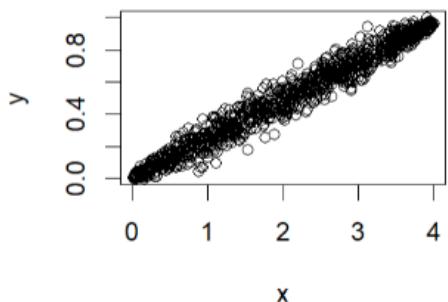
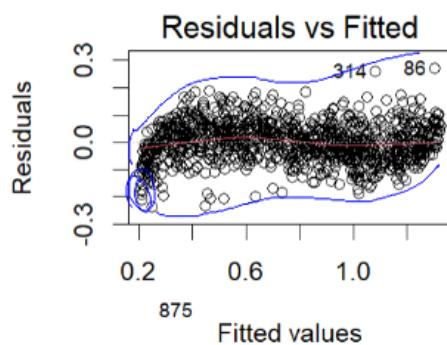
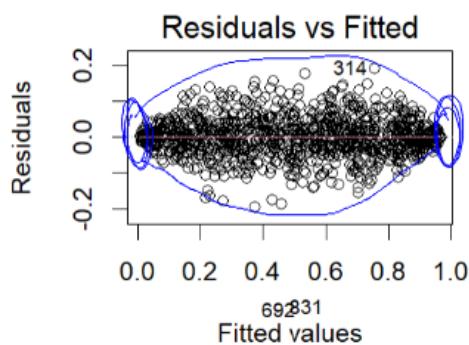
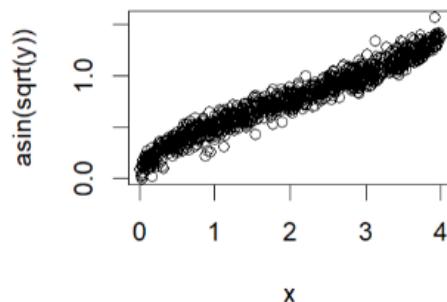


EJEMPLO 4

ORIGINAL (y)



TRANSFORMADO: $\text{ASIN}(\sqrt{y}) = \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{y})$



```
> lm(y~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: residuals(lm(y ~ x))

w = 0.99238, p-value = 5.089e-05 < α → se rech. H_0

✓ Normalidad

```
> lm(asin(sqrt(y))~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: residuals(lm(asin(sqrt(y)) ~ x))

w = 0.99792, p-value = 0.2492 > α → No se rech. H_0

✓ Normalidad

```
> lm(y~x) |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

Chisquare = 1.645588, Df = 1, p = 0.19956 > α

si cumplir

Hubo 12 avisos (use warnings() para verlos)

```
> lm(asin(sqrt(y))~x) |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

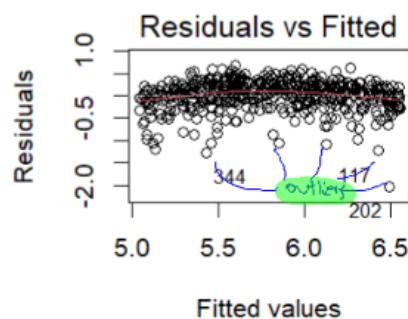
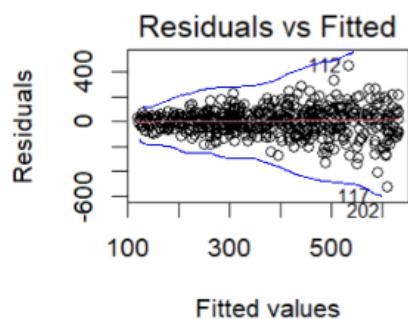
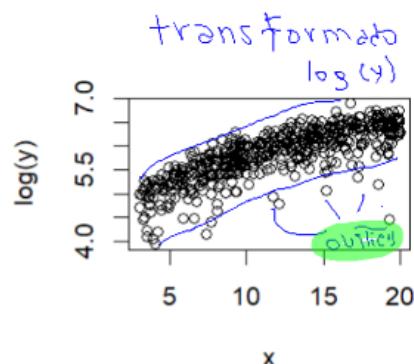
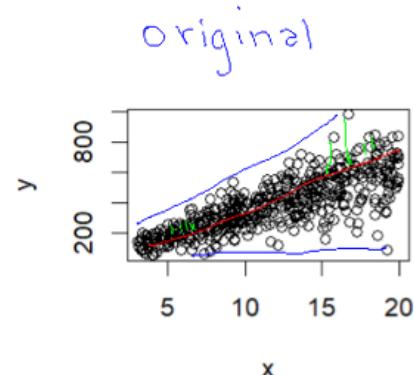
Chisquare = 4.654319, Df = 1, p = 0.030976 < α

✓ NO cumplir

Otra opción: otra transf.

($y \in (0,1)$ → Regresión Beta)

EJEMPLO 5



```
> lm(y~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(lm(y ~ x))
```

```
W = 0.97856, p-value = 1.017e-06 < α → No normalidad
```

```
> lm(log(y)~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(lm(log(y) ~ x))
```

```
W = 0.92222, p-value = 2.127e-15 < α → No normalidad
```

```
> lm(y~x) |> car:::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

```
Chisquare = 99.64723, Df = 1, p = < 2.22e-16 < α
```

No homocedasticidad

```
> lm(log(y)~x) |> car:::ncvTest()
```

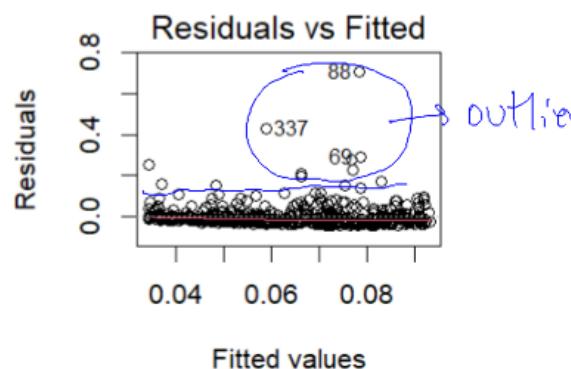
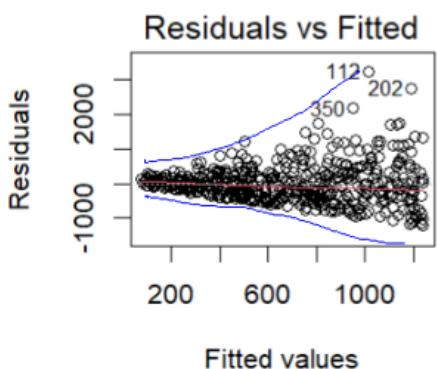
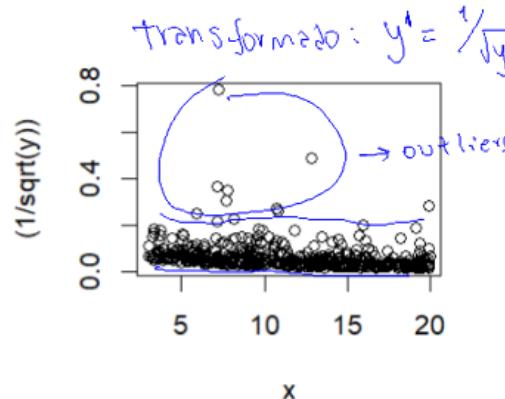
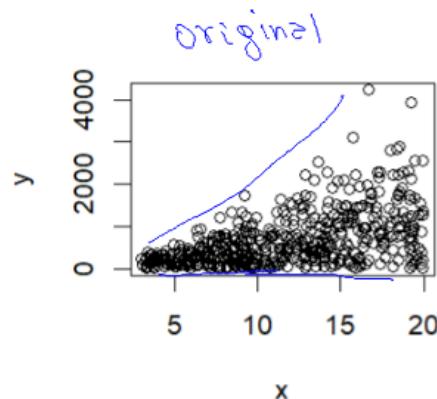
Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

```
Chisquare = 0.385331, Df = 1, p = 0.53476 > α
```

Sí homocedasticidad

EJEMPLO 6



```
> lm(y~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(lm(y ~ x))
W = 0.93334, p-value = 3.819e-14 < 2
```

```
> lm((1/sqrt(y))~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(lm((1/sqrt(y)) ~ x))
W = 0.54536, p-value < 2.2e-16 < 2
```

```
> lm(y~x) |> car:::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

```
Chisquare = 151.1686, Df = 1, p = < 2.22e-16 < 2
```

```
> lm((1/sqrt(y))~x) |> car:::ncvTest()
```

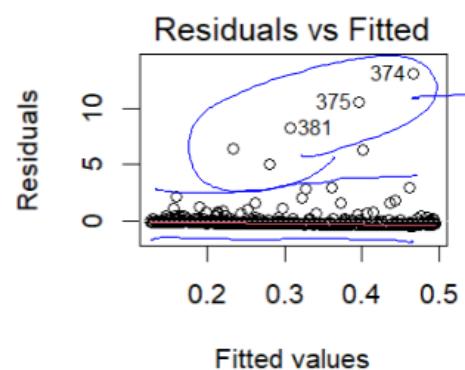
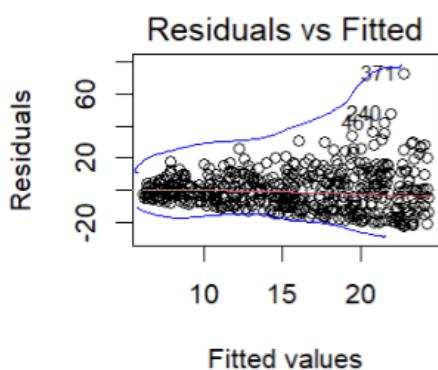
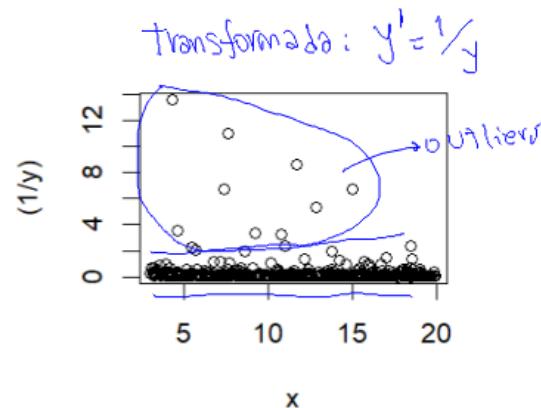
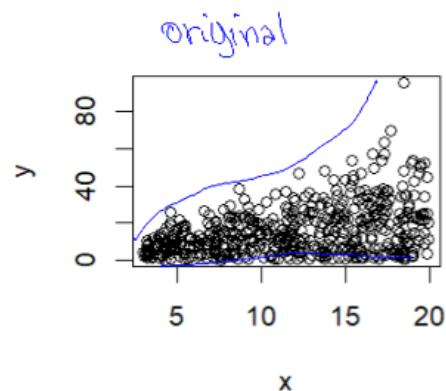
Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

```
Chisquare = 39.69094, Df = 1, p = 2.975e-10 < 2
```

aumentó

EJEMPLO 7



```
> lm(y~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(lm(y ~ x))
W = 0.95254, p-value = 1.371e-11 < α
```

```
> lm((1/y)~x) |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(lm((1/y) ~ x))
W = 0.26127, p-value < 2.2e-16 < α
```

```
> lm(y~x) |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

```
Chisquare = 108.0548, Df = 1, p = < 2.22e-16 < α
```

```
> lm((1/y)~x) |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

```
Chisquare = 134.7769, Df = 1, p = < 2.22e-16 < α
```

Si no se logra resolver la heterocedasticidad

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$$

Si no se logra estabilizar la varianza, los estimadores seguirán siendo insesgados pero no tendrán la propiedad de mínima varianza, lo que significa que los errores estándar serán más pequeños o más grandes? ¿Cómo afecta eso en sus intervalos de confianza y pruebas de hipótesis asociadas?

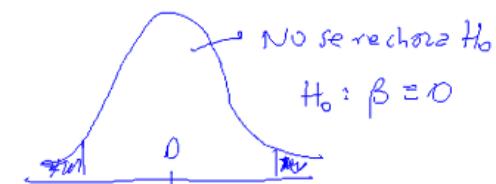
↳ más ancho

Coefficients:

| | Estimate | Std. Error | t value | Pr(> t) |
|-------------|----------|------------|---------|------------|
| (Intercept) | -0.73054 | 0.88750 | -0.823 | 0.42064 |
| Educacion | 0.15695 | 0.06238 | 2.516 | 0.02102 * |
| SexoM | 0.82211 | 0.48017 | 1.712 | 0.10315 |
| Edad | 0.10463 | 0.03004 | 3.482 | 0.00249 ** |
| X4 | -0.04538 | 0.04043 | -1.122 | 0.27573 |
| --- | | | | |



$$t_{\text{calc}} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{\text{Std. Error}} \Rightarrow t_{\text{calc}} \downarrow$$



Cuando la variable respuesta es transformada, los valores predichos se encontrarán en la escala de la nueva variable. Es común convertir dichos valores a la escala original, sin embargo esa transformación inversa genera la estimación de la mediana de la distribución de la variable endógena en vez de la media. En cuanto a los límites de los intervalos de confianza para estimar o predecir un valor individual, estos pueden ser directamente transformados ya que se tratan de percentiles, los cuales no se ven afectados por transformaciones. Sin embargo, no es posible asegurar que los intervalos obtenidos son los más cortos posibles.

$$y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2$$

$$\log(y) = \hat{\beta}_0^* + \hat{\beta}_1^* x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2^* x_2 \dots \rightarrow \text{predecir } \log(y)$$

$$* e^{\log(y)} = y$$

TRANSFORMACIÓN BOX COX

```
lm((y**0.25-1)/0.25~x) |> aov() |> tidy()
```

```
library(forecast)  
lm(BoxCox(y, 0.25)~x) |> aov() |> tidy()
```

```
lm(BoxCox(y, 0.25)~x) |> aov() |> tidy()  
  
# A tibble: 2 x 6  
  term      df    sumsq   meansq statistic   p.value  
  <chr>     <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>     <dbl>      <dbl>  
1 x         1  1508.  1508.     541.  9.35e-114  
2 Residuals 4998 13927.    2.79      NA  NA
```

13 927

```
lm(BoxCox(y, 0.50)~x) |> aov() |> tidy()
```

```
# A tibble: 2 x 6  
  term      df    sumsq   meansq statistic   p.value  
  <chr>     <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>     <dbl>      <dbl>  
1 x         1  5595.  5595.     657.  3.17e-136  
2 Residuals 4998 42568.    8.52      NA  NA
```

42 568

```
lm(BoxCox(y, 0.73)~x) |> aov() |> tidy()
```

```
# A tibble: 2 x 6  
  term      df    sumsq   meansq statistic   p.value  
  <chr>     <dbl>  <dbl>    <dbl>     <dbl>      <dbl>  
1 x         1  20063. 20063.     727.  1.53e-149  
2 Residuals 4998 138002.   27.6      NA  NA
```

138 002

Para elegir el valor óptimo de λ se busca aquel que maximiza la (log) verosimilitud al aplicar la transformación:

$$y' = \frac{y^\lambda - 1}{\lambda \hat{Y}^{\lambda-1}}$$

$$\hat{Y} = \exp\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(y_i)\right)$$

Esto último permite que la variabilidad (a través de las sumas de cuadrados) de los modelos con diferentes λ sean comparables, lo cual se puede apreciar en estos ejemplos:

```
lambda = 0.25
exp(1/length(y)*sum(log(y))) -> yp
(y**lambda-1)/(lambda*yp**(lambda-1)) -> ynueva1
lm(ynueva1~x) |> aov() |> tidy()
```

```
> boxcox(lm(y~x), lambda=seq(0.35,0.45,0.01), plotit = FALSE) |>  
+   rbind.data.frame()
```

| | x | y |
|----|------|-----------|
| 1 | 0.35 | -1538.267 |
| 2 | 0.36 | -1537.991 |
| 3 | 0.37 | -1537.794 |
| 4 | 0.38 | -1537.675 |
| 5 | 0.39 | -1537.633 |
| 6 | 0.40 | -1537.668 |
| 7 | 0.41 | -1537.778 |
| 8 | 0.42 | -1537.963 |
| 9 | 0.43 | -1538.222 |
| 10 | 0.44 | -1538.553 |
| 11 | 0.45 | -1538.957 |

→ la mayor logver0

x logver0 similitud

```
> boxcox  
otit = F  
+ rbin
```

$$\lambda = 0.39$$

Mínimos Cuadrados Generalizados

✓ $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \dots + \varepsilon_i , \quad \varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \quad E(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{0}, \quad V(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}_{n \times n}$$

$$V(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & & 0 \\ & \sigma^2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots & & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}_{n \times n}$$

$$\text{diag}(\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & & \sigma^2 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{homogeneidad de varianzas}}$$

↓
no es la matriz identidad

$\sigma^2 \mathbf{V} \rightarrow$ Existen las covarianzas $\neq 0$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{K}^{-1}}_{\mathbf{K}^{-1}} \underbrace{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{Y}} = \underbrace{\mathbf{K}^{-1}}_{\mathbf{K}^{-1}} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \underbrace{\mathbf{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$$

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{g}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y} \quad \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{y}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{X}, \quad \mathbf{g} = \mathbf{K}^{-1}\varepsilon$$

$$(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{K}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{K}'\mathbf{y}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$$

Modelo tradicional (mínimos cuadrados ordinarios) :

mínimos cuadrados generalizados:

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$$

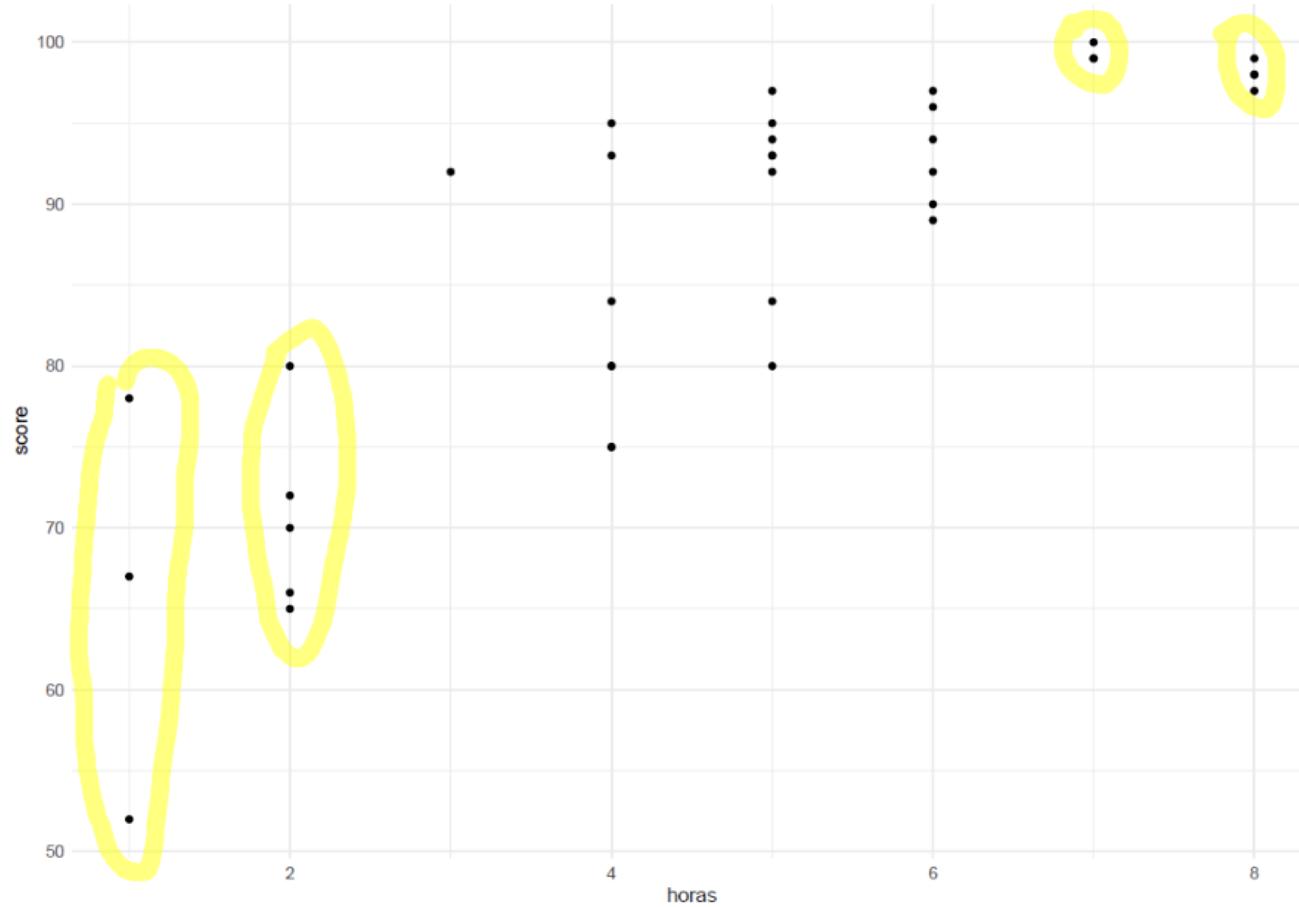
$$\mathbf{V} \neq \mathbf{I}$$

Mínimos Cuadrados Ponderados

$$Y = X\beta + \epsilon, \quad E(\epsilon) = 0, \quad V(\epsilon) = \sigma^2 V = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{w_1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{w_2} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{w_m} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sigma^2}{w_1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\sigma^2}{w_2} & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \frac{\sigma^2}{w_m} \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{diag}(\sigma^2 V) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{w_1}, \frac{\sigma^2}{w_2}, \dots, \frac{\sigma^2}{w_n} \right)}$$

Varianzas distintas = heterocedasticidad



$\times \uparrow$ Variab. y \downarrow

$$V(\epsilon_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{x_i}.$$

Primera propuesta: A mayor peso, menor variabilidad de los errores, es decir $V(\epsilon_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{x_i}$. De ahí que $V_i = \frac{1}{x_i}$ y $\omega_i = x_i$.

```
datos2$horas -> peso1  
lm(score ~ horas, data = datos2, weights=peso1) -> modelo1
```

Segunda propuesta: La inversa al cuadrado de los valores ajustados resultantes de la regresión de los residuales absolutos en función de los valores ajustados de la regresión por mínimos cuadrados ordinarios. (sin pesos)

```
1/lm(abs(modelo0$residuals) ~ modelo0$fitted.values)$fitted.values**2 -> peso3  
lm(score ~ horas, data = datos2, weights=peso3) -> modelo3  
modelo3 |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(modelo3)  
W = 0.97271, p-value = 0.4865 > α ✓ Normalidad de errores  
modelo3 |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

Chisquare = 1.592739, Df = 1, p = 0.20694 > α ✓ Homocedasticidad de errores