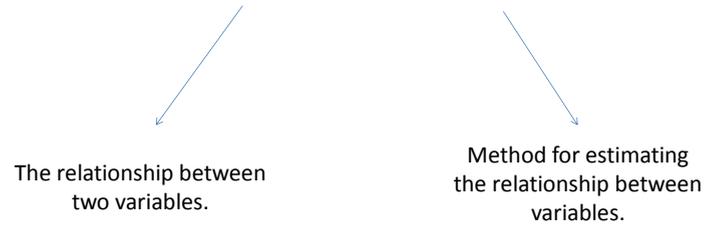


## Two or more variables (one group)

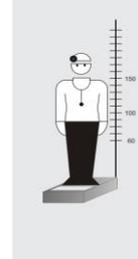
### Correlation and regression



## Correlation of two variables

Example:  
Is there any relationship between the height and weight?

Experiment:



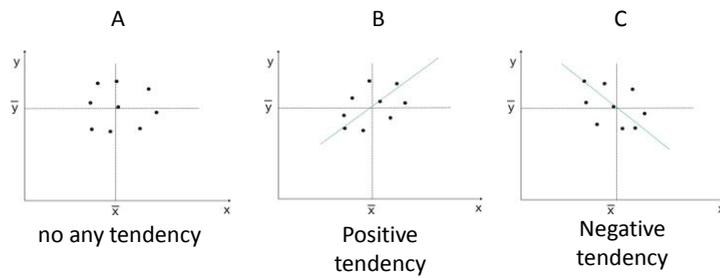
Data pairs:

No.	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)
1	150	61
2	170	70
3	166	75
4	174	70
5	180	72
6	155	50
7	172	65
8	161	59
9	177	81

## Graphic representation

E.g.: height is the x and weight is the y.

Possible situations:



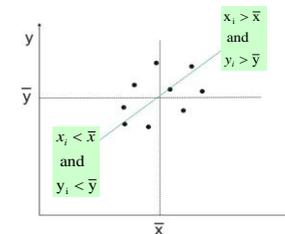
## Covariance

$$Q_{xy} = \sum_i [(x_i - \bar{x}) \cdot (y_i - \bar{y})]$$

$$\text{cov}(x, y) = \frac{Q_{xy}}{n-1}$$

(n: no. of elements)

Positive tendency:

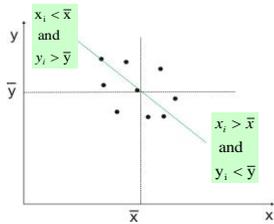


**Frequently:**

if  $x_i < \bar{x}$  then  $y_i < \bar{y}$   
or  $x_i > \bar{x}$  then  $y_i > \bar{y}$

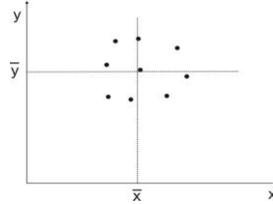
**Consequence:**  $Q_{xy} > 0$ .

Negative tendency:



Frequently:  
 if  $x_i < \bar{x}$  then  $y_i > \bar{y}$   
 or  $x_i > \bar{x}$  then  $y_i < \bar{y}$   
**Consequence:**  $Q_{xy} < 0$ .

No tendency:



The y values are independent from the x-values!  
**Consequence:**  $Q_{xy} = 0$ .  
 (if  $n = \infty$ )

## Pearson's correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{s_x \cdot s_y} = \frac{Q_{xy}}{\sqrt{Q_x \cdot Q_y}}$$

Possible range for r:

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

Covariance divided by the squareroot of the product of the standard deviation of the two variables (= standardized covariance).  
 The measure of the relationship.

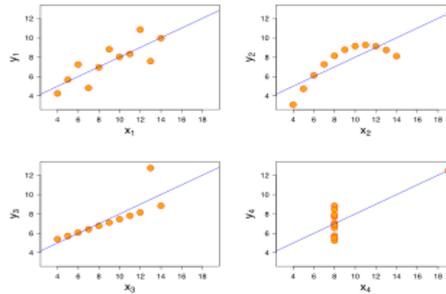
### *In the population:*

$r = 0$  no correlation,  
 $r \neq 0$  correlation (strength is proportional to the actual value of  $r$ .)

## Dependency on distribution

r-value are equal to each other in these figures!

Pearson's r value is sensitive for the skewness of the distribution and for the extreme values. Characterizes well the relationship in the case of normal distribution.



[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anscombe%27s\\_quartet](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anscombe%27s_quartet)

## Coefficient of determination

$$r^2$$

The coefficient of the determination tells us how strong is the relationship. Expresses how much percent of the variability of the y values may be accounted by the variability of the independent variable or variables.

## Correlation t-test

Calculated  $r$  is the estimation of the  $r$  in the population. This fluctuates around the theoretical value.  
(e.g.  $r_{calc} = 0.1$  ?)

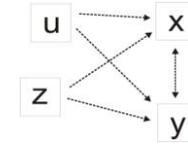
$$H_0: r = 0! \quad \longrightarrow \quad t = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{d.f.: } n - 2$$

**Decision:** based on t-value. Look previous cases!

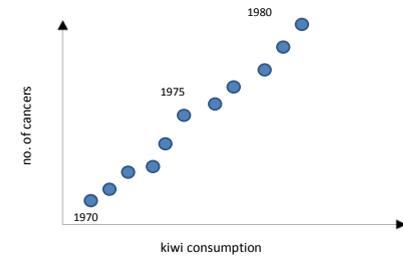
**Condition:** at least one of the variable has normal distribution.

## Interpretation of the correlation

Not necessary being direct causality. (But may be!)  
In the background there may be quantities, effects that influence both measured variables.



Example:  
There is positive correlation, but we can't suppose causality.



## Non-normal distribution or ordinal data

Example: blood pressure measurements.  
Relationship between the two methods.



The distribution is skewed, non-normal.  
Pearson's  $r$  is false.

## Spearman's rank-correlation

Example: diastolic pressure.  
(only a few cases!)

case	Cuff	rank	finger	rank
1	80	4.5	58	1
2	65	2	79	5
3	70	3	66	2
4	80	4.5	93	6
5	60	1	75	4
6	82	6	71	3
...				

$$r_s = \frac{\sum (R_x - \bar{R}_x)(R_y - \bar{R}_y)}{\sqrt{\sum (R_x - \bar{R}_x)^2 \cdot \sum (R_y - \bar{R}_y)^2}}$$

$R_x$ : rank of the x variable  
 $R_y$ : rank of the y variable.

The test and the decision are the same as in the case of Pearson's  $r$ .

## Linear regression

If the variables have normal distribution, the relationship is linear, and we can describe with straightline.

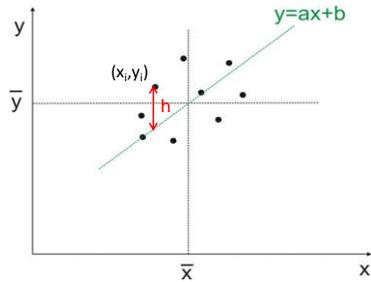
The regression model:  
(to predict the y values)

$$y_i = ax_i + b + h_i$$

In regression analysis :

$$y_i = b_0 + bx_i + h_i$$

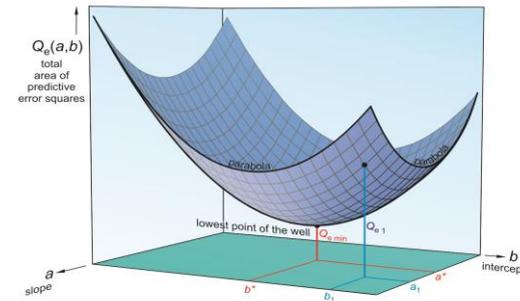
**y**: dependent variable  
**x**: independent (explanatory) variable  
**h<sub>i</sub>**: error term =  $y_i - (ax_i + b)$ .  
 (the difference between the actual value and the predicted value.)



## Least-squares method

$$Q_e = \sum_i h_i^2 = \sum_i (y_i - (ax_i + b))^2$$

The  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are measured values.  
Unknown values are the  $a$  and  $b$ !



## Which is the best straightline?

$Q_e$  has minimum!



$$a^* = \frac{Q_{xy}}{Q_{xx}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad b^* = \bar{y} - a^* \bar{x}$$

Prediction of insulin sensitivity by BMI.

$r^2$ : coefficient of determination.  
How much part of the variance of y is explained by x.

indep.	regr. coeff.	st. error	t	p	decision
BMI	-0.077	0.018	-4.25	0.0011	significant
$r^2$	0.6				

## Multilinear regression

Two or more independent variables.

The regression model:  
(to predict the y values)

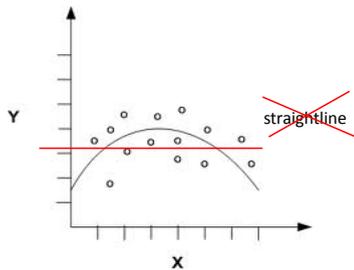
$$y_i = b_0 + \sum_j b_j x_{j,i} + h_i$$

Predict the insulin sensitivity (y)!  
Conclusion: only the BMI influences the sensitivity. About the 64% of the variation of the sensitivity explained by the BMI.

indep.	regr. coeff.	st. error	t	p	decision
Age	-0.0045	0.0041	-1.09	0.3	not sign.
BMI	-0.068	0.02	-.344	0.0055	significant
$r^2$	0.639				

## Non-linear regression

On the base of the model (e.g.):



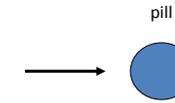
Polinomial:  $y = b_0 + \sum_i b_i x^i + h$

Exponential:  $y = hab^x$

Power:  $y = hax^b$

## Chi-square test Analyzing frequency data

Example: headache



Effective:  
no headache

Not effective:  
remaining headache

## Experiment

1. group: patients taking the **medicine**

headache  
(a)

no headache (b)

2. group: patients taking the **placebo**

headache  
(c)

no headache (d)

(a,b,c,d are frequency data)

## Contingency table

	headache	no headache	Total
1. group	a	b	a+b
2. group	c	d	c+d
total	a+c	b+d	n

So-called 2 x 2 table.

## Nullhypothesis

If the medicine is similar to the placebo, we expect:

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d} \quad \longrightarrow \quad a \times d = b \times c$$

**Nullhypothesis:** the medicine is similar to the placebo.

**Chi-Square test for independence.**

## Independent case

Remember:  $P(AB) = P(A) \times P(B)$  if A and B are independent from each other. (P(AB), P(A) and P(B) are estimated by relative frequencies.)



$$\frac{a}{n} \approx \frac{a+b}{n} \times \frac{a+c}{n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a/n &\sim (P(AB)) \\ (a+b)/n &\sim (P(A)) \\ (a+c)/n &\sim (P(B)) \end{aligned}$$

Observed proportion:  $a/n$

Expected proportion:  $\frac{a+b}{n} \times \frac{a+c}{n}$

transformation

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

## $\chi^2$ -distribution

Shortcut formula  
for 2 x2 tables:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{n(ad-bc)^2}{(a+b)(c+d)(a+c)(b+d)}$$

**Nullhypothesis:**  $\chi^2$ -value is 0, the difference due to the sampling error only.

**$\chi^2$ -distribution** describes the random deviations of the  $\chi^2$ -value.

## Decision

Same, then in the case of  $t$ -distribution. We use  $\chi^2$ -distribution.

Expected value is 0, if the null hypothesis is true.

$p \leq \alpha$  - reject the null hypothesis else accept.

**degree of freedom:** in this special case = 1.

In general:

d.f. =  $(r-1)(c-1)$ , where  $r$  - no. of rows  
 $c$  - no. of columns

## Small expected frequencies

May not be used if:

1. An expected frequency is 2 or less.
2. More than 20% of the expected frequencies are less than 5.

**Fisher's exact test** may be used.

Calculates the exact probability for the given table.

$$P = \frac{(a+b)!(c+d)!(a+c)!(b+d)!}{a!b!c!d!n!}$$

Remember!  
n! = multiplying the integers from 1 to n.

Decision is based on the P.

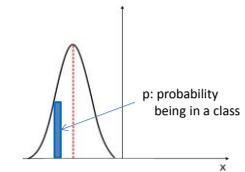
## The Chi-Square test Goodness-of-Fit test

Example: testing normality of the larger diameter of the frog red blood cells.

Observed frequencies:

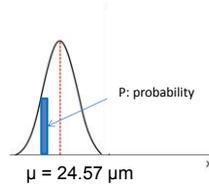
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	n
4	10	9	20	26	27	37	42	48	53	45	39	35	17	18	10	7	5	450

Nullhypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>):  
Data has normal distribution. Calculate the average and the sd from the sample!  
Calculate expected frequency from the normal distribution!  
in a class = np (see figure)



## Chi-Square test

avg = 24.57 μm; sd = 3.62 μm



Expected frequencies:

$$n_i \sim 450 \times P$$

16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
2.8	5.1	8.9	14.2	21	29	37	44	48	49	46.4	41	33	25	18	11	6.9	7.2

Degree of freedom = m - b - 1  
m: no. of classes. (in example = 18)  
b: no. of parameters (in example = 2)

Calculation:  
p = 0.96

We accept the nullhypothesis.

## Chi-Square test Test for homogeneity

**Example:** The frequency of wearing glasses is the same in the groups of girls and boys or not?

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference. (independent!)

P(With) ~ 76/200; P(Boys) ~ 97/200  
Independent case:  
P(W and B) = P(W) x P(B)  
expected freq. ~ n x (PW and B)  
= 200 \* 76/200 \* 97/200 ~ 36.9

Observed frequencies

	with	without	
boys	48	49	97
girls	28	75	103
	76	124	200

Expected frequencies

	with	without	
boys	36.9	60.1	97
girls	39.1	63.9	103
	76	124	200

## Calculation

$$\chi^2 = \frac{n(ad - bc)^2}{(a+b)(c+d)(a+c)(b+d)} = \frac{200 \cdot (48 \cdot 75 - 49 \cdot 28)^2}{76 \cdot 124 \cdot 97 \cdot 103}$$

$$\chi^2 \approx 10.5 \quad \text{d.f.} = 1 \quad p \approx 0.001$$

Decision:

We reject the nullhypothesis. There are significant difference between boys and girls.

## Conditions for tests

test	condition
One-sample t-test	One group, one variable, normal distribution
Two-sample t-test	Two independent groups, one variable, normal distribution, the standard deviations may be the same in the groups
ANOVA	3 or more independent groups, one variable, normal distribution
Sign test	One group, numerical or ordinal quantity
Wilcoxon's signed rank-test	One group, numerical or ordinal quantity
Mann-Whitney U-test	Two independent groups, numerical or ordinal quantity
Kruskall-Wallis test	3 or more groups, numerical quantity
Pearson's correlation test	One group, two variables, normal distribution
Spearman's correlation test	One group, two variables, numerical or ordinal quantity
Chi-Square test (independency)	Two or more groups, frequency data
Chi-Square test (homogeneity)	Two or more groups, frequency data
Chi-Square test (fit)	One group, known distribution, frequency data