Machine Learning Week 6 Lecture: - Classification and Evaluation

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Supervised learning

Regression

Minimised loss (least squares)

Maximised likelihood

Bayesian approach

Classification (This and the next 3 weeks)

Logistic Regression, Evaluation (Week 6)

Softmax Regression, Naive Bayes, K-NN (Week 7)

Bayesian approaches for Classification (Week 8)

Support Vector Machines (Week 9)

Unsupervised learning

Clustering and Dimensionality Reduction (Week 10)

Coursework

Similarity with regression

- A data instance $x \mapsto \mathbf{x}$ (embedding function or feature vector).
- Example:
 - x can be a set of features, e.g., (backyard_area, postcode, #bedrooms,...).
 - Bag of words embedding of text indicating if a word is present or not
 - ► e.g., encode: document "the cat sat on the mat" → Boolean vector with a high dimension (say 10,000 comprised of common English words)
 - the components corresponding to words 'the', 'cat' etc. are 1.

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Differences with regression

- ▶ Given an **x** the **task** is **to predict** a y, where $y \in \{0, 1, ..., k-1\}$ a **categorical variable** of k possible values (also abbv. as $y \in \mathbb{Z}_k$).
 - ► For a given house with values of backyard_area, postcode etc., one may predict the house-price range as {low, medium, high} (k = 3).
- ▶ Recall for regression: $y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Predicting continuous values by regression

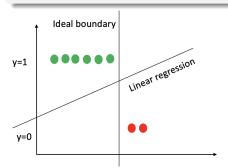
- ▶ Input: a training set of labelled data: $\mathcal{T} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)})\}$, where each $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (d dimensional feature vectors or embeddings) and each $y^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}$ (a continuous value).
- **Output**: A model vector $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}$ or (in this course, we will interchangeably use both θ and \mathbf{w} to denote parameter vectors).
- ▶ Predictions: $\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}_{new}) = h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{new}) = \theta^T \mathbf{x}_{new}$

What needs to change?

- \triangleright Obviously, the output \hat{y} is now **constrained** (for now, let's say between 0 and 1).
- ► So, θ^T **x doesn't work**. Why?
 - ▶ Because $\theta^T \mathbf{x}$ is a line in the data space ($\notin \{0,1\}$).

Does the naive solution work?

- Wait! But can't we just fit a line by minimizing least squares and then treat that line as a threshold (decision boundary)?
 - ightharpoonup arg min_{θ} $J(\theta) = (y \theta^T \mathbf{x})^2$?
 - $\hat{y} = \mathbb{I}(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$? $\mathbb{I}(z) = 1$ if z > 0 or 0 otherwise.



- A closely fitting line isn't a good decision boundary!
- Exercise: Try to find another arrangement of the points that also doesn't work.

Interpretation of the line θ^Tx: Needs to change from a "good fit" to a "decision boundary".

- Points just on the line maximum uncertainty or $P(y|\mathbf{x}) = 0.5$.
- Points just above the line $\hat{y} = 1$ and $P(y|\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow 1$ with increasing distances from the boundary.
- Predictions then become $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$, where g is a function such that:
 - ightharpoonup g(0) = 0.5
 - ightharpoonup g(z)
 ightharpoonup 1 as $z
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 - ightharpoonup g(z) o 0 as $z o -\infty$

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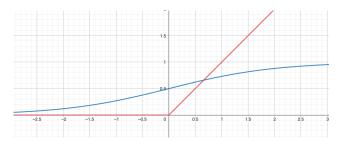
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▶ The class of functions $g(z) \in [0,1]$ with g(0) = 0.5 are called activation functions.

► Sigmoid: $g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + exp(-z)}$



Model thus changes to:

$$h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta^T x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$

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- Mean Square Loss (MLS)
 - $L(\theta) = \arg\min_{\theta} (y g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))^2$ seems to work. Why?
 - $L(\theta)$ decreases if you predict a high value (e.g., 0.9) for y=1
 - Also decreases if you predict a low value (e.g., 0.1) for y = 0.
 - ► All good: Mean squared error on activation functions potentially works as a classifier!
- Note that Okay, but our *desired interpretation* of $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$ is that it's a **probability**.
- ▶ Isn't it then weird to see $(y g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))^2$? What does that even mean in terms of probabilities?

Bernoulli Distribution

$$f = P(y|\mathbf{x}; \theta) = g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})^y (1 - g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))^{(1-y)}$$

Note that $y \in \{0,1\}$; $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$ is never 0 or 1.

Good prediction cases: (ϵ is a small number)

$$y = 1$$
 and $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}) \to 1$ $f = (1 - \epsilon)^1 \epsilon^0 \to 1$

$$y = 0$$
 and $g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}) \to 0 \mid f = \epsilon^0 (1 - \epsilon)^1 \to 1$

Exercise: Work out the 2 bad cases:

Loss/Objective function

- ightharpoonup arg max $_{\theta}$ log $P(y|\mathbf{x};\theta)$ works.
- ▶ $\arg \min_{\theta} \log P(y|\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ works (this is the negative log likelihood or the cross-entropy loss).
 - Note: Taking the **log** simplifies computation.

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- ► A line (boundary) in the data space ≡ A point in the parameter space.
- Example: For a 2D data space (x_1, x_2) , the parameter vector is three dimensional $\theta = (\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2)$.
- y = 1 for a point $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ if $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 > 0$

We need to compute the gradients!

- Finding way through the parameter space requires computing gradients → direction we should walk!
- ➤ To compute the gradient of the objective function, we need to compute the gradient of the **sigmoid**; because:

$$g'(z) = \frac{d}{dz} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} \frac{d}{dz} e^{-z}, \quad \because \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} e^{-z} \frac{d}{dz} (-z), \quad \because \frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \frac{e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} (1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}})$$

$$g'(z) = g(z)(1 - g(z))$$

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Loss function

$$I(\theta) = \log L(\theta) = y \frac{\log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})}{\log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})} + (1 - y)(1 - \log g(\theta^T \mathbf{x}))$$

▶ Partial derivative wrt one component of the parameter vector.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} I(\theta) = \left(y \frac{1}{g(\theta^T x)} - (1 - y) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T x)} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} g(\theta^T x)$$

$$= \left(y \frac{1}{g(\theta^T x)} - (1 - y) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T x)}\right) g(\theta^T x) (1 - g(\theta^T x)) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \theta^T x^{\text{terms of the proof of t$$

$$= (y(1 - g(\theta^T x)) - (1 - y)g(\theta^T x)) x_j$$

$$=(y-g(\theta^Tx))x_j=(y-h_{\theta}(x))x_j$$

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Loss function

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} I(\theta) = (y - h_{\theta}(x)) x_j$$

- ► The form of this derivative is **identical** to that of the linear regression with square loss.
- ► However, these are **not the same algorithm**. Why?
 - $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta^T \mathbf{x}$ for linear regression
 - $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\theta^T \mathbf{x})$ for logistic regression
- ► In fact, these are same because both linear regression and logistic regression belong to the same family of models - that of Generalized Linear Models (out of the scope of our syllabus).

Gradient

Recap

- Activation: $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}) = 1/(1 + \exp(-\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}))$
- Objective function: $h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \log y + (1 h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) \log(1 y)$

Algorithm

- For each training point $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$:
 - For each parameter vector component *j*:

- Is the above algorithm sensitive to:
 - \triangleright Order $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ of the training set?
 - \triangleright Order of iterating over $i = 1, \ldots, d$?
 - Iterations?
 - Aggregating gradients over a batch of training instances?

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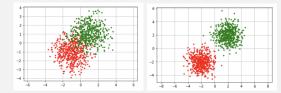
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Separability for 2D Gaussian samples



- ▶ Left: $g = \mathcal{N}((-1, -1), I_2), r = \mathcal{N}((1, 1), I_2)$
- ▶ Right: $g = \mathcal{N}((-2, -2), I_2), r = \mathcal{N}((2, 2), I_2)$
- ▶ Order $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ of the training set?
 - Medium to high sensitivity, specially when classes are not well-separable.
- ▶ Order of iterating over j = 1, ..., d?
 - Relatively low sensitivity.

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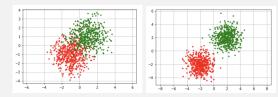
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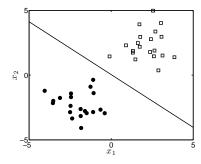
Separability for 2D Gaussian samples



- ► Left: $g = \mathcal{N}((-1, -1), I_2), r = \mathcal{N}((1, 1), I_2)$
- ► Right: $g = \mathcal{N}((-2, -2), I_2), r = \mathcal{N}((2, 2), I_2)$
- ► Iterations:
 - Convergence much faster if classes are well-separable.
- Aggregating gradients over a batch of training instances?
 - Medium to high sensitivity, specially when classes are not well-separable.

Decision boundary

ightharpoonup Once we have θ , we can classify new examples.



Line corresponding to $P(y_{\text{new}} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}; \theta) = 0.5$

$$\theta^T \mathbf{x}_{new} = 0 \implies \exp(\theta^T \mathbf{x}_{new}) = 1$$

► The classifier is the most uncertain (least confident) along the boundary.

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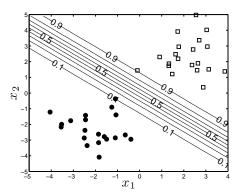
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Contours of the posterior probabilities



- ► Contours of $P(y_{\text{new}} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \theta)$.
- ▶ Do they look sensible?

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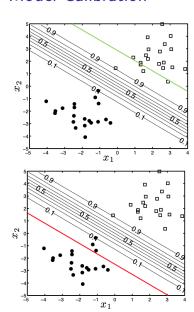
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- An easy way to change model predictions to be more conservative towards predicting a particular class.
- Confidence threshold set to a value $\tau \in [0, 1]$.
- Example: Predict y = 1 only if $P(y|x_{new}) > \tau$.
- Such calibrations are needed for critical tasks, such as cancer prediction, e.g., predict "not cancer" only if confidence > 0.95.

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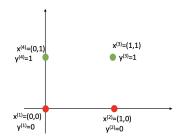
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- Let's take $\theta = (0, 0.1, 0.1, 0)$ (the first term being the bias term). $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^3$.
- ► Each **x** needs to be prepended with a '1', e.g., we work with $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (1, 0, 0)$.

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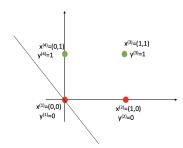
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- How do we plot the decision boundary?
 - Remember at the boundary: $\theta \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$.
- ▶ Visually plot the line $\theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 = 0$.
 - Substituting: $0 + 0.1x_1 + 0.1x_2 = 0 \implies x_2 = -x_1$.
- This is in the slope intercept form and hence we plot the boundary as shown below.



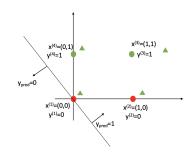
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- ► Is our boundary good?
 - Let's denote our predictions with triangles.
 - ► How many misclassifications? 2.
- Now let's see how we can modify the boundary to do better.



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Gradient Update

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - sigmoid(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))x_i^{(i)}$$
.

- **Select a point** and **a component**.
 - Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - \blacktriangleright And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .

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Gradient Update

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- **Select a point** and a component.
 - Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - ▶ And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .
- Compute:

$$\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0, 0.1, 0.1) \cdot (1, 1, 0) = 0 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 0 = 0.1.$$

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 - Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - ▶ And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .
- Compute:
 - $\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0, 0.1, 0.1) \cdot (1, 1, 0) = 0 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 0 = 0.1.$
 - ► $sigmoid(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = 1/(1 + \exp(-0.1)) = \exp(0.1)/(1 + \exp(0.1)) = 1.1/2.1 = 0.52$.

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Gradient Update

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + (y^{(i)} - sigmoid(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))x_i^{(i)}.$$

- **Select a point** and **a component**.
 - Let's take the point $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}$. (Note that this is a point for which the current classifier makes a mistake!).
 - ▶ And take the second component, i.e., we update θ_1 .
- Compute:

$$\begin{array}{c} \bullet \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (0, 0.1, 0.1) \cdot (1, 1, 0) = \\ 0 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 1 + 0.1 \times 0 = \boxed{0.1}. \end{array}$$

►
$$sigmoid(\theta \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = 1/(1 + \exp(-0.1)) = \exp(0.1)/(1 + \exp(0.1)) = 1.1/2.1 = 0.52$$
.

Now modify each component of θ .

▶
$$\theta_1 \leftarrow 0.1 + (0 - 0.52) \times 1$$
.

New parameter vector: $\theta = (0, -0.42, 0.1)$.

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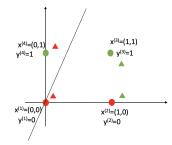
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- ► How does the new boundary look like?
 - New parameter vector: $\theta = (0, -0.42, 0.1)$.
 - ▶ Put it in the slope intercept form.

$$-0.42x_1 + 0.1x_2 = 0$$
, i.e., $x_2 = \frac{0.42}{0.1}x_1 = 4.2x_1$



#Misclassifications: still 2; but we're making progress towards the ideal boundary.

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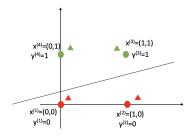
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Evaluation



- ► Homework: Work out on paper one more update.
- ▶ If you run the updates for an adequate number of times (say 5 times), what do you expect the decision boundary to be?



▶ If the classes are linearly separable logistic regression is guaranteed to converge to the perfect classifier.

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What do we do for linearly inseparable classes?

- Logistic regression algorithm can yield non-linear decision boundaries.
- Use a feature map function of higher order features.

$$ightharpoonup \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$$

Higher order feature map examples:

$$\phi_1(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1, \dots, x_d, x_1^2, \dots, x_d^2)$$

$$\phi_2(\mathbf{x}) =$$

$$(x_1,\ldots,x_d,x_1x_2,\ldots,x_{d-1}x_d)$$

- Apply logistic regression on $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ instead of on \mathbf{x} .
- This means that decision boundary $\theta_1 x_1 + \theta_{d+1} x_1^2 + \dots$ has now non-linear terms.



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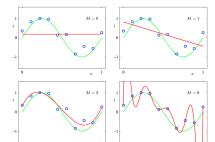
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Feature Maps



Minimise:

$$J(\theta) = -(h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})\log y + (1 - h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}))\log(1 - y)) + \frac{||\theta||_{p}}{||\theta||_{p}}$$

- The same problem as in linear regression -Overfitting.
- Solution: Encourage sparse solutions - higher order features but you don't want the boundary to depend on too many of them.
 - Modify objective function with an added term for the norm of the parameter vector
 - Penalize those θ s whose norm is high.

Classifier Performance Evaluation

- How do we know how accurate are our predictions?
 - Which algorithm? Regularization or without
 - What model calibration?
- ▶ Need performance indicators.

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- How do we know how accurate are our predictions?
 - Which algorithm? Regularization or without
 - What model calibration?
- Need performance indicators.
- ► We'll cover:
 - Accuracy
 - ► Precision/Recall
 - Confusion matrix and Precision-recall curves

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Classification Evaluation

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How many correct classifications in total.

- Consider a set of predictions $\hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_N$ and a set of true labels y_1, \dots, y_N .
- ► Mean accuracy is defined as:

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_i\neq y_i)$$

 $ightharpoonup \mathbb{I}(A)$ is 1 if A is true and 0 otherwise

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- How many correct classifications in total.
- ► Consider a set of predictions $\hat{y}_1, \ldots, \hat{y}_N$ and a set of true labels y_1, \ldots, y_N .
- ► Mean accuracy is defined as:

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_i\neq y_i)$$

- $ightharpoonup \mathbb{I}(A)$ is 1 if A is true and 0 otherwise
- Advantages:
 - Can do binary or multi-class classification.
 - Simple to compute.
 - Single value.

Classifier Evaluation

Disadvantage: Doesn't take into account **class imbalance**.

- We're building a classifier to detect a rare disease.
- Assume only 1% of population is diseased.
- ightharpoonup Diseased: y=1
- Healthy: y = 0
- \blacktriangleright What if we always predict healthy? (y = 0)
- Accuracy 99%
- But classifier is rubbish!

Precision and Recall

- ▶ We'll stick with our disease example.
- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:

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Precision and Recall

- ▶ We'll stick with our disease example.
- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- ▶ True positives (TP) the number of objects with y = 1 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (diseased people diagnosed as diseased).

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- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- ▶ True positives (TP) the number of objects with y = 1 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (diseased people diagnosed as diseased).
- ▶ True negatives (TN) the number of objects with y = 0 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (healthy people diagnosed as healthy).

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Classifier Evaluation

- ▶ We'll stick with our disease example.
- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- ▶ True positives (TP) the number of objects with y = 1 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (diseased people diagnosed as diseased).
- True negatives (TN) the number of objects with y = 0 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (healthy people diagnosed as healthy).
- ▶ False positives (FP) the number of objects with y = 0 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 1$ (healthy people diagnosed as diseased).

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- ▶ We'll stick with our disease example.
- ▶ Need to define 4 quantities. The numbers of:
- True positives (TP) the number of objects with y=1 that are classified as $\hat{y}=1$ (diseased people diagnosed as diseased).
- True negatives (TN) the number of objects with y = 0 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (healthy people diagnosed as healthy).
- False positives (FP) the number of objects with y=0 that are classified as $\hat{y}=1$ (healthy people diagnosed as diseased).
- ▶ False negatives (FN) the number of objects with y = 1 that are classified as $\hat{y} = 0$ (diseased people diagnosed as healthy).

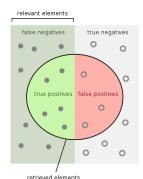
Classifier Evaluation

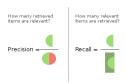
- $P = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$
- The proportion of correctly identified diseased people from all our 'diseases' predictions.
- The higher the better.
- ln our example, P=0.
 - In biomedical domain:
 - Recall of the positive class: 'Sensitivity'.
 - Recall of the negative class: 'Specificity'.

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

- The proportion of diseased people that are able to identify out of all the diseased people out there.
- The higher the better.
- ln our example, R=0.

Visual representation of precision and recall





- Effective for class imbalanced problems.
- Two different performance measures used for specific types of tasks - precision oriented or recall oriented.
- Trade-off between the two. Why?
- Examples:
 - Detecting cancer cells from images is a recall-oriented task. Why?
 - Whether to turn an Al-driven car is a precision-oriented task. Why?

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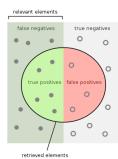
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Precision-Recall Curve





- Useful to analyze the effects of model calibration.
- ▶ Default threshold in logistic regression is 0.5.
- However, we could use any threshold we like.
- ► Too conservative a threshold:
 - Moves the circle towards the right (Why?)
 - ▶ Precision↑, Recall↓.
- ► Too liberal a threshold
 - Moves the circle towards the left.
 - ▶ Precision↓, Recall↑.

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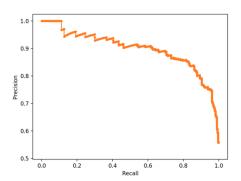
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Precision-Recall Curves curve



- Helps calibrating a system by comparing its performance over a range of different thresholds.
- A curve representing an effective calibration mostly stays above any other line.
- With an increase from low to high recall, the precision should stay as high as possible for an ideal classifier.
- ► Each error brings precision down.

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Coursework

The quantities we used to compute precision and recall can be neatly summarised in a table:

		True class			
		1	0		
Predicted class	1	TP	FP		
Predicted class	0	FN	TN		

- ► This is known as a confusion matrix
- It is particularly useful for multi-class classification.
- ▶ Tells us where the mistakes are being made.

True class													
			10	11	12	13	14	15	16	18	18	19	20
	1		4	2	0	2	10	4	7	1	12	7	47
	2		0	0	4	18	7	8	2	0	1	1	3
SS	3		0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
class	4		1	0	1	28	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Predicted	16 17 18 19 20		3 1 2 8 0	2 0 1 4 0	2 9 0 8 1	5 0 2 0 0	17 3 6 10 1	4 1 2 21 1	376 3 1 1 2	3 325 2 16 4	7 3 325 19 0	2 95 4 185	68 19 5 7 92

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Classifier Evaluation

 Algorithm is getting 'confused' between classes 20 and 16, and 19 and 17.

▶ 17: talk.politics.guns

▶ 19: talk.politics.misc

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Classifier Evaluation

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▶ 17: talk.politics.guns

▶ 19: talk.politics.misc

▶ 16: talk.religion.misc

▶ 20: soc.religion.christian

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▶ 17: talk.politics.guns

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▶ 20: soc.religion.christian

► Maybe these should be just one class?

► Maybe we need more data in these classes?

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	20		0	0	1	0	1	1	2	4	0	1	92

► Algorithm is getting 'confused' between classes 20 and 16, and 19 and 17.

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▶ 20: soc.religion.christian

▶ Maybe these should be just one class?

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Confusion matrix helps us direct our efforts to improving the classifier. Introduction

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A word about the practical coursework (25%)

▶ Will be released tomorrow!

Dataset: Features with Labels

► Task: Breast Cancer Detection

Quite flexible - choose your own favorite classifier, e.g., just use logistic regression (that we learned today).

► Not just a coding exercise.

Write a report explaining and motivating your design choices and hyper-parameters - e.g.:

feature maps used?

- regularization used?
- calibration threshold?

Also asks you to calibrate the model to investigate the trade-off between precision and recall. Introduction

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