

## Overview

- Model selection
- Model evaluation

#### An estimator

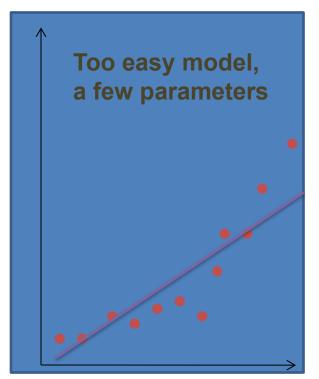
- $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \delta(T)$  (some function of your training data) an estimator
- Optimal parameter values? → there can be many ways to compute them (MLE, shrinkage...)
  - There is no easy way to compare estimators in frequentist tradition

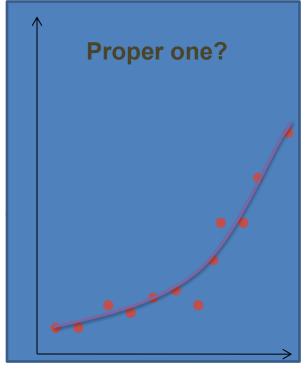
#### **Example:** Linear regression

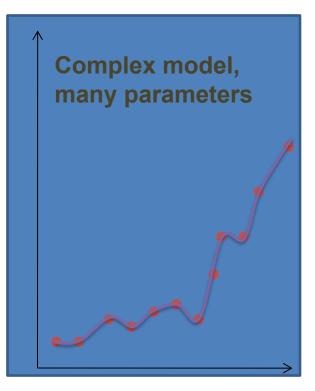
- Estimator 1:  $\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$  (maximum likelihood)
- Estimator 2:  $\theta = (0, ..., 0, 1)$
- Which one is better?
  - A comparison strategy is needed!

# Overfitting

Complex model can overfit your data







ML can lead to overfitting

 How can we find appropriate parameter values?

 How can we compare between different models?

#### **Error functions**

- Loss functions  $L(y,\hat{y})$  used to evaluate the quality of training
- Error functions  $E(y, \hat{y})$  used to measure the quality of prediction
  - Misclassification error  $E(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 0, y = \hat{y} \\ 1, y \neq \hat{y} \end{cases}$
  - Squared error  $E(y, \hat{y}) = (y \hat{y})^2$
- Formulas can be same, different purpose

#### Error vs loss function

- Should error function be same as loss function?
- Normal practice: Choose the loss related to minus loglikelihood

Example: Predicting the risk of cancer:

$$E(y = H, \hat{y} = C) = 1$$

$$E(y = C, \hat{y} = H) = 1000$$

$$Loss matrix = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1000 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

• One can show:  $\frac{p(y=C|x)}{p(y=H|x)} > 1000 \rightarrow classify \ as \ C$ 

## Data generating process





y = "Cat"

Data generating process

p(x, y)



y = "Dog"

https://www.collinsdictionary.com/images/full/dog 230497594.jpg

- Given a model, choose the optimal parameter values
  - Decision theory
- If we know the true distribution p(y, x) then we choose the optimal model by minimizing the expected risk:

$$\min_{\hat{y}} \overline{E}_{new} = \min_{\theta} \int_{(x_*, y_*)} \int_T E(y_*, \hat{y}(\boldsymbol{x}_*, T, \boldsymbol{\theta})) p(\boldsymbol{x}_*, y_*) d\boldsymbol{x}_* dy_* dT$$

 Problem: data generating process is unknown → can not compute expected risk!

• Approximation 1: Instead of considering all possible T, take only one  $T \rightarrow$  expected new data error

$$E_{new} = \int_{(x_*, y_*)} E(y_*, \hat{y}(\boldsymbol{x}_*, T, \boldsymbol{\theta})) p(\boldsymbol{x}_*, y_*) d\boldsymbol{x}_* dy_*$$

- Fix T as a particular training set
- Approximation 2:

$$- \int_{(x_*,y_*)} E(y,\hat{y}(x_*,T,\boldsymbol{\theta})) p(x_*,y_*) dx_* dy_* \approx \frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{(x_*,y_*) \in V} E(y_*,\hat{y}(x_*,T,\boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

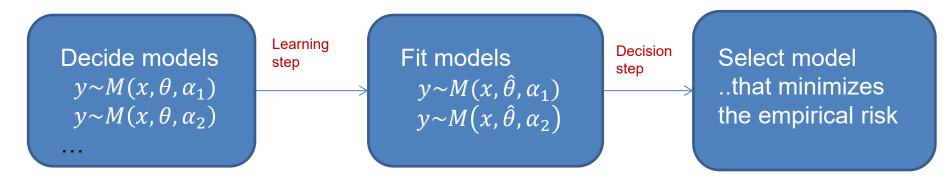
Validation error (empirical risk)

$$E_{hold-out} = \frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{(\boldsymbol{x}_*, \boldsymbol{y}_*) \in V} E(\boldsymbol{y}_*, \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}(\boldsymbol{x}_*, T, \boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

- Model is learned by Maximum Likelihood using training set
- Validation error estimated by using validation set
- Model with minimum validation error is selected
- Note: training error can be estimated by replacing V by T

# General model selection strategy

• Given data  $D = \{x_i, y_i, i = 1 ... n\}$ 



- At learning step, Maximum Likelihood is usually used
- $\alpha_i$  can be different things:
  - Type of distribution
  - Number of variables in the model
  - Regularization parameter value
  - **–** ...

Divide into training, validation and test sets

Training Validation Test

Choose proportions in some way

 Given: training, validation, test sets and models to select between

M1(?,?)

M2(?,?,?)

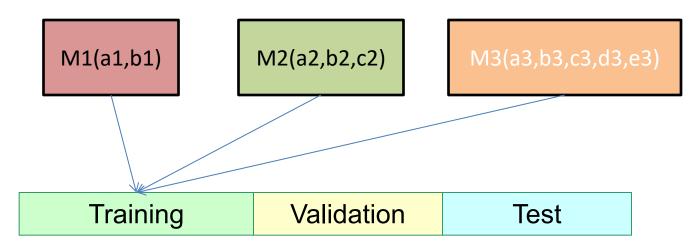
M3(?,?,?,?,?)

**Training** 

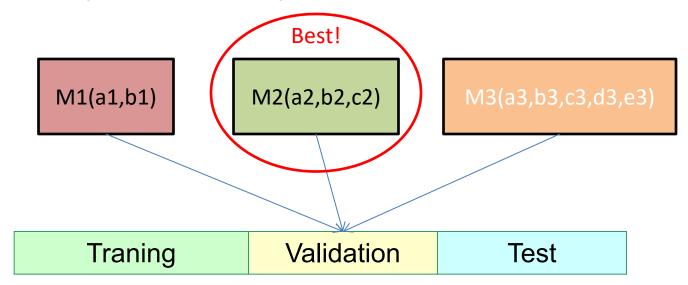
**Validation** 

**Test** 

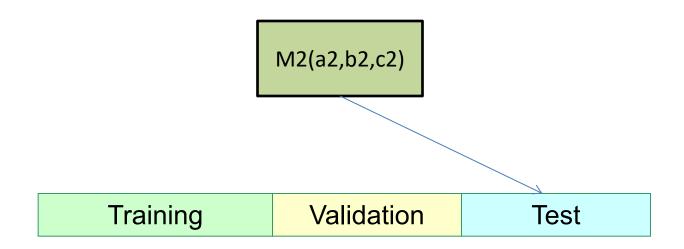
 Training set is to used for fitting models to the dataset by using given loss function

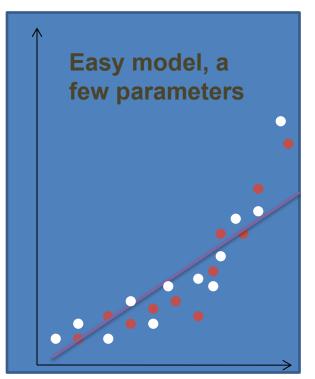


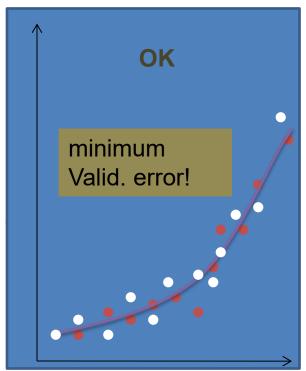
 Validation set is used to choose the best model (lowest risk)

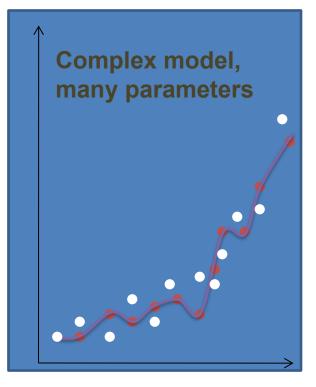


 Test set is used to test a performance on a new data









#### Hold-out method: remarks

Data needs to be shuffled before split

Method is suitable for large data otherwise training affected

 Proportions: increasing % of training data generally leads to better performance but the quality of "Approximation 2" decreases

#### Hold-out in R

- How to partition into train/test?
  - Use set.seed(12345) in the labs to get identical results

```
n=dim(data)[1]
set.seed(12345)
id=sample(1:n, floor(n*0.7))
train=data[id,]
test=data[-id,]
```

How to partition into train/valid/test?

```
n=dim(data)[1]
set.seed(12345)
id=sample(1:n, floor(n*0.4))
train=data[id,]
id1=setdiff(1:n, id)
set.seed(12345)
id2=sample(id1, floor(n*0.3))
valid=data[id2,]
id3=setdiff(id1,id2)
test=data[id3,]
```

#### Cross-validation

- Compared to holdout method:
  - Why do we use only some portion of data for training- can we use more?
  - Approximation 1: choose T as different subsets of data
  - Approximation 2: choose  $(x_*, y_*)$  from the remaining data

# Cross-validation K-fold cross-validation (rough scheme, show picture):

- 1. Permute the observations randomly
- 2. Divide data-set in K roughly equally-sized subsets
- 3. Remove subset #i and fit the model using remaining data.
- 4. Predict the function values for subset #i using the fitted model.
- 5. Repeat steps 3-4 for different i
- 6.  $E_{k-fold}$ = mean hold out loss

# Cross-validation





### **Cross-validation**

#### **Cross-validation**

•  $E_{k-fold}$  is used as approximation of  $E_{new}$ 

<u>Note</u>: if k=n then method is *leave-one-out* cross-validation.

What to do if n is not a multiple of k?

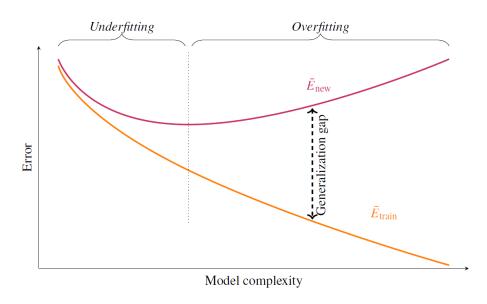
#### Cross-validation vs Holdout

- Holdout is easy to do (one model fit)
- Cross validation is computationally demanding (many model fits)
- Holdout is applicable for large data
  - Otherwise, model selection performs poorly
- Cross validation is more suitable for smaller data
- In both cases, **test** set gives unbiased prediction error

Dependence on model complexity

$$- \bar{E}_{new} = \int_{(x_*, y_*)} \int_T E(y_*, \hat{y}(x_*, T, \theta)) p(x_*, y_*) dx_* dy_* dT$$

$$-\bar{E}_{train} = \int_{T} \int_{(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}, \boldsymbol{v}_{*}) \in T} E(y_{*}, \hat{y}(\boldsymbol{x}_{*}, T, \theta)) d\boldsymbol{x}_{*} dy_{*} dT$$



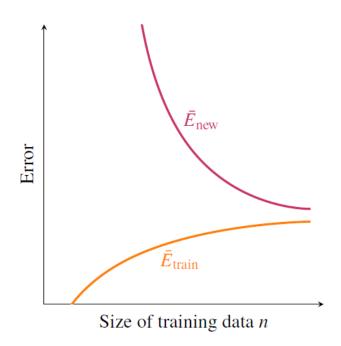
Generalization gap

generalization 
$$gap = \bar{E}_{new} - \bar{E}_{train}$$

- Normally generalization gap > 0
- How to estimate:
  - 1. Generate training and validation data from the generating process
  - 2. Estimate training and validation errors
  - 3. Repeat 1-2 m times
  - 4. Substract average train error from average validation error
- Note: Normally  $\bar{E}_{new} > \bar{E}_{train}$  but this is not always the case for individual training and validation errors

Dependence of data size





#### Model selection: comments

- Choose model with smallest prediction error
  - If  $E_{new} \approx E_{train}$  then model is probably too simple
  - If  $E_{new} \gg E_{train}$  then then probably overfitting

 If the best training error too large → change model or get more data...

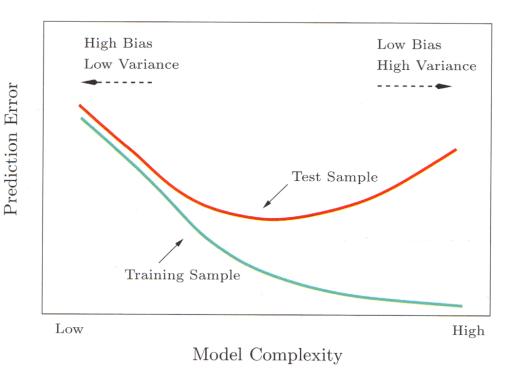
Increasing n may help a lot for complex models

Bias of an estimator

$$Bias(\hat{y}(x_0)) = E[\hat{y}(x_*) - f(x_*)]$$

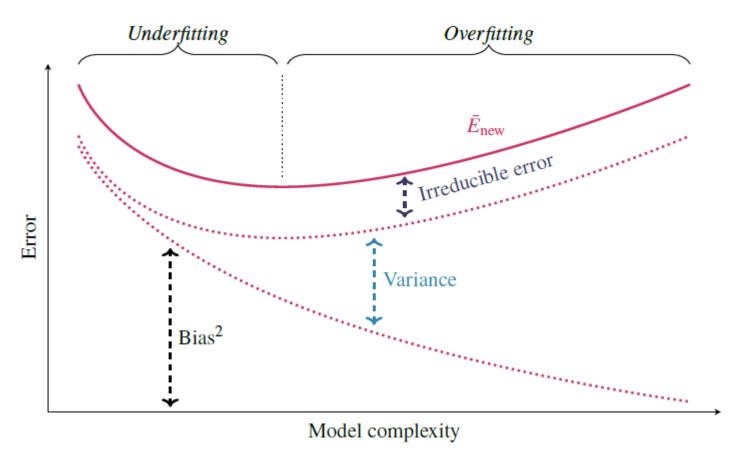
- $f(x_*)$  is expected response,  $y = f + \epsilon$ ,
- $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$
- If  $Bias(\hat{y}(x_*)) = 0$ , the estimator is **unbiased**
- ML estimators are asymptotically unbiased if the model is enough complex
- However, unbiasedness does not mean a good choice!

• Assume error function is  $E(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$  $\bar{E}_{new}(y(x_*), \hat{y}(x_*)) = \sigma^2 + Bias^2(\hat{y}(x_*)) + Var(\hat{y}(x_*))$ 



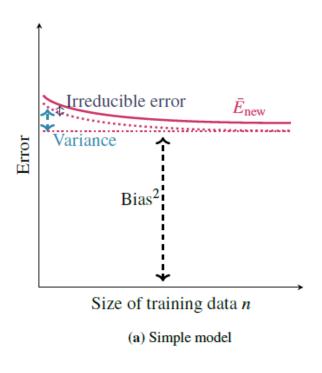
When error is not quadratic, no such nice formula exist

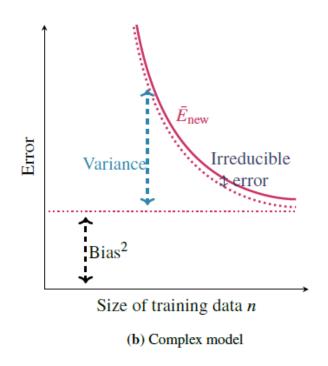
Individual contributions



732A99/TDDE01

#### • Influence of n





**Example Computer Hardware Data Set**: performance measured for various processors and also

- Cycle time
- Memory
- Channels

•

Build model predicting performance

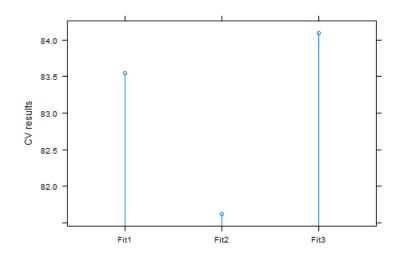


## Cross-validatation

Try models with different predictor sets

```
data=read.csv("machine.csv", header=F)
library(cvTools)
```

```
fit1=lm(V9~V3+V4+V5+V6+V7+V8, data=data)
fit2=lm(V9~V3+V4+V5+V6+V7, data=data)
fit3=lm(V9~V3+V4+V5+V6, data=data)
f1=cvFit(fit1, y=data$V9, data=data,K=10,
foldType="consecutive")
f2=cvFit(fit2, y=data$V9, data=data,K=10,
foldType="consecutive")
f3=cvFit(fit3, y=data$V9, data=data,K=10,
foldType="consecutive")
res=cvSelect(f1,f2,f3)
plot(res)
```



## Model evaluation

- Binary classification
- The choice of the thershold  $p(y = 1|x) > r \rightarrow classify$  "1" affects prediction  $\rightarrow$  which classifier is better?
- Confusion matrix

	PREDICTED			
T R U E		0	1	Total
	0	TN	FP	N
	1	FN	TP	P

### Model evaluation

Accuracy

$$acc = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N}$$

- True Positive Rates (TPR) = sensitivity = recall
  - Probability of detection of positives: TPR=1 positives are correctly detected TPR=TP/P
- False Positive Rates (FPR)
  - Probability of false alarm: system alarms (1) when nothing happens (true=0) FPR = FP/N
- Specificity

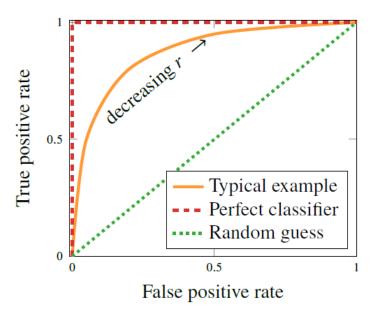
$$Specificity = 1 - FPR$$

Precision

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

#### **ROC** curves

- ROC=Receiver operating characteristics
- Use various thresholds, measure TPR and FPR
- Same FPR, higher TPR→ better classifier
- Best classifier = greatest Area Under Curve (AUC)



### Imbalanced classes

- Note: if 1000 "0" cases and 10 "1" cases, classifying all to "0" results in 99% accuracy
- F1 score: take into account class imbalance

$$F1 = \frac{2 \cdot precision \cdot recall}{precision + recall}$$

• FB score: different costs ( $\beta$  importance of recall versus precision)

$$F_{\beta} = \frac{(1 + \beta^2) \cdot precision \cdot recall}{\beta^2 precision + recall}$$

#### Imbalanced classes: precision-recall curve

Better than ROC for imbalanced classes

