

Introduction to Machine Learning

Session 1c: Assessing Model Accuracy

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Selection of a Machine Learning Method

No-Free-Lunch Theorem

There is no universal learning method that performs best on all learning tasks.

This implies that. . .

- We need to decide for any **given data set** which method performs best.
- To evaluate the **performance** of a method on a data set, we need a way to measure how well its predictions match the observed data.

Assessing Model Accuracy in Regression Problems

Measuring the Quality of Fit of a Method

- In regression problems, the most commonly used performance measure is the **mean squared error** (MSE)

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i) \right)^2, \quad (1)$$

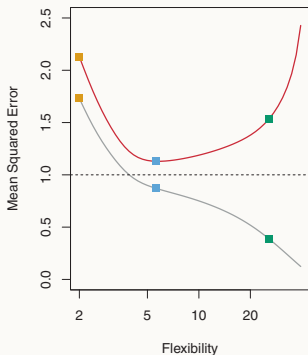
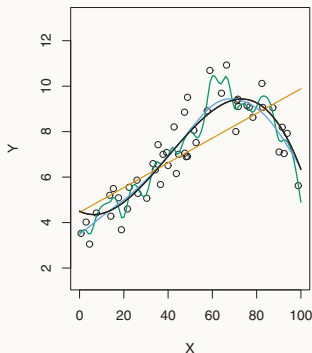
where $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is the prediction that \hat{f} produces for the i th observation.

- The MSE in (1) is computed using the training data, so it is the **training MSE**.
- However, what we care about is how well the method performs on new (i.e., previously unseen) **test data** $\{(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i, \tilde{y}_i)\}_{i=1, \dots, m}$.
- We therefore select the method that minimizes the **test MSE**

$$\text{test MSE} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\tilde{y}_i - \hat{f}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i) \right)^2. \quad (2)$$

Measuring the Quality of Fit of a Method

- What happens if we select instead the method that minimizes the training MSE in (1)?



(Source: James et al. 2013, 31)

- **Overfitting** the data: a model that is less flexible than the one we selected would have yielded a smaller test MSE.

The Bias-Variance Trade-Off

- The U-shape in the test MSE curve is the result of two competing properties of learning methods.
- The **expected test MSE** for value x_0 can be decomposed into the sum of three quantities

$$E \left[\left(y_0 - \hat{f}(x_0) \right)^2 \right] = \text{Var} \left[\hat{f}(x_0) \right] + \left(\text{Bias} \left[\hat{f}(x_0) \right] \right)^2 + \underbrace{\text{Var} \left[\varepsilon \right]}_{\text{Irreducible error}} . \quad (3)$$

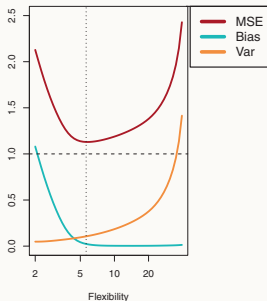
- To minimize the expected test MSE, we need to select a method that simultaneously achieves **low variance** and **low bias**.

The Bias-Variance Trade-Off

- What are the bias and variance of a method?
- **Bias:** The error that we introduce by approximating the true f by the estimate \hat{f} .
- **Variance:** Different training data sets result in a different \hat{f} . The variance refers to the amount by which \hat{f} would change if we estimated it using a different training data set.

The Bias-Variance Trade-Off

- More flexible methods have higher variance, while less flexible methods have higher bias. This is the bias-variance trade-off.



(Source: James et al. 2013, 36)

- In practice f is unobserved, making it impossible to explicitly compute the test MSE, bias, or variance for a method.
- We need to estimate the test MSE based on training data (e.g., by using cross-validation).

- Cross-validation (CV) is a **re-sampling method** that can be used to estimate the test error of a learning method based on the training data.
- Randomly split the n training observations into $2 \leq k \leq n$ non-overlapping groups (folds) of approximately equal size.
- Use the first fold as the validation data set and the remaining folds as the training data set.
- Fit the model on the training observations.
- Use the fitted model to make predictions for the excluded observations and compute the MSE.

- Repeat the procedure, each time using another fold as the validation data set. This gives k estimates of the test error, $MSE_1, MSE_2, \dots, MSE_k$.
- The CV estimate for the test MSE is given by the average

$$CV_{(k)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k MSE_i. \quad (4)$$

- If $k < n$, then this procedure is called **k -fold cross-validation**.
- If $k = n$, then we call it **leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV)**.

Assessing Model Accuracy in Classification Problems

Measuring the Error Rate of a Method

- Suppose that we estimate f on the basis of training data $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1, \dots, n}$, where y_1, \dots, y_n are qualitative.
- The most commonly used approach for quantifying the accuracy of \hat{f} is the **error rate**

$$\text{error rate} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i), \quad (5)$$

where \hat{y}_i is the **predicted class label** for i using \hat{f} and $\mathbb{1}(y_i \neq \hat{y}_i)$ is an indicator variable that equals 1 if $y_i \neq \hat{y}_i$ (**misclassification**) and 0 if $y_i = \hat{y}_i$ (**correct classification**).

- The error rate in (5) is the **training error rate** because it is computed based on the training data.

Measuring the Error Rate of a Method

- Again, however, we are more interested in selecting a method that minimizes the **error rate** on new test data

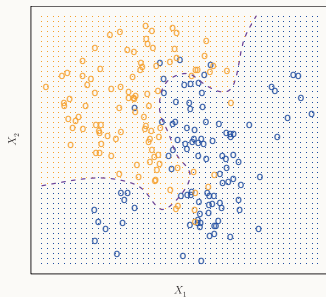
$$\{(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i, \tilde{y}_i)\}_{i=1, \dots, m}$$

$$\text{test error rate} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}(\tilde{y}_i \neq \hat{y}_i). \quad (6)$$

- One can show that the **test error rate** is minimized by the **Bayes classifier**, which assigns each observation to the most likely class, given its predictor values.
- The Bayes classifier produces the lowest possible test error rate (the **Bayes error rate**).
- The Bayes error rate is analogous to the irreducible error in the regression setting.

Measuring the Error Rate of a Method

Simulated Data



(Source: James et al. 2013, 38)

For each $X = x$, there is a probability that Y is orange or blue. The orange region is the set of x for which $\Pr(Y = \text{orange} \mid X = x) > 0.5$ and the blue region is the set for which $\Pr(Y = \text{orange} \mid X = x) \leq 0.5$. The dashed line is the Bayes decision boundary.

Measuring the Error Rate of a Method

- For real data, we do not know $\Pr(Y = j \mid X = x)$, so we cannot compute the Bayes classifier.
- We need to estimate $\Pr(Y \mid X)$ and then classify a given observation to the class with the highest **estimated probability**.
- One method to do so is the **K -nearest neighbors** (KNN) classifier. Given a $K \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ and a test observation x_0 , KNN identifies the K points in the training data closest to x_0 , indicated by \mathcal{N}_0 , and estimates the conditional probability for each class j as the fraction of points in \mathcal{N}_0 whose response values equal j

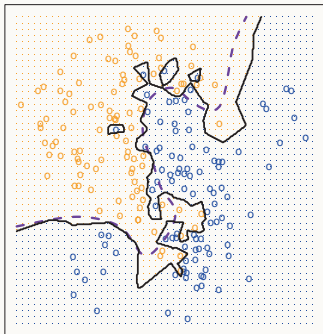
$$\Pr(Y = j \mid X = x_0) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}_0} \mathbb{1}(y_i = j). \quad (7)$$

It then assigns x_0 to the class j with the largest probability.

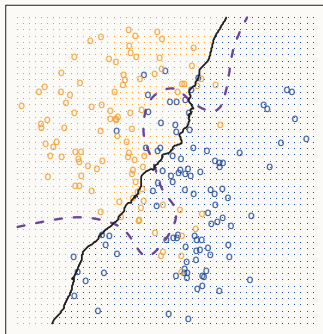
The Bias-Variance Trade-Off

KNN Applied to the Simulated Data

$K = 1$



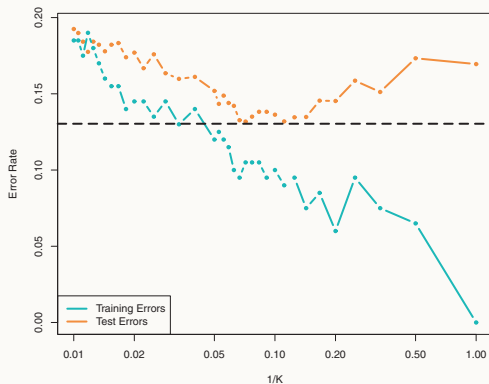
$K = 100$



(Source: James et al. 2013, 41)

The Bias-Variance Trade-Off

As $1/K$ increases, KNN becomes more flexible. A **flexible** KNN has **low bias** but **high variance**, while a **less flexible** KNN has **lower variance** but **higher bias**.



(Source: James et al. 2013, 42)

- As for regression problems, the level of flexibility is critical to the performance of a classification method.
- We can again use cross-validation to choose the optimal level of flexibility.
- However, instead of using MSE to quantify test error, we now use the number of **misclassified observations**.
- In the classification setting, the CV estimate for the test error rate is

$$\text{CV}_{(k)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \text{Err}_i, \quad (8)$$

where Err_i is the test error rate given by Equation (6).