



# On the Utility of Bayesian Model Averaging for Optimizing Prediction: Two Case Studies

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- This work was conducted in collaboration with Danielle Lee.



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- Of critical importance to education policy is the monitoring of trends in education over time.
- The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals identified Goal 4 as focusing on quality education for all.
- Many of the stated targets under Goal 4 focus on reducing the gender gap in quality education.
- Goal 4.6 focuses on achieving literacy and numeracy for men and women.
- Developing optimal predictive models allows researchers and policy makers to assess cross-country progress and forecasts toward that goal.



- Our interest lies in developing LSAs for optimal prediction and forecasting in education policy contexts.
- As with political forecasting and weather forecasting, we need to account for model uncertainty.

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- Our interest lies in developing LSAs for optimal prediction and forecasting in education policy contexts.
- As with political forecasting and weather forecasting, we need to account for model uncertainty.

*“Standard statistical practice ignores model uncertainty. Data analysts typically select a model from some class of models and then proceed as if the selected model had generated the data. This approach ignores the uncertainty in model selection, leading to over-confident inferences and decisions that are more risky than one thinks they are.”(Hoeting, et al 1999, pg. 382)*

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- *Bayesian model averaging* (BMA) is a framework for modeling and estimation that addresses the problem of model uncertainty
- Madigan and Raftery (1994) show that BMA provides better predictive performance than that of any single model based on a log-score rule.



# History of BMA Research

- Early work by Leamer (1978) laid the foundation for Bayesian model averaging.
- Fundamental theoretical work on Bayesian model averaging was conducted by Madigan and his colleagues (Madigan & Raftery, 1994; Raftery, 1997; Hoeting et al. 1999; Clyde, 1999).
- Draper (1995) has discussed how model uncertainty can arise even in the context of experimental designs.
- Kass and Raftery (1995) provide a review of Bayesian model averaging and the costs of ignoring model uncertainty.
- A more recent review of the general problem of model uncertainty can be found in Clyde & George (2004) .
- Bayesian model averaging has been implemented in the R software programs “BMA” and “BMS”.

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- Bayesian model averaging has been applied to a wide variety content domains.
  - Economics (Fernandez, Ley, & Steele, 2001)
  - Bioinformatics of gene express (Yeung, Bumgarner, Raftery, 2005)
  - Weather forecasting (Sloughter, Gneiting, & Raftery, 2013)
- Within education BMA has been applied causal inference within propensity score analysis (Kaplan & Chen, 2014).
- I will discuss an extension of Bayesian model averaging to structural equation modeling with applications to education can be found in Kaplan & Lee (2015).



# Bayesian model averaging

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- Let  $\Upsilon$  be a predicted observation and  $M_k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$  a set of competing models that are not necessarily nested.
- The posterior distribution of  $\Upsilon$  given data  $y$  can be written as

$$p(\Upsilon|y) = \sum_{k=1}^K p(\Upsilon|M_k)p(M_k|y), \quad (1)$$

meaning that the predicted value given the data is a weighted sum of the predicted value under each model multiplied by a measure of the quality of each model.



- The posterior model probability is obtained as

$$p(M_k|y) = \frac{p(y|M_k)p(M_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K p(y|M_l)p(M_l)}, \quad l \neq k. \quad (2)$$

and will be different for different models. Finally,

$$p(y|M_k) = \int p(y|\theta_k, M_k)p(\theta_k|M_k)d\theta_k, \quad (3)$$

is the integrated likelihood, and where  $p(\theta_k|M_k)$  is the prior distribution of  $\theta_k$  under model  $M_k$  (Raftery et al., 1997)



- BMA provides an approach for combining models specified by researchers.
- The number of terms in  $p(\Upsilon|y) = \sum_{k=1}^K p(\Upsilon|M_k)p(M_k|y)$  can be quite large and the corresponding integrals are hard to compute.
  - Solutions to reducing the size of the model space are based on search algorithms such as *Occam's window* and  $MC^3$  (Madigan and Raftery, 1994).
- It is common to use the constant prior  $1/M$  across the model space and a non-informative prior for model parameters.



# Scoring Rules

- A key characteristic of statistics is to develop accurate predictive models (Dawid, 1984)
- All other things being equal, a given model is to be preferred over other competing models if it provides better predictions of what actually occurred.
- We must decide on rules for gauging predictive accuracy – referred to as *scoring rules* (Gneiting & Raftery, 2007).
- Scoring rules provide a measure of the accuracy of probabilistic forecasts, and a forecast can be said to be “well-calibrated” if the assigned probabilities of the outcome match the actual proportion of times that the outcome occurred.

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- We will evaluate predictive performance using the 90% predictive coverage criterion and the log of the percent predictive coverage for continuous outcomes, referred to as the *log-score*.
- For the prediction of a dichotomous outcome we can use the Brier score (Brier, 1950) defined as

$$Brier = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (f_t - o_t)^2, \quad (4)$$

- The log-score and the Brier score are so-called *proper scoring rules* insofar as the score is maximized (or minimized in the case of the Brier score) when the reported forecast probability is the same as true probability.



# Case Study 1: BMA in Regression Analysis

- The sample comes from approximately PISA (2009)-eligible students in the United States ( $N \sim 5000$ ).
- Background variables: gender (gender), immigrant status (native), language (1 = test language is the same as language at home, 0 otherwise) and economic, social, and cultural status of the student (escs).
- Student reading attitudes: enjoyment of reading (joyread), diversity in reading (divread), memorization strategies (memor), elaboration strategies (elab), control strategies (cstrat).
- The outcome was the first plausible value of the PISA 2009 reading assessment.

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- To gauge predictive performance we follow Hoeting, et al., (1999).
  - 1 Randomly divide the data set into “model averaging” data and “prediction” data.
  - 2 Fit a single frequentist model, Bayesian model, and BMA to the model averaging data.
  - 3 Predict the final dependent variable for the prediction data with the results from the model averaging data.
  - 4 Compare their predictive performance based on a 90% predictive coverage interval and the log-score.



- The initial model for Bayesian model averaging can be written for the  $i^{th}$  student ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ ) as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{READING}_i = & \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{GENDER}_i) + \beta_2(\text{NATIVE}_i) + & (5) \\ & \beta_3(\text{SLANG}_i) + \beta_4(\text{ESCS}_i) + \beta_5(\text{JOYREAD}_i) + \\ & \beta_6(\text{DIVREAD}_i) + \beta_7(\text{MEMOR}_i) + \\ & \beta_8(\text{ELAB}_i) + \beta_9(\text{CSTRAT}_i) + \epsilon_i, \end{aligned}$$

Reading proficiency PV (READING), GENDER (male=0, female=1), immigrant status (NATIVE), language that the students use (SLANG: coded 1 if the test language is the same as language at home, 0 otherwise), economic, social and cultural status of the students (ESCS), enjoyment of reading (JOYREAD) and diversity in reading (DIVREAD), memorization strategies (MEMOR), elaboration strategies (ELAB), and control strategies (CSTRAT).



# Bayesian Model Averaging

Table 1: Bayesian model averaging results for full multiple regression model

Predictor	Post Prob	Avg coef	SD	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Full Model</i>							
INTERCEPT	1.00	493.63	2.11	494.86	491.67	492.77	496.19
GENDER	0.42	2.72	3.54	.	6.46	6.84	.
NATIVE	0.00	0.00	0.00	.	.	.	.
SLANG	0.00	0.00	0.00	.	.	.	.
ESCS	1.00	30.19	1.24	30.10	30.36	30.18	29.90
JOYREAD	1.00	29.40	1.40	29.97	28.93	27.31	28.35
DIVREAD	0.92	-4.01	1.68	-4.44	-4.28	.	.
MEMOR	1.00	-18.61	1.31	-18.47	-18.76	-18.99	-18.70
ELAB	1.00	-15.24	1.26	-15.37	-14.95	-15.43	-15.90
CSTRAT	1.00	27.53	1.46	27.62	27.43	27.27	27.45
$R^2$				0.340	0.341	0.339	0.338
BIC				-1993.72	-1992.98	-1988.72	-1988.51
PMP				0.54	0.37	0.05	0.04

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**Table 2:** Comparison of the predictive performance

Regression model	Percent of predictive coverage	Log score of predictive coverage
Bayesian model averaging	95.69%	-0.04
Best model from Bayesian model averaging	90.50%	-0.10
Bayesian model	90.50%	-0.10
Frequentist model	90.45%	-0.10



# Case Study 2: BMA for SEM (Kaplan & Lee, 2015, *SEM*)

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- The general steps of our BMA-SEM method are as follows
  - 1 Specify an initial model of interest recognizing that this may not be the model that generated the data.
  - 2 Reduce the model space using the up and down algorithm by treating a path diagram as a DAG.
  - 3 Obtain the weighted average of structural parameters over each model, weighted by the posterior model probabilities.
  - 4 Compare predictive performance of the BMA-SEM to the initially specified SEM by computing the reduced form of the models and calculating the log-score or the predictive coverage.



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- A detailed simulation study by Kaplan & Lee (2015) revealed
  - ① No difference among methods when the true model is known. Scoring rules give same results.
  - ② No influence of width of Occam's window on predictive coverage.
- Our method performs no worse than when the true model is known.
- Our simulation study establishes the groundwork for applying the method to real data.



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- For the case study, we use data from PISA 2009 to estimate a model relating reading proficiency to a set of background and reading strategy variables.
- The sample was collected from PISA-eligible students in the United States, and the sample size was 5,053.
- The sample was split into a model averaging set ( $N = 2,526$ ) and a predictive testing set ( $N = 2,527$ ).



# Case Study 2

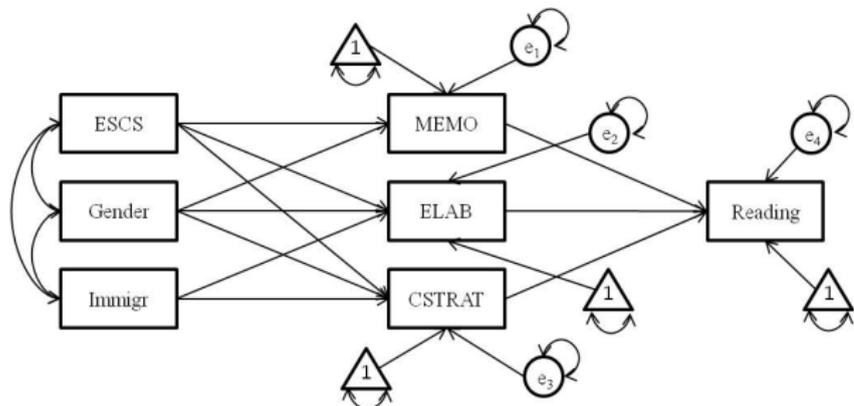


Figure 1: Initial path model.

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**Table 3:** Selected models by BMA-SEM with the  $C = 100$  for the PISA data

Parameter <sup>a</sup>	$M_1$	$M_2$	$M_3$
MEMO~ESCS	•	•	
ELAB~ESCS	•	•	•
CSTRAT~ESCS	•	•	•
Reading~ESCS	•	•	•
MEMO~Gender	•	•	•
ELAB~Gender	•	•	•
CSTRAT~Gender	•	•	•
Reading~Gender	•	•	•
MEMO~Immigr	•	•	•
ELAB~Immigr			
CSTRAT~Immigr		•	
Reading~Immigr			
ELAB~MEMO	•	•	•
CSTRAT~MEMO	•	•	•
Reading~MEMO	•	•	•
CSTRAT~ELAB	•	•	•
Reading~ELAB	•	•	•
Reading~CSTRAT	•	•	•
BIC	39461.68	39464.74	39465.15
PMP	0.72	0.15	0.13

Note. <sup>a</sup> ~ refers to regression of left-hand variable onto right-hand variable; PMP = posterior model probability.



**Table 4:** Comparison of the result of Bayesian model averaging to the result of the Bayesian SEM.

Predictor	Bayesian model averaging			BSEM			
	mean( $\beta y$ )	SD( $\beta y$ )	P( $\beta \neq 0 y$ )%	EAP	SD	95% PPI	
MEMOR~ESCS	0.09	0.03	100.00	0.07	0.02	0.02	0.12
MEMOR~GENDER	0.18	0.04	100.00	0.18	0.04	0.09	0.27
MEMOR~NATIVE	-0.20	0.06	100.00	—	—	—	—
ELAB~ESCS	0.16	0.03	100.00	0.16	0.03	0.11	0.21
ELAB~GENDER	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.05	0.04	-0.14	0.04
ELAB~NATIVE	-0.20	0.06	100.00	-0.20	0.06	-0.32	-0.09
CSTRAT~ESCS	0.29	0.02	100.00	0.29	0.02	0.25	0.34
CSTRAT~GENDER	0.25	0.04	100.00	0.25	0.04	0.18	0.33
CSTRAT~NATIVE	-0.20	0.06	100.00	-0.20	0.05	-0.30	-0.09
JOYREAD~ESCS	0.13	0.02	100.00	—	—	—	—
JOYREAD~GENDER	0.64	0.04	100.00	—	—	—	—
JOYREAD~NATIVE	0.00	0.00	0.00	—	—	—	—
JOYREAD~MEMOR	-0.11	0.02	100.00	-0.11	0.02	-0.16	-0.06
JOYREAD~ELAB	0.08	0.02	100.00	0.04	0.02	-0.01	0.08
JOYREAD~CSTRAT	0.28	0.02	100.00	0.36	0.02	0.31	0.41
READING~JOYREAD	0.34	0.02	100.00	0.34	0.02	0.31	0.38
MEMOR~1	0.02	0.06	100.00	-0.14	0.03	-0.20	-0.08
ELAB~1	0.04	0.05	100.00	0.06	0.06	-0.05	0.18
CSTRAT~1	-0.07	0.06	100.00	-0.08	0.05	-0.17	0.02
JOYREAD~1	-0.36	0.03	100.00	-0.02	0.02	-0.06	0.02
READING~1	5.00	0.02	100.00	5.00	0.02	4.96	5.03
MEMOR~~MEMOR	1.19	0.03	100.00	1.20	0.02	1.14	1.27
ELAB~~ELAB	1.23	0.03	100.00	1.23	0.02	1.17	1.30
CSTRAT~~CSTRAT	1.18	0.03	100.00	0.98	0.02	0.95	1.01
JOYREAD~~JOYREAD	0.89	0.03	100.00	0.98	0.02	0.95	1.01
READING~~READING	0.76	0.02	100.00	0.98	0.02	0.95	1.01

Note.  $N = 2,490$ ; ~ refers to regression of left-hand variable onto right-hand variable; ~1 refers to intercept; ~~ refers to variance;



EAP, expected a posteriori; SD, posterior standard deviation; PPI, posterior probability interval.

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**Table 5:** Ninety percent coverage and log-score for PISA example

Method	90% Coverage	Log-score
BMA-SEM (4)	0.90	-0.11
BMA-SEM (20)	0.90	-0.11
BMA-SEM (100)	0.90	-0.11
FSEM	0.88	-0.13
BSEM	0.88	-0.13



# Conclusions

- The question of using a model for some purpose beyond theory building suggests assessing the accuracy of a model's predictions.
- Thus, we are less concerned about the fit of a model and more concerned about finding a model that will predict well.
- Building optimally predictive models requires good model “calibration”, i.e. predictions aligning with real world outcomes.

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## Conclusions (cont'd)

- Model selection and averaging is a very large topic in statistics.
- This problem has been addressed in both frequentist and Bayesian contexts.
  - AIC, BIC, DIC.
- There are also methods of frequentist model averaging based on Akaike weights.
- Newer methods based on the “lasso” (from statistics and machine learning) are also used to develop predictive models.
- Our current work is looking at direct comparisons along a common metric of scoring, with applications to large-scale educational assessments.

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## Conclusions (cont'd)

- Handling complex sampling designs
  - Essential for large-scale surveys
  - Not trivial
- Cross-System growth regressions
  - ILSAs are longitudinal at the country level.
  - Possible for ILSAs depending on the outcome of interest.

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## Conclusions (cont'd)

- Within the Bayesian world, BMA is known to yield a model that will perform better than any given sub-model on the criteria of predictive accuracy.
- The idea is that although not all models are equally good (as measured by their PMPs), all models do contain some important information.
- By combining models, while accounting for model uncertainty, we obtain a model with optimal predictive performance.

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# Thank you