

Reliability

Dissimiliraty

Convergence and the law of large numbers

Dissimilarity

- Let us consider a supervised learning setup
- In order to evaluate the quality of our model, we need to mesure the **discrepancy** between predictions and observations, noted $d(\tilde{f}(x), y)$ for one given prediction $\tilde{f}(x)$ and one given observation y.
- ► And we want to minimize the aggregated discrepancy, summed over all the training samples :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d(\tilde{f}(x_i), y_i) \tag{1}$$

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- ► And we want to minimize the aggregated discrepancy, summed over all the training samples :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d(\tilde{f}(x_i), y_i) \tag{2}$$

▶ But what is $d(\tilde{f}(x), y)$?

$$x = (x_1, ..., x_p)$$
 and $y = (y_1, ..., y_p)$ are p-dimensional vectors.

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 (Euclidian distance)

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- ► L2 : $||x y||_2^2 = \sum_{k=1}^p (x_k y_k)^2$ (Euclidian distance)
- ▶ L1 : $||x y||_1 = \sum_{k=1}^{p} |x_k y_k|$ (Manhattan distance)

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- weighted L1 : $\sum_{k=1}^{p} w_k |x_k y_k|$

Hamming distance

• $\#\{x_i \neq y_i\}$ (Hamming distance)

Hamming distance and edit distance

- $\#\{x_i \neq y_i\}$ (Hamming distance)
- linked edit distance: used to quantify how dissimilar two strings are by counting the number of operations needed to transform one into the other (several variants exist)

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- be symetric : $\forall x, y, d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
- ▶ separate the values : $\forall x, y, d(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$
- respect the **triangular inequality** $\forall x, y, z, d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(y, z)$

Let us check that:

- ▶ L2 is a distance
- Hamming is a distance

Examples when L2 is used

When is L2 used in machine learning?

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- kmeans
- ► k-nearest neighbors

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When is L2 used in machine learning?

- kmeans
- k-nearest neighbors
- agglomerative clustering

k-nearest neighbors

In a supervised learning context :

- Given training samples that are labeled
- ▶ in a supervised learning context: for a new input x, find the k closest neighbors of x, and choose a class for x with the majorities of the classes of the training samples

k-nearest neighbors

In a supervised learning context:

- Given training samples that are labeled
- ▶ in a classification context: for a new input x, find the k closest neighbors of x, and choose a class for x with the majorities of the classes of the training samples
- ▶ in an **regression** context : for a new input x, find the k closest neighbors of x, and return the average of the outputs of the training samples
- ▶ to find the nearest neighbors, we can use the L2 distance.

k-nearest neighbors

▶ Manhattan (L1) can also be used for kNN.

Back to L2

► The euclidian distance can also be used to compute **cost functions** in neural netwoks

$$C = \frac{(y - \tilde{f}(x))^2}{2} \tag{3}$$

Examples when Hamming is used

- compare strings
- actually we can also use it for k-nearest neighbors

- ► The **cross-entropy** is another cost function that can be used in neural networks doing classification.
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- ▶ A neural network is just a kind of function, here we can just think of it as a function $\tilde{f}(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ of an input x.
- Say we have two possible classes : y = 0 or y = 1, and a large number of inputs x_i , each labeled with a class y_i .
- ▶ Instead of using the **quadratic cost** $C = \frac{(y \tilde{f}(x))^2}{2}$, we can use the **cross entropy**.

- Say we have two possible classes : y = 0 or y = 1, and a large number of inputs x_i , each labeled with a class $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$. $x = (x_1, ... x_n), y = (y_1, ... y_n)$
- We could use the quadratic cost

$$C(\tilde{f}(x), y) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(y_i - \tilde{f}(x_i))^2}{2}$$
 (4)

Or the cross entropy

$$C'(\tilde{f}(x), y) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n} [y_i \log \tilde{f}(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \tilde{f}(x_i))]$$
 (5)

▶ Is it a cost ?

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 (6)

▶ Is it a cost ? $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\tilde{f}(x) \in [0,1]$ and $y_i \in \{0,1\}$

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▶ **positivity** : $C'(\tilde{f}(x), y) \ge 0$

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 (8)

- positivity : $C'(\tilde{f}(x), y) \ge 0$
 - symmetry : $C'(\tilde{f}(x), y) = C'(y, \tilde{f}(x))$
 - separation : $C'(\tilde{f}(x), y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \tilde{f}(x) = y$

- ► The biggest asset of cross entropy is that it prevents from learning slowdown in neural networks
- With a quadratic cost, it is possible that the magnitude of the gradient is very small (slowdown)
- ▶ The cross entropy can help fix this issue

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- With a quadratic cost, it is possible that the magnitude of the gradient is very small (slowdown)
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- If you are interested in this it is necessary to understand backpropagation, and gradient descent.
- interesting ressource : http: //neuralnetworksanddeeplearning.com/chap3.html

Kullbach-Leibler Divergence

► What if you want measure the discrepancy between distributions, instead of vectors ?

Expected value (esprance)

For a discrete random variable X that takes the values x_i with probability p_i:

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i \tag{9}$$

For a continuous random variable X with density p(x):

$$E(X) = \int p(x)dx \tag{10}$$

Expected value (esprance)

Exercice 1: Computing an expected value

▶ For a discrete random variable X that takes the values x_i with probability p_i :

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i \tag{11}$$

▶ For a continuous random variable X with density p(x):

$$E(X) = \int p(x)dx \tag{12}$$

Compute the expected value of the dice game.

Variance

$$var(X) = E((X - E(X)^2)$$
 (13)

Variance and Covariance

$$var(X) = E((X - E(X)^2)$$
 (14)

$$cov(X, Y) = E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y)))$$
 (15)

Kullbach-Leibler Divergence

- ► What if you want measure the discrepancy between **distributions**, instead of **vectors** ?
- ► For instance, you want to fit a distribution of your choice model to empirical data.
- ▶ The data points $(x_1, ..., x_n)$ are described by an empirical distribution.

Kullbach-Leibler Divergence

- ► The data points $(x_1, ..., x_n)$ are described by an empirical distribution.
- The Kullbach-Leibler divergence is a tool to compare distributions.
- It is not a distance (it is not symmetric).

Kullbach-Leibler Divergence

$$\mathcal{D}[p||q] = \mathbb{E}_{\sim p}[\log(\frac{p}{q})] \tag{16}$$

For discrete variables

$$\mathcal{D}[p||q] = \sum_{i} p(i) \log \frac{p(i)}{q(i)}$$
 (17)

for continuous variables

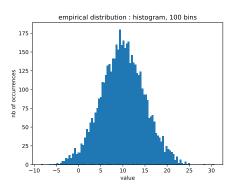
$$\mathcal{D}[p||q] = \int_{X} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx \tag{18}$$

- cd kl_divergence
- A two dimensional dataset is contained in empirical_distribution.csv
- ▶ load it in **fit_empirical.py**. We will use the functions provided in the file in order to find the best model, meaning here the model M, such that $KL(M||\tilde{P})$ is smallest, with \tilde{P} the empirical distribution of the data.

- ▶ First step : choice of the model
- ▶ Plot the histogram of the data : what model seems to be relevant ?

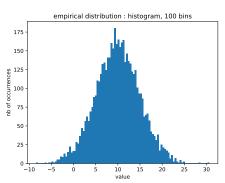
Exercise 1: choice of the model

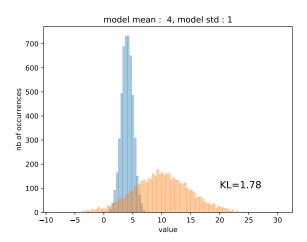
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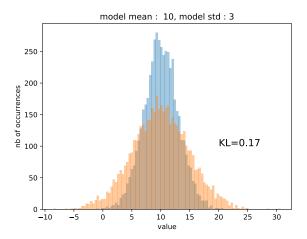


Exercise 1: choice of the model

- We will use normal laws. We want to fint the normal law that is the closest to the empirical data
- We measure the proximity between the model and the empirical data with the KL divergence.







- ▶ Given a distance $d(\tilde{f}(x), y)$ between a prediction and an actual label, we want to measure the **statistical error** of our model
- ► This would mean the expected value :

$$\mathbb{E}(d(\tilde{f}(x), y)) \tag{19}$$

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- ▶ This would mean the expected value :

$$\mathbb{E}(d(\tilde{f}(x), y)) \tag{21}$$

► Can we compute this ? We can **not** compute it, because we do not know the laws of probabilities of *x* and *y*.

We must here understand the difference between:

▶ The expected value coming from a certain process with some law probability \mathbb{E} : we can compute it when we have access to the actual probabilities of the process:

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► The empirical mean that we observe from our datapoints $(x_1, ..., x_n)$:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n}d(\tilde{f}(x_i),y_i) \tag{24}$$

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▶ The empirical mean that we observe from our datapoints $(x_1, ..., x_n)$:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n}d(\tilde{f}(x_i),y_i) \tag{26}$$

▶ We have direct access to **only one of these** : which one ?

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► We have direct access to **only one of these** : the empirical mean

Empirical mean and expected value

In our case here,

- the intrinsic error of the model
- the empirical mean of the error of the model (observed from the data)

Convergence

- ► **However**, under some restrictions, the empirical mean of the error **converges** towards the model error.
- ▶ If the samples are **independent and identically distributed**.
- ▶ This means that there must be no bias in the samples.

The end

Questions?