

Set S04 - Model comparison

STAT 401 (Engineering) - Iowa State University

April 24, 2017

Comparing nested models

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How do we compare non-nested models?

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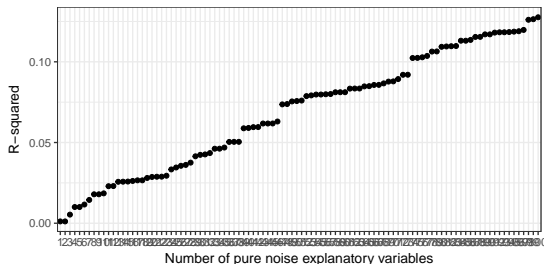
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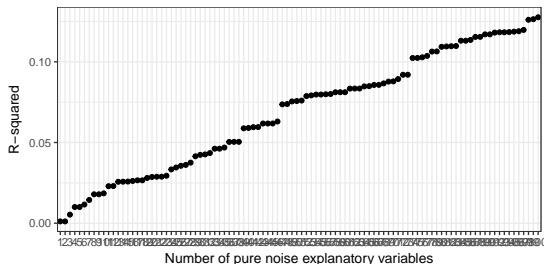
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For this reason, sometimes R^2 is reported with a subscript that indicates the number of β s in the model.

Adjusted R-squared

One way to remedy this is to use “adjusted R^2 ” which can be calculated using the formula

$$\overline{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{(1 - R^2)(n - 1)}{n - p - 1}$$

where

- R^2 is the unadjusted R^2
- n is the number of observations
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The idea with adjusted R^2 is that it only increases if the inclusion of a new explanatory variable is more than one would expect to see by chance.

Model criterion

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where the specific model criterion determines the penalty. For example, here are some criterion

- AIC: $-2 \log L(\hat{\theta}_{MLE}) + 2p$
- BIC: $-2 \log L(\hat{\theta}_{MLE}) + p \log(n)$
- AICc: $-2 \log L(\hat{\theta}_{MLE}) + 2p(p+1)/(n-p-1)$

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There are a number of alternatives that also modify the “fit” component:

- DIC: $-2 \log L(E[\theta|y]) + 2p_D$ (effective number of parameters)
- BPIC: $-2 \log p(\tilde{y}|E[\theta|y]) + 2p_D$
- \vdots

Obtaining AIC/BIC in R

```
lm1 <- lm(Fertility ~ . , data = swiss)
AIC(lm1)
```

```
[1] 326.0716
```

```
BIC(lm1)
```

```
[1] 339.0226
```

```
lm2 <- update(lm1, . ~ . -Examination)
AIC(lm1, lm2)
```

	df	AIC
lm1	7	326.0716
lm2	6	325.2408

```
BIC(lm1, lm2)
```

	df	BIC
lm1	7	339.0226
lm2	6	336.3417

Obtaining AICc in R

```
AICcmodavg::AICc(lm1)
```

```
[1] 328.9434
```

```
AICcmodavg::AICc(lm2)
```

```
[1] 327.3408
```

```
sme::AICc(lm1)
```

```
[1] 328.9434
```

```
sme::AICc(lm2)
```

```
[1] 327.3408
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- $p(\theta|M_j)$ is the prior over model parameters.

This integral provides a natural penalty for increased number of parameters. BIC is an asymptotic approximation to $p(y|M_j)$.

Bayes Factors in R

```
library("bayess")
m <- BayesReg(swiss$Fertility, swiss[, -1])
```

	PostMean	PostStError	Log10bf	EvidAgaH0
Intercept	70.1426	1.0339		
x1	-3.7865	1.5463	0.4357	(*)
x2	-1.9939	1.9614	-0.6087	
x3	-8.1123	1.7043	3.3083	(****)
x4	4.2062	1.4240	0.9664	(**)
x5	3.0389	1.0767	0.8215	(**)

Posterior Mean of Sigma2: 50.2438
 Posterior StError of Sigma2: 71.877

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Information criterion (and posterior model probabilities) are often used to select a model. Once the model is selected, inference, e.g. parameter estimation and interpretation, is (typically) performed as usual. That is, the process of selecting the model is completely neglected. To account for our uncertainty in model selection, we can perform model averaging.

Bayesian model averaging

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$$p(\mu|y) = \sum_{j=1}^J p(\mu|M_j, y)p(M_j|y)$$

and model averaging for an unknown predictive value \tilde{y} is

$$p(\tilde{y}|y) = \sum_{j=1}^J p(\tilde{y}|M_j, y)p(M_j|y).$$

AIC model averaging

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Since there is no notion of a posterior distribution, we calculate an estimate and standard error of quantities of interest. For example, a model averaged mean estimate is

$$\hat{\mu} = \sum_{j=1}^J \hat{\mu}_j w_j.$$

Step-wise model selection

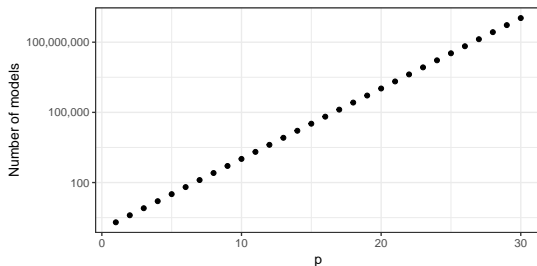
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Once you have chosen a criteria, a common approach is to choose the model that optimizes that criteria. But in regression problems there are 2^p models to consider which is often too many to enumerate. An alternative is to use a stepwise selection procedure that compares all *neighboring* models.



Stepwise selection in R

```
d <- data.frame(X = X) %>% mutate(y = 10 * X.1 + 10 * X.2 + 10 * X.3 +
                                   X.4 + X.5 + X.6 +
                                   .1 * X.7 + .1 * X.8 + .1 * X.9 +
                                   rnorm(n()))
m <- stepAIC(y ~ ., data = d, k = 2, trace=FALSE) # AIC
summary(m)
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ X.1 + X.2 + X.3 + X.4 + X.5 + X.6 + X.7 + X.8 +
    X.9 + X.12 + X.13 + X.17 + X.21 + X.27 + X.28 + X.30 + X.31 +
    X.34 + X.48 + X.49 + X.61 + X.62 + X.67 + X.71 + X.82 + X.83 +
    X.93, data = d)
```

Residuals:

	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
	-2.68780	-0.67529	-0.02836	0.63979	2.73789

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)
(Intercept)	-0.05188	0.03106	-1.670	0.095220 .
X.1	10.02987	0.03076	326.076	< 2e-16 ***
X.2	10.02637	0.02999	334.288	< 2e-16 ***
X.3	9.96052	0.03106	320.687	< 2e-16 ***
X.4	0.97607	0.03151	30.973	< 2e-16 ***
X.5	1.05271	0.03187	33.030	< 2e-16 ***
X.6	0.97690	0.02914	33.522	< 2e-16 ***
X.7	0.09115	0.03149	2.895	0.003881 **
X.8	0.11682	0.02966	3.938	8.79e-05 ***
X.9	0.11488	0.03156	3.640	0.000287 ***
X.12	-0.06478	0.03002	-2.158	0.031194 *

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All the criterion (and posterior probabilities) are based on some theoretical basis. So you can choose a criterion based on your preferred theoretical basis or based on what your field uses. Often times a criterion is justified based on predictive performance. But then why not just use predictive ability as your criterion?

Assessing predictive performance

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Sometimes, we are just interested in developing a model with a good predictive performance. To evaluate predictive performance, **randomly** split your data into

- training data set
- testing data set

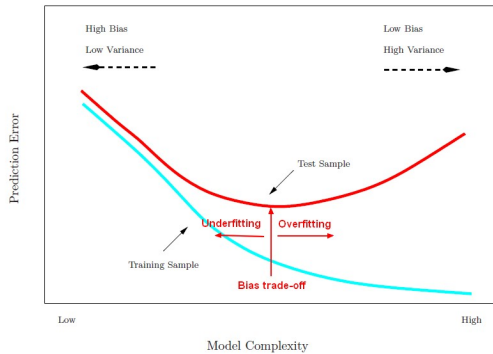
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- testing data set

Use the training data set to build your model and then use your testing data set to evaluate the fit.

Overfitting



https://gerardnico.com/wiki/data_mining/overfitting

Example splitting in R

```
d <- data.frame(X = X) %>% mutate(y = 10 * X.1 + 10 * X.2 + 10 * X.3 +
                                   X.4 + X.5 + X.6 +
                                   .1 * X.7 + .1 * X.8 + .1 * X.9 +
                                   rnorm(n()),
                                   train = rbinom(n(), 1, 0.5))
train <- d %>% filter(train == 1) %>% dplyr::select(-train)
test <- d %>% filter(train == 0) %>% dplyr::select(-train)

m <- step(lm(y ~ ., data = train), k = log(nrow(train)), trace=FALSE)
m
```

Call:

```
lm(formula = y ~ X.1 + X.2 + X.3 + X.4 + X.5 + X.6 + X.8 + X.9 +
    X.42, data = train)
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept)	X.1	X.2	X.3	X.4	X.5	X.6	X.8	
0.02409	10.02275	10.09242	9.93224	1.02931	0.96461	1.02814	0.10513	0.1
X.42								
-0.13081								

```
test <- test %>% bind_cols(data.frame(prediction = predict(m, newdata = test)))
```

```
# Calculate mean sum of squared errors
with(test, mean((y-prediction)^2))
```

```
[1] 1.14051
```

Cross-validation

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Two special cases:

- Leave-one-out cross-validation (LOO-CV)
- k -fold cross validation

Cross-validation in R

```
library(DAAG)
m <- lm(y~., data = d %>% dplyr::select(-train))
cv <- cv.lm(data = d, form.lm = m, m=nrow(d)/5, plotit=FALSE)
```

Analysis of Variance Table

Response: y

	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
X.1	1	104960	104960	1.04e+05	< 2e-16 ***
X.2	1	114848	114848	1.14e+05	< 2e-16 ***
X.3	1	97843	97843	9.73e+04	< 2e-16 ***
X.4	1	1064	1064	1.06e+03	< 2e-16 ***
X.5	1	992	992	9.87e+02	< 2e-16 ***
X.6	1	1110	1110	1.10e+03	< 2e-16 ***
X.7	1	11	11	1.09e+01	0.00097 ***
X.8	1	2	2	1.51e+00	0.21926
X.9	1	7	7	7.38e+00	0.00673 **
X.10	1	0	0	2.70e-01	0.60023
X.11	1	0	0	4.00e-02	0.84768
X.12	1	0	0	4.00e-01	0.52756
X.13	1	0	0	2.50e-01	0.61982
X.14	1	0	0	1.40e-01	0.71302
X.15	1	1	1	5.20e-01	0.47089
X.16	1	0	0	4.10e-01	0.51996
X.17	1	0	0	1.20e-01	0.72433
X.18	1	4	4	3.97e+00	0.04656 *
X.19	1	1	1	1.14e+00	0.28620
X.20	1	1	1	1.00e+00	0.31700
X.21	1	0	0	1.60e-01	0.69183
X.22	1	0	0	1.50e-01	0.69504