## Lesson 12: Model/Variable Selection

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## Learning Objectives

- 1. Understand the motivation for model selection, including bias-variance trade off and alignment of research goals (association vs. prediction)
- 2. Explain the general process or idea behind different model selection techniques
- 3. Recognize common model fit statistics and understand what they measure

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### Why can't I just throw in all the variables into my model?

- First, let's think about the number of observations in our dataset
- For example: In the Gapminder dataset, I can use an indicator for each country
- n countries p=n covariates

- Remember that each country is an observation
- So we have a perfectly fit model a covariate for each observation
- But we cannot generalize this to any other countries
- And we haven't identified any meaningful relationships between life expectancy and other measured characteristics
- More covariates in the model is not always better
  - Overfitting the data limits our generalizability and prevents us from answering research questions

### Model Complexity vs. Parsimony

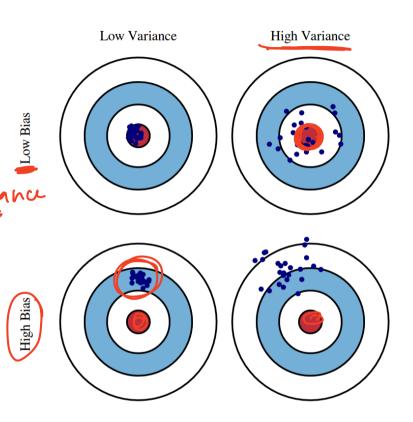
Suppose we have p=30 covariates (in the true model) and n=50 observations. We could consider the following two alternatives:

1. We could fit a model using all of the covariates. 30

• In this case  $\widehat{\beta}$  is unbiased for  $\beta$  (in a linear model fit using OLS). But  $\widehat{\beta}$  has very high variance.  $\rightarrow$  high variance.

2. We could fit a model using only the five strongest covariates. association

• In this case,  $\widehat{\beta}$  will be biased for  $\beta$ , but it will have lower variance (compared to the estimate including all covariates)  $\widehat{\beta}$  interpretable



Source: http://scott.fortmann-roe.com/docs/BiasVariance.html

### Bias-variance trade off

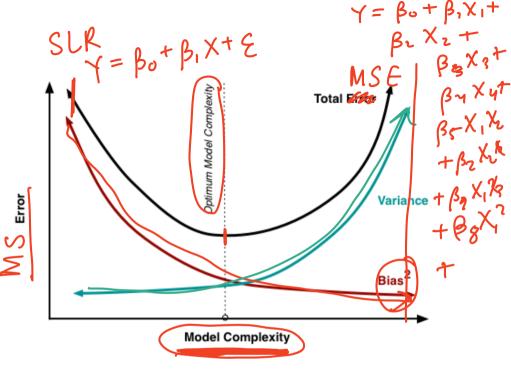
• Recall mean square error is a function of SSE (sum of squared residuals)

$$\underline{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \underline{Y_i - \widehat{Y}_i} \right)^2$$

 MSE can also be written as a function of the bias and "bjas 2 + Variance " variance

$$MSE = \mathrm{bias}ig(\widehat{eta}ig)^2 + \mathrm{variance}ig(\widehat{eta}ig)$$

- For the same data:
  - More covariates in model: less bias, more variance
  - Less covariates in model: more bias, less variance
- Oukgoal: find a model with just the right amount of covariates to balance bias and valiance



Source: http://scott.fortmann-roe.com/docs/BiasVariance.html

potentially inc # covariater
inc interactions
generalizable

w/ new data (not fitted),
does our model still hold?

### Model Selection basics (slide adjusted from Jodi Lapidus)

- "Because models always fall far short of the complex reality under study, there are no best or optimal strategies for modeling."
  - From: Statistical Foundations for Model-Based Adjustments
- Not all statistical texts provide practical advice on model development
  - A lot of resources include methods/code to compare models, but does not include much advice re: selecting which model to ultimately use.
  - Other texts are sparse on details or incorporate simplistic approaches
- Model development strategy should align with research goals
  - Prediction vs. Estimating Association
  - Strategy may depend on study design and data set size

### The goals of association vs. prediction

#### Association / Explanatory / One variable's effect

- **Goal:** Understand one variable's (or a group of variable's) effect on the response after adjusting for other factors
- Mainly interpret the coefficient of the variable that is the focus of the study
  - Interpreting the coefficients of the other variables is not important, but can help bring context
- Any variables not selected for the final model have still been adjusted for, since they had a chance to be in the model Don't usually explicitly
- Example: How is body mass of a penguin mention associated with flipper length?

#### Prediction

- **Goal:** to calculate the most precise prediction of the response variable
- Interpreting coefficients is not important
- Choose only the variables that are strong predictors of the response variable
  - Excluding irrelevant variables can help reduce widths of the prediction intervals
- Example: What is the flipper length of a penguin with body mass of 3000 g (and all its other characteristics)?

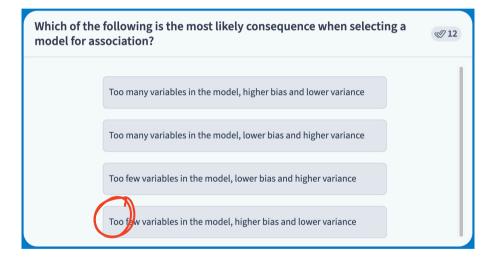
### Model building for association vs. prediction

5/3 More information on the two analysis goals: **Table 1.** Summary of explanatory versus predictive models **Explanatory Models Predictive Models** Goal Establish causal relationships but mostly associations Predict current diagnoses or future outcomes Threats to validity Chance findings (type I errors); confounding Overfitting; lack of generalizability to new populations Candidate variables A limited set of prespecified risk factors A larger set of potential predictors, some and confounders predictors may not be causally related to the outcome Variable selection Hypothesis driven; should not use automated Exploratory; may use automated selection selection procedures procedures, but validation is essential and newer automated procedures that incorporate shrinkage are preferred Measures of model Size of  $\beta$  coefficients for individual risk factors; Discrimination (eg, ROC analysis); calibration performance level of significance for individual risk factors (eg, Hosmer-Lemeshow test); goodness of fit (eg,  $R^2$ , AIC); reclassification (eg, net reclassification index); clinical utility Internal validation: split-sample validation; **Validation** New studies are needed to confirm individual cross validation; bootstrap validation; causal relationships external validation

ROC = receiver operating characteristic; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

If you ever get the chance, check out Dr. Kristin Sainani's series on Statistics

### Poll Everywhere Question 1



### Model selection strategies for *continuous* outcomes

#### Association / Explanatory / One variable's effect

- Selection of potential models is tied more with the research context with some incorporation of prediction scores
- Pre-specification of multivariable model
- Purposeful model selection  $\sqrt{-}$
- "Risk factor modeling"
- Change in Estimate (CIE) approaches
  - Will learn in Survival Analysis (BSTA 514)

#### Prediction

- Selection of potential models is fully dependent on prediction scores
- Automated strategies
  - Stepwise selection (forward/backward)
    - You'll see these a lot, but they're not really good methods
  - Best subset
  - Regularization techniques (LASSO, Ridge, Elastic net)
- For categorical outcomes, there are more prediction model selection strategies (will learn more in BSTA 513)
  - Examples: Decision trees, Random forest, Neural networks, K-means



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# Pre-specification of multivariable model (slide adjusted from Jodi Lapidus)

- In a clinical trial, we often have to write and finalize a statistical analysis plan (SAP) before the trial starts
- If we wish to compare treatment effects adjusted for covariates, all covariates typically specified in advance
  - Example: Comparing effectiveness of 3-drug vs. 2-drug regimen for delaying AIDS onset or death. Covariates such as severity of HIV infection at baseline would have been specified in advance.
  - Variables such as study site, as well as any randomization stratification variables are common covariates.
- In these cases, only a limited number of multivariable models are fit and reported
  - Do not perform all the model building steps outlined in Hosmer and Lemeshow texts

### Purposeful model selection (slide adjusted from Jodi Lapidus)

- Can use this type of model selection for any type of regression
- Careful, well-thought out variable selection process
  - Considers both confounding and interaction, as well as checking model assumptions, fit, etc.
- Often a reasonable strategy, especially in epidemiology and more exploratory clinical studies
  - However, not always appropriate!
  - E.g. clinical trials with model specified in advance. (pre-specified model)

• This is the selection process that we will focus on in this class!

### Change in estimate (CIE) approach (slide adjusted from Jodi Lapidus)

- CIE strategies select covariates on the basis of how much their control changes exposure effect estimates
  - Observed change is presumed to measure confounding by the covariate.

Dexplanating

- What estimate?
  - (H/L) text suggest using coefficients from the model
  - We typically use the coefficient estimate from the explanatory variable that we are most interested in
- What magnitude change is "important"?
  - ■(H/I) text suggest 10%) → Confounders
- One must choose an effect measure to judge change importance, where "importance" needs to be evaluated along a contextually meaningful scale
- Accurate assessment of confounding may require examining changes from removing entire sets of covariates
  - Add in or eliminate candidate confounders one at time?
  - Add in or eliminate candidate confounders in sets?



### Stepwise selection (slide adjusted from Adrianna Westbrook)

- This is an incredibly common approach that statisticians use, often because it is an <u>older and more recognized</u> method
  - BUT IT IS ALSO ONE OF THE WORST MODEL SELECTION STRATEGIES!!
- Major disadvantages to stepwise selection:
  - Prone to overfitting /
  - Biased estimates //
  - Cements the wrong idea that we are looking for out most significant covariates
- Predictors/covariates are added or removed one at time if they are below a certain threshold (usually p-value below 0.10 to 0.20)

### Stepwise selection: two common approaches

- I will introduce two of the approaches so that you understand the general process if a collaborator ever mentions stepwise selection
- Forward selection:
  - For  $p \, \mathcal{E}$  variates potential covariates, run all simple linear regressions:

$$\circ \underline{Y} = eta_0 + eta_1 X_1 + \epsilon$$
 through  $\underline{Y} = eta_0 + eta_1 X_p + \epsilon$ 

p-value lowest < 0.2

- $\circ$  Include the  $X_i$  with the lowest p-value (assuming it is below the threshold)
- lacksquare Now run  $Y=eta_0+eta_1X_i+eta_2X_1$  +  $\epsilon$  through  $Y=eta_0+eta_1X_i+eta_2X_p$  +  $\epsilon$  and enter the next  $X_j$  with the lowest p-value
- Continue process until no more predictors come back with a p-value below the threshold
- Backward selection:
  - Start with a full model ( $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \ldots + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon$ ) and remove predictor with the highest p-value (assuming it is above the threshold)  $\rho$ -val  $\Rightarrow$  0.2 & highest
  - Repeatedly remove the variable with the highest p-value until all remaining variables meet the stopping criteria (are below the threshold)

### Best subset (slide adjusted from Adrianna Westbrook)

- I don't see this approach very often
- Quite literally making subsets of the data and using the "best" one
- General steps:
  - Run every possible model fitting 1 to all possible p predictors/covariates
  - You can limit number of potential predictors
  - $2^p$  = total number of models where p = number of predictors
  - You will get the best fitting model within each category (i.e., 1 predictor model, 2 predictor model, ..., p
     predictor model)
  - Then have to find the best fitting model between the best models from each category
- Major disadvantages to best subset:
  - Does not account for interactions
  - Needs to run a lot of models (takes A LOT of time)

### Regularization techniques



• Regularization techniques (LASSO, ridge, elastic net) adds a penalization that shrinks (or regularizes) coefficients down to reduce overfitting

	LASSO (Least About Shrinkage and Selection Operator)	Ridge	Elastic Net
Penalization	L-1 Norm, uses absolute value	L-2 Norm, uses squared value	Best of both worlds, L-1 and L-2 used
Pro's	Reduces overfitting, will shrink coefficient to zero	Reduces overfitting, handles collinearity, can handle k>n	Reduces overfitting, handles collinearity, handles k>n, shrinks coefficients to zero
Con's	Cannot handle k>n, doesn't handle multicollinearity well	Does not shrink coefficients to zero, difficult to interpret	More difficult for R to do than the other two (but not really that bad)

## Poll Everywhere Question 2

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#### Introduction to model fit statistics

- So far we have compared models using the F-test
- The F-test is a great way to compare models that are **nested** 
  - Basically, this means that the "full" model contains all the covariates that the "reduced" model contains
  - The full model will have additional covariates, but the covariates in the reduced is a subset of the covariates in the full
- What if we want to compare models that are not nested?
  - There is a special group of fit statistics that can help us compare models
  - Note: these are sometimes used in the model building process (within one strategy)
    - Helpful if we want to compare selected models across strategies
    - Helpful if we have a few "final" models with different covariates that we want to compare

### Common model fit statistics

- The following model fit statistics combine information about the SSE, the number of parameters in the model, and the sample size
- For these fit statistics, smaller values indicate better model fit!

Fit statistic	Equation	R code
R-squared / Adjusted R-squared	$Adj.R^2=1-rac{SSE/(n-p-1)}{SSY/(n-1)}$	Within summary(model_name)
Mallow's $C_p$	$C_p = iggl[ rac{\widehat{\sigma}_p^2}{\widehat{\sigma}_{max}^2} - 1 iggr] (n-p) + p$	ols_mallows_cp()
Akaike information criterion (AIC)	$AIC = n\log(SSE) - n\log(n) + 2(p+1)$	AIC(model_name)
Bayesian information criterion (BIC)	$BIC = n\log(SSE) - n\log(n) + log(n) \cdot (p+1)$	BIC(model_name)

• We don't need to know the exact formulas for them!

### Common model fit statistics

- There is no hypothesis testing for these fit statistics
  - Only helpful if you are comparing models
  - Works for nested and non-nested models
- Common to report all or some of them
- All of the fit statistics will not necessarily reach a consensus about the best fitting model
  - Each weigh SSE, number of parameters, and number of observations differently

							RMSEA			
Time point(s)	Model	$\chi^2(df)$	AIC	Sample size adjusted BIC	CFI 7	TLI	RMSEA [95% CI]	Prob. Close Fit (< .05)	Null Model RMSEA	SRMR
2 corre factor	1 factor	304.56 (82), p < .001	33,700.01	33,782.35	.94	.92	.069 [.061, .077]	.000	.217	.066
	2 correlated factors	258.91 (80), p < .001	33,658.36	33,743.05	.95	.93	.062 [.054, .071]	.008	.217	.080
	Bifactor	201.99 (76), p < .001	33,609.44	33,698.84	.97	.95	.054 [.045, .063]	.234	.238	.044
T2	1 factor	201.66 (78), p < .001	29,622.57	29,702.88	.96	.94	.055 [.046, .065]	.179	.197	.074
	2 correlated factors	201.17 (80), p < .001	29,618.07	29,696.22	.96	.94	.054 [.045, .063]	.239	.197	.054
	Bifactor	177.93 (74), p < .001	29,606.83	29,691.49	.96	.94	.052 [.042, .062]	.365	.216	.049
T1-T2	Regression structural model	746.23 (370), p < .001	60,432.23	60,655.73	.96	.95	.042 [.038, .046]	.999	.186	.054
T1-T2	Trait structural model	817.17 (378), p < .001	60,487.16	60,701.25	.96	.94	.045 [.041, .049]	.974	.186	.061

https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Model-Fit-Statistics\_tbl1\_308844501

