

Academy of PhD Training in Statistics

Statistical Machine Learning

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Model Assessment and Combination



This Section

- Baseline models
- Cut-off selection
- Binary metrics
- Calibration
- Learning curves
- Additional topics
- Super learners



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Coming discussion rooted in binary classification, but much applies generally.



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- Don't blindly examine accuracy!
 - Especially accuracy with a default 0.5 cutoff!
 - Beware advice to over/undersample to rescue this often inappropriate metric!
- Do worry about calibration and where possible make probabilistic forecasts, rather than raw labels alone



Baseline models

Always include a very simple model in your analysis to act as a baseline.

eg. “featureless” model:

$$\hat{f}_j(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{T}_r} \mathbb{1}\{y_i = j\} > \sum_{i \in \mathcal{T}_r} \mathbb{1}\{y_i = k\} \forall k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Baseline model can really save you from unwarranted excitement (eg accuracy)



Cut-off selection

Under 0-1 loss, Bayes optimally:

$$g^*(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{j \in \{0,1\}} f_j(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } f_1(\mathbf{x}) < 0.5 \\ 1 & \text{if } f_1(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0.5 \end{cases}$$



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But, in general for other losses:

$$g_{\hat{f}}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \hat{f}_1(\mathbf{x}) < \alpha \\ 1 & \text{if } \hat{f}_1(\mathbf{x}) \geq \alpha \end{cases}$$

(and often practitioners prefer to think in terms of related performance measures rather than trying to specify a loss directly)



Standard binary performance measures

- True positive (TP) rate (aka sensitivity or recall): is the conditional probability of correctly predicting 1 given true label 1.
- True negative (TN) rate (aka specificity): is the conditional probability of correctly predicting a 0 given true label 0.
- False positive (FP) rate: probability of Type I error (ie 1-specificity).
- False negative (FN) rate: probability of Type II error (ie 1-sensitivity).
- Positive predictive value (PPV) (aka precision): is the conditional probability of the true label being 1 given a prediction of 1.
- Negative predictive value (NPV): is the conditional probability of the true label being 0 given a prediction of 0.



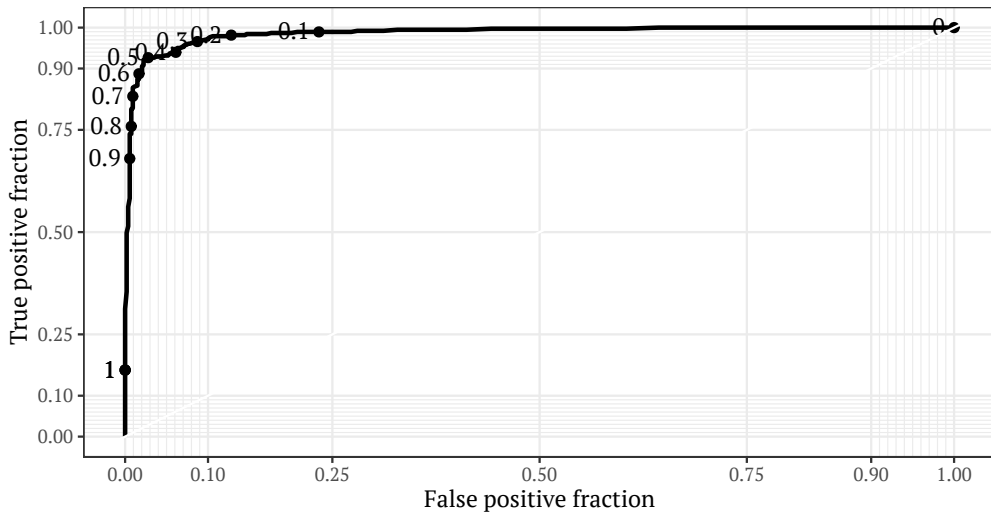
Standard binary performance measures

		True condition			
Total population		Condition positive	Condition negative	Prevalence $= \frac{\Sigma \text{Condition positive}}{\Sigma \text{Total population}}$	Accuracy (ACC) = $\frac{\Sigma \text{True positive} + \Sigma \text{True negative}}{\Sigma \text{Total population}}$
Predicted condition	Predicted condition positive	True positive	False positive, Type I error	Positive predictive value (PPV), Precision = $\frac{\Sigma \text{True positive}}{\Sigma \text{Predicted condition positive}}$	False discovery rate (FDR) = $\frac{\Sigma \text{False positive}}{\Sigma \text{Predicted condition positive}}$
	Predicted condition negative	False negative, Type II error	True negative	False omission rate (FOR) = $\frac{\Sigma \text{False negative}}{\Sigma \text{Predicted condition negative}}$	Negative predictive value (NPV) = $\frac{\Sigma \text{True negative}}{\Sigma \text{Predicted condition negative}}$
		True positive rate (TPR), Recall, Sensitivity, probability of detection, Power $= \frac{\Sigma \text{True positive}}{\Sigma \text{Condition positive}}$	False positive rate (FPR), Fall-out, probability of false alarm $= \frac{\Sigma \text{False positive}}{\Sigma \text{Condition negative}}$	Positive likelihood ratio (LR+) $= \frac{\text{TPR}}{\text{FPR}}$	Diagnostic odds ratio (DOR) $= \frac{\text{LR+}}{\text{LR-}}$ $F_1 \text{ score} = \frac{2 \cdot \text{Precision} \cdot \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$
		False negative rate (FNR), Miss rate $= \frac{\Sigma \text{False negative}}{\Sigma \text{Condition positive}}$	Specificity (SPC), Selectivity, True negative rate (TNR) $= \frac{\Sigma \text{True negative}}{\Sigma \text{Condition negative}}$	Negative likelihood ratio (LR-) $= \frac{\text{FNR}}{\text{TNR}}$	

Source: Wikipedia



ROC/AUC



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- Calibration-in-the-large
- Weak calibration
- Moderate calibration
- Strong calibration



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If model predicts '1' with probability $\hat{f}(\mathbf{x})$ and that probability is accurate, then a logistic regression:

$$\log \left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1)}{\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 0)} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log \left(\frac{\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)}{1 - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)} \right)$$

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$$\log \left(\frac{\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)}{1 - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)} \right).$$

Could perform hypothesis tests for $H_0 : \beta_0 = 0$ and $H_0 : \beta_1 = 1$.



Calibration-in-the-large

Simplest and easiest form of calibration for a model to satisfy.

Require,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$



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Either, compute informally, or use the method of Cox (1958) with β_1 fixed at 1 (ie only estimate $\hat{\beta}_0$)



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- If the slope condition is satisfied, but β_0 is not plausibly zero and:
 - is negative, this corresponds to general overestimation of probabilities for the event '1'.
 - is positive, this corresponds to general underestimation of probabilities for the event '1'.
- If the intercept condition is satisfied, but β_1 is not plausibly 1 and:
 - is smaller than 1, this corresponds to probabilities being pushed out to extremities (ie probabilities for the event '1' are too large, and probabilities for the event '0' are too small).
 - is larger than 1, this corresponds to probabilities being too under dispersed (ie probabilities for the event '1' are too small, and probabilities for the event '0' are too large).



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Perhaps closest to our intuition: requires observations with the same predicted probability of '1' have an observed rate of '1' with the same probability.



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Continuum of probabilities means usually need to bin predicted probabilities,

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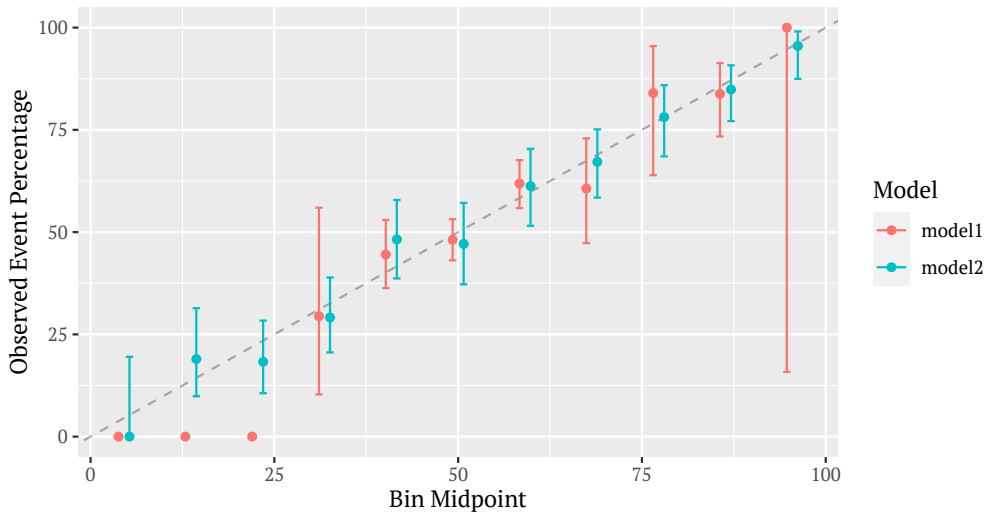
$$[0.0, 0.1), [0.1, 0.2), \dots, [0.9, 1.0]$$

and observe empirical frequency of responses y_i for corresponding observations in those bins.

Can construct Binomial test confidence intervals for each bin, looking to cover $y = x$ line.



Moderate calibration (II)



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Therefore rarely is strong calibration practical to examine except in the largest data problems.



Calibration corrections

What to do if calibration is not satisfied?

- **Platt scaling:** fit logistic regression of the form:

$$p_i = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_i))}$$

- sometimes use pseudo-responses to regularise (see notes)



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- sometimes use pseudo-responses to regularise (see notes)
- **Isotonic regression:** fits a piecewise constant monotonically increasing function — principled method of correcting the probabilities within certain bins, allowing for bin location and size to be learned.



Learning curves

Compares performance on training and test data over model learned on increasing proportion of training data

- can model learn relationship in the data fast?



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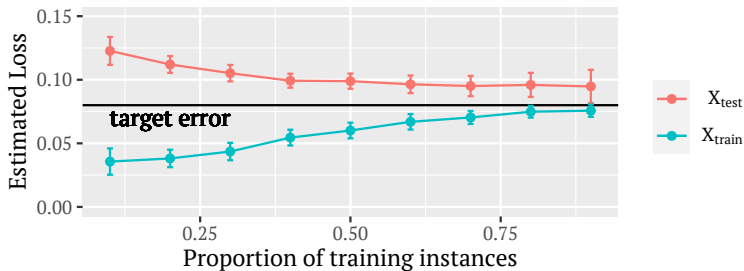
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Aim to find ‘sweet spot’ minimising the bias and variance at the right level of model complexity



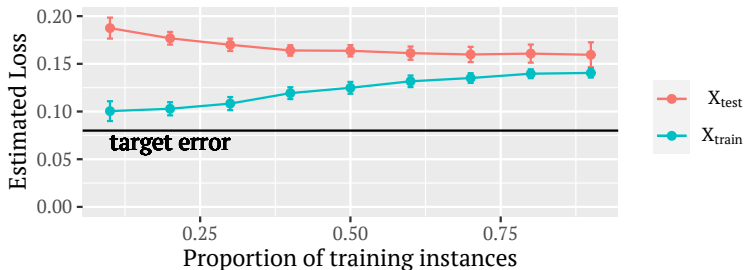
Learning curves — perfect learning curve

A ‘perfect’ learning curve would be like this:



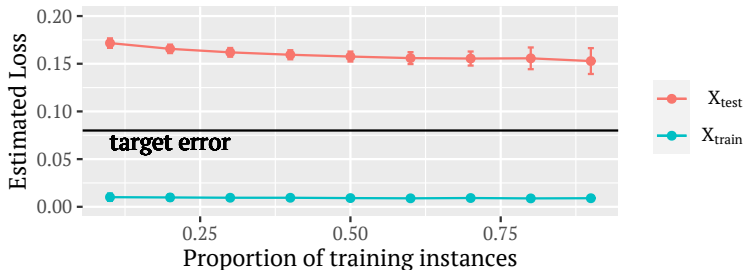
Learning curves — high bias

- Train and test errors converge but remain very high
 - more data not enough — the model is just insufficient to represent the true $f(\cdot)$
- Poor fit
- Poor generalisation to new data



Learning curves — high variance

- Large gap between train and test error
- Clear evidence more data needed
- Need to simplify model with fewer and/or less complex features



Further topics

- Ethics & Fairness



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- Reproducibility



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Super learners (I)

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K -fold cross validation: $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_1}, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_K}$

Fit models:

$$\begin{aligned} &\hat{f}^{(1)}(\cdot \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_1}), \dots, \hat{f}^{(1)}(\cdot \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_K}) \\ &\hat{f}^{(2)}(\cdot \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_1}), \dots, \hat{f}^{(2)}(\cdot \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_K}) \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\hat{f}^{(s)}(\cdot \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_1}), \dots, \hat{f}^{(s)}(\cdot \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_K}) \end{aligned}$$



Super learners (II)

For each observation i , in fold $\mathcal{I}_j$, construct predictions:

$$\hat{y}_i^{(1)} = \hat{f}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_j}), \dots, \hat{y}_i^{(s)} = \hat{f}^{(s)}(\mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathcal{D} \setminus \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{I}_j})$$



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Construct design matrix with original responses:

$$\mathbf{X} := \begin{pmatrix} \hat{y}_1^{(1)} & \hat{y}_1^{(2)} & \dots & \hat{y}_1^{(s)} \\ \hat{y}_2^{(1)} & \hat{y}_2^{(2)} & \dots & \hat{y}_2^{(s)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \hat{y}_n^{(1)} & \hat{y}_n^{(2)} & \dots & \hat{y}_n^{(s)} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$



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Finally, build super learner model (eg logistic regression) to predict based on above.



References I

- Christodoulou, E., Ma, J., Collins, G.S., Steyerberg, E.W., Verbakel, J.Y., Van Calster, B. (2019). A systematic review shows no performance benefit of machine learning over logistic regression for clinical prediction models. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology* **110**, 12–22. DOI: 10.1016/j.jclinepi.2019.02.004
- Cox, D.R. (1958). Two further applications of a model for binary regression. *Biometrika* **45**(3-4), 562–565. DOI: 10.1093/biomet/45.3-4.562

