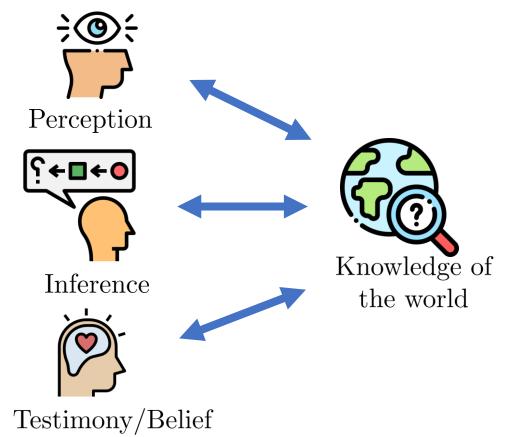
Decision Making for Machine Learning

(Reading Group Series Part 1)

Why is decision theory important?

Espistemology also involves decision making!

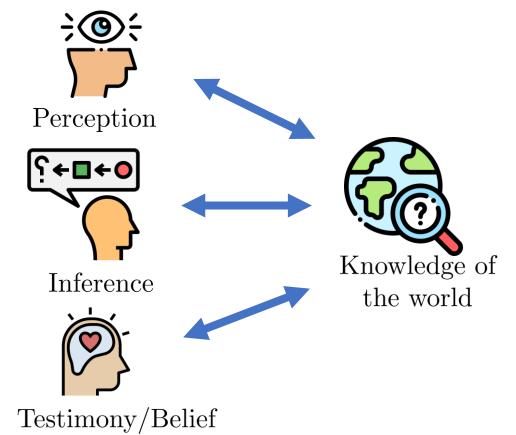


"All knowledge is ultimately probabilistic, and the confidence we place in our beliefs must be tempered by the uncertainty that shadows all things."

— Bertrand Russell
The Problems of Philosophy

Why is decision theory important?

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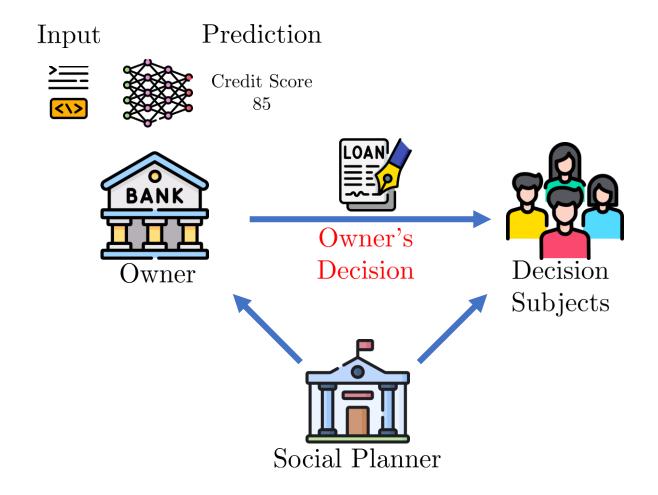
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> — Bertrand Russell The Problems of Philosophy

"It's anticipation of regret, the fear of making the wrong choice, that drives decision-making, not the probability of making a mistake in prediction."

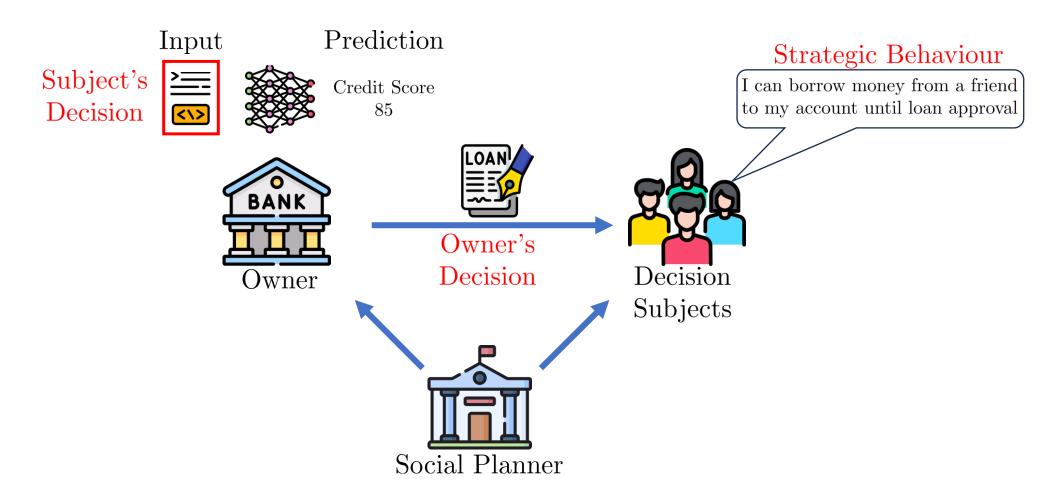
> — Daniel Kahneman Thinking, Fast and Slow

Role of decision making in ML



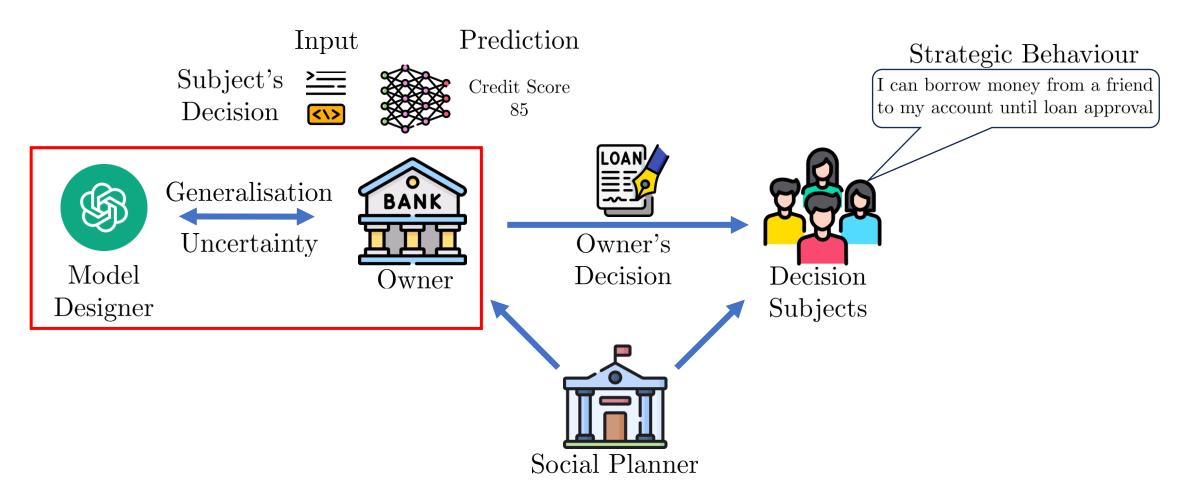
1. A Justice-Based Framework for the Analysis of Algorithmic Fairness Utility Tradeoffs, Hertweck et. al, arXiv 2023

Role of decision making in ML



2. Causal Strategic Learning with Competitive Selection, Vo et. al, AAAI 2024 (Oral)

Role of decision making in ML



3. Domain generalisation via Imprecise Learning, Singh et. al, ICML 2024 (Spotlight)

- An unknown quantity $\theta \in \Theta$ (state of nature)
- Actions $a \in \mathcal{A}$
- Loss function $L: \Theta \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$



		a_1	a_2
	$ heta_1$	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
<u> </u>	θ_2	$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

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		a_1	a_2
<u>(1)</u>	$ heta_1$	-1000	-100
①	$ heta_2$	200	-100

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- Actions $a \in \mathcal{A}$
- Loss function $L: \Theta \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$
- (Optional) Prior Information $\pi \in \Delta(\Theta)$



	a_1	a_2
σ_1	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
$oldsymbol{Q}_{2}$	$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

Bayesian Expected Loss

• Intutively, most natural expected loss is one involving uncertainty in $\theta \in \Theta$.



 a_2

• If $\pi(\theta) \in \Delta(\Theta)$ is the prior over θ then the Bayesian expected loss of action a is

$$\rho(\pi, a) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \pi}[L(\theta, a)]$$

 $egin{array}{c|cccc} E & L(heta_1,a_1) & L(heta_1,a_2) \ \hline E & L(heta_2,a_1) & L(heta_2,a_2) \ \hline E & L(heta_2,a_2) & L($

 a_1

 θ_2

Basics of (Statistical) Decision Theory

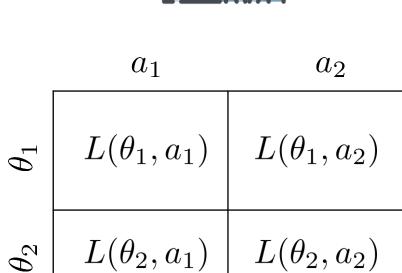
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- (Optional) Prior Information $\pi \in \Delta(\Theta)$
- Outcome (r.v.) $X \in \mathcal{H}$ from statistical investigation performed on θ



	a_1	a_2
7	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
.N 0	$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

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 $P(\boldsymbol{X})$ should depend on θ !



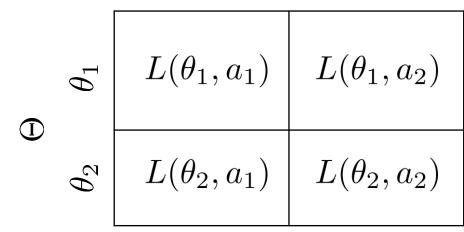
Decision rules

- A (non randomized) decision rule δ maps outcomes to actions.
- Decision rule δ in no data decisions are simply actions.



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{A}$$

 a_1 a_2



Decision rules

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- Decision rule δ in no data decisions are simply actions.

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} a_1 & \text{if } x \le 0.05\\ a_2 & \text{if } x > 0.05 \end{cases}$$

Example: Hypothesis Testing



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{A}$$

 a_1 a_2

$ heta_1$	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
$ heta_2$	$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

Decision rules – Frequentist Risk

- The frequentist perspective is to evaluate, for each θ , how much they expect to lose if $\delta(X)$ is repeatedly used with varying X in the problem.
- The risk function of decision rule $\delta(x)$ is defined by

$$R(\theta, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_{\theta}}[L(\theta, \delta(X))]$$



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{A}$$

 a_1

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How to compare decision rules?



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{A}$$

 a_1 a_2

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} L(\theta_1, a_1) & L(\theta_1, a_2) \\ L(\theta_2, a_1) & L(\theta_2, a_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

Decision rules – Frequentist Risk

• The risk function of decision rule $\delta(x)$ is defined by

$$R(\theta, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_{\theta}}[L(\theta, \delta(X))]$$

• A decision rule δ_1 is R-better than a decision rule δ_2 iff $\delta_1 \succ \delta_2$ i.e.

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta \quad R(\theta, \delta_1) \leq R(\theta, \delta_2)$$
and
$$\exists \theta \in \Theta \quad R(\theta, \delta_1) < R(\theta, \delta_2)$$



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{A}$$

	a_1	a_2
$ heta_1$	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
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Decision rules – Bayes Risk

• The Bayes risk of decision rule $\delta(x)$ w.r.t prior $\pi \in \Delta(\Theta)$ is defined by

$$r(\pi, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \pi}[E_{X \sim P_{\theta}}[L(\theta, \delta(X))]]$$



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{A}$$

 a_1

\bigcirc	$ heta_1$	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
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• A randomized decision rule $\delta(x, \cdot)$ is for each x a probability distribution on \mathcal{A} , which interpretation that if x is observed, $\delta(x, A)$ is a probability than an action in A will be chosen.



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \Delta(\mathcal{A})$$

 a_1

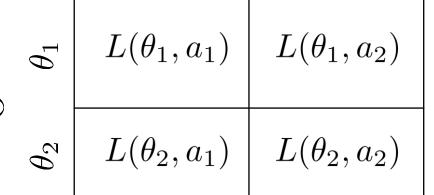
$$\mathcal{E} \left[\begin{array}{c|c} L(\theta_1, a_1) & L(\theta_1, a_2) \\ \\ \mathcal{E} & L(\theta_2, a_1) & L(\theta_2, a_2) \end{array} \right]$$

- A randomized decision rule $\delta(x, \cdot)$ is for each x a probability distribution on \mathcal{A} , which interpretation that if x is observed, $\delta(x, A)$ is a probability than an action in A will be chosen.
- In no data problem, randomized decision rule is called $randomized\ action$ and is also a probability distribution on \mathcal{A} .



 $\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \Delta(\mathcal{A})$

 a_1



• Non randomized decision rules are special case of randomized decision rules, where for each xa specific action has probability 1.

$$\langle \delta \rangle(x, A) = I_A(\delta(x)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \delta(x) \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \Delta(\mathcal{A})$$

 a_1

 $L(\theta_1, a_1)$ $L(\theta_1, a_2)$ $Car L(\theta_2, a_1) \mid L(\theta_2, a_2)$

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• The loss function of randomized rule is defined as

$$L(\theta, \delta(x, \cdot)) = \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \delta(x, \cdot)}[L(\theta, a)]$$

• The risk function of randomized rule is defined as

$$R(\theta, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_{\theta}}[L(\theta, \delta(X, \cdot))]$$



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \Delta(\mathcal{A})$$

 a_1

7	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
75	$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

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• The comparsion of randomized δ is similar to non-randomized rule.



$$\delta: \mathcal{H} \to \Delta(\mathcal{A})$$

 a_1 a_2

Т,	$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
1	$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

Decision Principles: Conditional Bayes

• If $\pi(\theta) \in \Delta(\Theta)$ is the prior over θ then the Bayesian expected loss of action a is

$$\rho(\pi, a) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \pi}[L(\theta, a)]$$



$$a^* = \arg\min_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \rho(\pi, a)$$



a_1	a_2
$L(\theta_1, a_1)$	$L(\theta_1, a_2)$
$L(\theta_2, a_1)$	$L(\theta_2, a_2)$

Decision Principle – Bayes Risk Principle

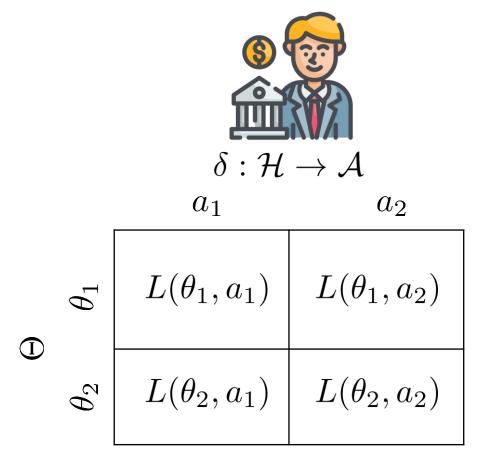
• The Bayes risk of decision rule $\delta(x)$ w.r.t prior $\pi \in \Delta(\Theta)$ is defined by

$$r(\pi, \delta) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \pi}[E_{X \sim P_{\theta}}[L(\theta, \delta(X))]]$$

• A decision rule δ_1 is preferred to rule δ_2 if $r(\pi, \delta_1) < r(\pi, \delta_2)$.

$$\delta^* = \arg\min_{\delta \in \mathcal{D}} r(\pi, \delta)$$

where δ^* is called the Bayes rule.



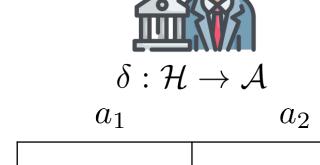
Decision Principle – Minmax Principle

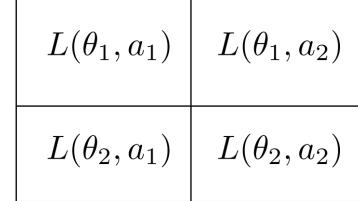
• The worst case risk of decision rule $\delta(x)$

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta)$$

• A decision rule δ^* is minmax decision rule if

$$\delta^* = \arg\inf_{\delta \in \mathcal{D}} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta)$$





1

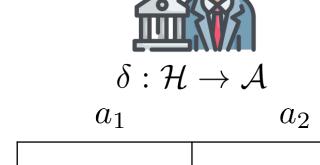
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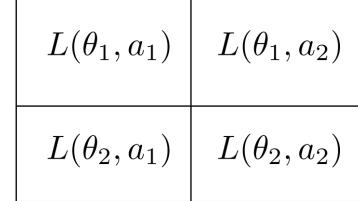
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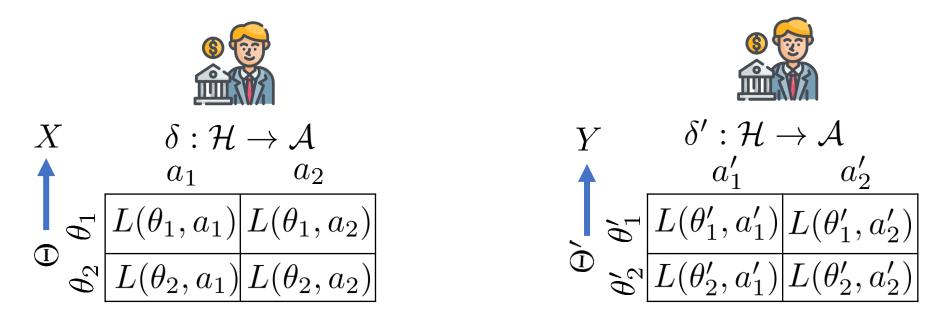
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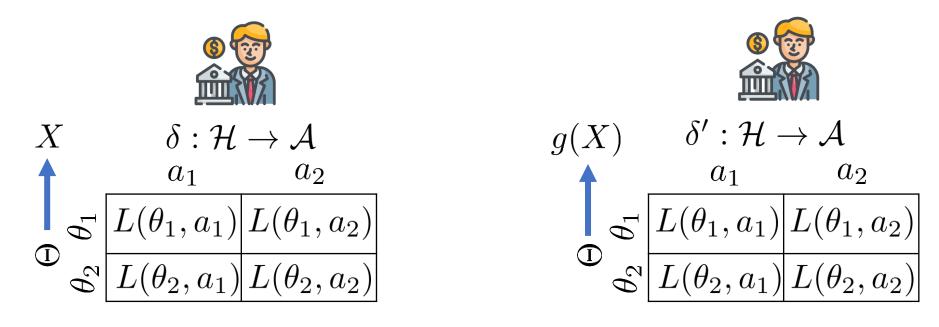




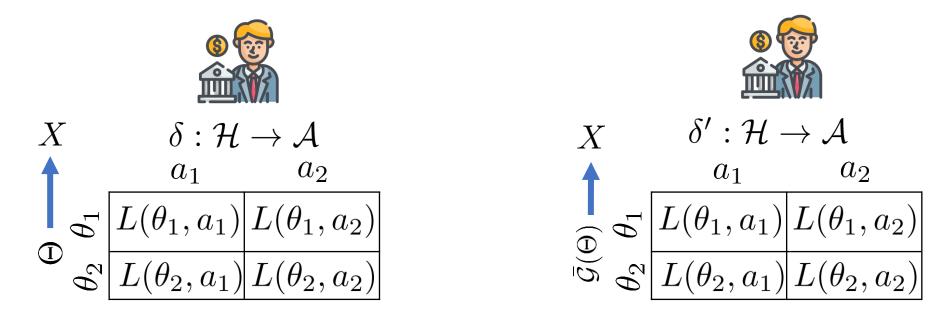
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What makes two decision problems invariant?

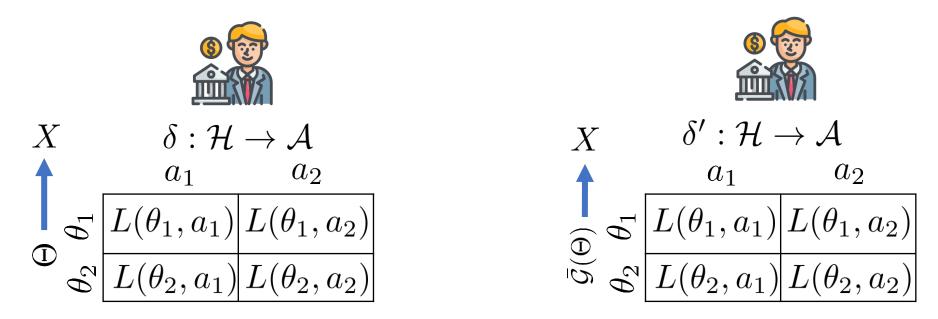


We define the group of transformations $g \in \mathcal{G}$ of \mathcal{H}



W.r.t. the of transformations $g \in \mathcal{G}$ of \mathcal{H} we define the corresponding transformation on Θ as $\bar{G} = \{\bar{g} | g \in \mathcal{G}\}$

$$\mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_{\theta}}[h(g(X))] = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim P_{\bar{g}(\theta)}}[h(X)]$$



Invariance of Loss function: $L(\theta, a)$ is called invariant under \mathcal{G} if, $\forall g \in \mathcal{G}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ there exists an $a^* \in \mathcal{A}$ such that

$$L(\theta, a) = L(\bar{g}(\theta), a^*) \quad \forall \ \theta \in \Theta$$

we can then denote a^* with $\tilde{g}(a)$

Invariance of Loss function: $L(\theta, a)$ is called invariant under \mathcal{G} if, $\forall g \in \mathcal{G}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ there exists an $a^* \in \mathcal{A}$ such that

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If a decision problem is invariant under group \mathcal{G} , then a decision rule $\delta(x)$ is also invariant if for all $x \in \mathcal{H}$ and $g \in \mathcal{G}$

$$\delta(g(x)) = \tilde{g}(\delta(x))$$

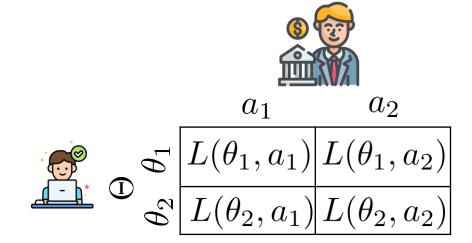
Nash Equilibrium

- Weaker solution concept than frequentist dominanance of decision, but stronger than Bayes optimality
- A nash equilibrium (θ^*, a^*) can be defined as from banks perspective

$$L(\theta^*, a^*) \le L(\theta^*, a) \quad \forall a \in \mathcal{A}$$

from applicants perspective

$$L(\theta^*, a^*) \le L(\theta, a^*) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

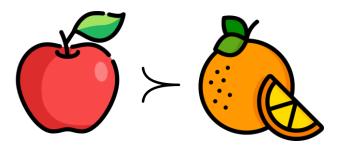


Utility and Preferences

- Utility tries to assign numbers to a subjective idea of "value".
- Preferences are more objective since they represent ordering over items.





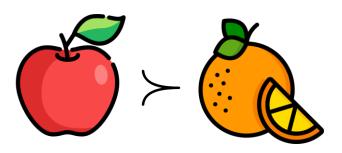


Utility and Preferences

- Utility tries to assign numbers to a subjective idea of "value".
- Preferences are more objective since they represent ordering over items.
- Utility is intrinsic and hard to measure. Therefore it is inferred with revealed preferences.

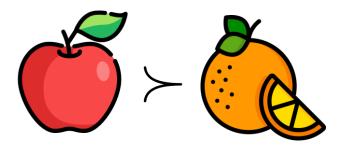




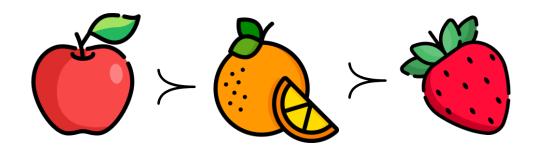


Rationality Axioms on Agent's Preferences

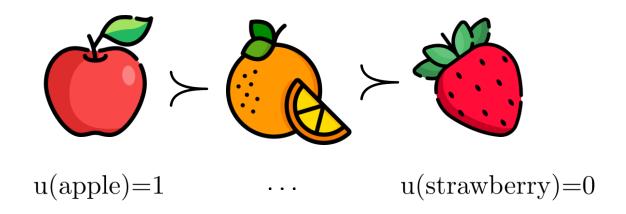
• Completeness: Agent must be able to compare any two items in the set i.e. $\forall a, b \in A$ either $a \succeq b$ or $b \succeq a$ or both.



• Transitivity: $\forall a, b, c \in A, a \succeq b \text{ and } b \succeq c \text{ must imply } a \succeq c.$



Utility construction with rational preferences



How do we construct utility in uncertainty?

Utility construction for uncertainty

Assuming a preference on distributions $\Delta(\lambda)$

- (Completeness): Either $q_1 \succeq q_2$ or $q_2 \succeq q_1$
- (Trasitivity): If $q_1 \succ q_2$ and $q_2 \succ q_1$ then $q_1 \succ q_3$
- (Archimedean Property): If $q_1 \succ q_2 \succ q_3$ then $\exists \epsilon \in (0,1)$ such that

$$(1 - \epsilon)q_1 + \epsilon q_3 \succ q_2 \succ \epsilon q_1 + (1 - \epsilon)q_3$$

• (Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives) For any q_3 and $\epsilon \in (0,1]$,

$$q_1 \succ q_2$$
 iff $\epsilon q_1 + (1 - \epsilon)q_3 \succ \epsilon q_2 + (1 - \epsilon)q_3$

VNM Theorem: Expected Utility Maximization

Under previous assumptions there exists a continuous affine utility function $u: \Lambda \to [0,1]$ such that

$$q \succeq p$$
 iff $\mathbb{E}_{\lambda \sim q}[u(\lambda)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{\lambda \sim p}[u(\lambda)]$