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Handout 0: Learning problem: Definitions, notation, and formulation –A recap

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Aim. To get some definitions and set-up about the learning procedure; essentially to formalize what introduced in term 1.

Reading list & references:

- Bishop, C. M. (2006). Pattern recognition and machine learning. New York: Springer.
- Shalev-Shwartz, S., & Ben-David, S. (2014). Understanding machine learning: From theory to algorithms. Cambridge university press.

1. Introductions and loose definitions

Pattern recognition is the automated discovery of patterns and regularities in data $z \in \mathcal{Z}$. Machine learning (ML) are statistical procedures for building and understanding probabilistic methods that 'learn'. ML algorithms \mathfrak{A} build a (probabilistic/deterministic) model able to make predictions or decisions with minimum human interference and can be used for pattern recognition. Learning (or training, estimation) is called the procedure where the ML model is tuned. Training data (or observations, sample data set, exemplars) is a set of observables $\{z_i \in \mathcal{Z}\}$ used to tune the parameters of the ML model. Test set is a set of available examples/observables $\{z_i'\}$ (different than the training data) used to verify the performance of the ML model for a given a measure of success. Measure of success (or performance) is a quantity that indicates how bad the corresponding ML model or Algorithm performs (eg quantifies the failure/error), and can also be used for comparisons among different ML models; eg, Risk function or Empirical Risk Function. Two main problems in ML are the supervised learning (we focus here) and the unsupervised learning.

Supervised learning problems involve applications where the training data $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ comprises examples of the input vectors $x \in \mathcal{X}$ along with their corresponding target vectors $y \in \mathcal{Y}$; i.e. $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. Classification problems are those which aim to assign each input vector x to one of a finite number of discrete categories of y. Regression problems are those where the output y consists of one or more continuous variables. All in all, the learner wishes to recover an unknown pattern (i.e. functional relationship) between components $x \in \mathcal{X}$ that serves as inputs and components $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ that act as outputs; i.e. $x \longmapsto y$. Hence, \mathcal{X} is the input domain, and \mathcal{Y} is the output domain. The goal of learning is to discover a function which predicts $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ from $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

Unsupervised learning problems involve applications where the training data $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ consists of a set of input vectors $x \in \mathcal{X}$ without any corresponding target values; i.e. $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X}$. In clustering the goal is to discover groups of similar examples within the data of it is to discover groups of similar examples within the data.

2. (LOOSE) NOTATION IN LEARNING

Definition 1. The learner's output is a function, $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ which predicts $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ from $x \in \mathcal{X}$. It is also called hypothesis, prediction rule, predictor, or classifier.

Notation 2. We often denote the set of hypothesis as \mathcal{H} ; i.e. $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

Definition 3. Training data set S of size m is any finite sequence of pairs $((x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m)$ in $X \times Y$. This is the information that the learner has assess.

Definition 4. Data generation model $g(\cdot)$ is the probability distribution over $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, unknown to the learner that has generated the data.

Definition 5. We denote as $\mathfrak{A}(S)$ the hypothesis (outcome) that a learning algorithm \mathfrak{A} returns given training sample S.

Definition 6. (Loss function) Given any set of hypothesis \mathcal{H} and some domain $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, a loss function ℓ (·) is any function ℓ : $\mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{Z} \to \mathbb{R}_+$. The purpose of loss function ℓ (h, z) is to quantify the "error" for a given hypothesis h and example z—the greater the error the greater its value of the loss.

Example 7. In binary classification problems where $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ is discrete, a loss function can be

$$\ell_{0-1}(h,(x,y)) = 1(h(x) = y),$$

Example 8. In regression problems $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ and \mathcal{Y} is uncountable, a loss function can be

$$\ell_{\text{sq}}(h,(x,y)) = (h(x) - y)^2$$

Definition 9. (Risk function) The risk function $R_g(h)$ of h is the expected loss of the hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$, w.r.t. probability distribution g over domain Z; i.e.

(2.1)
$$R_q(h) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim q} \left(\ell(h, z) \right)$$

Remark 10. In learning, an ideal way to obtain an optimal predictor h^* is to compute the risk minimizer

$$h^* = \arg\min_{\forall} \left(R_g \left(h \right) \right)$$

Example 11. (Cont. Ex. 8) The risk function is $R_g(h) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim g} (h(x) - y)^2$, and it measures the quality of the hypothesis function $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ as the expected square difference between the predicted values h and the true target values y at every x.

Remark 12. Computing the risk minimizer may be practically challenging due to the integration w.r.t. the unknown data generation model g involved in the expectation (2.1). Suboptimally, one may resort to the Empirical risk function.

Definition 13. (Empirical risk function) The empirical risk function $\hat{R}_S(h)$ of h is the expectation of loss of h over a given sample $S = (z_1, ..., z_m) \in \mathbb{Z}^m$; i.e.

$$\hat{R}_{S}(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell(h, z_{i}).$$

Example 14. (Cont. Example 11) Given given sample $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m\}$ the empirical risk function is $\hat{R}_S(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h(x_i) - y_i)^2$.

Example 15. Consider a learning problem where the true data generation distribution (unknown to the learner) is g(z), the statistical model (known to the learner) is given by a sampling distribution $f(y|\theta)$ where the parameter θ is unknown. The goal is to learn θ . If we assume loss function

$$\ell(\theta, z) = \log\left(\frac{g(z)}{f_{\theta}(z)}\right)$$

then the risk is

$$(2.2) R_g(\theta) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}\left(\log\left(\frac{g(z)}{f_{\theta}(z)}\right)\right) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}\left(\log\left(g(z)\right)\right) - \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}\left(\log\left(f_{\theta}(z)\right)\right)$$

whose minimizer is

$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\forall \theta} (R_g(\theta)) = \arg\min_{\forall \theta} (E_{z \sim g}(-\log(f_{\theta}(z))))$$

as the first term in (2.2) is constant. Note that in the Maximum Likelihood Estimation technique the MLE $\theta_{\rm MLE}$ is the minimizer of

$$\theta_{\text{MLE}} = \arg\min_{\forall \theta} \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(-\log \left(f_{\theta} \left(z_{i} \right) \right) \right) \right)$$

where $S = \{y_1, ..., y_m\}$ is an IID sample from g. Hence, MLE θ_{MLE} can be considered as the minimizer of the empirical risk $R_S(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(-\log\left(f_\theta\left(z_i\right)\right)\right)$.

Example 16. (Linear Regression) Consider the multiple linear regression problem $x \mapsto y$ where $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$.

- The hypothesis is a linear function $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ (that learner wishes to learn) to approximate mapping $x \mapsto y$. The hypothesis set $\mathcal{H} = \{ \langle w, x \rangle \mapsto y : w \in \mathbb{R}^d \}$. We can use the loss $\ell(h, (x, y)) = (h(x) y)^2$.
- Equivalently, learning problem can be set differently because the predictor (linear function) is parametrized by $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ as $\langle w, x \rangle \mapsto y$. Set $\mathcal{H} = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$. The set of examples is $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. The loss is $\ell(w, (x, y)) = (\langle w, x \rangle y)^2$.