# Introduction to Scikit-Learn: Machine Learning with Python

**Validation and Model Selection** 

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#### **About validation**

One of the most important pieces of machine learning is **model validation**: that is, checking how well your model fits a given dataset.

# Is our model any good?

- Accuracy
- Computation time
- Interpretability

# 3 Types of Tasks to Bear in Mind

- Classification
- Regression
- Clustering

#### Classification

- Accuracy and Error
- Accuracy goes up when Error goes down

$$Accuracy = \frac{\text{correctly classified instances}}{\text{total amount of classified instances}}$$

$$Error = 1 - Accuracy$$

#### Consider the Titanic Kaggle dataset we've introduced previously

```
In [1]: | !kaggle competitions download -c titanic --force
```

401 - Unauthorized

#### In [2]: | import pandas as pd

train = pd.read\_csv("train.csv") train.head()

#### Out[2]:

	PassengerId	Survived	Pclass	Name	Sex	Age	SibSp	Parch	Ticket	Fare	Cabin	Embarked
0	1	0	3	Braund, Mr. Owen Harris	male	22.0	1	0	A/5 21171	7.2500	NaN	S
1	2	1	1	Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs Th	female	38.0	1	0	PC 17599	71.2833	C85	С
2	3	1	3	Heikkinen, Miss. Laina	female	26.0	0	0	STON/O2. 3101282	7.9250	NaN	S
3	4	1	1	Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)	female	35.0	1	0	113803	53.1000	C123	S
4	5	0	3	Allen, Mr. William Henry	male	35.0	0	0	373450	8.0500	NaN	S

#### **About the Titanic Shipwrecks History**

The sinking of the RMS Titanic is one of the most infamous shipwrecks in history. On April 15, 1912, during her maiden voyage, the Titanic sank after colliding with an iceberg, killing 1502 out of 2224 passengers and crew. This sensational tragedy shocked the international community and led to better safety regulations for ships.

One of the reasons that the shipwreck led to such loss of life was that there were not enough lifeboats for the passengers and crew. Although there was some element of luck involved in surviving the sinking, some groups of people were more likely to survive than others, such as women, children, and the upper-class.

Using a dummy classifier built with our instincts

```
In [3]: import numpy as np

def dummy_classifier(x):
    if x == "male":
        return 0
    else:
        return 1
```

#### Now we'll use this classifier to predict labels for the data

```
In [4]: y_pred = np.array(list(map(dummy_classifier, train["Sex"])))
    y_train = train["Survived"].values
    accuracy = (y_pred == y_train).sum() / y_pred.size
```

#### How might we check how well our model performs?

```
In [5]: | print("Predicted labels:")
       print(y pred[:30])
       print("=====")
       print("Real labels:")
       print(y train[:30])
       print("=====")
       print("{} / {} correct".format((y pred == y train).sum(), y pred.size))
       print("Accuracy: {:.2f}%".format(accuracy*100))
       Predicted labels:
       [0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1
       =====
       Real labels:
       =====
       701 / 891 correct
       Accuracy: 78.68%
```

### Limits of Accuracy: Classifying very rare heart disease

- Classify all as negative (not sick)
- Predict 99 correct (not sick) and miss 1
- Accuracy: 99%
- Missed every positive case

#### **Confusion Matrix**

- Rows and columns contain all available labels
- Each cell contains frequency of instances that are classified in a certain way

		True con	dition			
	Total population	Condition positive	Condition negative	$\frac{\sum Condition\ positive}{\sum Total\ population}$	Accuracy (A Σ True positive + Σ Σ Σ Total popu	True negative
Predicted	Predicted condition positive	True positive, Power	False positive, Type I error	Positive predictive value (PPV), Precision $= \frac{\Sigma \text{ True positive}}{\Sigma \text{ Predicted condition positive}}$	False discovery rate (FDR) = $\Sigma$ False positive $\Sigma$ Predicted condition positive	
condition	Predicted condition negative	False negative, Type II error	True negative	False omission rate (FOR) = $\Sigma$ False negative $\Sigma$ Predicted condition negative	Negative predictive value (NPV) = $\frac{\Sigma \text{ True negative}}{\Sigma \text{ Predicted condition negative}}$	
		True positive rate (TPR), Recall, Sensitivity, probability of detection = $\frac{\Sigma}{\Sigma}$ True positive True positive	False positive rate (FPR), Fall-out, probability of false alarm $= \frac{\Sigma \text{ False positive}}{\Sigma \text{ Condition negative}}$	Positive likelihood ratio (LR+) = TPR FPR	Diagnostic odds ratio (DOR) = LR+	F <sub>1</sub> score =
		False negative rate (FNR), Miss rate $= \frac{\Sigma \text{ False negative}}{\Sigma \text{ Condition positive}}$	$\label{eq:Specificity} \begin{aligned} \text{Specificity (SPC), Selectivity, True negative} \\ \text{rate (TNR)} &= \frac{\Sigma \text{ True negative}}{\Sigma \text{ Condition negative}} \end{aligned}$	Negative likelihood ratio (LR-) = FNR TNR	$ratio (DOR) = \frac{1}{LR}$ 2.	Precision · Recall Precision + Recall

Source: <a href="https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confusion">https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confusion</a> matrix <a href="mailto:(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confusion">(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confusion</a> matrix)

## **Important Confusion Matrix Components**

- True positive
- True negative
- False positive
- False negative

### Classifying very rare heart disease again

• True positive: 0

• True negative: 99

• False positive: 0

• False negative: 1

#### Using recall and precision for the case now

Recall

$$Recall = \frac{\text{True positive}}{\text{Condition positive}} = \frac{0}{1} = 0\%$$

Precision

$$Precision = \frac{\text{True positive}}{\text{Predicted condition positive}} = \frac{0}{0} = \text{Undefined}$$

#### Getting Confusion Matrix through Scikit-Learn

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.metrics.confusion matrix.html (https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.metrics.confusion matrix.html)

```
In [6]: from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix

cm = confusion_matrix(y_train, y_pred)
tn = cm[0, 0]
tp = cm[1, 1]
fn = cm[1, 0]
fp = cm[0, 1]
print(cm)
print("True positive: {}".format(tp))
print("True negative: {}".format(tn))
print("False negative: {}".format(fn))
print("False positive: {}".format(fp))
```

[[468 81] [109 233]] True positive: 233 True negative: 468 False negative: 109 False positive: 81

#### Regression

- Mean Square Error(MSE)
- Mean distance between estimates and regression line

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

 $y_i$ : actual outcome for obs. i

 $\hat{y}_i$ : predicted outcome for obs. i

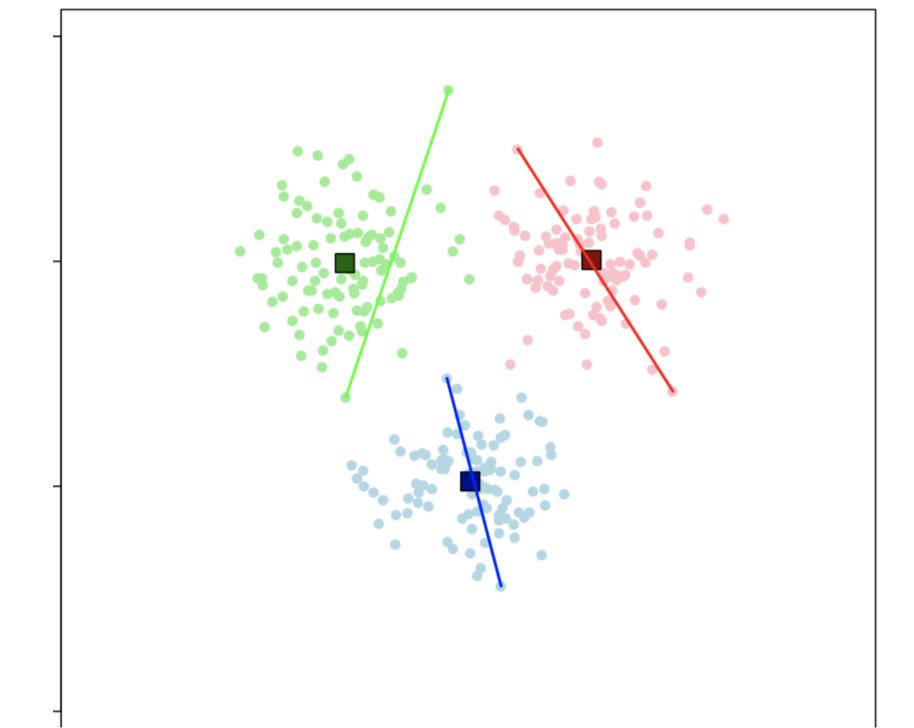
*m*: Number of obs.

### Clustering

- No label information
- Performance measure consists of 2 elements:
  - Similarity within each cluster
  - Similarity between clusters

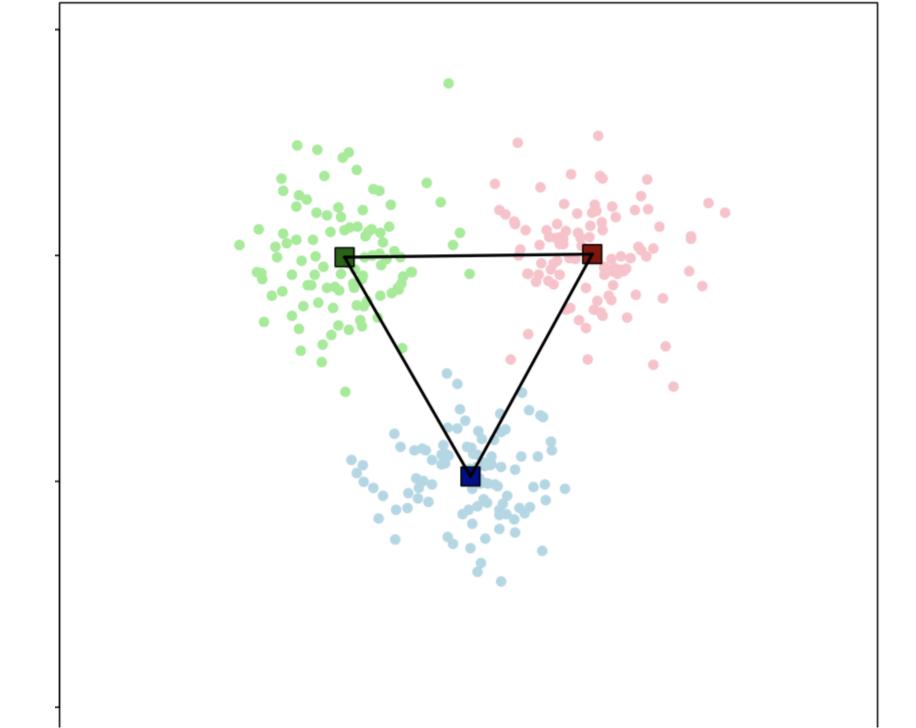
## Similarity within each cluster

- Within sum of squares (WSS)
- Minimize diameter



# Similarity between clusters

- Between cluster sum of squares (BSS)
- Maximize intercluster distance



# Using Dunn's Index to identify the performance of clustering $Dunn'sIndex = \frac{\text{minimal intercluster distance}}{\text{maximal diameter}}$

**Validation Sets** 

#### Machine Learning vs. Statistics

- Predictive power vs. descriptive power
- Supervised learning: model must predict **unseen** observations
- Statistics: model must fit data to explain or describe data

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#### Training on training set, not on complete dataset

- Using test set to validate performance of model
- Sets are disjoint
- Model tested on unseen observations in order to be generalized

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- Using test set to validate performance of model
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X2,1	<b>X</b> 2,2	 <b>X</b> 2,K	<b>y</b> 2
X <sub>r,1</sub>	X <sub>r,2</sub>	 X <sub>r,K</sub>	<b>y</b> r
X <sub>r+1,1</sub>	<b>X</b> r+1,2	 X <sub>r+1,K</sub>	yr+1
X <sub>r+2,1</sub>	<b>X</b> r+2,2	 <b>X</b> r+2,K	yr+2
XN,1	X <sub>N,2</sub>	 X <sub>N,K</sub>	УN

Training set

Test set

Use to predict y: ŷ ← → real y compare them

Training/test set are mainly used in supervised learning, not for unsupervised due to data not labeled

#### How to split the sets?

- Which observations go where?
- Training set should be larger than test set
- Typically about 3:1
- Quite arbitrary
- Generally: more data -> better model
- Test set not too small

#### Distribution of the sets

- For classification:
  - Classes must have similar distributions
  - Avoid a class not being available in a set
- For classification and regression:
  - Shuffling dataset before splitting

```
In [7]: from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
    import pandas as pd

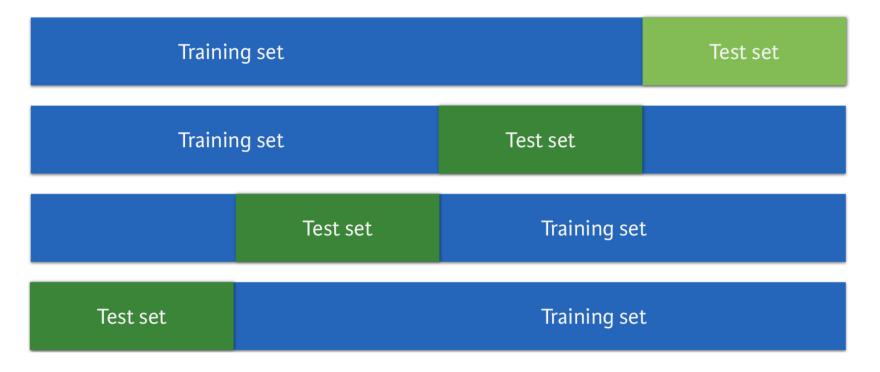
    train = pd.read_csv("train.csv")
    X_train = train.drop("Survived", axis=1).values
    y_train = train["Survived"].values
    X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X_train, y_train)
    print(train.shape)
    print(X_train.shape)
    print(Y_train.shape)
    print(y_train.shape)
    print(y_test.shape)
```

(891, 12) (668, 11) (223, 11) (668,) (223,) Create a train\_test\_split function by ourselves

#### Sampling can affect performance measures

- Adding robustness to these measures: cross-validation
- Core idea of cross-validation: Sampling multiple times, with different separations

#### What a 4-fold cross-validation looks like?



```
In [8]:
        from sklearn.model selection import KFold
        import pandas as pd
        train = pd.read csv("train.csv")
        kf = KFold(n splits=4, shuffle=True, random state=123)
        for train index, test index in kf.split(train):
            print("TRAIN:", train index)
            print("TEST:", test index)
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```
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139 140 141 146 154 158 176 180 186 187 193 194 197 198 206 207 208 213
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312 315 319 321 322 323 325 339 340 341 342 354 357 358 359 360 364 365
371 377 380 382 385 390 393 394 401 407 409 410 411 412 418 419 420 424
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790 797 805 806 811 817 819 823 826 829 837 840 843 846 847 849 850 857
869 873 882 884 887 889]
```

#### k-fold cross-validation

- Fold test set over dataset n times
- Each test set is 1/k size of total dataset

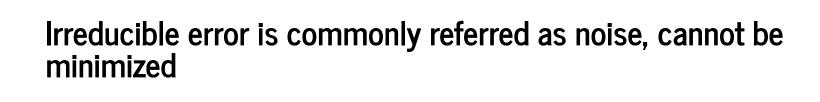
```
In [9]: | import numpy as np
        import pandas as pd
        from sklearn.model selection import train test split
        from sklearn.model selection import KFold
        def dummy classifier(x):
            if x == "male":
                return 0
            else:
                return 1
        train = pd.read csv("train.csv")
        X train = train["Sex"].values
        y train = train["Survived"].values
        X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X train, y train)
        kf = KFold(n splits=10, shuffle=True, random state=123)
        for train index, valid index in kf.split(X train):
            X valid cv = X train[valid index]
            y valid cv = y train[valid index]
            y pred cv = np.array(list(map(dummy classifier, X valid cv)))
            accuracy = (y pred cv == y valid cv).sum() / y pred cv.size
            print("Accuracy: {:.2f}%".format(accuracy*100))
```

Accuracy: 73.13%
Accuracy: 73.13%
Accuracy: 82.09%
Accuracy: 74.63%
Accuracy: 80.60%
Accuracy: 86.57%
Accuracy: 80.60%
Accuracy: 76.12%
Accuracy: 74.24%
Accuracy: 84.85%

**Bias and Variance** 

#### The main goal of supervised learning is prediction

Prediction error can be decomposed as **reducible** and **irreducible** error



#### Reducible error is commonly caused by model unfit

- We can try to minize it!
- Reducible error is split into bias and variance

## A quick recap

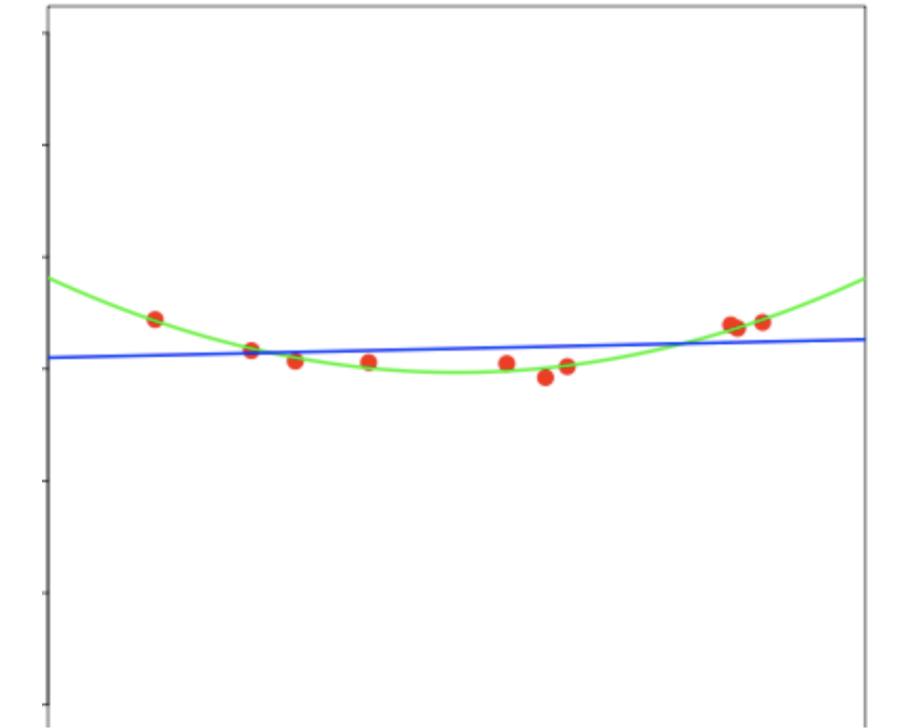
- Prediction errors
  - Irreducible error
  - Reducible error
    - Bias
    - Variance

#### Bias: wrong assumptions

- Difference between predictions and truth
- Using models trained by a specific learning algorithm

## An example of bias

Quadratic data but using linear model

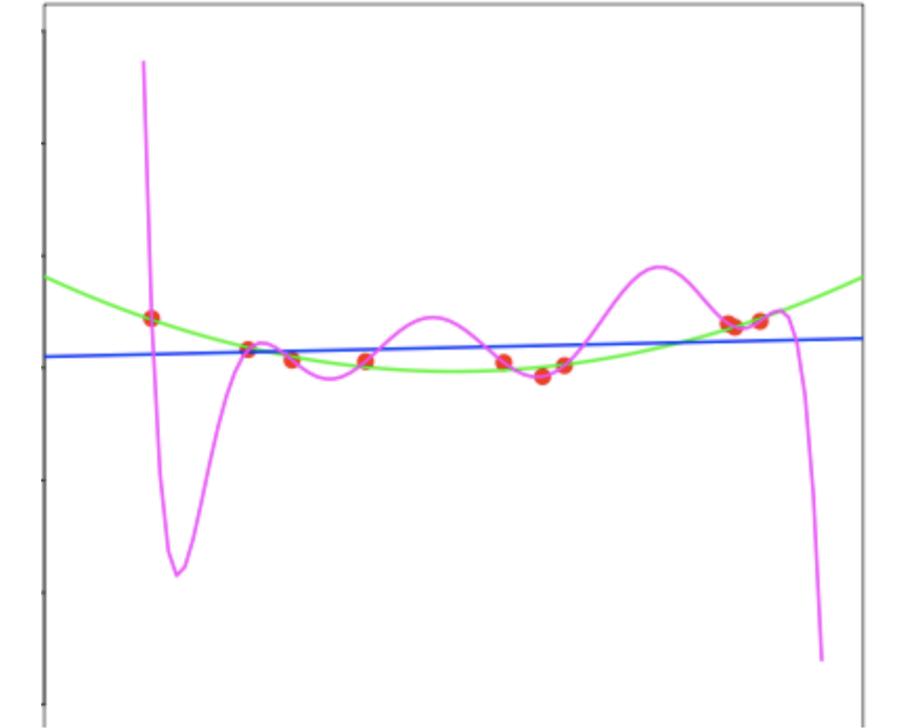


### Variance: sampling of the training set

• Model with high variance fits **training set** closely

## An example of variance

- Quadratic data using polynomial model fits perfectly through training set
- High variance leads model generalizing bad to test set



#### **Bias and Variance Tradeoff**

- low bias leads to high variance
- low variance leads to high bias

## Overfitting

- Model fits **training set** a lot better than test set
- High variance
- Too specific

## **Underfitting**

- Model does not fit **training set**, nor does **test set**
- High bias
- Too general

#### The importance

The issues associated with validation and cross-validation are some of the most important aspects of the practice of machine learning.

# If our estimator is underperforming, how should we move forward?

- Use simpler or more complicated model?
- Add more features to each observed data point?
- Add more training samples?

#### The answer is often counter-intuitive

In particular, Sometimes using a more complicated model will give worse results. Also, Sometimes adding training data will not improve your results. The ability to determine what steps will improve your model is what separates the successful machine learning practitioners from the unsuccessful.

#### Illustration of the Bias-Variance Tradeoff

```
In [10]: def test_func(x, err=0.5):
    y = 10 - 1. / (x + 0.1)
    if err > 0:
        y = np.random.normal(y, err)
    return y
```

Now let's create a realization of this dataset:

```
In [11]: def make_data(N=40, error=1.0, random_seed=1):
    # randomly sample the data
    np.random.seed(1)
    X = np.random.random(N)[:, np.newaxis]
    y = test_func(X.ravel(), error)

return X, y
```

```
In [12]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

X, y = make_data(40, error=1)
   plt.scatter(X.ravel(), y)
   plt.show()
```

<Figure size 640x480 with 1 Axes>

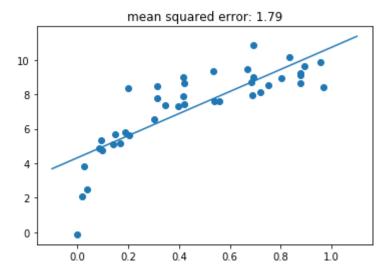
Now say we want to perform a regression on this data. Let's use the built-in linear regression function to compute a fit:

```
In [13]: X_test = np.linspace(-0.1, 1.1, 500)[:, None]

from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
model = LinearRegression()
model.fit(X, y)
y_test = model.predict(X_test)

plt.scatter(X.ravel(), y)
plt.plot(X_test.ravel(), y_test)
plt.title("mean squared error: {0:.3g}".format(mean_squared_error(model.predict(X ), y)))
```

Out[13]: Text(0.5, 1.0, 'mean squared error: 1.79')



```
In [14]: plt.show()
```

# We have fit a straight line to the data, but clearly this model is not a good choice

We say that this model is **biased**, or that it **under-fits** the data.

## Let's try to improve this by creating a more complicated model

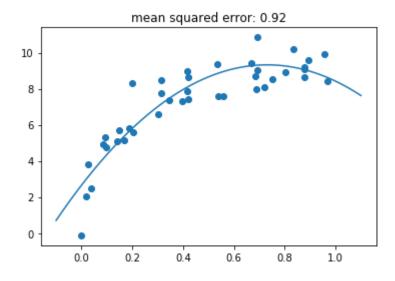
We can do this by adding degrees of freedom, and computing a polynomial regression over the inputs.

Now we'll use this to fit a quadratic curve to the data.

```
In [16]: model = PolynomialRegression(2)
    model.fit(X, y)
    y_test = model.predict(X_test)

plt.scatter(X.ravel(), y)
    plt.plot(X_test.ravel(), y_test)
    plt.title("mean squared error: {0:.3g}".format(mean_squared_error(model.predict(X ), y)))
```

Out[16]: Text(0.5, 1.0, 'mean squared error: 0.92')



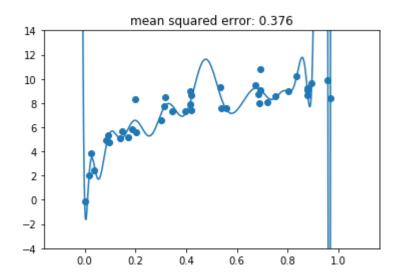
```
In [17]: plt.show()
```

This reduces the mean squared error, and makes a much better fit. What happens if we use an even higher-degree polynomial?

```
In [18]: model = PolynomialRegression(30)
    model.fit(X, y)
    y_test = model.predict(X_test)

plt.scatter(X.ravel(), y)
    plt.plot(X_test.ravel(), y_test)
    plt.title("mean squared error: {0:.3g}".format(mean_squared_error(model.predict(X ), y)))
    plt.ylim(-4, 14)
```

#### Out[18]: (-4, 14)



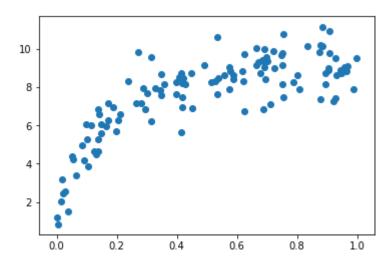
```
In [19]: plt.show()
```

When we increase the degree to this extent, it's clear that the resulting fit is no longer reflecting the true underlying distribution, but is more sensitive to the noise in the training data. For this reason, we call it a <b>high-variance model</b> , and we say that it <b>over-fits</b> the data.

**Detecting Over-fitting with Validation Curves** 

## Computing the error on the training data is not enough

As above, we can use **cross-validation** to get a better handle on how the model fit is working.



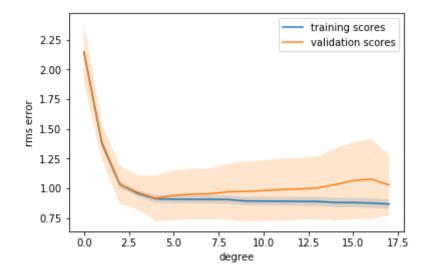
```
In [21]: from sklearn.model_selection import validation_curve

def rms_error(model, X, y):
    y_pred = model.predict(X)
    return np.sqrt(np.mean((y - y_pred) ** 2))

degree = np.arange(0, 18)
  val_train, val_test = validation_curve(PolynomialRegression(), X, y, 'polynomialfe atures__degree', degree, cv=7, scoring=rms_error)
```

### Now let's plot the validation curves:

#### Out[22]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x1a172240f0>



```
In [23]: plt.show()
```

## Notice the trend here

- 1. For a small model complexity, the training error and validation error are very similar. This indicates that the model is **under-fitting** the data: it doesn't have enough complexity to represent the data. Another way of putting it is that this is a **high-bias** model.
- 2. As the model complexity grows, the training and validation scores diverge. This indicates that the model is **over-fitting** the data: it has so much flexibility, that it fits the noise rather than the underlying trend. Another way of putting it is that this is a **high-variance** model.
- 3. Note that the training score (nearly) always improves with model complexity. This is because a more complicated model can fit the noise better, so the model improves. The validation data generally has a sweet spot, which here is around 5 terms.

Here's our best-fit model according to the cross-validation:

```
In [24]: model = PolynomialRegression(4).fit(X, y)
    plt.scatter(X, y)
    plt.plot(X_test, model.predict(X_test))
    plt.show()
```

