# Lecture 6

# Risk and Information Theory



## Last Time:

- Normal MLE and Regression
- Test Sets
- Validation and X-validation
- Regularization



## **Today**

- Risk and Bayes Risk
- The KL Divergence and Deviance
- In-sample penalties: the AIC
- Entropy
- Maximum Likelihood and Entropy



# UNDERFITTING (Bias) vs OVERFITTING (Variance)





## Sources of Variability

- sampling (induces variation in a mis-specified model)
- noise (the true  $p(y|x)$ )
- mis-specification



generale: 22 gersale: X2  $f$  $f(t) = \lambda^2$ sample x fixed y  $00 (912)$ no prylx)  $no \in$ deterministic  $00 \frac{p(y|x)}{x}$  $p(y|x)$  only from to variance  $P(M|x)$ <br>only form  $\epsilon$  $P(j|x)$  from  $bct1$  $P(y|x)$  only  $\rho(y|x)$  from both.  $f^{\circ}$ m  $\in$ **M** 207

#### Risk for a given h

Define:

$$
R_{out}(h)=E_{p(x,y)}[(h(x)-y)^2|h]=\int dydx\,p(x,y)(h(x)-y)^2
$$

$$
= \int dy dx p(y \mid x) p(x) (h(x) - y)^2 = E_X E_{Y \mid X} [(h - y)^2].
$$

$$
R_{out}(h)=\int dx p(x,y)(h(x)-f(x)-\epsilon)^2.
$$

(we assume 0 mean finite-variance noise  $\epsilon$ )



- Varying training sets make empirical  $R_{out}(h)$  a stochastic quantity, varying from one training set to another.
- This can be written as:

$$
R_{out}(\hat{h}_n)=E_{p(x,y)}[(h(x)-y)^2\mid\hat{h}_n]\\=\int dx p(x,y)(\hat{h}_n(x)-y)^2.
$$

• Average empirical risk over the training sets (a different model is fit on each set)



#### Bayes Risk

$$
R^*=\inf_h R_{out}(h)=\inf_h \int dx p(x,y)(h(x)-y)^2.
$$

Its the minimum risk ANY model can achieve.

Want to get as close to it as possible.

Could infimum amongst all possible functions. OVERFITTING!

Instead restrict to a particular Hypothesis Set:  $\mathcal{H}$ .



#### Bayes Risk for Regression

$$
R_{out}(h)=\int dx p(x,y)(h(x)-y)^2.
$$

$$
= E_X E_{Y|X}[(h-y)^2] = E_X E_{Y|X}[(h-r+r-y)^2] \\
$$

where  $r(x) = E_{Y|X}[y]$  is the "regression" function.

$$
R_{out}(h)=E_X[(h-r)^2]+R^*; R^*=E_X E_{Y|X}[(r-y)^2] \;
$$

For 0 mean, finite variance, then,  $\sigma^2$ , the noise of  $\epsilon$ , is the Bayes Risk, also called the irreducible error.





## **Empirical Risk Minimization**

- LLN suggests that we can replace the risk integral by a data sum and then minimize
- Assume  $(x_i, y_i) \sim P(x, y)$  (use empirical distrib)
- Fit hypothesis  $h = g_{\mathcal{D}}$ , where  $\mathcal D$  is our training sample.

$$
\bullet \;\; R_{out}(g_{\mathcal{D}}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{D}} (g_i - y_i)^2
$$

• minimize to get best for  $q_{\mathcal{D}}$ **M** 207

$$
R(h) = E_{XY}[L(h,y)]
$$
  

$$
\hat{R_n} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i L(y_i, h(x_i))
$$

For each  $h$  LLN implies convergence from empirical to actual.

Now,  $R^* = \inf_{allh} R(h)$  becomes infimum over empirical risks. But again restrict to  $H$  otherwise overfitting!



- Varying training sets make empirical  $R_{out}(h)$  a stochastic quantity, varying from one training set to another.
- Thus average empirical risk over the training sets (a different model is fit on each set)
- Goal of Learning: Build a function whose risk is closest to Bayes Risk



$$
\langle R\rangle=E_{\mathcal{D}}[R_{out}(g_{\mathcal{D}})]=E_{\mathcal{D}}E_{p(x,y)}[(g_{\mathcal{D}}(x)-y)^2]
$$

$$
\bar{g}=E_{\mathcal{D}}[g_{\mathcal{D}}]=(1/M)\sum_{\mathcal{D}}g_{\mathcal{D}}.\text{ Then,}
$$

$$
\langle R\rangle = E_{p(x)}[E_{\mathcal{D}}[(g_{\mathcal{D}}-\bar{g})^2]] + E_{p(x)}[(f-\bar{g})^2] + \sigma^2
$$

where  $y = f(x) + \epsilon$  is the true generating process and  $\epsilon$  has 0 mean and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ .





$$
\langle R\rangle = E_{p(x,y)}[E_{\mathcal{D}}[(g_{\mathcal{D}}-\bar{g})^2]] + E_{p(x,y)}[(f-\bar{g})^2] + \sigma^2
$$

This is the bias variance decomposition for regression.

Or, written as  $\langle R \rangle - R^*$ , this is

variance  $+$  bias<sup>2</sup>, or

estimation-error + approximation-error

$$
R(g)-\inf_{g\in \mathcal{H}}R(g)+\inf_{g\in \mathcal{H}}R(g)-R^*
$$



- first term is **variance**, squared error of the various fit g's from the average g, the hairiness.
- second term is **bias**, how far the average g is from the original f this data came from.
- $\bullet$  third term is the stochastic noise, minimum error that this model will always have.





#### SMALL World vs BIG **World**

- *Small World* answers the question: given a model class (i.e. a Hypothesis space, whats the best model in it). It involves parameters. Its model checking.
- *BIG World* compares model spaces. Its model comparison with or without "hyperparameters".







# VALIDATION

- train-test not enough as we *fit* for  $d$  on test set and contaminate it
- thus do train-validate-test





#### CROSS-VALIDATION



For hypothesis  $\mathcal{H}_a$  report  $R_{CV}$ 

**Test Set** left over





#### REGULARIZATION: A SMALL WORLD APPROACH

Keep higher a-priori complexity and impose a

#### complexity penalty

on risk instead, to choose a SUBSET of  $\mathcal{H}_{big}$ . We'll make the coefficients small:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^j \theta_i^2 < C
$$











## REGULARIZATION

$$
\mathcal{R}(h_j)=\sum_{y_i\in\mathcal{D}}(y_i-h_j(x_i))^2+\alpha\sum_{i=\text{o}}^j\theta_i^2.
$$

As we increase  $\alpha$ , coefficients go towards 0.



#### Regularization with Cross-Validation





#### MODEL COMPARISON: In-sample estimation

- Suppose we have a large-world subset of nested models.
- .. thus the models have the same likelihood form
- would be nice to not have to spend data on validation sets
- and exploit the notion that a negative log likelihood is a loss
- we could use strength of effects
- but not really needed for prediction



#### **KL-Divergence**

$$
D_{KL}(p,q) = E_p[log(p) - log(q)] = E_p[log(p/q)]\\ = \sum_i p_i log(\frac{p_i}{q_i}) \; or \; \int dPlog(\frac{p}{q})
$$

$$
D_{KL}\left(p,p\right)=0
$$

KL divergence measures distance/dissimilarity of the two distributions  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$ .



Divergence: **The additional uncertainty** induced by using probabilities from one distribution to describe another distribution - McElreath page 179



#### KL example

#### Bernoulli Distribution p with  $p = 0.3$ .

Try to approximate by  $q$ . What parameter?

```
def kld(p,q):
return p * np.log(p/q) + (1-p) * np.log((1-p)/(1-q))
```




# Jensen's Inequality for convex  $f(x)$ :

#### $E[f(X)] \geq f(E[X])$





#### KL-Divergence is always non-negative

Jensen's inequality:

$$
\implies D_{KL}(p,q) \geq 0 \text{ (O iff } q=p \, \forall x\text{)}.
$$

$$
D_{KL}(p,q) = E_p[log(p/q)] = E_p[-log(q/p)] \geq -\log(E_p[q/p]) = -\log(\int dQ) = 0
$$



#### MARS ATTACKS (Topps, 1962; Burton 1996)

 $Earth: q = \{0.7, 0.3\}, Mars: p = \{0.01, 0.99\}.$ 



Earth to predict Mars, less surprise on landing:  $D_{KL}(p,q) = 1.14, D_{KL}(q,p) = 2.62$ .



PROBLEM: we dont know distribution  $p$ . If we did, why do inference?

SOLUTION: Use the empirical distribution That is, approximate population expectations by sample averages.

$$
\implies D_{KL}(p,q) = E_p[log(p/q)] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_i log(p_i/q_i)
$$



#### Maximum Likelihood justification

$$
D_{KL}(p,q) = E_p[log(p/q)] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_i(log(p_i) - log(q_i)
$$

# Minimizing KL-divergence  $\implies$  maximizing  $\sum log(q_i)$

Which is exactly the log likelihood! MLE!



#### Model Comparison: Likelihood Ratio

$$
D_{KL}(p,q)-D_{KL}(p,r)=E_p[log(r)-log(q)]=E_p[log(\frac{r}{q})]
$$

In the sample approximation we have:

$$
D_{KL}(p,q) - D_{KL}(p,r) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i log(\frac{r_i}{q_i}) = \frac{1}{N} log(\frac{\prod_i r_i}{\prod_i q_i}) = \frac{1}{N} log(\frac{\mathcal{L}_r}{\mathcal{L}_q})
$$



#### **MODEL COMPARISON: Deviance**

You only need the sample averages of the logarithm of  $r$  and  $q$ :

$$
D_{KL}(p,q)-D_{KL}(p,r)=\langle log(r)\rangle -\langle log(q)\rangle
$$

Define the deviance:  $D(q) = -2 \sum log(q_i)$ , a LOSS ...

$$
D_{KL}(p,q)-D_{KL}(p,r)=\frac{2}{N}(D(q)-D(r))
$$



#### Example

Generate data from:

$$
\mu_i=0.15x_{1,i}-0.4x_{2,i},\,\,y\sim N(\mu,1)
$$

2 parameter model.

Generate 10,000 realizations, for 1-5 parameters, 20 data points and 100 data points.

Split into train and test, and do OLS.



#### Train and Test Deviances



![](_page_38_Picture_2.jpeg)

#### Train and Test Deviances

![](_page_39_Figure_1.jpeg)

The test set deviances are  $2*p$  above the training set ones.

![](_page_39_Picture_3.jpeg)

## **Akake Information Criterion:**

#### AIC estimates out-of-sample deviance

$$
AIC = D_{train} + 2p\,
$$

- Assumption: likelihood is approximately multivariate gaussian.
- penalized log-likelihood or risk if we choose to identify our distribution with the likelihood: **REGULARIZATION**

![](_page_40_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### AIC for Linear Regression

$$
AIC = D_{train} + 2p \text{ where } \\ D(q) = -2 \sum_i log(q_i) = -2\ell
$$

$$
\sigma^2_{MLE}=\frac{1}{N}SSE
$$

$$
AIC = -2 (-\frac{N}{2}(log(2\pi) + log(\sigma^2)) - 2(-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{MLE}^2}\times SSE) + 2p
$$

 $AIC = Nlog(SSE/N) + 2p + constant$ 

![](_page_41_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### Information and Uncertainty

- coin at 50% odds has maximal uncertainty
- reflects my lack of knowledge of the physics
- many ways for 50% heads.
- an election with  $p=0.99$  has a lot of Information

information is the reduction in uncertainty from learning *an outcome*

![](_page_42_Picture_6.jpeg)

## Information Entropy, a measure of uncertainty

Desiderata:

- must be continuous so that there are no jumps
- must be additive across events or states, and must increase as the number of events/states increases

$$
H(p)=-E_p[log(p)]=-\int p(x)log(p(x))dx \;\; OR \; -\sum_i p_i log(p_i)
$$

![](_page_43_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### Entropy for coin fairness

![](_page_44_Figure_1.jpeg)

$$
H(p)=-E_p[log(p)]=-p*log(p)-(1-p)*log(1-p)\\
$$

![](_page_44_Picture_4.jpeg)

# Maximum Entropy (MAXENT)

- finding distributions consistent with constraints and the current state of our information
- what would be the least surprising distribution?
- The one with the least additional assumptions?

The distribution that can happen in the most ways is the one with the highest entropy

![](_page_45_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### For a gaussian

$$
p(x)=\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}
$$

$$
H(p) = E_p [log(p)] = E_p [-\frac{1}{2} log(2\pi \sigma^2) - (x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2]
$$

$$
= -\frac{1}{2} log(2\pi \sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} E_p[(x-\mu)^2] = -\frac{1}{2} log(2\pi \sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} log(2\pi e \sigma^2)
$$

![](_page_46_Picture_4.jpeg)

#### Cross Entropy

$$
H(p,q)=-E_p[\mathit{log}(q)]
$$

Then one can write:

$$
D_{KL}(p,q)=H(p,q)-H(p)\,
$$

KL-Divergence is additional entropy introduced by using  $q$  instead of  $p$ .

We saw this for Logistic regression

![](_page_47_Picture_6.jpeg)

- $H(p,q)$  and  $D_{KL}(p,q)$  are not symmetric.
- if you use a unusual, low entropy distribution to approximate a usual one, you will be more surprised than if you used a high entropy, many choices one to approximate an unusual one.

Corollary: if we use a high entropy distribution to approximate the true one, we will incur lesser error.

![](_page_48_Picture_3.jpeg)

#### Gaussian is MAXENT for fixed mean and variance

Consider  $D_{KL}(q,p)=E_q[log(q/p)]=H(q,p)-H(q)> =0$ 

$$
H(q,p)=E_q[log(p)]=-\frac{1}{2}log(2\pi\sigma^2)-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}E_q[(x-\mu)^2]
$$

 $E_{\sigma}[(x-\mu)^{2}]$  is CONSTRAINED to be  $\sigma^{2}$ .  $H(q,p)=-\frac{1}{2}log(2\pi\sigma^2)-\frac{1}{2}=-\frac{1}{2}log(2\pi e\sigma^2)=H(p)>=H(q)$ 

![](_page_49_Picture_4.jpeg)

### Importance of MAXENT

- most common distributions used as likelihoods (and priors) are in the exponential family, MAXENT subject to different constraints.
- gamma: MAXENT all distributions with the same mean and same average logarithm.
- exponential: MAXENT all non-negative continuous distributions with the same average inter-event displacement

![](_page_50_Picture_4.jpeg)

### Importance of MAXENT

- Information entropy enumerates the number of ways a distribution can arise, after having fixed some assumptions.
- choosing a maxent distribution as a likelihood means that once the constraints has been met, no additional assumptions.

# The most conservative distribution

![](_page_51_Picture_4.jpeg)

# MLE for Logistic Regression

- example of a Generalized Linear Model (GLM)
- "Squeeze" linear regression through a **Sigmoid** function
- this bounds the output to be a probability
- What is the sampling Distribution?

![](_page_52_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### **Sigmoid function**

This function is plotted below:

 $h =$  lambda z: 1./(1+np.exp(-z))  $zs = np.arange(-5, 5, 0.1)$ plt.plot(zs, h(zs), alpha=0.5);

Identify:  $z = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}$  and  $h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})$ with the probability that the sample is a '1'  $(y = 1)$ .

![](_page_53_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_53_Picture_5.jpeg)

Then, the conditional probabilities of  $y = 1$  or  $y = 0$ given a particular sample's features x are:

$$
P(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})
$$
  

$$
P(y=0|\mathbf{x}) = 1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}).
$$

These two can be written together as

$$
P(y|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = h(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x})^y(1-h(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}))^{(1-y)}
$$

**BERNOULLI!!** 

![](_page_54_Picture_5.jpeg)

Multiplying over the samples we get:

$$
P(y|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w})=P(\{y_i\}|\{\mathbf{x}_i\},\mathbf{w})=\prod_{y_i\in\mathcal{D}}P(y_i|\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{w})=\prod_{y_i\in\mathcal{D}}h(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i)^{y_i}(1-h(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i))^{(1-y_i)}
$$

A noisy  $y$  is to imagine that our data  $D$  was generated from a joint probability distribution  $P(x, y)$ . Thus we need to model y at a given x, written as  $P(y | x)$ , and since  $P(x)$  is also a probability distribution, we have:

$$
P(x,y)=P(y\mid x)P(x),
$$

![](_page_55_Picture_4.jpeg)

Indeed its important to realize that a particular sample can be thought of as a draw from some "true" probability distribution.

**maximum likelihood** estimation maximises the likelihood of the sample y,

$$
\mathcal{L}=P(y\mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}).
$$

Again, we can equivalently maximize

$$
\ell = log(P(y \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}))
$$

![](_page_56_Picture_5.jpeg)

Thus

$$
\ell = log \left( \prod_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i)^{y_i} (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i))^{(1-y_i)} \right)
$$
  
= 
$$
\sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} log \left( h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i)^{y_i} (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i))^{(1-y_i)} \right)
$$
  
= 
$$
\sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} log h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i)^{y_i} + log (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i))^{(1-y_i)}
$$
  
= 
$$
\sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} (y_i log(h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})) + (1 - y_i) log(1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})))
$$

Use Convex optimization! (soon, hw)

![](_page_57_Picture_3.jpeg)