

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

# Recall: What is ~~Machine~~ Learning 10-701?

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- **Learning Theory**
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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)

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

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{1}\left(c^*(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}) \neq h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{1}\left(y^{(n)} \neq h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})\right)$$

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  $\epsilon$  (difference between expected and empirical risk) and  $\delta$  (probability of “failure”)

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

# 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  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$ .

# 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  $\epsilon$  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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$$\hat{R}(h) = 0 \text{ have } R(h) \leq \epsilon$$

- Making the bound tight (setting the two sides equal to each other) and solving for  $\epsilon$  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  $\epsilon$ , e.g., halving  $\epsilon$  means we need four times as many labelled training data points
- Again, making the bound tight and solving for  $\epsilon$  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 $|\mathcal{H}| = \infty$ ?

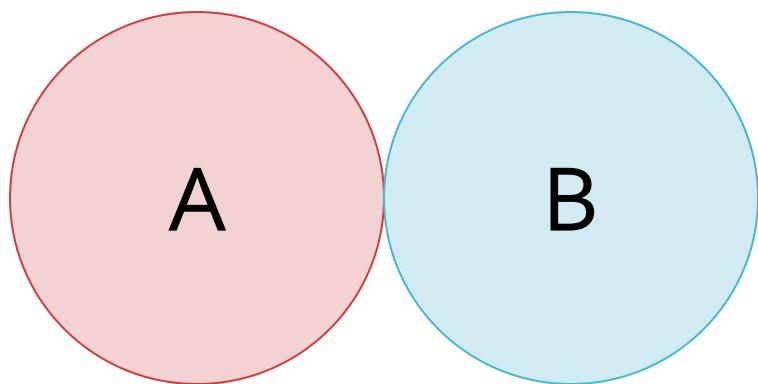
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# The Union Bound...

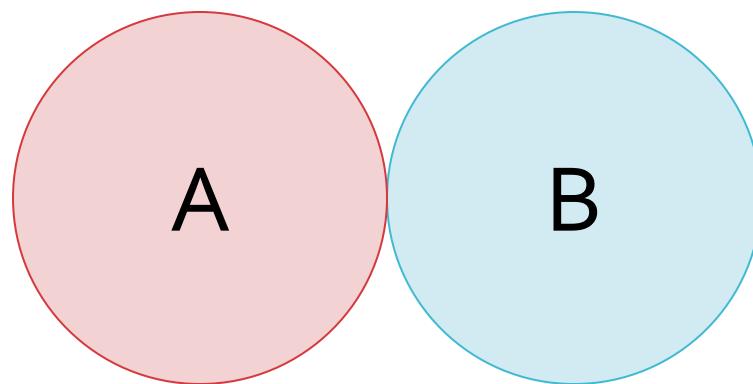
$$P\{A \cup B\} \leq P\{A\} + P\{B\}$$



# The Union Bound is Bad!

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

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

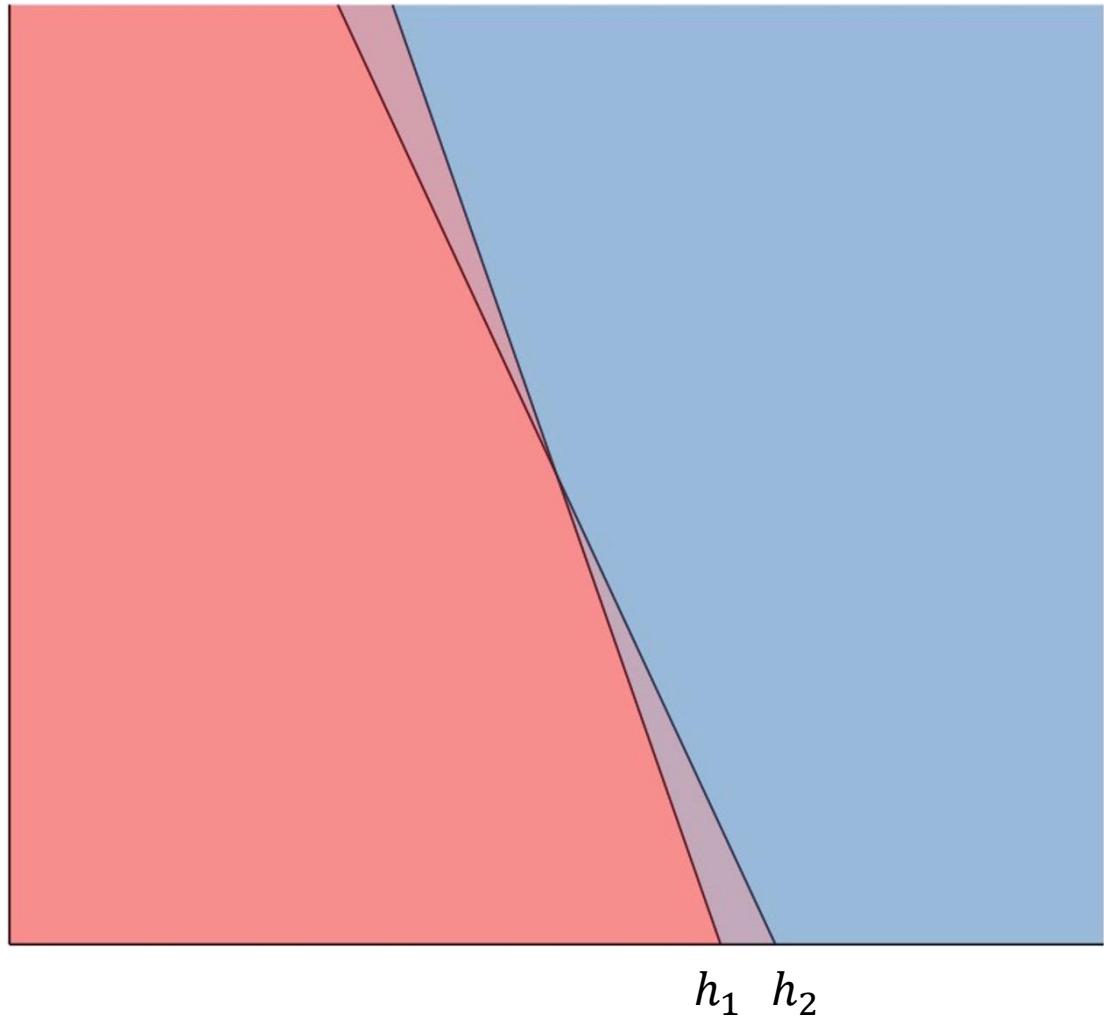


# Intuition

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!

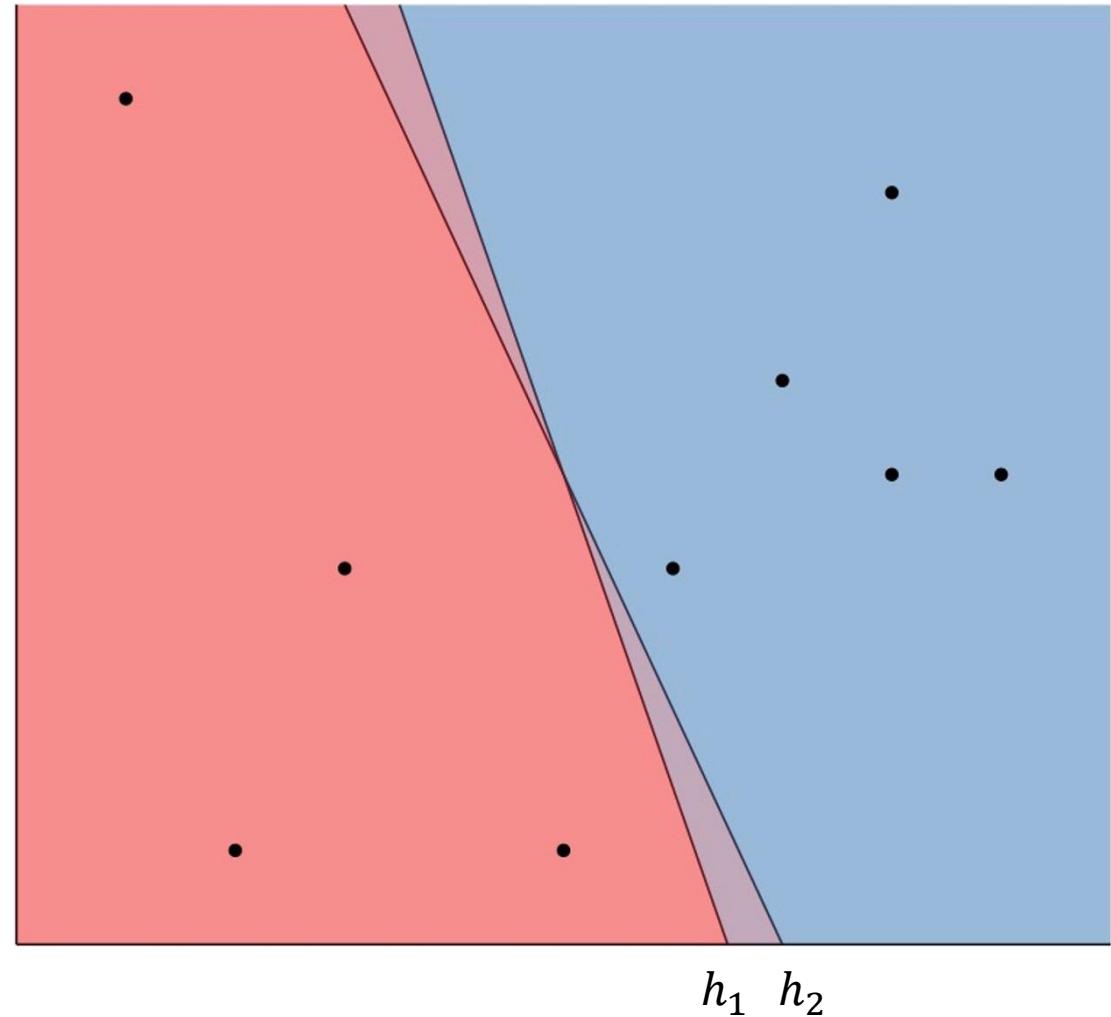


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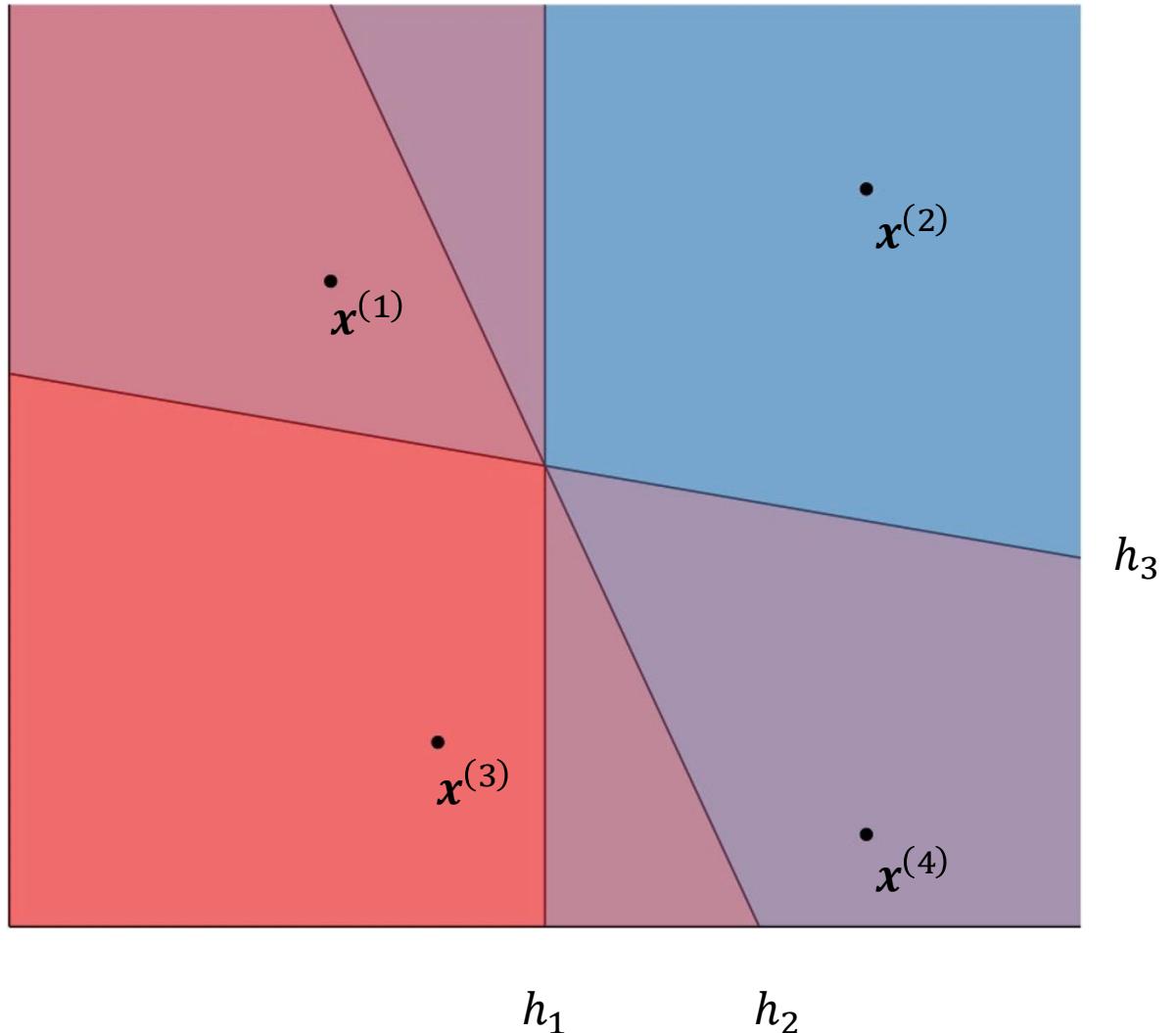


# Labellings

- 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
$$\mathcal{H}(S) = \{(h(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), \dots, h(\mathbf{x}^{(M)})) \mid h \in \mathcal{H}\}$$

## Example: Labellings

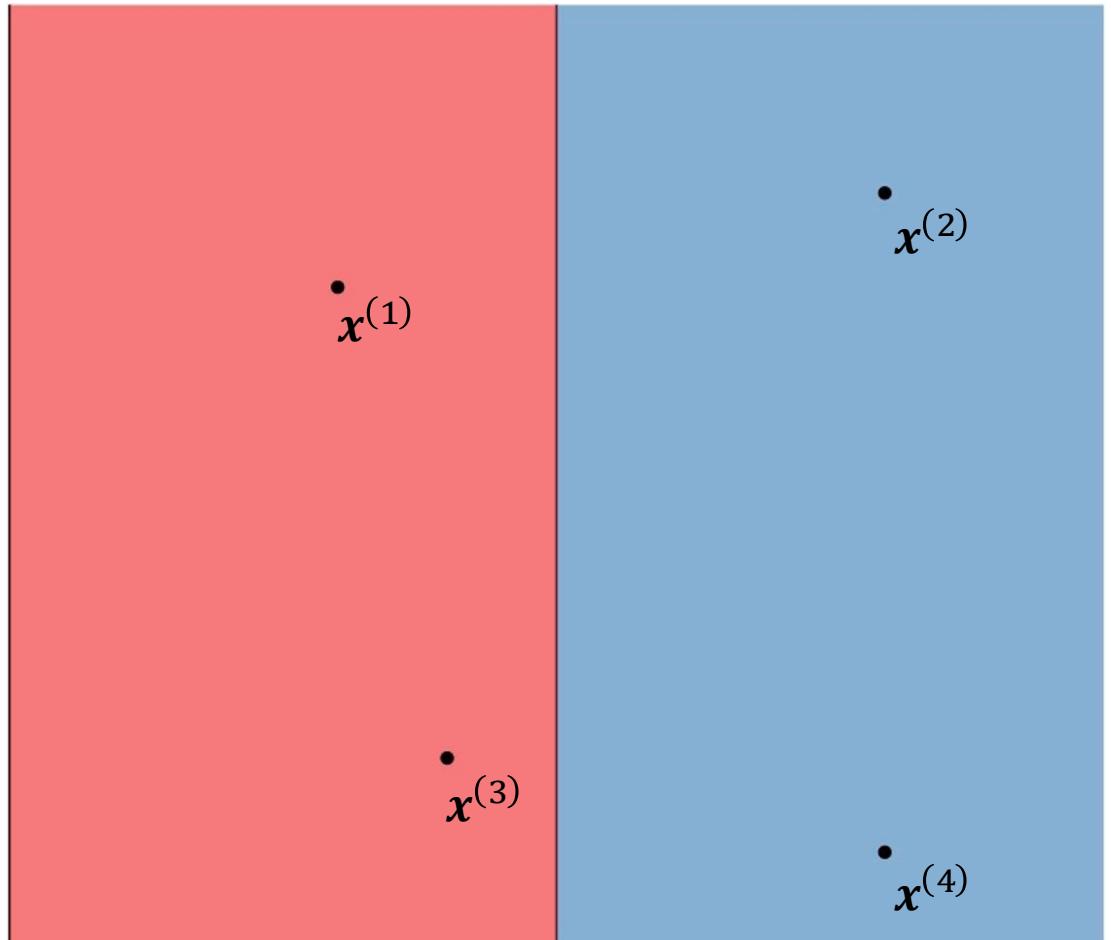
$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, h_2, h_3\}$$



## Example: Labellings

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

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

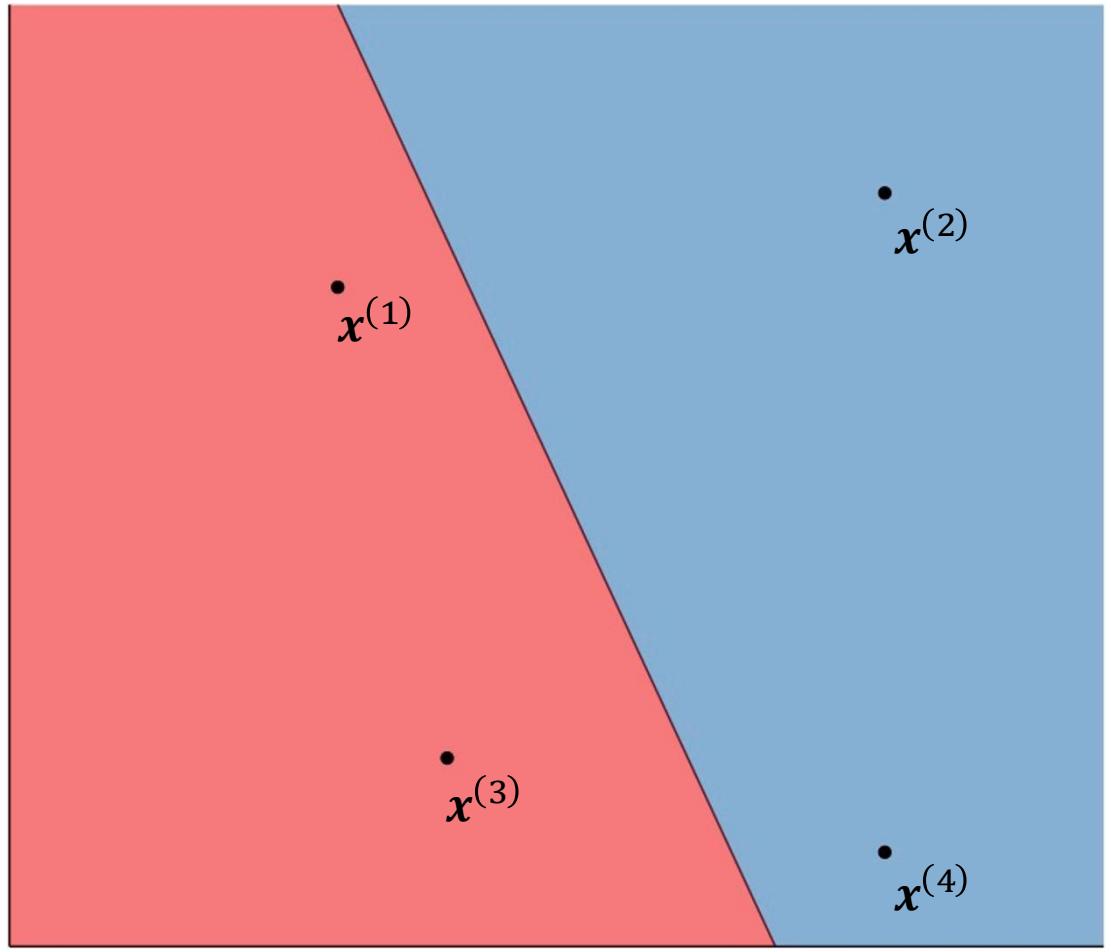


$h_1$

## Example: Labellings

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

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

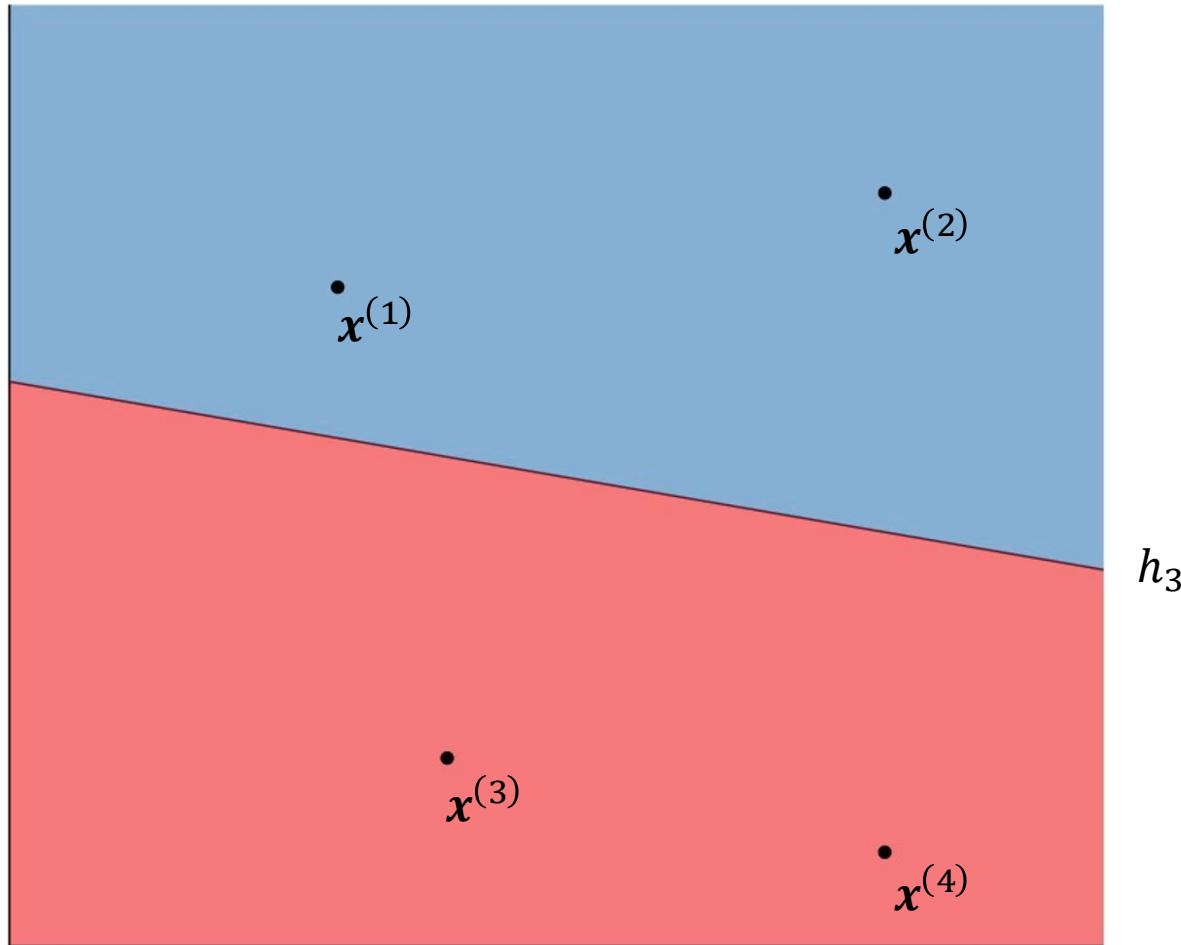


$h_2$

## Example: Labellings

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

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

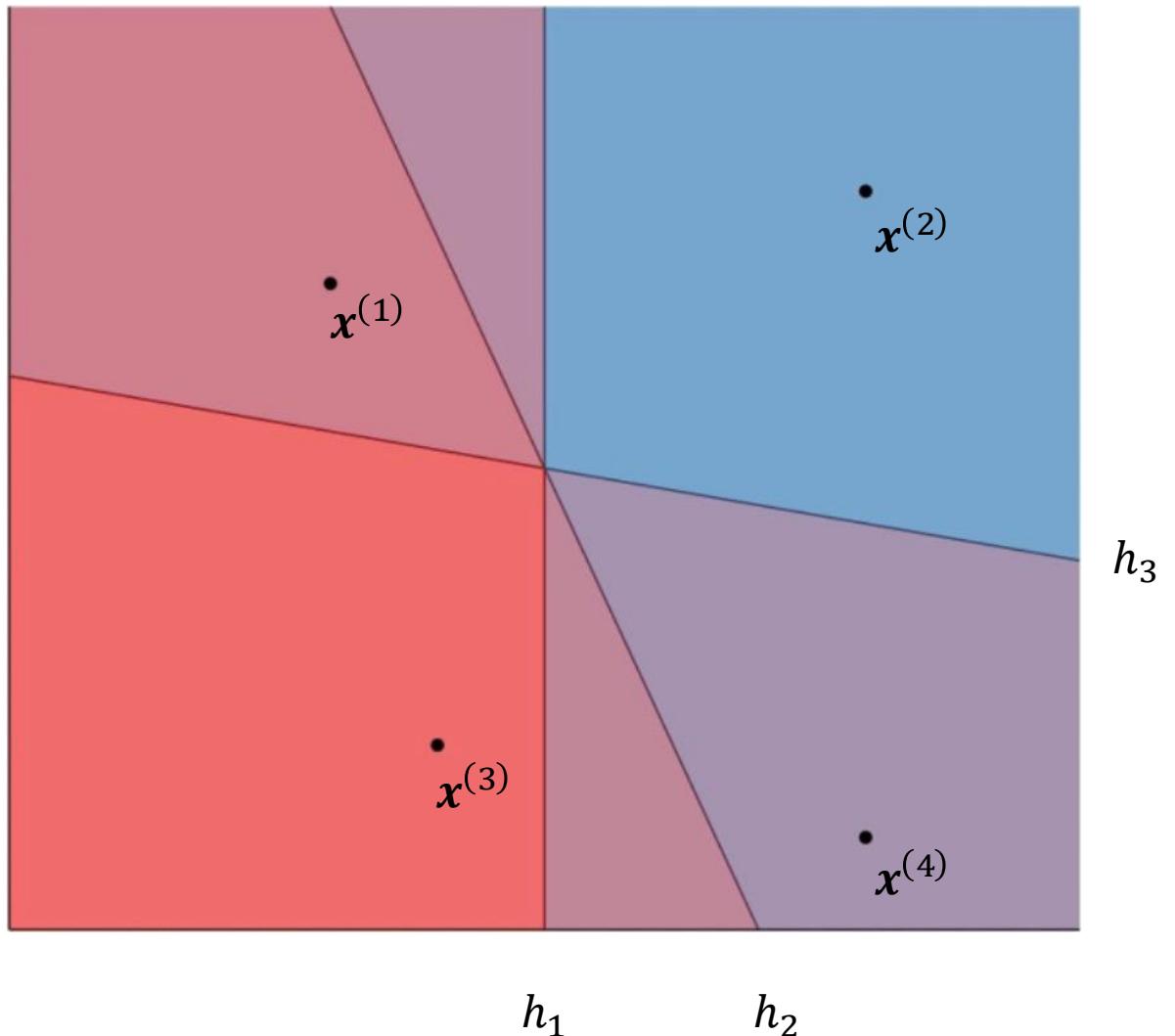


## Example: Labellings

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

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

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

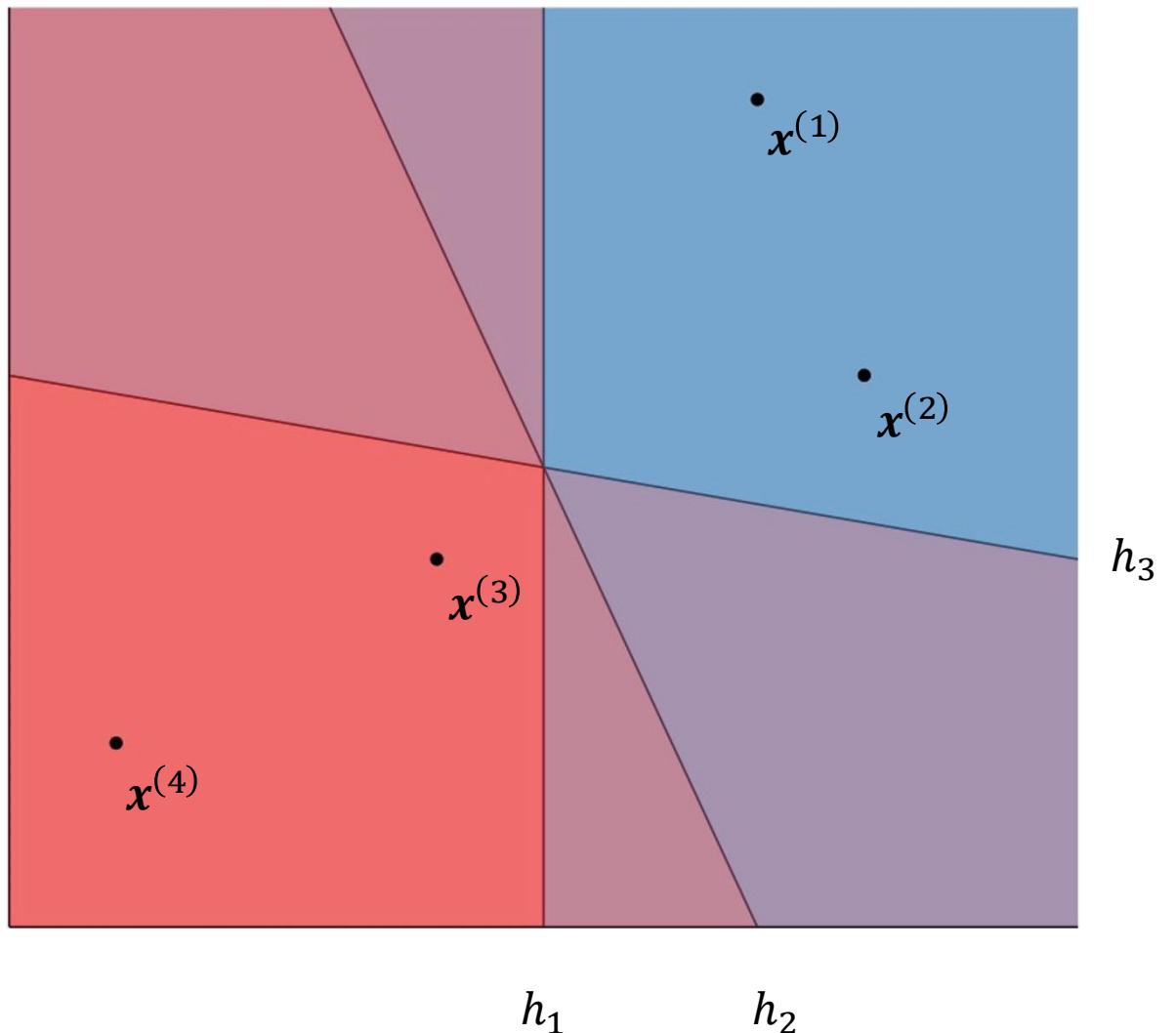


## Example: Labellings

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

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

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



# 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