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Model Selection for Incomplete and Design-Based Samples: An Application to Cervix Cancer Screening

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Abstract

The Akaike Information Criterion, AIC, is one of the most frequently used methods to select one or a few good, *optimal* regression models from a set of candidate models. In case the sample is incomplete, the naive use of this criterion on the so-called complete cases can lead to the selection of poor or inappropriate models. A similar problem occurs when a sample based on a design with unequal selection probabilities, is treated as a simple random sample. In this paper we consider a modification of AIC, based on reweighing the sample in analogy with the weighted Horvitz-Thompson estimates. It is shown that this weighted AIC-criterion provides better model choices for both incomplete and design-based samples. The use of the weighted AIC-criterion is illustrated on data from the Belgian Health Interview Survey, which motivated this research. Simulations show its performance in a variety of settings.

1 Introduction

In a regression analysis, starting from a rich enough family of models and based on the data at hand, one or a few good models can be selected, e.g. using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). In case of missing data, simple deletion of the subsample of incomplete observations and treating the resulting subsample of so-called *complete cases* as a simple random sample has been shown to possibly lead to biased estimates, even when using a correct model [see 1, 2]. A similar problem occurs when the observations come from a complex survey design, i.e. when sampling from a finite population with unequal selection probabilities. Indeed, the probability that an observation is incomplete can also be considered as a selection probability for that observation to be included in the sample or not. Analyzing such design-based data as a simple random sample can also introduce bias [3].

There is a vast literature on parametric and nonparametric models in case of incomplete or design-based samples, but most of it concerns estimation (assuming a correct model) rather than model selection. The naive use of model selection criteria however turns out to be unreliable in case of the aforementioned complications in the data. Indeed, treating the complete cases or the design-based sample as just a simple random sample can invoke some effects to appear or disappear and thus suggest an other (incorrect) model to be more adequate for the data at hand.

In the context of incomplete data, selection methods like the predictive divergence for incomplete observations (PDIO, [4]) and the complete data AIC (AICcd, [5]) have been proposed. These methods rely on modelling the complete data likelihood, which introduces an additional model selection problem, namely the selection of an appropriate model for the missingness mechanism (if not missing completely at random). In this

paper we focus on selecting appropriate models for the measurement part, while treating the missingness mechanism as a nuisance. We propose a modification of the AIC-criterion for regression models, based on reweighing the complete cases by their inverse selection probabilities. The latter selection probabilities, if unknown, are preferably estimated non-parametrically (using e.g. splines), in this way avoiding the selection of a parametric model with its assumptions for the missingness process. This weighing of completely observed cases can be seen as an implicit imputation of missing observations and is valid when the probability to be missing depends upon the observed values but not on the unobserved values (MAR in the terminology of Little and Rubin [\[6\]](#)).

For the closely related situation of design-based samples, model selection has not been really investigated. In the next section, the motivating study illustrates both complications of missingness and design-based sampling. In Section 3, the weighted AIC-criterion is introduced and discussed, mainly for parametric models, but its applicability is also extended to nonparametric models. Indeed, analogous to the selection of an optimal model from a set of parametric candidate models, one can choose the optimal smoothing parameter in nonparametric regression based on an AIC-criterion, as shown by Hurvich *et al.* [\[7\]](#). We will modify this criterion to handle incomplete and design-based samples. An application to the cervix cancer screening data is shown in Section 4 while, in Section 5, a simulation study shows the improved performance of the modified AIC-criterion. Finally, Section 6 discusses the performance of the weighted AIC-criterion, introduces imputation-based model selection for incomplete data and possible avenues of further research.

2 The Belgian Health Interview Survey: Cervix Cancer Screening

To outline an evidence-based health policy, one is often interested in the profiles of persons who are at risk to obtain certain diseases and do not respond to prevention programs, e.g. cervix cancer screening. In the Belgian Health Interview Survey (HIS) of 1997, one of the questions investigated is in what respect the group of women, aged 25-64, not having a smear is different from the group of women that did have a smear taken in the past three years. For this purpose discrimination based on civil status, drug consumption, age, educational level and financial status was of interest. In this particular dataset, two complications arise. Firstly, sampling in the HIS was based on a combination of stratification, multistage sampling and clustering [8]. Secondly, about 30% of the 2893 women had one or more missing covariates for the variables of interest. These design issues, together with the likely occurrence of data to be missing, are inherent to surveys and should be taken into account when selecting an optimal model from a candidate set of models.

In Table 2 and 3 an overview of twelve different models, based on the variables given in Table 1, is given together with the original AIC-criterion and three weighted versions. The first modification, ' AIC_{W_1} ', corrects for the survey design, the second version, ' AIC_{W_2} ', corrects for incomplete data and the combination of both can be found in version, ' AIC_{W_1, W_2} '.

Table 1 about here.

Table 3 shows that different models are chosen by the different versions of the AIC-criterion; so it indicates that ignoring missingness or ignoring the sampling design can possibly lead to inappropriate model choices. We refer to Section 4 for a more thorough discussion.

Based on a theoretical justification, the weighted AIC's are defined in the next section.

3 Weighted Akaike Information Criterion

Based on observations $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n$, consider the regression model

$$\mathbf{y} \sim f(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta}) \tag{1}$$

where

$$\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T, \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, \theta(\mathbf{x}_n))^T, \quad \boldsymbol{\eta} = (\eta(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, \eta(\mathbf{x}_n))^T.$$

Here f denotes the joint density of \mathbf{y} (given \mathbf{x}), $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ the parameter of interest and $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ a nuisance parameter.

The aim is to select an optimal or a few good models amongst a set of candidate models. Several model selection criteria have been developed, in different settings and with different types of complexities in data and models [see 9, 10, 11, 12].

Assume we start from a collection of models, in particular we consider models of the form (1) . The well-known AIC-criterion [\[9\]](#)

$$\text{AIC} = -2L(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}}) + 2K \tag{2}$$

with $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta})$ denoting the loglikelihood of the model and $(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}})$ the maximum likelihood (ML) estimator of $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta})$, originates from information theory. Here K stands for the total number of estimated parameters, nuisance parameters included. The second term in the AIC formula is often interpreted as a penalization for complexity. The AIC was designed to be an approximately unbiased estimator of the expected *Kullback-Leibler Information* (KL). In general, the KL information between model f_0 (denoting the ‘true’ model) and

model f (the approximating model (1)) is defined as (ignoring an ‘historical’ factor 2)

$$I(f_0, f) = E\left\{ \log\left(\frac{f_0(\mathbf{y})}{f(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta})}\right) \right\} \quad (3)$$

(expectation with respect to the true model) and can be interpreted as the information loss using f to approximate f_0 , or as the distance from f_0 to f . This KL distance is not a metric, but it has the property that $I(f_0, f) \geq 0$ with equality only if $f \equiv f_0$.

3.1 Missing Data

In case of missing data, the naive use of only complete cases in the definition of $I(f_0, f)$ can lead to serious deficiencies in its applicability to measure the distance between models (and consequently also in the use of its empirical version, the AIC-criterion). For simplicity, let us consider classical regression and suppose data are generated by a true model

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \sigma_0^2 I_n), \quad (4)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = (\mu_0(1), \dots, \mu_0(n))^T$, \mathcal{N}_n denotes an n -variate normal distribution and I_n the $n \times n$ identity matrix. Consider the approximating, or candidate, family of models

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2 I_n), \quad (5)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu(\mathbf{x}_1; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, \mu(\mathbf{x}_n; \boldsymbol{\theta}))^T$.

For this setting, $E\{\log f(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta})\}$ can be written as (f now denoting the univariate normal density)

$$E\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i), \sigma^2) \right\} = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - E\left[\{\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}^T \{\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} \right] / (2\sigma^2). \quad (6)$$

Using an analogous expression for $E\{\log f_0(\mathbf{y})\}$, it is easy to verify that

$$I(f_0, f) = \frac{n}{2} \log(\sigma^2/\sigma_0^2) + n\left\{\frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2} - 1\right\} + \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}^T \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} / (2\sigma^2). \quad (7)$$

It follows that this measure is minimized as a function of σ^2 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ (and equals 0) by taking $\sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}_0$.

Now, let us introduce the missingness process. For $i = 1, \dots, n$, define the indicator $\delta_i = 1$ if (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) is fully observed and 0 otherwise. In general it is possible that $\pi_i = P(\delta_i = 1) = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, z_i)$, so the probability that the i th observation is not fully observed is allowed to depend on \mathbf{x}_i , y_i or even on the value z_i of an other, completely ignored, variable. In this paper we restrict attention to the MAR setting, implying that π_i does not depend on z_i , that it additionally does not depend on \mathbf{x}_i (resp. y_i) in case \mathbf{x}_i (resp. y_i) might be missing.

The use of complete cases (CC) only (those for which $\delta_i = 1$) (and hence ignoring the missing data mechanism) is translated in a replacement of (6) by

$$\begin{aligned} E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \log f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2)\right\} &= -\frac{E\{\text{trace}(D)\}}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) \\ &\quad - E\left[\{\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}^T D \{\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}\right] / (2\sigma^2) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where $D = \text{diag}(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_n)$. As a function of σ^2 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, and using a saturated model $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$ for the mean function, this expression (8) is maximized and the corresponding CC version of the KL distance

$$\begin{aligned} I_{CC}(f_0, f) &= E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \log[(f_0(y_i)/f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2))]\right\} \\ &= \frac{E\{\text{trace}(D)\}}{2} \log\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_0^2}\right) + E\left[\{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}^T D \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}\right] / (2\sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$+E\{\mathbf{z}^T D \mathbf{z}\} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right) + E\{\mathbf{z}^T D\} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})) \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma^2} \right), \quad (9)$$

(with $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)/\sigma_0$) is minimized at

$$\tilde{\theta}_i = \frac{E\{y_i \pi_i\}}{E\{\pi_i\}} = \mu_0(i) + \frac{\text{Cov}(y_i, \pi_i)}{E\{\pi_i\}} \quad (10)$$

and

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n E[\pi_i \{y_i - \tilde{\theta}_i\}^2]}{\sum_{i=1}^n E\{\pi_i\}}. \quad (11)$$

In the above expressions and in the what follows, moment related operators like the expectation E or the covariance (Cov) act on the random variables y_i and δ_i and treat \mathbf{x}_i as nonrandom.

First of all, under a MCAR (missing completely at random) mechanism, $\pi_i = \pi$ and the above solutions simplify and are equal to the ‘true’ values, $\mu_0(i)$ and σ_0^2 respectively. The same holds in the MAR case that y_i is missing with probability $\pi_i = \pi(\mathbf{x}_i)$, only depending on \mathbf{x}_i . If however π_i does depend on y_i in a way that $\text{Cov}(y_i, \pi_i) \neq 0$, $I_{CC}(f_0, f)$ reaches a different minimum at (10) and (11). In fact, since by definition $I_{CC}(f_0, f_0) = 0$, this minimal value is negative (which is undesirable for a distance measure). If e.g. y_i and π_i are positively correlated, then $\tilde{\mu}_i > \mu_0(i)$. This is to be expected since observations with smaller values of y_i are discarded with higher probability. Also for nonsaturated models for $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, such kind of anomalies can be shown.

The AIC-criterion (2) based on the complete cases is given by

$$\text{AIC}_{CC} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \log[f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{CC}), \hat{\sigma}_{CC}^2)] + 2K, \quad (12)$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{CC}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{CC}^2$ are the ML estimators, maximizing the CC-loglikelihood (as described by the first term

in (12)). For classical regression and ignoring constants, this can be simplified to

$$\text{AIC}_{CC} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \right) \log(\hat{\sigma}_{CC}^2) + 2K. \quad (13)$$

In case of MCAR, criterion (12) (or 13) is an approximately unbiased estimate of $I_{CC}(f_0, f)$ and is expected to behave more appropriately (the missingness just results in an implicit sample size reduction). But for the MAR setting with missingness probabilities depending on the response, nothing guarantees that the above AIC criteria will serve any longer as useful model selection criteria.

The shortcomings of a CC approach, as described above, can be circumvented by a simple modification of the KL distance $I_{CC}(f_0, f)$ and corresponding AIC_{CC} -criterion. This modification is inspired by the technique of weighted estimation. Assuming a correct model is used, Flanders and Greenland [13], Zhao and Lipsitz [14] showed that the use of weighted estimators, solving the weighted estimating equations (WEE)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \Psi(y_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta}) = 0, \quad (14)$$

with Ψ the derivative of the log(quasi)likelihood and with weights w_i inversely proportional to the missingness probabilities, are consistent and asymptotically unbiased. The idea of WEE was inspired by the Horvitz-Thompson estimator in the closely related setting of design-based samples with unequal selection probabilities [see 3]. In Section 3.2, we further exploit this setting and its similarity with missing data for model selection.

Analogous to (14), a weighted KL distance can be defined as

$$I(f_0, f; w) = E\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \log[(f_0(y_i)/f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2))] \right\}. \quad (15)$$

Taking the weights

$$w_i = \delta_i / \pi_i, \quad (16)$$

the deficient distance $I_{CC}(f_0, f)$ is rectified and turned into the original data KL distance (‘original’ referring to the ‘full’ data, before introducing missingness). Indeed,

$$E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\delta_i}{\pi_i} \log[(f_0(y_i)/f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2))]\right\} = \sum_{i=1}^n E\{\log[(f_0(y_i)/f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2))]\}.$$

In a similar way, the weighted AIC-criterion

$$\text{AIC}_W = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \log[f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W), \hat{\sigma}_W^2)] + 2K, \quad (17)$$

with w_i as in (16) and with $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W$ and $\hat{\sigma}_W^2$ the weighted ML estimators (maximizing the weighted maximum likelihood), is expected to behave appropriately, i.e. to correct for the missing data. Indeed, denote $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_0$ and $\hat{\sigma}_0^2$ the ML estimators based on the original data, and consider the Taylor expansion (linear terms canceling out)

$$\begin{aligned} & -2 \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \log[f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_0), \hat{\sigma}_0^2)] \\ & \approx \text{AIC}_W - 2 \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W) (\hat{\sigma}_0^2 - \hat{\sigma}_W^2) \right) \mathcal{I}_n(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W, \hat{\sigma}_W^2) \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W) (\hat{\sigma}_0^2 - \hat{\sigma}_W^2) \right)^T, \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

where the matrix \mathcal{I}_n is the matrix of second derivatives of the weighted log-likelihood, evaluated at $(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W, \hat{\sigma}_W^2)$.

The expected value of the left-hand side equals the expected value of the AIC-criterion based on the original data. Since both estimates, the ‘original’ $(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_0, \hat{\sigma}_0^2)$ and the ‘weighted’ $(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_W, \hat{\sigma}_W^2)$, are estimating the same parameter (being the true value $(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \sigma_0^2)$ in case the model under consideration is a correct model), the second term in the right hand side is negligible, at least in a first order approximation.

For a normal regression model with $\mu(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\theta}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, where $\mathbf{x}_i = (1 \ x_{i1} \dots x_{ip})$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_0 \ \theta_1 \dots \theta_p)^T$, the weighted AIC-criterion can be rewritten in terms of squared residuals

$$\text{AIC}_W = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \right) \log \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i e_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i} \right) + 2(p+2), \quad (19)$$

where e_i are the residuals from the fitted model, using weighted ML. In the context of robust model selection procedures, Agostinelli [15] introduced a robust modification of the AIC-Criterion, based on the weighted likelihood methodology. He proposed a similar weighted AIC_W -criterion, but with weights downplaying the contribution of highly influential outliers.

Of course, typically the missing probabilities are unknown and have to be estimated, introducing essentially two further complications: i) finding appropriate estimates $\hat{\pi}_i$ which is again a model selection problem and ii) the effect on the characteristics of AIC_W when using weights

$$\hat{w}_i = \delta_i / \hat{\pi}_i. \quad (20)$$

Regarding the first complication, we suggest the use of a nonparametric or flexible semiparametric estimator (generalized additive models (gam) or e.g. regression trees for more complicated data structures, as illustrated in Section 4 and Section 5). This avoids the need for another model selection step. It is also important to note that, since the estimation of the missingness probabilities is a step *prior to* the envisaged model selection exercise, and hence is common to all candidate models under consideration, it has no effect on the penalization term in the expression of AIC_W . Concerning the second complication: rather than focusing on a theoretical study of the effect of estimating π_i on the expected value of AIC_W (a Taylor expansion immediately shows highly ‘untractable’ bias expressions), we opted for examining the finite sample performance of AIC_W with estimated weights by a simulation study (see Section 5).

In analogy to its expression based on the original data [16], we define a bias-corrected weighted AIC as

$$AIC_W^{cor} = AIC_W + \frac{2K(K+1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i - K - 1}. \quad (21)$$

This small-sample correction (second-order bias adjustment) has been especially recommended in a setting where there are many parameters in relation to the size of the sample n (for more details see [17]). Its performance in some simulations is briefly discussed in Section 5.1.3.

3.2 Design-Based Samples

Assume a finite population consisting of N units with measurements $\mathcal{M} = \{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$. A particular sampling plan leads to the random variable $\delta_i = 1$ if the i th unit is included in the sample (and 0 otherwise) with $n = \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_i$ the total sample size. The selection probabilities are defined as $\pi_i = P(\delta_i = 1)$, for $i = 1, \dots, N$. The choice $\pi_i = n/N$ corresponds to a simple random sample. In this finite population setting, only the δ_i are to be considered as random; the set \mathcal{M} is to be considered as unknown but fixed.

Supposing that the population $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)^T$ is a single realization of a true ‘superpopulation’ model $f_0(\cdot)$, using the approximating model $f(\cdot; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2)$ and treating the sample indicated by the δ_i as a random sample, a KL distance similar to the $I_{CC}(f_0, f)$ measure in (9) can be defined as (with now the expectation E with respect to the δ_i ’s, conditional on the ‘realized’ population)

$$I_{DB}(f_0, f) = E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^N \delta_i \log[(f_0(y_i)/f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2))]\right\} \quad (22)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i \log[(f_0(y_i)/f(y_i; \mu(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \sigma^2))]. \quad (23)$$

For true and approximating models as in (4) and (5), with now $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu(\mathbf{x}_1; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, \mu(\mathbf{x}_N; \boldsymbol{\theta}))^T$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = (\mu_0(1), \dots, \mu_0(N))^T$ and with $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)/\sigma_0$ as before, we get

$$I_{DB}(f_0, f) = \frac{\text{trace}(\Pi)}{2} \log\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_0^2}\right) + \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}^T \Pi \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} / (2\sigma^2) \quad (24)$$

$$+z^T \Pi z \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right) + z^T \Pi (\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta})) \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma^2} \right).$$

As an example, consider a simple two-valued true superpopulation model

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = (\mu_0(1), \dots, \mu_0(N_1), \mu_0(N_1 + 1), \dots, \mu_0(N))^T = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_2)^T$$

with $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$, and the incorrect constant model $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = (\theta, \dots, \theta)^T$. For this incorrect model, the minimal distance $I_{DB}(f_0, f)$ is at least as small as its value at $\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \sigma_0^2$ and

$$\tilde{\theta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i y_i}{n}. \quad (25)$$

Using the correct two-parameter mean model with $\sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2$, $I_{DB}(f_0, f)$ is minimized at

$$\tilde{\mu}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \pi_i y_i}{n_1}, \quad \tilde{\mu}_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=N_1+1}^N \pi_i y_i}{n_2}, \quad (26)$$

where $n_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \delta_i$ and $n_2 = \sum_{i=N_1+1}^N \delta_i$. Now, in the particular case that the selection probabilities induce a bias resulting in $\tilde{\mu}_1 = \tilde{\mu}_2$, the KL distance $I_{DB}(f_0, f)$ is exactly the same for both models and hence the incorrect model is indistinguishable from the correct model.

Identical to the case of missing data, the weighing of the KL distance and corresponding AIC-criterion, with weights as in (16), can be used to correct both measures. Note that in general the selection probabilities can depend on both \mathbf{x}_i and y_i . In most applications the selection probabilities π_i are determined by the design of the sample and hence are known.

3.3 Design-Based Samples with Missing Observations

In typical surveys, as in the cervix cancer screening example introduced in Section 2, both complications occur together. In this case δ_i , indicating whether or not the i th unit is in the sample and is fully observed,

can be written as

$$\delta_i = \delta_i^D \delta_i^M, \quad (27)$$

where $\delta_i^D = 1$ if the i th unit is included in the sample (as in Section 3.2) and $\delta_i^M = 1$ if the i th unit is fully observed (as in Section 3.1). The weighted AIC (17) can now be based on weights $w_i = \delta_i/\pi_i$ where

$$\pi_i = P(\delta_i = 1) = P(\delta_i^M = 1 | \delta_i^D = 1)P(\delta_i^D = 1). \quad (28)$$

These latter probabilities can be estimated by the product of the (known) probabilities $P(\delta_i^D = 1)$ and the (nonparametrically) estimated probabilities $P(\delta_i^M = 1 | \delta_i^D = 1)$.

In the next section, we show how the idea of a weighted AIC can be extended to select a smoothing parameter for nonparametric regression.

3.4 Smoothing Parameter Selection using AIC_W

Assume

$$y_i = \mu_0(\mathbf{x}_i) + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (29)$$

where $\mu_0(\cdot)$ is an unknown smooth function and $\epsilon_i, i = 1, \dots, n$, are independent error terms with mean 0 and variance σ_0^2 . Different linear smoothers for μ are available: orthogonal series, kernel estimators, splines, ... (see e.g. [18]). The most crucial choice for any smoother is the choice of the smoothing parameter.

Hurvich *et al.*[7] proposed to select this parameter α by minimizing the corrected AIC-criterion

$$\text{AIC}_\alpha^{\text{cor}} = n \log(\hat{\sigma}^2) + \frac{n + \text{trace}(S_\alpha)}{1 - \{\text{trace}(S_\alpha) + 2\}/n}, \quad (30)$$

where S_α is the smoother matrix for which $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = S_\alpha \mathbf{y}$.

In case of an incomplete or design-based sample, this criterion can be turned into a weighted version

$$\text{AIC}_{\alpha, W}^{\text{cor}} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \right) \log \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i e_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i} \right) + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i + \text{trace}(S_{W, \alpha})}{1 - \{\text{trace}(S_{W, \alpha}) + 2\} / (\sum_{i=1}^n w_i)}. \quad (31)$$

where $S_{W, \alpha}$ is the smoother matrix from the weighted fit. Taking $S_{W, \alpha}$ the classical regression ‘hat matrix’, (31) reduces (up to a constant) to (21).

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Since the design of the Health Interview Survey follows a complex multistage probability sampling scheme, it is necessary to incorporate this in the model selection procedure. A second complication is the substantial amount of missing covariate data (about 30%) spread over several covariates. Let us consider the candidate models given in Table 2. In Table 3, the models are ranked according to their AIC-criterion based on the complete cases (second column). For all other columns, the three models with lowest AIC-values are indicated by their ranks.

In the third column, a first weighted version, AIC_{W_1} , takes into account the complex design. Individual weights, W_1 , reflecting the stratification at provincial level and the differential selection probabilities within households were available. This results in a somewhat different ordering of the models. The best model now is the model with original rank 8.

Similarly, the fourth column shows the modified AIC-value, AIC_{W_2} , incorporating missing covariate data (assuming MAR). Because of the high dimensional covariate space, a classification tree with surrogate splitting was used to obtain estimates of the missingness probabilities and thus the weights W_2 . This leads to

only minor changes, as compared to the second column. The best model now is model 2.

In the fifth column both complications have been taken into account by multiplying both weights in AIC_{W_1, W_2} . Model 8 showing up again, now having the lowest AIC-value, while model 10 is the second best model.

Although essentially the same set of models reappears as the set of best models, this example illustrates that differently weighted AIC criteria can select different models as best ones. Since the choice of the final model or the set of final models used for e.g. model averaging is affected by missing data and by the design, we recommend in general the use of the weighted criteria (at least as a sensitivity tool).

Table 2 about here.

Table 3 about here.

To study the effects of weighing more closely, a simulation study in a variety of settings was conducted. The next section summarizes our main findings. All computations were conducted in R 2.0 [19].

5 Simulations

In the first two scenarios, we consider a setting with missing covariate data. The third scenario focuses on design-based samples and the last scenario on the selection of the smoothing parameter in nonparametric

regression.

5.1 Scenario 1: Parametric Model Selection for Incomplete Data

In the initial setting, the set of candidate models contains the true model.

5.1.1 Initial Setting

In this first scenario, uniform $[0, 10]$ x -values were generated, together with (independently) Bernoulli(0.5) z -values. Given x and z , response y -values were generated from a normal distribution with mean $\mu_0(x, z) = -3 + 3x + 5x^2$ and variance $\sigma_0^2 = \exp(5)$. x -observations were then turned missing with conditional probability (see middle panel in Figure 1),

$$\pi(y, z) = 1 - [1 + \exp\{1 - 0.009(y - 300)\}]^{-1}. \quad (32)$$

Not depending on unobserved x -values, the missingness process is MAR. Let n denote the total sample size and n_c the number of complete observations. We generated 1000 different samples $\{(x_i, z_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$, with fixed design $\{x_i, z_i, i = 1 \dots, n\}$. For each sample, 8 different regression models were fit, all submodels of $\mu(x, z) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 z + \beta_4 xz$.

Four different ‘strategies’ are compared: i) AIC on the original data, before introducing missingness (what we would get if no values were missing), ii) (unweighted) AIC on the complete cases only (ignoring missingness), iii) weighted AIC using the true weights (16) and iv) weighted AIC, using the estimated weights (20). The probabilities (32) are estimated by gam estimates $\hat{\pi}(y, z)$ (using the R package “`mgcv` 1.1-8” [\[20\]](#)). On

average 35% of the x -values were missing. In Figure 1, a typical dataset for scenario 1 is shown together with the missingness probabilities and the estimated weights. This latter figure shows a double curve, as a consequence of the additive model in x and z (being binary).

Figure 1 about here.

The upper part of Table 4 displays the results for $n = 50$. Each column (from 2 to 9) corresponds to a particular model and the numbers show how often the respective model has been selected by AIC under the four strategies mentioned above. Models more complex than the true quadratic model $\{x, x^2\}$ can be considered as correct models, the others as incorrect models. The last rightmost column shows the total number of times a correct model was chosen. The table shows that for the initial setting, the unweighted AIC applied on the complete cases, very often selects the incorrect simpler model $\{x\}$. This is to be expected since the missingness is mainly located at the larger y -values (which of all response values mostly represent the quadratic effect). The weighted versions correct for that, especially the one with true weights which selects about 10% more often a correct model.

Table 4 about here.

The other parts of Table 4 show similar results for variations on scenario 1: a larger error variance, less missingness, a smaller quadratic effect and a larger sample size. Figure 2 up to Figure 5 display the number of correct models as a function of error variance σ_0^2 , missingness percentage (by changing the coefficient of y in equation (32)), quadratic effect of x in $\mu_0(x, z)$ and sample size n . All curves show the decrease in selecting

a correct model when using the unweighted AIC on the complete cases. The difference gets more pronounced for increasing error variance, increasing missingness and increasing quadratic effect of x in $\mu_0(x, z)$. Note that this latter increasing effect implicitly generates more missingness via, on average, increasing response values y (see equation (32)).

Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5 about here.

The use of the weighted version improves the performance of the AIC and the version with known weights is consistently choosing more correct models than with estimated weights. On the other hand the version with estimated weights constantly performs better than with true weights in selecting the only true model. One might argue that the gain by using the weighted AIC is not so spectacular but rather moderate, that it tends to select more complicated models and that, thinking critically further along these lines, always taking the “most complex model” (including x, x^2, z and xz) is actually the best criterion (since it leads to a 100% correct classification according to our definition of a correct model). But first of all, we have to realize that correcting for missing information is often a hard exercise, since information in available data might be very scarce. Next, the selection of somewhat more complicated models might be justified in this setting and not just arbitrary. Moreover a needless complex model will be accompanied with larger variability in its estimates. To show that the weighted AIC does not just select more complex models in an arbitrary way, but leads to models with an improved accuracy, Table 5 shows, for the initial setting, mean averaged squared errors (together with squared bias and variance decomposition)

$$\text{MASE} = \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{r=1}^{1000} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\mu}^{(r)}(x_i, z_i) - \mu_0(x_i, z_i))^2 \right\} \quad (33)$$

for the different AIC selected models together with that of the “most complex model”. Here, $\hat{\mu}^{(r)}(x_i, z_i)$

denotes the fitted value within simulation run r . This table shows that choosing the most complex model is not a sensible strategy (as expected) and more importantly that the weighted AIC does lead to a considerable improvement. Just using complete cases has a disastrous effect on the quality of the selected fits (particularly on the bias), whereas the use of the estimated weighted AIC leads to the best results in terms of MASE. Indeed, the latter reduces bias spectacularly, at the cost of a moderate increase in variance. That the use of estimated rather than true weights lead to the smallest MASE-values is in accordance with known results in related settings (see e.g. [\[21\]](#)).

Table 5 about here.

Table 6 about here.

5.1.2 Nonparametric Weighting Methods

Different smoothers can be used to estimate the missingness probabilities $\pi(y, z)$. In scenario 1, equation (32) shows that these probabilities only depend on y . In Section 5.1.1, these probabilities were estimated with a gam model, as a function of both y and z . In this section we illustrate how results differ when using different smoothers: gam using y only, Nadaraya-Watson (NW) kernel estimate using both y and z or y only, with fixed or with data-driven bandwidth (cross-validation).

The results in Table 6 show that the best results are obtained when using a gam model. The other numbers are more or less similar. The fixed bandwidth $h = 150$ for the NW-estimator was chosen by visual inspection of some of the generated samples. Main conclusion is that the choice of smoother and smoothing parameter

is not unimportant. It is also recommendable to examine the missingness process carefully, so that accurate estimation of the probabilities is possible.

5.1.3 Corrected AIC

For small sample sizes, the use of the corrected AIC-criterion (21) is recommended. The results in Table 7 are based on the corrected AIC-criterion for the initial setting of Scenario 1 but with $n = 30$. The improvement is considerable. The true model is chosen most often using the weighted AIC, especially when the weights are estimated (this latter phenomenon was also noticeable in Table 4).

Table 7 about here.

5.2 Scenario 2: Generating Model Not Included

We now consider the (more realistic) setting that the set of candidate models does not contain the true model. The response y is generated as in scenario 1, but now with mean function $\mu_0(x, z) = -3 - 3 \log(x + 1) + 5x^2$. The same set of candidate models is considered. Since now direct comparison with the true model, nor a categorization in correct or incorrect models is possible anymore, we computed the average of the fitted values based on the selected model, together with 95% pointwise confidence intervals, using AIC on the original data, (unweighted) AIC on the complete cases, and weighted AIC on the complete cases. The resulting curves are shown in Figure 6 together with the true underlying function $\mu_0(x, z)$ (solid curve). Again, as before, gam was used to estimate the weights. The middle figure clearly shows the bias when using the

unweighted AIC on the complete cases. The use of the weighted AIC nicely corrects the average best model in the direction of the true underlying curve.

Figure 6 about here.

Table 8 about here.

Similar to Scenario 1, Table 8 shows simulated MASE-values for the different methods. The benefit in using the AIC_W -criteria is again clearly reflected in the behavior of the (squared) bias and variance components, very similar to the results in Table 5.

5.3 Scenario 3: Model Selection for Design-Based Samples

To illustrate the use of the weighted AIC for design-based samples, a population $\{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$ of size $N = 1500$ was generated, as a single realization from the superpopulation model f_0 , being a normal distribution with variance σ_0^2 and mean $\mu_0(i) = \mu_1$ for $i = 1, \dots, 500$ (group 1), $\mu_0(i) = \mu_2$ for $i = 501, \dots, 1000$ (group 2), $\mu_0(i) = \mu_3$ for $i = 1001, \dots, 1500$ (group 3).

In a first setting 1000 samples were taken by dividing this population into three strata based on the ordered population y values: the 200 smallest y -values, the middle 900 y -values and the 400 largest y -values. The sample was then taken as follows: a population unit i (y_i) is selected for the sample with probability $p_1 f$ when it belongs to the first or third stratum and with probability $p_2 f$ when it belongs to the second stratum.

When $p_1 < p_2$, this results in an oversampling of the second stratum.

The (single) population was generated with $\mu_2 = \mu_3 = \kappa = -\mu_1$ with $\kappa > 0$. The simulation parameters κ, σ_0, f, p_1 and p_2 were set to different values as shown in Table 9. For each of the samples, 5 different models were fit: (1) $\mu_i = \mu, i = 1, \dots, 3$, (2) $\mu_1 = \mu_2 \neq \mu_3$, (3) $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 = \mu_3$, (4) $\mu_1 = \mu_3 \neq \mu_2$, and (5) $\mu_i \neq \mu_j$ for $i \neq j$. Model (3) is the true model, model (5) is another correct model. The other models assume $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ or $\mu_1 = \mu_3$ and are incorrect (for $\kappa \neq 0$).

In a first setting, where $\{\kappa, \sigma_0, f\} = \{0.5, 3, 0.5\}$, sampling was done according to different choices of (p_1, p_2) , ranging from simple random sampling $p_2/p_1 = 1$ to highly unequal stratified sampling $p_2/p_1 = 11$. The results in Table 9 show an improved selection for the AIC_W -criterion compared to the AIC-criterion. Models (3) and (5) are chosen more frequently by the AIC_W -criterion.

Increasing σ_0 (more noise) results in model (1) to be chosen more frequently. Also to be expected, a larger choice of κ (group 1 more different) leads more often to correct model choices. The fraction parameter f was initially chosen 0.5, resulting in a sample of size 225. To reflect the behavior for a smaller sample, f was set to 0.2, resulting in a larger variability due to the smaller sample size ($= 90$). For all variations of the basic setting, AIC_W improves the selection from slightly to substantially (according to the ratio p_2/p_1), except for $\kappa = 1$.

Table 9 about here.

In a second setting, the same population was taken but now design-based sampling was based on two strata, the 300 largest y -values of the third group and the remaining 1200 y -values. Sampling was done as follows: a population unit i is selected with probability $p_1 f$ when it belongs to the first stratum and with probability

$p_2 f$ when it belongs to the second stratum. If $p_1 < p_2$ this results in an undersampling of units in the third group with the larger y values. The results for 1000 such samples are shown in Table 10, again for the same basic setting and variations thereof. One can see that the AIC-criterion very often chooses the incorrect model (4) $\mu_1 = \mu_3 \neq \mu_2$ and the AIC_W -criterion corrects this choice to model (3) $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 = \mu_3$, which is the true model. For all variations of this setting, the AIC_W outperforms AIC in all cases. The differences are much more pronounced as in previous setting. One can also observe that the number of times a correct model is selected by the AIC_W -criterion is more or less the same for all different choices of (p_1, p_2) . When sampling probabilities are equal and thus a simple random sample is taken, the choices made using AIC and AIC_W are essentially the same.

Table 10 about here.

5.4 Scenario 4: Smoothing Parameter Selection in Nonparametric Regression for Incomplete Data

For this scenario, $n = 200$ x -values were generated from $\text{uniform}[0, 1]$, and corresponding y -values from a normal distribution with mean $\mu_0(x) = 1 - 48x + 218x^2 - 315x^3 + 145x^4$ and variance $\sigma_0^2 = 0.4 \text{ Range}(y)$. This corresponds to one of the simulation settings used in [7]. Next, x observations were turned missing with probability

$$\pi(y) = [1 + \exp\{2 - 0.1(y - 2)^2\}]^{-1}. \quad (34)$$

For each of the 1000 generated samples $\{Y_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ with a fixed design $\{x_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$, a smoothing spline was fitted (using `smooth.spline` in R) according to three methods, and with smoothing parameter

selected by AIC (as introduced by Hurvich, Simonoff and Tsai [7]). The first method is based on the original data, while the second method is based on the complete cases only and finally the third method weights the complete cases (at the model selection stage and at the final fitting stage) with $\hat{w}_i = 1/\hat{\pi}_i$ where $\hat{\pi}_i$ is the estimated probability for a complete case to be observed. The estimation of π_i is also based on a smoothing spline with smoothing parameter again determined by AIC.

The left panel in Figure 7 displays an arbitrary sample together with the fitted splines. The white dots indicate the observed data, while the black dots show the unobserved or missing data. The spline using the weights tends to severely undersmooth.

Figure 7 about here.

In this context, Wahba [22] uses the unbiased variance estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}_U^2 = \frac{y^T (I - S_\alpha)^2 y}{\text{trace}(I - S_\alpha)}, \quad (35)$$

where S_α is the smoother matrix. The use of $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ instead of $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ is equivalent to an extra penalization of $-n \log(\text{trace}(I - S_\alpha))$, which corrects for undersmoothing, as can be seen for the fit of a random sample in the right panel of Figure 7. This is also confirmed by Table 11. It shows the simulation average of the equivalent number of parameters, selected by the three methods (rows) and for both variance estimators (columns). The models using the unbiased estimator are generally smoother and this reduction in equivalent number of parameters is very substantial for the weighted analysis. Other simulations confirmed this and therefore we certainly recommend the use of the unbiased estimator $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ for the weighted method.

Table 11 about here.

In Figure 8 the true curve (the solid line) and the simulation average of the fitted curves for all three methods and both variance estimators, together with 95% pointwise confidence intervals, are shown. Again, the beneficial effect on the smoothing when using the unbiased variance estimator is illustrated. The middle panels show that there is substantial bias at both minima, when using the complete cases without weighting. The weighted AIC does correct for bias, as shown in the right panels.

Figure 8 about here.

The simulation MASE was calculated for each method and each variance estimator. The boxplots in Figure 9 show again that the weighted AIC method is not resulting in an improvement when using $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$, but that it does when using $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$.

Figure 9 about here.

6 Discussion

The naive use of model selection criteria in case of incomplete and design-based samples can lead to the selection of inappropriate or non-optimal model. In this paper we introduced a weighted Akaike information criterion. The weights are inversely proportional to the selection probabilities and if unknown, can be estimated nonparametrically. Simulations show that the use of this weighted AIC-criterion results in

improved model selection for design-based samples. For incomplete data, the model-selection performance of the weighted AIC-criterion is somewhat less pronounced. But missing data are more problematic than design related complications. Moreover, the simulated MASE results are showing the improved accuracy of the AIC_W -selected models. So, in our opinion, it is a worthwhile and relatively simple exercise to complement naive model selection (ignoring missingness or design) with a weighted one.

As mentioned before, the AIC_W -criterion for incomplete data can be seen as an implicit imputation approach. An obvious alternative method is the use of an explicit imputation-based AIC-criterion. Selection is done by first imputing the missing values and then using the classical AIC-criterion on the augmented data. Of course the performance of this method is directly related to the quality of the imputation model. One option here is to use a flexible nonparametric model, thus avoiding an additional model selection step.

We investigated the performance of this imputation-based approach in a small simulation study for scenario 1 and 2. Data were imputed using mean-imputation based on a generalized additive model. The imputation-step is nonparametric in nature and takes place *prior* to the envisaged model selection, so it is common to all candidate models.

For scenario 1, the imputation-based AIC-criterion selected the true model 471 times, essentially the same as the original data does. Moreover it selects a “correct” model 744 times.

Figure 10 about here.

Figure 10 shows the average curve of fitted values and 95%- pointwise confidence intervals together with

the true underlying function $\mu_0(x, z)$ for scenario 2. Compared to using the unweighted AIC-criterion and weighted AIC_W -criterion on the complete cases (see Figure 6), the bias is small but the variance is very large. Calculating the MASE for the imputation-based AIC-criterion gives a value of 4643.93 where 151.83 is ascribed to the squared bias and 4492.10 to the variance, as compared to 3567.70, 439.66 and 3128.05 respectively for the (estimated) AIC_W . Similar results were found for scenario 1. So, more often the true (and a correct) model is chosen, but the selected models appear to show highly variable fits. Moreover, in situations where x cannot be written as a function y the imputation method suffers from structural defects. A detailed study of this imputation-based method is topic of current research. For the cervix cancer screening data, AIC_W , taking into account the design, on an augmented dataset, where imputation was done using the random forest methodology of Breiman [23] selected models (2), (3) and (11).

Other options to deal with missingness in the context of model selection are full likelihood methods, that model both measurement and missingness part simultaneously. This is another challenging approach. Because of the similarity between incomplete and design-based samples, we focused on the weighted AIC-criterion in this paper.

Next to the performance of imputation-based selection methods, extensions to weighted versions of model selection criteria for generalized estimating equations in the context of clustered data as proposed in [24] and [25], are topics of current research. Additional further research includes deriving new lack of fit tests when dealing with incomplete and design-based data (e.g. modifications of [26]), and the use of a weighted likelihood ratio test (see e.g. [27]) in this context.

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Table 1: HIS Example: Variables used in the candidate models.

Variable	Abbreviation	Coding
Screening Status	SC	binary
Civil Status	CS	nominal
Drug Consumption	DR	ordinal
Age	Age	continuous
Educational Level	EL	nominal
Financial Status	FS	nominal

Table 2: His Example: Overview of the candidate models.

Model	Structure
(1)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \log(\text{DR}) + \text{CS}$
(2)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \log(\text{DR}) + \text{EL} + \text{DR} * \text{EL}$
(3)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \text{DR} + \text{EL} + \text{EL} * \text{DR}$
(4)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \log(\text{DR})$
(5)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \log(\text{DR}) + \log(\text{Age})$
(6)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \text{DR}$
(7)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \text{CS} + \text{CS} * \text{Age}$
(8)	$SC \sim \text{CS} + \text{Age} + \text{EL} + \text{DR} + \text{Age} * \text{EL}$
(9)	$SC \sim \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2$
(10)	$SC \sim \text{CS} + \text{Age} + \text{EL} + \text{DR} + \text{Age} * \text{EL} + \text{DR} * \text{EL}$
(11)	$SC \sim \text{FS} + \text{CS} + \text{DR} + \text{Age} + \text{EL}$
(12)	$SC \sim \text{FS} + \text{CS} + \text{DR} + \text{Age} + \text{Age} * \text{FS}$

Table 3: His Example: The different (weighted) AIC-values and, between brackets, the rank of the three best models.

Model	AIC	AIC _{W₁}	AIC _{W₂}	AIC _{W₁, W₂}
(1)	1489.02(1)	975.31	2607.11(2)	1463.16
(2)	1489.81(2)	969.04	2597.22(1)	1450.75(3)
(3)	1490.70(3)	963.26(2)	2608.69(3)	1451.06
(4)	1492.39	965.66(3)	2618.32	1457.89
(5)	1494.10	967.60	2619.77	1459.82
(6)	1495.86	967.64	2624.82	1461.28
(7)	1496.19	984.37	2621.91	1474.56
(8)	1496.84	961.57(1)	2609.49	1443.00(1)
(9)	1496.97	969.54	2627.87	1463.88
(10)	1502.31	967.35	2613.19	1448.30(2)
(11)	1504.01	970.94	2624.65	1458.64
(12)	1516.75	980.92	2652.53	1476.12

Table 4: Scenario 1. The numbers indicate how often a model has been selected, for the four strategies. The last column shows how often a correct model has been chosen, out of 1000. This scenario is repeated for different settings.

	1	x	z	x, x^2	x, z	$x, z,$	$x, x^2,$	$x, x^2,$	correctly
						xz	z	z, xz	classified
Scenario 1: Initial Setting									
$n = 50, \sigma_0^2 = \exp(5), \text{slope} = 5, \%(miss) = 35$									
Original Data	0	272	0	467	55	40	85	81	633
Complete Cases	0	447	0	274	97	53	81	48	403
True Weighted	0	271	0	254	125	99	101	150	505
Est. Weighted	0	329	0	286	100	83	102	106	494
Scenario 1: Variance $\exp(5.3)$									
Original Data	0	396	0	374	65	47	70	48	492
Complete Cases	9	540	2	210	107	56	48	28	286
True Weighted	4	330	3	170	131	140	87	135	392
Est. Weighted	5	372	2	198	130	117	78	103	379
Scenario 1: Missingness 20%									
Original Data	0	275	0	496	38	31	93	67	656
Complete Cases	0	451	0	311	90	54	49	45	405
True Weighted	1	290	0	286	80	104	93	146	525
Est. Weighted	1	355	0	308	79	70	80	109	497
Scenario 1: Smaller Quadratic Effect: slope = 3									
Original Data	0	459	0	297	82	55	63	44	404
Complete Cases	6	548	1	225	87	57	47	29	301
True Weighted	5	414	0	224	107	92	87	71	382
Est. Weighted	4	450	2	245	102	75	74	58	377
Scenario 1: Sample Size 100									
Original Data	0	114	0	666	31	18	106	65	837
Complete Cases	0	312	0	452	65	35	91	45	588
True Weighted	0	199	0	371	35 67	61	129	173	673
Est. Weighted	0	228	0	416	70	56	110	121	647

Table 5: Scenario 1: MASE and bias-variance decomposition based for the four strategies from Table 4 together with the “most complex model strategy”.

	Model Selection	bias ²	Var	MASE
Original Data	min AIC	39.26	2085.05	2124.32
	most complex	2.25	2253.05	2255.30
Complete Cases	min AIC	2433.37	2485.58	4918.95
	most complex	1986.74	2964.73	4951.47
True Weighted	min AIC _W	460.62	3984.71	4445.33
	most complex	404.51	4289.29	4693.81
Est. Weighted	min AIC _W	738.53	3153.06	3891.60
	most complex	608.09	3595.19	4203.28

Table 6: Scenario 1, initial setting. Model selection using different smoothers to estimate the weights.

	x	x, x^2	x, z	$x, z,$	$x, x^2,$	$x, x^2,$	correctly
				xz	z	z, xz	classified
Complete Cases	447	274	97	53	81	48	403
NW h=150 (y, z)	342	270	106	84	102	96	468
NW h=150 (y)	337	288	114	76	96	89	473
NW CV (y, z)	315	257	108	96	103	121	481
NW CV (y)	336	287	114	75	96	92	475
gam CV(y, z)	329	286	100	83	102	106	494
gam CV (y)	278	282	107	109	103	121	506
True Weights	271	254	125	99	101	150	505

Table 7: Scenario 1 with sample size 30. Model selection using the corrected AIC-criterion.

	1	x	z	x, x^2	x, z	$x, z,$	$x, x^2,$	$x, x^2,$	correctly
						xz	z	z, xz	classified
Original Data	0	435	0	392	77	31	40	25	457
Complete Cases	16	616	3	217	80	34	26	8	251
True Weights	6	398	1	260	129	77	61	68	389
Est. Weights	8	442	0	275	122	53	56	63	394

Table 8: Scenario 2: MASE and bias-variance decomposition based for the four strategies from Table 4 together with the “most complex model strategy”.

	Model Selection	bias ²	Var	MASE
Original Data	min AIC	41.58	2079.93	2121.50
	most complex	2.90	2236.82	2239.72
Complete Cases	min AIC	2040.05	2310.80	4350.85
	most complex	1638.04	2750.06	4388.10
True Weighted	min AIC _W	382.79	3516.66	3899.45
	most complex	307.85	3802.61	4110.46
Est. Weighted	min AIC _W	439.66	3128.05	3567.70
	most complex	374.15	3447.90	3822.05

Table 9: Scenario 3, first setting: The number of models chosen by AIC and AIC_W, for different variations of the basic setting and different choices of p_1 and p_2 .

		AIC						AIC _W					
p_1	p_2	1	2	3	4	5	Cor	1	2	3	4	5	Cor
Basic													
0.05	0.55	321	110	445	107	17	462	128	192	277	133	270	547
0.10	0.50	284	101	498	92	25	523	155	146	424	136	139	563
0.20	0.40	191	116	594	63	36	630	156	132	572	60	80	652
0.30	0.30	133	108	639	64	56	695	125	108	648	63	56	704
$\sigma_0 = 4$													
0.05	0.55	467	108	301	115	9	310	134	205	281	189	191	472
0.10	0.50	428	117	325	118	12	337	209	199	328	161	103	431
0.20	0.40	331	121	450	75	23	473	259	144	471	72	54	525
0.30	0.30	305	136	445	86	28	473	295	137	455	86	27	482
$\kappa = 1$													
0.05	0.55	13	31	817	25	114	931	27	89	397	62	425	822
0.10	0.50	6	8	841	11	134	975	9	23	604	20	344	948
0.20	0.40	2	5	850	2	141	991	2	6	786	2	204	990
0.30	0.30	0	1	842	0	157	999	0	1	840	0	159	999
$f = 0.2$													
0.05	0.55	494	113	249	133	11	260	116	211	240	204	229	469
0.10	0.50	481	142	241	128	8	249	227	193	280	189	111	391
0.20	0.40	440	130	304	112	14	318	351	158	321	129	41	362
0.30	0.30	364	133	360	123	20	380	368	130	364	118	20	384

Table 10: Scenario 3, second setting: The number of models chosen by AIC and AIC_W, for different variations of the basic setting and different choices of p_1 and p_2 .

		AIC						AIC _W					
p_1	p_2	1	2	3	4	5	Cor	1	2	3	4	5	Cor
Basic													
0.05	0.55	92	120	56	596	136	192	66	175	510	52	197	707
0.10	0.50	189	19	392	381	19	411	46	171	590	12	181	771
0.20	0.40	126	131	651	31	61	712	60	197	615	7	121	736
0.30	0.30	133	108	639	64	56	695	125	108	648	63	56	704
$\sigma_0 = 4$													
0.05	0.55	162	266	27	389	156	183	156	307	377	56	104	481
0.10	0.50	370	59	215	349	7	222	144	276	475	28	77	552
0.20	0.40	289	168	472	44	27	499	137	283	500	14	66	566
0.30	0.30	305	136	445	86	28	473	295	137	455	86	27	482
$\kappa = 1$													
0.05	0.55	0	0	316	599	85	684	0	0	613	3	384	997
0.10	0.50	0	0	757	64	179	936	0	0	709	0	291	1000
0.20	0.40	0	3	845	1	151	996	0	2	775	0	223	990
0.30	0.30	0	1	842	0	157	999	0	1	840	0	159	999
$f = 0.2$													
0.05	0.55	336	138	108	385	33	141	243	254	356	77	70	426
0.10	0.50	439	64	219	270	8	227	263	236	395	62	44	439
0.20	0.40	359	167	381	76	17	398	250	240	439	46	25	464
0.30	0.30	364	133	360	123	20	380	368	130	364	118	20	384

Table 11: The average number of parameters using variance estimator $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ or $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$.

	$\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$	$\hat{\sigma}_U^2$
Original Data	8.33	6.99
Complete Cases	7.55	6.31
Weighted	18.31	9.00

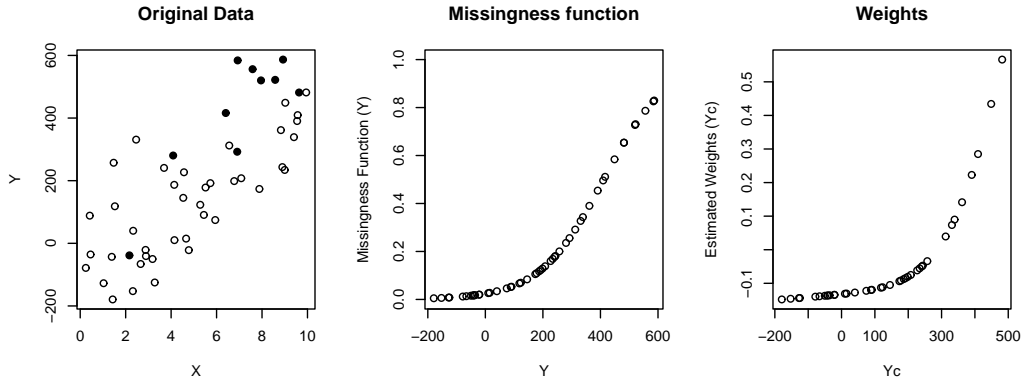


Figure 1: For an arbitrary chosen sample under scenario 1: (a) original sample, complete cased (white bullets) and unobserved data (black bullets); (b) missingness probabilities; (c) estimated weights.

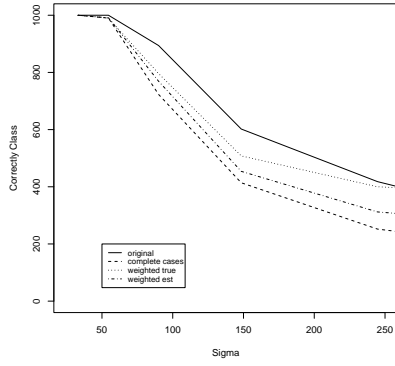


Figure 2: Sigma-values.

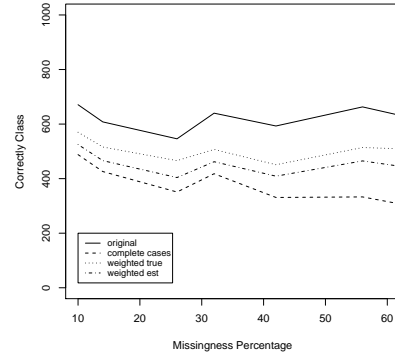


Figure 3: Missingness percentages.

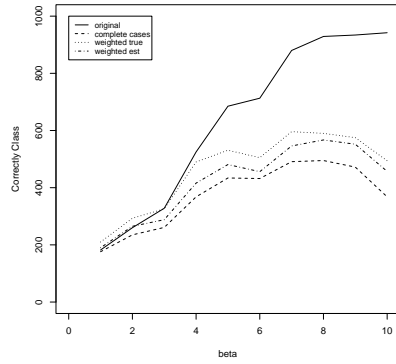


Figure 4: Quadratic effect.

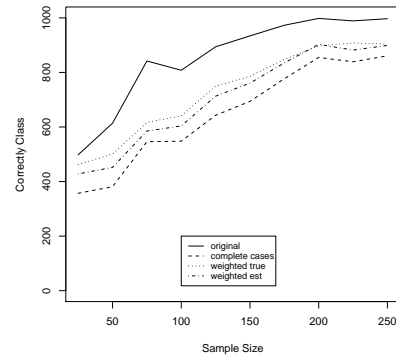


Figure 5: Sample size.

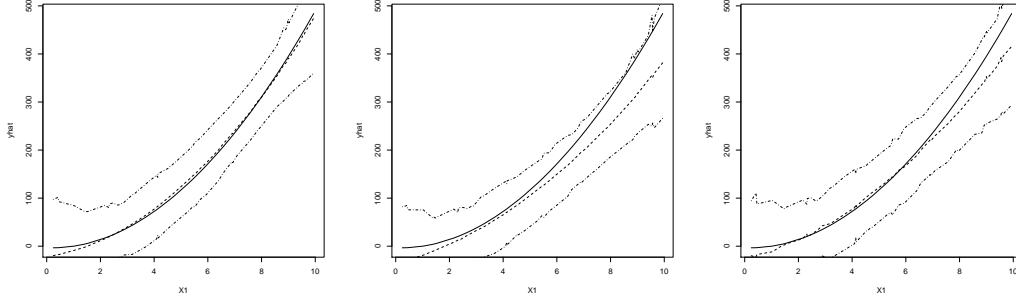


Figure 6: Average best model with 95% pointwise confidence intervals for the original data (left), the complete cases with unweighted AIC (middle) and with weighted AIC (right). The solid curve is the true function $\mu_0(x, z)$

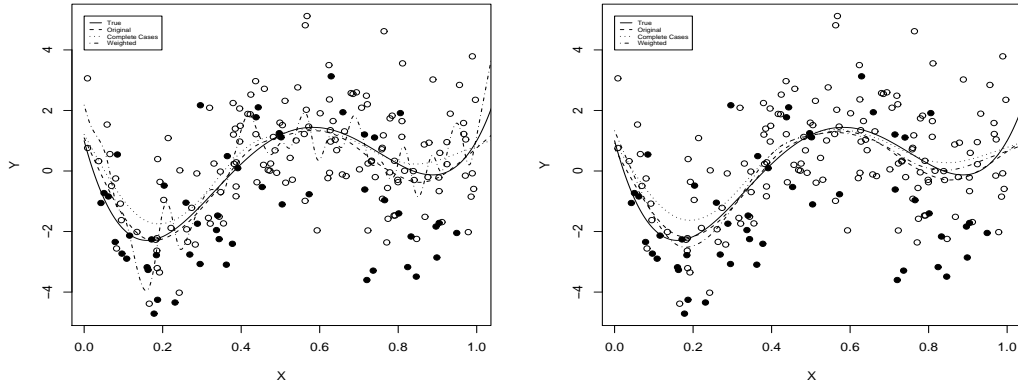


Figure 7: Simulated dataset with spline fits according to the different methods together with the true function, using the ML variance estimator $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ (left panel) and the unbiased variance estimator $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ (right panel).

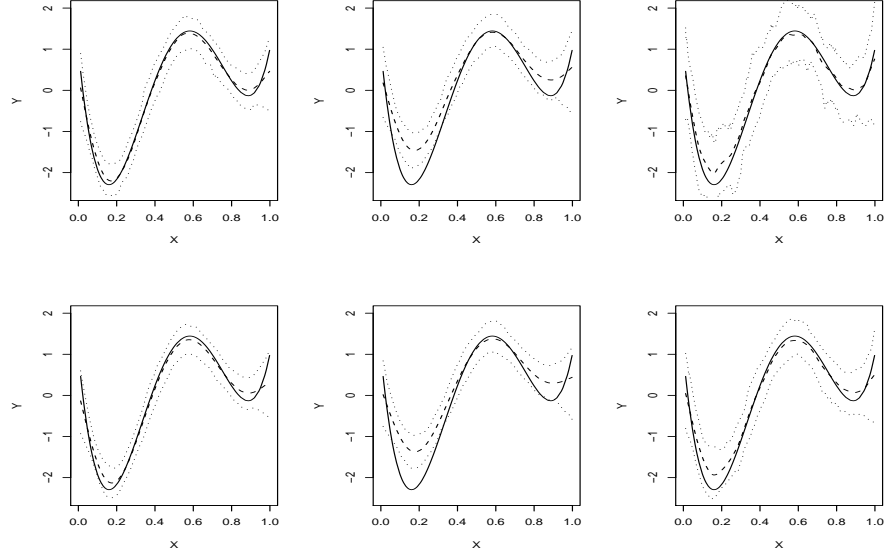


Figure 8: Average of the fitted values based on the chosen models over simulation runs together with the true function and 95% confidence intervals. From left to right: the original data, the complete cases and the weighted complete cases, using either $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ (upper row) or $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ (lower row).

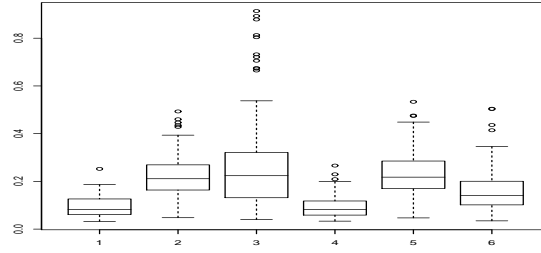


Figure 9: Boxplots of the simulated MASE-values for the different methods: original data, $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ (1), complete cases, $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ (2), weighted complete cases, $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2$ (3), original data, $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ (4), complete cases, $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ (5), weighted complete cases, $\hat{\sigma}_U^2$ (6).

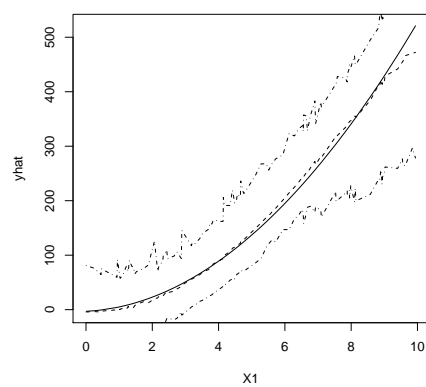


Figure 10: Average best model with 95% pointwise confidence intervals for the augmented data with classical AIC. The solid curve is the true function $\mu_0(x, z)$