Predicting Supermarket Turnover using Demographic Factors

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1 Introduction

Supermarket retailing has been witnessing dramatic changes in the last two decades due to the rapidly increasing market share of e-groceries. Customers are changing their shopping habits and are switching from the traditional offline shops to online stores to buy their daily supplies, particularly during the COVID-19 pandemic. To ensure the sustainability of the supermarket retailing business by optimally responding to changing consumer behaviours, it is inevitable for managers to recognize the demographic factors that historically affect yearly turnover. In this study, we analyze a cross-sectional data set on yearly turnover of groceries and demographic factors in Chicago areas. The latter consists of age group, ethnicity, family structure, income, living conditions, and shopper type. The aim of this research is to examine the demographic variables that assist in predicting yearly turnover of groceries. Our research question is as follows,

Which demographic factors are instrumental in predicting yearly supermarket turnover?

In view of the large number of potential relevant factors, we employ a linear regression model with an elastic net penalty on the parameters. Grid search and K-fold cross-validation are used to determine the optimal hyperparameters for this model. This paper is outlined as follows. Section 2 describes the data set briefly. Section 3 presents the methodology to answer the research question. Section 4 reports and interprets the empirical results of this study. Finally, we conclude our work in Section 5.

2 Data

The data set in this study is obtained from the University of Chicago Booth Kilts Center¹. It contains cross-sectional data from 1996 on 77 Chicago area supermarkets, and corresponding demographic statistics for these areas. The demographic statistics are originally U.S. government data from 1990 for the Chicago metropolitan area. The variable of interest in this research is GROCERY_SUM, which is the total yearly turnover of groceries in U.S. dollars. After omitting five variables (STORE, ZIP, CITY, GROCCOUP_SUM and SHPINDX), the data set contains 44 independent variables that are used to predict supermarket turnover. These predictors contain information about consumer characteristics, such as age group, ethnicity, family structure, income group, living conditions, and shopper type. An exhaustive list of the variables in the data set and corresponding descriptions can be found in Table 1 in the Appendix. Table 1 in the Appendix also presents descriptive statistics. The response variable yearly supermarket turnover is 7.3 million U.S. dollar averaged over the Chicago areas in 1996, where the yearly turnover varies from 1.4 to 13.2 million U.S. dollar between areas. Moreover, we observe that on average Chicago households have a size of 2.7, and 20.4% of its citizens are non-white.

In addition, we analyse the correlations between the variables in the data set. In view of space limitations, this table is not disclosed but several insights are worth discussing. First, the response variable yearly supermarket turnover has a modest relationship with most predictor variables. It moderately comoves with income in an area and household value, but shows almost no relation with average household size or the fraction of people without a car. Moreover, we observe that a significant number of predictor variables show large comovement with at least one of the other predictor variables. For example, the fraction of children below the age of nine in an area is highly correlated with all household size statistics. Likewise, the log of income in an area is highly correlated with the fraction of college graduates, and strongly negatively correlated with poverty. This raises multicollinearity issues, and suggests that predictions based on straightforward multiple regression may lead to unstable prediction estimates. In other words, the correlation matrix vindicates the use of techniques such as regularized regression, which incorporates a penalizing function.

¹Dominick's Dataset (2014). James M. Kilts Center, University of Chicago Booth School of Business. URL: https://www.chicagobooth.edu/research/kilts/datasets/dominicks

3 Methodology

In this section the methodology of this study is discussed. We consider a linear regression model with an elastic net penalty on the parameters to investigate the relation between the predictive variable and the collection of regressors. The relation can be modelled using a linear regression model which has the desirable property of returning parameter estimates of the individual effects of the regressors on the predictive variable. However, this approach is not suitable when one has a large set of regressors and a relatively low number of observations. In this case there is a high chance of encountering overfitting and multicollinearity. Shrinkage methods, such as the elastic net approach, can accommodate these problems by restricting the set of parameters. This allows one to study only the effects of relevant regressors, selected through the shrinkage approach, on the dependent variable.

Let $\mathcal{I} = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ be the index set of the n observations and let $\mathcal{J} = \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be the index set of the k candidate regressors. The dependent variable is denoted by y_i and we assume the dependent variables to be independent and not identically distributed over $i \in \mathcal{I}$. Moreover, let $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, ..., x_{i,k})'$ denote the regressors (excluding the intercept), assumed to be non-stochastic for all $i \in \mathcal{I}$. The loss function of a linear regression model with shrinkage on the parameters is given by

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} (y_i - \gamma - \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta})^2 + \lambda P(\boldsymbol{\beta}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}), \tag{1}$$

where the intercept γ and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)'$ are the parameters to be estimated. Moreover, λ is the shrinkage scaling hyperparameter, $P : \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}$ is some penalty function with hyperparameters α , all of which have to be selected by the researcher. Note that loss function (1) consists of the OLS loss function and a penalty term on the regression parameters. The elastic net penalty function, introduced by Zou and Hastie (2005), is given by $P(\beta;\alpha) = \alpha \|\beta\|_1 + (1-\alpha)/2\|\beta\|_2^2$, where α is a scalar between zero and one. This penalty term is a weighted combination of the Ridge penalty term (Horel 1962) and the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) penalty term (Tibshirani 1996). The L_1 -norm improves the prediction performance through variance reduction if the sample size is small relative to the number of explanatory variables and ensures higher interpretability due to simultaneous model selection. The L_2 -norm shrinks large regression coefficients in order to reduce overfitting. Both terms help avoid computational problems of traditional regression methods in the case the number of explanatory variables is large relative to the number of observations. We minimize the loss function (1) to obtain estimates of $\hat{\beta}$ using the analytical solution when it exists, that is, when α is zero. Otherwise, the Minimization by Majorization (MM) algorithm of Hunter and Lange (2004) is used for estimation.

The hyperparameters have to be chosen before the final analysis. We perform grid search and K-fold cross validation as described in Friedman, Hastie, and Tibshirani (2001). Grid search is an exhaustive search through a manually specified subset of the hyperparameter values. For each of the possible combinations of hyperparameters, the model is estimated and the combination yielding the best performance is selected. We consider 100 equally divided values in the interval [0,1] for alpha. For λ , we consider 0 and 99 values between 10^{-5} and 10^{5} .

The performance of a specific combination of hyperparameter values is approximated using K-fold cross validation. In this approach, the data is equally distributed over K folds. In each of K iterations, one of the folds serves as test set, whereas train coefficients are estimated on the data in the remaining (K-1) folds. The train coefficients are used to compute an out-of-sample metric on the test fold. We use the Root Mean Squared Error, that is,

$$RMSE_k = \sqrt{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_k} \left(y_i - \mathbf{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \right)^2}, \tag{2}$$

where \mathcal{I}_k denotes the set of observations in the test set. After K iterations, the individual fold performances are combined using a summarizing metric, in our case we simply use the mean obtaining the mean RMSE of the K folds. We use 5 folds for the cross-validation step and divide the data into folds once at before applying grid search.

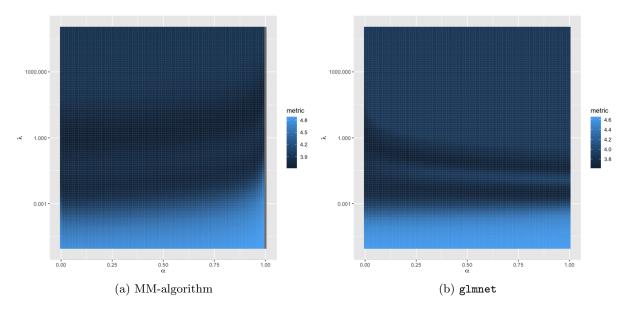
4 Results

This section presents the results of this study. In order to conclude which demographic factors shape predictions of the yearly supermarket turnover, we describe the results of a linear regression model with an elastic net penalty on the parameters. First the resulting optimal hyperparameters using 5-fold cross-validation are discussed. Second, the estimated coefficients from the final regression are examined.

Figure 1 presents two contour plots of the grid of hyperparameter combinations (λ, α) . The hyperparameter λ is a positive penalty term, and α is a mixing parameter between ridge and LASSO (Groenen 2020). The parameter λ is varied from 0 and 1×10^{-5} to 1×10^{5} , whereas α ranges from 0 to 1. The metric used to obtain the optimal parameters is the root mean-squared error (RMSE). For each combination of parameter values, 5-fold cross-validation is performed to obtain an average RMSE over the folds. A dark blue shade represents a relatively small RMSE, whereas a light blue shade indicates a relatively large RMSE. Figure 1a shows the results for the implementation using the MM-algorithm, whereas Figure 1b displays the results obtained from the glmnet R package. Due to rounding errors in R, the MM-algorithm could not be used to compute values when α is equal to one (as it rounds it upwards resulting in a singular matrix that cannot be converted) and hence these are only shown using the glmnet package. A full overview of the optimal parameter estimates using the different approaches is given in Table 2. Although the plots are not completely similar, the direction of improvement is equivalent. A smaller value of the hyperparameter λ , moving towards one, decreases the root mean-squared error. In contrast, the α has a less pronounced effect on the average RMSE compared to λ .

Figure 1: Contour plot of the RMSE for GRID of Hyperparameters

This figure shows the root mean-squared error (RMSE) metric for a grid of penalty parameter λ values and mixing parameter α values. 5-fold cross-validation is used to obtain an average RMSE over the folds for all parameter values. Darker blue values indicate a lower, hence better, RMSE. Figure (a) presents the outcomes for the custom MM implication, whereas Figure (b) shows the results of the glmnet R package.

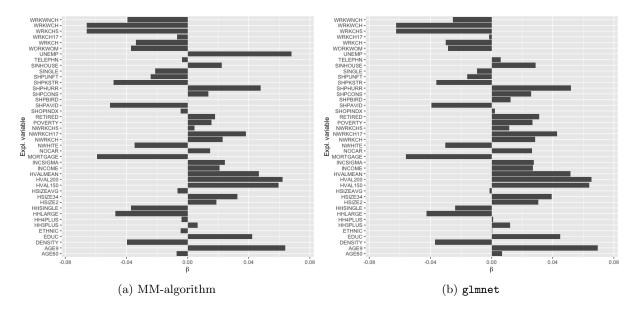


The optimal hyperparameters according to the implementation using the MM-algorithm are $\lambda=1.264855$ and $\alpha=0.171717$, whereas the optimal hyperparameters according to the glmnet R package are $\lambda=1$ and $\alpha=0$. In practical terms, the hyperparameter values of the MM implementation indicate that a combination of a LASSO and a ridge penalty is optimal, whereas the hyperparameter values of the glmnet R package indicate that a ridge penalty is optimal. The difference in hyperparameter estimates of the two methods are likely the results of either the glmnet implementation having a procedure that forces values to zero or it could be the result of using a significantly lower convergence tolerance when estimating beta, resulting in a large number of coefficients being equal to zero as shown in Table 5. Other factors that may contribute are rounding errors and different initial beta values.

Using the optimal cross-validated hyperparameters, we estimate the final regression, which either is an elastic net regression or a ridge regression. The regression weights are shown in Figure 2. For a non-zero penalty the coefficients become difficult to interpret, which is a cost of K-fold cross-validation. Due to the penalty term in the regression some coefficients are shrunk to zero (Groenen 2020). However, variables in our data set are often highly interdependent, so if one of the variables with a coefficient shrunk to zero changes, it may still have a large effect through the comovement with other variables that have large, non-zero coefficients.

Figure 2: Estimated Regression Coefficients

This figure shows the estimated regression coefficients for the optimal values of hyperparameters λ and α . The latter were determined using 5-fold cross-validation to obtain an average RMSE over the folds. The predictor variables are shown on the y-axis, whereas the estimated β 's are displayed on the x-axis. Figure (a) shows the coefficients for the MM implementation, whereas Figure (b) shows the results using the glmnet R package.



Despite the interpretation difficulty, we can still compare the coefficients in magnitude where a larger number indicates higher importance. The conjunction of the results from both methods indicates that household value, the fraction of people below age 9, and the fraction of hurried shoppers have a large positive impact on predicted supermarket turnover. For example, if the fraction of people with a household value of over 150K changes by one standard deviation, the predicted supermarket turnover increases by 0.06 standard deviations. In contrast, the fraction of working women with children below age 5, the fraction of people having a mortgage, and the fraction of avid shoppers have a significant negative effect on predicted supermarket turnover. Overall, average household size and ethnicity show almost no predictive power.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we have considered an elastic net to predict the turnover of supermarkets based on a wide range of demographic variables. The cross-sectional data set used in this study contains data on 77 Chicago area supermarkets in 1996, and corresponding demographic statistics. All in all, we conclude that having a mortgage, working women with young children, and household value, are among the variables with the highest impact on predicted supermarket turnover. Ethnicity and average household size however, have almost no predictive power. A limitation of the current study is the data set that contains a small set of observations compared to a large number of predictors, which may lead to the problem of overfitting. This calls for a more recent, enriched data set on supermarket data and demographic statistics. Further research could then take into account the demographic changes over the past twenty-four years, by replicating our methodology on the more recent data.

References

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Appendix

Table 1: Supermarket Data Summary

This table reports the mean, standard deviation, first and third quantile, minimum and maximum, and unit of measurement for the cross-sectional data set from 1996 on Chicago area supermarket data and demographics. Note that the variables measured in fractions are percentages divided by 100, such that 0.025 in the table represents 2.5%.

	Descriptive statistics									
variable	n	mean	std. dev.	min	q_{25}	q_{75}	max	unit		
grocery_sum	77	7,341,015	2,341,073	1,423,582	5,778,987	9,022,599	13,165,586	turnover \$/year		
age9	77	0.138	0.025	0.046	0.121	0.151	0.193	frac. age < 9		
age60	77	0.173	0.063	0.058	0.122	0.214	0.307	frac. age > 60		
ethnic	77	0.160	0.193	0.024	0.044	0.188	0.996	frac non-white		
educ	77	0.227	0.114	0.050	0.146	0.284	0.528	frac. college grads		
nocar	77	0.113	0.132	0.012	0.025	0.144	0.551	frac. without car		
income	77	10.616	0.293	9.867	10.414	10.797	11.236	log of income		
incsigma	77	24,841	$2,\!295$	20,360	$23,\!488$	$26,\!458$	$30,\!277$	std. of income		
hsizeavg	77	2.665	0.263	1.554	2.543	2.790	3.309	avg. household size		
hsize1	77	0.245	0.083	0.122	0.200	0.269	0.614	frac. household of 1		
hsize2	77	0.309	0.031	0.219	0.290	0.333	0.369	frac. household of 2		
hsize34	77	0.330	0.060	0.092	0.306	0.367	0.446	frac. household of 3/4		
hsize567	77	0.116	0.031	0.014	0.098	0.132	0.216	frac. household of > 5		
hh3plus	77	0.446	0.083	0.106	0.405	0.490	0.650	frac. household of > 3		
hh4plus	77	0.274	0.063	0.041	0.241	0.305	0.443	frac. household of > 4		
hhsingle	77	0.245	0.083	0.122	0.200	0.269	0.614	frac. detached house		
hhlarge	77	0.116	0.031	0.014	0.098	0.132	0.216	frac. household of > 5		
workwom	77	0.358	0.053	0.244	0.312	0.402	0.472	frac. working women		
sinhouse	77	0.548	0.216	0.017	0.517	0.706	0.822	frac. single household		
density	77	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.005	squared miles/capita		
hval150	77	0.349	0.246	0.003	0.123	0.534	0.917	frac. value > 150K		
hval200	77	0.186	0.186	0.001	0.043	0.268	0.781	frac. value $> 200 \text{K}$		
hvalmean	77	147.907	47.534	64.348	108.924	179.072	267.390	avg. household value \$		
single	77	0.280	0.068	0.203	0.242	0.286	0.593	frac. singles		
retired	77	0.150	0.051	0.056	0.109	0.188	0.236	frac. retired		
unemp	77	0.182	0.023	0.142	0.166	0.195	0.245	frac. unemployed		
wrkch5	77	0.056	0.020	0.024	0.041	0.070	0.118	frac. emp. women with children age < 5		
wrkch17	77	0.124	0.029	0.041	0.103	0.144	0.198	frac. emp. women with children age $6-17$		
nwrkch5	77	0.084	0.028	0.030	0.064	0.101	0.169	frac. unemp. women with children age < 5		
nwrkch17	77	0.070	0.021	0.018	0.059	0.082	0.122	frac. unemp. women with children age $6-17$		
wrkch	77	0.180	0.044	0.071	0.149	0.214	0.293	frac. emp. women with children		
nwrkch	77	0.154	0.043	0.048	0.123	0.183	0.250	frac. unemp. women with children		
wrkwch	77	0.055	0.020	0.024	0.041	0.069	0.115	frac. emp. women with children age < 5		
wrkwnch	77	0.258	0.044	0.157	0.227	0.282	0.460	frac. emp. women with no children		
telephn	77	0.977	0.029	0.839	0.976	0.993	0.998	frac. households with telephones		
mortgage	77	0.710	0.147	0.443	0.617	0.826	0.960	frac. households with mortgages		
nwhite	77	0.204	0.194	0.035	0.091	0.205	0.995	frac. non-white		
poverty	77	0.058	0.045	0.014	0.027	0.076	0.213	frac. income $< $15 \mathrm{K}$		
shopcons	77	0.082	0.062	0.019	0.037	0.115	0.279	frac. constrained shoppers		
shophurr	77	0.153	0.059	0.026	0.110	0.191	0.286	frac. hurried shoppers		
shopavid	77	0.189	0.043	0.061	0.161	0.220	0.310	frac. avid shoppers		
shopstr	77	0.284	0.066	0.184	0.232	0.330	0.558	frac. shopping stranges		
shopunft	77	0.246	0.055	0.145	0.197	0.291	0.391	frac. unfettered shoppers		
shopbird	77	0.046	0.025	0.004	0.025	0.064	0.105	frac. shopper birds		
shopindx	77	0.736	0.246	0.000	0.730	0.890	0.986	frac. ability to shop		

Parameter estimates comparison

Table 2: Parameter Estimates Comparison

This table reports parameter estimates using the MM-algorithm and the glmnet package for the optimal values of α and λ according to the two methods.

	MM-alg.	MM-alg.	glmnet	glmnet							
α	0.171717	0	0.171717	0							
λ	1.264855	1	1.264855	1							
Parameter estimates											
Intercept	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000							
AGE60	-0.007137	0.000000	0.000000	0.006820							
AGE9	0.064013	0.010311 0.118967	0.000000	0.069308							
DENSITY	-0.039711	-0.065376	0.000000	-0.037167							
EDUC	0.039711 0.042191	0.047525	0.000000	0.044717							
ETHNIC	-0.004628	0.047323	0.000000	0.000390							
HH3PLUS	0.004028 0.006596	0.000070	0.000000	0.000390 0.012033							
HH4PLUS	-0.003931	-0.002468	0.000000	0.012033 0.001112							
HHLARGE	-0.003931	-0.002408	0.000000	-0.042563							
HHSINGLE	-0.047339	-0.074510	0.000000	-0.042303							
HSIZE2	0.018814	0.048816	0.000000	0.023691 0.030667							
HSIZE34	0.032456	0.064396	0.000000	0.039321							
HSIZEAVG HVAL150	-0.006563	-0.005564	0.000000	-0.001484							
	0.059370	0.082381	0.015432	0.063915							
HVAL200	0.062249	0.072052	0.037757	0.065226							
HVALMEAN	0.046656	0.057843	0.003803	0.051449							
INCOME	0.020887	0.027713	0.000000	0.027108							
INCSIGMA	0.024486	0.012163	0.031715	0.027613							
MORTGAGE	-0.059370	-0.093061	0.000000	-0.056114							
NOCAR	0.014817	0.046031	0.000000	0.026412							
NWHITE	-0.034745	-0.051542	0.000000	-0.030344							
NWRKCH	0.022803	0.033222	0.000000	0.028614							
NWRKCH17	0.038045	0.039106	0.000000	0.042732							
NWRKCH5	0.004547	0.021872	0.000000	0.011640							
POVERTY	0.015578	0.044645	0.000000	0.026861							
RETIRED	0.017876	0.038782	0.000000	0.030967							
SHOPINDX	-0.004695	0.002341	0.000000	0.002142							
SHPAVID	-0.050809	-0.054833	0.000000	-0.039520							
SHPBIRD	0.000132	-0.000893	0.000000	0.012459							
SHPCONS	0.013550	0.043352	0.000000	0.025878							
SHPHURR	0.047924	0.076358	0.000000	0.051857							
SHPKSTR	-0.048540	-0.038299	0.000000	-0.036181							
SHPUNFT	-0.024201	-0.041141	0.000000	-0.015881							
SINGLE	-0.021164	-0.006930	0.000000	-0.009531							
SINHOUSE	0.022230	0.046428	0.000000	0.028764							
TELEPHN	-0.003699	0.021507	0.000000	0.005909							
UNEMP	0.068032	0.116889	0.000000	0.076901							
WORKWOM	-0.036963	-0.021917	0.000000	-0.028558							
WRKCH	-0.033883	-0.034166	0.000000	-0.029887							
WRKCH17	-0.006995	0.010315	0.000000	-0.001583							
WRKCH5	-0.066064	-0.088921	-0.003938	-0.062385							
WRKWCH	-0.066137	-0.088845	-0.004761	-0.062462							
WRKWNCH	-0.039261	-0.031063	0.000000	-0.025193							

R. Code

In this section, we show the code used to generate the results in this study. The code extends the previous implementations in the course and some of the methods referred in the functions specifically implemented for this study rely on the base code shown in the next code snippet.

```
# Helper functions for computing summary statistics for linear regression
# models.
# Inputs:
# beta:
              Vector of parameter estimates.
              Table containing numerical explanatory variables.
# y:
               Column containing a numerical dependent variable.
#
# Output:
# Summary statistic for given linear regression model.
rss = function(beta, x, y) sum((y - x %*% beta) ^ 2)
r2 = function(beta, x, y) 1 - rss(beta, x, y) / sum((y - mean(y)) ^ 2)
adj.r2 = function(beta, x, y) {
 N = nrow(x); return(1 - (1 - r2(beta, x, y)) * (N - 1) / (N - sum(beta != 0)))
# Helper functions for initializing machine learning models.
#
# Inputs:
# beta.init: Initial beta parameter.
              Table containing numerical explanatory variables.
# x:
              Column containing a numerical dependent variable.
# intercept: Indicator for whether to include an intercept or not.
# standardize: Indicator for whether to standardize the input. Ignored when
#
               intercept is TRUE.
#
# Output:
# Dependent or explanatory variables formatted to be used in a regression
# model.
create.x = function(x, intercept, standardize) {
 x = data.matrix(x)
 if (intercept) return(cbind(1, x)) else if (standardize) x = scale(x)
 return(x)
create.y = function(y, intercept, standardize) {
 y = data.matrix(y)
 if (!intercept & standardize) y = scale(y)
 return(y)
initialize.beta = function(beta.init, x) {
 if(is.null(beta.init)) return(2 * runif(ncol(x)) - 1)
 return(beta.init)
# Helper functions for computing the loss of a linear regression model with an
# elastic net penalty on the parameter estimates.
```

```
# Inputs:
                Table containing numerical explanatory variables.
# x:
               Column containing a numerical dependent variable.
# intercept: Indicator for whether to include an intercept or not.
# lambda.l1: Penalty term for the L1-norm term.
  lambda.12:
               Penalty term for the L2-norm term.
# Output:
# Loss of the given linear model with an elastic net penalty.
elastic.net.loss = function(beta, x, y, intercept, lambda.11, lambda.12)
 rss(beta, x, y) / (2 * nrow(x)) +
 lambda.l1 * sum(abs(beta[(1 + intercept):ncol(x)])) +
 lambda.12 * sum(beta[(1 + intercept):ncol(x)] ^ 2) / 2
# Helper function for descaling a linear regression estimator estimated on
# scaled data.
#
# Inputs:
# beta:
               Vector of parameter estimates.
               Table containing unscaled numerical explanatory variables.
               Column containing an unscaled numerical dependent variable.
# Output:
# Descaled linear regression estimator.
descale.beta = function(beta, x, y) {
 beta = sd(y) * beta / apply(x, 2, sd)
 beta = c(mean(y) - sum(colMeans(x) * beta), beta)
 names(beta) = c('(Intercept)', colnames(x))
 return(beta)
# Helper functions for displaying progress in custom implementation of machine
# learning models.
progress.str = function(line.list) {
 for (l in line.list) cat(progress.line(l)); cat('\n\n')
progress.line = function(line) pasteO(
 format(paste0(line[1], ':'), width=25), format(line[2], width=25,
   justify='right', nsmall=ifelse(is.integer(line[2]), 0, 10)),'\n')
```

For grid search K-fold cross-validation, we implemented a separate function. Note that this function is also used to construct the graphs in this report.

```
grid.search.cross.validation = function(x, y, estimator, params.list,
    n.folds=10, ind.metric, comb.metric, fold.id=NULL, force=T, verbose=F,
    heatmap=F, heat.scale=NULL, plot.coef=F, ...) {
    # Implementation of hyperparameter tuning using grid search using K-fold
    # cross-validation for given data, a given estimator, and given metrics.
    #
    # Inputs:
```

```
Table containing numerical explanatory variables.
# y:
                Column containing a numerical dependent variable.
                Estimator to use in hyperparameter tuning.
#
  estimator:
                Number of folds - default is 10. Although n. folds can be as
# n.folds:
                large as the sample size (leave-one-out CV), it is not
                recommended for large datasets.
#
#
  fold.id:
               An optional vector of values between 1 and n.fold
                identifying what fold each observation is in. If supplied,
                n.fold can be missing.
#
# ind.metric: Metric for evaluating performance on fold.
# comb.metric: Combination function for individual metrics.
# force:
              Indicator whether not to terminate when encountering errors.
#
                Default is T, that is, errors are skipped with warning.
# verbose: Indicator for displaying progress bar. Default is FALSE.
               Indicator for whether or not to display a heatmap of the
# heatmap:
                gridsearch outcomes.
# heat.scale: Optional argument to specify the scale used in the heatmap.
                Default is NULL.
# plot.coef: Indicator for whether or not to display optimal coefficients.
               Additional arguments that can be passed to the estimator.
# ...:
#
# Output:
# Dataframe containing the results of the linear regression model with
# elastic net penalty term solved using the MM algorithm.
# Install and load dependencies
while (!require('dplyr')) install.packages('dplyr', quiet=T)
while (!require('ggplot2')) install.packages('ggplot2', quiet=T)
while (!require('latex2exp')) install.packages('latex2exp')
# Define constants
y = data.matrix(y); x = data.matrix(x); N = nrow(x); b.metric = Inf
# Specify fold ids if not given and initialize metrics and ids vector
if(is.null(fold.id)) fold.id = ((1:N) %% n.folds + 1)[sample(N, N)]
else n.folds =length(unique(fold.id))
metrics = rep(NULL, n.folds); test.ids = matrix(nrow=n.folds, ncol=N)
for (fold in 1:n.folds) test.ids[fold, ] = (fold.id == fold)
# Create grid for cross validation search
grid = expand.grid(params.list)
n.combs = nrow(grid); metric = rep(NULL, n.combs)
# If verbose, initialize progress bar
if (verbose) pb = dplyr::progress_estimated(n.combs * n.folds)
# Apply grid search
for (i in 1:n.combs) {
  # Apply cross validation and if verbose, update progress bar
  for (fold in 1:n.folds) { if (verbose) pb$tick()$print()
    # Compute individual metric on fold
```

```
metrics[fold] = tryCatch(
      ind.metric(do.call(estimator, c(list(x=x[!test.ids[fold, ], ],
        y=y[!test.ids[fold, ]]), as.list(grid[i, ]), list(...)))$beta,
        x[test.ids[fold, ], ], y[test.ids[fold, ]]),
      error = function(e) {
        warning(paste('Failed for', paste(names(params.list), '=', grid[i, ],
          collapse=', ')))
        if (force & grepl('.*singular.*', e$message)) return(Inf)
        stop(e)
    )
  }
  # Combine performances on folds to overall performance
  metric[i] = comb.metric(metrics)
# Extract optimal hyperparameters
b.id = which.min(metric); b.metric = metric[b.id]; b.params = grid[b.id,]
# Plot heatmaps if required
combs = combn(names(params.list), 2); grid$metric = metric
if (heatmap) for (i in 1:ncol(combs)) {
  col.x = combs[1, i]; col.y = combs[2, i]
  p = ggplot(data = grid, aes_string(x=col.x, y=col.y)) + geom_tile(aes(
    color=metric, fill=metric)) + ylab(TeX(paste0('$\\', col.y, '$'))) +
    xlab(TeX(paste0('$\\', col.x, '$')))
  if (!is.null(heat.scale))
    p = p + scale_y_continuous(trans=heat.scale[col.y]) +
    scale_x_continuous(trans=heat.scale[col.x])
  print(p)
# Estimate best beta and if required, plot outcomes
best.b = do.call(estimator, c(list(x=x, y=y), as.list(b.params),
  list(...)))$beta
if (plot.coef) print(ggplot(data.frame(y=colnames(x), b=as.vector(best.b)),
  aes(b, y)) + geom_col() + ylab('Expl. variable') + xlab(TeX('$\\beta$')) +
  xlim(-0.075, 0.075))
# Reformat optimal hyperparameters
if (length(params.list) > 1) b.params = c(b.params)
return(list(
  'beta' = best.b,
  'params' = b.params,
  'metric' = b.metric
))
```

The following function is the linear regression model with an elastic net penalty term on the parameters that is estimated using the MM-algorithm. Note that this function calls the linear model with a Ridge penalty term when α is equal to zero.

```
elastic.net.lm = function(x, y, lambda, alpha, intercept=F, standardize=T,
 beta.init=NULL, beta.tol=0, loss.tol=1e-6, eps=1e-6, seed=NULL, verbose=0) {
 # Implementation of the MM algorithm solver for a linear regression model
 # an elastic net penalty term.
 #
 # Inputs:
                  Table containing numerical explanatory variables.
 # x:
                  Column containing a numerical dependent variable.
 # y:
                  Penalty scaling constant.
    lambda:
 #
 #
    alpha:
                   Scalar of penalty for L1-norm of beta. Note that the scalar
 #
                   assigned to the L2-norm is equal to (1 - alpha) / 2.
                   Indicator for whether or not to add an intercept. Default
 # intercept:
                   is FALSE. If TRUE, standardize is ignored.
 #
 # standardize: Indicator for whether or not to scale data. If intercept is
 #
                  TRUE, this argument is ignored. Default is TRUE.
 # beta.init: Optional initial value of betas. If NULL, a random beta is
                   sampled from the continuous uniform distribution on the
 #
 #
                   interval [0, 1]. Default is NULL.
 # beta.tol: Rounding tolerance for beta. Default is 0.
 # loss.tol: Tolerated loss, default is 1e-6.
                   Correcting value in computation of D matrix, default is
 #
    eps:
 #
 # seed:
                  Optional seed, used for generating the random initial beta.
                   Ignored when an initial beta is provided. Default is NULL.
 #
                   Integer indicating the step-size of printing progress
    verbose:
 #
                   updates, default is 0, that is, no progress updates.
 #
 # Output:
 # Dataframe containing the results of the linear regression model with
 # elastic net penalty term solved using the MM algorithm.
 # Estimate model with Ridge regression if possible
 if (alpha == 0) return(ridge.lm(x, y, lambda, intercept, standardize,
   beta.tol, verbose))
 # Import our own shared own functions
 source('../../base.R'); descale = function(beta) descale.beta(beta, x, y)
 # Add intercept or standarize data if necessary
 x = create.x(x, intercept, standardize)
 y = create.y(y, intercept, standardize)
 # Define constants
 N = nrow(x); P = ncol(x); if (!is.null(seed)) set.seed(seed)
 lambda.l1 = lambda * alpha; lambda.l2 = lambda * (1 - alpha)
 lambda.12.I = diag(rep(N * lambda.12, P)); if (intercept) lambda.12.I[1,1] = 0
 Xt.X = crossprod(x); Xt.y = crossprod(x, y)
 # Define helper functions for computing specific expressions and loss
 lambda.l1.D = function(beta) {
   beta[abs(beta) < eps] = eps</pre>
   lambda.l1.D = diag(N * lambda.l1 / abs(beta))
   if (intercept) lambda.l1.D[1,1] = 0
```

```
return(lambda.l1.D)
loss = function(beta)
 elastic.net.loss(beta, x, y, intercept, lambda.l1, lambda.l2)
pline = function(i, o, n, d)
 list(c('Iteration', i), c('Loss.old', o), c('Loss.new', n), c('Delta', d))
# Choose some inital beta_0 and compute initial loss
b.new = initialize.beta(beta.init, x); l.new = loss(b.new)
# Update iteration and replace old parameters by previous until convergence
i = OL; while (TRUE) { i = i + 1L; l.old = l.new; b.old = b.new
  # Update parameters, loss and delta
 b.new = solve(Xt.X + lambda.l1.D(b.old) + lambda.l2.I, Xt.y)
 1.\text{new} = loss(b.\text{new}); diff = 1.old - 1.\text{new}
 # Display progress if verbose
 if (verbose & (i %% verbose == 0)) progress(pline(i, l.new, l.old, diff))
 # Break if improvement smaller than tol, that is, sufficient convergence
 if (diff / 1.old < loss.tol) break</pre>
# Ensure information of last iteration is displayed
if (verbose & (i %% verbose)) progress(pline(i, l.new, l.old, diff))
# Force elements smaller than beta.tol to zero
b.new[abs(b.new) < beta.tol] = 0
# Descale beta if necessary
if (intercept | !standardize) beta = c(0, b.new) else beta = descale(b.new)
return(list('a0'=beta[1], 'beta'=beta[-1], 'alpha'=alpha, 'lambda'=lambda,
  'loss'=loss(b.new), 'R^2'=r2(b.new, x, y),
  'adjusted R^2'=adj.r2(b.new, x, y)))
```

The following function is used for estimating the linear Ridge regression model. Note that it uses the analytical solution to find the parameter estimates.

```
Integer indicating the step-size of printing progress
                  updates, default is 0, that is, no progress updates.
#
# Output:
# Dataframe containing the results of the linear regression model with
# Ridge penalty term solved using the analytical solution
# Import our own shared own functions
source('../../base.R'); descale = function(beta) descale.beta(beta, x, y)
# Add intercept or standarize data if necessary
x = create.x(x, intercept, standardize)
y = create.y(y, intercept, standardize)
# Derive beta estimate
b.new = solve(crossprod(x) + nrow(x) * lambda / 2 * diag(ncol(x)),
  crossprod(x, y))
# Set elements smaller than beta.tol to zero
b.new[abs(b.new) < beta.tol] = 0
# Descale beta if necessary
if (intercept | !standardize) beta = c(0, b.new) else beta = descale(b.new)
return(list('a0'=beta[1], 'beta'=beta[-1], 'alpha'=0, 'lambda'=lambda,
  'loss'=elastic.net.loss(b.new, x, y, intercept, lambda.l1=0, lambda),
  'R^2'=r^2(b.new, x, y), 'adjusted R^2'=adj.r^2(b.new, x, y))
```

Finally, the following code was used to generate the results, tables, and figures in this report.

```
# Initialize local settings
# Specify options
options(scipen=999)
set.seed(42)
# Load dependencies
# Install and load packages
while (!require('glmnet')) install.packages('glmnet', quiet=T)
while (!require('SVMMaj')) install.packages('SVMMaj', quiet=T)
while (!require('xtable')) install.packages('xtable', quiet=T)
# Load dependencies
source('.../.../base.R')
source('elastic.net.lm.R')
source('grid.search.cross.validation.R')
source('ridge.lm.R')
```

```
# Pre-process data
# I.oa.d. data
df = SVMMaj::supermarket1996; df = df[sort(colnames(df))]
df = subset(df, select=-c(CITY, GROCCOUP_sum, SHPINDX, STORE, ZIP))
# Define dependent and independent variables
dep.var = 'GROCERY_sum'; y = df[dep.var]; x = df[colnames(df) != dep.var]
# OPTIONAL: Remove duplicate columns
x = x[, -which(duplicated(t(x)))]
# Specify hyperparameter values to consider
params.length = 100; params.list = list(
 'alpha' = seq(0, 1, length.out=params.length),
 'lambda' = c(0, 10 ^ seq(-5, 5, length.out=params.length - 1))
heat.scale = c('alpha'='identity', 'lambda'='log10')
# Specify fold ids
N = nrow(x); n.folds = 5; fold.id = ((1:N) %% n.folds + 1)[sample(N, N)]
# Hyperparameter tuning
# Define metric functions
lm.rmse = function(beta, x, y) sqrt(mean(sum((y - x %*% beta) ^ 2)))
# Hyperparameter tuning using estimator based on MM algorithm
gscv.own = grid.search.cross.validation(scale(x), scale(y), elastic.net.lm,
 params.list, ind.metric=lm.rmse, comb.metric=mean, fold.id=fold.id,
 verbose=T, force=T, heatmap=T, heat.scale=heat.scale, plot.coef=T,
 intercept=F, standardize=F)
progress.str(list(c('Alpha', gscv.own$params$alpha), c('Lambda',
 gscv.own$params$lambda)))
# Hyperparameter tuning using glmnet estimator
gscv.glm = grid.search.cross.validation(scale(x), scale(y), glmnet,
 params.list, ind.metric=lm.rmse, comb.metric=mean, fold.id=fold.id,
 verbose=T, force=T, heatmap=T, heat.scale=heat.scale, plot.coef=T,
 intercept=F, standardize=F)
progress.str(list(c('Alpha', gscv.glm$params$alpha), c('Lambda',
 gscv.glm$params$lambda)))
# Generate results
# Estimate on all data for optimal values of lambda and alpha
```

```
res.own.own = elastic.net.lm(scale(x), scale(y), alpha=gscv.own$params$alpha,
 lambda=gscv.own$params$lambda, standardize=F)
res.own.glm = elastic.net.lm(scale(x), scale(y), alpha=gscv.glm$params$alpha,
 lambda=gscv.glm$params$lambda, standardize=F)
res.glm.own = glmnet(scale(x), scale(y), alpha=gscv.own$params$alpha,
  lambda=gscv.own$params$lambda, standardize=F)
res.glm.glm = glmnet(scale(x), scale(y), alpha=gscv.glm$params$alpha,
  lambda=gscv.glm$params$lambda, standardize=F)
# Compare implementation of MM algorithm to glmnet outcome
res.table = data.frame(
  'own.own' = c(res.own.own$a0, res.own.own$beta),
  'own.glm' = c(res.own.glm$a0, res.own.glm$beta),
 'glm.own' = c(res.glm.own$a0, as.vector(res.glm.own$beta)),
 'glm.glm' = c(res.glm.glm$a0, as.vector(res.glm.glm$beta))
rownames(res.table) = paste0('\\texttt{', c('Intercept', colnames(x)), '}')
# Export table to LaTeX
xtable(res.table, digits=6)
```