Iterative Approximate Cross Validation in High Dimensions

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Thesis A (Term 2, 2023)

Section 1

Background

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General Problem Setting

- Input space $\mathcal{X}$ and an output space $\mathcal{Y}$.
- Data is "generated" by a *true* distribution $P(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$.
- Aim is to find a mapping $h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ (called a hypothesis).
- Denote all possible combinations of input and output space as $\mathcal{D} = \{(X, Y) \in (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})\}$.

Risk

To measure the error (or loss) we make on a data point, define a function $\ell(h; D_i)$,

$$\ell(h; D) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(h; D_i)$$

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Risk

Define the **risk** of a hypothesis for the complete space of inputs and outputs as,

$$R(h) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y}}[\ell(h; \mathcal{D})]$$

The optimal hypothesis for the data is,

$$h_{\mathcal{H}} = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} R(h)$$

Empirical Risk

As we cannot measure **true** risk, we seek an approximation using the observed data D.

Empirical Risk

We define **empirical risk** of a hypothesis given data D as,

$$R_{\text{emp}}(h; D) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(h; D_i)$$

The optimal hypothesis *given observed data* D is,

$$h_D = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} R_{\text{emp}}(h; D)$$

where $\mathcal{H}$ is a hypothesis space which a *learning algorithm* picks a hypothesis from. We will describe the parameters which describe h as $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$, assuming the case of a Generalised Linear Model (GLM).

Issues with ERM

By the (weak) law of large numbers $R_{\text{emp}}(h; D) \to R(h; \mathcal{D})$ as $n \to \infty$, so it is reasonable to assume that h_D converges to a minimiser of true risk.

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Regularised Empirical Risk

To restrict the hypothesis space, we define the formulation of **regularised empirical risk** as,

$$R_{\text{reg}}(h; D) = R_{\text{emp}}(h; D) + \lambda\pi(\theta)$$

Here, $\pi : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ is a regulariser and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$ is a hyper-parameter to control the strength of regularisation. The solution becomes $(h_D)_\lambda = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}_\lambda} R_{\text{emp}}(h; D)$ where $\mathcal{H}_\lambda$ is a restricted hypothesis space.

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Cross Validation

To avoid "overfitting" to the observed data (i.e blindly minimising empirical risk), we can attempt to define an approximation of true risk to measure the efficacy of a learned hypothesis.

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The most common way to estimate the true risk of a hypothesis is to run Cross Validation (CV) for a hypothesis . This is where we break the observed data into small subsets to run multiple "validation" experiments (training the data on a subset and testing on an unseen subset).

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One of the most effective methods for risk approximation is Leave One Out Cross Validation (LOOCV) [2]. This method is computationally expensive as we repeat the learning task n times (where n is the size of the observed data).

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Section 2

Literature Review

Approximate CV Methods

To reduce the computational cost of CV (specifically LOOCV), we turn to Approximate Cross Validation (ACV), which attempts to approximate (rather than solve) individual CV experiments.

LOOCV

The definition of leave-one-out (LOO) regularised empirical risk is,

$$R_{\text{reg}}(\theta; D_{-j}) = \sum_{i=1, i\neq j}^{n} \ell(\theta; D_i) + \lambda\pi(\theta)$$

where we leave out a point with index j for this experiment.

Methods for ACV

There are three main methods for ACV we will discuss.

- Newton Step ("NS")
- Infinitesimal Jackknife ("IJ")
- Iterative Approximate Cross Validation ("IACV")

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We will brush over the theory for NS and IJ in the following section, taking a closer look at the derivation of IACV and its proposed improvements on the former methods.

It is important to note that these methods are only used when the learning task is solved through an iterative method, where the ACV steps are tacked on to the end of an iteration.

Newton Step

We can redefine the definition for (regularised) empirical risk for a LOOCV experiment excluding a point with index j,

$$R_{\text{reg}}(\theta; D_{-j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(\theta; D_i) - \ell(\theta; D_j) + \lambda\pi(\theta)$$

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$$R_{\text{reg}}(\theta; D_{-j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(\theta; D_i) - \ell(\theta; D_j) + \lambda\pi(\theta)$$

The Jacobian of this form is,

$$\nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\theta; D_{-j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; D_i) - \nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; D_j) + \lambda \nabla_\theta \pi(\theta)$$

Therefore the Hessian becomes,

$$\nabla^2_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\theta; D_{-j}) = H(\theta; D) - \nabla^2_\theta \ell(\theta, D_j)$$

$$\text{where} \quad H(\theta; D) = \nabla^2_\theta \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(\theta; D_i) \right) + \lambda \nabla^2_\theta \pi(\theta)$$

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Now we can apply Newton's method for optimisation to take a "step" towards the LOOCV iterate $\hat{\theta}_{-j}$ by starting at the learned parameter $\hat{\theta}$.

We define the approximation of a LOOCV iterate as $\tilde{\theta}_{-j}$, where

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\theta}_{-j} &= \hat{\theta} - \Big(H(\hat{\theta}; D) - \nabla^2_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_{-j})\Big)^{-1} \Big(\nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D) - \nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_j)\Big) \\ &= \hat{\theta} + \Big(H(\hat{\theta}; D) - \nabla^2_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_{-j})\Big)^{-1} \nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_j)\end{aligned}$$

the second line follows by the definition of $\hat{\theta}$. Note here, we also assume that the (modified) Hessian $\Big(H(\hat{\theta}; D) - \nabla^2_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_{-j})\Big)$ is invertible.

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For discussion, the standard notation we'll use for the NS method is,

$$\tilde{\theta}^{-i}_{\text{NS}} = \hat{\theta} + \Big(H(\hat{\theta}; D) - \nabla^2_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_{-i})\Big)^{-1} \nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_i)$$

Infinitesimal Jackknife

An alternative method for ACV is the infinitesimal Jackknife (IJ). The complete derivation has been omitted for the sake of brevity, however the general idea is to use a *weighted* loss (i.e $w_i \ell(\theta; D_i)$ where $w \in \mathbb{R}^+$) and perform a first-order Taylor expansion around the weights to approximate LOOCV.

The final form derived for this case is

$$\tilde{\theta}_{\mathsf{IJ}}^{-i} = \hat{\theta} + (H(\hat{\theta}; D))^{-1} \nabla_\theta R_{\mathsf{reg}}(\hat{\theta}; D_i)$$

where we again make the same assumptions as in NS (loss and regularisation are continuously twice-differentiable, H is invertible).

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where we again make the same assumptions as in NS (loss and regularisation are continuously twice-differentiable, H is invertible). This method has a computational advantage over NS, as we only need to calculate and invert $H(\hat{\theta}; D)$ once, rather than n times.

Iterative Approximate Cross Validation

A recently proposed method for ACV is Iterative Approximate Cross Validation (IACV) and aims to improve on existing methods by relaxing assumptions and providing accurate approximation before convergence of the main iterative method.

We again solve the main learning task through an iterative method, where the updates are (for GD and SGD)

$$\hat{\theta}^{(k)} = \hat{\theta}^{(k-1)} - \alpha_k \nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_k})$$

where $S_k \subseteq [n]$ is a subset of indices and α_k is a learning rate taken for an iteration k. For classic GD, $S_k \equiv [n]$ and can be variable for SGD.

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The explicit optimisation step LOOCV iterate excluding a point i is defined as,

$$\hat{\theta}_{-i}^{(k)} = \hat{\theta}_{-i}^{(k-1)} - \alpha_k \nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}_{-i}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_t \setminus i})$$

this step is what we aim to approximate.

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$$\nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}_{-i}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_t \setminus i}) \approx \nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_t \setminus i}) + \nabla_\theta^2 R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_t \setminus i}) \left(\tilde{\theta}_{-i}^{(k-1)} - \hat{\theta}^{(k-1)} \right)$$

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Therefore, the IACV updates for GD and SGD become,

$$\tilde{\theta}_{-i}^{(k)} = \tilde{\theta}_{-i}^{(k-1)} - \alpha_k \left(\nabla_\theta R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_t \setminus i}) + \nabla_\theta^2 R_{\text{reg}}(\hat{\theta}^{(k-1)}; D_{S_t \setminus i}) \left(\tilde{\theta}_{-i}^{(k-1)} - \hat{\theta}^{(k-1)}\right)\right)$$

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$$\hat{\theta}_{-i}^{(k)} = \arg\min_{z} \left\{ \frac{1}{2\alpha_k} \|z - \theta'_{-i}\|_2^2 + \lambda\pi(z) \right\}$$
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	IACV	Exact LOOCV
GD	$n(A_p + B_p) + np^2$	$n^2 A_p + np$
SGD	$K(A_p + B_p) + np^2$	$nKA_p + np$
ProxGD	$n(A_p + B_p + D_p) + np^2$	$n^2 A_p + nD_p + np$

where A_p is one evaluation of the Jacobian, B_p is one evaluation of the Hessian, D_p is one evaluation of the proximal operator and K is the size of the subset used for SGD [3].

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In terms of space IACV uses $O(np + p^2)$ space, where as exact LOOCV uses $O(np)$ space. The orders of space are the similar when $p \ll n$, however can be an issue in higher dimensional problems (more discussion on this later).

[3] Luo & Barber (2023)

Problems In High Dimensions

The aforementioned ACV methods face problems in higher dimensions. For IJ and NS, the main problems are [4]

- No form for ℓ_1 methods used in high dimensions
- Time complexity breakdown (especially for Hessian inversion)
- A breakdown of accuracy

We assume a similar theme of time (and memory) complexity issues with IACV in higher dimensions. A loss of accuracy however, is unclear and needs further investigation.

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Current error bounds for IACV do assume $n \leq p$, though preliminary empirics show that accuracy *may* not suffer greatly.

[4] Stephenson & Broderick (2020)

Existing Solutions for High Dimensional Problems

There are varying solutions for both NS and IJ for higher dimensional problems. Some solutions turn to smoothing ℓ_1 to ensure differentiability and randomised solvers to solve for the inverse of the Hessian.

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The main idea of this solution is to work in the "effective dimension" or support of the data. This reduces both computational complexity and possible issues of inversion. We first run an ℓ_1 learning task, and run ACV on the support at each iteration. If we define the (estimated) support of our data as S, the updates for NS become,

$$\left[\tilde{\theta}_{\mathsf{NS}}^{-i}\right]_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{when } \theta_j = 0 \\ \hat{\theta}_j + \left[\left(H_S(\hat{\theta}_S; D) - \nabla^2_{\theta}\ell_S(\hat{\theta}_S; D_{-i})\right)^{-1} \nabla_{\theta}\ell_S(\hat{\theta}_S; D_i)\right]_j & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where we only evaluate the terms in the support.

Similarly, the "sparse ACV" updates for IJ becomes,

$$\left[\tilde{\theta}_{\text{IJ}}^{-i}\right]_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{when } \theta_j = 0 \\ \hat{\theta}_j + \left[\left(H_S(\hat{\theta}_S; D)\right)^{-1} \nabla_\theta \ell_S(\hat{\theta}_S; D_i)\right]_j & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Alongside computational benefits, reducing the dimension of the data used for ACV from n to $|S|$ also allows for more accurate approximation in higher dimensions (given we make a few assumptions on the data).

Section 3

Preliminary Work

Section 4

Future Plans