

# Outline for Part 2

Measuring prediction performance

Sample splitting

Resampling methods

# Which model is best for prediction?

## Example: Regularization/Variable selection by Lasso

### Idea:

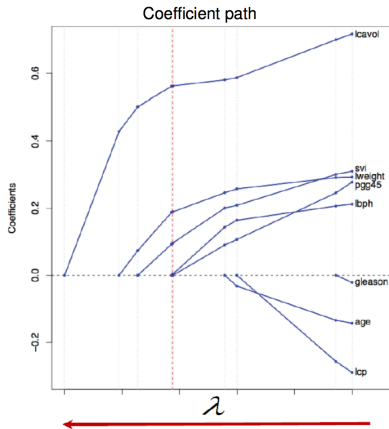
Penalize (shrink towards zero) regression coefficients by adding penalty term to LS criterion.

Thereby, “non-relevant” coefficients are estimated as exactly 0 and can be excluded.

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{lasso}} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} \beta_j)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \right\}$$

Penalty controlled by regularization parameter  $\lambda$ :

- small  $\lambda \Rightarrow$  many variables in model
- large  $\lambda \Rightarrow$  few variables in model



$\Rightarrow$  How to select  $\lambda$  to minimize prediction error?

# Measuring prediction performance

To evaluate model performance on a given data set, measure how well its predictions actually match the observed data.

How close is the predicted value to the true value for that observation?

- **Linear Regression:** Mean squared error:

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

- **2-class Classification:** Brier score:

$$\text{BS} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{p}(y_i = 1|x_i))^2$$

## Performance measures

Some models are used only for parameter estimation and testing

But:

- If used for prediction/classification, need to consider accuracy of predictions
- Two major aspects of prediction accuracy that need to be assessed:

### (1) Reliability or calibration of a model:

- ability of the model to make unbiased estimates of the outcome
- observed responses agree with predicted responses

### (2) Discrimination ability:

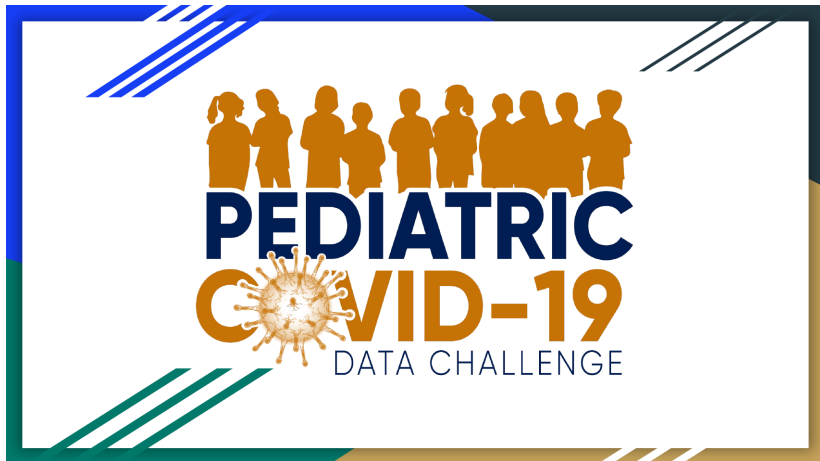
- the model is able, through the use of predicted responses, to separate subjects

# Performance measures for classification tasks

Steyerberg et al, 2010 (Table 1)

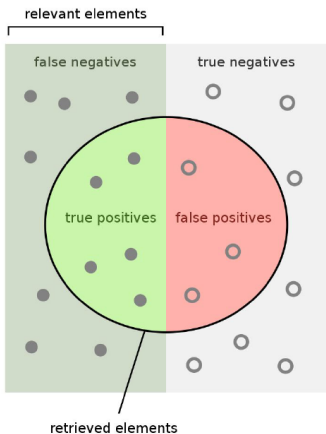
Aspect	Measure	Visualization	Characteristics
Overall performance	R <sup>2</sup> Brier → Brier score	Validation graph	Better with lower distance between Y and Ŷ. Captures calibration and discrimination aspects.
Discrimination	C statistic → AUC	ROC curve	Rank order statistic; Interpretation for a pair of patients with and without the outcome
	Discrimination slope	Box plot	Difference in mean of predictions between outcomes; Easy visualization
Calibration	Calibration-in-the-large	Calibration or validation graph	Compare mean(y) versus mean(Ŷ); essential aspect for external validation
	Calibration slope		Regression slope of linear predictor; essential aspect for internal and external validation related to 'shrinkage' of regression coefficients
	Hosmer-Lemeshow test		Compares observed to predicted by decile of predicted probability

## Example: Data challenge model performance evaluation



[https://drive.hhs.gov/pediatric\\_challenge.html](https://drive.hhs.gov/pediatric_challenge.html)

# Example: Data challenge model performance evaluation



How many retrieved items are relevant?

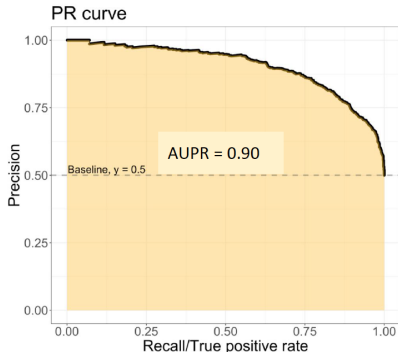
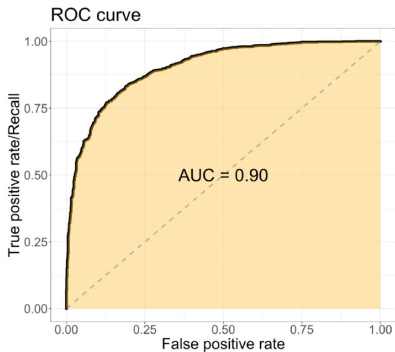
$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{true positives}}{\text{true positives} + \text{false positives}}$$

How many relevant items are retrieved?

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{true positives}}{\text{true positives} + \text{false negatives}}$$



# Example: Data challenge model performance evaluation



$$F_{\beta} = (1 + \beta^2) \cdot \frac{\text{precision} \cdot \text{recall}}{(\beta^2 \cdot \text{precision}) + \text{recall}}$$

## Example: Data challenge model performance evaluation

Quantitative score (85 %):

$$\frac{1}{3} \left( \left( \max_{\text{threshold } t} F_2(t) \right)^2 + \text{AUPR}^2 + \left( \text{Mean}(\text{AUROC}) - \text{Var}(\text{AUROC}) \right)^2 \right)$$

Qualitative score (15 %):

- Timeliness
- Interpretability
- Context Utility
- Technical Reproducibility
- Prediction Reproducibility

How to estimate the performance measure  
in an unbiased manner?

## How to estimate performance in an unbiased manner?

**Need:** Model assessment/validation to ascertain whether predicted values from the model are likely to accurately predict responses on future subjects or subjects not used to develop the model

### Two modes of validation

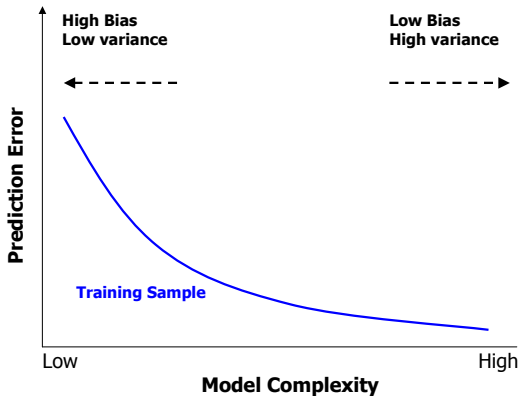
- **External:**  
Use different sets of subjects for building the model (including tuning) and testing
- **Internal:**
  - (i) Apparent (or training) error: evaluate fit on same data used to create fit
  - (ii) Data splitting and its extensions
  - (iii) Resampling methods

- **Two fundamental problems with estimation on the training data:**
  - The final model will over-fit the training data. Problem is more pronounced with models with a large number of variables.
  - The error estimate will be overly optimistic (too low).
- A much better idea is to **split the data** into disjoint subsets or use **resampling methods**
- **Training error:** Classification error in the training data set
- **Generalisation error:** Expected error for the classification of new samples → This is what we want to estimate!

The training error is a bad estimator for the generalisation error!

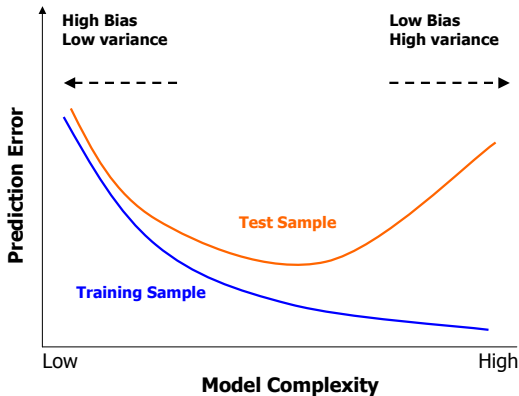
# Over-fitting is a major problem

## Behaviour of training sample error as the model complexity is varied



# Over-fitting is a major problem

## Behaviour of test and training sample error as the model complexity is varied



## The Bias-Variance Trade-Off

- A simple model might have **more model bias**, but
- A complex model has **more model variance**.

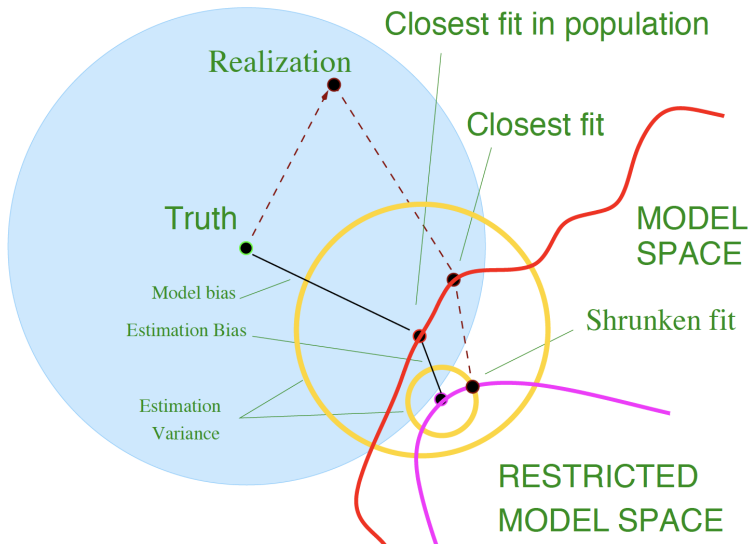
For  $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$  with  $E(\epsilon) = 0$  and  $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma_\epsilon^2$ , the **expected prediction error** of  $\hat{f}(X)$  at point  $x_0$  with squared error loss is:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Err}(x_0) &= E[(Y - \hat{f}(x_0))^2 | X = x_0] \\ &= \sigma_\epsilon^2 + [E\hat{f}(x_0) - f(x_0)]^2 + E[\hat{f}(x_0) - E\hat{f}(x_0)]^2 \\ &= \sigma_\epsilon^2 + \text{Bias}^2(\hat{f}(x_0)) + \text{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0)) \\ &= \text{Irreducible Error} + \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance}. \end{aligned} \tag{7.9}$$

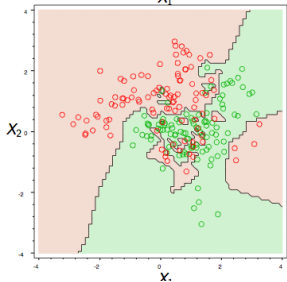
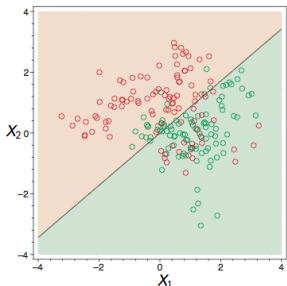
from Hastie et al. (2009), chapter 7.3



# The Bias-Variance Trade-Off



# The danger for over-fitting is higher with complex models



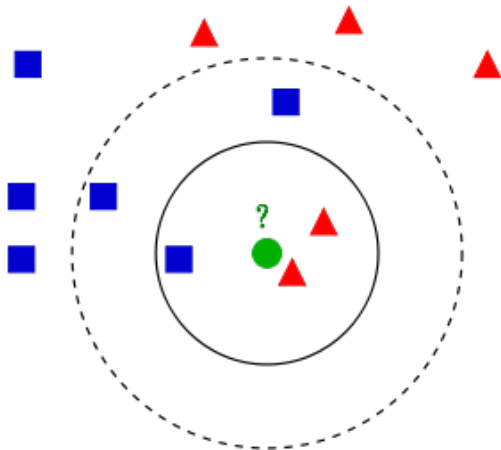
## Linear model

- Low complexity
- Stable (linear) decision boundary
- Generalisation error might be hardly larger than the training error

## 1-Nearest-neighbour method

- High complexity
- Unstable (highly non-linear) decision boundary
- Large over-fitting likely: Generalisation error probably much larger than training error

# k-Nearest-neighbour method



Wikipedia.org

- $k=3$ : Classify the test sample as a red triangle.
- $k=5$ : Classify the test sample as a blue square.

## Model building, selection and assessment

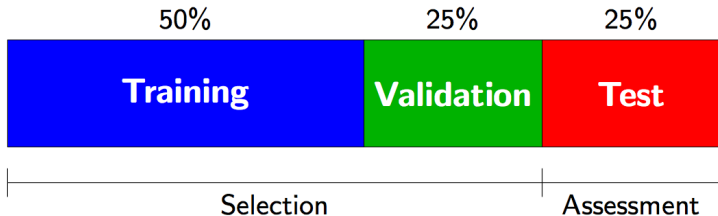
1. How to decide which method is the “best”, i.e. has the smallest generalisation error, in a specific situation?
  2. And how large is that smallest generalisation error anyway?
- **Model building and selection:** For a variety of different methods
    1. Fit (“train”) the models,  
i.e. perform parameter tuning/ variable selection
    2. Estimate the prediction errors.
    3. Choose the “best” method for a specific situation.
  - **Model assessment**
    - For the final selected model estimate the generalisation error on *new data*.

## Sample splitting

- Split data in several independent subsets **before** model building.

## Sample splitting

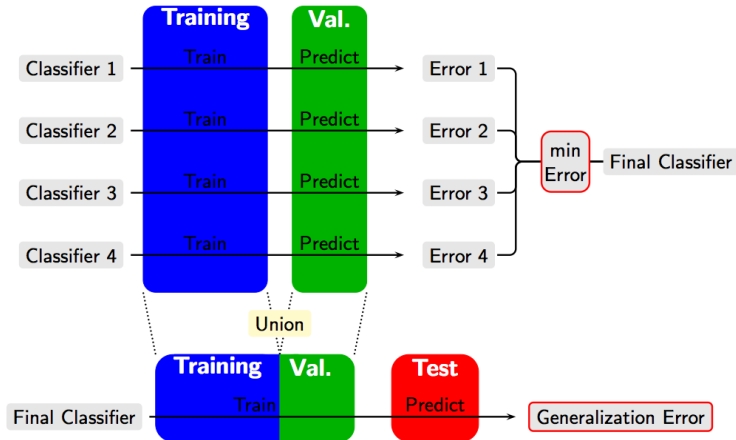
In a data-rich situation, we can split the available data.



- **Training set:** Fit (“train”) the various prediction models
- **Validation set:**
  - Estimate the prediction errors of the models
  - Final model: Choose model with smallest prediction error
- **Test set:** Estimate the generalisation error by applying the final model to a new test data set

# Sample splitting

Model building and selection →



→ Model assessment

## Drawbacks of sample splitting

One-time sample splitting has two **basic drawbacks**:

- We may not be able to afford the “luxury” of setting aside a portion of the data set for testing, as it might result in a large **loss of power**.
- The **assessment can vary greatly** when taking different splits:  
Since it is a single train-and-test experiment, the estimate of the error rate will be misleading if we happen to get an **“unfortunate”** split.

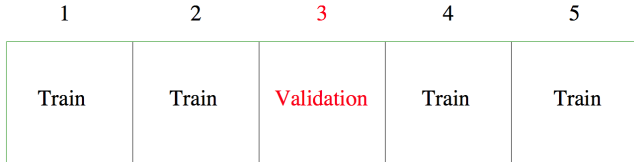


# Resampling methods

- Cross-validation
- Bootstrapping

## Cross-validation

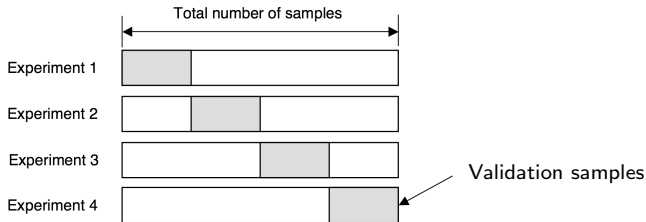
- Alternative to data splitting in not so data-rich situations (i.e. most of the time...)
- Partition the data set into  $K$  roughly equal-sized subsets
- Each subset will be the test data set once, with the remaining samples making up the training data



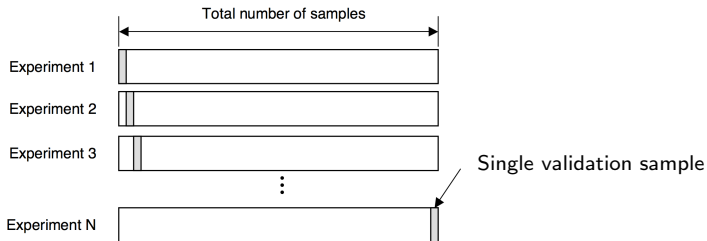
- **Cross-validation error:** The results are pooled from all test sets to estimate the performance of the model (each case is used exactly once).

# Cross-validation

- **K-fold cross-validation**

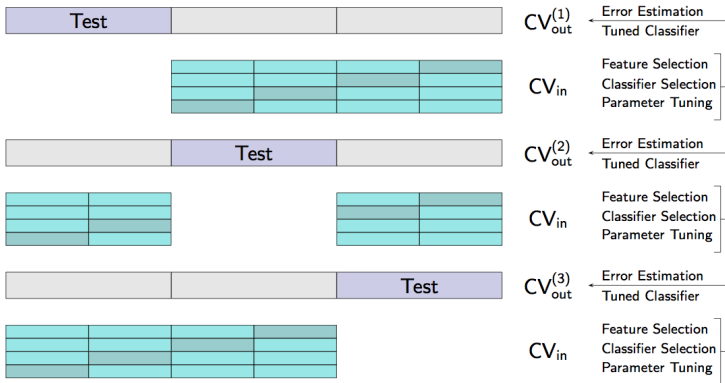


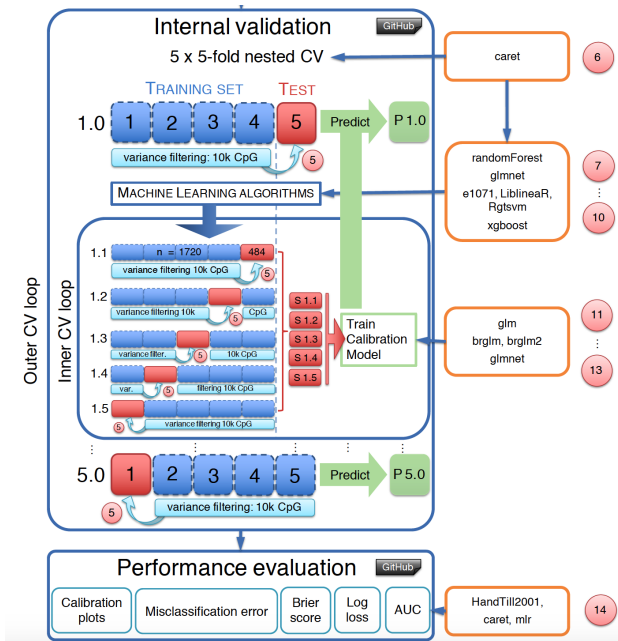
- **Leave-one-out cross-validation**



# Nested cross-validation

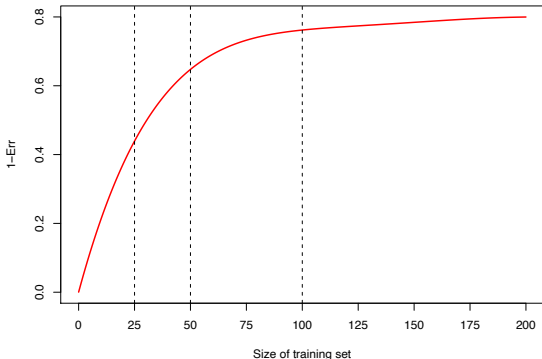
- **Inner CV loop:** Model building and selection
  - Feature selection, model selection, parameter tuning
  - Choose the model with the smallest CV error within inner loop
- **Outer CV loop:** Model assessment
  - Estimate the generalisation error for the final model





from: Maros et al. (2020)

# K-fold cross-validation: Training set size bias



## Hypothetical learning curve:

The performance of the predictor improves as the training set size increases to about 100 observations.

Increasing this number further brings only a small benefit.

## Drawbacks of cross-validation

- **Leave-one-out CV:** may have **large variance**
- **K-fold CV:** **may have large bias**, depending on the choice of the number of observations to be held out from each fit. The bias is possibly severe for training set sizes  $< 50$ , say. If the learning curve has a considerable slope at the given training set size, 5 or 10-fold CV will strongly overestimate the true prediction error.
- **Possible solution:** estimate prediction error by **bootstrapping**