# Lecture 1: Fundamental Concept of Statistical Learning

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### 1 Fundamental Concepts and Assumptions

#### 1.1 Categories of Machine Learning

#### • Remark (Categories of Machine Learning)

The field of machine learning has branched into several subfields dealing with different types of learning tasks. We give a rough taxonomy of learning paradigms, aiming to provide some perspective of where the content of this book sits within the wide field of machine learning.

- Remark (Supervised Learning, Unsupervised Learning and Reinforcement Learning)
  - 1. Supervised learning. Learning to predict and generalize. In other words, the task of learning is to infer a mapping between covariates (data) and responses (target) so that the error/cost is minimized. Each example is a description of situation (sample) together with a specification (label) of the correct action the system should take to that action. Supervised learning is an error-correction process. It is an one-step prediction. Human label is used as instructive feedbacks.
  - 2. Unsupervised learning. Learning to represent and discover the hidden structure of data. A proper representation of data facilitates knowledge discovery and improves the performance of prediction. It also helps in visualization, storage and communication.
  - 3. Reinforcement learning. Learning from interaction. As compared to above approaches, reinforcement learning studies <u>goal-directed learning from interaction</u>. The term 'learning' means learning to map <u>situations</u> to <u>actions</u> so as to maximize the reward. Also it is often unrealistic to obtain all examples of desired behavior that are both correct and representative of all situations in which the agents have to act. Reinforcement learning is a <u>trial-and-error</u> process and it is a multi-step prediction. It cares about future rewards in multiple steps. On the other hand, reinforcement learning only optimize the future rewards, where the rewards are used as <u>evaluative feedbacks</u>.

#### • Remark (Active Learning, Passive Learning)

Learning paradigms can vary by *the role* played by the *learner*. We distinguish between "active" and "passive" learners.

- 1. An *active* learner interacts with the environment at training time, say, by posing queries or performing experiments;
- 2. A *passive* learner only observes the information provided by the environment (or the teacher) without influencing or directing it.
- These notes are mainly about *supervised learning* tasks.

#### 1.2 Data, Concept and Hypotheses

#### • Remark (Data)

Define an **observation** as a d-dimensional vector x. The unknown nature of the observation is called a **class**, denoted as y. The domain of observation is called an **input space** or **feature space**, denoted as  $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ , whereas the domain of class is called the **target space**,

denoted as  $\mathcal{Y}$ . For *classification task*,  $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, ..., M\}$ ; and for *regression task*,  $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$ . Denote a collection of n *samples* as

$$\mathcal{D} \equiv \mathcal{D}_n = ((X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)).$$

Note that  $\mathcal{D}_n$  is a finite **sub-sequence** in  $(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^n$ .

#### • Definition (Concept Class as a Function Class)

A <u>concept</u>  $c: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  is the *input-output association* from the nature and is to be learned by <u>a learning algorithm</u>. Denote  $\mathcal{C}$  as the set of all concepts we wish to learn as the **concept class**. That is,  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \{c: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}\} = \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$ . Concept class  $\mathcal{C}$  is a function class.

#### • Definition (Hypothesis and Hypothesis Class)

The learner is requested to output a *prediction rule*,  $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ . This function is also called a *predictor*, a *hypothesis*, or a *classifier*. The predictor can be used to predict the label of new domain points.

Note that  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  may not overlap, since the concept class is unknown to learner.

#### 1.3 Deterministic and Stochastic Scenario

Learning is formalized into two different *scenarios*:

#### 1. **Deterministic** Scenario:

Assume that there exist measurable space  $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B})$ , where  $X \in \mathcal{X}$  is the **random vector** in  $\mathcal{X}$ , i.e.

$$X:(\Omega,\mathscr{F},\mathbb{P})\to(\mathcal{X},\mathscr{B})$$

is  $\mathscr{F}/\mathscr{B}$  measurable. Let  $\mathcal{P}_X$  be the induced probability distribution on X.

#### Remark (Sample in Deterministic Scenario)

In deterministic scenario, let  $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)$  be a sequence of n independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) random samples, where  $X_i \sim \mathcal{P}_X$ . Then  $Y_i = c(X_i)$  for i = 1, ..., n and the sample set

$$\mathcal{D} \equiv \mathcal{D}_n = ((X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)) \equiv ((X_1, c(X_1)), \dots, (X_n, c(X_n))).$$

Note that the probability distribution for  $\mathcal{D}_n$  is  $\mathcal{P}_X^n := \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{P}_X$ .

#### 2. Stochastic Scenario:

Assume both X and Y are random, i.e. there exists a probability space  $(\mathcal{X} \times, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P}_{X,Y})$  so that

$$(X,Y):(\Omega,\mathscr{F},\mathbb{P})\to(\mathcal{X}\times\mathcal{Y},\mathscr{B},\mathcal{P}_{X,Y})$$

so that the pair (X,Y) is  $\mathscr{F}/\mathscr{B}$  measurable. Let  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  be the induced **joint probability** distribution on (X,Y).

#### Remark (Sample in Stochastic Scenario)

In stochastic scenario, the sample set

$$\mathcal{D} \equiv \mathcal{D}_n := ((X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)).$$

is a collection of *n* independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) random sample pairs  $(X_i, Y_i) \sim \mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  Note that the probability distribution for  $\mathcal{D}_n$  is  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}^n := \bigotimes_{i=1}^n \mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$ .

- Remark (Learning Task in Deterministic Scenario)
  Given a collection of i.i.d. samples  $\mathcal{D}$  generated by  $\mathcal{P}_X$ , a <u>learner</u> considers a fixed subset of concepts  $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{C}$ , which is referred as a <u>hypothesis class</u>, and provides a <u>hypothesis</u> or a <u>classifier</u> or a <u>decision function</u>  $h \in \mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$  based on  $\mathcal{D}$ . The task of <u>supervised learning</u> is to minimize the generalization error given a set of training data  $\overline{\mathcal{D}_n}$ .
- Remark (Learning Task in Stochastic Scenario)
  Given the sample set S generated from a (joint) probability distribution  $P_{X,Y}$ . Given a fixed hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ , the task of learner is to find a hypothesis  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  so that the generalization error or the risk or simply the error is minimized.
- Remark (*Deterministic vs. Stochastic*)

  The main difference between these two settings is the assumption on Y:
  - 1. In deterministic scenario, Y = c(X) for some unknown but deterministic  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  and the learning task is to approximate c by some function  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ .
  - 2. In stochastic scenario, Y is a random variable, generated jointly with the feature X by some unknown distribution  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$ .

The pair (X,Y) may not follow a **function relationship**. Note for a pair  $(x,y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$  to follow function relationship, for each given x, there can only be one corresponding  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ . Under the stochastic assumption, any pair  $(x,y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$  would appear as long as the corresponding measure  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}(x,y) > 0$ .

#### 1.4 Generalization Error

• We define *the error of a classifier* to be the probability that it does not predict the correct label on a random data point generated by the aforementioned underlying distribution.

**Definition** (Generalization Error in Deterministic Scenario) [Mohri et al., 2018] Under a deterministic scenario, generalization error or the <u>risk</u> or simply <u>error</u> for the classifier  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  is defined as

$$L(h) \equiv L_{\mathcal{P},c}(h) = \mathcal{P}\left\{h(X) \neq c(X)\right\} \equiv \mathbb{E}_X\left[\mathbb{1}\left\{h(X) \neq c(X)\right\}\right] \tag{1}$$

with respect to the concept  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  and the feature distribution  $\mathcal{P} \equiv \mathcal{P}_X$ .

• Similarly, under the stochastic scenario, the joint distribution  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  has replaced the concept class c:

**Definition** (*Generalization Error in Stochastic Scenario*) [Mohri et al., 2018] In *stochastic scenario*, *generalization error* or the *risk* or simply *error* for the *classifier*  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  is defined as

$$L(h) \equiv L_{\mathcal{P}}(h) = \mathcal{P}\left\{h(X) \neq Y\right\} \equiv \mathbb{E}_{X,Y}\left[\mathbb{1}\left\{h(X) \neq Y\right\}\right] \tag{2}$$

with respect to the joint distribution  $\mathcal{P} \equiv \mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$ .

• Remark Under both situations, the generalization error L(h) is a **functional** on both the **hypothesis** g and the underlying **data generating process**, defined by distribution  $\mathcal{P}$ .

#### 1.5 Empirical Risk Minimization

#### • Remark (Assumption)

The learner is blind to the underlying distribution  $\mathcal{P}$  over the world and to the labeling concept c.

• Since the learner does not know what  $\mathcal{P}$  and c are, the generalization error is not directly available to the learner. A useful notion of error that can be calculated by the learner is the training error or empirical error:

#### Definition (Empirical Error or Training Error)

Given the data  $\mathcal{D}_n$ , the **training error** or the **empirical error/risk** of a hypothesis  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  is defined as

$$\widehat{L}(h) \equiv \widehat{L}_{\mathcal{D}_n}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1} \{ h(X_i) \neq Y_i \} = \frac{1}{n} |\{ i : h(X_i) \neq Y_i \}| := \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[ \mathbb{1} \{ h(X) \neq Y \} \right]$$

where either Y = c(X) or Y is a random variable associated with X.

• Definition (Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM))

The Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM) is a learning paradigm that aims at finding the optimal classifer  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  by minimizing the empirical error  $\widehat{L}_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ ; i.e.

$$h^* \equiv h_{\mathcal{D}}^* \in \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \widehat{L}_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$$

#### • Remark (Empirical Risk Minimization with Inductive Bias)

The hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$  is usually chosen as a subset of concept class  $\mathcal{C}$ . Thus the empirical risk minimization (ERM) may lead to a biased predictor  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  that is not optimal in  $\mathcal{C}$ . Such restrictions are often called <u>an inductive bias</u>. Since the choice of such a restriction  $\mathcal{H}$  is determined **before** the learner sees the training data, it should ideally be based on some **prior knowledge** about the problem to be learned.

#### 1.6 Bayes Error

#### • Definition (Bayes Error)

Under a given distribution  $\mathcal{P}$ , the **Bayes error** or **Bayes risk** is defined as

$$L^* \equiv L_{\mathcal{P}}^* = \inf_h \left\{ L_{\mathcal{P}}(h) \right\},\tag{3}$$

where the infimum is with respect to all measureable function  $h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ . And the hypothesis  $h^*$  such that  $L_{\mathcal{P}}(h^*) = L^*$  is called the **Bayes classifier**.

• Remark (Bayes Error as Functional of Distribution)

Bayes Error is a functional of underlying distribution  $\mathcal{P}$  only and it does not depend on choice of function h or function class  $\mathcal{H}$ .

$$L^* \equiv L_{\mathcal{P}}^* = L^*(\mathcal{P}).$$

Intuitively, it reflects how hard the learning problem is **intrinsically** since it determines **the lower bound** of generalization error.

- Remark (Bayes Error in Deterministic Scenario) Under the deterministic setting, the Bayes error is  $L^* = 0$  since by assumption Y = c(X) for some  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ , thus the infimum is zero.
- Remark (Bayes Classifier if  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  is Known)

  The learning task is concerning about the situation when  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  is unknown but if  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  is  $\underline{known}$ , then  $\underline{the\ optimal\ hypothesis}$  is known as  $\underline{the\ posterior\ conditional\ expectation}$ :

$$\eta(X) := \mathcal{P}[Y|X] = \frac{d\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}}{d\mathcal{P}_X}$$

Note that  $\mathcal{P}[Y|X]_{\omega}$  is a function of X given each  $\omega \in \Omega$ , which means that  $g(X,\omega) := \mathcal{P}[Y|X]_{\omega}$  is a random function itself. For  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$  and X be discrete random variables, it can be written as

$$\eta(x) = \mathcal{P}\left\{Y = 1 \middle| X = x\right\}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{p(y|x)}\left[y\middle| X = x\right].$$
(4)

and the Bayes classifier (decision function)

$$h^*(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \{0,1\}} P(Y|X = x)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \eta(x) > \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$
(5)

with the corresponding Bayes error

$$L^* = \mathbb{E}_{P(X)} \left[ \min \left\{ P(Y = y | X) \mid y \in \{0, 1\} \right\} \right]$$
  
= 1 - \mathbb{E}\_{P(X)} \left[ \eta(X) \mathbb{1} \left\{ \eta(X) > 1/2 \right\} + (1 - \eta(X)) \mathbb{1} \left\{ \eta(X) \left\{ 1/2 \right\} \right] \quad (6)

• We summarizes our discussion as follows

Proposition 1.1 (Conditional Estimator is Bayes Classifer if Distribution is Known)
[Devroye et al., 2013]

Given the posterior (conditional) probability  $\eta(x) = \mathcal{P}(Y = 1|X = x) = \mathbb{E}_{p(y|x)}[Y|X = x]$ , where  $\mathcal{P}(X,Y)$  is the underlying distribution of data and the Bayes decision function

$$h^*(x) = 1 \{ \mathcal{P}(Y = 1 | X = x) > 1/2 \}$$
  
= 1 \{ \mathbb{E}\_{p(y|x)} \left[ y | X = x \right] > 1/2 \},

for any decision function  $g: \mathcal{X} \to \{0,1\},\$ 

$$\mathcal{P}\left\{h^*(X) \neq Y\right\} \leq \mathcal{P}\left\{h(X) \neq Y\right\}$$

**Proof:** Given X = x, the conditional error probability of any g can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{P}\left\{h(X) \neq Y | X = x\right\} \\
= 1 - \mathcal{P}\left\{Y = h(X) | X = x\right\} \\
= 1 - (\mathcal{P}\left\{Y = 1, h(X) = 1 | X = x\right\} + \mathcal{P}\left\{Y = 0, h(X) = 0 | X = x\right\}) \\
= 1 - (\mathbb{1}\left\{h(X) = 1\right\} \mathcal{P}\left\{Y = 1 | X = x\right\} + \mathbb{1}\left\{h(X) = 0\right\} \mathcal{P}\left\{Y = 0 | X = x\right\}) \\
= 1 - [\mathbb{1}\left\{h(X) = 1\right\} \eta(x) + \mathbb{1}\left\{h(X) = 0\right\} (1 - \eta(x))]$$
(7)

For any  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\mathcal{P}\left\{h(X) \neq Y | X = x\right\} - \mathcal{P}\left\{h^*(X) \neq Y | X = x\right\}$$

$$= \eta(x) \left(\mathbbm{1}\left\{h^*(x) = 1\right\} - \mathbbm{1}\left\{h(x) = 1\right\}\right) + \left(1 - \eta(x)\right) \left(\mathbbm{1}\left\{h^*(x) = 0\right\} - \mathbbm{1}\left\{h(x) = 0\right\}\right)$$

$$= \left(2\eta(x) - 1\right) \left(\mathbbm{1}\left\{h^*(x) = 1\right\} - \mathbbm{1}\left\{h(x) = 1\right\}\right)$$

$$> 0,$$

since  $h^*(x) = 1$  if and only if  $(2\eta(x) - 1) > 0$  and  $(\mathbb{1}\{h^*(x) = 1\} - \mathbb{1}\{h(X) = 1\}) \ge 0$  if and only if  $h^*(x) = 1$ .

• Proposition 1.2 (Plug-In Estimator) [Devroye et al., 2013] Consider a plug-in decision function

$$h(x) = 1 \{ \tilde{\eta}(x) > 1/2 \},$$

where  $\tilde{\eta}(x)$  is an estimate of  $\eta(x) = \mathcal{P}(Y = 1|X = x)$ , then for the error probability of plug-in decision function h(X), we have

$$\mathcal{P}\{h(X) \neq Y\} - L^* = 2\int_{\mathcal{X}} |\eta(x) - 1/2| \, \mathbb{1}\{h(X) \neq h^*(x)\} \, \mu(dx) \tag{8}$$

and

$$\mathcal{P}\left\{h(X) \neq Y\right\} - L^* \leq 2 \int_{\mathcal{X}} |\eta(x) - \tilde{\eta}(x)| \, \mu(dx)$$
$$= 2\mathbb{E}_{p(X)} \left[\eta(X) - \tilde{\eta}(X)\right] \tag{9}$$

**Proof:** If for some  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ ,  $h(X) = h^*(x)$ , the clearly the difference btw the conditional error probability of g and  $h^*$  is zero; i.e.

$$\mathcal{P}\{h(X) \neq Y | X = x\} - \mathcal{P}\{h^*(X) \neq Y | X = x\} = 0.$$

Otherwise,  $h(X) \neq h^*(x)$ , then

$$\mathcal{P}\{h(X) \neq Y | X = x\} - \mathcal{P}\{h^*(X) \neq Y | X = x\}$$

$$= (2\eta(x) - 1) \left(\mathbb{1}\{h^*(x) = 1\} - \mathbb{1}\{h(x) = 1\}\right)$$

$$= |2\eta(x) - 1| \mathbb{1}\{h(x) \neq h^*(x)\}$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{P}\{h(X) \neq Y\} - L^* = 2 \int_{\mathcal{X}} |\eta(x) - 1/2| \, \mathbb{1}\{h(x) \neq h^*(x)\} \, \mu(dx)$$
$$\leq 2 \int_{\mathcal{X}} |\eta(x) - \tilde{\eta}(x)| \, \mu(dx),$$

since  $h(X) \neq h^*(x)$  implies  $|\eta(x) - \tilde{\eta}(x)| \geq |\eta(x) - 1/2|$ .

• Corollary 1.3 Consider a plug-in decision function

$$h(X) = 1 \{ \tilde{\eta}_1(x) > \tilde{\eta}_0(x) \},$$

where  $\tilde{\eta}_1(x)$  is an estimate of  $\eta(x)$  and  $\tilde{\eta}_0(x)$  is an estimate of  $1 - \eta(x)$ , then for the error probability of plug-in decision function h(X), we have

$$\mathcal{P}\{h(X) \neq Y\} - L^* \leq \int_{\mathcal{X}} |(1 - \eta(x)) - \tilde{\eta}_0(x)| \, \mu(dx) + \int_{\mathcal{X}} |\eta(x) - \tilde{\eta}_1(x)| \, \mu(dx)$$
 (10)

In particular, if  $\tilde{\eta}_1(x) \equiv \tilde{q}_1\tilde{p}_1(x)$  and  $\tilde{\eta}_0(x) \equiv \tilde{q}_0\tilde{p}_0(x)$ , where  $\tilde{q}_1,\tilde{q}_0$  are estimate of prior distribution for  $\mathcal{P}\{Y=1\} = q$  and  $\mathcal{P}\{Y=0\} = 1 - q$  and  $\tilde{p}_1(x),\tilde{p}_0(x)$  are estimate of class conditional distribution of x given Y=1 and Y=0 respectively, then

$$\mathcal{P}\{h(X) \neq Y\} - L^* \leq \int_{\mathcal{X}} |(1-q)p_0(x) - \tilde{q}_0\tilde{p}_0(x)| \, dx + \int_{\mathcal{X}} |qp_1(x) - \tilde{q}_1\tilde{p}_1(x)| \, dx$$

• Exercise 1.4 (Transformation Increases Bayes Error) [Devroye et al., 2013] Let  $T: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{X}'$  be an arbitrary measureable function. If  $L_{\mathcal{X}}^*$  and  $L_{T(\mathcal{X})}^*$  denote the Bayes error probability for (X,Y) and (T(X),Y), respectively, then prove that

$$L_{T(\mathcal{X})}^* \ge L_{\mathcal{X}}^*$$
.

This shows that transformation destroys information, because the Bayes risk increases.

**Proof:** We see that for any measureable set  $B \subset \mathcal{X}'$ ,  $\mathcal{P}(T(X) \in B) = \mathcal{P}\{X \in T^{-1}(B)\}$ . Define the posterior distribution

$$\eta_T(t) \equiv \mathcal{P} \left\{ Y = 1 | T(x) = t \right\}$$
$$\eta_T(T(x)) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \eta(X) | T(x) \right].$$

Use the F-error theorem by observing that  $L^* = d_F(X, Y)$  with  $F(x) = \min\{x, 1 - x\}$ , thus

$$\begin{split} L_{T(\mathcal{X})}^* &= d_F(T(X), Y) \\ &= \int \min \left\{ 1 - \eta_T(T(x)), \eta_T(T(x)) \right\} p(x) \mu(dx) \\ &= \int \min \left\{ 1 - \mathbb{E} \left[ \eta(X) | T(x) \right], \mathbb{E} \left[ \eta(X) | T(x) \right] \right\} p(x) \mu(dx) \\ &\geq \int \mathbb{E} \left[ \min \left\{ 1 - \eta(X), \eta(X) \right\} | T(x) \right] p(x) \mu(dx) \\ &= \int \min \left\{ 1 - \eta(x), \eta(x) \right\} p(x) \mu(dx) \\ &= d_F(X, Y) = L_{\mathcal{X}}^*. \quad \blacksquare \end{split}$$

**Remark** Note that for any measureable  $T: (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}) \to (\mathcal{X}', \mathcal{B}')$ , let X' = T(X) for  $X: \Omega \to \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[Y|T(X)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[Y|T^{-1}(\sigma(X'))\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[Y|\sigma(X)|_{T^{-1}(\sigma(X'))}\right]$$

$$\equiv \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[Y|\sigma(X)\right]|T(X)\right]$$
for  $E \in T^{-1}(\sigma(X')) = \sigma(T^{-1}X') \subset \sigma(X) \subset \sigma(X,Y)$ 

$$\int_{E} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[Y|\sigma(X)\right]|\sigma(T^{-1}X')\right]dP_{X,Y} = \int_{E} \mathbb{E}\left[Y|\sigma(X)\right]dP_{X,Y}$$

$$= \int_{E} YdP_{X,Y}$$

$$= \int_{E} \mathbb{E}\left[Y|T(X)\right]dP_{X,Y} \quad \blacksquare$$

• Exercise 1.5 [Devroye et al., 2013] Let X' be independent with (X, Y). Show that

$$L_{X',X}^* = L_X^*.$$

**Proof:** Just need to see that  $\eta'(x',x) = \mathcal{P}(Y|(X',X) = (x',x)) = \mathcal{P}(Y|X=x) = \eta(x)$  by independence, the result then follows directly.

#### 1.7 Approximation Error and Estimation Error

• Remark (Optimal Rule within Hypothesis Class)
Given a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ , the best possible generalization error is obtained by

$$L \equiv L_{\mathcal{P},\mathcal{H}} = \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L_{\mathcal{P}}(h) = \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \mathcal{P} \{h(X) \neq Y\}$$

The optimal rule within  $\mathcal{H}$  is defined as  $h_{\mathcal{H}}^* \in \arg\inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L_{\mathcal{P}}(h)$ . Note that  $L \geq L^*$ . The optimal error rate  $L_{\mathcal{P},\mathcal{H}}$  is a function of  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$ .

• Remark (Optimal Rule under Empirical Error Probability) Given a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ , the empirically optimal rule  $h_{\mathcal{D}}^*$  is given by

$$h_{\mathcal{D}}^* \in \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \widehat{L}_{\mathcal{D}}(h).$$

Since the function  $h_{\mathcal{D}}^*$  is determined by data  $\mathcal{D}$ , it can be seen as a *random function* 

$$h_{\mathcal{D}}^*(x) := h(x|\mathcal{D}) \equiv h(x|((X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n))).$$

In general, we use the notation  $h_{\mathcal{D}}$  for a hypothesis returned by a learning algorithm given data  $\mathcal{D}$ .

• Remark (Estimation Error vs. Approximation Error)

The difference between the optimal generalization error within a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$  and the generalization error for the optimal rule under ERM is called the excess risk. It is the quantity that primarily interests us:

$$L(h_{\mathcal{D}}^*) - L := L(g_n^*) - \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h)$$

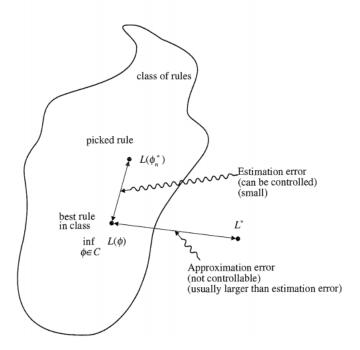


Figure 1: Estimation Error vs. Approximation Error [Devroye et al., 2013]

Note that both quantites are **generalization error not training error**. To compare with Bayes error, we have the following decomposition

$$L(h_{\mathcal{D}}^*) - L^* = \left(L(h_{\mathcal{D}}^*) - \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h)\right) + \left(\inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h) - L^*\right).$$

- 1. The first difference term is called *the estimation error*;
- 2. the second difference term is called <u>the approximation error</u>. This latter term may be bounded in a **distribution-free** manner, and a rate of convergence results that **only** depends on the structure of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

When the sub-class of functions  $\mathcal{H}$  is large,  $L = \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h)$  may be close to  $L^*$ , but the former error, the estimation error, is probably large as well. If  $\mathcal{H}$  is **too** small, there is no hope to make the approximation error small.

In empirical risk minimization, the subclass  $\mathcal{H}$  is **fixed**, and we have to live with the functions in  $\mathcal{H}$ . The best we may then hope for is to minimize  $L(h_{\mathcal{D}}^*) - \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h)$ .

#### • Remark (Overfitting)

If  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$  is the class of all (measurable) decision functions, then we can always find a classifier in  $\mathcal{H}$  with **zero empirical error**, but it may have **arbitrary values** outside of the points  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . For example, an *empirically optimal classifier* is

$$h_{\mathcal{D}}^*(x) = \begin{cases} Y_i & x = X_1, \dots, X_n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This is clearly not what we are looking for. This phenomenon is called *overfitting*, as the overly large class  $\mathcal{H}$  overfits the data.

• Remark : (Statistical Decision) [Berger, 2013]

The statistical learning theory is closely related to the statistical decision theory in which the terms such as (Empirical) Risk/Utility, decision function are used as an alternative to the terms like (Empirical) Error, hypothesis/classifier.

### 2 Analysis of Learning Algorithm

Question (Low Training Error  $\Rightarrow$  Low Generalization Error ?)

For a given sequence of data  $\mathcal{D}$ , the optimal solution  $h_{\mathcal{D}}^*$  from ERM minimizes **the empirical error**, but does it minimize **the generalization error**?

The answer to this question is the motivation behind the analysis of *learning algorithms* and *learning paradigm*. To see why this is complicated, we note that for fixed hypothesis h

$$\widehat{L}_{\mathcal{D}_n}(h) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1} \{ h(X_i) \neq Y_i \} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_h(X_i)$$

$$L_{\mathcal{P},c}(h) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{P}} \left[ \mathbb{1} \left\{ h(X) \neq c(X) \right\} \right] := \mathbb{E} \left[ f_h(X) \right]$$

Then the absolute deviation of empirical error from generalization error, uniformly over a class of functions  $f_h \in \mathcal{F}$  can be formulated as

$$\|\widehat{\mathcal{P}} - \mathcal{P}\|_{\infty} := \sup_{f_h \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_h(X_i) - \mathbb{E}\left[f_h(X)\right] \right|.$$

The answer of our question is equivalent to ask when  $n \to \infty$ , if  $\|\widehat{\mathcal{P}} - \mathcal{P}\|_{\infty} \to 0$  in probability. This is so-called **asymptotic analysis**.

#### 2.1 Consistency and Asymptotic Analysis

• Remark Since the returned optimal solution from ERM  $h_{\mathcal{D}}^*$  is determined by data  $\mathcal{D}$ , it can be seen as a *random function* 

$$h_{\mathcal{D}_n}^*(x) := h(x|\mathcal{D}_n) \equiv h(x|((X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n))).$$

We simply noted  $h_{\mathcal{D}_n}^*$  as  $h_n$  to emphasize its dependency on the **size** of data.

- **Definition** (*Discrimination Rule*) [Devroye et al., 2013] A (supervised) learning process is the process of constructing  $h_n \in \mathcal{H}$  from data  $\mathcal{D}_n$  and a sequence of classifiers (functions)  $\{h_n : n \geq 1\}$  is called a (discrimination) rule.
- Definition (Consistent Classification Rules)
  A classification rule  $\{h_n\}$  is consistent (asymoptotically Bayes-risk efficient) for a certain distribution  $\mathcal{P}$  if

$$L_n \equiv L_{\mathcal{P}}(h_n) = \mathcal{P}\left\{h_n(X) \neq Y\right\} \stackrel{\mathcal{P}}{\to} L^*, \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

Since  $1 \ge L_n \ge L^*$ , the above is equivalent to **convergence** in **probability**, i.e.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{P}\left\{L_n - L^* \ge \epsilon\right\} = 0, \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$$

Also the classification rule is the *strongly consistent* if

$$L_n \to L^*$$
 a.s.

• Remark In the definition of consistency, one **assume** that the function  $h_n$  is **random** not deterministic. In other word, if we assume that  $h_n := h_{\mathcal{D}_n}^*$  from ERM, then the **consistency** condition becomes:  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{D}_n} \left\{ L_{\mathcal{P}}(h_n) - L^* \ge \epsilon \right\} = 0,$$

- Remark Since samples are i.i.d.,  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{D}_n) = \mathcal{P}^n$  is a product measure.
- Remark A consistent rule  $\{h_n\}$  guarantees us that taking more samples essentially suffices to roughly reconstruct the unknown distribution of (X,Y) because  $L_n$  can be pushed as close as desired to  $L^*$ . In other words, infinite amounts of information can be gleaned from finite samples. Without this guarantee, we would not be motivated to take more samples.

We should be careful and **not impose conditions on** (X,Y) for the consistency of a rule, because such conditions may not be verifiable.

• A stronger version of consistency even if the underlying distribution  $\mathcal{P}$  is unknown

#### Definition (*Universal Consistency*)

A sequence of classification rules is called <u>universally consistent</u> (strongly) consistent for any distribution  $\mathcal{P}(X,Y)$ , i.e.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{P}\left\{L_n - L^* \ge \epsilon\right\} = 0, \quad \forall \, \mathcal{P}$$

and

$$\mathcal{P}\left\{\limsup_{n\to\infty}\left\{L_n-L^*\geq\epsilon\right\}\right\}=0,\quad\forall\,\mathcal{P}.$$

• Remark (Consistency Within Hypothesis Class  $\mathcal{H}$ )

For given hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ , it is **the optimal error rate within**  $\mathcal{H}$  that are concerned about instead of Bayes error. Thus, we can modify the **consistency** definition to become

$$L_n \stackrel{\mathcal{P}}{\to} \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h), \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
 (consistent rule)  
 $L_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h), \text{ as } n \to \infty$  (strong consistent rule)

• Recall the plug-in rule of an estimated posterior conditional probability  $\eta_n(x)$ 

$$h_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \eta_n(x) \le \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

Following Proposition 1.2, we have the following consistency results:

Remark (*Error Estimate of Plug-In Rule*,  $L^1$  norm) [Devroye et al., 2013] The error probability of the classifier  $h_n(x)$  defined above satisfies the inequality

$$L(h_n) - L^* \le 2 \int |\eta(x) - \eta_n(x)| \, \mu(dx) = 2\mathbb{E}\left[|\eta(X) - \eta_n(X)| \, |\mathcal{D}_n\right]$$

where  $\eta(x) = \mathcal{P}[Y = 1|X = x]$  is the Bayes classifer.

By Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, we have

Corollary 2.1 (Error Estimate of Plug-In Rule, L<sup>2</sup> norm) [Devroye et al., 2013] If

$$h_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \eta_n(x) \le \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & o.w. \end{cases}$$

then its error probability satisfies

$$L(h_n) - L^* := \mathcal{P}_{X,Y} \{ h_n(X) \neq Y | \mathcal{D}_n \} - L^* \leq 2\sqrt{\int |\eta(x) - \eta_n(x)|^2 \mu(dx)}$$
$$= 2\sqrt{\mathbb{E}\left[ |\eta(X) - \eta_n(X)|^2 | \mathcal{D}_n \right]}$$
(11)

Thus if we can show that under any distribution  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$ ,  $\eta_n \to \eta$ , i.e.

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\eta(X) - \eta_n(X)\right|^2 |\mathcal{D}_n\right] \to 0, \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

we will have *strong universal consistency*.

#### 2.2 No Free Lunch

- Remark There are some significant results known to the learning community
  - For every fixed n there exists a distribution where the classifier is <u>arbitrarily bad</u>. For any  $\epsilon > 0$  and any integer n and classification rule  $h_n$ , there exists a distribution of (X,Y) with Bayes risk  $L^* = 0$  such that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[L(h_n(\cdot|\mathcal{D}_n))\right] \ge \frac{1}{2}.$$

- <u>Universal rate</u> of convergence guarantees do not exist. That is, for any rule,

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \sup_{\forall \mathcal{P}_{X,Y}: L^* + \epsilon < 1/2} \mathcal{P}\left\{L_n \ge L + \epsilon\right\} > 0$$

Rate of convergence studies must involve certain subclasses of distributions of (X,Y).

Moreover, there exists no universally consistent learning algorithm such that  $L(h_n)$  converges uniformly over all distributions to  $L^*$ .

- There exists no universally superior learning algorithm. For every sequence of classification rules  $f_n$ , there is a universally consistent sequence of classification rules  $h_n$  such that for <u>some distribution</u> on  $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ 

$$L(f_n) > L(h_n), \quad \forall n > 0$$

• **Remark** In summary, there are two issues:

- 1. No Restriction on Function Class  $\mathcal{H}$ , i.e. convergence to Bayes risk  $L^*$ , i.e. the infimum generalization error for all possible functions.
- 2. No Restriction on Underling Distribution  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$ , i.e. be universally consistent for all possible distribution  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$ .

On the other hand,

1. **Restriction** of the class of **distributions** on  $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$  can lead to convergence rates to Bayes risk  $L^*$  for **universally consistent** learning algorithms.

**Problem**: Assumptions cannot be tested since  $\mathcal{P}_{X,Y}$  is unknown. Performance guarantees are only valid under the made assumptions.

2. Restriction of the function class may lead to no universal consistency possible.

**Problem**: Comparison to the best possible function in the class is possible uniformly over all distributions. But **no performance guarantees** with respect to **the Bayes risk**.

### 3 Development Paths of Learning Algorithms

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