

# Non-parametric regression

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# 1 Non-parametric regression

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

Whatever happened to likelihood, though? Find  $h \in C^2$  that minimises

$$\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \{Y_i - h(x_i)\}^2}_{\text{Fit Penalty}} + \underbrace{\lambda \int_I \{h''(t)\}^2 dt}_{\text{Roughness Penalty}}$$

- This is a Gaussian likelihood with a roughness penalty  
 $\hookrightarrow$  If use only likelihood, any interpolating function is an MLE!
- $\lambda$  to balance **fidelity to the data** and **smoothness** of the estimated  $h$ .

Remarkably, problem has unique explicit solution!

$\hookrightarrow$  Natural Cubic Spline with knots at  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ :

- piecewise polynomials of degree 3,
- with pieces defined at the knots,
- with two continuous derivatives at the knots,
- and linear outside the data boundary.

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

Can represent splines via natural spline basis functions  $B_j$ , as

$$s(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \gamma_j B_j(x).$$

Defining matrices  $B$  and  $\Omega$  as

$$B_{ij} = B_j(x_i), \quad \Omega_{ij} = \int B_i''(x) B_j''(x) dx,$$

our penalised likelihood becomes

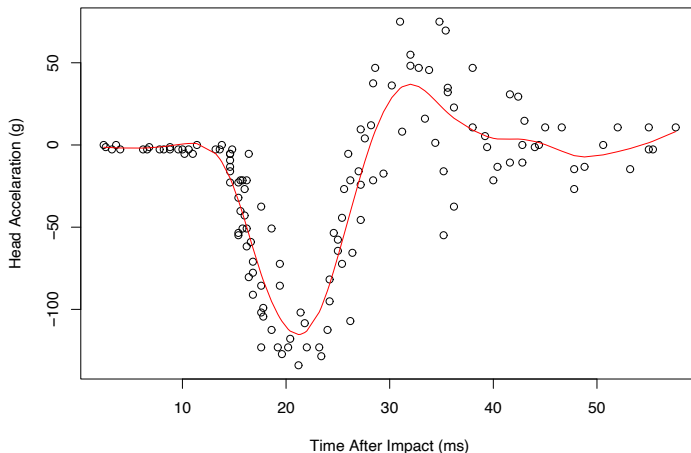
$$\min! \{ (Y - B\gamma)^\top (Y - B\gamma) + \lambda \gamma^\top \Omega \gamma \}.$$

Differentiating and equating with zero yields

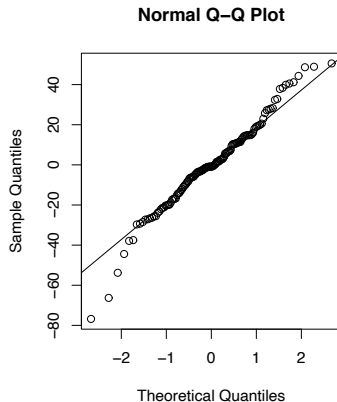
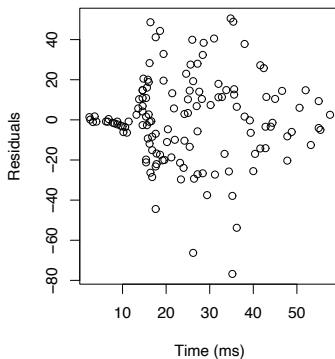
$$(B^\top B + \lambda \Omega) \hat{\gamma} = B^\top Y \implies \hat{\gamma} = (B^\top B + \lambda \Omega)^{-1} B^\top Y.$$

- The smoothing matrix is  $S_\lambda = B(B^\top B + \lambda \Omega)^{-1} B^\top$ .
- The cubic spline fit is **approximately a kernel smoother** (keyword: equivalent kernel).

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$



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# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

Equivalent degrees of freedom

hat matrix

- Least squares estimation:  $Y = X_{n \times p} \beta + \varepsilon$ , we have  $\hat{Y} = \hat{H} Y$ , with  $\text{trace}(\hat{H}) = p$ , in terms of the projection matrix  $H = X(X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top$ .

**Linear smoothers:**  
In the case that the smoothed values can be written as a linear transformation of the observed values, the smoothing operation is known as a linear smoother; the matrix representing the transformation is known as a smoother matrix or hat matrix.[citation needed]

- In spline smoothing

$$\hat{Y} = \underbrace{B(B^\top B + \lambda \Omega)^{-1} B^\top}_{S_\lambda} Y.$$

*from before (smoothing matrix)*

suggesting definition of **equivalent degrees of freedom** of smoother as

$$\downarrow$$

$$\text{edf} = \text{trace}(S_\lambda)$$

The operation of applying such a matrix transformation is called convolution.

- $\text{trace}(S_\lambda)$  is monotone decreasing in  $\lambda$ , with  $\text{trace}(S_\lambda) \rightarrow 2$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$  (will always have two nonzero eigenvalues) and  $\text{trace}(S_\lambda) \rightarrow n$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ .
- Note 1-1 map  $\lambda \leftrightarrow \text{trace}(S_\lambda) = \text{df}$ , so usually determine roughness using edf (interpretation easier).
- Each eigenvalue of  $S_\lambda$  lies in  $(0, 1)$ , so this is a smoothing matrix, not a projection matrix.

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

## Bias/Variance Tradeoff and Cross Validation

Focus on the fit for the given grid  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{g}} = (\hat{g}(x_1), \dots, \hat{g}(x_n)), \quad \mathbf{g} = (g(x_1), \dots, g(x_n))$$

Consider the mean squared error:

$$\mathbb{E}(\|\mathbf{g} - \hat{\mathbf{g}}\|^2) = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\{\|\mathbb{E}(\hat{\mathbf{g}}) - \hat{\mathbf{g}}\|^2\}}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\|\mathbf{g} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\mathbf{g}})\|^2}_{\text{bias}^2}.$$

In the case of a linear smoother, for which  $\hat{\mathbf{g}} = \mathbf{S}_\lambda \mathbf{Y}$ , we easily calculate

$$\mathbb{E}(\|\mathbf{g} - \hat{\mathbf{g}}\|^2) = \frac{\text{trace}(\mathbf{S}_\lambda \mathbf{S}_\lambda^\top)}{n} \sigma^2 + \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{S}_\lambda \mathbf{g})^\top (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{S}_\lambda \mathbf{g})}{n},$$

so

- $\lambda \uparrow \implies \text{variance} \downarrow \text{ but bias } \uparrow$ ,
- $\lambda \downarrow \implies \text{bias} \downarrow \text{ but variance } \uparrow$ .
- Would like to choose  $\lambda$  to find optimal bias-variance tradeoff:  
 $\hookrightarrow$  Unfortunately, optimal  $\lambda$  will depend on unknown  $g$ !



# Nonparametric relationships with $x_j$

- Fitted values are  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{S}_\lambda \mathbf{Y}$ .
- Fitted value  $\hat{Y}_j^-$  obtained when  $(Y_j, x_j)$  is dropped from fit is

$$S_{jj}(\lambda)(Y_j - \hat{Y}_j^-) = \hat{Y}_j - \hat{Y}_j^-.$$

- Cross-validation sum of squares is

$$\text{CV}(\lambda) = \sum_{j=1}^n (Y_j - \hat{Y}_j^-)^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ \frac{Y_j - \hat{Y}_j}{1 - S_{jj}(\lambda)} \right\}^2,$$

and generalised cross-validation sum of squares is

$$\text{GCV}(\lambda) = \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ \frac{Y_j - \hat{Y}_j}{1 - \text{trace}(\mathbf{S}_\lambda)/n} \right\}^2,$$

where  $S_{jj}(\lambda)$  is  $(j, j)$  element of  $\mathbf{S}_\lambda$ .

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

If  $\mathcal{F} \ni g(\cdot)$  is a separable Hilbert space, we can write:

$$g(x) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \beta_k \psi_k(x) \quad (\text{in an appropriate sense}),$$

with  $\{\psi_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  known (orthogonal) basis functions for  $\mathcal{F}$ , e.g.,

- $\mathcal{F} = L^2(-\pi, \pi)$ ,
- $\{\psi_k\} = \{e^{-ikx}\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ ,  $\psi_i \perp \psi_j$ ,  $i \neq j$ .
- Gives Fourier series expansion,  $\beta_k = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(x) e^{-ikx} dx$ .

If we **truncate series**, then we reduce to **linear regression**:

$$Y_i = \sum_{|k| < \tau} \beta_k \psi_k(x_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad \tau < \infty$$

Notice: truncation has implications, e.g., in Fourier case:

- Truncating implies assume  $g \in \text{span}\{\psi_{-\tau}, \dots, \psi_{\tau}\} \subset L^2$ .
- Interpret this as a smoothness assumption on  $g$ .
- How to choose  $\tau$  optimally?

?

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

Classical exercise in Fourier analysis shows that

$$\sum_{k=-\tau}^{\tau} \beta_k e^{-ikx} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) D_{\tau}(x-y) dy$$

with the **Dirichlet kernel** of order  $\tau$ ,  $D_{\tau}(u) = \sin\{(\tau + 1/2)u\} / \sin(u/2)$ .

Recall kernel smoother:

$$\hat{g}(x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Y_i K_{\lambda}(x_i - x_0)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_{\lambda}(x_i - x_0)} = \frac{1}{c} \int_I y(x) K_{\lambda}(x - x_0) dx,$$

with

$$y(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \delta(x - x_i).$$

- So if  $K$  is the Dirichlet kernel, we can do series approximation via kernel smoothing.
- Works for other series expansions with other kernels (e.g., Fourier with convergence factors)



# Orthogonal functions

- Suppose again that we observe

$$Y_i = h(x_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

- Here  $\varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$  are iid.
- Initially we assume  $x_i = i/n$  namely a regular design for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- Let  $\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots$  be an orthogonal basis for the interval  $[0, 1]$ .  
Often the cosine basis is used

$$\phi_1(x) = 1, \quad \phi_j(x) = \sqrt{2} \cos(\{j-1\}\pi x), \quad j = 2, 3, \dots$$

*cos(0)=1*

- Here we expand  $h(x)$  as

$$h(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \theta_j \phi_j(x),$$

where  $\theta_j = \int_0^1 h(x) \phi_j(x) dx$ .

# Orthogonal functions II

- We approximate

$$h_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j \phi_j(x),$$

like regular  
bias functions in ML  
↑

which is a projection of  $h(x)$  into the span of  $\{\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots, \phi_n(x)\}$ .

- This introduces an integrated squared bias of

$$B_n(\theta) = \int_0^1 \{r(x) - r_n(x)\}^2 dx = \sum_{j=n+1}^{\infty} \theta_j^2.$$

- We can understand this further.

# Orthogonal functions III

- This can be quantified.

Lemma: Let  $\Theta(m, c)$  be a Sobolev ellipsoid. Then

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta(m, c)} B_n(\theta) = O\left(\frac{1}{n^{2m}}\right).$$

?

- A Sobolev ellipsoid is a set of functions for which  $\theta_j^2 \sim (\pi j)^{2m}$ ; an ellipsoid is defined by

$$\Theta = \left\{ \theta : \sum_j a_j^2 \theta_j^2 \leq c^2 \right\}.$$

- Therefore if  $m > 1/2$  we find  $B_n = o(1/n)$ .
- The bias is negligible and we shall ignore it for the rest of the chapter. We will therefore focus on estimating  $h_n(x)$  rather than  $h(x)$ .

# Orthogonal functions IV

- We define

$$Z_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \phi_j(x_i), \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- We can then ask what is the distribution of  $Z_j$ ?
- We note that

$$\begin{aligned} Z_j &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \phi_j(x_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{h(x_i) + \varepsilon_i\} \phi_j(x_i) \\ &= \theta_j + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i \phi_j(x_i) = \theta_j + \nu_j. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Using earlier results we can deduce that  $\nu_j \sim N(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ .

# Orthogonal functions V

- We know from a previous section ([Lecture 7](#)) that [shrinkage estimators](#) can reduce the mean square error.
- We shall discuss James-Stein estimators a bit further.
- A [modulator](#) is a vector  $b = (b_1 \dots b_n)$  such that  $0 \leq b_j \leq 1$  for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ .
- A [modulation estimator](#) takes the form

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta} &= b \odot Z \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} b_1 Z_1 \\ \dots \\ b_n Z_n \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}\tag{2}$$

- A [constant modulator](#) is a modulation of the form  $(b \dots b)$ .
- A [nested subset selection](#) modulator is a modulator of the form  $(b \dots b \ 0 \dots 0)$ .



# Orthogonal functions VI

- A monotone modulator is of the form

$$1 \geq b_1 \geq b_2 \geq \dots \geq b_n \geq 0.$$

- The function estimator provided by a modulator is

$$\hat{h}_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \hat{\theta}_j \phi_j(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n b_j Z_j \phi_j(x).$$

because it removes the  
higher frequency behavior

i.e. we're solving  
our problem

like in CNNs:  $\sum_k \sum_l w_{kl} \phi(x_{ij})$

This is a linear smoother.

- Modulators shrink  $Z_j$  towards 0. This smoothes the function estimates.
- We define the risk as

$$R(b) = \mathbb{E}_\theta \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n (b_j Z_j - \theta_j)^2 \right\}$$

# Orthogonal functions VII

- To estimate  $b$  we need to estimate  $\sigma$ . There are reasons why we would take

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n - J_n} \sum_{i=n-J_n+1}^n Z_i^2.$$

variability in terms of wiggles  
vs variability in terms of true  
function

- Often we take  $J_n = n/4$ .
- Theorem: The risk of a modulator  $b$  is

$$R(b) = \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_j^2 (1 - b_j)^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2.$$

- The SURE estimator of  $R(b)$  are

$$\hat{R}(b) = \sum_{j=1}^n \left( Z_j^2 - \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n} \right)_+ (1 - b_j)^2 + \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2.$$

# Orthogonal functions VIII

- The modulation estimator of  $\theta$  is

$$\theta = (\hat{b}_1 Z_1, \hat{b}_2 Z_2, \dots).$$

as before we used  $\theta = bz$   
when re-writing  $h(x)$   
(slide 12)

where  $b$  minimises  $\hat{R}(b)$ . This yields

$$\hat{h}_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \hat{\theta}_j \phi_j(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n b_j Z_j \phi_j(x).$$

For a fixed  $b$  we expect that  $\hat{R}(b)$  approximates  $R(b)$ . We need more, as  $\hat{b}$  will depend on the same data as  $\hat{R}(b)$ . We therefore need  $\hat{R}(b)$  to approximate  $R(b)$  uniformly.

- We shall assume that the modulator takes the form

$$(1 \quad \dots 1 \quad 0 \quad \dots 0).$$

# Orthogonal functions IX

- This corresponds to picking  $J$  to minimize

$$\hat{R}(J) = \frac{J\hat{\sigma}^2}{n} + \sum_{j=J+1}^n \left( Z_j^2 - \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n} \right)_+.$$

- We note that  $\hat{R}(b)$  is

$$\hat{R}(b) = \sum_{i=1}^n \{b_i - g_i\}^2 Z_i^2 + \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_i.$$

- Here

$$g_i = \{Z_i^2 - \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{n}\}_+.$$

We therefore minimize  $\sum_{i=1}^n \{b_i - g_i\}^2 Z_i^2$ .

# Orthogonal functions X

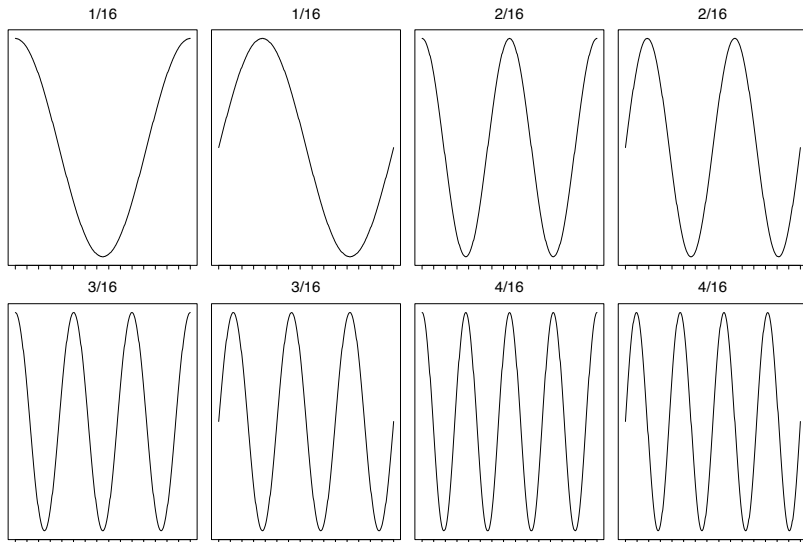
- This then produces an estimator.
- The first generalization of this problem uses a basis that is orthogonal with respect to the design points  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

- We define

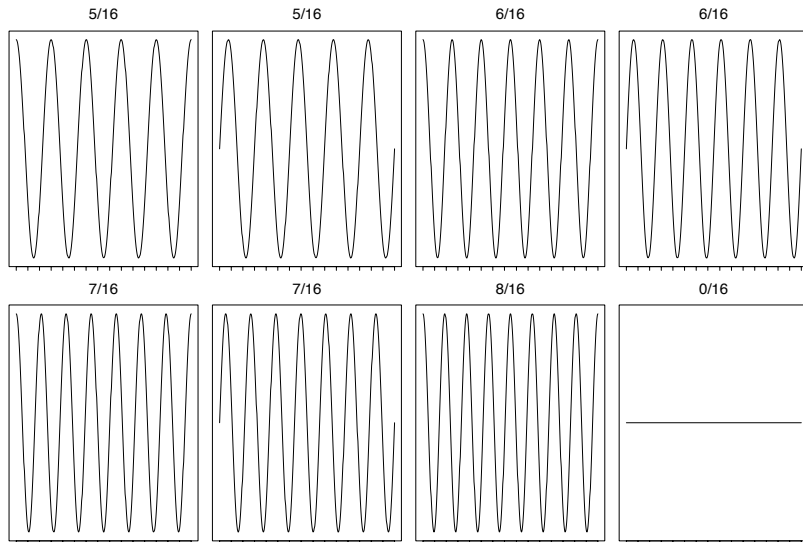
$$Z_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \phi(x_i).$$

- We can still use the developed methodology.

# Cosines & Sines



## Cosines &amp; Sines II



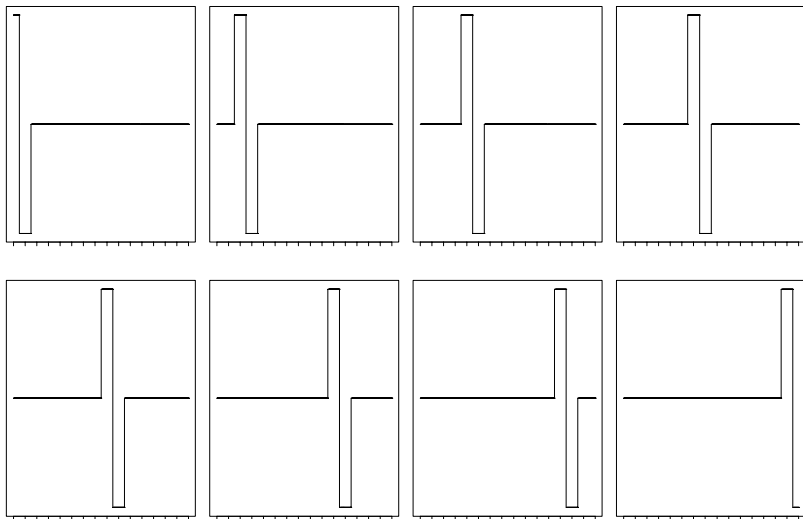
# Orthogonal functions X

- We could use other functions than those based on trigonometric functions.
- We could start from set  $\{\psi_{j,k}\}$  both associated with locality and scale.
- Until the 1980's the only well known orthogonal decompositions available were the Fourier bases, and orthogonal polynomials, which cannot make this time distinction.
- In the 1980's Ingrid Daubechies developed new projections which make this possible. These projections, or filters, are called *wavelets*, and form a substantial part of modern signal analysis.

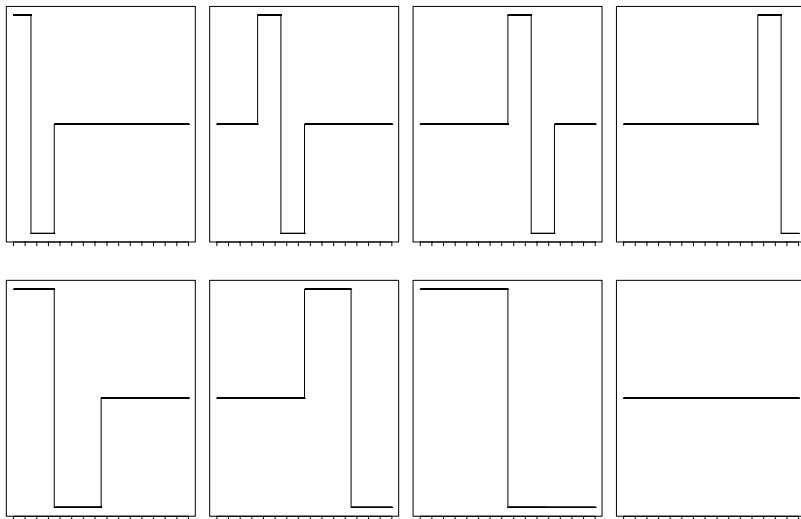
wavelets are better than sin/cos functions  
as they introduce locality.



# Haar wavelets



## Haar wavelets II



# Orthogonal functions X

General set-up to decompose into wavelets or general forms.....

- We model

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{W}\underline{Y} &= \mathcal{W}\underline{\mu} + \mathcal{W}\eta \\ \underline{W} &= \mathcal{W}\underline{\mu} + \underline{\epsilon}\end{aligned}$$

?

o

where

$$\mathbb{V}\text{ar}\{\underline{\epsilon}\} = \mathcal{W}\mathbb{V}\text{ar}\{\eta\}\mathcal{W}^T = \sigma^2\mathcal{W}\mathcal{W}^T = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n.$$

Use our knowledge of  $\underline{W}$  to find a good estimate of  $\underline{\mu}$  via  $\mathcal{W}$ .

$$\tilde{\sigma}_{\text{mad}} = \frac{\text{median}\{|W_1|, \dots, |W_{n/2}|\}}{0.6745}.$$

We shall threshold all but the final  $2^j$  entries by

$$W_j^{(ht)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |W_j| \leq \lambda \\ W_j & \text{if } |W_j| > \lambda \end{cases}$$

The only problem remains is how to choose  $\lambda$  well; look at order statistics of Gaussians;

# Orthogonal functions X



- We would wish as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$P(\max\{|W_i|\} > \lambda) \rightarrow 0$$

- So as we collect more observations we can guarantee that there is no noise left. We thus choose

$$\lambda = \sigma \sqrt{2 \ln(n)}$$

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_i$

So far: how to estimate  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (assumed smooth) in

$$Y_i = g(x_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad \varepsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2), \quad \text{given data } \{(Y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^n.$$

Can extend to GLM setting as:

$$Y_i | x_i \stackrel{indep}{\sim} \exp\{g(x_i)y - \gamma(g(x_i)) + S(y)\} \quad \leftarrow \text{if noise is not Gaussian?}$$

What happens

- Parametrise candidate  $g$  via spline

$$s(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \gamma_j B_j(x).$$

- Define matrices  $B$  and  $\Omega$  as before,

$$B_{ij} = B_j(x_i), \quad \Omega_{ij} = \int B_i''(x) B_j''(x) dx$$

- And consider **penalised likelihood**, similarly as with penalised GLM

$$\ell_n(\gamma) + \lambda \gamma^\top \Omega \gamma = \gamma^\top B^\top Y - \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma(b_i^\top \gamma) + \lambda \gamma^\top \Omega \gamma.$$

# Nonparametric relationships with $x_j$

How can we generalise to multivariate covariates?

- ▶ “Immediate” Generalisation:  $g : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (smooth)

$$Y_j = g(x_{j1}, \dots, x_{jp}) + \varepsilon_j, \quad \varepsilon_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

- ▶ Estimation by (e.g.) multivariate kernel method.
- ▶ Two basic drawbacks of this approach ...
  - ↪ Shape of kernel? (definition of *local*)
  - ↪ *Curse of dimensionality*