

# Introduction to Responsible Machine Learning\*

## Lecture 1: Interpretable Machine Learning Models

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## Grading and Policy

- Grading:
  - $\frac{1}{3}$  Weekly Assignments
  - $\frac{1}{3}$  GitHub or Kaggle kernel model card (Mitchell et al., 2019)
  - $\frac{1}{3}$  Public Kaggle leaderboard score
- Project:
  - Kaggle competition using techniques from class
  - Individual or group (no more than 4 members)
  - Groups randomly assigned by instructor, with consideration of time zone
- Syllabus
- Webex office hours: ??
- Class resources: [https://jphall663.github.io/GWU\\_rml/](https://jphall663.github.io/GWU_rml/)

# Overview

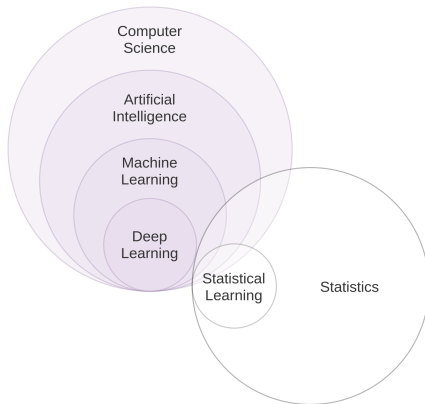
- **Class 1:** Interpretable Models
- **Class 2:** Post-hoc Explanations
- **Class 3:** Fairness
- **Class 4:** Security
- **Class 5:** Model Debugging
- **Class 6:** Best Practices

# Responsible Artificial Intelligence

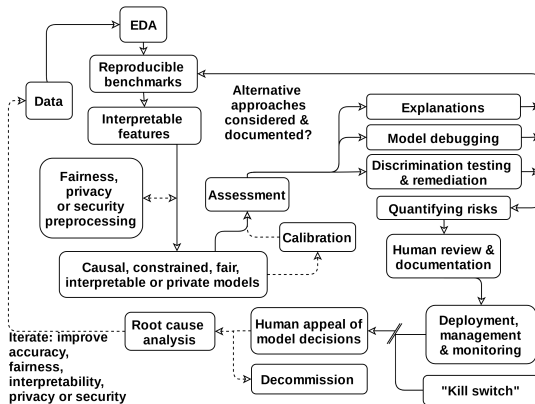
*“Responsible Artificial Intelligence is about human responsibility for the development of intelligent systems along fundamental human principles and values, to ensure human-flourishing and well-being in a sustainable world.”*

— Virginia Dignum, ***Responsible Artificial Intelligence***

# What About Machine Learning?

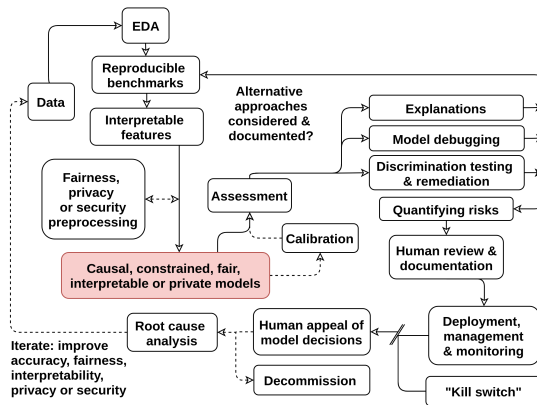


# A Responsible Machine Learning Workflow



Source: *A Responsible Machine Learning Workflow*.

# A Responsible ML Workflow: Interpretable Models



Source: *A Responsible Machine Learning Workflow*.



## Interpretable ML Models

Doshi-Velez and Kim, 2017, define interpretable as, “the ability to explain or to present in understandable terms to a human.” Later Broniatowski, 2021 used Fuzzy-Trace theory to link *interpretability* to high-level contextualization based on purpose, values, and preferences, versus low-level technical *explanations*.

There are many types of interpretable ML models. Some might be directly interpretable to non-technical consumers. Some are only interpretable to highly-skilled data scientists. Interpretability is not an on-and-off switch.

Interpretable models are crucial for documentation, explanation of predictions to consumers, finding and fixing discrimination, and debugging other problems in ML modeling pipelines. Simply put, **it is very difficult to mitigate risks you don't understand**.

There is not necessarily a trade-off between accuracy and interpretability, especially for structured data.

## Background

We will frequently refer to the following terms and definitions today:

- **Pearson correlation:** Measurement of the linear relationship between two input  $X_j$  features; takes on values between -1 and +1, including 0.
- **Shapley value:** a quantity, based in Game Theory, that accurately decomposes the outcomes of complex systems, like ML models, into individual components.
- **Partial dependence and individual conditional expectation (ICE):** Visualizations of the behavior of  $X_j$  under some model  $g$ .

## Background: Notation

### Spaces

- Input features come from the set  $\mathcal{X}$  contained in a  $P$ -dimensional input space,  $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^P$ . An arbitrary, potentially unobserved, or future instance of  $\mathcal{X}$  is denoted  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ .
- Labels corresponding to instances of  $\mathcal{X}$  come from the set  $\mathcal{Y}$ .
- Learned output responses come from the set  $\hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ .

## Background: Notation

### Datasets

- The input dataset  $\mathbf{X}$  is composed of observed instances of the set  $\mathcal{X}$  with a corresponding dataset of labels  $\mathbf{Y}$ , observed instances of the set  $\mathcal{Y}$ .
- Each  $i$ -th observation of  $\mathbf{X}$  is denoted as  $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} = [x_0^{(i)}, x_1^{(i)}, \dots, x_{P-1}^{(i)}]$ , with corresponding  $i$ -th labels in  $\mathbf{Y}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}^{(i)}$ , and corresponding predictions in  $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(i)}$ .
- $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$  consist of  $N$  tuples of observations:  $[(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}, \mathbf{y}^{(0)}), (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{y}^{(1)}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}^{(N-1)}, \mathbf{y}^{(N-1)})]$ .
- Each  $j$ -th input column vector of  $\mathbf{X}$  is denoted as  $X_j = [x_j^{(0)}, x_j^{(1)}, \dots, x_j^{(N-1)}]^T$ .

## Background: Notation

### Models

- A type of machine learning (ML) model  $g$ , selected from a hypothesis set  $\mathcal{H}$ , is trained to represent an unknown signal-generating function  $f$  observed as  $\mathbf{X}$  with labels  $\mathbf{Y}$  using a training algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ :  $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{A}} g$ , such that  $g \approx f$ .
- $g$  generates learned output responses on the input dataset  $g(\mathbf{X}) = \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ , and on the general input space  $g(\mathcal{X}) = \hat{\mathcal{Y}}$ .
- The model to be explained, tested for discrimination, or debugged is denoted as  $g$ .

## Background: Gradient Boosting Machine

$$g^{\text{GBM}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{b=0}^{B-1} T_b(\mathbf{x}; \Theta) \quad (1)$$

A GBM is a sequential combination of decision trees,  $T_b$ , where  $T_0$  is trained to predict  $y$ , but all subsequent  $T$  are trained to reduce the errors of  $T_{b-1}$ .

## Anatomy of Elastic Net Regression

Generalized linear models (GLM) have the same basic functional form as more traditional linear models, e.g. ...

$$g^{\text{GLM}}(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_0 + \beta_2 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_P x_{P-1} \quad (2)$$

... but are more robust to correlation, wide data, and outliers.

## Anatomy of Elastic Net Regression: L1 and L2 Penalty

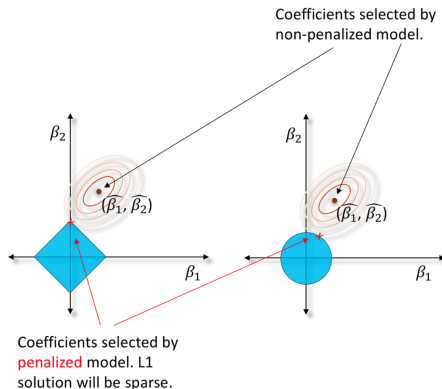
Iteratively reweighted least squares (IRLS) method with ridge ( $L_2$ ) and LASSO ( $L_1$ ) penalty terms:

$$\tilde{\beta} = \min_{\beta} \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{P-1} x_{ij} \beta_j)^2}_1 + \underbrace{\lambda}_2 \sum_{j=1}^{P-1} \left( \underbrace{\alpha}_3 \underbrace{\beta_j^2}_4 + (1 - \underbrace{\alpha}_3) \underbrace{|\beta_j|}_5 \right) \right\} \quad (3)$$

- 1: Least squares minimization
- 2: Controls magnitude of penalties
- 3: Tunes balance between L1 and L2
- 4:  $L_2$ /Ridge penalty term
- 5:  $L_1$ /LASSO penalty term



## Graphical Illustration of Shrinkage/Regularization Method:



# Generalized Additive Models and Explainable Boosting Machines

Generalized additive models (GAMs, Friedman, Hastie, and Tibshirani, 2001) extend GLMs by allowing an arbitrary function for each  $X_j$ :

$$g^{\text{GAM}}(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 g_0(x_0) + \beta_2 g_1(x_1) + \cdots + \beta_P g_{P-1}(x_{P-1}) \quad (4)$$

GAMs use spline approaches to fit each  $g_j$ .

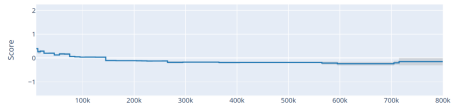
Later Lou et al., 2013 introduced an efficient technique for finding interaction terms ( $\beta_{jk} g_{(j-1)(k-1)}(x_j \cdot x_k)$ ) to include in GAMs. This highly accurate technique was given the acronym GA2M.

Recently Microsoft Research introduced the Explainable Boosting Machine (EBM) in the [interpret](#) package, in which GBMs are used to fit each  $g_j$  and  $g_{jk}$ . Higher order interactions are allowed, but used infrequently in practice.

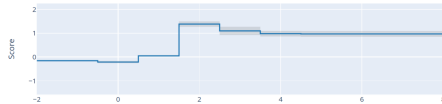
Because each input feature, or combination thereof, is treated separately and in an additive fashion, interpretability is very high.

# Generalized Additive Models and Explainable Boosting Machines

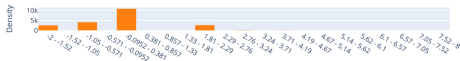
LIMIT\_BAL



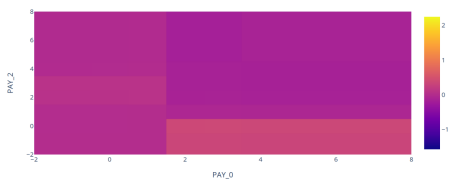
PAY\_0



PAY\_2



PAY\_0 x PAY\_2



## Monotonic GBM (Gill et al., 2020)

Monotonic GBM (MGBM) constrain typical GBM training to consider only tree splits that obey user-defined positive and negative monotone constraints, with respect to each input feature,  $X_j$ , and a target feature,  $y$ , independently. An MGBM remains an additive combination of  $B$  trees trained by gradient boosting,  $T_b$ , and each tree learns a set of splitting rules that respect monotone constraints,  $\Theta_b^{\text{mono}}$ . A trained MGBM model,  $g^{\text{MGBM}}$ , takes the form:

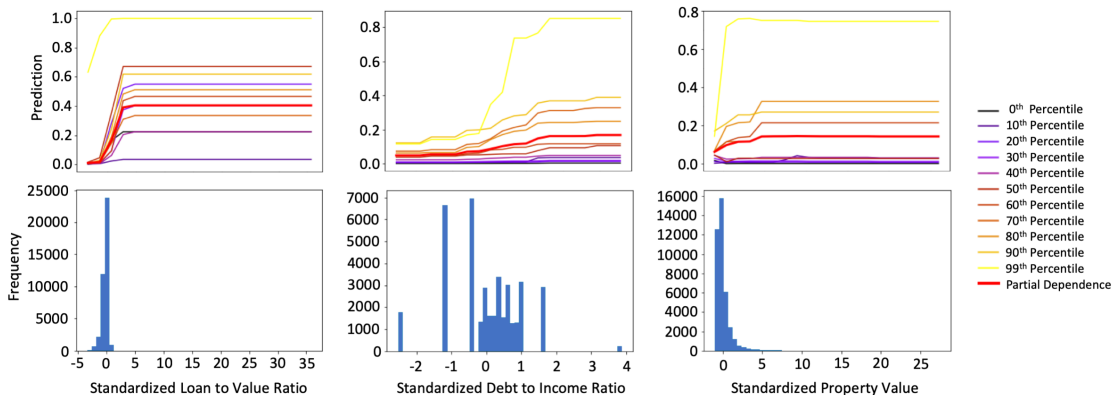
$$g^{\text{MGBM}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{b=0}^{B-1} T_b(\mathbf{x}; \Theta_b^{\text{mono}}) \quad (5)$$

## Monotone Constraints for GBM (Gill et al., 2020)

1. For the first and highest split in  $T_b$  involving  $X_j$ , any  $\theta_{b,j,0}$  resulting in  $T(x_j; \theta_{b,j,0}) = \{w_{b,j,0,L}, w_{b,j,0,R}\}$  where  $w_{b,j,0,L} > w_{b,j,0,R}$ , is not considered.
2. For any subsequent left child node involving  $X_j$ , any  $\theta_{b,j,k \geq 1}$  resulting in  $T(x_j; \theta_{b,j,k \geq 1}) = \{w_{b,j,k \geq 1,L}, w_{b,j,k \geq 1,R}\}$  where  $w_{b,j,k \geq 1,L} > w_{b,j,k \geq 1,R}$ , is not considered.
3. Moreover, for any subsequent left child node involving  $X_j$ ,  $T(x_j; \theta_{b,j,k \geq 1}) = \{w_{b,j,k \geq 1,L}, w_{b,j,k \geq 1,R}\}$ ,  $\{w_{b,j,k \geq 1,L}, w_{b,j,k \geq 1,R}\}$  are bound by the associated  $\theta_{b,j,k-1}$  set of node weights,  $\{w_{b,j,k-1,L}, w_{b,j,k-1,R}\}$ , such that  $\{w_{b,j,k \geq 1,L}, w_{b,j,k \geq 1,R}\} < \frac{w_{b,j,k-1,L} + w_{b,j,k-1,R}}{2}$ .
4. (1) and (2) are also applied to all right child nodes, except that for right child nodes  $w_{b,j,k,L} \leq w_{b,j,k,R}$  and  $\{w_{b,j,k \geq 1,L}, w_{b,j,k \geq 1,R}\} \geq \frac{w_{b,j,k-1,L} + w_{b,j,k-1,R}}{2}$ .

Note that  $g^{\text{MGBM}}(\mathbf{x})$  is an addition of each full  $T_b$  prediction, with the application of a monotonic logit or softmax link function for classification problems. Moreover, each tree's root node corresponds to some constant node weight that by definition obeys monotonicity constraints,  $T(x_j^\alpha; \theta_{b,0}) = T(x_j^\beta; \theta_{b,0}) = w_{b,0}$ .

## Partial Dependence and ICE:



# A Burgeoning Ecosystem of Interpretable Machine Learning Models

- **Explainable Neural Network (XNN)** (Vaughan et al., 2018)
- Rudin group:
  - *This looks like that deep learning* (Chen et al., 2019)
  - Scalable Bayesian rule list (Yang, Rudin, and Seltzer, 2017)
  - Optimal sparse decision tree (Hu, Rudin, and Seltzer, 2019)
  - Supersparse linear integer models (Ustun and Rudin, 2016)
  - and more ...
- **rpart**
- **RuleFit** (Friedman and Popescu, 2008)
- **skope rules**

# Model Selection

- Generally speaking, standard ML evaluation – including Kaggle leaderboards, are poor ways to assess ML model performance.
- However, Caruana, Joachims, and Backstrom, 2004 puts forward a robust model evaluation and selection technique based on cross-validation and ranking.

Fold	Metric	best_glm Value	best_mgbm Value	gbm11 Value	best_glm Rank	best_mgbm Rank	gbm11 Rank
0	F1	0.533181	0.551298	0.562353	3.0	2.0	1.0
0	accuracy	0.816246	0.817367	0.814006	2.0	1.0	3.0
0	auc	0.738625	0.776026	0.777570	3.0	2.0	1.0
0	logloss	0.468678	0.440775	0.438078	3.0	2.0	1.0
0	mcc	0.419924	0.420105	0.426918	3.0	2.0	1.0
1	F1	0.540865	0.554762	0.555283	3.0	2.0	1.0
1	accuracy	0.823882	0.826063	0.828244	3.0	2.0	1.0
1	auc	0.729674	0.776877	0.785956	3.0	2.0	1.0
1	logloss	0.465999	0.434170	0.428677	3.0	2.0	1.0
1	mcc	0.432722	0.445354	0.447637	3.0	2.0	1.0
2	F1	0.500593	0.516364	0.530343	3.0	2.0	1.0
2	accuracy	0.830907	0.833707	0.835946	3.0	2.0	1.0
2	auc	0.707507	0.760838	0.769493	3.0	2.0	1.0

Three models are ranked across different metrics and folds. The model with the highest rank, on average, across metrics and folds is the best model, gbm11 in this case.



## Acknowledgments

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Some materials © Patrick Hall and the H2O.ai team 2017-2020.

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