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- But how can we predict a categorical label?



- We've explored how to use Linear Regression and its many variations to predict a continuous label.
- But how can we predict a categorical label?
 - Logistic Regression



- Logistic Regression
 - Don't be confused by the use of the term "regression" in its name!
 - Logistic Regression is a classification algorithm designed to predict categorical target labels.



- Logistic Regression Section Overview
 - Mathematical Theory behind Logistic Regression
 - Simple Implementation of Logistic Regression for Classification Problem
 - Multiclass Classification with Logistic Regression



- Logistic Regression Section Overview
 - Interpreting Results
 - Odds Ratio and Coefficients
 - Classification Metrics
 - Accuracy
 - Precision
 - Recall
 - ROC Curves



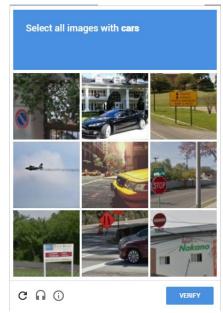
- Logistic Regression will allow us to predict a categorical label based on historical feature data.
- The categorical target column is two or more discrete class labels.



- Classification algorithms predict a class or category label:
 - Class 0: Car Image
 - Class 1: Street Image
 - Class 2: Bridge Image



 You may not have realized you are helping Google label class data!



- Keep in mind, any continuous target can be converted into categories through discretization.
 - Class 0: House Price \$0-100k
 - Class 1: House Price \$100k-200k
 - Class 2: House Price <\$200k



- Classification algorithms also often produce a probability prediction of belonging to a class:
 - Class 0: 10% Probability
 - Class 1: 85% Probability
 - Class 2: 5% Probability



- Classification algorithms also often produce a **probability** prediction of belonging to a class:
 - Class 0: 10% Probability Car Image
 - Class 1: 85% Probability Street Image
 - Class 2: 5% Probability Bridge Image
 - Model reports back prediction of Class 1, image is a street.



- Also note our prediction ŷ will be a category, meaning we won't be able to calculate a difference based on y-ŷ.
 - Car Image Street Image does not make sense.
- We will need to discover a completely different set of error metrics and performance evaluation!



Logistic Regression Theory and Intuition

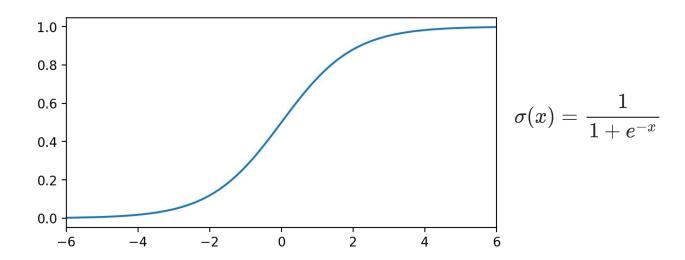
Part One: The Logistic Function



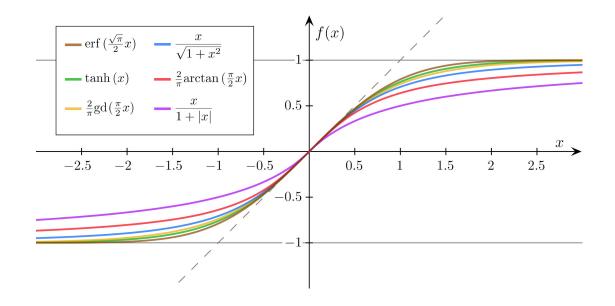
 Logistic Regression works by transforming a Linear Regression into a classification model through the use of the logistic function:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

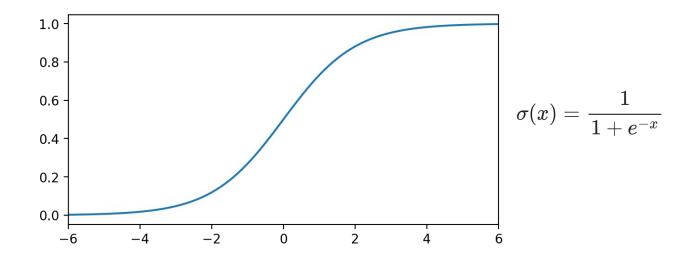
• Why the need for a logistic function versus a logarithmic function?



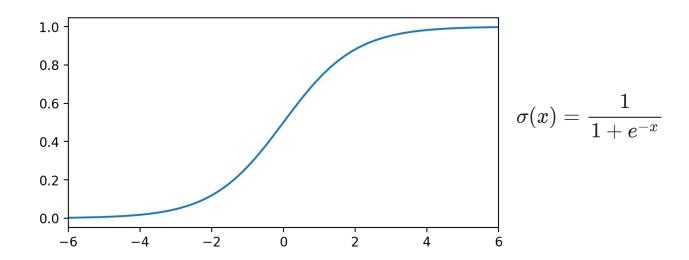
• Note: There is a "family" of logistic functions.



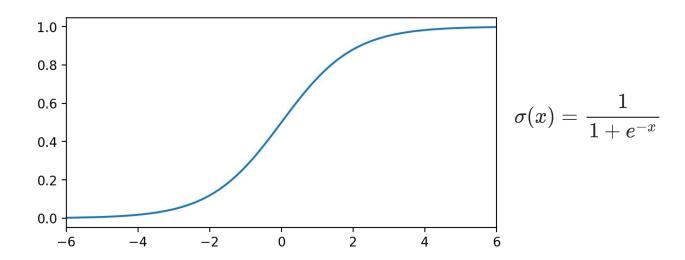
 Notice the "leveling off" behavior of the curve.



 Also notice any value of x will have an output range between 0 and 1.



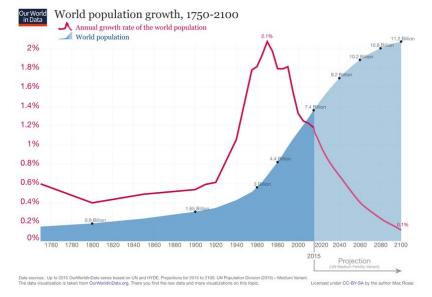
 Many natural real world systems have a "carrying capacity" or a natural limiting factor.





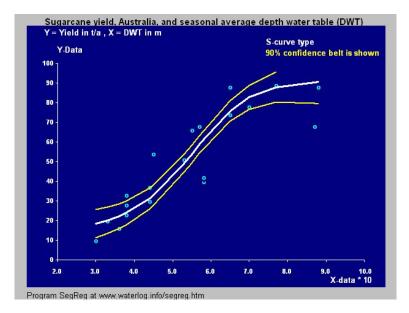
 Many natural real world systems have a "carrying capacity" or a natural limiting

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Logistic Regression Theory and Intuition

Part Two:

Linear to Logistic Intuition



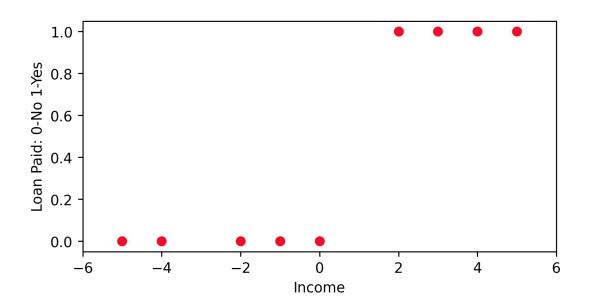
- Let's explore how to convert a Linear Regression model used for a regression task into a Logistic Regression model used for a classification task.
- Imagine a dataset with a single feature (previous year's income) and a single target label (loan default)



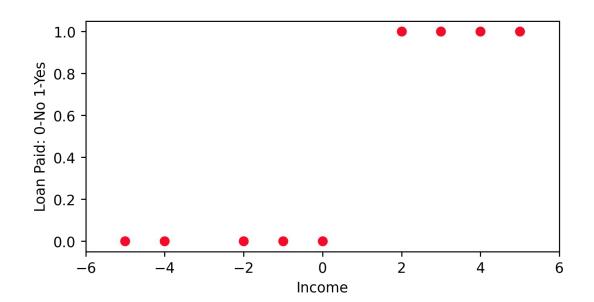
• Our data set:

Income	Loan Paid
-5	0
-4	0
-2	0
-1	0
0	0
2	1
3	1
4	1
5	1

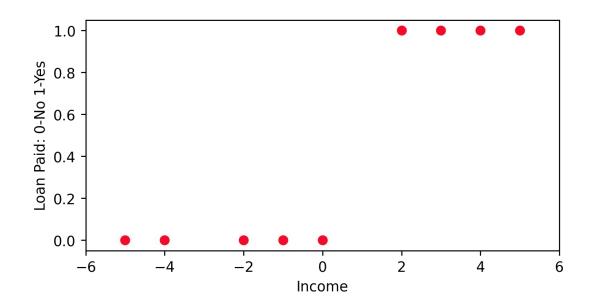
 Let's begin by plotting income versus default:



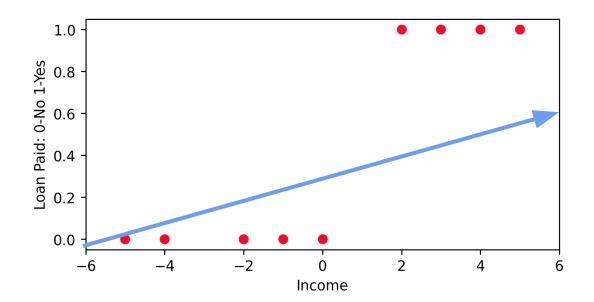
 Notice that people with negative income tend to default on their loans.



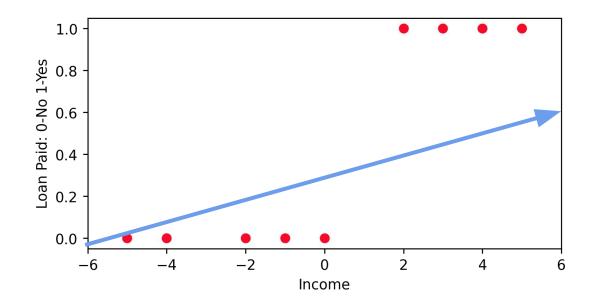
 What if we had to predict default status given someone's income?



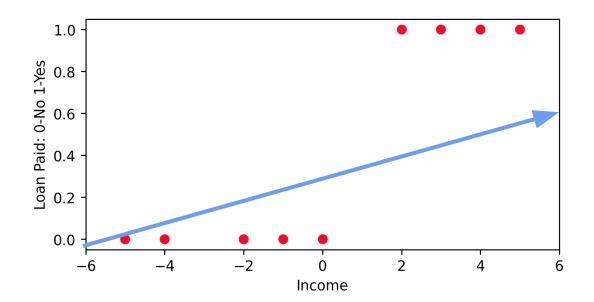
 Fitting a Linear Regression would not work (recall Anscombe's quartet):



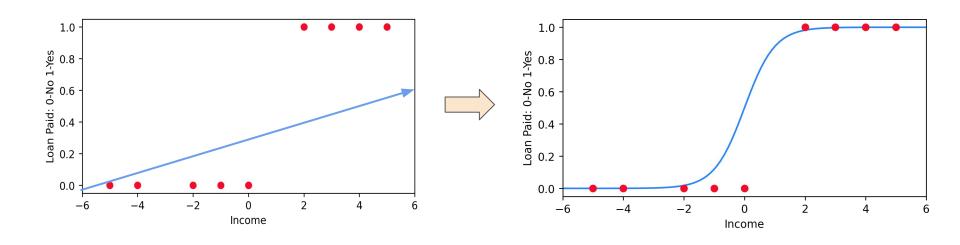
 Linear Regression easily distorted by only having 0 and 1 as possible y training values.



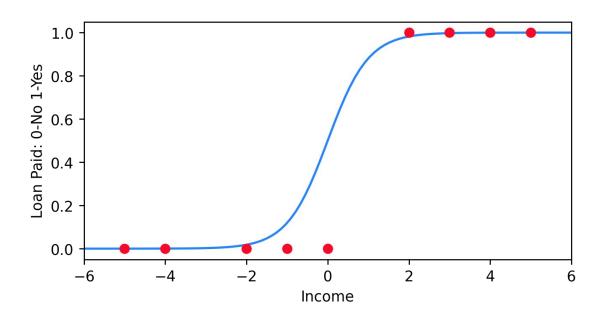
 Also would be unclear how to interpret predicted y values between 0 and 1.



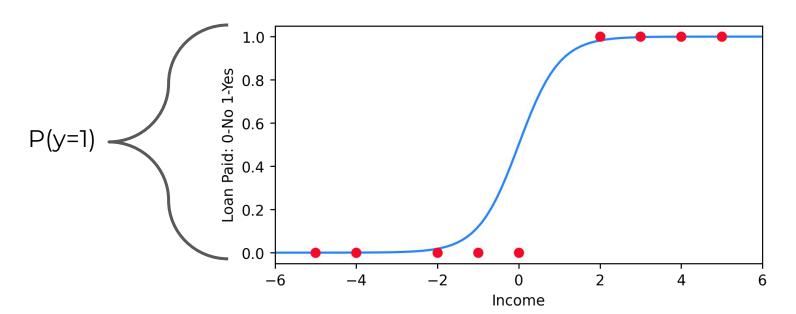
 We could make use of the Logistic Function for a conversion!



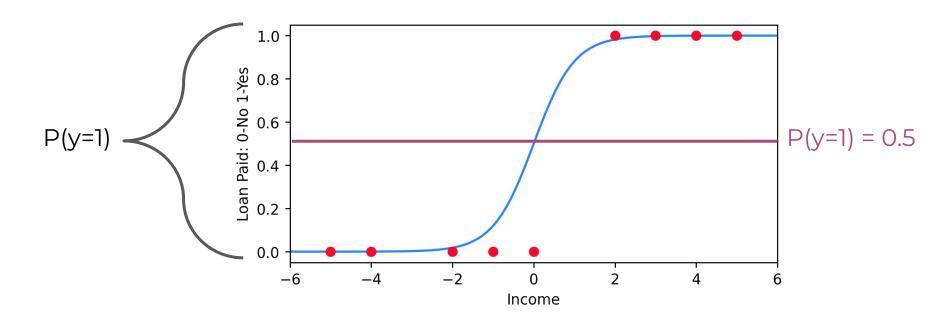
 Let's first focus on what this Logistic Regression would look like.



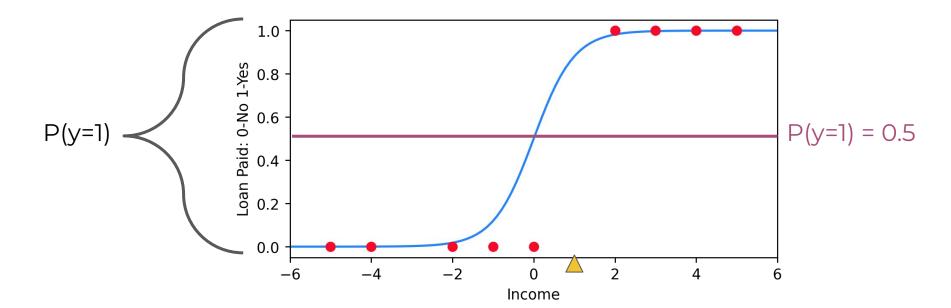
 Treat the y-axis as a probability of belonging to a class:



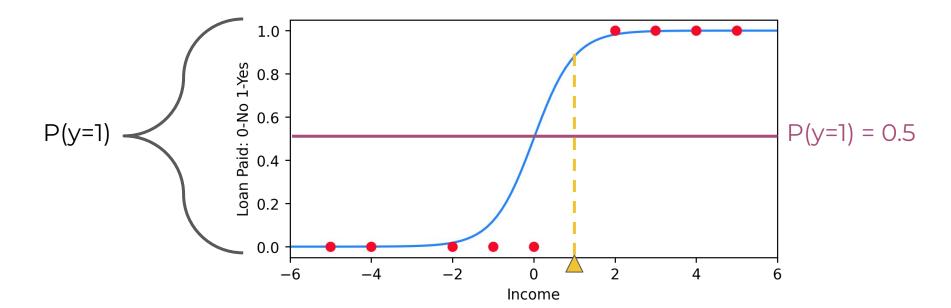
 Treating P(y=1) >= 0.5 as a cut-off for classification:



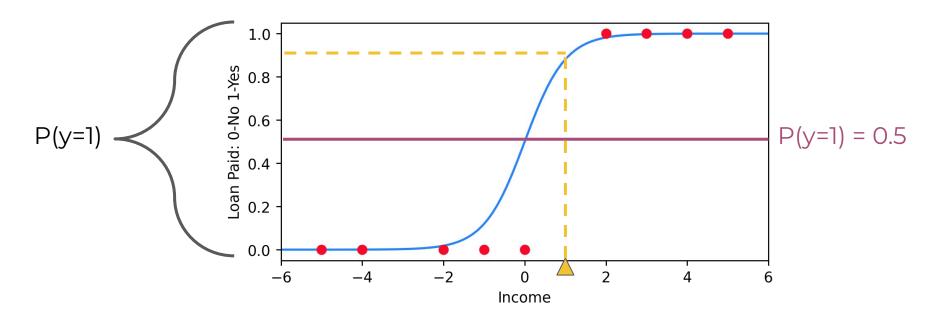
 For example, a new person with an income of 1:



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 Predict a 90% probability of paying off loan, return prediction of Loan Paid = 1.

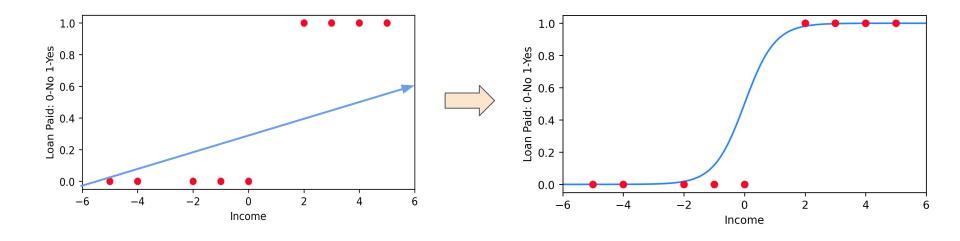




Logistic Regression Theory and Intuition

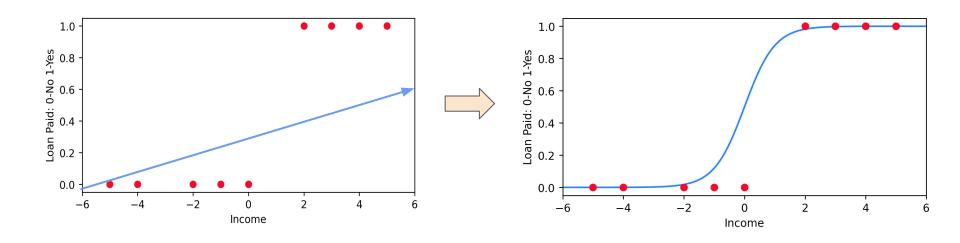
Part Two: Linear to Logistic Math

 Let's go through the math of converting Linear Regression to Logistic Regression.





- Relevant ISLR Reading:
 - Section 4.3 Logistic Regression



We already know the Linear Regression equation:

$$\hat{y} = eta_0 x_0 + \dots + eta_n x_n \ \hat{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$



 We also know the Logistic function transforms any input to be between 0 and 1

$$\sigma(x) = rac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$



 All we need to do is plug the Linear Regression equation into the Logistic function to create a Logistic Regression!

$$\hat{y}=eta_0x_0+\cdots+eta_nx_n \ \hat{y}=egin{equation} \sum_{i=0}^neta_ix_i \end{pmatrix} \sigma(x)=rac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$

Simply put in terms of the logistic function:

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(eta_0 x_0 + \dots + eta_n x_n) \ \hat{y} = \sigmaigg(\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_iigg)$$



Writing it out fully:

$$\hat{y} = rac{1}{1+e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i}}$$



Solving for log odds:

$$egin{aligned} \hat{y} + \hat{y}e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i} &= 1 \ \hat{y}e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i} &= 1 - \hat{y} \ &rac{\hat{y}}{1 - \hat{y}} &= e^{\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i} \end{aligned}$$



Solving for log odds:

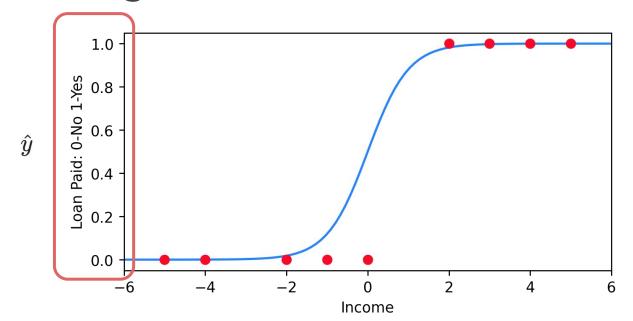
$$rac{\hat{y}}{1-\hat{y}}=e^{\sum_{i=0}^{n}eta_{i}x_{i}}$$

$$\ln\left(rac{\hat{y}}{1-\hat{y}}
ight) = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$

 What would the function curve look like in terms of log odds?

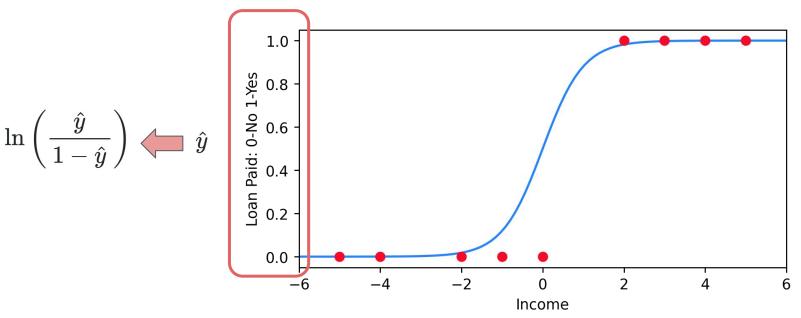
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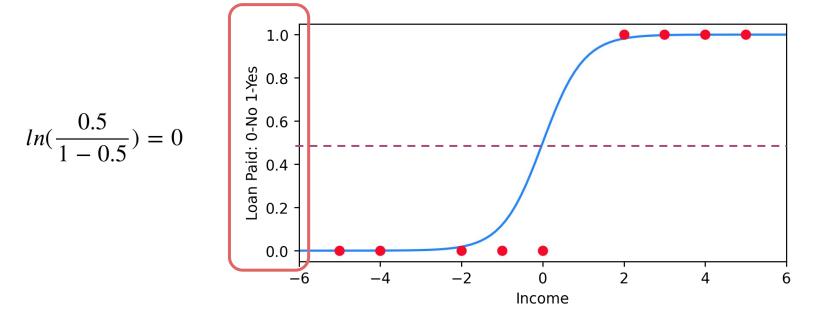




 What would the function curve look like in terms of log odds?



• Consider p=0.5



Consider p=0.5, halfway point now at 0.

$$ln(\frac{0.5}{1 - 0.5}) = 0$$



As p goes to 1 then log odds becomes ∞

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \ln(\frac{p}{1 - p}) = \infty$$

$$ln(\frac{0.5}{1 - 0.5}) = 0$$





- 00

As p goes to 0 then log odds becomes -∞

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \infty$$

$$\ln(\frac{0.5}{1-0.5}) = 0$$

$$\lim_{p \to 0} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = -\infty$$



Class points now at infinity

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \infty$$

$$\ln(\frac{0.5}{1-0.5}) = 0$$

$$\lim_{p \to 0} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = -\infty$$



On log scale logistic function is straight line

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \infty$$

$$\ln(\frac{0.5}{1-0.5}) = 0$$

$$\lim_{p \to 0} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = -\infty$$



Coefficients in terms of change in log odds.

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \infty$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{0.5}{1-0.5}\right) = 0$$

$$\lim_{p \to 0} \ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = -\infty$$

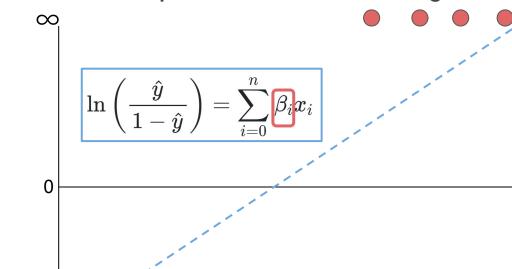


• Is β simple to interpret? Not really...

$$\lim_{p\to 1} ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = \infty$$

$$ln(\frac{0.5}{1-0.5}) = 0$$

$$\lim_{p \to 0} \ln(\frac{p}{1-p}) = -\infty$$





• Since the log odds scale is nonlinear, a β value can not be directly linked to "one unit increase" as it could in Linear Regression.

$$\ln\left(rac{\hat{y}}{1-\hat{y}}
ight) = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$



 There are some straightforward insights we can gain however...

$$\ln\left(rac{\hat{y}}{1-\hat{y}}
ight) = \sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i$$



- Sign of Coefficient
 - Positive β indicates an increase in likelihood of belonging to 1 class with increase in associated x feature.
 - Negative β indicates an decrease in likelihood of belonging to 1 class with increase in associated \mathbf{x} feature.

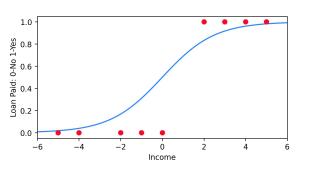


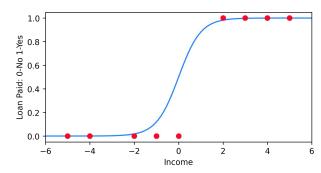
- Magnitude of Coefficient
 - Harder to directly interpret magnitude of β directly, especially when we could have discrete and continuous x feature values.
 - We can however begin to use **odds ratio**, essentially comparing magnitudes against each other.

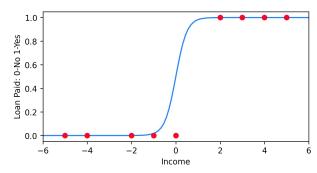


- Magnitude of Coefficient
 - Comparing magnitudes of coefficients against each other can lead to insight over which features have the strongest effect on prediction output.

 The last mathematical topic we need to discuss concerning Logistic Regression is how we actually fit this curve!









Logistic Regression Theory and Intuition

Part Three: Finding the Best Fit



- Logistic Regression uses Maximum
 Likelihood to find the best fitting model.
- This lecture will give you an intuition of how this method works.
- We'll also then display the cost function and gradient descent that is solved for by the computer.



Quick Note: ISLR Section 4.3.2

default status. In other words, we try to find β_0 and β_1 such that plugging these estimates into the model for p(X), given in (4.2), yields a number close to one for all individuals who defaulted, and a number close to zero for all individuals who did not. This intuition can be formalized using a mathematical equation called a *likelihood function*:

$$\ell(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \prod_{i:y_i=1} p(x_i) \prod_{i':y_{i'}=0} (1 - p(x_{i'})). \tag{4.5}$$

The estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are chosen to maximize this likelihood function.

Maximum likelihood is a very general approach that is used to fit many of the non-linear models that we examine throughout this book. In the linear regression setting, the least squares approach is in fact a special case of maximum likelihood. The mathematical details of maximum likelihood are beyond the scope of this book. However, in general, logistic regression



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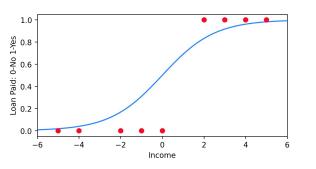
$$\ell(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \prod_{i:y_i=1} p(x_i) \prod_{i':y_{i'}=0} (1 - p(x_{i'})). \tag{4.5}$$

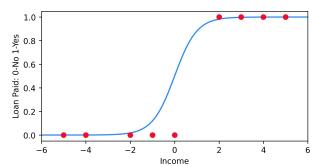
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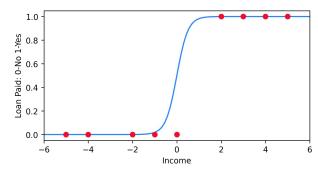
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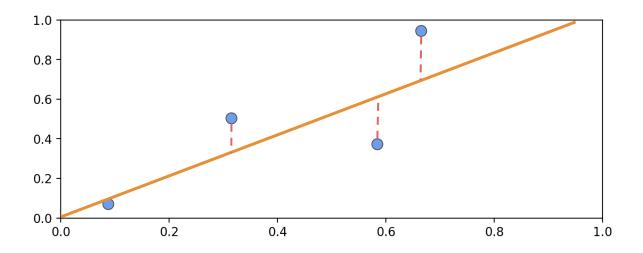
- Here we see three different Logistic
 Regression curves with different β values.
- How do we measure which is the best fit?



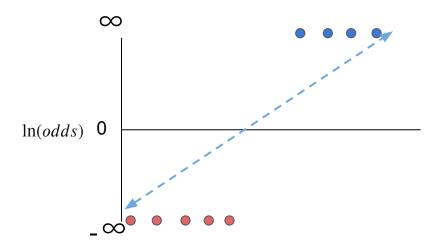




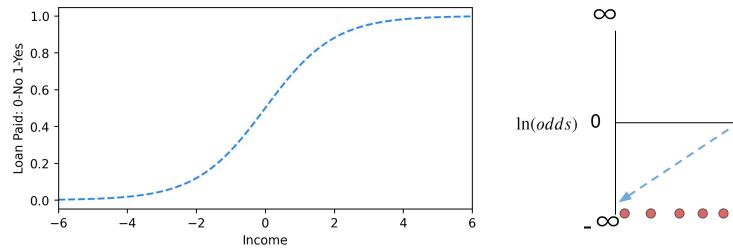
 Recall in Linear Regression we seek to minimize the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS).

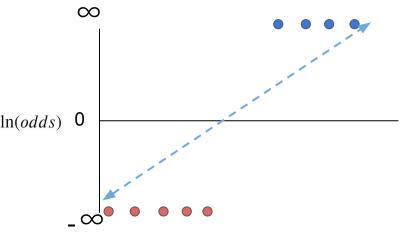


 We choose a line in the log(odds) axis and project the points on to the line:

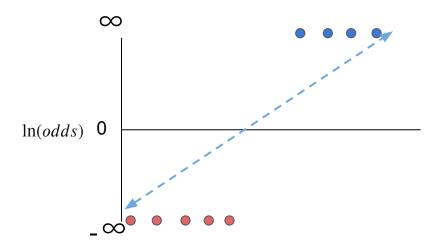


 We also know this line has a form on the probability y-axis.

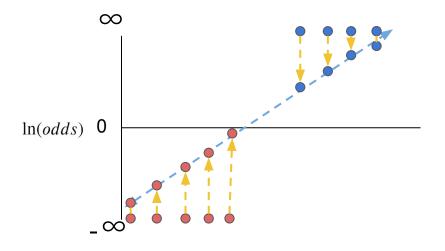




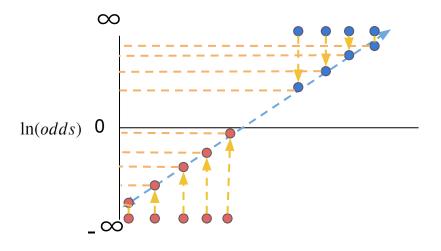
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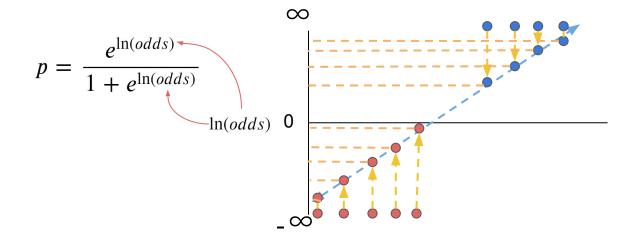


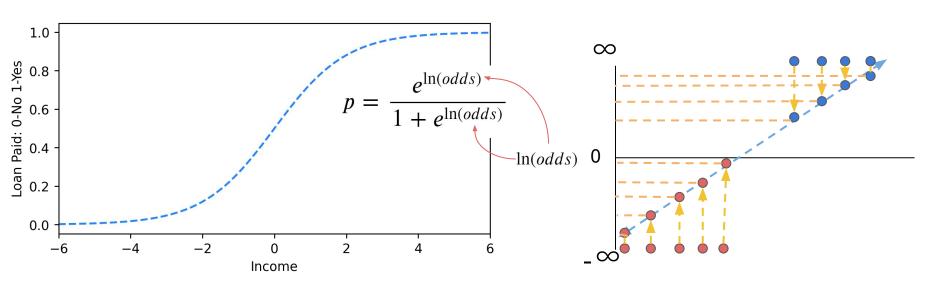
 Calculate the log odds for the projected points on this line.

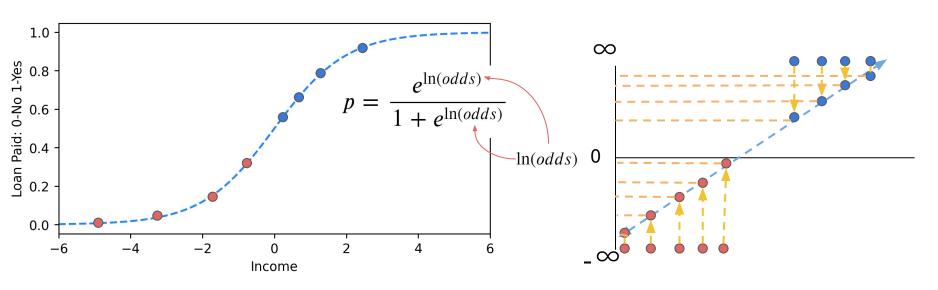


$$p = \frac{e^{\ln(odds)}}{1 + e^{\ln(odds)}}$$

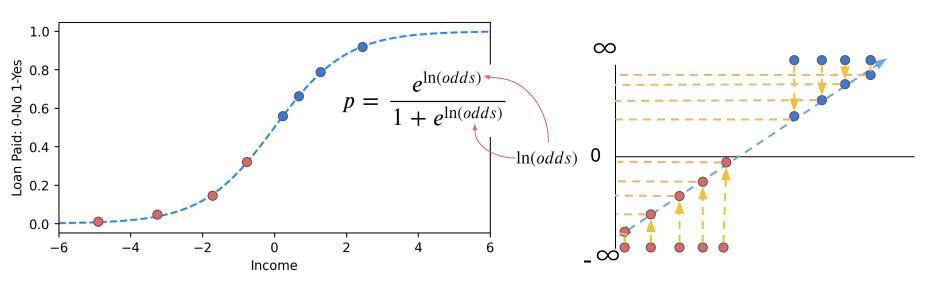
$$\ln(odds) \quad 0$$



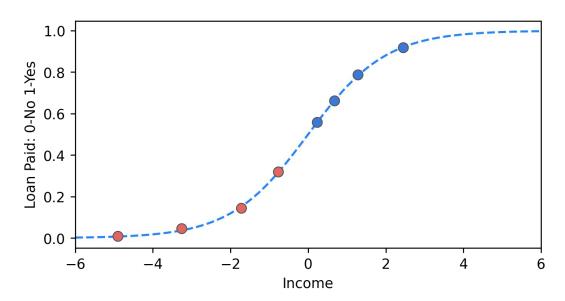




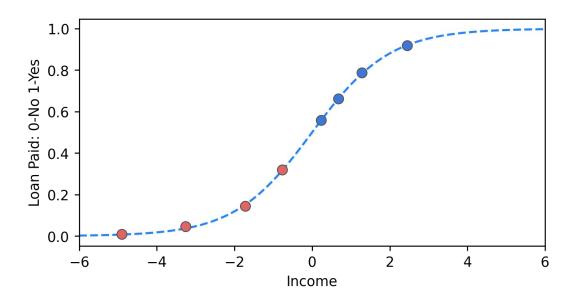
 We now measure the likelihood of these probabilities.



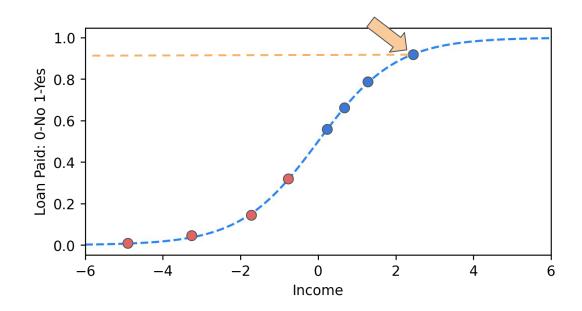
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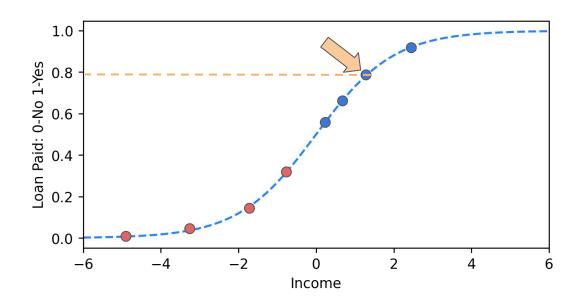
 Likelihood = Product of probabilities of belonging to class 1.



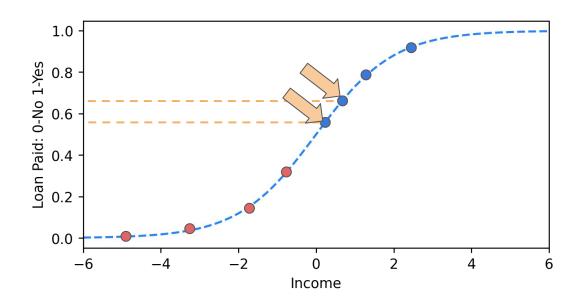
• Likelihood = 0.9 ...



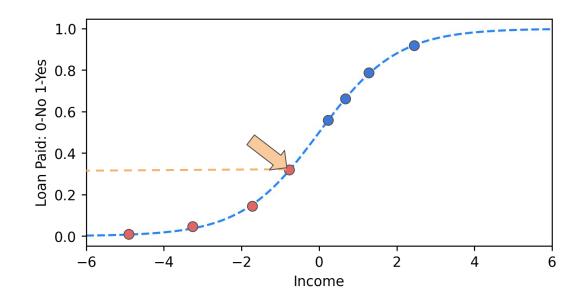
• Likelihood = 0.9 × 0.8 × ...



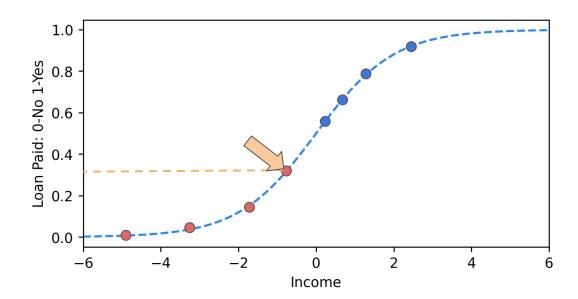
Likelihood = 0.9 × 0.8 × 0.65 × 0.55 × ...



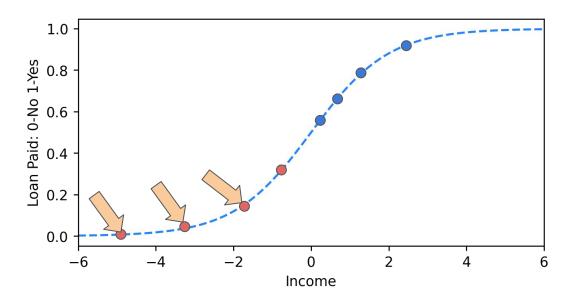
• Likelihood = $0.9 \times 0.8 \times 0.65 \times 0.55 \times (1-p) \times ...$



• Likelihood = $0.9 \times 0.8 \times 0.65 \times 0.55 \times (1-0.3) \times ...$



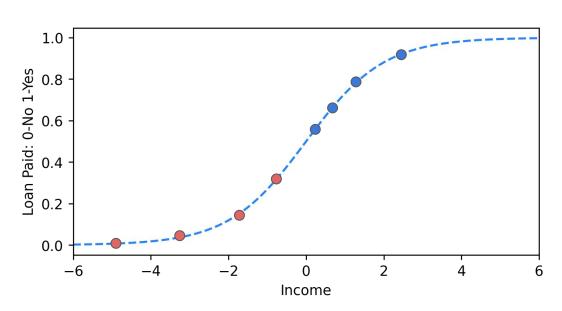
Likelihood = 0.9 × 0.8 × 0.65 × 0.55 × (1-0.3) × (1-0.2) × (1-0.08) × (1-0.02)



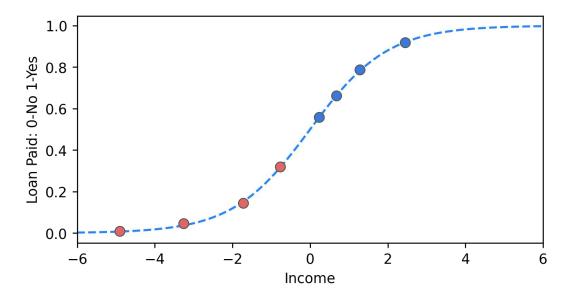


• Likelihood = 0.129

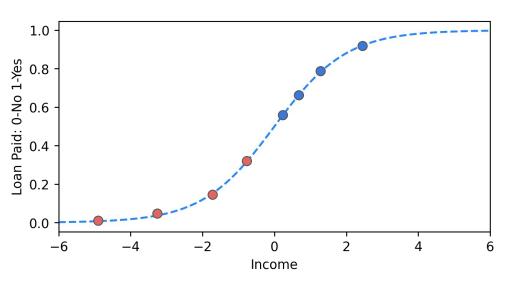


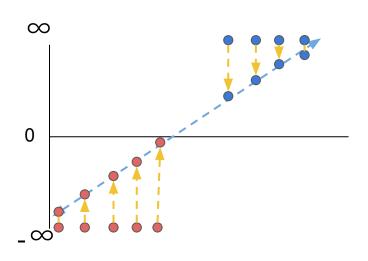


 Note in practice we actually maximize the log of the likelihoods. (e.g. In(0.9)×In(0.8)×...)

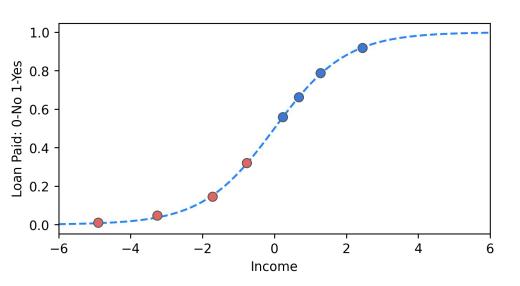


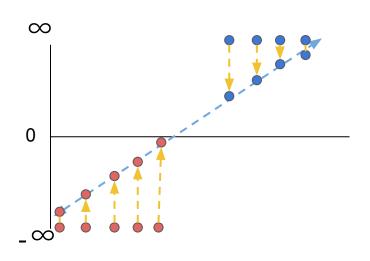
 There is some set of coefficients that will maximize these log likelihoods.



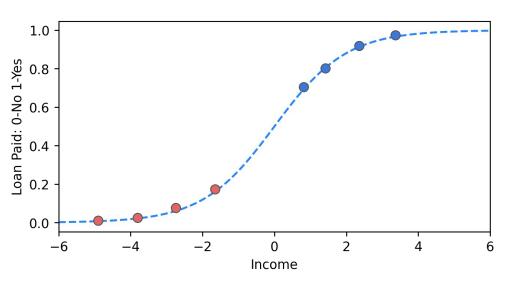


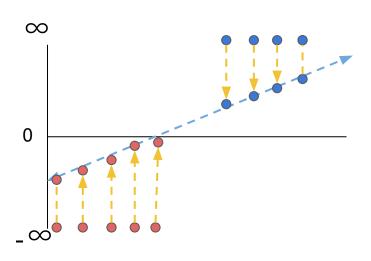
 Choose best coefficient values in log odds terms that creates maximum likelihood.





 Choose best coefficient values in log odds terms that creates maximum likelihood.







 While we are trying to maximize the likelihood, we still need something to minimize, since the computer's gradient descent methods can only search for minimums. In terms of a cost function, we seek to minimize the following (log loss):

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m y^j \log\left(\hat{y}^j
ight) + (1-y^j)\log\left(1-\hat{y}^j
ight).$$

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = -rac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j \log \left(rac{1}{1 + e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j}}
ight) + (1 - y^j) \log \left(1 - rac{1}{1 + e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j}}
ight)
ight)$$

 Just as with Linear Regression, gradient descent can solve this for us!

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = -rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^m y^j \log\left(\hat{y}^j
ight) + (1-y^j)\log\left(1-\hat{y}^j
ight).$$

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = -rac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \left(y^j \log \left(rac{1}{1 + e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j}}
ight) + (1 - y^j) \log \left(1 - rac{1}{1 + e^{-\sum_{i=0}^n eta_i x_i^j}}
ight)
ight)$$



- Don't worry about fully understanding this gradient descent.
- In practice we never have to implement it ourselves.
- Main takeaway should be the relationship between log odds and probability.



 Now that we have an intuition of what happens "behind the scenes", let's explore Logistic Regression with Python!



Classification Performance Metrics

Part One: Confusion Matrix Basics



- You've probably heard of terms such as "false positive" or "false negative". As well as metrics like "accuracy".
- But what do these terms actually mean mathematically?

- Imagine we've developed a test or model to detect presence of a virus infection in a person based on some biological feature.
- We could treat this as a Logistic Regression, predicting:
 - O Not Infected (Tests Negative)
 - 1 Infected (Tests Positive)



- It is unlikely our model will perform perfectly. This means there 4 possible outcomes:
 - o Infected person tests positive.
 - o Healthy person tests negative.

- It is unlikely our model will perform perfectly. This means there 4 possible outcomes:
 - Infected person tests positive.
 - Healthy person tests negative.
 - Note, these are the outcomes we want! But it is unlikely our test is perfect...

- It is unlikely our model will perform perfectly. This means there 4 possible outcomes:
 - Infected person tests positive.
 - Healthy person tests negative.
 - o Infected person tests negative.
 - Healthy person tests positive.



- Based off these 4 possibilities, there are many error metrics we can calculate.
- First, let's start by visualizing these four possibilities as a matrix.



Confusion Matrix

ACTUAL

INFECTED	HEALTHY



Confusion Matrix

ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED		
HEALTHY		



ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	TRUE POSITIVE	
HEALTHY		



ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	TRUE POSITIVE	
HEALTHY		TRUE NEGATIVE



ACTUAL

INFECTED HEALTHY INFECTED TRUE FALSE PREDICTED **POSITIVE POSITIVE** HEALTHY TRUE **NEGATIVE**



PREDICTED

INFECTED HEALTHY INFECTED TRUE FALSE POSITIVE HEALTHY FALSE TRUE NEGATIVE



• Imagine a test group of 100 people:

ACTUAL

PREDICTED INFECTED HEALTHY

HEALTHY



• 5 are infected. 95 are healthy.

ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED		
HEALTHY		



We tested all of them with these results:

ACTUAL

		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93



What is accuracy?

ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93



What is accuracy?

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PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93

• Accuracy:

 How often is the model correct?



Calculating accuracy:

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

(4+93)/100 = 97% Accuracy

- Accuracy:
 - How often is the model correct?

Acc = (TP+TN)/Total



Is this a good value for accuracy?

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

(4+93)/100 = 97% Accuracy

- Accuracy:
 - How often is the model correct?

Acc = (TP+TN)/Total



The accuracy paradox...

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

(4+93)/100 = 97% Accuracy

- Accuracy:
 - How often is the model correct?

$$Acc = (TP+TN)/Total$$



Imagine we always report back "healthy"

ACTUAL

		INFECTED	HEALTHY
REDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

PR

Imagine we always report back "healthy"

ACTUAL

PREDICTED INFECTED 0 0
PREDICTED HEALTHY 5 95



Imagine we always report back "healthy"

 $\Lambda \subset T \cup \Lambda \cup I$

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	0	0
	HEALTHY	5	95

(0+95)/100 = 95% Accuracy

- Accuracy:
 - How often is the model correct?

95% accuracy for a model that always returns "healthy"!



 You may be thinking, "The numbers here are arbitrary, we just happen to get good accuracy in this made up case. Real world data would reflect poor accuracy if a model always returned the same result".



- This is the accuracy paradox!
 - Any classifier dealing with imbalanced classes has to confront the issue of the accuracy paradox.
 - Imbalanced classes will always result in a distorted accuracy reflecting better performance than what is truly warranted.



- Imbalanced classes are often found in real world data sets.
 - Medical conditions can affect small portions of the population.
 - Fraud is not common (e.g. Real vs. Fraud credit card usage).

- If a class is only a small percentage (n%), then a classifier that always predicts the majority class will always have an accuracy of (1-n).
- In our previous example we saw infected were only 5% of the data.
- Allowing the accuracy to be 95%.



- This means we shouldn't solely rely on accuracy as a metric!
- This is where precision, recall, and f1-score will come in.
- Let's explore these other metrics in the next lecture.



Classification Performance Metrics

Part Two: Precision and Recall

- We already know how to calculate accuracy and its associated paradox.
- Let's explore three more metrics that can help give a clearer picture of performance:
 - Recall (a.k.a. sensitivity)
 - Precision
 - F1-Score



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PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93

• Recall:

When it
 actually is a
 positive case,
 how often is it
 correct?



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PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93

Recall = (TP)/Total Actual Positives

Recall:

When it
 actually is a
 positive case,
 how often is it
 correct?



		ACT	UAL
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

Recall = (TP)/5

Recall:

When it
 actually is a
 positive case,
 how often is it
 correct?



		ACT	UAL
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

Recall = (4)/5

Recall:

When it
 actually is a
 positive case,
 how often is it
 correct?



PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93

Recall = 0.8

• Recall:

 How many relevant cases are found?



 What's the recall if we always classify as "healthy"?

ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	0	0
HEALTHY	5	95

Recall = (TP)/Total Actual Positives

Recall:

How many relevant cases are found?



 What's the recall if we always classify as "healthy"?

ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	0	0
HEALTHY	5	95

Recall = (0)/5!

Recall:

 How many relevant cases are found?



 A recall of 0 alerts you the model isn't catching cases!

ACTUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	0	0
HEALTHY	5	95

Recall = (0)/5!

• Recall:

 How many relevant cases are found?



Now let's explore precision.

AC	ΓUAL

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93

Precision = (TP)/Total Predicted Positives

Precision:

When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?



Now let's explore precision.

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

Precision = (TP)/Total Predicted Positives

Precision:

When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?

Now let's explore precision.

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

Precision = (TP)/6

Precision:

When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?

Now let's explore precision.

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

Precision = (TP)/6

- Precision:
 - When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?

Now let's explore precision.

		ACTUAL	
		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	4	2
	HEALTHY	1	93

Precision = (4)/6

- Precision:
 - When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?



Now let's explore precision.

AC	ΓUAL
,	· · · · -

PREDICTED

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	4	2
HEALTHY	1	93

Precision = 0.666

Precision:

When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?



 What's the **precision** if we always classify as "healthy"?

ACTUAL

	INFECTE
PREDICTED	

	INFECTED	HEALTHY
INFECTED	0	0
HEALTHY	5	95

Precision = (TP)/Total Predicted Positives

Precision:

When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?

(TP)/Total Predicted
Positives



 What's the **precision** if we always classify as "healthy"?

ACTUAL

		INFECTED	HEALTHY
PREDICTED	INFECTED	0	0
	HEALTHY	5	95

Precision = 0/0

- Precision:
 - When
 prediction is
 positive, how
 often is it
 correct?

(TP)/Total Predicted
Positives



- Recall and Precision can help illuminate our performance specifically in regards to the relevant or positive case.
- Depending on the model, there is typically a trade-off between precision and recall, which we will explore later on with the ROC curve.



• Since precision and recall are related to each other through the numerator (TP), we often also report the F1-Score, which is the harmonic mean of precision and recall.

$$F = \frac{2 \times precision \times recall}{precision + recall}$$



 The harmonic mean (instead of the normal mean) allows the entire harmonic mean to go to zero if either precision or recall ends up being zero.

$$F = \frac{2 \times precision \times recall}{precision + recall}$$

 As a final note on the confusion matrix, there are many more metrics available:

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



 Finally, let's explore a way to visualize the relationships between metrics such as precision and recall with curves.



Classification Performance Metrics

Part Three: ROC Curves



 During World War 2, Radar technology was developed to help detect incoming enemy aircraft.





 The technology was so new, the US Army wanted to develop a methodology to evaluate radar operator performance.



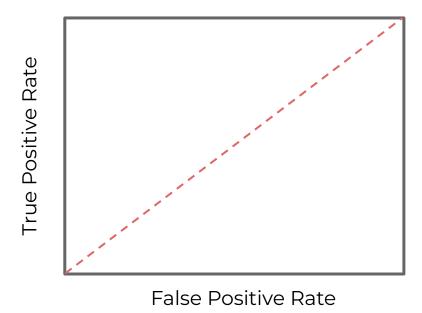


 They developed the Receiver Operator Characteristic curve.

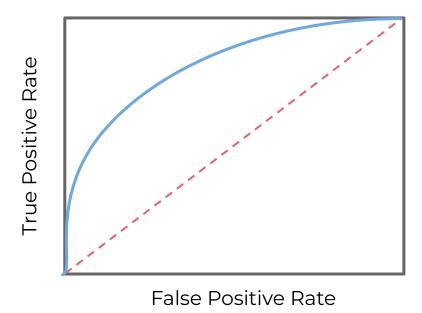
True Positive Rate

False Positive Rate

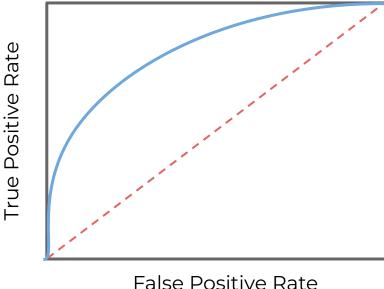
• They developed the Receiver Operator Characteristic curve.



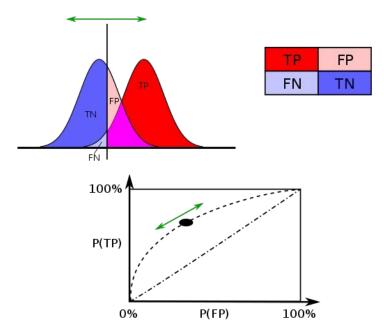
• They developed the Receiver Operator Characteristic curve.



 There can be a trade-off between True Positives and False Positives.

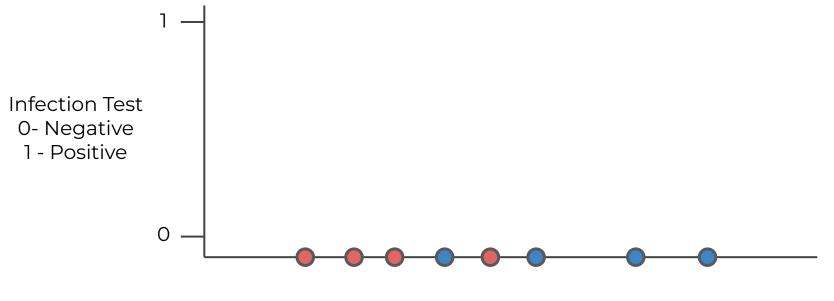


 There can be a trade-off between True Positives and False Positives.



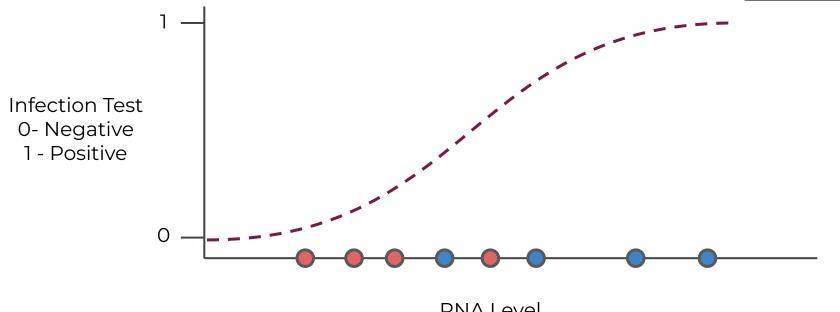


• Our previous infection test.



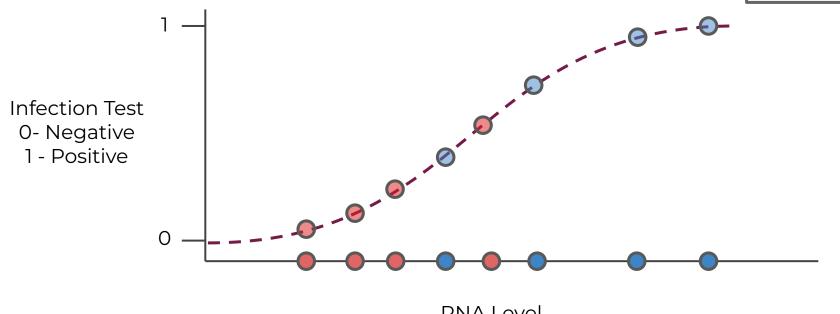


• Fit logistic regression model.



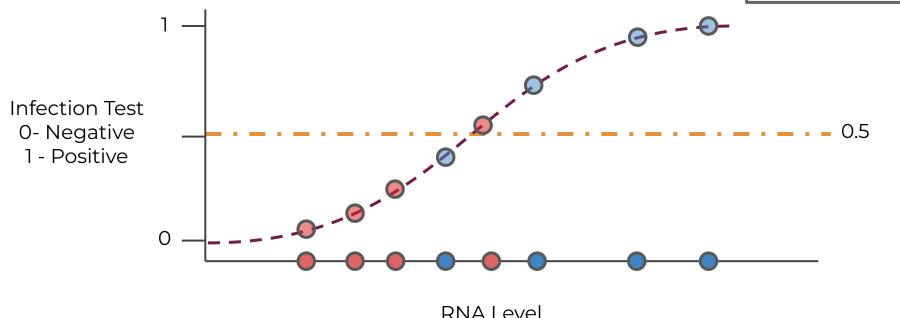


Given X we predict 0 or 1.



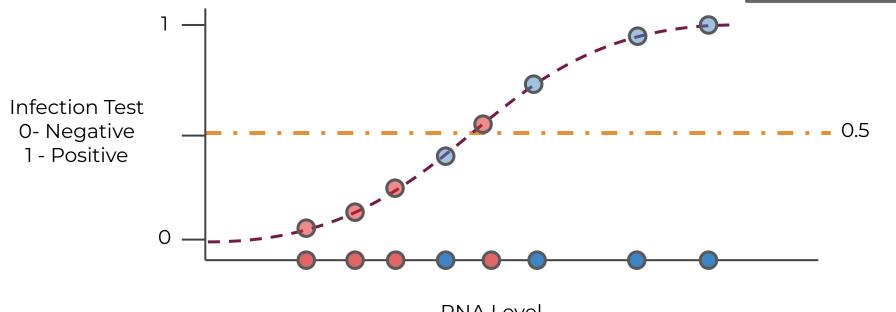


Default is to choose 0.5 as cut-off.

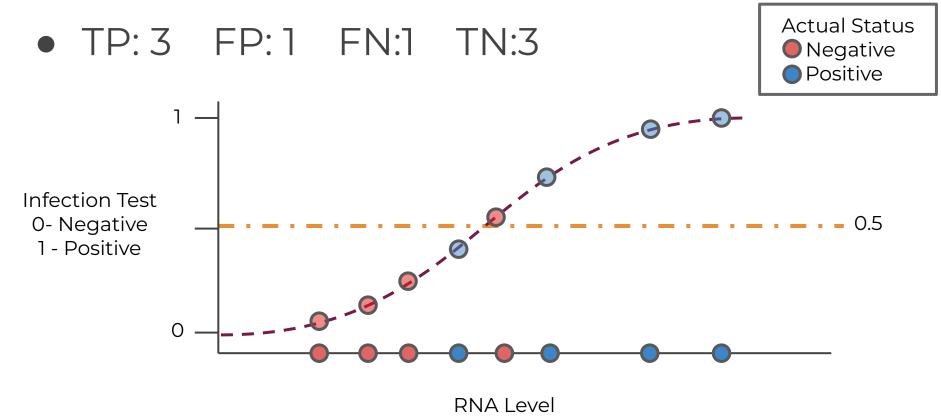




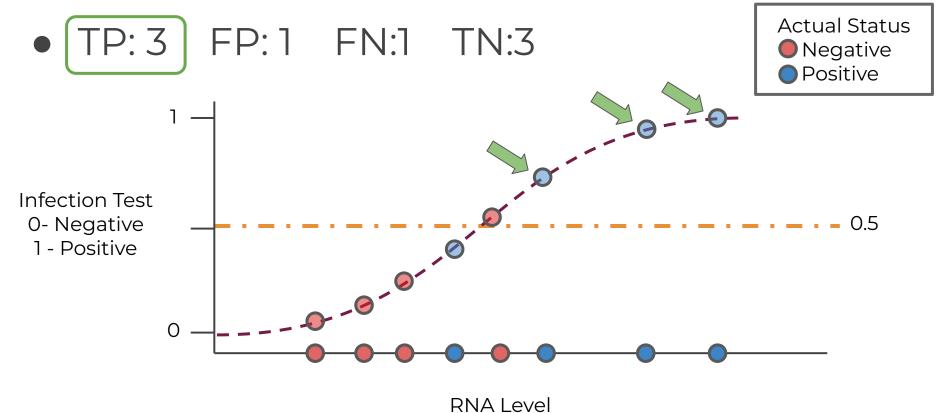
How many TP vs FP?



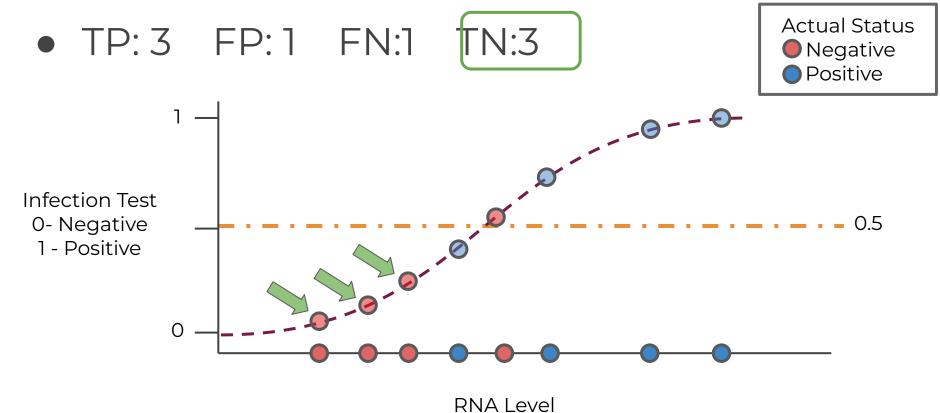




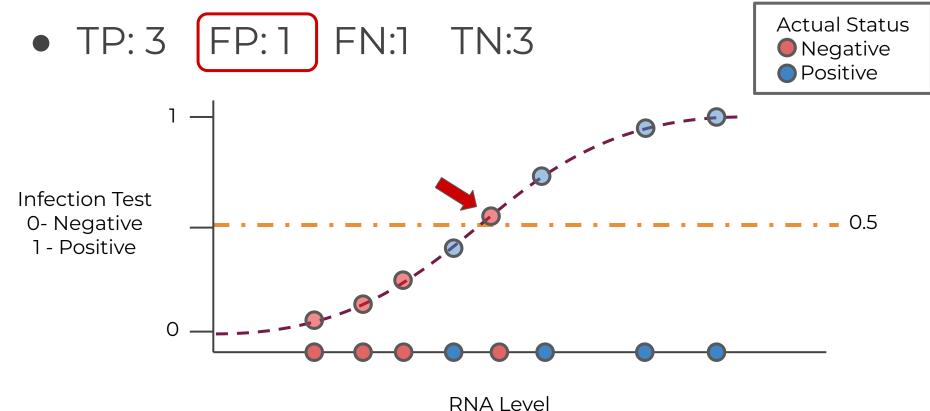




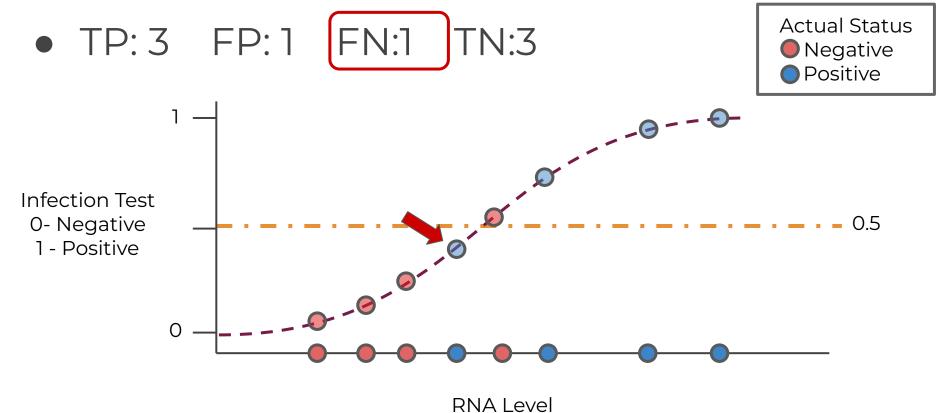






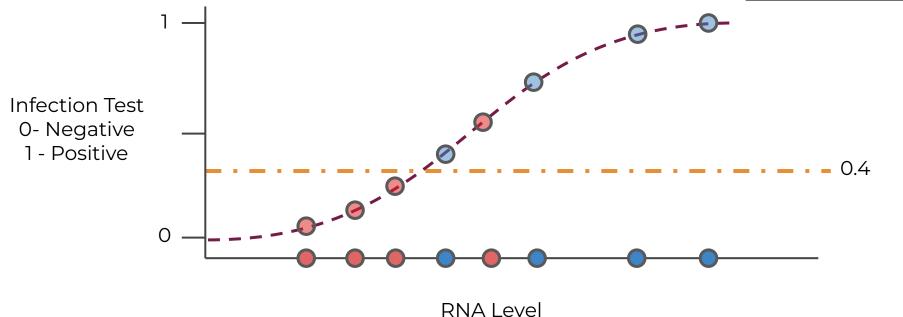




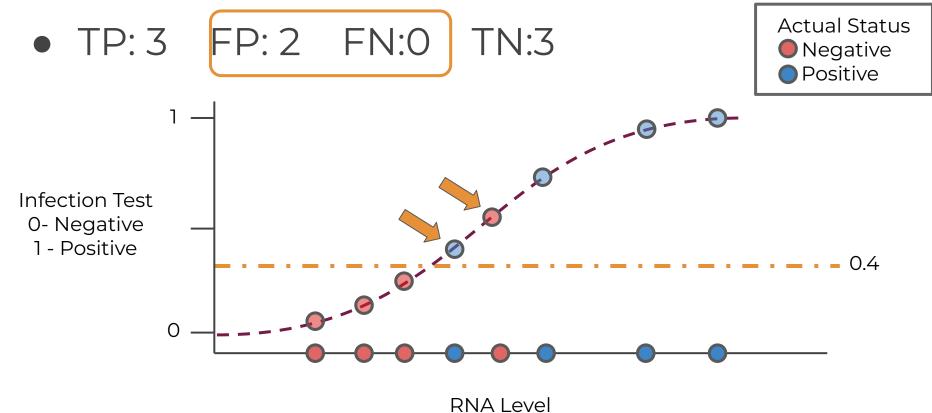




What if we lowered the cut-off?









- In certain situations, we gladly accept more false positives to reduce false negatives.
- Imagine a dangerous virus test, we would much rather produce false positives and later do more stringent examination than accidentally release a false negative!



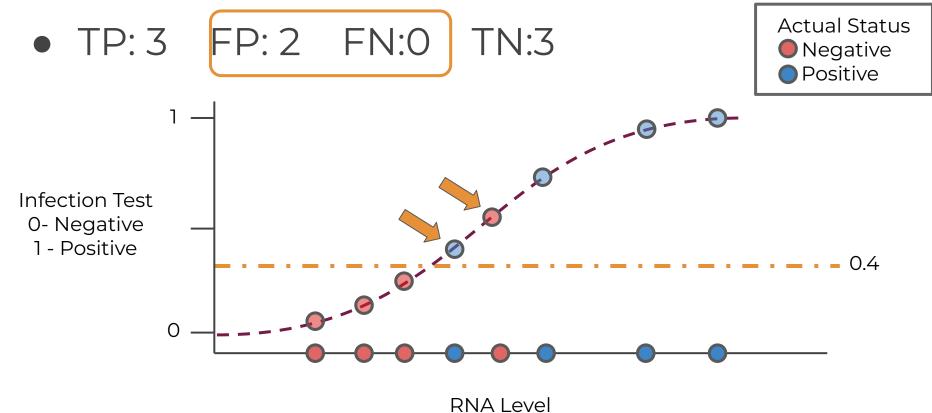
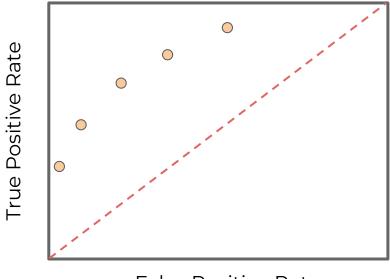


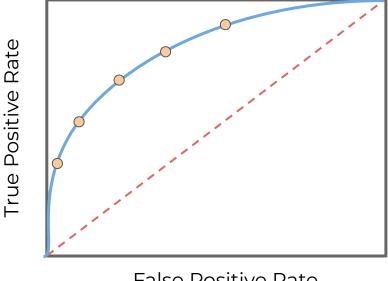
 Chart the True vs. False positives for various cut-offs for the ROC curve.



False Positive Rate

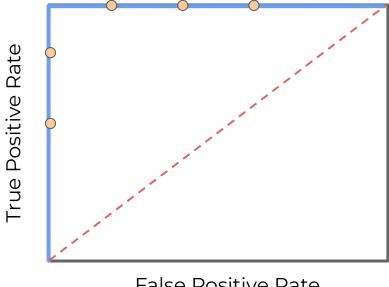


 By changing the cut-off limit, we can adjust our True vs. False Positives!



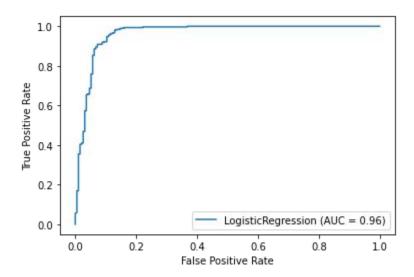
False Positive Rate

- A perfect model would have a zero FPR.
- Random guessing is the red line.

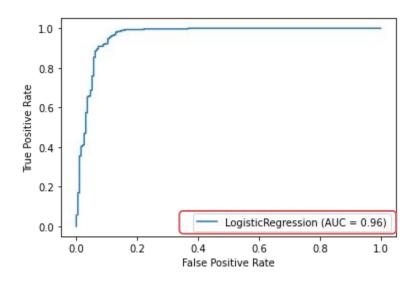


False Positive Rate

 Realistically with smaller data sets the ROC curves are not as smooth.



 AUC - Area Under the Curve, allows us to compare ROCs for different models.



Can also create precision vs. recall curves:

