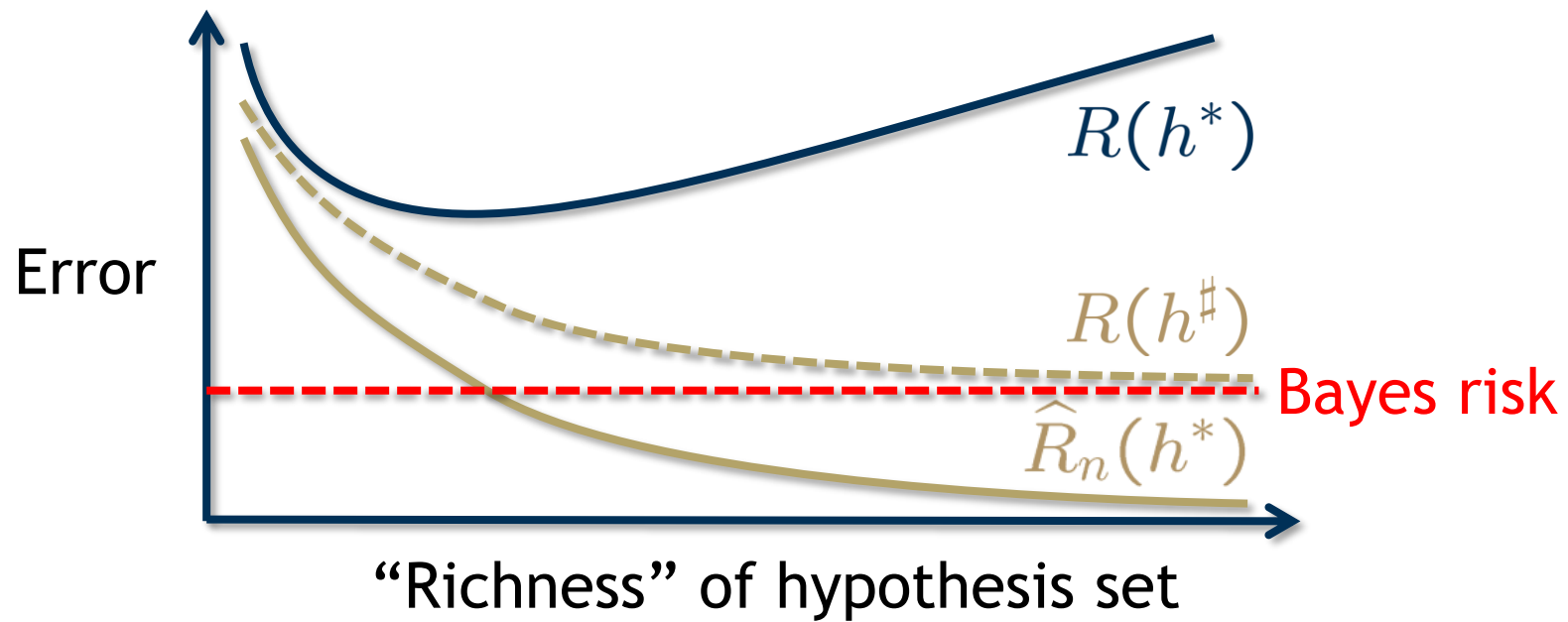


Tradeoffs in learning



Measuring “richness”

Today we will turn back to the question of when we can have confidence that $\widehat{R}_n(h^*) \approx R(h^*)$, but where h^* is chosen from an *infinite* set \mathcal{H}

To keep life (much) simpler, we will restrict our attention to binary classification, but an analogous theory can be developed for other supervised learning problems

- For a single hypothesis, we have

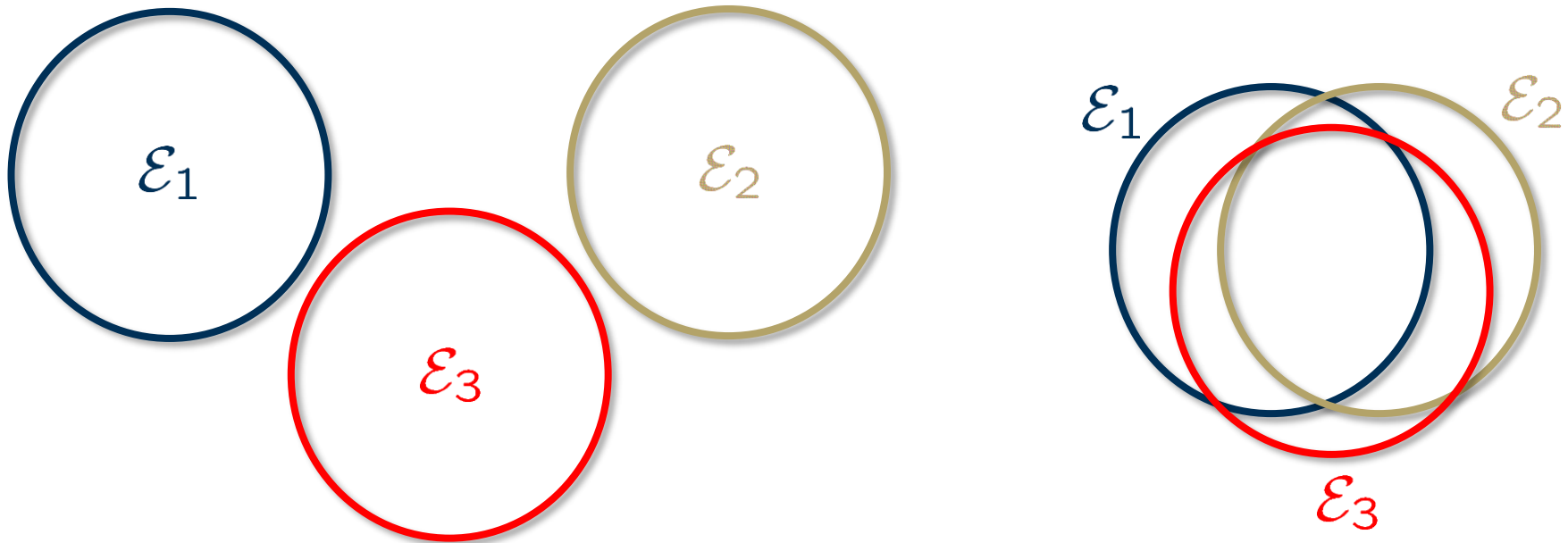
$$\mathbb{P} \left[\left| \widehat{R}_n(h) - R(h) \right| > \epsilon \right] \leq 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

- For $m = |\mathcal{H}|$ hypotheses, and $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$, we have

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\left| \widehat{R}_n(h^*) - R(h^*) \right| > \epsilon \right] \leq 2me^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

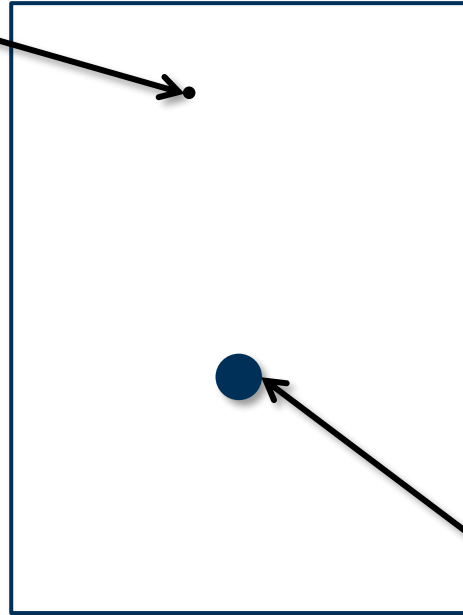
Where did m come from?

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\left| \hat{R}_n(h^*) - R(h^*) \right| > \epsilon \right] \leq \mathbb{P} \left[\max_{h_j \in \mathcal{H}} \left| \hat{R}_n(h_j) - R(h_j) \right| \geq \epsilon \right]$$
$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^m \underbrace{\mathbb{P} \left[\left| \hat{R}_n(h_j) - R(h_j) \right| \geq \epsilon \right]}_{\mathcal{E}_j}$$



Visualizing Hoeffding

$(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1, \mathbf{x}_2, y_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$



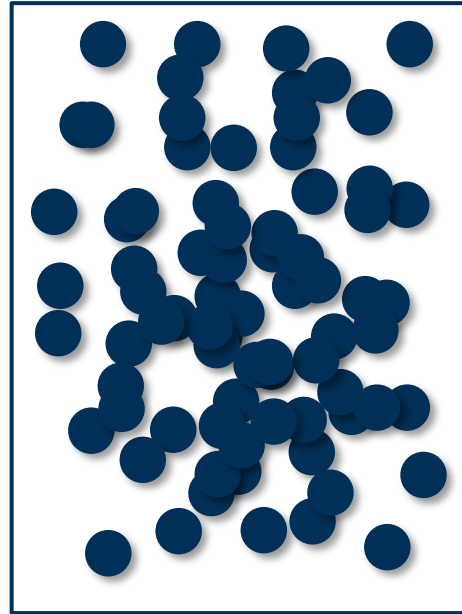
choose a fixed h

datasets for which
 $|\hat{R}_n(h) - R(h)| > \epsilon$

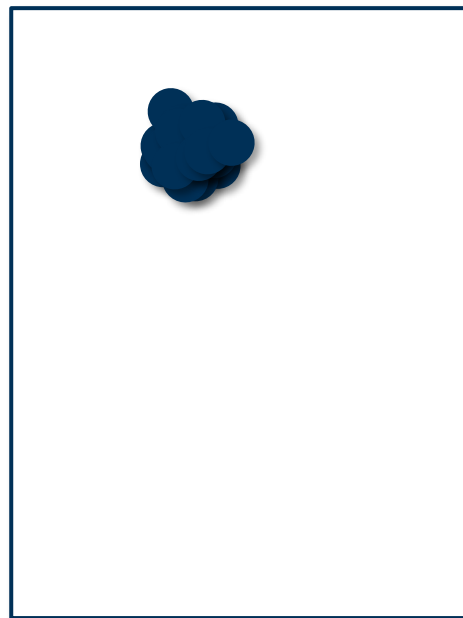
space of all
possible
datasets

Union bound intuition

Consider many different h at once



An alternative picture



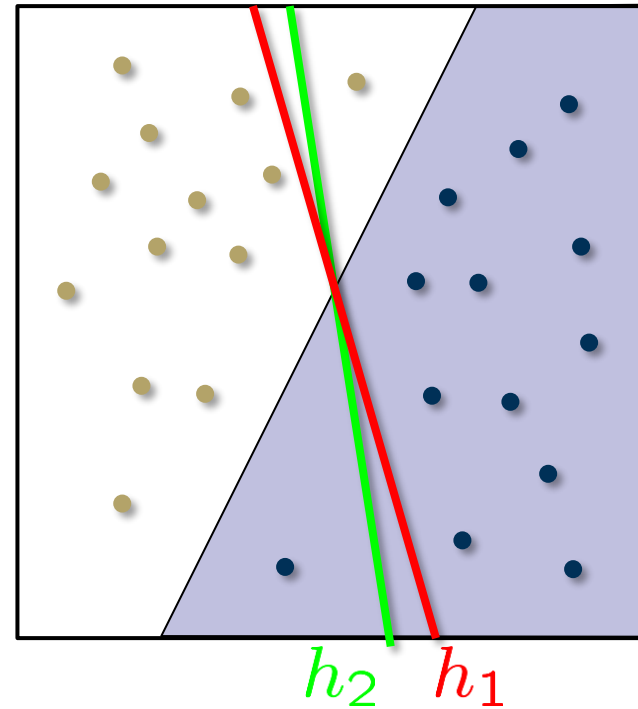
If all the “bad” datasets overlap, maybe we can handle much bigger \mathcal{H} than the union bound suggests

Do “bad” datasets overlap?

Yes. There is (potentially) tremendous overlap!

$$R(h_1) \approx R(h_2)$$

$$\hat{R}_n(h_1) \approx \hat{R}_n(h_2)$$

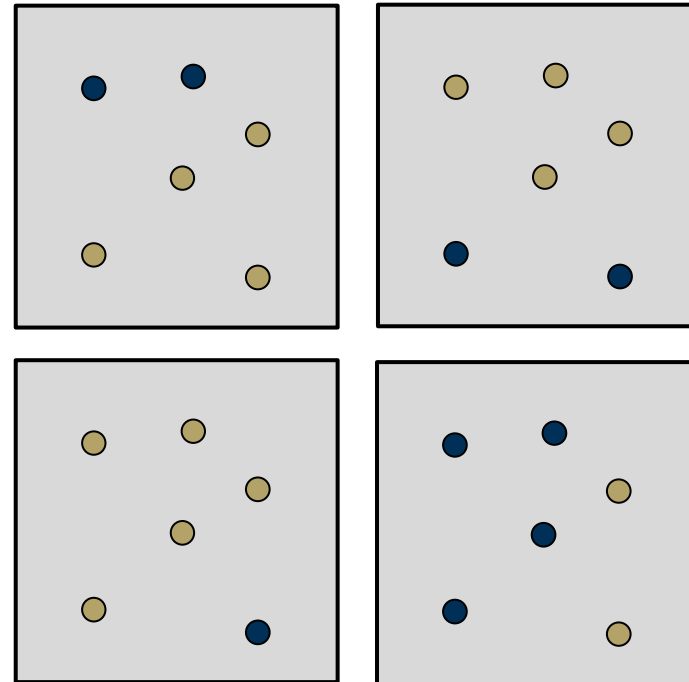
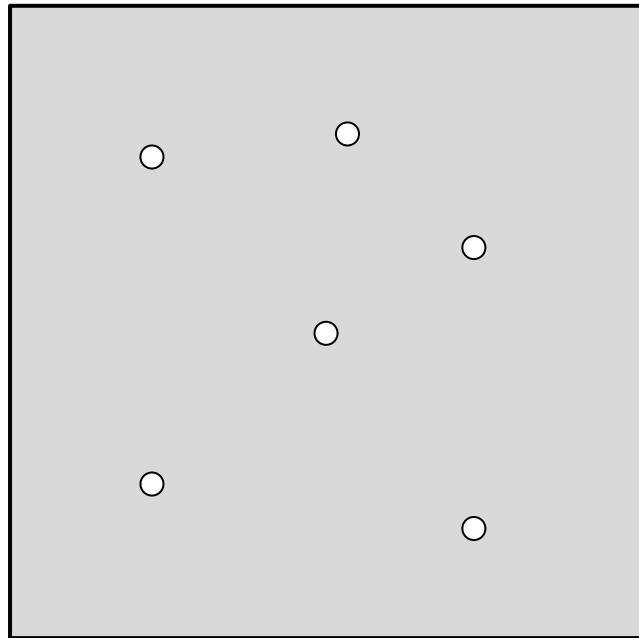


$$|\hat{R}_n(h_1) - R(h_1)| \approx |\hat{R}_n(h_2) - R(h_2)|$$

If not m , what?

Instead of considering all possible hypotheses in \mathcal{H}
we will consider a finite set of input points $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$
and “combine” hypotheses that result in the same labeling

We will call a particular labeling of $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ a *dichotomy*



Hypotheses vs dichotomies

Hypotheses

- $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$
- Number of hypotheses $|\mathcal{H}|$ can be infinite

$|\mathcal{H}|$ (or m) is a poor way to measure “richness” of \mathcal{H}

Dichotomies

- $h : \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$
- Number of dichotomies $|\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)|$ is at most 2^n

Good candidate for replacing $|\mathcal{H}|$ as a measure of “richness”

The growth function

A dichotomy is defined in terms of a particular $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$

We would like to be able to state results that hold no matter what $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ turn out to be

Define the *growth function* of \mathcal{H} as

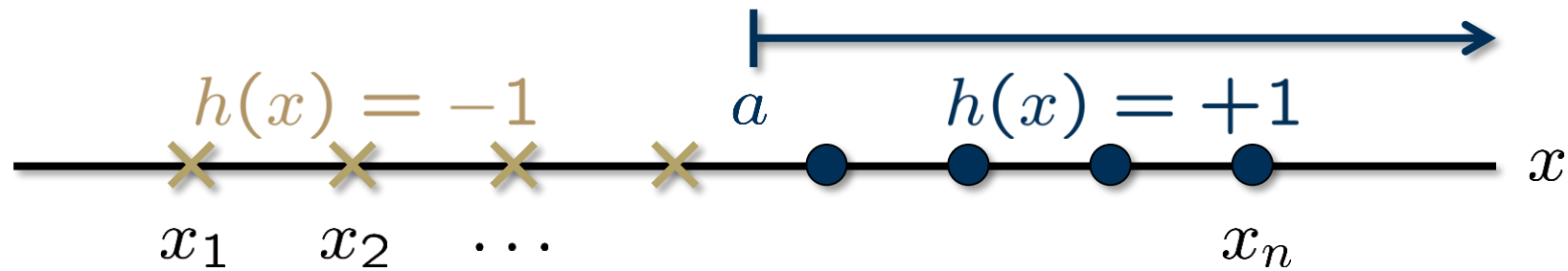
$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) := \max_{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathcal{X}} |\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)|$$

$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ counts the *most* dichotomies that can possibly be generated on n points

It is easy to see that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq 2^n$, but it can potentially be much smaller

Example 1: Positive rays

Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that
 $h(x) = \text{sign}(x - a)$ for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$

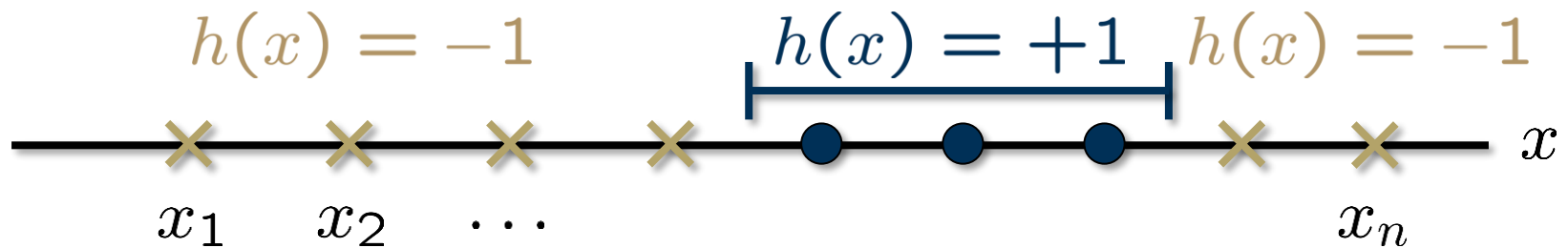


$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1$$

Example 2: Positive intervals

Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that

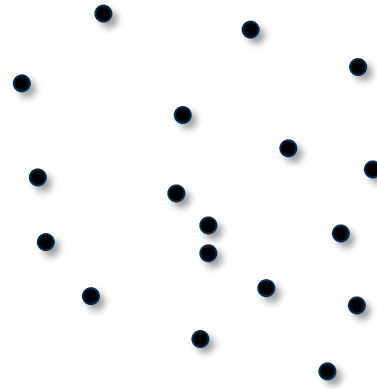
$$h(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{for } x \in [a, b] \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$\begin{aligned} m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) &= \binom{n+1}{2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

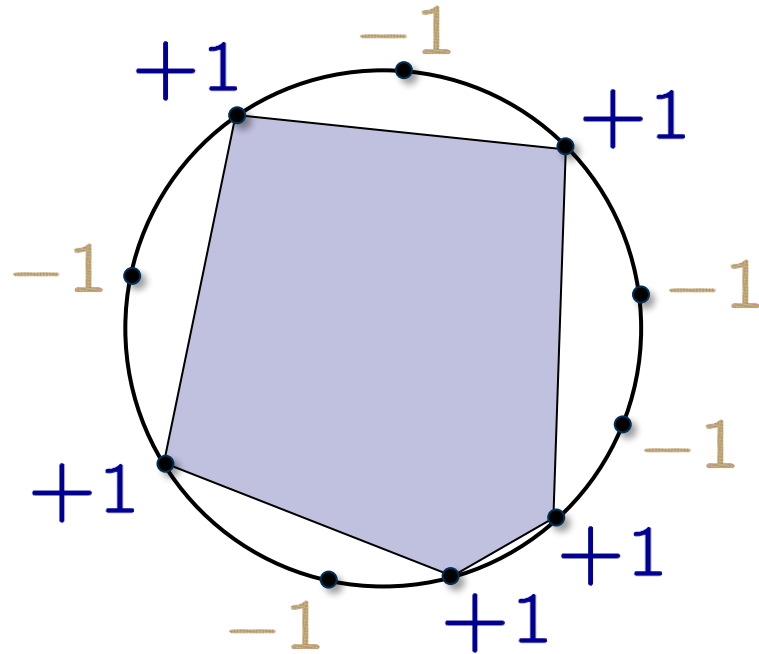
Example 3: Convex sets

Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that
 $\{\mathbf{x} : h(\mathbf{x}) = +1\}$ is convex



Example 3: Convex sets

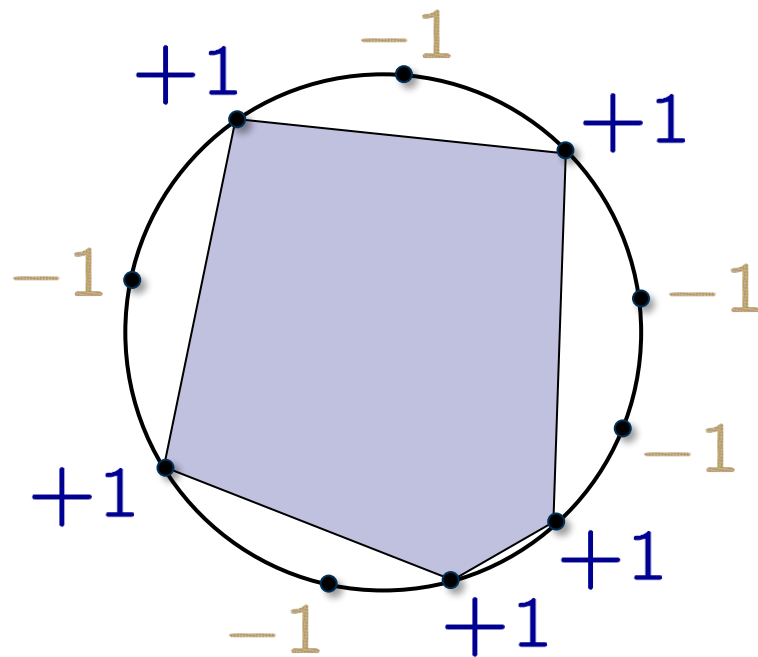
Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that
 $\{\mathbf{x} : h(\mathbf{x}) = +1\}$ is convex



$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$$

Example 3: Convex sets

Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that
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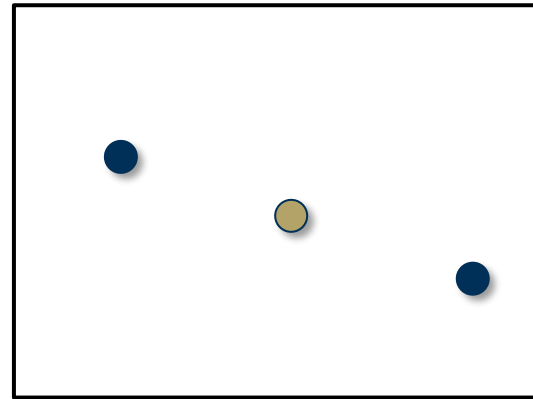
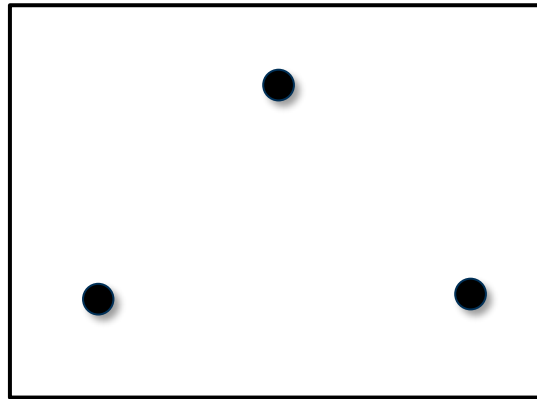


If \mathcal{H} can generate all possible dichotomies on $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$, then we say that \mathcal{H} *shatters* $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$$

Example 4: Linear classifiers

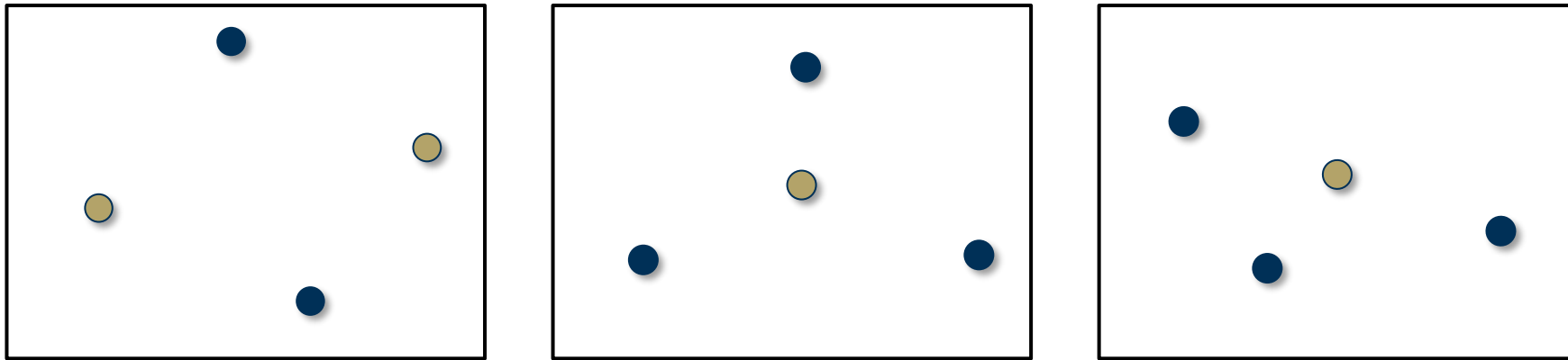
Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that
 $h(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b)$ for some
 $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$



$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(3) = 2^3$$

Example 4: Linear classifiers

Candidate functions: $h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ such that
 $h(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b)$ for some
 $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$



$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(4) = 14$$

Recap: Example growth functions

- Positive rays: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1$
- Positive intervals: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1$
- Convex sets: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$
- Linear classifiers in \mathbb{R}^2 :
 - $m_{\mathcal{H}}(1) = 2$
 - $m_{\mathcal{H}}(2) = 4$
 - $m_{\mathcal{H}}(3) = 8$
 - $m_{\mathcal{H}}(4) = 14$
 - $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = ?$

Back to the big picture

Recall

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\left| \widehat{R}_n(h^*) - R(h^*) \right| > \epsilon \right] \leq 2me^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

Another way to express this is that if you pick a δ , then we can guarantee that with probability at least $1 - \delta$

$$R(h^*) \leq \widehat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m}{\delta}}$$

(Just set $2me^{-2\epsilon^2 n} = \delta$ and solve for ϵ)

If $m \propto e^n$, we have a problem...

No matter how big n gets, $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m}{\delta}}$ will never get any smaller...

What if... ?

What if we can replace m with $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$?

In particular, suppose that for any $\delta \in (0, 1)$, we can guarantee that with probability at least $1 - \delta$

$$R(h^*) \leq \hat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$$

- If $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$, $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$ is a constant
- If $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is a polynomial in n , $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$ decays like $\sqrt{\frac{\log n}{n}}$

When is learning possible?

Assuming that we will indeed be allowed to substitute $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ for m , we can argue that for a given set of hypotheses \mathcal{H} , learning is possible provided that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is a polynomial

Key idea: *Break points*

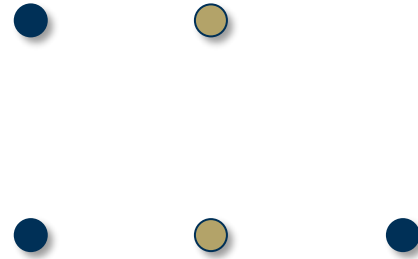
If no data set of size k can be shattered by \mathcal{H} , then k is a ***break point*** for \mathcal{H}

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(k) < 2^k$$

If k is a break point, then so is any $k' > k$

Examples

- Positive rays: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1$
 - break point: $k = 2$
- Positive intervals: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1$
 - break point: $k = 3$
- Convex sets: $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$
 - break point: $k = \infty$
- Linear classifiers in \mathbb{R}^2 : $m_{\mathcal{H}}(3) = 8$
 $m_{\mathcal{H}}(4) = 14$
 - break point: $k = 4$



So what?

If there exists any break point,
then $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is polynomial in n

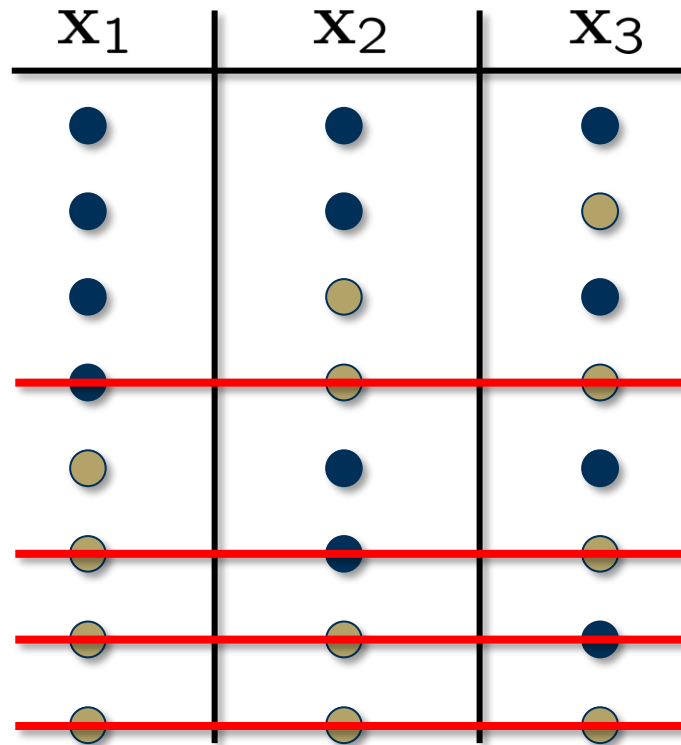
Also, if there are no break points, then $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$

As soon as we have ***a single break point***, this starts eliminating tons of dichotomies

How many dichotomies?

You are given a hypothesis set which has a break point of 2

How many dichotomies can you get on 3 data points?



Bounding the growth function

We want to show that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ is polynomial in n

We will show that $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq$ *some* polynomial

Our approach will center around

$B(n, k) :=$ maximum number of dichotomies on n points such that no subset of size k can be shattered by these dichotomies

$B(n, k)$ is a purely combinatorial quantity

By definition, $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq B(n, k)$

Sauer's Lemma

Theorem If k is a break point, then

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq B(n, k) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i}$$

In fact, it is actually true that

$$B(n, k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i}$$

but all we really need is the upper bound

Examples

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i}$$

- Positive rays: Break point of $k = 2$

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = n + 1 \leq n + 1$$

- Positive intervals: Break point of $k = 3$

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1 \leq \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n + 1$$

- Linear classifiers in \mathbb{R}^2 : Break point of $k = 4$

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = ? \leq \frac{1}{6}n^3 + \frac{5}{6}n + 1$$

Bottom line

For a given \mathcal{H} , all we need is for a break point to exist

$$m_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{i}}_{\text{polynomial with dominant term } n^{k-1}}$$

polynomial with dominant term n^{k-1}

All that remains is to argue that we can actually replace $|\mathcal{H}|$ with $m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ to obtain an inequality along the lines of

$$R(h^*) \leq \hat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$$

VC generalization bound

We won't be able to quite show

$$R(h^*) \leq \hat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \frac{2m_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{\delta}}$$

For technical reasons (which we see next time), we will only be able to show that with probability $\geq 1 - \delta$

$$R(h^*) \leq \hat{R}_n(h^*) + \sqrt{\frac{8}{n} \log \frac{4m_{\mathcal{H}}(2n)}{\delta}}$$

This is called the **VC generalization bound**

Named after Vapnik and Chervonenkis, who proved it in 1971

Key difference

Using Hoeffding's inequality together with a union bound, we were able to show that

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\max_{h \in \mathcal{H}} |\hat{R}_n(h) - R(h)| > \epsilon \right] \leq |\mathcal{H}| \cdot 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 n}$$

What the VC bound gives us is a generalization of the form

$$\mathbb{P} \left[\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} |\hat{R}_n(h) - R(h)| > \epsilon \right] \leq 2 \cdot m_{\mathcal{H}}(2n) \cdot 2e^{-\frac{1}{8}\epsilon^2 n}$$

supremum: maximum over an infinite set

Supremum

The **supremum** of a set $S \subset T$ is the least element of T that is greater than or equal to all elements of S

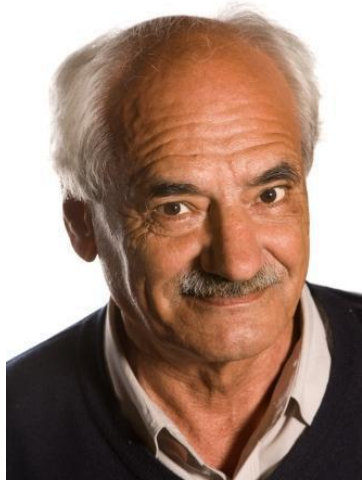
Sometimes called the **least upper bound**

Examples

- $\sup\{1, 2, 3\} = 3$
- $\sup\{x : 0 \leq x \leq 1\} = 1$
- $\sup\{x : 0 < x < 1\} = 1$
- $\sup\{1 - 1/n : n > 0\} = 1$

Next time

Deep Neural Networks Hate Them!



They can turn the **supremum** over an **infinite** set into a **maximum** over a **finite** set and establish powerful generalization bounds using this **ONE WEIRD TRICK**