Elements of Statistical Learning Chapter 5 Basis Expansions and Regularization

Review

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Basis Expansions - Idea

Denote by $h_m(X): \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ the *m*th transformation of $X, m = 1, \ldots, M$. We then model

$$f(X) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \beta_m h_m(X),$$
 (5.1)

For example:

$$h_m(X) = X_m$$

$$h_m(X) = X_j^2 \text{ or } h_m(X) = X_j X_k$$

$$h_m(X) = log(X_j), \sqrt{X_j}, \cdots$$

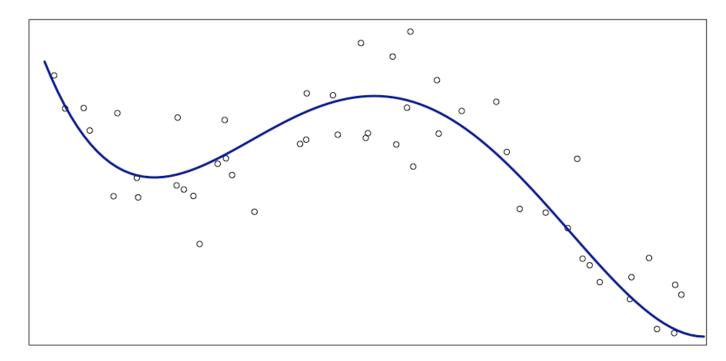
$$h_m(X) = I(L_m \le X_k < U_m)$$

Consider the case of generating synthetic data from the from the following distribution:

$$X \sim U(0,3)$$

 $Y \sim \frac{1}{4}X^4 - \frac{5}{3}X^3 - \frac{27}{8}X^2 - \frac{9}{4}X + \epsilon$
 $\epsilon \sim N(0,0.15)$

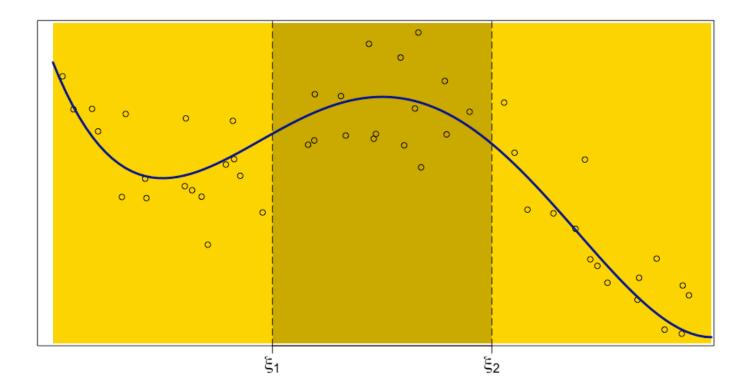
Synthetic Data



Now divide X into continuous intervals using indicator basis functions:

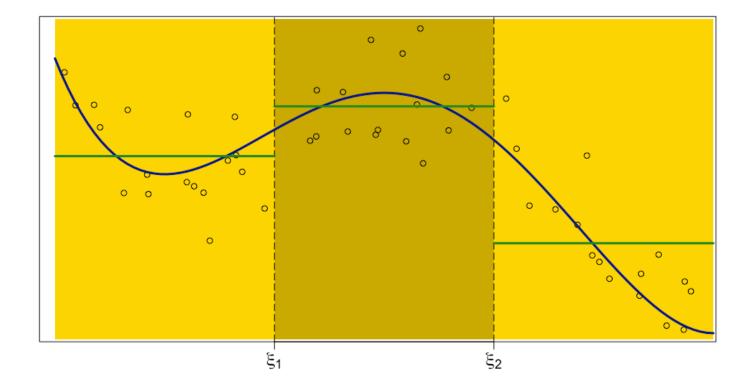
$$h_1(X) = I(X < \xi_1), \quad h_2(X) = I(\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2), \quad h_3(X) = I(\xi_2 \le X).$$

Synthetic Data



We could fit a piecewise constant to this data (e.g. the mean of each region)

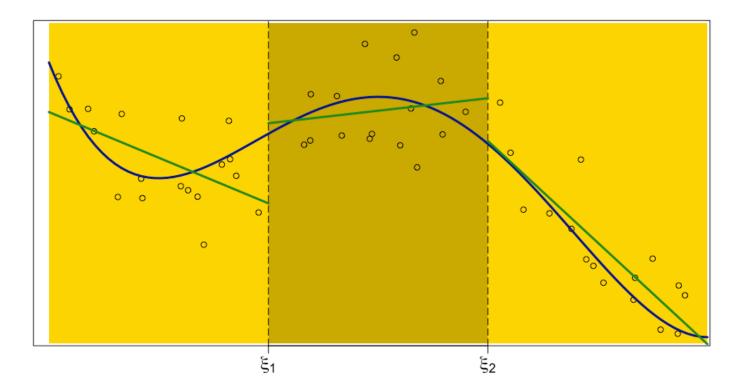
Piecewise Constant



Even better we could fit a linear model in each region. In this case there would be 6 parameters:

$$\beta_1 I(X < \xi_1) + \beta_2 I(X < \xi_1) X + \beta_3 I(\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2) + \beta_4 I(\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2) X + \beta_5 I(\xi_2 \le X) + \beta_6 I(\xi_2 \le X) X$$

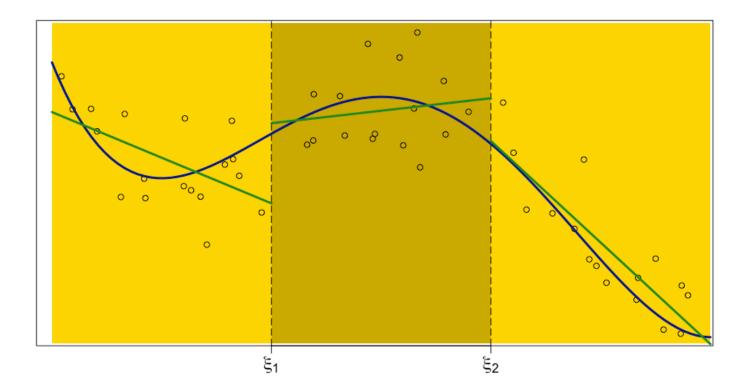
Piecewise Linear



We would prefer this to be continuous at the knots e.g.

$$f(\xi_1^-) = f(\xi_1^+)$$
 and $f(\xi_2^-) = f(\xi_2^+)$

Piecewise Linear



Lets derive what this might look like

We wish to show that

$$\beta_1 I(X < \xi_1) + \beta_2 I(X < \xi_1) X + \beta_3 I(\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2) + \beta_4 I(\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2) X + \beta_5 I(\xi_2 \le X) + \beta_6 I(\xi_2 \le X) X$$

with constraints

$$\beta_1 + \xi_1 \beta_2 = \beta_3 + \xi_1 \beta_4 \tag{1}$$

$$\beta_3 + \xi_2 \beta_4 = \beta_5 + \xi_2 \beta_6 \tag{2}$$

Is equivalent to the following (unconstrained) expression:

$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 X + \alpha_3 (X - \xi_1)_+ + \alpha_4 (X - \xi_2)_+ \quad (\star)$$

where t_{+} denotes the positive part

We can divide (\star) into 3 cases:

(a)
$$X < \xi_1$$

 $\implies \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 X = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X$

(b)
$$\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2$$

 $\Rightarrow \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 \xi_1 + (\alpha_2 + \alpha_3) X = \beta_3 + \beta_4 X$

(c)
$$\xi_2 \le X$$

 $\implies \alpha_1 - \alpha_3 \xi_1 - \alpha_4 \xi_2 + (\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 + \alpha_4)X = \beta_5 + \beta_6 X$

Now, we just need to equate the beta's with the alpha's...

Setting
$$\alpha_1 = \beta_1$$
, $\alpha_2 = \beta_2$, $\alpha_1 - \alpha_3 \xi_1 = \beta_3$ and $\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = \beta_4$ we find that:
$$\beta_1 + \xi_1 \beta_2$$
$$= \alpha_1 + \xi_1 \alpha_2$$
$$= \alpha_1 - \xi_1 \alpha_3 + \xi_1 \alpha_3 + \xi_1 \alpha_2$$
$$= \beta_3 + \xi_1 \beta_4$$
 Satisfying constraint (1)

Setting
$$\alpha_1 - \xi_1 \alpha_3 - \xi_2 \alpha_4 = \beta_5$$
 and $\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 + \alpha_4 = \beta_6$ we find that:

$$\beta_{3} + \xi_{2}\beta_{4}$$

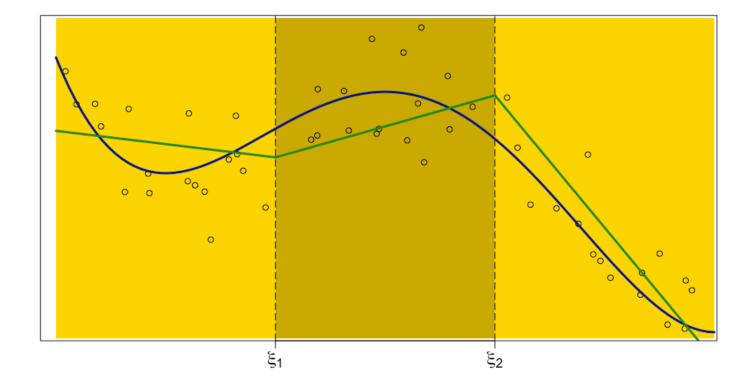
$$= \alpha_{1} - \xi_{1}\alpha_{3} + \xi_{2}(\alpha_{2} + \alpha_{3})$$

$$= \alpha_{1} - \xi_{1}\alpha_{3} - \xi_{2}\alpha_{4} + \xi_{2}\alpha_{4} + \xi_{2}(\alpha_{2} + \alpha_{3})$$

$$= \beta_{5} + \xi_{2}\beta_{6}$$
Satisfying constraint (2)

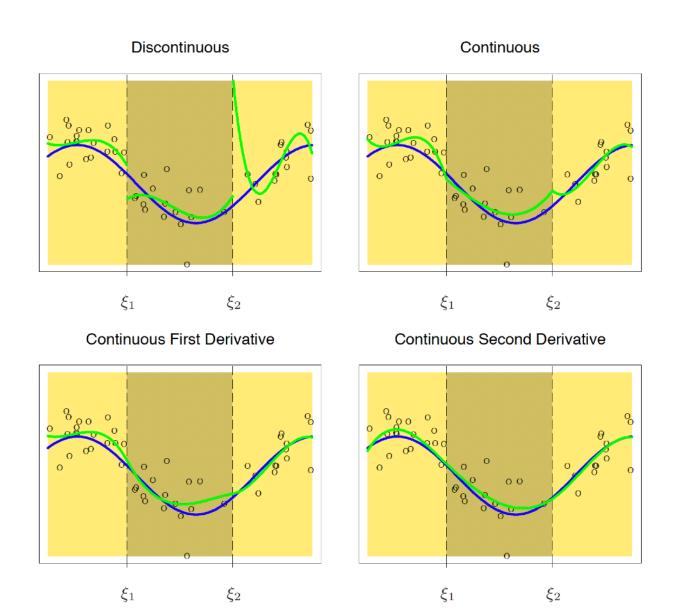
And fitting the expression we have derived $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 X + \alpha_3 (X - \xi_1)_+ + \alpha_4 (X - \xi_2)_+)$ to the same data we obtain the following fit:

Continuous Piecewise Linear



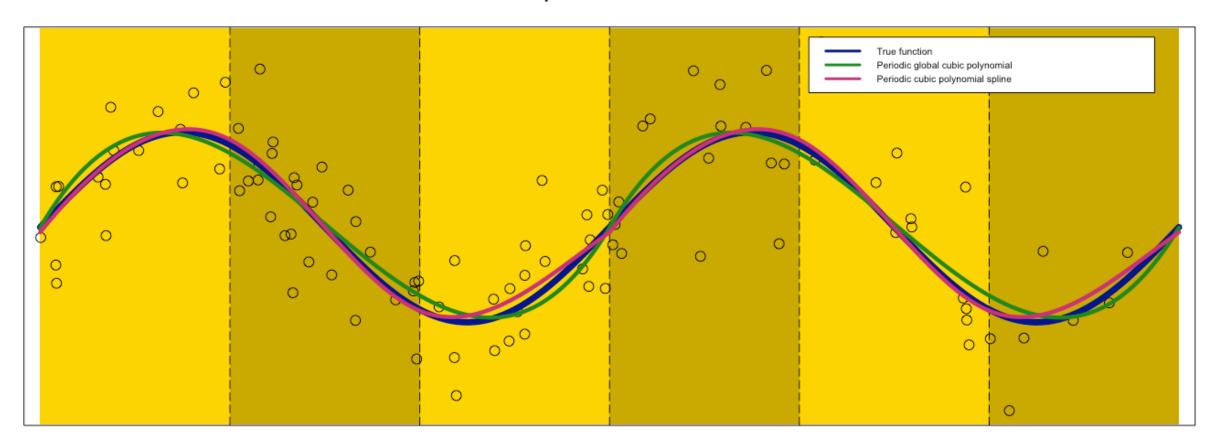
- We don't have to stop at linear fits, smoother fits can be achieved by increasing the order of the local polynomial.
- Fitting a cubic polynomial in each region we can again constrain the function to be continuous ($f(\xi_k^-) = f(\xi_k^+)$).
- Additionally, for a smoother fit we might constrain the first and second derivative to also be continuous at the knots $(f'(\xi_k^-) = f'(\xi_k^+))$ and $f''(\xi_k^-) = f''(\xi_k^+)$.
- A similar derivation to the linear case finds the following *truncated power basis*: $h_1(X)=1,\ h_2(X)=X,\ h_3(X)=X^2,\ h_4(X)=X^3,\ h_5(X)=(X-\xi_1)_+^3$ and $h_6(X)=(X-\xi_2)_+^3$
- Parameter count: (3 regions) x (4 parameters per region) (2 knots) x (3 constraints per knot) = 6

Piecewise Cubic Polynomials



Example - Periodic Data

Cubic Splines for Periodic Data



Natural Cubic Splines

A general form for the *truncated power basis of order M* with K knots turns out to be:

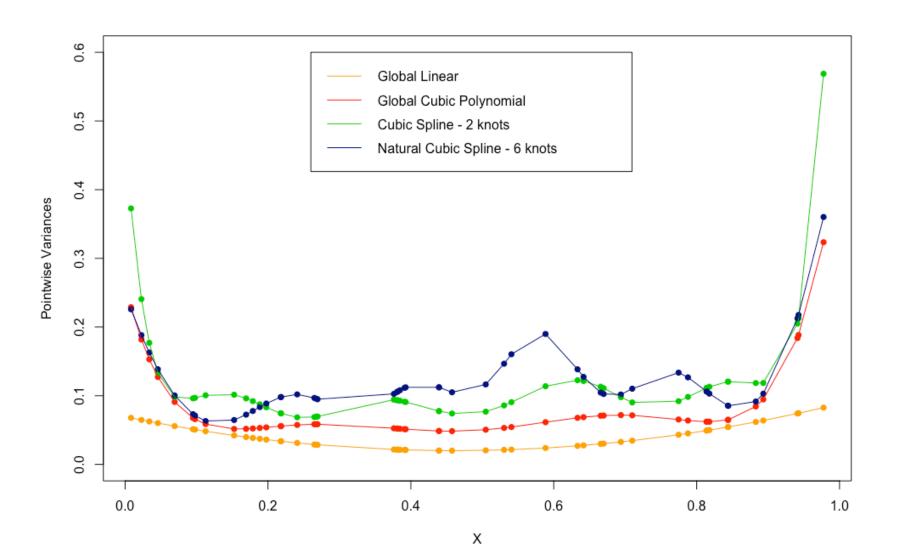
$$h_j(X) = X^{j-1}, \quad j = 1, \dots, M$$

 $h_{M+l}(X) = (X - \xi_l)_+^{M-1}, \quad l = 1, \dots, K$

<u>Drawback</u>: Polynomials tend to be erratic (high variance) near the boundaries. The problem is exacerbated with splines.

Solution: Constrain the function to be linear beyond the boundary knots.

Natural Cubic Splines



$$X \sim U(0,1)$$

$$Y \sim X + \epsilon$$

$$\epsilon \sim N(0,1)$$

Natural Cubic Splines

A natural cubic spline with K knots is represented by K basis functions.

For example, starting from the truncated power series basis and imposing the boundary constraints of linearity beyond the boundary knots we arrive at:

$$N_1(X) = 1$$
, $N_2(X) = X$, $N_{k+2}(X) = d_k(X) - d_{K-1}(X)$

where:

$$d_k(X) = \frac{(X - \xi_k)_+^3 - (X - \xi_K)_+^3}{\xi_K - \xi_k}$$

Consider the following problem: among all functions f(x) with two continuous derivatives, find one that minimises the penalised residual sum of squares

$$RSS(f, \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{y_i - f(x_i)\}^2 + \lambda \int \{f''(t)\}^2 dt$$

Remarkably, it can be shown that this has an explicit, finite-dimensional, unique minimiser which is a **natural cubic spline** with knots at the unique values of the

$$X_i$$
, $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

Sketch proof

Consider the data $a < x_1 < \dots < x_N < b$ with $N \ge 2$. Suppose that g is a natural cubic spline with knots at every x_i , let \tilde{g} be any other differentiable function on [a,b] and define $h(x) = \tilde{g}(x) - g(x)$.

3 Parts

(a) We can use integration by parts and the fact that g is a cubic spline to prove that:

$$\int_{a}^{b} g''(x)h''(x)dx = 0$$

(b) Using this fact we can show that:

$$\int_{a}^{b} \tilde{g}''(t)^{2} dt = \int_{a}^{b} [h''(t) + g''(t)]^{2} dt = \int_{a}^{b} h''(t)^{2} dt + 2 \int_{a}^{b} g''(t)h''(t) dt + \int_{a}^{b} g''(t)^{2} dt \ge \int_{a}^{b} g''(t)^{2} dt$$

Sketch proof

Consider the data $a < x_1 < \dots < x_N < b$ with $N \ge 2$. Suppose that g is a natural cubic spline with knots at every x_i , let \tilde{g} be any other differentiable function on [a,b] and define $h(x) = \tilde{g}(x) - g(x)$.

3 Parts

(c) Returning to the penalised least squares problem:

$$\min_{f} \left[\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \{y_i - f(x_i)\}^2 + \lambda \int \{f''(t)\}^2 dt}_{(1)} \right]$$

We argue that, by the definition of a natural spline interplant to every data point, (1) is minimised by g and, by part (b), (2) is also minimised by g.

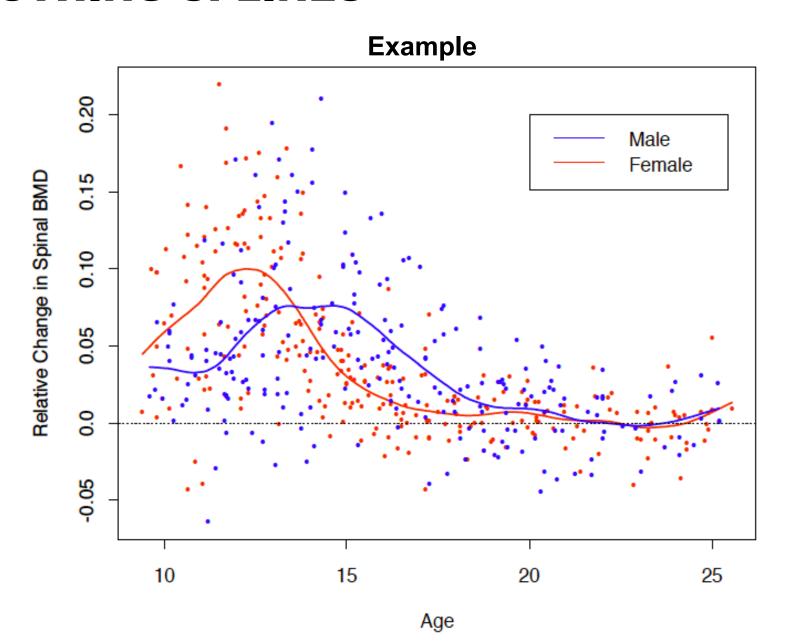
Since the solution is a natural spline $(f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} N_j(x)\theta_j)$, the penalised RSS criterion can be rewritten as:

$$RSS(\theta, \lambda) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{N}\theta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{N}\theta) + \lambda \theta^T \Omega_{\mathbf{N}} \theta$$

Where
$$\{\mathbf{N}\}_{ij} = N_j(x_i)$$
 and $\{\Omega_{\mathbf{N}}\}_{jk} = \int N_J''(t)N_k''(t)dt$, and the solution can easily be seen to be:
$$\hat{\theta} = (\mathbf{N}^T\mathbf{N} + \lambda\Omega_{\mathbf{N}})^{-1}\mathbf{N}^T\mathbf{y}$$

But is this over parameterised?

No! The penalty term translates to a penalty on the spline coefficients, which are shrunk some of the way toward the linear fit.



A smoothing spline with a prechosen λ is an example of a **linear smoother**

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N} + \lambda \Omega_{\mathbf{N}})^{-1} \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{y}$$
$$= \mathbf{S}_{\lambda} \mathbf{y}$$

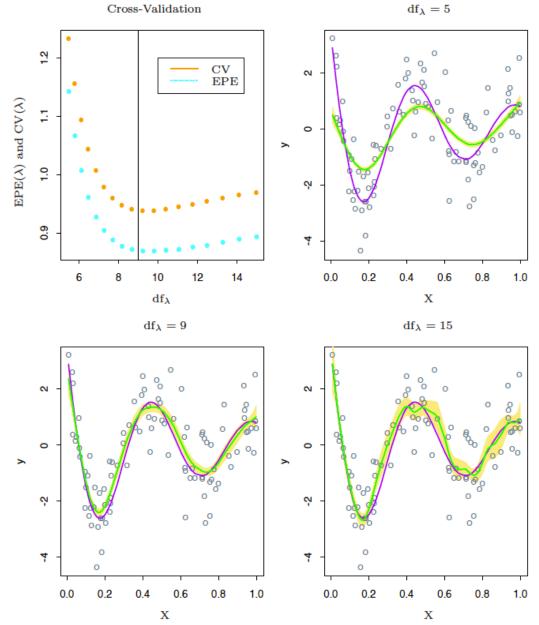
We can think of S_{λ} as the *smoother matrix* operating on the vector y. This is analogous so the hat matrix (H) in the linear regression setting. Increasing the value of λ corresponds to more smoothing.

In linear regression the degrees of freedom was defined as $trace(\mathbf{H})$. By analogy we define the **effective degrees of freedom** of a smoothing spline to be:

$$df_{\lambda} = trace(\mathbf{S}_{\lambda})$$

Since $df_{\lambda} = trace(\mathbf{S}_{\lambda})$ is monotone in λ for smoothing splines, we can invert the relationship and specify λ by fixing df.

5.5 AUTOMATIC SELECTION OF SMOOTHING PARAMETERS cost - c



5.5 AUTOMATIC SELECTION OF SMOOTHING PARAMETERS

The Bias-Variance Tradeoff

The expected prediction error is a natural quantity of interest

$$\begin{split} EPE(\hat{f}_{\lambda}) &= E(Y - \hat{f}_{\lambda}(X))^2 \\ &= Var(Y) + E[Bias^2(\hat{f}_{\lambda}(X)) + Var(\hat{f}_{\lambda}(X))] \\ &= \sigma^2 + MSE(\hat{f}_{\lambda}) \end{split}$$

Unfortunately, we do not have access to EPE, and need an estimate. Leave-one-out cross validation is a common approach and, remarkably, we can calculate its score for a given λ with a single fit on the data

$$CV(\hat{f}_{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{f}_{\lambda}^{(-i)}(x_i))^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\frac{y_i - \hat{f}_{\lambda}(x_i)}{1 - S_{\lambda}(i, i)})^2$$

5.6 NONPARAMETRIC LOGISTIC REGRESSION

It is straightforward to transfer the smoothing spline approach to other domains. For example, consider the logistic regression model:

$$log \frac{Pr(Y=1 \mid X=x)}{Pr(Y=0 \mid X=x)} = f(x)$$

Which implies:

$$Pr(Y = 1 | X = x) = \frac{e^{f(x)}}{1 + e^{f(x)}}$$

Just as for regular logistic regression, we can construct the penalised log-likelihood criterion. Again we find the optimal f is a finite-dimensional natural spline with knots at the unique values of x.

We can apply Newton-Raphson to iteratively solve for $\theta^{new} \leftarrow \theta^{old}$ and, similar to what we have seen in the previous slides, we can express this update in terms of fitted values and a smoother matrix $f^{new} = \mathbf{S}_{\lambda,\omega} \mathbf{z}$.

5.7 MULTIDIMENSIONAL SPLINES

The procedures that we have discussed generalise to higher-dimensional x.

For natural splines we have two options for creating our basis:

- (a) Additive natural splines Simply fit natural splines in each of the dimensions.
- (b) Tensor product basis For example in \mathbb{R}^2 , suppose we have a set of M_1 basis functions for X_1 and M_2 basis functions for M_2 . Then the $M_1 \times M_2$ dimensional tensor product basis is defined by:

$$g_{jk}(X) = h_{1j}(X_1)h_{2k}(X_2), \quad j = 1, \dots, M_1, \quad k = 1, \dots, M_2$$

5.7 MULTIDIMENSIONAL SPLINES

Smoothing splines generalise to higher dimensions as well. In \mathbb{R}^d , we seek a d-dimensional regression function f(x) solving:

$$\min_{f} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{ y_i - f(x_i) \}^2 + \lambda J[f] \qquad (\star)$$

where J is an appropriate penalty functional for stabilising a function f. For example in \mathbb{R}^2 a natural generalisation of the one dimensional case is:

$$J[f] = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} \right)^2 + 2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \right) + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} \right) \right] dx_1 dx_2$$

Optimising (*) with this penalty leads to a smooth two dimensional surface known as a **thin-plate spline**.

5.9 WAVELET SMOOTHING

With smoothing splines, we use a complete basis, but then shrink the coefficients toward smoothness. *Wavelets* typically use a complete orthonormal basis to represent functions, but then shrink and select the coefficients toward a sparse representation.

Wavelets bases are very popular in signal processing and compression, since they are able to represent both smooth and/or locally bumpy functions in an efficient way