## Learning Theory & Regularization

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Machine Learning

#### Outline

- 1 Learning Theory
- 2 Point Estimation: Bias and Variance
  - Consistency\*
- 3 Decomposing Generalization Error
- 4 Regularization
  - Weight Decay
  - Validation

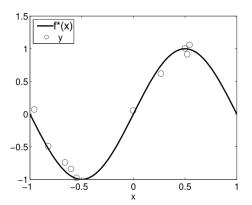
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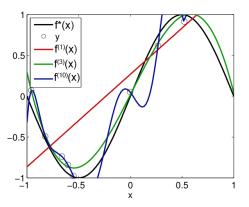
# Which Polynomial Degree Is Better? I

- Given a training set  $\mathbb{X} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{N}$  i.i.d. sampled from of P(x, y)
- Assume P(x,y) = P(y|x)P(x), where
  - $P(x) \sim Uniform(-1,1)$
  - $P(y|x) = \sin(\pi x) + \varepsilon$ ,  $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$



# Which Polynomial Degree Is Better? II

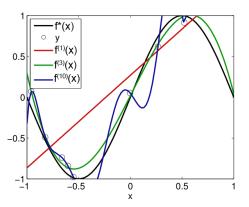
• Consider 3 unregularized polynomial regressors of degrees  $P=1,\ 3,$  and 10



• Which one would you pick?

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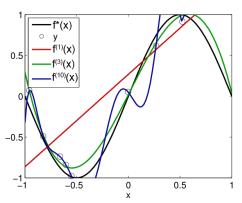
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# Which Polynomial Degree Is Better? II

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

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

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

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

• Why C[f] is defined over a **particular** data generating distribution P?

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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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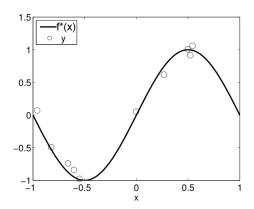
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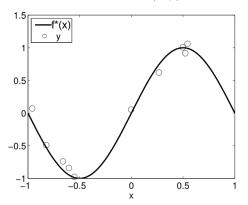
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- Bounding methods
- Decomposition methods

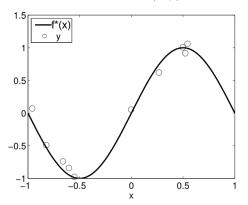
- $\min_f C[f] = C[f^*]$  is called the **Bayes error** 
  - $\bullet$  Larger than 0 when there is randomness in  $P(y \,|\, x)$
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• So, our target is to make  $C[f_N]$  as close to  $C[f^*]$  as possible

- Let  $\mathscr{E} = C[f_N] C[f^*]$  be the *excess error*
- We have

$$\mathscr{E} = \underbrace{C[f_{\mathbb{F}}^*] - C[f^*]}_{\mathscr{E}_{\mathsf{app}}} + \underbrace{C[f_N] - C[f_{\mathbb{F}}^*]}_{\mathscr{E}_{\mathsf{est}}}$$

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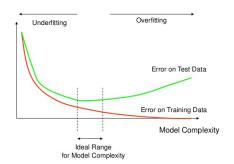
 $\bullet$  Bounds of  $\mathscr{E}_{\text{est}}$  for, e.g., binary classifiers [1, 2, 3]:

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

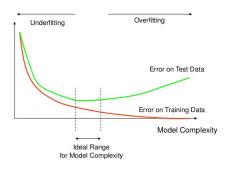
- So, to reduce  $\mathscr{E}_{\mathsf{est}}$ , we should either have
  - Simpler model (e.g., smaller polynomial degree P), or
  - Larger training set

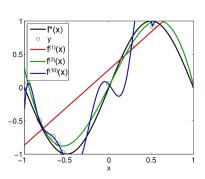
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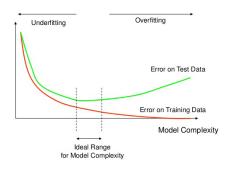


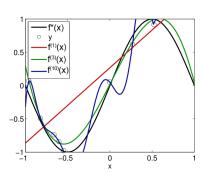
- Too simple a model leads to high  $\mathscr{E}_{\mathsf{app}}$  due to *underfitting*  $f_N$  fails to capture the shape of  $f^*$
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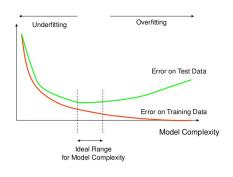


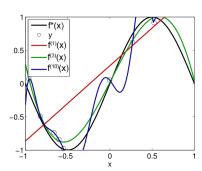
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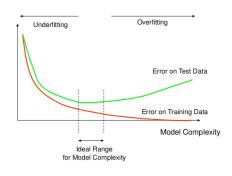


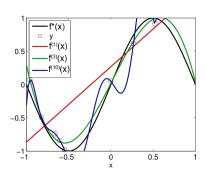
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  - Low training error; high testing error





# Sample Complexity and Learning Curves

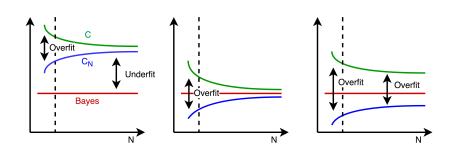
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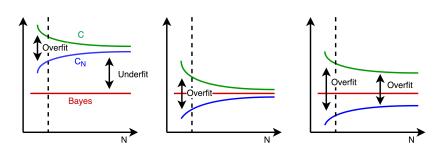
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- Can be visualized using the learning curves
- Too small N results in overfit regardless of model complexity



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- Require knowledge about the point estimation

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- How good are these estimators?

Bias of an estimator:

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- What much is  $Var_{\mathbb{X}}(\hat{\mu}_x)$ ?

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}_{\mathbb{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) &= \text{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} - \text{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}])^2] = \text{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^2 - 2\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^2] = \text{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^2] - \boldsymbol{\mu}^2 \\ &= \text{E}[\frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{i,j}x^{(i)}x^{(j)}] - \boldsymbol{\mu}^2 = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{i,j}\text{E}[x^{(i)}x^{(j)}] - \boldsymbol{\mu}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}_{\mathbb{X}}(\hat{\mu}) &= \operatorname{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[(\hat{\mu} - \operatorname{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[\hat{\mu}])^{2}] = \operatorname{E}[\hat{\mu}^{2} - 2\hat{\mu}\mu + \mu^{2}] = \operatorname{E}[\hat{\mu}^{2}] - \mu^{2} \\ &= \operatorname{E}\left[\frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i,j}x^{(i)}x^{(j)}\right] - \mu^{2} = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i,j}\operatorname{E}[x^{(i)}x^{(j)}] - \mu^{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^{2}}\left(\sum_{i=j}\operatorname{E}[x^{(i)}x^{(j)}] + \sum_{i\neq j}\operatorname{E}[x^{(i)}x^{(j)}]\right) - \mu^{2} \end{aligned}$$

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• The variance of  $\hat{\mu}_{\mathbf{x}}$  diminishes as  $n \to \infty$ 

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}] = \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}(x^{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{2}] = \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}x^{(i)2} - 2\sum_{i}x^{(i)}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \sum_{i}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2})]$$

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}] &= \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}(x^{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{2}] = \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}x^{(i)2} - 2\sum_{i}x^{(i)}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \sum_{i}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2})] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}x^{(i)2} - n\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2})] = \frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}\mathbf{E}[x^{(i)2}] - n\mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2}]) \end{split}$$

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• Is  $\hat{\sigma}_{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} (x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_{x})^{2}$  and an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma_{x}$ ? **No** 

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}] &= \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}(x^{(i)} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{2}] = \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}x^{(i)2} - 2\sum_{i}x^{(i)}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}} + \sum_{i}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2})] \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}x^{(i)2} - n\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2})] = \frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i}\mathbf{E}[x^{(i)2}] - n\mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2}]) \\ &= \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{x}^{2}] - \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2}] = \mathbf{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{2} + 2\mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{2}] - \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{2}] \\ &= (\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{2}) - (\mathbf{Var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}] + \mathbf{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}]^{2}) \\ &= \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{2} - \frac{1}{n}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2} - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{2} = \frac{n-1}{n}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2} \neq \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2} \end{split}$$

• What's the unbiased estimator of  $\sigma_x$ ?

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$$\hat{\sigma}_{x} = \frac{n}{n-1} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} (x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_{x})^{2} \right) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i} (x^{(i)} - \hat{\mu}_{x})^{2}$$

• Mean square error of an estimator:

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MSE of an unbiased estimator is its variance

### **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"

### 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  $\mu_x$ , 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:  $\Pr\left(\lim_{n\to\infty}\hat{\mu}_{x,n}=\mu_x\right)=1$ .

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- In ML, we get  $f_N = \arg\min_{f \in \mathbb{F}} C_N[f]$  by minimizing the empirical error over a training set of size N
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- Regard f<sub>N</sub>(x) as an estimate of true label y given x
   f<sub>N</sub> an estimator mapped from i.i.d. samples in the training set X
- To evaluate the estimator  $f_N$ , we consider the expected generalization error:

$$E_{\mathbb{X}}(C[f_N]) = E_{\mathbb{X}}[\int loss(f_N(\mathbf{x}) - y)dP(\mathbf{x}, y)]$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{X}}\left(C[f_{N}]\right) &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}}\left[\int \mathbf{loss}(f_{N}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})d\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\right] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}\left[\mathbf{loss}(f_{N}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})\right] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{x}}\left(\mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}, \mathbf{y}}\left[\mathbf{loss}(f_{N}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})|\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}\right]\right) \end{aligned}$$

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=  $E_{\mathbf{x}} \left( E_{\mathbb{X}, \mathbf{y}} \left[ loss(f_N(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}) | \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \right] \right)$ 

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

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

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• We can decompose the mean square error:

$$E_{X,y}[loss(f_N(x) - y)|x] = E_{X,y}[(f_N(x) - y)^2|x]$$
  
=  $E_{X,y}[y^2 + f_N(x)^2 - 2f_N(x)y|x]$ 

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X},\mathbf{y}} \left[ \log(f_N(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}) | \mathbf{x} \right] &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X},\mathbf{y}} \left[ (f_N(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})^2 | \mathbf{x} \right] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X},\mathbf{y}} \left[ \mathbf{y}^2 + f_N(\mathbf{x})^2 - 2f_N(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x} \right] \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{y}} \left[ \mathbf{y}^2 | \mathbf{x} \right] + \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X}} \left[ f_N(\mathbf{x})^2 | \mathbf{x} \right] - 2\mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{X},\mathbf{y}} \left[ f_N(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x} \right] \end{aligned}$$

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### Bias-Variance Tradeoff I

$$E_{\mathbb{X}}(C[f_N]) = E_{\mathbf{x}}(E_{\mathbb{X},\mathbf{y}}[loss(f_N(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})|\mathbf{x}])$$
  
=  $E_{\mathbf{x}}(\sigma^2 + Var_{\mathbb{X}}[f_N(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}] + bias[f_N(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x}]^2)$ 

### Bias-Variance Tradeoff I

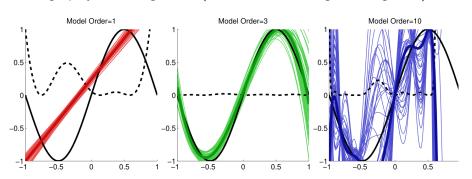
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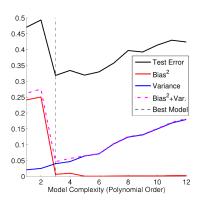
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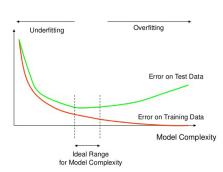
- The first term cannot be avoided when P(y|x) is stochastic
- Model complexity controls the tradeoff between variance and bias
- E.g., polynomial regressors (dotted line = average training error):



#### Bias-Variance Tradeoff II

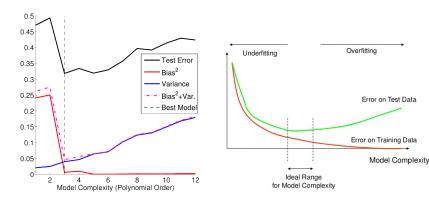
Provides another way to understand the generalization/testing error





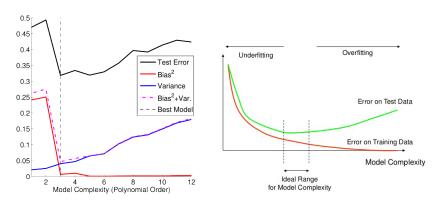
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  - High training error; high testing error (given a sufficiently large N)



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- 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



### **Outline**

- 1 Learning Theory
- 2 Point Estimation: Bias and Variance

  Consistency\*
- 3 Decomposing Generalization Error
- 4 Regularization
  - Weight Decay
  - Validation

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- Regularization in the cost function: weight decay
- Regularization during the training process: validation

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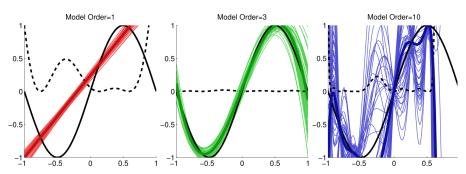
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### **Panelizing Complex Functions**

 Occam's razor: among equal-performing models, the simplest one should be selected

## **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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$$\arg\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - b\mathbf{1})\|^2 \text{ subject to } \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \le T$$

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ullet What does a larger lpha means? We prefer a more simple function

# Flat Regressors

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

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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

# Sparse Weight Decay

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

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

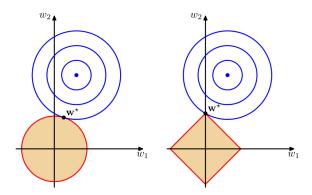
for some constant  $\alpha > 0$ 

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

# **Sparsity**

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

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

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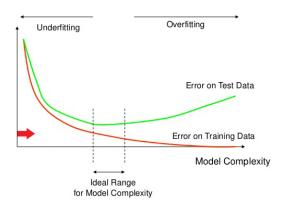
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- How to set appropriate values?
- Train a model many times with different hyperparameters, and choose the function with best generalizability
- Very time consuming, can we have heuristics to speed up the process?

#### 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

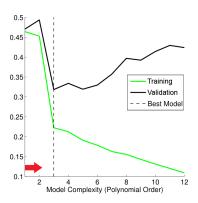


Pitfall:

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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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