# Avoiding Overfitting

CMPUT 261: Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

P&M §7.4

# Logistics & Assignment #2

- Assignment #2 is due Thursday, Feb 29 at 11:59pm
  - Submit via eclass
  - 20% deduction for late submissions
- Midterm is Tuesday March 5
  - Covers everything up to and including Bayesian Inference
  - A practice midterm will be available
  - You may bring a single, double-sided, handwritten cheat sheet to the exam

# Recap: Supervised Learning

Definition: A supervised learning task consists of

- A set of input features  $X_1, ..., X_n$
- A set of target features  $Y_1, ..., Y_k$
- A set of training examples, for which both input and target features are given
- A set of test examples, for which only the input features are given

The goal is to predict the values of the target features given the input features; i.e., learn a function h(x) that will map features X to a prediction of Y

- We want to predict new, unseen data well; this is called generalization
- Can estimate generalization performance by reserving separate test examples

### Recap: Linear Models

- Linear regression is a simple model for predicting real quantities
- Linear classification can be built from linear regression
  - Based on sign of prediction ("discriminative"), or
  - Using logistic regression ("probabilistic")
  - For non-binary target features, can normalize probabilistic predictions for individual classes
- Gradient descent is a general, widely-used training procedure (with several variants)
  - Linear models can be optimized in closed form for certain losses
  - In practice often optimized with gradient descent

### Lecture Outline

- 1. Recap & Logistics
- 2. Causes of Overfitting
- 3. Avoiding Overfitting

#### After this lecture, you should be able to:

- define overfitting, bias, and noise
- explain how to avoid overfitting using pseudocounts, regularization, and cross-validation

# Overfitting

**Overfitting**: The learner makes predictions based on regularities that occur in the **training data** but **not** in the **underlying population**, causing failure to **generalize** 

- Learning spurious correlations: In any training data there may be coincidental associations that are not reflective of the process being learned
  - Example: More pictures of tanks taken on sunny days, more pictures without tanks taken on cloudy days. Learning agent learns that sunny pictures are predictive of tanks.
- 2. **Overconfidence** in the learned model. The unseen data is assumed to be more **exactly like** the training data than is plausible.
  - Example: Just because my training data doesn't contain the word "squeegee" doesn't mean there is a literally zero percent chance of encountering it!

# Example: Restaurant Ratings

- Suppose a website collects ratings for restaurants on a scale of 1 to 5 stars
- The website wants to display the best restaurants
  - Definition: Restaurants that future diners will like most
  - I.e., based on **observations** (ratings from past diners), predict "true" **rating** (average ratings from the population of diners)
- Question: What rating prediction for a given restaurant optimizes the squared loss on the training data?
- Question: What would happen if the website just listed the restaurants with the highest rating predicted in this way?

### Reversion to the Mean

Reversion to the mean: Extreme predictions often generalize worse

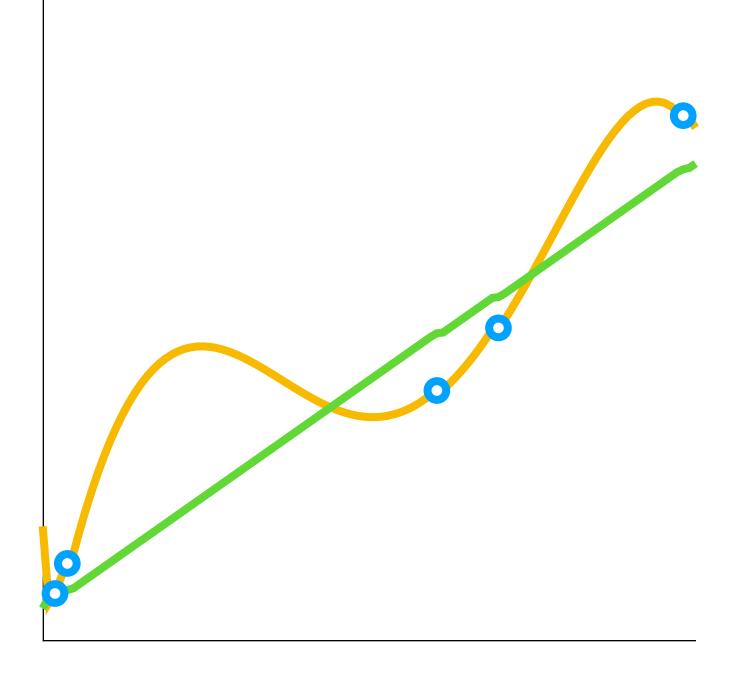
- 1. Children of very tall parents are likely to be shorter than either parent
- 2. The Sports Illustrated Cover curse: Players who have just appeared on the cover of Sports Illustrated often perform much worse subsequently
- 3. If the first few ratings are five stars, subsequent ratings are likely to be lower
  - Even if it's "really" a 5-star restaurant! (why?)

# Model Complexity

- Adding more parameters to a model can usually fit the training data better
  - Especially when the larger model is a **generalization** of the smaller model; it is then **mathematically inevitable**
- Intuition:
  - Simple models can't represent much, so they are forced to prioritize the largest/most important effects
  - Complex models can represent more effects, including small, unimportant, and or spurious effects

# Example: Fitting Polynomials

- A linear fit won't hit every observation exactly
- A sufficiently high-degree polynomial will
- Question: Which model's predictions are more credible?



### Big Data

- More training examples usually lead to better predictions (i.e., better generalization) (why?)
- But this is not a cure-all
- Often when we have access to more examples, we also have access to more features of the examples
  - More features require more examples for efficient learning (why?)

#### Bias

What causes test set error? Bias + variance + noise

- Bias is error from systematically finding an imperfect model
  - Representation bias: Hypothesis space does not contain a model close enough to the ground truth
  - Search bias: Algorithm was not able to find a good enough hypothesis
- Example: Decision trees can represent any function of categorical variables, so they
  have low representational bias
  - The space of decision trees is too large to search exhaustively, so they can have a high search bias
- Example: Linear regression is a very simple class of models, so it has high representation bias
  - But the optimal linear model can be found analytically, so it has zero search bias

### Variance

What causes test set error? Bias + variance + noise

- The smaller the training dataset, the more different we can expect our model estimates to be
  - Restaurant Example: how different would the estimates be from two training sets of 1 rating each? How different would they be from two training sets of 100,000 ratings each? (why?)
- Variance is the error from having too little data to train from
  - or (equivalently), from having too complex a model for the amount of data that we have
  - More complex models require more data to fit
- Bias-variance tradeoff (for a given fixed amount of data):
  - Complicated models will contain better hypotheses, but be harder to estimate
  - Simple models will be easier to estimate, but not as accurate (due to representational bias)

#### Noise

What causes test set error? Bias + variance + noise

- Sometimes the underlying process that generates our data is inherently random
  - In this case, we cannot predict exactly no matter how many we have
  - Example: Biased coin toss
- Sometimes the underlying process is not random, but we are missing measurements for important features
  - In this case, we also cannot predict exactly
  - The missing features make the process appear random
  - Example: Ice cream trucks only come out when it's sunny, but our dataset doesn't record the weather

# Avoiding Overfitting

There are multiple approaches to avoiding overfitting:

- 1. Pseudocounts: Explicitly account for reversion to the mean
- 2. **Regularization**: Explicitly **trade off** between fitting the data and model complexity
- 3. Cross-validation: Detect overfitting using some of the training data

### Pseudocounts

- When we have not observed all the values in a variable's domain, unobserved values should not be assigned probability zero
  - If we don't have very much data, we should not be making very extreme predictions
- Solution: artificially add some "pretend" observations for each value of a variable (pseudocounts)
  - When there is not much data, predictions will tend to be less extreme as a result (why?)
  - When there is more data, the pseudocounts will have less effect on the predictions

# Regularization

- We shouldn't choose a complicated model unless there is clear evidence for it
- Instead of optimizing directly for training error, optimize training error plus a penalty for complexity:

$$\underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \sum_{e} \operatorname{error}(e, h) + \lambda \times \operatorname{regularizer}(h)$$

- regularizer measures the complexity of the hypothesis
- $\lambda$  is the **regularization parameter**: indicates how important hypothesis complexity is compared to fit
  - Larger  $\lambda$  means complexity is more important

# Types of Regularizer

- Number of parameters
- Degree of polynomial
- **L2** regularizer ("ridge regularizer"):

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j^2$$

- Prefers models with smaller weights
- L1 regularizer ("lasso regularizer"):

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \left| w_j \right|$$

- Prefers models with fewer nonzero weights
- Often used for feature selection: only features with nonzero weights are used

### Cross-Validation

- Previous methods require us to already know how simple a model "should" be:
  - How many pseudocounts to add?
  - What should regularization parameter be?
  - What degree of polynomial should we use?
- Ideally we would like to be able to answer these questions from the data
- Question: Can we use the test data to see which of these work best?
- Idea: Use some of the training data as an estimate of the test data

### Cross-Validation Procedure

Cross-validation can be used to estimate most bias-control parameters (hyperparameters)

- 1. **Randomly remove** some datapoints from the training set; these examples are the validation set
- 2. **Train** the model on the training set using some values of hyperparameters (pseudocounts, polynomial degree, regression parameter, etc.)
- 3. **Evaluate** the results on the validation set
- 4. **Update** values of hyperparameters
- 5. Repeat

### k-Fold Cross-Validation

- We want our training set to be as large as possible, so we get better models
- We want our validation set to be as large as possible, so that it is an accurate estimation of test performance
- When one is larger, the other must be smaller
- **k-fold cross-validation** lets us use every one of our examples for both validation and training

### k-Fold Cross-Validation Procedure

- 1. Randomly partition training data into k approximately equal-sized sets (folds)
- 2. Train k times, each time using all the folds but one; remaining fold is used for validation
- 3. Optimize hyperparameters based on validation errors

- Each example is used exactly once for validation and k-1 times for training
- Extreme case: k = n is called leave-one-out cross-validation

# Summary

- Overfitting is when a learned model fails to generalize due to overconfidence and/or learning spurious regularities
- Bias-variance tradeoff: More complex models can be more accurate, but also require more data to train
- Techniques for avoiding overfitting:
  - 1. **Pseudocounts**: Add **imaginary** observations
  - 2. Regularization: Penalize model complexity
  - 3. Cross-validation: Reserve validation data to estimate test error