

Hello !

Lecture 2: Supervised Learning

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Announcement

- Thank you for sharing your motivation and goals for taking the course!
 - Please keep providing feedback during the course.
- HW0 due date on Thursday instead.
- Late days policy: 4 late days in total.

Recap: Last lecture

- Machine learning overview
- Supervised learning: Spam filtering as an example
 - Features, feature extraction
 - Models, hypothesis class
 - Free parameters of a hypothesis class
 - Choosing an appropriate hypothesis class
 - Performance metric
 - Overfitting and generalization

Recap: Supervised learning is about predicting label y using feature x by learning from labeled examples.

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COMPOSE

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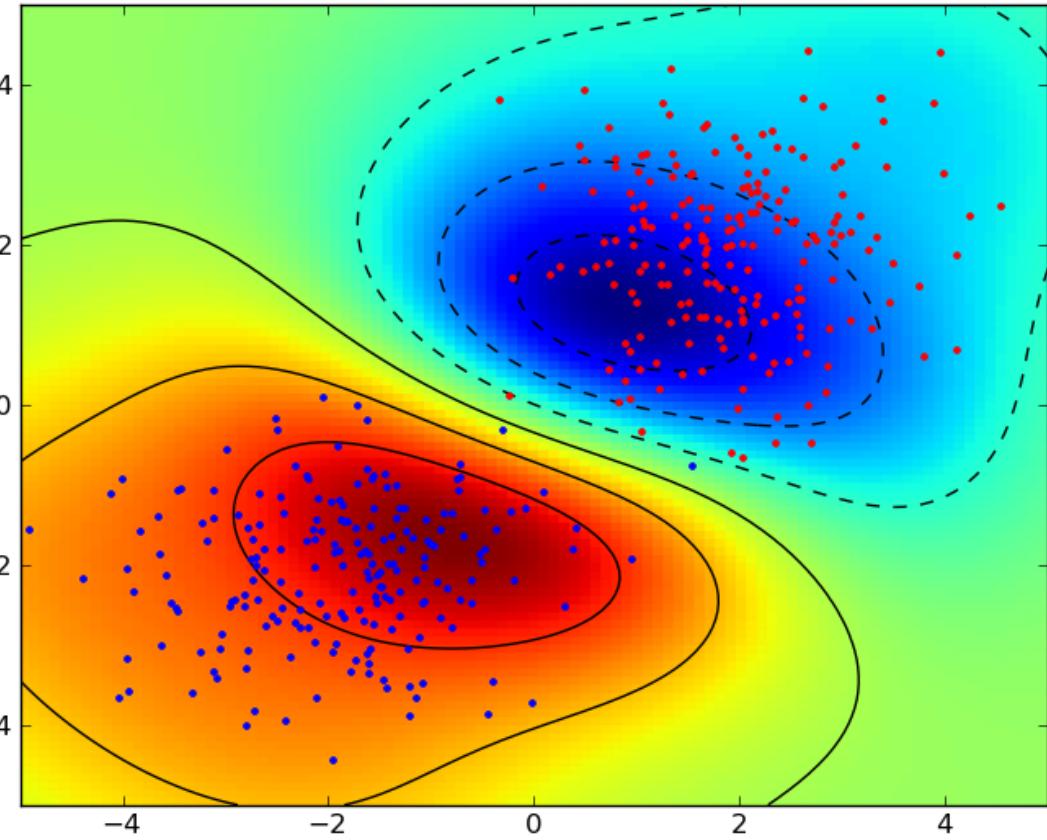
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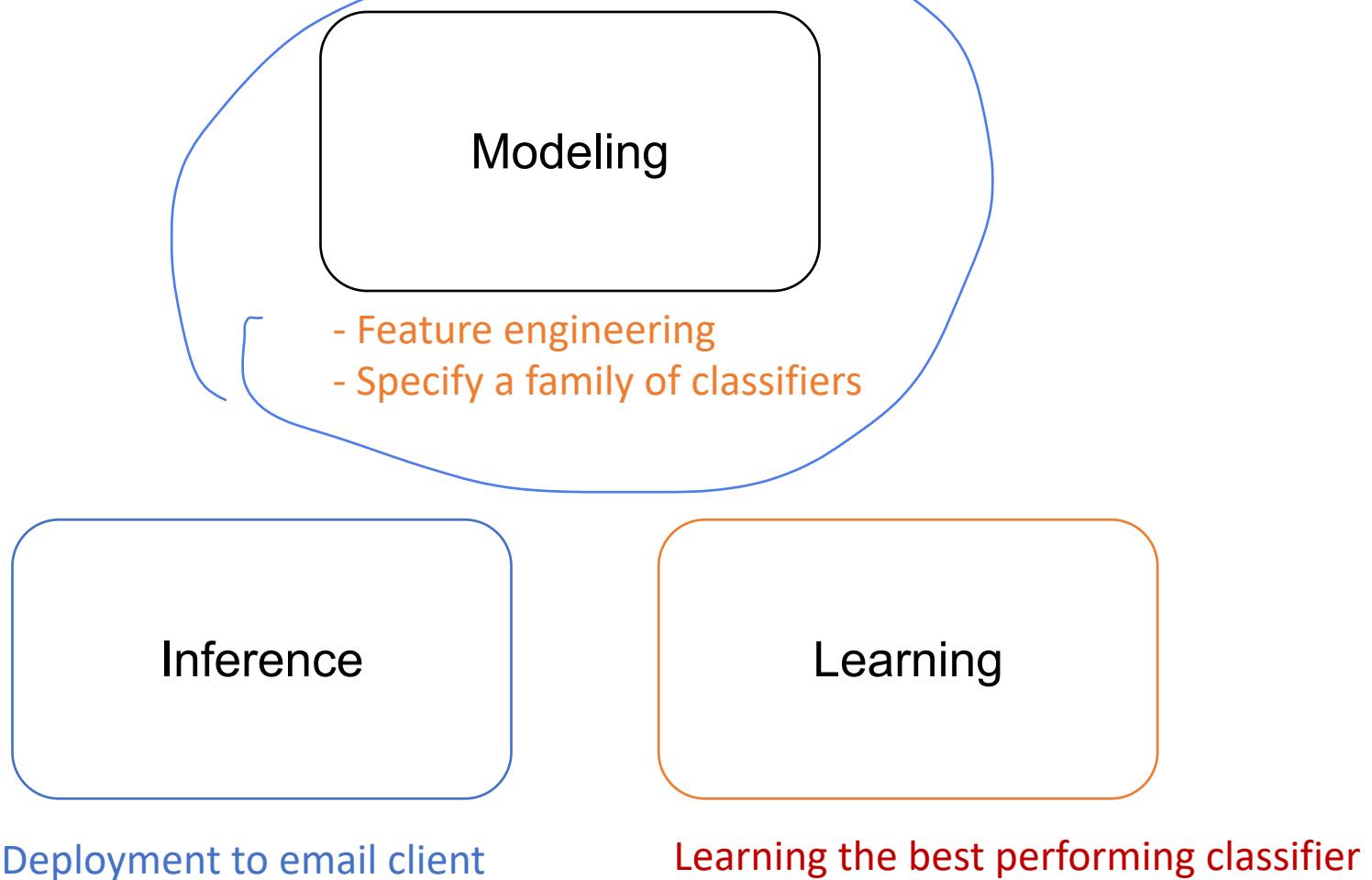
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Recap: Modeling-Learning-inference in a machine learning workflow



Recap: Mathematically defining the supervised learning problem

- Feature space: $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$
- Label space: $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\} = \{\text{non-spam, spam}\}$
- A classifier (hypothesis): $h : \underline{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \underline{\mathcal{Y}}$
- A hypothesis class: \mathcal{H}
- Data: $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$
- Learning task: Find $\underline{h} \in \underline{\mathcal{H}}$ that "works well".

Recap: The “free parameters” of the two hypothesis classes we learned

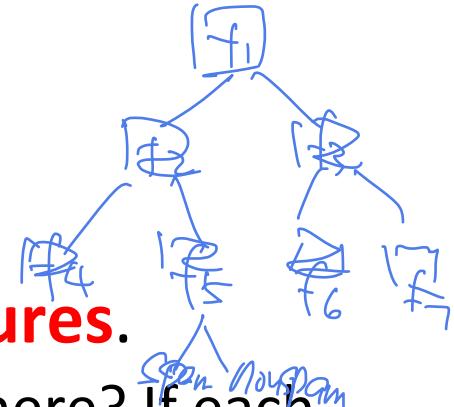
- Decision trees
 - “Which feature to use when branching?”
 - “The threshold parameter”
 - “Which label to assign at the leaf node”
 - ...
- Linear classifiers
 - “Coefficient vector of the score function”
 - a $(d+1)$ dimensional vector.

Answers for the quiz

- Consider a problem with **4 binary features**.

- How many decision trees of **3 layers** are there? If each decision uses only one feature? (you may repeat features)

$$4^7 \cdot 2^8 = \underline{\underline{2^{22}}}$$



- How many possible feature vectors are there?

$$\underline{\underline{2^4}}$$

- How many classifiers are there (without restrictions)?

$$2^{2^4} = 2^{16} = 65536$$

Recap: What do we mean by “working well”?

- What’s the “Performance measure” for a classifier agent?
 - Really the **average error rate** on **new** data points.
 - But all we have is a training dataset.
 - Training error: (empirical) error rate on the training data.
- When does the learned classifier **generalize**?
- How to know it if it does not?

This lecture

- Supervised learning:
 - formal notations and problem setup
 - Loss function, Risk, Empirical Risk
 - Examples
- Theory of supervised learning
 - Risk bounds for ‘fixed design’ linear regression model
 - Risk bounds for a general supervised learning problem
- Model selection

Mathematically defining the supervised learning problem

- Feature space: \mathcal{X}
- Label space: \mathcal{Y}
- A classifier (hypothesis): $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$
- A hypothesis class: \mathcal{H}
- Data: $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$
- Learning task: Find $h \in \mathcal{H}$ that “works well”.

Notations from probability

R.V. $X \sim D$

\mathbb{E}_D [Function of an r.v. X]

\mathbb{P}_D [Event]

$P_D[x \geq 5]$

$f_{X \sim D}(x)$ or. $p(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{P[x \leq X \leq x + \epsilon]}{\epsilon}$

$F_{X \sim D}(x)$ = $[P[x \leq x]]$

Conditional expectation / conditional probability / density

$\mathbb{E}[\text{Func}(X, Y)|Y]$

$\mathbb{P}[\text{Event_of}(X, Y)|Y]$

$f(x|y)$
 $p(x|y)$

Notations from linear algebra

- Matrices and vectors

$$A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_M^{\text{A}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \quad a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}. \quad a = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

- Transpose and inverse

$$A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \quad A[i,j] = A^T[j,i]$$

$$\underline{A}^{-1} \underline{A} = \underline{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Inner product / dot product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x \cdot y = \underline{x^\top y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

- Norms: $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ $\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$

Other useful notations

$B = (\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3)$	(Ordered) tuple
$\rightarrow B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3]$	Matrix of column vectors stacked horizontally
$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\}$	Set of vectors (unordered)
\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{N}	Integers and natural numbers, respectively
\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}	Real and complex numbers, respectively
\mathbb{R}^n	n -dimensional vector space of real numbers
$\forall x$	Universal quantifier: for all x
$\exists x$	Existential quantifier: there exists x

$$[n] := \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\} \quad - \text{range}(n) + 1$$

def

Indicator (one-zero) function:

$$\int_{-\infty}^x P(x) dx$$

$$|S| \quad \text{cardinality of } S$$

e.g. $|[n]| = ?$

n

$$\mathbb{I}[\text{condition}] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if condition is true} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\int \mathbb{I}(x \geq 5) P(x) dx = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}(X \geq 5)] = [P(X \geq 5)]$$

Conventions and typical meaning of specific variables in machine learning

— x : input

— y : output

$(x, y) \Rightarrow z$: input-output pair

— d : dimensionality

— n : number of examples

The “hat” notation, e.g.: $\hat{h}, \hat{f}, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\mathbb{E}}$ associated with being **an estimate**, computed as a **function of the data**

The “star” notation, e.g.: $h^*, f^*, \theta^*, p^*, R^*$ associated with being **“optimal”**

Loss, Risk, Empirical Risk: What do we mean by working well?

- Loss function

$$\ell(h, (x, y))$$

e.g. $\frac{\mathbb{I}(h(x) \neq y)}{(h(x) - y)^2}$

$(x, y) \sim D$

- Risk function

$$R(h, \mathcal{D}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}[\ell(h, (x_i, y_i))]$$

classifier Distribution $(x, y) \sim D$

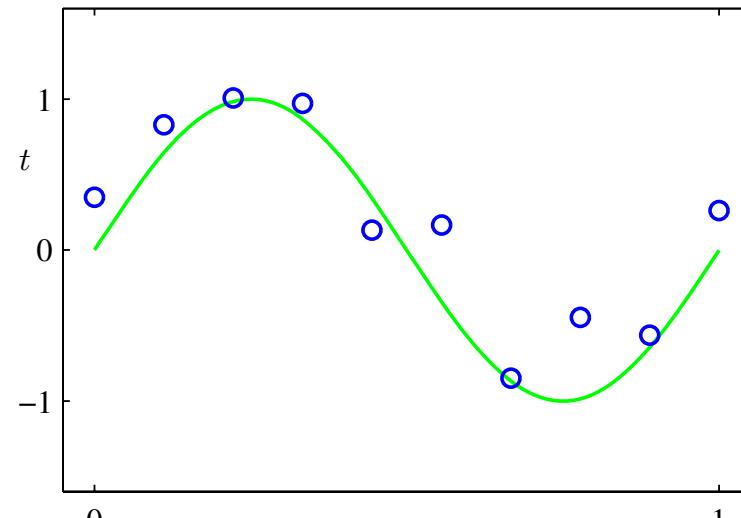
$h: X \rightarrow Y$

- Empirical risk

$$\hat{R}(h, \text{Data}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(h, (x_i, y_i))$$

Example 1: Regression

Figure 1.2 Plot of a training data set of $N = 10$ points, shown as blue circles, each comprising an observation of the input variable x along with the corresponding target variable t . The green curve shows the function $\sin(2\pi x)$ used to generate the data. Our goal is to predict the value of t for some new value of x , without knowledge of the green curve.



$$y = \sin(2\pi x) + N(0, G^2)$$

- What are the feature space, label space?

$$X = [0, 1]$$

$$Y = \mathbb{R} \text{ or } [-1, 1]$$

- What is a reasonable hypothesis class to use and its free-parameter?

Examples of hypothesis classes for this problem

- Polynomials

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ h(x, w) \mid \underbrace{w \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}}_M \right\}$$

$$h(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \dots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^M w_j x^j$$

- Sine function

$$h(x, t) = \sin(2\pi \cancel{t})$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ \sin(2\pi \cancel{t}) \mid \underline{t \in \mathbb{R}_+} \right\}$$

- Anything else?

What are some reasonable loss functions for regression problems?

- Square error loss function

$$\ell(h(x,y)) = (h(x) - y)^2$$

- Absolute deviation loss function

$$|h(x) - y|$$

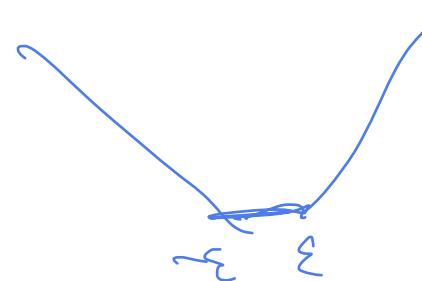
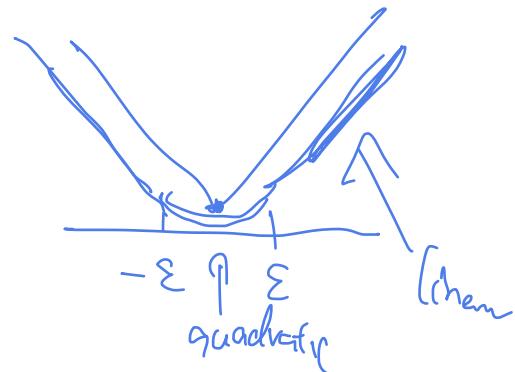
- Huber loss function

$$\ell_\epsilon(a) = \begin{cases} \frac{a^2}{2} & |a| \leq \epsilon \\ \frac{\epsilon}{2}(|a| - \epsilon) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- epsilon-sensitive loss function

- aka support vector regression

$$\ell_\epsilon(a) = \begin{cases} 0 & |a| \leq \epsilon \\ |a| - \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Learning is often achieved by solving the Empirical Risk Minimization

$$\hat{h} = \arg \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(h, \{(x_i, y_i) | i \in [n]\})$$

$\frac{1}{n} \sum \| \ell(h, (x_i, y_i)) \|$

- Sometimes with an additional **regularization functional** (also known as a penalty term)

$$\hat{h} = \arg \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(h, \text{Data}) + \underline{\underline{g(h)}}$$

↑
Loss

↑
Regularization

Polynomial regression under square loss

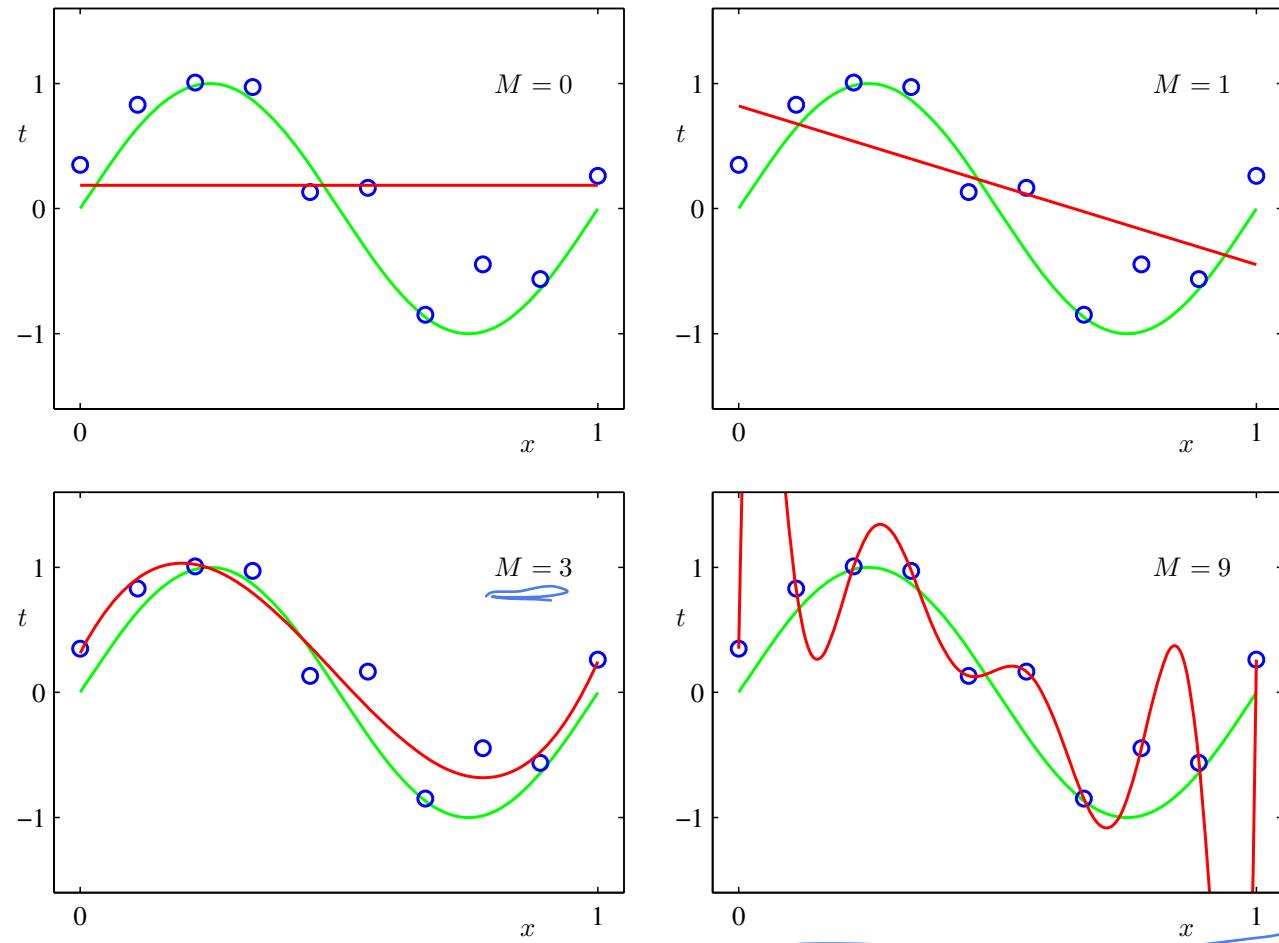
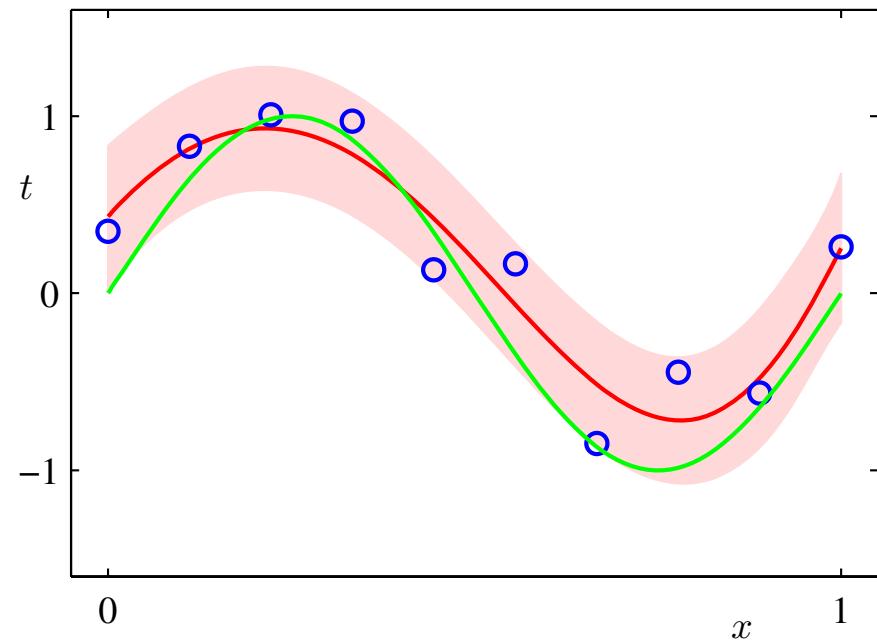


Figure 1.4 Plots of polynomials having various orders M , shown as red curves, fitted to the data set shown in Figure 1.2.

Appropriately regularized fit of a 9th order polynomial.

Figure 1.17 The predictive distribution resulting from a Bayesian treatment of polynomial curve fitting using an $M = 9$ polynomial, with the fixed parameters $\alpha = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ and $\beta = 11.1$ (corresponding to the known noise variance), in which the red curve denotes the mean of the predictive distribution and the red region corresponds to ± 1 standard deviation around the mean.

$$+\lambda\|w\|^2$$



Regularization prevents overfitting!

Example 2: Linear regression

- Feature space

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ or } [0, 1]^d$$

- Label space

$$y = \mathbb{R} \text{ or } [-\beta, \beta] \text{ or } [0, 1]$$

- Hypothesis space

$$w \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
$$h(\cancel{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i = \vec{w}^T \vec{x}$$

- Loss function

$$(w^T x - y)^2$$

$$w, \theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Quiz 1: Can we reformulate Example 1 as a linear regression task?

- Q1: When hypothesis class is polynomial?

$$\begin{aligned} X &= [0, 1] & \phi(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1} \\ \mathcal{H} &= \left\{ (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^M) \mid x \in [0, 1] \right\} \end{aligned}$$

- Q2: When the hypothesis class is sine function with parameter t?

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ w \sin(t \cdot x \pi) \mid \begin{array}{l} \|w\|_1 \leq 1 \\ w \geq 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} h(w, x) &= w_0 + w_1 x \\ &= w_0 + w_1 x^1 \\ &= \dots + w_m x^m \\ &= w^T \phi(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} h(t \cdot x) &= \sin(t \cdot x \pi) \\ &= \int_{t=0}^{\infty} w(t) \sin(t \cdot x \pi) dt \\ &= \langle w, \sin(\cdot x \pi) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Empirical risk minimization for linear regression under square loss

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} (x_i^T \theta - y_i)^2}_{\text{Empirical Risk}}$$

- aka: Ordinary Least square (OLS), MLE under Gaussian noise
- A convenient form using linear algebra

$$\frac{1}{n} \| \vec{x} \theta - \vec{y} \|^2$$

$\begin{matrix} d \\ n \end{matrix}$ \vec{x}_i^T \vec{x}_j^T $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$\hat{\theta} = (\vec{x}^T \vec{x})^{-1} \vec{x}^T \vec{y} \quad \text{OLS}$$

Regularization helps to reduce **overfitting** and induce structures in the solution.

- Example: p-norm regularized least square

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \|X\theta - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\theta\|_p^p$$

- when $p=2$, this is called “Ridge Regression”
- when $p=1$, this is called “Lasso”
- when $p=0$, this is called “Best subset selection”

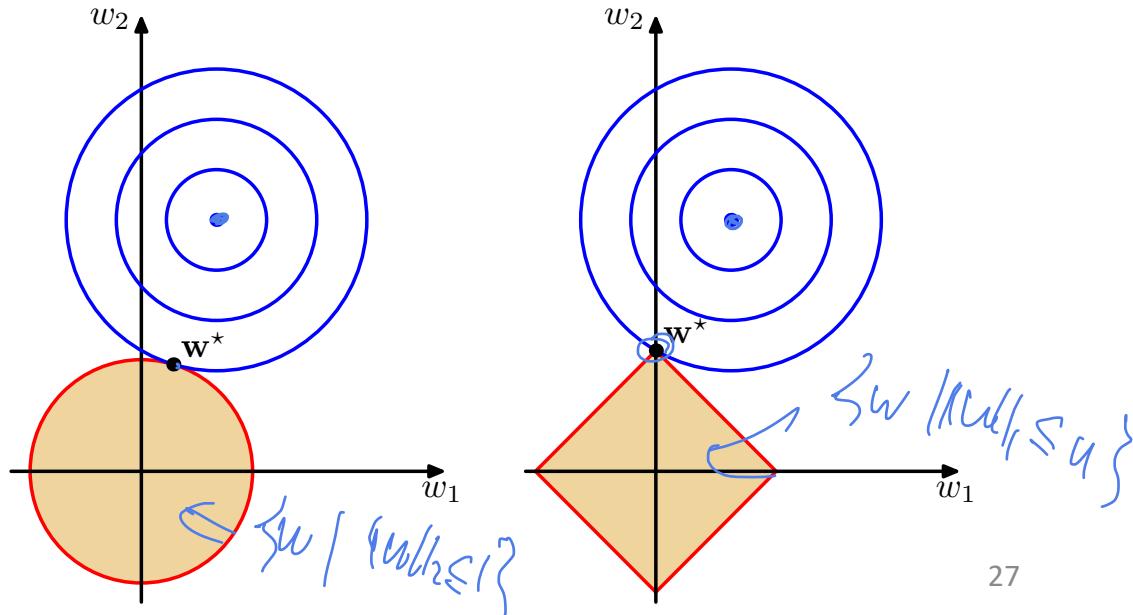
Regularization helps to reduce overfitting and induce structures in the solution.

- Ridge regression induces solutions that are small but dense.
- Lasso induces solutions that are “sparse”.

$$\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \|X\theta - y\|^2$$
$$\text{s.t. } \|\theta\|_p \leq u$$

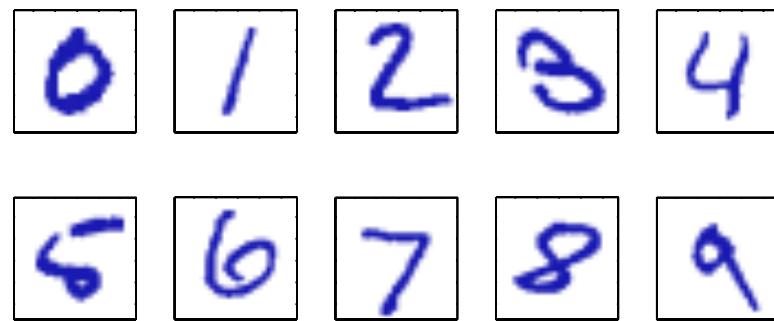
u is a function of λ, X, y

Figure 3.4 Plot of the contours of the unregularized error function (blue) along with the constraint region (3.30) for the quadratic regularizer $q = 2$ on the left and the lasso regularizer $q = 1$ on the right, in which the optimum value for the parameter vector w is denoted by w^* . The lasso gives a sparse solution in which $w_1^* = 0$.



Example 3: Multi-class classification

Figure 1.1 Examples of hand-written digits taken from US zip codes.



- What are the feature space, label space?

$$X = \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

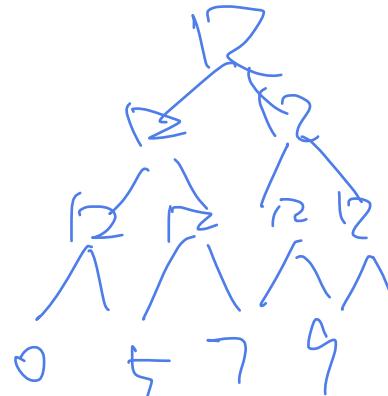
$X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$$Y = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

$\underline{\text{y}}$

Hypothesis class for multi-class classification problems

- Decision trees



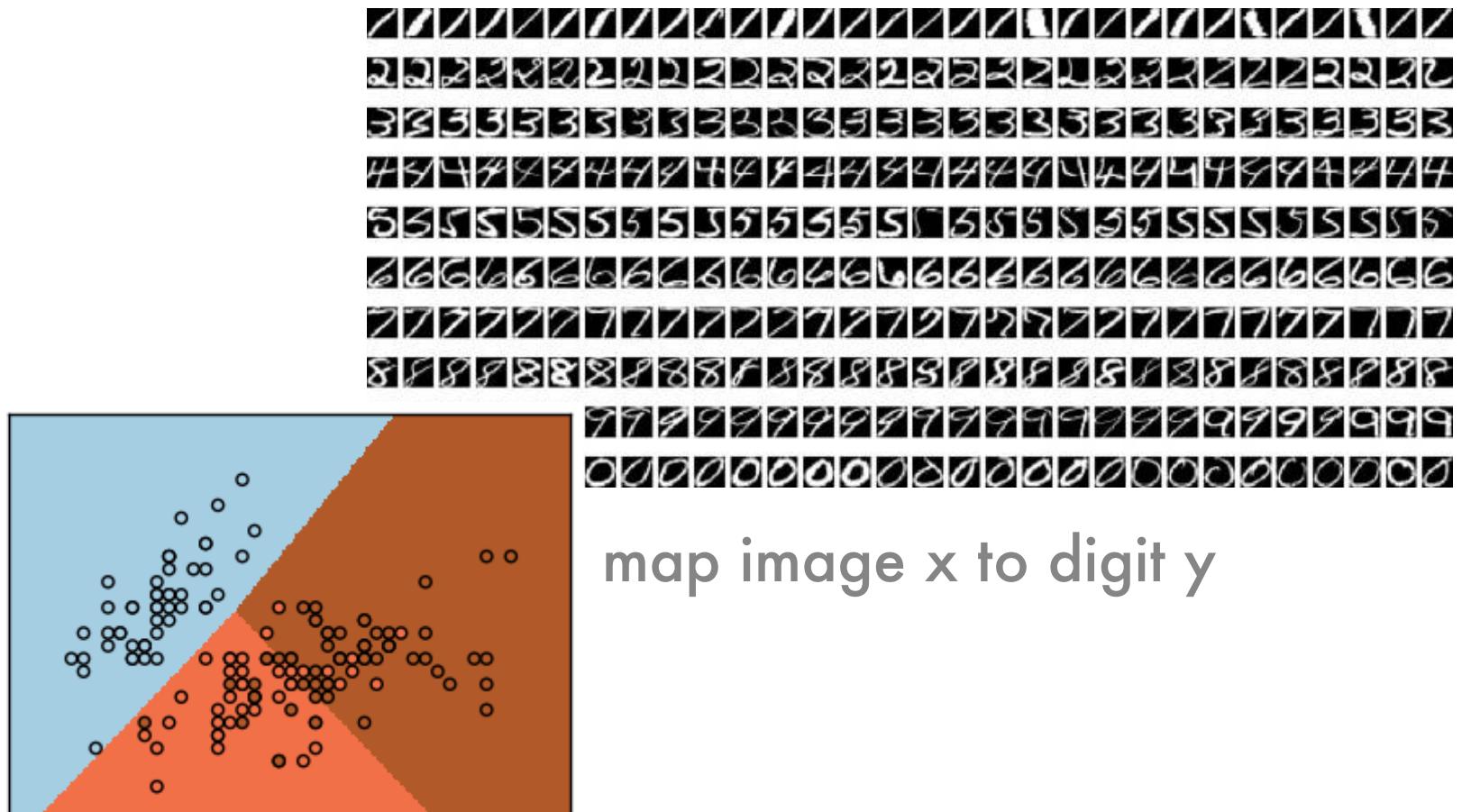
- Linear classifier

$$\text{Score}_w(x) = w^T x$$

$$w_0, w_1, \dots, w_q \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$$h(x) = \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} w_y^T x$$

Illustration of the decision boundary in multi-class linear classification

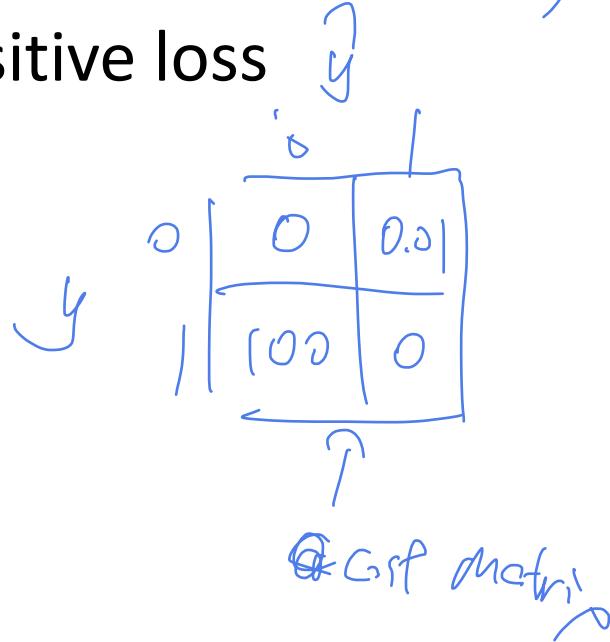


Loss functions for classification tasks when the predictions are discrete

- 0-1 loss

$$\mathbb{I}(h(x) \neq y)$$

- Cost-sensitive loss



y		
$h(x)$	0	1
0	0	0.01
1	0.01	0

\uparrow

@Conf Matrix

$$\text{loss}(h(x)) = \sum_i c_{y_i, h(x)}$$

Soft-(arg)max transform helps to convert real-valued predictions to a probability distribution

- Softmax function

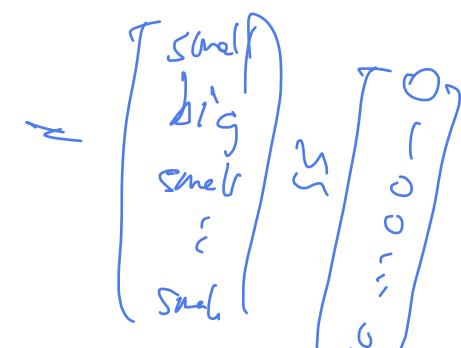
(You should've seen from HW0 for why this is soft-max)

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \log \sum_{i=1}^n \exp(x_i).$$

- Soft-argmax transform

(Compare this to argmax in One-Hot representation)

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{[e^{x_1}, \dots, e^{x_n}]}{\sum_{i=1}^n e^{x_i}}$$



Loss functions for classification tasks for soft-predictions

- log-loss

$$-\sum_{i \in Y} [\log(\hat{p}(i))] \mathbb{I}(y=i)$$

\hat{p}

or

$$\text{Score}_y(x) \quad G(\hat{p})$$

- Cross entropy loss

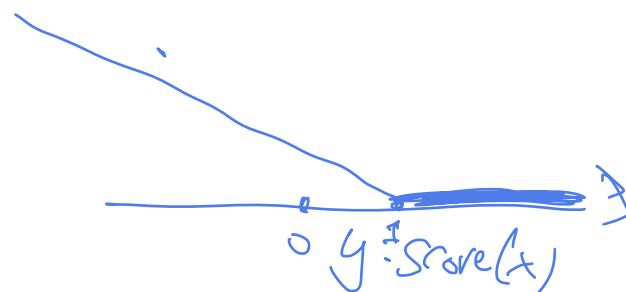
$$-\sum_{i \in Y} [\log(\hat{p}(i)) \cdot p_i] \quad \hat{p}_{\text{true label}}$$

- Logistic loss in the binary case

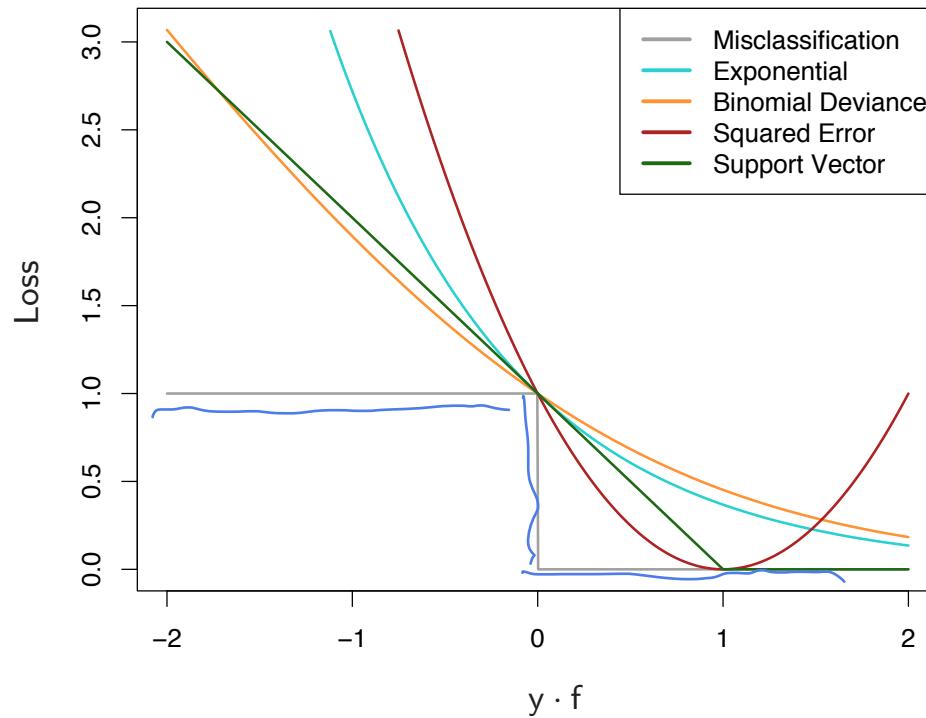
$$Y = \{-1, 1\}$$

$$\log \left(1 + e^{-y \cdot \text{Score}(x)} \right)$$

- Hinge loss



Visualization of the loss functions for classification



** “Binomial deviance” is the “logistic loss” from the previous slide.

FIGURE 10.4. Loss functions for two-class classification. The response is $y = \pm 1$; the prediction is f , with class prediction $\text{sign}(f)$. The losses are misclassification: $I(\text{sign}(f) \neq y)$; exponential: $\exp(-yf)$; binomial deviance: $\log(1 + \exp(-2yf))$; squared error: $(y - f)^2$; and support vector: $(1 - yf)_+$ (see Section 12.3). Each function has been scaled so that it passes through the point $(0, 1)$.

(Section 10.4 of "Elements of Statistical Learning")

Empirical risk minimization for multi-class classification

$$\hat{h} = \arg \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(h, \{(x_i, y_i) | i \in [n]\})$$

Computation-approximation tradeoff in choosing loss functions

	0-1 loss / cost-sensitive loss	Log loss / cross-entropy loss
Computation	NP-hard in general	More efficient
Approximation	No approximation	Used as a surrogate 

Also, depends on the choice of hypothesis class.
We will see more of this tradeoff later.

Loss function is often domain-specific. It is often part of the design of an ML workflow

- Discussion: Loss function for stock price prediction

- Square loss?

- 0-1 loss?

$$C_i(x) = \mathbb{I}(\hat{p} \neq y)$$

0.9 w.p. 0.9 $\Delta = -100$ $\hat{P} = 1$

0.1 w.p. 0.1 $\Delta = 0.1$ $\hat{P} = 1$

Checkpoint: Supervised learning

- Formal problem setup
 - Feature space, label space, hypothesis class, loss function, risk function
- Examples:
 - Regression, Linear regression, multi-class classification
 - Regularization
- Choices of loss functions

Remainder of this lecture

- Supervised learning:
 - formal notations and problem setup
 - Loss function, Risk, Empirical Risk
 - Examples
- Theory of supervised learning
 - Risk bounds for ‘fixed design’ linear regression model
 - Risk bounds for a general supervised learning problem
- Model selection

Theory of linear regression

- What are the assumptions?
 - A1. Linear model + iid noise

$$\tilde{y}_i = \tilde{x}_i \cdot \underline{\theta}^* + \underline{\epsilon}_i, \quad \mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i] = 0 \quad \text{Var}[\epsilon_i] = \sigma^2$$

- A2. Fixed design matrix with full rank
 $\mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \rightarrow \tilde{X} = (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)^T$ fixed

- Risk function in this case

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta) &= \mathbb{E} [\ell(\theta, (x, y))] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} [(\theta^T \tilde{x}_i - y_i)^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} [(\theta^T \tilde{x}_i - \theta^T \tilde{x}_i)^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} [(\theta^T \tilde{x}_i - \theta^T \tilde{x}_i)^2] + \underbrace{\mathbb{E} [\epsilon_i^2]}_{\text{noise}} \end{aligned}$$

What are we hoping to achieve?

$$R(\theta^*) = \mathbb{E}[\tilde{\epsilon}_r^2] = G^2$$

- **Excess risk** --- the difference between the performance of the learner and that of the oracle.

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta) - \min_{\theta} R(\tilde{\theta}) &= R(\theta) - R(\theta^*) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[(x_i^\top (\theta - \theta^*))^2] \\ &\rightarrow = \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}[(\theta - \theta^*)^\top X (\theta - \theta^*)] \end{aligned}$$

$$\theta^* = \hat{\theta} = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top \vec{y}$$

Recall the empirical risk minimizer here for this problem.

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} (x_i^T \theta - y_i)^2$$

- aka: Ordinary Least square (OLS), MLE under Gaussian noise
- A convenient form using linear algebra

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \|X\theta - y\|_2^2$$

- A closed-form solution

$$\hat{\theta} = \underbrace{(X^T X)^{-1} X^T y}_{}$$

Deriving an *expected* excess risk bound for the ERM estimator

$$\text{def } \|\cdot\|_A^2 = (\cdot^T A \cdot)$$

1. Working out the excess risk

$$R(\hat{\theta}) - R^* \leq \frac{1}{n} (\hat{\theta} - \theta^*)^T \bar{X} \bar{X} (\hat{\theta} - \theta^*) = \frac{1}{n} \|\hat{\theta} - \theta^*\|_{\bar{X} \bar{X}}^2$$

closed form $\hat{\theta}$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \|(\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T \bar{y} - \theta^*\|_{\bar{X} \bar{X}}^2$$

assumption on the distribution of \bar{y}

$$= \frac{1}{n} \|(\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T (\bar{X} \theta^* + \bar{\varepsilon}) - \theta^*\|_{\bar{X} \bar{X}}^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \|(\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X} \theta^* - \theta^* + (\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T \bar{\varepsilon}\|_{\bar{X} \bar{X}}^2$$

What is random?

$$= \frac{1}{n} \bar{\varepsilon}^T \bar{X} (\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T (\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T \bar{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{\bar{\varepsilon}^T}_{\substack{\text{Trace} \\ \uparrow}} \underbrace{\bar{X} (\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T}_{\substack{\text{Col}(X) \\ \text{span}(\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_n)}} \bar{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(\bar{\varepsilon}^T \bar{X} (\bar{X} \bar{X})^{-1} \bar{X}^T \bar{\varepsilon})$$

2. Take expectation

$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \text{independent} \\ \text{zero mean} \\ \text{var} = G^2 \end{array}}$

$$\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] - R^* = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}[\bar{X} \cdot \mathbb{E}[\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}^T]]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}[\bar{X} \cdot G^2 \bar{I}_n]$$

$$= \frac{G^2}{n} \text{tr}[Q \Lambda Q^T \cdot \bar{I}_n] = \frac{G^2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \Lambda_{ii} = \frac{dG^2}{n}$$

Orthogonal projection to a d -dimensional space
 $\bar{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ $\text{rank}(\bar{X}) = d$

② Eigen Decomposition

$\bar{X} = Q \Lambda Q^T$ where $\begin{matrix} \text{diag}(1) \\ \underbrace{[1, 1, 1, \dots, 1, 0]}_{d \text{ of these}} \end{matrix}$

$\bar{X} \Lambda \bar{X}^T$: an orthogonal projection to the subspace $\overline{\text{Col}(X)}$
 $\text{span}(\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_n)$

$\text{tr}(\bar{\varepsilon}^T \bar{X} \Lambda \bar{X}^T \bar{\varepsilon}) = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(\bar{X} \cdot \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}^T)$

$\text{Trace}(ABC) = \text{Trace}(BCA)$

Theorem for (fixed design) linear regression

Theorem: Assume (A1) and (A2), the ordinary least square estimator for linear regression satisfies:

$$\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] - R(\theta^*) \leq \frac{d\sigma^2}{n} = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

(*) X can be arbitrarily ill-conditioned,

The result relies on strong assumptions on how the data is generated

- e.g., it does NOT apply to the case for fitting a polynomial to a noisy sine function we gave earlier!
- The **statistical learning problem**:
 - Assumption B1: iid samples
 $(x_i, y_i) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} D$ unknown distribution
 - Assumption B2: Bounded loss function
 $\sup_{(x,y)} \ell(h, (x,y)) \leq B$ $\ell(h, (x,y)) \leq B$
 - Assumption B3: Finite hypothesis class

$$|\mathcal{H}| < \infty$$

The goal again is to bound the **excess risk**. This time we want a high probability bound.

- With probability at least $1 - \delta$

$$R(\hat{h}) - R(h^*) \leq \epsilon$$

- Parameterize ϵ as a function of
 - Number of data points
 - Size of the hypothesis class
 - Boundedness of the loss
 - Failure probability

Introducing two powerful “hammers”: Hammer 1. Hoeffding’s inequality

Theorem D.2 (Hoeffding’s inequality) Let X_1, \dots, X_m be independent random variables with X_i taking values in $[a_i, b_i]$ for all $i \in [m]$. Then, for any $\epsilon > 0$, the following inequalities hold for $S_m = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$:

$$\mathbb{P}[S_m - \mathbb{E}[S_m] \geq \epsilon] \leq e^{-2\epsilon^2 / \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - a_i)^2} \quad (\text{D.4})$$

$$\mathbb{P}[S_m - \mathbb{E}[S_m] \leq -\epsilon] \leq e^{-2\epsilon^2 / \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - a_i)^2}. \quad (\text{D.5})$$

(see Appendix D.1 of FML textbook for a proof)

Roughly saying that the **empirical averages** of independent random variable converges to the **mean** at a $O(1/\sqrt{n})$ rate, with high probability.

Introducing two powerful “hammers”: Hammer 2. Union bound

Lemma (Union bound): For any probability distribution and any event E_1, E_2 :

$$\mathbb{P}[E_1 \cup E_2] \leq \mathbb{P}[E_1] + \mathbb{P}[E_2]$$

Now let's apply these two hammers to solve statistical learning

1. For each hypothesis h , apply Hoeffding
2. Union bound over all hypothesis

Now let's apply these two hammers to solve statistical learning

Theorem: Assume (B1),(B2) and (B3), with probability at least $1 - \delta$ (over the distribution of the data), ERM satisfies

$$R(\hat{h}) - R(h^*) = O\left(\sqrt{\frac{\log |\mathcal{H}| + \log(1/\delta)}{n}}\right)$$

Quiz 2: Application to decision tree classifier

- \mathbf{d} -dimensional discrete feature (\mathbf{L} -levels for each)
- \mathbf{H} -layer decision tree, binary decision in one layer
- \mathbf{K} Labels
- *Upper bound of the size of hypothesis class?*

Quiz 3: Application to generic classification (no restriction on the hypothesis class)

- d -dimensional discrete feature (L -levels for each)
- K labels
- *Total number of unique classifiers?*

Computation-approximation tradeoff in the choice of hypothesis class

	model $p^*(y x)$	Linear learners	Neural networks
Computation	Depends on how complex p^* is	Efficient	Not efficient in the worst case, but...
Approximation	No approximation	Large approx. error	Small approx. error
Statistical efficiency	Depends on how complex p^* is	Need less data	Need more data

“All models are wrong, but some are useful.”

George Box
(1919 - 2013)



Checkpoint: Theory of supervised learning

- Risk bounds for linear regression model

$$\mathbb{E}[R(\hat{\theta})] - R(\theta^*) \leq \frac{d\sigma^2}{n}$$

- Risk bounds for a general supervised learning

$$R(\hat{h}) - R(h^*) = O\left(\sqrt{\frac{\log |\mathcal{H}| + \log(1/\delta)}{n}}\right)$$

- Observations:

- Not directly comparable for several reasons
- Strong assumption => Strong results
- Weak assumption => Weak results

Remainder of this lecture

- Supervised learning:
 - formal notations and problem setup
 - Loss function, Risk, Empirical Risk
 - Examples
- Theory of supervised learning
 - Risk bounds for ‘fixed design’ linear regression model
 - Risk bounds for a general supervised learning problem
- Model selection

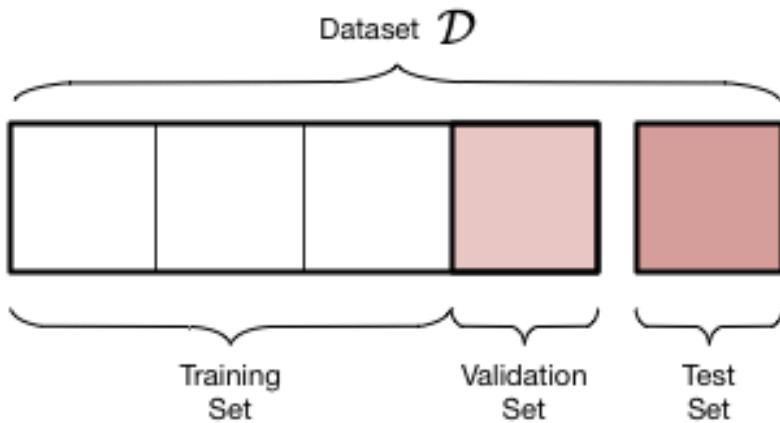
Typical problems in model selection

- Choosing hypothesis class
 - Decision tree? Linear classifier? Or neural networks?
- Choose hyperparameters
 - Depth of decision tree
 - Regularization weights for Ridge / Lasso
- Choose which set of features of include

Model selection is challenging because we do not observe the actual *risk*!

- Empirical risk is often a poor surrogate due to the optimization bias
 - Example: 1-Nearest Neighbor classifier
- Two ideas for estimating the risk
 - Calculate or bound the actual risk in theory
 - Simulate the actual risk on a dataset not used for training.

Empirically measuring the *Risk* by splitting the data into: Training, Test, and Validation Sets



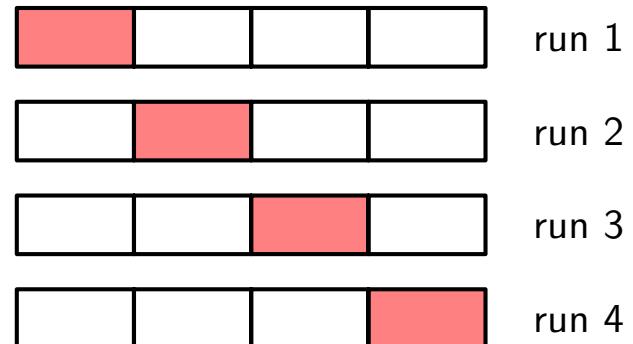
Validation set is used for model-selection:

- choosing decision tree vs. linear classifier
- Select features, tune hyperparameters

Test set is used only once to report the final results.

Cross-validation

Figure 1.18 The technique of S -fold cross-validation, illustrated here for the case of $S = 4$, involves taking the available data and partitioning it into S groups (in the simplest case these are of equal size). Then $S - 1$ of the groups are used to train a set of models that are then evaluated on the remaining group. This procedure is then repeated for all S possible choices for the held-out group, indicated here by the red blocks, and the performance scores from the S runs are then averaged.



- Pros:
 - No assumption on the data generating distributions, except iid.
 - Do not waste data, comparing to holdout.
- Cons:
 - It evaluates the model applying to $(S-1)/S$ fraction of the data
 - Computation cost = $O(S * \text{number of models to select from})$

Other approaches for model selection

- AIC (Akaike Information Criteria) / BIC (Bayesian information criteria)
 - (see PRML Section 1.3 and 4.4.1)
- Effective degree of freedom
 - Measuring the effective number of parameters
 - For fixed-design regression with square loss + Gaussian noise, any estimator:

$$R(\hat{h}) - \mathbb{E}[\hat{R}(\hat{h})] = \frac{2\sigma^2}{n} df(\hat{h})$$

So if one can estimate df , then can use it for model selection

Effective degree of freedom for Regularized Linear Regression

- Ridge regression

$$df(X\hat{\theta}) = \text{tr}(X(X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T)$$

- Number of parameters, if no regularization
- Independent to data y , can be computed ahead of time

- Lasso

$$df(X\hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{j \in [d]} \mathbb{I}(\hat{\theta}_j \neq 0) \right]$$

- Expected number of non-zero weights -- Sparsity.
- This is truly remarkable that we get this via L1-regularization

See e.g. : <https://www.stat.cmu.edu/~ryantibs/papers/lassodf.pdf>

Checkpoint: model selection

- Three approaches for model selection
 - Holdout
 - Cross validation
 - Penalize information criteria
- Cross validation is what is most commonly used in practice.

Next two lectures

- Unsupervised learning
 - Thursday
- Optimization methods for machine learning
 - Next Tuesday