Statistical Learning – week 3.1

Joris Bierkens

Delft University of Technology, The Netherlands

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Outline

Organization

2 What is statistical learning?

3 k-Nearest neighbours (kNN)

Course organization

- Course in Q3 + Q4, 6 ECTS
- Lecturer Joris Bierkens, assisted by Chris van Vliet
- Office hour Chris: Monday 13.45-14.45 (except week 3.3, 3.5, 3.6)
- Use the Brightspace forum for course communication
- Communicate your questions and comments publicly on Brightspace when possible
 - avoids repeated questions
 - helps other students
- Final grade: $0.3 \times A + 0.7 \times E$, where
 - A is the average grade for your assignments, and
 - E is your exam grade;
 - both A and E should be sufficient (≥ 5.8) to pass the course.
- Exam: 27 June, 9:00-12:00.
- Resit: 18 July, 9:00-12:00

Assignments

- There will be two assignments in total.
- These will consist of exercises given after class.
- Assignment deadlines: just before the lectures of weeks 3.6 and 4.6.
- Work together (meet up!) in groups of three
- Self-enroll in groups on Brightspace
- In your work:
 - clearly show your intermediate steps,
 - motivate your answer,
 - be to the point.
- Prepare clearly legible handwritten work (scanned, e.g. using CamScanner) or LaTEX.
- Submit using Brightspace by the deadline as a single PDF.
- Not adhering to these guidelines will result in a reduced grade.

Programming



- We will use Python for programming exercises and assignments in this course.
- A background in Python at the level of the course AM1090 is assumed.
- This includes a basic familiarity with the NumPy and MatPlotLib packages.
- To give you an idea of that course, see
 - the book Think Python, https://greenteapress.com/wp/think-python/
 - the slides of AM1090 (available on Brightspace).

Study material

Main reference



Kevin P. Murphy, Probabilistic Machine Learning - An Introduction, https://probml.github.io/pml-book/book1.html

Alternative references



Hastie et al., The Elements of Statistical Learning, 2nd ed., https://web.stanford.edu/~hastie/ElemStatLearn/



Bishop, Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/publication/pattern-recognition-machine-learning/

Lecture notes, will keep track of the lectures; available on Brightspace

What is statistical learning?

- In statistical learning we are interested in discovering relations in high-dimensional and/or large data sets.
- Close relation with machine learning and statistics
 - Compared to machine learning, statistical learning has a more mathematical/statistical focus: study methods as well as underlying theory, with attention for quantification of uncertainty.
 - Compared to classical statistics, the focus is more on computational aspects, large data sets, high-dimensional models and model-free or non-parametric approaches.

Supervised learning vs unsupervised learning

- supervised learning: learning a function y = f(x) or conditional distribution $p(y \mid x)$ based on observed inputs x_1, \ldots, x_n in \mathbb{R}^d and associated outputs y_1, \ldots, y_n .
- unsupervised learning: learning a probability distribution p(x) based on observed inputs x_1, \ldots, x_n .

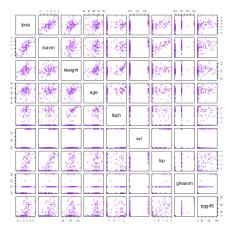
Terminology

| $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ | $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| input | output |
| independent variable | dependent variable |
| predictor | outcome |
| explanatory variable | response variable |

- In regression we assume that y assumes continuous values in $\mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- In classification we assume that y assumes discrete values in a finite set $\mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

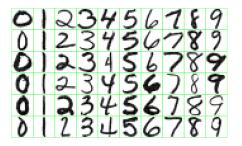
Regression example: Prostate cancer

[Hastie et al., Figure 1.1]



response variable (y): 1psa predictors (x_i) : 1cavol, ..., pgg45

Classification example: Handwritten digits [Hastie et al., Figure 1.2]



response variable (y): digit classification 0, 1, ..., 9 predictors (x_i) : pixel value at each position

Probabilistic framework for supervised learning

- Interpret $D_n = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots (X_n, Y_n)\}$ as independent realizations of a random variable (X, Y) in $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}$, with joint probability distribution P.
- In supervised learning we are mostly interested in learning
 - a functional relation between y = f(x), or
 - the conditional distribution $P(Y \in \cdot \mid X)$ of y conditional on X.
- Distribution of X may also be relevant:
 - In practice: for example to design good features, i.e. summaries $\phi(x)$ of the data.
 - In theory: for example to analyze the 'typical' prediction error.

Population model

- The population model P(dx, dy) is a probability distribution over X × Y: it takes sets as arguments and satisfies the axioms of probability theory.
- Notation: $P(A, B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A, Y \in B)$.
- We should assume the population model to be unknown.
- In regression, we assume that P has a probability density function

$$P(A,B) = \int_{x \in A} \int_{y \in B} p(x)p(y \mid x) \, dy \, dx$$

• In classification, we assume a conditional probability mass function $p(y \mid x)$ for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and a continuous density p(x), so

$$P(A,B) = \int_{x \in A} \sum_{y \in B} p(y \mid x) p(x) dx.$$

Example: Additive noise model

$$Y = f(X) + \varepsilon$$
, where

- a true function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$, and
- a random variable ε in \mathbb{R} , independent of X, with mean zero and variance σ^2 .
- The conditional distribution $P(dy \mid x)$ is given by

$$P(A \mid x) = \mathbb{P}(f(x) + \varepsilon \in A).$$

Example: Gaussian noise

In the Gaussian case, $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, so we obtain the conditional density

$$p(y \mid x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-(y - f(x))^2/(2\sigma^2)\right).$$

Together with p(x), this specifies the joint model for (X, Y).

Example: Class probabilities

- Classification: outcomes in a finite set Y.
- A generative model for classification could be:
 - class-conditional densities $p(x \mid y)$ for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, and
 - prior class probabilities $p(y) = \pi_y$.

Together $p(x \mid y)$ and p(y) specify the joint model $p(x,y) = p(x \mid y)p(y) = \pi_y p(x \mid y)$.

• We can determine the posterior class probabilities $p(y \mid x)$ using the Bayes formula,

$$p(y \mid x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x \mid y)\pi_y}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x \mid y')\pi_{y'}}.$$

Aims of statistical learning

Given observations $D_n = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$, we may want to

- **1** Estimate a predictive distribution: Determine $\hat{P}(dy \mid x) = \hat{P}(dy \mid x; D_n)$ as an approximation to $P(dy \mid x)$
- 2 Learn a predictive function: Determine a function $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{f}(x; D_n)$ as an approximation to a 'true function'.

Note, if we can do (1), a possible approach to (2) is taking

$$\hat{f}(x) = \int y \, \hat{p}(y \mid x) \, dy$$
 or $\hat{f}(x) \in \arg\max_{y} \hat{p}(y \mid x)$.

3 Unsupervised learning: Determine $\hat{p}(x)$ as an approximation of p(x).

Estimation

- Suppose we observe data $D_n = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}.$
- Based on this data, we may 'guess' an estimator $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{f}(x; D_n)$ for the function f(x)
- This is a random, infinite dimensional object:
 - random, since it depends on the data D_n that we model as being random
 - infinite-dimensional, since it assigns an outcome $\hat{f}(x)$ to every input $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- What is the quality of our estimation/prediction?

Loss functions

Suppose we make a prediction $y' \in \mathcal{Y}$ when the true outcome is $y \in \mathcal{Y}$

More generally, suppose we choose an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$ that we wish to compare to a true outcome y.

A loss function is a mapping $L: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$, where L(y, a) measures the 'loss' we incur when we choose action a when the true outcome is y.

Examples

- Quadratic loss: $L(y, y') = (y y')^2$, where $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{A} = \mathbb{R}$.
- 0-1 loss: $L(y, y') = \mathbb{1}_{y \neq y'} = \begin{cases} 1, & y \neq y', \\ 0, & y = y' \end{cases}$ where $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{A} = \{1, \dots, K\}.$
- Logistic loss: when p is a (predictive) probability of y,

$$L(y, p) = -y \log p - (1 - y) \log(1 - p), \quad \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}, \mathcal{A} = (0, 1).$$

Risk

- Consider a loss function : $\mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{A}$ and a function $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$.
- The (population) risk of a function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$ is the quantity

$$R[f] = \mathbb{E}_P[L(Y, f(X))].$$

The conditional risk is given by

$$R[f](x) = \mathbb{E}_P[L(Y, f(X)) \mid X = x].$$

• The Bayes estimator is a function f^* that minimizes R[f], or equivalently R[f](x) for all x.

Mathematical intermezzo: conditional expectation

Conditional expectation

The conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X]$ is defined as the random variable h(X) which satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[Yg(X)] = \mathbb{E}[h(X)g(X)]$$

for all functions g. This random variable exists and is a.s. uniquely defined. We then write $\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x] := h(x)$.

Exercise

Show that the function f minimizing

$$\mathbb{E}[(Y - f(X))^2]$$

is given by the conditional expectation $f(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$. This is called the projection property of conditional expectation.

In particular the Bayes estimator for quadratic loss is given by $f(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x]$.

Empirical Risk Minimization

We only have access to $D_n = \{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$, so cannot compute the Bayes estimator!

Instead let us minimize the Empirical Risk

$$R_n[f] = \mathbb{E}_{P_n}[L] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(Y_i, f(X_i)),$$

where $P_n(dx, dy) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{(X_i, Y_i)}(dx, dy)$ denotes the empirical distribution function.

Example: Residual Sum of Squares

For quadratic loss, we have

$$R_n[f] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - f(X_i))^2 =: \frac{1}{n} \text{RSS}[f],$$

where RSS is abbreviation for Residual Sum of Squares

Expected Risk

- For an estimator $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{f}(x; D_n)$, the risk $R[\hat{f}]$ is random (why?).
- The Expected Risk considers the expectation with respect to the data,

$$\mathsf{ER}[\hat{f}] = \mathbb{E}_{D_n} R[\hat{f}] = \mathbb{E}_{D_n} \mathbb{E}_P L(Y, \hat{f}(X; D_n)).$$

Often we are interested in conditional expected risk

$$\mathsf{ER}[\hat{f}](x) = \mathbb{E}_{D_n} \mathbb{E}_P \left[L(Y, \hat{f}(X; D_n) \mid X = X) \right].$$

Example: Expected Prediction Error

For quadratic loss, the expected risk $ER[\hat{f}]$ is also known as expected prediction error (EPE). So for example, conditionally on X, X_i ,

$$\mathsf{EPE}[\hat{f}](x) = \mathbb{E}_{D_n}\left[\mathbb{E}_P[(Y - \hat{f}(x))^2 \mid X = x]\right].$$

Mean Squared Error and Expected Prediction Error

Recall from elementary statistics that if T is an estimator for a quantity θ , then the Mean Squared Error is given by

$$MSE(T; \theta) = \mathbb{E}[(T - \theta)^2] = \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}[T - \theta])^2}_{bias(T; \theta)^2} + Var(T).$$

Consider the additive noise model,

$$Y = f(X) + \varepsilon$$

and suppose $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{f}(x; D_n)$ is an estimator of f based on the data D_n .

Expected prediction error (EPE)

$$\mathsf{EPE}[\hat{f}](x) = \mathbb{E}_{D_n} \mathbb{E}_P[(Y - \hat{f}(x))^2 \mid X = x] = \mathsf{MSE}[\hat{f}(x); f(x)] + \mathsf{Var}(\varepsilon)$$

$$= \mathsf{bias}^2 + \mathsf{variance} + \mathsf{noise}.$$

k-nearest neighbours (kNN)

• consider a distance measure $\rho(x,x')$ on \mathbb{R}^d , e.g.,

$$\rho(x,x') = \|x-x'\| = \|x-x'\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d (x_i-x_i')^2\right)^{1/2}.$$

- data set $D_n = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}.$
- let $N_k(x)$ denote the set of k indices of x_i with the smallest distance $\rho(x_i, x)$ to x.
- for regression, define

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in N_k(x)} y_i.$$

• for classification, define $\hat{f}(x)$ to be the majority vote

$$\hat{f}(x) \in \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg \, max}} |\{i \in N_k(x) : y_i = y\}|.$$

• this is a non-parametric approach: there is no finite dimensional parameter indexing the possible functions \mathcal{F} .

k-nearest neighbours (kNN): MSE

for regression,

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in N_k(x)} y_i.$$

assume the additive noise model

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

where $Var(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2$.

• bias-variance trade-off, assuming x_1, \ldots, x_n, x fixed (exercise):

$$MSE(\hat{f}(x); f(x)) = \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in N_k(x)} f(x_i) - f(x)}_{\text{bias}}\right)^2 + \underbrace{\frac{\sigma^2}{k}}_{\text{variance}}.$$

- as k grows,
 - the bias (typically) increases,
 - the variance decreases.

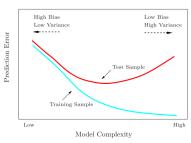
Bias-variance trade-off and overfitting

For k-nearest neighbours we had seen the bias-variance trade-off

$$\mathrm{MSE}(\hat{f}(x); f(x)) = \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in N_k(x)} f(x_i) - f(x)\right)^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{k}.$$

- bias-variance trade-off is a very general phenomenon.
- complex model non-smooth fit possible overfitting larger variance
- simple model smooth fit possible underfitting larger bias

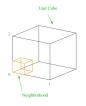
 prevent overfitting by assessing performance on a test sample.



Curse of dimensionality

See [HTF09, Section 2.5]

• a local method (e.g., nearest neighbours) works well if any new input x has many observations x_1, \ldots, x_n in its vicinity.



- suppose inputs $x_1, ..., x_n$ have uniform distribution in the hypercube $[0, 1]^p$.
- how many points will lie in the sub-hypercube [0, 0.1]^p?
- answer: approximately $n \times (0.1)^p$.
- in order to maintain a fixed ratio of points in any sub-hypercube for growing p, we require n to grow exponentially in p.

Learning objectives lecture 3.1

- Key distinctions: supervised vs unsupervised learning, regression vs classification (G)
- k-nearest neighbours as a simple example of supervised learning
- Probabilistic setting of supervised learning (G)
- Mean squared error, bias-variance trade-off (G)
- The use of training- and test-set to estimate risk (G)
- Curse of dimensionality (G)

Reading and exercises

Background reading

- draft lecture notes, Chapter 1
- Murphy, Sections 1.1-1.3, 1.6

Recommended exercises

- Exercises in lecture notes, Chapter 1
- Exercises on slides