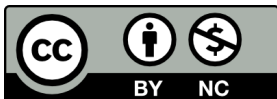


Business 4720 - Class 11

Supervised Machine Learning using Regression and Classification Models

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This Class

What You Will Learn:

- ▶ Introduction to Statistical Learning
- ▶ Introduction to Regression Models
- ▶ Introduction to Classification Models

Based On

Gareth James, Daniel Witten, Trevor Hastie and Robert Tibshirani: *An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R*. 2nd edition, corrected printing, June 2023. (ISLR2)

<https://www.statlearning.com>

Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5

Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, and Jerome Friedman: *The Elements of Statistical Learning*. 2nd edition, 12th corrected printing, 2017. (ESL)

<https://hastie.su.domains/ElemStatLearn/>

Chapters 2, 3, 4, 7

Kevin P. Murphy: *Probabilistic Machine Learning – An Introduction*. MIT Press 2022.

<https://probml.github.io/pml-book/book1.html>

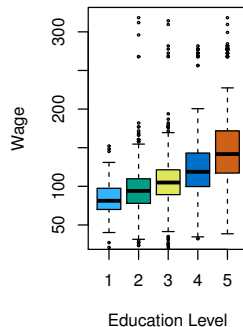
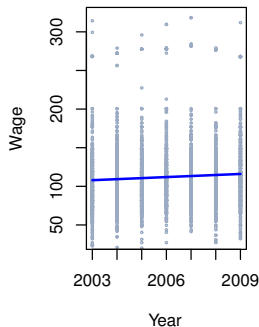
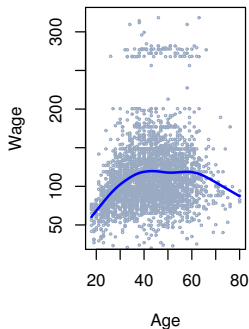
Chapters 4, 6, 9, 10, 11

Supervised Learning

- ▶ **Inputs** x ("predictors", "independent variables", "features") can predict **Output** y ("target", "response", "dependent variable")
 - ▶ May assume a functional relationship $y = f(x) + \epsilon$
- ▶ **Train** a statistical **model** using data where both inputs and outputs are known ("training data")
 - ▶ Approximate f by some function \hat{f}
 - ▶ "Fit" a model to data
- ▶ Parametric ("model-based") methods **learn** the **parameters** of a model for **optimal** prediction. They assume a functional form for \hat{f}
- ▶ Non-parametric methods do *not* assume a functional form and are more flexible
- ▶ **Predict** outputs of new observations using trained model \hat{f}

Regression

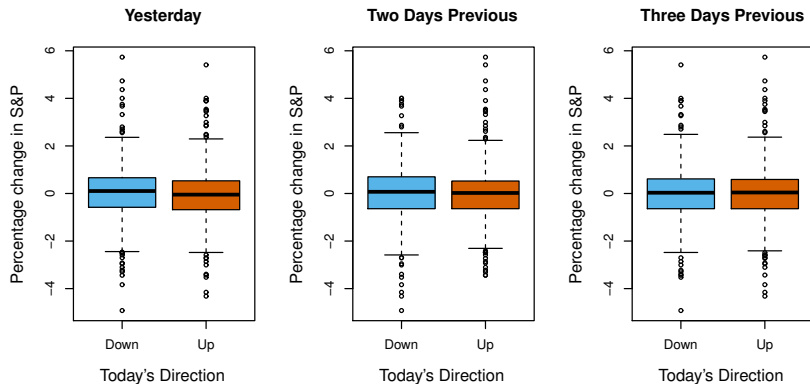
- ▶ Predicts **quantitative** output values
- ▶ Model quality measured by difference between actual and predicted



Source: ISLR2 Figure 1.1

Classification

- ▶ Predicts **categorical** or **qualitative** output values
- ▶ Model quality measured by proportion of mis-classification



Source: ISLR2 Figure 1.2

Regression Methods – Examples

Parametric Methods

- ▶ **Linear Regression**
- ▶ **Ridge and Lasso Regression**
- ▶ Principal components regression
- ▶ Non-linear regression
- ▶ Neural networks

Non-Parametric Methods

- ▶ **K-Nearest-Neighbours (KNN)**
- ▶ Regression trees
- ▶ Smoothing splines
- ▶ Multivariate adaptive regression splines
- ▶ Kernel regression

Classification Methods – Examples

- ▶ Decision trees
- ▶ Random forests
- ▶ Bayesian networks
- ▶ Support vector machines
- ▶ **Neural networks**
- ▶ **Logistic regression**
- ▶ Naive Bayes
- ▶ Probit model
- ▶ Genetic programming
- ▶ **K-Nearest-Neighbours (KNN)**

Prediction and Explanation

Explanation

- ▶ Identifying causal mechanisms
- ▶ Testing causal hypotheses or explanations
- ▶ *Inference to population parameters* (points, intervals)
- ▶ Form of relationship between inputs and outputs is important (parsimony, ease of interpretation)

Prediction

- ▶ Predict outputs for new observations
- ▶ Point or interval predictions, predictive distributions
- ▶ Focus on specific observations/cases
- ▶ Form of relationship between inputs and outputs is not important (may be complex, difficult to interpret)

Prediction and Explanation [cont'd]

Explanation	Prediction
Causation	Association
Theory	Data
Retrospective	Prospective
Bias	Variance

Based on: Shmueli, G. (2010). To Explain or To Predict?. Statistical Science, 25, 289-310.

Hands-On Exercises

For each of the following problems, decide if it is a prediction or inference/explanation problem:

- 1 How do real estate prices vary with location and age?
- 2 What is the most important predictor of real estate prices?
- 3 What is the expected sales price for a house at 310 Elizabeth Ave?
- 4 Is the month of the sale an important predictor of real estate prices?
- 5 Calculate the difference in expected sales prices for the house at 310 Elizabeth Avenue when sold in August and February
- 6 When should a house be sold to achieve the best price?

Optimization Objectives:

- MSE (mean squared error)

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

(MSE is susceptible to outliers)

- MAE (mean absolute error)

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

Model Quality — Regression

Evaluation focus is on unseen test data, not training data

- ▶ Train on past stock market info, but predict future stock performance
- ▶ Train on previous patient info, but predict future patient outcomes
- ▶ Train on past real estate prices, but predict future prices

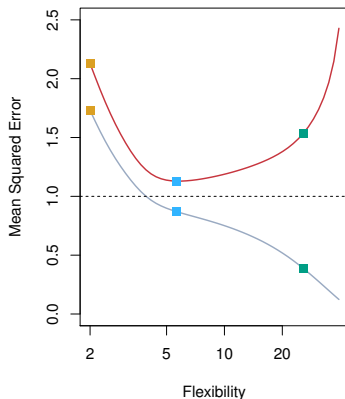
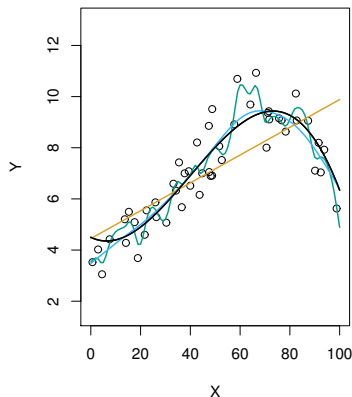
*Separate **training data** from **test data** to evaluate model quality ("holdout sample")*

Quality of Fit

Between model and data

Degrees of Freedom

- ▶ How much a function can be adapted to fit training data
- ▶ Number of independently ("freely") adjustable parameters



Source: ISLR2 Fig 2.9

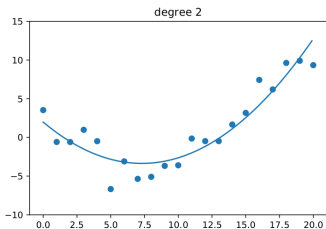
Overfitting

- ▶ Small training error
- ▶ Large testing error
- ▶ Model exploits random idiosyncrasies of the data set

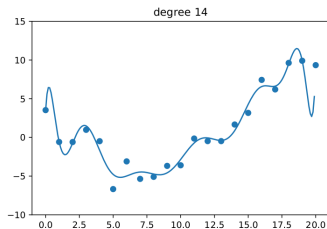
Underfitting

- ▶ Large training error
- ▶ Large testing error
- ▶ Model is insufficiently able to fit true pattern in data (too simple, inflexible)

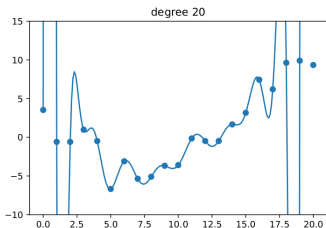
Overfitting with Polynomial Expansions



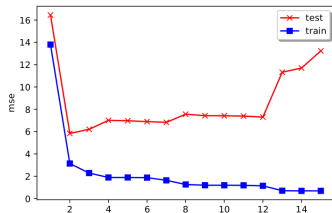
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Source: Murphy Figure 1.7

Bias and Variance

Recall: Expected Value

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p_i \quad \text{discrete random variable}$$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \quad \text{continuous random variable}$$

(for uniform distributions or unweighted observations
 $p_i = p_j \forall i, j$ so that $E[X] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i$, i.e. expectation = mean)

Recall: Variance

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

(for zero-centered variables $E[X] = 0$ so that $\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2]$)

Bias and Variance Decomposition

Example using mean squared error loss

$$\begin{aligned}MSE &= E[(y - \hat{f})^2] && \text{(unweighted)} \\&= E[y^2 - 2y\hat{f} + \hat{f}^2] \\&= E[y^2] - 2E[y\hat{f}] + E[\hat{f}^2]\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}E[\hat{f}^2] &= E[\hat{f}^2] - E[\hat{f}]^2 + E[\hat{f}]^2 \\&= \text{Var}[\hat{f}] + E[\hat{f}]^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}E[y^2] &= E[(f + \epsilon)^2] \\&= E[f^2] + 2E[f\epsilon] + E[\epsilon^2] \\&= f^2 + 2f \cdot 0 + \sigma^2 \\&= f^2 + \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

(f is not random and $E[\epsilon] = 0$)

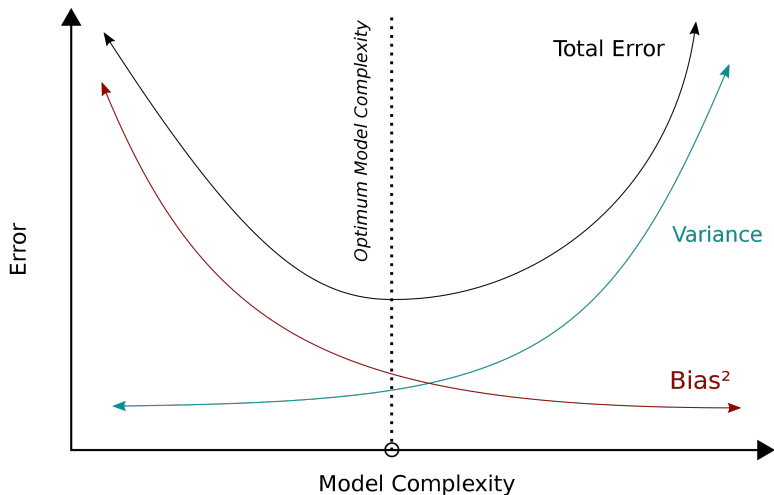
Bias and Variance Decomposition [cont'd]

Example using mean squared error loss

$$\begin{aligned}E[y\hat{f}] &= E[(f + \epsilon)\hat{f}] \\&= E[f\hat{f}] + E[\epsilon\hat{f}] \\&= E[f\hat{f}] + E[\epsilon]E[\hat{f}] \\&= E[f\hat{f}] + 0 \cdot E[\hat{f}] \\&= fE[\hat{f}]\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}MSE &= f^2 + \sigma^2 - 2fE[\hat{f}] + \text{Var}[\hat{f}] + E[\hat{f}]^2 \\&= (f - E[\hat{f}])^2 + \sigma^2 + \text{Var}[\hat{f}] \\&= \text{Bias}[\hat{f}]^2 + \sigma^2 + \text{Var}[\hat{f}]\end{aligned}$$

Bias and Variance Trade-Off



[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:
Bias_and_variance_contributing_to_total_error.svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Bias_and_variance_contributing_to_total_error.svg)

Bias and Variance Trade-Off

Bias

- ▶ Model (assumptions) error
- ▶ $Bias[\hat{f}]$ is the error introduced by a wrong/simplified model
- ▶ **High bias:** Model is too simple to represent true relationship → **Underfitting**

Variance

- ▶ Training data error due to model complexity
- ▶ $Var[\hat{f}]$ is the variability between training data sets (samples)
- ▶ **High variance:** Model is too complex and exploits random noise in training data → **Overfitting**

Irreducible Error

- ▶ Unmeasured variables
- ▶ Measurement error
- ▶ σ^2 cannot be predicted from x_i so cannot be reduced.

- ▶ *Explanation* focuses on bias reduction (i.e. find the "true" functional form)
- ▶ *Prediction* focuses on variance reduction (functional form is irrelevant).
- ▶ High variance models are complex, but complex models need not have high variance.
- ▶ High bias (simple models) does not imply large prediction error
- ▶ Lower prediction error does not imply low bias (simple models)

Error Rate

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

where $I(\cdot)$ is the *identity function* that is 1 if its argument is true, 0 otherwise.

- ▶ Training error rates
- ▶ Testing error rates

Classifier

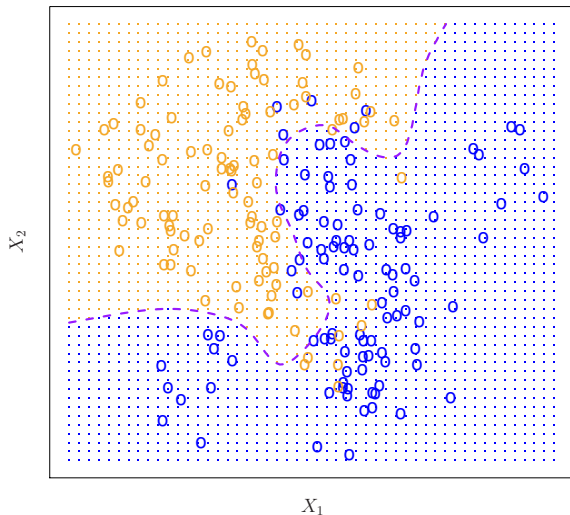
Assign each observation to the most likely class given its predictor values

$$\operatorname{argmax}_j \Pr(Y = j | X = x_0)$$

Error Rate

$$1 - E \left(\operatorname{argmax}_j \Pr(Y = j | X) \right)$$

Bayes Decision Boundary



Source: ISLR2 Figure 2.13

- ▶ Bayes classifier is an *ideal* classifier
- ▶ Bayes error rate is lower bound, irreducible error
- ▶ Conditional probabilities are unknown in practice
- ▶ Estimation introduces error

Example — K-Nearest-Neighbour (KNN)

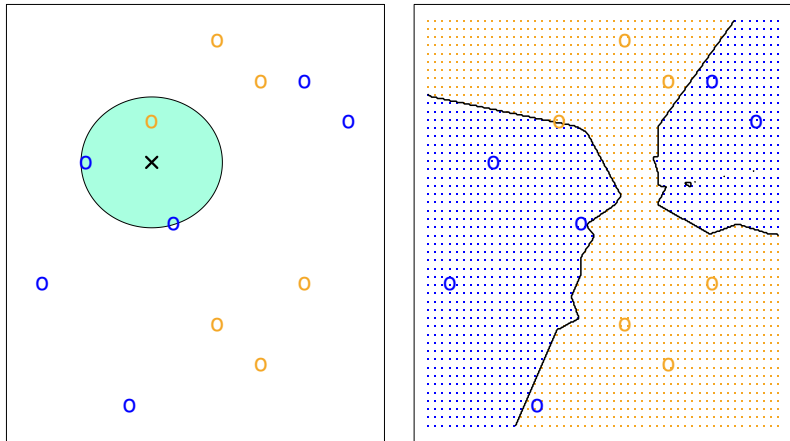
- Identify set of K points closest to observation x_0 called N_0

$$\Pr(Y = j|X = x_0) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in N_0} I(y_i = j)$$

where $I(\cdot)$ is the identity function that is 1 if its argument is true, and 0 otherwise.

- Classify in class of highest probability

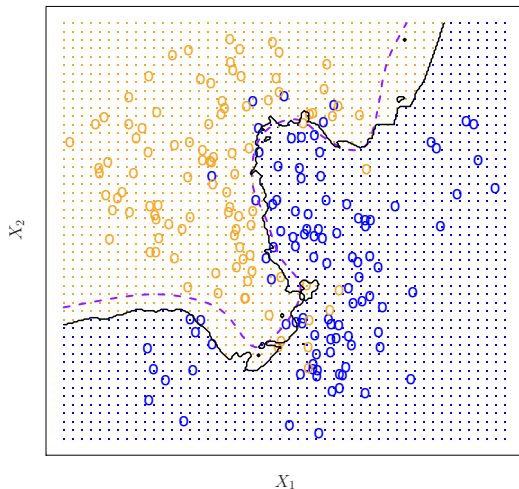
$K=3$



Source: ISLR2 Figure 2.14

KNN and Bayes Classifier

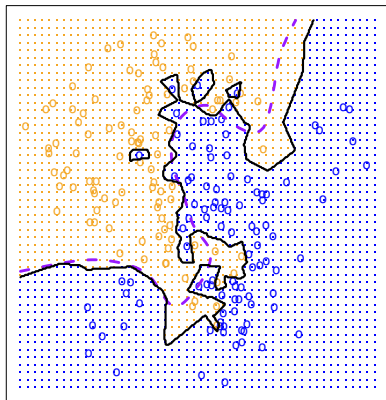
KNN: K=10



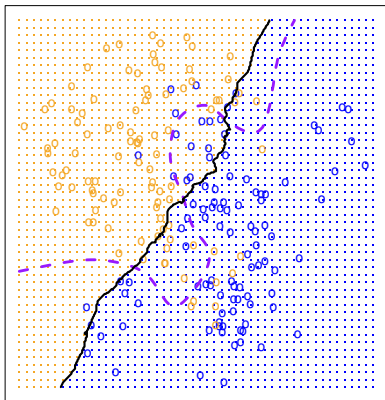
Source: ISLR Figure 2.15

KNN Quality

KNN: $K=1$

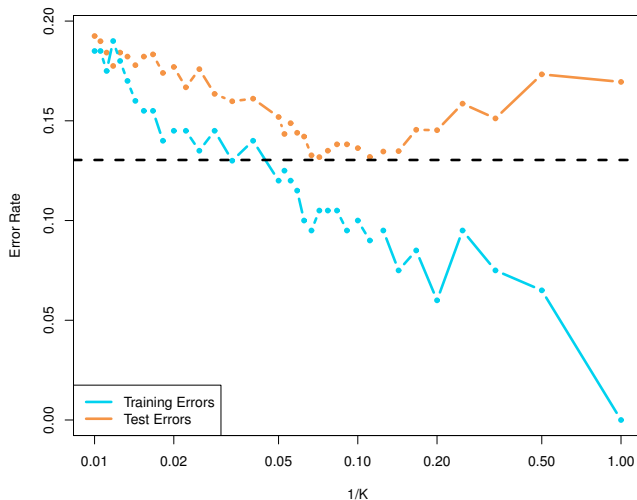


KNN: $K=100$



Source: ISLR2 Figure 2.16

KNN Error Rates



Source: ISLR2 Figure 2.17

Hands-On Exercise – KNN

The table below provides a training data set containing six observations, three predictors, and one qualitative response variable

Obs.	X_1	X_2	X_3	Y
1	0	3	0	Blue
2	2	0	0	Blue
3	0	1	3	Blue
4	0	1	2	Yellow
5	-1	0	1	Yellow
6	-1	1	1	Blue

Suppose we wish to use this data set to make a prediction for Y when $X_1 = X_2 = X_3 = 0$ using K-nearest neighbours.

- 1 Compute the Euclidean distance ("L2-norm") between each observation and the test point
- 2 What are your prediction with $K = 1$? With $K = 3$? Why?
- 3 If the Bayes decision boundary is highly non-linear, would you expect the best value for K to be large or small? Why?

Adapted from ISLR Exercise 2.7

Binary Classification Quality — Confusion Matrix

Decision rule: $\Pr(\text{default}=\text{Yes} | X = x) > 0.5$ (Bayes)

		<i>True default status</i>		
		No	Yes	Total
<i>Predicted default status</i>	No	9644	252	9896
	Yes	23	81	104
Total		9667	333	10000

Source: ISLR2 Table 4.4

- ▶ Overall error rate: 2.75%
- ▶ Of the defaulters, only 24.3% were correctly predicted ("**sensitivity**") (81/333), error rate 75.7%
- ▶ Of the non-defaulters, 99.8% were correctly predicted ("**specificity**"), error rate 0.02%

Confusion Matrix – Adjusting Thresholds [cont'd]

Decision rule: $\Pr(\text{default}=\text{Yes} | X = x) > 0.2$

		<i>True default status</i>		Total
		No	Yes	
<i>Predicted default status</i>	No	9432	138	9570
	Yes	235	195	430
Total		9667	333	10000

Source: ISLR2 Table 4.5

- ▶ Overall error rate: 3.73%
- ▶ Sensitivity = 58.6%;
- ▶ Specificity = 97.6%

Confusion Matrix [cont'd]

		<i>True class</i>		Total
		No (-)	Yes (+)	
<i>Predicted class</i>	No (-)	True Neg. (TN)	False Neg. (FN)	N^*
	Yes (+)	False Pos. (FP)	True Pos. (TP)	P^*
Total		N	P	

Binary Classification Model Quality

- Sensitivity, **Recall**, Hit Rate, True Positive Rate

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{P} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} = 1 - FNR$$

- **Specificity**, Selectivity, True Negative Rate

$$TNR = \frac{TN}{N} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} = 1 - FPR$$

- **Precision**, Positive Predictive Value

$$PPV = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} = 1 - FDR$$

- Negative Predictive Value

$$NPV = \frac{TN}{TN + FN} = 1 - FOR$$

Binary Classification Model Quality [cont'd]

- ▶ Miss Rate, False Negative Rate

$$FNR = \frac{FN}{P} = \frac{FN}{FN + TP} = 1 - TPR$$

- ▶ Fall-out, False Positive Rate

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{N} = \frac{FP}{FP + TN} = 1 - TNR$$

- ▶ False Discovery Rate

$$FDR = \frac{FP}{FP + TP} = 1 - PPV$$

- ▶ False Omission Rate

$$FOR = \frac{FN}{FN + TN} = 1 - NPV$$

- **Accuracy** (= 1 - Error Rate)

$$ACC = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

- **F1 Score** (harmonic mean of precision and recall)

$$F1 = 2 \times \frac{PPV \times TPR}{PPV + TPR} = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}$$

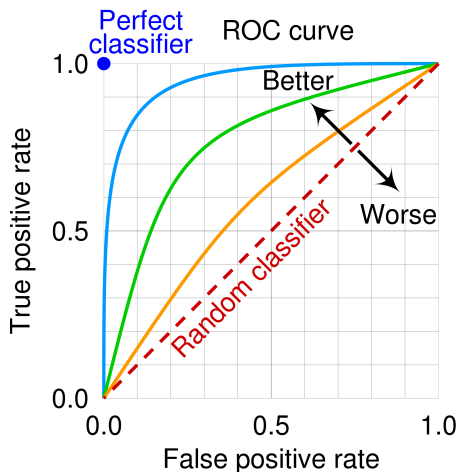
- False Discovery Rate

$$FDR = \frac{FP}{FP + TP} = 1 - PPV$$

- False Omission Rate

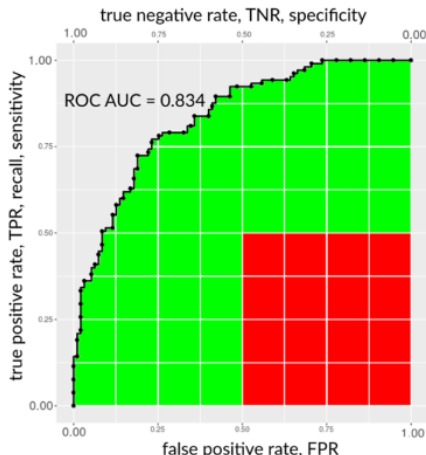
$$FOR = \frac{FN}{FN + TN} = 1 - NPV$$

ROC: Receiver Operating Characteristic



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roc_curve.svg

AUC: Area Under (ROC) Curve



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:ROC_curve_example_highlighting_sub-area_with_low_sensitivity_and_low_specificity.png

Hands-On Exercise – Basic Calculations

- 1 Compute Precision and Recall for the two confusion matrixes above
- 2 Computer Accuracy and F1 values for the two confusion matrixes above
- 3 Plot the two points for this classifier in an ROC space/diagram. Are they above or below the diagonal?

Hands-On Exercise – Interpretation Challenge

Given the following results from a machine learning model:

- ▶ Precision: 0.75
- ▶ Recall: 0.60
- ▶ Accuracy: 0.80

Answer the following questions:

- 1 What percentage of identified positives are actually positive?
- 2 What percentage of actual positives are identified by the model?
- 3 What percentage of the total classifications were correct?

Hands-On Exercise – Adjusting Thresholds

Consider a binary classification task with the following confusion matrix at a certain threshold:

- ▶ TP: 150, FP: 50
- ▶ FN: 30, TN: 200

Discuss how adjusting the classification threshold might affect precision, recall, and accuracy. What happens if the threshold is increased or decreased?

Multi-Class Classification Model Quality

		True class			Prob
		0	1	2	
Predicted Class	0	4	2	0	$q_0 = 6/24 = .25$
	1	1	5	2	$q_1 = 8/24 = .33$
	2	2	0	8	$q_2 = 10/24 = .42$
Prob		p_0 $= 7/24$ $= .29$	p_1 $= 7/24$ $= .29$	p_2 $= 10/24$ $= .42$	

► **Overall Accuracy:** $\text{sum}(\text{diag}(.)) / \text{sum}(.) = 17/24 = .71$

Reduction to Binary Classification

- ▶ "One vs. Rest" (OvR), "One vs. All" (OvA), "One against All" (OaA)
- ▶ Consider each class in turn as "positive" class, consider all others as "negative" class

Micro-Averaging

- ▶ Count and sum TP, FP, FN over all classes
- ▶ Use the total TP, FP, FN to calculate Precision and Recall
- ▶ Gives equal weight to each instance
- ▶ May overemphasize performance of a majority class when it dominates the data set

For multi-class classification, micro-average precision equals micro-average recall and equals accuracy

Macro-Averaging

- ▶ Calculate precision and recall for each class (OvR)
- ▶ Average precision and recall, optionally weighting each class by its true count of instances
- ▶ Appropriate when all classes are equally important
- ▶ Appropriate for imbalanced data sets so all classes contribute
- ▶ May mask poor performance on important minority classes
- ▶ May lower overall performance due to low performance on small or unimportant classes

For the multi-class confusion matrix above,

- 1 Compute precision and recall for each class
- 2 Compute the macro-averages of precision and recall
- 3 Compute the micro-averages of precision and recall and show that they equal the accuracy

- ▶ Dissimilarity between two probability distributions (information theoretic motivation)
 - ▶ True probability distribution over classes p_i
 - ▶ Predicted probability distribution over classes q_i
- ▶ **Cross-entropy:**

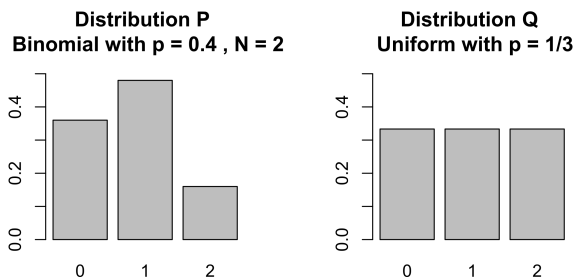
$$H(p, q) = - \sum_i p_i \log q_i$$

- ▶ **Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence:**

$$\begin{aligned} D_{KL}(P||Q) &= \sum_i p_i \log \left(\frac{p_i}{q_i} \right) \\ &= \sum_i p_i \log p_i - \sum_i p_i \log q_i \\ &= -H(p, p) + H(p, q) \end{aligned}$$

Hands-On Exercises – Cross-Entropy & KL Divergence

https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Kullback-Leibler_distributions_example_1.svg



Tip: Binomial distribution: $\Pr(P = k) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

- 1 Calculate the cross-entropy of P and Q
- 2 Calculate the entropy of P
- 3 Calculate the KL divergence of P and Q

- 4 Calculate the cross-entropy and KL-divergence for the multi-class confusion matrix above
- 5 Given two probability distributions P and Q over a discrete set of events, where $P = [0.1, 0.4, 0.5]$ and $Q = [0.2, 0.3, 0.5]$, calculate the cross-entropy $H(P, Q)$ and the KL-divergence $D_{KL}(P||Q)$.

Hands-On Exercise – Cross-Entropy in Binary Classification

In a binary classification task, you have the following probability distributions for the actual labels (P) and predicted labels (Q):

- ▶ $P = [1, 0]$ (the actual class is positive)
- ▶ $Q = [0.7, 0.3]$ (the model predicts a 70% chance of being positive)

Calculate the cross-entropy loss for this scenario.

Hands-On Exercise – KL Divergence in Practice

Consider a scenario where you are comparing two models predicting weather conditions (sunny, cloudy, rainy). The actual distribution of weather conditions (P) and the predictions made by two models ($Q1$ and $Q2$) over a week are as follows:

- ▶ $P = [0.5, 0.3, 0.2]$
- ▶ $Q1 = [0.4, 0.4, 0.2]$
- ▶ $Q2 = [0.6, 0.2, 0.2]$

- 1 Calculate the KL divergence for both models relative to the actual distribution.
- 2 Which model is closer to the actual distribution based on the KL divergence?

Review Questions – Cross-Entropy & KL Divergence

- 1 Define cross-entropy and explain its significance in machine learning, especially in classification tasks.
- 2 Discuss how cross-entropy can be used to evaluate the performance of a classification model.
- 3 Define Kullback-Leibler divergence and explain its relationship with cross-entropy.
- 4 Discuss how KL divergence is used in machine learning models, especially in the context of model optimization and feature selection.

Goals

- ▶ Unbiased assessment of true classification error
- ▶ Generalization to unseen values

Model Selection

Estimate the predictive performance (error) of different models in order to choose the best one

Model Assessment

Having chosen a final model, estimate its prediction error on new data (generalizability)

Validation Set Approach ("Holdout" Method)

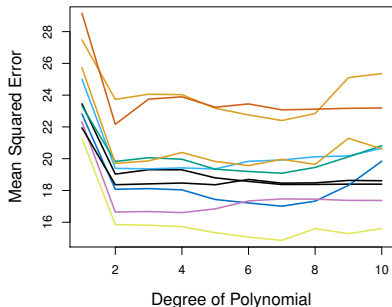
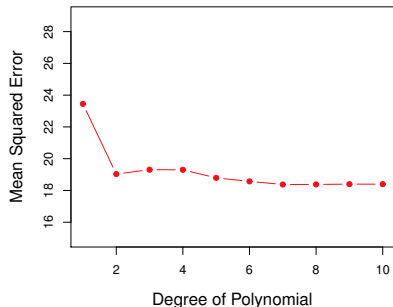
Procedure

- ▶ Randomly divide data:
 - ▶ **Training data:** Train each model
 - ▶ **Validation data:** Test each trained model
 - ▶ **Test data:** Evaluate the selected final model
- ▶ Typical split: 50% Training, 25% Validation, 25% Testing

Characteristics

- ▶ Validation error can be highly variable, depending on the split of data
- ▶ Validation error may overestimate actual error (bias), because of the smaller training set

Validation Set Approach ("Holdout" Method)



Source: ISLR2 Figure 5.2

Leave One Out Cross-Validation (LOOCV)

Procedure

- 1 Select one test observation
- 2 Train model with remaining $n - 1$ observations
- 3 Test the trained model on selected test observation
- 4 Repeat steps 1–3 n times with different test observations

$$CV = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Err}_i$$

Characteristics

- ▶ Computationally expensive
- ▶ Stable results, no randomness
- ▶ Less overestimation (bias) of error rate

k-Fold Cross-Validation

Procedure

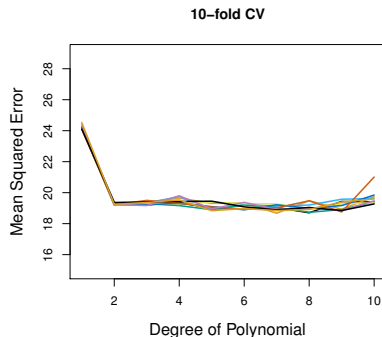
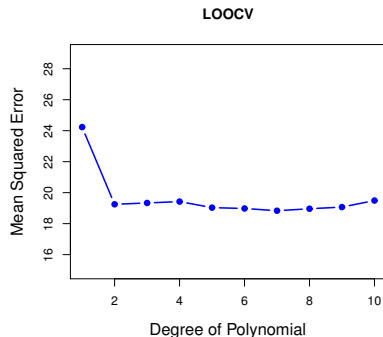
- 1 Randomly divide data into k sub-samples ("folds")
- 2 Select one fold as test data
- 3 Train model on remaining $k - 1$ folds
- 4 Test the trained model on test data fold
- 5 Repeat steps 2–4 k times using each fold as test data

$$CV = 1/k \sum_{i=1}^k \text{Err}_i$$

Characteristics

- ▶ Compromise between holdout method and LOOCV in terms of stability and computational expense
- ▶ Higher bias but lower variance of error estimate than LOOCV but lower variance than LOOCV
- ▶ **Typical** $k = 5$ to $k = 10$

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Source: ISLR2 Figure 5.4

To prevent "information leakage" from training to test or validation data:

Important

- ▶ Initial analysis and predictor/feature selection must be done for each training set
- ▶ Data pre-processing (centering, scaling, outlier removal, etc.) must be done on each training set