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## Penalized likelihood and soft thresholding

(A)

First, show that  $S_{\lambda}(y) = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2}(y-\theta)^2 + \lambda |\theta|$  has the negative log-likelihood of a Gaussian distribution with mean  $\theta$  and variance 1 as its quadratic term:

$$L(\theta|y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \cdot 1}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{2 \cdot 1}\right)$$
$$\log L(\theta|y) = \log\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right] - \frac{(y-\theta)^2}{2} = c - \frac{(y-\theta)^2}{2}$$

So the negative log-likelihood is  $\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{2} + c'$  for some  $c' \in \mathbb{R}$  that does depends on neither y nor  $\theta$ , which is exactly the quadratic term in  $S_{\lambda}(y)$ .

Now, let's prove the value

$$S_{\lambda}(y) = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} (y - \theta)^{2} + \lambda |\theta|$$

$$\theta > 0: \quad S_{\lambda}(y) = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} (\theta - y)^{2} + \lambda \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad 0 = \hat{\theta} - y + \lambda$$

$$S_{\lambda}(y) = \hat{\theta} = y - \lambda$$

$$\theta < 0: \quad S_{\lambda}(y) = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} (\theta - y)^{2} - \lambda \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad 0 = \hat{\theta} - y - \lambda$$

$$S_{\lambda}(y) = \hat{\theta} = y + \lambda$$

$$\theta = 0: \quad S_{\lambda}(y) = 0$$

So, we can now look at the arg min as selecting one of those three values of  $\hat{\theta}$ , depending on which one has the smallest value of the objective function  $f(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2}(y - \hat{\theta})^2 + \lambda |\hat{\theta}|$ :

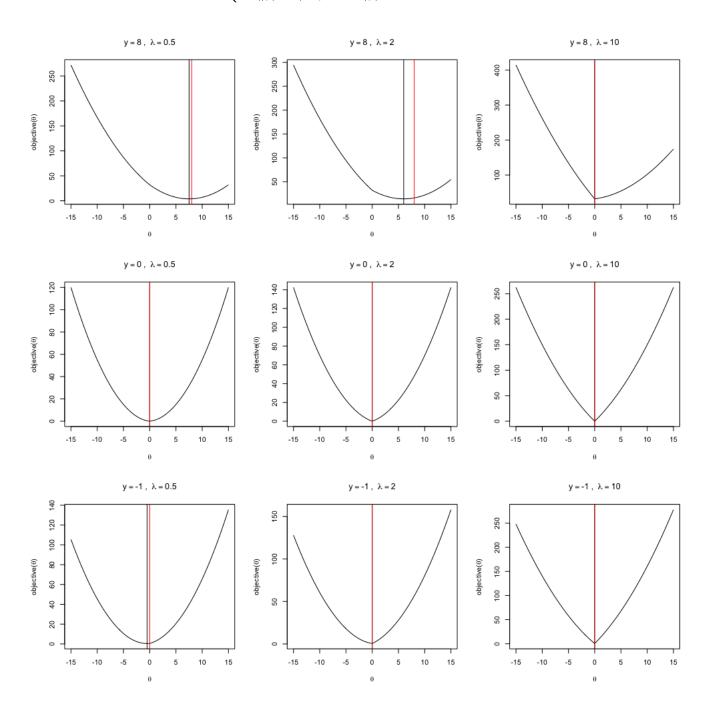
$$\begin{split} \theta > 0: \quad & f(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2} (y - [y - \lambda])^2 + \lambda |y - \lambda| \\ & = \frac{\lambda^2}{2} + \lambda |y - \lambda| \\ \theta < 0: \quad & f(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2} (y - [y + \lambda])^2 + \lambda |y + \lambda| \\ & = \frac{\lambda^2}{2} + \lambda |y + \lambda| \\ \theta = 0: \quad & f(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2} (y - 0)^2 + \lambda |0| \\ & = \frac{y^2}{2} \end{split}$$

Because the second term is a penalty, we can assume  $\lambda \geq 0$ , whereas  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus, if  $|y| \leq \lambda$ ,  $\hat{\theta} = 0$  produces the smallest value of the objective function ( $\hat{\theta} \neq 0$  has a quadratic term that's larger and adds a non-negative value to that). So  $|y| - \lambda \leq 0$  produces  $S_{\lambda}(y) = 0$  (in particular,  $S_{\lambda}(y) = 0$ ).

Now, if  $|y| > \lambda$  we must decide if  $\hat{\theta} > 0$  or  $\hat{\theta} < 0$ . The quadratic terms are identical, as is the multiplier of the absolute value term, so the absolute value term is all we need to consider. Because  $\lambda \ge 0$ , if y > 0 then

 $|y-\lambda| < |y+\lambda|$ , so  $S_{\lambda}(y) = y - \lambda = |y| - \lambda$ . Similarly, if y < 0 then  $|y-\lambda| > |y+\lambda|$  so  $S_{\lambda}(y) = y + \lambda = -|y| + \lambda$ . Therefore,

$$S_{\lambda}(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & y = 0\\ 0 & |y| \le \lambda \land y \ne 0\\ |y| - \lambda & y > 0 \land |y| > \lambda\\ -(|y| - \lambda) & y < 0 \land |y| > \lambda \end{cases} = \operatorname{sign}(y)(|y| - \lambda)_{+}$$



## Notes from class

Subdifferential calculus handles things like |x| by allowing more generality. If f(x) has a gradient at  $x_0$ , then the only subgradient is the gradient, so the subdifferential is  $\{\nabla f(x_0)\}$ . If it doesn't have a gradient there (there's some sort of cusp), then we want  $f(x) \geq f(x_0) + g \cdot (x - x_0)$  for all x (this restriction is harsh, and pretty much only works for convex functions). For example, if f(x) = |x|, then at  $x_0 = 0$  g = 0.5 would satisfy

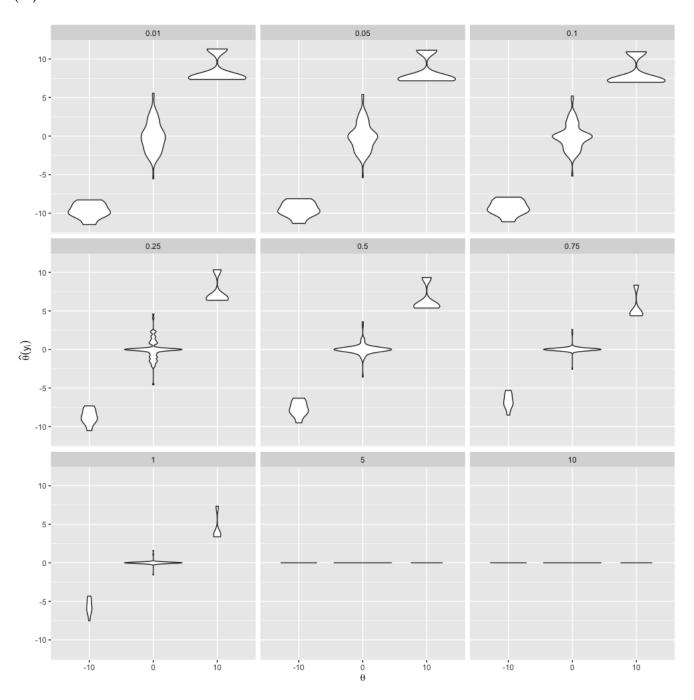
this (by being below |x| on either side of  $x_0$ ). In this case, any  $g \in [-1,1]$  is a subgradient and [-1,1] is the subdifferential.

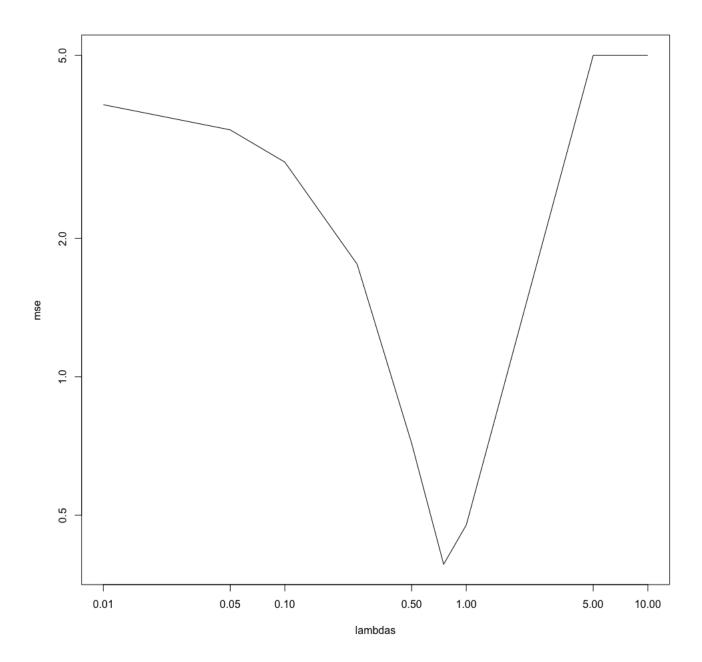
Theorem. Let  $\partial f(x_0)$  be the subdifferential at a given  $x_0$ . If f is convex, then we have  $0 \in \partial f(x_0) \Rightarrow x_0$  is optimal.

For example, f(x) = |x| has

$$\partial f(x) = \begin{cases} & \{ sign(x) \} & x \neq 0 \\ & [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(B)





## Notes from class

This independent normal means toy problem is useful for orthogonal decompositions for Fourier analysis or wavelets. The context of wavelets is:

$$y_i = f(x_i) + e_i$$
$$f(x)* = \sum_{k=1}^{D} \theta_k \psi_k(x)$$

where  $\psi_k$  are basis functions and  $\theta_k$  are coefficients.  $\psi_k$  in wavelets are generally not closed-form, but easy to graph (see Haar and Daubechies). This reduces down to a regression of normal means (especially if you have  $n = 2^d$  observations for some d, then split the Haar basis functions d times and get  $2^d$  values, that means that you get  $D = 2^d$  and you don't want overfitting, so you're just fitting the  $\theta_k$  by shrinking normal means.

## The lasso

