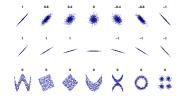
# **Interpretable Machine Learning**

# **Correlation and Dependencies**



#### Learning goals

- Difference of dependence vs. correlation
- Role of feature dependence in IML



# JOINT, MARGINAL AND CONDITIONAL DISTRIBUTION

For two discrete random variables  $X_1, X_2$ :

#### Joint distribution

$$p_{X_1,X_2}(x_1,x_2) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2)$$

$p_{X_1,X_2}$	$\mathbb{P}(X_2=0)$	$\mathbb{P}(X_2=1)$	$p_{X_1}$
$\mathbb{P}(X_1=0)$	0.2	0.3	0.5
$\mathbb{P}(X_1=1)$	0.1	0.4	0.5
$p_{X_2}$	0.3	0.7	1



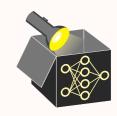
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#### Marginal distribution

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#### Conditional distribution

$$p_{X_1|X_2}(x_1|x_2) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1|X_2 = x_2)$$

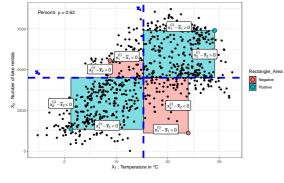
$$= \frac{p_{X_1,X_2}(x_1,x_2)}{p_{X_2}(x_2)}$$

	$x_2 = 0$	$x_2 = 1$
$\mathbb{P}(X_1=0 X_2=x_2)$	0.67	0.43
$\mathbb{P}(X_1=1 X_2=x_2)$	0.33	0.57
$\sum$	1	1

# PEARSON'S CORRELATION COEFFICIENT $\rho$

**Correlation** often refers to Pearson's correlation (measures only **linear relationship**)

$$\rho(X_1, X_2) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_1^{(i)} - \bar{x}_1) \cdot (x_2^{(i)} - \bar{x}_2)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_1^{(i)} - \bar{x}_1)^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_2^{(i)} - \bar{x}_2)^2}} \in [-1, 1]$$





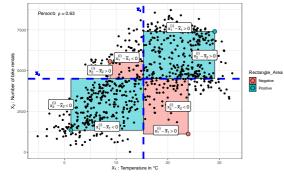
- Numerator is sum of rectangle's area with width  $x_1^{(i)} \bar{x}_1$  and height  $x_2^{(i)} \bar{x}_2$
- Areas enter numerator with positive (+) or negative (-) sign, depending on position
- Denominator scales the sum



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Geometric interpretation of  $\rho$ :

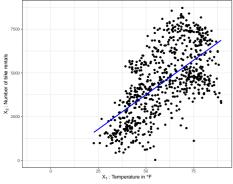
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- ullet ho > 0 if positive areas dominate negative areas  $\leadsto X_1, X_2$  positive correlated
- ullet  $\rho < 0$  if negative areas dominate positive areas  $\leadsto X_1, X_2$  negative correlated
- $\rho = 0$  if area of rectangles cancels out  $\rightsquigarrow X_1, X_2$  linearly uncorrelated



### COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION R<sup>2</sup>

Another method to evaluate **linear dependency** between features is  $R^2$ 



Idea for two-dimensional case:

• Fit a linear model:

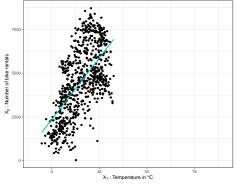
$$\hat{x}_2 = \hat{f}_{LM}(x_1) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1$$

- $\rightsquigarrow$  Slope  $\theta_1 = 0 \Rightarrow$  no dependence
- $\rightsquigarrow \ \, \text{Large slope} \Rightarrow \text{strong dependence}$



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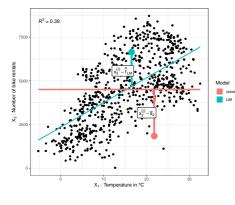
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$$\rightsquigarrow$$
 °F  $\rightarrow$  °C  $\Rightarrow \theta_1 = 78.5 \rightarrow \theta_1^* = 141.3$ 



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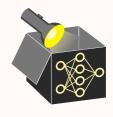
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- Exact  $\theta_1$  score problematic
- $\rightsquigarrow$  Re-scaling of  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  changes  $\theta_1$ 
  - Set  $SSE_{LM}$  in relation to SSE of a constant model  $\hat{f}_c = \bar{x}_2$

$$SSE_{LM} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{2}^{(i)} - \hat{f}_{LM}(x_{1}^{(i)}))^{2}$$
  
$$SSE_{c} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{2}^{(i)} - \bar{x}_{2})^{2}$$

⇒ Measure of fitting quality of LM: 
$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SSE_{LM}}{SSE_c} \in [-1, 1]$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho(X_1, X_2) = R$$



#### **MUTUAL INFORMATION**

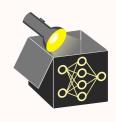
- MI describes amount of information about one random variable obtained through another one or how different the joint distribution is from pure independence
- $MI(X_1; X_2)$  is the Kullback-Leibler distance between joint distribution  $p(x_1, x_2)$  and the product of their marginal distribution  $p(x_1)p(x_2)$ :

$$MI(X_1; X_2) = \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{X}_1} \sum_{x_2 \in \mathcal{X}_2} p(x_1, x_2) log \left( \frac{p(x_1, x_2)}{p(x_1)p(x_2)} \right)$$

$$= D_{KL} \left( p(x_1, x_2) || p(x_1)p(x_2) \right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{p(x_1, x_2)} \left[ log \left( \frac{p(x_1, x_2)}{p(x_1)p(x_2)} \right) \right]$$

- Unlike (Pearson) correlation, MI is not limited to continuous random variables



<b>X</b> <sub>1</sub>	 Υ
yes	 yes
yes	 yes
yes	 yes
yes	 no
yes	 no
no	 no

$ \begin{array}{c cccc} \mathbb{P}(Y = \text{yes}) & 0.5 & 0 & 0.5 \\ \mathbb{P}(Y = \text{no}) & 0.333 & 0.167 & 0.5 \\ \hline p_{X_1} & 0.833 & 0.167 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} $		$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \text{yes})$	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = no)$	p <sub>Y</sub>
7 0 000 0 107 1		0.5	0	0.5
$p_{X_1}$ 0.833 0.167 1	$\mathbb{P}(Y = no)$	0.333	0.167	0.5
	$p_{X_1}$	0.833	0.167	1



<b>X</b> <sub>1</sub>	 Υ
yes	 yes
yes	 yes
yes	 yes
yes	 no
yes	 no
no	 no

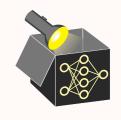
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$$\begin{aligned} \mathit{MI}(X_1;Y) &= \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{X}_1} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x_1,y) log \left( \frac{p(x_1,y)}{p(x_1)p(y)} \right) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{yes}, Y = \mathsf{yes}) log \left( \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{yes}, Y = \mathsf{yes})}{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{yes})\mathbb{P}(Y = \mathsf{yes})} \right) \\ &+ \mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{yes}, Y = \mathsf{no}) log \left( \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{yes}, Y = \mathsf{no})}{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{yes})\mathbb{P}(Y = \mathsf{no})} \right) \\ &+ \mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{no}, Y = \mathsf{yes}) log \left( \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{no}, Y = \mathsf{yes})}{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{no})\mathbb{P}(Y = \mathsf{yes})} \right) \\ &+ \mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{no}, Y = \mathsf{no}) log \left( \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{no}, Y = \mathsf{no})}{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \mathsf{no})\mathbb{P}(Y = \mathsf{no})} \right) \end{aligned}$$

<b>X</b> <sub>1</sub>	 Υ
yes	 yes
yes	 yes
yes	 yes
yes	 no
yes	 no
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	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \text{yes})$	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = no)$	p <sub>Y</sub>
$\mathbb{P}(Y = \text{yes})$	0.5	0	0.5
$\mathbb{P}(Y = no)$	0.333	0.167	0.5
$p_{X_1}$	0.833	0.167	1



$$MI(X_1; Y) = 0.5 \log \left(\frac{0.5}{0.833 \cdot 0.5}\right) + 0.333 \log \left(\frac{0.833}{\cdot 0.5}\right) + 0 \log \left(\frac{0}{0.167 \cdot 0.5}\right) + 0.167 \log \left(\frac{0.167}{0.167 \cdot 0.5}\right) = 0.133$$

Note: 
$$\lim_{x\to 0} x \log\left(\frac{x}{c}\right) = 0, \ c \in \mathbb{R}$$

<b>X</b> <sub>1</sub>	 Υ
yes	 yes
yes	 no
no	 yes
no	 no

	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \text{yes})$	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = no)$	p <sub>Y</sub>
$\mathbb{P}(Y = \text{yes})$	0.25	0.25	0.5
$\mathbb{P}(Y = no)$	0.25	0.25	0.5
$p_{X_1}$	0.5	0.5	1



<b>X</b> <sub>1</sub>	 Υ
yes	 yes
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	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = \text{yes})$	$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = no)$	$p_Y$
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		•	



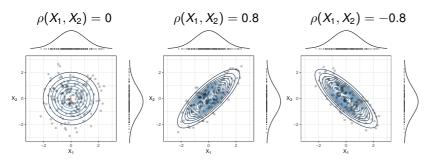
$$MI(X_1; Y) = 0.25 \log \left(\frac{0.25}{0.5 \cdot 0.5}\right) + 0.25 \log \left(\frac{0.25}{0.5 \cdot 0.5}\right)$$

$$= 0.25 \log \left(\frac{0.25}{0.25}\right) \cdot 4$$

$$= 0.25 \log (1) \cdot 4$$

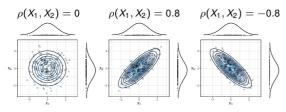
$$= 0$$

Scatterplot with multivariate distribution (contour lines) and marginal density  $X_1,\,X_2\sim N(0,1)$ 





Scatterplot with multivariate distribution (contour lines) and marginal density  $X_1,\,X_2\sim N(0,1)$ 





Examples with Pearson's correlation  $\rho = 0$  but non-linear dependencies (MI  $\neq 0$ ):

$$\rho(X_1,X_2) = 0 \; , \; \; \text{MI}(X_1,X_2) = 0.52 \qquad \rho(X_1,X_2) = 0.01 \; , \; \; \text{MI}(X_1,X_2) = 0.37 \quad \rho(X_1,X_2) = -0.06 \; , \; \; \text{MI}(X_1,X_2) = 0.61 \; , \; \; \text{MI}(X_1,X_2) = 0.01 \; , \; \;$$







**Dependence:** Describes general dependence structure (e.g., non-lin. relationships)

• Definition:  $X_j$ ,  $X_k$  independent  $\Leftrightarrow$  joint distribution is product of marginals:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_j,X_k)=\mathbb{P}(X_j)\cdot\mathbb{P}(X_k)$$



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$$\mathbb{P}(X_j|X_k)=\mathbb{P}(X_j)$$
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- Measuring complex dependencies is difficult but different measures exist, e.g.,
  - → Spearman correlation (measures monotonic dependencies via ranks)
  - → Information-theoretical measures like mutual information



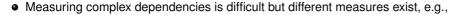
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- → Kernel-based measures like Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion (HSIC)

• N.B.: 
$$X_j$$
,  $X_k$  independent  $\Rightarrow \rho(X_j, X_k) = 0$   
but  $\rho(X_j, X_k) = 0 \Rightarrow X_j$ ,  $X_k$  independent  
Equivalency holds if distribution is jointly normal



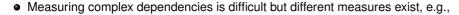
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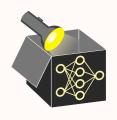
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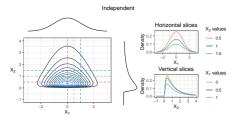
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• 
$$MI(X_i, X_k) = 0$$
 if and only if  $X_i, X_k$  independent



#### Example:

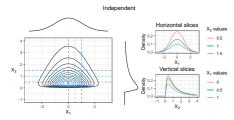


Conditional distributions at different vertical and horizontal slices (after normalizing area to 1) match their marginal distributions

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(X_1|X_2) = \mathbb{P}(X_1)$$
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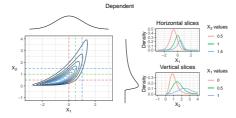


#### Example:



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Conditional distributions do not match their marginal distributions



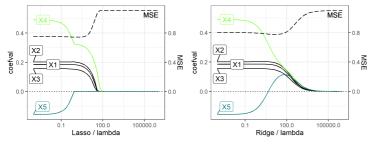
#### INTERPRETATIONS WITH DEPENDENT FEATURES

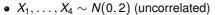
- Highly correlated features contain similar information
  - $\leadsto$  Model might pick only 1 feat. (regularization), even if it is causally irrelevant
  - → Produced explanations can be misleading (true to model, but not to data)
  - $\rightsquigarrow$  E.g., different interpretable models produce different results



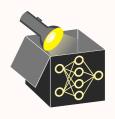
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- **Example:** Simulate 100 obs. from DGP  $Y = 0.2(X_1 + \cdots + X_5) + \epsilon, \epsilon \sim N(0, 1)$

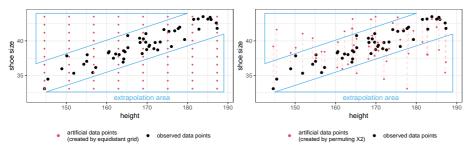




- $X_5 = X_4 + \delta, \delta \sim N(0, 0.3) \Rightarrow \rho(X_4, X_5) = 0.98$  (highly correlated)
- LASSO: Shrinks coef. of  $X_5$  to zero, coef. of  $X_4$  about 1.5× higher
- Ridge: Similar coef. for  $X_4$  and  $X_5$  for higher lambda



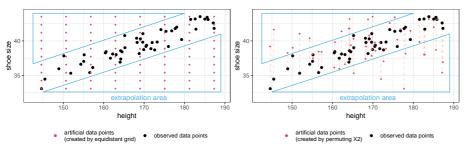
#### **EXTRAPOLATION DUE TO DEPENDENCIES**





- Many interpretation methods are based on artificially created data points
  - $\rightsquigarrow$  Many points lie in low-density regions if features are dependent
  - → Predictions in such regions have high uncertainty
  - → Explanations can be biased if they rely on pred. where model extrapolated

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- Many interpretation methods are based on artificially created data points
  - → Many points lie in low-density regions if features are dependent
  - → Predictions in such regions have high uncertainty
  - → Explanations can be biased if they rely on pred. where model extrapolated
- There is no definition of when a model extrapolates and to what degree
  - → Severity of extrapolation depends on model
  - Density of train data may helps identify regions where extrapolation is likely But: Density estimation in many dimensions is often infeasible