Generalization Bounds

Theoretical Foundations of Deep Learning

Matteo Mazzarelli

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LUDWIG-MAXIMILIANS-UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN

Introduction

Motivation

- **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

- **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

Demonstrating Overfitting

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

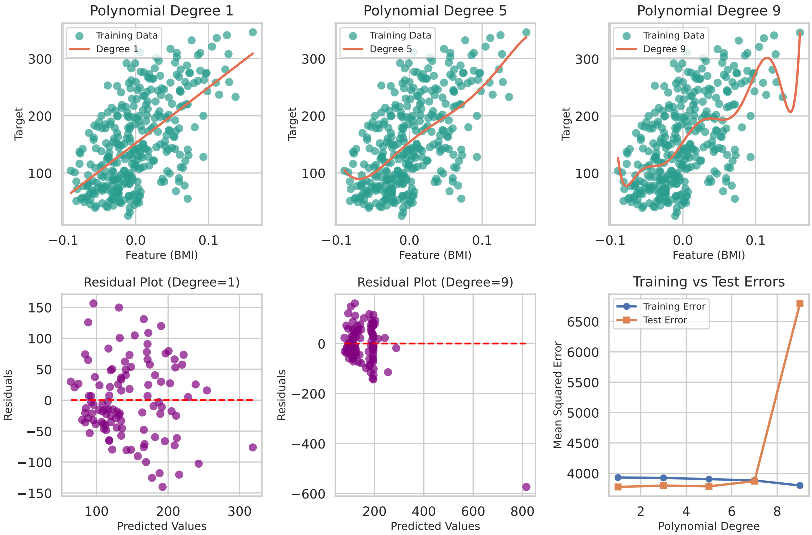

Figure 1: Overfitting Phenomenon in Polynomial Regression

Double Descent

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

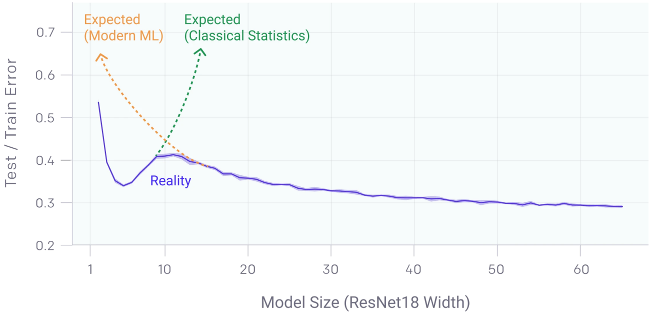

Figure 2: Double Descent phenomenon in a Residual Neural Network[2]

Classical Bounds

Introducing Generalization Bounds

- **What Are Generalization Bounds?**
  - Theoretical tools offering guarantees about a model's performance on unseen data.
  - Relate:
    - **Generalization Error**: How well the model performs on unseen data.
    - **Empirical Risk**: Performance observed on training data.
    - **Model Complexity**: How expressive the model is.

- **Purpose**:
  - Provide insights into the trade-offs between:
    - **Model Accuracy**: How well the model captures the data patterns.
    - **Model Complexity**: The expressiveness of the model and its ability to fit intricate patterns.
    - **Training Data Size**: How much data is required to achieve reliable generalization.

Hoeffding's Inequality: A Starting Point

- **What is Hoeffding's Inequality?**
  - A fundamental result in probability theory used to bound the difference between the **empirical risk** and the **generalization error** for a fixed hypothesis.
  - Provides a way to measure how closely a model's performance on training data reflects its performance on unseen data.

Mathematical Formulation of Hoeffding's Inequality

- **Hoeffding's Inequality**:

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

  - $R(h)$: Generalization error (true performance on unseen data).
  - $R_{\text{emp}}(h)$: Empirical risk (error on training data).
  - ε: A small positive value (tolerance).
  - m: Size of the dataset.

Key Insights

- The probability that the generalization error $R(h)$ deviates significantly from the empirical risk $R_{\text{emp}}(h)$ decreases **exponentially** with:
  - Larger dataset size m.
  - Smaller tolerance ε.

Rates of Convergence

- **What Are Rates of Convergence?**
  - Quantify how quickly the generalization error approaches the empirical risk as the dataset size m grows.
  - Provide a guideline for determining the dataset size needed to achieve a desired level of generalization.
  - In Hoeffding's inequality:

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

    - The **exponential term** $\exp(-2m\varepsilon^2)$ shows that the convergence is faster with larger datasets.
- **Key Factors**:
  - **Dataset Size (m)**: Larger datasets reduce the gap between $R(h)$ and $R_{\text{emp}}(h)$ more quickly.
  - **Tolerance (ε)**: Smaller tolerances require larger datasets for the same level of confidence.

Interpretation of Hoeffding's Inequality

- **What Does It Mean?**
  - As the dataset size (m) increases, the empirical risk becomes a more reliable indicator of the generalization error.
  - For a fixed hypothesis, we can be confident that the performance observed on training data is close to what can be expected on unseen data.
  - The **rate of convergence** shows how quickly this reliability improves as m grows.

Key Insights

- Hoeffding's inequality gives a **quantitative guarantee** about the relationship between training performance and unseen data performance.
- Understanding convergence rates helps in planning how much data is needed for robust generalization.

Limitations of Hoeffding's Inequality

- **Beyond Fixed Hypotheses**:
  - Hoeffding's inequality assumes a single, fixed hypothesis.
  - In practice, machine learning involves selecting the best hypothesis from a **large hypothesis class** $\mathcal{H}$, increasing the risk of overfitting.
- **Need for Complexity-Aware Bounds**:
  - Simple bounds like Hoeffding's do not consider the complexity of the hypothesis class, which influences generalization.

The Union Bound

- **What is the Union Bound?**
  - A probability tool used to extend bounds like Hoeffding's inequality to apply across an entire hypothesis space $\mathcal{H}$.
  - Helps estimate the probability that **at least one hypothesis** in $\mathcal{H}$ has a large generalization gap.
- **Key Idea**:
  - Instead of considering a single fixed hypothesis, the Union Bound aggregates the probabilities of generalization gaps over all hypotheses in $\mathcal{H}$.

Formalization of The Union Bound

- **Mathematical Expression**:

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

  - $\sup_{h\in\mathcal{H}}$: The supremum ensures we account for the worst-case scenario across all hypotheses.
  - $P(|R(h) - R_{\text{emp}}(h)| > \epsilon)$: The probability of a significant generalization gap for each hypothesis.
- **How It Works**:
  - By summing up the probabilities for all hypotheses, the Union Bound provides a way to analyze the worst-case scenario over the hypothesis space.

Implications of The Union Bound

- **Impact of Hypothesis Space Size**:
  - The bound depends directly on the **size of the hypothesis space** $|\mathcal{H}|$.
  - Larger hypothesis spaces increase the sum, making the bound looser.
- **Takeaway**:
  - The Union Bound highlights a trade-off:
    - **Small hypothesis space**: Tighter bounds, but limited model capacity.
    - **Large hypothesis space**: Higher capacity, but risk of overfitting and looser bounds.

Transition to Advanced Bounds

- **Connection to Practical Learning**:
  - In practice, hypothesis spaces are often infinite or too large to enumerate explicitly. This motivates the need for alternative ways to measure hypothesis complexity.
- **From Simple to Sophisticated**:
  - The Union Bound provides a conceptual basis for understanding how hypothesis space size affects generalization.
  - Next, we delve into **complexity measures** that allow us to extend generalization bounds to more practical, infinite hypothesis spaces.

Advanced Bounds

Motivation for Advanced Bounds

- **Advanced bounds** address a variety of the limitations we have outlined by incorporating:
  - **VC Dimension**: A measure of the capacity or expressiveness of a hypothesis class. Higher VC dimensions indicate more complex models, which may require more data to generalize well.
  - **Rademacher Complexity**: A data-dependent measure of how well a hypothesis class can fit random noise in the training data. It captures both the hypothesis class and the specifics of the data distribution.

- **Extending Convergence Rates**:
  - Advanced bounds refine the rates of convergence by linking the generalization error to:
    - The size of the dataset m.
    - The complexity of the hypothesis class (e.g., **VC dimension** or **Rademacher complexity**).
  - For example, the generalization error is often bounded as:

$$R(h) - R_{\text{emp}}(h) \leq \mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\text{Complexity}(\mathcal{H})}{m}}\right)$$

    - Larger datasets m reduce error, but higher complexity increases the required data for a desired level of generalization.
- **Practical Implications**:
  - These bounds provide actionable insights for balancing model complexity and dataset size.

Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) Theory

- **Growth Function**
  - The **Growth Function** is a measure of the expressiveness of a hypothesis space $\mathcal{H}$.
  - **Definition**:
    - The growth function, $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(m)$, is the maximum number of distinct ways a hypothesis space can label m data points.
  - **Key Idea**:
    - A more expressive hypothesis space can label datasets in a greater number of ways, indicating higher complexity.
  - **Growth Behavior**:
    - For small m, $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(m) = 2^m$.
    - For larger m, the growth may be limited by the structure of $\mathcal{H}$.

- **VC Dimension**
  - The **VC Dimension** is a scalar value that quantifies the capacity of a hypothesis space $\mathcal{H}$.
  - **Definition**:
    - The VC dimension d_{VC} is the size of the largest dataset that can be **shattered** by $\mathcal{H}$.
  - **Shattering**:
    - A dataset is shattered if every possible labeling of the dataset can be perfectly captured by hypotheses in $\mathcal{H}$.
- **Examples**:
  - A linear classifier in 2D space has a VC dimension of 3 (it can shatter any 3 points, but not all configurations of 4 points).

VC Generalization Bound

- **What is the VC Generalization Bound?**
  - A theoretical result that connects the **generalization error** with the **empirical risk**, the **VC dimension**, and the size of the dataset.
  - **Mathematical Formulation**:

$$R(h) \leq R_{\text{emp}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{8 d_{\text{VC}} \left(\ln \left(\frac{2m}{d_{\text{VC}}} \right) + 1 \right) + 8 \ln \left(\frac{4}{\delta} \right)}{m}}$$

    - $R(h)$: Generalization error.
    - $R_{\text{emp}}(h)$: Empirical risk.
    - d_{VC}: VC dimension.
    - m: Dataset size.
    - δ: Confidence level ($1 - \delta$ is the probability that the bound holds).

Key Insights

- As d_{VC} increases (more complex hypothesis space):
  - The bound becomes looser, reflecting a higher risk of overfitting.
- As m increases (larger dataset size):
  - The bound tightens, improving generalization guarantees.

Summing Up VC Theory

- **Expressiveness vs. Generalization**:
  - The VC dimension captures the **expressiveness** of a hypothesis space:
    - Higher d_{VC}: More complex, more expressive.
  - A balance is required to avoid overfitting (high complexity) or underfitting (low complexity).
- **Implications for Learning**:
  - The VC dimension helps understand:
    - Why simpler models often generalize better.
    - Why increasing data size improves generalization, especially for complex models.
- **Foundation for Algorithm Design**:
  - VC theory guides the development of learning algorithms by quantifying the trade-offs between hypothesis complexity, data size, and generalization performance.

Distribution-Based Bounds

- **From General Bounds to Data-Driven Insights**:
  - Generalization bounds like Hoeffding's inequality and VC bounds rely on worst-case scenarios.
- **Distribution-Based Bounds**:
  - Leverage specific properties of the data distribution to achieve **tighter bounds**.
  - Exploit **data structure** to understand how well a model generalizes in practice.

Example: Support Vector Machines (SVMs)

- **SVMs and Margin-Based Bounds**:
  - Support Vector Machines (SVMs) introduce the concept of a **margin**, the distance between the decision boundary and the nearest data points.
  - **Intuition**:
    - A larger margin indicates better separation between classes, leading to better generalization.
  - **Margin-Based Generalization Bounds**:
    - Generalization error decreases as the margin increases, even for infinite hypothesis spaces.

Alternative Capacity Measures

- **Why Explore Alternative Measures?**
  - VC dimension assumes worst-case datasets, often leading to overly conservative bounds.
  - Alternative measures provide more nuanced insights into hypothesis space complexity, especially for modern machine learning models like neural networks.

- **Examples of Alternative Measures**
  1. **Covering Numbers**: The minimum number of small "balls" needed to cover the hypothesis space under a certain metric. Smaller covering numbers indicate a simpler hypothesis space, leading to tighter generalization bounds.
  2. **Rademacher Complexity**: Measures the ability of a hypothesis class to fit random noise. A lower Rademacher complexity indicates that the hypothesis space is less prone to overfitting.
- **Next Steps**:
  - We want to explore how these theoretical tools are applied to modern machine learning methods.

Key Insights

- These measures allow for tighter, data-adaptive generalization bounds, particularly useful for complex or large-scale models.
- There's no one-size-fits-all measure. The choice of capacity measure depends on:
  - The hypothesis space.
  - The structure of the data.
  - The learning algorithm.

Conclusion

References

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