CSCE 790: Neural Networks and Their Applications AIISC and Dept. Computer Science and Engineering Email: vignar@sc.edu

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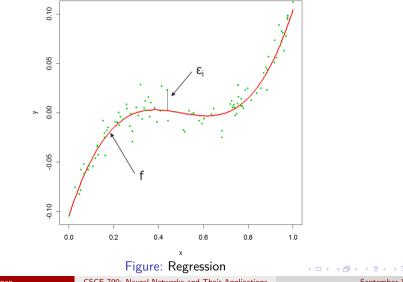


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What function does an NN learning in a regression problem?



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What function does an NN learning in a regression problem?

- The function f is unknown
- We estimate *f* for two key purposes:
 - Prediction
 - Inference
- By producing a good estimate for f where the variance of ε is not too large, we can make accurate predictions for the response variable, y, based on a new value of x
- The accuracy of a prediction for y depends on: Reducible error and Irreducible error

- Note that the model will not be a perfect estimate for *f* the correct relationship between input-output data; this inaccuracy introduces error
- This error is reducible because we can potentially improve the accuracy of the estimated (i.e., hypothesis) model by using the most appropriate learning technique to estimate the target function f
- Even if we could perfectly estimate f, there is still variability associated with ε that affects the accuracy of predictions = irreducible error

What function does an NN learning in a regression problem?

- \bullet For example, consider the average of the squared difference between the predicted and actual value of y
- $Var(\varepsilon)$ represents the variance associated with ε

$$\mathbb{E}[(y - \hat{f}(X))^2 | X = x] = \underbrace{[f(x) - \hat{f}(x)]^2}_{\text{Reducible}} + \underbrace{Var(\varepsilon)}_{\text{Irreducible}}$$

- The aim of the learning process is to minimize the reducible error
- What function does an NN learning in a classification problem?

Decision Boundaries

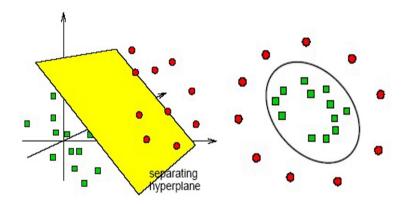


Figure: Decision boundaries - Linear and nonlinear boundaries

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- We already discussed that the OR function's thresholding parameter theta is 1, for obvious reasons.
- The inputs are obviously boolean, so only 4 combinations are possible (0,0), (0,1), (1,0) and (1,1)

Revisiting Simple NN - OR Logic

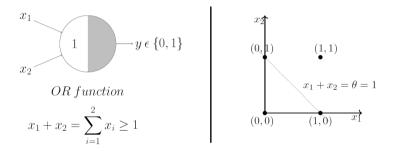
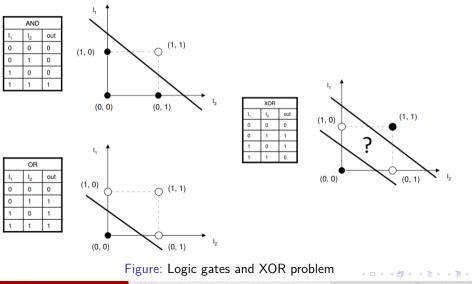


Figure: Logic-OR gate **

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Logic Gates



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Perceptron in general?

• A 1-layer NN with two inputs x_1, x_2 and one output y is given by

$$y = \sigma(v_0 + v_1x_1 + v_2x_2)$$

- Let $\sigma(\cdot)$ be the symmetric hard limit
- \bullet The output space = $\{-1,1,0\}$
- When y = 0
 - $0 = v_0 + v_1 x_1 + v_2 x_2$
 - $x_2 = -\frac{v_0}{v_2} \frac{v_1}{v_2}x_1$
- This defines a line partitioning \mathbb{R}^2 into two decision regions, with y = +1 in one region and y = -1 in the other region
- In the general case of *n* inputs x_j and *m* outputs y_l , the one layer NN partitions \mathbb{R}^n using *m* hyperplanes (subspace of dimension n-1)

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• Linear separability (for boolean functions): There exists a line (plane) such that all inputs which produce a 1 lie on one side of the line (plane) and all inputs which produce a 0 lie on other side of the line (plane).

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What NN learns?

Visualization

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Underfitting vs Overfitting

- There are always two aspects to consider when designing a learning algorithm:
 - Try to fit the data well
 - Be as robust as possible
- The predictor that you have generated using your training data must also work well on new data.
- When we create predictors, usually the simpler the predictor is, the more robust it tends to be in the sense of being able to be estimated reliably.
- On the other hand, the simple models do not fit the training data aggressively.

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Underfitting vs Overfitting

- If you try to fit the data too aggressively, then you may over-fit the training data.
- This means that the predictors works very well on the training data, but is substantially worse on the unseen test data.



Figure: Underfitting vs Overfitting

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- $\bullet\,$ Bias \to how good the predictor is, on average; tends to be smaller with more complicated models
- $\bullet~\mbox{Variance} \rightarrow \mbox{tends}$ to be higher for more complex models
- Simple model (e.g., just linear term) introduces (model) bias
- Highly complex model introduces high variance

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- $\bullet\,$ Training error $\to\,$ reflects whether the data fits well
- $\bullet\,$ Testing error $\to\,$ reflects whether the predictor actually works on new data

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- The out-of-sample error *E*_{out} measures how well our training on D has generalized to data that we have not seen before.
- E_{out} is based on the performance over the entire input space X.
- Intuitively, if we want to estimate the value of E_{out} using a sample of data points, these points must be 'fresh' test points that have not been used for training.
- The in sample error *E_{in}*, by contrast, is based on data points that have been used for training.

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- The value of E_{in} does not always generalize to a similar value of E_{out} .
- Generalization is a key issue in learning.
- One can define the generalization error as the discrepancy between E_{in} and E_{out} ·
- Universal approximation theorem warrants $E_{in} \rightarrow 0$ as number of neurons in the hidden layers $\rightarrow \infty$
- For more, check: Learning from Data: A Short Course, by Hsuan-Tien Lin, Malik Magdon-Ismail, and Yaser Abu-Mostafa

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Interpolation

Definition

Interpolation occurs for a sample x whenever this sample belongs to the convex hull of a set of samples $X \triangleq \{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$, if not, extrapolation occurs.

Theorem

Given a d-dimensional dataset $X \triangleq \{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$ with i.i.d. samples uniformly drawn from an hyperball, the probability that a new sample x is in interpolation regime has the following asymptotic behavior

$$\lim_{d \to \infty} \underbrace{p(x \in Hull(X))}_{Interpolation} = \begin{cases} 1 \iff N > d^{-1}2^{\frac{d}{2}} \\ 0 \iff N < d^{-1}2^{\frac{d}{2}} \end{cases}$$
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Learning in High Dimension Always Amounts to Extrapolation

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Convex Set

Definition

A subset $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a convex set if $\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y \in C$, $\forall x, y \in C$, $\forall \alpha \in [0, 1]$.



Figure: Convex Set

Figure: Non-Convex Set

Figure: (a) Illustration of a convex set which looks Figure: (b) Illustration of a non-convex set which somewhat like a deformed circle.

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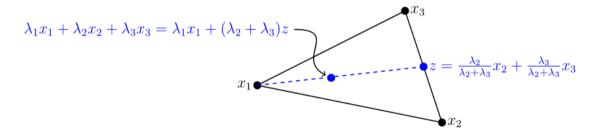
Example (Convex sets)

- 1. A hyperplane $H = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : p^T x = c\}$ for some $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $p \neq 0$, and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, for example, a plane in \mathbb{R}^3 , $p_1 x + p_2 y + p_3 z = 1$.
- 2. Half space $H^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : p^T x \ge c\}$ or $H^- = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : p^T x \le c\}$.

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Simplex - Building blocks of hulls

The set of all convex combinations $\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_i x_i$ of $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 1$ is the triangular region determined by x_1, x_2, x_3 (formed between vertices x_1, x_2, x_3).



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Convex Hull

More generally, the set of all convex combinations $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i x_i$ of k vectors $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the convex polyhedral region determined by x_1, \ldots, x_k (the so-called convex Hull, the intersection of all convex sets containing x_i , $i = 1, \ldots, k$).



Figure: Illustration of a tetrahedron that is a convex combination of four vectors.

Figure: A convex hull of 100 random uniform points on a sphere.

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Convex Hull

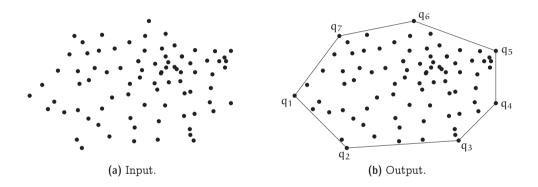


Figure: Convex Hull of a set of points in \mathbb{R}^2 .

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Convex Hull

Given an arbitrary set S in \mathbb{R}^n , different convex sets can be generated from S. In particular, we discuss below the convex hull of S.

Definition (Convex hull)

Let S be an arbitrary set in \mathbb{R}^n . The convex hull of S, denoted conv(S), is the collection of all convex combinations of S. In other words, $x \in \text{conv}(S)$ if and only if x can be represented as

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \lambda_j x_j, \quad \sum_{j=1}^{k} \lambda_j = 1,$$

 $\lambda_j \ge 0 \quad \text{for} \quad j = 1, \dots, k_j$

where k is a positive integer and $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in S$.

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Convex optimization (for completeness)

- Convex cost function
- Constraints represented by convex functions
- \bullet Convex constraints \implies constraint set is convex
- $\bullet \ \to \ {\rm Convex \ optimization \ problem}$

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