Predictor selection

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The problem of how best to select which predictors to include in a model is a nontrivial, unsolved one.

"All models are wrong but some are useful."

-George Box

The difficulty comes from having to estimate future performance from past behavior.

"Past performance is no guarantee of future results." – Any investment document

As a forecaster, it is better to know a model has poor skill than to mistakenly think a poor model has good skill.

"It ain't what you don't know that gets you into trouble. It's what you know for sure that just ain't so"

– Mark Twain

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(Why not the model that best fits the data?)

Goal: a model which skillfully predicts independent data.

independent from the the data used to select and train the model.

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- List some common methods
- Apply them to a simple example.
- Important: no magic, all-powerful method.
- All can be tricked by screening
- Avoid methods that that are prone to constructing spurious relations. (How to check?)

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► Include "screening" in predictor selection procedure.

Indirect methods (no use of independent data, depend on SSE):

- F-test
- ▶ Mallow's C_P
- ► AIC, BIC

- ► Split the data.
- Cross-validation

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Example: DJF temperature

Predictand (y)

 Average Dec-Feb 1962-2003 temperature over land. (42 years)

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- Predictors (x)
 - Climatology
 - Sep-Nov NINO 3.4.
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	The IRI/LDEO Climate Data Library contains over 300 datasets from a variety of earth science disciplines and climate-related topics. It is a powerful tool that offers the following capabilities at no cost to the user:								
Data Library expert	 access any number of datasets; create analyses of data ranging from simple averaging to more advanced EOF analyses using the Ingrid Data Analysis 								
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<u>overview</u> an <u>CRU Home Page</u>

Datasets and variables

Global Historical monthly precipitation dataset for global land areas.

Hulme UEA CRU Hulme[Global]

Jones Land air temperature and sea surface temperature anomalies.

New Mean surface climate data over global land areas, including tercile and percentile data.

TS2p1 Mean surface climate data over global land areas, including tercile and percentile data.

TS3p0 TS3.0 Pre-Release (Interim) Data: Mean surface climate data over global land areas.

Done



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Independent Variables (Grids)

Time

grid: /T (months since 1960-01-01) ordered (Jan 1901) to (Dec 2002) by 1. N= 1224 pts :grid

Longitude

grid: /X (degree_east) periodic (179.75W) to (179.75E) by 0.5 N= 720 pts :grid

Latitude

grid: /Y (degree_north) ordered (89.75S) to (89.75N) by 0.5 N= 360 pts :grid

Other Info

Done



monthly mean temp temp temp temperature from UEA CRU TS2p1: Mean surface climate data over global land areas, including tercile and percentile d

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Independent Variables (Grids)

Time grid: /T (months since 1960-01-01) ordered (Dec 1960 - Feb 1961) to (Dec 2001 - Feb 2002) by 12. N= 42 pts :grid Longitude grid: /X (degree_east) periodic (179.75W) to (179.75E) by 0.5 N= 720 pts :grid

Latitude

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arid: N (doaroo north) ordered (20 755) to (20 75N) by 0.5 N- 360 ptc arid
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UEA CF	U TS2p1	monthly mean temp Data Files						
This dataset has bytes (4.3545600E07 41.52832MB) of data in it, which should give you a rough idea of the size of any file that you ask								
Download Data To Specific Software								
ingrid The Postscript-based software on which the Data Library is built.								
CPT	Climate Predictability Tool More information							
ferret	Interactive computer visualization and analysis software. More information							
<u>GrADS</u>	Grid Analysis and Display System More information							
matlab	Data analysis a	nd visualization software. More information						
NCL	NCAR Command Language More information							
WinDisp		n software package for the display and analysis of satellite images, maps and associated databases, with an e Ig for food security. <u>More information</u>						
Other Available File Formats								
<u>OPeNDAP</u>		A system which downloads data directly to software, such as matlab, Ferret, GrADS, etc. Specific instruction available in the table above. Note: OPeNDAP was formerly known as DODS (Distributed Oceanographic Data <u>Mace information</u>						
		A commonly supported self-describing data format. More Information						
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Partial Information Formats

Example: DJF temperature

Predictand (y)

 Average Dec-Feb 1962-2003 temperature over land. (42 years)

Predictors (x)

- Climatology
- Sep-Nov NINO 3.4.
- Trend

Consider 4 possible sets of predictors.

- Climatology
- Climatology & Sep-Nov NINO 3.4.
- Climatology & Trend
- Climatology & Sep-Nov NINO 3.4.& Trend

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Compare the SSE of a *P*-predictor model with that of the 1-parameter reference model. (What is the 1-parameter model?)

Reference forecast = "climatology" (1-parameter model).

$$f = \frac{\frac{SSE_1 - SSE_P}{P - 1}}{\frac{SSE_P}{N - P}} = \frac{SSE_1 - SSE_P}{SSE_P} \frac{N - P}{P - 1}$$

where

SSE₁ = ∑^N_{i=1} (Y_i − Ȳ)² is the sum of squared error for the climatology forecast.
 SSE_P = ∑^N_{i=1} (Y_i − Y_{Pi})² is the sum of squared error for the model with *P* predictors,

► *N* is the sample size.

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$$f = \frac{\frac{SSE_1 - SSE_P}{P - 1}}{\frac{SSE_P}{N - P}}$$

- ► Under the null hypothesis that the *P*-parameter model is not better than the 1-parameter model, *f* has an *F* distribution with parameters (*P* − 1, *N* − *P*).
- ► Compute the associated α = Prob(F > f) probability value.
- Find the model with the lowest α .
- Check that α is smaller than some limit (5%). If α exceeds the limit, use climatology forecast.

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A correction is needed for multiple comparisons.

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Not quite right (not independent).

Modest values of *m* lead to very strict requirements on the significance level.

Example: DJF temperature

Models selected at each gridpoint using the F-test ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)



Example: DJF temperature

Models selected at each gridpoint using the F-test ($\alpha \leq 0.05/3$)



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Mallow's C_P

$$C_P = rac{SSE_P}{MSE_{full}} - N + 2P$$

where

►
$$SSE_P = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (Y_i - Y_{Pi})^2$$
 is the sum of squared error for the model with *P* predictors,

 Y_{pi} is the predicted value of the *i*-th observation of Y from the model with P predictors.

► *N* is the sample size.

. .

Mallow's C_P

$$C_P = rac{SSE_P}{MSE_{full}} - N + 2P$$

If the extra variables are noise (no more variables needed)

$$E\left[\frac{SSE_{P}}{MSE_{full}}\right] = (n-p)\frac{\sigma_{P}}{\sigma_{full}} = n-p$$

and

$$E[C_P]=p$$

If the extra variables are useful (not enough variables in model), $\sigma_{\it P} > \sigma_{\it full}$ and

$$E[C_P] > p$$

The model with the lowest C_P value approximately equal to P is the most "adequate" model.

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Strategies:

- Minimize C_p.
- Graphical

Example: DJF temperature

Models selected at each gridpoint using Mallow's C_P .



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AIC

Information theory measure of the difference between model and truth.

- To estimate parameters, find the most likely model (best fit) given the observations.
- This maximized likelihood (fit) is biased.
- Likelihood (fit) increases as the number of predictors increases. AIC corrects for this bias.

General case

$$AIC = -2\log L + 2P$$

where *L* is the maximized likelihood of a model with *P* parameters.

Can be applied to any model where *L* is known. (Not just regression).

AIC

For linear regression (neglecting some constants),

 $AIC = N \log SSE_P + 2P$

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- AIC rewards fit, penalizes complexity.
- Choose model that minimizes AIC.
- Differences in AIC are relevant.
 - Δ < 2 small.
 - $4 < \Delta < 7$ large.
 - $\Delta >$ 10 very large.

Example: DJF temperature

Models selected at each gridpoint using AIC.



Corrected AIC

Correction for small sample size. AIC is an approximation. AICc is more accurate for small sample size.

Should be used always (especially. for N/P < 40)

$$AICc = N \log SSE_P + 2P + \frac{2P(P+1)}{N-P-1}$$

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Rewards fit, penalizes complexity a little more.

Example: DJF temperature

Models selected at each gridpoint using AICc.



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Approximation to Bayes factor with equally likely priors. (AIC = Bayes factor with "savvy" prior).

General case

$$BIC = -2 \log L + P \log N$$

where *L* is the maximized likelihood of a model with *P* parameters.

$$[AIC = -2\log L + 2P]$$

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(Which picks simpler models? Why?)
For linear regression (neglecting some constants),

 $BIC = N \log SSE_P + P \log N$

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Rewards fit, penalizes complexity more than AIC.

May under-fit in small-moderate sample sizes.

AIC vs. BIC? Unsettled.

Models selected at each gridpoint using BIC.



Data splitting method

- Train the model on half of the data.
- Make forecasts the other half of the data.
- Choose the model with the best skill.

Is this picking the model with the best fit?

A third data set is needed to evaluate the skill of the selected model. Why?

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The third data set ...

A screening example.

- Your model = 20 random numbers. rnorm(20)
- Generate many such models.
- Check how well each one fits the last 20 years of AIR.
- Pick the one that does best.

Skill in the selection data set is high.

Skill in an independent data set (and real skill) would be low. Moral:

- 1. Avoid looking at many models.
- 2. Model selection and skill estimation are separate.

Avoid procedures that lead to the skill in the "third data set" being very different from that in the selection data set. (How to check?)

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Models trained using 1962-1982 and selected at each gridpoint using skill 1983-2003.



Why noisier?

Models trained using 1983-2003 and selected at each gridpoint using skill 1962-1982.



Why noisier?

Cross validation

A method for mimicking actual forecasting.

An alternative to splitting the data.

- ▶ Remove some number *K* of samples from the data set.
- Estimate the model on the remaining N K samples.
- ▶ Use that model to predict the *K* left-out samples.
 - Sometimes a set of K contiguous in time samples are left out and only the middle one is predicted to deal with temporal correlation.[More later]
- Repeat.

Often K = 1. Leave-one-out cross-validation.

Illustration: Cross-validation in R

```
ypred = y+NA
for(ii in 1:N) {
    out = (ii-1):(ii+1)
    training = setdiff(1:N,out)
    xcv = x[training]
    ycv = y[training]
    model.cv = lm(ycv ~ xcv)
    ypred[ii] = predict(model.cv,list(xcv=x[ii]))
}
```

- R has built-in cross-validation routines
- More efficient method for leave-one-out.

Models selected at each gridpoint using leave-one-out cross-validation.



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Summary of methods

Two types of methods

Balance between fit and number of predictors.

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- F-test
- Mallow's C_P
- AIC (corrected), BIC

Apply model to independent data:

- Split data
- Cross-validation

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Frequencies of the models selected



- AIC, AICc, C_p and cross-validation agree at 90% of the gridpoints.
- BIC and F-test agree in 93% of the gridpoints.
- F-test "corrected" for multiple comparisons is very strict.

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How effective are the methods?

Apply them to models with random predictors.

Performance across methods is more similar than different.

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Moral

- Many predictor selection methods.
- All can be fooled given enough chances.

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What can be done to avoid mishaps?