Cross Validation Lecture 6

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# Today's Class

- 1. Quick Review
  - Out of Sample Performance  $\neq$  In sample Performance
  - AIC
  - Stepwise
  - LASSO
- 2. Cross Validation
- 3. Bias-Variance
- 4. Computational Notes
  - Cross Validation
  - Sparse Matrices
  - LASSO with Factors
- 5. HW Discussion:
  - HW2 Solutions
  - HW3 setup

**Quick Review** 

## Predictions

#### About halfway through!



## OOS performance

In sample, adding variables always improves predictive accuracy.

- ▶ IS  $R^2$  for full model (200 vars): 56%
- ▶ IS R<sup>2</sup> for FDR cut model (25 vars): 18%

Out of Sample, we may gain predictive accuracy by dropping variables.

- OOS  $R^2$  for the full model: -5.87.
- OOS  $R^2$  for the cut model: 0.10.

THIS IS NEGATIVE. Out-of-Sample, we would be much **BETTER** off predicting the mean than with the full model.

OOS  $R^2$  estimated with k-fold cross-validation.

We can (with some assumptions) estimate OOS deviance using Akaike's Information Criterion. For a model M with k variables estimated to be  $\hat{\beta}_M$ 

$$AIC = 2k + Dev(\hat{\beta}_M) = 2k - 2log(L(\hat{\beta}_M | data))$$

This was in our basic model output.

(Dispersion parameter for gaussian family taken to be 0.4829706)

Null deviance: 30079 on 28946 degrees of freedom Residual deviance: 13975 on 28935 degrees of freedom AIC: 61094

This can help us compare models to choose one.

#### Stepwise

But there are too many possible subsets of our variables to compare all of them. So we need some other method for coming up with a subset to compare.

Stepwise regression does this. It starts with a simple model, and "greedily" adds the best new variable repeatedly until adding a new variable no longer improves the AIC.

Because each choice depends on the current model parameters, small changes to the data can have big consequences for our model choices. This instability is bad for our OOS prediction.

### But AIC estimates OOS deviance/prediction errors

AIC estimates OOS deviance, and it does a good job of it, *for a given model*.

But once we started using AIC to choose our models, it ceased to be a good estimate of our deviance.

AIC was estimating the prediction errors of one model, not of a whole procedure which picks a model.

"When a measure becomes a target, it ceases to be a good measure" – Goodhart's Law

We may encounter this problem again.

LASSO is the most commonly used regularized (or penalized) regression model. The lasso penalty is the  $l_1$  norm of our parameters:  $pen(\beta) = \sum |\beta_j|$ , which penalizes larger coefficients and non-zero coefficients. So our estimates are:

$$\hat{eta}_{\lambda} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{eta} \left( Dev(eta) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |eta_j| 
ight)$$

lambda=1



lambda=0.25



lambda=0.1



We've framed LASSO as the solution to an optimization, given some weight parameter  $\lambda$ .

$$\hat{eta}_{LASSO} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{eta} Dev(eta) + \lambda \sum_{eta} |eta_j|$$

It may be important, for reference to other places, to know that this can be rewritten as:

$$\hat{eta}_{LASSO} = \underset{eta}{\operatorname{argmin}} Dev(eta) \quad s.t. \quad \sum |eta_j| = ||eta||_1 \le t$$

Where the constraint t is a bound on our  $l_1$  norm. For any given dataset, there is a correspondence between  $\lambda$  and t. So these representations are different ways of looking at the same problem.

**Cross Validation** 

#### Recap

We could, like the bootstrap, repeat our testing-training procedure many times. But we want to guarantee each observation gets used as an 'out-of-sample' observation at least once.

Instead, we will "fold" the data. We will partition it (split into exclusive and exhaustive groups) into K different groups of observations. Then, for k=1:K

- Use observations in group k as test data.
- Train the models on the remaining data (for every  $\lambda$ )
- Predict the observations in group k using those models
- Record the prediction errors for each lambda

This guarantees that each observation is left out once, and improves the performance of our routine.

# Picking K

There are several options:

- Leave-one-out Cross-validation: AKA K = n is great, but much slower (fits every model under consideration n times)
- K = 5 corresponds to 5 different 20% leave-out samples.
- K = 20 corresponds to 20 different 5% leave-out samples.

Most people set  $K \in [5, 20]$ . I'll mostly use 10.

 $\implies$  Optimizing K is very 3rd order. Not worth worrying about too much beyond time considerations and some preference for larger K.

#### All Together.

We have a LASSO path indexed by  $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < ... < \lambda_{\mathcal{T}}.$ 

#### Cross-Validation for $\lambda$ :

For each of k = 1, ..., K folds:

1. Fit the path  $\hat{\beta}_{\lambda_1}^k, ..., \hat{\beta}_{\lambda_{\tau}}^k$  using the data not in fold k. 2. Get the fitted deviance for new data:  $-\log P[y^k|X^k, \hat{\beta}_{\lambda_t}^k]$  where k denotes fold membership.

This gives us K draws of the OOS deviance for each  $\lambda_t$ .

Choose the best  $\hat{\lambda}$ , and fit your model to all the data with that  $\hat{\lambda}$ .

This is from Comscore data. This data is about consumer spending on websites. We will try to predict household internet spending as a function of browser history.

Datanames:

- Covariates X: xweb
- outcomes Y: yspend

Again, Cross-validation is very easy and relatively fast for LASSO in  $\ensuremath{\mathsf{R}}$  .

cv.spender = cv.glmnet(xweb,yspend)

And there is a nice plot for it too

# CV LASSO plot

#### plot(cv.spender)



# Mechanically What is Happening?

for (k in 1:K)

- 1. Estimate model on all data not in fold  ${\tt k}$
- 2. Calculate that model's OOS prediction errors with data in fold k
- 3. Repeat for all models under consideration

So we have  $\ensuremath{\mathtt{K}}$  estimates of deviance (MSE here) for each model. Now:

- 1. Estimate overall/mean deviance for each model.
- 2. Estimate our estimation error (standard errors) in that deviance.
- 3. Build Cls for Deviance

That plot shows the estimated mean/overall deviance for each lambda (across K) as a red point, and it shows the error bars on that estimate.

# CV LASSO plot

#### plot(cv.spender)



# LASSO Outputs

Once we've done the cross-validation its easy to pick out our coefficients.

sum(coef(cv.spender,s="lambda.1se") != 0)

## [1] 101

sum(coef(cv.spender,s="lambda.min") != 0)

## [1] 207

"Min" vs "1se" is to do with a concern about overfitting. The 1SE model is the smallest model that has predictions which perform very similarly to the true model.

# LASSO Outputs

Recall, small changes in our choice don't have a massive effect on our coefficients, which evolve smoothly with changes in lambda.



Log Lambda

Cross-validation will be a general technique that we use for model selection the rest of this course.

The central element is that we are being careful about what data we use to train our model and what data we use to select our model. We **do not** use the same data for both.

K-fold cross validation lets us use our data maximally efficiently, while ensuring we maintain that separation between 'training' and 'testing' data.

K-fold Cross validation as laid out above is not perfect. It has flaws.

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  - E.g. comparisons between Linear probability models (using lm for binary outcomes) and logits (using glm family=binomial) require care.
  - Not insurmountable you just need to think about what your loss function actually is. The issue here is that there are two

## **Bias-Variance Tradeoff**

#### Mean Squared Error



993 992 985 980 967 954 931 880 798 688 545 401 236 129 67 36 17 9 1

#### Mean Squared Error

The Y axis was "Mean Squared Error". This is defined as:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y - \hat{y})^2$$

The interior of that square can be rewritten:

$$y - \hat{y} = (y - E[y]) + (E[y] - \hat{y}) = \epsilon + Err(\hat{y})$$

So the interior of the sum can be:

$$\implies (y - \hat{y})^2 = (\epsilon + Err(\hat{y}))^2 = \epsilon^2 + 2\epsilon Err(\hat{y}) + Err(\hat{y})^2$$

Thus the expected MSE:

$$E[MSE] = E[(y - \hat{y})^2] = E[\epsilon^2] + E[2\epsilon Err(\hat{y})] + E[Err(\hat{y})^2] =$$
$$= Var(\epsilon) + 0 + E[Err(\hat{y})^2]$$

 $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$  is irreducible. So we want to minimize  $E[Err(\hat{y})^2]$ .

$$Err(\hat{y}) = E[y] - \hat{y} = (E[y] - E[\hat{y}]) + (E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})$$

For any given model, M, (i.e. a linear model with some covariates):

$$B(M) = E[y] - E[\hat{y}]$$
 &  $Var(M) = E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y}$ 

B(M) is a measure of how correct M can be. This is the difference between your model with optimal parameters and the true model. A Bias.

Var(M) is a measure of how well we can estimate the model. How close to the optimal parameters do we get?

$$\implies E[MSE] = \sigma^2 + B(M) + Var(M)$$

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- But at the same time, we have to estimate more, which is challenging, so we increase the distance between our estimated model, and the optimal parameters for that model.
- This is why we see a U-shape in most Cross-Validation plots measuring out of sample performance. With too few parameters, we have a lot of model bias. With too many parameters, we have a lot of model variance.

## CV LASSO Plot



**Computational Notes** 

#### Brief Outline

We're going to cover some in the weeds details, with example  ${\sf R}$  code.

- LASSO & Factors
- Cross Validation Example Code
- Sparse Matrices

# LASSO & Factors

We've discussed LASSO at some length. It shrinks every parameter towards 0.

- This can be an issue for factors.
  - Reference level gets different treatment than other levels
  - Not a major issue. But worth addressing
  - Solution: Relevel factors so that the first level is irrelevant.

#### Also for Fixed Effects:

- We want to fully control for some group membership.
- Shrinking would be remove that control.
- Solution: Don't penalize FE params.

# LASSO FEs in R

Instead of

mod = glmnet(xweb,yspend)

Multiply the lambda penalty by 0 for coefficients that should stay in the model:

```
pen.multiplier = rep(1,ncol(xweb)) #Vector of 1s
pen.multiplier[10:20] = 0 #Replace some with 0
mod = glmnet(xweb,yspend,penalty.factor=pen.multiplier)
```

Now those parameters won't be shrunk at all.

Mostly useful for causal models.

Make NA the reference level for Factors.

This will shrink every factor level evenly when you use a LASSO with demo\$factor.

```
Cross-Validation in R – By hand
```

Setup

n = nrow(xweb) #Number of observations
K = 10 #Number of folds
fold\_id = sample(rep(1:K,length.out=n),n,replace=F) #Randon
lambda\_seq = spender\$lambda #Grab the lambdas glmnet likes

# Cross-Validation in R - By hand

Function for estimating prediction error given a sequence  $\lambda$  and fold ID.

```
pred err fun = function(k,lambdas) {
  leaveout indices = which(fold id==k) #Find the fold
 model = glmnet(xweb[-leaveout indices,],
                 log(yspend[-leaveout indices]),
                 lambda=lambdas) #Train
 preds = predict(model,newx=xweb[leaveout indices,]) #Pre
 nlambda = length(lambdas)#Each col of preds is preds for
 truth = log(yspend[leaveout_indices]) #True outcomes
  out = numeric(nlambda) #Initialize
  for (t in 1:nlambda) { #For each lambda
   out[t] = mean((preds[,t]-truth)^2) #Save the squared et
  }
  out #Return vector MSE for each lambda.
}
```

#### Cross-Validation in R – By hand

Run function on each fold ID.

cv\_mse = sapply(1:K,pred\_err\_fun,lambdas=lambda\_seq)

Each column is one fold, each row is one lambda. Entries are the OOS MSE with that fold/lambda combo. Lets get the mean and sd of the OOS MSE for each lambda.

#Find mean and SE of that mean for each Row cv\_msd = apply(cv\_mse,1,function(x)c(mean(x),sd(x)/sqrt(K))) cv\_msd = t(cv\_msd) #apply does a nasty rotation colnames(cv\_msd) = c("msebar","sehat") #Give some names cv\_msd = as\_tibble(cv\_msd) #Make a DF cv\_msd\$lambda = lambda\_seq #Add the values of lambda cv\_msd = cv\_msd %>% mutate(lb = msebar-sehat, ub = msebar+sehat)

To plot, we want error bars that are  $m\bar{s}e \pm sd(MSE)/\sqrt{(K)}$ . NB this is not a 95% CI, it is more like a 70% CI.

#### Cross-Validation in R – By hand

Now we can plot.

ggplot(cv\_msd,aes(x=log(lambda),y=msebar,ymin=lb,ymax=ub)). geom\_pointrange(alpha=0.5)



Sometimes your data will be very sparse (more than two-thirds 0s). It can then be efficient to ignore 0s when we store the data.

Usually the computer stores matrices as a big vector of numbers, with some dimension values (nrow, ncol) saved so that it knows where each row begins.

A *simple triplet matrix* only stores the indices and values of non-zero entries to your matrix. i.e. it is made up of

```
row i, column j, entry value x
```

## Example STM

## [,1] [,2]
## [1,] 0 2
## [2,] 1 0
## [3,] 0 0
## [4,] 0 3

is stored as

##		row	i	col	j	val
##	[1,]		1		2	2
##	[2,]		2		1	1
##	[3,]		4		2	3

## STM for Design Matrices

We can implement this in R using the sparseMatrix type from the Matrix package (which is auto-loaded by glmnet). Or, more simply, we can use sparse.model.matrix to build a sparse model matrix.

```
oj.sparse.matrix = sparse.model.matrix(logmove~.,data=oj)
oj.model = glmnet(oj.sparse.matrix,oj$logmove)
oj.sparse.matrix[1:5,1:5]
```

## 5 x 5 sparse Matrix of class "dgCMatrix" (Intercept) store2 store5 store8 store9 ## ## 1 1 1 ## 2 1 ## 3 1 ## 4 1 . . 1 ## 5

## CURRENT STOP

Wrap up

#### Things to do

HW 3 is out and due Wednesday of next week.

#### Rehash

- LASSO gives us fast automatic variable selection for a given level of penalty
- Cross Validation can help us choose that level of penalty, and a lot more.
  - We could also use AIC or other tools.
  - But lasso trades computational power for those theoretical assumptions
- We face a tradeoff between bias and variance in our model choices
- And a lot to think about computationally

# Bye!