

10-701: Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 19 – Learning Theory (Finite Case)

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* Slides adopted from F24 offering of 10701 by Henry Chai.

Recall: What is Machine Learning 10-701?

- Supervised Models
 - Decision Trees
 - KNN
 - Naïve Bayes
 - Perceptron
 - Logistic Regression
 - Linear Regression
 - Neural Networks
 - SVMs
- Unsupervised Learning
- Ensemble Methods
- Graphical Models
- Learning Theory
- Reinforcement Learning
- Deep Learning
- Generative AI
- Important Concepts
 - Feature Engineering
 - Regularization and Overfitting
 - Experimental Design
 - Societal Implications

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Statistical Learning Theory Model

1. Data points are generated i.i.d. from some *unknown* distribution

$$\mathbf{x}^{(n)} \sim p^*(\mathbf{x})$$

2. Labels are generated from some *unknown* function

$$y^{(n)} = c^*(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})$$

3. The learning algorithm chooses the hypothesis (or classifier) with lowest *training* error rate from a specified hypothesis set, \mathcal{H}
4. Goal: return a hypothesis (or classifier) with low *true* error rate

Recall: Types of Error

- True error rate
 - Actual quantity of interest in machine learning
 - How well your hypothesis will perform on average across all possible data points
- Test error rate: used to evaluate hypothesis performance
 - Good estimate of the true error rate
- Validation error rate: used to set model hyperparameters
 - Slightly “optimistic” estimate of the true error rate
- Training error rate: used to set model parameters
 - Very “optimistic” estimate of the true error rate

Types of Risk (a.k.a. Error)

- Expected *risk* of a hypothesis h (a.k.a. true error)

$$R(h) = P_{\mathbf{x} \sim p^*}(c^*(\mathbf{x}) \neq h(\mathbf{x}))$$

- Empirical risk of a hypothesis h (a.k.a. training error)

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{R}(h) &= P_{\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{D}}(c^*(\mathbf{x}) \neq h(\mathbf{x})) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{1}(c^*(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}) \neq h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{1}(y^{(n)} \neq h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}))\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^N$ is the training data set with \mathbf{x}^i denoting a point sampled uniformly at random from p^*

Three Hypotheses of Interest

1. The *true function*, c^*

2. The *expected risk minimizer*,

$$h^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} R(h)$$

3. The *empirical risk minimizer*,

$$\hat{h} = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(h)$$

Key Question

- Given a hypothesis with zero/low training error, what can we say about its true error?

PAC Learning

- PAC = Probably Approximately Correct
- PAC-learning is a mathematical framework for analysis learning algorithms:
 - The learner receives samples (\mathcal{D})
 - It must select a *hypothesis* h from a certain hypothesis class \mathcal{H} .
 - The goal is that, **with high probability**, the selected function will have **low error**,
 - No matter what the underlying distribution of samples p^* is.

PAC Learning

- PAC = Probably Approximately Correct
- PAC Criterion:

$$P(|R(h) - \hat{R}(h)| \leq \epsilon) \geq 1 - \delta \quad \forall h \in \mathcal{H}$$

for some ϵ (difference between expected and empirical risk) and δ (probability of “failure”)

- We want the PAC criterion to be satisfied for \mathcal{H} with *small* values of ϵ and δ

Sample Complexity

- The **sample complexity** of a learning algorithm operating on hypothesis set, \mathcal{H} , is the number of labelled training data points needed to satisfy the PAC criterion for some δ and ϵ .

Sample Complexity & PAC Learnability

- A hypothesis class is PAC-learnable if for every $\epsilon, \delta \in (0, 1)$, there exists a sample size $m(\epsilon, \delta)$ polynomial in $1/\epsilon$ and $1/\delta$, such that with m i.i.d. samples from ANY distribution p^* the algorithm outputs a hypothesis whose generalization error is at most ϵ with probability at least $1 - \delta$.

Poll: PAC-learning

- Which of statement most precisely captures what it means for a hypothesis class \mathcal{H} to be PAC learnable?

Sample Complexity

- Four cases
 - Realizable vs. Agnostic
 - Realizable $\rightarrow c^* \in \mathcal{H}$
 - Agnostic $\rightarrow c^*$ might or might not be in \mathcal{H}
 - Finite vs. Infinite
 - Finite $\rightarrow |\mathcal{H}| < \infty$
 - Infinite $\rightarrow |\mathcal{H}| = \infty$

Theorem 1: Finite, Realizable Case

- Consider a finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H} s.t. $c^* \in \mathcal{H}$ and arbitrary distribution p^* . If the number of labelled training data points (sampled i.i.d from p^*) satisfies

$$M \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\ln(|\mathcal{H}|) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right)$$

then with probability at least $1 - \delta$, all $h \in \mathcal{H}$ with $\hat{R}(h) = 0$ have $R(h) \leq \epsilon$.

Proof of Theorem 1: Finite, Realizable Case

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- Making the bound tight (setting the two sides equal to each other) and solving for ϵ gives...

Statistical Learning Theory Corollary

- For a finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H} s.t. $c^* \in \mathcal{H}$ and arbitrary distribution p^* , given a training data set S s.t. $|S| = M$, all $h \in \mathcal{H}$ with $\hat{R}(h) = 0$ have

$$R(h) \leq \frac{1}{M} \left(\ln(|\mathcal{H}|) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right)$$

with probability at least $1 - \delta$.

Theorem 2: Finite, Agnostic Case

- For a finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H} and arbitrary distribution p^* , if the number of labelled training data points satisfies

$$M \geq \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \left(\ln(|\mathcal{H}|) + \ln\left(\frac{2}{\delta}\right) \right)$$

then with probability at least $1 - \delta$, all $h \in \mathcal{H}$ satisfy

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

- Bound is inversely quadratic in ϵ , e.g., halving ϵ means we need four times as many labelled training data points
- Again, making the bound tight and solving for ϵ gives...

Statistical Learning Theory Corollary

- For a finite hypothesis set \mathcal{H} and arbitrary distribution p^* , given a training data set S s.t. $|S| = M$, all $h \in \mathcal{H}$ have

$$R(h) \leq \hat{R}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2M} \left(\ln(|\mathcal{H}|) + \ln\left(\frac{2}{\delta}\right) \right)}$$

with probability at least $1 - \delta$.

What
happens
when
 $|\mathcal{H}| = \infty$?

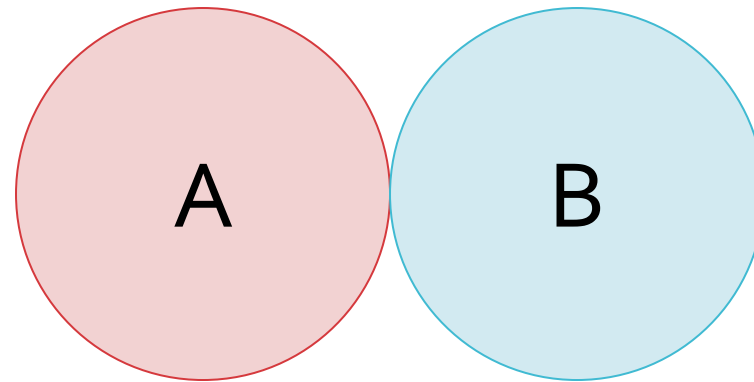
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with probability at least $1 - \delta$.

The Union Bound...

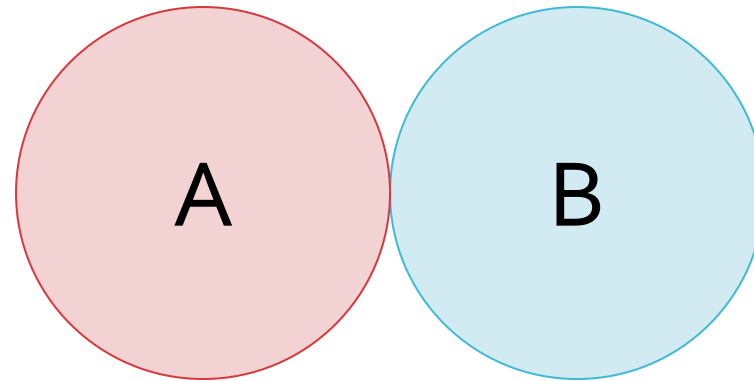
$$P\{A \cup B\} \leq P\{A\} + P\{B\}$$



The Union Bound is Bad!

$$P\{A \cup B\} \leq P\{A\} + P\{B\}$$

$$P\{A \cup B\} = P\{A\} + P\{B\} - P\{A \cap B\}$$

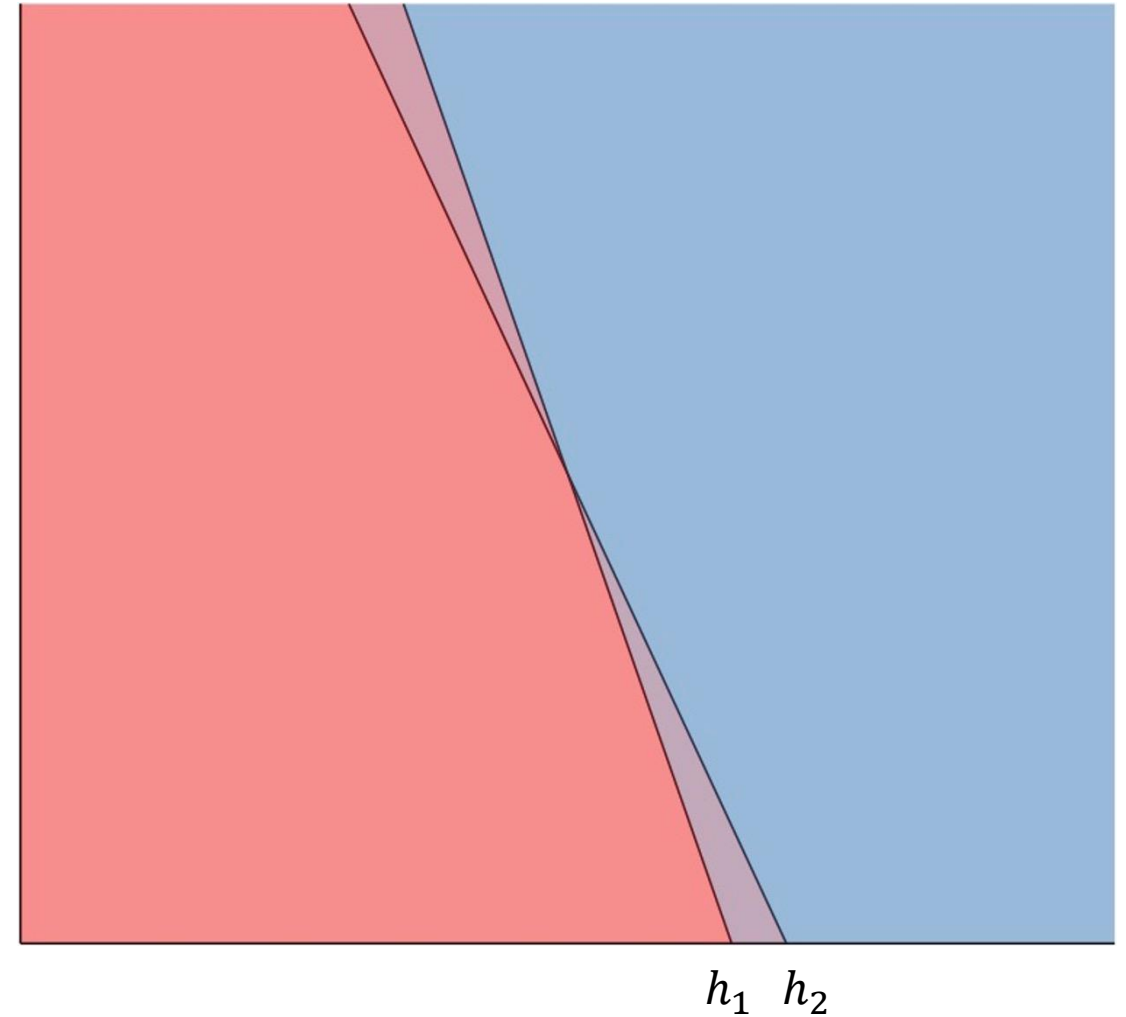


Intuition

If two hypotheses $h_1, h_2 \in \mathcal{H}$ are very similar, then the events

- “ h_1 is consistent with the first m training data points”
- “ h_2 is consistent with the first m training data points”

will overlap a lot!

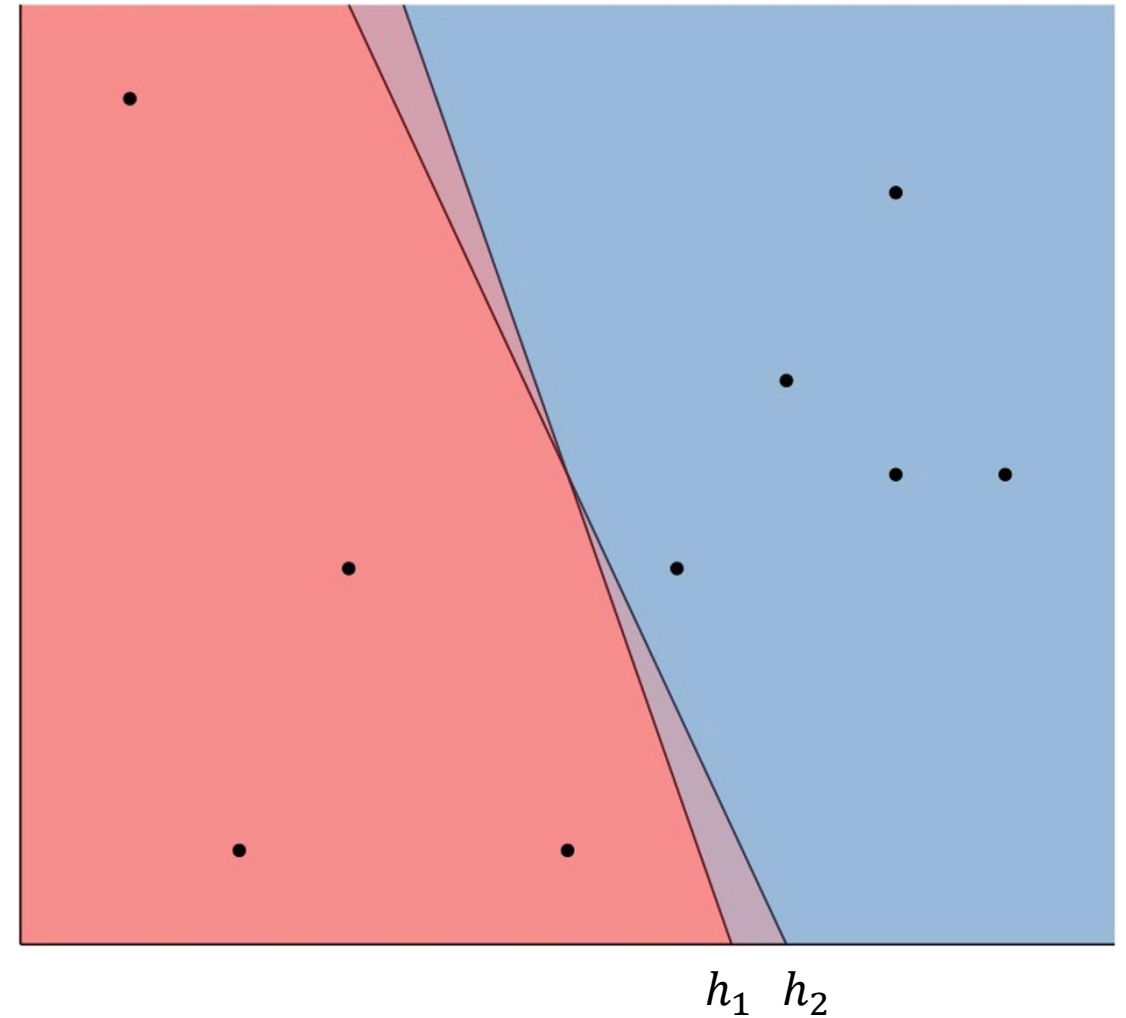


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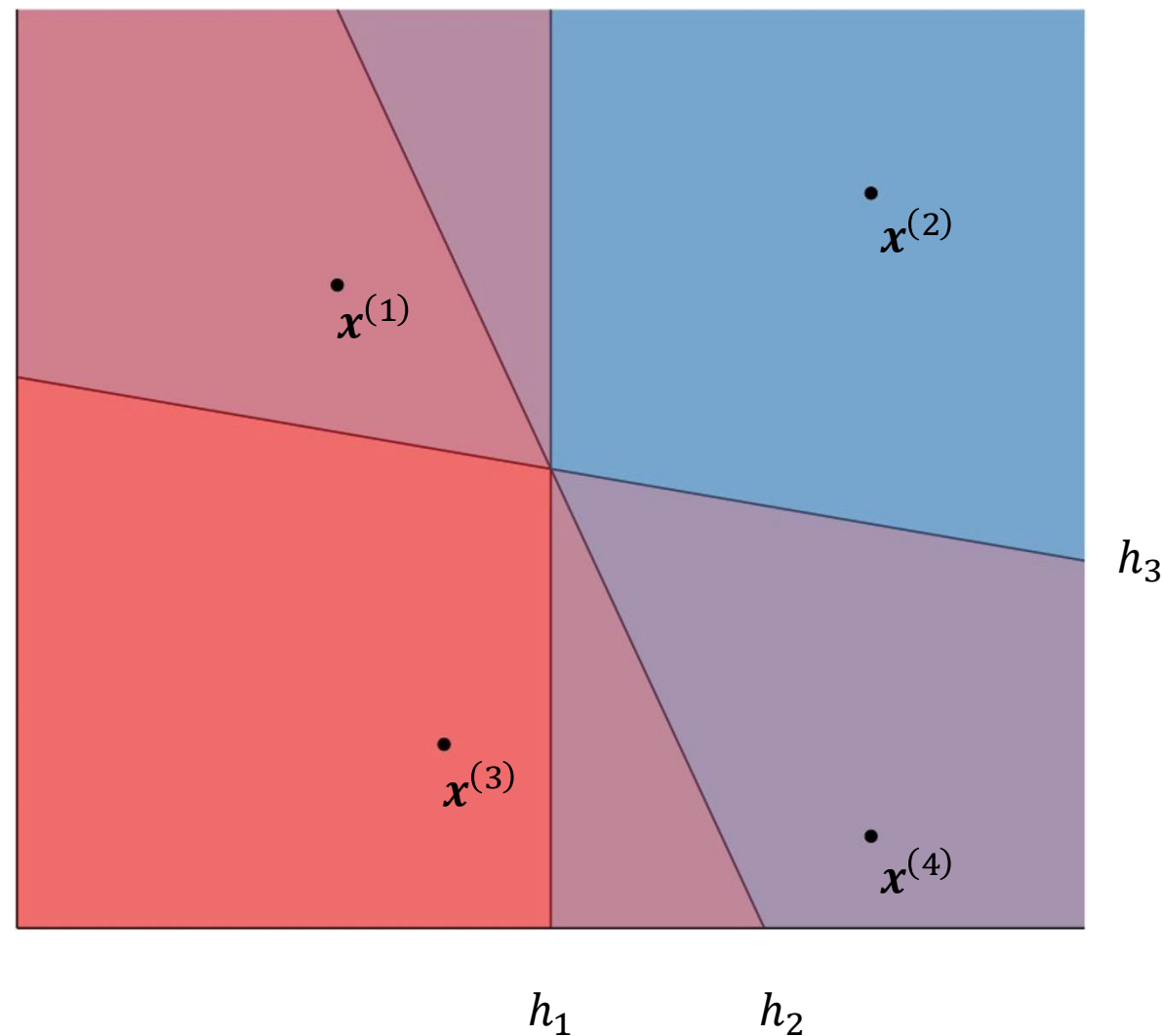


Labellings

- Given some finite set of data points $S = (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(M)})$ and some hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$, applying h to each point in S results in a labelling
 - $(h(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), \dots, h(\mathbf{x}^{(M)}))$ is a vector of M +1's and -1's
- Insight: given $S = (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(M)})$, each hypothesis in \mathcal{H} induces a labelling *but not necessarily a unique labelling*
 - The set of labellings induced by \mathcal{H} on S is
$$\mathcal{H}(S) = \left\{ \left(h(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), \dots, h(\mathbf{x}^{(M)}) \right) \mid h \in \mathcal{H} \right\}$$

Example: Labellings

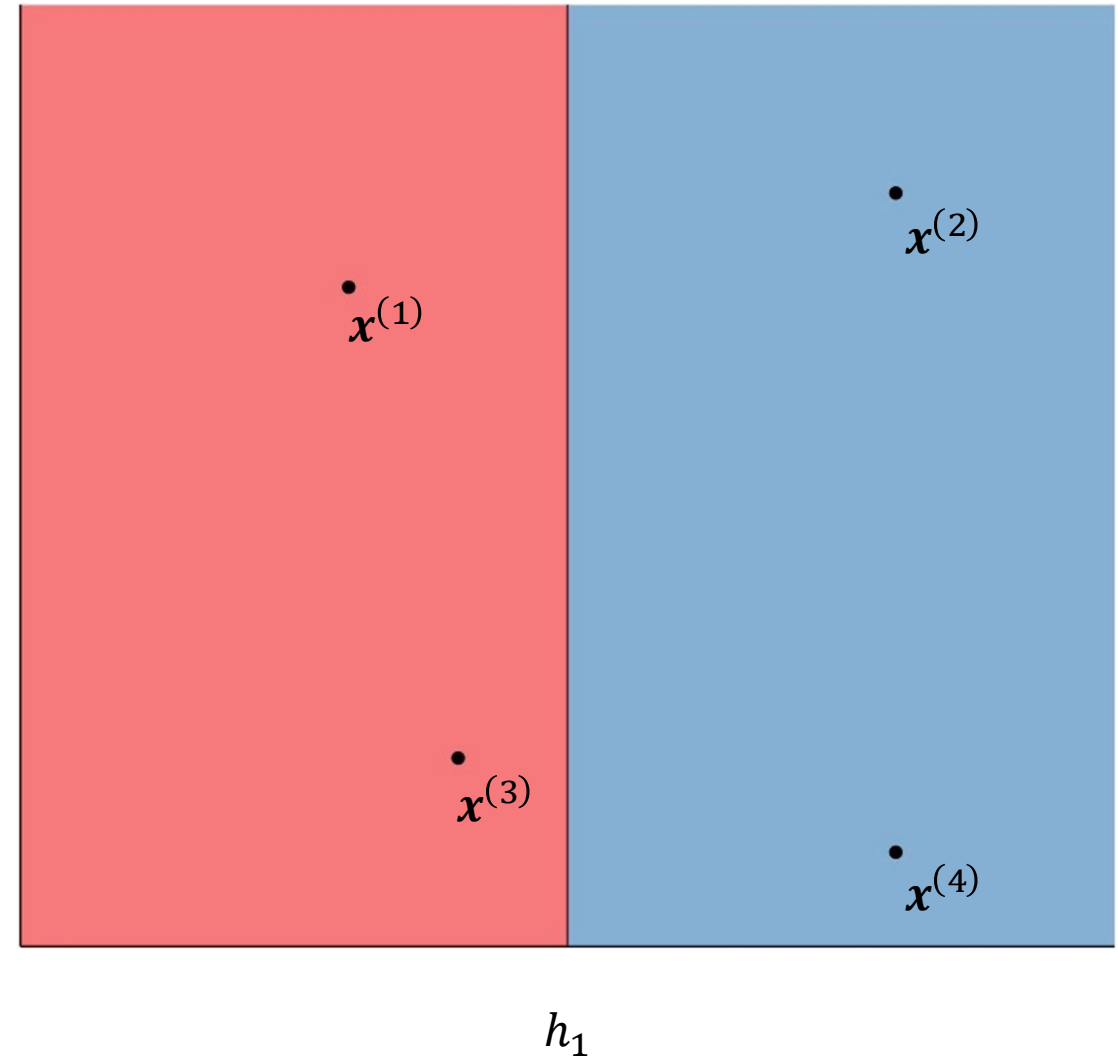
$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$



Example: Labellings

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$

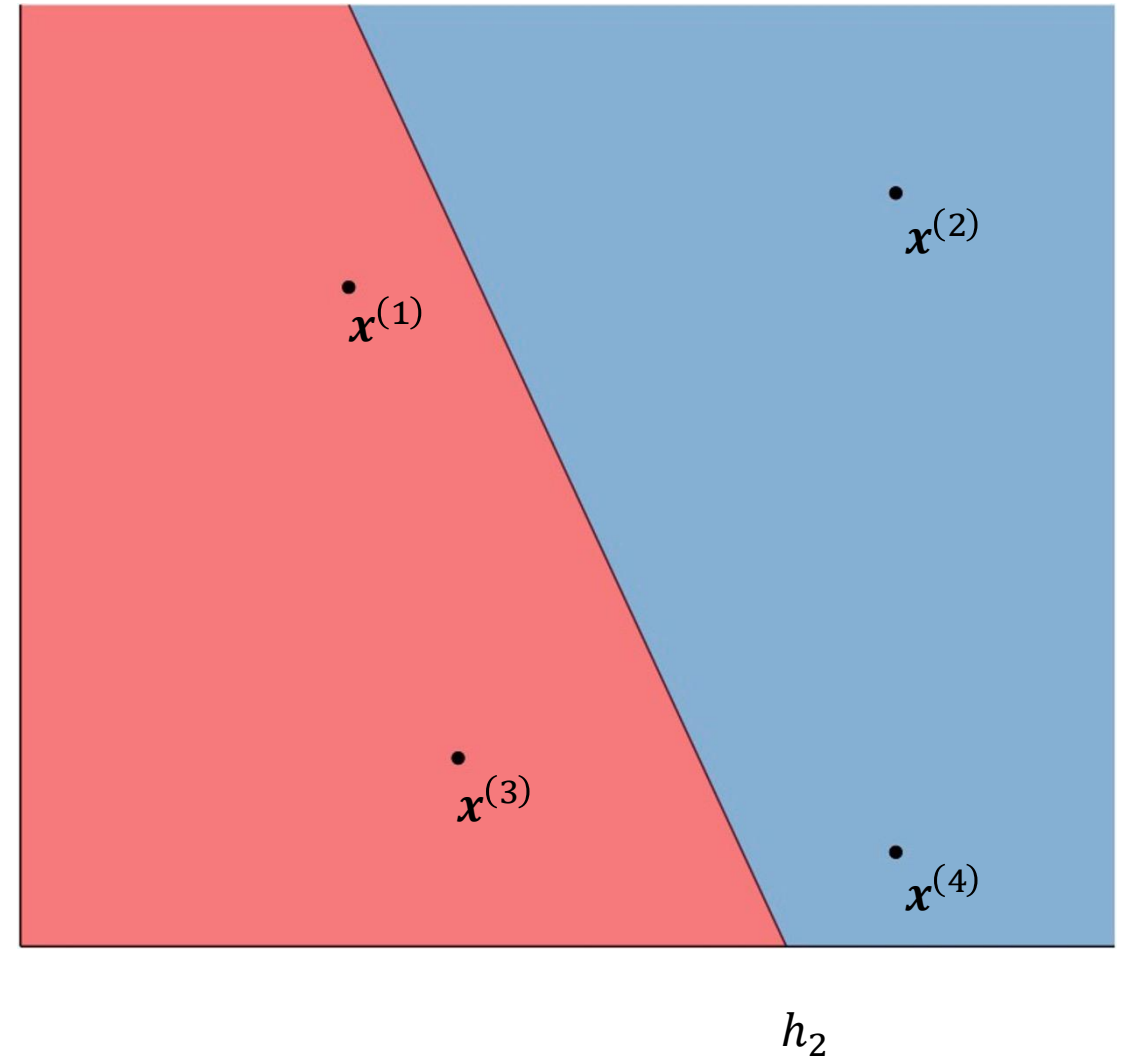
$$\begin{aligned} & \left(h_1(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), h_1(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}), h_1(\mathbf{x}^{(3)}), h_1(\mathbf{x}^{(4)}) \right) \\ &= (-1, +1, -1, +1) \end{aligned}$$



Example: Labellings

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$

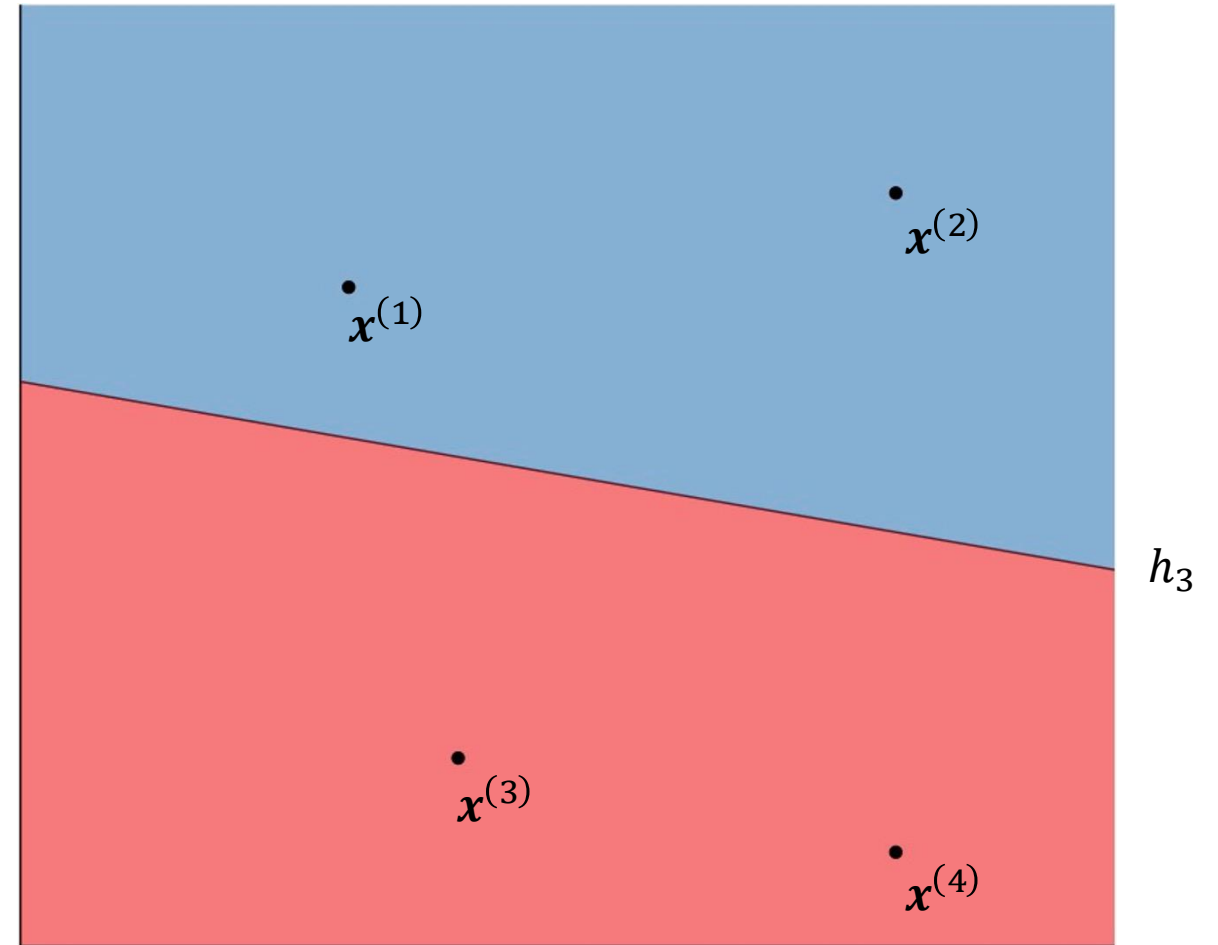
$$\begin{aligned} & \left(h_2(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), h_2(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}), h_2(\mathbf{x}^{(3)}), h_2(\mathbf{x}^{(4)}) \right) \\ &= (-1, +1, -1, +1) \end{aligned}$$



Example: Labellings

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(h_3(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), h_3(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}), h_3(\mathbf{x}^{(3)}), h_3(\mathbf{x}^{(4)}) \right) \\ &= (+1, +1, -1, -1) \end{aligned}$$

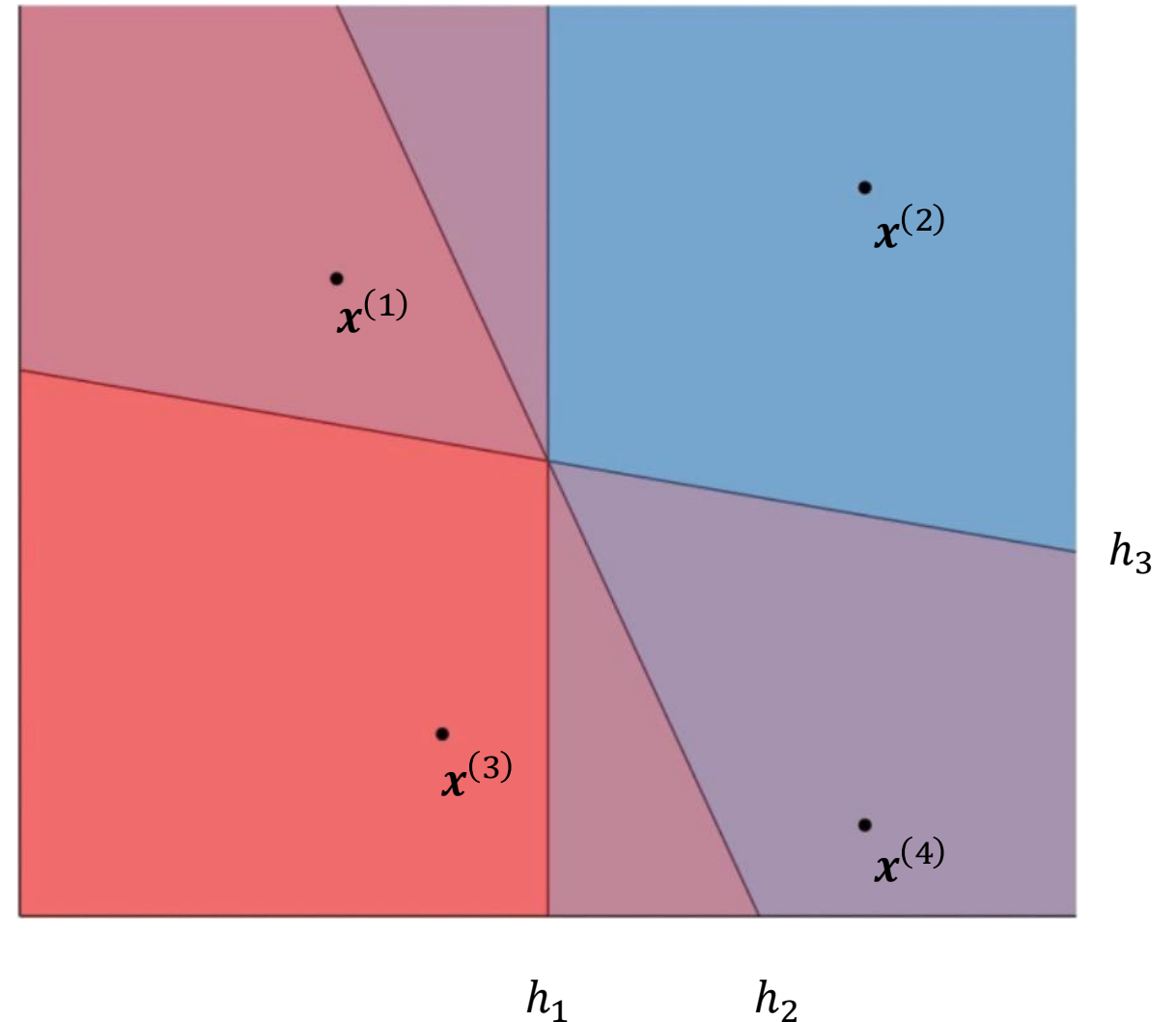


Example: Labellings

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$

$$\mathcal{H}(S) = \{(+1, +1, -1, -1), (-1, +1, -1, +1)\}$$

$$|\mathcal{H}(S)| = 2$$

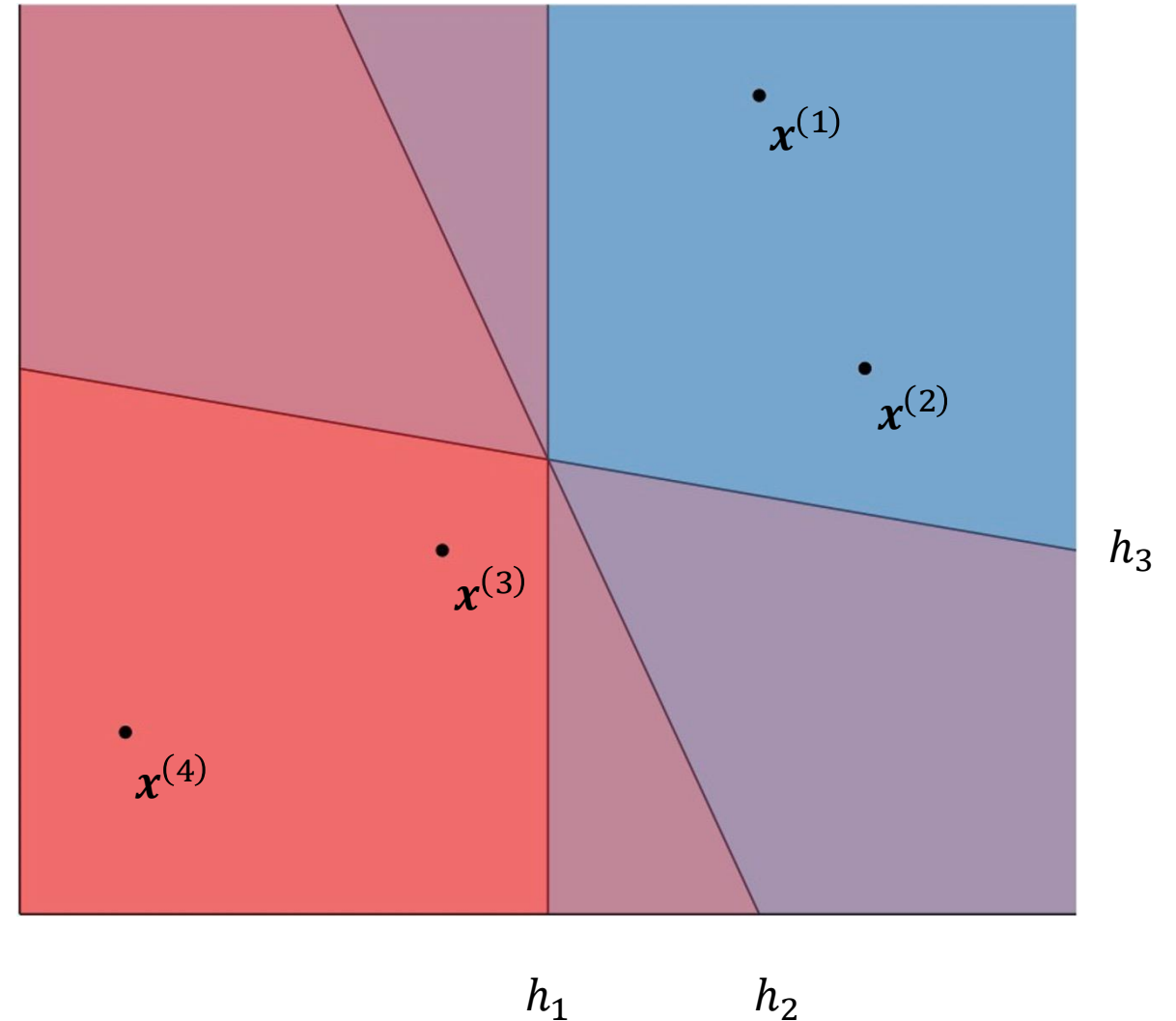


Example: Labellings

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$

$$\mathcal{H}(S) = \{(+1, +1, -1, -1)\}$$

$$|\mathcal{H}(S)| = 1$$



Key Takeaways

- Statistical learning theory model
- Expected vs. empirical risk of a hypothesis
- Four possible cases of interest
 - realizable vs. agnostic
 - finite vs. infinite
- Sample complexity bounds and statistical learning theory corollaries for finite hypothesis sets