

Imperial College London

**An Information-Theoretic Approach to Model Selection**

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MSc CMEE

March 6, 2020

1522 words

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Materials &amp; Methods</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1	Data Preparation . . . . .	3
2.2	Data Analysis . . . . .	4
2.2.1	Model Fitting . . . . .	4
2.2.2	Model selection . . . . .	4
2.3	Computing Tools . . . . .	6
<b>3</b>	<b>Results</b>	<b>7</b>
3.1	Model Fitting . . . . .	7
3.2	Model Selection . . . . .	7
<b>4</b>	<b>Discussion</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Conclusion &amp; Future Work</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Acknowledgements</b>	<b>10</b>

# 1 Introduction

Modelling nature has been the general interest in the field of ecology for over a century [1]. A crucial part of this process involves model selection. The basic approach is the null hypothesis testing, where biological inferences are made based on whether or not a suggested hypothesis is rejected [2]. This would be based on arbitrary criteria such as p-values, confidence intervals, and t-tests, that are set by statisticians as general rules of thumb. Amidst this mayhem, however, some scientists have started to shift their workflow towards more robust approaches that rely on advanced mathematical theories.

In this project, the information-theoretic approach is used for model selection. This methodology is based on information theory [3].

Preceding the model selection phase, however, is finding parameter estimates of models by fitting them to data. 7 models are used in this study: linear, quadratic, cubic, logistic [4], gompertz [5], baranyi [6], and buchanan [7]. The first three are phenomenological, which means their parameters have no biological significance. For the mechanistic models, however, 4 parameters are involved and are described in Table 1 below.

Parameter	Description	Models included
$N_{max}$	carrying capacity	logistic, gompertz, baranyi, buchanan
$N_0$	initial abundance value	logistic, gompertz, baranyi, buchanan
$r_{max}$	growth rate	logistic, gompertz, baranyi, buchanan
$t_{lag}$	time taken for lag phase	gompertz, baranyi, buchanan

Table 1: Parameters involved in the mechanistic models used in this study with their corresponding descriptions.

19 The general pattern of the curve is sigmoidal and composed of three  
20 main parts: lag phase, exponential phase, and stationary phase

21 The Non-Linear Least Squares (NLLS) technique was performed for  
22 model fitting, which allows models to detect non-linear patterns found in  
23 data. Once parameter estimates are found, model selection is performed by  
24 calculating several information-theoretic criteria such as AIC,  $AIC_c$ , BIC,  
25  $R^2$ , AIC differences, likelihood of models, Akaike weights, and evidence ra-  
26 tios.

27 The main objective of this project is to show how sometimes finding a  
28 "best" model is not always ideal; rather, a multimodel inference approach  
29 would be optimal instead.

## 30 2 Materials & Methods

### 31 2.1 Data Preparation

32 The starting dataset consisted of 4387 samples. No missing abundance  
33 values were detected. However, negative values were present. The smallest  
34 value was largely negative and, hence, removed. To deal with the rest,  
35 while still minimizing the amount of data points lost, the smallest value was  
36 added to the whole data, and then removed (to avoid having zero as an  
37 abundance value). The end result was a dataset with 4385 values. Next,  
38 each species/temperature/medium/citation/replicate was grouped together,  
39 resulting in 305 unique IDs. Finally, the new dataset was saved to be used  
40 for data analysis.

## 41 2.2 Data Analysis

### 42 2.2.1 Model Fitting

43 Non-linear least squares (NLLS) fitting was used to fit all 7 models to  
44 each unique group in the new dataset.

45 To work with this method, starting parameter values must first be pro-  
46 vided. The better the starting values, the more precise the estimated pa-  
47 rameter values will be.

48 For phenomenological models, finding the starting values was straight-  
49 forward (they were set to 1). In the case of mechanistic models, on the other  
50 hand, more computation was needed. The starting values of  $N_{max}$  and  $N_0$   
51 were set to be the highest and lowest abundance values in the dataset, re-  
52 spectively. That of  $r_{max}$  was less direct. A straight-line was fit to the first  
53 50% of the dataset, and its slope was assigned as the starting value of  $r_{max}$ .  
54 Lastly, the intersection point between the fitted tangent line and the hori-  
55 zontal line at  $y = N_0$  was set to be the starting value of  $t_{lag}$ .

56 Next, the actual fitting was performed, where residuals for each models to  
57 be fit were provided using the newly found starting values. For each model,  
58 if the fit converged, the estimated parameters were saved in a variable;  
59 otherwise, the estimated parameter values were set to 0.

### 60 2.2.2 Model selection

61 For model selection, first, Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) [8] was  
62 calculated for each model. The AIC value gives the quality of each model  
63 relative to the other models in the set used for fitting the data. Hence,

the model with the lowest AIC score is preferred. For models where the sample size (n) to number of parameters (K) ratio was less than 40 (arbitrary suggestion),  $AIC_c$  was calculated instead. It is known to be the second-order variant of AIC derived by Sugiura in 1978 [9]. The difference is in the bias-correction term added to the AIC value of the model. This makes sure that when sample size and number of parameters are close, the model gets heavily penalized.

Next,  $AIC^1$  differences ( $\Delta_i$ ) were calculated to get a better idea of the empirical support provided by each model in the set; thus, obtaining a relative ranking of all the models in the set. The formula is given as follows:

$$\Delta_i = AIC_i - AIC_{min} \quad (1)$$

where  $AIC_i$  is the AIC value of the  $i$ th model and  $AIC_{min}$  is the AIC value of the "best" model in the set. The larger the difference, the less likely it is for that model to be the best. This likelihood was quantified and calculated by the following formula:

$$\mathcal{L}(g_i|x) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_i} \quad (2)$$

Contrary to  $\Delta_i$ , the larger the relative likelihood of a model, the better chances it has to be the preferred model. For better interpretation, the likelihood of the models were normalized, adding to 1. This normalized

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<sup>1</sup>To avoid repetition, the term "AIC" will be used to mean both AIC and  $AIC_c$ . There is, however, a distinction between them, as explained, and the reader should bear that in mind.

81 form is known as the Akaike weight,  $w_i$  of a model:

$$w_i = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_i}}{\sum_{r=1}^R e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_r}} \quad (3)$$

82 where  $R$  is the number of models.

83 Lastly, evidence ratios were calculated to show how reliable it is to believe  
 84 that the best model is actually a good fit for the data. To put it in another  
 85 way, evidence ratios reveal whether or not the best model in a set of models  
 86 works best alone, or within a group consisting of one or more of the other  
 87 models in the set. It can be found by simply calculating the ratio of Akaike  
 88 weights:

$$Evidence\ ratio = \frac{w_1}{w_j} \quad (4)$$

89 where  $w_1$  is the Akaike weight of the model with the lowest AIC value, and  
 90  $w_j$  is the Akaike weight of the  $j$ th model.

## 91 **2.3 Computing Tools**

92 Several programming languages were used to create the different aspects  
 93 of this project.

94 R - data exploration, data preparation, plotting

95 packages used: dplyr, ggplot2 (reference)

96 Python - heavy computation (NLLS fitting)

97 packages used: pandas, numpy, lmfit

98 L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X - writing the report

99 The typesetting was done with LaTeX

100 Bash - to stitch all the scripts together  
101 Git - save all versions of code/scripts  
102 include packages  
103

## 104 **3 Results**

### 105 **3.1 Model Fitting**

106 Model fitting convergence success rate was 100% for 5 out of the 7 models  
107 used for NLLS fitting. The baranyi model converged 80.98% of the time  
108 when fitted to all 305 groups, while the the logistic model did not converge  
109 with over half the total number of groups in the dataset (44.92%)

### 110 **3.2 Model Selection**

## 111 **4 Discussion**

112 Although Akaike's Information Criterion is recognized as a major mea-  
113 sure for selecting models, it has one major drawback: The AIC values lack  
114 intuitivity (easy to use and understand) despite higher values meaning less  
115 goodness-of-fit. For this purpose, Akaike weights come to hand for calculat-  
116 ing the weights in a regime of several models. Additional measures can be  
117 derived, such as (AIC) and relative likelihoods that demonstrate the prob-  
118 ability of one model being in favor over the other.

119

120 AIC:



121 good thing: it accounts for overfitting - it has a penalty that increases as  
122 more parameters are added. Adding parameters will almost always improve  
123 the goodness of the fit.

124 An individual AIC value, by itself, is not interpretable due to the unknown  
125 constant (interval scale). AIC is only comparative, relative to other AIC  
126 values in the model set; thus such differences  $\Delta_i$  are very important and  
127 useful.

128 It is important to note here that AIC values do not give any information  
129 about the goodness-of-fit of a model to the data. Rather, they show how  
130 each model performs relative to the other ones in the set. Hence, a single  
131 AIC value of a model has no meaning.

#### 132 **BOOK:**

133 Ambivalence:

134 The inability to ferret out a single best model is not a defect of AIC or  
135 any other selection criterion. Rather, it is an indication that the data are  
136 simply inadequate to reach such a strong inference. That is, the data are  
137 ambivalent concerning some effect or parametrization or structure.

138 In such cases, all the models in the set can be used to make robust in-  
139 ferences: multimodel inference.

140

141 The AIC differences ( $\Delta_i$ ) and Akaike weights ( $w_i$ ) are important in rank-  
142 ing and scaling the hypotheses, represented by models. The evidence ratios  
143 (e.g.,  $w_i/w_j$ ) help sharpen the evidence for or against the various alternative  
144 hypotheses. All of these values are easy to compute and simple to under-  
145 stand and interpret.

146

147       The principle of parsimony provides a philosophical basis for model se-  
148       lection, K-L information provides an objective target based on deep theory,  
149       and AIC,  $AIC_c$ ,  $QAIC_c$ , and TIC provide estimators of relative, expected  
150       K-L information. Objective model selection is rigorously based on these  
151       principles. These methods are applicable across a very wide range of sci-  
152       entific hypotheses and statistical models. We recommend presentation of  
153        $\log(\mathcal{L}(\hat{\theta}))$ , K, the appropriate information criterion (AIC,  $AIC_c$ ,  $QAIC_c$ , or  
154       TIC),  $\Delta_i$ , and  $w_i$  for various models in research papers to provide full infor-  
155       mation concerning the evidence for each of the models.

156

157       **Do not mix null hypothesis testing with information-theoretic**  
158       **criteria:**

159       Some authors state that the best model (say  $g_1$ ) is *significantly* better than  
160       another model (say  $g_6$  based on a  $\Delta$  value of 4-7. Alternatively, sometimes  
161       one sees that model  $g_6$  is rejected relative to the best model. These state-  
162       ments are poor and misleading. It seems best not to associate the words  
163       significant or rejected with results under an information-theoretic paradigm.  
164       Questions concerning the strength of evidence for the models in the set are  
165       best addressed using the evidence ratio (Section 2.10), as well as an anal-  
166       ysis of residuals, adjusted R2, and other model diagnostics or descriptive  
167       statistics.

## 168 5 Conclusion & Future Work

169 studying the death phase

## 170 6 Acknowledgements

171 I would like to extend my gratitude to my fellow colleagues Pablo Lechon  
172 and Sam Turner for engaging in insightful discussions with me about the  
173 miniproject, as well as pulling an all-nighter the night before the submission  
174 deadline (Yes, Samraat, we know you know).

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