#### **Lecture 7: Evaluation**

#### COMP 411, Fall 2021 Victoria Manfredi





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# **Today's Topics**

#### **Evaluation**

- Cross-validation
- Bias-variance tradeoff

# **Evaluation CROSS-VALIDATION**

## **Model selection**

Very broadly: choosing the best model using given data

What makes a model:

- 1. Features
- 2. Hyper-parameters that control the hypothesis space
  - Example: depth of a decision tree, neural network architecture, etc.
- 3. The learning algorithm, which may have its own hyperparameters
- 4. Actual model itself

The learning algorithms we see in this class only find the last one

– What about the rest?

## **Model selection strategies**

Choose model that performs best on a hold-out test dataset

**Cross-validation** 

estimate model performance using resampling technique

VC dimension and risk minimization

Probabilistic statistical measures

- Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
- Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)
- Minimum Description Length (MDL)

#### **Cross-validation**

We want to train a classifier using a given dataset

We know how to train given features and hyperparameters

How do we know what the best feature set and hyperparameters are?

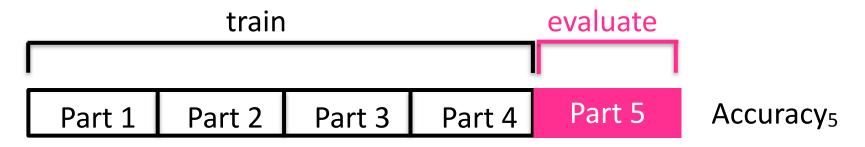
Given a particular feature set and hyper-parameter setting

1. Split the data into K (say 5 or 10) equal sized parts

Part 1 Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5
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Given a particular feature set and hyper-parameter setting

- 1. Split the data into K (say 5 or 10) equal sized parts
- 2. Train a classifier on four parts and evaluate it on the fifth one



Given a particular feature set and hyper-parameter setting

- 1. Split the data into K (say 5 or 10) equal sized parts
- 2. Train a classifier on four parts and evaluate it on the fifth one
- 3. Repeat this using each of the K parts as the validation set

Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Accuracy <sub>5</sub>
Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Accuracy <sub>4</sub>
Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Accuracy <sub>3</sub>
Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Accuracy <sub>2</sub>
Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	Part 4	Part 5	Accuracy <sub>1</sub>

Given a particular feature set and hyper-parameter setting

- 1. Split the data into K (say 5 or 10) equal sized parts
- 2. Train a classifier on four parts and evaluate it on the fifth one
- 3. Repeat this using each of the K parts as the validation set
- 4. The quality of this feature set/hyper-parameter is the average of these K estimates

Performance =  $(Accuracy_1 + Accuracy_2 + Accuracy_3 + Accuracy_4 + Accuracy_5) / 5$ 

Given a particular feature set and hyper-parameter setting

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5. Repeat for every feature set/ hyper-parameter choice

#### **Cross-validation**

We want to train a classifier using a given dataset We know how to train given features and hyper-parameters

How do we know what the best feature set and hyper-parameters are?

- 1. Evaluate every feature set and hyper-parameter using crossvalidation (could be computationally expensive)
- 2. Pick the best according to cross-validation performance
- 3. Train on full data using this setting

# **Evaluation BIAS AND VARIANCE INFORMALLY**

#### Bias

Every learning algorithm requires assumptions about the hypothesis space.

- E.g., "my hypothesis space is
  - linear"
  - decision trees with 5 nodes"
  - a three layer neural network with rectifier hidden units"

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Bias is the true error (loss) of the best predictor in the hypothesis set

- What will the bias be if the hypothesis set cannot represent the target function? (high or low?): bias will be non-zero, possibly high
- Underfitting: when bias is high

#### Variance

The performance of a classifier is dependent on the specific training set we have. Perhaps the model will change if we slightly change the training set

Variance: describes how much the best classifier depends on the training set

**Overfitting:** high variance

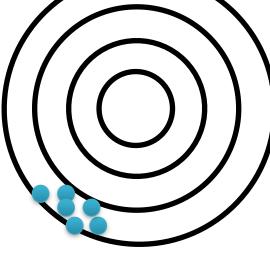
Variance:

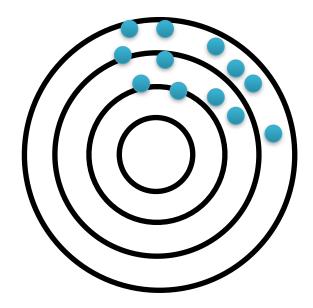
- Increases when the classifiers become more complex
- Decreases with larger training sets

#### Let's play darts

Suppose the true concept is the center

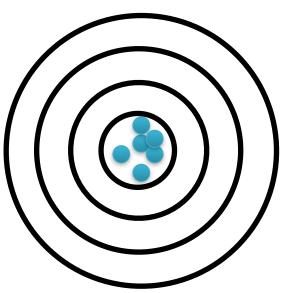
#### High bias



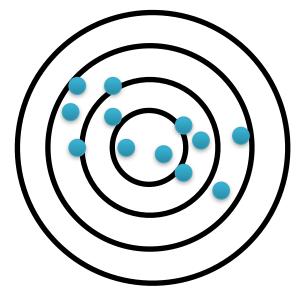


Low bias

Each dot is a model that is learned from a a different dataset



Low variance



High variance <sup>17</sup>

#### **Bias variance tradeoffs**

Error = bias + variance (+ noise)

High bias  $\rightarrow$  both training and test error can be high

• Arises when the classifier cannot represent the data

High variance  $\rightarrow$  training error can be low, but test error will be high

• Arises when the learner overfits the training set

# **Evaluation BIAS AND VARIANCE FORMALLY**

#### Questions

- 1. Given a hypothesis *h* and a data sample containing *n* examples drawn at random according to the distribution *D*, what is the best estimate of the accuracy of *h* over future instances drawn from the same distribution?
  - A robust model would give us the same prediction whatever data we used for training our model
- 2. What is the probable error in this accuracy estimate?

#### Some definitions

Expected value or mean of a random variable *Y*:

$$\mu_{y} \equiv E[Y] = \sum_{i} y_{i} \Pr(Y = y_{i})$$

Variance of a random variable Y characterizes the width or dispersion of the distribution around its mean:

$$E[(Y - \mu_y)^2] = \sum_i (y_i - \mu_y)^2 \Pr(Y = y_i)$$
  
$$Var(Y) = E[(Y - \mu_y)^2] = E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2 = E[Y^2] - \mu_y^2$$

Standard deviation of *Y*:

$$\sigma_Y \equiv \sqrt{Var(Y)}$$

#### Some definitions

An estimator is a random variable Y used to estimate some parameter p of an underlying population.

The estimation bias of Y as an estimator for p is the quantity (E[Y] - p). An unbiased estimator is one for which the bias is zero.

A  $N\,\%\,$  confidence interval estimate for parameter p is an interval that includes p with probability  $N\,\%\,$ 

### Two definitions of error

The **true error** 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

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

The notation  $\Pr_{x \in D}$  denotes that the probability is taken over distribution D

The **sample error** of hypothesis h with respect to target function f and data sample S is the proportion of examples h misclassifies

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

where *n* is # of examples in *S* and  $\delta(f(x), h(x))$  is 1 if  $f(x) \neq h(x)$  and 0 otherwise

#### Sample error vs. true error

What we'd like to know: true error,  $error_D(h)$ 

What we are able to measure: sample error,  $error_{S}(h)$ 

 Every time we collect a sample S' containing new randomly drawn examples, we might expect the sample error errors to vary slightly from the sample error error<sub>S</sub>(h). We expect a difference due to the random differences in S and S'

#### Questions:

- How good an estimate of  $error_D(h)$  is provided by  $error_S(h)$ ?
- How does the deviation between error<sub>S</sub>(h) and error<sub>D</sub>(h) depend on the size of the data sample?

#### **Problems estimating error**

1. **Bias:** if S is training set,  $error_{S}(h)$  is optimistically biased

$$bias \equiv E[error_{S}(h)] - error_{D}(h)$$

For unbiased estimate, h and S must be chosen independently.

2. **Variance**: even with unbiased *S*,  $error_{S}(h)$  may still vary from  $error_{D}(h)$ 

#### Example

Hypothesis h misclassifies 12 of the 40 examples in S

$$error_{S}(h) = \frac{12}{40} = .30$$

What is  $error_D(h)$ ?

#### **Estimators**

Experiment

- 1. Choose sample S of size n according to distribution D
- 2. Measure  $error_{S}(h)$

 $error_{S}(h)$  is a random variable (i.e., result of an experiment)  $error_{S}(h)$  is an unbiased *estimator* for  $error_{D}(h)$ 

Given observed  $error_{S}(h)$  what can we conclude about  $error_{D}(h)$ ?

## **Confidence intervals**

- lf
- S contains n examples, drawn independently of h according to probability distribution D
- *n* ≥ 30
- hypothesis h commits r errors over these n examples (i.e.,  $error_{S}(h) = r/n$ )

#### Then statistical theory says

- Given no other information, the most probable value of  $error_D(h)$  is  $error_S(h)$
- With approximately 95 % probability, the true  $error_D(h)$  lies in the interval

N%: 50% 68% 80% 90% 95% 98% 99%

 $z_N$ : 0.67 1.00 1.28 1.64 1.96 2.33 2.58

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

where

#### **Binomial random variable**

Suppose that *n* independent trials, each of which results in a "success" with probability *p* and in a "failure" with probability 1 - p, are to be performed. If *X* represents the number of successes that occur in the n trials, then *X* is said to be a binomial random variable with parameters (n, p).

The probability mass function of a binomial random variable having parameters (n, p) is given by

$$p(i) = \binom{n}{i} p^{i} (1-p)^{n-i}, \qquad i = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

where

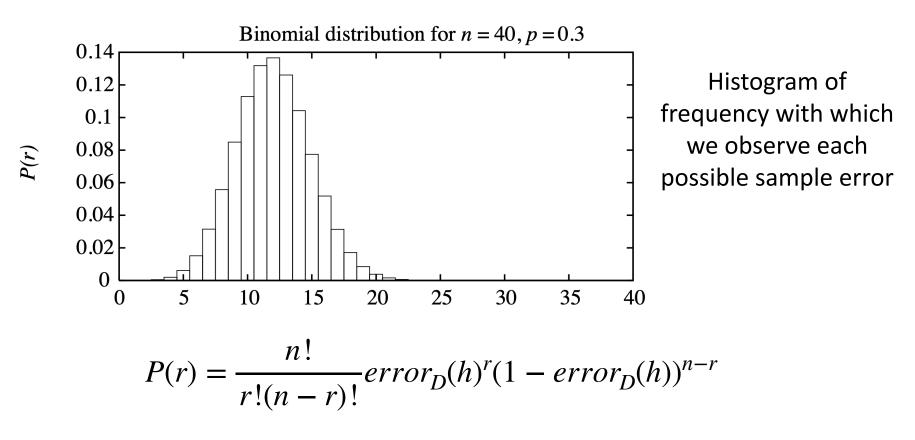
$$\binom{n}{i} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)!i!}$$

equals the number of different groups of i objects that can be chosen from a set of n objects. The validity of this equation may be verified by first noting that the probability of any particular sequence of the n outcomes containing i successes and n - i failures is, by the assumed independence of trials,  $p^i(1-p)^{n-i}$ .

#### $error_{S}(h)$ is a binomial random variable

Rerun the experiment with different randomly drawn *S* (of size *n*)

Probability of observing *r* misclassified examples:



 $error_{S}(h)$  is a binomial random variable

$$P(r) = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} error_D(h)^r (1 - error_D(h))^{n-r}$$

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

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

$$E[X] \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n} iP(i) = np$$

Variance of X is

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

• Standard deviation of X,  $\sigma_X$ , is

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

#### Normal distribution approximates binomial

 $error_{S}(h)$  follows a binomial distribution with

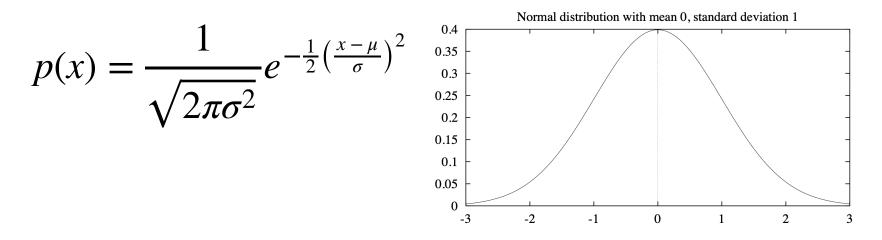
 $\operatorname{mean} \mu_{\operatorname{error}_{S}}(h) = \operatorname{error}_{D}(h)$ 

standard deviation 
$$\sigma_{error_S}(h) = \sqrt{\frac{error_D(h)(1 - error_D(h))}{n}}$$

Approximate this by a normal distribution with

$$\begin{split} \text{mean} \ \mu_{error_S}(h) &= error_D(h) \\ \text{standard deviation} \ \sigma_{error_S}(h) \approx \sqrt{\frac{error_S(h)(1-error_S(h))}{n}} \end{split}$$

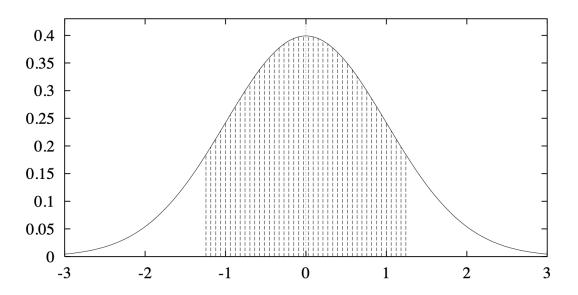
## Normal probability distribution



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*,  $\sigma_X$ , is  $\sigma_X = \sigma$

#### Normal probability distribution



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

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

## **Confidence intervals more correctly**

lf

- S contains n examples, drawn independently of h according to probability distribution D
- *n* ≥ 30
- hypothesis *h* commits *r* errors over these *n* examples (i.e.,  $error_{S}(h) = r/n$ )

#### Then statistical theory says

• With approximately 95 % probability, the sample error,  $error_{S}(h)$  lies in the interval

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

Use normal standard deviation in confidence interval not binomial standard deviation, since approximating with normal.

equivalently, the true error,  $error_D(h)$  lies in the interval

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

which is approximately

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

## **Central Limit Theorem**

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

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

Central Limit Theorem. As  $n \to \infty$ , the distribution governing  $\overline{Y}$  approaches a normal distribution, with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ 

## Calculating confidence intervals

- 1. Pick parameter p to estimate:  $error_D(h)$
- 2. Choose an estimator:  $error_{S}(h)$
- 3. Determine probability distribution that governs estimator:  $error_S(h)$  governed by Binomial distribution approximated by Normal when  $n \ge 30$
- 4. Find interval (L, U) such that N % of probability mass falls in the interval: use table of  $z_N$  values

#### Difference between hypotheses

Test  $h_1$  on sample  $S_1$ , test  $h_2$  on  $S_2$ 

1. Pick parameter to estimate:

 $d \equiv error_D(h_1) - error_D(h_2)$ 

2. Choose an estimator

$$\hat{d} \equiv error_{S_1}(h_1) - error_{S_2}(h_2)$$

Since the sum of two independent normal distributed random variables is normal: mean is the sum of the two means, variance is the sum of the two variances

3. Determine probability distribution that governs estimator

$$\sigma_{\hat{d}}^2 \approx \sqrt{\frac{error_{S_1}(h_1)(1 - error_{S_1}(h_1))}{n_1}} + \frac{error_{S_2}(h_2)(1 - error_{S_2}(h_2))}{n_2}$$

4. Find interval (L, U) such that N % of probability mass falls in the interval

$$\hat{d} \pm z_n \sqrt{\frac{error_{S_1}(h_1)(1 - error_{S_1}(h_1))}{n_1} + \frac{error_{S_2}(h_2)(1 - error_{S_2}(h_2))}{n_2}}$$

#### Aside

It can be shown that the difference between the sample errors,  $\hat{d}$ , gives an unbiased estimate of d, that is  $E[\hat{d}] = d$ 

What is the probability distribution governing the random variable  $\hat{d}$ ? For large  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  (e.g., both  $\geq 30$ , both  $error_{S_1}(h_1)$  and  $error_{S_2}(h_2)$  follow distributions that are approximately Normal.

Because the difference of two Normal distributions is also a Normal distribution,  $\hat{d}$  will also follow a distribution that is approximately Normal, with mean d. It can also be shown that the variance of this distribution is the sum of the variances of  $error_{S_1}(h_1)$  and  $error_{S_2}(h_2)$ 

#### **Causes of estimation error**

**Bias:** If *Y* is an estimator for some parameter *p*, the estimation bias of *Y* is the difference between *p* and the expected value of *Y*. For example, if *S* is the training data used to formulate hypothesis *h*, then  $error_S(h)$  gives an optimistically biased estimate of the true error  $error_D(h)$ 

**Variance:** Even with an unbiased estimator, the observed value of the estimator is likely to vary from one experiment to another. The variance  $\sigma^2$  of the distribution governing the estimator characterizes how widely this estimate is likely to vary form the correct value. This variance decreases as the size of the data sample is increased.

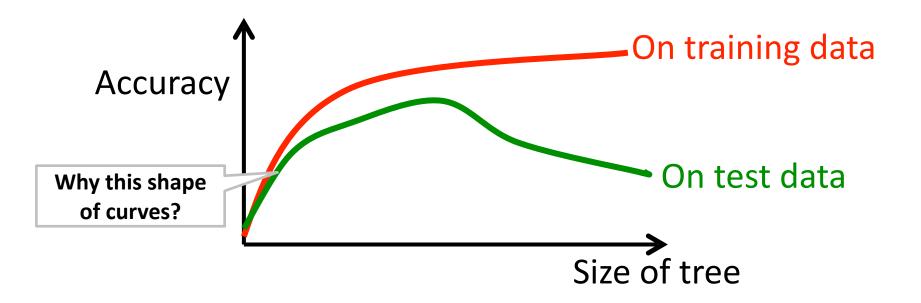
# **Evaluation BIAS AND VARIANCE INTUITION**

### The i.i.d. assumption

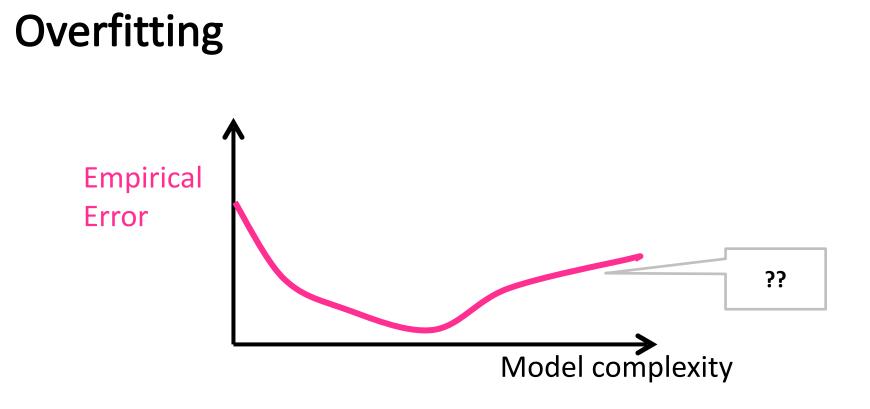
Training and test items are independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.):

- There is a distribution P(X, Y) from which the data
  D = {(x, y)} is generated. Sometimes it's useful to rewrite
  P(X, Y) as P(X)P(Y | X). Usually P(X, Y) is unknown to us (we just know it exists)
- Training and test data are samples drawn from the same  $P(\mathbf{X}, Y)$ : they are identically distributed
- Each( $\mathbf{x}$ , y) is drawn independently from  $P(\mathbf{X}, Y)$

## Overfitting



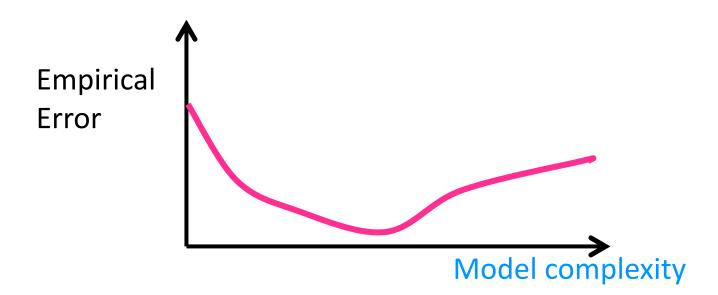
A decision tree overfits the training data when its accuracy on the training data goes up but its accuracy on unseen data goes down



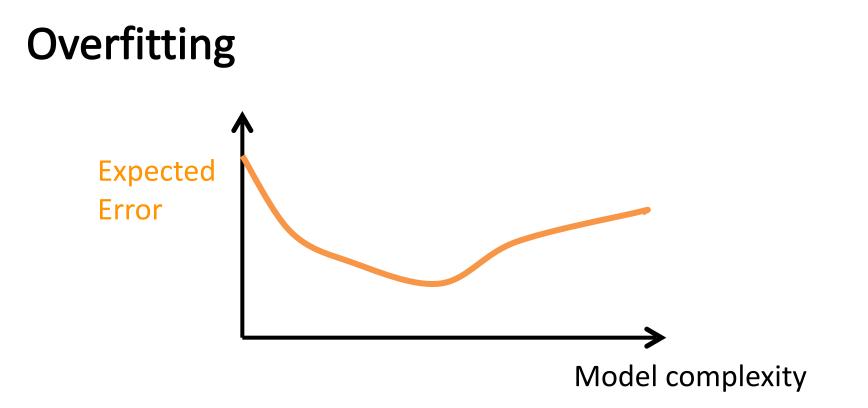
Empirical error (= on a given data set):

The percentage of items in this data set are misclassified by the classifier *f*.

### Overfitting



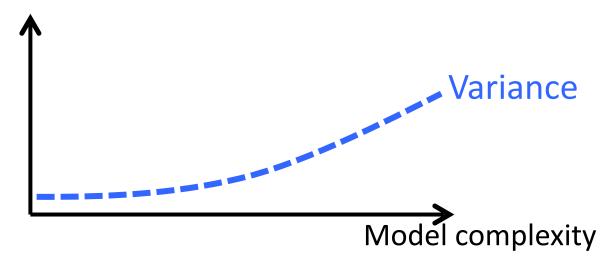
#### Model complexity (informally): How many parameters do we have to learn? Decision trees: complexity = # of nodes



#### **Expected error:**

- What percentage of items drawn from  $P(\mathbf{x}, y)$  do we expect to be misclassified by f?
- (That's what we really care about **generalization**)

## Variance of a learner (informally)



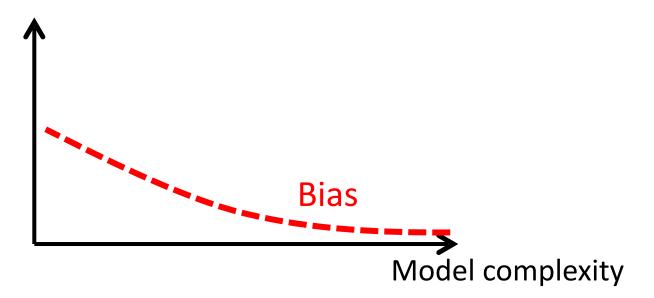
#### How susceptible is the learner to minor changes in the training data?

- (i.e. to different samples from  $P(\mathbf{x}, y)$ )

#### Variance increases with model complexity

- Think about extreme cases: a hypothesis space with one function vs. all functions.
- Or, adding the "wind" feature in the decision tree earlier.
- The larger the hypothesis space is, the more flexible the selection of the chosen hypothesis is as a function of the data.
- More accurately: for each sample data set D, you will learn a different hypothesis h(D), that will have a different sample error e(h); we are looking here at the variance of this random variable from the true error.

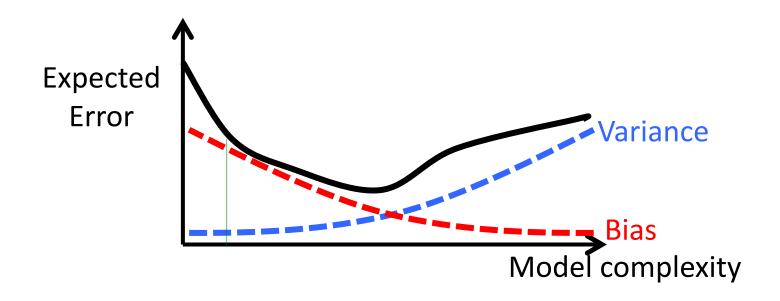
## Bias of a learner (informally)



#### How likely is the learner to identify the **target** hypothesis?

- Bias is low when the model is expressive (low empirical error)
- Bias is high when the model is (too) simple
- The larger the hypothesis space is, the easiest it is to be close to the true hypothesis.
- More accurately: for each data set D, you learn a different hypothesis h(D), that has a different true error e(h); we are looking here at the difference of the mean of this random variable from the true error.

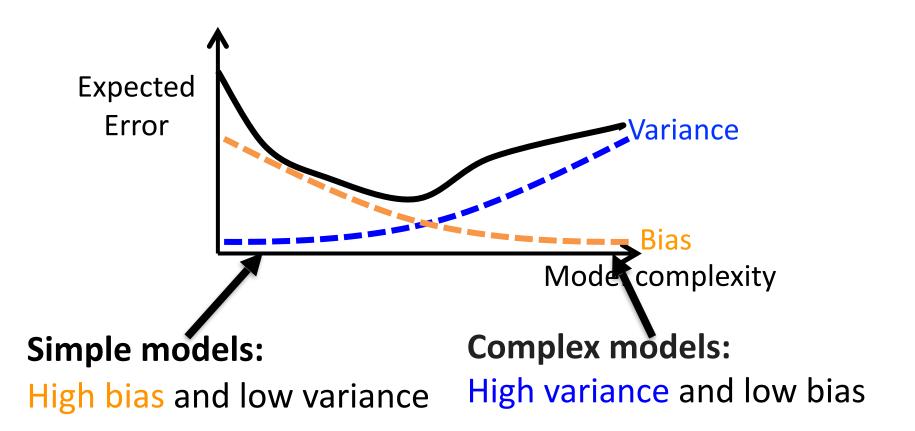
#### Impact of bias and variance



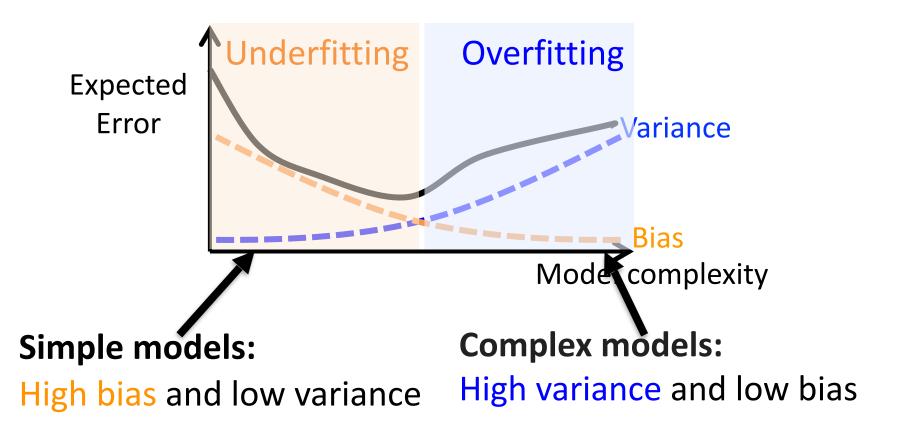
Expected error ≈ bias + variance



### Model complexity



### Model complexity



This can be made more accurate for some loss functions. We will discuss a more precise and general theory that trades **expressivity of models** with **empirical error** 

#### Managing of bias and variance

Ensemble methods reduce variance

- Multiple classifiers are combined
- E.g., bagging, boosting

Decision trees of a given depth

• Increasing depth decreases bias, increases variance

Neural networks

• Deeper models can increase variance, but decrease bias