Economic Forecasting

Shrinkage methods

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Outline

- 1 Model selection
- 2 Ridge regression
- 3 The lasso
- 4 Ridge regression vs. lasso
- 5 Example: Used cars
- 6 A very large data set

Model selection

Suppose we observe a dependent variable y and p potential explanatory variables (or predictors) x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p such that

$$y = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p) + \varepsilon$$

Two main reasons to perform variable selection:

- model interpretability: including irrelevant variables leads to unnecessary complexity
- prediction accuracy: including irrelevant variables leads to less accurate predictions, specially when N is not much larger than p

Model selection

The methods described before work well with small p...

- but the number of models grows as p increases, with p = 10 there are $2^{10} = 1024$ possible models
- \blacksquare if p < N but close to N, OLS will not be very accurate
- \blacksquare if p > N, OLS cannot be used!

Model selection

Shrinkage methods

Shrinkage methods involve fitting a model with all p predictors (even if p > N).

- estimated coefficients are shrunk towards 0, some may be estimated to be exactly 0
- shrinkage reduces the variance of the estimators

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Ridge regression

Ridge regression

The ridge regression estimates $(\hat{\beta}^R)$ are given by

$$\hat{\beta}^{R} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_{i} - \beta_{0} - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j} x_{ij} \right)^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j}^{2}$$

Remarks:

- that is, minimize SSR + $\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j}^{2}$
- lacksquare $\lambda \geq$ 0 is a tuning parameter
- $\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j}^{2}$ is the shrinkage penalty

Ridge regression

Remarks:

- if $\lambda = 0$, $\hat{\beta}^R$ is the OLS estimate
- if $\lambda \to \infty$, $\hat{\beta}^R$ = **0** (the null model)
- \blacksquare λ balances fit vs. shrinking of the estimates towards 0
- \blacksquare selecting a good value of λ is critical, more later

Ridge regression

The ridge regression estimates can change substantially when a predictor is multiplied by a constant. Why?

As a result, it is better to first *standardize the predictors* such that they all have the same variance (= 1):

$$\bar{x}_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)^2}}.$$

Ridge regression vs. OLS

In general, if the relationship between *y* and the predictors is close to linear, OLS will have low bias but *may* have high variance.

Remarks:

- if p is close to N, OLS estimates will have very large variance
- if p > N, OLS cannot be used (variance is ∞)!
- ridge regression trades off an increase in bias for a decrease in variance (the effect of shrinkage)
- ridge regression works best when OLS estimates have high variance

True model:
$$y_i = \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$$
, $i = 1, ..., N$

And consider a small data set with 3 predictor variables such that:

- β_1 = .75, β_2 = .50, β_j = 0 for j = 0, 3
 - σ = 2
 - N = 200

Note that y is a function of x_1 and x_2 , all other variables are irrelevant.

- OLS is perfectly capable of handling this one
- but we may still get some insights on how ridge regression works

First, simulate data according to data generating process (DGP). Next, use scale(x) to standardize the variables.

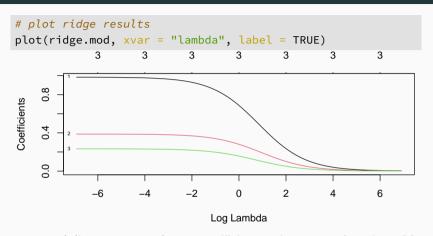
```
# simulate data
n.obs < -200
n.var <- 3
                                                Scale the matrix
e \leftarrow rnorm(n.obs, mean = 0, sd = 2) # errors
x <- matrix(0, n.obs, n.var)
for (i in 1:n.var) { x[.i] \leftarrow rnorm(n.obs) }
v \leftarrow .75*x[.1] + .50*x[.2] + e
x \leftarrow scale(x)
data.all <- data.frame(x.v)</pre>
```

```
model1 \leftarrow lm(y \sim X1 + X2 + X3, data = data.all)
coeftest(model1)
##
## t test of coefficients:
##
##
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -0.100 0.143 -0.70 0.4853
## X1
           ## X2
             ## X3
             0.233 0.144 1.62 0.1069
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

We will use the R package glmnet.

- alpha=0 selects the ridge regression penalty, $\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_{j}^{2}$
- we are estimating the ridge regression for a range of values of λ , $\lambda \in (.001, 1000)$ 7714

```
# ridge reg for different values of lambda
grid <- 10^seq(3, -3, length = 100)
ridge.mod <- glmnet(x, y, alpha = 0, lambda = grid)</pre>
```



each line corresponds to a coefficient estimate as a function of λ (if $\lambda \to \infty$?)

We can compare the OLS and ridge estimates for a given λ .

 \blacksquare a large λ produces substantial shrinkage (relative to OLS)

```
# ridge
ridge.mod$lambda[1]
## [1] 1000
coef(ridge.mod)[,1]
   (Intercept)
                         V1
                                     V2
                                                  V3
##
    -0.1002473 0.0022821
                              0.0010010
                                          0.0004738
# least squares
model1$coef
   (Intercept)
                         X1
                                     X2
                                                  Х3
##
       -0.1002
                    0.9832
                                 0.3875
                                              0.2329
```

We can compare the OLS and ridge estimates for a given λ .

lacksquare a small λ produces less shrinkage

```
# ridge
ridge.mod$lambda[80]
## [1] 0.0163
coef(ridge.mod)[,80]
   (Intercept)
                         V1
                                      V2
                                                   V3
##
       -0.1002
                     0.9764
                                  0.3851
                                               0.2311
# least squares
model1$coef
   (Intercept)
                         X1
                                      X2
                                                   Х3
##
       -0.1002
                     0.9832
                                  0.3875
                                               0.2329
```

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The lasso

The lasso

The lasso estimates $(\hat{\beta}^L)$ are given by

$$\hat{\beta}^{L} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$$

Remarks:

- that is, minimize SSR + $\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$
- lacksquare $\lambda \geq$ 0 is a tuning parameter
- $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$ is the shrinkage penalty

The lasso

Remarks:

- if $\lambda = 0$, $\hat{\beta}^L$ is the OLS estimate
- \blacksquare if $\lambda \to \infty$, $\hat{\beta}^L = \mathbf{0}$
- \blacksquare λ balances fit vs. shrinking of the estimates towards 0
- lacksquare selecting a good value of λ is critical, more later

The lasso estimates can also change substantially when a predictor is multiplied by a constant. As a result, it is better to first standardize the predictors such that they all have the same variance (= 1).

The lasso

In general, the lasso works very much like ridge regression.

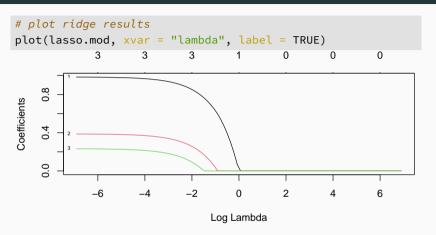
But the lasso performs variable selection, ridge regression does not.

- ridge regression will include all *p* predictors in the final model
- the lasso may force some estimates to be exactly equal to 0
- if λ is sufficiently large, the ridge regression and lasso models may differ
- lasso models are generally much easier to interpret

We will use the R package glmnet.

- alpha=1 selects the lasso regression penalty, $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{p} |\beta_{i}|$
- we are estimating the lasso regression for a range of values of λ , $\lambda \in (.001, 1000)$

```
# lasso reg for different values of lambda
grid <- 10^seq(3, -3, length = 100)
lasso.mod <- glmnet(x, y, alpha = 1, lambda = grid)</pre>
```



each line corresponds to a coefficient estimate as a function of λ (if $\lambda \to \infty$?)

We can compare the OLS and lasso estimates for a given λ .

lacksquare a large λ produces substantial shrinkage (relative to OLS)

```
# ridge
lasso.mod$lambda[1]
## [1] 1000
coef(lasso.mod)[,1]
                         ٧1
                                      V2
                                                   ٧3
   (Intercept)
##
       -0.1002
                     0.0000
                                  0.0000
                                               0.0000
# least squares
model1$coef
   (Intercept)
                         X1
                                      X2
                                                   Х3
       -0.1002
##
                     0.9832
                                  0.3875
                                               0.2329
```

We can compare the OLS and lasso estimates for a given λ .

 \blacksquare a small λ produces less shrinkage

```
# ridge
lasso.mod$lambda[80]
## [1] 0.0163
coef(lasso.mod)[,80]
                         ٧1
                                      V2
                                                   ٧3
   (Intercept)
##
       -0.1002
                     0.9674
                                  0.3717
                                              0.2160
# least squares
model1$coef
   (Intercept)
                         X1
                                      X2
                                                   Х3
       -0.1002
##
                     0.9832
                                  0.3875
                                              0.2329
```

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The ridge regression and lasso coefficients solve the problems:

$$\min_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 \le s$$

$$\min_{\beta} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 \right\} \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| \le s$$

Remarks:

- OLS is the unconstrained solution
- lasso and ridge estimates are constrained solutions
- this reduces the variance as it keeps the estimates close to 0
- the "shape" of the restriction matters

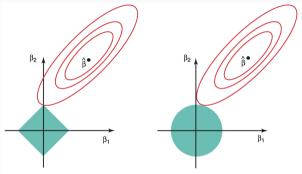


FIGURE 6.7. Contours of the error and constraint functions for the lasso (left) and ridge regression (right). The solid blue areas are the constraint regions, $|\beta_1| + |\beta_2| \le s$ and $\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 \le s$, while the red ellipses are the contours of the RSS.

 $\hat{\beta}$ is the (unrestricted) OLS solution, the lasso and ridge regression solutions may differ

Which is better?

- the lasso should perform better when a relatively small number of predictors are important and the remaining predictors have coefficients that are very small or equal to 0
- ridge regression should perform better when many predictors are (roughly) equally important
- cross-validation can be used to determine which approach is better in a particular data set

True model:
$$y_i = \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$$
, $i = 1, ..., N$

And consider a large data set of 50 mostly irrelevant predictor variables such that:

$$\beta_1 = .75$$
, $\beta_2 = .50$, $\beta_j = 0$ for $j = 0, 3, ..., 50$

- σ = 2
- N = 200

Note that y is a function of x_1 and x_2 , all other variables are irrelevant.

how can we find and estimate the model?

First, simulate data according to data generating process (DGP). Next, use scale(x) to standardize the variables.

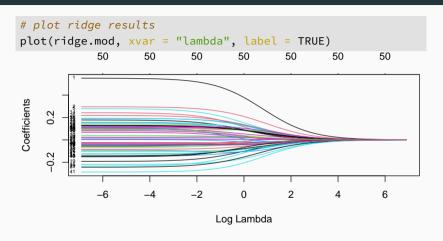
```
# simulate data
n.obs < -200
n.var <- 50
e \leftarrow rnorm(n.obs, mean = 0, sd = 2) # errors
x <- matrix(0, n.obs, n.var)
for (i in 1:n.var){ x[,i] <- rnorm(n.obs) }</pre>
v \leftarrow .75*x[.1] + .50*x[.2] + e
x \leftarrow scale(x)
data.all <- data.frame(x.v)</pre>
```

We are estimating the ridge and lasso regressions for a range of values of λ , $\lambda \in (.001, 1000)$.

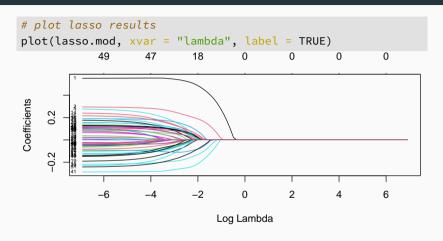
```
#
grid <- 10^seq(3, -3, length = 100)

# ridge reg for different values of lambda
ridge.mod <- glmnet(x, y, alpha = 0, lambda = grid)

# lasso reg for different values of lambda
lasso.mod <- glmnet(x, y, alpha = 1, lambda = grid)</pre>
```



- each line corresponds to a coefficient estimate
- ridge does not perform variable selection



- each line corresponds to a coefficient estimate
- lasso performs variable selection

Selecting the tuning parameter

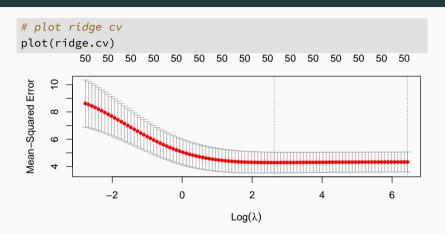
We can use cross-validation to select the tuning parameter λ .

Steps:

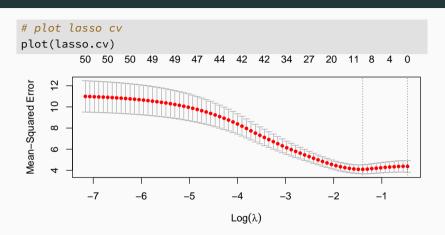
- split the sample into a training set and a test set
- use k-fold CV in the training set to find the value of λ that minimizes the cross-validation error
- compute the MSE for observations in the test set and evaluate the performance of the different models
- \blacksquare re-estimate using all available observations and the selected value of λ

Use the function ${\tt cv.glmnet}$ to find the λ value that minimizes the CV error.

```
# split the sample into train/test sets
train <- sample(nrow(data.all), round(nrow(data.all)/2))</pre>
cv.error <- rep(NA.3)
# least squares
ols.cv \leftarrow lm(v \sim x, data = data.all, subset = train)
cv.error[1] <- mean((v - predict(ols.cv, data.all))[-train]^2)
# ridae
ridge.cv <- cv.glmnet(x[train,], y[train], alpha = 0, nfolds = 10)
ridge.lam <- ridge.cv$lambda.min
cv.error[2] <- mean((y - predict(ridge.cv, s = ridge.lam, newx = x))[-train]^2)</pre>
# lasso
lasso.cv <- cv.glmnet(x[train,], y[train], alpha = 1, nfolds = 10)</pre>
lasso.lam <- lasso.cv$lambda.min
cv.error[3] <- mean((y - predict(lasso.cv, s = lasso.lam, newx = x))[-train]^2)</pre>
```



- \blacksquare select the value of λ that minimizes the cross-validation error
- wide confidence intervals (estimate not very accurate)



- \blacksquare select the value of λ that minimizes the cross-validation error
- narrow confidence intervals (estimate more accurate)

The MSE for observations in the test set is reported below.

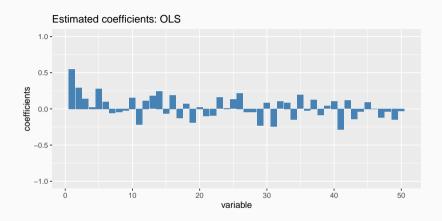
```
cv.error <- data.frame(cv.error)
rownames(cv.error) <- c("ols","ridge","lasso")
cv.error
## cv.error
## ols 8.015
## ridge 4.497
## lasso 4.758</pre>
```

Remarks:

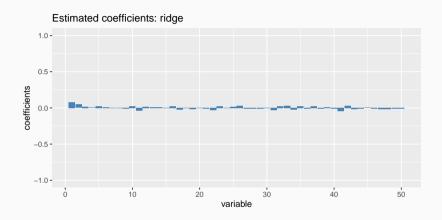
- OLS performs poorly (relative to the other methods)
- ridge and lasso work best in this data set (why?)

Re-estimate regression using all the available observations and the selected value of λ .

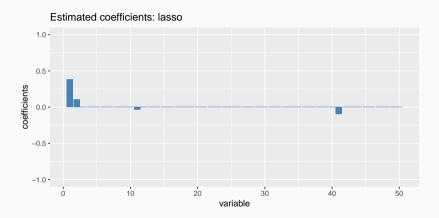
```
# least squares coefficients
model1 \leftarrow lm(v \sim x, data = data.all)
coef.ls <- data.frame("x" = seg(1:n.var), "beta" = coef(model1)[-1])</pre>
# ridge coefficients
model2 <- glmnet(x, y, alpha = 0, lambda = ridge.lam)</pre>
coef.ridge <- data.frame("x" = seg(1:n.var), "beta" = coef(model2)[-1])</pre>
# lasso coefficients
model3 <- glmnet(x, y, alpha = 1, lambda = lasso.lam)</pre>
coef.lasso <- data.frame("x" = seg(1:n.var), "beta" = coef(model3)[-1])
```



■ no shrinkage, all (most) coefficients different from 0



■ noticeable shrinkage, all (most) coefficients different from 0



most coefficients shrinked to 0

Since lasso performs variable selection, we can re-estimate the model using all available observations and only the selected variables.

Least squares estimates are less biased than lasso estimates.

```
# estimate the lasso selected model
coeftest(lm(v \sim X1 + X2 + X11 + X41, data = data.all))
##
## t test of coefficients:
##
##
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) -0.0292 0.1368 -0.21 0.831
           ## X1
           0.3142 0.1381 2.27 0.024 *
## X2
## X11
           -0.2587 0.1382 -1.87 0.063.
## X41
         -0.3447 0.1382 -2.49 0.013 *
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

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Suppose you want to sell your car of a certain make, type, year, miles, condition and other features.

Prediction analysis can help you uncover the average advertised price of cars with similar characteristics.

that helps decide what price you may want to put on your ad

Consider a sample of offers for used Toyota Camry cars in 2018 in Chicago (Békés and Kézdi, 2021).

Data:

- source: scraped from a website
- characteristics: year of make (age), odometer (miles), etc.
- data cleaning: drop erroneous observations, hybrid cars, trucks...

Load data set and filter offers from the Chicago area.

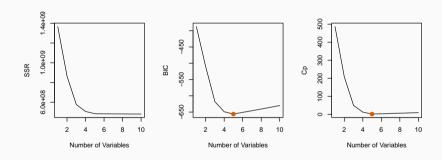
```
# read data
data <-
  read.csv(
    "data/used_cars_work.csv",
    header = TRUE,
    stringsAsFactors = TRUE
)
# focus only on Chicago
data <- data %>%
  filter(area == "chicago")
```

We will use the following predictors:

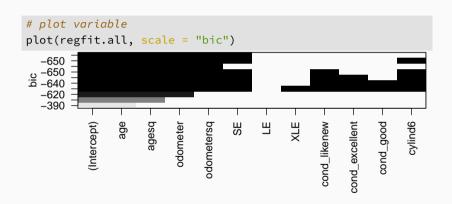
- age: measuring how old is the car (continuous, linear)
- odometer: measuring miles the car traveled (continuous, linear)
- car type: LE, XLE, SE (missing in about 30% of the observations, factor-set of dummies, incl. N/A)
- condition: good condition, excellent condition, or it is like new (missing for about one third of the ads, factor-set of dummies, incl. N/A)
- car's engine has 6 cylinders (20% of ads say this; 43% says 4 cylinders, and the rest has no information, binary for 6 cylinders)

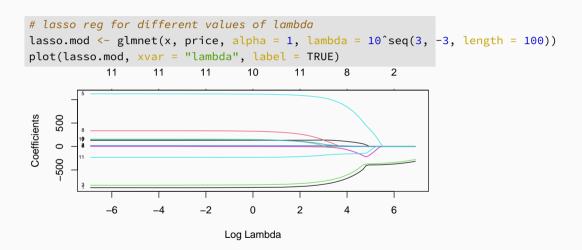
Perform **best subset selection** using all the variables in Model 4 allowing for up to 10 variables.

```
# select variables
x <- data %>%
  dplyr::select(
    age, agesq, odometer, odometersq, SE, LE, XLE,
    cond_likenew, cond_excellent, cond_good, cylind6
  ) %>%
  data.matrix()
price <- data$price</pre>
data2 <- data.frame(x,price)</pre>
regfit.all <- regsubsets(price~. , data = data2, nvmax = 10)
reg.summarv <- summarv(regfit.all)</pre>
```



■ BIC and AIC (Cp) select k = 5



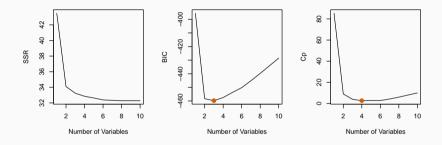


A more detailed look (prices in levels).

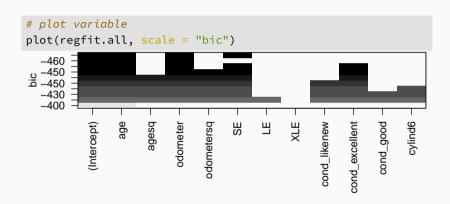
##		ols	bss	lasso
##	(Intercept)	19948.916	20035.02	19764.700
##	age	-876.959	-873.74	-855.876
##	agesq	18.653	18.42	17.837
##	odometer	-826.489	-832.01	-805.685
##	odometersq	19.832	20.12	18.929
##	SE	1122.004	1173.09	1101.982
##	LE	3.256	NA	-2.465
##	XLE	130.122	NA	134.158
##	cond_likenew	334.838	NA	286.443
##	cond_excellent	157.129	NA	121.354
##	cond_good	143.040	NA	120.532
##	cylind6	-233.506	NA	-224.179

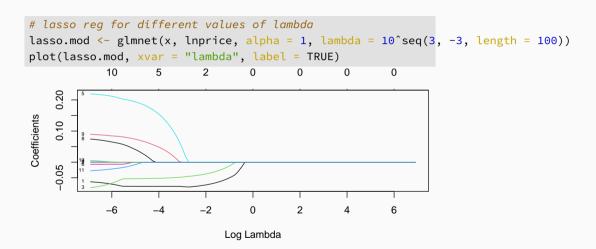
Should we work in levels or logs?

```
# select variables
x <- data %>%
  dplyr::select(
    age, agesq, odometer, odometersq, SE, LE, XLE,
    cond_likenew, cond_excellent, cond_good, cylind6
  ) %>%
  data.matrix()
lnprice <- data$lnprice</pre>
data2 <- data.frame(x,lnprice)</pre>
regfit.all <- regsubsets(lnprice~. , data = data2, nvmax = 10)
reg.summary <- summary(regfit.all)</pre>
```



■ BIC selects k = 3, AIC (Cp) selects k = 4





A more detailed look (prices in logs).

```
##
                        റിട
                                 bss
                                          lasso
  (Intercept)
                 10.1355346 10.10577 10.0318223
##
  age
                 -0.0563904 -0.08429 -0.0778367
                 -0.0009484
                                  NA -0.0001926
  agesq
  odometer
                -0.0935311 -0.05372 -0.0521044
  odometersq
                  0.0015117
                                  NA
                                      0.0000000
## SF
                  0.2247556 0.22733
                                      0.1634097
## IF
                 -0.0080826
                                  NA
                                      0.0000000
## XLE
                 -0.0057798
                                      0.0000000
                                  NA
  cond_likenew 0.0808348
                                  NA
                                      0.0000000
  cond_excellent 0.0927394
                                      0.0532273
                                  NΑ
  cond_good
                                      0.0000000
                  0.0090029
                                  NA
  cylind6
                 -0.0311883
                                  NA
                                      0.0000000
```

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True model:
$$y_i = \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \varepsilon_i$$
, $i = 1, ..., N$

And consider a large data set of 500 mostly irrelevant predictor variables such that:

$$\beta_1 = .75, \beta_2 = .50, \beta_j = 0 \text{ for } j = 0, 3, \dots, 500$$

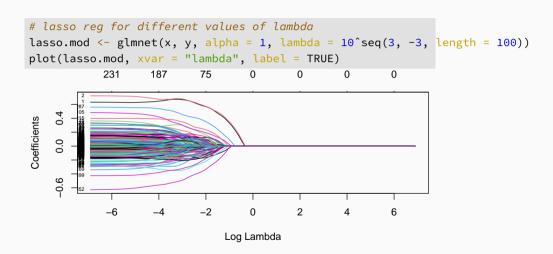
- σ = 2
- N = 200

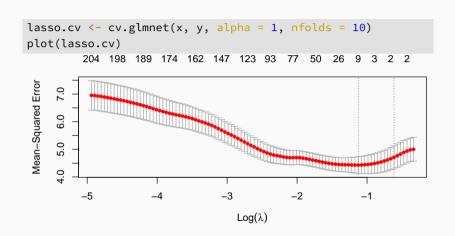
Note that y is a function of x_1 and x_2 , all other variables are irrelevant.

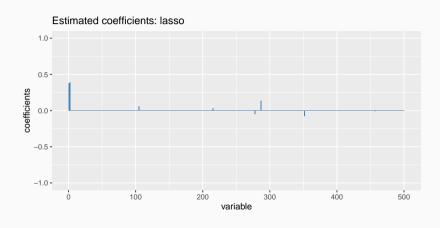
■ how can we find and estimate the model?

First, simulate data according to data generating process (DGP). Next, use scale(x) to standardize the variables.

```
# simulate data
n.obs < -200
n.var < -500
e \leftarrow rnorm(n.obs, mean = 0, sd = 2) # errors
x <- matrix(0, n.obs, n.var)
for (i in 1:n.var) { x[,i] \leftarrow rnorm(n.obs) }
y \leftarrow .75 \times x[,1] + .50 \times x[,2] + e
x \leftarrow scale(x)
data.all <- data.frame(x,y)</pre>
```



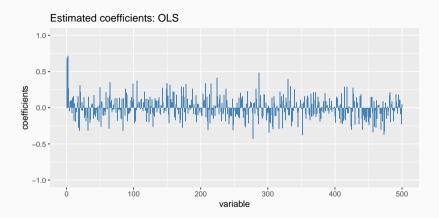




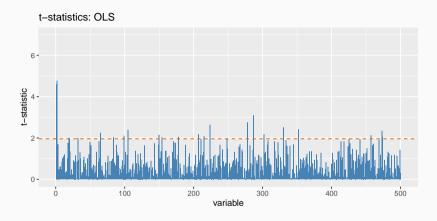
What would we find if we run 500 single OLS regressions?

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```
coef.ols <- rep(NA, n.var)
test.ols <- rep(NA, n.var)
for (i in 1:n.var){
  tmp0 \leftarrow lm(\vee \sim x[,i])
  coef.ols[i] <- coeftest(tmp0)[2,1] # estimated slope</pre>
  test.ols[i] <- abs(coeftest(tmp0)[2,3]) # t-stat</pre>
# single regression coefficients
coef.ols <-
  data.frame(
    x'' = seq(1:n.var),
    "beta" = coef.ols,
    "test" = test.ols
```



■ x_1 and x_2 show stronger effect but many coefficients $\neq 0$



■ many t-statistics > 2!