

Evaluation

Anietie Andy (Andy)

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Announcements

- TA office hours
- <u>http://www.seas.upenn.edu/~cis519/spring2018/staff.html</u>

• Recitation at 3401 Walnut St, Rm 401B

- Tuesdays: 6:30pm 7:30pm
- Wednesdays: 5:30pm 6:30pm
- Homework submission Instructions

Stages of (Batch) Machine Learning

Given: labeled training data $X, Y = \{\langle \boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i \rangle\}_{i=1}^n$

• Assumes each $\boldsymbol{x}_i \sim \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{X})$ with $y_i = f_{target}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$

Train the model: model ← classifier.train(X, Y)



Apply the model to new data:

• Given: new unlabeled instance $x \sim \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{X})$ $y_{prediction} \leftarrow model.predict(\mathbf{x})$

Classification Metrics

 $accuracy = \frac{\# \text{ correct predictions}}{\# \text{ test instances}}$

error = $1 - accuracy = \frac{\# \text{ incorrect predictions}}{\# \text{ test instances}}$

Recall



Precision



Precision vs. Recall

An inverse relationship

As the level of recall rises the level of precision generally declines and vice versa.

The Cranfield experiments (1957 & 1962) Cyril Cleverdon, p.i.

Confusion Matrix

• Given a dataset of P positive instances and N negative instances:



$$accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N}$$

• Imagine using classifier to identify positive cases (i.e., for information retrieval) $precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \qquad recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$

Probability that a randomly selected result is relevant

Probability that a randomly selected relevant document is retrieved

Example

N = 165	Predicted: Yes	Predicted: No	Total
Actual: Yes	TP = 100	FN=5	105
Actual: No	FP = 10	TN = 50	60
Total	110	55	

Accuracy = (TP+TN)/N = (100+50)/165 = 0.91

Precision = TP/TP + FP = 100/110 = 0.91

Recall = TP / TP + FN = 100/105 = 0.95

Training Data and Test Data

- Training data: data used to build the model
- Test data: new data, not used in the training process
- Training performance is often a poor indicator of generalization performance
 - Generalization is what we <u>really</u> care about in ML
 - Easy to overfit the training data
 - Performance on test data is a good indicator of generalization performance
 - i.e., test accuracy is more important than training accuracy

Training and Test Data



Idea: Train each model on the "training data"...

...and then test each model's accuracy on the test data

Simple Decision Boundary



More Complex Decision Boundary



Overfitting

• "Fitting the data more than is warranted"

Example: The Overfitting Phenomenon



Slide by Padhraic Smyth, UCIrvine



The True (simpler) Model





Underfitting and Overfitting



Christopher Erick: Learning Models to Predict and Classify

Notes on Overfitting

- Overfitting results in models that are more complex than necessary: after learning knowledge they "tend to learn noise"
- More complex models tend to have more complicated decision boundaries and tend to be more sensitive to noise, missing examples,...
- Training error no longer provides a good estimate of how well the tree will perform on previously unseen records

Comparing Classifiers

Say we have two classifiers, *C1* and *C2*, and want to choose the best one to use for future predictions

Can we use training accuracy to choose between them?

- No!
 - e.g., C1 = pruned decision tree, C2 = 1-NN training_accuracy(1-NN) = 100%, but may not be best

Instead, choose based on test accuracy...

N-fold cross validation

Instead of a single test-training split:



Split data into N equal-sized parts



- Train and test N different classifiers
- Report average accuracy and standard deviation of the accuracy

Example 3-Fold CV



More on Cross-Validation

- Cross-validation generates an approximate estimate of how well the classifier will do on "unseen" data
 - As $k \rightarrow n$, the model becomes more accurate (more training data)
 - ...but, CV becomes more computationally expensive
 - Choosing k < n is a compromise</p>
- Averaging over different partitions is more robust than just a single train/validate partition of the data
- It is an even better idea to do CV repeatedly!

Multiple Trials of k-Fold CV

1.) Loop for t trials:



2.) Compute statistics over t x k test performances

Comparing Multiple Classifiers

1.) Loop for t trials:



2.) Compute statistics over t x k test performances

Allows us to do paired summary statistics (e.g., paired t-test)

Building Learning Curves

1.) Loop for t trials:



2.) Compute statistics over t x k learning curves

Hypothesis testing

- You want to show that hypothesis H is true, based on your data
 - (e.g. H = "classifier A and B are different")
- Define a null hypothesis H₀
 - (H₀ is the contrary of what you want to show)
- H₀ defines a distribution P(m / H₀) over some statistic
 e.g. a distribution over the difference in accuracy between A and B
- Can you refute (reject) H₀?

Rejecting H₀

- H_0 defines a distribution $P(M / H_0)$ over some statistic M
 - (e.g. *M*= the difference in accuracy between A and B)
- Select a significance value S
 - (e.g. 0.05, 0.01, etc.)
 - You can only reject H0 if $P(m | H_0) \le S$
- Compute the test statistic *m* from your data
 - e.g. the average difference in accuracy over your N folds
- Compute $P(m | H_0)$
- Refute H_0 with $p \le S$ if $P(m | H_0) \le S$

Paired t-test

 A paired t-test is used to compare two population means where you have two samples in which observations in one sample can be paired with observations in the other sample.

• E.g.

Before-and-after observations on the same subjects (e.g. students)

Procedure for carrying out Paired t-test

- Calculate the difference between the two observations on each pair.
- Calculate the mean difference
- Calculate the standard deviation of the differences
- Calculate the error of the mean difference
- Calculate the t-statistic

Paired t-test example

- <u>Question</u>: The downtimes (measured in hours) for computer systems in six branches of a major bank were recorded for year 1 and year 2.
 Compute the test statistics for the paired t-test.
- Solution:

Branch	Year 1	Year 2	Difference (Year 1 – Year 2)	Square of Difference
Α	40	30	10	100
В	54	41	13	169
С	32	24	8	64
D	36	38	-2	4
E	55	56	-1	1
F	46	37	9	81
			Sum = 37	Sum = 419

Paired t-test

- Sample size: n = 6
- Sum of differences $\sum di = 37$
- Sum of squared differences $\sum di^2 = 419$
- Mean of case-wise differences: $\overline{d} = \frac{\sum d_i}{n} = 37/6 = 6.166$

• Standard Deviation :
$$_{\mathsf{Sd}=\frac{\sum d_i - n\overline{d}^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{419 - 6 \times (6.166)^2}{5}} = 6.177$$

• Test statistics for the paired t-test: $t = \frac{d}{\frac{s_d}{\sqrt{s}}} = 2.445$

McNemar's Test

• The test is often used for the situation where one tests for the presence (1) or absence (0) of something and variable A is the state at the first observation (i.e., pretest) and variable B is the state at the second observation (i.e., posttest).

McNemar's Test

- An alternative to Cross Validation, when the test can be run only once
- Divide the sample S into a training set R and a test set T.
- Train algorithms A and B on R, yielding classifiers A, B
- Record how each example in T is classified and compute the number of

Examples misclassified by both	Examples misclassified by
A and B Noo	A but not B N01
Examples misclassified by	Examples misclassified by neither
B but not A N10	A nor B N11

where N is the total number of examples in the test set T

 $N_{00} + N_{10} + N_{01} + N_{11} = N$

McNemar's Test

• The hypothesis: the two learning algorithms have the same error rate on a randomly drawn sample. That is, we expect that

$$\mathbf{N}_{10} = \mathbf{N}_{01}$$

• The statistics we use to measure deviation from the expected counts:

 $\frac{\left(\mid N_{01} - N_{10} \mid -1\right)^2}{N_{01} + N_{10}}$

END