The Property of ROC Curves

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- Much attention has been drawn to the potential of machine learning (ML) in assisting human decision making.
- Binary classification decision making is a foundational building block of related works.
- Accuracy is insufficient to evaluate the quality of binary classifiers.

Example : Prostate Cancer

In the U.S., about 1.4 percent of men aged 44 to 64 have prostate cancer. A simple prediction of all patients as low risk would result in an accuracy higher than 95%.

This high accuracy diagnosis strategy is not intended because it does not distinguish between high risk and low risk groups.

• The ROC (Receiver operating characteristics) curve is an alternative to accuracy and plays a key role in the binary classification problem.

		True Condition		
		Condition Positive	Condition Negative	
Predictied Condition	Predictied Positive	True Postive	False Positive Type I Error	
		False Negative Type II Error	True Negative	

$$\mathsf{TPR} = \frac{\mathsf{TP}}{\mathsf{TP} + \mathsf{FN}}, \quad \mathsf{FPR} = \frac{\mathsf{FP}}{\mathsf{TN} + \mathsf{FP}}$$

Suppose there are 100 diseased and 100 healthy people, a doctor diagnoses 20 of the healthy as diseased, and 10 diseased are missed. The TPR/FPR of the doctor is (0.9, 0.2).

• Let X_i be a set of features.

Let $Y_i \in \{0, 1\}$ be the outcome (label), $\hat{Y}_i \in \{0, 1\}$ the prediction. Let $\hat{p}(X_i) \in [0, 1]$ a sample estimate of the probability of the label taking 1 conditional on the features.

• Recall the definitions (in sample):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{TPR} = & \frac{\mathsf{Outcome \ True, \ Predicted \ Positive}}{\mathsf{Outcome \ True}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i \dot{Y}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i}, \\ \mathsf{FPR} = & \frac{\mathsf{Outcome \ False, \ Predicted \ Positive}}{\mathsf{Outcome \ False}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - Y_i) \, \hat{Y}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - Y_i)}. \end{aligned}$$

A ROC curve is the collection of the set of all TPR/FPR pairs corresponding to decision rules Ŷ_i = 1 (p (X_i) > c), c ∈ [0, 1]. Let α̂ (c) = FPR (c), β̂ (c) = TPR (c).

$$\mathsf{ROC} \coloneqq \hat{\alpha}(c) \mapsto \hat{\beta}\left(\hat{\alpha}^{-1}(\alpha)\right).$$

It present the tradeoff between TPR and FPR.

Sample of ROC curve.



We provide a statistical formulation of the ROC curve, we demonstrate:

The relation between ROC curve with *loss (utility) function* and *decision rule*.

Confidence level for an estimated ROC to account for its sampling uncertainty.

The influence of AUC (area under curve) and its implication for *model selection*.

Neyman Pearson Lemma and Decision Rules

• Binary decision making is inherently related to hypothesis testing. For a general classification rule $\hat{Y}_i = \mathbb{1} (X_i \in R)$, denote the population analogs of TPR/FPR as PTPR and PFPR

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{TPR} & \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} \mathsf{PTPR} \equiv \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[Y_{i}\mathbbm{1}\left(X_{i} \in R\right)\right]}{p}, \\ \mathsf{FPR} & \stackrel{\mathbb{P}}{\longrightarrow} \mathsf{PFPR} \equiv \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\left(1 - Y_{i}\right)\mathbbm{1}\left(X_{i} \in R\right)\right]}{1 - p} \end{aligned}$$

where $p = \mathbb{E}\left[Y_i\right]$ is the overall population portion of positive labels. \bullet Then by Bayes law

$$\mathsf{PTPR} = \int \mathbb{1} \left(X \in R \right) f\left(X | Y = 1 \right) \mathrm{d}X, \quad \mathsf{PFPR} = \int \mathbb{1} \left(X \in R \right) f\left(X | Y = 0 \right) \mathrm{d}X.$$

• PTPR is the power of the test; PFPR is the size of the test.

 The classical Neyman Pearson Lemma states that the collection of likelihood ratio tests

$$R_{NP}(d) = \left\{ x : \frac{f(X|Y=1)}{f(X|Y=0)} > d \right\},\$$

where $d \in (0, \infty)$ varies, are *most powerful tests* that maximize power for whatever size it achieves.

• By the Bayes law, write

$$R_{NP}(d) = \left\{ x : \frac{p(x)}{1 - p(x)} > d\frac{p}{1 - p} \right\} = \left\{ x : p(x) > c = \frac{dp}{1 - p + dp} \right\},\$$

where $p(X_i) = \mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1 | X_i)$ is the true probability function.

Consequently, the ROC corresponding to the decision rules

$$\hat{y} = \mathbb{1} \left(p\left(x \right) > c \right) \quad c \in [0, 1]$$

has the *Neyman-Pearson optimality* that it lies weakly above the ROC of any alternative collection of decision rules.

- With arbitrary cost functions, Bayesian optimal PTPR/PFPR pair can lie below the optimal ROC curve or even below the 45 degree line.
- Consider the Loss (function) "matrix"

$$\begin{vmatrix} \hat{Y} = 0 & \hat{Y} = 1 \\ Y = 0 & 0 & C_{0R}(x) \\ Y = 1 & C_{1A}(x) & 0 \\ \end{vmatrix}$$

• The minimizing rejection region R is then

$$\bar{R} = \left\{ x : p(x) > c(x) = \frac{c_{0R}(x)}{c_{0R}(x) + c_{1A}(x)} \right\}.$$

Statistical Inference of ROC Curves

- We derived asymptotic pointwise confidence bands for an estimated ROC to account for its sampling uncertainty.
- Consider parametric models of $p\left(X_{i},\theta\right)$ under i.i.d sampling assumptions, write TPR/FPR as

$$\hat{\beta}(c) = \frac{1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \mathbb{1}\left(p\left(x_i, \hat{\theta}\right) > c\right)}{\hat{p}},$$
$$\hat{\alpha}(c) = \frac{1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - y_i) \mathbb{1}\left(p\left(x_i, \hat{\theta}\right) > c\right)}{1 - \hat{p}},$$

where
$$\hat{p} = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$$
 .
The PTPR and PFPR are written as

$$\begin{split} \beta\left(c\right) &= \frac{1}{p} \mathbb{E}\left[p\left(X\right) \mathbbm{1}\left(p\left(X,\theta_{0}\right) > c\right)\right],\\ \alpha\left(c\right) &= \frac{1}{1-p} \mathbb{E}\left[\left(1-p\left(X\right)\right) \mathbbm{1}\left(p\left(X,\theta_{0}\right) > c\right)\right]. \end{split}$$

• Let $\hat{\beta}_{\alpha} = \hat{\beta} \left(\hat{\alpha}^{-1} \left(\alpha \right) \right)$ and $\beta_{\alpha} = \beta \left(\alpha^{-1} \left(\alpha \right) \right)$.

• To construct an asymptotic confidence inteval for β_{α} ,

$$\lim \inf_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\hat{\beta}_{\alpha} - \hat{d} \le \beta_{\alpha} \le \hat{\beta}_{\alpha} + \hat{d}\right) \ge 1 - \eta, \tag{1}$$

we derive the asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\beta}_{\alpha} - \beta_{\alpha}$:

Theorem

Assuming $p(x, \theta)$ satisfies a typical stochastic equicontinuity condition and there is a consistent estimate of $\hat{\theta}$ with an asymptotic linear influence function representation

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{\theta}-\theta_{0}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\kappa_{i} + o_{\mathbb{P}}\left(1\right), \quad \text{where} \quad \kappa_{i} = \kappa\left(y_{i}, x_{i}\right)$$
(2)

Then, the asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\beta}_{\alpha} - \beta_{\alpha}$ is of the form:

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{\beta}_{\alpha}-\beta_{\alpha}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\psi_{i}+o_{\mathbb{P}}\left(1\right), \quad \text{where} \quad \psi_{i}=\psi\left(y_{i},x_{i},\alpha\right).$$
(3)

It follows that

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{\beta}_{\alpha}-\beta_{\alpha}\right) \xrightarrow{d} N\left(0,\sigma^{2}\right), \text{ where } \sigma^{2}=Var\left(\psi_{i}\right).$$

We estimated the asymptotic distribution by sample analogs and by bootstrapping.

The data generating process is specified to be a logit model,

$$p(X) = \exp(X'\beta) / (1 + \exp(X'\beta))$$

where $X = (X_1, X_2)$, $\beta = (1, -0.5)$, $X_1 \sim N(2, 1)$, $X_2 \sim N(0, 1)$, $B \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ and $Y = \mathbb{1}(p(X_1, X_2) > B)$, X_1 and X_2 are independent.



AUC and Model Comparison and Selection

• The sample AUC corresponding to $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is given by

SAUC
$$(\theta) = \frac{1}{n^2 \hat{p}(1-\hat{p})} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}\left(p\left(x_i, \hat{\theta}\right) > p\left(x_j, \hat{\theta}\right)\right) y_i(1-y_j).$$

• This takes the form of a U-process and converges to a population AUC, defined as

$$\begin{aligned} &\operatorname{PAUC}\left(\theta\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{p\left(1-p\right)} \iint \mathbbm{1}\left(p\left(x,\theta\right) > p\left(w,\theta\right)\right) p\left(x\right) \left(1-p\left(w\right)\right) f\left(x\right) f\left(w\right) \mathrm{d}x \mathrm{d}w. \end{aligned}$$

- This integral would be maximized if the indicator is turned on whenever p(x) > p(w).
- Under correct specification, this can obviously be achieved when $\theta = \theta_0$, where $p(x, \theta_0) = p(x) > p(w) = p(w, \theta_0)$. Therefore, by standard M-estimator arguments (Newey and McFadden, 1994) the maximum AUC estimator is consistent under correct specification and suitable sample regularity conditions.

• We prove by further use the the U-process stochastic equicontinuity results in (Sherman, 1993).

Theorem

Let

$$\eta\left(z_{i}, z_{j}, \theta\right) = \left(\mathbb{1}\left(p(x_{i}, \theta) > p\left(x_{j}, \theta\right)\right) - A\right) y_{i}\left(1 - y_{j}\right),$$

and $Q\left(heta
ight) = \mathbb{E}\left[\eta\left(z_{i},z_{j}, heta
ight)
ight]$, then

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\hat{A}-A\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\xi_{i} + o_{\mathbb{P}}\left(1\right), \quad \sqrt{n}\left(\hat{A}-A\right) \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N\left(0, Var\left(\xi_{i}\right)\right), \quad (4)$$

the asymptotic covariance can be calculate as

$$\xi_{i} = \frac{1}{p\left(1-p\right)} \left[\eta_{1}\left(z_{i}, \theta^{*}\right) + \eta_{2}\left(z_{i}, \theta^{*}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}Q\left(\theta^{*}\right)\kappa_{i} \right],$$

in which

$$\eta_1(z_i,\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{z_j}\left[\eta\left(z_i, z_j, \theta\right)\right], \quad \eta_2(z_j,\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{z_i}\left[\eta\left(z_i, z_j, \theta\right)\right].$$

- The results derived above provide the basis for constructing model tests.
- It is possible that a different criterion function, such as cross entropy, is used to estimate parameters before the use of the AUC criterion for model selection.
- Consider two competing models with parameters θ and ϑ , and corresponding sample AUCs $\hat{A}_1(\hat{\theta})$ and $\hat{A}_2(\hat{\vartheta})$, then it follows from (4) that

$$\hat{A}_1\left(\hat{\theta}\right) - \hat{A}_2\left(\hat{\vartheta}\right) = \left(A_1\left(\theta^*\right) - A_2\left(\vartheta^*\right)\right) + \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\xi_i^1 - \xi_i^2\right) + o_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

• A test of the null hypothesis of $A_1(\theta^*) = A_2(\vartheta^*)$ between two models relies on asymptotic distribution of $\xi_i^1 - \xi_i^2$.

- Next table reports an AUC-based model selection exercise between two misspecfied models.
- The model (M1) is a logit model with $p(X_1) = \frac{\exp(\theta_1 X_1)}{1 + \exp(\theta_1 X_1)}$; the model (M2) is a logit model with $p(X_2) = \frac{\exp(\theta_2 X_2)}{1 + \exp(\theta_2 X_2)}$.

	Bootstrap	Theoretical
A1 (mean)	0.7341	0.7314
A2 (mean)	0.6214	0.6191
A1-A2 (mean)	0.1127	0.1124
A1-A2 (std)	0.0102	0.0103

Table:	Model	Se	lection
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• We obtain a significant z score: $z = \frac{\hat{A}_1(\hat{\theta}) - \hat{A}_2(\hat{\vartheta})}{std(\hat{A}_1(\hat{\theta}) - \hat{A}_2(\hat{\vartheta}))}$, which rejects the null hypothesis that M1 is equivalent to M2.

Application

- A data set derived from Haidian District Maternal and Child Health Hospital in Beijing, comprehensively records birth process in the hospital from 2001 to 2010.
- Altogether 545 features are available for each observation, including blood test, urine test and pregnogram examination results.
- The data used in the current analysis includes 108911 records, a total of 15.5% of our sample had hyperglycemia in pregnancy.
- We used a logistic regression with L_1 regularization for prediction and used an 8:2 training and test partition.
- Only data collected up to the 20th week are used for prediction.

If we use all the features, the AUC of the model is 0.6988 ± 0.0092 .



One may interested in whether certain types of checks are better for prediction.

The AUC of pregnogram examination features is 0.6506 ± 0.0098 . The AUC of blood test features is 0.5738 ± 0.0107 . We can further get $std(AUC_P - AUC_B) = 0.0080$, the z score: z = 9.60, which implies that the pregnogram model is better.

Figure: Capabilities of pregnogram and blood test features to predict hyperglycemia in pregnancy



"Decision Making with Machine Learning and ROC Curves" https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3382962 NEWEY, W. K., AND D. MCFADDEN (1994): "Large sample estimation and hypothesis testing," *Handbook of econometrics*, 4, 2111–2245.

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