Introduction to Machine Learning

Machine Learning course
Department of Economics and Management
University of Pavia

AY 2025-2026

Some Take Home Messages

This class is about supervised learning: building models from data that predict an outcome using a collection of input features.

- There are some powerful and exciting tools for making predictions from data.
- They are not magic! You should be skeptical. They require good data and proper internal validation.
- Human judgement and ingenuity are essential for their success.
- With big data
 - model fitting takes longer. This might test our patience for model evaluation and comparison.
 - difficult to look at the data; might be contaminated in parts.

Careful subsampling can help with both of these.

Some Definitions

Machine Learning constructs algorithms that can learn from data.

Statistical Learning is a branch of applied statistics that emerged in response to machine learning, emphasizing statistical models and assessment of uncertainty.

Data Science is the extraction of knowledge from data, using ideas from mathematics, statistics, machine learning, computer science, engineering, ...

All of these are very similar — with different emphases.

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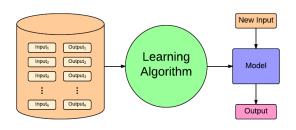
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For Statisticians: 15 minutes of fame

- 2009 "I keep saying the sexy job in the next ten years will be statisticians. And I'm not kidding!" Hal Varian, Chief Economist Google
- 2012 "Data Scientist: The sexiest job of the 21st century." Harvard Business Review

The Supervising Learning Paradigm



Training Data

Fitting

Prediction

Traditional statistics: domain experts work for 10 years to learn good features; they bring the statistician a small clean dataset

Today's approach: we start with a large dataset with many features, and use a machine learning algorithm to find the good ones. A huge change.

- IMPORTANT! Don't trust me or anyone who says they have a wonderful machine learning algorithm, unless you see the results of a careful internal validation.
- Eg: divide data into two parts A and B. Run algorithm on part A and then test it on part B.

 Algorithm must not have seen any of the data in part B.
- If it works in part B, you have (some) confidence in it

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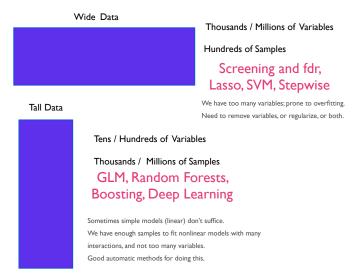
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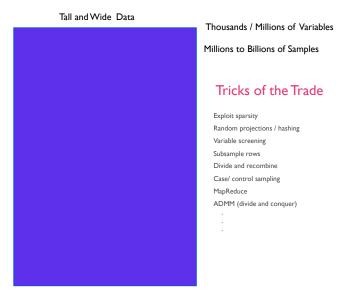
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In God we trust. All others bring data.

Big data vary in *shape*. These call for different approaches.



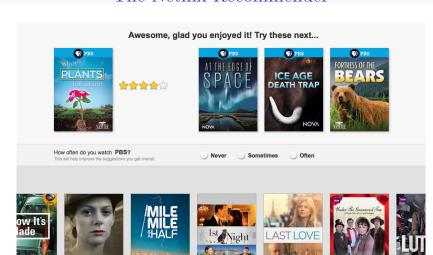
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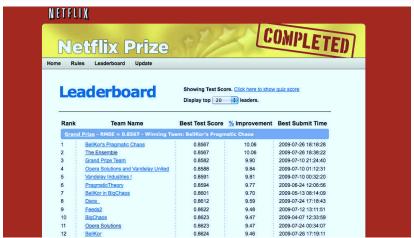
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The Netflix Recommender



The Netflix Prize — 2006–2009



41K teams participated! Competition ran for nearly 3 years. Winner "BellKor's Pragmatic Chaos", essentially tied with "The Ensemble".

The Netflix Data Set

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User A	1	?	5	4
User B	?	2	3	?
User C	4	1	2	?
User D	?	5	1	3
User E	1	2	?	?
÷	:	:	:	÷

• Training Data: 480K users, 18K movies, 100M ratings (1–5) (99% ratings missing)

Goal:
 \$1M prize for 10% reduction
 in RMSE over Cinematch

• BellKor's Pragmatic Chaos declared winners on 9/21/2009

Used ensemble of models, an important ingredient being low-rank factorization (SVD)

Data Science

Marn & Statistics
Anomicologics Computer Science Machine Learning Data Science Traditional Substantive **Expertise**

Statistics

Domain Science

Machine Human

Data Management Human Cognition

Data Mining Perception

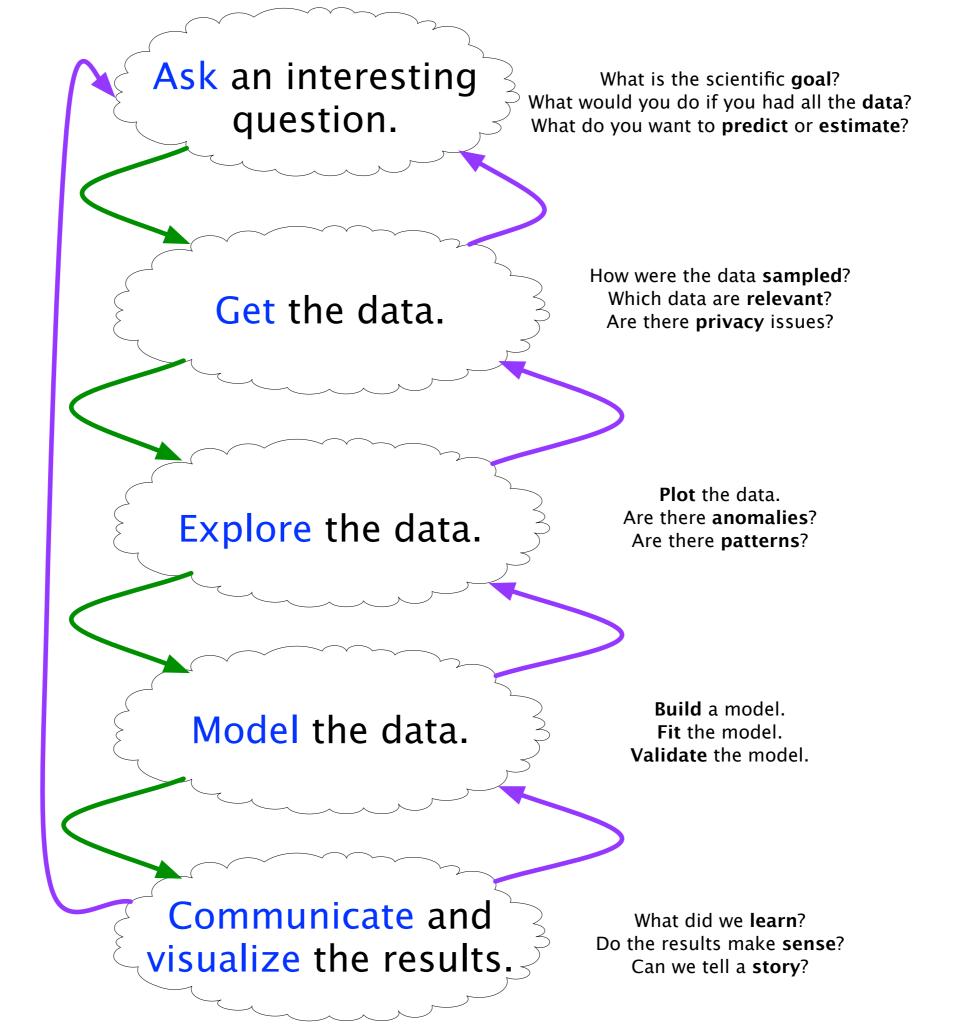
Machine Learning Visualization Story Telling

Business Intelligence Decision Making

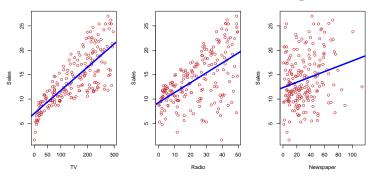
Statistics

Data Science

Theory



What is Statistical Learning?



Shown are Sales vs TV, Radio and Newspaper, with a blue linear-regression line fit separately to each. Can we predict Sales using these three?

Perhaps we can do better using a model

 $\mathtt{Sales} pprox f(\mathtt{TV},\mathtt{Radio},\mathtt{Newspaper})$

Notation

Here Sales is a response or target that we wish to predict. We generically refer to the response as Y.

TV is a feature, or input, or predictor; we name it X_1 .

Likewise name Radio as X_2 , and so on.

We can refer to the *input vector* collectively as

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

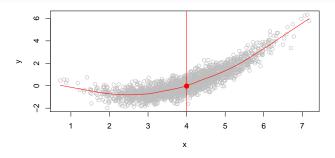
Now we write our model as

$$Y = f(X) + \epsilon$$

where ϵ captures measurement errors and other discrepancies.

What is f(X) good for?

- With a good f we can make predictions of Y at new points X = x.
- We can understand which components of $X = (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_p)$ are important in explaining Y, and which are irrelevant. e.g. Seniority and Years of Education have a big impact on Income, but Marital Status typically does not.
- Depending on the complexity of f, we may be able to understand how each component X_i of X affects Y.



Is there an ideal f(X)? In particular, what is a good value for f(X) at any selected value of X, say X=4? There can be many Y values at X=4. A good value is

$$f(4) = E(Y|X=4)$$

E(Y|X=4) means expected value (average) of Y given X=4.

This ideal f(x) = E(Y|X = x) is called the regression function.

• Is also defined for vector X; e.g.

$$f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = E(Y|X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, X_3 = x_3)$$

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- Is the *ideal* or *optimal* predictor of Y with regard to mean-squared prediction error: f(x) = E(Y|X=x) is the function that minimizes $E[(Y-g(X))^2|X=x]$ over all functions g at all points X=x.

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- $\epsilon = Y f(x)$ is the *irreducible* error i.e. even if we knew f(x), we would still make errors in prediction, since at each X = x there is typically a distribution of possible Y values.
- For any estimate $\hat{f}(x)$ of f(x), we have

$$E[(Y - \hat{f}(X))^{2} | X = x] = \underbrace{[f(x) - \hat{f}(x)]^{2}}_{Reducible} + \underbrace{\operatorname{Var}(\epsilon)}_{Irreducible}$$

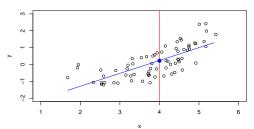
Parametric and structured models

The *linear* model is an important example of a parametric model:

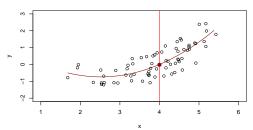
$$f_L(X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_p X_p.$$

- A linear model is specified in terms of p+1 parameters $\beta_0, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_p$.
- We estimate the parameters by fitting the model to training data.
- Although it is almost never correct, a linear model often serves as a good and interpretable approximation to the unknown true function f(X).

A linear model $\hat{f}_L(X) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X$ gives a reasonable fit here



A quadratic model $\hat{f}_Q(X) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X + \hat{\beta}_2 X^2$ fits slightly better.



Some trade-offs

- Prediction accuracy versus interpretability.
 - Linear models are easy to interpret; thin-plate splines are not.

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- Prediction accuracy versus interpretability.
 - Linear models are easy to interpret; thin-plate splines are not.
- Good fit versus over-fit or under-fit.
 - How do we know when the fit is just right?
- Parsimony versus black-box.
 - We often prefer a simpler model involving fewer variables over a black-box predictor involving them all.



FIGURE 2.7. A representation of the tradeoff between flexibility and interpretability, using different statistical learning methods. In general, as the flexib

Assessing Model Accuracy

Suppose we fit a model $\hat{f}(x)$ to some training data $\text{Tr} = \{x_i, y_i\}_{1}^{N}$, and we wish to see how well it performs.

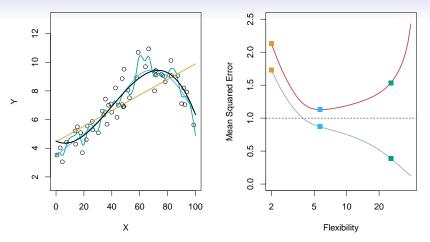
 We could compute the average squared prediction error over Tr:

$$MSE_{\mathsf{Tr}} = Ave_{i \in \mathsf{Tr}} [y_i - \hat{f}(x_i)]^2$$

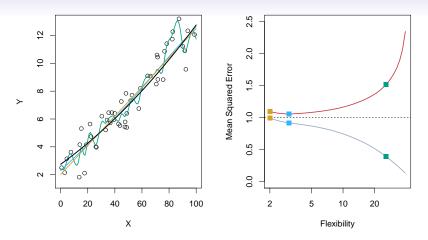
This may be biased toward more overfit models.

• Instead we should, if possible, compute it using fresh test data $Te = \{x_i, y_i\}_1^M$:

$$MSE_{\mathsf{Te}} = Ave_{i \in \mathsf{Te}} [y_i - \hat{f}(x_i)]^2$$

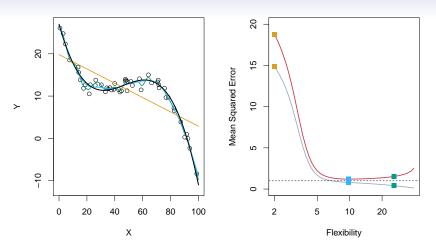


Black curve is truth. Red curve on right is MSE_{Te} , grey curve is MSE_{Te} . Prange, effice and sirrelated free forms confident for the first inputes of fare shown: the linear regression line (orange curve), and two smoothing spline fits (blue and green curves). Right: Training MSE (grey curve), test MSE (red curve), and minimum possible test MSE over all methods (dashed line). Squares represent the training and test MSEs for the three fits shown in the left-hand panel.



Here the truth is smoother, so the smoother fit and linear model do FIGURE 2.10. Details are as in Figure 2.9, using a different true f that is really cooler to linear. In this setting, linear regression provides a very good fit to the data.

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Here the truth is wiggly and the noise is low, so the more flexible fits **FIGURE 2.11.** Details are as in Figure 2.9, using a different f that is far from linear. In this setting, linear regression provides a very poor fit to the data.

Bias-Variance Trade-off

Suppose we have fit a model $\hat{f}(x)$ to some training data Tr, and let (x_0, y_0) be a test observation drawn from the population. If the true model is $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$ (with f(x) = E(Y|X = x)), then

$$E\left(y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0)\right)^2 = \operatorname{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0)) + \left[\operatorname{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))\right]^2 + \operatorname{Var}(\epsilon).$$

The expectation averages over the variability of y_0 as well as the variability in Tr. Note that $\operatorname{Bias}(\hat{f}(x_0))] = E[\hat{f}(x_0)] - f(x_0)$.

Typically as the *flexibility* of \hat{f} increases, its variance increases, and its bias decreases. So choosing the flexibility based on average test error amounts to a *bias-variance trade-off*.

Bias-variance trade-off for the three examples

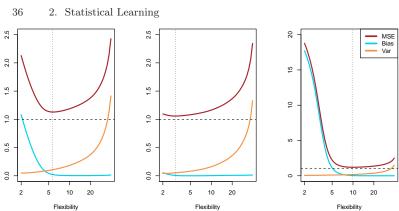


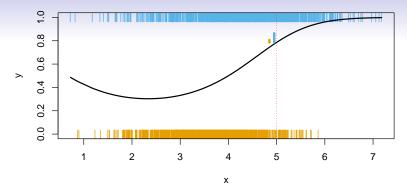
FIGURE 2.12. Squared bias (blue curve), variance (orange curve), $Var(\epsilon)$ (dashed line), and test MSE (red curve) for the three data sets in Figures 2.9–2.11. The vertical dashed line indicates the flexibility level corresponding to the smallest test MSE.

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Classification Problems

Here the response variable Y is qualitative — e.g. email is one of $\mathcal{C} = (\mathtt{spam}, \mathtt{ham})$ ($\mathtt{ham} = \mathtt{good}$ email), digit class is one of $\mathcal{C} = \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$. Our goals are to:

- Build a classifier C(X) that assigns a class label from C to a future unlabeled observation X.
- Assess the uncertainty in each classification
- Understand the roles of the different predictors among $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$.



Is there an ideal C(X)? Suppose the K elements in \mathcal{C} are numbered $1, 2, \ldots, K$. Let

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

These are the *conditional class probabilities* at x; e.g. see little barplot at x = 5. Then the *Bayes optimal* classifier at x is

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

Classification: some details

• Typically we measure the performance of $\hat{C}(x)$ using the misclassification error rate:

$$\operatorname{Err}_{\mathsf{Te}} = \operatorname{Ave}_{i \in \mathsf{Te}} I[y_i \neq \hat{C}(x_i)]$$

• The Bayes classifier (using the true $p_k(x)$) has smallest error (in the population).

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- The Bayes classifier (using the true $p_k(x)$) has smallest error (in the population).
- Support-vector machines build structured models for C(x).
- We will also build structured models for representing the $p_k(x)$. e.g. Logistic regression, generalized additive models.