



Model Optimization



<http://shareittech.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/Level-Up-DS.jpg>

Bias and Variance

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(y - \hat{f}(x)\right)^2\right] = \text{Bias}[\hat{f}(x)]^2 + \text{Var}[\hat{f}(x)] + \sigma^2$$

$$\text{Bias}[\hat{f}(x)] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x) - f(x)]$$

$$\text{Var}[\hat{f}(x)] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x)^2] - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x)]^2$$

Error = (expected loss of accuracy)² + flexibility of model + irreducible error



Question:

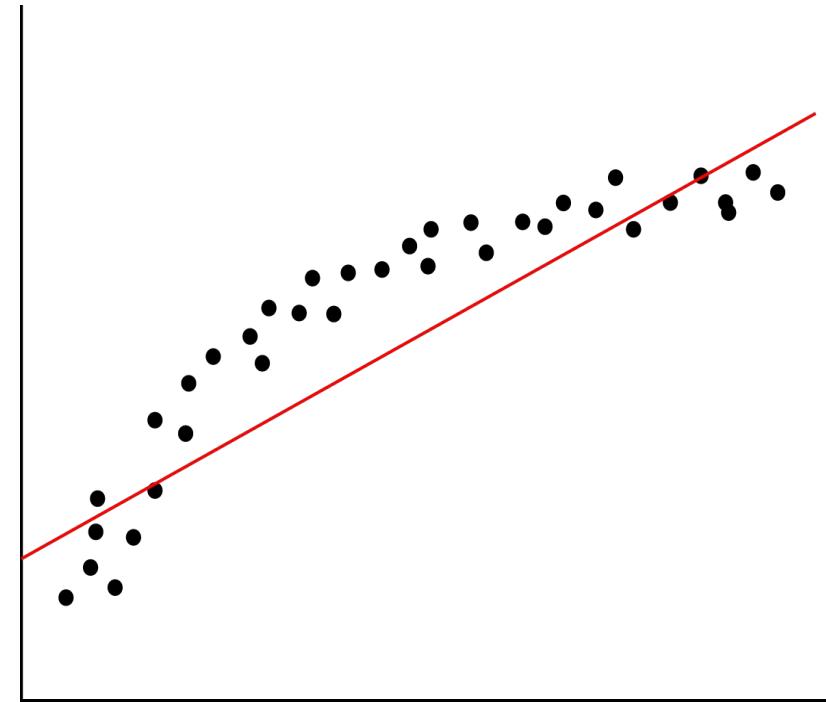
Why would there be a trade-off
between bias and variance?



Underfitting

Underfitting means we have high bias and low variance.

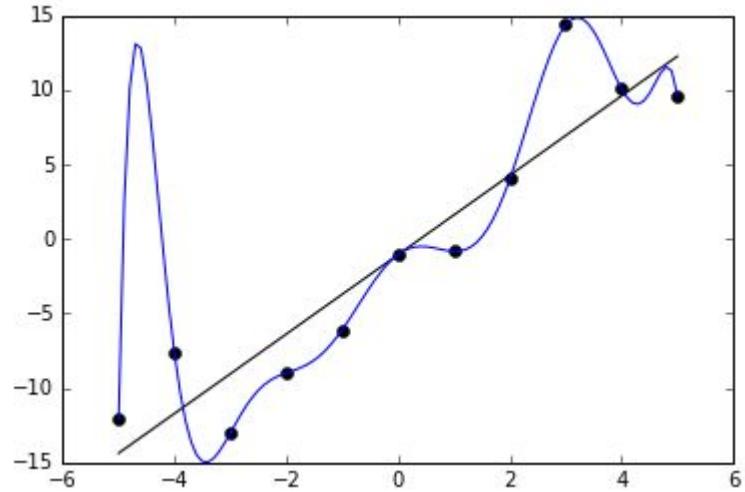
- Lack of relevant variables/factor
- Imposing limiting assumptions
 - Linearity
 - Assumptions on distribution
 - Wrong values for parameters



Overfitting

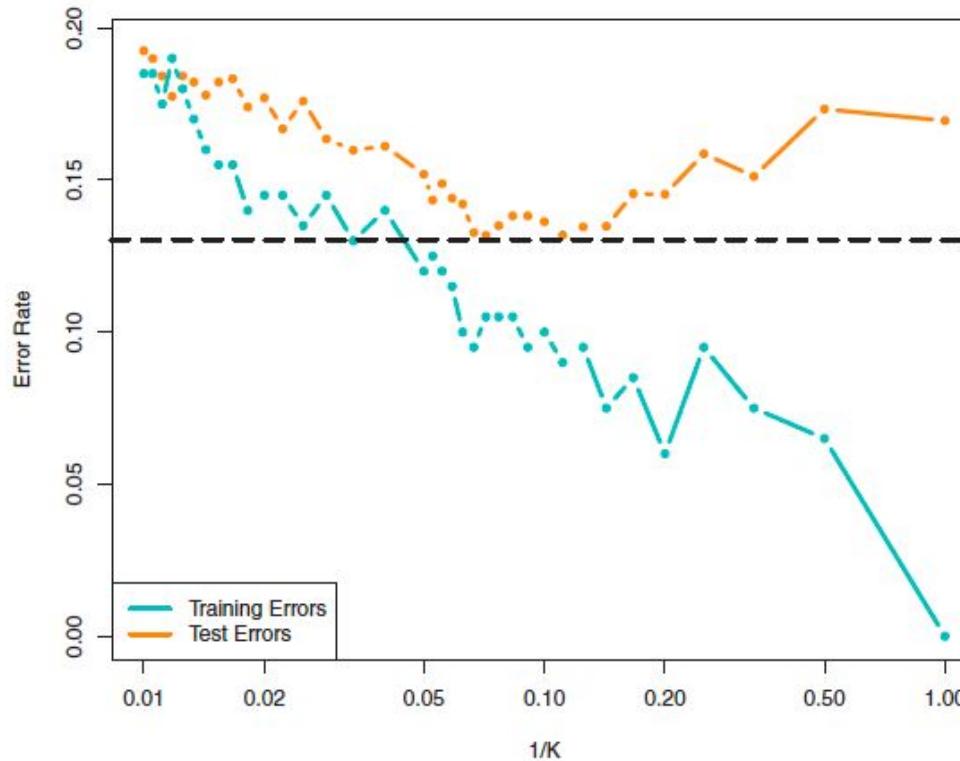
Overfitting means we have low bias and high variance.

- Model fits too well to specific cases
- Model is over-sensitive to sample-specific noise
- Model introduces too many variables/complexities than needed



[Source](#)

A Tale of Two Datasets



Parsimonious (adj.) - unwilling to spend money or use resources; stingy, frugal.

In data science, *it pays to be parsimonious. (Occam's Razor)*



Model Goals

When training a model we want our models to:

- Capture the trends of the training data
- Generalize well to other samples of the population
- Be moderately interpretable

The first two are especially difficult to do simultaneously!

The more sensitive the model, the less generalizable and vice versa.



Question:

Why is overfitting more difficult to control than underfitting?



Variance Reduction

Avoiding overfitting is a **variance reduction** problem

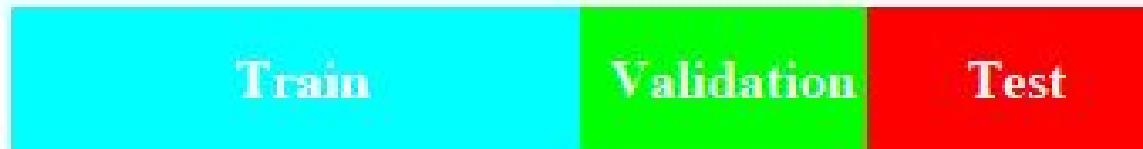
Variance of the model is a function of the variances of each variable

- Reduce the number of variables to use [**Subset Selection**]
- Reduce the complexity of the model [**Pruning**]
- Reduce the coefficients assigned to the variables [**Regularization**]

Cross-validation is used to test the relative predictive power of each set of parameters and subset of features.



Validation - Traditional



About 30% of the training set is reserved as a validation set.

Error on validation set serves as a good estimate of the test error.

- Advantage: useful especially if a test-set is not available
- Disadvantage: reduces size of available training data



More Generally: Cross Validation (CV)

Set of validation techniques that uses the training dataset itself to validate model

- Allows maximum allocation of training data from original dataset
- Efficient due to advances in processing power

Cross validation is used to test the effectiveness of any model or its modified forms.



Leave-p-Out Validation



For each data point:

- Leave out p data points and train learner on the rest of the data.
- Compute the test error for the p data points.

Define average of these ${}_nC_p$ error values as validation error



K-fold Validation



Often used in practice with $k=5$ or $k=10$.



Create equally sized k partitions, or **folds**, of training data

For each fold:

- Treat the $k-1$ other folds as training data.
- Test on the chosen fold.

The average of these errors is the validation error

Question:
How are k -fold and leave-p-out
different?



Subset Selection

- **Best subset selection:** Test all 2^p subset selections for best one
- **Forward subset selection**
 - Iterate over $k = 0 \dots (p-1)$ predictors
 - At each stage, select the best model with $(p-k)$ predictors
 - Find best model out of the $p-1$ selected candidates with CV
- **Backward selection** - Reverse of forward subset selection
 - Start from p predictors and work down

In practice, best subset selection method is rarely used, why?



Regularization

We defined our error up until now as:

$$SS_{(residuals)} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Minimizing this equation on training data = minimizing **training loss**.

But we can often do better!



Regularization

To avoid overfitting, we add a penalty term independent of the data, known as **regularization**.

$$\text{Error} = (\text{Training Loss})^2 + \text{Regularization}$$

Ridge Regression

Lasso Regression



Ridge Regression

Uses L_2 - regularization penalty:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 = \text{RSS} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2,$$

λ is the penalty threshold constant and controls sensitivity.

- Useful for non-sparse, correlated predictor variables
- Used when predictor variables have small individual effects
- Limits the magnitudes of the coefficient terms, but not to 0



Lasso Regression

Uses L_1 - regularization penalty:

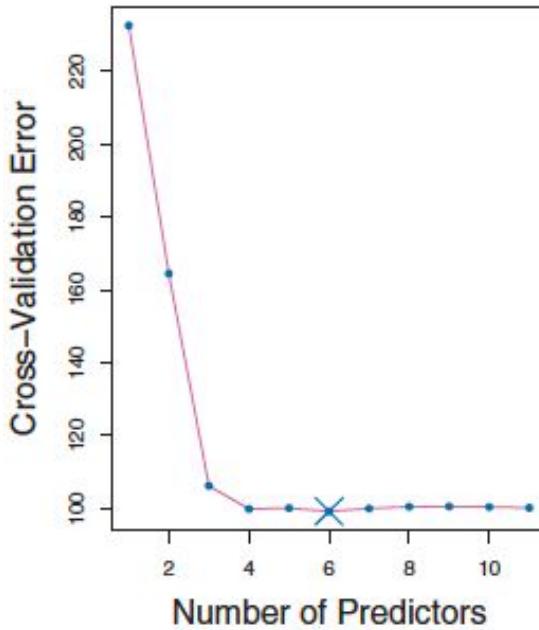
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| = \text{RSS} + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j|.$$

This time the penalty term uses absolute value rather than squaring.

- Useful for sparse, uncorrelated variables
- Used when there are few variables with medium to high effects
- Drives coefficients to 0 when λ sufficiently large (performs feature selection)



Training Accuracy vs Test Accuracy



Key idea: Regularization and cross-validation are techniques to limit the model's sensitivity.

In practice, if CV error is high:

- Compare with training
- If significantly lower:
 - Raise penalty constant
 - Try different subset
 - Try different parameters



Coming Up

Your problem set: None

Next week: Things are going to get meta.

See you then!

