

Non-linear Relationships & Potential Problems

Section 3.3

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Outline

1 Polynomial Regression

2 Potential Problems

Two Important Assumptions

1. The **additive** assumptions means that the effect of changes in a predictor X_j on the response Y is independent of the values of the other predictors.
2. The **linear** assumptions means that the change in the response Y due to a one-unit change in X_j is constants, regardless of the value of X_j .

Non-Linear Relationships

- The linear regression model assumes a linear relationship between the response and the predictors.
- The true relationship between the response and the predictors may be non-linear.
- The *polynomial regression* is a very simple way to directly extend the linear model to accommodate non-linear relationships.

Polynomial Regression

- **Polynomial regression** is a form of regression analysis in which the relationship between the predictor x and the response y is modeled as an n^{th} degree polynomial in x .

- Model:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \beta_3 x_i^3 + \cdots + \beta_m x_i^m + \epsilon_i$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

- We need to keep $m < n$
- In R we use `lm(y~poly(x,m))`.
- For more information see: <https://datascienceplus.com/fitting-polynomial-regression-r/>

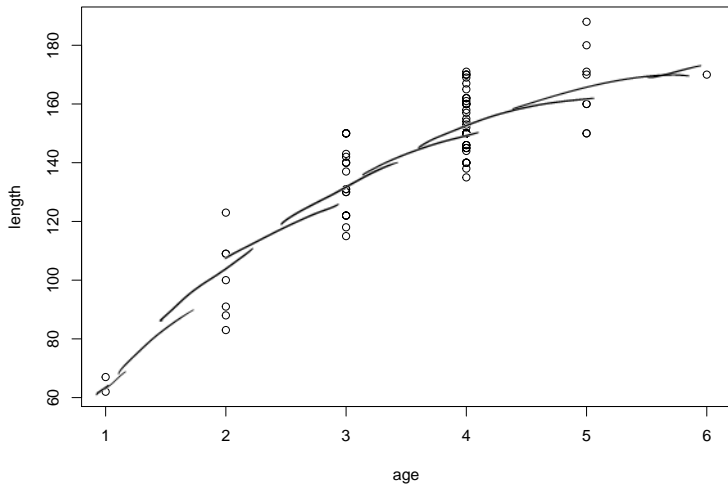
Non-Linear Relationship Example

In 1981, $n = 78$ bluegills were randomly sampled from Lake Mary in Minnesota. The researchers (Cook and Weisberg, 1999) measured and recorded the following data (<https://onlinecourses.science.psu.edu/stat501/sites/onlinecourses.science.psu.edu/stat501/files/data/bluegills/index.txt>):

- Response (y): length (in mm) of the fish
- Potential predictor (x1): age (in years) of the fish

The researchers were primarily interested in learning how the length of a bluegill fish is related to its age.

Scatterplot



Linear Summary

```
> summary(fish.lm)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	62.649	5.755	10.89	<2e-16 ***
age	22.312	1.537	14.51	<2e-16 ***

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

Residual standard error: 12.51 on 76 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.7349, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7314

F-statistic: 210.7 on 1 and 76 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

$$\hat{\text{length}} = 62.649 + 22.312 \times \text{age}$$

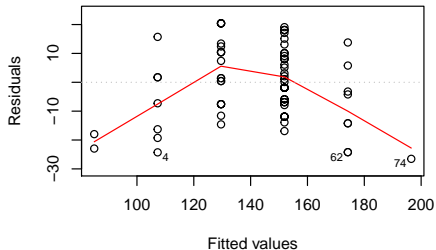
$$RSE = 12.51$$

$$R^2 = 73.14\%$$

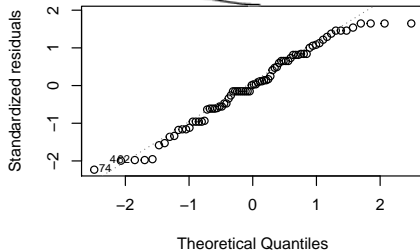
Assumptions Linear, Indep, Normal, Equal variance

Linear

Residuals vs Fitted

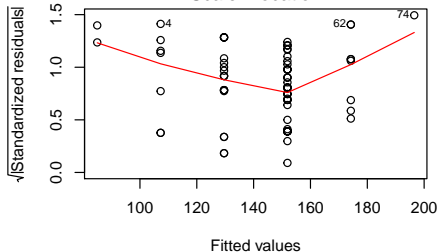


Normal Q-Q

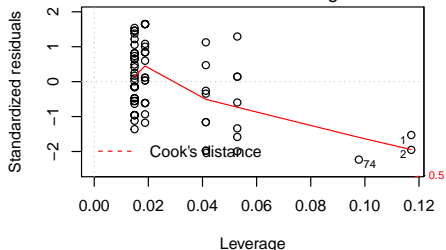


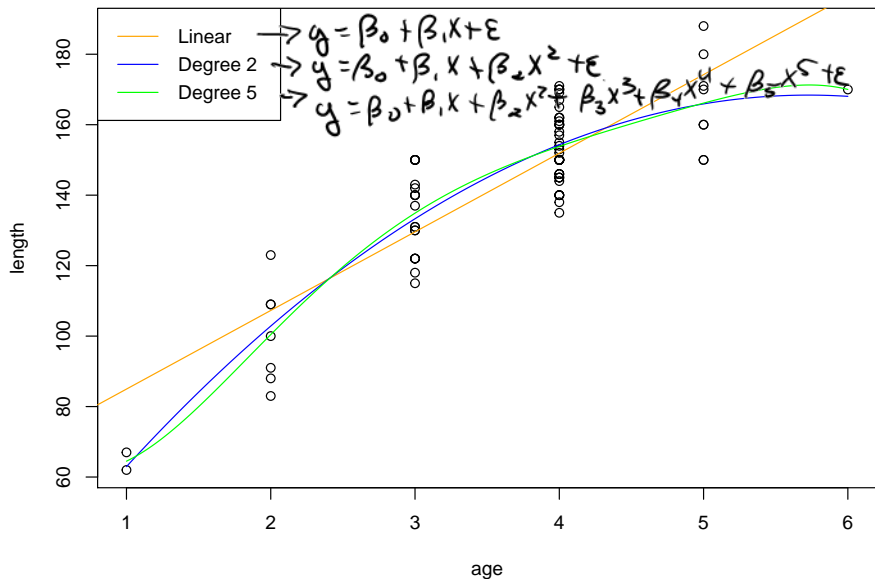
Equal Variance

Scale-Location



Residuals vs Leverage





Polynomial Regression R

$\overset{\text{degree}}{\downarrow}$
> fish.lm2 = lm(length~poly(age,2),data = index)
> summary(fish.lm2)

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	143.603	1.235	116.290	< 2e-16 ***
poly(age, 2)1	181.565	10.906	16.648	< 2e-16 ***
poly(age, 2)2	-54.517	10.906	-4.999	3.67e-06 ***

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

Residual standard error: 10.91 on 75 degrees of freedom

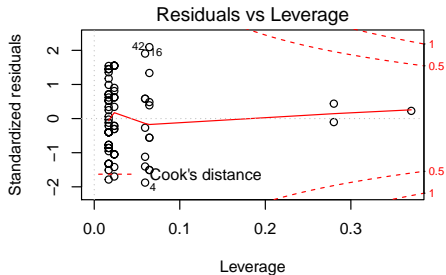
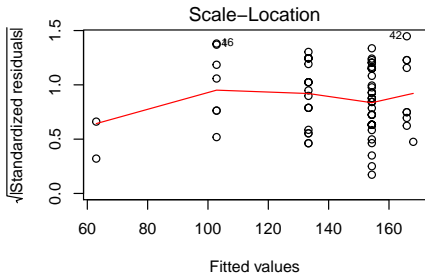
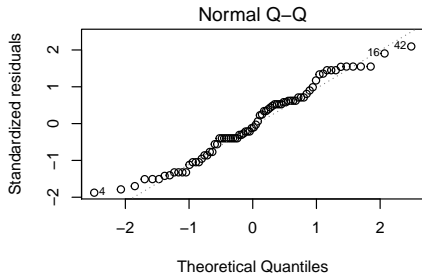
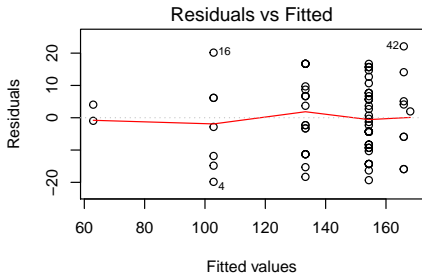
Multiple R-squared: 0.8011, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7958

F-statistic: 151.1 on 2 and 75 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

$$\hat{\text{length}} = 143.603 + 181.565 \text{ age} - 54.517 \text{ age}^2$$

$$RSE = 10.91$$

$$adj R^2 = 79.6\%$$



Cubic Regression

```
> #Cubic Polynomial
> fish.lm3 = lm(length~poly(age,3), data = index)
> summary(fish.lm3)
```

response
predictor
degree

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	143.603	1.243	115.544	< 2e-16	***
poly(age, 3)1	181.565	10.976	16.541	< 2e-16	***
poly(age, 3)2	-54.517	10.976	-4.967	4.25e-06	***
poly(age, 3)3	2.234	10.976	0.203	0.839	

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

Residual standard error: 10.98 on 74 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.8012, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7932

F-statistic: 99.44 on 3 and 74 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

$$\hat{\text{length}} = 143.603 + 181.565 \text{age} - 54.517 \text{age}^2 + 2.234 \text{age}^3$$

Lab Questions

We will use the Boston data for these questions. Make sure you load the MASS library.

```
library(MASS)
```

1. Perform a linear regression on medv (response variable) onto lstat (predictor). What is the adjusted R^2 for this model?

a) 0.5441

☒ b) 0.5432

c) 0.0002

d) 0.95

2. Draw a scatterplot between medv (y) and lstat (x). Does it appear linear?

a) Yes

☒ b) No

In R type in

```
par(mfrow = c(2,2))  
plot(fit.lm)
```

3. Do we see a pattern in the residuals?

a) Yes

b) No

If there is a pattern then the linear model may not be the best model.

4. Type in R and run the summary:

```
fit.lm2 = lm(medv ~ poly(lstat,2), data = Boston).
```

What is the adjusted R^2 for this model?

a) 0.0002

b) 0.055

c) 0.6407

d) 0.6393

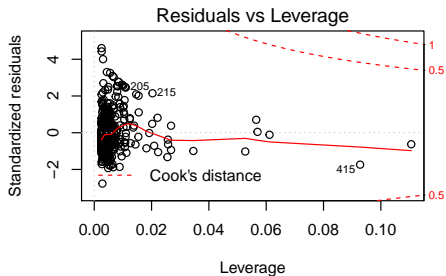
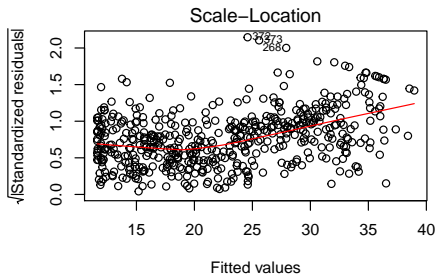
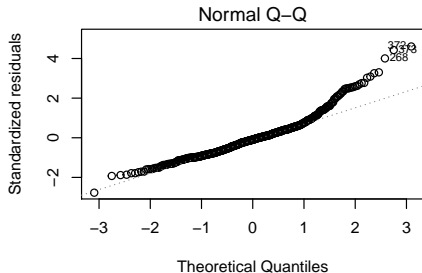
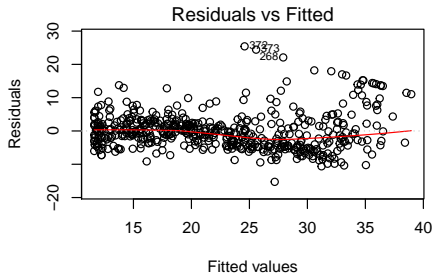
5. Run a cubic model. What is the adjusted R^2 ?

a) 0.6558

b) 0.6578

c) 0.0002

d) 0.054



Some Warnings About Polynomial Models

- The following list is from <https://online.stat.psu.edu/stat462/node/158/>.
- The fitted model is more reliable when it is built on a larger sample size.
- Consider how large the size of the predictors(s) will be when incorporating higher degree terms as this may cause numerical overflow for the statistical software being used.
- Do not go strictly by low p -values to incorporate a higher degree term, but rather just uses these to support your model only if the resulting residual plots looks reasonable.
- As a standard practice if you have an n^{th} degree polynomial, always include the each X^j such that $j < n$.

Potential Problems in Linear Regression

1. Non-linearity of the response-predictor relationships.
2. Correlation of error terms.
3. Non-constant variance of error terms.
4. Outliers.
5. High-leverage points.
6. Collinearity.

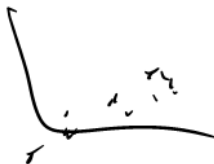
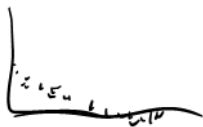
We have talked already about how to overcome some of these problems.



Original Scatter-plot	Type of plot and Transformation	Modified Scatter-plot
	<p>← looks like $y = x^2$</p> <p>transform by changing (x, y) into (x, \sqrt{y})</p> <p>→</p>	
	<p>← looks like $y = \log x$</p> <p>transform by changing (x, y) into (x, e^y)</p> <p>→</p>	
	<p>← looks like $y = e^x$</p> <p>transform by changing (x, y) into $(x, \log y)$</p> <p>→</p>	

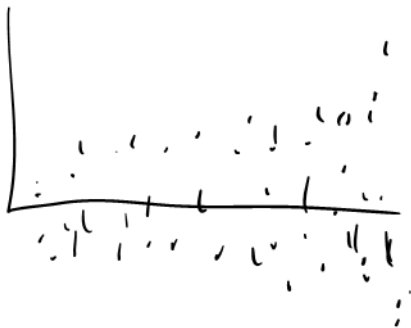
Correlation of Error Terms

- Assumption of the linear regression model is that the error terms, $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n$ are uncorrelated.
- For example if ϵ_i is positive provides little or no information about the sign of ϵ_{i+1} .
- If there is correlation among the error terms then the estimated standard errors will tend to underestimate the true standard errors. This results in narrower confidence and prediction intervals.
- Time series data is an example of correlation among the error terms.
- Residual plot is best way to tell if there is correlation.



Non-constant Variance of Error Terms

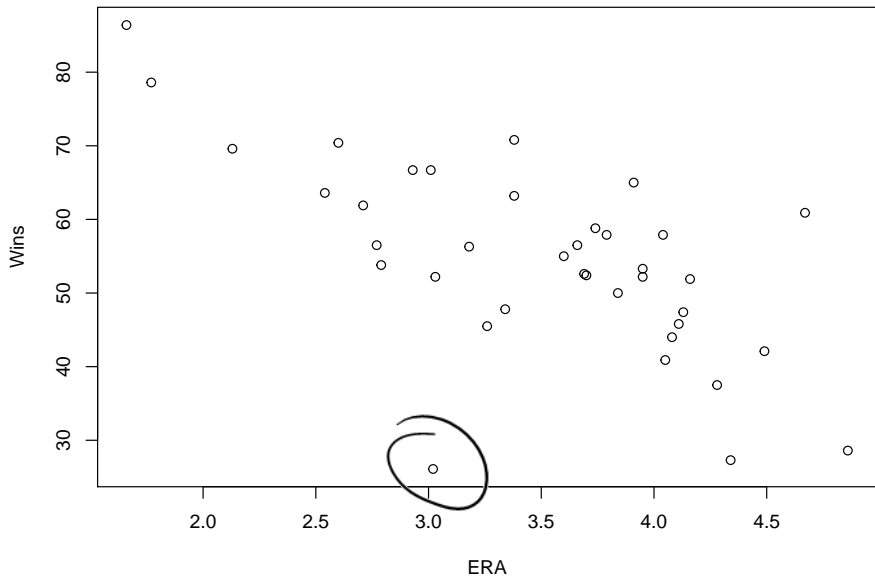
- **Heterscedasticity** is where the variances of the error terms increase with the value of the response. This will appear as a *funnel shape* in the residual plot.
- Possible solution is to transform the Y using $\log(Y)$ or \sqrt{Y} .



Outliers

- An **outlier** is a point for which y_i is far from the value predicted by the model.
- Outliers can have an effect on the estimated regression parameters, RSE and R^2 .
- Scatterplot and residual plot would be the best to detect outliers.

Pitcher's Wins With ERA



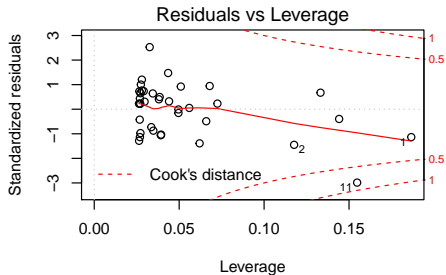
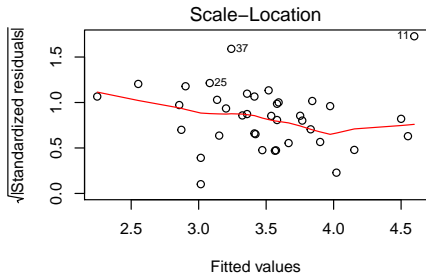
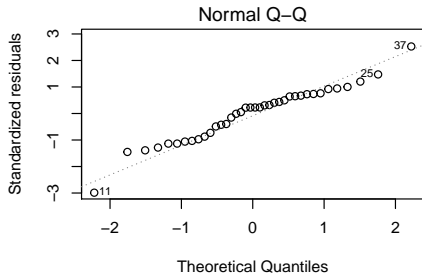
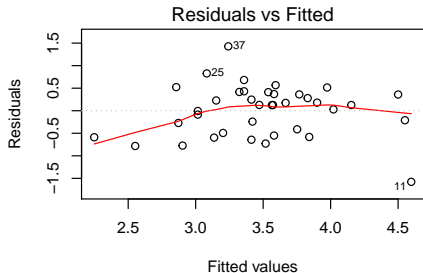

```
> era.lm = lm(ERA ~ Wins,data = Era)
> summary(era.lm)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	5.614231	0.405423	13.848	5.43e-16	***
Wins	-0.038957	0.007229	-5.389	4.56e-06	***

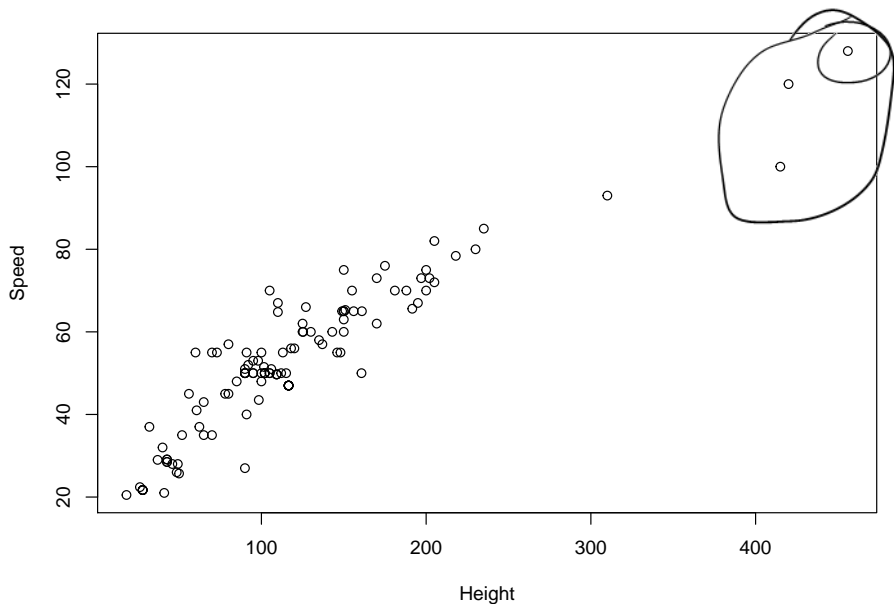
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

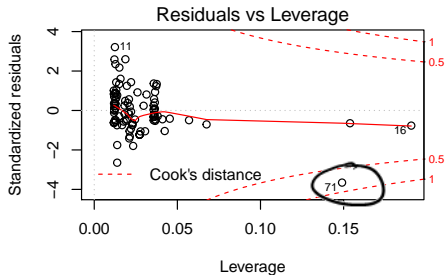
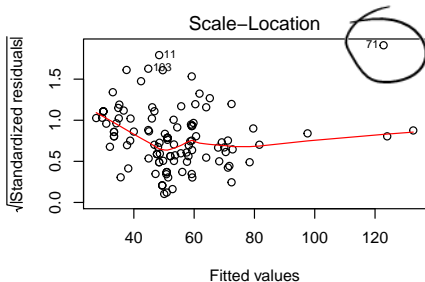
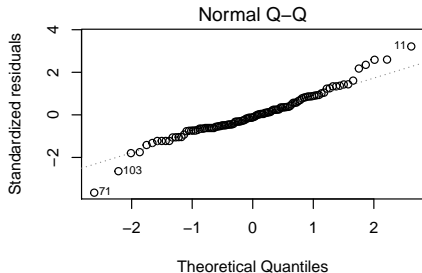
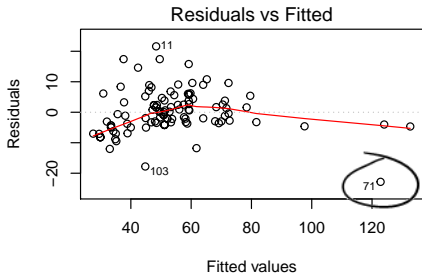
Residual standard error: 0.5744 on 36 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.4465, Adjusted R-squared: 0.4311
F-statistic: 29.04 on 1 and 36 DF, p-value: 4.557e-06



High Leverage Points

- **High leverage points** have an unusual value for X .
- High leverage observations tend to have a sizable impact on the estimated regression line.
- Can be determined by scatterplots for a simple linear regression.
- In order to quantify an observation's leverage we compute the **leverage statistic**.
- In R we can use the [Residuals vs Leverage](#) to see if there are high leverage observations.





Collinearity

- **Collinearity** refers to the situation in which two or more predictor variable are closely related to one another.
- In regression this will cause difficulty to separate out the individual effects of collinear variables on the response.
- This reduces the accuracy of the estimates of the regression coefficients, it causes the standard error for $\hat{\beta}_j$ to grow.
- The **power** of the hypothesis test for $H_0 : \beta_i = 0$ - probability of correctly detecting a nonzero coefficient - is reduced by collinearity.

Detecting Multiconllinearity

- Check the correlation matrix. In R: `cor()`.
- The variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF is the ratio of the variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$ when fitting the full model divided by the variance of $\hat{\beta}_j$ if fit on its own.
 - ▶ The smallest possible value for VIF is 1.
 - ▶ If VIF is more than 10, multicollinearity is strongly suggested.
 - ▶ The VIF for each variable can be computed using the formula:

$$VIF(\hat{\beta}_j) = \frac{1}{1 - R_{X_j|X_{-j}}^2},$$

Where $R_{X_j|X_{-j}}^2$ is the R^2 from a regression of X_j onto all of the other predictors.

- ▶ In R studio install the "fmsb" package. The function is `VIF()`.

```
> library(fmsb)
> VIF(stock2.lm)
[1] 9.768829
```