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Abstract

The Bradley-Terry-Luce (BTL) model for paired comparison data is able to obtain a ranking of the objects that are compared pairwise by subjects. The task of each subject is to make preference decisions in favor of one of the objects. This decision is binary when subjects prefer either the first object or the second object, but can also be ordinal when subjects make their decisions on a Likert scale. Since subject-specific covariates, which reflect characteristics of the subject, may affect the preference decision, it is essential to incorporate subject-specific covariates into the model. However, the inclusion of subject-specific covariates yields a model that contains many parameters and thus estimation becomes challenging. To overcome this problem, we propose a procedure that is able to select and estimate only relevant variables.

Keywords: Paired comparison, Bradley-Terry-Luce model, Boosting, Variable selection

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1. Introduction

In paired comparisons, several objects are compared pairwise to obtain an overall preference ranking of the objects. In many application fields, such as marketing research or psychometric experiments, objects are presented in a pairwise manner to judges, or, as they are called here, subjects. Their task for each comparison is to make a preference decision in favor of one of the presented objects according to specific subjective criteria, for example the fragrance of perfumes when two perfumes are the objects being compared. Subjects can typically choose to prefer either the first or the second object, so that the response is represented by a binary variable. Alternatively, the subjects can make their preference decisions on a symmetric Likert scale with more than two categories, such as preferring the first object strongly or weakly, preferring neither of the objects, or preferring the second object strongly or weakly. This procedure yields an ordinal response that allows for a more precise preference ranking of the objects because it uses additional information about how strongly an object is preferred.

One of the most widely used models for paired comparisons with a binary response is the model suggested by Bradley & Terry (1952). It is closely related to the choice axiom of Luce (1959) with the restriction to choices being between two objects. Thus, the model is also known as Bradley-Terry-Luce (BTL) model. Several extensions have been proposed in the literature to allow for responses with more than two categories. The first approaches allowed only a third category and were proposed by Rao & Kupper (1967) and Davidson (1970). Later, ordinal BTL models that allow for any number of ordered response categories have been considered by Tutz (1986), Agresti (1992), Dittrich et al. (2004) and Dittrich et al. (2007). Ordinal regression models, in particular the cumulative logit model and the adjacent categories logit model, are in common use when an ordinal response is present.

The main objective of this paper is to develop a method that allows for variable selection in a model that also contains subject-specific covariates. These covariates are characteristics of the subject and are assumed to affect the decision of a subject. Selection of relevant subject-specific covariates is very important because subject-specific BTL models contain a large number of parameters and model estimation becomes challenging. Therefore, we focus on detecting important characteristics that determine the preference of objects.

2. Paired Comparison Models

2.1. The Binary BTL Model

Let $M$ be the number of objects that are compared and let the pair $(r, s)$ refer to the comparison of object $r$ and object $s$. The response connected to this comparison is denoted by $Y_{rs}$, where $Y_{rs} = 1$ indicates the preference for object $r$ and $Y_{rs} = 2$ indicates the preference for object $s$. Let $\pi_{k}^{(r,s)} := \Pr(Y_{rs} = k(r, s))$, with $k = 1, 2$ and $\pi_{1}^{(r,s)} + \pi_{2}^{(r,s)} = 1$ denote the probability of whether object $r$ (for $k = 1$) or object $s$ (for $k = 2$) is preferred.
is preferred. The binary BTL model can then be written as a logistic model
\[
\log \left( \frac{\pi(r,s)}{1 - \pi(r,s)} \right) = \gamma_r - \gamma_s
\]
\[
= x_1^{(r,s)} \gamma_1 + \ldots + x_{M-1}^{(r,s)} \gamma_{M-1}
\]
\[
= (x^{(r,s)})^\top \gamma,
\]
(1)
where the components of the vector \( (x^{(r,s)})^\top = (x_1^{(r,s)}, \ldots, x_{M-1}^{(r,s)}) \) are defined as
\[
x_m^{(r,s)} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } m = r \\ -1 & \text{if } m = s \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
\]
Given the pair \((r, s)\), the vector \((x^{(r,s)})^\top = (0, \ldots, 1, 0, \ldots, -1, 0, \ldots, 0)\) has a 1 on the \(r\)-th position and a \(-1\) on the \(s\)-th position. The vector \(\gamma = (\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_{M-1})^\top\) contains all object parameters we want to estimate, where \(\gamma_m\) reflects the worth of object \(m\). For model identifiability, we use the restriction \(\gamma_M = 0\), that is, object \(M\) is considered as reference object.

The ranking of objects is based on estimated object parameters, where estimation is carried out by maximum likelihood estimation for ordinary logistic models as used by Turner & Firth (2012).

2.2. Ordinal BTL Models

In the binary BTL model, the subjects can prefer the first object or the second object of a comparison. In more general settings, the subjects can make their preference decisions on a (symmetric) Likert scale with more than two categories. In this case, the binary response is extended to an ordinal response \(Y_{rs} \in \{1, \ldots, K\}\), where \(K\) denotes an arbitrary number of response categories. In our notation, lower response categories indicate the preference for object \(r\). Thus, \(Y_{rs} = 1\) is the most favorable response category for object \(r\) and \(Y_{rs} = K\) is the most favorable response category for object \(s\), or, equivalently, the least favorable response category for object \(r\). To ensure that the comparison of the pair \((r, s)\) yields the same result as the comparison of the pair \((s, r)\), the ordinal response is assumed to be symmetric, that is, \(Y_{rs} = k \Leftrightarrow Y_{sr} = K - k + 1\) and therefore \(\pi_k^{(r,s)} = \pi_{K-k+1}^{(s,r)}\) (Agresti, 1992).

The Cumulative Model

The cumulative BTL model for ordinal responses uses the cumulative probabilities \(P(Y_{rs} \leq k(r, s)) = \pi_1^{(r,s)} + \ldots + \pi_k^{(r,s)}\) and \(P(Y_{rs} > k(r, s)) = \pi_{k+1}^{(r,s)} + \ldots + \pi_K^{(r,s)}\), with \(P(Y_{rs} \leq k(r, s)) + P(Y_{rs} > k(r, s)) = \pi_1^{(r,s)} + \ldots + \pi_K^{(r,s)} = 1\). The model can be formulated as a cumulative logit model (McCullagh, 1980) with the link function \(g = (g_1, \ldots, g_{K-1})^\top\), where
\[
g_k\left(\pi_1^{(r,s)}, \ldots, \pi_K^{(r,s)}\right) = \log \left( \frac{\pi_1^{(r,s)} + \ldots + \pi_k^{(r,s)}}{1 - \left(\pi_1^{(r,s)} + \ldots + \pi_K^{(r,s)}\right)} \right) = \log \left( \frac{P(Y_{rs} \leq k(r, s))}{P(Y_{rs} > k(r, s))} \right)
\]
(3)
links the considered probabilities to the linear predictor \( \eta_{k}^{(r,s)} \), so that

\[
g_{k}\left(\pi_{1}^{(r,s)}, \ldots, \pi_{K}^{(r,s)}\right) = \pi_{k}^{(r,s)} = \theta_{k} + (\gamma_{r} - \gamma_{s})
= \theta_{k} + (x_{1}^{(r,s)} \gamma_{1} + \ldots + x_{m-1}^{(r,s)} \gamma_{m-1})
= \theta_{k} + \left(x^{(r,s)}\right)^{T} \gamma,
\]

for all \( k = 1, \ldots, K - 1 \) and with the threshold parameters \(-\infty = \theta_{0} < \theta_{1} < \ldots < \theta_{K-1} < \theta_{K} = \infty\). Because of the symmetric response, the thresholds need to be restricted as follows (see Tutz, 1986):

1. If \( K \) is odd
   \[
   \theta_{k} = -\theta_{K-k} \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, \ldots, \frac{K-1}{2} = \left\lfloor \frac{K-1}{2} \right\rfloor.
   \]
2. If \( K \) is even
   \[
   \theta_{K/2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_{K/2-k} = -\theta_{K/2+k} \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, \ldots, \frac{K}{2} - 1 = \left\lfloor \frac{K-1}{2} \right\rfloor.
   \]

It can be seen that only \( q := \left\lfloor \frac{K-1}{2} \right\rfloor \) threshold parameters need to be estimated, the other ones are determined by the symmetry constraints (5) and (6).

**The Adjacent Categories Model**

Another model that also allows for ordinal responses is the adjacent categories BTL model. It is based on the adjacent categories logit model using the link function \( g = (g_{1}, \ldots, g_{K-1})^{T} \), with

\[
g_{k}\left(\pi_{1}^{(r,s)}, \ldots, \pi_{K}^{(r,s)}\right) = \log \left( \frac{\pi_{k}^{(r,s)}}{\pi_{k+1}^{(r,s)}} \right) = \log \left( \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y_{rs} = k | (r, s))}{\mathbb{P}(Y_{rs} = k + 1 | (r, s))} \right).
\]

The model is then defined by

\[
g_{k}\left(\pi_{1}^{(r,s)}, \ldots, \pi_{K}^{(r,s)}\right) = \eta_{k}^{(r,s)} = \theta_{k} + \left(x^{(r,s)}\right)^{T} \gamma, \quad k = 1, \ldots, K - 1.
\]

Here, the same restrictions (5) and (6) are valid and allow for symmetric thresholds (see Agresti, 1992). The adjacent categories BTL model can also be represented as a log-linear model, which has been extensively discussed in the literature (see Agresti, 1992; Dittrich et al., 1998; Dittrich et al., 2004; Dittrich et al., 2007). When the response consists of \( K = 2 \) categories, the binary BTL model (1) is a special case of the cumulative BTL model (4) and the adjacent categories BTL model (7). In this case, the cumulative BTL model and the adjacent categories BTL model are equivalent.

It should be noted that the cumulative and the adjacent-categories model for ordinal responses use the same set of linear predictors

\[
\eta_{k}^{(r,s)} = \theta_{k} + \left(x^{(r,s)}\right)^{T} \gamma, \quad k = 1, \ldots, q.
\]
Therefore, the inclusion of subject-specific covariates for both models is obtained by modifying the same linear predictors.

3. Including Subject-Specific Covariates

A very restrictive assumption for the models considered in Section 2.2 is that the worth of an object is the same for all subjects. Therefore, the ranking of the objects is the same for all subjects. However, in most applications it is to be expected that the preference for an object and thus the ranking of all objects depends on characteristics of the subject that makes the preference decision (Dittrich et al., 1998; Francis et al., 2002). To explicitly model this heterogeneity, we introduce subject-specific covariates \( x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,P} \), where \( P \) reflects the number of characteristics and \( i \) refers to a single subject. The object parameters are now assumed to be determined by these characteristics, such that the object parameters vary across subjects. A simple way to incorporate subject-specific covariates into the model is to let the object parameters of a subject be determined by a linear combination of the \( P \) subject-specific covariates. The resulting object parameter for subject \( i \) is then specified by

\[
\gamma_{i,m} = \gamma_m + \sum_{p=1}^{P} x_{i,p} \gamma_{m,p},
\]

where \( \gamma_m \) is a parameter for object \( m \) that is independent of the characteristics of the subject, and \( \gamma_{m,p} \) is a modifying effect for object \( m \) depending on the \( p \)-th subject-specific covariate. This means, that \( \gamma_{m,p} \) is a subject-object interaction parameter. To ensure model identifiability, we constrain the subject-object interaction parameters by setting \( \lambda_{M,p} = 0 \), for all \( p = 1, \ldots, P \) (Francis et al., 2002).

Assuming that there are \( i = 1, \ldots, I \) subjects, the linear predictor \( \eta_k^{(r,s)} \) from equation (8) can be replaced by a more flexible linear predictor \( \eta_k^{(r,s),i} \) that also considers subject-specific covariates and has the form

\[
\eta_k^{(r,s),i} = \theta_k + (\gamma_{i,r} - \gamma_{i,s}) = \theta_k + (\gamma_r - \gamma_s) + \sum_{p=1}^{P} x_{i,p} (\gamma_{r,p} - \gamma_{s,p})
= \theta_k + \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} x_{m}^{(r,s)} \gamma_m + \sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} x_{i,p} x_{m}^{(r,s)} \gamma_{m,p}
= \theta_k + (x^{(r,s),i})^T \gamma + \sum_{p=1}^{P} (x^{(r,s),i})^T \gamma_p.
\]

Here, the vector \( (x^{(r,s),i})^T = (x_{i,1} x_{i,1}^{(r,s)}, \ldots, x_{i,P} x_{i,P}^{(r,s)})^{M-1} \) contains all subject-object interactions that belong to the \( p \)-th subject-specific covariate and \( \gamma_p = (\gamma_{1,p}, \ldots, \gamma_{M-1,p}) \) is the corresponding vector of subject-object (interaction) parameters, such that \( \gamma_{m,p} \) refers to the \( m \)-th object and the \( p \)-th subject-specific covariate.

In the absence of subject-specific covariates, that is \( x_{i,p} = 0 \), for all \( i, p \), one obtains an ordinal BTL model as described previously. The model that considers subject-specific covariates is more flexible and accounts for heterogeneity between subjects but suffers from the large number of parameters, since we have to estimate \( M - 1 \) subject-object parameters for each additional subject-specific covariate. To
overcome this problem, we present a component-wise boosting algorithm that implicitly selects the influential variables.

4. Boosting

4.1. Basic Concept of Boosting

Before introducing the boosting algorithm for ordinal BTL models, we will first illustrate the concept of boosting on a linear regression model and then proceed to boosting for ordinal BTL models.

Assume the linear regression model with $C$ covariates and $J$ observations. In matrix representation, the model can be described as

$$y = X_β + ε,$$

with the vectors $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_J)^T$, $ε = (ε_1, \ldots, ε_J)^T$, $β = (β_0, \ldots, β_C)^T$ and the design matrix $X = [x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_C]$ that contains the components $x_c = (x_{1,c}, \ldots, x_{J,c})^T$ for $c = 0, 1, \ldots, C$.

The structure of a generalized linear model (GLM) is determined by $µ_j = E(y_j|x_j) = h(η_j)$, where $h$ is a known response function and $g = h^{-1}$ is the link function that links the conditional expectation $E(y_j|x_j)$ to the linear predictor $η_j = \sum_{c=0}^{C} x_{j,c} β_c$. Using the vectors $µ = (µ_1, \ldots, µ_J)^T$ and $η = (η_1, \ldots, η_J)^T$, we can also write $µ = h(η)$ and $g(µ) = η$.

The linear model above can be incorporated within the framework of generalized linear models by using the identity function as the link function, that is $µ_j = g(µ_j) = h(η_j)$. For a large number of covariates $C$, it is of interest to estimate the model using only influential variables. There are several methods that perform well in such high dimensional settings while offering a sparse model, one of these methods is boosting (see Bühlmann, 2006). Boosting has its origin in the machine learning community (see Schapire, 1990; Freund, 1995; Freund, 1997) and can be formulated within the framework of statistical modeling as iteratively fitting parts of the model using the residuals of the previous iteration as the response of the current iteration (Friedman et al., 2000; Friedman, 2001). The basic concept of boosting is to use a set of so-called base learners $f(·)$ and combine them to gain a strong learner. A base learner can be a function of a set of covariates or even of a single covariate. In this paper, we will consider only linear base learners that are able to express a linear effect of the considered covariate(s). In the linear model, a single linear base learner for the $c$-th component is, for example, $f(x_c, β_c) = x_c β_c$.

Tutz & Binder (2006) introduced likelihood-based boosting for generalized linear models (GLM). Instead of the iteratively refitting of residuals, they use the linear predictor $η^{(b−1)}$ of the previous iteration $(b−1)$ as an offset that adds up to the linear predictor $η^{(b)}$ of the current iteration $b$. We describe a component-wise boosting algorithm, where component-wise means that in each iteration only a single component is considered at a time.
Component-Wise Boosting

Step 1: Initialization

Fit the intercept model \( \mu^{(0)} = h(\eta^{(0)}) = h(x_0 \beta_0), \) with \( x_0 = (x_{1,0}, \ldots, x_{J,0})^T = (1, \ldots, 1)^T \) by maximizing the likelihood to obtain the estimated intercept \( \hat{\beta}_0. \) Initialize \( \hat{\beta}(0) = (\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \ldots, \hat{\beta}_C)^T = (\hat{\beta}_0, 0, \ldots, 0)^T \) and \( \hat{\eta}^{(0)} = x_0 \hat{\beta}. \)

Step 2: For each boosting iteration \( b = 1, 2, \ldots, b_{\text{stop}} \)

(a) **Estimation:** Fit the models

\[
\mu = h(\hat{\eta}^{(b-1)} + f(x_c, \beta_c))
\]

for all components \( c = 0, \ldots, C \) by one-step Fisher scoring, where \( \hat{\eta}^{(b-1)} \) is used as an offset. This yields the one-step Fisher scoring estimates \( \hat{\beta}_c \) for the corresponding \( c \)-th component. In general, the Fisher scoring algorithm is an iterative estimation procedure and uses the Fisher-matrix and the score function (for more details, see Tutz & Binder, 2006).

(b) **Selection:** From the models fitted in (a), choose the component \( c^* \) that yields the best fit with respect to some criteria (e.g. the model with the lowest deviance, AIC or BIC) and set

\[
\hat{\beta}_{c^*} = (0, \ldots, 0, \hat{\beta}_{c^*}, 0, \ldots, 0)^T.
\]

(c) **Update:**

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{\eta}^{(b)} &= \hat{\eta}^{(b-1)} + X \hat{\beta}_{c^*}, \text{ with } X = [x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_C] \\
\hat{\beta}^{(b)} &= \hat{\beta}^{(b-1)} + \hat{\beta}_{c^*}.
\end{align*}
\]

4.2. Boosting Ordinal BTL Models

The boosting algorithm described in this section is a component-wise boosting procedure based on the pomBoost algorithm (Zahid & Tutz, 2013), which has been developed for the cumulative logit model. It allows for ordinal responses and can be extended to the adjacent categories logit model by modifying the link function \( g = (g_1, \ldots, g_{K-1})^T \) to obtain the adjacent categories logit model (see Section 2.2). We will use a specific feature of the pomBoost algorithm. It allows to split the covariates into two groups to distinguish between obligatory covariates that have to be included in the model and optional covariates that might be of relevance and to which the variable selection should be applied. In our context, the object parameters \( \gamma^T = (\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_{M-1}) \) are considered as obligatory covariates and the subject-specific covariates \( \gamma^T_p = (\gamma_{1,p}, \ldots, \gamma_{M-1,p}) \), for all \( p = 1, \ldots, P \) are considered as optional.
covariates. To be more flexible, one can divide the $P$ subject-specific covariates into two exclusive sets $V_{\text{grouped}}$ and $V_{\text{single}}$, with $V_{\text{grouped}} \cup V_{\text{single}} = \{1, \ldots, P\}$. This will allow for selecting two different types of covariates, namely

1. $V_{\text{grouped}}$: subject-specific covariates, for which all the associated subject-object interactions should be selected *simultaneously* and

2. $V_{\text{single}}$: subject-specific covariates, for which all associated subject-object interactions should be selected *separately*.

The reason for distinguishing these two groups is that the interaction between the $p$-th subject-specific covariate and the objects is given by the set of parameters $\gamma_1,p, \ldots, \gamma_{M-1,p}$. If the subject-specific covariate is considered as being from $V_{\text{grouped}}$, the parameters are included as a set or left out, which yields variable selection. However, if the subject-specific covariate is considered as being from $V_{\text{single}}$, single parameters from the set are included or left out, which yields selection of subject-object interactions.

The boosting algorithm below uses the design matrix for paired comparisons $X = [Q, X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_P]$, where $Q$ contains the components for the thresholds, $X_0$ contains the components the object parameters, and $X_1, \ldots, X_P$ contain the components for the subject-specific covariates (for more details on the multivariate structure see appendix A). Specifically, all matrices $X_p$, with $p = 1, \ldots, P$, have $M-1$ columns, where each column is denoted by $x_{p,m}$ and reflects a single subject-object interaction between the $p$-th subject-specific covariate and object $m$. Thus, these matrices have the form $X_p = [x_{p,1}, \ldots, x_{p,M-1}]$.

The algorithm proposed is the following

**BTLboost**

**Step 1: Initialization**

Fit the intercept model $\mu^{(0)} = h(\eta^{(0)}) = h(Q\theta)$ by maximizing the likelihood in order to obtain estimates for the threshold parameters $\theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_q)^T$. Initialize

$\hat{\beta}^{(0)} = (\hat{\theta}^T, \hat{\gamma}^T_1, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}^T_P) = (\hat{\theta}_1, \ldots, \hat{\theta}_q, 0, \ldots, 0)^T$ and $\hat{\eta}^{(0)} = X\hat{\beta}^{(0)}$.

**Step 2: For each boosting iteration $b = 1, 2, \ldots, b_{\text{stop}}$**

**Step 2.1: Update of threshold and object parameters**

(a) **Estimation**: Fit the model $\mu = h(\hat{\eta}^{(b-1)} + Q\theta + X_0\gamma)$ by one-step Fisher scoring, where $\hat{\eta}^{(b-1)}$ is used as an offset. One obtains the estimates $\hat{\theta}^T = (\hat{\theta}_1, \ldots, \hat{\theta}_q), \hat{\gamma}^T = (\hat{\gamma}_1, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}_{M-1})$ and defines

$\hat{\beta}_0^T = (\hat{\theta}^T, \hat{\gamma}^T_1, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}^T_P) = (\hat{\theta}_1, \ldots, \hat{\theta}_q, \hat{\gamma}_1, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}_{M-1}, 0, \ldots, 0)$.
Step 2.2: Update of parameters for the optional covariates

(a) **Estimation:** For each subject-specific covariate \( p = 1, \ldots, P \), fit the models

\[
\mu = \begin{cases} 
    h(\hat{\eta}^{(b)} + X_p \gamma_p) & \text{if } p \in V_{\text{grouped}} \\
    h(\hat{\eta}^{(b)} + x_{p,m} \gamma_{m,p}) & \forall m \in \{1, \ldots, M - 1\} \quad \text{if } p \in V_{\text{single}}
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \hat{\eta}^{(b)} \) is used as offset. The estimated parameters \( \hat{\gamma}_p \) and \( \hat{\gamma}_{m,p} \) are obtained by one-step Fisher scoring.

(b) **Selection:** From the models fitted in (a), choose the model that maximally improves the fit with respect to some criteria (e.g. deviance, AIC or BIC) and set \( X_{\text{best}} = x_{p^*,m^*} \) if the \((p^*, m^*)\)-th subject-object interaction yields the best fit or \( X_{\text{best}} = X_{p^*} \) if the set of subject-object interactions associated with the \( p^* \)-th subject-specific covariate yields the best fit. This yields the estimated parameter vector

\[
\hat{\beta}_{\text{best}}^\top = (\hat{\theta}^\top, \hat{\gamma}_1^\top, \ldots, \hat{\gamma}_P^\top) = \begin{cases} 
    (0, \ldots, 0, \hat{\gamma}_{p^*,m^*}, 0, \ldots, 0) & \text{if } X_{\text{best}} = x_{p^*,m^*} \\
    (0, \ldots, 0, \hat{\gamma}_{p^*}^\top, 0, \ldots, 0) & \text{if } X_{\text{best}} = X_{p^*}
\end{cases}
\]

(c) **Update:**

\[
\hat{\eta}^{(b)} = \hat{\eta}^{(b-1)} + X \hat{\beta}_0 \\
\hat{\beta}^{(b)} = \hat{\beta}^{(b-1)} + \hat{\beta}_0
\]

Within each boosting iteration, the algorithm switches between two stages. The first stage (Step 2.1) considers only the object parameters along with the threshold parameters for an update, so that these parameters will always be part of the paired comparison model. In the second stage (Step 2.2), we consider the subject-specific covariates that might enter into the paired comparison model. If the associated subject-object interactions is to be selected simultaneously \( (p \in V_{\text{grouped}}) \), the full subject-specific parameter vector \( \gamma_p \) is updated. If it is to be selected separately \( (p \in V_{\text{single}}) \), only a or a single subject-object interaction parameter \( \gamma_{p,m} \) is updated. This procedure is repeated until a predefined number of boosting iterations \( b_{\text{stop}} \) is reached. In the next section, we discuss how the optimal number of boosting iterations can be obtained.
4.3. Stopping Criteria

The number of boosting iterations \( b_{\text{stop}} \) is the main tuning parameter in boosting. Typically, a sufficiently high number of iterations is chosen, the optimal number of iterations \( b^*_{\text{stop}} \) is then determined afterwards. Common choices for determining \( b^*_{\text{stop}} \) are either information criteria, such as the AIC or BIC, or cross-validation. In this paper, we consider only the two information criteria mentioned above, which are known measures for the trade-off between goodness-of-fit and model complexity. The computation of both criteria is based on the deviance \( \text{Dev}(\hat{\eta}^{(b)}) \) and the degrees of freedom \( df(b) \) after \( b \) boosting iterations.

The AIC and BIC after \( b \) iterations are given by

\[
AIC(b) = \text{Dev}(\hat{\eta}^{(b)}) + 2 \cdot df(b) \tag{11}
\]

and

\[
BIC(b) = \text{Dev}(\hat{\eta}^{(b)}) + \log(n) \cdot df(b), \tag{12}
\]

where \( n \) is the number of observations, or, in our case, the number of comparisons that are made by all subjects, namely \( n = \binom{M}{2} \cdot I \). The penalty term, which is 2 for the AIC and \( \log(n) \) for the BIC, controls the model complexity, so that, in general, higher values for the penalty term result in sparser models.

Since the boosting algorithm is an iterative procedure, the true degrees of freedom \( df(b) \) after \( b \) boosting iterations are unknown and need to be approximated. In the literature, it is often suggested to use the trace of the hat matrix after \( b \) boosting iterations as an approximation for the degrees of freedom (Tutz & Binder, 2006; Bühlmann & Hothorn, 2007a). Thus, a possible approximation of the degrees of freedom is given by

\[
df(b) \approx df_{\text{trace}}(b) = \text{trace}(H_b),
\]

where \( H_b \) is the approximate hat matrix after \( b \) iterations. A detailed derivation of the formula for this hat matrix can be found in Zahid & Tutz (2013).

An alternative, computationally simpler method proposed by Bühlmann & Hothorn (2007b) uses the number of parameters that have been selected until the \( b \)-th boosting iteration. That is, one uses

\[
df(b) \approx df_{\text{actset}}(b) = q + (M - 1) + \sum_{m,p} I(\hat{y}_{m,p}^{(b)} \neq 0), \tag{13}
\]

where \( \hat{y}_{m,p}^{(b)} \) are all non-zero subject-object parameters of the \( b \)-th iteration, and \( I(\cdot) \) is the indicator function, such that \( I(\cdot) = 1 \) if the expression \( (\cdot) \) is true and \( I(\cdot) = 0 \) else. To limit the computational burden, we use this more convenient method to approximate the degrees of freedom in the simulation and application section.

The optimal stopping iteration \( b^*_{\text{stop}} \) is chosen among the iterations \( b = 1, \ldots, b_{\text{stop}} \) as the one yielding the best (=lowest) AIC or BIC, respectively. Thus, one has to compute the AIC or BIC for all iterations.

10
The optimal stopping iteration is then determined afterwards using

\[ b^*_{\text{stop}} = b \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{AIC}(b^*_{\text{stop}}) = \min_{b=1,\ldots, b_{\text{stop}}} \text{AIC}(b), \]

when the AIC is chosen as stopping criterion or

\[ b^*_{\text{stop}} = b \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{BIC}(b^*_{\text{stop}}) = \min_{b=1,\ldots, b_{\text{stop}}} \text{BIC}(b), \]

when the BIC is chosen as stopping criterion, respectively.

5. Simulation

5.1. Simulation Setup

We investigate the performance of the boosting algorithm for two simulation settings with 50 simulations for each setting. For the simulated data, we generate 20 subject-specific covariates from the following distributions \( X_1, \ldots, X_5 \sim B(1, 0.3), \ X_6, \ldots, X_{10} \sim B(1, 0.5) \) and \( X_{11}, \ldots, X_{20} \sim N(0, 1) \) and use \( M = 6 \) objects that have to be compared by \( I = 200 \) subjects. We use \( K = 3 \) response categories, so that each simulated subject has the possibility to prefer the first object, neither of the objects, or the second object. In both settings, the response is computed by assuming an underlying cumulative BTL model

\[
\logit(\mathbb{P}(Y_{rs} \leq k|(r,s),i)) = \theta_k + \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} x_m^{(r,s)} \gamma_m + \sum_{p=1}^P \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} x_{i,p} x_m^{(r,s)} \gamma_{m,p}, \quad k = 1, 2, 3,
\]

with the threshold parameters \( \theta_1 = -\theta_2 = -0.8 \) and the object parameters \( \gamma = (\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_{M-1})^T = (1.5, 1.1, 0.7, -0.7, -1)^T \). The subject-specific parameter vectors for the two settings can be found in Table 1. For each subject-specific covariate from setting 1, the associated subject-object interaction parameters are selected simultaneously, that is \( V_{\text{grouped}} = \{1, \ldots, 20\} \) and \( V_{\text{single}} = \emptyset \). In setting 2, the subject-object interaction parameters are selected separately, so that \( V_{\text{grouped}} = \emptyset \) and \( V_{\text{single}} = \{1, \ldots, 20\} \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting 1 (grouped)</th>
<th>Setting 2 (single)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \gamma_1 )</td>
<td>( (0.56, -0.66, -0.58, -0.68, 0.69)^T )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \gamma_2 )</td>
<td>( (0.29, 0.19, 0.24, 0.21, -0.12)^T )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \gamma_6 )</td>
<td>( (-0.48, -0.44, -0.43, 0.5, 0.43)^T )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \gamma_{11} )</td>
<td>( (0.49, -0.48, 0.44, 0.46, 0.3)^T )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Influential subject-specific parameter vectors \( \gamma_p \) for both simulation settings.

Therefore, only \( X_1, X_2, X_6 \) and \( X_{11} \) are the influential variables that should be identified by the BTL-boost algorithm. As variable selection criterion in each boosting iteration, we use the deviance, which often yields the fully saturated model when the stopping iteration is sufficiently high, e.g. \( b_{\text{stop}} \to \infty \)
(see Bühlmann & Yu, 2003). Therefore, there is a need for determining the optimal number of iterations \( b_{\text{stop}} \) using a stopping criterion that chooses the best model among all iterations. In the next section, we compare the results when the AIC and BIC are used as stopping criteria. The degrees of freedoms for the computation of the AIC and BIC are approximated as in equation (13).

5.2. Results

To investigate the performance of the algorithm, we compute the hit rate

\[
\text{HR} = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} I(\gamma_{m,p} \neq 0) \cdot I(\hat{\gamma}_{m,p} \neq 0)}{\sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} I(\gamma_{m,p} \neq 0)},
\]

which represents the percentage of correctly identified influential subject-object interactions, and the false alarm rate

\[
\text{FAR} = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} I(\gamma_{m,p} = 0) \cdot I(\hat{\gamma}_{m,p} \neq 0)}{\sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} I(\gamma_{m,p} = 0)},
\]

which represents the percentage of non-influential subject-object interactions that are mistakenly identified as influential subject-object interactions. The closer the hit rate to 1 and the closer the false alarm rate to 0, the better, because then the model contains many influential subject-object interactions and few non-influential subject-object interactions at the same time.

The averaged hit rates and false alarm rates for the 50 simulations are summarized in Table 2. In setting 1, the hit rate is 1 for the AIC and almost 1 for the BIC, however, at the same time, the BIC has much lower false alarm rate and therefore using the BIC seems more appropriate. In setting 2, the hit rate for the AIC is 0.0584 higher than for the BIC, however, the false alarm rate is more than three times higher for the AIC than for the BIC. Thus, the question of whether the AIC or BIC should be used, depends on whether one is interested in identifying most of the influential subject-object interactions (then the AIC seems appropriate) or in identifying many influential subject-object interactions and few non-influential subject-object interactions at the same time (then the BIC seems appropriate). In both settings, the false alarm rate is much higher when the AIC is used instead of the BIC. This suggests that more non-influential subject-object interactions are included in the final model determined by the AIC.

Figure 1 illustrates an exemplary coefficient build-up of the estimated parameters for one out of the 50 simulations. As can be seen the non-influential subject-object interaction parameters (dashed gray lines) enter the model in higher boosting iterations and their parameter estimates are small because they are either selected and updated in higher boosting iterations, or they are updated only a few number of times. Since the AIC determines a higher optimal boosting iteration than the BIC, the figure confirms that the final model based on the AIC criterion contains more non-influential subject-object interactions.
than the final model based on the BIC criterion.

To measure the discrepancy of the estimates with the true parameter values, we use the MSE. Before computing the MSE for the final model, a final refitting step using the selected subject-object interaction parameters is done. Figure 2 displays the MSE for all 50 simulations and suggests that the BIC performs better than the AIC because of smaller MSEs in all settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stopping criterion</th>
<th>Setting 1 (grouped)</th>
<th>Setting 2 (single)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HR</td>
<td>FAR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIC</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.1475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIC</td>
<td>0.9950</td>
<td>0.0025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Averaged hit rate and false alarm rate for different stopping criteria in both settings.

Figure 1: Norm of the estimated subject-specific parameter vector (left figure) and estimated values for subject-object interaction parameters (right figure) vs. norm of the parameter vector containing all subject-object parameters. The dashed gray lines are the paths for the non-influential subject-specific parameters (left figure) and for the non-influential subject-object interactions (right figure), and the vertical lines indicate the optimal boosting iteration when either the AIC or the BIC is used as stopping criterion.
6. CEMS Data

To illustrate that our variable selection method works, we use the *Community of European management schools (CEMS)* data from Dittrich et al. (1998), which was collected in a survey of 303 students of the Vienna University of Economics. The aim of the study was to investigate the preferences of students for studying at least one semester abroad in one of 6 different universities (London, Paris, Barcelona, St.Gallen, Milan and Stockholm) and to establish an overall ranking of these universities. For each of the \( \binom{M}{2} = \binom{6}{2} = 15 \) comparisons of universities, the students could either prefer the first university, none of both universities, or the second university. Additionally, the data contains \( P = 8 \) subject-specific different characteristics of the students (subject-specific covariates). An overview is given in Table 3.
Table 3: Description of subject-specific covariates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Covariate</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STUD</td>
<td>Main discipline of study</td>
<td>0 = other, 1 = commerce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>Knowledge of English</td>
<td>0 = good, 1 = poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRA</td>
<td>Knowledge of French</td>
<td>0 = good, 1 = poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPA</td>
<td>Knowledge of Spanish</td>
<td>0 = good, 1 = poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITA</td>
<td>Knowledge of Italian</td>
<td>0 = good, 1 = poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WOR</td>
<td>Full-time employment while studying</td>
<td>0 = no, 1 = yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEG</td>
<td>Intention to take an international degree</td>
<td>0 = no, 1 = yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEX</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0 = female, 1 = male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A model that includes all these subject-specific covariates has a total number of 40 subject-object interaction parameters. To identify only influential subject-specific covariates, we apply the BTLboost algorithm with two different settings.

In the first setting, we use $V_{\text{grouped}} = \{\text{STUD, WOR, DEG, SEX}\}$ and $V_{\text{single}} = \{\text{ENG, FRA, SPA, ITA}\}$. Therefore, subject-specific covariates containing information about the knowledge of a specific language are included in the set $V_{\text{single}}$ and are selected interaction-wise, so that the final model does not necessarily contain all subject-object interactions that are associated to a specific language. In contrast to this, the set $V_{\text{grouped}}$ contains subject-specific covariates that are selected along with all associated subject-object interactions. This distinction was chosen because language specific covariates may interact stronger with one university. For example, students with poor knowledge of Italian may have a lower tendency to preferring the university of Milan.

In the second setting, we use $V_{\text{single}} = \{\text{STUD, WOR, DEG, SEX, ENG, FRA, SPA, ITA}\}$ and $V_{\text{grouped}} = \emptyset$. Thus, for each subject-specific covariate only the associated subject-object interactions are considered. For both settings, we apply the BTLboost algorithm to the cumulative BTL model using the AIC and BIC as stopping criteria. The estimated parameters after a final refitting step can be found in Table 4 and Table 5. Because the BIC performed better in the simulation study, both tables show only the estimated parameters when using the BIC as stopping criterion.

The results show that the ranking of objects (here universities), which is based on ordering the estimates for $\hat{\gamma}$, is the same for both settings. Milan has the greatest estimate (e.g. $\hat{\gamma}_{\text{Milan}} = 1.9781$ from Table 4) and thus the most preferred university is Milan, followed by London, Barcelona, Paris, St.Gallen and the reference university Stockholm, for which $\gamma_{\text{Stockholm}} = 0$. However, the ranking changes for different values of the subject-specific covariates. For example, if we consider students who are employed full-time while studying ($\text{WOR} = 1$), the ranking is based on $\hat{\gamma} + \hat{\gamma}_{\text{WOR}}$ yielding a different university ranking for those students.

The estimates $\hat{\gamma}_{\text{London, ENG}}, \hat{\gamma}_{\text{Paris, FRA}}, \hat{\gamma}_{\text{Milan, ITA}}$ and $\hat{\gamma}_{\text{Barcelona, SPA}}$ are all negative valued, and therefore they indicate that students with poor knowledge of English, French, Italian and Spanish have a
lower tendency to prefer the universities in London, Paris, Milan and Barcelona, respectively.

The main difference between setting 1 and setting 2 is that the subject-object interactions associated with the subject-specific covariates STUD, WOR, DEG and SEX were selected simultaneously in setting 1 and separately in setting 2. Nevertheless, all subject-object interactions that are highlighted in boldface in Table 4 were also identified in setting 2. These subject-object interactions are the ones with the largest absolute value within the associated subject-specific parameter. Thus, the model from setting 2 was able to identify the subject-object interactions from setting 1 with the strongest effect.

**Setting 1 (grouped)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{DEG})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{SEX})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{STUD})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{WOR})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{ENG})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{FRA})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{ITA})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{SPA})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>-0.2589</td>
<td>-0.3438</td>
<td>0.2852</td>
<td>0.4469</td>
<td>-0.2579</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.9585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>-0.0358</td>
<td>-0.3229</td>
<td>0.8240</td>
<td>1.5443</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.1920</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.2459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milan</td>
<td>-0.0756</td>
<td><strong>-0.4467</strong></td>
<td>0.0330</td>
<td>1.1407</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.6126</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.9781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>-0.1100</td>
<td>-0.3149</td>
<td>0.1048</td>
<td>1.2047</td>
<td>-0.3655</td>
<td>0.2479</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.4211</td>
<td>1.9380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St.Gallen</td>
<td><strong>0.3990</strong></td>
<td>-0.0579</td>
<td>-0.2931</td>
<td>0.0019</td>
<td>0.1779</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.4935</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[\hat{\theta}_1 = -\hat{\theta}_2 = -0.2762\]

Table 4: Estimated parameters and selected subject-object interactions after a final refitting step for setting 1. For the subject-specific covariates DEG, SEX, STUD and WOR, the associated subject-object interactions with the largest absolute value are highlighted in boldface.

**Setting 2 (single)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{DEG})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{SEX})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{STUD})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{WOR})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{ENG})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{FRA})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{ITA})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma}_{SPA})</th>
<th>(\hat{\gamma})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-0.2828</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.8104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.7418</td>
<td>1.3561</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.2347</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.1137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milan</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-0.2556</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.9994</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.5755</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.8323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1042</td>
<td>1.0412</td>
<td>-0.3659</td>
<td>0.2044</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1.4243</td>
<td>1.7942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St.Gallen</td>
<td>0.4933</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-0.3907</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1754</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.4628</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[\hat{\theta}_1 = -\hat{\theta}_2 = -0.2754\]

Table 5: Estimated parameters and selected subject-object interactions after a final refitting step for setting 2.

### 7. Concluding Remarks

Boosting is a technique that addresses the estimation problems in high dimensional settings and provides variable selection when using component-wise boosting. In this paper, we proposed a new es-
timation procedure for ordinal BTL models based on this technique. The simulation results showed 
that the method performs well concerning the identification of influential covariates. In the application 
section, the selected subject-object interactions are similar to those from the final model of Dittrich 
et al. (1998), although they used a different model and a variable selection approach based on forward 
selection and backward elimination. In the algorithm proposed here, the variable selection is carried out 
during the fitting process. Thus, it can also be applied in cases, where the maximum likelihood estimate 
does not exist, for example, when the data contains more subject-specific covariates than observations.

The model estimation for ordinal BTL models were computed with the ordBTL package (Casalicchio, 2013), which is implemented in the statistical software R (R Core Team, 2013) and is able to 
fit models with any number of response categories. Other packages for model estimation, which can 
handle responses up to 3 categories but have no built-in variable selection procedure, are prefmod 
(Hatzinger & Dittrich, 2012) and BradleyTerry2 (Turner & Firth, 2012).

A. Matrix Representation

The representation used here is that of a multivariate generalized linear model, which has, in terms of 
paired comparisons, the following basic form

\[ g(\pi_{ij}^{(r,s)}) = \eta_{ij}^{(r,s)} = X_{ij}^{(r,s)}\beta, \]  

(16)

where \( g \) is a \((K-1)\)-dimensional link function, \( \beta \) is the vector of coefficients, \( \pi_{ij}^{(r,s)} \) is the vector of response probabilities, \( \eta_{ij}^{(r,s)} \) is the subject-specific linear predictor, and \( X_{ij}^{(r,s)} \) is the design matrix for the pair \((r, s)\) and subject \( i \). If the design matrix and the link 
function \( g \) is specified, the Fisher scoring algorithm for multivariate maximum likelihood estimation 
can be used to obtain the parameter estimates (see Fahrmeir & Tutz, 2001; Tutz, 2012).

Before describing the design matrix into more detail, we first let \( \theta^T = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_q) \), with \( q = \lfloor \frac{K-1}{2} \rfloor \), 
denote a vector containing all threshold parameters we want to estimate and \( \tilde{\theta}^T = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_{K-1}) \) denote 
a vector containing all threshold parameters in the model, including those that are restricted by the 
symmetry constraints from equation (5) and (6). For each pair \((r, s)\) and each subject \( i \), we define the 
matrix \( Q_{ij}^{(r,s)} \) of dimension \((K-1) \times q\), such that 

\[ Q_{ij}^{(r,s)}\theta = \tilde{\theta} \]  

(17)

satisfies the symmetry constraints and ensures that the thresholds will be symmetric. Thus, the matrix 
can be seen as a so-called constraint matrix (for more details see Yee, 2010).

To obtain the general structure of \( Q_{ij}^{(r,s)} \), we use the null vector \( \theta_q^0 = (0, \ldots, 0) \) of length \( q \) and the
matrices

\[
I_{q \times q} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
0 & \cdots & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\quad \text{and} \quad
J_{q \times q} = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & \cdots & 0 & -1 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
-1 & \cdots & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

The matrix \(Q^{(r,s),i}\) satisfying equation (17) is a block matrix that has the same form for each pair \((r, s)\) and each subject \(i\), namely

\[
Q^{(r,s),i} = \begin{bmatrix}
I_{q \times q} \\
0_q^\top \\
J_{q \times q}
\end{bmatrix}
\text{ if } K \text{ is even and } Q^{(r,s),i} = \begin{bmatrix}
I_{q \times q} \\
J_{q \times q}
\end{bmatrix}
\text{ if } K \text{ is odd.}
\]

The subject-specific design matrix used in equation (16) is given by

\[
X^{(r,s),i} = \left[ Q^{(r,s),i}, I_{K-1} \otimes (X^{(r,s),i})^\top, I_{K-1} \otimes (X^{(r,s),i})^\top, \ldots, I_{K-1} \otimes (X^{(r,s),i})^\top \right],
\]

where the vector \(I_{K-1} = (1, \ldots, 1)^\top\) has the length \(K - 1\).

In a complete paired comparison experiment, we have \(\binom{M}{2}\) comparisons for each subject, where \(\binom{M}{2} = \frac{M!}{2!(M-2)!}\) denotes the binomial coefficient representing the number of all distinct pairs when comparing \(M\) different objects, namely \((1, 2), (1, 3), \ldots, (r, s), \ldots, (M - 1, M)\), for all \(r < s\). The complete design matrix \(X\) contains information about all possible comparisons made by any subject and has therefore \(I \cdot \binom{M}{2}\) rows. It can be written as a block matrix of the form

\[
X = \begin{bmatrix}
X^{(1,2),1} & Q^{(1,2),1} & X^{(1,2),1} & \cdots & X^{(1,2),1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
X^{(M-1,M),1} & X^{(M-1,M),1} & \cdots & \cdots & X^{(M-1,M),1} \\
X^{(1,2),J} & X^{(1,2),J} & \cdots & \cdots & X^{(1,2),J} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
X^{(M-1,M),J} & X^{(M-1,M),J} & \cdots & \cdots & X^{(M-1,M),J} \\
Q & X_0 & X_1 & \cdots & X_p
\end{bmatrix},
\]

where \(Q\) is the matrix for the thresholds \(\theta\), \(X_0\) is the matrix for the object parameters \(\gamma\), and \(X_1, \ldots, X_p\) are matrices for the subject-specific parameters \(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_p\).

The linear predictor \(\eta = (\eta^{(1,2),1\top}, \ldots, \eta^{(M-1,M),1\top}, \ldots, \eta^{(1,2),J\top}, \ldots, \eta^{(M-1,M),J\top})^{\top}\) contains all com-
parisons made by any subject and has the form \( \eta = X\beta \), with the vector \( \beta = (\theta^\top, \gamma_1^\top, \ldots, \gamma_P^\top) \) containing all parameters we want to estimate, that is, all \( q \) threshold parameters, all \( M - 1 \) object parameters and all \( M - 1 \) subject-object interaction parameters for each of the \( P \) subject-specific covariates.

References


