# Machine Learning

#### MIRI Master

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Spring Semester 2017-2018

LECTURE 2: Theoretical issues (I): regression

#### **Outline**

- 1. The regression framework
- 2. Bias-Variance analysis
- 3. Measuring complexity: the VC dimension
- 4. Empirical and Structural risk minimization

#### The regression framework

Given data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_n, t_n)\}_{n=1,...,N}$ , where  $\boldsymbol{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, t_n \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

**Statistics:** estimation of a continuous random variable (r.v.) T conditioned on a random vector  $\boldsymbol{X}$ 

**Mathematics:** estimation of a real function f based on a finite number of "noisy" examples  $(x_n, f(x_n))$ 

The departing statistical setting is  $t_n = f(x_n) + \varepsilon_n$ ; a model is any approximation of f

 $\varepsilon_n$  are i.i.d. continuous r.v. such that  $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_n] = 0$  and  $\text{Var}[\varepsilon_n] = \sigma^2 < \infty$ 

#### The regression framework

The **risk** of a model y is

$$R(y) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} L(t, y(x)) p(t, x) dx dt$$

where L is a suitable **loss** function:

- $L(t,y(x)) \ge 0$
- L(t,y(x)) = 0 if t = y(x)
- lacksquare  $Lig(t,y(oldsymbol{x})ig)$  does not increase when  $|t-y(oldsymbol{x})|$  decreases

related to the distribution of the  $arepsilon_n$  (the "noise model")

## The regression framework

Since  $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_n] = 0$ , we can alternatively express the regression setting by stating that t is a continuous r.v. such that  $f(x) = \mathbb{E}[t|X = x]$ :

$$\implies f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} t \, p(t|x) \, dt$$

known as the regression function

*Proof.* (on the blackboard)

#### The regression framework

Let us step firm ground and assume that  $\varepsilon_n \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  (implications?)

Using a **Maximum Likelihood** argument, it can be shown that the "right" loss is the **square error**:

$$L_{\mathsf{SE}}(t,y(x)) := (t-y(x))^2$$

The **risk** is therefore

$$R(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (t - y(x))^2 p(t|x) p(x) dx dt$$

## The regression framework

If we enjoy complete freedom to choose y we should solve for:

$$y^* := \underset{y}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} R(y)$$

The solution of which is:

$$y^*(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} t \, p(t|x) \, dt = f(x)$$

(note it agrees with our previous result)

## The regression framework

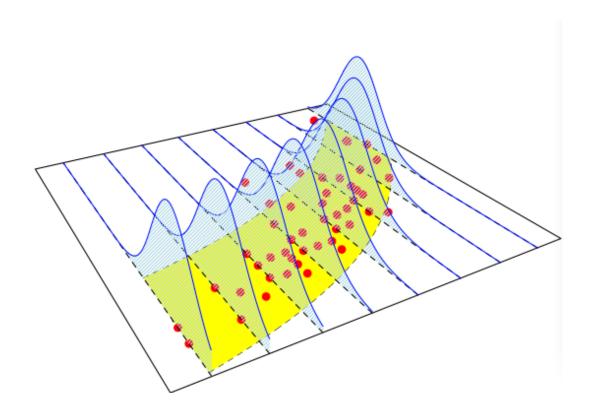


Illustration of the standard assumptions (normality, homoscedasticity)

#### The regression framework

In a practical setting, we do not know p(t|x) ...

- Instead, we have a finite i.i.d. **data sample** of N labelled observations  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_n, t_n)\}_{n=1,...,N}$ , where  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, t_n \in \mathbb{R}$
- It seems natural to solve for y in (see below):

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left( f(\boldsymbol{x}) - y(\boldsymbol{x}) \right)^2 p(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

• We must impose restrictions on the possible solutions y (a specific class of functions)

#### The regression framework

We can compute an approximation to the true risk, called the **empirical risk**, by averaging the loss function on the available data  $\mathcal{D}$ :

$$R_{\text{emp}}(y) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - y(x_n))^2$$

(this quantity is also known as the **training**, resubstitution or apparent **error**)

The **Empirical Risk Minimization** (ERM) principle states that a learning algorithm should choose a hypothesis (model)  $\hat{y}$  which minimizes the empirical risk among a predefined class of functions  $\mathcal{Y}$ :

$$\widehat{y} := \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \, R_{\operatorname{emp}}(y)$$

## The regression framework

The quantity  $R_{emp}(\hat{y})$  is known as the **training error** 

In theoretical ML, we are very much interested in:

- 1. how this error fluctuates as a function of  $\mathcal{D}$
- 2. how far this error is from the true error, *i.e.*, to bound  $|R_{\mathsf{emp}}(\hat{y}) R(y)|$ ; at the very least, to bound  $|\mathbb{E}[R_{\mathsf{emp}}(\hat{y})] R(y)|$
- 3. how far this error is from the best possible error, *i.e.*, to bound  $|R_{\text{emp}}(\hat{y}) R(y^*)|$ ; at the very least, to bound  $|\mathbb{E}[R_{\text{emp}}(\hat{y})] R(y^*)|$

#### **Bias-Variance analysis**

Recall the assumption that  $\varepsilon_n \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ 

In this case (using the square error), the risk can be decomposed as:

$$R(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (t - y(x))^2 p(t, x) dx dt$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (t - f(x))^2 p(t, x) dx dt$$

$$+ \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x) - y(x))^2 p(x) dx$$

$$= \sigma^2 + \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x) - y(x))^2 p(x) dx =: \sigma^2 + \mathsf{MSE}(y)$$

where f is the **regression function**. Hint: add and subtract f(x)

## Bias-Variance analysis

Therefore we arrive at  $R(y) = \sigma^2 + MSE(y)$ 

We can now "forget" about  $\sigma^2$  and the risk and minimize instead the MSE "to the last bullet":

$$MSE(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x) - y(x))^2 p(x) dx$$

A **learning algorithm** is a procedure that, given  $\mathcal{D}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$ , outputs a model  $y_{\mathcal{D}} \in \mathcal{Y}$ 

#### Bias-Variance analysis

- Consider now one particular  $x_0$ : different  $\mathcal{D}$  will produce different  $y_{\mathcal{D}}$  and therefore different predictions  $y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_0)$  ...
- lacktriangle Let us concentrate on the quantity  $ig(f(x_{\mathsf{O}}) y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}})ig)^2$
- We wish to eliminate the dependence on  $\mathcal{D}$ ; therefore we investigate its expected value:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\big(f(x_{\mathsf{O}}) - y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}})\big)^2],$$
 taken over all possible  $\mathcal{D}$  of size  $N$ 

#### **Bias-Variance analysis**

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[ \Big( f(x_{\mathsf{O}}) - y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}) \Big)^{2} \Big] = \\ \Big( f(x_{\mathsf{O}}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[ y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}) \Big] \Big)^{2} \\ + \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[ \Big( y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}) - \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \Big[ y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}) \Big] \Big)^{2} \Big]$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathsf{MSE}(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}})) = \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}))\right)^2 + \mathsf{Var}(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}))$$

$$R(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}})) = \sigma^2 + \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}))\right)^2 + \mathsf{Var}(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\mathsf{O}}))$$

## Bias-Variance analysis

The prediction risk at any given point  $x_0$  is the sum of three components:

The noise variance: variability of the target value around its conditional mean

The (squared) bias: average (square) deviation of our prediction at  $x_{
m O}$  and the best possible prediction

The variance: variability of our prediction as a function of the used data sample (regardless of the underlying function!)

#### **Bias-Variance analysis**

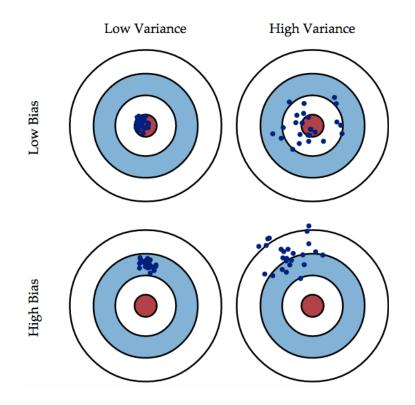


Illustration of the Bias-Variance decomposition using a dartboard

#### **Bias-Variance analysis**

The derivation above depends on a particular point  $x_0$  ... let us put it back in place (i.e., within their integrals):

$$\left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}})\right)^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x))\right)^2 p(x) dx$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(y_{\mathcal{D}}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Var(y_{\mathcal{D}}(x)) p(x) dx$$

$$R(y_{\mathcal{D}}) = \sigma^2 + \left(Bias(y_{\mathcal{D}})\right)^2 + Var(y_{\mathcal{D}})$$

## **Bias-Variance analysis**

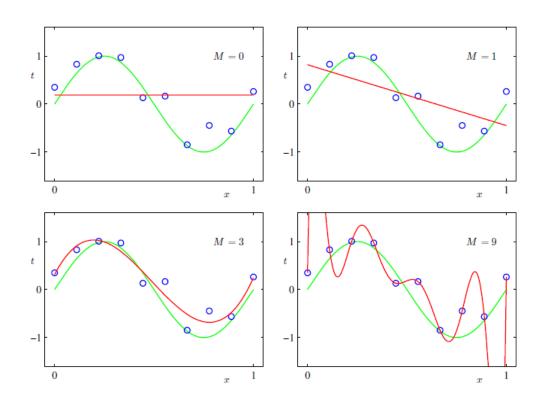


Illustration of the **Bias-Variance tradeoff** (a.k.a. **dilemma**)

## Bias-Variance analysis

In general,

- an underfit model will have a high bias
- an overfit model will have a high variance

The "ability to fit" has a name: complexity of the function class

- Models that are "more complex than needed" will tend to have a large prediction error, which will be dominated by the variance term
- Models that are "less complex than needed" will tend to have a large prediction error, which will be dominated by the (square) bias term

## **Bias-Variance analysis**

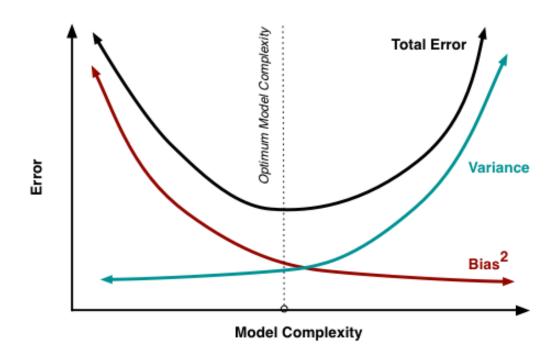


Illustration of Bias<sup>2</sup>, Var, MSE (Total Error) and Model Complexity

## Measuring complexity: the VC dimension

How do we measure "complexity of the function class"?

Let

$$\mathcal{Y} = \left\{ y(x; \alpha), \ \alpha \in A \right\}$$

be a class of parametric binary classifiers  $y: \mathbb{R}^d \to \{-1, +1\}$ 

- 1. How "complex" is  $\mathcal{Y}$ ?
- 2. How is complexity related to the number of parameters?

#### Measuring complexity: the VC dimension

#### Example 1

Let 
$$\mathcal{Y}_d = \left\{ y(m{x}; m{lpha}), \ m{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} 
ight\}$$

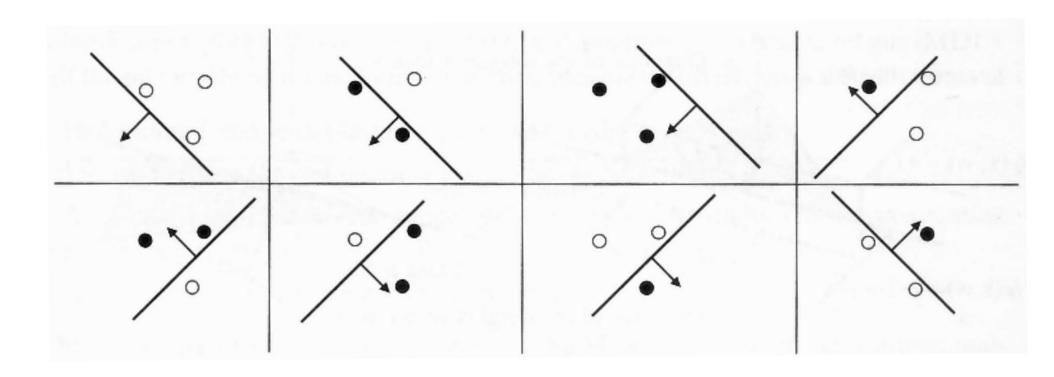
where  $y: \mathbb{R}^d \to \{-1, +1\}$  is a class of **linear** classifiers in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$y(x; \alpha) = \operatorname{sgn}\left(\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i x_i\right)$$

#### Measuring complexity: the VC dimension

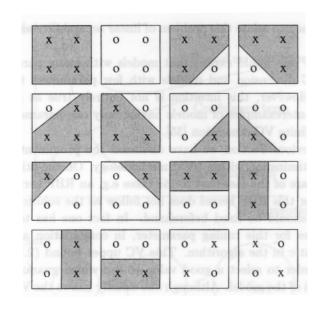
- 1. Take a number N of data vectors  $oldsymbol{x}_1,\dots,oldsymbol{x}_N$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$
- 2. Consider all  $2^N$  possible  $\{-1, +1\}$ -labellings of these vectors
- 3. We say that a function class  $\mathcal{Y}$  shatters the vectors if, for all possible labellings, there exists a function in  $\mathcal{Y}$  (a classifier) that perfectly separates the vectors
- 4. The **VC** dimension of a function class  $\mathcal{Y}$  is the maximum  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  for which N data vectors can be found that can be shattered by  $\mathcal{Y}$

## Measuring complexity: the VC dimension



VC-dim $(y_2) \ge 3$ 

Measuring complexity: the VC dimension



- VC-dim( $\mathcal{Y}_2$ ) < 4 and therefore VC-dim( $\mathcal{Y}_2$ ) = 3
- It can be shown that VC-dim $(\mathcal{Y}_d) = d+1$  (i.e., the number of parameters)

## Measuring complexity: the VC dimension

In order to prove that VC-dim $(\mathcal{Y}) = N$  for some N we have to:

- 1. find a set of N data vectors that can be shattered by  $\mathcal{Y}$
- 2. prove that no set of N+1 data vectors can be shattered by  $\mathcal{Y}$

If, for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , we can *always* find a set of N data vectors that can be shattered by  $\mathcal{Y}$ , we say that VC-dim $(\mathcal{Y}) = \infty$ 

#### Measuring complexity: the VC dimension

#### Example 2

Let 
$$\mathcal{Y} = \left\{ y(x; \alpha), \ \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

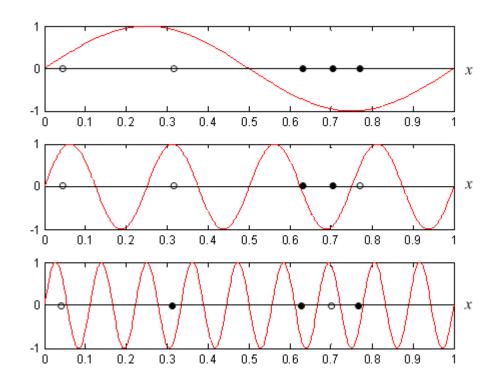
where  $y: \mathbb{R}^d \to \{-1, +1\}$  is the class of **sine** classifiers in  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$y(x; \alpha) = \operatorname{sgn}(\sin(\alpha x))$$

It can be shown that VC-dim $(\mathcal{Y}) = \infty$ , with the choice  $x_n = 10^{-n}$  and

$$\alpha = \pi \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (1 - t_n) 10^n \right)$$

#### Measuring complexity: the VC dimension



Plot of the function  $sin(\alpha x)$ , for different  $\alpha$  and arbitrary  $\{-1, +1\}$ -labellings of N=5 points (in black and white)

## Using the VC dimension for two-class classification

**Theorem** (Vapnik and Chervonenkis, 1974). Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be an i.i.d. data sample of size N and  $\mathcal{Y}$  a class of parametric binary classifiers. Let  $\vartheta$  denote the VC dimension of  $\mathcal{Y}$ . Take  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  with empirical error  $R_{\text{emp}}(y)$  on  $\mathcal{D}$ . For all  $\eta \in (0,1)$  it holds true that, with probability at least  $1-\eta$ , the true error of y is bounded by:

$$R(y) \le R_{\mathsf{emp}}(y) + H(N, \vartheta, \eta)$$

where

$$H(N, \vartheta, \eta) := \sqrt{\frac{\vartheta(\ln(2N/\vartheta) + 1) - \ln(\eta/4)}{N}}$$

#### Structural risk minimization

Consider a nested sequence of function classes:

 $\mathcal{Y}_1 \subset \mathcal{Y}_2 \subset \ldots \mathcal{Y}_k \subset \ldots$  with respective VC-dimensions  $\vartheta_1 < \vartheta_2 \ldots < \vartheta_k \ldots$ 

- The **Structural Risk Minimization** (SRM) principle states that a learning algorithm should choose a hypothesis (model) which minimizes the previous bound on the true error
- The SRM principle can also be applied to the regression case, by extending the definition of VC-dimension
- Other definitions of complexity (to measure the "richness" of classes of real functions) have been proposed (Pseudo-Dimension, Fat-Shattering Dimension, Rademacher complexity)

#### Structural risk minimization

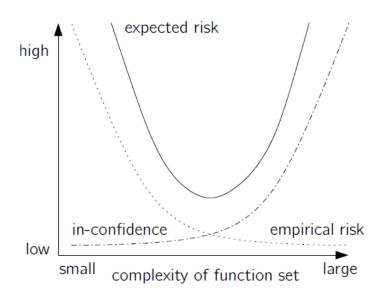


Figure 2.2: Schematic illustration of (2.8). The dotted line represents the training error (empirical risk), the dash-dotted line the upper bound on the complexity term (confidence). With higher complexity the empirical error decreases but the upper bound on the risk confidence becomes worse. For a certain complexity of the function class the best expected risk (solid line) is obtained. Thus, in practice the goal is to find the best trade-off between empirical error and complexity.

Illustration of the Empirical error vs. complexity tradeoff

#### Structural risk minimization

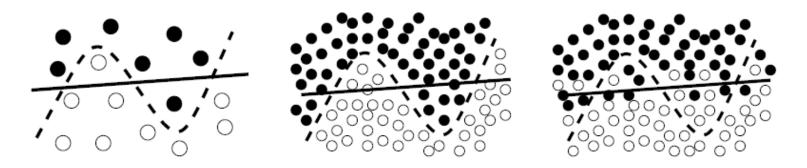


Figure 2.1: Illustration of the over—fitting dilemma: Given only a small sample (left) either, the solid or the dashed hypothesis might be true, the dashed one being more complex, but also having a smaller training error. Only with a large sample we are able to see which decision reflects the true distribution more closely. If the dashed hypothesis is correct the solid would under-fit (middle); if the solid were correct the dashed hypothesis would over-fit (right).

Interpretation of the Overfitting vs. underfitting dilemma

(last two figures from S. Mika's PhD dissertation, Technische Universität Berlin, 2002)

## **Machine Learning**

## **Syllabus**

- 1. Introduction to Machine Learning
- 2. Theoretical issues (I): regression
- 3. Linear regression and beyond
- 4. Theoretical issues (II): classification
- 5. Generative classifiers
- 6. Discriminative classifiers

- 7. Clustering: k-means and E-M
- 8. Learning with kernels (I): The SVM
- 9. Learning with kernels (II): Kernel functions
- 10. Artificial neural networks (I): Delta rule, MLP-1
- 11. Artificial neural networks (II): MLP-2, RBF
- 12. Artificial neural networks (III): DL and CNNs
- 13. Ensemble methods: Random Forests
- 14. Advanced topics and frontiers