

# 3 Other Considerations

## 3.1 Categorical Predictors

What to do when  $X_i$  are categorical?

So far we have assumed all variables in our linear model are quantitative.

For example, consider building a model to predict highway gas mileage from the mpg data set.

```
head(mpg)
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 11
##   manufacturer model displ  year  cyl trans      drv   cty   hwy fl   class
##   <chr>          <chr> <dbl> <int> <int> <chr>    <chr> <int> <int> <chr> <chr>
## 1 audi          a4     1.8  1999    4 auto(l5)  f     18    29 p     compa
## 2 audi          a4     1.8  1999    4 manual(m5) f     21    29 p     compa
## 3 audi          a4     2    2008    4 manual(m6) f     20    31 p     compa
## 4 audi          a4     2    2008    4 auto(av)  f     21    30 p     compa
## 5 audi          a4     2.8  1999    6 auto(l5)  f     16    26 p     compa
## 6 audi          a4     2.8  1999    6 manual(m5) f     18    26 p     compa
```

```
library(GGally)
```

```
mpg %>%
  select(-model) %>% # too many models
  ggpairs() # plot matrix
```

↑ makes  $\frac{p(p-1)}{2}$  plots to look at each pair of variables



looks at type of variables and chooses appropriate plot type.

To incorporate these categorical variables into the model, we will need to introduce  $k - 1$  dummy variables, where  $k$  = the number of levels in the variable, for each qualitative variable.

For example, for `drv`, we have 3 levels: 4, f, and r. ←  $k=3$

$$x_{i1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i\text{th car is front wd} \\ 0 & \text{if } i\text{th car is NOT front wd.} \end{cases}$$

$$x_{i2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i\text{th car is RWD} \\ 0 & \text{if } i\text{th car is NOT RWD} \end{cases}$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \varepsilon_i = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \varepsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th car is FWD} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_2 + \varepsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th car is RWD} \Rightarrow \\ \beta_0 + \varepsilon_i & \text{if } i\text{th car is 4WD} \end{cases}$$

$\beta_0$  = avg hwy mpg for 4WD cars

$\beta_1$  = difference in average hwy mpg btw/ FWD & 4WD

$\beta_2$  = difference in average hwy mpg btw/ RWD & 4WD.

```
lm(hwy ~ displ + cty + drv, data = mpg) %>%
  summary()
```

←  $k$  creates dummy variables for us.

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = hwy ~ displ + cty + drv, data = mpg)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -4.6499 -0.8764 -0.3001  0.9288  4.8632
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)   3.42413    1.09313   3.132  0.00196 **
## displ        -0.20803    0.14439  -1.441  0.15100
## cty           1.15717    0.04213  27.466 < 2e-16 ***
## ## drvf      2.15785    0.27348   7.890 1.23e-13 ***
## ## drvr      2.35970    0.37013   6.375 9.95e-10 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 1.49 on 229 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.9384, Adjusted R-squared:  0.9374
## F-statistic: 872.7 on 4 and 229 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

## 3.2 Extensions of the Model

The standard regression model provides interpretable results and works well in many problems. However it makes some very strong assumptions that may not always be reasonable.

\* *linear model*  
*constant error variance*  
*uncorrelated errors ( $\epsilon_i/X_i$ ).*

### Additive Assumption

The additive assumption assumes that the effect of each predictor on the response is not affected by the value of the other predictors. What if we think the effect should depend on the value of another predictor?

```
lm(sales ~ TV + radio + TV*radio, data = ads) %>%
  summary()
```

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = sales ~ TV + radio + TV*radio, data = ads)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -6.3366 -0.4028  0.1831  0.5948  1.5246
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  6.750e+00  2.479e-01  27.233  <2e-16 ***
## TV           1.910e-02  1.504e-03  12.699  <2e-16 ***
## radio        2.886e-02  8.905e-03   3.241  0.0014 **
## TV:radio     1.086e-03  5.242e-05  20.727  <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.9435 on 196 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.9678, Adjusted R-squared:  0.9673
## F-statistic: 1963 on 3 and 196 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

interaction term

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + \epsilon$$

$$= \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 X_2) X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon$$

changes w/  $X_2$  values

$\beta_3$  is significantly different from zero

significant relationship.

$R^2 = 0.89$  without the interaction  
 big increase  $\Rightarrow$  better fitting model

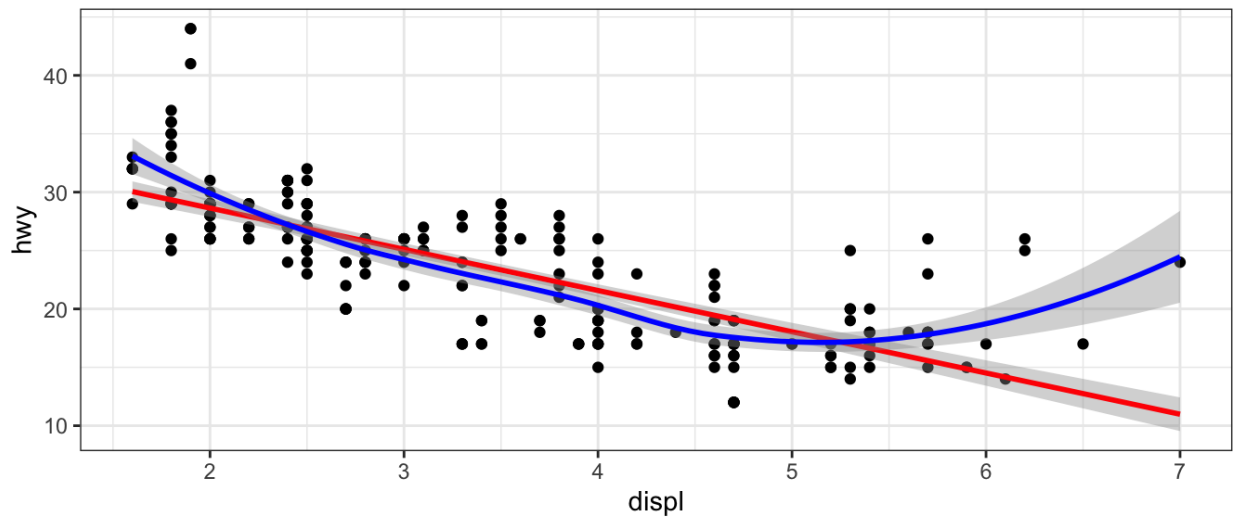
$\rightarrow$  "an increase of \$1000 in radio advertising will be associated w/ an increase in sales of  $(\hat{\beta}_2 + \hat{\beta}_3 \times TV) \times 1000$ "  
 $29 + 1.1 \times TV$  units.

WARNING: if we add interaction term be sure to keep original variables in the model, otherwise very confusing to interpret results.

## Linearity Assumption

The linear regression model assumes a linear relationship between response and predictors. In some cases, the true relationship may be non-linear.

```
ggplot(data = mpg, aes(displ, hwy)) +  
  geom_point() +  
  geom_smooth(method = "lm", colour = "red") +  
  geom_smooth(method = "loess", colour = "blue")
```



How to include nonlinear terms in model?

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \epsilon$$

```
lm(hwy ~ displ + I(displ^2), data = mpg) %>%
summary()
```

$I(\cdot)$  identity function

```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = hwy ~ displ + I(displ^2), data = mpg)
##
## Residuals:
##      Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
## -6.6258 -2.1700 -0.7099  2.1768 13.1449
##
## Coefficients:
##              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept)  49.2450     1.8576  26.510 < 2e-16 ***
## displ       -11.7602     1.0729 -10.961 < 2e-16 ***
## I(displ^2)    1.0954     0.1409   7.773 2.51e-13 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 3.423 on 231 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared:  0.6725, Adjusted R-squared:  0.6696
## F-statistic: 237.1 on 2 and 231 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

WARNING: be careful throwing in higher level polynomial powers → will lead to overfitting? Very bad prediction on the edges of the space.

### 3.3 Potential Problems

#### 1. Non-linearity of response-predictor relationships

diagnosis:  
plot residuals vs. <sup>or vs. each predictor</sup> fitted values  
see pattern.

solution:  
- add polynomial term OR - transform predictor  
→ add interaction

#### 2. Correlation of error terms

diagnosis:  
understanding how data is collected  
time series? spatial data?

solution:  
use models formulated for those correlated errors (not this class).

#### 3. Non-constant variance of error terms

diagnosis:  
plot residuals vs. fitted values  
see funnel pattern  $\leftarrow \rightarrow$

solution:  
transform  $Y$  - try  $\log Y$  or  $\sqrt{Y}$

#### 4. Outliers

diagnosis:  
plot data

solution:  
is your data wrong? i.e. error in collection?  
fix it

otherwise - maybe you are missing a predictor?  
(robust statistics/regression)

errors  
correlated  
w/  $X$

# 4 $K$ -Nearest Neighbors

In Ch. 2 we discuss the differences between *parametric* and *nonparametric* methods. Linear regression is a parametric method because it assumes a linear functional form for  $f(X)$

- easy to fit
- easy to interpret
- can do hypothesis test

make strong assumptions, what if they are wrong?  
- parametric methods perform poorly.

A simple and well-known non-parametric method for regression is called  $K$ -nearest neighbors regression (KNN regression).

Given a value for  $K$  and a prediction point  $x_0$ , KNN regression first identifies the  $K$  training observations that are closest to  $x_0$  ( $\mathcal{N}_0$ ). It then estimates  $f(x_0)$  using the average of all the training responses in  $\mathcal{N}_0$ ,

$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{x_i \in \mathcal{N}_0} y_i$$

value to be predicted  $\nearrow$   $\hat{f}(x_0)$   
 $\nwarrow$  # of neighbors  $K$   
training data  $\nearrow$   $y_i$

```
> library(caret) # package for knn
set.seed(445) #reproducibility
```

fake data

```
x <- rnorm(100, 4, 1) # pick some x values
y <- 0.5 + x + 2*x^2 + rnorm(100, 0, 2) # true relationship
df <- data.frame(x = x, y = y) # data frame of training data
```

```
for (k in seq(2, 10, by = 2)) {
  knn_model <- knnreg(y ~ x, data = df, k = k) # fit knn model
  ggplot(df) +
    geom_point(aes(x, y)) +
    geom_line(aes(x, predict(knn_model, df)), colour = "red") +
    ggtitle(paste("KNN, k = ", k)) +
    theme(text = element_text(size = 30)) -> p

  print(p) # knn plots
}
```

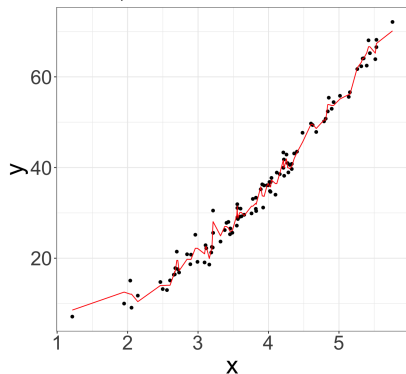
$k = 2, 4, 6, 8, 10$   
formula just like  $lm$  specify  $k$

compare to linear model

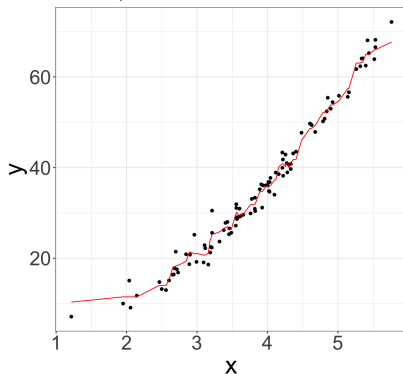
```
ggplot(df) +
  geom_point(aes(x, y)) +
  geom_line(aes(x, lm(y ~ x, df)$fitted.values), colour = "red") +
  ggtitle("Simple Linear Regression") +
  theme(text = element_text(size = 30)) # slr plot
```

wiggly

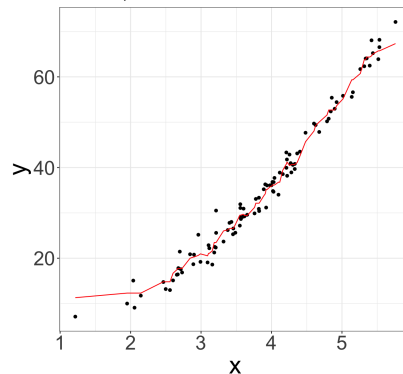
KNN, k = 2



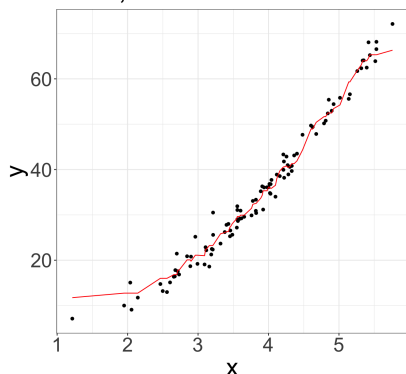
KNN, k = 4



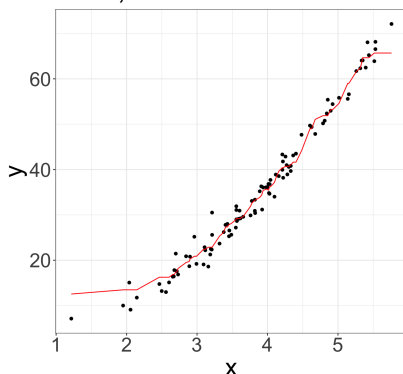
KNN, k = 6



KNN, k = 8

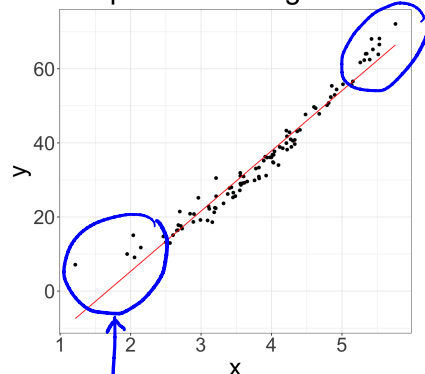


KNN, k = 10



smooth

Simple Linear Regression



missing non-linear nature of relationship

$k \uparrow \Rightarrow$  smoother fit.