# Advanced Learning Models

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# Part I

# Overfitting, bias-variance tradeoff: what is the problem?

Thanks to Laurent Jacob for sharing slides!

- We start with an informal example.
- We will formalize what we observe later.



- We observe 10 couples  $(x_i, y_i)$ .
- We want to estimate y from x.
- Our first strategy: find f such that  $f(x_i)$  is close to  $y_i$ .



Find *f* as a line

$$\min_{f(x)=ax+b} \|Y-f(X)\|^2$$



Find *f* as a quadratic function

$$\min_{f(x)=ax^2+bx+c} \|Y - f(X)\|^2$$



Find *f* as a polynomial of degree 10

$$\min_{f(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{10}a_jx^j} \|Y - f(X)\|^2$$



Which function would you trust to predict *y* corresponding to x = 0.5?



- Reminder: we aim at "finding f such that  $f(x_i)$  is close to  $y_i$ ".
- With the polynomial of degree 10,  $f(x_i) y_i = 0$  for all 10 points.
- There is something wrong with our objective.



More precisely:

- If we allow **any** function *f*, we can find **a lot** of perfect solutions for the training data.
- Our actual goal is to estimate y for **new points** x from the same population :

$$\min_{f} \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y)} \|Y - f(X)\|^2$$



Even more precisely :

- We did not take into account the fact that our 10 points are a subsample from the population.
- If we sample 10 new points from the same population, the complex functions are likely to change more than the simple ones.
- Consequence: these fonctions will probably generalize less well to the rest of the population.

# Overfitting



- When the degree increases, the error ||y − f(x)||<sup>2</sup> over the 10 observations always decreases.
- Over the rest of the population, the error decreases, then increases.

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# Overfitting



This suggests the existence of a **tradeoff** between two types of errors:

- Sets of functions which are too simple cannot contain functions which explain the data well enough.
- Sets of functions which are too rich may contain functions which are too specific to the observed sample.



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- Our introductive examples had a large number of descriptors.
- This case involves increasingly **complex** functions of a single variable.

- In fact, the two notions are related: here in particular, the three functions are linear in different representations.
- Reminder (linear regression):  $\arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p} ||Y - X\theta||^2 = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top Y$  (if  $X^\top X$  is invertible).
- How can we use this fact to compute arg min<sub> $f(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{p} a_i x^j} ||Y - f(X)||^2$ ?</sub>

- We could have illustrated the same principle using linear functions involving more and more variables.
- Example : predicting a phenotype using the expression of an increasing number of genes.
- We sticked to polynomials, which allow for better visual representations.
- Along this class, the notion of complexity of a set of functions will become more and more precise.
- Complexity is what causes problems for inference, not just dimension.

- Until now, we did not need to introduce a **model** for the data, *i.e.*, a distribution over  $X \times Y$ :
  - Data could come from any population.
  - The functions we used to predict y can be derived from particular probabilistic models, but this is not necessary (they were in fact historically introduced without a model).
- The objective is not to criticize the use of models, but to show that the tradeoff problem we introduced goes beyond probabilistic models.
- We now show how using a model can give a better insight into the problem.

• We now assume that the data follow:

$$y = f(x) + \varepsilon,$$
 (1)

and  $\mathbf{E}[\varepsilon] = 0$ .

- Without loss of generality, we consider an estimator  $\hat{f}$  of f, which is a function of training data  $\mathcal{D} = (x_i, y_i)_{(i=1,...,n)}$  sampled i.i.d. from (1)
- Note:  $\hat{f}$  is a random function.
- We consider the mean quadratic error E[(y f̂(x))<sup>2</sup>] incurred when using f̂ to estimate for a given x the corresponding y sampled from (1) independently from D.
- Expectation is taken over  $\mathcal{D}$  used to estimate  $\hat{f}$ , and  $\varepsilon = y f(x)$ .

#### Proposition

Under the previous hypotheses,

$$\mathsf{E}[(y - \hat{f}(x))^2] = \left(\mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)] - f(x)\right)^2 + \mathsf{E}\left[\left(\mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)] - \hat{f}(x)\right)^2\right] \\ + \mathsf{E}[(y - f(x))^2]$$

- The first term is the squared bias of  $\hat{f}$ : the difference between its mean (over the sample of  $\mathcal{D}$ ) and the true f.
- The second term is the variance of  $\hat{f}$ : how much  $\hat{f}$  varies around its average when the dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  changes.
- The third term is the Bayes error, and does not depend on the estimator. The actual quantity of interest is the excess of risk  $E[(y \hat{f}(x))^2] E[(y f(x))^2]$ .

## Back to our example



Tradeoff between two types of error:

 Sets of functions which are too simple cannot contain functions which explain the data well enough: these sets lead to estimators with a large bias.

 Sets of functions which are too rich may contain functions which are too specific to the observed sample: these sets lead to estimators with a large variance.

## Back to our example



Tradeoff between two types of error:

- Sets of functions which are too simple cannot contain functions which explain the data well enough: these sets lead to estimators with a large bias.
- Sets of functions which are too rich may contain functions which are too specific to the observed sample: these sets lead to estimators with a large variance.

For any real random variable Z, 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\left(Z - \mathbf{E}[Z]\right)^2\right] = \mathbf{E}[Z^2] - \mathbf{E}[Z]^2$$

$$\mathsf{E}[(y - \hat{f}(x))^2] = \mathsf{E}[y^2 - 2y\hat{f}(x) + \hat{f}(x)^2]$$

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$$\begin{split} \mathsf{E}[(y - \hat{f}(x))^2] =& \mathsf{E}[y^2 - 2y\hat{f}(x) + \hat{f}(x)^2] \\ =& \mathsf{E}[y^2] - \mathsf{E}[2y\hat{f}(x)] + \mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)^2] \\ =& \mathsf{E}[y]^2 + \mathsf{E}[(y - \mathsf{E}[y])^2] \\ &- 2\mathsf{E}[y]\mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)] \\ &+ \mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)]^2 + \mathsf{E}[(\hat{f}(x) - \mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)])^2] \end{split}$$

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$$\mathsf{E}[(y - \hat{f}(x))^2] = \left(\mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)] - f(x)\right)^2 + \mathsf{E}\left[\left(\mathsf{E}[\hat{f}(x)] - \hat{f}(x)\right)^2\right] \\ + \mathsf{E}[(y - f(x))^2]$$

- Using a (rather general) model, we managed to start formalizing the tradeoff introduced with our example.
- Decomposition valid for any x, thus also in expectation over independent x.