

Model Selection

- Philosophy of science and multiple alternative models
- Trade-offs
- Likelihood-based metrics
 - Likelihood Ratio Test
 - AIC
- Bayesian metrics
 - DIC
 - Predictive Loss

“The” Scientific Method?

- Popper
 - Falsification of hypotheses
 - Hypotheses can not be proved, only disproved
- Stats: “Hypothesis testing”
 - Single hypothesis is disproved by confrontation with the data
 - Likelihood the data would have been observed if the null hypothesis was true
 - If this probability (p-value) is small enough we reject the null

Alternative Philosophies of Science

- Kuhn – Scientific Paradigms
 - Dominant paradigm used until there is so much contradictory information that it is “overthrown”
 - Requires an alternate paradigm that is “better”
- Polanyi – Republic of science
 - Multiple views of the world by different scientists
 - Confrontation between views and data judged by plausibility, value, and interest
- Lakatos – Scientific research program
 - Confrontation of multiple hypothesis with data as arbitrator

Null models

- All these alternatives acknowledge
 - There may be multiple alternative models
 - Simple null models often scientifically trivial, uninteresting
 - Doesn't make sense to reject a model if there is not an alternative
- Likelihood and Bayesian stats both well suited to “judge” the contest between multiple competing hypotheses and data

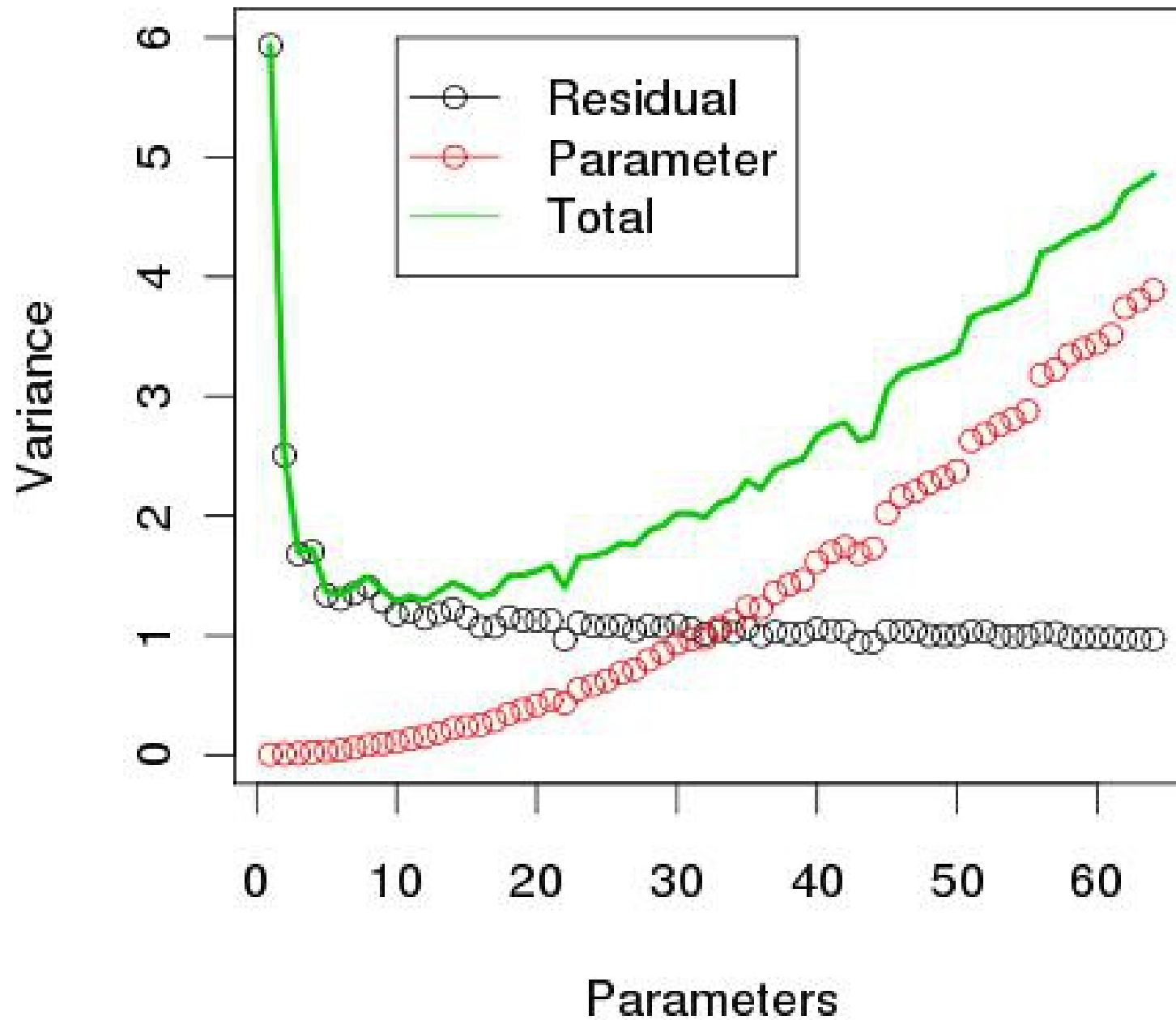
Models vs Hypotheses

- Models usually more specific than hypothesis
- Hypoth: Birds forage more efficiently in flocks
- Models: Consumption vs Size
 - Consumption proportional $C = aS$
 - Consumption saturates $C = \frac{aS}{1 + bS}$
 - Increases then decreases $C = aS e^{-bS}$
- “All models are wrong but some are useful”
-- George Box

Model selection

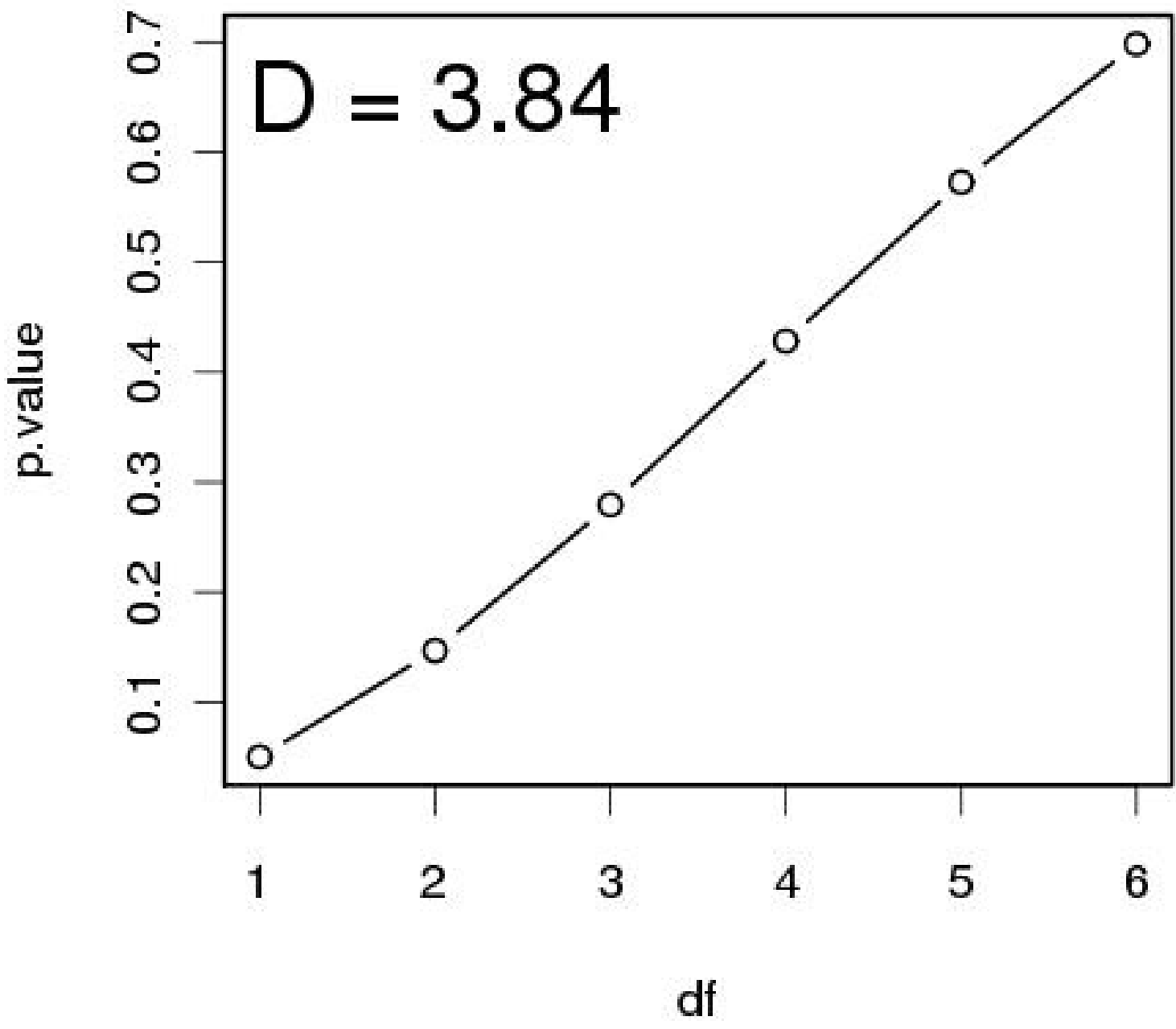
- Focus on choosing between multiple competing models rather than refuting a single null model
- How do we judge models?
 - Complexity
 - Number of parameters
 - Uncertainty
 - Model residuals
 - Parameter error (identifiability)
 - Data as ultimate arbiter
- “Make everything as simple as possible, but not simpler.” - A. Einstein

UNCERTAINTY



Likelihood Ratio Test

- $LR = L(x|\theta_0) / L(x|\theta_1)$
- $D = -2\ln L(x|\theta_0) - -2\ln L(x|\theta_1)$
- The test statistic D is known to be distributed with a χ^2 distribution
- Degrees of freedom = Difference in # of param.
 - Overall, L increases ($-\ln L$ declines) with # of param.
 - Penalizes model with more parameters
- $p\text{-val} = 1 - \text{pchisq}(D, df)$



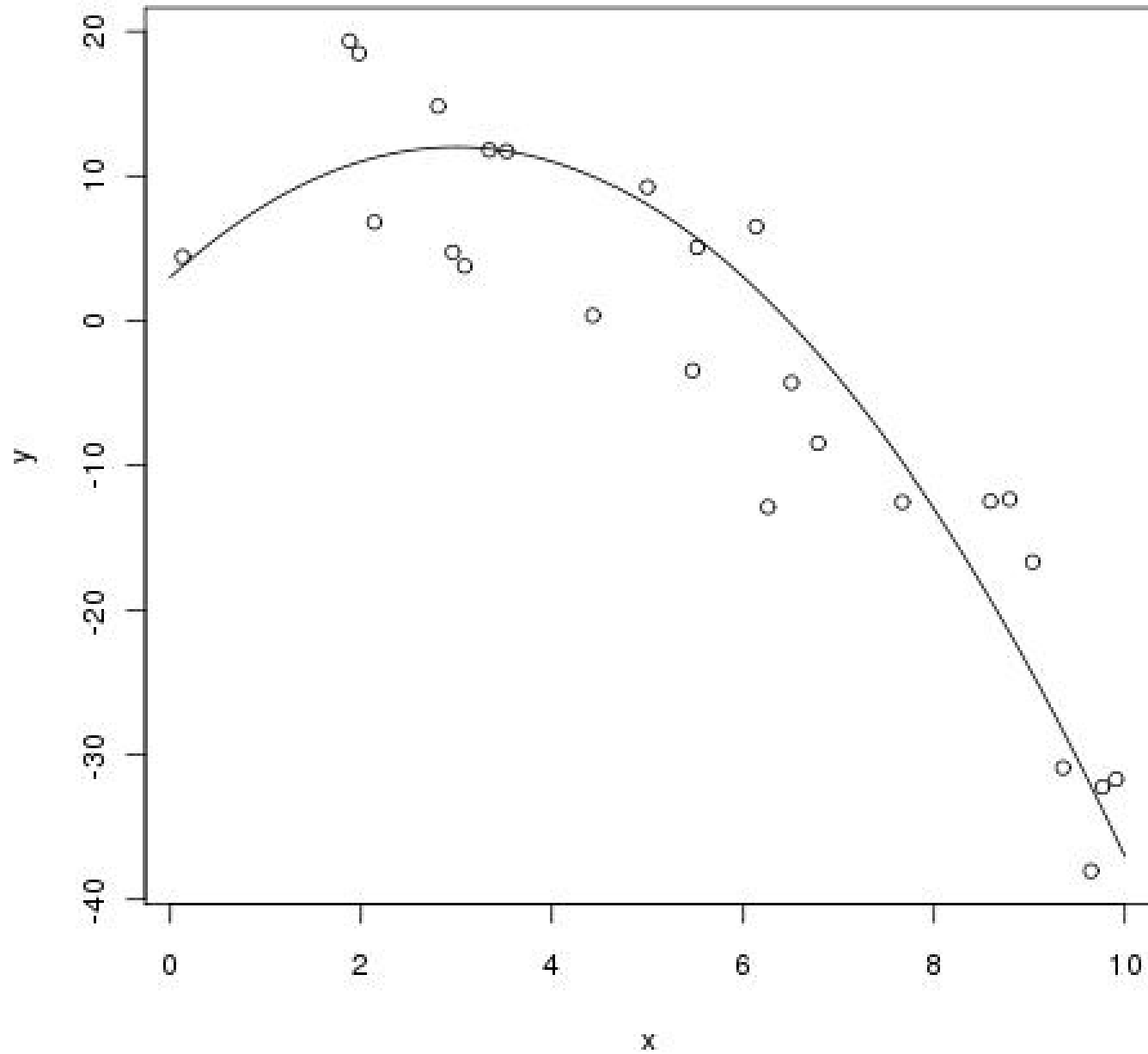
LRT pro/con

- Only applies to nested models
- Asymptotically, slightly biased toward more complex models
- Provides a p-value
- Additional reminders:
 - **ALL** model selection criteria require application to the same data with same sample size
 - e.g. If adding covariate Z requires rows to be dropped because of missing values, have to drop from the model w/o Z as well

Nested Models

- The more complex model collapses to the simpler model when one or more of the parameters is **FIXED**
- Examples:
 - Weibull vs Exponential (Lab 3)
(fix $c=1$)
 - Pine cone: combined vs *AMB/ELEV* (Lab 4)
 - Regression: Inclusion of additional covariates
(fix slope = 0)

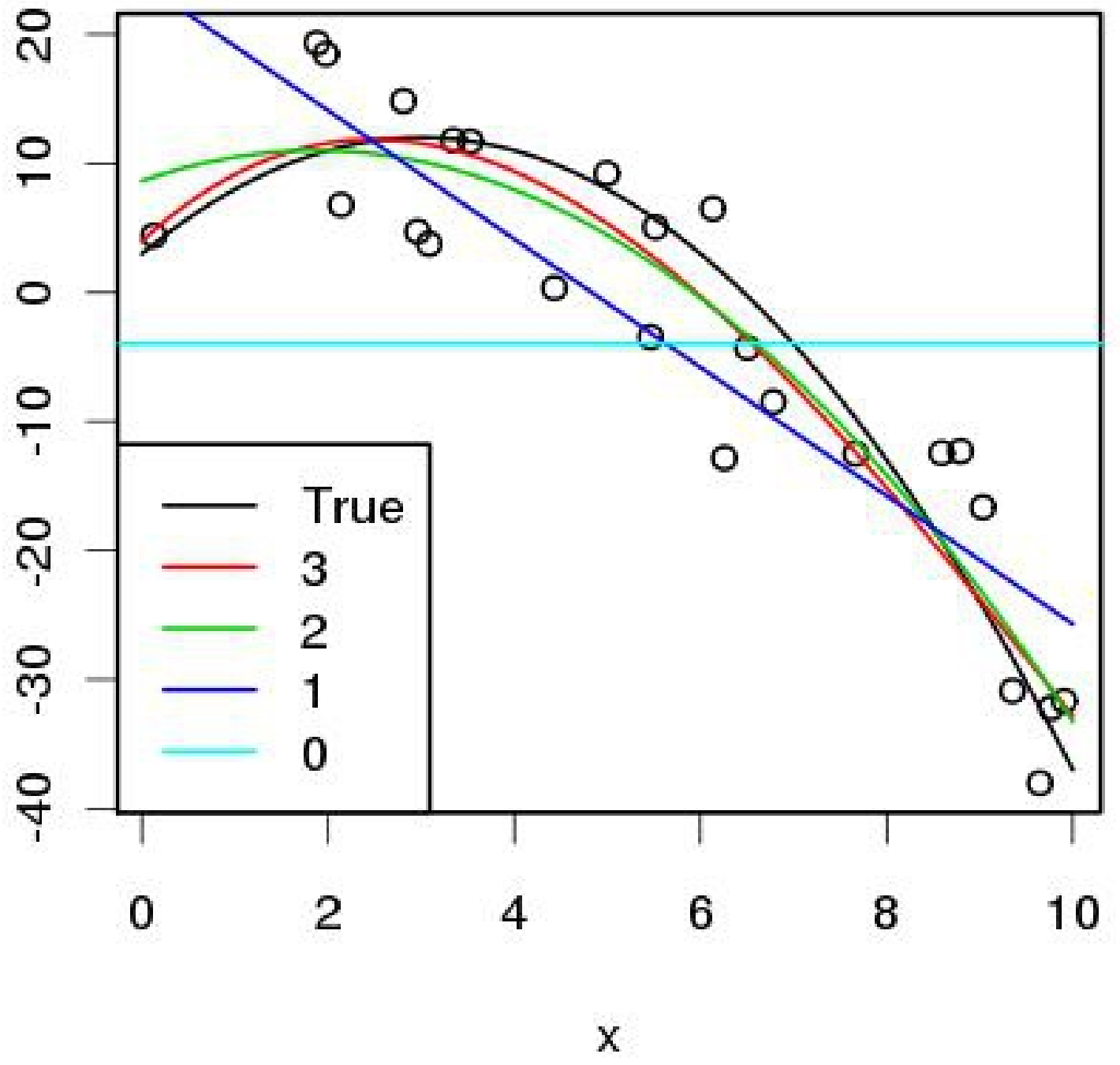
Example: Polynomial



Example: Polynomial

- Candidate models:
 - $Y = b_0$
 - $Y = b_0 + b_1 \cdot x$
 - $Y = b_0 + b_1 \cdot x + b_2 \cdot x^2$
 - $Y = b_0 + b_1 \cdot x + b_2 \cdot x^2 + b_3 \cdot x^3$
- Comparisons
 - 0 vs 1
 - 1 vs 2
 - 2 vs 3

- 0 vs 1
 $p=7.6e-10$
- 1 vs 2
 $p=0.00019$
- 2 vs 3
 $p=0.9238$

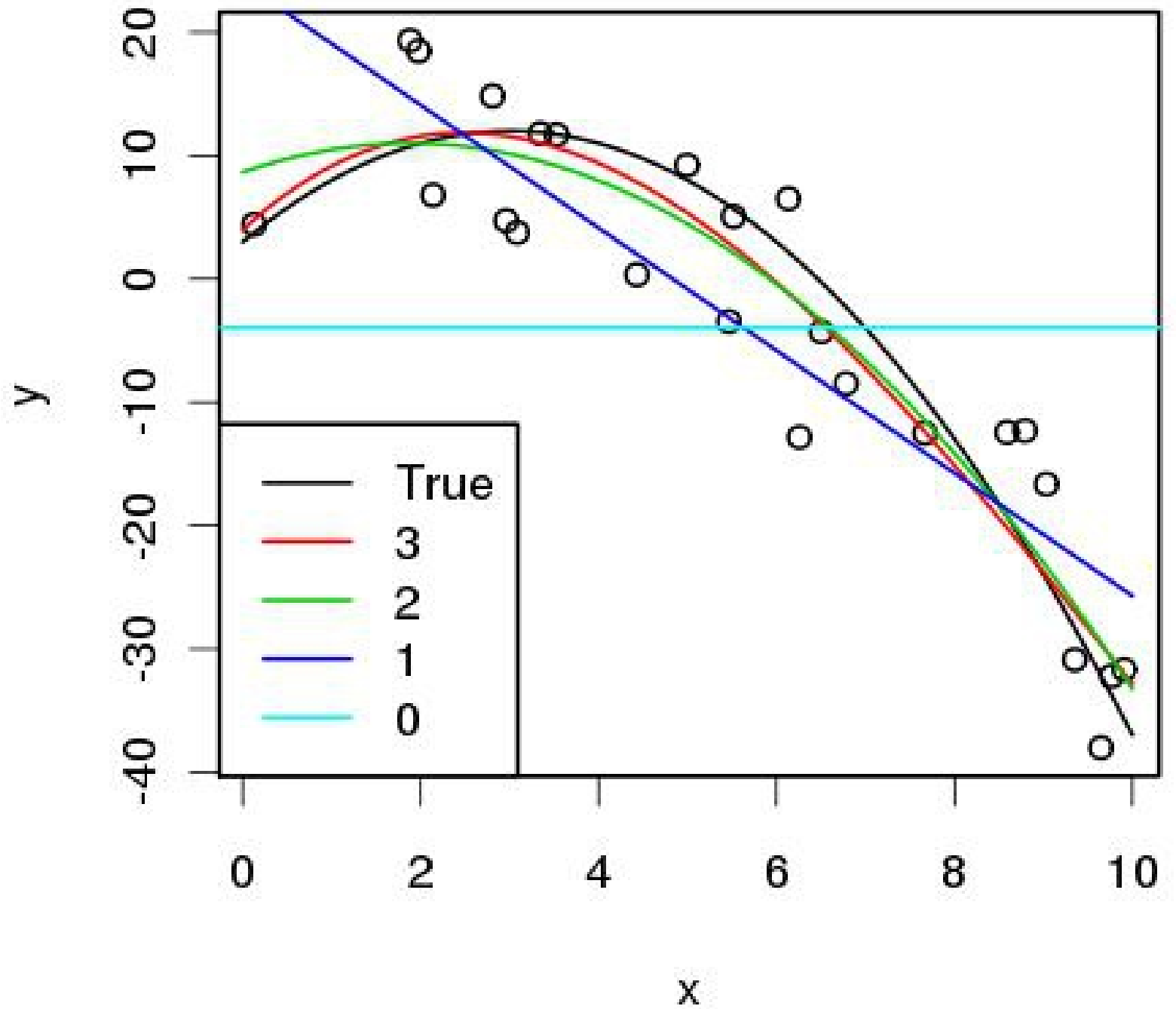


Akaike Information Criterion

$$AIC = -2 \ln L + 2p$$

- p = number of parameters in the model
- Based on information theory
- Lowest value “wins”
- Often expressed relative to best model, ΔAIC
- No p-value
- “Rules of thumb”
 - 0-2 = similar
 - 2-5 = weak support
 - >5 = strong

- ΔAIC
- 0
47.77
- 1
11.91
- 2
0.00
- 3
1.99



P-value

- Probability of obtaining a test statistic at least as extreme as the one that was actually observed, assuming that the null hypothesis is true.
- **Not** the probability that the null hypothesis is true
 - P-value can be close to zero when the posterior probability of the null is close to 1
- **Not** the probability of falsely rejecting the null hypothesis

PROBABLE CAUSE

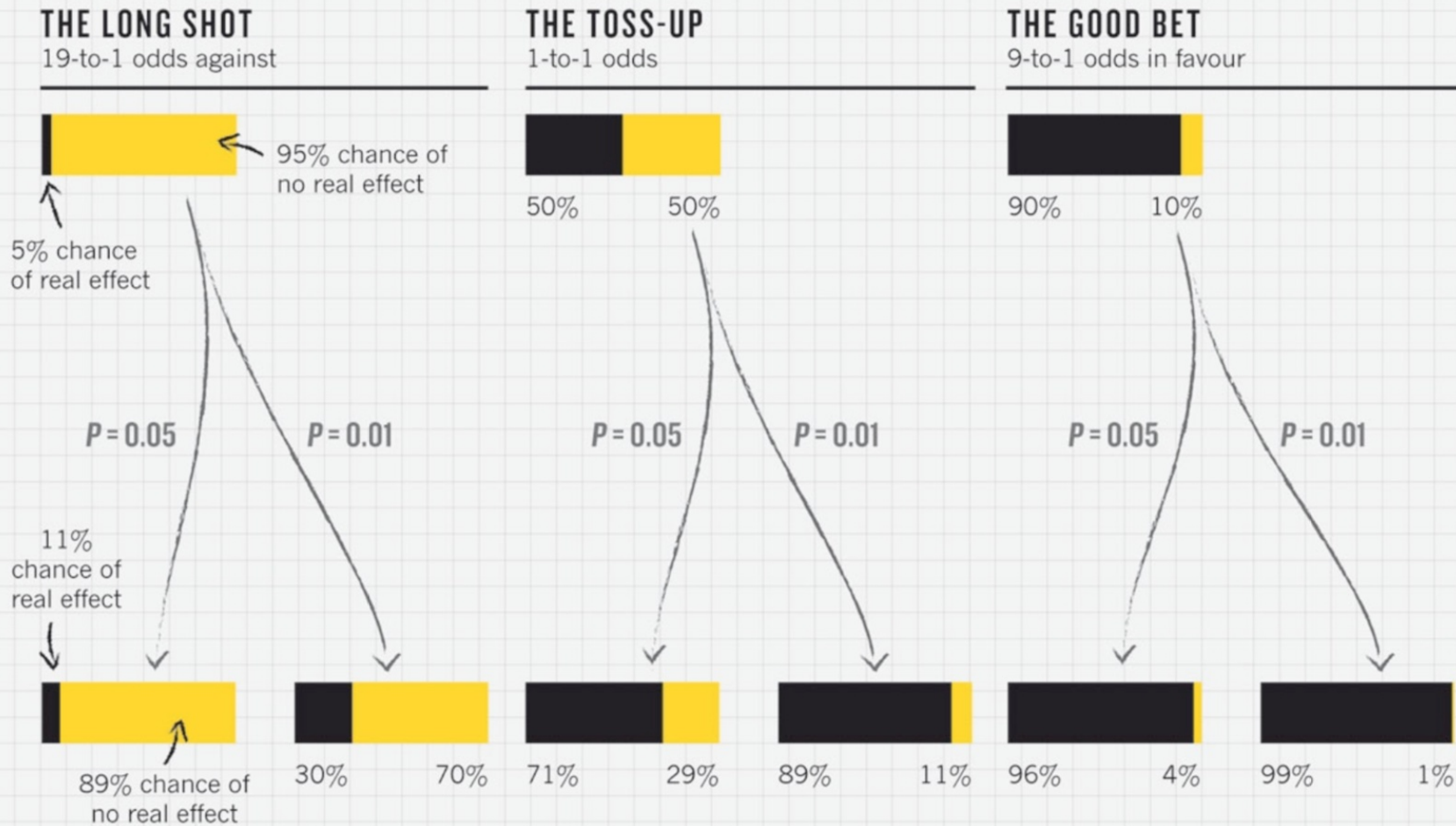
A P value measures whether an observed result can be attributed to chance. But it cannot answer a researcher's real question: what are the odds that a hypothesis is correct? Those odds depend on how strong the result was and, most importantly, on how plausible the hypothesis is in the first place.

■ Chance of real effect
 ■ Chance of no real effect

Before the experiment
 The plausibility of the hypothesis — the odds of it being true — can be estimated from previous experiments, conjectured mechanisms and other expert knowledge. Three examples are shown here.

The measured P value
 A value of 0.05 is conventionally deemed 'statistically significant'; a value of 0.01 is considered 'very significant'.

After the experiment
 A small P value can make a hypothesis more plausible, but the difference may not be dramatic.



Example: Southern Brown Frog

- Researcher surveys a pond for the frog
- From prior experience 80% detection | present
- No frogs observed
- If null hypothesis is frogs are absent
 - $P = 1.0$ -- Fail to reject
 - Further surveys that fail to find the frog, $p=1.0$
- If null hypothesis is frogs are present
 - $P = 0.2$ – Fail to reject

Power

- Probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis
- Requires that some explicit alternative hypothesis is stated
 - Parameter values
 - Variance
 - Sample size
- Often calculated as a function of sample size
- For complex models, calculate through simulation

Generic Example

```
LnL.A = function(theta,y){
  -sum(dnorm(y,f(x,theta),sd)))
}
lnL.0 = function(mu,y){
  -sum(dnorm(y,mu,sd))
}
for(i in 1:nsim){
  Ey = f(x,theta)          ## process model
  ysim = rnorm(N,Ey,sd)    ## data model
  outA = optim(ic,lnL.A,y=ysim) ## fit alternative
  out0 = optim(ic,lnL.0,y=ysim) ## fit null
  pval[i] = 1-pchisq(2*(outA$value-out0$value),df)
}
power = sum(pval < 0.05)/nsim
```

Identifiability

- Data may not provide information on all parameters in a model
- Often requires restructuring model
- Not fixed by collecting more data
- Parameters often “trade-off when fitting”
- Simple examples
 - $N(\mu, \sigma^2 + \tau^2)$
 - $N(a/b, \sigma^2)$
- Occur in both Likelihood and Bayes