Statistical learning - Introduction

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Statistical modeling / Machine learning

- ▶ What are the differences?
 - well...

Statistics	Machine Learning
Estimation / Fitting	Learning
Data point	Example
Regression / Classification	Supervised Learning
Clustering	Unsupervised Learning
Parameters	Weights
Covariate	Feature
Response	Label
Test performance	Generalization
Inference	Prediction
Small data sets	Large data sets
Light computation	Heavy computation
Large grant = \$50,000	Large grant = \$1,000,000
Old / Boring	New / Cool / Vibrant
R	Python

Adapted from Larry Wasserman and Rob Tibshirani

Statistical learning

Statistical modeling: emphasizes statistical inference in low dimensional problems.

Machine learning: emphasizes prediction in high dimensional problems.

Statistical learning: set of tools for modeling and understanding data.

Supervised and unsupervised learning

Supervised learning: Finding a model that relates a response variable (label) to a set of predictor variables.

- Inference
- Prediction
- Regression
- Classification
- Parametric
- Non-parametric

Unsupervised learning: Finding a hidden structure in a set of data without a response variable (unlabeled).

- Cluster analysis
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



- Types of problems:
 - Inference and prediction
 - Regression and classification
 - Parametric and non-parametric

- Assessing model accuracy
 - ► Measuring quality of fit
 - Bias-variance trade-off
 - Cross-validation

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Inference and Prediction

In many problems one wants to estimate the relation between:

input variables

explanatory variables independent variables features covariates

output variable

outcome response dependent variable label

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$
 $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$

Why estimating f?

- Inference
- Prediction

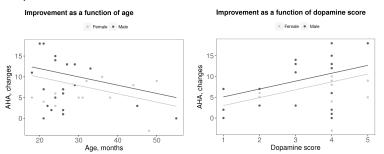


Inference

Aim: understanding how Y is influenced by the Xs.

- Which explanatory variables are important? Which are associated with the outcome?
- How is the relation between each explanatory variable and the outcome?
 - Positive or negative association
 - Linear or other

Example:



Prediction

Aim: predict value of Y given a set of Xs.

- ► Typically the exact form of *f* does not matter as long as we get accurate predictions.
- ▶ We want to estimate f in a way that minimizes the reducible error.

The accuracy of the prediction \hat{Y} of Y depends on:

- reducible error: error in the estimate \hat{f} of f
- irreducible error: ϵ there are unmeasured factors that influence the outcome

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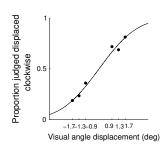
Regression and Classification

Types of variables:

- quantitative
 - · examples: age, height, income
- qualitative
 - examples: language spoken, existence of a diagnose

Outcome variables

- quantitative regression
- qualitative classification
- But things are not always so clear...



Explanatory variables can be quantitative or qualitative for both types of problems.

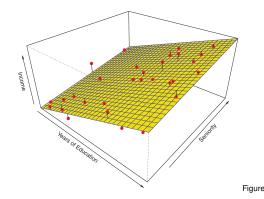
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How to estimate *f*: parametric approaches

Parametric approaches:

- 1 assume a parametrized form for f
- 2 estimate the parameters
- Reduces and simplifies the problem of estimating f!



adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani

For example a linear model using least squares for estimation:

1 assume
$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon$$
, $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

2 estimate the β s



How to estimate *f*: non-parametric approaches Non-parametric approaches:

▶ Do not make explicit assumptions about f, but impose smoothness constrains.

Advantage: a potential wrong shape of *f* is not pre-defined.

► The problem of estimating f is not reduced. Disadvantage: a lot more data is required to estimate f.

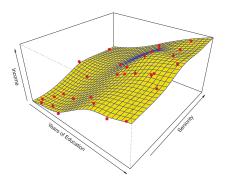


Figure adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani

Model interpretability versus prediction accuracy

- What approach for estimating f gives better interpretability?
- What approach for estimating f gives better prediction accuracy?

- For what problems does one favor interpretability?
- For what problems does one favor accuracy?

Model interpretability versus prediction accuracy

- More interpretability:
 - Parametric approaches more inflexible models
 Least squares linear model
 Lasso (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator)
 - ► Inference problems

- Better prediction accuracy:
 - Non-parametric approaches more flexible models
 Support-vector classification
 - Prediction problems

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Quality of fit - regression

There is no single best method for all data sets and questions.

Inference

Mean squared error is commonly used:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))^2$$

MSE (training MSE) should be small.

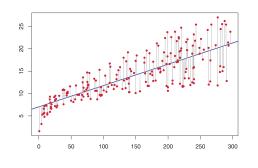


Figure adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani

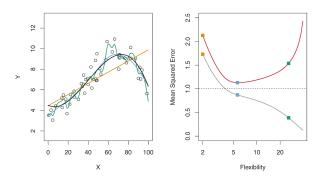
Prediction:

- ► For a new observation x_0 , $\hat{f}(x_0)$ is close to y_0 .
- MSE on test data (test MSE) should be small.
- ► Average $(y_0 \hat{f}(x_0))^2$ should be small.

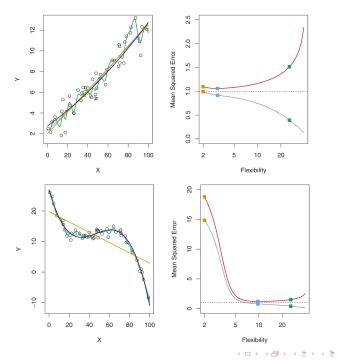


Overfitting

Minimizing training MSE does not guarantee minimization of test MSE



Figures adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani



Overfitting

Linear model, fitting polynomials.

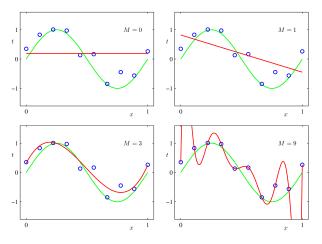


Figure adapted from Bishop

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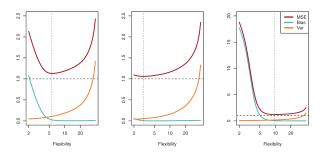
Bias-variance trade off

Variance: amount by which \hat{f} changes when estimated based on other data sets

▶ flexible models → more variance

Bias: error introduced by using a given model

▶ flexible models → less bias



Figures adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani

Quality of fit - classification

Inference

Error rate is commonly used:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n I(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i)$$

 \hat{y}_i is the label predicted by \hat{f}

$$I(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i) \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_i \neq \hat{y}_i \\ 0 & \text{if } y_i = \hat{y}_i \end{cases}$$

Training error rate should be small.

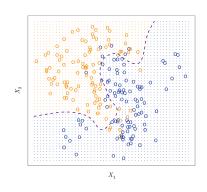


Figure adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani

Prediction:

- ► For a new observation x_0 , \hat{y}_0 is the correct label.
- Error rate on test data (test error rate) should be small.
- ▶ $\sum I(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i)$ should be small.



Overfitting and bias-variance trade off

Overfitting and bias-variance trade-off also apply to classification problems.

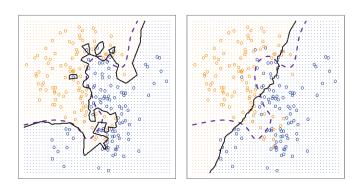


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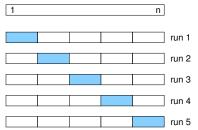
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Cross-validation

How to compute the test MSE / error rate if there is no test set?

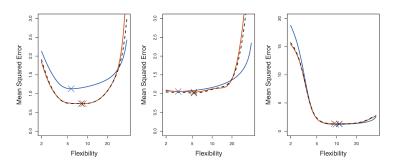
- Divide the data into training and test data.
 - If the data set is small too few observations to train and too few observation to estimate the quality of fit.
- k-fold cross-validation
 - Divide the data into k subsets.
 - For each subset k train the model on the rest of the data and test on k.
 - Average the k MSEs or error rates.
 - If k = n one observation is left out: Leave-one-out cross-validation



Cross-validation

Aims:

- Estimate how accurate is a given model.
- Identify what statistical learning method is best for a given data.



orange: 10-fold; dashed: leave-one-out

Figure adapted from James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani

Bias-variance trade-off for k-fold cross-validation

What *k* to choose for cross-validation?

- ▶ Dividing the data in 2 \rightarrow half the data is used to train \rightarrow overestimation of the test error (bias)
- Large k → data used for different runs very similar → high variance of the test error estimate
- k = 5 or 10 are commonly used.

Overview of the rest of the day

- Regression
 - Shrinkage Methods: Ridge regression, Lasso
 - Non-linear regression: polynomial regression, splines
- Classification
 - Nearest-neighbors
 - Logistic and multinomial regression
 - Discriminant analysis
 - Support vector classification
- Non-supervised
 - Principal component analysis
 - Cluster analysis

References

 G. James, D. Witten, T. Hastie and R. Tibshirani, An Introduction to Statistical Learning, with applications in R, Springer texts in statistics

► C. Bishop, Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, Springer