Handout 0: Machine learning –A recap on: definitions, notation, and formulation

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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.
 - Ch. 1 Introduction
- Shalev-Shwartz, S., & Ben-David, S. (2014). Understanding machine learning: From theory to algorithms. Cambridge university press.
 - Ch. 1 Introduction

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, fitting) 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 will focus on this here) and the unsupervised learning.

Supervised learning problems involve applications where the training data $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ comprise 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 discover 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 (or target) domain. The goal of learning is to discover a function which predicts (or help us make decisions about) $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ from $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

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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, $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ 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. $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

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

Definition 4. Training data set S of size m is any finite sequence of pairs $(z_i = (x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m)$ in $X \times Y$. 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. E.g. $z \sim g$.

Definition 6. We denote as $\mathfrak{A}(S)$ the hypothesis (outcome) that a learning algorithm \mathfrak{A} returns given training sample 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 $\ell: \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{Z} \to \mathbb{R}_+$. Loss function $\ell(h, z)$ specified according to the purpose to quantify the "error" for a given hypothesis h and a given example z –the greater the error the greater the 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 potential loss function is

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

Example 9. In binary classification problems with $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ 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. the data generation model (which is a probability distribution) g over domain Z; i.e.

(2.1)
$$R_{g}(h) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}(\ell(h, z))$$

 $^{^1\}langle w,x\rangle=w^\top x$

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

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

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 $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$, (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 form 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 $S = (z_1, ..., z_m) \in \mathbb{Z}^m$; 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 $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m\}$ 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

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

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

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

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

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 with regressors $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and response $y \in \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Till now, we set the learning problem $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Z}, \ell)$ in the linear regression with hypothesis class $\mathcal{H} = \{x \to \langle w, x \rangle : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$, 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 (for presentation convenience) with a hypothesis class $\mathcal{H} = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ and loss function loss $\ell(w, (x, y)) = (\langle w, x \rangle - y)^2$. The latter will be mainly used.

APPENDIX A. USEFUL THINGS

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
- 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 If $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ then

$$\begin{cases} f(\mathbf{E}(x)) \le \mathbf{E}(f(x)) & \text{if } f \text{ is convex} \\ f(\mathbf{E}(x)) \ge \mathbf{E}(f(x)) & \text{if } f \text{ is concave} \end{cases}$$

• 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. $|\langle x,y\rangle|\leq$ $||x|| \, ||y||$.