

# **Model Optimization**



#### **Bias and Variance**

$$\mathrm{E}\!\left[\left(y-\hat{f}\left(x
ight)
ight)^{2}
ight]=\mathrm{Bias}\!\left[\hat{f}\left(x
ight)
ight]^{2}+\mathrm{Var}\!\left[\hat{f}\left(x
ight)
ight]+\sigma^{2}$$

$$\operatorname{Bias}[\hat{f}(x)] = \operatorname{E}[\hat{f}(x) - f(x)]$$

$$\operatorname{Var} \left[ \hat{f} \left( x \right) \right] = \operatorname{E} \left[ \hat{f} \left( x \right)^2 \right] - \operatorname{E} \left[ \hat{f} \left( x \right) \right]^2$$

#### In other words:

Error = (Expected Loss of Accuracy)<sup>2</sup> + Flexibility of model + Irreducible error



# **Question:**

Why would there be a trade-off between bias and variance?



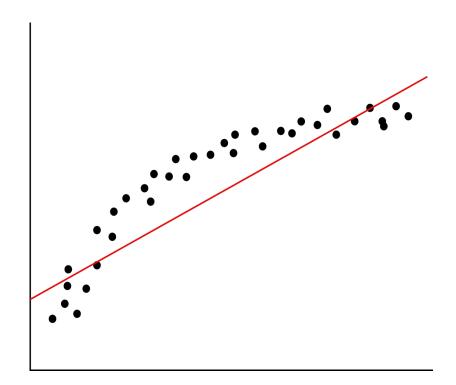
# **Underfitting**

#### Causes:

- 1) Lack of relevant variables/factor
- Imposing severely limiting assumptions
  - a) Linearity
  - b) Assumptions on distribution
  - c) Wrong values for parameters

High Bias and Inflexible

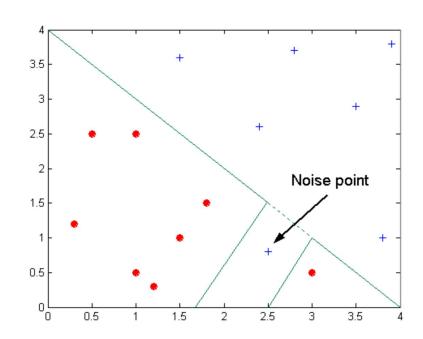




# **Overfitting**

#### Causes:

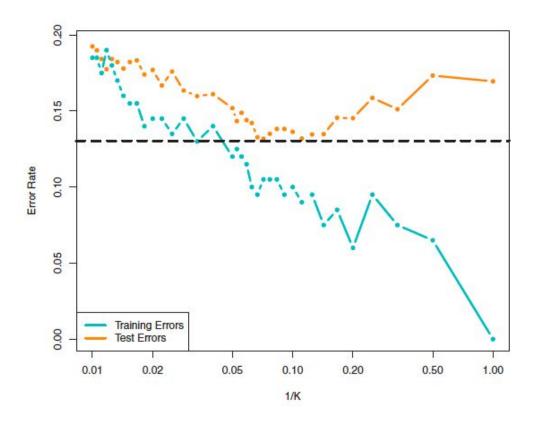
- Model fits too well to specific cases and doesn't generalize well
- 2) Model is over-sensitive to noise specific to the sample provided
- Model introduces too many variables/complexities than needed



Low Bias and High Flexibility



### **A Tale of Two Datasets**





Parsimonious (adj.) - unwilling to spend money or use resources; stingy, frugal.

In data science, it pays to be parsimonious. (Occam's Razor)





#### **Model Goals**

When training a model we want our models to:

- 1) Capture the trends and particularities of the training data
- 2) Generalize well to other samples of the population
- 3) Be moderately interpretable

The first two are especially difficult to do simultaneously!
The more sensitive the model, the less generalizable and vice versa



# **Question:**

Why is overfitting more difficult to control than underfitting?



### **Variance Reduction**

Avoiding overfitting is a variance reduction problem

Variance of the model is a function of the variances of each variable

- 1) Reduce the number of variables to use Subset Selection
- 2) Reduce the complexity of the model **Pruning**
- 3) Reduce the coefficients assigned to the variables Regularization

**Cross-validation** is used to test the relative predictive power of each set of parameters and subset of features.



### Validation - Traditional



About 30% of the training set was reserved as a validation set

Error on validation set served as a good estimate of the test error.

- Advantage: useful especially if a test-set is not available
- Disadvantage: reduces size of available training data



### **Cross Validation**

Set of validation techniques that uses the training dataset itself to validate model

- Advantage: allows maximum allocation of training data from original dataset
- Advances in processing power makes CV efficient

Cross validation is used to test the effectiveness of any model or its modified forms



## **Leave-p-Out Validation**



For each data point:

- Leave out p data points and train learner on the rest of the data.
- Compute the test error for the p data points.

Define average of these <sub>n</sub>C<sub>p</sub> error values as validation error



### K-fold Validation



Often used in practice with k=5 or k=10.

Create equally sized *k* partitions, or **folds**, of training data

#### For each fold:

- Treat the *k-1* other folds as training data.
- Test on the chosen fold.

The average of these errors is the validation error



# **Question:**

How are *k*-fold and leave-p-out different?



#### **Subset Selection**

- **Best subset selection:** Test all 2<sup>p</sup> subset selections for best one
- Forward subset selection
  - Iterate over k = 0 ... (p-1) predictors
  - At each stage, select the best model with (p-k) predictors
  - Find best model out of the p-1 selected candidates with CV
- Backward selection Reverse of forward subset selection
  - Start from p predictors and work down

In practice, best subset selection method is rarely used, why?



# Regularization

We defined our error up until now as:  $SS_{(residuals)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ 

Minimizing this equation on training data = minimizing **Training Loss.** 

To avoid overfitting, we add a penalty term independent of the data,

known as **Regularization** 

Error =  $(Training Loss)^2 + Regularization$ 

- Ridge Regression
- Lasso Regression



# **Ridge Regression**

Uses L<sub>2</sub> - regularization penalty:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2 = RSS + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j^2,$$

Lambda is the penalty threshold constant, and controls sensitivity

- Useful for non-sparse, correlated predictor variables
- Used when predictor variables have small individual effects
- Limits the magnitudes of the coefficient terms, but not to 0

# **Lasso Regression**

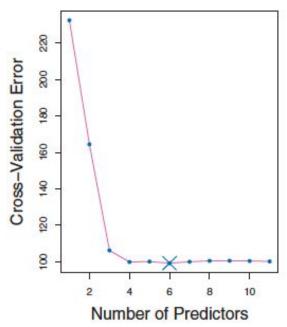
Uses L₁ - regularization penalty:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j| = RSS + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|.$$

Notice that the penalty term uses absolute, rather than the squares

- Useful for sparse, uncorrelated variables
- Used when there are few variables with medium to high effects
- Performs both shrinkage and feature selection(drives coefficients
  - to 0) when lambda sufficiently large

# **Training Accuracy vs Test Accuracy**



Regularization, cross-validation are all techniques to limit the model's sensitivity

- In practice, if CV error is high:
  - Compare with Training
  - If significantly lower
    - Raise penalty constant
    - Try different subset
    - Try different parameters



## **Regularization + CV Demo**

We'll compute the training error of a CART model.

We'll then use *k*-fold cross validation to get a good approximation of test error.

Finally, we'll compute the real test error.

Demo time!



# **Coming Up**

Your problem set: None

**Next week:** Things are going to get meta.

See you then!



