# CSE 417T Introduction to Machine Learning

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### Logistics: Homework

- HW 0:
  - Due by 11:30am next Tuesday
  - Submit via Gradescope
  - Only waitlisted students need to submit
  - No late days can be used
  - The rules on academic integrity apply

- HW 1: Will be announced next week
  - The questions in HW0 will appear in HW1 as well

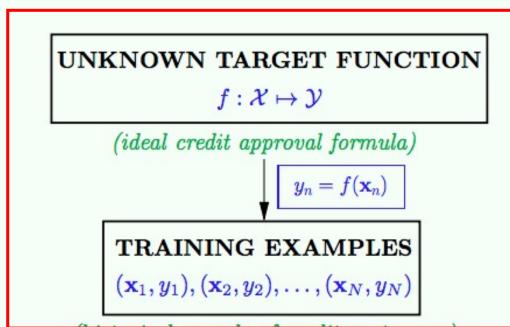
### Logistics: Academic Integrity

• Discussion (conceptually) about course content and homework assignments is encouraged.

- How to make sure to not violate academic integrity?
- Rule of thumb:
  - You must write down the answers/codes entirely on your own.
  - Can't look at the write-up / codes by others.

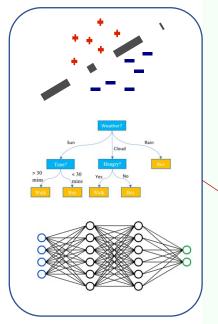
Ask if you are not sure.

# Recap



historical records of credit customers

Given by the learning problem



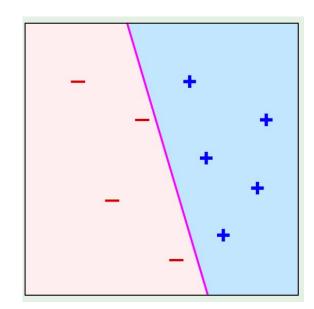
LEARNING ALGORITHM HYPOTHESIS SET  $\mathcal{H}$ learning model (set of candidate formulas)

FINAL HYPOTHESIS  $g \approx f$ (learned credit approval formula)

Goal of learning

### Linear Hypothesis Space (Perceptron)

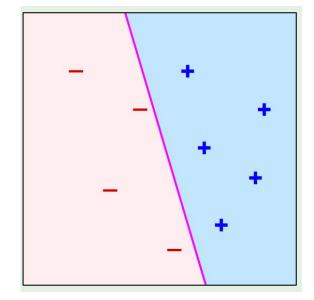
- Input  $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)$
- Output  $y \in \{-1, +1\}$
- A hypothesis h is a linear separator  $\vec{w}^T \vec{x} = b$ , characterized by
  - weight vector  $\overrightarrow{w} = (w_1, ... w_d)$
  - threshold **b**
- $h(\vec{x}) = sign(\sum_{i=1}^{d} w_i x_i b) = sign(\vec{w}^T \vec{x} b)$ 
  - Predict +1 if  $\vec{w}^T \vec{x} > b$
  - Predict -1 if  $\vec{w}^T \vec{x} < b$



### Linear Hypothesis Space (Perceptron)

- To simplify  $h(\vec{x}) = sign(\vec{w}^T\vec{x} b)$ , define
  - $x_0 = 1$
  - $w_0 = -b$

- And we implicitly let
  - $\bullet \ \vec{x} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d)$
  - $\overrightarrow{w} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_d)$



- A hypothesis can then be written as
  - $h(\vec{x}) = sign(\vec{w}^T \vec{x})$
  - We will interchangeably use h and  $\vec{w}$  to express a hypothesis in Perceptron

### Perceptron Learning Algorithm (PLA)

- Given a dataset  $D = \{(\vec{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\vec{x}_N, y_N)\}$
- Assume the dataset is linearly separable
- Want to find a hypothesis that separates data in D
- Perceptron Learning Algorithm
  - Initialize  $\vec{w}(0) = \vec{0}$
  - For t = 0, ...
    - Find a misclassified data point  $(\vec{x}(t), y(t))$  in D
      - That is,  $sign(\vec{w}(t)^T \vec{x}(t)) \neq y(t)$
    - If no such data point exists
      - Return  $\vec{w}(t)$
    - Else
      - $\vec{w}(t+1) \leftarrow \vec{w}(t) + y(t)\vec{x}(t)$

#### **Notation:**

We use  $\vec{w}(t)$  to denote the value of  $\vec{w}$  at step t of the algorithm.

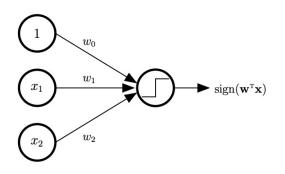
Similarly, we use  $(\vec{x}(t), y(t))$  to denote the data point found at step t.

### Perceptron Learning Algorithm (PLA)

- Theorem (informal):
  - If a dataset *D* is linearly separable, PLA find a linear separator that separates the data in *D* within a finite number of steps.
- You will prove the above theorem in HW0

### Perceptron

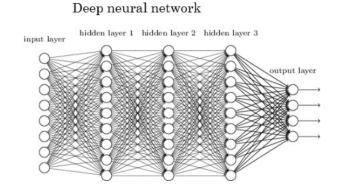
Graphical Representation



Inspired by neurons:

The output signal is triggered when the weighted combination of the inputs is larger than some threshold

Deep learning (neural network with many layers)





### Common Notations in This Course

- Data point with augmented  $x_0$ :  $\vec{x} = (x_0, ..., x_d)$ 
  - We often use d to specify the dimensions of data points
  - We augment  $x_0 = 1$  for each data point (Check Lecture 1 for the reasoning)
- Dataset:  $D = \{(\vec{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\vec{x}_N, y_N)\}$ 
  - We often use N to specify the number of data points in the dataset
- Hypothesis set H
  - We use  $h \in H$  to specify an arbitrary hypothesis
  - We use  $g \in H$  to specify the hypothesis output by the learning algorithm
- Indicator variable:

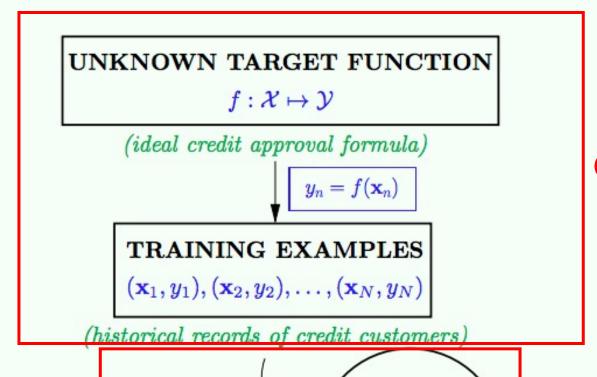
• 
$$\mathbb{I}[\text{event}] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if event is true} \\ 0 & \text{if event is false} \end{cases}$$

Example: 
$$\mathbb{I}[h(\vec{x}) \neq f(\vec{x})] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(\vec{x}) \neq f(\vec{x}) \\ 0 & \text{if } h(\vec{x}) = f(\vec{x}) \end{cases}$$

Note that by default,  $\vec{x}$  is a column vector. More formally, we should write  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix}$ . For convenience, I usually write  $\vec{x} = (x_0, \dots, x_d)$ .

## Lecture Today

The notes are not intended to be comprehensive. Let me know if you spot errors.



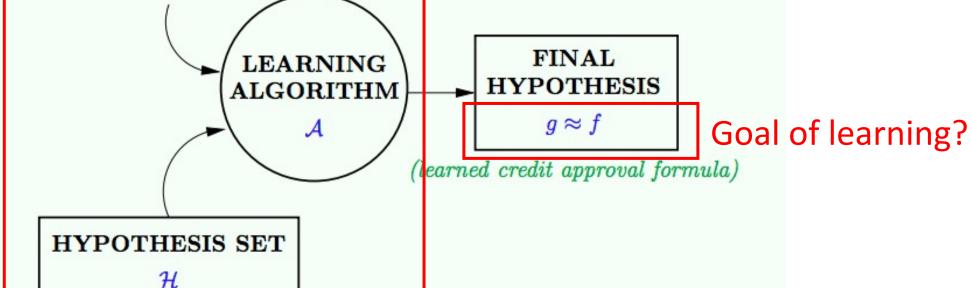
(set of candidate formulas)

Given by the learning problem

learning model (example:

H: Perceptron

A: PLA)

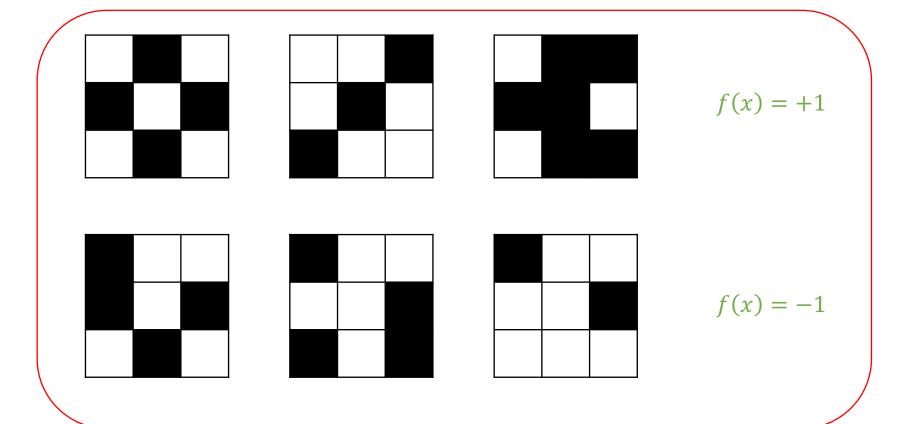


### How Do We Formally Characterize the Goal?

- Goal of learning: find  $g \approx f$ 
  - *f*: unknown target function
  - g: output of the learning algorithm
  - What do we mean by  $g \approx f$ ?
- Main idea: Generalization
  - Want g to make predictions similar to f for unseen data points

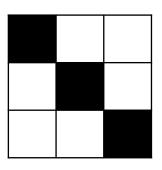
#### Focus of today's lecture:

- Feasibility of learning
- Can we achieve generalization?



Predict for unseen points (Generalization)

**Training Dataset** 

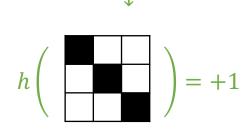


f(x) = ???

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if symmetric} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### **Hypothesis 1**

**Hypothesis 2** 









$$f(x) = +1$$







$$f(x) = -1$$



$$f(x) = ???$$

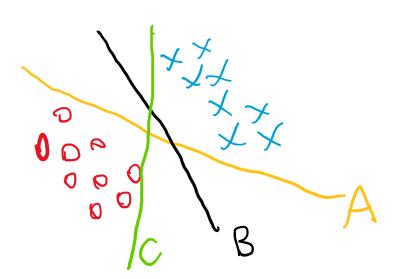
$$h(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if top left is white} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

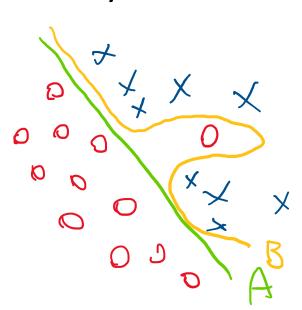
# $h\left(\begin{array}{c|c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \end{array}\right) = -1$

#### You can come up with many more hypothesis

### Feasibility of Learning

- Is learning feasible (can we generalize the learning)?
  - Cannot know anything for sure about f outside the data without assumptions
  - We might need to give up the "for sure" and make additional assumptions
- Thought experiments: Which hypothesis would you choose? Why?



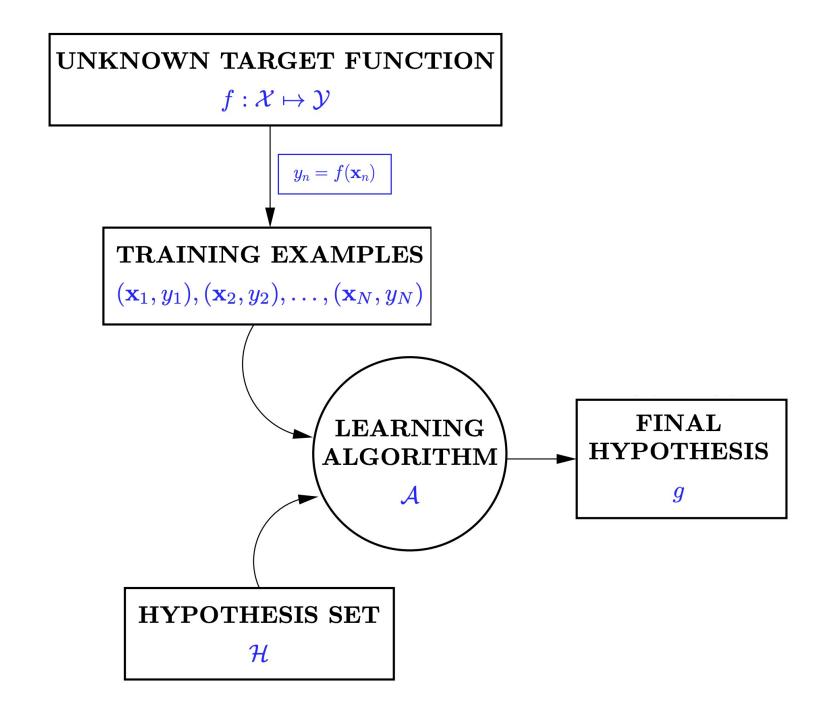


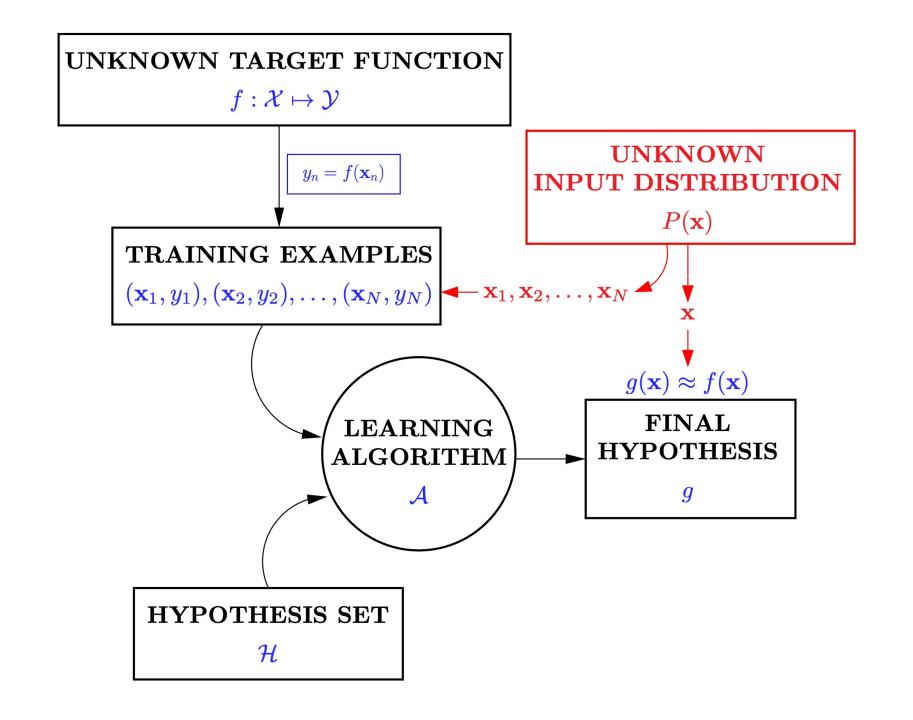
#### Key assumption of ML

Training data points and testing data points are i.i.d. drawn from the same (unknown) distribution

#### Remarks

- Modern ML is built on probabilistic inference with this assumption
- The assumption is a reasonable approximation in many useful scenarios
- The assumption might not hold in other cases
  - There are various research efforts on this, but it's outside of the scope of this course

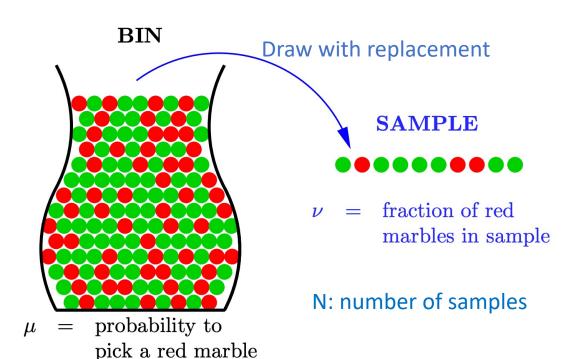




# Let's discuss probability first

We'll then talk about how it connects back to machine learning

### A Thought Experiment about Probability



What can we say about  $\mu$  from  $\nu$ ?

Law of large numbers

• When  $N \to \infty$ ,  $\nu \to \mu$ 

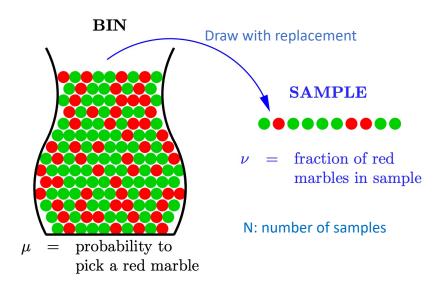
#### **Hoeffding's Inequality**

•  $\Pr[|\mu - \nu| > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

### Interpretations

$$\Pr[|\mu - \nu| > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

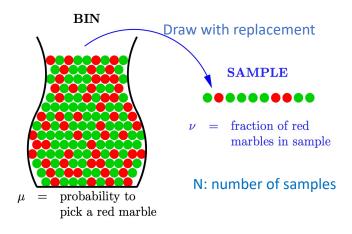
- Define  $\delta = \Pr[|\mu \nu| > \epsilon]$ 
  - Probability of the bad event
  - Probability of the bad event is bounded by  $2e^{-2\epsilon^2N}$
- A tradeoff between  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$ , N
  - Fix  $\epsilon$ ,  $\delta = O(e^{-N})$
  - Fix  $N, \delta = O(e^{-\epsilon^2})$
  - Fix  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon = O(\sqrt{1/N})$
- For example, N=1000
  - $\mu 0.05 \le \nu \le \mu + 0.05$  with 99% chance
  - $\mu 0.10 \le \nu \le \mu 0.10$  with 99.999996% chance



### Interpretations

$$\Pr[|\mu - \nu| > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

- Define  $\delta = \Pr[|\mu \nu| > \epsilon]$ 
  - Probability of the bad event
- For example, N=1000
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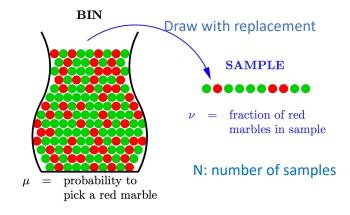
- $\nu$  is approximately close to  $\mu$  with high probability
- $\nu$  as an estimate of  $\mu$  is **p**robably **a**pproximately **c**orrect (P.A.C.)



PAC learning is proposed by Leslie Valiant, who wins the Turing award in 2010.

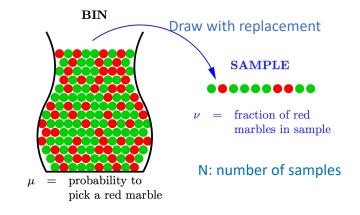
### Connection to Learning

- Let each marble represent a point  $\vec{x}$ , drawn from unknown  $P(\vec{x})$ 
  - Dataset  $D = \{(\vec{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\vec{x}_N, y_N)\}$
  - Recall that  $y_n = f(\vec{x}_n)$  (will discuss noisy target function f later in the semester)
- "Fix" a hypothesis h
  - For each marble  $\vec{x}$ , color it as below
    - If  $h(\vec{x}) = f(\vec{x})$ , color it as green marble [h is correct on  $\vec{x}$ ]
    - If  $h(\vec{x}) \neq f(\vec{x})$ , color it as red marble  $[h \text{ is wrong on } \vec{x}]$



### Connection to Learning

- Let each marble represent a point  $\vec{x}$ , drawn from unknown  $P(\vec{x})$ 
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With the above coloring

$$v = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}[h(\vec{x}_n) \neq f(\vec{x}_n)]$$

$$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E_{in}(h) \quad \text{[in-sample error of } h\text{]}$$

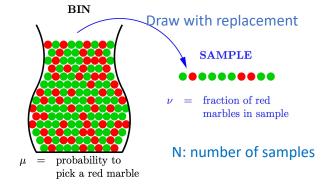
$$\mu = \Pr_{\vec{x} \sim P(\vec{x})} [h(\vec{x}) \neq f(\vec{x})]$$

$$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E_{out}(h) \quad \text{[Out-of-sample error of } h\text{]}$$

### $\Pr[|\mu - \nu| > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$

### Connection to Learning

- Look at the error again
  - $E_{out}(h)$ : What we really care about but unknown to us
  - $E_{in}(h)$ : What we can calculate from dataset D



• Fixed a h, What can we say about  $E_{out}(h)$  from  $E_{in}(h)$ ?

#### **Hoeffding's Inequality**

$$\Pr[|E_{out}(h) - E_{in}(h)| > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$
 for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

- Are we done?
  - Not really, this is verification, not learning

### Verification vs. Learning

#### Verification

- I have a hypothesis h
- I know  $E_{in}(h)$ , i.e., how well h performs in my dataset
- I can infer what  $E_{out}(h)$  (how well h will perform for unseen data) might be

#### Learning

- Given a dataset D and hypothesis set H
- Apply some learning algorithm, that outputs a  $g \in H$
- Know  $E_{in}(g)$
- Want to infer  $E_{out}(g)$

### Connection to "Real" Learning

- Given a finite hypothesis set  $H = \{h_1, ..., h_M\}$
- Apply some learning algorithm on D, output a  $g \in H$ 
  - For example, choosing the hypothesis that minimizes in-sample error
    - $g = argmin_{h \in H} E_{in}(h)$
- Can we apply Hoeffding's inequality and claim

$$\Pr[|E_{out}(g) - E_{in}(g)| > \epsilon] \le 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$
 for any  $\epsilon > 0$ 

· No!

### Consider this example

• If you toss a fair coin 10 times, the prob that you get heads 10 times is

$$2^{-10} = \frac{1}{1024}$$

• If you toss 1000 fair coins 10 times each, the probability that at least one coin comes up heads 10 times is

$$1 - \left(\frac{1023}{1024}\right)^{1000} \approx 62.36\%$$

- If each hypothesis is doing random guessing (i.e., tossing a fair coin), if we have 1000 hypothesis with 10 data points, more than 60% chance there will be at least one hypothesis with zero in-sample error
  - But that hypothesis is still random guessing and has 50% out-of-sample error



