Lecture 003

Resampling

Edward Rubin

Admin

Admin

Class today

Review

- Regression and loss
- Classification
- KNN
- The bias-variance tradeoff

Resampling methods

- Cross validation �
- The bootstrap 👢

Admin

Upcoming

Readings

Today: ISL Ch. 5

Problem set

Regression and loss

For **regression settings**, the loss is our prediction's distance from truth, i.e.,

$$\operatorname{error}_i = \underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{y}}_i \qquad \operatorname{loss}_i = \left| \underline{y_i} - \hat{\underline{y}}_i \right| = \left| \operatorname{error}_i \right|$$

Depending upon our ultimate goal, we choose loss/objective functions.

$$egin{aligned} ext{L1 loss} &= \sum_i |y_i - \hat{y}_i| & ext{MAE} &= rac{1}{n} \sum_i |y_i - \hat{y}_i| \ ext{L2 loss} &= \sum_i \left(y_i - \hat{y}_i
ight)^2 & ext{MSE} &= rac{1}{n} \sum_i \left(y_i - \hat{y}_i
ight)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Whatever we're using, we care about **test performance** (*e.g.*, test MSE), rather than training performance.

Classification

For classification problems, we often use the test error rate.

$$rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(y_i
eq \hat{y}_i)$$

The Bayes classifier

- 1. predicts class j when $\Pr(y_0 = j | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_0)$ exceeds all other classes.
- 2. produces the **Bayes decision boundary**—the decision boundary with the lowest test error rate.
- 3. is unknown: we must predict $\Pr(y_0 = j | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_0)$.

KNN

K-nearest neighbors (KNN) is a non-parametric method for estimating

$$\Pr(\mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{j} | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_0)$$

that makes a prediction using the most-common class among an observation's "nearest" K neighbors.

- **Low values of K** (*e.g.*, 1) are exteremly flexible but tend to overfit (increase variance).
- **Large values of K** (*e.g.*, N) are very inflexible—essentially making the same prediction for each observation.

The optimal value of K will trade off between overfitting and accuracy.

The bias-variance tradeoff

Finding the optimal level of flexibility highlights the bias-variance tradeoff.

Bias The error that comes from inaccurately estimating f.

- More flexible models are better equipped to recover complex relationships (f), reducing bias. (Real life is seldom linear.)
- Simpler (less flexible) models typically increase bias.

Variance The amount \hat{f} would change with a different **training sample**

- If new **training sets** drastically change \hat{f} , then we have a lot of uncertainty about f (and, in general, $\hat{f} \not\approx f$).
- More flexible models generally add variance to f.

The bias-variance tradeoff

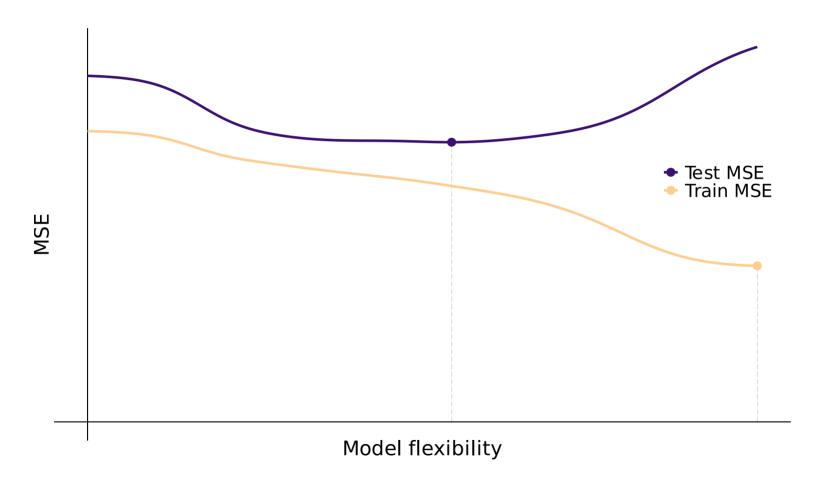
The expected value[†] of the **test MSE** can be written

$$E\left[\left(\mathbf{y_0} - \hat{f}\left(\mathbf{X}_0
ight)
ight)^2
ight] = \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}\!\left(\hat{f}\left(\mathbf{X}_0
ight)
ight)}_{\mathrm{Variance}} + \underbrace{\left[\mathrm{Bias}\left(\hat{f}\left(\mathbf{X}_0
ight)
ight)
ight]^2}_{\mathrm{Bias}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{Var}(arepsilon)}_{\mathrm{Irr.\ error}}$$

The tradeoff in terms of model flexibility

- Increasing flexibility from total inflexibility generally **reduces bias more** than it increases variance (reducing test MSE).
- At some point, the marginal benefits of flexibility **equal** marginal costs.
- Past this point (optimal flexibility), we **increase variance more** than we reduce bias (increasing test MSE).

U-shaped test MSE with respect to model flexibility (KNN here). Increases in variance eventually overcome reductions in (squared) bias.



Intro

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The process behind the magic of resampling methods:

- 1. Repeatedly draw samples from the training data.
- 2. **Fit your model**(s) on each random sample.
- 3. Compare model performance (or estimates) across samples.
- 4. Infer the variability/uncertainty in your model from (3).

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Warning₁ Resampling methods can be computationally intensive. Warning₂ Certain methods don't work in certain settings.

Today

Let's distinguish between two important modeling tasks:

- Model selection Choosing and tuning a model
- Model assessment Evaluating a model's accuracy

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- Model selection Choosing and tuning a model
- Model assessment Evaluating a model's accuracy

We're going to focus on two common **resampling methods**:

- 1. **Cross validation** used to estimate test error, evaluating performance or selecting a model's flexibility
- 2. **Bootstrap** used to assess accuracy—parameter estimates or methods

Hold out

Recall: We want to find the model that minimizes out-of-sample test error.

If we have a large test dataset, we can use it (once).

- Q, What if we don't have a test set?
- Q, What if we need to select and train a model?
- Q₃ How can we avoid overfitting our training[†] data during model selection?

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A_{1,2,3} **Hold-out methods** (*e.g.*, cross validation) use training data to estimate test performance—**holding out** a mini "test" sample of the training data that we use to estimate the test error.

[†] Also relevant for testing data.

Option 1: The validation set approach

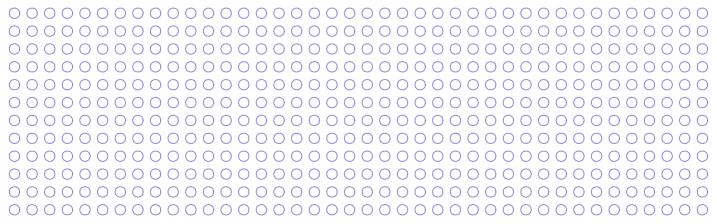
To estimate the **test error**, we can *hold out* a subset of our **training data** and then **validate** (evaluate) our model on this held out **validation set**.

- The validation error rate estimates the test error rate
- The model only "sees" the non-validation subset of the training data.

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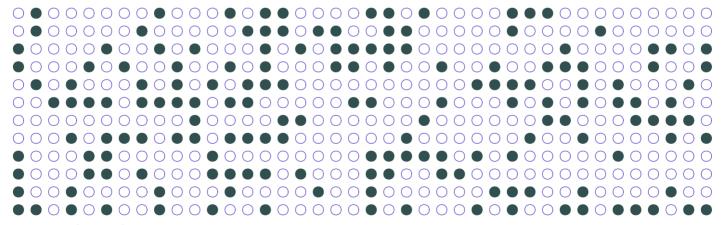


Initial training set

Option 1: The validation set approach

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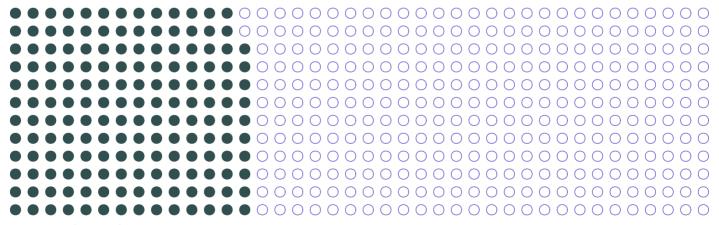
Validation (sub)set

Training set: Model training

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Example We could use the validation-set approach to help select the degree of a polynomial for a linear-regression model (Kaggle).

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The goal of the validation set is to **estimate** out-of-sample (test) error.

Q So what?

Option 1: The validation set approach

Example We could use the validation-set approach to help select the degree of a polynomial for a linear-regression model (Kaggle).

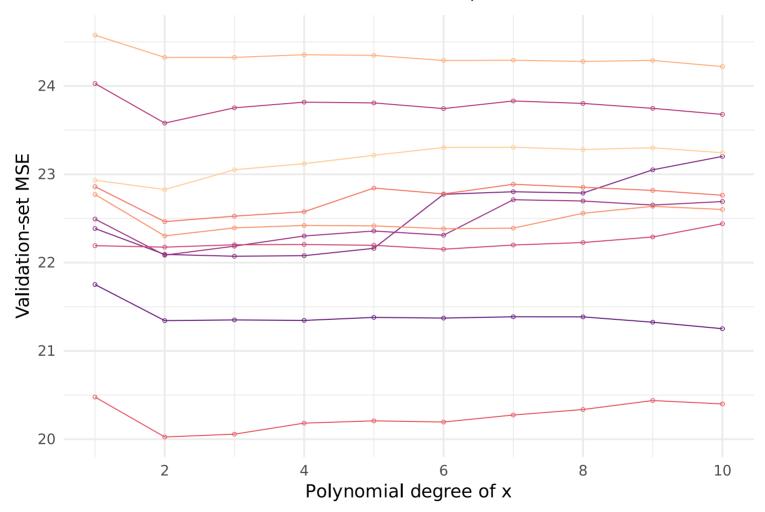
The goal of the validation set is to **estimate out-of-sample (test) error.**

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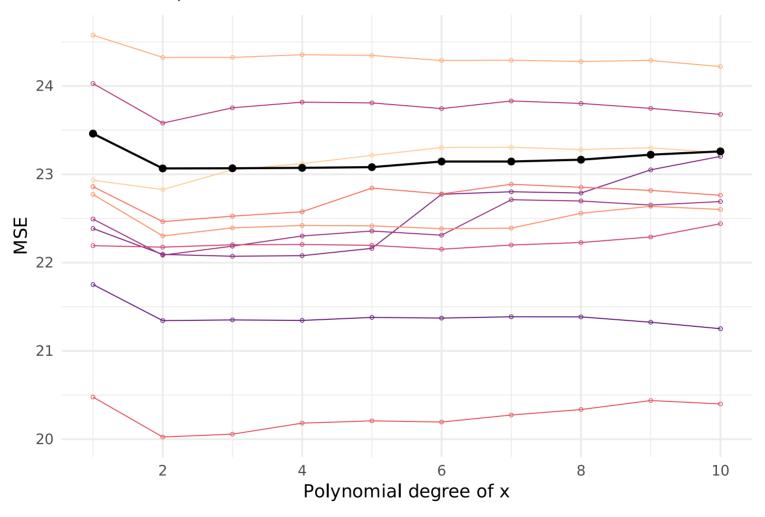
- Estimates come with **uncertainty**—varying from sample to sample.
- Variability (standard errors) is larger with smaller samples.

Problem This estimated error is often based upon a fairly small sample (<30% of our training data). So its variance can be large.

Validation MSE for 10 different validation samples



True test MSE compared to validation-set estimates



Option 1: The validation set approach

Put differently: The validation-set approach has (\geq) two major drawbacks:

- 1. **High variability** Which observations are included in the validation set can greatly affect the validation MSE.
- 2. **Inefficiency in training our model** We're essentially throwing away the validation data when training the model—"wasting" observations.

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Put differently: The validation-set approach has (\geq) two major drawbacks:

- 1. **High variability** Which observations are included in the validation set can greatly affect the validation MSE.
- 2. **Inefficiency in training our model** We're essentially throwing away the validation data when training the model—"wasting" observations.
- (2) \Rightarrow validation MSE may overestimate test MSE.

Even if the validation-set approach provides an unbiased estimator for test error, it is likely a pretty noisy estimator.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

Cross validation solves the validation-set method's main problems.

- Use more (= all) of the data for training (lower variability; less bias).
- Still maintains separation between training and validation subsets.

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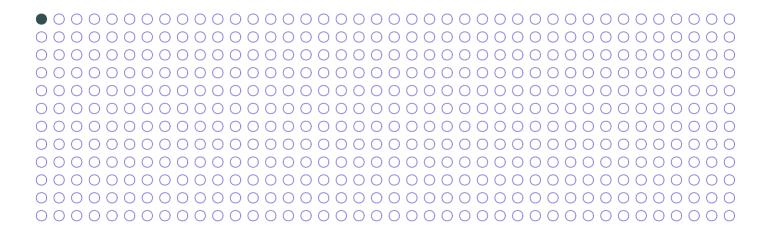
- Use more (= all) of the data for training (lower variability; less bias).
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Leave-one-out cross validation (LOOCV) is perhaps the cross-validation method most similar to the validation-set approach.

- Your validation set is exactly one observation.
- New You repeat the validation exercise for every observation.
- New Estimate MSE as the mean across all observations.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

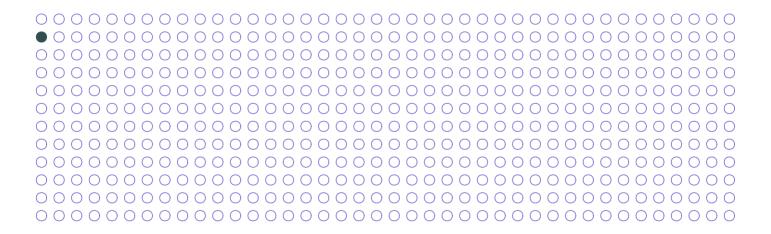
Each observation takes a turn as the **validation set**, while the other n-1 observations get to **train the model**.



Observation 1's turn for validation produces MSE₁.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

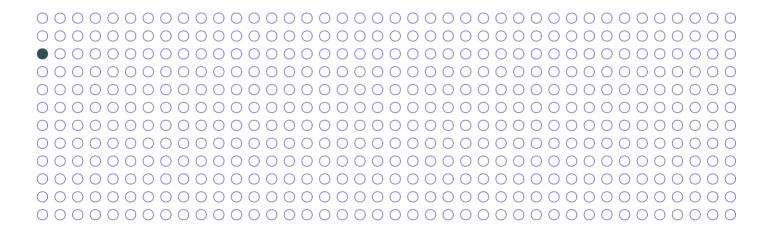
Each observation takes a turn as the **validation set**, while the other n-1 observations get to **train the model**.



Observation 2's turn for validation produces MSE₂.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

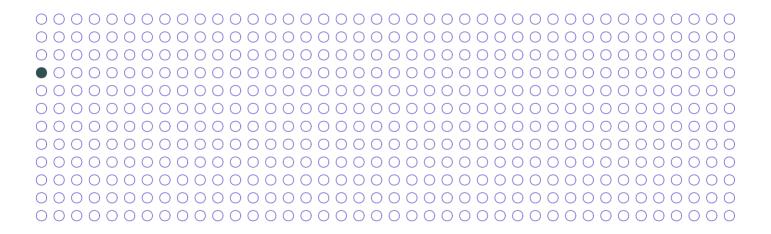
Each observation takes a turn as the **validation set**, while the other n-1 observations get to **train the model**.



Observation 3's turn for validation produces MSE₃.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

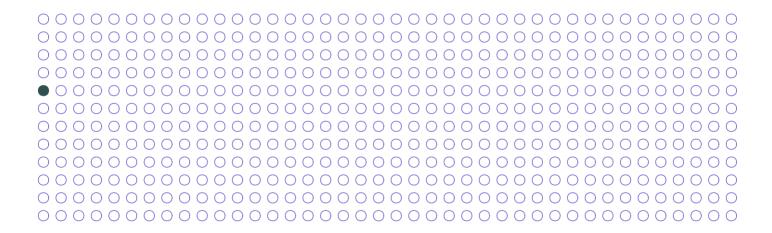
Each observation takes a turn as the **validation set**, while the other n-1 observations get to **train the model**.



Observation 4's turn for validation produces MSE₄.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

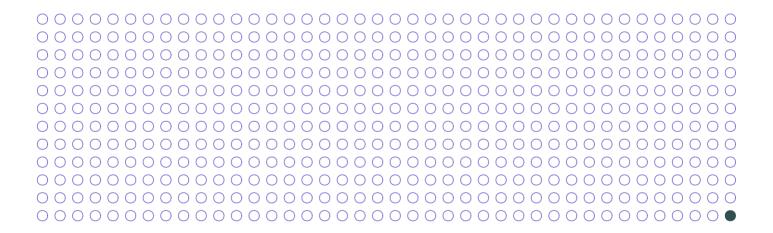
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Observation 5's turn for validation produces MSE₅.

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Observation n's turn for validation produces MSE_n.

Option 2: Leave-one-out cross validation

Because **LOOCV uses n-1 observations** to train the model,[†] MSE_i (validation MSE from observation i) is approximately unbiased for test MSE.

Problem MSE; is a terribly noisy estimator for test MSE (albeit ≈unbiased).

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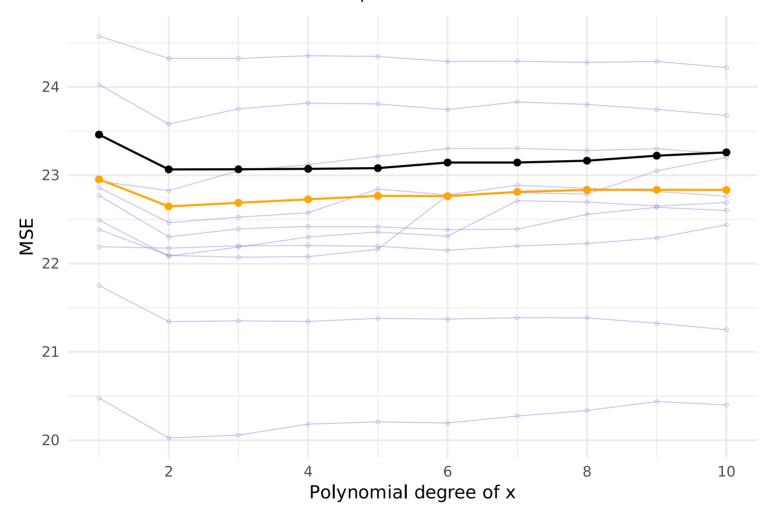
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- 1. LOOCV **reduces bias** by using n-1 (almost all) observations for training.
- 2. LOOCV **resolves variance**: it makes all possible comparisons (no dependence upon which validation-test split you make).

 $^{^{\}dagger}$ And because often n-1 ≈ n.

True test MSE and LOOCV MSE compared to validation-set estimates



Option 3: k-fold cross validation

Leave-one-out cross validation is a special case of a broader strategy: **k-fold cross validation**.

- 1. **Divide** the training data into k equally sized groups (folds).
- 2. **Iterate** over the k folds, treating each as a validation set once (training the model on the other k-1 folds).
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Benefits?

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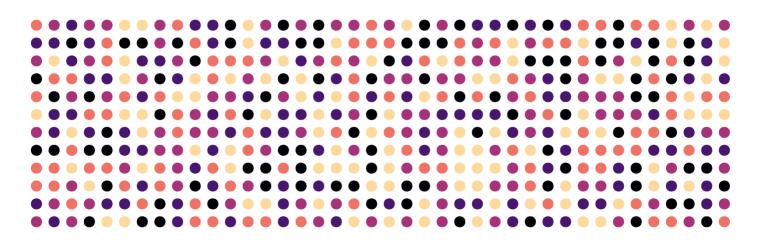
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With k-fold cross validation, we estimate test MSE as

$$ext{CV}_{(k)} = rac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k ext{MSE}_i.$$

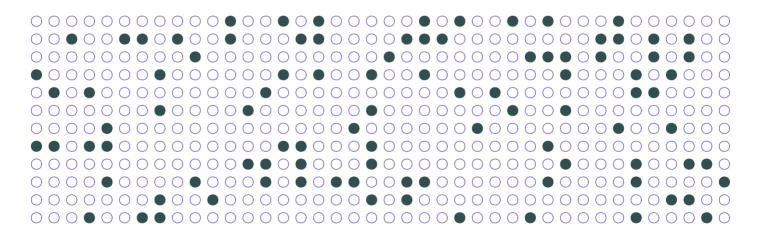


Our k = 5 folds.

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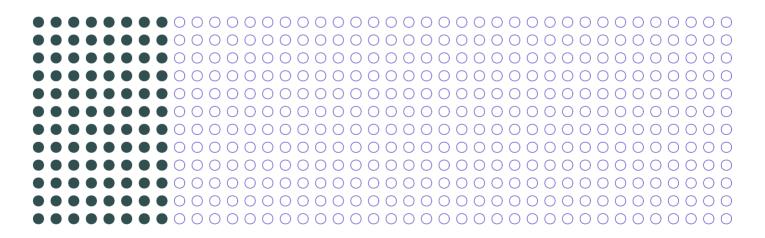


Each fold takes a turn at **validation**. The other k-1 folds **train**.

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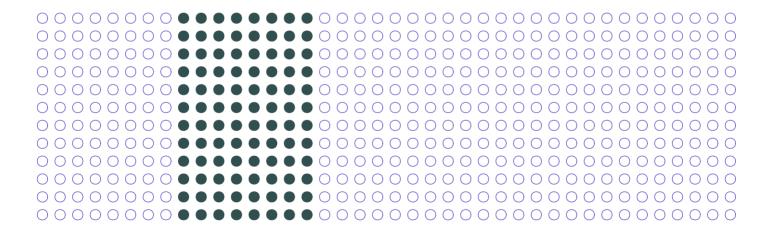


For k=5, fold number 1 as the **validation set** produces $MSE_{k=1}$.

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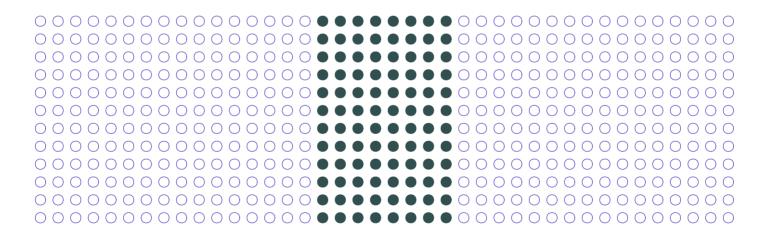


For k=5, fold number 2 as the **validation set** produces $MSE_{k=2}$.

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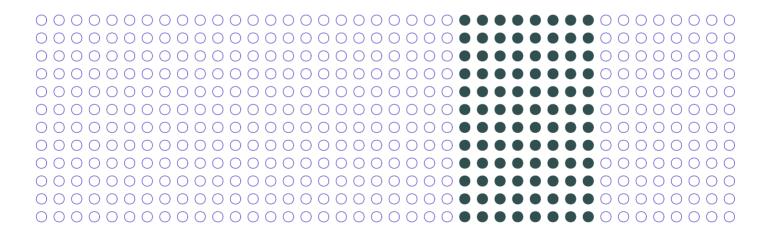


For k=5, fold number 3 as the **validation set** produces $MSE_{k=3}$.

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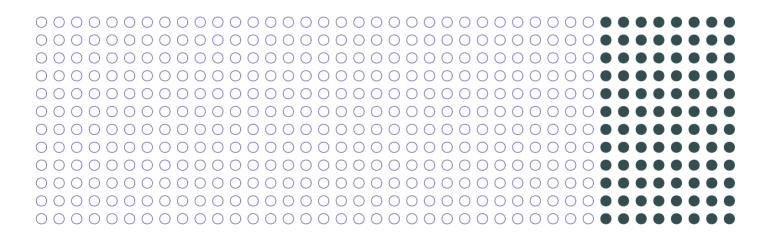


For k=5, fold number 4 as the **validation set** produces $MSE_{k=4}$.

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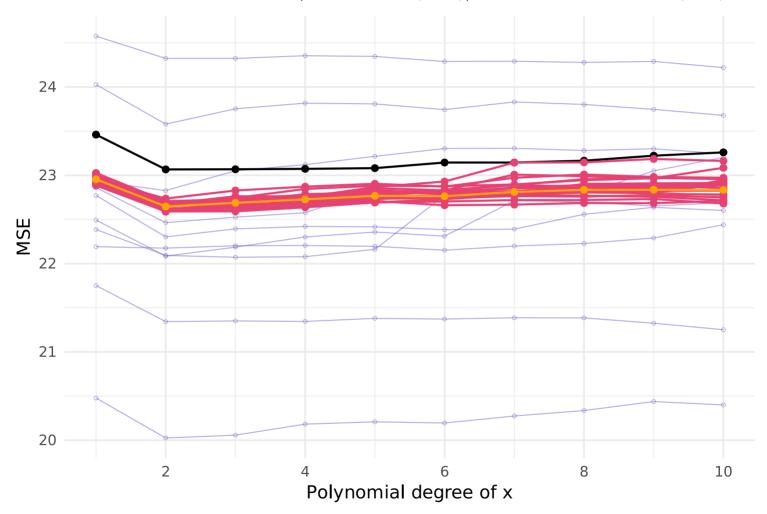
For k=5, fold number 5 as the **validation set** produces $MSE_{k=5}$.

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Test MSE vs. estimates: LOOCV, 5-fold CV (20x), and validation set (10x)



Note: Each of these methods extends to classification settings, e.g., LOOCV

$$ext{CV}_{(n)} = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(oldsymbol{y_i}
eq \hat{oldsymbol{y}}_i)$$

Caveat

So far, we've treated each observation as separate/independent from each other observation.

The methods that we've defined assume this **independence**.

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The methods that we've defined assume this **independence**.

Make sure that you think about

- the **structure** of your data
- the goal of the prediction exercise

E.g.,

- 1. Are you trying to predict the behavior of existing or new customers?
- 2. Are you trying to predict **historical** or **future** recessions?

Intro

The **bootstrap** is a resampling method often used to quantify the uncertainty (variability) underlying an estimator or learning method.

Hold-out methods

- randomly divide the sample into training and validation subsets
- train and validate ("test") model on each subset/division

Bootstrapping

- randomly samples with replacement from the original sample
- estimates model on each of the bootstrap samples

Intro

Estimating a estimate's standard error involves assumptions and theory.

There are times this derivation is difficult or even impossible, e.g.,

$$\operatorname{Var}\!\left(rac{\hat{eta}_1}{1-\hat{eta}_2}
ight)$$

The bootstrap can help in these situations.

Rather than deriving an estimator's variance, we use bootstrapped samles to build a distribution and then learn about the estimator's variance.

Intuition

Idea: Bootstrapping builds a distribution for the estimate using the variability embedded in the training sample.

Graphically

Z

7	8	
4	5	6
1	2	3

$$\hat{eta}=0.653$$



Graphically

Z

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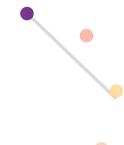
 $Z^{\star 1}$



$$\hat{eta}=0.653$$

$$\hat{eta} = -0.96$$





Graphically

Z

7	8	
4	5	6
1	2	3

 $Z^{\star 1}$

7		3
	3	8
3		

 $Z^{\star 2}$

	7	5
5	7	
4	1	7

$$\hat{eta}=0.653$$

$$\hat{eta} = -0.96$$

$$\hat{eta}=0.968$$







Graphically

Z

7	8	
4	5	6
1	2	3

 $Z^{\star 1}$



 $Z^{\star 2}$



 $Z^{\star B}$

8	2	1
	2	5
7	5	6

$$\hat{eta}=0.653$$



 $\hat{eta} = -0.96$

 $\hat{eta}=0.968$

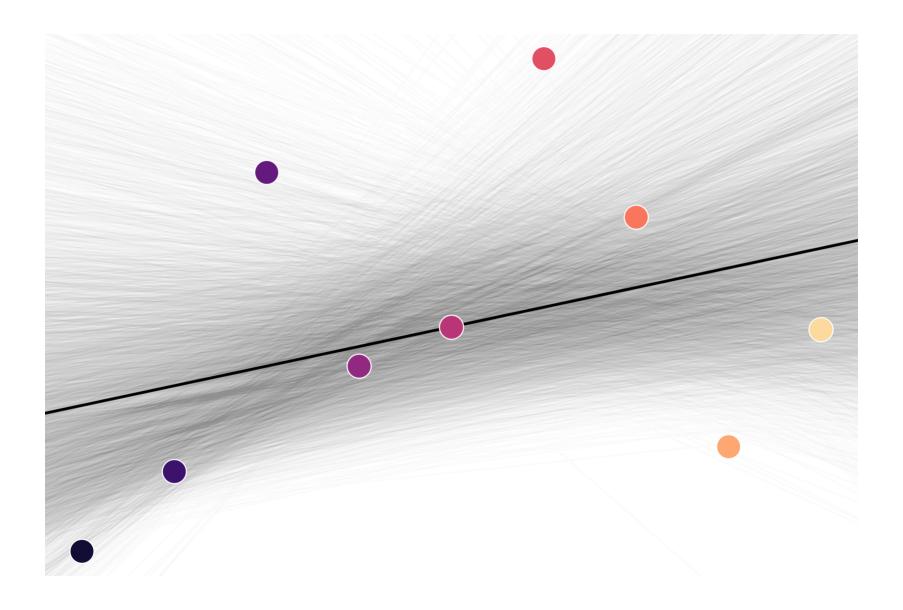


 $\hat{eta}=0.978$



Running this bootstrap 10,000 times

```
plan(multisession, workers = 10)
# Set a seed
set.seed(123)
# Run the simulation 1e4 times
boot df ← future map dfr(
  # Repeat sample size 100 for 1e4 times
  rep(n, 1e4),
  # Our function
  function(n) {
    # Estimates via bootstrap
    est \leftarrow lm(y \sim x, data = z[sample(1:n, n, replace = T), ])
    # Return a tibble
    data.frame(int = est$coefficients[1], coef = est$coefficients[2])
  },
  # Let furrr know we want to set a seed
  .options = furrr options(seed = TRUE)
```



Comparison: Standard-error estimates

The **bootstrapped standard error** of $\hat{\alpha}$ is the standard deviation of the $\hat{\alpha}^{\star b}$

$$ext{SE}_B(\hat{lpha}) = \sqrt{rac{1}{B}\sum_{b=1}^B \left(\hat{lpha}^{\star b} - rac{1}{B}\sum_{\ell=1}^B \hat{lpha}^{\star \ell}
ight)^2}$$

This 10,000-sample bootstrap estimates S.E. $(\hat{\beta}_1) \approx$ 0.77.

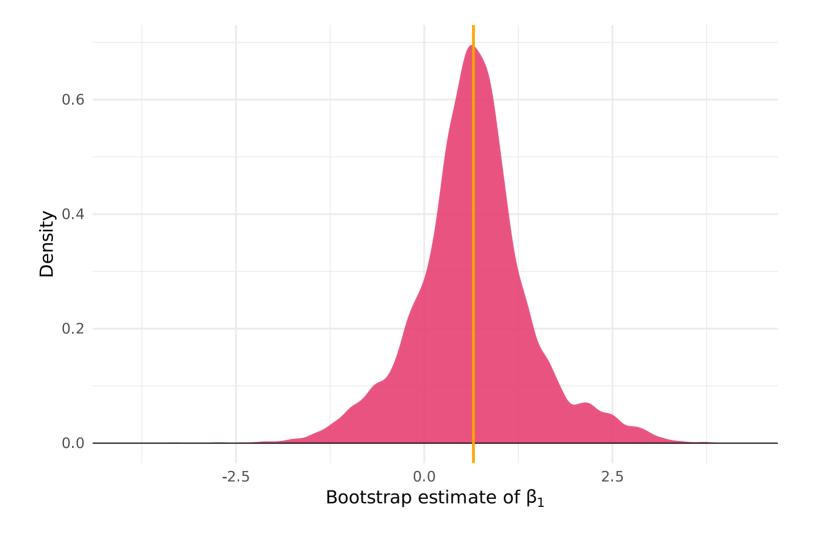
Comparison: Standard-error estimates

The **bootstrapped standard error** of $\hat{\alpha}$ is the standard deviation of the $\hat{\alpha}^{\star b}$

$$ext{SE}_B(\hat{lpha}) = \sqrt{rac{1}{B}\sum_{b=1}^B \left(\hat{lpha}^{\star b} - rac{1}{B}\sum_{\ell=1}^B \hat{lpha}^{\star \ell}
ight)^2}$$

This 10,000-sample bootstrap estimates **S.E.** $(\hat{\beta}_1) \approx 0.77$.

If we go the old-fashioned OLS route, we estimate 0.673.



Resampling

Review

Previous resampling methods

- Split data into **subsets**: n_v validation and n_t training $(n_v + n_t = n)$.
- Repeat estimation on each subset.
- Estimate the true test error (to help tune flexibility).

Bootstrap

- Randomly samples from training data **with replacement** to generate B "samples", each of size n.
- Repeat estimation on each subset.
- Estimate the variance estimate using variability across B samples.

Sources

These notes draw upon

- An Introduction to Statistical Learning (ISL)
 James, Witten, Hastie, and Tibshirani
- Python Data Science Handbook Jake VanderPlas

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