Generalized Additive Models

David L Miller

Overview

- What is a GAM?
- What is smoothing?
- How do GAMs work?
- Fitting GAMs using dsm
- Model checking

What is a GAM?

"gam"

- 1. Collective noun used to refer to a group of whales, or rarely also of porpoises; a pod.
- 2. (by extension) A social gathering of whalers (whaling ships).

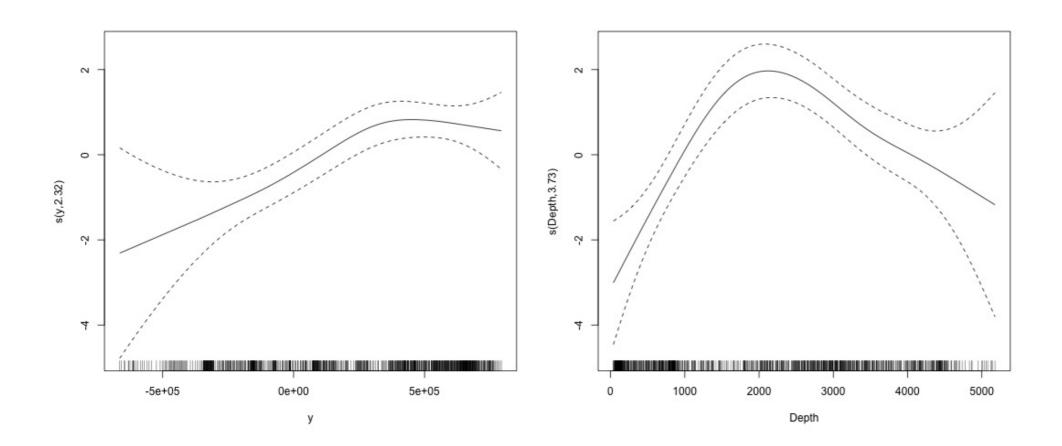
(via Natalie Kelly, CSIRO. Seen in Moby Dick.)

Generalized Additive Models

- Generalized: many response distributions
- Additive: terms add together
- Models: well, it's a model...

What does a model look like?

- ullet Count n_j distributed according to some count distribution
- Model as sum of terms



Mathematically...

Taking the previous example...

$$n_j = A_j \beta_j \exp \left[\beta_0 + s(y_j) + s(Depth_j)\right] + \epsilon_j$$

where $\epsilon_j \sim N(0, \sigma)$, $n_j \sim$ count distribution

Mathematically...

Taking the previous example...

$$\mathbf{n}_{j} = \mathbf{A}_{j} \hat{\mathbf{p}}_{j} \exp \left[\beta_{0} + \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{y}_{j}) + \mathbf{s}(\mathrm{Depth}_{j}) \right] + \epsilon_{j}$$

where $\epsilon_j \sim N(0, \sigma)$, $n_j \sim$ count distribution

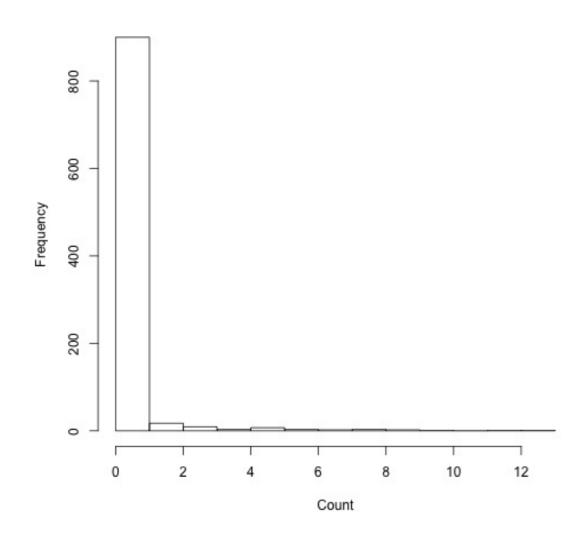
- area of segment offset
- probability of detection in segment
- link function
- model terms

Response

$$\mathbf{n}_{j} = A_{j} \hat{\mathbf{p}}_{j} \exp \left[\beta_{0} + s(\mathbf{y}_{j}) + s(\mathrm{Depth}_{j})\right] + \epsilon_{j}$$

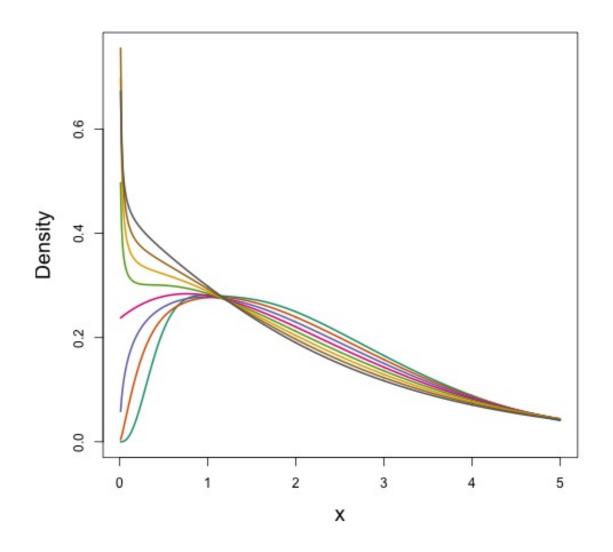
where $\epsilon_j \sim N(0, \sigma)$, $n_j \sim \text{count distribution}$

Count distributions



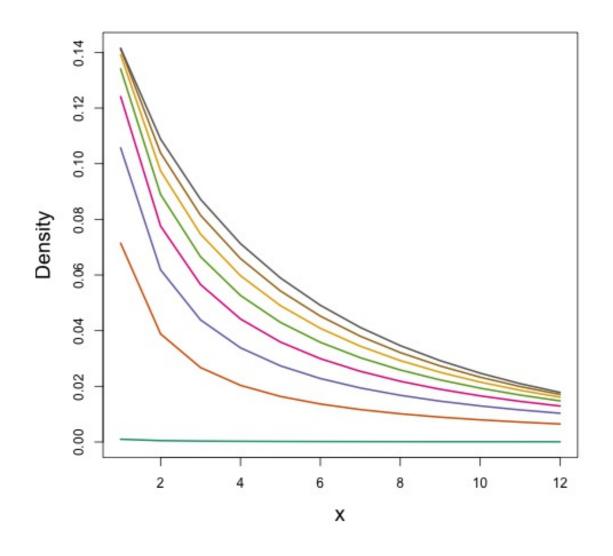
- Response is a count (not not always integer)
- Often, it's mostly zero (that's complicated)
- Want response distribution that deals with that
- Flexible mean-variance relationship

Tweedie distribution



- $Var(count) = \varphi(count)^q$
- Common distributions are sub-cases:
 - $\blacksquare q = 1 \Rightarrow Poisson$
 - $\blacksquare q = 2 \Longrightarrow Gamma$
 - $\mathbf{q} = 3 \Rightarrow \text{Normal}$
- We are interested in 1 < q < 2
- (here q = 1.2, 1.3, ..., 1.9)

Negative binomial



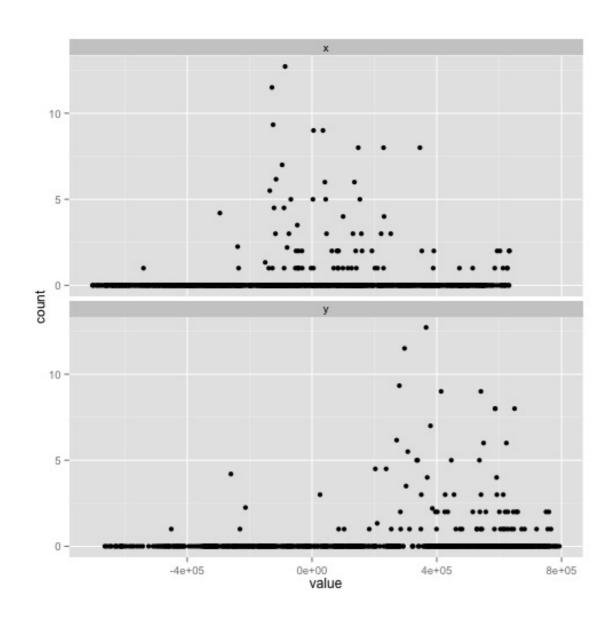
- Var(count) = $(count) + \varkappa(count)^2$
- Estimate χ
- Is quadratic relationship a "strong" assumption?
- Similar to Poisson: Var(count) = (count)

Smooth terms

$$n_{j} = A_{j} \beta_{j} \exp \left[\beta_{0} + s(y_{j}) + s(Depth_{j})\right] + \epsilon_{j}$$

where $\varepsilon_j \sim N(0, \sigma)$, $n_j \sim \text{count distribution}$

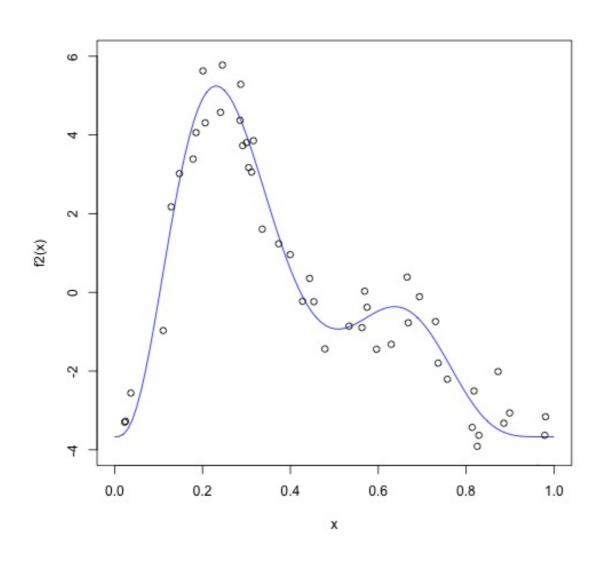
Okay, but what about these "s" things?



- Think s=smooth
- Want to model the covariates flexibly
- Covariates and response not necessarily linearly related!
- Want some wiggles

What is smoothing?

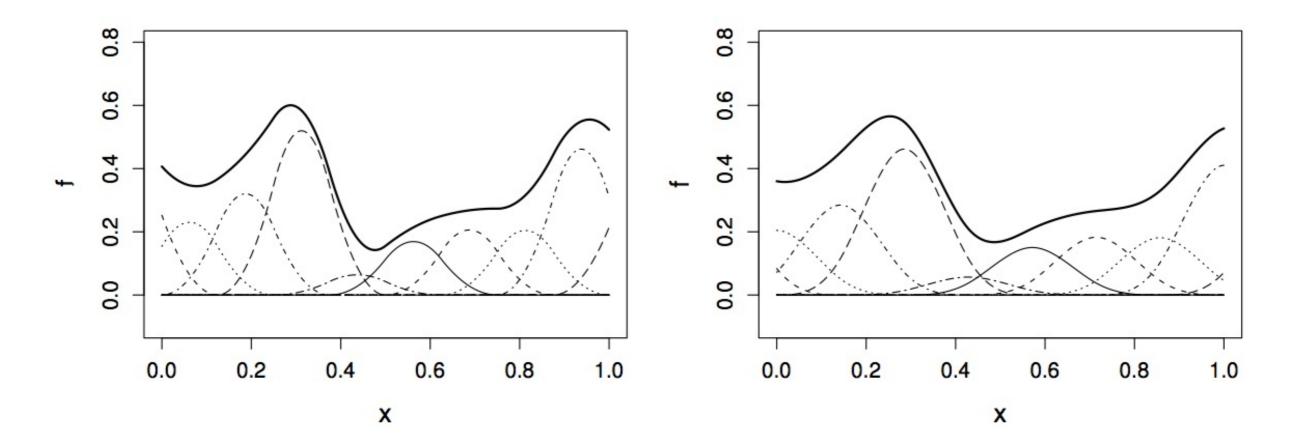
Straight lines vs. interpolation



- Want a line that is "close" to all the data
- Don't want interpolation
 we know there is "error"
- Balance between interpolation and "fit"

Splines

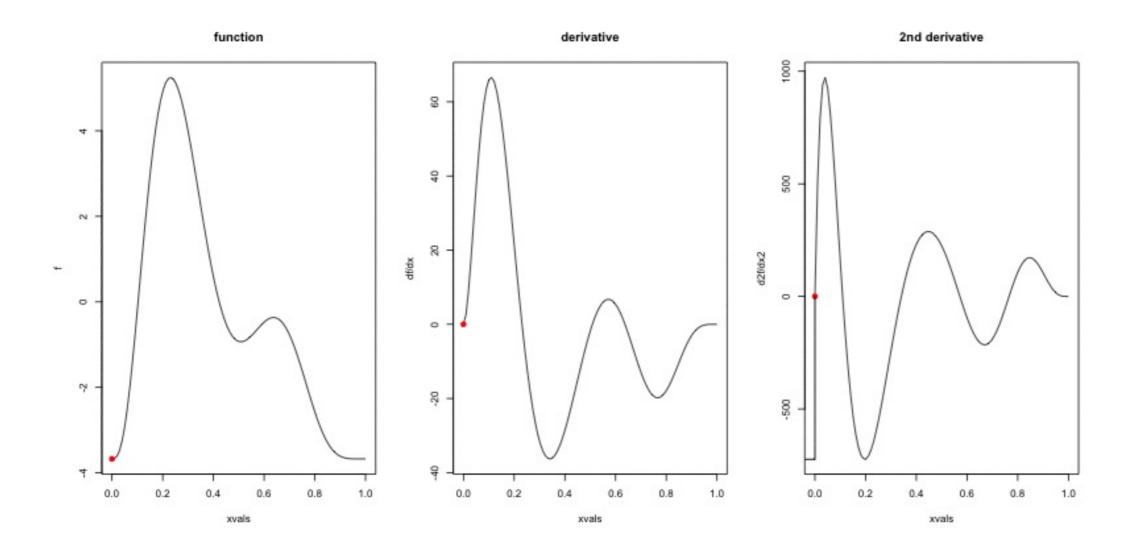
- Functions made of other, simpler functions
- Basis functions b_k , estimate β_k
- $s(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \beta_k b_k(x)$
- Makes the math(s) much easier



Measuring wigglyness

- Visually:
 - Lots of wiggles == NOT SMOOTH
 - Straight line == VERY SMOOTH
- How do we do this mathematically?
 - Derivatives!
 - (Calculus was a useful class afterall)

Wigglyness by derivatives



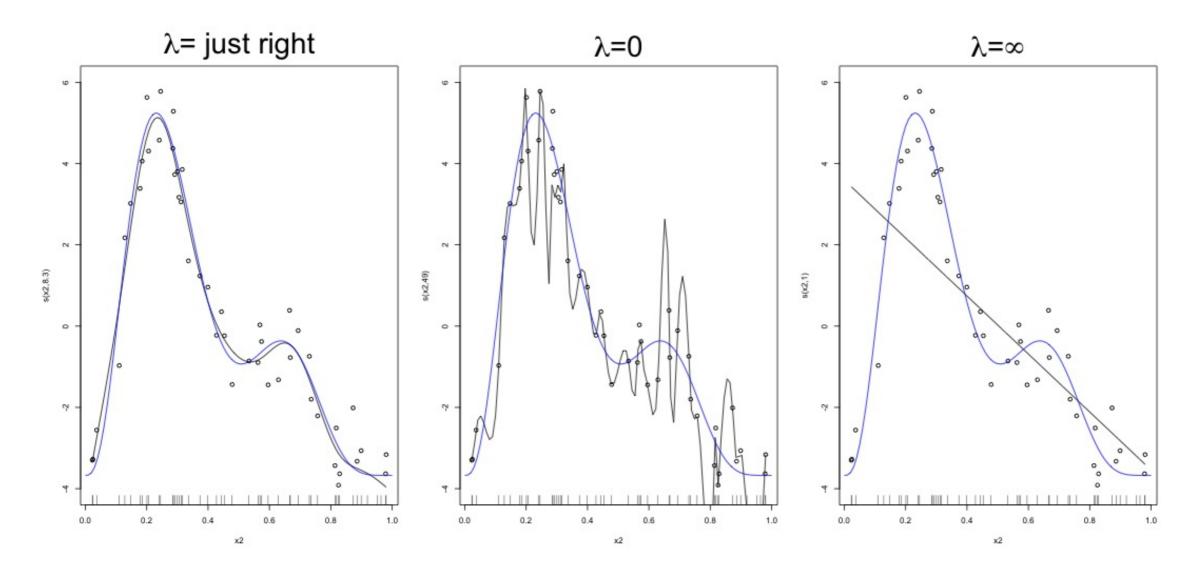
Making wigglyness matter

- Integration of derivative (squared) gives wigglyness
- Fit needs to be penalised
- Penalty matrix gives the wigglyness
- Estimate the β_k terms but penalise objective
 - "closeness to data" + penalty

Penalty matrix

- For each b_k calculate the penalty
- Penalty is a function of β
- S calculated once
- smoothing parameter (λ) dictates influence

Smoothing parameter



How wiggly are things?

- We can set basis complexity or "size" (k)
 - Maximum wigglyness
- Smooths have effective degrees of freedom (EDF)
- EDF < k
- Set k "large enough"

Okay, that was a lot of theory...

Fitting GAMs using dsm

Translating maths into R

$$n_{j} = A_{j} \hat{p}_{j} \exp \left[\beta_{0} + s(y_{j})\right] + \epsilon_{j}$$

where $\epsilon_j \sim N(0, \sigma)$, $n_j \sim$ count distribution

- inside the link: formula=count ~ s(y)
- response distribution: family=nb() or family=tw()
- detectability: ddf.obj=df_hr
- offset, data: segment.data=segs, observation.data=obs

Your first DSM

(method="REML" uses REML to select the smoothing parameter)

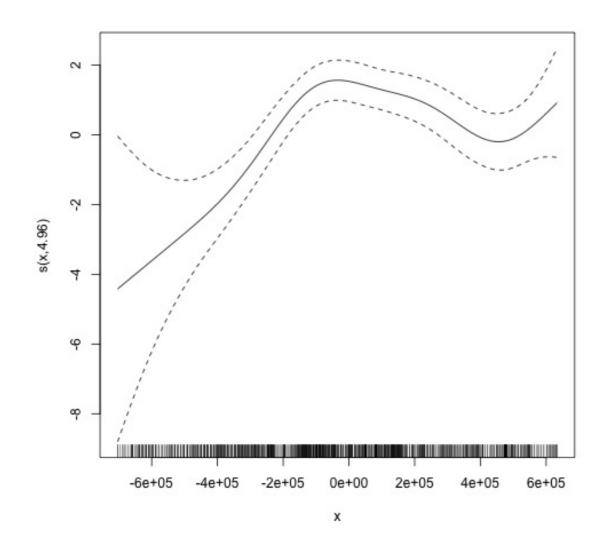
dsm is based on mgcv by Simon Wood

What did that do?

summary(dsm_x_tw)

```
Family: Tweedie(p=1.326)
Link function: log
Formula:
count \sim s(x) + offset(off.set)
Parametric coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -19.7008 0.2277 -86.52 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Approximate significance of smooth terms:
edf Ref.df F p-value
s(x) 4.962 6.047 6.403 1.07e-06 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
R-sq.(adj) = 0.0283 Deviance explained = 17.7%
-REML = 409.94 Scale est. = 6.0413 n = 949
```

Plotting



- plot(dsm_x_tw)
- Dashed lines indicate +/-2 standard errors
- Rug plot
- On the link scale
- EDF on y axis

Adding a term

Just use +

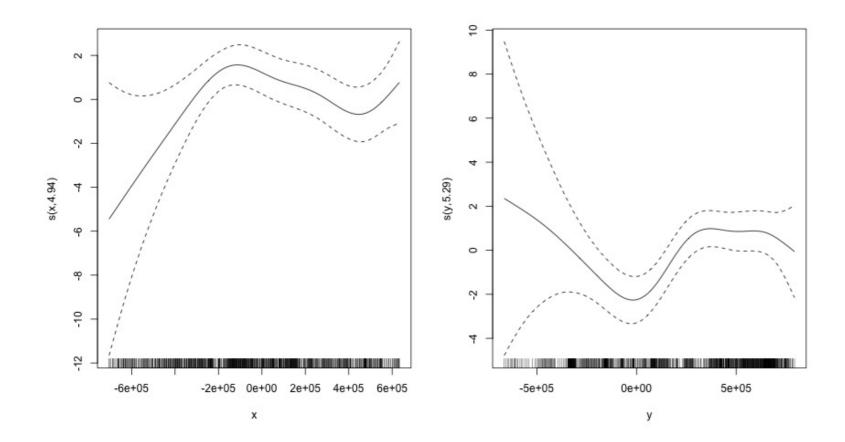
Summary

summary(dsm_xy_tw)

```
Family: Tweedie(p=1.306)
Link function: log
Formula:
count \sim s(x) + s(y) + offset(off.set)
Parametric coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -19.9801  0.2381 -83.93  <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Approximate significance of smooth terms:
       edf Ref.df F p-value
s(x) 4.943 6.057 3.224 0.004239 **
s(y) 5.293 6.419 4.034 0.000322 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
R-sq.(adj) = 0.0678 Deviance explained = 27.3%
-REML = 399.84 Scale est. = 5.3157 n = 949
```

Plotting

```
plot(dsm_xy_tw, scale=0, pages=1)
```



- scale=0: each plot on different scale
- pages=1: plot together

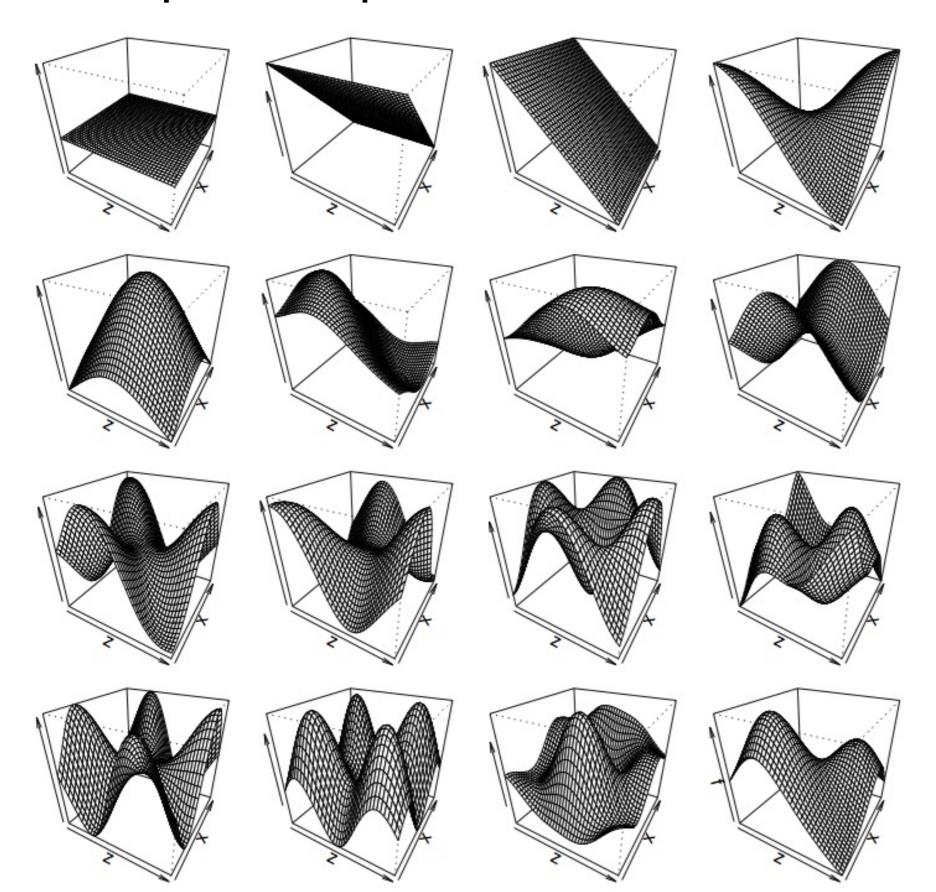
Bivariate terms

- Assumed an additive structure
- No interaction
- We can specify s(x,y) (and s(x,y,z,...))

Thin plate regression splines

- Default basis
- One basis function per data point
- Reduce # basis functions (eigendecomposition)
- Fitting on reduced problem
- Multidimensional

Thin plate splines (2-D)



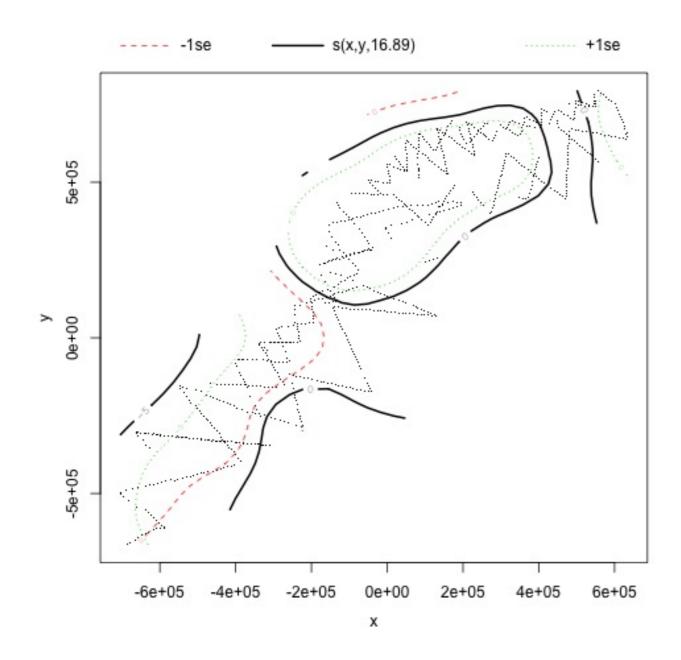
Bivariate spatial term

Summary

summary(dsm_xyb_tw)

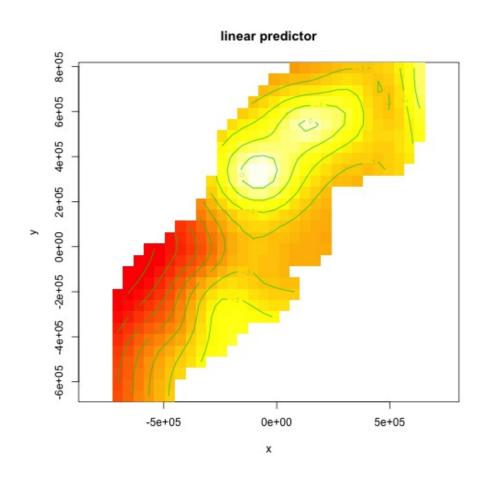
```
Family: Tweedie(p=1.29)
Link function: log
Formula:
count \sim s(x, y) + offset(off.set)
Parametric coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -20.1638  0.2477  -81.4  <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Approximate significance of smooth terms:
edf Ref.df F p-value
s(x,y) 16.89 21.12 4.333 3.73e-10 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
R-sq.(adj) = 0.102 Deviance explained = 34.5%
-REML = 394.86 Scale est. = 4.8248 n = 949
```

Plotting... erm...



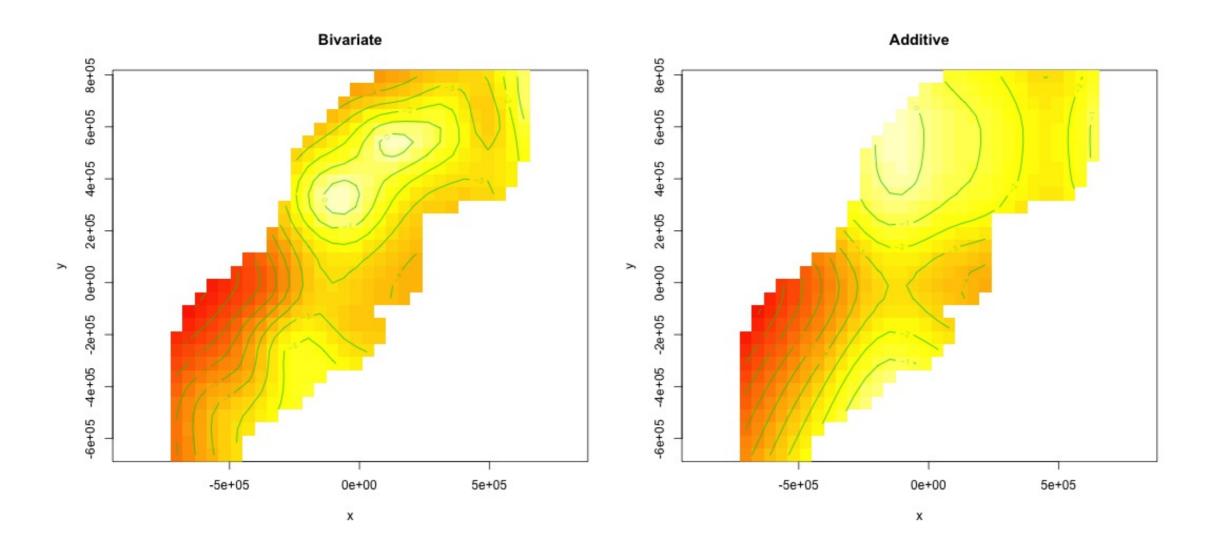
Let's try something different

```
vis.gam(dsm_xyb_tw, view=c("x","y"), plot.type="contour",
too.far=0.1, asp=1)
```



- Still on link scale
- too. far excludes points far from data

Comparing bivariate and additive models



Model checking

"perhaps the most important part of applied statistical modelling"

Simon Wood

Model checking

- As with detection function, checking is important
- Want to know the model conforms to assumptions
- What assumptions should we check?

What to check

- Convergence (not usually an issue)
- Basis size is big enough
- Residuals

Basis size

Basis size (k)

- Set k per term
- e.g. s(x, k=10) or s(x, y, k=100)
- Penalty removes "extra" wigglyness
 - up to a point!
- (But computation is slower with bigger k)

Checking basis size

gam.check(dsm_x_tw)

```
Method: REML Optimizer: outer newton full convergence after 7 iterations. Gradient range [-3.08755e-06,4.928062e-07] (score 409.936 & scale 6.041307). Hessian positive definite, eigenvalue range [0.7645492,302.127]. Model rank = 10 / 10

Basis dimension (k) checking results. Low p-value (k-index<1) may
```

indicate that k is too low, especially if edf is close to k'.

k' edf k-index p-value s(x) 9.000 4.962 0.763 0.44

Increasing basis size

```
Method: REML Optimizer: outer newton full convergence after 7 iterations. Gradient range [-2.301246e-08,3.930757e-09] (score 409.9245 & scale 6.033913). Hessian positive definite, eigenvalue range [0.7678456,302.0336]. Model rank = 20 / 20

Basis dimension (k) checking results. Low p-value (k-index<1) may indicate that k is too low, especially if edf is close to k'.

k' edf k-index p-value s(x) 19.000 5.246 0.763 0.36
```

Sometimes basis size isn't the issue...

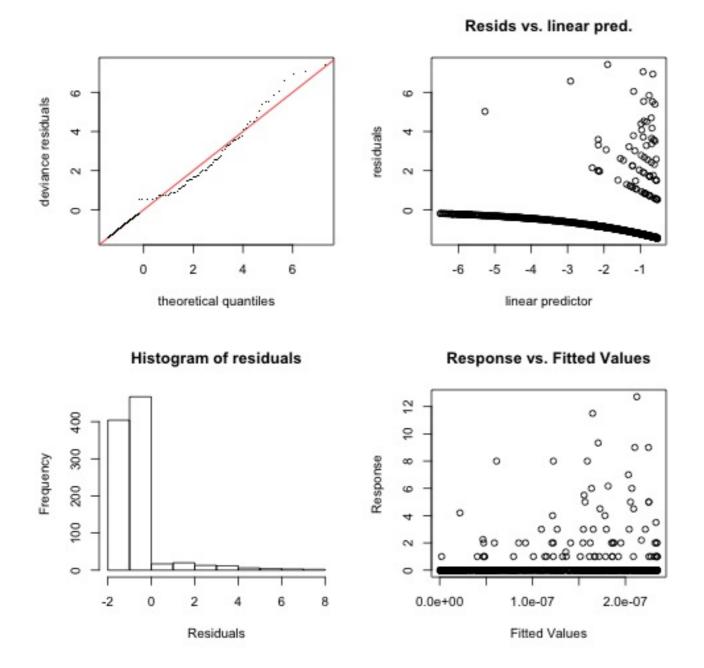
- Generally, double k and see what happens
- Didn't increase the EDF much here
- Other things can cause low "p-value" and "k-index"
- Increasing k can cause problems (nullspace)

Don't throw away your residuals!

What are residuals?

- Generally residuals = observed value fitted value
- BUT hard to see patterns in these "raw" residuals
- Need to standardise deviance residuals
- Residual sum of squares ⇒ linear model
 - deviance \Rightarrow GAM
- Expect these residuals $\sim N(0,1)$

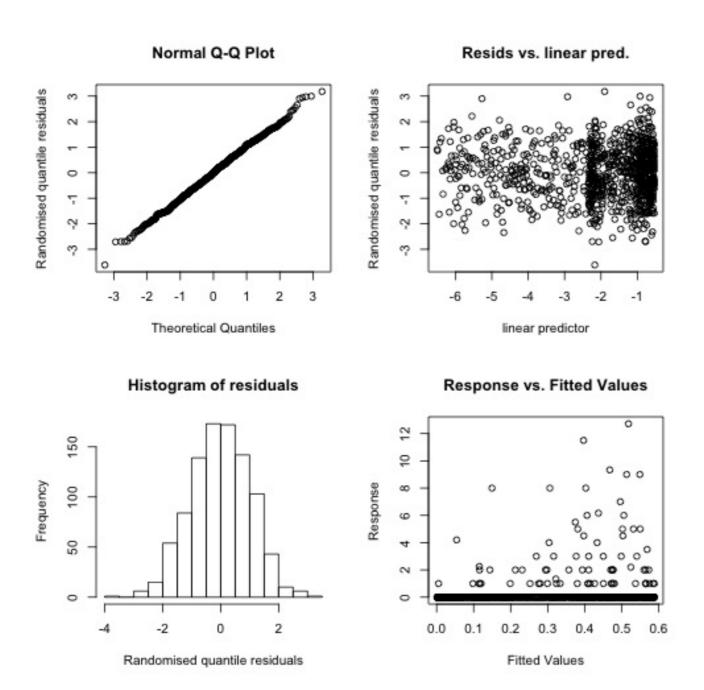
Residual checking



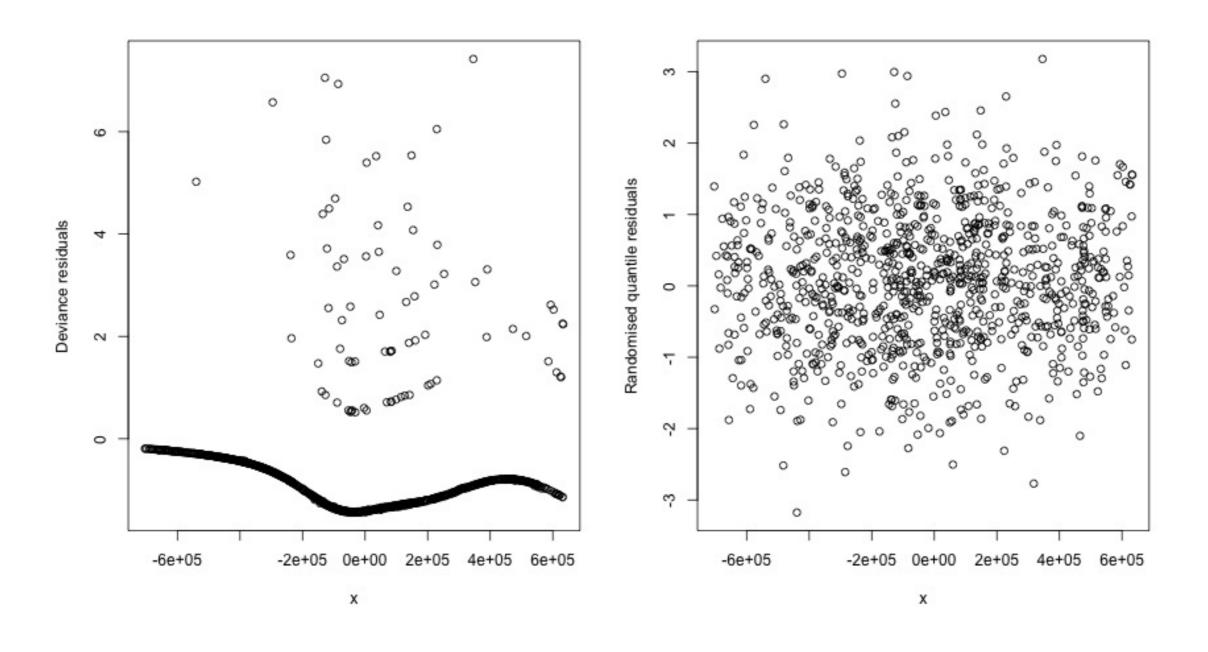
Shortcomings

- gam. check left side can be helpful
- Right side is victim of artifacts
- Need an alternative
- "Randomised quanitle residuals" (experimental)
 - rqgam.check
 - Exactly normal residuals (left side useless)

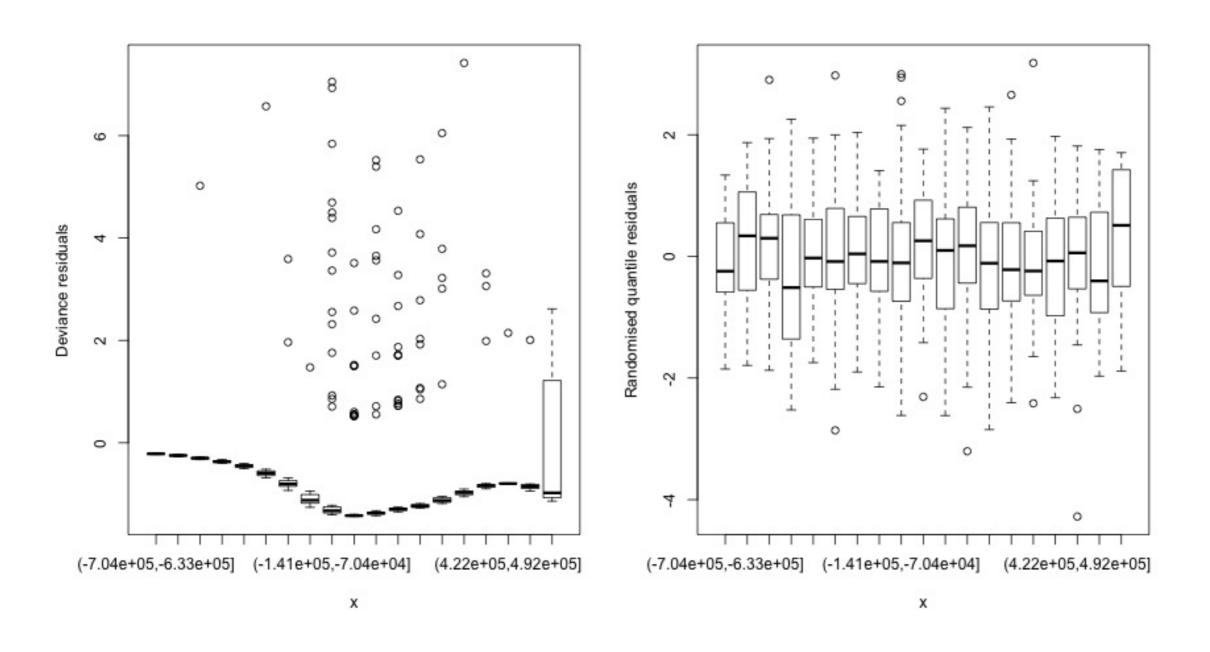
Randomised quantile residuals



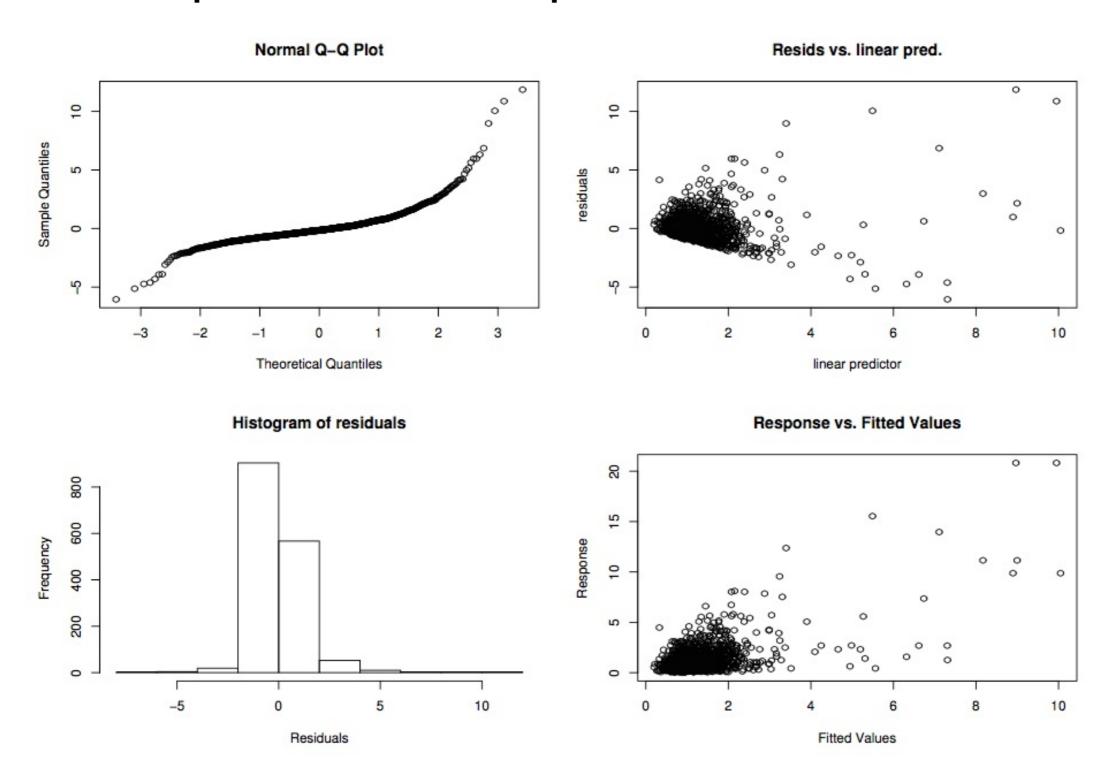
Residuals vs. covariates



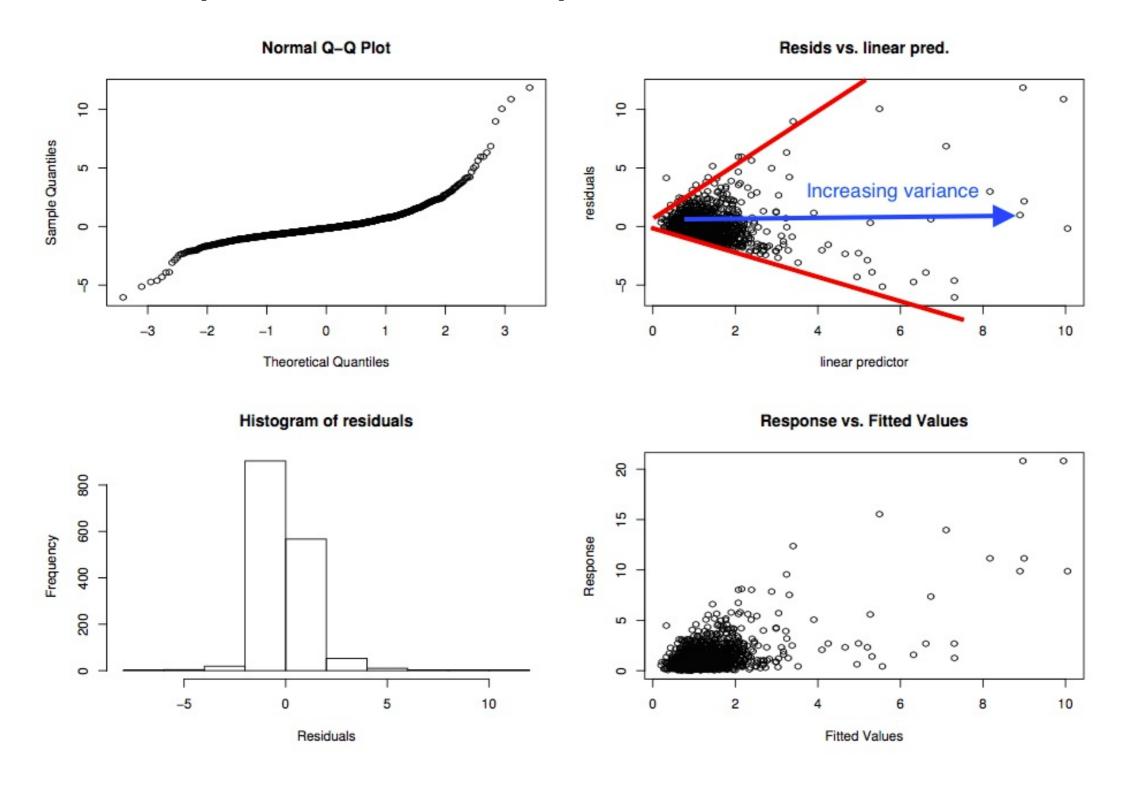
Residuals vs. covariates (boxplots)



Example of "bad" plots



Example of "bad" plots



Residual checks

- Looking for patterns (not artifacts)
- This can be tricky
- Need to use a mixture of techniques

Let's have a go...