Lecture 19 and 20: MATH 342W: Introduction to Data Science and Machine Learning

Sergio E. Garcia Tapia*

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R Demo

See QC_MATH_342W_Spring_2025/practice_lectures/lec19.Rmd.

Bias-Variance Tradeoff for Regression

Randomness in Ignorance

Let $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$ and $y = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \delta$, where \boldsymbol{x} is a constant. We will make the following two assumptions:

(I) **Zero mean-centered and mean independent**: δ is a realization from Δ , a random variable which is mean-independent and mean zero. That is,

$$\forall \boldsymbol{x} : \mathbb{E}[\Delta \mid \boldsymbol{x}] = 0 \implies \mathbb{E}[\Delta] = 0 \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$ denotes expectation.

(II) **Homoskedasticity**: i.e., constant variance:

$$\forall \boldsymbol{x} : \sigma^{2} := \operatorname{Var}[\Delta \mid \boldsymbol{x}]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[\Delta^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}] - (\mathbb{E}[\Delta \mid \boldsymbol{x}])^{2}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[\Delta^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}]$$
(by (I))

See Figure 1. If δ is random from Δ , then y is also random from Y, so

$$Y = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \Delta \tag{3}$$

and hence

$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid \boldsymbol{x}] = \mathbb{E}[f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \Delta \mid \boldsymbol{x}]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[f(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}] + \mathbb{E}[\Delta \mid \boldsymbol{x}]$$

$$= f(\boldsymbol{x})$$
 (by (I))

^{*}Based on lectures of Dr. Adam Kapelner at Queens College. See also the course GitHub page.

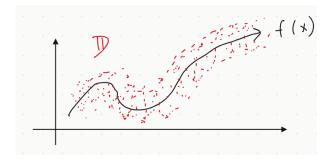


Figure 1: Depiction of zero mean-centered and mean independent Δ , and homoskedasticity.

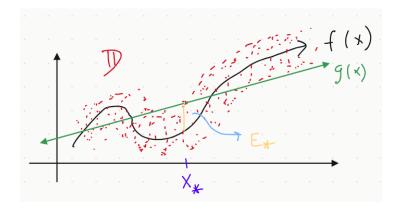


Figure 2: Depiction of random variable E_*

Thus we call f the **conditional expectation function (CEF)**. Let g be a fitted model with \mathbb{D} , meaning

$$y = g + e = g + \underbrace{(f - g) + \delta}^{e}$$
$$e = f - g + \delta$$

Here e is the residual, which has both misspecification and estimation. By Equation 1, we can say e is a realization of a random variable E

$$Y = g + \overbrace{(f - g) + \Delta}^{E}$$

$$E = Y - g$$

Let's predict on a new observation x_* :

$$Y_* = g(x_*) + f(x_*) - g(x_*) + \Delta_*$$

Then the associated error is

$$E_* = f(\mathbf{x}_*) - g(\mathbf{x}_*) + \Delta_* = Y_* - g \tag{4}$$

See Figure 2 Define the **bias** to be

$$\operatorname{Bias}(\boldsymbol{x}_*) := \mathbb{E}[E_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] \tag{5}$$

Then using Equation 4

$$\mathbb{E}[E_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] = \mathbb{E}[f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*) + \Delta_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*]$$

$$= f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*) + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\Delta_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*]}_{0}$$

$$= f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)$$

$$= f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)$$
(by 1)

where \mathbb{E} is expectation on Δ_* since that is what is random. Hence we have

$$Bias(\boldsymbol{x}_*) = f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)$$
(6)

Define Mean-Squared Error (MSE) by

$$MSE(\boldsymbol{x}_*) := \mathbb{E}[E_*^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] \tag{7}$$

which we can simplify to

$$\mathbb{E}[E_*^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] = \mathbb{E}[(Y_* - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*))^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[Y_*^2 - 2g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)Y_* + g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[Y_*^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] - 2g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)\mathbb{E}[Y_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] + g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)^2 \qquad (g \text{ is not random in } \boldsymbol{x}_*)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[(f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) + \Delta_*)^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] - 2g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)\mathbb{E}[f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) + \Delta_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*] + g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)^2 \qquad (\text{since } Y_* = f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) + \Delta_*)$$

$$= f(\boldsymbol{x}_*)^2 + 2f(\boldsymbol{x}_*)\underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\Delta_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}]}_0 + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\Delta_*^2 \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*]}_{\sigma^2} - 2g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}(\Delta_* \mid \boldsymbol{x}_*)}_0 + g(\boldsymbol{x}_*)^2 \qquad (f \text{ is not random in } \boldsymbol{x}_*)$$

$$= \sigma^2 + (f(\boldsymbol{x}_*) - g(\boldsymbol{x}_*))^2 \qquad (\text{by 1 and 2})$$

$$= \sigma^2 + (\text{Bias}[\boldsymbol{x}_*])^2 \qquad (\text{by 6})$$

If $g(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$, then the only error is σ^2 , called the **irreducible error**. This comes from Δ , which we don't know. Recall bias results from misspecification and estimation.

Allowing Randomness in Responses

Suppose now that \mathbb{D} is random. Then y_1, \ldots, y_n are realized are from Y_1, \ldots, Y_n via $\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_n$, but $\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n$ are constant. We make a third assumption, in addition to 1 and 2:

(III)
$$\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_n$$
 are independent

What's different? The realizations of Δ are different, which means the models are different. There are uncountably-infinitely many data sets; what changes is the offset from f(x). In the real world, you see one data set \mathbb{D} , and you would construct one g(x). Each will be different because g is a function of the algorithm, and since \mathbb{D} is random, g is in fact a realization of a corresponding random G:

$$G = \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D}, \mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{A}(\langle X, \vec{Y} \rangle, \mathcal{H})$$

where \vec{Y} is a (vector) random variable since \mathbb{D} is random. Now consider the Mean-Squared Error again, defined as in 7. In the following, $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}$ means expectation involving

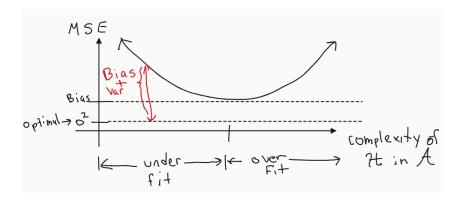


Figure 3: Depiction of bias-variance decomposition.

randomness in \mathbb{D} (as a consequence of randomness in $\Delta_1, \ldots, \Delta_n$), while \mathbb{E}_{Δ_*} means expectation involving randomness in Δ_* :

$$MSE[\boldsymbol{x}_{*}] := \underset{\Delta_{*},\mathbb{D}}{\mathbb{E}}[(Y_{*} - G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}))^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X]$$

$$= \underset{\Delta_{*},\mathbb{D}}{\mathbb{E}}[Y_{*}^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] - 2 \underset{\Delta_{*},\mathbb{D}}{\mathbb{E}}[Y_{*} \cdot G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] + \underset{\Delta_{*},\mathbb{D}}{\mathbb{E}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\Delta_{*}}[Y_{*}^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] - 2\mathbb{E}_{\Delta_{*}}[Y_{*} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] \cdot \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X]$$
(by independence, and Y_{*} only random in Δ_{*} , G only random in \mathbb{D})
$$= \sigma^{2} + f(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})^{2} - 2f(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})^{2} \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] \text{ (by 3, 1, 2)}$$

$$= \sigma^{2} + f(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})^{2} - 2f(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X] + (\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X])^{2} + \text{Var}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X]$$
(by $\text{Var}[U] = \mathbb{E}[U^{2}] - \mathbb{E}[U]^{2}$)
$$= \sigma^{2} + (f(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X])^{2} + \text{Var}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X]$$
(by $(a - b)^{2} = a^{2} - 2ab + b^{2}$)
$$= \sigma^{2} + (\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{D}}[f(\boldsymbol{x}_{*} - G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X])^{2} + \text{Var}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}) \mid \boldsymbol{x}_{*}, X]$$
(f is not random on \mathbb{D})
$$= \sigma^{2} + (\text{Bias}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})])^{2} + \text{Var}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})]$$

In summary, we have

$$MSE[\boldsymbol{x}_*] = \sigma^2 + (Bias[G(\boldsymbol{x}_*)])^2 + Var[G(\boldsymbol{x}_*)]$$
(8)

Equation 8 is called the **Bias-Variance decomposition**, or **Bias-Variance trade-off**. Intrigued by the name, it is natural to ask whether there is in fact a trade-off between bias and variance, and in what sense.

- If you define "trade-off" as a *zero-sum game*, then the answer is no, since there are algorithms \mathcal{A} that reduce both bias and variance simultaneously.
- If by "trade-off" you instead mean *decomposition*, then yes, there is a "trade-off", as both terms appear in Equation 8.

See Figure 3.

Allowing Randomness in Covariates

We make another generalization: randomness in the \mathbf{x} 's. Thus, further assume $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_*$ are random, drawn from random variable \vec{X} . Before, we calculated the MSE over a fixed

 \boldsymbol{x} , but now, we do so over all observations:

$$MSE := \mathbb{E}_{\vec{X}}[MSE[\boldsymbol{x}]]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\vec{X}}[\sigma^2 + (\text{Bias}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_*)])^2 + \text{Var}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_*)]] \qquad \text{(by 8)}$$

$$= \sigma^2 + \mathbb{E}_{\vec{X}}[(\text{Bias}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_*)])^2] + \mathbb{E}_{\vec{X}}[\text{Var}[G(\boldsymbol{x}_*)]] \qquad (9)$$

Equation 9 is the general version of the Bias-Variance Decomposition.

How can we reduce the values of the last two terms in Equation 9? We can make the bias 0 by making \mathcal{H} complex, effectively overfitting. Hence, bias would decrease, but the variance term will in increase. Recall setting (I) of our model selection procedure, where we have M pre-specified modeling procedures and we choose the optimal m_* . Consider the **model average** (also called **model averaging**):

$$g_{avg} := \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} g_m}{m}$$

This can be smart if all M models are known to be good, since this can reduce variation. On the down side, we give up interpretability (suppose, for example, they were linear models). Let's examine the bias-variance decomposition for g_{avg} (hereby we use G_{avg} , since g_{avg} is realized from it):

$$MSE := \sigma^{2} + \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Bias}[G_{avg}(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})]^{2}] + \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Var}[G_{avg}(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})]]$$

$$= \sigma^{2} + \mathbb{E}\left[\left(f - \frac{G_{1} + \dots + G_{M}}{M}\right)^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{Var}\left[\frac{G_{1} + \dots + G_{M}}{M}\right]\right] \qquad \text{(by 5)}$$

$$= \sigma^{2} + \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{(f - G_{1}) + \dots + (f - G_{M})}{M}\right)^{2}\right] + \frac{1}{M^{2}} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{Var}\left[G_{1} + \dots + G_{M}\right]\right] \qquad (10)$$

In our first attempt to simplify this expression, we make the following assumptions:

- (i) The bias of each model is the same: $Bias[G_1] = \cdots = Bias[G_M]$.
- (ii) The models G_1, \ldots, G_M are independent.
- (iii) The variance of each model is the same: $Var[G_1] = \cdots = Var[G_M]$.

Then continuing from Equation 10:

$$MSE = \sigma^2 + \mathbb{E}[(\text{Bias}[G_1])^2] + \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{M} \cdot \text{Var}[G_1]\right]$$
 (by (i) and (iii))
 $\to \sigma^2$ (let $M \to \infty$ and use \mathcal{H} to overfit)

What do we make of this? Assumption (ii) said that we have independent models, which is fake! Moreover, in the real world, we have one data set \mathbb{D} , and one g, so the g's cannot be independent. However the fact that we eliminated bias by overfitting is reasonable. We need to come up with a reasonable way to reduce the variance term that does not use assumption (ii).

Review of Correlation and Covariance

Recall from introductory probability that the **covariance** of a pair of random variables X_i and X_j is given by

$$\sigma_{ij} := \operatorname{Cov}[X_i, X_j] := \mathbb{E}[X_i \cdot X_j] - \mu_i \mu_j$$

Meanwhile, the **correlation** of random variables X_i and X_j is given by

$$\rho := \operatorname{Corr}[X_i, X_j] := \frac{\operatorname{Cov}[X_i, X_j]}{\operatorname{SD}[X_i] \cdot \operatorname{SD}[X_j]}$$

where SD stands for standard deviation, and $\mu_i = \mathbb{E}[X_j]$. The covariance is a measure of how much X_i and X_j change together, yielding a positive value if both tend to increase together, and negative if both tend to decrease together. The correlation ρ is a normalized version of covariance, with $\rho \in [-1, 1]$.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be random variables. Assume σ_{ij} is the same for all ordered pairs $i \neq j$ (of which there are $n^2 - n$), and that $\sigma^2 = \sigma_1^2 = \cdots = \sigma_n^2$. Then

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma^2} \tag{11}$$

Define the mean of the given random variables

$$\overline{X} := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}{n}$$

Then

$$\operatorname{Var}[\overline{X}] = \frac{1}{n^2} \operatorname{Var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Var}[X_i] + \sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{Cov}[X_i, X_j] \right) \qquad \text{(derived in intro probability)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \left(n\sigma^2 + (n^2 - n)\sigma_{ij} \right) \qquad \text{(assuming equal } \sigma_{ij} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left(\sigma^2 + (n - 1)\sigma^2 \rho \right) \qquad \text{(by 11)}$$

$$= \sigma^2 \rho + \frac{\sigma^2 (1 - \rho)}{n}$$

In summary, if σ_{ij} is the same for all X_i, X_j , and their variances are all equal, we have

$$Var[\overline{X}] = \sigma^2 \rho + \frac{\sigma^2 (1 - \rho)}{n}$$
(12)

Dependent Models

Continuing to assume equal bias for models G_1, \ldots, G_M , that the bias of each model is the same, and adding the new assumption that the covariance of each pair of models is the same:

$$MSE := \sigma^2 + \mathbb{E}[\text{Bias}[G_{avg}(\boldsymbol{x}_*)]^2] + \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}[G_{avg}(\boldsymbol{x}_*)]]$$

$$= \sigma^{2} + \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Bias}[G_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})]^{2}] + \mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{Var}[G_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}_{*})] \cdot \rho + \frac{\operatorname{Var}[G_{1}] \cdot (1 - \rho)}{M}\right] \quad \text{(by 12)}$$

$$\to \sigma^{2} + \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Bias}[G_{1}]] + \mathbb{E}[\rho \cdot \operatorname{Var}[G_{1}]] \quad \text{(let } M \to \infty)$$

$$\to \sigma^{2} + \rho \cdot \mathbb{E}[\cdot \operatorname{Var}[G_{1}]] \quad \text{(let } \mathcal{A} \text{ overfit)}$$

$$< \sigma^{2} + \mathbb{E}[\cdot \operatorname{Var}[G_{1}]] \quad \text{(since } \rho \leq 1, \text{ plus assume } \rho > 0)$$

The last equation is the MSE for one overfit model, whereas the equation that precedes it is the MSE for M overfit models. We cannot make the models independent, but can we make them dependent such that their dependence is nontrivially less than 1? This would help reduce the error in the variance term.

Bootstrap Aggregation

In 1994, **Bootstrap Aggregation (Bagging)** was invented by Breiman. How do we make ρ smaller than, say, 0.9? Even better, smaller than 0.2, which would be close to the theoretical minimum for the MSE (which is σ^2)?

Let's sample the results of \mathbb{D} a total of n times with replacement where n is the number of data points in \mathbb{D} . The probability that a given row is chosen on any given try is $\frac{1}{n}$, and hence the probability that it is omitted is $\frac{n-1}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$. Thus, the probability that a given row is omitted in all n tries is

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \approx \frac{1}{e} \approx \frac{1}{3}$$

This is called a **bootstrap sample**. Let's take M bootstrap samples. With this we can compute M overfit models

$$g_1 = \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D}_1, \mathcal{H}), \dots, g_M = \mathcal{A}(\mathbb{D}_M, \mathcal{H})$$

Then we use the average of them, g_{avg} . Since all g's are built from the same \mathbb{D} , they will be a little correlated, and yet they will all be a little different because they are built from a different \mathbb{D}_m . Thus ρ will not be zero and will be a little less than 1. Typically, we bag trees with small N_0 (for example $N_0 = 1$), and we let M be as large as practically allowable.