#### **Predictive Analytics Lecture 1**

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Stat 422/722 at The Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania

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I will be using predict and forecast interchangeably.

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How do we make predictions? We use a *model*.

Model: a functional decription of a system

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of a person. A person features health, a person has the characteristic of going to bed early.

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Generally, inputs and outputs are features of the

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Thus the model relates some feature(s) of the observation to other feature(s) of the observation. Here, we are relating specific people's bedtime schedule and waking schedule to their health, wealth and wisdom.

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```

It is traditional to put the outputs on the left hand side. This is assumed that the outputs were measured. This type of observation is called

- old or
- historical or
- known

and predictions here are not needed (obviously). In our aphorism model, for the observation being a known person named Joe:

```
a measured quantity of Joe's health a measured quantity of Joe's waketime a measured quantity of Joe's waketime a measured quantity of Joe's wisdom
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Predictive Analytics Lecture 1

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As an example new person Bob,

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We will use the "hat" symbol ( $\hat{}$ ) to indicate a prediction of the output  $\hat{y}$  to distinguish it from the true value of the output y.

## More Vocabulary

Even though measured inputs and outputs are features of an observation, they each go by special names that emphasize their roles.

Each output y is called a

- response (the model "responds" to inputs)
- outcome / outcome metric (the result of inputs)
- endpoint (only used in clinical trial context)

and they are the **target** of prediction — what we want to ultimately predict.

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Inputs x's then can go by the following terms of art:

- covariates (because the vary with the response, co-vary)
- predictors (since they will be the inputs used to make predictions)

and they are what we **make use of** to predict. I will try to use "response" and "predictors" in this course.

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It is said that the "model explains the response". What does this mean?

### Science is based on Mathematical Models

We have become quite successful at shrink-wrapping interesting variables in the world around us into simple models with few inputs:

$$F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{d^2}$$

$$V = IR$$

$$K = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$$

$$PV = nRT$$

It took us thousands of years to figure this out.

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ALSO: one also gets a feeling from the wording, there is either "healthy" or "not healthy".

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Categorical measurements consist of discrete, mutually exclusive *levels*. Here,  $\{\text{healthy}, \text{not healthy}\}$ . Generally,  $\{\text{a}, \text{b}, \text{c}, \ldots\}$ . Metrics with a large number of levels are difficult to model — keep it low.

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I there are two levels, it is called *binary* or *dichotomous* and the model would be called a *binary response model* (or a classification) with elements 0 and 1

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 $x_1$ : bedtime schedule

Definition?

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Definition? Average bedtime. How to measure / assess? Survey?

 $x_2$ : waketime schedule

Definition?

 $x_1$ : bedtime schedule

Definition? Average bedtime. How to measure / assess? Survey?

x2: waketime schedule

Definition? Average time to rise in the morning assessed via survey

Thus,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are a variant of a *timestamp* data type.

The historical *data frame* or *dataset* (or even more colloquially, the "data") can look like:

Healthy? $1 = yes(y)$	Average Bedtime $(x_1)$	Average Waketime $(x_2)$
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We don't know the model yet...

### Mathematical Models are Deterministic

Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy.

Mathematizing, this becomes  $y = f(x_1, x_2)$ .

From the wording, it seems the model is unequivocal and deterministic. This meansthat for any input values (the measured values of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ ), the output (the response) will have only one unique value.

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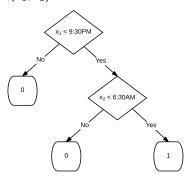
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Thus the functional form likely

looks like a decision tree model.



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Thus, this model is wrong. Why? We can find at least one person who does not have a matching response when inputs are evaluated in f. Seems obvious but...

### **Smoking and Lung Cancer**

Consider the model with the binary input

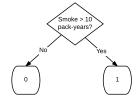
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Do you think the model should look like the below?

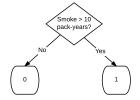


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No... in fact "only" 16% of smokers get lung cancer compared to about 0.4% of non-smokers. Thus, the simpel model above is wrong because some responses (that is features of certain individuals) will not "fit" the model. Thus, should we throw out the whole enterprise of modeling?

#### Statistical Models

Mathematical models such as

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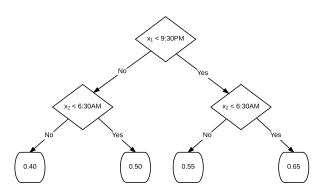
can become forgiving to errors in f by allowing for y to be modeled non-deterministically as a random variable (r.v.), uppercase Y. For our case of binary classification, this r.v. is the Bernoulli:

$$Y \sim \operatorname{Bernoulli}\left(f(x_1, x_2, \ldots)\right) := egin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } f(x_1, x_2, \ldots) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since the response is now a r.v., we call this a statistical model.

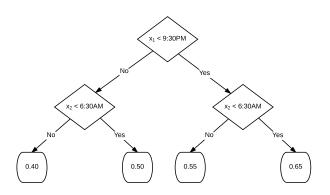
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Are there still reasons for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  to be rigid binary values e.g. 1 if  $x_2 < 6:30$  AM? No... but we haven't spoke about model fits nor parameters... wait...

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which is deterministic (and we will fix it soon):

$$y = f(x_1, x_2)$$

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we need some way to measure a quantity of healthiness on a continuous scale. Open problem. How can you shrink-wrap health into a single number?

### QOL: a Response Metric?

One such scale is found in Flanagan (1978) invented the precursor to the modern "Quality of Life Scale" (QOLS) metric based on assessing 7-point Likert scales. It takes 5 minutes and scores range from 16–112. Here are the categories:

Item	English	Swedish	Norwegian	Hebrew
	N = 584	[15] N = 100	[17] N = 282	[16] N = 100
1. Material and physical well-being	5.6 (1.0)	5.7 (1.4)	5.5 (1.3)	4.3 (1.8)
2. Health	3.9 (1.4)	3.9 (1.6)	4.4 (1.5)	2.3 (1.5)
$3.\ Relationships\ with\ parents,\ siblings\ and\ other\ relatives$	5.3 (1.1)	6.0 (1.0)	5.5 (1.5)	5.9 (1.2)
4. Having and raising children	5.6 (1.2)	5.6 (1.6)	5.7 (1.2)	5.9 (1.2)
5. Relationship with spouse or significant other	5.5 (1.4)	5.6 (1.6)	5.5 (1.6)	5.8 (1.2)
6. Relationships with friends	5.4 (1.1)	6.2 (0.9)	5.9 (1.1)	5.4 (1.6)
7. Helping and encouraging others	5.4 (0.9)	5.3 (1.2)	5.2 (1.2)	3.0 (2.0)
8. Participating in organizations and public affairs	4.6 (1.2)	4.9 (1.6)	4.3 (1.6)	2.3 (1.9)
9. Intellectual development	4.7 (1.2)	5.2 (1.4)	4.6 (1.5)	2.1 (1.6)
10. Understanding of self	5.1 (1.1)	5.5 (1.2)	5.3 (1.1)	3.0 (1.8)
11. Occupational role	4.7 (1.4)	5.0 (1.5)	5.3 (1.4)	3.2 (1.8)
12. Creativity/personal expression	4.8 (1.2)	5.0 (1.4)	4.7 (1.6)	2.5 (1.7)
13. Socializing	4.7 (1.2)	5.3 (1.3)	5.1 (1.4)	3.6 (1.9)
14. Passive and observational recreation	5.5 (0.9)	6.0 (1.0)	5.7 (1.1)	3.6 (2.0)
15. Active and participatory recreation	4.0 (1.5)	4.0 (1.7)	4.5 (1.6)	2.2 (1.5)
16. Independence, doing for yourself*	5.0 (1.5)	5.0 (1.7)	5.2 (1.4)	3.8 (1.7)

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We also would appreciate these metrics being approximately linear. So an increase of 1 "point" on the scale means the same increase/decrease in quality. But that is usually too much to ask.

#### **Back to Modeling**

We now are considering health as a continuous number (the data type is called "continuous") but the model is still deterministic. How to we reengineer the aphorism to allow for stochasticity (randomness)?

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Where does  ${\cal E}$  come from?? Philosophical question... one we will return to soon

### **Conditional Expectation**

The model can be written even another way to belabor this point:

$$Y = \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid x_1, x_2\right] + \mathcal{E}$$

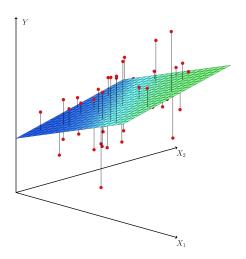
where  $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid x_1, x_2]$  is called the "conditional expectation function" or the "conditional mean function" and of course,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[Y\mid x_1,x_2\right]=f(x_1,x_2)$$

Specifying the model for f is sometimes called "conditional mean modeling".

How does one think of  $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid x_1, x_2]$ ?

# A mock $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid x_1, x_2]$ Illustration



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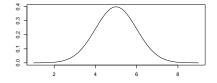
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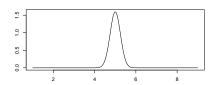
We should not use timestamps as they fail the monotonicity property that we desire to capture "lateness".

What should we do? Maybe just one number defined as the number of hours after an absurd average bedtime like 5PM? Thus,  $9PM \rightarrow x_1 = 4$  and  $2AM \rightarrow x_1 = 9$ , etc. Ditto for waketime to avoid the problem of people on average waking up after 12:59PM.

### The Average Is Misleading

We are using average bedtime and waketime. What's wrong with an average?

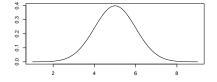


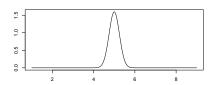


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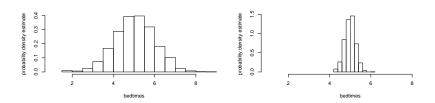
These are two bedtime distributions over many, many years. They both have the same average: 10PM. Who do you think is healthier on average? The person on the right. Why?

### **Designing Better Inputs**

How can we get more "information" out of a person's bedtime and waketime that is relevant to predicting health outcomes?

## **Designing Better Inputs**

How can we get more "information" out of a person's bedtime and waketime that is relevant to predicting health outcomes? We likely don't know which piece of the distribution will be helpful, so let's just add all the information. Let's bin by maybe 20min and record the probabilities over many years of being in that bin. For instance, 5 year bins for these two people may look like:



All bin values can be used as inputs. So in this model, p > 2. It could be almost 100. This is called **featurization** — designing features and we will talk more about it later.

# Flexible Inputs $p = 2 \rightarrow p \approx 100$

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- Advantage: We can fit more exact rules like if the proportion of times went to bed past 1AM is 10% ... then health drops considerably and then more so for 2AM
- Disadvantage: It makes the model hard to fit and interpret. There
  are a lot of "degrees of freedom" now (a term you've heard before).
  A lot more in this later as this is the most important topic in this
  course.

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Fitting the Linear Model

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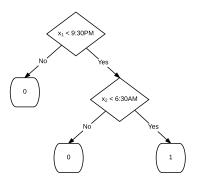
Data frames have rows that are observations and columns that are predictors (with one column that is a response).

Each predictor and the response have a certain data type. If the data type of the response is categorical (or binary as in two categories), we have a classification model. If the data type of the response is a continuous metric, we have a regression model.

## The Aphorism Revisited

Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy.

which may imply binary  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  and y and thus f likely looks like:



New question: where did this model come from??

## History

As the olde englysshe prouerbe sayth in this wyse. Who soo woll ryse erly shall be holy helthy & zely.

- The Book of St. Albans, 1486

Earely to bed and earely to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

- John Clarke's Paroemiologia Anglo-Latina, 1639 (collection of proverbs)
- -Benjamin Franklin, 1735 (popularized it in American English)

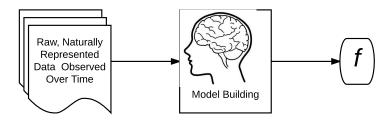
We, as a people, built this model and it's been validated over centuries. How did we build it?

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How many measurements is that? (What's the dimensionality of the input space?) Immeasurable and cannot be defined. But we know it's HUGE! Note: this is technically called **deep learning**.

Is this a cat?



Response?

Is this a cat?



Response? Cat or not (0 or 1 numerically). Predictors in the model?

Is this a cat?



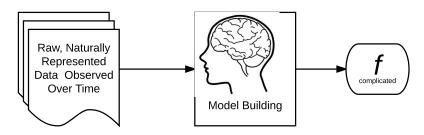
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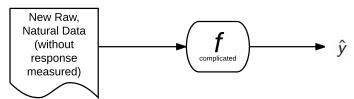


Response? Cat or not (0 or 1 numerically). Predictors in the model? Entire image... raw natural data representation. The brain shrinks the space down to a small number of predictors. You've already built this model (but only in your head... and you don't even know how it works).

## Prediction in a Deep-Learned Human Model



Then, in the future...



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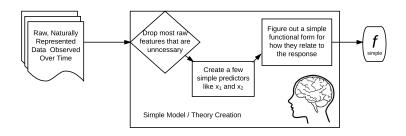
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- And thus no prediction can be made with it (unless it is the same brain that makes the prediction that built the model).

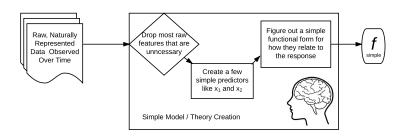
# But we Create Simple Models. How?

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#### But we Create Simple Models. How?

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This is the process by which we put forth the model "early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy".

#### Models we are Good and Bad At

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inputs are already derivative features of the raw data representation, are numeric and there a lot of them (p large), and noise is large ( $\mathbb{V}$ ar  $[\mathcal{E}] >> 0$ ).

## We are Frequently Bad...

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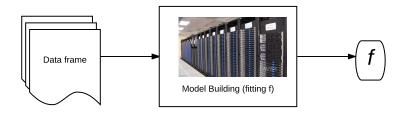
The clinicians make a diagnosis on the basis of a quick meeting and a whole bunch of numeric variables: age, serum glucose, blood pressure, symptom measurements... difficult models for us to build.

# Can we Use Artificial Intelligence (AI)?

Can we use computers to build models, especially the models we're bad at?

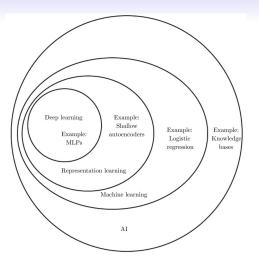
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Luckily, yes. And this is a main advantage of artificial intelligence.

### Types of AI?



(Fig 1.4 in Goodfellow et al., 2017)

### What Does Input to Al Look Like?

Let's return to our model:

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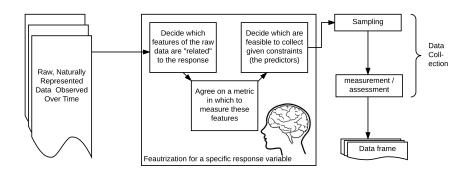
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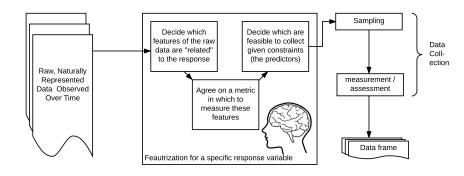
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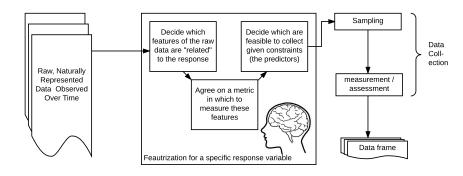
Can we enter all this into a computer? No, not now, possibly not ever. Also, will be using statistical modeling so it needs well-defined measurements. So we need to "featurize" and then "collect data".



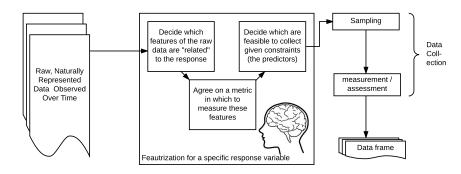
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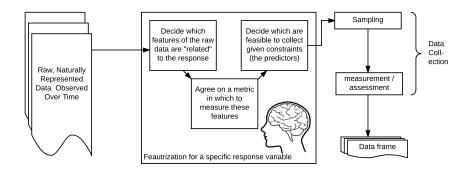
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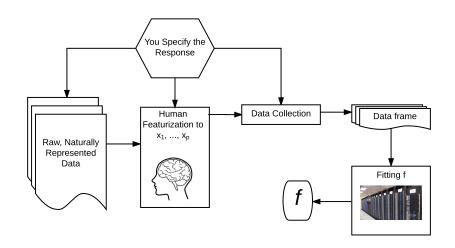


What is featurization? Deciding predictors. What is data collection? (a) sampling units then (b) measuring the numeric values of the predictors

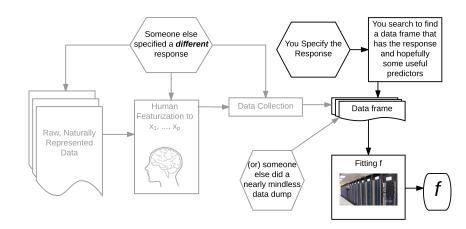


What is featurization? Deciding predictors. What is data collection? (a) sampling units then (b) measuring the numeric values of the predictors (note: some measurements may be missing).

# What is Good Machine Learning?



### What is Day-Day Machine Learning?

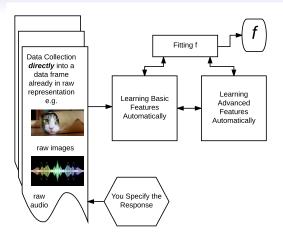


This is bad... but it's what we generally do all day...

### **Baseball Data Questions**

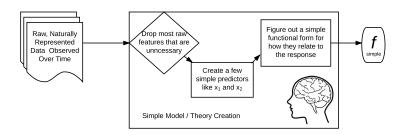
- Response?
- Predictors?
- n = ? p = ?
- How was this data frame likely collected?
- Do you think by studying this dataset you can predict salaries?

### Aside: what is Deep Learning?



Learning complex features automatically (the cutting edge). Software running self-driving cars use this.

### What are we really bad at?



Figuring out those functional forms... and the computer excels at it.

#### The Fundamental Statistical Problem

We know our response variable, we've picked features, made measurements and now have an  $n \times (p+1)$  data frame. We know the response looks like

$$Y = f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p) + \mathcal{E}$$

where f represents the conditional mean  $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p]$  and the  $\mathcal{E}$  r.v. is random noise added atop the conditional mean but we don't know f!

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So we have to learn / infer f the best we could from the historical dataset. We denote this fit  $\hat{f}$ . What does this mean in the baseball data?

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#### Philosophy of creating the fit, $\hat{f}$

• We believe that f has a very "nice" form.

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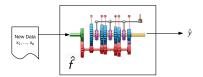
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- We would like to know how f works, but it's likely very complex, so it's not our top priority.
- Absolute prediction accuracy is indeed our #1 focus. It's the bottom line. We want  $f \approx \hat{f}$  as close as possible.

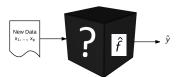
#### Two Worldviews

The process to find  $\hat{f}$  is known by many names:

- parametric modeling
- model fitting
- statistical modeling
- white box modeling



- non-parametric modeling
- function fitting
- function approximation
- response surface methodology
- machine learning
- black box modeling



#### What is a Parametric Model?

If we see f is a parametric model, we mean that

$$f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p) \approx s(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p; \theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_\ell)$$

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Fitting the Linear Model

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$$s(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_p)=\beta_0+\beta_1x_1+\ldots+\beta_px_p$$

with p predictors, there are p+1 degrees of freedom (the intercept is also a knob that can be twisted). It is traditional to call the  $\theta$ 's in the linear model  $\beta$ 's due to historical reasons.

# What is $\hat{f}$ in a linear model?

Then we need to create a fit  $\hat{f}$  that means we need estimates of all the parameters:

$$\hat{f}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_p$$

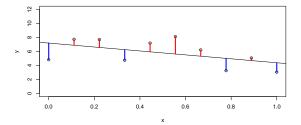
then we can use  $\hat{f}$  on new data (where the response is not observed), say  $x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_p^*$  to get a prediction:

$$\hat{y} = \hat{f}(x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_p^*)$$

Where do we get  $\left\{\hat{eta}_0,\hat{eta}_1,\ldots,\hat{eta}_{\it p}
ight\}$  from?

### What defines a good fit?

Consider the simple linear regression (one predictor) i.e.  $s(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$  thus we need to figure out  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$ , constituting the model fitting. Let's say given data, we guess that  $\hat{\beta}_0 = 7.2$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1 = -2.8$ . Would this be a good fit?



The line is our  $\hat{y}(x)$  i.e. all possible predictions. Seems sometimes we undershot the response (the red) i.e.  $y - \hat{y} > 0$  and sometimes overshot the response (the blue) i.e.  $y - \hat{y} < 0$ .

### The Role of the Residuals

We call  $e_i := y_i - \hat{y}_i$  the *i*th residual. Since we fit all of our historical data there are *n* residuals  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ . Wouldn't it be nice to keep these small?

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- Minimize  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  while
- staying true to our assumption  $s(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + ... + \beta_n x_n$

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What does "minimize  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ " mean? We need to define an overall error metric. This is called the loss function.

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Luckily the computer does all of this for you and it just pops out its answer  $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p$ .

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We won't have time to get into custom and asymmetric cost functions. But you need to keep this in mind when you consider the predictions you make with all of the  $\hat{f}$ 's we discuss in this class.

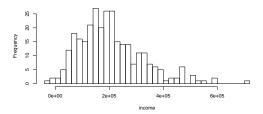
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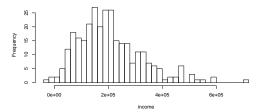
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Consider a dataset for income among HS grads that didn't go to college. You have n=1,000 historical responses (the incomes). Here they are:



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Imagine there was no predictors but you still would like to produce predictions. What would you do?

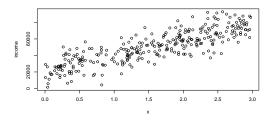
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Now imagine you had a predictor... let's say some measure of work ethic or intelligence, call it x. Here's a plot:



(see in R)

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$$R^{2} := \frac{SSE_{0} - SSE}{SSE_{0}} \times \frac{n-1}{n-1} = \frac{\frac{1}{n-1}SSE_{0} - \frac{1}{n-1}SSE}{\frac{1}{n-1}SSE_{0}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2} - \frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \hat{y}_{i})^{2}}{\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{s_{y}^{2} - s_{e}^{2}}{s_{y}^{2}} \approx \frac{\mathbb{Var}[Y] - \mathbb{Var}[E]}{\mathbb{Var}[Y]}$$

where  $\mathbb{V}$ ar [Y] is what was inexplicable before and  $\mathbb{V}$ ar [E] is what is inexplicable after.  $R^2$  is really an *estimate* of the pctg var. explained.

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$$s_e = \sqrt{s_e^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1}SSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}$$

This is our best guess of the standard error of our estimate e, our residual (AKA "RMSE"). What is a standard error?

### Recall the Empirical Rule

If  $X \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \, \sigma^2\right)$ , then

- ullet  $\mu \pm 1\sigma$  contains 68% of the realization values
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#### Thus for a realization x,

- $x \pm 1\sigma$  contains  $\mu$  68% of the time
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# Stretch the Empirical Rule

If  $\sigma$  is unknown then,

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and if the distribution of X is non-normal but not too funky,

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## Why is RMSE useful?

In our case, the r.v. is  $Y \mid X_1, \ldots, X_p$  which is centered at  $\mu = \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid x_1, \ldots, x_p\right]$  and generally speaking, non-normal.  $\hat{y} \approx \mu$  and  $s_e \approx \mathbb{S} \mathbb{E}\left[Y \mid X\right]$ . Thus,

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- $\hat{y}\pm 2s_{e}$  contains 95% of the response values for a specific  $x_{1},\ldots,x_{p}$
- $\hat{y} \pm 3s_e$  contains 99.7% of the response values for a specific  $x_1, \ldots, x_p$

Thus RMSE gives you an approximate means of assessing how variable the real response y could be give your predicted response  $\hat{y}$ .

# All Three are Equivalent

Minimizing SSE, maximizing  $R^2$  and minimizing  $s_e$  all give equivalent fits.

SSE
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