

# Review of Functional Partial Least Squares

## Application to Spectral Misalignment

Slides by Rory Samuels

# Multiple Linear Regression Model

Suppose we have a sample of  $n$  scalar valued response variables  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $p$  corresponding predictor variables  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ . The multiple linear regression model is given by

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \boldsymbol{\beta}'\mathbf{x}_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $\beta_0$  is the intercept,  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is a vector of coefficients corresponding to the variables in  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ .

► Note: for simplicity we assume  $\beta_0 = 0$ .

# Classical Partial Least Squares (PLS)

Let  $\mathbf{y}$  be the  $n \times 1$  vector of responses and  $\mathbf{X}$  be the  $n \times p$  matrix of measured predictor variables. Given weight vectors  $\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{k-1}$ , the  $k$ th PLS weight vector is obtained via

$$\begin{aligned} & \arg \max_{\mathbf{r}} \text{Cov}^2(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{r}), \quad \text{subject to:} \\ & \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{r}_m, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{r}) = 0 \quad \text{for } m = 1, \dots, k-1, \quad \text{and} \\ & \|\mathbf{r}\|_2^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

- Many algorithms for solving efficiently (e.g. SIMPLS/NIPALS)

# PLS Coefficients

Let  $\mathbf{R}$  be the  $p \times K$  matrix whose columns are the first  $K$  PLS empirical weight vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{r}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{r}}_K$ .

- ▶ X scores:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{R}$
- ▶ Y loadings:  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{T})^{-1}\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{y}$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{T}\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

- ▶ Coefficient:  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{PLS} = \mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\alpha}$

# Functional Linear Regression Model

For functional valued predictors  $x_i(w) \in L^2([a, b])$ , the functional linear regression model (FLM) is given by

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \int_a^b x_i(w)\beta(w)dw + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $\beta(w)$  is a functional valued coefficient.

- ▶ For now, we assume  $x_i(w)$  are known functions
- ▶ Again assuming  $\beta_0 = 0$  for notational simplicity

# Functional Partial Least Squares (FPLS)

Given weight functions  $r_1(w), \dots, r_{k-1}(w)$ , the  $k$ th FPLS weight function is given by

$$\arg \max_{r(w)} \text{Cov}^2 \left( y, \int_a^b x(w) r(w) dw \right), \quad \text{subject to:}$$

$$\text{Cov} \left( \int_a^b x(w) r_m(w) dw, \int_a^b x(w) r(w) dw \right) = 0 \quad \text{for } m = 1, \dots, k-1, \quad \text{and}$$

$$\|r(w)\|_2^2 = 1.$$

# Basis Expansion for Weight Functions

Let  $\mathbf{B}(w) = (B_1(w), \dots, B_{M+d}(w))'$  be a vector of  $M + d$  B-spline basis functions of degree  $d$  defined over  $M - 1$  equally spaced knots on  $[a, b]$ .

We can approximate the  $m$ th weight function by

$$r_m(w) \approx \mathbf{b}_m' \mathbf{B}(w),$$

where  $\mathbf{b}_m$  is a vector of  $M + d$  basis coefficients.

## Defining the $\mathbf{U}$ Matrix

Define  $u_{ij} = \int_a^b x_i(w)B_j(w)dw$  and  $\mathbf{u}_i = (u_{i1}, \dots, u_{i(M+d)})'$ . We can approximate the needed inner-products with:

$$\int_a^b x_i(w)r(w)dw \approx \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{u}_i.$$

- For all  $n$  observations, we can define an  $n \times (M + d)$  matrix  $\mathbf{U}$  with elements  $\mathbf{U}_{(ij)} = u_{ij}$ .



# Empirical FPLS Task

Given weight vectors  $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_{k-1}$ , the  $k$ th FPLS weight vector is obtained via

$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{b}} \text{Cov}^2(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{U}\mathbf{b}), \quad \text{subject to:}$$
$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{U}\mathbf{b}_m, \mathbf{U}\mathbf{b}) = 0 \quad \text{for } m = 1, \dots, k-1, \quad \text{and}$$

$$||\mathbf{b}'\mathbf{V}\mathbf{b}||_2^2 = 1.^1$$

- Equivalent to classical PLS with response vector  $\mathbf{y}$  and data-matrix  $\mathbf{U}$

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<sup>1</sup> $\mathbf{V}$  is the pos. def. matrix of inner products between all pairs of basis functions.

# FPLS Coefficient

Let  $\mathbf{R}$  be the  $p \times K$  matrix whose columns are the first  $K$  PLS empirical weight vectors  $\hat{\mathbf{b}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{b}}_K$ .

- ▶ U scores:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{UR}$
- ▶ Y loadings:  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{T})^{-1}\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{y}$

The estimated functional coefficient is then

$$\hat{\beta}_{FPLS}(w) = (\mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\alpha})'\mathbf{B}(w)$$

# Starting from Discrete Observations

The key to functional partial least squares is obtaining

$$\mathbf{U}_{(ij)} = \int_a^b x_i(w) B_j(w) dw, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, \dots, M + d.$$

- ▶ In practice, we observe  $p$  discrete points along each  $x_i(w)$
- ▶ We have options for how we approximate  $\mathbf{U}_{(ij)}$

# Numerical Approximation

- ▶ Simple option: we can approximate  $U_{(ij)}$  by

$$U_{(ij)} \approx \frac{b-a}{p} \sum_{k=1}^p x_i(w_k) B_j(w_k).$$

- ▶ Assumes noise-free observations
- ▶ Good if we have a dense observation grid

# Basis Expansion for Data

- ▶ Alternatively, we can expand each observation onto a set of suitable basis functions:

$$x_i(w) \approx \mathbf{c}_i' \mathbf{B}^x(w),$$

where  $\mathbf{B}^x(w)$  is a vector of  $M_x + d$  B-spline basis functions and  $\mathbf{c}_i$  is a vector of  $M_x + d$  basis coefficients. If we define

$$\Theta_{(ij)} = \int_a^b B_i^x(w) B_j(w) dw,$$

then we can express  $\mathbf{U}$  as

$$\mathbf{U} \approx \mathbf{C}\Theta,$$

where  $\mathbf{C}$  is an  $n \times (M_x + d)$  matrix of basis coefficients.

## Example I: Generated Responses

We generated  $n = 500$  scalar responses from

$$y_i = \int_0^1 x_i(w)\beta(w)dw + \epsilon_i$$

- ▶  $x_i(w)$ : random linear combinations of cubic B-spline basis functions<sup>2</sup>
- ▶  $\beta(w) = 10(w - 1)^2 + 30\cos(4\pi w^3)$
- ▶  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ <sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>The basis functions were defined over 50 knots and all coefficients were generated from a standard normal distribution.

<sup>3</sup>The error variance  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$  was chosen such that the signal-to-noise ratio was 5.

## Example I: Generated Predictors

To simulate misalignment, we sampled each  $x_i(w)$  along two observation grids,  $G_A$  and  $G_B$ , of length 425 and 150 respectively.

- ▶  $G_A$ :  $w = 0, .0024, .0048, \dots, 1$
- ▶  $G_B$ :  $w = 0, .0068, .0136, \dots, 1$

The final data-set consisted of  $y_i$  and corresponding discrete observations of  $x_i(w)$  on both  $G_A$  and  $G_B$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, 500$ .

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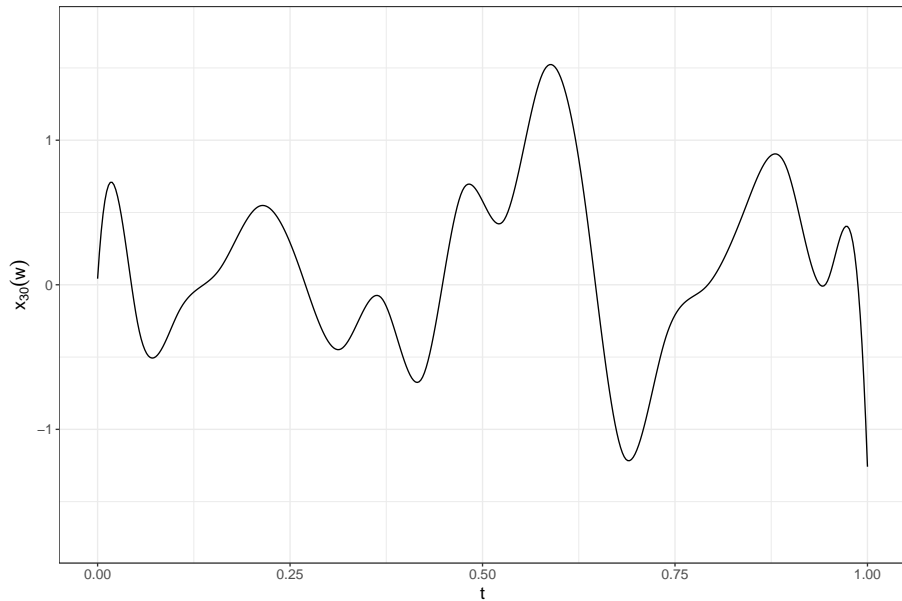
The final data-set consisted of  $y_i$  and corresponding discrete observations of  $x_i(w)$  on both  $G_A$  and  $G_B$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, 500$ .

- ▶ Goal: predict  $y$  from  $x(w)$  observed on  $G_B$ , using a model trained with  $x(w)$  observed on  $G_A$ .
  - ▶ 80/20 train/test split.



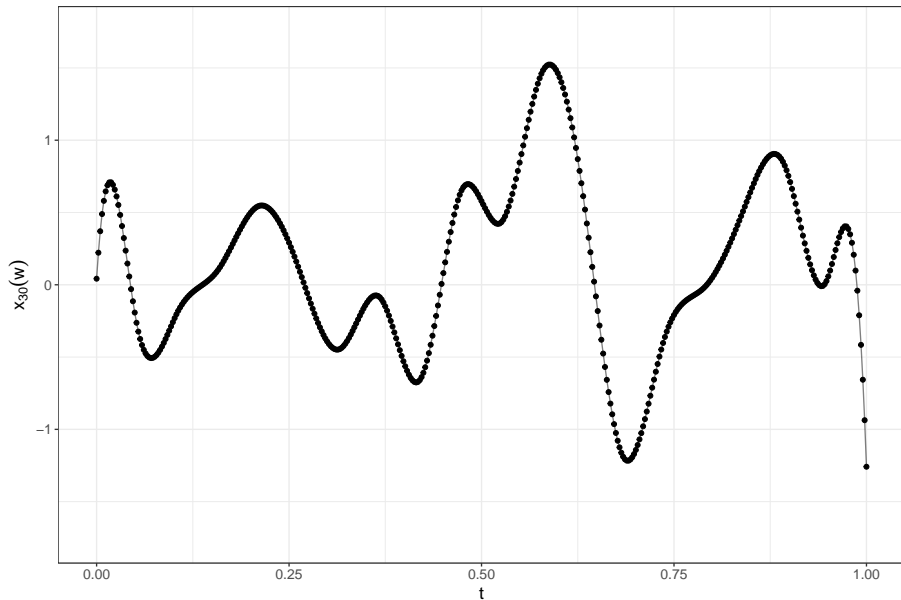
# Example I: Misaligned Grids

True Functional Predictor



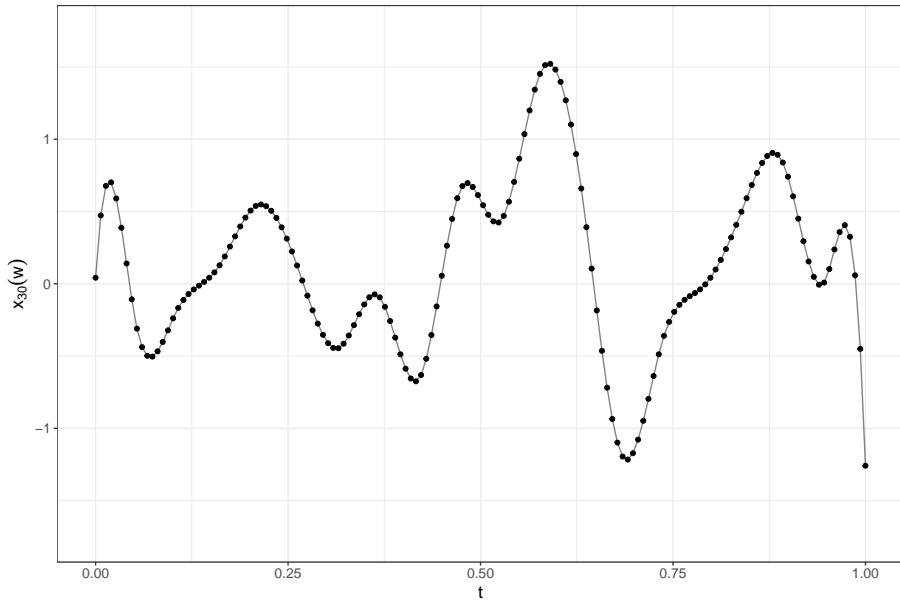
## Example I: Misaligned Grids

Observed Functional Predictor: Observation Grid A

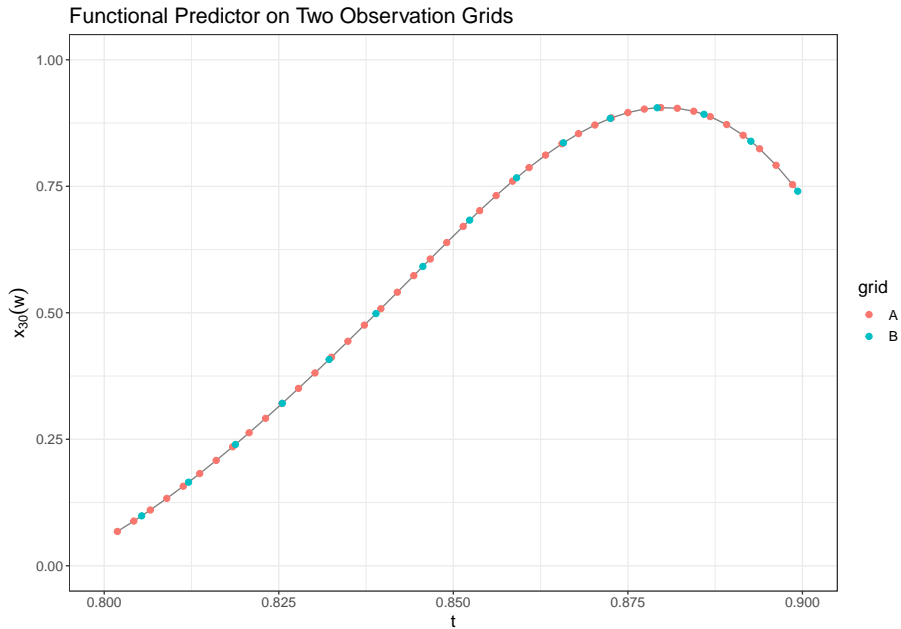


# Example I: Misaligned Grids

Observed Functional Predictor: Observation Grid B



# Example I: Misaligned Grids



## Example I: Two Approaches

- ▶ Goal: predict  $y$  from  $x(w)$  observed on  $G_B$ , using a model trained with  $x(w)$  observed on  $G_A$ .
  - ▶ 80/20 train/test split.

### Classical PLS Approach:

- ▶ Obtain PLS coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_A$  using  $y^{train}$  and  $x^{train}(w)$  on  $G_A$
- ▶ Select PLS coefficients closest to points on  $G_B$ ,  $\hat{\beta}_B$
- ▶ Predict  $y^{test}$  using observations of  $x^{test}(w)$  on  $G_B$  and  $\hat{\beta}_B$

## Example I: Two Approaches

- ▶ Goal: predict  $y$  from  $x(w)$  observed on  $G_B$ , using a model trained with  $x(w)$  observed on  $G_A$ .
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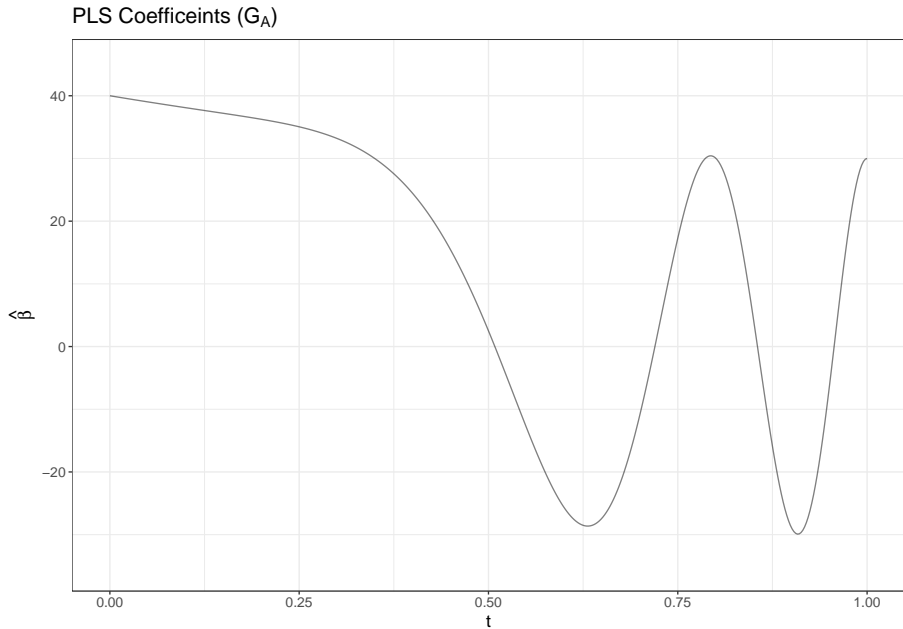
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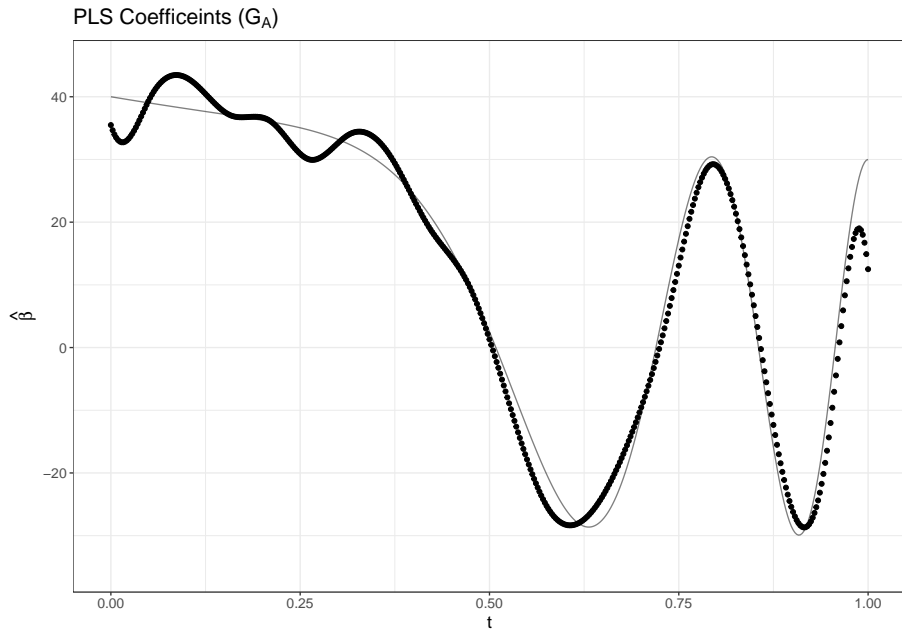
### Functional PLS approach:

- ▶ Obtain  $\hat{\beta}_{FPLS}(w)$  using observations of  $x^{train}(w)$  on  $G_A$
- ▶ Predict  $y^{test}$  using observations of  $x^{test}(w)$  on  $G_B$  and  $\hat{\beta}_{FPLS}(w)$ .

# Example I: Classical PLS



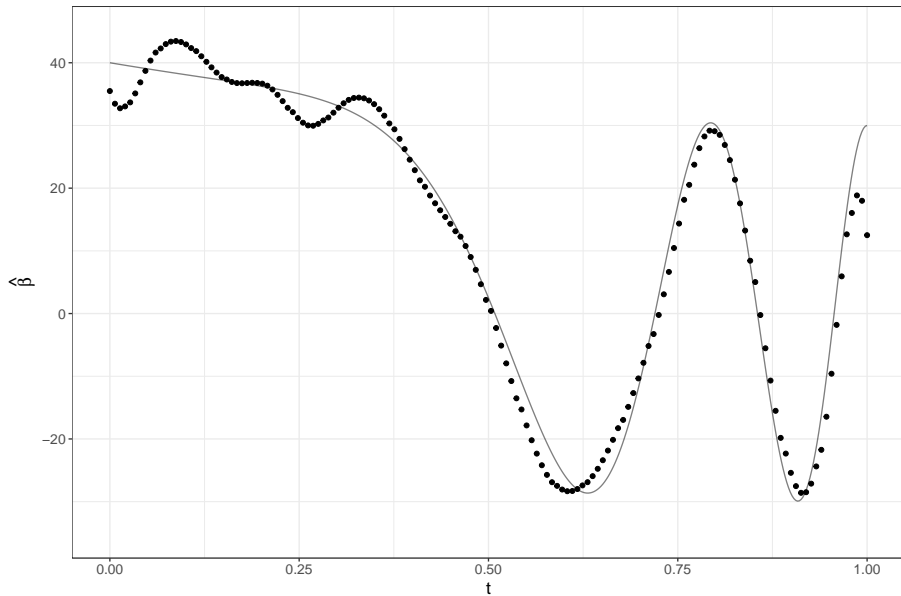
# Example I: Classical PLS



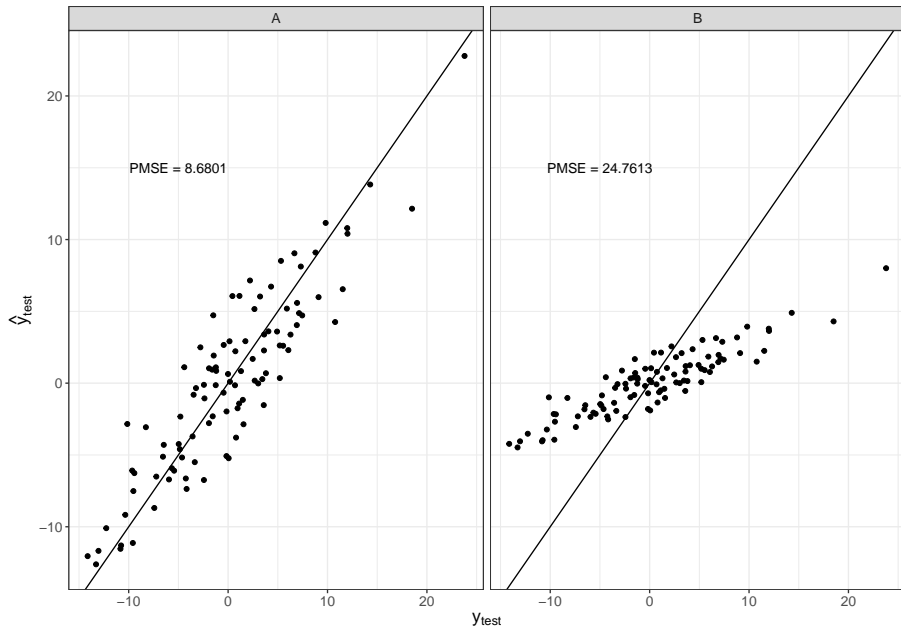


# Example I: Classical PLS

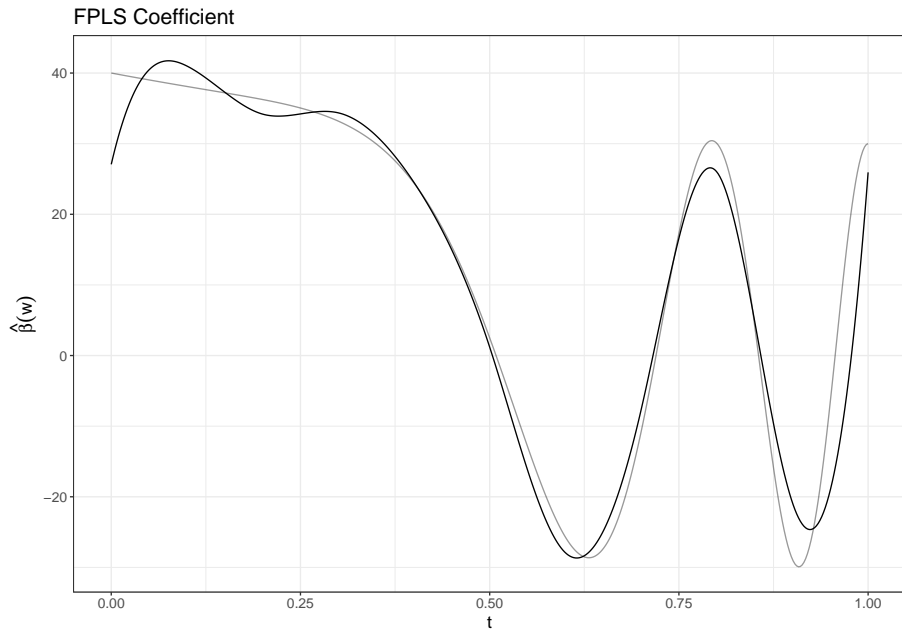
PLS Coefficients (closest to  $G_B$ )



# Example I: Classical PLS

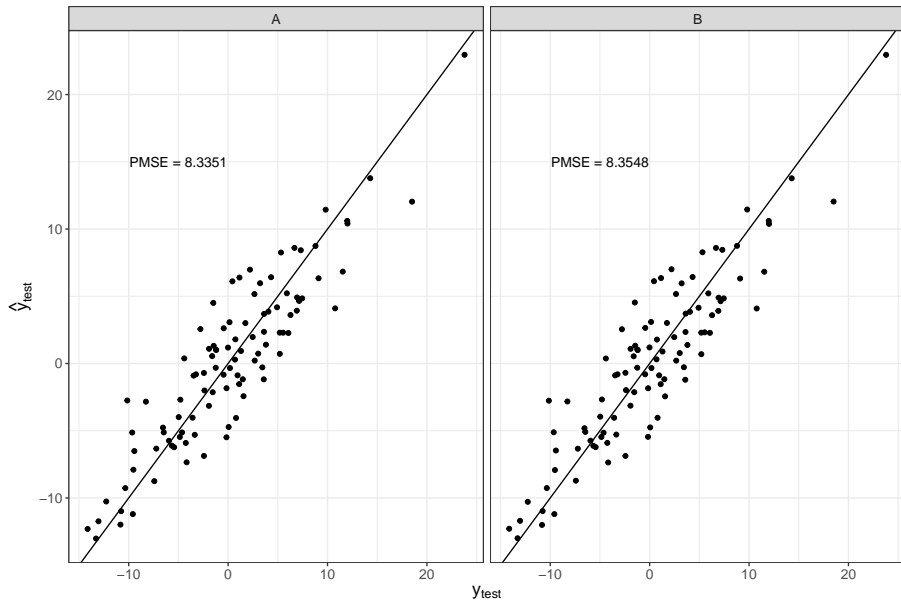


# Example I: Functional PLS



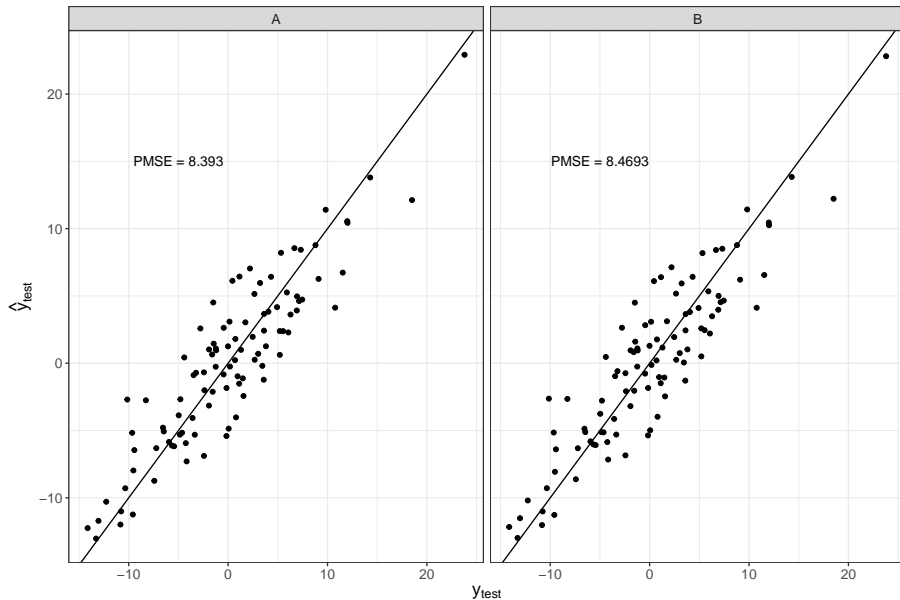
# Example I: Functional PLS

FPLS Predictions (with basis expansion)



# Example I: Functional PLS

FPLS Predictions (w/out basis expansion)



## Example II: AOP Crown Data

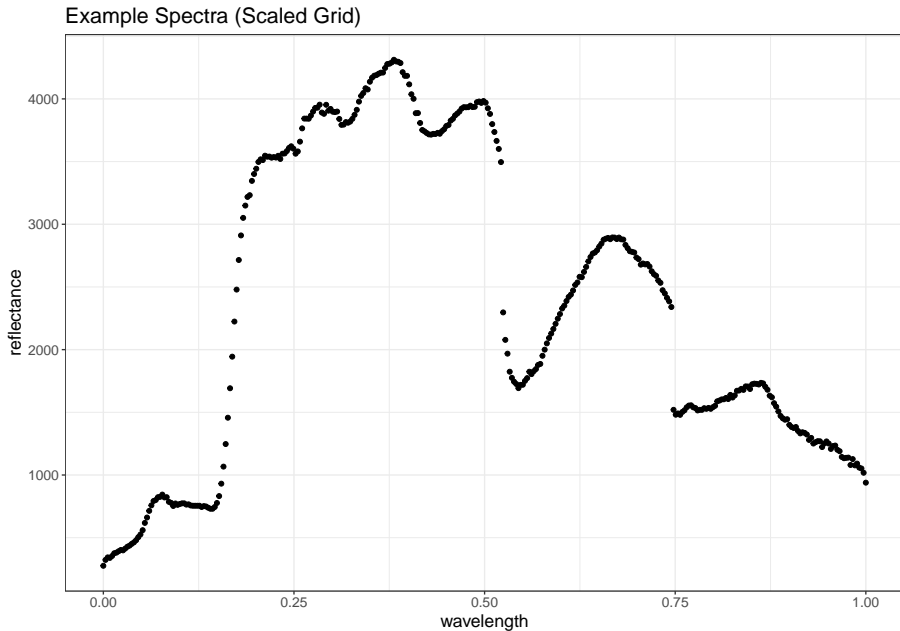
We applied the same method to the AOP Crown data-set to predict d15N from observed spectra. After joining the site trait data and spectra by SampleSiteID, and removing both “bad bands” and NA observations we had:

- ▶  $n = 2515$  observations
- ▶  $p_A = 350$  spectral points per spectra.

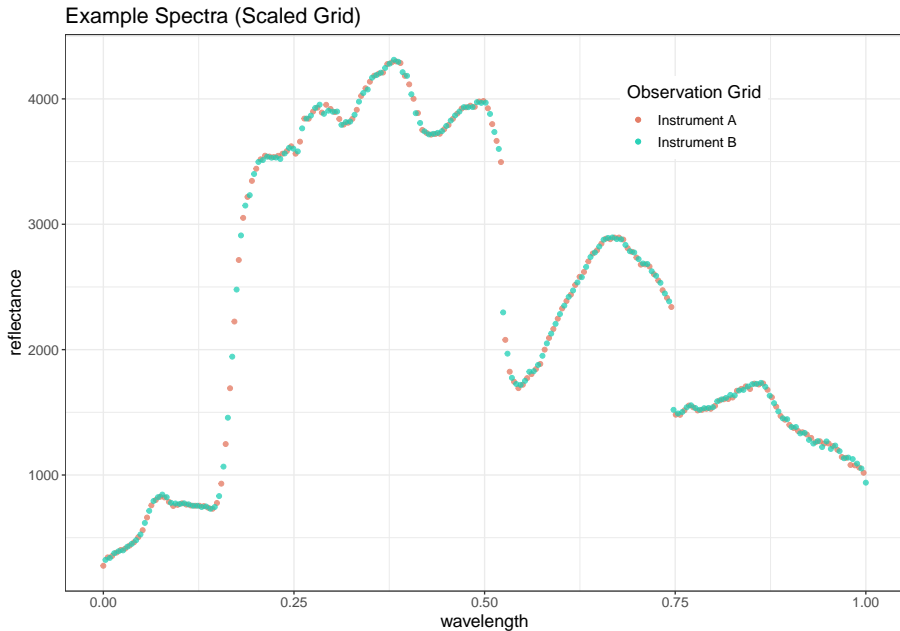
To simulate misalignment, we sampled every other spectral point for observation grid A and assigned the remaining spectral points to grid B.

- ▶ Grid A ( $G_A$ ): odd indices
- ▶ Grid B ( $G_B$ ): even indices.

## Example II: Spectra



# Example II: Two Observation Grids





## Example II: Two Approaches

- ▶ Goal: predict d15N from spectra observed on  $G_B$ , using a model trained with spectra observed on  $G_A$ .
  - ▶ 80/20 train/test split.

Classical PLS Approach + Linear Approximation:

- ▶ Obtain PLS coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_A$  using  $y^{train}$  and  $x^{train}(w)$  on  $G_A$
- ▶ Approximate  $x^{test}(w)$  on  $G_A$  using  $x^{test}(w)$  on  $G_B$  with straight lines
- ▶ Predict  $y^{test}$  using approx. observations of  $x^{test}(w)$  on  $G_A$  and  $\hat{\beta}_A$

## Example II: Two Approaches

- ▶ Goal: predict d15N from spectra observed on  $G_B$ , using a model trained with spectra observed on  $G_A$ .
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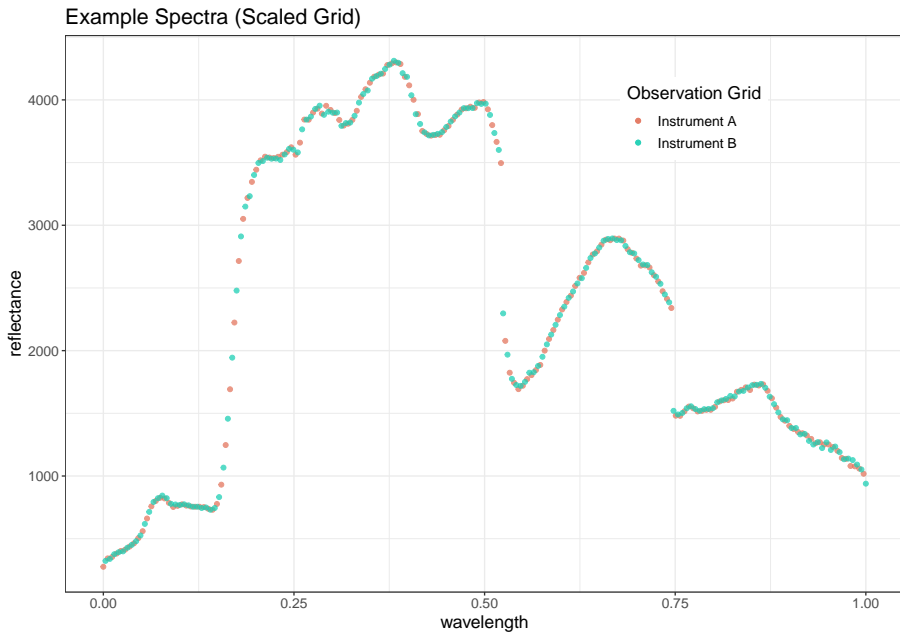
Classical PLS Approach + Linear Approximation:

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Functional PLS approach:

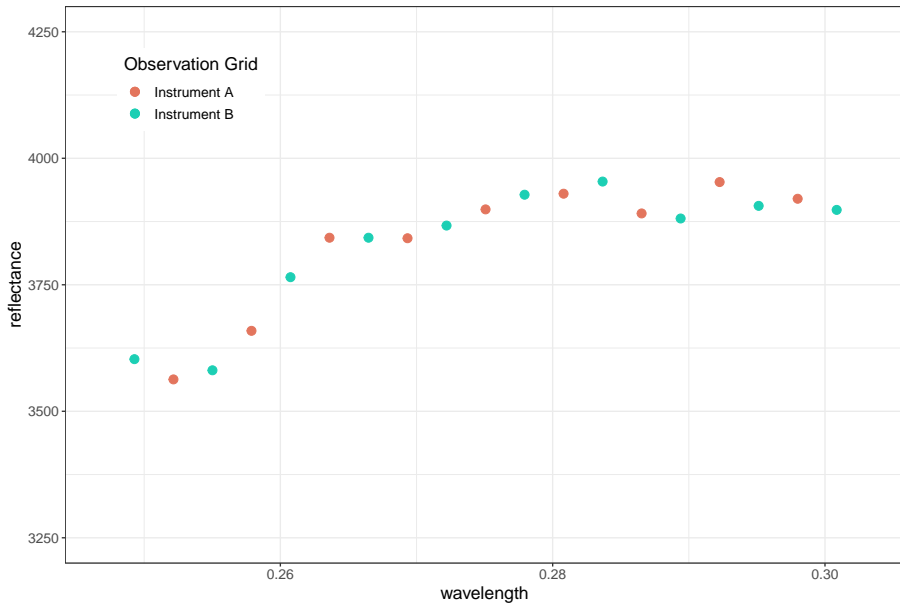
- ▶ Obtain  $\hat{\beta}_{FPLS}(w)$  using observations of  $x^{train}(w)$  on  $G_A$
- ▶ Predict  $y^{test}$  using observations of  $x^{test}(w)$  on  $G_B$  and  $\hat{\beta}_{FPLS}(w)$ .

# Example II: Linear Approximation



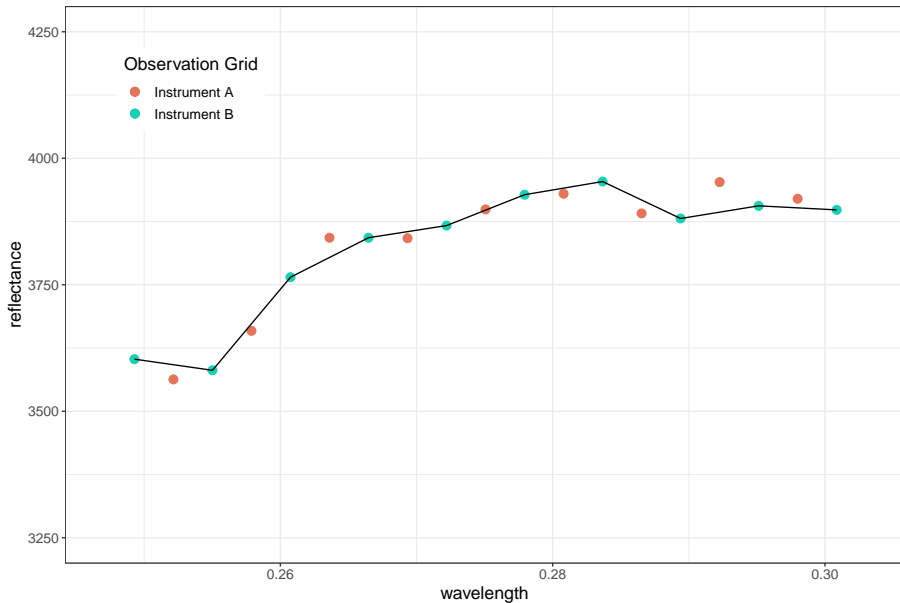
# Example II: Linear Approximation

Example Spectra (Zoomed In)



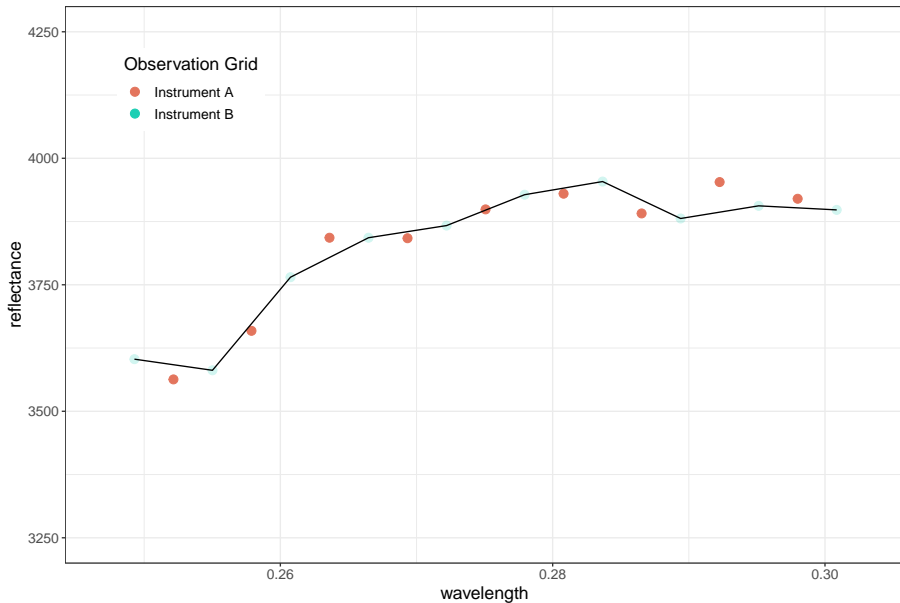
## Example II: Linear Approximation

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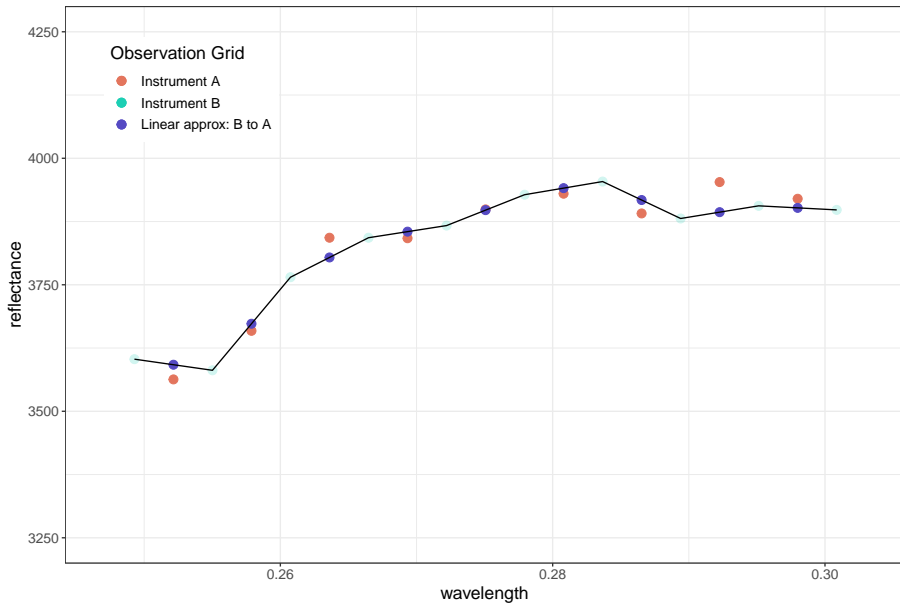
## Example II: Linear Approximation

Example Spectra (Zoomed In)



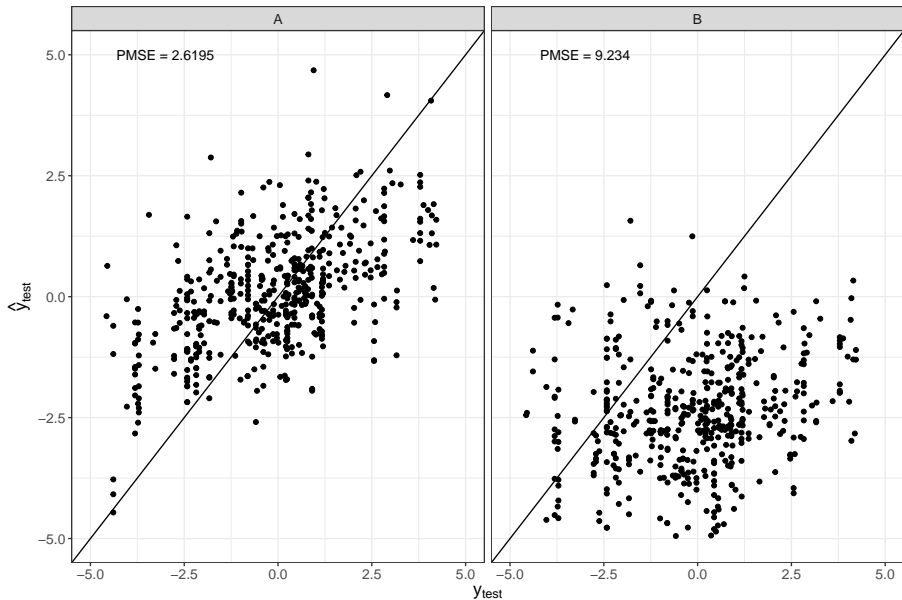
## Example II: Linear Approximation

Example Spectra (Zoomed In)



## Example II: Classical PLS + Linear Approximation

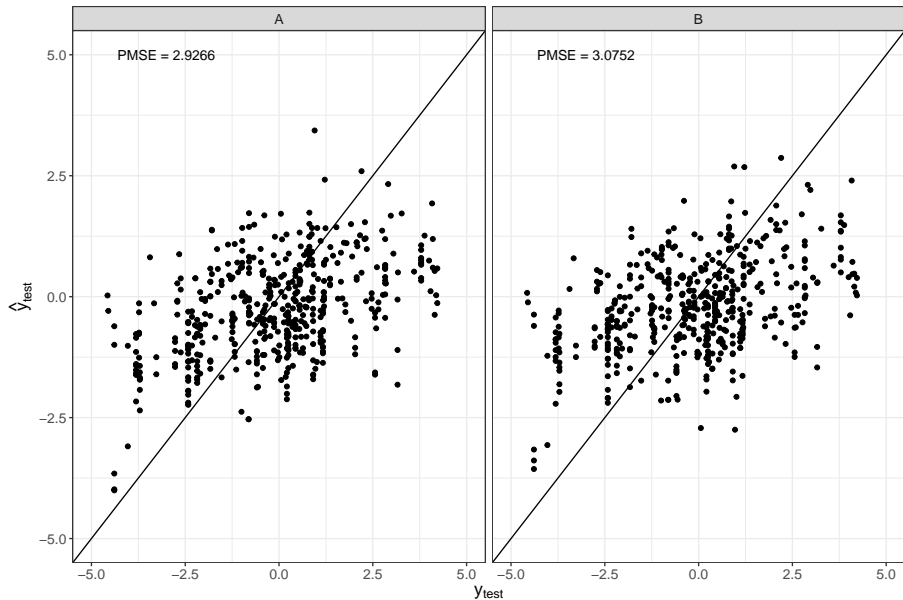
PLS Predictions





## Example II: Functional PLS

FPLS Predictions (with basis expansion)



## Appendix I: Intuition Behind FPLS Coefficient

Recall that the (0-intercept) FLM:

$$y_i = \int_a^b x_i(w) \beta(w) dw + \epsilon_i. \quad (1)$$

When we approximate  $r(w)$  as  $r(w) \approx \mathbf{b}'\mathbf{B}(w)$ , we implicitly assume

$$\beta(w) \approx \boldsymbol{\gamma}'\mathbf{B}(w), \quad (2)$$

allowing us to re-write (1) as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{U}\boldsymbol{\gamma} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}.$$

Performing PLS of  $\mathbf{U}$  on  $\mathbf{y}$  yields  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\gamma}} = \mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ . Hence, from (2),

$$\hat{\beta}(w) = (\mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\alpha})'\mathbf{B}(w).$$