

Lecture 5: Bias-Variance Tradeoff; Regularization

TTIC 31020: Introduction to Machine Learning

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TTI-Chicago

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Administrivia

- Final Exam: Thursday, Dec 12, 1:30-3:30pm
- Problem set 1 due Friday (Oct 18) 8:00pm
- Office Hours:
 - Mondays 3-4pm (me, room 531)
 - Tuesdays 1-2pm (TA)
 - Wednesdays 3:30-4:30pm (TA)
 - Thursdays 3:30-4:30pm (TA)
 - TA office hours held in 4th floor commons
- Recitations:
 - Tues 3:30-4pm or Thurs 1:20-1:50pm (same material for both)
 - This week: working through problems involving regression and likelihood
 - Next week: working through problems involving optimization and constraints; going over problem set 1

Review: generalized linear regression

- Define a **feature map** $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$, train linear model in the feature space

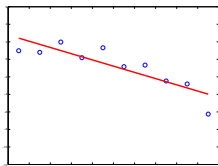
$$f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x})$$

- Can compute feature matrix to represent training data

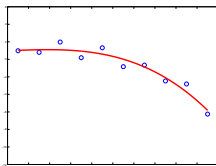
$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_1) & \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_2) & \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_2) & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_2) & \dots & \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_2) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_n) & \phi_1(\mathbf{x}_n) & \phi_2(\mathbf{x}_n) & \dots & \phi_m(\mathbf{x}_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

polynomial

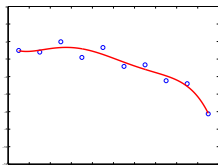
Review: overfitting and model complexity



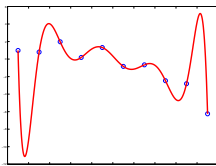
$$m = 1 : L = 1.4$$



$$m = 3 : L = 0.4$$



$$m = 5 : L = 0.3$$

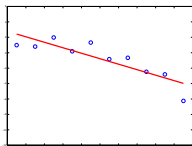


$$m = 10 : L = 0$$

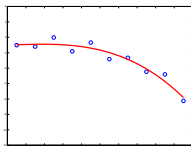
- More complex models (with more parameters) can fit the same number of examples “better”
- But may generalize less well – overfitting!

Review: detecting overfitting

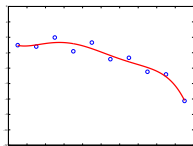
- Can detect overfitting by evaluating models on heldout val set
- Small data regime: cross-validation
 - Partition data into k folds;
 - For each fold, train on all but one part, test on that part;
 - Average test loss over k parts



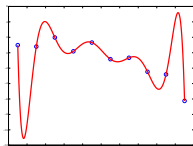
$$m = 1 : L = 1.4$$
$$\hat{L}_{cv} = 2.6$$



$$m = 3 : L = 0.4$$
$$\hat{L}_{cv} = 1.3$$



$$m = 5 : L = 0.3$$
$$\hat{L}_{cv} = 2.7$$



$$m = 10 : L = 0$$
$$\hat{L}_{cv} = 4 \times 10^4$$

**simpler model has
lower Loss**

Decomposition of error

- $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$: learned from training data $D = (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$
- \mathbf{w}^* : optimal linear regression parameters (generally unknown!),

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x}, y)} [(y - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2]$$

- Let's work with $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, y, D} [(y - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2]$:

**residuals
uncorrelated
with data \mathbf{x} :
but may be
dependent**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, y, D} [(y - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2] &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, y, D} [(y - \mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x})^2] \\ &\quad + 2\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, y, D} [(y - \mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x})(\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})] = 0 \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, y, D} [(\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2] \end{aligned}$$

- Second term vanishes since prediction errors $y - \mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x}$ are uncorrelated with *any* linear function of \mathbf{x} including $\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x}$

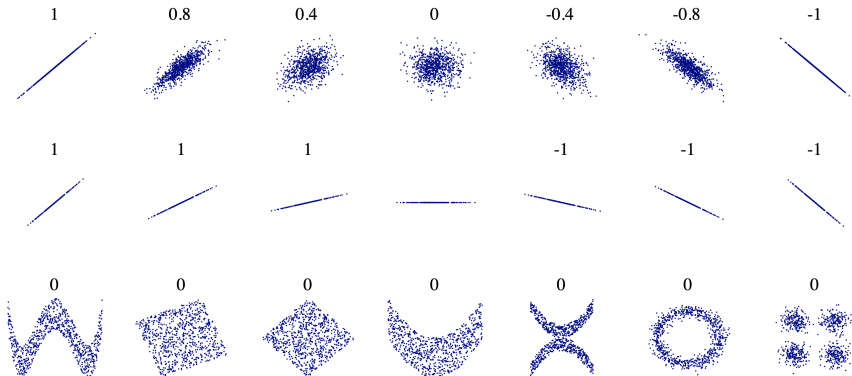
Decomposition of error

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},y,D} \left[(y - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 \right] = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},y} \left[(y - \mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 \right]}_{\text{approximation}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},y,D} \left[(\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 \right]}_{\text{estimation}}$$

- **Approximation error** $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},y} \left[(y - \mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 \right]$ measures inherent limitations of the chosen hypothesis class (linear function). This error will remain even with infinite training data.
- **Estimation error** $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},y,D} \left[(\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{w}} \cdot \mathbf{x})^2 \right]$ measures closeness to optimal \mathbf{w}^* of $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ estimated from (finite) training data.
- Note: since training data \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y} are random variables drawn from $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$, the estimated $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ is a random variable as well.

Pearson correlations of x, y points

Uncorrelated variables might not be independent (may show complex structural dependencies):



By DenisBoigelot, original uploader was Imagecreator, CC0,
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A bit of estimation theory

- An **estimator** $\hat{\theta}$ of a parameter θ is a function that for data $X = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ produces estimate (estimated value) $\hat{\theta}$
- Examples:
 - maximum likelihood (ML) estimator for a Gaussian mean, given X , produces an estimate (vector) $\hat{\mu}$
 - ML estimator for linear regression parameters \mathbf{w} under Gaussian noise model
- The estimate $\hat{\theta}$ is a random variable since it is based on a randomly drawn dataset X
- We can talk about $\mathbb{E}_X[\hat{\theta}]$ and $\text{var}(\hat{\theta})$ (When θ is a vector, we have $\text{Cov}(\hat{\theta})$.)
assume we know the true parameter value/ form of the data generating function
 - *Analysis done assuming that the data is distributed according to $p(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ where θ is the true parameter value!*

Bias of an estimator

- The **bias** of an estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is defined as

$$\text{bias}(\hat{\theta}) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_X[\hat{\theta} - \theta]$$

i.e., the expected deviation of the estimate from the true value (taken over all possible sets of n examples)

- An **unbiased** estimator therefore satisfies $\mathbb{E}_X[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$

- Example: ML estimators of 1D Gaussian parameters

$$\hat{\mu}_{ML} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i \quad \widehat{\sigma^2}_{ML} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2$$

- Turns out $\hat{\mu}$ is unbiased; however, $\widehat{\sigma^2}_{ML}$ *underestimates* the variance in the data!

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{\sigma^2}_{ML}] = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2$$

Consistency of an estimator

- With enough data, bias *may* not be so much of a problem.
- Consider an infinite sequence \mathbf{x}_1, \dots and define $\hat{\theta}_n$ an estimate obtained on $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$.
- An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is **consistent** if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\theta}_n = \theta$$

Note: this limit is **in probability**, i.e., the estimator converges in probability to the true value.

- The ML estimator is consistent (under certain conditions)
- So, $\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (x_i - \mu_{ML})^2$, even though biased, is a consistent estimator of σ^2

Bias-variance decomposition

- Consider squared loss: $(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$
- Denote $\bar{\theta} = \mathbb{E}_X[\hat{\theta}] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}]$. Expectations on this slide are taken with respect to distribution over samples X , so we'll drop the “ X ” subscript. Then, the expected error:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2] &= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta} + \bar{\theta} - \theta)^2] \\&= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta})^2] + 2(\bar{\theta} - \theta) \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta}]}_{=0} + \mathbb{E}[(\bar{\theta} - \theta)^2] \\&= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta} - \bar{\theta})^2] + (\bar{\theta} - \theta)^2 \quad \text{theta bar} = \mathbb{E}(\text{theta head}) \\&= \text{var}(\hat{\theta}) + \text{bias}^2(\hat{\theta})\end{aligned}$$

- Recall expected squared loss decomposition:
 - bias^2 term \Leftrightarrow approximation error
 - variance \Leftrightarrow estimation error due to finite data

Bias-variance tradeoff

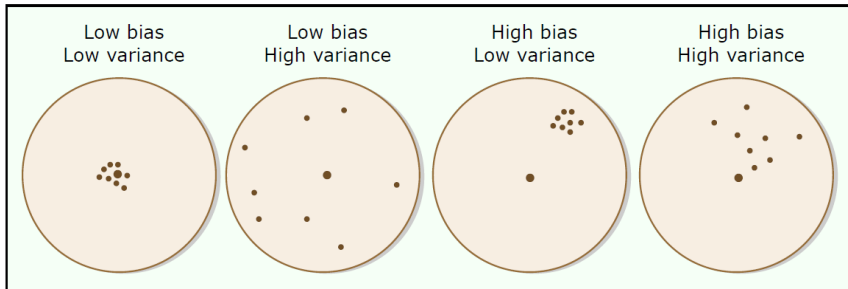


Image by MIT OpenCourseWare.

- Ideally, want to minimize bias and variance; turns out there is a tradeoff: lower bias generally corresponds to higher variance (cf. Cramer-Rao inequality)
- The objective in ML: find the “sweet spot”
- Major component in this struggle: model complexity

Estimation and regression

- The true model: $y = F(\mathbf{x}) + \nu$, zero-mean additive noise ν
- We approximate F by $\hat{f}_D \in \mathcal{F}$, with \hat{f}_D estimated from data D
- We have:

$$F = \operatorname{argmin}_f \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x}, y)} \left[(y - f(\mathbf{x}))^2 \right] \quad \text{best predictor}$$

$$f^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x}, y)} \left[(y - f(\mathbf{x}))^2 \right] \quad \text{best predictor in } \mathcal{F}$$

$$\hat{f}_D = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \sum_{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in D} (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2 \quad \text{predictor learned from } D$$

$$\bar{f} = \mathbb{E}_D \left[\hat{f}_D \right] \quad \text{average predictor}$$

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbb{E}_D \left[\hat{f}_D(\mathbf{x}_0) \right] \quad \text{applying } \bar{f} \text{ to } \mathbf{x}_0$$

Bias-variance in regression

- For a single \mathbf{x}_0 with true output y_0 and prediction $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$, $\mathbb{E}_D \left[(y_0 - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))^2 \right]$ can be decomposed (shown without proof):

$$\mathbb{E}_D \left[(y_0 - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))^2 \right] = (y_0 - \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))^2 + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_D \left[(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) - \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))^2 \right]}_{\text{variance}}$$

- The first term can be further decomposed (shown without proof):

$$(y_0 - \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))^2 = \underbrace{(y_0 - F(\mathbf{x}_0))^2}_{\text{noise}} + \underbrace{(F(\mathbf{x}_0) - \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))^2}_{\text{bias}^2}$$

- Can integrate all of this over \mathbf{x}_0, y_0 to get the *expected* bias and variance.

Bias-variance tradeoff

- We have

$$\mathbb{E}_D \left[(y - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2 \right] = \underbrace{(y - F(\mathbf{x}))^2}_{\text{noise}} + \underbrace{(F(\mathbf{x}) - \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2}_{\text{bias}^2} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_D \left[(\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}))^2 \right]}_{\text{variance}}$$

True average predictor predictor learned

- The noise term is *irreducible* (independent of data/model) will be there even if we know $p(y | \mathbf{x})$
- The bias² term is due to difference between f and F ; can address by changing f
- The variance is due to finite data; can address by getting more data
- Ideally, want to minimize bias and variance; can we drive both to zero?

Bias-variance tradeoff: theory

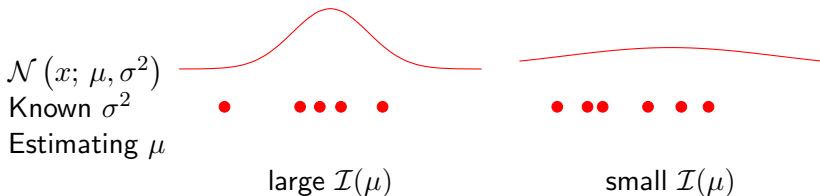
- **Cramer-Rao inequality:** for an unbiased estimator $\hat{\theta}_n$ and true parameter value θ ,

produce more
information, var
will be smaller

$$\text{var}(\hat{\theta}_n) \geq \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}} \left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\mathbf{X}; \theta) \right)^2 \right]}$$

have to
assume we
have model of
X

- The **Fisher information** $\mathcal{I}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}} \left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\mathbf{X}; \theta) \right)^2 \right]$ is related to the shape of $p(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$. Intuitively, it measures the amount of information the data **X** provides about a parameter with true value θ



Model complexity - theory

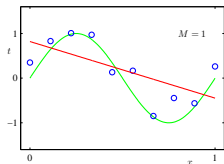
- Remember: we are talking about complexity of *model class*, not individual model!
- Basic intuition: model complexity = number of models in the class (assuming finite model class!)
- For model f , can measure empirical loss $L(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \ell(f; \mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$ on n examples
- Interested in risk $R(f) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}, y} [\ell(f; \mathbf{x}, y)]$
- Learning theory provides **generalization bounds** of the form

$$\Pr \left(\max_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |L(f) - R(f)| > \epsilon \right) \leq 2|\mathcal{F}|e^{-2n\epsilon^2}$$

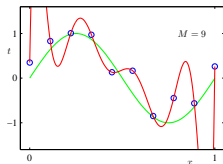
- If \mathcal{F} is infinite: $|\mathcal{F}|$ is replaced with another measure of complexity, e.g., VC-dimension
- Caution: bounds often very loose, hard to compute for interesting \mathcal{F}

Model complexity - intuition

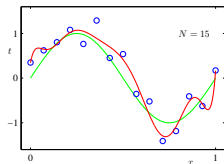
- Intuitively, the complexity of the model can be measured by the number of “degrees of freedom” (independent parameters).
- The more complex the model, the more data needed to fit
 \Rightarrow For a given number of points, a more complex model more likely to overfit.
- Example from Bishop: m -degree polynomial fit to n points



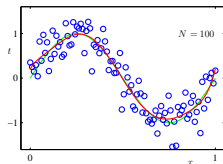
$$m = 1$$
$$n = 10$$



$$m = 9$$
$$n = 10$$



$$m = 9$$
$$n = 15$$



$$m = 9$$
$$n = 100$$

Penalizing model complexity

- Idea 1: restrict model complexity based on amount of data
 - Rule of thumb: approx. 10 examples per parameter
- Idea 2: directly penalize by the number of parameters
Akaike information criterion (AIC): maximize

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}; \hat{\mathbf{w}}) - \#\text{params}$$

- But: Definition of model complexity as a number of parameters is a bit too simplistic. Consider feature vector

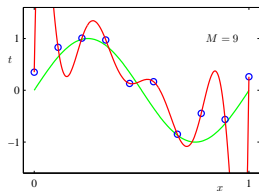
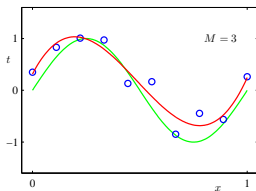
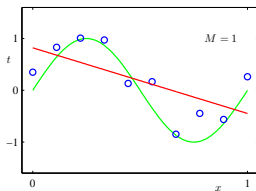
$$\phi(x) = \left[1 \quad x \quad -2x \quad 2x \quad x^2 \quad \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]$$

Does linear regression $\phi(x) \rightarrow y$ really have 6 parameters?

- Idea: look at the behavior of the values of \mathbf{w}^*

Linear regression complexity

- Example: polynomial regression [from Bishop, Ch. 1]



- Value of the optimal (ML) regression coefficients:

	$m = 0$	$m = 1$	$m = 3$	$m = 9$
w_0^*	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
w_1^*		-1.27	7.99	232.37
w_2^*			-25.43	-5321.83
w_3^*			17.37	48568.31
w_4^*				-231639.30
w_5^*				640042.26
w_6^*				-1061800.52
w_7^*				1042400.18
w_8^*				-557682.99
w_9^*				125201.43

The weight are too large. cannot generalized well

Description length

- Intuition: should penalize not the parameters, but the number of bits required to encode the parameters
- We can limit the effective number of degrees of freedom by restricting the values of the parameters
- Note: this argument assumes finite precision (e.g., in a computer)
- Then we have penalized log-likelihood:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(\text{data}_i; \mathbf{w}) - \text{penalty}(\mathbf{w}) \right\}$$

- Equivalently, penalized ERM:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(\text{data}_i; \mathbf{w}) + \text{penalty}(\mathbf{w}) \right\}$$

Shrinkage methods

- Shrinkage methods impose penalty on the size of **w** The value
- Can measure “size” in different ways. Let us start with L_2 norm:

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ridge}}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(\text{data}_i; \mathbf{w}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \right\}$$

in regression “data_{*i*}” = $y_i | \mathbf{x}_i$

- This is **ridge regression**; λ is the **regularization** parameter
- Does it matter that log-likelihood is not averaged?

can be
differentiated
directly, so
this is more
widely used

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ - \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(\text{data}_i; \mathbf{w}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \right\}$$

vs.

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(\text{data}_i; \mathbf{w}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \right\}$$

Ridge regression

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ridge}}^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^m w_j^2 \right\}$$

problem:
setting lambda

- Recall: $\mathbf{w} = [w_0, w_1, \dots, w_m]$
- Usually do not include w_0 in regularization (why?)
- Closed form solution:

XTX

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{\text{ridge}}^* = \left(\lambda \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}.$$

- Careful: solution *not* invariant to scaling! Should normalize input before solving.

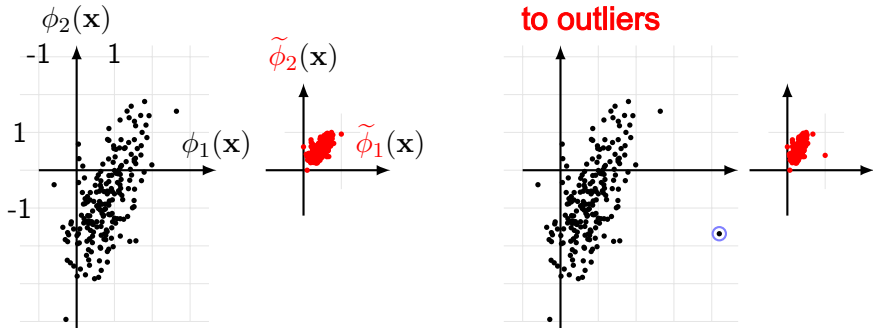
Digression: feature normalization

- Feature normalization: bring features to common scale
- Often a good idea to ensure good numerical behavior (even if not strictly needed mathematically)
- Box normalization: $\forall j : \tilde{\phi}_j(\mathbf{x}) \in [0, 1]$. Procedure:

limit them in a comparable space

$$\tilde{\phi}_j(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\phi_j(\mathbf{x}) - \min_i \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i)}{\max_i \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i) - \min_i \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i)}$$

this normalization is sensible to outliers



Digression: feature normalization

- z -scoring: $\forall j$, $\tilde{\phi}_j(\mathbf{x})$ is zero-mean, unit variance over i

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i), \quad \sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (\phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i) - \mu_j)^2,$$

$$\tilde{\phi}_j(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\phi_j(\mathbf{x}) - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2}} \quad \text{better}$$

