

Parallel & Scalable Machine Learning

Introduction to Machine Learning Algorithms

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LECTURE 10

Theory of Generalization

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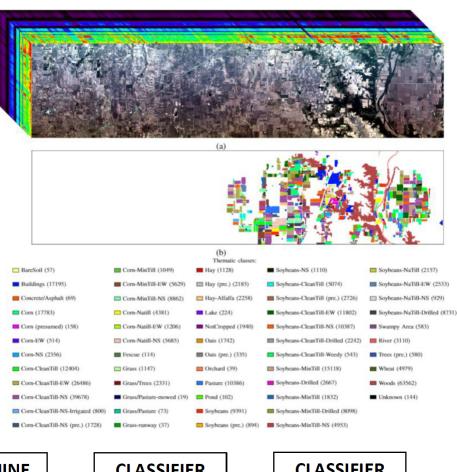


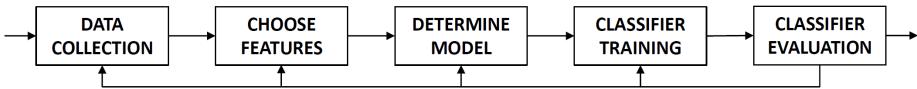




Review of Lecture 9 – Data Preparation & Performance Evaluation

- Real Datasets are challenging
 - High number of classes
 - High dimensional datasets
 - Unbalanced class problems
- Machine Learning
 - Not just use dataset with any kind of algorithms (e.g. ANNs)
 - Instead substantial feature selection & engineering before
 - How to choose a model given the data amount we have?





Outline of the Course

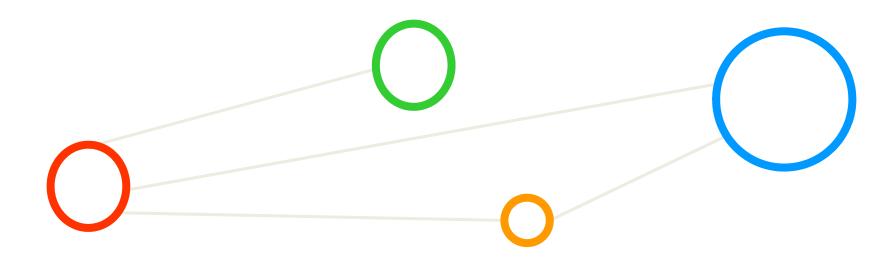
- 1. Parallel & Scalable Machine Learning driven by HPC
- 2. Introduction to Machine Learning Fundamentals
- 3. Introduction to Machine Learning Fundamentals
- 4. Feed Forward Neural Networks
- 5. Feed Forward Neural Networks
- 6. Validation and Regularization
- 7. Validation and Regularization
- 8. Data Preparation and Performance Evaluation
- 9. Data Preparation and Performance Evaluation
- 10. Theory of Generalization
- 11. Unsupervised Clustering and Applications
- 12. Unsupervised Clustering and Applications
- 13. Deep Learning Introduction

Theoretical Lectures

Practical Lectures



Outline

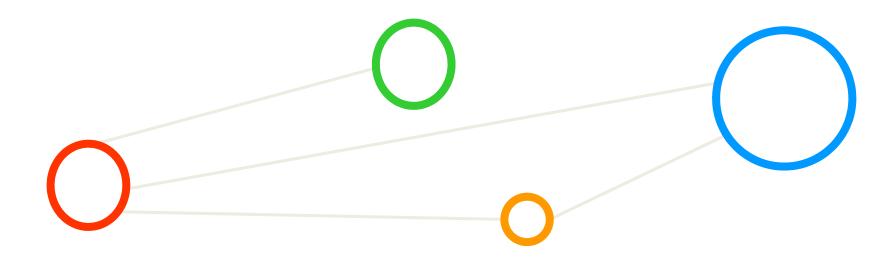


Outline

- Generalization in Supervised Learning
 - Formalization of Machine Learning
 - Mathematical Building Blocks & Linear Model Example
 - Feasibility of Learning & Degrees of Freedom
 - Hypothesis Set & Final Hypothesis
 - Learning Models & Validation Dependencies
- Learning Theory Basics
 - Union Bound & Problematic Factor M
 - Theory of Generalization
 - Linear Perceptron Example in Context
 - Model Complexity & VC Dimension
 - Problem of Overfitting



Generalization in Supervised Learning

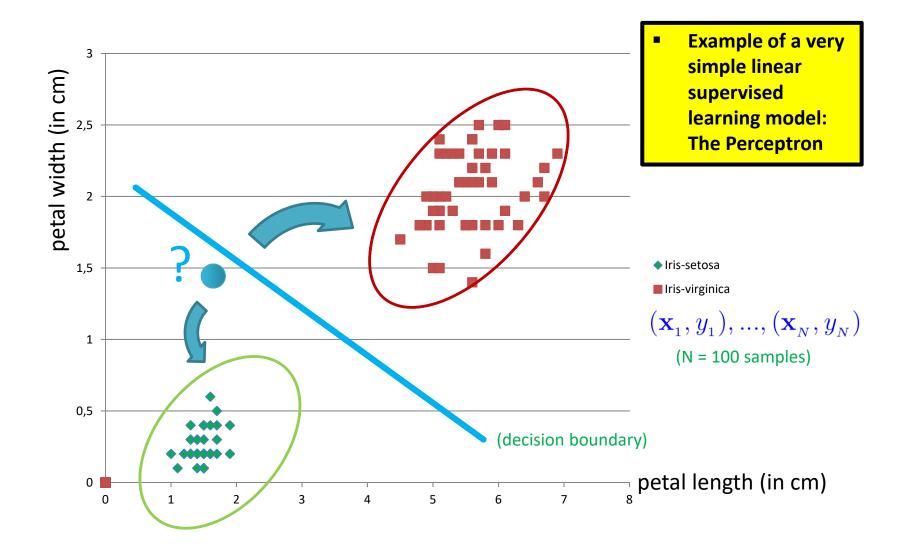


AUDIENCE QUESTION

What means generalization and why it is important?

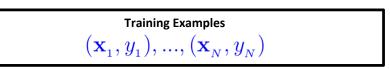


Supervised Learning & Generalization for New/Unseen Data



Learning Approaches – Supervised Learning – Formalization

- Each observation of the predictor measurement(s) has an associated response measurement:
 - Input $\mathbf{x} = x_1, ..., x_d$
 - Output $y_i, i = 1, ..., n$
 - $\bullet \quad \mathsf{Data} \quad (\mathbf{x}_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}, y_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}), ..., (\mathbf{x}_{\scriptscriptstyle N}, y_{\scriptscriptstyle N})$



(historical records, groundtruth data, examples)

- Goal: Fit a model that relates the response to the predictors
 - Prediction: Aims of accurately predicting the response for future observations
 - Inference: Aims to better understanding the relationship between the response and the predictors
- Supervised learning approaches fits a model that related the response to the predictors
- Supervised learning approaches are used in classification algorithms such as SVMs
- Supervised learning works with data = [input, correct output]

Feasibility of Learning

Statistical Learning Theory deals with the problem of finding a predictive function based on data

[2] Wikipedia on 'statistical learning theory'

- Theoretical framework underlying practical learning algorithms
 - E.g. Support Vector Machines (SVMs)
 - Best understood for 'Supervised Learning'
- Theoretical background used to solve 'A learning problem'
 - Inferring one 'target function' that maps between input and output
 - Learned function can be used to predict output from future input (fitting existing data is not enough)

Unknown Target Function $f:X\to Y$

(ideal function)

Terminologies & Different Dataset Elements

- Target Function $f: X \to Y$
 - Ideal function that 'explains' the data we want to learn
- Labelled Dataset (samples)
 - 'in-sample' data given to us: $(\mathbf{x}_1,y_1),...,(\mathbf{x}_N,y_N)$
- Learning vs. Memorizing
 - The goal is to create a system that works well 'out of sample'
 - In other words we want to classify 'future data' (ouf of sample) correct
- Dataset Part One: Training set
 - Used for training a machine learning algorithms
 - Result after using a training set: a trained system
- Dataset Part Two: Test set
 - Used for testing whether the trained system might work well
 - Result after using a test set: accuracy of the trained model

Exercises – Explore Testing on Training Dataset

Learning exercise to understand better the theory of generalization – don't do this in practice!



```
# model evaluation
score = model.evaluate(X_train, Y_train, verbose=VERBOSE)
print("Test score:", score[0])
print('Test accuracy:', score[1])
```

MNIST Data – Testing on Training Dataset – Solution

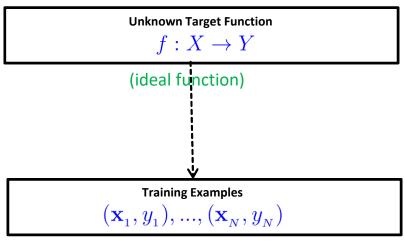
Memorizing vs.Generalization

```
[====>.....] - ETA: 1s
1552/60000
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       L5840/60000
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24512/60000
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54528/60000
55968/60000
57408/60000
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Ising TensorFlow backend.
est score: 0.035654142725043254
est accuracy: 0.9916
```

Mathematical Building Blocks (1)



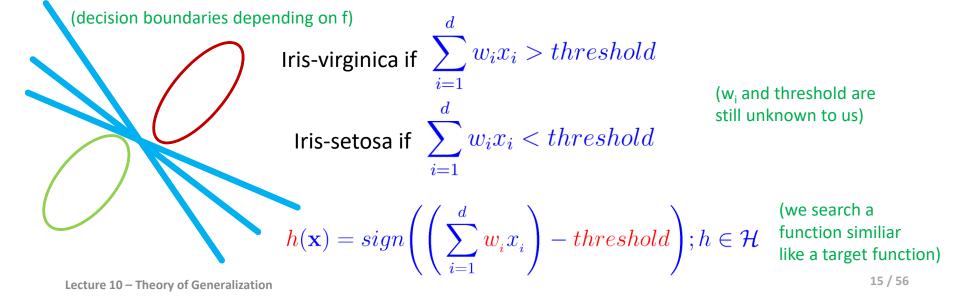
Mathematical Building Blocks (1) – Our Linear Example



(historical records, groundtruth data, examples)

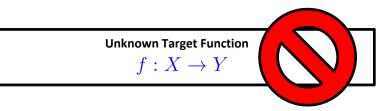
- 1. Some pattern exists
- 2. No exact mathematical formula (i.e. target function)
- 3. Data exists

(if we would know the exact target function we dont need machine learning, it would not make sense)



Feasibility of Learning – Hypothesis Set & Final Hypothesis

 The 'ideal function' will remain unknown in learning



- Impossible to know and learn from data
- If known a straightforward implementation would be better than learning
- E.g. hidden features/attributes of data not known or not part of data
- But '(function) approximation' of the target function is possible
 - Use training examples to learn and approximate it
 - Hypothesis set \mathcal{H} consists of m different hypothesis (candidate functions)

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, ..., h_m\};$$

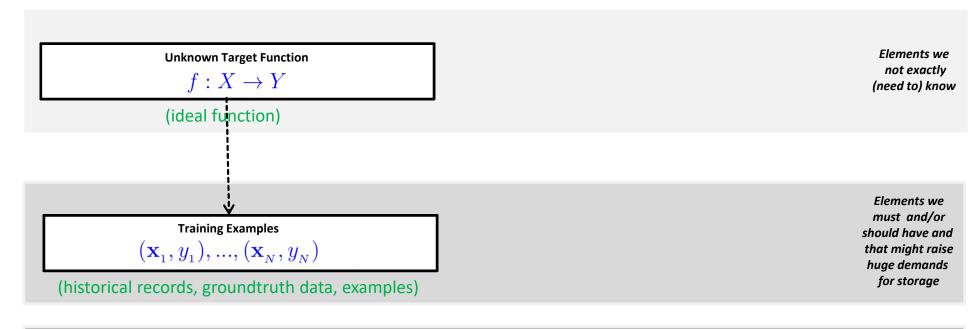
'select one function' that best approximates $g:X\to Y$

 $\mathcal{H} = \{h\}; \; g \in \mathcal{H}$



Final Hypothesis gpprox f

Mathematical Building Blocks (2)



Final Hypothesis gpprox f

Elements that we derive from our skillset and that can be computationally intensive

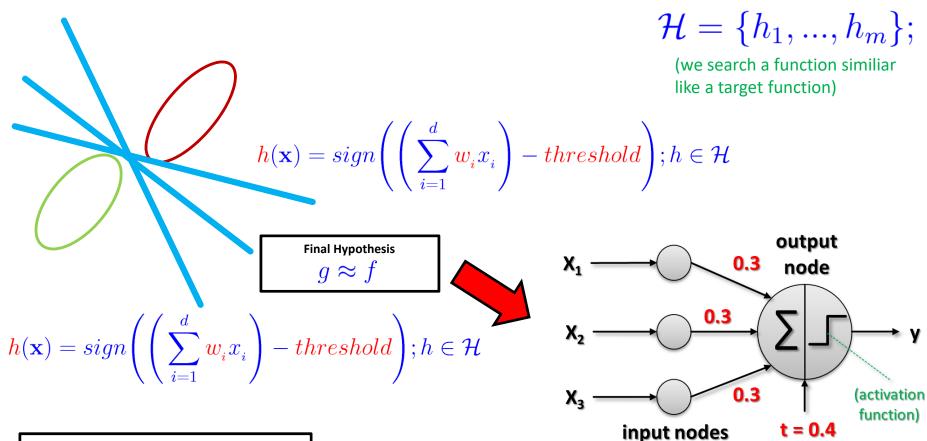
$$\mathcal{H}=\{h\};\;g\in\mathcal{H}$$

(set of candidate formulas)

Elements that we derive from our skillset

Mathematical Building Blocks (2) – Our Linear Example

(decision boundaries depending on f)



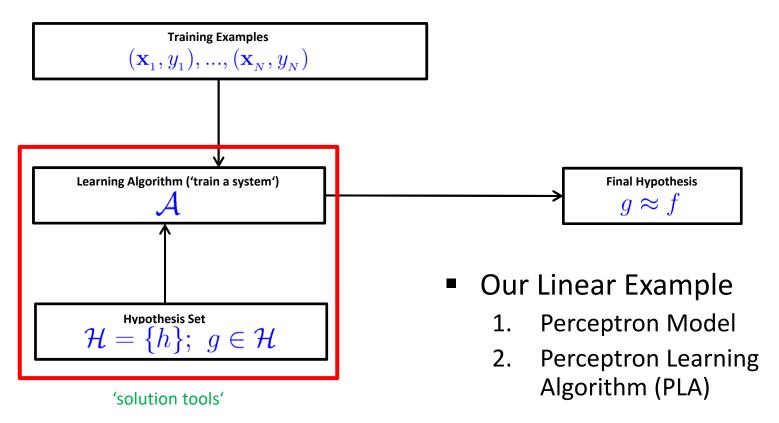
$$\mathcal{H} = \{h\}; \; g \in \mathcal{H}$$

(Perceptron model – linear model)

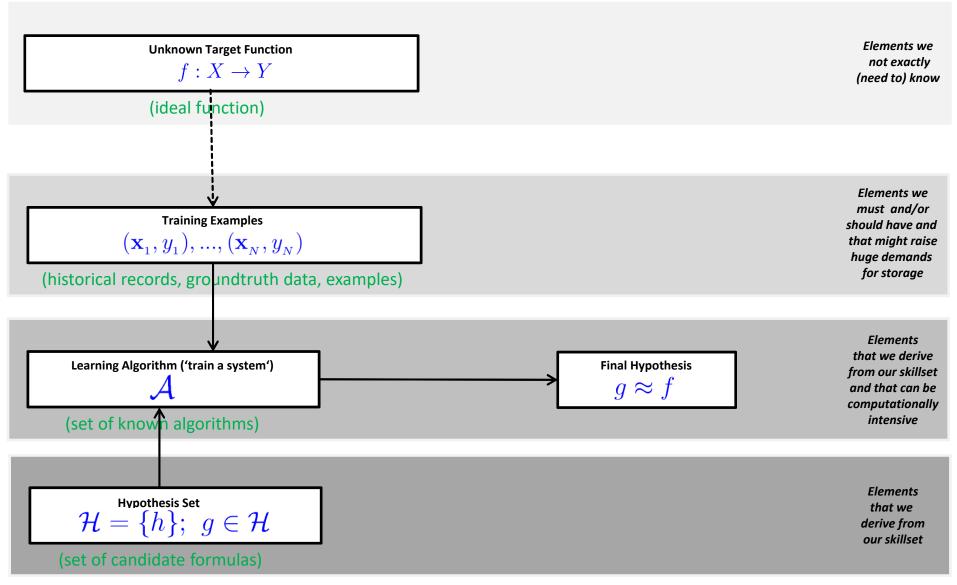
(trained perceptron model and our selected final hypothesis)

The Learning Model: Hypothesis Set & Learning Algorithm

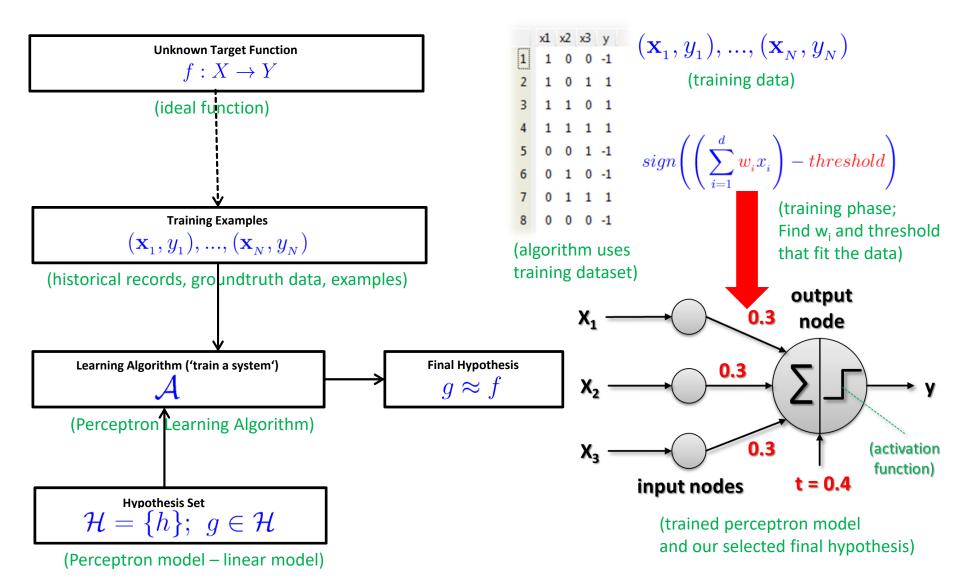
- The solution tools the learning model:
 - 1. Hypothesis set \mathcal{H} a set of candidate formulas /models
 - 2. Learning Algorithm \mathcal{A} 'train a system' with known algorithms



Mathematical Building Blocks (3)



Mathematical Building Blocks (3) – Our Linear Example



Different Models - Hypothesis Set & 'Degrees of Freedom'

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h\}; \; g \in \mathcal{H}$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, ..., h_m\};$$

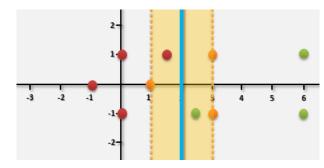
(all candidate functions derived from models and their parameters)

- Choosing from various model approaches h₁, ...,
 h_m is a different hypothesis
- Additionally a change in model parameters of h₁, ..., h_m means a different hypothesis too

'select one function' that best approximates

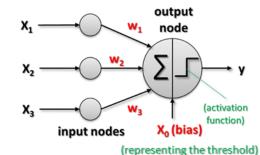
Final Hypothesis
$$gpprox f$$

 h_1



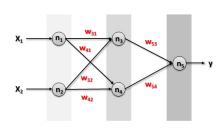
(e.g. support vector machine model)

 h_2



(e.g. linear perceptron model)

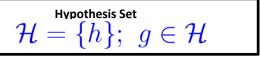
 h_m



(e.g. artificial neural network model)

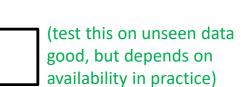
Validation Technique – Model Selection Process – Revisited

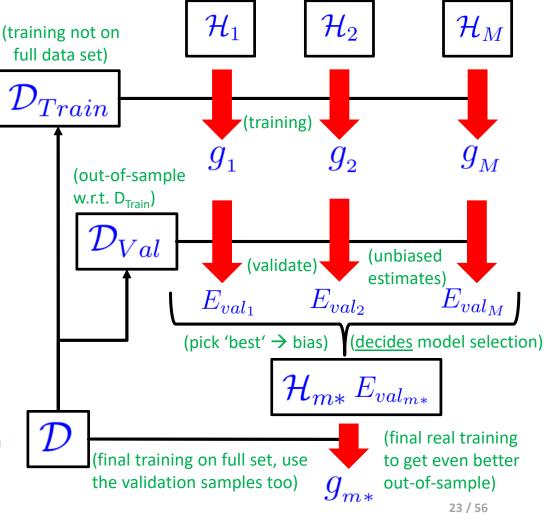
- Model selection is choosing (a) different types of models or (b) parameter values inside models
- Model selection takes advantage of the validation error in order to decide → 'pick the best'



(set of candidate formulas across models)

- Many different models
 Use validation error to
 perform select decisions
- Careful consideration:
 - Picked means decided' hypothesis has already bias (→ contamination)
 - Using \mathcal{D}_{Val} M times

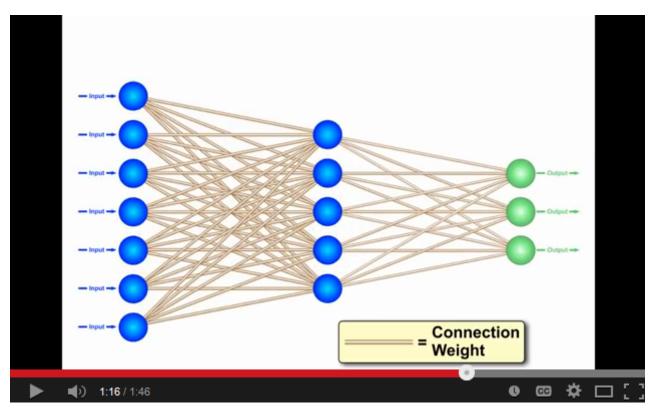




Final Hypothesis

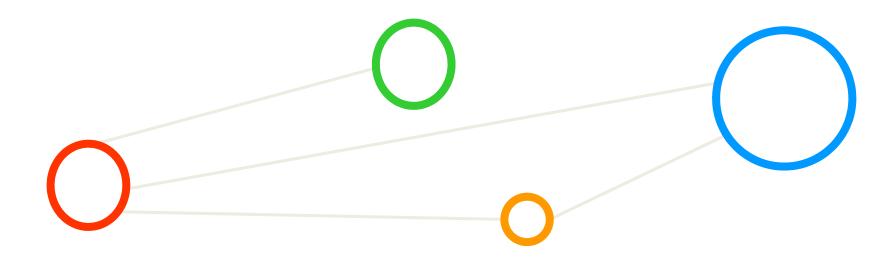
 $g_{m*} \approx f$

[Video] Towards Multi-Layer Perceptrons



[3] YouTube Video, Neural Networks – A Simple Explanation

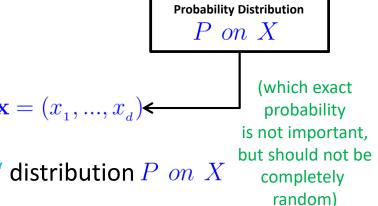
Learning Theory Basics



Feasibility of Learning – Probability Distribution

- Predict output from future input (fitting existing data is not enough)
 - In-sample '1000 points' fit well
 - Possible: Out-of-sample >= '1001 point' doesn't fit very well
 - Learning 'any target function' is not feasible (can be anything)
- Assumptions about 'future input'
 - Statement is possible to define about the data outside the in-sample data $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)$ $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_d)$ $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_d)$
 - All samples (also future ones) are derived from same 'unknown probability' distribution $P\ on\ X$

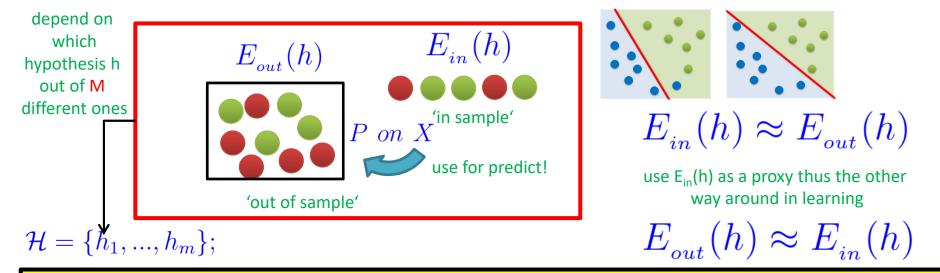
Unknown Target Function $f:X\to Y$ Training Examples $(\mathbf{x}_1,y_1),...,(\mathbf{x}_N,y_N)$



Statistical Learning Theory assumes an unknown probability distribution over the input space X

Feasibility of Learning – In Sample vs. Out of Sample

- Given 'unknown' probability P on X
 - Given large sample N for $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)$
 - There is a probability of 'picking one point or another'
 - 'Error on in sample' is known quantity (using labelled data): $E_{in}(h)$
 - 'Error on out of sample' is unknown quantity: $E_{out}(h)$
 - In-sample frequency is likely close to out-of-sample frequency E_{in} tracks E_{out}



Statistical Learning Theory part that enables that learning is feasible in a probabilistic sense (P on X)

Feasibility of Learning – Union Bound & Factor M

- The union bound means that (for any countable set of m 'events') the probability that at least one of the events happens is not greater that the sum of the probabilities of the m individual 'events'
 - Assuming no overlaps in hypothesis set
 - Apply mathematical rule 'union bound'
 - (Note the usage of g instead of h, we need to visit all)

Final Hypothesis $q \approx f$

Think if E_{in} deviates from E_{out} with more than tolerance E it is a 'bad event' in order to apply union bound

$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g)\mid > \epsilon \right] <= \Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(h_1) - E_{out}(h_1)\mid > \epsilon \right]$$
 or
$$\left|E_{in}(h_2) - E_{out}(h_2)\mid > \epsilon \right]$$
 or
$$\left|E_{in}(h_M) - E_{out}(h_M)\mid > \epsilon \right]$$
 or
$$\left|E_{in}(h_M) - E_{out}(h_M)\mid > \epsilon \right]$$
 Pr
$$\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g)\mid > \epsilon \right] <= \sum_{m=1}^{M} \Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(h_m) - E_{out}(h_m)\mid > \epsilon \right]$$
 fixed quantity for each hypothesis obtained from Hoeffdings Inequality
$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g)\mid > \epsilon \right] <= \sum_{m=1}^{M} 2e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$
 problematic: if M is too big we loose the link between the in-sample and out-of-sample

Feasibility of Learning – Modified Hoeffding's Inequality

- lacktriangle Errors in-sample $E_{in}(g)$ track errors out-of-sample $E_{out}(g)$
 - Statement is made being 'Probably Approximately Correct (PAC)'
 - Given M as number of hypothesis of hypothesis set \mathcal{H} (Tolerance parameter in learning ϵ [4] Valiant, A Theory of the Learnable, 1984
 - Mathematically established via 'modified Hoeffdings Inequality':

(original Hoeffdings Inequality doesn't apply to multiple hypothesis)

$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g)\mid > \epsilon \right] <= 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2N}$$

'Probability that E_{in} deviates from E_{out} by more than the tolerance E is a small quantity depending on M and N'

- Theoretical 'Big Data' Impact → more N → better learning
 - lacksquare The more samples N the more reliable will track $\,E_{in}(g)\,E_{out}(g)\,$ well
 - (But: the 'quality of samples' also matter, not only the number of samples)
- Statistical Learning Theory part describing the Probably Approximately Correct (PAC) learning

Exercises – Explore Train on Test & Test on Train

Learning exercise to understand better the theory of generalization – don't do this in practice!



```
# model training
history = model.fit(X_test, Y_test, batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, epochs=NB_EPOCH, verbose=VERBOSE, validation_split = VAL_SPLIT)
# model evaluation
score = model.evaluate(X_train, Y_train, verbose=VERBOSE)
print("Test score:", score[0])
print('Test accuracy:', score[1])
```

MNIST Data – Testing on Training Dataset (20 Epochs)

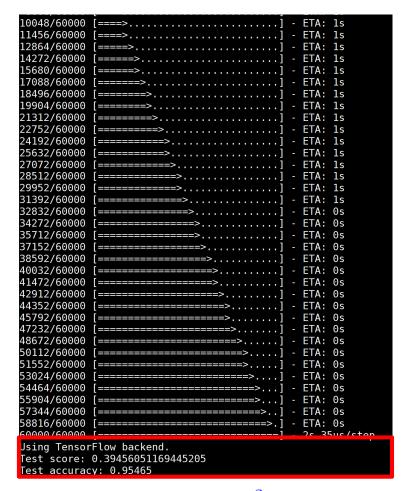
- Testing Dataset 10000 samples now training
- Training Data 60000 samples now testing
- Number N
 affects training
 performance
 (was ~98%,
 Epochs constant)

```
26176/60000
27584/60000
28960/60000
30336/60000
31712/60000
33056/60000
34432/60000
35808/60000
37184/60000
38528/60000
39936/60000
41344/60000
42784/60000
44192/60000
45600/60000
47008/60000
48416/60000
49824/60000
51232/60000
52608/60000
54016/60000
55424/60000
56864/60000
58272/60000
59680/60000
                                               - ETA: 0s
60000/60000
Using TensorFlow backend.
Test score: 0.2172071209657685
Test accuracy: 0.94875
```

$$\Pr [| E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) | > \epsilon] \le 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

MNIST Data – Testing on Training Dataset (200 Epochs)

- Testing Dataset 10000 samples now training
- Training Data 60000 samples now testing
- Number N
 affects training
 performance
 (was ~98%,
 Epochs 200)



$$\Pr [| E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) | > \epsilon] \le 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

MNIST Data – Testing on Training Dataset (400 Epochs)

- Testing Dataset 10000 samples now training
- Training Data 60000 samples now testing
- Number N
 affects training
 performance
 (was ~98%,
 Epochs 400)

```
- ETA: 1s
          17312/60000
         ======> ..... - ETA: 1s
                28672/60000
         30112/60000
34400/60000
35808/60000
40096/60000
41536/60000
12944/60000
44384/60000
45824/60000
47232/60000
50112/60000
51552/60000
52960/60000
55808/60000
57216/60000
Using TensorFlow backend.
Test score: 0.46486433204362193
Test accuracy: 0.9536333333333333
```

$$\Pr [| E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) | > \epsilon] \le 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

MNIST Data – Testing on Training Dataset (800 Epochs)

- Testing Dataset 10000 samples now training
- Training Data 60000 samples now testing
- Number N
 affects training
 performance
 (was ~98%,
 Epochs 800)

```
poch 800/800

128/8000 [......] - ETA: 0s - loss: 0.0126 - acc: 0.9922

048/8000 [=====>....] - ETA: 0s - loss: 0.0106 - acc: 0.9980

968/8000 [======>....] - ETA: 0s - loss: 0.0148 - acc: 0.9972

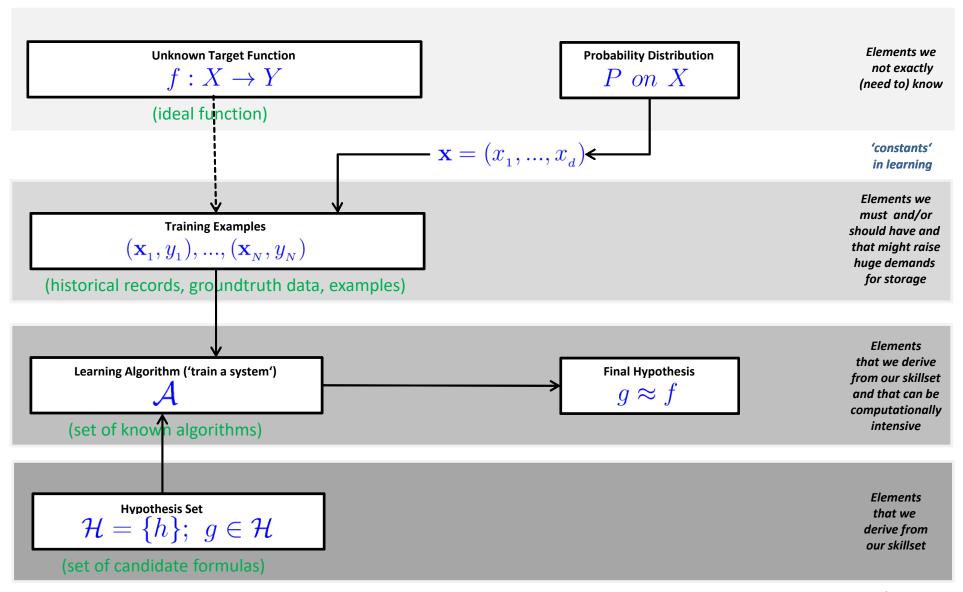
888/8000 [==========>....] - ETA: 0s - loss: 0.0140 - acc: 0.9976

808/8000 [============].] - ETA: 0s - loss: 0.0111 - acc: 0.9980

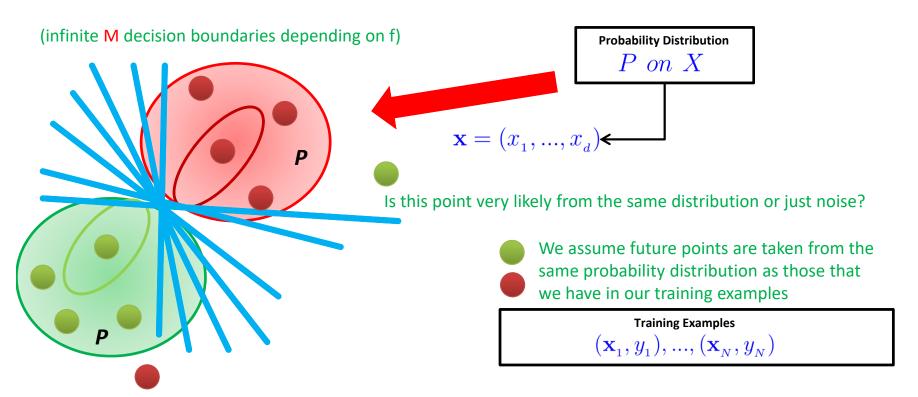
000/8000 [==============] - 0s 30us/step - loss: 0.0108 - acc: 0.9980 - val_loss: 0.2866 - val_acc: 0.9725
```

$$\Pr [| E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) | > \epsilon] \le 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

Mathematical Building Blocks (4)



Mathematical Building Blocks (4) – Our Linear Example



Is this point very likely from the same distribution or just noise?

(we help here with the assumption for the samples)

(we do not solve the M problem here)

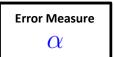
$$\Pr [| E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) | > \epsilon] \le 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

(counter example would be for instance a random number generator, impossible to learn this!)

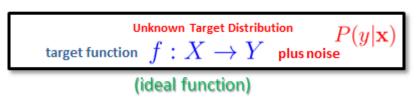
Statistical Learning Theory – Error Measure & Noisy Targets

- Question: How can we learn a function from (noisy) data?
- 'Error measures' to quantify our progress, the goal is: $h \approx f$
 - Often user-defined, if not often 'squared error':

$$e(h(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x})) = (h(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

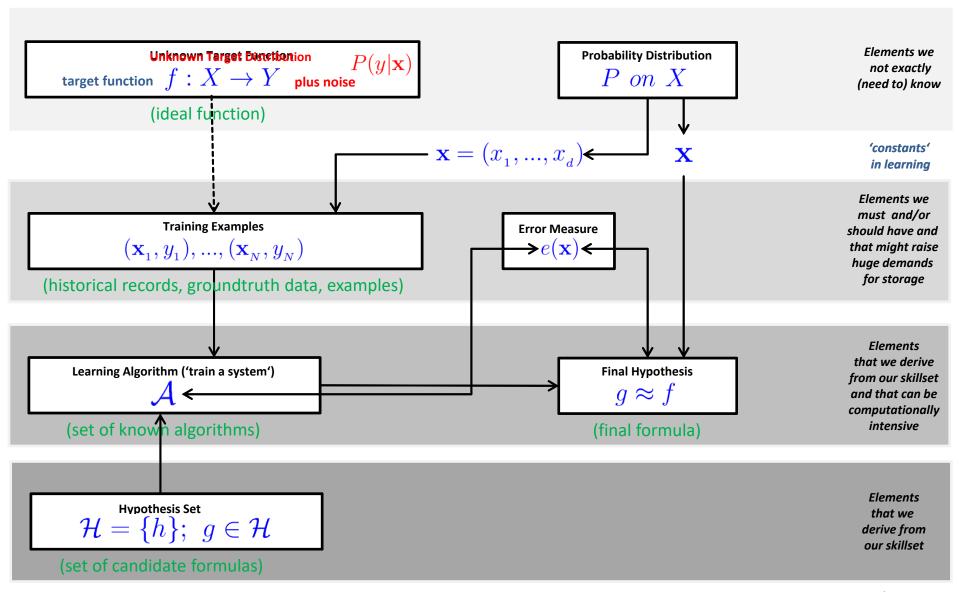


- E.g. 'point-wise error measure'
- (e.g. think movie rated now and in 10 years from now)
- '(Noisy) Target function' is not a (deterministic) function
 - Getting with 'same x in' the 'same y out' is not always given in practice
 - Problem: 'Noise' in the data that hinders us from learning
 - Idea: Use a 'target distribution' instead of 'target function'
 - E.g. credit approval (yes/no)



Statistical Learning Theory refines the learning problem of learning an unknown target distribution

Mathematical Building Blocks (5)



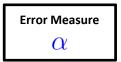
Mathematical Building Blocks (5) – Our Linear Example

■ Iterative Method using (labelled) training data $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), ..., (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)$

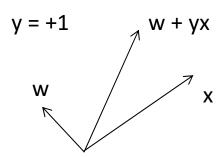
(one point at a time is picked)

1. Pick one misclassified training point where:

$$sign(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_n) \neq y_n$$



(a)



2. Update the weight vector:

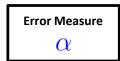
$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

 $(y_n \text{ is either } +1 \text{ or } -1)$

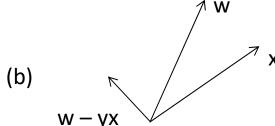
- (a) adding a vector or
- (b) subtracting a vector

$$y = -1$$

 Terminates when there are no misclassified points



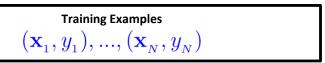
(converges only with linearly seperable data)



Training and Testing – Influence on Learning

Mathematical notations

- Testing follows: $\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) E_{out}(g)\mid > \epsilon \right] <= 2 e^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$ (hypothesis clear)
- Training follows: $\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) E_{out}(g)\mid > \epsilon \right] <= 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2N}$ (hypothesis search) (e.g. student exam training on examples to get E_{in} , down', then test via exam)
- Practice on 'training examples'
 - Create two disjoint datasets
 - One used for training only (aka training set)
 - Another used for testing only (aka test set)



(historical records, groundtruth data, examples)

- Training & Testing are different phases in the learning process
 - Concrete number of samples in each set often influences learning

Theory of Generalization – Initial Generalization & Limits

- Learning is feasible in a probabilistic sense
 - $\,\blacksquare\,$ Reported final hypothesis using a 'generalization window' on $E_{out}(g)$
 - Expecting 'out of sample performance' tracks 'in sample performance'
 - \blacksquare Approach: $E_{in}(g)$ acts as a 'proxy' for $E_{out}(g)$

$$E_{out}(g) \approx E_{in}(g)$$

This is not full learning – rather 'good generalization' since the quantity E_{out}(g) is an unknown quantity

Reasoning

Above condition is not the final hypothesis condition:

Final Hypothesis gpprox f

- More similar like $E_{out}(g)$ approximates 0 (out of sample error is close to 0 if approximating f)
- ullet $E_{out}(g)$ measures how far away the value is from the 'target function'
- Problematic because $E_{out}(g)$ is an unknown quantity (cannot be used...)
- The learning process thus requires 'two general core building blocks'

Theory of Generalization – Learning Process Reviewed

- 'Learning Well'
 - lacktriangle Two core building blocks that achieve $E_{out}(g)$ approximates 0
- First core building block
 - \bullet Theoretical result using Hoeffdings Inequality $\;E_{out}(g)\approx E_{in}(g)\;$
 - Using $E_{out}(g)$ directly is not possible it is an unknown quantity
- Second core building block

(try to get the 'in-sample' error lower)

- $\,\blacksquare\,$ Practical result using tools & techniques to get $\,E_{in}(g)\approx 0\,$
- e.g. linear models with the Perceptron Learning Algorithm (PLA)
- Using $E_{in}(g)$ is possible it is a known quantity 'so lets get it small'
- Lessons learned from practice: in many situations 'close to 0' impossible
- E.g. remote sensing images use case of land cover classification
- Full learning means that we can make sure that E_{out}(g) is close enough to E_{in}(g) [from theory]
- Full learning means that we can make sure that E_{in}(g) is small enough [from practical techniques]

Complexity of the Hypothesis Set – Infinite Spaces Problem

$$\Pr \left[| E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) | > \epsilon \right] <= 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

theory helps to find a way to deal with infinite M hypothesis spaces

- Tradeoff & Review
 - Tradeoff between €, M, and the 'complexity of the hypothesis space H'
 - Contribution of detailed learning theory is to 'understand factor M'
- lacktriangle M Elements of the hypothesis set ${\mathcal H}_{\mathsf{M}}$ M elements in H here
 - Ok if N gets big, but problematic if M gets big → bound gets meaningless
 - E.g. classification models like perceptron, support vector machines, etc.
 - Challenge: those classification models have continous parameters
 - Consequence: those classification models have infinite hypothesis spaces
 - Aproach: despite their size, the models still have limited expressive power
- Many elements of the hypothesis set H have continous parameter with infinite M hypothesis spaces

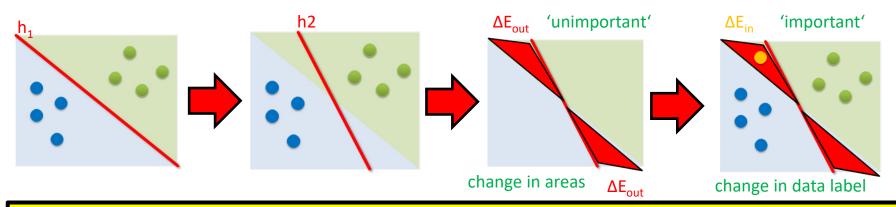
Factor M from the Union Bound & Hypothesis Overlaps

$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) \mid > \epsilon \right] <= \Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(h_1) - E_{out}(h_1) \mid > \epsilon \right. \qquad \text{assumes no overlaps, all probabilities} \\ \text{or} \quad \mid E_{in}(h_2) - E_{out}(h_2) \mid > \epsilon \quad \dots \quad \text{happen disjointly}$$

$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) \mid > \epsilon \; \right] <= \; 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2N}$$
 takes no overlaps of **M** hypothesis into account

- Union bound is a 'poor bound', ignores correlation between h
 - Overlaps are common: <u>the interest is shifted to data points</u> changing label

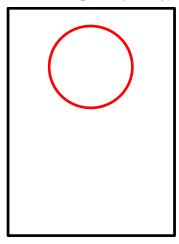
$$\mid E_{in}(h_1) - E_{out}(h_1) \mid \approx \quad \mid E_{in}(h_2) - E_{out}(h_2) \mid \quad \text{(at least very often, indicator to reduce M)}$$



Statistical Learning Theory provides a quantity able to characterize the overlaps for a better bound

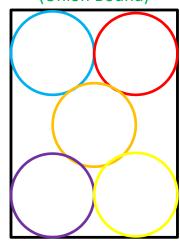
Replacing M & Large Overlaps

(Hoeffding Inequality)



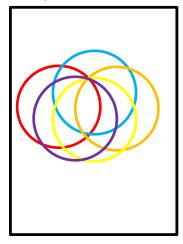
(valid for 1 hypothesis)

(Union Bound)



(valid for M hypothesis, worst case)

(towards Vapnik Chervonenkis Bound)



(valid for m (N) as growth function)

- Characterizing the overlaps is the idea of a 'growth function'
 - Number of dichotomies: $\mathbf{m}_{\mathcal{H}}(N) = \max_{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N} |\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N)|$ Number of hypothesis but on finite number N of points
 - Much redundancy: Many hypothesis will reports the same dichotomies
- The mathematical proofs that m_H(N) can replace M is a key part of the theory of generalization

Complexity of the Hypothesis Set – VC Inequality

$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) \mid > \epsilon \right] <= 2Me^{-2\epsilon^2 N}$$

$$\mathbf{m}_{\mathcal{H}}(N) = \max_{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N} |\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N)|$$

- Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) Inequality
 - Result of mathematical proof when replacing M with growth function m
 - 2N of growth function to have another sample (2 x $E_{in}(h)$, no $E_{out}(h)$)

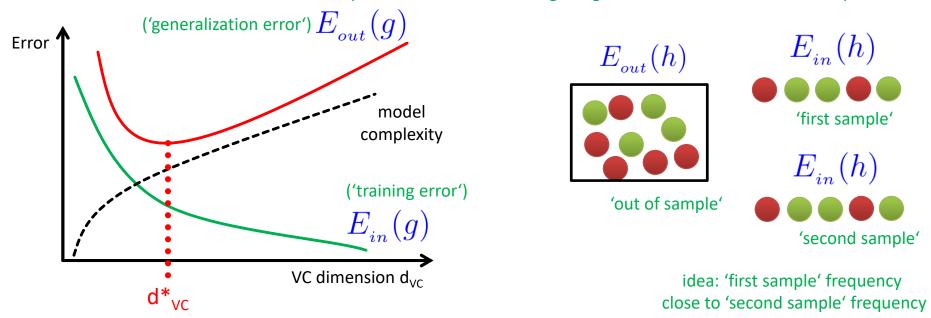
$$\Pr\left[\mid E_{in}(g) - E_{out}(g) \mid > \epsilon \right] <= 4m_{\mathcal{H}}(2N)e^{-1/8\epsilon^2N}$$
(characterization of generalization)

- In Short finally: We are able to learn and can generalize 'ouf-of-sample'
- The Vapnik-Chervonenkis Inequality is the most important result in machine learning theory
- The mathematial proof brings us that M can be replaced by growth function (no infinity anymore)
- The growth function is dependent on the amount of data N that we have in a learning problem

Complexity of the Hypothesis Set – VC Dimension

- Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) Dimension over instance space X
 - VC dimension gets a 'generalization bound' on all possible target functions

Issue: unknown to 'compute' - VC solved this using the growth function on different samples



- Complexity of Hypothesis set H can be measured by the Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) Dimension d_{VC}
- Ignoring the model complexity d_{VC} leads to situations where E_{in}(g) gets down and E_{out}(g) gets up

Different Models – Hypothesis Set & Model Capacity

$$\mathcal{H}=\{h\};\,\,g\in\mathcal{H}$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \{h_1, ..., h_m\};$$

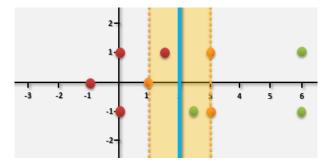
(all candidate functions derived from models and their parameters)

- Choosing from various model approaches h₁, ...,
 h_m is a different hypothesis
- Additionally a change in model parameters of h₁, ..., h_m means a different hypothesis too
- The model capacity characterized by the VC
 Dimension helps in choosing models
- Occam's Razor rule of thumb: 'simpler model better' in any learning problem, not too simple!

'select one function' that best approximates

Final Hypothesis
$$gpprox f$$

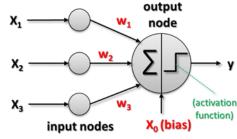
 h_1



(e.g. support vector machine model)

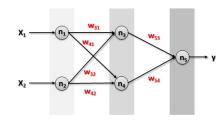
 h_2

 h_{m}



(representing the threshold)

(e.g. linear perceptron model)



(e.g. artificial neural network model)

Validation Technique – Model Selection Process – Revisited

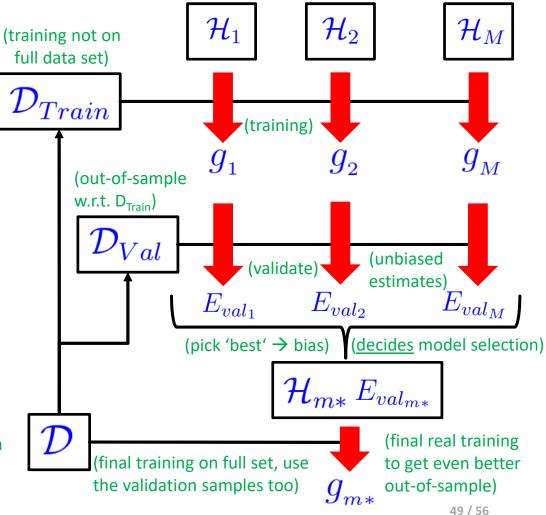
- Model selection is choosing (a) different types of models or (b) parameter values inside models
- Model selection takes advantage of the validation error in order to decide → 'pick the best'

$$\mathcal{H}=\{h\};\;g\in\mathcal{H}$$

(set of candidate formulas across models)

- Many different models
 Use validation error to
 perform select decisions
- Careful consideration:
 - Picked means decided' hypothesis has already bias (→ contamination)
 - Using \mathcal{D}_{Val} M times





AUDIENCE QUESTION

What could happen to Overfitting and we try to stop it?

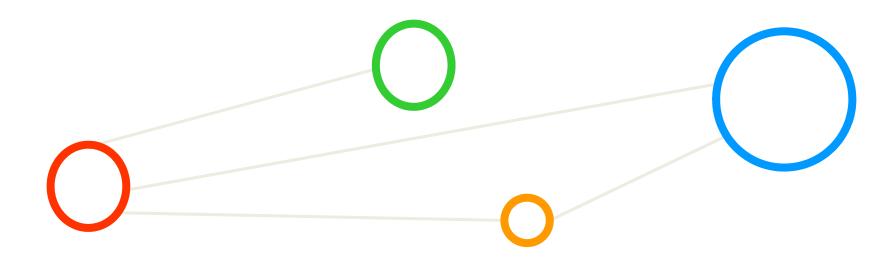


Prevent Overfitting for better 'ouf-of-sample' generalization



[5] Stop Overfitting, YouTube

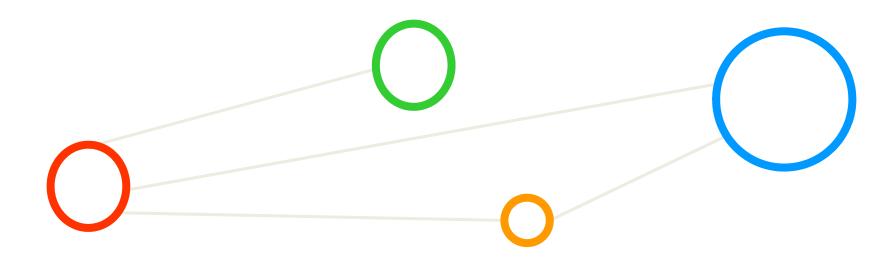
Appendix A – SSH Commands JURECA



Appendix A – SSH Commands JURECA

- salloc --gres=gpu:4 --partition=gpus --nodes=1 -account=training1904 --time=00:30:00 -reservation=prace_ml_gpus_tue
- module --force purge; module use /usr/local/software/jureca/OtherStages module load Stages/Devel-2018b GCCcore/.7.3.0 module load TensorFlow/1.12.0-GPU-Python-3.6.6 module load Keras/2.2.4-GPU-Python-3.6.6
- srun python PYTHONSCRIPTNAME

Lecture Bibliography



Lecture Bibliography

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Acknowledgements and more Information: Yaser Abu-Mostafa, Caltech Lecture series, YouTube

Slides Available at http://www.morrisriedel.de/teaching

