

# Análisis de regresión

Capítulo 9: Modelos polinomiales

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## Introducción

Hemos visto que es posible construir modelos de regresión lineal polinomiales de la siguiente forma:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \cdots + \beta_k x^k + \epsilon$$

Sin embargo, mientras más términos polinomiales se tengan, aumenta el riesgo de multicolinealidad. Para evitar ese problema, se propone trabajar con el siguiente modelo:

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 P_1(x) + \alpha_2 P_2(x) + \cdots + \alpha_k P_k(x) + \epsilon$$

donde  $P_u(x)$  es un polinomio ortogonal de  $u$ -ésimo orden, los cuales están sujetos a estas restricciones:

$$P_0(x) = 1 \quad \text{y} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n P_r(x_i) P_s(x_i) = 0, \quad r \neq s, \quad r, s = 0, 1, \dots, k$$

Esta última expresión es conocida como la propiedad de ortogonalidad.

Los valores de estos polinomios se obtienen de la siguiente manera:

$$P_0(x_i) = 1$$

$$P_1(x_i) = \lambda_1 \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{d} \right)$$

$$P_2(x_i) = \lambda_2 \left[ \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{d} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{n^2 - 1}{12} \right) \right]$$

$$P_3(x_i) = \lambda_3 \left[ \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{d} \right)^3 - \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{d} \right) \left( \frac{3n^2 - 7}{20} \right) \right]$$

$$P_4(x_i) = \lambda_4 \left[ \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{d} \right)^4 - \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{d} \right)^2 \left( \frac{3n^2 - 13}{14} \right) + \frac{3(n^2 - 1)(n^2 - 9)}{560} \right]$$

donde  $n$  es el tamaño de muestra,  $d$  es el espaciamiento entre los valores de  $x$ , y los valores de  $\lambda_j$  son constantes ya establecidas para cada  $P_j$  y  $n$ .

En consecuencia, el modelo estará expresado matricialmente de la siguiente manera:

$$\mathbf{y} = X\alpha + \epsilon$$

donde la matriz  $X$  tendrá la siguiente forma:

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} P_0(x_1) & P_1(x_1) & \cdots & P_k(x_1) \\ P_0(x_2) & P_1(x_2) & \cdots & P_k(x_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_0(x_n) & P_1(x_n) & \cdots & P_k(x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Luego, dada la ortogonalidad de los polinomios, el valor de  $X^\top X$  es:

$$X^\top X = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n P_0^2(x_i) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sum_{i=1}^n P_1^2(x_i) & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sum_{i=1}^n P_k^2(x_i) \end{pmatrix}$$

Mientras que  $X^\top \mathbf{y}$ :

$$X^\top \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n P_0(x_i) y_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n P_1(x_i) y_i \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^n P_k(x_i) y_i \end{pmatrix}$$

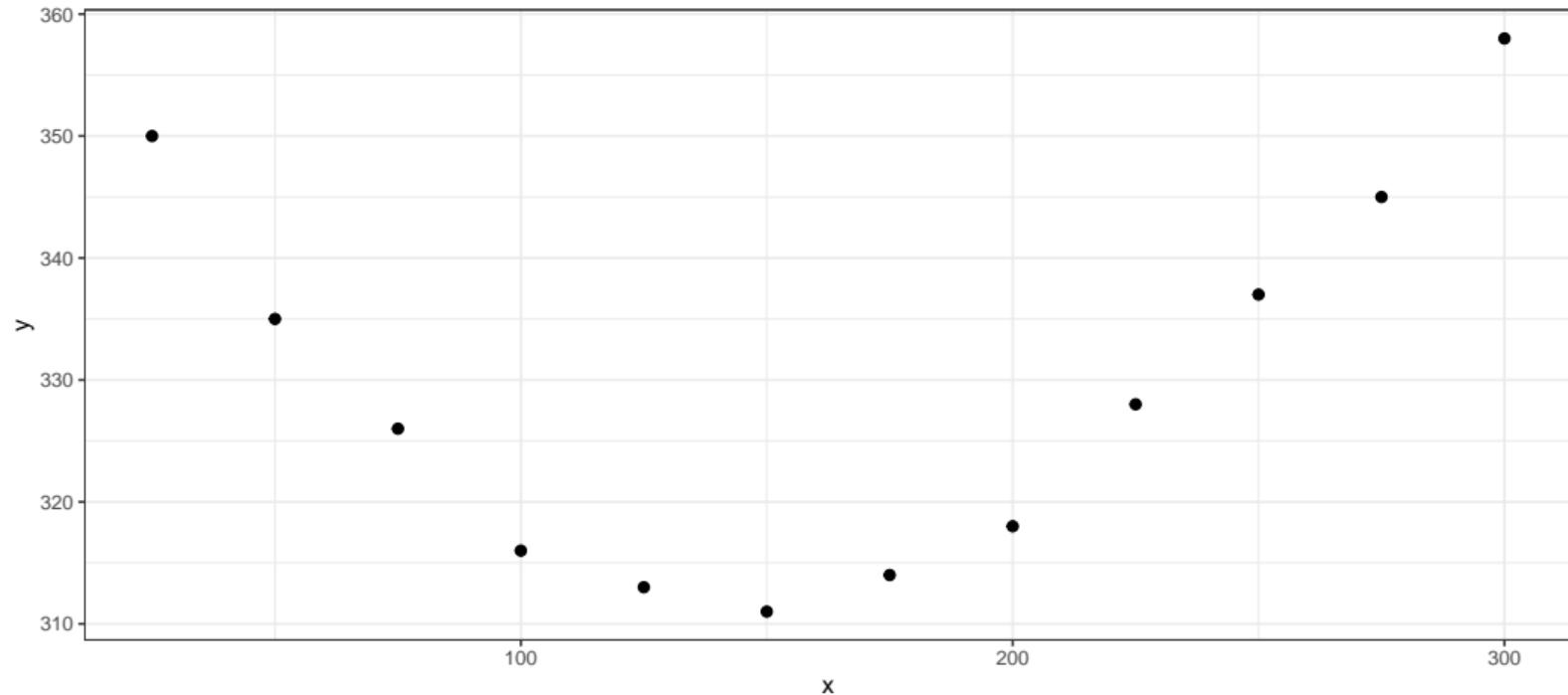
De aquí se puede notar que, al aplicar la expresión para estimar puntualmente  $\alpha$ , tenemos:

$$\hat{\alpha}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n P_j(x_i) y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n P_j^2(x_i)}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, k$$

Un analista de investigación de operaciones se encuentra desarrollando un modelo de cómputo que permita tomar en cuenta el efecto de diversas cantidades de pedido sobre el costo anual del inventario, el cual sospecha que tiene un comportamiento cuadrático o cúbico Los datos se muestran a continuación:

```
x = seq(25,300,25)
y = c(350,335,326,316,313,311,314,318,328,337,345,358)
datos = data.frame(x,y)
library(ggplot2)
```

```
datos |> ggplot(aes(x,y)) + geom_point(size=2) + theme_bw()
```



**Modelo 1:** Algunos análisis a partir de un primer modelo. Comente los siguientes resultados

```
lm(y ~ x, datos) -> modelo_1  
modelo_1 |> summary()
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ x, data = datos)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-17.668	-13.373	-1.668	10.630	27.154

Coefficients:

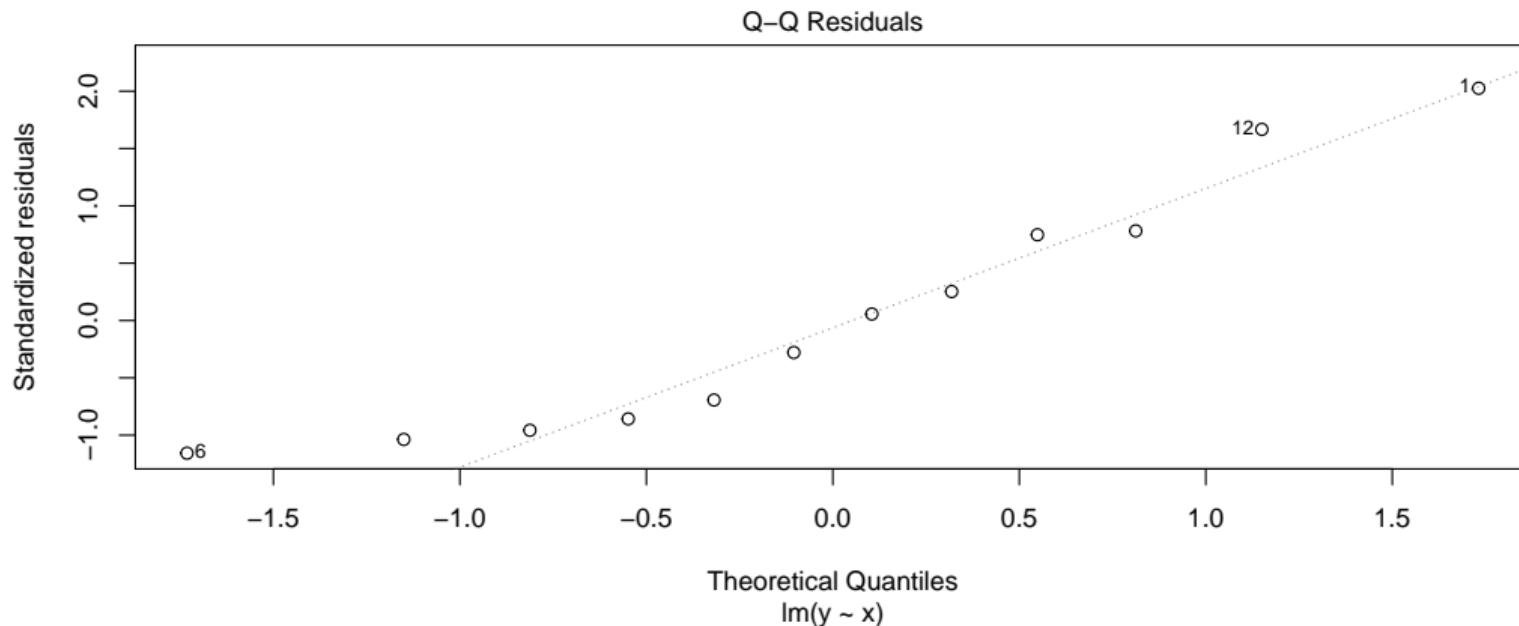
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )							
(Intercept)	321.68182	9.82496	32.741	1.67e-11 ***							
x	0.04657	0.05340	0.872	0.404							
---											
Signif. codes:	0	'***'	0.001	'**'	0.01	'*'	0.05	'.'	0.1	' '	1

Residual standard error: 15.96 on 10 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.07069, Adjusted R-squared: -0.02224

F-statistic: 0.7607 on 1 and 10 DF, p-value: 0.4036

```
modelo_1 |> plot(which=2)
```

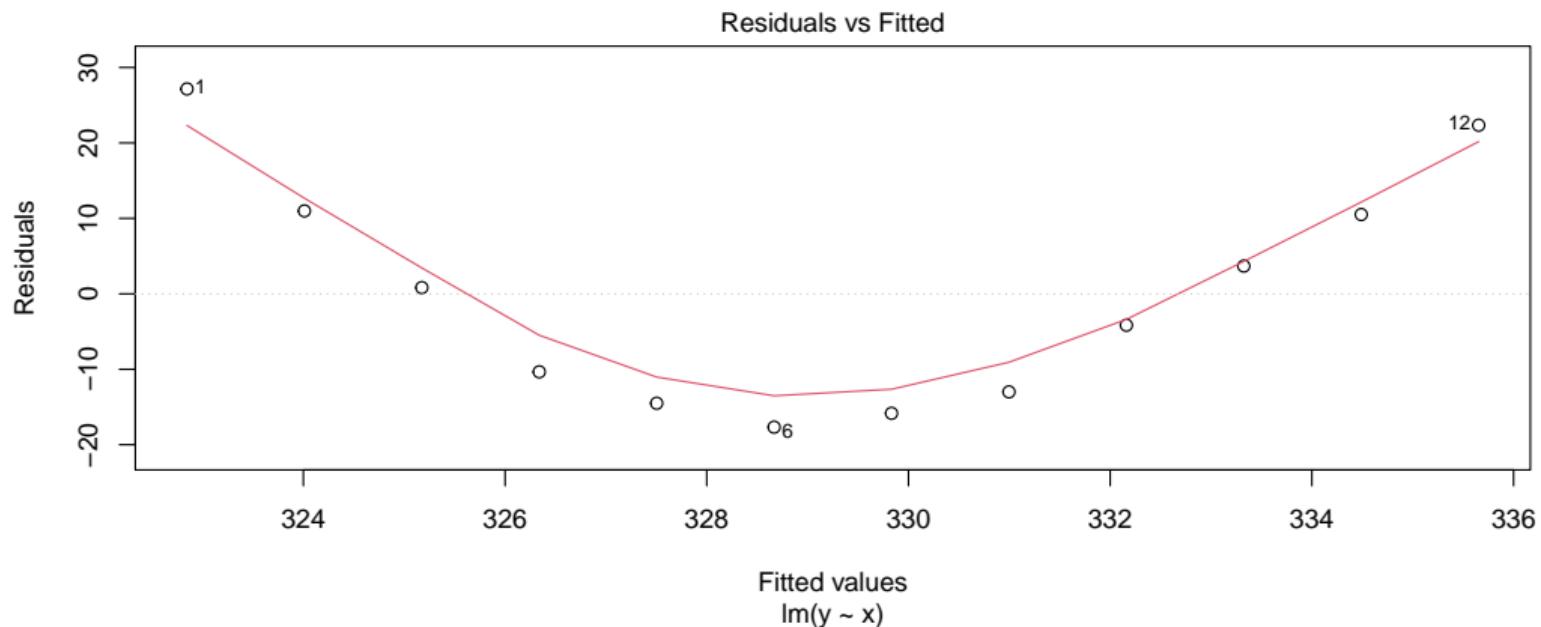


```
modelo_1 |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(modelo_1)
W = 0.91901, p-value = 0.2778
```

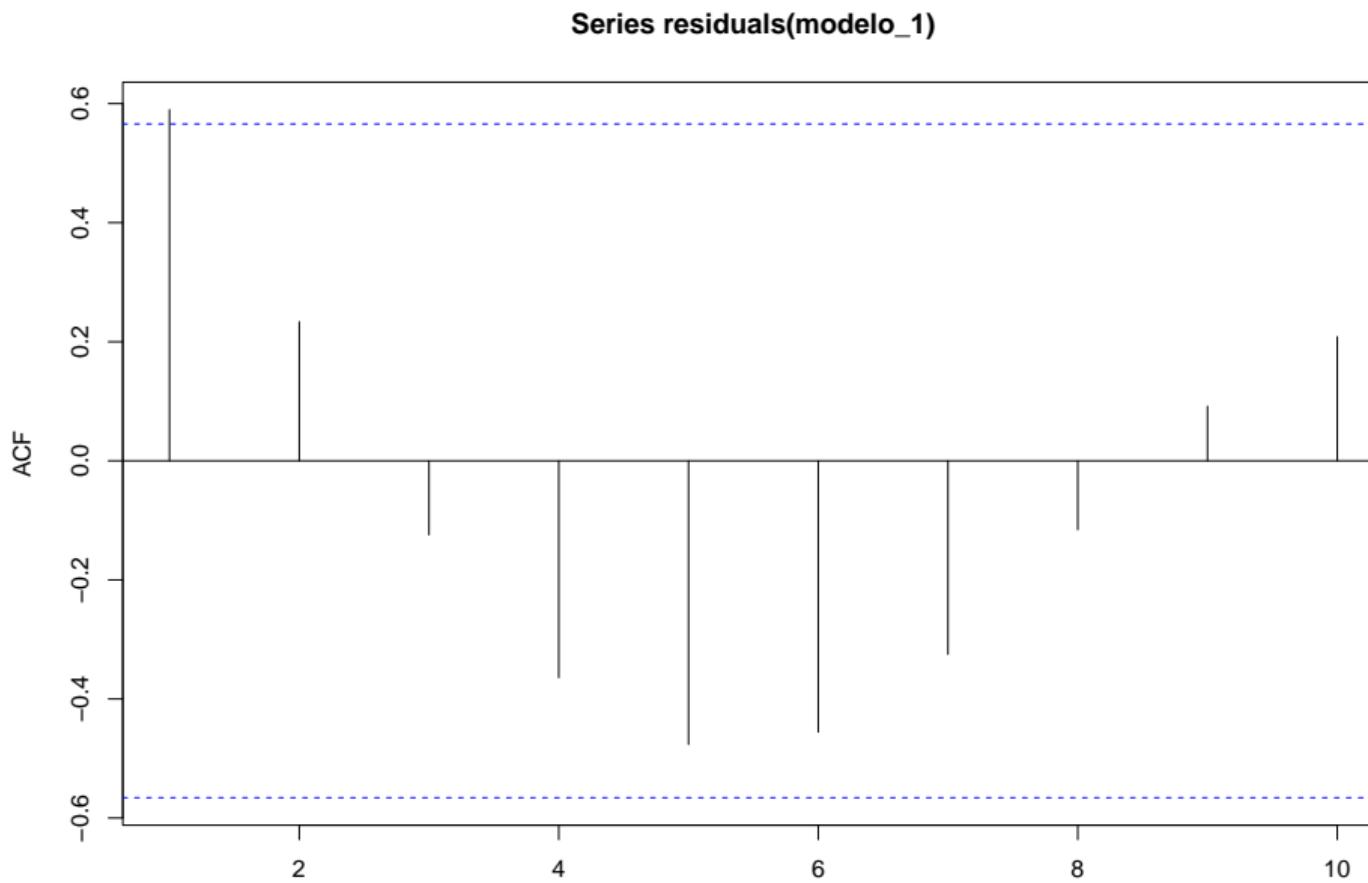
```
modelo_1 |> plot(which=1)
```



```
modelo_1 |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test  
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values  
Chisquare = 0.2052885, Df = 1, p = 0.65049

```
modelo_1 |> residuals() |> TSA::acf()
```



```
modelo_1 |> lmtest::dwtest()
```

Durbin-Watson test

```
data: modelo_1
DW = 0.33522, p-value = 1.298e-07
alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0
```

```
modelo_1 |> AIC()
```

```
[1] 104.3542
```

**Modelo 2:** ¿Qué sucede si se añade un componente polinomial de orden 2? Analice los siguientes resultados:

```
lm(y ~ x + I(x**2), datos) -> modelo_2  
modelo_2 |> summary()
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ x + I(x^2), data = datos)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-2.7500	-1.3776	-0.1399	0.7911	3.5962

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	3.632e+02	2.373e+00	153.06	< 2e-16 ***
x	-6.652e-01	3.357e-02	-19.82	9.85e-09 ***
I(x^2)	2.190e-03	1.006e-04	21.78	4.27e-09 ***

---

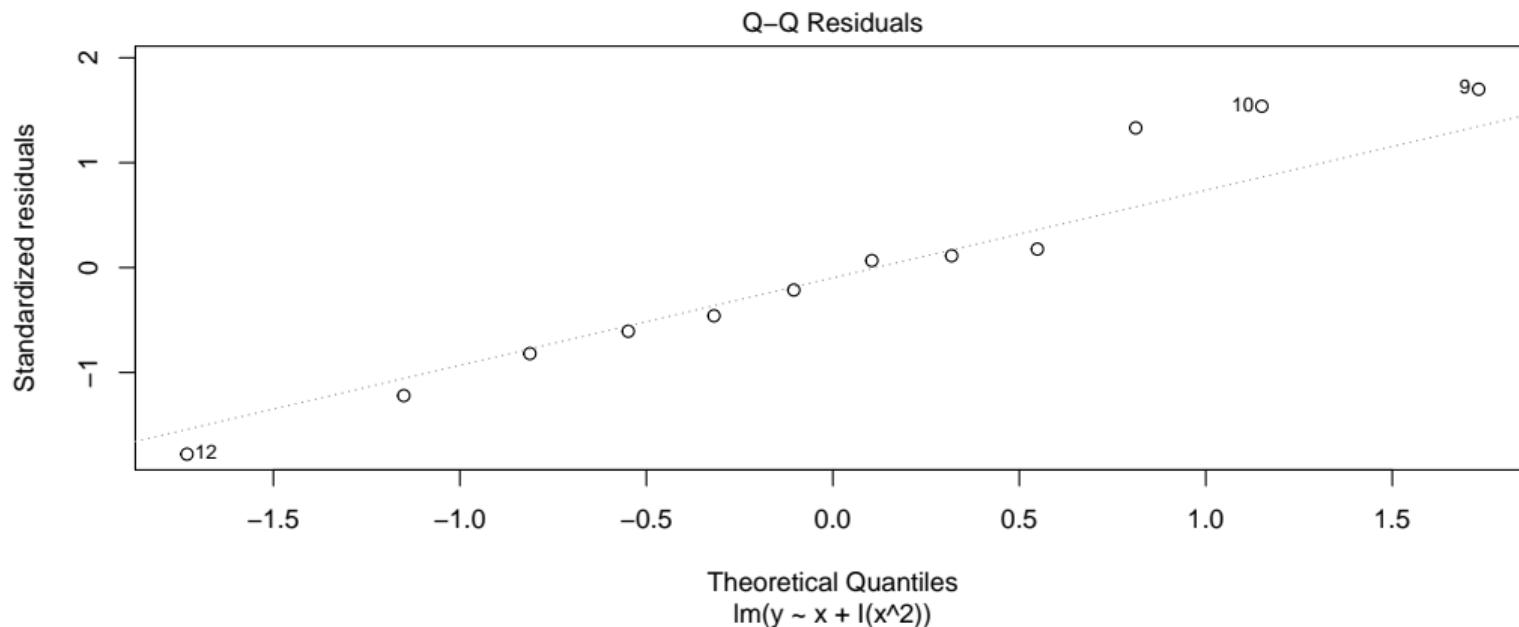
Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 2.296 on 9 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9827, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9789

F-statistic: 255.6 on 2 and 9 DF, p-value: 1.178e-08

```
modelo_2 |> plot(which=2)
```

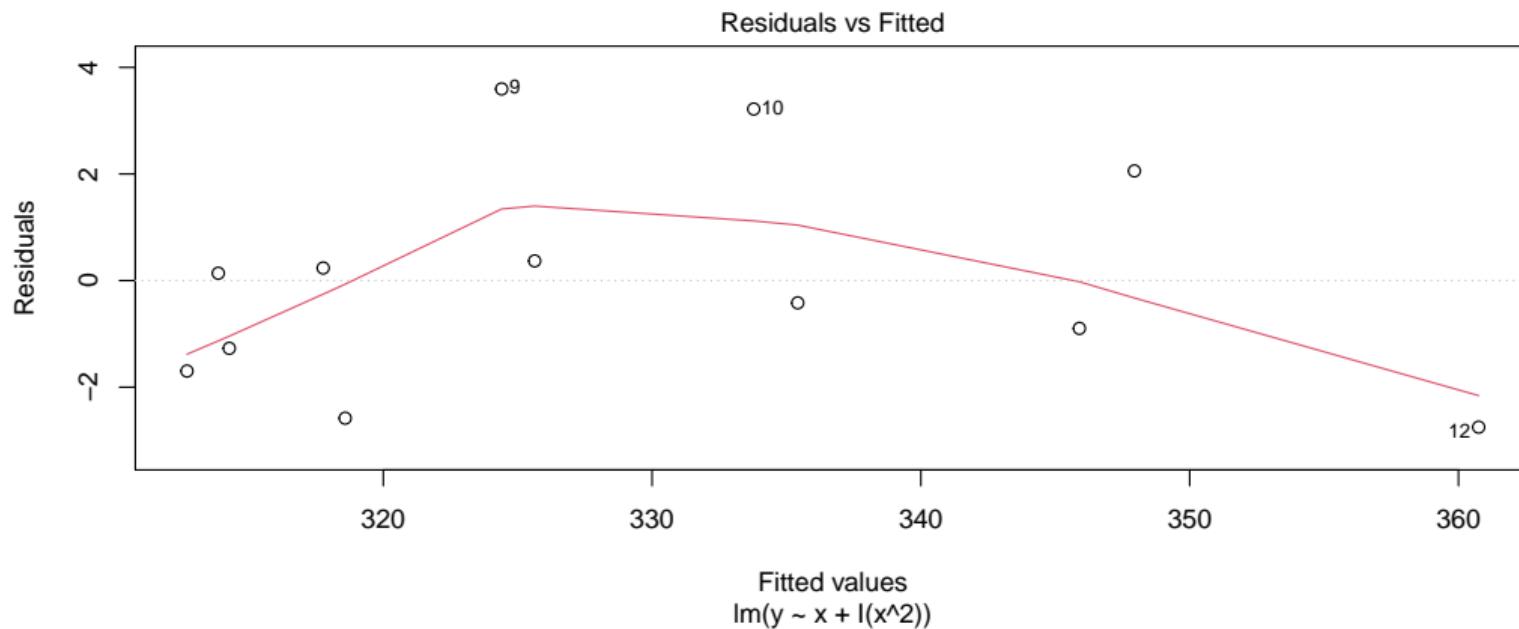


```
modelo_2 |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(modelo_2)
W = 0.93666, p-value = 0.456
```

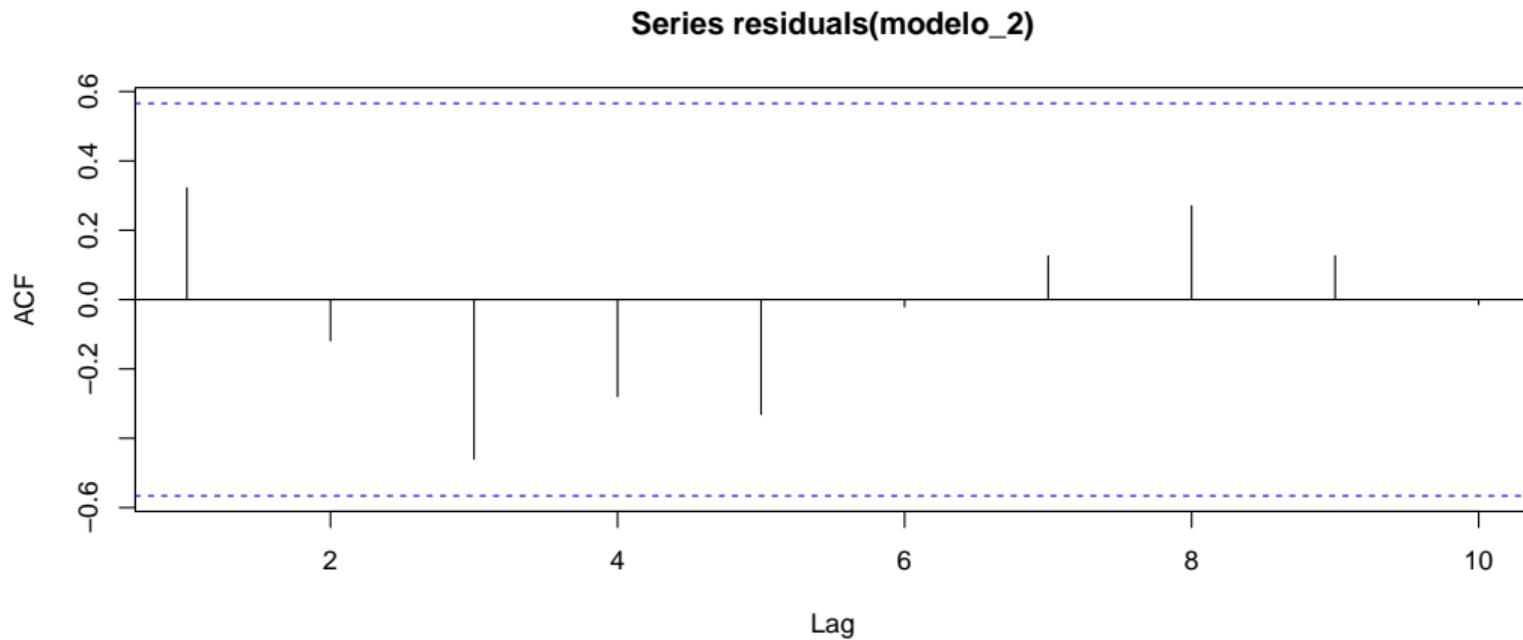
```
modelo_2 |> plot(which=1)
```



```
modelo_2 |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test  
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values  
Chisquare = 0.3497495, Df = 1, p = 0.55425

```
modelo_2 |> residuals() |> TSA::acf()
```



```
modelo_2 |> lmtest::dwtest()
```

Durbin-Watson test

```
data: modelo_2
DW = 1.1074, p-value = 0.003291
alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0
```

```
modelo_2 |> car::vif()
```

```
      x    I(x^2)
19.10714 19.10714
```

```
modelo_2 |> AIC()
```

```
[1] 58.54982
```

**Modelo 3:** Se ejecutará el modelo de polinomios ortogonales segundo orden. Note la ortogonalidad de los polinomios

```
(P1 = 2*(x-mean(x))/25)
```

```
[1] -11  -9  -7  -5  -3  -1   1   3   5   7   9  11
```

```
(P2 = 3*((x-mean(x))/25)**2 - 143/12))
```

```
[1]  55   25     1 -17 -29 -35 -35 -29 -17     1   25  55
```

R escala adicionalmente los polinomios de modo que  $Pj^2 = 1$

```
P1 = P1/sqrt(sum(P1**2))
P2 = P2/sqrt(sum(P2**2))
(data.frame(P1, P2, y) -> datos)
```

	P1	P2	y
1	-0.4599331	0.501828160	350
2	-0.3763089	0.228103709	335
3	-0.2926847	0.009124148	326
4	-0.2090605	-0.155110522	316
5	-0.1254363	-0.264600302	313
6	-0.0418121	-0.319345193	311
7	0.0418121	-0.319345193	314
8	0.1254363	-0.264600302	318
9	0.2090605	-0.155110522	328
10	0.2926847	0.009124148	337
11	0.3763089	0.228103709	345
12	0.4599331	0.501828160	358

Estos mismos polinomios se obtienen con la función poly

```
poly(x,2)[1:nrow(datos),]
```

	1	2
[1,]	-0.4599331	0.501828160
[2,]	-0.3763089	0.228103709
[3,]	-0.2926847	0.009124148
[4,]	-0.2090605	-0.155110522
[5,]	-0.1254363	-0.264600302
[6,]	-0.0418121	-0.319345193
[7,]	0.0418121	-0.319345193
[8,]	0.1254363	-0.264600302
[9,]	0.2090605	-0.155110522
[10,]	0.2926847	0.009124148
[11,]	0.3763089	0.228103709
[12,]	0.4599331	0.501828160

```
sum(poly(x,2)[,1]*poly(x,2)[,2]) # Note la ortogonalidad:
```

```
[1] -7.806256e-18
```

## Ejecutando el modelo y analizando los resultados obtenidos

```
lm(y ~ P1 + P2, datos) -> modelo_3  
modelo_3 |> summary()
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ P1 + P2, data = datos)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-2.7500	-1.3776	-0.1399	0.7911	3.5962

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	329.2500	0.6628	496.769	< 2e-16 ***
P1	13.9234	2.2959	6.064	0.000187 ***
P2	50.0095	2.2959	21.782	4.27e-09 ***

---

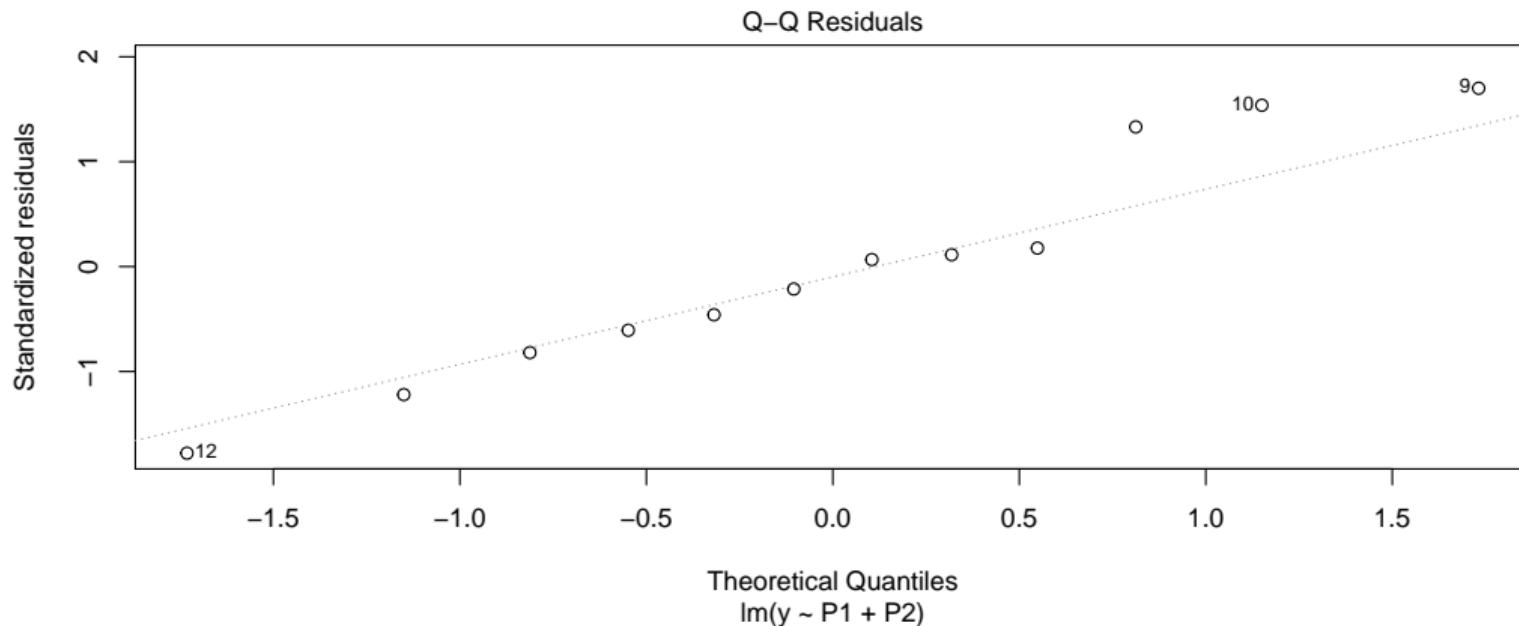
Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 2.296 on 9 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9827, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9789

F-statistic: 255.6 on 2 and 9 DF, p-value: 1.178e-08

```
modelo_3 |> plot(which=2)
```

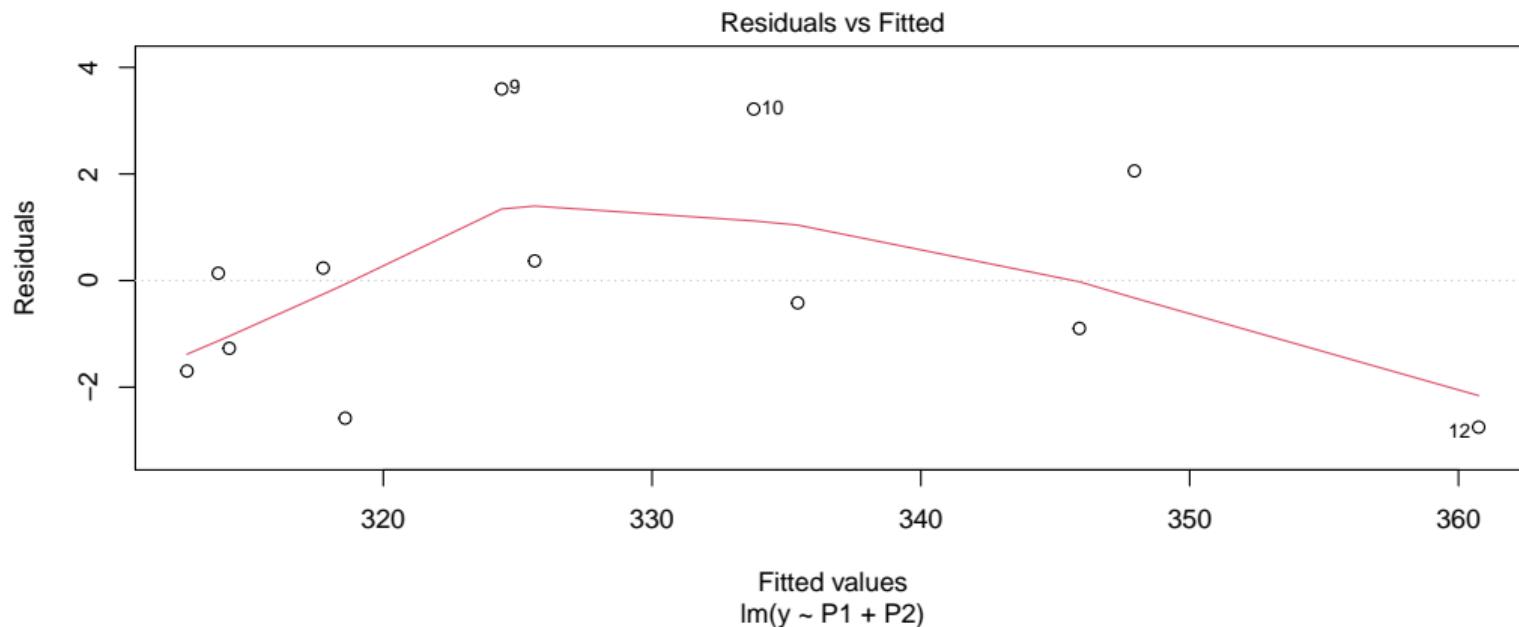


```
modelo_3 |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(modelo_3)
W = 0.93666, p-value = 0.456
```

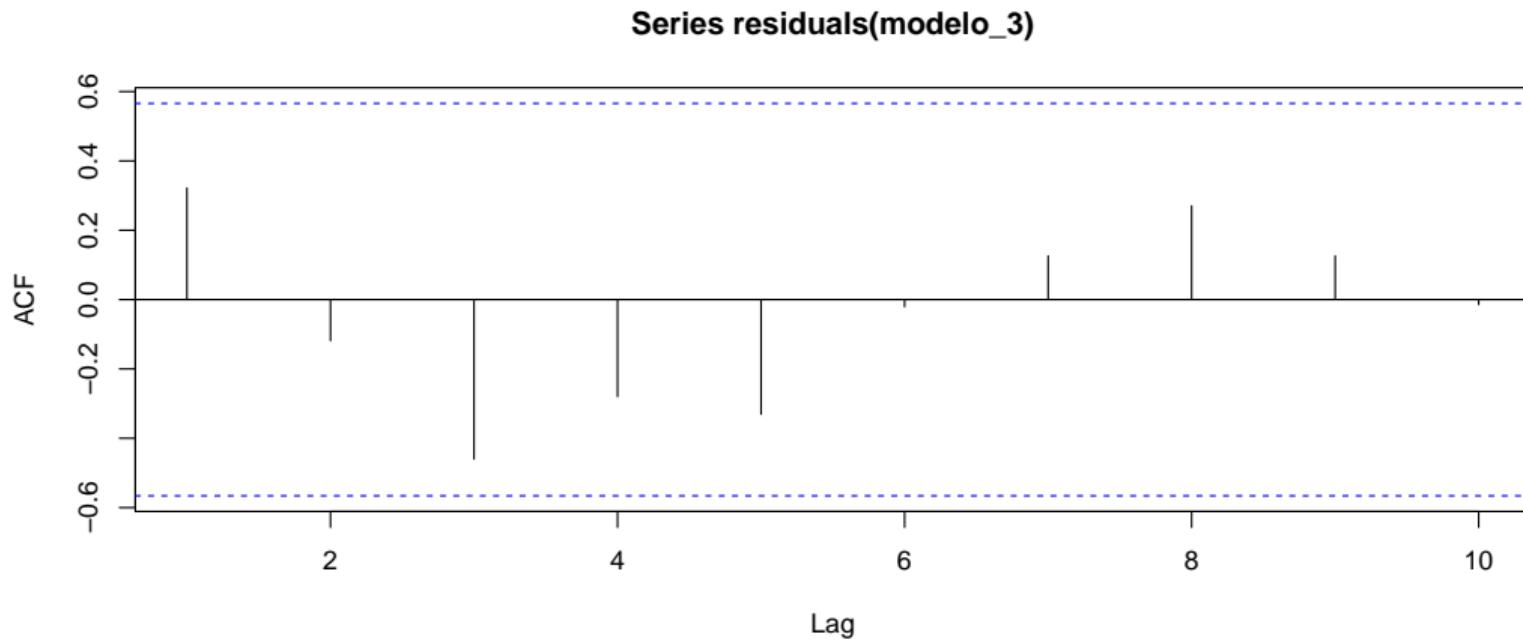
```
modelo_3 |> plot(which=1)
```



```
modelo_3 |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test  
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values  
Chisquare = 0.3497495, Df = 1, p = 0.55425

```
modelo_3 |> residuals() |> TSA::acf()
```



```
modelo_3 |> lmtest::dwtest()
```

Durbin-Watson test

```
data: modelo_3
DW = 1.1074, p-value = 0.003291
alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0
```

```
modelo_3 |> car::vif()
```

P1 P2

1 1

```
modelo_3 |> AIC()
```

[1] 58.54982

**Modelo 4:** Se realiza lo mismo para el modelo de polinomios ortogonales de tercer orden:

```
poly(x,3)[1:nrow(datos),]
```

	1	2	3
[1,]	-0.4599331	0.501828160	-0.45993311
[2,]	-0.3763089	0.228103709	0.04181210
[3,]	-0.2926847	0.009124148	0.29268470
[4,]	-0.2090605	-0.155110522	0.34843417
[5,]	-0.1254363	-0.264600302	0.26480997
[6,]	-0.0418121	-0.319345193	0.09756157
[7,]	0.0418121	-0.319345193	-0.09756157
[8,]	0.1254363	-0.264600302	-0.26480997
[9,]	0.2090605	-0.155110522	-0.34843417
[10,]	0.2926847	0.009124148	-0.29268470
[11,]	0.3763089	0.228103709	-0.04181210
[12,]	0.4599331	0.501828160	0.45993311

```
sum(poly(x,3)[,1]*poly(x,3)[,2])
```

```
[1] -7.806256e-18
```

```
sum(poly(x,3)[,1]*poly(x,3)[,3])
```

```
[1] -2.428613e-17
```

```
sum(poly(x,3)[,2]*poly(x,3)[,3])
```

```
[1] -1.374768e-16
```

```
lm(y ~ poly(x,3), datos) -> modelo_4  
modelo_4 |> summary()
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ poly(x, 3), data = datos)
```

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-1.2883	-0.7263	-0.3003	0.5734	2.0536

Coefficients:

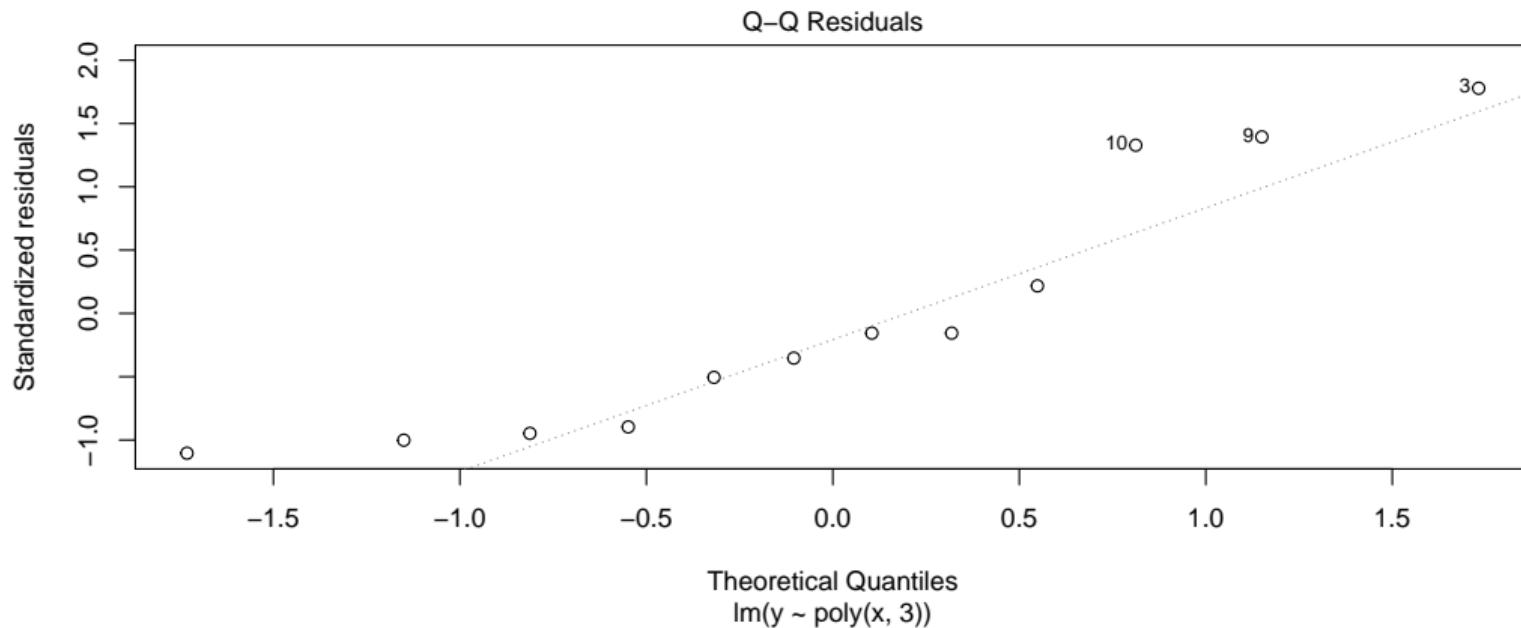
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )							
(Intercept)	329.2500	0.3861	852.811	< 2e-16 ***							
poly(x, 3)1	13.9234	1.3374	10.411	6.28e-06 ***							
poly(x, 3)2	50.0095	1.3374	37.393	2.87e-10 ***							
poly(x, 3)3	-5.7561	1.3374	-4.304	0.0026 **							
---											
Signif. codes:	0	'***'	0.001	'**'	0.01	'*'	0.05	'. '	0.1	' '	1

Residual standard error: 1.337 on 8 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9948, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9928

F-statistic: 508.4 on 3 and 8 DF, p-value: 1.821e-09

```
modelo_4 |> plot(which=2)
```

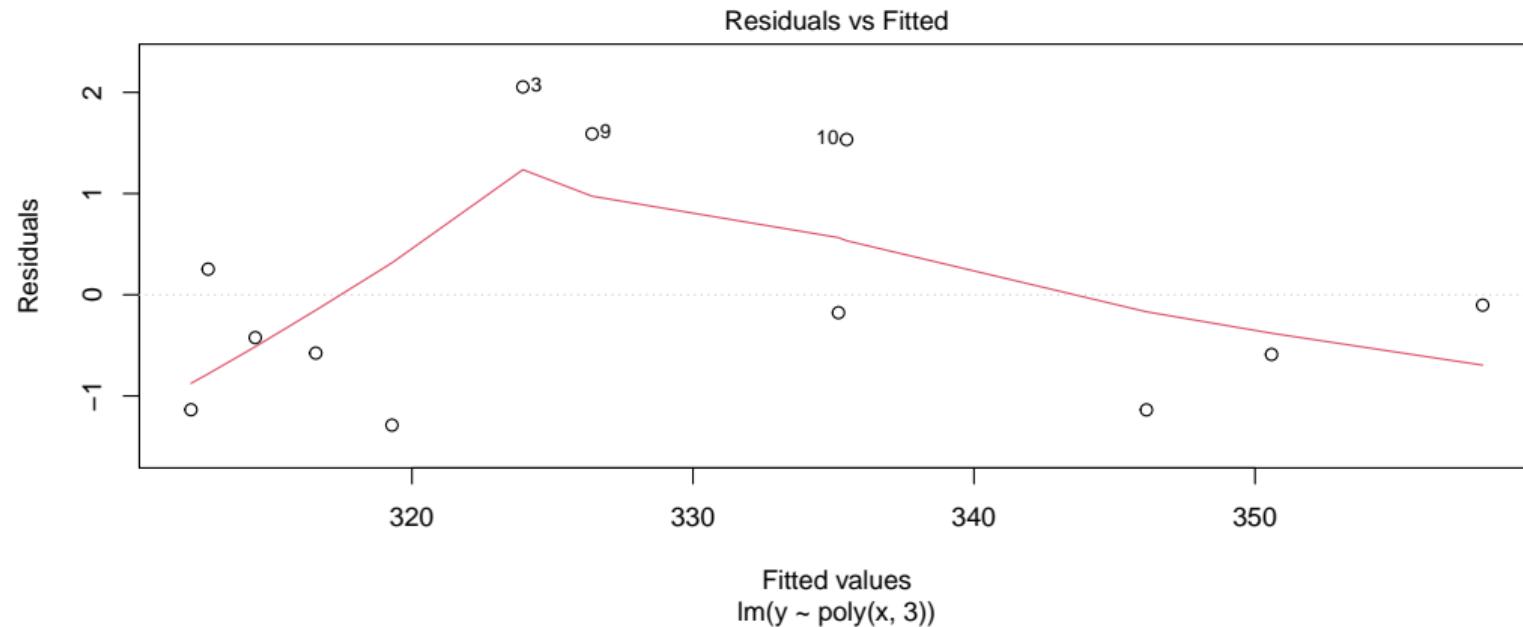


```
modelo_4 |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(modelo_4)
W = 0.8798, p-value = 0.08712
```

```
modelo_4 |> plot(which=1)
```



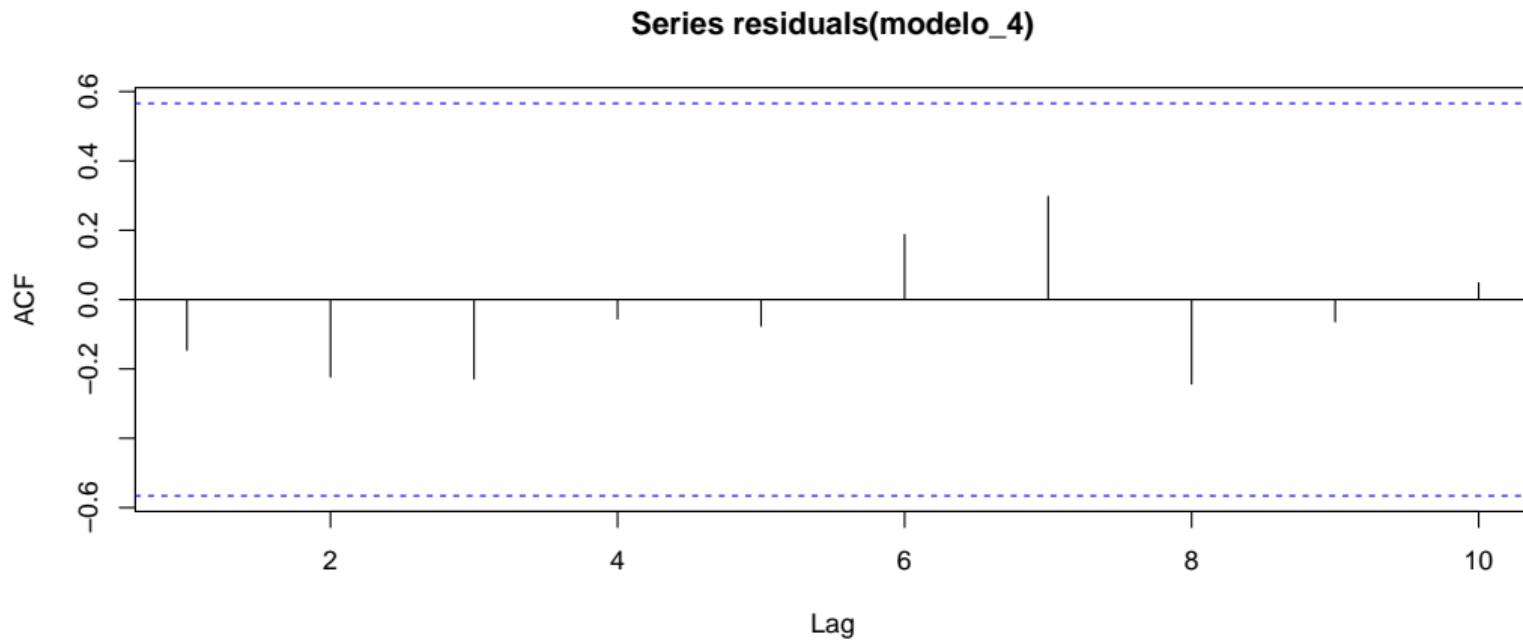
```
modelo_4 |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test

Variance formula: ~ fitted.values

Chisquare = 0.1296415, Df = 1, p = 0.7188

```
modelo_4 |> residuals() |> TSA::acf()
```



```
modelo_4 |> lmtest::dwtest()
```

Durbin-Watson test

```
data: modelo_4
DW = 2.2668, p-value = 0.2355
alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0
```

```
#modelo_4 |> car::vif()
modelo_4 |> AIC()
```

```
[1] 46.16652
```

**Modelo 5:** ¿Y si intentamos un modelo de polinomios ortogonales de cuarto orden?

```
poly(x, 4)[1:nrow(datos), ]
```

	1	2	3	4
[1,]	-0.4599331	0.501828160	-0.45993311	0.3687669
[2,]	-0.3763089	0.228103709	0.04181210	-0.3017184
[3,]	-0.2926847	0.009124148	0.29268470	-0.3687669
[4,]	-0.2090605	-0.155110522	0.34843417	-0.1452718
[5,]	-0.1254363	-0.264600302	0.26480997	0.1340970
[6,]	-0.0418121	-0.319345193	0.09756157	0.3128931
[7,]	0.0418121	-0.319345193	-0.09756157	0.3128931
[8,]	0.1254363	-0.264600302	-0.26480997	0.1340970
[9,]	0.2090605	-0.155110522	-0.34843417	-0.1452718
[10,]	0.2926847	0.009124148	-0.29268470	-0.3687669
[11,]	0.3763089	0.228103709	-0.04181210	-0.3017184
[12,]	0.4599331	0.501828160	0.45993311	0.3687669

```
lm(y ~ poly(x,4), datos) -> modelo_5  
modelo_5 |> summary()
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ poly(x, 4), data = datos)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-1.7276	-0.7905	0.1599	0.6671	1.3325

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	329.2500	0.3533	931.928	< 2e-16 ***
poly(x, 4)1	13.9234	1.2239	11.377	9.09e-06 ***
poly(x, 4)2	50.0095	1.2239	40.862	1.37e-09 ***
poly(x, 4)3	-5.7561	1.2239	-4.703	0.0022 **
poly(x, 4)4	-1.9556	1.2239	-1.598	0.1541

---

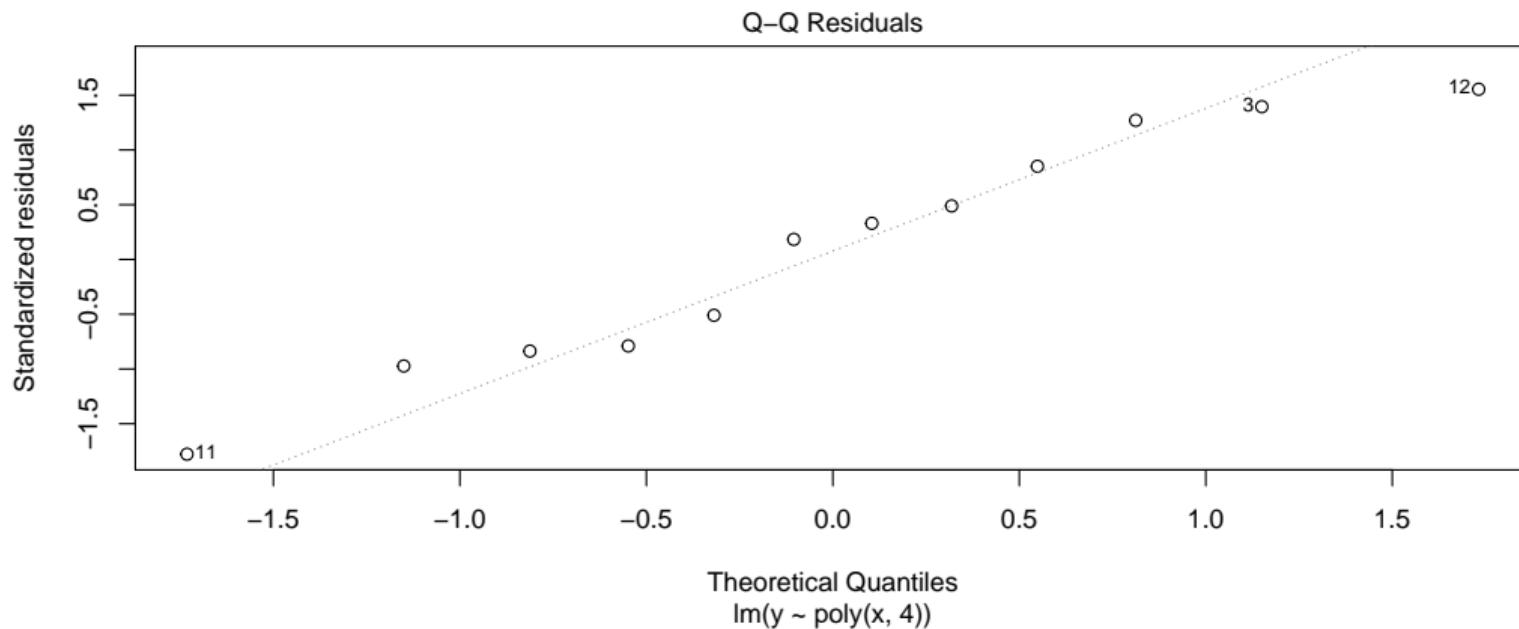
Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 1.224 on 7 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.9962, Adjusted R-squared: 0.994

F-statistic: 455.9 on 4 and 7 DF, p-value: 1.551e-08

```
modelo_5 |> plot(which=2)
```

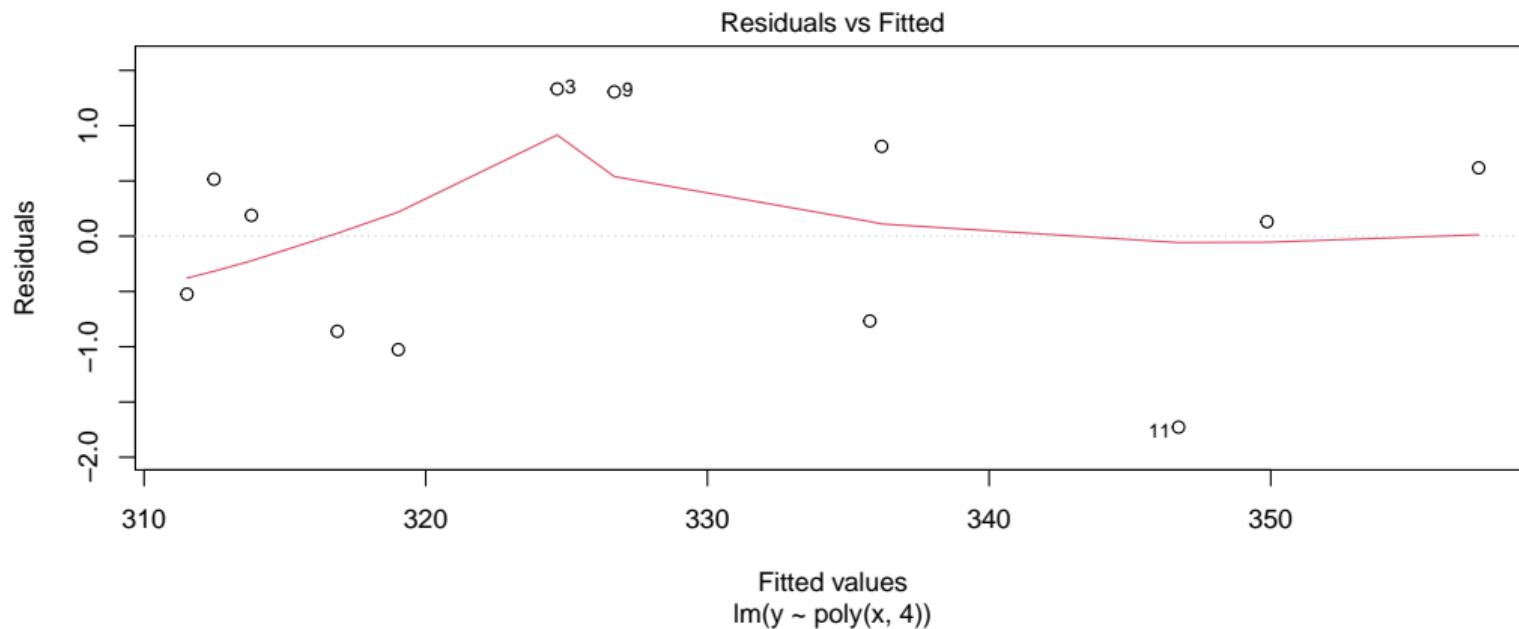


```
modelo_5 |> residuals() |> shapiro.test()
```

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: residuals(modelo_5)
W = 0.95315, p-value = 0.6834
```

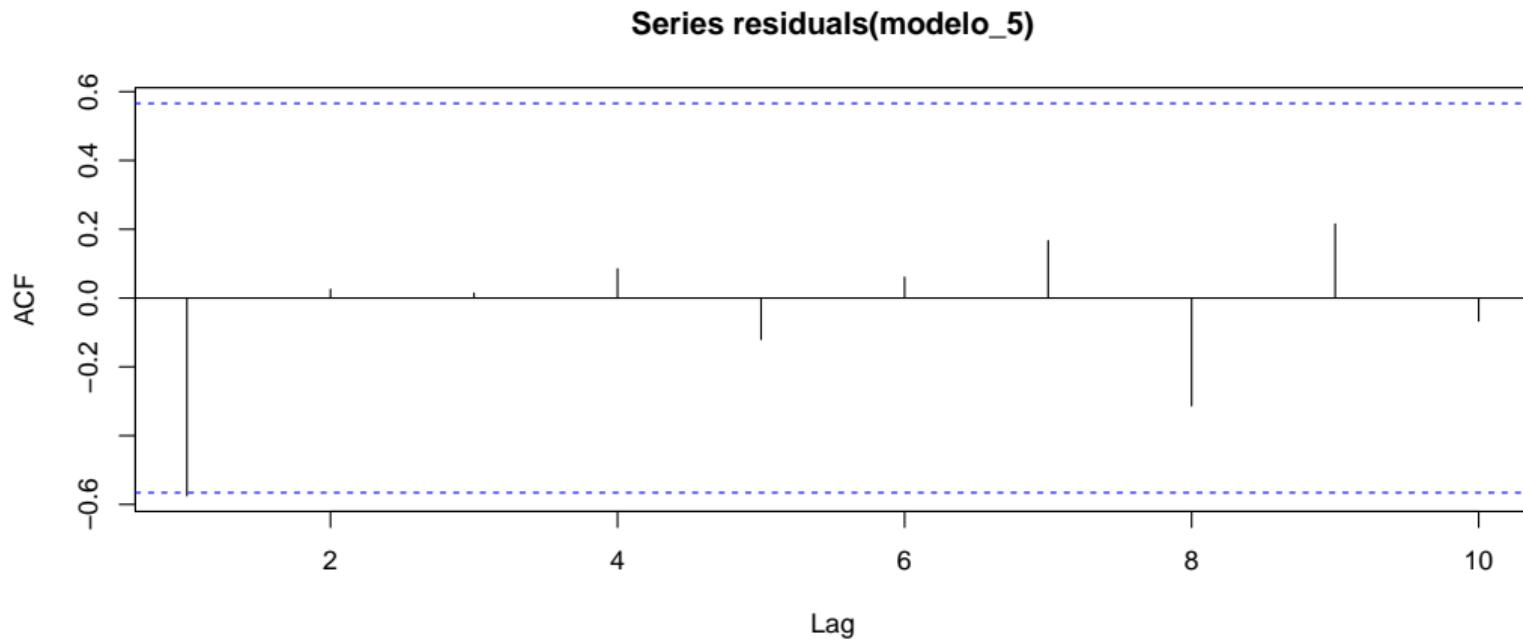
```
modelo_5 |> plot(which=1)
```



```
modelo_5 |> car::ncvTest()
```

Non-constant Variance Score Test  
Variance formula: ~ fitted.values  
Chisquare = 0.2070563, Df = 1, p = 0.64908

```
modelo_5 |> residuals() |> TSA::acf()
```



```
modelo_5 |> lmtest::dwtest()
```

Durbin-Watson test

```
data: modelo_5
DW = 3.1115, p-value = 0.7474
alternative hypothesis: true autocorrelation is greater than 0
```

```
modelo_5 |> AIC()
```

```
[1] 44.43493
```

El modelo de polinomios ortogonales de segundo orden presenta buenos indicadores, a excepción del supuesto de independencia. Si solo se desea utilizar el modelo con fines predictivos, podría ser una opción (revisar en testing).

```
lm(y ~ poly(x,2), datos) -> modelo_3  
c(60,70,84.1,171.9,206.6,280) -> xpred  
modelo_3 |> predict(data.frame('x'=xpred)) -> ypred  
data.frame('x'= c(60,70,84.1,171.9,206.6,280),ypred)
```

	x	ypred
1	60.0	331.1746
2	70.0	327.3694
3	84.1	322.7484
4	171.9	313.5688
5	206.6	319.2509
6	280.0	348.6485

El modelo que cumple con todos los supuestos es el de polinomios ortogonales de tercer orden:

```
lm(y ~ poly(x,3), datos) -> modelo_4  
c(60,70,84.1,171.9,206.6,280) -> xpred  
modelo_4 |> predict(data.frame('x'=xpred)) -> ypred  
data.frame('x'= c(60,70,84.1,171.9,206.6,280),ypred)
```

	x	ypred
1	60.0	330.2010
2	70.0	325.8734
3	84.1	320.8337
4	171.9	313.9933
5	206.6	320.9622
6	280.0	348.4373