Modeling Tick Populations: An Ecological Test Case for Gradient Boosted Trees

William Manley, Tam Tran, Melissa Prusinski, Dustin Brisson

August 25, 2023

#### Abstract

General linear models have been the foundational statistical framework used to discover the 6 ecological processes that explain the distribution and abundance of natural populations. Analyses of the rapidly expanding cache of environmental and ecological data, however, require advanced 8 statistical methods to contend with complexities inherent to extremely large natural data sets. Modern machine learning frameworks such as gradient boosted trees efficiently identify complex 10 ecological relationships in massive data sets, which are expected to result in accurate predictions 11 of the distribution and abundance of organisms in nature. However, rigorous assessments of the 12 theoretical advantages of these methodologies on natural data sets are rare. Here we compare 13 the abilities of gradient boosted and linear models to identify environmental features that explain 14 observed variations in the distribution and abundance of blacklegged tick (Ixodes scapularis) popu-15 lations in a data set collected across New York State over a ten-year period. The gradient boosted 16 and linear models use similar environmental features to explain tick demography, although the 17 gradient boosted models found non-linear relationships and interactions that are difficult to antic-18 ipate and often impractical to identify with a linear modeling framework. Further, the gradient 19 boosted models predicted the distribution and abundance of ticks in years and areas beyond the 20 training data with much greater accuracy than their linear model counterparts. The flexible gra-21 dient boosting framework also permitted additional model types that provide practical advantages 22 for tick surveillance and public health. The results highlight the potential of gradient boosted 23 models to discover novel ecological phenomena affecting pathogen demography and as a powerful 24 public health tool to mitigate disease risks. 25

## <sup>26</sup> Introduction

1

2

3

Statistical models have been a cornerstone of understanding ecological phenomena in the natural 27 world. Ecological models traditionally focus on identifying the biotic and abiotic drivers of natural 28 phenomena and on explaining the distribution and abundance of populations (Austin et al., 1984; 29 Elith and Leathwick, 2009; Harvey et al., 1980; McLain et al., 1995; Tran et al., 2021a). Classical 30 generalized linear modeling has resulted in many foundational ecological discoveries (Abbott et al., 31 1977; Austin et al., 1990; Elith and Leathwick, 2009; Kleiber, 1947; Root, 1988; Tilman et al., 1996). 32 This modeling framework, however, has several technical disadvantages including strict assumptions 33 about error distributions, sensitivity to outliers, and an assumption of linear relationships between 34 variables that can limit predictive power (Hastie et al., 2001; McCullagh and Nelder, 1989; Naghibi 35 and Pourghasemi, 2015; Olden et al., 2008; Yee and Mitchell, 1991). The introduction of machine 36 learning methods such as gradient boosted trees overcomes many of these limitations, although direct 37 comparisons of the effectiveness of machine learning methods and linear models on natural data sets 38 are rare (De'ath, 2007; Elith et al., 2008; Elith et al., 2006; Friedman, 2001). In this study, we compare 39 a gradient boosting machine learning method (Pedregosa et al., 2011) with comparable general linear 40

<sup>1</sup> models in their ability to identify environmental features affecting population dynamics and their ability

<sup>2</sup> to predict the distribution and abundance of blacklegged ticks (*Ixodes scapularis*), an arthropod vector

<sup>3</sup> of multiple human pathogens.

Many machine-learning frameworks such as neural networks, random forests, and gradient boosted trees are well suited to investigate ecological phenomena in the increasingly data-rich research envi-5 ronment (Cutler et al., 2007; Farley et al., 2018; Friedman, 2001; Han et al., 2015; Rammer and Seidl, 2019: Stephens et al., 2017: Tran et al., 2021b). Among machine learning methods gradient boosted 7 trees are well reputed for very high predictive accuracy and accurate identification of nonlinear rela-8 tionships on tabular data (Bentéjac et al., 2021; Elith et al., 2008; Grinsztajn et al., 2022). Gradient 9 boosting is an efficient machine learning algorithm that can analyze large data sets, identify complex 10 relationships among variables, and make highly accurate spatio-temporal forecasts. The power of the 11 gradient boosting algorithm is in part derived from their ability to automatically identify non-linear 12 and non-additive relationships by combining hundreds of decision trees into a highly accurate ensemble 13 (De'ath, 2007; De'ath and Fabricius, 2000). These models have several advantages over traditional 14 linear models including that they accept many data types, are unconstrained by data and error dis-15 tributions, and automatically detect nonlinear and interactive relationships. Further, cross-validation 16 and advances in interpretative machine learning algorithms have addressed prior concerns that gra-17 dient boosted algorithms are prone to over-fitting and are too complex to derive ecological inferences 18 (Elith et al., 2008; Lundberg and Lee, 2017; Rudin, 2019; Ryo et al., 2021). 19

The ability of linear and gradient boosted models to identify ecologically relevant features or to 20 forecast demographic changes is rarely assessed in natural systems, despite the availability of appro-21 priate data sets (though see Becker et al., 2020; Elith et al., 2006; Escobar et al., 2018; Qiao et al., 22 2015; Shabani et al., 2016). On one such dataset, linear models that explored the explanatory power of 23 217 environmental variables on the distribution and abundance of *I. scapularis* ticks identified several 24 geographical, temporal, seasonal, environmental, climatic, and landscape features that accounted for 25 the majority of the natural variance in tick demography (Tran et al., 2021a). These linear models 26 accurately predicted the distribution and abundance of tick populations in future years, providing 27 a potentially powerful public health tool to mitigate human disease risks from I. scapularis-borne 28 pathogens including the agents causing Lyme disease, babesiosis, and anaplasmosis (Burgdorfer et al., 29 1982; Spielman et al., 1979; Telford et al., 1996). However, the data distributions assumed in this 30 linear model framework required separate distribution and abundance models and the default assump-31 tions of linearity and additivity limited the exploration of non-linear and non-additive effects which 32 are ubiquitous in ecological systems (Hastie et al., 2001; Levin, 1998; McCullagh and Nelder, 1989; 33 Olden et al., 2008; Tran et al., 2021a; Yee and Mitchell, 1991). 34

Here, we use gradient boosted trees to investigate the relationship between environmental fea-35 tures and the distribution and abundance of *I. scapularis* using the same dataset previously analyzed 36 with general linear models (Tran et al., 2021a). The gradient boosted models were used to forecast 37 the distribution and abundance of ticks in areas and years not used to build the models. Both the 38 environmental features determined to influence tick demographics and the predictive performance of 39 the gradient boosted tree models were compared to linear models trained and validated using the 40 same data sets (Tran et al., 2021a). Additionally, we utilize the flexibility of the gradient boosting 41 framework to build and validate two additional models that offer practical benefits for disease surveil-42 lance, including ease of interpretation and the ability to simultaneously predict tick distribution and 43 abundance. 44

# $_{1}$ Methods

## 2 Study system

The presence and abundance of host-seeking nymphs were determined at 532 unique locations between 2008 and 2018 using the standardized dragging, flagging, and walking survey protocols described previously (Prusinski et al., 2014; Tran et al., 2021a). Locations were sampled every 1–5 years with an average of 4.7 visits per site between 2008 and 2018. The environmental features investigated as explanatory factors in our statistical models can be broadly categorized as geographical, tempoaral, seasonal, climatic, and landscape features. The tick density and environmental data used in this study are identical to those previously described (Tran et al., 2021a) to rigorously evaluate the relative efficacy of the gradient boosted and linear statistical models.

## 11 Distribution and Abundance Models

Independent distribution and abundance gradient boosted models were built to allow direct com-12 parisons with the previously published distribution and abundance linear models (Tran et al., 2021a). 13 A combined distribution and abundance linear model was not built, as a log-transformation of tick 14 abundance was used to approximate a normal distribution and thus sites where ticks were absent could 15 not be accommodated (Tran et al., 2021a). Data were also processed as described previously (Tran 16 17 et al., 2021a) to aid comparisons between gradient boosted and linear models. As examples, ticks were considered "present" at a site in a given year if nymphs were detected at any of the multiple site 18 visits within the year and the visit with the greatest nymphal abundance estimate was used as the 19 abundance value for that site in that year. For a summary of built models see (Supplemental Table 20 2).21

Training of gradient boosted models included feature selection, hyper-parameter tuning, and 22 model fitting to the training data set (data from 2008-2017). Environmental features were selected 23 separately for each model using a step-forward feature selection algorithm that optimizes average pre-24 dictive performance on a 5-fold cross-validation data set (Raschka, 2018). Briefly, each of the 5 folds of 25 the cross-validation data set was generated by randomly partitioning the training data into subsets for 26 model fitting (80% of data) and evaluation (20% of data), such that each fold would contain a unique 27 20% of the training data for evaluation. Models were limited to 30 or fewer environmental features to 28 reduce the probability of over-fitting (Cawley and Talbot, 2010). Hyper-parameters that influence the 29 learning process were tuned using a random search algorithm to find values that maximized perfor-30 mance on cross-validation data sets (Pedregosa et al., 2011). Using cross-validation sets to optimize 31 which features and hyper-parameters are used in the final model fitting process reduces over-fitting to 32 the training data, making the resultant model more likely to generalize to out-of-sample data (data 33 collected in 2018, which was not used to train the model). The analytical code for this training process 34 is available at MendeleyData (doi: https://doi.org/10.17632/w8bp678m3f.2). 35

#### 36 Predictive Accuracy Assessment

The out-of-sample predictive accuracy of the gradient boosted distribution and abundance models 37 was compared to the accuracy of linear distribution and the abundance models using the previously 38 published accuracy metrics (Tran et al., 2021a). Briefly, the predictions from gradient boosted and 39 linear distribution models to the 2018 out-of-sample data were assessed based on accuracy, sensitivity, 40 and specificity. Abundance model predictions to the out-of-sample data were compared using root-41 mean-squared-error and  $\mathbb{R}^2$  values. Additionally, to compare the abundance models in accordance with 42 the methodology from (Tran et al., 2021a), abundances were converted from log-transformed counts of 43 nymphs into discrete categories of low (1-4 nymphs), medium (7-35), and high (36+), and predictions 44 were considered accurate if they were within one natural log unit of the average prediction error. 45

#### <sup>1</sup> Simultaneous Modeling of Distribution and Abundance

A multi-class categorical model and a density-estimating regression model were built using the gradient boosting framework. These models do not require the data processing, such as the logtransformation necessary for the linear models, which allows simultaneous analysis of presence and abundance from all sites and years. The multi-class model predicts nymphal abundance to one of three categories: absent (no nymphs), low abundance (1-35 nymphs), and high abundance (>35 nymphs). Out-of-sample performance was assessed as the accuracy of the predicted classification to locations visited in 2018.

The gradient boosted density model is similar to the previously described abundance model except that the response variable was tick density, as opposed to the number of ticks collected used in the linear model, and that site densities of zero ticks were permitted. Nymphal density was estimated as the number of ticks collected per collection-hour. Collector hours here were limited to four as preliminary analyses and prior studies demonstrated that density estimates were biased when larger collection-hour values were included (Tran et al., 2021a). The statistical weight of sites during model fitting was positively correlated with collection-hour up to four hours as density estimate accuracy is greater at sites with more sampling effort.

#### 17 Environmental Feature Analyses

The relationships between nymphal tick distribution or abundance with individual environmental 18 features in each model were analyzed using SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanation) values (Lundberg 19 and Lee, 2017). Briefly, this interpretative framework estimates the impact each model feature has 20 on model predictions. Together these estimates provide a global view of the impact of each feature 21 on model predictions in the context of other model features. SHAP values were used to identify and 22 visualize the non-linear relationships and interaction effects discovered by each model. SHAP values 23 were not used to evaluate the impact of environmental variables on predictions from the multi-class 24 model as the complex outputs of this model are not supported in this analytical framework. 25

# $_{26}$ Results

The gradient boosted distribution and abundance models outperformed their linear model coun-27 terparts in both predictive power and identification of complex relationships between environmental 28 features. The gradient boosted distribution model (Figure 1A), built using data from 2008-2017, accu-29 rately predicted 94% of sites where ticks were present in 2018 and 84% of sites where ticks were absent. 30 By comparison, the linear distribution model trained and tested on the same data accurately predicted 31 80.6% of sites where ticks were present and 80.7% of sites where they were absent. Importantly, the 32 gradient boosted model had a far lower false negative rate than the linear model (5.8% vs 19.4%), an 33 especially costly error for public health efforts. The gradient boosted distribution model also made 34 highly accurate predictions to the 27 sites that were visited for the first time in 2018 (true positive 35 rate = 85%; true negative rate = 86%). 36

The gradient boosted abundance model more accurately predicted out-of-sample tick abundance 37 than the analogous linear model in all quantitative metrics (RMSE = 0.972 vs. 1.096;  $R^2 = 0.59$  vs. 38 0.48). Gradient boosted model predictions were also converted into discrete categories to compare 39 the accuracy of the linear and gradient boosted models using the previously published methodology 40 (Tran et al., 2021a). The gradient boosted abundance model was more accurate than its linear model 41 counterpart, correctly predicting the abundance at 82.5% of sites compared to the 74.8% of sites 42 correctly predicted by the linear model (Figure 1B). Sites visited for the first time in 2018 were 43 also predicted with high accuracy by the gradient boosted model (83.3%; RMSE = 0.948;  $R^2$  = 44 0.61). Importantly, nearly 40% of all sites incorrectly predicted by the gradient boosted model were 45

#### A. Distribution Models

#### **B.** Abundance Models



Figure 1: Gradient boosted models more accurately predict future (A) distributions and (B) abundances of nymphal ticks than generalized linear models. (A) The gradient boosted distribution model was more accurate (90.6% vs 80.6%), more sensitive (true positive rate = 94.2% vs 80.5%), and more specific (true negative rate = 84.2% vs 80.7%) than its linear model analog. (B) The gradient boosted abundance model also more accurately predicted to the out-of-sample data than its linear model counterpart (82.5% vs 74.8%). Stars indicate sites with accurate predictions from the gradient boosted model and inaccurate predictions from the linear model; triangles represent accurate linear model predictions and inaccurate gradient boosted model predictions; squares represent sites accurately predicted by both models; circles represent inaccurate predictions by both models. Confusion matrices summarize the accurate and inaccurate predictions made by the gradient boosted model vs the linear model.

 $_{1}$  conservative in that the model overestimated tick abundances at sites with high abundance (n=3) or

 $_{2}$  underestimated tick abundance at sites with low abundance (n=4). These errors are less costly as

<sup>3</sup> they indicate that the model has correctly predicted sites with high or low tick abundance but erred

<sup>4</sup> in terms of magnitude.

Complex non-linear relationships between environmental features and nymphal abundance were 5 detected in gradient boosted models that were not investigated in the previously published linear 6 models (Tran et al., 2021a). For example, estimates of deer population size have a highly complex relationship with nymphal abundance (Figure 2A): deer harvest values less than 2000 result in decreased 8 nymphal abundance predictions; deer harvest between 2000 and 3000 are correlated with increases 9 in nymphal abundances; deer harvest between 3000 and 6000 are correlated with decreased nymphal 10 abundances; and deer harvest above 6000 is correlated with increased nymphal abundance. Although 11 not biologically relevant, the number of tick collection efforts (sampling hours) had a positive but decel-12 erating relationship with the number of nymphs collected (Figure 2B). That is, the number of nymphs 13 collected is strongly and positively correlated with the number of hours field technicians flagged for 14 ticks at sites visited for fewer than two hours. However, this positive relationship becomes less pro-15 nounced at sites visited for greater than two hours and is not detectable at sites visited for more than 16 five hours. 17

A. Effect of Deer Harvest on Abundance Prediction

B. Effect of sampling hours on Abundance Prediction



Figure 2: Gradient boosted models identified non-linear relationships that are impractical to investigate with linear models. (A) The association between estimates of deer population size and nymphal tick abundance oscillates between having a positive effect to a negative effect. (B) The relationship between person-hours collecting hours and tick abundance is a positive but decelerating function. Data shown are the rolling average (rolling window = 50) of the impact that (A) deer density estimates or (B) tick collection effort has on tick abundance.

The impacts of non-additive interactions between environmental features on the presence of 1 nymphal ticks were also detected in gradient boosted models. One ecologically relevant interaction 2 demonstrates that the effect of the month in which a site is sampled on the presence of active nymphs 3 is conditioned on the maximum temperature in June of the year before sampling (Figure 3). Although 4 sampling month is generally highly predictive of nymphal presence due to the seasonal activity patterns 5 of I. scapularis in New York State (Yuval and Spielman, 1990), ticks were more likely to be detected 6 in the summer months (May-August) if the temperature in June of the prior year was hotter. By contrast, the probability of detecting nymphal ticks in fall months (September-December) was greater 8 if the maximum temperature in June of the prior year was cooler. This non-additive effect was strong enough to change the month of May from being negatively associated with the presence of nymphs 10 when June of the prior year was cooler to a positive association when this month was warmer. 11

The sets of environmental features used by the gradient boosted distribution and abundance 12 models were similar to those included in linear models but were related to nymph populations in more 13 complex ways. Despite different feature selection processes, the two modeling frameworks frequently 14 used identical or strongly correlated features as predictors (Supplement Table 1). However, the lin-15 ear models related features to nymph populations linearly and without interaction effects, while the 16 relationships in the gradient boosted models were always non-linear and frequently incorporated in-17 teractions. In fact, both non-linear relationships discussed above (Figure 2) involve features that were 18 included in the previously published linear models. 19

The gradient boosting framework was used to produce two additional models - a multi-class and a density model - that simultaneously estimate the presence and abundance of nymphs. The multi-class model forecasts which sites will have no nymphs, low nymphal abundance (1-35), or high nymphal abundance (>35) with high accuracy, correctly classifying 80% of sites in the out-of-sample data set (Figure 4). This multi-class model predicted the presence or absence of nymphs with similar accuracy



Figure 3: Gradient boosted models detected ecologically relevant interactions between environmental features which impacts the presence of nymphal ticks. The maximum temperature in June of the year before a collection event modulates tick phenology. That is, nymphal ticks are more likely to be collected between May and August in years when the prior June was hotter while the likelihood of nymphal tick presence in September-December increases in years when the prior June was cooler.



Multi-class Out-of-Sample Predictions

Figure 4: The multi-class model accurately predicts both the presence and abundance of nymphs across New York State. The model accurately predicted 90.6% of sites without ticks, 70% of sites with low tick abundance (1-35), and 64.9% of sites with high tick abundance (> 35). Further, most inaccurate predictions were one class apart (absent vs low or low vs high). That is, sites without nymphs were rarely predicted to have a high abundance (1.3%) and sites with high abundance were rarely predicted to have no nymphs (5.4%).

as the gradient boosted distribution model (both  $\approx 90\%$ ) but has the additional functionality of distinguishing between two non-zero abundance classes. The novel density model predicts a continuous

 $_{3}$  estimate of tick densities (ticks per collection hour) to out-of-sample data with high accuracy ( $R^{2}$  =

4 0.42). Restricting the comparison to the subset of the out-of-sample data included in the abundance

<sup>5</sup> models (Figure 1B) resulted in the density model performing comparably with the linear abundance

<sup>6</sup> model (RMSE = 1.06 vs. 1.096;  $R^2 = 0.51$  vs. 0.48) while retaining the added functionality of predict-

<sup>7</sup> ing the absence of nymphs. Both the multi-class and density models have similar predictive accuracy

\* at sites that were visited for the first time in 2018 and those that had been sampled prior to 2018.

# <sup>9</sup> Discussion

Machine learning analyses of the recent expansion of publicly available biological and environ-10 mental data is ideal for discovering novel ecological insights and accurately forecasting the distribution 11 and abundance of populations in nature. The gradient boosted modeling framework efficiently and ac-12 curately identifies both simple and complex ecological relationships from large data sets and produces 13 highly accurate predictions of the demography of natural populations (Elith et al., 2008; Han et al., 14 2015; Ramazi et al., 2021; Wyse and Dickie, 2018). However, the theoretical advantages of gradient 15 boosted models over traditional linear models are rarely validated using natural data sets. As a result, 16 many ecologists rely exclusively on generalized linear models even though gradient boosted models 17 could be more effective for exploring and interpreting data (LaRue et al., 2019; Shah et al., 2019; 18 Sutomo et al., 2021; Walter et al., 2018). Here we demonstrate that the distribution and abundance 19 of natural populations of *I. scapularis* ticks can be predicted with greater efficiency and accuracy with 20 gradient boosted models than with linear models. Additionally, the gradient boosted models identified 21 non-linear and non-additive relationships, which are difficult to detect in linear modeling frameworks, 22 that improved predictive accuracy. These results indicate that gradient boosted models can improve 23 both spatio-temporal forecasts and provide novel insights into the ecology of natural populations. 24

The gradient boosted occurrence and abundance models consistently outperformed their linear 25 counterparts in predictive accuracy, illustrating the potential of this framework to improve predictions 26 of ecological phenomena. When trained and tested on the same datasets as the linear models from 27 (Tran et al., 2021a), the gradient boosted models were better able to forecast the distribution and 28 abundance of nymphs (Figure 1). Notably, the gradient boosted models outperformed their linear 29 analogs on sites not previously sampled, suggesting that the superior predictive performance of this 30 framework results from incorporating more precise ecological relationships rather than overfitting to 31 previously sampled sites. However, gradient boosted models are not always expected to be the most 32 accurate type of model for a given problem. As examples, linear models might be favored for small 33 datasets with simpler relationships when overfitting is likely to be a problem, whereas neural networks 34 are expected to outperform in contexts like image or speech classification (Deng et al., 2013; Hastie 35 et al., 2001; Rawat and Wang, 2017). Nonetheless, our findings highlight gradient boosted models as 36 a powerful but underutilized tool for predicting demographic changes in natural populations. 37

The gradient boosted models automatically identified complex relationships between several en-38 vironmental features and the distribution and abundance of ticks. For example, these models found a 39 non-linear relationship between deer harvest data - an estimate of deer population size - and nymphal 40 tick abundance (Tran et al., 2021a). The non-linear relationship identified in the gradient boosted 41 model implies that changes in deer populations are positively associated with tick abundance at some 42 deer population sizes and negatively at others (Figure 2). This non-linear relationship may explain 43 contradictory conclusions in previous reports in which some identify positive relationships between 44 deer population size and tick densities while others do not (Kugeler et al., 2016; Lewis et al., 2017; 45 Ostfeld et al., 2006; Schulze et al., 2001; Tran et al., 2021a). Statistical models like gradient boosting 46 do not identify the ecological mechanism underlying this relationship but do suggest avenues for further 47

<sup>1</sup> experimentation to resolve this discrepancy. Gradient boosted models also identified an interaction

<sup>2</sup> between climate variables that influences tick questing activity throughout summer months. Specifi-

<sup>3</sup> cally, hotter temperatures in June of the year prior to tick collections alter tick phenology such that

nymphal ticks are active earlier in the season (Figure 3). These results warrant further investigation
into how climate change may affect seasonal activity patterns of ticks and possibly the pathogens they

<sup>6</sup> transmit (MacDonald et al., 2021).

Relationships between variables identified by any statistical model should be interpreted with 7 caution. The ecological relationships included in the gradient boosted models presented here were 8 identified using SHAP value analyses that determine the effect each variable has on model predic-0 tions (Lundberg and Lee, 2017). Thus, these relationships represent the patterns our models used 10 to make accurate predictions but do not necessarily represent causal processes. Nevertheless, similar 11 environmental features were detected in the gradient boosted and linear models despite using different 12 approaches (Supplemental Table 1), adding confidence that these features are useful in forecasting tick 13 distribution and abundance (Tran et al., 2021a). Additionally, the complex relationships involving 14 these shared environmental features suggests that the gradient boosted framework has the potential to 15 yield novel ecological insights, even on datasets previously analyzed with traditional statistical meth-16 ods. While further experimentation is needed to clarify the biological significance of these relationships, 17 they demonstrate the ability of the gradient boosting framework to automatically discover non-linear 18 and interaction effects which general linear models often do not detect. 19

The flexibility of the gradient boosted modeling framework allowed us to build models with at 20 least three practical advantages for both ecological interpretation and public health (De'ath, 2007). 21 First, the multi-class and density model simultaneously predict the distribution and abundance of ticks, 22 allowing tick population size to be estimated with a single model. Second, data pre-processing such as 23 log-transformations is not required in the gradient boosting framework making both the predictions and 24 error estimates more interpretable. Lastly, the density model analyzes tick density directly, a correlate 25 of the human contact risk with a questing nymph, as opposed to the number of ticks collected which 26 is conditioned by the sampling effort (Khatchikian et al., 2012). While it is in principle possible to 27 achieve these advantages using generalized linear models (for an ecological example see Bah et al., 28 2022), the flexibility of the gradient boosting framework greatly simplified the process of implementing 29 these multiple types of models (Natekin and Knoll, 2013). 30

Applying the gradient boosted modeling framework to pathogens carried by *I. scapularis* may 31 provide additional improvements for disease risk forecasting and could identify the environmental 32 features that correlate with human risk of contracting a *I.scapularis*-borne disease. For example, 33 gradient boosted analyses of the distribution and abundance of ticks carrying Borrelia burgdorferi, 34 Babesia microti, Anaplasma phagocytophilum, or other tick-borne pathogens are likely to identify 35 ecological factors impacting pathogen populations and could predict the risk of encountering an infected 36 tick. More broadly, the gradient boosted framework can improve ecological models of many infectious 37 disease systems (Ashby et al., 2017; Fischhoff et al., 2021; Giles et al., 2018; Han et al., 2015; Solano-38 Villarreal et al., 2019). The rapidly expanding environmental data sets can be efficiently analyzed by 39 gradient boosted models in order to detect ecological relationships and accurately predict disease risk 40 in many systems, thus promoting a better understanding of natural disease systems and aiding the 41 development of public health strategies. 42

# 43 Data Availability

<sup>44</sup> Data used to train and validate models are from (Tran et al., 2021a). Data and code for model <sup>45</sup> training and evaluation are available at MendeleyData (doi: https://doi.org/10.17632/w8bp678m3f.2).

#### Funding 1

This work was supported by the NYSDOH, the National Institutes of Health (AI142572), and 2 the Burroughs Welcome Fund (1012376). 3

#### **Conflict of Interest Disclosure** 4

The authors of this preprint declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the content 5

of this article. D Brisson is a Recommender at PCI Ecology and is on the Managing Board at PCI 6 Evolutionary Biology.

7

# <sup>8</sup> Appendix A: Supplementary data

Supplemental Table 1: Most Predictive Ecological Features from Gradient Boosted Occurrence and Abundance Models compared to Linear Counterparts

	GBM	GLM	GBM	GLM
Model	Occurrence	Occurrence	Abundance	Abundance
Physical Habitat	Longitude (+, NL), Distance to nearest road (-, NL)	Latitude (+), Elevation (-), Distance to nearest road (+), Road type of nearest road (NL), Indicator of critical zone (-)	Latitude (-, NL), Longitude (+, NL)	Latitude (-), Longitude (+), Elevation (NL), Forest (-), Distance to nearest hydrography feature (-)
Vapor Pressure	Maximum Jan 2 years prior (-, NL), Minimum Oct 2 years prior (NL), Maximum Oct 1 year prior (+, NL), Maximum Jan (-, NL), Minimum June (-, NL), Minimum October (+, NL)	Minimum Jan 1 year prior (-)		Maximum October 2 years prior (+), Minimum October 2 years prior (-, NL)
Temperature	Mean differential Jan 2 years prior (+, NL, IE), Degree days above 0 C spring- summer 1 year prior (+, NL, IE), Degree days above 0 C spring 1 year prior (+, NL), Maximum June 1 year prior (+, NL, IE)	Degree days above 0 C spring 2 years prior (-), Degree Days below 0 C winter 1 year prior (+), Degree days above 0 C spring-summer 1 year prior (+)		Degree days above 0 C spring- summer 1 year prior (+)
Day of Collection	Person-hours collecting (+, NL), Month (NL)	Person-hours collecting (+), Month (NL), Local Temperature (+), Wet (-)	Person-hours collecting (+, NL), Week (NL)	Person-hours collecting (+), Month (NL)
Miscellaneous		Deer harvest (-)	Deer harvest (NL)	Deer harvest (+)
Top 15 most pre	dictive features from the gradient l	poosted occurrence model and	all features from the o	ther models are

(-) = negative relationship, (+) = positive relationship, NL = nonlinear relationship, IE = interaction effect

Supplemental Data 1: Table containing all features used by the gradient boosted models can be q found at: MendeleyData (doi: https://doi.org/10.17632/w8bp678m3f.2). 10

Supplemental Tak	ble 2: Summary	of Model	Characteristics
------------------	----------------	----------	-----------------

Model	Sites	Target	Accuracy Metrics for	GLM
	Predicted	Variable	Out of Sample Test	Analog
GBM	All sites	Binary (Nymphs	Accuracy, Sensitivity,	GLM Distribution
Distribution		Present or Absent)	Specificity	Model
GBM	Sites with	Log-transformed	RMSE, R^2,	GLM Abundance
Abundance	Nymphs	Nymph Abundance	Categorical Accuracy	Model
GBM Multi- Class	All sites	Three Abundance Classes of Nymphs	Accuracy	N/A
GBM Density	All sites	Nymph Abundance/ Sampling Hour	RMSE, R^2	N/A

Model characteristics of all four gradient boosted models are included.

# <sup>1</sup> References

2	Abbott, I., Abbott, L. K., & Grant, P. R. (1977). Comparative Ecology of Galapagos Ground Finches
3	(Geospiza Gould): Evaluation of the Importance of Floristic Diversity and Interspecific Com-
4	petition. Ecological Monographs, 47(2), 151–184. https://doi.org/10.2307/1942615
5	Ashby, J., Moreno-Madriñán, M. J., Yiannoutsos, C. T., & Stanforth, A. (2017). Niche Modeling of
6	Dengue Fever Using Remotely Sensed Environmental Factors and Boosted Regression Trees.
7	<i>Remote Sensing</i> , 9(4). https://doi.org/10.3390/rs9040328
8	Austin, M. P., Cunningham, R. B., & Fleming, P. M. (1984). New approaches to direct gradient analysis
9	using environmental scalars and statistical curve-fitting procedures. Vegetation, 55(1), 11–27.
10	https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00039976
11	Austin, M. P., Nicholls, A. O., & Margules, C. R. (1990). Measurement of the Realized Qualitative
12	Niche: Environmental Niches of Five Eucalyptus Species. Ecological Monographs, 60(2), 161–
13	177. https://doi.org/10.2307/1943043
14	Bah, M. T., Grosbois, V., Stachurski, F., Muñoz, F., Duhavon, M., Rakotoarivony, I., Appelgren,
15	A., Calloix, C., Noguera, L., Mouillaud, T., Andary, C., Lancelot, R., Huber, K., Garros, C.,
16	Leblond, A., & Vial, L. (2022). The Crimean-Congo haemorrhagic fever tick vector ii Hyalomma
17	marginatum; /i; in the south of France: Modelling its distribution and determination of factors
18	influencing its establishment in a newly invaded area. Transboundary and Emerging Diseases.
19	69(5), https://doi.org/10.1111/tbed.14578
20	Becker, E. A., Carretta, J. V., Forney, K. A., Barlow, J., Brodie, S., Hoopes, R., Jacox, M. G.,
21	Maxwell, S. M., Redfern, J. V., Sisson, N. B., Welch, H., & Hazen, E. L. (2020). Performance
22	evaluation of cetacean species distribution models developed using generalized additive models
23	and boosted regression trees. Ecology and Evolution, 10(12), 5759–5784, https://doi.org/10.
24	1002/ece3.6316
25	Bentéiac, C., Csörgő, A., & Martínez-Muñoz, G. (2021). A comparative analysis of gradient boosting
26	algorithms. Artificial Intelligence Review, 54(3), 1937–1967. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10462-
27	020-09896-5
28	Burgdorfer, W., Barbour, A. G., Haves, S. F., Benach, J. L., Grunwaldt, E., & Davis, J. P. (1982).
29	Lyme Disease - a Tick-Borne Spirochetosis? Science, 216(4552), 1317–1319. https://doi.org/
30	10.1126/science.7043737
31	Cawley, G. C., & Talbot, N. L. C. (2010). On Over-fitting in Model Selection and Subsequent Selection
32	Bias in Performance Evaluation. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 11(70), 2079–2107.
33	http://imlr.org/papers/v11/cawlev10a.html
34	Cutler, D. R., Edwards Jr., T. C., Beard, K. H., Cutler, A., Hess, K. T., Gibson, J., & Lawler,
35	J. J. (2007). Random Forests for Classification in Ecology. <i>Ecology</i> , 88(11), 2783–2792. https:
36	//doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1890/07-0539.1
37	De'ath, G. (2007). Boosted Trees for Ecological Modeling and Prediction. <i>Ecology</i> , 88(1), 243–251.
38	https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658(2007)88[243:btfema]2.0.co;2
39	De'ath, G., & Fabricius, K. E. (2000). Classification and regression trees: a powerful yet simple tech-
40	nique for ecological data analysis. Ecology, 81(11), 3178–3192. https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-
41	9658(2000)081[3178:CARTAP]2.0.CO;2
42	Deng, L., Hinton, G., & Kingsbury, B. (2013). New types of deep neural network learning for speech
43	recognition and related applications: an overview. 2013 IEEE International Conference on
44	Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing, 8599–8603. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICASSP.2013.
45	6639344
46	Elith, J., Leathwick, J. R., & Hastie, T. (2008). A working guide to boosted regression trees. Journal
47	of Animal Ecology, 77(4), 802–813. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2008.01390.x
48	Elith, J., H. Graham, C., P. Anderson, R., Dudík, M., Ferrier, S., Guisan, A., J. Hijmans, R., Huettmann,
49	F., R. Leathwick, J., Lehmann, A., Li, J., G. Lohmann, L., A. Loiselle, B., Manion, G., Moritz,
50	C., Nakamura, M., Nakazawa, Y., McC. M. Overton, J., Townsend Peterson, A., E. Zimmer-

1	mann, N. (2006). Novel methods improve prediction of species' distributions from occurrence
2	data. $Ecography, 29(2), 129-151$ . https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2006.0906-7590.04596.x
3	Elith, J., & Leathwick, J. R. (2009). Species Distribution Models: Ecological Explanation and Predic-
4	tion Across Space and Time. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, $40(1)$ ,
5	677–697. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.110308.120159
6	Escobar, L. E., Qiao, H., Cabello, J., & Peterson, A. T. (2018). Ecological niche modeling re-examined:
7	A case study with the Darwin's fox. Ecology and Evolution, $8(10)$ , $4757-4770$ . https://doi.
8	org/10.1002/ece3.4014
9	Farley, S. S., Dawson, A., Goring, S. J., & Williams, J. W. (2018). Situating Ecology as a Big-Data
10	Science: Current Advances, Challenges, and Solutions. <i>BioScience</i> , 68(8), 563–576. https://
11	//doi.org/10.1093/biosci/biy068
12	Fischhoff, I. R., Castellanos, A. A., Rodrigues, J. P. G. L. M., Varsani, A., & Han, B. A. (2021).
13	Predicting the zoonotic capacity of mammals to transmit SARS-CoV-2. Proceedings of the
14	Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 288(1963), 20211651. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.
15	
16	Friedman, J. H. (2001). Greedy function approximation: A gradient boosting machine. The Annals of
17	Statistics, 29(5), 1189-1232. https://doi.org/10.1214/aos/1013203451
18	Giles, J. R., Eby, P., Parry, H., Peel, A. J., Plowright, R. K., Westcott, D. A., & McCallum, H. (2018).
19	Environmental drivers of spatiotemporal foraging intensity in fruit bats and implications for $H_{\rm env}$
20	Hendra virus ecology. Scientific Reports, $\delta(1)$ , 9555. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-
21	27809-3 Cringstain L. Owellon E. & Vanaguaur C. (2022) Why do tree baged models still outperform door
22	logrning on tabular data?
23	Han B A Schmidt I P Bowdon S F & Drake I M (2015) Bodont recorvoirs of future zoonetic
24	dispasse Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 119(22) 7030-7044 https://doi
25	$\frac{112(22)}{1035}$ 1044. https://doi.
20	Harvey P H Clutton-Brock T H & Mace G M (1980) Brain size and ecology in small mammals
21	and primates Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America
20	277(7) 4387–4389 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.77.7.4387
30	Hastie, T., Tibshirani, R., & Friedman, J. (2001). The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining.
31	Inference, and Prediction. (Second Edition). Springer.
32	Khatchikian, C. E., Prusinski, M., Stone, M., Backenson, P. B., Wang, IN., Levy, M. Z., & Brisson,
33	D. (2012). Geographical and environmental factors driving the increase in the Lyme disease
34	vector Ixodes scapularis. <i>Ecosphere</i> , 3(10), 85. https://doi.org/10.1890/ES12-00134.1
35	Kleiber, M. (1947). Body size and metabolic rate. <i>Physiological Reviews</i> , 27(4), 511–541. https://doi.
36	org/10.1152/physrev.1947.27.4.511
37	Kugeler, K. J., Jordan, R. A., Schulze, T. L., Griffith, K. S., & Mead, P. S. (2016). Will Culling
38	White-Tailed Deer Prevent Lyme Disease? Zoonoses and Public Health, 63(5), 337–345. https:
39	//doi.org/10.1111/zph.12245
40	LaRue, M., Salas, L., Nur, N., Ainley, D., Stammerjohn, S., Barrington, L., Stamatiou, K., Pennycook,
41	J., Dozier, M., Saints, J., & Nakamura, H. (2019). Physical and ecological factors explain the
42	distribution of Ross Sea Weddell seals during the breeding season. Marine Ecology Progress
43	Series, 612, 193–208. https://doi.org/10.3354/meps12877
44	Levin, S. A. (1998). Ecosystems and the Biosphere as Complex Adaptive Systems. $Ecosystems$ , $1(5)$ ,
45	431–436. https://doi.org/10.1007/s100219900037
46	Lewis, J. S., Farnsworth, M. L., Burdett, C. L., Theobald, D. M., Gray, M., & Miller, R. S. (2017).
47	Biotic and abiotic factors predicting the global distribution and population density of an
48	invasive large mammal. Scientific Reports, 7(1), 44152. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep44152
49	Lundberg, S. M., & Lee, SI. (2017). A Unified Approach to Interpreting Model Predictions. <i>Proceedings</i>
50	of the 31st international conference on neural information processing systems, 30, 4768–4777.
51	https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1705.07874

1	MacDonald, H., Akçay, E., & Brisson, D. (2021). The role of host phenology for parasite transmission.
2	Theoretical Ecology, $14(1)$ , $123-143$ . https://doi.org/10.1007/s12080-020-00484-5
3	McCullagh, P., & Nelder, J. (1989). Generalized Linear Models (Second Edition). CRC Press.
4	McLain, D. K., Moulton, M. P., & Redfearn, T. P. (1995). Sexual Selection and the Risk of Extinction
5	of Introduced Birds on Oceanic Islands. Oikos, 74(1), 27–34. https://doi.org/10.2307/3545671
6	Naghibi, S. A., & Pourghasemi, H. R. (2015). A Comparative Assessment Between Three Machine
7	Learning Models and Their Performance Comparison by Bivariate and Multivariate Statistical
8	Methods in Groundwater Potential Mapping. Water Resources Management, 29(14), 5217-
9	5236. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11269-015-1114-8
10	Natekin, A., & Knoll, A. (2013). Gradient boosting machines, a tutorial. Frontiers in Neurorobotics,
11	7. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnbot.2013.00021
12	Olden, J. D., Lawler, J. J., & Poff, N. L. (2008). Machine Learning Methods Without Tears: A Primer
13	for Ecologists. The Quarterly Review of Biology, 83(2), 171–193. https://doi.org/10.1086/
14	587826
15	Ostfeld, R. S., Canham, C. D., Oggenfuss, K., Winchcombe, R. J., & Keesing, F. (2006). Climate,
16	Deer, Rodents, and Acorns as Determinants of Variation in Lyme-Disease Risk. PLoS Biology,
17	4(6), e145. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0040145
18	Pedregosa, F., Varoquaux, G., Gramfort, A., Michel, V., Thirion, B., Grisel, O., Blondel, M., Müller,
19	A., Nothman, J., Louppe, G., Prettenhofer, P., Weiss, R., Dubourg, V., Vanderplas, J., Passos,
20	A., Cournapeau, D., Brucher, M., Perrot, M., & Duchesnay, É. (2011). Scikit-learn: Machine
21	Learning in Python. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 12(85), 2825–2830. http://jmlr.
22	m org/papers/v12/pedregosa11a.html
23	Prusinski, M. A., Kokas, J. E., Hukey, K. T., Kogut, S. J., Lee, J., & Backenson, P. B. (2014). Prevalence
24	of Borrelia burgdorferi (Spirochaetales: Spirochaetaceae), Anaplasma phagocytophilum (Rick-
25	ettsiales: Anaplasmataceae), and Babesia microti (Piroplasmida: Babesiidae) in Ixodes scapu-
26	laris (Acari: Ixodidae) Collected From Recreational Lands in the Hudson Valley Region, New
27	York State. Journal of Medical Entomology, 51(1), 226–236. https://doi.org/10.1603/ME13101
28	Qiao, H., Soberón, J., & Peterson, A. T. (2015). No silver bullets in correlative ecological niche mod-
29	elling: insights from testing among many potential algorithms for niche estimation. Methods
30	in Ecology and Evolution, $6(10)$ , 1126–1136. https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12397
31	Ramazi, P., Kunegel-Lion, M., Greiner, R., & Lewis, M. A. (2021). Predicting insect outbreaks using
32	machine learning: A mountain pine beetle case study. Ecology and Evolution, 11(19), 13014–
33	$13028. \ https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.7921$
34	Rammer, W., & Seidl, R. (2019). Harnessing Deep Learning in Ecology: An Example Predicting Bark
35	Beetle Outbreaks. Frontiers in Plant Science, 10. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2019.01327
36	Raschka, S. (2018). MLxtend: Providing machine learning and data science utilities and extensions to
37	Python's scientific computing stack. Journal of Open Source Software, 3(24). https://doi.org/
38	10.21105/joss.00638
39	Rawat, W., & Wang, Z. (2017). Deep Convolutional Neural Networks for Image Classification: A
40	Comprehensive Review. Neural Computation, 29(9), 2352–2449. https://doi.org/10.1162/
41	NECO_a_00990
42	Root, T. (1988). Energy Constraints on Avian Distributions and Abundances. $Ecology, 69(2), 330-339$ .
43	https://doi.org/10.2307/1940431
44	Rudin, C. (2019). Stop explaining black box machine learning models for high stakes decisions and use
45	interpretable models instead. Nature Machine Intelligence, 1(5), 206–215. https://doi.org/10.
46	1038/s42256-019-0048-x
47	Ryo, M., Angelov, B., Mammola, S., Kass, J. M., Benito, B. M., & Hartig, F. (2021). Explainable
48	artificial intelligence enhances the ecological interpretability of black-box species distribution
49	models. <i>Ecography</i> , 44(2), 199–205. https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.05360

1	Schulze, T. L., Jordan, R. A., & Hung, R. W. (2001). Potential Effects of Animal Activity on the
2	Spatial Distribution of Ixodes scapularis and Amblyomma americanum (Acari: Ixodidae). En-
3	vironmental Entomology, 30(3), 568–577. https://doi.org/10.1603/0046-225X-30.3.568
4	Shabani, F., Kumar, L., & Ahmadi, M. (2016). A comparison of absolute performance of different
5	correlative and mechanistic species distribution models in an independent area. Ecology and
6	Evolution, $6(16)$ , 5973–5986. https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.2332
7	Shah, M. M., Krystosik, A. R., Ndenga, B. A., Mutuku, F. M., Caldwell, J. M., Otuka, V., Chebii,
8	P. K., Maina, P. W., Jembe, Z., Ronga, C., Bisanzio, D., Anyamba, A., Damoah, R., Ripp,
9	K., Jagannathan, P., Mordecai, E. A., & LaBeaud, A. D. (2019). Malaria smear positivity
10	among Kenyan children peaks at intermediate temperatures as predicted by ecological models.
11	Parasites & Vectors, 12(1), 288. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-019-3547-z
12	Solano-Villarreal, E., Valdivia, W., Pearcy, M., Linard, C., Pasapera-Gonzales, J., Moreno-Gutierrez,
13	D., Lejeune, P., Llanos-Cuentas, A., Speybroeck, N., Hayette, MP., & Rosas-Aguirre, A.
14	(2019). Malaria risk assessment and mapping using satellite imagery and boosted regression
15	trees in the Peruvian Amazon. Scientific Reports, 9(1), 15173. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-
16	019-51564-4
17	Spielman, A., Clifford, C. M., Piesman, J., & Corwin, M. D. (1979). Human Babesiosis on Nantucket
18	Island, USA: Description of the Vector, Ixodes (Ixodes) Dammini, N. Sp. (Acarina: Ixodidae).
19	Journal of Medical Entomology, 15(3), 218–234. https://doi.org/10.1093/jmedent/15.3.218
20	Stephens, P. R., Pappalardo, P., Huang, S., Byers, J. E., Farrell, M. J., Gehman, A., Ghai, R. R.,
21	Haas, S. E., Han, B., Park, A. W., Schmidt, J. P., Altizer, S., Ezenwa, V. O., & Nunn,
22	C. L. (2017). Global Mammal Parasite Database version 2.0. Ecology, 98(5), 1476. https://
23	//doi.org/10.1002/ecv.1799
24	Sutomo, Yulia, E., & Irvadi, R. (2021). Kirinvuh (Chromolaena odorata): species distribution modeling
25	and the potential use of fungal pathogens for its eradication. IOP Conference Series: Earth and
26	Environmental Science, 762(1), 012023. https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/762/1/012023
27	Telford, S. R., Dawson, J. E., Katavolos, P., Warner, C. K., Kolbert, C. P., & Persing, D. H. (1996).
28	Perpetuation of the agent of human granulocytic ehrlichiosis in a deer tick-rodent cycle. Pro-
29	ceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 93(12), 6209–6214. https://doi.org/10.1073/
30	pnas.93.12.6209
31	Tilman, D., Wedin, D., & Knops, J. (1996). Productivity and sustainability influenced by biodiversity
32	in grassland ecosystems. Nature, 379(6567), 718–720. https://doi.org/10.1038/379718a0
33	Tran, T., Porter, W. T., Salkeld, D. J., Prusinski, M. A., Jensen, S. T., & Brisson, D. (2021b). Esti-
34	mating disease vector population size from citizen science data. Journal of The Royal Society
35	Interface, 18(184), 20210610. https://doi.org/10.1098/rsif.2021.0610
36	Tran, T., Prusinski, M. A., White, J. L., Falco, R. C., Vinci, V., Gall, W. K., Tober, K., Oliver,
37	J., Sporn, L. A., Meehan, L., Banker, E., Backenson, P. B., Jensen, S. T., & Brisson, D.
38	(2021a). Spatio-temporal variation in environmental features predicts the distribution and
39	abundance of Ixodes scapularis. International Journal for Parasitology, 51(4), 311–320. https:
40	//doi.org/10.1016/j.jpara.2020.10.002
41	Walter, T., Zink, R., Laaha, G., Zaller, J. G., & Heigl, F. (2018). Fox sightings in a city are related to
42	certain land use classes and sociodemographics: results from a citizen science project. BMC
43	<i>Ecology</i> , 18(1), 50. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12898-018-0207-7
44	Wyse, S. V., & Dickie, J. B. (2018). Taxonomic affinity, habitat and seed mass strongly predict seed
45	desiccation response: a boosted regression trees analysis based on 17539 species. Annals of
46	Botany, 121(1), 71–83, https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcx128
47	Yee, T. W., & Mitchell, N. D. (1991). Generalized additive models in plant ecology. <i>Journal of Veae</i> -
48	<i>tation Science</i> , 2(5), 587–602. https://doi.org/10.2307/3236170
49	Yuval, B., & Spielman, A. (1990). Duration and Regulation of the Developmental Cycle of Ixodes
50	dammini (Acari: Ixodidae). Journal of Medical Entomology. 27(2), 196–201. https://doi.org/
51	10.1093/imedent/27.2.196
	/J /