

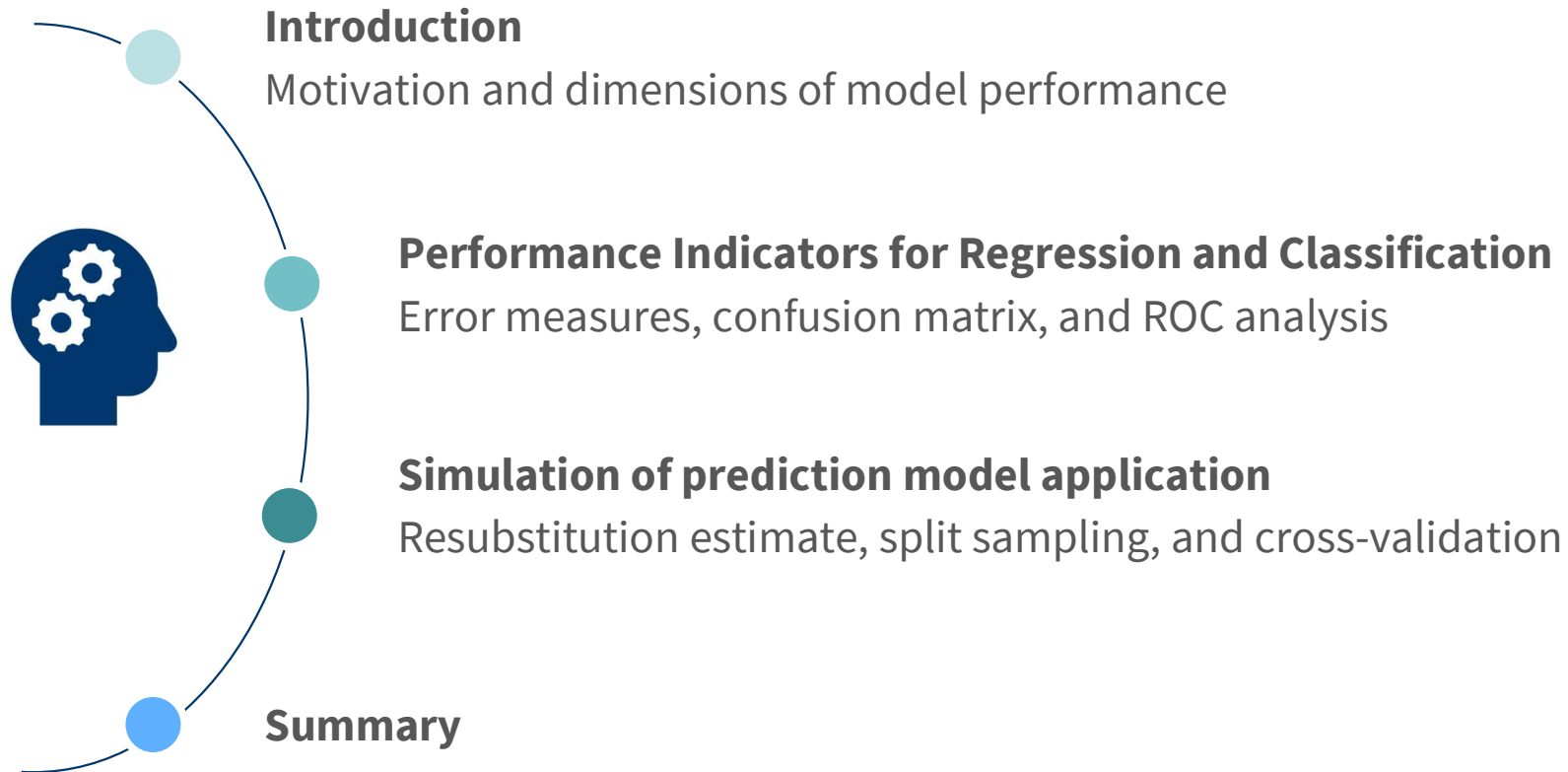


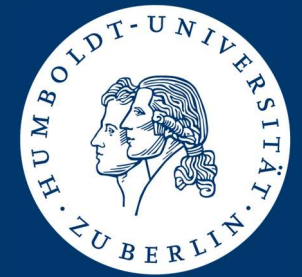
Business Analytics & Data Science

# Prediction Model Assessment

Stefan Lessmann

# Agenda





# Introduction

Motivation and dimensions of model performance

# Relevance of Model Assessment

## ■ Machine learning paradigm

- Inductive approach toward problem solving
- Empirical evaluation is instrumental to that approach

## ■ Make informed modeling decisions

- Theory support often unavailable
  - Which learning algorithm is most suitable?
  - What is the best way to impute missing values?
  - Should we truncate outliers?
- Expert judgement highly useful but expertise is scarce and costly

## ■ Accountability and replicability

# Dimensions of Model Performance

Many factors determine the value of a machine learning model

## Accuracy

How well does the model predict? For example, is it able to distinguish good and bad risks with high accuracy?

## Scalability

How much time is needed to build and to apply the model? Does it scale to large data sets?

## Robustness

Can the model cope with noise and missing values? How about irrelevant and correlated attributes?

## Comprehensibility

Can we understand the model? Is it clear how it transforms attribute values into predictions of the response variable?

## Justifiability

Is the use of attributes within the model in line with business rules/ understanding?

## Calibration

**For probability forecasts!**  
Out of 100 events predicted to have 90% chance, about 90 should have occurred.  
True?



# Assessing Predictive Performance – Intuition and Ingredients

## Comparing model-based forecasts to actual outcomes

### ■ The more forecasts agree with true values of the target better the model

### ■ Question 1: How measures agreement between forecasts & actuals?

- ☐ Standard error measures for regression and classification
- ☐ Does an accuracy indicator reflect business performance?

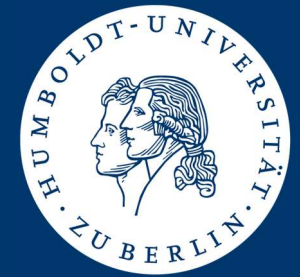
### ■ Question 2: How to know the true values of the target variable?

- ☐ The point of developing a predictive model is to forecast future values of the target
- ☐ We never know actual target values a priori
- ☐ How to assess a model prior to deployment?

### ■ Two core ingredients of forecast accuracy evaluation

- ☐ Measures for predictive performance
- ☐ Practice to organize the available data

$Y$	$\hat{Y}$
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...
...	...



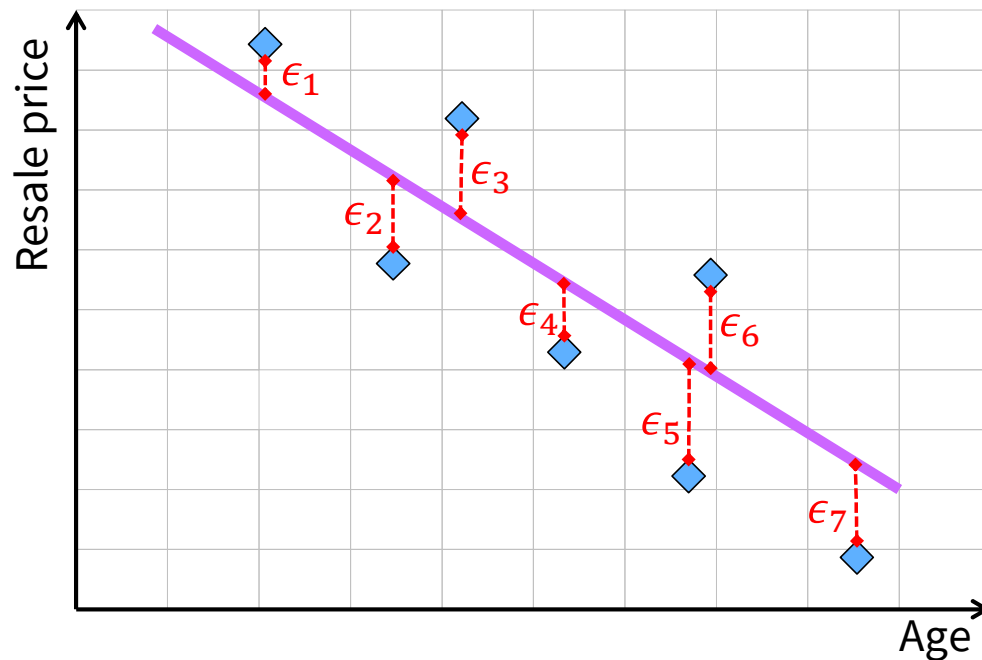
# Performance Indicators for Regression and Classification

Error measures, confusion matrix, and ROC analysis

# Measuring Forecast Accuracy in Regression

Compare model-based forecasts to true realizations of the target variable

- Model residuals capture the difference between a true outcome and a forecast
- Error measures aggregate residuals into an overall measure of forecast error
- Forecast error and accuracy are just two sides of one coin



$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_1 &= y_1 - \hat{y}_1 \\ \epsilon_2 &= y_2 - \hat{y}_2 \\ \epsilon_3 &= y_3 - \hat{y}_3 \\ \epsilon_4 &= y_4 - \hat{y}_4 \\ \epsilon_5 &= y_5 - \hat{y}_5 \\ \epsilon_6 &= y_6 - \hat{y}_6 \\ \epsilon_7 &= y_7 - \hat{y}_7 \end{aligned}$$
$$TE = \sum_{i=1}^{n=7} \epsilon_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n=7} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)$$

Total error (TE)

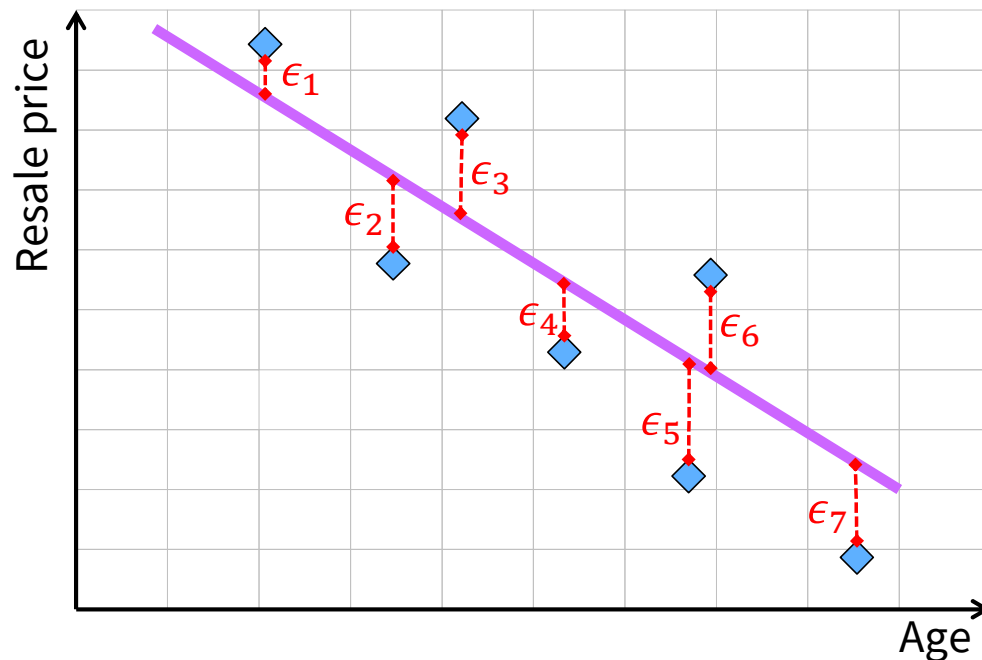
- Positive and negative residuals even out
  - Can be used as a measure of model bias (see later)
  - Less useful for error/accuracy measures
- Magnitude depends on the number of data points



# Common Error Measures for Regression

## Squared error measures

- Measures of squared errors emphasizes large residuals
- Note that RMSE is of the same scale as the target variable
  - For example, resale price is measured in USD
  - MSE is measured in USD<sup>2</sup> whereas RMSE is measures in USD



Squared error (SE)

$$SE = \sum_{i=1}^{n=7} \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n=7} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Mean squared-error (MSE)

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

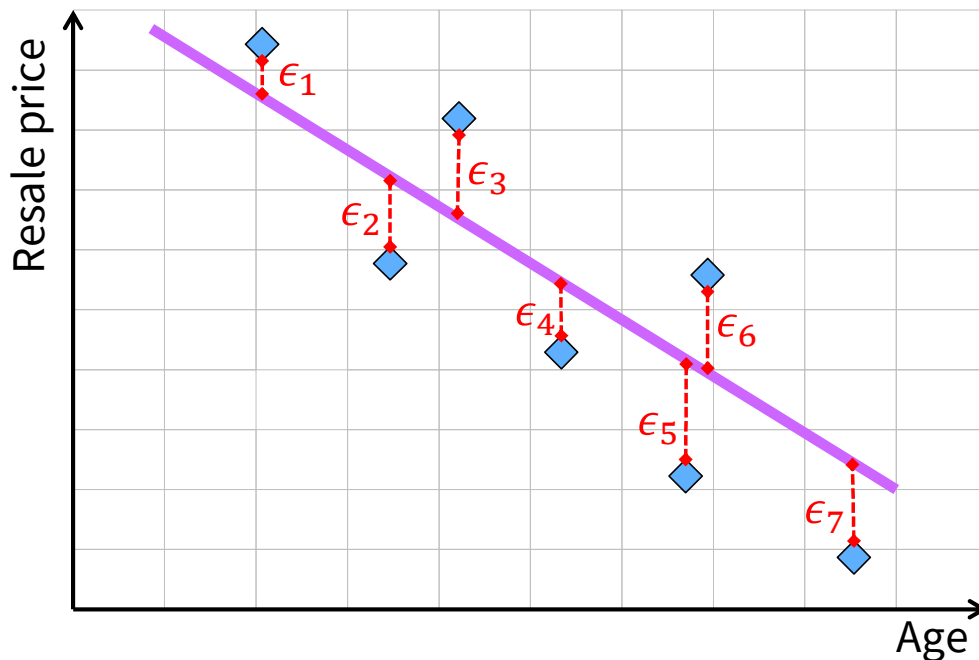
Root-mean squared-error (RMSE)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$$

# Common Error Measures for Regression

## Absolute error measures

- Measures of absolute errors are perhaps easiest to understand
- Mathematically, they are less convenient to work with
  - No easy derivative c.f. squared error
  - Matters if we use a measure for both, model training and model evaluation



Absolute error (AE)

$$AE = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

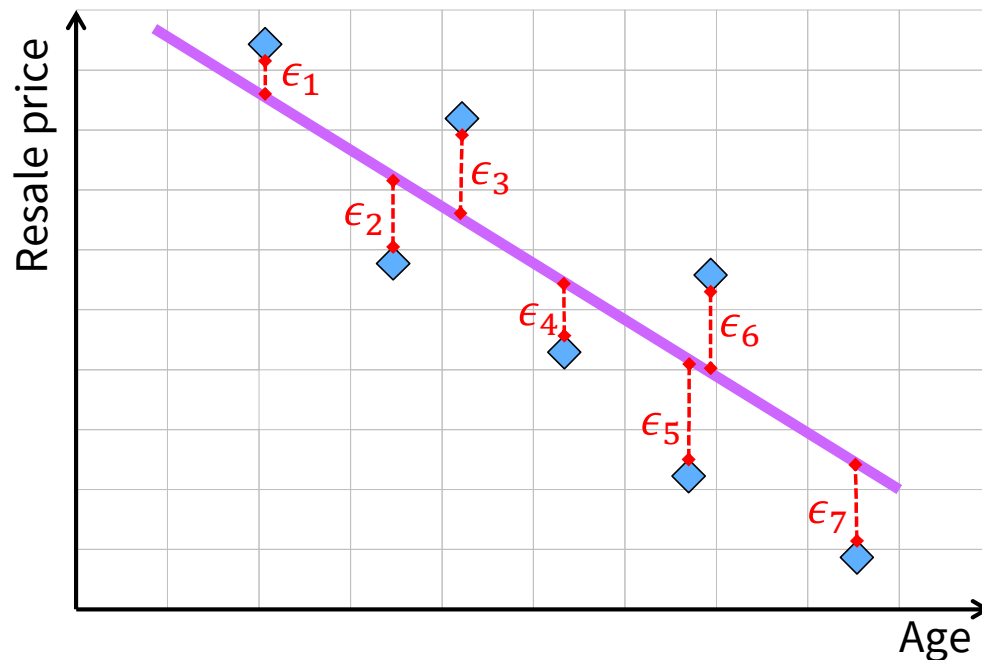
Mean absolute error (MAE)

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \hat{y}_i|$$

# Common Error Measures for Regression

## Percentage error measures

- Consider ratio of the error to actual value
- Supports comparing models for different outcomes
  - Resale price forecasting model with actual prices in USD
  - Sales forecasting model with outcome in units sold
  - But always be careful with comparisons of different models



Mean percentage error

$$MPE = \frac{100\%}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{y_i}$$

Mean absolute percentage error

$$MAPE = \frac{100\%}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{y_i} \right|$$

Symmetric MAPE

$$sMAPE = \frac{100\%}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|y_i - \hat{y}_i|}{|y_i| + |\hat{y}_i|}$$

# Common Performance Indicators for Classification

Confusion matrix for binary classification problem

		Actual Class	
		Positive ( $Y = 1$ )	Negative ( $Y = 0$ )
Predicted Class	Positive ( $\hat{Y} = 1$ )	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
	Negative ( $\hat{Y} = 0$ )	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

- Classification accuracy / Percentage correctly classified

$$\frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

- Classification error

$$\frac{FP + FN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

- Specificity

$$\frac{TN}{TN + FP}$$

- Sensitivity / Recall

$$\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

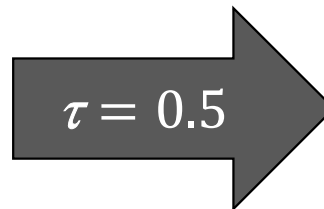
- Precision

$$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

# Common Performance Indicators for Classification

Confusion matrix is a function of the classification cut-off

$i$	$Y$	$\hat{p}(Y = 1 X)$
1	1	0.9
2	1	0.7
3	1	0.6
4	0	0.6
5	0	0.2



	Positive ( $Y = 1$ )	Negative ( $Y = 0$ )
Positive ( $\hat{Y} = 1$ )	3	1
Negative ( $\hat{Y} = 0$ )	0	1

To obtain a **discrete class prediction**, compare  $\hat{p}(Y = 1|X)$  to **cut-off**  $\tau$ :  
 predict  $\hat{Y} = 1$  if  $\hat{p}(Y = 1|X) > \tau$ ,  
 and  $\hat{Y} = 0$  otherwise.

# Common Performance Indicators for Classification

## Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve

### ■ Generalization of the confusion matrix

- One confusion matrix corresponds to one cut-off
- ROC curve depicts classifier performance across **all cut-offs**

### ■ Two-dimensional graph of sensitivity (TP rate) vs. 1-specificity (FP rate)

- Passes through the points (0,0) where all cases are classified as Positive
- And the point (1,1) where all cases are classified as Negative
- Guessing classes at random produces a straight line through (0,0) and (1,1)
  - Naïve benchmark
  - Every classifier's ROC curve should be above the diagonal
- Optimal point (0,1), classifier makes no errors
- The more the ROC curve approaches the optimal point, the better the classifier

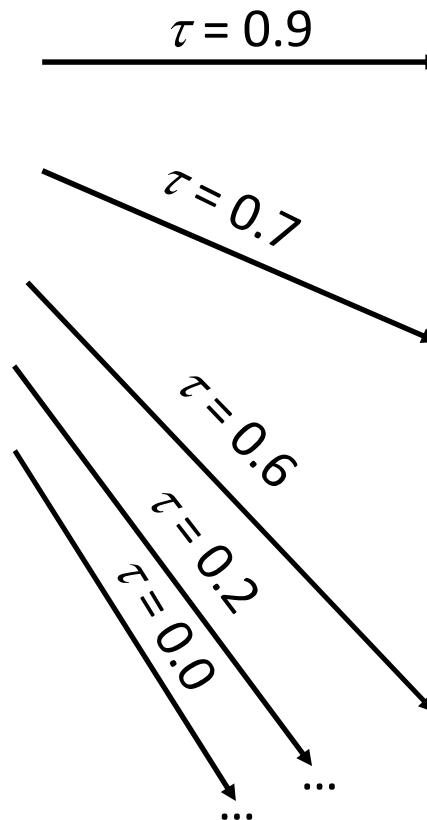


# Construction of the ROC Curve

Visualization of classifier performance across all cut-offs

$i$	$Y$	$\hat{p}(Y = 1 X)$
1	1	0.9
2	1	0.7
3	1	0.6
4	0	0.6
5	0	0.2

Compare  $\hat{p}(Y = 1|X)$  to **cut-off**  $\tau$ :  
 predict  $\hat{Y} = 1$  if  $\hat{p}(Y = 1|X) > \tau$ ,  
 and  $\hat{Y} = 0$  otherwise.



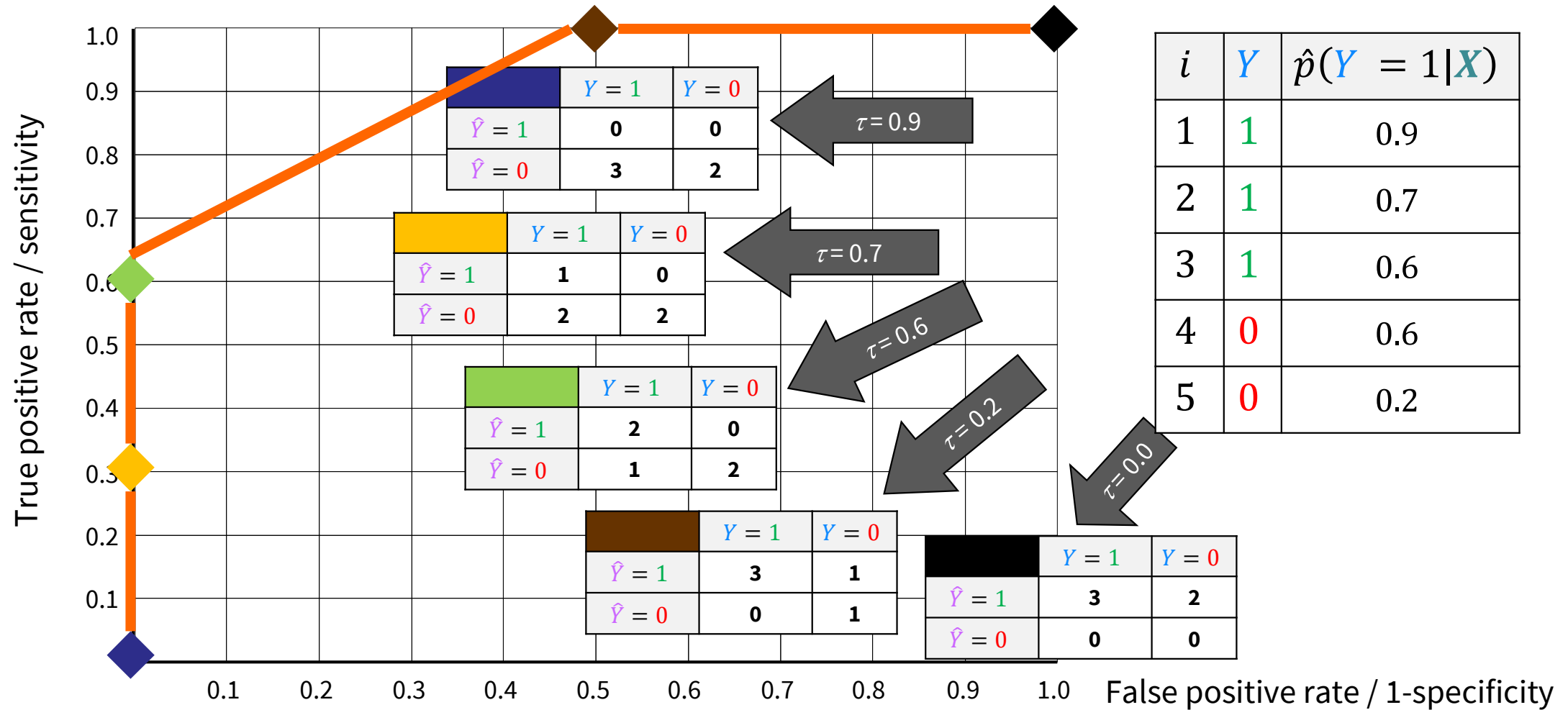
	Positive ( $Y = 1$ )	Negative ( $Y = 0$ )
Positive ( $\hat{Y} = 1$ )	0	0
Negative ( $\hat{Y} = 0$ )	3	2

	Positive ( $Y = 1$ )	Negative ( $Y = 0$ )
Positive ( $\hat{Y} = 1$ )	1	0
Negative ( $\hat{Y} = 0$ )	2	2

	Positive ( $Y = 1$ )	Negative ( $Y = 0$ )
Positive ( $\hat{Y} = 1$ )	2	0
Negative ( $\hat{Y} = 0$ )	1	2

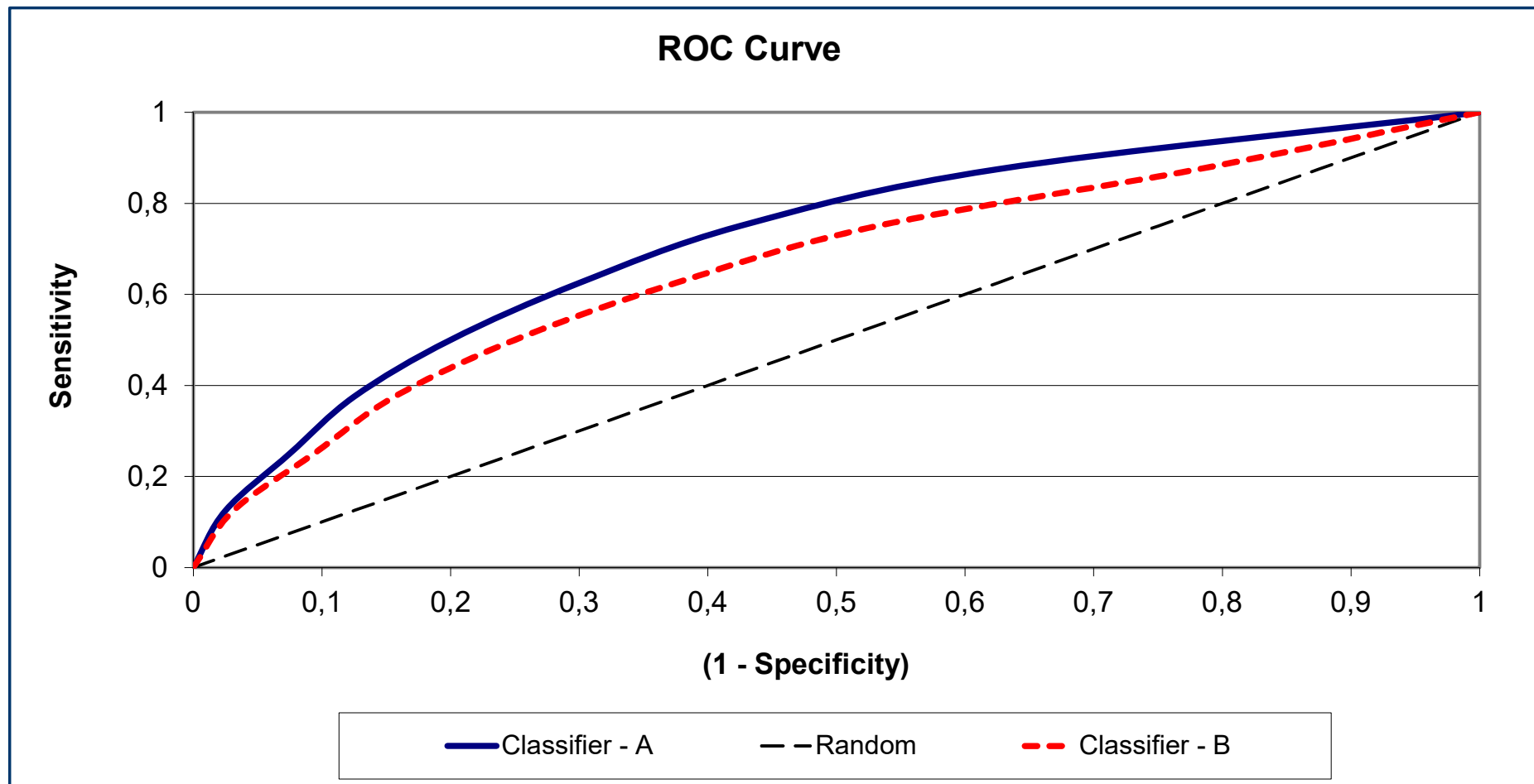
# Construction of the ROC Curve

Visualization of classifier performance across all cut-offs



# Construction of the ROC Curve

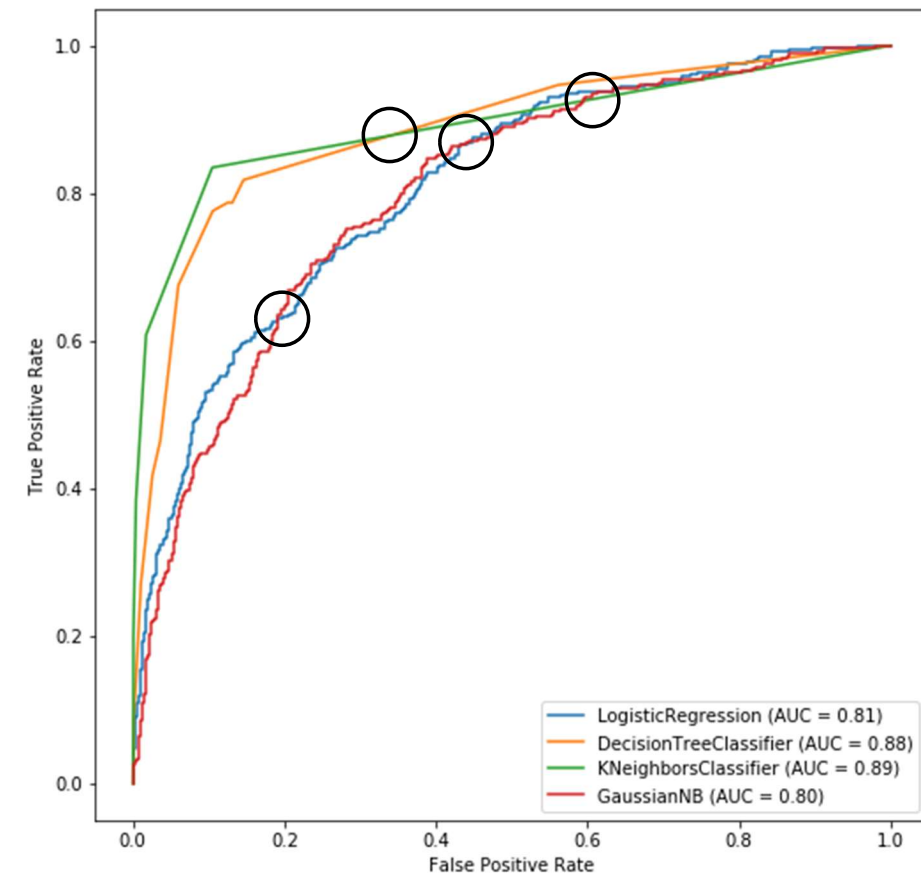
Comparing two classifiers (A and B) in ROC space



# The Area Under the ROC Curve

Summarizes the ROC curve in a single number

- **Useful to compare intersecting ROC curves**
- **The higher the better**
  - Classifier is on average closer to the optimum
  - Good classifier: AUC well above 0.5
- **Equivalent to Wilcoxon or Mann-Whitney or U- statistic**
  - The AUC estimates the probability that a randomly chosen positive instance is correctly ranked higher than a randomly chosen negative (Hanley and McNeil, 1982)
  - Assesses classifier's ability to discriminate between positives and negatives?
  - AUC is a **ranking indicator**
  - Ranking based on classifier's **score distribution**
- **See Fawcett (2006) for a good introduction**



## Further Indicators of Predictive Accuracy

A vast set of other generic and application-specific measures exist

### ■ Predictive accuracy of classification models

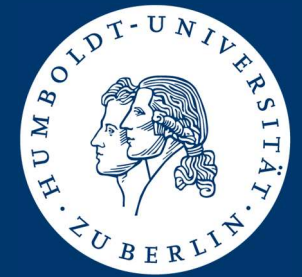
- Precision & recall, precision-recall curve, area under the PR-curve (e.g., Saito & Rehmsmeier 2015)
- Brier score, log-loss, cross-entropy
- H-measure (Hand & Anagnostopoulos 2013, 2014; Hand 2009)
- Cost- and Brier curves (Hernández-Orallo et al. 2011, Drummond & Holte 2006)

### ■ Predictive accuracy of regression models

- Theil's U, MSE decomposition, skill scores (e.g., Nikolopoulos et al. 2007, Wheatcroft 2019)
- (Asymmetric) error costs (e.g., Dress et al. 2018)

### ■ Examples of application specific measures

- Lift-/Gain analysis, uplift-/qini curves (e.g., Surry & Radcliffe 2011, Devriendt et al. 2021)
- Expected maximum profit criterion for churn/credit scoring (Verbraken et al. 2012, 2014)



# Simulation of prediction model application

Resubstitution estimate, split sampling, and cross-validation



# Data Organization for Assessing Prediction Performance

Remember Question 2 from above?

## ■ Question 2: How to know the true values of the target variable?

- The point of developing a predictive model is to forecast future values of the target
- We never know actual target values a priori
- How to assess a model prior to deployment?

## ■ Requiring us to ‘know’ future outcomes is not practical

## ■ Best we can do is to rely on observed outcomes from historical data

- Practices to use available historic, [labelled](#) data for training and testing
- Resubstitution estimate, split-sampling and cross-validation, and others

## Resubstitution Estimate

(Re-)Use the training data for model assessment

■ **Performance** =  $f$ (training error, model complexity)

■ **Penalize for complexity**

- Complexity typically measured as no. of estimated parameters
- Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) =  $-2 \log L + 2$  (no. of parameters)
- Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) =  $-2 \log L + (\text{no. of parameters}) * \log(\text{no. of observations})$

■ **Resubstitution estimate is well-established for explanatory models**

- Understand underlying mechanisms of real-world phenomena and test hypotheses
- Is the effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  statistically significant? How does  $Y$  changes with a 1% increase in  $X$ ?

■ **Resubstitution estimate is inappropriate for predictive models**

- Need 'fresh' data to judge whether a model predicts accurate into unseen data
- Powerful learning algorithms can easily overfit the training set (e.g., deep decision tree)

# Data Organization Intuition

Reserve some of the historical data for model testing

## Stage 1: Model Training



Data-driven development of a predictive model using **labelled data**  $\mathcal{D} = \{Y_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n$

Historical data for training incl.  $Y$

$i$	$Y$	$X_1$	$X_2$	...	$X_m$
1	...	...	...	...	...
2	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...
$n$	...	...	...	...	...

Learning Algorithm

Model

## Stage 2: Model Testing



Apply trained model to the hold-out data to obtain prediction and compare to known actuals.

Historical data for testing incl.  $Y$

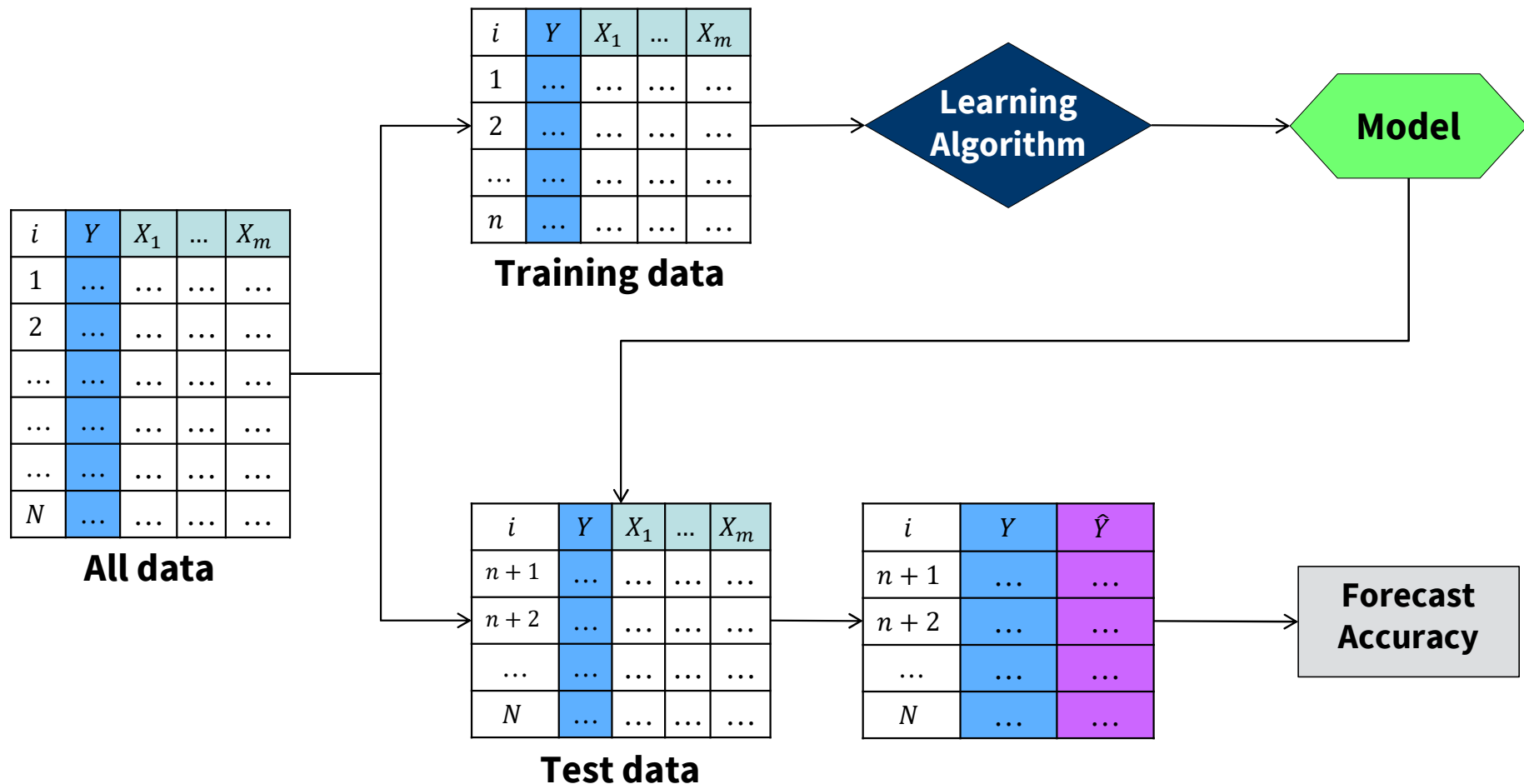
$i$	$Y$	$X_1$	...	$X_m$
$n + 1$	...	...	...	...
$n + 2$	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...
$N$	...	...	...	...

Forecasts of  $Y$

$i$	$Y$	$\hat{Y}$
$n + 1$	...	...
$n + 2$	...	...
...	...	...
$N$	...	...

# Measuring Forecast Accuracy Needs 'Fresh' Data Not Used for Training

Hold-out method: split data in disjoint subsets for training & testing



# Hold-Out Method Under the Microscope

## ■ Simulates real-world application of model

- Model is applied to data not used during training
- Caveat: training and test data stem from same sample
- Assumes a static environment with stable data generation process
- Ideally use out-of-time validation

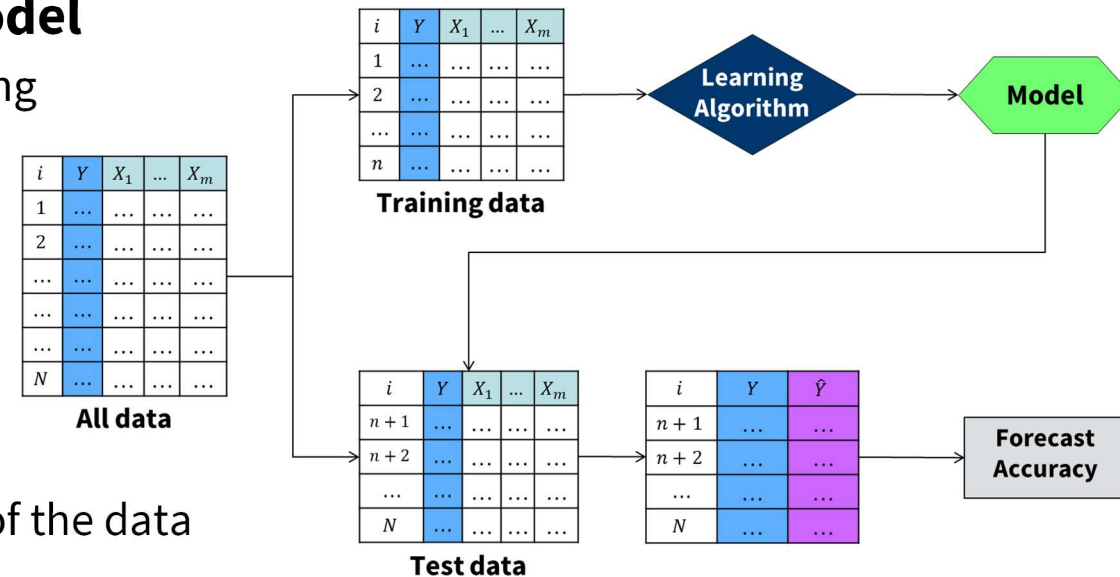
## ■ Data splitting is wasteful

- Train / test set often comprise 70 / 30 percent of the data
- Much data lost for training; same for testing

## ■ High variance / risk of drawing a 'lucky' test sample

## ■ Many alternatives exist (e.g., cross-validation)

- Increase efficiency of data usage
- Increase robustness of performance estimate



## K-Fold Cross Validation

Repeat model training & hold-out evaluation K times on different subsets

- Say we have a data set with 10 observations and set  $K=5$
- We split the data into  $K=5$  partitions of equal size (i.e., two observations)
- We use one partition for hold-out validation of a model, which we train on the union of the other partitions

$i$	Product	List price [\$]	Age [month]	Industry	...	Resale price [\$]	
1	Dell XPS 15'	2,500	36	Mining	...	347	Fold 1
2	Dell XPS 15'	2,500	24	Health	...	416	
3	Dell XPS 17'	3,000	36	Manufacturing	...	538	Fold 2
4	HP Envy 17'	1,300	24	Office	...	121	
5	HP EliteBook 850	1,900	36	Manufacturing	...	172	Fold 3
6	Lenovo Yoga 11'	799	12	Office	...	88	
7	Lenovo Yoga 13'	1,100	12	Office	...	266	Fold 4
8	Dell Inspiron 15'	1,499	12	Manufacturing	...	189	
9	HP Envy 15'	2,300	24	Health	...	235	Fold 5
10	MacBook	2,750	12	Office	...	1,125	



# K-Fold Cross Validation

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- We repeat this K times each time using a different partition for hold-out validation

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Iteration 1

Training data

Validation data

## K-Fold Cross Validation

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Iteration 2

Training data

Validation data

## K-Fold Cross Validation

Repeat model training & hold-out evaluation K times on different subsets

- Say we have a data set with 10 observations and set  $K=5$
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Iteration 3

Training data

Validation data

# K-Fold Cross Validation

Repeat model training & hold-out evaluation K times on different subsets

- Say we have a data set with 10 observations and set  $K=5$
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- We use one partition for hold-out validation of a model, which we train on the union of the other partitions
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Iteration 4

Training data

Validation data

## K-Fold Cross Validation

Repeat model training & hold-out evaluation K times on different subsets

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Iteration 5

Training data

Validation data

# K-Fold Cross Validation

Each (sub-)model gives forecasts for the corresponding validation fold

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10	MacBook	2,750	12	Office	...	1,125

$i$	Product	List price [\$]	Age (month)	Industry	...	Resale price [\$]
1	Dell XPS 15'	2,500	36	Mining	...	347
2	Dell XPS 15'	2,500	24	Health	...	416
3	Dell XPS 17'	3,000	36	Manufacturing	...	538
4	HP Envy 17'	1,300	24	Office	...	121
5	HP EliteBook 850	1,900	36	Manufacturing	...	172
6	Lenovo Yoga 11'	799	12	Office	...	88
7	Lenovo Yoga 13'	1,100	12	Office	...	266
8	Dell Inspiron 15'	1,499	12	Manufacturing	...	189
9	HP Envy 15'	2,300	24	Health	...	235
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Model 1

Model 2

Model 3

Model 4

Model 5

$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
1	347	325
2	416	398

$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
3	538	612
4	121	101

$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
5	172	214
6	88	59

$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
7	266	307
8	189	182

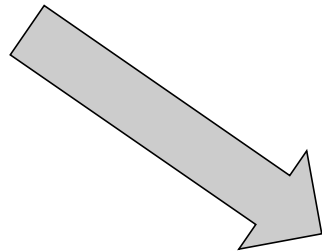
$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
9	235	231
10	1,125	875



# K-Fold Cross Validation

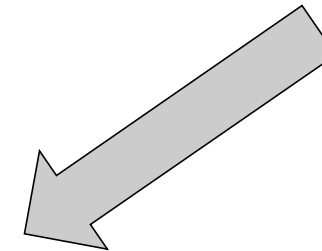
Each (sub-)model gives forecasts for the corresponding validation fold

$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast	$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast	$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast	$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast	$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
1	347	325	3	538	612	5	172	214	7	266	307	9	235	231
2	416	398	4	121	101	6	88	59	8	189	182	10	1,125	875

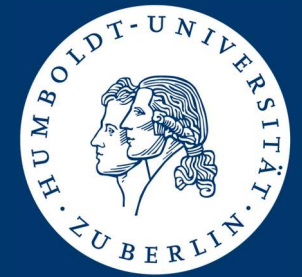


Thanks to cross-validation, we obtain hold-out forecasts for the entire data set. We can assess our model based on these hold-out forecast using any forecast accuracy indicator. Unlike the basic hold-out method, no data is lost for either training **or** validation. Instead, each observations contributes information to both steps, training **and** validation.

$i$	Resale price [\$]	Forecast
1	347	325
2	416	398
3	538	612
4	121	101
5	172	214
6	88	59
7	266	307
8	189	182
9	235	231
10	1,125	875



The disadvantage or ‘cost’ of cross-validation is that we have to train K models. Training an advanced model on a large data set can consume a significant amount of time and computer resources. However, whenever this is feasible, cross-validation will give a more robust estimate of forecast accuracy and model performance.



# Summary

# Summary



## Learning goals

- Experimental designs to assess predictive models
- Accuracy indicators for regression & classification



## Findings

- Model performance has facets beyond accuracy
- Accuracy measures contrast actuals vs. forecasts
- Confusion matrix depends on classification cut-off
- ROC analysis generalizes the confusion matrix
- No in-sample evaluation! Hold-out data is crucial
- Pros and cons of cross-validation vs. split sample



## What next

- Demo notebook on prediction model evaluation
- Some theory on supervised learning

# Literature



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# Thank you for your attention!

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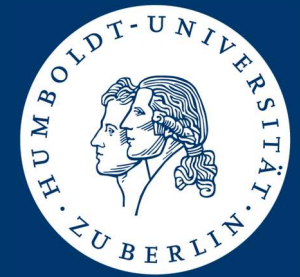
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# Appendix

Further dimensions of model performance

# Dimensions of Model Performance

Many factors determine the value of an analytical model

## Accuracy

How well does the model predict? For example, is it able to distinguish good and bad risks with high accuracy?

## Scalability

How much time is needed to build and to apply the model? Does it scale to large data sets?

## Robustness

Can the model cope with noise and missing values? How about irrelevant and correlated attributes?

## Comprehensibility

Can we understand the model? Is it clear how it transforms attribute values into predictions of the response variable?

## Justifiability

Is the use of attributes within the model in line with business rules/ understanding?

## Calibration

**For probability forecasts!**  
Out of 100 events predicted to have 90% chance, about 90 should have occurred.  
True?

# Dimensions of Model Performance

## Scalability

### ■ Consumption of time resources

#### ■ Time needed to build model (training time)

- Depends on number of cases and attributes
- Run-time complexity
- Importance depends on update frequency

#### ■ Time needed to generate predictions

- Much less than training time
- Critical in real-time settings (e.g., E-Commerce)

#### ■ Both time factors differ substantially across algorithms

### ■ Consumption of memory resources

- During model building
- When storing final model
- Big data prohibits keeping all training data in memory

### ■ Sensitivity with respect to hyperparameters

- Building one model is never enough
- Some models need a lot more tuning than others

### ■ Parallelization important

- Model building
- Model tuning



# Dimensions of Model Performance

## Robustness

### ■ Real-world data is noisy

- ☐ Missing values
- ☐ Erroneous data entries
- ☐ Wrong labels
- ☐ Irrelevant / correlated attributes

### ■ Real-world phenomena change over time

- ☐ Concept drift
- ☐ Model recalibration versus re-estimation

### ■ How to these factors affect the model?

- ☐ During model building
- ☐ After model building

## Dimensions of Model Performance

Comprehensibility: crucial and challenging to measure

### ■ Is it possible to understand how a model translates attribute values into prediction?

- Alternative terms: interpretability, transparency, white-box (vs. black-box) model
- Becoming increasingly relevant with the raising popularity of machine learning
- “Managers don’t trust black-box models”

### ■ New research fields on interpretable machine learning (see subsequent sessions)

- Global interpretability: equivalent to above point. How do covariates govern predictions
- Local interpretability: how was the prediction of a specific observation determined by covariate values

### ■ Prediction versus insight and correlation versus causality

- Prediction: “Next month, we sell 100 laptops”
- Insight: “Sales increase by 2% if we lower prices by €50”
- Standard machine learning models are correlational

## Dimensions of Model Performance

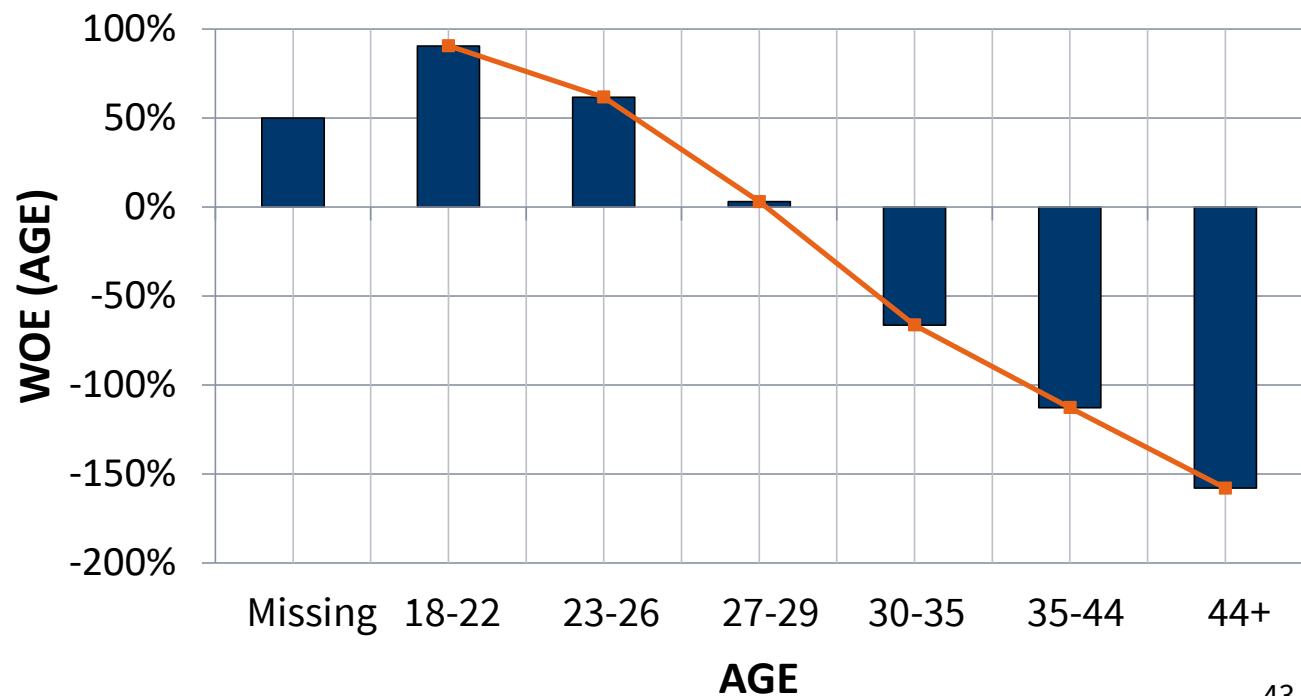
Justifiability: a key driver of model acceptance in industry

### ■ Does the way in which attribute values affect predictions agrees with prior beliefs or business rules?

- Exemplary business rules: sales decrease with price, long-term customers are more profitable than new customers, etc.
- Requires interpretability

### ■ Credit risk example

- Business rule: credit risk decreases with age
- Test: does WOE show this trend



# Dimensions of Model Performance

## Comprehensibility / Justifiability Example

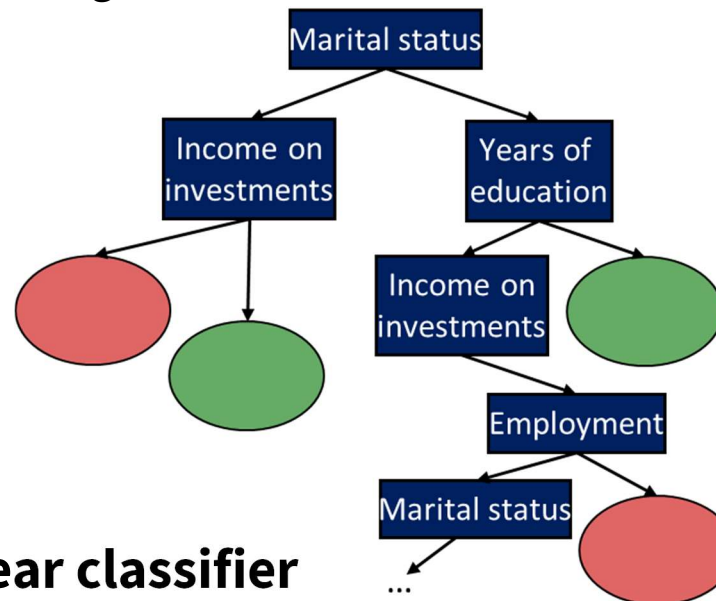
### ■ US Census data set from UCI library (<https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Adult>)

### ■ Classification task

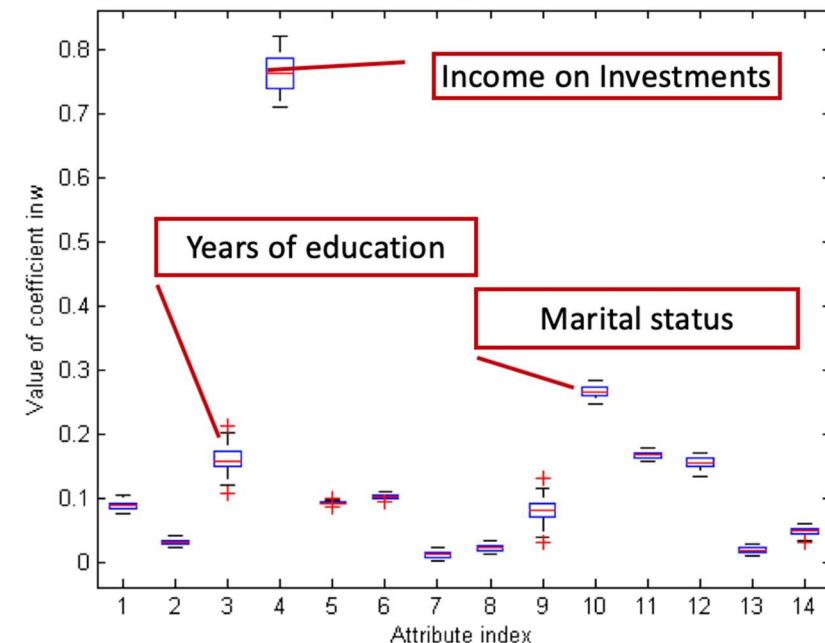
□ Is household income below or above \$50,000 p.a.?

□ Fourteen attributes describing a household

- Marital status
- Working hours
- Academic degree
- Years of education
- Country of origin
- Income on investments
- Employment
- ...



### ■ Result of tree and linear classifier



# Dimensions of Model Performance

## Calibration

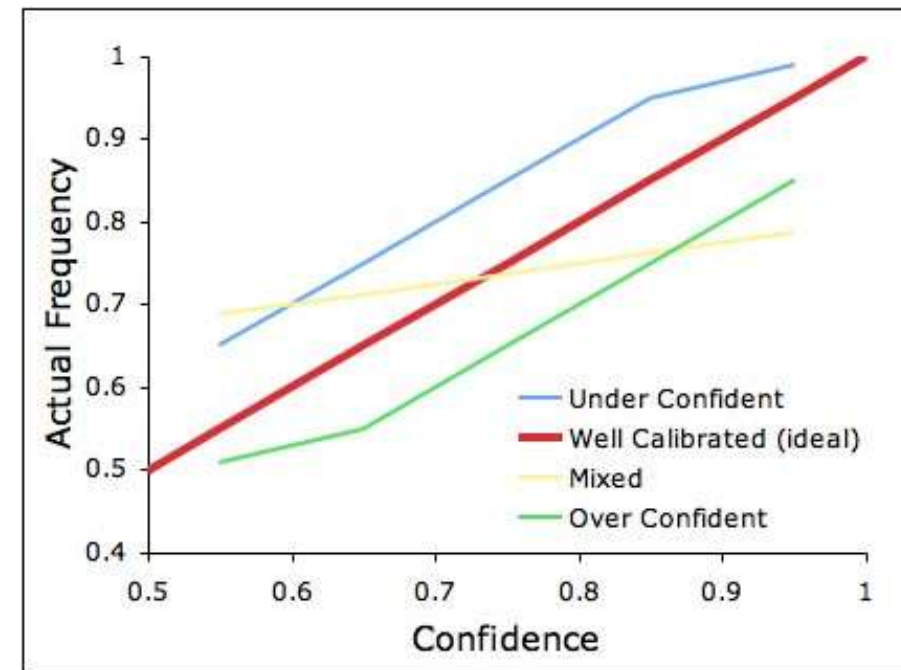
### ■ Feature of probabilistic predictions

### ■ Credit Scoring Example

- Model makes risk forecasts for 100 credit applications
- Forecasts are all the same and predict default of 90%
- Then, we should eventually observe 90 actual defaults

### ■ For prediction models

- Calibration can be poor
- Special treatment needed
- See, e.g., Bequé et al. (2017)



[<https://goodmoringeconomics.wordpress.com/2008/07/11/calibrated-probability-assessmentorg/>]