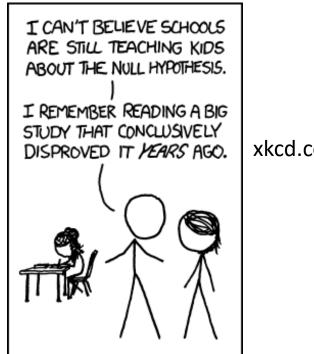


# Moving Beyond Linearity

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xkcd.com

# Course Outline

- 1. Introduction to Statistical Learning
- 2. Linear Regression
- 3. Classification
- 4. Resampling Methods
- 5. Linear Model Selection and Regularization

#### 6. Moving Beyond Linearity

- 7. Tree-Based Methods
- 8. Support Vector Machines
- 9. Unsupervised Learning
- 10.Neural Networks and Genetic Algorithms

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# Agenda

Introduction



# Modeling Nonlinear Relationships

- Polynomial regression extends the linear model by adding extra predictors
- Step functions cut the range of a variable into "k" distinct regions
- Regression splines are more flexible than polynomials and step functions
- Smoothing splines include a smoothness penalty
- Local regression makes use of distance information to perform regression
- Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) allow us to extend the above approaches to deal with multiple predictors

# Polynomial Regression

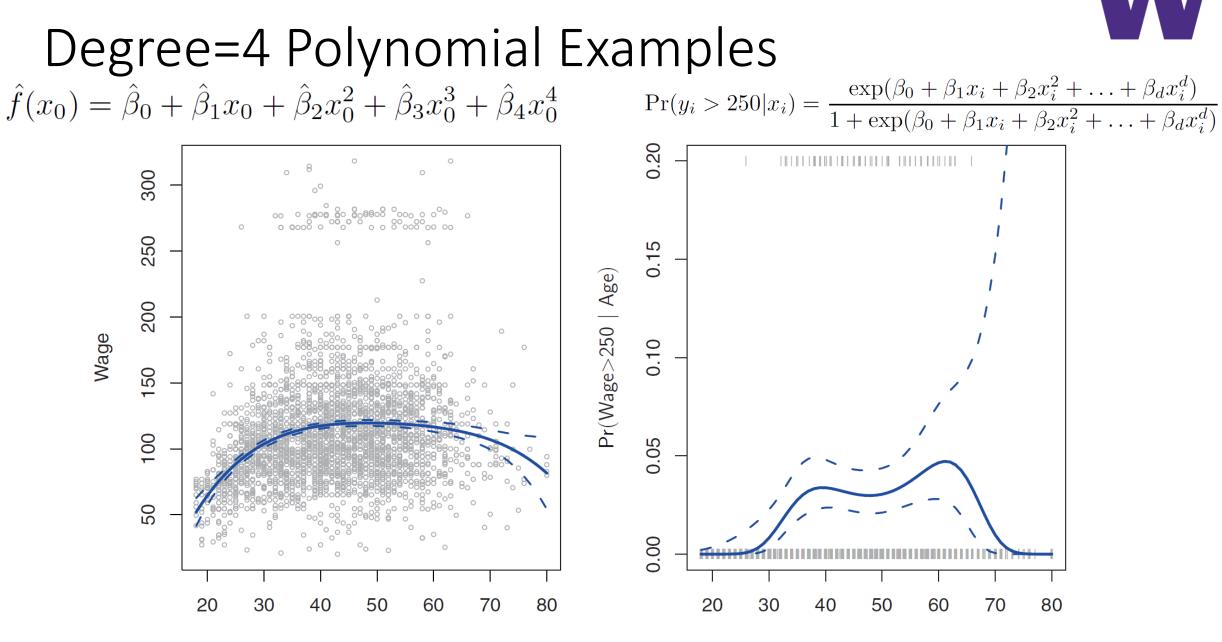
• Simple Linear Regression

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

• Polynomial Linear Regression [still only one predictor]

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \beta_3 x_i^3 + \ldots + \beta_d x_i^d + \epsilon_i$$

**Polynomial Regression** 



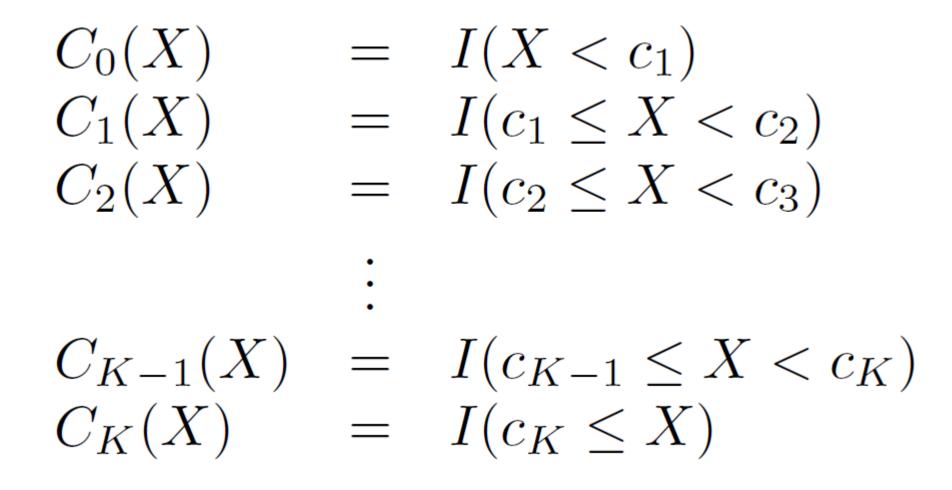
Age

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Step Functions



### **Step Functions**

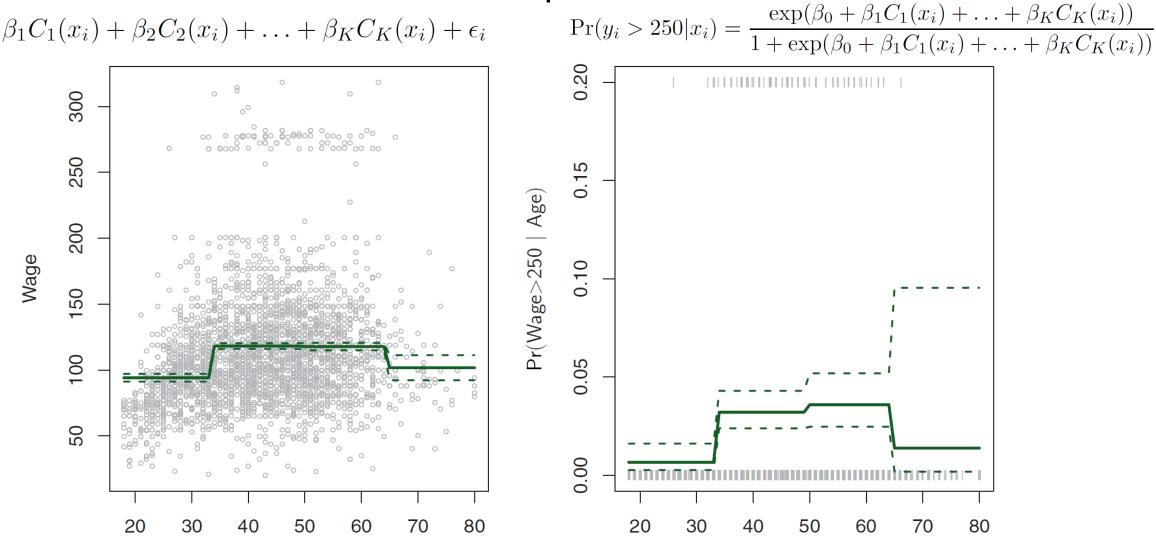


 $I(c_K \leq X)$  equals 1 if  $c_K \leq X$ , and equals 0 otherwise

**Step Functions** 

# Piecewise Constant: Step Function Example

 $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 C_1(x_i) + \beta_2 C_2(x_i) + \ldots + \beta_K C_K(x_i) + \epsilon_i$ 



Age

Age



# **Basis Functions**

• Basis Functions Model

 $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 b_1(x_i) + \beta_2 b_2(x_i) + \beta_3 b_3(x_i) + \ldots + \beta_K b_K(x_i) + \epsilon_i$ 

• Polynomial Regression Example

 $b_j(x_i) = x_i^j$ 

• Step Function Example

$$b_j(x_i) = I(c_j \le x_i < c_{j+1})$$

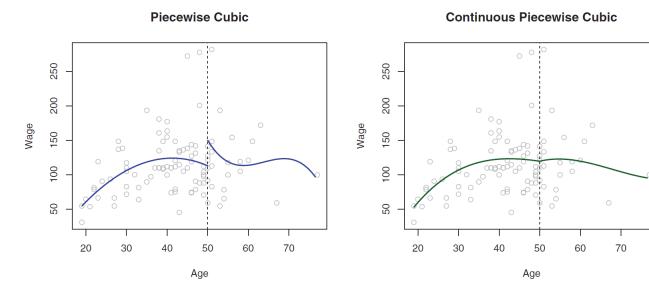


# Regression Splines: Piecewise Polynomials

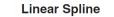
$$y_{i} = \begin{cases} \beta_{01} + \beta_{11}x_{i} + \beta_{21}x_{i}^{2} + \beta_{31}x_{i}^{3} + \epsilon_{i} & \text{if } x_{i} < c \\ \beta_{02} + \beta_{12}x_{i} + \beta_{22}x_{i}^{2} + \beta_{32}x_{i}^{3} + \epsilon_{i} & \text{if } x_{i} \ge c \end{cases}$$

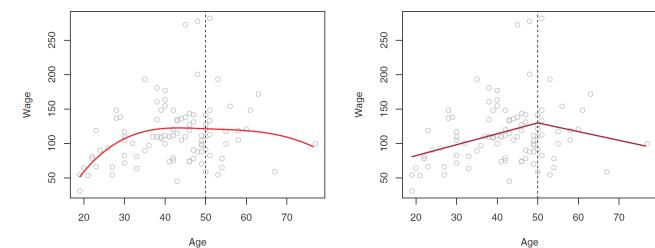
'c' is called a knot

# **Constraints and Splines**



Cubic Spline





# Spline Basis Representation

• Model for a cubic spline with 'k' knots

 $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 b_1(x_i) + \beta_2 b_2(x_i) + \dots + \beta_{K+3} b_{K+3}(x_i) + \epsilon_i$ 

• One truncated power basis function per knot: 4 + K degrees of freedom

$$h(x,\xi) = (x-\xi)_+^3 = \begin{cases} (x-\xi)^3 & \text{if } x > \xi \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The Greek letter ξ is pronounced zi [looks cooler than using 'c'?]

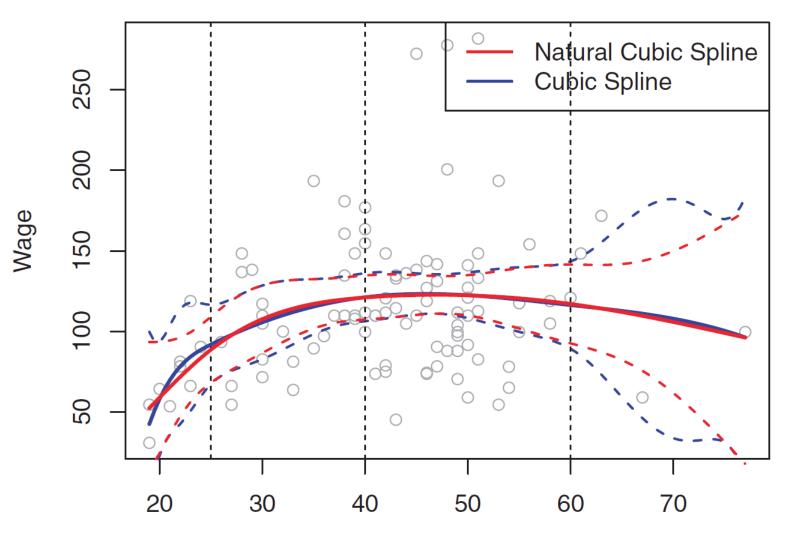
### Basis Splines Example

```
> library(ISLR)
> age.limits =range(Wage$age)
> age.grid = seq(from = age.limits[1], to = age.limits[2]) # 18 .. 80
>
> library(splines)
> model1 = lm(wage \sim bs(age, knots = c(25, 40, 60)), data = Wage)
> predictions1 = predict(model1, Wage)
> predictions1[1:5]
   231655
             86582 161300 155159
                                            11443
 60.49371 82.84196 119.39567 118.91764 119.41254
>
> X = cbind(Wage$age,
           Wage$age^2,
+
           Wage$age^3,
+
+
            ifelse(Wage$age > 25, (Wage$age - 25)^3, 0),
            ifelse(Wage$age > 40, (Wage$age - 40)^3, 0),
+
            ifelse(Wage$age > 60, (Wage$age - 60)^3, 0))
+
> model2 = lm(Wage$wage \sim X)
> predictions2 = predict(model2, data.frame(X))
> predictions2[1:5]
                            3
                                                 5
        1
 60.49371 82.84196 119.39567 118.91764 119.41254
```

**Regression Splines** 



# Natural Cubic Spline versus Cubic Spline



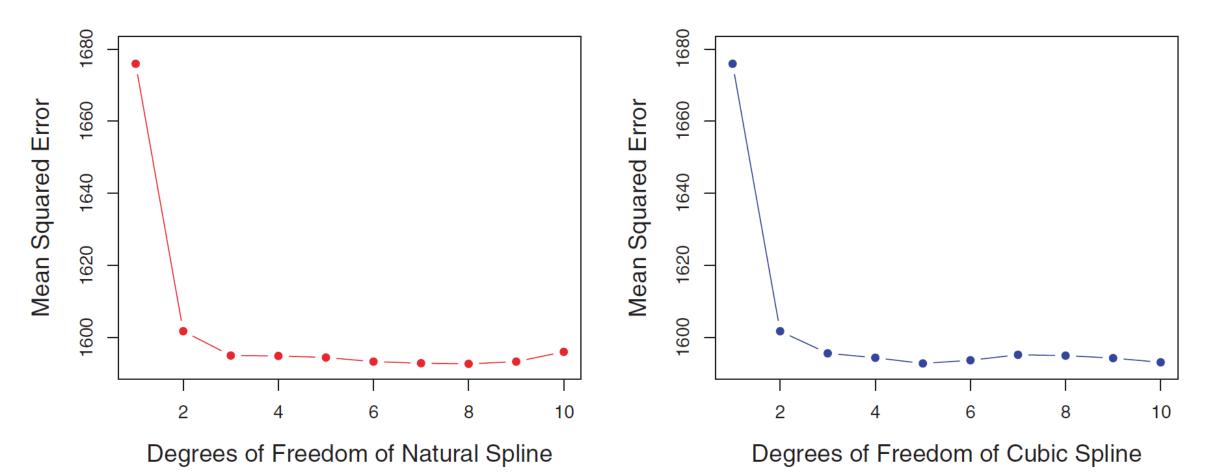
- Natural: the function is required to be linear at the boundary (when smaller than the smallest knot or larger than the largest knot)
- Note the width of the confidence intervals

Age

**Regression Splines** 

# Choosing the Number and Location of the Knots

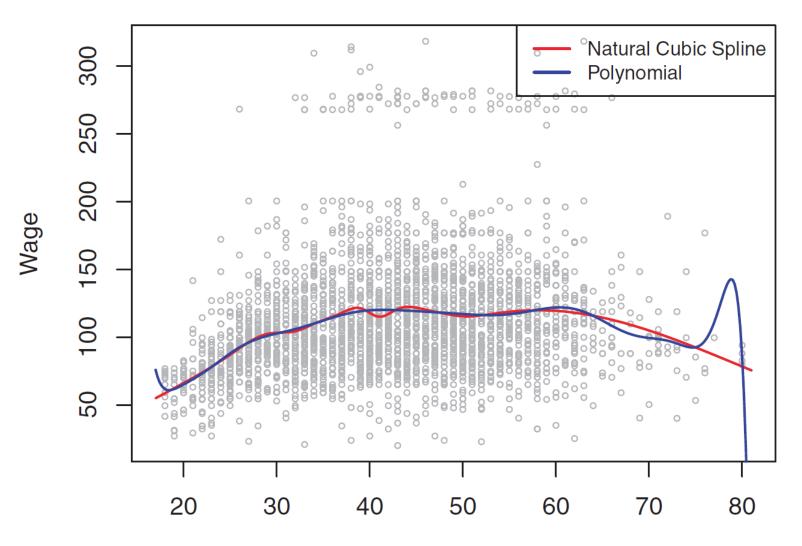
• This is model selection, and cross validation is our friend ...



**Regression Splines** 



### Comparison to Polynomial Regression



# Smoothing Splines

• Penalizing the squared second derivative of the prediction function

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - g(x_i))^2 + \lambda \int g''(t)^2 dt$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{g}}_{\lambda} = \mathbf{S}_{\lambda}\mathbf{y}$$

$$df_{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{\mathbf{S}_{\lambda}\}_{ii}$$

Cross validation used to select effective degrees of freedom

### Smoother Matrix

#### From Chapter 5 of The Elements of Statistical Learning ...

$$RSS(\theta, \lambda) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{N}\theta)^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{N}\theta) + \lambda \theta^T \mathbf{\Omega}_N \theta, \qquad (5.11)$$

where  $\{\mathbf{N}\}_{ij} = N_j(x_i)$  and  $\{\Omega_N\}_{jk} = \int N_j''(t)N_k''(t)dt$ . The solution is easily seen to be

$$\hat{\theta} = (\mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N} + \lambda \mathbf{\Omega}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{y}, \qquad (5.12)$$

a generalized ridge regression. The fitted smoothing spline is given by

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

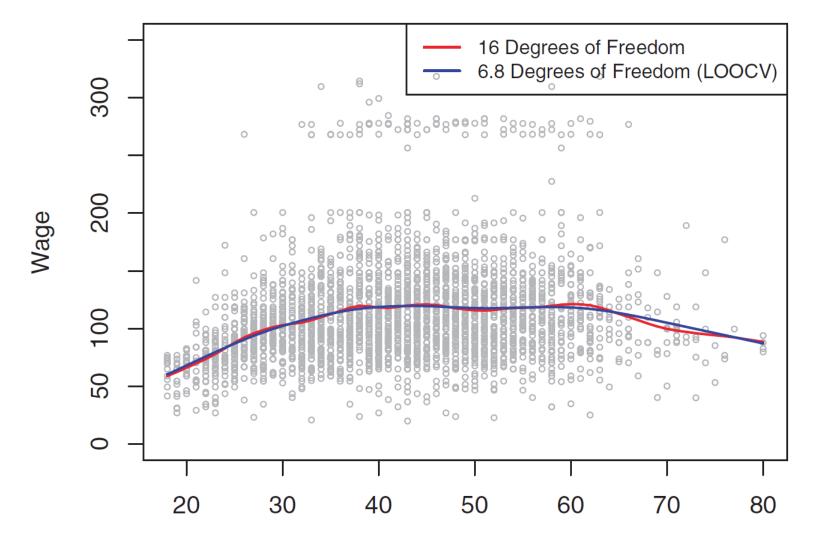
$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N} + \lambda \mathbf{\Omega}_N)^{-1} \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{y}$$

$$= \mathbf{S}_{\lambda} \mathbf{y}.$$
(5.13)

**Smoothing Splines** 



# Simple Smoothing Spline Examples



Smoothing Splines

# W

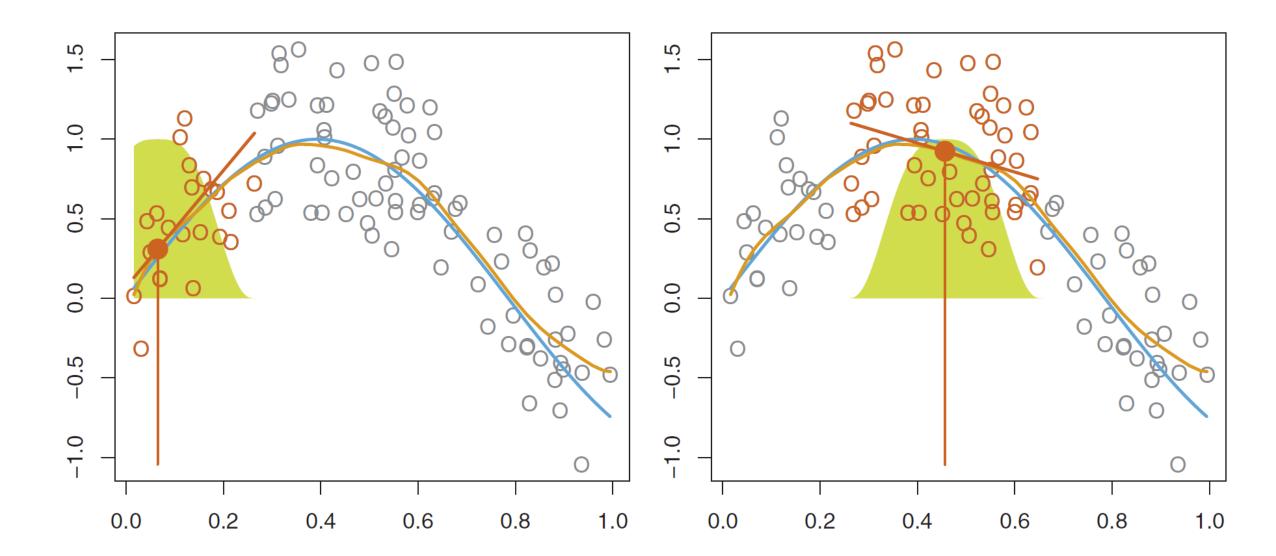
# Simple Smoothing Spline Example

```
> library(ISLR)
> library(splines)
> Smoother.Matrix = function(x, df) {
+
     n = length(x)
     S = matrix(0, n, n)
+
     for(i in 1:n) {
+
+
          y = rep(0, n)
+
         v[i] = 1
+
          S[,i] = predict(smooth.spline(x, y, df = df), x)$y
+
      }
+
      return((S + t(S)) / 2)
+ }
> S = Smoother.Matrix(Wage$age, df = 6.8)
> model = smooth.spline(Wage$age, Wage$wage, df = 6.8)
> model$df
[1] 6.801142
> sum(diag(S))
[1] 6.801142
> estimates = S %*% Wage$wage
> predictions = predict(model, Wage$age)$y
> estimates[1:5]
[1] 60.46695 83.49226 119.53504 119.70016 117.82229
> predictions[1:5]
   60.46695 83.49226 119.53504 119.70016 117.82229
[1]
```

Local Regression



### Local Regression (Loess)



Local Regression

# Local Regression Algorithm

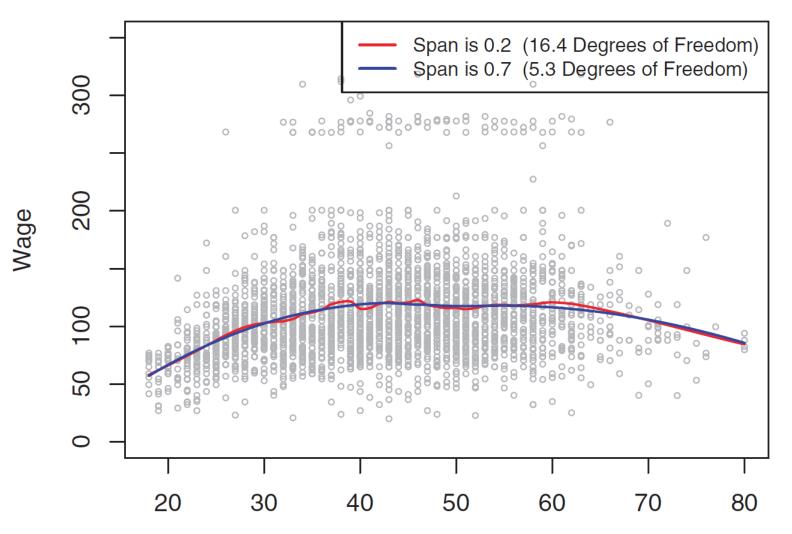
- 1. Gather the fraction s = k/n of training points whose  $x_i$  are closest to  $x_0$ . ['s' is the span parameter of the loess() function]
- 2. Assign a weight  $K_{i0} = K(x_i, x_0)$  to each point in this neighborhood, so that the point furthest from  $x_0$  has weight zero, and the closest has the highest weight. All but these k nearest neighbors get weight zero.
- 3. Fit a weighted least squares regression of the  $y_i$  on the  $x_i$  using the aforementioned weights, by finding  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  that minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} K_{i0} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2.$$
 (7.14)

4. The fitted value at  $x_0$  is given by  $\hat{f}(x_0) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_0$ .

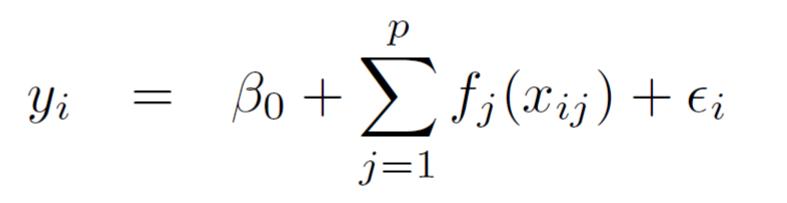


### Local Regression Example





# Generalized Additive Model (GAM)

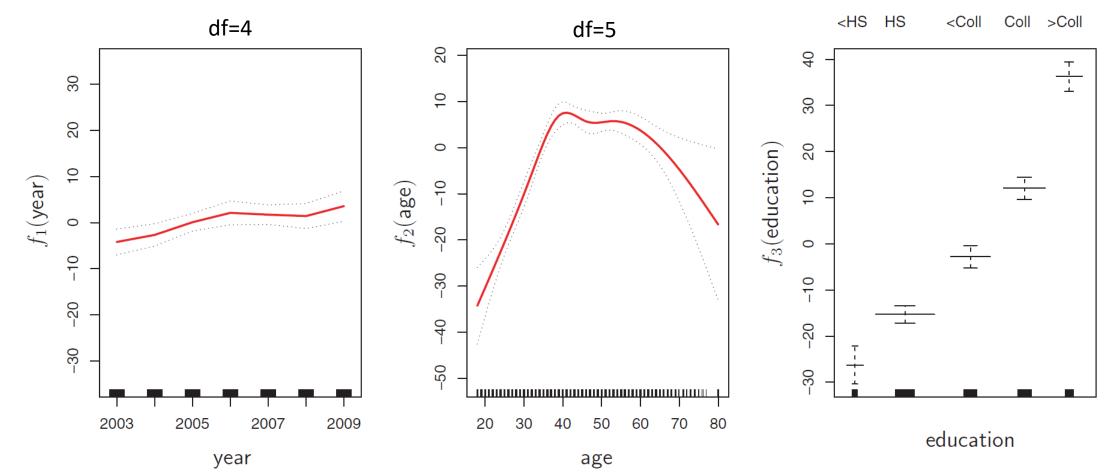


 $= \beta_0 + f_1(x_{i1}) + f_2(x_{i2}) + \dots + f_p(x_{ip}) + \epsilon_i$ 



### GAM Example with Natural Splines

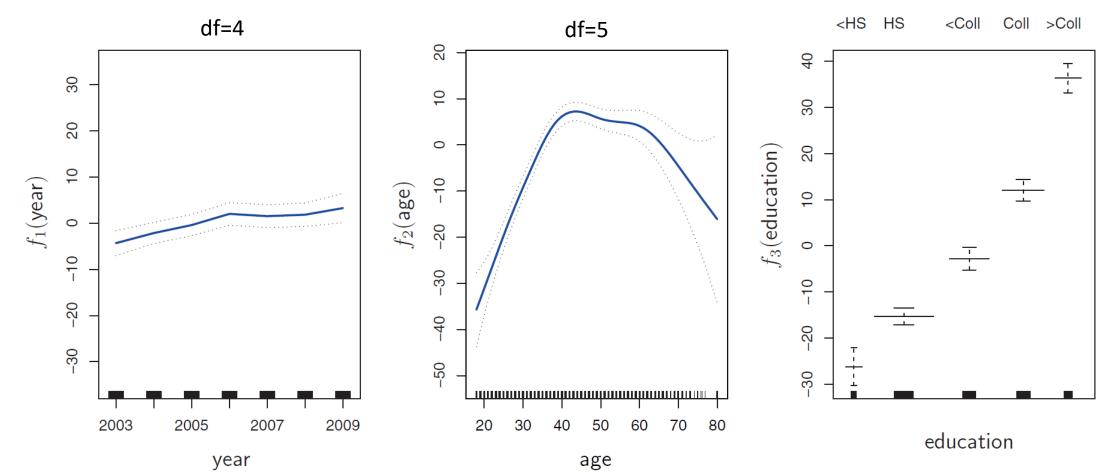
### wage = $\beta_0 + f_1(\text{year}) + f_2(\text{age}) + f_3(\text{education}) + \epsilon$





# GAM Example with Smoothing Splines

### wage = $\beta_0 + f_1(\text{year}) + f_2(\text{age}) + f_3(\text{education}) + \epsilon$



# The Pros and Cons of GAMs

- Pro: allows us to fit a non-linear f() to each predictor, so we can automatically model non-linear relationships that standard linear regression will miss
- Pro: potentially more accurate predictions
- Pro: the model is additive so we can examine the effect of each predictor [while holding the other predictors fixed]
- Pro: the smoothness of the f() for each predictor, can be summarized by the degrees of freedom
- Con: the model is restricted to be additive



# GAMs Can Also Be Used for Classification

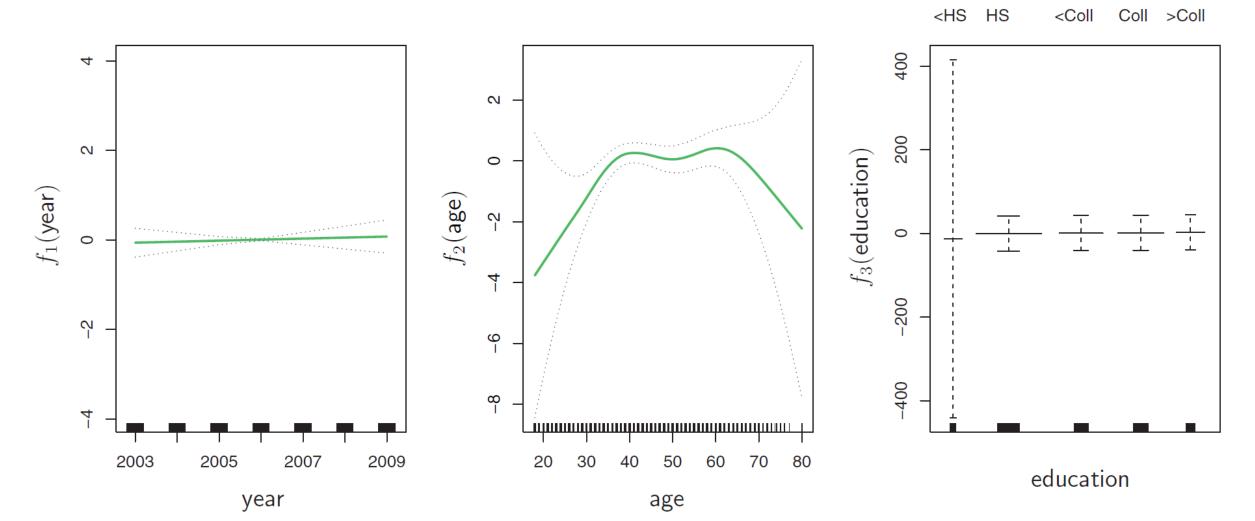
• Model  
$$\log\left(\frac{p(X)}{1-p(X)}\right) = \beta_0 + f_1(X_1) + f_2(X_2) + \dots + f_p(X_p)$$

• Example  
$$\log\left(\frac{p(X)}{1-p(X)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{year} + f_2(\text{age}) + f_3(\text{education})$$

 $p(X) = \Pr(\texttt{wage} > 250 | \texttt{year}, \texttt{age}, \texttt{education})$ 

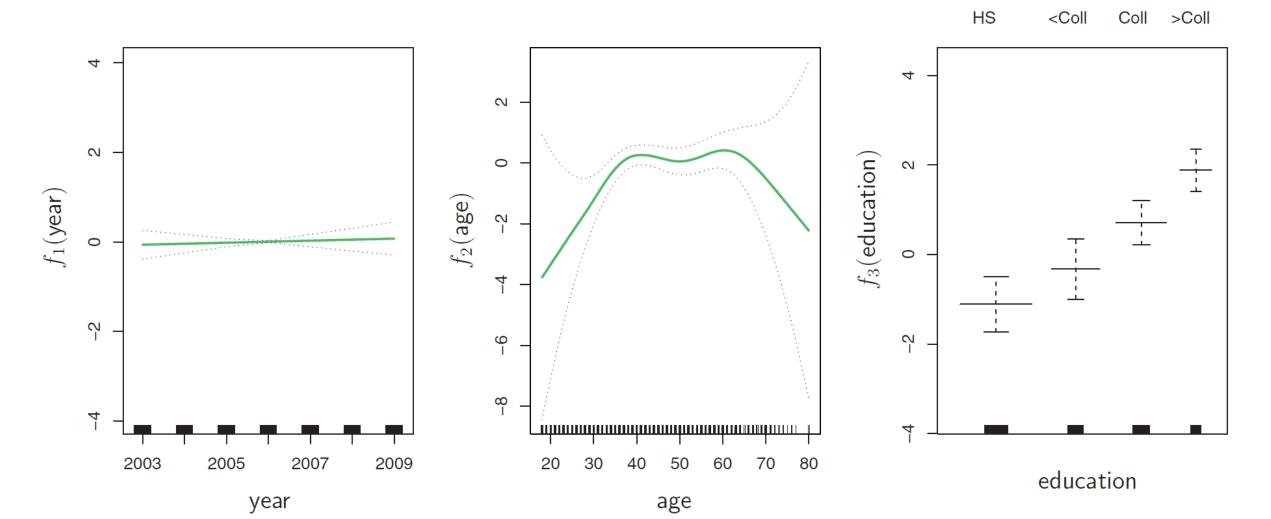
# GAM Example for Classification

Check out the confidence interval for Education < HS ...



### GAM Example for Classification

After removing the observations for which Education < HS ...



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