Lecture 6

Risk and Information Theory



Last Time:

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

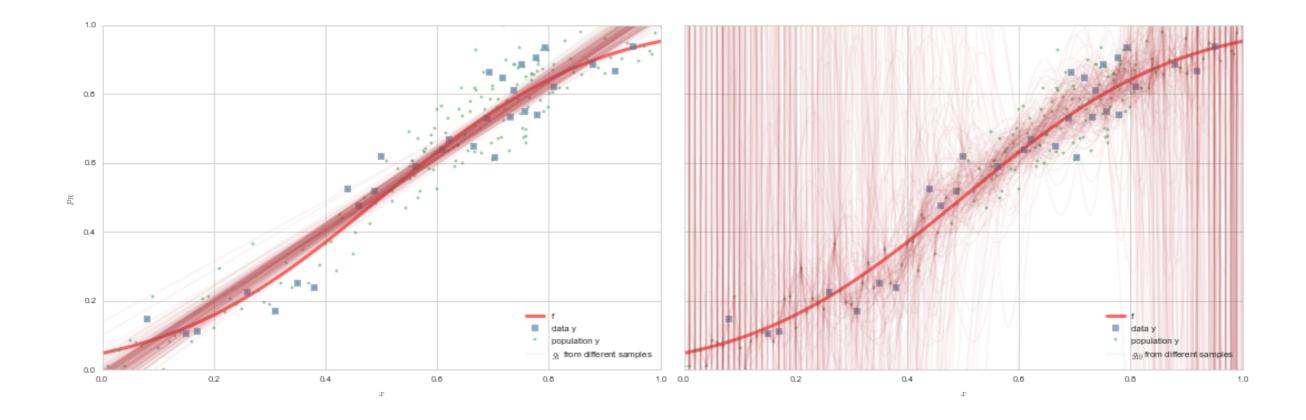


Today

- 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. gere sate: X2 fit : x. fit : N sample X fixed x 110 p(y/2c) no p(y|x) no E deterministic noise contrib NO P(J/x) p(y|x) only from sampling to variance p (y/x) only from: E P(JIX) from both. P(ylx) only P(y/x) from both . from E **AM 207**

Risk for a given h

Define:

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

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

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

(we assume 0 mean finite-variance noise ϵ)



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

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

• 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, σ^2 , the noise of ϵ , 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 g_D

 [™] AM 207

$$egin{aligned} R(h) &= E_{XY}[L(h,y)] \ \hat{R_n} &= rac{1}{N}\sum_i L(y_i,h(x_i)) \end{aligned}$$

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 \mathcal{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



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

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

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

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





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

This is the bias variance decomposition for regression.

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

variance + $bias^2$, or

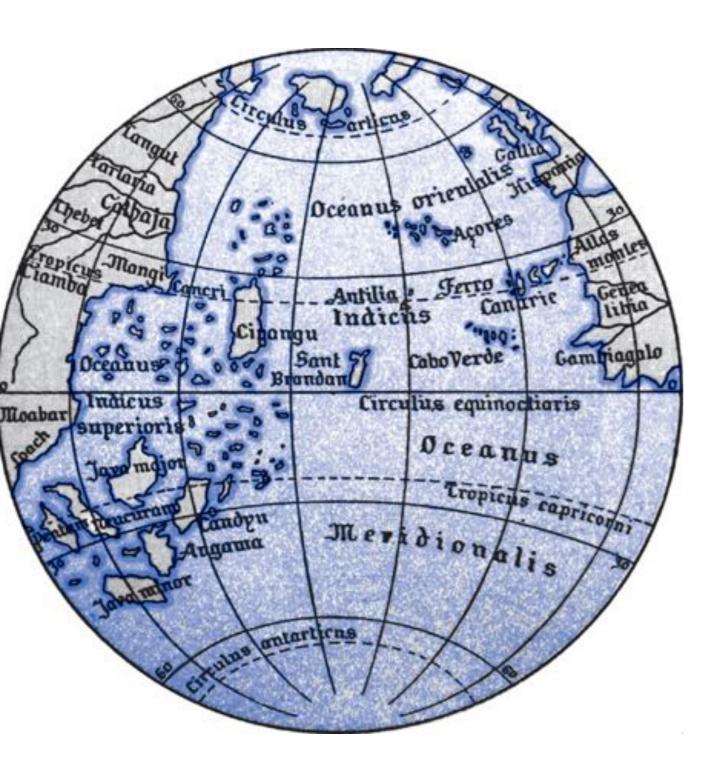
estimation-error + approximation-error

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



- 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.
- third term is the **stochastic noise**, minimum error that this model will always have.

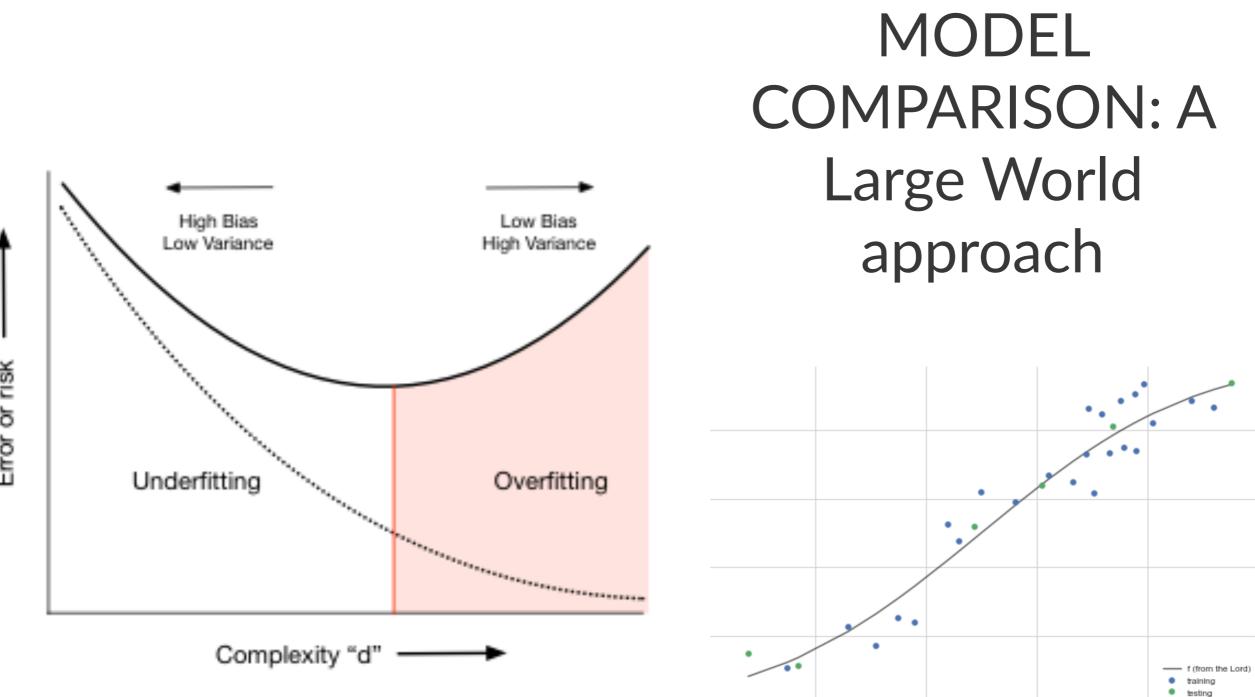




SMALL World vs BIG World

- 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".

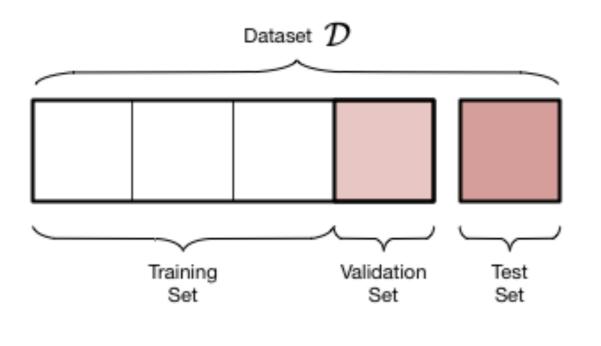


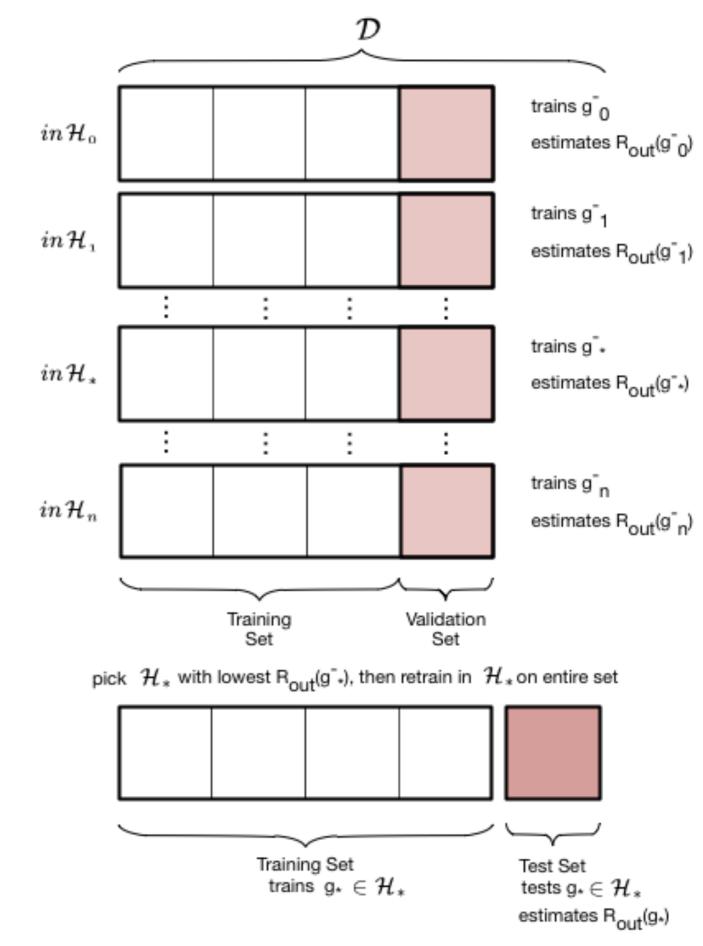




VALIDATION

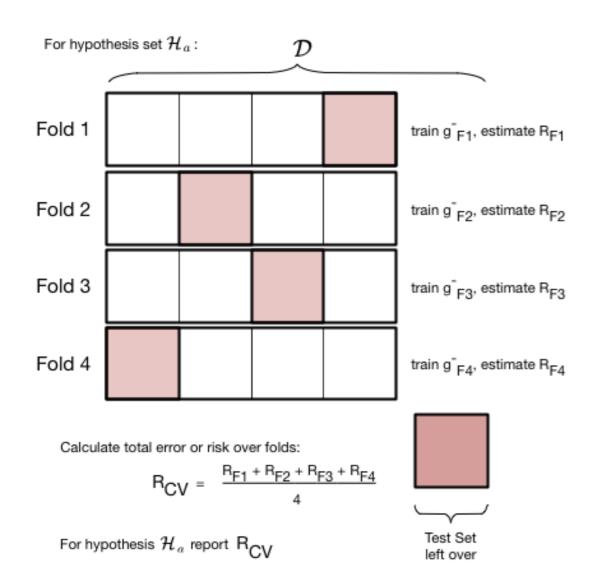
- train-test not enough as we fit for d on test set and contaminate it
- thus do train-validate-test

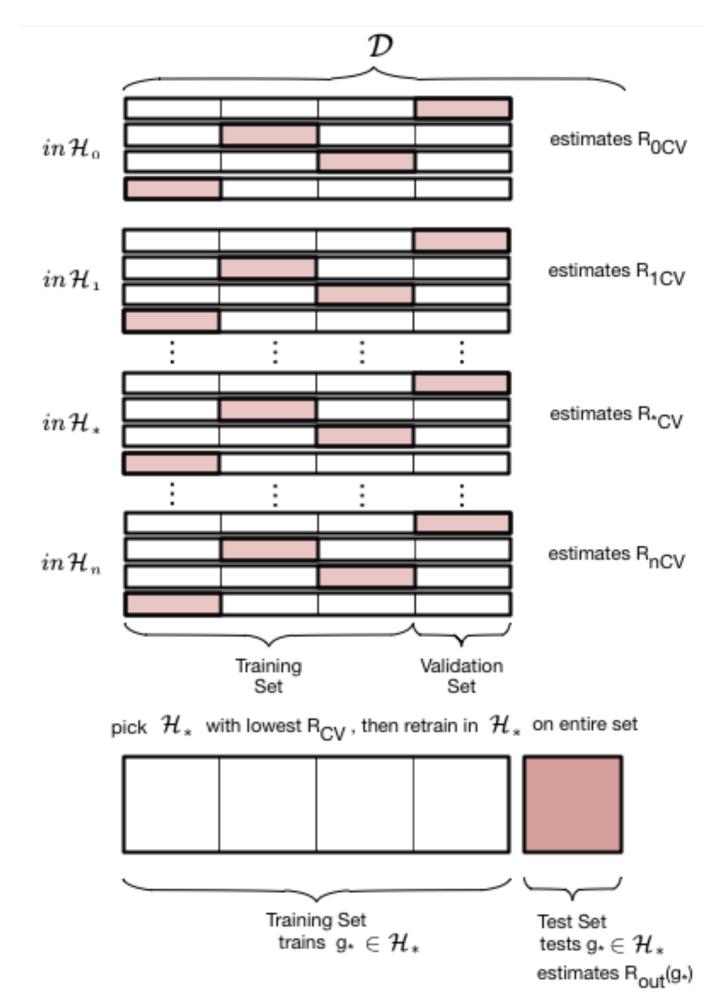






CROSS-VALIDATION







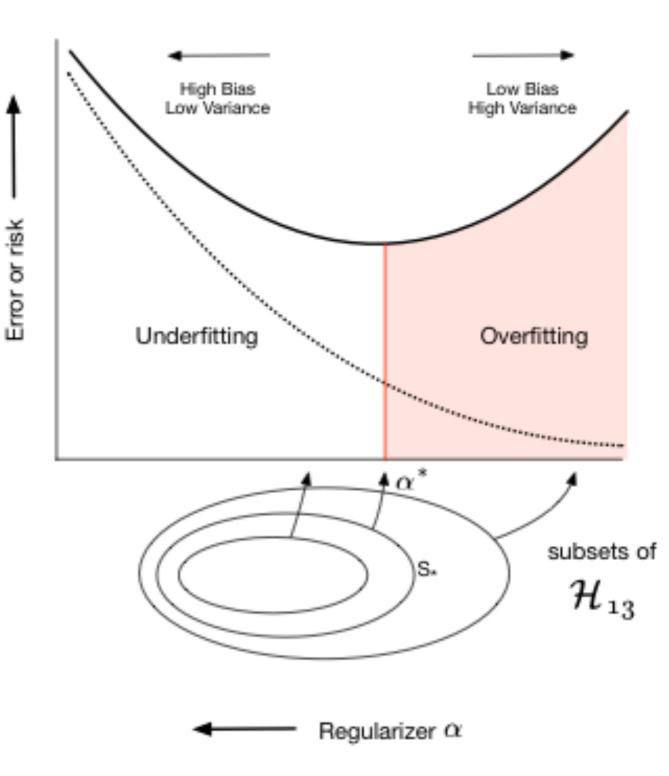
REGULARIZATION: A SMALL WORLD APPROACH

Keep higher a-priori complexity and impose a

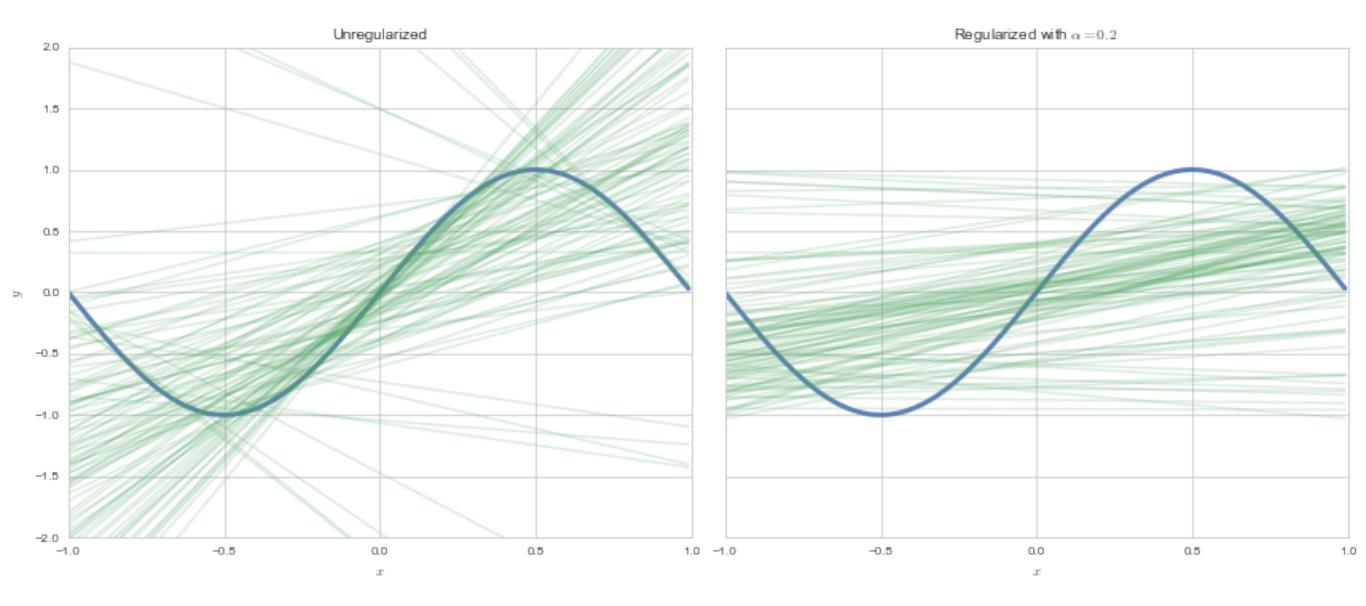
complexity penalty

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

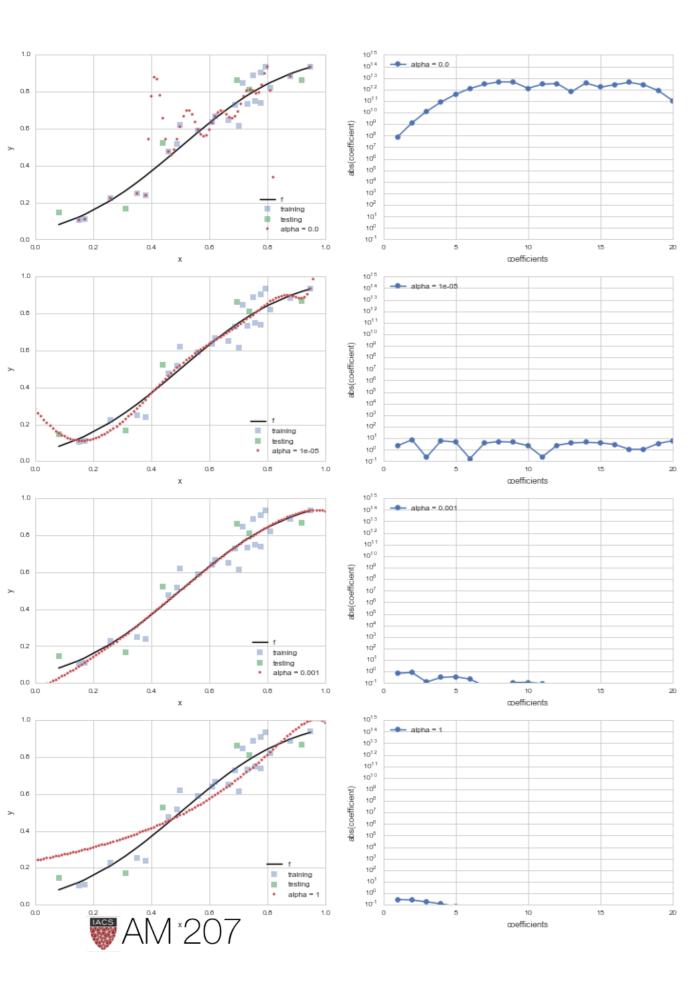
$$\sum_{i=0}^{j} heta_{i}^{2} < C$$







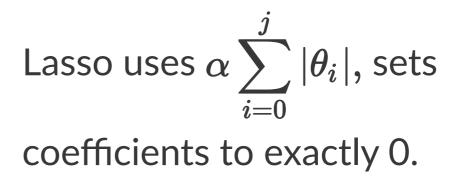




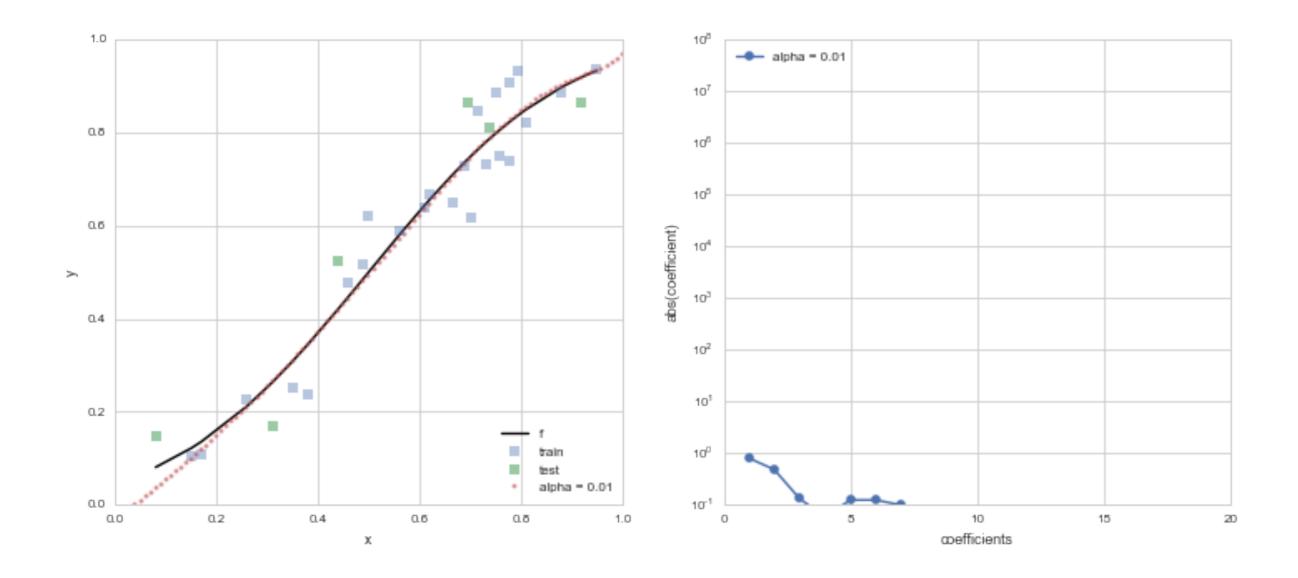
REGULARIZATION

$$\mathcal{R}(h_j) = \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} (y_i - h_j(x_i))^2 + lpha \sum_{i=0}^j heta_i^2.$$

As we increase α , 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

$$egin{aligned} D_{KL}(p,q) &= E_p[log(p) - log(q)] = E_p[log(p/q)] \ &= \sum_i p_i log(rac{p_i}{q_i}) \, \, or \, \int dPlog(rac{p}{q}) \end{aligned}$$

$$D_{KL}(p,p)=0$$

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

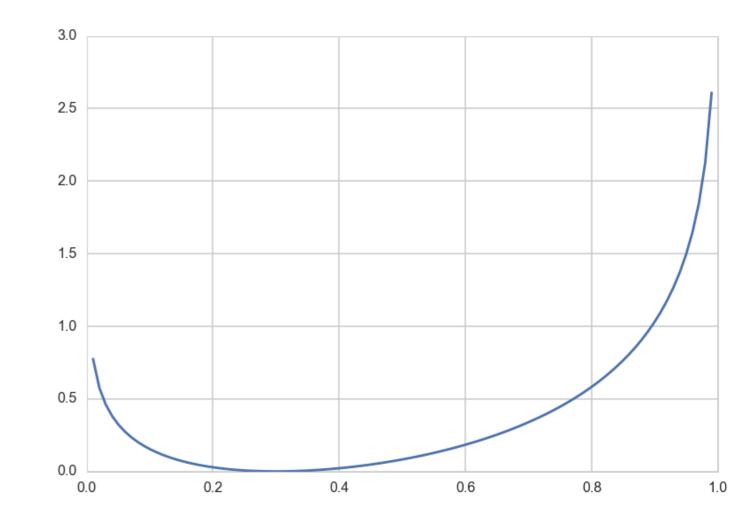


KL example

Bernoulli Distribution p with p = 0.3.

Try to approximate by *q*. What parameter?

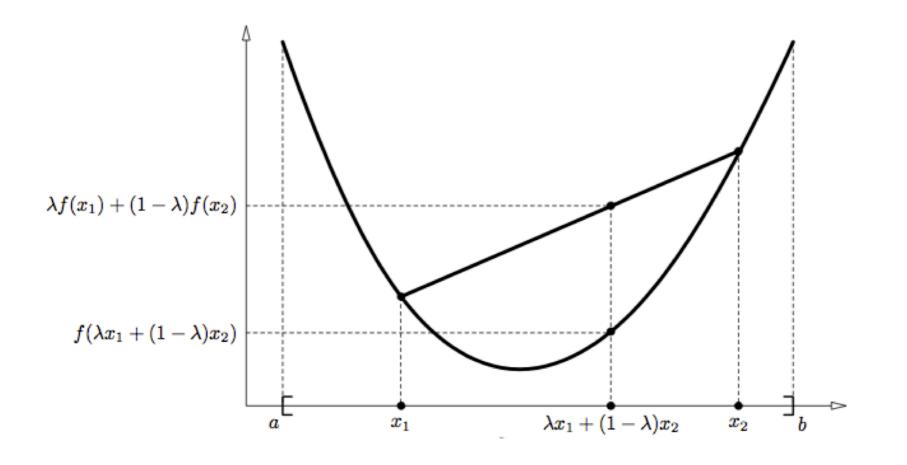
def kld(p,q):
 return p*np.log(p/q) + (1-p)*np.log((1-p)/(1-q))





Jensen's Inequality for convex f(x):

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





KL-Divergence is always non-negative

Jensen's inequality:

$$egin{aligned} &\longrightarrow D_{KL}(p,q) \geq 0 ext{ (0 iff } q = p \ orall x). \ &D_{KL}(p,q) = E_p[log(p/q)] = E_p[-log(q/p)] \geq -\log(E_p[q/p]) = \ &-\log(\int dQ) = 0 \end{aligned}$$



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.

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



Maximum Likelihood justification

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

$\begin{array}{l} \text{Minimizing KL-divergence} \implies \text{maximizing} \\ \sum_{i} log(q_i) \end{array}$

Which is exactly the log likelihood! MLE!



Model Comparison: Likelihood Ratio

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

In the sample approximation we have:

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



MODEL COMPARISON: Deviance

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

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

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

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



Example

Generate data from:

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

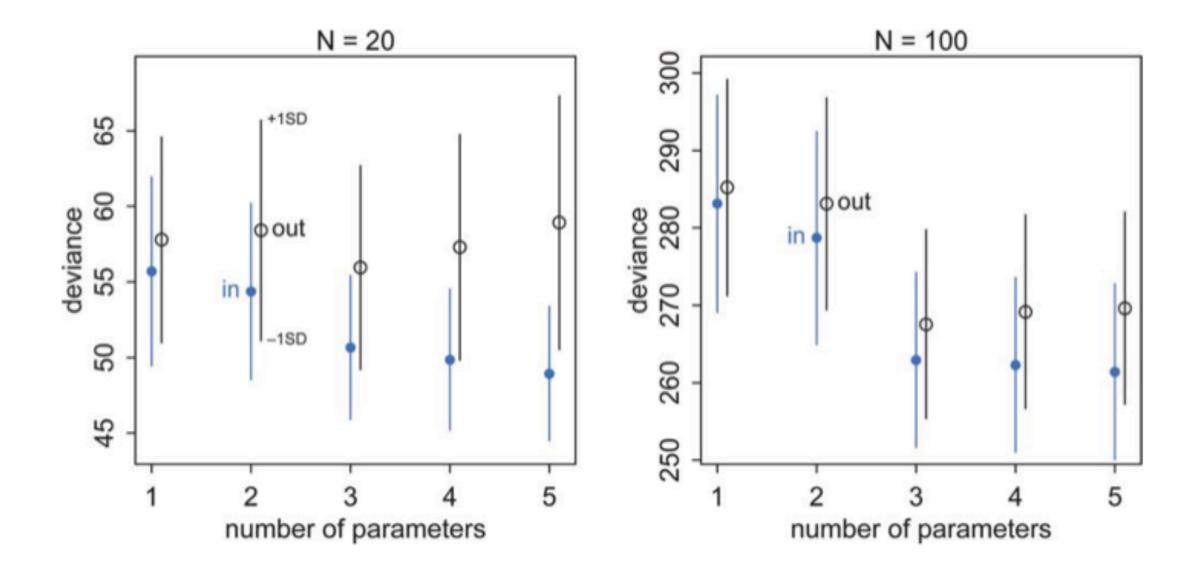
2 parameter model.

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

Split into train and test, and do OLS.

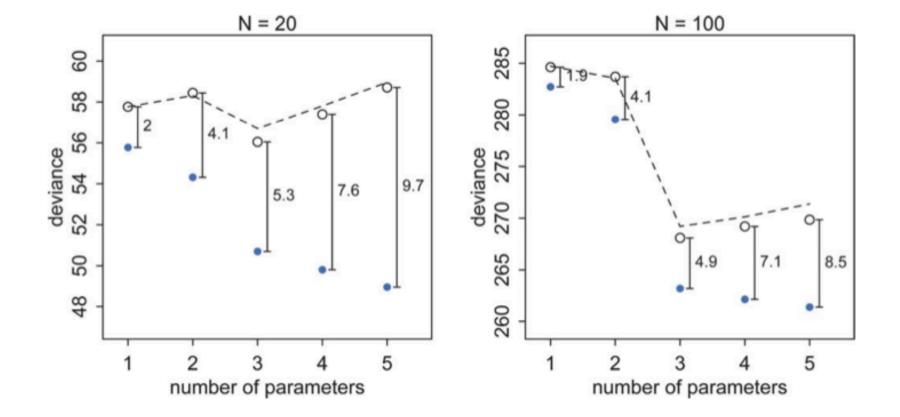


Train and Test Deviances





Train and Test Deviances



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



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



AIC for Linear Regression

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

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

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

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



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



Information Entropy, a measure of uncertainty

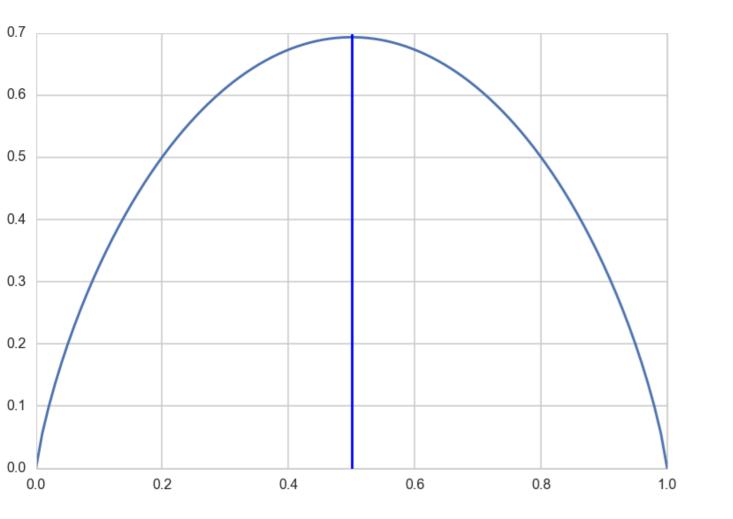
Desiderata:

- 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

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



Entropy for coin fairness



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



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



For a gaussian

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

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

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



Cross Entropy

$$H(p,q) = -E_p[log(q)]$$

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



- 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.



Gaussian is MAXENT for fixed mean and variance

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

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

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



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



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



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?

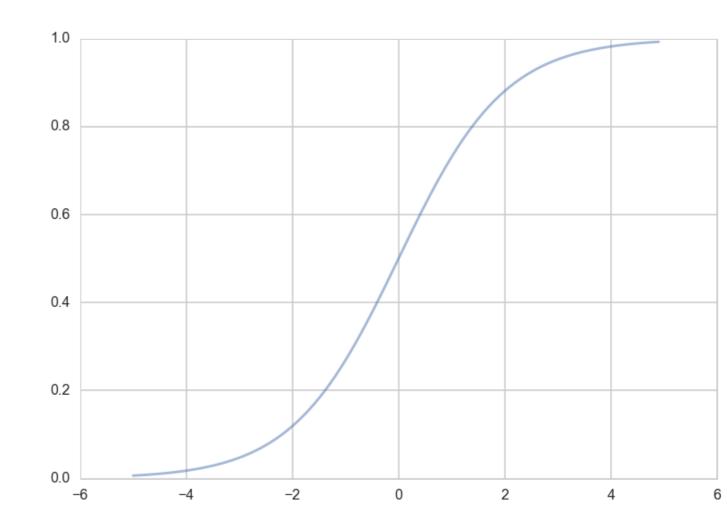


Sigmoid function

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).





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

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

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!!



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 \mathcal{D} was generated from a joint probability distribution P(x, y). Thus we need to model y at a given x, written as $P(y \mid x)$, and since P(x) is also a probability distribution, we have:

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



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

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



Thus

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

Use Convex optimization! (soon, hw)

