Learning Theory & Regularization

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Machine Learning

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Outline

1 Learning Theory

Point Estimation: Bias and Variance Consistency*

③ Decomposing Generalization Error

4 Regularization

- Weight Decay
- Validation

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1 Learning Theory

- Point Estimation: Bias and Variance
 Consistency*
- 3 Decomposing Generalization Error
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Which Polynomial Degree Is Better? I

• Given a training set $\mathbb{X} = \{(\pmb{x}^{(i)}, \pmb{y}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^N$ i.i.d. sampled from of P(x,y)

• Assume
$$P(x,y) = P(y \,|\, x) P(x)$$
 , where

•
$$P(x) \sim \text{Uniform}(-1, 1)$$

• $y = \sin(\pi x) + \varepsilon$, $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$



Which Polynomial Degree Is Better? II

• Consider 3 unregularized polynomial regressors of degrees P = 1, 3, and 10



• Which one would you pick?

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Which Polynomial Degree Is Better? II

• Consider 3 unregularized polynomial regressors of degrees P = 1, 3, and 10



- Which one would you pick? Probably not P = 1 nor P = 10
- Note that P = 10 has zero training error
 - Any N points can be perfectly fitted by a polynomial of degree N-1

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 In ML, we usually "learn" a function by minimizing the *empirical* error/risk defined over a training set of size N:

$$C_N(\mathbf{w})$$
 or $C_N[f] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \operatorname{loss}\left(f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{y}^{(i)}\right)$

• E.g.,
$$C_N(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(y^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \right)^2$$
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$$C(w)$$
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• Can be estimated by the *testing error* $C_{N'}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{N'} \sum_{i=1}^{N'} loss \left(f(\boldsymbol{x}'^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{w}), \boldsymbol{y}'^{(i)} \right) \text{ defined over the testing set}$ $\mathbb{X}' = \{ (\boldsymbol{x}'^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{y}'^{(i)}) \}_{i=1}^{N'}$

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• Does a low $C_N[f]$ implies low C[f]? No, as P = 10 indicates

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Theorem (No-Free-Lunch Theorem [4])

Averaged over all possible data generating distributions, every classification algorithm has the same error rate when classifying unseen points.

- No machine learning algorithm is better than any other universally
- The goal of ML is *not* to seek a universally good learning algorithm
- Instead, a good algorithm that performs well on data drawn from a particular P we care about

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- Learning theory: how to characterize

$$C[f_N] = \int \log(f_N(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}), y) d\mathbf{P}(\boldsymbol{x}, y)?$$

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- Bounding methods
- Decomposition methods

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- $\min_{f} C[f] = C[f^*]$ is called the *Bayes error*
 - Larger than 0 when there is randomness in P(y|x)
 - E.g., in our regression problem: $y = f^*(x; w) + \varepsilon$, $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$



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• So, our target is to make $C[f_N]$ as close to $C[f^*]$ as possible Shan-Hung Wu (CS, NTHU) Learning Theory & Regularization Machine L

Let *E* = C[f_N] − C[f^{*}] be the excess error
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- We can reduce \mathscr{E}_{app} by choosing a *more complex* \mathbb{F}
 - A complex ${\mathbb F}$ has a larger capacity
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- How to reduce \mathscr{E}_{est} ?

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• Bounds of \mathscr{E}_{est} for, e.g., binary classifiers [1, 2, 3]:

$$\mathscr{E}_{\mathsf{est}} = O\left[\left(\frac{\mathsf{Complexity}(\mathbb{F})\log N}{N}\right)^{\alpha}\right], \alpha \in \left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right], \text{ with high probability}$$

 $\bullet\,$ So, to reduce $\mathscr{E}_{\text{est}}\text{,}$ we should either have

- Simpler model (e.g., smaller polynomial degree P), or
- Larger training set

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• Too simple a model leads to high $\mathcal{E}_{\mathsf{app}}$

• Too complex a model leads to high \mathcal{E}_{est}



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- Too simple a model leads to high *E*_{app} due to *underfitting f_N* fails to capture the shape of *f*^{*}
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- Too simple a model leads to high *E*_{app} due to *underfitting*
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 - Low training error; high testing error



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 - I.e., the N required to learn a target function with specified generalizability
- Can be visualized using the *learning curves*
- Too small N results in overfit regardless of model complexity



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 - $\bullet~\mbox{Loss}$ function $\mbox{loss}(\cdot),$ and
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- Require knowledge about the *point estimation*

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Point Estimation: Bias and Variance Consistency*

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- How good are these estimators?

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• Bias of an estimator:

$$\operatorname{bias}(\hat{\theta}_n) = \operatorname{E}_{\mathbb{X}}(\hat{\theta}_n) - \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

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• Is $\hat{\mu}_x = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x^{(i)}$ an unbiased estimator of μ_x ? Yes [Homework]

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Is μ̂_x = 1/n Σ_ix⁽ⁱ⁾ an unbiased estimator of μ_x? Yes [Homework]
What much is Var_X(μ̂_x)?

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$Var_{\mathbb{X}}(\hat{\mu}) = E_{\mathbb{X}}[(\hat{\mu} - E_{\mathbb{X}}[\hat{\mu}])^2] = E[\hat{\mu}^2 - 2\hat{\mu}\mu + \mu^2] = E[\hat{\mu}^2] - \mu^2$

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• The variance of $\hat{\mu}_{\mathrm{x}}$ diminishes as $n
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• MSE of an unbiased estimator is its variance

Shan-Hung Wu (CS, NTHU)
Outline

1 Learning Theory

Point Estimation: Bias and Variance Consistency*

3 Decomposing Generalization Error

4 Regularization

- Weight Decay
- Validation

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• Strong consistent iff "converge almost surely"

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Law of Large Numbers

Theorem (Weak Law of Large Numbers)

The sample mean $\hat{\mu}_{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} x^{(i)}$ is a consistent estimator of μ_{x} , i.e., $\lim_{n\to\infty} \Pr(|\hat{\mu}_{x,n} - \mu_{x}| < \varepsilon) = 1$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$.

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Theorem (Strong Law of Large Numbers)

In addition, $\hat{\mu}_x$ is a strong consistent estimator: $Pr(\lim_{n\to\infty}\hat{\mu}_{x,n}=\mu_x)=1$.

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- To evaluate the estimator f_N , we consider the expected generalization error:

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• There's a simple decomposition of $E_{X,y}[loss(f_N(x) - y)|x]$ for linear/polynomial regression

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• In linear/polynomial regression, we have

- $loss(\cdot) = (\cdot)^2$ a squared loss
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- $y = f^*(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon$, $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, thus $E_y[y|\mathbf{x}] = f^*(\mathbf{x})$ and $Var_y[y|\mathbf{x}] = \sigma^2$

• We can decompose the mean square error:

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X},y} \left[\log(f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) - y) | \boldsymbol{x} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X},y} \left[(f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) - y)^{2} | \boldsymbol{x} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X},y} [y^{2} + f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x})^{2} - 2f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x})y | \boldsymbol{x}] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{y} [y^{2} | \boldsymbol{x}] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x})^{2} | \boldsymbol{x}] - 2\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X},y} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x})y | \boldsymbol{x}] \\ &= (\operatorname{Var}_{y} [y | \boldsymbol{x}] + \mathbb{E}_{y} [y | \boldsymbol{x}]^{2}) + (\operatorname{Var}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}]^{2}) \\ &- 2\mathbb{E}_{y} [y | \boldsymbol{x}] \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}_{y} [y | \boldsymbol{x}] + \operatorname{Var}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}] + (\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}] - \mathbb{E}_{y} [y | \boldsymbol{x}])^{2} \\ &= \operatorname{Var}_{y} [y | \boldsymbol{x}] + \operatorname{Var}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) - f^{*}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}]^{2} \\ &= \sigma^{2} + \operatorname{Var}_{\mathbb{X}} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}] + \operatorname{bias} [f_{N}(\boldsymbol{x}) | \boldsymbol{x}]^{2} \end{split}$$

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Bias-Variance Tradeoff I

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}}\left(C[f_{N}]\right) &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left(\mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X},\mathbf{y}}\left[\mathrm{loss}(f_{N}(\mathbf{x})-\mathbf{y})|\mathbf{x}\right]\right) \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left(\sigma^{2} + \mathrm{Var}_{\mathbb{X}}[f_{N}(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}] + \mathrm{bias}[f_{N}(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}]^{2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

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- ${\ensuremath{\, \circ }}$ The first term cannot be avoided when P(y|x) is stochastic
- Model complexity controls the tradeoff between variance and bias
- E.g., polynomial regressors (dotted line = average training error):



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Bias-Variance Tradeoff II

• Provides another way to understand the generalization/testing error



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- Too simple a model leads to high bias or underfitting
 - *High* training error; *high* testing error (given a sufficiently large N)



Bias-Variance Tradeoff II

- Provides another way to understand the generalization/testing error
- Too simple a model leads to high bias or underfitting
 - *High* training error; *high* testing error (given a sufficiently large N)
- Too complex a model leads to high variance or overfitting
 - Low training error; high testing error



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Outline

1 Learning Theory

Point Estimation: Bias and Variance Consistency*

3 Decomposing Generalization Error

4 Regularization

- Weight Decay
- Validation

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- Any idea inspired by the learning theory?
- Regularization in the cost function: weight decay
- Regularization during the training process: validation

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Point Estimation: Bias and Variance
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Panelizing Complex Functions

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Panelizing Complex Functions

- *Occam's razor*: among equal-performing models, the simplest one should be selected
- Idea: to add a term in the cost function that panelizes complex functions
- So, with sufficiently complex \mathbb{F} :
 - Minimizing the empirical error term reduces bias
 - Minimizing the penalty term reduces variance



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- But which w implies a complex model?

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- E.g., the *Ridge regression*:

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}\frac{1}{2}\|\boldsymbol{y}-(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{b}\boldsymbol{1})\|^2 \text{ subject to } \|\boldsymbol{w}\|^2 \leq T$$

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where $\alpha > 0$ is a constant representing both *T* and the KKT multiplier • What does a larger α means? We prefer a more simple function Shan-Hung Wu (CS, NTHU) Learning Theory & Regularization Machine Learning 34/44

Flat Regressors

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{b}}\frac{1}{2}\left(\|\boldsymbol{y}-(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{b}\boldsymbol{1})\|^2+\alpha\|\boldsymbol{w}\|^2\right)$$

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- However, the label y's may not be standardized to have zero mean
- This explains why we prefer a "flat" hyperplane in the previous lecture
- We have discussed how to solve the Ridge regression problem

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Sparse Weight Decay

- Alternatively we can minimizes the L^1 -norm in weight decay
- E.g., LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator):

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b}\frac{1}{2N}\|\boldsymbol{y}-(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{w}-b\boldsymbol{1})\|^2+\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_1$$

for some constant lpha > 0

Usually results in *sparse w* that has many zero attributes
Why?

Sparsity

$$\arg\min_{\boldsymbol{w},b}\frac{1}{2N}\|\boldsymbol{y}-(\boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{w}-b\boldsymbol{1})\|^2+\boldsymbol{\alpha}\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_1$$

- The surface of the cost function is the sum of SSE (blue contours) and 1-norm (red contours)
- Optimal point locates on some axes



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- *Elastic net* combines Ridge and LASSO:

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- Still gives a sparse w
- Highly correlated variables will have similar values in w

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- How to set appropriate values?
- Train a model many times with different hyperparameters, and choose the function with best generalizability
- Very time consuming, can we have heuristics to speed up the process?

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Structured Risk Minimization

- Consider again the Occam's razor
- *Structured risk minimization*: start from the simplest model, gradually increase its complexity, and stop when overfitting



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 - The final function will overfit the testing set
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- Fix? Split a *validation set* from the training set and use it for hyperparameter selection



Reference I

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