

Variable Selection

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Variable/feature selection

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- ▶ How can we choose the “right” one?
- ▶ Various approaches include:
 1. Use theory
 2. Use model fit
 3. Regularization (e.g., ridge)
 4. Don't
- ▶ Do *not* use stepwise regression (or any proxy)

Variable selection is even harder than you think

- ▶ Variables that are highly correlated are hard to think about
- ▶ Computationally “hard” in that the problem is generally NP-complete
- ▶ What if you have more variables than observations?
- ▶ What if missingness varies by variable?

Model fit: Things to avoid

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 - ▶ Continue until no variables can be added
- ▶ Stepwise
 - ▶ Some combination of these two
 - ▶ Often done in case a variable was “lost” at early stages but would be significant later.

Why this is bad

- ▶ Can easily miss the optimal model since you are not considering anything like the entire model space.
- ▶ **p-values don't mean what you think they mean**
- ▶ Tends to lead to models that over-estimate the significance of the variables that remain
- ▶ Just. Don't. Do. It.

A little better: Criteria-based

- ▶ Choose some model fit criteria (e.g., AIC, BIC, adjusted R-squared, etc.) and choose the model that fits best.
- ▶ Risks over-fitting, but you can hope the complexity penalty will help.

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- ▶ Risks over-fitting, but you can hope the complexity penalty will help.
- ▶ Probably better to use out-of-sample criteria in conjunction or instead.
- ▶ Different “search” algorithms have been proposed for only considering “likely” models when all 2^p are infeasible.

Deviance criteria

- ▶ One way we have already covered is to look at deviance.
- ▶ At a minimum the model should do better than the null model.
- ▶ In some other cases we can set up two models as perfectly “nested” within each other. Then we can formally do a LR-test.
- ▶ But in most cases neither of these are really sufficient.

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- ▶ AIC has a bias towards models that overfit with extra parameters since the penalty component is obviously linear with increases in the number of explanatory variables, and the log likelihood often increases more rapidly

Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)

- ▶ $\text{BIC} = -2\ell(\hat{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) + p\log(n)$ where n is the sample size.
- ▶ There is also a Deviance Information Criterion (DIC) used in Bayesian MCMC estimation.

Problems and recommendations

Problems:

- ▶ Overfitting is very likely, and in any case finding a model that fits the data we have in hand is not the goal.
- ▶ You can get widely different answers based on choices of criteria

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Recommendations:

- ▶ Theory (and literature) first.
- ▶ Can use automated criteria methods, but only as a first step.
- ▶ If your substantive results change, you are in a danger zone.
- ▶ Radically different implications from seemingly innocuous changes in control variables mean you have serious post-treatment/colinearity problems.

Regularization 1: Lasso and Ridge

Regularization 2: Elastic Net

- ▶ Lasso can handle at most n variables.
- ▶ It tended to choose only one of any set of related variables.
- ▶ It is dominated by Ridge in $n > p$ situations where there are many correlated predictors.

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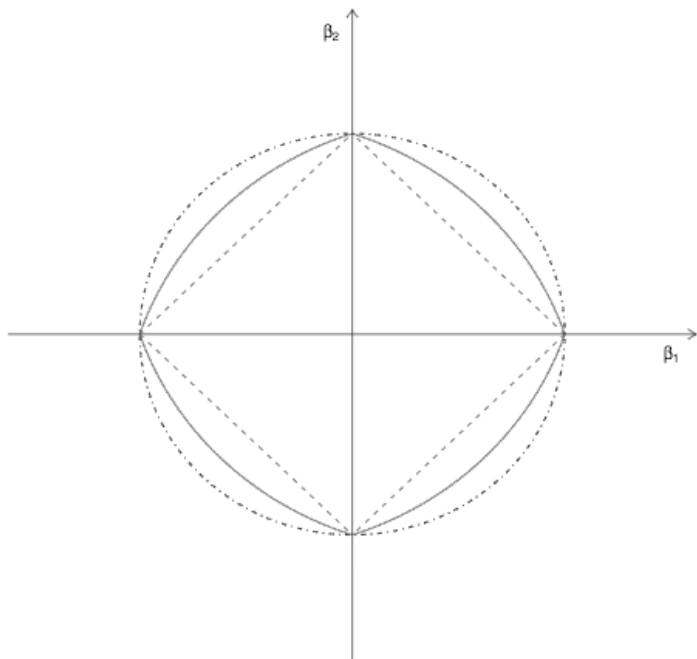
$$\operatorname{argmin} \left\{ \sum_{i=1} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_2 |\beta_j|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_1 |\beta_j| \right\}$$

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- ▶ Equivalent to: $\operatorname{argmin} |y - X\beta|^2$ where $(1 - \alpha)|\beta| + \alpha|\beta|^2 \leq t$ and $\alpha = \lambda_2/(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$



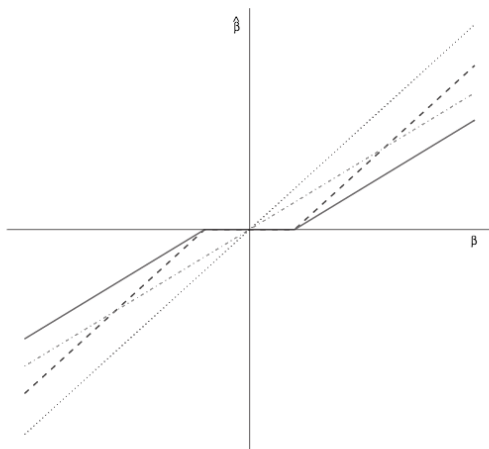


Fig. 2. Exact solutions for the lasso (-----), ridge regression (·-·-·-·) and the naïve elastic net (——) in an orthogonal design (·····, OLS): the shrinkage parameters are $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 1$

Additional notes

- The non-naive estimates work to get rid of the double shrinkage by getting rid of the ridge shrinkage:

$$\hat{\beta}^{EN} = (1 + \lambda_2)\hat{\beta}^{Naive}$$

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- ▶ Algorithm is a version of LARS (Least Angle Regression) and works as:
 1. Start with all coefficients at zero
 2. Find the predictor most correlated with the outcome, and increase coefficient estimate until some other variable more correlated with the residuals.
 3. Proceeds in a direction “equiangular” between the two until a third added.
 4. Repeat.
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- ▶ Thus, in a weird way is related to the the other procedures
- ▶ Can use the same package as just discussed.

Don't select variables: Bayesian Model Averaging

Fearon and Laitin (2003) wish to model civil conflict

Constant	-6.731 (0.736)	-7.019 (0.751)
Prior war	-0.954 (0.314)	-0.916 (0.312)
Per capita income	-0.344 (0.072)	-0.318 (0.071)
log (population)	0.263 (0.073)	0.272 (0.074)
log (% mountainous)	0.219 (0.085)	0.199 (0.085)
Noncontiguous state	0.443 (0.274)	0.426 (0.272)
Oil exporter	0.858 (0.279)	0.751 (0.278)
New state	1.709 (0.339)	1.658 (0.342)
Instability	0.618 (0.235)	0.513 (0.242)
Democracy (Polity IV)	0.021 (0.017)	
Ethnic fractionalization	0.166 (0.373)	0.164 (0.368)
Religious fractionalization	0.285 (0.509)	0.326 (0.506)
Anocracy		0.521 (0.237)
Democracy		0.127 (0.304)
Wars in neighboring countries		

“When we add dummy variables for countries that have an ethnic or religious majority and a minority of at least 8% of the country’s population, both are incorrectly signed and neither comes close to statistical significance. This finding does not depend on which other variables are included in the model.”

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We often want to show that our results are “robust” to modeling choices:

- ▶ Online appendix includes 18 additional tables
- ▶ At least 74 possible explanatory variables discussed
- ▶ $2^{74} = 2 \times 10^{22} = 20$ sextillion

The basics

The model:

- ▶ Let \mathbf{X} denote the $n \times p$ matrix of all the independent variables theorized to be predictors of outcome Y .
- ▶ $Y = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$, where $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$.
- ▶ $\mathcal{M} = [\mathcal{M}_1, \mathcal{M}_2, \dots, \mathcal{M}_q]$ where $q = 2^p$.

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Priors:

- ▶ $\pi(\beta_k | M_k)$
- ▶ $\pi(\sigma | M_k)$.
- ▶ We also put a prior probability $\pi(M_k)$ on the model space.

BMA as an Hierarchical Mixture model (1)

$$\mathcal{M}_k \sim \pi(\mathcal{M}_k). \quad (1)$$

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$$\beta_\omega | \mathcal{M}_k \sim \pi(\beta_\omega | \mathcal{M}_k, \sigma^2). \quad (3)$$

where $\Omega = \omega_1, \dots, \omega_p$ represents a vector of zeroes and ones indicating the inclusion (or exclusion) of variables in model M_k .

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$$Y | \beta, \sigma, \mathcal{M}_k \sim N(X_\omega \beta_\omega, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad (4)$$

BMA as an Hierarchical Mixture model (2)

$$E(\beta_k|Y) = \sum_{k=0}^q p(\mathcal{M}_k|Y)E(\beta_k|\mathcal{M}_k, Y) \quad (5)$$

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$$p(Y|\mathcal{M}_k) = \int \int p(Y|\beta_\omega, \sigma^2, \mathcal{M}_k)\pi(\beta_\omega|\sigma^2, \mathcal{M}_k)\pi(\sigma^2|\mathcal{M}_k) d\beta_\omega d\sigma^2 \quad (8)$$

Bayesian model averaging

- ▶ Y is a $n \times 1$ vector of outcomes
- ▶ X is an $n \times p$ matrix
- ▶ $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$
- ▶ $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$
- ▶ $q = 2^p$
- ▶ $\mathcal{M} = [\mathcal{M}_1, \mathcal{M}_2, \dots, \mathcal{M}_q]$

Priors and likelihood:

- ▶ $\mathcal{M}_k \sim \pi(\mathcal{M}_k)$
- ▶ $\sigma^2 | \mathcal{M}_k \sim \pi(\sigma^2 | \mathcal{M}_k)$
- ▶ $\beta_\omega | \sigma^2, \mathcal{M}_k \sim \pi(\beta_\omega | \sigma^2, \mathcal{M}_k)$
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$$P(\mathcal{M}_k|Y) = \frac{p(Y|\mathcal{M}_k)\pi(\mathcal{M}_k)}{\sum_k p(Y|\mathcal{M}_k)\pi(\mathcal{M}_k)}$$

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With this, we can easily create other quantities of interest as weighted sums. For example,

$$E(\beta_k|Y) = \sum_{k=0}^q P(\mathcal{M}_k|Y)E(\beta|\mathcal{M}_k, Y)$$

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Posterior computation

The great advantage of these priors is that we can quickly compute Bayes factors *exactly*.

- ▶ This makes it possible to “sample” all possible models.
- ▶ Two options are Bayesian adaptive sampling (BAS) and leaps and bounds Algorithm.
- ▶ The paper includes a detailed discussion of available software.

An aside on Bayes factors

Let's say there are just two models, and want to know the posterior probability of some model k :

$$P(M_k|\mathbf{D}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{D}|M_k)\pi(M_k)}{P(\mathbf{D}|M_1)\pi(M_1) + P(\mathbf{D}|M_2)\pi(M_2)}$$

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This implies that:

$$\frac{P(M_1|\mathbf{D})}{P(M_2|\mathbf{D})} = \frac{P(\mathbf{D}|M_1)\pi(M_1)}{P(\mathbf{D}|M_2)\pi(M_2)}$$

The limiting factor in BMA approaches has always been a combination of:

- ▶ an *extremely* high dimensional space
- ▶ intractable integrals.

Early work used “approximations” of the Bayes factors as a solution:

- ▶ $BF(M_k|M_0) = BIC_k = -2\log(L_k - L_0) + p_k \log n$
- ▶ $BF(M_K|M_0) = AIC_k = -2\log(L_k - L_0) + 2p$

Clyde (2003) and Clyde and George(2004) summarize a more comprehensive approach.

$$\pi(\mathcal{M}_k) = \gamma^{p_\omega} (1 - \gamma)^{p - p_\omega} \quad (9)$$

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Priors for posterior calculations

<i>Prior</i>	<i>Formulation</i>
<i>g</i> -prior	$\pi(\beta_\omega \mathcal{M}_k, \sigma^2) \sim N_{p_\omega}(0, g\sigma^2(X'_\omega X_\omega)^{-1})$ $\pi(\beta_0, \sigma^2 \mathcal{M}_k) \propto 1/\sigma^2$

Hyper-priors for *g*

<i>Prior</i>	<i>Formulation</i>
Hyper- <i>g</i>	$\pi(g) = \frac{a-2}{2} (1+g)^{\frac{a}{2}} \text{ if } g > 0$
ZS	$\pi(g) = \frac{(n/2)^{1/2}}{\Gamma(1/2)} g^{-3/2} e^{-\frac{n}{2g}}$

Example: g-prior

$$p(\mathcal{M}_k|Y) = \frac{B[\mathcal{M}_k : \mathcal{M}_0]}{\sum_{k=0}^q B[\mathcal{M}_k : \mathcal{M}_0]} \quad (10)$$

Where:

$$B[\mathcal{M}_k : \mathcal{M}_0] = (1 + g)^{(n-p_k-1)/2} \times (1 + g(1 - R_k^2))^{-(n-1)/2}$$

For coefficient j :

$$E(\beta_j|Y) = \sum_{k=0}^q p(\mathcal{M}_k|Y)E(\beta_j|\mathcal{M}_k, Y) \quad (11)$$

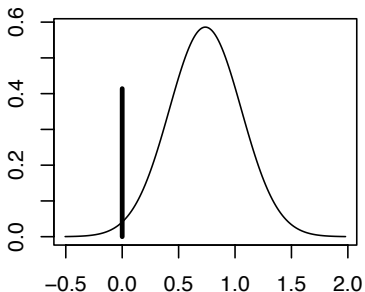
Where:

$$E(\beta_j|\mathcal{M}_k) = \frac{g}{g+1}\hat{\beta}_{j,OLS}$$

Posterior coefficient plots

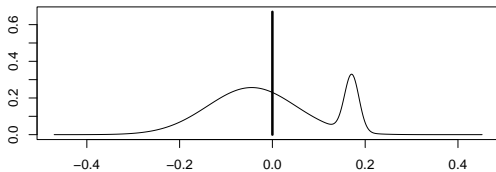
Allows us to focus on two questions separately:

- ▶ Does the variable contribute to the model's explanatory power?
- ▶ Is the variable correlated with unexplained variance when it is included?

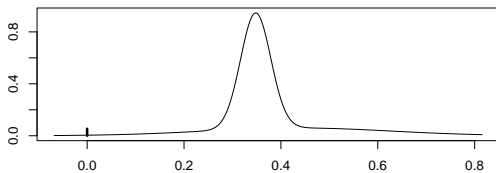


Beware the t-test

D proximity adv.



D directional adv.



Adams, Bishin, and Dow (ABD)

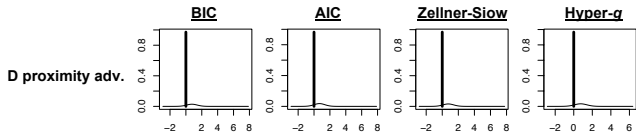
Adams, Bishin, and Dow (2004) compare directional to proximity voting in the context of U.S. Senate elections from 1988-1992. They construct an OLS analysis at the campaign level.

- ▶ DV: % of 2-party vote won by Democrat
- ▶ Main explanatory variables: Aggregate measures of the advantage of the Democratic candidate under the proximity and directional modeling assumptions.
- ▶ Controls: Partisan registration advantage, spending, incumbency, and candidate quality.
- ▶ They present total of four models presented.

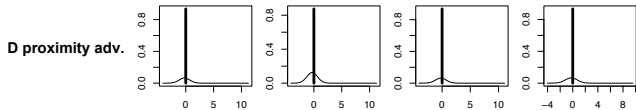
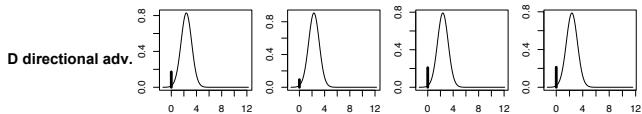
Adams, Bishin, and Dow (ABD)

	ABD (2004) replication			
	Reduced model		Full model	
	Mean cand.	Voter-specific	Mean cand.	Voter-specific
	<i>Mean</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>Mean</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>Mean</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>Mean</i> (<i>SD</i>)
D proximity adv.	-3.137 (1.593)	-2.881 (1.270)	-3.053 (1.315)	-2.007 (1.056)
D directional adv.	11.146 (3.376)	5.729 (1.620)	7.953 (2.854)	4.177 (1.356)
D incumbency adv.	6.376 (1.092)	6.609 (1.054)	1.060 (1.201)	1.139 (1.189)
D quality adv.	5.972 (1.400)	5.035 (1.384)	3.117 (1.240)	2.378 (1.216)
D spending adv.			0.270 (0.041)	0.265 (0.040)
D partisan adv.			0.055 (0.054)	0.060 (0.054)
Constant	54.759 (1.325)	52.786 (0.892)	53.309 (1.155)	52.028 (0.758)
N	95	95	94	94

BMA (hyper-g)				
Mean cand.		Voter-specific		
	<i>Cond. mean (SD)</i>	<i>P($\beta \neq 0$)</i>	<i>Cond. mean (SD)</i>	<i>P($\beta \neq 0$)</i>
D proximity adv.	-0.222 (0.954)	0.067	0.745 (0.677)	0.033
D directional adv.	3.576 (2.015)	0.299	2.363 (0.840)	0.787
D incumbency adv.	1.607 (1.242)	0.194	1.295 (1.237)	0.159
D quality adv.	2.964 (1.246)	0.599	2.740 (1.223)	0.541
D spending adv.	0.3238 (0.041)	1.00	0.314 (0.037)	1.00
D partisan adv.	0.0749 (0.057)	0.201	0.0661 (0.055)	0.181
Constant	51.381 (1.032)	1.00	51.560 (0.764)	1.00
N	94		94	



Voter-specific



Mean placement

