



### Statistical Learning II

Lecture 3 - Supervised learning (continued)

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# Supervised learning

## Empirical risk

Let  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} : i = 1,...,n\}$  denote the training data.

Given a loss function  $\ell: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}_+$ , and a predictor  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  define the empirical risk:

$$\hat{\mathcal{R}}_n(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f(x_i))$$

Also known as the training loss.

### Empirical risk

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Also known as the training loss. This quantifies how well we fit the data. But is this a good notion of learning?

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} y_i & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{D} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{R}}_n = 0$$

### Probabilistic framework

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- The "i.i.d." assumption might not always hold. (Sampling bias, distribution shift, etc.)
- Under this assumption,  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_n$  is a random function.

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Define the notion of population risk of a predictor  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ :

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Also known as the generalisation or test error.

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 ${\mathscr R}$  is a deterministic function of the predictor f

### Validation set

In practice, the statistician almost never has access to the data distribution.

A common procedure to estimate  $\mathscr{R}$  consists of splitting the training data in training and validation set  $\mathscr{D} = \mathscr{D}_T \cup \mathscr{D}_V$ .

Train on  $\mathscr{D}_T$ , test on  $\mathscr{D}_V$ .

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To reduce error, often one repeats this procedure k times, averaging over the result. This is known as k fold cross-validation.



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The internal expectation is over the conditional distribution Y|X=x

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Where we have defined:

$$r(z \mid x) = \mathbb{E}[\ell(Y, z) \mid X = x]$$

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## Bayes risk

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- The Bayes predictor  $f_{\star}$  might not be unique.
- Typically we have  $\mathcal{R}_{\star} \neq 0$ .



Examples in the TD

# Learning algorithm

Let  $\mathcal{D}_p = \{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} : i = 1,...,n\}$  denote training data sampled i.i.d. from p.

A learning algorithm is a map that takes the training data and returns a predictor

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You have seen many examples in "Statistical Learning I":

- K-nearest neighbours
- Decision trees
- Random Forests
- Least-squares regression

### No free lunch

Consider a binary classification task with  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$  and 0/1 loss  $\ell(y,z) = \delta_{yz}$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote the set of probability distributions over  $\mathcal{X} \times \{0,1\}$ .

#### Theorem

For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and algorithm  $\mathscr{A}$  over  $(\mathscr{X} \times \{0,1\})^{\otimes n}$ , there exists  $p \in \mathscr{P}$  such that

$$\sup_{p \in \mathscr{P}} \left\{ \mathbb{E} \left[ \mathscr{R}(\mathscr{A}(\mathscr{D}_p)) \right] - \mathscr{R}_{\star} \right\} \ge \frac{1}{2}$$

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In words: For any algorithm you choose, one can always construct a data distribution such that your error is at best equal than random guessing.

Let  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} : i = 1,...,n\}$  denote training data sampled i.i.d. from p.

Empirical risk minimisation (ERM) is a class of learning algorithms that consist of minimising the empirical risk:

$$\min_{f} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{L}(y_i, f(x_i)) \quad (= \hat{\mathcal{R}}_n(f))$$

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By the law of large numbers, for a given f

$$\hat{\mathcal{R}}_n(f) \xrightarrow{P} \mathcal{R}(f)$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ 

However, at fixed n,  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}_n$  can be very different from  $\mathcal{R}$ 

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But optimising on the space of functions is computationally intractable....

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(y_i, f(x_i)) \quad (= \hat{\mathcal{R}}_n(f))$$

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But optimising on the space of functions is computationally intractable....

Therefore, we restrict to classes of mathematically and computationally amenable functions:

$$f \in \mathcal{H}$$

Also known as the hypothesis class.

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- Generalised Linear functions:  $f_{\theta}(x) = \sigma(\langle \theta, x \rangle + b)$
- Two layer neural network:  $f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j \sigma\left(\langle \mathbf{w}_j, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b\right)$

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The choice of hypothesis (or architecture) induces an inductive bias in the learning.

e.g. linear functions can only learn linear relationships

For any  $\theta \in \Theta$ , we can decompose the excess risk:

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) - \mathcal{R}_{\star} = \left(\mathcal{R}(\theta) - \inf_{\theta' \in \Theta} \mathcal{R}(\theta')\right) + \left(\inf_{\theta' \in \Theta} \mathcal{R}(\theta') - \mathcal{R}_{\star}\right)$$

Estimation error

Approximation error

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- Approximation error  $\inf_{\theta' \in \Theta} \mathscr{R}(\theta') \mathscr{R}_{\star}$ 
  - Independent of *n*
  - Deterministic
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  - Typically decreasing with n

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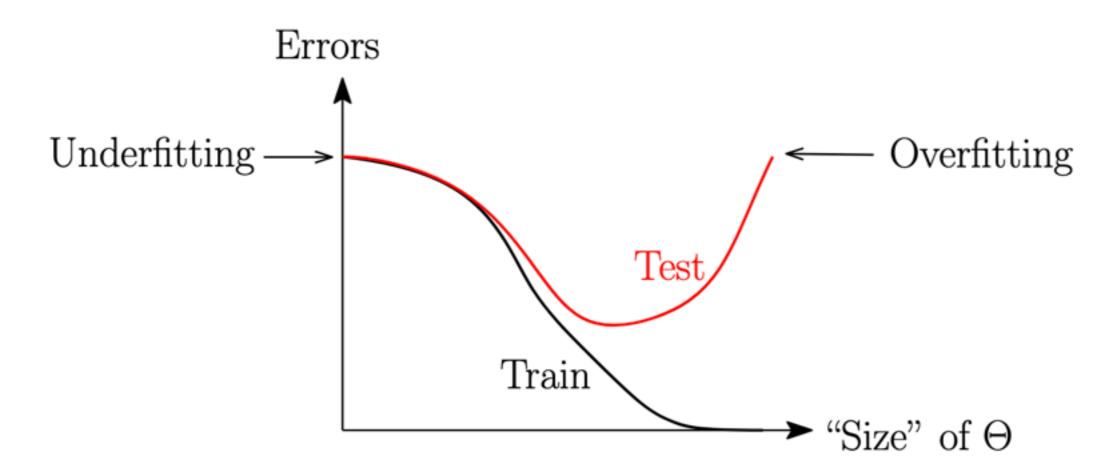


Figure from "Learning Theory from First Principles", F. Bach 2024

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# Key questions

What optimisation procedure to choose?

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- How large n needs to be (with respect to p, d) so that  $\hat{\theta} \in \operatorname{argmin} F(\theta)$  has low training and/or test error?
- What properties of the data distribution p makes the problem easier / harder?