## Additive quantile regression 1

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# Today's plan

### Morning session

- What is quantile regression
- When is it useful
- Section Linear quantile mixed models
- Non-parametric additive quantile models
- Quantile regression using qgam
- Hands-on session

#### Afternoon session

- Fitting additive quantile models
- Model checking
- Types of smooths
- More quantile regression using qgam
- Hands-on session

### Structure of the talk

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#### Regression setting:

- y is our response or dependent variable
- x is a vector of covariates or independent variables

In **distributional regression** we want a good model for  $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ .

Model is  $p_m\{y|\theta_1(\mathbf{x}),\ldots,\theta_q(\mathbf{x})\}$ , where  $\theta_1(\mathbf{x}),\ldots,\theta_q(\mathbf{x})$  are parameters.

In a Gaussian model, the mean and/or variance depend on the covariates

$$y|\mathbf{x} \sim N\{y|\mu = \theta_1(\mathbf{x}), \sigma^2 = \theta_2(\mathbf{x})\},$$

where  $\mu = \mathbb{E}(y|\mathbf{x})$  and  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(y|\mathbf{x})$ .

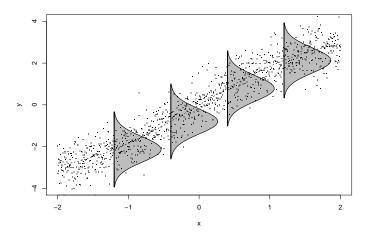


Figure: Gaussian model with variable mean. In mgcv: gam(y~s(x), family=gaussian).

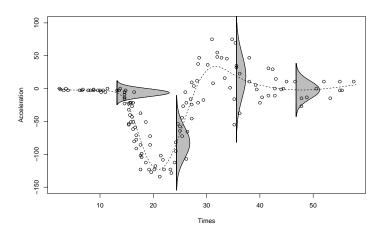


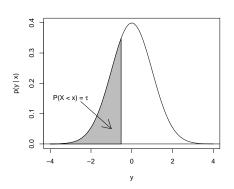
Figure: Gaussian model with variable mean and variance. In  $mgcv: gam(list(y^s(x), s(x)), family=gaulss)$ .

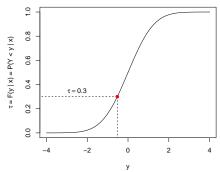
Lots of options for  $p_m(y|\mathbf{x})$ : binomial, gamma, Poisson, Tweedie...

We consider continuous (not discrete) y.

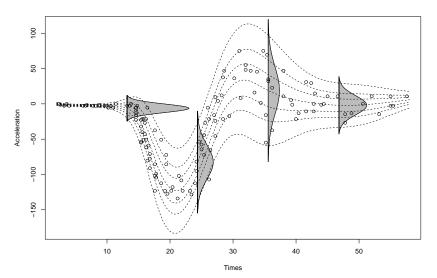
Let  $F(y|\mathbf{x})$  be  $Prob(Y \leq y|\mathbf{x})$ .

The  $\tau$ -th  $(\tau \in (0,1))$  quantile is  $\mu_{\tau}(\mathbf{x}) = F^{-1}(\tau|\mathbf{x})$ .



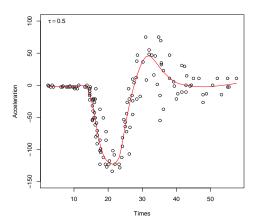


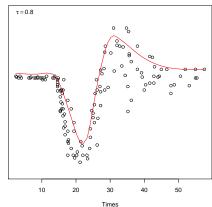
Given  $p_m(y|\mathbf{x})$  we can get the conditional quantiles  $\mu_{\tau}(\mathbf{x})$ .



Quantile regression estimates conditional quantiles  $\mu_{\tau}(\mathbf{x})$  directly.

No model for  $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ .





The  $\tau$ -th quantile is

$$\mu = F^{-1}(\tau | \mathbf{x}),$$

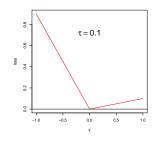
but also the minimizer of

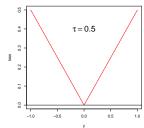
$$L(\mu|\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}\{ \rho_{\tau}(y-\mu)|\mathbf{x} \},$$

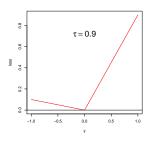
where

$$\rho_{\tau}(z) = (\tau - 1)z\mathbb{1}(z < 0) + \tau z\mathbb{1}(z \ge 0),$$

is the "pinball" loss.







In linear quantile regression  $\mu_{\tau}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} = \beta_1 x_1 + \dots \beta_p x_p$ .

 $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  is the minimizer of total pinball loss

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\beta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} L_{\boldsymbol{y}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho_{\tau}(y_{i} - \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i}).$$

In additive quantile regression  $\mu_{\tau}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{j}(\mathbf{x})$ .

 $f_i$ 's can be fixed, random or smooth effects.

 $\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}$  is the minimizer of total **penalized** pinball loss

$$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}} = \mathop{\mathsf{argmin}}_{eta} ig\{ L_y(oldsymbol{eta}) + \mathsf{Pen}(oldsymbol{eta}) ig\}.$$

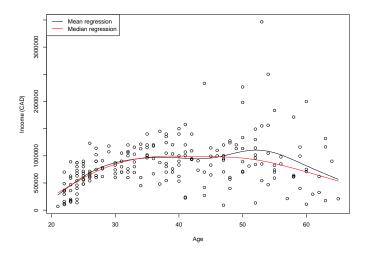
where  $Pen(\beta)$  penalizes the complexity of the  $f_j$ 's.

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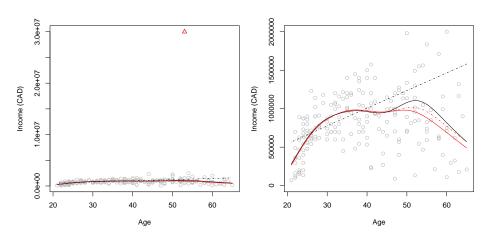
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Median income is a better indicator of how the "average" person is doing, relative to mean income.

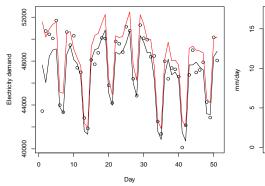


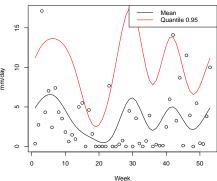
The median is also more resistant to outliers.



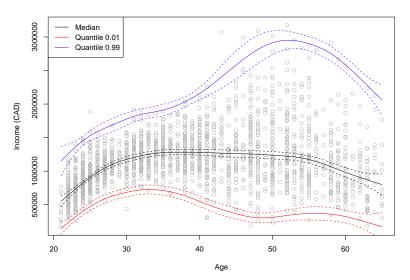
### Some quantiles are more important than others:

- electricity producers need to satisfy top electricity demand
- urban planners need estimates of extreme rainfall

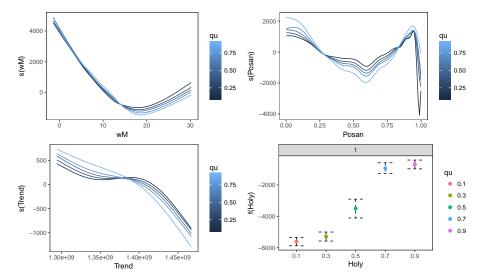




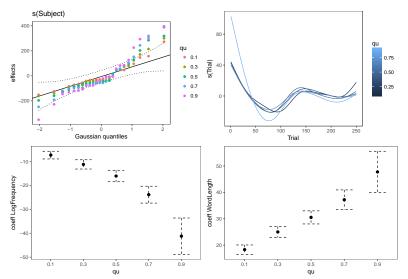
### Effect of explanatory variables may depend on quantile



$$q_{\tau}(\mathsf{Demand}) = f_1(\mathsf{Temp}) + f_2(\mathsf{TimeOfYear}) + f_3(\mathsf{Trend}) + f_4(\mathsf{Holiday}) + \cdots$$

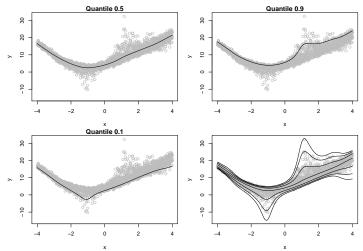


$$q_{\tau}(\mathsf{RT}) = f_1(\mathsf{Subject}) + f_2(\mathsf{Trial}) + f_3(\mathsf{WordFrequency}) + f_4(\mathsf{WordLength}) + \cdots$$



### No assumptions on $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ :

- no need to find good model for  $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ ;
- no need to find normalizing transformations (e.g. Box-Cox);



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## Linear quantile mixed models

Suppose we have data on bone density (bd) as a function of age.

We have m subjects and n data pairs per subject

- subj 1:  $\{bd_{11}, age_{11}\}, \dots, \{bd_{n1}, age_{n1}\}$
- subj j:  $\{bd_{1j}, age_{1j}\}, \ldots, \{bd_{nj}, age_{nj}\}$
- subj m:  $\{bd_{1m}, age_{1m}\}, \ldots, \{bd_{nm}, age_{nm}\}$

Standard linear quantile model ignores individual differences

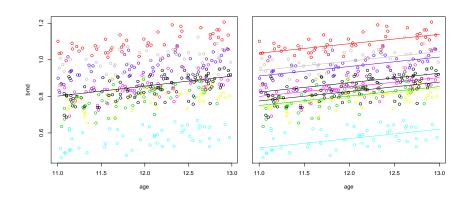
$$\mu_{\tau}(age_{ij}) = \alpha + \beta age_{ij}.$$

We can include random intercept per subject

$$\mu_{\tau}(age_{ij}) = \alpha + \beta age_{ij} + a_j,$$

where  $\mathbf{a} = \{\mathsf{a}_1, \dots, \mathsf{a}_m\} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}).$ 

## Linear quantile mixed models



We can also include random slopes

$$\mu_{\tau}(age_{ij}) = \alpha + (\beta + b_i)age_{ij} + a_i$$

where  $\mathbf{a} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{a}})$  and  $\mathbf{b} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{b}})$ .

### Linear quantile mixed models

In qgam (as in mgcv) random effect are specified as:

In simplest case  $\mathbf{\Sigma_a} = \gamma_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{I}$  and  $\mathbf{\Sigma_b} = \gamma_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{I}$ , that is

$$\Sigma_{\mathbf{a}} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{\mathbf{a}} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma_{\mathbf{a}} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \gamma_{\mathbf{a}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Variances  $\gamma_a$  and  $\gamma_b$  must be estimated (afternoon session).

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In additive modelling

$$\mu_{\tau}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_j(\mathbf{x}),$$

where  $f_j$  can be fixed, random or smooth effects. Example

$$\mu_{\tau}(\mathsf{age}_{ij}) = \alpha + \mathsf{a}_j + f(\mathsf{age}_{ij})$$

where f a non-linear smooth function.

Smooth effects built using spine bases

$$f(age) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \beta_k b_k(age)$$

where  $\beta_k$  are unknown coeff and  $b_k(age)$  are known spline basis functions.

### Example 1: B-splines

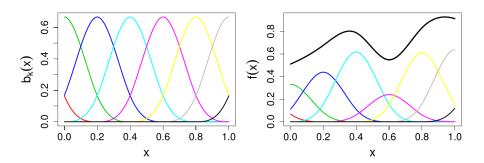


Figure: B-spline basis (left) and smooth (right). Courtesy of Simon Wood.

### Example 2: Thin plate regression splines (TPRS)

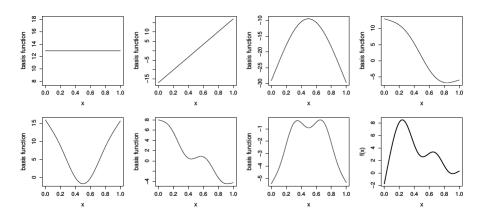


Figure: Rank 7 TPRS basis. Image from Wood (2006).

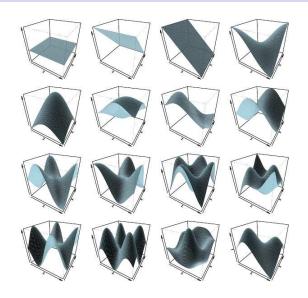


Figure: Rank 17 2D TPRS basis. Courtesy of Simon Wood.

In general

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} \beta_k b_k(\mathbf{x}).$$

To determine complexity of  $f(\mathbf{x})$ :

- the basis rank r is large enough for sufficient flexibility
- ullet a Gaussian prior on eta controls the wiggliness of the effects

In morning practical we'll see only 1D effects.

More complex effects explained in the afternoon.

In qgam or mgcv:

$$qgam(y ~1 + s(x1, bs = "tp") + s(x2, bs = "cr"), ...)$$

### Model selection

In probabilistic regression we can use Akaike Information Criterion (AIC):

$$AIC = \underbrace{-2 \log p(\mathbf{y}|\beta)}_{\text{goodness of fit}} + \underbrace{2p}_{\text{model complexity}}$$

If  $AIC_{m1} < AIC_{m2}$  choose model 1.

In quantile regression pinball loss substitutes likelihood  $\log p(\mathbf{y}|\beta)$ .

Maybe justifiable for median regression ( $\tau = 0.5$ ).

Practical approach: choose model with lowest AIC at median and use it for other quantiles.

Probably better: choose model on mean model and use it for quant reg.

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### Conclusions

# **THANK YOU!**

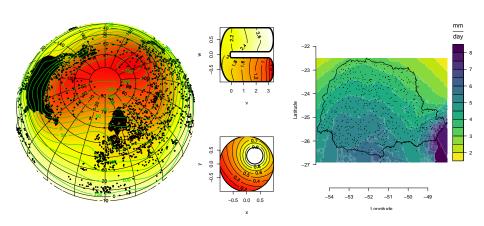


Figure: Examples of quantile GAMs from Fasiolo et al. (2017).

#### References I

Fasiolo, M., Y. Goude, R. Nedellec, and S. N. Wood (2017). Fast calibrated additive quantile regression. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.03307*.