## CSC 2515: Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 4: Bias-Variance Decomposition, Ensemble Method I: Bagging

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Credit for slides goes to many members of the ML Group at the U of T, and beyond, including (recent past): Roger Grosse, Murat Erdogdu, Richard Zemel, Juan Felipe Carrasquilla, Emad Andrews, and myself.

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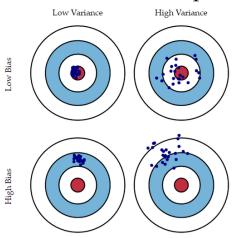
2 Ensemble Methods: Bagging

#### Today

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

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# Bias-Variance Decomposition

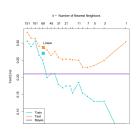


#### Bias-Variance Decomposition

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







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

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

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- Given: a dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$  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:  $\tilde{h}(\mathcal{D}) = Y_1$
  - ▶ Zero estimator:  $h(\mathcal{D}) = 0$
- How well do they perform?

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

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- We use the squared error  $err(\mathcal{D}) = |h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2$  as a measure of quality. This is the familiar squared error loss function in regression.
- The error  $err(\mathcal{D})$  is a r.v. itself. (Q: Why?)
- For a dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$  the loss  $\operatorname{err}(D)$  might be small, but for another  $\mathcal{D}' = \{Y_1', \dots, Y_n'\}$  (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  $err(\mathcal{D})$ , i.e.,

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

ullet Note that the dataset  $\mathcal D$  is random and this expectation is w.r.t. its randomness.

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

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

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

- What is the intuition of term  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})]$ ?
- Let us simplify the right hand side (RHS).

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

- 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.
- For the second term, we have

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

• Q: Suppose that  $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$  with  $Y_i \sim p$  with mean m and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Define  $h(\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2$ . What is  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[h(\mathcal{D})]$ ?

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

- 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

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

The third term is zero.

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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition

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

- 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.

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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition

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

- Let us compute the bias and variance of a few estimators. Recall that  $m = \mathbb{E}[Y]$  and  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}\{Y\} = \mathbb{E}[(Y-m)^2]$ .
- 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:  $\mathbb{E}\left[|h(\mathcal{D}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]|^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i} - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right]\right|^{2}\right] =$   $\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Y_{i} - m)\right|^{2}\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{E}\left[(Y_{i} - m)^{2}\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}}n\sigma^{2} = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}.$
  - $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) m\right|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = 0 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$

#### 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:  $\mathbb{E}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[h(\mathcal{D})\right]\right|^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left|Y_1 \mathbb{E}\left[Y_1\right]\right|^2\right] = \sigma^2$ .
  - $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\left[\left|h(\mathcal{D}) m\right|^2\right] = \text{bias} + \text{variance} = 0 + \sigma^2.$

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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition

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

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

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

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

- ▶ 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?

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• We could also define error as

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

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

• 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

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

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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition

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

• We have an additional term of  $\mathbb{E}\left[|m-Y|^2\right] = \sigma^2$ . 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.

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- 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?

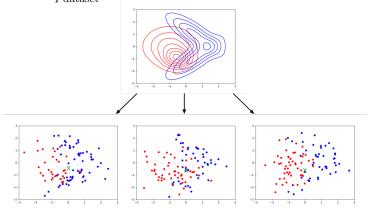
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- Suppose that the training set  $\mathcal{D}$  consists of N pairs  $(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, t^{(i)})$  sampled independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) from a sample generating distribution  $p_{\text{sample}}$ , i.e.,  $(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, t^{(i)})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

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

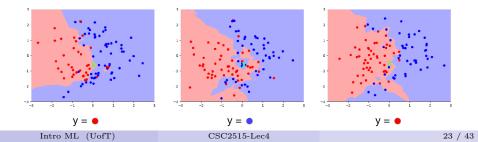
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- Pick a fixed query point  $\mathbf{x}$  (denoted with a green  $\times$ ).
- Consider an experiment where we sample lots of training datasets i.i.d. from  $p_{\rm dataset}$ .

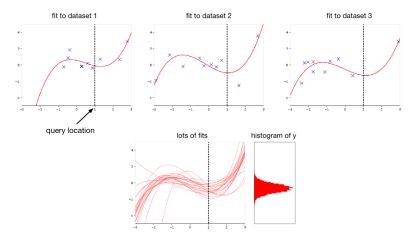


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- Let us run our learning algorithm on each training set  $\mathcal{D}$ , producing a regressor or classifier  $h(\mathcal{D}): \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T}$ .
- As  $\mathcal{D}$  is random, and  $h(\mathcal{D})$  is a function of  $\mathcal{D}$ , 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
  - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{D}$  is random  $\implies h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$  is random  $\implies h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$  is random

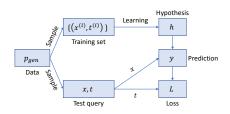


Here is the analogous setup for regression:



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  $p_{\text{dataset}}$ 

• Recap of the setup:



- $\bullet$  When **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:
  - $\triangleright$  What should replace m in the error decomposition?
  - ightharpoonup How should we evaluate the performance when  $\mathbf{x}$  is random?

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#### Bayes Optimal Prediction

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.,

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

• **Proof:** Start by conditioning on (a fixed)  $\mathbf{x}$ . For any fixed y, we have

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

$$= y^{2} - 2y\mathbb{E}[t \mid \mathbf{x}] + \mathbb{E}[t^{2} \mid \mathbf{x}]$$

$$= y^{2} - 2y\mathbb{E}[t \mid \mathbf{x}] + \mathbb{E}[t \mid \mathbf{x}]^{2} + \operatorname{Var}[t \mid \mathbf{x}]$$

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

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

- 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  $p_{\text{sample}}$ . That is, the error measure is

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

- This is similar to  $err(\mathcal{D}) = |h(\mathcal{D}) m|^2$  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,  $err(\mathcal{D})$  is random due to the randomness of  $\mathcal{D} \sim p_{\text{dataset}}$ .
- We focus on the expectation of  $err(\mathcal{D})$ , i.e.,

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

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• To obtain the bias-variance decomposition of

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

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

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

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

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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition

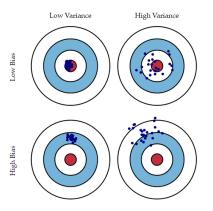
$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{x}} \left[ |h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) - t|^2 \right] = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x}} \left[ |\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D}) \mid \mathbf{x} \right] - y_*(\mathbf{x}) |^2 \right]}_{\text{bias}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D},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

- 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  $\mathbf{x} \sim p_{\mathbf{x}}$ . As before, this comes from the randomness of the r.v. t and cannot be avoided. This is the Bayes error.

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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition: A Visualization

• Throwing darts = predictions for each draw of a dataset

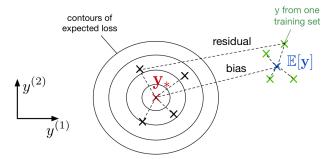


- What doesn't this capture?
- ullet We average over points  ${f x}$  from the data distribution

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## Bias-Variance Decomposition: Another Visualization

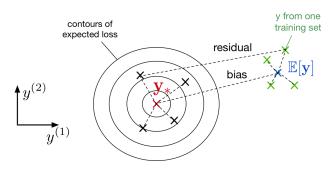
- We can visualize this decomposition in the output space, where the axes correspond to predictions on the test examples.
- Consider two test query inputs  $\mathbf{x}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$ . The outputs are
  - The Bayes optimal prediction  $y_* = [y_*(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), y_*(\mathbf{x}^{(2)})] = [\mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}^{(1)}], \mathbb{E}[t|\mathbf{x}^{(2)}]].$
  - The prediction of the model  $h(\mathbf{x}; \mathcal{D})$ :  $y = [y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}] = [h(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}; \mathcal{D}), h(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}; \mathcal{D})].$
- We can visualize the outputs as follows:



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#### Bias-Variance Decomposition: Another Visualization

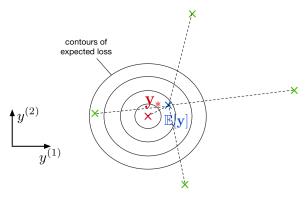
- If we have an overly simple model (e.g., K-NN with large K), it might have
  - ▶ high bias (because it is too simplistic to capture the structure in the data)
  - ▶ low variance (because there is enough data to get a stable estimate of the decision boundary)



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#### 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)



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Ensemble Methods – Part I: Bagging

#### Ensemble Methods: Brief Overview

- 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

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#### Bagging: Motivation

- Suppose that we could somehow sample m independent training sets  $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^m$  from  $p_{\text{dataset}}$ .
- 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

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

▶ 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  $p_{\text{sample}}$ .
- It is expensive to collect many i.i.d. datasets from  $p_{\text{dataset}}$ .
- 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.

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#### 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  $\sigma^2$  and correlation  $\rho$ , 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)
- $\bullet$  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  $\rho$  as small as possible, we benefit more from bagging.

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## Some Properties of Variance

• 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:

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

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

- 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.

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#### Random Forests

- 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.
  - ▶ Smaller *p* reduces the correlation between trees.
- Random forests improve the variance reduction of bagging by reducing the correlation between the trees  $(\rho)$ .
- 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.

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#### Conclusion

- 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

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