

# Model Assessment and Selection for Prediction - Part 1

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Model Complexity

Generalization  
Performance

Model Assessment  
and Selection

The Bias-Variance  
Decomposition

Assessing EPE

Estimation of  
In-Sample Error

## Model complexity

- ▶ In regression analyses, we can base model selection on a pre-specified set of predictor variables
  - ▶ variable selection which includes/excludes a particular variable ('best' subsets regression)
  - ▶ shrinkage methods which include all predictors but controls the size of the coefficients (one form of this is called ridge regression...more later!)
- ▶ Each approach employs a measure of 'complexity'
  - ▶ number of covariates
  - ▶ amount of control on the size of a coefficient
- ▶ Generically we will refer to this measure as a *tuning parameter*

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## Model complexity

- ▶ Determining a specific value for the tuning parameter is part of the model selection process
- ▶ For best subsets regression the tuning parameter is fairly easy to conceptualize, mainly because we can think in terms of the interpretation of predictors and their associated coefficients
- ▶ Other classes of restricted estimators also have associated measures of complexity
  - ▶ polynomial transformations
  - ▶ piecewise polynomials
  - ▶ natural cubic splines
  - ▶ smoothing splines

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## Model complexity

- ▶ Again, in each case we can still embed the choice of tuning parameter into the model selection process
  - ▶ in particular, we can view the determination of the level of complexity of our model as a model selection problem
- ▶ The selection process requires a means of assessing any given model
  - ▶ test or generalization error
  - ▶ error observed in an independent sample
- ▶ Our goal is to develop tools for the joint tasks of model assessment and selection

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## Generalization performance

- ▶ We can formalize model assessment via a loss function and use expected prediction error, EPE, as a criterion for choosing a model
  - ▶ choose  $f(\cdot)$  which minimizes EPE

$$f^*(\cdot) = \operatorname{argmin}_{f(\cdot)} E[L(Y, f(X))]$$

- ▶ Two examples of commonly considered loss functions are
  1. Squared error ( $L_2$ ) loss:  $E(Y - f(X))^2$
  2. Absolute ( $L_1$ ) loss:  $E|Y - f(X)|$

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## Generalization performance

- ▶  $L_2$  loss is commonly used for many reasons, and in this case we have  $f^*(\cdot) = E[Y | X = x]$ , the conditional expectation or regression function
- ▶ In this case there are many ways we can estimate  $E[Y | X = x]$ , and we would like a framework that can be used to assess, and order, competing choices.

# Generalization performance

## Generalization performance

- ▶ For a specified outcome variable  $Y$  and vector of predictor variables  $X$ , suppose we have a prediction model  $\hat{f}(X)$ , the form of which has been determined on the basis of a *training sample*
- ▶ We measure errors between  $Y$  and  $\hat{f}(X)$  by specifying a loss function  $L(Y, \hat{f}(X))$
- ▶ The *test* or *generalization* error is the expected prediction error over an *independent* test sample

$$\text{EPE} = E_{X,Y} [L(Y, \hat{f}(X))]$$

- ▶ the expectation is taken over the joint distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$
- ▶ the average error, were the prediction model to be applied to an independent sample from the population

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## Generalization performance

- ▶ If we knew the true joint distribution of  $(X, Y)$ , we could evaluate this expression directly
  - ▶ feasible in a simulation study where we know the truth
- ▶ However, in real life situations we won't know this joint distribution and so, for a given  $\hat{f}(X)$ , we need to estimate EPE
- ▶ A tempting choice could be the *training error*

$$\text{err} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \hat{f}(x_i))$$

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## Generalization performance

- ▶ Unfortunately the training error is not a good estimate of test error
  - ▶ the problem is that the estimate  $\hat{y}_i = \hat{f}(x_i)$  uses  $y_i$
  - ▶ the solution is specifically chosen because it does well in predicting the training data
- ▶ More specifically, the training error consistently decreases with model complexity
  - ▶ an extreme case is including a parameter for every observation (a *saturated* model), so that  $\hat{f}(x_i) = y_i$  and there is zero training error!
- ▶ A model with zero training error can be viewed as an overfit to the training data and will typically generalize poorly
  - ▶ high sampling variability

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## Model assessment and selection

- ▶ We've already identified two separate goals we might have in mind: model selection and model assessment
- ▶ Model selection deals with estimating the performance of competing models in order to choose the best one
  - ▶ estimate the test error distribution across these models
  - ▶ choose the model which corresponds to the minimum
- ▶ Model assessment deals with evaluating the generalization error when applying the final model to new data
  - ▶ the final model is still chosen on the basis of the training data
  - ▶ seek an honest assessment of generalization error

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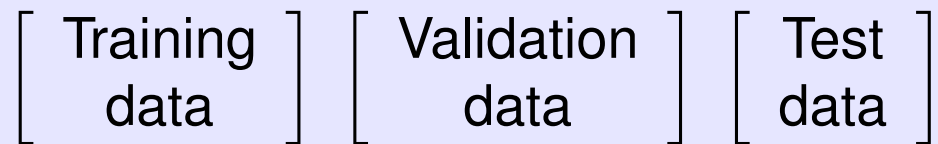
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# Model assessment and selection

## Model assessment and selection

- ▶ In a data-rich situation, we could approach these goals jointly by splitting the data into three parts:



- ▶ Training data: *fit the models*
  - ▶ obtain point estimates for any given model under consideration
  - ▶ repeated use across models
- ▶ Validation data: *choose between models*
  - ▶ estimate the prediction error for model selection
  - ▶ repeated use across models
- ▶ Test data: *estimate generalization error of the final model*
  - ▶ one-time use, at the end of the analysis

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# Model assessment and selection

## Model assessment and selection

- ▶ Typically, we are not in a position to split the data into three parts
- ▶ A compromise might be to split the data into two parts

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Training} \\ \text{data} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Test} \\ \text{data} \end{bmatrix}$$

and approximate the validation step

- ▶ analytically:  $C_p$ , AIC and BIC
  - ▶ efficiency sample re-use: cross-validation and the bootstrap
- ▶ Even still, it may not be that splitting into two parts is feasible
- ▶ consider whether or not these methods can be used to obtain reasonable assessments of generalization error

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# The bias-variance decomposition

## Squared error loss

- ▶ For a continuous outcome, suppose the data arise from the model

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$

- ▶ where  $E[\epsilon] = 0$  and  $\text{Var}[\epsilon] = \sigma^2$
- ▶ Under  $L_2$  loss, the expected prediction error for an estimate  $\hat{f}(\cdot)$  at  $X = x_0$  can be decomposed as

$$\text{EPE}(x_0) = \sigma^2 + \left\{ E[\hat{f}(x_0)] - f(x_0) \right\}^2 + \text{Var}[\hat{f}(x_0)]$$

- ▶ irreducible error + bias<sup>2</sup> + variance

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# The bias-variance decomposition

## Squared error loss

- ▶ This decomposition is specific to the  $L_2$  loss but can be evaluated for any given estimator
- ▶ For linear regression we have

$$\text{EPE}(x_0) = \sigma^2 + \left\{ f(x_0) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{f}(x_0)] \right\}^2 + \|\mathbf{h}(x_0)\|^2 \sigma^2$$

- ▶ where  $\mathbf{h}(x_0) = x_0(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T$

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## Assessing EPE

- ▶ Earlier, we noted that the training err

$$\text{err} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \hat{f}(x_i))$$

would not typically be a good estimate of EPE

- ▶ In particular, we would expect err to be somewhat lower than the true EPE
  - ▶ that is, the estimate would be overly optimistic
- ▶ Part of the discrepancy is due to where the evaluation points occur
  - ▶ EPE refers to expected error on an independent sample
  - ▶ referred to as *extra-sample* error

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## Assessing EPE

- ▶ Methods that directly estimate the extra-sample error include cross-validation and the bootstrap
  - ▶ both involve the clever use and re-use of the training data
- ▶ Towards an analytic treatment of understanding the nature of the optimism associated with using the training data to evaluate generalization error, we can consider the *in-sample* error

$$\text{Err} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E_y \left[ E_{Y^{\text{new}}} \left[ L(Y_i^{\text{new}}, \hat{f}(x_i)) \right] \right]$$

- ▶ The notation  $Y^{\text{new}}$  indicates that we observe  $n$  new outcome values *at each of the training points*  $x_i, i = 1, \dots, n$

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## Assessing EPE

- ▶ Each of the  $n$  components of the in-sample error averages over the randomness in two distributions
  - ▶ the randomness in the observed outcomes in the training data,  $\mathbf{y}$
  - ▶ the randomness in the 'new' outcome observation,  $y_i^{\text{new}}$
- ▶ The *optimism* is defined as the expected difference between the in-sample error and the training error

$$\text{op} \equiv \text{Err} - E_y [\text{err}]$$

- ▶ expectation is taken with respect to the sampling distribution based on the training data,  $\mathbf{y}$

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## Assessing EPE

- ▶ For squared error loss, a little algebra leads to

$$\text{op} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Cov}[\hat{y}_i, y_i]$$

## Assessing EPE

- ▶ This definition leads to the relation

$$\text{Err} = \mathbf{E}_y [\text{err}] + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Cov}[\hat{y}_i, y_i]$$

- ▶ So, the extent to which  $\text{err}$  is optimistic, as an estimator of  $\text{Err}$ , depends on how strongly  $y_i$  influences its own prediction

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## Assessing EPE

- ▶ The expression simplifies if  $\hat{y}_i$  is linear in the  $y$ 's

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \pi_j y_j$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{op} &= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}_y [(\hat{y}_i - \mathbf{E}_y[\hat{y}_i])(y_i - \mathbf{E}_y[y_i])] \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i \text{Var}[y_i] \end{aligned}$$

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## Assessing EPE

- ▶ For example, under the additive error model

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$

with  $E[\epsilon] = 0$  and  $\text{Var}[\epsilon] = \sigma^2$ , we obtain

$$\text{Err} = E_y[\text{err}] + \frac{2}{n}p\sigma^2$$

- ▶  $p$  is the number of parameters fit in the regression

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### Estimation of in-sample error

- ▶ While decision theory tells us that EPE is a natural criterion for model selection, the in-sample error can still be useful
  - ▶ having an analytic treatment makes the approach convenient
  - ▶ can be effective if we focus on relative differences in error between model options, rather than the absolute error itself
- ▶ From the previous relation, the general form of an estimator for  $\text{Err}$  is

$$\widehat{\text{Err}} = \text{err} + \widehat{\text{op}}$$

where  $\widehat{\text{op}}$  is an estimate of the optimism

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# Estimation of in-sample error

## Mallow's $C_p$

- ▶ For the linear model, squared error loss leads to Mallow's  $C_p$  statistic:

$$\begin{aligned}C_p &= \text{err} + \frac{2}{n}p\sigma^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \{ \text{RSS} + 2p\hat{\sigma}^2 \}\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ The estimate  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  is typically taken from a low-bias model
  - ▶ the most complex model under consideration
- ▶ The  $C_p$  statistic penalizes the residual sum of squares by a factor proportional to the number of parameters being estimated
  - ▶ the more complex the model, the greater  $p$  will be and the greater the penalty

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## Akaike information criterion; AIC

- ▶ The Akaike information criterion is a more general estimate of Err when a log-likelihood function is used as the loss function
  - ▶ for a model parameterized by  $\theta$ , we take

$$L(Y, f_{\theta}(X)) = -2 \log \Pr_{\theta}(Y | X)$$

- ▶ sometimes referred to as *cross-entropy* loss or *deviance*
  - ▶ multiplying by -2 and taking the log makes the loss for the Normal distribution match the squared error loss
- ▶ We use this loss function all the time as a means for choosing the 'best' model from our training data
  - ▶ minimizing the observed loss is maximum likelihood estimation

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## Akaike information criterion; AIC

- ▶ AIC relies on the following relationship

$$-2E_Y [\log \Pr_{\hat{\theta}}(Y|X)] \approx -\frac{2}{n}E_Y[\text{loglike}] + 2\frac{p}{n}$$

- ▶ this relationship holds asymptotically as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- ▶  $\hat{\theta}$  is the maximum likelihood estimate
- ▶ 'loglike' is the maximized log-likelihood

$$\text{loglike} = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \Pr_{\hat{\theta}}(y_i|X)$$

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## Estimation of in-sample error

### Akaike information criterion; AIC

- ▶ For any general purpose likelihood AIC is defined as

$$\text{AIC} = -\frac{2}{n} \log \text{like} + 2\frac{p}{n}$$

- ▶ for the Normal model, with  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  known, this is equivalent to  $C_p$
- ▶ The penalty imposed by AIC is similar to that imposed by  $C_p$ 
  - ▶ proportional to the number of parameters being estimated
- ▶ In more general settings, when the estimator is linear

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{y}$$

we can replace  $p$  with the effective degrees of freedom  
 $\text{df} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{L})$  (eg. penalized regression methods)

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