Boosting Geoadditive Regression Models

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joint work with

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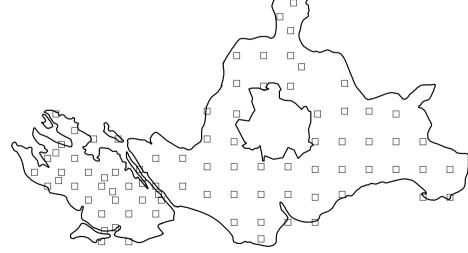
Gerhard Tutz





Geoadditive Regression: Forest Health Example

- Aim of the study: Identify factors influencing the health status of trees.
- Database: Yearly visual forest health inventories carried out from 1983 to 2004 in a northern Bavarian forest district.
- 83 observation plots of beeches within a 15 km times 10 km area.
- Response: binary defoliation indicator y_{it} of plot i in year t (1 = defoliation higher than 25%).
- Spatially structured longitudinal data.



Covariates:

Continuous: average age of trees at the observation plot

elevation above sea level in meters

inclination of slope in percent

depth of soil layer in centimeters

pH-value in 0 - 2cm depth

density of forest canopy in percent

Categorical thickness of humus layer in 5 ordered categories

level of soil moisture

base saturation in 4 ordered categories

Binary type of stand

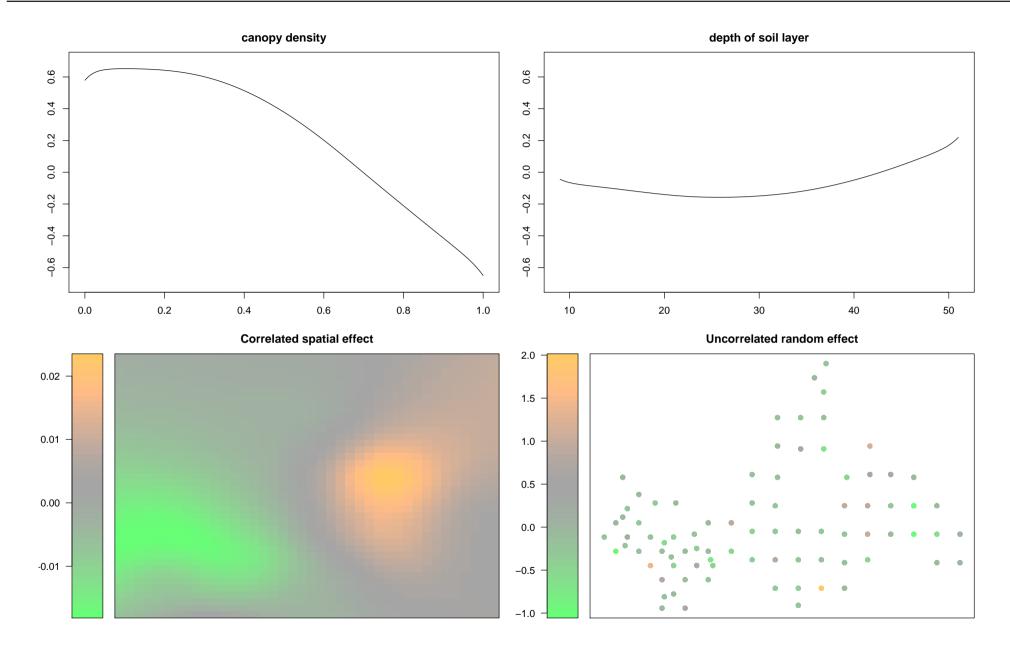
application of fertilisation

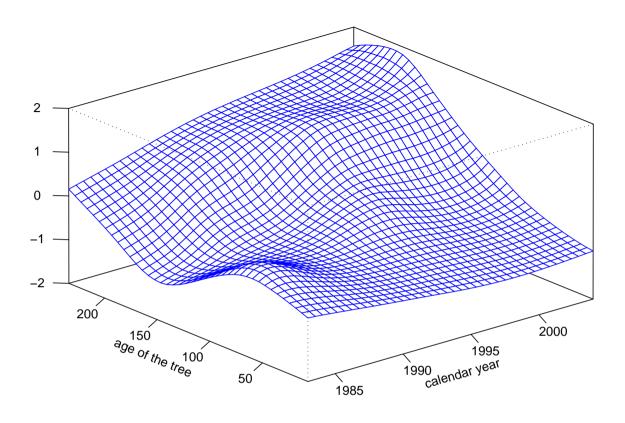
Possible model:

$$P(y_{it} = 1) = \frac{\exp(\eta_{it})}{1 + \exp(\eta_{it})}$$

where η_{it} is a geoadditive predictor of the form

$$\eta_{it} = f_1(\mathsf{age}_{it}, t) +$$
 interaction between age and calendar time. $f_2(\mathsf{canopy}_{it}) +$ smooth effects of the canopy density and $f_3(\mathsf{soil}_{it}) +$ the depth of the soil layer. $f_{spat}(s_{ix}, s_{iy}) +$ structured and $b_i +$ unstructured spatial random effects. $x'_{it}\beta$ parametric effects of type of stand, fertilisation, thickness of humus layer, level of soil moisture and base saturation.





• Questions:

- How do we estimate the model? ⇒ Inference
- How do we come up with the model specification? ⇒ Model choice and variable selection
- ⇒ Componentwise boosting for geoadditive regression models.

Boosting in a Nutshell

- Boosting is a simple but versatile iterative stepwise gradient descent algorithm.
- Versatility: Estimation problems are described in terms of a loss function ρ .
- Simplicity: Estimation reduces to iterative fitting of base-learners to residuals.
 - 1. Initialize $\hat{\eta}^{[0]} \equiv \text{offset}$; set m = 0.
 - 2. Increase m by 1. Compute the negative gradients ('residuals')

$$u_i = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \rho(y_i, \eta)|_{\eta = \hat{\eta}^{[m-1]}(x_i)}, \ i = 1, \dots, n.$$

- 3. Fit the base-learner g to the negative gradient vector u_1, \ldots, u_n , yielding $\hat{g}^{[m]}(\cdot)$.
- 4. Up-date $\hat{\eta}^{[m]} = \hat{\eta}^{[m-1]}(\cdot) + \nu \cdot \hat{g}^{[m]}(\cdot)$
- 5. Iterate steps 2.-4. until $m=m_{\text{stop}}$.

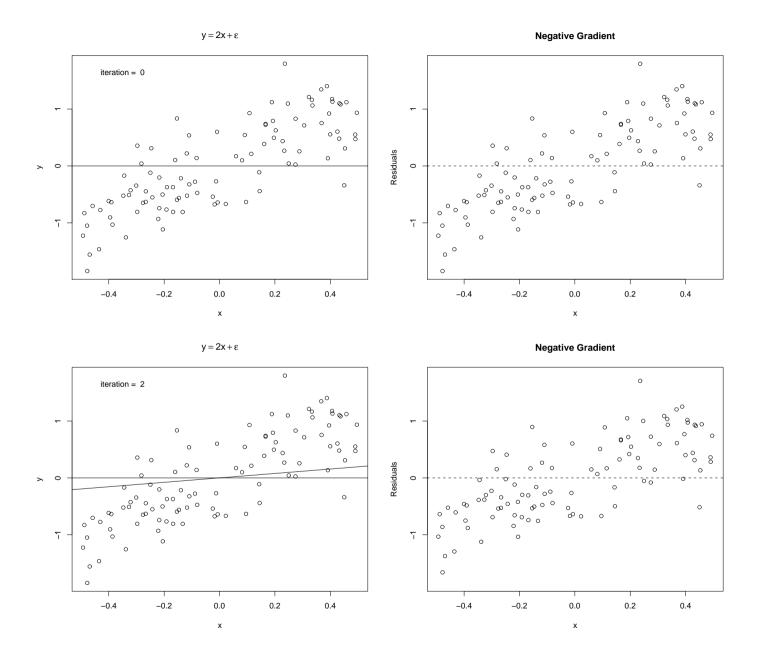
- Example: Linear model with quadratic loss function $\rho(y,\eta) = |y-\eta|^2$.
 - The gradient of the loss function yields the least squares residuals.
 - Base-learner: Least-squares fit \hat{g} .
 - In each iteration, update η via

$$\hat{\eta}^{[m]} = \hat{\eta}^{[m-1]} + 0.1\hat{g}$$

i.e. multiply the current fit with a reduction factor.

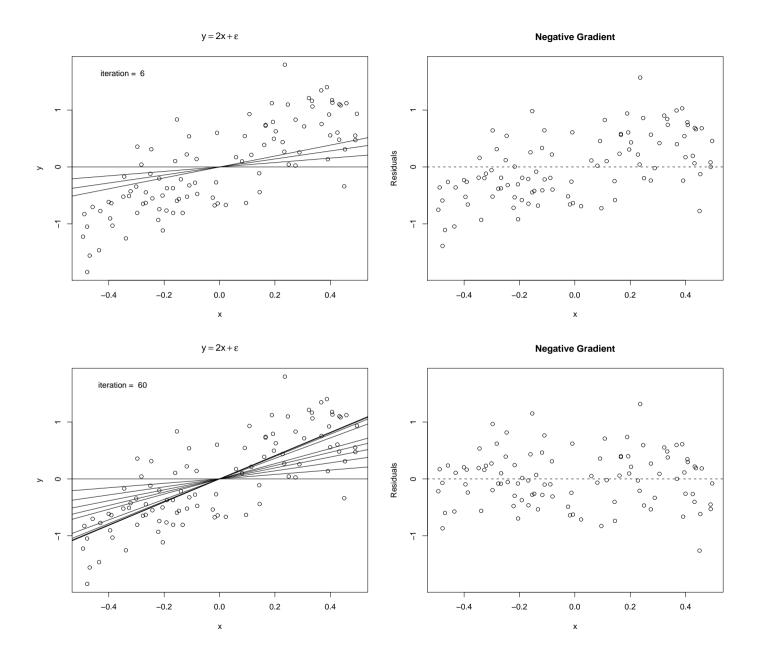
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Boosting in a Nutshell



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Boosting in a Nutshell



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- Scales to more complex models:
 - Define a loss function (e.g. the negative log-likelihood).
 - Define a simple base-learning procedure (e.g. a regression tree).
- The reduction factor ν turns the base-learner into a weak learning procedure (avoids to large steps in the boosting algorithm).
- Crucial point: Determine optimal stopping iteration m_{stop} .
- Componentwise boosting: Replace the single base-learning procedure by a sequence of base-learners. Only the best-fitting one is updated in each iteration
 - ⇒ Structured model fit.
- In geoadditive models: Each additive component is assigned a separate base-learner.
- Boosting implicitly implements variable selection (early stopping).

Base-Learners For Geoadditive Regression Models

 Componentwise base-learning procedures for geoadditive regression models can be derived from univariate Gaussian smoothing approaches such as

$$u=g(x)+arepsilon$$
 smooth nonparametric effect $u=g(x_1,x_2)+arepsilon$ smooth surface / spatial effect $u=x_1g(x_2)+arepsilon$ varying coefficients

where $\varepsilon \sim N(0,\sigma^2 I)$.

 All base-learners in geoadditive regression models will be given by penalised least squares (PLS) fits

$$\hat{u} = X(X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X'u$$

characterised by the hat matrix

$$S_{\lambda} = X(X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X'.$$

• Univariate spline smoothing: Approximate the function g(x) by a linear combination of B-spline basis functions, i.e.

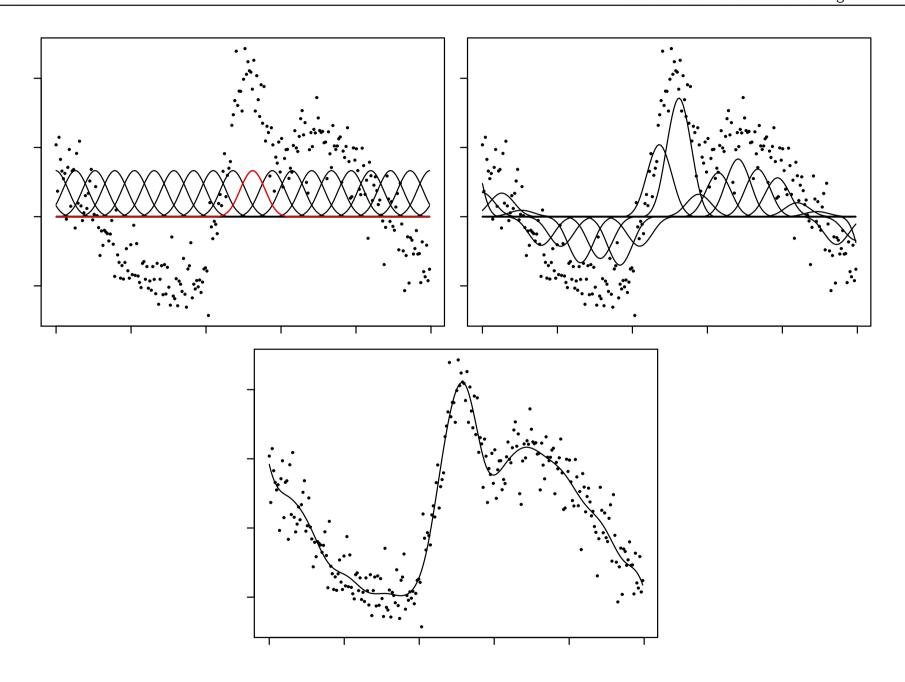
$$g(x) = \sum_{j} \beta_{j} B_{j}(x)$$

• In matrix notation:

$$u = X\beta + \varepsilon$$
.

• Least squares estimate for β and predicted values:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'u$$
 $\hat{y} = X(X'X)^{-1}X'u$



- B-spline fit depends on the number and location of basis functions
 - \Rightarrow Difficult to obtain a suitable compromise between smoothness and fidelity to the data.
- Add a roughness penalty term to the least squares criterion.
- Simple approximation to squared derivative penalties: Difference penalties

$$\operatorname{pen}(\beta) = \lambda \sum_{j} (\beta_j - \beta_{j-1})^2$$
 or $\operatorname{pen}(\beta) = \lambda \sum_{j} (\beta_j - 2\beta_{j-1} + \beta_{j-2})^2$.

Can be written as quadratic forms

$$\lambda \beta' D' D \beta = \lambda \beta' K \beta$$

based on difference matrices D.

• Replace the least-squares estimate and fit with penalised least squares (PLS) variants:

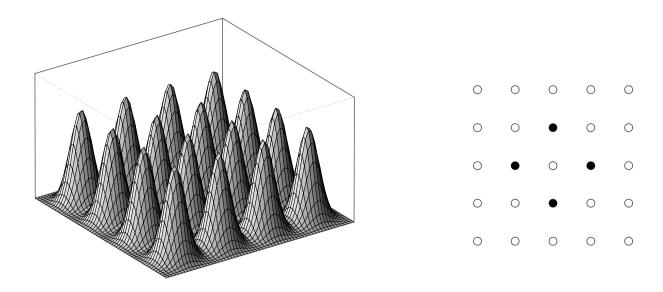
$$\hat{\beta} = (X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X'u \qquad \hat{u} = X(X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X'u$$

• The base-learner is characterised by the hat matrix

$$S_{\lambda} = X(X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X'.$$

- PLS base-learners can also be derived for
 - Interaction surfaces $f(x_1, x_2)$ and spatial effects $f(s_x, s_y)$,
 - Varying coefficient terms $x_1f(x_2)$ or $x_1f(s_x,s_y)$,
 - Random intercepts b_i and random slopes xb_i , and
 - Fixed effects $x\beta$.

• PLS base-learner for interaction surfaces and spatial effects $f(x_1, x_2)$:



Define bivariate Tensor product basis functions

$$B_{jk}(x_1, x_2) = B_j(x_1)B_k(x_2).$$

ullet Based on penalty matrices K_1 and K_2 for univariate fits define rowwise and columnwise penalties as

$$\operatorname{pen}_{\mathsf{row}}(\beta) = \lambda \beta' (I \otimes K_1) \beta$$
$$\operatorname{pen}_{\mathsf{col}}(\beta) = \lambda \beta' (K_2 \otimes I) \beta.$$

The overall penalty is then given by

$$pen(\beta) = \lambda \beta' \underbrace{(I \otimes K_1 + K_2 \otimes I)}_{=K} \beta.$$

• Varying coefficient terms $x_1 f(x_2)$ or $x_1 f(s_x, s_y)$:

$$X = \operatorname{diag}(x_{11}, \dots, x_{n1})X^*$$

where X^* is the design matrix representing $f(x_2)$ or $f(s_x, s_y)$.

- Cluster-specific random intercepts: The design matrix is a zero/one incidence matrix linking observations to clusters and the penalty matrix is a diagonal matrix.
- Fixed effects: Set the smoothing parameter to zero (unpenalised least squares fit).
- All base-learners can be described in terms of a penalised hat matrix

$$S_{\lambda} = X(X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X'$$

with suitably chosen design matrix X and penalty matrix K.

Thomas Kneib Complexity Adjustment

Complexity Adjustment

 The flexibility of penalised least squares base-learners depends on the choice of the smoothing parameter.

- Typical strategy: fix the smoothing parameter at a large pre-specified value.
- Difficult when comparing fixed effects, nonparametric effects and spatial effects.
 - ⇒ More flexible base-learners will be preferred in the boosting iterations leading to potential selection (and estimation) bias.
- We need an intuitive measure of complexity.

 The complexity of a linear model can be assessed by the trace of the hat matrix, since

$$\operatorname{trace}(X(X'X)^{-1}X') = \operatorname{ncol}(X).$$

 In analogy, the effective degrees of freedom of a penalised least-squares base-learner are given by

$$df(\lambda) = trace(X(X'X + \lambda K)^{-1}X').$$

Choose the smoothing parameters for the base-learners such that

$$df(\lambda) = 1.$$

• Difficulty: For most PLS base-learners, the penalty matrix K has a non-trivial null space, i.e.

$$\dim(\mathcal{N}(K)) \ge 1.$$

- For example, a polynomial of order k-1 remains unpenalised for penalised splines with k-th order difference penalty.
 - $\Rightarrow df(\lambda) = 1$ can not be achieved.
- A reparameterisation has to be applied, leading for example to

$$f(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \ldots + \beta_{k-1} x^{k-1} + f_{centered}(x).$$

- Assign separate base-learners to the parametric components and a one degree of freedom PLS base-learner to the centered effect.
- This will also allow to choose between linear and nonlinear effects within the boosting algorithm.

A Generic Boosting Algorithm

• Generic representation of geoadditive models:

$$\eta(\cdot) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^r f_j(\cdot)$$

where the functions $f_i(\cdot)$ represent the candidate functions of the predictor.

- Componentwise boosting procedure based on the loss function $\rho(\cdot)$:
 - 1. Initialize the model components as $\hat{f}_j^{[0]}(\cdot) \equiv 0$, $j=1,\ldots,r$. Set the iteration index to m=0.
 - 2. Increase m by 1. Compute the current negative gradient

$$u_i = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \rho(y_i, \eta) \bigg|_{\eta = \hat{\eta}^{[m-1]}(\cdot)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

3. Choose the base-learner g_{j^*} that minimizes the L_2 -loss, i.e. the best-fitting function according to

$$j^* = \underset{1 \le j \le r}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^n (u_i - \hat{g}_j(\cdot))^2$$

where $\hat{g}_j = S_j u$.

4. Update the corresponding function estimate to

$$\hat{f}_{j^*}^{[m]}(\cdot) = \hat{f}_{j^*}^{[m-1]}(\cdot) + \nu S_{j^*} u,$$

where $\nu \in (0,1]$ is a step size. For all remaining functions set

$$\hat{f}_j^{[m]}(\cdot) = \hat{f}_j^{[m-1]}(\cdot), \quad j \neq j^*.$$

5. Iterate steps 2 to 4 until $m=m_{\rm stop}$.

- Determine $m_{\rm stop}$ based on AIC reduction or cross-validation.
- Boosting implements both variable selection and model choice:
 - Variable selection: Stop the boosting procedure after an appropriate number of iterations (for example based on AIC reduction).
 - Model choice: Consider concurring base-learning procedures for the same covariate,
 e.g. linear vs. nonlinear modeling.

Habitat Suitability Analyses

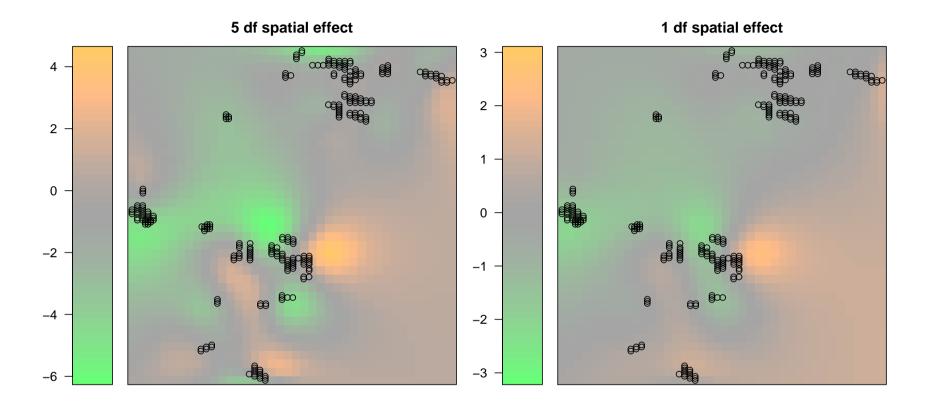
- Identify factors influencing habitat suitability for breeding bird communities collected in seven structural guilds (SG).
- Variable of interest: Counts of subjects from a specific structural guild collected at 258 observation plots in a Northern Bavarian forest district.
- Research questions:
 - a) Which covariates influence habitat suitability (31 covariates in total)? Does spatial correlation have an impact on variable selection?
 - b) Are there nonlinear effects of some of the covariates?
 - c) Are effects varying spatially?
- All questions can be addressed with the boosting approach.

Variable Selection in the presence of spatial correlation

• Selection frequencies in a spatial Poisson-GLM:

	GST	DBH	AOT	AFS	DWC	LOG	SNA	COO
non-spatial GLM	0	0	0	0.06	0.3	0	0.01	0
spatial with 5 df	0	0.02	0	0.01	0.05	0	0.01	0
spatial with 1 df	0	0	0	0.06	0.15	0	0	0
	СОМ	CRS	HRS	OAK	COT	PIO	ALA	MAT
non-spatial GLM	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.06	0	0.04	0.06
spatial with 5 df	0	0.01	0	0	0	0	0.01	0.05
spatial with 1 df	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.05	0	0.03	0.04
	GAP	AGR	ROA	LCA	SCA	HOT	CTR	RLL
non-spatial GLM	0.03	0	0	0.1	0.07	0	0	0
spatial with 5 df	0.01	0	0.01	0.01	0.01	0	0	0
spatial with 1 df	0.03	0	0	0.07	0.06	0	0	0
	BOL	MSP	MDT	MAD	COL	AGL	SUL	spatial
non-spatial GLM	0	0.06	0	0	0.05	0	0	0
spatial with 5 df	0	0	0	0	0.03	0	0	0.76
spatial with 1 df	0	0.04	0	0	0.04	0	0	0.3

• Spatial effects for high and low degrees of freedom (SG4):

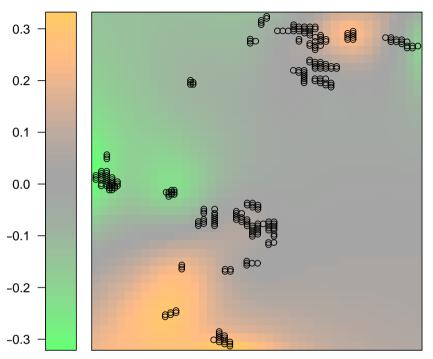


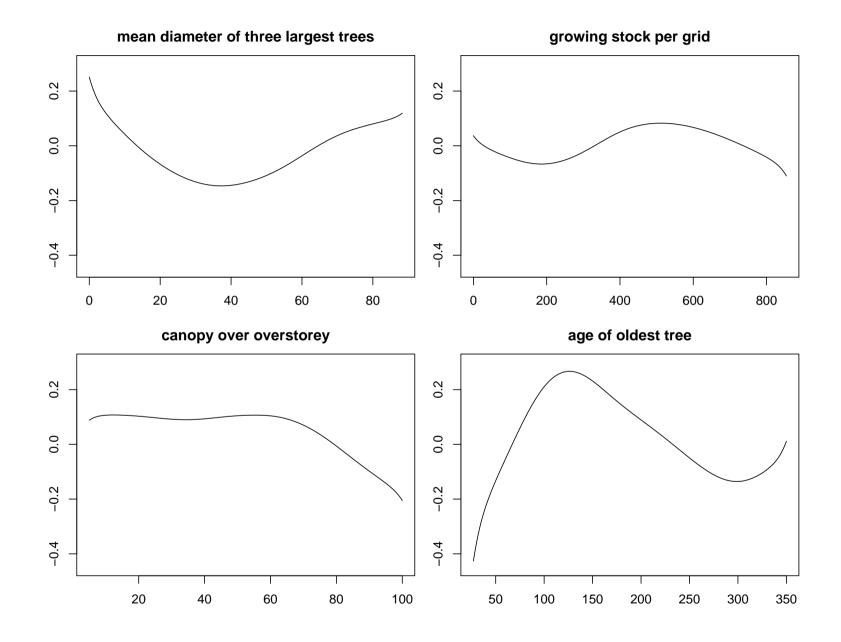
- Spatial correlation has non-negligible influence on variable selection.
- Making terms comparable in terms of complexity is essential to obtain valid results.

Geoadditive Models

- Instead of linear modelling, allow for nonlinear effects of all 31 covariates.
- Decompose nonlinear effects into a linear part and a nonlinear part with one degree of freedom.
- Variable selection for SG5 results in 7 variables without any influence, 3 linear effects, and 21 nonlinear effects.

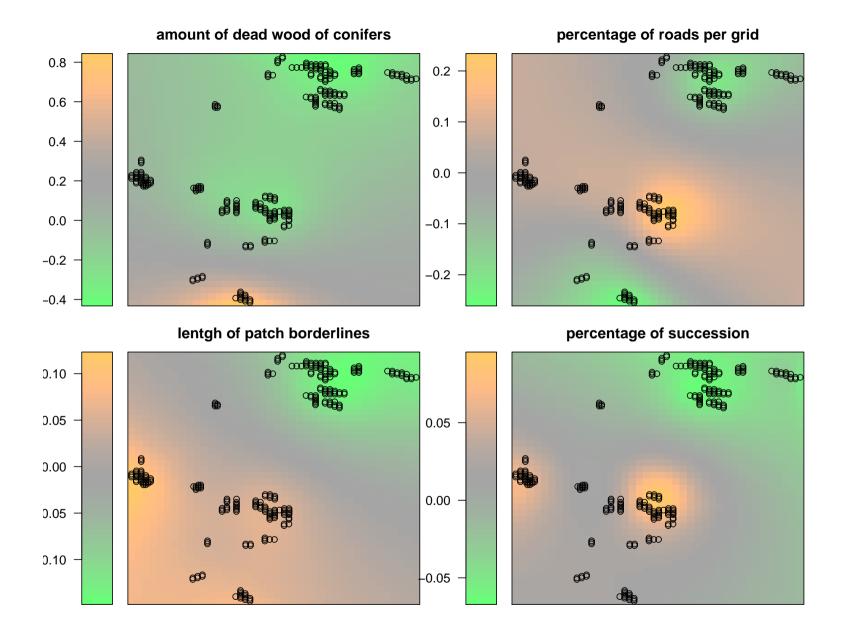






Space-varying effects

- Instead of allowing for nonlinear effects, consider space-varying effects $xg(s_x, s_y)$ for all covariates.
- Decompose space-varying effects into a linear part and a space-varying part with one degree of freedom.
- For SG3, 6 variables have no influence at all, 13 variables have linear effects, and 12 variables are associated with space-varying effects.
- The spatial effect is completely explained by the space-varying effects of the covariates.



Thomas Kneib Summary & Extensions

Summary & Extensions

 Generic boosting algorithm for model choice and variable selection in geoadditive regression models.

- Avoid selection bias by careful parameterisation.
- Implemented in the R-package mboost.
- Future plans:
 - Derive base-learning procedures for other types of spatial effects (regional data, anisotropic spatial effects).
 - Construct spatio-temporal base-learners based on tensor product approaches.
 - Extend methodology to model selection in continuous time survival models.

Thomas Kneib Summary & Extensions

• Reference: Kneib, T., Hothorn, T. and Tutz, G.: Model Choice and Variable Selection in Geoadditive Regression. Under revision for *Biometrics*.

• Find out more:

http://www.stat.uni-muenchen.de/~kneib