Some Learning Theory

CS 760@UW-Madison



Goals for the lecture



you should understand the following concepts

- PAC learnability
- consistent learners and version spaces
- sample complexity
- PAC learnability in the agnostic setting
- the VC dimension
- sample complexity using the VC dimension
- Bias-variance tradeoff

PAC learning



- Overfitting happens because training error is a poor estimate of generalization error
 - → Can we infer something about generalization error from training error?
- Overfitting happens when the learner doesn't see enough training instances
 - \rightarrow Can we estimate how many instances are enough?

Learning setting #1





- set of instances x
- set of hypotheses (models) H
- set of possible target concepts *C*
- unknown probability distribution \mathcal{D} over instances

Learning setting #1

- learner is given a set D of training instances (x, c(x))
 for some target concept c in C
 - each instance x is drawn from distribution \mathcal{D}
 - class label c(x) is provided for each x
- learner outputs hypothesis *h* modeling *c*

True error of a hypothesis



the *true error* of hypothesis *h* refers to how often *h* is wrong on future instances drawn from \mathcal{D}

$$error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \equiv P_{x \in \mathcal{D}}[c(\mathbf{x}) \neq h(\mathbf{x})]$$



Training error of a hypothesis



the *training error* of hypothesis *h* refers to how often *h* is wrong on instances in the training set D

$$error_{D}(h) \equiv P_{x \in D}[c(x) \neq h(x)] = \frac{\sum_{x \in D} \delta(c(x) \neq h(x))}{|D|}$$

Can we bound $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$ in terms of $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h)$?

Is approximately correct good enough?





To say that our learner *L* has learned a concept, should we require $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) = 0$?

this is not realistic:

- unless we've seen every possible instance, there may be multiple hypotheses that are consistent with the training set
- there is some chance our training sample will be unrepresentative

Probably approximately correct learning?





Instead, we'll require that

- the error of a learned hypothesis h is bounded by some constant ε
- the probability of the learner failing to learn an accurate hypothesis is bounded by a constant δ

Probably Approximately Correct (PAC) (learning [Valiant, CACM 1984]

- Consider a class *C* of possible target concepts defined over a set of instances \mathcal{X} of length *n*, and a learner *L* using hypothesis space *H*
- C is PAC learnable by L using H if, for all

 $c \in C$ distributions \mathcal{D} over \mathcal{X} ε such that $0 < \varepsilon < 0.5$ δ such that $0 < \delta < 0.5$

• learner *L* will, with probability at least $(1-\delta)$, output a hypothesis $h \in H$ such that $error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \leq \varepsilon$ in time that is polynomial in

 $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ $\frac{1}{\delta}$ nsize(c)

PAC learning and consistency





- Suppose we can find hypotheses that are consistent with *m* training instances.
- We can analyze PAC learnability by determining whether
 - 1. *m* grows polynomially in the relevant parameters
 - 2. the processing time per training example is polynomial

Version spaces



$$consistent(h, D) \equiv (\forall \langle x, c(x) \rangle \in D) \ h(x) = c(x)$$

• The version space *VS*_{*H*,*D*} with respect to hypothesis space *H* and training set D, is the subset of hypotheses from *H* consistent with all training examples in D

$$VS_{H,D} \equiv \{h \in H \mid consistent(h, D)\}$$

Exhausting the version space







• The version space $VS_{H,D}$ is ε -exhausted with respect to cand D if every hypothesis $h \in VS_{H,D}$ has true error $< \varepsilon$

 $(\forall h \in VS_{H,D}) error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) < \varepsilon$

Exhausting the version space



- Suppose that every *h* in our version space *VS*_{*H*,D} is consistent with *m* training examples
- The probability that $VS_{H,D}$ is <u>not</u> ε -exhausted (i.e. that it contains some hypotheses that are not accurate enough)

$$\leq |H| e^{-\varepsilon m}$$

- Proof: $(1 \varepsilon)^m$ probability that some hypothesis with error > ε is consistent with *m* training instances
 - $k(1-\varepsilon)^m$ there might be k such hypotheses

 $|H|(1-\varepsilon)^m$ k is bounded by |H|

 $\leq |H| e^{-\varepsilon m}$ $(1-\varepsilon) \leq e^{-\varepsilon}$ when $0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1$

Sample complexity for finite hypothesis spaces [Blumer et al., Information Processing Letters 1987]



- we want to reduce this probability below δ

$$|H|e^{-\varepsilon m} \leq \delta$$

• solving for *m* we get

$$m \ge \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left(\ln|H| + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right)$$

log dependence on H ε has stronger influence than δ

PAC analysis example: learning conjunctions of Boolean literals

- each instance has *n* Boolean features
- learned hypotheses are of the form $Y = X_1 \wedge X_2 \wedge \neg X_5$

How many training examples suffice to ensure that with prob \ge 0.99, a consistent learner will return a hypothesis with error \le 0.05 ?

there are 3^n hypotheses (each variable can be present and unnegated, present and negated, or absent) in *H*

$$m \ge \frac{1}{.05} \left(\ln\left(3^n\right) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{.01}\right) \right)$$

for n=10, $m \ge 312$ for n=100, $m \ge 2290$

PAC analysis example: learning conjunctions of Boolean literals



- we've shown that the sample complexity is polynomial in relevant parameters: $1/\epsilon$, $1/\delta$, n
- to prove that Boolean conjunctions are PAC learnable, need to also show that we can find a consistent hypothesis in polynomial time (the FIND-S algorithm in Mitchell, Chapter 2 does this)

FIND-S:

initialize *h* to the most specific hypothesis $x_1 \wedge \neg x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \neg x_2 \dots x_n \wedge \neg x_n$ for each positive training instance *x* remove from *h* any literal that is not satisfied by *x*

output hypothesis *h*

PAC analysis example: learning decision trees of depth 2



- each instance has *n* Boolean features
- learned hypotheses are DTs of depth 2 using only 2 variables





PAC analysis example: learning decision trees of depth 2



- each instance has *n* Boolean features
- learned hypotheses are DTs of depth 2 using only 2 variables



How many training examples suffice to ensure that with prob \geq 0.99, a consistent learner will return a hypothesis with error \leq 0.05 ?

$$m \ge \frac{1}{.05} \left(\ln \left(8n^2 - 8n \right) + \ln \left(\frac{1}{.01} \right) \right)$$

for $n=10, m \ge 224$ for $n=100, m \ge 318$

PAC analysis example: *K*-term DNF is not PAC learnable



- each instance has *n* Boolean features
- learned hypotheses are of the form $Y = T_1 \lor T_2 \lor \ldots \lor T_k$ where each T_i is a conjunction of *n* Boolean features or their negations

 $|H| \le 3^{nk}$, so sample complexity is polynomial in the relevant parameters

$$m \ge \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left(nk \ln(3) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right)$$

however, the computational complexity (time to find consistent h) is not polynomial in m (e.g. graph 3-coloring, an NP-complete problem, can be reduced to learning 3-term DNF)

What if the target concept is not in our hypothesis space?



- so far, we've been assuming that the target concept *c* is in our hypothesis space; this is not a very realistic assumption
- agnostic learning setting
 - don't assume $c \in H$
 - learner returns hypothesis \boldsymbol{h} that makes fewest errors on training data

Hoeffding bound



- we can approach the agnostic setting by using the Hoeffding bound
- let $Z_1...Z_m$ be a sequence of *m* independent Bernoulli trials (e.g. coin flips), each with probability of success $E[Z_i] = p$
- let $S = Z_1 + \dots + Z_m$

$$P[S < (p - \varepsilon)m] \le e^{-2m\varepsilon^2}$$

Agnostic PAC learning



 applying the Hoeffding bound to characterize the error rate of a given hypothesis

$$P[error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) > error_{\mathcal{D}}(h) + \varepsilon] \le e^{-2m\varepsilon^{2}}$$

• but our learner searches hypothesis space to find h_{best}

$$P[error_{\mathcal{D}}(h_{best}) > error_{\mathcal{D}}(h_{best}) + \varepsilon] \le |H|e^{-2m\varepsilon^2}$$

- solving for the sample complexity when this probability is limited to δ

$$m \ge \frac{1}{2\varepsilon^2} \left(\ln|H| + \ln\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right) \right)$$

What if the hypothesis space is not finite?



• **Q:** If *H* is infinite (e.g. the class of perceptrons), what measure of hypothesis-space complexity can we use in place of |*H*| ?

• A: the largest subset of \mathcal{X} for which *H* can guarantee zero training error, regardless of the target function.

this is known as the Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension (VC-dimension)

Shattering and the VC dimension



 a set of instances D is *shattered* by a hypothesis space H iff for every dichotomy of D there is a hypothesis in H consistent with this dichotomy

• the VC dimension of *H* is the size of the largest set of instances that is shattered by *H*



consider: *H* is set of lines in 2D (i.e. perceptrons in 2D feature space)

can find an *h* consistent with 1 instance no matter how it's labeled

1

can find an *h* consistent with 2 instances no matter labeling



consider: *H* is set of lines in 2D

can find an h consistent with 3 instances no matter labeling (assuming they're not colinear)

cannot find an h consistent with 4 instances for some labelings

3 can shatter 3 instances, but not 4, so the VC-dim(H) = 3

more generally, the VC-dim of hyperplanes in *n* dimensions = n+1





for finite *H*, VC-dim(*H*) $\leq \log_2 |H|$

Proof:

suppose VC-dim(H) = d

for *d* instances, 2^d different labelings possible therefore *H* must be able to represent 2^d hypotheses $2^d \le |H|$

 $d = \mathsf{VC-dim}(H) \le \log_2 |H|$

Sample complexity and the VC dimension

• using VC-dim(*H*) as a measure of complexity of *H*, we can derive the following bound [Blumer et al., *JACM* 1989]

$$m \ge \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left(4 \log_2 \left(\frac{2}{\delta} \right) + 8 \text{VC-dim}(H) \log_2 \left(\frac{13}{\varepsilon} \right) \right)$$

m grows log × linear in ε (better than earlier bound)

can be used for both finite and infinite hypothesis spaces

Lower bound on sample complexity [Ehrenfeucht et al., Information & Computation 1989]



• there exists a distribution \mathcal{D} and target concept in C such that if the number of training instances given to L

$$m < \max\left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right), \frac{\text{VC-dim}(C) - 1}{32\varepsilon}\right]$$

then with probability at least δ , *L* outputs *h* such that $error_{D}(h) > \varepsilon$

Comments on PAC learning



- PAC analysis formalizes the learning task and allows for non-perfect learning (indicated by ε and $\delta)$
- finding a consistent hypothesis is sometimes easier for larger concept classes
 - e.g. although *k*-term DNF is not PAC learnable, the more general class *k*-CNF is
- PAC analysis has been extended to explore a wide range of cases
 - noisy training data
 - learner allowed to ask queries
 - restricted distributions (e.g. uniform) over $\ensuremath{\mathcal{D}}$
 - etc.
- most analyses are worst case
- sample complexity bounds are generally not tight

The bias-variance decomposition



- How will predictive accuracy (error) change as we vary *k* in *k*-NN?
- Or as we vary the complexity of our decision trees?
- the bias/variance decomposition of error can lend some insight into these questions

 note that this is a different sense of bias than in the term *inductive bias*



Background: Expected values

• the *expected value* of a random variable that takes on numerical values is defined as:

$$E[X] = \sum_{x} x P(x)$$

this is the same thing as the *mean*

 we can also talk about the expected value of a function of a random variable

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x} g(x)P(x)$$

Defining bias and variance

- consider the task of learning a regression model f(x; D)given a training set $D = \{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
- a natural measure of the error of f is

$$E\left[\left(y - f(\mathbf{x}; D)\right)^2 \mid D\right]$$

where the expectation is taken with respect to the real-world distribution of instances

indicates the dependency of model on *D*



Defining bias and variance

• this can be rewritten as:

$$E[(y - f(\mathbf{x}; D))^{2} | \mathbf{x}, D] = E[(y - E[y | \mathbf{x}])^{2} | \mathbf{x}, D] + (f(\mathbf{x}; D) - E[y | \mathbf{x}])^{2}$$

error of f as a predictor of y
$$\frac{\text{noise: variance of } y \text{ given } \mathbf{x};}{\text{doesn't depend on } D \text{ or } f}$$



Defining bias and variance

• now consider the expectation (over different data sets *D*) for the second term

$$E_{D}\left[\left(f(\boldsymbol{x}; D) - E[\boldsymbol{y} | \boldsymbol{x}]\right)^{2}\right] = \left(E_{D}\left[f(\boldsymbol{x}; D)\right] - E[\boldsymbol{y} | \boldsymbol{x}]\right)^{2} \quad \text{bias} + E_{D}\left[\left(f(\boldsymbol{x}; D) - E_{D}\left[f(\boldsymbol{x}; D)\right]\right)^{2}\right] \quad \text{variance}$$

- bias: if on average f(x; D) differs from E [y | x] then f(x; D) is a biased estimator of E [y | x]
- variance: *f*(*x*; *D*) may be sensitive to *D* and vary a lot from its expected value

Bias/variance for polynomial interpolation

- the 1st order polynomial has high bias, low variance
- 50th order polynomial has low bias, high variance
- 4th order polynomial represents a good trade-off



Bias/variance trade-off for k-NN regressio

 consider using k-NN regression to learn a model of this surface in a 2-dimensional feature space



Bias/variance trade-off for k-NN regressio

bias for 1-NN

variance for 1-NN

bias for 10-NN

variance for 10-NN



darker pixels correspond to higher values

Bias/variance trade-off



 consider k-NN applied to digit recognition







Bias/variance discussion

- predictive error has two controllable components
 - expressive/flexible learners reduce *bias*, but increase *variance*
- for many learners we can trade-off these two components (e.g. via our selection of k in k-NN)
- the optimal point in this trade-off depends on the particular problem domain and training set size
- this is not necessarily a strict trade-off; e.g. with ensembles we can often reduce bias and/or variance without increasing the other term

Bias/variance discussion



the bias/variance analysis

- helps explain why simple learners can outperform more complex ones
- helps understand and avoid overfitting

THANK YOU



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