

# **Model Selection: Introduction**

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What we have covered:

- Linear (and additive) models:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_p X_p$$

- Least squares (i.e., minimizing the MSE on the training dataset)

# Roadmap

- Ch6: discuss some ways in which the linear model can be improved
  - The model is still linear, but we **replace least squares with alternative fitting procedures**
- Ch7: generalize the linear model in order to accommodate *non-linear*, but still *additive*, relationships.
- Ch8: more general *non-linear* models.
  - For example: trees, boosting

# Beyond Least Squares

Ch6 sticks to linear model: Despite its simplicity, the linear model has advantages in terms of **interpretability** and often shows **good predictive performance**.

We want to improve on the Least Squares by

1. *selecting* features: improve on **interpretability**
2. *shrinking* the coefficients of features: improve on **predictive performance**

## Why consider alternatives to **least squares**?

- **Prediction Accuracy:** especially when  $p > n$ , to control the variance.
- **Model Interpretability:** By removing irrelevant features — that is, by setting the corresponding coefficient estimates to zero — we can obtain a model that is more easily interpreted.
  - We will present some approaches for *automatical feature selection*.

## Three *classes* of methods

1. **Subset Selection.** First, *identify a subset of the predictors* that are related to the response, then fit a model using LS.
  - Method of exhaustion, forward and backward stepwise methods

## Three *classes* of methods

2. **Shrinkage**. Fit a model involving *all  $p$  predictors*, but the estimated coefficients are *shrunk towards zero* relative to the least squares estimates.
- This **shrinkage** (also known as **regularization**) has the effect of reducing variance and can also perform variable selection.
  - We do not select the features explicitly, but rather *penalize the model* for the **number of coefficients** or the **size of coefficients** in various ways.
  - **Lasso** and **Ridge Regression** are two popular shrinkage methods.

### 3. Dimension Reduction.

- Project the  $p$  predictors into a  $M$ -dimensional subspace, where  $M < p$ . This is achieved by computing  $M$  different linear combinations, or projections, of the variables.
- Then these  $M$  projections are used as predictors to fit a linear regression model by least squares.

### Final Remarks:

- These three classes of methods (or *ideas*) also apply to other models, while we focus on linear models here.

# 1. Subset Selection

Very simple idea:

- Our data contains  $p$  predictors, but we have a simpler model that involves only *a subset* of those predictors.
- The natural way is to consider every possible subset of  $p$  predictors ( $2^p$  in total), and then select the "best subset".

# 1. Subset Selection

**Step 1.** For  $k = 1, 2, \dots, p$ :

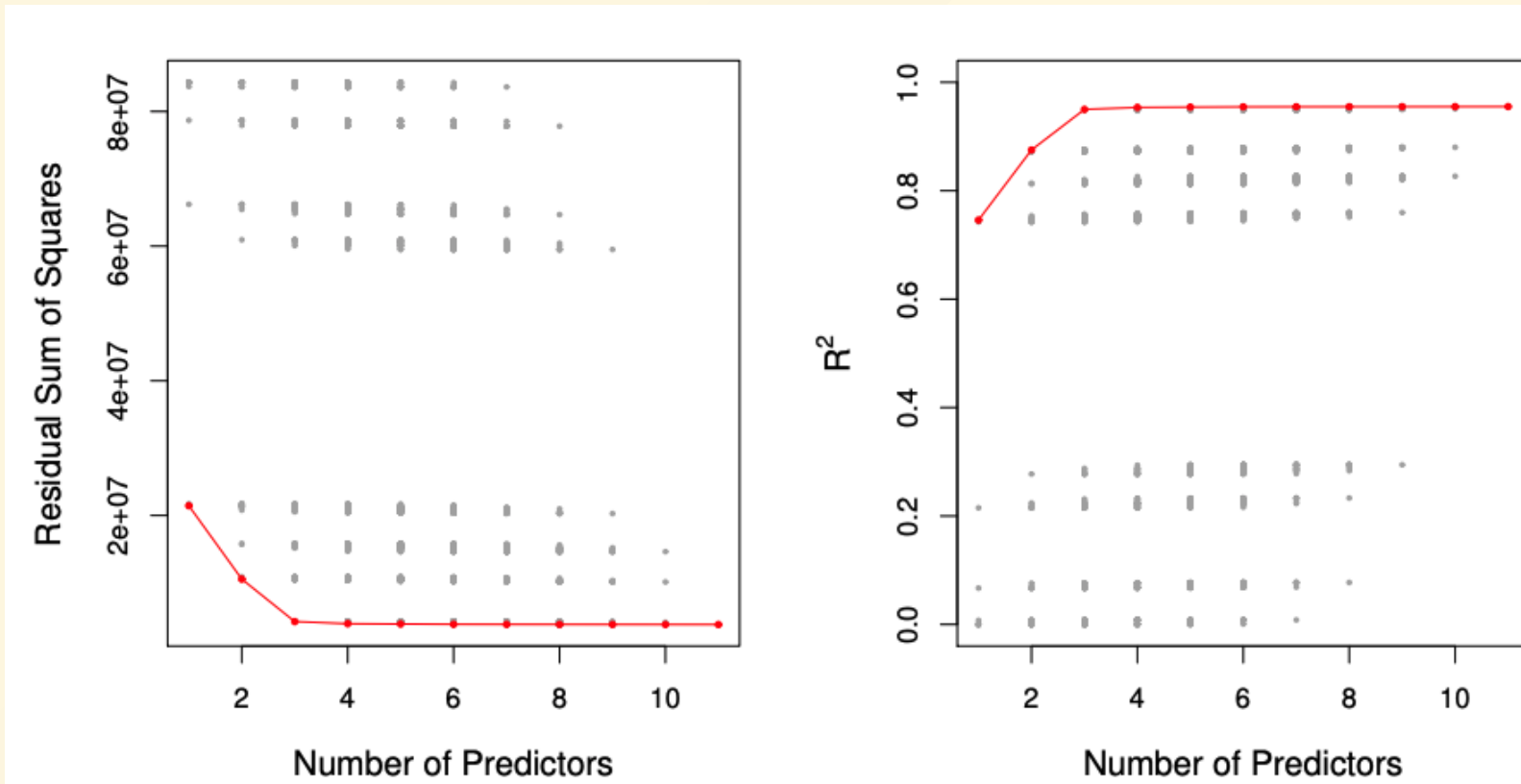
1. Fit all  $\binom{p}{k}$  models that contain exactly  $k$  predictors.
2. Pick the "best" (i.e., having the smallest RSS/MSE) among these models. Call it  $M_k$ .

**Step 2.** Select a single "best" model from the  $p$  candidates,  $M_1, \dots, M_p$ , based on:

- adjusted  $R^2$ ,  $C_p$  (AIC), BIC, or cross-validated prediction error.

## Example: Credit data set

Ten predictors ( $p = 10$ ), including credit limit, credit range, # of cards, and so on. The response variable  $Y$  is card balance.



# Stepwise Selection

When  $p$  is *not (very) small*, **best subset selection** method fails for two reasons:

1. *the computational cost*
2. *overfitting*

For both of these reasons, **stepwise methods**, which explore a far more restricted set of models, are attractive alternatives to best subset selection

- **Forward Stepwise Selection** and **Backward Stepwise Selection**

## Choosing the best Model

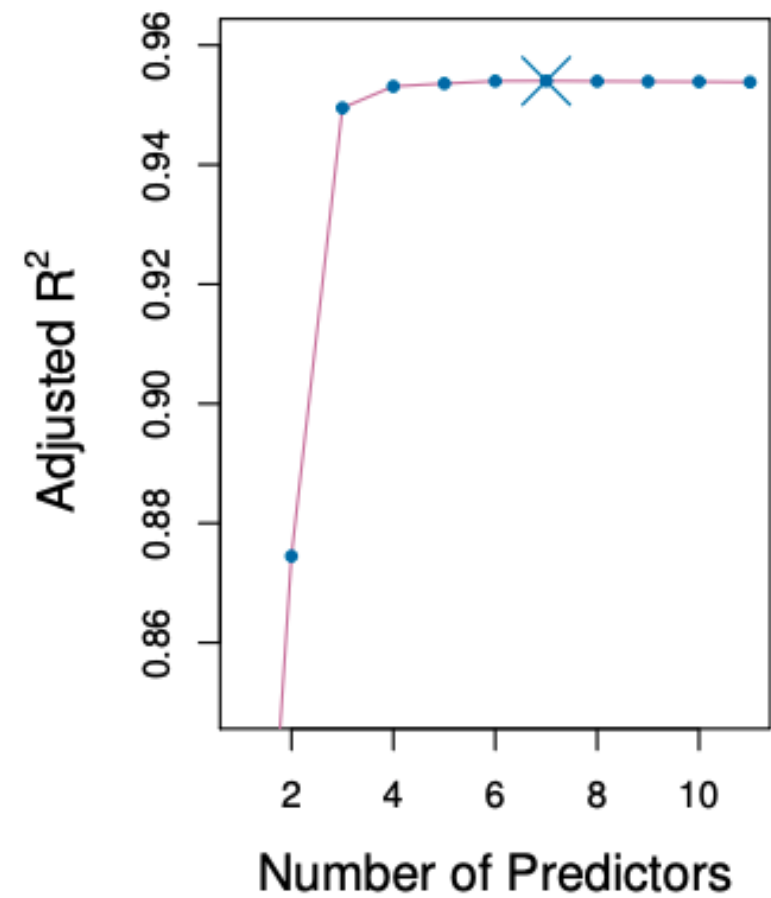
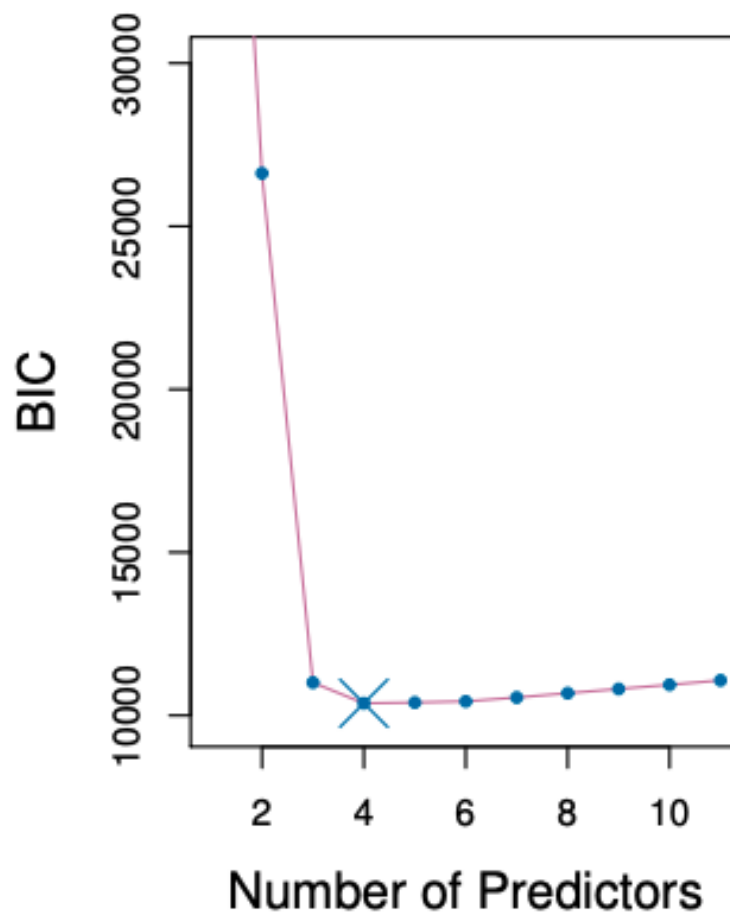
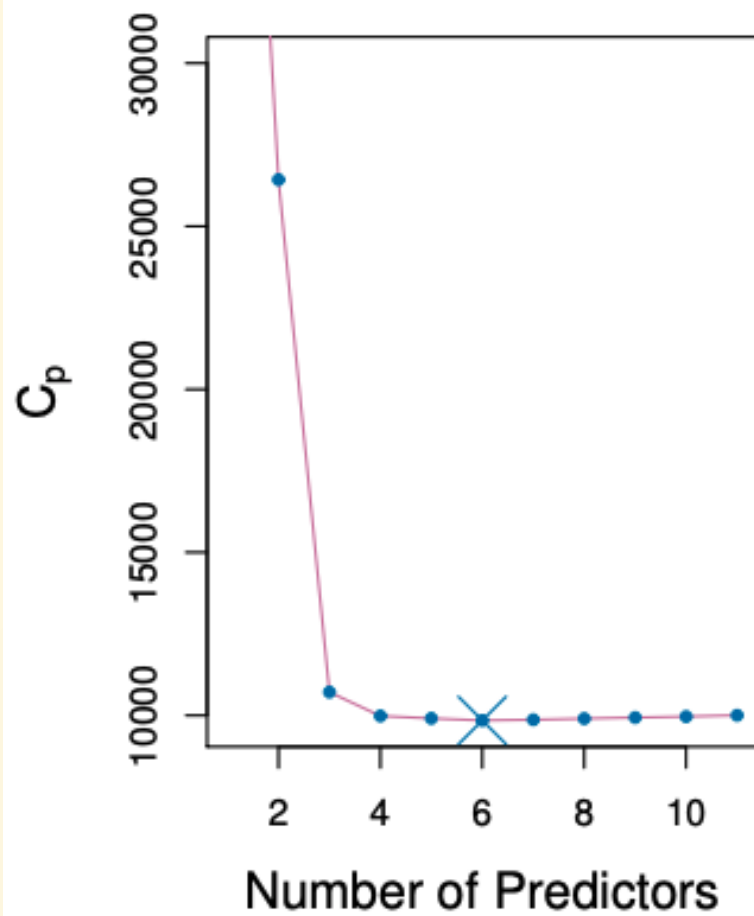
- The model containing all of the predictors will always have the **smallest RSS** and the **largest  $R^2$** , since these quantities are related to the training error.
- We wish to choose a model with low **test error**, not a model with low **training error**. *Recall that training error is usually a poor estimate of test error.*
- Therefore, RSS and  $R^2$  are not suitable for selecting the best model among a collection of models with different numbers of predictors.

## Estimating test error: two approaches

- We choose the best model based on the **test error**, not the training error.
- We can *indirectly* estimate **test error** by making an adjustment to the training error to *account for the bias due to overfitting*.
- We can *directly* estimate the **test error**, using either a *validation set approach* or a *cross-validation approach*.
  - Also known as data-driven model selection.
- We illustrate both approaches next.

## $C_p$ , AIC, BIC, and Adjusted $R^2$

- These techniques can be viewed as indirect estimates of test error.
  - They adjust the *training error* for the *model size*, and can be used to select among a set of models with different numbers of variables.
- The next figure displays  $C_p$ , BIC, and Adjusted  $R^2$  for the best model of each size produced by best subset selection on the **credit dataset**.



Credit data example

## Details of these criterion: $C_p$ and AIC

- **Mallow's  $C_p$**  defined as below, where  $d$  is the total # of parameters used and  $\hat{\sigma}$  is an estimate of the variance of  $\epsilon$ .

$$C_p = \frac{1}{n}(\text{RSS} + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2),$$

- The **AIC criterion** is defined for a large class of models fit by maximum likelihood:

$$AIC = -2 \log L + 2d$$

- where  $L$  is the maximized value of the likelihood function.

## Details of these criterion: $C_p$ and AIC

- In the case of the **linear model with Gaussian errors**, maximum likelihood and least squares are the same thing, and  $C_p$  and AIC are *equivalent*.

## Details of these criterion: BIC

$$\text{BIC} = \frac{1}{n}(\text{RSS} + \log(n)d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

- We select the model that has the lowest BIC value. Like Mallows's  $C_p$ , the BIC will penalize a model for having too many predictors (ie, a higher  $d$ ).
- Compared to  $C_p$ , BIC replaces the  $2d\hat{\sigma}^2$  in  $C_p$  by  $\log(n)d\hat{\sigma}^2$ .
- Since  $\log n > 2$  for any  $n > 7$ , BIC generally places a heavier penalty on models with many variables. So the selected "best model" is smaller than  $C_p$ . (See the credit example above)

## Details of these criterion: adjusted $R^2$

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \frac{RSS / (n - d - 1)}{TSS / (n - 1)}.$$

- Unlike  $C_p$ , AIC and BIC, a better model tends to have a higher adjusted  $R^2$ .
- Maximizing adjusted  $R^2$  is equivalent to minimizing  $\frac{RSS}{n-d-1}$ .
- An advantage of adjusted  $R^2$  over  $C_p$ /AIC/BIC is that it does not require computing an estimate of  $\sigma^2$ .

## From **selection by criteria** to **data-driven selection**

- The first three criteria ( $C_p$ , AIC and BIC) are developed by statisticians, each having its own strength in different setups.
  - [Read this article](#) if you are interested in the statistical theories behind these criteria.
- Adjusted  $R^2$  has the advantages of being easier to compute and "understand."

With the rapid growth of the machine learning literature, more researchers start to adopt the **data-driven selection** methods: **validation** and **cross-validation**.