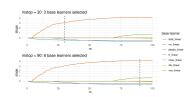
# **Introduction to Machine Learning**

**Boosting Gradient Boosting: Advanced CWB** 





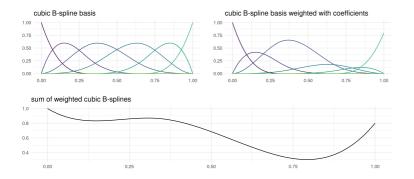
#### Learning goals

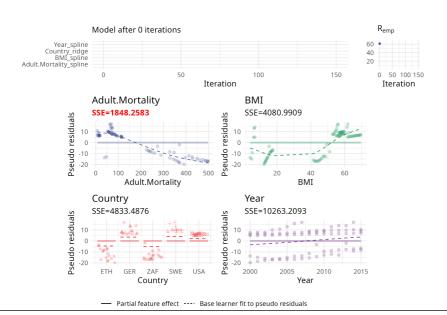
- Details of nonlinear BLs and splines
- Decomposition for splines
- Fair base learner selection
- Feature importance and PDPs

#### **NONLINEAR BASE LEARNERS**

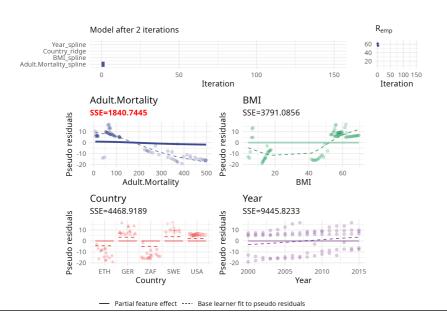
As an alternative we can use nonlinear base learners, such as *P*- or *B*-splines, which make the model equivalent to a **generalized additive model (GAM)** (as long as the base learners keep their additive structure, which is the case for splines).



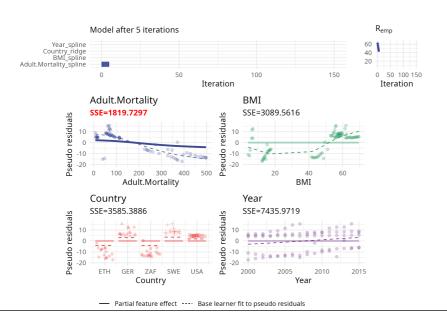




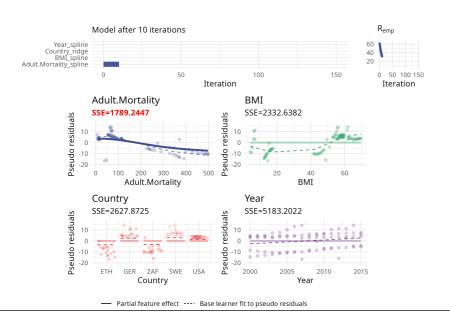




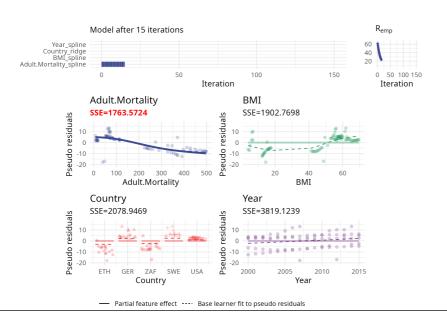




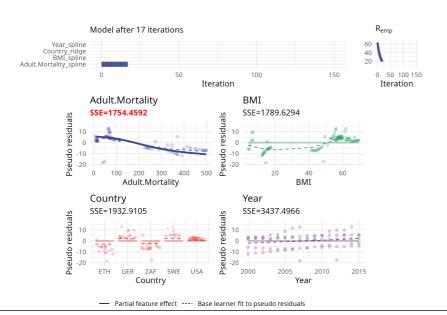




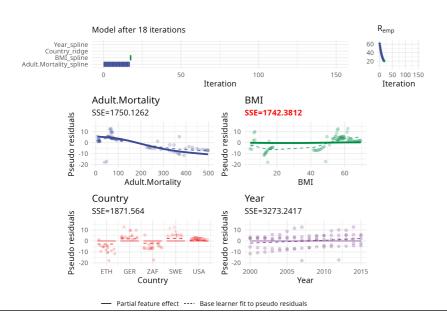




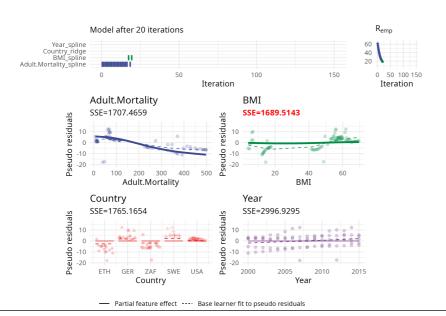




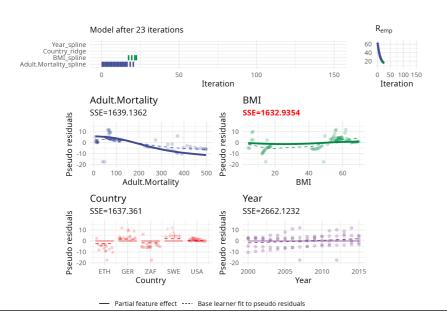




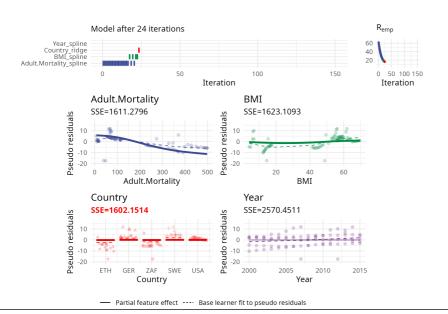




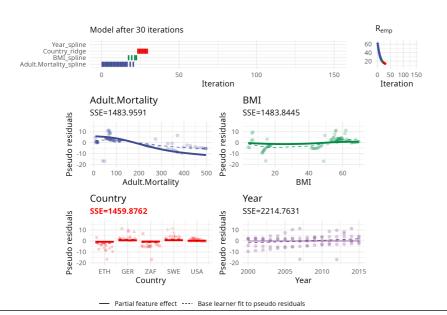




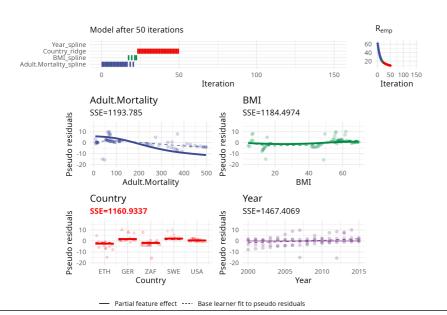




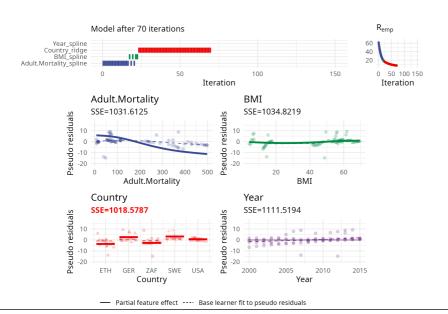




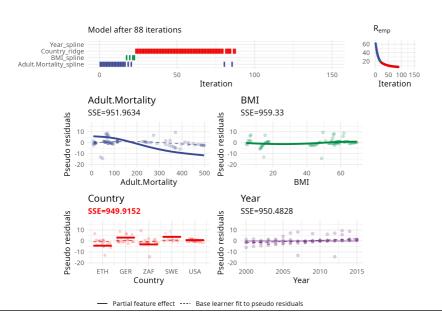




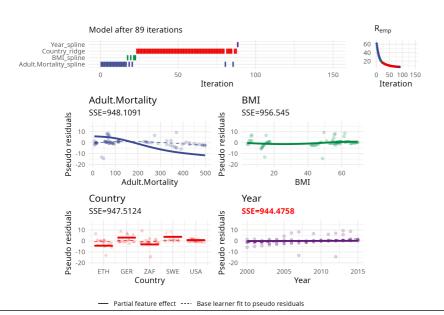




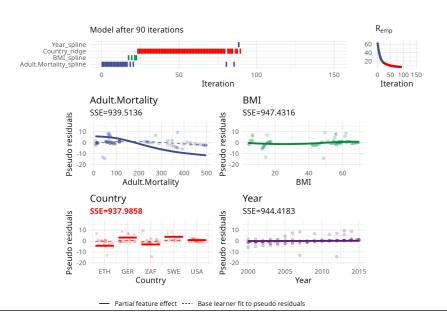




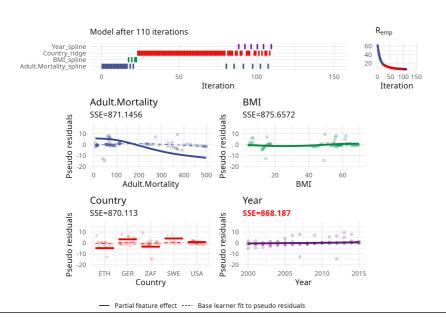




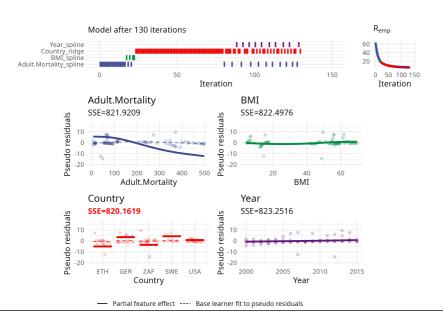




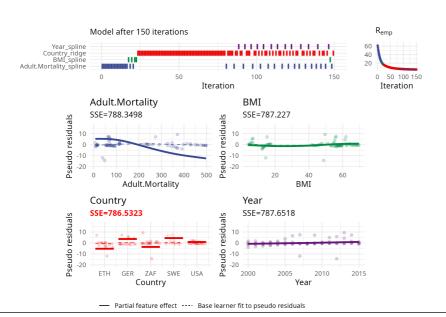














#### NONLINEAR EFFECT DECOMPOSITION

roposed a decomposition of each base learner into a constant, a linear and a nonlinear part. The boosting algorithm will automatically decide which feature to include – linear, nonlinear, or none at all:

$$b_{j}(x_{j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]}) = b_{j,\text{const}}(x_{j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]}) + b_{j,\text{lin}}(x_{j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]}) + b_{j,\text{nonlin}}(x_{j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[m]})$$

$$= \theta_{j,\text{const}}^{[m]} + x_{j} \cdot \theta_{j,\text{lin}}^{[m]} + s_{j}(x_{j}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j,\text{nonlin}}^{[m]}),$$



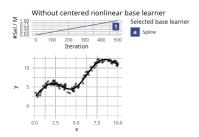
- $\theta_{j,const}$  is the intercept of feature j,
- $x_j \cdot \theta_{i,\text{lin}}^{[m]}$  is a feature-specific linear base learner, and
- $s_j(x_j, \theta_{j,\text{nonlin}}^{[m]})$  is a (centered) nonlinear base learner capturing deviation from the linear effect

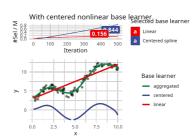
Careful: We usually also apply an orthogonalization procedure on top of this but skip technical details here.



#### NONLINEAR EFFECT DECOMPOSITION

- Suppose n = 100 uniformly distributed x values between 0 and 10.
- The response  $y = 2\sin(x) + x + 2 + \varepsilon$  has a nonlinear and linear component  $(\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}))$ .
- We apply CWB with M = 500 to  $\{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$  with:
  - One model with  $\mathcal{B} = \{b_{j,\text{lin}}, b_{j,\text{nonlin}}\}$
  - ullet One model with  $\mathcal{B} = \{b_{j, \text{lin}}, b_{j, \text{nonlin}^c}\}$







#### **FAIR BASE LEARNER SELECTION**

- Using splines and linear base learners in CWB will favor the more complex spline BLs over the linear BLs
- This makes it harder to achieve the desired behavior of the base learner decomposition as explained previously
- To conduct a fair base learner selection, we set the degrees of freedom of all base learners equal
- The idea is to set a single learner's regularization/penalty term so that their complexity is treated equally
- We also skip some technical details here



#### **AVAILABLE BASE LEARNERS**

There is a large number of possible base learners, e.g.:

- Linear effects and interactions (with or without intercept)
- Uni- or multivariate splines and tensor product splines
- Trees
- Random effects and Markov random fields
- Effects of functional covariates
- ...

In combination with the flexible choice of loss functions, boosting can be applied to fit a huge class of models.

Recent extensions include distributional regression (GAMLSS), where multiple additive predictors are boosted to model all distributional parameters (e.g., cond. mean and variance for a Gaussian model).



#### PARTIAL DEPENDENCE PLOTS

If we use single features in base learners, we consider each BL as a wrapper around a feature representing the feature's effect on the target. BLs can be selected more than once (with varying parameter estimates), signaling that this feature is more important. E.g. let  $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ , the first three iterations might look as follows

$$m = 1 : \hat{f}^{[1]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}^{[0]} + \alpha \hat{b}_2(x_2, \hat{\theta}^{[1]})$$

$$m = 2 : \hat{f}^{[2]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}^{[1]} + \alpha \hat{b}_3(x_3, \hat{\theta}^{[2]})$$

$$m = 3 : \hat{f}^{[3]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}^{[2]} + \alpha \hat{b}_2(x_2, \hat{\theta}^{[3]})$$

Due to linearity,  $\hat{b}_2$  base learners can be aggregated:

$$\hat{f}^{[3]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}^{[0]} + \alpha(\hat{b}_2(x_2, \hat{\theta}^{[1]} + \hat{\theta}^{[3]}) + \hat{b}_3(x_3, \hat{\theta}^{[2]}))$$

Which is equivalent to:  $\hat{f}^{[3]}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{f}_0 + \hat{f}_2(x_2) + \hat{f}_3(x_3)$ . Hence,  $\hat{f}$  can be decomposed into the marginal feature effects (PDPs).



#### **FEATURE IMPORTANCE**

- We can further exploit the additive structure of the boosted ensemble to compute measures of variable importance.
- To this end, we simply sum for each feature  $x_j$  the improvements in empirical risk achieved over all iterations until  $1 < m_{\text{stop}} \le M$ :

$$extstyle VI_j = \sum_{m=1}^{m_{ ext{stop}}} \left( \mathcal{R}_{ ext{emp}} \left( f^{[m-1]}(\mathbf{x}) 
ight) - \mathcal{R}_{ ext{emp}} \left( f^{[m]}(\mathbf{x}) 
ight) 
ight) \cdot \mathbb{I}_{[j \in j^{[m]})]},$$



#### TAKE-HOME MESSAGE

- Componentwise gradient boosting is the statistical re-interpretation of gradient boosting
- We can fit a large number of statistical models, even in high dimensions  $(p \gg n)$
- A drawback compared to statistical models is that we do not get valid inference for coefficients → post-selection inference
- In most cases, gradient boosting with trees will dominate componentwise boosting in terms of performance due to its inherent ability to include higher-order interaction terms

