### Lecture 001

## Statistical learning: Foundations

Edward Rubin January 2022

# Admin

### Admin

### Today

#### **In-class**

- Zoom: We're on Zoom! See Canvas.
- Course website: https://github.com/edrubin/EC524W22/
- Resources
  - RStudio cheatsheets, books, and tutorials
  - UO library
  - See course page for more...
- Content: Formale statistical learning, notation, goals (and problems)

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Tweet; h/t: Grant McDermott

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## **Upcoming**

### **Readings**

- Today
  - ∘ *ISL* Ch. 1–2
  - Prediction Policy Problems by Kleinberg et al. (2015)
- Next
  - ∘ ISL Ch. 3-4

Problem set Soon.

What is it?

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- **Regression trees** extend *classification trees* to numerical outcomes (random forests extend, as well).
- **K-means clustering** partitions observations into K groups (clusters) based upon a set of variables.

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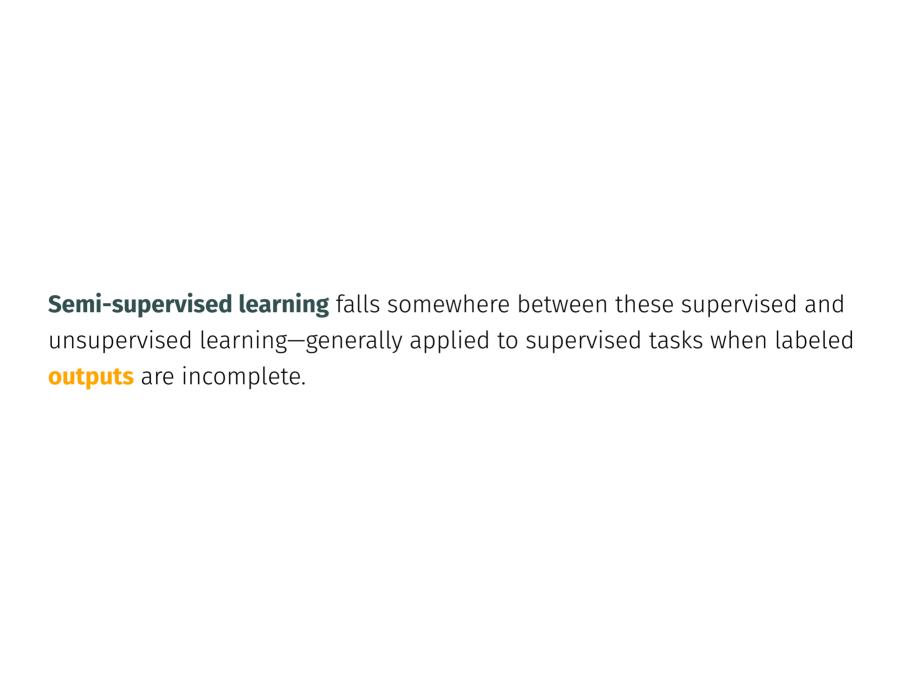
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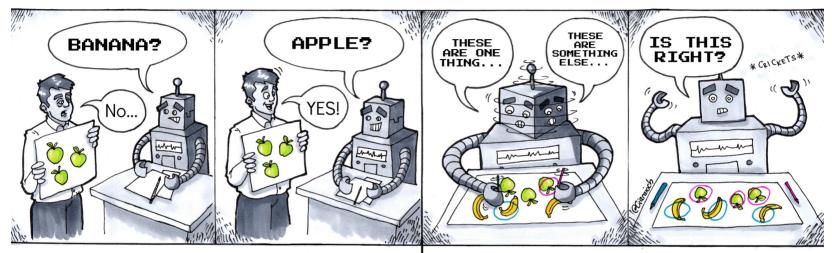
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**Supervised Learning** 

**Unsupervised Learning** 

Source

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- 2. **Regression tasks** in which **y** takes on continuous, numeric values. *E.g.*, price, arrival time, number of emails, temperature

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Note<sub>2</sub> Don't get tricked: Not all numbers represent continuous, numerical values—e.g., zip codes, industry codes, social security numbers.<sup>†</sup>

† Q Where would you put responses to 5-item Likert scales?

### Why Learning?

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A Most learning models/algorithms will tune model parameters based upon the observed dataset—learning from the data.

Our class will typically follow the notation and definitions of ISL.

### **Data**

*n* gives the number of observations

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- **X** is our  $n \times p$  matrix of predictors
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  - $x_{i,j}$  is observation i (in  $1, \ldots, n$ ) on variable j (for j in  $1, \ldots, p$ )

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Applied to R:

- $\dim(x_{df}) = n p$
- $nrow(x_df) = n; ncol(x_df) = p$
- $x_df[1,]$  (i = 1);  $x_df[1,1]$  (j = 1)

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#### **Outcomes**

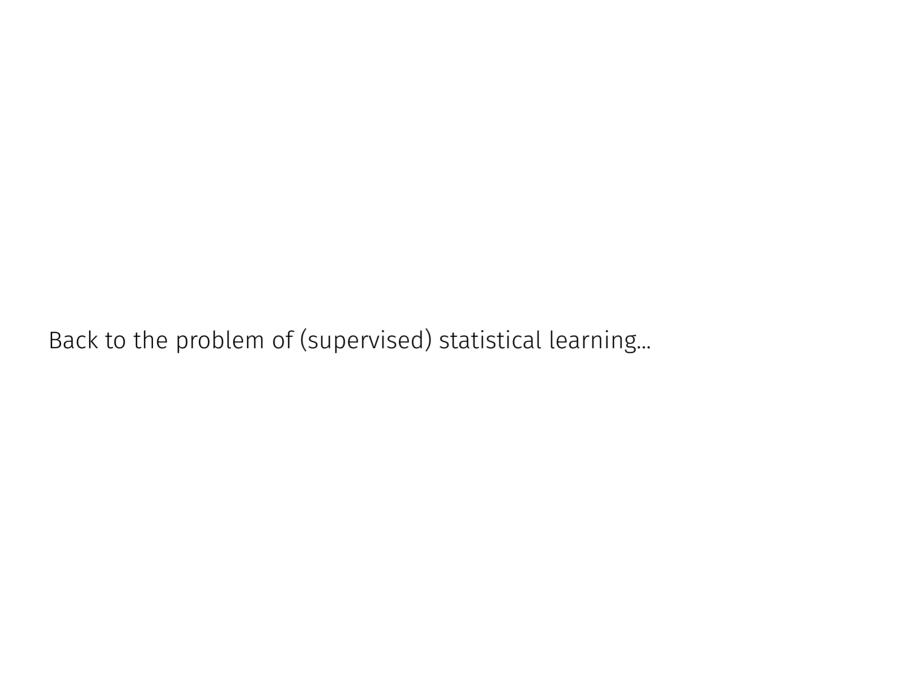
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and our full dataset is composed of  $\Big\{\left(x_1,y_1\right),\,\left(x_2,y_2\right),\,\ldots,\,\left(x_n,y_n\right)\Big\}.$ 



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Q How else can you describe *f*?

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You'll have to wait on any real/specific answers...

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#### Learning from $\hat{f}$

There are two main reasons we want to learn about f

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Similarly, in causal-inference settings, we don't particulary care about  $\hat{y}$ .

† You shouldn't actually treat your prediction methods as total black boxes.

#### Prediction errors

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Note As its name implies, you can't get rid of *irreducible* error—but we can try to get rid of *reducible* errors.

#### **Prediction errors**

Why we're stuck with irreducible error

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Thus, to form our **best predictors**, we will **minimize reducible error**.

#### Which type of $\hat{f}$ ?

Once you have your inputs (X) and output (y) data, you still need to decide how parametric your  $\hat{f}$  should be.

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Parametric methods assume a function typically involve two steps

- 1. Select a functional form (shape) to represent f
- 2. Train your selected model on your data y and X.

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**Non-parametric methods** avoid explicit assumption about the shape of f. Attempt to flexibly fit the data, while trying to avoid overfitting.

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#### Which type of $\hat{f}$ ?

Methods' parametric assumptions come with tradeoffs.

#### **Parametric methods**

- + Simpler to estimate and interpret.
- If assumed functional form is bad, model performance will suffer.

#### **Non-parametric methods**

- + Fewer assumptions. More flexibility.
- Lower interpretability. Susceptible to overfitting. Want lots of data.

**Example:** Let's start with a pretty funky, nonlinear function.

**Truth:** The (nonlinear)  $f(\mathbf{X})$  that we hope to recover.

**The sample:** n=70 randomly drawn observations for  $\mathbf{y}=f(\mathbf{x}_1,\,\mathbf{x}_2)+arepsilon$ 

Estimated linear-regression model:  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \hat{\beta}_3 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2$ 

**Prediction error** from our fitted linear regression model

**k-nearest neighbors** (kNN) using k=5 (a non-parametric method)

**k-nearest neighbors** (kNN) using k=10 (notice increased smoothness)

**k-nearest neighbors** (kNN) using k=1 (notice decreased smoothness)

**Prediction error** from our fitted kNN (k=5) model

**Prediction error** from our fitted kNN (k=10) model

**Prediction error** from our fitted kNN (k=1) model

Recall **Prediction error** from our fitted linear regression model

### Questions

- 1. Which of the methods was the most flexible? Inflexible?
- 2. Why do you think kNN with k=1 had such low prediction error?
- 3. How could we (better) assess model/predictive performance?
- 4. Why would we ever want to choose a less flexible model?

#### Measurement

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A We're a few steps away, but before we do anything, we need a way to **define model performance**.

### Subtlety

Defining performance can actually be quite tricky...

Regression setting, 1 Which do you prefer?

- 1. Lots of little errors and a few really large errors.
- 2. Medium-sized errors for everyone.

Regression setting, 2 Is a 1-unit error (e.g., \$1,000) equally bad for everyone?

### Subtlety

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Classification setting, 1 Which is worse?

- 1. False positive (e.g., incorrectly diagnosing cancer)
- 2. False negative (e.g., missing cancer)

Classification setting, 2 Which is more important?

- 1. True positive (e.g., correct diagnosis of cancer)
- 2. True negative (e.g., correct diagnosis of "no cancer")

### **MSE**

Mean squared error (MSE) is the most common<sup>†</sup> way to measure model performance in a regression setting.

$$ext{MSE} = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ oldsymbol{y}_i - \hat{oldsymbol{f}}\left(x_i
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Recall:  $y_i - \hat{f}(x_i) = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  is our prediction error.

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Two notes about MSE

- 1. MSE will be (relatively) very small when **prediction error** is nearly zero.
- 2. MSE **penalizes** big errors more than little errors (the squared part).

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## Training or testing?

Low MSE (accurate performance) on the data that trained the model isn't actually impressive—maybe the model is just overfitting our data.<sup>†</sup>

What we want: How well does the model perform on data it has never seen?

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This introduces an important distinction:

- 1. **Training data**: The observations  $(y_i, x_i)$  used to **train** our model  $\hat{f}$ .
- 2. **Testing data**: The observations  $(y_0, x_0)$  that our model has yet to see—and which we can use to evaluate the performance of  $\hat{f}$ .

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**Real goal: Low test-sample MSE** (not the training MSE from before).

<sup>†</sup> Recall the kNN performance for k=1.

Next time: model p	erformance, the	variance-bias t	radeoff, and kNN

## Sources

#### These notes draw upon

- An Introduction to Statistical Learning (ISL)
  James, Witten, Hastie, and Tibshirani
- Python Data Science Handbook Jake VanderPlas

I pulled the comic from Twitter.

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- Subtlety
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- Training vs. testing

#### Other

• Sources/references