

Learning Theory

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Informal Description of Supervised Learning

- ▶ X space of input samples
 Y space of labels, usually $Y \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- ▶ Already observed samples

$$D = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)) \in (X \times Y)^n$$

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$$D = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)) \in (X \times Y)^n$$

- ▶ **Goal:**

With the help of D find a function $f_D : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_D(x)$ is a good prediction of the label y for **new, unseen** x .

- ▶ **Learning method:**

Assigns to every training set D a predictor $f_D : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Illustration: Binary Classification

Problem:

The labels are ± 1 .

Goal:

Make few mistakes on future data.

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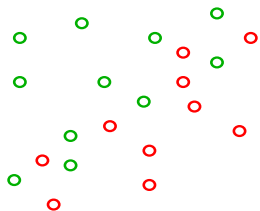
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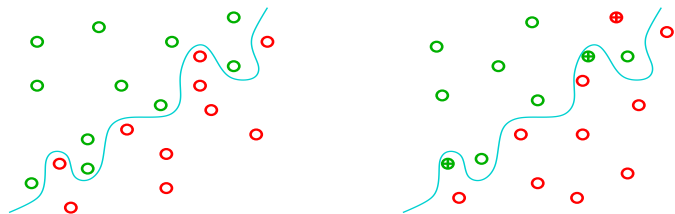
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Illustration: Regression

Problem:

The labels are \mathbb{R} -valued.

Goal:

Estimate label y for new data x as accurate as possible.

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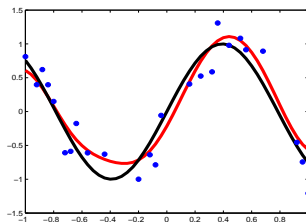
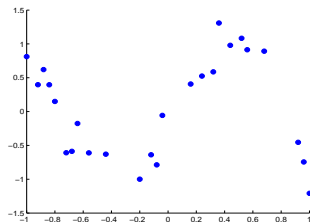
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Data Generation

Assumptions

- ▶ P is an **unknown** probability measure on $X \times Y$.
- ▶ $D = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)) \in (X \times Y)^n$ is sampled from P^n .
- ▶ Future samples (x, y) will also be sampled from P .

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Consequences

- ▶ The label y for a given x is, in general, not deterministic.
- ▶ **The past and the future “look the same”.**
- ▶ We seek algorithms that “work well” for many (or even all) P .

Performance Evaluation I

Loss Function

$L : X \times Y \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ measures cost or loss $L(x, y, t)$ of predicting label y by value t at point x .

Interpretation

- ▶ As the name suggests, **we prefer predictions with small loss.**
- ▶ L is chosen by us.
- ▶ Since future (x, y) are random, it makes sense to consider the average loss of a predictor.

Performance Evaluation II

Risk

The risk of a predictor $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the average loss

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) := \int_{X \times Y} L(x, y, f(x)) dP(x, y) .$$

For $D = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n))$ the empirical risk is

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(x_i, y_i, f(x_i)) .$$

Interpretation

By the law of large numbers, we have P^∞ -almost surely:

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) = \lim_{|D| \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)$$

Thus, $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f)$ is the **long-term average future loss** when using f .

Performance Evaluation III

Bayes Risk and Bayes Predictor

The Bayes risk is the **smallest possible risk**

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* := \inf \{ \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) \mid f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ (measurable)} \} .$$

A Bayes predictor is any function $f_{L,P}^* : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{L,P}^*) = \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* .$$

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Interpretation

- ▶ We will never find a predictor whose risk is smaller than $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$.
- ▶ We seek a predictor $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ whose **excess risk**

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$$

is close to 0.

Performance Evaluation IV

Best Naïve Risk

The best naïve risk is the smallest risk one obtains by ignoring X :

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger := \inf \{ \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(c\mathbf{1}_X) \mid c \in \mathbb{R} \} .$$

Remarks

- ▶ The best naïve risk (and its minimizer) is usually easy to estimate.
- ▶ Using fancy learning algorithms only makes sense, if $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* < \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger$.

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Equality

- ▶ Typically: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger = \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$ iff there is a constant Bayes predictor.
- ▶ If $P = P_X \otimes P_Y$, then $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger = \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$, but the converse is false.

Learning Goals I

Binary Classification: $Y = \{-1, 1\}$

- ▶ $L(y, t) := \mathbf{1}_{(-\infty, 0]}(y \operatorname{sign} t)$ penalizes predictions t with $\operatorname{sign} t \neq y$.
- ▶ $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) = P(\{(x, y) : \operatorname{sign} f(x) \neq y\})$.

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Optimal Risk

Let $\eta(x) := P(Y = 1|x)$ be the probability of a positive label at $x \in X$.

- ▶ Bayes risk: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* = \mathbb{E}_{P_X} \min\{\eta, 1 - \eta\}$.
- ▶ f is Bayes predictor iff $(2\eta - 1) \text{sign } f \geq 0$.

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Naïve Risk

- ▶ Naïve risk: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger = \min\{P(Y = 1), 1 - P(Y = 1)\}$
- ▶ $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger = \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$ iff $\eta \geq 1/2$ or $\eta \leq 1/2$

Learning Goals II

Least Squares Regression: $Y \subset \mathbb{R}$

- ▶ $L(y, t) := (y - t)^2$
- ▶ Conditional expectation: $\mu_P(x) := \mathbb{E}_P(Y|x)$.
- ▶ Conditional variance: $\sigma_P^2(x) := \mathbb{E}_P(Y^2|x) - \mu^2(x)$.

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- ▶ μ_P is the only Bayes predictor and $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* = \mathbb{E}_{P_X} \sigma_P^2$.
- ▶ Excess risk: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* = \|f - \mu_P\|_{L_2(P_X)}^2$.

Least squares regression aims at estimating the conditional mean.

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Naïve Risk

- ▶ Naïve risk: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger = \text{var } P_Y$.

Learning Goals III

Absolute Value Regression: $Y \subset \mathbb{R}$

- ▶ $L(y, t) := |y - t|$
- ▶ Conditional medians: $m_P(x) := \text{median}_P(Y|x)$.

Learning Goals III

Absolute Value Regression: $Y \subset \mathbb{R}$

- ▶ $L(y, t) := |y - t|$
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Optimal Risk

- ▶ The medians m_P are the only Bayes predictors.
- ▶ Excess risk: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_n) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* \rightarrow 0$ implies $f_n \rightarrow m_P$ in probability P_X .

Absolute value regression aims at estimating the conditional median.

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Naïve Risk

- ▶ Naïve risk: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^\dagger = \text{median } P_Y$.

Questions in Statistical Learning I

Asymptotic Learning

A learning method is called **universally consistent** if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) = \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* \quad \text{in probability } P^\infty \quad (1)$$

for **every** probability measure P on $X \times Y$.

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for **every** probability measure P on $X \times Y$.

Good News

Many learning methods are universally consistent.

First result: Stone (1977), AoS

Questions in Statistical Learning II

Learning Rates

A learning method learns for a distribution P with rate $a_n \searrow 0$, if

$$\mathbb{E}_{D \sim P^n} \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) \leq \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* + C_P a_n, \quad n \geq 1.$$

Similar: learning rates in probability.

Questions in Statistical Learning II

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Bad News (Devroye, 1982, IEEE TPAMI)

If $|X| = \infty$, $|Y| \geq 2$, and L “non-trivial”, then it is impossible to obtain a learning rate that is independent of P .

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Remark

If $|X| < \infty$, then it is usually easy to obtain a uniform learning rate for which C_P depends on $|X|$.

Questions in Statistical Learning III

Relative Learning Rates

- ▶ Let \mathcal{P} be a set of distributions on $X \times Y$.
- ▶ A learning method learns \mathcal{P} with rate $a_n \searrow 0$, if, for all $P \in \mathcal{P}$,

$$\mathbb{E}_{D \sim P^n} \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) \leq \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* + C_P a_n, \quad n \geq 1.$$

- ▶ The rate optimal (a_n) is minmax optimal, if, in addition, there is no learning method that learns \mathcal{P} with a rate (b_n) such that $b_n/a_n \rightarrow 0$.

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Tasks

- ▶ Identify interesting (“realistic”) classes \mathcal{P} with good optimal rates.
- ▶ Find learning algorithms that achieve these rates.

Example of Optimal Rates

Classical Least Squares Example

- ▶ $X = [0, 1]^d$, $Y = [-1, 1]$, L is least squares.
- ▶ W^m Sobolev space on X with order of smoothness $m > d/2$.
- ▶ \mathcal{P} the set of P such that $f_{L,P}^* \in W^m$ with norm bounded by K .
- ▶ Optimal rate is $n^{-\frac{2m}{2m+d}}$.

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Remarks

- ▶ The smoother target $\mu = f_{L,P}^*$ is, the better it can be learned.
- ▶ The larger the input dimension is, the harder learning becomes.
- ▶ There exists various learning algorithms achieving the optimal rate.
- ▶ They usually require us to know m in advance.

Questions in Statistical Learning IV

Assumptions for Adaptivity

- ▶ Usually one has a family $(\mathcal{P}_\theta)_{\theta \in \Theta}$ of **large sets** \mathcal{P}_θ of distributions.
- ▶ Each set \mathcal{P}_θ has its own optimal rate.
- ▶ We don't know whether $P \in \mathcal{P}_\theta$ for some θ , but we hope so.
- ▶ If $P \in \mathcal{P}_\theta$, we don't know θ and we have no mean to estimate it.

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Task

We seek learning algorithms that are

- ▶ universally consistent.
- ▶ learn all \mathcal{P}_θ with the optimal rate without knowing θ .

Such learning algorithms are adaptive to the unknown θ .

Questions in Statistical Learning V

Finite Sample Estimates

- ▶ Assume that our algorithm has some hyper-parameters $\lambda \in \Lambda$.
- ▶ For each $P, \lambda, \delta \in (0, 1)$ and $n \geq 1$ we seek an $\varepsilon(P, \lambda, \delta, n)$ such that

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{D,\lambda}) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* \leq \varepsilon(P, \lambda, \delta, n)$$

with probability P^n not smaller than $1 - \delta$.

Questions in Statistical Learning V

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with probability P^n not smaller than $1 - \delta$.

Remarks

- ▶ If there exists a sequence (λ_n) with

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varepsilon(P, \lambda_n, \delta, n) = 0$$

for all P and δ , then the algorithm can be made universally consistent.

- ▶ We automatically obtain learning rates for such sequences.
- ▶ If $|X| = \infty$ and \dots , then such $\varepsilon(P, \lambda, \delta, n)$ must depend on P .

Questions in Statistical Learning VI

Generalization Error Bounds

- ▶ Goal: Estimate risk $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{D,\lambda})$ by the performance of $f_{D,\lambda}$ on D .
- ▶ Find $\varepsilon(\lambda, \delta, n)$ such that with probability P^n not smaller than $1 - \delta$:

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{D,\lambda}) \leq \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_{D,\lambda}) + \varepsilon(\lambda, \delta, n).$$

Questions in Statistical Learning VI

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Remarks

- ▶ $\varepsilon(\lambda, \delta, n)$ must not depend on P since we do not know P .
- ▶ $\varepsilon(\lambda, \delta, n)$ can be used to derive parameter selection strategies such as structural risk minimization.
- ▶ Alternative: Use second data set D' and $\mathcal{R}_{L,D'}(f_{D,\lambda})$ as an estimate.

Summary

A “good” learning algorithm:

- ▶ Is universally consistent.
- ▶ Is adaptive for *realistic* classes of distributions.

Summary

A “good” learning algorithm:

- ▶ Is universally consistent.
- ▶ Is adaptive for *realistic* classes of distributions.
- ▶ Can be modified to new problems that have a different loss.
- ▶ Has a good record on real-world problems.
- ▶ Runs efficiently on a computer.
- ▶ ...

Empirical Risk Minimization

Definition

Let \mathcal{F} be a set of functions $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. A learning method whose predictors satisfy $f_D \in \mathcal{F}$ and

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_D) = \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)$$

is called **empirical risk minimization (ERM)**.

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Remarks

- ▶ Not every \mathcal{F} makes ERM possible.
- ▶ ERM is, in general, not unique.
- ▶ ERM may not be computationally feasible.

Empirical Risk Minimization

Danger of underfitting

- ▶ ERM can never produce predictors with risk better than

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* := \inf\{\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) : f \in \mathcal{F}\}.$$

- ▶ Example: L least squares, $X = [0, 1]$, P_X uniform distribution, $f_{L,P}^*$ not linear, and \mathcal{F} set of linear functions, then

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* > \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*,$$

and thus ERM cannot be consistent.

Empirical Risk Minimization

Danger of overfitting

- ▶ If \mathcal{F} is too large, ERM may overfit.
- ▶ Example: L least squares, $X = [0, 1]$, P_X uniform distribution, $f_{L,P}^* = \mathbf{1}_X$, $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* = 0$, and \mathcal{F} set of all functions. Then

$$f_D(x) = \begin{cases} y_i & \text{if } x = x_i \text{ for some } i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

satisfies $\mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_D) = 0$ but $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) = 1$.

Summary of Last Session

- ▶ Risk of a predictor $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) := \int_{X \times Y} L(x, y, f(x)) dP(x, y) .$$

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- ▶ Bayes risk $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$ is the smallest possible risk. A Bayes predictor $f_{L,P}^*$ achieves this minimal risk.
- ▶ Learning is

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) \rightarrow \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$$

- ▶ Asymptotically, this is possible, but no uniform rates are possible.
- ▶ We seek adaptive learning algorithms. Ideally, these are fully automated.

Regularized ERM

Definition

Let \mathcal{F} be a non-empty set of functions $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\Upsilon : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ be a map. A learning method whose predictors satisfy $f_D \in \mathcal{F}$ and

$$\Upsilon(f_D) + \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_D) = \inf_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left(\Upsilon(f) + \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f) \right)$$

is called **regularized empirical risk minimization (RERM)**.

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is called **regularized empirical risk minimization (RERM)**.

Remarks

- ▶ $\Upsilon = 0$ yields ERM.
- ▶ All remarks about ERM apply to RERM, too.

Examples of Regularized ERM I

General Dictionary Methods

For bounded $h_1, \dots, h_m : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ consider

$$\mathcal{F} := \left\{ f_c := \sum_{i=1}^m c_i h_i : (c_1, \dots, c_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m \right\},$$

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Examples of Regularizers

- ▶ ℓ_1 -regularization: $\Upsilon(f_c) = \lambda \|c\|_1 = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^m |c_i|$,
- ▶ ℓ_2 -regularization: $\Upsilon(f_c) = \lambda \|c\|_2 = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^m |c_i|^2$,
- ▶ ℓ_∞ -regularization: $\Upsilon(f_c) = \lambda \|c\|_\infty = \lambda \max_i |c_i|$,

or, in case of dependent h_i , we take the infimum over all representations.

Examples of Regularized ERM II

Further Examples

- ▶ Support Vector Machines
- ▶ Regularized Decision Trees
- ▶ ...

Regularized ERM: Norm Regularizers

Conventions

- ▶ Whenever we consider regularizers they will be of the form

$$\Upsilon(f) = \lambda \|f\|_E^\alpha, \quad f \in \mathcal{F},$$

where $\alpha \geq 1$ and $E := \mathcal{F}$ is a vector space of functions $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

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- ▶ In this case, we additionally assume that

$$\|f\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_E, \quad f \in E.$$

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$$\Upsilon(f) = \lambda \|f\|_E^\alpha, \quad f \in \mathcal{F},$$

where $\alpha \geq 1$ and $E := \mathcal{F}$ is a vector space of functions $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

- ▶ In this case, we additionally assume that

$$\|f\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_E, \quad f \in E.$$

- ▶ In the following, we assume that the optimization problem also has a solution f_P , when we replace D by P :

$$f_P \in \arg \min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \Upsilon(f) + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f)$$

The Classical Argument I

Ansatz

- ▶ Assume that we have a data set D and an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| \leq \varepsilon$$

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The Classical Argument II

Discussion

- ▶ The uniform bound

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| \leq \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

led to the inequality

$$\Upsilon(f_D) + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* \leq \Upsilon(f_P) + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_P) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* + 2\varepsilon.$$

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- ▶ Since $\Upsilon(f_D) \geq 0$, all what remains to be done, is to estimate
 - ▶ the probability of (2)
 - ▶ the regularization error $\Upsilon(f_P) + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_P) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$.

The Classical Argument III

Union Bound

- ▶ Assume that \mathcal{F} is finite.
- ▶ The union bound gives

$$\begin{aligned} & P(D : \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| \leq \varepsilon) \\ &= 1 - P(D : \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| > \varepsilon) \\ &\geq 1 - \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}} P(D : |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| > \varepsilon) \end{aligned}$$

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Consequences

- ▶ It suffices to bound $P(D : |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| > \varepsilon)$ for all f .
- ▶ No assumptions on P are made so far. In particular, so far data D does not need to be i.i.d. nor even random.

The Classical Argument IV

Hoeffding's Inequality

Let (Ω, \mathcal{A}, Q) be a probability space and $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n : \Omega \rightarrow [a, b]$ be independent random variables. Then, for all $\tau > 0$, $n \geq 1$, we have

$$Q\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i - \mathbb{E}_Q \xi_i)\right| \geq (b - a) \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{2n}}\right) \leq 2e^{-\tau}.$$

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Application

- ▶ Consider $\Omega := (X \times Y)^n$ and $Q := P^n$.
- ▶ For $\xi_i(D) := L(x_i, y_i, f(x_i))$ we have $a = 0$ and

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n(\xi_i - \mathbb{E}_{P^n}\xi_i) = \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f).$$

- ▶ Assuming $L(x, y, f(x)) \leq B$ makes application of Hoeffding possible.

The Classical Argument V

Theorem for ERM

Let $L : X \times Y \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ be a loss, \mathcal{F} be a non-empty **finite** set of functions $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $B > 0$ be a constant such that

$$L(x, y, f(x)) \leq B, \quad (x, y) \in X \times Y, f \in \mathcal{F}.$$

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Then we have

$$P^n \left(D : \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) < \mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* + B \sqrt{\frac{2\tau + 2 \ln(2|\mathcal{F}|)}{n}} \right) \geq 1 - e^{-\tau}.$$

Remarks

- ▶ Does not specify approximation error $\mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$.
- ▶ If $|\mathcal{F}| = \infty$, the bound becomes meaningless.
- ▶ What happens, if we consider RERM with non-trivial regularizer?

ERM for Infinite \mathcal{F} : The General Approach

So far ...

The union bound was the “trick” to make a conclusion from an estimate of

$$|\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| \geq \varepsilon$$

for a **single** f to **all** $f \in \mathcal{F}$. For infinite \mathcal{F} , this does not work!

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for a **single** f to **all** $f \in \mathcal{F}$. For infinite \mathcal{F} , this does not work!

General Approach

Given some $\delta > 0$, find a **finite** \mathcal{N}_δ set of functions such that

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| \leq \sup_{f \in \mathcal{N}_\delta} |\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f)| + \delta$$

Then apply the union bound for \mathcal{N}_δ . The rest remains unchanged.

ERM for Infinite \mathcal{F} : The General Approach

The old inequality

$$P^n \left(D : \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) < \mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* + B \sqrt{\frac{2\tau + 2 \ln(2|\mathcal{F}|)}{n}} \right) \geq 1 - e^{-\tau}.$$

The new inequality

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Tasks

- ▶ For each $\delta > 0$, find a small set \mathcal{N}_δ .
- ▶ Optimize the right-hand side wrt. δ .

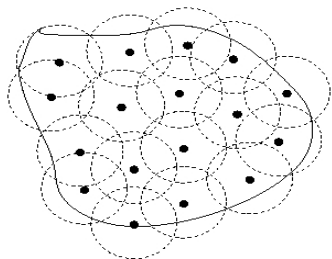
Covering Numbers

Definition

Let (M, d) be a metric space, $A \subset M$, and $\varepsilon > 0$. The ε -covering number of A is defined by

$$\mathcal{N}(A, d, \varepsilon) := \inf \left\{ n \geq 1 : \exists x_1, \dots, x_n \in M \text{ such that } A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_d(x_i, \varepsilon) \right\}$$

where $\inf \emptyset := \infty$, and $B_d(x_j, \varepsilon)$ is the ball with radius ε and center x_j .



Covering Numbers

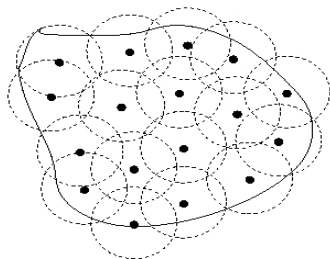
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where $\inf \emptyset := \infty$, and $B_d(x_j, \varepsilon)$ is the ball with radius ε and center x_j .

- ▶ x_1, \dots, x_n is called an ε -net.
- ▶ $\mathcal{N}(A, d, \varepsilon)$ is the size of the smallest ε -net.



Covering Numbers II

- ▶ Every bounded $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ satisfies

$$\mathcal{N}(A, \|\cdot\|, \varepsilon) \leq c\varepsilon^{-d}, \quad \varepsilon > 0$$

where $c > 0$ is a constant and the norm $\|\cdot\|$ does only influence c .

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where $c > 0$ is a constant and the norm $\|\cdot\|$ does only influence c .

- ▶ For sets \mathcal{F} of functions $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the behavior of $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{F}, \|\cdot\|, \varepsilon)$ may be very different!
- ▶ The literature is full of estimates of $\ln \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{F}, \|\cdot\|, \varepsilon)$.
- ▶ A typical estimate looks like

$$\ln \mathcal{N}(B_E, \|\cdot\|_F, \varepsilon) \leq c\varepsilon^{-2p}, \quad \varepsilon > 0$$

Here p may depend on the input dimension and the smoothness of the functions in E .

ERM with Infinite Sets

Theorem

- ▶ Let L be Lipschitz in its third argument, Lipschitz constant = 1.
- ▶ Assume that $\|L \circ f\|_\infty \leq B$ for all $f \in \mathcal{F}$.
- ▶ Let \mathcal{N}_ε be a minimal ε -net of \mathcal{F} , i.e. $|\mathcal{N}_\varepsilon| = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{F}, \|\cdot\|_\infty, \varepsilon)$.

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Then we have

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Using Covering Numbers VII

Example

- ▶ Let L satisfy assumptions on previous theorem.
- ▶ Let \mathcal{F} set of functions with $\ln \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{F}, \|\cdot\|_\infty, \varepsilon) \leq c\varepsilon^{-2p}$.

Using Covering Numbers VII

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$$P^n \left(D : \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) < \mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* + B \sqrt{\frac{2\tau + 4c\varepsilon^{-2p}}{n}} + 2\varepsilon \right) \geq 1 - e^{-\tau}.$$

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- ▶ Optimizing wrt. ε gives a constant K_p such that

$$P^n \left(D : \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) < \mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* + K_p c^{\frac{1}{2+2p}} B \sqrt{\tau} n^{-\frac{1}{2+2p}} \right) \geq 1 - e^{-\tau}.$$

- ▶ For ERM over finite \mathcal{F} , we had “ $p = 0$ ”.

Standard Analysis for RERM

Difficulties when Analyzing RERM

- ▶ We are interested in RERMs, where \mathcal{F} is a vector space E .
- ▶ Vector spaces E are never compact, thus $\ln \mathcal{N}(E, \|\cdot\|_\infty, \varepsilon) = \infty$.
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- ▶ It seems that our approach does not work in this case.

Solution

RERM actually solves its optimization problem

$$\Upsilon(f_D) + \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_D) = \inf_{f \in E} \left(\Upsilon(f) + \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f) \right)$$

over a set, which is significantly smaller than E .

Norm Bound for RERM

Lemma

Assume that $L(x, y, 0) \leq 1$. Then, for any RERM predictor $f_{D,\lambda} \in E$ we have

$$\|f_{D,\lambda}\|_E \leq \lambda^{-1/\alpha}.$$

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$$\|f_{D,\lambda}\|_E \leq \lambda^{-1/\alpha}.$$

Consequence

RERM optimization problem is actually solved over the ball with radius

$$\lambda^{-1/\alpha}.$$

Norm Bound for RERM II

Proof

Our assumptions $L(x, y, t) \geq 0$ and $L(x, y, 0) \leq 1$ yield

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Our assumptions $L(x, y, t) \geq 0$ and $L(x, y, 0) \leq 1$ yield

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Norm Bound for RERM II

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An Oracle Inequality

Theorem (Example)

- ▶ L Lipschitz continuous with $|L|_1 \leq 1$ and $L(x, y, 0) \leq 1$.
- ▶ E vector space with norm $\|\cdot\|_E$ satisfying $\|\cdot\|_\infty \leq \|\cdot\|_E$.
- ▶ $\Upsilon(f) = \lambda \|f\|_E^\alpha$.
- ▶ We have $\ln \mathcal{N}(B_E, \|\cdot\|_\infty, \varepsilon) \leq c\varepsilon^{-2p}$

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Then, for all $n \geq 1$, $\lambda \in (0, 1]$, $\tau \geq 1$, we have

$$\lambda \|f_{D,\lambda}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{D,\lambda}) < \lambda \|f_{P,\lambda}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{P,\lambda}) + K_p c^{\frac{1}{2+2p}} \sqrt{\tau} \lambda^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} n^{-\frac{1}{2+2p}}$$

with probability P^n not less than $1 - e^{-\tau}$.

Consequences of the Oracle Inequality

Oracle inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \|f_{D,\lambda}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{D,\lambda}) &< \lambda \|f_{P,\lambda}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{P,\lambda}) \\ &+ K_p c^{\frac{1}{2+2p}} \sqrt{\tau} \lambda^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} n^{-\frac{1}{2+2p}} \end{aligned}$$

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- ▶ Regularization error: $A(\lambda) := \lambda \|f_{P,\lambda}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{P,\lambda}) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P,E}^*$
- ▶ Approximation error: $\mathcal{R}_{L,P,E}^* - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$.
- ▶ Statistical error: $K_p c^{\frac{1}{2+2p}} \sqrt{\tau} \lambda^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} n^{-\frac{1}{2+2p}}$.

Bounding the Remaining Errors

Lemma 1

If E is dense in $L_1(P_X)$, then $\mathcal{R}_{L,P,E}^* - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* = 0$.

Lemma 2

We have $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} A(\lambda) = 0$, and if there is an $f^* \in E$ with $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) = \mathcal{R}_{L,P,E}^*$, then

$$A(\lambda) \leq \lambda \|f^*\|_E^\alpha.$$

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Remarks

- ▶ A linear behaviour of A often requires such an f^* .
- ▶ A typical behavior is, for some $\beta \in (0, 1]$, of the form

$$A(\lambda) \leq c\lambda^\beta$$

- ▶ A sufficient condition for such a behaviour can be described with the help of so-called “interpolation spaces of the real method”.

Main Results for RERM

Oracle inequality

We assume $\mathcal{R}_{L,P,E}^* - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* = 0$.

$$\lambda \|f_{D,\lambda}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_{D,\lambda}) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* < A(\lambda) + K_p c^{\frac{1}{2+2p}} \sqrt{\tau} \lambda^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} n^{-\frac{1}{2+2p}}$$

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- ▶ Consistent, if $\lambda_n \rightarrow 0$ with $\lambda_n n^{\frac{\alpha}{2+2p}} \rightarrow \infty$.

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Consequences

- ▶ Consistent, if $\lambda_n \rightarrow 0$ with $\lambda_n n^{\frac{\alpha}{2+2p}} \rightarrow \infty$.
- ▶ If $A(\lambda) \leq c\lambda^\beta$, then

$$\lambda_n \sim n^{-\frac{\alpha}{(\alpha\beta+1)(2+2p)}}$$

achieves “best” rate

$$n^{-\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha\beta+1)(2+2p)}}$$

Main Results for ERM II

Discussion

- ▶ Assumptions for consistency on E are minimal.
- ▶ More sophisticated algorithms can be devised from oracle inequality. For example, E could change with sample size, too.
- ▶ To achieve best learning rates, we need to know β .

Learning Rates: Hyper-Parameters III

Training-Validation Approach

Assume that L is clippable.

- ▶ Split data into equally sized parts D_1 and D_2 . We write $m := n/2$.
- ▶ Fix a finite set $\Lambda \subset (0, 1]$ of candidate values for λ .
- ▶ For each $\lambda \in \Lambda$ compute $f_{D_1, \lambda}$.
- ▶ Pick the $\lambda_{D_2} \in \Lambda$ such that $\bar{f}_{D_1, \lambda_{D_2}}$ minimizes empirical risk \mathcal{R}_{L, D_2} .

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Observation

Approach performs RERM on D_1 and ERM over $\mathcal{F} := \{\bar{f}_{D_1, \lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ on D_2 .

Learning Rates: Hyper-Parameters VI

Theorem

If Λ_n is a polynomially growing $n^{-\alpha/2}$ -net of $(0, 1]$, our TV-RERM is consistent and enjoys the same best rates as RERM without knowing β .

Summary

Positive Aspects

- ▶ Finite sample estimates in forms of oracle inequalities.
- ▶ Consistency and learning rates.
- ▶ Adaptivity to best learning rates the analysis can provide.
- ▶ Framework applies to a variety of algorithms, e.g. SVMs with Gaussian kernels.
- ▶ Analysis is very robust to changes in the scenario.

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- ▶ Framework applies to a variety of algorithms, e.g. SVMs with Gaussian kernels.
- ▶ Analysis is very robust to changes in the scenario.

Negative Aspect

- ▶ For RERM, the rates are never optimal!
- ▶ This analysis is out-dated.

Learning Rates: Non-Optimality I

- ▶ For RERM, with probability P^n not less than $1 - e^{-\tau}$ we have

$$\lambda_n \|f_{D, \lambda_n}\|_E^\alpha + \mathcal{R}_{L, P}(f_{D, \lambda_n}) - \mathcal{R}_{L, P}^* \leq C \sqrt{\tau} n^{-\frac{\alpha\beta}{2(\alpha\beta+1)(1+p)}}. \quad (3)$$

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- ▶ In the proof of this result we used $\lambda_n \|f_{D, \lambda_n}\|_E^\alpha \leq 1$, but (3) shows

$$\lambda_n \|f_{D, \lambda_n}\|_E^2 \leq C \sqrt{\tau} n^{-\frac{\alpha\beta}{2(\alpha\beta+1)(1+p)}}.$$

For large n this estimate is sharper!

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For large n this estimate is sharper!

- ▶ Using the sharper estimate in the proof, we obtain a better learning rate.
- ▶ Argument can be iterated ...

Learning Rates: Non-Optimality II

Bernstein's Inequality

Let (Ω, \mathcal{A}, Q) be a probability space and $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n : \Omega \rightarrow [-B, B]$ be independent random variables satisfying

- ▶ $\mathbb{E}_Q \xi_i = 0$
- ▶ $\mathbb{E}_Q \xi_i^2 \leq \sigma^2$

Then, for all $\tau > 0$, $n \geq 1$, we have

$$Q \left(\left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \right| \geq \sqrt{\frac{2\sigma^2\tau}{n}} + \frac{2B\tau}{3n} \right) \leq 2e^{-\tau}.$$

Learning Rates: Non-Optimality III

- ▶ Some loss functions or distributions allow a **variance bound**

$$\mathbb{E}_P(L \circ f - L \circ f_{L,P}^*)^2 \leq V(\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*)^\vartheta.$$

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 - ▶ variance term, which is $O(n^{-1/2})$
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 - ▶ Initial analysis provides small excess risk with high probability
 - ▶ Variance bound converts small excess risk into small variance
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 - ▶ ...

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 - ▶ ...
- ▶ Rates up to $O(n^{-1})$ become possible. **Iteration can be avoided!**

Learning Rates: Non-Optimality IV

Further Reasons

- ▶ The fact that L is clippable, should be used to obtain a smaller supremum term.
- ▶ $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ -covering numbers provide a worst-case tool.

Adaptivity of Standard SVMs

Theorem (Eberts & S. 2011)

- ▶ Consider an SVM with least squares loss and Gaussian kernel k_σ .
- ▶ Pick λ and σ by a suitable training/validation approach.

Then, for $m \in (d/2, \infty)$, the SVM learns every $f_{L,P}^* \in W^m(X)$ with the (essentially) optimal rate $n^{-\frac{2m}{2m+d} + \varepsilon}$ **without** knowing m .

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM I

Basic Setup

- ▶ We consider ERM over finite \mathcal{F} .
- ▶ We assume that a Bayes predictor $f_{L,P}^*$ exists.
- ▶ We consider excess losses

$$h_f := L \circ f - L \circ f_{L,P}^* .$$

Thus $\mathbb{E}_P h_f = \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*$.

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- ▶ Variance bound: $\mathbb{E}_P h_f^2 \leq V(\mathbb{E}_P h_f)^\vartheta$
- ▶ Supremum bound: $\|h_f\|_\infty \leq B$

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM II

Decomposition

- ▶ Let $f_P \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy $\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_P) = \mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^*$.
- ▶ $\mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_D) \leq \mathcal{R}_{L,D}(f_P)$ implies $\mathbb{E}_D h_{f_D} \leq \mathbb{E}_D h_{f_P}$.

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This yields

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_P) &= \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} - \mathbb{E}_D h_{f_D} + \mathbb{E}_D h_{f_P} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P}\end{aligned}$$

We will estimate the two differences separately.

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM III

Second Difference

We have $\mathbb{E}_D h_{f_P} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} = \mathbb{E}_D(h_{f_P} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P})$.

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- ▶ Variance bound: $\mathbb{E}_P(h_{f_P} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P})^2 \leq \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P}^2 \leq V(\mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P})^\vartheta$
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Bernstein yields

$$\mathbb{E}_D h_{f_P} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} \leq \sqrt{\frac{2\tau V(\mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P})^\vartheta}{n}} + \frac{4B\tau}{3n}$$

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Towards a Better Analysis for ERM IV

First Difference

To estimate the remaining term $\mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} - \mathbb{E}_D h_{f_D}$, we define the functions

$$g_{f,r} := \frac{\mathbb{E}_P h_f - h_f}{\mathbb{E}_P h_f + r}, \quad f \in \mathcal{F}, r > 0.$$

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Bernstein Conditions

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$$\mathbb{E}_P g_{f,r}^2 \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}_P h_f^2}{(\mathbb{E}_P h_f + r)^2} \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}_P h_f^2}{r^{2-\vartheta} (\mathbb{E}_P h_f)^\vartheta} \leq V r^{\vartheta-2}.$$

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- ▶ Supremum bound: $\|g_{f,r}\|_\infty \leq \|\mathbb{E}_P h_f - h_f\|_\infty r^{-1} \leq 2B r^{-1}$.

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM V

Application of Bernstein

With probability P^n not smaller than $1 - |\mathcal{F}|e^{-\tau}$ we have

$$\sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \mathbb{E}_D g_{f,r} < \sqrt{\frac{2V\tau}{nr^{2-\vartheta}}} + \frac{4B\tau}{3nr}$$

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM V

Application of Bernstein

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Transformation

The definition of $g_{f_D,r}$ and $f_D \in \mathcal{F}$ imply

$$\mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} - \mathbb{E}_D h_{f_D} < \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} \left(\sqrt{\frac{2V\tau}{nr^{2-\vartheta}}} + \frac{4B\tau}{3nr} \right) + \sqrt{\frac{2V\tau r^\vartheta}{n}} + \frac{4B\tau}{3n}.$$

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM VI

Combination of the three Estimates

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} &< \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} + \left(\frac{2V_\tau}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2-\vartheta}} + \frac{8B_\tau}{3n} \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} \left(\sqrt{\frac{2V_\tau}{nr^{2-\vartheta}}} + \frac{4B_\tau}{3nr} \right) + \sqrt{\frac{2V_\tau r^\vartheta}{n}}\end{aligned}$$

Towards a Better Analysis for ERM VI

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} - \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} &< \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} + \left(\frac{2V_\tau}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2-\vartheta}} + \frac{8B_\tau}{3n} \\ &+ \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} \left(\sqrt{\frac{2V_\tau}{nr^{2-\vartheta}}} + \frac{4B_\tau}{3nr} \right) + \sqrt{\frac{2V_\tau r^\vartheta}{n}} \end{aligned}$$

Transformation

$$\left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{2V_\tau}{nr^{2-\vartheta}}} - \frac{4B_\tau}{3nr}\right) \mathbb{E}_P h_{f_D} < 2\mathbb{E}_P h_{f_P} + \left(\frac{2V_\tau}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2-\vartheta}} + \frac{8B_\tau}{3n} + \sqrt{\frac{2V_\tau r^\vartheta}{n}}$$

Final Step

For $r := \left(\frac{8V_\tau}{n}\right)^{1/(2-\vartheta)}$, the factor on the lhs. is not smaller than 1/3.

A Better Oracle Inequality for ERM

Theorem

Assume that there are $\vartheta \in [0, 1]$, and $V \geq B^{2-\vartheta}$ such that

- ▶ \mathcal{F} finite set of functions.
- ▶ Variance bound: $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{P}}(L \circ f - L \circ f_{L,\mathcal{P}}^*)^2 \leq V \cdot (\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{P}}(L \circ f - L \circ f_{L,\mathcal{P}}^*))^{\vartheta}$
- ▶ Supremum bound: $\|L \circ f - L \circ f_{L,\mathcal{P}}^*\|_{\infty} \leq B$

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- ▶ Supremum bound: $\|L \circ f - L \circ f_{L,P}^*\|_{\infty} \leq B$

Then, for $\tau > 0$ and $n \geq 1$, we have with probability P^n not less than $1 - e^{-\tau}$:

$$\mathcal{R}_{L,P}(f_D) - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^* < 6(\mathcal{R}_{L,P,\mathcal{F}}^* - \mathcal{R}_{L,P}^*) + 4 \left(\frac{8V(\tau + \ln(1 + |\mathcal{F}|))}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{2-\vartheta}}.$$