



**MONASH** University

**ETC3250**

# **Business Analytics**

**Week 2.**

**Statistical learning**

27 July 2017

# Outline

## **1** Introduction

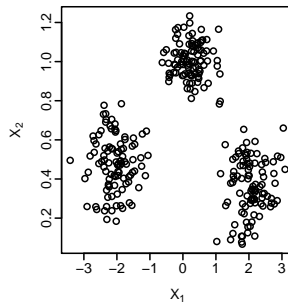
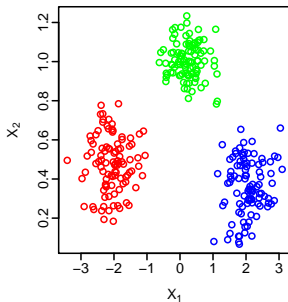
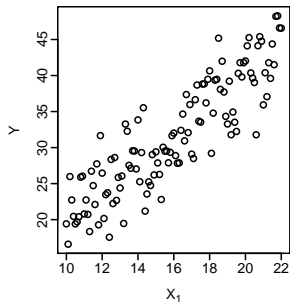
## **2** Assessing model accuracy in regression

## **3** Assessing model accuracy in classification

# Learning from data

- **Better understand** or **make predictions** about a certain phenomenon under study
- **Construct a model** of that phenomenon by finding relations between several variables
- If phenomenon is complex or depends on a large number of variables, an **analytical solution** might not be available
- However, we can **collect data** and learn a model that **approximates** the true underlying phenomenon

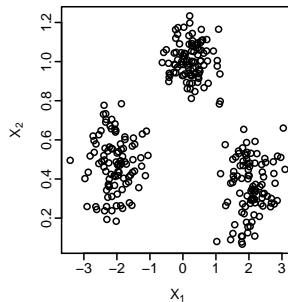
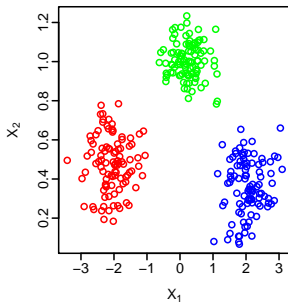
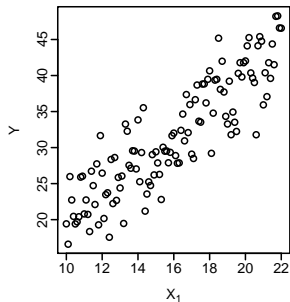
# Learning from a dataset



$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N \text{ with } x_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})^T$$

**Statistical learning** provides a framework for constructing models from  $\mathcal{D}$ .

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**Statistical learning** provides a framework for constructing models from  $\mathcal{D}$ .

# Different learning problems

- Supervised learning
  - Regression (or prediction)
  - Classification

→  $y_i$  **available for all**  $x_i$
- Unsupervised learning

→  $y_i$  **unavailable for all**  $x_i$
- Semi-supervised learning

→  $y_i$  **available only for few**  $x_i$
- Other types of learning: reinforcement learning, online learning, active learning, etc.

Identification of the best learning problem is important in practice

# Supervised learning

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i)\}_{i=1}^N,$$

where

$$(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i) \sim P(Y, \mathbf{X}) = P(\mathbf{X}) \underbrace{P(Y|\mathbf{X})}.$$

- $Y$ : response (output)
- $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_p)$ : set of  $p$  predictors (input)

We seek a function  $g(\mathbf{X})$  for predicting  $Y$  given values of the input  $\mathbf{X}$ . This function is computed using  $\mathcal{D}$ .

# Supervised learning

We often assume that our data arose from a statistical model

$$Y = f(\mathbf{X}) + \varepsilon,$$

where  $f$  is the true unknown function,  $\varepsilon$  is the random error term with  $E[\varepsilon] = 0$  and is independent of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

- The additive error model is a useful approximation to the truth
- $f(x) = E[Y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$
- Not a deterministic relationship:  $Y = f(\mathbf{X})$



# Supervised learning

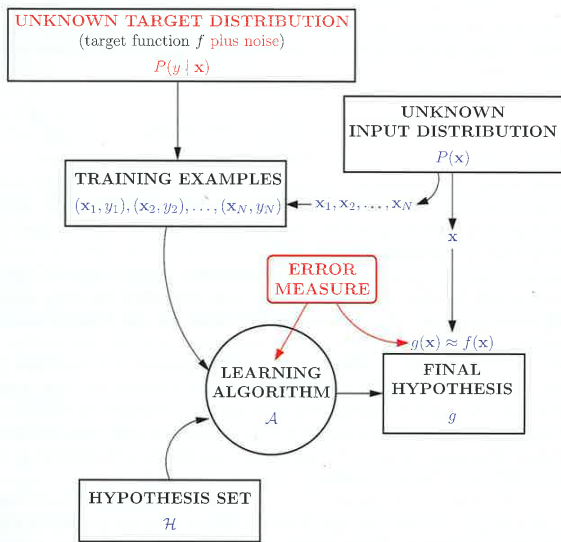
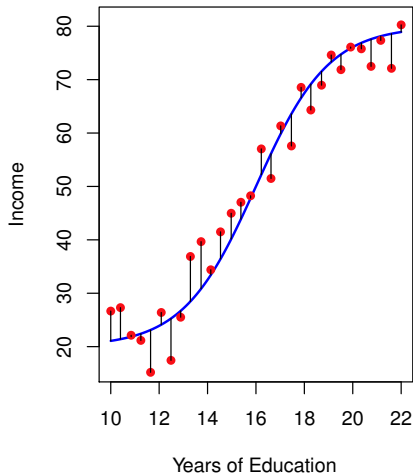
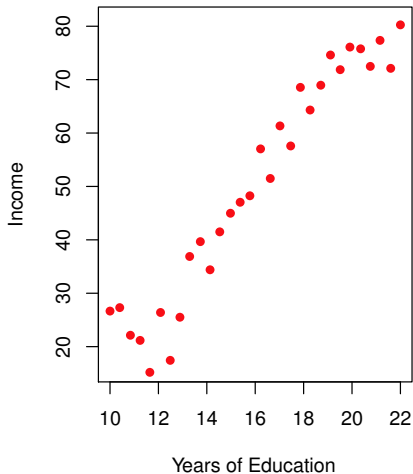
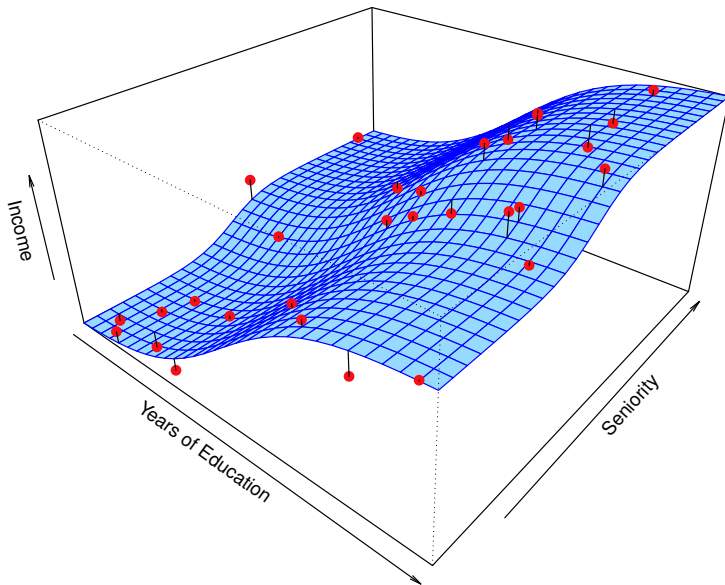


Figure 1.11: The general (supervised) learning problem

# Supervised learning - regression



# Supervised learning - regression



# Why estimate $f$ ?

## ■ Prediction:

- $\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X)$

Error decomposition in regression:

$$\begin{aligned} E[(Y - \hat{Y})^2] &= E[(f(X) + \varepsilon - \hat{Y})^2] \\ &= \underbrace{E[(f(X) - \hat{f}(X))^2]}_{\text{Reducible}} + \underbrace{\text{Var}(\varepsilon)}_{\text{Irreducible}} \end{aligned}$$

## ■ Inference (or explanation):

- Which predictors are associated with the response?
- What is the relationship between the response and each predictor?

# How do we estimate $f$ ?

## ■ Parametric methods

- Assumption about the form of  $f$ , e.g. linear:

$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_p X_p \text{ and } \hat{Y}(x) = \hat{f}(x)$$

- 😊 The problem of estimating  $f$  reduces to estimating a set of parameters
- 😊 Usually a good starting point for many learning problems
- 😞 Poor performance if linearity assumption is wrong

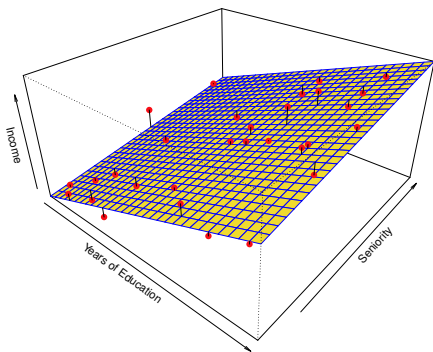
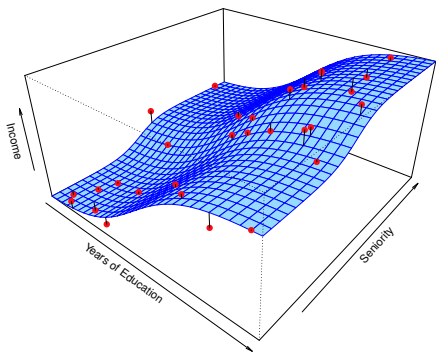
## ■ Non-parametric methods

- No *explicit* assumptions about the form of  $f$ , e.g.

$$\text{nearest neighbours: } \hat{Y}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{x_i \in N_k(x)} y_i$$

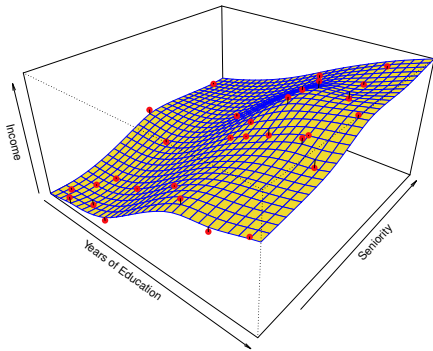
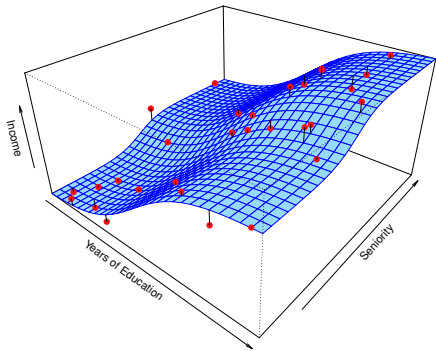
- 😊 High flexibility: it can potentially fit a wider range of shapes for  $f$
- 😞 A large number of observations is required to estimate  $f$  with good accuracy

# Regression - estimation of $f$ ?

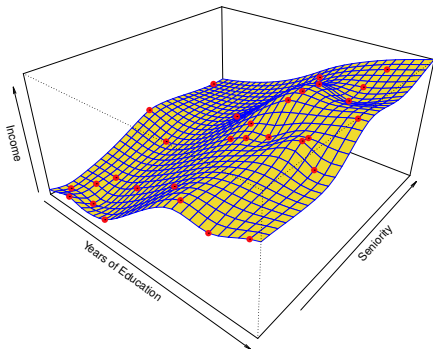
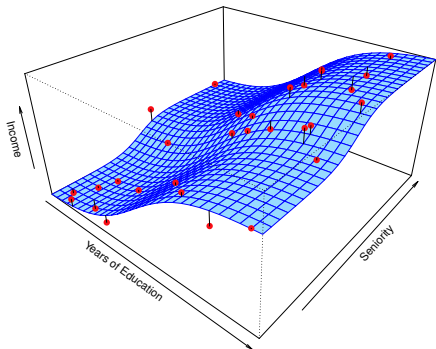


$$\hat{f}(\text{education}, \text{seniority}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \times \text{education} + \hat{\beta}_2 \times \text{seniority}$$

# Regression - estimation of $f$ ?



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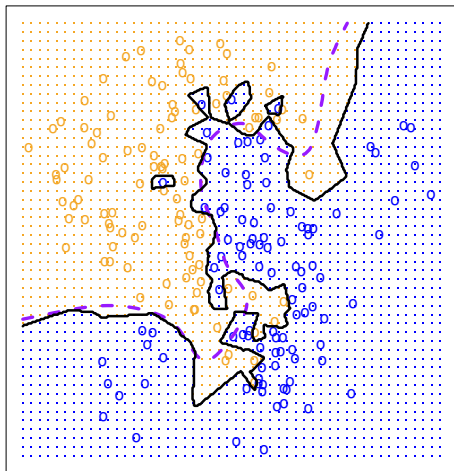


"Why would we ever choose to use a **more restrictive method** instead of a **very flexible approach**?"

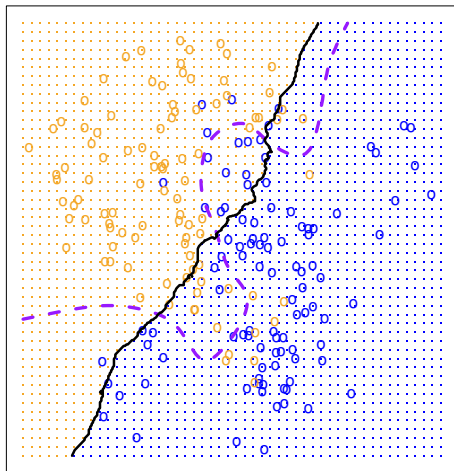


# Classification - estimation of $f$ ?

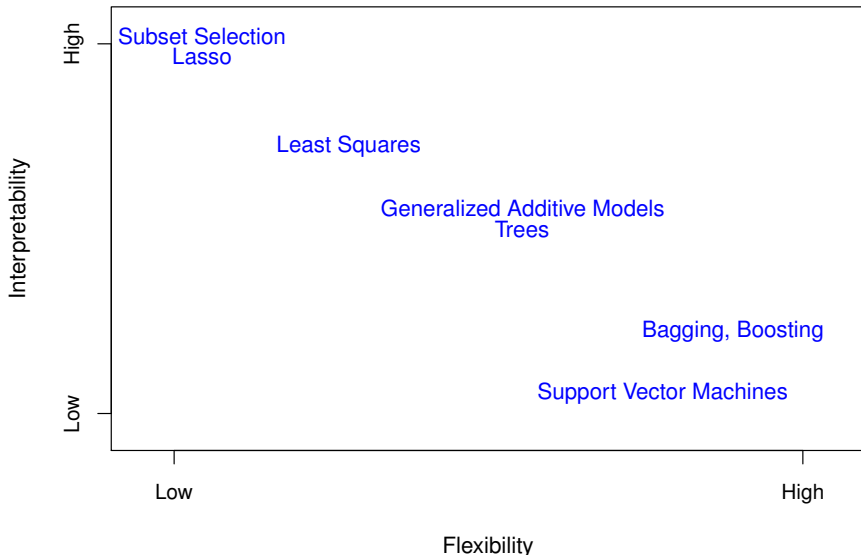
KNN:  $K=1$



KNN:  $K=100$



# Prediction Accuracy vs Model Interpretability



# Outline

1 Introduction

**2 Assessing model accuracy in regression**

3 Assessing model accuracy in classification

# Regression problems

Suppose we have a regression model  $y = f(x) + \varepsilon$ .

**Estimate**  $\hat{f}$  from some **training data**,  $Tr = \{x_i, y_i\}_1^n$ .

One common measure of accuracy is:

## Training Mean Squared Error

$$\text{MSE}_{Tr} = \text{Ave}_{i \in Tr} [y_i - \hat{f}(x_i)]^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [(y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))]^2$$

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Measure **real accuracy** using **test data**  $Te = \{x_j, y_j\}_1^m$

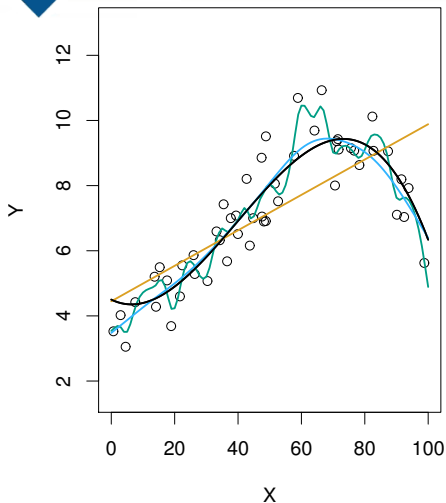
## Test Mean Squared Error

$$\text{MSE}_{Te} = \text{Ave}_{j \in Te} [y_j - \hat{f}(x_j)]^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m [(y_j - \hat{f}(x_j))]^2$$

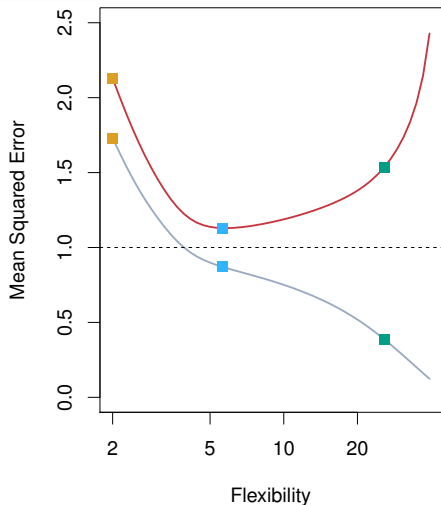
# Training vs Test MSEs

- In general, the more **flexible** a method is, the lower its **training MSE** will be. i.e. it will “fit” the training data very well.
- However, the **test MSE** may be higher for a more **flexible** method than for a **simple** approach like linear regression.
- Flexibility also makes interpretation more difficult. There is a trade-off between **flexibility** and **model interpretability**.

# Example: splines

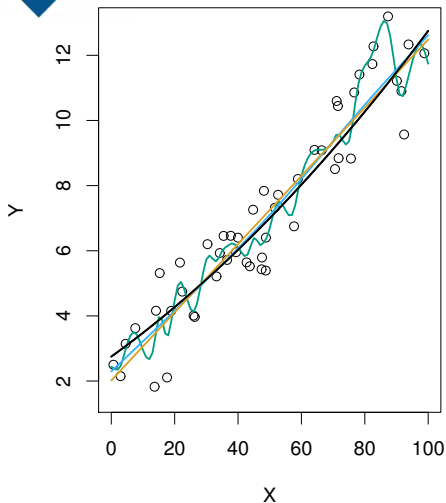


Black: true curve  
Orange: linear regression  
Blue/green: Smoothing splines

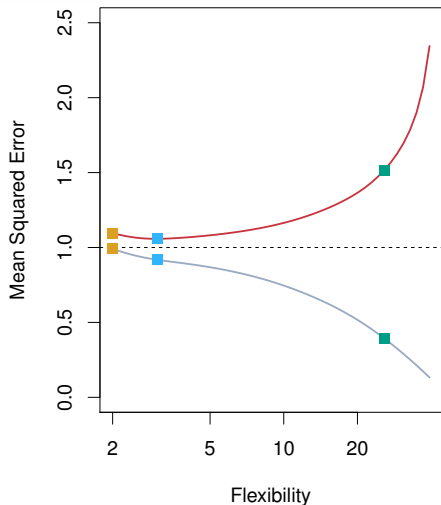


Grey: Training MSE  
Red: Test MSE  
Dashed: Minimum test MSE

# Example: splines



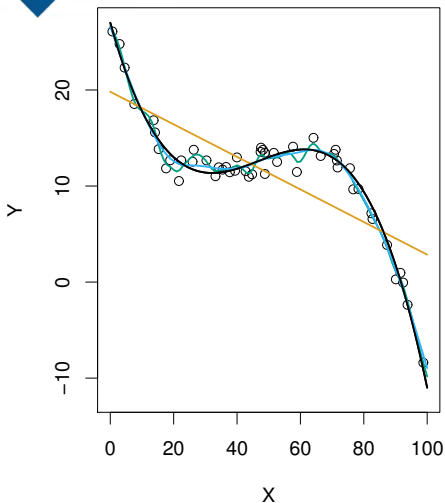
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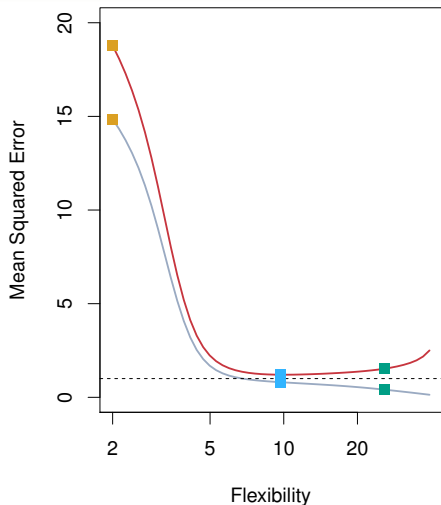
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# Example: splines



Black: true curve  
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Grey: Training MSE  
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# Bias-variance tradeoff

There are two competing forces that govern the choice of learning method: **bias** and **variance**.

## Bias

is the error that is introduced by modeling a complicated problem by a simpler problem.

- For example, linear regression assumes a linear relationship when few real relationships are exactly linear.
- In general, the **more flexible** a method is, the **less bias** it will have.

# Bias-variance tradeoff

There are two competing forces that govern the choice of learning method: **bias** and **variance**.

## Variance

refers to how much your estimate would change if you had different training data.

- In general, the **more flexible** a method is, the **more variance** it has.
- The **size** of the training data has an impact on the variance

# The bias-variance tradeoff

## MSE decomposition

If  $Y = f(x) + \varepsilon$  and  $f(x) = E[Y \mid X = x]$ , then the expected **test** MSE for a new  $Y$  at  $x_0$  will be equal to

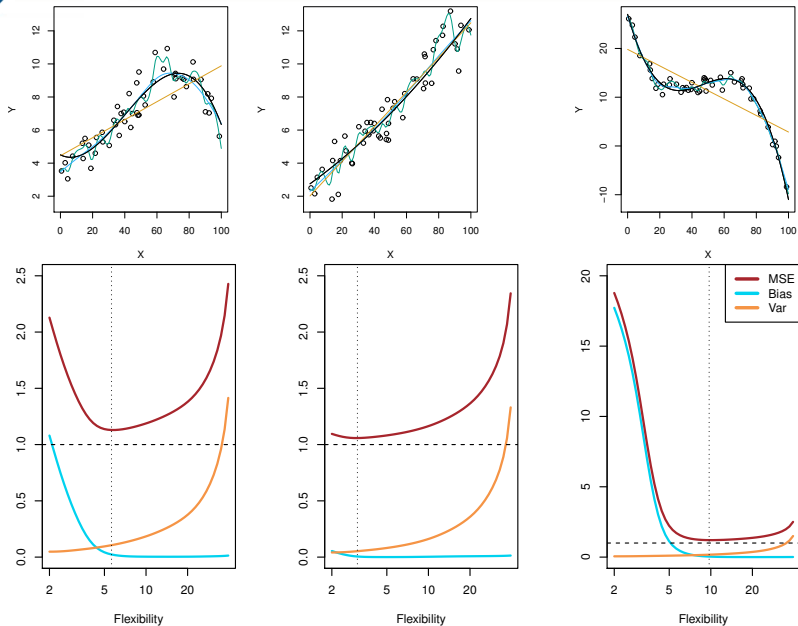
$$E[(Y - \hat{f}(x_0))^2] = [\text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))]^2 + \text{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0)) + \text{Var}(\varepsilon)$$

→ see proof of MSE decomposition

Test MSE = Bias<sup>2</sup> + Variance + Irreducible variance

- The expectation averages over the variability of  $Y$  as well as the variability in the training data.
- As the flexibility of  $\hat{f}$  increases, its variance increases and its bias decreases.
- Choosing the flexibility based on average test MSE amounts to a **bias-variance trade-off**.

# Bias-variance trade-off



# Optimal prediction

## MSE decomposition

If  $Y = f(x) + \varepsilon$  and  $f(x) = E[Y | X = x]$ , then the expected **test** MSE for a new  $Y$  at  $x_0$  will be equal to

$$E[(Y - \hat{f}(x_0))^2] = [\text{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))]^2 + \text{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0)) + \text{Var}(\varepsilon)$$

The optimal MSE is obtained when

$$\hat{f} = f = E[Y | X = x].$$

Then bias=variance=0 and

$$\text{MSE} = \text{irreducible variance}$$

This is called the “**oracle**” **predictor** because it is not achievable in practice.

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- 1 Introduction
- 2 Assessing model accuracy in regression
- 3 Assessing model accuracy in classification**

# Classification problems

Here the response variable  $Y$  is **qualitative**.

- e.g., email is one of  $\mathcal{C} = (\text{spam}, \text{ham})$
- e.g., voters are one of  $\mathcal{C} = (\text{Liberal}, \text{Labor}, \text{Green}, \text{National}, \text{Other})$

**Our goals are:**

- 1 Build a classifier  $C(x)$  that assigns a class label from  $\mathcal{C}$  to a future unlabeled observation  $x$ .
- 2 Assess the uncertainty in each classification (i.e., the probability of misclassification).
- 3 Understand the roles of the different predictors among  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$ .



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# Classification problem

In place of MSE, we now use:

## Error rate

$$\text{Error rate} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(y_i \neq \hat{f}(x_i))$$

where  $\hat{f}(x_i)$  is the predicted class label and  $I(y_i \neq \hat{f}(x_i))$  is an indicator function.

- That is, the error rate is the fraction of misclassifications.
- The training error rate is misleading (too small).
- We want to minimize the test error rate:  
 $E(I(y_0 \neq \hat{f}(x_0)))$

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# Optimal classifier

- A classification rule assigns each value of  $\mathbf{x}$  to one of the available classes  $\mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_K$
- Such a rule will divide the input space into regions  $\mathcal{R}_k$  called decision regions, one for each class, such that all points in  $\mathcal{R}_k$  are assigned to class  $\mathcal{C}_k$
- In order to find the optimal decision rule, consider first of all the case of two classes. A misclassification occurs when an input vector belonging to class  $\mathcal{C}_1$  is assigned to class  $\mathcal{C}_2$  or vice versa:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\text{misclassification}) &= \Pr(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{C}_2) + \Pr(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_2, \mathcal{C}_1) \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} \Pr(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_2) d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} \Pr(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_1) d\mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

To which class should we assign each point  $\mathbf{x}$ ?

# Optimal classifier

- To minimize  $\Pr(\text{misclassification})$ , we should arrange that each  $\mathbf{x}$  is assigned to whichever class has the smaller value of the integrand
- For a given value of  $\mathbf{x}$ , if  $\Pr(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_1) > \Pr(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_2)$ , we should assign  $\mathbf{x}$  to class  $\mathcal{C}_1$
- Since  $\Pr(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_k) = \Pr(\mathcal{C}_k|\mathbf{x})\Pr(\mathbf{x})$ , and  $\Pr(\mathbf{x})$  is common to both terms, the minimum probability of mistake is obtained if each value of  $\mathbf{x}$  is assigned to the class for which the posterior probability  $\Pr(\mathcal{C}_k|\mathbf{x})$  is largest
- For the more general case of  $K$  classes, it is slightly easier to maximize the probability of being correct, and use the same arguments as above

# Optimal classifier

Suppose the  $K$  elements in  $\mathcal{C}$  are numbered  $1, 2, \dots, K$ . Let

$$p_k(x) = \Pr(Y = k \mid X = x), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, K.$$

These are the **conditional class probabilities** at  $x$ .  
Then the **Bayes** classifier at  $x$  is

$$C(x) = j \quad \text{if } p_j(x) = \max\{p_1(x), p_2(x), \dots, p_K(x)\}$$

- This gives the minimum average test error rate.
- It is an “oracle predictor” because we do not usually know  $p_k(x)$ .

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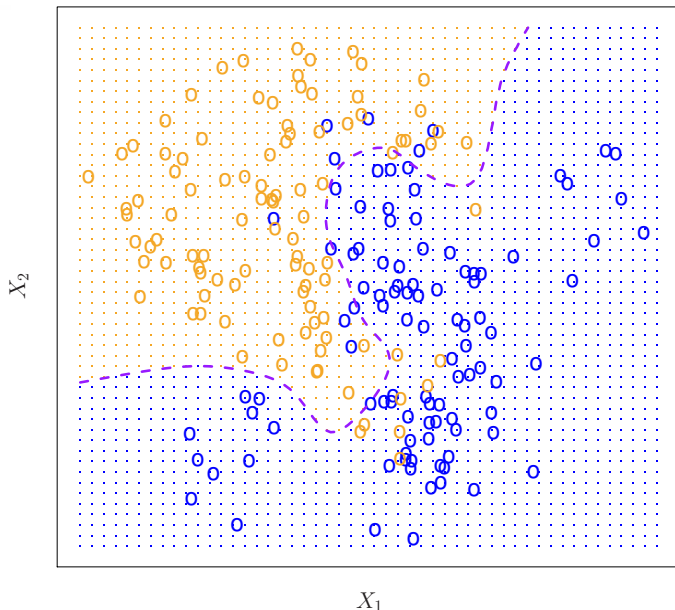
# Bayes error rate

## Bayes error rate

$$1 - E(\max_j \Pr(Y = j|X))$$

- The “Bayes error rate” is the lowest possible error rate that could be achieved if we knew exactly the “true” probability distribution of the data.
- It is analagous to the “irreducible error” in regression.
- On test data, no classifier can get lower error rates than the Bayes error rate.
- In reality, the Bayes error rate is not known exactly.

# Bayes optimal classifier



# k-Nearest Neighbours

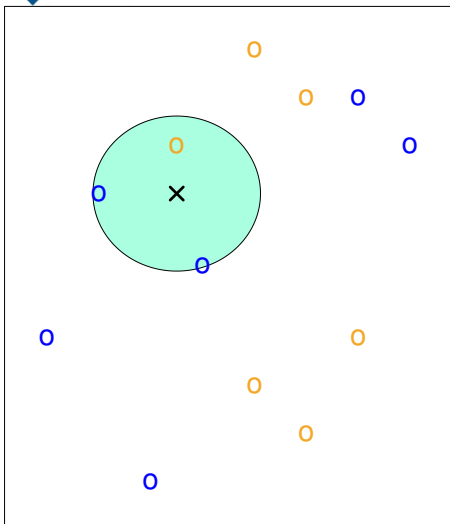
One of the simplest classifiers. Given a test observation  $x_0$ :

- Find the  $K$  nearest points to  $x_0$  in the training data:  $\mathcal{N}_0$ .
- Estimate conditional probabilities

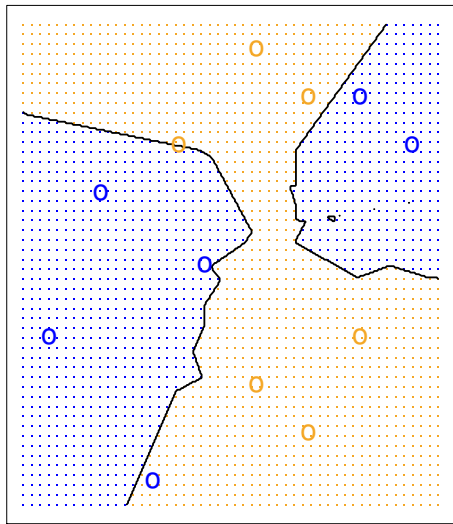
$$\Pr(Y = j \mid X = x_0) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_0} I(y_i = j).$$

- Apply Bayes rule and classify  $x_0$  to class with largest probability.

# kNN Classifier

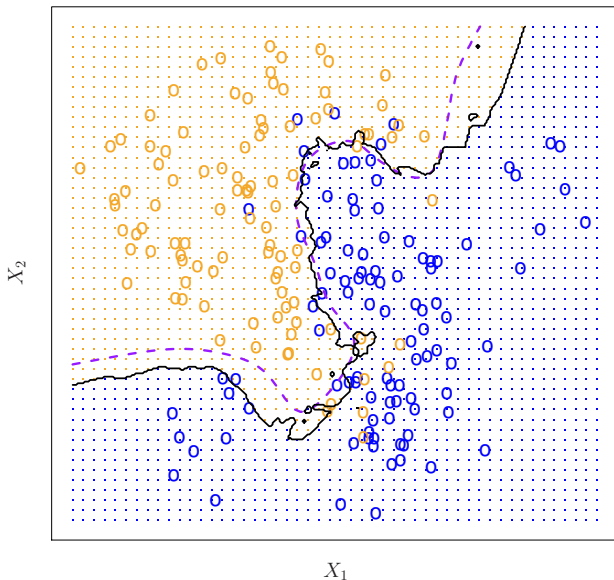


$K = 3.$



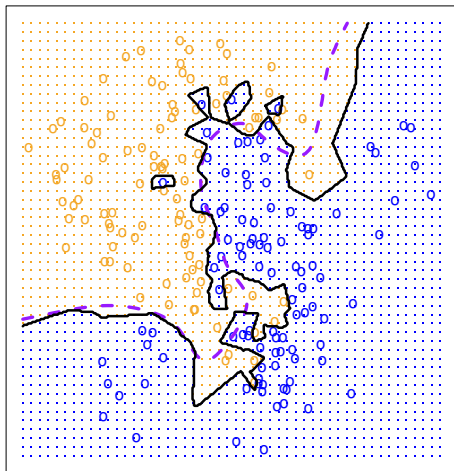
# kNN Classifier

KNN:  $K=10$

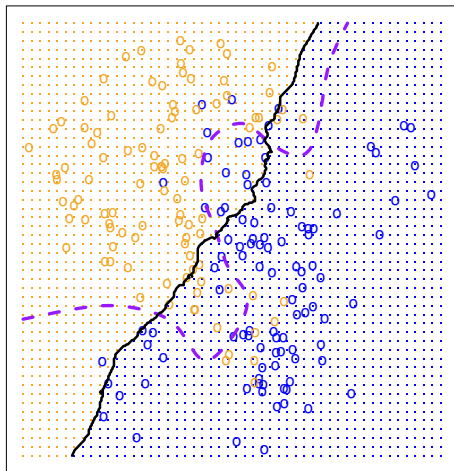


# kNN Classifier

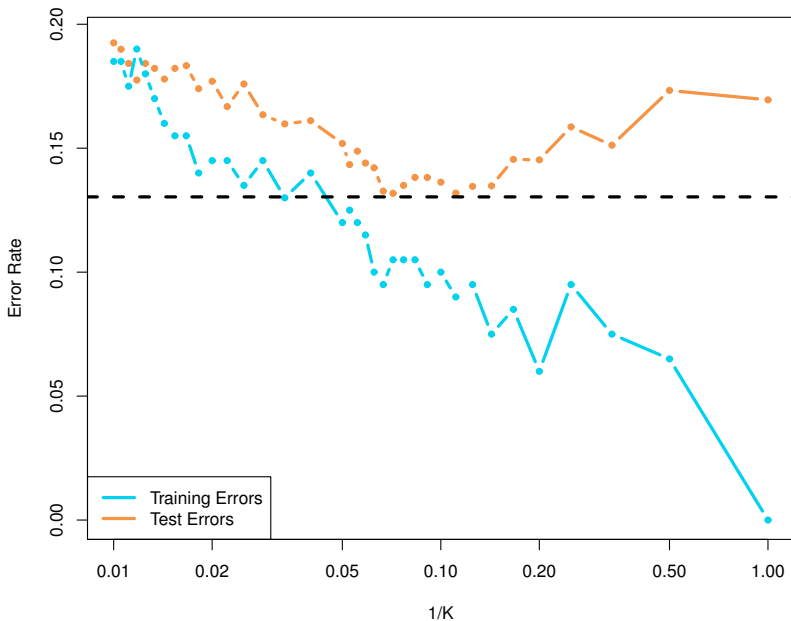
KNN:  $K=1$



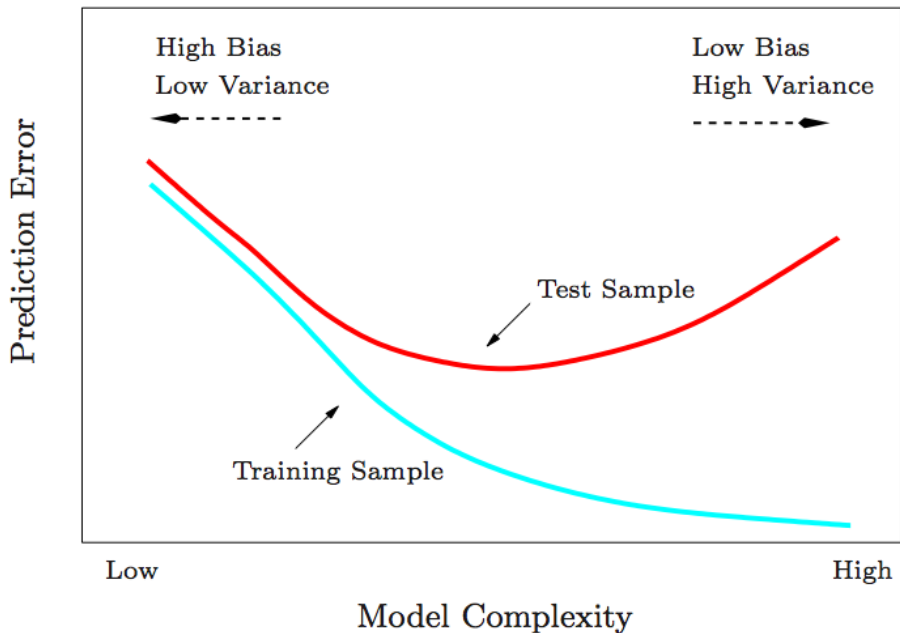
KNN:  $K=100$



# kNN Classifier

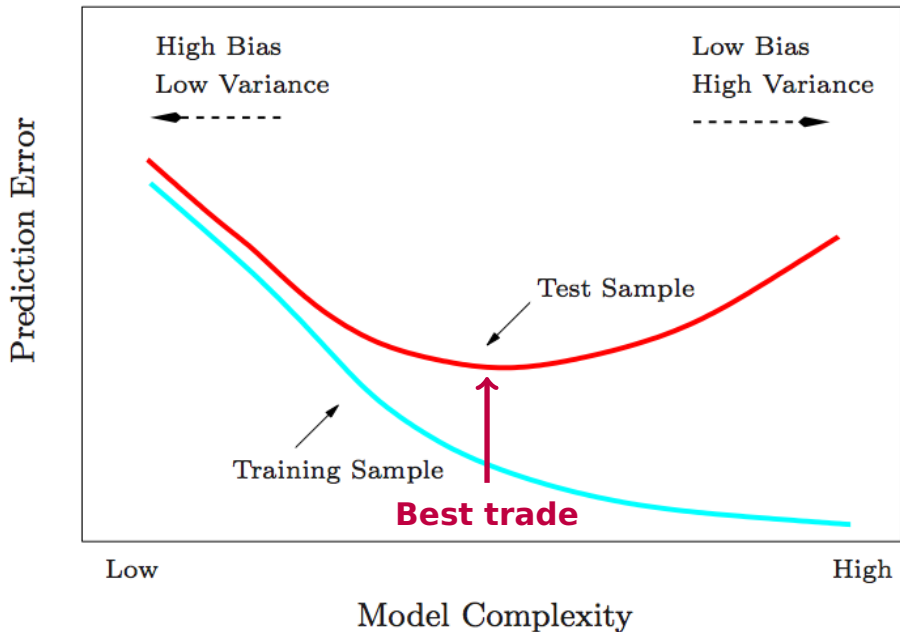


# A fundamental picture





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