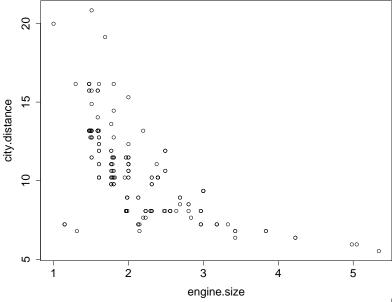
Moving Beyond Linearity

Aldo Solari



auto

- Reading: AS 4.1 4.2.4, 4.4 4.4.2
- *n* = 203 models of cars in circulation in 1985 in the United States but produced elsewhere
- We want identify a relationship allowing the prediction of city.distance, the distance covered per unit of fuel (km/L), as a function of engine.size, the car's engine size





Nonparametric estimation

- Let's try to leave data 'speak for themselves' in a free way
- No reference to any parametric formulation for f(x) (e.g. polynomials)
- The nonparametric approach to regression turns out to be particularly effective, especially when there is a considerable amount of data



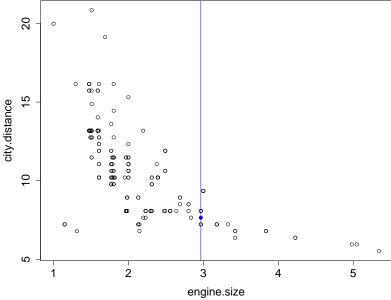
Averaging

- To predict Y at $x = x_0$, gather all the training points (x_i, y_i) having $x_i = x_0$, then
- to estimate $f(x_0) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X=x_0)$, use the mean of their y_i :

$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \text{Average}\{y_i : x_i = x_0\} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n I\{x_i = x_0\}} \sum_{i: x_i = x_0} y_i$$

• Problem: in the training data, there may be no observations having $x_i = x_0$







Outline

k-Nearest-Neighbour

Local Regression

Regression Splines



Nearest Neighbour Averaging

- Estimate $f(x_0) = \mathbb{E}(Y|X = x_0)$ by averaging those y_i whose x_i are in a neighbourhood of x_0
- e.g. define the neighbourhood $\mathcal{N}_k(x_0)$ to be the set of k observations having values x_i closest to x_0 in euclidean distance $||x_i x_0||$

$$\hat{f}(x_0) = \text{Average}\{y_i : x_i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_0)\} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_0)} y_i$$

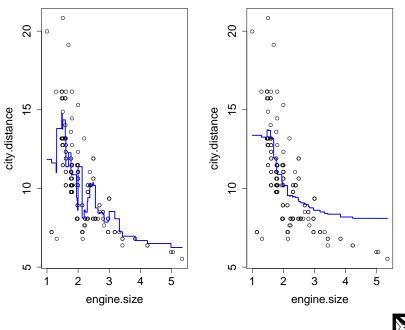
• This method is called *k*-nearest-neighbour regression



Choice of k

- By varying the number of neighbours k, we can achieve a wide range of flexibility in the estimated function $\hat{f}(x)$
- Small k corresponds to a more flexible fit: the k points are closer to target x (low bias), but averages based on a small sample have high variance
- Large *k* corresponds to a less flexible fit: it includes points far from *x* (high bias), but have smaller variance
- Best value for k depends on how smooth the true function f(x) is, and how noisy y is
- Can try different values of k and use cross-validation





$$k = 10 \qquad \qquad k = 60$$

Extensions of the linear model

- Polynomial regression
- Local regression
- Step functions
- Regression splines
- . . .



Outline

k-Nearest-Neighbour

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Local linear regression

• If f(x) is a derivable function in x_0 then it is locally approximated by a line passing through $(x_0, f(x_0))$, i.e.,

$$f(x) = \underbrace{f(x_0)}_{\alpha} + \underbrace{f'(x_0)}_{\beta} (x - x_0) + \text{error}$$

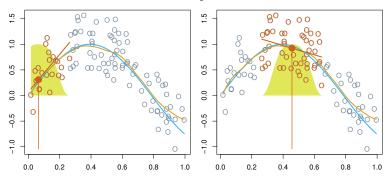
 We introduce the weighted least squares by weighting observations x_i with their distance from x₀:

$$\min_{\alpha,\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ y_i - \alpha - \beta(x_i - x_0) \right\}^2 w_h(x_i - x_0)$$

- h (h > 0) is a scale factor, called bandwidth or smoothing parameter, and
- $w_h(\cdot)$ is a symmetric density function around 0, said kernel



Local Regression



The fit $\hat{f}(x_0)$ at x_0 is obtained by fitting a weighted linear regression (orange line segment), and using the fitted value at x_0 (orange solid dot) as the estimate $\hat{f}(x_0)$

Source: ISL p. 281



Local linear regression

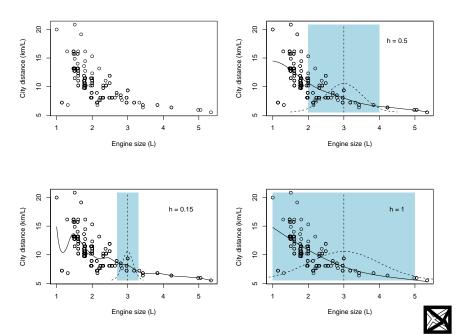
- By varying x_0 , we obtain a whole estimated curve $\hat{f}(x)$
- We can show that the estimate relative to a general point x can be obtained from the explicit formula

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\{a_2(x;h) - a_1(x;h)(x_i - x)\} w(x_i - x;h)}{a_2(x;h) a_0(x;h) - a_1(x;h)^2} y_i,$$

where
$$a_r(x; h) = \{\sum (x_i - x)^r w(x_i - x; h)\}/n$$
, for $r = 0, 1, 2$

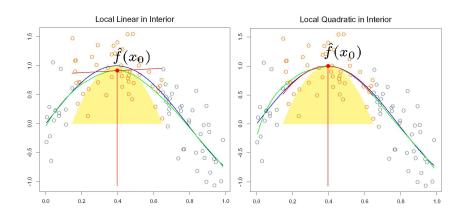
- The most important component is *h*, which regulates the smoothness of the curve, while the choice of *w* is less relevant.
- We could think to w as the density of the normal distribution $N(0, h^2)$





Source: AS p. 71

Local quadratic regression



Source: ELS p. 197



Choice of kernel

- is not critical, as many studies on the subject have shown
- Let $w(t; h) = \frac{1}{h} w_0 \left(\frac{t}{h}\right)$
- The density N(0, 1) is a common choice for w_0 , i.e., we choose $N(0, h^2)$ for w(t; h)
- Many other choices are possible, in particular those with limited support as e.g. the tricubic or biquadratic ones that is

$$w_0(t) = \begin{cases} (1-t^2)^2 & \text{if } |t| < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
 $w_0(t) = \begin{cases} (1-|t|^3)^3 & \text{if } |t| < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$

 the limited support reduces the computational burden, thanks to the many null terms



Some common choices for kernels

kernel	w(z)	support
Gaussian	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}z^2\right)$	\mathbb{R}
Rectangular	$\frac{1}{2}$	(-1, 1)
Epanechnikov	$\frac{3}{4}(1-z^2)$	(-1, 1)
biquadratic	$\frac{15}{16} (1-z^2)^2$	(-1, 1)
tricubic	$\frac{70}{81} (1 - z ^3)^3$	(-1, 1)



Choice of h

• A critical aspect is the choice of the smoothing parameter *h*, since we can prove that, for *n* sufficiently large,

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{f}(x)) \approx f(x) + \frac{h^2}{2} \sigma_w^2 f''(x), \quad \mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(\hat{f}(x)) \approx \frac{\sigma^2}{nh} \frac{\alpha(w)}{g(x)},$$

where $\sigma_w^2 = \int z^2 w(z) dz$, $\alpha(w) = \int w(z)^2 dz$ and g(x) indicates the density from which the x_i where sampled;

- The bias is $\propto h^2$ and the variance is $\propto 1/(nh)$
- Therefore, although we would like to choose h → 0 to bring down the bias, this makes the variance of the estimate diverge. For h → ∞, the opposite occurs
- Once again, in choosing *h*, we have a trade-off between bias and variance



loess

- in many cases, there is an advantage in using a nonconstant bandwidth along the x-axis, according it to the level of sparseness of observed points
- variable bandwidth: it is reasonable to use larger values of h
 when x_i are more scattered
- Good idea! ... but how do we modify *h*?
- loess: express the smoothing parameter (span) defining the fraction of effective observations for estimating f(x) at a certain point x_0 on the x-axis;
- this fraction is kept constant
- this imply automatically a setting of the bandwidth related to the sparsity of data



Variability bands

A pivotal quantity, approximately, is

$$\frac{\hat{f}(x) - f(x) - b(x)}{\sqrt{\mathbb{V}\mathrm{ar}(\hat{f}(x))}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

where b(x) indicates the bias, which cannot be neglected

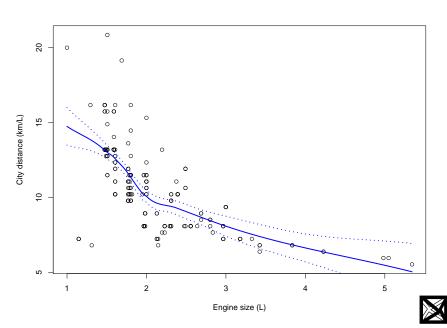
• Instead of looking for complicated corrections for the unknown b(x), a current solution is to construct variability bands of the type

$$(\hat{f}(x) - z_{\alpha/2} \operatorname{std.err}(\hat{f}(x)), \hat{f}(x) + z_{\alpha/2} \operatorname{std.err}(\hat{f}(x)))$$

providing an indication of the local variability of the estimate

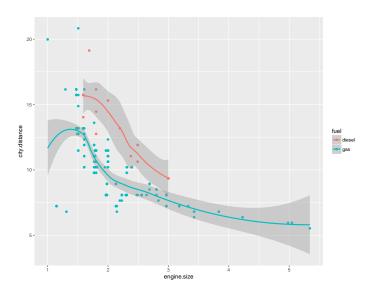
 Variability bands do not have the coverage guarantee of confidence intervals





Data visualization

Reading: GW 3.1 - 3.6





Outline

k-Nearest-Neighbour

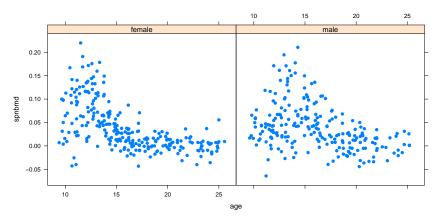
Local Regression

Regression Splines



bmd **data**

Reading: ISL 7.1-7.4, 7.6, 7.8.1, 7.8.2





Basis functions

Consider

$$Y = f(X) + \varepsilon$$

where

$$f(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{q} \beta_j b_j(X)$$

- $b_i(\cdot)$ are known functions called *basis functions*
- E.g. 3rd degree polynomial regression:

$$b_0(x) = 1$$
, $b_1(x) = x$, $b_2(x) = x^2$, $b_3(x) = x^3$



Step functions

- Define cutpoints ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_K in the range of X, called *knots*
- Basis functions: K + 1 step functions

$$b_{0}(X) = I\{X < \xi_{1}\}$$

$$b_{1}(X) = I\{\xi_{1} \le X < \xi_{2}\}$$

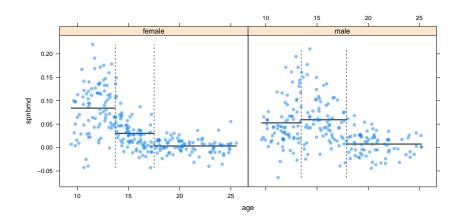
$$\vdots$$

$$b_{K-1}(X) = I\{\xi_{K-1} \le X < \xi_{K}\}$$

$$b_{K}(X) = I\{X \ge \xi_{K}\}$$



Step functions





Piecewise linear regression

- Define K knots ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_K
- Basis functions: 2(K+1), fitting K+1 simple regressions for each partition of the data

$$b_{0}(X) = I\{X < \xi_{1}\}$$

$$b'_{0}(X) = X \cdot I\{X < \xi_{1}\}$$

$$b_{1}(X) = I\{\xi_{1} \le X < \xi_{2}\}$$

$$b'_{1}(X) = X \cdot I\{\xi_{1} \le X < \xi_{2}\}$$

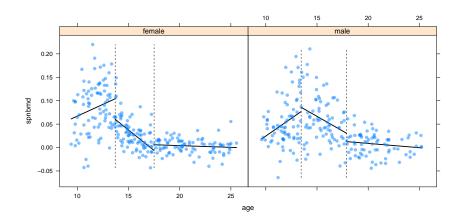
$$\vdots$$

$$b_{K}(X) = I\{X \ge \xi_{K}\}$$

$$b'_{K}(X) = X \cdot I\{X \ge \xi_{K}\}$$



Piecewise linear regression





Continuos piecewise linear regression

- Define K knots ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_K
- Basis functions: K + 2, giving a continuos piecewise linear model

$$b_{0}(X) = 1$$

$$b_{1}(X) = X$$

$$b_{2}(X) = (X - \xi_{1})_{+}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$b_{K+1}(X) = (X - \xi_{K-1})_{+}$$

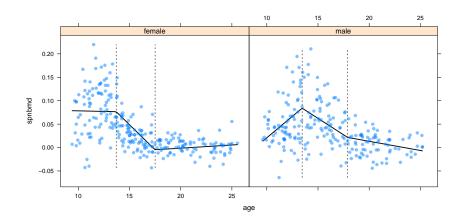
$$b_{K+2}(X) = (X - \xi_{K})_{+}$$

where $(\cdot)_+$ defines the positive portion of its argument

$$(a)_{+} = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } a < 0 \end{cases}$$



Continuos piecewise linear regression





Splines

- The preceding is an example of a spline: a piecewise polynomial with the constraint that the fitted curve must be continuous
- The set of basis functions introduced earlier is an example of what is called the truncated power basis

$$b_j(X)=X^j,\quad j=0,\ldots,d$$

$$b_{d+k}(X)=(X-\xi_k)_+^d,\quad k=1,\ldots,K$$
 which gives $(d+1)+K$ basis functions

Quadratic Splines

- Define K knots ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_K
- Basis functions: K + 3

$$b_{0}(X) = 1$$

$$b_{1}(X) = X$$

$$b_{2}(X) = X^{2}$$

$$b_{3}(X) = (X - \xi_{1})_{+}^{2}$$

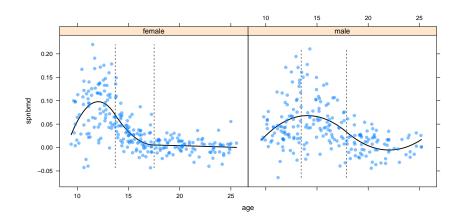
$$\vdots$$

$$b_{K+2}(X) = (X - \xi_{K-1})_{+}^{2}$$

$$b_{K+3}(X) = (X - \xi_{K})_{+}^{2}$$



Quadratic splines





Quadratic Splines

- Define K knots ξ_1, \ldots, ξ_K
- Basis functions: K + 3

$$b_{0}(X) = 1$$

$$b_{1}(X) = X$$

$$b_{2}(X) = X^{2}$$

$$b_{3}(X) = X^{3}$$

$$b_{4}(X) = (X - \xi_{1})^{3}_{+}$$

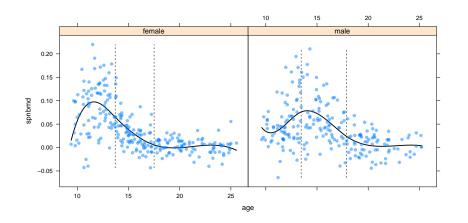
$$\vdots$$

$$b_{K+3}(X) = (X - \xi_{K-1})^{3}_{+}$$

$$b_{K+4}(X) = (X - \xi_{K})^{3}_{+}$$



Cubic splines



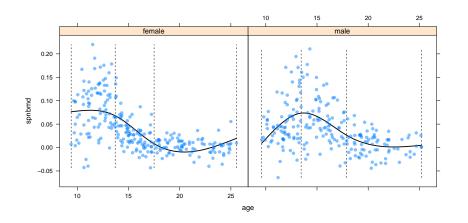


Natural cubic splines

- Cubic splines to be erratic at the boundaries of the data
- Natural cubic splines ameliorate this problem by adding 4 constraints that the function is linear beyond the boundaries of the data
- A natural cubic spline with K knots has K basis functions



Natural cubic splines





Problems with knots

- Regression splines have one shortcoming: the placement of knots
- Choices regarding the number of knots and where they are located are not particularly easy to make
- Next: smoothing splines

