

Evaluation in Natural Language Processing


Lecture at Computer Science Club


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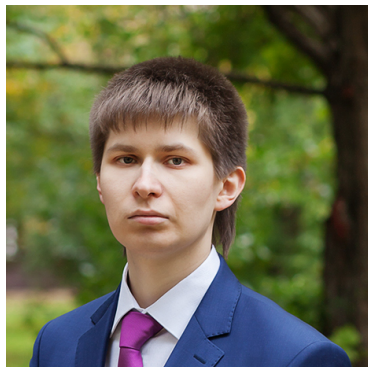


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 **Research Interests:** Crowdsourcing,
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Section 1

Introduction

- Once a model is obtained, it is crucial to study its performance and impact
- How do we find a correlation between quality and evaluation score?
- What are the common techniques in Natural Language Processing (NLP)?
- We need reproducibility, scalability, and proper benchmarking (Dacrema et al., 2019)
- Today we will learn how to do it!

Core Idea: **Measure Twice and Cut Once**

You can invent a method every day. How do you know if it is actually good?

How to Evaluate?

Online Evaluation

Pros:

- + Objective
- + Interpretable

Cons:

- Can hurt users
- Irreproducible
- Poor scalability

Offline Evaluation

Pros:

- + Scalable
- + Reproducible
- + Safe

Cons:

- Can be unobjective

Today we will focus on **offline evaluation**.

Offline evaluation requires **ground truth** to be available; typical sources are:

- Expert Assessment
- Gold and Silver Standards
- Crowdsourcing



Source: Finnsson (2017)

Ground Truth: Expert Assessment

In **Expert Assessment**, the output of the system is manually evaluated by a group of expert assessors who ultimately decide whether it works well or not.

Pros:

- + Very high quality and accuracy
- + Evaluation can be very complex

Cons:

- Does not scale
- Have to trust the experts
- Only one data point per expert

Examples:

- Search engines
- Sensitive domains (Medicine, Security, etc.)

Ground Truth: Gold and Silver Standards

Gold Standards are well-known, expert-annotated, and trustworthy datasets dedicated to a particular problem. **Silver Standards** are the gold ones matched with unverified data.

Pros:

- + Very high quality and accuracy
- + Trusted by the community

Cons:

- Could be missing for your task or be smaller than needed
- Requires expert annotation or matching

Examples:

- **Gold:** Penn Treebank (Marcus et al., 1993), WordNet (Fellbaum, 1998), FrameNet (Baker et al., 1998)
- **Silver:** BabelNet (Navigli et al., 2012)

Ground Truth: Crowdsourcing

Crowdsourcing is a type of participative *online activity* in which *the requester* proposes to *a group of individuals* ... the voluntary undertaking of *a task* (Estellés-Arolas et al., 2012).

Pros:

- + Scalability
- + Flexibility

Cons:

- Need for task design
- Need for quality control

Examples:

- **Data Acquisition:** Wikipedia, Wiktionary, ESP Game (von Ahn et al., 2004), [Common Voice](#) (Ardila et al., 2020)
- **System Evaluation:** Search Relevance (Alonso et al., 2008), Machine Translation (Callison-Burch, 2009), Intruders (Chang et al., 2009)

Decision Support Systems

Suppose that you have a *decision support system* (DSS).

- The system's response can be positive or negative; both can be true or false:
Type I error aka false positive (*FP*)
Type II error aka false negative (*FN*)
- A **confusion matrix** C shows how well a *decision support system* works
- ! It would be more convenient to have a single number indicating the system's performance

		Actual	
		+	-
Predicted	+	TP	FP
	-	FN	TN

Note that in some sources this matrix is transposed!

Two ways for evaluating Information Retrieval (IR) systems: unranked and ranked, see van Rijsbergen (1979, Chapter 7) and Manning et al. (2008, Chapter 8).

In **unranked evaluation**, a set of all the obtained results is assessed.

- Accuracy
- Precision, Recall, and F-score
- Fowlkes–Mallows Index
- ROC-AUC
- ...

In **ranked evaluation**, an ordered list of top k results is assessed.

- Precision@K
- Mean Average Precision
- NDCG
- pFound and ERR
- ...

Section 2

Classification Evaluation

Accuracy (A_c) is the fraction of correct responses provided by the system.

$$A_c = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

- Interpretable
- Easy to compare against random baseline of $A_c = \frac{1}{\# \text{ of classes}}$
- Biased when the class distribution is skewed (Powers, 2008)

Precision (P_r) is the fraction of retrieved documents that are *relevant*.

$$P_r = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recall (R_e) is the fraction of relevant documents that are *retrieved*.

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

Both are proposed by Kent et al. (1955) specially for IR systems:

- Not very useful without each other
- Biased when the class distribution is skewed (Powers, 2008)

F-score (aka F-measure)

F-score (F_β) is the weighted harmonic mean of precision and recall (van Rijsbergen, 1979), also known as Dice coefficient.

$$F_\beta = (1 + \beta^2) \cdot \frac{\text{Pr} \cdot \text{Re}}{\beta^2 \cdot \text{Pr} + \text{Re}} \quad F_1 = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{Pr} \cdot \text{Re}}{\text{Pr} + \text{Re}}$$

Fowlkes–Mallows Index (FM) is the geometric mean of precision and recall (Fowlkes et al., 1983).

$$\text{FM} = \sqrt{\text{Pr} \cdot \text{Re}}$$

So far we considered only the binary classification case.

Multiple Classes

What if we have more than two classes, i.e., $k > 2$?

- **Micro-Average:** compute scores for each class together

$$\text{Pr}_{\text{micro}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \text{TP}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k (\text{TP}_i + \text{FP}_i)} \quad \text{Re}_{\text{micro}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \text{TP}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k (\text{TP}_i + \text{FN}_i)}$$

- **Macro-Average:** compute Pr_i and Re_i for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, so

$$\text{Pr}_{\text{macro}} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \text{Pr}_i \quad \text{Re}_{\text{macro}} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \text{Re}_i$$

- **Weighted:** for each $1 \leq i \leq k$ use the number of instances $\#(i)$

$$\text{Pr}_{\text{weighted}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k (\#(i) \cdot \text{Pr}_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k \#(i)} \quad \text{Re}_{\text{weighted}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k (\#(i) \cdot \text{Re}_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k \#(i)}$$

Issues with Traditional IR Scores

Despite the huge popularity of A_c , P_r , R_e , etc., these scores have major issues (Powers, 2008; Chicco et al., 2020):

- they are biased towards dominant classes
- they can be manipulated
- they are not *metrics*



Source: Rahman Rony (2016)

Consider a part-of-speech tagger that classifies everything as **NN** and our evaluation dataset is imbalanced.

$$Ac = \frac{90}{90 + 10 + 0 + 0} = 90\%$$

$$Pr = \frac{90}{90 + 10} = 90\%$$

$$Re = \frac{90}{90 + 0} = 100\%$$

$$F_1 = 2 \cdot \frac{0.9 \cdot 1}{0.9 + 1} \approx 95\%$$

$$FM = \sqrt{0.9 \cdot 1} \approx 95\%$$

P \ E	NN	VBP
NN	90	10
VBP	0	0

Not a very good evaluation of such a trivial classifier.

Labels are part-of-speech (PoS) tags from the Penn Treebank (Marcus et al., 1993), e.g., *infl*uence/NN is a singular or mass **noun**, *infl*uence/VBP is a non-third person singular present **verb**.

Matthews (1975) proposed the correlation coefficient that balances classes of different sizes:

$$\text{MCC} = \frac{\text{TP} \times \text{TN} - \text{FP} \times \text{FN}}{\sqrt{(\text{TP} + \text{FP})(\text{TP} + \text{FN})(\text{TN} + \text{FP})(\text{TN} + \text{FN})}}$$

In the previous example, $\text{MCC} = 0$; note that $\text{MCC} \in [-1; +1]$.

Mathews Correlation Coefficient: Multiclass

Gorodkin (2004) generalized MCC to multiple classes as R_K coefficient of the confusion matrix C :

$$\text{MCC} = \frac{\sum_{k,l,m} C_{kk}C_{lm} - C_{kl}C_{mk}}{\sqrt{\sum_k (\sum_l C_{kl}) \left(\sum_{\substack{l' \\ k' \neq k}} C_{k'l'} \right)} \sqrt{\sum_k (\sum_l C_{lk}) \left(\sum_{\substack{l' \\ k' \neq k}} C_{l'k'} \right)}}$$

MCC is stable except in very extreme cases, see Chicco et al. (2020) for a detailed discussion.

Classification Curves

- A single number is not enough: it is important to study the algorithm's sensitivity and specificity
- Receiver Operator Characteristics (ROC) and Precision-Recall (PR) curves allow examining these properties
- ! They can be applied as soon as the method returns the probability, confidence, or decision value, etc.

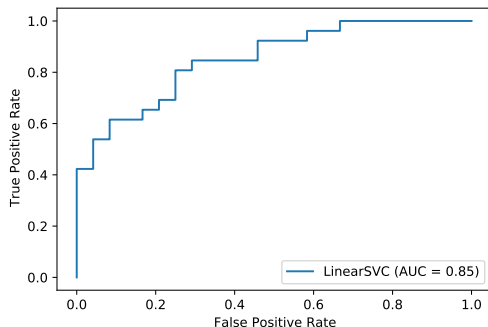


Source: rawpixel (2017)

Receiver Operator Characteristics

Receiver Operator Characteristics (ROC) curve shows a trade-off between true positive rate (recall) and false positive rate.

- 1 Perform the classification and obtain a score for each response
- 2 Iterate over the responses in ascending order and plot points
- 3 Compute the area under curve (ROC-AUC) using the trapezoidal rule

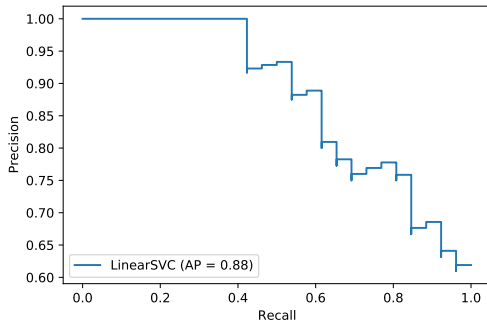


Consider using the more informative precision-recall (PR) curve (Saito et al., 2015).

Precision-Recall Curve

Precision-Recall (PR) curve shows a trade-off between precision and recall.

- 1 Perform the classification and obtain a score for each response
 - 2 Iterate over the responses in descending order and plot interpolated points
 - 3 Due to the interpolation, PR-AUC might be too optimistic; compute the average precision (AP)
- ! Note that the first element is undefined



If one method dominates another on ROC, it will dominate on PR, too (Davis et al., 2006).

- Use the MCC and ROC-AUC measures to report quality
- Report a PR curve to evaluate the precision and recall dynamics
- Always check for class imbalance
- **Implementations:** [R](#), [scikit-learn](#) (Pedregosa et al., 2011) for Python, etc.



Source: Free-Photos (2016)

Section 3

Clustering Evaluation

Clustering Evaluation

- Two classes of clustering evaluation criteria: internal and external
- **Internal criteria** measure intra-cluster similarity and inter-cluster similarity, which do not necessarily correspond to your task (Manning et al., 2008, Chapter 16)
- **External criteria** compare the obtained clustering with ground truth; see discussion on measures in Yang et al. (2013, Section 6.2)



Source: Buisinne (2016)

- Every cluster C^i can be represented as a complete graph of $\binom{|C^i|}{2}$ undirected edges P^i
- A clustering C can be then compared to a gold clustering C_G using *paired F-score* between pair unions P and P_G (Manandhar et al., 2010):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{TP} &= |P \cap P_G|, & \text{FP} &= |P \setminus P_G|, & \text{FN} &= |P_G \setminus P| \\ \text{Pr} &= \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}, & \text{Re} &= \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}, & \text{F}_1 &= 2 \frac{\text{Pr} \cdot \text{Re}}{\text{Pr} + \text{Re}} \end{aligned}$$

- This is a very straightforward and interpretable approach
- It allows applying the techniques from the classification evaluation
- It does not explicitly assess the quality of overlapping clusters (larger are preferred)

- Rand (1971) proposed an index for clustering evaluation:

$$RI = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

- RI is the same as the accuracy measure A_c from the classification evaluation
- Hubert et al. (1985) proposed a chance-corrected version, **Adjusted Rand Index**:

$$ARI = \frac{\sum_{ij} \binom{n_{ij}}{2} - \left[\sum_i \binom{n_{i\cdot}}{2} \sum_j \binom{n_{\cdot j}}{2} \right] / \binom{n}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} \left[\sum_i \binom{n_{i\cdot}}{2} + \sum_j \binom{n_{\cdot j}}{2} \right] - \left[\sum_i \binom{n_{i\cdot}}{2} \sum_j \binom{n_{\cdot j}}{2} \right] / \binom{n}{2}}$$

Purity is a measure of the extent to which clusters contain a single class, which is useful for evaluating *hard* clusterings (Manning et al., 2008):

$$\text{PU} = \frac{1}{|C|} \sum_i^{|C|} \max_j |C^i \cap C_G^j|$$

$$\text{iPU} = \frac{1}{|C_G|} \sum_j^{|C_G|} \max_i |C^i \cap C_G^j|$$

$$F_1 = 2 \frac{\text{PU} \cdot \text{iPU}}{\text{PU} + \text{iPU}}$$

Normalized Modified Purity

Kawahara et al. (2014) proposed *normalized modified purity* for soft clustering that considers weighted overlaps $\delta_{C^i}(C^i \cap C_G^j)$:

$$\text{nmPU} = \frac{1}{|C|} \sum_i \text{s.t. } |C^i| > 1 \max_{1 \leq j \leq |C_G|} \delta_{C^i}(C^i \cap C_G^j)$$

$$\text{niPU} = \frac{1}{|C_G|} \sum_{j=1}^{|G|} \max_{1 \leq i \leq |C|} \delta_{C_G^j}(C^i \cap C_G^j)$$

$$F_1 = 2 \frac{\text{nmPU} \cdot \text{niPU}}{\text{nmPU} + \text{niPU}}$$

Soft Clustering Evaluation: Example

Gold Clustering

bank, riverbank, streambank, streamside
bank, building, bank building

Soft Clustering

bank
bank, building
riverbank, streambank, streamside
bank building

Pairwise Evaluation

$$Pr = \frac{4}{4 + 0} = 1$$

$$Re = \frac{4}{4 + 5} = .44$$

$$F_1 = 2 \frac{Pr \cdot Re}{Pr + Re} = .62$$

Normalized Modified Purity

$$nmPU = .75$$

$$niPU = .75$$

$$F_1 = .75$$

Clustering Evaluation: Wrap-Up

- Evaluate hard clustering with ARI and soft clustering with nmPU/niPU
- More difficult tasks, such as taxonomy evaluation, can be reduced to clustering evaluation (Velardi et al., 2013)
- **Implementations:** [scikit-learn](#) (Pedregosa et al., 2011), [xmeasures](#) (Lutov et al., 2019), etc.



Source: Pexels (2016)

Section 4

Ranked Evaluation

- Assume we have retrieved top k results
- We want the most relevant items to be on the top of this list
- Measures include binary ($\text{Pr}@k$, MAP, MRR) and graded (NDCG, pFound/ERR), etc.



Source: Amos (2011)

Mean Average Precision

Precision@k is the fraction of relevant items in the k top retrieved items for the given query:

$$\text{Pr}@k = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{1}_{i\text{-th item is relevant}}$$

Average Precision (AP) is the non-interpolated area under the PR curve (Buckley et al., 2000):

$$\text{AP} = \frac{1}{\# \text{ of relevant items}} \sum_{i=1}^k \text{Pr}@i \cdot \mathbf{1}_{i\text{-th item is relevant}}$$

Mean Average Precision is the average AP of all the queries Q :

$$\text{MAP} = \frac{1}{|Q|} \sum_{q \in Q} \text{AP}(q)$$

Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain

Cumulative Gain (CG) in top k items is a sum of the relevance grades $rel_i \in \mathbb{N}$ corresponding to every i -th retrieved item (Järvelin et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2013):

$$CG = \sum_{i=1}^k rel_i$$

Discounted Cumulative Gain (DCG) is a CG divided by the logarithm of each item's position:

$$DCG = rel_1 + \sum_{i=2}^k \frac{rel_i}{\log_2 i}$$

Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain (NDCG) is the fraction of the obtained DCG in the “perfect” DCG:

$$NDCG = \frac{DCG}{\text{ideal DCG}}$$

pFound is a cascade probabilistic ranked evaluation measure that simulates how a user looks at the search results.

The user looks at items sequentially in top-down order and stops if either the relevant item is found or they gave up with probability p_{Break} .

$$\text{pFound} = \sum_{i=1}^n \overbrace{\text{pLook}[i]}^{\text{user looks at } i\text{-th item}} \cdot \overbrace{\text{pRel}[i]}^{i\text{-th item is relevant}}$$

$$\text{pLook}[i] = \begin{cases} 1, & i = 1 \\ \text{pLook}[i - 1] \cdot (1 - \text{pRel}[i - 1]) \cdot (1 - \text{pBreak}), & i \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{pBreak} = 0.15$$

Invented at Yandex and was the optimization goal back in 2007 (Segalovich, 2010); similar to Expected Reciprocal Rank (Chapelle et al., 2009, Section 7.2).

Expected Reciprocal Rank

Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR) is the mean rank position of the first relevant item (rank) in all the queries Q (Voorhees, 1999):

$$\text{MRR} = \frac{1}{|Q|} \sum_{q \in Q} \frac{1}{\text{rank}_q}$$

Expected Reciprocal Rank (ERR) is the expected reciprocal length of time that the user will take to find a relevant document (Chapelle et al., 2009)

$$\text{ERR} = \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{r-1} (1 - R_i) \cdot R_r \right)$$

To translate relevance grades to probability of relevance, we define $R_g : g \rightarrow [0; 1], \forall g \in \{0, \dots, g_{\max}\}$ and then compute the score:

$$R_g = \frac{2^g - 1}{2^{g_{\max}}}$$

Expected Reciprocal Rank: Algorithm

Input: relevance grades $g_r, 1 \leq r \leq n$, mapping $R : g_r \rightarrow [0; 1]$

Output: expected reciprocal rank ERR

- 1: $p \leftarrow 1$
- 2: $\text{ERR} \leftarrow 0$
- 3: **for** $r \leftarrow 1 \dots n$ **do**
- 4: $v \leftarrow R(g_r)$
- 5: $\text{ERR} \leftarrow \text{ERR} + p \cdot \frac{v}{r}$
- 6: $p \leftarrow p \cdot (1 - v)$
- 7: **return** ERR

Expected Reciprocal Rank: Discussion

Pros:

- + Sound method that takes into account user behaviour
- + Fast; running time is $O(n)$

Cons:

- Model assumptions need to be met
- Low discriminative power (Sakai, 2006)

Ranked Evaluation: Wrap-Up

- Use MAP for binary relevance, NDCG for graded relevance, and ERR for graded relevance with user's behaviour
- **Implementations:** [scikit-learn](#) (Pedregosa et al., 2011), [RankEval](#) (Lucchese et al., 2017)



Source: Dumlao (2017)

Section 5

Statistical Significance

Statistical Significance

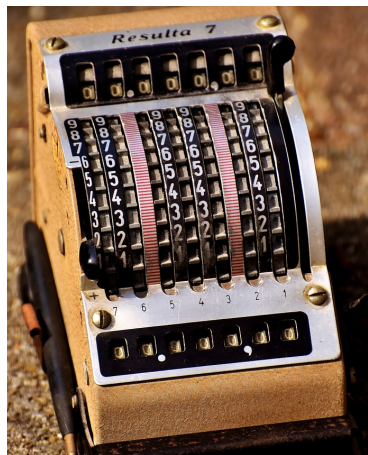
- How to determine if the method is not just good, but it outperforms other approaches?
- Just computing evaluation scores is not sufficient
- We perform a statistical test, e.g., Z-test, t-test, etc.
- In this section we will focus on simple permutation testing



Source: Merrill (2014)

Permutation Testing

- Use computationally-intensive **randomization tests** for precision, recall, and F-score (Yeh, 2000)
- “No difference in means after *shuffling*”
- Consider the sigf toolkit (Padó, 2006) that implements these tests in Java



Source: Alexas.Fotos (2017)

Randomization Test for Average Values

Input: vectors \vec{A} and \vec{B} , number of trials $N \in \mathbb{N}$

Output: two-tailed p -value

- 1: uncommon $\leftarrow \{1 \leq i \leq |\vec{A}| : A_i \neq B_i\}$
- 2: $s \leftarrow 0$
- 3: **for all** $1 \leq n \leq N$ **do**
- 4: $\vec{A}' \leftarrow \vec{A}$ ▷ Copy \vec{A}
- 5: $\vec{B}' \leftarrow \vec{B}$ ▷ Copy \vec{B}
- 6: **for all** $i \in \text{uncommon}$ **do**
- 7: **if** $\text{random}(\{0, 1\}) = 0$ **then** ▷ Flip a coin
- 8: $A'_i, B'_i \leftarrow B_i, A_i$ ▷ Shuffle by swapping the values if tails
- 9: **if** $|\text{mean}(\vec{A}') - \text{mean}(\vec{B}')| \geq |\text{mean}(\vec{A}) - \text{mean}(\vec{B})|$ **then**
- 10: $s \leftarrow s + 1$ ▷ The test is two-tailed
- 11: **return** $\frac{s}{N}$ ▷ This value can be compared to a significance level

Randomization Test for Average Values: Example

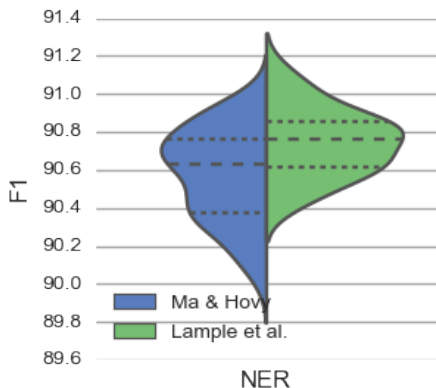
Example from Padó (2006):

- $\vec{A} = (1, 2, 1, 2, 2, \mathbf{2}, 0)$, $\text{mean}(\vec{A}) \approx 1.4286$
- $\vec{B} = (4, 5, 5, 4, 3, \mathbf{2}, 1)$, $\text{mean}(\vec{B}) \approx 3.4286$
- $\text{uncommon} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7\}$
- $|\text{mean}(\vec{A}) - \text{mean}(\vec{B})| = 2$
- $N = 10^6$
- $p \approx 0.0313$
- Given the significance level of 0.05, the difference is significant

This technique can be generalized to the F-score and others (Yeh, 2000).

Statistical Significance: Wrap-Up

- Always perform statistical testing
- Report not only statistical significance, but also the score distributions (Reimers et al., 2017)
- The topic is huge and deserves a dedicated course; see more in the context of NLP in Dror et al. (2018)



Source: Reimers et al. (2017)

Section 6

Inter-Rater Agreement

Inter-Rater Agreement

- How *reliable* is the annotation?
- In the example in 51.1% cases the raters agree with each other, is it a good thing?
- A low value indicates issues with task design and difficulty: the answers might make no sense

	w ₁	w ₂	w ₃	w ₄
t ₁	NN		NN	NN
t ₂	NN	VBP	VBP	NN
t ₃	VBP	VBP	VBP	NN
t ₄	VBP	NN	NN	VBP

Krippendorff's α (2018) is a versatile inter-rater agreement measure that takes into account the *observed* disagreement D_o and the *expected* disagreement D_e :

$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{D_o}{D_e}$$

α is chance-corrected, handles missing values, and allows for arbitrary distance functions (binary, nominal, interval, etc.)

In the *nominal* case of C classes α is computed using a coincidence matrix $O \in \mathbb{R}^{|C| \times |C|}$:

$$\text{nominal}\alpha = 1 - (n - 1) \frac{n - \sum_{c \in C} O_{cc}}{n^2 - \sum_{c \in C} n_c^2},$$

where $n_c = \sum_{k \in C} O_{ck}$ and $n = \sum_{c \in C} n_c$.

Krippendorff's α : Algorithm

Input: m raters, N tasks, C classes,
data matrix $U \in (\{-\} \cup C)^{m \times |N|}$

Output: $0 \leq \text{nominal} \alpha \leq 1$

1: $O_{ck} \leftarrow 0$ **for all** $c \in C, k \in C$

2: **for all** $u \in N$ **do**

3: **for all** $c, k \in P(U_u^\top, 2)$ **do** ▷ Each possible non-missing (c, k) pair

4: $O_{ck} \leftarrow O_{ck} + \frac{1}{m_u - 1}$ ▷ m_u is the number of raters in task u

5: $n_c \leftarrow \sum_{k \in C} O_{ck}$ **for all** $c \in C$

6: $n \leftarrow \sum_{c \in C} n_c$

7: **return** $1 - (n - 1) \frac{n - \sum_{c \in C} O_{cc}}{n^2 - \sum_{c \in C} n_c^2}$

▷ Missing values are $(-)$

▷ Each task

▷ Each possible non-missing (c, k) pair

▷ m_u is the number of raters in task u

Krippendorff's α : Example

$$O = \begin{pmatrix} 4.33 & 3.67 \\ 3.67 & 3.33 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$n_c = (8 \quad 7)$$

$$n = 15$$

	U^T			
	w_1	w_2	w_3	w_4
t_1	NN		NN	NN
t_2	NN	VBP	VBP	NN
t_3	VBP	VBP	VBP	NN
t_4	VBP	NN	NN	VBP

$$\begin{aligned} \text{nominal } \alpha &= 1 - (n - 1) \frac{n - \sum_{c \in C} O_{cc}}{n^2 - \sum_{c \in C} n_c^2} = 1 - 14 \frac{15 - (4.33 + 3.33)}{15^2 - (8^2 + 7^2)} \\ &= 1 - \frac{102.76}{112} \approx 0.083 \end{aligned}$$

Inter-Rater Agreement: Discussion

- α provides a convenient *single* number indicating the extent of how the raters agree with each other
- **Interpretation** by Krippendorff (2018):
 - $\alpha > 0.800$: reliable annotation (reliability \nRightarrow correctness!)
 - $0.667 \leq \alpha \leq 0.800$: tentative conclusions only
- **Implementations:** [DKPro](#) for Java (Meyer et al., 2014), [NLTK](#) for Python (Bird et al., 2017), [irr](#) for R, etc.
- A good discussion on this topic is available in Artstein et al. (2008)



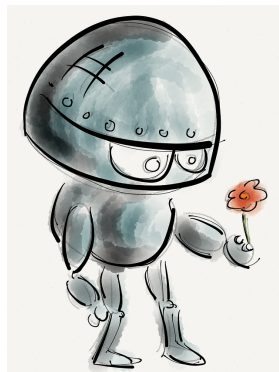
Source: rawpixel (2018)

Section 7

Conclusion

Conclusion

- Choose quality criteria wisely
- Compare the results against those of others
- Perform statistical testing
- Not covered here: taxonomy evaluation (Bordea et al., 2016), online evaluation (Kohavi et al., 2020), behavioural testing (Ribeiro et al., 2020), bootstrap-based testing, regression evaluation



Source: [bamenny \(2016\)](#)

Questions?

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Revision: 47c51af

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