

Guidelines for the supervised learning of species interactions

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1. The prediction of species interaction networks is gaining momentum as a way to circumvent limitations in data volume. Yet, ecological networks are challenging to predict because they are typically small and sparse. Dealing with extreme class imbalance is a challenge for most binary classifiers, and there are currently no guidelines as to how predictive models can be trained.
2. Using simple mathematical arguments and numerical experiments in which a variety of classifiers (for supervised learning) are trained on simulated networks, we develop a series of guidelines related to the choice of measures to use for model selection, and the degree of unbiasing to apply to the training dataset.
3. Classifier accuracy and the ROC-AUC are not informative measures for the performance of interaction prediction. PR-AUC is a fairer assessment of performance. In some cases, even standard measures can lead to selecting a more biased classifier because the effect of connectance is strong. The amount of correction to apply to the training dataset depends as a function of the classifier and the network connectance.
4. These results reveal that training machines to predict networks is a challenging task, and that in virtually all cases, the composition of the training set needs to be experimented on before performing the actual training. We discuss these consequences in the context of the low volume of data.

- example on diagnostic test: rare events are hard to detect even with really good models
- summary of model challenges for networks
- Strydom et al. (2021) importance of drawing on traits + validation is challenging + comparing across space

Binary classifiers are usually assessed by measuring properties of their confusion matrix, *i.e.* the contingency table reporting true/false positive/negative hits. A confusion matrix is laid out as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{tp} & \text{fp} \\ \text{fn} & \text{tn} \end{pmatrix},$$

wherein tp is the number of interactions predicted as positive, tn is the number of non-interactions predicted as negative, fp is the number of non-interactions predicted as positive, and fn is the number of interactions predicted as negative. Almost all measures based on the confusion matrix express rates of error or success as proportions, and therefore the values of these components matter in a *relative* way. At a coarse scale, a classifier is *accurate* when the trace of the matrix divided by the sum of the matrix is close to 1, with other measures focusing on different ways in which the classifier is wrong.

The same approach is used to evaluate *e.g.* species distribution models (SDMs). Indeed, the training and evaluation of SDMs as binary classifiers suffers from the same issue of low prevalence. In a previous work, Allouche et al. (2006) suggested that κ was a better test of model performance than the True Skill Statistic (TSS), which we will refer to as Youden's informedness (or J); these conclusions were later criticized by Somodi et al. (2017), who emphasized that informedness' relationship to prevalence depends on assumptions about bias in the model, and therefore recommend the use of κ as a validation of classification performance. Although this work offers recommendations about the comparison of models, it doesn't establish baselines or good practices for training on imbalanced ecological data. Within the context of networks, there are three specific issues that need to be addressed. First, what values of performance measures are we expecting for a classifier that has poor performance? This is particularly important as it can evaluate whether low prevalence can lull us into a false sense of predictive accuracy. Second, independently of the question of model evaluation, is low prevalence an issue for *training*, and can we remedy it? Finally, because the low amount of data on interaction makes a lot of imbalance correction methods (see *e.g.* Branco et al., 2015) hard to apply, which indicators can be optimized with the

27 least amount of positive interaction data?

28 In addition to the literature on SDMs, most of the research on machine learning application to life
29 sciences is focused on genomics (which has very specific challenges, see a recent discussion by Whalen et
30 al., 2021); this sub-field has generated largely different recommendations. Chicco & Jurman (2020)
31 suggest using Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) over F_1 , as a protection against over-inflation of
32 predicted results; Delgado & Tibau (2019) advocate against the use of Cohen's κ , again in favor of MCC, as
33 the relative nature of κ means that a worse classifier can be picked over a better one; similarly, Boughorbel
34 et al. (2017) recommend MCC over other measures of performance for imbalanced data, as it has more
35 desirable statistical properties. More recently, Chicco et al. (2021) temper the apparent supremacy of the
36 MCC, by suggesting it should be replaced by Youden's informedness (also known as J , bookmaker's
37 accuracy, and the True-Skill Statistic) when the imbalance in the dataset may not be representative
38 (Jordano, 2016a, which is the case as networks are under-sampled; 2016b), when classifiers need to be
39 compared across different datasets (for example when predicting a system in space, where undersampling
40 varies locally; McLeod et al., 2021), and when comparing the results to a no-skill (baseline) classifier is
41 important. As these conditions are likely to be met with network data, there is a need to evaluate which
42 measures of classification accuracy respond in a desirable way.

43 A lot of binary classifiers are built by using a regressor (whose task is to guess the value of the interaction,
44 and can therefore return somethings considered to be a pseudo-probability); in this case, the optimal value
45 below which predictions are assumed to be negative (*i.e.* the interaction does not exist) can be determined
46 by picking a threshold maximizing some value on the ROC curve or the PR curve. The area under these
47 curves (ROC-AUC and PR-AUC henceforth) give ideas on the overall goodness of the classifier. Saito &
48 Rehmsmeier (2015) established that the ROC-AUC is biased towards over-estimating performance for
49 imbalanced data; on the contrary, the PR-AUC is able to identify classifiers that are less able to detect
50 positive interactions correctly, with the additional advantage of having a baseline value equal to
51 prevalence. Therefore, it is important to assess whether these two measures return different results when
52 applied to ecological network prediction.

53 We establish that due to the low prevalence of interactions, even poor classifiers applied to food web data
54 will reach a high accuracy; this is because the measure is dominated by the accidental correct predictions
55 of negatives. The F_1 score and positive predictive values are less sensitive to bias, but **TODO**

56 Baseline values

57 Definition of the performance measures

58 κ

59 F_β

60 informedness

61 MCC

62 Confusion matrix with skill and bias

63 In this section, we will assume a network of connectance ρ , *i.e.* having ρS^2 interactions (where S is the
64 species richness), and $(1 - \rho)S^2$ non-interactions. Therefore, the vector describing the *true* state of the
65 network is a column vector $\mathbf{o}^T = [\rho(1 - \rho)]$ (we can safely drop the S^2 terms, as we will work on the
66 confusion matrix, which ends up expressing *relative* values).

67 In order to write the values of the confusion matrix for a hypothetical classifier, we need to define two
68 characteristics: its skill, and its bias. Skill, here, refers to the propensity of the classifier to get the correct
69 answer (*i.e.* to assign interactions where they are, and to not assign them where they are not). A no-skill
70 classifier guesses at random, *i.e.* it will guess interactions with a probability ρ . The predictions of a no-skill
71 classifier can be expressed as a row vector $\mathbf{p} = [\rho(1 - \rho)]$. The confusion matrix \mathbf{M} for a no-skill classifier
72 is given by the element-wise product of these vectors $\mathbf{o} \odot \mathbf{p}$, *i.e.*

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho^2 & \rho(1 - \rho) \\ (1 - \rho)\rho & (1 - \rho)^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

73 In order to regulate the skill of this classifier, we can define a skill matrix \mathbf{S} with diagonal elements equal
74 to s , and off-diagonal elements equal to $(1 - s)$, and re-express the skill-adjusted confusion matrix as
75 $\mathbf{M} \odot \mathbf{S}$, *i.e.*

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho^2 & \rho(1 - \rho) \\ (1 - \rho)\rho & (1 - \rho)^2 \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} s & (1 - s) \\ (1 - s) & s \end{pmatrix}.$$

76 Note that when $s = 0$, $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{M}) = 0$ (the classifier is *always* wrong), when $s = 0.5$, the classifier is no-skill
 77 and guesses at random, and when $s = 1$, the classifier is perfect.

78 The second element we can adjust in this hypothetical classifier is its bias, specifically its tendency to
 79 over-predict interactions. Like above, we can do so by defining a bias matrix \mathbf{B} , where interactions are
 80 over-predicted with probability b , and express the final classifier confusion matrix as $\mathbf{M} \odot \mathbf{S} \odot \mathbf{B}$, i.e.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho^2 & \rho(1-\rho) \\ (1-\rho)\rho & (1-\rho)^2 \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} s & (1-s) \\ (1-s) & s \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} b & b \\ (1-b) & (1-b) \end{pmatrix}.$$

81 The final expression for the confusion matrix in which we can regulate the skill and the bias is

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} s \times b \times \rho^2 & (1-s) \times b \times \rho(1-\rho) \\ (1-s) \times (1-b) \times (1-\rho)\rho & s \times (1-b) \times (1-\rho)^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

82 In all further simulations, the confusion matrix \mathbf{C} is transformed so that it sums to 1.

83 **What are the baseline values of performance measures?**

84 In this section, we will change the values of b , s , and ρ , and report how the main measures discussed in
 85 the introduction (MCC, F_1 , κ , and informedness) are responding to issues with the classifier. Before we do
 86 so, it is important to explain why we will not focus on accuracy too much. Accuracy is the number of
 87 correct predictions ($\text{Tr}(\mathbf{C})$) divided by the sum of the confusion matrix. For a no-skill, no-bias classifier,
 88 accuracy is equal to $\rho^2 + (1-\rho)^2$; for $\rho = 0.05$, this is ≈ 0.90 , and for $\rho = 0.01$, this is equal to ≈ 0.98 . In
 89 other words, the values of accuracy are expected to be so high that they are not really informative (this is
 90 simply explained by the fact that for ρ small, $\rho^2 \ll (1-\rho)^2$). More concerning is the fact that introducing
 91 bias changes the response of accuracy in unexpected ways. Assuming a no-skill classifier, the numerator
 92 of accuracy becomes $b\rho^2 + (1-b)(1-\rho)^2$, which increases when b is low, which specifically means that at
 93 equal skill, a classifier that under-predicts interactions will have higher accuracy than an un-biased
 94 classifier. These issues are absent from balanced accuracy, but should nevertheless lead us to not report
 95 accuracy as the primary measure of network prediction success; moving forward, we will focus on other
 96 measures.

97 In order to examine how MCC, F_1 , κ , and informedness change w.r.t. the imbalance, skill, and bias, we
 98 performed a grid exploration of the values of $\text{logit}(s)$ and $\text{logit}(b)$ linearly from -10 to 10 , of ρ linearly in
 99 $[0, 0.5]$, which is within the range of usually observed connectance values for empirical food webs. Note
 100 that at this point, there is no food web model to speak of; rather, the confusion matrix we discuss can be
 101 obtained for any classification task. Based on the previous discussion, the desirable properties for a
 102 measure of classifier success should be: an increase with classifier skill, especially at low bias; a
 103 hump-shaped response to bias, especially at high skill, and ideally center around $\text{logit}(b) = 0$; an increase
 104 with prevalence up until equiprevalence is reached.

105 [Figure 1 about here.]

106 In fig. 1, we show that none of the four measures satisfy all the considerations at once: F_1 increases with
 107 skill, and increases monotonously with bias; this is because F_1 does not account for true negatives, and the
 108 increase in positive detection masks the over-prediction of interactions. Informedness varies with skill,
 109 reaching 0 for a no-skill classifier, but is entirely unsensitive to bias. Both MCC and κ have the same
 110 behavior, whereby they increase with skill. κ peaks at increasing values of bias for increasing skill, *i.e.* is
 111 likely to lead to the selection of a classifier that over-predicts interactions. By contract, MCC peaks at the
 112 same value, regardless of skill, but this value is not $\text{logit}(b) = 0$: unless at very high classifier skill, MCC
 113 risks leading to a model that over-predicts interactions. In fig. 2, we show that all measures except F_1 give
 114 a value of 0 for a no-skill classifier, and are forced towards their correct maximal value when skill changes
 115 (*i.e.* a more connected networks will have higher values for a skilled classifier, and lower values for a
 116 classifier making mostly mistakes).

117 [Figure 2 about here.]

118 Numerical experiments

119 In the following section, we will generate random networks, and train four binary classifiers (as well as an
 120 ensemble model using the sum of the outputs) on 30% of the interaction data. Networks are generated by
 121 picking random generality g and vulnerability v traits for $S = 200$ species uniformly on the unit interval,
 122 and assigning an interaction from species i to species j if $0.2g_i - \xi \leq v_j \leq 0.2g_i + \xi$, where ξ is a constant

123 regulating the connectance of the networks, and varies uniformly in $[5 \times 10^{-3}, 10^{-1}]$. This model gives
124 fully interval networks that are close analogues to the niche model (Williams & Martinez, 2000), but has
125 the benefit of only relying on two features (g_i, v_j) , and having the exact same rule for all interactions. It is,
126 therefore, a simple case which most classifiers should be able to learn.

127 The training sample is composed of 30% of the 4×10^4 possible entries in the network, *i.e.* $n = 12000$. Out
128 of these interactions, we pick a proportion ν (the training set bias) to be positive, so that the training set
129 has νn interactions, and $(1 - \nu)n$ non-interactions. We vary ν uniformly in $]0, 1[$. This allows to evaluate
130 how the measures of binary classification performance respond to artificially rebalanced dataset for a
131 given network connectance. Note that both ξ and ν are sampled from a distribution rather than being
132 picked on a grid; this is because there is no direct relationship between the value of ξ and the connectance
133 of the simulated network, and therefore the precise value of ξ is not relevant for the analysis of the results.
134 The dataset used for numerical experiments is composed of 20000 such (ξ, ν) pairs, on which four learners
135 are trained: a decision tree regressor, a boosted regression tree, a ridge regressor, and a random forest
136 regressor. All models were taken from the `MLJ.jl` package (Blaom et al., 2020; Blaom & Vollmer, 2020) in
137 Julia 1.7 (Bezanson et al., 2017). In order to pick the best adjacency matrix for a given learner, we
138 performed a thresholding approach using 500 steps on predictions from the testing set, and picking the
139 threshold that maximized Youden's informedness, which is usually the optimized target for imbalanced
140 classification. During the thresholding step, we measured the area under the receiving-operator
141 characteristic (ROC-AUC) and precision-recall (PR-AUC) curves, as measures of overall performance over
142 the range of returned values. We report the ROC-AUC and PR-AUC, as well as a suite of other measures as
143 introduced in the next section, for the best threshold. The ensemble model was generated by summing the
144 predictions of all component models on the testing set (ranged in $[0, 1]$), then put through the same
145 thresholding process. The complete code to run the simulations is given as an appendix.

146 After the simulations were completed, we removed all runs (*i.e.* pairs of ξ and ν) for which at least one of
147 the following conditions was met: the accuracy was 0, the true positive or true negative rates were 0, the
148 connectance was larger than 0.2. This removes both the obviously failed model runs, and the networks
149 that are more densely connected compared to the connectance of empirical food webs (and are therefore
150 less difficult to predict, being less imbalanced).

Effect of training set bias on performance

Required amount of positives to get the best performance

Guidelines for prediction

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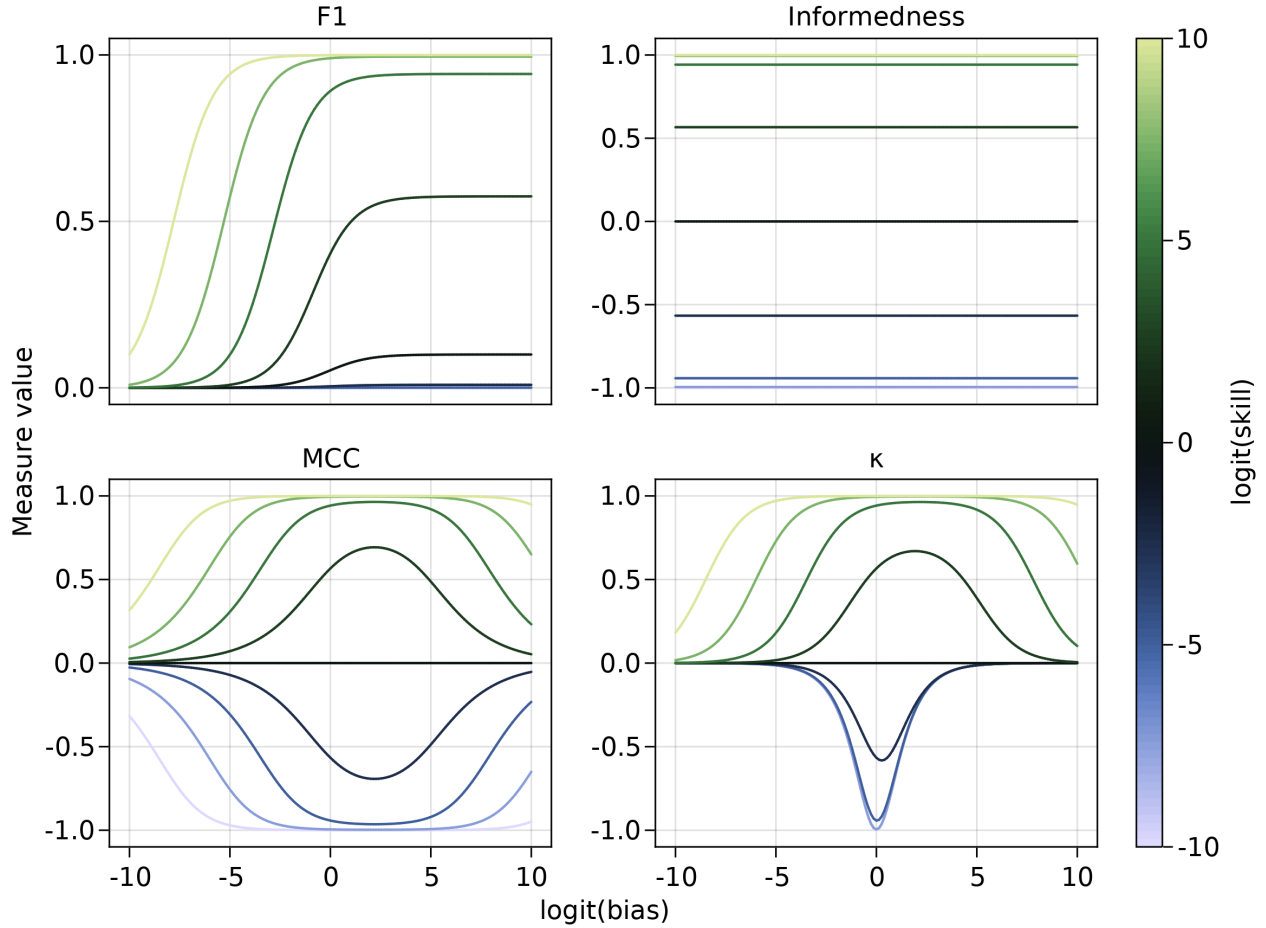


Figure 1: Consequences of changing the classifier skills (s) and bias (b) for a connectance $\rho = 0.15$, on accuracy, F_1 , positive predictive value, and κ . Accuracy increases with skill, but also increases when the bias tends towards estimating *fewer* interactions. The F_1 score increases with skill but also increases when the bias tends towards estimating *more* interactions; PPV behaves in the same way. Interestingly, κ responds as expected to skill (being negative whenever $s < 0.5$), and peaks for values of $b \approx 0.5$; nevertheless, the value of bias for which κ is maximized is *not* $b = 0.5$, but instead increases with classifier skill. In other words, at equal skill, maximizing κ would lead to select a *more* biased classifier.

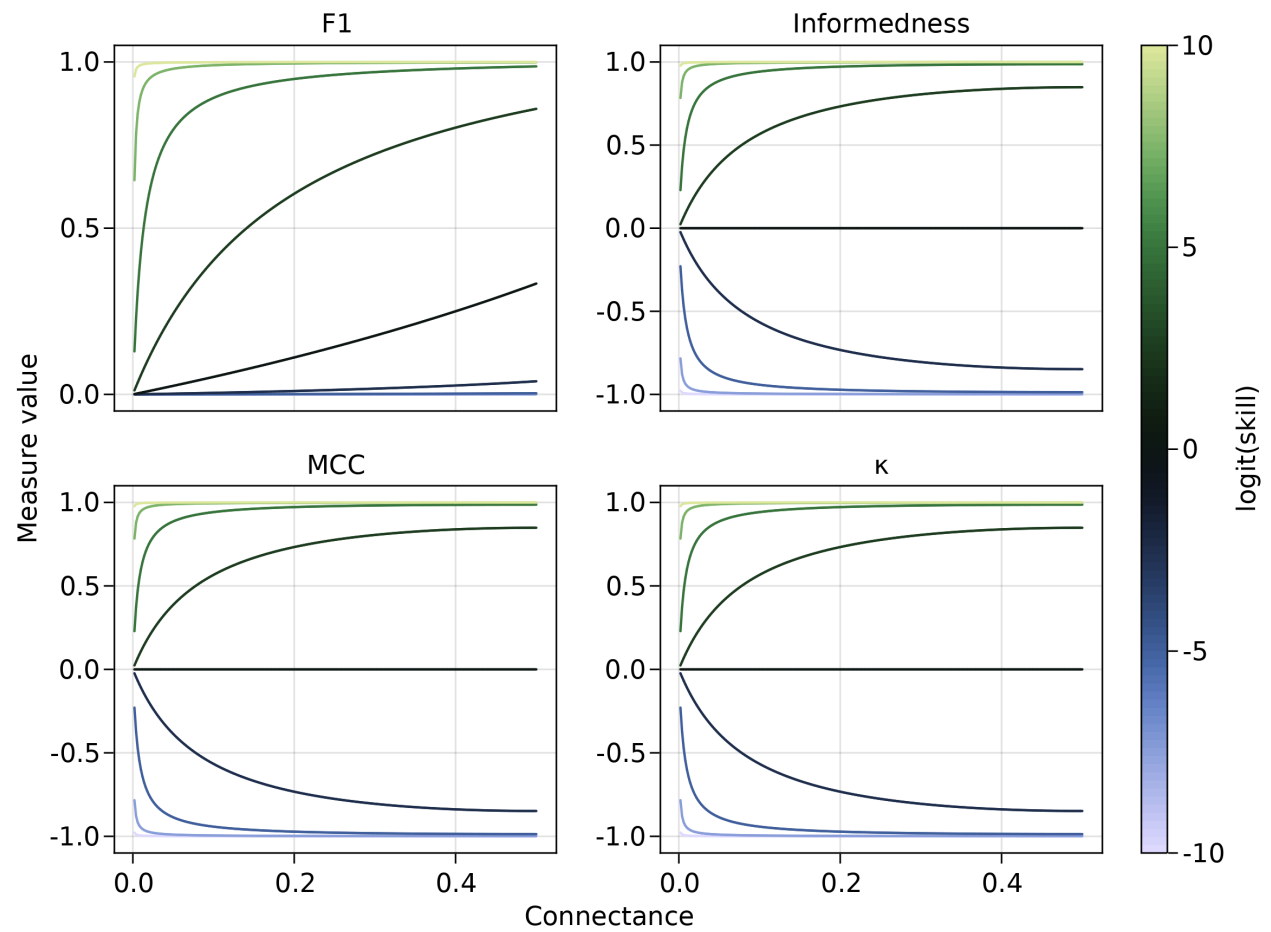


Figure 2: TODO