Sparse linear models in high-dimensions

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Introduction

- The goal of this chapter is to provide an overview of the most popular used *shrinkage estimators* in the machine learning literature and how are they useful in the context of *linear regression*q models from the perspective of econometrics analysis.
- Shrinkage estimators provide a feasible approach to potentially identify *relevant variables* from a *large pool* of covariates.
- So our fundamental problem is a *linear model* with a large parameter vector that *potentially* contains many zeros (i.e., sparsity).
- The main assumption is that, while the number of covariates is large, perhaps much larger than the number of observations, the number of *associated non-zero* coefficients is relatively small.
- We can extend this framework even for nonparametric models (e.g., kernel ridge regressions).
- Applications: IVs from a many potentially weak instruments.

■ Let $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be an *unknown vector*, referred to as the regression vector.

■ Suppose that we observe a vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a matrix $\textbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ that are linked via the standard linear model

$$
y = \mathbf{X}\theta^* + w
$$

where $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector of noise variables.

- \blacksquare This model can also be written in a scalarized form: for each index $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, we have $\mathsf{y}_i = \langle \mathsf{x}_i, \theta^* \rangle + w_i$, where $\mathsf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the *i*-th row of **X**, and y_i and w_i are (respectively) the *i*-th entries of the vectors *y* and *w*.
- \blacksquare The quantity $\langle x_i, \theta^* \rangle := \Sigma_{j=1}^d, x_{ij} \theta_j^*$ denotes the usual *Euclidean inner product* between the vector $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ of predictors (or covariates), and the regression $\mathsf{vector}\ \theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$.
- Thus, each response y_i is a noisy version of a linear combination of *d* covariates.

Different Sparsity Models

- As we know when *d > n* it's impossible to obtain any meaningful estimates of *θ ∗* unless we impose a *low dimensional structure*.
- Key concept: Sparsity
- Let us define the *support set* of *θ [∗]* as

$$
S(\theta^*) := \left\{ j \in \{1,2,\ldots,d\} \mid \theta_j^* \neq 0 \right\},\
$$

- This set has cardinality *s* := *|S* (*θ ∗*)*| substantially smaller* than *d*.
- Assuming that the model is exactly supported on *s* coefficients may be overly restrictive, in which case it is also useful to consider various relaxations of hard sparsity, which leads to the notion of weak sparsity.
- Roughly speaking, a vector *θ ∗* is *weakly sparse* if it can be *closely approximated* by a *sparse vector*.

- There are different ways in which to formalize such an idea, one way being via the *ℓ^q[−]* "norms".
- **■** For a parameter *q* and radius $R_q > 0$, consider the set

$$
\mathbb{B}_q(R_q) = \left\{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \sum_{j=1}^d |\theta_j|^q \leq R_q \right\}.
$$

■ It is known as the ℓ_q -ball of radius R_q .

[Shrinkage Estimators and](#page-7-0) [Regularizers](#page-7-0)

- The *size* of a parameter vector *θ* is the *number of elements* in the vector and the *length* of *θ* is the length of the vector as measured by an assigned *norm*.
- The *ℓ^q* norm of a vector *θ* = (*θ*1*, . . . , θd*) *′* denoted by the notation, *∥θ∥q*, is defined as

$$
\|\theta\|_q \left(\sum_{j=1}^d |\theta_j|^q\right)^{1/q} \quad q>0,
$$

where *|θ|* denotes the absolute value of *θ*.

■ When *q* = 2, the *ℓ^q* norm is known as the *Euclidean Norm*, or *Euclidean Distance*

Example

Let $\bm{\theta} = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$, then the ℓ_2 Euclidean norm of $\bm{\theta}$ is $\|\bm{\theta}\|_2 = \sqrt{|\theta_1|^2 + |\theta_2|^2}.$

- The idea of a shrinkage estimator is to impose a *restriction on the length* of the estimated parameter vector *θ* ˆ.
- In other words, the idea is to *shrink* the parameter vector in order to identify the 0 elements in *θ*.
- This can be framed as the following optimization problem:

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \text{argmin} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})$ *θ∈***Θ** s.t. $pen(\theta) < c$,

- where *L*(*θ*; **y***,***X**) is the loss function, and *pen*(*θ*) is a *penalty* term or *regularizer* for any $c > 0$.
- Different definitions of *pen*(*θ*) lead to different shrinkage estimators.
- Let's write the previous optimization problem in its Lagrange form

$$
\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \boldsymbol{\Theta}}{\text{argmin}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) + \lambda \text{pen}(\boldsymbol{\theta})
$$

ℓ^q **norm, Bridge, LASSO, Ridge and Beyond**

■ A interesting class of regularizers is called the *Bridge estimator* as defined by Frank and Friedman (1993), which proposed the following regularizer in the equation

$$
pen(\theta; q) = \|\theta\|_q^q = \sum_{j=1}^d |\theta_j|^q, \quad q \in \mathbb{R}^+.
$$

The Bridge estimator encompasses at least two shrinkage estimators as special cases.

- When $q = 1$, the Bridge estimator becomes the *Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator* (LASSO) as proposed by Tibshirani (1996)
- When *q* = 2, the Bridge estimator becomes the *Ridge estimator* as defined by Hoerl and Kennard (1970b, 1970a).
- We can define further a linear combination of LASSO and Ridge, which is called *Elastic Net*:

$$
pen(\theta; \alpha) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \alpha |\theta_j| + (1 - \alpha) |\theta_j|^2
$$

Lasso, Ridge and Elastic Net

(b) Ridge

Lasso, Ridge and Elastic Net

- An advantage of the ℓ_1 norm i.e., LASSO, is that it can produce estimates with exactly zero values, i.e., elements in $\hat{\theta}$ can be exactly zero. This means we will have *corner solutions*.
- While the ℓ_2 norm, i.e., Ridge, does not usually produce estimates with values that equal exactly 0. Ridge contour does not have the *sharp corners*.
- However, the Ridge does have a *computational advantage* over other variations of the Bridge estimator. =*⇒* Closed Form Solution

Proposition (Closed Form Solution of Ridge)

When $\bm{q}=2$ *and* $\mathcal{L}(\bm{\theta};\mathbf{y},\mathbf{X})=(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\theta)^{\top}(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{X}\theta)$ *i.e., mean-square loss function, there is a* \bm{c} losed form solution, namely $\hat{\bm{\theta}}_{\mathsf{Ridge}} = \left(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}$

■ We can generalize this even for functions using *Kernel Ridge Regressions* and *RKHS* learning theory in nonparametric estimation! (more on this in 2 chapters)

$$
f^* = \underset{f \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{argmin}} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f(x_i))^2 + \lambda ||f||_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \right)
$$

[The Regularization Bias](#page-13-0)

Lasso and Post-Lasso

■ Let's focus in Lasso in this section.

■ Denote by $\mathcal{L}(\theta) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - X_i^{\top} \theta)^2$ the mean-square loss function.

 \blacksquare The Lasso estimator is defined as:

$$
\widehat{\theta} \in \underset{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\text{argmin}} \mathcal{L}(\theta) + \lambda \|\theta\|_1.
$$

- The Lasso minimizes the sum of the empirical mean-square loss and a penalty or regularization term *λ∥θ∥*1.
- Notice that the solution to previous program is not necessarily unique.
- *λ* sets the trade-off between *fit* and *sparsity*
- Caution: In presence of a high-dimensional $θ_0$ (true parameter) for which the *sparsity assumption* is not assumed to hold, using the Lasso estimator is not a good idea.

■ Lasso has a cousin called *Post-Lasso*.

- This algorithm has been studied at Belloni and Chernozhukov (2011) and Belloni and Chernozhukov (2013)
- It is a *two-step estimator* in which a second step is added to the Lasso procedure in order to remove the bias that comes from shrinkage.
- That second step consists in running an OLS regression using only the covariates associated with a non-zero coefficient in the Lasso step.
	- 1. Run the Lasso regression and denote $\hat{s}(\theta)$ the estimator of the *support set* of θ , i.e., the non-zero Lasso coefficients.
	- 2. Run an OLS regression including only the covariates corresponding to the *non-zero coefficients* in ˆ*s*(*θ*) from above.

- A natural appeal of the Post-Lasso estimator is that it is a powerful tool for variable selection.
- However, we have to discuss the *regularization bias* which is nothing more than an *omitted variable bias* arising from the same mechanism described previously.

Remark

Model selection and estimation cannot be achieved optimally at the same time.

■ Yang (2005) shows that for any model selection procedure to be consistent, it must behave *sub-optimally* for estimating the regression function and vice-versa.

Example (Linear model with high-dimensional controls)

Consider the iid sequence of random variables $(Y_i, D_i, X_i)_{i=1}^n$ such that:

$$
Y_i = D_i \theta_0 + X_i^{\top} \beta_0 + \varepsilon_i,
$$

 w ith ε_i such that $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon]=0, \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon]^2=\sigma^2<\infty$ and $\varepsilon_i\perp (D_i,X_i).$ θ_0 capture the treatment effect of a binary treatment *Dⁱ ∈ {*0*,* 1*}*. *Xⁱ* is of dimension *d >* 1. *d* is allowed to be much larger than *n* and to grow with *n*. Denote by $\mu_d := \mathbb{E}(X \mid D = d)$ for $d \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\pi_0 := \mathbb{E}[D]$.

■ In this example we are interested in estimate *treatment effect* θ_0

■ So β_0 is just a *nuisance parameter*.

Two-step estimator:

- 1. Run a *Lasso regression* of *Y* on *D* and **X**, forcing *D* to remain in the model by excluding θ_0 from the penalty part in the Lasso. Exclude all the elements in **X** that correspond to a zero coefficients $\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}}$
- 2. Run an *OLS regression* of *Y* on *D* and the *set of selected* **X** to obtain the post-selection estimator *θ* ˆpost
- Denote $\widehat{\beta}$ the corresponding estimator for β_0 obtained in step 2. Notice that for $j \in \{1, \ldots, d\}$, if $\hat{\beta}_j^{\text{lasso}} = 0$ then $\hat{\beta}_j = 0$. ■ Also denote by $\hat{\pi} := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} D_i$. Therefore,

$$
\widehat{\theta} := \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} D_i \left(Y_i - X_i^{\top} \widehat{\beta} \right)}{\widehat{\pi}} = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{D_i=1} \left(Y_i - X_i^{\top} \widehat{\beta} \right),
$$

 $\text{where } n_d := \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1} \{D_i = d\}, d \in \{0, 1\}.$

Regularization Bias of ˆ*θ*

Lemma

Under the previous linear model, if
$$
\mu_1 \neq 0
$$
, then $\sqrt{n}(\widehat{\theta} - \theta_0) \to \infty$

 $\begin{array}{c} \hline \end{array}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$

 $\sqrt{ }$

i=1

Sketch of the proof: Substitute the linear model in the expression of $\hat{\theta}$ to get

$$
\sqrt{n}\left(\widehat{\theta}-\theta_0\right)=\widehat{\pi}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n D_iX_i\right]^\top\sqrt{n}\left(\beta_0-\widehat{\beta}\right)+\widehat{\pi}^{-1}\sqrt{n}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n D_i\varepsilon_i\right]
$$

By CLT, CMT, LLN and Slutsky

$$
\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}D_{i}X_{i}\right] \xrightarrow{\rho} \pi_{0}\mu_{1}.
$$
\n
$$
\widehat{\pi}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}D_{i}\varepsilon_{i}\right] \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(0, \frac{\sigma^{2}}{\pi_{0}}\right)
$$
\n
$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}D_{i}X_{i}\bigg]'\sqrt{n}\left(\beta_{0} - \widehat{\beta}\right)\bigg| \approx s\sqrt{\log d} \to \infty
$$

[Orthogonalization](#page-20-0)

Orthogonalization

- This is the main idea in Chernozhukov et al. (2017); Belloni et al. (2017); Chernozhukov et al. (2018).
- **■** To build the intuition, assume that the parameter of interest, θ_0 solves the equation $\mathbb{E}m\left(Z_i,\theta_0,\beta_0\right)=0$ for some known *score function m*(\cdot), a vector of observables *Z_i* and nuisance parameter *β*₀.
- In the simplest case, think about the *score function* as the first derivative of the log-likelihood functions in the parametric case.
- **F** From our example: $Z_i = (Y_i, D_i, X_i)$, and $m(Z_i, \theta, \beta) := (Y_i D_i\theta X_i^T\beta) D_i$.
- The derivative of the estimating moment with respect to nuisance parameter is not zero:

$$
\mathbb{E}\partial_{\beta}m(Z_i,\theta_0,\beta_0)=-\pi_0\mu_1\neq 0.
$$

Idea: Can we replace *m*(*·*) by another score function *ψ*(*·*) and use a different nuisance parameter η_0 such that

$$
\mathbb{E}\partial_{\eta}\psi\left(Z_{i},\theta_{0},\eta_{0}\right)=0
$$

- We say that any function *ψ* that satisfies previous condition is an *orthogonal score* or *Neyman-Orthogonal*
- **■** Intuition: The moment condition for estimating θ_0 is not affected by small perturbations around the true value of the nuisance parameter *η*0.
- Changing the estimating moment can neutralize the effect of the first step estimation and suppress the *regularization bias*.

Assumption (Orthogonal Moment Condition)

The (scalar) parameter of interest, θ_0 *is given by:*

 $\mathbb{E}\psi\left(Z_{i},\theta_{0},\eta_{0}\right)=\mathsf{0}$

for some known real-valued function ψ(*·*) *satisfying the orthogonality condition, a vector of observables Zⁱ and a high-dimensional sparse nuisance parameter η*⁰ *such that* $||η$ ⁰ $||$ ₀ \leq 5.

Assumption (High-Quality Nuisance Estimation)

Let first-step estimator $\hat{\eta}$ *such that with high-probability:*

$$
\|\widehat{\eta} - \eta_0\|_1 \lesssim \sqrt{s^2 \log d/n}
$$

$$
\|\widehat{\eta} - \eta_0\|_2 \lesssim \sqrt{s \log d/n}
$$

Assumption (Affine-Quadratic Model)

The function ψ(*·*) *is such that:*

$$
\psi(Z_i,\theta,\eta)=\Gamma_1(Z_i,\eta)\theta-\Gamma_2(Z_i,\eta)
$$

where Γ*^j , j* = 1*,* 2*, are functions with all their second order derivatives with respect to η constant over the convex parameter space of η.*

The estimator we are going to consider is $\check{\theta}$ such that:

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\psi\left(Z_i,\check{\theta},\widehat{\eta}\right)=0.
$$

Theorem (Asymptotic Normality)

The estimator θ *in the affine-quadratic model and under previous assumptions:* $\sqrt{n}\left(\check{\theta}-\theta_0\right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}\left(0,\sigma_{\Gamma}^2\right),$ with $\sigma_{\Gamma}^2:=\mathbb{E}\left[\psi\left(Z_i,\tau_0,\eta_0\right)^2\right]/\mathbb{E}\left[\Gamma_1\left(Z_i,\eta_0\right)\right]^2$.

- The Orthogonalization framework can be generalized for other ML learner algorithms.
- This is the main idea of *Double Machine Learning* (DML) (More on this in next chapters)
- DML builds on the FWL theorem to isolate the effect of interest, introducing a key idea: the use of ML models in the orthogonalization process.

1.
$$
\hat{D} = f(X) + v
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \tilde{D} = D - \hat{X}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \tilde{Y} = g(X) + u
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \tilde{Y} = Y - \hat{Y}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \tilde{Y} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \tilde{X} + \varepsilon
$$

Double Lasso

■ We can define a Lasso procedure where *Neyman-Orthogonality* holds The Double Lasso procedure:

1. We run Lasso regressions of *Yⁱ* on *Xⁱ* and *Dⁱ* on *Xⁱ*

$$
\hat{\gamma}_{YX} = \arg \min_{\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^p} \quad \sum_{i} \left(Y_i - \gamma^\top X_i \right)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j} \hat{\psi}_j^Y |\gamma_j| \,,
$$

$$
\hat{\gamma}_{DX} = \arg \min_{\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^p} \quad \sum_{i} \left(D_i - \gamma^\top X_i \right)^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j} \hat{\psi}_j^D |\gamma_j| \,,
$$

where $\hat{\psi}_j$ are penalty loadings normally equal to 1. Then, we obtain the resulting residuals:

$$
\check{Y}_i = Y_i - \hat{\gamma}_{YX}^{\top} X_i,
$$

$$
\check{D}_i = D_i - \hat{\gamma}_{DX}^{\top} X_i.
$$

In place of Lasso, we can use Post-Lasso or other Lasso relatives.

2. We run the least squares regression of \check{Y}_i on \check{D}_i to the estimator $\check{\theta}.$

We compare the performance of the *naive* (e.g., Post-Lasso) and *orthogonal* methods (e.g., Double Lasso) in a computational experiment where $d = n = 100$, $\beta_j = 1/j^2, \gamma_j = 1/j^2$, and

$$
Y = 1 \cdot D + \beta^{\top} X + \varepsilon_Y, \quad X \sim N(0, I), \varepsilon_Y \sim N(0, 1)
$$

$$
D = \gamma^{\top} X + \tilde{D}, \quad \tilde{D} \sim N(0, 1)/4
$$

Here the true parameter is 1.

Simulation Study


```
# Initialize constants
B = 1000 + # Number of iterations
n = 100 # Sample size
d = 100 # Number of features
```

```
# Sim Parameters
mean = 0sd = 1
```

```
# Initialize arrays to store results
naive = np{\text{ }}zeros(B)orthogonal = np{\text{ }zeros}(B)
```
Code


```
# Iterate through B simulations
for i in t adm(range(B)):
    # Generate parameters:
    gamma = (1 / (np.arange(1, d + 1) ** 2)). reshape(d, 1)
    beta = (1 / (np.arange(1, d + 1) ** 2)). reshape(d, 1)
    # Generate covariates / random data
    X = np.random.normal(mean, sd, n * d). reshape(n, d)
    D = (X \otimes \text{gamma}) + \text{no. random. normal (mean. sd. n).reshape}(n, 1) / 4# Generate Y using DGP
    Y = D + (X \circledast \text{beta}) + \text{np.random.normal} (mean, sd, n). reshape(n, 1)
    # Single selection method using rlasso
    r_lasso_estimation = hdmpy.rlasso(np.concatenate((D, X), axis=1), Y, post=True)
    coef array = r lasso_estimation.est['coefficients'].iloc[2:, :].to_numpy()
    SX \overline{1D}s = np.where(coef array != 0)\overline{0}]
    # Check if any X coefficients are selected
    if sum(SX IDs) == 0:
        # If no X coefficients are selected, regress Y on D only
        naive[i] = sm.OLS(Y. sm.add constant(D)).fit().params[1]
    else:
        # If X coefficients are selected, regress Y on selected X and D
        X D = np.concatenate((D, X[:, SX IDs]), axis=1)
        naive[i] = sm. OLS(Y, sm. add constant(X D)).fit().params[1]
    # Double Lasso Partialling Out
    resY = hdmpy.rlasso(X, Y, post=False).est['residuals']
    resD = hdmpy.rlasso(X, D, post=False).est['residuals']
    resD = hdmpy.rlasso(X, D, post=False).est['residuals']<br>orthogonal[i] = sm.OLS(resy, sm.add_constant(resD)).fit().params[1]
```
Thanks! ć **marcelo.ortiz@emory.edu** \mathcal{P} marcelortiz.com _ **@marcelortizv**

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