### Lecture 15: Review

STATS 202: Data Mining and Analysis

### Linh Tran

tranlm@stanford.edu



Department of Statistics Stanford University

August 18, 2021

#### Announcements



- ► HW4 due this Friday.
- Final project is due next week.
  - Kaggle leaderboard closes on Monday.
  - Write-ups due on Friday (reference your Kaggle leaderboard name)
- Please confirm your Canvas grades (and send any regrade requests ASAP).
- ▶ I have office hours available next week (and this Friday).
  - ► Zoom ID: 9075733929

## Outline



► Course review

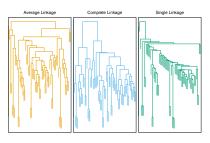
## Unsupervised learning



- ► In unsupervised learning, all the variables are on equal standing, no such thing as an input and response.
- Clustering is typically applied
  - ▶ Hierarchical clustering (single, complete, or average linkage).
  - K-means clustering.
  - Expectation maximization (using Gaussian mixtures).

# Hierarchical clustering





- Agglomerative algorithm produces a dendrogram.
- ► At each step we join the two clusters that are "closest":
  - Complete: distance between clusters is maximal distance between any pair of points.
  - Single: distance between clusters is minimal distance.
  - ► **Average:** distance between clusters is the average distance.
- Height of a branching point = distance between clusters joined.

# K-means clustering



- ▶ The number of clusters is fixed at K.
- ► Goal is to minimize the average distance of a point to the average of its cluster.
- ► The algorithm starts from some assignment, and is guaranteed to decrease this average distance.
- This find a local minimum, not necessarily a global minimum, so we typically repeat the algorithm from many different random starting points.

## Supervised learning



We're interested in a response variable Y associated to each vector of predictors  $\mathbf{X}$ .

Regression: 
$$f_0 = \mathbb{E}_0[Y|X_1, X_2, ..., X_p]$$

- ▶ A scalar value, i.e.  $f_0 \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\hat{f}_n$  therefore gives us estimates of y

Classification: 
$$f_0 = \mathbb{P}_0[Y = y | X_1, X_2, ..., X_p]$$

- ▶ A vectored value, i.e.  $f_0 = [p_1, p_2, ..., p_K] : p_i \in [0, 1], \sum_K p_i = 1$
- ▶ n.b. In a binary setting this simplies to a scalar, i.e.  $f_0 = p_1 : p_1 = \mathbb{P}_0[Y = 1|X_1, X_2, ..., X_p] \in [0, 1]$
- $\hat{f}_n$  therefore gives us predictions of each class
- ► Can take the arg max, giving us Bayes Classifier

# Bias variance decomposition



Let  $x_0$  be a fixed point,  $y_0 = f_0(x_0) + \epsilon$ , and  $\hat{f}_n$  be an estimate of  $f_0$  from  $(x_i, y_i)$ : i = 1, 2, ..., n.

### The MSE at $x_0$ can be decomposed as

$$MSE(x_0) = \mathbb{E}_0[y_0 - \hat{f}_n(x_0)]^2$$
(1)  
=  $Var(\hat{f}_n(x_0)) + Bias(\hat{f}_n(x_0))^2 + Var(\epsilon_0)$  (2)

### Loss functions



#### Regression:

- ► MSE  $((y_i \hat{y}_i)^2)$
- ► AIC, BIC, R<sup>2</sup>, Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>

#### Classification:

- ► Cross-entropy  $((y_i \log(\hat{p}_i))$
- ▶ 0-1 loss  $(\mathbb{I}(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i))$
- Confusion matrix
- Receiver operating characteristic curve (& AUC)
- ► Gini index  $\left(\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} q_m \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{p}_{mk} (1 \hat{p}_{mk})\right)$

#### Misc:

▶ Hinge loss  $(\max(0, 1 - yf))$ 

### How do we estimate the test error?



- ▶ Our main technique is cross-validation.
- Different approaches:
  - 1. **Validation set:** Split the data in two parts, train the model on one subset, and compute the test error on the other.
  - 2. *k*-**fold:** Split the data into *k* subsets. Average the test errors computed using each subset as a validation set.
  - **3. LOOCV:** k-fold cross validation with k = n.
- No approach is superior to all others.
- ▶ What are the main differences? How do the bias and variance of the test error estimates compare? Which methods depend on the random seed?

## The Bootstrap



- ▶ Main idea: If we have enough data, the empirical distribution is similar to the actual distribution of the data.
- Resampling with replacement allows us to obtain pseudo-independent datasets.
- ▶ They can be used to:
  - 1. Approximate the standard error of a parameter (say,  $\beta$  in linear regression), which is just the standard deviation of the estimate when we repeat the procedure with many independent training sets.
  - Bagging: By averaging the predictions ŷ made with many independent data sets, we eliminate the variance of the predictor.
- n.b. Can instead use the jackknife as a linear approximation.

# Features / predictors / covariates



- (Non-linear) feature transformations
- Standardization
- Kernels
- Missing data
- Relational data
- ► Causal/network graphs
- ► True, empirical, estimated distributions

### Linear models



- Coefficients, standard errors, and hypothesis testing
- ► Interactions between predictors
- Non-linear relationships
- Correlation of error terms
- Non-constant variance of error (heteroskedasticity)
- Outliers
- High leverage points
- Collinearity
- Mis-specification

## Regression methods



- Multiple linear regression
- Stepwise selection methods
- Ridge regression, Lasso, and elastic net
- ► Non-linear methods:
  - Polynomial regression
  - Cubic splines
  - Smoothing splines
  - Local regression
  - ► GAMs: Combining the above methods with multiple predictors
- Nearest neighbors regression
- Decision trees, Bagging, Random Forests, Boosting, and Neural Networks
- Collaborative Filtering and Neural Networks

### Classification methods



- ► Nearest neighbors classification
- Naive Bayes
- Logistic regression
- LDA and QDA
- Stepwise selection methods
- Support vector classifier and support vector machines
- Decision trees, Bagging, Random Forests, Boosting
- Collaborative Filtering and Neural Networks

## Cubic splines



Very popular, since they give very smooth predictions over X.

- ▶ Define a set of knots  $\xi_1 < \xi_2 < \cdots < \xi_K$ .
- ▶ We want the function Y = f(X) to:
  - 1. Be a cubic polynomial between every pair of knots  $\xi_i, \xi_{i+1}$ .
  - 2. Be continuous at each knot.
  - 3. Have continuous first and second derivatives at each knot.

**Fact**: Given constraints, we need K + 3 basis functions:

$$f(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \beta_3 X^3 + \beta_4 h(X, \xi_1) + \dots + \beta_{K+3} h(X, \xi_K)$$
(3)

where,

$$h(x,\xi) = \begin{cases} (x-\xi)^3 & \text{if } x > \xi \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Smoothing splines



Our goal is to find the function f which minimizes

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f(x_i))^2 + \lambda \int f''(x)^2 dx$$

- ▶ The RSS of the model.
- ► A penalty for the roughness of the function.

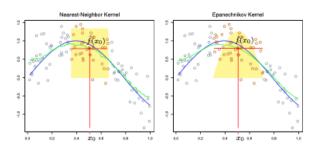
For regularization, we have that  $\lambda \in (0, \infty)$ 

- ▶ When  $\lambda = 0$ , f can be any function that interpolates the data.
- ▶ When  $\lambda = \infty$ , f will be the simple least squares fit

# Kernel smoothing



**Idea**: Why not just use the subset of observations *closest* to the point we're predicting at?



- ▶ Observations averaged *locally* for predictions.
- Can use different weighting kernels, e.g.

$$K_{\lambda}(x_0, x) = D\left(\frac{|x - x_0|}{h_{\lambda}(x_0)}\right) \tag{4}$$

### Generalized additive models



The extension of basis functions to multiple predictors (while maintaining additivity), e.g.

#### Linear model

wage = 
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1$$
year +  $\beta_2$ age +  $\beta_3$ education +  $\epsilon$  (5)

#### Additive model

wage = 
$$\beta_0 + f_1(year) + f_2(age) + f_3(education) + \epsilon$$
 (6)

The functions  $f_1, \ldots, f_p$  can be polynomials, natural splines, smoothing splines, local regressions, etc.

# Support Vector Machines

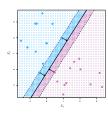


$$\max_{\beta_0,\beta,\epsilon} M$$

(7)

### subject to

- ▶  $\|\beta\| = 1$
- $y_i(\beta_0 + x_i^{\top}\beta) \geq M(1-\epsilon_i) \ \forall \ i=1,\ldots,n$
- $\epsilon_i \geq 0 \ \forall \ i = 1, \dots, n \ \text{and} \ \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \leq C$



#### n.b. Can use kernels to capture non-linearities.

### **Decision Trees**



#### Using a *greedy* approach:

- ▶ Start with a single region  $R_1$ , and iterate:
  - ▶ Select a region  $R_k$ , a predictor  $X_j$ , and a splitting point s, such that splitting  $R_k$  with the criterion  $X_j < s$  produces the largest decrease in RSS:

$$\sum_{m=1}^{|T|} \sum_{x_i \in R_m} (y_i - \bar{y}_{R_m})^2$$

- Redefine the regions with this additional split.
- ► Terminate when there are 5 observations or fewer in each region.
- ▶ This grows the tree from the root towards the leaves.

### Random Forest



#### Algorithm 15.1 Random Forest for Regression or Classification.

- 1. For b = 1 to B:
  - (a) Draw a bootstrap sample  $\mathbf{Z}^*$  of size N from the training data.
  - (b) Grow a random-forest tree  $T_b$  to the bootstrapped data, by recursively repeating the following steps for each terminal node of the tree, until the minimum node size  $n_{min}$  is reached.
    - i. Select m variables at random from the p variables.
    - ii. Pick the best variable/split-point among the m.
    - iii. Split the node into two daughter nodes.
- 2. Output the ensemble of trees  $\{T_b\}_1^B$ .

To make a prediction at a new point x:

Regression: 
$$\hat{f}_{rf}^B(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b(x)$$
.

Classification: Let  $\hat{C}_b(x)$  be the class prediction of the bth random-forest tree. Then  $\hat{C}_{\rm rf}^B(x) = majority \ vote \ \{\hat{C}_b(x)\}_1^B$ .



Boosting uses a set of weak learners (e.g. decision trees) to create a strong one.

The general algorithm is:

1. Fit an initial  $\hat{f}_n^0$  to the data and compute residuals  $r_i$ .



Boosting uses a set of weak learners (e.g. decision trees) to create a strong one.

The general algorithm is:

- 1. Fit an initial  $\hat{f}_n^0$  to the data and compute residuals  $r_i$ .
- 2. For b = 1, ..., B:
  - ▶ Fit a weak leaner  $\hat{f}_n^b$  on the residuals.



Boosting uses a set of weak learners (e.g. decision trees) to create a strong one.

The general algorithm is:

- 1. Fit an initial  $\hat{f}_n^0$  to the data and compute residuals  $r_i$ .
- 2. For b = 1, ..., B:
  - ▶ Fit a weak leaner  $\hat{f}_n^b$  on the residuals.
  - With learning rate  $\lambda_b$ , update prediction to:

$$\hat{f}_n \leftarrow \hat{f}_n + \lambda_b \hat{f}_n^b. \tag{8}$$



Boosting uses a set of weak learners (e.g. decision trees) to create a strong one.

The general algorithm is:

- 1. Fit an initial  $\hat{f}_n^0$  to the data and compute residuals  $r_i$ .
- 2. For b = 1, ..., B:
  - ▶ Fit a weak leaner  $\hat{f}_n^b$  on the residuals.
  - With learning rate  $\lambda_b$ , update prediction to:

$$\hat{f}_n \leftarrow \hat{f}_n + \lambda_b \hat{f}_n^b. \tag{8}$$

Update the residuals

$$r_i \leftarrow r_i - \lambda_b \hat{f}_n^b(x_i). \tag{9}$$



Boosting uses a set of weak learners (e.g. decision trees) to create a strong one.

The general algorithm is:

- 1. Fit an initial  $\hat{f}_n^0$  to the data and compute residuals  $r_i$ .
- 2. For b = 1, ..., B:
  - ▶ Fit a weak leaner  $\hat{f}_n^b$  on the residuals.
  - With learning rate  $\lambda_b$ , update prediction to:

$$\hat{f}_n \leftarrow \hat{f}_n + \lambda_b \hat{f}_n^b. \tag{8}$$

Update the residuals

3. Output prediction, e.g. 
$$r_i \leftarrow r_i - \lambda_b \hat{f}_n^b(x_i)$$
. (9)

$$\hat{f}_n(x) = \hat{f}_n^0 + \sum_{b=1}^B \lambda_b \hat{f}_n^b(x).$$
 (10)

### Neural networks



Neural networks are simply a generalization of the logistic regression case, e.g. for

$$\mathbb{P}(Y=1|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma(\sigma(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{W}_1)\mathbf{W}_2)$$
 (11)

### Neural networks



Neural networks are simply a generalization of the logistic regression case, e.g. for

$$\mathbb{P}(Y=1|\mathbf{X}) = \sigma(\sigma(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}_1)\mathbf{W}_2)$$
 (11)

Our loss is

$$L(y_i, f(\mathbf{X}_i)) = -y_i \log(p_i) - (1 - y_i) \log(1 - p_i), \text{ where}(12)$$

$$p_i = \frac{1}{1 + exp(-Z_{2,i})} \tag{13}$$

$$Z_{2,i} = h_i \mathbf{W}_2 \tag{14}$$

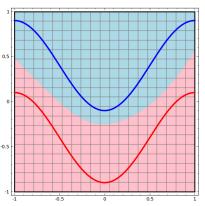
$$h_i = \frac{1}{1 + exp(-Z_{1,i})} \tag{15}$$

$$Z_{1,i} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{W}_1 \tag{16}$$

## Feature representation



#### How do the feature transformations get learned?



0.5

Original representation of curves

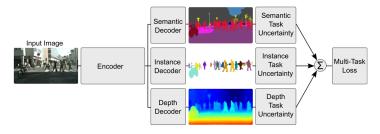
Hidden layer representation of curves

Well demonstrated by Chris Olah's blog.

## Model generalizations



Neural networks can be applied over multiple tasks (i.e. multi-task learning), e.g.



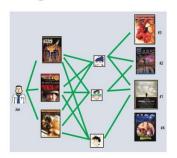
Kendall et al. 2017's multi-task model

## Collaborative Filtering

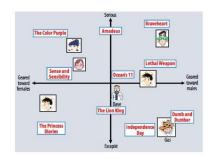


#### Two main techniques:

#### 1. Neighborhood Methods



#### 2. Latent Factor Methods



## Mechanisms for missing data

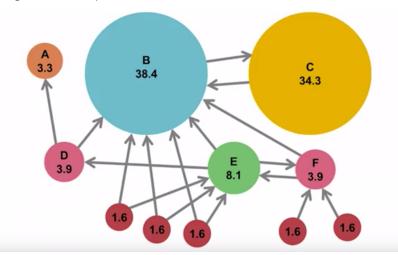


- Missing Completely at Random (MCAR): No relationship exists between the missingness of the data and any values, observed or missing.
  - ► Example. We run a taste study for 20 different drinks. Each subject was asked to rate only 4 drinks chosen at random.
- Missing at Random (MAR): The pattern of missingness depends on other observed predictors.
  - Example. In a survey, poor subjects were less likely to answer a question about drug use than wealthy subjects.
- Missing Not at Random (MNAR): The pattern of missingness depends on the missing values (or unobserved predictors).
  - Example. High earners less likely to report their income.

### Relational data



### PageRank example



# Self testing questions



For each of the regression and classification methods:

- 1. What are we trying to optimize?
- 2. What does the fitting algorithm consist of, roughly?
- 3. What are the tuning parameters, if any?
- 4. How is the method related to other methods, mathematically and in terms of bias, variance?
- 5. How does rescaling or transforming the variables affect the method?
- 6. In what situations does this method work well? What are its limitations?