

Biostatistics

Correlation and linear regression

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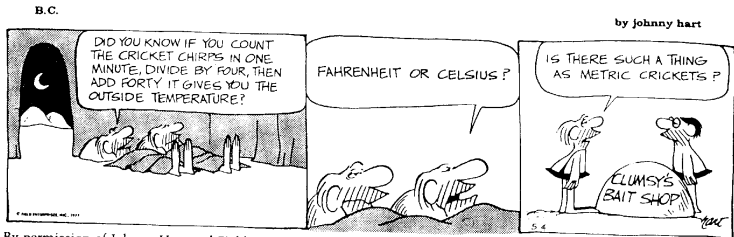
Correlation and linear regression

Analysis of the relation of two continuous variables (bivariate data).

Description of a non-deterministic relation between two continuous variables.

Problems:

- 1 How are two variables x and y related?
 - (a) Relation of weight to height
 - (b) Relation between body fat and bmi
- 2 Can variable y be predicted by means of variable x ?



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Example

- Proportion of body fat modelled by age, weight, height, bmi, waist circumference, biceps circumference, wrist circumference, total $k = 7$ explanatory variables.
- Body fat: Measure for “health”, measured by “weighing under water” (complicated).
- Goal: Predict body fat by means of quantities that are **easier to measure**.

$n = 241$ males aged between 22 and 81.

11 observations of the original data set are omitted: “outliers”.

Penrose, K., Nelson, A. and Fisher, A. (1985), “Generalized Body Composition Prediction Equation for Men Using Simple Measurement Techniques”. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, **17**(2), 189.

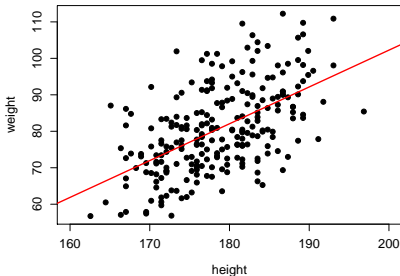
Bivariate data

- Observation of two **continuous** variables (x, y) for the same observation unit

→ **pairwise** observations $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

Example: Relation between weight and height for 241 men

- Every correlation or regression analysis should begin with a **scatterplot**



→ visual impression of a relation

Correlation

Pearson's product-moment correlation

- measures the strength of the **linear** relation, the linear coincidence, between x and y .

Covariance:
$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = s_{xy} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$$

Variances:
$$s_x^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

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

Correlation:

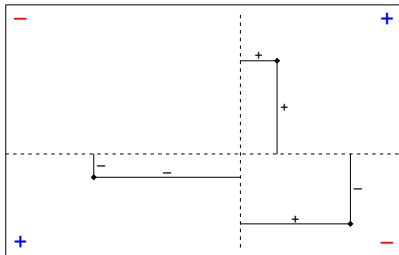
$$r = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x s_y} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

Correlation

Plausibility of the enumerator:

Correlation:

$$r = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x s_y} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$



Plausibility of the denominator:

r is independent of the measuring unit.

Correlation

Properties:

$$-1 \leq r \leq 1$$

$r = 1$ → deterministic positive linear relation between x and y

$r = -1$ → deterministic negative linear relation between x and y

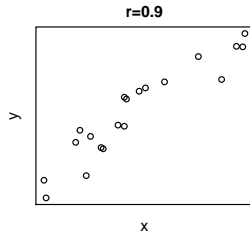
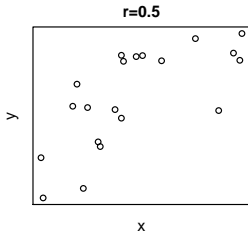
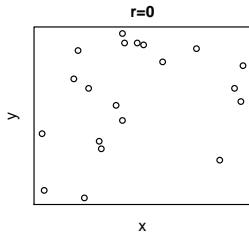
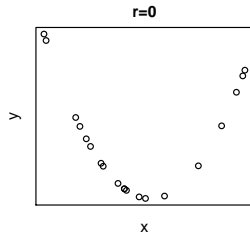
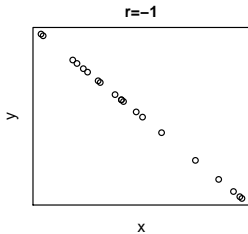
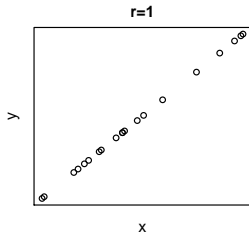
$r = 0$ → no linear relation

In general:

- Sign indicates direction of the relation
- Size indicates intensity of the relation

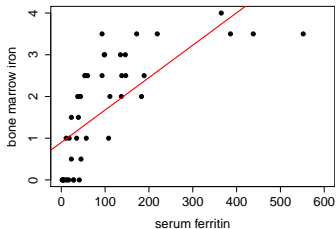
Correlation

Examples:



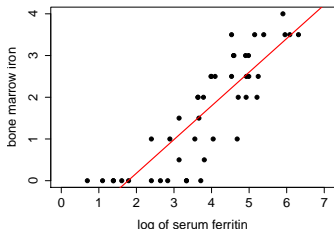
Correlation

Example: Relation between blood serum content of Ferritin and bone marrow content of iron.



$$r = 0.72$$

- Transformation to linear relation?
- Frequently a transformation to the normal distribution helps.



$$r = 0.85$$

Tests on linear relation

Exists a linear relation that is not caused by chance?

Scientific hypothesis: true correlation $\rho \neq 0$

Null hypothesis: true correlation $\rho = 0$

Assumptions:

- (x, y) jointly normally distributed
- pairs independent

Test quantity:
$$T = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

Tests on linear relation

Example: Relation of weight and body height for males.

$$n = 241, \quad r = 0.55$$

$$\longrightarrow T = 7.9 > t_{239,0.975} = 1.97, p < 0.0001$$

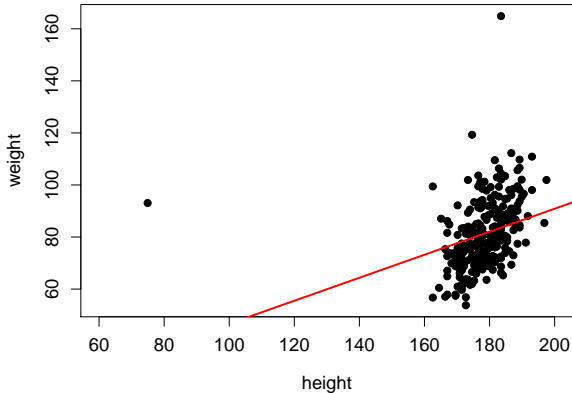
Confidence interval: Uses the so called Fisher's z-transformation leading to the approximative normal distribution

$$\rho \in (0.46, 0.64) \quad \text{with probability } 1 - \alpha = 0.95$$

Spearman's rank correlation

Treatment of outliers?

Testing without normal distribution?



$$n = 252, r = 0.31, p < 0.0001$$

Spearman's rank correlation

Idea: Similar to the Mann-Whitney test with ranks

Procedure:

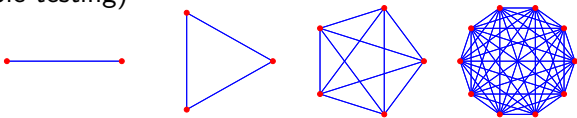
- 1 Order x_1, \dots, x_n and y_1, \dots, y_n separately by ranks
- 2 Compute the correlation for the ranks instead of for the observations

$$\longrightarrow r_s = 0.52, p < 0.0001$$

(correct data ($n = 241$) : $r_s = 0.55, p < 0.0001$)

Dangers when computing correlation

- 1 10 variables \rightarrow 45 possible correlations
(problem of multiple testing)



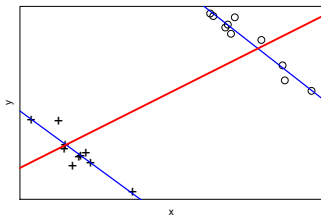
Nb of variables	2	3	5	10
Nb of correlations	1	3	10	45
P(wrong signif.)	0.05	0.14	0.40	0.91

Number of pairs increases rapidly with the number of variables.
 \rightarrow increased probability of wrong significance

- 2 Spurious correlation across time (common trend)
Example: Correlation of petrol price and divorce rate!
- 3 Extreme data points: outlier, “leverage points”

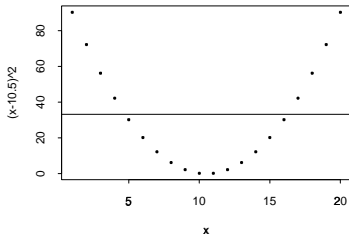
Dangers when computing correlation

- 4 Heterogeneity correlation
(no or even opposed relation within the groups)



- 5 Confounding by a third variable
Example: Number of storks and births in a district
→ confounder variable: district size

- 6 Non-linear relations (strong relation, but $r = 0$ → not meaningful)



Simple linear regression

Regression analysis = statistical analysis of the effect of one variable on others

→ directed relation

x = independent variable, explanatory variable, predictor
(often **not by chance**: time, age, measurement point)

y = dependent variable, outcome, response

Goal:

Do not only determine the strength and direction (\nearrow , \searrow) of the relation, but define a quantitative law (how does y change when x is changed).

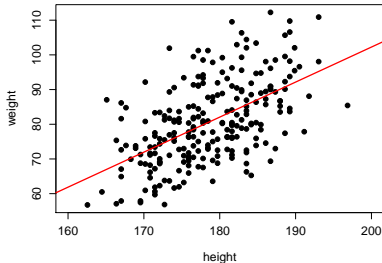
Simple linear regression

Example: Quantification of overweight.

Is weight a good measurement, is the “body mass index”
($\text{bmi} = \text{weight}/\text{height}^2$) better?

Regression:

$y = \text{weight}$, $x = \text{height}$
($n = 241$ men)



$$y = -99.66 + 1.01 x, \quad r^2 = 0.31, \quad p < 0.0001$$

⇒ Body height is no good measurement for overweight

How heavy are males? $\bar{y} = 80.7$ kg, $\text{SD} = s_y = 11.8$ kg

How heavy are males of size 175 cm?

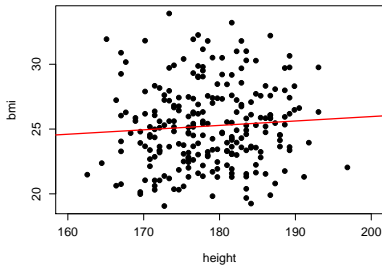
$$\hat{y} = -99.66 + 1.01 \times 175 = 77.0 \text{ kg}, \quad s_e = 9.9 \text{ kg}$$

Simple linear regression

Regression:

$$y = \text{bmi} = \text{weight}/\text{height}^2,$$

$$x = \text{height}$$



$$y = 19.2 + 0.034 x, \quad r^2 = 0.005, \quad p = 0.27$$

⇒ The bmi does not depend on body height and is therefore a better measurement for overweight

How heavy are males? $\bar{y} = 25.2 \text{ kg/m}^2$, $\text{SD} = s_y = 3.1 \text{ kg/m}^2$

How heavy are males of size 175 cm?

$$\hat{y} = 19.2 + 0.034 \times 175 = 25.1 \text{ kg/m}^2, \quad s_e = 3.1 \text{ kg/m}^2$$

Statistical model for regression

$$y_i = f(x_i) + \varepsilon_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

f = regression function; implies relation
 $x \mapsto y$; true course

ε_i = unobservable, random variations
(error; noise)

- ε_i independent
- $\text{mean}(\varepsilon_i) = 0$, $\text{variance}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2 \leftarrow$ constant
- For tests and confidence intervals: ε_i normally distributed $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

Important special case: **linear regression**

$$f(x) = a + bx$$

To determine (“estimate”): a = intercept, b = slope

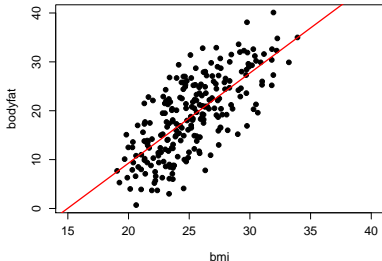
Statistical model for regression

Example: Both percental body fat and bmi are measurements for overweight of males, but only bmi is easy to measure.

Regression:

$y = \text{body fat (in \%)},$

$x = \text{bmi (in kg/m}^2\text{)}$



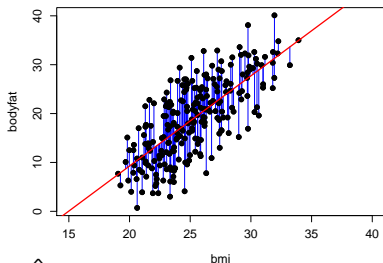
$$y = -27.6 + 1.84 x, \quad r^2 = 0.52, \quad p < 0.0001$$

Interpretations:

- Men with a bmi of 25 kg/m² have 18% body fat on average.
- Men with an about 1 kg/m² increased bmi have 2% more body fat on average.

Method of least squares

Method to estimate a and b



Value on regression line at x_i : $\hat{y}_i = \hat{a} + \hat{b}x_i$

Choose parameter estimator, so that

$$S(\hat{a}, \hat{b}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \text{ is minimized}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Slope: } \hat{b} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = r \frac{s_y}{s_x}; \quad \text{Intercept: } \hat{a} = \bar{y} - \hat{b}\bar{x}$$

♣ Derivation of the formulas for \hat{a} and \hat{b}

New parameterisation: $y - \bar{y} = \alpha + \beta(x - \bar{x})$

$$\longrightarrow a = \alpha + \bar{y} - \beta\bar{x}$$

$$b = \beta$$

$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{(y_i - \bar{y}) - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})\}^2$$

S is a quadratic function in (α, β)

- S has a unique minimum if there are at least two different values x_i .
- set the partial derivations equal to zero:

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \alpha} = 2 \sum \{(y_i - \bar{y}) - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})\} \{-1\} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \beta} = 2 \sum \{(y_i - \bar{y}) - \alpha - \beta(x_i - \bar{x})\} \{-(x_i - \bar{x})\} = 0$$

♣ Derivation of the formulas for \hat{a} and \hat{b}

→ Normal equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha n + \beta \sum (x_i - \bar{x}) &= \sum (y_i - \bar{y}) = 0 \\ \alpha \sum (x_i - \bar{x}) + \beta \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 &= \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})\end{aligned}$$

→ Solution:

$$\hat{\alpha} = 0$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2} = r \frac{s_y}{s_x}$$

→

$$\hat{b} = \hat{\beta} = r \frac{s_y}{s_x}$$

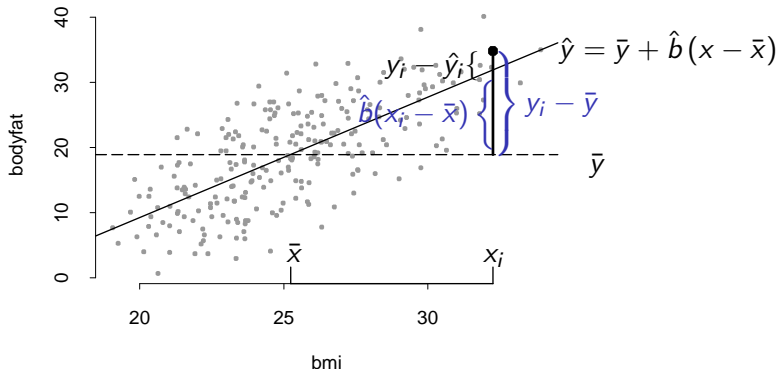
$$\hat{a} = \bar{y} - \hat{b}\bar{x}$$

very intuitive regression equation: $\hat{y} = \bar{y} + \hat{b}(x - \bar{x})$

Variance explained by regression

Question: How relevant is regression on x for y ?

Statistically: How much **variance of y** is explained by the regression line, i.e. knowledge of x ?



Variance explained by regression

Decomposition of the variance by regression:

$$\underbrace{y_i - \bar{y}}_{\text{observed}} = \underbrace{\{\hat{b}(x_i - \bar{x})\}}_{\text{explained}} + \underbrace{\{y_i - \bar{y} - \hat{b}(x_i - \bar{x})\}}_{\text{rest}}$$

Square, sum up and divide by $(n - 1)$:

$$s_y^2 = \hat{b}^2 s_x^2 + s_{\text{res}}^2$$

mixed term $\hat{b} s_{x,\text{res}}$ disappears.

Variance explained by regression

“Explained” variance $\hat{b}^2 s_x^2$:

$$s_{\text{reg}}^2 = \hat{b}^2 s_x^2 = \left(r \frac{s_y}{s_x} \right)^2 s_x^2 = r^2 s_y^2$$

$r^2 = \frac{s_{\text{reg}}^2}{s_y^2}$ = proportion of variance of y that is explained by x .

Residual variance: Variance that remains

$$s_{\text{res}}^2 = (1 - r^2) s_y^2, \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = s_e^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum e_i^2 = \frac{n-1}{n-2} s_{\text{res}}^2$$

Observations vary around the regression line with standard deviation

$$s_{\text{res}} = \sqrt{1 - r^2} s_y$$

r		0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.99
$s_{\text{res}}/s_y = \sqrt{1 - r^2}$		0.95	0.87	0.71	0.44	0.14
Gain = $1 - \sqrt{1 - r^2}$		5%	13%	29%	56%	86%

Gain of the regression

- How heavy are males on average?

Classical quantities: $\bar{y} = 80.7$ and $s_y = 11.8$

⇒ Estimator: 80.7 kg

⇒ Approx. 95% of the males weigh between $80.7 \pm 2 \times 11.8$ kg, i.e. between 57.1 and 104.3 kg

- How heavy are males of 175 cm on average?

Regression: $\bar{y} = -99.7 + 1.01 x$ and $s_{\text{res}} = 9.8$

⇒ Estimator: $-99.7 + 1.01 \times 175 = 77.0$ kg

⇒ Approx. 95% of the males of 175 cm weigh between $77.0 \pm 2 \times 9.8$ kg, i.e. between 57.4 and 96.6 kg

The regression model provides better estimators and a smaller confidence interval.

Gain: $1 - s_{\text{res}}/s_y = 1 - 9.8/11.8 = 17\%$ ($r = 0.56$)

Gain of the regression

Is there a relation at all?

Scientific hypothesis: y changes with x ($b \neq 0$)

Null hypothesis: $b = 0$

if (x, y) normally distributed

→ same test as for correlation $\rho = 0$ (t-distribution)

In regression analysis:

- all analyses **conditional** on given values x_1, \dots, x_n :
 ε_i independent $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

→ simpler than analyses of correlation

→ distribution of x negligible

- $\hat{b} \sim \mathcal{N}(b, SE(\hat{b}))$, $SE(\hat{b}) = \frac{\sigma}{s_x \sqrt{n-1}}$

Gain of the regression

Test quantity:

$$T = \hat{b} \frac{s_x \sqrt{n-1}}{\hat{\sigma}} \sim t_{n-2}$$

Comment: $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{n-1}{n-2} (1-r^2) s_y^2$, $\hat{b} = r \frac{s_y}{s_x} \rightarrow T = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$

Example: Body fat in dependence on bmi for 241 males.

Results R:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-27.617	2.939	-9.398	0.000
bmi	1.844	0.116	15.957	0.000

$$r^2 = 0.52$$

$$\rightarrow s_{\text{res}}/s_y = \sqrt{1-0.52} = 0.69 \rightarrow \text{Gain: 31\%}$$

♣ Confidence interval for b

Again conditional on the given values x_1, \dots, x_n

$(1 - \alpha)$ – confidence interval

$$\hat{b} \pm t_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{s_x \sqrt{n-1}}$$

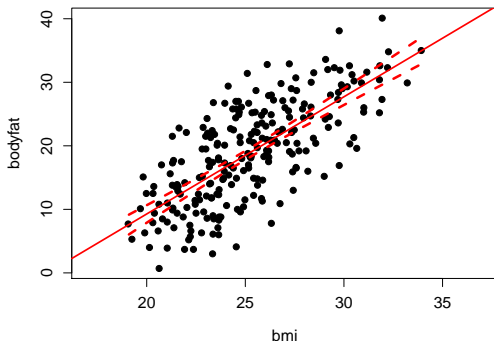
Confidence interval for the regression line

Consider the alternative parameterisation: $\hat{y} = \bar{y} + \hat{b}(x - \bar{x})$

- The variances sum up since \bar{y} and \hat{b} are independent.

→ $(1 - \alpha)$ -confidence interval for the value of the regression line $y(x^*)$ at $x = x^*$:

$$\hat{a} + \hat{b}x^* \pm t_{1-\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{s_x^2(n-1)}}$$



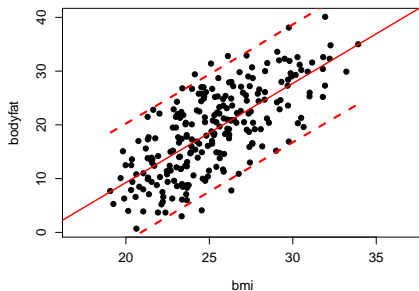
Prediction interval for y

Future observation y^* at $x = x^*$

$$y^* = \hat{y}(x^*) + \varepsilon$$

→ $(1 - \alpha)$ -prediction interval for $y(x^*)$:

$$\hat{a} + \hat{b}x^* \pm t_{1-\alpha/2} \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{s_x^2(n-1)}}$$



- Prediction interval is much wider than the confidence interval

Multiple regression

Topics:

- Regression with several independent variables
 - Least squares estimation
 - Multiple coefficient of determination
 - Multiple and partial correlation
- Variable selection
- Residual analysis
 - Diagnostic possibilities

Multiple regression

Reasons for multiple regression analysis:

- 1 Eliminate potential effects of confounding variables in a study with one influencing variable.

Example: A frequent confounder is age: $y =$ blood pressure, $x_1 =$ dose of antihypertensives, $x_2 =$ age.

- 2 Investigate potential prognostic factors of which we are not sure whether they are important or redundant.

Example: $y =$ stenosis, $x_1 =$ HDL, $x_2 =$ LDL, $x_3 =$ bmi, $x_4 =$ smoking, $x_5 =$ triglyceride.

- 3 Develop formulas for predictions based on explanatory variables.

Example: $y =$ adult height, $x_1 =$ height as child, $x_2 =$ height of the mother, $x_3 =$ height of the father.

- 4 Study the influence of a variable x_1 on a variable y taking into account the influence of further variables x_2, \dots, x_k .

Example: Prognostic factors for body fat

Number of observed males: $n = 241$

Dependent variable: bodyfat = percental body fat

We are interested in the influence of three independent variables:

- bmi in kg/m^2 .
- waist circumference (abdomen) in cm.
- waist/hip-ratio.

Results of the univariate analyses of bodyfat based on bmi, abdomen and waist/hip-ratio with R:

Example: Prognostic factors for body fat

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-27.617	2.939	-9.398	0.000
bmi	1.844	0.116	15.957	0.000

BMI: $R^2 = 0.516$, $R_{adj}^2 = 0.514$

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-42.621	2.869	-14.855	0.000
abdomen	0.668	0.031	21.570	0.000

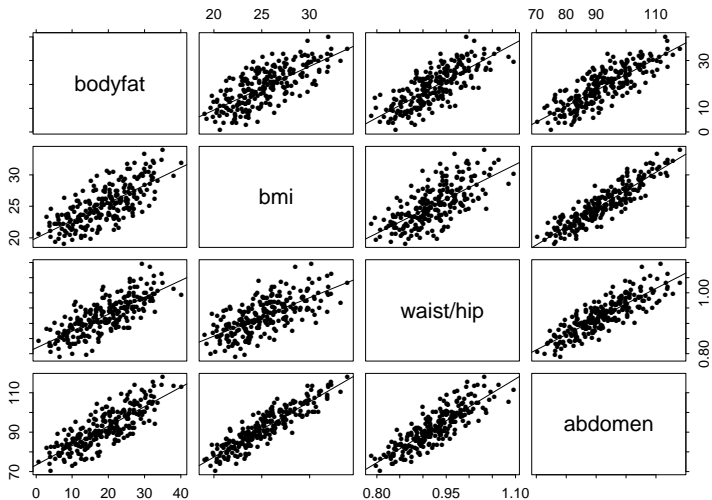
Abdomen: $R^2 = 0.661$, $R_{adj}^2 = 0.659$

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-78.066	5.318	-14.680	0.000
waist_hip_ratio	104.976	5.744	18.275	0.000

Waist/hip-ratio: $R^2 = 0.583$, $R_{adj}^2 = 0.581$

Example: Prognostic factors for body fat

Pairwise-scatterplots:



Example: Prognostic factors for body fat

Multiple regression:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-60.045	5.365	-11.192	0.000
bmi	0.123	0.236	0.519	0.605
abdomen	0.438	0.105	4.183	0.000
waist_hip_ratio	38.468	10.262	3.749	0.000

$$R^2 = 0.681, R_{adj}^2 = 0.677$$

Elimination of the non-significant variable bmi:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-59.294	5.158	-11.496	0.000
abdomen	0.484	0.057	8.526	0.000
waist_hip_ratio	36.455	9.486	3.843	0.000

$$R^2 = 0.680, R_{adj}^2 = 0.678$$

Example: Prognostic factors for body fat

In general:

$$y = a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \dots + \varepsilon$$

Estimation: ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

$$\text{bodyfat} = -59.3 + 0.484 \text{ abdomen} + 36.46 \text{ waist/hip-ratio}$$

Statistical model

$$y_i = a + b_1 x_{1i} + b_2 x_{2i} + \dots + b_k x_{ki} + \varepsilon_i \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

$a + b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2 + \dots + b_k x_k =$ regression function, response surface

$\varepsilon_i =$ unobserved, random noise

- independent
- $E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$, $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2 \leftarrow$ constant

Procedure as in the case of the simple linear regression:

Least squares method:

Prediction: $\hat{y}_i = \hat{a} + \hat{b}_1 x_{1i} + \dots + \hat{b}_k x_{ki}$

Choose estimation of the parameters, so that

$$S(\hat{a}, \hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_k) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \quad \text{is minimized!}$$

Set partial derivatives equal to zero \rightarrow normal equations.

Statistical model

For a **clear** illustration use a matrix formulation:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_k \end{pmatrix}$$

→ Statistical model: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$

Normal equations (for a, b_1, \dots, b_k):

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

Remember: centered formulation for the simple linear regression:

$$\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 b = \sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$$

Generalisation of the correlation

Instead of one correlation we get a correlation matrix.

	bodyfat	bmi	waist_hip	abdomen	weight
bodyfat	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
bmi	0.718	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
waist_hip	0.763	0.678	1.000	0.000	0.000
abdomen	0.813	0.903	0.847	1.000	0.000
weight	0.600	0.867	0.540	0.865	1.000

Here the pairwise correlations are shown below the diagonal and the p -values above.

Generalisation of the correlation

How strong is the multiple linear relation?

Multiple coefficient of determination

$$R^2 = \frac{s_{\text{reg}}^2}{s_y^2} = \frac{\text{explained variance}}{\text{variance of } y} = 1 - \frac{s_{\text{res}}^2}{s_y^2}$$

Comment: $R^2 = (r_{y\hat{y}})^2$

$r_{y\hat{y}}$ is called **multiple correlation coefficient**

= correlation between y and best linear combination of x_1, \dots, x_k

Remember: R^2 is a measure for the goodness of a prediction:

- observations scatter around \bar{y} with SD = s_y
- observations scatter around the prediction value \hat{y} with $s_{\text{res}} = \sqrt{1 - R^2} s_y \leq s_y$

Generalisation of the correlation

Example: $s_{\text{bodyfat}} = 8.0$, $R^2 = 0.68$

$$\rightarrow s_{\text{res}} = \sqrt{1 - 0.68} \times 8.0 = 4.5$$

Warning: R^2 does **not** provide an unbiased estimation of the proportion of expected variance explained by regression (too optimistic).

Unbiased estimation of the residual variance:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n - k - 1} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \frac{n - 1}{n - k - 1} s_{\text{res}}^2$$

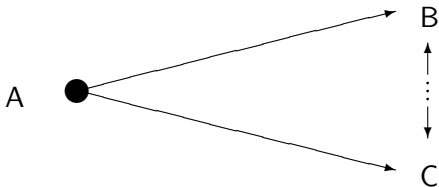
Unbiased estimation of the proportion of explained variance.

$$R_{\text{adj}}^2 = 1 - \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{s_y^2}$$

♣ Partial correlation

Correlation coefficient between two variables whereby the remaining variables are kept constant.

→ Comparable statement as multiple regression coefficient



A is a “confounder” for the relation of B to C

♣ Partial correlation

Example: Relation of body fat proportion and weight for males.

A = abdomen, B = body fat, C = weight:

$$r_{AB} = 0.81, \quad r_{AC} = 0.86, \quad r_{BC} = 0.60$$

Are body fat proportion and weight related?

$$r_{BC.A} = \frac{r_{BC} - r_{AB}r_{AC}}{\sqrt{(1 - r_{AB}^2)(1 - r_{AC}^2)}} = -0.35$$

→ the sign of the correlation switches when the waist circumference is known.

Examination of hypotheses

(Null) hypotheses:

- There is no relation at all between (x_1, \dots, x_k) and y .
- A certain independent variable has no influence.
- A group of independent variables has no influence.
- The relation is linear and not quadratic.
- The influence of the independent variables is additive.

Condition: ε_i normally distributed

Linear hypotheses \longrightarrow F-tests

Examination of hypotheses

Example:

Null hypothesis: true multiple correlation $R = 0$ (no relation at all).

Test quantity

$$T = \frac{R^2 (n - k - 1)}{1 - R^2} \sim F_{1, n-k-1}$$

(Generalisation of the simple, linear case, since $F_{1,m} = t_m^2$)

♣ Variable selection

- Aspects:
 - simple model (without inessential variables)
 - include important variables
 - high prediction power
 - reproducibility of the results
- Procedure:
 - stepwise procedure
 - ★ forward
 - ★ backward
 - ★ stepwise
 - “best subset selection”
- Problem:
 - multi-collinearity \longrightarrow instability

♣ Variable selection

Stepwise procedures: stepwise, forward, backward

- Dependent variable: $y = \text{bodyfat}$
- Independent variables: $x = \text{age, weight, body height, 10 body circumference measures, waist-hip ratio.}$

forward ($p = 0.05$)

step	included	R^2	R^2_{adj}	variable	p -value
1.	abdomen	.661	.659	abdomen	<.0001
2.	weight	.703	.700	abdomen weight	<.0001 <.0001
3.	wrist	.714	.711	abdomen weight wrist	<.0001 .0004 .002
4.	biceps	.718	.713	abdomen weight wrist biceps	<.0001 <.0001 .001 .08

backward: same result

Common model:

$$\text{bodyfat} = \text{constant} + \text{abdomen} + \text{weight} + \text{wrist} + \text{error}$$

♣ Variable selection

Keep in mind:

- The model of the multiple linear regression should be assessed according to the **meaning** and **significance** of the prediction variables and according to the proportion of explained variance R_{adj}^2 .
- Stepwise p-values \nrightarrow significance
- If the forecast is important use AIC, GCV, BIC, ...

Residual analysis

- Examination of the assumptions of the regression analysis:
 - outliers, non-normal distribution
 - influential observations, leverage points
 - unequal variances
 - non-linearity
 - dependent observations
- graphical methods \longleftrightarrow tests

Keep in mind:

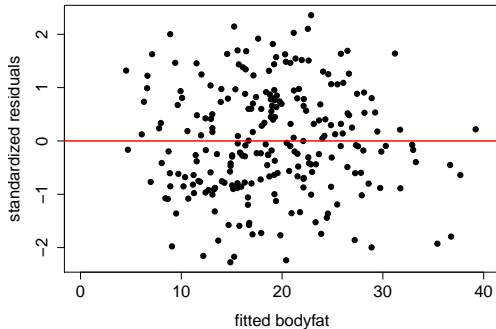
There is no universally valid procedure for the examination of the assumptions of the regression analysis!

Residuals

Residual

observation - predicted value

Standardized residual

$$\frac{\text{residual}}{\text{sample standard deviation of the residuals}}$$


Residuals

Standardized residuals should be within -2 and 2 . There should be no specific patterns.

Otherwise, check for

- outliers
- unequal variances
- non-normal distribution
- non-linearity
- important variable not included in the model

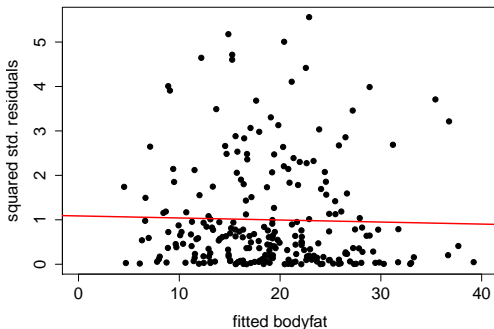
Remember:

“Pattern” should be interpretable in **respect of contents** and should be **significant**.

→ Non-parametric procedures

Variance stability

Plot squared standardized residuals against predicted target quantity.



H_0 : Spearman's rank correlation coefficient = 0 $\rightarrow p = 0.19$

Contraindications

- dependent measurements (e.g. for one person)

Solution: Repeated-measures analysis

- variability dependent on measurement

Solution:

- 1 transformation
- 2 weighted least-squares estimation

- skewed distribution

Solution:

- 1 transformation
- 2 robust regression

- non-linear relation

Solution:

- 1 transformation
- 2 non-linear regression

Non-linear and non-parametric regression

Non-linear regression:

Special case **polynomial regression**

= multiple linear regression

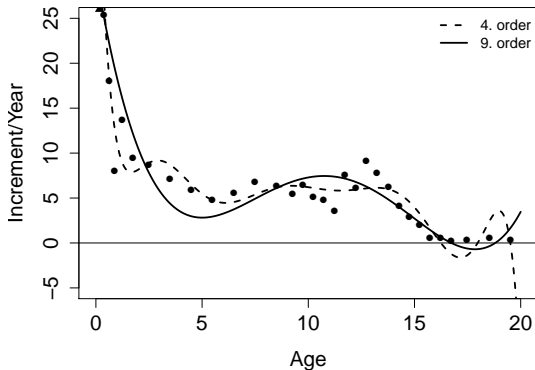
independent variable $(x - \bar{x}), (x - \bar{x})^2, \dots, (x - \bar{x})^k$

Non-parametric regression:

- smoothing splines
- Gasser-Müller kernel estimator
- local linear estimator (LOWESS, LOESS)

Non-linear and non-parametric regression

Example: Growth data in form of increments



Polynomial 4. order: $R_{adj}^2 = 0.76$

Polynomial 9. order: $R_{adj}^2 = 0.93$

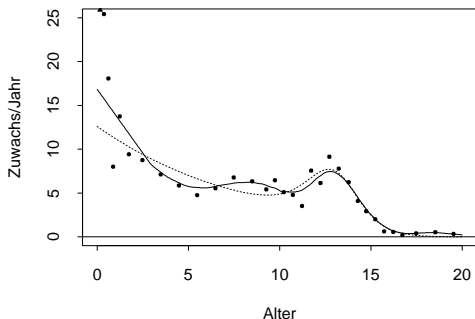
Non-linear and non-parametric regression

- Preece–Baines Modell (1978): ...

$$f(x) = a - \frac{4(a - f(b))}{[\exp\{c(x - b)\} + \exp\{d(x - b)\}] [1 + \exp\{e(x - b)\}]}$$

– for increments the derivative is required.

- Gasser–Müller kernel estimator: —



- Non-parametric regression reflects dynamics and is better than the non-linear and polynomial regression.