

BM 336546 - HW2: Type 1 Diabetes

Theory Questions

Q1

Even though the most known evaluation metric of a model is its *accuracy*, this metric is not always a good one. For example, lets say there is a very rare disease that affects only 1 person in 1,000,000 (namely, data is highly imbalanced). If we have a naive classifier that always says the sample patient is healthy, we could very well have 100% accuracy, but the model will not be useful at all. This is why accuracy is not always the best metric to use. There are many other evaluation metrics we use to score the *performance* of the model, which include (but are not limited to) sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, F1 Score, and AUROC.



Q2

There are a couple of things to look at when choosing whether to use feature selection:

- Computational Complexity: The more features we have, the longer it takes to fit the models to the data. Therefore, if we want to reduce the computation time, we can reduce the number of features.
- Relevance: Sometimes, there are features which do not correlate at all with the data. For example, if we want to create a model that diagnoses T1D, a feature of 'Favorite Ice Cream Flavor' will probably not help us at all, and will only introduce noise into the classifier. In this example, it's not sure that 'Income' is a feature that will highly correlate with Heart Attack, and therefore removing it might make the model better (although we should check with/without and see the test results). From a medical point of view, high BP, high Age and high BMI are considered as risk factors for Heart Attack, while Income deals wih socio-economic considerations (like education level).
- Redundancy: Sometimes, two features that are basically derivatives of one another can be redundant, and one of them can be removed in order to reduce computation time. For instance we may expect a negative correlation between BMI and physical activity (low activity implies high BMI).
- Overfitting: one rule of thumb is to have at least 10 examples for one feature, otherwise it's likely that we'll overfit our data. Therefore a small dataset must be associated with a small number of features.

For this question, we would use the model that includes all of the features, because the difference between 2 and 5 features isn't a lot, and the addition of 3 additional features would not hinder the computational ability.

Q3

localhost:8888/lab 1/28

It's safe to assume that many of the images of the biopsies have areas that are identical (meaning the pixels in that area are of the same gray level as the same ones in other images). This means that the data is probably not linearly separable. When using logistic regression or SVM with a linear kernel, we assume that the data is linearly seperable. Since this is not the case here, we would choose to use an SVM model that uses a non-linear kernel (such as RBF or poly). It is important to note that if we want the non-linear SVM to work, we should have a number of sample images that is greater than the number of features. If this is not the case, it is possible that the non-linear SVM won't work as well as it should.

Q4

When dealing with classification for linearly separable data, we may use SVM with a linear kernel or logistic regression. The difference is that logistic regression is a probabilistic model whereas SVM is geometrical: LR provides a "soft assignment", namely a probability. Then we can chose to play with the threshold in order to optimize Se/Sp according to our needs. This can't be done with SVM, which makes a decision for each occurrence. Therefore, LR is less complex to implement and more flexible. We'll observe in the next part a big difference of calculation time between the two classifiers when cross-validating.

The main hyperparameters for SVM are the capacity *C* and the kernel coefficients (\$\gamma\$ if we choose RBF). For LR, the hyperparameter to tune is the regularization parameter \$\lambda\$.

\$C\$ represents how much do we penalize missclassifications. Setting high values of \$C\$ will enforce the SVM to not make missclassifications, which leads to ovefitting. Conversely, \$\lambda\$ penalizes the big balues of the weights \$w\$: setting it very high leads to underfitting. Thus, we can write a 'conceptual' relationship between the capacity and the regularization: \$C=1/ \lambda\$.

Coding Assignment

```
In [35]:
          import pandas as pd
          import numpy as np
          import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
          import warnings
          from sklearn.model selection import train test split
          import seaborn as sns
          from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
          from sklearn.model selection import StratifiedKFold
          from sklearn.pipeline import Pipeline
          from sklearn.model selection import GridSearchCV
          %matplotlib inline
          plt.rcParams['axes.labelsize'] = 14
          plt.rcParams['xtick.labelsize'] = 12
          plt.rcParams['ytick.labelsize'] = 12
          warnings.filterwarnings('ignore')
```

1) Data Loading & Preprocessing

For pre-processing, we decided to go change all binary string classications (such as 'Yes' and 'No') to

localhost:8888/lab 2/28

1 and 0. In addition, we found nans in the data, and we filled them using an iterative imputer that takes into account the 2 nearest features (by correlation) when filling th nan with 1 or 0.

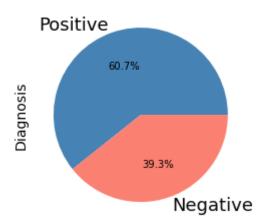
```
In [2]:
         from sklearn.experimental import enable_iterative_imputer
         from sklearn.impute import IterativeImputer
         df=pd.read csv('HW2 data.csv')
         #binary encoding of the data:
         df.replace(['Yes', 'Positive', 'No', 'Negative', 'Male', 'Female'], [1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0],
         #Are they missing values? In which columns?
         dicNa={}
         for column in df.columns:
             dicNa[column]=df[column].isna().sum()
         #iterative imputing:
         df train = df.iloc[0:500, :]
         imp_most_freq = IterativeImputer(max_iter=100, n_nearest_features=2, random_state=42, i
         imp most freq.fit(df train)
         df_new = imp_most_freq.transform(df).copy()
         df new = df new.round()
         df new = pd.DataFrame(df new)
         df new.columns = df.columns
```

2) Train-Test Split

Before performing a train-test split, we'll check if the data is imbalanced:

```
In [3]:
    X = df_new.drop('Diagnosis', axis=1)
    y = df_new.loc[:, 'Diagnosis']

y.value_counts().plot(kind="pie", labels=['Positive','Negative'], colors = ['steelblue'
    plt.show()
```



```
In [4]: X_train, X_test, Y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.20, random_state=
```

3) Data Exploration

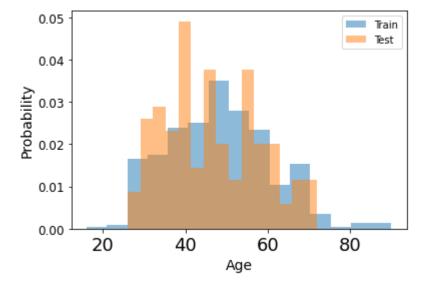
a) Feature Distribution

localhost:8888/lab 3/28

i. To begin with, we check if the distribution of the train set and the test set are similar. If they are not, then we will be over-fitting.

Let's start with the Age feature:

```
bins = 15
plt.figure()
plt.hist(X_train['Age'], bins, density=True, alpha=0.5, label='Train')
plt.hist(X_test['Age'], bins, density=True, alpha=0.5, label='Test')
plt.xlabel('Age')
plt.ylabel('Probability')
plt.legend(loc='upper right')
plt.show()
```



The shape of the distribution is pretty much the same. Now, we'll create a table to check this for the categorical variables:

Out[6]:		Positive Feature	Train %	Test %	Delta %
	0	Gender	62.6	68.1	5.5
	1	Increased Urination	48.5	47.8	0.7
	2	Increased Thirst	44	46	2
	3	Sudden Weight Loss	40.5	40.7	0.2
	4	Weakness	55.8	62.8	7.1
	5	Increased Hunger	43.6	46	2.4
	6	Genital Thrush	20.4	26.5	6.2
	7	Visual Blurring	44.2	47.8	3.5
	8	Itching	46.9	51.3	4.4

localhost:8888/lab 4/28

	Positive Feature	Train %	Test %	Delta %
9	Irritability	22.6	27.4	4.9
10	Delayed Healing	46.9	43.4	3.5
11	Partial Paresis	42.3	44.2	2
12	Muscle Stiffness	37.2	38.9	1.8
13	Hair Loss	35.8	35.4	0.4
14	Obesity	17	15.9	1.1
15	Family History	48.7	58.4	9.7

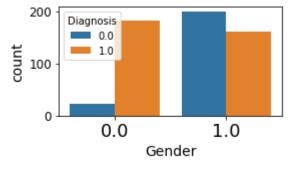
As we can see, the distributions are similar, and we don't need to worry about over-fitting in this particular situation.

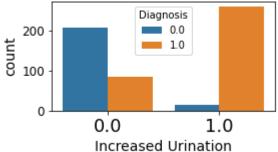
ii. If they were not similar, we would probably have to change the split percentage to a higher number (maybe 30% or 40%).

b) Relation between features and label

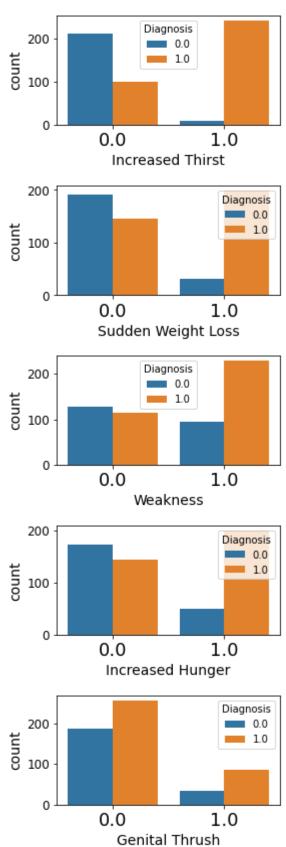
We'll visualize the relations between the binary variables and the label using *countplots*. For each category of each feature, we count the Positive and Negative (healthy) patients. We look for the features where a large difference between the counts exists.

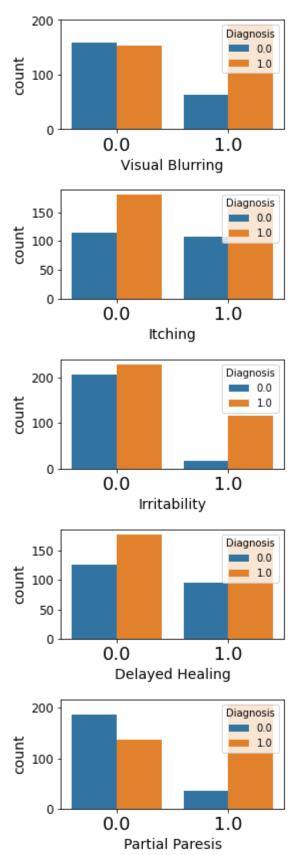
```
for column in X.columns[1:]:
    plt.figure(figsize = (4,2))
    sns.countplot(x=column,hue='Diagnosis',data=df_new)
    plt.show()
```

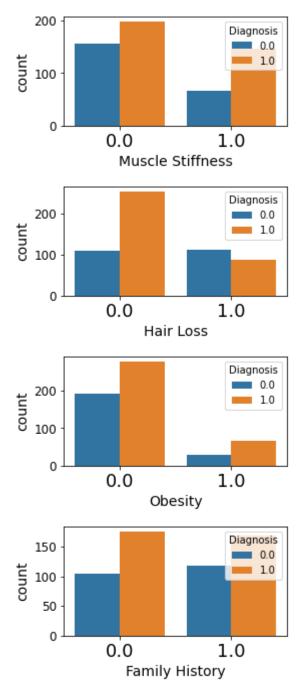




localhost:8888/lab 5/28







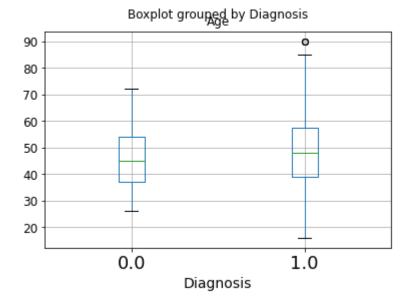
We see that a majority of women are positive, and a majority of patients with Increased Thirst/Urination.

Now, we can also look at the relation between Age and Diagnosis using a boxplot:

```
In [8]: df_new.boxplot(column='Age',by='Diagnosis')
```

Out[8]: <AxesSubplot:title={'center':'Age'}, xlabel='Diagnosis'>

localhost:8888/lab



There are no clear difference between the two distributions.

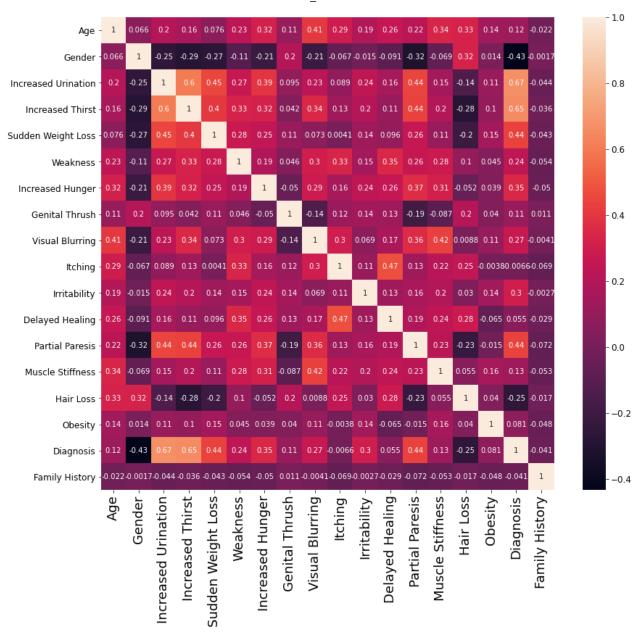
c) Correlation Between features/ Between features and label

Finally, we plot a correlation matrix in order to see the correlation between all of the categories:

```
In [9]:
    plt.figure(figsize = (14,12))
    sns.heatmap(df_new.corr(), annot = True)
```

Out[9]: <AxesSubplot:>

localhost:8888/lab 9/28



We can see that the features that are the more positively correlated with the *Diagnosis* are: *Increased Urination, Increased Thirst, Sudden Weight Loss, and Partial Paresis*.

Gender (being male) is negatively correlated with the Diagnosis.

d) Insights

I. We think that 'Age' having no serious correlation with the diagnosis was surprising. Additionally, the correlation with the gender was also surprising. Indeed, age may be useful to discriminate between patients suffering from T1D (youth) or T2D (appears lately).

II. We think that Increased Thirst/Urination will be very important in our model, because they are the features that have the highest correlation with the diagnosis.

4) Encoding

One-Hot vectoring is a representation of categorical values as binary vectors. The categorical values are represented as integers, and they are in turn each represented by a binary vector, where all

localhost:8888/lab 10/28



values are zero except for the index of the correctly categorized sample, which is a one. In our case, we already have binary categorical data ('Yes'/'No', 'True/False', etc.). Therefore, it is our opinion that one-hot encoding our dataset would be redundant, because we would be creating 2 binary columns from 1 binary column, only increasing the complexity of the algorithm. In addition, from a bit of research, we found that one-hot encoding binary data could result in problems with Multi-Collinearity, Dimensionality, Overfitting, and Time/Memory Complexity. We decided that we would change the binary categorical values ('Yes'/'No', 'True/False', etc.) to ones and zeros, and scale the whole dataset to avoid problems with the 'Age' value, which is a continuous variable. All in all, we have 18 columns, 17 of which are binary and 1 of which is continuous (but scaled to the binary data).

5) Models

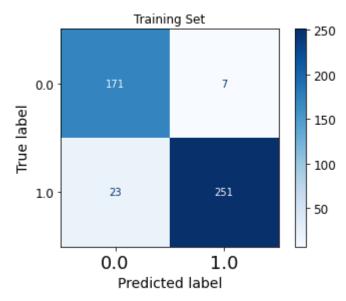
```
In [10]:
    n_splits = 5
    max_iter = 2000
    skf = StratifiedKFold(n_splits=n_splits, random_state=10, shuffle=True)
```

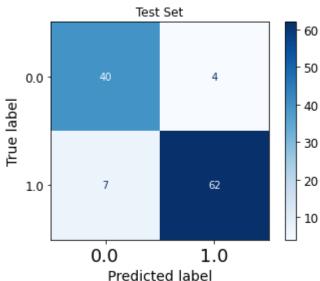
5.1) Linear Models

a) Logistic Regression

```
In [11]:
          from sklearn.linear model import LogisticRegression
          #Tuning our Hyperparameter lambda and the regularization scheme:
          solver = 'liblinear' #supports both L1 and L2
          def LR(X train,Y train):
              log reg = LogisticRegression(random state=5, max iter=max iter,solver=solver)
              lmbda = np.array([0.001, 0.01, 1, 10, 100, 1000])
              pipe = Pipeline(steps=[('scale', StandardScaler()), ('logistic', log reg)])
              clf = GridSearchCV(estimator=pipe, param grid={'logistic C': 1/lmbda, 'logistic p
                                 scoring=['accuracy','f1','precision','recall','roc_auc'], cv=skf
                                 refit='roc_auc', verbose=1, return_train_score=True)
              clf.fit(X train, Y train)
              #let's take the best estimator according to our AUC metric:
              return clf.best_estimator_
          best_log_reg=LR(X_train,Y_train)
         Fitting 5 folds for each of 12 candidates, totalling 60 fits
          [Parallel(n jobs=1)]: Using backend SequentialBackend with 1 concurrent workers.
         [Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Done 60 out of 60 | elapsed:
                                                                  1.5s finished
In [12]:
          from HW2 Functions import predict and report
          LR_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_log_reg,X=X_train,
          LR_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_log_reg,X=X_test,y=y_te
```

localhost:8888/lab 11/28





b) Linear SVM

Fitting 5 folds for each of 5 candidates, totalling 25 fits

[Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Using backend SequentialBackend with 1 concurrent workers.

[Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Done 25 out of 25 | elapsed: 54.0s finished

The best capacity \$C\$ is:

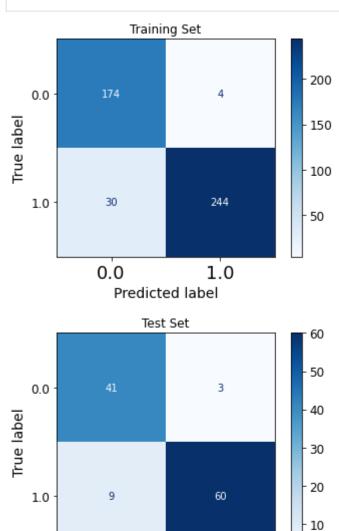
```
In [14]: best_lin_svm_params['svm_C']
```

localhost:8888/lab 12/28

```
Out[14]: 0.01
```

In [15]:

LSVM_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_lin_svm,X=X_traiLSVM_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_lin_svm,X=X_test,y=y_



Comments: confusion matrices of LR and linear SVM are quite similar, but linear SVM is computationally expensive.

1.0

Predicted label

5.2) Non-linear Models

0.0

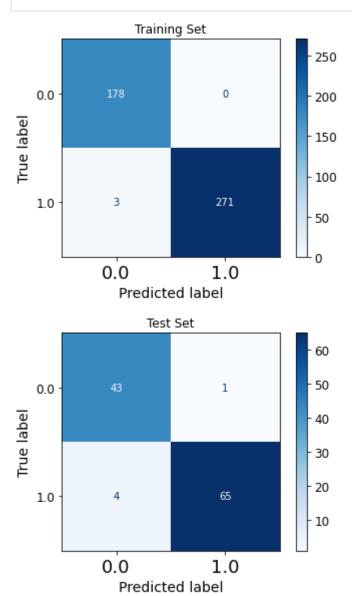
a) Non-linear SVM

localhost:8888/lab 13/28

best_nlin_svm,best_nlin_svm_params= NLSVM(X_train, Y_train)

In [17]:

NLSVM_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_nlin_svm,X=X_tr NLSVM_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_nlin_svm,X=X_test,y=

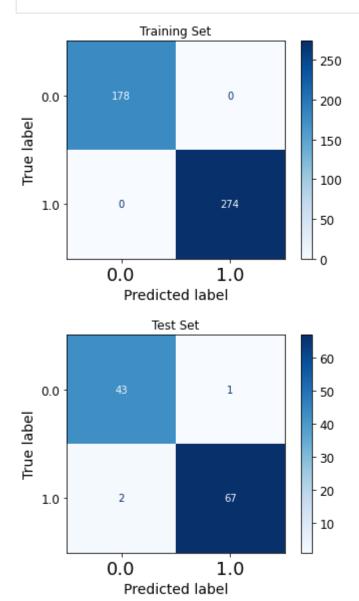


b) RFC

RF=RFC(X train, Y train)

localhost:8888/lab 14/28

RFC_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Set',estimator=RF,X=X_train,y=Y_train RFC_Test_Set',est_Test_



5.3) Performance Comparison of the 4 Classifiers

In [19]: **from** HW2 Functions **import** Model Comparison Table

Scores_Train = np.array([LR_Train_Scores,LSVM_Train_Scores,NLSVM_Train_Scores,RFC_Train_Model_Comparison_Table(Table_Data=Scores_Train, Title='Classifier Comparison for the Tr

Scores_Test = np.array([LR_Test_Scores,LSVM_Test_Scores,NLSVM_Test_Scores,RFC_Test_Scor
Model Comparison Table(Table Data=Scores Test, Title='Classifier Comparison for the Test

localhost:8888/lab 15/28

Classifier Comparison for the Training Set

	Se	Sp	bb∧	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
LogReg	0.91606	0.91606	0.97287	0.88144	0.93363	0.94361	0.98091
Linear SVC	0.89051	0.89051	0.98387	0.85294	0.92478	0.93487	0.97673
Non-Linear SVC	0.98905	0.98905	1.0	0.98343	0.99336	0.9945	1.0
RFC	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0



Classifier Comparison for the Test Set

		Se	Sp	₽₽V	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
LogReg		0.89855	0.89855	0.93939	0.85106	0.90265	0.91852	0.96574
Linear :	SVC	0.86957	0.86957	0.95238	0.82	0.89381	0.90909	0.96476
Non-Lir	near SVC	0.94203	0.94203	0.98485	0.91489	0.95575	0.96296	0.99605
RFC		0.97101	0.97101	0.98529	0.95556	0.97345	0.9781	0.99802

5.4) Extra Classifiers

In addition with the previous 4 classifiers, we proposed to train 3 others:

- -Linear Discriminant Analysis (linear)
- -KNN (non-linear)
- -Decision Tree (non-linear)

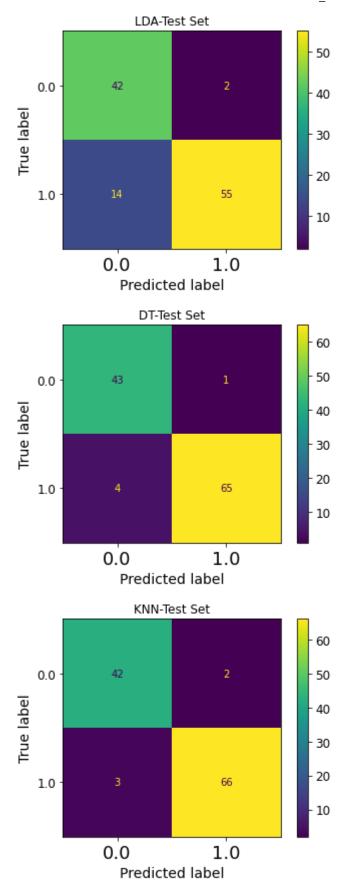
Below we report the confusion matrices for the test set.

In [20]:

```
from HW2_extra_models import *

LDA, LDA_Scores = model_LDA(X_train, X_test, Y_train, y_test, flag=True)
DT, DT_Scores = model_DT(X_train, X_test, Y_train, y_test, flag=True)
KNN, KNN_Scores = model_KNN(X_train, X_test, Y_train, y_test, flag=True)
```

localhost:8888/lab 16/28



5.5) Final Comparison with the 7 Classifiers

In [21]:
 Scores_Test = np.array([LR_Test_Scores,LSVM_Test_Scores,NLSVM_Test_Scores,RFC_Test_Scor
 Model_Comparison_Table(Table_Data=Scores_Test, Title='Classifier Comparison for the Test_Scores_Test

localhost:8888/lab 17/28

Classifier	Comparison	for the	Test Set
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	Se	Sp	₽₽V	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
LogReg	0.89855	0.89855	0.93939	0.85106	0.90265	0.91852	0.96574
Linear SVC	0.86957	0.86957	0.95238	0.82	0.89381	0.90909	0.96476
Non-Linear SVC	0.94203	0.94203	0.98485	0.91489	0.95575	0.96296	0.99605
RFC	0.97101	0.97101	0.98529	0.95556	0.97345	0.9781	0.99802
LDA	0.95455	0.7971	0.96491	0.75	0.85841	0.9597	0.96212
DT	0.97727	0.94203	0.98485	0.91489	0.95575	0.98105	0.95965
KNN	0.95455	0.95652	0.97059	0.93333	0.95575	0.9625	0.98962

We can clearly see that the Random Forest Classifier did the best job in terms of AUC, and generally performed better in almost all of the metrics than all of the other models. Both linear and non-linear models perform really well, but non-linear ones perform slightly better on this dataset.

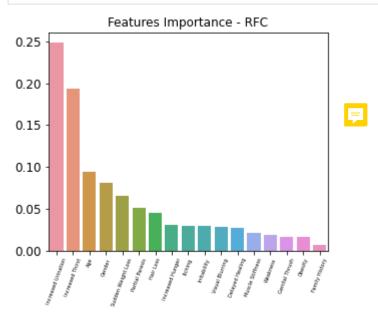
6) Feature Selection

I. We create a Random Forest Classifier, and use it to find the 2 most important features. Then, we plot a bar graph that shows the features sorted by importance (from left to right):

```
In [22]: from HW2_Functions import RFC_Feature_Selection

scaler = StandardScaler()
x_tr = scaler.fit_transform(X_train)
x_tst = scaler.transform(X_test)

feat = pd.DataFrame(X.columns)[0]
RFC_feat_select = RandomForestClassifier(class_weight='balanced_subsample', max_feature
RFC_feat_select.fit(x_tr, Y_train)
RFC_Feature_Selection(feat, RFC_feat_select)
```



II. Yes! We found in the data visualizing section that the features most correlated with the diagnosis

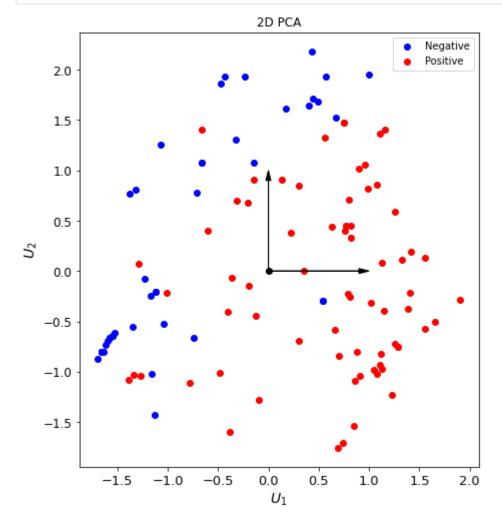
localhost:8888/lab 18/28

were increased thirst and increased urination, and those findings are identical here.

7) Dimensionality Reduction

a) 2D PCA

Here we perform dimensionality reduction using PCA, and then plot our data in a 2D plot:



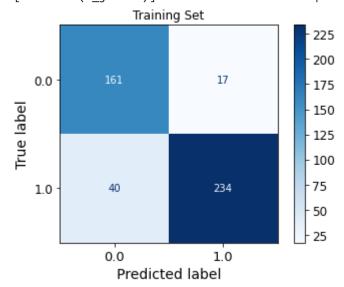
- **b)** It's not entirely separable by a single line, but there is a clear difference in the centroids of the two clusters.
- **c)** Now, we train the 4 first models (LR, linear SVM, non-linear SVM, RFC) on the dimensionality reduced training set, and then plot the model comparison table:

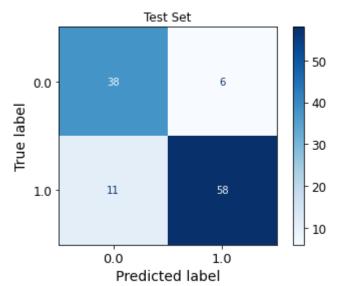
localhost:8888/lab 19/28

```
#------best_log_reg_pca=LR(x_tr_pca,Y_train)

LR_pca_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_log_reg_pca,X=LR_pca_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_log_reg_pca,X=x_tst
```

Fitting 5 folds for each of 12 candidates, totalling 60 fits [Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Using backend SequentialBackend with 1 concurrent workers. [Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Done 60 out of 60 | elapsed: 0.8s finished



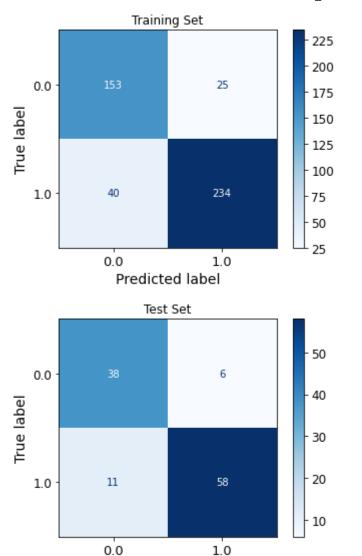


Fitting 5 folds for each of 5 candidates, totalling 25 fits

[Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Using backend SequentialBackend with 1 concurrent workers.

[Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Done 25 out of 25 | elapsed: 2.3s finished

localhost:8888/lab 20/28

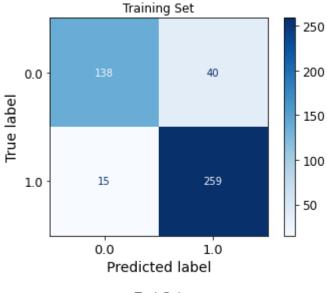


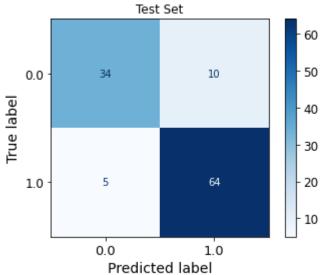
Predicted label

```
In [27]: #-----Non Linear SVM-----
best_nlin_svm_pca,best_params_nlin_svm_pca=NLSVM(x_tr_pca,Y_train)

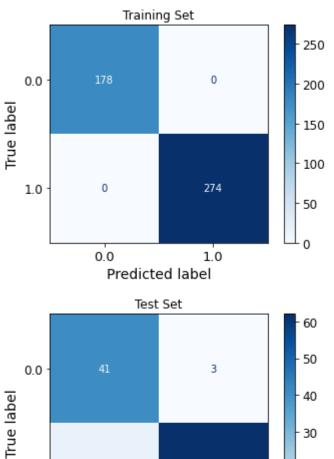
NLSVM_pca_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_nlin_svm_pc
NLSVM_pca_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_nlin_svm_pca,X=x)
```

localhost:8888/lab 21/28





localhost:8888/lab 22/28



1.0 - 7 62 - 20 - 10 Predicted label

In [29]:

Scores_Train_pca = np.array([LR_pca_Train_Scores,LSVM_pca_Train_Scores,NLSVM_pca_Train_Model_Comparison_Table(Table_Data=Scores_Train_pca, Title='Classifier Comparison for th

Scores_Test_pca = np.array([LR_pca_Test_Scores,LSVM_pca_Test_Scores,NLSVM_pca_Test_Scor Model_Comparison_Table(Table_Data=Scores_Test_pca, Title='Classifier Comparison for the

Classifier Comparison for the Training Set

		Se	Sp	bb∧	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
ſ	LogReg	0.85401	0.85401	0.93227	0.801	0.87389	0.89143	0.94446
ſ	Linear SVC	0.85401	0.85401	0.90347	0.79275	0.85619	0.87805	0.94362
ſ	Non-Linear SVC	0.94526	0.94526	0.86622	0.90196	0.87832	0.90401	0.96436
ſ	RFC	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

localhost:8888/lab 23/28

Classifier Comparison for the Test Set

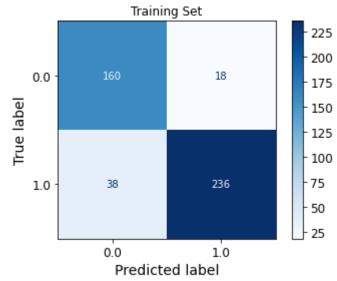
	Se	Sp	bbA	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
LogReg	0.84058	0.84058	0.90625	0.77551	0.84956	0.87218	0.9226
Linear SVC	0.84058	0.84058	0.90625	0.77551	0.84956	0.87218	0.92655
Non-Linear SVC	0.92754	0.92754	0.86486	0.87179	0.86726	0.8951	0.95257
RFC	0.89855	0.89855	0.95385	0.85417	0.9115	0.92537	0.97612

d. Now we train all of the models on the training set with only the 2 most important features found in section 6 (increased thirst and increased urination), and then plot the model comparison table:

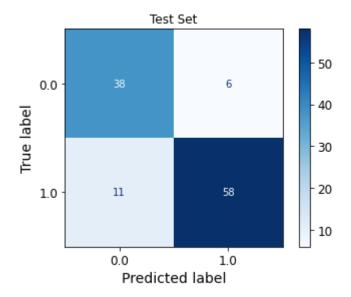
```
In [30]: X_train_2 = pd.concat([X_train['Increased Thirst'], X_train['Increased Urination']], ax
X_test_2 = pd.concat([X_test['Increased Thirst'], X_test['Increased Urination']], axis=
```

```
In [36]:
    best_lr_2=LR(X_train_2,Y_train)
    LR_2_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_lr_2,X=X_train_2
    LR_2_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_lr_2,X=X_test_2,y=y_t
```

Fitting 5 folds for each of 12 candidates, totalling 60 fits [Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Using backend SequentialBackend with 1 concurrent workers. [Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Done 60 out of 60 | elapsed: 1.3s finished



localhost:8888/lab 24/28



In [31]:

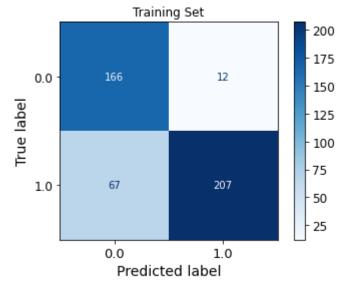
best_lsvm_2,best_lsvm_2_params=LSVM(X_train_2,Y_train)

LSVM_2_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_lsvm_2,X=X_tra LSVM_2_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test Set',estimator=best_lsvm_2,X=X_test_2,y

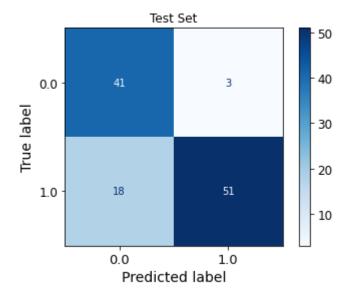
Fitting 5 folds for each of 5 candidates, totalling 25 fits

 $[Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: \ Using \ backend \ Sequential Backend \ with \ 1 \ concurrent \ workers.$

[Parallel(n_jobs=1)]: Done 25 out of 25 | elapsed: 0.6s finished



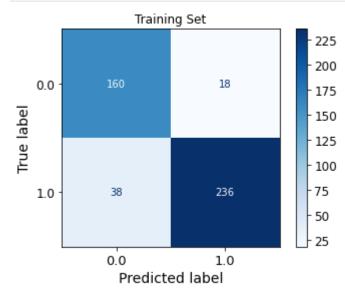
localhost:8888/lab 25/28

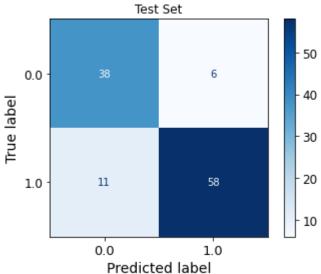


In [32]:

best_nlsvm_2,best_nlsvm_2_params=NLSVM(X_train_2,Y_train)

NLSVM_2_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=best_nlsvm_2,X=X_t NLSVM_2_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=best_nlsvm_2,X=X_test_2)



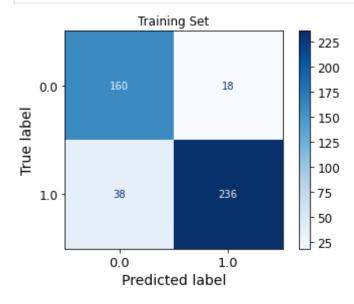


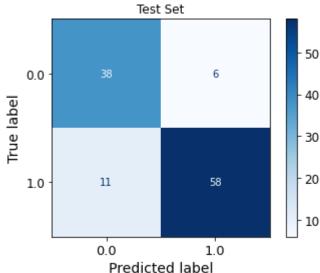
localhost:8888/lab 26/28

In [33]:

RF_2 = RFC(X_train_2,Y_train)

RFC_2_Train_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Training Set',estimator=RF_2,X=X_train_2,y=Y_RFC_2_Test_Scores=predict_and_report(set='Test_Set',estimator=RF_2,X=X_test_2,y=y_test)





In [37]:

Scores_Train_2 = np.array([LR_2_Train_Scores,LSVM_2_Train_Scores,NLSVM_2_Train_Scores,R Model_Comparison_Table(Table_Data=Scores_Train_2, Title='Classifier Comparison for the

Scores_Test_2 = np.array([LR_2_Test_Scores,LSVM_2_Test_Scores,NLSVM_2_Test_Scores,RFC_2
Model_Comparison_Table(Table_Data=Scores_Test_2, Title='Classifier Comparison for the T

localhost:8888/lab 27/28

Classifier Comparison for the Training Set

	Se	Sp	bb∧	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
LogReg	0.86131	0.86131	0.92913	0.80808	0.87611	0.89394	0.91128
Linear SVC	0.75547	0.75547	0.94521	0.71245	0.82522	0.83976	0.90944
Non-Linear SVC	0.86131	0.86131	0.92913	0.80808	0.87611	0.89394	0.90944
RFC	0.86131	0.86131	0.92913	0.80808	0.87611	0.89394	0.91128

Classifier Comparison for the Test Set

	Se	Sp	ÞÞΛ	NPV	Accuracy	F1	AUC
LogReg	0.84058	0.84058	0.90625	0.77551	0.84956	0.87218	0.89262
Linear SVC	0.73913	0.73913	0.94444	0.69492	0.81416	0.82927	0.8946
Non-Linear SVC	0.84058	0.84058	0.90625	0.77551	0.84956	0.87218	0.8946
RFC	0.84058	0.84058	0.90625	0.77551	0.84956	0.87218	0.89262

e. It's easy to see that the dimensionality reduced training set works better, but it's still pretty astounding that the 2-feature model did pretty good considering we removed 15 out of 17 total features from the training set. Obviously there is the question of computation time, but for the size of this dataset, both the dimensionality reduced and the 2-feature training sets were fitted in approximately the same time, so in this case we would choose the dimensionality reduced training set.

localhost:8888/lab 28/28