```
In [3]: # read the data into a pandas DataFrame
         import pandas as pd
         path = 'dataset/pima-indians-diabetes.data'
         col names = ['pregnant', 'glucose', 'bp', 'skin', 'insulin', 'bmi', 'pe
         digree', 'age', 'label']
         pima = pd.read csv(path, header=None, names=col names)
In [5]: # print the first five data
         pima.head()
Out[5]:
            pregnant glucose bp skin insulin bmi pedigree age label
          0
                       148 72
                                35
                                       0 33.6
                                                0.627
                                                     50
                                       0 26.6
          1
                        85 66
                                29
                                                0.351 31
                       183 64
                                       0 23.3
                                                0.672 32
          3
                        89 66
                                23
                                      94 28.1
                                                0.167 21
                  0
                       137 40
                                35
                                     168 43.1
                                                2.288 33
In [6]: # define X and y
         feature cols = ['pregnant', 'insulin', 'bmi', 'age']
         X = pima[feature cols]
         y = pima.label
In [8]: # split X and y into training and testing sets
         from sklearn.model selection import train test split
         X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(X, y, random state=
         0)
In [70]: import warnings
         warnings.filterwarnings('ignore')
         # train a logistic regression model on the training set
         from sklearn.linear model import LogisticRegression
```

```
logreg = LogisticRegression()
         logreg.fit(X train, y train)
Out[70]: LogisticRegression(C=1.0, class weight=None, dual=False, fit intercept=
         True,
                             intercept scaling=1, l1 ratio=None, max iter=100,
                             multi class='warn', n jobs=None, penalty='l2',
                             random state=None, solver='warn', tol=0.0001, verbos
         e=0,
                             warm start=False)
In [11]: # make class predication for the testing set
         y pred class = logreg.predict(X test)
         Classification accuracy: percentage of correct predictions
In [12]: # calculation accuracy
         from sklearn import metrics
         print(metrics.accuracy score(y test, y pred class))
         0.6927083333333334
         Null accuracy: accuracy that could be achieved by always predicting the most frequent class
In [13]: # examise the class distribution of the testing set (using a Pandas Ser
         ies Method)
         y test.value counts()
Out[13]: 0
              130
                62
         Name: label, dtype: int64
In [14]: # calculate the percentage of ones
         y test.mean()
Out[14]: 0.3229166666666667
```

```
In [16]: y pred class.mean()
Out[16]: 0.140625
In [17]: # calculate the percentage of zeros
        1 - y test.mean()
Out[17]: 0.6770833333333333
In [18]: # calculate null accuracy (for binary classification problems coded as
         0/1)
        max(y test.mean(), 1 - y test.mean())
Out[18]: 0.67708333333333333
In [19]: # calculate null accuracy (for multi-class classification problems)
        y test.value counts() / len(y test)
Out[19]: 0
             0.677083
             0.322917
        Name: label, dtype: float64
In [20]: # calculate null accuracy (for multi-class classification problems)
        y test.value counts().head(1) / len(y test)
Out[20]: 0
             0.677083
        Name: label, dtype: float64
        Comparing the true and predicted response values
In [21]: # print the first 25 true and predicted response
        print('True:', y test.values[0:25])
         print('Pred:', y pred class[0:25])
        True: [1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0]
```

Conclusion: . Classification accuracy is the easiest classification metric to understand . But, it does not tell you the underlying distribution of response values . And, it does not tell you what "types" of errors your classifier is making

Confusion matrix

Table that describes the performance of a classification model

```
In [22]: # Important: first argument is true values, second argumnet is predicte
d values
print(metrics.confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred_class))

[[118     12]
       [ 47     15]]
```

- . Every observation in the testing set is represented in exactly one box.
 - . It's a 2x2 matrix because there are 2 response classes.
 - . The format shown here is not universal.

Basic terminology:

- . True Positives (TP): we correctly predicted that they do h ave diabetes
- . True Negatives (TN): we correctly predicted that they do $\ensuremath{\text{n't}}$ have diabetes
- . False Positives (FP): we incorrectly predicted that they d o have diabetes (a "Type I error")
- . False Negatives (FN): we incorrectly predicted that they d on't have diabetes (a "Type II error")

```
In [23]: # print the first 25 true and predicated response
         print('True:', y test.values[0:25])
         print('Pred:', y pred class[0:25])
         True: [1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0]
         In [24]: # save confusion matrix and slice into four pieces
         confusion = metrics.confusion_matrix(y test, y pred class)
         TP = confusion[1, 1]
         TN = confusion[0, 0]
         FP = confusion[0, 1]
         FN = confusion[1, 0]
         Metrics computed from a confusion matrix
         Classification Accuracy: Overall, how often is the classifier correct?
In [25]: print((TP + TN) / float(TP + TN + FP + FN))
         print(metrics.accuracy score(y test, y pred class))
         0.69270833333333334
         0.6927083333333334
         Classification Error: Overall, how often is the classifier incorrect?
         Also known as "Misclassification Rate"
In [26]: print((FP + FN) / float(TP + TN + FP + FN))
         print(metrics.accuracy score(y test, y pred class))
         0.3072916666666667
         0.6927083333333334
         Sensitivity: When the actual value is positive, how often is the prediction correct?
```

```
. How "sensitive" is the classifier to detecting positive in
              stances?
                  . Also known as "True Positive Rate" or "Recall"
In [27]: print(TP / float(TP + FN))
          print(metrics.recall score(y test, y pred class))
          0.24193548387096775
          0.24193548387096775
          Specificity: When the actual value is negative, how often is the prediction correct?
                    .How "specific" (or "selective") is the classifier in pred
             icting positive instances?
In [31]: print(TN / float(TN + FP))
          0.9076923076923077
          False Positive Rate: When the actual value is negative, how often is the prediction incorrect?
In [32]: print(FP / float(TN + FP))
          0.09230769230769231
          Precision: When a positive value is predicted, how often is the prediction correct?
                 . How "precise" is the classifier when predicting positive in
              stances?
          print(TP / float(TP + FP))
In [34]:
          print(metrics.precision score(y test, y pred class))
```

```
0.55555555555556
0.555555555555556
```

```
In [ ]: print(TP / float(TP + FP))
    print(metrics.precision_score(y_test, y_pred_class))
```

Many other metrics can be computed: F1 score, Matthews correlation coefficient, etc.

Conclusion:

- . Confusion matrix gives you a more complete picture of how your classifier is performing.
- . Also allows you to compute various classification metrics, and these metrics can guide your model selection.

Which metrics should you focus on?

- . Choice of metric depends on your business objective.
- . Spam filter (positive class is "spam"): Optimize for precision or specificity because false negatives

(spam goes to the inbox) are more acceptable than false po sitives (non-spam is caught by the spam filter).

. Fraudulent transaction detector (positive class is "frau d"): Optimize for sensitivity because false positives

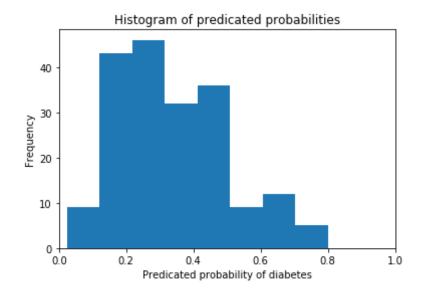
(normal transactions that are flagged as possible fraud) a re more acceptable than false negatives $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) \left(1\right) +\left(1\right) \left(1\right) \left(1\right) +\left(1\right) \left(1\right) \left$

(fraudulent transactions that are not detected).

Adjusting the classification threshold

```
In [35]: # print the first 10 predicted responses
logreg.predict(X_test)[0:10]
```

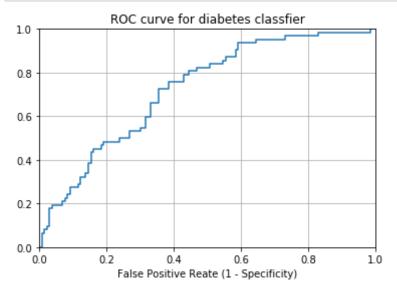
```
Out[35]: array([0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1], dtype=int64)
In [38]: # print the first 10 predicated probabilites of class membership
         logreg.predict proba(X test)[0:10, :]
Out[38]: array([[0.63247571, 0.36752429],
                [0.71643656, 0.28356344],
                [0.71104114, 0.28895886],
                [0.5858938 , 0.4141062 ],
                [0.84103973, 0.15896027],
                [0.82934844, 0.17065156],
                [0.50110974, 0.49889026],
                [0.48658459, 0.51341541],
                [0.72321388. 0.27678612].
                [0.32810562, 0.67189438]])
In [39]: # print the first 10 predicated probabilites for class 1
         logreg.predict proba(X test)[0:10, 1]
Out[39]: array([0.36752429, 0.28356344, 0.28895886, 0.4141062, 0.15896027,
                0.17065156, 0.49889026, 0.51341541, 0.27678612, 0.67189438])
In [42]: v pred prob = logreg.predict proba(X test)[:, 1]
In [43]: # allow plots to appear in the notebook
         %matplotlib inline
         import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
In [44]: # histogram of predicated probabilites
         plt.hist(y pred prob, bins=8)
         plt.xlim(0, 1)
         plt.title('Histogram of predicated probabilities')
         plt.xlabel('Predicated probability of diabetes')
         plt.ylabel('Frequency')
Out[44]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Frequency')
```



Decrease the threshold for predicting diabetes in order to increase the sensitivity of the classifier

```
[[118 12]
            [ 47 15]]
In [50]: # new confusion matrix (threshold of 0.3)
          print(metrics.confusion matrix(y test, y pred class))
          [[80 50]]
            [16 46]]
In [51]: # sensitivity has increased (used to be 0.24)
          print(46 / float(46 + 16))
          0.7419354838709677
In [52]: # specificity has decreased (used to be 0.91)
          print(80 / float(80 + 50))
          0.6153846153846154
          Conclusion: . Threshold of 0.5 is used by default (for binary problems) to convert predicted
          probabilities into class predictions. . Threshold can be adjusted to increase sensitivity or
          specificity. . Sensitivity and specificity have an inverse relationship.
          ROC Curves and Area Under the Curve (AUC)
          Question: Wouldn't it be nice if we could see how sensitivity and specificity are affected by
          various thresholds, without actually changing the threshold?
          Answer: Plot the ROC curve!
In [53]: # Important : first argument is true values, second argument is predica
          ted probabilities
          fpr, tpr, thresholds = metrics.roc_curve(y_test, y_pred_prob)
          plt.plot(fpr, tpr)
          plt.xlim([0.0, 1.0])
          plt.ylim([0.0, 1.0])
```

```
plt.title('ROC curve for diabetes classfier')
plt.xlabel('False Positive Reate (1 - Specificity)')
plt.grid(True)
```



. ROC curve can help you to choose a threshold that balances sensitivity and specificity in a way that makes sense for your particular context. . You can't actually see the thresholds used to generate the curve on the ROC curve itself.

```
Sensitivity: 0.7258064516129032
           Specificity: 0.6153846153846154
           AUC is the percentage of the ROC plot that is underneath the curve:
In [67]: # Important: first argument is true values, second argument is predica
           ted probabilities
           print(metrics.roc auc score(y test, y pred prob))
           0.7245657568238213
           . AUC is useful as a single number summary of classifier performance. . If you randomly chose
           one positive and one negative observation, AUC represents the likelihood that your classifier will
           assign a higher predicted probability to the positive observation. . AUC is useful even when there
           is high class imbalance (unlike classification accuracy).
In [69]: import warnings
           warnings.filterwarnings('ignore')
           # calculate cross-validated AUC
           from sklearn.model_selection import cross val score
           cross val score(logreg, X, y, cv=10, scoring='roc auc').mean()
Out[69]: 0.7378233618233618
           Confusion matrix advantages: . Allows you to calculate a variety of metrics . Useful for multi-
           class problems (more than two response classes)
           ROC/AUC advantages: . Does not require you to set a classification threshold . Still useful when
           there is high class imbalance
 In [ ]:
 In [ ]:
```