Information Retrieval WS 2015 / 2016

Lecture 12, Tuesday January 26th, 2016 (Hypothesis Testing, Statistical Significance)

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Overview of this lecture

Organizational

- Your experiences with ES11
 Perceptrons
- The official evaluation of this course
- Contents
 - Perceptron refinements
 recap + two new ones
 - Hypothesis testing
 motivation + terminology
 - Randomization test
 - Z-Test and T-Test

example + program

example + math behind

 Exercise Sheet 13: improve basic Perceptron algorithm + check whether the improvement is statistically significant

Experiences with ES11 1/2

- Summary / excerpts
 - Nice + interesting exercise again
 - The proof was easy / nice / doable / ok
 - Numpy still annoying, but getting used to it
 - Problems with operations **between** numpy and scipy

- Lack of time due to other courses and deadlines
- Linear algebra rulez ... YES !

Experiences with ES11 2/2

Results

Precision is comparable to that of Naïve Bayes
 Comedy vs. Thriller: Perceptron 87% NB 85%
 R vs. Non-R: Perceptron 70% NB 74%

- The training is much slower than for Naïve Bayes
 It can be made much faster using "batching" ... see slide 10
- The top words are more meaningful than with Naïve Bayes
 Comedy vs. Thriller: comedy, thriller, noir, suspense, ...
 R vs. Non-R: pg, spielberg, sex, slasher, neo, ...

Official course evaluation 1/2

Instructions

- You should have received an email from EvaSys Admin on Monday, January 25 with a link to an evaluation form
- We are **very** interested in your feedback
- Please take your time for this
- Please be honest and concrete
- The free text comments are most interesting for us

Please complete by Tuesday, February 9

The evaluation is centralized, and will be closed after that date, and there is nothing we can do about that Official course evaluation 2/2

- Why you should invest the time
 - If you have done the exercise sheets:

Compared to the effort for the sheets, the evaluation is a piece of cake ... take it

– If you have not done the exercise sheets:

If we receive much less feedback than in the last years, exercise sheets will be mandatory again next year

 If you have neither did the exercise sheets nor attended the lectures nor listened to the recordings:

Well ... good luck with the exam

Perceptron Refinements 1/4

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- Refinements we already discussed
 - Change the (pre-determined) number of iterations
 - Terminate when change in precision (on training set) drops below a certain threshold
 - Remove frequent words
 - Use tf.idf instead of tf to represent documents
 - Use different / additional features, e.g. word bigrams

Averaging

 Take the average of all w from all iterations ... including all the iterations where w did not change That is, if you have 10 iterations and a training set of size 100, you take the average of 1000 w vectors

 Intuition 1: the final changes to w are due to relative few documents (which are still misclassified)

Averaging de-emphasizes the w vectors from the end

 Intuition 2: good values of w are not changed for many iterations (where they classify elements correctly)

Averaging emphasizes those "good" w vectors

Perceptron Refinements 3/4 Logistic Regression Let S(t) = 1 / (1 + e^{-t}) ... then S(w • x) can be interpreted as the probability that x is classified as +1 We can now try to find the w such that the observed data is most likely ... another instance of MLE

- This gives the following refined update step:

Class of x is +1 : $w \leftarrow w + \alpha \cdot a \cdot x$

Class of x is -1: $w \leftarrow w - \alpha \cdot a' \cdot x$

where $a = 1 - S(w \bullet x)$ and $a' = S(w \bullet x)$ and α is a tuning parameter (the so-called learning rate)

Batching

Given a w, consider a whole batch B of training elements
 The size of the batch is a parameter to play around with

- For each x_i ∈ B compute update term with respect to w
 Simple Perceptron: + x if class is +1, -x otherwise
 "Logistic" Perceptron: + α ⋅ a ⋅ x ... or ... α ⋅ a' ⋅ x
- Then add all the update terms to w to obtain a new w
 Batching mainly improves performance (a lot), but it also affects the precision (since it leads to a different w)

Hypothesis Testing 1/6

Motivation

- Typical situation in research: compare the outcome of two experiments
 - E.g. in the **life sciences**: health status for two groups of people, one taking a particular medication and one not
 - E.g. in **computer science**: the performance of two systems, using different algorithms or different parameter settings

– The outcome of the experiments will be different

But even carrying out the same experiment twice will give different results because of random fluctuations

Key question: how to tell a "real" difference between the two experiments from mere random fluctuation

Hypothesis Testing 2/6

Example 1: Prediction of coin tosses

Ten predictions in a row, C = correct, W = wrong
 CCCCCCCCCC (all ten predictions are correct)

- Do we believe in this person's ability to predict?

- Let's assume H_0 = the person cannot predict, that is, is just making random guesses ... with $Pr(C) = \frac{1}{2}$

 H_0 is called the null hypothesis ... see slide 14

- Then Pr(all ten correct $| H_0 \rangle = 2^{-10} \le 0.001 = 0.1\%$ Very unlikely that this great prediction was mere chance

Hypothesis Testing 3/6

 $\binom{10}{8} = \frac{10 \cdot 9}{1 \cdot 2} = 45$ $\binom{10}{9} = \frac{10}{1 \cdot 2} = 10$ $\binom{10}{10} = 1$ • Example 2: Prediction of coin tosses $\binom{10}{10} = 1$

- Let us now assume a slightly less stellar prediction: CCCWCCCWCC (8 correct, 2 wrong)

- What is now the probability that this is due to chance?

Note: we should **not** ask for the probability of **exactly 8** correct guesses to happen; it makes more sense to ask for the prob. of 8 or more correct guesses to happen

 $-\Pr(\geq 8 \text{ correct} \mid H_0) = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} \cdot 2^{-10} + \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot 2^{-10} + \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix} \cdot 2^{-10}$ $= 56 \cdot 2^{-10} \approx 5\%$

Hypothesis Testing 4/6

General approach

- Hypothesis H e.g. ability to predict coin tosses
- Null hypothesis H_0 e.g. random guessing (the opposite of H)

– Compute the probability p of the given or more extreme data assuming that H_0 is true

This probability p is called the **p-value**

 If p is small enough, the observations are said to be statistically significant with significance level p

In the life sciences, people are usually happy with values of p < 0.05 (moderate significance) p < 0.01 (strong sign.)

Hypothesis Testing 5/6

Example 3: two dice with unknown distribution

- Two dice A and B, four rolls each
 - A: 1,3,3,5
 - B: 6, 6, 4, 4
- Null hypothesis H_0 = the two dice A and B are identical

Z H

Given H₀, what is the probability of observing A and B
 This will be our running example for the rest of todays lecture

Well known hypothesis tests

- R-Test: simple + makes no probabilistic assumptions

ZE

- Z-Test: assume normal distribution with fixed variance
- T-Test: like Z-test, but also model variance distribution

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- One of the simplest statistical tests
 - Assume we have two series of measurements, A and B
 - Null hypothesis = no difference between A and B
 - Then we can assume that the measurements come from one experiment + assignment to either A or B is arbitrary
 - The R-Test considers all 2^n possible assignments of the n measurements to either A or B
 - For each assignment, compute the difference $\Delta\mu$ of the means, and see if it is \geq the $\Delta\mu$ on the observed data

The fraction of assignments for which this is the case is the p-value according to the R-Test R(andomization)-Test 2/3

Application to our dice example

A: 1,3,3,5 $M_{1} = \frac{1+3+3+5}{4} = 3$ B: 6,6,4,4 $M_{2} = \frac{6+6+4+4}{4} = 5$, REI

- Here are some of the 2^8 possible assignments of these 8 measurements to either A or B and the respective $\Delta\mu$

Note: we ignore the two assignments, where all measurements are assigned all to A or all to B, because we can't compute a meaningful mean difference then

. . .

R(andomization)-Test 3/3

Continuation of the example

- Let's write a program together to iterate over all $2^8 - 2$ assignments and compute the p-value as explained

254

- Observation: for 46 of the assignments, the difference of the means is 2 or larger $\rightarrow p = 46 / 254 \approx 18.1\%$
- Note: for a small number n of measurements, we can easily try out (on a computer) all 2ⁿ – 2 assignments

But for larger n, this quickly becomes infeasible

For n = 30 we already have $2^{30} \approx 1$ billion assignments

Then we can take a (large enough) random sample of assignments and compute the fraction for those

Z-Test and T-Test 1/12

Assumptions

The Z-Test and the T-Test both assume an underlying probability distribution

- Z-Test: underlying normal distribution
- T-Test: underlying t-distribution
- Then, for our setting, the p-value is $Pr(M \ge \Delta \mu)$, where:

M is a random variable, modelling the difference of the means with the assumed probability distribution

 $\Delta\mu$ is the value of M on the observed measurements

As a preparation, let us recap (on the next slides) some foundations from probability theory ...

Z-Test and T-Test 2/12

- Random variables
- $E(X-EX)^{2} = E(X^{2}-2XEX+(EX)^{2})$ = $EX^{2} 2EX \cdot EX + (EX)^{2}$ = $EX^{2} 2(EX)^{2} + (EX)^{2}$ - Continuous random variable X = range is \mathbf{R} = $\mathbf{E} \times (\mathbf{E} \times)^2$
 - Cumulative distribution function: $\Phi(x) = Pr(X \le x)$

In particular: $\lim_{x\to\infty} \Phi(x) = 1$

- Mean: $\mathbf{E} \mathbf{X} \coloneqq \int (1 - \Phi(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$

In the discrete case, $\mathbf{E} X = \Sigma_k \Pr(X \ge k)$

- Variance: var(X) := $E(X - EX)^2 = EX^2 - (EX)^2$

The square root of the variance is often called standard deviation, and often denoted by σ ... then var(X) = σ^2

Z-Test and T-Test 3/12

Basic linearity properties of E and var :

- For all X, Y it holds that: E(X + Y) = EX + EY

Surprising but true: even if X and Y are dependent

For X, Y independent: var(X + Y) = var(X) + var(Y)
 Not generally true when X and Y are dependent

- For X and any real a : $var(a \cdot X) = a^2 \cdot var(X)$

This can be easily proved from the definition of var $\bigcup_{\alpha, X} = E(\alpha, X)^{2} - (E\alpha, X)^{2}$ $= \alpha^{2} \cdot EX^{2} - \alpha^{2} (EX)^{2} = \alpha^{2} \cdot \sqrt{\alpha} \cdot (X)$

Z-Test and T-Test 4/12

- The normal distribution
 - Assumed as the underlying distribution in many scenarios

g(x)=.

 $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{T}}(\mathbf{X} \leq \mathbf{x}) =$

S(+) 2+

0

In the life sciences as well as in computer science

– Two parameters: the mean μ and the variance σ^2

The corresponding distribution is denoted by $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

We will need to compute Pr(X ≥ x) where X has normal dist.
 There is no closed formula for this ... in the ancient past, lookup tables were used

For ES12, use scipy.stats.norm.cdf to obtain $Pr(X \le x)$

Z-Test and T-Test 5/12

Properties of the normal distribution

- **Property 1**: If X has distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $(X - \mu) / \sigma$ has distribution N(0, 1)

Every normal distr. can be reduced to N(0, 1) by scaling

standard normal

- **Property 2:** If X₁ has distribution N(μ_1 , σ_1^2) and X₂ has distribution N(μ_2 , σ_2^2), and X₁ and X₂ are independent then X₁ + X₂ has distribution N(μ_1 + μ_2 , σ_1^2 + σ_2^2)

The sum of normal random variables is again normal

Properties of the normal distribution, continued

- **Property 3**: Let $X_1, ..., X_n$ be n i.i.d. (independent identically distributed) random variables, each with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then $(X_1 + ... + X_n) / n$ converges to N(μ , σ^2) as n $\rightarrow \infty$

This is known as the Central Limit Theorem

It is the reason why the normal distribution is a natural assumption for many quantities observed in the world

ZW

(for example, think of the running time of a loop with n iterations, and X_i = the time for the i-th iteration)

Z-Test and T-Test 7/12 $\times_{i} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^{2})$

• The χ^2 distribution

 χ = small Greek letter "chi"

- Let Z_1 , ..., Z_n be i.i.d. from N(\emptyset , 1)
- Then the distribution of $Z = Z_1^2 + ... + Z_n^2$ is defined as:

the χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom aka $\chi^2(n)$

– Consider measurements X_1 , ..., X_n , each from N(μ , σ^2)

Let $M = \Sigma X_i / n$ be the estimated mean, $E M = \mu$ Let $S^2 = \Sigma (X_i - M)^2 / n$ be the estimated variance, $E S^2 = \sigma^2$ Then $S^2 \cdot n / \sigma^2 = \Sigma ((X_i - M) / \sigma)^2$ has a $\chi^2(n)$ distribution **Intuitively**: the variance of a series of measurements has a χ^2 distribution (up to scaling)

Z-Test and T-Test 8/12

Student's t-distribution

 Let us define it by how we pick a random X from it, in comparison to the standard normal distribution:

Standard normal distribution: pick X from N(0, 1)

T-distribution with n d.o.f:

pick V from $\chi^2(n)$, then pick X from N(0, n / V)

- Note that E V = n (slide 26) and that for $n \rightarrow \infty$ we have $V / n \rightarrow 1$ and the two distributions become the same

Actually, there is a marked difference between the two distributions only for small n, say $n \le 50$

For ES12, use scipy.stats.t.cdf to obtain $Pr(X \le x)$

Z-Test and T-Test 9/12

More intuition about the difference

 By also considering the variance as a random variable, the t-distribution is less concentrated around its mean than the corresponding normal distribution Here is an example which provides some intuition
Experiment 1: pick X uniformly from [-10, 10]
Experiment 2: first pick V uniformly from [5, 15], then pick X uniformly from [-V, V]
Now extreme values (< -10 or > 10) become more

likely, and values around the mean become less likely

Note that the mean remains zero in Experiment 2

The Z-Test assumption: underlying normal distribution

- Given two series X_1 and X_2 of a total of n measurements
- Let $M = M_1 M_2$ be the difference of the means of X_1 and X_2

ZW

- Let $S^2 = (\Sigma (X_{1j} M_1)^2 + \Sigma (X_{2j} M_2)^2) / (n/2)$ be the est. var.
- Let $\Delta\mu$ and σ be the observed value of M and S, respectively
- H_0 : all $X_{ij} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Naïve assumption: the real variance is the observed variance

- Then $Z = \sqrt{n \cdot M} / (2\sigma)$ has distribution N(0, 1)

- The p-value of the Z-Test is then $Pr(M \ge \Delta \mu) = Pr(Z \ge x)$ where $x = \sqrt{n} \cdot \Delta \mu / (2\sigma)$

- The T-Test assumption: underlying t-distribution
 - Given two series X_1 and X_2 of a total of n measurements
 - Let $M = M_1 M_2$ be the difference of the means of X_1 and X_2

TREI

- Let $S^2 = (\Sigma (X_{1j} M_1)^2 + \Sigma (X_{2j} M_2)^2) / (n/2)$ be the est. var.
- Let $\Delta \mu$ and σ be the observed value of M and S, respectively
- H₀: all X_{ij} ~ N(μ , S²), S² ~ σ^2 / (V/n), V ~ χ^2 (n) with n d.o.f. More realistic: the underlying variance is a random variable
- Then $T = \sqrt{n \cdot M} / (2S)$ has t-distribution with n d.o.f.
- The p-value of the T-Test is then $Pr(M \ge \Delta \mu) = Pr(T \ge x)$, where $x = \sqrt{n} \cdot \Delta \mu / (2\sigma)$

The Z-Test improved slide, for use in future course

– Given two series X_1 and X_2 of a total of n measurements

Common unknown mean $\mu = \mathbf{E} X_{ij}$ and variance $\sigma = \mathbf{var} X_{ij}$

- Let $M = M_1 M_2$ be the difference of the means of X_1 and X_2
- Let $S^2 = (\Sigma (X_{1j} M_1)^2 + \Sigma (X_{2j} M_2)^2) / (n-1)$ be the est. var.
- Let m and s be the observed value of M and S, respectively
- Assumptions: M normal dist (reasonable) and $s = \sigma$ (naïve!)
- Normalization: Define $Z = \sqrt{n \cdot M} / (2s)$... then E Z = 0 and var Z = 1, and hence $Z \sim N(0, 1)$
- P-value: $Pr(Z \ge x)$ where $x = \sqrt{n \cdot m} / (2s)$

The probability that Z is \geq it's observed value

The T-Test improved slide, for use in future course

– Given two series X_1 and X_2 of a total of n measurements

Common unknown mean $\mu = \mathbf{E} X_{ij}$ and variance $\sigma = \mathbf{var} X_{ij}$

- Let $M = M_1 M_2$ be the difference of the means of X_1 and X_2
- Let $S^2 = (\Sigma (X_{1j} M_1)^2 + \Sigma (X_{2j} M_2)^2) / (n-1)$ be the est. var.
- Let m and s be the observed value of M and S, respectively
- Assumptions: M normal dist and S² has χ^2 dist (both reasonable)
- Normalization: Define Z = $\sqrt{n} \cdot M / (2\sigma) \sim N(0,1)$ and V = S²/ σ^2 $\cdot n \sim \chi^2(n)$... then T = $\sqrt{n} \cdot M / (2S) = Z / \sqrt{(V/n)} \sim t$ -dist(n)
- P-value: $Pr(T \ge x)$ where $x = \sqrt{n \cdot m} / (2s)$

The probability that T is \geq it's observed value



References

Further reading

Smucker, Allan, Carterette: A Comparison of Statistical Significance Tests for IR Evaluation, CIKM 2007

http://ciir-publications.cs.umass.edu/getpdf.php?id=744

Wikipedia

- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Statistical hypothesis testing
- <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/P-Value</u>
- <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Z-test</u>
- <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Student's t-test</u>
- <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Student's t-distribution</u>