## Model Selection - Optimization versus Simplicity

There are two opposing philosophies on how to draw inference from empirical data:

- Find the model that fits the data best.
- Keep it simple. Don't choose a complicated model over a simpler model if the simpler model suffice (Occam's razor).
Ideas like maximum-likelihood and empirical loss minimization work by the first principle.

Model selection/test theory work by the second principle to compensate for the fact that an optimization procedure generally overfits to the given data set.

## Model or Predictor Assessment

Another problem of importance is
Having fitted a final predictor $\hat{f}$, how will it actually perform?
The training error

$$
\mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{r}} r=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L\left(y_{i}, \hat{f}\left(x_{i}\right)\right)
$$

generally underestimates $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$. The expected generalization or test error

$$
\operatorname{Err}=E(\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f}))
$$

is the expected EPE.
$\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ can only really be estimated if we have an independent test data set.

## Figure 7.1 - The Bias-Variance Tradeoff

Realizations of training error ērr and expected prediction error $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ estimated on an independent test dataset as functions of model complexity. Also the estimates of the expectation of $\overline{\operatorname{er} r}$ and $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ are shown.

## The Bias-Variance Tradeoff for nearest neighbors

Consider the case with $Y=f(X)+\epsilon$ where $X$ and $\epsilon$ are independent, $E(\epsilon)=0$ and $V(\epsilon)=\sigma^{2}$.

With $\hat{f}_{k}$ the $k$-nearest neighbor regressor the expected test error, conditionally on the training data $X_{1}=x_{1}, \ldots, X_{N}=x_{N}$, in $x_{0}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E\left(\left(Y-\hat{f}_{k}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)^{2} \mid X=x_{0}\right)= E\left(\left(Y-f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)^{2} \mid X=x_{0}\right) \\
&+E\left(\left(f\left(x_{0}\right)-E\left(\hat{f}_{k}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)\right)^{2} \mid X=x_{0}\right) \\
&+E\left(\left(\hat{f}_{k}\left(x_{0}\right)-E\left(\hat{f}_{k}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)\right)^{2} \mid X=x_{0}\right) \\
&=\sigma^{2}+\underbrace{\left[f\left(x_{0}\right)-\frac{1}{k} \sum_{I \in N_{k}\left(x_{0}\right)} f\left(x_{l}\right)\right]^{2}}_{\text {Squared bias }}+\underbrace{\frac{\sigma^{2}}{k}}_{\text {variance }}
\end{aligned}
$$

Small choices of $k$ (complex model) will give a large variance and generally a smaller bias, and vice versa for large choices of $k$ (simple model).

## Figure 2.4 - Bias-Variance Tradeoff for $k$-nearest neighbors

The test error here is an estimate of $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ for the estimated predictor based on an independent dataset.

## The Train-Validate-Test Idea

In a data rich situation we split the data before doing anything else into three subsets.

- On the training data we estimate all parameters besides tuning parameters (model complexity parameters).
- On the validation data we estimate prediction error for the estimated predictors and optimize over tuning parameters and models.
- On the test data we estimate the expected prediction error for the chosen predictor - no model selection here, please.
Problem: We are almost never in a data rich situation.

Can we justify to throw away data that can be used for estimation, and thus reduction of variance, for the purpose of estimating parameters of secondary importance?

## Figure 7.2 - Space of Models

## Setup

In the following discussion $\left(X_{1}, Y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(X_{N}, Y_{N}\right)$ denote $N$ i.i.d. random variables, with $X_{i}$ a p-dimensional vector.

A concrete realization is denoted $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{N}, y_{N}\right)$ and we use boldface, e.g. $\mathbf{Y}=\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{N}\right)^{T}$ and $\mathbf{y}=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{N}\right)^{T}$ to denote vectors.

We can not distinguish in notation between $\mathbf{X}$ - the matrix of random variables $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{N}$ - and $\mathbf{X}$ - the matrix of a concrete realization $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N}$.

## Mallows' $C_{p}$

With $\hat{\mathbf{f}}=P \mathbf{y}$ where $P$ is a projection onto a $d$-dimensional subspace define

$$
\overline{\mathrm{e} r} \mathrm{r}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(y_{i}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}_{i}\right)^{2}=\frac{1}{N}\|\mathbf{y}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}\|^{2} .
$$

By a standard decomposition

$$
\frac{1}{N} E\left(\left\|\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}\right\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)=\frac{1}{N} E\left(\|\mathbf{Y}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)+\frac{2 d}{N} \sigma^{2}
$$

The expected in-sample error

$$
\text { Err }_{\text {in }}=\frac{1}{N} E\left(\left\|\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}\right\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)
$$

can thus be estimated by

$$
C_{p}=\mathrm{Err}_{\mathrm{in}}=\mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{r} r}+\frac{2 d}{N} \hat{\sigma}^{2}
$$

## Mallows' $C_{p}$

$$
C_{p}=E \hat{r r}_{\text {in }}=\operatorname{e\overline {r}r}+\frac{2 d}{N} \hat{\sigma}^{2} .
$$

is an equivalent of Mallows' $C_{p}$ statistic - with $\hat{\sigma}^{2}$ estimated from a "low-bias" model with $p$ degrees of freedom;

$$
\hat{\sigma}^{2}=\frac{1}{N-p}\|\mathbf{y}-Q \mathbf{y}\|^{2}
$$

where $Q$ is a projection on a $p$-dimensional space.
If $\mathbf{S}$ is a linear smoother, that is, $\hat{\mathbf{f}}=\mathbf{S y}$, one can generalize $C_{p}$ as

$$
\mathrm{Err}_{\mathrm{r}}^{\mathrm{in}}=\mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{r}+\frac{2 \operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{S})}{N} \hat{\sigma}^{2}
$$

with $\hat{\sigma}^{2}$ estimated from a "low-bias" model, e.g. as

$$
\hat{\sigma}^{2}=\frac{1}{N-\operatorname{trace}\left(2 \mathbf{S}_{0}-\mathbf{S}_{0}^{2}\right)}\left\|\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{S}_{0} \mathbf{y}\right\|^{2} .
$$

for a "low-bias" smoother $\mathbf{S}_{0}$.

## Using $C_{p}$

The classical use of $C_{p}$ is when $\mathbf{X}$ is $N \times p$ of rank $p$ and $Q=\mathbf{X}\left(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{T}$.

For any choice of $d$ columns we compute $C_{p}$ and select the model with the smallest value of $C_{p}$.

This is equivalent to best subset selection for each $d$ followed by choosing $d$ that minimizes

$$
N C_{p}=\operatorname{RSS}(d)+\frac{2 d}{N-p} \operatorname{RSS}(p)
$$

As a function of $d$ the classical definition of $C_{p}$,

$$
\tilde{C}_{p}=\frac{N C_{p}(N-p)}{\operatorname{RSS}(p)}-N=\frac{(N-p) \operatorname{RSS}(d)}{\operatorname{RSS}(p)}+2 d-N
$$

is a monotonely increasing function of our $C_{p}$.

## Generalization Error

Instead of the expected in-sample error we can consider the expected generalization or test error

$$
\operatorname{Err}=E(L(Y, \hat{f}(X)))=E(E(L(Y, \hat{f}(X)) \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}))=E(\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f}))
$$

Here $(X, Y)$ is independent of $\left(X_{1}, Y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(X_{N}, Y_{N}\right)$ that enter through $\hat{f}$.

Err is the expectation over the dataset of the expected prediction error for the estimated predictor $\hat{f}$.

A small value of Err tells us that the estimation methodology is good and will on average result in estimators with a small EPE. It does not guarantee that a concrete realization, $\hat{f}$, has a small EPE!

## Likelihood Loss

The generalized decision theoretic setup has sample spaces $E$ and $F$, action space $\mathcal{A}$, decision rule $f: E \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ and loss functions $L: F \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow[0, \infty)$. If $h_{a}$ for $a \in \mathcal{A}$ denotes a collection of densities on $F$ we define the minus-log-likelihood loss function as

$$
L(y, a)=-\log h_{a}(y)
$$

The empirical loss for $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{N}, y_{N}\right)$ when using decision rule $f$ is

$$
\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L\left(y_{i}, f\left(x_{i}\right)\right)=-\frac{1}{N} \log \prod_{i=1}^{N} h_{f\left(x_{i}\right)}\left(y_{i}\right)
$$

Expected prediction error equals the expectation of (conditional) cross entropies.

$$
\operatorname{EPE}(f)=\int \underbrace{\int-\log h_{f(x)}(y) g(y \mid x) \mathrm{d} y}_{\text {cross entropy }} g_{1}(x) \mathrm{d} x
$$

## Akaike's Information Criteria - AIC

We take $\mathcal{A}=\left\{f_{\theta}(x, \cdot)\right\}_{\theta \in \Theta, x \in E}$ with $\Theta$ being $d$-dimensional and $f_{\theta}: E \times F \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ such that $f_{\theta}(x, \cdot)$ is a probability density on $F$. Let $\hat{\theta}_{N}$ denote the MLE.
With likelihood loss we define the equivalent of the expected in-sample error

$$
\operatorname{Err}_{\log \operatorname{lik}, \text { in }}=-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} E\left(\log f_{\hat{\theta}_{N}}\left(x_{i}, Y_{i}^{\mathrm{new}}\right) \mid \mathbf{X}\right)
$$

Then one derives (difficult) the approximation

$$
\operatorname{Err}_{\text {loglik,in }} \simeq \frac{1}{N} E\left(I_{N}\left(\hat{\theta}_{N}\right)\right)+\frac{d}{N}
$$

where the minus-log-likelihood function in $\hat{\theta}_{N}$

$$
I_{N}\left(\hat{\theta}_{N}\right)=-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log f_{\hat{\theta}_{N}}\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)
$$

is the equivalent of err when using likelihood loss.

AIC

$$
\mathrm{AIC}=\frac{2}{N} I_{N}\left(\hat{\theta}_{N}\right)+\frac{2 d}{N}
$$

We use AIC for model selection by choosing the model among several possible that minimizes AIC.

Assumptions and extensions:

- The models considered must be true. If they are not, $d$ must in general be replaced by a more complicated quantity $d^{*}$ leading to the model selection criteria

$$
\mathrm{NIC}=\frac{2}{N} I_{N}\left(\hat{\theta}_{N}\right)+\frac{2 d^{*}}{N}
$$

- For linear regression with Gaussian errors and fixed variance $d^{*}=d$ even when the model is wrong, but this does not hold in general, e.g. logistic regression.
- The estimator $\hat{\theta}_{N}$ must be the MLE. Extensions to non-MLE and non-likelihood loss setups are possible with $d$ replaced again by a more complicated $d^{*}$.


## Practical BIC

With the same framework as for AIC

$$
\mathrm{BIC}=2 I_{N}\left(\hat{\theta}_{N}\right)+d \log (N)
$$

We choose among several models the one with the smallest BIC.

Up to the scaling by $1 / N$, BIC is from a practical point of view AIC with 2 replaced by $\log (N)$. The theoretical derivation is, however, completely different.

For $N>e^{2} \simeq 7.4$, BIC penalizes complex models more than simple models compared to AIC.

## Cross-Validation

Let $\kappa:\{1, \ldots, N\} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, K\}$ and denote by $\hat{f}^{-k}$ for $k=1, \ldots, K$ the estimator of $f$ based on the data $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ with $\kappa(i) \neq k$.

The $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ with $\kappa(i)=k$ work as a test dataset for $\hat{f}^{-k}$ and

$$
\operatorname{EP} \mathrm{E}\left(\hat{f}^{-k}\right)=\frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{i: \kappa(i)=k} L\left(y_{i}, \hat{f}^{-k}\left(x_{i}\right)\right)
$$

with $N_{k}=|\{i \mid \kappa(i)=k\}|$
The $K$-fold $\kappa$-cross-validation estimator of Err is the weighted average

$$
\begin{aligned}
C V_{\kappa} & =\sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{N_{k}}{N} \operatorname{EP} \mathrm{E}\left(\hat{f}^{-k}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L\left(y_{i}, \hat{f}^{-\kappa(i)}\left(x_{i}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Figure 7.8 - Err as a Function of $N$

We should write $\operatorname{Err}=\operatorname{Err}(N)$ as a function of the sample size. If $\hat{f}_{N}, f \in \mathcal{F}$ and $f$ minimizes EPE then $\operatorname{EPE}\left(\hat{f}_{N}\right) \geq \operatorname{EPE}(f)$ and

$$
\operatorname{Err}(N)=E\left(L\left(Y, \hat{f}_{N}(X)\right)\right) \geq \operatorname{EPE}(f)
$$

If we have a consistent estimator; $\hat{f}_{N} \rightarrow f$, then

$$
\operatorname{Err}(N) \rightarrow \operatorname{EPE}(f)
$$

## Cross-Validation

Among several models we will choose the model with smallest $C V_{\kappa}$. How to choose $\kappa$ ? How to choose $K$ ?

We aim for $N_{1}=\ldots=N_{K}$ in which case

$$
E\left(C V_{\kappa}\right)=\operatorname{Err}\left(N-N_{1}\right) .
$$

With a steep learning curve at $N$ we need $N_{1}$ to be small or we underestimate Err.

Extreme case; $N$-fold or leave-one-out cross-validation with $\kappa(i)=i$ leads to an almost unbiased estimator of $\operatorname{Err}(N)$, but the strong correlation of the $E \hat{P} E\left(\hat{f}^{-i}\right)$ 's works in the direction of given a larger variance. Recommendations are that 5 - or 10 -fold CV is a good compromise between bias and variance.

## The Wrong and The Right Way to Cross-Validate

- Mess with the data to find variables/methods that seem to be useful.
- Estimate parameters using the selected variables/methods and use cross-validation to choose tuning parameters.


## WRONG

Don't mess with the data before the cross-validation.
Cross-Validation must be out side of all modeling steps, including filtering or variable selection steps.

## Estimates of Expected Prediction Error

If $\hat{f}$ is estimated based on a data set, we can only get an estimate of $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ by an independent test set $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{B}, y_{B}\right)$ as

$$
\mathrm{E} \hat{P} \mathrm{E}(\hat{f})=\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} L\left(y_{b}, \hat{f}\left(x_{b}\right)\right)
$$

Cross-validation provide estimates $\hat{\text { Err }}$ of the expected generalization error.

- $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ is a random variable with mean Err.
- Err is a random variable with mean Err.

Can Err be regarded as an approximation/estimate of $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ ?

## Figure 7.15 - The Relation Between Err and $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$

## Classification and The Confusion Matrix

For a classifier with two groups we can decompose the errors:

|  | Predicted $y$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Observed $y$ | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | $\operatorname{Pr}(Y=1, f(X)=1)$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(Y=1, f(X)=0)$ |
| 0 | $\operatorname{Pr}(Y=0, f(X)=1)$ | $\operatorname{Pr}(Y=0, f(X)=0)$ |

This is the confusion matrix and

$$
\operatorname{EPE}(f)=\operatorname{Pr}(Y=0, f(X)=1)+\operatorname{Pr}(Y=1, f(X)=0)
$$

As with $\operatorname{EPE}(\hat{f})$ the confusion matrix can only be estimated using an independent test dataset. "Estimates" based on e.g. cross-validation are estimates of $E(\operatorname{Pr}(Y=k, \hat{f}(X)=l))$.

## EXTRA: Linear Smoother Bias-Variance Decomposition

Assumptions: $\hat{\mathbf{f}}=\mathbf{S Y}$ and conditionally on $\mathbf{X}$ the $Y_{i}$ 's are uncorrelated with common variance $\sigma^{2}$.
Then with $\mathbf{f}=E(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X})=E\left(\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)$ and $\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }}$ independent of $\mathbf{Y}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left(\left\|\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}\right\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)= & E\left(\left\|\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }}-\mathbf{S Y}\right\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right) \\
= & E\left(\left\|\mathbf{Y}^{\text {new }}-\mathbf{f}\right\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)+\|\mathbf{f}-\mathbf{S f}\|^{2} \\
& +E\left(\|\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{f}-\mathbf{Y})\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right) \\
= & N \sigma^{2}+\underbrace{\|(I-\mathbf{S}) \mathbf{f}\|^{2}}_{\operatorname{Bias}(\lambda)^{2}}+\sigma^{2} \operatorname{trace}\left(\mathbf{S}^{2}\right) \\
= & \sigma^{2}\left(N+\operatorname{trace}\left(\mathbf{S}^{2}\right)\right)+\operatorname{Bias}(\lambda)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where we use that $E(\hat{\mathbf{f}} \mid \mathbf{X})=E(\mathbf{S Y} \mid \mathbf{X})=\mathbf{S f}$.

## EXTRA: Estimation of $\sigma^{2}$ using low bias estimates

Take

$$
\operatorname{RSS}(\hat{\mathbf{f}})=\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(y_{i}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

is a natural estimator of $E\left(\|\mathbf{Y}-\hat{\mathbf{f}}\|^{2} \mid \mathbf{X}\right)$. Its mean is then

$$
\sigma^{2}\left(N-\left(\operatorname{trace}\left(2 \mathbf{S}-\mathbf{S}^{2}\right)\right)+\operatorname{Bias}(\lambda)^{2}\right.
$$

Choosing a low-bias - that is trace $\left(2 \mathbf{S}-\mathbf{S}^{2}\right.$ is large - model, we expect $\operatorname{Bias}(\lambda)^{2}$ to be negligible and we estimate $\sigma^{2}$ as

$$
\hat{\sigma}^{2}=\frac{1}{N-\operatorname{trace}\left(2 \mathbf{S}-\mathbf{S}^{2}\right)} \operatorname{RSS}(\hat{\mathbf{f}})
$$

From this point of view

$$
\operatorname{trace}\left(2 \mathbf{S}-\mathbf{S}^{2}\right)
$$

can be justified as the effective degrees of freedom.

