Administration

- HW due February 11 by 1 pm
- ► Thursday, February 4: TA Li Li has office hours 1-2 (in class), 2-3 in SS 6027A
- Chapter 3: §3.1, 3.2 (except 3.2.4), 3.3 (except 3.3.3), 3.4 (except 3.4.4), 3.5.1
- ► Chapter 4: §4.1, 4.2, 4.3 (except 4.3.1, 4.3.2), 4.4.0, 4.4.1, 4.4.2
- My office hours are Tuesday 3-4 and Thursday 2-3 (although cancelled on Thursday Feb 4)



http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/cgi-bin/fulltext/123233977/HTMLSTART

Original Articles

Sparse partial least squares regression for simultaneous dimension reduction and variable selection (p Hyonho Chun, Sündüz Keleş Published Online: Jan 6 2010 6:54AM DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-9868.2009.00723.x 1/30

A few points on logistic regression

- ▶ Logistic regression: $Pr(G = k \mid X)$ linear on the logit scale
- Linear discriminant analysis: $Pr(G = k \mid X) \propto Pr(X \mid G = k)Pr(G = k)$
- ▶ Theory: LDA more efficient if X really is normal
- Practice: LR usually viewed as more robust, but HTF claim prediction errors are very similar
- See: last slide of Jan 26 for calculation of prediction errors on training data
- ▶ Data: LR is more complicated with K > 2; use multinom in the MASS library
- ► Lasso version of logistic regression described in §4.4.4

... logistic regression

- ▶ Deviance in a generalized linear model (such as LR), is $-2 \log L(\hat{\beta}) + constant$
- Comparing deviances from two model fits is a log-likelihood ratio test that the corresponding parameters are 0
- ▶ AIC compares instead $-2 \log L(\hat{\beta}) + 2p$
- for Binomial data, but not for binary data, residual deviance provides a test of goodness of fit of the binomial model

Flexible modelling using basis expansions

(Chapter 5)

- ▶ Linear regression: $y = X\beta + \epsilon$, $\epsilon \sim (0, \sigma^2)$
- ▶ 'Smooth' regression: $y = f(X) + \epsilon$
- $f(X) = E(Y \mid X)$ to be specified
- Flexible linear modelling

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

- ▶ This is called a linear basis expansion, and h_m is the mth basis function
- For example if X is one-dimensional: $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2$, or $f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \sin(X) + \beta_2 \cos(X)$, etc.
- ▶ Simple linear regression has $h_1(X) = 1$, $h_2(X) = X$. Several other examples on p.140

- ▶ Polynomial fits: $h_i(x) = x^j, j = 0, ..., m$
- Fit using linear regression with design matrix X, where $X_{ij} = h_j(x_i)$
- Justification is that any 'smooth' function can be approximated by a polynomial expansion (Taylor series)
- Can be difficult to fit numerically, as correlation between columns can be large
- May be useful locally, but less likely to work over the range of X
- Idea: fit polynomials locally in X
- Need to be careful not to overfit, since we are using only a fraction of the data

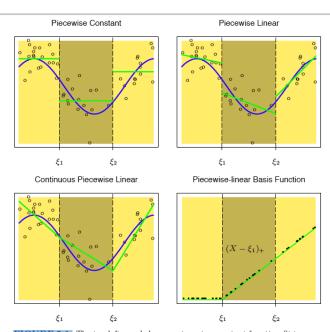
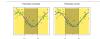


FIGURE 5.1. The top left panel shows a piecewise constant function fit to some artificial data. The broken vertical lines indicate the positions of the two knots ξ_1 and ξ_2 . The blue curve represents the true function, from which the data were

Piecewise polynomials

▶ piecewise constant basis functions $h_1(X) = I(X < \xi_1), \quad h_2(X) = I(\xi_1 \le X < \xi_2), h_3(X) = I(\xi_2 \le X)$

- fitting by local averaging
- ▶ piecewise linear basis functions , with constraints $h_1(X)=1, \quad h_2(X)=X$ $h_3(X)=(X-\xi_1)_+, \quad h_4(X)=(X-\xi_2)_+$
- windows defined by knots ξ_1, ξ_2, \dots



... cubic polynomials

- ▶ basis functions $h_1(X) = 1, h_2(X) = X, h_3(X) = X^2, h_4(X) = X^3$
- continuity $h_5(X) = (X \xi_1)^3_+, \quad h_6(X) = (X \xi_2)^3_+$
- continuous function, continuous first and second derivatives
 Figure 5.2

Cubic splines

- truncated power basis of degree 3
- ▶ need to choose number of knots K and placement of knots $\xi_1, \dots \xi_K$
- construct features matrix using truncated power basis set
- use constructed matrix as set of predictors

Bone density, Figure 5.6

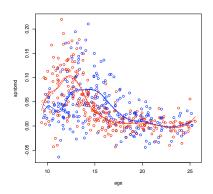
- ▶ data(bone) in ElemStatLearn
- ▶ 485 observations; 226 male, 259, female
- ightharpoonup covariate x = age; response y = bone density

... bone density

```
> data(bone) # bs(x) with no other arguments just gives a single cubic polynomial
> bone[1:4,] # bs(x, df=12) gives a proper cubic spline basis, with 9 knots
  idnum age gender
                          spnbmd
     1 11.70 male 0.018080670
     1 12.70 male 0.060109290
     1 13.75 male 0.005857545
     2 13.25 male 0.010263930
> bone.bs.m = with(subset(bone,gender=="male"),lm(spnbmd ~ bs(age)))
> bone.bs.f = with(subset(bone,gender=="female"),lm(spnbmd ~ bs(age)))
> plot(spnbmd ~ age, data = bone, col =
+ ifelse(gender=="male", "blue", "red2"))
> points(bone$age[bone$gender=="male"],bone.bs.m$fitted.values.col="blue", pch="+")
> points (bone age [bone agender == "female"], bone.bs.f fitted.values, col="red", pch="+")
  0.05
```

... useful code

```
> bone.bs.f = with(subset(bone,gender=="female"),lm(spnbmd ~ bs(age,df=12)))
> bone.bs.m = with(subset(bone,gender=="male"),lm(spnbmd ~ bs(age,df=12)))
> ordf = order(bone$age[bone$gender=="female"])
> ordm = order(bone$age[bone$gender=="male"])
> plot(spnbmd ~ age, data = bone, col = 
+ ifelse(gender=="male", "blue", "red2"))
> lines(maleage[ordm],bone.bs.m$fitted.values[ordm],col="blue")
> lines(femage[ordf],bone.bs.f$fitted.values[ordf],col="red")
```



Heart data

Regression splines (p.144) are linear fits to these basis functions

B-splines

- ► The *B*-spline basis equivalent to the truncated power basis
- Appendix to Ch. 5 describes the construction
- ▶ In R library(splines):
 bs(x, df=NULL, knots=NULL, degree=3,
 intercept=FALSE, Boundary.knots=range(x))
- Must specify either df or knots. For the B-spline basis, # knots = df degree and degree is usually 3
- Natural cubic splines are linear at the end of the range (§5.2.1)
- ▶ ns(x, df=NULL, knots=NULL, degree=3, intercept=FALSE, Boundary.knots=range(x))
- ► For natural cubic splines, # knots = df 1

... heart data

```
> heart.ns = glm (chd ~ ns(sbp,4) + ns(tobacco,4) + ns(ldl,4) + famhist + ns(obesity, 4) +
+ ns(age, 4), family=binomial)
> summary(heart.ns)
Call:
qlm(formula = chd ^n s(sbp, 4) + ns(tobacco, 4) + ns(ldl, 4) +
    famhist + ns(obesity, 4) + ns(age, 4), family = binomial)
Deviance Residuals:
        10 Median
   Min
                             30
                                    Max
-1.7216 -0.8322 -0.3777 0.8870 2.9694
Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -2.265534 2.367227 -0.957 0.338547
ns(sbp, 4)1 -1.474172 0.843870 -1.747 0.080652 .
ns(sbp, 4)2 -1.351182 0.759548 -1.779 0.075251 .
ns(sbp, 4)3 -3.729348 2.021064 -1.845 0.065003 .
ns(sbp, 4)4 1.381701
                        0.995268 1.388 0.165055
ns(tobacco, 4)1 0.654109
                        0.453248 1.443 0.148975
ns(tobacco, 4)2 0.392582
                         0.892628 0.440 0.660079
ns(tobacco, 4)3 3.335170
                        1.179656 2.827 0.004695 **
                        2.386584 1.611 0.107104
ns(tobacco, 4)4 3.845611
ns(ldl, 4)1 1.921215
                         1.311052
                                   1.465 0.142812
ns(ldl, 4)2
              1.783272
                        1.014883 1.757 0.078897 .
ns(ldl, 4)3 4.623680
                         2.972938 1.555 0.119885
ns(ldl, 4)4 3.354692
                         1.447217 2.318 0.020448 *
famhistPresent 1.078507
                        0.237685 4.538 5.69e-06 ***
ns(obesity, 4)1 -3.089393
                        1.707207 -1.810 0.070355 .
ns(obesity, 4)2 -2.385045
                        1.200450 -1.987 0.046945 *
ns(obesity, 4)3 -4.998882
                         3.796264
                                   -1.317 0.187909
ns(obesity, 4)4 0.009109
                          1.751127
                                   0.005 0.995850
```

The individual coefficients don't mean anything, we need to evaluate groups of coefficients. We can do this with successive likelihood ratio tests, by hand, e.g.

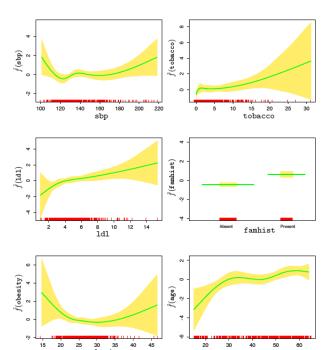
```
> update(heart.ns, . ~ . - ns(sbp,4))
Call: glm(formula = chd ~ ns(tobacco, 4) + ns(ldl, 4) + famhist + ns(obesity, 4) + ns(a
Coefficients:
   (Intercept) ns(tobacco, 4)1 ns(tobacco, 4)2 ns(tobacco, 4)3
      -3 91758
                      0.61696
                                    0.46188
                                                    3.51363
ns(tobacco, 4)4 ns(ldl, 4)1 ns(ldl, 4)2 ns(ldl, 4)3
       3.82464
                      1.70945
                                    1.70659
                                                   4.19515
   ns(ldl, 4)4 famhistPresent ns(obesity, 4)1 ns(obesity, 4)2
       2.90793
                      0.99053
                                 -2.93143 -2.32793
ns(obesity, 4)3 ns(obesity, 4)4 ns(age, 4)1 ns(age, 4)2
                                    2.52772
      -4.87074
                  -0.01103
                                                3.12963
   ns(age, 4)3 ns(age, 4)4
       7.34899
                     1.53433
Degrees of Freedom: 461 Total (i.e. Null); 444 Residual
Null Deviance:
                596.1
Residual Deviance: 467.2 ATC: 503.2
> 467.2 - 458.1
[1] 9.1
> pchisq(9.1,df=4)
[1] 0.941352
> 1-.Last.value
[1] 0.05864798 # compare Table 5.1
```

The function step does all this for you:

```
> step(heart.ns)
Start: AIC=502.09
chd ~ ns(sbp, 4) + ns(tobacco, 4) + ns(ldl, 4) + famhist + ns(obesity,
   4) + ns(age, 4)
              Df Deviance AIC
                  458.09 502.09
<none>
- ns(obesity, 4) 4 466.24 502.24
- ns(sbp, 4) 4 467.16 503.16
- ns(tobacco, 4) 4 470.48 506.48
- ns(ldl, 4) 4 472.39 508.39
- ns(age, 4) 4 481.86 517.86
- famhist 1 479.44 521.44
> anova(heart.ns)
Analysis of Deviance Table
Model: binomial, link: logit
Response: chd
Terms added sequentially (first to last)
              Df Deviance Resid, Df Resid, Dev
NULL
                             461 596.11
ns(sbp, 4)
              4 19.26
                            457 576.85
453 529.95
ns(tobacco, 4) 4 46.90
                            449 510.87
ns(ldl, 4) 4 19.08
             1 25.29 448 485.58
famhist
ns(obesity, 4) 4 3.73 444 481.86
ns(age, 4) 4 23.77 440 458.09
```

Notes

- ► The degrees of freedom fitted are the number of columns in the basis matrix (+ 1 for the intercept).
- ► This can also be computed as the trace of the hat matrix, which can be extracted from lm.
- This works as well for glm, because generalized linear models are fitted using iteratively reweighted least squares
- ▶ §5.2.3 and §5.3 later
- ▶ fitted function $\hat{f}_j(X_j) = h_j(X_j)^T \hat{\theta}_j$ Figure 5.4
- standard errors?



Smoothing splines (§5.4)

- ridge regression applied to natural cubic splines
- lots and lots of knots; lead to lots and lots of parameters
- regularize the solution through a penalty term

New notation:
$$f(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_i N_i(X)$$
 (5.10)

knots at each distinct x value

$$\min_{\theta} (y - N\theta)^{T} (y - N\theta) + \lambda \theta^{T} \Omega_{N} \theta \quad (5.11)$$

- $ightharpoonup N_{ij} = N_i(x_i), \quad \Omega_{jk} = \int N_i''(t)N_k''(t)dt$
- ▶ note use of N for set of natural splines
- solution

$$\hat{\theta} = (N^T N + \lambda \Omega_N)^{-1} N^T y$$

Smoothing splines (§5.4)

solution

$$\hat{\theta} = (N^T N + \lambda \Omega_N)^{-1} N^T y$$

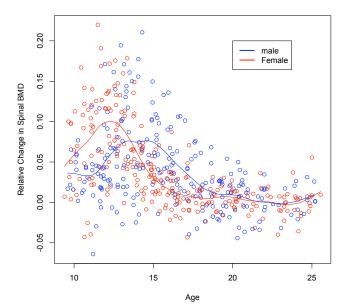
► This solves the variational problem

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{f} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{y_{i} - f(x_{i})\}^{2} + \lambda \int_{a}^{b} \{f''(t)\}^{2} dt$$

- the solution is a natural cubic spline with knots at each x_i
- fitted curve

$$\hat{f}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} N_j(x)\hat{\theta}_j$$

Figure 5.6



... smoothing splines

- How many parameters have been fit?
- vector of fitted values at the training data

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

▶ By analogy with ordinary regression, define the effective degrees of freedom (EDF) as

trace
$$S_{\lambda}$$

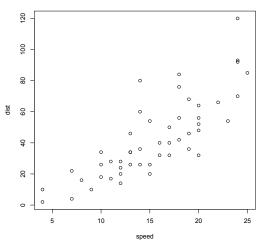
- smoother matrix: symmetric, positive definite not a projection matrix
- ▶ See p. 153–155 for more details on properties of S_{λ}
- How to choose λ?
- a) Decide on degrees of freedom to be used, e.g. smooth.spline(x,y,df=6), note that increasing df means less 'bias' and more 'variance'.
- b) Automatic selection by cross-validation (Figure 5.9)

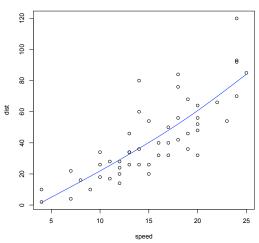
... smoothing splines

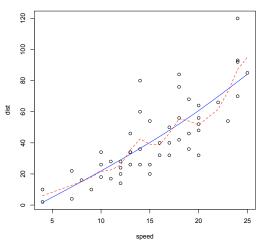
A smoothing spline version of logistic regression is outlined in §5.6, but we'll wait till we discuss generalized additive models.

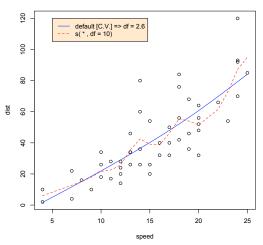
An example from the R help file for smooth.spline:

```
> data(cars)
> attach(cars)
> plot(speed, dist, main = "data(cars) & smoothing splines")
> cars.spl <- smooth.spline(speed, dist)
> (cars.spl)
Call:
smooth.spline(x = speed, v = dist)
Smoothing Parameter spar= 0.7801305 lambda= 0.1112206 (11 iterations)
Equivalent Degrees of Freedom (Df): 2.635278
Penalized Criterion: 4337 638
GCV: 244.1044
> lines(cars.spl, col = "blue")
       lines (smooth.spline (speed, dist, df=10), ltv=2, col = "red")
       legend(5,120,c(paste("default [C.V.] => df =",round(cars.spl$df,1)),
                      "s( * , df = 10)"), col = c("blue", "red"), lty = 1:2,
              ba='bisaue')
> detach()
```









Multidimensional splines (§5.7)

- so far we are considering just 1 X at a time
- for regression splines we replace each X by the new columns of the basis matrix
- for smoothing splines we get a univariate regression
- it is possible to construct smoothing splines for two or more inputs simultaneously, but computational difficulty increases rapidly
- these are called thin plate splines
- ▶ alternative: $E(Y \mid X_1, ..., X_p) = f_1(X_1) + f_2(X_2) + \cdots + f_p(X_p)$ additive models
- binary response: logit{ $E(Y \mid X_1, ..., X_p)$ } = $f_1(X_1) + f_2(X_2) + \cdots + f_p(X_p)$ generalized additive models