



### From Complexity to Intelligence

**Machine Learning and Complexity** 





Introduction to Machine Learning What is Machine Learning?
A zoology of machine learning

Unsupervised Learning

MDL in Supervised Learning

Why does induction work in ML?

The no-free-lunch theorem

Reaching generalization

Conclusion



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# Introduction to Machine Learning What is Machine Learning?

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## A basic approach of learning

#### A definition (T. Mitchell, 1997)

A computer program is said to learn from experience  $\mathcal{E}$  with respect to some class of tasks  $\mathcal{T}$  and performance measure  $\mathcal{P}$ , if its performance at tasks in  $\mathcal{T}$ , as measured by  $\mathcal{P}$ , improves with experience  $\mathcal{E}$ .







### **Examples**

#### Handwriting recognition



- Task: recognize and label handwritten words in images
- Performance measure : percentage of words successfully labeled
- Experience : database of manually labeled handwritten words



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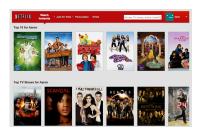


- Task: play checkers
- Performance measure : percentage of victories
- Experience : practice games against itself









- Task: recommend to any user videos he might like
- Performance measure : percentage of recommendation success
- Experience : list of videos liked by a set of users







- Input space : a set X
- **Output space**: a set  $\mathcal{Y}$
- Training data :  $\mathcal{D}_{S} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$
- **Decision function :** a function  $h: \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$

Knowing the data  $\mathcal{D}_S$ , the system aims at learning the function h.





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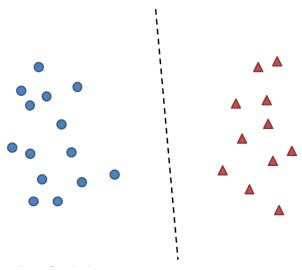


- In **Supervised Learning**, the labels  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  are given. The goal is to estimate a correct labelling function  $h: \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$ .
- In **Unsupervised Learning**, the labels are unknown. The purpose is to group *similar* points.
- In **Semi-Supervised Learning**, some labels are unknown. The purpose is to estimate a correct labelling function h, exploiting information brought by non labelled points.





**Supervised Learning** 





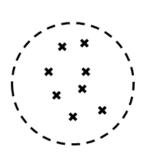








**Unsupervised Learning** 



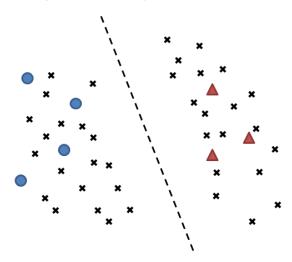








**Semi-Supervised Learning** 





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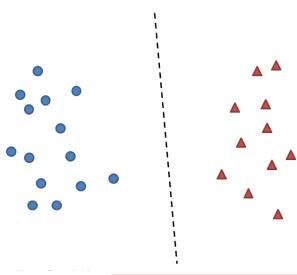
- In **classification**, the output set  $\mathcal{Y}$  is discrete (and finite).
- In **regression**, the output set  $\mathcal{Y}$  is continuous.





### **Classification vs Regression**

Classification







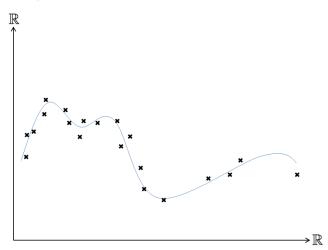






### **Classification vs Regression**

#### Regression







What is Machine Learning? A zoology of machine learning

#### **Unsupervised Learning**







## What is Unsupervised Learning?

#### Reminder

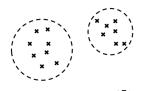
In Unsupervised Learning, the learner receives unlabeled input data and aims at *finding a structure* for these data.

#### Tasks in Unsupervised Learning

- Clustering : grouping a set of objects such that similar objects end up in the same group and dissimilar objects are separated into different groups.
- Anomaly detection: identifying objects which do not conform to the global behavior.



## 



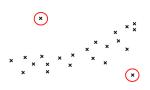
**Basic idea:** Points which are close are similar: Points which are far are dissimilar.

#### **Applications:**

- Marketing: detect groups of users with similar behaviors
- Medicine: detect mutations of a virus
- Visualization: find similar land-use on a satellite picture







**Basic idea :** Find a general rule describing data and isolate points which do not obey this rule.

#### Applications:

- Fraud detection
- Networks: intrusion detection, event detection...





## ■選択 Unsupervised learning = Compression

#### Idea

In both Clustering and Anomaly Detection, the problem is to find regularities / structure.

Finding structure = Compressing the description of data

Hence, Unsupervised Learning = Compression

Besides, unsupervised learning is just a redescription of data, so is not directly a problem of induction.









### Compression in Clustering

Prototype models

#### K-Means algorithm

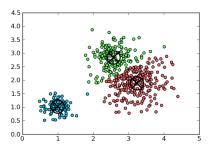
**Inputs :** Dataset  $X = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ ; Number of clusters k**Initialization :** Randomly choose initial centroids  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_k$ Repeat until convergence:

- For all  $i \le k$ , set  $C_i = \{x \in X; i = \operatorname{argmin}_i ||x \mu_i||\}$
- For all  $i \le k$ , update  $\mu_i = \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_{x \in C_i} x$









The data points are not described by their **absolute position** but by their **relative position to the closest prototype**.



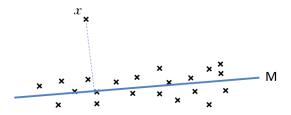




## ■選載WII Compression in Anomaly Detection

Applying MDL principle : find a model M minimizing C(M) + C(D|M)

x is an anomaly if  $C(x|M) \approx C(x)$ 







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## **超影響** A well-known principle : Bayesianism

Bayesianism is based on Bayes rule:

$$P(M|D) = \frac{P(M) \times P(D|M)}{P(D)}$$

Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) :

$$\widehat{h}_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_h \{P(h|D) \times P(h)\}$$

Maximum Likelihood (ML):

$$\hat{h}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_h P(D|h)$$







#### Minimum Description Length Principle One more time!

#### **MDL** Principle

The best theory to describe observed data is the one which minimizes the sum of the description length (in bits) of :

- the theory description
- the data encoded from the theory

$$\hat{h} = \operatorname{argmin}_h K(h) + K(D|h)$$

or

$$\hat{h} = \operatorname{argmin}_h \quad C(h) + C(D|h)$$





Using the prefix complexity K, MDL principle is equivalent to Bayes rule :

$$K(h) + K(D|h) = -\log P(h) - \log P(D|h)$$

Thus:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_h\{K(h)+K(D|h)\}=\operatorname{argmax}_h\{\log P(h)+\log P(D|h)\}$$



# Model selection : penalization







## An even more general principle!

$$K(M) + K(X|M) + K(\beta|X,M) + K(Y|\beta,X,M)$$







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## **一選題間** A probabilistic notation

- Suppose that data  $(X, Y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$  are generated according to a probability distribution  $\mathbb{P}_{X\times Y}$ .
- Consider a loss function  $I: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  which quantifies the "cost" of misclassification
- We define the risk of a classifier  $h: \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$  as :

$$R(h) = \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} I(h(x), y) d\mathbb{P}_{X \times Y}(x, y)$$

**Question:** can we find an algorithm which will *always* infer good hypotheses?







#### The no-free-lunch theorem Wolpert's answer



No!









### The no-free-lunch theorem

[Wolpert, 1996]

For any two learning algorithms  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  with posterior distributions  $p_1(h|S)$  and  $p_2(h|S)$  (where S is a data set), for any distribution  $\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{X}}$  of data and for any number m of data, the following propositions are true:

- 1. In uniform average over all target functions  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ :  $\mathbb{E}_1[R|f,m] - \mathbb{E}_2[R|f,m] = 0$
- 2. For any given learning set S, in uniform average over all target functions  $f \in \mathcal{F} : \mathbb{E}_1[R|f,\mathcal{S}] - \mathbb{E}_2[R|f,\mathcal{S}] = 0$
- 3. In uniform average over all possible distributions P(f):  $\mathbb{E}_1[R|f] - \mathbb{E}_2[R|f] = 0$
- 4. For any given learning set S, in uniform average over all possible distributions P(f):  $\mathbb{E}_1[R|\mathcal{S}] - \mathbb{E}_2[R|\mathcal{S}] = 0$







# The no-free-lunch theorem [Wolpert, 1996]

#### Consequences of the no-free-lunch theorem

- A "good" classification algorithm will have **in average** the same performance as a "bad" classification algorithm (*average over the space of problems*) if all target functions *f* are equiprobable.
- For any region of the space of problems where an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is good, there exists a region where  $\mathcal{A}$  is bad.

























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# Reminder : the ERM principle

Given a loss function  $I: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  and a classifier h, we can define :

 $\blacksquare$  The risk of h:

$$R(h) = \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} I(h(x), y) d\mathbb{P}_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

The empirical risk of h:

$$\widehat{R_n}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(h(x_i), y_i)$$

**ERM** principle :  $\widehat{h} = \arg \min_{h} \widehat{R_n}(h)$ 

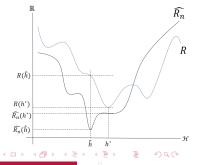
# ■ 多数 Is ERM legit?

1. Is the hypothesis  $\hat{h}$  good in the real risk?

$$\widehat{R_n}(\widehat{h}) \stackrel{?}{\longleftrightarrow} R(\widehat{h})$$

2. Am I far from the real optimum  $(h^* = \arg \min_h R(h))$ ?

$$R(\widehat{h}) \stackrel{?}{\longleftrightarrow} R(h^*)$$



**Probabilities** help us answer these questions.

# **PAC learning**



Leslie Valiant (1949-...)

The purpose of PAC learning is to select with high probability (probably) a hypothesis with low generalization error (approximately correct).

PAC = Probably Approximately Correct

# ■ 多数 Is ERM legit?

Let's choose our hypothesis in a finite set  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then for all  $h \in \mathcal{H}, \delta \in [0, 1]$ :

$$P^{m}\left[R(h) \leq \widehat{R_{m}}(h) + \frac{\ln|\mathcal{H}| + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}}{m}\right] > 1 - \delta$$

### Oracle inequality:

For any  $\delta \in [0, 1]$ :

$$P^m \left\lceil R(\widehat{h_m}) \leq R(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{2}{n} \ln \left(\frac{2|\mathcal{H}|}{\delta}\right)} \right\rceil > 1 - \delta$$





## Is ERM legit?

#### What if the hypothesis space is infinite?



Vladimir Vapnik (1936-...)



Alexei Chervonenkis (1938-2014)





# Is ERM legit?

Step 3: What if the hypothesis space is infinite?

### Vapnik-Chervonenkis theory

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a Vapnik-Chervonenkis class. Then for any  $\delta \in [0, 1]$ :

$$P\left[R(\widehat{h_m}) \leq R(h^*) + 4\sqrt{\frac{2(V_{\mathcal{H}}\ln(m+1) + \ln 2)}{m}} + \sqrt{\frac{2\ln\frac{1}{\delta}}{m}}\right] > 1 - \delta$$

and:

$$P\left[|R(\widehat{h_m})-\widehat{R_n}(\widehat{h})|\leq 2\sqrt{\frac{2(V_{\mathcal{H}}\ln(m+1)+\ln 2)}{m}}+\sqrt{\frac{\ln\frac{1}{\delta}}{2m}}\right]>1-\delta$$





# ■ 終記聞 A similar result for MDL

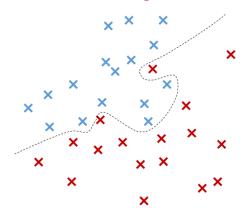
#### Theorem

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a hypothesis class and let  $d: \mathcal{H} \to \{0, 1\}^*$  be a prefix-free description language for  $\mathcal{H}$ . Then, for every sample size m, every confidence parameter  $\delta > 0$  and every probability distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ , with probability greater than  $1 - \delta$  over the choice of  $S \sim \mathcal{D}^m$ , we have that :

$$\forall h \in \mathcal{H}, L_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \leq L_{\mathcal{S}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{|h| + \ln(2/\delta)}{2m}}$$



# MDL and overfitting

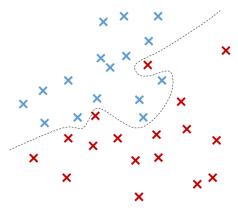








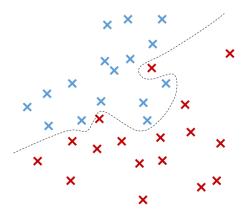




MDL naturally prevents overfitting!

15 novembre 2017





### MDL naturally prevents overfitting! But was it intended ... ?







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Isn't this question of generalization already answered by PAC learning, VC theory etc...?







Isn't this question of generalization already answered by PAC learning, VC theory etc...?

#### Yes and no!

These theories are valid only for the limit case of i.i.d. data **and i.i.d. questions** 





- 1. The learner is not indifferent to the future question : the *priors* over the future are my only guarantee of generalization?
- 2. All previously encountered data, problems and knowledge have a maximal pertinence : Asymptotic results in statistical learning and Solomonoff's induction theories? Creation of knowledge by one-shot learning?





**Back to Analogy Reasoning** 

 $\mathbf{ABC} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{ABD}$  $\mathbf{IJK} \Longrightarrow ?$ 





$$\mathbf{ABC} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{ABD}$$
$$\mathbf{IJK} \Longrightarrow ?$$

The problem can be formulated with the machine learning notations:

$$X_{learn} \Longrightarrow Y_{learn}$$
  
 $X_{test} \Longrightarrow ?$ 

This problem has a name: transfer learning





**Transductive Learning** 

Solving a problem of interest, do not solve a more general (and therefore worse-posed) problem as an intermediate step. Try to get the answer that you really need but not a more general one.

- Do not estimate a density if you need to estimate a function. (Do not use classical generative models; use ML predictive models.)
- Do not estimate a function if you need to estimate values at given points. (Try to perform transduction, not induction)
- Do not estimate predictive values if your goal is to act well. (A good strategy of action can rely just on good selective inference.)

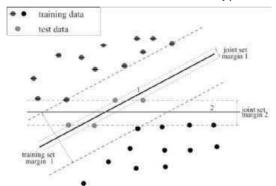






#### **Transductive Learning**

#### Transduction = Transfer with i.i.d. hypothesis





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An equation (with familiar terms...)

$$C(M_S) + C(X_S|M_S) + C(\beta_S|M_S, X_S) + C(Y_S|M_S, X_S, \beta_S) + C(M_T|M_S) + C(X_T|M_T)$$





An equation (with familiar terms...)

$$C(M_S) + C(X_S|M_S) + C(\beta_S|M_S, X_S) + C(Y_S|M_S, X_S, \beta_S) + C(M_T|M_S) + C(X_T|M_T)$$

- $\blacksquare$  C(M): prior
- C(X|M) : likelihood
- lacksquare C(Y|M,X,eta) : risk
- lacksquare  $C(M_T|M_S)$ : transfer term (related to a prior?)





### From particular to general

An intimidating gap

In many problems, I don't know the future test data! Transduction is not possible... And our equation is not valid anymore...

- What does it mean to generalize well from a complexity point of view?
- Is it enough to write that  $X_T = \langle \rangle$ ?
- Our equation seems still valid (the individual terms are used in classical inductive principles.)







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- Induction is definitely not a simple problem!
- Compression is closely related to learning
- The no-free-lunch theorem : no miracle classifier!
- MDL is hidden everywhere in Machine Learning
- New principles are necessary to formalize the transition from the particular to the general





- Induction is **definitely not** a simple problem!
- Compression is closely related to learning
- The no-free-lunch theorem : no miracle classifier!
- MDL is hidden everywhere in Machine Learning
- New principles are necessary to formalize the transition from the particular to the general

#### But...

- Most of these questions are never addressed in ML courses
- Most people prefer focusing on algorithms
- Most people ignore that such problems exist









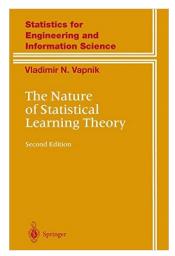








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