1) The Large-Sample z Test

What is it? A test of a distribution mean μ. The distribution itself is unspecified. Of the distribution is unknown, but the sample size is large.

What is Assumed? The two editors the Central Limit Theorem, so the sample size is $n \geq 30$. And all data are sampled from the same distribution, i.e., all data are independent and identically distributed, or iid.

What is the Test Statistic? The standardized quantity

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

2) The One-Sample t Test

What is it? A test of a normal distribution mean μ

What is Assumed? All data are iid samples from a normal distribution of unknown mean and standard deviation.

What is the Test Statistic? The standardized quantity

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}$$

3) The Two-Sample t Test

What is it? A test of whether the data in two separate samples were drawn from normal distributions with the same mean.

What is Assumed? The data in each sample are normal and are independent and identically distributed. The data in each sample are iid. And the data in one sample are independent of the data in the other sample (no matched pairs). Each dataset in one sample and each in the other. (This would necessitate a paired t test.)

What is the Test Statistic? How things start getting a bit complicated. For a classic unpaired two-sample t test, see the formulation via, e.g., this web page.

4) One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

What is it? A test of whether the data in k separate samples were drawn from normal distributions with the same mean μ. (It is essentially a k-sample t test.)

What is Assumed? The data in each sample are normal and are independent and identically distributed.

What is the Test Statistic? See this web page.

What is the p-Value? It is output by the `anova()` function in R. See today's lab for more details.

Ohkah...is this really useful? It can tell me that one of the means is different...but which one?!

We are glad you asked. You are correct. A standard analysis "protocol" in Stat is apply ANOVA to see if there is at least one mean that is statistically significantly different from the others (i.e., if $p < \alpha$). Then, if ANOVA does indicate significance, apply a follow-up test to see which pairs of means are different. All this is short (as already stated), we will not cover post-hoc tests here.

$$WSS = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j \in i} \|x_j - c_i\|^2$$

We're looking for the highest value. That is 2.

I think the average student is 64 inches tall.

Uo = 64 ← this is the null

Ua > Uo ← this is the alternative

Classic Hypothesis Testing

Describe [where do car accidents happen most often?]

Classic Summary Statistics

Mean (Average):
- The arithmetic mean, calculated as the sum of all data values divided by the number of data points.
- Formula: $\text{Mean} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$

Median:
- The middle value in a dataset when it is sorted. It divides the data into two equal halves.
- For an odd number of data points, it's the middle value; for an even number, it's the average of the two middle values.

Mode:
- The value(s) that appear most frequently in the dataset. A dataset can have one mode (unimodal), more than one mode (multimodal), or no mode at all.

Range:
- The difference between the maximum and minimum values in the dataset, indicating the spread of data.
- Formula: $\text{Range} = \text{Max} - \text{Min}$

Variance:
- A measure of the spread or dispersion of data points from the mean.
- Formula for population variance: $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i - \mu)^2$
- Formula for sample variance: $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i - \bar{x})^2$

Standard Deviation:
- The square root of the variance, representing the average deviation of data points from the mean.
- Formula: $\text{Standard Deviation} = \sqrt{\text{Variance}}$

Interquartile Range (IQR):
- The range between the first quartile (25th percentile) and the third quartile (75th percentile). It measures the spread of the middle 50% of data points and is resistant to outliers.

Skewness:
- A measure of the asymmetry of the data distribution. Positive skewness indicates a longer tail on the right, while negative skewness indicates a longer tail on the left.

Kurtosis:
- A measure of the "tailedness" of the data distribution. It quantifies whether the data distribution has heavier or lighter tails than a normal distribution.

Correlation Coefficient (Pearson's r):
- A measure of the linear relationship between two variables. It ranges from -1(perfect negative correlation) to 1(perfect positive correlation), with 0 indicating no linear correlation.

Visualization

Mapping

Spatial Analysis

Distribution Shape

Name	Type	Parameters	Domain (x), dfunction() = dshape()
Normal	discrete	mean = μ, probability of success p	dnorm(x, mean = 0, sd = 1, log = FALSE)
Binom	discrete	(approximates chi-square)	dbinom(x, size, p)
Normal	continuous	mean = μ, standard deviation = σ	(-∞, ∞)
Chi-square	continuous	number of degrees of freedom = k	[0, ∞)
F	continuous	number of degrees of freedom = d1, d2	[0, ∞)
Exponential	continuous	scale rate = β	[0, ∞)
Chi-Square	continuous	number of degrees of freedom = k	[0, ∞)

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)

Variational Autoencoders (VAEs)

Generative Modeling for Distributions

Clustering

Generally, you should use odd values of k to avoid ties. Ties can occur when the same number of neighbors from each class are present, which can complicate the decision.

Odds vs Evens

What is the right number of K?

K- Means Cluster

Evaluate the performance of the model with different values of k.

K Fold Cross Validation

Perform a search over a range of k values and evaluate the model's performance for each value. Choose the k that gives the best results on the validation set

Grid Search

Apply K-means over range of k-values from k=1 to k=max. For each k, calculate the Sum of Squares (distance between each data point and assigned cluster - see WSS). Plot (left image) and use your best judgement

Elbow Method

Pass an argument for the gap statistic and look for the highest value amongst k

Gap Statistic

- Hierarchical Clustering
- DBSCAN (Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise)
- Agglomerative Clustering
- Mean Shift Clustering
- Affinity Propagation
- BIRCH (Balanced Iterative Reducing and Clustering using Hierarchies)
-OPTICS (Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure)
- Kernel K-Means

Anomaly Detection

Structural learning

Association learning

Detect [Is there a car in this image?]

Brandon's Grand Unifying Data Science Map of Everything

UNSUPERVISED: THE DATA HAS NO LABELS (NO PRECONCEIVED DESIRED SOLUTION)

SUPERVISED: THE TRAINING DATA INCLUDES THE DESIRED SOLUTION [WHICH ARE LABELS ARE "SPAM" / "NOT SPAM"]

LONG FORMAT DATA: It contains values that repeat in the first column. In this format, each row is a one-time point per subject

WIDE FORMAT DATA: In the Wide Format Data, the data's repeated responses will be in a single row, and each response can be recorded in separate columns.

Optimize [how many of each type of car should I manufacture?]

Queing

Stochastic Optimization

Simulation

Sensitivity Analysis

Continuous Optimization

Linear Programming

Time Series Forecasting

Discrete Optimization

Integer Programming

Survival Analysis

Goal Programming

Network Science

How to measure distance?

Eigenvector

Euclidean

Infer [how can I be sure that my policy is having an effect?]

Instrumental Variables

Casual Inference

Attempting to estimate the causal effect of variable X ("explanatory variable") on Y ("dependent variable") when there is a third variable Z affects Y only through X and not X.

Scientist wants to estimate the effect of smoking (X) on health (Y). Correlation between smoking and population health does not necessarily imply smoking CAUSES bad health (could be because of drinking or depression or being poor). Instead, scientist finds a variable Z that affects smoking but not health (by experiment). So the scientist estimates the effect of smoking on health from observation data using the tax rate for tobacco products as an instrumental variable (Z). The tax rate for tobacco products is a valid instrument in this case because the researcher assumes that it can only be correlated with health through its effect on smoking. If the researcher then finds tobacco taxes and rates of health are correlated, this may be considered as evidence that smoking causes changes in health.

Ordinary Least Squares

Regression

Check Assumptions

Assumptions are never perfectly met, but they should be reasonable

Linear: A change in the independent variable is proportional to the change in the response variable

Homoscedasticity: the variance among errors is constant; consistent noise among the data

Independent Errors: the residual (errors) for one observation should not provide info about error of another observation

No auto-correlation: The observations are independent of each other (time series data)

Normal Errors: Errors are normally distributed

No multicollinearity: There should be no high correlation among independent variables.

No perfect colinearity: there should not be a perfect linear relationship among some or all of the predictors.

No omitted variables

Not sure if it is linear?

Spread of the residuals not consistent?

1. Create scatter plots of the independent variable(s) against the dependent variable. Look for a roughly linear relationship. Points should cluster around a straight line

2. Plot the residuals (the differences between the observed and predicted values) against the fitted values (the predicted values). The plot should not show a clear pattern; it should be evenly distributed around the horizontal line at zero.

Breusch-Pagan Test

This is a statistical test that checks for heteroscedasticity in the residuals. A significant p-value suggests that heteroscedasticity may be present

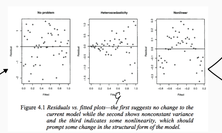


Figure 4.1 *Residuals vs. fitted plots—the first suggests no change to the current model while the second shows nonconstant variance and the third indicates some nonlinearity, which should prompt some change in the structural form of the model.*

Think you may have auto correlation?

Durbin Watson Test

Takes values between 0 and 4. A value around 2 indicates no autocorrelation. Values significantly different from 2 may suggest autocorrelation.

Plot Residuals vs Time

Plot the residuals against the order or time at which they were observed. There should be no discernible pattern or trend in the plot, indicating independence.

Ljung-Box Test

Tests for significance for autocorrelation at lags up to a specified number. A low p-value suggests the presence of autocorrelation.

Do you have access to the same data at specific and regular intervals?

Time Series Analysis

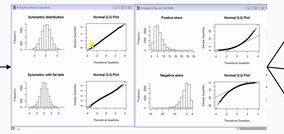
Errors not following a normal distribution?

Quantile Quantile Plot or Probability Plot (Q-Q Plot)

Plot the standardized residuals against theoretical quantiles from a normal distribution. If the points closely follow a straight line, it suggests that the residuals are normally distributed.

Shapiro-Wilk Test

Test for normality. The null hypothesis is that the errors are normally distributed. A high p-value suggests that the data does not significantly deviate from normality.



Create correlation matrix as you normally do

Seeing high numbers?

VIF (Variance Inflation Factor)

Measures how much the variance of an estimated regression coefficient increases when your predictors are correlated. A high VIF (typically > 10) suggests multicollinearity.

Auxiliary regression

Run one X on all the other X's and test hypothesis with formula
Test statistic: F=(R2/(k-1))/ ((1-R2)/(n-k))

Present?

Lasso Regression
Ridge Regression
Elastic Net Regression

Principal Component Analysis can mitigate multicollinearity if removal is not an option

Concerned about feasibility?

Do you have access to Panel Data?

Consider longitudinal study

Evaluating Regression

Heteroscedasticity? (stabilize the variance and to bring the distribution closer to the Normal distribution)

log-transform for variables with exponential growth).

Taking the square root can address right-skewness

Try using non-linear transformations

Heteroscedastic Robust Standard Errors: technique to obtain unbiased standard errors of OLS coefficients under heteroscedasticity

Weighted Least Squares (WLS): assigns different weights to observations based on their estimated variances.

Non-linear?

Remove outliers

Did the residual standard error (RSE) drop significantly?

Good. Recheck assumptions and continue with regression

Regression Spline

Local Polynomial regression

Warning: individual regression coefficients for the regression-spline components are uninterpretable

Predict [How much will this car cost when it sells?]

Inspect data and check for correlations

Check for redundancy in the correlation matrix—I consider removing one of them or combining them

Try forward selection, backward elimination, or recursive feature elimination to select only the most important features

Do a Principal Component Analysis to reduce dimensionality. PCA creates a new, smaller set of features, potentially reducing multicollinearity.

Limit yourself to only regularization methods for regression (Lasso L1 or Ridge L2).

Highly Correlated Features? You may have Multicollinearity

Split Data into Training and Test Set

Clean data, fill or drop missing values

Have text or categorical data?

Feature Scaling

Select and Train Models

Evaluate Models based on Metric

Shortlist the best performing models

Fine-Tune them

Make a table of results and select the best model

Continuously test model against new observations

Imbalanced Classes

Have lots of data?

Undersampling

Have moderate amount of data?

SMOTE: Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique (creates new examples by interpolating between existing examples of the minority class).

Oversampling

Hierarchical Categories (Good, Average, Bad) --> Ordinal Encoder

Regular Categories (Ocean-Front, Mountain, Plains) --> One Hot Encoder

Have hundreds or more categories?

Implement Sparse Matrix (SciPy rather than Numpy Array)

Unstructured Text that is not a category?

Long descriptions (more than a few hundred words)?

Short descriptions (2-3 paragraphs or shorter)?

Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF)

Topic Modeling

Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) or Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF)

Named Entity Recognition

Sentiment Analysis

Min-Max

Values are shifted and re-scaled to range from 0 to 1. It is calculated by subtract the min value and dividing by the max minus the min.

Standardization

Subtract the mean value and then divide that number by the standard deviation

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

Have too many features? Not sure which is good?

Filter Methods

Wrapper Methods

Embedded Methods

ANOVA / Chi Square

Linear Discrimination

Forward/ Backward Selection

Recursive Feature Elimination

Best Subset Selector: Try every single combination and show the best one. Since linear regression is so fast, you can usually do an exhaustive search. BSS works best for less than 25-30 predictors.

BSS output is:

$$C_p = \frac{1}{n}(RSS + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

$$AIC = \frac{1}{n\hat{\sigma}^2}(RSS + 2d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

$$BIC = \frac{1}{n}(RSS + \log(n)d\hat{\sigma}^2)$$

Best GLM

Worried about underfitting?

Worried about overfitting?

AIC: you can be confident that your selected variables include all of the important ones, but the final list might include a handful of unimportant ones as well. Tends to overfit

BIC: you can be confident that every selected variables are important but other important variables might be left out of the final list. Tends to underfit

Transform response variable - log, square root, Box-Cox transformation

Consider a Generalized Linear Model (if response variable follows Poisson, Gamma, etc); GLMs allow for modeling relationships with non-Gaussian error distributions.

Check for outliers

The Box-Cox transformation is defined as:

$$y(\lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} & \text{if } \lambda \neq 0, \\ \log(y) & \text{if } \lambda = 0. \end{cases}$$

Grid Search

Too many parameters? Taking too long?

Random Search

Ensemble Methods

```
from sklearn.model_selection import GridSearchCV

param_grid = [
    {'n_estimators': [3, 10, 30], 'max_features': [2, 4, 6, 8]},
    {'bootstrap': [False], 'n_estimators': [3, 10], 'max_features': [2, 3, 4]},
  ]

forest_reg = RandomForestRegressor()

grid_search = GridSearchCV(forest_reg, param_grid, cv=5,
                           scoring='neg_mean_squared_error',
                           return_train_score=True)

grid_search.fit(housing_prepared, housing_labels)
```

Rather than print a bunch of stuff just ask for the best combo of arguments...

```
>>> grid_search.best_estimator_
RandomForestRegressor(bootstrap=True, criterion='mse', max_depth=None,
           max_features=6, max_leaf_nodes=None, min_impurity_decrease=0.0,
           min_impurity_split=None, min_samples_leaf=1,
           min_samples_split=2, min_weight_fraction_leaf=0.0,
           n_estimators=30, n_jobs=None, oob_score=False, random_state=None,
           verbose=0, warm_start=False)
```

Regression

- Mean Absolute Error (MAE)
- Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)
- R-Squared and Adjusted R-Squared

Classification

- Recall
- Precision
- F1-Score
- Accuracy
- Area Under the Curve (AUC)

Recommender System

- Mean Reciprocal Rank
- Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)

K-Fold Cross Validation
** not always possible given data size*

```
from sklearn.model_selection import cross_val_score
scores = cross_val_score(tree_reg, housing_prepared, housing_labels,
                         scoring="neg_mean_squared_error", cv=10)
tree_rmse_scores = np.sqrt(-scores)
```

Youden's J Statistic: attempts to find the threshold where the sum of the correct classifications for both classes are maximized. Sacrifices accuracy in the dominant class to do well in both.

By introducing ROC curves and the concept of AUC, we now have a new metric for model selection. But ultimately, we do need to choose one threshold value so as to generate predictions. We can use the ROC curve to do this, while acknowledging that there is no unique means to choose that one value.

As often-used choice is Youden's J statistic:

$$J = \text{sensitivity} + \text{specificity} - 1.$$

Basically, we want to determine the threshold value that allows us to best identify tn/tn +fn and tn/tn + fp at the same time. For our example:

```
# sens_highbenefit=tn/(tn + fn); highbenefit=tn/(tn + fp)
sens + specs - 1
which(highbenefit$sens + highbenefit$specs == max(highbenefit$sens + highbenefit$specs))
```

```
## Optimal threshold for highly regressive: 0.466
```

The value is close to 0.5, which is not surprising because our data had balanced classes (i.e., just as many rich as rich- Lite). When the data feature unbalanced classes, optimal thresholds may differ greatly from 0.5.

Problem Statement

Binary Classification (A,B = 0,1)

Class Labels

Probability

Metrics

1. ROC Curve
2. PR Curve
3. Lift Curve

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

Metrics

Balanced Dataset

Imbalanced Dataset

Metrics

1. Precision
2. Recall
3. F Beta

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

Precision = $\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$

Confusion Matrix

Actual Value

Predicted Value

Type I Error = $\frac{FP}{FP + TN}$

Actual Results

Type II Error

Always have to focus on reducing the Type I Error and Type II Error

Recall (TPR) - Out of the total positive actual value, how many values did we correctly predicted positively. Whenever the FN is important set the problem statement, use Recall.

Precision - Out of the total predicted positive results, how many results were actual positive. Whenever the FP is important set the problem statement, then use Precision

In some of the problem statements FP and FN both are equally important in an imbalanced dataset in such cases we have to use F-Beta score. Whenever, in such cases we have to use F-beta score

$$\text{F-Beta} = \frac{(1+\beta^2) \cdot \text{Precision} \cdot \text{Recall}}{\beta^2 \cdot (\text{Precision} + \text{Recall})}$$

1. If we have a problem statement where the FP and FN are both equally important, we select Beta = 1
2. In scenarios where the FP is having greater impact than the FN, in such case we reduce the Beta value between 0 to 1
3. In scenarios where the FN is having greater impact than the FP, in such case we increase the Beta value greater than 1 and might range between 1 to 10

Remember that statistical models do not predict data but rather estimate the probability that a datum belongs to class A or 1. So in order to get your class predictions, you must choose a threshold (a) that determines what probability you need to be in order to be classified as a 1. The default threshold is typically 0.5 but you can choose a threshold that is more conservative (i.e. a higher probability is required to be classified as a 1) or more liberal (i.e. a lower probability is required to be classified as a 1).

Logistic Regression

Support Vector Machine

Decision Tree

Random Forest

K-Nearest Neighbor

Gradient Boosting

Naive Bayes

Binary Categories [True/False, Yes/No, This/Not this]

One vs Rest

ONE V REST - Support Vector Machine

ONE V REST - Logistic Regression

Decision Tree

Random Forest

K-Nearest Neighbor

Gradient Boosting

ONE V REST - Naive Bayes

Multiple Possible Categories [Risk: High, Medium, Low]

Truly Distinguish

Predicting a Category [Is this a truck, a car, or a van?

Predicting a Quantity [How much should this car sell for?]

Have loads and loads of data and need even more accuracy?

What are we trying to predict?

Decision Tree

Random Forest

Gradient Boosting

K-Nearest Neighbor

Gradient Boosting

Decision Tree

Random Forest

Gradient Boosting

Support Vector Machine

K-Nearest Neighbor

Regression? See Inference Section

Deep Learning

RNN

Mapping

Hot Deck Imputation

Column Mean or Median (or even Mode)

Missing at Random?

KNN Imputation

Last Observation Carried Forward

Backfill/ Forward(fill)

Normally distributed?

Time series? Longitudinal data?

Strong relationship with other variables?

Regression Impute

Imputation Options

Warning: Make sure you split the data BEFORE imputation to avoid bias and data leakage. Set the random seed, save the test set in a variable, or better yet use sklearn's API

With few exceptions, Machine Learning algorithms don't perform well when the input numerical attributes have very different scales. This is the case for the housing data: the total number of rooms ranges from about 6 to 39,320, while the median incomes only range from 0 to 15. Note that scaling the target values is generally not required.

A good suite of models to explore, in order from least flexible/most inferential to most flexible/least inferential would be

- regression (quantitative response): linear regression, lasso, regression tree, random forest, extreme gradient boosting, K-nearest neighbors (large amount of data), deep learning (huge amounts of data)...pick the model with the lowest test set mean-squared error
- classification (factor response, two outcomes): logistic regression, lasso, classification tree, random forest, extreme gradient boosting, K-nearest neighbors (large amount of data), support vector machines (small amount of data), deep learning (huge amounts of data)...pick the model with...well...this is more complicated

Regression	Classification	Recommender System
• Mean Absolute Error (MAE) • Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) • R-Squared and Adjusted R-Squared	• Recall • Precision • F1-Score • Accuracy • Area Under the Curve (AUC)	• Mean Reciprocal Rank • Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)

Elasticity:

		Marginal Effect
1. Linear: $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X$	$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$	β_1
2. Quadratic: $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2$	$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 X_i^2 + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 X$
3. Double-Log: β_0	$\ln Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln X_i + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 * Y / X$
4. Linear-Log: $\beta_0 * 1/Y$	$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln X_i + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 * 1/X$
5. Log-Linear: $\beta_0 * X$	$\ln Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 * Y$
6. Reciprocal: $\beta_0 * 1/X^2$	$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 1/X_i + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 * 1/X^2$
7. Log Reciprocal: $\beta_0 * 1/X$	$\ln Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 1/X_i + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 * Y/X^2$
8. Interaction: $\beta_0 + \beta_1 Z * X$	$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 Z_i + \beta_3 X_{1i} Z_i + \varepsilon_i$	$\beta_1 + \beta_3 Z$