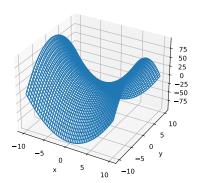
Fondamentaux théoriques du machine learning

Neither positive nor negative Hessian (saddle point)



https://github.com/nlehir/FTML_PTML You have the planned overview of the course on the repo/



Some references have also been added to the repo.

FTML: References

Understanging machine learning: from theory to algorithms

[Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2013,]

https://www.cs.huji.ac.il/w~shais/UnderstandingMachineLearning/

Learning theory from first principles [Bach, 2021,]

https://francisbach.com/i-am-writing-a-book/

Apprentissage artificiel : concepts et algorithmes

[Cornuéjols and Miclet, 2003,]
General reference on AI and ML.

Analyse numérique et optimisation : une introduction à la modélisation mathématique et à la simulation numérique

[Allaire, 2012,]

Chapters 9 and 10 are an introduction to optimization.

The elements of Statistical learning

[Hastie et al., 2009,]

RÉFÉRENCES

[Allaire, 2012] Allaire, G. (2012). Analyse numérique et optimisation Une introduc-



Overview of lecture 2

Mathematical tools for ML

Linear algebra Statistics, probability theory Differential calculus Optimization

Supervised learning

Excess risk
Bayes predictor
Bias-variance decomposition

Ordinary Least Squares

OLS estimator Statistical analysis of OLS

Objective

- ► The aim of the course if to give an introduction to **fundamental principles** in ML.
- ► To do so, we will need an adapted mathematical toolbox and a bag of important results.
- The first part of this lecture is dedicated to the presentation of this toolbox and to maths reminders.
- ► See also FTML.pdf on the repo.

Linear algebra

Matricial calculus

In machine learning, optimization or statistics we often write the inner product of two vectors of \mathbb{R}^d as a product of matrices. If $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ writes :

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_i \\ \dots \\ x_d \end{pmatrix}$$

And (with T denoting the transposition),

$$y^T = (y_1, \dots, y_j, \dots, y_d)$$

Then we have that

$$\langle x, y \rangle = y^T x = x^T y$$

Moments of a distribution

Definition

Moments of a distribution

Let X be a real random variabe, and $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$. X is said to have a moment of order k if $E(|X|^k) < +\infty$, which means that :

▶ if X is discrete, with image $X(\Omega) = (x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, the series

$$\sum (x_i)^k P(X=x_i)$$

is **absolutely** convergent. The moment is then equal to the sum of that series (without absolute value).

Moments of a distribution

Definition

Moments of a distribution

Let X be a real random variabe, and $k \in \mathbb{N}^*$. X is said to have a moment of order k if $E(|X|^k) < +\infty$, which means that :

▶ is X is continuous with density p(x), the integral

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^k f(x) dx$$

is absolutely convergent. The moment is then equal to the sum of that series (without absolute value).

Moments of a distribution

Proposition

Let $k_1 < k_2$ be integers. Let X be a real random variable. Then if X has a moment of order k_2 , X also has a moment of order k_1 .

Statistics, probability theory

Moments of a distribution

Exercice 1 : Prove the proposition

Proposition

Let $k_1 < k_2$ be integers. Let X be a real random variable. Then if X has a moment of order k_2 , X also has a moment of order k_1 .

Expected value, variance

Definition

Expected value, variance

- ▶ If X has a moment of order 1, it is called the expected value
- If X has a moment of order 2, then X − E(X) also has a moment of order 2. This moment is called the variance of X.

$$V(X) = E((X - E(X))^2)$$

We often note $\sigma(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}$.

Expected value, variance

Proposition

Let a and b be real numbers, and X a random variable that admits a moment of order 2. Then

$$Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$$

Independence

Proposition

Let (X_1, \ldots, X_n) be n mutually independent real random variables. Then if they all admit a moment of order 1, then the product $X_1X_2 \ldots X_n$ also does admit a moment of order 1 and

$$E(X_1X_2...X_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n E(X_i)$$

If they also admit moments of order 2, then

$$Var(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Var(X_i)$$

Covariance

Lemma

Let $X, Y, Z \in \mathbb{R}$ be real random variables with a moment of order 2. We have :

$$Cov(X + Y, Z) = Cov(X, Z) + Cov(Y, Z)$$

$$Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y)$$

$$|Cov(X, Y)| \le \sigma(X)\sigma(Y)$$

Statistics, probability theory

Convention

From now on, if we write E(X) or Var(X), we implicitely assume that the quantities are correctly defined.

Random vectors

Definition

Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be a random vector.

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ \dots \\ X_i \\ \dots \\ X_d \end{pmatrix}$$

The expected value of the vector writes

$$E(X) = \begin{pmatrix} E[X_1] \\ \dots \\ E[X_i] \\ \dots \\ E[X_d] \end{pmatrix}$$

Random vectors

Definition

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ \dots \\ X_i \\ \dots \\ X_d \end{pmatrix}$$

The variance matrix (or covariance matrix, variance-covariance, dispersion matrix) Var(X) is defined as

$$[Var(X)]_{ij} = Cov(X_i, X_j)$$

Statistics, probability theory

Random vector

Exercice 2: Random vector

Whar does it mean to have a vector such that

$$Var(X) = \lambda I_d \tag{1}$$

7

Expected value as a minimization

Exercice 3: Expected value as minimization.

Show that E(X) is the value that minimizes the function

$$f(t) = E((X - t)^2)$$
(2)

Markov inequality

Proposition

Markov inequality Let X ba a real non-negative random variable (variable aléatoire réelle positive), such that $E(|X|) < +\infty$. Let a > 0. Then

$$P(X \ge a) \le \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

Chebychev inequality

Proposition

Chebyshev inequality Let X ba a real random variable, such that $E(|X|^2) < +\infty$. Let a > 0. Then

$$P(|X - E[X]| > a) \le \frac{Var(X)}{a^2}$$

Weak law of large numbers

Theorem

Weak law of large numbers

Let $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. variables that have a moment of order 2. We note m their expected value. Then

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \lim_{n \to +\infty} P(|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i - m| \ge \epsilon) = 0$$

We say that we have convergence in probability.

Standard deviation of the average

If
$$E(S_n) = m$$
, then

$$\sqrt{Var\left(S_n - m\right)} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \tag{3}$$

Differentiable function

Definition

Differentiable function

Let V and W be real Hilbert spaces (complete vector space with an inner product). Let $f:V\to W$. We say that f is differentiable in $x\in V$ if there exsists a continuous linear application $L_x:V\to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + L_x(h) + o(h)$$

with $\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{|o(h)|}{||h||} = 0$.

Gradient

If
$$W = \mathbb{R}$$
.

$$\exists! p_x \in V, \forall h \in V, L_x(h) = \langle p, h \rangle \tag{4}$$

p is sometimes noted f'(x), $\nabla_x f$ or $\nabla f(x)$.

Two time differentiable functions

Definition

Two times differentiable function

 $W = \mathbb{R}$. If $x \mapsto \nabla_x f$ is differentiable in x, the we say that f is two times differentiable in x. In that case we note f''(x) the second-order derivative, that satisfies :

$$\nabla_{x+h}f = \nabla_x f + f''(x)(h) + o(h)$$

Two times differentiable function

Lemma

 $\forall x \in V$, $f''(x)(h) \in V$, that can also be identified to an element of its dual space V^* . With the notation f''(x)(h,h') = f''(x)(h)(h'), we can show that

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + \nabla_x f(h) + \frac{1}{2} f''(x)(h,h) + o(||h||^2)$$

Jacobian matrix

- ▶ If $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^p$ is differentiable on \mathbb{R}^d we note $L_x^f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^p$ the differential in x. Its matrix is the **Jacobian** also noted $L_x^f \in \mathbb{R}^{p,d}$.
- ▶ If f has real values (p = 1), then

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f = (L_{\mathbf{x}}^f)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d,1}$$

▶ If $g: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^q$ is differentiable in f(x):

$$L_x^{g \circ f} = L_{f(x)}^g L_x^f \in \mathbb{R}^{q,d}$$
 (5)

Hessian

If $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is two times differentiable in x, then $\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$, $x \mapsto \nabla_x f$ has a matrix $H_x^f \in \mathbb{R}^{d,d}$, called the **Hessian**.

$$\nabla_{x+h}f = \nabla_x f + H_x^f h + o(h)$$

Then, the development of f around x can be written

$$f(x + h) = f(x) + L_x^f h + \frac{1}{2} h^T (H_x^f) h + o(||h||^2)$$

Explicit formulation of gradient

If f has real values (p = 1), then

$$\nabla_{x} f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{1}}(x) \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(x) \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{d}}(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

Explicit formulation of the Hessian

if f is two times differentiable, then the Hessian reads :

$$H_{x}^{f} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial^{2} x_{1}}(x) & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{1}}(x) & \dots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{d} \partial x_{1}}(x) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{d}}(x) & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{d}}(x) & \dots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{d}^{2}}(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercice 4: Hessian

Hessian of $f:(x,y)\mapsto x^2-y^2$?

Differential calculus

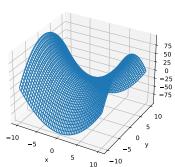
$$f:(x,y)\mapsto x^2-y^2\tag{6}$$

$$f: (x,y) \mapsto x^2 - y^2$$

$$H_x^f = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(6)$$

Neither positive nor negative Hessian (saddle point)

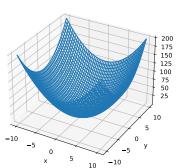


$$f:(x,y)\mapsto x^2+y^2\tag{8}$$

$$f: (x, y) \mapsto x^2 + y^2 \tag{8}$$

$$H_x^f = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \tag{9}$$

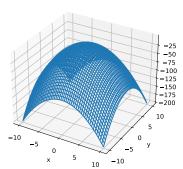
Positive definite Hessian



$$f:(x,y)\mapsto -x^2-y^2\tag{10}$$

$$f: (x,y) \mapsto -x^2 - y^2$$
 (10)
 $H_x^f = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ (11)

Negative definite Hessian



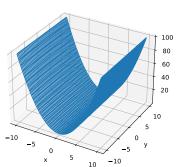
Differential calculus

$$f:(x,y)\mapsto x^2\tag{12}$$

$$f: (x,y) \mapsto x^2 \tag{12}$$

$$H_x^f = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{13}$$

Positive semi-definite Hessian



Differential calculus

Lipshitz continuity

Definition

L-Lipschitz continuous function f differentiable, L > 0. f is L-Lipschitz continuous if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$||f(x) - f(y)|| \le L||x - y||$$

Definition

L-Lipschitz continuous gradients f differentiable, L > 0. f has L-Lipschitz continuous gradients if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$||\nabla_x f - \nabla_y f|| \le L||x - y||$$

Differential calculus

Quadratic function

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d,d}$ be a symmetric real matrix. If $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - b^T x$. Exercice 5 : **Compute** $\nabla_x f$ and H_x^f .

Quadratic function

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d,d}$ be a symmetric real matrix. If $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^TAx - b^Tx$.

$$\nabla_x f = Ax - b$$

$$H_x^f = A.$$

Minimizers

Definition

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined on $K \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. $x \in K$ is a local minimum of f on K if and only if

$$\exists \delta > 0, \forall y \in K, ||y - x|| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) \le f(y)$$

 $x \in K$ is a global minimum of f on K if and only if

$$\forall y \in K, f(x) \leq f(y)$$

Existence result

Theorem

Existence of a global minimum in \mathbb{R}^d Let K be a closed non-empty subset of \mathbb{R}^d , and $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ a continuous coercive function. Then, there exists at least a global minimum of f on K.

Convexity

Definition

The function $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ with Ω convex is :

• convex if $\forall x, y \in \Omega, \alpha \in [0, 1]$,

$$f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) \le \alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y)$$

▶ strictly convex if $\forall x, y \in \Omega, \alpha \in [0, 1]$,

$$f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) < \alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y)$$

• μ -strongly convex if $\forall x, y \in \Omega, \alpha \in [0, 1]$,

$$f(\alpha x + (1-\alpha)y) \le \alpha f(x) + (1-\alpha)f(y) - \frac{\mu}{2}\alpha(1-\alpha)||x-y||^2$$

Examples

- All norms are convex.
- $ightharpoonup x \mapsto \theta^T x$ is convex on \mathbb{R}^d with $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ (linear form)
- if Q is a symmetric semidefinite positive matrix, then $x \mapsto x^T Qx$ is convex.
- if Q is a symmetric definite positive matrix (matrice définie positive) with smallest eigenvalue $\lambda_{min} > 0$, then $x \mapsto x^T Q x$ is $2\lambda_{min}$ strongly convex.
- ▶ If f is increasing and convex and g is convex, then $f \circ g$ is convex.
- ▶ Is f in convex and g is linear, then $f \circ g$ is convex.

Differential formulation of convexity

Proposition

Let $f: V \to \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function. The following conditions are equivalent.

- f is convex.
- ▶ $\forall x, y \in V, f(y) \ge f(x) + (f'(x)|y x)$ (f is above its tangent space)
- ▶ $\forall x, y \in V, (f'(x) f'(y)|x y) \ge 0$ (f' grows)

Differential formulation of strong convexity

Proposition

Let $f: V \to \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function, and $\mu > 0$. The following conditions are equivalent.

- f is μ -convex
- $\forall x, y \in V, f(y) \ge f(x) + (f'(x)|y x) + \frac{\mu}{2}||y x||^2$
- ► $\forall x, y \in V, (f'(x) f'(y)|x y) \ge \mu ||x y||^2$

Convexity of two-times differentiable functions

f is convex if anf only if

$$\forall x, h \in y, J''(x)(h, h) \geq 0$$

• f is μ -strongly convex if and only if

$$\forall x, h \in y, J''(x)(h, h) \ge \mu ||h||^2$$

Convexity and Hessian

If $V = \mathbb{R}^d$, this translates into

$$\forall x, h \in y, h^{T}(H_{x}f)h \ge 0 \tag{14}$$

and

$$\forall x, h \in y, h^{\mathsf{T}}(H_x f) h \ge \mu ||h||^2 \tag{15}$$

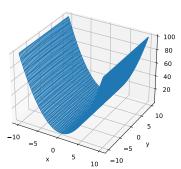
- ▶ 14 means that $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, all eigenvalues of $H_x f$ are non-negative (positive semi-definite Hessian)
- ▶ 15 means that they all are $\geq \mu$ (positive definite Hessian).

Optimization

Positive semi-definite Hessian

$$H_x^f = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{16}$$

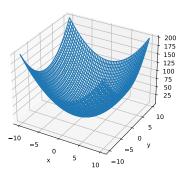
Positive semi-definite Hessian



Positive definite Hessian

$$H_x^f = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \tag{17}$$

Positive definite Hessian



Minima of convex functions

Proposition

- ▶ If f is convex, any local minimum is a global minimum. The set of global minimizers is a convex set.
- ▶ If f is strictly convex, there exists at most one local minimum (that is thus global).
- ▶ If f is convex and C^1 (differentiable, $a \mapsto df_a$ continuous), then x is a minimum (thus global) of f on V if and only if the gradient cancels in x, $\nabla_x f = 0$. V need not be finite-dimensional.

Mathematical tools for ML

Linear algebra
Statistics, probability theory
Differential calculus
Optimization

Supervised learning

Excess risk
Bayes predictor
Bias-variance decomposition

Ordinary Least Squares

OLS estimator Statistical analysis of OLS

Supervised learning

- ▶ The dataset D_n is a collection of n samples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{1 \le i \le n}$, that are independent and identically distributed draws of a joint random variable (X, Y).
- the law of (X, Y) is unknown, we can note it ρ. We assume there exists an unknown function f that relates X and Y (not necessary deterministic).
- we look for an estimator \tilde{f}_n of f. n refers to the fact that we have n samples.

A learning rule A is a application that associates a prediction function, or estimator \tilde{f}_n , to D_n .

$$\mathcal{A}: \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^n \to \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}} \\ D_n \mapsto \tilde{f}_n \end{array} \right.$$

Risks

Let I be a loss.

The risk (or statistical risk, generalization error, test error) of estimator f writes

$$E_{(X,Y)\sim\rho}[I(Y,f(X))]$$

The **empirical risk** (ER) of an estimator f writes

$$R_n(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(y_i, f(x_i))$$

The risks depend on the loss 1.

Excess risk

We define the **target function** f^* by

$$f^* \in \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{f:X \to Y} R(f)$$

with $f:X\to Y$ set of measurable functions. Notation : $R(f^*)=R^*$.

Definition

Fundamental problem of Supervised Learning Estimate f^* given only D_n and I.

 $ilde{f}_n$ is the minimizer of the empirical risk.

Definition

Excess risk

The excess risk $\mathcal{R}(\tilde{f}_n)$ measures how close \tilde{f}_n is to the best possible f^* , in terms of expected risk (average / expecter) error on new examples.

$$\mathcal{R}(\tilde{f}_n) = R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f^*)$$

Definition

Consistency

The algorithm A is said to be **consistent** if

$$\lim_{n\to+\infty} E_{D_n} \mathcal{R}(\tilde{f}_n) = 0$$

Bayes predictor

Under some conditions, we can give an explicit formulation of f^* , the best predictor in $\mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$, although we can not compute it without the knowledge of the distribution of (X,Y). In this section we assume we have access to ρ and we approximately ignore measurability issues.

Decision theory: "if we have a perfect knowledge of the underlying probability distribution of the data, what should be done?"

Bayes predictor

$$f^*(x) = \underset{z \in \mathcal{Y}}{\arg\min} E[I(Y, z)|X = x]$$
 (18)

E[I(Y,z)|X=x] denotes the **conditional expectation** of I(Y,z) given that X=x.

$$E[I(Y,z)|X=x] = \int_{Y \in \mathbb{R}} I(y,z) p_{Y|X=x}(y) dy$$
 (19)

Bayes predictor for binary classification

- $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}.$
- $I(y,z) = 1_{y \neq z}.$

Exercice 6: What is the Bayes predictor?

Bayes predictor for binary classification

- $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}.$
- $I(y,z) = 1_{y \neq z}.$
- If $\eta(x) = P(Y = 1 | X = x)$, then

$$R^* = E[\min(\eta(x), 1 - \eta(x))] \tag{20}$$

Bayes predictor for binary classification

- $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}.$
- $I(y,z) = 1_{y \neq z}.$
- If $\eta(x) = P(Y = 1 | X = x)$, then

$$R^* = E[\min(\eta(x), 1 - \eta(x))] \tag{21}$$

Exercice 7: What is the meaning of having $R^* = 0$ in that context?

Bayes predictor for regression, squared loss

- $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}, \ \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}.$
- ► $l(y, z) = (y z)^2$

Exercice 8: What is the Bayes predictor?

Conditional expectation

Definition

Conditional expectation

$$f^*(x) = E[Y|X = x] \tag{22}$$

Risk decomposition

We will introduce the concept of risk decomposition.

- ▶ f* : Bayes predictor
- F : Hypothesis space
- \tilde{f}_n : estimated predictor (hence in F).

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R^* = \left(R(\tilde{f}_n) - \inf_{f \in F} R(f)\right) + \left(\inf_{f \in F} R(f) - R^*\right)$$
(23)

Risk decomposition

We will introduce the concept of risk decomposition.

- ▶ f* : Bayes predictor
- F : Hypothesis space
- \tilde{f}_n : estimated predictor $(\in F)$.

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R^* = \left(R(\tilde{f}_n) - \inf_{f \in F} R(f)\right) + \left(\inf_{f \in F} R(f) - R^*\right)$$
(24)

However: \tilde{f}_n is a **random variable**, and so is $R(\tilde{f}_n)$. We can also consider the expected value of this quantity.

Risk decomposition

- ▶ f* : Bayes predictor
- F : Hypothesis space
- \tilde{f}_n : estimated predictor $(\in F)$.

$$E[R(\tilde{f}_n)] - R^* = \left(E[R(\tilde{f}_n)] - \inf_{f \in F} R(f)\right) + \left(\inf_{f \in F} R(f) - R^*\right) \tag{25}$$

Risk decomposition: bias term

- ▶ f* : Bayes predictor
- F : Hypothesis space
- \tilde{f}_n : estimated predictor ($\in F$).

$$E[R(\tilde{f}_n)] - R^* = \left(E[R(\tilde{f}_n)] - \inf_{f \in F} R(f)\right) + \left(\inf_{f \in F} R(f) - R^*\right) \tag{26}$$

Approximation error (bias term): depends on f^* and F, not on \tilde{f}_n , D_n .

$$\inf_{f \in F} R(f) - R^* \ge 0$$

Risk decomposition: bias term

- ▶ f* : Bayes predictor
- ► *F* : Hypothesis space
- \tilde{f}_n : estimated predictor ($\in F$).

$$E[R(\tilde{f}_n)] - R^* = \left(E[R(\tilde{f}_n)] - \inf_{f \in F} R(f)\right) + \left(\inf_{f \in F} R(f) - R^*\right) \tag{27}$$

Estimation error (variance term, fluctuation error, stochastic error) : depends on D_n , F, \tilde{f}_n .

$$E(R(\tilde{f}_n)) - \inf_{f \in F} R(f) \ge 0$$

Underfitting and overfitting

Approximation error (bias term) : depends on f^* and F, not on \tilde{f}_n , D_n .

$$\inf_{f\in F}R(f)-R^*\geq 0$$

Estimation error (variance term, fluctuation error, stochastic error) : depends on D_n , F, \tilde{f}_n .

$$E(R(\tilde{f}_n)) - \inf_{f \in F} R(f) \ge 0$$

- ▶ too small F : underfitting (large bias, small variance)
- ▶ too large *F* : overffitting (small bias, large variance)

Expected value of empirical risk

If $h \in F$ is fixed (not \tilde{f}_n), then $R_n(h)$ is an **unbiased estimator** of the generalization error R(h).

$$E[R_n(h)] = R(h) \tag{28}$$

But

$$E[R_n(\tilde{f}_n)] \neq R(\tilde{f}_n) \tag{29}$$

We consider the best estimator in hypothesis space

$$f_a = \underset{h \in F}{\operatorname{arg min}} R(h)$$

We can show that

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R^* \le 2 \sup_{h \in F} |R(h) - R_n(h)| \tag{30}$$

$$f_a = \underset{h \in F}{\operatorname{arg min}} R(h)$$

We can show that

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a) \le 2 \sup_{h \in F} |R(h) - R_n(h)| \tag{31}$$

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a) = \left(R(\tilde{f}_n) - R_n(\tilde{f}_n)\right) + \left(R_n(\tilde{f}_n) - R_n(f_a)\right) + \left(R_n(f_a) - R(f_a)\right)$$

$$(32)$$

$$f_a = \underset{h \in F}{\operatorname{arg min}} R(h)$$

We can show that

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a) \le 2 \sup_{h \in F} |R(h) - R_n(h)| \tag{33}$$

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a) = (R(\tilde{f}_n) - R_n(\tilde{f}_n))$$

$$+ (R_n(\tilde{f}_n) - R_n(f_a))$$

$$+ (R_n(f_a) - R(f_a))$$

$$(34)$$

But by definition \tilde{f}_n minimizes R_n , so $(R_n(\tilde{f}_n) - R_n(f_a)) \leq 0$.

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a) \le 2 \sup_{h \in F} |R(h) - R_n(h)| \tag{35}$$

Later in the course, based on **concentration inequalities** we will further build on this result and prove a probabilistic bound of the form

$$R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a) \le \frac{C}{\sqrt{n}} \tag{36}$$

(remember that by definition $0 \le R(\tilde{f}_n) - R(f_a)$) Notion of capacity control.

OLS

We will introduce the Ordinary Least-squares (OLS) problem.

$$\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$$

$$\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$$
.

$$I(y, y') = (y - y')^2$$

$$F = \{ x \mapsto \theta^\mathsf{T} x, \theta \in \mathbb{R}^d \}$$

OLS

The dataset is stored in the **design matrix** $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$.

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T \\ \dots \\ x_i^T \\ \dots \\ x_n^T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11}, \dots, x_{1j}, \dots x_{1d} \\ \dots \\ x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ij}, \dots x_{id} \\ \dots \\ \dots \\ x_{n1}, \dots, x_{nj}, \dots x_{nd} \end{pmatrix}$$

The vector of predictions of the estimator writes $Y = X\theta$. Hence,

$$R_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} ||Y - X\theta||_2^2$$

OLS estimator

We assume that X is **injective**. Necessary, $d \leq n$.

Proposition

Closed form solution

We X is injective, there exists a unique minimiser of $R_n(\theta)$, called the **OLS** estimator, given by

$$\hat{\theta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y \tag{37}$$

Setup

▶ Linear model : $\exists \theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$Y_i = \theta^{*T} x_i + Z_i, \forall i \in [1, n]$$

and Z_i is a centered noise (or error) ($E[Z_i] = 0$) with variance σ^2

Fixed design : X deterministic.

Then:

- $\hat{\theta}$ is unbiased : $E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta^*$.
- $\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \Sigma^{-1}$.

with $\Sigma = X^T X \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$