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Abstract

Variable selection is fundamental in high-dimensional statistical modeling, including non- and semiparametric regression. However little work has been done for variable selection in a partially linear model. We propose and study a unified approach via double penalized least squares, retaining good features of both variable selection and model estimation in the framework of partially linear models. The proposed method is distinguished from others in that the penalty functions combine the ℓ_1 penalty coming from wavelet thresholding in the nonparametric component with the ℓ_1 penalty from the lasso in the parametric component. Simulations are used to investigate the performance of the proposed estimator in various settings, illustrating its effectiveness for simultaneous variable selection as well as estimation.

Keywords: Lasso, ℓ_1 penalty, Partially linear model, Variable selection, Wavelet estimation.

1 Introduction

We propose and study a unified approach for simultaneous variable selection and model estimation in partially linear models. Consider the following regression model:

$$Y_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^t \boldsymbol{\beta} + f(t_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$
(1)

where $\{Y_i\}$ is the response variable, $\{x_i\}$ are known design points and each is a fixed pdimensional vector with corresponding parameter vector β of length p, $\{t_i\}$ are values of an extra univariate variable such as, for example, the time at which the observation is made, $f(\cdot)$ is an unknown function that is potentially non-smooth, ε_i are random errors assumed to be independent and identically distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2)$. Without loss of generality, we assume $t \in [0, 1]$. The goal is to estimate both the nonparametric function $f(\cdot)$ and the parameter vector β . Our estimation method will allow for the selection of important variables in the parametric part of the model by using a ℓ_1 lasso penalty on the regression coefficients. For the nonparametric part we use wavelet estimators which allow the true function to be nonsmooth.

The partially linear model (PLM) in (1), with parametric component $\mathbf{x}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ and nonparametric component f(t), enjoys the flexibility of the nonparametric models, while maintaining the easy interpretation of parametric models. Various estimation procedures and their asymptotic properties have been established by Heckman (1986), Rice (1986), Speckman (1988), Hamilton and Truong (1997), amongst others. For more details and references, see Härdle et al. (2000).

In this paper, we use the wavelet nonparametric regression procedure for the PLM. The main reason for adopting wavelets is to avoid the smoothness assumption on $f(\cdot)$, that is used by most of the existing approaches such as kernel, local polynomial or spline estimators. Wavelet smoothing makes less restrictive assumptions about the smoothness of the underlying function, allowing for possible sharp transitions, jumps, and sharp peaks. At the same time, wavelets lead to a sparse representation that can be easily compressed or denoised using thresholds for wavelet coefficients, see Donoho and Johnstone (1994), and Donoho et al. (1995).

Chang and Qu (2004) proposed a wavelet-soft thresholding estimator for the PLM and developed an efficient descent algorithm with an exact line search. A regularized estimator was introduced by Fadili and Bullmore (2004), which can be efficiently estimated by choosing an appropriate penalty function for which the hard and soft thresholding estimators are particular cases. Fadili (2005) extended modeling the nonparametric component in PLMs from orthogonal bases (complete) to redundant (overcomplete) expansions in the wavelet domain. For the estimation of the nonparametric part of the PLM, we will apply an iterative backfitting-like algorithm as well as soft thresholding.

The main novel part of this paper is the inclusion of variable selection for the parametric part of the model. Identifying significant predictors will enhance the prediction performance of the fitted model. While there is a vast amount of work on variable selection for linear models, little work has been done for variable selection in partially linear models, however, see Simonoff and Tsai (1999), and Li and Liang (2008) for methods using local likelihood estimators for the nonparametric part of the model. The lasso, short for "least absolute shrinkage and selection operator", proposed by Tibshirani (1996), achieves the goal of simultaneous estimation and variable selection by introducing an ℓ_1 penalty on the regression coefficients in linear models. The resulting lasso estimate of β can contain some exact zero coefficients, which is equivalent to excluding the corresponding variables from the final model. Theoretical properties of the lasso estimator have been obtained by Knight and Fu (2000) and Zhao and Yu (2006), amongst others. Zou (2006) proposed the adaptive lasso in which adaptive weights are used for penalizing different coefficients in the ℓ_1 penalty.

In this paper, we use the adaptive lasso to select relevant variables in parametric component of the model. Together with the soft-thresholded wavelet estimation method for the nonparametric part of the model, this leads to a double penalized estimator, using ℓ_1 penalties for both model parts.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce our new doublepenalty estimation procedure for partially linear models. Section 3 contains details about the practical implementation using an iterative algorithm, which iterates between fitting a nonparametric wavelet regression model and minimizing a penalized least squares objective function. In Section 4 we discuss how to adaptively select the tuning parameters. A simple yet effective stagewise tuning procedure is presented. Monte Carlo studies and an application involving real data are shown in Section 5. Some discussion is given in Section 6.

2 A double penalized estimation method

We introduce our estimation method where the penalty functions combine an ℓ_1 penalty coming from wavelet thresholding in the nonparametric part (see Section 2.1) with a second ℓ_1 penalty from the adaptive lasso in the parametric part (see Section 2.2). Thus we achieve simultaneously the objectives of variable selection and model estimation in the partially linear model.

2.1 Wavelet smoothing in the partially linear model

We are working with a wavelet basis that is generated through a mother wavelet function $\psi(\cdot)$ and father scaling function $\phi(\cdot)$. Defining the normalized functions $\psi_{jk}(t) = 2^{j/2}\psi(2^{j}t - k)$ and $\phi_{jk}(t) = 2^{j/2}\phi(2^{j}t - k)$ for $j \ge j_0 = 0$ (the resolution level) and $k = 0, \ldots, 2^{j} - 1$, gives an orthonormal basis of $L^2[0, 1]$, the square integrable functions on [0, 1]. The nonparametric part of the PLM (1) can then be represented by the wavelet series expansion

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{2^{j_0}-1} c_{j_0,k} \phi_{j_0,k}(t) + \sum_{j=j_0}^{J-1} \sum_{k=0}^{2^j-1} \gamma_{j,k} \psi_{j,k}(t),$$
(2)

where the sample size $N = 2^{J}$. In practice, the coefficients in this expansion follow from a discrete wavelet transformation (DWT), leading to empirical scale and wavelet coefficients $\hat{c}_{j_0,k}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{j,k}$. Denoting \mathbf{W}^t the inverse DWT matrix containing the scaling and wavelet functions in its columns, which has dimension $N \times N$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta} = (\boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})$ the vector of all scaling and wavelet coefficients, the PLM in (1) can be written in matrix form as

$$\boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{W}^t\boldsymbol{\delta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$

For identifiability, we here consider that the vector 1_N is not spanned by the vectors of \boldsymbol{X} , i.e., the mean of the vector Y is explained by $\boldsymbol{W}^t \boldsymbol{\delta}$.

Wavelet estimation has the important advantage of creating a sparse signal, meaning that most of the wavelet coefficients are zero or close to zero, while important features of the signal are captured by large wavelet coefficients. This allows thresholding procedures to be used. Hard thresholding removes small wavelet coefficients and leaves other coefficients untouched. In contrast, soft thresholding works as a shrinkage method that shrinks large wavelet coefficients towards zero by the threshold value, and removes the small ones that do not exceed the threshold. A particular aspect of this method is that soft thresholding corresponds to placing an ℓ_1 penalty on the wavelet coefficients, while leaving the scaling coefficients unpenalized. In detail, this leads to the first penalty term in the objective function of the double penalized estimation method (3) where λ_1 is the threshold value.

2.2 Lasso as a variable selection method

The lasso method as proposed by Tibshirani (1996) for linear regression models of the type $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, puts a ℓ_1 penalty on the regression coefficients. The lasso estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is the minimizer over $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ of the penalized least squares criterion

$$\|\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=2}^p |\beta_j|,$$

where p denotes the number of regression variables. Note that the intercept, which is in the parametric model included in the design matrix X, is not bounded by the constraint. A particular useful aspect of the properties of an ℓ_1 penalty is that it not only shrinks the coefficients towards zero, but also allows some of the coefficients to be identically zero. This aspect makes that the lasso can be used as a variable selection method.

While the lasso applies the same penalty to all of the regression coefficients, the adaptive lasso (Zou, 2006) has different weights τ_j for each coefficient. This leads to a minimization problem of a penalized least squares criterion of the form

$$\|\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=2}^p \tau_j |\beta_j|.$$

As a result, large amounts of shrinkage can be used for insignificant variables, while small amounts of shrinkage can be used for significant variables. Zou (2006) showed that for certain data-dependent values for the weights τ_i , the adaptive lasso has oracle properties in the sense of performing equally well as if the true model were known.

2.3 The double penalty estimation approach

We propose to minimize the following double penalized least-squares criterion to estimate β and γ :

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}\in\mathbb{R}^{p},\boldsymbol{\delta}\in\mathbb{R}^{N}} l(\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{\delta}) = \min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}\in\mathbb{R}^{p},\boldsymbol{\gamma}\in\mathbb{R}^{N}} \left\{ \|\boldsymbol{Y}-\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}-\boldsymbol{W}^{t}\boldsymbol{\delta}\|^{2} + \lambda_{1}\sum_{j=j_{0}}^{J-1}\sum_{k=0}^{2^{j}-1}|\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{j,k}| + \lambda_{2}\sum_{i=1}^{p}\tau_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}| \right\}.$$
 (3)

The threshold value λ_1 controls the sparsity of nonparametric estimates, while for the purpose of variable selection we impose the weighted ℓ_1 penalty on the linear coefficients $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and thus use λ_2 to control the sparsity of the parametric part of the model. We will give more details about the choice of the regularization parameters λ_1 and λ_2 in Section 4.

An iterative algorithm will be used to solve the above estimation problem (3) with any fixed λ_1 and λ_2 . The main idea is to successively minimize the objective function $l(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})$

with respect to $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ while holding $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ fixed, and next minimize $l(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})$ with respect to $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ while holding $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ fixed. All the computational details are presented in Section 3.

Before minimizing the objective function (3), the adaptive weights τ_i should be defined. We propose to take $\hat{\tau} = 1/|\tilde{\beta}|$, where $\tilde{\beta}$ is the estimate for β in the PLM model (1) without putting a penalty on the parametric part of the model. To obtain our initial estimators $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\gamma})$ that are used in the iterative procedure as well as in the weights of the adaptive lasso, we apply the wavelet estimation method for the partially linear model by Fadili and Bullmore (2004) and Fadili (2005), which only includes an ℓ_1 penalty on the wavelet coefficients and leaves all other coefficients unpenalized. Using the orthogonality of the DWT matrix \boldsymbol{W} , the initial estimators are obtained by minimizing over $(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\delta})$, the penalized function

$$\| WY - WX\beta - \delta \|^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=j_0}^{J-1} \sum_{k=0}^{2^j-1} |\gamma_{j,k}|,$$

where the penalty takes action only on the wavelet coefficients, not on the scaling coefficients, nor on the coefficients of the parametric part of the model.

The idea of double-penalized least squares has been used in other contexts. Tibshirani and Saunders (2005) proposed the 'fused lasso', which penalizes the ℓ_1 norm of both the coefficients and their successive differences. This corresponds to expressing sparsity in the coefficients as well as in their differences. Wang et al. (2007) also used double ℓ_1 penalties for a linear regression model with autoregressive errors. One penalty is for the regression coefficients, the other for the autoregression coefficients. Our double-penalized least squares criterion in the partially linear model is new. The penalty functions combine the ℓ_1 penalty coming from wavelet thresholding in the nonparametric part with the ℓ_1 penalty from the adaptive lasso in the parametric part. Thus we achieve the objectives of variable selection and model estimation simultaneously.

3 Algorithm

Now we propose an iterative algorithm to minimize the double penalized least squares criterion function (3) for any fixed choice of regularization parameters λ_1 and λ_2 . We use a backfitting type of algorithm which iterates between minimizing the following adaptive lasso-type criterion (β -step) and a wavelet-type objective function (δ -step):

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}$$
-step : $\min_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \{ \| \boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{W}^{t}\boldsymbol{\delta} \|^{2} + \lambda_{2} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \tau_{i} |\beta_{i}| \}$ with a fixed $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ (4)

$$\boldsymbol{\delta}\text{-step} : \qquad \min_{\boldsymbol{\delta}} \{ \|\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{W}^{\boldsymbol{t}}\boldsymbol{\delta}\|^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=j_0}^{J-1} \sum_{k=0}^{2^{j-1}} |\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{j,k}| \} \text{ with a fixed } \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$
(5)

In a similar spirit, Wang et al. (2007) used such an algorithm for their double ℓ_1 penalty approach.

To obtain the initial estimators, according to Theorem 1 of Fadili and Bullmore (2004), the backfitting algorithm can be used to estimate the parametric and the non-parametric part of the PLM, including soft thresholding for the wavelet estimator.

Algorithm 1. The (single) penalized PLM wavelet estimator

- 1. Calculate the columnwise DWT of \boldsymbol{Y} and \boldsymbol{X} . Set $l = 0, \, \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{(0)} = 0$.
- **2.** For $l = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ until convergence
 - (a) $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(l+1)} = (\boldsymbol{X}^t \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^t \boldsymbol{W}^t (\boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{Y} \boldsymbol{\delta}^{(l)})$, i.e. least squares fit on $\boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{Y} \boldsymbol{\delta}^{(l)}$.
 - (b) Wavelet fit on $\boldsymbol{Y} \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(l+1)}$, no penalty on the scaling coefficients and soft-thresholding for the wavelet coefficients, leading to

$$c_{j_0,k}^{(l+1)} = (\boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(l+1)})_k \text{ if } k < 2^{j_0} + 1$$

$$\gamma_{j,k}^{(l+1)} = \operatorname{sgn}(r_{j,k}^{(l+1)}) \max\{|r_{j,k}^{(l+1)}| - \lambda, 0\},$$

where $\boldsymbol{r}^{(l+1)} = \boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(l+1)}$.

For the adaptive, or weighted lasso, several well developed procedures can be used to find the minimizers of the lasso-type (β -step) problem. Examples include quadratic programming (Tibshirani, 1996), the shooting algorithm (Fu, 1998), a local quadratic approximation (Fan and Li, 2001), and more recently the least angle regression method (Efron et al., 2004). The shooting algorithm for the lasso was developed based on the theoretical results of the structure of the bridge estimators by (Fu, 1998). Particularly, it has a simple closed form and leads to fast convergence. These properties make it computationally attractive. We will use the slightly modified shooting algorithm, see Zhang and Lu (2007). The wavelet-type problem (δ -step), with β fixed at its current value is a standard wavelet smoothing problem, and the solution is a soft-thresholding rule, which is in line with the solution for the nonparametric part of the PLM model. The algorithm is presented below.

Algorithm 2. The double penalized PLM wavelet estimator

- 1. Obtain the single penalized PLM wavelet estimator, denote the solution as $(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \tilde{\boldsymbol{\delta}})$. Set $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(0)} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \, \boldsymbol{\delta}^{(0)} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{\delta}}$.
- 2. Let k = k + 1. Minimize (4) with respect to β with $\delta^{(k-1)}$ fixed at its current value. Denote the solution by $\beta^{(k)}$.
- 3. Minimize (5) with respect to $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ with $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}$ fixed at its current value. Denote the solution by $\boldsymbol{\delta}^{(k)}$.
- 4. Go to step 2 until convergence.

In practice, only a small number of iterations is usually needed to achieve convergence. This is partially due to the fact that the penalized PLM wavelet estimator resulting from application of algorithm 1, can provide a good initial estimate.

4 Choice of regularization parameters

To implement the methods described in the previous sections, it is desirable to obtain the tuning parameters λ_1 and λ_2 in a data-driven way. To choose the regularization parameters (λ_1, λ_2) jointly by minimizing some performance criterion is computationally expensive in practice, since it involves a two-dimensional search. We propose a two-stage tuning procedure. We first select λ_1 at step 1 of the computational algorithm by GCV and at the successive steps, we fix the choice of λ_1 . We select the data-driven λ_2 value through a grid search method. At each grid value of λ_2 , when the algorithm has converged, we re-calculate the optimal λ_1 based on the converged estimate of the parametric parameters $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. Then we select λ_2 through a model fit criterion (see below).

There are several approaches in the literature for the choice of the λ_1 in the context of wavelet regression. These methods include the traditional universal threshold value $\lambda = \sigma \sqrt{2 \log N}$, Stein's unbiased risk estimator SURE (Donoho and Johnstone, 1995) and cross validation (Nason, 1996). The threshold can easily be made level-dependent in case of correlated noise or non-orthogonal transforms, provided that all levels are sufficiently sparse for accurate estimation of the level-dependent standard deviation. The threshold adopted here is the generalized cross validation (GCV), see Jansen et al. (1997).

Various criteria have been proposed for the choice of λ_2 . The well-known criteria include Mallow's C_p (1973), AIC (Akaike, 1973), BIC (Schwarz, 1978), cross-validation (CV) and the generalized cross-validation (GCV) as suggested by Tibshirani (1996) for the lasso. While the AIC has the efficiency property, BIC is consistent in the sense that it almost surely identifies the true sparse model provided that the true model is in the candidate list. Due to the overfitting property of AIC, which is a known result in linear regression, AIC lasso shrinkage might include more non-zero predictors than necessary. For that reason Zou et al. (2007) suggested using BIC as the model selection criterion when the sparsity of the model is of primary concern. They proposed BIC for the lasso as

$$BIC(\lambda_2) = \frac{\|\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}\|}{n\sigma^2} + \frac{\log(N)}{N}\hat{df}(\lambda_2)$$

where $df(\lambda_2)$ stands for the degree of freedom of the lasso, which is the number of nonzero coefficients of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$. In the semiparametric regression models, we use the consistent estimate for the residual variance, i.e., $\hat{\sigma}^2 = 1/N \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\varepsilon}_i^2$, and $\hat{\varepsilon}_i = y_i - \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{f}(t_i)$, see Cheng (2005).

By the connection between AIC and BIC, the AIC is equivalently defined as

$$\operatorname{AIC}(\lambda_2) = \frac{\|\boldsymbol{Y} - \boldsymbol{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}\|}{N\sigma^2} + \frac{2}{N}\hat{d}f(\lambda_2).$$

To select the parameter λ_2 , we can also use the generalized cross-validation (GCV) method Craven and Wahba (1979), as suggested by Fu (1998) for the lasso model,

$$GCV = \frac{RSS}{N(1 - p(\lambda)/N)^2}$$

where $p(\lambda)$ is the effective number of parameters of the model and it can be computed as

$$p(\lambda) = \operatorname{trace}(\boldsymbol{X}(\boldsymbol{X}^{t}\boldsymbol{X} + \lambda\boldsymbol{Z}^{-})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{t}) - n_{0}$$

where \mathbf{Z}^- is the generalized inverse of $\mathbf{Z} = \text{diag}(2|\hat{\beta}| \cdot |\tilde{\beta}|)$, and it has an extra compensation term n_0 , i.e., the number of zero coefficients as compared to the one in Tibshirani (1996). We compare the three methods in a simulation study.

5 Numerical studies

In this section we summarize our simulation studies carried out to evaluate the finite-sample performance of the lasso and adaptive lasso estimators via the proposed double penalized least square procedure. For comparison purposes, the performance of the lasso and adaptive lasso estimators based on BIC, AIC and GCV criteria are evaluated in terms of mean squared error (MSE). We also include the "oracle model" fit, which is given by the single penalized PLM wavelet estimator when assuming that the true model is known. The oracle results are used for easy comparison but they are generally not available for real data.

5.1 Simulation models

We generated data from the semiparametric model $Y_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^t \boldsymbol{\beta} + f(t_i) + \varepsilon_i$, where $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ with $\sigma = 1$. Specifically, we set p = 20, and $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 0, \dots, 0)^t$. In other words, the first 4 regression variables are significant, but the rest are not. In addition, the covariate vectors $(X_1, \dots, X_{20})^t$ were independently generated from the 20-dimensional multivariate normal distribution with mean $\mathbf{0}_{20\times 1}$, variance 1, and the pairwise correlation coefficient is chosen to be $\rho = 0.4$. We generate the nonparametric component in two different cases, see Figure 1.

• Case I. f_1 given in Nason (1996), is a piecewise polynomial with discontinuity;

$$f_1(t) = \begin{cases} 4t^2(3-4t) & \text{if } 0 \le t \le 0.5 \\ \frac{4}{3}t(4t^2 - 10t + 7) - 1.5 & \text{if } 0.5 < t \le 0.75 \\ \frac{16}{3}t(t-1)^2 & \text{if } 0.75 < t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

• Case II. f_2 given in Donoho and Johnstone (1994), is a function with many bumps. $f_2(t) =$ 'Bumps'.

For the DWT, we used the Daubechies filter with 8 vanishing moments. We choose $f(t) = 9f_1$ and $f(t) = 3f_2$ in different settings to have a reasonable signal-to-noise ratios of the nonparametric and parametric component. The sample sizes used are N = 128 and 256. We use the proposed algorithm to estimate the true β . In our algorithm, the GCV was used to choose λ_1 and λ_2 was chosen by BIC, AIC and GCV respectively. We will compare the performance of traditional lasso and the adaptive lasso (Alasso) based on different smoothing parameter selection criteria in the simulation study.



Figure 1: Plot of the nonparametric functions $f_1(t)$, which is piecewise polynomial, and $f_2(t)$, the bumps function.

5.2 Performance of semiparametric estimators

5.2.1 Performance of $\hat{\beta}$

We assess the performance of an underlying parametric estimator $\hat{\beta}$ via its mean squared error (MSE), $E \|\hat{\beta} - \beta\|^2$. To evaluate the MSE, we conducted K replicates of Monte Carlo simulations and the MSE is estimated by

$$\frac{1}{K}\sum_{k=1}^{K}\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_k-\boldsymbol{\beta}\|^2.$$

In our simulations, K = 1000. The results are summarized in Tables 1 and 2 for both cases I and II.

As concerns the selection of predictors, four scenarios can occur. The best scenario would be to select exactly the set of 4 relevant predictors, namely correctly fitted. Another possibility is underfitted, i.e., all selected predictors are relevant, but not all relevant predictors are selected. Overfitting means that all relevant predictors are selected as well as some redundant predictors. The remaining scenario is the selection of a model including some, but not all, relevant and some redundant predictors. The last scenario does not occur in our

s,	er		
percentage of correctly selected variable	m, standard deviation (SD) of paramete	l incorrect selections of zeros.	
ts for $f(t) = 9f_1(t)$. The table shows for the simulation the	models in the parametric part of the PLM; as well as me	average number of zeros selected, divided into correct and	
1: Simulation resul	rfit and of underfit	tors, the MSE and	
Table	of ove	estim	

)													
Sample	e size				n = 128							n = 256			
Estim	ator		Lasso		Ad	aptive La	SSO	Oracle		Lasso		Adέ	aptive La	SSO	Oracle
Tuni	ng Method	BIC	AIC	GCV	BIC	AIC	GCV		BIC	AIC	GCV	BIC	AIC	GCV	
	underfit	0.017	0.013	0.000	0.006	0.006	0.000	0	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0
Regression	correct	0.554	0.462	0.020	0.753	0.660	0.017	1	0.528	0.418	0.000	0.782	0.676	0.002	1
Variables	overfit	0.429	0.525	0.981	0.241	0.334	0.983	0	0.470	0.580	1.000	0.218	0.324	0.998	0
	\hat{eta}_1	1.218	1.245	1.431	1.286	1.298	1.493	1.502	1.336	1.353	1.476	1.341	1.353	1.498	1.501
	SD	(0.299)	(0.288)	(0.128)	(0.279)	(0.282)	(0.126)	(0.123)	(0.184)	(0.188)	(0.083)	(0.198)	(0.199)	(0.082)	(0.081)
	\hat{eta}_2	1.813	1.830	1.952	1.926	1.930	1.993	1.994	1.897	1.908	1.985	1.955	1.959	2.000	2.001
	SD	(0.274)	(0.260)	(0.143)	(0.215)	(0.213)	(0.143)	(0.139)	(0.155)	(0.155)	(0.092)	(0.122)	(0.121)	(0.092)	(060.0)
Mean	$\hat{eta_3}$	2.331	2.346	2.467	2.421	2.425	2.501	2.506	2.402	2.412	2.487	2.437	2.442	2.500	2.500
	SD	(0.247)	(0.243)	(0.139)	(0.184)	(0.184)	(0.140)	(0.138)	(0.134)	(0.135)	(0.089)	(0.120)	(0.119)	(0.090)	(0.087)
	\hat{eta}_4	2.703	2.731	2.921	2.909	2.914	2.995	2.997	2.832	2.850	2.974	2.936	2.941	2.999	2.999
	SD	(0.342)	(0.322)	(0.131)	(0.189)	(0.190)	(0.129)	(0.122)	(0.195)	(0.198)	(0.086)	(0.112)	(0.113)	(0.085)	(0.079)
MSE $\hat{\beta}$		0.573	0.503	0.088	0.259	0.253	0.072	0.068	0.189	0.177	0.032	0.116	0.111	0.030	0.028
Ave. zeros		14.736	14.060	9.849	15.315	14.823	11.231	16	14.077	12.887	6.537	15.226	14.443	10.493	16
No. of	correct	14.715	14.044	9.849	15.309	14.817	11.231	16	14.075	12.885	6.537	15.226	14.443	10.493	16
Zeros	incorrect	0.021	0.016	0.000	0.006	0.006	0.000	0	0.002	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0

Sample	size				n = 128							n = 256			
Estim	ator		Lasso		Ad_i	aptive La	SSO	Oracle		Lasso		Ads	aptive La	SSO	Oracle
Tunin	ng Method	BIC	AIC	GCV	BIC	AIC	GCV		BIC	AIC	GCV	BIC	AIC	GCV	
	under	0.044	0.039	0.015	0.027	0.024	0.000	0	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.010	0.008	0.000	0
Regression	correct	0.509	0.459	0.130	0.725	0.663	0.076	1	0.554	0.494	0.044	0.763	0.717	0.009	1
Variables	over	0.448	0.502	0.856	0.248	0.313	0.924	0	0.445	0.505	0.955	0.227	0.275	0.991	0
	\hat{eta}_1	1.084	1.106	1.305	1.208	1.225	1.477	1.501	1.269	1.282	1.444	1.233	1.245	1.499	1.502
	SD	(0.390)	(0.387)	(0.300)	(0.386)	(0.383)	(0.215)	(0.081)	(0.213)	(0.217)	(0.135)	(0.327)	(0.323)	(0.114)	(0.110)
	\hat{eta}_2	1.706	1.719	1.856	1.875	1.880	1.975	2.001	1.851	1.859	1.958	1.917	1.920	1.994	1.997
	SD	(0.391)	(0.389)	(0.295)	(0.351)	(0.347)	(0.237)	(0.090)	(0.181)	(0.181)	(0.141)	(0.200)	(0.199)	(0.132)	(0.126)
Mean	\hat{eta}_3	2.237	2.250	2.386	2.383	2.390	2.495	2.500	2.360	2.369	2.464	2.390	2.394	2.495	2.497
	SD	(0.389)	(0.381)	(0.287)	(0.323)	(0.321)	(0.231)	(0.087)	(0.173)	(0.175)	(0.140)	(0.204)	(0.202)	(0.1350	(0.127)
	\hat{eta}_4	2.535	2.557	2.774	2.854	2.862	2.979	2.999	2.767	2.781	2.939	2.893	2.898	3.004	3.004
	SD	(0.496)	(0.496)	(0.344)	(0.307)	(0.305)	(0.215)	(0.079)	(0.215)	(0.217)	(0.148)	(0.187)	(0.187)	(0.130)	(0.118)
MSE $\hat{\beta}$		1.246	1.184	0.500	0.606	0.584	0.203	0.028	0.304	0.289	0.089	0.325	0.313	0.065	0.058
Ave. zeros		14.968	14.637	11.671	15.394	15.095	11.217	16	14.297	13.787	8.162	15.080	14.736	8.660	16
No. of	correct	14.898	14.574	11.648	15.362	15.067	11.217	16	14.296	13.786	8.161	15.070	14.728	8.660	16
Zeros	incorrect	0.069	0.063	0.023	0.031	0.028	0.000	0	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.010	0.008	0.000	0

simulation study.

As can be seen from table 1, for sample size N = 128, the adaptive lasso estimator outperforms lasso estimator in terms of percentage of correctly selected predictors, average number of correctly estimated zero coefficients and MSE in most situations. When choosing the smoothing parameter λ_2 based on AIC or BIC, the lasso method chooses the correct sets with probability around 45% - 55%, however the adaptive lasso chooses the correct sets with much higher probability around 65% - 75%. The MSE of β obtained by the adaptive lasso estimator is only about half of that obtained by the lasso estimator. The average number of zero coefficients by the lasso estimator is about 14.5, while this number increases to 15 if estimated by the adaptive lasso method. The tuning methods BIC and AIC demonstrate comparable prediction accuracy in terms of MSE. However, as expected from the consistency property, the BIC gives a higher average number of zero coefficients. The tuning method GCV gives the smallest MSE in the simulation study, but performs slightly less in the selection of variables.

For the bigger sample size N = 256, similar conclusion can be drawn. The performance of both the lasso and adaptive lasso are improved in terms of both the MSE and the standard deviation of each parameter. The MSE of β is around one third of that obtained from the smaller sample size. The same conclusions can be drawn from table 2.

5.2.2 Performance of $\hat{f}(t)$

The performance of f(t) is assessed by the square root of average squared errors (RASE),

RASE² =
$$N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} {\{\hat{f}(t_i) - f(t_i)\}^2},$$

where $\{t_i, i = 1, ..., N\}$ are the observed data points at which the function f(t) is estimated. Alternatively, a grid could be used. In our simulation N = 128 or 256. Figure 2 depicts the estimated curves of f(t) for two different nonparametric cases based on the BIC and

$f = 9f_1$		N=128			N=256	
	BIC	AIC	GCV	BIC	AIC	GCV
lasso	0.433	0.422	0.337	0.272	0.270	0.226
Alasso	0.405	0.405	0.337	0.262	0.264	0.226
$f = 3f_2$		N=128			N=256	
	BIC	AIC	GCV	BIC	AIC	GCV
lasso	1.185	1.162	1.155	0.803	0.797	0.748
Alasso	0.968	0.966	1.055	0.786	0.786	0.754

Table 3: Median of RASE values for the simulation study for the non-parametric component of the PLM, for functions $f = 9f_1$ and $f = 3f_2$.

for sample size 128. Table 3 summarizes the RASE for all different situations. It is shown that for the piecewise polynomial function f_1 , for the estimation of nonparametric component, the lasso method performs as well as the adaptive lasso in terms of RASE. For the more challenging bumps function f_2 , the adaptive lasso gives better RASE values over the simulation runs, with the difference becoming smaller for larger sample sizes.

5.3 Real example

We consider one of the case studies by Ruppert et al. (2003) about *ragweed pollen*. The data were collected during the 1993 ragweed season in Kalamazoo, Michigan (USA). The development of accurate forecasting models for daily pollen levels is important for the treatment of pollen-related allergies. We consider the first 64 observations in the data set. The response *ragweed* is the ragweed level for that day (grains/m³). There are four explanatory variables.

 $x_1 = rain$: indicator of significant rain for following day (1 = at least 3 hours of steady or brief but intense rain, 0 = otherwise),



Figure 2: Estimated nonlinear function for $f = 9f_1$ and $f = 3f_2$.

 $x_2 = temperature$: temperature of the next day (°F),

 $x_3 = wind$: wind speed forecast for the next day,

 $x_4 = day.in.seas$: day number in the current ragweed pollen season.

The response *ragweed* is quite skewed, so we work with its square-root as Ruppert et al. (2003) suggested. The marginal relationships between the response and the other variables are shown in figure 3.

Since the day number in the current ragweed pollen season suggests a non-linear relationship with the level of ragweed pollen, we construct a partially linear model with a nonparametric component f(day.in.seas). It is also of interest to investigate whether the response variable has linear relationship with higher order effects of the variables wind and temperature as well as the interaction term $rain \times wind$. Thus the partially linear model that



Figure 3: relationships between $\sqrt{ragweed}$ and each possible predictor.

we fit for these data is

$$Y = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_2^2 + \beta_5 x_3^2 + \beta_6 x_1 x_3 + f(day.in.seas) + \varepsilon.$$

We apply the proposed method to the data. The adaptive lasso with tuning parameters $\lambda_1 = 5.4996$ and $\lambda_2 = 56.7$ as determined by AIC, selected variables wind, and the square of temperature, with estimated coefficients 0.6454 and 2.3899, respectively. Both have positive coefficients, which indicates that the ragweed pollen level increases as the covariate increases. The other variables were not selected. The estimated nonparametric function $\hat{f}(day.in.seas)$ is depicted in Figure 4.



Figure 4: The estimated nonlinear function $\hat{f}(day.in.seas)$ for the ragweed pollen data.

6 Discussion

In this paper, a flexible double penalized least squares estimator using sparse representations was proposed for partially linear modeling. The unified approach retains good features for simultaneous variable selection and model estimation. The sparse representation waveletbased approach is able to estimate a broad class of functions, including functions that are nonsmooth.

We showed how to construct flexible regression models for a single continuous predictor modeled as a non-linear function, and all the other predictors entering the model linearly. However, in reality many regression problems involve several continuous covariates that may have non-linear relationships with the response. Our method can be readily extended through a backfitting approach to allow for additive nonparametric effects. That is, a model of the form

$$Y_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^t \boldsymbol{\beta} + f_1(t_{1i}) + \ldots + f_d(t_{d_i}) + \varepsilon_i$$

The iterative estimation method for the nonparametric part of the model would keep all but one component fixed to estimate the remaining functions, and then iterate until convergence.

For future research one could derive the asymptotic distribution of the double penalized estimator, such that we can make inference about the linear coefficients as well as investigate the asymptotic behavior of the nonparametric part. It is expected that techniques combining the properties of thresholded wavelet fitting and the (adaptive) lasso estimator, will lead to such results. The rate of convergence of these estimators is another important issue that could be investigated.

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