Statistical Learning

Jordi Villà i Freixa

Universitat de Vic - Universitat Central de Catalunya Study Abroad

jordi.villa@uvic.cat

course 2023-2024



1/13



Índex

Introduction

- Modelling data
- Bibliography



Preliminary note

The material in these slides is strongly based on [1]. When other materials are used, they are cited accordingly.

Mathematical notation follows as good as it can a [good practices proposal](https://ctan.math.utah.edu/ctan/tex-archive/macros/latex/contrib/mlmath/mlmath.pdf) from the Beijing Academy of Artificial Intelligence.



What to expect?

In this session we will deal with:

- Modelling data
- Independent and identically distributed (iid) data
- The modelling dilemma
- Linear models
- Multivariate normal models





How is data analyzed and used?

Statistical learning interpret the model and quantify the uncertainity of the data.

Machine learning (or *data mining*) making predictions using large scale data.

The goals of modelling data are:

- to predict data, based on existing one;
- to discover unusual or interesting patterns in data.





Supervised vs unsupervised ML

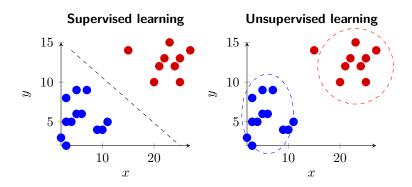


Figure 1: My first figure in beamer.



Example of data modelling

Let us assume an unsupervised learning like the one shown in 1. We have some kind of data represented by a vector:

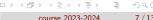
$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_p]^\mathsf{T}$$

We can model the data assuming thet x is the outcome of a random vector

$$\boldsymbol{X} = [X_1, \dots, X_p]^{\mathsf{T}}$$

with some unknown pdf f.





Tools to model data

- Function approximation Model data with approximate and simple functions or maps.
- Optimization Given a set of feasible mathematical models to the data, we may need to find the optimal one by fitting or callibrating a function to observed data.
- Probability and Statistics Probability theory and statistical inference provides ways to quantify the uncertainity inherent in making predictions based on observed data.





Some basic notation I

Given an input or feature vector \mathbf{x} , ML aims at predicting an ouput or response variable vector \mathbf{y} . In particular, we search for a mathematical prediction function \mathbf{g} such that we can guess an approximation to \mathbf{y} , $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$:

$$g: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$$

 $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \hat{\mathbf{y}} = g(\mathbf{x})$

Definition

Dataset $S = \{z_i\}_{i=1}^n = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ is sampled from a distribution \mathcal{D} over a domain $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$.

 $\mathcal X$ is the instance domain (a set), $\mathcal Y$ is the label domain (a set), and $\mathcal Z=\mathcal X\times\mathcal Y$ is the example domain (a set).



Some basic notation II

Usually, \mathcal{X} is a subset of \mathbb{R}^d and \mathcal{Y} is a subset of \mathbb{R}^{d_o} , where d is the input dimension, d_o is the output dimension.

n = #S is the number of samples. Without specification, S and n are for the training set.

- In *regression* problems, **y** is a vector of real values.
- In *classification* problems, y values lie within a finite set of c categories: $y \in \{0, 1, \dots, c-1\}$.

Definition

A hypothesis space is denoted by \mathcal{H} . A hypothesis function is denoted by $f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{H}$ or $f(\mathbf{x}; \theta) \in \mathcal{H}$ with $f_{\theta} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$.

heta denotes the set of parameters of $f_{ heta}$.

If there exists a target function, it is denoted by f^* or $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ satisfying $\mathbf{y}_i = f^*(\mathbf{x}_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Some basic notation III

A loss function, denoted by $\ell: \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{Z} \to \mathbb{R}_+ := [0, +\infty)$, measures the difference (or error) between a predicted label and a true label, e.g., L^2 loss:

$$\ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \boldsymbol{z}) = \frac{1}{2}(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \boldsymbol{y})^2,$$

where $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$. $\ell(f_{\theta}, \mathbf{z})$ can also be written as

$$\ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y})$$

for convenience.

(In the case of a classification, $\ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{1}\{y \neq \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}\}$)

We will see other useful loss functions ({em cross entropy} or *hinge* loss functions) later in this course.

It is unlikely that a mathematical function $g \equiv f_{\theta} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ would be able to make accurate predictions of all possible pairs $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$.



Some basic notation IV

So, we use a probabilistic approach here to mpirical risk or training loss for a set $S = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ is denoted by $L_S(\theta)$ or $L_n(\theta)$ or $R_n(\theta)$ or $R_S(\theta)$,

$$L_{S}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_{i}), \mathbf{y}_{i}). \tag{1}$$

The population risk or expected loss is denoted by $L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta)$ or $R_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta)$

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}\ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y}), \tag{2}$$

where $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ follows the distribution \mathcal{D} .

(In the case of a classification, we denote $L_{\mathcal{D}}(g) \equiv L_{\mathcal{D}}(\theta) = \mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{D}}[f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \neq \mathbf{y}]$ and we say that g is a classifier.)

Because we are interested in minimizing the risk in our prediction, we are looking for the best possible $g*:= \operatorname{argmin}_{g} \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \ell(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y})$



Some basic notation V

(In classification, we look for
$$g*(x) = \underset{y \in \{0,1,\dots,c-1\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbb{P}[Y=y \mid X=x].)$$

Theorem

For the squared-error loss $\ell(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$, the optimal prediction function g* is equal to the conditional expectation of Y given X = x.

which leads to write the random response Y as:

$$Y = g * (\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon(\mathbf{x})$$

Note that such random deviation satisfies $\mathbb{E}\varepsilon(\mathbf{x})=0$







Dirk P. Kroese, Zdravko Botev, Thomas Taimre, and Radislav: Vaisman.

Data Science and Machine Learning: Mathematical and Statistical Methods.

Machine Learning & Pattern Recognition. Chapman & Hall/CRC, 2020.

