

# Part 6: Model Selection and Intro to ML

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Applied Econometrics II

# Stepwise Regression

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## Back to the real world...

- We have some theoretical benchmark which lets us discern which of two model we prefer (under certain assumptions).
- In practice we often start with a functional form like:
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{k=1}^p \beta_k x_{i,k} + \varepsilon_i$$
- Which  $x$ 's do we include?
- Which  $x$ 's do we leave out?
- It is not clear that BIC/AIC or Vuong test tells us what we should do in practice.
- If you have  $K$  potential regressors you could consider all  $2^K$  possible regressions.
- Or you could consider all  $\binom{K}{p}$  possible combinations with  $p$  parameters.
- This sounds very time consuming

# Things to keep in mind

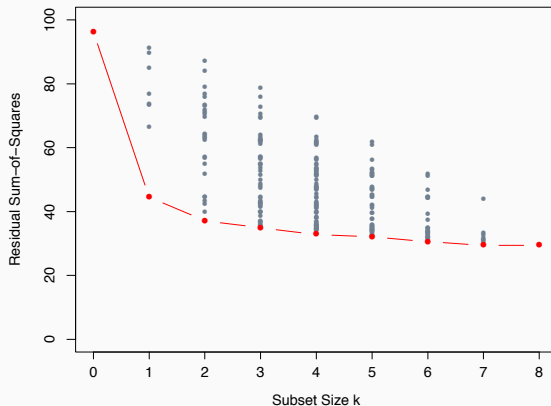
Two major (related) problems:

- Regressors are correlated with one another:
  - small changes in the sample:  $\beta_1$  goes up,  $\beta_2$  goes down.
  - large coefficients can lead to wild predictions.
  - If relationship between  $y_i$  and  $x_i$  is nonlinear, and  $(x_i, z_i)$  are highly correlated then we may attribute some of this nonlinearity to  $z_i$ , even when it has no effect.
- Lots of imprecisely estimated parameters can make prediction tricky
  - Small changes in the sample can lead to large changes in  $\hat{y}_i|x_i$ .

The big idea: maybe we tolerate some **bias** to greatly reduce **variance**.

- This is where ML and Econometrics diverge!
- Econometrics historically focuses on **unbiasedness**.

## Minimizing SSR/AIC: all possible regressions



**FIGURE 3.5.** All possible subset models for the prostate cancer example. At each subset size is shown the residual sum-of-squares for each model of that size.

# What is orthogonality?

- We can think about a world where  $\langle x_j, x_k \rangle = 0$  for  $j \neq k$ .
- In this world I can get  $\beta_j$  by regressing  $y$  on  $x_j$  by simple linear regression.
- I could do this for each  $j$  and the resulting vector  $\beta$  would be the same as running multiple regression.
- We could try and transform  $X$  so that it forms an **orthogonal basis**.
- Unless we are running regressions by hand this doesn't seem tremendously helpful.
- However, in practice this is often what your software does!

# Gram-Schmidt/QR Decomposition

1. Let  $x_0 = z_0 = 1$
2. For  $j = 1, 2, \dots, p$ : Regress  $x_j$  on  $z_0, z_1, \dots, z_{j-1}$  to give you  $\hat{\gamma}_{jl} = \langle z_l, x_j \rangle / \langle z_l, x_l \rangle$  and residual  $z_j = x_j - \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} \hat{\gamma}_{kj} z_k$ .
3. With your transformed orthogonal basis  $\mathbf{z}$  you can now regress  $y$  on  $z_p$  one by one to obtain  $\hat{\beta}_p$ .

What does this do?

- The resulting vector  $\hat{\beta}$  has been adjusted to deliver the marginal contribution of  $x_j$  on  $y$  after adjusting for all  $x_{-j}$ .
- If  $x_j$  is highly correlated with other  $x_k$ 's then the residual  $z_j$  will be close to zero and the coefficient will be unstable.
- This will be true for any variables  $x_l$  within a set of correlated variables.
- We can delete any one of them to resolve this issue.

# QR Decomposition (Technical Details)

QR Decomposition has a matrix form which regression software uses:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X} &= \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{\Gamma} \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{D}^{-1}}_{\mathbf{Q}} \underbrace{\mathbf{D}\mathbf{\Gamma}}_{\mathbf{R}} \\ \hat{\beta} &= \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{y} \\ \hat{\mathbf{y}} &= \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{y}\end{aligned}$$

- $\mathbf{Z}$  is the matrix of the orthogonalized residuals  $z_j$ 's.
- $\mathbf{\Gamma}$  is upper triangular matrix with entries  $\hat{\gamma}_{kj}$
- $\mathbf{D}$  is diagonal matrix with entries  $\|z_j\|$ .
- $\mathbf{Q}$  is  $N \times ((p+1))$  orthogonal matrix  $\mathbf{Q}'\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$
- $\mathbf{R}$  is  $(p+1) \times (p+1)$  upper triangular matrix.



# What happens in practice?

What are people likely doing in practice:

- Start with a single  $x$  variable and then slowly add more until additional  $x$ 's were insignificant
- Start with all possible  $x$  variables and drop those where  $t$ -statistics were insignificant.
- These procedures actually make some sense if the columns of  $X$  are linearly independent or orthogonal.
- In practice our regressors are often correlated (sometimes highly so).

# Forward Stepwise Regression

Consider the following **greedy algorithm**

1. Start with an empty model and add a constant  $\bar{y}$ .
2. Then run  $K$  single-variable regressions, choose the  $x_k$  with the highest  $t$ -statistic call this  $x^{(1)}$ .
3. Now run  $K - 1$  two variable regressions where the constant and  $x^{(1)}$  and choose  $x^{(2)}$  as regression where  $x_k$  has the highest  $t$ -statistic.
4. Now run  $K - 2$  three variable regressions where the constant and  $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}$
5. You get the idea!

We stop when the  $x_k$  with the highest  $t$ -statistic is below some threshold (often 20% significance).

# Backwards Stepwise Regression

1. Start with an full model.
2. Remove the  $x$  variable with the lowest  $t$ -statistic. Call this  $x^{(k)}$ .
3. Re-run the regression without  $x^{(k)}$ .
4. Repeat until the smallest  $t$ -statistic exceeds some threshold.

## Comparison

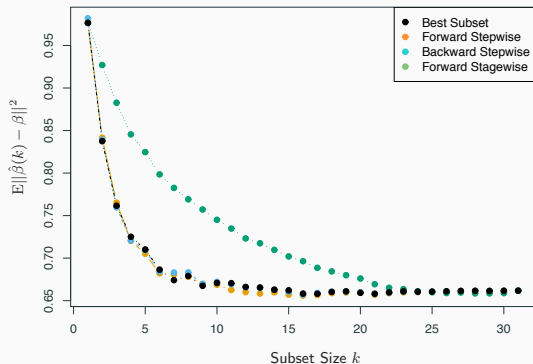
- Backwards and forwards stepwise regression tend to give similar choices (but not always).
- Everything is trivial if  $X$ 's columns are orthogonal (computer has some tricks otherwise-  $QR$ ).
- Forward stepwise works when we have more regressors than observations  $K > N$ .
- I proposed the  $t$ -stat here but some packages use AIC/BIC as the criteria.
- We should also be careful to **group dummy variables together** as a single regressor.
- These are implemented in `step` in R and `stepwise` in Stata.
- We probably want to adjust our standard errors for the fact that we have run many regressions in sequence before arriving at our model. **In practice not enough people do this!**

## (Incremental) Forward Stagewise Regression

As an alternative consider:

1. Start with  $r = y$  and  $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p) = 0$ .
  2. Find the predictor  $x_j$  most correlated with  $r$ .
  3. Update  $\beta_j \leftarrow \beta_j + \delta_j$  where  $\delta_j = \epsilon \cdot \text{sgn}\langle r, x_j \rangle$ .
  4. Update  $r \leftarrow r - \delta_j \cdot x_j$  and repeat for  $S$  steps.
- Alternative  $\delta_j = \langle r, x_j \rangle$
  - We can continue until no regressors have correlation with residuals
  - This is very slow (it takes many many  $S$ ).
  - Sometimes slowness can be good – in high dimensions to avoid overfitting.

# Stepwise selection procedures



**FIGURE 3.6.** Comparison of four subset-selection techniques on a simulated linear regression problem  $Y = X^T\beta + \varepsilon$ . There are  $N = 300$  observations on  $p = 31$  standard Gaussian variables, with pairwise correlations all equal to 0.85. For 10 of the variables, the coefficients are drawn at random from a  $N(0, 0.4)$  distribution; the rest are zero. The noise  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, 6.25)$ , resulting in a signal-to-noise ratio of 0.64. Results are averaged over 50 simulations. Shown is the mean-squared error of the estimated coefficient  $\hat{\beta}(k)$  at each step from the true  $\beta$ .

# Multiple Testing Problem

- A big deal in Econometrics frequently ignored in applied work is the **Multiple Testing Problem**
- You didn't just pick the regression in your table and run that without considering any others.
- This means that your  $t$  and  $F$  stats are going to be too large!! (Standard errors too small!)
- How much bigger should they be?
  - Analytic size corrections can be tricky and data dependent
  - Bootstrap/Monte-Carlo studies should give you a better idea.