

Chapter 2

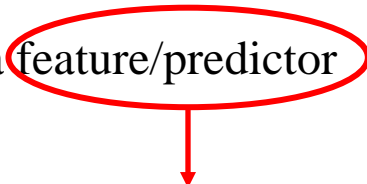
# Statistical Learning

STAT303-2

# Recap on Datasets

Remember that in a dataset:

- ▶ Each row is a data point/instance/observation,  $X$
- ▶ Each column is a feature/predictor



$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p$

One of the columns in the dataset (or a new column overall) will be predicted using the  $X$  columns, **the predictors**. This is the **response** or the **dependent/target variable**:  $Y$

# Statistical learning

If we <sup>lin.</sup>observe a quantitative response  $Y$ , and  $p$  different predictors  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p$ , we assume that there is some relationship between  $Y$  and  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$ , which can be written in the general form:

$$Y = \overset{\downarrow}{f}(X) + \epsilon \longrightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Noise: Generated by a random variable} \\ \text{A function} \end{array}$$

For example,  $Y$  may be the price of a car, and  $X$  may consist of features such as mileage, age, model, etc.

The real  $f$  is unknown and cannot be found out; it can be estimated as  $\hat{f}$ , using the existing data.

- ▶ The predictors,  $X$
- ▶ The existing target values,  $Y$

But why do we want to estimate  $f$ ?

# Statistical learning: Purpose of estimating $f$

There are two main reasons for estimating  $f$ :

## a. Prediction

We are interested in predicting the response (or the dependent variable).

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X),$$

where  $\hat{f}$  is the estimate of  $f$ , and  $\hat{Y}$  is the prediction for  $Y$ .

For example, we wish to predict the price of a car based on its features.

## b. Inference

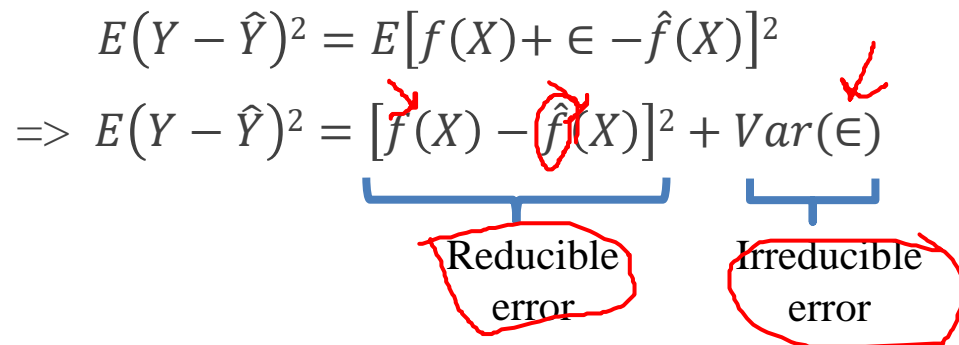
We are interested in identifying the relationship between the predictor(s) and the response.

For example, we wish to identify:

1. Which car features are associated with its price (*or have a statistically significant relationship with its price*)?
2. How much increase in mileage is associated with a given decrease in car price?

# Statistical learning: Techniques for estimating $f$

It can be shown that:

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y - \hat{Y})^2 &= E[f(X) + \epsilon - \hat{f}(X)]^2 \\ \Rightarrow E(Y - \hat{Y})^2 &= \underbrace{[f(X) - \hat{f}(X)]^2}_{\text{Reducible error}} + \underbrace{\text{Var}(\epsilon)}_{\text{Irreducible error}} \end{aligned}$$


In both Data Science II & III, we'll learn techniques for estimating  $f$  with the aim of minimizing the reducible error

# Regression vs classification

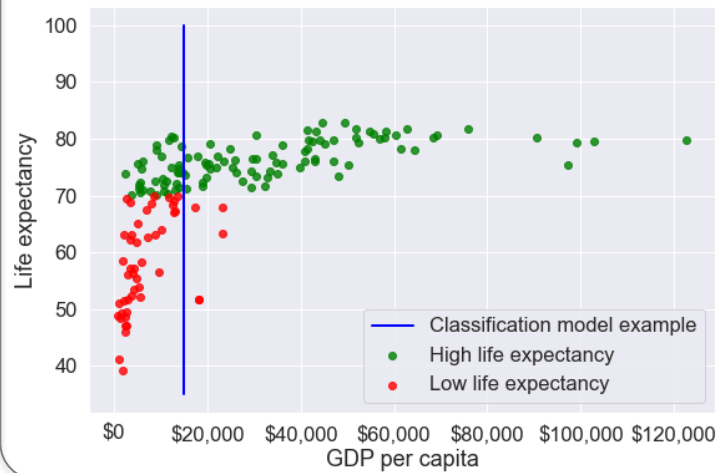
## Regression:

- The response (Y) is a continuous variable. For example, predicting life expectancy of a country (Y) based on its GDP per capita. (X)



## Classification:

- The response (Y) is a categorical variable. For example, classifying a country as having ~~low (0)~~ or high (1) life expectancy based on its GDP per capita.



# Regression vs classification

## Regression:

- The response (Y) is a continuous variable. For example, predicting life expectancy of a country based on its GDP per capita.
- Typically, the regression model directly predicts the continuous response.

## Classification:

- The response (Y) is a categorical variable. (a class) For example, classifying a country as having low (0) or high (1) life expectancy based on its GDP per capita.
- Typically, the classification model predicts a probability of response (*or probability of the observation belonging to one of the classes*). The class is then predicated based on a user-defined threshold probability.

# Assessing model accuracy: Regression

There are several metrics that can be used to assess the prediction accuracy of a regression model. Below are a couple of popular ones:

1. RMSE (Root mean squared error)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{f}(X^i))^2}$$

2. MAE (Mean absolute error)

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |Y_i - \hat{f}(X^i)|$$

Note that the superscript 'i' in the above formulae denotes the  $i^{th}$  observation, and N denotes the total number of observations (or rows) in the data.



# Assessing model accuracy: Regression

**Which one to choose for a given problem: RMSE or MAE?** → Depends on how you want to penalize the errors

## 1. RMSE (Root mean squared error)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{f}(X^i))^2}$$

- Each error is squared before adding to the total error sum
- Large errors are penalized more.
- Errors between 0 and 1 are penalized less.

## 2. MAE (Mean absolute error)

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n |Y_i - \hat{f}(X^i)|$$

The error from each observation is equally penalized.

# Assessing model accuracy: Classification

- In case of binary classification, the most basic metric is accuracy:
- For more advanced analysis, a confusion matrix can be generated as shown below.

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\# \text{ Correctly predicted instances}}{\# \text{ All instances}} \times 100$$

Confusion matrix	Predicted: 0	Predicted: 1
Actual: 0	TN	FP
Actual: 1	FN	TP

- Several metrics for quantifying model accuracy are based on the confusion matrix.
- A popular metric for quantifying the overall classification accuracy is the classification error rate:

$$\text{Classification error rate} = \frac{FN + FP}{TN + TP + FN + FP} = 1 - \text{Accuracy}$$

# Assessing model accuracy: Classification

Confusion matrix	Predicted: 0	Predicted: 1
Actual: 0	TN	FP
Actual: 1	FN	TP

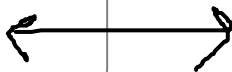
- Sometimes, the overall classification error rate may not suffice in assessing the utility of the model and the risks associated in case of misclassification
- The metrics below shed light on the accuracy of the model in different cases:

$$\text{False positive rate (FPR)} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{FP} + \text{TN}}$$

$$\text{False negative rate (FNR)} = \frac{\text{FN}}{\text{FN} + \text{TP}}$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{FP} + \text{TP}}$$

$$\text{Recall or TPR} = 1 - \text{FNR} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{FN} + \text{TP}}$$



# Assessing model accuracy: Classification

- All these metrics are ratios – all between 0 and 1.
- FPR and FNR should be low – closer to 0
- Precision and Recall should be high – closer to 1
  - A model that predicts most observations as 1: Low precision, high recall
  - A conservative model that predicts very few observations as 1: High precision, low recall
  - Ideal scenario: High precision, high recall – low number of FP and FN

Confusion matrix	Predicted: 0	Predicted: 1
Actual: 0	<u>TN</u>	<u>FP</u>
<u>Actual: 1</u>	<u>FN</u>	<u>TP</u>

$$\text{False positive rate (FPR)} = \frac{FP}{FP + TN}$$

$$\text{False negative rate (FNR)} = \frac{FN}{FN + TP}$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{FP + TP}$$

$$\text{Recall or TPR} = 1 - \text{FNR} = \frac{TP}{FN + TP}$$

# Assessing model accuracy: Classification

- All the metrics can be obtained for a given classification model. However, while developing the model, some metrics may be more important than others.
- Suppose the classification problem is to predict if a person has diabetes ( $y = 1$ ) or does not have diabetes ( $y=0$ ) based on their symptoms.

Which is the most important metric to assess the accuracy of this classification model?

- It may be worse to classify a person having diabetes ( $y = 1$ ) as not having diabetes ( $y = 0$ ), as opposed to the case where the person not having diabetes ( $y = 0$ ) is classified as having diabetes ( $y = 1$ ).
- Thus, in this particular case, reducing FNR the most important metric.
- However, FPR shouldn't be too high, and precision shouldn't be too low, or the model will cease to be useful.
- Thus, in this case, one should try to develop a model with a low FNR, but also having a reasonable FPR and precision.

# Assessing model accuracy: Classification

Some other popularly used metrics to assess a classification model accuracy that we'll see later in detail in the course are:

- Precision - recall
- ROC-AUC (Receiver operating characteristic – Area under the curve)

# Reference

Source for slides: <https://www.statlearning.com/resources-second-edition>