Iterated Regularization for High-Dimensional Data: from Boosting to Twin Boosting

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Regarding iterated regularization

1 tuning parameter (as in e.g. Lasso, Ridge, etc.) may not be sufficient to regularize in 1000-dimensional space

2-3 tuning parameters may be (much) better

Regarding Boosting: with a version of LogitBoost



Roman Lutz Statistics, ETH Zurich

winner of the prediction/classification challenge World Congress of Computational Intelligence 2006

 → Boosting is not an "out-dated" method competitors were: weighted LS-SVM (S. Cawley) Bayesian Neural Networks (R. Neal) Random Forests (C. Dahinden) SVM/Gaussian process classifier (W. Chu) High-dimensional data setting

 $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ i.i.d. or stationary X_i *p*-dimensional predictor variable Y_i univariate response variable, e.g. $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ or $Y_i \in \{0, 1\}$

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high-dimensional: *p* ≫ *n*

areas of application: astronomy, biology, imaging, marketing research, text classification,...

sometimes *n* is large as well (and $p \approx n$ or $p \gg n$) \rightarrow computational challenges High-dimensional data setting

 $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ i.i.d. or stationary X_i *p*-dimensional predictor variable Y_i univariate response variable, e.g. $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ or $Y_i \in \{0, 1\}$

high-dimensional: $p \gg n$

areas of application: astronomy, biology, imaging, marketing research, text classification,...

sometimes *n* is large as well (and $p \approx n$ or $p \gg n$) \rightsquigarrow computational challenges Examples from molecular biology

- ► Microarray data p ≈ 5'000 - 20'000, n ≈ 10 - 200
- ► Motif finding with motif regression $p \approx 4'000 - 10'000, n \approx 4'000 - 30'000$
- ► Dynamic (w.r.t. time) motif regression $p \approx 4'000 - 10'000$ and $n \approx 40'000 - 300'000$

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Boosting

AdaBoost (Freund & Schapire, 1996): ensemble method

Breiman (1998) has demystified boosting as a functional gradient descent method

Aim: find $f^*(\cdot) = \operatorname{argmin}_{f(\cdot)} \mathbb{E}[\rho(Y, f(X))]$ e.g. for $\rho(y, f) = |y - f|^2 \rightsquigarrow f^*(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x]$

FGD solution: consider empirical risk $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho(Y_i, f(X_i))$ and do iterative steepest descent in function space

with the use of a base procedure (weak learner)

$$(X_1, U_1), \ldots, (X_n, U_n) \longrightarrow \hat{\theta}(\cdot) \approx \mathbb{E}[U|X = \cdot]$$

e.g. regression tree, componentwise smoothing spline, etc ...

Functional gradient descent: the concept

empirical risk functional: $C(f) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho(Y_i, f(X_i))$ inner product: $\langle f, g \rangle = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(X_i) g(X_i)$

rough idea:

- 1. Initialize $\hat{f}_0(\cdot)$; then, for $m = 1, 2, ..., m_{stop}$:
- 2. Calculate negative gradient (negative Gateaux derivative):

$$-dC(f)(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} - C(f + \alpha \mathbf{1}_x)|_{\alpha = \mathbf{0}}$$

Approximate

$$-dC(\hat{f}_{m-1})(\cdot)$$
 by base procedure fit $\hat{\theta}_m(\cdot)$

3. Up-date

$$\hat{f}_m(\cdot) = \hat{f}_{m-1}(\cdot) + \underbrace{\nu}_{\text{step-length}} \cdot \hat{\theta}_m(\cdot)$$

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Computational implementation: Generic FGD algorithm

Step 1. $\hat{f}_0 \equiv 0$ (or $\equiv \overline{Y}$); set m = 0.

Step 2. Increase *m* by 1. Compute negative gradient $-\frac{\partial}{\partial f}\rho(Y, f)$ and evaluate at $f = \hat{f}_{m-1}(X_i) = U_i$ (i = 1, ..., n)

Step 3. Fit negative gradient vector U_1, \ldots, U_n by base proced.

$$(X_i, U_i)_{i=1}^n \xrightarrow{\text{base proced.}} \hat{\theta}_m(\cdot)$$

i.e. $\hat{\theta}_m(\cdot)$ is an approximation of the negative gradient vector Step 4. Up-date $\hat{f}_m(\cdot) = \hat{f}_{m-1}(\cdot) + \nu \cdot \hat{\theta}_m(\cdot)$ ($0 < \nu \le 1$ step-length) i.e. proceed along an estimate of the negative gradient vector Step 5. Iterate Steps 2-4 until $m = m_{stop}$

 ν small will be good, e.g. $\nu = 0.1$

L2Boosting (Friedman, 2001; PB & Yu, 2003)

loss function $\rho(y, f) = |y - f|^2$ population minimizer: $f^*(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x]$ FGD with base procedure $\hat{\theta}(\cdot)$: repeated fitting of residuals

$$m = 1: (X_i, Y_i)_{i=1}^n \rightsquigarrow \hat{\theta}_1(\cdot), \ \hat{f}_1 = \nu \hat{\theta}_1 \qquad \rightsquigarrow \text{ resid. } U_i = Y_i - \hat{f}_1(X_i)$$

$$m = 2: (X_i, \underbrace{U_i}_{i=1}^n \rightsquigarrow \hat{\theta}_2(\cdot), \ \hat{f}_2 = \hat{f}_1 + \nu \hat{\theta}_2 \qquad \rightsquigarrow \text{ resid. } U_i = Y_i - \hat{f}_2(X_i)$$

...

 $\hat{f}_{m_{stop}}(\cdot) = \nu \sum_{m=1}^{m_{stop}} \hat{\theta}_m(\cdot)$ (greedy fitting of residuals)

Tukey (1977): twicing for $m_{stop} = 2$ and $\nu = 1$

any gain over classical methods?



• not at all if n/p is reasonable





• substantial gain if n/p is small

Componentwise linear least squares base procedure

linear ordinary least squares against the one predictor variable which reduces RSS most

$$\hat{\theta}(x) = \hat{\beta}_{\hat{\mathcal{S}}} x^{(\hat{\mathcal{S}})}, \ \hat{\beta}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i^{(j)} / \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i^{(j)})^2, \ \hat{\mathcal{S}} = \operatorname{argmin}_j \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_j X_i^{(j)})^2$$

first round: selected predictor variable $X^{(\hat{S}_1)}$ (e.g. = $X^{(3)}$) corresponding $\hat{\beta}_{\hat{S}_1} \rightsquigarrow$ fitted function $\hat{f}_1(x)$ 2nd round: selected predictor variable $X^{(\hat{S}_2)}$ (e.g. = $X^{(21)}$) corresponding $\hat{\beta}_{\hat{S}_2} \rightsquigarrow$ fitted function $\hat{f}_2(x)$ etc. L_2 Boosting: $\hat{f}_m(x) = \hat{f}_{m-1}(x) + \nu \cdot \hat{\theta}(x)$

→ linear model fit, including variable selection

i.e. a structured model fit

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for $\nu = 1$, this is known as Matching Pursuit (Mallat and Zhang, 1993) Weak greedy algorithm (deVore & Temlyakov, 1997) a version of Boosting (Schapire, 1992; Freund & Schapire, 1996)

Gauss-Southwell algorithm





C.F. Gauss in 1803 "Princeps Mathematicorum" R.V. Southwell in 1933 Professor in Oxford

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Binary lymph node classification using gene expressions: a high noise problem n = 49 samples, p = 7129 gene expressions

cross-validated misclassification error (2/3 training; 1/3 test)

Lasso	L ₂ Boosting	FPLR	Pelora	1-NN	DLDA	SVM
21.1%	17.7%	35.25%	27.8%	43.25%	36.12%	36.88%

multivariate gene selection

best 200 genes (Wilcoxon test) no additional gene selection

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42 (out of 7129) selected genes (n = 49) and gene importance



identifiability problem: strong correlations among some genes

→ consider groups of highly correlated genes biological categories (e.g. GO ontology), Connections to Lasso (for linear models): Efron, Hastie, Johnstone, Tibshirani (2004): for special design matrices,

iterations of L2Boosting with "infinitesimally" small ν yield all Lasso solutions when varying λ

Zhao and Yu (2005): for general design matrices, when adding some backward steps the solutions from Lasso and modified Boosting "coincide"

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Consistency for high dimensions: an analysis of an algorithm

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j X_i^{(j)} + \epsilon_i \ (i = 1, \dots, n), \ p \gg n$$

Theorem (PB, 2006)

 L_2 Boosting with comp. linear LS is consistent (with suitable number of boosting iterations) if:

p_n = *O*(exp(*Cn*^{1-ξ})) (0 < ξ < 1) (high-dimensional) essentially exponentially many variables relative to *n* sup_n Σ^{p_n}_{j=1} |β_{j,n}| < ∞ ℓ¹-sparseness of true function i.e. for suitable, slowly growing *m* = *m_n*:

$$\mathbb{E}_X |\hat{f}_{m_n,n}(X) - f_n(X)|^2 = o_P(1) \; (n o \infty)$$

"no" assumptions about the predictor variables/design matrix

(similar result for Lasso: Greenshtein & Ritov (2004))

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- $p_n = O(\exp(Cn^{1-\xi}))$ ($0 < \xi < 1$) (high-dimensional) essentially exponentially many variables relative to n
- $\sup_n \sum_{j=1}^{p_n} |\beta_{j,n}| < \infty$ ℓ^1 -sparseness of true function i.e. for suitable, slowly growing $m = m_n$:

$$\mathbb{E}_X|\hat{f}_{m_n,n}(X)-f_n(X)|^2=o_P(1)\ (n\to\infty)$$

"no" assumptions about the predictor variables/design matrix

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(similar result for Lasso: Greenshtein & Ritov (2004))

$$R_0 f = f$$

$$R_m f = R_{m-1} f - \langle R_{m-1} f, g_{\hat{S}_m} \rangle g_{\hat{S}_m}, \ m = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\hat{S}_m = \operatorname{argmax}_j |\langle R_{m-1} f, g_j \rangle|$$

$$\|R_{m}f\|^{2} = \|f - \sum_{k=1}^{m} \gamma_{k}g_{\hat{S}_{k}}\|^{2}$$

= $\|R_{m-1}f\|^{2} - |\langle R_{m-1}f, g_{\hat{S}_{m}}\rangle|^{2} >$

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uniform bound '

Temlyakov (2000): $\leq \|\beta\|_1 m^{-1/6}$

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linear model → "prototype"-result the methodology (and some of theory) is much more general

Other loss functions for boosting: beyond regression

for binary classification with $Y \in \{0, 1\}$: $\rho(y, f) = \log_2(1 + \exp(-(2 \cdot y - 1)f))$ negative binomial log-likelihood population minimizer: $f^*(x) = \frac{1}{2}\log(\frac{p(x)}{1-\rho(x)})$

 \rightsquigarrow can estimate probabilities $p(\cdot)$ from estimate $\hat{f}(\cdot)$

this is LogitBoost (Friedman, Hastie and Tibshirani, 2000)

for count data with $Y \in \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$: $\rho(y, f) = \exp(f) - yf$ negative Poisson log-likelihood population minimizer: $f^*(x) = \log(\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x])$

for survival data with $Y \in \mathbb{R}^+$: $\rho(y, f)$ from Cox's partial likelihood

etc...

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Computation

computation for general loss functions involves a trivial extension only! very different for LARS-type path-following algorithms for Lasso

instead of residuals in L2Boosting

$$U_i = Y_i - \hat{f}_{m-1}(X_i), \ i = 1, \ldots, n$$

we use "generalized residuals"

$$U_i = -\frac{\partial}{\partial f} \rho(\mathbf{Y}, f)|_{f = \hat{f}_{m-1}(X_i)}, \ i = 1, \dots, n$$

since there is (usually) a closed form, simple expression of the partial derivative

 \rightarrow same computational cost as for L₂Boosting

The mboost package in R (Hothorn & PB, 2006)

for various boosting algorithms and corresponding model fitting

- easy to use and coherent implementation for
 - regression
 - classification
 - Poisson regression
 - survival analysis with Cox's partial likelihood
 - your own loss function
- allows for various base procedures
 - componentwise linear least squares
 - componentwise smoothing splines
 - trees
- computationally very fast for high-dimensional generalized linear models

CPU time Binary lymph node classification example: p = 7129, n = 49with L_2 Boosting or BinomialBoosting (LogitBoost) for large range of solutions

it's less than a second!

0.906 seconds using mboost in R (Hothorn & PB, 2006)

in comparison: for linear models, computing Lasso solutions for all λ 's

2.603 seconds using lars in R (with use.gram=F)

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because it is so fast

violations over different inhomogeneous but related sub-populations ("borrowing strength from neighborhood")

 $\beta(t) \approx \beta(\text{neighb.}(t))$

Motif detection using DNA sequence and gene expression data (Meier, Liu, Liu & PB; work in progress) p = 4'312, n = 79'974 from 18 sub-populations

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Can we easily improve?

maybe (?) not that much with respect to prediction but often substantially with respect to variable/feature selection

approach for variable selection with Boosting: variables which have been selected by the base procedure in the process of boosting

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e.g. in a (generalized) linear model fit: variables with corresponding regression coefficient $\neq 0$

→ no significance testing involved

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approach for variable selection with Boosting: variables which have been selected by the base procedure in the process of boosting

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e.g. in a (generalized) linear model fit: variables with corresponding regression coefficient $\neq 0$

~ no significance testing involved

Building on the analogy with the Lasso

Meinshausen & PB (2006):

for linear models

► Lasso is consistent for variable selection, even for $p \gg n$, if the design matrix is not "too correlated" $P[\text{selected model} = \text{true model}] \xrightarrow{0} (n \rightarrow \infty)$ quickly

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see also Zou (2006), Zhao and Yu (2006)

The "reason"

too much bias (or shrinkage), even for large values



Bias in soft-thresholding is disturbing (at least sometimes)

better:

Nonnegative Garrote (Breiman, 1995) and similar proposals

Twin Boosting (PB, 2006): Boosting-type answer addressing the problem of bias

is different from Sparse Boosting (PB & Yu, 2006) but much more general and computationally much faster



Rough idea of Twin Boosting

- first round of boosting as usual: first twin
- second round of boosting which is forced to resemble the first round: second twin
- final estimate from the second round



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Twin *L*₂Boosting for linear models

recap: L_2 Boosting with componentwise linear least squares chooses variable *j* which reduces RSS most $\Leftrightarrow |n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} U_i X_i^{(j)}| = |\widehat{\text{Cor}}(U, X^{(j)})|$ maximal w.r.t. *j* if predictor variables are standardized

first round: boosting estimate $\hat{\beta}_{init}$ from L_2 Boosting second round: as L_2 Boosting but selecting variable using

$$|n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n}U_{i}X_{i}^{(j)}|\cdot|\hat{\beta}_{init,j}|$$
 maximal w.r.t. j

final estimate from second round, "pulled toward" initial estim. ~ very easy and computationally efficient modification

Twin Boosting = iterated regularization

(we first tune round 1; and fixing the tuning from round 1, we then tune round 2)

PB (2006): for orthogonal linear models, as step-size factor $\nu \rightarrow 0$

Twin L_2 Boosting and Adaptive Lasso coincide (with β_{init} = estimate from first round of boosting)

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and Twin Boosting extends to very general settings

Adaptive Lasso (Zou, 2006)

$$\hat{\beta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - (X\beta)_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \frac{|\beta_j|}{\underbrace{|\beta_{init,j}|}_{\text{e.g. OLS if } p < n}}$$

nice result (Zou, 2006):

adaptive Lasso is consistent for variable selection "in general" (proof for low-dimensional problems only)

for orthogonal design if $\beta_{init} = OLS$, Adaptive Lasso = NN-garrote



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Simulated example: n = 50, p=500

$$Y = \sum_{j=1}^{500} \beta_j X^{(j)} + \varepsilon, \ \beta_1 = 5, \beta_j = 0 \ (j = 2, \dots, 500)$$



black: L₂Boosting

red: Twin L₂Boosting

Twin L_2 Boosting: more sparse and better variable selection than boosting

Response *Y* versus p = 4088 gene expressions in Bacillus Subtilis



neighbours of *Y* (selected genes) and their conditional dependencies n=115, p=4088

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Boosting with regression tree base procedure very popular in machine learning

trees can be very useful because:

- they can easily handle missing data
- they can easily deal with mixed categorical, ordinal, continuous data

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 they are invariant under monotone covariate-transformations Twin L_2 Boosting for trees first round: boosting estimate \hat{f}_{init}

second round: as boosting but select in each iteration the best tree $\hat{g}(\cdot)$ which reduces RSS and "resembles" \hat{f}_{init}

$$\underbrace{\frac{\mathcal{C}^{2}(\hat{g})}{\widehat{Cor}^{2}(\hat{g},\hat{f}_{init})}}_{\text{Cor}^{2}(\hat{g},\hat{f}_{init})} \cdot \underbrace{\left(2\sum_{i=1}^{n}U_{i}\hat{g}(X_{i}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n}\hat{g}(X_{i})^{2}\right)}_{\text{"penalized correlation"}} \text{ is maximized w.r.t. } \hat{g}$$

in case of componentwise least squares and uncorrelated design

$$\propto |\hat{eta}_{\textit{init},j}|^2 \cdot |\widehat{\textit{Cor}}(U,X^{(j)})|^2$$

concept easily extends to other loss functions
 (e.g. classification)

Sonar data: binary classification with n=208, p=60



black: BinomialBoosting red

red: Twin BinomialBoosting

Twin Boosting: more sparse than boosting

with synthetically enlarged predictor space adding 500 $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ -distributed ineffective predictor variables



black: BinomialBoosting

red: Twin BinomialBoosting

→ improved variable selection with Twin Boosting

Conclusions

Boosting

- is mainly useful for high-dimensional and/or large datasets
- is computationally very efficient
- is very competitive for prediction



- Twin Boosting (e.g. iterated regularization) improves upon
 - variable selection
 - assigning variable importance in structured models (linear, additive, interaction)