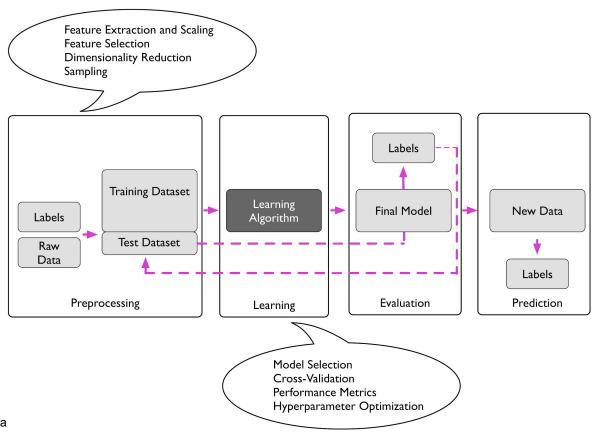
Lecture 14

Model evaluation

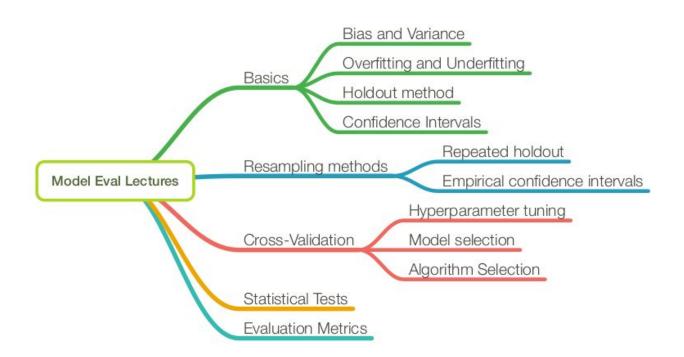
https://github.com/dalcimar/MA28CP-Intro-to-Machine-Learning
UTFPR - Federal University of Technology - Paraná
https://www.dalcimar.com/

Machine learning pipeline



Python Machine Learning by Sebastian Raschka

Lecture overview



Lecturer Overview

- Overfitting and Underfitting
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- Other Forms of Bias

Generalization Performance

Want a model to "generalize" well to unseen data

- "high generalization accuracy" or
- "low generalization error"

Assumptions

i.i.d. assumption: training and test examples are independent and identically distributed (drawn from the same joint probability distribution, P(X, y))

For some random model that **has not been fitted to the training set**, we expect the training error is **approximately similar** the test error

The training error or accuracy provides an **optimistically biased estimate** of the generalization performance

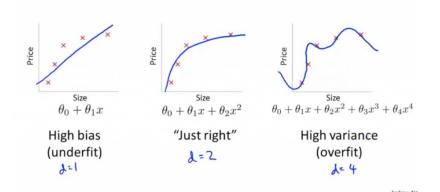
Model Capacity

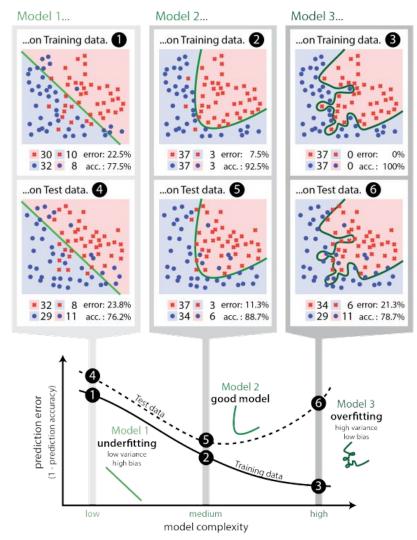
Underfitting: both the training and test error are high

Overfitting: gap between training and test error (where test error is larger)

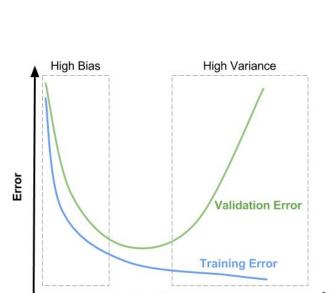
 Large hypothesis space being searched by a learning algorithm -> high tendency to overfit

Bias/variance





Overfitting and Underfit



Model Complexity

Regression illustration

Classification illustration

illustration

Possible

remedies

Symptoms



Underfitting

. Training error close to test

· High training error

error

· High bias





Just right

· Training error slightly

lower than test error





Overfitting

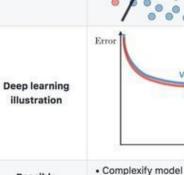
. Training error much lower

· Very low training error

than test error

· High variance





· Add more features

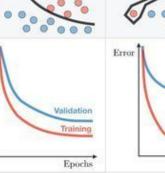
· Train longer



Validation

Training

Epochs





· Perform regularization

· Get more data

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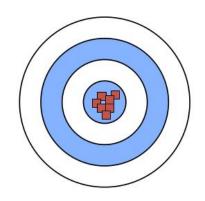
- Decomposition of the loss into bias and variance help us understand learning algorithms, concepts are related to underfitting and overfitting
- Helps explain why ensemble methods (last lecture) might perform better than single models

Low Variance (Precise)

High Variance (Not Precise)

Loss = Bias + Variance + Noise

Low Bias (Accurate)

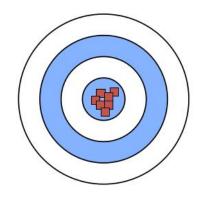


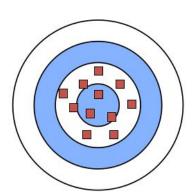
High Bias (Not Accurate)

Low Variance (Precise) High Variance (Not Precise)

Loss = Bias + Variance + Noise

Low Bias (Accurate)





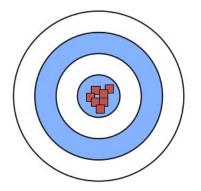
High Bias (Not Accurate)

Low Variance (Precise)

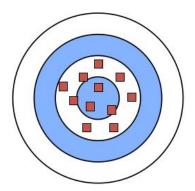
High Variance

Loss = Bias + Variance + Noise

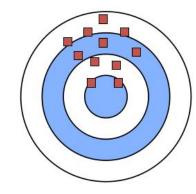
Low Bias (Accurate)



(Not Precise)



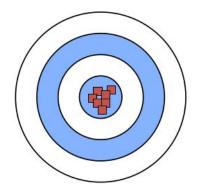
(Not Accurate) High Bias

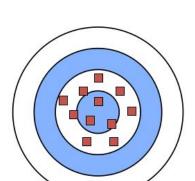


Low Variance (Precise) High Variance (Not Precise)

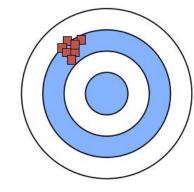
Loss = Bias + Variance + Noise

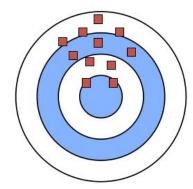
Low Bias (Accurate)

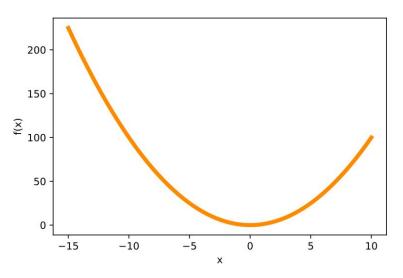




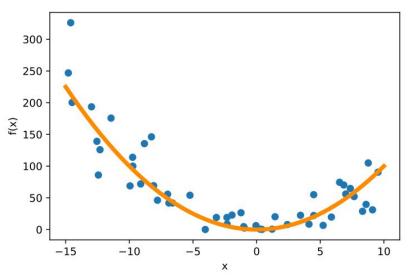
High Bias (Not Accurate)





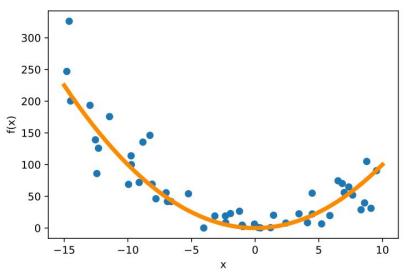


where f(x) is some true (target) function



where f(x) is some true (target) function

the blue dots are a training dataset; here, I added some random Gaussian noise

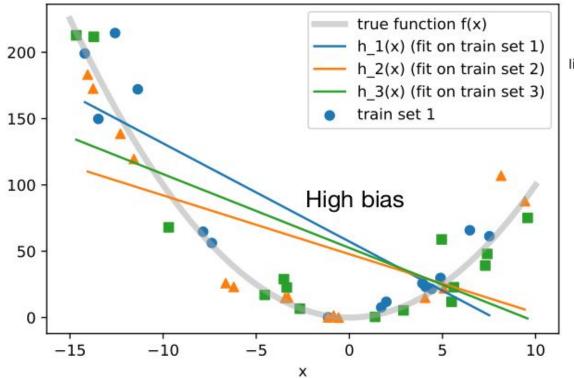


true function f(x)

where f(x) is some true (target) function

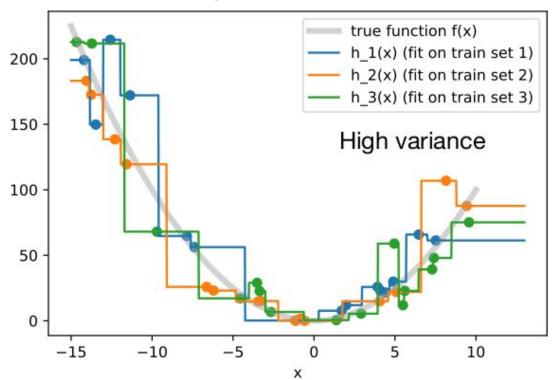
the blue dots are a training dataset; here, I added some random Gaussian noise

Suppose we have multiple training sets



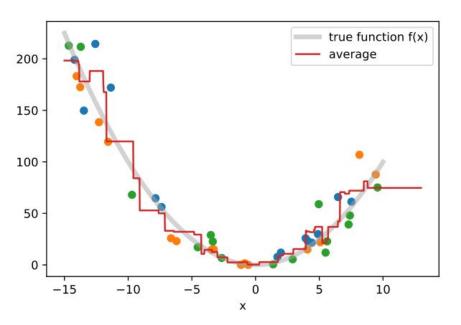
linear regression models

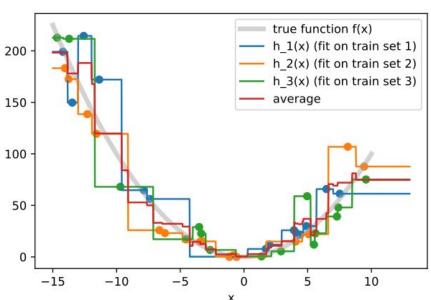
Suppose we have multiple training sets



What happens if we take the average?

Does this remind you of something?





Terminology

Point estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of some parameter θ

(could also be a function, e.g., the hypothesis is an estimator of some target function)

$$\mathsf{Bias} = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

General Definition

$$\mathsf{Bias}[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

$$Var[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}^2] - (E[\hat{\theta}])^2$$

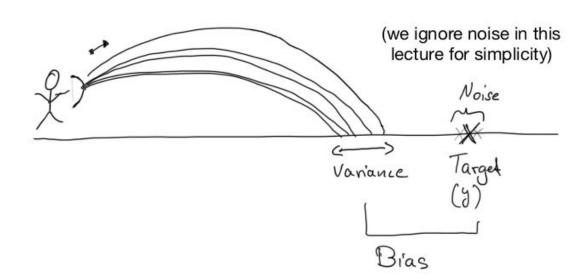
$$Var[\hat{\theta}] = E \left[(E[\hat{\theta}] - \hat{\theta})^2 \right]$$

Terminology

$$\mathsf{Bias}[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

$$Var[\hat{\theta}] = E \left[(E[\hat{\theta}] - \hat{\theta})^2 \right]$$

Intuition



Terminology

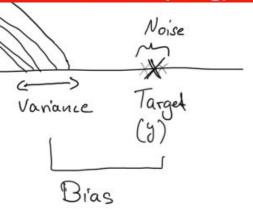
$$\mathrm{Bias}[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

Bias is the difference between the average estimator from different training samples and the true value.

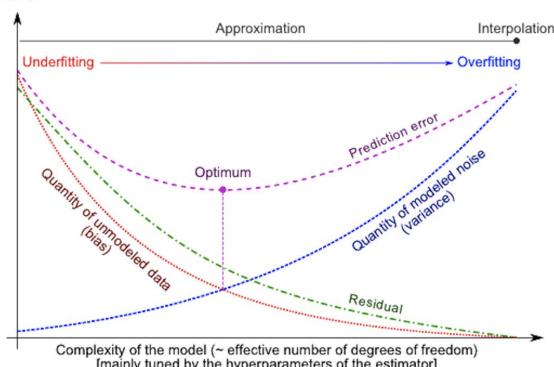
(The expectation is over the training sets.)

$$Var[\hat{\theta}] = E\left[(E[\hat{\theta}] - \hat{\theta})^2 \right]$$

The variance provides an estimate of how much the estimate varies as we vary the training data (e.g., by resampling).



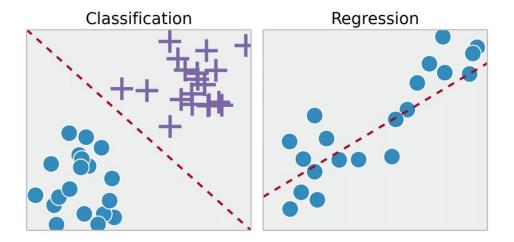
Loss = Bias + Variance + Noise

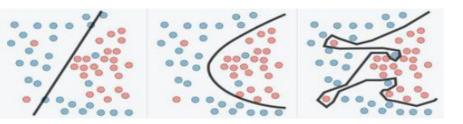


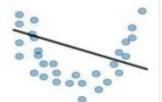
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Classification x regression



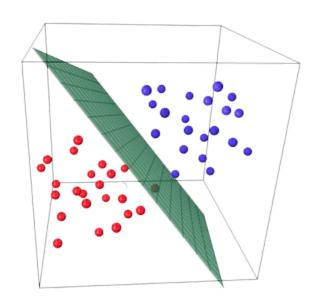


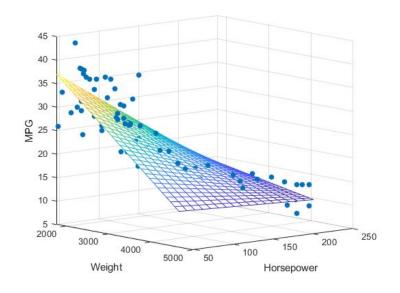






Classification x regression





0-1 loss in classification

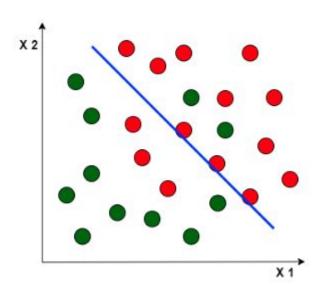
accuracy = 1-error rate

•
$$0.8 = 1 - 0.2$$

0-1 loss

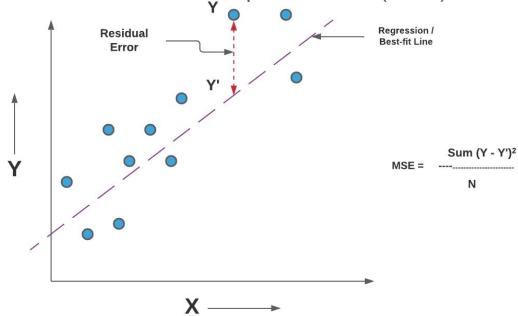
•
$$L_{0-1} = 5$$

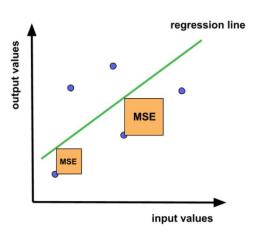
$$L_{0-1}(y_i, \hat{y}_i) = 1(\hat{y}_i \neq y_i)$$



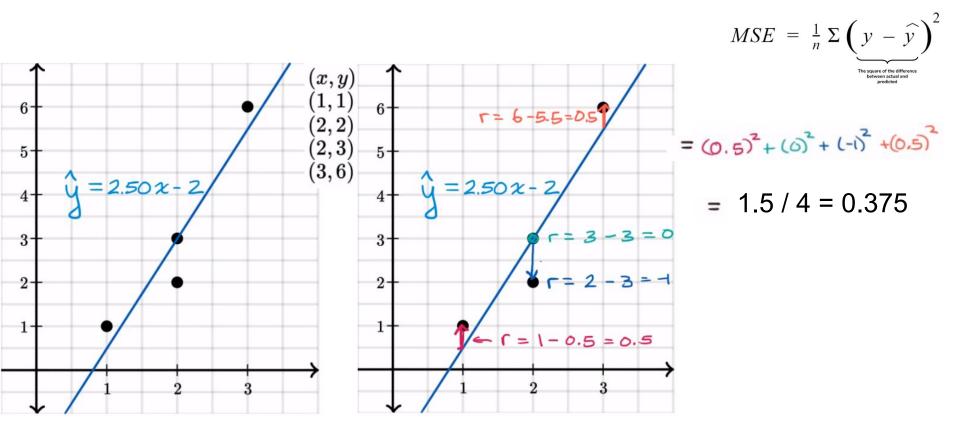
MSE loss in regression

Residuals and Mean Squared Error (MSE)





MSE loss in regression



Let's code!



7.2.1. Boston house prices dataset

Data Set Characteristics:

Attribute Values:

Creator:

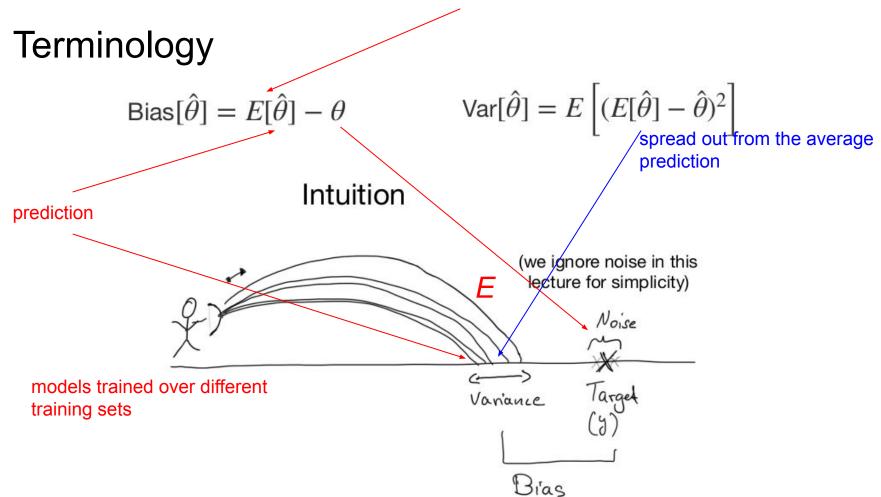
Number of Instances:	506
Number of Attributes:	13 numeric/categorical predictive. Median Value (attribute 14) is usually the target.
Attribute Information (in order):	 CRIM per capita crime rate by town ZN proportion of residential land zoned for lots over 25,000 sq.ft. INDUS proportion of non-retail business acres per town CHAS Charles River dummy variable (= 1 if tract bounds river; 0 otherwise) NOX nitric oxides concentration (parts per 10 million) RM average number of rooms per dwelling AGE proportion of owner-occupied units built prior to 1940 DIS weighted distances to five Boston employment centres RAD index of accessibility to radial highways TAX full-value property-tax rate per \$10,000 PTRATIO pupil-teacher ratio by town B 1000(Bk - 0.63)^2 where Bk is the proportion of blacks by town LSTAT % lower status of the population MEDV Median value of owner-occupied homes in \$1000's
Missing	None

Harrison, D. and Rubinfeld, D.L.

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average prediction over the training sets



$$\mathrm{Bias}[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

$$\mathrm{Var}[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}^2] - (E[\hat{\theta}])^2$$

$$\mathrm{Var}[\hat{\theta}] = E\left[(E[\hat{\theta}] - \hat{\theta})^2\right]$$

"ML Notation" for Squared Error Loss

$$\hat{y} = \hat{f}(x) = h(x)$$
 prediction

 $S = (y - \hat{y})^2$ squared error

Loss = Bias + Variance + Noise

for simplicity, we ignore the noise term

(Next slides: the expectation is over the training data, i.e., the average estimator from different training samples)

$$y = f(x)$$
 target

"ML Notation" for

Squared Error Loss

$$\hat{y} = \hat{f}(x) = h(x)$$
 prediction

$$(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$$

= $a^2 + b^2 - 2ab$

$$S = (y - \hat{y})^2$$
 squared error

$$S = (y - \hat{y})^2$$

$$(y - \hat{y})^2 = (y - E[\hat{y}] + E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^2$$

= $(y - E[\hat{y}])^2 + (E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^2 - 2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})$

$$S = (y - \hat{y})^{2}$$

$$(y - \hat{y})^{2} = (y - E[\hat{y}] + E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2}$$

$$= (y - E[\hat{y}])^{2} + (E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2} + 2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})$$

$$= (y - E[\hat{y}])^{2} + (E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2} + 2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2}$$

$$E[S] = E[(y - \hat{y})^{2}]$$

$$E[(y - \hat{y})^{2}] = (y - E[\hat{y}])^{2} + E[(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2}]$$

$$= Bias^{2} + Var$$

$$Bias[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$$

$$Var[\hat{\theta}] = E[\hat{\theta}^{2}] - (E[\hat{\theta}])^{2}$$

$$Var[\hat{\theta}] = E[(E[\hat{\theta}] - \hat{\theta})^{2}]$$

$$S = (y - \hat{y})^{2}$$

$$(y - \hat{y})^{2} = (y - E[\hat{y}] + E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2}$$

$$= (y - E[\hat{y}])^{2} + (E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^{2} - 2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})$$

$$E[2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})] = 2E[(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})]$$

$$= 2(y - E[\hat{y}])E[(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})]$$

$$= 2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[E[\hat{y}]] - E[\hat{y}])$$

$$= 2(y - E[\hat{y}])(E[\hat{y}] - E[\hat{y}])$$

$$= 0$$

Let's code!

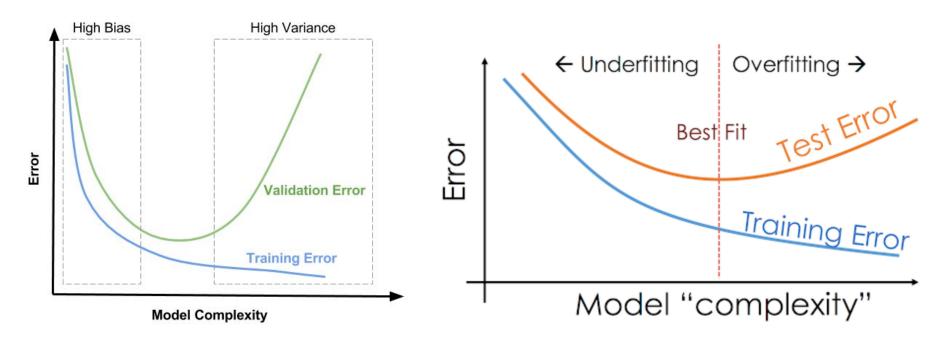
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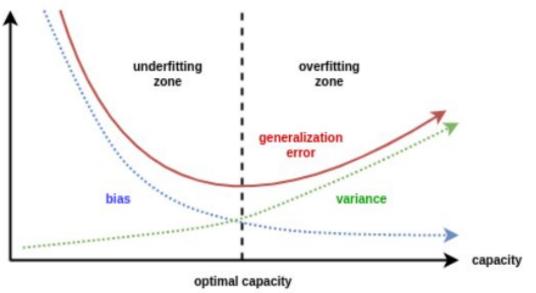
How is this related to overfitting and underfitting?

$$E[(y - \hat{y})^2] = (y - E[\hat{y}])^2 + E[(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^2]$$

Bias² + Variance

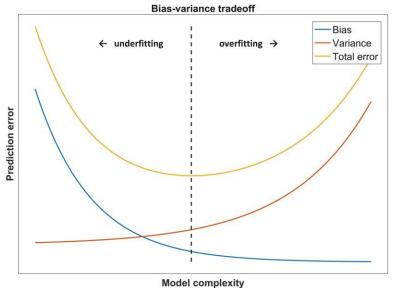


How is this related to overfitting and underfitting?



Minimize 2 error sources!

bias-variance tradeoff...



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Bias-Variance Decomposition of 0-1 Loss

Domingos, P. (2000). *A unified bias-variance decomposition*. In Proceedings of 17th International Conference on Machine Learning (pp. 231-238).

"several authors have proposed bias-variance decompositions related to zero-one loss (Kong & Dietterich, 1995; Breiman, 1996b; Kohavi & Wolpert, 1996; Tibshirani, 1996; Friedman, 1997). However, each of these decompositions has significant shortcomings."

Dietterich, T. G., & Kong, E. B. (1995). Machine learning bias, statistical bias, and statistical variance of decision tree algorithms. Technical report, Department of Computer Science, Oregon State University.

Domingos, P. (2000). A unified bias-variance decomposition. In Proceedings of 17th International Conference on Machine Learning (pp. 231-238).

Bias-Variance Decomposition of 0-1 Loss

Squared Loss

$$(y - \hat{y})^2$$

0-1 Loss

$$L(y, \hat{y})$$

Expectation over trainings sets to a particular sample

$$E[(y-\hat{y})^2]$$

$$E[(y - \hat{y})^2] = (y - E[\hat{y}])^2 + E[(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^2]$$

Bias² + Variance

Main prediction -> Mean

Bias²:
$$(y - E[\hat{y}])^2$$

Variance:
$$E[(E[\hat{y}] - \hat{y})^2]$$

$$E[L(y,\hat{y})]$$

$$L(y, E[\hat{y}])$$

$$E[L(\hat{y}, E[\hat{y}])]$$

Bias-Variance Decomposition of 0-1 Loss

0-1 Loss

$$Loss = P(\hat{y} \neq y)$$

Variance can improve loss!! Why is that so?

Loss =
$$P(\hat{y} \neq y) = 1 - P(\hat{y} = y) = 1 - P(\hat{y} \neq \bar{y})$$

Loss = Bias - Variance

Domingos, P. (2000). A unified bias-variance decomposition 17th International Conference on Machine Learning (pp. 23 1-230).

includes noise

and more general: Loss = Bias + c Variance

or more precisely $c_1N(x) + B(x) + c_2V(x)$

where, e.g., $c_1 = c_2 = 1$ for squared loss

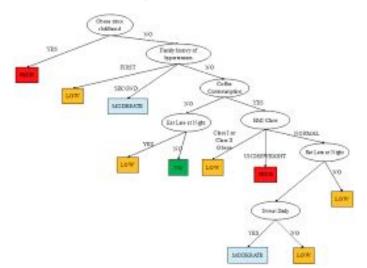
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Statistical Bias vs "Machine Learning Bias"

"Machine learning bias" sometimes also called "inductive bias"

- e.g., decision tree algorithms consider small trees before they consider large trees
 - (if training data can be classified by small tree, large trees are not considered)



Hypothesis Space

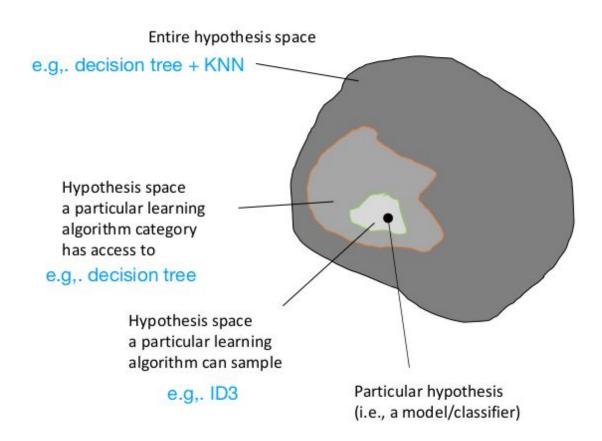
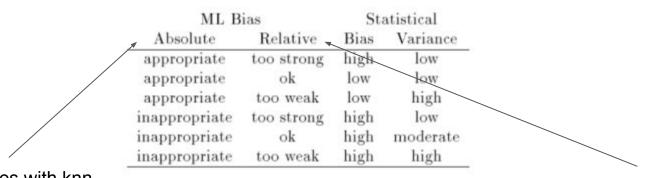


Table 1: Relationship between ML bias and statistical bias and variance



e.g. classify time series with knn e.g. use a bernoulli NB on gaussian data

e.g. DT stump e.g. DT unpruned othesis space of an

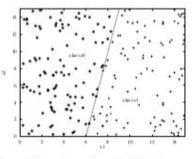
bias can be characterized as appropriate or inappropriate. The hypothesis space of an inappropriate absolute bias does not contain any good approximations to the target function. An appropriate bias does contain good approximations.

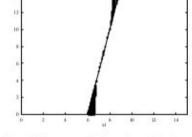
A relative bias can be described as being too strong or too weak. A bias that is too strong is one that, though it may not rule out good approximations to the target function, prefers other, poorer hypotheses instead. A bias that is too weak does not focus the learning algorithm on the appropriate hypotheses but instead allows it to consider too many hypotheses.

Bias-Variance Simulation of C 4.5

Dietterich, T. G., & Kong, E. B. (1995). Machine learning bias, statistical bias, and statistical variance of decision tree algorithms. Technical report, Department of Computer Science, Oregon State University.

- simulation on 200 training sets with 200 examples each (0-1 labels)
 - 200 hypotheses
- test set: 22,801 examples (1 data point for each grid point)
- mean error rate is 536 errors (out of the 22,801 test examples)
 - · 297 as a result of bias
 - 239 as a result of variance





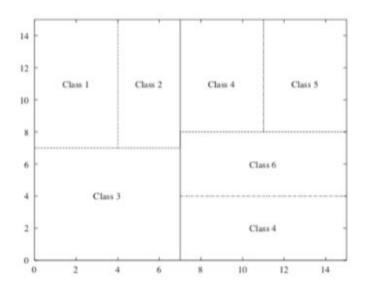
(remember that trees use a "staircase" to approximate diagonal boundaries)

Figure 1: A two-class problem with 200 training examples.

Figure 2: Bias errors of C4.5 on the problem from Figure 1.

Bias-Variance Simulation of C 4.5

Dietterich, T. G., & Kong, E. B. (1995). Machine learning bias, statistical bias, and statistical variance of decision tree algorithms. Technical report, Department of Computer Science, Oregon State University.



errors due to bias: 0 errors due to variance: 17

ML Bias		Statistical		
Absolute	Relative	Bias	Variance	
appropriate	too strong	high	low	•
appropriate	ok	low	low	
appropriate	too weak	low	high	
inappropriate	too strong	high	low	
inappropriate	ok	high	moderate	
inappropriate	too weak	high	high	

"Fairness" Bias

"The term bias is often used to refer to demographic disparities in algorithmic systems that are objectionable for societal reasons."

Barocas, S., Hardt, M., & Narayanan, A. Fairness and Machine Learning. https://fairmlbook.org/introduction.html

Microsoft's AI Chatbot Tay



With chatbots becoming popular across social networks, Microsoft launched its version for Twitter users in March 2016. Monikered 'Tay', it was programmed to have casual conversations in the language of a typical millennial.

According to the company, Tay leveraged AI to learn from these interactions to hold better conversations in the future. However, the Twitter chatbot had to be taken down less than 24 hours post its launch.

Targeting its vulnerabilities, trolls on the microblogging website manipulated Tay into making deeply sexist and racist statements.

Following this debacle, Peter Lee, Microsoft's corporate VP for AI and research issued a public apology, which stated that the company took "full responsibility for not seeing this possibility ahead of time."

Amazon's Al-Powered Recruiting Tool



According to a <u>Reuters report</u>, Amazon had been building machine learning (ML) programs since 2014 to review job applicants' resumes. But it is well known that AI has a big <u>bias problem</u> and the company demonstrated this with example in 2015 when it realised that its new system was not rating candidates in a gender-neutral way. That is, its ML specialists had taught their own AI to prefer male candidates over female ones.

This happened because these models were trained to verify applicants by tracking patterns in resumes submitted to the company over a 10-year period.

The Seattle company reportedly disbanded the team a few years later after failing to develop or work to resolve that problem.

Facial Recognition Failure In China



Back in November 2018, Chinese police admitted to wrongly shaming a billionaire businesswoman after a facial recognition system designed to catch jaywalkers 'caught' her on an advert on a passing bus.

Traffic police in major Chinese cities deploy smart cameras that use facial recognition techniques to detect jaywalkers, whose names and faces then show up on a public display screen. After this went viral on Chinese social media, a CloudWalk researcher stated that the algorithm's lack of live detection could have been the problem.

Amazon's Rekognition



In 2018, Members of US Congress rained down on Amazon after its facial recognition software falsely matched 28 congresspeople with <u>mugshots of criminals</u>. In fact, according to the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), nearly 40% of the matches were of people of colour, indicating that the technology is racially biased.

Gender prediction

Facial Recognition Is Accurate, if You're a White Guy

Error Rates in Commercial Gender Classification Products

20.8%

1.7%

6.0%

0.0%

34.5%

6.0%

0.7%

0.8%

34.7%

7.1%

12.0%

0.3%

Dark Skinned Female

Dark Skinned Male

Light Skinned Male

Color Matters in Computer Vision

Facial recognition algorithms made by Microsoft, IBM and Face++ were more likely to misidentify the gender of black women than white men.







Gender was misidentified in up to 1 percent of lighter-skinned males in a set of 385 photos.







Gender was misidentified in up to 7 percent of lighter-skinned females in a set of 296 photos.







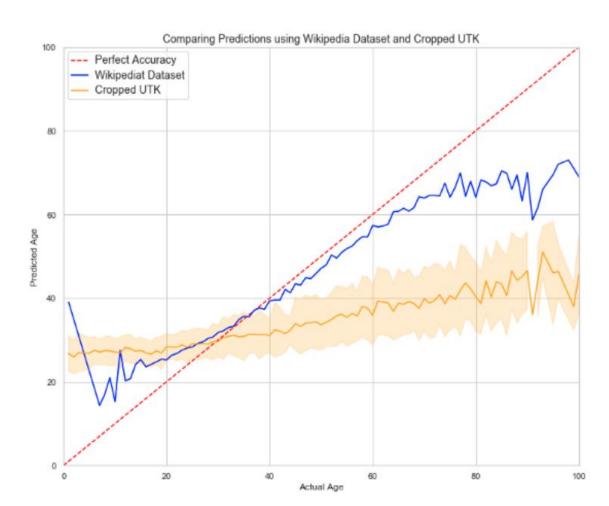
Gender was misidentified in up to 12 percent of darker-skinned males in a set of 318 photos.





Gender was misidentified in 35 percent of darker-skinned females in a set of 271 photos.

Age prediction



Mamography



Mammography databases have a lot of images in them, but they suffer from one problem that has caused significant issues in recent years — almost all of the x-rays are from white women. This may not sound like a big deal, but actually, black women have been shown to be 42 percent more likely to die from breast cancer due to a wide range of factors that may include differences in detection and access to health care. Thus, training an algorithm primarily on white women adversely impacts black women in this case.