DATA MINING LECTURE 9

Classification

- Decision Trees
- Evaluation

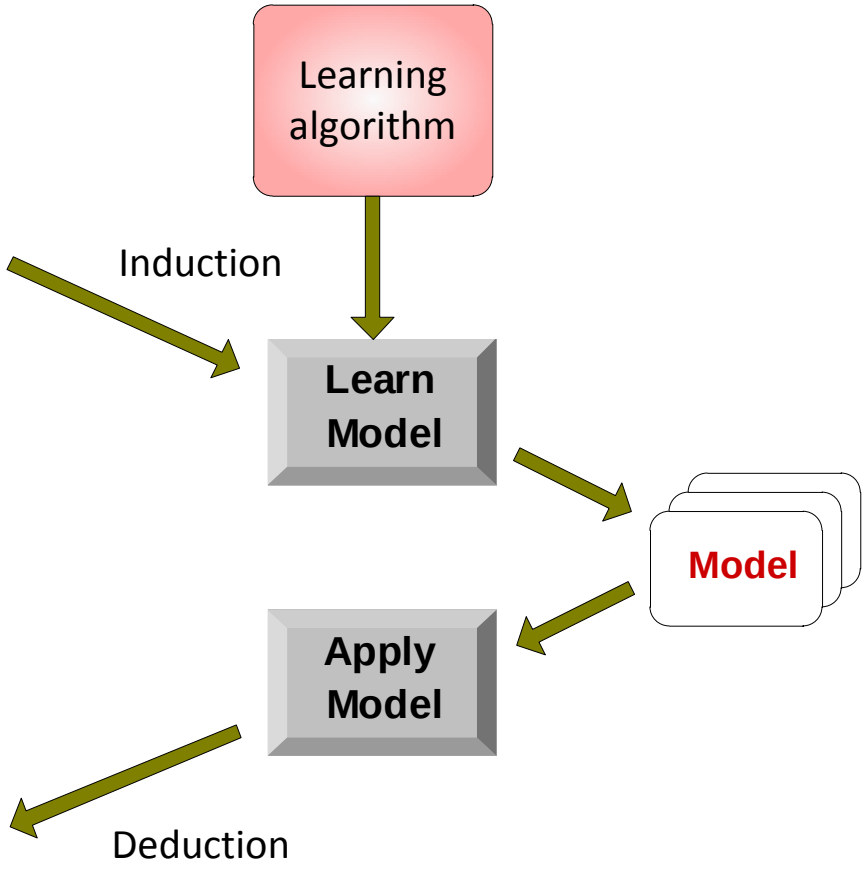
Illustrating Classification Task

Tid	Attrib1	Attrib2	Attrib3	Class
1	Yes	Large	125K	No
2	No	Medium	100K	No
3	No	Small	70K	No
4	Yes	Medium	120K	No
5	No	Large	95K	Yes
6	No	Medium	60K	No
7	Yes	Large	220K	No
8	No	Small	85K	Yes
9	No	Medium	75K	No
10	No	Small	90K	Yes

Training Set

Tid	Attrib1	Attrib2	Attrib3	Class
11	No	Small	55K	?
12	Yes	Medium	80K	?
13	Yes	Large	110K	?
14	No	Small	95K	?
15	No	Large	67K	?

Test Set



Examples of Classification Task

- Predicting tumor cells as benign or malignant
- Classifying credit card transactions as legitimate or fraudulent
- Categorizing news stories as finance, weather, entertainment, sports, etc
- Identifying spam email, spam web pages, adult content
- Categorizing web users, and web queries

Evaluation of classification models

- Counts of test records that are correctly (or incorrectly) predicted by the classification model
- **Confusion matrix**

		Predicted Class	
		Class = 1	Class = 0
Actual Class	Class = 1	f_{11}	f_{10}
	Class = 0	f_{01}	f_{00}

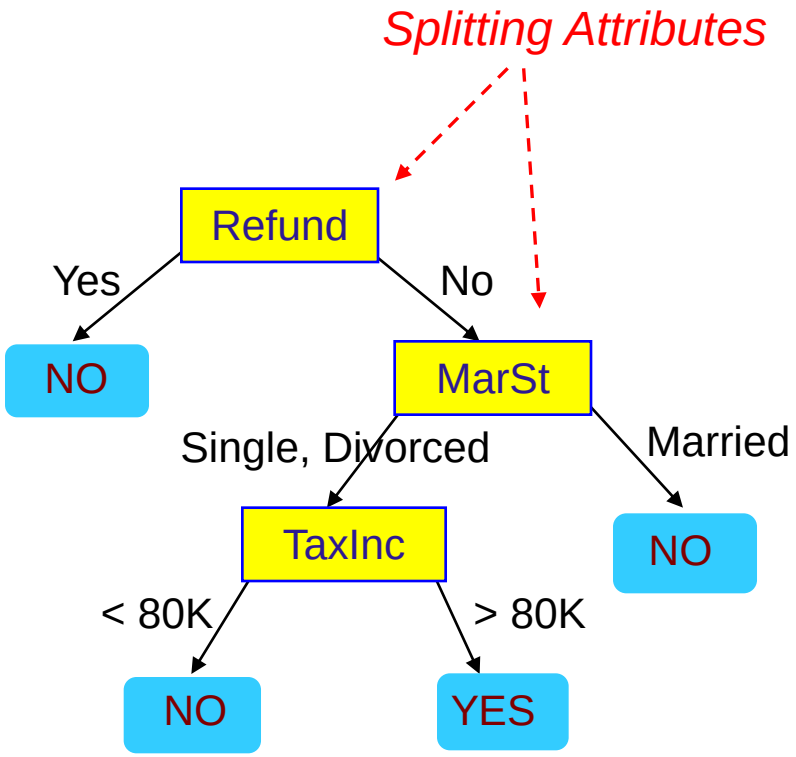
$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\#\,\text{correct predictions}}{\text{total}\,\#\,\text{of predictions}} = \frac{f_{11} + f_{00}}{f_{11} + f_{10} + f_{01} + f_{00}}$$

$$\text{Error rate} = \frac{\#\,\text{wrong predictions}}{\text{total}\,\#\,\text{of predictions}} = \frac{f_{10} + f_{01}}{f_{11} + f_{10} + f_{01} + f_{00}}$$

Example of a Decision Tree

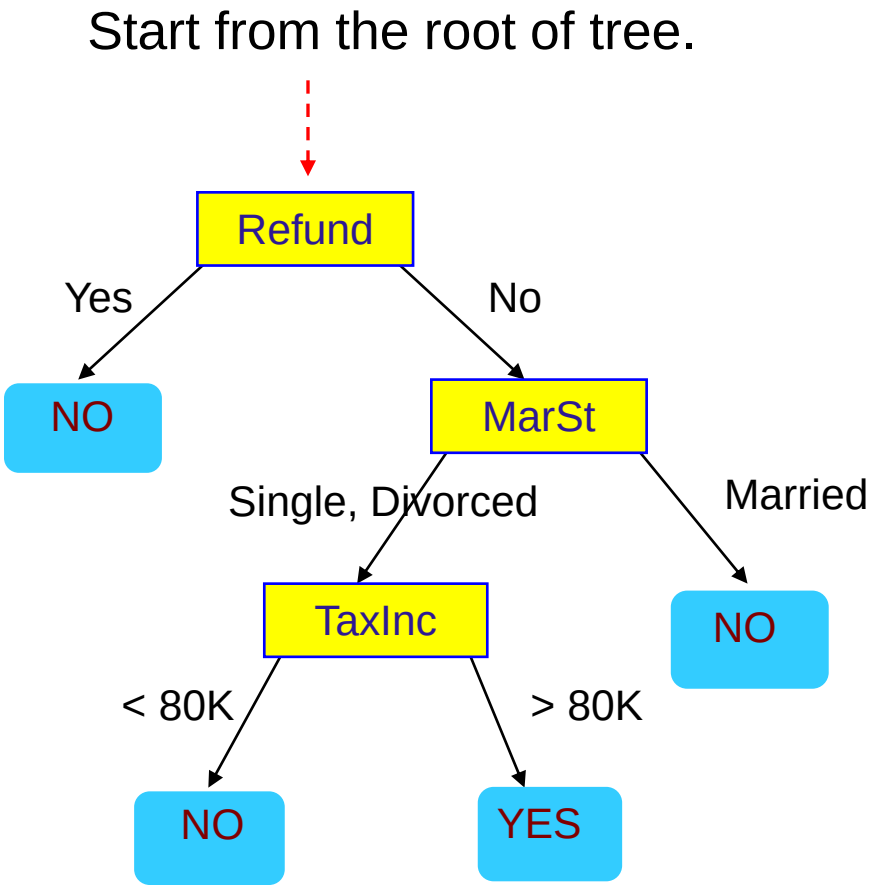
Tid	Refund (categorical)	Marital Status (categorical)	Taxable Income (continuous)	Cheat (class)
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes

Training Data



Model: Decision Tree

Apply Model to Test Data



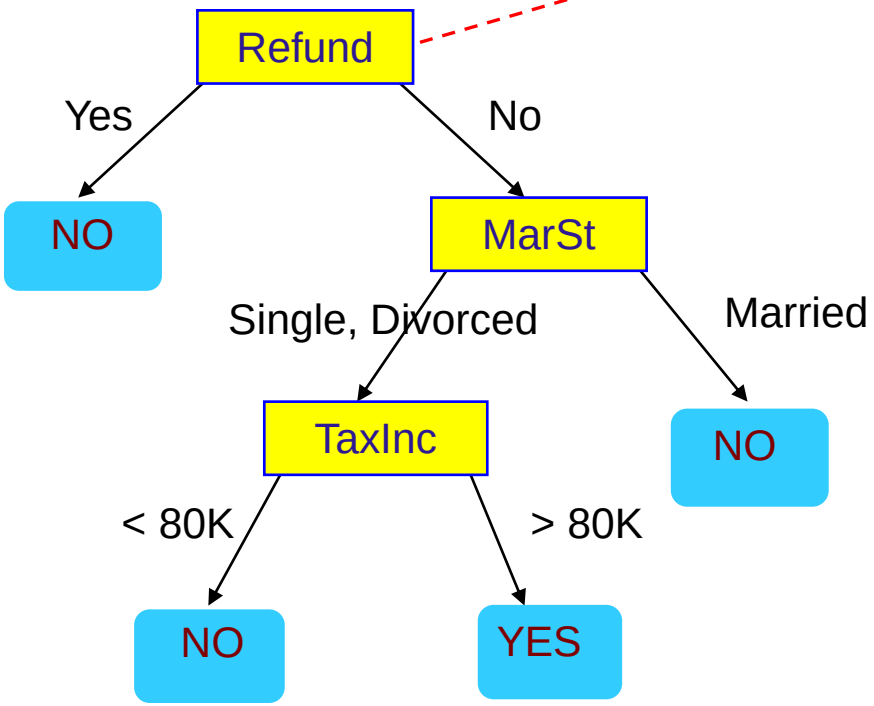
Test Data

Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
No	Married	80K	?

Apply Model to Test Data

Test Data

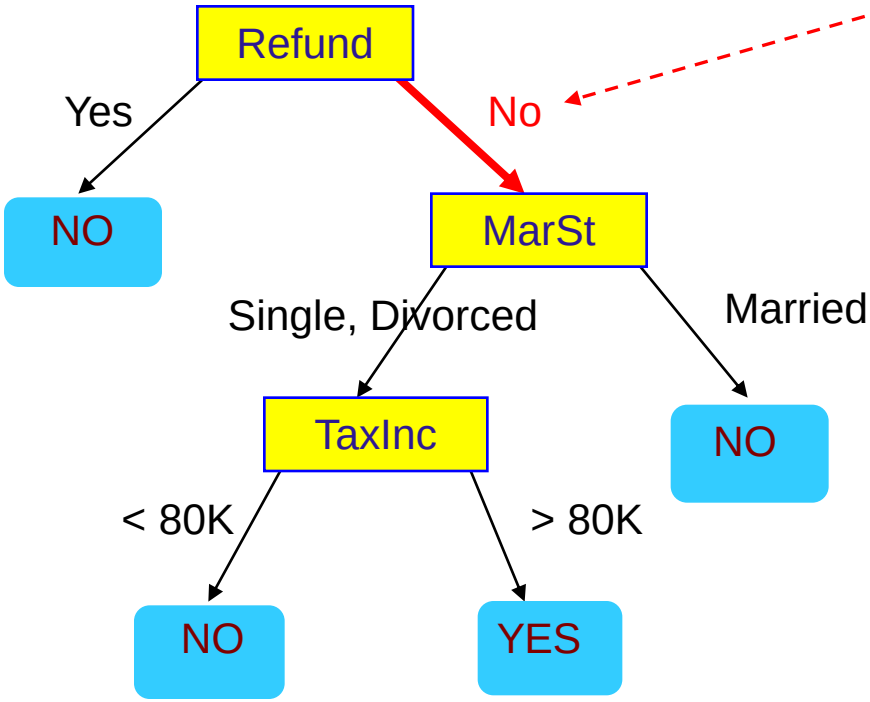
Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
No	Married	80K	?



Apply Model to Test Data

Test Data

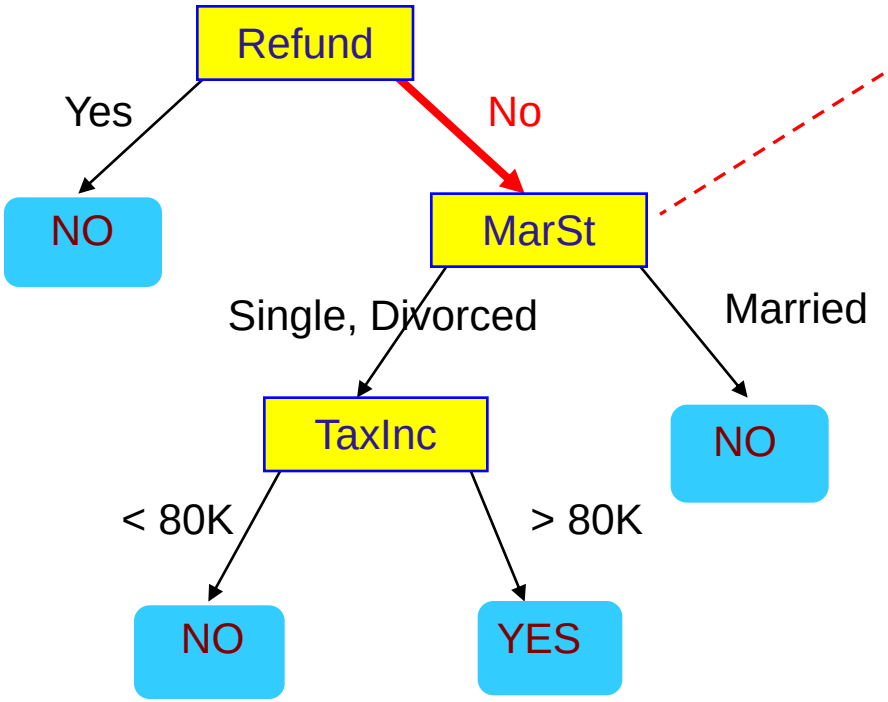
Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
No	Married	80K	?



Apply Model to Test Data

Test Data

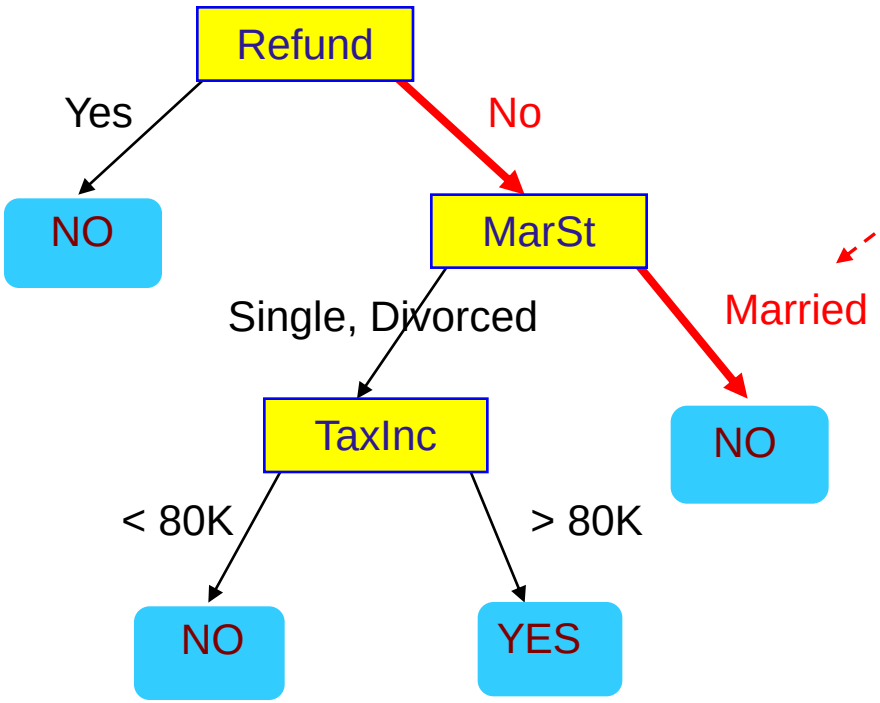
Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
No	Married	80K	?



Apply Model to Test Data

Test Data

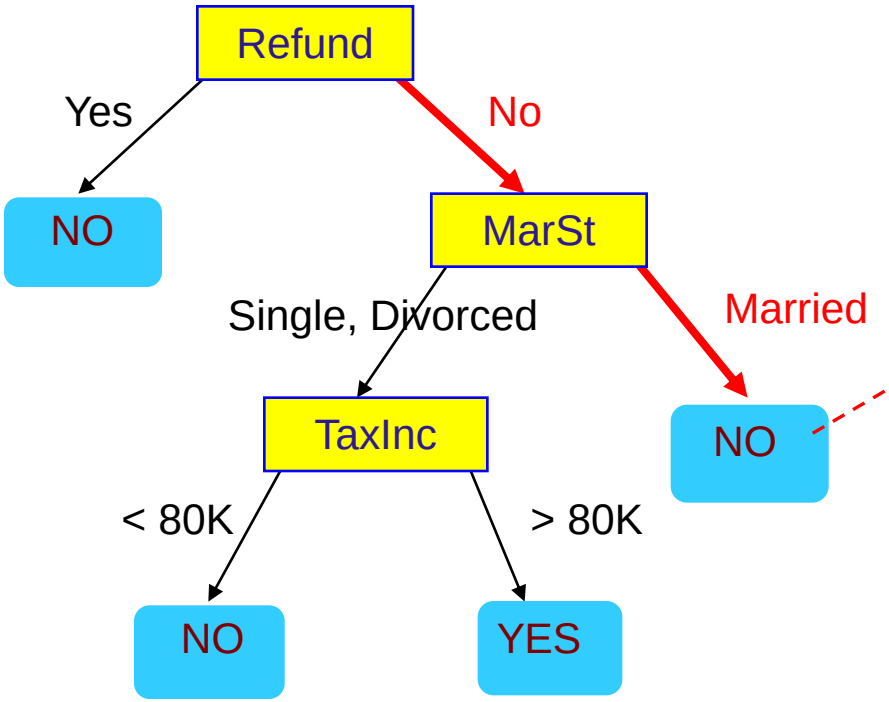
Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
No	Married	80K	?



Apply Model to Test Data

Test Data

Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
No	Married	80K	?



Assign Cheat to “No”

Decision Tree Classification Task

Tid	Attrib1	Attrib2	Attrib3	Class
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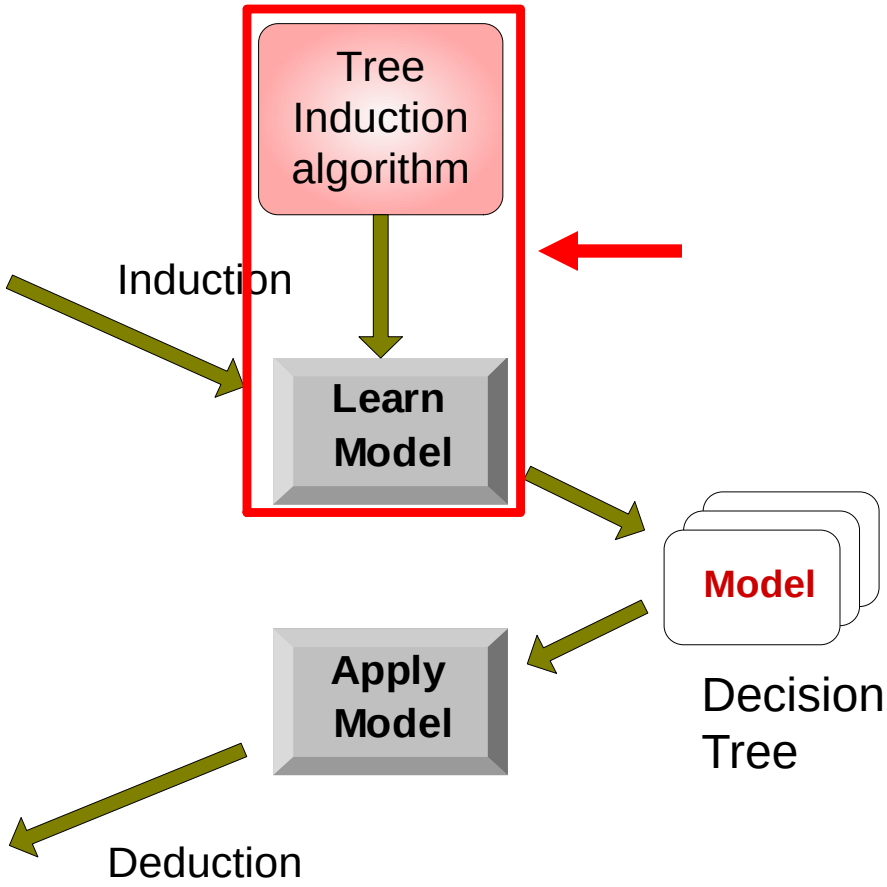
Test Set



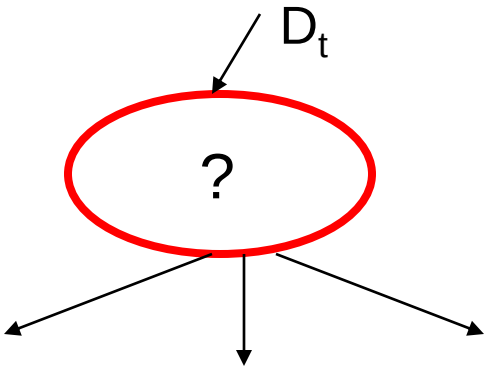
Decision Tree Induction

- Many Algorithms:
  - Hunt's Algorithm (one of the earliest)
  - CART
  - ID3, C4.5
  - SLIQ,SPRINT

General Structure of Hunt's Algorithm

- Let D_t be the set of training records that reach a node t
- General Procedure:
  - If D_t contains records that belong the same class y_t, then t is a leaf node labeled as y_t
  - If D_t is an empty set, then t is a leaf node labeled by the default class, y_d
  - If D_t contains records that belong to more than one class, use an attribute test to split the data into smaller subsets.
    - Recursively apply the procedure to each subset.

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Cheat
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	No	Single	90K	Yes



Constructing decision-trees (pseudocode)

GenDecTree(Sample **S**, Features **F**)

1. **If stopping_condition(S,F)** = true **then**
   a. **leaf = createNode()**
   b. **leaf.label= Classify(S)**
   c. **return leaf**
2. **root = createNode()**
3. **root.test_condition = findBestSplit(S,F)**
4. **V = {v| v a** possible outcome of **root.test_condition}**
5. **for *each*** value **vϵV**:
   a. **S_v: = {s | root.test_condition(s)** = **v** and **s ϵ S}**;
   b. **child = TreeGrowth(S_v ,F)** ;
   c. Add **child** as a descent of **root** and label the edge **(root→child) as v**
6. **return root**

Tree Induction

- Greedy strategy.
  - At each node pick the best split
- How to determine the best split?
  - Find the split that minimizes impurity
- How to decide when to stop splitting?

How to determine the Best Split

- Greedy approach:
  - Nodes with homogeneous class distribution are preferred
- Need a measure of node impurity:

C0: 5 C1: 5	C0: 9 C1: 1
Non-homogeneous, High degree of impurity	Homogeneous, Low degree of impurity

Measuring Node Impurity

- **p(i|t)**: fraction of records associated with node **t** belonging to class **i**

$$\text{Entropy}(t) = -\sum_{i=1}^{c} p(i \mid t) \log p(i \mid t)$$

$$\text{Gini}(t) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{c} \left[p(i \mid t) \right]^2$$

$$\text{Classification error}(t) = 1 - \max_i \left[p(i \mid t) \right]$$

Gain

- ***Gain of an attribute split:*** compare the impurity of the parent node with the impurity of the child nodes

$$\Delta = I(parent) - \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{N(v_j)}{N} I(v_j)$$

- Maximizing the gain $\Leftrightarrow$ Minimizing the weighted average impurity measure of children nodes
- If **I() = Entropy(),** then **Δ_{info}** is called **information gain**

Splitting based on impurity

- Impurity measures favor attributes with large number of values

- A test condition with large number of outcomes may not be desirable
  - # of records in each partition is too small to make predictions

Gain Ratio

- Gain Ratio:

$$GainRATIO_{split} = \frac{GAIN_{Split}}{SplitINFO}$$

$$SplitINFO = -\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{n_i}{n} \log \frac{n_i}{n}$$

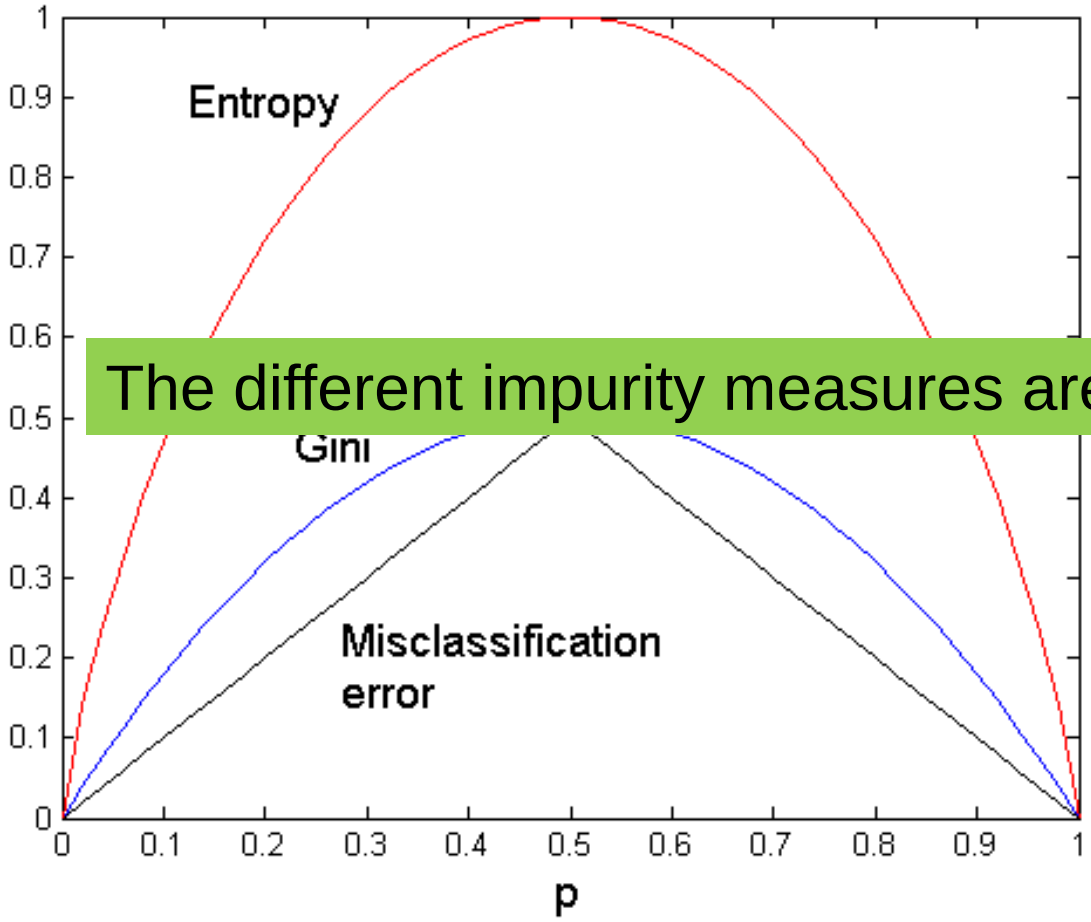
Parent Node, p is split into k partitions

n_i is the number of records in partition i

- Adjusts Information Gain by the entropy of the partitioning (SplitINFO). Higher entropy partitioning (large number of small partitions) is penalized!
- Used in C4.5
- Designed to overcome the disadvantage of Information Gain

Comparison among Splitting Criteria

For a 2-class problem:



The different impurity measures are consistent

Stopping Criteria for Tree Induction

- Stop expanding a node when all the records belong to the same class
- Stop expanding a node when all the records have similar attribute values
- Early termination (to be discussed later)

Decision Tree Based Classification

- Advantages:
  - Inexpensive to construct
  - Extremely fast at classifying unknown records
  - Easy to interpret for small-sized trees
  - Accuracy is comparable to other classification techniques for many simple data sets

Example: C4.5

- Simple depth-first construction.
- Uses Information Gain
- Sorts Continuous Attributes at each node.
- Needs entire data to fit in memory.
- Unsuitable for Large Datasets.
  - Needs out-of-core sorting.

- You can download the software from: http://www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~quinlan/c4.5r8.tar.gz

Other Issues

- Data Fragmentation
- Search Strategy
- Expressiveness
- Tree Replication

Data Fragmentation

- Number of instances gets smaller as you traverse down the tree

- Number of instances at the leaf nodes could be too small to make any statistically significant decision

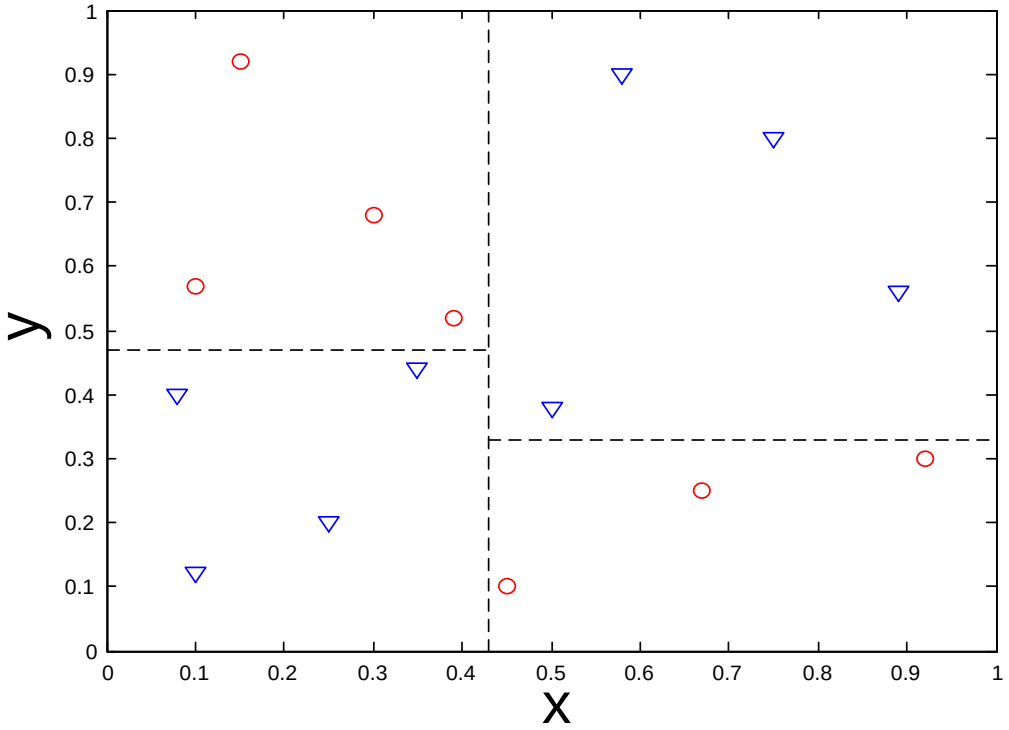
Search Strategy

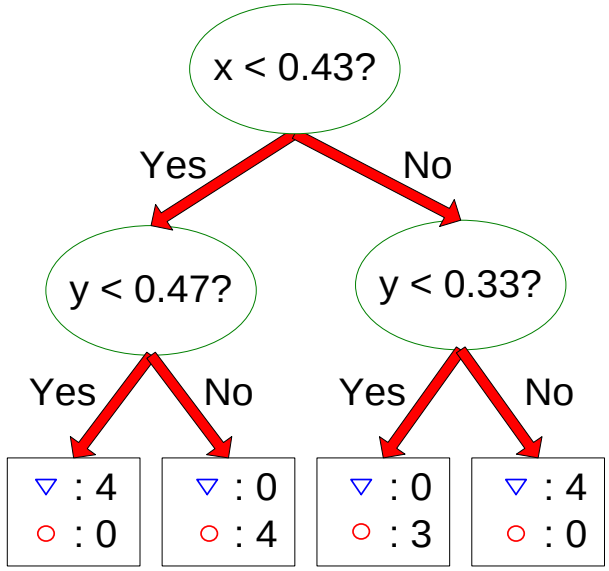
- Finding an optimal decision tree is NP-hard
- The algorithm presented so far uses a greedy, top-down, recursive partitioning strategy to induce a reasonable solution
- Other strategies?
  - Bottom-up
  - Bi-directional

Expressiveness

- Decision tree provides expressive representation for learning discrete-valued function
  - But they do not generalize well to certain types of Boolean functions
    - Example: parity function:
      - Class = 1 if there is an even number of Boolean attributes with truth value = True
      - Class = 0 if there is an odd number of Boolean attributes with truth value = True
    - For accurate modeling, must have a complete tree
- Not expressive enough for modeling continuous variables
  - Particularly when test condition involves only a single attribute at-a-time

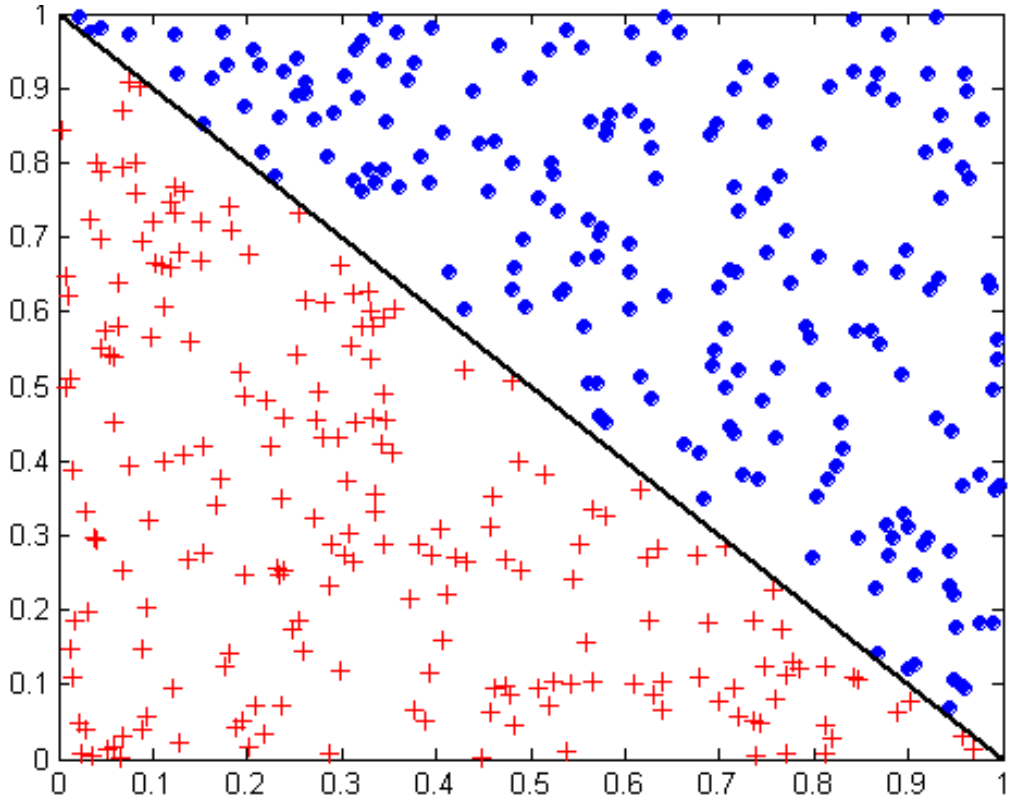
Decision Boundary

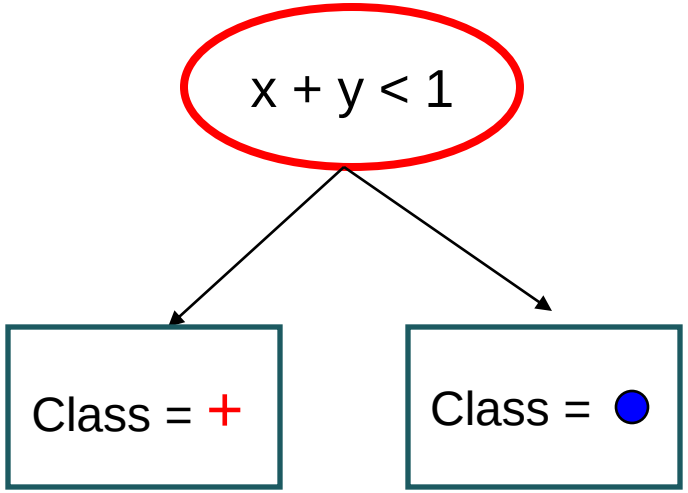




- Border line between two neighboring regions of different classes is known as decision boundary
- Decision boundary is parallel to axes because test condition involves a single attribute at-a-time
- The type of decision boundary of the classifier captures the expressiveness of the classifier

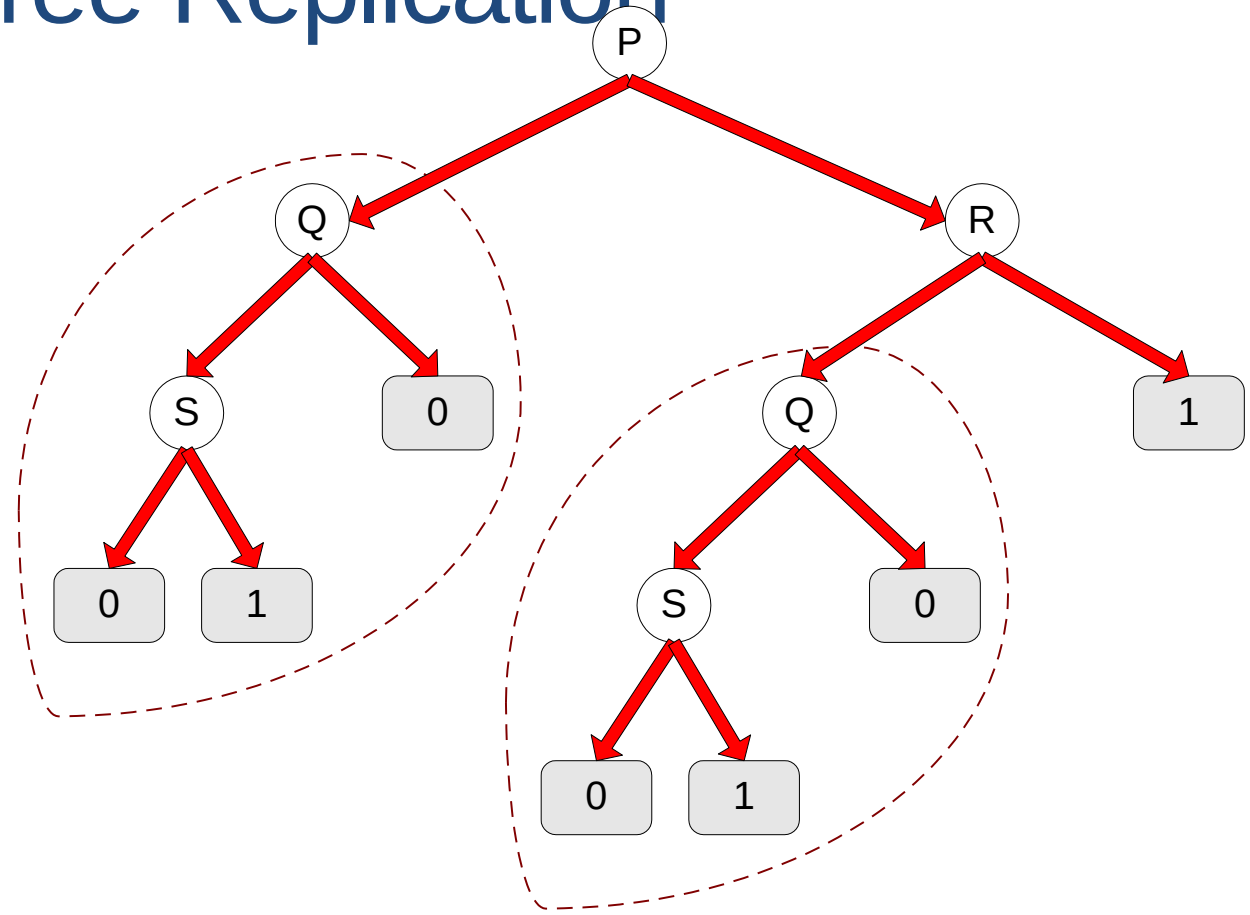
Oblique Decision Trees





- Test condition may involve multiple attributes
- More expressive representation
- Finding optimal test condition is computationally expensive

Tree Replication

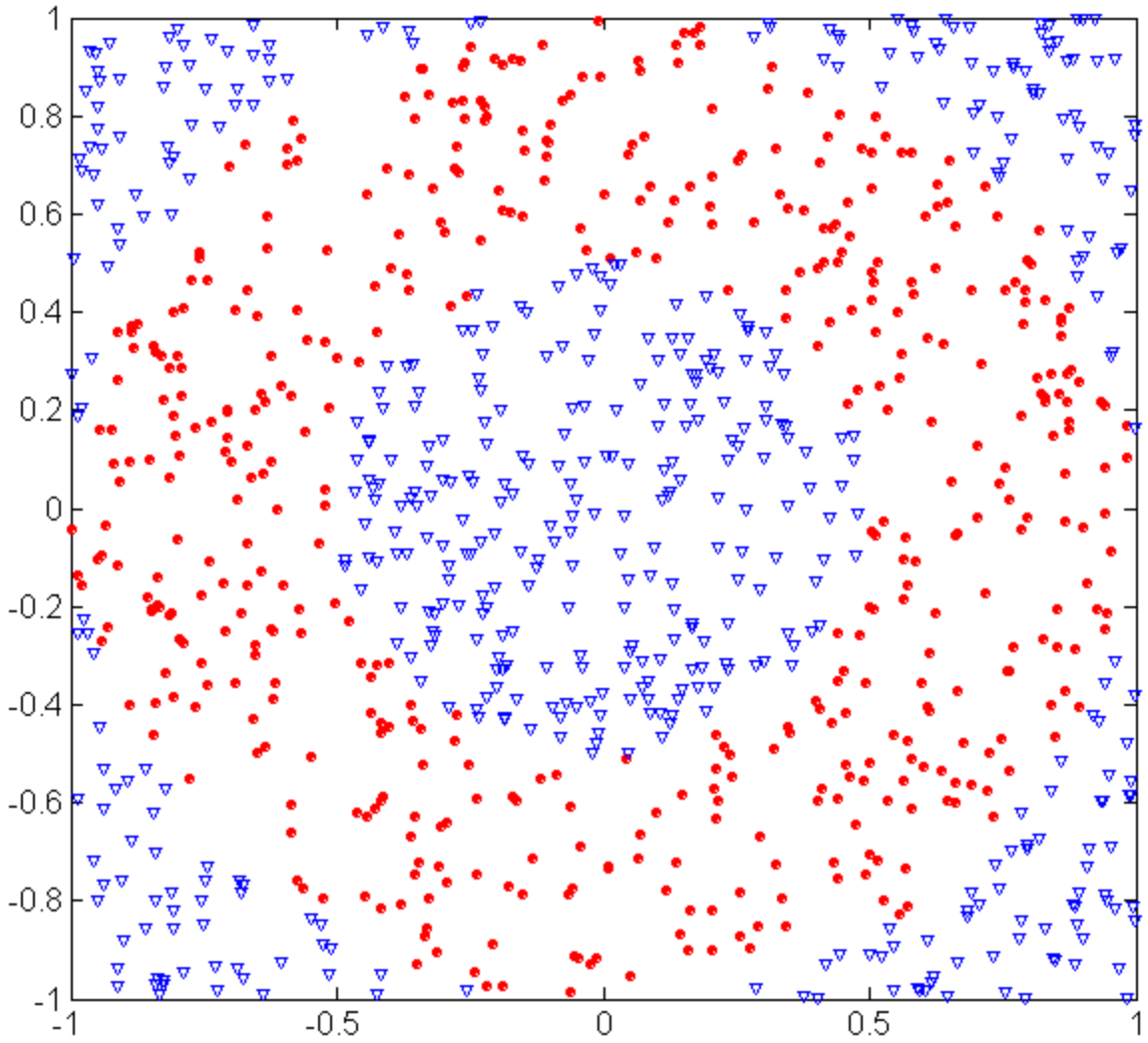


- Same subtree appears in multiple branches

Practical Issues of Classification

- Underfitting and Overfitting
- Missing Values
- Costs of Classification

Underfitting and Overfitting (Example)



500 circular and 500 triangular data points.

Circular points:

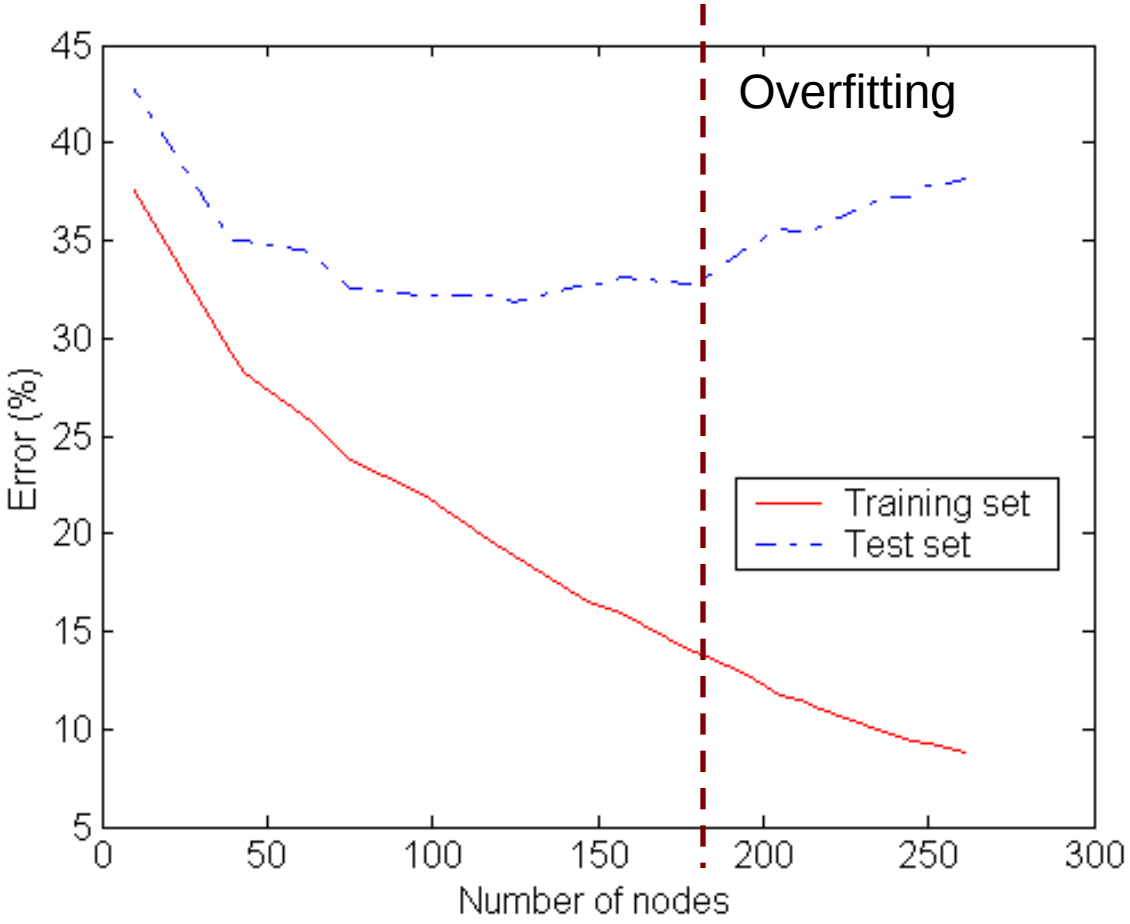
$0.5 \leq \text{sqrt}(x_1^2+x_2^2) \leq 1$

Triangular points:

$\text{sqrt}(x_1^2+x_2^2) > 0.5$ or

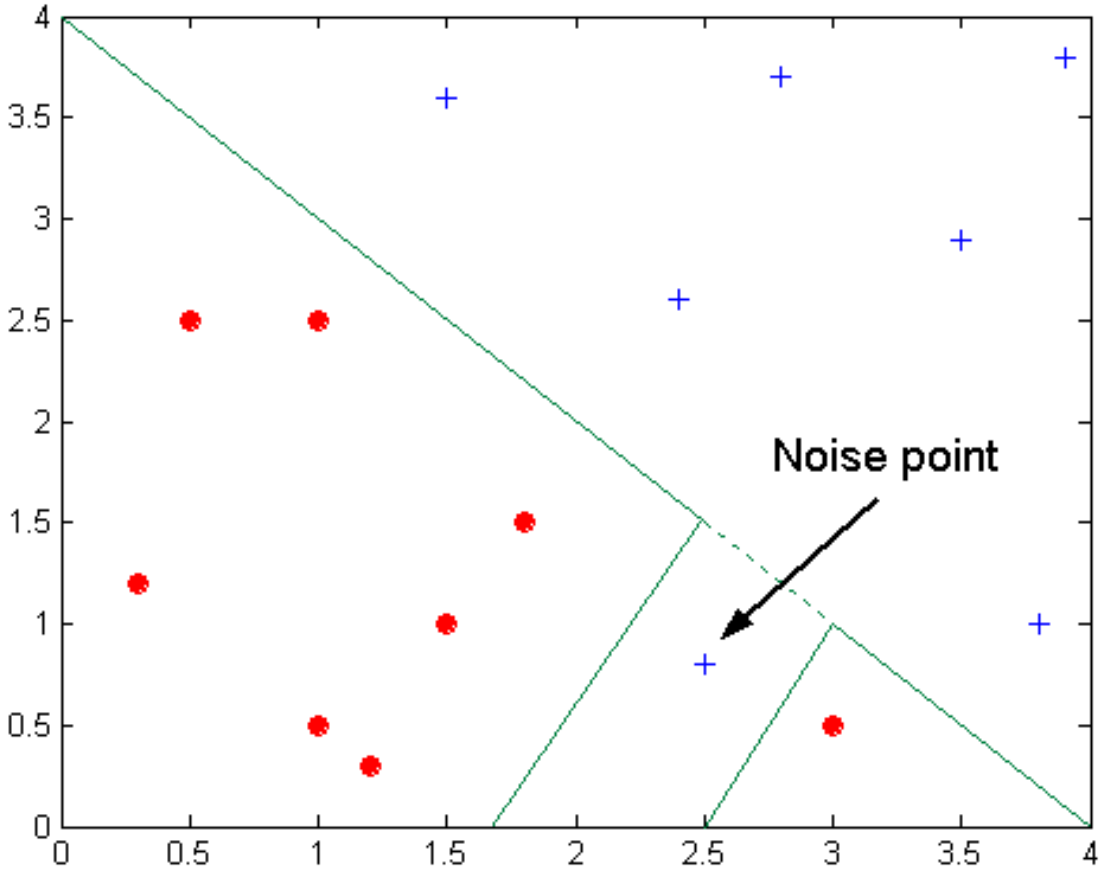
$\text{sqrt}(x_1^2+x_2^2) < 1$

Underfitting and Overfitting



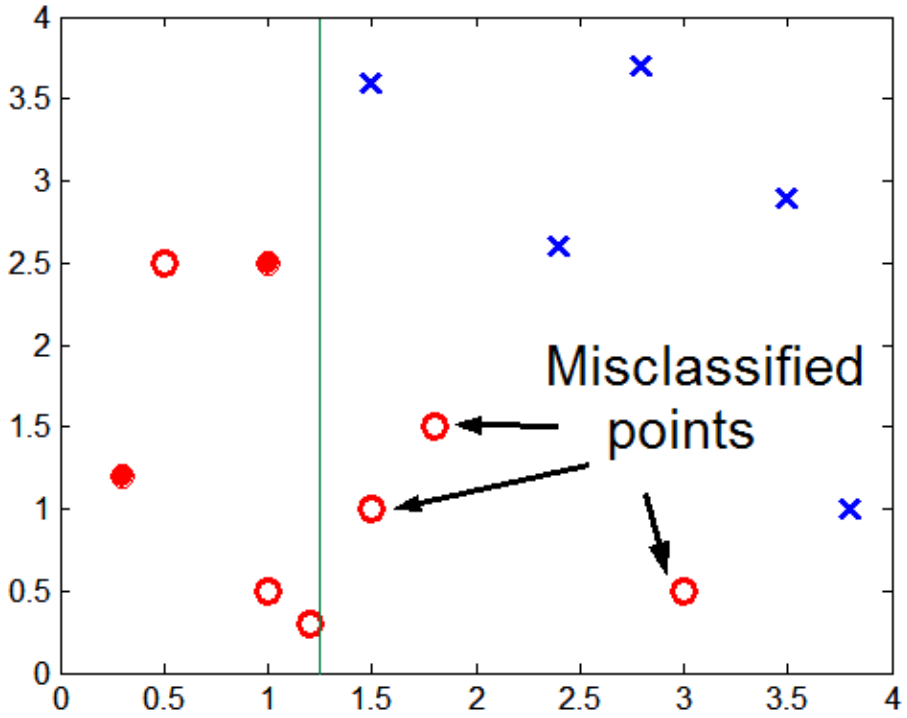
Underfitting: when model is too simple, both training and test errors are large

Overfitting due to Noise



Decision boundary is distorted by noise point

Overfitting due to Insufficient Examples



Lack of data points in the lower half of the diagram makes it difficult to predict correctly the class labels of that region

- Insufficient number of training records in the region causes the decision tree to predict the test examples using other training records that are irrelevant to the classification task

Notes on Overfitting

- Overfitting results in decision trees that are more complex than necessary

- Training error no longer provides a good estimate of how well the tree will perform on previously unseen records
  - The model does not generalize well

- Need new ways for estimating errors

Estimating Generalization Errors

- Re-substitution errors: error on training (Σ e(t))
- Generalization errors: error on testing (Σ e'(t))
- Methods for estimating generalization errors:
  - Optimistic approach: e'(t) = e(t)
  - Pessimistic approach:
    - For each leaf node: e'(t) = (e(t)+0.5)
    - Total errors: e'(T) = e(T) + N $\times$ 0.5 (N: number of leaf nodes)
    - For a tree with 30 leaf nodes and 10 errors on training (out of 1000 instances):

      Training error = 10/1000 = 1%

      Generalization error = (10 + 30$\times$0.5)/1000 = 2.5%
  - Reduced error pruning (REP):
    - uses validation dataset to estimate generalization error
    - Validation set reduces the amount of training data.

Occam's Razor

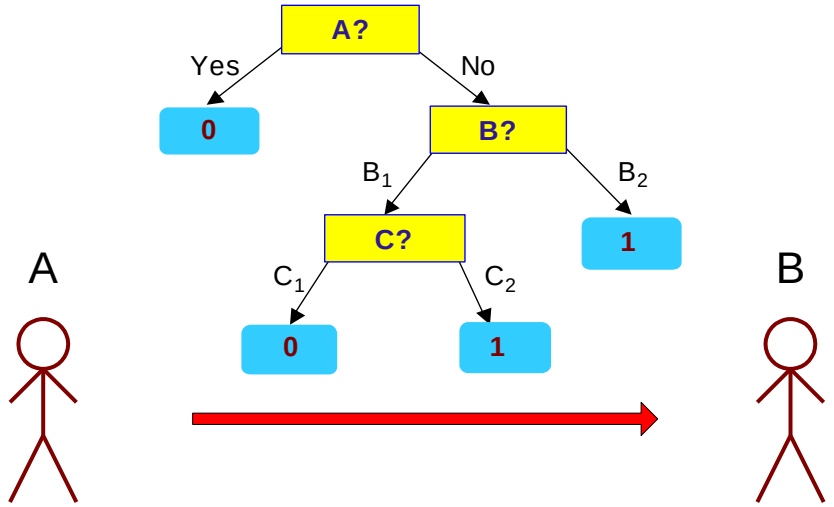
- Given two models of similar generalization errors, one should prefer the simpler model over the more complex model

- For complex models, there is a greater chance that it was fitted accidentally by errors in data

- Therefore, one should include model complexity when evaluating a model

Minimum Description Length (MDL)

X	y
X_1	1
X_2	0
X_3	0
X_4	1
…	…
X_n	1



X	y
X_1	?
X_2	?
X_3	?
X_4	?
…	…
X_n	?

- Cost(Model,Data) = Cost(Data|Model) + Cost(Model)
  - Cost is the number of bits needed for encoding.
  - Search for the least costly model.
- Cost(Data|Model) encodes the misclassification errors.
- Cost(Model) uses node encoding (number of children) plus splitting condition encoding.

How to Address Overfitting

- Pre-Pruning (Early Stopping Rule)
  - Stop the algorithm before it becomes a fully-grown tree
  - Typical stopping conditions for a node:
    - Stop if all instances belong to the same class
    - Stop if all the attribute values are the same
  - More restrictive conditions:
    - Stop if number of instances is less than some user-specified threshold
    - Stop if class distribution of instances are independent of the available features (e.g., using χ^2 test)
    - Stop if expanding the current node does not improve impurity measures (e.g., Gini or information gain).

How to Address Overfitting…

- Post-pruning
  - Grow decision tree to its entirety
  - Trim the nodes of the decision tree in a bottom-up fashion
  - If generalization error improves after trimming, replace sub-tree by a leaf node.
  - Class label of leaf node is determined from majority class of instances in the sub-tree
  - Can use MDL for post-pruning

Example of Post-Pruning

Class = Yes	20
Class = No	10
Error = 10/30	

Training Error (Before splitting) = 10/30

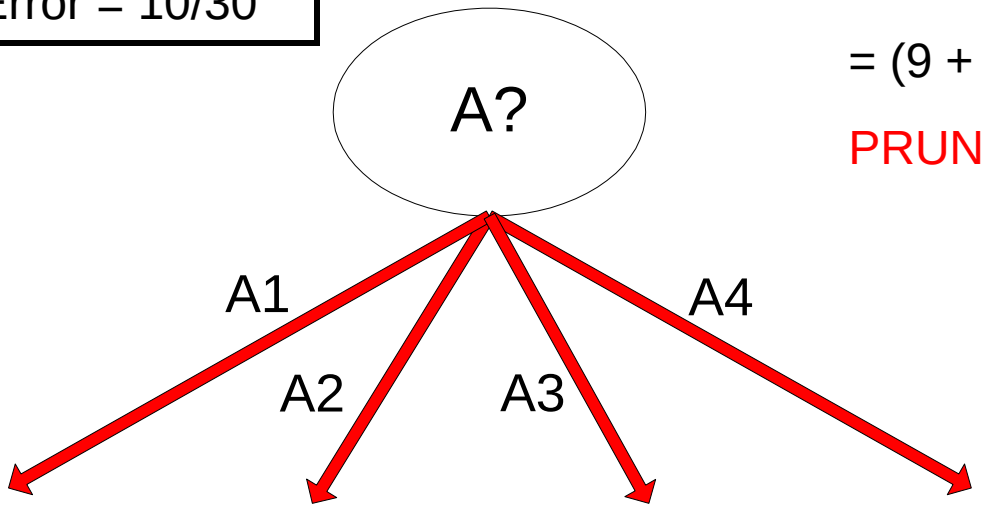
Pessimistic error = (10 + 0.5)/30 = 10.5/30

Training Error (After splitting) = 9/30

Pessimistic error (After splitting)

= (9 + 4 × 0.5)/30 = 11/30

PRUNE!



Class = Yes	8
Class = No	4

Class = Yes	3
Class = No	4

Class = Yes	4
Class = No	1

Class = Yes	5
Class = No	1

Handling Missing Attribute Values

- Missing values affect decision tree construction in three different ways:
  - Affects how impurity measures are computed
  - Affects how to distribute instance with missing value to child nodes
  - Affects how a test instance with missing value is classified

Computing Impurity Measure

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
2	No	Married	100K	No
3	No	Single	70K	No
4	Yes	Married	120K	No
5	No	Divorced	95K	Yes
6	No	Married	60K	No
7	Yes	Divorced	220K	No
8	No	Single	85K	Yes
9	No	Married	75K	No
10	?	Single	90K	Yes

Missing value

Before Splitting:

Entropy(Parent)
= -0.3 log(0.3)-(0.7)log(0.7) = 0.8813

	Class = Yes	Class = No
Refund=Yes	**0**	**3**
Refund=No	**2**	**4**
Refund=?	**1**	**0**

Split on Refund:

Entropy(Refund=Yes) = 0

Entropy(Refund=No)
= -(2/6)log(2/6) – (4/6)log(4/6) = 0.9183

Entropy(Children)
= 0.3 (0) + 0.6 (0.9183) = 0.551

Gain = 0.9 × (0.8813 – 0.551) = 0.3303

Distribute Instances

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
1	Yes	Single	125K	No
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3	No	Single	70K	No
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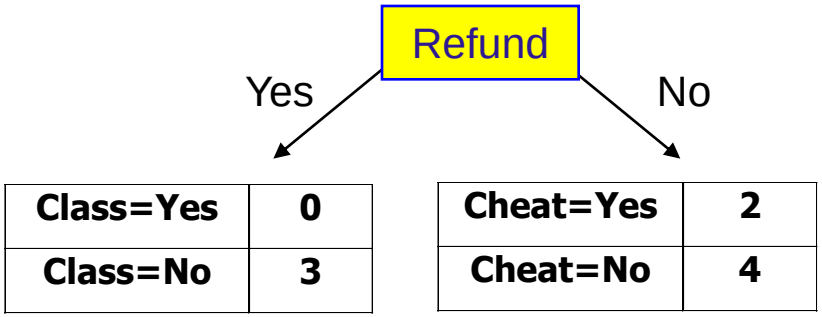
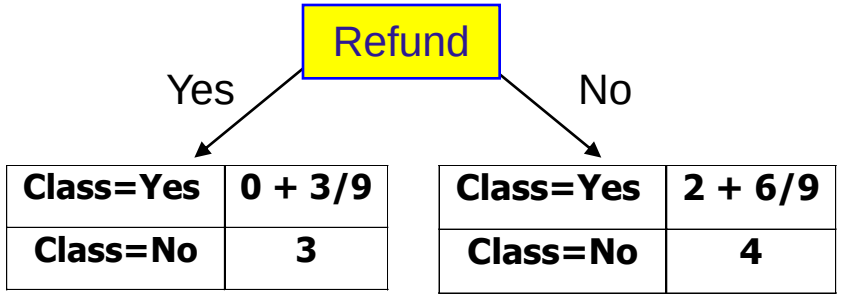


Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
10	?	Single	90K	Yes



Probability that Refund=Yes is 3/9

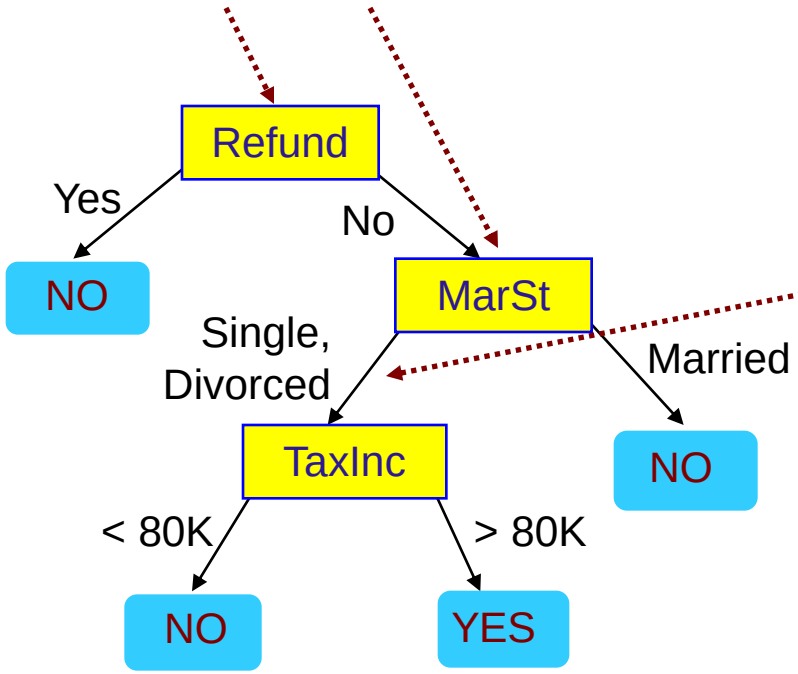
Probability that Refund=No is 6/9

Assign record to the left child with weight = 3/9 and to the right child with weight = 6/9

Classify Instances

New record:

Tid	Refund	Marital Status	Taxable Income	Class
11	No	?	85K	?



	Married	Single	Divorced	Total
Class=No	3	1	0	4
Class=Yes	6/9	1	1	2.67
Total	3.67	2	1	6.67

Probability that Marital Status = Married is 3.67/6.67

Probability that Marital Status ={Single,Divorced} is 3/6.67

Model Evaluation

- 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?

Model Evaluation

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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	Class=Yes	a	b
	Class=No	c	d

a: TP (true positive)

b: FN (false negative)

c: FP (false positive)

d: TN (true negative)

Metrics for Performance Evaluation…

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

- Most widely-used metric:

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{a+d}{a+b+c+d} = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$$

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 Matrix

		PREDICTED CLASS	
ACTUAL CLASS	C(i|j)	**Class=Yes**	**Class=No**
	Class=Yes	C(Yes|Yes)	C(No|Yes)
	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
	-	1	0

Model M_1	PREDICTED CLASS		
		+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	150	40
	-	60	250

Accuracy = 80%

Cost = 3910

Model M_2	PREDICTED CLASS		
		+	-
ACTUAL CLASS	+	250	45
	-	5	200

Accuracy = 90%

Cost = 4255

Cost vs Accuracy

Count	PREDICTED CLASS		
		Class=Yes	Class=No
ACTUAL CLASS	Class=Yes	a	b
	Class=No	c	d

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

Accuracy is proportional to cost if
1. C(Yes|No)=C(No|Yes) = q
2. C(Yes|Yes)=C(No|No) = p

$N = a + b + c + d$

$Accuracy = (a + d)/N$

$$\begin{aligned} Cost &= p\,(a + d) + q\,(b + c) \\ &= p\,(a + d) + q\,(N - a - d) \\ &= q\,N - (q - p)(a + d) \\ &= N\,[q - (q-p) \times Accuracy] \end{aligned}$$

Cost-Sensitive Measures

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

$$\text{Recall (r)} = \frac{a}{a+b} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$$

$$\text{F-measure (F)} = \frac{2rp}{r+p} = \frac{2a}{2a+b+c} = \frac{2TP}{2TP+FP+FN}$$

- 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)**

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

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Methods for Performance Evaluation

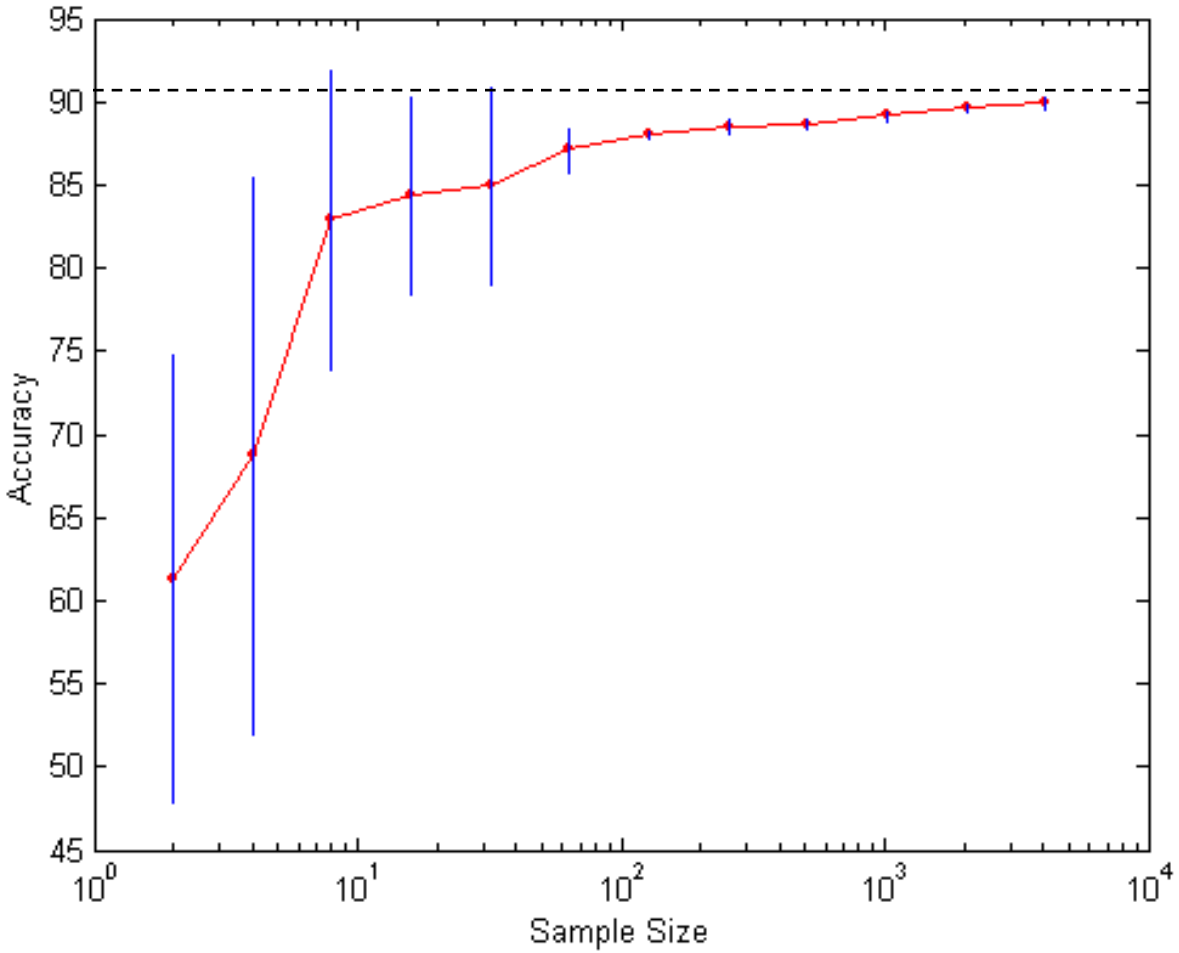
- How to obtain a reliable estimate of performance?

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

Dealing with class Imbalance

- If the class we are interested in is very rare, then the classifier will ignore it.
  - The class imbalance problem
- Solution
  - We can modify the optimization criterion by using a cost sensitive metric
  - We can balance the class distribution
    - Sample from the larger class so that the size of the two classes is the same
    - Replicate the data of the class of interest so that the classes are balanced
      - Over-fitting issues

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

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**
- **Bootstrap**
  - Sampling with replacement

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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 **TPR** (on the **y**-axis) against **FPR** (on the **x**-axis)

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{FP + TN}$$

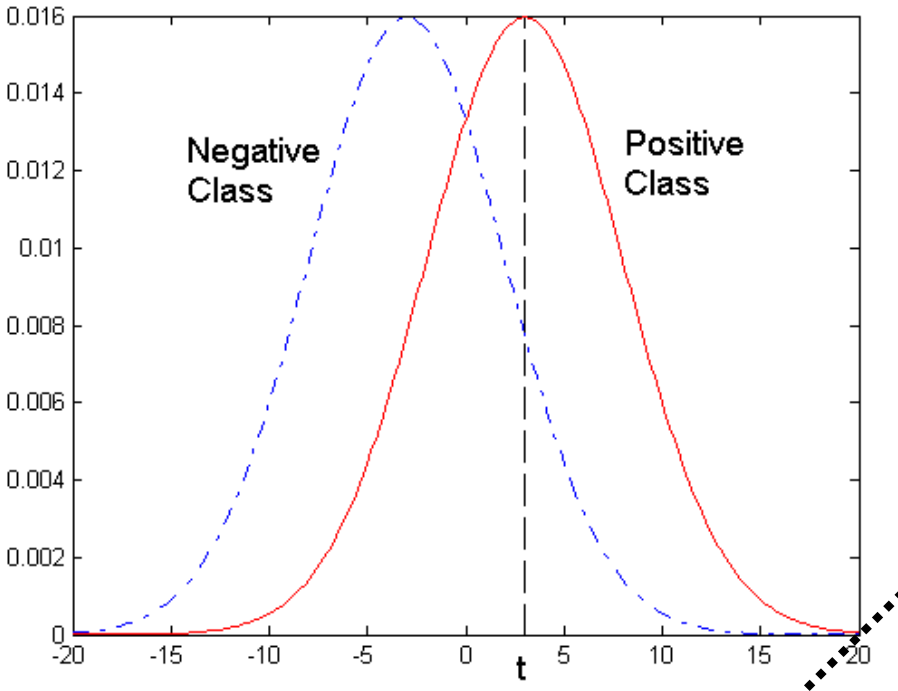
		PREDICTED CLASS	
		Yes	No
Actual	Yes	a (TP)	b (FN)
	No	c (FP)	d (TN)

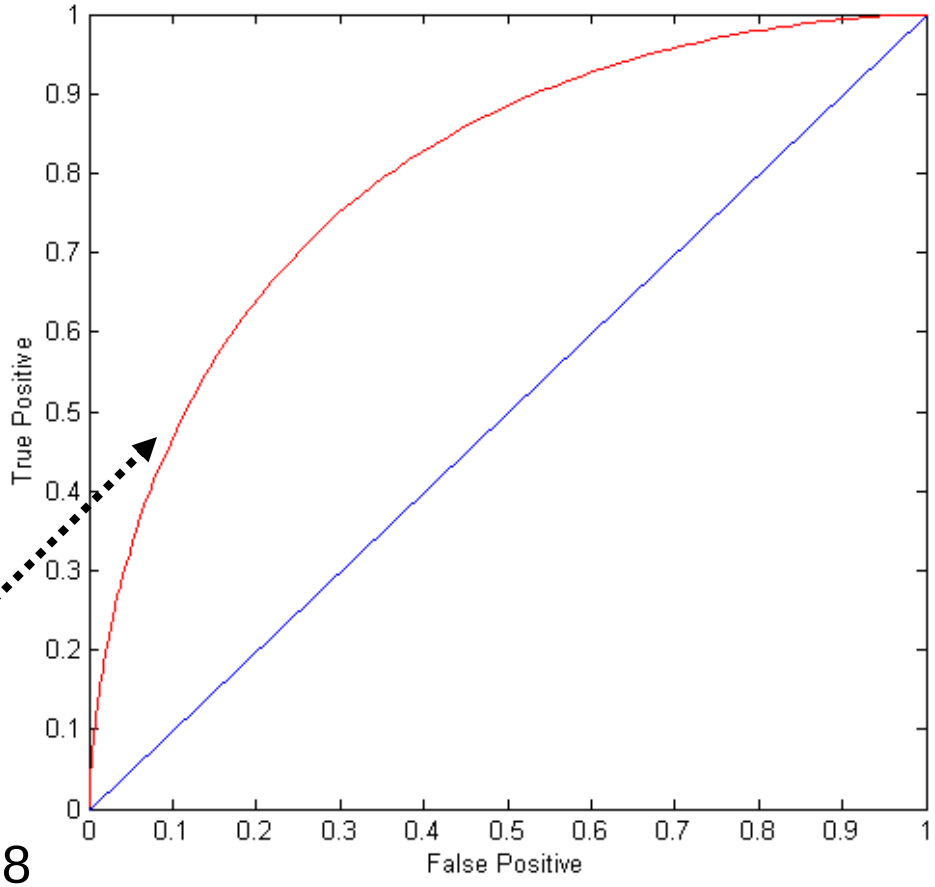
ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic)

- 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

ROC Curve

- **1**-dimensional data set containing **2** classes (***positive*** and ***negative***)
- any points located at **x > t** is classified as ***positive***





At threshold **t**:

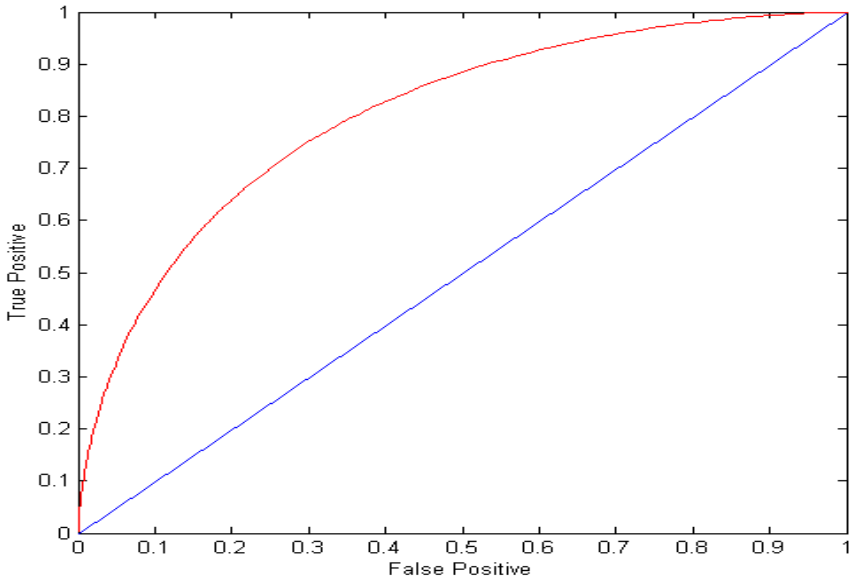
TP=0.5, FN=0.5, FP=0.12, FN=0.88

ROC Curve

(TP,FP):

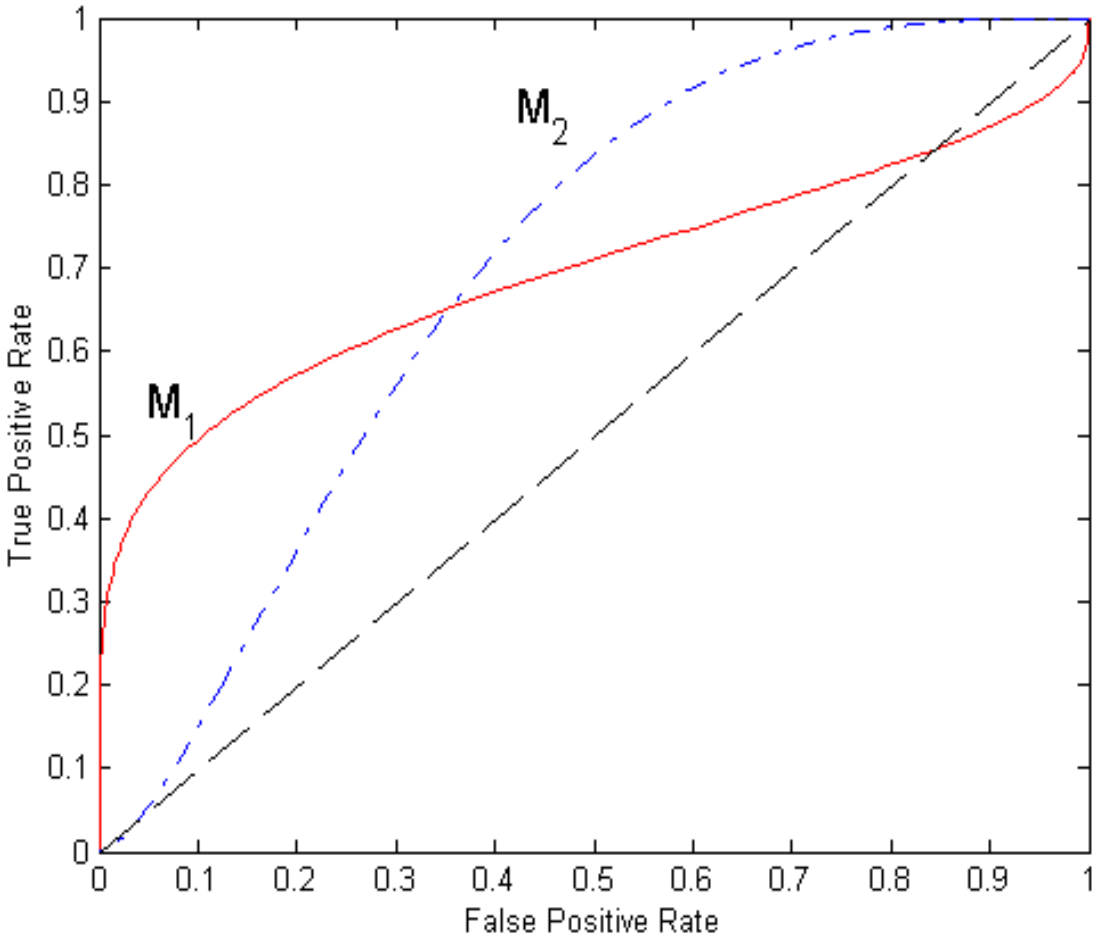
- (0,0): declare everything to be negative class
- (1,1): declare everything to be positive class
- (1,0): ideal

- Diagonal line:
  - Random guessing
  - Below diagonal line:
    - prediction is opposite of the true class



		PREDICTED CLASS	
		Yes	No
Actual	Yes	a (TP)	b (FN)
	No	c (FP)	d (TN)

Using ROC for Model Comparison



- No model consistently outperform the other
  - M_1 is better for small FPR
  - M_2 is better for large FPR
- Area Under the ROC curve (AUC)
  - Ideal: Area = 1
  - Random guess:
    - Area = 0.5

How to Construct an ROC curve

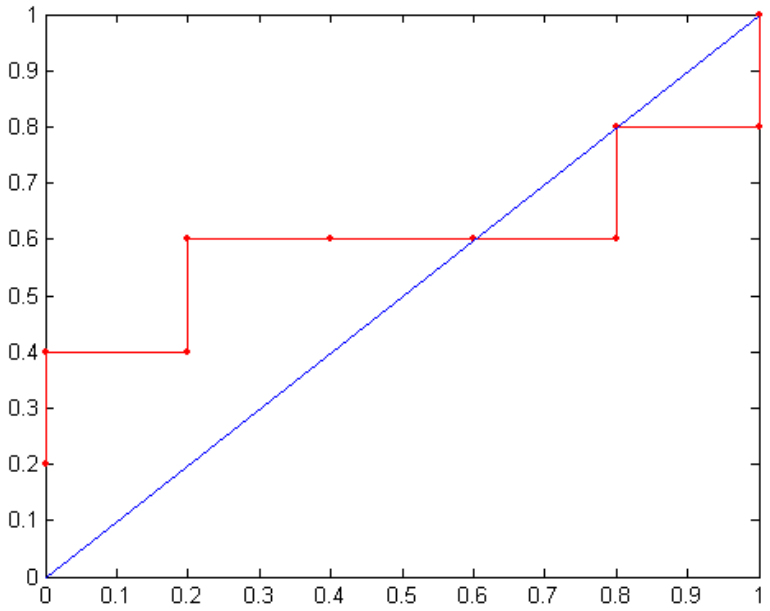
Instance	P(+|A)	True Class
1	0.95	+
2	0.93	+
3	0.87	-
4	0.85	-
5	0.85	-
6	0.85	+
7	0.76	-
8	0.53	+
9	0.43	-
10	0.25	+

- 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)

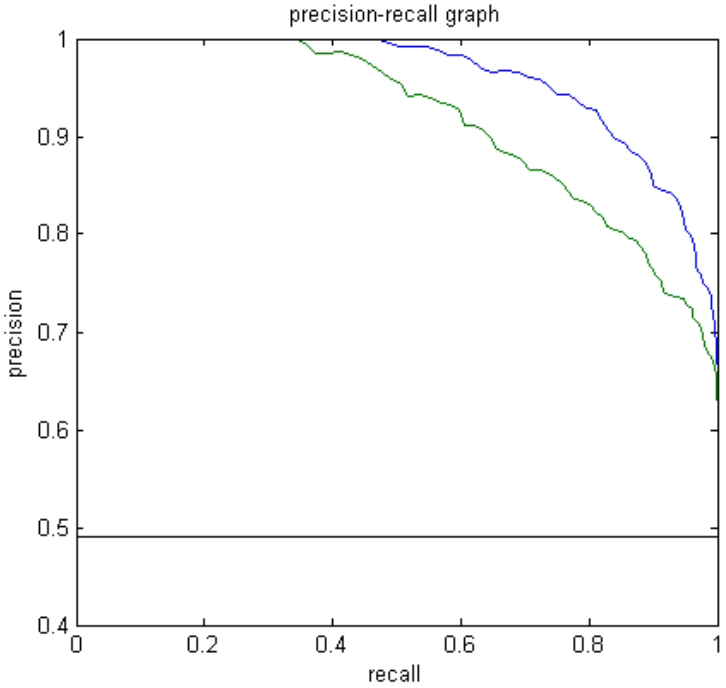
How to construct an ROC curve

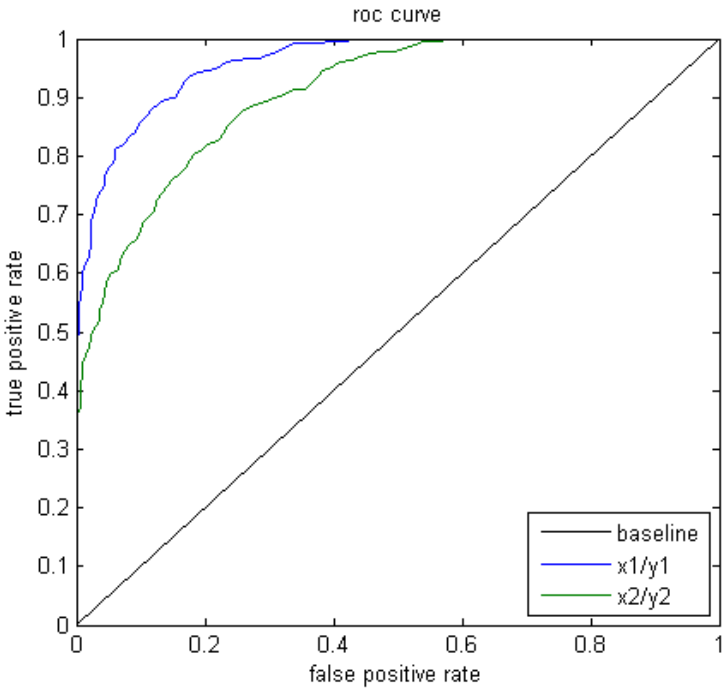
	Class	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	
Threshold >=		0.25	0.43	0.53	0.76	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.93	0.95	1.00
	TP	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	0
	FP	5	5	4	4	3	2	1	1	0	0	0
	TN	0	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	5	5	5
	FN	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	5
→	TPR	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.2	0
→	FPR	1	1	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0	0	0

ROC Curve:



ROC curve vs Precision-Recall curve





Area Under the Curve (AUC) as a single number for evaluation

Test of Significance

- Given two models:
  - Model M1: accuracy = 85%, tested on 30 instances
  - Model M2: accuracy = 75%, tested on 5000 instances

- Can we say M1 is better than M2?
  - How much confidence can we place on accuracy of M1 and M2?
  - Can the difference in performance measure be explained as a result of random fluctuations in the test set?

Confidence Interval for Accuracy

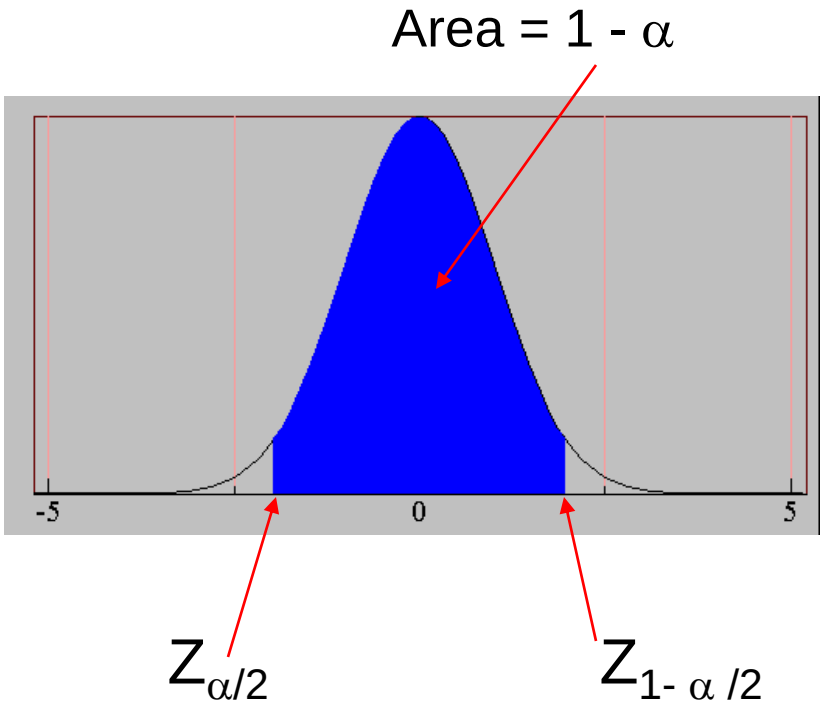
- Prediction can be regarded as a Bernoulli trial
  - A Bernoulli trial has 2 possible outcomes
  - Possible outcomes for prediction: correct or wrong
  - Collection of Bernoulli trials has a Binomial distribution:
    - $x \sim Bin(N, p)$ x: number of correct predictions
    - e.g: Toss a fair coin 50 times, how many heads would turn up?
      Expected number of heads = $N \times p = 50 \times 0.5 = 25$

- Given x (# of correct predictions) or equivalently, acc=x/N, and N (# of test instances),

  Can we predict p (true accuracy of model)?

Confidence Interval for Accuracy

- For large test sets (N > 30),
  - acc has a normal distribution with mean p and variance p(1-p)/N



$$P(Z_{\alpha/2} < \frac{acc - p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/N}} < Z_{1-\alpha/2}) = 1-\alpha$$

- Confidence Interval for p:

$$p = \frac{2 \times N \times acc + Z_{\alpha/2}^2 \pm \sqrt{Z_{\alpha/2}^2 + 4 \times N \times acc - 4 \times N \times acc^2}}{2(N + Z_{\alpha/2}^2)}$$

Confidence Interval for Accuracy

- Consider a model that produces an accuracy of 80% when evaluated on 100 test instances:
  - N=100, acc = 0.8
  - Let 1-α = 0.95 (95% confidence)
  - From probability table, $Z_{\alpha/2}$=1.96

1-α	Z
0.99	2.58
0.98	2.33
0.95	1.96
0.90	1.65

N	50	100	500	1000	5000
p(lower)	0.670	0.711	0.763	0.774	0.789
p(upper)	0.888	0.866	0.833	0.824	0.811

Comparing Performance of 2 Models

- Given two models, say M1 and M2, which is better?
  - M1 is tested on D1 (size=n1), found error rate = e_1
  - M2 is tested on D2 (size=n2), found error rate = e_2
  - Assume D1 and D2 are independent
  - If n1 and n2 are sufficiently large, then

$$e_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$$

$$e_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$$

  - Approximate: $\hat{\sigma}_i = \frac{e_i(1-e_i)}{n_i}$

Comparing Performance of 2 Models

- To test if performance difference is statistically significant: d = e1 – e2
  - d ~ $N(d_t,\sigma_t)$ where d_t is the true difference
  - Since D1 and D2 are independent, their variance adds up:

$$\sigma_t^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 \cong \hat{\sigma}_1^2 + \hat{\sigma}_2^2$$

$$= \frac{e1(1-e1)}{n1} + \frac{e2(1-e2)}{n2}$$

  - At (1-α) confidence level, $d_t = d \pm Z_{\alpha/2}\hat{\sigma}_t$

An Illustrative Example

- Given: M1: n1 = 30, e1 = 0.15
  M2: n2 = 5000, e2 = 0.25
- d = |e2 – e1| = 0.1 (2-sided test)

$$\hat{\sigma}_d = \frac{0.15(1-0.15)}{30} + \frac{0.25(1-0.25)}{5000} = 0.0043$$

- At 95% confidence level, $Z_{\alpha/2}$=1.96

$$d_t = 0.100 \pm 1.96 \times \sqrt{0.0043} = 0.100 \pm 0.128$$

=> Interval contains 0 => difference may not be statistically significant