

How much should we believe in what was learned?

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#### **Outline**

- Introduction
- Classification with Train, Test, and Validation sets
  - □ Handling Unbalanced Data
  - □ Parameter Tuning
- Cross-validation
- Comparing Data Mining Schemes



#### Introduction

- How predictive is the model we learned?
- Error on the training data is not a good indicator of performance on future data
  - **□ Q: Why?**
  - □ A: Because new data will probably not be exactly the same as the training data!
- Overfitting fitting the training data too precisely – usually leads to poor results on new data



#### Evaluation issues

- Possible evaluation measures:
  - □ Classification Accuracy
  - □ Total cost/benefit when different errors involve different costs
  - □ Lift and ROC curves
  - □ Error in numeric predictions
- How reliable are the predicted results?



#### Classifier error rate

- Natural performance measure for classification problems: error rate
  - □ Success: instance's class is predicted correctly
  - □ Error: instance's class is predicted incorrectly
  - □ Error rate: proportion of errors made over the whole set of instances
- Training set error rate: is way too optimistic!
  - □ you can find patterns even in random data



## Evaluation on "LARGE" data, 1

If many (thousands) of examples are available, including several hundred examples from each class, then how can we evaluate our classifier method?

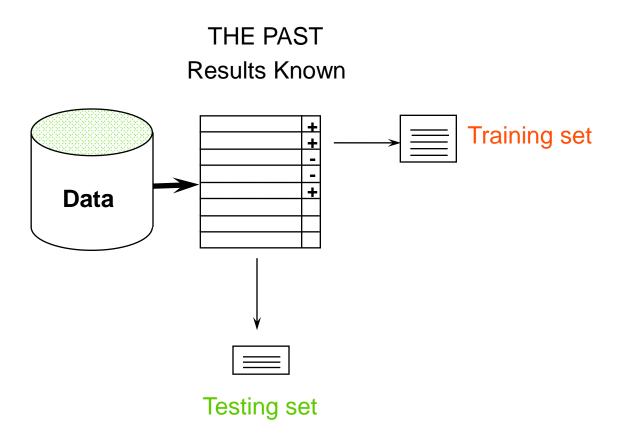


### Evaluation on "LARGE" data, 2

- A simple evaluation is sufficient
  - □ Randomly split data into training and test sets (usually 2/3 for train, 1/3 for test)
- Build a classifier using the train set and evaluate it using the test set.



## Classification Step 1: Split data into train and test sets



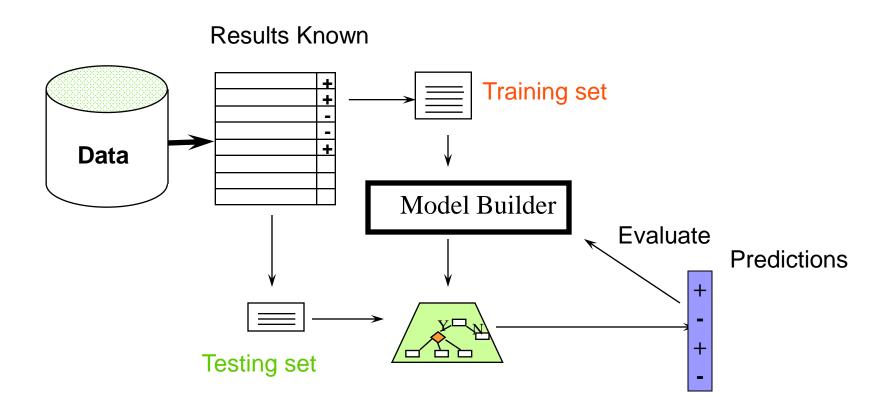


## Classification Step 2: Build a model on a training set

THE PAST Results Known Training set **Data** Model Builder Testing set



## Classification Step 3: Evaluate on test set (Re-train?)



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#### Unbalanced data

- Sometimes, classes have very unequal frequency
  - □ Attrition prediction: 97% stay, 3% attrite (in a month)
  - □ medical diagnosis: 90% healthy, 10% disease
  - □ eCommerce: 99% don't buy, 1% buy
  - □ Security: >99.99% of Americans are not terrorists
- Similar situation with multiple classes
- Majority class classifier can be 97% correct, but useless



## Handling unbalanced data – how?

If we have two classes that are very unbalanced, then how can we evaluate our classifier method?



## Balancing unbalanced data, 1

- With two classes, a good approach is to build BALANCED train and test sets, and train model on a balanced set
  - randomly select desired number of minority class instances
  - add equal number of randomly selected majority class
- How do we generalize "balancing" to multiple classes?



## Balancing unbalanced data, 2

- Generalize "balancing" to multiple classes
  - Ensure that each class is represented with approximately equal proportions in train and test



## A note on parameter tuning

- It is important that the test data is not used in any way to create the classifier
- Some learning schemes operate in two stages:
  - □ Stage 1: builds the basic structure
  - Stage 2: optimizes parameter settings
- The test data can't be used for parameter tuning!
- Proper procedure uses three sets: training data, validation data, and test data
  - □ Validation data is used to optimize parameters

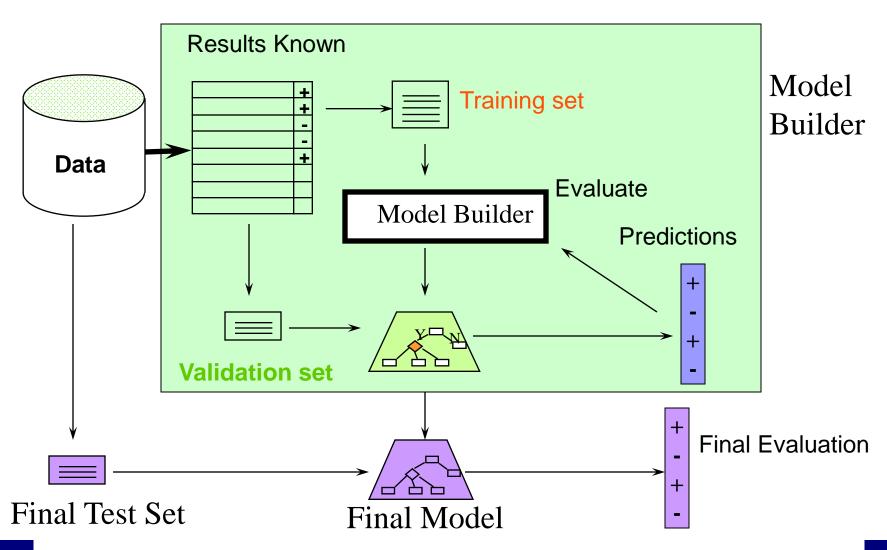


## Making the most of the data

- Once evaluation is complete, all the data can be used to build the final classifier
- Generally, the larger the training data the better the classifier
- The larger the test data the more accurate the error estimate



### Classification: Train, Validation, Test split





## \*Predicting performance

- Assume the estimated error rate is 25%. How close is this to the true error rate?
  - Depends on the amount of test data
- Prediction is just like tossing a biased (!) coin
  - □ "Head" is a "success", "tail" is an "error"
- In statistics, a succession of independent events like this is called a Bernoulli process
- Statistical theory provides us with confidence intervals for the true underlying proportion!



#### \*Confidence intervals

- We can say: p lies within a certain specified interval with a certain specified confidence
- Example: S=750 successes in N=1000 trials
  - Estimated success rate: 75%
  - $\square$  How close is this to true success rate p?
    - Answer: with 80% confidence *p*∈[73.2,76.7]
- Another example: S=75 and N=100
  - □ Estimated success rate: 75%
  - □ With 80% confidence  $p \in [69.1,80.1]$





#### \*Mean and variance

- Mean and variance for a Bernoulli trial: p, p(1-p)
- Expected success rate f=S/N
- Mean and variance for f: p, p (1-p)/N
- For large enough N, f follows a Normal distribution
- c% confidence interval  $[-z \le X \le z]$  for random variable with 0 mean is given by:

$$\Pr[-z \le X \le z] = c$$

With a symmetric distribution:

$$\Pr[-z \le X \le z] = 1 - 2 \times \Pr[X \ge z]$$

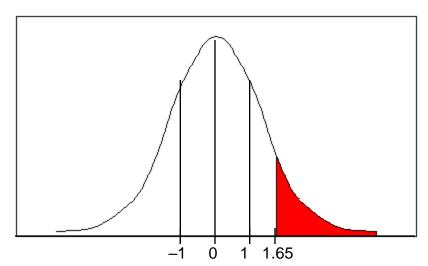
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#### \*Confidence limits

Confidence limits for the normal distribution with 0

mean and a variance of 1:



$Pr[X \ge z]$	Z
0.1%	3.09
0.5%	2.58
1%	2.33
5%	1.65
10%	1.28
20%	0.84
40%	0.25

Thus:

$$Pr[-1.65 \le X \le 1.65] = 90\%$$

To use this we have to reduce our random variable f to have 0 mean and unit variance



## \*Transforming f

Transformed value for f:

$$\frac{f-p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/N}}$$

(i.e. subtract the mean and divide by the standard deviation)

Resulting equation:

$$\Pr\left[-z \le \frac{f-p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/N}} \le z\right] = c$$

Solving for *p* :

$$p = \left( f + \frac{z^2}{2N} \pm z \sqrt{\frac{f}{N} - \frac{f^2}{N} + \frac{z^2}{4N^2}} \right) / \left( 1 + \frac{z^2}{N} \right)$$



## \*Examples

- f = 75%, N = 1000, c = 80% (so that z = 1.28):  $p \in [0.732, 0.767]$
- f = 75%, N = 100, c = 80% (so that z = 1.28):  $p \in [0.691, 0.801]$

- Note that normal distribution assumption is only valid for large N (i.e. N > 100)
- f = 75%, N = 10, c = 80% (so that z = 1.28):  $p \in [0.549, 0.881]$  (should be taken with a grain of salt)



## Evaluation on "small" data, 1

- The holdout method reserves a certain amount for testing and uses the remainder for training
  - □ Usually: one third for testing, the rest for training
- For "unbalanced" datasets, samples might not be representative
  - □ Few or none instances of some classes
- Stratified sample: advanced version of balancing the data
  - Make sure that each class is represented with approximately equal proportions in both subsets



## Evaluation on "small" data, 2

- What if we have a small data set?
- The chosen 2/3 for training may not be representative.
- The chosen 1/3 for testing may not be representative.



## Repeated holdout method, 1

- Holdout estimate can be made more reliable by repeating the process with different subsamples
  - In each iteration, a certain proportion is randomly selected for training (possibly with stratification)
  - □ The error rates on the different iterations are averaged to yield an overall error rate
- This is called the *repeated holdout* method



## Repeated holdout method, 2

- Still not optimum: the different test sets overlap.
- Can we prevent overlapping?



#### Cross-validation

- Cross-validation avoids overlapping test sets
  - ☐ First step: data is split into *k* subsets of equal size
  - Second step: each subset in turn is used for testing and the remainder for training
- This is called *k-fold cross-validation*
- Often the subsets are stratified before the crossvalidation is performed
- The error estimates are averaged to yield an overall error estimate

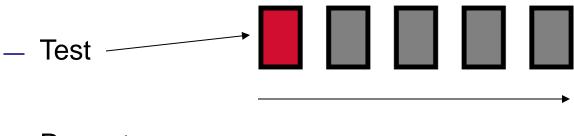


## Cross-validation example:

Break up data into groups of the same size



Hold aside one group for testing and use the rest to build the model





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#### More on cross-validation

- Standard method for evaluation: stratified ten-fold cross-validation
- Why ten? Extensive experiments have shown that this is the best choice to get an accurate estimate
- Stratification reduces the estimate's variance
- Even better: repeated stratified cross-validation
  - □ E.g. ten-fold cross-validation is repeated ten times and results are averaged (reduces the variance)



#### Leave-One-Out cross-validation

- Leave-One-Out: a particular form of cross-validation:
  - Set number of folds to number of training instances
  - I.e., for n training instances, build classifier n times
- Makes best use of the data
- Involves no random subsampling
- Very computationally expensive

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## Leave-One-Out-CV and stratification

- Disadvantage of Leave-One-Out-CV: stratification is not possible
  - □ It *guarantees* a non-stratified sample because there is only one instance in the test set!
- Extreme example: random dataset split equally into two classes
  - Best inducer predicts majority class
  - □ 50% accuracy on fresh data
  - □ Leave-One-Out-CV estimate is 100% error!



## \*The bootstrap

- CV uses sampling without replacement
  - ☐ The same instance, once selected, can not be selected again for a particular training/test set
- The bootstrap uses sampling with replacement to form the training set
  - □ Sample a dataset of *n* instances *n* times *with* replacement to form a new dataset
    - of *n* instances
  - □ Use this data as the training set
  - □ Use the instances from the original dataset that don't occur in the new training set for testing





## \*The 0.632 bootstrap

- Also called the 0.632 bootstrap
  - □ A particular instance has a probability of 1–1/n of not being picked
  - ☐ Thus its probability of ending up in the test data is:

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \approx e^{-1} = 0.368$$

□ This means the training data will contain approximately
 63.2% of the instances



# \*Estimating error with the bootstrap

- The error estimate on the test data will be very pessimistic
  - □ Trained on just ~63% of the instances
- Therefore, combine it with the resubstitution error:

$$err = 0.632 \cdot e_{\text{test instances}} + 0.368 \cdot e_{\text{training instances}}$$

- The resubstitution error gets less weight than the error on the test data
- Repeat process several times with different replacement samples; average the results



## \*More on the bootstrap

- Probably the best way of estimating performance for very small datasets
- However, it has some problems
  - Consider the random dataset from above
  - A perfect memorizer will achieve
    0% resubstitution error and
    ~50% error on test data
  - □ Bootstrap estimate for this classifier:

$$err = 0.632 \cdot 50\% + 0.368 \cdot 0\% = 31.6\%$$

□ True expected error: 50%



# Comparing data mining schemes

- Frequent situation: we want to know which one of two learning schemes performs better
  - Note: this is domain dependent!
- Obvious way: compare 10-fold CV estimates
  - □ Problem: variance in estimate
- Variance can be reduced using repeated CV
- However, we still don't know whether the results are reliable



# Significance tests

- Significance tests tell us how confident we can be that there really is a difference
- Null hypothesis: there is no "real" difference
- Alternative hypothesis: there is a difference
- A significance test measures how much evidence there is in favor of rejecting the null hypothesis
- Let's say we are using 10 times 10-fold CV
- Then we want to know whether the two means of the 10 CV estimates are significantly different
  - Student's paired t-test tells us whether the means of two samples are significantly different

#### **Evaluation**



#### \*Paired t-test

- Student's t-test tells whether the means of two samples are significantly different
- Take individual samples from the set of all possible cross-validation estimates
- Use a paired t-test because the individual samples are paired
  - The same CV is applied twice

#### **William Gosset**

Born: 1876 in Canterbury; Died: 1937 in Beaconsfield, England. Obtained a post as a chemist in the Guinness brewery in Dublin in 1899. Invented the t-test to handle small samples for quality control in brewing. Wrote under the name "Student".







#### \*Distribution of the means

- $x_1 x_2 \dots x_k$  and  $y_1 y_2 \dots y_k$  are the 2k samples for a kfold CV
- $m_x$  and  $m_v$  are the means
- With enough samples, the mean of a set of independent samples is normally distributed  $\frac{m_x - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/k}}$

$$\frac{m_x - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma_x^2/k}}$$

- Estimated variances of the means are  $\sigma_x^2/k$  and  $\sigma_v^2/k$
- If  $\mu_x$  and  $\mu_y$  are the true means then  $\frac{m_x \mu_x}{\sqrt{\sigma_x^2/k}} = \frac{m_y \mu_y}{\sqrt{\sigma_y^2/k}}$

are approximately normally distributed with mean 0 and variance 1



### \*Student's distribution

- With small samples (k < 100) the mean follows Student's distribution with k-1 degrees of freedom
- Confidence limits:

#### 9 degrees of freedom

$Pr[X \ge z]$	Z
0.1%	4.30
0.5%	3.25
1%	2.82
5%	1.83
10%	1.38
20%	0.88

#### normal distribution

$\Pr[X \geq z]$	Z
0.1%	3.09
0.5%	2.58
1%	2.33
5%	1.65
10%	1.28
20%	0.84



### \*Distribution of the differences

- $\blacksquare \quad \text{Let } m_d = m_x m_y$
- The difference of the means  $(m_d)$  also has a Student's distribution with k–1 degrees of freedom
- Let  $\sigma_d^2$  be the variance of the difference
- The standardized version of  $m_d$  is called the t-statistic:  $t = \frac{m_d}{\sqrt{\sigma_d^2/k}}$
- We use *t* to perform the *t*-test



# \*Performing the test

- 1. Fix a significance level  $\alpha$ 
  - If a difference is significant at the  $\alpha$ % level, there is a  $(100-\alpha)$ % chance that there really is a difference
- Divide the significance level by two because the test is two-tailed
  - I.e. the true difference can be +ve or -ve
- 3. Look up the value for z that corresponds to  $\alpha/2$
- 4. If  $t \le -z$  or  $t \ge z$  then the difference is significant
  - □ I.e. the null hypothesis can be rejected



# Unpaired observations

- If the CV estimates are from different randomizations, they are no longer paired
  - □ (or maybe we used k-fold CV for one scheme, and j-fold CV for the other one)
- Then we have to use an un paired t-test with min(k, j) 1 degrees of freedom
- The *t*-statistic becomes:

$$t = \frac{m_d}{\sqrt{\sigma_d^2/k}} \longrightarrow t = \frac{m_x - m_y}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2}{j}}}$$



# \*Interpreting the result

- All our cross-validation estimates are based on the same dataset
- Hence the test only tells us whether a complete k-fold CV for this dataset would show a difference
  - Complete k-fold CV generates all possible partitions of the data into *k* folds and averages the results
- Ideally, should use a different dataset sample for each of the k-fold CV estimates used in the test to judge performance across different training sets



# T-statistic many uses

 Looking ahead, we will come back to use of T-statistic for gene filtering in later modules



# \*Predicting probabilities

- Performance measure so far: success rate
- Also called *0-1 loss function*:

$$\sum_{i} \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if prediction is correct} \\ 1 & \text{if prediction is incorrect} \end{cases}$$

- Most classifiers produces class probabilities
- Depending on the application, we might want to check the accuracy of the probability estimates
- 0-1 loss is not the right thing to use in those cases



### \*Quadratic loss function

- $p_1 \dots p_k$  are probability estimates for an instance
- c is the index of the instance's actual class
- $a_1 \dots a_k = 0$ , except for  $a_c$  which is 1
- Quadratic loss is:  $\sum_{j} (p_j a_j)^2 = \sum_{j \neq c} p_j^2 + (1 p_c)^2$  Want to minimize  $E\left[\sum_{j} (p_j a_j)^2\right]$
- Can show that this is minimized when  $p_i = p_i^*$ , the true probabilities

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### \*Informational loss function

- The informational loss function is  $-\log(p_c)$ , where c is the index of the instance's actual class
- Number of bits required to communicate the actual class
- Let  $p_1^* \dots p_k^*$  be the true class probabilities
- Then the expected value for the loss function is:

$$-p_1^* \log_2 p_1 - ... - p_k^* \log_2 p_k$$

- Justification: minimized when  $p_i = p_i^*$
- Difficulty: zero-frequency problem



### \*Discussion

- Which loss function to choose?
  - Both encourage honesty
  - Quadratic loss function takes into account all class probability estimates for an instance
  - Informational loss focuses only on the probability estimate for the actual class
  - Quadratic loss is bounded: it can never exceed 2  $\longrightarrow$  1+ $\sum_{i} p_{j}^{2}$
  - Informational loss can be infinite
- Informational loss is related to MDL principle

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# **Evaluation Summary:**

- Use Train, Test, Validation sets for "LARGE" data
- Balance "un-balanced" data
- Use Cross-validation for small data
- Don't use test data for parameter tuning use separate validation data
- Most Important: Avoid Overfitting