Introduction to Machine Learning

Journées Calcul et Apprentissage

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24-25 avril 2019

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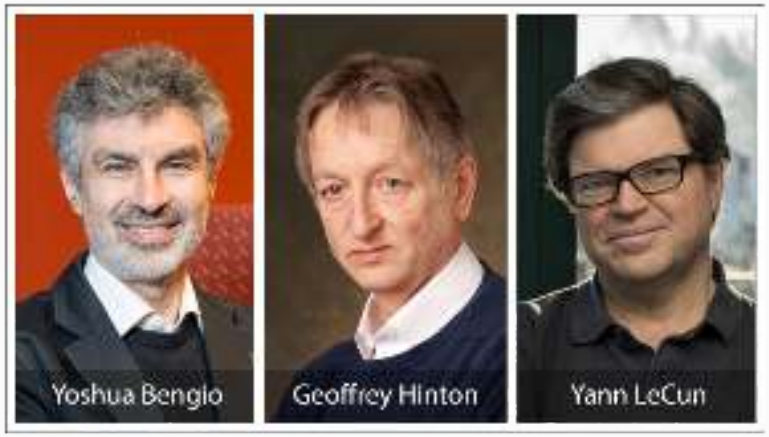
What is Machine Learning?

Why Machine Learning?

Actualité

Yann LeCun, Geoffrey Hinton et Yoshua Bengio reçoivent le prix Turing



LE MACHINE LEARNING PROVOQUE UNE CRISE DANS LE DOMAINE DE LA SCIENCE

Le Machine Learning est en train de provoquer une grave crise de reproductibilité dans le domaine de la science. C'est ce qu'affirme la statisticienne Genevera Allen de la Rice University dans le cadre de la conférence AAAS Annual Meeting.

De plus en plus de chercheurs utilisent le Machine Learning pour analyser des données et y détecter des tendances. Cependant, dans le cadre de la conférence scientifique AAAS Annual Meeting, la statisticienne Genevera Allen de la Rice University a tenu à tirer la sonnette d'alarme. Selon elle, le Machine Learning est en passe de provoquer **une crise de reproductibilité dans le domaine de la science**.

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Machine Learning for Science: State of the Art and Future Prospects

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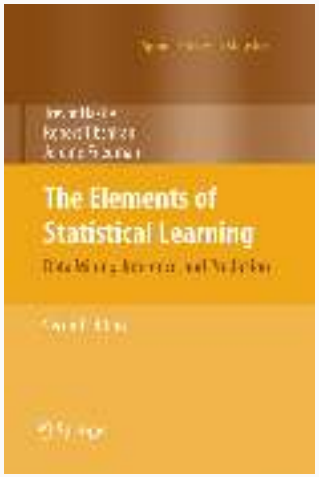
Abstract

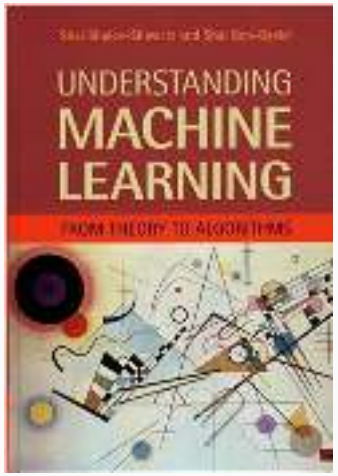
PUBLIC RELEASE: 15-FEB-2019

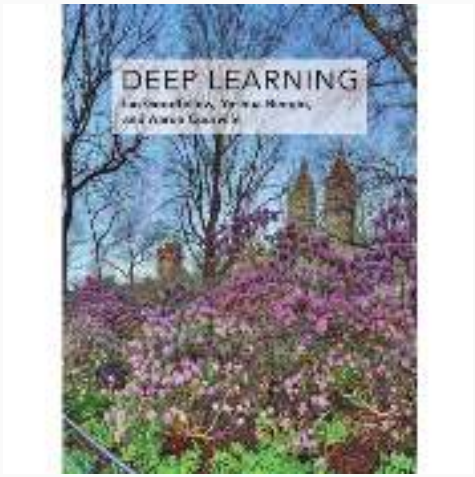
Can we trust scientific discoveries made using machine learning?

RICE UNIVERSITY

Where to learn more?



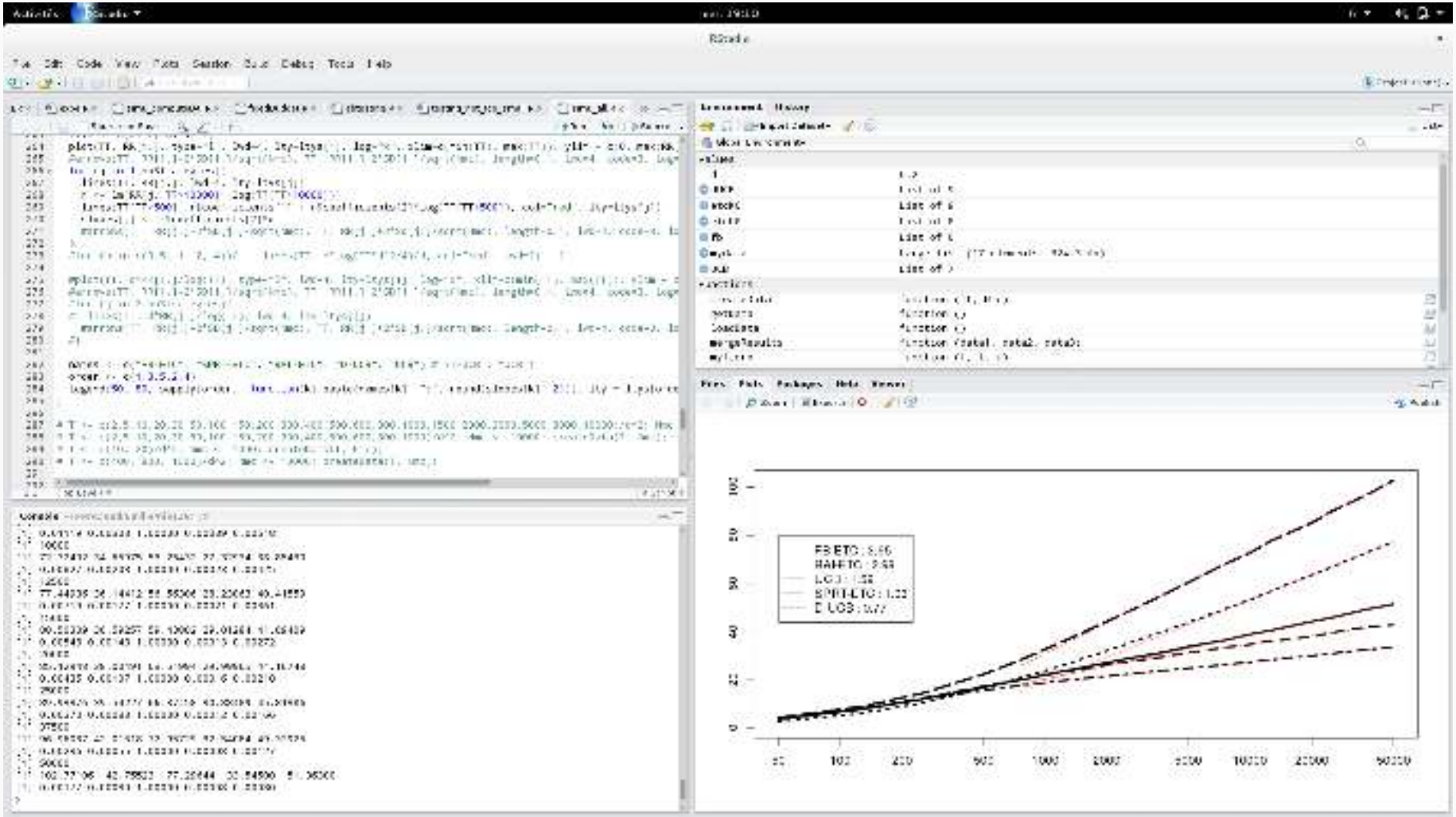




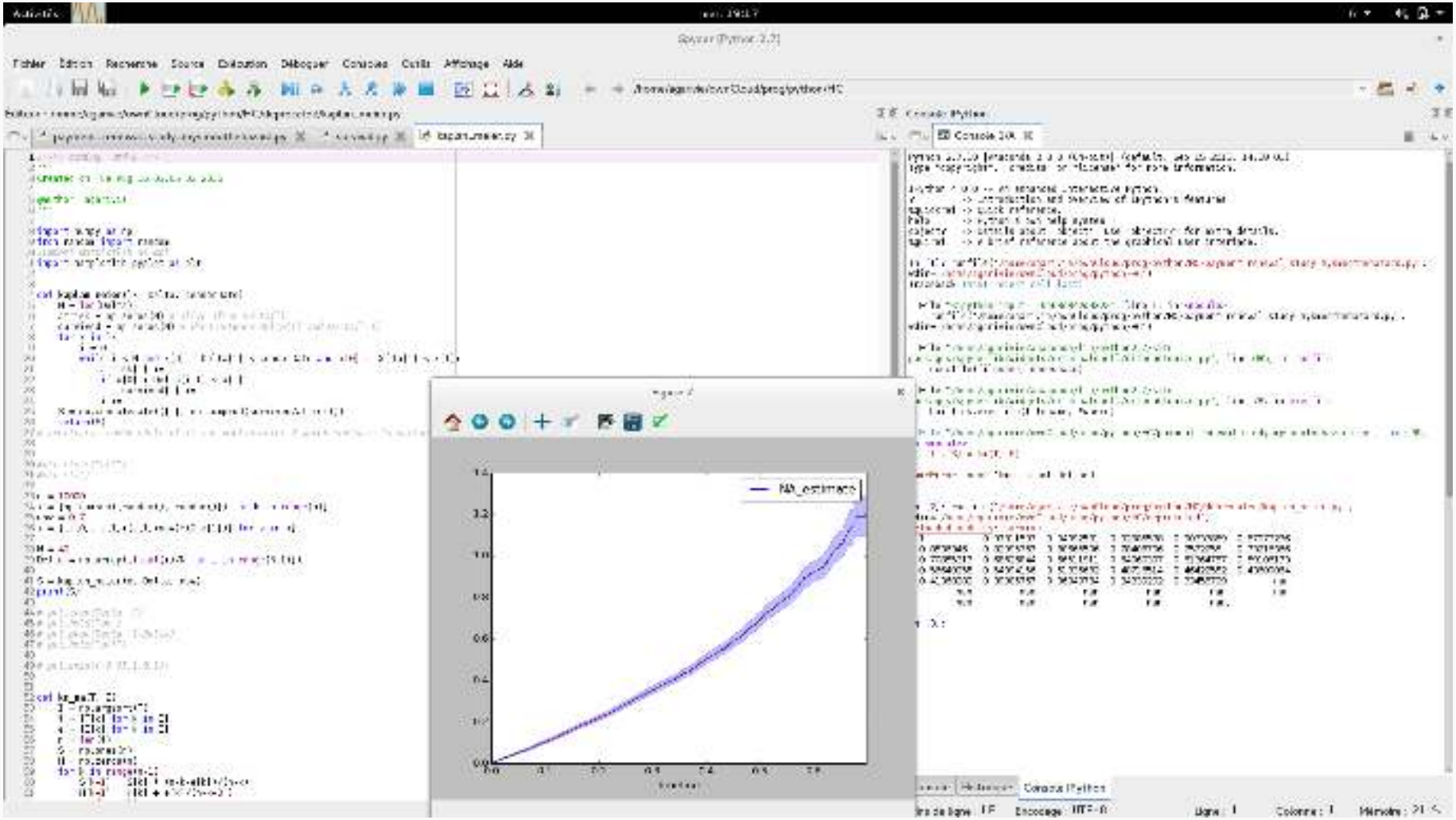
WikiStat

scikit learn

What do I need to practice ML? R



What do I need to practice ML? python



What do I need to practice ML? scikit-learn

Outline

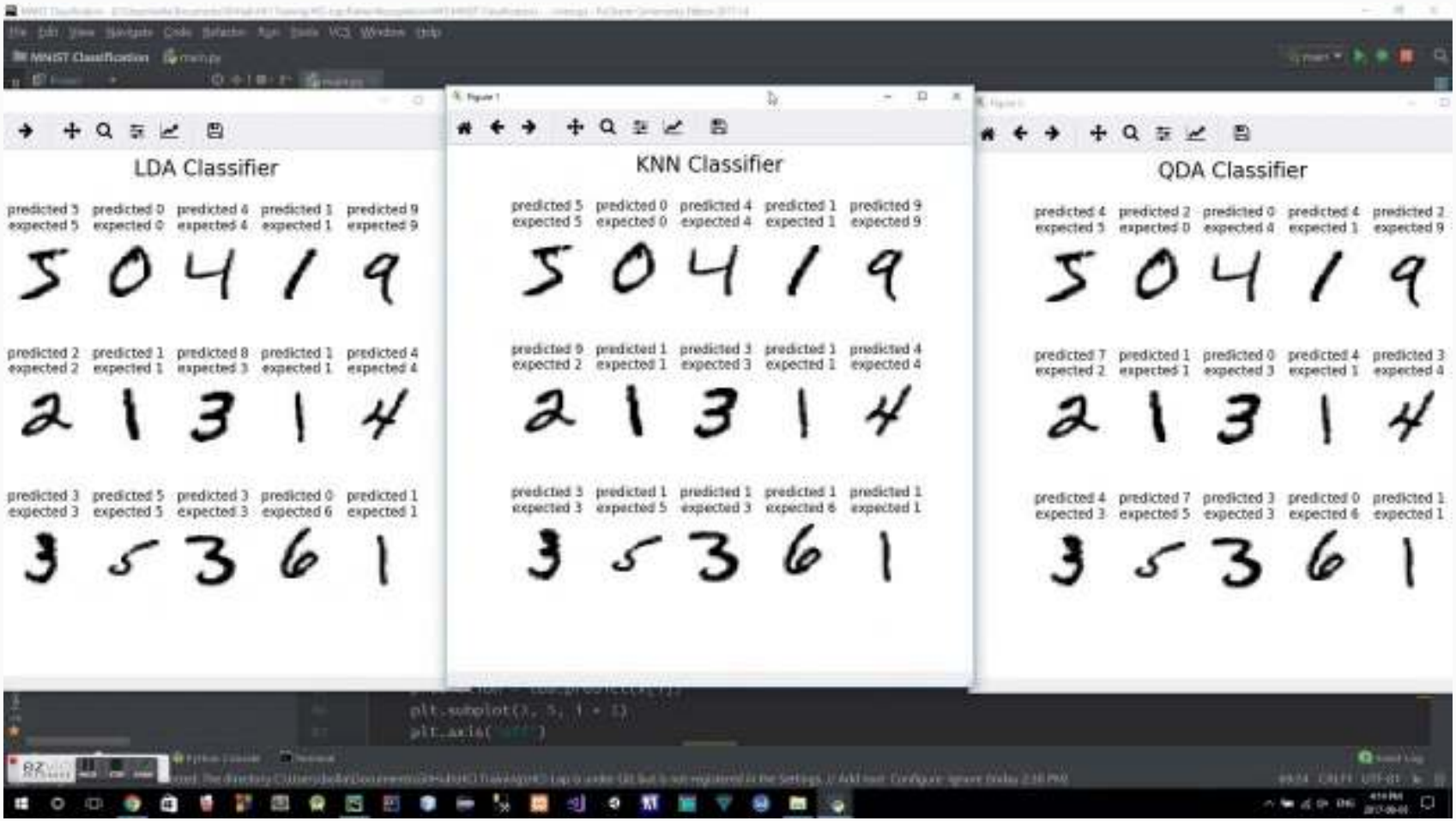
What is Machine Learning?

- Algorithms operate by building a model from **example** inputs in order to make data-driven **predictions or decisions**...
- ...rather than following strictly static program instructions: useful when designing and programming explicit algorithms is unfeasible or poorly efficient.

Within Artificial Intelligence

- evolved from the study of pattern recognition and computational learning theory in artificial intelligence.
- AI: emulate cognitive capabilities of humans
  (big data: humans learn from abundant and diverse sources of data).
- a machine mimics "cognitive" functions that humans associate with other human minds, such as "learning" and "problem solving".

Example: MNIST dataset



Definition

Arthur Samuel (1959)

Field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed

Tom M. Mitchell (1997)

A computer program is said to learn from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and performance measure P if its performance at tasks in T, as measured by P, improves with experience E.

Machine Learning: Typical Problems

- spam filtering, text classification
- optical character recognition (OCR)
- search engines
- recommendation platforms
- speach recognition software
- computer vision
- bio-informatics, DNA analysis, medicine
- ...

For each of this task, it is possible but very inefficient to write an explicit program reaching the prescribed goal.

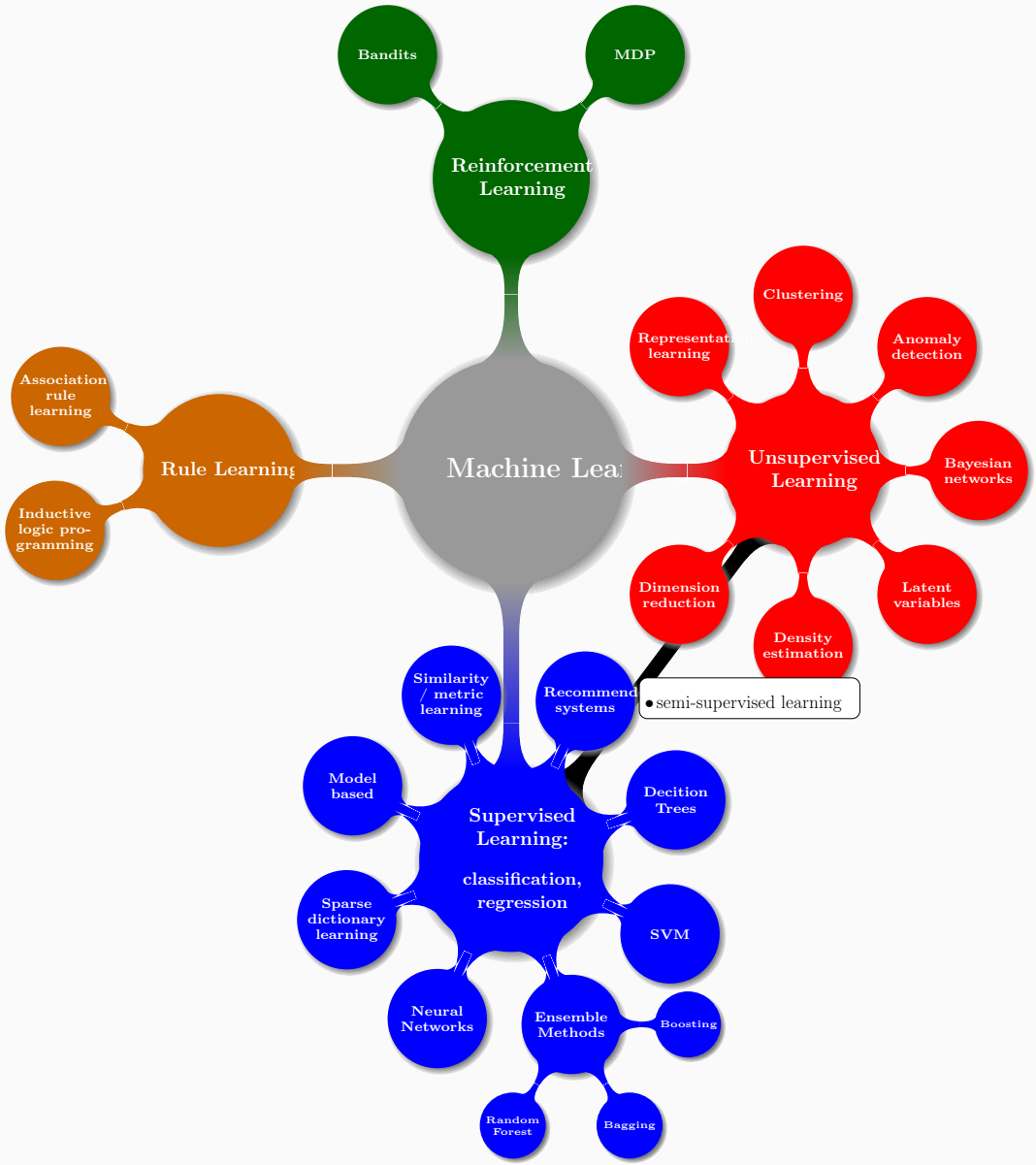
It proves much more succesful to have a machine infer what the good decision rules are.

What is Statistical Learning?

= Machine Learning using statistics-inspired tools and guarantees

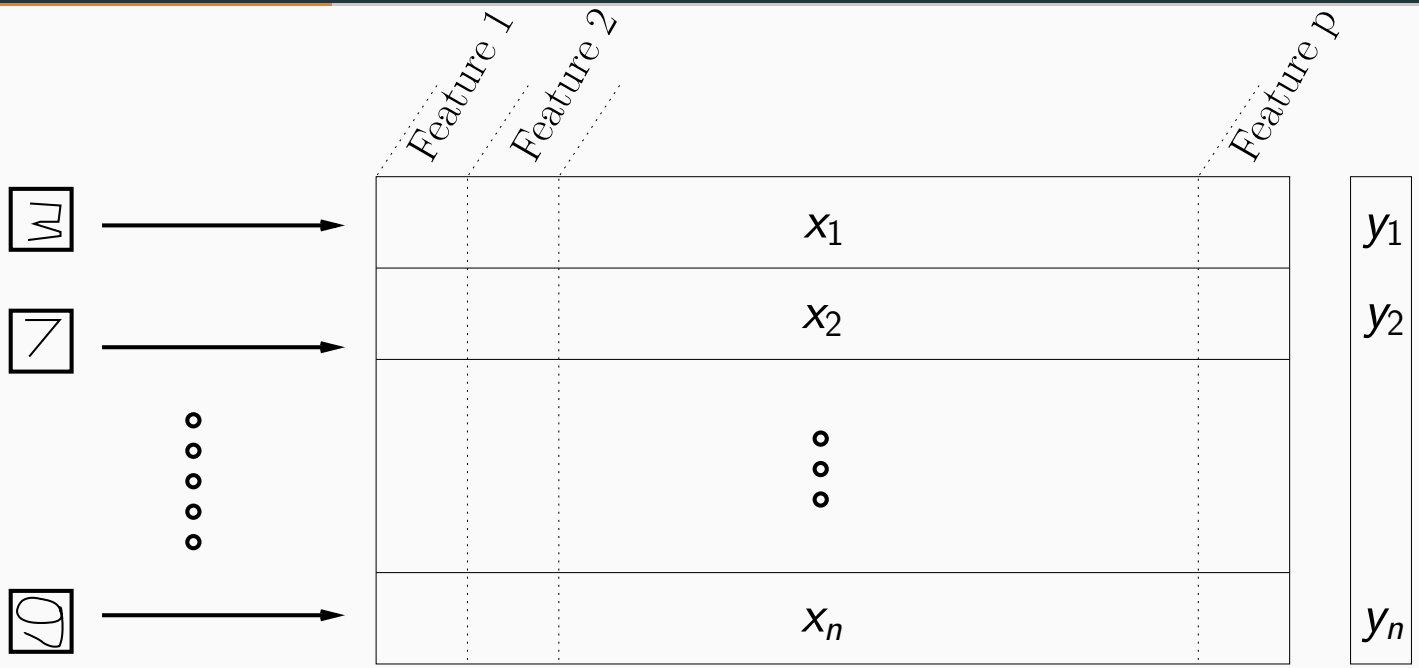
- Importance of **probability**- and **statistics**-based methods
  $\rightarrow$ **Data Science** (Michael Jordan)
- **Computational Statistics**: focuses in prediction-making through the use of computers together with statistical models (ex: Bayesian methods).
- **Data Mining** (unsupervised learning) focuses more on exploratory data analysis: discovery of (previously) unknown properties in the data. This is the analysis step of Knowledge Discovery in Databases.
- Machine Learning has more **operational** goals
  Ex: ~~consistency~~ $\rightarrow$ oracle inequalities
  Models (if any) are *instrumental*.
  ML more focused on *correlation*, less on *causality* (now changing).
- Strong ties to **Mathematical Optimization**, which furnishes methods, theory and application domains to the field

What is ML composed of?



Outline

What is a classifier?



$X \in \mathcal{M}_{n,p}(\mathbb{R})$ $\qquad$ $Y \in \mathcal{Y}^n$

Data: n-by-p matrix X

- n examples = points of observations
- p features = characteristics measured for each example

Classifier $\mathcal{A}_n$

$$h_n : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$$

 $\mapsto 6$

Data repositories

- Inside R: package `datasets`
- Inside python/scikitlearn: package `sklearn.datasets`
- UCI Machine Learning Repository

- Challenges: Kaggle, etc.

Outline

Statistical Learning Hypothesis

Assumption

- The examples $(X_i, Y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ are iid samples of an unknown joint distribution $\mathcal{D}$;
- The points to classify later are also independent draws of the *same* distribution $\mathcal{D}$.

Hence, for every *decision rule* $h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ we can define the *risk*

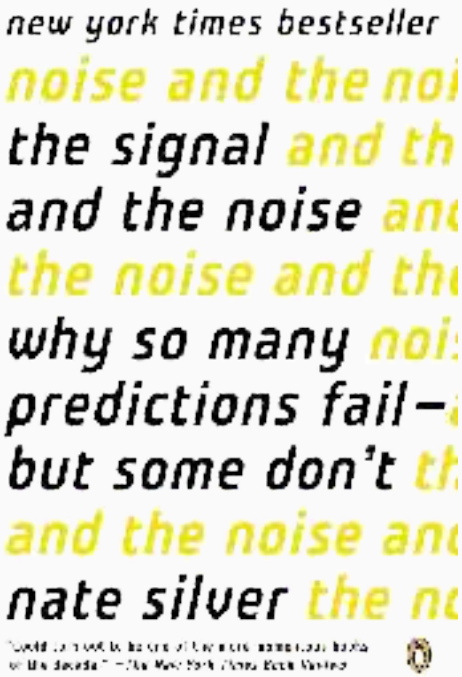
$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(h) = \mathbb{P}_{(X,Y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\big(h(X) \neq Y\big) = \mathcal{D}\Big(\big\{(x, y) : h(x) \neq y\big\}\Big) .$$

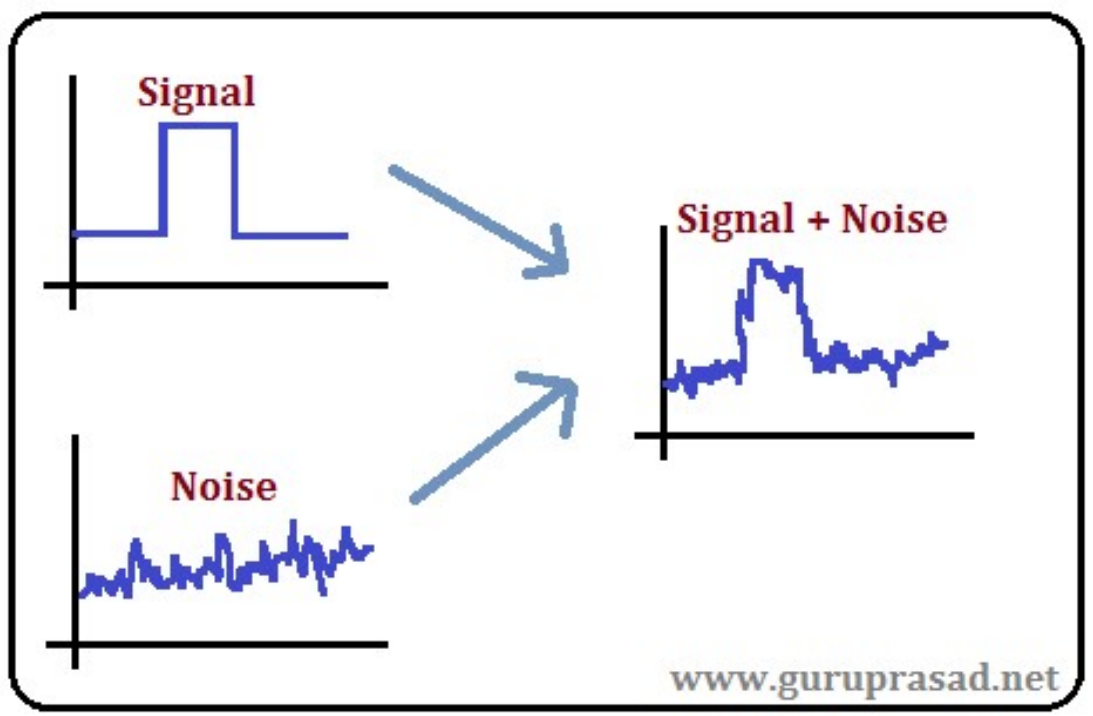
The goal of the learning algorithm is to *minimize the expected risk*:

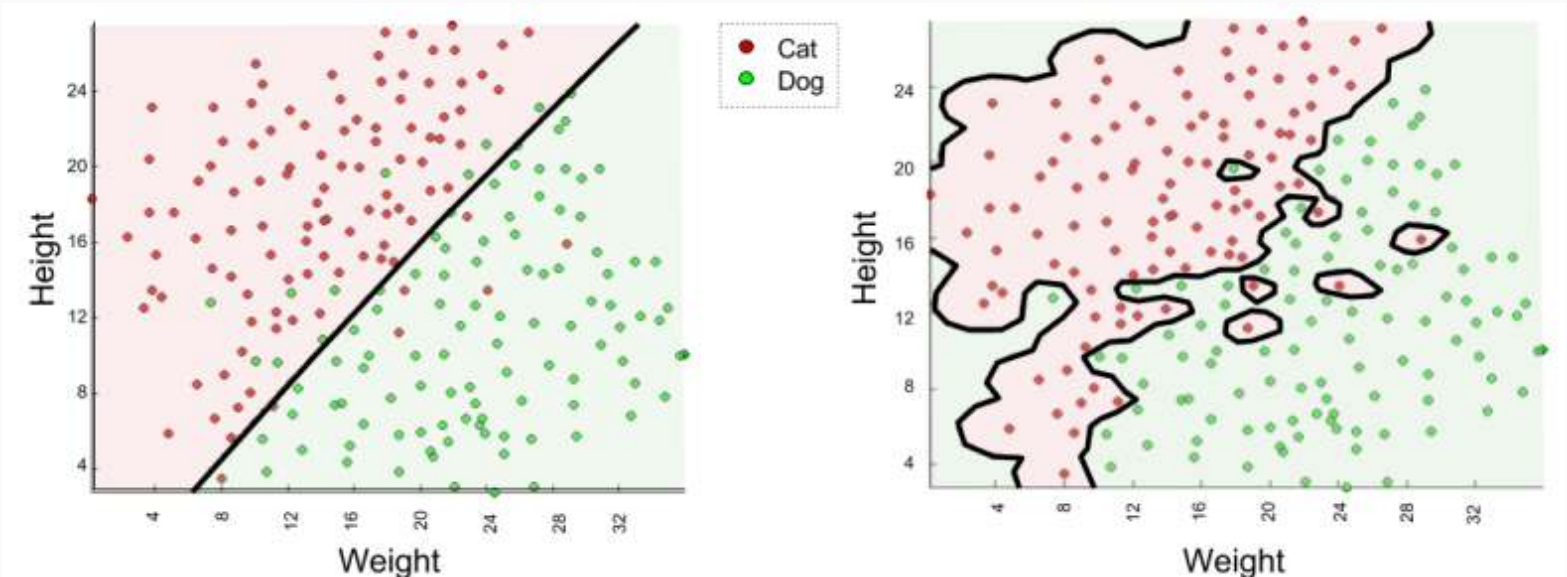
$$R_n(\mathcal{A}_n) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}^{\otimes n}}\left[L_{\mathcal{D}}\Big(\underbrace{\mathcal{A}_n\big((X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)\big)}_{\hat{h}_n}\Big)\right]$$

for *every* distribution $\mathcal{D}$, using only the examples.

Signal and Noise







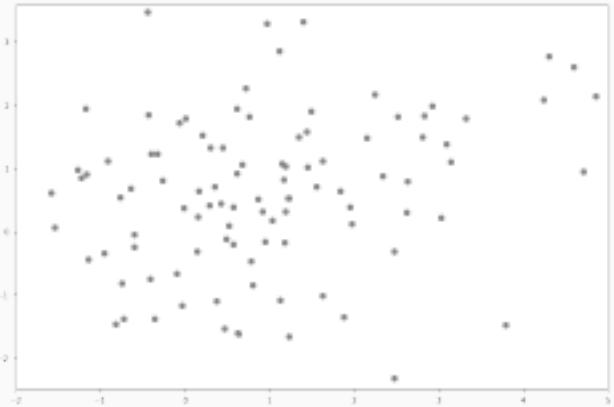
Example: Character Recognition

Domain set $\mathcal{X}$ Label set $\mathcal{Y}$ Joint distribution $\mathcal{D}$	28×28 images $\{0, 1, \ldots, 9\}$?
Prediction function $h \in \mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$ Risk $R(h) = P_{\mathcal{D}}\big(h(X) \neq Y\big)$	
Sample $S_n = \big\{(X_i, Y_i)\big\}_{i=1}^n$ Empirical risk $L_S(h) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{h(X_i) \neq Y_i\}$	MNIST dataset
Learning algorithm $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_n)_n$, $\mathcal{A}_n : (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^n \to \mathcal{H}$ Expected risk $R_n(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbb{E}_n\Big[L_{\mathcal{D}}\big(\mathcal{A}_n(S_n)\big)\Big]$	neural nets, boosting...

Two visions of $\mathcal{D}$

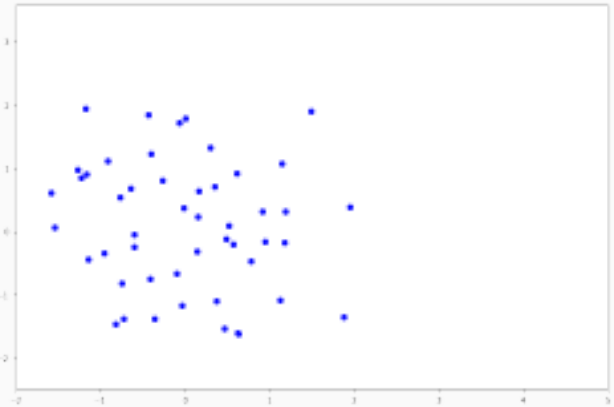
As a pair $(\mathcal{D}_x, k)$, where

- for $A \subset \mathcal{X}$, $\mathcal{D}_x(A) = \mathcal{D}\big(A \times \mathcal{Y}\big)$ is the marginal distribution of X,
- and for $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $B \subset \mathcal{Y}$, $k(B|x) = \mathcal{D}\big(Y \in B | X = x\big)$ is (a version of) the conditional distribution of Y given X.



As a pair $\Big(\mathcal{D}_y, \big(\mathcal{D}(\cdot|y)\big)_y\Big)$, where

- for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\mathcal{D}_Y(y) = \mathcal{D}\big(\mathcal{X} \times y\big)$ is the marginal distribution of Y,
- and for $A \subset \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, $\mathcal{D}(A|y) = \mathcal{D}\big(X \in A | Y = y\big)$ is the conditional distribution of X given $Y = y$.



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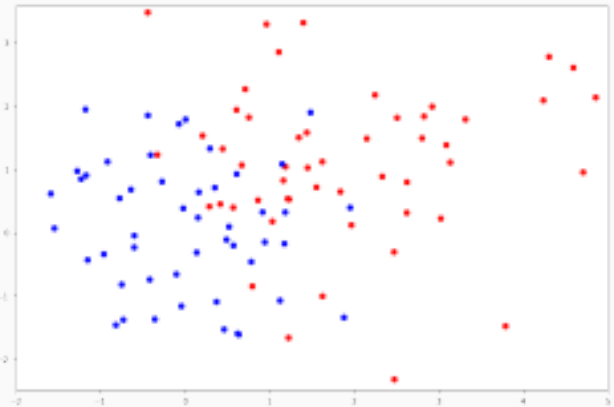

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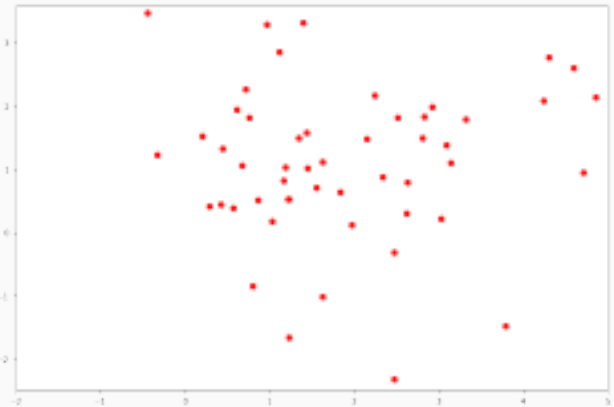


Performance Limit: Bayes Classifier

Consider binary classification $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$, $\eta(x) := \mathcal{D}(Y = 1 | X = x)$.

Theorem

The Bayes classifier is defined by
$h^*(x) = \mathbb{1}\{\eta(x) \geq 1/2\} = \mathbb{1}\{\eta(x) \geq 1 - \eta(x)\} = \mathbb{1}\{2\eta(x) - 1 \geq 0\}$.
For every classifier $h : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$,

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \geq L_{\mathcal{D}}(h^*) = \mathbb{E}\Big[\min\big(\eta(X), 1 - \eta(X)\big)\Big] .$$

The Bayes risk $L^*_{\mathcal{D}} = L_{\mathcal{D}}(h^*)$ *is called the* **noise** *of the problem.*

More precisely,

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(h) - L_{\mathcal{D}}(h^*) = \mathbb{E}\Big[\big|2\eta(X) - 1\big| \; \mathbb{1}\{h(X) \neq h^*(X)\}\Big] .$$

Extends to $|\mathcal{Y}| > 2$.

Nearest-Neighbor Classification

The Nearest-Neighbor Classifier

We assume that $\mathcal{X}$ is a metric space with distance d.

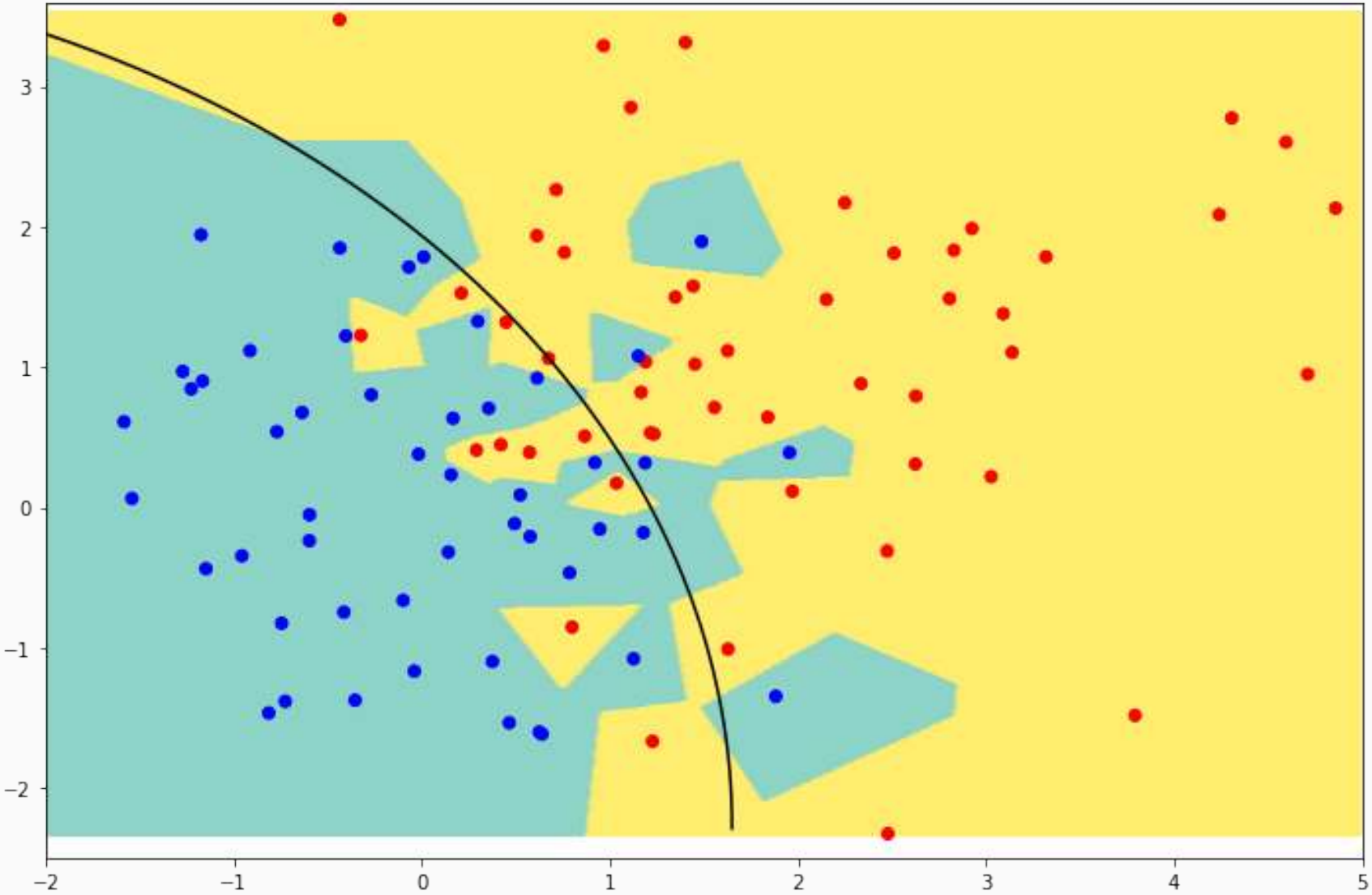
The nearest-neighbor classifier $\hat{h}_n^{NN} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ is defined as

$$\hat{h}_n^{NN}(x) = Y_I \quad \text{where} \quad I \in \arg\min_{1 \le i \le n} \; d(x - X_i) \; .$$

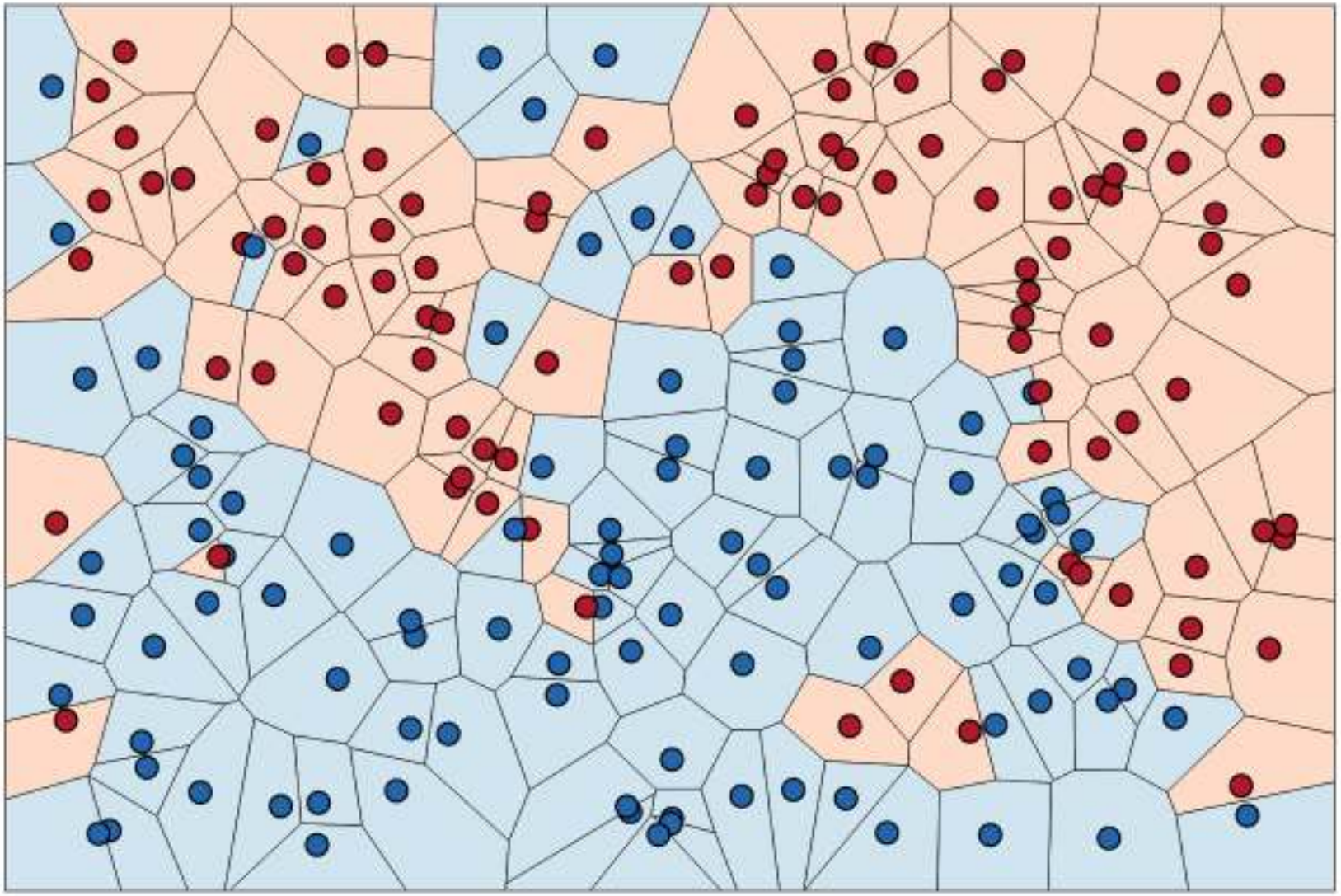
Typical distance: L^2 norm on $\mathbb{R}^d$: $\|x - x'\| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{d} (x_i - x_i')^2}$.

Buts many other possibilities: Hamming distance on $\{0,1\}^d$, etc.

Numerically



Numerically



The most simple analysis of the most simple algorithm

A1. $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$.

A2. $\mathcal{X} = [0, 1[^d$.

A3. η is c-Lipschitz continuous:

$$\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}, \left|\eta(x) - \eta(x')\right| \leq c\left\|x - x'\right\| .$$

Theorem

Under the previous assumptions, for all distributions $\mathcal{D}$ and all $m \geq 1$

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}\left(\hat{h}_n^{NN}\right) \leq 2L_{\mathcal{D}}^* + \frac{3c\sqrt{d}}{n^{1/(d+1)}} .$$

Proof Outline

- Conditioning: as $I(x) = \arg\min_{1 \le i \le n} \|x - X_i\|$,

$$L_D(\hat{h}_n^{NN}) = \mathbb{E}\Big[\mathbb{E}\big[\mathbb{1}\{Y \neq Y_{I(X)}\}\big|X, X_1, \ldots, X_n\big]\Big] .$$

- $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(p),\ Y' \sim \mathcal{B}(q) \implies \mathbb{P}(Y \neq Y') \le 2\min(p, 1-p) + |p-q|$,

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[\mathbb{1}\{Y \neq Y_{I(X)}\}|X, X_1, \ldots, X_n\Big] \le 2\min\big(\eta(X), 1-\eta(X)\big) + c\left\|X - X_{I(X)}\right\| .$$

- Partition $\mathcal{X}$ into $|\mathcal{C}| = T^d$ cells of diameter $\sqrt{d}/T$:

$$\mathcal{C} = \left\{ \left[\frac{j_1 - 1}{T}, \frac{j_1}{T}\right[\times \cdots \times \left[\frac{j_d - 1}{T}, \frac{j_d}{T}\right[, \quad 1 \le j_1, \ldots, j_d \le T \right\} .$$

- 2 cases: either the cell of X is occupied by a sample point, or not:

$$\left\|X - X_{I(X)}\right\| \le \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \mathbb{1}\{X \in c\} \left(\frac{\sqrt{d}}{T} \mathbb{1}\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{X_i \in c\} + \sqrt{d}\,\mathbb{1}\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \{X_i \notin c\} \right) .$$

- $\implies \mathbb{E}\big[\|X - X_{I(X)}\|\big] \le \frac{\sqrt{d}}{T} + \frac{\sqrt{d}\,T^d}{e\,n}$ and choose $T = \left\lfloor n^{\frac{1}{d+1}} \right\rfloor$.

What does the analysis say?

- Is it loose? (sanity check: uniform $\mathcal{D}_X$)
- *Non-asympototic* (finite sample bound)
- The second term $\frac{3c\sqrt{d}}{n^{1/(d+1)}}$ is *distribution independent*
- Does not give the trajectorial decrease of risk
- Exponential bound d (cannot be avoided...)
  $\Longrightarrow$ *curse of dimensionality*

- How to improve the classifier?

k-nearest neighbors

Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a (pre-compact) metric space with distance d.

k-NN classifier

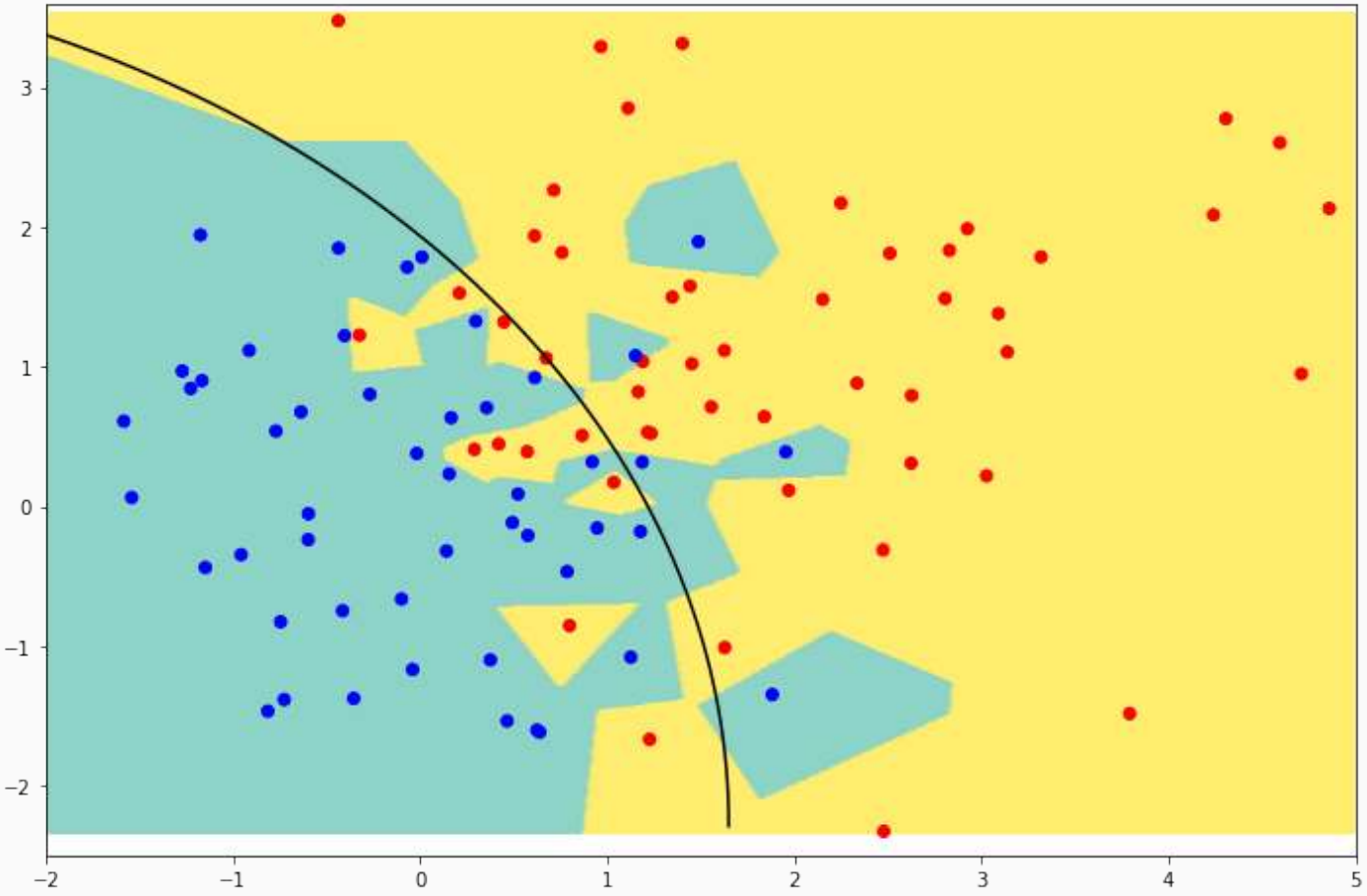
$h^{kNN} : x \mapsto \mathbb{1}\{\hat{\eta}(x) \geq 1/2\}$ = plugin for Bayes classifier with estimator

$$\hat{\eta}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} Y_{(j)}(X)$$

where

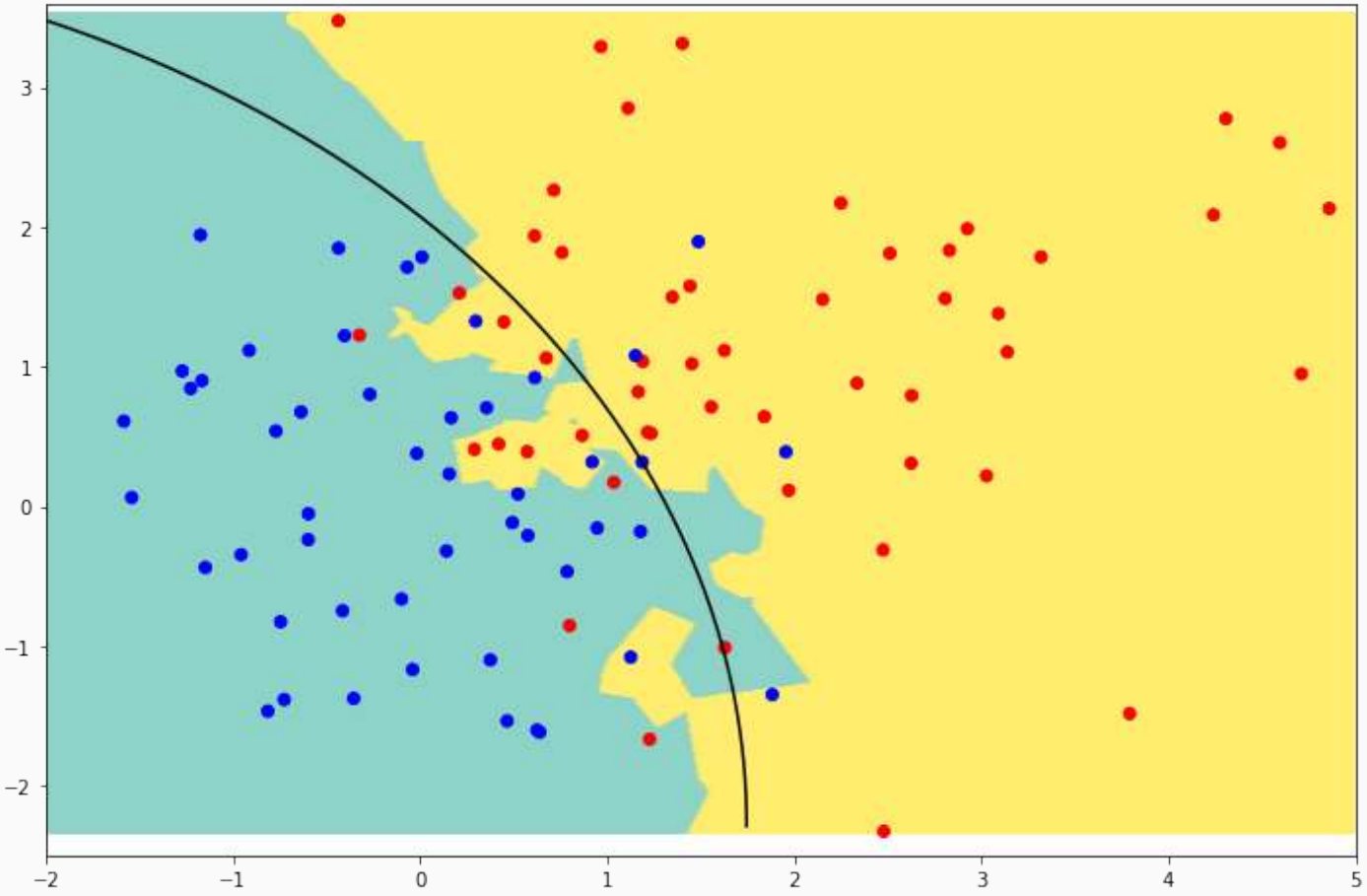
$$d\big(X_{(1)}(X), X\big) \leq d\big(X_{(2)}(X), X\big) \leq \cdots \leq d\big(X_{(n)}(X), X\big) \ .$$

More neighbors are better?



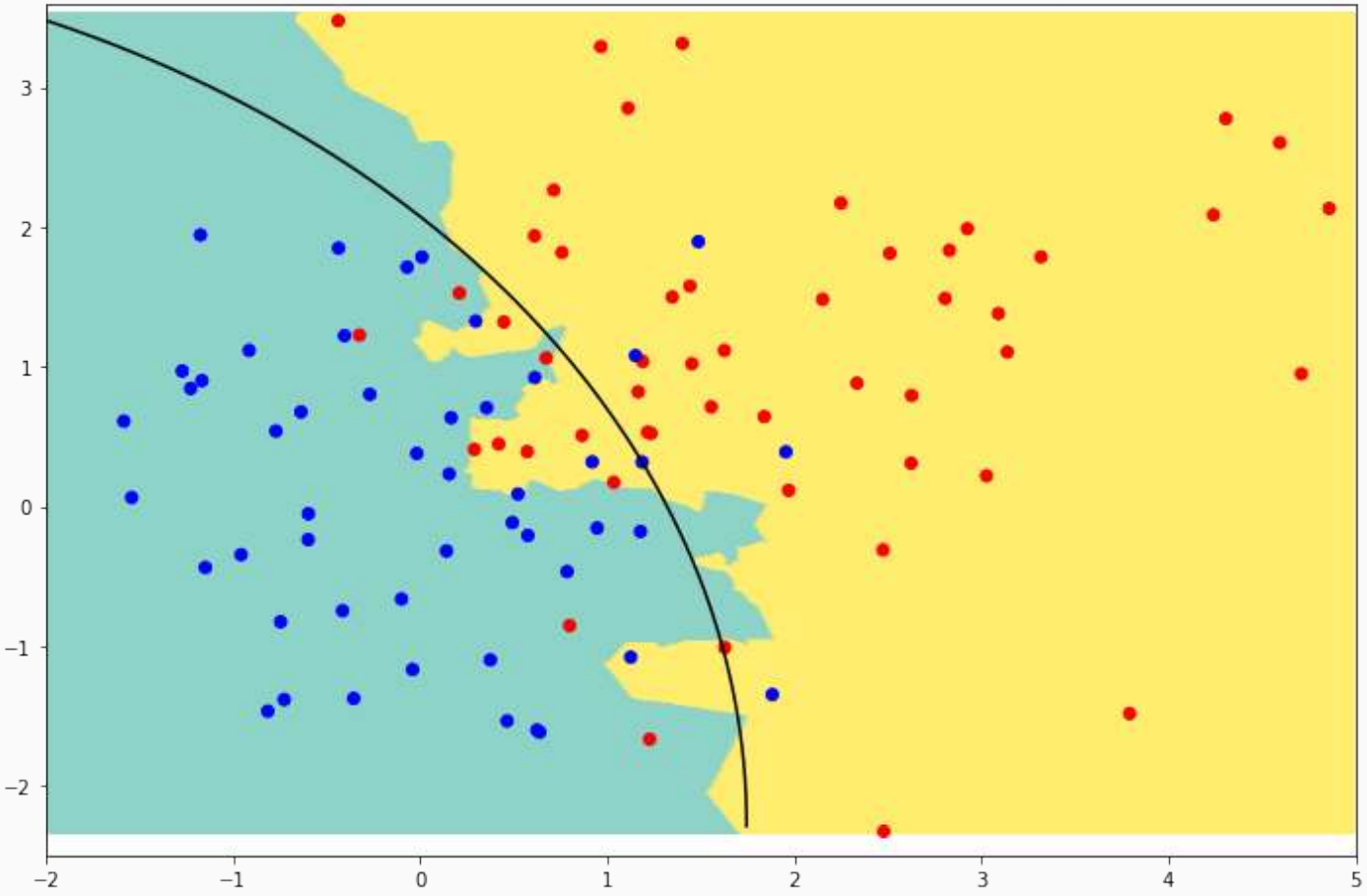
$k = 1$

More neighbors are better?



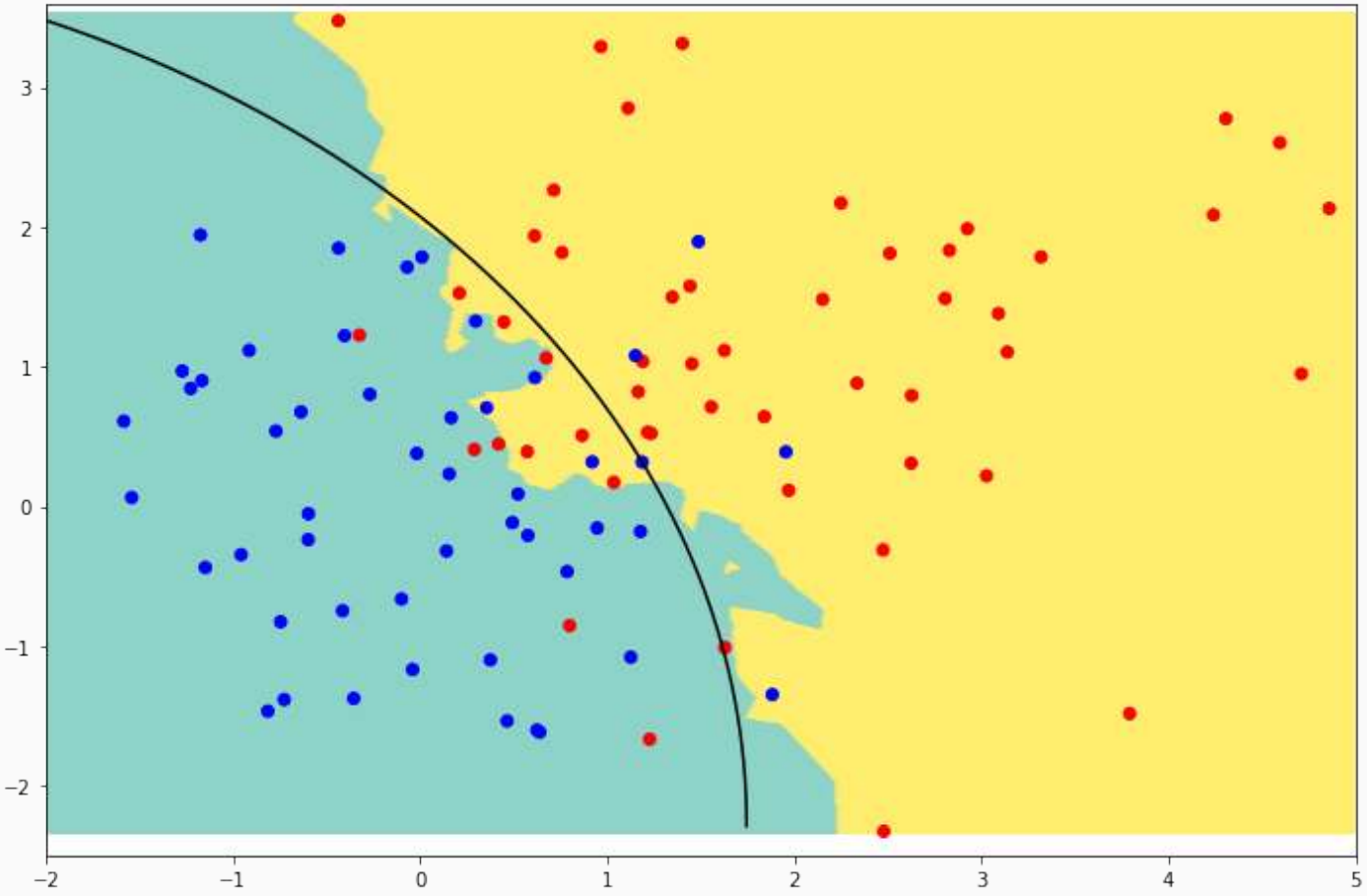
$k = 3$

More neighbors are better?



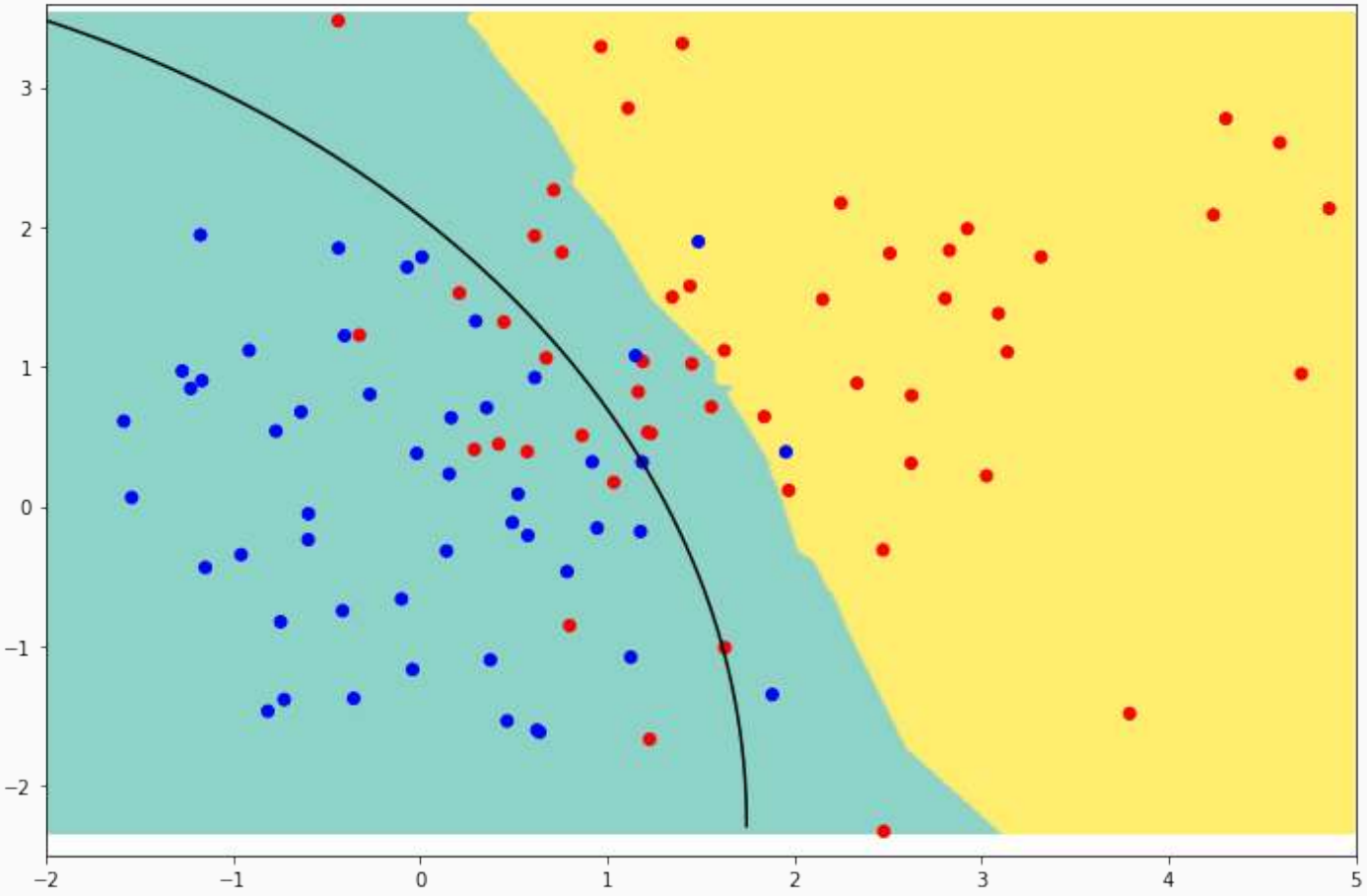
$k = 5$

More neighbors are better?



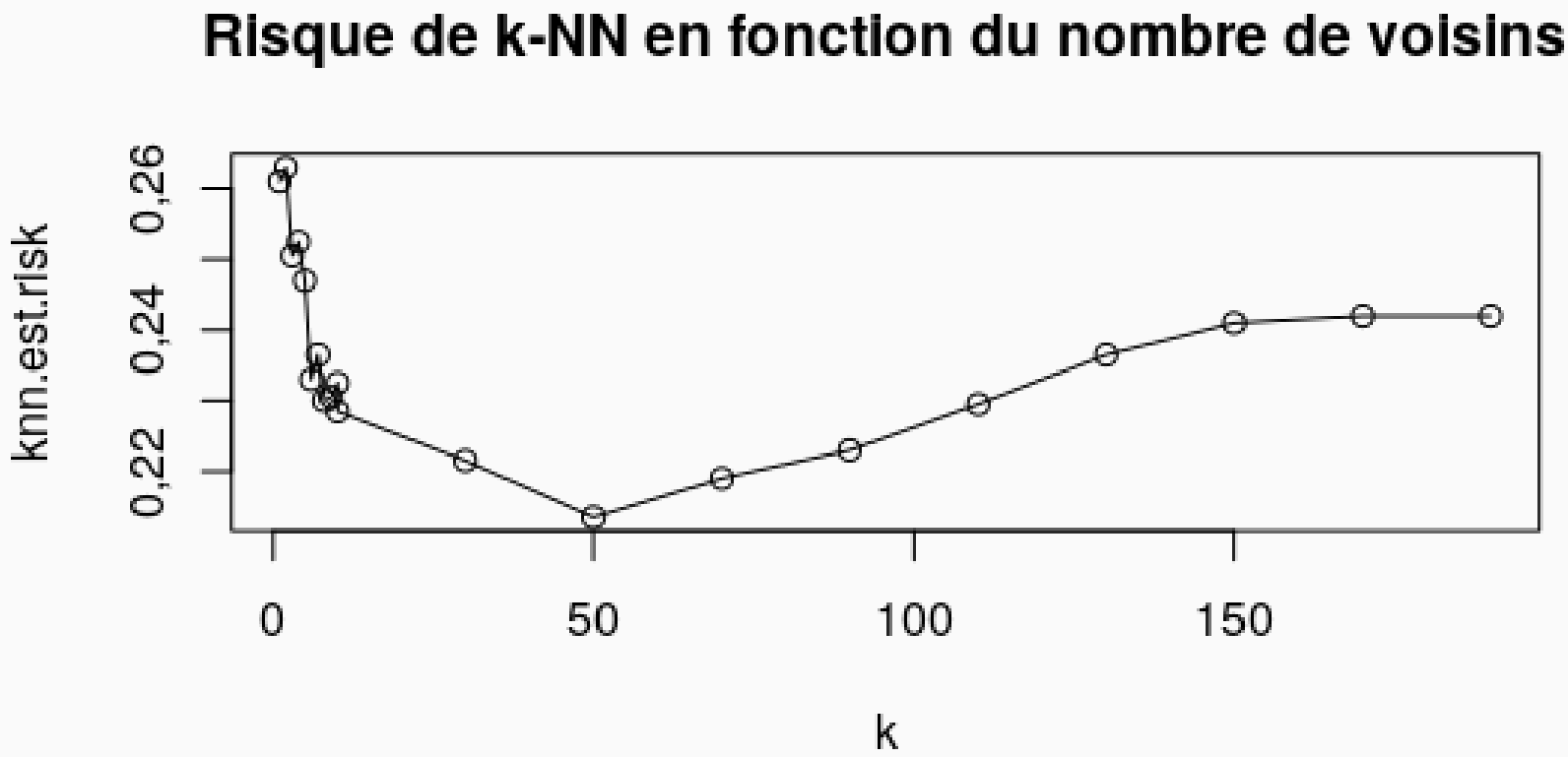
$k = 7$

More neighbors are better?



$k = 95$

Bias-Variance tradeoff



Risk bound

Let $\mathcal{C}_\epsilon$ be an ϵ-covering of $\mathcal{X}$:

$$\forall x \in X, \exists x' \in \mathcal{C}_\epsilon : d(x, x') \leq \epsilon \, .$$

Excess risk for k-nearest-neighbours

If η is c-Lipschitz continuous: $\forall x, x' \in \mathcal{X}, \left|\eta(x) - \eta(x')\right| \leq c\, d\left(x, x'\right)$, then for all $k \geq 2$ and all $n \geq 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} L\left(\hat{h}_n^{kNN}\right) - L\left(h^*\right) &\leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k\, e}} + \frac{2k|\mathcal{C}_\epsilon|}{n} + 4c\epsilon \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k\, e}} + (2 + 4c)\left(\frac{\alpha k}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}} \quad \begin{cases} \text{for } \epsilon = \left(\frac{\alpha k}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}} \\ \text{if } |\mathcal{C}_\epsilon| \leq \alpha \epsilon^{-d} \end{cases}, \\ &\leq (3 + 4c)\left(\frac{\alpha}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+3}} \quad \text{for } k = \left(\frac{n}{\alpha}\right)^{\frac{2}{d+3}} \, . \end{aligned}$$

Room for improvement

- Lower bound? in $n^{-\frac{1}{d}}$.
- Margin conditions
  $\Longrightarrow$ fast rates
- More regularity?
  $\Longrightarrow$ weighted nearest neighbors
- Is regularity required everywhere?
  $\Longrightarrow$ What matters are the balls of mass $\approx k/n$ near the decision boundary.
- 2 "parameters":
  - obvious: the number of neighbors k (bias-variance tradeoff)
  - hidden: the distance d (real problem)

Curse of dimensionality: No free lunch theorem

Theorem

Let $c > 1$ be a Lipschitz constant. Let A be any learning algorithm for binary classification over a domain $\mathcal{X} = [0,1]^d$. If the training set size is $n \leq (c+1)^d/2$, then there exists a distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over $[0,1]^d \times \{0,1\}$ such that:

- $\eta(x)$ is c-Lipschitz;
- the Bayes error of the distribution is 0;
- with probability at least $1/7$ over the choice of $S_n \sim \mathcal{D}^{\otimes n}$,

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}\big(A(S_n)\big) \geq \frac{1}{8} \,.$$

Empirical Risk Minimization

Going empirical

Idea for every candidate rule h in an *hypothesis class* $\mathcal{H}$, replace the unknown risk

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}(h) = \mathbb{P}_{(X,Y)\sim\mathcal{D}}\big(h(X) \neq Y\big)$$

by the computable *empirical risk*

$$L_{S_n}(h) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}\{h(X_i) \neq Y_i\}$$

and use some *uniform law of large numbers:*

$$\mathbb{P}_D\left(\sup_{h\in\mathcal{H}} \big|L_{S_n}(h) - L_{\mathcal{D}}(h)\big| > c\sqrt{\frac{D_{\mathcal{H}}\log(n) + \log\frac{1}{\delta}}{n}}\right) \leq \delta$$

where $D_{\mathcal{H}}$ is the *Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension* of $\mathcal{H}$.

Empirical Risk minimization

Uniform law of large numbers:

$$\mathbb{P}_D \left(\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left| L_{S_n}(h) - L_{\mathcal{D}}(h) \right| > c \sqrt{\frac{D_{\mathcal{H}} \log(n) + \log \frac{1}{\delta}}{n}} \right) \leq \delta \ .$$

$\rightarrow$ *Empirical Risk Minimizer*:

$$\hat{h}_n = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L_{S_n}(h) \ .$$

Good if

- the class $\mathcal{H}$ is not too large
- the number n of examples is large enough

so as to ensure that $c \sqrt{\frac{D_{\mathcal{H}} \log(n) + \log \frac{1}{\delta}}{n}} \leq \epsilon$.

$\rightarrow$ *Sample complexity* = number of examples required to have an ϵ-optimal rule in the hypothesis class $\mathcal{H} = O\left(\frac{D_{\mathcal{H}}}{\epsilon^2}\right)$.

The class of halfspaces

Definition

The class of linear (affine) functions on $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$ is defined as

$$L_d = \left\{ h_{w,b} : w \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}, \quad \text{where } h_{w,b}(x) = \langle w, x \rangle + b \,.$$

The hypothesis class of halfspaces for binary classification is defined as

$$\mathcal{HS}_d = \operatorname{sign} \circ L_d = \left\{ x \mapsto \operatorname{sign}\left(h_{w,b}(x)\right) : h_{w,b} \in L_d \right\}$$

where $\operatorname{sign}(u) = \mathbb{1}\{u \geq 0\} - \mathbb{1}\{u < 0\}$. *Depth 1 neural networks*.

By taking $\mathcal{X}' = \mathcal{X} \times \{1\}$ and $d' = d + 1$, we may omit the bias b and focus on functions $h_w(x) = \langle w, x \rangle$.

Property

The VC-dimension of $\mathcal{HS}_d$ is equal to $d + 1$.

Corollary: the class of halfspaces is learnable with *sample complexity* $O\left(\frac{d+1+\log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$.

Realizable case: Learning halfspaces with a linear program solver

Realizable case: there exists w^* such that $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, $y_i \langle w^*, x_i \rangle > 0$.

Then there exists $\bar{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, $y_i \langle \bar{w}, x_i \rangle \geq 1$: if we can find one, we have an ERM.

Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n,d}(\mathbb{R})$ be defined by $A_{i,j} = y_i \, x_{i,j}$, and let $v = (1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then any solution of the linear program

$$\max_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \langle 0, w \rangle \quad \text{subject to} \quad Aw \geq v$$

is an ERM. It can thus be computed in polynomial time.

Rosenblatt's Perceptron algorithm

Algorithm: Batch Perceptron

Data: training set $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$

$w_0 \leftarrow (0, \ldots, 0)$

$t \geq 0$

while $\exists i_t : y_{i_t} \langle w_t, x_{i_t} \rangle \leq 0$ **do**

  $w_{t+1} \leftarrow w_t + y_{i_t} \frac{x_{i_t}}{\|x_{i_t}\|}$

  $t \leftarrow t + 1$

return w_t

Each updates helps reaching the solution, since

$$y_{i_t} \langle w_{t+1}, x_{i_t} \rangle = y_{i_t} \left\langle w_t + y_{i_t} \frac{x_{i_t}}{\|x_{i_t}\|}, x_{i_t} \right\rangle = y_{i_t} \langle w_t, x_{i_t} \rangle + \|x_{i_t}\| \ .$$

Relates to a coordinate descent (stepsize does not matter).

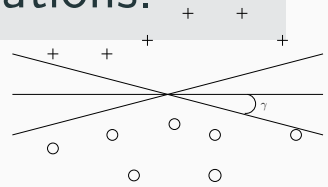
Convergence of the Perceptron algorithm

Theorem

Assume that the dataset $S_n = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ is linearly separable and let the *separation margin* γ be defined as:

$$\gamma = \max_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|w\| = 1} \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{y_i \langle w, x_i \rangle}{\|x_i\|} .$$

Then the perceptron algorithm stops after at most $1/\gamma^2$ iterations.



Proof: Let w^* be such that $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n$, $\frac{y_i \langle w^*, x_i \rangle}{\|x_i\|} \geq \gamma$.

- If iteration t is necessary, then

$$\langle w^*, w_{t+1} - w_t \rangle = y_{i_t} \left\langle w^*, \frac{x_{i_t}}{\|x_{i_t}\|} \right\rangle \geq \gamma \quad \text{and hence } \langle w^*, w_t \rangle \geq \gamma t .$$

- If iteration t is necessary, then

$$\|w_{t+1}\|^2 = \left\| w_t + y_{i_t} \frac{x_{i_t}}{\|x_{i_t}\|} \right\|^2 = \|w_t\|^2 + \underbrace{\frac{2 y_{i_t} \langle w_t, x_{i_t} \rangle}{\|x_{i_t}\|}}_{\leq 0} + y_{i_t}^2 \leq \|w_t\|^2 + 1$$

  and hence $\|w_t\|^2 \leq t$, or $\|w_t\| \leq \sqrt{t}$.
- As a consequence, the algorithm iterates at least t times if

$$\gamma t \leq \langle w^*, w_t \rangle \leq \|w_t\| \leq \sqrt{t} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad t \leq \frac{1}{\gamma^2} .$$

In the worst case, the number of iterations can be exponentially large in the dimension d. Usually, it converges quite fast. If $\forall i, \|x_i\| = 1$, $\gamma = d(S, D)$ where $D = \{x : \langle w^*, x \rangle = 0\}$.

Computational difficulty of agnostic learning, and surrogates

NP-hardness of computing the ERM for halfspaces

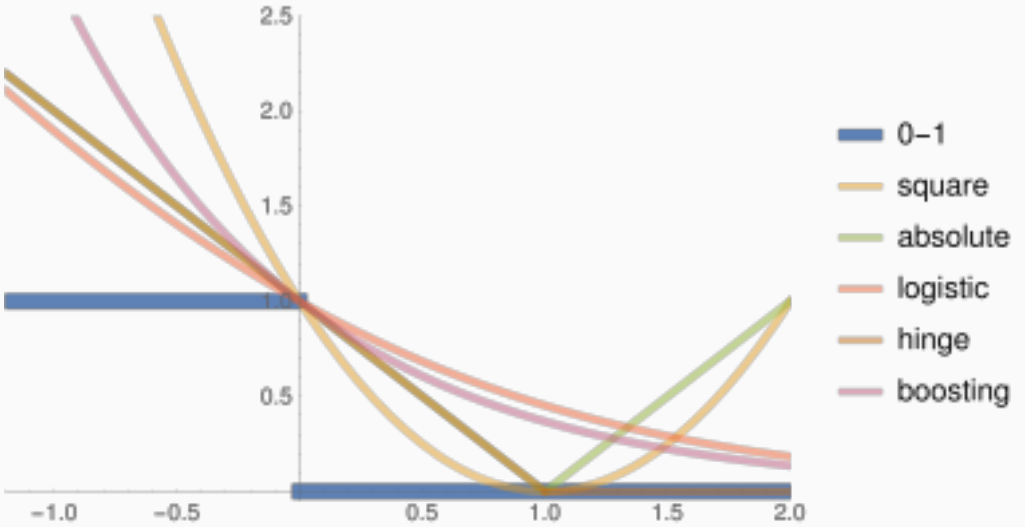
Computing an ERM in the agnostic case is NP-hard.

See *On the difficulty of approximately maximizing agreements*, by Ben-David, Eiron and Long.

Since the 0-1 loss

$$L_{S_n}(h_w) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}\{y_i \langle w, x_i\rangle < 0\}$$

is intractable to minimize in the agnostic case, one may consider *surrogate* loss functions

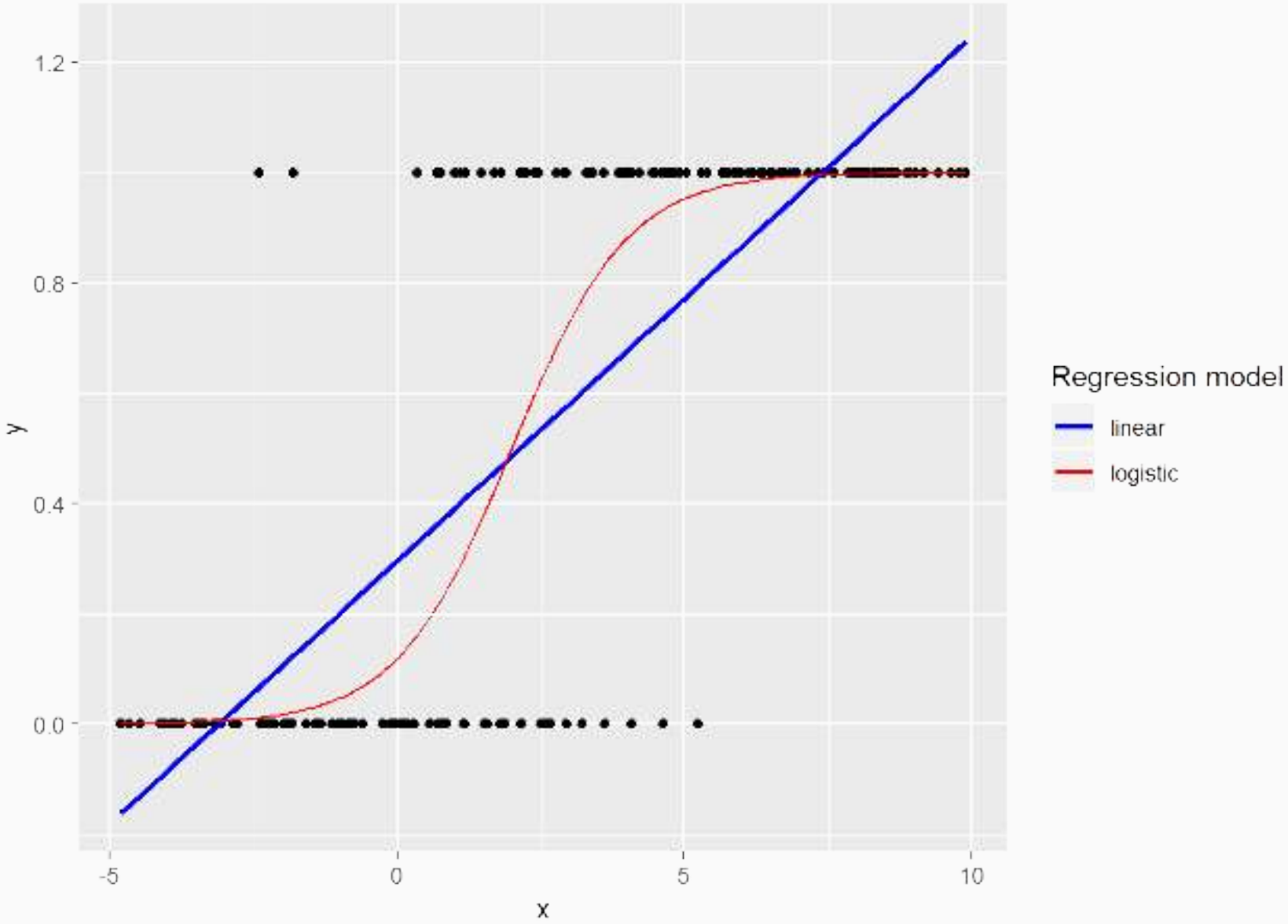


$$L_{S_n}(h_w) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell\big(y_i \langle w, x_i\rangle\big) \ ,$$

where the loss function $\ell : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^+$

- dominates the function $\mathbb{1}\{u < 0\}$,
- and leads to a "simple" optimization problem (e.g. *convex*).

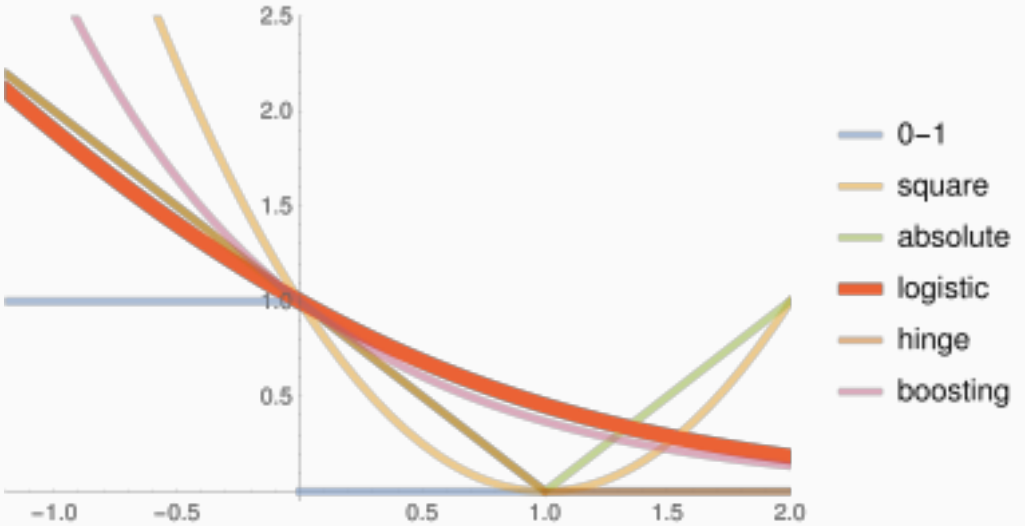
Logistic Regression



Logistic loss $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, 1\}$

Statistics: "logistic regression":

$$P_w(Y = y|X = x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-y\,\langle w, x\rangle\right)}$$



log with base 2 here so that $\ell(0) = 1$

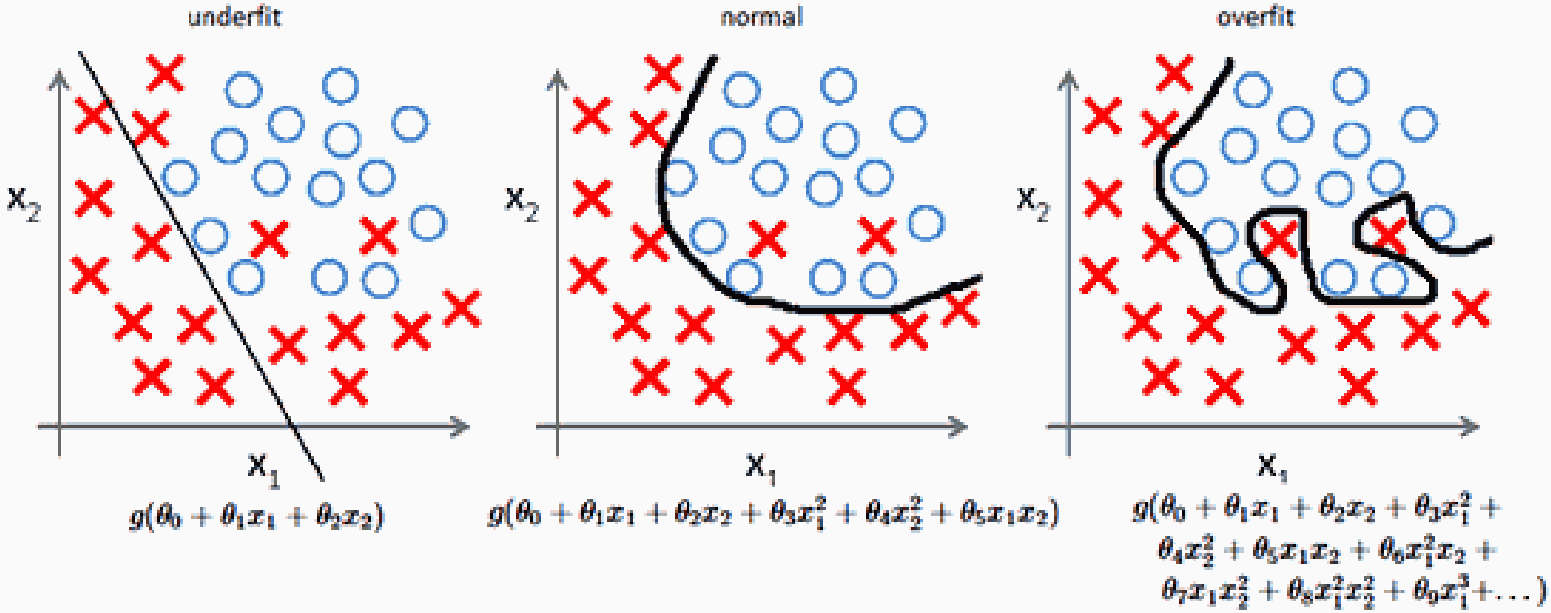
$$L_S(h_w) = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log\left(1 + \exp(-y_i\langle w, x_i\rangle)\right) ,$$

Convex minimization problem, can be solved by Newton's algorithm (in small dimension) or stochastic gradient descent (in higher dimension).

Structural Risk minimization

What if $\mathcal{H} = \bigcup_{d=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_d$, with $\mathcal{H}_d \subset \mathcal{H}_{d+1}$?

$\rightarrow$ empirical risk minimization fails



$\rightarrow$ *structural* risk minimization:

$$\hat{h}_n = \underset{d \geq 1, h \in \mathcal{H}_d}{\arg\min} \; L_{S_n}(h) + D_{\mathcal{H}_d} \log(n) \; .$$

Support Vector Machines

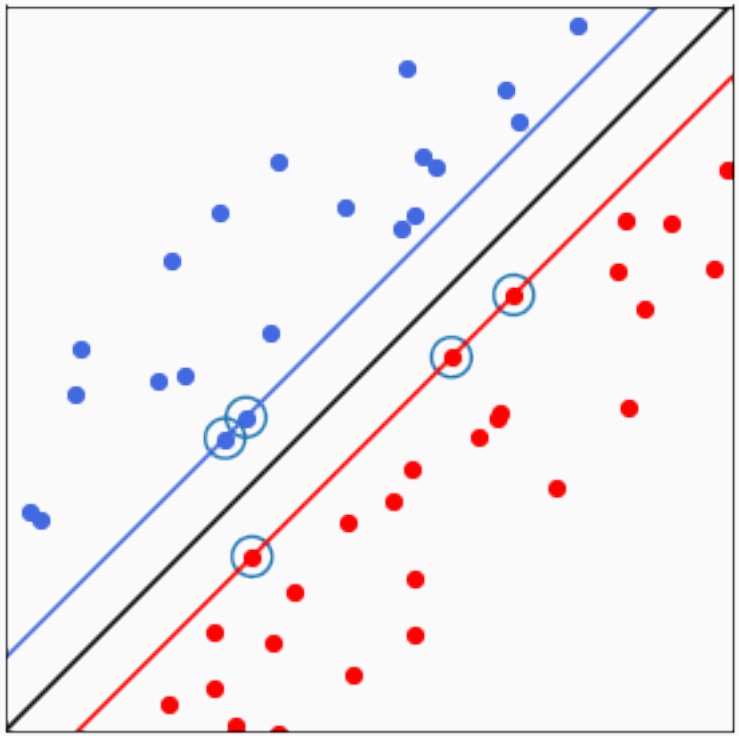
Margin for linear separation

- Training sample $S_n = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)\}$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$.
- Linearly separable if there exists a halfspace $h = (w, b)$ such that $\forall i, y_i = \text{sign}\big(\langle w, x_i \rangle + b\big)$.
- What is the best separating hyperplane for generalization?

Distance to hyperplane

If $\|w\| = 1$, then the distance from x to the hyperplane $h = (w, b)$ is $d(x, \mathcal{H}) = \big|\langle w, x \rangle + b\big|$.

Proof: Check that $\min\big\{\|x - v\|^2 : v \in h\big\}$ is reached at $v = x - \big(\langle w, x \rangle + b\big)w$.



Hard-SVM

Formulation 1:

$$\arg\max_{(w,b):\|w\|=1} \min_{1\le i\le m} \left|\langle w, x_i\rangle + b\right| \quad \text{such that } \forall i, y_i\left(\langle w, x_i\rangle + b\right) > 0 \ .$$

Formulation 2:

$$\min_{w,b} \|w\|^2 \quad \text{such that } \forall i, y_i\left(\langle w, x_i\rangle + b\right) \ge 1 \ .$$

Remark: b is not penalized.

Proposition

The two formulations are equivalent.

Proof: if (w_0, b_0) is the solution of Formulation 2, then $\hat{w} = \frac{w_0}{\|w_0\|}$, $\hat{b} = \frac{b_0}{|w|}$ is a solution of Formulation 1: if (w^*, b^*) is another solution, then letting $\gamma^* = \min_{1\le i\le m} y_i\left(\langle w, x_i\rangle + b\right)$ we see that $\left(\frac{w^*}{\gamma^*}, \frac{b^*}{\gamma^*}\right)$ satisfies the constraint of Formulation 2, hence $\|w_0\| \le \frac{\|w^*\|}{\gamma^*} = \frac{1}{\gamma^*}$ and thus $\min_{1\le i\le m} \left|\langle \hat{w}, x_i\rangle + \hat{b}\right| = \frac{1}{\|w_0\|} \ge \gamma^*$.

Sample Complexity

Definition

A distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over $\mathbb{R}^d \times \{\pm 1\}$ is *separable with a* (γ, ρ)*-margin* if there exists (w^*, b^*) such that $\|w^*\| = 1$ and with probability 1 on a pair $(X, Y) \sim \mathcal{D}$, it holds that $\|X\| \leq \rho$ and $Y\big(\langle w^*, X\rangle + b\big) \geq \gamma$.

Remark: by multiplying the x_i by α, the margin is mutliplied by α.

Theorem

For any distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over $\mathbb{R}^d \times \{\pm 1\}$ that satisfies the (γ, ρ)-separability with margin assumption using a homogenous halfspace, with probability at least $1 - \delta$ over the training set of size n the $0 - 1$ loss of the output of Hard-SVM is at most

$$\sqrt{\frac{4(\rho/\gamma)^2}{n}} + \sqrt{\frac{2\log(2/\delta)]}{n}}\,.$$

Remark: depends on dimension d only thru ρ and γ.

Soft-SVM

When the data is not linearly separable, allow *slack variables* ξ_i:

$$\min_{w,b,\xi} \lambda\|w\|^2 + \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\xi_i \quad \text{such that } \forall i, y_i\big(\langle w, x_i\rangle + b\big) \geq 1 - \xi_i \text{ and } \xi_i \geq 0$$

$$= \min_{w,b} \lambda\|w\|^2 + L_{S_n}^{\text{hinge}}(w,b) \quad \text{where } \ell^{\text{hinge}}(u) = \max(0, 1-u)\ .$$

Theorem

Let D be a distribution over $B(0,\rho)\times\{\pm 1\}$. If $\mathcal{A}_n(S_n)$ is the output of the soft-SVM algorithm on the sample S of D of size n,

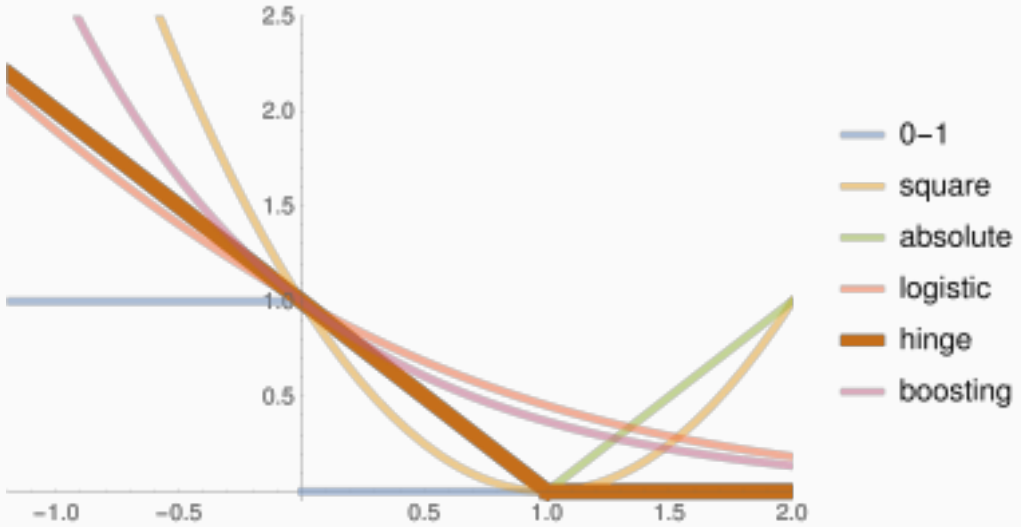
$$\mathbb{E}\Big[L_D^{0-1}\big(\mathcal{A}_n(S_n)\big)\Big] \leq \mathbb{E}\Big[L_D^{\text{hinge}}\big(\mathcal{A}_n(S_n)\big)\Big] \leq \inf_u L_D^{\text{hinge}}(u) + \lambda\|u\|^2 + \frac{2\rho^2}{\lambda n}\ .$$

For every $B > 0$, setting $\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{2\rho^2}{B^2 n}}$ yields:

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[L_D^{0-1}\big(\mathcal{A}_n(S_n)\big)\Big] \leq \mathbb{E}\Big[L_D^{\text{hinge}}\big(\mathcal{A}_n(S_n)\big)\Big] \leq \inf_{w:\|w\|\leq B} L_D^{\text{hinge}}(w) + \sqrt{\frac{8\rho^2 B^2}{n}}\ .$$

SVM as a Penalized Empirical Risk Minimizer

Margin maximization leads to



$$L_{S_n}^{\text{hinge}}(h_w) = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \max\left\{0, 1 - y_i\langle w, x_i\rangle\right\},$$

convex but non-smooth minimization problem, used with a penalization term $\lambda\|w\|^2$.

Dual Form of the SVM Optimization Problem

To simplify, we consider only the homogeneous case of hard-SVM. Let

$$g(w) = \max_{\alpha \in [0,+\infty)^n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \big(1 - y_i \langle w, x_i \rangle\big) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \forall i, y_i \langle w, x_i \rangle \geq 1, \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise .} \end{cases}$$

Then the hard-SVM problem is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{w : \forall i, y_i \langle w, x_i \rangle \geq 1} \frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 &= \min_w \frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 + g(w) \\ &= \min_w \max_{\alpha \in [0,+\infty)^m} \frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \big(1 - y_i \langle w, x_i \rangle\big) \\ &\overset{\min-\max \text{ thm}}{=} \max_{\alpha \in [0,+\infty)^n} \min_w \frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \big(1 - y_i \langle w, x_i \rangle\big) \ . \end{aligned}$$

The inner min is reached at $w = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i x_i$ and can thus be written as

$$\max_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n, \alpha \geq 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{1 \leq i,j \leq n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \langle x_i, x_j \rangle \ .$$

Support vectors

Still for the homogeneous case of hard-SVM:

Property

Let w_0 be a solution of and let $I = \{i : \left|\langle w_0, x_i\rangle\right| = 1\}$. There exist $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ such that

$$w_0 = \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i x_i \ .$$

The dual problem involves the x_i only thru scalar products $\langle x_i, x_j\rangle$.

It is of size n (independent of the dimension d).

These computations can be extended to the non-homogeneous soft-SVM

$\rightarrow$ **Kernel trick**.

Numerically solving Soft-SVM

$f(w) = \frac{\lambda}{2}\|w\|^2 + L_S^{\text{hinge}}(w)$ is λ-strongly convex.
$\rightarrow$ Stochastic Gradient Descent with learning rate $1/(\lambda t)$. Stochastic subgradient of $L_S^{\text{hinge}}(w)$: $v_t = -y_{I_t} x_{I_t} \mathbb{1}\{y_{I_t}\langle w, x_{I_t}\rangle < 1\}$.

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \frac{1}{\lambda t}(\lambda w_t + v_t) = \frac{t-1}{t} w_t - \frac{1}{\lambda t} v_t = -\frac{1}{\lambda t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} v_t \ .$$

Algorithm: SGD for Soft-SVM

Set $\theta_0 = 0$
for $t = 0 \dots T-1$ **do**
  Let $w_t = \frac{1}{\lambda t}\theta_t$
  Pick $I_t \sim \mathcal{U}(\{1, \dots, n\})$
  if $y_{I_t}\langle w_t, x_{I_t}\rangle < 1$ **then**
    $\theta_{t+1} \leftarrow \theta_t + y_{I_t} x_{I_t}$
  else
    $\theta_{t+1} \leftarrow \theta_t$
return $\bar{w}_T = \frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} w_t$

Neural Networks

One-layer network

Src: http://insanedev.co.uk/open-cranium/

One-layer network

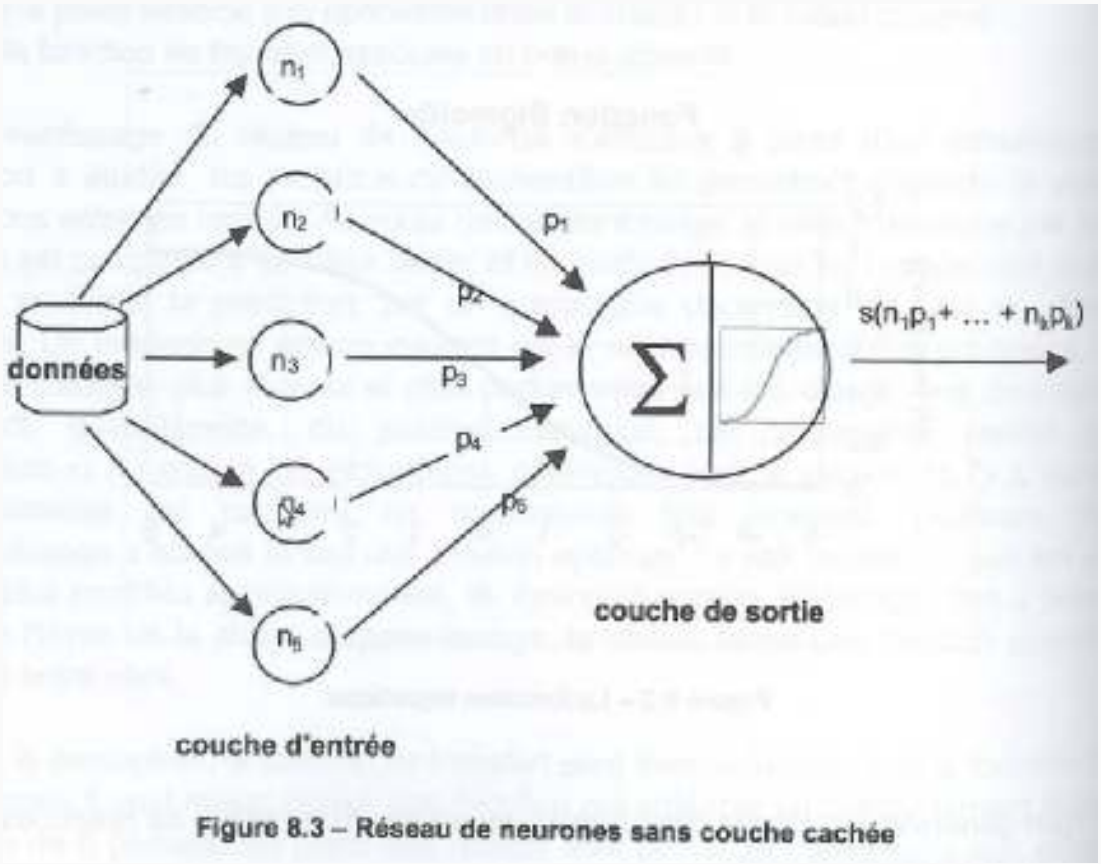
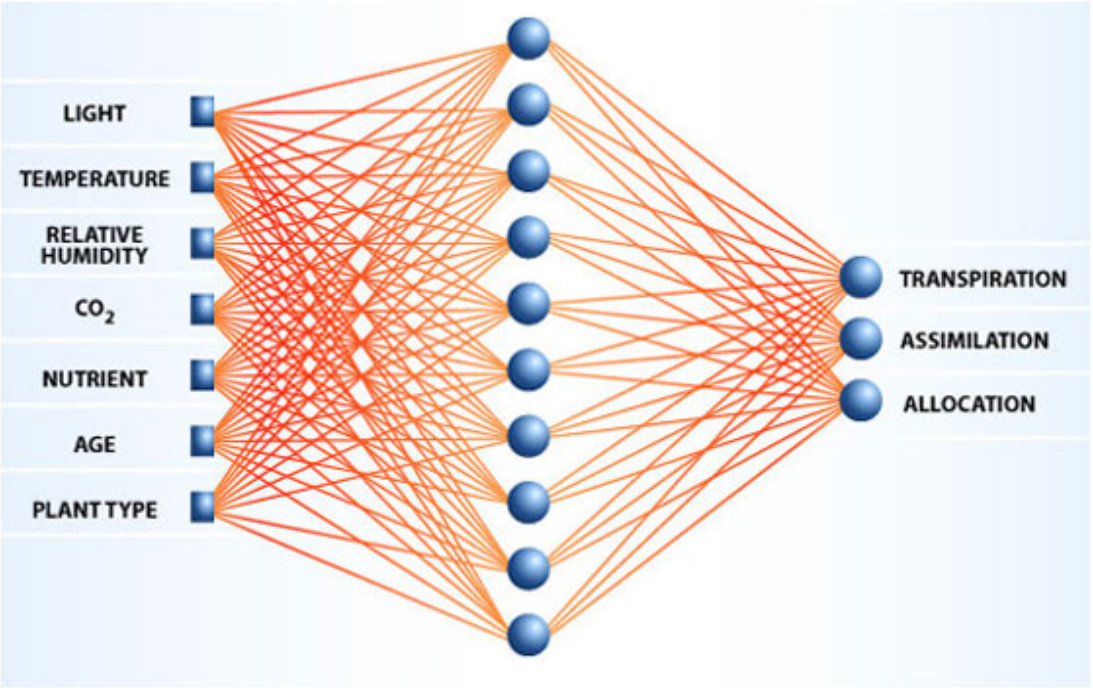


Figure 8.3 – Réseau de neurones sans couche cachée

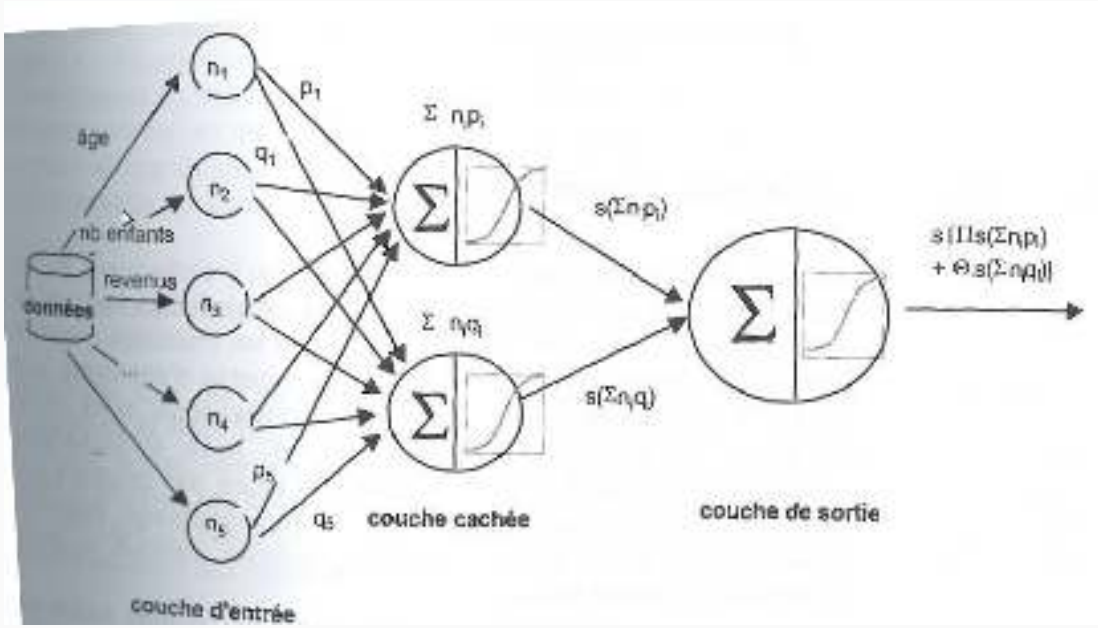
Src: [Tufféry, Data Mining et Informatique Dcisionnelle]

One-layer network



Src: `http://www.makhfi.com`

Two-layer network



Src: [Tufféry, Data Mining et Informatique Dcisionnelle]

Profound ideas and tricks

- Convolutional networks
- Max-pooling
- Dropout
- Data augmentation
- GANs
- Representation learning
- Self-learning (ex: classify against rotations)

The three main theoretical challenges of deep learning

- **Expressive power of DNN**: why are the function we are interested in so well approximated by (deep convolutive) neural networks?
- **Success of naive optimisation**: why does gradient descent lead to a good local minimum?
- **Generalization miracle**: why is there no overfitting with so many parameters?