CSCE 478/878 Lecture 5: Evaluating Hypotheses

Stephen D. Scott (Adapted from Tom Mitchell's slides)

October 13, 2008

4

Outline

- Sample error vs. true error
- · Confidence intervals for observed hypothesis error
- Estimators
- Binomial distribution, Normal distribution, Central Limit Theorem
- Paired t tests
- · Comparing learning methods
- ROC analysis

Two Definitions of Error

 The <u>true error</u> of hypothesis h with respect to target function f and distribution D is the probability that h will misclassify an instance drawn at random according to D.

$$error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \equiv \Pr_{x \in \mathcal{D}}[f(x) \neq h(x)]$$

• The <u>sample error</u> of h with respect to target function f and data sample S (|S| = n) is the proportion of examples h misclassifies

$$error_S(h) \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{x \in S} \delta(f(x) \neq h(x)),$$

where $\delta(f(x) \neq h(x))$ is 1 if $f(x) \neq h(x)$, and 0 otherwise.

• How well does $error_S(h)$ estimate $error_D(h)$?

3

Problems Estimating Error

 <u>Bias</u>: If S is training set, error_S(h) is optimistically biased

$$bias \equiv E[error_S(h)] - error_D(h)$$

For unbiased estimate (bias = 0), h and S must be chosen independently \Rightarrow Don't test on training set!

Don't confuse with inductive bias!

 Variance: Even with unbiased S, error_S(h) may still vary from error_D(h)

Estimators

Experiment:

- 1. Choose sample S of size n according to distribution $\mathcal D$
- 2. Measure $error_S(h)$

 $error_S(h)$ is a random variable (i.e., result of an experiment)

 $error_S(h)$ is an <u>unbiased estimator</u> for $error_D(h)$

Given observed $error_S(h)$, what can we conclude about $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$?

Confidence Intervals

lf

- S contains n examples, drawn independently of h and each other
- n ≥ 30

Then

 \bullet With approximately 95% probability, $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ lies in interval

$$error_S(h) \pm 1.96\sqrt{\frac{error_S(h)(1 - error_S(h))}{n}}$$

E.g. hypothesis h misclassifies 12 of the 40 examples in test set S:

$$error_S(h) = \frac{12}{40} = 0.30$$

Then with approx. 95% confidence, $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \in [0.158, 0.442]$

2

Confidence Intervals

(cont'd)

lf

- S contains n examples, drawn independently of h and each other
- n > 30

Then

 With approximately N% probability, error_D(h) lies in interval

$$error_S(h) \pm z_N \sqrt{\frac{error_S(h)(1 - error_S(h))}{n}}$$

where

N%:	50%	68%	80%	90%	95%	98%	99%
$N\%$: z_N :	0.67	1.00	1.28	1.64	1.96	2.33	2.58

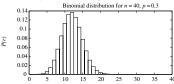
Why?

7

$error_S(h)$ is a Random Variable

Repeatedly run the experiment, each with different randomly drawn S (each of size n)

Probability of observing r misclassified examples:



$$P(r) = \binom{n}{r} \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h)^{r} (1 - \operatorname{error}_{\mathcal{D}}(h))^{n-r}$$

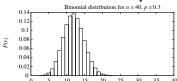
I.e. let $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ be probability of heads in biased coin, the P(r) = prob. of getting r heads out of n flips

What kind of distribution is this?

8

11

Binomial Probability Distribution



$$P(r) = \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} p^r (1-p)^{n-r}$$

Probability P(r) of r heads in n coin flips, if p = Pr(heads)

• Expected, or mean value of X, E[X] (= # heads on n flips = # mistakes on n test exs), is

$$E[X] \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n} iP(i) = np = n \cdot error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$$

Variance of X is

$$Var(X) \equiv E[(X - E[X])^2] = np(1 - p)$$

• Standard deviation of X, σ_X , is

$$\sigma_X \equiv \sqrt{E[(X - E[X])^2]} = \sqrt{np(1-p)}$$

a

Approximate Binomial Dist. with Normal

 $error_S(h) = r/n$ is binomially distributed, with

- mean $\mu_{error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)} = error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ (i.e. unbiased est.)
- standard deviation $\sigma_{error_S(h)}$

$$\sigma_{error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)} = \sqrt{\frac{error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)(1 - error_{\mathcal{D}}(h))}{n}}$$

(i.e. increasing n decreases variance)

Want to compute confidence interval = interval centered at $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ containing N% of the weight under the distribution (difficult for binomial)

Approximate binomial by normal (Gaussian) dist:

- mean $\mu_{error_S(h)} = error_D(h)$
- ullet standard deviation $\sigma_{error_S(h)}$

$$\sigma_{error_S(h)} \approx \sqrt{\frac{error_S(h)(1 - error_S(h))}{n}}$$

Normal Probability Distribution



$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right)$$

- $\bullet\,$ Defined completely by μ and σ
- \bullet The probability that X will fall into the interval (a,b) is given by

$$\int_{a}^{b} p(x)dx$$

• Expected, or mean value of X, E[X], is

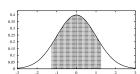
$$E[X] = \mu$$

- Variance of X is $Var(X) = \sigma^2$
- Standard deviation of X, σ_X , is

$$\sigma_X = \sigma$$

Normal Probability Distribution

(cont'd)



80% of area (probability) lies in $\mu \pm 1.28\sigma$

N% of area (probability) lies in $\mu \pm z_N\,\sigma$

N%:	50%	68%	80%	90%	95%	98%	99%
z_N :	0.67	1.00	1.28	1.64	1.96	2.33	2.58

Can also have one-sided bounds:



N% of area lies $<\mu+z_N'\,\sigma$ or $>\mu-z_N'\sigma,$ where $z_N'=z_{100-(100-N)/2}$

N%:	50%	68%	80%	90%	95%	98%	99%
z'_N :	0.0	0.47	0.84	1.28	1.64	2.05	2.33

Confidence Intervals Revisited

lf

- $\bullet \ S$ contains n examples, drawn independently of h and each other
- n ≥ 30

Then

With approximately 95% probability, error_S(h) lies in interval

$$error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \pm 1.96\sqrt{\frac{error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)(1 - error_{\mathcal{D}}(h))}{n}}$$

Equivalently, $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ lies in interval

$$error_{S}(h) \pm 1.96\sqrt{\frac{error_{D}(h)(1 - error_{D}(h))}{n}}$$

which is approximately

$$error_S(h) \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{error_S(h)(1 - error_S(h))}{n}}$$

(One-sided bounds yield upper or lower error bounds)

13

Central Limit Theorem

How can we justify approximation?

Consider a set of independent, identically distributed random variables $Y_1 \dots Y_n$, all governed by an arbitrary probability distribution with mean μ and finite variance σ^2 . Define the sample mean

$$\bar{Y} \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$$

Note that \bar{Y} is itself a random variable, i.e. the result of an experiment (e.g. $error_S(h)=r/n$)

<u>Central Limit Theorem</u>: As $n\to\infty$, the distribution governing $\bar Y$ approaches a Normal distribution, with mean μ and variance σ^2/n

Thus the distribution of $error_S(h)$ is approximately normal for large n, and its expected value is $error_D(h)$

(Rule of thumb: $n \ge 30$ when estimator's distribution is binomial, might need to be larger for other distributions)

14

17

Calculating Confidence Intervals

- 1. Pick parameter p to estimate
 - $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$
- 2. Choose an estimator
 - error_S(h)
- Determine probability distribution that governs estimator
 - error_S(h) governed by binomial distribution, approximated by normal when n ≥ 30
- 4. Find interval (L,U) such that N% of probability mass falls in the interval
 - Could have $L = -\infty$ or $U = \infty$
 - ullet Use table of z_N or z_N' values (if distrib. normal)

15

Difference Between Hypotheses

Test h_1 on sample S_1 , test h_2 on S_2 , $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$

1. Pick parameter to estimate

$$d \equiv error_{\mathcal{D}}(h_1) - error_{\mathcal{D}}(h_2)$$

2. Choose an estimator

$$\widehat{d} \equiv error_{S_1}(h_1) - error_{S_2}(h_2) \label{eq:definition}$$
 (unbiased)

 Determine probability distribution that governs estimator (difference between two normals is also normal, variances add)

$$\sigma_{\tilde{d}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{error_{S_i}(h_1)(1-error_{S_i}(h_1))}{n_1} + \frac{error_{S_i}(h_2)(1-error_{S_i}(h_2))}{n_2}}$$

4. Find interval (L,U) such that N% of prob. mass falls in the interval: $\hat{d}\pm z_n\,\sigma_{\hat{d}}$

Can also use $S = S_1 \cup S_2$ to test h_1 and h_2

Paired t test to compare h_A , h_B

- 1. Partition data into k disjoint test sets T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k of equal size, where this size is at least 30
- 2. For i from 1 to k. do

$$\delta_i \leftarrow error_{T_i}(h_A) - error_{T_i}(h_B)$$

3. Return the value $\overline{\delta}$, where

$$\bar{\delta} \equiv \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_i$$

N% confidence interval estimate for d:

$$\bar{\delta} \pm t_{N,k-1} s_{\bar{\delta}}$$

$$s_{\overline{\delta}} \equiv \sqrt{\frac{1}{k(k-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\delta_i - \overline{\delta})^2}$$

t plays role of z, s plays role of σ

t test gives more accurate results since std. deviation approximated and test sets for h_A and h_B not independent

Comparing Learning Algorithms L_A and L_B

What we'd like to estimate:

$$E_{S\subset\mathcal{D}}[error_{\mathcal{D}}(L_A(S)) - error_{\mathcal{D}}(L_B(S))]$$

where L(S) is the hypothesis output by learner L using training set S

I.e., the expected difference in true error between hypotheses output by learners L_A and L_B , when trained using randomly selected training sets S drawn according to distribution $\mathcal D$

But, given limited data D_0 , what is a good estimator?

• Could partition D_0 into training set S_0 and testing set T_0 , and measure

$$error_{T_0}(L_A(S_0)) - error_{T_0}(L_B(S_0))$$

 Even better, repeat this many times and average the results (next slide)

Comparing learning algorithms ${\cal L}_A$ and ${\cal L}_B$ (cont'd)

k-fold Cross Validation

- 1. Partition data D_0 into k disjoint test sets T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_k of equal size, where this size is at least 30
- 2. For i from 1 to k, do

(use T_i for the test set, and the remaining data for training set S_i)

- $S_i \leftarrow D_0 T_i$
- $h_A \leftarrow L_A(S_i)$
- $h_B \leftarrow L_B(S_i)$
- $\delta_i \leftarrow error_{T_i}(h_A) error_{T_i}(h_B)$
- 3. Return the value $\bar{\delta}$, where

$$\bar{\delta} \equiv \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_i$$

19

Comparing learning algorithms ${\cal L}_A$ and ${\cal L}_B$ (cont'd)

- Notice we'd like to use the paired t test on $\overline{\delta}$ to obtain a confidence interval
- Not really correct, because the training sets in this algorithm are not independent (they overlap!)
- More correct to view algorithm as producing an estimate of

$$E_{S \subset D_0}[error_{\mathcal{D}}(L_A(S)) - error_{\mathcal{D}}(L_B(S))]$$

instead of

$$E_{S\subset\mathcal{D}}[error_{\mathcal{D}}(L_A(S)) - error_{\mathcal{D}}(L_B(S))]$$

• But even this approximation is better than nothing

20

label

 $\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}$

-12.640

-29.124

-83.222

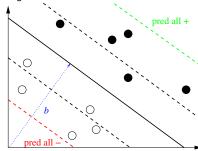
ROC Analysis

- So far, we've looked at a single error rate to compare hypotheses/learning algorithms/etc.
- This may not tell the whole story:
 - 1000 test examples: 20 positive, 980 negative
 - h_A gets 2/20 pos correct, 965/980 neg correct, for accuracy of (2 + 965)/(20 + 980) = 0.967
 - Pretty impressive, except that always predicting negative yields accuracy = 0.980
 - Would we rather have h_B , which gets 19/20 pos correct and 930/980 neg, for accuracy = 0.949?
 - Depends on how important the positives are, i.e. frequency in practice and/or cost (e.g. cancer diagnosis)
- Can separately report false positive (FP) and false negative (FN) error rates, but we can give even more detail than that

21

ROC Analysis (cont'd)

- Consider an ANN or SVM
- Normally threshold at 0, but what if we changed it?
- Keeping weight vector constant while changing threshold = holding hyperplane's slope fixed while moving along its normal vector



• I.e. get a set of classifiers, one per labeling of test set

ROC Analysis

Plotting TP versus FP error

- Consider the "always -" hyp. What is its FP rate? Its TP rate? What about the "always +" hyp?
- In between the extremes, we plot TP versus FP by sorting the test examples by the SVM's weighted sums:

 x_6

 x_7

label Ex

 $\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}$

169.752

109.200

19.210

 x_1

 x_2

 x_3

x_4	1.905	+	x_9	-91.554	+
x_5	-2.75	+	x_{10}	-128.212	_
	TP				
	A				
			_	x10	
	1 x5	i	•	•	
	(•	• •		
		_			
	'	•			
	• •	•			
	• x1				
	0 📥			— ED	

ROC Analysis Convex Hull TP ID3 naive Bayes

- The convex hull of the ROC curve yields a collection of classifiers, each optimal under different conditions
 - If FP cost = FN cost, then draw a line with slope |N|/|P| at (0, 1) and drag it towards convex hull until you touch it; that's your operating point
 - Can use as a classifier any part of the hull since can randomly select between two classifiers
- Can also compare curves against "single-point" classifiers when no curves available
 - In plot, ID3 better than our SVM iff negatives scarce;
 nB never better

22

23

ROC Analysis

Miscellany

- What is the worst possible ROC curve?
- One metric for measuring a curve's goodness: area under curve (AUC):

$$\frac{\sum_{x_{+} \in P} \sum_{x_{-} \in N} I(h(x_{+}) > h(x_{-}))}{|P| |N|}$$

i.e. rank all examples by confidence in "+" prediction, count the number of times a positively-labeled example (from P) is ranked above a negatively-labeled one (from N), then normalize

- What is the best value?
- Distribution approximately normal if |P|, |N| > 10, so can find confidence intervals
- Catching on as a better scalar measure of performance than error rate
- ROC analysis possible (though tricky) with multi-class problems

25

ROC Analysis

Miscellany (cont'd)

- Can use ROC curve to modify classifiers, e.g. re-label decision trees
- What does "ROC" stand for?
 - "Receiver Operating Characteristic" from signal detection theory, where binary signals are corrupted by noise
 - Use plots to determine how to set threshold to determine presence of signal
 - Threshold too high: miss true hits (TP rate low), too low: too many false alarms (FP rate high)
- Alternatives to ROC: <u>cost curves</u> and <u>precision-recall curves</u>

Topic summary due in 1 week!

26 27