Introduction to Statistical Learning Theory

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What types of problems are we solving?

- In data science problems, we generally need to:
 - Make a decision
 - Take an action
 - Produce some output
- Have some evaluation criterion

Actions

Definition

An action is the generic term for what is produced by our system.

Examples of Actions

- Produce a 0/1 classification [classical ML]
- Reject hypothesis that $\theta = 0$ [classical Statistics]
- Written English text [speech recognition]
- Probability that a picture contains an animal [computer vision]
- What's an action for predicting where a storm will be in 3 hours?
- What's an action for automated driving?

Evaluation Criterion

Decision theory is about finding "optimal" actions, under various definitions of optimality.

Examples of Evaluation Criteria

- Is classification correct?
- Does text transcription exactly match the spoken words?
 - Should we give partial credit? How?
- Is probability "well-calibrated"?

Real Life: Formalizing a Business Problem

- First two steps to formalizing a problem:
 - 1 Define the action space (i.e. the set of possible actions)
 - Specify the evaluation criterion.
- Finding the right formalization can be an interesting challenge
- Formalization may evolve gradually, as you understand the problem better

Inputs

Most problems have an extra piece, going by various names:

- Inputs [ML]
- Covariates [Statistics]
- Side Information [Various settings]

Examples of Inputs

- A picture
- A storm's historical location and other weather data
- A search query

Output / Outcomes

Inputs often paired with outputs or outcomes

Examples of outputs / outcomes

- Whether or not the picture actually contains an animal
- The storm's location one hour after query
- Which, if any, of suggested the URLs were selected

Typical Sequence of Events

Many problem domains can be formalized as follows:

- Observe input x.
- Take action a.
- Observe outcome y.
- Evaluate action in relation to the outcome: $\ell(a, y)$.

Note

- Outcome y is often independent of action a
- But this is not always the case:
 - search result ranking
 - automated driving

Formalization: The Spaces

The Three Spaces:

- Input space: X
- Action space: A
- Outcome space: y

Concept check:

- What are the spaces for linear regression?
- What are the spaces for logistic regression?
- What are the spaces for a support vector machine?

Some Formalization

The Spaces

• \mathfrak{X} : input space

y: output space

ullet \mathcal{A} : action space

Decision Function

A decision function gets input $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and produces an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$:

$$f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$$
 $x \mapsto f(x)$

Loss Function

A **loss function** evaluates an action in the context of the output y.

$$\ell: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}$$
 $(a, y) \mapsto \ell(a, y)$

Real Life: Formalizing a "Data Science" Problem

- First two steps to formalizing a problem:
 - ① Define the action space (i.e. the set of possible actions)
 - Specify the evaluation criterion.
- When a "stakeholder" asks the data scientist to solve a problem, she
 - may have an opinion on what the action space should be, and
 - hopefully has an opinion on the evaluation criterion, but
 - she really cares about your producing a "good" decision function.
- Typical sequence:
 - Stakeholder presents problem to data scientist
 - 2 Data scientist produces decision function
 - Engineer deploys "industrial strength" version of decision function

Evaluating a Decision Function

- Loss function ℓ evaluates a single action
- How to evaluate the decision function as a whole?
- We will use the standard statistical learning theory framework.

A Simplifying Assumption

- Assume action has no effect on the output
 - includes all traditional prediction problems
 - what about stock market prediction?
 - what about stock market investing?
- What about fancier problems where this does not hold?
 - often can be reformulated or "reduced" to problems where it does hold
 - e.g. see literature on contextual bandit problems

Setup for Statistical Learning Theory

- Assume there is a data generating distribution $P_{X \times Y}$.
- All input/output pairs (x, y) are generated i.i.d. from $P_{X \times Y}$.
- Want decision function f(x) that generally "does well" (small loss):

$$\ell(f(x), y)$$
 is small

• How can we formalize this?

The Risk Functional

Definition

The **risk** of a decision function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$ is

$$R(f) = \mathbb{E}\ell(f(x), y).$$

In words, it's the **expected loss** of f, where the expectation is over $(x,y) \sim P_{\Upsilon \times \Psi}$.

Risk function cannot be computed

Since we don't know $P_{\mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{Y}}$, we cannot compute the expectation.

But we can estimate it...

The Bayes Decision Function

Definition

A Bayes decision function $f^*: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$ is a function that achieves the *minimal risk* among all possible functions:

$$f^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{f} R(f),$$

where the minimum is taken over all measurable functions from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{A} . The risk of a Bayes decision function is called the **Bayes risk**.

• A Bayes decision function is often called the "target function", since it's what we would ultimately like to produce as our decision function.

Example 1: Least Squares Regression

- spaces: A = Y = R
- square loss:

$$\ell(a,y) = \frac{1}{2}(a-y)^2$$

mean square risk:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} R(f) & = & \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\big[(f(x)-y)^2\big] \\ \\ (\text{homework} \implies) & = & \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\big[(f(x)-\mathbb{E}[y|x])^2\big] + \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\big[(y-\mathbb{E}[y|x])^2\big] \end{array}$$

target function:

$$f^*(x) = \mathbb{E}[y|x]$$

Example 2: Multiclass Classification

- spaces: $A = \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1, ..., K-1\}$
- 0-1 loss:

$$\ell(a,y) = 1 (a \neq y) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \neq y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

risk is misclassification error rate

$$R(f) = \mathbb{E}[1(f(x) \neq y)]$$
$$= \mathbb{P}(f(x) \neq y)$$

• target function is the assignment to the most likely class

$$f^*(x) = \underset{1 \leqslant k \leqslant K}{\arg\max} \mathbb{P}(y = k \mid x)$$

But we can't compute the risk!

- Can't compute $R(f) = \mathbb{E}\ell(f(x), y)$ because we **don't know** $P_{X \times Y}$.
- One thing we can do in ML/statistics/data science is

assume we have sample data.

Let $\mathcal{D}_n = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n))$ be drawn i.i.d. from $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}}$.

• Let's draw some inspiration from the Strong Law of Large Numbers: If $z, z_1, ..., z_n$ are i.i.d. with expected value $\mathbb{E}z$, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n z_i=\mathbb{E}z,$$

with probability 1.

The Empirical Risk Functional

Let $\mathfrak{D}_n = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n))$ be drawn i.i.d. from $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{Y}}$.

Definition

The **empirical risk** of $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$ with respect to \mathcal{D}_n is

$$\hat{R}_n(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i).$$

By the Strong Law of Large Numbers,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \hat{R}_n(f) = R(f),$$

almost surely.

That's a start...

We want risk minimizer, is empirical risk minimizer close enough?

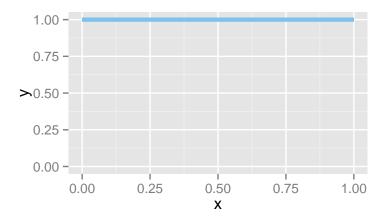
Definition

A function \hat{f} is an empirical risk minimizer if

$$\hat{f} = \underset{f}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \hat{R}_n(f),$$

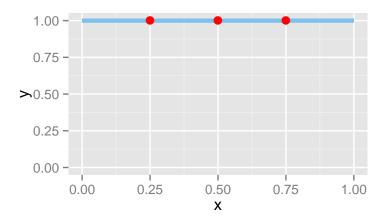
where the minimum is taken over all [measurable] functions.

$$P_{\mathfrak{X}}=\mathsf{Uniform}[\mathsf{0},\mathsf{1}],\ Y\equiv \mathsf{1}$$
 (i.e. Y is always 1).



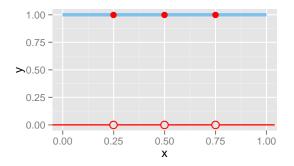
 $\mathcal{P}_{\chi \times y}$.

$$P_{\mathfrak{X}}=\mathsf{Uniform}[0,1],\ Y\equiv 1\ (\mathsf{i.e.}\ Y \ \mathsf{is\ always}\ 1).$$



A sample of size 3 from $\mathcal{P}_{\chi \times y}$.

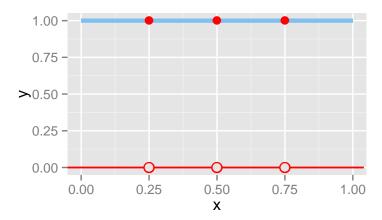
$$P_{\chi} = \text{Uniform}[0,1], Y \equiv 1 \text{ (i.e. } Y \text{ is always 1)}.$$



A proposed decision function:

$$\hat{f}(x) = 1(x \in \{0.25, 0.5, 0.75\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \{0.25, .5, .75\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$P_{\mathfrak{X}}=\mathsf{Uniform}[0,1],\ Y\equiv 1\ (\mathsf{i.e.}\ Y \ \mathsf{is\ always}\ 1).$$



Under square loss or 0/1 loss: \hat{f} has Empirical Risk = 0 and Risk = 1.

- ERM led to a function f that just memorized the data.
- How to spread information or "generalize" from training inputs to new inputs?
- Need to smooth things out somehow...
 - A lot of modeling is about spreading and extrapolating information from one part of the input space $\mathcal X$ into unobserved parts of the space.
- One approach: "Constrained ERM"
 - Instead of minimizing empirical risk over all decision functions,
 - constrain to a particular subset, called a hypothesis space.

Hypothesis Spaces

Definition

A hypothesis space \mathcal{F} is a set of functions mapping $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$.

It is the collection of decision functions we are considering.

Usually \mathcal{F} is a much smaller than the set of all possible functions $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$.

Want Hypothesis Space that...

- Includes only those functions that have desired "smoothness"
- Easy to work with

Example hypothesis spaces?

Constrained Empirical Risk Minimization

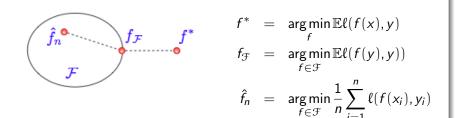
- ullet Hypothesis space ${\mathfrak F}$, a set of functions mapping ${\mathfrak X} o {\mathcal A}$
- ullet Empirical risk minimizer (ERM) in ${\mathfrak F}$ is

$$\hat{f}_n = \arg\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i).$$

 \bullet Risk minimizer in ${\mathcal F}$ is $f_{{\mathcal F}}^*\in {\mathcal F}$, where

$$f_{\mathcal{F}}^* = \arg\min_{f \in \mathfrak{T}} \mathbb{E}\ell(f(x), y).$$

Error Decomposition



- Approximation Error (of \mathcal{F}) = $R(f_{\mathcal{F}}) R(f^*)$
- Estimation error (of \hat{f}_n in \mathcal{F}) = $R(\hat{f}_n) R(f_{\mathcal{F}})$

Figure from Sasha Rakhlin's MLSS Lectures (2012): http://vosinski.com/mlss12/MLSS-2012-Rakhlin-Statistical-Learning-Theory/

Error Decomposition

Definition

The excess risk of f is the amount by which the risk of f exceeds the Bayes risk

$$\text{Excess Risk}(\hat{f_n}) = R(\hat{f_n}) - R(f^*) = \underbrace{R(\hat{f_n}) - R(f_{\mathcal{F}})}_{\text{estimation error}} + \underbrace{R(f_{\mathcal{F}}) - R(f^*)}_{\text{approximation error}}.$$

This is a more general expression of the bias/variance tradeoff for mean squared error:

- Approximation error = "bias"
- Estimation error = "variance"

Approximation Error

- ullet Approximation error is a property of the class ${\mathcal F}$
- ullet It's our penalty for restricting to ${\mathcal F}$ rather than considering all measurable functions
 - Approximation error is the minimum risk possible with $\mathcal F$ (even with infinite training data)
- Bigger F mean smaller approximation error.

Estimation Error

- Estimation error: The performance hit for choosing f using finite training data
 - Equivalently: It's the hit for not knowing the true risk, but only the empirical risk.
- Smaller F means smaller estimation error.
- Under typical conditions: 'With infinite training data, estimation error goes to zero."
 - Infinite training data solves the *statistical* problem, which is not knowing the true risk.]

ERM Overview

- Given a loss function $\ell: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbf{R}$.
- Choose hypothesis space F.
- Use an algorithm (an optimization method) to find $\hat{f}_n \in \mathcal{F}$ minimizing the empirical risk:

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(f(x_i), y_i).$$

- (So, $\hat{R}(\hat{f}) = \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \hat{R}(f)$).
- Data scientist's job: choose \mathcal{F} to optimally balance between approximation and estimation error.

Optimization Error

- Does unlimited data solve our problems?
- There's still the algorithmic problem of finding $\hat{f}_n \in \mathcal{F}$.
- For nice choices of loss functions and classes \mathcal{F} , the algorithmic problem can be solved (to any desired accuracy).
 - Takes time! Is it worth it?
- Optimization error: If \tilde{f}_n is the function our optimization method returns, and \hat{f}_n is the empirical risk minimizer, then the optimization error is $R(\tilde{f}_n) R(\hat{f}_n)$
- NOTE: May have $R(\tilde{f}_n) < R(\hat{f}_n)$, since \hat{f}_n may overfit more than $\tilde{f}_n!$