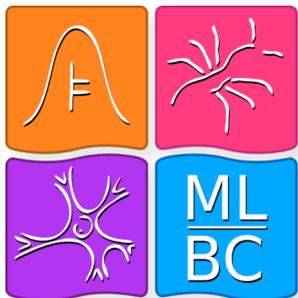


# ROC Analysis for Ranking and Probability Estimation

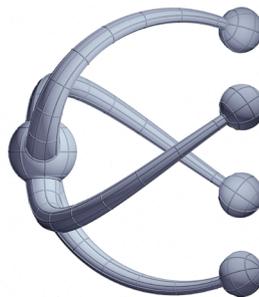
Peter A. Flach

University of Bristol, UK

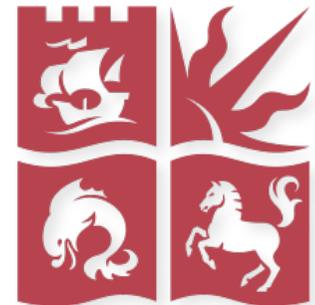
[www.cs.bris.ac.uk/~flach/](http://www.cs.bris.ac.uk/~flach/)



Machine Learning and  
Biological Computation Group



Department of  
Computer Science



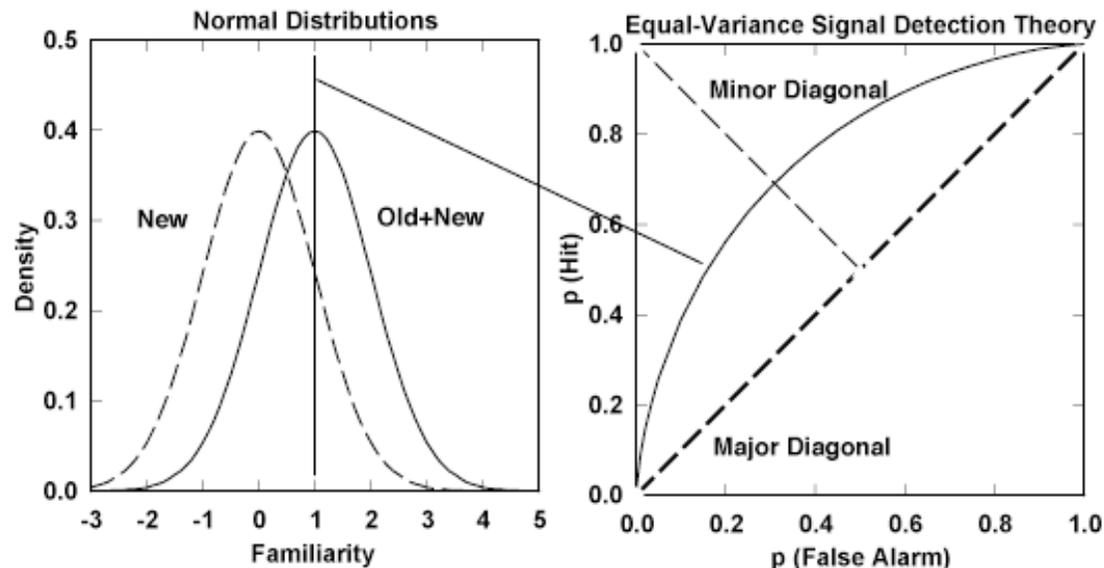
University of  
Bristol

# Outline

- **classification:** ROC plots, the ROC convex hull, iso-accuracy lines
- **ranking:** ROC curves, the AUC metric, turning rankers into classifiers
- **probability estimation:** probability estimates from ROC curves, calibration
- **model manipulation:** new models without re-training, ordering decision tree branches and rules, locally adjusting rankings
- **more than two classes:** multi-objective optimisation and the Pareto front, approximations

# Receiver Operating Characteristic

- Originated from signal detection theory
  - binary signal corrupted by Gaussian noise
  - how to set the threshold (operating point) to distinguish between presence/absence of signal?
  - depends on (1) strength of signal, (2) noise variance, and (3) desired hit rate or false alarm rate



from <http://wise.cgu.edu/sdt/>

# Signal detection theory

- slope of ROC curve is equal to likelihood ratio

$$L(x) = \frac{P(x | \text{signal})}{P(x | \text{noise})}$$

- if variances are equal,  $L(x)$  increases monotonically with  $x$  and ROC curve is convex
  - optimal threshold for  $x_0$  such that  $L(x_0) = \frac{P(\text{noise})}{P(\text{signal})}$
- concavities occur with unequal variances

# ROC analysis for classification

- Based on contingency table or confusion matrix

	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	True positives	False negatives	
Negative examples	False positives	True negatives	

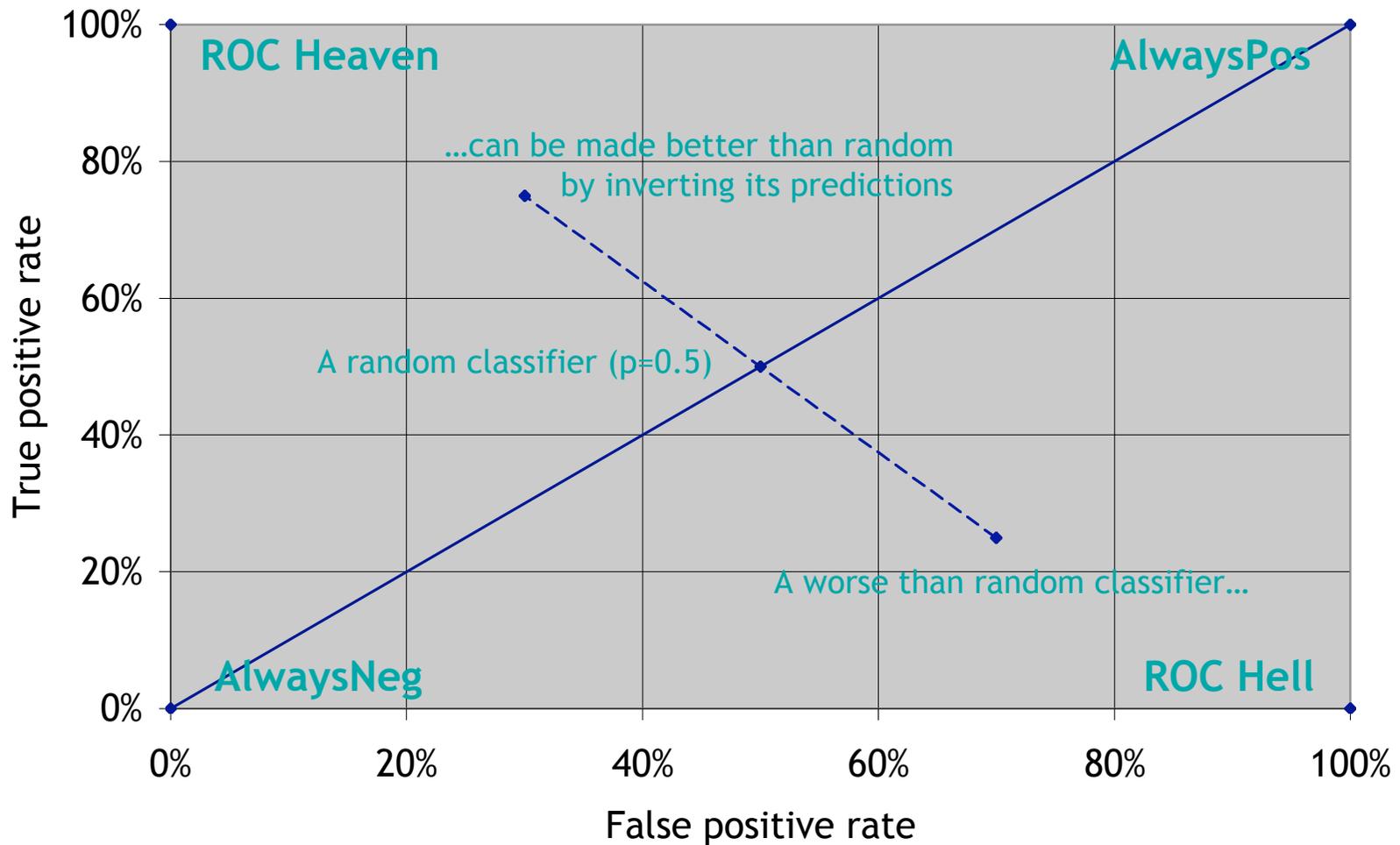
- Terminology:**
  - true positive = hit
  - true negative = correct rejection
  - false positive = false alarm (aka Type I error)
  - false negative = miss (aka Type II error)
    - positive/negative refers to prediction
    - true/false refers to correctness

# More terminology & notation

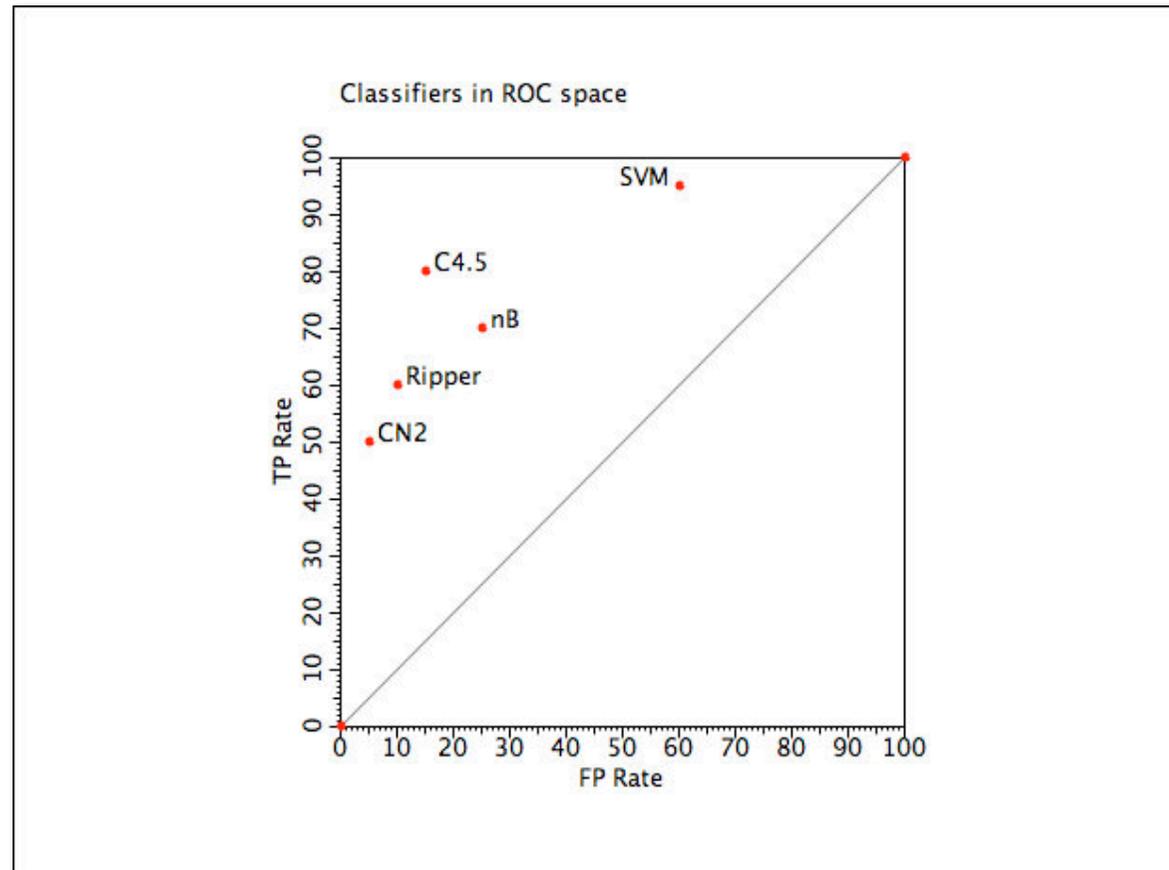
	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	TP	FN	Pos
Negative examples	FP	TN	Neg
	PPos	PNeg	N

- True positive rate  $tpr = TP/Pos = TP/TP+FN$ 
  - fraction of positives correctly predicted
- False positive rate  $fpr = FP/Neg = FP/FP+TN$ 
  - fraction of negatives incorrectly predicted
  - = 1 - true negative rate  $TN/FP+TN$
- Accuracy  $acc = pos*tpr + neg*(1-fpr)$ 
  - weighted average of true positive and true negative rates

# A closer look at ROC space

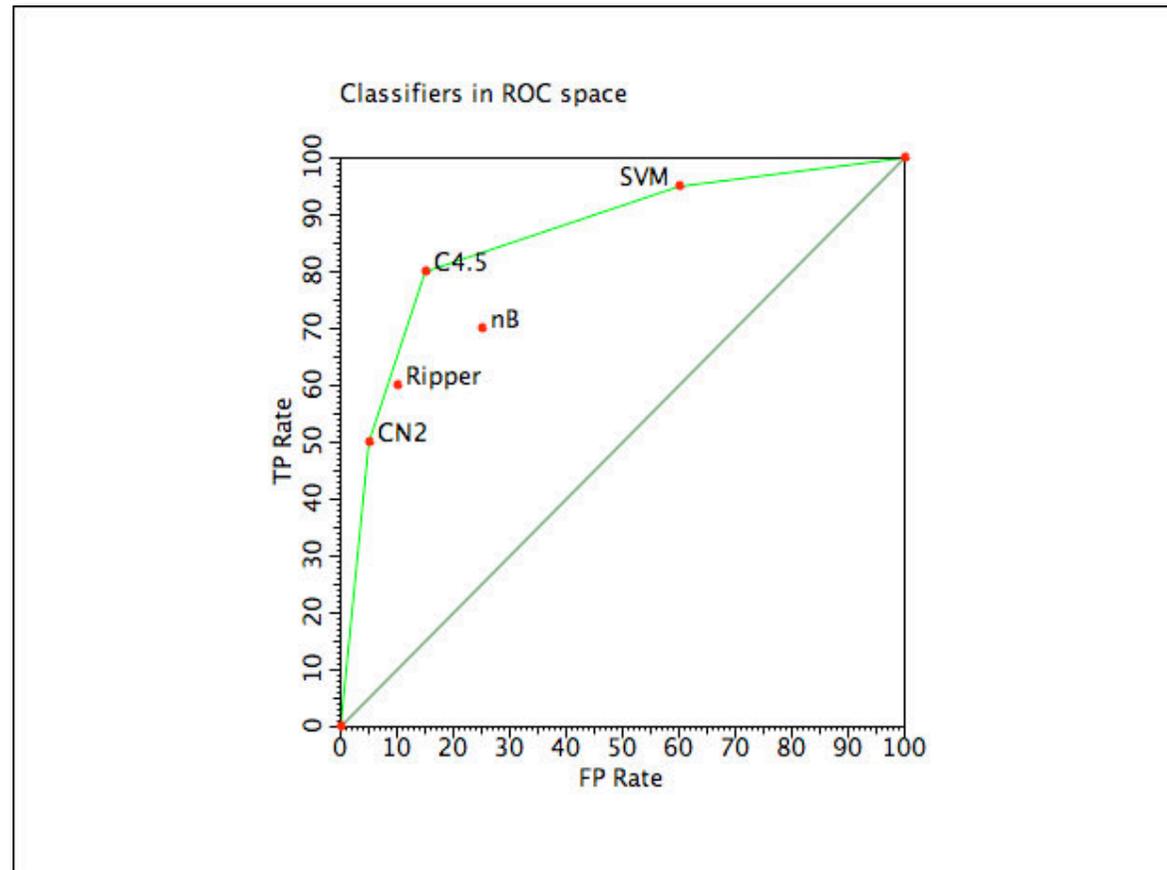


# Example ROC plot



ROC plot produced by ROCon (<http://www.cs.bris.ac.uk/Research/MachineLearning/rocon/>)

# The ROC convex hull



- Classifiers on the convex hull achieve the best accuracy for some class distributions
- Classifiers below the convex hull are always sub-optimal

# Iso-accuracy lines

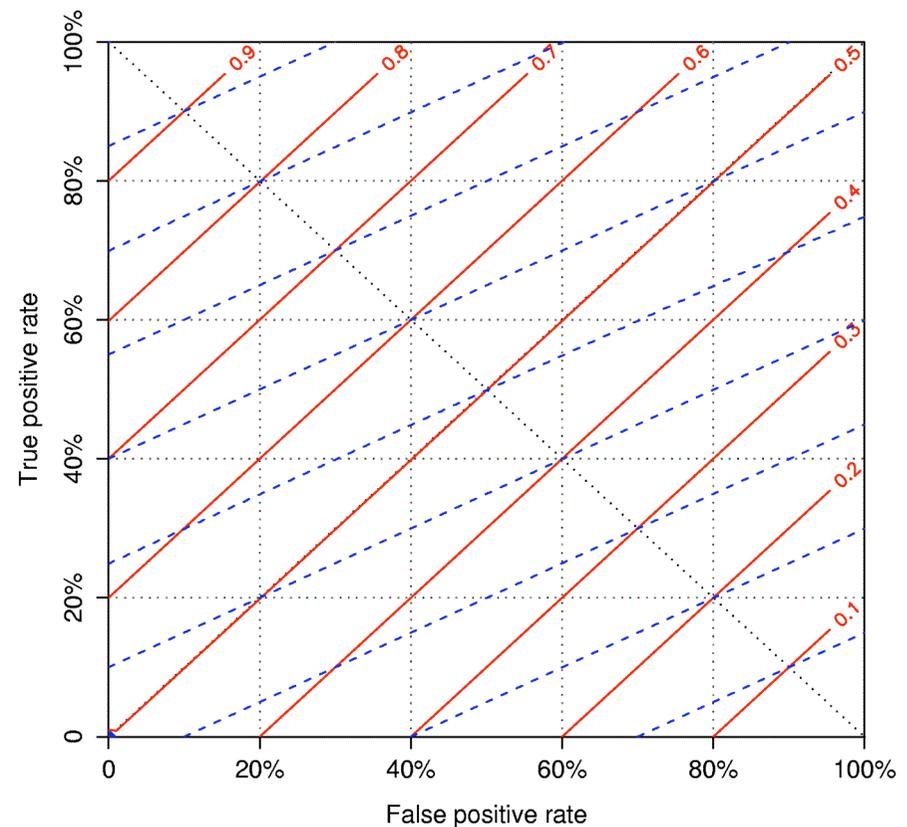
- Iso-accuracy line connects ROC points with the same accuracy

- $pos * tpr + neg * (1 - fpr) = a$

- $tpr = \frac{a - neg}{pos} + \frac{neg}{pos} fpr$

- Parallel ascending lines with slope  $neg/pos$

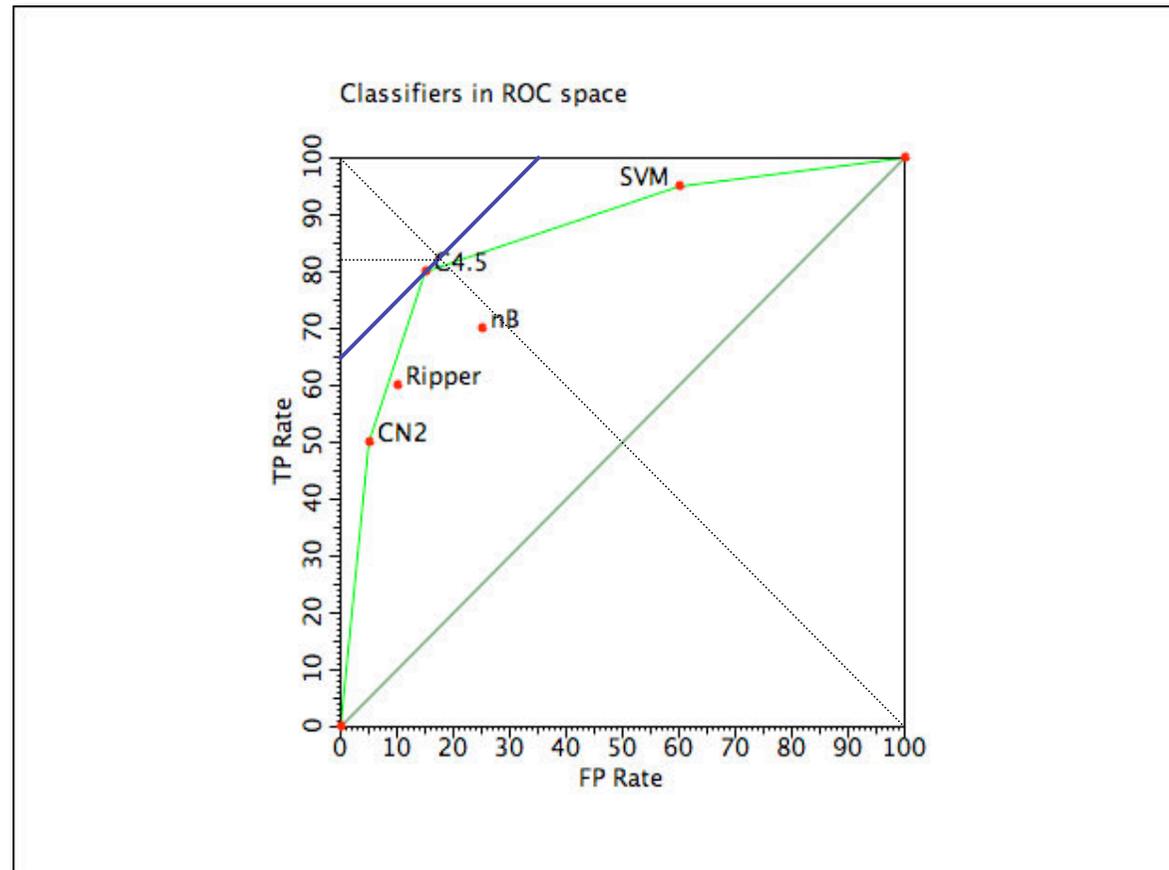
- higher lines are better
  - on descending diagonal,  $tpr = a$



# Iso-accuracy & convex hull

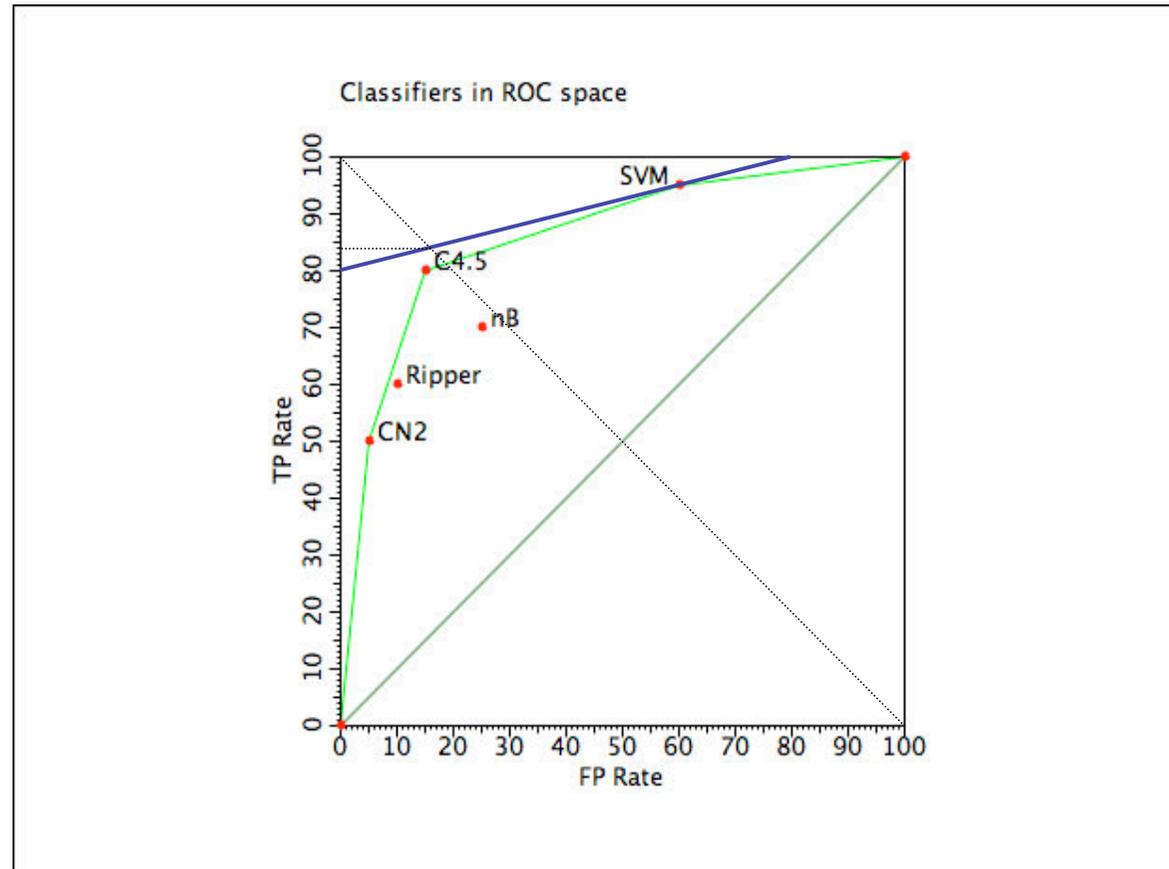
- Each line segment on the convex hull is an iso-accuracy line for a particular class distribution
  - under that distribution, the two classifiers on the end-points achieve the same accuracy
  - for distributions skewed towards negatives (steeper slope), the left one is better
  - for distributions skewed towards positives (flatter slope), the right one is better
- Each classifier on convex hull is optimal for a specific range of class distributions

# Selecting the optimal classifier



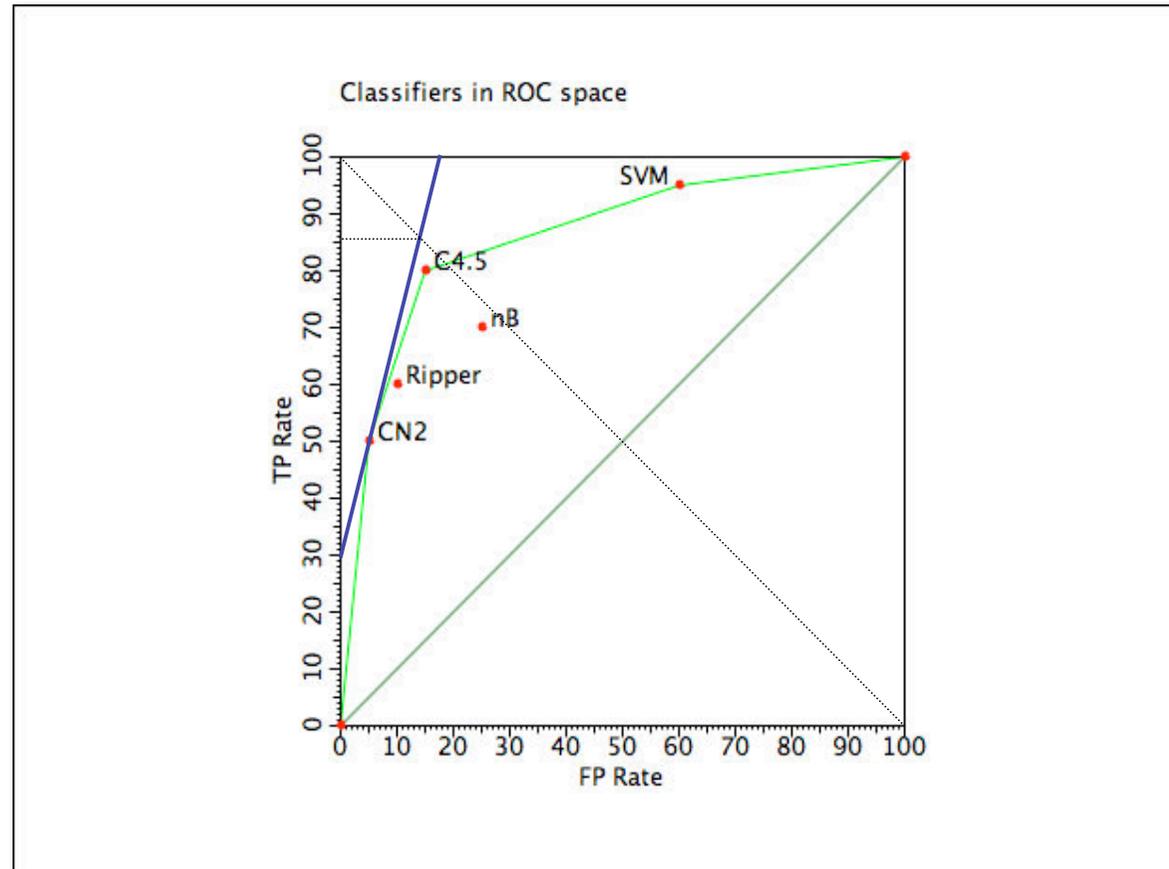
- For uniform class distribution, C4.5 is optimal
  - and achieves about 82% accuracy

# Selecting the optimal classifier



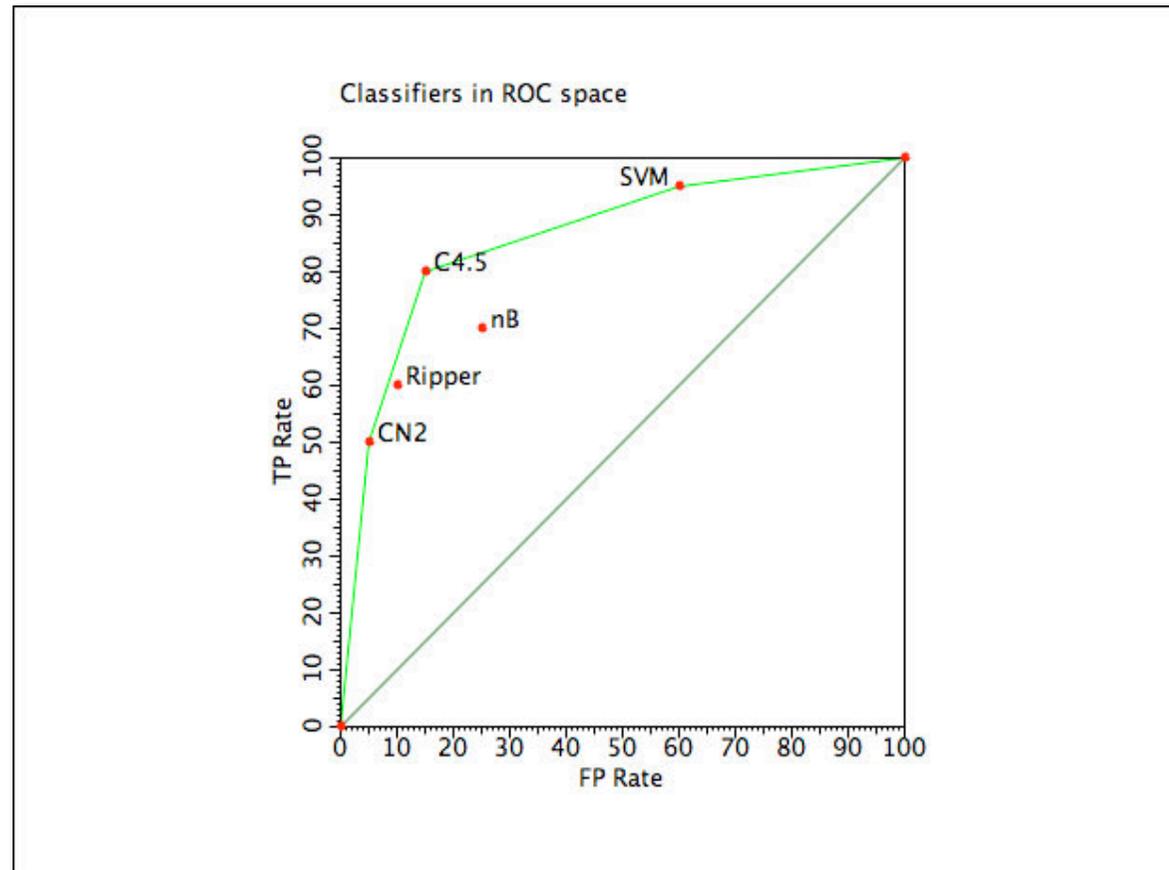
- With four times as many +ves as -ves, SVM is optimal
  - and achieves about 84% accuracy

# Selecting the optimal classifier



- With four times as many -ves as +ves, CN2 is optimal
  - and achieves about 86% accuracy

# Selecting the optimal classifier



- With less than 9% positives, AlwaysNeg is optimal
- With less than 11% negatives, AlwaysPos is optimal

# Incorporating costs and profits

- Iso-accuracy and iso-error lines are the same
  - $\text{err} = \text{pos}^*(1-\text{tpr}) + \text{neg}^*\text{fpr}$
  - slope of iso-error line is  $\text{neg}/\text{pos}$
- Incorporating misclassification costs:
  - $\text{cost} = \text{pos}^*(1-\text{tpr})^*C(-|+) + \text{neg}^*\text{fpr}^*C(+|-)$
  - slope of iso-cost line is  $\text{neg}^*C(+|-)/\text{pos}^*C(-|+)$
- Incorporating correct classification profits:
  - $\text{cost} = \text{pos}^*(1-\text{tpr})^*C(-|+) + \text{neg}^*\text{fpr}^*C(+|-) + \text{pos}^*\text{tpr}^*C(+|+) + \text{neg}^*(1-\text{fpr})^*C(-|-)$
  - slope of iso-yield line is  $\text{neg}^*[C(+|-)-C(-|-)]/\text{pos}^*[C(-|+)-C(+|+)]$

# Skew

- From a decision-making perspective, the cost matrix has one degree of freedom
  - need full cost matrix to determine absolute yield
- There is no reason to distinguish between cost skew and class skew
  - skew ratio expresses relative importance of negatives vs. positives
- ROC analysis deals with skew-sensitivity rather than cost-sensitivity

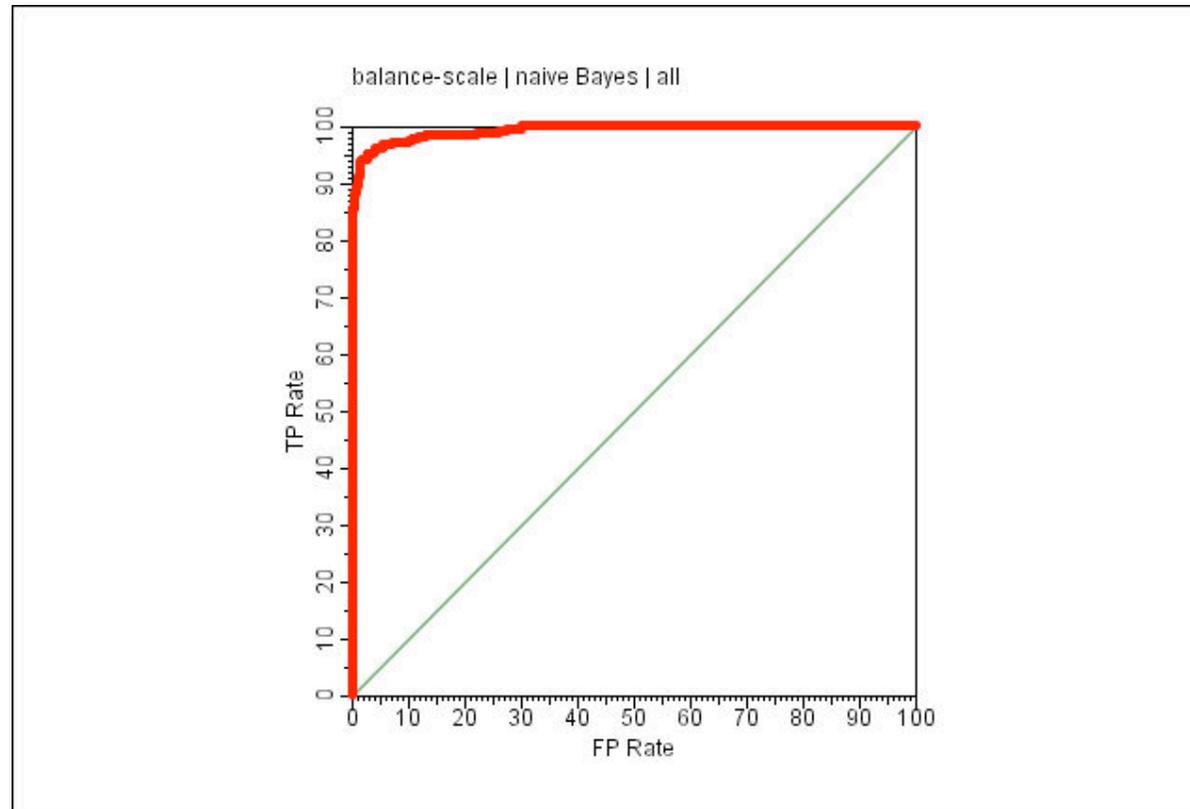
# Rankers and classifiers

- A scoring classifier outputs scores  $f(x,+)$  and  $f(x,-)$  for each class
  - e.g. posterior  $P(+|x)$  and  $P(-|x)$ , or likelihoods  $P(x|+)$  and  $P(x|-)$
  - scores don't need to be normalised
- $f(x) = f(x,+)/f(x,-)$  can be used to rank instances from most to least likely positive
  - e.g. posterior odds  $P(+|x)/P(-|x)$ , or likelihood ratio  $P(x|+)/P(x|-)$
- Rankers can be turned into classifiers by setting a threshold on  $f(x)$

# Drawing ROC curves for rankers

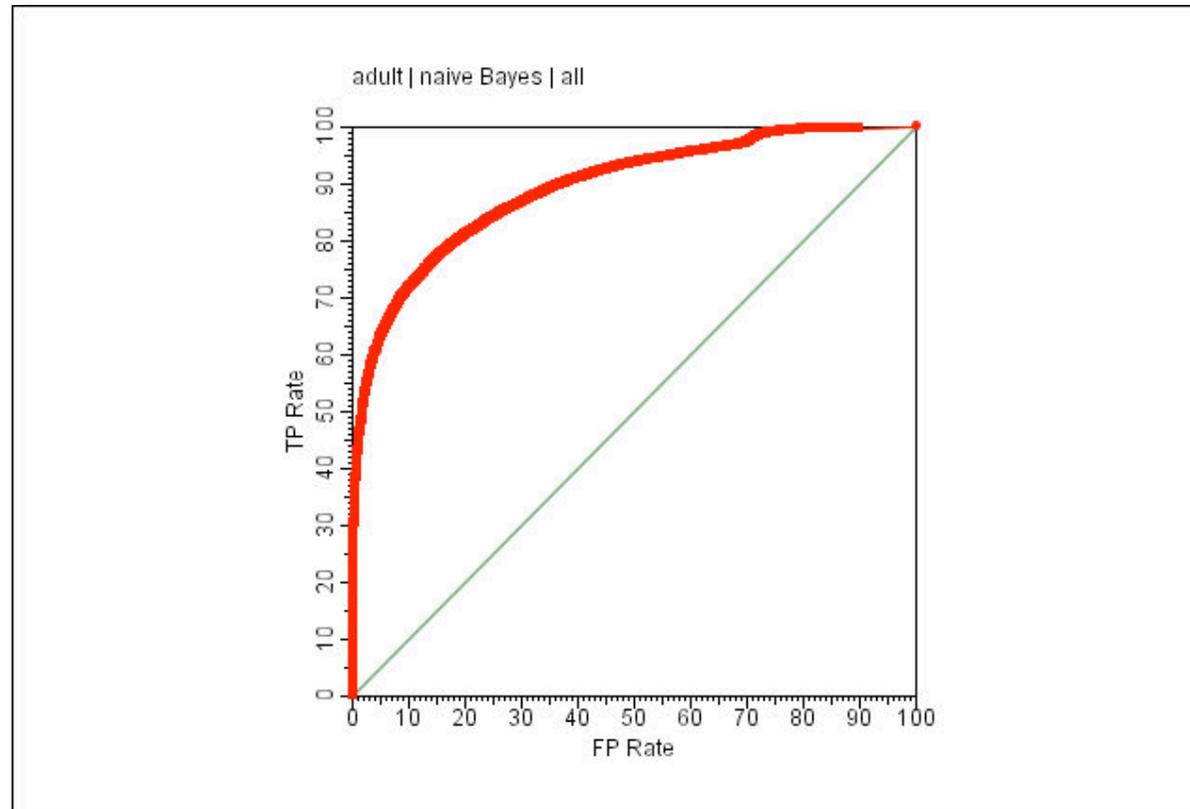
- Naïve method:
  - consider all possible thresholds
    - in fact, only  $k+1$  for  $k$  instances
  - construct contingency table for each threshold
  - plot in ROC space
- Practical method:
  - rank test instances on decreasing score  $f(x)$
  - starting in  $(0,0)$ , if the next instance in the ranking is +ve move  $1/Pos$  up, if it is -ve move  $1/Neg$  to the right
    - make diagonal move in case of ties

# Some example ROC curves



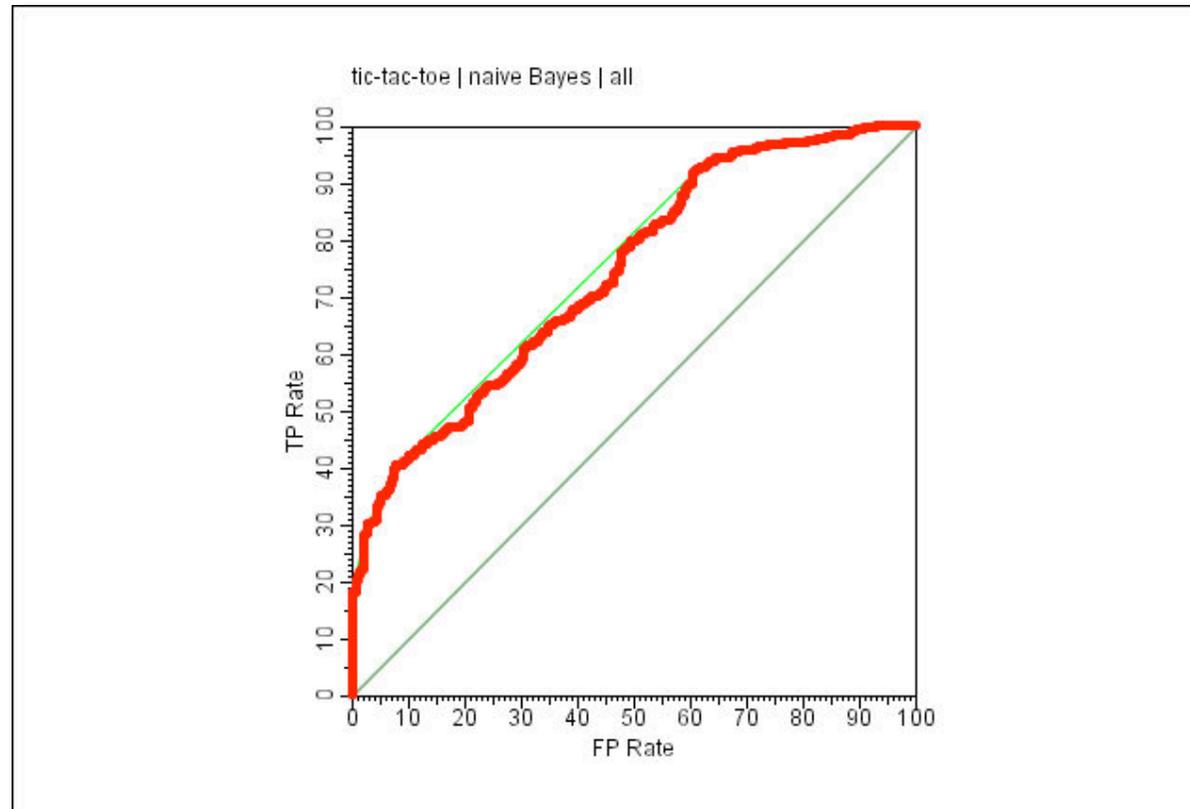
- Good separation between classes, convex curve

# Some example ROC curves



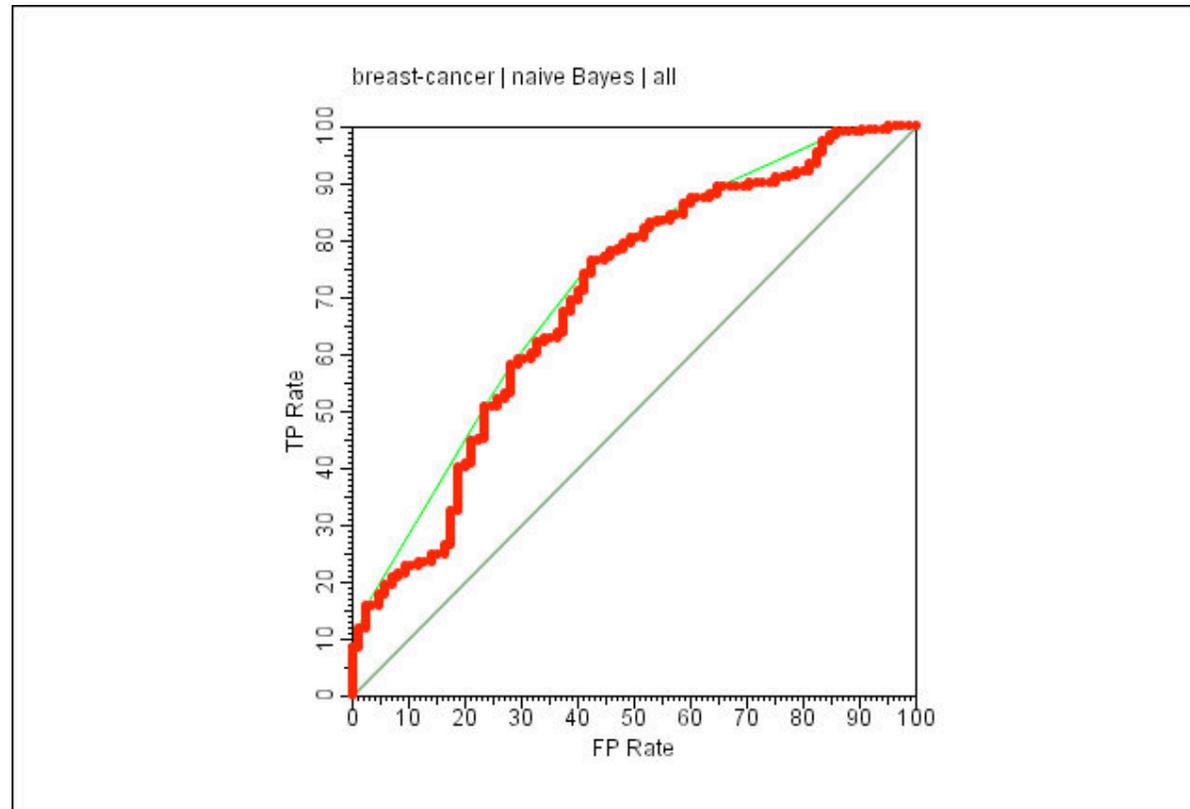
- Reasonable separation, mostly convex

# Some example ROC curves



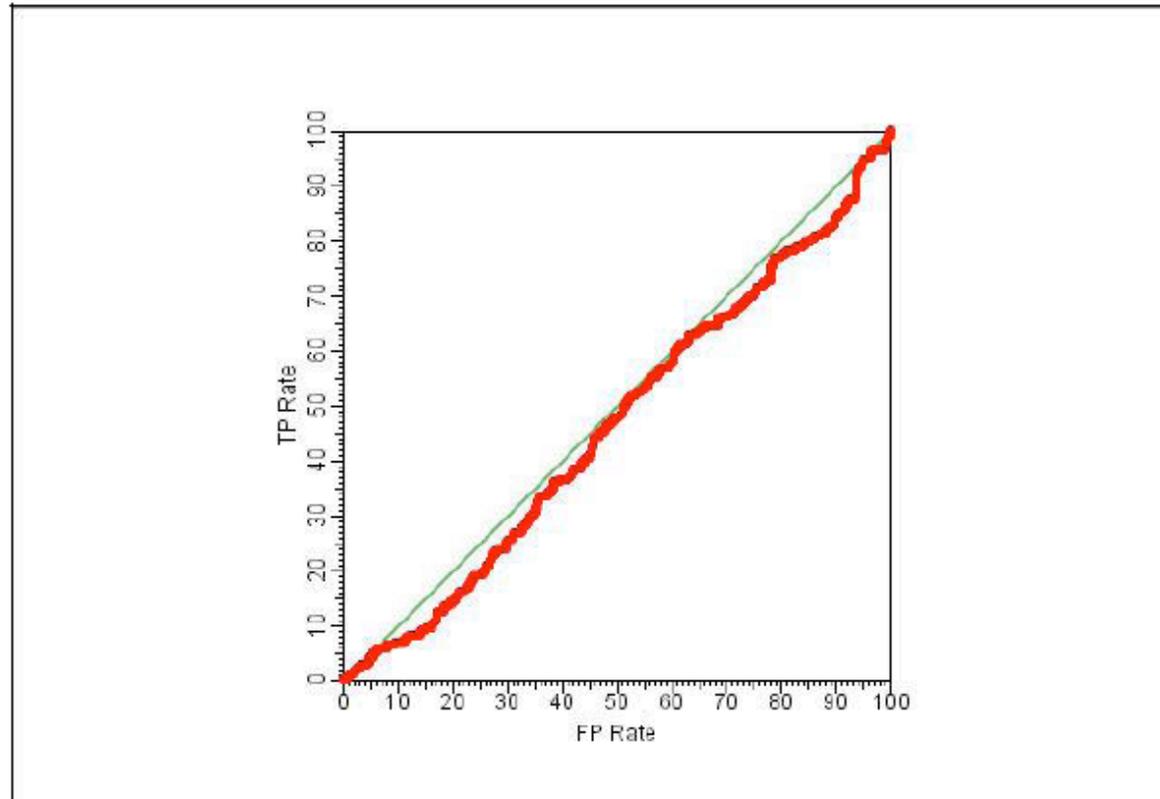
- Decent performance in first and last segments of ranking, more or less random performance in middle segment

# Some example ROC curves



- Poor separation, large and small concavities indicating locally worse-than-random behaviour

# Some example ROC curves



- Random performance

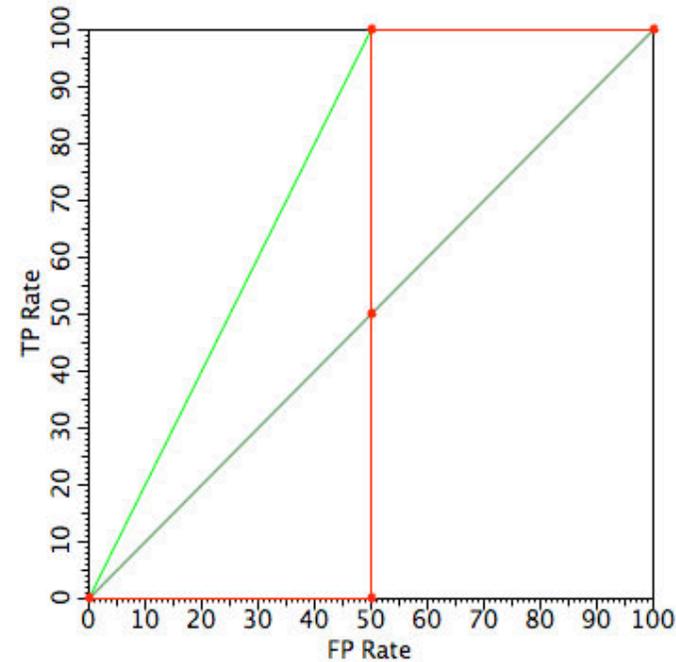
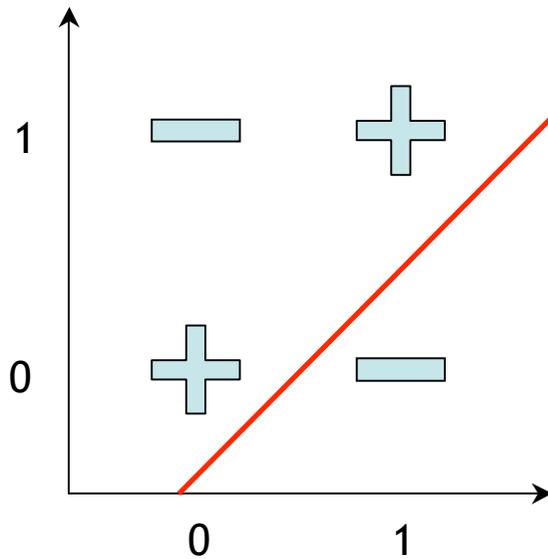
# ROC curves for rankers

- The curve visualises the quality of the ranker or probabilistic model on a test set, without committing to a classification threshold
- The slope of the curve indicates empirical (test set) class distribution in local segment
  - straight segment -> test set indicates no need to distinguish between those examples
  - slope can be used for calibration
- Concavities indicate locally worse than random behaviour
  - distinguishing between those examples is harmful
  - convex hull gets rid of concavities by binning scores

# The AUC metric

- The Area Under ROC Curve (AUC) assesses the ranking in terms of separation of the classes
  - all the +ves before the -ves: AUC=1
  - random ordering: AUC=0.5
  - all the -ves before the +ves: AUC=0
- Equivalent to the Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon sum of ranks statistic
  - estimates probability that randomly chosen +ve is ranked before randomly chosen -ve
  - $\frac{S_- - Pos(Pos + 1) / 2}{Pos \cdot Neg}$  where  $S_-$  is the sum of ranks of -ves
- Gini coefficient =  $2 \cdot \text{AUC} - 1$  (area above diag.)
  - NB. not the same as Gini index!

# AUC=0.5 not always random

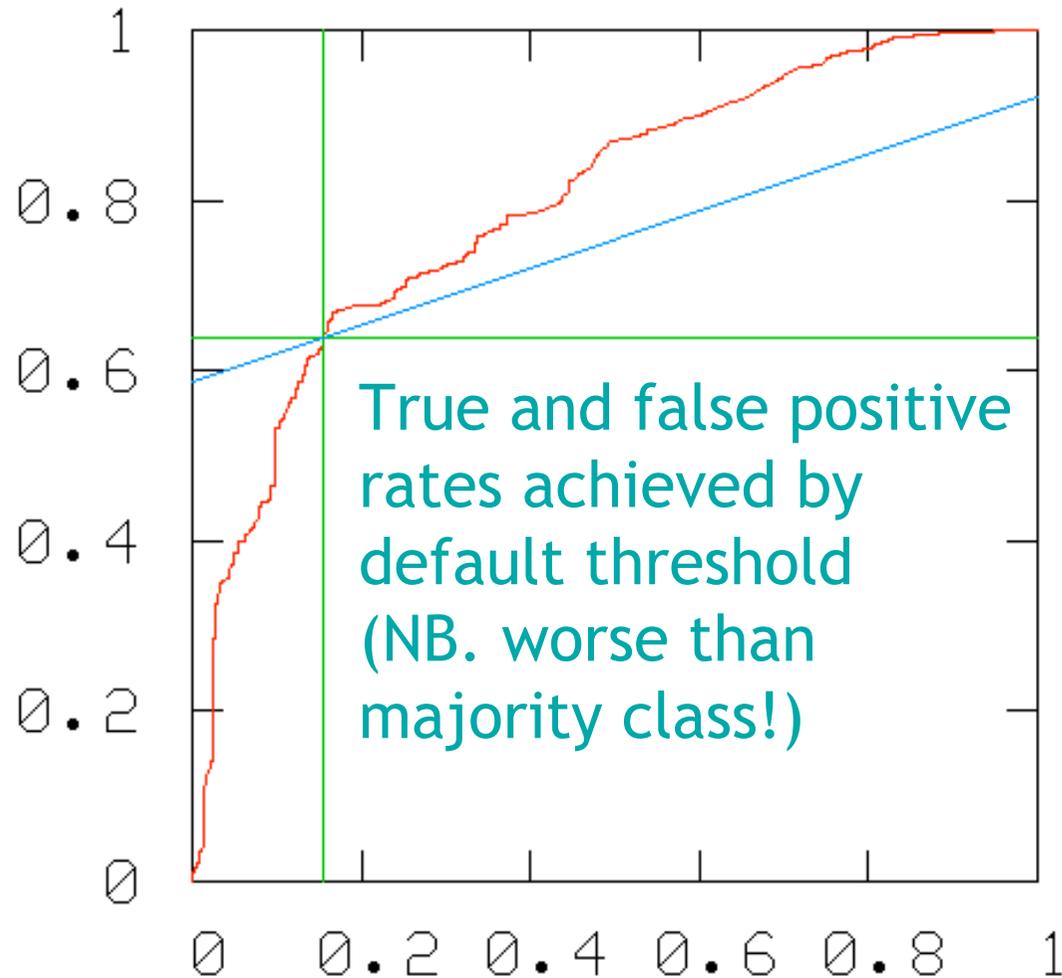


- Poor performance because data requires two classification boundaries

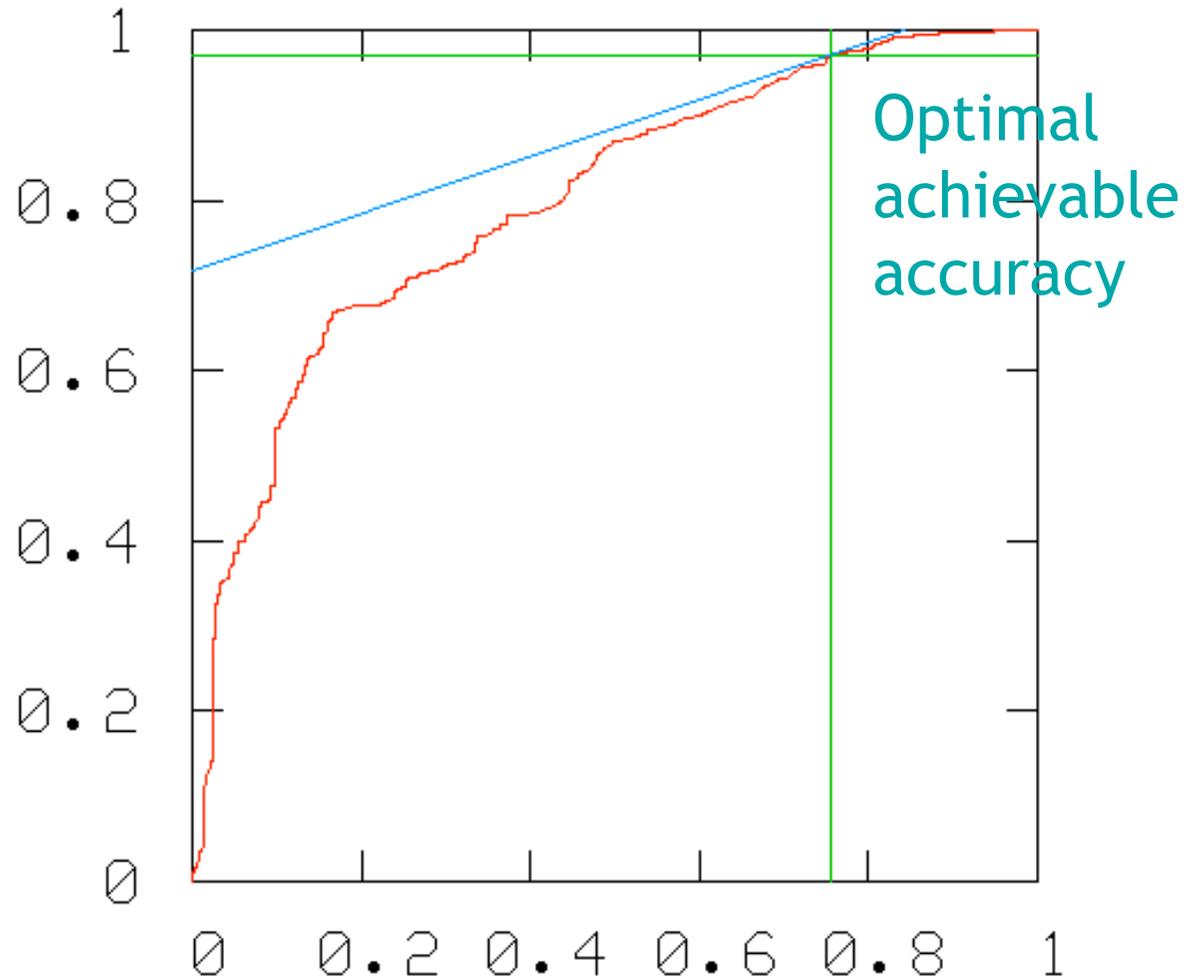
# Turning rankers into classifiers

- Requires decision rule, i.e. setting a threshold on the scores  $f(x)$ 
  - e.g. Bayesian: predict positive if  $\frac{P(x | +)}{P(x | -)} > \frac{Neg}{Pos}$
  - equivalently:  $\frac{P(+ | x)}{P(- | x)} = \frac{P(x | +) \cdot Pos}{P(x | -) \cdot Neg} > 1$
- If scores are calibrated we can use a default threshold of 1 on the posterior odds
  - with uncalibrated scores we need to learn the threshold from the data
  - NB. naïve Bayes is uncalibrated
    - i.e. don't use Pos/Neg as prior!

# Uncalibrated threshold



# Calibrated threshold



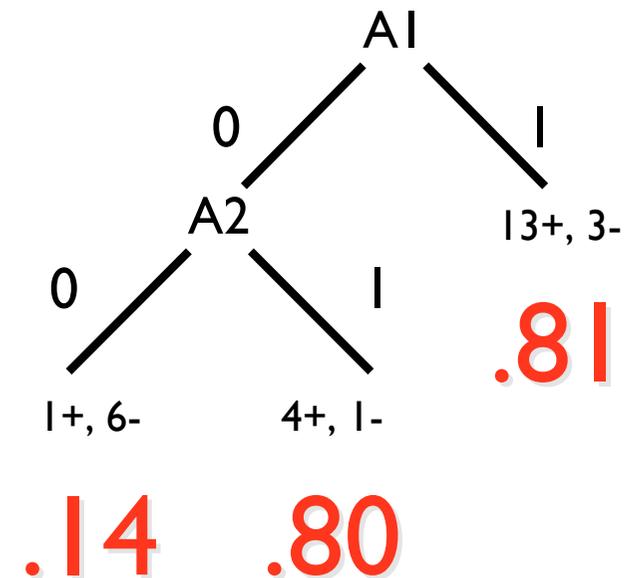
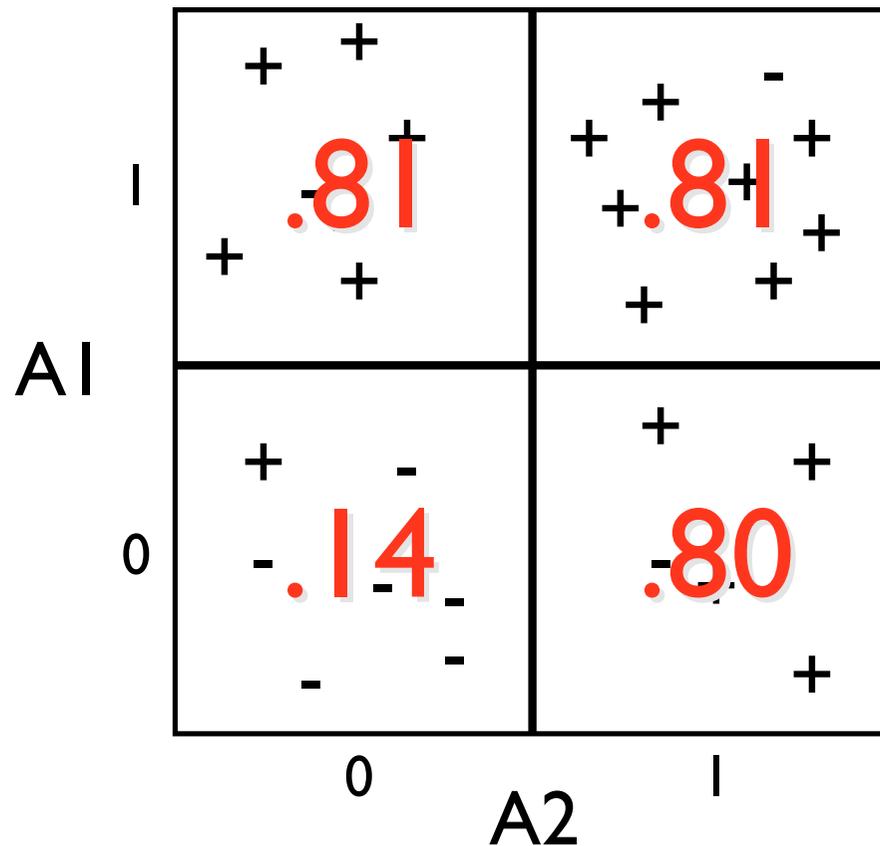
# Classification vs. ranking

- Classifiers and rankers optimise a different loss function
  - classifier minimises classification errors ( $O(n)$ )
  - ranker minimises ranking errors ( $O(n^2)$ )
    - number of misclassified (+ve,-ve) pairs
- The best achievable ROC point may not lie on the best achievable ROC curve
  - would probably learn a different weight vector for linear model

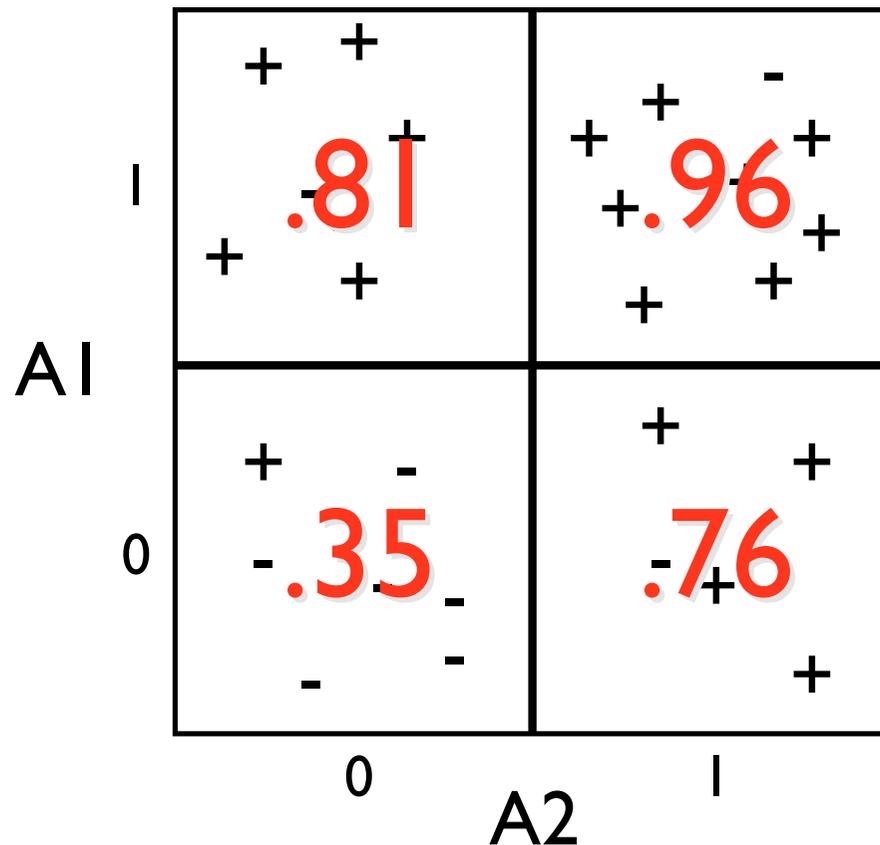
# Probability estimation

- A probability estimator assigns a probability to each point in instance space
  - more restrictive than scores, which can be shifted or scaled without affecting the ranking
- Scores are not necessarily good probability estimates, even when normalised
  - e.g., naive Bayes scores tend to be close to 0 or 1
- Turning a ranker into a probability estimator requires calibration

# Probabilities from trees



# Naive Bayes probabilities



- $LR_{A1}=13/3$ ,  $LR_{\neg A1}=5/7$ ,  
 $LR_{A2}=12/2$ ,  $LR_{\neg A2}=6/8$ ,
- $LR_1=156/6$ ,  $LR_2=60/14$ ,  
 $LR_3=78/24$ ,  $LR_4=30/56$

# Good probabilities $\neq$ good ranking

- $.8+ .7+ .6+ .4- .3- .2-$ 
  - AUC = 1
  - MSE (aka Brier score) = .097
  
- $1+ .9+ .51- .49+ .1- 0-$ 
  - AUC =  $8/9$  (worse)
  - MSE = .090 (better)

# Calibration

- Well-calibrated probabilities have the following property:
  - in a sample with predicted probability  $p$ , the expected proportion of positives is close to  $p$
- This means that the predicted likelihood ratio approximates the slope of the ROC curve
  - perfect calibration implies convex ROC curve
- This suggests a simple calibration procedure:
  - discretise scores using convex hull and derive probability in each bin from ROC slope
    - = isotonic regression (Zadrozny & Elkan, 2001; Fawcett & Niculescu-Mizil, 2007; Flach & Matsubara, 2007)

# Decomposing the Brier score

**Theorem 1** *Given an ROC curve produced by a ranker on a test set, let  $n_i^+$  and  $n_i^-$  be the number of positives and negatives in the  $i$ -th segment of the ROC curve,  $n_i = n_i^+ + n_i^-$ ,  $p_i = \frac{n_i^+}{n_i}$ , and  $\hat{p}_i$  be the predicted probability in that segment. The Brier score is equal to*

$$BS = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_i n_i (\hat{p}_i - p_i)^2 + \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_i n_i p_i (1 - p_i)$$



**calibration loss:**

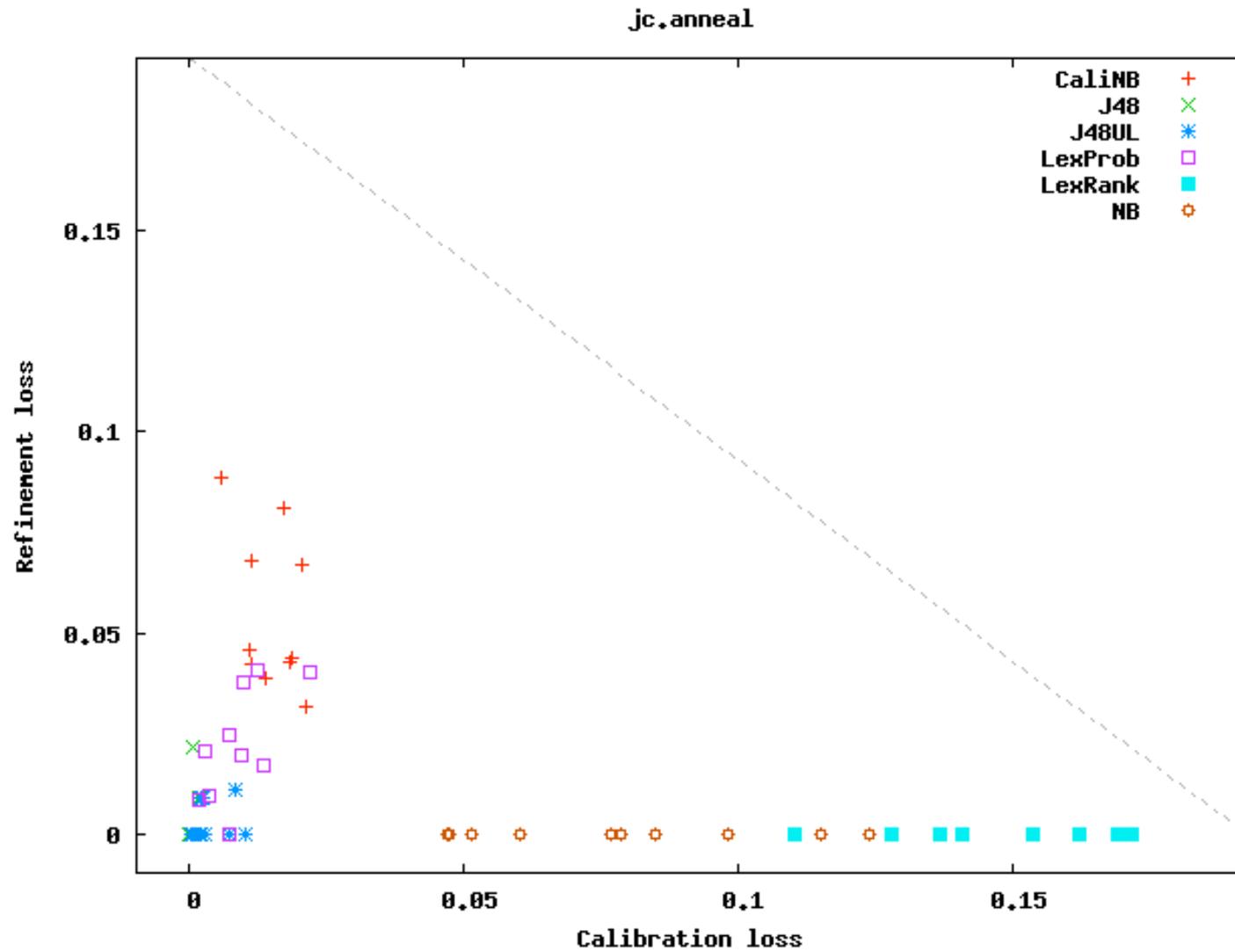
mean squared deviation  
from empirical probabilities  
derived from slope of  
ROC segments



**refinement loss:**

defined purely in terms  
of empirical probabilities

# Calibration and refinement





# From ranks to probabilities

- One way to obtain a well-calibrated probability estimator:
  - train a ranker from labelled training data
  - draw ROC curve on test set
  - obtain a calibration map from convex hull
- NB. This is exactly what decision trees do, taking into account that:
  - test set could be training set (risk of overfitting)
  - decision tree training set ROC curves are provably convex, so no need for convex hull

# ROC-based model manipulation

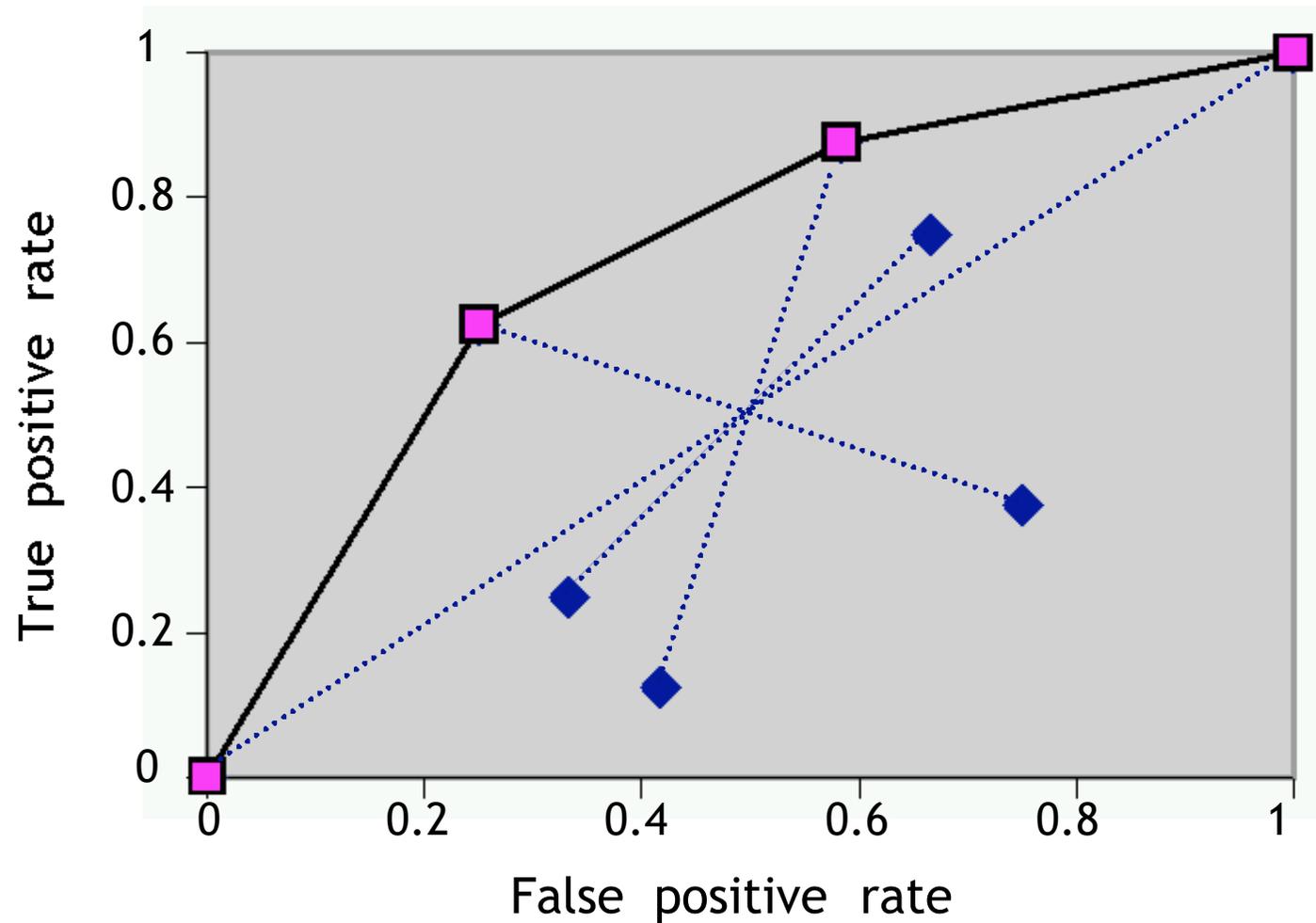
- ROC analysis allows creation of model variants without re-training
  - e.g., manipulating ranker thresholds or scores
- Example: re-labelling decision trees
  - (Ferri et al., 2002)
- Example: locally adjusting rankings
  - (Flach & Wu, 2003)

# Re-labelling decision trees

- A decision tree can be seen as an unlabelled tree (a clustering tree):
  - Given  $n$  leaves and 2 classes, there are  $2^n$  possible labellings, each representing a classifier
- Use ROC analysis to select the best labellings

	Training Distribution		Labellings							
	+	-								
Leaf 1	40	20	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Leaf 2	50	10	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+
Leaf 3	30	50	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+

# DT labellings in ROC space

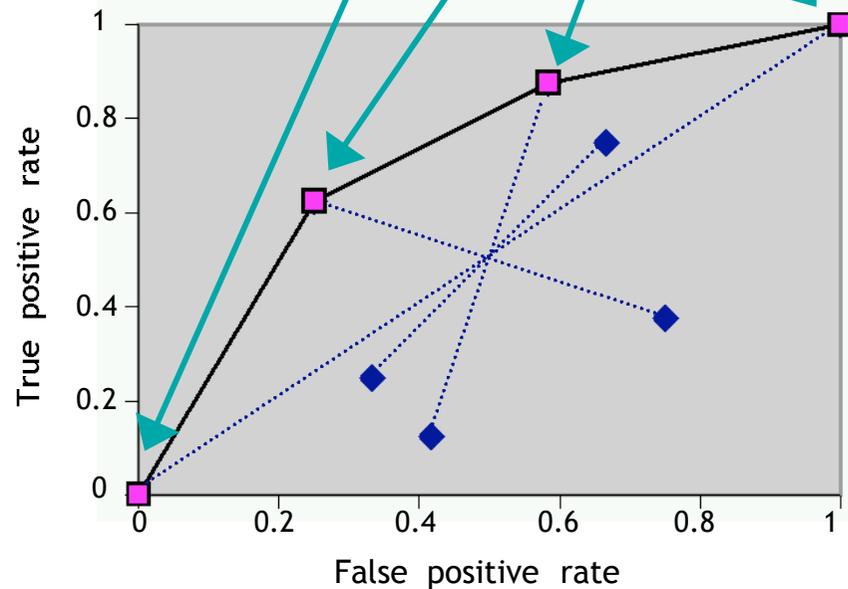


# Selecting optimal labellings

1. Rank leaves by likelihood ratio  $P(l|+)/P(l|-)$

2. For each possible split point, label leaves before split + and after split -

	+	-				
Leaf 2	50	10	-	+	+	+
Leaf 1	40	20	-	-	+	+
Leaf 3	30	50	-	-	-	+



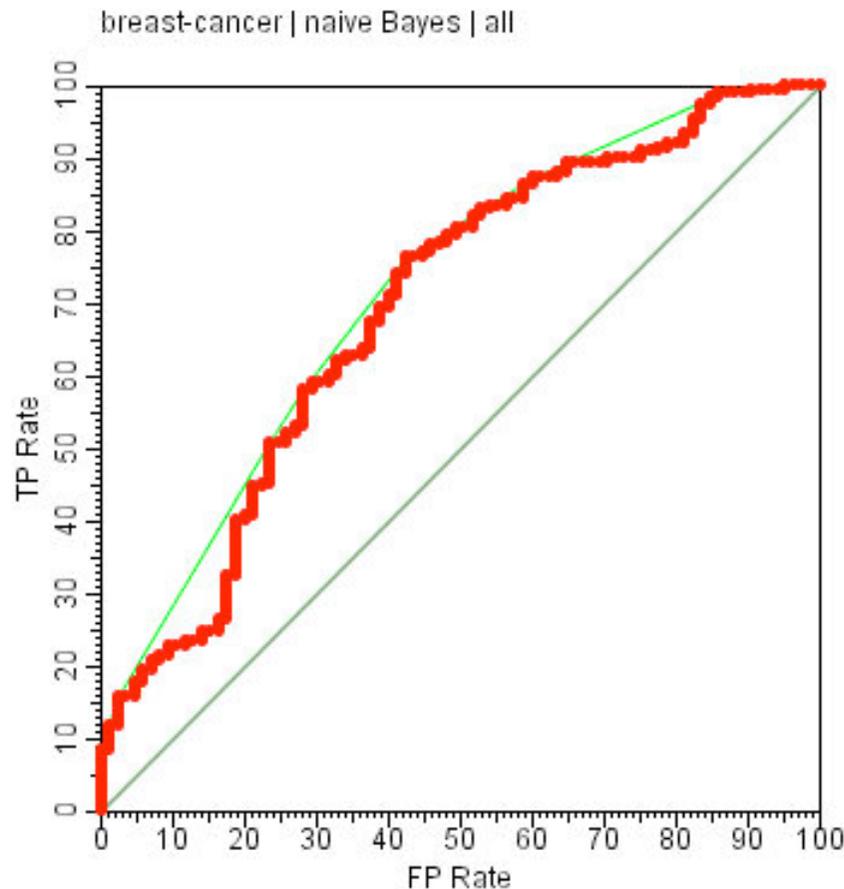
# Why does it work?

- Decision trees are rankers if we use class distributions in the leaves
  - Probability Estimation Trees (Provost & Domingos, 2003)
- ROC curve can be constructed by sliding threshold
  - just as with naïve Bayes
- Equivalently, we can order instances, which boils down to ordering leaves
  - because all instances in a leaf are ranked together
- NB. Curve may not be convex on test set

# Repairing concavities

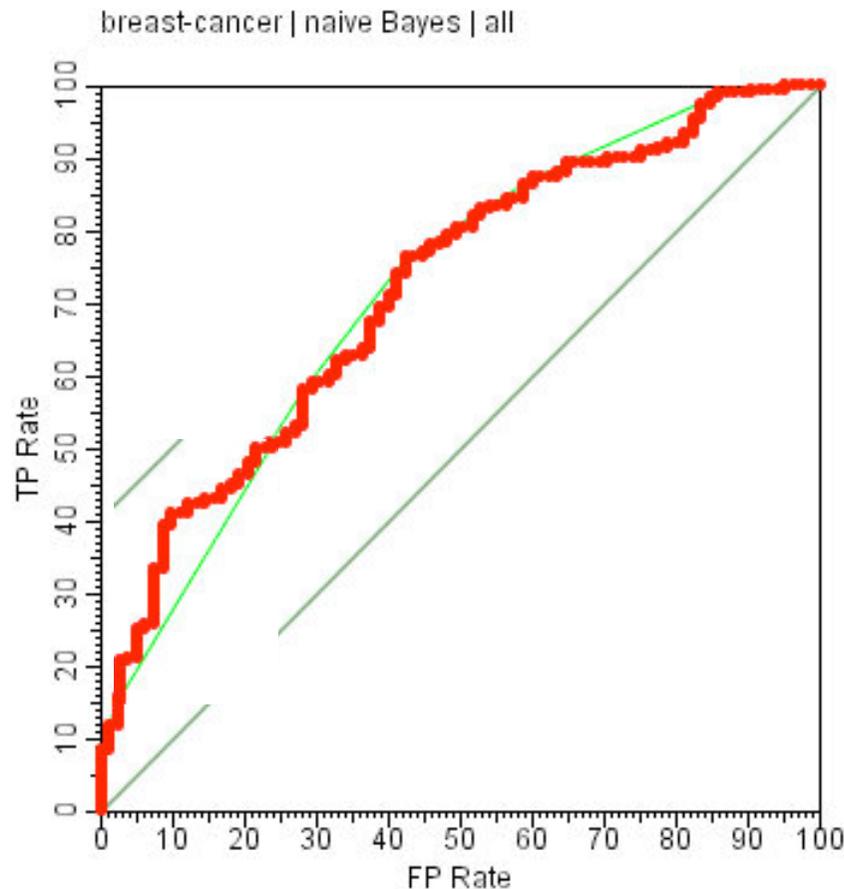
- Concavities in ROC curves from rankers indicate worse-than-random segments in the ranking
- Idea 1: use binned ranking (aka discretised scores) → convex hull
- Idea 2: invert ranking in segment
- Need to avoid overfitting

# Repairing concavities



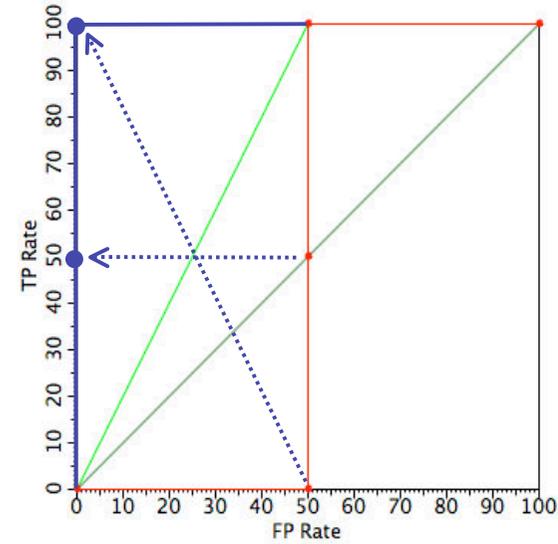
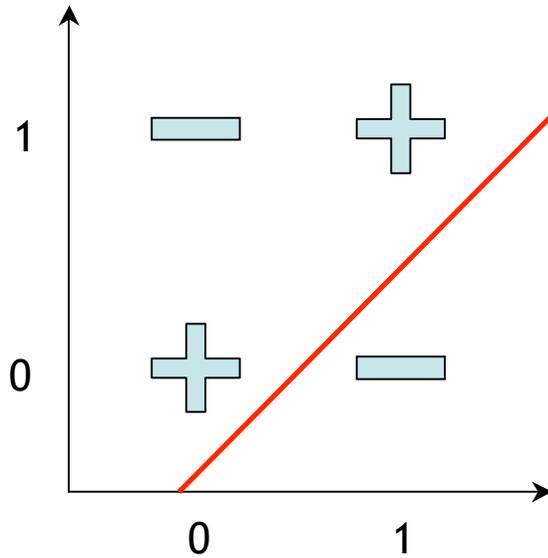
- Convex hull corresponds to binning the scores into variable-sized bins in order to eliminate locally worse-than-random ranking (concavity)

# Repairing concavities



- Convex hull corresponds to binning the scores into variable-sized bins in order to eliminate locally worse-than-random ranking (concavity)
- Can do better than this: invert ranking in each concavity

# Example: XOR



above line?

yes

no

invert ~~xxx~~ ~~xxx~~ use ranking  
in 1st segment

use ranking  
in 2nd segment

# More than two classes

- Two-class ROC analysis is a special case of multi-objective optimisation
  - don't commit to trade-off between objectives
- Pareto front is the set of points for which no other point improves all objectives
  - points not on the Pareto front are dominated
  - assumes monotonic trade-off between objectives
- Convex hull is subset of Pareto front
  - assumes linear trade-off between objectives
    - e.g. accuracy, but not precision

# How many dimensions?

- Depends on the cost model
  - 1-vs-rest: fixed misclassification cost  $C(-c|c)$  for each class  $c \in C \rightarrow |C|$  dimensions
    - ROC space spanned by either tpr for each class or fpr for each class
  - 1-vs-1: different misclassification costs  $C(c_i|c_j)$  for each pair of classes  $c_i \neq c_j \rightarrow |C|(|C|-1)$  dimensions
    - ROC space spanned by fpr for each (ordered) pair of classes
- Results about convex hull, optimal point given linear cost function etc. generalise
  - (Srinivasan, 1999)

# Multi-class AUC

- In the most general case, we want to calculate Volume Under ROC Surface (VUS)
  - See (Mossman, 1999) for VUS in the 1-vs-rest three-class case
- Can be approximated by projecting down to set of two-dimensional curves and averaging
  - MAUC (Hand & Till, 2001): 1-vs-1, unweighted average
  - (Provost & Domingos, 2001): 1-vs-rest, AUC for class  $c$  weighted by  $P(c)$

# Multi-class calibration

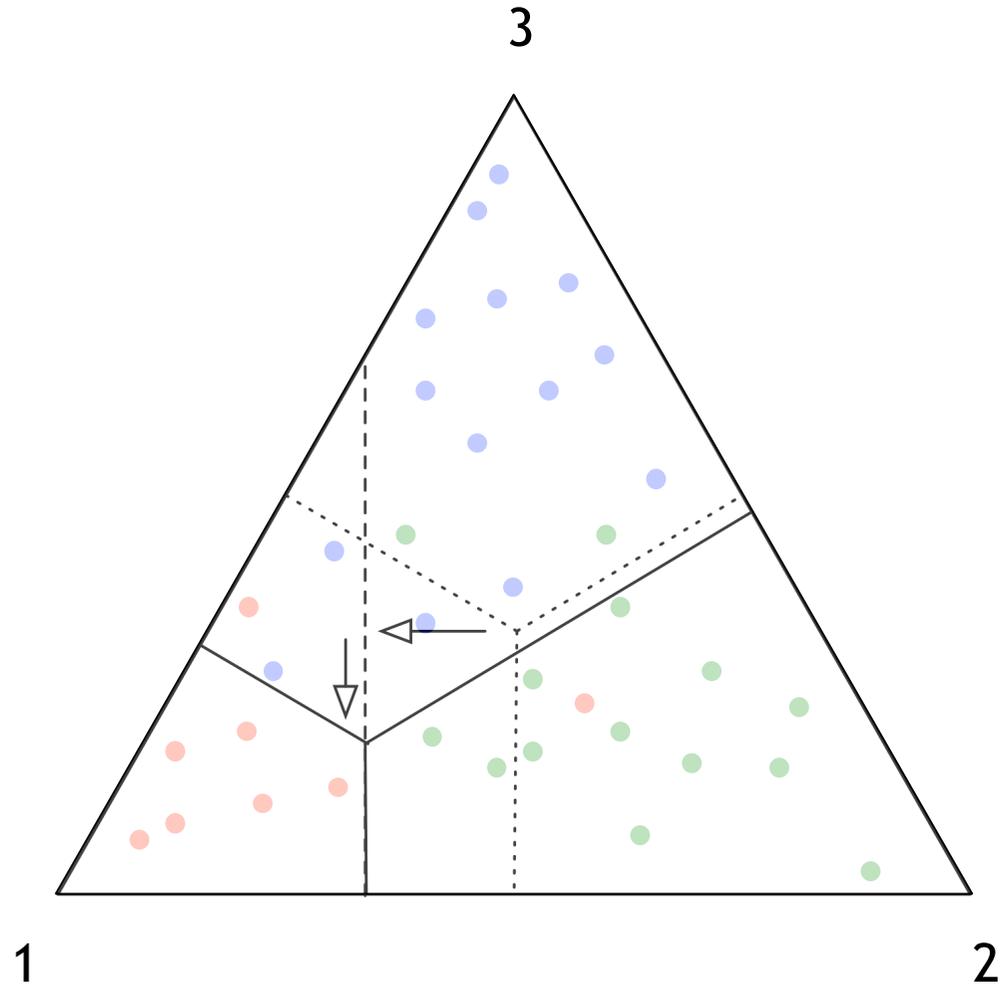
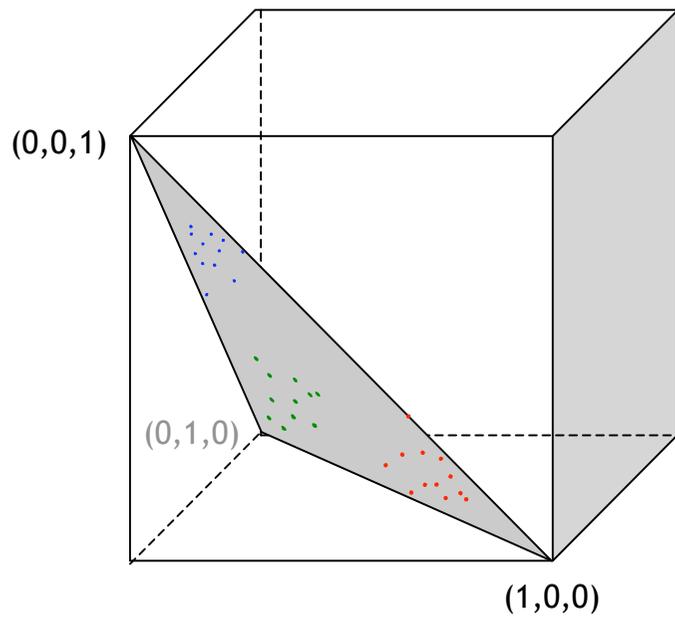
## 1. From thresholds to weights:

- predict  $\operatorname{argmax}_c w_c f(x,c)$
- NB. two-class thresholds are a special case:
  - $w_+ f(x,+) > w_- f(x,-) \Leftrightarrow f(x,+)/f(x,-) > w_-/w_+$

## 2. Setting the weights (Lachiche & Flach, 2003)

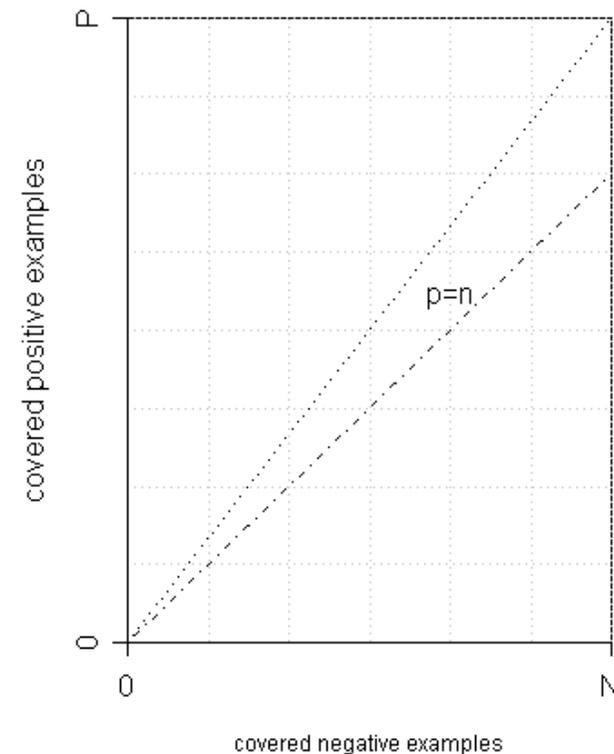
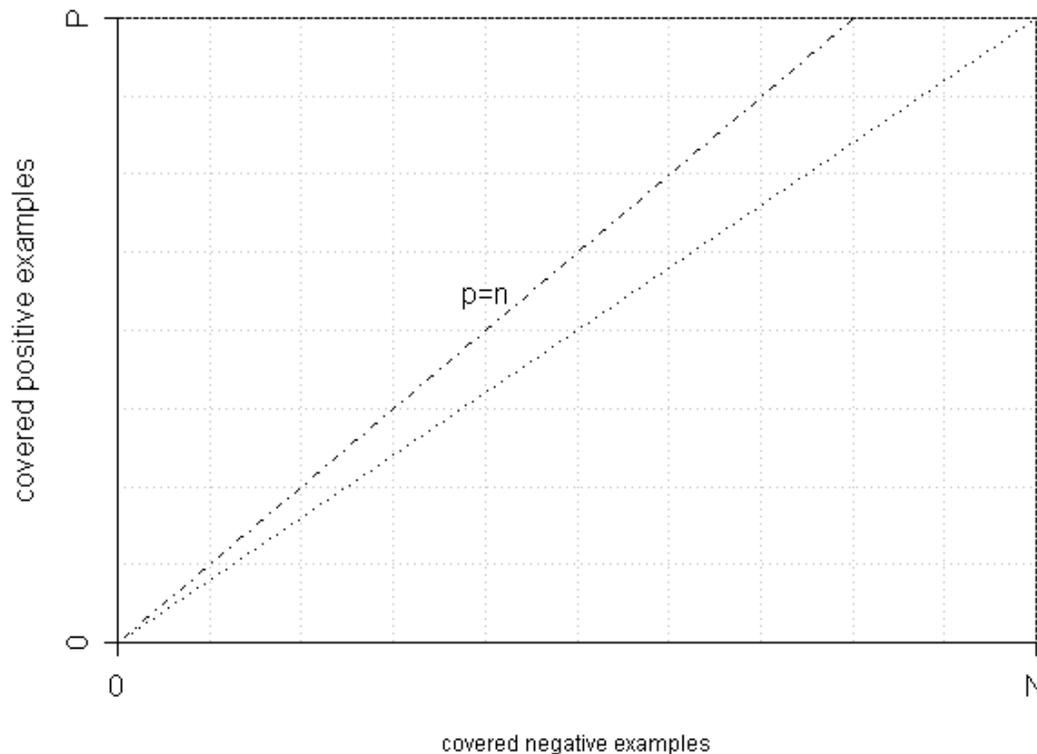
- Assume an ordering on classes and set the weights in a greedy fashion
  - Set  $w_1 = 1$
  - For classes  $c=2$  to  $n$ 
    - look for the best weight  $w_c$  according to the weights fixed so far for classes  $c'<c$ , using the two-class algorithm

# Example: 3 classes



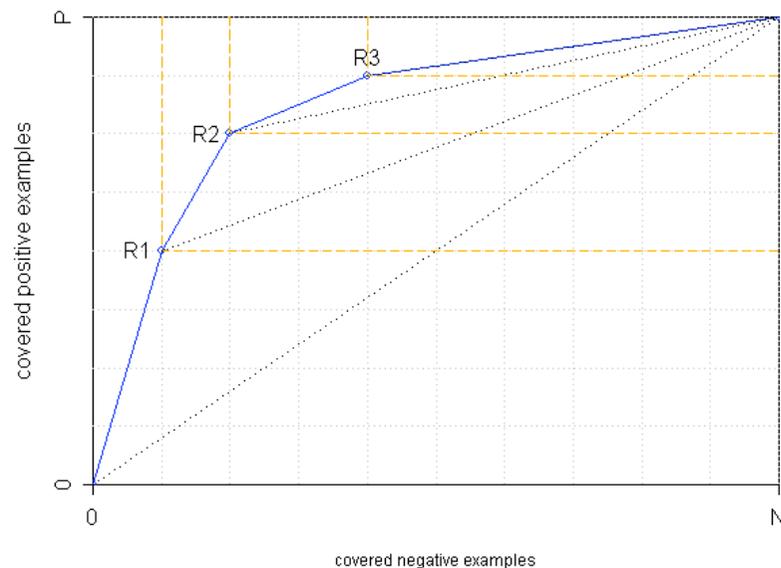
# Coverage space (Fürnkranz & Flach, 2005)

- Coverage space is ROC space with absolute rather than relative frequencies
  - x-axis: covered -ves  $n$  (instead of  $fpr = n/Neg$ )
  - y-axis: covered +ves  $p$  (instead of  $tpr = p/Pos$ )



# Coverage space vs. ROC space

- Coverage space can be used if class distribution (reflected by shape) is fixed
  - slope now corresponds to posterior odds rather than likelihood ratio
  - iso-accuracy lines always have slope 1
  - very useful to analyse behaviour of particular learning algorithm



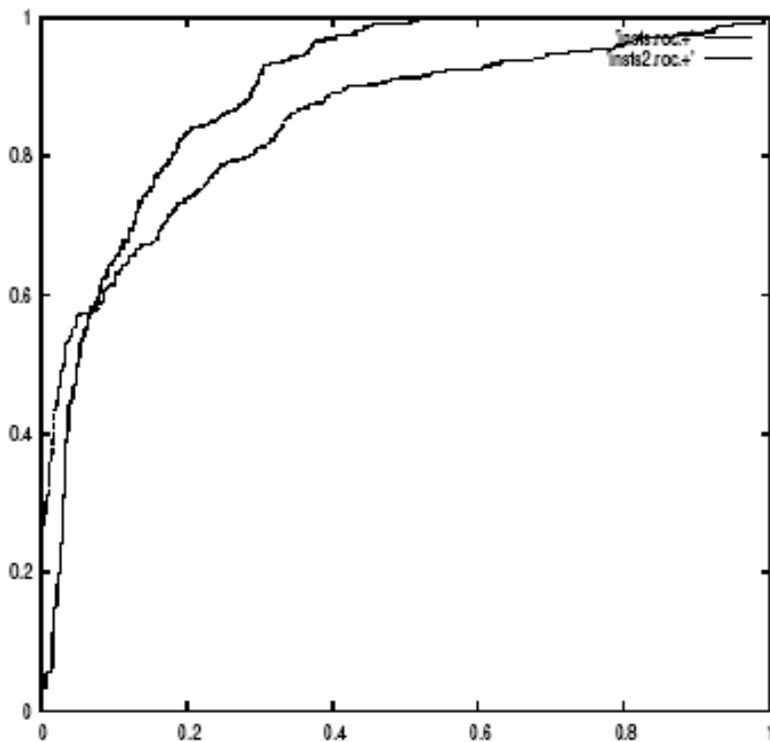
# Precision-recall curves

	Predicted positive	Predicted negative	
Positive examples	TP	FN	Pos
Negative examples	FP	TN	Neg
	PPos	PNeg	N

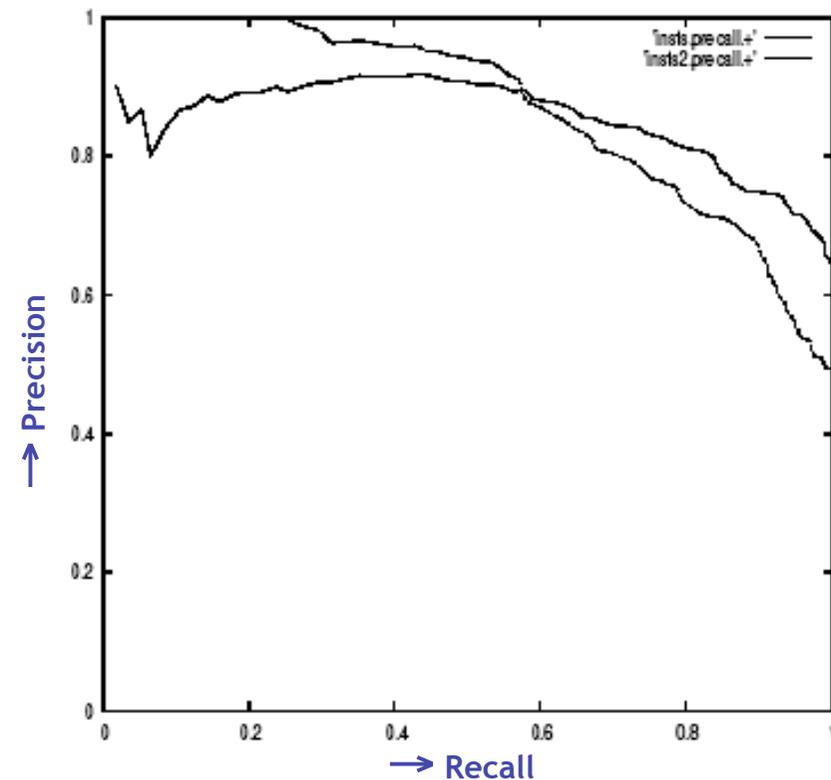
- Precision  $\text{prec} = \text{TP} / \text{PPos} = \text{TP} / (\text{TP} + \text{FP})$ 
  - fraction of positive predictions correct
- Recall  $\text{rec} = \text{tpr} = \text{TP} / \text{Pos} = \text{TP} / (\text{TP} + \text{FN})$ 
  - fraction of positives correctly predicted
- Note: neither depends on true negatives
  - makes sense in information retrieval, where true negatives tend to dominate → low fpr easy

# PR curves vs. ROC curves

- Two ROC curves

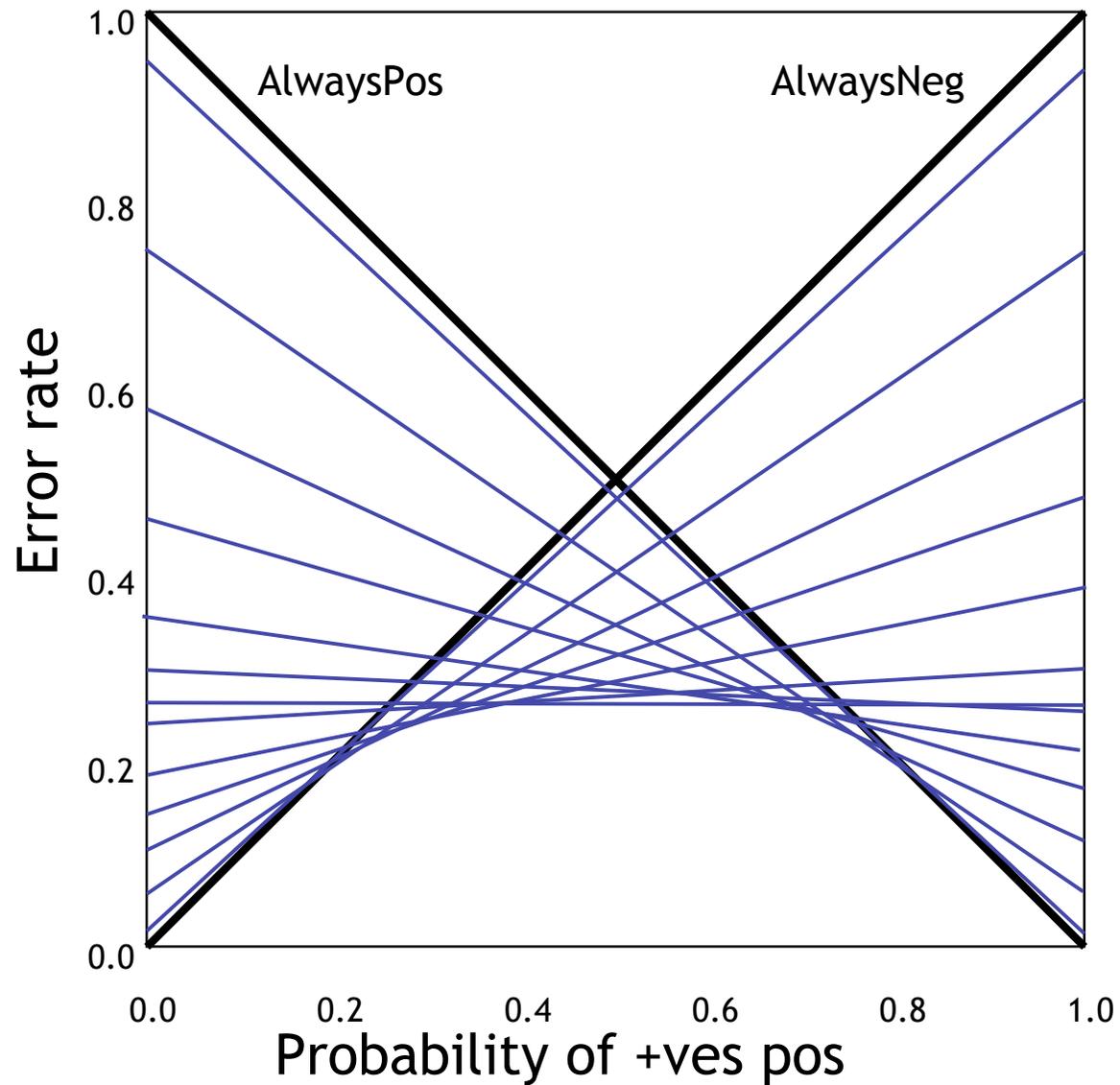


- Corresponding PR curves



From (Fawcett, 2004)

# Cost curves (Drummond & Holte, 2006)



# Taking costs into account

- Error rate is  $err = (1-tpr) \cdot pos + fpr \cdot (1-pos)$

- Define probability cost function as

$$pcf = \frac{pos \cdot C(- | +)}{pos \cdot C(- | +) + neg \cdot C(+ | -)}$$

- Normalised expected cost is

$$nec = (1-tpr) \cdot pcf + fpr \cdot (1-pcf)$$

# Concluding remarks

- ROC analysis for model evaluation and selection
  - key idea: separate performance on classes
  - think rankers, not classifiers!
  - information in ROC curves not easily captured by statistics
- ROC analysis for use within ML algorithms
  - one classifier can be many classifiers!
  - separate skew-insensitive parts of learning...
    - probabilistic model, unlabelled tree
  - ...from skew-sensitive parts
    - selecting thresholds or class weights, labelling and pruning

# Outlook

- Several issues not covered in this tutorial
  - optimising AUC rather than accuracy when training
    - e.g. RankBoost optimises AUC (Cortes & Mohri, 2003)
- Many open problems remain
  - ROC analysis in rule learning
    - overlapping rules
  - relation between training skew and testing skew
  - multi-class ROC analysis

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