# **Supervised Learning**

Evaluation

#### Evaluation Issues

- What measures should we use?
  - Classification accuracy might not be enough

How reliable are the predicted values?

- Are errors on the training data a good indicator of performance on future data?
  - If the classifier is computed from the very same training data, any estimate based on that data will be optimistic
  - New data probably not exactly the same as the training data

## Road Map

- 1. Evaluation Metrics
- 2. Evaluation Methods
- 3. How To Improve Classifiers Accuracy

#### Confusion Matrix

■ The confusion matrix is a table of at least m×m size. An entry CM<sub>i,j</sub> indicated the number of tuples of class i that were labeled as class j

Real class \Predicted class	Class <sub>1</sub>	Class <sub>2</sub>	•••	Class <sub>m</sub>
Class <sub>1</sub>	CM <sub>1,1</sub>	CM <sub>12</sub>	•••	CM <sub>1,m</sub>
Class <sub>2</sub>	CM <sub>2,1</sub>	CM <sub>2,2</sub>		CM <sub>2,m</sub>
•••	•••	•••	•••	•••
Class <sub>m</sub>	$CM_{m,1}$	CM <sub>m,2</sub>	•••	CM <sub>m,m</sub>

Ideally, most of the tuples would be represented along the diagonal of the confusion matrix

#### Confusion Matrix

For a targeted class

	Predicted Class		
		Yes	No
Target Class	Yes	True positives	False negatives
	No	False positives	True negatives

- True positives: positive tuples correctly labeled
- True negatives: negative tuples correctly labeled
- False positives: negative tuples incorrectly labeled
- False negatives: positive tuples incorrectly labeled

#### Accuracy

	Predicted Class			
		Yes	No	
Target Class	Yes	True positives (TP)	False negatives (FN)	
	No	False positives (FP)	True negatives (TN)	

■ Most widely used metric

$$Accuracy = \frac{\#\, correctly\, classified\, tuples}{total\, \#\, tuples}$$

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

#### Accuracy

Accuracy is better measured using test data that was not used to build the classifier

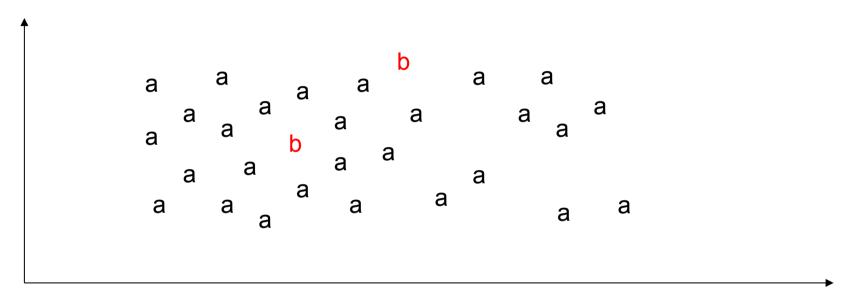
Referred to as the overall recognition rate of the classifier

Error rate or misclassification rate: 1-Accuracy

When training data are used to compute the accuracy, the error rate is called resubstituion error

## Sometimes Accuracy is not Enough

Consider a 2-class problem



- □ If a model predicts always **class a**, accuracy is 28/30= **93%**
- Accuracy is misleading because the model does not detect any tuple of class b

#### Cost Matrix

Useful when specific classification errors are more severe than others

	Predicted Class		
		Yes	No
Target Class	Yes	C(Yes   Yes)	C(No   Yes)
	No	C(Yes   No)	C(No No)

□ C(i|j): Cost of misclassifying class j tuple as class i

## Computing the Cost of Classification

#### **Cost Matrix**

Cost Matrix	Predicted Class		
		Yes	No
Costumer	Yes	0	1
Satisfied	No	120	0

#### **Confusion Matrix**

Model M1	Predicted Class		
		Yes	No
Costumer	Yes	150	60
Satisfied	No	40	250

Accuracy= 80% Cost= 4860

#### **Confusion Matrix**

Model M2	Predicted Class		
		Yes	No
Costumer	Yes	250	5
Satisfied	No	45	200

Accuracy= 90%
Cost= 5405

#### Cost-Sensitive Measures

	Predicted Class			
	Yes No			
Target	Yes	True positives (TP)	False negatives (FN)	
Class	No	False positives (FP)	True negatives (TN)	

$$Precision(p) = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Biased towards C(Yes|Yes) & C(Yes|No)
The higher the precision, the lower the FPs

$$Recall(r) = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

Biased towards C(Yes|Yes) & C(No|Yes) The higher the recall, the lower the FNs

$$F1-measure = \frac{2rp}{r+p}$$

Biased towards all except C(No|No)
It is high when both p and r are high
The higher the F1, the lower the FPs & FNs

$$Weighted Accuracy = \frac{w_{TP} \times TP + w_{TN} \times TN}{w_{TP} \times TP + w_{FN} \times FN + w_{FP} \times FP + w_{TN} \times TN}$$

### Other Specific Measures

Other measures can be used when the accuracy measure is not acceptable

$$Sensitivity(sn) = \frac{TP}{\#Positives}$$

$$Specificity(sp) = \frac{TN}{\# Negatives}$$

$$Accuracy = se \frac{\# Positives}{(\# Positives + \# Negatives)} + sp \frac{\# Negatives}{(\# Positives + \# Negatives)}$$

#### Predictor Error Measures

- The predictor returns continuous values
  - Measure how far the predicted value from the known value
- Compute loss functions

Absolute error = 
$$|y_i - y'_i|$$

Squared error = 
$$(y_i - y'_i)^2$$

y<sub>i</sub>: the true value

y'i: the predicted value

□ The **test error** or **generalization error** is the average loss

Mean absolute error = 
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} |y_i - y'_i|}{N}$$
Mean squared error = 
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - y'_i)^2}{N}$$

N is the size of the test dataset

#### Predictor Error Measures

■ The total loss can be normalized: divid by the total loss incurred from always predicting the mean

ys predicting the mean 
$$\frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{N} |y_i - y'_i|}{Relative \ absolute \ error} = \frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{N} |y_i - y'_i|}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{N} |y_i - \overline{y}|}$$

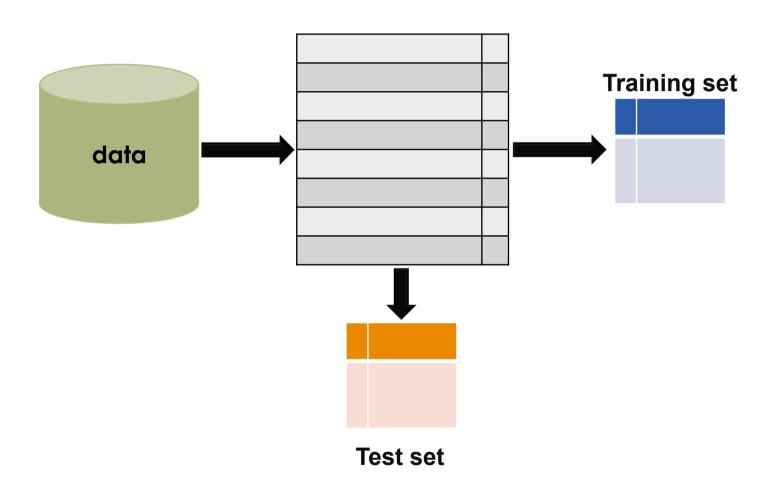
Relative squared error = 
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - y'_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}$$

N is the size of the test dataset

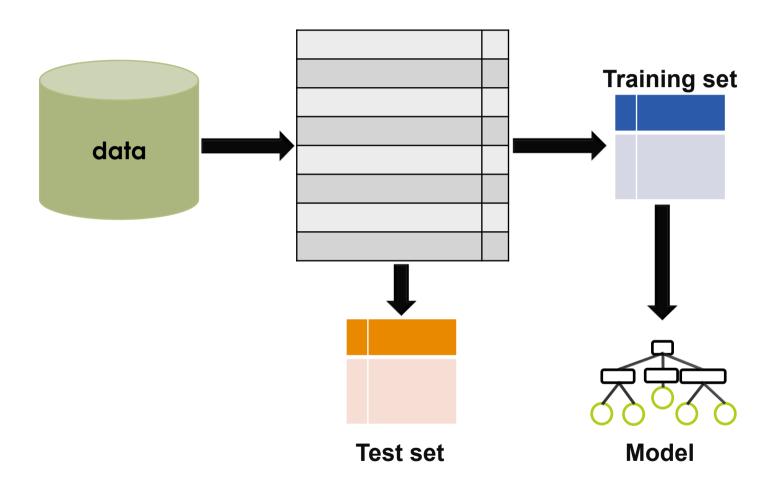
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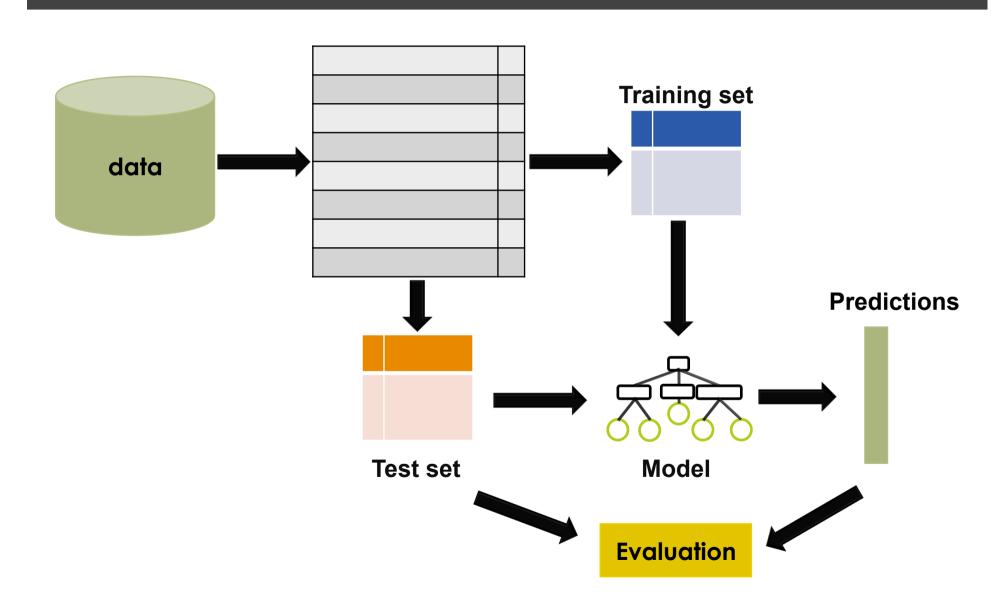
## Step1: Prepare Training and Test Sets



# Step2: Build The Model

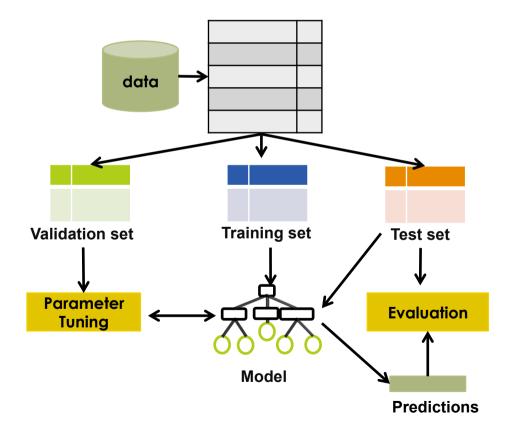


# Step3: Evaluate The Model



### Note on Parameter Tuning

- Some leaning schemes operates in two stages:
  - Stage1: Build the basic structure of the model
  - Sage2: Optimize parameter settings
- It is important not to use test data to build the model
- The test data should not be used for parameter tuning



#### Methods for Performance Evaluation

How to obtain reliable estimate of performance?

- Performance of a model may depend on other factors besides the learning algorithm
  - Class distribution
  - Cost of misclassification
  - Size of training and test sets

#### Holdout

- Typically use two-thirds of the data are allocated to training set and one-third is allocated to test set
- The estimate is pessimistic because only a portion of the initial data is used to derive the model
- For small or "unbalanced" datasets, samples might not be representative
- Stratified sampling: make sure that each class is represented with approximately equal proportions in both subsets

## Random Subsampling

Holdout estimate can be made more reliable by repeating the process with different subsamples (k times)

 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

Still not optimum since the different test sets overlap

#### Cross Validation

- Avoids overlapping test sets
  - Data is split into k mutually exclusive subset, or **folds**, of equal size:  $D_1, D_2, ..., D_k$
  - Each subset in turn is used for testing and the remainder for training: First iteration: use  $D_2,...D_k$  and training and  $D_1$  as test Second iteration: use  $D_1,D_3,...,D_k$  as training and  $D_2$  as test ...
- This is called k-fold cross validation
- Often the subsets are stratified before cross-validation is performed
- The error estimates are averaged to yield an overall error estimate

#### Cross Validation

Standard method for evaluation stratified 10-fold cross validation

■ Why 10? Extensive experiments have shown that this is the best choice to get an accurate estimate

Stratification reduces the estimate's variance

 Even better: repeated cross-validation. E.g. ten-fold cross-validation is repeated ten times and results are averaged (reduces the variance)

#### Leave-One-Out Cross Validation

- A special case of k-fold cross-validation
  - K is set to the initial number of tuples
  - Only one sample is left out at a time for the test set
- Makes best use of the data
- Involves no random subsampling
- Computationally expensive
- Disadvantage: stratification is not possible
- Extreme example: random dataset split equally into two classes
  - Model predicts majority class
  - 50% accuracy on the whole data
  - Leave-One-Out-CV estimate is 100% error

#### The 0.632 Bootstrap

- Sample training tuples uniformly with replacement: each time a tuple is selected, it is equally to be selected again and re-added to the training set
- An 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 using Bootstrap

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

$$Err(M) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (0.632 \times Err(M_i)_{test\_set} + 0.368 \times Err(M_i)_{train\_set})$$

- 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 Bootstrap

- Probably the best way of estimating performance for very small datasets
- However, it has some problems
- Consider a random dataset with a 50% class distribution
  - A model that memorizes all the training data will achieve **0%** resubstituion error on the training data and **~50%** error on test data
  - Bootstrap estimate for this classifier:
  - □ Err=0.632×0.5+0.368×0=**31.6%**
  - True expected error: **50%**

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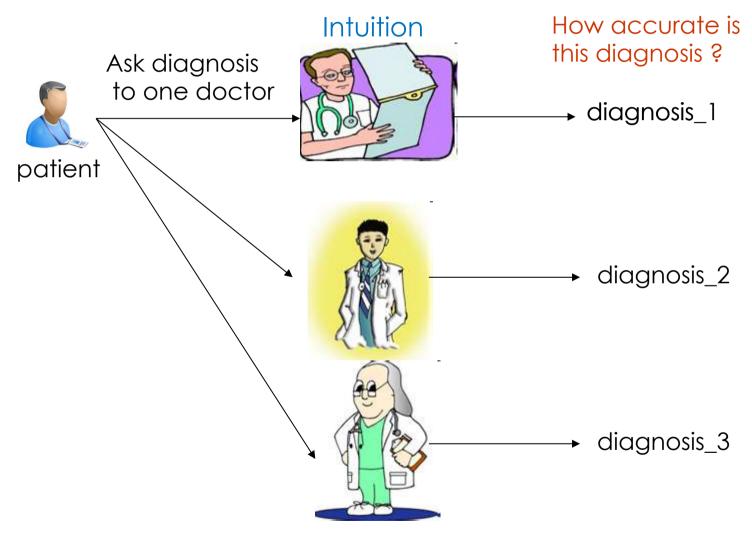
### Increasing the Accuracy

We have seen that pruning improves the accuracy of decision trees by reducing the overfitting effect

There are some general strategies for improving the accuracy of classifiers and predictors

- Bagging and Boosting are some of these strategies
  - Ensemble methods: use a combination of models
  - Find an an improved composite model M\*
  - $\blacksquare$  Combine a series of learned classifiers  $M_1, M_2, ..., M_k$
  - Find an an improved composite model M\*

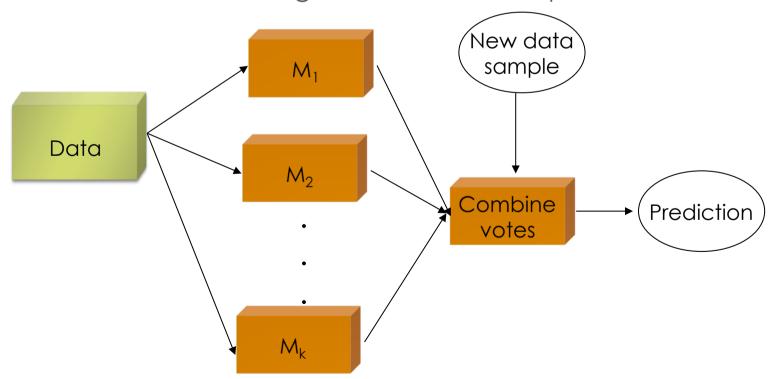
## Bagging



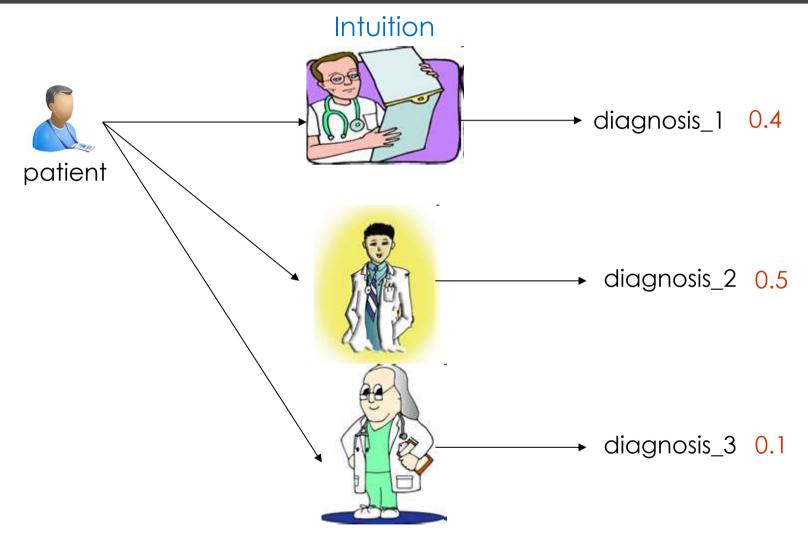
Choose the diagnosis that occurs more than any of the others

#### Bagging

- K iterations
- At each iteration a training set D<sub>i</sub> is sampled with replacement
- The combined model M\* returns the most frequent class in case of classification, and the average value in case of prediction



### Boosting



Assign different weights to the doctors based on the accuracy of their previous diagnosis

#### Boosting

- Weights are assigned to each training tuple
- A series of k classifiers is iteratively learned
- After a classifier M<sub>i</sub> is learned, the weights are adjusted to allow the subsequent classifier to pay more attention to training tuples misclassified by M<sub>i</sub>
- The final boosted classifier M\* combines the votes of each individual classifier where the weight of each classifier is a function of its accuracy
- This strategy can be extended for the prediction of continuous values

## Example: The Adaboost Algorithm

- Given a set of d class-labeled tuples (X1, y1), ..., (Xd, yd)
- Initially, all the weights of tuples are the same: 1/d
- Generate k classifiers in k rounds.
- At round i, tuples from D are sampled (with replacement) to form a training set Di of the same size
- Each tuple's chance of being selected depends on its weight
- A classification model Mi is derived and tested using Di
- If a tuple is misclassified, its weight increases, otherwise it decreases (use err(Mi)/(1-err(Mi)))

## Example: The Adaboost Algorithm

- $\blacksquare$  Error rate err(X<sub>i</sub>) is the misclassification error of tuple X<sub>i</sub>
- Classifier M<sub>i</sub> error rate is the sum of the weights of the misclassified tuples

$$error(M_i) = \sum_{j}^{d} w_j \times err(\mathbf{X_j})$$

- Tuple correctly classified: err(Xi)=0
- Tuple incorrectly classified: err(Xi)=1
- The weight of classifuer Mi's vote is

$$\log \frac{1 - error(M_i)}{error(M_i)}$$

#### Summary

Accuracy is used to assess classifiers

Error measures are used to assess predictors

Stratified 10-fold cross validation is recommended for estimating accuracy

Bagging and boosting are used to improve the the accuracy of classifiers and predictors