## IEOR 290A – Lecture 2 Bias-Variance Tradeoff

## 1 Geometric Interpretation of OLS

Recall the optimization formulation of OLS,

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg\min_{\beta} \|Y - X\beta\|_2^2,$$

where the variables are as defined before. The basic tension in the problem above is that in general no exact solution exists to the linear equation

$$Y = X\beta;$$

otherwise we could use linear algebra to compute  $\beta$ , and this value would be a minimizer to the optimization problem written above.

Though no exact solution exists to  $Y = X\beta$ , an interesting question to ask is whether there is some related linear equation for which an exact solution exists. Because the noise is in Y and not X, we can imagine that we would like to pick some  $\hat{Y}$  such that  $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta}$  has an exact solution. Recall from linear algebra, that this is equivalent to asking that  $\hat{Y} \in \mathcal{R}(X)$  (i.e.,  $\hat{Y}$  is in the range space of X). Now if we think of  $\hat{Y}$  as true signal, then we can decompose Y as

$$Y = Y + \Delta Y,$$

where  $\Delta Y$  represents orthogonal noise. Because – from Fredholm's theorem in linear algebra – we know that the range space of X is orthogonal to the null space of X' (i.e.,  $\mathcal{R}(X) \perp \mathcal{N}(X')$ ), it must be the case that  $\Delta Y \in \mathcal{N}(X')$  since we defined  $\hat{Y}$  such that  $\hat{Y} \in \mathcal{R}(X)$ . As a result, premultiplying  $Y = \hat{Y} + \Delta Y$  by X' gives

$$X'Y = X'\hat{Y} + X'\Delta Y = X'\hat{Y}.$$

The intuition is that premultiplying by X' removes the noise component. And because  $\hat{Y} \in \mathcal{R}(X)$ and  $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta}$ , we must have that

$$X'Y = X'\hat{Y} = X'X\hat{\beta}.$$

Solving this gives  $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}(X'Y)$ , which is our regular equation for the OLS estimate.

## 2 Local Linear Regression

As seen above, a geometric perspective to regression problems can be quite valuable. Consider a regression model

$$y = f(x) + \epsilon$$

in which  $f(\cdot)$  is known to be highly nonlinear but of unknown structure. A nonparametric approach is natural, and one nonparametric method is known as local linear regression (LLR). The idea of this method is that if  $f(\cdot)$  has sufficient smoothness (say twice-differentiable), then the model will look linear in small regions of input-space. Suppose that we consider points in input space nearby  $x_0$ , then intuitively our model looks like

$$y = \beta_0[x_0] + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j[x_0] \cdot (x^j - x_0^j) + \epsilon$$

for x near  $x_0$  (e.g.,  $||x - x_0|| \le h$  for some small h > 0). The square brackets  $[x_0]$  are used to represent the fact that the value of  $\beta$  will vary for different values of  $x_0$ .

The idea of a neighborhood of radius h is central to LLR. It is customary in statistics to call this h the *bandwidth*. In this method, we select points within a radius of h from  $x_0$ . Furthermore, we can weight the points accordingly so that points closer to  $x_0$  are given more weight than those points further from  $x_0$ . To do this, we define a kernel function  $K(u) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  which has the properties

- 1. Finite Support K(u) = 0 for  $|u| \ge 1$ ;
- 2. Even Symmetry K(u) = K(-u);
- 3. Positive Values K(u) > 0 for |u| < 1.

A canonical example is the Epanechnikov kernel

$$K(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{4}(1-u^2), & \text{for } |u| < 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It turns out that the particular shape of the kernel function is not as important as the bandwidth h. If we choose a large h, then the local linear assumption is not accurate. On the other hand, if we choose a very small h, then the estimate will not be accurate because only a few data points will be considered. It turns out that this tradeoff in the value of h is a manifestation of the bias-variance tradeoff; however, being able to quantify this requires understanding stochastic convergence.

Before we discuss this tradeoff in more detail, we describe the LLR. The idea is to perform a weighted-variant of OLS by using a kernel function and a bandwidth h to provide the weighting. The LLR estimate  $\hat{\beta}_0[x_0]$ ,  $\hat{\beta}[x_0]$  is given by the minimizer to the following optimization

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0[x_0] \\ \hat{\beta}[x_0] \end{bmatrix} = \arg\min_{\beta_0,\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n K(\|x_i - x_0\|/h) \cdot (y_i - \beta_0 - (x_i - x_0)'\beta)^2$$

Now if we define a weighting matrix

$$W_h = \operatorname{diag} \left( K(\|x_1 - x_0\|/h), \dots, K(\|x_n - x_0\|/h) \right),$$

then we can rewrite this optimization as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0[x_0] \\ \hat{\beta}[x_0] \end{bmatrix} = \arg\min_{\beta_0,\beta} \left\| W_h^{1/2} \left( Y - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{1}_n & X_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} \right) \right\|_2^2,$$

where  $\mathbb{1}_n$  is a real-valued vector of all ones and of length dimension n and  $X_0 = X - x'_0 \mathbb{1}_n$ . This is identical to the OLS optimization, and so we can use that answer to conclude that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0[x_0] \\ \hat{\beta}[x_0] \end{bmatrix} = (\begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{1}_n & X_0 \end{bmatrix}' W_h \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{1}_n & X_0 \end{bmatrix})^{-1} (\begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{1}_n & X_0 \end{bmatrix}' W_h Y).$$

## 3 Bias-Variance Tradeoff

Consider the case of parametric regression with  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , and suppose that we would like to analyze the expectation of the squared loss of the difference between a estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  and the true parameter  $\beta$ . In particular, we have that

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\big((\hat{\beta}-\beta)^2\big) &= \mathbb{E}\big((\hat{\beta}-\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})+\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\beta)^2\big) \\ &= \mathbb{E}\big((\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\beta)^2\big) + \mathbb{E}\big((\hat{\beta}-\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}))^2\big) + 2\mathbb{E}\big((\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\beta)(\hat{\beta}-\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}))\big) \\ &= \mathbb{E}\big((\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\beta)^2\big) + \mathbb{E}\big((\hat{\beta}-\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}))^2\big) + 2(\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\beta)(\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})) \\ &= \mathbb{E}\big((\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta})-\beta)^2\big) + \mathbb{E}\big((\hat{\beta}-\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}))^2\big). \end{split}$$

The term  $\mathbb{E}((\hat{\beta} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}))^2)$  is clearly the variance of the estimate  $\hat{\beta}$ . The other term  $\mathbb{E}((\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}) - \beta)^2)$  measures how far away the "best" estimate is from the true value, and it is common to define  $\operatorname{bias}(\hat{\beta}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}) - \beta)$ . With this notation, we have that

$$\mathbb{E}\left((\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2\right) = (\operatorname{bias}(\hat{\beta}))^2 + \operatorname{var}(\hat{\beta}).$$

This equation states that the expected estimation error (as measured by the squared loss) is equal to the bias-squared plus the variance, and in fact there is a tradeoff between these two aspects in an estimate.

It is worth making three comments. The first is that if  $\operatorname{bias}(\hat{\beta}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\hat{\beta}) - \beta) = 0$ , then the estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  is said to be *unbiased*. Second, this bias-variance tradeoff exists for vector-valued parameters  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , for nonparametric estimates, and other models. Lastly, the term *overfit* is sometimes used to refer to an model with low bias but extremely high variance.