# Lecture notes 1: Machine learning -A recap on: definitions, notation, and formalism

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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 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. Notation & Definitions in Learning

Note 1. The aim is to learn the mapping  $x \to y$  where  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  with purpose to predict  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  from  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ . Denote  $z = (x, y)^{\top}$  and  $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ .

**Definition 2.** 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 3. We often denote the set of hypothesis as  $\mathcal{H}$ ; i.e.  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ .

**Example 4.** (Linear Regression)<sup>1</sup> 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) with  $h(x) = \langle w, x \rangle$  approximating the mapping  $x \to y$ . The hypothesis set is  $\mathcal{H} = \{x \to \langle w, x \rangle : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ .

**Example 5.** (Binary Classification) Consider the classification problem where the goal is to learn the mapping  $x \to y$  where  $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{-1, +1\}$ . A hypothesis can be a function  $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  with  $h(x) = \text{sign}(\langle w, x \rangle)$  approximating the mapping  $x \to y$ . The hypothesis set  $\mathcal{H} = \{x \to \text{sign}(\langle w, x \rangle) : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ .

**Definition 6.** (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  $\ell(h, z)$  for  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$  is specified according to the purpose the machine learning algorithm. It reflects how the "error" is quantified for a given hypothesis h and a given example z. The rule is "the greater the error the greater the value of the loss".

**Example 7.** (Cont. Example 4) 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 8.** (Cont. Example 5) In binary classification problems with hypothesis  $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  where  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$  is discrete, a loss function can be

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

**Definition 9.** A learning problem with hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ , examples domain  $\mathcal{Z}$ , and loss function  $\ell$  may be denoted with a triplet  $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Z}, \ell)$ .

**Example 10.** The standard multiple linear regression problem with regressors  $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  and response  $y \in \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , is a learning problem with examples domain  $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ , hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H} = \{x \to \langle w, x \rangle : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ , and loss function  $\ell_{\text{sq}}(h, (x, y)) = (h(x) - y)^2$ .

 $<sup>1\</sup>langle w, x \rangle = w^{\top} x$ 

**Example 11.** The binary classification regression problem with regressors  $x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  and response  $y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{-1, +1\}$ , is a learning problem with examples domain  $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ , hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H} = \{x \to \text{sign}(\langle w, x \rangle) : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ , and loss function  $\ell_{0-1}(h, (x, y)) = 1$   $(h(x) \neq y) = 1$   $(\langle w, x \rangle y < 0)$ .

**Definition 12.** Data generation model  $g(\cdot)$  is the probability distribution over  $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ , unknown to the learner which describes the probabilistic law that realizations  $z = (x, y) \in \mathcal{Z}$  are realized.

## 2.1. Learning...

**Definition 13.** (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) 
$$R_{q}(h) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim q}(\ell(h, z))$$

**Definition 14.** (Risk minimization learning) The Risk minimization (RM) learning paradigm computes the optimal predictor  $h^*$  as the minimizer of the risk  $R_q(h)$  of h; i.e.

$$(2.2) h^* = \arg\min_{h} \left( R_g \left( h \right) \right)$$

**Example 15.** (Cont. Ex. 7) The risk function is  $R_g(h) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim g} (h(x) - y)^2 = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim g} (\langle w, x \rangle - y)^2$ , 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.

**Example 16.** (Cont. Ex. ) The risk function is 
$$R_g(h) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim g} (1(h(x) \neq y)) = \Pr_{z \sim g} (\langle x, w \rangle y < 0)$$
.

Note 17. 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, instead of the Risk function in (2.2), one use the Empirical risk function as a Monte Carlo approximation of it.

**Definition 18.** Training data set S of size m is any finite sequence of pairs  $(z_i = (x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m)$ , called examples, in  $Z = X \times Y$ ; i.e.  $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m\}$ . This is the information that the learner has assess.

**Definition 19.** (Empirical risk function) The Empirical Risk Function (ERF)  $\hat{R}_S(h)$  of h is the expectation of loss of h over a given sample  $S = (z_1, ..., z_m) \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ ; i.e.

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

**Definition 20.** (Empirical risk minimization learning) The Empirical risk minimization (ERM) learning paradigm computes the optimal predictor  $h^*$  as the minimizer of the ERF  $\hat{R}_S(h)$  of h; i.e.

$$(2.3) h^* = \arg\min_{h} \left( \hat{R}_S(h) \right)$$

**Example 21.** (Cont. Example 15) Given given sample  $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m\}$  the empirical risk function is  $\hat{R}_S(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (h(x_i) - y_i)^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i^\top w - y_i)^2$ .

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**Example 22.** (Cont. Example 8) Given given sample  $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m\}$  the empirical risk function is  $\hat{R}_S(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}(h(x_i) \neq y_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{1}(\langle x_i, w \rangle y_i < 0).$ 

**Definition 23.** We denote as  $\mathfrak{A}(S)$  the hypothesis (outcome) that a learning algorithm  $\mathfrak{A}$  returns given training sample S.

#### 2.2. Conventions...

Note 24. If the Hypothesis set  $\mathcal{H}$  is a known parametric family of functions; i.e.  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_w(\cdot); w \in \mathcal{W}\}$  parameterized by unknown  $w \in \mathcal{W}$ , then we can equivalently consider the convention  $\mathcal{H} = \{w \in \mathcal{W}\} = \mathcal{W}$  keeping in mind that the learner's output is restricted to formula  $h_w(\cdot)$ .

**Example 25.** Because it involves only linear functions as predictors  $h_w(x) = \langle w, x \rangle$ , we could consider a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H} = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d\} = \mathbb{R}^d$  and loss function loss  $\ell(w, (x, y)) = (\langle w, x \rangle - y)^2$  for simplicity.

**Example 26.** Because it involves only linear functions as predictors  $h_w(x) = \text{sign}(\langle w, x \rangle)$ , we could consider a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H} = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d\} = \mathbb{R}^d$  and loss function loss  $\ell(w, (x, y)) = 1 (\langle x, w \rangle y < 0)$  for simplicity.

**Example 27.** 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  $\theta$ . The goal is to learn  $\theta$ . If we assume loss function

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

then the risk is

$$(2.4) R_g(\theta) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}\left(\log\left(\frac{g(z)}{f_{\theta}(z)}\right)\right) = \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}\left(\log\left(g(z)\right)\right) - \mathcal{E}_{z \sim g}\left(\log\left(f_{\theta}(z)\right)\right)$$

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 (2.4) is constant. Note that in the Maximum Likelihood Estimation technique the MLE  $\theta_{\text{MLE}}$  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  $\theta_{\text{MLE}}$  can be considered as the minimizer of the empirical risk  $R_S(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(-\log\left(f_\theta\left(z_i\right)\right)\right)$ .

3. REGULARIZED LOSS MINIMIZATION (RLM) LEARNING

Note 28. Consider a learning problem  $(\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{Z}, \ell)$  with training data set  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Definition 29.** (Regularized loss minimization learning) Regularized loss minimization learning paradigm computes the optimal rule  $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$  by jointly minimizing the Risk function  $R_g(h)$  (or Page 4 Created on 2025/01/12 at 17:11:57 by Georgios Karagiannis

Empirial Risk Function  $\hat{R}_{\mathcal{S}}(h)$  and a regularization function  $J: \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{R}$  where J(h) increases in value with the complexity of the hypothesis  $h \in \mathcal{H}$ . Formally, the Regularized loss minimization rule  $h^*$  is

$$h^* = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left( R_g \left( h \right) + J \left( h \right) \right)$$
, given the Risk function  $h^* = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left( \hat{R}_{\mathcal{S}} \left( w \right) + J \left( h \right) \right)$ , given the Empirical risk function

## 3.1. $\ell_0$ , $\ell_1$ , and $\ell_2$ norm regularization problems.

Note 30. Consider a parameterized hypothesis  $h_w(\cdot)$  (e.g.  $h_w(x) = \eta(\langle x, w \rangle)$ ) with  $\eta(\cdot)$  a function and  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Consider the hypothesis class in the simplified form  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{W} = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d\} = \mathbb{R}^d$  of Note 24. Assume we want the vector w to be sparse, in the sense that "sparser" means more zero elements.

### 3.1.1. $\ell_0$ norm regularization.

Note 31. The problem of minimizing the empirical risk subject to a budget of k features can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{w \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{minimize}} R\left(w\right) \\ & \text{subject to} & \|w\|_{0} \leq k_{0} \end{aligned}$$

where  $||w||_0 = \#\{j : w_j \neq 0\}$ . By Lagrange multiplies we can re-write it as

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w \in \mathcal{H}} \left( R\left( w \right) + \lambda_0 \left\| w \right\|_0 \right)$$

for some  $\lambda_0 \geq 0$  ( $k_0$  dependent). Hence,  $h^*(x) = h_{w^*}(x)$ .

**Example 32.** (Cont. Example 25) The  $\ell_0$ -RLM rule in Example 25 becomes

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( \operatorname{E}_{z \sim g} \left( \langle w, x_i \rangle - y \right)^2 + \lambda_0 \left\| w \right\|_0 \right)$$

using the Risk function, and

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\langle w, x_i \rangle - y_i)^2 + \lambda_0 \|w\|_0 \right)$$

using the Empirical risk function.

3.1.2.  $\ell_1$  norm regularization (LASSO).

Note 33. Solving  $\ell_0$  norm optimization problem is computationally hard. To simplify computations, we can replace  $J(\cdot) = \|\cdot\|_0$  with  $J(\cdot) = \|\cdot\|_1$  i.e.

where  $||w||_1 = \sum_j |w_j|$ . By Lagrange multiplies we can re-write it as

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( R\left( w \right) + \lambda_1 \left\| w \right\|_1 \right)$$

for some  $\lambda_1 \geq 0$  ( $k_1$  dependent). Hence,  $h^*(x) = h_{w^*}(x)$ .

**Example 34.** (Cont. Example 25) The  $\ell_1$ -RLM rule in Example 25 becomes

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( \operatorname{E}_{z \sim g} \left( \langle w, x \rangle - y \right)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{d} |w_j| \right)$$

using the Risk function, and

$$w^* = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\langle w, x_i \rangle - y_i)^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{j=1}^{d} |w_j| \right)$$

using the Empirical risk function.

3.1.3.  $\ell_2$  norm regularization (Ridge).

Note 35. To further simplify computations, we can consider  $J(\cdot) = \|\cdot\|_2$  i.e.

$$\underset{w}{\text{minimize}} R(w) \\
\text{subject to } ||w||_{2}^{2} \le k_{2}$$

where  $||w||_2^2 = \sum_j w_j^2$ . By Lagrange multiplies we can re-write it as

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( R\left( w \right) + \lambda_2 \left\| w \right\|_2^2 \right)$$

for some  $\lambda_1 \geq 0$  ( $k_1$  dependent). Hence,  $h^*(x) = h_{w^*}(x)$ .

**Example 36.** (Cont. Example 25) The  $\ell_2$ -RLM rule in Example 25 becomes

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( \operatorname{E}_{z \sim g} \left( \langle w, x \rangle - y \right)^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j^2 \right)$$

using the Risk function, and

$$w^* = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h(x_i) - y_i)^2 + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j^2 \right)$$

using the Empirical risk function.

**Example 37.** (Cont. Example 26) The  $\ell_2$ -RLM rule in Example 26 becomes

$$w^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} \left( \operatorname*{Pr}_{z \sim g} \left( \langle x, w \rangle \, y < 0 \right) + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j^2 \right)$$

using the Risk function, and

$$w^* = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg min}} \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1(\langle x_i, w \rangle y_i < 0) + \lambda_2 \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j^2 \right)$$

using the Empirical risk function.