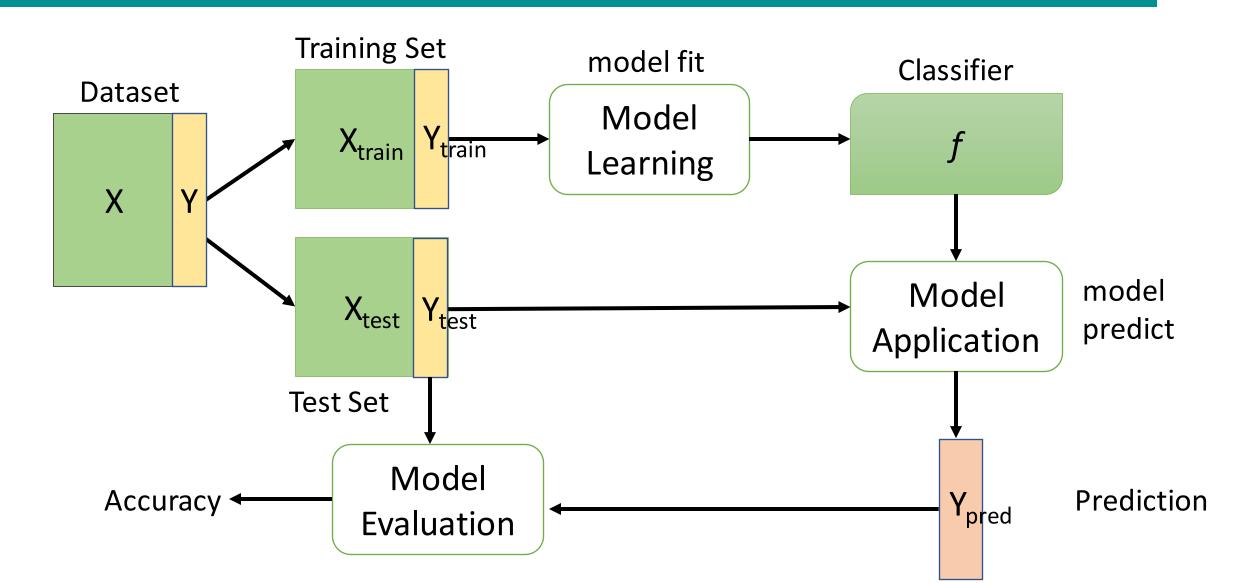
DATA MINING 1 Classification Model Evaluation

Dino Pedreschi, Riccardo Guidotti

Revisited slides from Lecture Notes for Chapter 3 "Introduction to Data Mining", 2nd Edition by Tan, Steinbach, Karpatne, Kumar



What is Classification?



- Metrics for Performance Evaluation
 - How to evaluate the performance of a model?
- Methods for Performance Evaluation
 - How to obtain reliable estimates?
- Methods for Model Comparison
 - How to compare the relative performance among competing models?

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Problem Setting

- Let suppose we have a vector y of actual/real class labels, i.e.,

- Let name y' the vector returned by a trained model f, i.e.,

Metrics for Performance Evaluation

- Focus on the predictive capability of a model
 - Rather than how fast it takes to classify or build models, scalability, etc.

Confusion Matrix:

	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL	Class=Yes	а	b	
CLASS	Class=No	С	d	

a: TP (true positive)

b: FN (false negative)

c: FP (false positive)

d: TN (true negative)

Metrics for Performance Evaluation

```
    y = [0001110101011100]
    y' = [0011100101110000]
    TN FP FN TP
```

Metrics for Performance Evaluation...

	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL	Class=Yes	a (TP)	b (FN)	
CLASS	Class=No c d (TN)			

Most widely-used metric:
$$\frac{a+d}{Accuracy} = \frac{a+d}{a+b+c+d} = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$$

Limitation of Accuracy

- Consider a 2-class problem
 - Number of Class 0 examples = 9990
 - Number of Class 1 examples = 10
- If model predicts everything to be class 0, accuracy is 9990/10000 = 99.9 %
- Accuracy is misleading because model does not detect any class 1 example

Cost-Sensitive Measures

Precision (p) =
$$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recall (r) = $\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$
F-measure (F) = $\frac{2rp}{r + p} = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FN + FP}$

- Precision is biased towards C(Yes|Yes) & C(Yes|No)
- Recall is biased towards C(Yes|Yes) & C(No|Yes)
- F-measure is biased towards all except C(No|No)

Weighted Accuracy =
$$\frac{w_1 a + w_4 d}{w_1 a + w_2 b + w_3 c + w_4 d}$$

Cost Matrix

	PREDICTED CLASS			
	C(i j)	Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL	Class=Yes	C(Yes Yes)	C(No Yes)	
CLASS	Class=No	C(Yes No)	C(No No)	

C(i|j): Cost of misclassifying class j example as class i

Computing Cost of Classification

Cost Matrix	PREDICTED CLASS		
	C(i j)	+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	-1	100
CLASS	•	1	0

Model M ₁	PREDICTED CLASS		
		+	•
ACTUAL CLASS	+	150	40
CLASS	•	60	250

Model M ₂	PREDICTED CLASS		
		+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	250	45
OLAGO	•	5	200

Accuracy = 80%

Cost = 3910

Accuracy = 90%

Cost = 4255

Cost vs Accuracy

Count	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL	Class=Yes	а	b	
CLASS	Class=No	С	d	

Cost	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL	Class=Yes	р	q	
CLASS	Class=No	q	р	

Accuracy is proportional to cost if

1.
$$C(Yes|No)=C(No|Yes) = q$$

2.
$$C(Yes|Yes)=C(No|No) = p$$

$$N = a + b + c + d$$

Accuracy =
$$(a + d)/N$$

Cost = p (a + d) + q (b + c)
= p (a + d) + q (N - a - d)
= q N - (q - p)(a + d)
= N [q - (q-p)
$$\times$$
 Accuracy]

Binary vs Multiclass Evaluation

	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=Yes	Class=No	
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	TP	FN	
OLAGO	Class=No	FP	TN	

	PREDICTED CLASS				
		Class=A	Class=B	Class=C	
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=A	TP-A			
CLAGO	Class=B		TP-B		
	Class=C			TP-C	

Multiclass Evaluation

	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=A	Class=B	Class=C
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=A	TP-A	а	b
OLAGO	Class=B	С	TP-B	d
	Class=C	е	f	TP-C

Precision (p) =
$$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recall (r) = $\frac{TP}{TP + FN}$
F-measure (F) = $\frac{2rp}{r + p} = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FN + FP}$

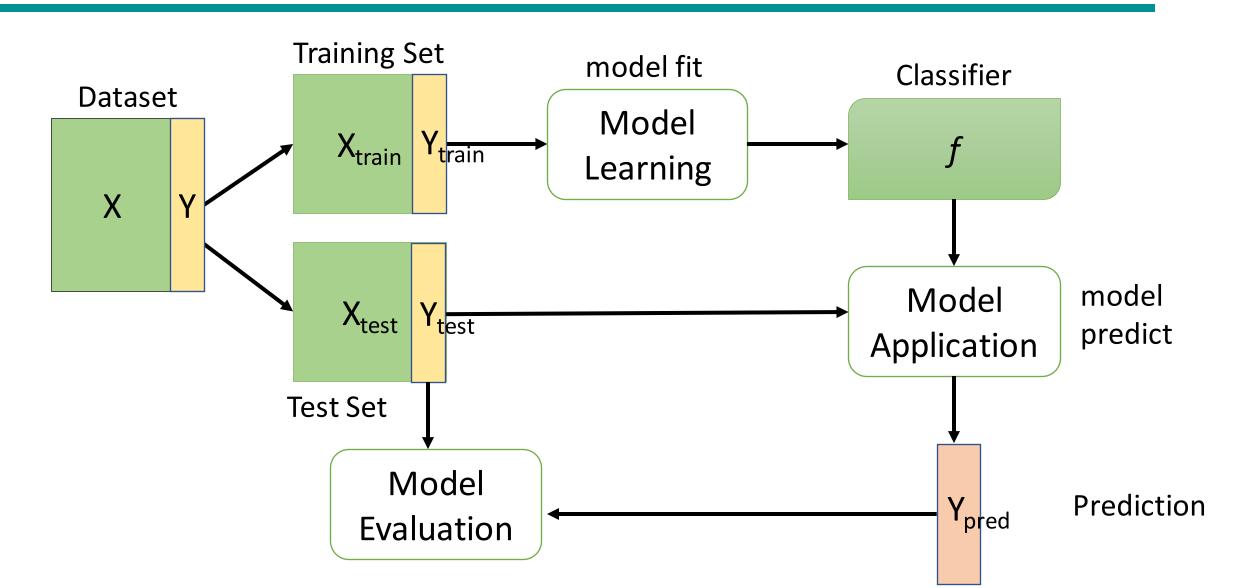
А	PREDICTED CLASS			
		Class=A	Class=Not A	
ACTUAL	Class=A	TP-A	a+b	
CLASS	Class=Not A	c + e	TP-B+TP-C + d + f	

В	PREDICTED CLASS					
		Class=B	Class=Not B			
ACTUAL	Class=B	TP-B	c + d			
CLASS	Class=Not B	a + f	TP-A+TP-C +b+e			

С	PREDICTED CLASS					
		Class=C	Class=Not C			
ACTUAL	Class=C	TP-C	e + f			
CLASS	Class=Not C	b + d	TP-A+TP-B			
			+ a + c			

- Metrics for Performance Evaluation
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Methods for Evaluation



Parameter Tuning

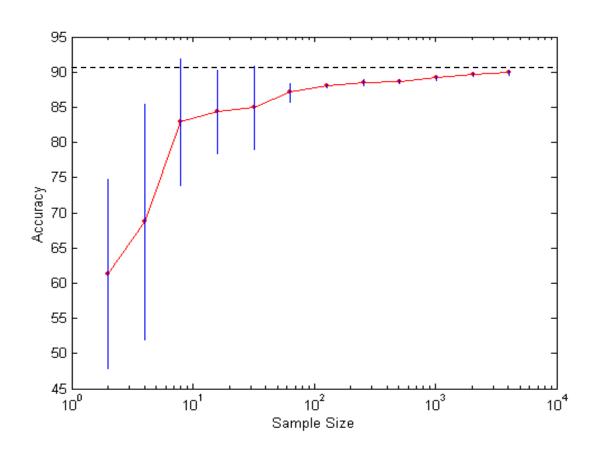
- It is important that the test data is not used in any way to create the classifier
- Some learning schemes operate in two stages:
 - Stage 1: builds the basic structure
 - Stage 2: optimizes parameter settings
 - The test data can't be used for parameter tuning!
 - Proper procedure uses three sets:
 - training data,
 - validation data,
 - test data
 - Validation data is used to optimize parameters
- Once evaluation is complete, all the data can be used to build the final classifier
- Generally, the larger the training data the better the classifier
- The larger the test data the more accurate the error estimate

Methods for Performance Evaluation

How to obtain a reliable estimate of performance?

- Performance of a model may depend on other factors besides the learning algorithm:
 - Class distribution
 - Cost of misclassification
 - Size of training and test sets

Learning Curve



- Learning curve shows how accuracy changes with varying sample size
- Requires a sampling schedule for creating learning curve:

Effect of small sample size:

- Bias in the estimate
- Variance of estimate

- 1. How much a classification model benefits from adding more training data?
- 2. Does the model suffer from a variance error or a bias error?

Methods of Estimation

- Holdout
 - Reserve 2/3 for training and 1/3 for testing
- Random subsampling
 - Repeated holdout
- Cross validation
 - Partition data into k disjoint subsets
 - k-fold: train on k-1 partitions, test on the remaining one
 - Leave-one-out: k=n
- Stratified sampling
 - oversampling vs undersampling
- Bootstrap
 - Sampling with replacement

Holdout

- The holdout method reserves a certain amount for testing and uses the remainder for training
- Usually, one third for testing, the rest for training.
- Typical quantities are 60%-40%, 66%-34%, 70%-30%.
- For small or "unbalanced" datasets, samples might not be representative
 - For instance, few or none instances of some classes
- Stratified sample
 - Balancing the data
 - Make sure that each class is represented with approximately equal proportions in both subsets

Repeated Holdout

- Holdout estimate can be made more reliable by repeating the process with different subsamples
 - In each iteration, a certain proportion is randomly selected for training (possibly with stratification)
 - The error rates on the different iterations are averaged to yield an overall error rate
- This is called the repeated holdout method
- Still not optimum: the different test sets overlap

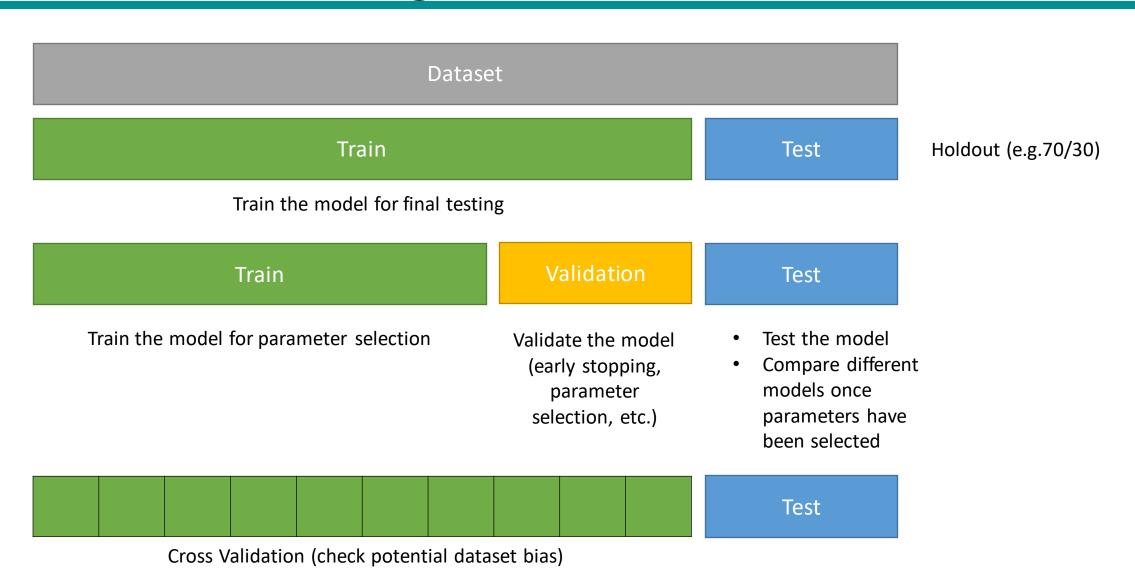
Cross Validation



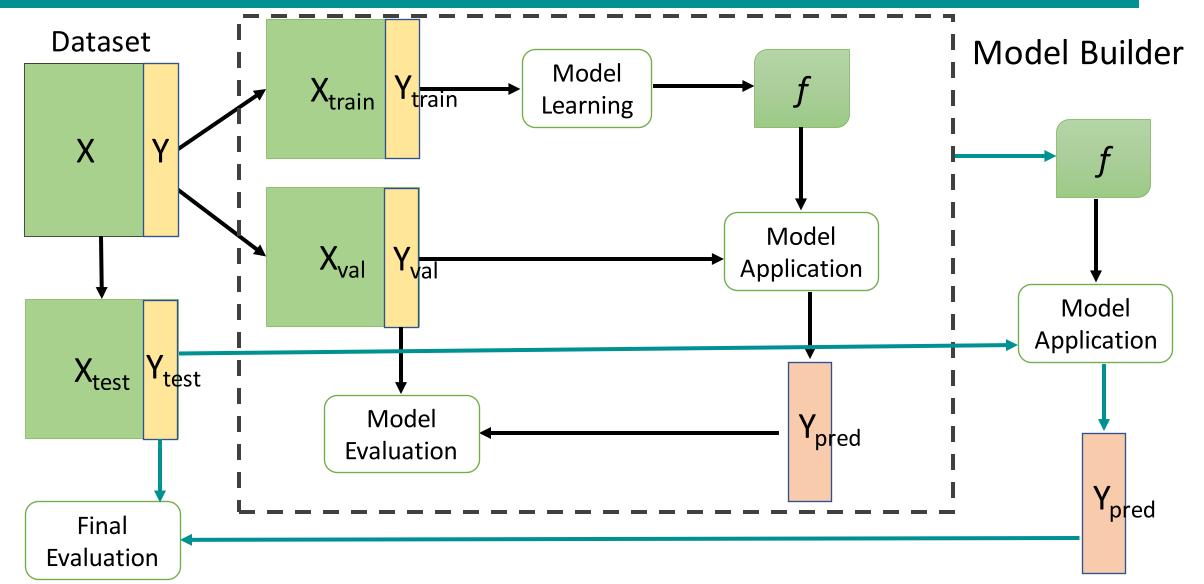
Run 3

- Avoids overlapping test sets
 - First step: data is split into k subsets of equal size
 - Second step: each subset in turn is used for testing and the remainder for training
- This is called k-fold cross-validation
- Often the subsets are stratified before cross-validation is performed
- The error estimates are averaged to yield an overall error estimate
- Even better: repeated stratified cross-validation E.g. ten-fold cross-validation is repeated ten times and results are averaged (reduces the variance)

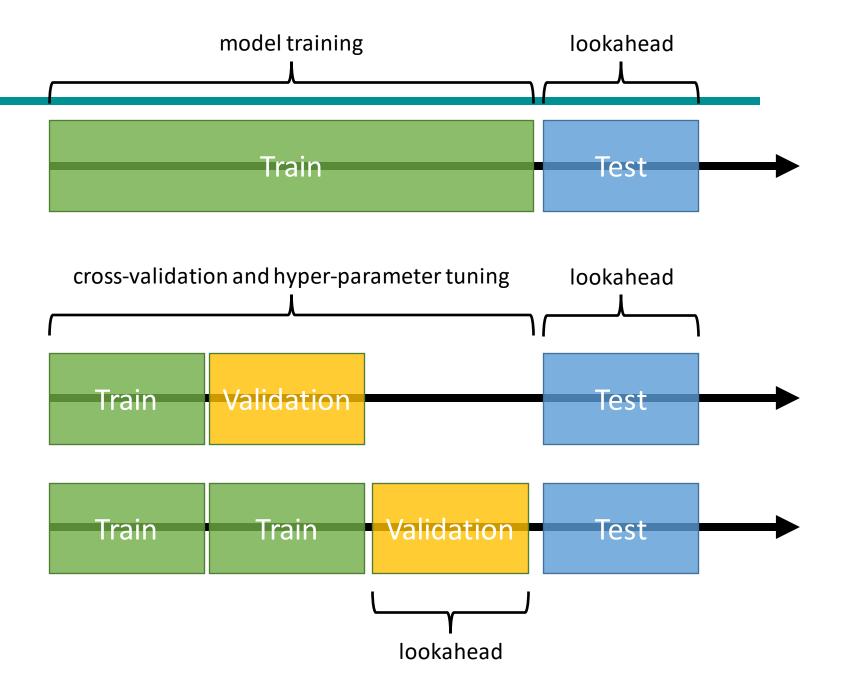
Data Partitioning



Evaluation: Training, Validation, Tests



Cross Validation with Time



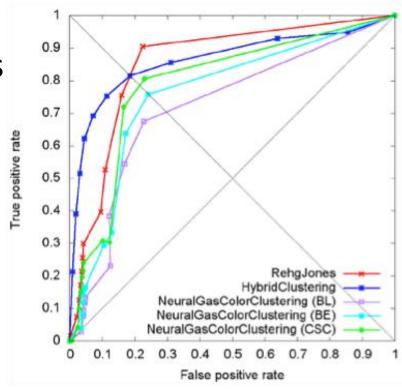
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ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic)

- Developed in 1950s for signal detection theory to analyze noisy signals
 - Characterize the trade-off between positive hits and false alarms
- ROC curve plots TP (on the y-axis) against FP (on the x-axis)
- Performance of each classifier represented as a point on the ROC curve
 - changing the threshold of algorithm, sample distribution or cost matrix changes the location of the point

Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve

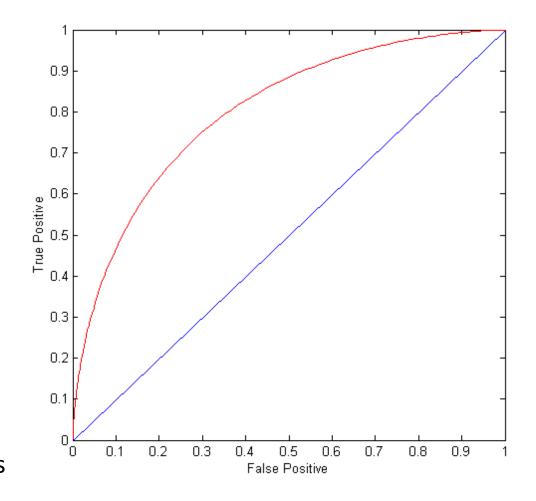
- It illustrates the ability of a binary classifier as its discrimination threshold THR is varied.
- The *ROC* curve is created by plotting the true positive rate (TPR) against the false positive rate (FPR) at various THR.
- The TPR = TP / (TP + FN) is also known as sensitivity, recall or probability of detection.
- The FPR = FP / (TN + FP) is also known as probability of *false alarm* and can be calculated as (1 specificity).



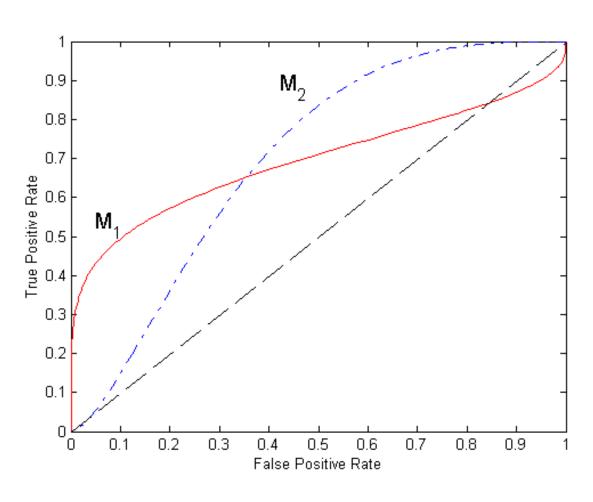
ROC Curve

(TP,FP):

- (0,0): declare everything to be negative class
- (1,1): declare everything to be positive class
- (0,1): ideal
- Diagonal line:
 - Random guessing
 - Below diagonal line:
 - prediction is opposite of the true class



Using ROC for Model Comparison



- No model consistently outperform the other
 - M₁ is better for small FPR
 - M₂ is better for large FPR
- Area Under the ROC curve
 - □ Ideal: Area = 1
 - □ Random: Area = 0.5

How to Construct the ROC curve

Instance	P(+ A)	True Class
Instance	1 (+ /\(\tau\)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

- Use classifier that produces posterior probability for each test instance P(+|A)
- Sort the instances according to P(+|A) in decreasing order
- Apply threshold at each unique value of P(+|A)
- Count the number of TP, FP, TN, FN at each threshold
- TP rate, TPR = TP/(TP+FN)
- FP rate, FPR = FP/(FP + TN)

TPR = TP / (TP + FN)FPR = FP / (TN + FP)

How to Construct the ROC curve

	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	•	+	+	
Thresho	old >=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP				,					,		
	FP											
	TN											
	FN											
	TPR											
	FPR											

	1	
Inst.	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	ï
4	0.85	ı
5	0.85	ı
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	ı
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

TPR = TP / (TP + FN)FPR = FP / (TN + FP)

How to Construct the ROC curve

	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+		
Thresh	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00	
	TP	5											
	FP	5											
	TN	0											
	FN	0											
→	TPR	1											
\rightarrow	FPR	1											

	-	
Inst.	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresh	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4									
	FP	5	5									
	TN	0	0									
	FN	0	1									
	TPR	1	0.8									
	FPR	1	1									

	-	
Inst.	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4								
	FP	5	5	4								
	TN	0	0	1								
	FN	0	1	1								
	TPR	1	0.8	0.8								
	FPR	1	1	0.8								

	-	
Inst.	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
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3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

	Class	+	-	+	•	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3							
	FP	5	5	4	4							
	TN	0	0	1	1							
	FN	0	1	1	2							
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6							
→	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8							

Inst.	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
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9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3						
	FP	5	5	4	4	3						
	TN	0	0	1	1	2						
	FN	0	1	1	2	2						
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6						
-	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6						

	_	
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													ıİ
	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+		
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00	
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3					
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1					
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4					
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2					
\rightarrow	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6					
\rightarrow	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2					

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	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2			
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1			
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4			
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3			
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4			
→	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2			

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	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2		
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1	0		
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	5		
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3		
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4		
→	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0		

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	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1	0	0	
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	5	5	
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.2	
	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0	0	

	_	
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	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Thresho	old>=	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	0
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1	0	0	0
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	5	5	5
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	5
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.2	0
	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0	0	0

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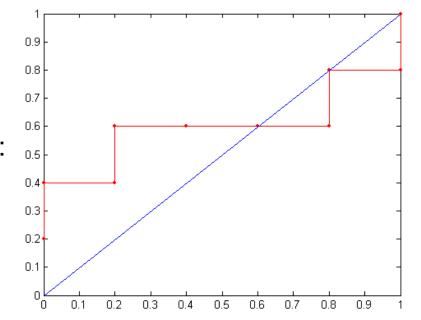
How to Construct the ROC curve

	Class	+		+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Threshold >= 0.25		0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	0
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1	0	0	0
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	5	5	5
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	5
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.2	0
→	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0	0	0

$$TPR = TP / (TP + FN)$$

 $FPR = FP / (TN + FP)$

ROC Curve:



Inst.	P(+ A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
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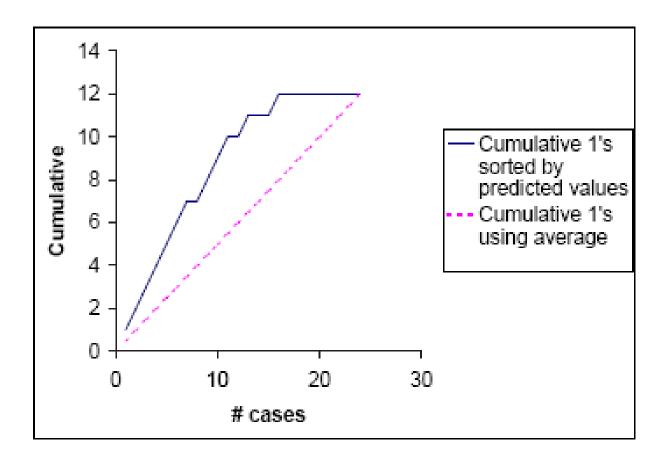
Lift Chart

- The lift curve is a popular technique in direct marketing.
- The input is a dataset that has been "scored" by appending to each case the estimated probability that it will belong to a given class.
- The cumulative *lift chart* (also called *gains chart*) is constructed with the cumulative number of cases (descending order of probability) on the x-axis and the cumulative number of true positives on the y-axis.
- The dashed line is a reference line. For any given number of cases (the x-axis value), it represents the expected number of positives we would predict if we did not have a model but simply selected cases at random. It provides a benchmark against which we can see performance of the model.

Notice: "Lift chart" is a rather general term, often used to identify also other kinds of plots. Don't get confused!

Lift Chart – Example

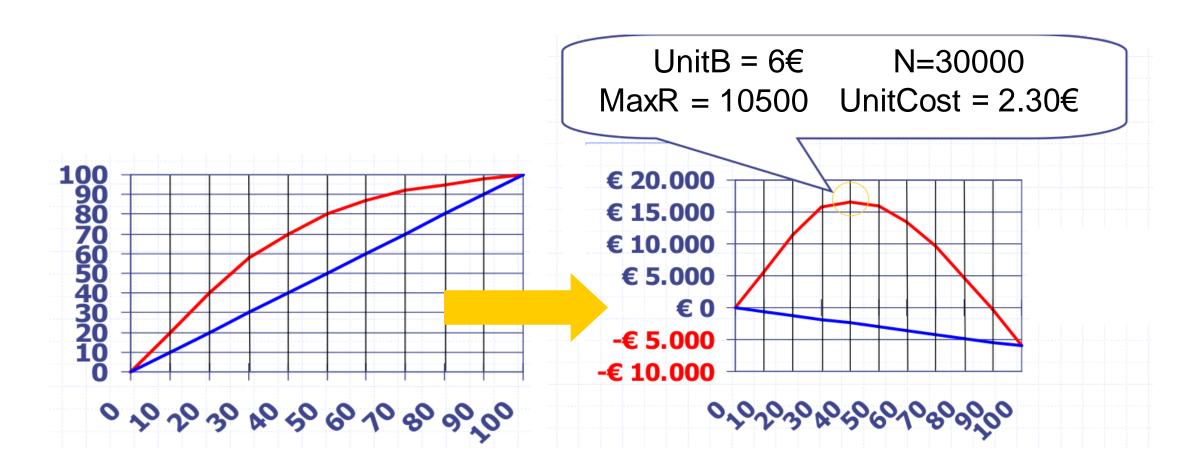
Serial no.	Predicted prob of 1	Actual Class	Cumulative Actual class
1	0.995976726	1	1
2	0.987533139	1	2
3	0.984456382	1	3
4	0.980439587	1	4
5	0.948110638	1	5
6	0.889297203	1	6
7	0.847631864	1	7
8	0.762806287	0	7
9	0.706991915	1	8
10	0.680754087	1	9
11	0.656343749	1	10
12	0.622419543	0	10
13	0.505506928	1	11
14	0.47134045	0	11
15	0.337117362	0	11
16	0.21796781	1	12
17	0.199240432	0	12
18	0.149482655	0	12
19	0.047962588	0	12
20	0.038341401	0	12
21	0.024850999	0	12
22	0.021806029	0	12
23	0.016129906	0	12
24	0.003559986	0	12



Lift Chart – Application Example

- From Lift chart we can easily derive an "economical value" plot, e.g. in target marketing.
- Given our predictive model, how many customers should we target to maximize income?
- Profit = UnitB*MaxR*Lift(X) UnitCost*N*X/100
- UnitB = unit benefit, UnitCost = unit postal cost
- N = total customers
- MaxR = expected potential respondents in all population (N)
- Lift(X) = lift chart value for X, in [0,...,1]

Lift Chart – Application Example



References

• Chapter 3. Classification: Basic Concepts and Techniques.

