CSC 2515: Introduction to Machine Learning Lecture 4: Bias-Variance Decomposition, Ensemble Method I: Bagging

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- Mean Estimator
- General Case



- Closer look at what determines the error of ML algorithm
- Bootstrap Aggregation (Bagging)
- Skills to Learn
 - ▶ What is the bias-variance decomposition is?
 - ▶ The concept behind Bagging and why it works
 - Random Forests

Bias-Variance Decomposition



• Recall that overly simple models underfit the data, and overly complex models overfit.



• We quantify this effect in terms of the bias-variance decomposition.

- For the next few slides, we consider the simple problem of estimating the mean of a random variable using data.
- Consider a r.v. Y with an unknown distribution p. This random variable has an (unknown) mean $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ and variance $\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[(Y m)^2].$
- Given: a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$ with independently sampled $Y_i \sim p$.
- How can we estimate m using \mathcal{D} ?

- Given: a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}$ with independently sampled $Y_i \sim p$.
- Consider an algorithm that receives \mathcal{D} , does some processing on data, and outputs a number. The goal of this algorithm is to provide an estimate of m. Let us denote it by $h(\mathcal{D})$.
- Some good and bad examples:
 - Sample average: $h(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$
 - Single-sample estimator: $h(\mathcal{D}) = Y_1$
 - Zero estimator: $h(\mathcal{D}) = 0$
- How well do they perform?

- How can we assess the performance of a particular $h(\mathcal{D})$?
- Ideally, we want $h(\mathcal{D})$ be exactly equal to $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$. But this might be too much to ask. (why?)
- What we can hope for is that $h(\mathcal{D}) \approx m$. How can we quantify the accuracy of approximation?

- We use the squared error $\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D}) = |h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2$ as a measure of quality. This is the familiar squared error loss function in regression.
- The error $\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})$ is a r.v. itself. (why?) For a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}$ the loss $\operatorname{err}(D)$ might be small, but for another $\mathcal{D}' = \{Y'_1, \ldots, Y'_n\}$ (still with $Y'_i \sim p$) the loss $\operatorname{err}(D')$ might be large. We would like to quantify the "average" error.
- We focus on the expectation of $\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})$, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - \boldsymbol{m}\right|^{2}\right]$$

• Note that the dataset \mathcal{D} is random and this expectation is w.r.t. its randomness.

- We would like to understand what determines $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2\right]$ by looking more closely at it.
- We can decompose $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2\right]$ by adding and subtracting $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]$ inside $|\cdot|$ and expanding:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^{2}\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^{2}\right] + 2\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[(h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right) (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m)\right].$$

• Let us simplify the right hand side (RHS).

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^{2}\right] + 2\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[(h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right)\left(\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m\right)\right].$$

- Recall that if X is a random variable and f is a function, the quantity f(X) is a random variable. But its expectation $\mathbb{E}[f(X)]$ is not. We can say that the expectation takes the randomness away. So $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})]$ is not a random variable anymore.
- We have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m\right|^{2}\right] = \left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m\right|^{2}.$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^{2}\right] + 2\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[(h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right)\left(\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m\right)\right].$$

- Let us consider $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[(h(\mathcal{D}) \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})])(\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})] m)].$
- To reduce the clutter, we denote $\bar{m} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})]$, i.e., the expected value of the estimator.
- Note that \bar{m} is an expectation of a r.v., so it is not random. This means that $\mathbb{E}\left[\bar{m}h(\mathcal{D})\right] = \bar{m}\mathbb{E}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]$.
- We have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[(h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right) (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m)\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[(h(\mathcal{D}) - \bar{m})(\bar{m} - m)\right] = (\bar{m} - m)\underbrace{(\mathbb{E}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - \bar{m})}_{=0} = 0$$

Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^2\right] = \underbrace{|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^2}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^2\right]}_{\text{variance}}.$$

- Bias: The error of the expected estimator (over draws of dataset \mathcal{D}) compared to the mean $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ of the random variable Y.
- Variance: The variance of a single estimator $h(\mathcal{D})$ (whose randomness comes from \mathcal{D}).
- This is for an estimator of a mean of a random variable. We shall extend this decomposition to more general estimators too.

Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^{2}\right] = \underbrace{|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^{2}}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}}.$$

• Let us compute the bias and variance of a few estimators. Recall that $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ and $\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}\{Y\} = \mathbb{E}[(Y - m)^2]$.

• Sample average: $h(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$.

• Bias
$$|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})] - m|^2 = |\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right] - m|^2 = |\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[Y_i] - m|^2 = |\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n m - m|^2 = 0.$$

► Variance:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i} - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right]\right|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Y_{i}-m)\right|^{2}\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{E}\left[(Y_{i}-m)^{2}\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}}n\sigma^{2} = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}.$$
►
$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right|^{2}\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = 0 + \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}.$$

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Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right|^{2}\right] = \underbrace{\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m\right|^{2}}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}}.$$

• Single-sample estimator: $h(\mathcal{D}) = Y_1$

- The algorithm behind this estimator only looks at the first data point and ignores the rest.
- Bias $|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})] m|^2 = |\mathbb{E}[Y_1] m|^2 = |m m|^2 = 0.$

► Variance:
$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|Y_{1} - \mathbb{E}\left[Y_{1}\right]\right|^{2}\right] = \sigma^{2}$$

•
$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = 0 + \sigma^2.$$

Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right|^{2}\right] = \underbrace{\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m\right|^{2}}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}}.$$

• Zero estimator:
$$h(\mathcal{D}) = 0$$

- ▶ The algorithm behind this estimator does not look at data and always outputs zero. (We do not really want to use it in practice.)
- Bias $|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})] m|^2 = |0 m|^2 = m^2$.
- ► Variance: $\mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|0 \mathbb{E}\left[0\right]\right|^{2}\right] = 0.$
- $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) m\right|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = m^2 + 0.$

• Summary:

- ► Sample average: $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = 0 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$
- Single-sample estimator: $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = 0 + \sigma^2.$
- ► Zero estimator: $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) m\right|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = m^2 + 0.$

• These estimators show different behaviour of bias and variance.

- ▶ The zero estimator has no variance (surprising?), but potentially a lot of bias (unless we are "lucky" and *m* is in fact very close to 0).
- ▶ The sample average has zero bias, but in general it has a non-zero variance.
 - ▶ Q: When does it have a zero variance?

• We could also define error as

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},Y}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D})-Y\right|^2\right]$$

instead of $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - m|^2\right]$. This measure the expected squared error of $h(\mathcal{D})$ compared to Y instead of the mean $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$.

• We have a similar decomposition:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - Y\right|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - m + m - Y\right|^{2}\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right|^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\left|m - Y\right|^{2}\right] + 2\mathbb{E}\left[\left(h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right)(m - Y)\right].$$

• The last term is zero because

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right)(m - Y)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[\left(h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right)(m - Y) \mid \mathcal{D}\right]\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(h(\mathcal{D}) - m\right)\mathbb{E}\left[m - Y \mid \mathcal{D}\right]\right] = 0.$$

Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - Y|^2\right] = \underbrace{|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right] - m|^2}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^2\right]}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[|Y - m|^2\right]}_{\text{Bayes error}}.$$

We have an additional term of E [|m − Y|²] = σ². This is the variance of Y. This comes from the randomness of the r.v. Y and cannot be avoided. This is called the Bayes error.

- What about the bias-variance decomposition for a machine learning algorithm such as a regression estimator or a classifier?
- Two importance issues to be addressed:
 - We are not trying to estimate a single real-valued number $(h(\mathcal{D}) \in \mathbb{R})$ anymore, but a function over input **x**. How can we measure the error in this case?
 - ▶ When we only wanted to estimate the mean, the "best" solution was $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$. What is the best solution here?

- Suppose that the training set \mathcal{D} consists of N pairs $(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, t^{(i)})$ sampled independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) from a sample generating distribution p_{sample} , i.e., $(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, t^{(i)}) \sim p_{\text{sample}}$.
- We consider the marginal distributions $p_{\mathbf{x}}$ and the distribution of t conditioned on \mathbf{x} by $p(t|\mathbf{x})$:

•
$$p_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) = \int p_{\text{sample}}(\mathbf{x}, t) dt$$

•
$$p(t|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p_{\text{sample}}(\mathbf{x},t)}{p_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x})}$$

- Let p_{dataset} denote the induced distribution over training sets, i.e. $\mathcal{D} \sim p_{\text{dataset}}$.
 - ▶ We have that

$$p_{\text{dataset}}\left((\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, t^{(1)}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}^{(N)}, t^{(N)})\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_{\text{sample}}((\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, t^{(i)})).$$

- \bullet Pick a fixed query point ${\bf x}$ (denoted with a green x).
- Consider an experiment where we sample lots of training datasets i.i.d. from p_{dataset} .



- Let us run our learning algorithm on each training set \mathcal{D} , producing a regressor or classifier $h(\mathcal{D}) : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T}$.
- As \mathcal{D} is random, and $h(\mathcal{D})$ is a function of \mathcal{D} , the function $h(\mathcal{D})$ is a random function.
- Fix a query point **x**. We use $h(\mathcal{D})$ to predict the output at **x**, i.e., $y = h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$.
- y is a random variable, where the randomness comes from the choice of training set

• \mathcal{D} is random $\implies h(\cdot; \mathcal{D})$ is random $\implies h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$ is random



Bias-Variance Decomposition: Basic Setup

Here is the analogous setup for regression:



Since $y = h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$ is a random variable, we can talk about its expectation, variance, etc. over the distribution of training sets p_{dataset}

• Recap of the setup:



 $\bullet\,$ When ${\bf x}$ is fixed, this is very similar to the mean estimator case.

- ▶ Recall that we had $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2\right]$. In the mean estimator, $h(\mathcal{D})$ was a scalar r.v., but here we have $h(\mathcal{D}) : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T}$.
- Can we have a bias-variance decomposition for a $h(\mathcal{D}) : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T}$?
- Two questions:
 - What should replace m in the error decomposition?
 - ▶ How should we evaluate the performance when **x** is random?

Bayes Optimality

Proposition: For a fixed \mathbf{x} , the best estimator is the conditional expectation of the target value $y_*(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}]$ (Distribution of $t \sim p(t|\mathbf{x})$), i.e.,

$$y_*(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmin} \mathbb{E}[(y-t)^2 | \mathbf{x}].$$

• **Proof:** Start by conditioning on (a fixed) \mathbf{x} .

$$\mathbb{E}[(y-t)^2 | \mathbf{x}] = \mathbb{E}[y^2 - 2yt + t^2 | \mathbf{x}]$$

= $y^2 - 2y\mathbb{E}[t | \mathbf{x}] + \mathbb{E}[t^2 | \mathbf{x}]$
= $y^2 - 2y\mathbb{E}[t | \mathbf{x}] + \mathbb{E}[t | \mathbf{x}]^2 + \operatorname{Var}[t | \mathbf{x}]$
= $y^2 - 2yy_*(\mathbf{x}) + y_*(\mathbf{x})^2 + \operatorname{Var}[t | \mathbf{x}]$
= $(y - y_*(\mathbf{x}))^2 + \operatorname{Var}[t | \mathbf{x}].$

- The first term is nonnegative, and can be made 0 by setting $y = y_*(\mathbf{x})$.
- The second term does not depend on y. It corresponds to the inherent unpredictability, or noise, of the targets, and is called the Bayes error or irreducible error.
 - ▶ This is the best we can ever hope to do with any learning algorithm. An algorithm that achieves it is Bayes optimal.

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• For each query point \mathbf{x} , the expected loss is different. We are interested in quantifying how well our estimator performs over the distribution p_{sample} . That is, the error measure is

$$\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathbf{x}}} \left[\left| h(\mathbf{x}; D) - y_{*}(\mathbf{x}) \right|^{2} \right]$$
$$= \int \left| h(\mathbf{x}; D) - y_{*}(\mathbf{x}) \right|^{2} p_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}$$

- This is similar to $\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D}) = |h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2$ of the Mean Estimator case, except that
 - The ideal estimator is $y_*(\mathbf{x})$ and not m.
 - We take average over \mathbf{x} according to the probability distribution $p_{\mathbf{x}}$.
- As before, $\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})$ is random due to the randomness of $\mathcal{D} \sim p_{\text{dataset}}$.
- We focus on the expectation of $\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})$, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D} \sim p_{\operatorname{dataset}}, \mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathbf{x}}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x}; D) - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right].$$

• To obtain the bias-variance decomposition of

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{err}(\mathcal{D})\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D} \sim p_{\text{dataset}}, \mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathbf{x}}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x}; D) - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right],$$

we add and subtract $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}]$ inside $|\cdot|$ (similar to before):

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right] = \\ & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right] - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right] = \\ & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right]\right|^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right] - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right] + \\ & 2\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[(h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right]\right)\left(\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right] - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right)\right] = \\ & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right]\right|^{2}\right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right] - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right] \end{split}$$

- Try to convince yourself that the inner product term is zero.
- This is the bias and variance decomposition for the general estimator (with the squared error loss).

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Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right] = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right] - y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right]\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}}.$$

- Bias: The squared error between the average estimator (averaged over dataset \mathcal{D}) and the best predictor $y_*(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}]$, averaged over $\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathbf{x}}$.
- Variance: The variance of a single estimator $h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$ (whose randomness comes from \mathcal{D}).

• Note that
$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right]|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x}\right]|^{2}\right]\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\operatorname{Var}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D})|\mathbf{x}]\right].$$

Bias-Variance Decomposition

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D})-t\right|^{2}\right] = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D})\mid\mathbf{x}\right]-y_{*}(\mathbf{x})\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},\mathbf{x}}\left[\left|h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D})-\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathbf{x};\mathcal{D})\mid\mathbf{x}\right]\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[\left|y_{*}(\mathbf{x})-t\right|^{2}\right]}_{\text{Bayes error}}.$$

- We have an additional term of $\mathbb{E}\left[|y_*(\mathbf{x}) t|^2\right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left[\operatorname{Var}[t \mid \mathbf{x}]\right]$ (Why?!).
- This is due to the the variance of t at each fixed x, averaged over x ~ p_x. As before, this comes from the randomness of the r.v. t and cannot be avoided. This is the Bayes error.

Bias-Variance Decomposition: A Visualization

• Throwing darts = predictions for each draw of a dataset



- What doesn't this capture?
- \bullet We average over points ${\bf x}$ from the data distribution

Intro ML (UofT)

Bias-Variance Decomposition: Another Visualization

- We can visualize this decomposition in the output space, where the axes correspond to predictions on the test examples.
- If we have an overly simple model (e.g., K-NN with large K), it might have
 - ▶ high bias (because it is too simplistic to capture the structure in the data)
 - low variance (because there is enough data to get a stable estimate of the decision boundary)



Bias-Variance Decomposition: Another Visualization

- If you have an overly complex model (e.g., K-NN with K = 1), it might have
 - ▶ low bias (since it learns all the relevant structure)
 - ▶ high variance (it fits the quirks of the data you happened to sample)



Ensemble Methods - Part I: Bagging

- An ensemble of predictors is a set of predictors whose individual decisions are combined in some way to predict new examples, for example by (weighted) majority vote.
- For the result to be nontrivial, the learned hypotheses must differ somehow, for example because of
 - Trained on different data sets
 - ▶ Trained with different weighting of the training examples
 - Different algorithms
 - Different choices of hyperparameters
- Ensembles are usually easy to implement. The hard part is deciding what kind of ensemble you want, based on your goals.
- Two major types of ensembles methods:
 - ► Bagging
 - Boosting

Bagging: Motivation

- Suppose that we could somehow sample m independent training sets $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^m$ from p_{dataset} .
- We could then learn a predictor $h_i \triangleq h(\cdot; \mathcal{D}_i)$ based on each dataset, and take the average $h(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i(\mathbf{x})$.
- How does this affect the terms of the expected loss?
 - Bias: Unchanged, since the averaged prediction has the same expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_{i},\dots,\mathcal{D}_{m} \overset{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p_{\text{dataset}}} \left[h(\mathbf{x}) \right] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_{i} \sim p_{\text{dataset}}} \left[h_{i}(\mathbf{x}) \right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D} \sim p_{\text{dataset}}} \left[h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) \right].$$

 Variance: Reduced, since we are averaging over independent samples

$$\operatorname{Var}_{\mathcal{D}_1,\dots,\mathcal{D}_m}[h(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m \operatorname{Var}_{\mathcal{D}_i}[h_i(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{m} \operatorname{Var}_{\mathcal{D}}[h_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathbf{x})].$$

• Q: What if $m \to \infty$?

- In practice, we do not have access to the underlying data generating distribution p_{sample} .
- It is expensive to collect many i.i.d. datasets from p_{dataset} .
- Solution: bootstrap aggregation, or bagging.
 - Take a single dataset \mathcal{D} with n examples.
 - Generate m new datasets, each by sampling n training examples from \mathcal{D} , with replacement.
 - ▶ Average the predictions of models trained on each of these datasets.
- Bagging works well for low-bias / high-variance estimators.

Bagging

- Problem: the datasets are not independent, so we do not get the $\frac{1}{m}$ variance reduction.
- Possible to show that if the sampled predictions have variance σ^2 and correlation ρ , then

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}h_{i}(\mathbf{x})\right) = \rho\sigma^{2} + \frac{1}{m}(1-\rho)\sigma^{2}.$$

- Exercise: Prove this! (See next slide)
- By increasing m, the second term decreases.
- The first term, however, remains the same. It limits the benefit of bagging.
- If we can make correlation ρ as small as possible, we benefit more from bagging.

$$\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}h_{i}(\mathbf{x})\right) = \rho\sigma^{2} + \frac{1}{m}(1-\rho)\sigma^{2}.$$

- It can be advantageous to introduce *additional* variability into your algorithm, as long as it reduces the correlation between samples.
 - Intuition: you want to invest in a diversified portfolio, not just one stock.
 - ► Can help to use average over multiple algorithms, or multiple configurations (i.e., hyperparameters) of the same algorithm.

• Covariance:

$$\mathbf{Cov}(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}\left[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])\right].$$

• Correlation:

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\mathbf{Cov}\left(X,Y\right)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}.$$

• Covariance of linear combination:

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} Z_{i}\right] = \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{i}, Z_{j}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \operatorname{Var}[Z_{i}] + \sum_{i,j=1; i \neq j}^{m} \operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{i}, Z_{j}\right).$$

- Random forests: bagged decision trees, with one extra trick to decorrelate the predictions
- When choosing each node of the decision tree, choose a random set of p input attributes (e.g., $p = \sqrt{d}$), and only consider splits on those features.
 - \blacktriangleright Smaller p reduces the correlation between trees.
- Random forests improve the variance reduction of bagging by reducing the correlation between the trees (ρ).
- For regression, we take the average output of the ensemble; for classification, we perform a majority vote.
- Random forests are probably one of the best black-box machine learning algorithm. They often work well with no tuning whatsoever.
 - One of the most widely used algorithms in Kaggle competitions.

- Bias-Variance Decomposition
 - The error of a machine learning algorithm can be decomposed to a bias term and a variance term.
 - ▶ Hyperparameters of an algorithm might allow us to tradeoff between these two.
- Ensemble Methods
 - Bagging as a simple way to reduce the variance of an estimation method