

# Generalization in Deep Networks. II.

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# Outline

- Uniform laws of large numbers
- Rademacher complexity and uniform laws  
(Concentration. Symmetrization. Restrictions.)
- Controlling Rademacher complexity:
  - Growth function
  - VC-dimension
  - Structural results for Rademacher complexity
- Neural networks
  - VC-dimension
  - Large margin classifiers
  - Rademacher averages for sigmoid networks
  - Rademacher averages for ReLU networks
- Interpolating prediction rules

# VC-Dimension of Neural Networks

## Theorem (Vapnik and Chervonenkis)

Suppose  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \{-1, 1\}^{\mathcal{X}}$ .

For every prob distribution  $P$  on  $\mathcal{X} \times \{-1, 1\}$ ,  
with probability  $1 - \delta$  over  $n$  iid examples  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ ,  
every  $f$  in  $\mathcal{F}$  satisfies

$$P(f(x) \neq y) \leq \frac{1}{n} |\{i : f(x_i) \neq y_i\}| + \left( \frac{c}{n} (\text{VCdim}(\mathcal{F}) + \log(1/\delta)) \right)^{1/2}.$$

- For uniform bounds (that is, for all distributions and all  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , proportions are close to probabilities), this inequality is tight within a constant factor.
- For neural networks, VC-dimension:
  - increases with number of parameters
  - depends on nonlinearity and depth

# VC-Dimension of Neural Networks

## Theorem

Consider the class  $\mathcal{F}$  of  $\{-1, 1\}$ -valued functions computed by a network with  $L$  layers,  $p$  parameters, and  $k$  computation units with the following nonlinearities:

- 1 Piecewise constant (linear threshold units):  $\text{VCdim}(\mathcal{F}) = \tilde{O}(p)$ .  
(Baum and Haussler, 1989)
- 2 Piecewise linear (ReLU):  $\text{VCdim}(\mathcal{F}) = \tilde{O}(pL)$ .  
(B., Harvey, Liaw, Mehrabian, 2017)
- 3 Piecewise polynomial:  $\text{VCdim}(\mathcal{F}) = \tilde{O}(pL^2)$ .  
(B., Maierov, Meir, 1998)
- 4 Sigmoid:  $\text{VCdim}(\mathcal{F}) = \tilde{O}(p^2k^2)$ .  
(Karpinsky and MacIntyre, 1994)

# Generalization in Neural Networks: Number of Parameters

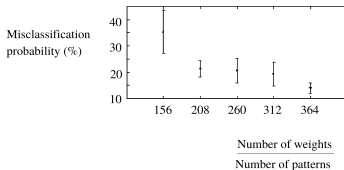
## NeurIPS 1996

### Experimental Results

Neural networks with many parameters, trained on small data sets, sometimes generalize well.

**Eg: Face recognition** (Lawrence *et al*, 1996)

$m = 50$  training patterns.



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# Large-Margin Classifiers

- Consider a real-valued function  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  used for classification.
- The prediction on  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  is  $\text{sign}(f(x)) \in \{-1, 1\}$ .
- For a pattern-label pair  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \{-1, 1\}$ ,  
if  $yf(x) > 0$  then  $f$  classifies  $x$  correctly.
- We call  $yf(x)$  the *margin* of  $f$  on  $x$ .
- We can view a larger margin as a more confident correct classification.
- Minimizing a continuous loss, such as

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (f(X_i) - Y_i)^2,$$

encourages large margins.

- For large-margin classifiers, we should expect the fine-grained details of  $f$  to be less important.

# Generalization: Margins and Size of Parameters

## Theorem (B., 1996)

1. With high probability over  $n$  training examples  $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathcal{X} \times \{\pm 1\}$ , every  $f \in \mathcal{F} \subset \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  has

$$\Pr(\text{sign}(f(X)) \neq Y) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1[Y_i f(X_i) \leq \gamma] + \tilde{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{\text{fat}_{\mathcal{F}}(\gamma)}{n}} \right).$$

2. If functions in  $\mathcal{F}$  are computed by  $L$ -layer sigmoid networks with each unit's weights bounded in 1-norm, that is,  $\|w\|_1 \leq B$ , then

$$\text{fat}_{\mathcal{F}}(\gamma) = \tilde{O}((B/\gamma)^L).$$

- The bound depends on the **margin loss** plus a **complexity term**.
- Minimizing quadratic loss or cross-entropy loss leads to **large margins**.
- $\text{fat}_{\mathcal{F}}(\gamma)$  is a scale-sensitive version of VC-dimension. Unlike the VC-dimension, it need not grow with the number of parameters.



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# Recall: Rademacher Complexity Structural Results

## Theorem

- ①  $F \subseteq G$  implies  $\|R_n\|_F \leq \|R_n\|_G$ .
- ②  $\|R_n\|_{cF} = |c| \|R_n\|_F$ .
- ③ For  $|g(X)| \leq 1$ ,  $|\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_{F+g} - \mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_F| \leq \sqrt{2 \log 2/n}$ .
- ④  $\|R_n\|_{\text{co}F} = \|R_n\|_F$ , where  $\text{co}F$  is the convex hull of  $F$ .
- ⑤ If  $\phi : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{Z}$  has  $\alpha \mapsto \phi(\alpha, z)$  1-Lipschitz for all  $z$  and  $\phi(0, z) = 0$ , then for  $\phi(F) = \{z \mapsto \phi(f(z), z)\}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_{\phi(F)} \leq 2\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_F$ .

# Rademacher Complexity for Lipschitz Loss

## Example

To analyze ERM over  $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  with loss  $\ell$ , we want  $\|P - P_n\|_{\ell_F}$  small, where

$$\ell_F := \{(x, y) \mapsto \ell(f(x), y) : f \in F\},$$

If  $\ell(\cdot, y)$  is 1-Lipschitz, then we can define  $\phi(\alpha, (x, y)) = \ell(\alpha, y) - \ell(0, y)$  and

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(F) &= \{(x, y) \mapsto \ell(f(x), y) - \ell(0, y) : f \in F\} \\ &= \ell_F - \ell_0.\end{aligned}$$

Then (5) implies  $\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_{\phi(F)} \leq 2\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_F$ .

And if  $|\ell| \leq 1$ , (3) implies  $\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_{\ell_F} \leq 2\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_F + \sqrt{2 \log 2/n}$ .

# Rademacher Complexity for Lipschitz Loss

- Classification loss is not Lipschitz!
- Consider the  $1/\gamma$ -Lipschitz loss

$$\phi(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \alpha \leq 0, \\ 1 - \alpha/\gamma & \text{if } 0 < \alpha < \gamma, \\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

- Large margin loss is an upper bound and classification loss is a lower bound:

$$1[Yf(X) \leq 0] \leq \phi(Yf(X)) \leq 1[Yf(X) \leq \gamma].$$

- So if we can relate the Lipschitz risk  $P\phi(Yf(X))$  to the Lipschitz empirical risk  $P_n\phi(Yf(X))$ , we have a large margin bound:

$$P1[Yf(X) \leq 0] \leq P\phi(Yf(X)) \text{ c.f. } P_n\phi(Yf(X)) \leq P_n1[Yf(X) \leq \gamma].$$

# Rademacher Complexity for Lipschitz Loss

$$\begin{aligned} P1[Yf(X) \leq 0] &\leq P\phi(Yf(X)) \\ &\leq P_n\phi(Yf(X)) + \frac{c}{\gamma}\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_F + O(1/\sqrt{n}) \\ &\leq P_n1[Yf(X) \leq \gamma] + \frac{c}{\gamma}\mathbb{E}\|R_n\|_F + O(1/\sqrt{n}) \end{aligned}$$

with high probability.

Notice that we've turned a classification problem into a regression problem. The VC-dimension (which captures arbitrarily fine-grained properties of the function class) is no longer important.

This is only an upper bound, but there are comparison theorems that relate the excess risk to the excess  $\phi$ -risk.

# Rademacher Averages for Sigmoid Networks

## Theorem

Consider the following class  $\mathcal{F}_B$  of two-layer neural networks:

$$\mathcal{F}_B = \left\{ x \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \sigma(v_i^T x) : w_i \geq 0, \|w\|_1 \leq B, \|v_i\|_1 \leq B, k \geq 1 \right\},$$

where  $B > 0$  and the nonlinear function  $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfies the Lipschitz condition,  $|\sigma(a) - \sigma(b)| \leq |a - b|$ , and  $\sigma(0) = 0$ . Suppose that the distribution is such that  $\|X\|_\infty \leq 1$  a.s. Then

$$\mathbb{E} \|R_n\|_{\mathcal{F}_B} \leq B^2 \sqrt{\frac{2 \log 2d}{n}},$$

where  $d$  is the dimension of the input space,  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$ .

# Rademacher Averages for Sigmoid Networks: Proof

Recall the notation

$$\text{co}(F) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i f_i : k \geq 1, \alpha_i \geq 0, \|\alpha\|_1 = 1, f_i \in F \right\}.$$

Define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G} &:= \{(x_1, \dots, x_d) \mapsto x_j : 1 \leq j \leq d\}, \\ \mathcal{V}_B &:= \left\{ x \mapsto v'x : \|v\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^d |v_i| \leq B \right\} \\ &= B \text{co}(\{0\} \cup \mathcal{G} \cup -\mathcal{G}) \\ &= B \text{co}(\mathcal{G} \cup -\mathcal{G}) \end{aligned}$$

# Rademacher Averages for Sigmoid Networks: Proof

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}_B &= \left\{ x \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \sigma(v_i(x)) \mid k \geq 1, w_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \leq B, v_i \in \mathcal{V}_B \right\} \\ &= B\text{co}(\{0\} \cup \sigma \circ \mathcal{V}_B) = B\text{co}(\sigma \circ \mathcal{V}_B)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}R_n(\mathcal{F}_B) &= R_n(B\text{co}(\sigma \circ \mathcal{V}_B)) \\ &= BR_n(\text{co}(\sigma \circ \mathcal{V}_B)) \\ &= BR_n(\sigma \circ \mathcal{V}_B) \\ &\leq BR_n(\mathcal{V}_B) \\ &= BR_n(B\text{co}(\mathcal{G} \cup -\mathcal{G})) \\ &= B^2 R_n(\mathcal{G} \cup -\mathcal{G}) \\ &\leq B^2 \sqrt{\frac{2 \log(2d)}{n}}.\end{aligned}$$



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- The sigmoid nonlinearity is convenient, because it ensures boundedness (in  $\ell_\infty$ ) of the inputs to each layer.
- What about nonlinearities like the ReLU's, which is Lipschitz, but unbounded?
- We also need to keep control of the scale of the vectors that are computed throughout the network.

# Networks with Lipschitz Nonlinearities

## Theorem (B., Foster, Telgarsky, 2017)

With high probability over  $n$  training examples

$(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathcal{X} \times \{\pm 1\}$ , every  $f_W$  with  $R_W \leq r$  has

$$\Pr(\text{sign}(f(X)) \neq Y) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1[Y_i f(X_i) \leq \gamma] + \tilde{O}\left(\frac{rL}{\gamma\sqrt{n}}\right).$$

Here,  $f_W$  is computed in a network with  $L$  layers and parameters  $W_1, \dots, W_L$ :

$$f_W(x) := \sigma_L(W_L \sigma_{L-1}(W_{L-1} \cdots \sigma_1(W_1 x) \cdots)),$$

where the  $\sigma_i$  are 1-Lipschitz, and we measure the scale of  $f_W$  using a product of norms of the matrices  $W_i$ ,

for example,  $r := \prod_{i=1}^L \|W_i\|_* \left( \sum_{i=1}^L \frac{\|W_i\|_{2,1}^{2/3}}{\|W_i\|_*^{2/3}} \right)^{3/2}$ .

The proof uses a covering numbers argument.

# ReLU Networks

Using the positive homogeneity property of the ReLU nonlinearity (that is, for all  $\alpha \geq 0$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sigma(\alpha x) = \alpha \sigma(x)$ ) gives an elegant argument (due to Gollowich, Rakhlin and Shamir) to bound the Rademacher complexity.

## Theorem

With high probability over  $n$  training examples

$(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathcal{X} \times \{\pm 1\}$  with  $\|X_i\| \leq 1$  a.s., every  $f \in \mathcal{F}_{L,B}^F$  has

$$R_n(\mathcal{F}_{F,B}) \leq \frac{(2B)^L}{\sqrt{n}},$$

where  $f \in \mathcal{F}_{F,B}$  is an  $L$ -layer network of the form

$$\mathcal{F}_{F,B} := W_L \sigma(W_{L-1} \cdots \sigma(W_1 x) \cdots),$$

$\sigma$  is 1-Lipschitz, positive homogeneous (that is, for all  $\alpha \geq 0$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sigma(\alpha x) = \alpha \sigma(x)$ ), and applied componentwise, and  $\|W_i\|_F \leq B$ .

( $W_L$  is a row vector.)

# ReLU Networks: Proof

(Write  $\mathbb{E}_\epsilon$  as the conditional expectation given the data.)

## Lemma

$$\mathbb{E}_\epsilon \sup_{f \in F, \|W\|_F \leq B} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma(Wf(X_i)) \right\|_2 \leq 2B \mathbb{E}_\epsilon \sup_{f \in F} \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i f(X_i) \right\|_2.$$

Iterating this and using Jensen's inequality proves the theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i X_i \right\|_2 \middle| X_1, \dots, X_n \right] &\leq \frac{1}{n} \sqrt{\mathbb{E} \left[ \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i X_i \right\|_2^2 \middle| X_1, \dots, X_n \right]} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \|X_i\|_2^2} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}. \end{aligned}$$

# ReLU Networks: Proof

For  $W^\top = (w_1 \cdots w_k)$ , we use positive homogeneity:

$$\begin{aligned}\left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma(Wf(x_i)) \right\|^2 &= \sum_{j=1}^k \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma(w_j^\top f(x_i)) \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k \|w_j\|^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma\left(\frac{w_j^\top}{\|w_j\|} f(x_i)\right) \right)^2,\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}&\sup_{\|W\|_F \leq B} \sum_{j=1}^k \|w_j\|^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma\left(\frac{w_j^\top}{\|w_j\|} f(x_i)\right) \right)^2 \\ &= \sup_{\|w_j\|=1; \|\alpha\|_1 \leq B^2} \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma(w_j^\top f(x_i)) \right)^2 = B^2 \sup_{\|w\|=1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i \sigma(w^\top f(x_i)) \right)^2,\end{aligned}$$

then apply the Ledoux-Talagrand contraction and Cauchy-Schwartz inequalities.

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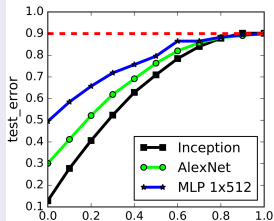
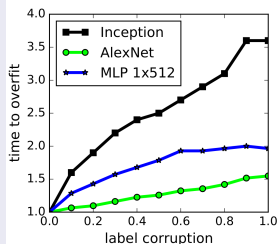
- A *classification* problem becomes a *regression* problem if we use a loss function that doesn't vary too quickly.
- For regression, the complexity of a neural network is controlled by the *size* of the parameters, and can be independent of the number of parameters.
- We have a tradeoff between the fit to the training data (margins) and the complexity (size of parameters):

$$\Pr(\text{sign}(f(X)) \neq Y) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(Y_i, f(X_i)) + p_n(\mathcal{F})$$

- Even if the training set is classified correctly, it might be worthwhile to increase the complexity, to improve this loss function.



# Interpolation in Deep Networks: A New Challenge for Statistical Learning Theory



- Deep networks can be trained to zero training error (for *regression* loss)
- ... with near state-of-the-art performance
- ... even for noisy problems.
- No tradeoff between fit to training data and complexity!

$$\Pr(\text{sign}(f(X)) \neq Y) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(Y_i, f(X_i)) + p_n(\mathcal{F})$$

# Interpolating Prediction Rules

## Progress on interpolating prediction

- Interpolating nearest neighbor rules in high dimensions

(Belkin, Hsu, Mitra, 2018)

- Kernel regression with polynomial kernels

(Liang and Rakhlin, 2018)

- Kernel smoothing with singular kernels

(Belkin, Rakhlin, Tsybakov, 2018)

# Interpolation in Linear Regression



Phil Long



Gábor Lugosi



Alexander Tsigler

## Linear regression

- Training data  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \mathbb{R}$ .
- Linear functions:  $f_\theta(x) = x^\top \theta$ .
- Squared error:  $\ell(y, f_\theta(x)) = (y - f_\theta(x))^2$ .
- Least squares linear prediction:  $\theta^*$  minimizes  $\mathbb{E}\ell(y, f_\theta(x))$ .
- Choose  $\hat{\theta}$  to interpolate:  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f_{\hat{\theta}}(x_i)) = 0$ .  
Hence,  $y_1 = f_{\hat{\theta}}(x_1), \dots, y_n = f_{\hat{\theta}}(x_n)$  (need  $p \geq n$ ).
- Which interpolating  $f_\theta$ ? Choose  $\hat{\theta}$  to minimize  $\|\theta\|$ .

# Interpolation in Linear Regression

Think of this optimization as

$$\begin{array}{ll}\min_{\theta} & \|\theta\| \\ \text{s.t.} & \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f_{\theta}(x_i)) \leq C,\end{array}$$

with  $C = 0$ . Compare this to

$$\begin{array}{ll}\min_{\theta} & \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f_{\theta}(x_i)) + \lambda \|\theta\|, \\ \text{or} & \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f_{\theta}(x_i)) \\ & \text{s.t.} \quad \|\theta\| \leq B.\end{array}$$

# Interpolation in Linear Regression

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta} &= (X^\top X)^\dagger X^\top y \\ &= (X^\top X)^\dagger X^\top (X\theta^* + \epsilon),\end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}(x^\top \hat{\theta} - y)^2 &= \mathbb{E}(x^\top \theta^* - y)^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}\theta^{*\top} \left( I - \hat{\Sigma} \hat{\Sigma}^\dagger \right) \left( \Sigma - \hat{\Sigma} \right) \left( I - \hat{\Sigma}^\dagger \hat{\Sigma} \right) \theta^* + \mathbb{E} \text{Tr} \left( \Sigma \left( X^\top X \right)^\dagger \right).\end{aligned}$$

# Interpolation in Linear Regression

## Interpolation for linear prediction

- Excess expected loss,  $\mathbb{E}\ell(y, f_{\hat{\theta}}(x)) - \mathbb{E}\ell(y, f_{\theta^*}(x))$  has two components:  
(corresponding to  $f_{\theta^*}(x)$  and  $y - f_{\theta^*}(x)$ )
  - ①  $\hat{\theta}$  is a distorted version of  $\theta^*$ , because the sample  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  distorts our view of the covariance of  $x$ .  
*Not a problem, even in high dimensions ( $p > n$ ).*
  - ②  $\hat{\theta}$  is corrupted by the noise in  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ .  
*Problematic in high dimensions.*
- When can we hide the label noise in  $\hat{\theta}$  without hurting predictive accuracy?

# Interpolation in Linear Regression

## Accurate interpolating prediction as dimension $p_n$ grows

- Split the covariance of  $x$  into two pieces:
  - a big piece of dimension  $k$ , and
  - a 'tail' (of dimension  $p_n - k$ )—that gets longer and flatter with  $n$ .
- Denote the variance in the first  $k$  directions as  $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_k$ ,
- and the variance in the 'tail' directions as  $\lambda_{k+1} \geq \dots \geq \lambda_{p_n}$ .

- Denote  $r_k(\Sigma) = \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} \sum_{i=k+1}^{p_n} \lambda_i$ .

(This is the scale of the variance tail, relative to its highest variance.)

- Also write  $r_0(\Sigma) = \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \sum_{i=1}^{p_n} \lambda_i$ .

# Interpolation in Linear Regression

## Theorem

If  $k = o(n)$  and the 'tail' is long and flat:

- a small proportion of variance in any direction,  $r_k(\Sigma) = \omega(n)$ , that is,

$$\frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{\sum_{i>k} \lambda_i} = o(1/n),$$

- total variance not too large,  $r_0(\Sigma) = o(n)$ ,

then for jointly gaussian  $(x, y)$ ,

$$\mathbb{E} \ell(y, f_{\hat{\theta}}(x)) - \mathbb{E} \ell(y, f_{\theta^*}(x)) = \tilde{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{r_0(\Sigma)}{n}} + \frac{n}{r_k(\Sigma)} + \frac{k}{n} \right) \rightarrow 0,$$

where  $r_k(\Sigma) = \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} \sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} \lambda_i$ .

There is also a (weaker) lower bound in terms of  $n/r_k(\Sigma)$ .



# Interpolating Prediction

- Interpolation: far from the regime of a tradeoff between fit to training data and complexity.
- In high-dimensional linear regression, if the covariance has a long, flat tail, the minimum norm interpolant can hide the noise in these many unimportant directions.
  - Relies on overparameterization
  - ... and lots of unimportant parameters
- Can we extend these results to interpolating deep networks?
  - What is the analog of the minimum norm linear prediction rule?
  - What role does the optimization method play?

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