

EVALUATING MODELLEIN

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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

PRE-WORK REVIEW

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

WHAT IS R-SQUARED? WHAT IS A RESIDUAL?

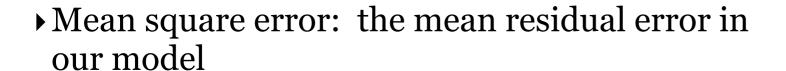
- ▶ R-squared, the central metric introduced for linear regression
- ▶ Which model performed better: one with an r-squared of 0.79 or 0.81?
- ▶ R-squared measures explain variance.
 - ▶ But does it tell the magnitude or scale of error?
- ▶ We'll explore loss functions and find ways to refine our model.

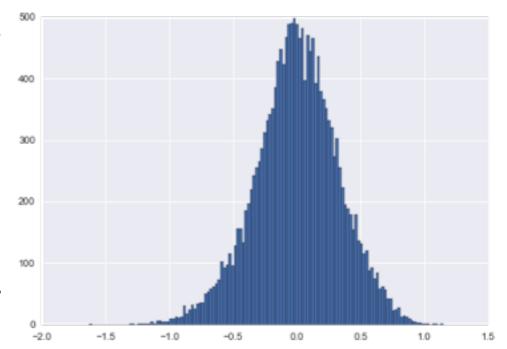
INTRODUCTION

LINEAR MODELS AND ERROR

RECALL: WHAT IS RESIDUAL ERROR?

- In linear models, residual error <u>must</u> 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.





- 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
```

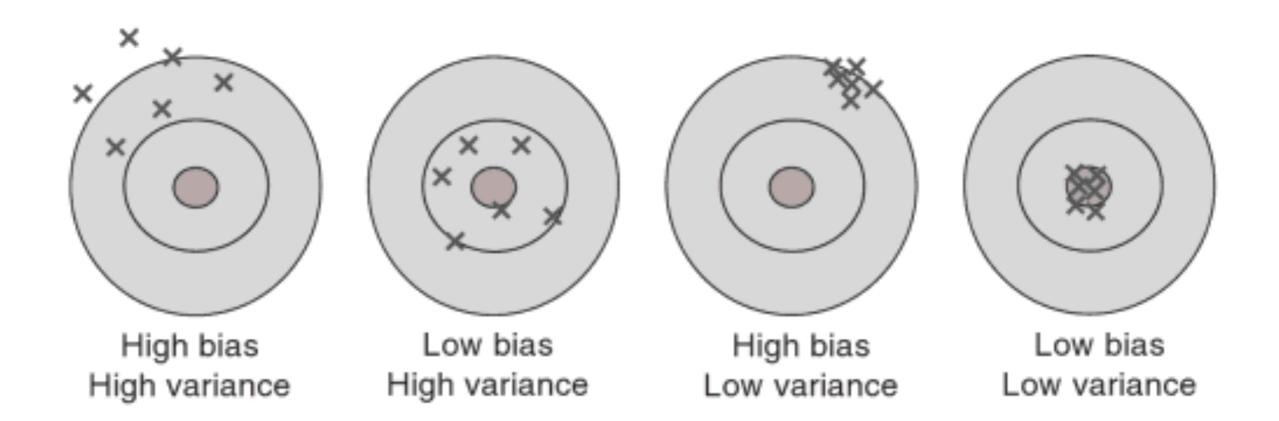
▶ Two arrays with different values would have a positive MSE.

```
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
```

HOW DO WE MINIMIZE ERROR?

- ▶ The regression method we've used is called "Ordinary Least Squares".
- This means that given a matrix X, solve for the *least* amount of square error for y.
- ▶ However, this assumes that X is unbiased, that it is representative of the population.
- ▶ Open starter-code-7

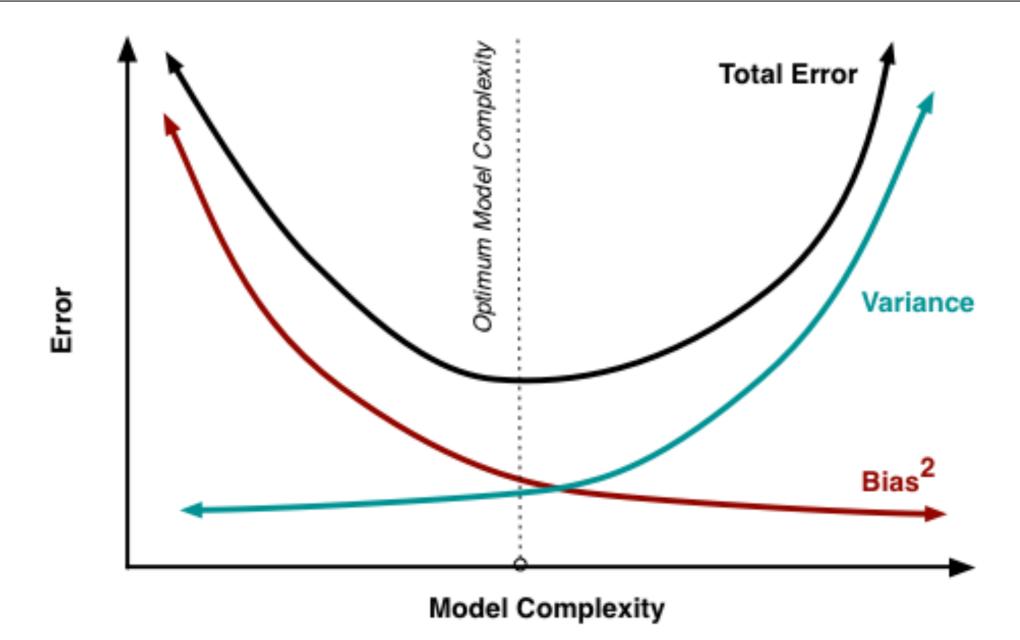
BIAS VS. VARIANCE



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



ACTIVITY: KNOWLEDGE CHECK

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING



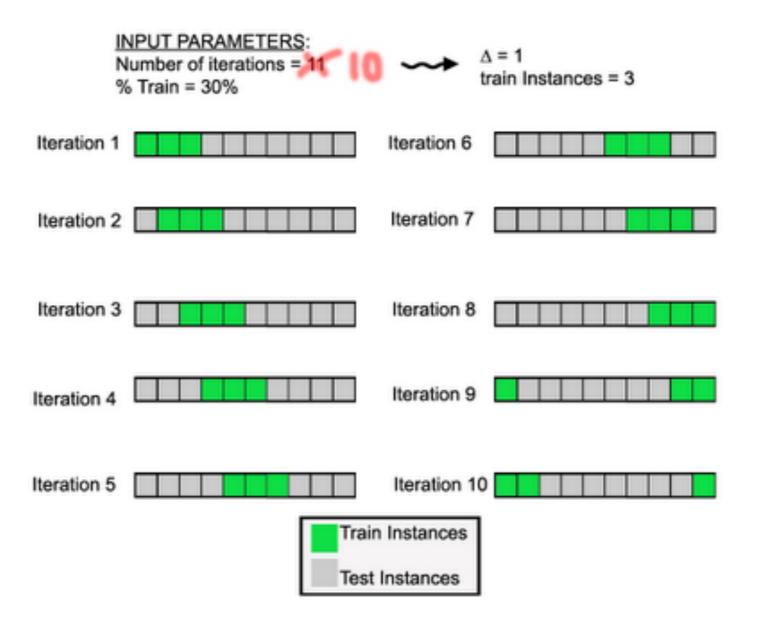
- 1. Which of the following scenarios would be better for a weatherman?
 - a. Knowing that I can very accurately "predict" the temperature outside from previous days perfectly, but be 20-30 degrees off for future days
 - b. Knowing that I can accurately predict the general trend of the temperate outside from previous days, and therefore am at most only 10 degrees off on future days

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?

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?

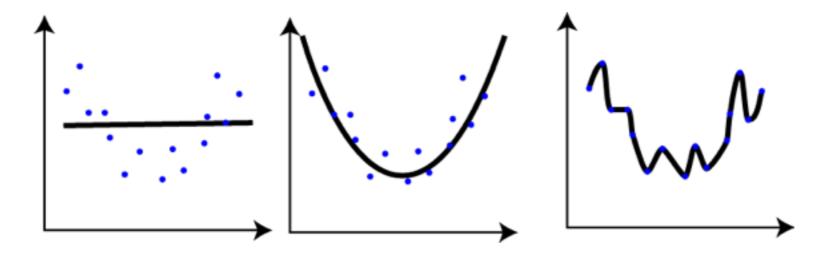
- 1. Using the previous code example, perform k-fold cross validation for all even numbers between 2 and 50.
- 2. Answer the following questions:
 - a. What does shuffle=True do?
 - b. At what point does cross validation no longer seem to help the model?
- 3. Hint: range(2, 51, 2) produces a list of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

REGULARIZATION AND CROSS VALIDATION

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.

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.

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



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

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?

▶ 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],
}
```

- ▶ 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],
}
```

▶ 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')
```

```
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.
```

ACTIVITY: GRID SEARCH CV, SOLVING FOR ALPHA

DIRECTIONS (25 minutes)



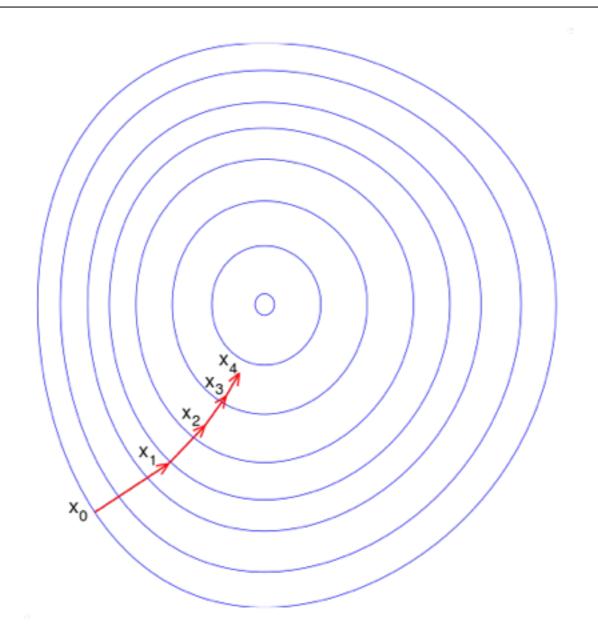
- 1. Modify the previous code to do the following:
 - a. Introduce cross validation into the grid search. This is accessible from the cv argument.
 - b. Add fit_intercept = True and False to the param_grid dictionary.
 - c. Re-investigate the best score, best estimator, and grid score attributes as a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

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
 - The solver attempts to find a next "step": take a step in any direction and measure the performance.
 - If the solver finds a better solution (i.e. lower MSE), this is the new starting point.
 - Repeat these steps until the performance is optimized and no "next steps" perform better. The size of steps will shrink over time.

GRADIENT DESCENT



A CODE EXAMPLE OF GRADIENT DESCENT

```
num to approach, start, steps, optimized = 6.2, 0., [-1, 1], False
while not optimized:
    current_distance = num_to_approach - start
    got_better = False
    next steps = [start + i for i in steps]
    for n in next steps:
        distance = np.abs(num to approach - n)
        if distance < current distance:</pre>
            got better = True
            print distance, 'is better than', current_distance
            current distance = distance
            start = n
```

A CODE EXAMPLE OF GRADIENT DESCENT

```
if got_better:
    print 'found better solution! using', current_distance
    a += 1
else:
    optimized = True
    print start, 'is closest to', num_to_approach
```

▶ What is the code doing? What could go wrong?

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.



APPLICATION OF GRADIENT DESCENT

- 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. This becomes important as data gets bigger.

APPLICATION OF GRADIENT DESCENT

- ▶ 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?

APPLICATION OF GRADIENT DESCENT

- 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

ACTIVITY: PAIRS

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?



ACTIVITY: PAIRS



Starter Code

```
params = {} # put your gradient descent parameters here
gs = grid_search.GridSearchCV(
    estimator=linear_model.SGDRegressor(),
    cv=cross_validation.KFold(len(modeldata), n_folds=5, shuffle=True),
    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_
```

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?

BEFORE NEXT CLASS

Final Project: Part 1

LESSON

Q&A

LESSON

EXIT TICKET

DON'T FORGET TO FILL OUT YOUR EXIT TICKET