

PAC learning, Neural Networks and Deep Learning

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Outline

- 1 The Formal Setting (PAC Learning)
- 2 Perceptron
- 3 Neural Networks
- 4 Deep Learning

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1 The Formal Setting (PAC Learning)

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The formal setting : PAC Learning (Valiant, '84)

- Consider the *Binary Classification Problem* : We have m pairs of labeled training data $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$, where $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{X}$ are called *features* and $y_i \in \mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ are their labels. Examples:
 - \mathbf{x}_i 's are pixels (encoding of an image) and y_i 's are labels $\{cats, dogs\}$.
 - \mathbf{x}_i 's are ASCII encoding of emails and y_i 's are the labels $\{spam, not\ spam\}$.
 - \mathbf{x}_i 's are medical data (ECG, EEG, CT Scan etc) and y_i 's are whether a patient has a certain disease or not.
- **Assumption 1:** The training data is sampled *i.i.d.* from an **unknown distribution** $p_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathbf{x})$.
- **Assumption 2:** The input \mathbf{x} and the output y are related by an **unknown** deterministic function g^* , i.e., $y = g^*(\mathbf{x}), \forall \mathbf{x}$.
- **Assumption 3:** Although we don't know g^* , it is known that g^* lies in a given function class \mathcal{C} (Concept Class).

For any function (**hypothesis**) $\psi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ in the class \mathcal{C} , define its **error-rate**

$$\epsilon_{\psi} = \mathbb{P}(\psi(\mathbf{X}) \neq g^*(\mathbf{X}))$$

Problem (The Learning Problem)

For any given $\epsilon, \delta > 0$, upon observing m training samples, **select** a hypothesis $\psi \in \mathcal{C}$ such that,

$$\mathbb{P}(\epsilon_{\psi} \geq \epsilon) \leq \delta$$

Sample Complexity of Learning : Finite Function Class

Algorithm (**Empirical Risk Minimization (ERM)**): Simply output a function $\psi \in \mathcal{C}$ which agrees on the training data, i.e., $\psi(x_i) = y_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$.

Theorem (Finite Concept Classes are Learnable)

If $|\mathcal{C}| < \infty$, then ERM requires $m = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \ln \frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{\delta}$ samples to learn, irrespective of the underlying distribution $p_X(\cdot)$ and the optimal hypothesis g^ .*

The above theorem tells that by minimizing the empirical risk, **irrespective of the underlying unknown distribution**, we can bound the true risk *w.h.p.*

Proof.

For any hypothesis $f \in \mathcal{C}$, define its error-region \mathcal{E}_f , i.e., the set of inputs where it disagrees with the true function g^*

$$\mathcal{E}_f = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} : f(\mathbf{x}) \neq g^*(\mathbf{x})\} \quad (1)$$

Each error-region has an error-rate ϵ_f associated with it

$$\epsilon_f = \mathbb{P}E_f \quad (2)$$

Note that error-rate is implicitly computed using the **unknown distribution $p_X(\cdot)$** of the samples.



Proof *contd.*

Now define the set of *Bad* hypotheses \mathcal{B} : hypotheses which have error-rate at least ϵ

$$\mathcal{B} = \{f \in \mathcal{C} : \epsilon_f \geq \epsilon\}$$

Hence, for any $f \in \mathcal{B}$, we have $\mathbb{P}(f(x) \neq g^*(x)) \geq \epsilon$.

Now let us compute the probability that a bad hypothesis $f \in \mathcal{B}$ is chosen by ERM. Note that, ERM will choose the function f **only if** the hypothesis agrees with g^* on the training data.

Thus, probability that $f \in \mathcal{B}$ is chosen

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{ERM} = f) \leq (1 - \epsilon)^m$$

Using [union-bound](#), probability that *any* bad-hypothesis is chosen:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{ERM} \in \mathcal{B}) \leq \sum_{f \in \mathcal{B}} \mathbb{P}(\text{ERM} = f) \leq |\mathcal{B}|(1 - \epsilon)^m \leq |\mathcal{C}|(1 - \epsilon)^m \leq |\mathcal{C}|e^{-m\epsilon}$$

Thus, if we take m number of training samples such that:

$$|\mathcal{C}|e^{-m\epsilon} \leq \delta, \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad m \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon} \ln \frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{\delta},$$

the chosen hypothesis is *Good* w.p. at least $1 - \delta$. ■

Sample Complexity of Learning : Infinite Function Class

Clearly, the above proof does not extend to the important case when $|\mathcal{C}| = \infty$, (e.g., when \mathcal{C} is set of all [linear](#), [polynomial](#) functions etc.).

In a breakthrough paper in '95, Vapnik and Chervonenkis introduced the concept of [VC-dimension](#) associated with an arbitrary function class \mathcal{C} .

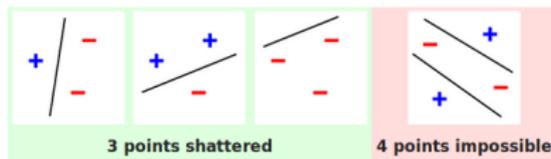
Definition (Shattering)

Suppose that there exists some set S of k points $S = \{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{X}, i = 1, 2, \dots, k\}$ such that we can select a hypothesis $f \in \mathcal{C}$ which evaluates to *any* given binary label on this set of points. Then the set S is said to be *shattered* by \mathcal{C} .

[VC dimension](#) of the function class \mathcal{C} is defined as the [maximum cardinality](#) of the set S which can be shattered by \mathcal{C} .

VC-dimension : Examples

- VC dimension of the class \mathcal{C} of 2D halfspaces is 3.



- In general, VC dimension of n -D hyperplanes is $n + 1$.
- Consider the class \mathcal{C} of axis-aligned rectangles. *Claim:* VC dimension is ≥ 4 .

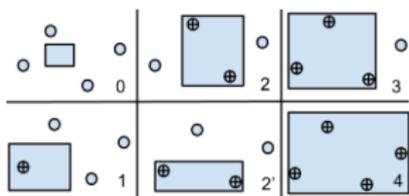


Figure 1: Proving that rectangle concept space shatters at least 4 points

Exercise: Show that VC dimension < 5

Sample Complexity

Theorem (Learning Theorem)

To learn a function class \mathcal{C} of VC-dimension d with the usual parameters (ϵ, δ) , it is necessary and sufficient to sample m data points, where $m = \Theta\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\left(d + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)\right)$

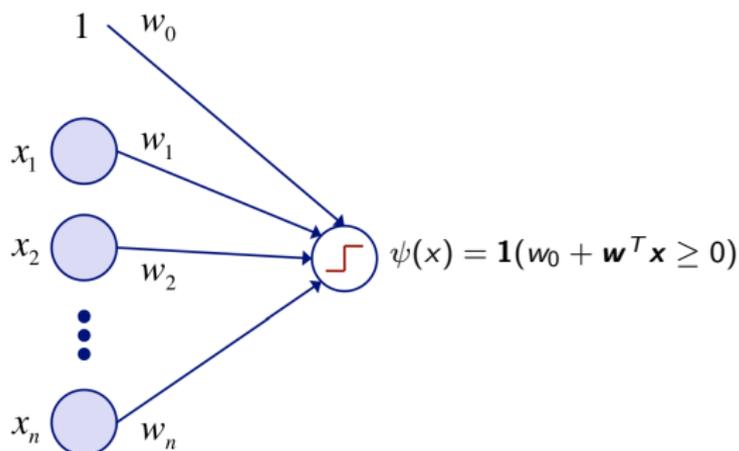
Compare with finite function class result that we proved : $\text{VC}_{\text{dim}} \sim \log(|\mathcal{C}|)$.

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Linearly Separable Function Class: Perceptron Algorithm

In this case, we have $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{1}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \geq 0), \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$.



Training Algorithm:

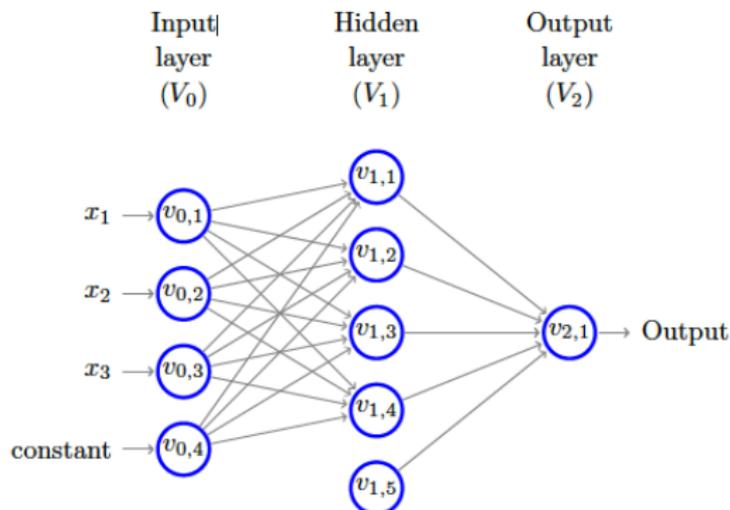
$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_i^{k+1} \leftarrow \eta(y_i^k - \mathbf{w}^k \mathbf{x}^k) x_i, \quad \mathbf{w}^{k+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^k + \Delta \mathbf{w}^{k+1} \quad (3)$$

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Neural Networks

- A neural network is a *layered* DAG $G(V, E)$ with one input layer, one output layer and at least one **hidden** layer.
- Each edge (i, j) has a **tunable** real valued weight w_{ij} .
- The vertices linearly combines the input and returns the *sign* (± 1) of the input.



A neural net of depth 2

Power of Neural Nets

Theorem (Universality of Neural Nets)

For any n , there exists a neural network of depth 2 such that it can implement any function $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$.

Although the above theorem seems very impressive, the power of neural networks comes at a cost.

Theorem (Complexity of Neural Nets)

Let $s(n)$ denote the size (number of vertices) of a depth 2 neural net which can implement any boolean function of size n . Then $s(n)$ is exponential in n .

Thus, neural nets of limited size has limited power. In particular we have the following result:

Theorem (VC dimension)

The VC dimension of any neural network $G(V, E)$ with m edges is $O(m \log m)$.

The above theorem should not surprise as any neural network has m tunable weights, thus it is expected that "dimension" of the network should grow linearly in m .

Training a Neural Net

By *training* a neural network, we mean adjusting the weight parameters \mathbf{w} of edges such that the training error is minimized (ERM).

Theorem (Hardness of Training)

*Consider a depth 2 neural network with n input nodes and one output node and at most 4 nodes in the hidden layer. Then it is **NP-hard** to train the network optimally.*

Practical considerations:

- In practice, neural networks are trained (sub-optimally) by **Stochastic Gradient Descent** (SGD) algorithm:
 - GD : uses $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\sum_{i=1}^m |y_i - f_{\mathbf{w}}(x_i)|^2)$, SGD : uses $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} |y_i - f_{\mathbf{w}}(x_i)|^2$.
- Gradient of the overall cost function is calculated efficiently by an algorithm called **backpropagation**.

SGD for Training a Neural Network

SGD for Neural Networks

parameters:

number of iterations τ

step size sequence $\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_\tau$

regularization parameter $\lambda > 0$

input:

layered graph (V, E)

differentiable activation function $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

initialize:

choose $\mathbf{w}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{|E|}$ at random

(from a distribution s.t. $\mathbf{w}^{(1)}$ is close enough to $\mathbf{0}$)

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, \tau$

sample $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim \mathcal{D}$

calculate gradient $\mathbf{v}_i = \text{backpropagation}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}, (V, E), \sigma)$

update $\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - \eta_i(\mathbf{v}_i + \lambda \mathbf{w}^{(i)})$

output:

$\bar{\mathbf{w}}$ is the best performing $\mathbf{w}^{(i)}$ on a validation set

Examples: <http://bit.ly/2dCZYKw>

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Deep Neural Networks

Deep Neural networks are Neural networks with **many hidden layers**.

- **Theoretical advantage for deep learning** : Obvious as it increases the learning capacity (increased VC-dimension of the function class \mathcal{C}).
- **History** : Was tried in 90's with limited success, adding more layer yielded marginal performance gain.
 - Reason : **Was** hard to train with backpropagation : stuck in local optima.
- **Idea 1**: Keep many layers (6 – 7) but make connections **sparse** (**Convolutional Network**, LeCun '98)
 - Less number of parameters and hence easier to train by backpropagation.
- **Idea 2**: Change the non-linearity to $\psi(x) = \max\{0, x\}$ (a.k.a. Linear Rectified Units (LRU), **ImageNet**, Hinton '12).
 - Was observed to be several times faster in training than convolutional network.

Why it works?

Nobody knows exactly. It is likely due to the following reasons:

- Local Minimas are as good as global minimas with proper regularization.
- SGD is able to find a “good solution” quickly [Choromanska, '15]. Can be understood using concepts from Statistical Physics.