

## EVALUATING MODEL FIT

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#### **EVALUATING MODEL FIT**

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- ▶ Define regularization, bias, and error metrics for regression problems
- ▶ Evaluate model fit using loss functions
- ▶ Select regression methods based on fit and complexity

#### **COURSE**

## PRE-WORK

#### PRE-WORK REVIEW

- ▶ Understand goodness of fit (r-squared)
- ▶ Measure statistical significance of features
- ▶ Recall what a residual is
- ▶ Implement a sklearn estimator to predict a target variable

### R-SQUARED AND RESIDUALS

#### WHAT IS R-SQUARED? WHAT IS A RESIDUAL?

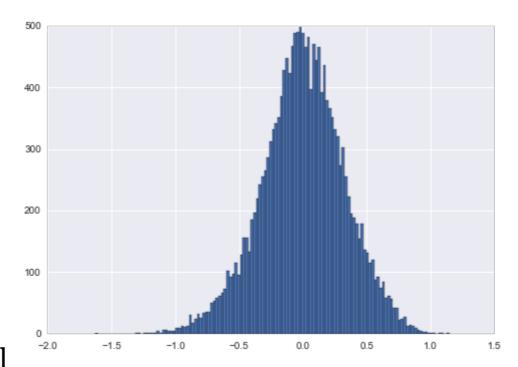
- ▶ R-squared, the central metric introduced for linear regression
- ▶ Which model performed better, one with an r-squared of 0.79 or 0.81?
- $\blacktriangleright$  R-squared measures % of variance in y that is explained by variance in x.
- ▶ But does it tell the magnitude or scale of error?
- ▶ We'll explore loss functions and find ways to refine our model.

#### INTRODUCTION

### LINEAR MODELS AND ERROR

#### **RECALL: WHAT'S RESIDUAL ERROR?**

- In linear models, residual error must be normal with a median close to zero.
- Individual residuals are useful to see the error of specific points, but it doesn't provide an overall picture for optimization.
- We need a metric to summarize the error in our model into one value.
- Mean square error: the mean residual error in our model



- To calculate MSE:
  - ▶ Calculate the difference between each target y and the model's predicted value y-hat (i.e. the residual)
  - ▶ Square each residual.
  - ▶ Take the mean of the squared residual errors.

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

▶ sklearn's metrics module includes a mean\_squared\_error function.

```
from sklearn import metrics
metrics.mean_squared_error(y, model.predict(X))
```

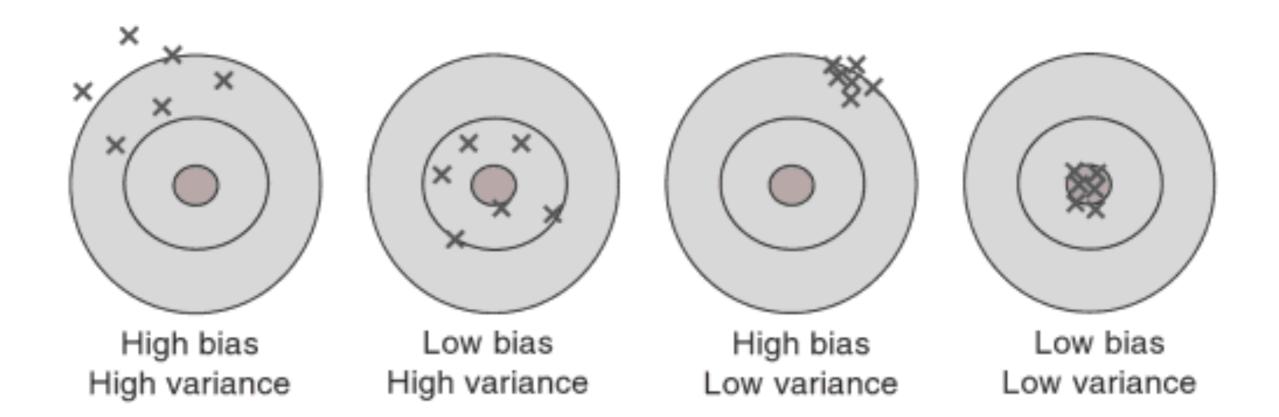
▶ For example, two arrays of the same values would have an MSE of o.

```
from sklearn import metrics
metrics.mean_squared_error([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
0.0
```

▶ Two arrays with different values would have a positive MSE.

```
from sklearn import metrics
metrics.mean_squared_error([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], [5, 4, 3, 2, 1])
# ((-4)^2 + (-2)^2 + 0^2 + 2^2 + 4^2) / 5
8.0
```

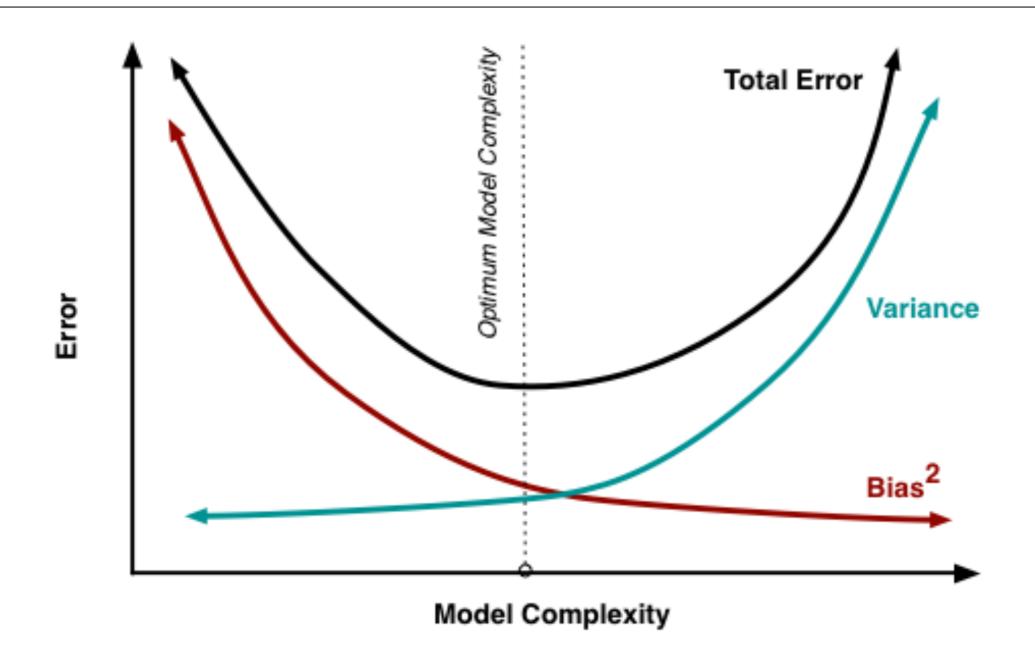
#### **BIAS VS. VARIANCE**



#### **BIAS VARIANCE TRADEOFF**

- When our error is *biased*, it means the model's prediction is consistently far away from the actual value.
- This could be a sign of poor sampling and poor data.
- One objective of a biased model is to trade bias error for generalized error. We prefer the error to be more evenly distributed across the model.
- This is called error due to *variance*.
- We want our model to *generalize* to data it hasn't seen even if doesn't perform as well on data it has already seen.

#### **BIAS VARIANCE TRADEOFF**

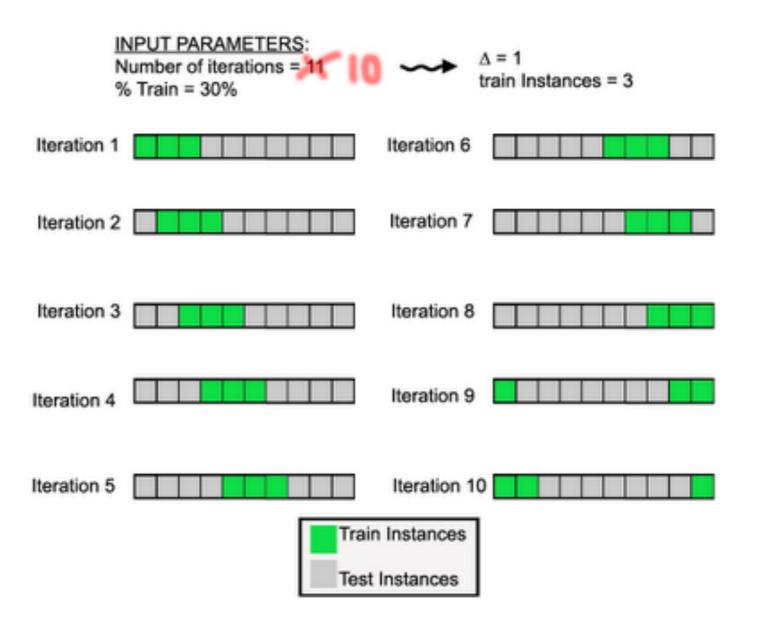


## CROSS VALIDATION

#### **CROSS VALIDATION**

- ▶ Cross validation can help account for bias.
- ▶ The general idea is to
  - Generate several models on different cross sections of the data
  - ▶ Measure the performance of each
  - ▶ Take the mean performance
- This technique swaps bias error for generalized error, describing previous trends accurately enough to extend to future trends.

#### **CROSS VALIDATION**



#### K-FOLD CROSS VALIDATION

- ▶ k-fold cross validation
  - ▶ Split the data into *k* group
  - ▶ Train the model on all segments except one
  - ▶ Test model performance on the remaining set
- ▶ If k = 5, split the data into five segments and generate five models.

#### USING K-FOLD CROSS VALIDATION WITH MSE

Import the appropriate packages and load data.

```
from sklearn import cross_validation
wd = '../../datasets/'
bikeshare = pd.read_csv(wd + 'bikeshare/bikeshare.csv')
weather = pd.get_dummies(bikeshare.weathersit, prefix='weather')
modeldata = bikeshare[['temp', 'hum']].join(weather[['weather_1', 'weather_2', 'weather_3']])
y = bikeshare.casual
```

#### USING K-FOLD CROSS VALIDATION WITH MSE

▶ Build models on subsets of the data and calculate the average score.

```
kf = cross_validation.KFold(len(modeldata), n_folds=5, shuffle=True)
scores = []
for train_index, test_index in kf:
    lm = linear_model.LinearRegression().fit(modeldata.iloc[train_index],
    y.iloc[train_index])
    scores.append(metrics.mean_squared_error(y.iloc[test_index],
lm.predict(modeldata.iloc[test_index])))
print np.mean(scores)
```

#### USING K-FOLD CROSS VALIDATION WITH MSE

▶ This can be compared to the model built on all of the data.

```
- This score will be lower, but we're trading off bias error for
generalized error:
lm = linear_model.LinearRegression().fit(modeldata, y)
print metrics.mean_squared_error(y, lm.predict(modeldata))
```

▶ Which approach would predict new data more accurately?

# CROSS VALIDATION WITH LINEAR REGRESSION

#### **ACTIVITY: CROSS VALIDATION WITH LINEAR REGRESSION**

## EXERCISE

#### **DIRECTIONS (20 minutes)**

If we were to continue increasing the number of folds in cross validation, would error increase or decrease?

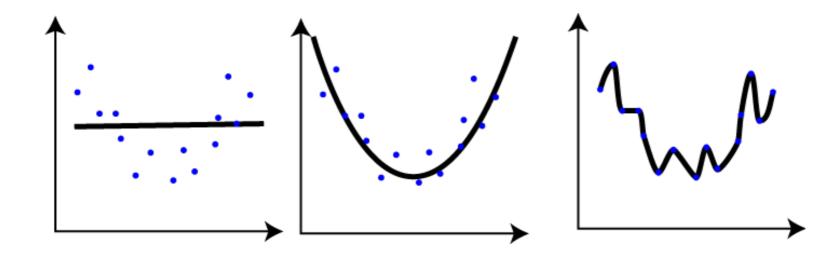
- 1. Using the previous code example, perform k-fold cross validation for all even numbers between 2 and 50.
- 2. Answer the following questions:
  - a. What does shuffle=True do?
  - b. At what point does cross validation no longer seem to help the model?
- 3. Hint: range(2, 51, 2) produces a list of even numbers from 2 to 50

#### DELIVERABLE

Answers to questions

## REGULARIZATION AND CROSS VALIDATION

#### WHAT IS OVERFITTING?



- ▶ The first model poorly explains the data.
- ▶ The second model explains the general curve of the data.
- The third model drastically overfits the model, bending to every point.
- ▶ Regularization helps prevent the third model.

#### WHAT IS REGULARIZATION? AND WHY DO WE USE IT?

- Regularization is an additive approach to protect models against overfitting (being potentially biased and overconfident, not generalizing well).
- ▶ Regularization becomes an additional weight to coefficients, shrinking them closer to zero.
- L1 (Lasso Regression) adds the extra weight to coefficients.
- L2 (Ridge Regression) adds the square of the extra weight to coefficients.
- Use Lasso when we have more features than observations (k > n) and Ridge otherwise.

#### WHERE REGULARIZATION MAKES SENSE

▶ What happens to MSE if use Lasso or Ridge Regression directly?

```
lm = linear_model.LinearRegression().fit(modeldata, y)
print metrics.mean_squared_error(y, lm.predict(modeldata))
lm = linear_model.Lasso().fit(modeldata, y)
print metrics.mean_squared_error(y, lm.predict(modeldata))
lm = linear_model.Ridge().fit(modeldata, y)
print metrics.mean_squared_error(y, lm.predict(modeldata))
l672.58110765 # OLS
l725.41581608 # L1
l672.60490113 # L2
```

#### WHERE REGULARIZATION MAKES SENSE

- ▶ It doesn't seem to help. Why is that?
- ▶ We need to optimize the regularization weight parameter (called alpha) through cross validation.

#### **ACTIVITY: KNOWLEDGE CHECK**

#### **ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS (5 minutes)**



- 1. Why is regularization important?
- 2. What does it protect against and how?

#### **DELIVERABLE**

Answers to the above questions

## UNDERSTANDING REGULARIZATION EFFECTS

#### QUICK CHECK

- ▶ We are working with the bikeshare data to predict riders over hours/days with a few features.
- ▶ Does it make sense to use a ridge regression or a lasso regression?
- ▶ Why?

#### UNDERSTANDING REGULARIZATION EFFECTS

Let's test a variety of alpha weights for Ridge Regression on the bikeshare data.

```
alphas = np.logspace(-10, 10, 21)
for a in alphas:
    print 'Alpha:', a
    lm = linear_model.Ridge(alpha=a)
    lm.fit(modeldata, y)
    print lm.coef_
    print metrics.mean_squared_error(y, lm.predict(modeldata))
```

▶ What happens to the weights of the coefficients as alpha increases? What happens to the error as alpha increases?

#### **WE CAN MAKE THIS EASIER WITH GRID SEARCH!**

▶ Grid search exhaustively searches through all given options to find the best solution. Grid search will try all combos given in param\_grid.

```
param_ grid = {
   'intercept': [True, False],
   'alpha': [1, 2, 3],
}
```

#### **WE CAN MAKE THIS EASIER WITH GRID SEARCH!**

- ▶ This param grid has six different options:
  - ▶ intercept True, alpha 1
  - intercept True, alpha 2
  - ▶ intercept True, alpha 3
  - ▶ intercept False, alpha 1
  - ▶ intercept False, alpha 2
  - ▶ intercept False, alpha 3

```
param_ grid = {
    'intercept': [True,
False],
    'alpha': [1, 2, 3],
}
```

#### **WE CAN MAKE THIS EASIER WITH GRID SEARCH!**

This is an incredibly powerful, automated machine learning tool!

```
from sklearn import grid_search

alphas = np.logspace(-10, 10, 21)

gs = grid_search.GridSearchCV(
        estimator=linear_model.Ridge(),
        param_grid={'alpha': alphas},
        scoring='mean_squared_error')
```

### **WE CAN MAKE THIS EASIER WITH GRID SEARCH!**

```
gs.fit(modeldata, y)

print -gs.best_score_ # mean squared error here comes in
negative, so let's make it positive.
print gs.best_estimator_ # explains which grid_search setup
worked best
print gs.grid_scores_ # shows all the grid pairings and their
performances.
```

# GRID SEARCH CV, SOLVING FOR ALPHA

# **ACTIVITY: GRID SEARCH CV, SOLVING FOR ALPHA**

#### **DIRECTIONS (25 minutes)**



- 1. Modify the previous code to do the following:
  - a. Introduce cross validation into the grid search. This is accessible from the cv argument.
  - b. Add fit\_intercept = True and False to the param\_grid dictionary.
  - c. Re-investigate the best score, best estimator, and grid score attributes as a result of the grid search.

#### DELIVERABLE

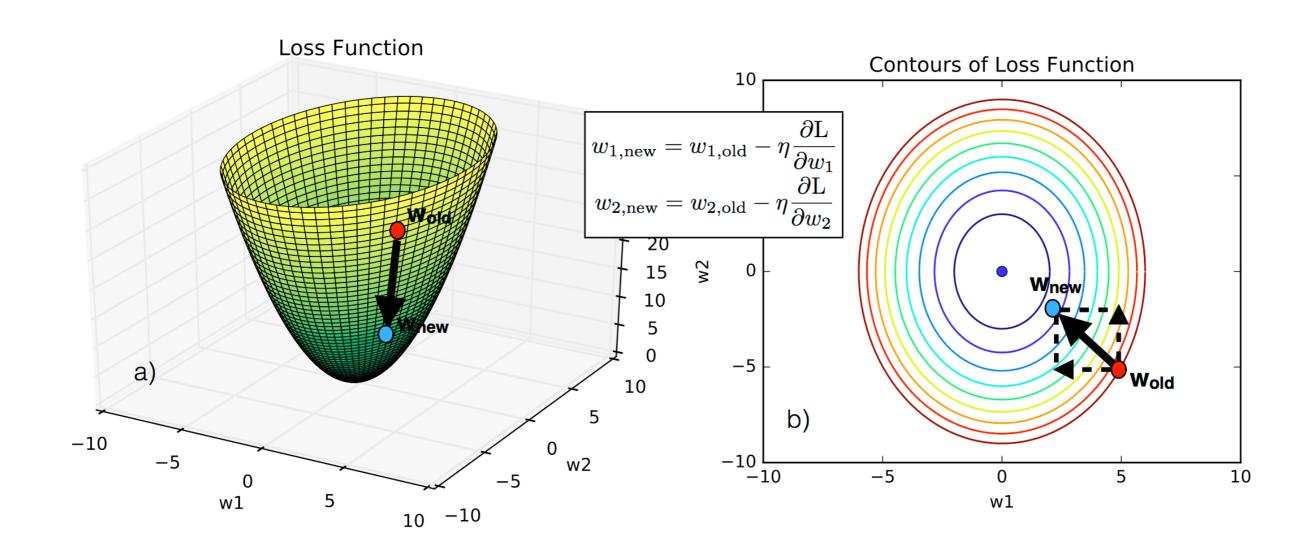
New code and output that meets above requirements

# MINIMIZING LOSS THROUGH GRADIENT DESCENT

## **GRADIENT DESCENT**

- ▶ Gradient Descent can also help us minimize error.
- ▶ How Gradient Descent works:
  - ▶ A random linear solution is provided as a starting point
  - ▶ Takes steps proportional to the negative of the gradient of the cost/ loss function at the current point until it converges to a minimum.

# **GRADIENT DESCENT**



# **GLOBAL VS LOCAL MINIMUMS**

• Gradient Descent could solve for a *local* minimum instead of a *global* minimum.

A *local* minimum is confined to a very specific subset of solutions. The *global* minimum considers all solutions. These could be equal, but that's

not always true.



- Gradient Descent works best when:
  - ▶ We are working with a large dataset. Smaller datasets are more prone to error.
  - ▶ Data is cleaned up and normalized.
- Gradient Descent is significantly faster than OLS for large number of features. This becomes important as data gets bigger.

- ▶ We can easily run a Gradient Descent regression.
- Note: The verbose argument can be set to 1 to see the optimization steps.

```
lm = linear_model.SGDRegressor()
lm.fit(modeldata, y)
print lm.score(modeldata, y)
print metrics.mean_squared_error(y, lm.predict(modeldata))
```

▶ Untuned, how well did gradient descent perform compared to OLS?

- Gradient Descent can be tuned with
  - ▶ the learning rate: how aggressively we solve the problem
  - epsilon: at what point do we say the error margin is acceptable
  - ▶ iterations: when should be we stop no matter what

# INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

# ON YOUR OWN

# **ACTIVITY: ON YOUR OWN**

# EXERCISE

#### **DIRECTIONS (30 minutes)**

There are tons of ways to approach a regression problem.

- 1. Implement the Gradient Descent approach to our bikeshare modeling problem.
- 2. Show how Gradient Descent solves and optimizes the solution.
- 3. Demonstrate the grid\_search module.
- 4. Use a model you evaluated last class or the simpler one from today. Implement param\_grid in grid search to answer the following questions:
  - a. With a set of values between 10^-10 and 10^-1, how does MSE change?
  - b. Our data suggests we use L1 regularization. Using a grid search with l1\_ratios between 0 and 1, increasing every 0.05, does this statement hold true? If not, did gradient descent have enough iterations to work properly?
  - c. How do these results change when you alter the learning rate?

#### **DELIVERABLE**

Gradient Descent approach and answered questions

# **ACTIVITY: ON YOUR OWN**

#### Starter Code

```
shuffle=True),
EXERCISE
```

```
estimator=linear_model.SGDRegressor(),
    cv=cross validation.KFold(len(modeldata), n folds=5,
    param_grid=params,
    scoring='mean_squared_error',
gs.fit(modeldata, y)
print 'BEST ESTIMATOR'
print -gs.best_score_
```

print gs.best estimator

print 'ALL ESTIMATORS'

print gs.grid\_scores\_

gs = grid\_search.GridSearchCV(

params = {} # put your gradient descent parameters here

# **CONCLUSION**

# TOPIC REVIEW

## **LESSON REVIEW**

- ▶ What's the (typical) range of r-squared?
- ▶ What's the range of mean squared error?
- ▶ What's cross validation, and why do we use it in machine learning?
- ▶ What is error due to bias? What is error due to variance? Which is better for a model to have, if it had to have one?
- ▶ How does gradient descent try a different approach to minimizing error?

# **COURSE**

# BEFORE NEXT CLASS

# **BEFORE NEXT CLASS**

# **DUE DATE**

- ▶ Homework:
- ▶ Project: Final Project, Deliverable 1

# **LESSON**

Q&A

### **LESSON**

# EXIT TICKET

DON'T FORGET TO FILL OUT YOUR EXIT TICKET