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

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What function does an NN learning in a regression problem?

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- **•** The function *f* is unknown
- We estimate *f* for two key purposes:
	- **•** Prediction
	- **a** Inference
- \bullet 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

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- 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*
- \bullet Even if we could perfectly estimate *f*, there is still variability associated with ε that affects the accuracy of predictions $=$ irreducible error

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- \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?

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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)

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Revisiting Simple NN - OR Logic

Figure: Logic-OR gate [**](https://towardsdatascience.com/mcculloch-pitts-model-5fdf65ac5dd1)

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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
- The output space $= \{-1, 1, 0\}$
- When $v = 0$
	- $0 = v_0 + v_1x_1 + v_2x_2$
	- $x_2 = -\frac{v_0}{v_2} \frac{v_1}{v_2}x_1$
- \bullet 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_i and *m* outputs y_i , 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](http://playground.tensorflow.org)

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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 \rightarrow how good the predictor is, on average; tends to be smaller with more complicated models
- Variance \rightarrow 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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- Training error \rightarrow reflects whether the data fits well
- \bullet Testing error \rightarrow reflects whether the predictor actually works on new data

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- The out-of-sample error *Eout* measures how well our training on D has generalized to data that we have not seen before.
- *Eout* 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.
- \bullet 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 *Ein* does not always generalize to a similar value of *Eout*.
- **•** Generalization is a key issue in learning.
- \bullet One can define the generalization error as the discrepancy between E_{in} and E_{out}
- \bullet 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*

$$
\lim_{d \to \infty} \underbrace{p(x \in Hull(X))}_{Interpolation} = \begin{cases} 1 \Longleftrightarrow N > d^{-1} 2^{\frac{d}{2}} \\ 0 \Longleftrightarrow N < d^{-1} 2^{\frac{d}{2}} \end{cases}
$$
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[Learning in High Dimension Always Amounts to Extrapolation](https://arxiv.org/pdf/2110.09485.pdf)

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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. looks somewhat like a boomerang.

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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 , $p_1x + p_2y + p_3z = 1$.
- 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

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

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

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
- Convex constraints =∆ constraint set is convex
- $\bullet \rightarrow$ Convex optimization problem

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