Generalization BoundsTheoretical Foundations of Deep Learning

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December 17, 2024



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Introduction

Introduction

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Motivation

Introduction

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- ► Core Question: How can models trained on limited data perform reliably on unseen scenarios?
- ► **Generalization** is a fundamental goal in machine learning: ensuring models extend their learned patterns to new, unseen data.
- A poorly generalized model risks:
 - Overfitting: Performing well on training data but poorly on unseen data.
 - Underfitting: Failing to capture the underlying patterns of the data.

The Learning Problem

Introduction

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- Supervised Learning:
 - ▶ Goal: Learn a function $f: X \to Y$ mapping inputs X to outputs Y based on labeled training data.
- ► **Key Question**: Can the learned function perform well on unseen data?
- Generalization:
 - Ability of a model to extend its learning beyond the training data.
 - ► **Central Problem** in machine learning: balancing *empirical* performance with future predictions.

Overfitting

Objective:

Introduction

► Show how increasing model complexity (polynomial degree) leads to overfitting.

Dataset

 Using the scikit-learn **Diabetes** dataset with a single feature (BMI) and a quantitative response variable indicating disease progression (Target)^[1].

Approach:

- 1. Fit polynomial regression models of varying degrees.
- 2. Visualize polynomial fits on the training data.
- **3.** Examine the fits' residuals to see how errors behave.
- 4. Plot training vs. test errors to highlight overfitting.

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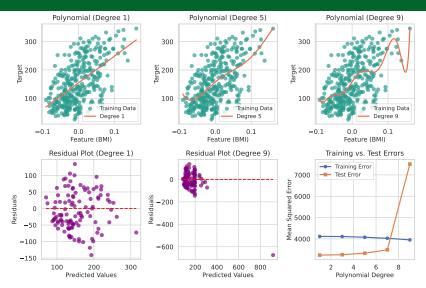


Figure 1: Overfitting Phenomenon in Polynomial Regression

Introduction

Modern machine learning introduces a fascinating twist: Double Descent, where increasing model complexity can lead to improved generalization after an initial overfitting phase.



Figure 2: Double Descent phenomenon in a Residual Neural Network^[2]

Classical Bounds

- ► Goal: Predict a model's performance on unseen data.
- ▶ **Generalization Bounds** provide theoretical guarantees, linking:
 - ► **Generalization Error**: Error on unseen data.
 - **Empirical Risk**: Error on training data.
 - ► Model Complexity: Model's flexibility.
- ▶ Why They Matter: They help understand the trade-offs between:
 - ► **Accuracy**: How well the model fits the data.
 - **Complexity**: Ability to model intricate patterns.
 - ▶ Data Size: Amount of data needed for reliable learning.

Hoeffding's Inequality: A Foundation

- ► What it is: A probabilistic tool that helps estimate how well a model will generalize.
- ► Focus: Quantifies the difference between empirical risk (training error) and generalization error (true error) for a single, fixed model.

Hoeffding's Inequality: The Math

► Formula^[3].

$$P(|R(h) - R_{\sf emp}(h)| > \varepsilon) \le 2 \exp(-2m\varepsilon^2)$$

- ightharpoonup R(h): True error on unseen data.
- $ightharpoonup R_{emp}(h)$: Error on training data.
- \triangleright ε : Error tolerance.
- m: Dataset size.
- ► **Interpretation**: The probability of a large difference between true error and training error decreases **exponentially** with:
 - ► Larger datasets (*m*).
 - ▶ Smaller error tolerance (ε) .

Convergence: How Fast Does It Happen?

- **Rate of Convergence**: How quickly the training error becomes a good estimate of the true error as we get more data.
- Hoeffding's Formula shows faster convergence with larger datasets due to the $\exp(-2m\varepsilon^2)$ term.

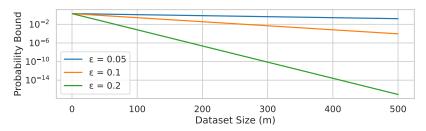


Figure 3: Hoeffding Bound Convergence Rate

Interpreting Hoeffding's Inequality

- ► **Meaning**: With more data, training error becomes a better predictor of true error.
- ▶ **Practical Implication**: For a fixed model, training performance is a good indicator of unseen data performance, and this improves with dataset size.
- ▶ **Limitations**: We usually pick the best model from many, not just one. Hoeffding doesn't account for how complex the model class is.

The Union Bound: Handling Multiple Models

- ▶ What it does: Extends bounds like Hoeffding's to work when choosing from many models (a hypothesis space \mathcal{H}).
- ▶ Main Idea: Considers the chance that at least one model in H has a large difference between training and true error.

Union Bound: The Formula

► Expression^[4]:

$$P\left(\sup_{h\in\mathcal{H}}|R(h)-R_{\mathsf{emp}}(h)|>\epsilon
ight)\leq\sum_{h\in\mathcal{H}}P\left(|R(h)-R_{\mathsf{emp}}(h)|>\epsilon
ight)$$

Breakdown:

- ▶ $\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}}$: Account for the worst-case scenario across all hypotheses.
- $ightharpoonup \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}}$: Sums up probabilities of large error differences for each model.

Union Bound: Key Implications

► Larger Model Space: The more models we consider, the looser the bound becomes.

Table 1: Trade-off: Hypothesis Space vs. Bound & Capacity

Hypothesis Space Size	Bound	Model Capacity
Small	Tighter	Limited
Large	Looser	Higher

Moving Forward

- ► **Challenge**: Real-world model spaces are often infinite or too large.
- ► **Solution**: We need ways to measure model complexity that go beyond counting.
- ▶ **Next**: Exploring **complexity measures** for more practical generalization bounds.

Advanced Bounds

Why Advanced Bounds?

- ► Classical Bounds give us a good starting point, but they can be loose.
- ► **Goal**: Tighter bounds that better reflect real-world performance.
- ► **How?**: By measuring model complexity in more sophisticated ways.

VC Dimension

- ▶ **Growth Function** $(\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(m))$: How many ways can a model class (\mathcal{H}) label m data points?
 - ► More ways = more complex.
 - For small m, $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(m) = 2^m$.
- ▶ **Shattering**: A model class *shatters* a dataset if it can label it in *every possible way*.

VC Dimension: Definition

- **VC Dimension** (d_{VC}) : The size of the *largest* dataset a model class can shatter.
- **Example**: Linear classifiers in 2D have $d_{VC} = 3$. They can shatter 3 points but not 4 (in all configurations).

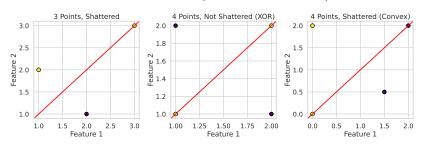


Figure 4: VC Dimension of Linear Classifiers in 2D

The VC Generalization Bound

► Formula^[5]:

$$R(h) \leq R_{\mathsf{emp}}(h) + \sqrt{rac{8d_{\mathsf{VC}}\left(\ln\left(rac{2m}{d_{\mathsf{VC}}}
ight) + 1
ight) + 8\ln\left(rac{4}{\delta}
ight)}{m}}$$

Classical Bounds

- ightharpoonup R(h): True error.
- $ightharpoonup R_{emp}(h)$: Training error.
- ► *d*_{VC}: VC dimension.
- ▶ m: Dataset size.
- \triangleright δ : Confidence parameter.

VC Bound: Interpretation

- Higher VC Dimension:
 - More complex model, looser bound, higher risk of overfitting.
- Larger Dataset:
 - Tighter bound, better generalization.

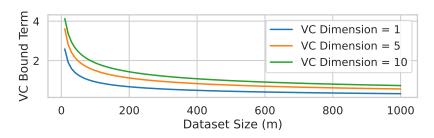


Figure 5: Approximation of the VC Generalization Bound

- **VC** theory often considers the *worst-case* scenario.
- New Idea: Use information about the data distribution for tighter bounds.
- **Example**: Support Vector Machines (SVMs).
 - ► Margin: Distance from the decision boundary to the nearest data points.
 - ► Larger margin = better generalization.
- ▶ **Benefit**: More realistic bounds reflecting real-world performance.

Other Ways to Measure Complexity

- ▶ Why?: VC dimension can be too pessimistic.
- ► **Goal**: More nuanced measures, especially for things like neural networks.

Table 2: Further ways to measure complexity^[6]

Measure	Description	Key Idea
Covering	How many "balls" cover	Smaller = simpler =
Numbers	the hypothesis space?	tighter bounds
Rademacher	How well can the model	Lower = less prone to
Complexity	fit random noise?	overfitting

Conclusions

Key Takeaways I

- ► **Generalization** is crucial: We want models to work on **unseen data**, not just the training set.
- Overfitting is a risk: More complex models can memorize the training data but fail to generalize.
- ► Classical Bounds highlight the importance of:
 - ▶ Dataset size: More data leads to better generalization.
 - Model complexity: Simpler models (smaller hypothesis spaces) are safer.

Key Takeaways II

- Advanced Bounds offer a refined view:
 - ► VC Dimension: Measures a model's ability to shatter data. Higher VC dimension means more complexity.
 - Distribution-Based: Leverage data properties for tighter bounds.
- ► The Goal: Balance model expressiveness with the risk of overfitting by controlling complexity and leveraging insights from the data distribution.

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