



Review of Statistical Learning

FA690 Machine Learning in Finance

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Statistical Learning Problems

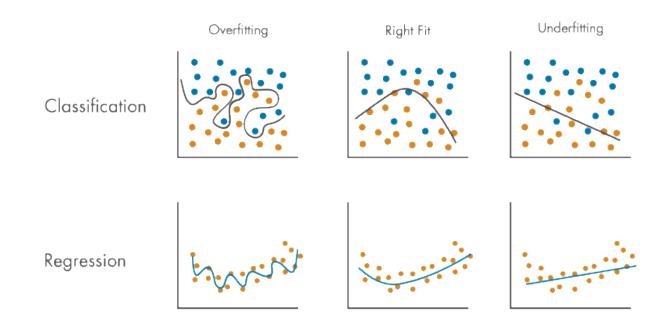
- Outcome measurement Y
 - Dependent variable, response, target
- Vector of p predictor measurements $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)$
 - Independent variables, inputs, regressors, covariates, features
- In the very general form, the relationship between Y and $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_p)$ can be written as $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$
 - where $f(\cdot)$ is some fixed but unknown function of $X_1, X_2, ..., X_p$, and ϵ is a random error term
- Objective of statistical learning: Based on observations $(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_n, y_n)$, we want to learn the function $f(\cdot)$ so that
 - Accurately predict unseen cases
 - Understand which inputs affect the outcomes, and how
 - Assess the quality of our predictions and inferences

A framework to analytical modeling

A framework to analytical modeling

- Sample: Take a sample from the dataset; partition into training, validation, and test datasets
- Explore: Examine the dataset statistically and graphically
- Modify: Transform the variables and impute missing values
- Model: Fit predictive models (e.g., regression tree, neural network)
- Assess: Compare models using a validation dataset

- Randomly sample data into train-test, or train-validation-test set
- Training and validation data are in-sample; Test data is out-of-sample
- Diagnose and avoid overfitting



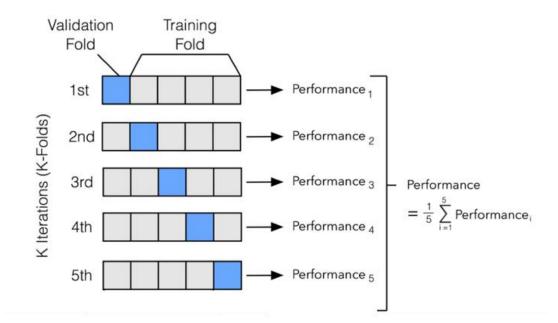
Random Split

 Randomly divide the available set of observations into three parts: A training set, a validation set, and a test set



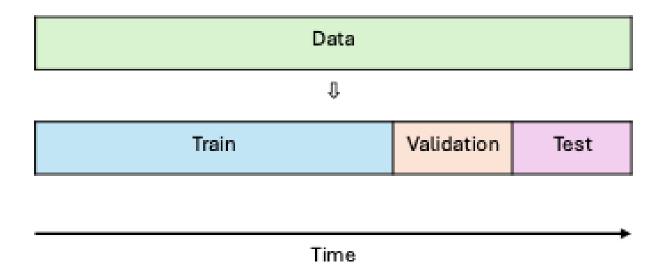
K-Fold Cross-Validation

- Rather than just keeping one part of the training data for validation, we can split the data into k folds
- We then train the model k times, each time by leaving out one of the folds for validation
- The final performance is the average performance across all k validation folds

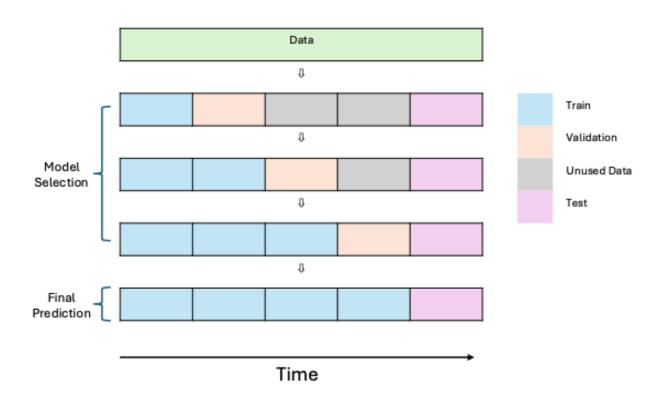


Simple Time Split Validation

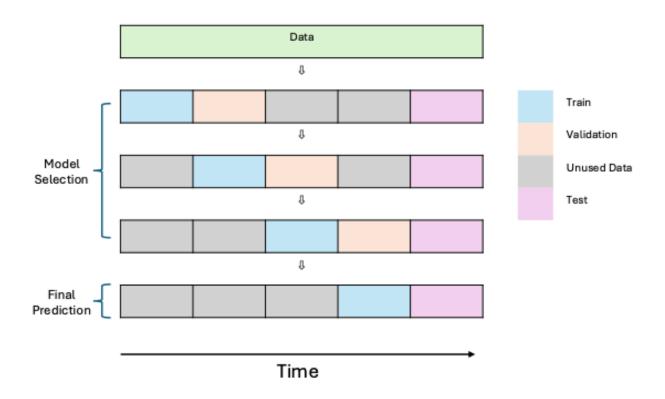
Time series data is a common type of financial data. For example, stock returns and the loan defaults.



Expanding Window



Rolling Window

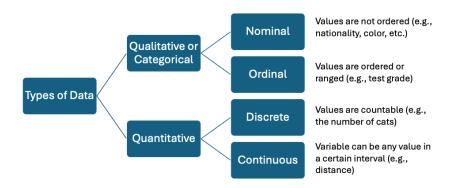


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There are different ways to segment data

Qualitative and categorical data



- Structured and unstructured data
 - Structured data: Tabular data
 - Unstructured data: Text, images, audio

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Graphics

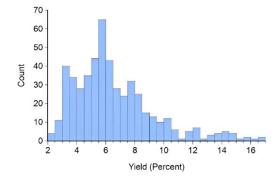
- Univariate data
 - Histograms and density estimates can help learn about distributional shape: symmetric, skewed, fat-tailed, etc.
 - Time series plots reveal dynamics such as trend, seasonality, cycle, outliers, . . .
- Multivariate data
 - Scatterplots for relations: Does a relation exist? Is it linear or non-linear? Are there outliers?

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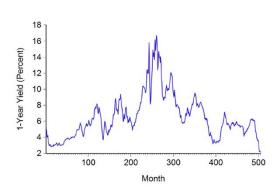
Graphics

Example: One-year government bond yield

• **Histogram** reveals distributional shape



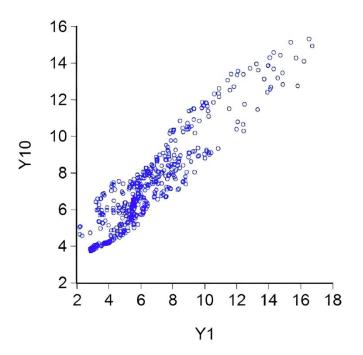
• Time series plot reveals dynamics



Graphics

Example: One-year and 10-year government bond yields

Scatterplot reveals relation between two variables



Missing Values: The absence of data or a lack of recorded information in a dataset

- If the number of datapoints with missing values is small, those datapoints might be omitted
- If the number of missing entries is large, you need to consider removing the feature
- Can replace the missing value with an imputed value, based on the other values for that variable across all data points
 - Mean/median
 - Maximum/minimum
 - 0
- Scenario 1: "The employment length" is missing
- Scenario 2: "The number of months of delinquencies" is missing. According to the data description, these are the borrowers who haven't delinquent on any loans before.

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Feature Scaling

Feature scaling transforms data to the same scale

Standardization

$$\tilde{X} = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Normalization

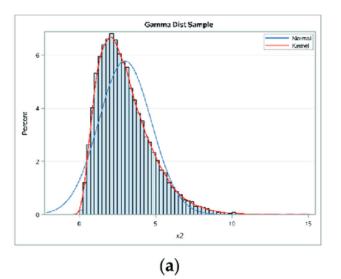
$$\tilde{X} = \frac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}}$$

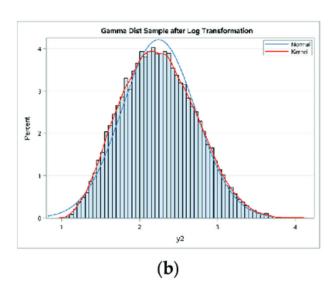
- Almost all algorithms are sensitive to feature scales
 - Tree-based methods are less sensitive to feature scaling

Feature Transformation

- Some data covers various orders of magnitude (e.g., wealth, salary)
- Standardization or normalization can be misleading and will be skewed towards the larger values
- Often, one first applies *log-transform* (and then standardization)

$$\tilde{X} = \log(X), X > 0$$





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

- Supervised learning
 - Labeled outcome variable (*Y*)
 - Regression: *Y* is quantitative (e.g., sales)
 - Classification: Y takes values in a finite, unordered set (e.g., spam/not spam email, handwritten digits 0 9)
- Unsupervised learning
 - No outcome variable (Y), just a set of predictors (X)
 - Example: k-means clustering algorithm
- Parametric and non-parametric methods
 - Depend on whether a specific functional form for f(X) is specified

Linear Regression

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p + \epsilon$$

Optimization objective

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p = \underset{\beta_0, \dots, \beta_p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=0}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{i,1} - \dots - \beta_p x_{i,p})^2$$

Fitted hyperplane

$$Y = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p X_p$$

• Prediction given $X = (x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, ..., x_{i,p})$ $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i,1} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{i,2} + \cdots + \hat{\beta}_n x_{i,n}$

Regularization

Ridge regression (or L2 regularization)

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p = \underset{\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=0}^n (y_0 - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j^2$$

Lasso regression (or L1 regularization)

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p = \underset{\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=0}^n (y_0 - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=0}^n |\beta_j|$$

• Elastic net: A linear combination of the Ridge and Lasso regularization techniques

$$\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \dots, \hat{\beta}_p = \underset{\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_p}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=0}^n (y_0 - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_j^p \beta_j^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_j^p |\beta_j|$$

Logistic Regression

Logistic regression uses sigmoid functions as the functional form

$$P(X) = \Pr(Y = 1|X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p)}}$$

Binary predictor: Given a decision threshold $\rho \in (0,1]$ $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & P(x) < \rho \\ 1, & P(x) \ge \rho \end{cases}$

Parameter estimation: Given a data sample S

$$\hat{\beta} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmax}} l(\beta|S) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \log p(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p(x_i))$$

Support Vector Machine

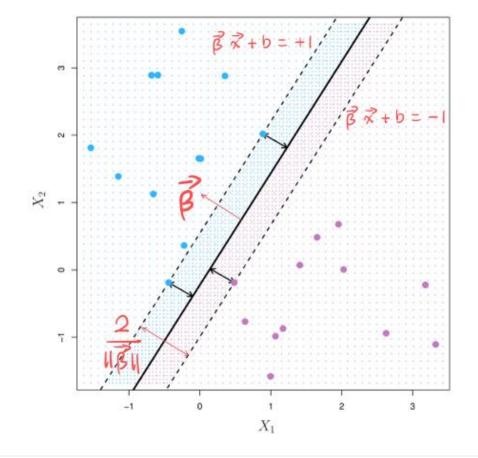
- Assume the data sample S is linearly separable by some margin
- Hyperplane

$$g(x) = \beta x + b = 0$$

Linear classifier

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & g(x) < 0 \\ 1, & g(x) \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

 SVM: Find two parallel hyperplanes that correctly classify all the points and maximize the distance between them



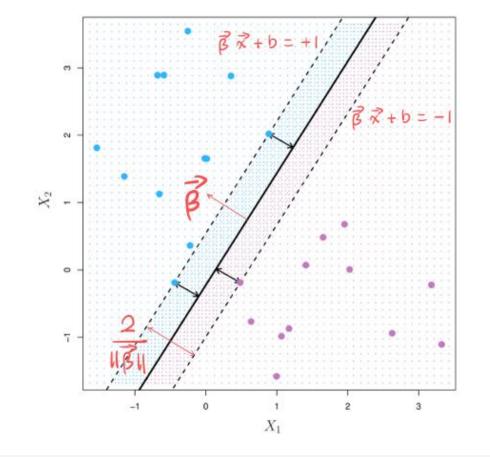
SVM Formulation

• SVM as an optimization problem maximize the distance: $\frac{2}{|\beta|}$ such that: $y_i(\beta x_i + b) \ge +1$ (for all i)

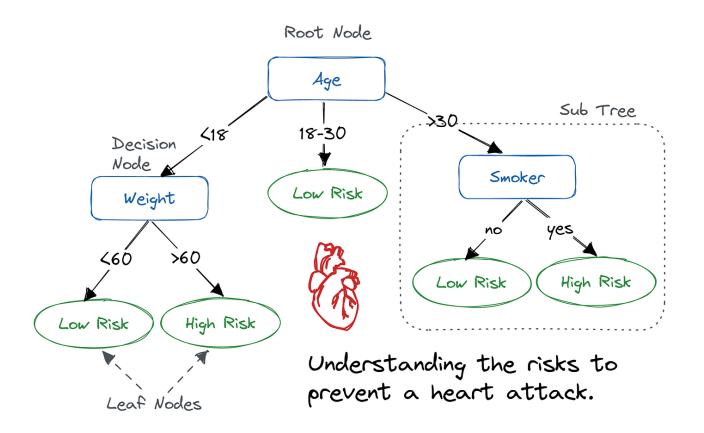
Equivalently:

maximize the distance: $\frac{1}{2}|\beta|^2$ such that: $y_i(\beta x_i + b) \ge +1$ (for all i)

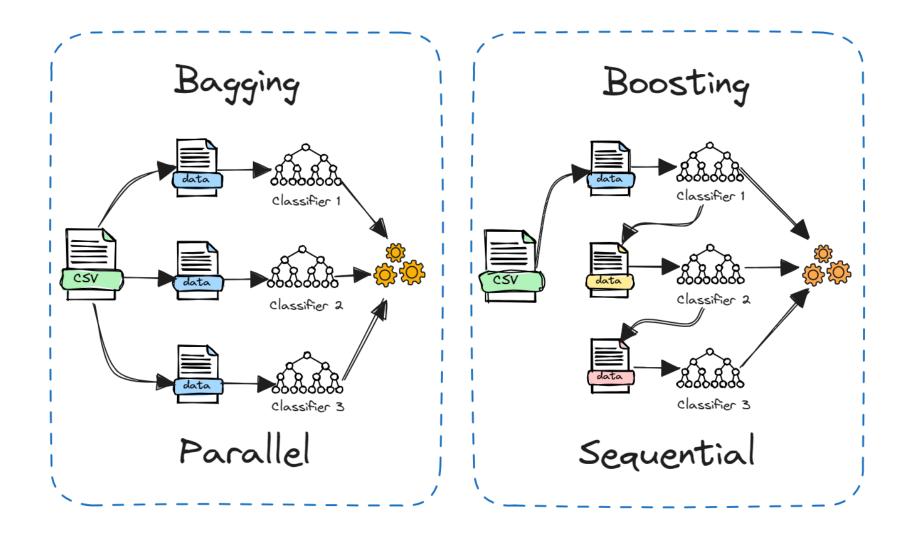
 The constrained optimization problem can be rephrased as a convex quadratic program, and solved efficiently



Decision Trees

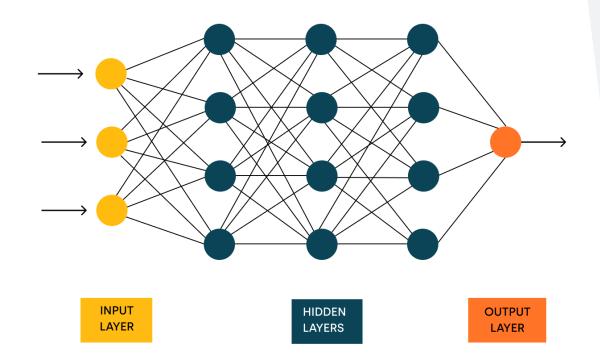


Bagging and Boosting



Neural Networks

- Input layer, hidden layers, output layer
- Neurons: Input neuron, hidden neuron, output neuron
- Activation function:
 - ReLU: max(0, x)
 - Sigmoid: $\frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$
 - tanh: tanh(x)



K-Means Clustering Algorithm

- 1. Start with K initial clusters (user chooses K)
- 2. At every step, each data point is reassigned to the cluster with the "closest" centroid
- 3. Recompute the centroids of clusters that lost or gained a data point, and repeat Step 2
- 4. Stop when moving any more data points between clusters increases cluster dispersion

[Visualizing the K-means algorithm][Visualizing DBSCAN Algorithm]

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Evaluation metrics for Regression

Mean squared error (MSE)

$$MSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 / n$$

R-squared

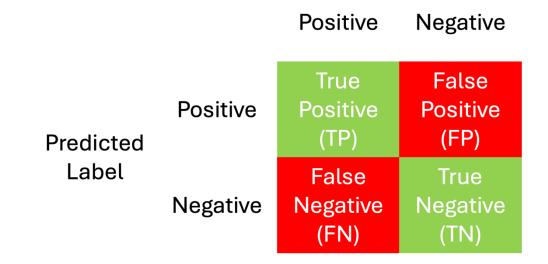
$$R^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - \bar{y})^{2}}$$

Adjusted R-squared

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{n-p} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

Confusion Matrix

Confusion matrix is a table that summarizes the performance of classification
 Actual Label



Misclassification occurs when the model assigns an incorrect class to the data

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Accuracy

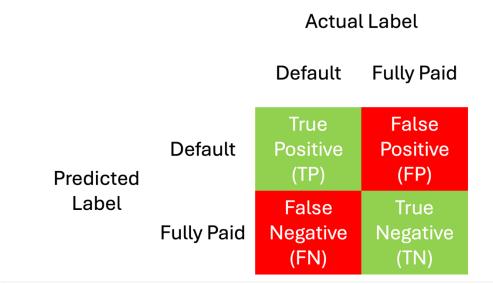
The most common and intuitive metric is the accuracy score

$$Accuracy = \frac{\sum TP + TN}{\sum TP + FP + FN + TN}$$

- Accuracy score alone is not a good metric when the label imbalance exists
 - For example, if only 10% of the loans are charged off, a naive classifier that predicts all loans will not default has an accuracy of 90%

Example: Confusion Matrix in Loan Default Prediction

- False positive: Fully paid loans that are predicted to be charged off
- False negative: Defaulted loans that are predicted to be fully paid
- False negative in unsecured loans is costly for banks
- What about cancer detection? Both FN and FP are costly



Precision, Recall, and F1 Score

Precision and recall indicate the occurrence of false positives and false negatives, respectively
$$Precision = \frac{\sum TP}{\sum TP + FP}$$

$$Recall = \frac{\sum TP}{\sum TP + FN}$$

• F1 score: Weighted average (Harmonic mean) of precision and recall $F1 = 2 \times \frac{Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$

$$F1 = 2 \times \frac{\dot{P}recision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$

Classification Threshold

Making a classification

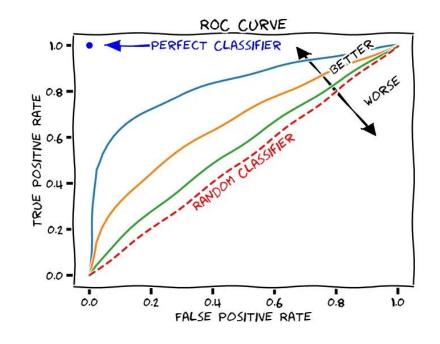
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & P(x) < \rho \\ 1, & P(x) \ge \rho \end{cases}$$

- The threshold (ρ) is a hyperparameter
- As ρ changes between 0 and 1, the evaluation scores also change
 - False-positive rate: $FPR = \frac{\sum FP}{\sum TN + FP}$ True-positive rate: $TPR = \frac{\sum TP}{\sum TP + FN}$

Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC) Curve

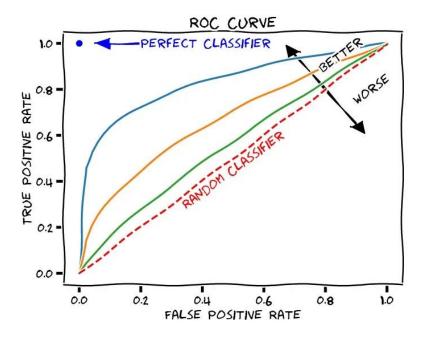
$$\rho \in [0,1], FPR = \frac{\sum FP}{\sum TN + FP}, TPR = \frac{\sum TP}{\sum TP + FN}$$

- If $\rho = 0$, then FPR = 1 and TPR = 1
- If $\rho = 1$, then FPR = 0 and TPR = 0
- For $\rho \in (0,1)$, there is a trade-off between *FPR* and *TPR*



AUC Scores

- Area Under the Curve (AUC) Score
 - *AUC* = 1: Perfect classification
 - AUC = 0.5: Random guess
 - Random guess is a naïve but often very useful benchmark
- Threshold independent: AUC measures how well the model can distinguish between the classes across all possible classification thresholds



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