

Trustworthy Machine Learning

Statistical Learning Theory

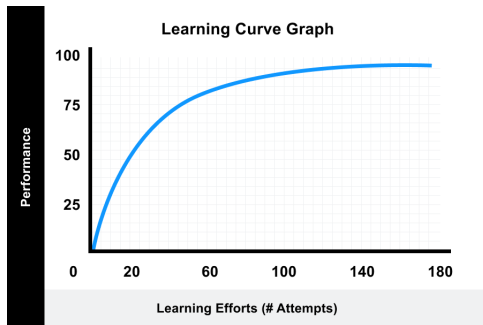
Sangdon Park

POSTECH

February 24, 2025

What is Learning Theory?

Theory on exploring conditions (or assumptions) when machines can learn from data.



<https://www.valamis.com/hub/learning-curve>

- Statistical learning theory
- Online learning theory

Historical Figure: Vladimir Vapnik



vapnik

Professor of Columbia, Fellow of [NEC Labs America](#),
Verified email at nec-labs.com

[machine learning](#) [statistics](#) [computer science](#)



| TITLE | CITED BY | YEAR |
|---|----------|------|
| The Nature of Statistical Learning Theory V Vapnik Data mining and knowledge discovery | 104201 * | 1995 |
| Support-vector networks C Cortes, V Vapnik Machine learning 20, 273-297 | 62445 | 1995 |
| A training algorithm for optimal margin classifiers BE Boser, IM Guyon, VN Vapnik Proceedings of the fifth annual workshop on Computational learning theory ... | 16380 | 1992 |
| Backpropagation applied to handwritten zip code recognition Y LeCun, B Boser, JS Denker, D Henderson, RE Howard, W Hubbard, ... Neural computation 1 (4), 541-551 | 15122 | 1989 |
| Gene selection for cancer classification using support vector machines I Guyon, J Weston, S Barnhill, V Vapnik Machine learning 46, 389-422 | 11033 | 2002 |
| Support vector regression machines H Drucker, CJ Burges, L Kaufman, A Smola, V Vapnik Advances in neural information processing systems 9 | 6005 | 1996 |

- “The Nature of Statistical Learning Theory”: summary of his papers up to 1995.
- VC dimension, SVM, ...

Historical Figure: Leslie Valiant



Leslie Valiant

Unknown affiliation
No verified email



| TITLE | CITED BY | YEAR |
|---|----------|------|
| A theory of the learnable LG Valiant Communications of the ACM 27 (11), 1134-1142 | 7939 | 1984 |
| A bridging model for parallel computation LG Valiant Communications of the ACM 33 (8), 103-111 | 5399 | 1990 |
| The complexity of computing the permanent LG Valiant Theoretical computer science 8 (2), 189-201 | 3413 | 1979 |
| The complexity of enumeration and reliability problems LG Valiant siam Journal on Computing 8 (3), 410-421 | 2579 | 1979 |
| Cryptographic limitations on learning boolean formulae and finite automata M Kearns, L Valiant Journal of the ACM (JACM) 41 (1), 67-95 | 1318 | 1994 |
| Random generation of combinatorial structures from a uniform distribution MR Jerrum, LG Valiant, VV Vazirani Theoretical computer science 43, 169-188 | 1218 | 1986 |

- “PAC Learning Theory” in 1984
- Turing Award winner in 2010

Four Key Ingredients of Learning Theory

The simplified objective of *statistical* learning theory:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{find } f \\ & \text{subj. to } f \in \mathcal{F} \\ & \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim D} \ell(x, y, f) \leq \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim D} \ell(x, y, f)$$

- **Ingredient 1:** A distribution D (e.g., a distribution over labeled images)
- **Ingredient 2:** Hypothesis space \mathcal{F} (e.g., linear functions, a set of resnet)
- **Ingredient 3:** A loss function ℓ (e.g., 0-1 loss, L1 loss, cross-entropy loss)
- **Ingredient 4:** A learning algorithm (e.g., GD)

Main Goal: Finding Conditions for Learnability

An Example

Conditions:

- D : *linearly separable* dog and cat image distribution
- \mathcal{F} : linear functions – encode prior of a data distribution
- ℓ : 0-1 loss for classification – represent task
- a learning algorithm: a gradient descent (GD) algorithm

Checking Learnability:

If we prove that the GD algorithm can find the true linear function with a “desired level” of loss, we say \mathcal{F} is learnable. In this case, we say the GD algorithm is a “good” algorithm.

Contents from

CS229T/STAT231: Statistical Learning Theory (Winter 2016)

Percy Liang

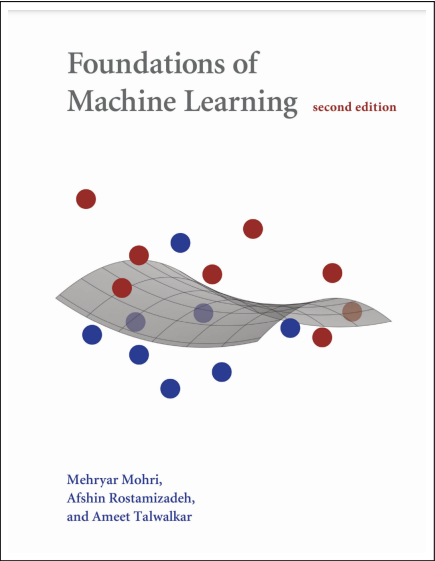
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These lecture notes will be updated periodically as the course goes on. The Appendix describes the basic notation, definitions, and theorems.

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Why PAC Learning?

The key questions in machine learning:

- When can we learn?
- How many samples do we need to have a good model?

The PAC framework provides partial answers to these key questions.

Recall Four Key Ingredients of Learning Theory

- Distribution – setup / assumption
 - ▶ image distribution, language distribution
 - ▶ samples are independently drawn from the same distribution
- Loss – a goodness metric for a desired task
 - ▶ classification: 0-1 loss
 - ▶ regression: L1 loss
- Hypothesis space – prior on the distribution, what we will design!
 - ▶ convolution network: good for image classification
 - ▶ transformers: good for language modeling
- A learning algorithm – what we will design!
 - ▶ gradient descent (GD) method...

Assumption on Distributions

Assumption

We assume that labeled examples are independently drawn from the same (and unknown) distribution \mathcal{D} over labeled examples $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$.

- “independent”: not sequential data
- “unknown”: yes, we don’t know the true distribution
- “same”: key for success
- A.K.A. the i.i.d. assumption
- The i.i.d. assumption is the standard setup.
- It is easily broken due to distribution shift.
- Online learning relaxes this assumption (under some conditions).

A Goodness Metric: Expected Error for Classification

Definition (expected error)

Given a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and an underlying distribution \mathcal{D} , the expected error is defined by

$$L(h) := \mathbb{P} \{h(x) \neq y\} = \mathbb{E} \{ \mathbb{1} (h(x) \neq y) \},$$

where the probability is taken over $(x, y) \sim \mathcal{D}$ and $\mathbb{1}$ is the indicator function.

- Suppose the classification task. But, we can use any task-dependent loss.
- This expected error of h is sometimes called the *risk* of h or the *generalization error* of h .
- The indicator function is defined as follows:

$$\mathbb{1}(s) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \text{ is true} \\ 0 & \text{if } s \text{ is false} \end{cases}.$$

A Goodness Metric: Empirical Error

Definition (empirical error)

Given a hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ and labeled samples $\mathcal{S} := ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n))$, the empirical error is defined by

$$\hat{L}(h) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(h(x_i) \neq y_i),$$

where $\mathbb{1}$ is the indicator function.

- This empirical error of h is sometimes called the *empirical risk* of h .

One More Assumption

Assumption

We assume that a distribution \mathcal{D} is separable by some hypothesis $h^ \in \mathcal{H}$, i.e.,*

$$L(h^*) = 0.$$

- Equivalently, we can consider a true hypothesis h^* from which a label $y = h^*(x)$ is generated; in this case, a distribution is only defined over \mathcal{X} .
- This assumption is strong but useful in some cases (e.g., PAC conformal prediction).
- This assumption will be removed later (in a more general learning framework).

Approximately Correct

A Goodness Metric for Algorithms

Definition

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, we say that h is approximately correct if

$$L(h) \leq \varepsilon.$$

- ε is a user-defined parameter.
- Recall that L is an expected error.
- We want to find h that achieves a desired error level ε .
- h is learned from data; thus, h is also a random variable.

Probably Approximately Correct (PAC)

A Goodness Metric for Algorithms

Definition

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$, and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we say that an algorithm \mathcal{A} is probably approximately correct (PAC) if

$$\mathbb{P} \{L(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})) \leq \varepsilon\} \geq 1 - \delta,$$

where $\mathcal{A} : (\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^* \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ and the probability is taken over $\mathcal{S} := ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)) \sim \mathcal{D}^n$.

- $S^* := \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} S^i$
- $\mathcal{S} \sim \mathcal{D}^n$: i.i.d. samples
- \mathcal{A} : a learning algorithm
- PAC is a property of an algorithm

PAC Learning Algorithm

Definition (simplified definition)

An algorithm \mathcal{A} is a PAC-learning algorithm for \mathcal{H} if for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$, $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$, and \mathcal{D} separable by h^* , and for some minimum sample size n^* (which depends on $\varepsilon, \delta, \mathcal{D}$), the following holds with any sample size $n \geq n^*$:

$$\mathbb{P} \{L(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})) \leq \varepsilon\} \geq 1 - \delta,$$

where $\mathcal{S} := ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)) \sim \mathcal{D}^n$.

- Please check out the original PAC learning definition.
- The algorithm should satisfy the PAC guarantee for any \mathcal{D} and h^* .
- If \mathcal{D} is “complex” (thus h^* is complex), we need more samples.
- If ε (or δ) is small, we need more samples.

Example: A Learning Bound for a Finite Hypothesis Set I

Learning Setup:

- \mathcal{H} : a *finite* set of functions mapping from \mathcal{X} to \mathcal{Y}
 - ▶ e.g., a set of experts
- \mathcal{D} : a distribution is separable by $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$
- \mathcal{S} : labeled examples
- \mathcal{A} : an algorithm that satisfies $\hat{L}(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})) = 0$
 - ▶ i.e., \mathcal{A} returns a “consistent” hypothesis.
 - ▶ Here, the algorithm exploits the fact on the separability!

Example: A Learning Bound for a Finite Hypothesis Set II

Theorem

For any $\varepsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$, $h^* \in \mathcal{H}$, and \mathcal{D} separable by h^* , we have

$$L(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})) \leq \frac{1}{m} \left(\log |\mathcal{H}| + \log \frac{1}{\delta} \right)$$

with probability at least $1 - \delta$.

- \mathcal{A} is a PAC learning algorithm.
- Sample complexity?

$$m \geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left(\log |\mathcal{H}| + \log \frac{1}{\delta} \right)$$

- ▶ See? As \mathcal{H} gets complex and as ε and δ are smaller, we need more samples.
- **key:** A union bound over the events of each hypothesis.

Example: A Learning Bound for a Finite Hypothesis Set III

Lemma (a union bound)

Let A_1, \dots, A_K be K different events (which might not be independent). Then,

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \bigcup_{k=1}^K A_k \right\} \leq \sum_{k=1}^K \mathbb{P} \{ A_k \} .$$

- Recall the definition of a measure.

Example: A Learning Bound for a Finite Hypothesis Set IV

Proof Sketch:

Let $\mathcal{H}_\varepsilon := \{h \in \mathcal{H} \mid L(h) > \varepsilon\}$. Then, we have

$$\mathbb{P} \{L(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})) > \varepsilon\} \leq \mathbb{P} \left\{ \exists h \in \mathcal{H}_\varepsilon, \hat{L}(h) = 0 \right\} \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \mathbb{P} \left\{ \bigvee_{h \in \mathcal{H}_\varepsilon} \hat{L}(h) = 0 \right\} \\ &\leq \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}_\varepsilon} \mathbb{P} \left\{ \hat{L}(h) = 0 \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}_\varepsilon} (1 - \varepsilon)^m \\ &\leq |\mathcal{H}|(1 - \varepsilon)^m. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

- (1): we may want a (stronger) “uniform convergence” but data-agnostic bound
- (2): union bound due to the finite hypotheses
- (3): a special case of the “point” binomial tail bound due to the i.i.d. assumption, $\mathbb{1}\{h(x) \neq y\}$ is a Bernoulli random variable with a parameter of ε , and $m\hat{L}(h)$ is the sum of m Bernoulli random variables.

Next

Relax assumptions:

- What if we have an infinite hypothesis set?
- What if \mathcal{D} is not separable?

We will explore a more general learning bound.