

CPSC 540: Machine Learning

Fundamentals of Learning

Winter 2019

Admin

- **Auditing/registration forms:**
 - Submit them at end of class, pick them up next class.
 - I may have written notes on your form (especially when I didn't sign).
- **Website/Piazza:**
 - <http://www.cs.ubc.ca/~schmidtm/Courses/540-W19>
 - <https://piazza.com/ubc.ca/winterterm22018/cpsc540>
- **Tutorials:** start Monday after class (no need to formally register).
- **Office hours:** start Wednesday after class.
- **Assignment 1** due Friday.
 - Sign up for CS account so you can handin.

Supervised Learning Notation

- We are given **training data** where we know labels:

	Egg	Milk	Fish	Wheat	Shellfish	Peanuts	...		Sick?
$X =$	0	0.7	0	0.3	0	0		$y =$	1
	0.3	0.7	0	0.6	0	0.01			1
	0	0	0	0.8	0	0			0
	0.3	0.7	1.2	0	0.10	0.01			1
	0.3	0	1.2	0.3	0.10	0.01			1

- But the goal is to do well on **any possible testing data**:

	Egg	Milk	Fish	Wheat	Shellfish	Peanuts	...		Sick?
$\tilde{X} =$	0.5	0	1	0.6	2	1		$\tilde{y} =$?
	0	0.7	0	1	0	0			?
	3	1	0	0.5	0	0			?

“Test Set” vs. “Test Error”

- Formally, the “test error” is the expected error of our model:

$$E[|\hat{y}_i - y_i|]$$

- Here I’m using absolute error between predictions and true labels.
 - But you could use squared error or other losses.
- The expectation is taken over distribution of test examples.
 - Think of this as the “error with infinite data”.
- We assume that our training examples are drawn IID from this distribution.
 - Otherwise, “training” might not help to reduce “test error”.
- Unfortunately, we cannot compute the test error.
 - We don’t have access to the distribution over all test examples.

“Test Set” vs. “Test Error”

- We often approximate “test error” with the error on a “test set”:

$$\frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t |\hat{y}^i - \tilde{y}^i|$$

- Here, we are using ‘t’ examples drawn IID from the test distribution.
- Note that “test set error” is not the “test error”.
 - The goal is have a low “test error”, not “test set error”.
- The “golden rule” of machine learning:
 - A “test set” cannot influence the “training” in any way.
 - Otherwise, “test set error” is not an unbiased “test error” approximation.
 - We run the risk of “overfitting” to the “test set”.

Typical Supervised Learning Steps (Are Bad?)

- Given data $\{X,y\}$, a typical set of supervised learning steps:
 - Data splitting:
 - Split $\{X,y\}$ into a train set $\{X_{train},y_{train}\}$ and a validation set $\{X_{valid},y_{valid}\}$.
 - We're going to use the validation set error as approximation of test error.
 - Tune hyper-parameters (number of hidden units, λ , polynomial degree, etc.):
 - For each candidate value " λ " of the hyper-parameters:
 - Fit a model to the train set $\{X_{train},y_{train}\}$ using the given hyper-parameters " λ ".
 - Evaluate the model on the validation set $\{X_{valid},y_{valid}\}$.
 - Choose the model with the best performance on the validation set.
 - And maybe re-train using hyper-parameter " λ " on the full dataset.
- Can this overfit, even though we used a validation set?
 - Yes, we've violated the golden rule. But maybe it's not too bad...

Validation Error, Test Error, and Approximation Error

- 340 discusses the “**Fundamental Trade-Off of Machine Learning**”.
 - Simple identity relating training set error to test error.
- We have a **similar identity for the validation error**.
 - If E_{test} is the test error and E_{valid} is the error on the validation set, then:

$$E_{\text{test}} = \underbrace{(E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}})}_{E_{\text{approx}}} + E_{\text{valid}}$$

- If E_{approx} is small, then E_{valid} is a good approximation of E_{test} .
 - We can't measure E_{test} , so how do we know if E_{approx} is small?

Bounding E_{approx}

- Let's consider a simple case:
 - Labels y^i are binary, and we try 1 hyper-parameter setting.
 - IID assumption on validation set implies E_{valid} is unbiased: $\mathbf{E}[E_{\text{valid}}] = E_{\text{test}}$.
- We can bound probability E_{approx} is greater than ϵ .
 - Assumptions: data is IID (so E_{valid} is unbiased) and loss is in $[0,1]$.
 - By using Hoeffding's inequality:

$$P(\underbrace{|E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}}|}_{E_{\text{approx}}} > \epsilon) \leq 2 \exp(-2 \epsilon^2 t)$$

↑ number of examples
in validation set

- Probability that E_{valid} is far from E_{test} goes down exponentially with 't'.
 - This is great: the bigger your validation set, the better approximation you get.

Bounding E_{approx}

- Let's consider a slightly less-simple case:
 - Labels are binary, and we tried '**k**' hyper-parameter values.
 - In this case it's unbiased for each '**k**': $E[E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}] = E_{\text{test}}$.
 - So for *each* validation error $E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}$ we have:

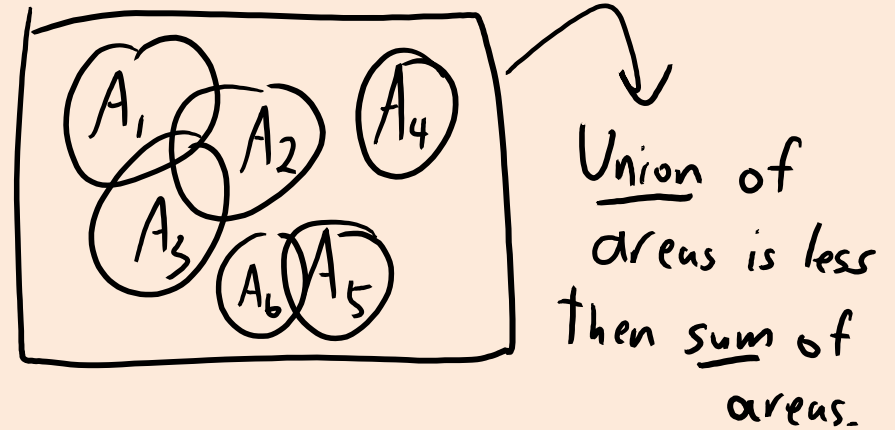
$$P(|E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}| > \epsilon) \leq 2 \exp(-2 \epsilon^2 t)$$

- But our final $E_{\text{valid}} = \min\{E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}\}$, which is **biased**.
 - We can't apply Hoeffding because we **chose best among 'k' values**.
- **Fix: bound on probability that all $|E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}|$ values are $\leq \epsilon$.**
 - Since we showed it holds for all values, it holds for the best value.

Bounding E_{approx}

- The “**union bound**” for any events $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k\}$ is that:

$$p(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k) \leq \sum_{i=1}^k p(A_i)$$



- Combining with Hoeffding we can get:

$$\begin{aligned} p(|E_{\text{test}} - \min_{\lambda} \{E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}\}| > \epsilon) &\leq p(\text{Exists a } \lambda \text{ where } |E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}| > \epsilon) \\ &\leq \sum_{\lambda} p(|E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}| > \epsilon) \\ &\leq \sum_{\lambda} 2 \exp(-2\epsilon^2 t) \\ &= k 2 \exp(-2\epsilon^2 t) \end{aligned}$$

Bounding E_{approx}

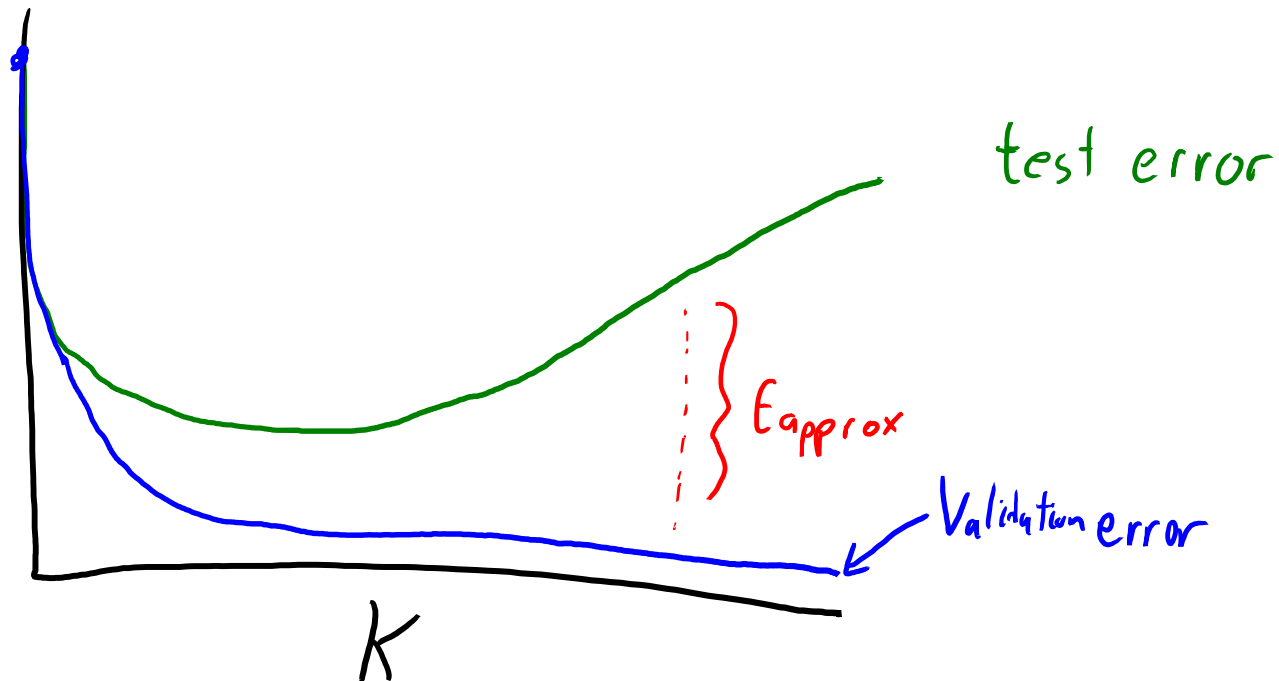
- So if we choose best $E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}$ among 'k' λ values, we have:

$$P(|E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{valid}(\lambda)}| > \epsilon \text{ for any } \lambda) \leq k 2 \exp(-2 \epsilon^2 t)$$

- So **optimizing over 'k' models is ok if we have large 't'**.
 - But if 'k' is too large or 't' is too small the validation error isn't useful.
- Examples:
 - If $k=10$ and $t=1000$, probability that $|E_{\text{approx}}| > .05$ is less than 0.14.
 - If $k=10$ and $t=10000$, probability that $|E_{\text{approx}}| > .05$ is less than 10^{-20} .
 - If $k=10$ and $t=1000$, probability that $|E_{\text{approx}}| > .01$ is less than 2.7 (useless).
 - If $k=100$ and $t=100000$, probability that $|E_{\text{approx}}| > .01$ is less than 10^{-6} .

Bounding E_{approx}

- Validation error vs. test error for fixed 't'.
 - E_{valid} goes down as we increase 'k', but E_{approx} can go up.
 - **Overfitting** of validation set.



Discussion

- Bound is usually very loose, but data is probably not fully IID.
 - Similar bounds are possible for cross-validation.
- Similar arguments apply for the E_{approx} of the training error.
 - Value ‘k’ is the number of hyper-parameters you are optimizing over (even if don’t try them all).
 - So ‘k’ is usually huge: you try out $k=O(nd)$ decision stumps.
- What if we train by gradient descent?
 - We’re optimizing on continuous space, so $k=\infty$ and the bound is useless.
 - In this case, VC-dimension is one way to replace ‘k’ (doesn’t need union bound).
 - “Simpler” models like decision stumps and linear models will have lower VC-dimension.
- Learning theory keywords if you want to go deeper into this topic:
 - Bias-variance (see bonus slides for details and why this is weird), sample complexity, PAC learning, VC dimension, Rademacher complexity.
 - A gentle place to start is the [Learning from Data book](#).

(pause)

Generalization Error

- An alternative measure of performance is the **generalization error**:
 - Average error over the set of x^i values that are **not seen in the training set**.
 - “How well we expect to do for a *completely unseen* feature vector”.
- **Test error vs. generalization error** when labels are deterministic:

$$E_{\text{test}} = E [|\hat{y}^i - \tilde{y}^i|]$$

Labels are deterministic,
but we still take
expectation over data distribution

$$E_{\text{generalize}} = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{x^i \notin \{\text{train set}\}} |\hat{y}_i - \tilde{y}_i|$$

number of
 x^i values not
in training set.

Average error
over unseen
 x^i values.

“Best” and the “Good” Machine Learning Models

- Question 1: what is the “best” machine learning model?
 - The model that gets lower generalization error than all other models.
- Question 2: which models always do better than random guessing?
 - Models with lower generalization error than random for all problems.
- **No free lunch theorem:**
 - There is **no** “best” model achieving the best generalization error for every problem.
 - If model A generalizes better to new data than model B on one dataset, there is another dataset where model B works better.

No Free Lunch Theorem

- Let's show the “no free lunch” theorem in a simple setting:
 - The x^i and y^i are binary, and y^i being a deterministic function of x^i .
- With ‘d’ features, each “learning problem” is a map from $\{0,1\}^d \rightarrow \{0,1\}$.
 - Assigning a binary label to each of the 2^d feature combinations.

Feature 1	Feature 2	Feature 3
0	0	0
0	0	1
0	1	0
...

Map 1	Map 2	Map 3	...
0	1	0	...
0	0	1	...
0	0	0	...
...

- Let's pick one of these maps (“learning problems”) and:
 - Generate a set training set of ‘n’ IID samples.
 - Fit model A (convolutional neural network) and model B (naïve Bayes).

No Free Lunch Theorem

- Define the “unseen” examples as the $(2^d - n)$ not seen in training.
 - Assuming no repetitions of x^i values, and $n < 2^d$.
 - Generalization error is the average error on these “unseen” examples.
- Suppose that model A got 1% error and model B got 60% error.
 - We want to show model B beats model A on another “learning problem”.
- Among our set of “learning problems” find the one where:
 - The labels y^i agree on all training examples.
 - The labels y^i disagree on all “unseen” examples.
- On this other “learning problem”:
 - Model A gets 99% error and model B gets 40% error.

No Free Lunch Theorem

- Further, across all “learning problems” with these ‘n’ examples:
 - Average generalization error of **every** model is 50% on unseen examples.
 - It’s right on each unseen example in exactly half the learning problems.
 - With ‘k’ classes, the average error is $(k-1)/k$ (random guessing).
- This is kind of depressing:
 - For general problems, no “machine learning” is better than “predict 0”.

(pause)

Limit of No Free Lunch Theorem

- Fortunately, **the world is structured**:
 - Some “learning problems” are more likely than others.
- For example, it’s usually the case that “similar” x^i have similar y^i .
 - Datasets with properties like this are more likely.
 - Otherwise, you probably have no hope of learning.
- Models with the right “similarity” assumptions can beat “predict 0”.
- With assumptions like this, you can consider **consistency**:
 - As ‘n’ grows, model A converges to the optimal test error.

Refined Fundamental Trade-Off

- Let E_{best} be the **irreducible error** (lowest possible error for *any* model).
 - For example, irreducible error for predicting coin flips is 0.5.
- Some learning theory results use E_{best} to further decompose E_{test} :

$$E_{\text{test}} = \underbrace{(E_{\text{test}} - E_{\text{train}})}_{E_{\text{approx}}} + \underbrace{(E_{\text{train}} - E_{\text{best}})}_{E_{\text{model}}} + \underbrace{E_{\text{best}}}_{\text{"noise"}}$$

- This is similar to the bias-variance trade-off (bonus slide):
 - E_{approx} measures *how sensitive we are to training data* (like “variance”).
 - E_{model} measures *if our model is complicated enough to fit data* (like “bias”).
 - E_{best} measures how low can **any** model make test error (“irreducible” error).

Refined Fundamental Trade-Off

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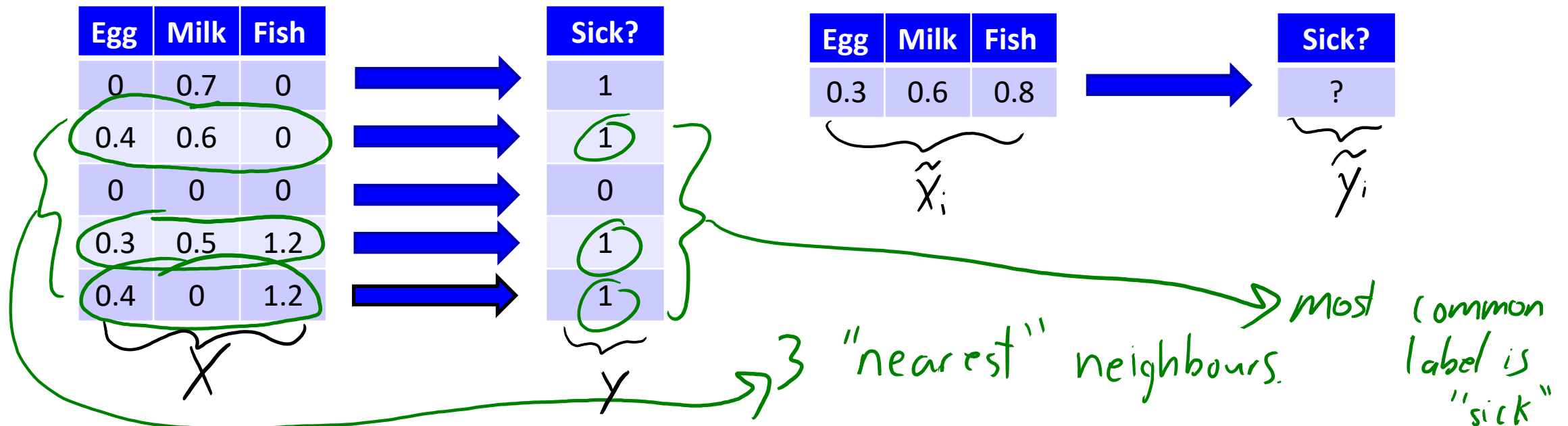
- This is similar to the bias-variance trade-off (bonus slide):
 - You need to trade between having low E_{approx} and having low E_{model} .
 - Powerful models have low E_{model} but can have high E_{approx} .
 - E_{best} does not depend on what model you choose.

Consistency and Universal Consistency

- A model is **consistent** for a **particular learning problem** if:
 - E_{test} converges to E_{best} as 'n' goes to infinity, for that particular problem.
- A model is **universally consistent** for a **class of learning problems** if:
 - E_{test} converges to E_{best} as 'n' goes to infinity, for all problems in the class.
- Typically, the class would consist of:
 - A **continuity assumption** on the labels y^i as a function of x^i .
 - E.g., if x^i is close to x^j then they are likely to receive the same label.
 - A boundedness assumption of the set of x^i .

K-Nearest Neighbours (KNN)

- Classical consistency results focus on **k-nearest neighbours (KNN)**.
- To classify an object \tilde{x}_i :
 1. Find the '**k**' training examples x_i that are "nearest" to \tilde{x}_i .
 2. Classify using the **most common label** of "nearest" examples.



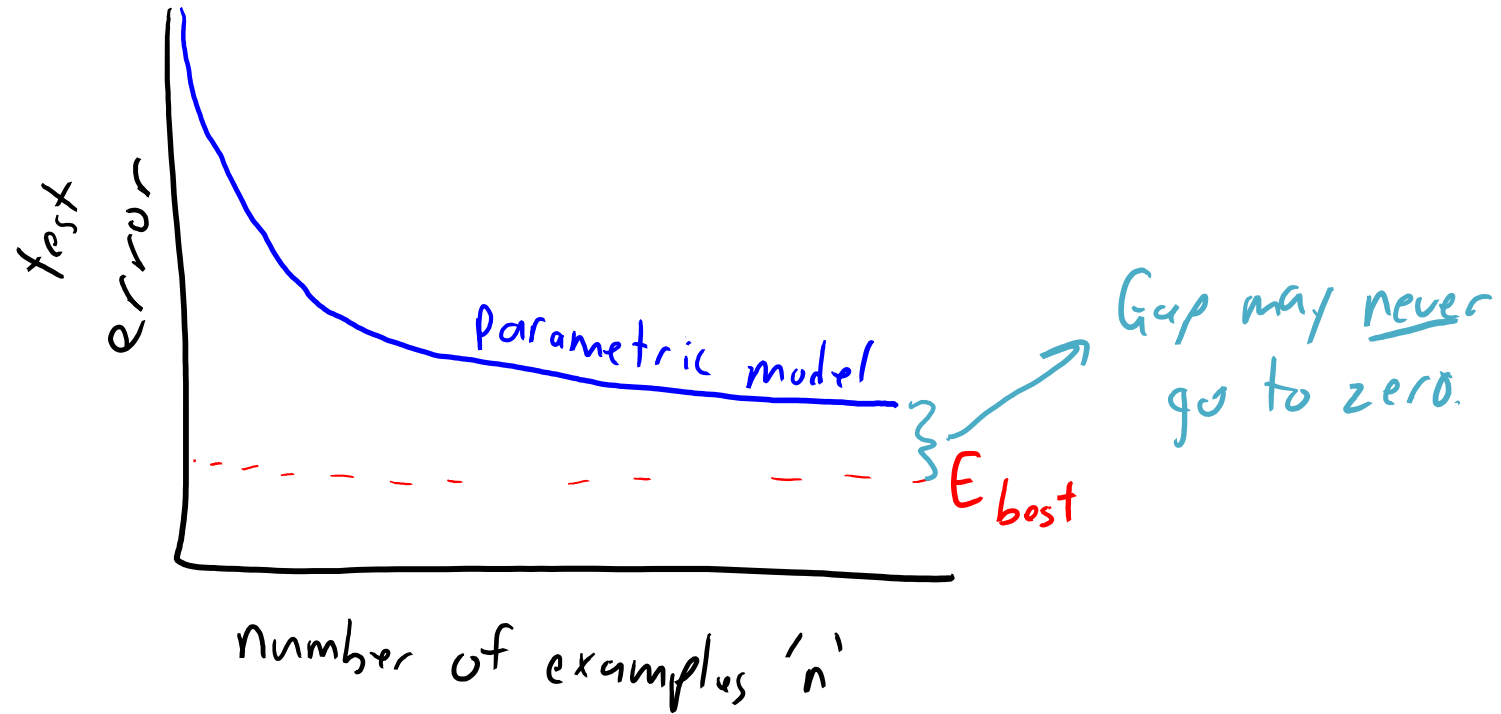
Consistency of KNN

- KNN **consistency** properties (under reasonable assumptions):
 - As 'n' goes to ∞ , $E_{\text{test}} \leq 2E_{\text{best}}$.
 - For fixed 'k' and binary labels.
- Stone's Theorem: KNN is "**universally consistent**".
 - If 'k' converges to ∞ as 'n' converges to ∞ , but k/n converges to 0, E_{test} **converges to** E_{best} .
 - For example, $k = O(\log n)$.
 - First algorithm shown to have this property.
- Consistency **says nothing about finite 'n'**.
 - See "[Dont Trust Asymptotics](#)".

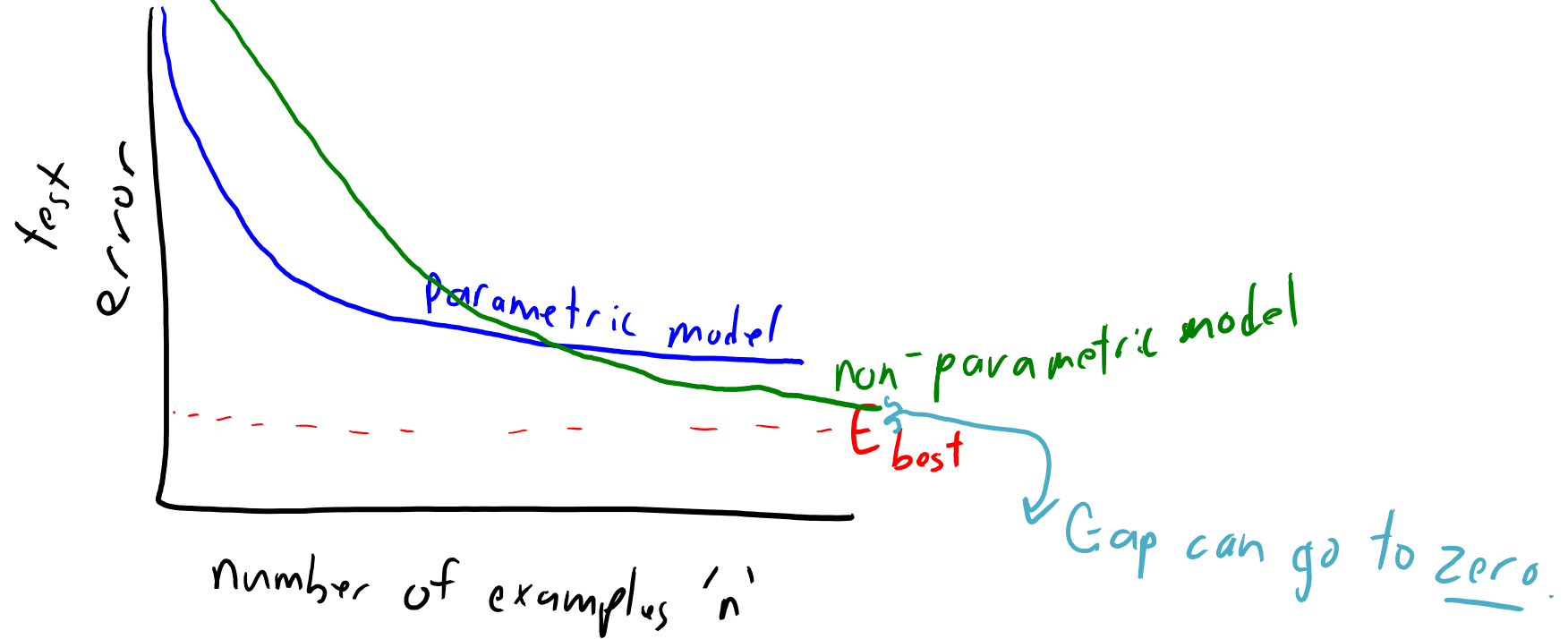
Consistency of Non-Parametric Models

- **Universal consistency** has been shown for several models:
 - Linear models with polynomial basis.
 - Linear models with Gaussian RBFs.
 - Neural networks with one hidden layer and standard activations.
 - Sigmoid, tanh, ReLU, etc.
- It's **non-parametric** versions that are consistent:
 - **Size of model is a function of 'n'.**
 - Examples:
 - KNN needs to store all 'n' training examples.
 - Degree of polynomial must grow with 'n' (not true for fixed polynomial).
 - Number of hidden units must grow with 'n' (not true for fixed neural network).

Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Models



Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Models



Summary

- Test error vs. test set error
 - What we care about is the test error.
- Overfitting hyper-parameters on a validation set:
 - Depends on how many hyper-parameters you try and number of validation examples.
- No free lunch theorem:
 - There is no “best” or even “good” machine learning models across all problems.
- Universal consistency:
 - Some non-parametric models can solve any continuous learning problem.
- Post-lecture bonus slides: bias-variance decomposition.
- Next time:
 - Besides least squares, what other problems can be solved in 1 line of code?

Bias-Variance Decomposition

- Analysis of **expected test error** of any learning algorithm:

Assume $y_i = f(x_i) + \epsilon_i$ for some function 'f'
and random error ϵ with a mean of 0
and a variance of σ^2 .

Assume we have a "learner" that can take a training set $\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$
and use these to make predictions $\hat{f}(x_i)$.

Then for a new example (x_i, y_i) the error averaged over training sets is

$$E[(y_i - \hat{f}(x_i))^2] = \text{Bias}[\hat{f}(x_i)]^2 + \text{Var}[\hat{f}(x_i)] + \sigma^2$$

"Irreducible error":
best we can hope for given the noise level.

Expected error due to having wrong model.

Where $\text{Bias}[\hat{f}(x_i)] = E[\hat{f}(x_i)] - f(x_i)$,

How sensitive is the model to the particular training set?

$$\text{Var}[\hat{f}(x_i)] = E[(\hat{f}(x_i) - E[\hat{f}(x_i)])^2]$$

Learning Theory

- Bias-variance decomposition is a bit weird:
 - Considers expectation over *possible training sets*.
- Bias-variance says **nothing about your training set**.
 - This is different than Hoeffding bounds:
 - Bound the test error based on your actual training set and training/validation error.