Kind reminder about ...

Unconstrained optimization

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}: x \mapsto f(x)$ be a differentiable function, the optimization problem of minimizing f over its domain is usually written as

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} f(x)$$

For this setting, any local minimizer x^* of f satisfies the following equality

$$\nabla f(x^*) = 0 \tag{1}$$

where, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$,

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_p} \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: if the objective function, f, is *convex*, any local optimum is also global, and eq. (1) is a necessary and sufficient condition for the global optimum. Well-known convex functions include affine functions and norms.

Norms

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$, the Euclidean norm (or ℓ_2 -norm) is computed as

$$||x||_2 = \sqrt{x^T x} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^p x_i^2}.$$

Given a data matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times p}$ and vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$, we may be interested to minimize the residual

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\| \boldsymbol{A}\beta - \boldsymbol{y} \right\|_2 \tag{2}$$

As the square function, is continuous monotonically increasing, we can solve instead

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\| \boldsymbol{A}\beta - \boldsymbol{y} \right\|_2^2 \tag{3}$$

and both minimizers of (2) and (3) are identical.

Polynomial approximation

Assume we dispose of a set of N points $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1} \times \mathbb{R}$, namely $\mathcal{T} := \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, we are interested in finding the best polynomial of degree p which fits the data the best, in the least-squares sense.

This consists in minimizing the sum of the squared residuals:

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1}} \sum_{i=0}^{n} \left((\hat{f}(x_i; \beta) - y_i)^2 \right)$$
 (4)

where the image of our polynomial model of degree p parametrized by $\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^{\top}$ is given by

$$\hat{f}(x;\beta) := \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \ldots + \beta_p x^p = \sum_{k=0}^p \beta_k x^k$$

Since $\hat{f}(x;\beta)$ takes the form of a matrix product,

$$\hat{f}(x;\beta) = (1, x, x^2, \cdots, x^p) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \end{pmatrix},$$

the approximation problem (4) can be reformulated as a linear inverse problem:

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1}} \left\| \boldsymbol{V} \beta - \boldsymbol{y} \right\|_2^2,$$

with $V \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (p+1)}$, the so-called *Vandermonde* matrix, defined as

$$V := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \dots & x_1^d \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \dots & x_2^d \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_N & x_N^2 & \dots & x_N^d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Accuracy, precision and recall, confusion matrix

Let us consider a random vector $(X,Y) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathcal{Y}$, with \mathcal{Y} either \mathbb{R} (for regression) or a finite set $\mathcal{Y} := \{c_1, \ldots, c_L\}$ (for classification).

Accuracy

Following the course notations, let us consider a classifier \hat{G} mapping \mathbb{R}^p to \mathcal{Y} , i.e.,

$$\hat{G}: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathcal{Y}, \ x \to \hat{G}(x).$$

The overall accuracy of \hat{G} on $\mathbb{R}^p \times \mathcal{Y}$ is defined as the proportion of samples from $\mathbb{R}^p \times \mathcal{Y}$ for which it correctly predicts the target, i.e., the proportion of observations (x, y) drawn from (X, Y), for which

$$\hat{G}(x) = y.$$

Mathematically, it corresponds to the value $Acc(\hat{G}) \in [0,1]$, defined as

$$Acc(\hat{G}) := \mathbb{P}(\hat{G}(X) = Y).$$

The empirical accuracy, also called training accuracy, of a classifier \hat{G} on a data set $\mathcal{T} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathcal{Y}$ is computed as the fraction of correctly classified training samples

$$Acc^{emp}(\mathcal{T}) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} I(y_i = \hat{G}(x_i)),$$

where I(x) = 1 if x is true, 0 otherwise.

If N is large enough, the overall accuracy is often estimated thanks to the empirical accuracy.

Precision and recall

Consider a classification problem with two classes, i.e., $\mathcal{Y} = \{c_1, c_2\} = \{False, True\}$. This problem is also called a binary problem.

The precision is the proportion of samples rightfully assigned to true among all samples classified as true, whereas the recall is the proportion of samples rightfully assigned to true among all true samples.

The overall precision and recall are computed, respectively, as

$$\operatorname{Pre}(\hat{G}) := \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y = True \ \& \ \hat{G}(X) = True)}{\mathbb{P}(\hat{G}(X) = True)} = \mathbb{P}(Y = True \mid \hat{G}(X) = True), \tag{precision}$$

$$\operatorname{Rec}(\hat{G}) := \frac{\mathbb{P}(\hat{G}(X) = True \ \& \ Y = True)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = True)} = \mathbb{P}(\hat{G}(X) = True \mid Y = True), \tag{recall}$$

$$\operatorname{Rec}(\hat{G}) := \frac{\mathbb{P}(G(X) = True \ \& \ Y = True)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = True)} = \mathbb{P}(\hat{G}(X) = True \mid Y = True),$$
 (recall)

The *empirical* counterparts are given by the relationships:

$$\operatorname{Pre}^{\operatorname{emp}}(\hat{G}) := \frac{\operatorname{TP}}{\operatorname{TP} + \operatorname{FP}},$$
 (empirical precision)

$$\operatorname{Rec}^{\operatorname{emp}}(\hat{G}) := \frac{\operatorname{TP}}{\operatorname{TP} + \operatorname{FN}},$$
 (empirical recall)

with the true positive, false negative, and false positive ratios as

$$\begin{split} \text{TP} &= \sum_{\{(x, True)\} \in \mathcal{T}} I(\hat{G}(x) = True), \\ \text{FN} &= \sum_{\{(x, True)\} \in \mathcal{T}} I(\hat{G}(x) = False), \\ \text{FP} &= \sum_{\{(x, False)\} \in \mathcal{T}} I(\hat{G}(x) = True). \end{split}$$

Confusion matrix

The confusion matrix of a classifier \hat{G} based on a set \mathcal{T} as written above is the matrix $\mathcal{C}(\hat{G}) \in \mathbb{N}^{L \times L}$ defined by

$$C_{i,j}(\hat{G}) := \sum_{\{(x,y)\} \in \mathcal{T}} I(y = c_i, \, \hat{G}(x) = c_j), \quad 1 \le i, j \le L,$$

In other words, $C_{i,j}(\hat{G})$ is the number of elements whose true class is c_i that are classified in class c_j . Note that in binary case, the confusion matrix becomes

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} TN & FP \\ FN & TP \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore, it contains all necessary information to compute precision and recall!