ECE 2372 - Pattern Recognition

Supplementary reading for today's lecture: "Learning from Data" Chapter 2.1.1 and 2.1.2

So far, we talked about:

- Linear Discriminant Analysis
- Logistic Regression
- Perceptron Learning Algorithm
- Maximum margin hyperplanes

Pictured data set is not linearly separable but can be in a higher dimension with a transform:

$$\Phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x(1) \\ x(2) \\ x(1)x(2) \\ x(1)^2 \\ x(2)^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

This dataset is linearly separable after applying such transformation with $\mathbf{w} = [-1, 0, 0, 1, 1]^T$

Fundamental Tradeoff: By mapping the data to a higher-dimensional space, the set of linear classifiers becomes a "richer set".

Richer set of hypothesis
$$\implies \begin{cases} \hat{R}_n(h^*) & \downarrow \\ \hat{R}_n(h^*) - R(h^*) & \uparrow \end{cases}$$

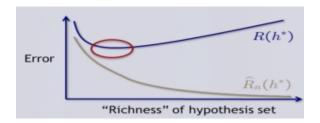


Figure 1: Tradeoff

Measure for "richness":

When can we have confidence that $\hat{R}_n(h^*) \approx R(h^*)$ where h^* is chosen from an **infinite set** \mathcal{H} .

• For a single hypothesis,

$$\mathbb{P}[| \hat{R}_n(h) - R(h) | > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

• For $m = |\mathcal{H}|$ hypothesis, and $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$

$$\mathbb{P}[||\hat{R}_n(h^*) - R(h^*)|| > \epsilon] \le 2me^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

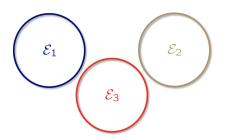
Where did m come from? Union bound:

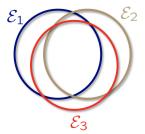
$$\mathbb{P}[\varepsilon_1 \cup \ldots \cup \varepsilon_m] \leq \mathbb{P}[\varepsilon_1] + \ldots + \mathbb{P}[\varepsilon_m]$$

Here the events we are bounding:

$$\varepsilon_j = |\hat{R}_n(h_j) - R(h_j)| > \epsilon$$

So pictorially, possibilities for these bad events:





One thing clear from this picture is we can improve on m is there is an overlap between "bad events". In other words get a better bound than union suggests. It turns out in reality, we are much closer to the situation on right figure, there is tremendous overlap between bad events.

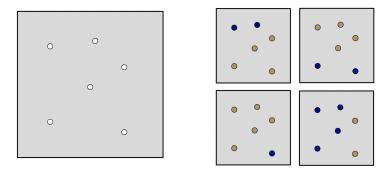
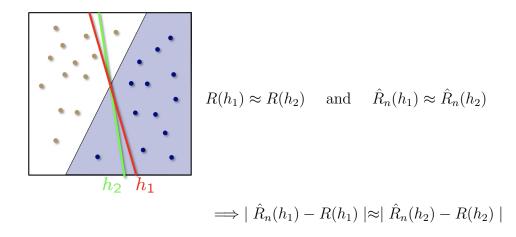


Figure 2: Dichotomies



What can we substitute m with? These events are very overlapping, using the union bound is not the best idea.

- Small changes into hypothesis may lead into small changes in true risk
- Rather than considering all possible hypothesis we have in \mathcal{H} , we will consider a finite set of input points $x_1, ..., x_n$ and "combine" hypothesis that result in the same labeling.
 - we call a particular labeling of $x_1, ..., x_n$ a **dichotomy**

Hypotheses vs dichotomies:

Hypotheses

- $h: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$
- ullet Number of hypothesis is $\mid \mathcal{H} \mid$ potentially infinite
- $|\mathcal{H}|$ (or m) is a poor way to measure "richness" of \mathcal{H} .

Dichotomies

- $h: \{x_1, ..., x_n\} \to \{-1, +1\}$
- Number of dichotomies $|\mathcal{H}(x_1,...,x_n)|$ is at most 2^n (unique labellings).
- This is a good candidate for replacing $|\mathcal{H}|$ as a measure of "richness".

The growth function: A dichotomy is defined in terms of a particular $x_1, ..., x_n$.

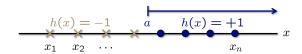
The growth function of \mathcal{H} is defined as : $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = max_{x_1,...,x_n \in \mathcal{X}} \mid \mathcal{H}(x_1,...,x_n) \mid$

 $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ counts the **most** dichotomies that can possibly be generated on n points.

One can show that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq 2^n$, but it can potentially be much smaller.

Example 1: Positive rays

Candidate functions: $h: \mathbb{R} \to \{-1, +1\}$ such that h(x) = sign(x-a) for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$.



$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1$$

Example 2: Positive intervals

Candidate functions: $h: \mathbb{R} \to \{-1, +1\}$ such that

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{for } x \in [a, b] \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$h(x) = -1$$

$$x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \dots$$

$$h(x) = +1$$

$$x_n \quad h(x) = -1$$

$$x_n \quad x_n$$

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \binom{n+1}{2} + 1$$

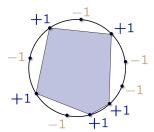
= $\frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1$

Example 3: Convex sets

Candidate functions: $h: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \{-1, +1\}$ such that

$${x:h(x)=+1}$$
 is convex





Is there any labeling that you can't draw a convex shape around?

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$$

If \mathcal{H} can generate all possible dichotomies on $x_1, ..., x_n$, then it is referred as that \mathcal{H} shatters $x_1, ..., x_n$.

Example 4: Linear classifiers Candidate functions: $h: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \{-1, +1\}$ such that

$$[h]\{x: h(x) = sign(\mathbf{w}^T x + b)\}\$$

for some $w \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$.

- $m_{\mathcal{H}}(3) = 2^3$
- $m_{\mathcal{H}}(4) = 14$











Recap:

• Positive rays: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1$

• Positive intervals: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1$

• Convex sets: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$

• Linear classifiers in \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(1) = 2$$

 $m_{\mathcal{H}}(2) = 4$
 $m_{\mathcal{H}}(3) = 8$
 $m_{\mathcal{H}}(4) = 14$
 $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = ?$

Recap:

ullet Challenge: Number of hypothesis is $\mid \mathcal{H} \mid$ potentially infinite

• Better: Narrow the scope to the finite training set in order to replace easily infinite m. Dichotomies allow us that.

• $h: \{x_1, ..., x_n\} \mapsto \{-1, 1\} \implies 2^n$ different way of labeling, max! so dichotomy is the way of labeling THAT particular data set

• Hence, in general, $|\mathcal{H}| > |\mathcal{H}(x_1, ..., x_n)|$. In English number of hypothesis; number of dichotomies

• So maybe a dichotomies are a better measure of "richness" of the set.

• And then we introduced the idea of "growth function that gets rid of the dependence of dichotomy to a particulars of our training set $x_1, ... x_n$.

• Growth function: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \max_{x_1,...,x_n \in \mathcal{X}} | \mathcal{H}(x_1,...,x_n) |$.

Recall

$$\mathbb{P}[\mid \hat{R}_n(h^*) - R(h^*) \mid > \epsilon] \le 2me^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

Another way to write this, if you pick a δ then we can guarantee that with probability at least $1-\delta$

$$R(h^*) \le \hat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m}{\delta}}$$

by setting $2me^{-2\epsilon^2n} = \delta$ and solve for ϵ . If $m \propto e^n$, we have a problem...

No matter how big n gets $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m}{\delta}}$ will never be smaller...

What if we replace with m with $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$? Suppose that for any $\delta \in (0,1)$, we can guarantee at least $1-\delta$

$$R(h^*) \le \hat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$$

- If $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$ then $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$ is a constant
- If $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is a polynomial in n, $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$ decays like $\sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n}}$.

When is learning feasible?

Assuming that we are indeed allowed to substitute $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ for m, we can argue that for a given set of hypothesis \mathcal{H} learning is possible provided that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is a polynomial. How do we know it is a polynomial?

Key idea: Break points

def'n: If no data set of size k can be shattered by \mathcal{H} , then k is a **break point** for \mathcal{H} .

$$m_{\mathcal{H}(k)} < 2^k$$

This also implies that if k is a break point, then so is any k' > k.

Examples of Break points

- Positive rays: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1$
 - break point: k=2
- Positive intervals: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1$
 - break point: k = 3
- Convex sets: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$
 - break point: $k = \infty$
- Linear classifiers in \mathbb{R}^2 :
 - break point: k = 4

If there exists any break point, then $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is polynomial in n

If no break points, then $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$

As soon as we have a single break point, this starts eliminating tons of dichotomies.

- We can show that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is polynomial in n.
- We can show that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq \mathbf{some}$ polynomial
- Main approach will center around:
 - -B(n,k) := maximum number of dichotomies on n points such that no subset of size k can be shattered by these dichotomies
 - Notice that this is a purely combinatorial quantity
 - By definition, $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq B(n,k)$

Example: how many dichotomies?

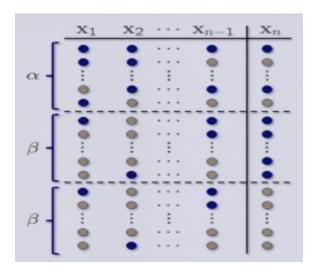
You are given a hypothesis set which has a break point of 2.

How many dichotomies can you get on 3 data points?

\mathbf{x}_1	\mathbf{x}_2	X 3		
•	•	•		
•	•			
•	0	•		
•	-			
0	•	•		
	•			
		-		

Summary: B(n, k) is the combinatorial quantity that's an upper bound on the growth function for any possible set of classifiers.

You can bound B(n, k) recursively which is an algorithmic proof. We will just skip the analytical proof as it is pages and pages math. There is also a "proof by picture" for this which I like, you may review that from "Learning from Data" if you are interested...



$$\alpha + \beta \le B(n-1,k)$$
$$\beta \le B(n-1,k-1)$$

Hence,

$$B(n,k) \le B(n-1,k) + B(n-1,k-1)$$

n^k	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	1	2	2	2	2	2	
2	1	3	4	4	4	4	
3	1	(4)	7	8	8	8	
1 2 3 4 5	1	5	11	(15)	16	16	
5	1	6		$\overline{}$			
6	1	7					
:	:	:					
B(n-1,k-1) $B(n-1,k)$ $B(n,k)$							

Analytical solution: $B(n,k) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i}$ You can prove that it is actually equal,

$$B(n,k) = B(n-1,k) + B(n-1,k-1)$$

but all we really need is an upper bound, so that is all we will prove here.

Proof by induction:

$$B(n,k) \le B(n-1,k) + B(n-1,k-1)$$

• Base case

$$B(n,1) = 1$$

$$B(1,k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 1 \\ 2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Inductive step
 - suppose the inequality is true for B(n-1,k) and B(n-1,k-1)

$$B(n,k) \le \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n-1}{i} + \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} \binom{n-1}{i}$$

$$= 1 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n-1}{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \binom{n-1}{i-1}$$

$$= 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \binom{n-1}{i} + \binom{n-1}{i-1}$$

$$= 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i}$$