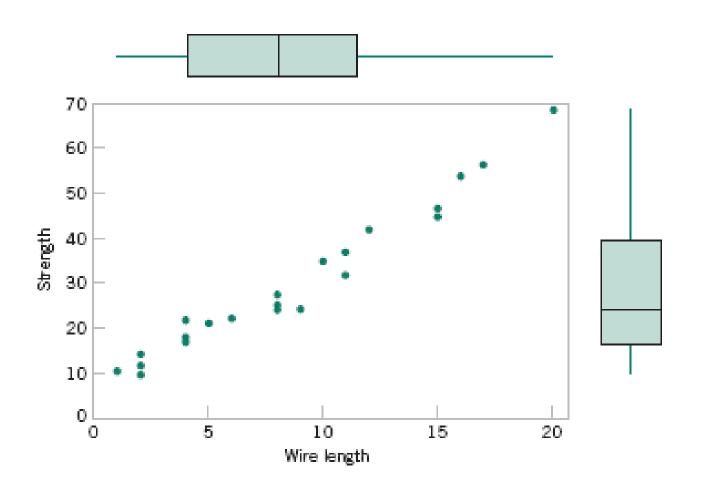


Figure 11-13 Scatter plot of wire bond strength versus wire length, Example 11-8.



#### **Minitab Output for Example 11-8**

Regression Analysis: Strength versus Length							
The regression equation is Strength = 5.11 + 2.90 Length							
Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	T	P			
Constant	5.115	1.146	4.46	0.000			
Length	2.9027	0.1170	24.80	0.000			
S = 3.093 R-Sq = 96.4% PRESS = 272.144 R-Sq(pred) = 95.54%			R-Sq(adj)	= 96.2%			
Analysis of Variance							
Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P		
Regression	1	5885.9	5885.9	615.08	0.000		
Residual Err	or 23	220.1	9.6				
Total	24	6105.9					

#### Example 11-8 (continued)

Now  $S_{xx} = 698.56$  and  $S_{xy} = 2027.7132$ , and the sample correlation coefficient is

$$r = \frac{S_{xy}}{[S_{xx}SS_T]^{1/2}} = \frac{2027.7132}{[(698.560)(6105.9)]^{1/2}} = 0.9818$$

Note that  $r^2 = (0.9818)^2 = 0.9640$  (which is reported in the Minitab output), or that approximately 96.40% of the variability in pull strength is explained by the linear relationship to wire length.

#### Example 11-8 (continued)

Now suppose that we wish to test the hypothesis

$$H_0: \rho = 0$$

$$H_1: \rho \neq 0$$

with  $\alpha = 0.05$ . We can compute the *t*-statistic of Equation 11-46 as

$$t_0 = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}} = \frac{0.9818\sqrt{23}}{\sqrt{1-0.9640}} = 24.8$$

This statistic is also reported in the Minitab output as a test of  $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = 0$ . Because  $t_{0.025,23} = 2.069$ , we reject  $H_0$  and conclude that the correlation coefficient  $\rho \neq 0$ .

#### Example 11-8 (continued)

Finally, we may construct an approximate 95% confidence interval on  $\rho$  from Equation 10-57. Since arctanh  $r = \arctan 0.9818 = 2.3452$ , Equation 11-50 becomes

$$\tanh\left(2.3452 - \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{22}}\right) \le \rho \le \tanh\left(2.3452 + \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{22}}\right)$$

which reduces to

$$0.9585 \le \rho \le 0.9921$$



#### IMPORTANT TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Analysis of variance test in regression Confidence interval on mean response Correlation coefficient Empirical model Confidence intervals on model parameters Intrinsically linear model Least squares estimation of regression model parameters Logistic regression Model adequacy checking Regression analysis Odds ratio Prediction interval on a future observation Residual plots Residuals Scatter diagram
Significance of regression
Simple linear regression
model standard errors
Statistical tests on
model parameters
Transformations