

**A bit of a primer on
Nonlinear relationships and
transformations**

When the points in a scatterplot exhibit a linear pattern and the residual plot does not reveal any problems with the linear fit, the least-squares line is an appropriate way to summarize the relationship between x and y . A linear relationship is easy to interpret, departures from the line are easily detected, and using the line to predict y from our knowledge of x is straightforward. Often, though, a scatterplot or residual plot exhibits a curved pattern, indicating a more complicated relationship between x and y . Despite the greater complication, the general ideas of nonlinear fits are the same as you have experienced with straight line fits:

What you have done with straight line fits	What you will do with non-straight line fits
Capture linear relationships using a linear function	Capture nonlinear relationships using a non-linear function
Predict the value of a response variable, informed by the value of an explanatory variable	Predict the value of a response variable, informed by the value of an explanatory variable
Assess whether the linear function is an appropriate summary description of the data, using residual plots	Assess whether the non-linear function is an appropriate summary description of the data, using residual plots

A data analyst might decide to use nonlinear fits for one of two different reasons. First, inspections of a scatterplot and residual plot may indicate a clear non-linear pattern, one which could be more effectively summarized using a non-linear elementary mathematical function from algebra. As we will soon see, we have a variety of elementary functions to choose from. Second, the scientific community may have settled on the nature of the relationship between x and y , and the data analysis task is only to estimate the parameters of the function by finding the nonlinear best-fit curve. In the description to follow, it will be convenient to separate non-linear fits into 2 general categories: (1) those fits accomplished using polynomial functions, and (2) those fits accomplished using what are known as transformations of variables.

Polynomial regression

In the article “Quantifying spatiotemporal overlap of Alaskan brown bears and people” (Journal of Wildlife Management [2005]: 810-817), the investigators were concerned about human activity in the presence of foraging bears. Their specific concern was that sport fishing and boating might be displacing bears from sufficient access to salmon due to the presence of humans and their loud watercraft. Part of their research involved documenting the fishing activity of brown bears (*Ursus arctos*) through time.

Date (June 1 = 1)	Bear usage Bear-hr/day	Date (June 1 = 1)	Bear usage Bear-hr/day	Date (June 1 = 1)	Bear usage Bear-hr/day
11	11.3	24	11.3	40	22.0
12	15.1	25	18.4	41	26.0
13	6.6	27	16.2	44	10.5
14	12.9	28	19.5	45	18.6
15	12.1	31	35.8	46	21.1
17	18.1	32	37.1	49	11.9
18	20.9	33	45.7	50	13.7
19	17.6	36	34.8	51	13.7
20	11.0	37	25.6	54	6.3
21	24.6	38	26.7	55	1.8

The scatterplot in the Figure displays the relationship between bear usage (bear-hours / day) and date (in days, 1 = June 1st) in 2003 at Wolverine Creek and Cove, Alaska.

It is immediately clear from the pattern of points that no best-fit line can do a reasonable job of describing the relationship between x and y . The points in the scatterplot appear to rise, level off near day 30 (June 30), and then fall as the days move through the month of July. It seems clear that the relationship between the amount of bear usage of Wolverine

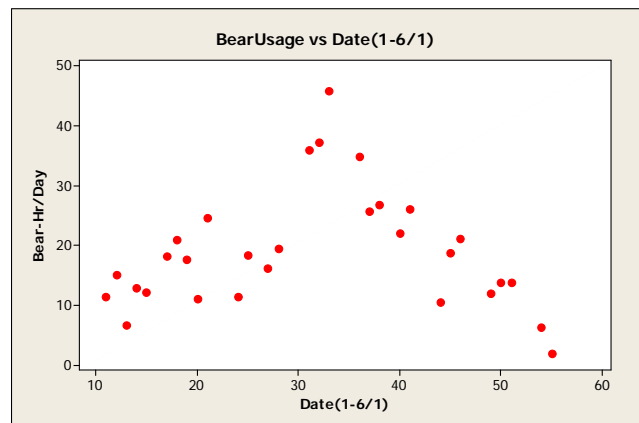


Figure 1

Creek and Cove and time is more complex than is captured by a linear relation. The interpretation of the slope of a best fit line is that as the explanatory variable changes by 1 unit, on average the response variable changes by a constant amount equal to the slope of the best-fit line. It does not appear from these data that a constant average increase in bear usage exists. Rather, it appears that the change in the y variable varies with x ; that is, the amount of change in y per unit change in x is a function.

Quadratic functions, of course, exhibit this rise / level off / fall sort of appearance. It would seem that a quadratic function of the form $\hat{y} = a + b_1x + b_2x^2$ is a more reasonable description of the pattern of points than a straight-line model. That is, the values of the coefficients a , b_1 , and b_2 in this function must be selected to obtain a good fit to the data. (Note that the choice of the symbols for the coefficients is consistent with straight-line relationships, not with the typical algebraic description of a quadratic function, $y = f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$.) As is true of linear functions, algebra will enable one to initially interpret the graph and coefficients of a quadratic function:

- The sign of the coefficient of the quadratic term, b_2 , indicates whether the quadratic curve opens up or down
- The extreme (maximum in this case) value occurs where $x = -\frac{b_1}{2b_2}$
- The extreme (maximum in this case) value is $y = f\left(-\frac{b_1}{2b_2}\right)$

What are the best choices for the values of a , b_1 , and b_2 ? In fitting a line to data, we used the principle of least squares to guide our choice of slope and intercept. Least squares can be used to fit a quadratic function as well. The deviations, $y - \hat{y}$, are still represented by vertical distances in the scatterplot, but now they are vertical distances from the points to a parabola (the graph of a quadratic function) rather than to a line, as shown in Figure 2. We then choose values for the coefficients in the quadratic function so that the sum of squared deviations is as small as possible.

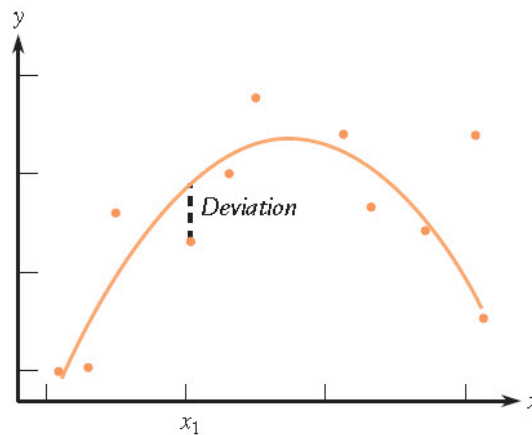


Figure 2

For a quadratic regression, the least squares estimates of a , b_1 and b_2 are those

values that minimize the sum of squared deviations, $\sum (y - \hat{y})^2$, where

$$\hat{y} = a + b_1x + b_2x^2.$$

For quadratic regression, a measure that is useful for assessing fit is $R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{Resid}}}{SS_{\text{To}}}$

where $SS_{\text{Resid}} = \sum (y - \hat{y})^2$. The measure R^2 is defined in a way similar to r^2 for

simple linear regression and is interpreted in a similar fashion. The notation r^2 is used only with linear regression to emphasize the relationship between r^2 and the correlation coefficient, r , in the linear case. The general expressions for computing the least-squares

estimates are somewhat complicated, so we must rely on a statistical software package or graphing calculator to do the computations for us.

Part of the Minitab output from fitting a quadratic regression to these data is shown in Figure 3:

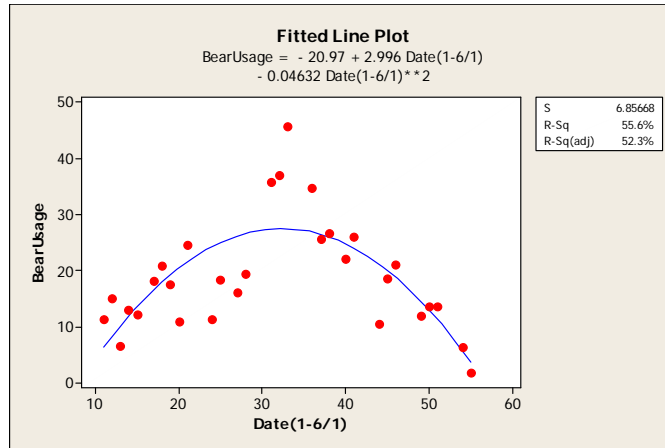


Figure 3: Quadratic regression

The least squares coefficients are: $a = -20.9671$ $b_1 = 2.9958$ $b_2 = -0.0463$, and the least squares quadratic equation is: $\hat{y} = -20.9671 + 2.9958x - 0.0463x^2$.

If a least-squares line is fit to these data, it is not surprising that the line does not do a good job of describing the relationship ($r^2 = 0.000001$, and $s_e = 10.099$). Both the scatterplot and the residual plot show a distinct curved pattern. A plot showing the curve and the corresponding residual plot for the quadratic regression are given in Figure 4 below. Notice that there is no strong pattern in the residual plot for the quadratic case, as there was in the linear case. For the quadratic regression, $R^2 = 0.556$ (as opposed to essentially zero for the least squares line). This means that 55.6% of the variability in the bear prevalence can be explained by an approximate quadratic relationship between bear prevalence and date of observation.

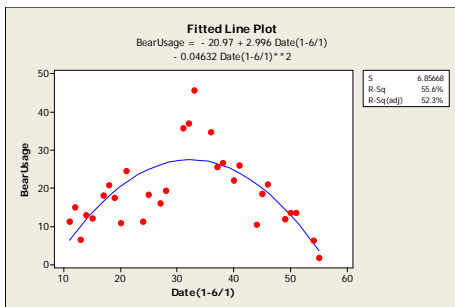


Figure 4(a): Quadratic regression

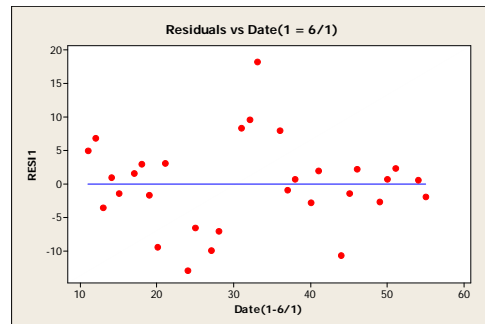


Figure 4(b): Quadratic residuals

Linear regression and quadratic regression are special cases of polynomial regression. A polynomial regression curve is described by a function of the form:

$$\hat{y} = a + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3x^3 + \dots + b_kx^k .$$

Recall that $p(x) = a + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3x^3 + \dots + b_kx^k$ is referred to as a k th degree polynomial. The case of $k = 1$ results in linear regression ($\hat{y} = a + b_1x$) and $k = 2$ yields a quadratic regression ($\hat{y} = a + b_1x + b_2x^2$). A quadratic curve has only one bend (see Figure 5(a) below.)

A less frequently encountered special case is for $k = 3$, where $\hat{y} = a + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3x^3$, which is called a cubic regression curve. While quadratic curves have only a single bend, cubic curves tend to have two bends, as shown in Figure 5(c) below.

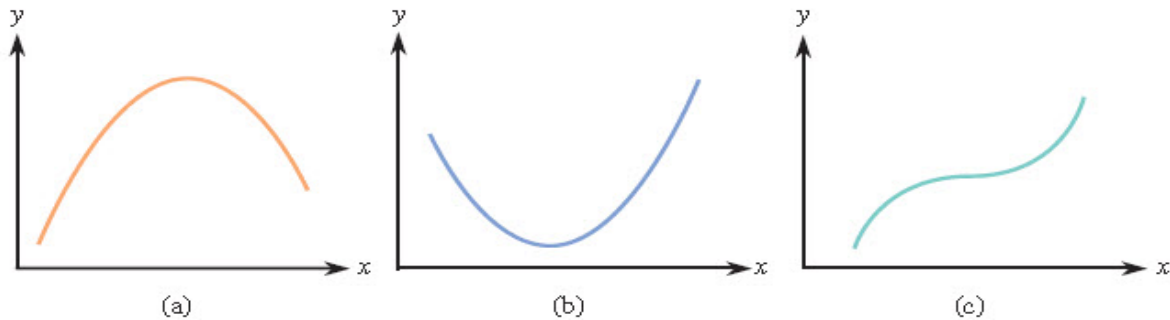


Figure 5

A cubic fit was performed in the article, “Perceiving musical time” (Music Perception: An Interdisciplinary Journal [1990]:213-251). Twenty-three experienced music researchers and composers were asked to listen to a solo piano piece, comprised of 18 segments. The piece was described in the article as “...atonal with a pitch structure organized according to the principles of 12-note serialism...based on proportions derived from the Fibonacci series.” Their data for the 18 segments are shown below:

Actual Location	Estimated Location	Actual Location	Estimated Location	Actual Location	Estimated Location
0.84	0.84	0.51	0.54	0.23	0.27
0.81	0.76	0.48	0.39	0.21	0.24
0.79	0.50	0.45	0.44	0.18	0.27
0.71	0.51	0.28	0.56	0.17	0.20
0.68	0.49	0.28	0.41	0.15	0.10
0.65	0.53	0.24	0.24	0.12	0.03

After listening to the piece twice, the musicians were given copies of different sections of the musical score and asked to locate the relative position of the segments in the piece. As an example, if the musician thought a section of music occurred three-fourths of the way through the piece, he or she would indicate 0.75. The “Estimated Location” is the median of the values given by the subjects in the study.

Figure 6 presents a scatterplot of these data. The relationship between x and y does not appear to be linear – it seems to have a bend in it. In the light of this, one might try using a quadratic regression to describe the relationship between the estimated and actual relative positions of the sections of the musical piece. JMP was used to fit a quadratic regression function and to compute the corresponding residuals. The least-squares quadratic regression is:

$$\hat{E} = 0.0244 + 1.1523A - 0.4657A^2$$

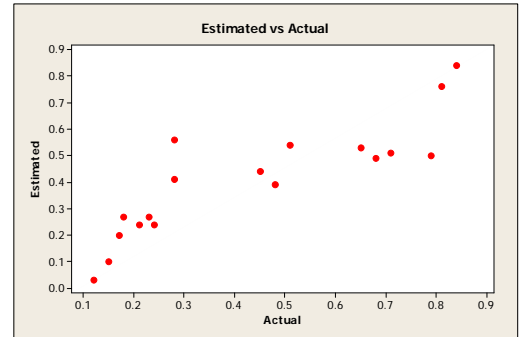


Figure 6: Music scatterplot

A plot of the quadratic regression curve and the corresponding residual plot are shown in Figure 7. Notice that the residual plot in Figure 7(b) has brought out a pattern we didn’t notice in the scatterplot before. This capability of residual plots to bring out the worst in graphs is one of the reasons we use them. In this case the residual plot shows a curved pattern between the residuals and x – not something we like to see in a residual plot! Looking again at the scatterplot of Figure 6, we see that a cubic function might be a better choice than the quadratic function; assisted by the residual plot, we now see what appears to be two “bends” in the curved relationship – one at around $x = 0.3$ and another around $x = 0.7$.

JMP was used to fit a cubic regression, resulting in the curve shown in Figure 8(a). The cubic regression is: $\hat{E} = -0.6284 + 6.959A - 14.3823A^2 + 9.6594A^3$.

The cubic regression report and the corresponding residual plots for the quadratic and cubic fits are shown below. The plots of the cubic fits do not reveal any troublesome patterns that would suggest we need to consider a choice other than cubic regression. And other good news is that R^2 has increased to 0.88, also suggesting the cubic fit is better than the quadratic.

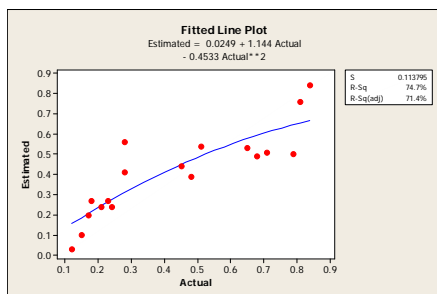


Figure 7(a): Quadratic fit

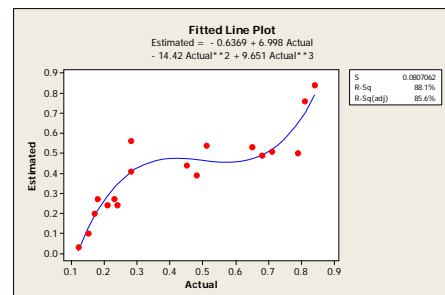


Figure 8(a): Cubic fit

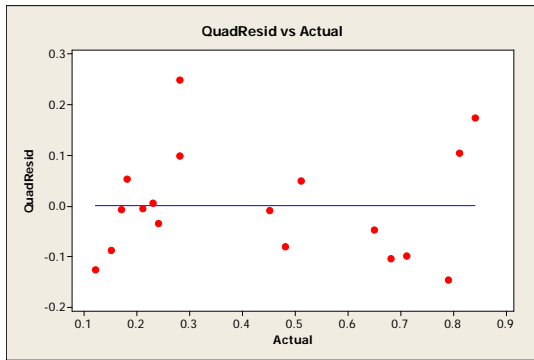


Figure 7(b): Quadratic residual plot

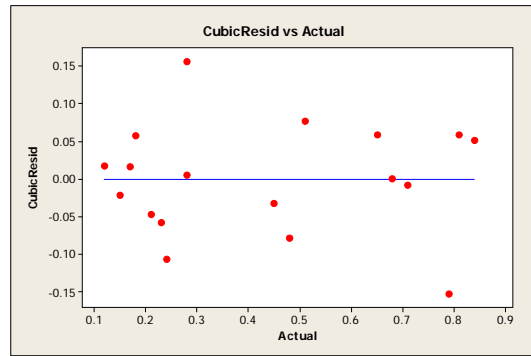


Figure 8(b): Cubic residual plot

The investigators’ inspection of the original scatterplot suggested to them that the subjects’ judgments of the relative positions of the musical segments were fairly close to the actual positions at the beginning and end of the musical piece, but not so in the middle. They felt this might be due to a greater sense by the subjects of musical progress in the beginning and near the end of the piece, whereas the central part of the piece is “something of a mixture, where different ideas are combined and juxtaposed, so that the sense of goal-directed musical progress is weakened.”

Transformations

In general, our strategy for performing nonlinear fits using transformations is to find a way to transform the x and/or y values so that a scatterplot of the transformed data has a linear appearance. A **transformation** (sometimes called a re-expression) involves using a simple function of a variable in place of the variable itself. For example, instead of trying to describe the relationship between x and y , it might be easier to describe the relationship between \sqrt{x} and y or between x and $\log(y)$. And, if we can describe the relationship between, say, \sqrt{x} and y , we will still be able to predict the value of y for a given x value. In addition, the interpretation of the slope is not only possible but reasonable. Common transformations involve taking square roots, logarithms, or reciprocals. To introduce you to the mechanics of using transformations, we will consider a square root transformation.

River Water Velocity and Distance from Shore

As fans of white-water rafting know, a river flows more slowly close to its banks (because of friction between the river bank and the water). To study the nature of the relationship between water velocity and the distance from the shore, data were gathered on velocity (in centimeters per second) of a river at different distances (in meters) from the bank. Suppose that the resulting data were as follows:

Distance	.5	1.5	2.5	3.5	4.5	5.5	6.5	7.5	8.5	9.5
Velocity	22.00	23.18	25.48	25.25	27.15	27.83	28.49	28.18	28.50	28.63

A graph of the data exhibits a curved pattern, as seen in both the scatterplot and the residual plot from a linear fit (see Figures 9(a) and 9(b)).

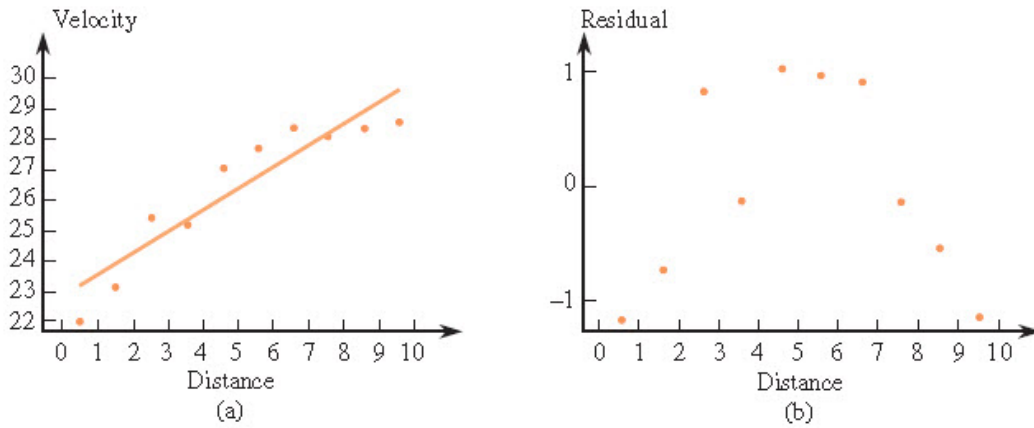


Figure 9: Plots for the data
 (a) scatterplot of the river data; (b) residual plot from linear fit.

Let's try transforming the x values by replacing each x value by its square root. We define

$$x' = \sqrt{x}$$

The resulting transformed data are given in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Original and transformed data of the river velocity

Original Data		Transformed Data	
x	y	x'	y
.5	22.00	0.7071	22.00
1.5	23.18	1.2247	23.18
2.5	25.48	1.5811	25.48
3.5	25.25	1.8708	25.25
4.5	27.15	2.1213	27.15
5.5	27.83	2.3452	27.83
6.5	28.49	2.5495	28.49
7.5	28.18	2.7386	28.18
8.5	28.50	2.9155	28.50
9.5	28.63	3.0822	28.63

Figure 10(a) shows a scatterplot of y versus x' (or equivalently y versus \sqrt{x}). The pattern of points in this plot looks linear, and so we can fit a least-squares line using the transformed data.

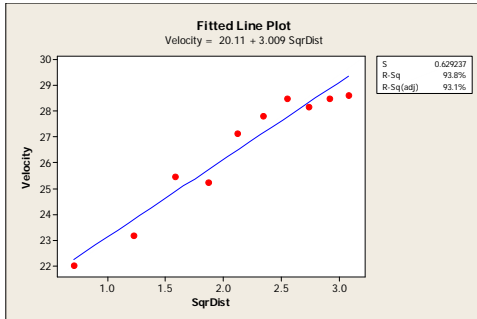


Figure 10(a)

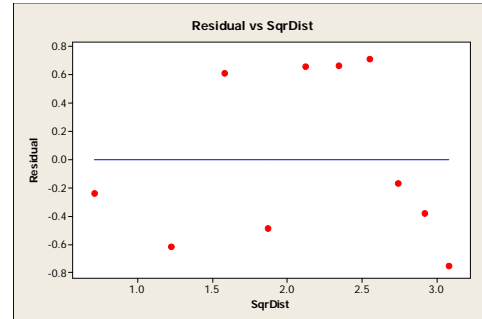


Figure 10(b)

Figure 10: Plots for the transformed river data:
(a) scatterplot of y versus x' ; (b) residual plot

Minitab output from this regression is shown below. The residual plot in Figure 10(b) shows no indication of a pattern. The resulting regression equation is:

$\hat{y} = 20.1 + 3.01x'$ or, equivalently, $\hat{y} = 20.1 + 3.01\sqrt{x}$. The values of r^2 and s_e (see the

JMP output) indicate that a line is a reasonable way to describe the relationship between y and x' . To predict velocity of the river at a distance of 9 meters from shore, we first compute $x' = \sqrt{x} = \sqrt{9} = 3$ and then use the sample regression line to obtain a prediction of y :

The regression equation is
Velocity = 20.1 + 3.01 SqrDist

Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	T	P
Constant	20.1102	0.6097	32.99	0.000
SqrDist	3.0085	0.2726	11.03	0.000

S = 0.629237 R-Sq = 93.8% R-Sq(adj) = 93.1%

Figure 11

$$\hat{y} = 20.1 + 3.01x' = 20.1 + 3.01(3) = 29.13.$$

More Transformations

In the previous example, transforming the x values using the square root function worked well. We will now consider other transformations of variables. It is convenient to separate the transformations into two categories, for reasons that will become clear below:

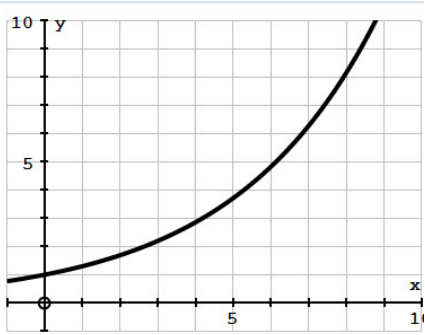
- Situations where the explanatory variable only is transformed
- Situations where the response variable is transformed

While there is only one linear function, and only one description of the average change in y per unit change in x – constant – there are different patterns of values for nonlinear functions :

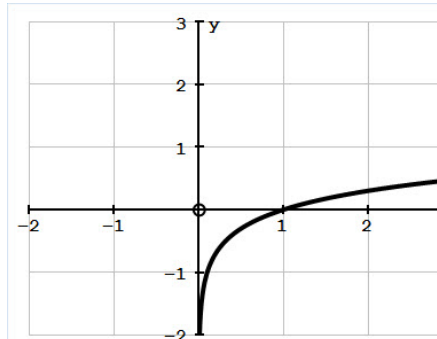
- There may be a single extreme (maximum or minimum) value of y . With increasing values of x , the expected values of y may rise then fall, or fall then rise.
- The increases in y per unit increase in x may be smaller for small values of x , or the increases in y per unit increase in x may be larger for small values of x .
- The increases may be expressed in terms of proportions of x and/or y , not in units of x and/or y .

To help cope with this variety of ways data can be non-linear, there is a variety of functions we might try to fit to our data as we attempt to describe or explain the behavior of the data. Some examples of elementary functions, together with their associated transformations of variables, are shown below in Figure 12.

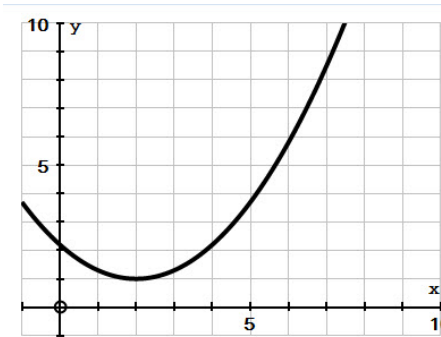
Figure 12 – functions (with associated transformations)



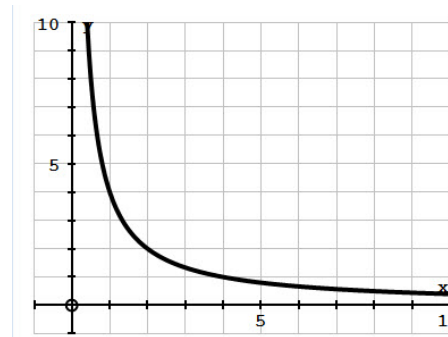
Exponential
 $y' = \log(y)$



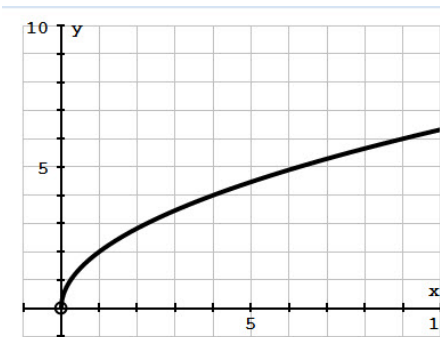
Logarithmic
 $x' = \log(x)$



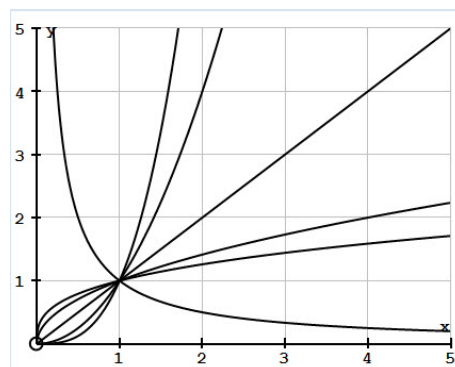
Quadratic
 (No transformation)



Reciprocal
 $x' = 1/x$



Square root
 $x' = \sqrt{x}$



Power
 $x' = \log(x) ; y' = \log(y)$

The power transformation is a particularly interesting transformation. The power function, $y = ax^b$, is transformed to linearity by taking the logarithm (either common or natural) of both sides of the equation:

$$\begin{aligned}y &= ax^b \\ \log(y) &= \log(ax^b) \\ \log(y) &= \log a + b \log(x)\end{aligned}$$

Thus, $x' = \log(x)$ and $y' = \log(y)$ result in a linear function, $y' = a + bx'$. What is interesting about the power function is that it includes raising to powers and taking roots. If b is a positive integer, a monomial results; if b is a fraction, such as one-half or one-third, the result is the same as taking a square root or cube root. In addition, if b is a negative integer, a reciprocal transformation is the result. The plots shown are for $y = x^b$, $b = 1/3$, $1/2$, 1, 2, 3, and -1 .

Table 2 gives some guidance and summarizes some of the properties of the most commonly used transformations.

Table 2: *Commonly used transformations*

Transformation	Mathematical Description	Try This Transformation if you observe that...
No transformation	$\hat{y} = a + bx$	The change in y is constant as x changes. A 1-unit increase in x is associated with, on average, an increase of b in the value of y .
Square root of x	$\hat{y} = a + b\sqrt{x}$	The change in y is not constant. A 1-unit increase in x is associated with smaller increases or decreases in y for larger x values.
Log of x^*	$\hat{y} = a + b\log_{10}(x)$ or $\hat{y} = a + b\ln(x)$	The change in y is not constant. A 1-unit increase in x is associated with smaller increases or decreases in the value of y for larger x values.
Reciprocal of x	$\hat{y} = a + b\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$	The change in y is not constant, as was true for the <i>log</i> function. Here, y has a limiting value of a as x increases, unlike the <i>log</i> function.
Log of y^* (Exponential growth or decay)	$\widehat{\log(y)} = a + bx$ or $\widehat{\ln(y)} = a + bx$	The change in y associated with a 1-unit change in x is proportional to x .
Log of y^* and log of x ("Power" function)	$\widehat{\log(y)} = a + b\log(x)$ or $\widehat{\ln(y)} = a + b\ln(x)$	The proportional change in y associated with a 1-unit change in x is proportional to x .

*The values of a and b in the regression equation will depend on whether \log_{10} or \ln is used, but the \hat{y} 's and r^2 values will be identical. Notice that the two "log of y " transformations involve transforming the response variable.

Choosing a fit: combining the Best and the Brightest

Once we reject the straight line as a plausible description of data, it is frequently the case that more than one of our polynomial or transformation strategies will produce a good fit to the data we have. Choosing a nonlinear regression function is a matter of statistical judgment guided by scientific wisdom. We want regression functions to exhibit small residuals and account for a large proportion of the variability in y . This generally means seeking out the largest r^2 , or R^2 in the case of a polynomial function. This is what we might generally term the “Best” fit. However, the “Best-ness” is not the only game in town; an alternative concern is what we might call the “Brightest” fit. By this we mean the fit to the data that capitalizes on the existence of a large body of scientific principles and theories developed over centuries of observation. For example, the function

$d(t) = \frac{1}{2}at^2$ describes the distance an object in a vacuum would fall as a function of time.

Observations of falling objects in many different circumstances and places, and at different times, have etched $d(t) = \frac{1}{2}at^2$ in scientific stone. If a golf ball is dropped in the no-wind atmosphere of the Earth’s moon, one would expect to see a really nice scatterplot in the form of a parabola result. On the other hand, if one dropped a golf ball on the planet Jupiter, the golf ball would be buffeted by the slings and arrows of a wild geology- and wind-driven environment. Because of this, our golf ball dropping experiment might very well result in data that $d(t) = \frac{1}{2}at^2$ doesn’t fit really well. It may even be the case that a different function, $d^*(t) = \frac{1}{3}at^3$ or possibly $d^*(t) = a + b \log(t)$

might fit the data better, in the sense of exhibiting the smallest residuals and a non-patterned residual plot. However, in such a case, picking the “Brightest” fit – the one in agreement with accepted scientific laws – would usually be the preferred strategy.

Frequently, regression is used in the tentative creation of scientific laws. In cases such as these the investigator may reason from her knowledge of science and be able to reject some possible regression functions in favor of others. We found an interesting example of scientific judgment in an experimental study of factors that influence population density of salamanders in the paper, “The relationship between rock density and salamander density in a mountain stream” (*Herpetologica* [1987]: 357-361). The investigators created a range of habitats for salamanders (*Desmognathus quadramaculatus*) by placing different sized rocks and pebbles in a small stream in the Southern Appalachian Mountains. Three

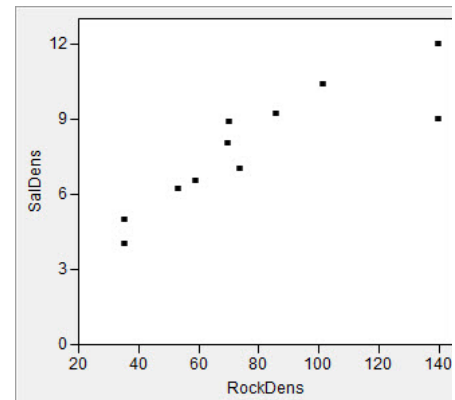


Figure 13: Density vs. Density

months later they returned to measure the population density of the salamanders. The scatterplot of their original data are shown in Figure 13. The densities are measured in numbers / 1.4 square meters.

Inspection of the elementary functions in Figure 12 suggests more than one plausible function to use to fit the data. The researchers chose a reciprocal regression

function, $\hat{y} = a + b\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$, for two reasons: (1) it was the

Best, and (2) it was the Brightest. The r^2 was greatest for the reciprocal function, which was icing on the cake. More important, the reciprocal function made sense scientifically. The investigators felt that there would be an upper limit to the population density since the stream bed is a nonrenewable resource and the stream therefore had a limit in the number of salamanders that could be sustained. This limit is known as the “carrying capacity” of an environment and is estimated by the value of the intercept, a , in the regression function. The choice of a reciprocal transformation may seem odd to you because the reciprocal transformation shown above is the only one that is falling with increasing x values. Remember, though, that that a function, $f(x)$, is transformed into mirror images by using $f(-x)$ and $-f(x)$.

After making the transformation $x' = \frac{1}{x}$ and fitting the resulting data, the best fit line was calculated using JMP. The best fit line, ($\hat{y} = 12.37 - 292.6x'$, $r^2 = 0.82$) and the residual plot are shown in Figures 14(a) and 14(b). The scatterplot of the original data with the best fit regression equation superimposed is shown in Figure 14(c).

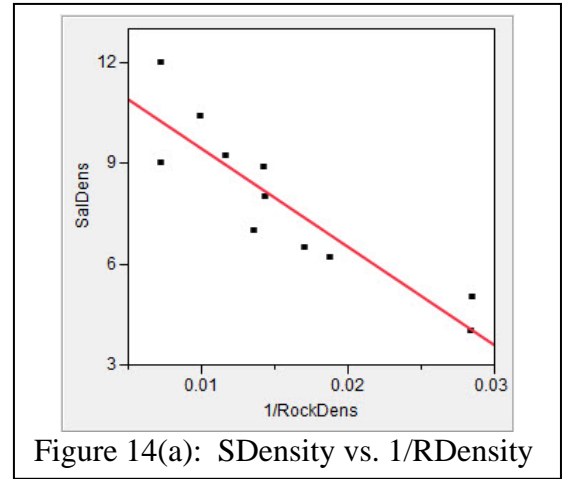


Figure 14(a): SDensity vs. 1/RDensity

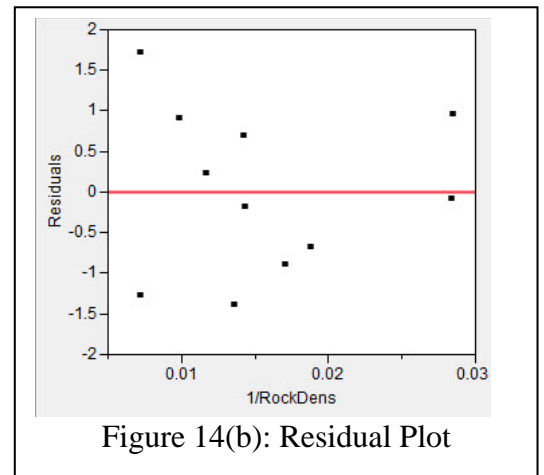


Figure 14(b): Residual Plot

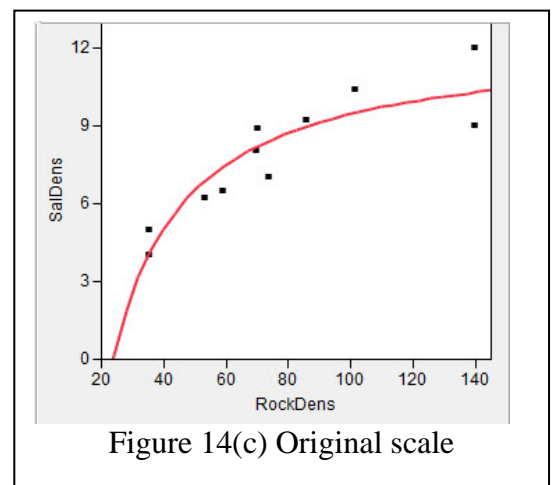


Figure 14(c) Original scale

Here is an example of a nonlinear fit in the absence of settled scientific theory, from the article in “Sea-Level Rise on Eastern China’s Yangtze Delta” (*Journal of Coastal Research* [1998]: 360-366).

The researchers used pollen and microfossil records in radiocarbon-dated samples of peat from core samples as well as archeological data to produce historic water levels in the Yangtze delta of China to study the pattern of the rising of sea level. Geologic and hydrologic data are notorious for not having the benefit of common scientific models (i.e. there is no Brightest), and the researchers elected to fit an exponential model to their data as the Best summary of the relation between sea-level and time. Their data are reproduced in the table below and are relative to the present sea-level and present time. The variable “Kilo-Years BP” is thousands of years before the present; the depth variable is the depth compared to the current sea level. As an example, based on the measurements available the researchers inferred that 7,064 years ago the sea-level was 3.2 meters below the current level. The “Log of Depth” is the common (base 10) logarithm of the Depth. A scatterplot of the Depth vs. Kilo-Years BP with a fitted exponential function is shown in Figure 15.

Kilo-years BP	Depth (m)	Log of Depth	Kilo-Years BP	Depth (m)	Log of Depth	Kilo-Years BP	Depth (m)	Log of Depth
7.064	3.2	0.5051	5.930	3.0	0.4771	4.660	1.0	0.0000
6.680	4.0	0.6021	5.845	2.6	0.4150	4.470	1.2	0.0792
6.670	3.8	0.5798	5.845	3.0	0.4771	4.000	2.2	0.3424
6.670	3.5	0.5441	5.790	5.1	0.7076	3.950	3.0	0.4771
6.600	2.8	0.4472	5.780	2.5	0.3979	3.407	1.0	0.0000
6.580	2.0	0.3010	5.640	3.6	0.5563	2.950	3.6	0.5563
6.510	4.1	0.6128	5.600	2.5	0.3979	2.720	1.6	0.2041
6.500	5.1	0.7076	5.530	5.7	0.7559	2.393	1.0	0.0000
6.365	3.5	0.5441	5.530	2.0	0.3010	2.285	0.9	-0.0458
6.275	1.5	0.1761	5.470	1.0	0.0000	2.180	1.0	0.0000
6.227	2.5	0.3979	5.260	3.0	0.4771	1.790	2.3	0.3617
6.008	6.0	0.7782	5.260	1.8	0.2553	1.780	1.7	0.2304
6.000	2.5	0.3979	5.210	2.1	0.3222	1.691	1.5	0.1761
6.000	3.0	0.4771	4.901	2.1	0.3222	1.530	1.1	0.0414
5.960	5.0	0.6990	4.750	1.0	0.0000	1.510	0.7	-0.1549

The scatterplot is typical of data seen when two variables are related by an exponential function. The change in y as x increases is smaller for small x values than for large values of x . For these data, think in changes in x of units of 1000 years. Another feature common to exponential relations is that the variability about the line is greater for larger values of x than it is for smaller values of x .

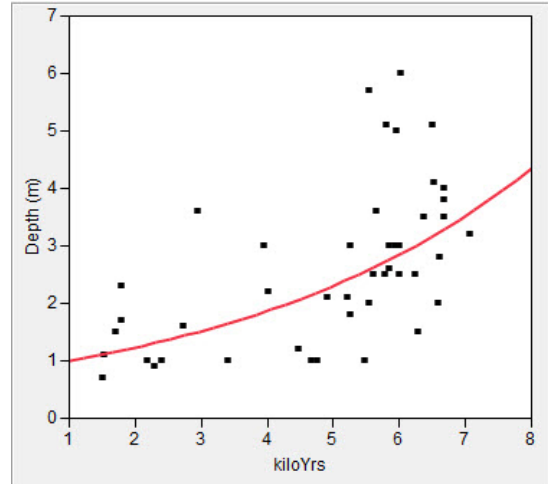


Figure 15: Sea-level vs. time

Figure 12 hints that using logarithms and transforming the y variable (the depth) will be in order. Two standard logarithmic functions are commonly used for such transformations – the common logarithm (log base 10, denoted by \log or \log_{10}) and the natural logarithm (log base e , usually denoted by \ln , but sometimes as \log_e). Either the common or natural log can be used; the only difference in the resulting scatterplots is the scale of the transformed y variable. This can be seen in Figures 16(a) and 16(b) where the scatterplots of y' vs. x for both logarithmic transformations are shown, together with the best fit lines. These two scatterplots show the same pattern.

The resulting regression equation using the common log transformation is $\widehat{y}' = -0.093 + 0.0915K$, or equivalently, $\widehat{\log(y)} = -0.093 + 0.0915K$. For the natural log transformation the resulting regression equation is $\widehat{y}' = -0.215 + 0.2106K$, or equivalently $\widehat{\ln(y)} = -0.215 + 0.2106K$.

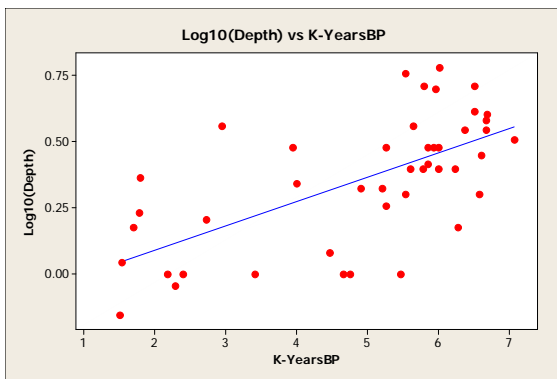


Figure 16(a): $y' = \log(x)$

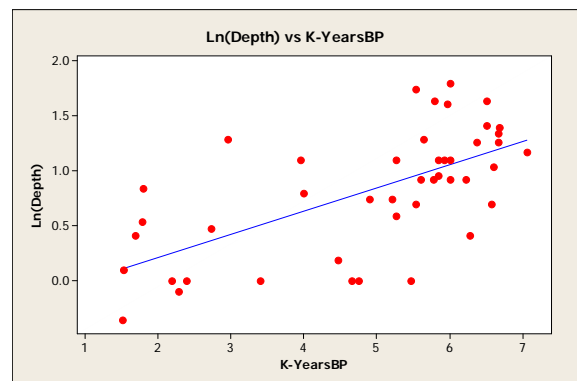


Figure 16(b): $y' = \ln(x)$

Fitting a curve using transformations

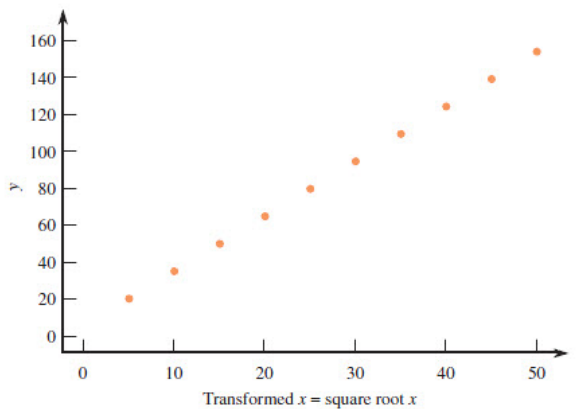
The objective of a regression analysis is usually to describe the approximate relationship between x and y with an equation of the form $y = \text{some function of } x$. If we have transformed only x , fitting a least-squares line to the transformed data results in an equation of the desired form, for example,

$$\hat{y} = 5 + 3x' = 5 + 3\sqrt{x}, \text{ where } x' = \sqrt{x}$$

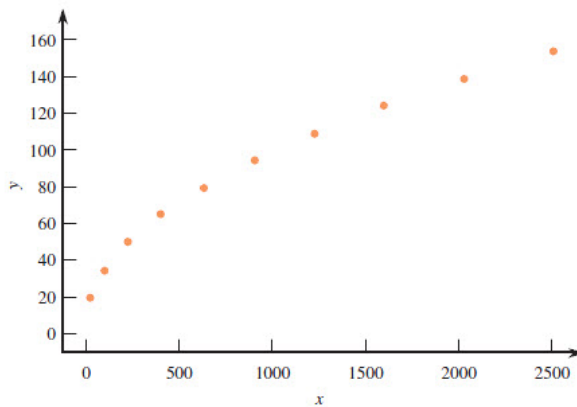
or

$$\hat{y} = 4 + 0.2x' = 4 + 0.2\frac{1}{x}, \text{ where } x' = \frac{1}{x}.$$

These functions specify lines when graphed using y and x' , and they specify curves when graphed using y and x , as illustrated in Figure 17 for the square root transformation.



(a)



(b)

Figure 17

If the y values have been transformed, after obtaining the least-squares line the transformation can be undone to yield an expression of the form $y = \text{some function of } x$ (as opposed to $y' = \text{some function of } x$). For example, to reverse a logarithmic transformation ($\hat{y}' = \log(y)$), we can take the antilogarithm of each side of the equation. To reverse a square root transformation ($\hat{y}' = \sqrt{y}$), we can square both sides of the equation, and to reverse a reciprocal transformation ($\hat{y}' = \frac{1}{y}$), we can take the reciprocal of each side of the equation.

For the common log transformation used with the sea-level data, $\hat{y}' = \log(y)$ and the least-squares line relating y' and x was $\hat{y}' = -0.093 + 0.0915K$ or equivalently, $\widehat{\log(y)} = -0.093 + 0.0915K$. To reverse this transformation, we take the antilog of both sides of the equation:

$$10^{\log(y)} = 10^{-0.093+0.0915K}$$

Using properties of logs and exponents we know that

$$10^{\log(y)} = y \quad \text{and} \quad 10^{-0.093+0.0915K} = (10^{-0.093})(10^{0.0915K})$$

Finally we get

$$\hat{y} = (10^{-0.093})(10^{0.0915K}) = 0.8072(10^{0.0915K}) = 0.8072(1.233)^K$$

This equation can now be used to predict the y value (sea-level) for a given x (thousands of years ago). For example, the predicted sea-level 2500 years ago ($K = 2.5$) is:

$$\hat{y} = 0.8072(1.233)^K = 0.8072(1.233)^{2.5} = (0.8072)(1.6934) = 1.3669$$

Two really important final warnings:

1. “Back transforming”

The process of transforming data, fitting a line to the transformed data, and then undoing the transformation to get an equation for a curved relationship between x and y usually results in a curve that provides a reasonable fit to the sample data, but it is not the least-squares curve for the data. For example, we used a transformation to fit the curve $\hat{y} = (10^{-0.093})(1.233)^K$ above. However, there may be another equation of the form $\hat{y} = a(10)^{bx}$ that has a smaller sum of squared residuals for the *original* data than the one obtained using transformations. Finding the least-squares estimates for a and b in an equation of this form is complicated. Fortunately, the curves found using transformations usually provide reasonable predictions of y .

2. Thinking that r^2 is all you need

It is awfully tempting to think that one can shortcut the choice of models by looking only at r^2 . Hopefully our discussion of Best vs. Brightest has been sufficient warning. However, there is another significant error in thinking, that even in the absence of a clear Brightest fit one could take that shortcut. One must also consider the “ y ” variable. Suppose you have two models: $y = a + bx$ and $\ln y = a + bx$. When performing the regression according to the least squares criterion, we minimize the sums of squares of residuals. The problem with comparing these two models is that they are minimizing different sums of squares. Minimizing $\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ and minimizing $\sum (\log y_i - \widehat{\log y}_i)^2$ are NOT the same things, and you cannot directly compare the resulting r^2 s. Now, if you have two models with y or two models with $\log y$ you can compare them when searching for the Best, but possibly not the Brightest. But you cannot do this with one model a function predicting y and one model predicting some $f(y)$.