

Non-convex penalized regression spline

Heng Peng

Department Mathematics,
The Hong Kong Baptist University

Abstract

Regression spline is a useful tool in nonparametric regression. However, finding the optimal knot locations is a known difficult problem. In this article, we introduce the Non-concave Penalized Regression Spline. This proposal method not only produces smoothing spline with optimal convergence rate, but also can adaptively select optimal knots simultaneously. It is insensitive to the number of origin knots. The method's performance in a simulation has been studied to compare the other methods. The problem of how to choose smoothing parameters, i.e. penalty parameters in the non-concave regression spline is addressed.

KEY WORDS: Splines, Nonparametric regression, Non-concave penalized least square, Power-basis, Knots selection, Additive model.

1 Introduction

In recently, much attention has been attracted by the penalized regression spline. This method takes advantage of the smoothing spline and the regression spline to simplify computation and knots selection procedures. The smoothing spline can be regarded as a special case of penalized splines with a quadratic roughness penalty function. Eiler and Marx (1996, 1998) used the quadratic difference penalty function in penalized regression spline for univariate and additive models. Mammen and van de Geer (1997) proposed to regard the total variation of smoothing function as the penalty function and studied some asymptotic properties for this kind penalized spline. Ruppert and Carroll (1997, 2000) considered some properties of the L_1 -penalized regression spline. They also considered variable penalty parameters used in penalized regression splines. Wand (1999) and Aerts, Clasekens and Wand (2002) studied some theory of the penalized regression spline when penalties have quadratic forms.

As introduced by Chapter 1, the trade-off between smoothness and flexibility of the regression spline is controlled by the number and positions of knots. Since Smith (1982) firstly used the statistical variable selection technique to adaptively select optimal knots in fitting splines, there

are a lot of works along this direction in adaptive regression spline literature, such as Friedman and Silverman's TURBO (1989), Friedman's MARS (1991), Stone, *et al.*'s POLYMARS (1997), Luo and Wahba's HAS (1997), Ruppert's MYOPIC (2001) etc. Usually, this kind algorithms use stepwise procedures, such as forward or backward. These approaches are very different from those used to establish the traditional theory of regression spline. The gaps between the theory and practice in the regression spline remain widely open. Though most penalized regression spline procedures use convex function as the penalty to produce shrinkage estimate to avoid the choice of knots, to get optimal smoothing for the function and make the procedures insensitive to knot number and locations, these procedures cannot avoid involving many knots, a high dimension parameter space, just like the smoothing spline. Hence most penalized splines cannot take the full advantage of the regression spline. In practice, the efficiency of those penalized regression splines are still related to the optimal choice of the number and locations of knots. Adaptive knots selection algorithms still have to be studied for those penalized regression splines. See for example, Ruppert and Carroll (1997), Mammen and van de Geer (1997) and Ruppert (2002). There is little theoretical work on penalized regression splines with various penalties. Theoretical properties for penalized splines need further study.

In this paper, we propose a new approach, non-convex penalized regression splines for spline fitting. It is also easily extended to multivariate function estimation problems. Unlike the traditional penalized spline, our penalized spline considers a non-convex function as the penalty and avoids stepwise procedure to select knots. It can estimate smoothing function and adaptively select knots simultaneously. It is insensitive to the number of initial knots as long as it is large enough. This enables us to study sampling properties of our penalized spline. In this chapter, we show that our penalized regression spline has the optimal convergence rate empirically by the simulation compared to other nonparametric regression methods.

To overcome the inefficiency of traditional variable selection procedures, most attractive properties of non-concave penalty were introduced by Fan and Li (2001). They demonstrated that penalized least squares with non-concave penalty may produce threshold estimate. In their article, they also showed how to select significant variables and estimate their coefficients simultaneously via non-concave penalized likelihood, which is different to the traditional procedures. In Chapter 2, we studied some properties of nonconcave penalized likelihood estimate in high dimensional situations. The results may extend to the nonparametric regression. Stone, *et*

al.(1997) regarded the regression spline model as an extended linear model with high dimension. Under this idea, most variable selection methods can be modified for knots selection, so does the non-convex penalized least-squares approach. The basic idea of our approach just like the idea used in non-concave penalized likelihood. By taking advantages of the non-concave penalty function, especially singularity at origin, we get threshold estimators by non-convex penalized regression spline with appropriate spline basis, such as the truncated power basis. By threshold criteria, some estimated coefficient in a spline basis approximation are shrunk to zero. This means that we can select knots automatically by the penalized regression splines and avoid stepwise procedure. On the other hand, the threshold estimate has the same effect as shrinkage estimate to make trade-off between the flexibility and the smoothness. This property of the threshold estimate has been used in the wavelets analysis, for example, by Donoho and Johnstone (1994), Antoniadis and Fan (2001). Therefore our approach can select knots and estimate the smoothing spline simultaneously. Eilers and Marx (1996) claimed without proof that the penalized spline by quadratic difference penalty is not sensitive to the number of knots if initial number of knots is large enough. The number of knots used in smoothing spline is same as sample size (see Green and Silverman 1994). In these two approaches, the trade-off between the smoothing and the flexibility is only controlled by the regularized penalized parameters. From this insight, our new proposed approach should be also expected to be insensitive to the initial number of knots and the trade-off between the smoothing and flexibility is mainly controlled by the regularized parameters. We demonstrate this property by the simulation in Section 3. The proper penalized parameters can be selected by many methods, such as the fivefold cross-validation proposed by Fan and Li (2001), the generalized cross-validation method used in smoothing splines, see for example Green and Silverman (1994), Wahba (1990) and BIC criterion (Schwarz 1978). In this chapter, we consider two methods to select the penalized parameter for the non-convex penalized regression spline.

Various algorithms mentioned in Chapter 2 to optimize a high-dimension nonconcave likelihood function can be used for non-convex regression spline. In this chapter, we apply the modified Newton-Raphson algorithm proposed by Fan and Li (2001) to our non-convex regression spline.

In Section 2, we introduce the non-convex penalized regression spline. In Section 3, numerical simulation results are demonstrated. In Section 4, we give some discussions on how to our approach to multivariate regression models.

2 Non-convex penalized Regression Spline

2.1 Penalized regression splines

Consider the nonparametric regression model as follows,

$$y_i = f(x_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (1)$$

where $x_i \in [0, 1]$ are either deterministic or random design points, the $\{\varepsilon_i\}$ are independent random error with mean zero and a constant variance σ^2 , $f(x)$ is a smooth regression function that want to be estimated.

To estimate function $f(x)$, we consider spline space $S(p, \mathbf{t})$ with knots

$$\mathbf{t} = \{0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{k+1} = 1\}. \quad (2)$$

For $p \geq 2$, $S(p, \mathbf{t})$ is defined as follows

$$S(p, \mathbf{t}) = \{s(x) \in C^{p-2}[0, 1] : s(x) \text{ is a polynomial of order } p \text{ on each subinterval } [t_i, t_{i+1}]\}$$

When $p = 1$, $S(p, \mathbf{t})$ is the set of step functions with jumps at the knots.

It is known that space $S(p, \mathbf{t})$ is a $k + p$ dimension linear function space and truncated power function series

$$\mathbf{X}_x = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{p-1}, (x - t_1)_+^{p-1}, \dots, (x - t_k)_+^{p-1}\}$$

forms a basis of $S(p, \mathbf{t})$ (see de Boor 1978). Thus we may approximate $f(x)$ in model (1) by a spline with form

$$f(x, \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{X}_x \mathbf{B} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots + \beta_{p-1} x^{p-1} + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{p+i-1} (x - t_i)_+^{p-1}. \quad (3)$$

Hence, the nonparametric regression model (1) becomes a classic high dimension linear regression model. Of course, we can replace the truncated power basis by other bases of the spline space, such as the B-spline basis, in (3). Here we like to use the truncated power basis just because deleting a knot t_j is equivalent to setting the coefficient β_{p+j-1} to zero. The variable selection procedure accords with knots selection.

The penalized regression spline is defined as the minimizer $\hat{f}(x, \mathbf{B}) \in S(p, \mathbf{t})$ of the penalized least-squares problem

$$\min_{f(x, \mathbf{B}) \in S(p, \mathbf{t})} \sum_{j=1}^n \{y_j - f(x_j, \mathbf{B})\}^2 + n \sum_{j=1}^k p_{\lambda_n} (|w_{p+i-1} \beta_{p+i-1}|), \quad (4)$$

where $p_{\lambda_n}(|\cdot|)$ is a penalty function and λ_n is the penalized parameter, $\{w_j\}$ are penalized weights. The latter rescale or standardize the basis function in (3) and transform them back to the original scale. Note that we don't penalize the monomial terms $1, x, \dots, x^{p-1}$ for sake of interpretability.

2.2 Non-concave penalty functions

Selection of the penalty function in (4) is important for knot selection. As discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, Fan and Li (2001) studied the non-concave penalized likelihood for variable selection. They showed that a good penalty function should result in an estimator with three properties: (1) Unbiasedness, in which there is no over-penalization of large parameters to avoid unnecessary biases; (2) sparsity, as the resulting penalized likelihood estimator should follow a thresholding rule so that insignificant parameters can automatically be set to zero to reduce model complexity; (3) continuity, to avoid instability in model prediction, whereby the penalty function should be chosen such that its corresponding penalized likelihood produces continuous estimators of data. By the result of Fan and Li (2001), the penalty functions satisfying sparsity and continuity must be singular at the origin. The condition $p'_\lambda(|\beta|) = 0$ for large $|\beta|$ is a sufficient condition for unbiasedness for a large true parameter.

The above three principles for penalty functions are also useful in nonparametric regression, especially, in penalized regression splines. Generally, the under smoothing of penalized regression spline is caused by the excessive number of knots and this problem is attenuated by convex penalties to produce shrinkage estimate of coefficients of the basis functions such as the rough penalty used in smoothing splines. Here the thresholding rule provides an attractive alternative to reduce the problem of under smoothing. We may reduce the number of knots adaptively by a thresholding rule. On the other hand, the properties of unbiasedness and continuity keep the smoothing and stability of the penalized regression spline when we reduce the number of knots.

Fan and Li (2001) proposed the Smoothly Cipped Absolute Deviation Penalty (SCAD). It is a non-concave penalty with singular at the origin. To recall, it is defined as follows

$$p'_\lambda(\theta) = \lambda \left\{ I(\theta \leq \lambda) + \frac{(a\lambda - \theta)_+}{(a-1)\lambda} I(\theta > \lambda) \right\} \quad (5)$$

for some $a > 2$ and $\theta > 0$. By Fan (1997), the simple penalized least-squares problems

$$(z - \theta)^2/2 + p_\lambda(|\theta|) \quad (6)$$

with SCAD penalty yields the solution

$$\hat{\theta} = \begin{cases} \operatorname{sgn}(z)(|z| - \lambda)_+, & \text{when } |z| \leq 2\lambda, \\ \{(a-1)z - \operatorname{sgn}(z)a\lambda\}/(a-2), & \text{when } 2\lambda < |z| \leq a\lambda, \\ z, & \text{when } |z| > a\lambda \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Hence by (6), the estimator that SCAD penalty results in has the three properties discussed above. The discussion of other penalty functions can be referred to Chapter 2 or Fan and Li (2001) and Antoniadis and Fan (2001). Here we just use SCAD penalty to show the basic idea of non-convex penalized regression spline.

2.3 An iterative algorithm

We may directly apply SCAD penalty in the right side of (4) to get a non-convex penalized regression spline. However, it poses challenges to minimize (4), which is a high-dimensional problem. Here we follow a simple iterative algorithm proposed by Fan and Li (2001).

Suppose we have an initial value \mathcal{B}_0 that is close to the minimizer of the right side of (4). The SCAD penalty function is singular at the origin, and it does not have continuous first order derivatives. Thus the first step of the algorithm is to check if the initial value of $\beta_{j0}, j = p, \dots, p+k-1$ equal to zero. If β_{j0} is very close to 0, then set $\hat{\beta}_j = 0$. Otherwise we consider the following quadratic approximation

$$\{p_{\lambda_n}(|\beta_j|)\}' = p'_{\lambda_n}(|\beta_j|)\operatorname{sgn}(\beta_j) \approx \{p'_{\lambda_n}(|\beta_{j0}|)/|\beta_{j0}|\}\beta_j$$

when $\beta_j \neq 0$. In other words,

$$p_{\lambda_n}(|\beta_j|) \approx p_{\lambda_n}(|\beta_{j0}|) + \frac{1}{2}\{p'_{\lambda_n}(|\beta_{j0}|)/|\beta_{j0}|\}(\beta_j^2 - \beta_{j0}^2), \quad \text{for } \beta_j \approx \beta_{j0}.$$

Let $\beta_{j_10}, \dots, \beta_{j_d0}$ be the nonzero components of \mathcal{B}_0 , In this step we also define,

$$\Sigma_{\lambda_n}(\mathcal{B}_0) = \operatorname{diag}\{p'_{\lambda_n}(|w_{j_1}\beta_{j_10}|)/|w_{j_1}\beta_{j_10}|, \dots, p'_{\lambda_n}(|w_{j_d}\beta_{j_d0}|)/|w_{j_d}\beta_{j_d0}|\}$$

$$\mathbf{X}_{x_i}(\mathcal{B}_0) = \{1, x_i, \dots, x_i^{p-1}, (x_i - t_{j_1})_+^{p-1}, \dots, (x_i - t_{j_d})_+^{p-1}\}$$

and

$$\mathbf{X}_n = \{\mathbf{X}_{x_1}^T, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{x_n}^T\}^T \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0) = \{\mathbf{X}_{x_1}^T(\mathcal{B}_0), \dots, \mathbf{X}_{x_n}^T(\mathcal{B}_0)\}^T$$

In the second step, we compute the ridge regression

$$\mathcal{B}_1 = \{\mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0)^T \mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0) + n\Sigma_{\lambda_n}(\mathcal{B}_0)\}^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T(\mathcal{B}_0) \mathbf{y}.$$

The third step of the algorithm is updating \mathcal{B}_0 by \mathcal{B}_1 and repeating the first and second steps until the the iterative solution is numerically stable.

2.4 Issues on practical implementation

Fan and Li (2001) demonstrated the convergence of this algorithm by simulation. Their test also indicates this algorithm converges quickly. A drawback of this algorithm is that once a coefficient is shrunken to zero, it will stay at zero. However, this drawback also significantly reduces the computational burden.

We have claimed that the non-convex penalized regression spline is insensitive to the number of the origin knots k if it is large enough. In the following simulation results, we can see that we only require k is large enough, generally no less than $O(n^{\frac{1}{2p+1}})$ to get optimal convergence rate for the non-convex penalized regression spline, where n is the sample size. The knots series is defined as $t_i = x_{(\lceil ni/(k+1) \rceil)}$, $i = 1, \dots, k$, where $x_{(j)}$ is the j th order statistics of x_i .

In practice, we do not know the smoothness conditions of the function that we want estimate. To guard the efficiency of our procedure to handle some spatial inhomogeneity setting, we follows suggestion of the Friedman and Silverman (1989) that “ A smoother should be resistant to a run of length L of either positive or negative error so long as its span in the region of the run is large compared to L ”. Hence we would like to adopt the formula proposed by Friedman and Silverman (1989) to select the value of the minimum value of k ,

$$k = \lceil n/M(n, \alpha) \rceil + 1 \quad (8)$$

where $0.05 \leq \alpha \leq 0.1$ and $n \geq 15$, $M(n, \alpha) \approx L_{\max}(\alpha)/3$ (or $L_{\max}(\alpha)/2.5$ to be conservative) denotes a minimum span between two placed knots, and $L_{\max}(\alpha)$ is the largest positive or negative run to be expected in n binomial trials with probability α . By numerical approximation,

$$L_{\max}(\alpha) \approx -\log_2\{-(1/n)\ln(1 - \alpha)\}.$$

Our procedure can also be regarded as a backward algorithm for selecting knots. In some sense, it only reduces the flexibility of the model by deleting unwanted knots. Hence we hope that our initial spline $\mathbf{X}_n \mathcal{B}_0$ has small bias and keep it under our procedure. When the number of knots is large enough, it is obvious that the least-squares estimate of regression spline is a good choice. On the other hand, in Fan and Li (2001), they require that the matrix $n^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T \mathbf{X}_n$ is not singular. In nonparametric regression setting, $n^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T \mathbf{X}_n$ can be asymptotic singular, specially when we use the truncated power basis as the basis of the spline space, since the order of the matrix grows with n . In this phase the initial estimate β_{j0} obtained by the regression

spline may has a large variance. Thus we have to weigh the initial estimate in penalty term by weight w_j such that the variance of $w_j\beta_{j0}$ is the order of $O(n^{-\frac{1}{2}})$, the same order as λ_n . Here, we take

$$w_j = \left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}_n^T \mathbf{X}_n \right)_{jj}^{-1} \right]^{-\frac{1}{2}}.$$

In theory, we may able to inverse the above matrix , but in practice, we replace the inverse operation by the generalized inverse operation. In the classic linear model, if $n^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T \mathbf{X}_n$ is singular, then the least squares estimate $\hat{\mathcal{B}} = (\mathbf{X}_n^T \mathbf{X}_n)^- \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{y}$ may not be a consistent estimate of \mathcal{B} , but $\mathbf{X}_n \hat{\mathcal{B}}$ can still be a consistent estimable of $\mathbf{X}_n \mathcal{B}$. Our simulation also show that though the truncated power basis results in $n^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T \mathbf{X}_n$ that is asymptotically singular, this has little influence on our numerical results.

2.5 Selection of penalized parameters

To implement our procedure, it is more important to estimate the parameters a and λ_n for the SCAD than to decide the value of k . (a, λ_n) can be regarded as either smoothing parameters or penalty parameters. We denote them by $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (a, \lambda_n)$. Here we discuss two methods of estimating $\boldsymbol{\theta}$: Predictor Risk Estimation Criterion (PREC) (often referred to as the C_p Criterion) suggested by Eubank (1999), Modified Generalized Cross-Validation (MGCV) proposed by Fan and Li (2001).

Let us first consider the modified generalized cross-validation. In our iterative algorithm, we update the estimate \mathcal{B} by

$$\mathcal{B}_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \{ \mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0)^T \mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0) + n \Sigma_{\lambda_n}(\mathcal{B}_0) \}^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T(\mathcal{B}_0) \mathbf{y}. \quad (9)$$

Thus the fitted value of $\hat{f}(x_i)$ of $f(x_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ is

$$\mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0) \{ \mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0)^T \mathbf{X}_n(\mathcal{B}_0) + n \Sigma_{\lambda_n}(\mathcal{B}_0) \}^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T(\mathcal{B}_0) \mathbf{y},$$

and the projection matrix can be defined as

$$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{X}_n} \{ \hat{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \} = \mathbf{X}_n(\hat{\mathcal{B}}) \{ \mathbf{X}_n(\hat{\mathcal{B}})^T \mathbf{X}_n(\hat{\mathcal{B}}) + n \Sigma_{\lambda_n}(\hat{\mathcal{B}}) \}^{-1} \mathbf{X}_n^T(\hat{\mathcal{B}})$$

Define the number of effective parameters in the non-convex penalized regression spline as $e(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{tr}[\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{X}_n} \{ \hat{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \}]$. Hence, the modified generalized cross-validation statistic is

$$\text{MGCV}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}_n(\hat{\mathcal{B}}) \hat{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \|^2}{\{ 1 - \gamma e(\boldsymbol{\theta}) / n \}^2} \quad (10)$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\{\text{MGCV}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$ and γ is the inflated factor to be specified.

The predictor risk estimation criterion is defined as follows

$$\hat{\mathbf{P}}\{\hat{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} = \frac{1}{n}\|\mathbf{y} - X_n(\hat{\mathcal{B}})\hat{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2 + \frac{2\gamma\sigma^2}{n}e(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad (11)$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\hat{\mathbf{P}}\{\hat{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$, and γ is also the inflated factor.

The inflation factor used here is due to the fact that the a lot of basis functions used in the model are selected adaptively (see Luo and Wahba 1997 and Friedman 1991). When $\gamma = 1$, the MGCV is no difference to the GCV as suggested by Fan and Li (2001), Breiman (1995), Tibshirani (1996), and Fu (1998). The predictor risk estimation criterion also appears to Akaike's information criterion, AIC (Akaike 1973). When $\gamma = \log(n)/2$, the predictor risk estimation criterion is the Bayesian information criterion, BIC, (Schwarz 1978). In MGCV, following discussion of Luo and Wahba (1997) and Friedman (1991), we suggest γ should be in $[1.2, 3.5]$ to keep the stable of the non-convex penalized regression spline. For the predictor risk estimation criterion, our criterion is similar to the one proposed by Rao and Wu (1989) used for the model selection in a classic regression problem. By the strong consistent results of Rao and Wu (1989) and Bai, Rao and Wu (1999), the value of γ can be selected from a large range. It is only required that $\gamma/\log \log n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\gamma = o(n)$. Thus we tend to agree that the predictor risk estimation criterion is stable for a large range value of γ . But conservatively, we will select the value of γ from $[2, 5]$ or the form of $\log(n)/2$. A lot model selection criterions mentioned in Rao and Wu (1989) and Bai, Rao and Wu (1999) can be also used here to select the smoothing parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

In fact, as shown by Fan and Li (2001), 3.7 is a good choice for the parameter a used in the SCAD. Hence, we mainly use the MGCV and PREC to select the penalized parameter λ_n for the SCAD penalized regression spline. In the following simulation or discussion, we always set the value of a as 3.7.

3 Simulation study

In this section, we use the following 4 examples. The first two come from Fan and Gijbels (1995), the last two come from Donohon and Johnstone (1994).

Table 3.1: Specifications of Simulation Examples

Example	f(x)	σ	Sample		Number of replicates
			size (n)	$SD(f)/\sigma$	
1	$\sin(2(4x - 2) + 2 \exp(-16x^2))$.3	256	2.80	400
2	$(4x - 2) + 2 \exp(-(16(x - 0.5))^2)$.4	256	3.16	400
3	$2.2(4 * \sin 4\pi t - \text{sgn}(t - 0.3) - \text{sgn}(0.72 - t))$	1.0	2048	6.54	31
4	$22\{t(1 - t)\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin\{2\pi(1 + 0.05)/(t + 0.05)\}$	1.0	2048	6.36	31

3.1 MSE Compared to other methods

In this section, we use simulation examples to examine the performance of the SCAD PRS and compare it with HAS (Luo and Wahba 1997), MARS (Friedman 1991), wavelet shrinkage (SUREShrink, Donoho and Johnstone 1994), smoothing splines SS procedures, Local PS and Globe PS (Ruppert and Carroll 2000). The simulation results of other methods are excerpted from Luo and Wahba (1997) and Ruppert and Carroll(2000).

Luo and Wahba (1997) used the pseudostandard normal random number generator *rnor*, a Fortran subroutine from CMLIB. For SUREShrink, Luo and Wabha used the software *wavethresh*, developed by Nason and Silverman (1994) in S-PLUS. They chose the “primary resolution level” as 5 and the wavelets family “*DaubLeAsymm with filter number 8*”. The Fortran routines used to compute HAS estimates. The smoothing splines (SS) are computed by using the code *GCVSPL* in Fortran by Woltring’s code, with the smoothing parameters chosen by GCV. The code *mars3.5* was used for MARS. Local PS and Globe PS were computed by using matlab code which were programmed by Ruppert and Carroll (2000).

To compare HAS, we select 60 initial knots for our first two examples. To test our rule for selecting the initial number of knots, we follow formula (8) and take the value

$$\left[\frac{3n}{-\log_2\{(-1/n)\ln(1 - 0.1)\}} \right] + 1 \quad (12)$$

For the first two examples, the initial knots number is nearly 60 for $n = 256$ and for the last two examples are 432 for $n = 2048$. The regularization parameter λ_n is selected by MGCV with the inflation factor 2.5.

In the second, the third and the fourth example, we relax some requirement for the tuning parameters used in our algorithm to improve the speed of our algorithm and to observe if our algorithm is stable for these tuning parameters. The medians of MSEs are presented in Table

3.2. The SCAD PRS fits with median performance are shown in Figure 3.1. They accord quite well with the true regression function.

Table 3.2: Median of $MSE \times 1000$ with different methods and the Interquartile range of $MSE \times 1000$ (in parentheses)

Example	SCAD PRS	HAS	SS	SUREShrink	MARS	Local PS	Global PS
1	5.4(3.1)	7(6)	6 (3)	18(4)	7(4)	5.3(3.5)	6.1 (2.9)
2	9.3(5.3)	12(11)	10 (5)	42(12)	12 (7)		
3	51 (8)	39 (13)	75(5)	62(7)	150 (14)		
4	196 (20.3)	68 (15)	205 (11)	149 (13)			

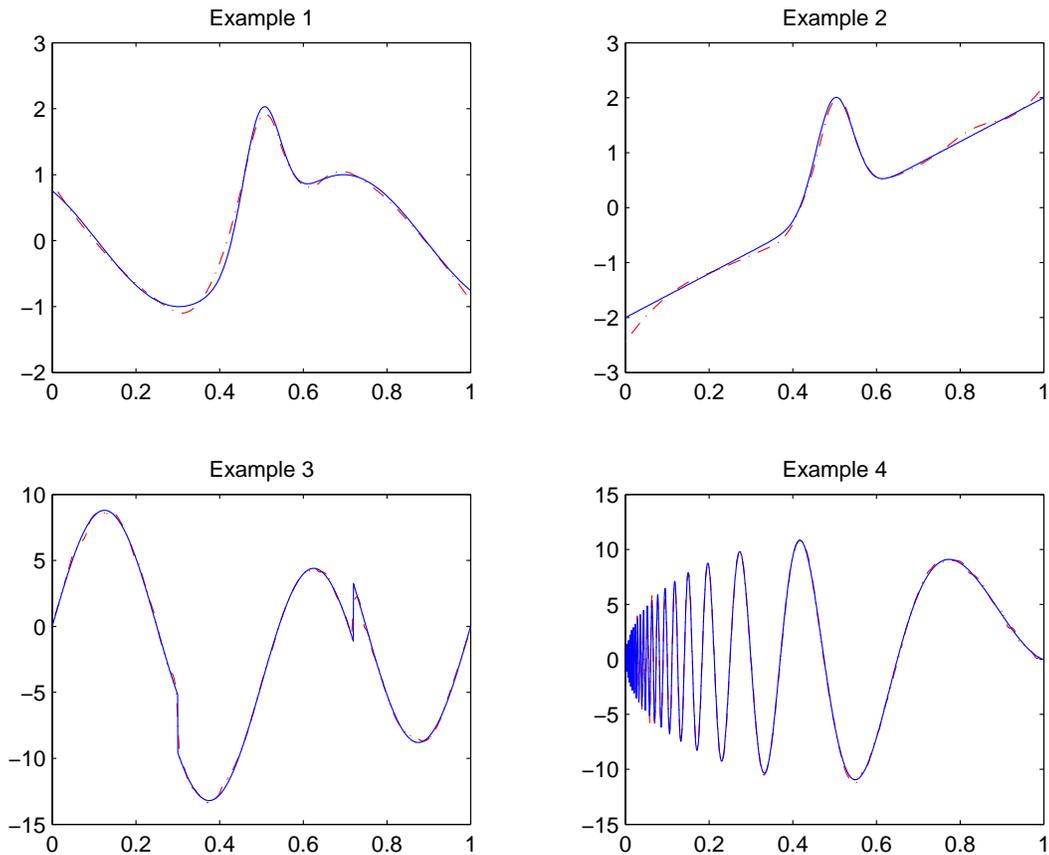


Figure 3.1: SCAD PRS with Median of MSE for Examples 1-4 (solid line for true function, dot-dash for the estimate function)

In our simulation, we use the quadratic spline as the results are slightly better than those of cubic spline. This phenomenon was also observed by Ruppert and Carroll (1999) when they study their penalized regression spline with quadratic penalty.

From Table 3.2, our procedure is the best in first two examples, and in the last two examples, our procedure slightly outperform the smoothing spline, but not the HAS or SUREShrink.

This is due to the spatial inhomogeneity of the simulated function, for which the HAS and SUREShrink are designed.

3.2 Effect of initial number of knots for SCAD PRS

In this section, we study the influence of the initial number of knots used in SCAD penalized regression splines for the first two examples. We vary the initial number of knots from 30 to 150 with step size 30. The median MSEs of 400 simulations are presented in Table 3.3. They show that the method is insensitive to the number of initial knots though too many initial knots may cause slightly over fit.

Table 3.3: Median of $\text{MSE} \times 1000$ for different initial knots and the Interquartile range of $\text{MSE} \times 1000$ (in parentheses)

Initial Knots Number	30	60	90	120	150
Example 1	5.5(2.9)	5.4(3.1)	5.1(2.9)	5.2(2.7)	5.8(2.7)
Example 2	8.9(5.2)	9.3(5.3)	9.4(5.1)	9.5(5.1)	9.8(5.2)

3.3 Effect of knots selecting for SCAD PRS

Depicted in Figures 3.2 and 3.3 are the locations of the knots finally automatically selected by non-convex penalized regression spline. Figure 3.3 gives the frequency of every knot finally selected by SCAD PRS in the 400 simulations for Examples 1 and 2. Figures 3.3 gives the histograms for the number of knots that the SCAD PRS finally selected in every simulation. It is obvious that SCAD PRS used more knots than SCAD PRS of Example 1. This is because we relax the requirement for the tuning parameters in our algorithm. Hence, though these tuning parameters have little influence on MSE, they affect the knots selection of SCAD PRS.

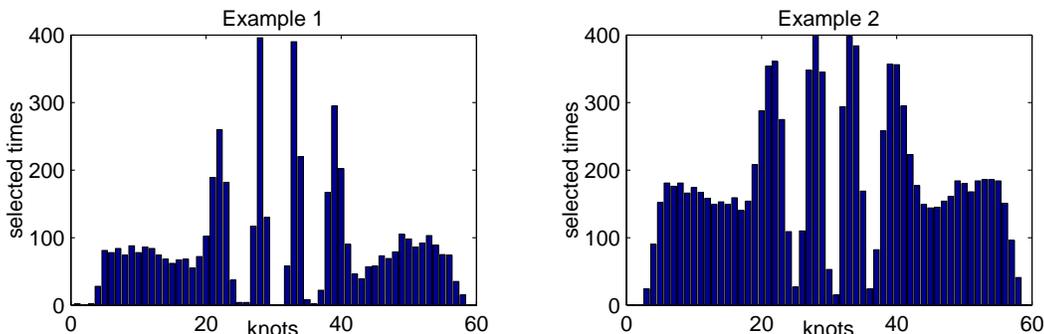


Figure 3.2: Frequencies of the initial 60 knots that are selected by SCAD PRS

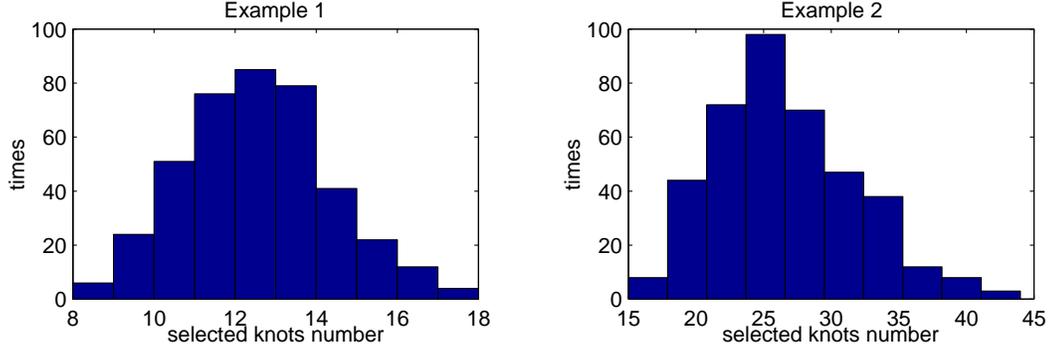


Figure 3.3: The distributions of the knots selected by the SCAD PRS with 60 initial knots

3.4 Parameters Selection Methods

In this section, we mainly examine the performance of MGCV and PREC with different number of initial knots. Specifically, we aim at examining the impact of the inflation factor to the MGCV and PREC on the estimated curves. For simplicity, we focus only on Examples 1 and 2.

From Table 3.4-3.7, the two parameter selection methods, MGCV and PREC are efficient in selecting the penalized parameter for the non-convex penalized regression spline. However, MGCV method is sensitive to the inflation factor. The best value of the inflation factor for MGCV is in the interval $[2.0, 3.5]$. The PREC method is robust when the inflation factor is large. This result is consistent with the results of Rao and Wu (1989) and Bai, Rao and Wu (1999). The number of initial knots and the sample size may also slightly affect the choice of the inflation factor. It needs further study.

Table 3.4: Median $\times 1000$ of MSE for different initial knots with MGCV Method and the Difference of the First and Third Quartiles of MSE (in Parentheses) for Example 1

Inflation factor γ	Initial Knots Number				
	30	60	90	120	150
1.0	6.7(4.4)	9.0(7.7)	11.0(13.0)	14.4(18.6)	23.4(25.9)
1.2	6.2(3.8)	6.7(4.5)	6.3(5.5)	6.1(4.9)	6.6(5.5)
1.5	5.8(3.4)	5.5(3.2)	5.3(3.0)	5.4(3.0)	5.9(3.0)
2.0	5.5(3.0)	5.3(3.0)	5.2(2.8)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.8)
2.5	5.5(2.9)	5.4(3.1)	5.1(2.9)	5.2(2.7)	5.8(2.7)
3.0	5.6(2.9)	5.6(3.2)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.8)	52.4(14.0)
3.5	5.7(3.0)	5.8(3.3)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.8)	53.8(8.3)
7.0	67(42)	72(42)	32.6(6.7)	43.3(7.8)	53.8(8.3)
$\ln(n)/2$	5.6(2.9)	5.5(3.0)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.8)	6.2(3.6)
$\ln(n)$	6.2(3.4)	6.8(4.0)	32.5(7.0)	43.3(7.8)	53.8(8.3)
$\ln(k)/2$	5.7(3.1)	5.3(3.1)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.7)	5.8(2.7)
$\ln(k)$	5.7(3.0)	6.0(3.6)	5.2(2.9)	43.3(7.8)	53.8(8.3)

Table 3.5: Median $\times 1000$ of MSE for different initial knots with PREC Method and the Difference of the First and Third Quartiles of MSE (in Parentheses) for Example 1

Inflation factor γ	Initial Knots Number				
	30	60	90	120	150
1.0	6.8(4.4)	10.4(8.2)	15.7(14.1)	24.0(18.4)	34.0(17.6)
1.2	6.2(3.9)	7.6(6.2)	8.2(12.8)	9.7(19.5)	27.0(29.9)
1.5	6.0(3.7)	5.9(3.7)	5.8(4.2)	5.8(4.2)	6.6(6.6)
2.0	5.7(3.1)	5.4(3.1)	5.3(2.9)	5.4(3.0)	5.9(3.0)
2.5	5.5(3.0)	5.3(3.1)	5.2(2.8)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.8)
3.0	5.5(2.9)	5.5(3.1)	5.2(2.8)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.8)
3.5	5.5(2.9)	5.5(3.1)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.7)	5.8(2.7)
7.0	5.8(3.1)	6.1(3.6)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.7)
$\ln(n)/2$	5.6(3.0)	5.4(3.1)	5.2(2.8)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.8)
$\ln(n)$	5.7(3.1)	5.8(3.3)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.7)
$\ln(k)/2$	5.8(3.4)	5.3(3.1)	5.2(2.8)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.8)
$\ln(k)$	5.5(2.9)	5.6(3.2)	5.2(2.9)	5.2(2.8)	5.8(2.7)

Table 3.6: Median of MSE for different initial knots with MGCV Method and the Difference of the First and Third Quartiles of MSE (in Parentheses) for Example 2

Inflation factor γ	Initial Knots Number				
	30	60	90	120	150
1.0	1.08(6.7)	12.4(8.3)	14.6(14.3)	16.3(21.2)	2.64(32.1)
1.2	9.9(6.2)	10.4(6.8)	10.3(8.3)	10.8(8.9)	10.9(9.2)
1.5	9.3(5.8)	9.3(5.5)	9.1(5.5)	9.3(5.5)	9.4(5.2)
2.0	9.0(5.3)	9.1(5.0)	9.0(5.1)	9.2(5.2)	9.4(5.1)
2.5	8.9(5.2)	9.3(5.3)	9.4(5.1)	9.5(5.1)	9.8(5.2)
3.0	9.1(5.5)	9.7(5.6)	9.6(5.5)	10.1(5.6)	9.9(5.2)
3.5	9.2(5.5)	10.0(6.0)	10.2(6.2)	10.7(5.9)	10.1(5.2)
7.0	12.9(8.7)	14.5(8.8)	15.2(8.5)	13.7(6.1)	10.8(6.0)
$\ln(n)/2$	9.0(5.5)	9.5(5.2)	9.5(5.3)	9.9(5.3)	9.8(5.2)
$\ln(n)$	10.8(6.5)	12.8(7.6)	12.6(7.3)	13.4(6.4)	10.5(5.6)
$\ln(k)/2$	9.2(5.6)	9.1(5.0)	9.2(5.1)	9.4(5.1)	9.8(5.2)
$\ln(k)$	9.2(5.5)	10.7(6.2)	11.2(6.8)	12.4(6.3)	10.3(5.4)

Table 3.7: Median $\times 1000$ of MSE for different initial knots with PREC Method and the Difference of the First and Third Quartiles of MSE (in Parentheses) for Example 2

Inflation factor γ	Initial Knots Number				
	30	60	90	120	150
1.0	10.9(7.5)	12.6(8.8)	16.5(14.4)	21.7(20.1)	35.2(26.9)
1.2	10.2(6.5)	11.3(7.4)	12.0(13.0)	13.0(18.8)	16.8(33.5)
1.5	9.5(6.0)	9.9(6.1)	9.8(6.7)	10.0(6.6)	10.5(8.9)
2.0	9.2(5.5)	9.1(5.2)	9.0(5.4)	9.3(5.4)	9.4(5.2)
2.5	8.9(5.4)	9.2(5.2)	9.1(5.1)	9.2(5.2)	9.5(5.2)
3.0	8.9(5.3)	9.3(5.3)	9.3(5.2)	9.4(5.1)	9.8(5.2)
3.5	9.0(5.5)	9.5(5.4)	9.5(5.2)	9.7(5.3)	9.8(5.2)
7.0	10.1(5.7)	11.0(6.8)	11.1(6.6)	11.7(6.3)	10.3(5.4)
$\ln(n)/2$	8.9(5.3)	9.3(5.2)	9.2(5.1)	9.3(5.1)	9.6(5.2)
$\ln(n)$	9.5(5.5)	10.4(6.3)	10.4(6.1)	11.0(6.2)	10.1(5.3)
$\ln(k)/2$	9.3(5.7)	9.2(5.2)	9.0(5.1)	9.2(5.3)	9.5(5.1)
$\ln(k)$	9.0(5.5)	9.7(5.7)	10.1(6.1)	10.7(5.8)	10.1(5.2)

4 Discussion and Extension

The non-convex penalized regression spline can be easily extended to multivariate regression models. In Chapter 2, we have applied our non-convex penalized regression spline to a partial linear model to reduce the modeling bias. In section, we briefly outline how to extend our approach to nonparametric additive model.

First, we suppose that we have J predictor variables and that $\mathbf{X}_i = (x_{i,1}, \dots, x_{i,J})^T$ is the vector of predictor variables for the i th case. The additive model considered is defined as follows:

$$y_i = f(\mathbf{X}_i) + \varepsilon_i = \mu + \sum_{j=1}^J f_j(x_{i,j}) + \varepsilon_i. \quad (13)$$

where $E f_j(x_{i,j}) = 0$, $1 \leq j \leq J$, is imposed for identifiability. As in univariate setting, we may use spline function $\hat{f}_j(x_{i,j}, \mathcal{B}_j)$ of order p with K_j knots, $k_{1,j}, \dots, k_{K_j,j}$, to approximate the function $f_j(x_{i,j})$ subject to the constrains that $\sum_1^n \hat{f}_j(x_{i,j}, \mathcal{B}_j) = 0$ where $\hat{f}_j(x_{i,j}, \mathcal{B}_j)$ is defined as follows,

$$\hat{f}_j(x_{i,j}, \mathcal{B}_j) = \beta_{0,j} + \beta_{1,j}x_{i,j} + \dots + \beta_{p-1,j}x_{i,j}^{p-1} + \sum_{l=1}^{K_j} \beta_{p+l-1,j}(x_{i,j} - k_l)_+^{p-1}. \quad (14)$$

Therefore, we obtain an additive spline model

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{X}_i, \mathcal{B}) = \mu + \sum_{j=1}^J \hat{f}_j(x_{i,j}, \mathcal{B}_j), \quad (15)$$

to approximate the additive model (13), where

$$\mathcal{B} = (\mu, \beta_{0,1}, \beta_{1,1}, \dots, \beta_{p+K_1-1,1}, \dots, \beta_{p+K_J-1,J})^T$$

The non-convex penalized criterion is to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \{y_i - \hat{f}(\mathbf{X}_i, \mathcal{B})\}^2 + n \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^{K_j} p_{\lambda_{n,j}}(|w_{p+k-1,j} \beta_{p+k-1,j}|), \quad (16)$$

subject to the constraints that $\sum_1^n \hat{f}_j(x_{i,j}, \mathcal{B}_j) = 0$, where $p_{\lambda_{n,j}}(\cdot)$ is the non-concave penalty with the penalty parameter $\lambda_{n,j}$. In practice, we replace $\mu + \beta_{0,1} + \beta_{0,2} + \dots + \beta_{0,J}$ in (15) by a single parameter β_0 to release the constraints imposed on the non-concave penalty least-squares (16). As the univariate setting, we choose the SCAD as the non-concave penalty. Now, we have transferred the additive model to a non-concave penalty least-squares problem. Hence it is no difference between the minimization of (16) and that of (4). The iterative algorithm used in the univariate setting can be still used in additive model settings.

To simplify our procedure to fit an additive spline model, we set all penalty parameters equalling to a global penalty parameter. Then we select this globe penalty parameter by the MGCV and the PREC as in the univariate setting. To make our estimate for the additive model more accurately, we can also select different value for the different penalty parameters used in (16) by the MGCV and the PREC through some optimization algorithms in a J dimension space.

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