Same vs. other cross-validation in supervsied machine learning

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Introduction to machine learning

Proposed same vs. other cross-validation

Results on real data sets

Discussion and Conclusions

What is machine learning?

- Computer science: domain of study about efficient algorithms / computations.
- Artificial intelligence: sub-domain concerned with algorithms for accurate predictions/suggestions.
- Machine learning: sub-domain concerned with algorithms for large data.
- Machine learning is widely used in search engines, automatic translation, image analysis, ...

Computer science Artificial intelligence Machine learning: linear models. decision trees. nearest neighbors, ... Neural networks

Deep learning

Machine learning intro: image classification example

ML is all about learning predictive functions $f(x) \approx y$, where

- ► Inputs/features x can be easily computed using traditional algorithms, e.g. matrix of pixel intensities in an image.
- Outputs/labels y are what we want to predict, easy to get by asking a human, but hard to compute using traditional algorithms, e.g. image class.
- Input $x = \text{image of digit, output } y \in \{0, 1, \dots, 9\},$ - this is a classification problem with 10 classes.

$$f(O) = 0, f(I) = 1$$

▶ Traditional/unsupervised algorithm: I give you a pixel intensity matrix $x \in \mathbb{R}^{16 \times 16}$, you code a function f that returns one of the 10 possible digits. Q: how to do that?

Supervised machine learning algorithms

I give you a training data set with paired inputs/outputs, e.g.

Your job is to code an algorithm that learns the function f from the training data. (you don't code f)
Source: github.com/cazala/mnist

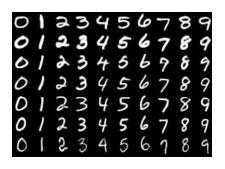
Supervised machine learning algorithms

Can be used whenever a knowledgeable/skilled human can easily/quickly/consistently create a large database of labels for training.

Should be used if it is not easy to code the function f for predicting the labels (using traditional/unsupervised techniques).

Accurate if the test data, on which you want to use f, is similar to the train data (input to learning algorithm).

Advantages of supervised machine learning

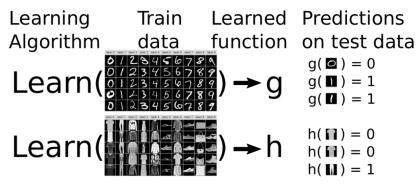




- ▶ Input $x \in \mathbb{R}^{16 \times 16}$, output $y \in \{0, 1, ..., 9\}$ types the same!
- ► Can use same learning algorithm regardless of pattern.
- ▶ Pattern encoded in the labels (not the algorithm).
- Useful if there are many un-labeled data, but few labeled data (or getting labels is long/costly).
- State-of-the-art accuracy (if there is enough training data).

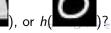
Learning two different functions using two data sets

Figure from chapter by Hocking TD, Introduction to machine learning and neural networks for book Land Carbon Cycle Modeling: Matrix Approach, Data Assimilation, and Ecological Forecasting edited by Luo Y (Taylor and Francis, 2022).



Learn is a learning algorithm, which outputs g and h.

Q: what happens if you do g(





Learning two different functions using two data sets



- ► This is a question about **generalization**: how accurate is the learned function on a new/test data set?
- "Very accurate" if test data are similar enough to train data (best case is i.i.d. = independent and identically distributed)
- Predicting childhood autism (Lindly et al.), train on one year of surveys, test on another.
- ► Predicting carbon emissions (Aslam *et al.*), train on one city, test on another.
- Predicting presence of trees/fires in satellite imagery (Shenkin et al., Thibaut et al.), train on one geographic area/image, test on another.
- ▶ Predicting fish spawning habitat in sonar imagery (Bodine et al.), train on one river, test on another.
- ▶ But how do we check if "very accurate" in these situations?

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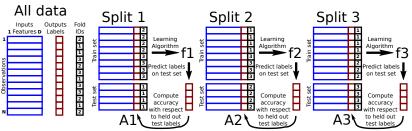
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K-fold cross-validation: a standard algorithm used to estimate the prediction accuracy in machine learning

- K = 3 folds shown in figure below, meaning three different models trained, and three different prediction/test accuracy rates computed.
- It is important to use several train/test splits, so we can see if there are statistically significant differences between algorithms.

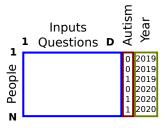


Hocking TD Intro. to machine learning and neural networks (2022).

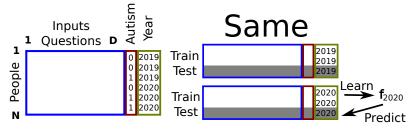
Example data set: predicting childhood autism

- Downloaded National Survey of Children's Health (NSCH) data, years 2019 and 2020, from http://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/nsch
- One row per person, one column per survey question.
- Pre-processing to obtain common columns over the two years, remove missing values, one-hot/dummy variable encoding.
- Result is N = 46,010 rows and D = 366 columns.
- ▶ 18,202 rows for 2019; 27,808 rows for 2020.
- One column is diagnosis with Autism (binary classification, yes or no), can we predict it using the others?
- Can we combine data from different years?
- ► Can we train on one year, and accurately predict on another?

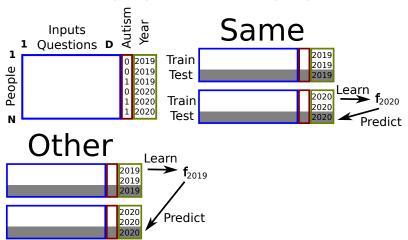
Example: childhood autism prediction data set.



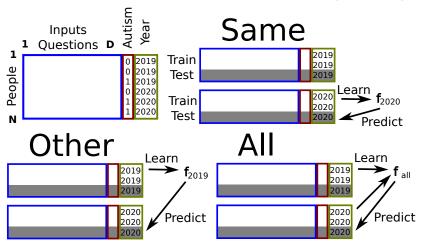
► Train group same as test (=regular K-fold CV on 2020).



► Train group (2019) different from test (2020).



 \triangleright Repeat for each of K folds, and each test group (2019,2020).



For a fixed test set from one group: If train/test are similar/iid,

All should be most accurate.

Same/Other should be less accurate, because there is less data available (if other is larger than same, then other should be more accurate than same, etc).

If train/test are different (not iid),

Same should be most accurate.

Other should be substantially less accurate.

All accuracy should be between same and other.

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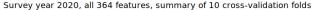
Learning algorithms we consider

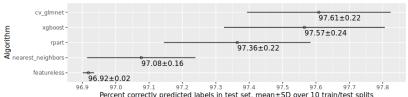
We used the following learning algorithms:

- cv_glmnet L1-regularized linear model (feature selection). Friedman, et al. (2010).
 - xgboost Extreme gradient boosting (non-linear). Chen and Guestrin (2016).
 - rpart Recursive partitioning, decision tree (non-linear, feature selection). Therneau and Atkinson (2023).
- nearest_neighbors classic non-linear algorithm, as implemented in kknn R package. Schliep and Hechenbichler (2016).
 - featureless un-informed baseline, ignores all inputs/features, and always predicts the most frequent label in train data. For example, Autism=No. Nomenclature from mlr3 R package, Lang, et al., (2019).

Each learning algorithm has different properties (non-linear, feature selection, etc). For details see Hastie, et al. (2009) textbook.

K-fold CV on NSCH data (predict autism), year 2020

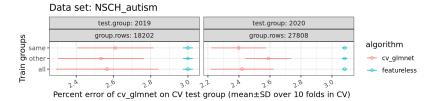




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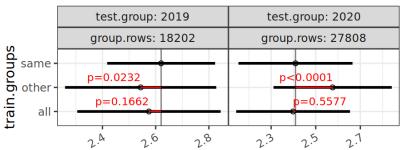
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- nearest_neighbors classic non-linear algorithm.
 - featureless un-informed baseline, ignores all inputs/features, and always predicts the most frequent label in train data (Autism=No in this case).

Same Other for Autism data



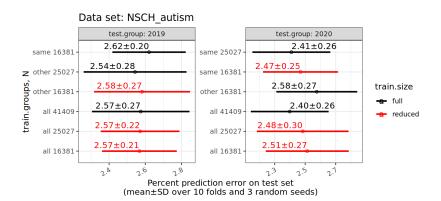
Same Other for Autism data

Data set: NSCH_autism



Percent prediction error on test set mean±SD over 10 folds/3 random seeds paired t-test in red

Same Other for Autism data



- ▶ 18,202 rows in 2019, whereas 27,808 in 2020.
- ▶ For predicting in 2019 (left), training on only 2019 (same) is slightly less accurate than training on only 2020 (other), and 2019+2020 (all). This suggests 2020 data are consistent with the pattern in 2019, which is too complex to learn from the limited 2019 data alone (there is a slight advantage to combining years when training).
- ▶ For predicting in 2020 (right), training on 2019 (other) is slightly less accurate than training on 2020 (same), and 2019+2020 (all). This again suggests that 2019/2020 data are consistent, but there are not enough data in 2019 alone.

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- Proposed Same Other Cross-Validation can be used to see if it is beneficial to learn using data from different groups (train on one group, test/predict on another).
- Free/open-source software available: mlr3resampling R package on https://github.com/tdhock/mlr3resampling.
- ► These slides are reproducible, using the code in https://github.com/tdhock/cv-same-other-paper
- Contact: toby.hocking@nau.edu, toby.hocking@r-project.org