Machine Learning

Lecture 9: Learning Theory

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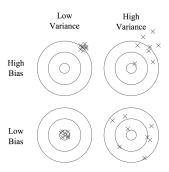
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Why Learning Theory

- How can we tell if your learning algorithm will do a good job in future (test time)?
 - Experimental results
 - Theoretical analysis
- Why theory?
 - Can only run a limited number of experiments..
 - · Experiments rarely tell us what will go wrong
- Using learning theory, we can make formal statements/give guarantees on
 - Expected performance ("generalization") of a learning algorithm on test data
 - Number of examples required to attain a certain level of test accuracy
 - Hardness of learning problems in general

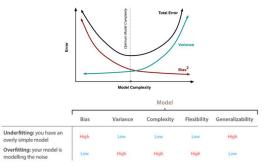
Bias vs Variance

- Bias is a learner's tendency to consistently learn the same wrong thing
 - The bias is error from erroneous assumptions in the learning algorithm
 - High bias can cause an algorithm to miss the relevant relations between features and target outputs (underfitting)
- Variance is the tendency to learn random things irrespective of the real signal
 - The variance is error from sensitivity to small fluctuations in the training set
 - High variance can cause an algorithm to model the random noise in the training data, rather than the intended outputs (overfitting)



Bias-Variance Tradeoff

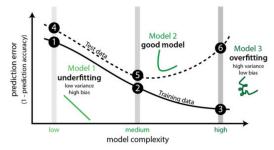
 Simple model have high bias and small variance, complex models have small bias and high variance



• If you modified a model to reduce its bias (e.g., by increasing the model s complexity), you are likely to increase its variance, and vice-versa (if, however, both increase then you might be doing it wrong!)

High Bias or High Variance

- The bad performance (low accuracy on test data) could be due to either high bias (underfitting) or high variance (overfitting)
- Looking at the training and test error can tell which of the two is the case



- High bias: Both training and test error are large
- High variance: Small training error, large test error (and huge gap)

Bias-Variance Decomposition

• For some model $y=f(x)+\epsilon$ with $\epsilon\sim\mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2)$, given its estimate \hat{f} learned by a "learner" using a finite training set, the following decomposition holds

$$E[(y - \hat{f}(x))^2] = Bias[\hat{f}(x)]^2 + Var[\hat{f}(x)] + \sigma^2$$

- The above expectation is over all choices of training set
- $Bias[\hat{f}(x)] = E[\hat{f}(x) f(x)]$. Error due to wrong (perhaps too simple) model
- $Var[\hat{f}(x)] = E[\hat{f}(x)^2] E[\hat{f}(x)]^2$: Learner's sensitivity to choice of training set
- The proof (E[y] = f(x))

$$\begin{split} E[(y-\hat{f})^2] &= E[y^2 + \hat{f}^2 - 2y\hat{f}] \\ &= E[y^2] + E[\hat{f}^2] - E[2y\hat{f}] \\ &= Var[y] + E[y]^2 + Var[\hat{f}] + E[\hat{f}]^2 - 2fE[\hat{f}] \\ &= Var[y] + Var[\hat{f}] + (f - E[\hat{f}])^2 \\ &= Var[y] + Var[\hat{f}] + E[f - \hat{f}]^2 \\ &= Var[y] + Var[\hat{f}] + Bias[\hat{f}]^2 \end{split}$$

Preliminaries

The union bound

Assume A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_k be k different events (that may not be independent),

$$p(A_1 \bigcup A_2 \cdots \bigcup A_k) \le p(A_1) + \cdots + p(A_k)$$

Hoeffding inequality (Chernoff bound)

Let Z_1,\cdots,Z_m be m independent and identically distributed (iid) random variables drawn from a Bernoulli (ϕ) distribution (i.e., $p(Z_i=1)=\phi$ and $p(Z_i=0)=1-\phi$). Let $\hat{\phi}=\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m Z_i$ be the mean of these random variables, and let any $\gamma>0$ be fixed. Then

$$p(|\phi - \hat{\phi}| > \gamma) \le 2\exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$$

Hypothesis Class, Training and Generalization Error

- ullet A hypothesis class \mathcal{H} : a set of all classifiers considered by a learning algorithm
- A training set $S=\{(x^{(i)},y^{(i)})\}_{i=1,\cdots,m}$ with $y^{(i)}\in\{0,1\}$ are drawn iid from some probability distribution $\mathcal D$
- ullet The learning algorithm, given training data, learns a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$
- The training error (or empirical risk, empirical error) is

$$\hat{\varepsilon}(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{1} \{ h(x^{(i)}) \neq y^{(i)} \}$$

i.e., the fraction of the misclassified training examples

• The generalization is

$$\varepsilon(h) = P_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{D}}(h(x) \neq y)$$

i.e., the probability that, if we now draw a new example (x,y) from the distribution \mathcal{D} , h will misclassify it

Empirical Risk Minimization

Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) is a principle in statistical learning theory
which defines a family of learning algorithms and is used to give theoretical
bounds on the performance of learning algorithms

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta} \hat{\varepsilon}(h_{\theta})$$

where
$$h_{\theta}(x) = \mathbf{1}\{\theta^T x \geq 0\}$$

- In another word, we aim at seeking the optimal hypothesis $\hat{h}=h_{\hat{ heta}}$
- ERM can also be thought of a minimization over the class

$$\hat{h} = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{\varepsilon}(h)$$

Finite \mathcal{H}

- A finite hypothesis class $\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, \cdots, h_k\}$
- $\hat{h} \in \mathcal{H}$ denotes the optimal hypothesis function with the training error minimized by ERM
- Questions: Does there exist a guarantee on the generalization error of \hat{h} ?
 - $\hat{\varepsilon}(h)$ is a reliable estimate of $\varepsilon(h)$ for $\forall h$
 - ullet This implies an upper-bound on the generalization error of \hat{h}

- Assume $(x, y) \sim \mathcal{D}$
- For $h_i \in \mathcal{H}$, define Bernoulli random variables

$$Z = \mathbf{1}(h_i(x) \neq y)$$

 $Z_j = \mathbf{1}\{h_i(x^{(j)}) \neq y^{(j)}\}$

- The generalization error $\varepsilon(h_i)$ is the expected value of Z (and Z_j)
- The training error $\hat{\varepsilon}(h_i)$ can be written as

$$\hat{\varepsilon}(h_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} Z_j$$

- $\hat{\varepsilon}(h_i)$ is exactly the mean of the m random variables Z_j 's that are drawn iid from a Bernoulli distribution with mean $\varepsilon(h_i)$
- By applying Hoeffding inequality, we have

$$P(|\varepsilon(h_i) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h_i)| > \gamma) \le 2\exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$$

- For a particular h_i , training error will be close to generalization error with high probability, assuming m is large
- Is it true for $\forall h \in \mathcal{H}$?
 - Let A_i denote the event that $|\varepsilon(h_i) \hat{\varepsilon}(h_i)| > \gamma$, then $P(A_i) \le 2 \exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$
 - By using the union bound, we have

$$P(\exists h \in \mathcal{H} : |\varepsilon(h) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h)| > \gamma) = P(A_1 \bigcup \cdots \bigcup A_k)$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i)$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^k 2 \exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$$

$$= 2k \exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$$

Then, we have the following uniform convergence result

$$P(\neg \exists h \in \mathcal{H} : |\varepsilon(h) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h)| > \gamma)$$

$$= P(\forall h \in \mathcal{H} : |\varepsilon(h) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h)| \le \gamma)$$

$$\ge 1 - 2k \exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$$

- Question: Given γ and $\delta>0$, how large must m be such that we can guarantee that with probability $\geq 1-\delta$, training error will be within γ of generalization error?
- When

$$1 - 2k \exp(-2\gamma^2 m) \ge 1 - \delta \Rightarrow m \ge \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \log \frac{2k}{\delta}$$

with probability at least $1 - \delta$, we have $|\varepsilon(h) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h)| \leq \gamma$ for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$

- ullet The training set size m that a certain method or algorithm requires in order to achieve a certain level of performance is so-called the algorithm's sample complexity
- The number of training examples needed to make this guarantee is only logarithmic in the number of hypotheses in \mathcal{H} (i.e., k)

• Fixing m and δ , solving for γ gives

$$1 - 2k \exp(-2\gamma^2 m) \ge 1 - \delta \Rightarrow |\varepsilon(h) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h)| \le \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m} \log \frac{2k}{\delta}}$$

• Assume $h^* = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \varepsilon(h)$ denotes the best possible hypothesis in \mathcal{H}

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \varepsilon(\hat{h}) & \leq & \hat{\varepsilon}(\hat{h}) + \gamma \\ & \leq & \hat{\varepsilon}(h^*) + \gamma \\ & \leq & \varepsilon(h^*) + 2\gamma \end{array}$$

• If uniform convergence occurs, then the generalization error of \hat{h} is at most 2γ worse than the best possible hypothesis in \mathcal{H}

• Theorem Let $\mathcal{H}=k$, and let any m and δ be fixed. Then with probability at least $1-\delta$, we have that

$$\varepsilon(\hat{h}) \le \left(\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \varepsilon(h)\right) + 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{2m} \log \frac{2k}{\delta}}$$

- If we take a large ${\cal H}$
 - the first term is decreased (the bias is decreased)
 - the second term is increased (the variance is increased)
- Corollary: Let $\mathcal{H}=k$, and let any δ , γ be fixed. Then for $\varepsilon(\hat{h}) \leq \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \varepsilon(h) + 2\gamma$ to hold with probability at least $1-\delta$, it suffices that

$$m \geq \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} \log \frac{2k}{\delta}$$
$$= O(\frac{1}{\gamma^2} \log \frac{k}{\delta})$$

Infinite \mathcal{H}

ullet For the finite sized hypothesis class ${\cal H}$

$$\varepsilon(\hat{h}) \le \left(\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \varepsilon(h)\right) + 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\log\frac{2k}{\delta}}$$

- What happens when the hypothesis class size $|\mathcal{H}|$ is infinite?
 - Example: The set of all linear classifiers
- The above bound does not apply (it just becomes trivial)
- ullet We need some other way of measuring the size of ${\cal H}$
 - ullet One way: use the complexity ${\cal H}$ as a measure of its size
 - Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension (VC dimension)
 - VC dimension: a measure of the complexity of a hypothesis class

Shattering

• A set of points (in a given configuration) is shattered by a hypothesis class \mathcal{H} , if, no mater how the points are labeled, there exists some $h \in \mathcal{H}$ that can separate the points

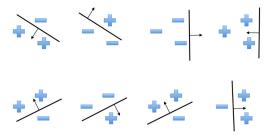
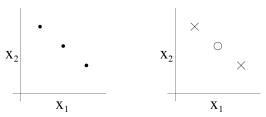


Figure above: 3 points in 2D (locations fixed, only labeling varies), H: set
of linear classifier

- The concept of shattering is used to define the VC dimension of hypothesis classes
- Given a hypothesis class \mathcal{H} , we then define its Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension, $VC(\mathcal{H})$, to be the size of the largest set that is shattered by \mathcal{H}
- Consider the following shattering game between us and an adversary
 - ullet We choose d points in an input space, positioned however we want
 - Adversary labels these d points
 - We define a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ that separates the points
 - ullet Note: Shattering just one configuration of d points is enough to win
- The VC dimension of \mathcal{H} , in that input space, is the maximum d we can choose so that we always succeed in the game

 \bullet Even when $VC(\mathcal{H})=3$, there exist sets of size 3 that cannot be classified correctly



• In order words, under the definition of the VC dimension, in order to prove that $VC(\mathcal{H})$ is at least d, we need to show only that there's at least one set of size d that \mathcal{H} can shatter.

- A measure of the "power" or the "complexity" of the hypothesis space
 - Higher VC dimension implies a more "expressive" hypothesis space)
- ullet Shattering: A set of N points is shattered if there exists a hypothesis that is consistent with every classification of the N points
- VC Dimension: The maximum number of data points that can be "shattered"
- If VC Dimension = d, then:
 - There exists a set of d points that can be shattered
 - There does not exist a set of d+1 points that can be shattered

• Theorem Let $\mathcal H$ be given, and let $d=VC(\mathcal H)$. Then, with probability at least $1-\delta$, we have that for all $h\in\mathcal H$

$$|\varepsilon(h) - \hat{\varepsilon}(h)| \le O\left(\sqrt{\frac{d}{m}\log\frac{m}{d} + \frac{1}{m}\log\frac{1}{\delta}}\right)$$

and thus

$$\varepsilon(\hat{h}) \le \varepsilon(h^*) + O\left(\sqrt{\frac{d}{m}\log\frac{m}{d} + \frac{1}{m}\log\frac{1}{\delta}}\right)$$

Recall for finite hypothesis space

$$\varepsilon(\hat{h}) \le \left(\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \varepsilon(h)\right) + 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\log\frac{2k}{\delta}}$$

• VC(H) is like a substitute for k = |H|

Select The Right Model

- Given a set of models $M = \{M_1, M_2, ..., M_R\}$, choose the model that is expected to do the best on the test data. M may consist of:
 - Same learning model with different complexities or hyperparameters
 - Nonlinear Regression: Polynomials with different degrees
 - K-Nearest Neighbors: Different choices of K
 - Decision Trees: Different choices of the number of levels/leaves
 - SVM: Different choices of the misclassification penalty hyperparameter C
 - Regularized Models: Different choices of the regularization parameter
 - Kernel based Methods: Different choices of kernels
 - ... and almost any learning problem
 - Different learning models (e.g., SVM, KNN, DT, etc.)
- Note: Usually considered in supervised learning contexts but unsupervised learning too faces this issue (e.g., how many clusters when doing clustering)

Hold-Out Cross Validation (Simple Cross Validation)

- Given a training set S, do the following
 - Randomly split S into S_{train} (say, 70% of the data) and S_{cv} (the remaining 30%). Here, S_{cv} is called the hold-out cross validation set.
 - Train each model M_i on S_{train} only, to get some hypothesis h_i .
 - Select and output the hypothesis h_i that had the smallest error $\hat{\varepsilon}_{S_{cv}}(h_i)$ on the hold-out cross validation set (Recall, $\hat{\varepsilon}_{S_{cv}}(h)$ denotes the empirical error of h on the set of examples in S_{cv})
- Option: After selecting $M^* \in \mathcal{M}$ such that $h^* = \arg\min_i \hat{\varepsilon}_{S_{cv}}(h_i)$, retrain M^* on the entire training set S
- Weakness: It seems we are trying to select the best model based on only part of the training set

k-Fold Cross Validation

- Randomly split S into k disjoint subsets of m/k training examples each. Lets call these subsets S_1, \dots, S_k .
- For each model M_i , we evaluate it as follows:
 - For $j=1,\dots,k$, train the model M_i on $S_1\bigcup\dots\bigcup S_{j-1}\bigcup S_{j+1}\bigcup\dots\bigcup S_k$ (i.e., train on all the data except S_j) to get some hypothesis h_{ij} , and then test the hypothesis h_{ij} on S_j , to get $\hat{\varepsilon}_{S_j}(h_{ij})$.
 - The estimated generalization error of model M_i is then calculated as the average of the $\hat{\varepsilon}_{S_j}(h_{ij})$'s (averaged over j).
- Pick the model M_i with the lowest estimated generalization error, and retrain that model on the entire training set S. The resulting hypothesis is then output as our final answer.

Feature Selection

- n features result in 2^n possible feature subsets
- The question is which one is optimal (i.e., the most relevant features to the learning problem)
- Forward search:
 - Initialize $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$
 - Until $|\mathcal{F}| = \epsilon \ or \ |\mathcal{F}| = n$, repeat
 - (a) For $i=1,\cdots,n$, if $i\notin\mathcal{F}$, let $\mathcal{F}_i=\mathcal{F}\bigcup\{i\}$, and use cross validation to evaluate \mathcal{F}_i
 - (b) Set ${\mathcal F}$ to be the best feature subset found in (a)
- Backward search: Start with $\mathcal{F}=\{1,\cdots,n\}$, and repeatedly deletes features one at a time until $|\mathcal{F}|=\epsilon$
- The above two methods are so-called wrapper model, which is a procedure that "wraps" around your learning algorithm
- Wrapper feature selection algorithms usually have considerable computational cost
 - $O(n^2)$ calls to the learning algorithm

Filter Feature Selection

- · Heuristic but computationally efficient
- Basic idea: Compute a score S(i) to measure how informative each feature x_i is about the class labels y; then, select the k features with the largest scores S(i)
- Mutual information $MI(x_i, y)$ between x_i and y

$$MI(x_i, y) = \sum_{x_i \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}} p(x_i, y) \log \frac{p(x_i, y)}{p(x_i)p(y)}$$

with $p(x_i, y)$, $p(x_i)$ and p(y) estimated according their empirical distributions on the training set

- How to choose a right k?
 - Use cross validation

Thanks!

Q & A