Quant III

Lab 10: High Dimensional Model

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Regression

•
$$E(Y|X) = X'\beta$$

- Minimize mean squared error
- $Min_{\beta}||Y X'\beta||_2^2$
- where $||X||_2 = \sqrt{\sum X^2}$
- Bias-variance trade-off

Regularization

- ullet One approach: restrict the size of eta
- Why?
- Put some constraint: $\sum \beta^2 \le t$
- Change our target:

$$\min_{\beta} ||Y - X'\beta||_{2}^{2}$$

$$s.t. \sum \beta^{2} \le t$$

Ridge regression

• The previous target is equivalent to:

$$\min_{\beta} \lvert\lvert Y - X'\beta \rvert\rvert_2^2 + \lambda \lvert\lvert \beta \rvert\rvert_2^2$$

- How to choose λ ?
- Our final object: generalizability of our model
- Choose λ via cross validation

LASSO regression

- Ridge does not select variable, why?
- LASSO:

$$\min_{\beta} \lvert \lvert Y - X'\beta \rvert \rvert_2^2 + \lambda \lvert \lvert \beta \rvert \rvert$$

• Elastic net:

$$\min_{\beta} \lvert \lvert Y - X'\beta \rvert \rvert_2^2 + \alpha \lambda \lvert \lvert \beta \rvert \rvert + (1-\alpha)\lambda \lvert \lvert \beta \rvert \rvert_2^2$$

Bayesian Model Average

- The idea is that inference is always conditioned on a model.
- Hierarchical DGP:
 - The nature picks a model.
 - It generates data from that model.
- Estimation is also hierarchical, accordingly:
 - Estimate probability that data are generated from a given model.
 - Estimate parameters of that model.
 - Estimate parameters for each (if feasible) possible model.

BMA: setup

- Let $\mathcal{M} = (M_1, ..., M_K)$ be the set of all possible models.
- Let $\Theta = (\theta^{(1)}, ..., \theta^{(K)})$ be sets of parameters associated with each model.
- We then estimate:
 - Posterior probability of each model: $Pr(M = M_k | \mathbf{Y}), k = 1, ..., K$.
 - Posterior distribution of parameters of each different model: $p(\theta^{(k)}|M_k, \mathbf{Y}), k = 1, ..., K.$
 - We can select the highest posterior probability model as our 'preferred' model.
 - Alternatively, we can report model-averaged parameter estimates:

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{Y}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)}|M_k, \boldsymbol{Y}) \Pr(M = M_k|\boldsymbol{Y}).$$

BMA: regression example (1)

 Suppose that X consists of two predictors, which implies that we can have the following possible models (in a linear additive world):

$$\begin{split} y_i | M_0 &\sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0^{(0)}, \sigma_0^2), \\ y_i | M_1 &\sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0^{(1)} + \beta_1^{(1)} x_{i1}, \sigma_1^2), \\ y_i | M_2 &\sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0^{(2)} + \beta_2^{(2)} x_{i2}, \sigma_2^2), \\ y_i | M_3 &\sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0^{(3)} + \beta_1^{(3)} x_{i1} + \beta_2^{(3)} x_{i2}, \sigma_3^2), \end{split}$$

BMA: regression example(2)

- Suppose we estimate each of the four sets of regression coefficients.
- Based on these estimates, we can calculate the posterior probability for each model $Pr(M = M_k | \mathbf{Y}), k = 0, ..., 3.$
- Suppose $\Pr(M = M_1 | \mathbf{Y}) = 0.9$: this means that there is only 90 percent chance that the model with the first predictor is the 'correct' one (closest to the true model).

BMA: regression example (3)

• The model-averaged coefficients are shrunken towards zero

$$E(\beta_1|\mathbf{Y}) = \Pr(M = M_0|\mathbf{Y}) \times 0 + \Pr(M = M_1|\mathbf{Y}) \times \beta_1^{(1)}$$

+
$$\Pr(M = M_2|\mathbf{Y}) \times 0 + \Pr(M = M_3|\mathbf{Y}) \times \beta_1^{(3)}.$$

• This is shrinkage/regularization (in addition to shrinkage due to priors).

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BMA: alternative specification

- Let $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}'\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$, where \mathbf{X} has p columns, so we have pregression coefficients $\beta = (\beta_0, ..., \beta_{p-1})$
- Suppose now that we specify the following priors for each β_i , i = 1, ..., p:

$$\beta_j \sim \pi_j \mathbf{I} \{ \beta_j = 0 \} + (1 - \pi_j) \mathcal{N}(\beta_0, \tau_0^2).$$

- A priori with the probability π_i , β_i is equal to zero, and with the probability $1 - \pi_i$ it is drawn from the normal distribution.
- Prior of π_i will be the prior over the model where variable j is not included.
- A posteriori, we will estimate the probability that the coefficient β_i is identically equal to zero, that is, $\pi_i | \mathbf{Y}$.
- Strong predictors will have large posterior π_i , and vice versa.