

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. GENERAL 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, examples) is a set of observables $\{z_i \in \mathcal{Z}\}$ used to tune the parameters of the ML model. By \mathcal{Z} we denote the examples (or observables) domain. **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. $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. By \mathcal{X} we denote the inputs (or instances) domain, and by \mathcal{Y} we denote the target domain. **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. $x \mapsto y$. Hence, \mathcal{X} is the input domain, and \mathcal{Y} is the output (or target) 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 $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ consist 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 & DEFINITIONS IN LEARNING

Definition 1. The learner's output is a function, $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ 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. $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

Example 3. (Linear Regression)¹ Consider the regression problem where the goal is to learn the mapping $x \rightarrow y$ where $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Hypothesis is a linear function $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ (that learner wishes to learn) to approximate mapping $x \rightarrow y$. The hypothesis set $\mathcal{H} = \{x \rightarrow \langle w, x \rangle : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$. We can use the loss $\ell(h, (x, y)) = (h(x) - y)^2$.

Definition 4. Training data set \mathcal{S} of size m is any finite sequence of pairs $((x_i, y_i) ; i = 1, \dots, m)$ in $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. This is the information that the learner has assess.

Definition 5. 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 6. We denote as $\mathfrak{A}(\mathcal{S})$ the hypothesis (outcome) that a learning algorithm \mathfrak{A} returns given training sample \mathcal{S} .

Definition 7. (Loss function) Given any set of hypothesis \mathcal{H} and some domain $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, a loss function $\ell(\cdot)$ is any function $\ell : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. The purpose of loss function $\ell(h, z)$ 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 8. (Cont. Example 3) In regression problems $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is uncountable, a loss function can be

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

Example 9. In binary classification problems with $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ a learner where $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ is discrete, a loss function can be

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

Definition 10. (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 \mathcal{Z} ; i.e.

$$(2.1) \quad R_g(h) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim g}(\ell(h, z))$$

Remark 11. In learning, an ideal way to obtain an optimal predictor h^* is to compute the risk minimizer

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

¹ $\langle w, x \rangle = w^\top x$

Example 12. (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 $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$, (or equiv. the validity of the class of hypotheses \mathcal{H}) against the data generating model g , as the expected square difference between the predicted values from h and the true target values y at every x .

Note 13. 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). Sub-optimally, one may resort to the Empirical risk function.

Definition 14. (Empirical risk function) The empirical risk function $\hat{R}_S(h)$ of h is the expectation of loss of h over a given sample $S = (z_1, \dots, z_m) \in \mathcal{Z}^m$; i.e.

$$\hat{R}_S(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(h, z_i).$$

Example 15. (Cont. Example 12) Given given sample $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, \dots, m\}$ the empirical risk function is $\hat{R}_S(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h(x_i) - y_i)^2$.

Example 16. 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 $f_\theta(y) := f(y|\theta)$ labeled by an unknown parameter θ . 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

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

whose minimizer is

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

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

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

where $S = \{z_1, \dots, z_m\}$ is an IID sample from g . Hence, MLE θ_{MLE} can be considered as the minimizer of the empirical risk $R_S(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (-\log(f_\theta(z_i)))$.

Definition 17. A learning problem with hypothesis class \mathcal{H} , examples domain \mathcal{Z} , and loss function ℓ may be denoted with a triplet $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Z}, \ell)$.

Example 18. Consider the multiple linear regression problem $x \mapsto y$ where $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Till now, we set the learning problem $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Z}, \ell)$ in the linear regression with hypothesis class $\mathcal{H} = \{x \rightarrow \langle w, x \rangle : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$, loss $\ell(h, (x, y)) = (h(x) - y)^2$, and examples domain $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ with $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}$. Because learning problem involves only linear functions as predictors

$h(x) = \langle w, x \rangle$, this learning problem could be defined equivalently with a hypothesis class $\mathcal{H} = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ and loss function $\ell(w, (x, y)) = (\langle w, x \rangle - y)^2$. The latter will be mainly used.

APPENDIX A. USEFUL BITS

Below are some standard notation used as default in the notes except in cases that is defined otherwise.

- q -norm: When $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ $\|x\|_q := \left(\sum_{j=1}^d x_j^q\right)^{1/q}$
- Manhattan norm: When $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ $\|x\|_1 := \sum_{j=1}^d |x_j|$
- Euclidean norm: When $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ $\|x\|_2 := \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^d x_j^2}$. When $\|\cdot\|$ we will assume the Euclidean norm.
- Infinity norm or maximum norm: $\|x\|_\infty := \max_{\forall j} |x_j|$
- Inner product of x, y : If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ then $\langle x, y \rangle = x^\top y$. So $\langle x, x \rangle = \|x\|^2$

Also some standard formulas.

- Jensens' inequality: If $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then

$$\begin{cases} f(E(x)) \leq E(f(x)) & \text{if } f \text{ is convex} \\ f(E(x)) \geq E(f(x)) & \text{if } f \text{ is concave} \end{cases}$$

- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ then $|\langle x, y \rangle|^2 \leq \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$ equiv. $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$.