

# Perspectives on Machine Bias Versus Human Bias: Generalized Linear Models

S. Ejaz Ahmed

Department of Mathematics and Statistics  
University of Windsor, Ontario

*seahmed@uwindsor.ca*  
[www.uwindsor.ca/seahmed](http://www.uwindsor.ca/seahmed)

Current Challenges in Statistical Learning  
BIRS

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# Outline of Presentation

Executive Summary

Proposed Estimation Strategies

Model Selection and Post Estimation

Simulation Study

Application: South African Heart Disease Data

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# Introduction and Preliminaries

- Consider a set of observations  $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)'$ , where  $y_i$  is assumed to have a distribution in the exponential family of distributions with predictor values  $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in})'$ .
- The probability density/mass function of the form

$$f_Y(y_i; \theta_i, \phi) = \exp\{(y_i\theta_i - b(\theta_i))/a_i(\phi) + c(y_i, \phi)\},$$

where  $a(\cdot)$ ,  $b(\cdot)$  and  $c(\cdot)$  are known functions and  $\phi$  is a *scale parameter*. If  $\phi$  is known, then the exponential-family model with canonical parameter  $\theta_i$  can be written as

$$f_Y(y_i; \theta_i) = c(y_i)\exp\{y_i\theta_i - b(\theta_i)\}$$

- When the parameter  $\theta_i$  is modelled as a linear function of the predictors, the link function is known as canonical link.

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## Some key features for Generalized Linear Model(GLIM)

- The random component of a GLIM specifies the distribution of the response variable  $Y_i$
- The mean and variance of the response variable  $Y_i$  are given by

$$E[Y_i] = \mu_i = \frac{db(\theta_i)}{d\theta_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var}(Y_i) = V(\mu_i) = \frac{d^2b(\theta_i)}{d\theta_i^2}.$$

- The systematic component of a GLIM is a linear combination of regressor variables, termed the linear predictor  $\eta$ ,

$$\eta_i = \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta},$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i' = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in})$  is the regressor vector and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is the vector of model parameters.

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The link function connects the random and systematic components. This connection is done by equating the mean response  $\mu_i$  to the linear predictor  $\eta_i$  by  $\eta_i = g(\mu_i)$ , that is

$$g(\mu_i) \stackrel{\text{link}}{=} \eta_i = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}.$$

# The Statistical Estimation Problem

Candidate Subspace

A Great Deal of Redundancy in the Full Model

We want to estimate  $\beta$  when it is plausible that  $\beta$  lie in the subspace

$$\mathbf{H}\beta = \mathbf{h}$$

Hence the Non-Sample information (NSI) or Uncertain prior information (UPI) is

$$NSI : \mathbf{H}\beta = \mathbf{h}$$

$\mathbf{H}$  is  $q \times k$  matrix of rank  $q \leq k$

$\mathbf{h}$  is a given  $q \times 1$  vector of constants.

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## Genomics Research

The goal of this paper is to analyze some of the issues involved in the estimation of the parameters in generalized linear models that may be over-parameterized that is, too many  $\mathbf{x}$ 's and thus  $\beta$ 's are included.

For example, in genomics research it is common practice to test a candidate subset of genetic markers for association with disease. Here the candidate subset is found in a certain population by doing genome wide association studies. The candidate subset is then tested for disease association in a new population. In this new population it is possible that genetic markers not found in the first population are associated with disease.

## Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) Data

Consider a data set which is analyzed by Park and Hastie (2006) [this data set is originally collected by Rossouw (1983)].

The coronary heart disease (CHD) may be related to the variables:

- Systolic blood pressure
- cumulative tobacco
- Low density
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## Variables Inclusion and Deletion (VID)

- Adiposity
- Family history of heart disease
- Type-A behavior
- Obesity
- Alcohol
- Age
- **and many other variables**

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The maximum likelihood analysis shows that following variables are the most important factors

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- Low density lipoprotein cholesterol
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Two key aspects of variable selection methods are:

- Evaluating each potential subset of predictor variables
- Deciding on the collection of potential subsets

## Evaluating Potential Subset of Predictor Variables

- $R^2$ - Adjusted
- Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC)
- Corrected AIC
- Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)

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# Likelihood Function

- Consider binary responses:  $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)'$  and predictors  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)'$
- The log-likelihood is given by

$$l(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n [(y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)) + \log c(y_i)]$$

- The score equations are given by

$$(\mathbf{Y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})' \mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\mu}) \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0},$$

where  $\mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \text{diag}(d_{ii})$  and  $d_{ii} = 1 / V(\mu_i) g'(\mu_i)$ .

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## The Candidate Estimator

- The score equations cannot be solved explicitly and hence recourse must be made numerical methods to get unrestricted maximum likelihood estimate (UE),  $\hat{\beta}$ .
- There are at least three methods available to solve these equations:
  - The Newton-Raphson method
  - Fisher's Scoring method
  - Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares method

Fahrmeir and Kaufmann (1985)  $\hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1})$

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## Candidate Sub-model Estimator

- To get this estimator we need to maximize the log-likelihood under the restrictions  $\mathbf{H}\beta = \mathbf{h}$ .
- Using penalty function method to form a modified likelihood:

$$F(\beta, \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n [(y_i\theta_i - b(\theta_i)) + \log c(y_i)] + \sum_{j=1}^q p_j(\mathbf{h}_j - \mathbf{H}'_j\beta)^2.$$

- Find the solution of  $\text{Max}_{\beta} F(\beta, \lambda)$  for positive and fixed values of  $p_j, j = 1, \dots, q$ .
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# Proposed Estimation Strategies

The restricted estimator  $\tilde{\beta}$  is

$$\tilde{\beta} = \hat{\beta} + (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{H}' \left[ \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{H}' \right]^{-1} [\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{H}\hat{\beta}].$$

Under some regularity conditions, it may be showed that that  $\tilde{\beta}$  is a consistent estimator of  $\beta$ , and

$$\sqrt{n}(\tilde{\beta} - \beta) \xrightarrow{d} N_k \left( \mathbf{0}, \tilde{\mathbf{J}}^{-1} \right),$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{J}}^{-1} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \left[ \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H}' \{ \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{H}' \}^{-1} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \right]$$

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# Torturing Data Until it Confesses: Cure for the Cold

## Pooling Data: Making Sense or Folly?

- Can ginseng prevent colds?
- Edmonton company CV Technologies Inc. has conducted clinical trials, with results published in the Journal of the American Geriatrics Society showing that their proprietary ginseng extract can prevent colds.
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- The study consisted of two randomized clinical trials (2000 and 2001), with nursing-home patients as subjects.
- In each trial, the subjects were randomly assigned to take either 200 mg of the ginseng extract or a placebo twice daily.
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- Professors criticized the claims, accusing the article's authors of **data-mining**, and saying that the trials were not definitive evidence that the product had any effect.
- The original purpose of the studies was to see whether the ginseng extract would reduce the incidence of respiratory illnesses as defined by symptoms such as cough, sore throat, and runny nose.
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- The results found no significant difference between the placebo and the (ginseng extract) groups for the number of (acute respiratory illnesses) defined by symptoms.
- They also found no significant difference in the severity or duration of symptoms related to (acute respiratory illnesses) between the two groups in either study.
- However, when the researchers pooled the data from the two studies, they did get statistically significant results.

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- Combining the two studies erodes the credibility of the results: Taking two studies that do not show a benefit and then adding them together to get a positive result is a form of data-mining. It's torturing the data until it confesses.
- If the original intent had been to combine the results of the two studies, then it would be a legitimate technique, but if not, it might seem that the researchers did a second study because they did not like the initial results.

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# Proposed Estimation Strategies

## Hypothesis Testing

$$H_0 : \mathbf{H}\beta = \mathbf{h} \quad H_a : \mathbf{H}\beta \neq \mathbf{h}$$

## Test Statistics

### Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT)

$$\begin{aligned} D &= 2[l(\hat{\beta}; y_1, \dots, y_n) - l(\tilde{\beta}; y_1, \dots, y_n)] \\ &= (\mathbf{H}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{h})' \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{H}'(\mathbf{H}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{h}) + o_p(1) \end{aligned}$$

### Wald Test Statistic

$$D_1 = (\mathbf{H}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{h})' \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{H}'(\mathbf{H}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{h})$$

### Rao Score Test

$$D_2 = (\mathbf{z} - \boldsymbol{\eta})' \mathbf{W}'\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{z} - \boldsymbol{\eta})$$

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## Pretest Estimator

The pretest estimator (PTE) of  $\beta$  based on  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\tilde{\beta}$  is defined as

$$\hat{\beta}^{PT} = \hat{\beta} - (\hat{\beta} - \tilde{\beta})I(D \leq \chi_{q,\alpha}^2), \quad q \geq 1,$$

$I(A)$  is an indicator function of a set  $A$  and  $\chi_{q,\alpha}^2$  is the  $\alpha$ -level critical value of the distribution of  $D$  under  $H_0$ .

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## Shrinkage and Positive Shrinkage Estimator

The shrinkage estimator (SE) of  $\beta$  can be defined as:

$$\hat{\beta}^S = \tilde{\beta} + \left(1 - (q - 2)D^{-1}\right) (\hat{\beta} - \tilde{\beta}), \quad q \geq 3,$$

The positive shrinkage estimator which will control the possible over-shrinking problem is defined as

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# Executive Summary

- Bancroft (1944) suggested a preliminary test strategy for variable selection and post parameter estimation.
- Stein (1956, 1966) developed highly efficient shrinkage estimators in balanced designs. Most statisticians have ignored these (perhaps due to lack of understanding)
- Modern regularization estimators based on penalized least squares with multiple quadratic penalties extend Stein's procedures powerfully. This story, whose technical development relies on current empirical process theory, has only begun.

## Moral of the Story

There is no suffering, no cause of suffering, no cessation of suffering, and no path. [R. Beran, 2010]

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# LEAST ABSOLUTE SHRINKAGE and SELECTION OPERATOR (LASSO)

- Variable selection via penalized estimation is appealing for dimension reduction.
- LASSO (Tibshirani, 1996) is a method that effectively (?) performs variable selection and regression coefficient simultaneously.
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- It is a constrained version of ordinary least squares. The LASSO estimate  $\hat{\beta}(\lambda)$  is the solution to

$$\hat{\beta}_\lambda = \min_{\beta} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}'\beta)'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}'\beta) \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \leq s,$$

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An alternative formulation of the LASSO is to solve the penalized likelihood problem

$$\min \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^d |\beta_j|$$

for some  $\lambda \geq 0$ .

- When the value of  $s$  is very large (or equivalently in  $\lambda = 0$ ), the constraint (or equivalently the penalty term) has no effect and the solution is just the set of LSE from the full model.

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# Absolute Penalty Estimator

## Extension to Semiparametric Models

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# Least Absolute Selection and Shrinkage, Exponential Family Edition (LASSÉ)

## $L_1$ Type Estimator

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- We refer to the Park-Hastie procedure as LASSÉ (least absolute selection and shrinkage, Exponential family edition).
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The maximum likelihood solution for the natural parameter  $\theta$ , and thus  $\beta$ , with a penalization on the size of the  $L_1$  norm of the coefficients ( $\|\beta\|_1$ ) i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}(\lambda) &= \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}}\{-l(\beta) + \lambda\|\beta\|_1\} \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^n [(y_i\theta_i - b(\theta_i)) + \log c(y_i)] + \lambda\|\beta\|_1,\end{aligned}$$

- $\lambda > 0$  is the regularization parameter.
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The adaptive  $L_1$  GLM is the solution of

$$\hat{\beta}_\lambda^{AL_1} = - \sum_{i=1}^n [(y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)) + \text{Inc}(y_i)] + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^k |\hat{\beta}_i| w_i,$$

where  $w_i$ 's are adaptive weights defined as  $w_i = |\hat{\beta}_i|^{-\tau}$  for some positive  $\tau$ , and  $\hat{\beta}_i$  is the maximizer of the log likelihood.

# Adaptive Lasso

- The intuition idea of the adaptive  $L_1$ GLM is that, by allowing a relatively higher penalty for coefficients inactive predictors and lower penalty for coefficients of active predictors, it is possible to reduce the estimation bias and improve variable selection accuracy, compared with the standard LASSO.
- Theoretically, adaptive  $L_1$ GLM enjoys oracle properties (Zou, 2006) that LASSO does not have.
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- This method selects variables and estimate parameters  $\beta$  simultaneously by maximizing the penalized likelihood function

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$$p'_\lambda(\theta) = \lambda \left[ I(\theta \leq \lambda) + \frac{(a\lambda - \theta)_+}{(a-1)\lambda} I(\theta > \lambda) \right],$$

where  $a$  is some constant usually taken to be  $a = 3.7$  and  $(t)_+ = tI\{t > 0\}$  is the hinge loss function.

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## Post-Model Selection Estimation Difficulties

- The variable selection process changes the properties of the estimators
- Regardless of sample size, the model selection step typically has a dramatic effect on the sampling properties of the estimators.
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- The regression coefficients obtained after variable selection are biased
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- The Data-driven model selection that do not seem to have been widely appreciated or that seem to be viewed too optimistically
- Despite some claims to contrary, no model selection procedure either implemented on a machine or not is immune to these difficulties.[Leeb and Potscher, 2005]

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# Asymptotic Treatment

Consider a sequence  $K_{(n)}$  of local alternatives defined by

$$K_{(n)} : \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{h} + \frac{\boldsymbol{\delta}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$\boldsymbol{\delta} = (\delta_1, \delta_2 \cdots, \delta_q) \in \Re^q$ , a real fixed vector.

Note that for  $\boldsymbol{\delta} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{h}$ , for all  $n$ .

We define a quadratic loss function using a positive definite matrix (p.d.m.)  $\mathbf{Q}$

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^*; \mathbf{Q}) = [\sqrt{n}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^* - \boldsymbol{\beta})]' \mathbf{Q} [\sqrt{n}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^* - \boldsymbol{\beta})]$$

# Asymptotic Analysis

- The asymptotic distribution function of  $\beta^*$  under  $k_{(n)}$  by

$$G(\mathbf{y}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P [\sqrt{n}(\beta^* - \beta) \leq \mathbf{y} | k_{(n)}],$$

where  $G(\mathbf{y})$  is nondegenerate distribution function.

- The asymptotic distributional quadratic risk (ADR) by

$$\begin{aligned} R(\beta^*; \mathbf{Q}) &= \int \cdots \int \mathbf{y}' \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{y} dG(\mathbf{y}) \\ &= \text{trace}(\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*) \end{aligned}$$

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# Asymptotic Analysis

- The asymptotic distribution function of  $\beta^*$  under  $k_{(n)}$  by

$$G(\mathbf{y}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P [\sqrt{n}(\beta^* - \beta) \leq \mathbf{y} | k_{(n)}],$$

where  $G(\mathbf{y})$  is nondegenerate distribution function.

- The asymptotic distributional quadratic risk (ADR) by

$$\begin{aligned} R(\beta^*; \mathbf{Q}) &= \int \cdots \int \mathbf{y}' \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{y} dG(\mathbf{y}) \\ &= \text{trace}(\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^*) \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}^* = \int \cdots \int \mathbf{y} \mathbf{y}' dG(\mathbf{y})$$

is the dispersion matrix for the distribution  $G(\mathbf{y})$ .

**Theorem:** Under local alternatives  $k_{(n)}$  and usual regularity conditions we have the ADB of the proposed estimators as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in the following:

$$ADB(\hat{\beta}) = \mathbf{0}, \quad (1)$$

$$ADB(\tilde{\beta}) = -\mathbf{J}\delta, \quad \mathbf{J} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{H}'[\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{H}']^{-1}, \quad (2)$$

$$ADB(\hat{\beta}^{PT}) = \mathbf{J}\delta\Psi_{q+2}(q-2, \Delta), \quad (3)$$

$$ADB(\hat{\beta}^S) = -(q-2)\mathbf{J}\delta E(\chi_{q+2}^{-2}(\Delta)), \quad (4)$$

$$ADB(\hat{\beta}^{S+}) = -(q-2)\mathbf{J}\delta \left[ E(\chi_{q+2}^{-2}(\Delta)) - E(\chi_{q+2}^{-2}(\Delta)I(\chi_{q+2}^2(\Delta) < (q-2))) \right] \\ - \mathbf{J}\delta\Psi_{q+2}(q-2, \Delta), \quad (5)$$

The notation  $\Psi_{\nu}(q-2, \Delta)$  is the distribution function of non-central chi-square distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter  $\Delta$ .

# Mathematical Proof

**Theorem:** Under local alternatives  $k_{(n)}$  and usual regularity conditions we have the ADRs of  $\hat{\beta}$ ,  $\tilde{\beta}$ ,  $\hat{\beta}^{PT}$ ,  $\hat{\beta}^S$  and  $\hat{\beta}^{S+}$  are respectively:

$$R(\hat{\beta}) = \text{trace}[\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}],$$

$$R(\tilde{\beta}) = R(\hat{\beta}) - \text{trace}[\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}] + \delta'(\mathbf{J}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J})\delta,$$

$$R(\hat{\beta}^{PT}) = R(\hat{\beta}) - \text{trace}[\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}]\Psi_{q+2}(q-2, \Delta) \\ + \delta'(\mathbf{J}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J})\delta[2\Psi_{q+2}(q-2, \Delta) - \Psi_{q+4}(q-2, \Delta)],$$

$$R(\hat{\beta}^S) = R(\hat{\beta}) - 2(q-2)\text{trace}[\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}]\{2E(\chi_{q+2}^{-2}(\Delta)) \\ - (q-2)E(\chi_{q+2}^{-4}(\Delta))\} + (q-2)\delta'(\mathbf{J}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J})\delta\{2E(\chi_{q+2}^{-2}(\Delta)) \\ - 2E(\chi_{q+2}^{-4}(\Delta)) + (q-2)E(\chi_{q+4}^{-4}(\Delta))\},$$

$$R(\hat{\beta}^{S+}) = R(\hat{\beta}^S) - \delta'(\mathbf{J}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J})\delta E[(1 - (q-2)\chi_{q+4}^{-2}(\Delta))^2 I(\chi_{q+4}^2(\Delta) < (q-2))] \\ - \text{trace}[\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X})^{-1}]E[(1 - (q-2)\chi_{q+2}^{-2}(\Delta))^2 I(\chi_{q+4}^2(\Delta) < (q-2))] \\ + 2\delta'(\mathbf{J}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J})\delta E[(1 - (q-2)\chi_{q+4}^{-2}(\Delta))I(\chi_{q+4}^2(\Delta) < (q-2))].$$

# Engineering Proof: Simulation

- We use Monte Carlo simulation experiments to examine the risk performance of proposed estimators based on large sample methodology under various scenarios.
- Our sampling experiment consists of different combinations of sample sizes, i.e.,  $n = 100, 150, 200$ .
- In this study we simulate binary response from the following model:

$$\log \left( \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} \right) = \eta_i = \mathbf{x}'_i \beta, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

$$p_i = P(Y = 1 | x_i)$$

- The covariate matrix  $\mathbf{x}'_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in})$  has been drawn from a multivariate standard normal distribution.

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# Simulation Results

- For simulation we consider the particular case of hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta_2 = \mathbf{0}$ , where  $\beta_2$  is a  $k_2 \times 1$  vector with  $k = k_1 + k_2$ .
- We set the true value of  $\beta$  at  $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2) = (c(1.5, 2.5), \beta_2)$  to generate the binary response  $y_j$ .
- The summary of simulation result is provided for  $(k_1, k_2) = \{(2, 3), (2, 5), (2, 7)\}$  and  $\alpha = 0.05$ .
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- The performance of an estimator of  $\beta$  will be appraised using the mean squared error (MSE) criterion.
- All computations were conducted using the **R** statistical system (Ihaka and Gentleman, 1996).
- We have numerically calculated the relative MSE of  $\tilde{\beta}$ ,  $\hat{\beta}^{PT}$ ,  $\hat{\beta}^S$ , and  $\hat{\beta}^{S+}$  with respect to  $\hat{\beta}$  by simulation.
- The simulated relative efficiency (SRE) of the estimator  $\beta^\circ$  to the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\beta}$  is denoted by

$$\text{SRE}(\hat{\beta} : \beta^\circ) = \frac{\text{MSE}(\hat{\beta})}{\text{MSE}(\beta^\circ)},$$

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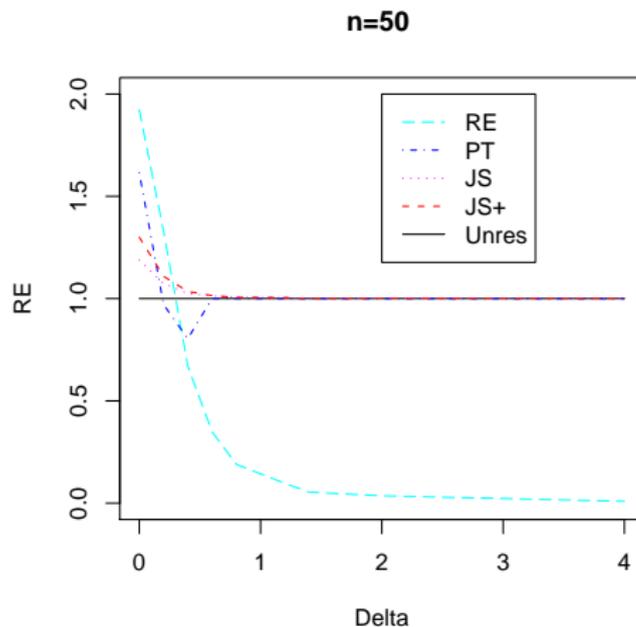
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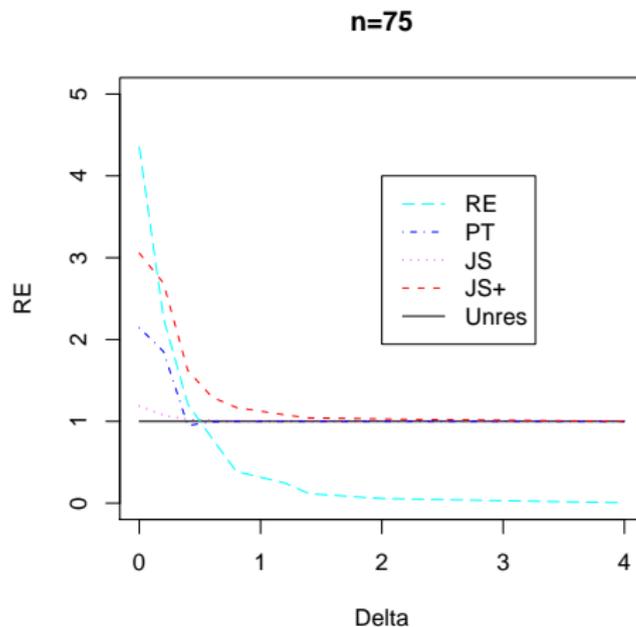
**Figure:** Relative efficiency of the estimators as a function of non-centrality parameter  $\Delta^*$  for sample sizes  $n = 150$ , and insignificant parameters  $k_2 = 3$

# Simulation Results

Table: Simulated relative MSE with respect to  $\hat{\beta}$  for  $n = 150, k_2 = 3$ .

$\Delta^*$	RE	PTE	SE	PSE
0.0	1.727	1.340	1.153	1.201
0.2	1.749	1.265	1.147	1.171
0.4	1.597	1.026	1.105	1.115
0.6	1.433	0.929	1.069	1.071
0.8	1.123	0.957	1.053	1.053
1.0	0.913	0.988	1.046	1.046
1.2	0.704	0.999	1.042	1.042
2.0	0.373	1.000	1.032	1.032
4.0	0.258	1.000	1.024	1.024

# Simulation Results



**Figure:** Relative MSE of the estimators as a function of non-centrality parameter  $\Delta^*$  for sample sizes  $n = 150$ , and nuisance parameters  $k_2 = 7$

# Simulation Results

Table: Simulated relative MSE with respect to  $\hat{\beta}$  for  $n = 150, k_2 = 7$ .

$\Delta^*$	RE	PTE	SE	PSE
0.0	3.184	1.447	1.822	1.926
0.2	3.020	1.421	1.839	1.912
0.4	3.061	1.124	1.668	1.709
0.6	2.680	0.990	1.481	1.488
0.8	2.058	0.983	1.388	1.391
1.0	1.716	0.993	1.312	1.313
1.2	1.352	0.997	1.268	1.268
2.0	0.739	1.000	1.177	1.177
4.0	0.572	1.000	1.118	1.118

# Simulation Results

**Table:** Relative efficiency of RE, SE, PSE,  $L_1$ GLM, adaptive  $L_1$ GLM, and SCAD with respect to  $\hat{\beta}$  when  $\Delta^* = 0$  and  $n = 200$

Method	$k_2 = 3$	$k_2 = 5$	$k_2 = 7$	$k_2 = 11$	$k_2 = 15$	$k_2 = 20$
Restricted	1.79	2.36	3.02	4.50	7.16	9.82
Pretest	1.53	1.81	2.19	2.65	2.67	2.72
Shrinkage	1.16	1.50	1.82	1.63	3.93	4.04
Positive Shrinkage	1.22	1.60	1.98	2.77	4.10	4.28
$L_1$ GLM	1.24	1.53	1.69	2.51	3.38	3.92
Adaptive $L_1$ GLM	1.34	1.55	1.77	2.53	3.51	4.02
SCAD	1.51	1.60	1.87	2.61	3.82	4.17

# Application: South African heart disease data

- This data set collected on males in a heart disease high-risk region of western Cape, South Africa.
- A total of 462 individuals are included in this data set.
- The objective of this study was to predict CHD (coronary heart disease)=1 or 0; present or absent, from a set of covariates listed from below:
  - **sbp**: systolic blood pressure
  - **tobacco**: cumulative tobacco (kg) **ldl**: low density lipoprotein cholesterol
  - **adiposity**: Adiposity level of fat tissue
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Consider the full model

$$\begin{aligned} \log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{sbp}_i + \beta_2 \text{tobacco}_i + \beta_3 \text{ldl}_i + \beta_4 \text{adiposity}_i \\ &+ \beta_5 \text{famhist}_i + \beta_6 \text{typea}_i + \beta_7 \text{obesity}_i + \beta_8 \text{alcohol}_i + \beta_9 \text{age}_i \end{aligned}$$

# Application: South African Heart Disease Data

**Table:** Estimate (first row) and standard error (second row) for tobacco ( $\beta_1$ ), ldl ( $\beta_2$ ), famhist ( $\beta_3$ ), age ( $\beta_4$ ), and typea ( $\beta_5$ ) on coronary heart disease. The SRE column gives the relative efficiency based on bootstrap simulation of the estimators with respect to UE.

Estimators	$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$	$\beta_3$	$\beta_4$	$\beta_5$	SRE
UE	0.541	0.399	0.190	0.607	0.342	1.0000
	0.284	0.290	0.219	0.352	0.243	
RE	0.506	0.377	0.194	0.699	0.321	2.520
	0.245	0.257	0.204	0.277	0.231	
PT	0.513	0.386	0.194	0.678	0.328	1.476
	0.260	0.273	0.209	0.305	0.225	
SE	0.522	0.391	0.193	0.661	0.332	1.327
	0.265	0.278	0.212	0.322	0.238	
PSE	0.523	0.391	0.192	0.654	0.333	1.547
	0.266	0.275	0.212	0.309	0.237	
$L_1$ GLM	0.407	0.285	0.133	0.538	0.203	1.789
	0.233	0.238	0.162	0.266	0.198	
Adaptive $L_1$ GLM	0.407	0.284	0.133	0.538	0.207	1.808
	0.231	0.224	0.164	0.272	0.192	
SCAD	0.387	0.239	0.132	0.483	0.184	1.879
	0.201	0.292	0.156	0.238	0.178	

- Gauss provided two justifications for least squares:
  - The maximum likelihood argument in the Gaussian error model.
  - The idea of risk, commonly known as the Gauss-Markov theorem.
- Stein's 1956 paper revealed that neither maximum likelihood estimators nor unbiased estimators have desirable risk functions when the dimension of the parameter space is not small.
- The SE and PSE outperforms the maximum likelihood estimator of the regression parameter vector in the entire parameter space.

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## Shrinkage Versus LASSÉ

- The LASSÉ dominates the SE when the number of restrictions on parameters are small.
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