

# What You See May Not be What You Get – A Brief Introduction to Overfitting

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# The problem of overfitting

- Overfitting: an old problem since 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Generally recognized to be a violation of Ockham's razor (*All other things being equal, the simplest solution is the best* – 14<sup>th</sup> century logician William of Ockham).
- Definition of overfitting: fitting a statistical model with too many degrees of freedom in the modelling process.
- Conclusion: overfitting makes you too optimistic about the performance of your model. Overfitting costs money.

# Causes of overfitting

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- Model is too complex (too many predictors).
- Training data too noisy.
- Model being refined over time with ever increasing data inputs.
- Training set too small.
- A very rich hypothesis space.

# Phenomena of overfitting

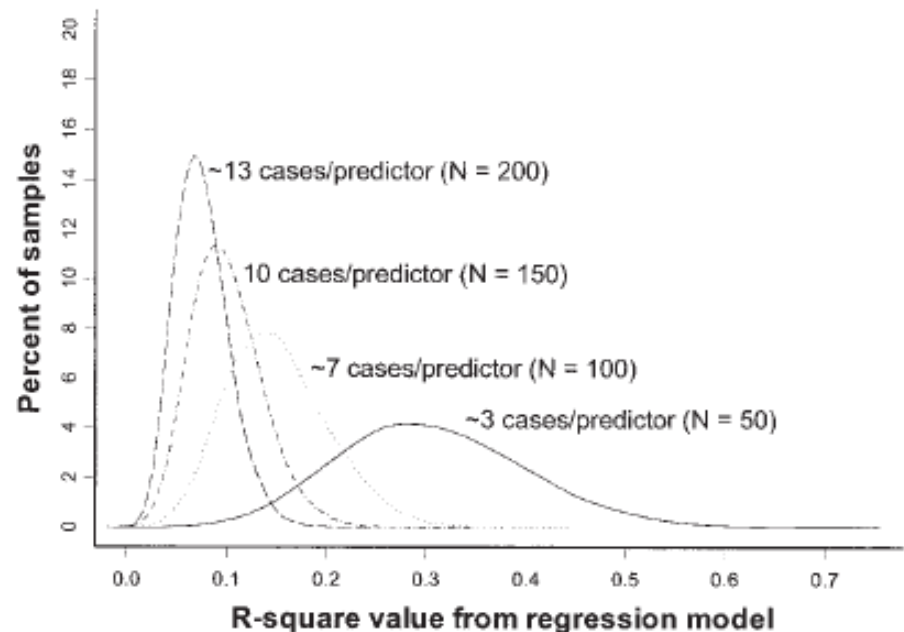
- Exaggerate minor fluctuations in the data
- A complex model may fit the noise, not just the signal (real underlying relationship)

simulation study:

one outcome,

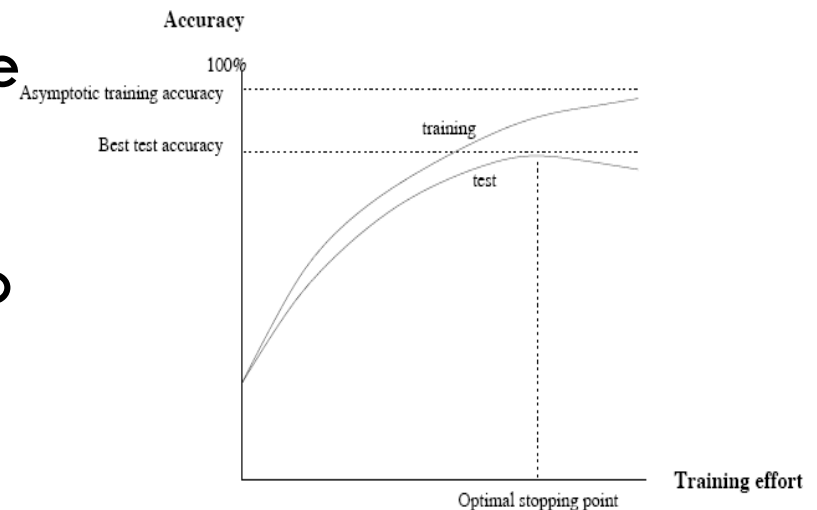
15 predictors

multiple regression model

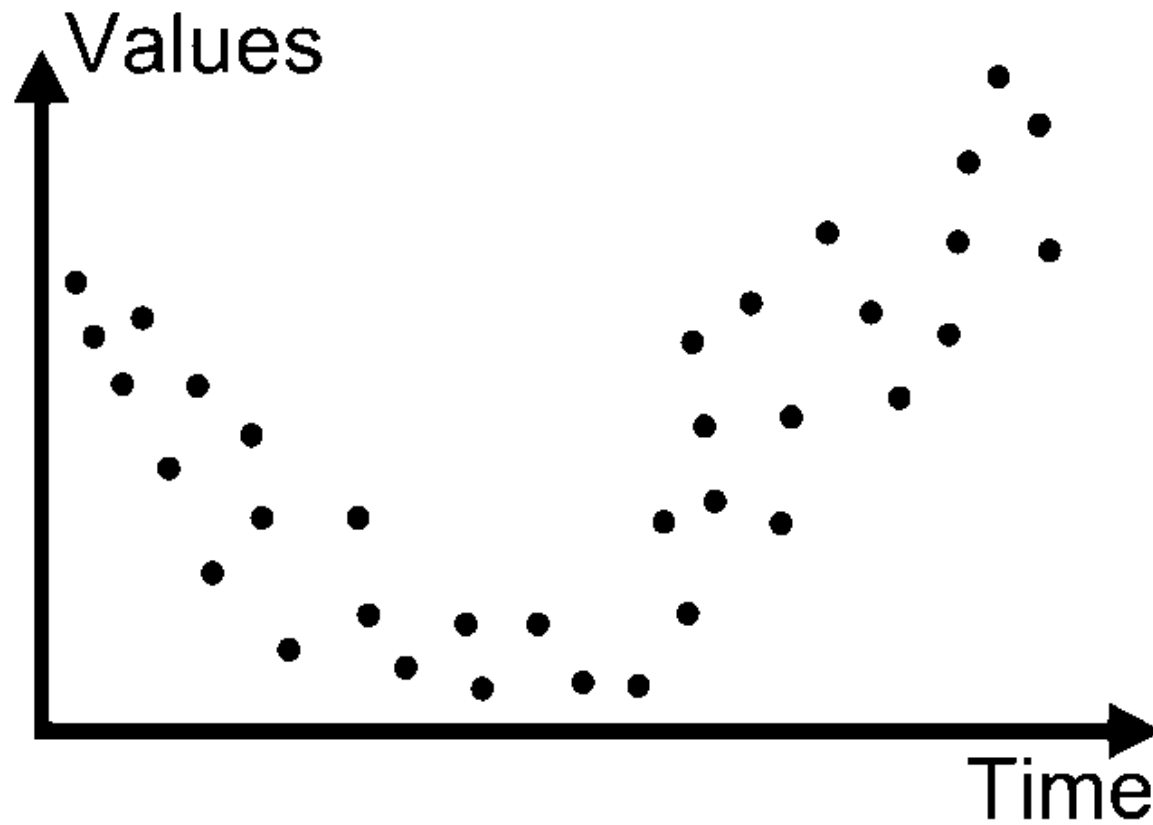


# Phenomena of overfitting – cont.

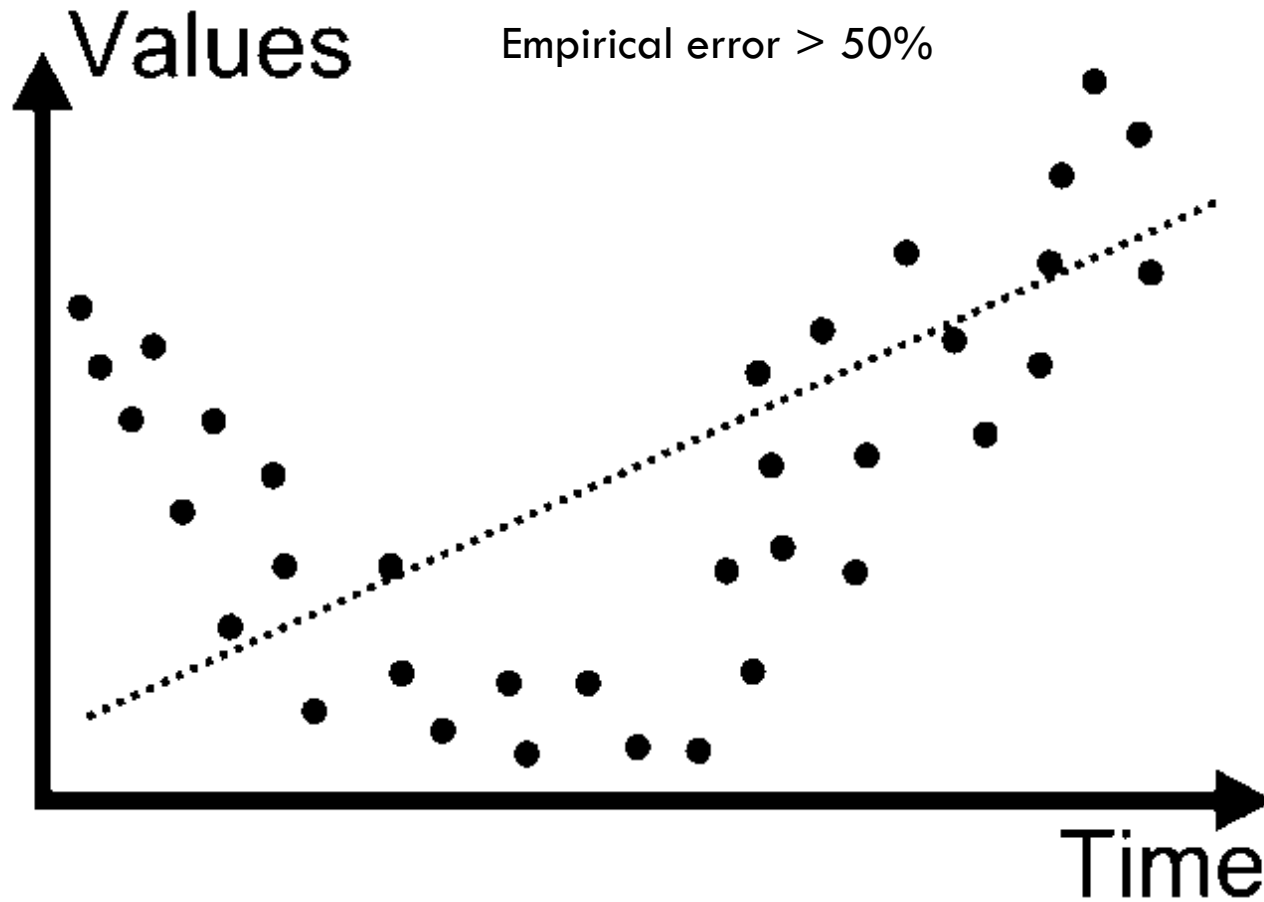
- Data are well described, but the predictions do not generalize to new data outside the study sample.
- The training set performance continues to improve, while the test set performance no longer does.



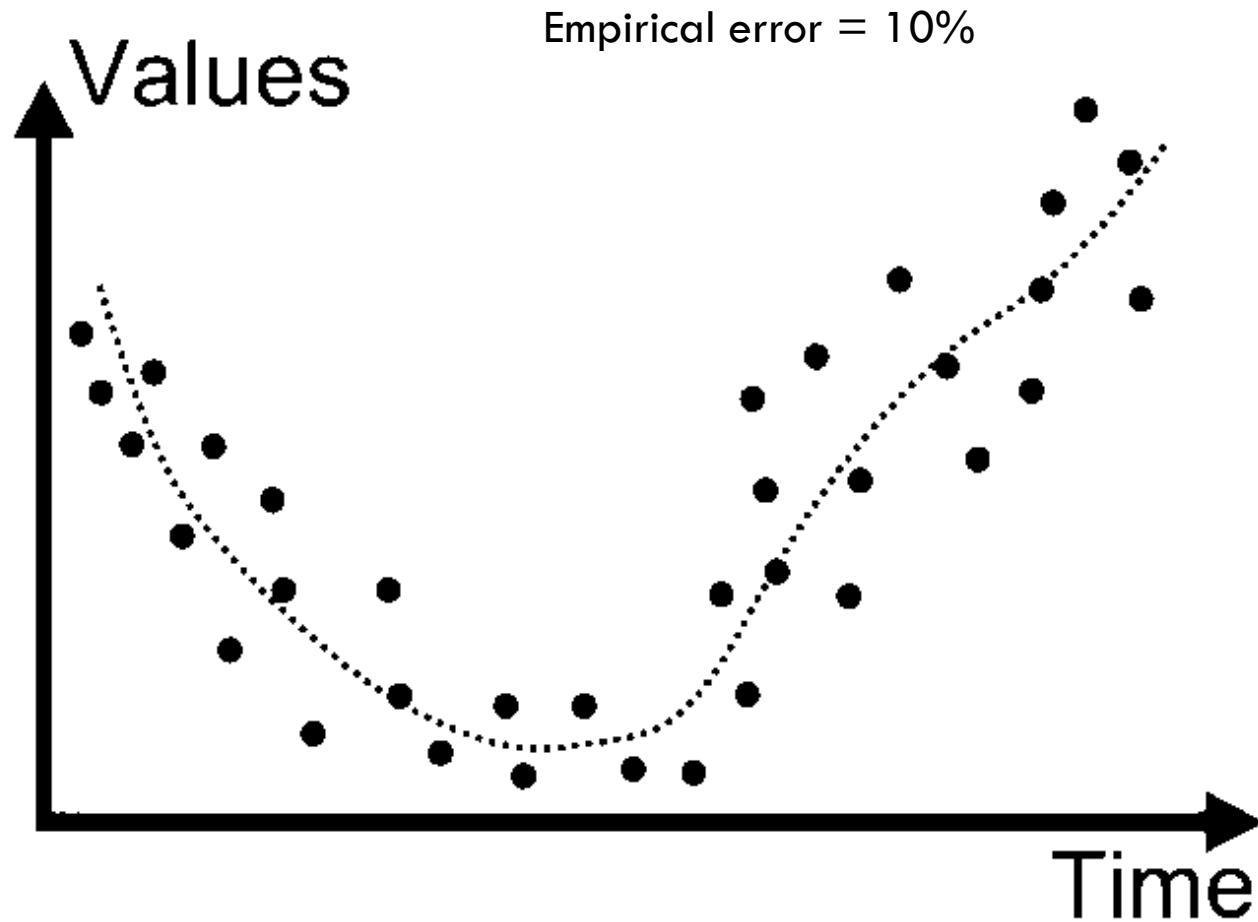
# A simple example: data



# Linear model

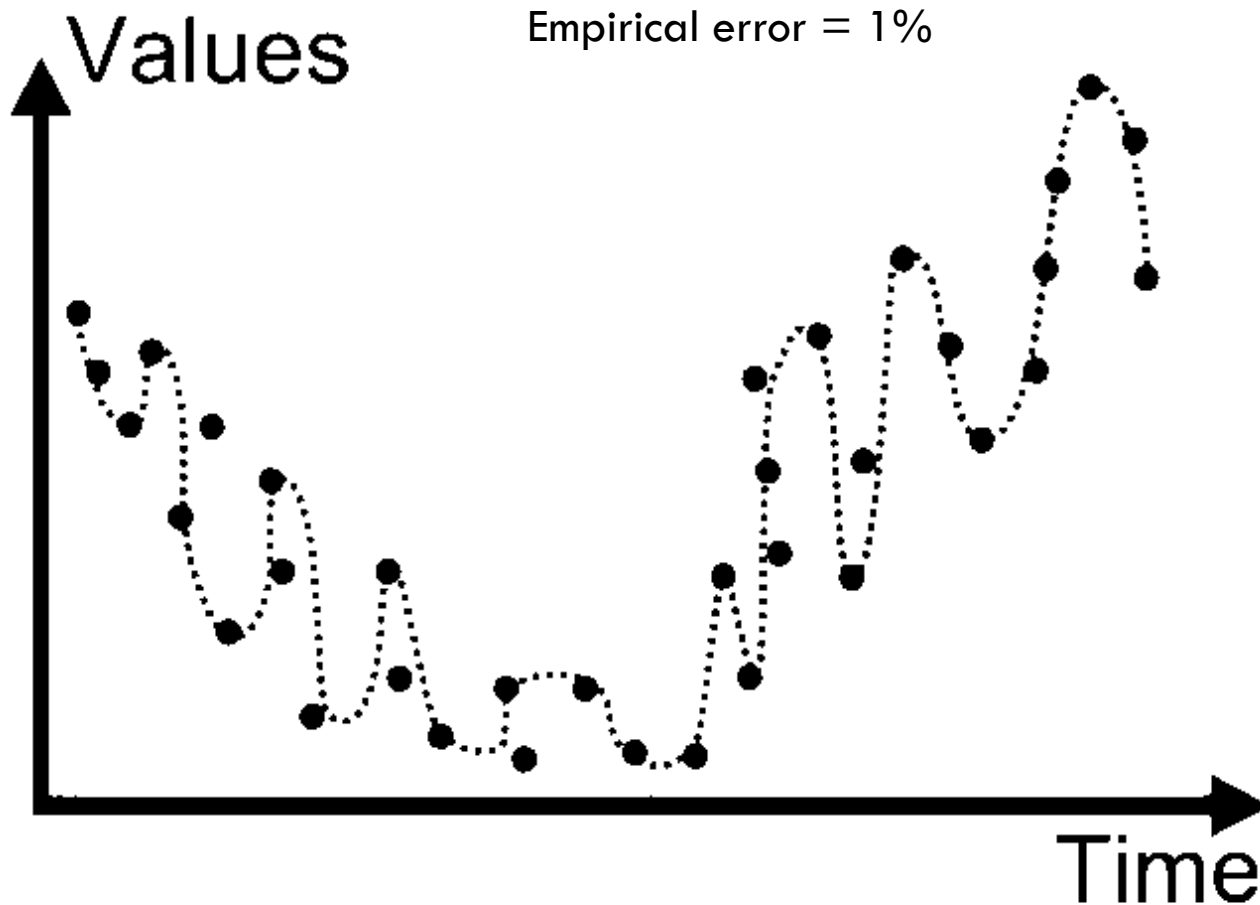


# More complex model





# Even more complexity



# Which model is better?



# Bias versus Variance

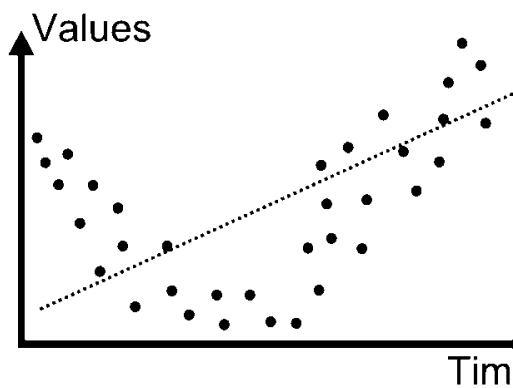
- **Bias:** average difference between our estimate and the true mean.

Model too “simple” → does not fit the data well → a biased model

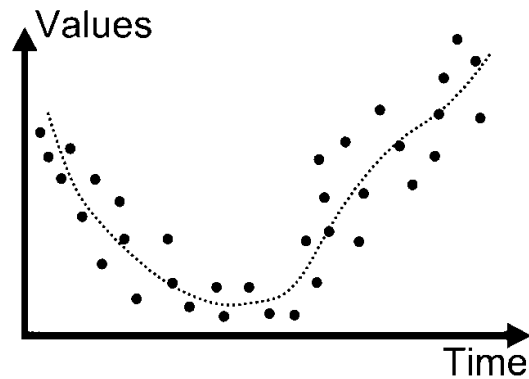
- **Variance:** squared deviation of the predictor around its mean (variation explained by the model).

Model too complex → small changes to the data changes the model a lot → a high-variance model

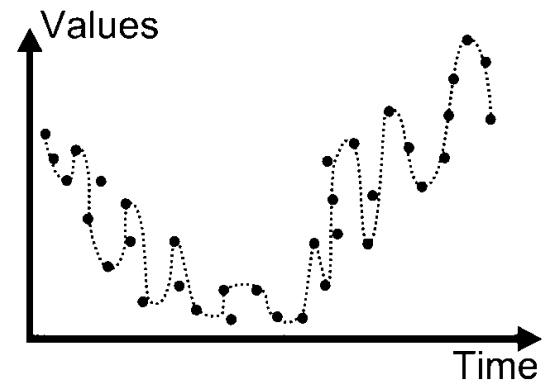
# Bias-Variance trade-off



Large bias  
Small variance



Moderate bias  
Moderate variance



Small bias  
Large variance

# Prediction accuracy

- The easiest way to measure the prediction accuracy: make a prediction and wait for the event to happen.
- Drawbacks of the above method:
  - Can't wait
  - Method of prediction is changing
  - It only tells you about the accuracy of **past** predictions.
- It matters little to know the past prediction accuracy.
- Primary aspect of statistical models: not to provide good or bad predictions, but to provide repeatable predictions (**generalization**).

# Decomposition of prediction error

- The expected squared error (MSE) of a predictor/model  $\hat{r}(x)$  from  $Y$  can (also referred as the *loss function*) be decomposed into:

Let  $\hat{r}(x)$  be any predictor. Then

$$R = \mathbb{E}(Y - \hat{r}(X))^2 = \int R(x) f(x) dx$$

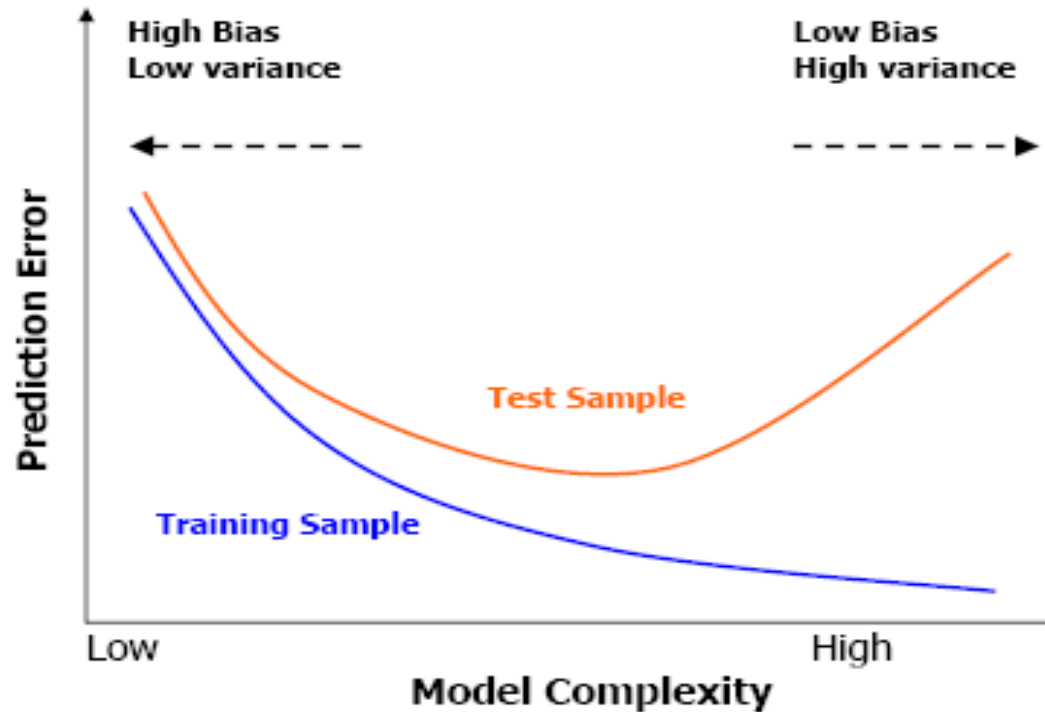
where  $R(x) = \mathbb{E}((Y - \hat{r}(X))^2 | X = x)$ . Let  $\bar{r}(x) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{r}(x))$ ,  $V(x) = \mathbb{V}(\hat{r}(x))$  and  $\sigma^2(x) = \mathbb{V}(Y | X = x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} R(x) &= \mathbb{E}((Y - \hat{r}(X))^2 | X = x) \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left(\left((Y - r(x)) + (r(x) - \bar{r}(x)) + (\bar{r}(x) - \hat{r}(x))\right)^2 \middle| X = x\right) \\ &= \underbrace{\sigma^2(x)}_{\text{irreducible error}} + \underbrace{(r(x) - \bar{r}(x))^2}_{\text{bias squared}} + \underbrace{V(x)}_{\text{variance}}. \end{aligned}$$

- The first term: random error/noise; beyond our control.
- The remaining two terms, the bias and the variance are functions of our predictor/model and therefore can potentially be reduced.

# Model complexity and prediction error

**Behaviour of test and training sample error as the model complexity is varied**



# An example of overfitting in high-dimensional data



Survival data: 75 predictors, 66 patients



# Correction for overfitting

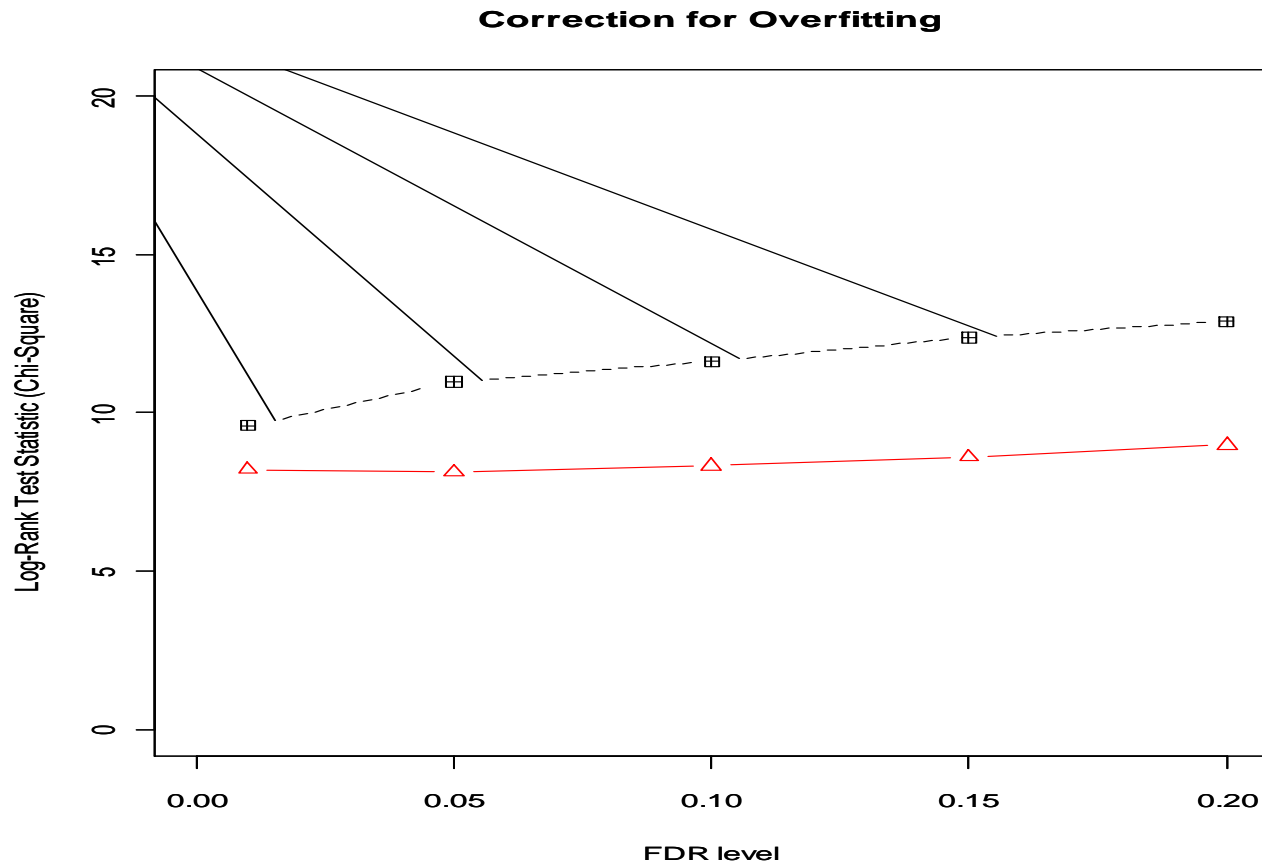
## – a simple approach

- How well will a model perform on new data drawn from the same population?
- Adjustments applied to the statistic of the original data to correct inflated signals due to overfitting.
- A simple approach to correct the inflated Chi-square test statistic

$$\chi^2_{corrected} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_m \left( \frac{\chi^2_{test_m}}{\chi^2_{training_m}} \right) \cdot \chi^2_{orig}$$

M: number of bootstrap samples (M=1 000)

# Corrected statistic



# Bootstrap vs. Cross-Validation in overfitting correction

- Bootstrap overfitting-corrected estimates of model performance can also be biased in favor of the model. Although cross-validation methods are less biased than the bootstrap, Efron showed that it in fact has much higher variance in estimating overfitting-corrected predictive accuracy than bootstrapping. In other words, cross-validation methods can yield significantly different estimates when the entire validation process is repeated.

# Does your model overfit your data?

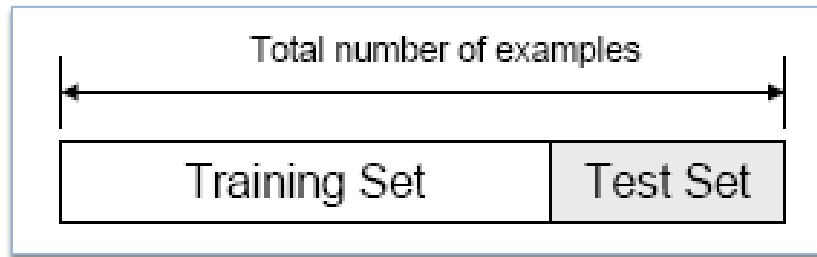


# Rule of thumb to shrinkage estimate

- Rough rule of thumb: 1:10 or 1:15
  - ▣ Number of candidate predictors
  - ▣ Limiting sample size
- Use shrinkage estimate (quantification of the amount of overfitting present)
  - ▣ Heuristic formula
$$\hat{\gamma} = (\chi^2 - p) / \chi^2$$
  - ▣ Bootstrap
  - ▣ If  $\hat{\gamma}$  falls below 0.9, then lack of calibration on new data is very likely

# Model validation – data splitting

## □ Data splitting

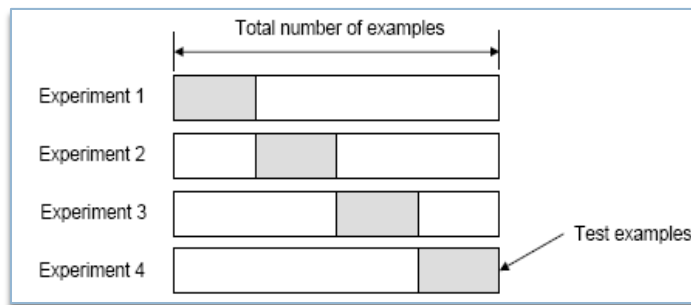


- Simple: modeling steps are only done once.
- Problem: holding back data from model fitting results in lower precision and power!!

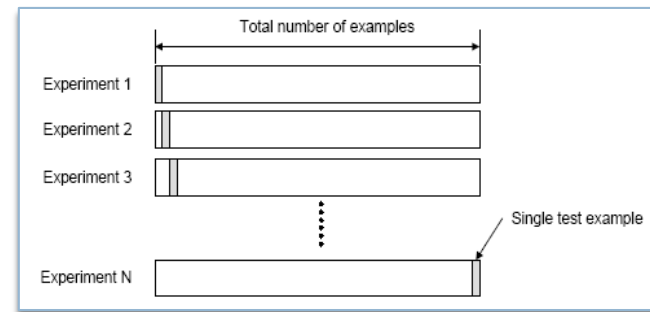
# Model validation – cross validation

## □ Cross validation (repeated data splitting)

K-fold cross-validation:



Leave-one-out cross-validation:



- Less data are discarded from the estimation process.  
Reduces variability by not relying on a single sample split.
- Cross-validation is relatively inefficient. Data splitting is even worse

# Model validation – bootstrap

## □ Bootstrap

The ordinary bootstrap:



.632 and .632+ bootstrap:



- Nearly unbiased estimates of predictive accuracy that are of relatively low variance.
- Entire dataset is used for model development



# Model validation – bootstrap cont.

- Original data: c-statistic
- Bootstrap samples 1 to 200,
  - ▣ we will have  $\text{model}_i$  ,  $c_i$
  - ▣ Apply  $\text{model}_i$  on original data, we get  $c_i'$
  - ▣  $\text{optimism}_i = c_i - c_i'$
- $c_{\text{honest}} = \text{c-mean}(\text{optimism})$
- Penalized for overfitting

# Model validation – example

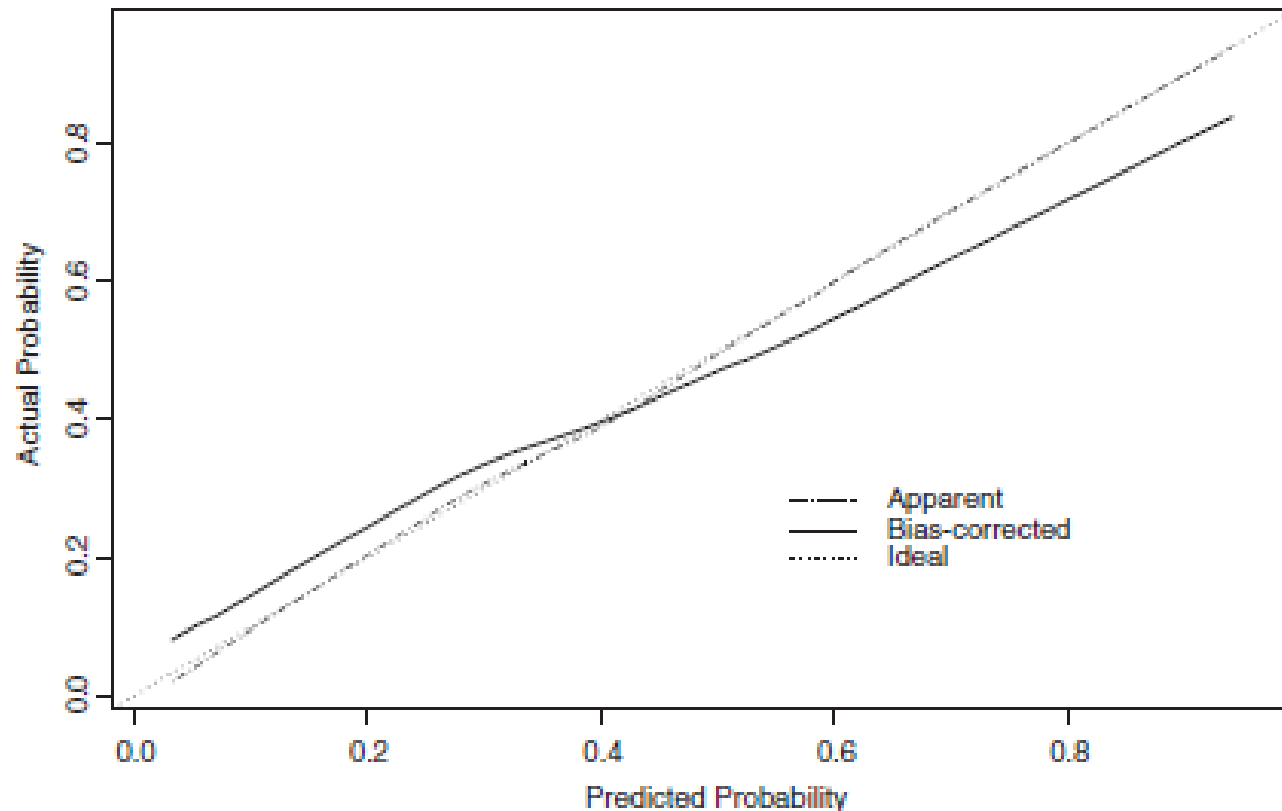
- Cross validation and bootstrap validation can be easily done using ***validate()*** function in ***Design*** package.
- Example: a fitted logistic regression with df 12,  $\min(n_1, n_2) = 105$

```
> validate(f, B=200)
```

	index.orig	training	test	optimism	index.corrected	n
Dxy	0.400776014	0.474314595	0.35445926	0.11985534	0.280920679	200
R2	0.168742420	0.229191997	0.12082715	0.10836484	0.060377578	200
Intercept	0.000000000	0.000000000	0.09772866	-0.09772866	0.097728664	200
Slope	1.000000000	1.000000000	0.64964887	0.35035113	0.649648870	200
E <sub>max</sub>	0.000000000	0.000000000	0.11327079	0.11327079	0.113270787	200
D	0.130383226	0.184272382	0.09045234	0.09382004	0.036563186	200
U	-0.008333333	-0.008333333	0.02917206	-0.03750539	0.029172059	200
Q	0.138716560	0.192605715	0.06128028	0.13132543	0.007391127	200
B	0.213888041	0.201883214	0.22594768	-0.02406446	0.237952506	200

# Calibration

- Agreement between predictions and actual values.
- Calibration plot for binary outcome



# Prevent overfitting – increase $n$

- Increase sample size
  - ▣ Collect more data
  - ▣ Impute missing values
- Use a simpler model with fewer predictors.
  - ▣ Rough guide: at least 10 or 15 observations per variable

# Prevent overfitting – data reduction

- Use a simpler model with fewer predictors.
  - ▣ Data reduction
    - Subject matter knowledge
      - Cost
      - Measure reliability
      - Other studies
    - No data “peeking”
      - Variable screening, stepwise variable selections are not viable
    - Principle Components
    - Variable Clustering
    - Well developed scores or index
- Training with noise (Bishop C M, 1991)

# Prevent overfitting – uniform shrinkage

- Uniform shrinkage

- heuristic formula

$$\beta^* = \hat{\gamma} \times \beta$$

- Afterwards, uniform shrink

# Prevent overfitting – PMLE

- Penalized maximum likelihood estimation (PMLE)
  - Maximizes the penalized log-likelihood

$$PML = \log L - 0.5\lambda \sum (s_i \beta_i)^2$$

- Shrinkage is done during the fitting of the model
- Example: 27 candidate predictors, 170 events

Selected predictors	1. No shrinkage	2. With shrinkage	3. PMLE	Shrinkage per predictor obtained by PMLE <sup>a</sup>
Age (per 10 year)	0.19	0.14	0.17	0.89
Quetelet index (per kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	0.17	0.12	0.06	0.35
Days of immobilization (per day)	0.036	0.026	0.026	0.72
Days of symptoms (per day)	-0.020	-0.015	-0.016	0.80
Pain in legs	0.74	0.54	0.60	0.81
Coughing	0.70	0.51	0.52	0.74
Wheezing	-0.93	-0.68	-0.57	0.61
Collapse	1.50	1.10	0.82	0.55
Breathing frequency (breaths/minute)	0.063	0.046	0.058	0.92
Abnormal leg ultrasound	0.96	0.70	0.74	0.77
Abnormal chest X-ray	0.69	0.50	0.57	0.83
Surgery within past 3 months	— <sup>b</sup>	— <sup>b</sup>	0.38	
Crepitations	— <sup>b</sup>	— <sup>b</sup>	-0.31	
ROC area	0.78	0.72	0.75	0.96

# Prevent overfitting – PMLE

- Can be easily done using ***pentrace()*** and ***update()*** in ***Design*** package

```
> f <- lrm(y ~ blood.pressure + sex * (age + rcs(cholesterol,4)), x=TRUE, y=TRUE)
> p <- pentrace(f, seq(0,2,by=.05))
> f.pen <- update(f, penalty=p$penalty)
```



# Prevent overfitting – PMLE

```
> f
```

```
Logistic Regression Model
```

```
lrm(formula = y ~ blood.pressure + sex * (age + rcs(cholesterol,  
4)), x = TRUE, y = TRUE)
```

```
Frequencies of Responses
```

```
  0   1  
105 135
```

	Obs	Max Deriv	Model L.R.	d.f.	P	C	Dxy	Gamma
	240	2e-07	30.88	10	6e-04	0.697	0.393	0.394
Tau-a		R2	Brier					
	0.194	0.162	0.215					

	Coef	S.E.	Wald Z	P
Intercept	0.462773	6.292137	0.07	0.9414
blood.pressure	-0.019496	0.009375	-2.08	0.0376
sex=male	-9.517820	8.068298	-1.18	0.2381
age	0.057228	0.022133	2.59	0.0097
cholesterol	-0.003360	0.035373	-0.09	0.9243
cholesterol'	-0.058262	0.093678	-0.62	0.5340
cholesterol''	0.323125	0.352994	0.92	0.3600
sex=male * age	-0.009549	0.029674	-0.32	0.7476
sex=male * cholesterol	0.056666	0.045251	1.25	0.2105
sex=male * cholesterol'	-0.025193	0.123759	-0.20	0.8387
sex=male * cholesterol''	-0.090383	0.471480	-0.19	0.8480

# Prevent overfitting – PMLE

```
> f.pen
```

```
Logistic Regression Model
```

```
lrm(formula = y ~ blood.pressure + sex * (age + rcs(cholesterol,  
4)), x = TRUE, y = TRUE, penalty = p$penalty)
```

```
Frequencies of Responses
```

```
0 1  
105 135
```

```
Penalty factors:
```

```
simple nonlinear interaction nonlinear.interaction  
0.15 0.15 0.15 0.15
```

```
Final penalty on -2 log L: 1.75
```

Obs	Max	Deriv	Model L.R.	d.f.	P	C	Dxy	Gamma
240		2e-08	29.26	8.39	4e-04	0.694	0.389	0.39
Tau-a		R2	Brier					
0.192		0.145	0.216					

	Coef	S.E.	Wald Z	P	Penalty Scale
Intercept	-2.51449	3.605054	-0.70	0.4855	0.0000
blood.pressure	-0.01997	0.009189	-2.17	0.0297	6.0068
sex=male	-1.91368	2.615585	-0.73	0.4644	0.2739
age	0.05967	0.020995	2.84	0.0045	3.8931
cholesterol	0.01244	0.019051	0.65	0.5138	9.8336
cholesterol'	-0.07056	0.050985	-1.38	0.1664	9.2858
cholesterol''	0.31612	0.209110	1.51	0.1306	1.7557
sex=male * age	-0.01573	0.026834	-0.59	0.5578	10.0495
sex=male * cholesterol	0.01540	0.014533	1.06	0.2891	39.0175
sex=male * cholesterol'	0.04548	0.053696	0.85	0.3970	7.8277
sex=male * cholesterol''	-0.27057	0.250903	-1.08	0.2809	1.3836

# Prevent overfitting – Lasso

- Lasso
  - ▣ Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator
  - ▣ PMLE with a restriction on the sum of the absolute coefficients.
  - ▣ Can be done in *glm*path and some other packages in R or PROC GLMSELECT in SAS

# Is what you see what you get?



# Questions and comments?



## **Thanks!**