

CS 5/7320

Artificial Intelligence

Learning from Examples

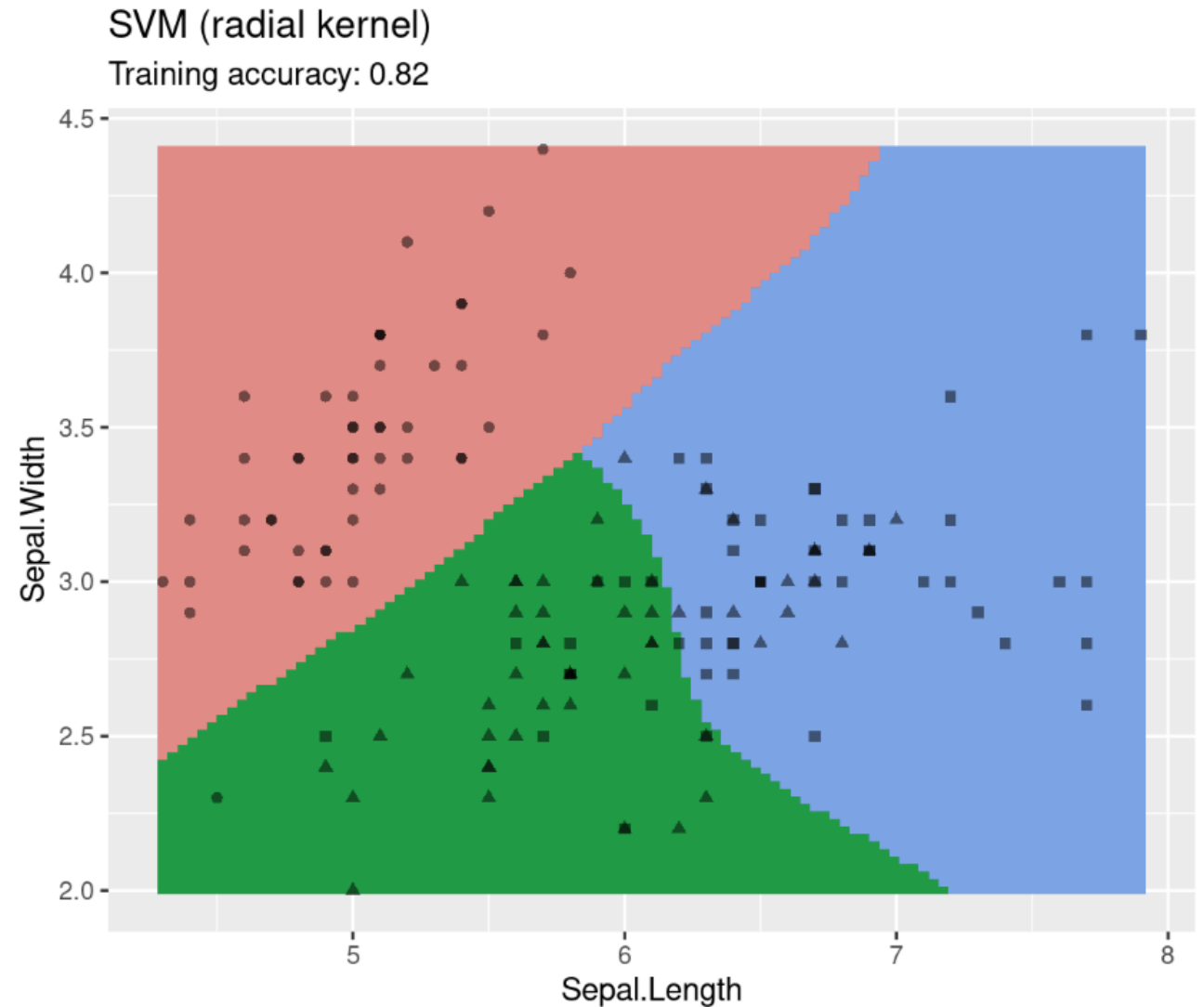
AIMA Chapter 19

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Based on slides by Dan Klein, Pieter Abbeel, Sergey Levine and A. Farhadi (<http://ai.berkeley.edu>)
with figures from the AIMA textbook.



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Topics



Learning from Examples: Machine Learning

Up until now in this course:

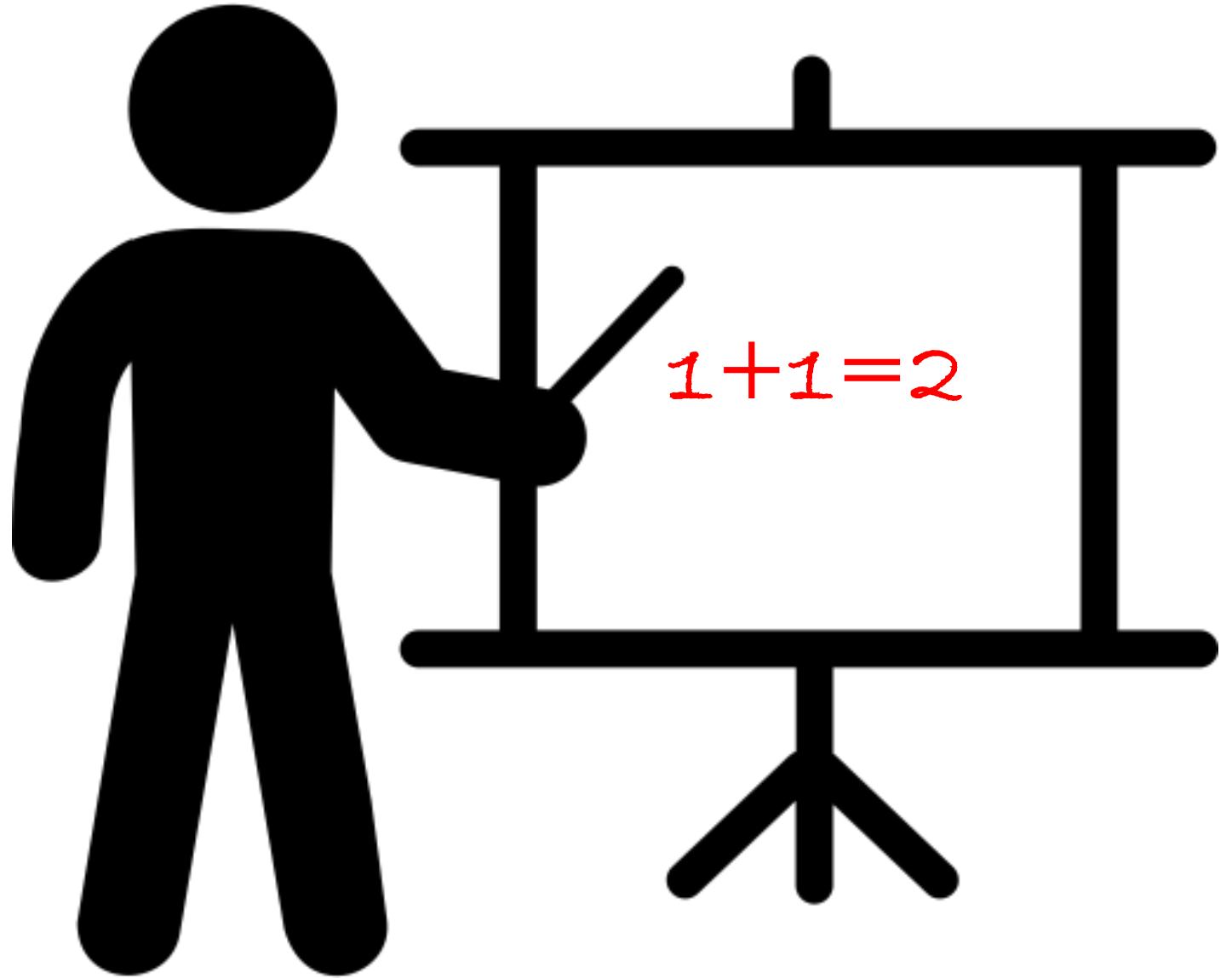
- **Hand-craft algorithms** to make rational/optimal or at least good decisions.
Examples: Search strategies, heuristics.

Machine Learning

- **Learning:** Improve performance after making observations about the world. That is, learn what works and what doesn't.
- **How to build a model from data/experience?**
 - **Supervised Learning:** Learn a function (model) to map input to output from a training set. Examples:
 - Use a naïve Bayesian classifier to distinguish between spam/no spam
 - Learn a playout policy to simulate games (current board -> good move)
 - **Unsupervised Learning:** Organize data (e.g., clustering, embedding)
 - **Reinforcement Learning:** Learn from rewards/punishment (e.g., winning a game) obtained via interaction with the environment over time.
- **Learning vs. hard coding the agent function**
 - Designer cannot anticipate all possible future situations.
 - Designer may have examples but does not know how to program a solution.



Supervised Learning



Supervised Learning

- Examples

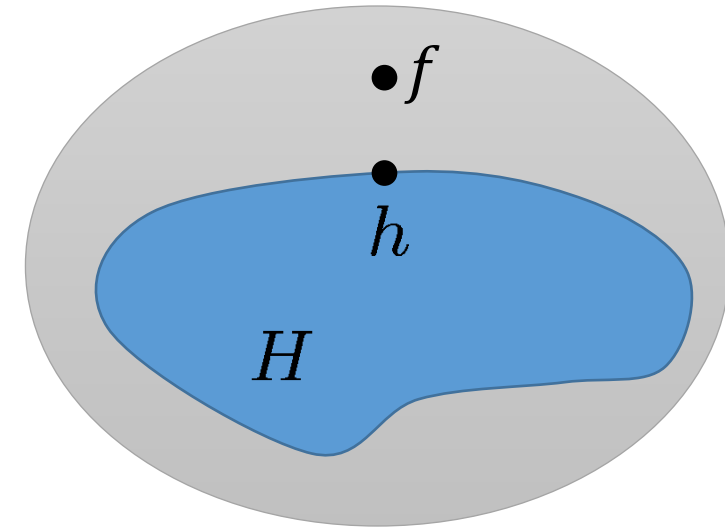
- We assume there exists a target function $y = f(x)$ that produces examples iid possibly with noise and errors.
- Examples are input-output pairs $E = (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_i, y_i), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$, where x is a vectors called the feature vector.

- Learning problem

- Given a hypothesis space H of possible models.
- Find a hypothesis $h \in H$ such that $\hat{y}_i = h(x_i) \approx y_i \forall i$
- That is, we want to approximate f by h using E .

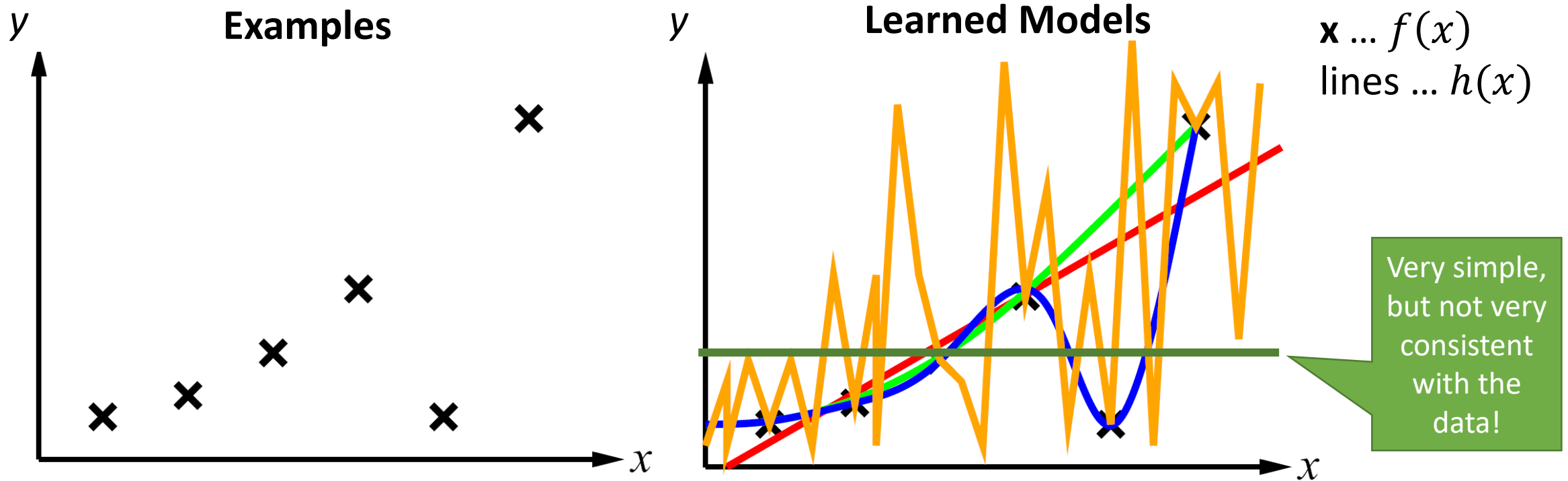
- Supervised learning includes

- Classification (outputs = class labels). E.g., x is an email and $f(x)$ is spam / ham.
- Regression (outputs = real numbers). E.g., x is a house and $f(x)$ is its selling price.



Consistency vs. Simplicity

Example: Univariate curve fitting (regression, function approximation)



- **Consistency:** $h(x_i) \approx y_i$
- **Simplicity:** small number of model parameters

Measuring Consistency using Loss

Goal of learning: Find a hypothesis that makes good predictions that are consistent with the examples $E = (x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_i, y_i), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$.

That is, $\hat{y} = h(x) \approx y$.

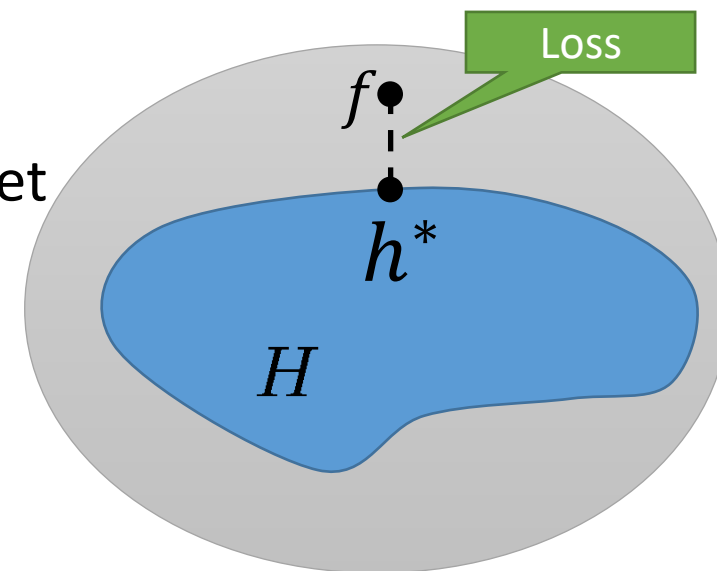
- **Measure mistakes:** Loss function $L(y, \hat{y})$

- Absolute-value loss $L_1(y, \hat{y}) = |y - \hat{y}|$
- Squared-error loss $L_2(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$
- 0/1 loss $L_{0/1}(y, \hat{y}) = 0 \text{ if } y = \hat{y}, \text{ else } 1$
- Log loss, cross-entropy loss and many others...

} For Regression
← For Classification

- **Empirical loss:** average loss over the N examples in the dataset

$$EmpLoss_{L,E}(h) = \frac{1}{|E|} \sum_{(x,y) \in E} L(y, h(x))$$



Learning Consistent h by Minimizing the Loss

- Empirical loss

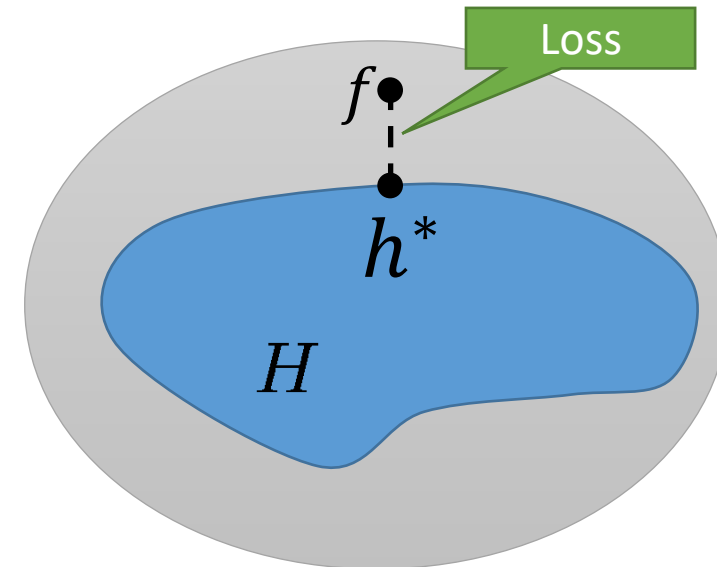
$$EmpLoss_{L,E}(h) = \frac{1}{|E|} \sum_{(x,y) \in E} L(y, h(x))$$

- Find the best hypothesis

$$h^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in H} EmpLoss_{L,E}(h)$$

- Reasons for $h^* \neq f$

- a) Realizability: $f \notin H$
- b) f is nondeterministic or examples are noisy.
- c) Computationally intractable to search all H .



The Bayes Classifier

For 0/1 loss, the empirical loss is minimized by the model that predicts for each x the most likely class y using MAP (Maximum a posteriori) estimates. This is called the Bayes classifier.

$$h^*(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_y P(Y = y \mid X = x) = \operatorname{argmax}_y \frac{P(x \mid y) P(y)}{P(x)} = \operatorname{argmax}_y P(x \mid y) P(y)$$

Optimality: The **Bayes classifier is optimal for 0/1 loss**. It is the most consistent classifier possible with the lowest possible error called the **Bayes error rate**. No better classifier is possible!

Issue: The classifier requires to learn $P(x \mid y) P(y) = P(x, y)$ from the examples.

- It **needs the complete joint probability** which requires in the general case a probability table with one entry for each possible value for the feature vector x .
- This is impractical (unless a simple Bayes network exists) and most classifiers try to approximate the Bayes classifier using a simple model with fewer parameters.

Simplicity

Ease of use

- Simpler hypotheses have fewer model parameters to store and estimate.

Generalization: How well does the hypothesis perform on new data?

- We do not want the model to be too specific to the training examples (an issue called **overfitting**).
- Simpler models typically generalize better to new examples.

How to achieve simplicity?

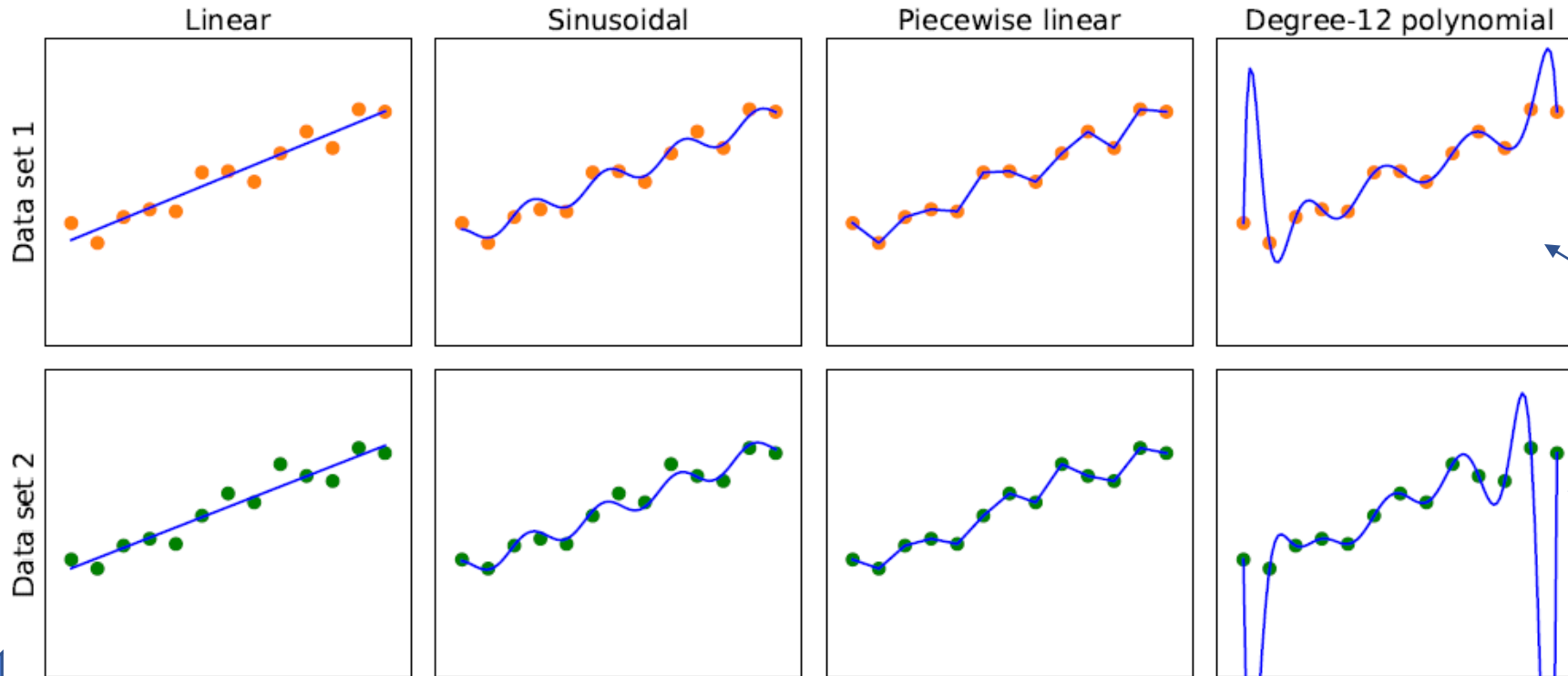
- a) Restrict H to simpler models (e.g., assumptions like independence, linear models). This is called **model bias**.
- b) **Feature selection**: use fewer variables from the feature vector x
- c) **Regularization**: penalize model for its complexity (e.g., number of parameters)

$$h^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in H} \left[\operatorname{EmpLoss}_{L,E}(h) + \lambda \underbrace{\operatorname{Complexity}(h)}_{\text{Penalty term}} \right]$$

Model Selection: Bias vs. Variance

Overfitting

← Simpler More consistent →



Points: Two samples from the same function f to show variance.

Lines: the learned function h .

High

Bias: restrictions by the model class

Low

Low **Variance:** difference in the model due to slightly different data. high

This is a tradeoff



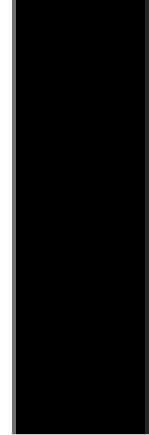
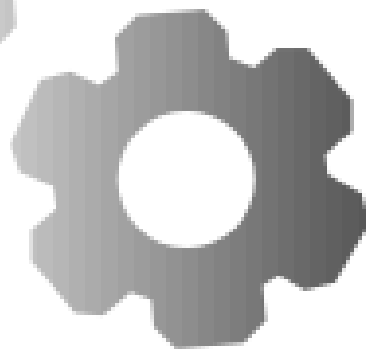
Data

01

0110

0001

01101



The Dataset

Features
Variables
Attributes x

Class
Label y

Examples
Instances
Observations

Example	Input Attributes										Output
	<i>Alt</i>	<i>Bar</i>	<i>Fri</i>	<i>Hun</i>	<i>Pat</i>	<i>Price</i>	<i>Rain</i>	<i>Res</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Est</i>	<i>WillWait</i>
x_1	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>0-10</i>	$y_1 = \text{Yes}$
x_2	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>30-60</i>	$y_2 = \text{No}$
x_3	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>0-10</i>	$y_3 = \text{Yes}$
x_4	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>10-30</i>	$y_4 = \text{Yes}$
x_5	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>>60</i>	$y_5 = \text{No}$
x_6	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>0-10</i>	$y_6 = \text{Yes}$
x_7	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>0-10</i>	$y_7 = \text{No}$
x_8	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>0-10</i>	$y_8 = \text{Yes}$
x_9	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>>60</i>	$y_9 = \text{No}$
x_{10}	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>10-30</i>	$y_{10} = \text{No}$
x_{11}	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>0-10</i>	$y_{11} = \text{No}$
x_{12}	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>30-60</i>	$y_{12} = \text{Yes}$

Alternative

Hungry
Patrons

Reservation

Wait time

Find a hypothesis (called “model”) to predict the class given the features.

Feature Engineering

- Add information sources as new variables to the model.
- Add derived features that help the classifier (e.g., x^2).
- Embedding: E.g., convert words to vectors where vector similarity between vectors reflects semantic similarity.
- Example for Spam detection: In addition to words
 - Have you emailed the sender before?
 - Have 1000+ other people just gotten the same email?
 - Is the header information consistent?
 - Is the email in ALL CAPS?
 - Do inline URLs point where they say they point?
 - Does the email address you by (your) name?
- **Feature Selection:** Which features should be used in the model is a model selection problem (choose between models with different features).



Training and Testing



Model Evaluation (Testing)

The model was trained on the training examples E . We want to test how well the model will perform on new examples T (i.e., how well it **generalizes to new data**).

- **Testing loss**: Calculate the empirical loss for predictions on a testing data set T that is different from the data used for training.

$$EmpLoss_{L,T}(h) = \frac{1}{|T|} \sum_{(x,y) \in T} L(y, h(x))$$

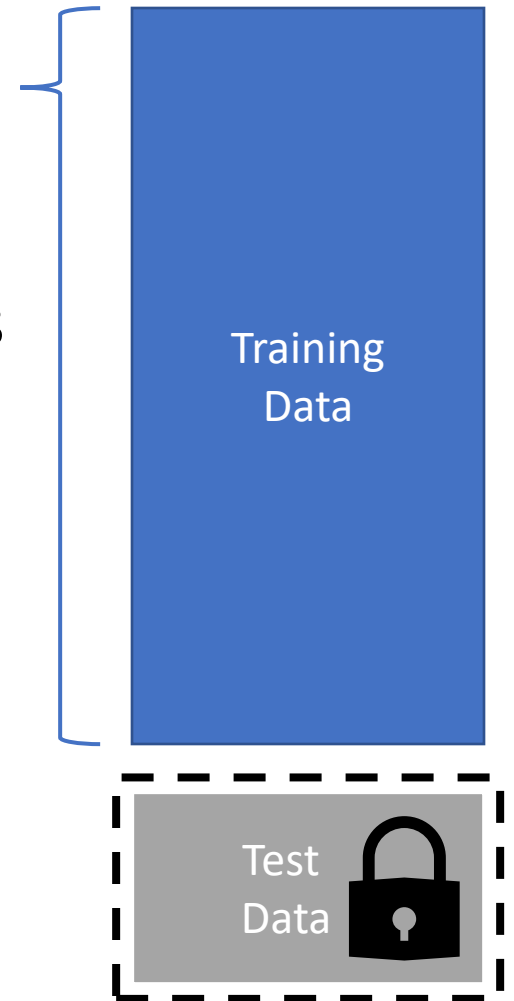
- For classification we often use the **accuracy** measure, the proportion of correctly classified test examples.

$$accuracy(h, T) = \frac{1}{|T|} \sum_{(x,y) \in T} [h(x) = y] = 1 - EmpLoss_{L_{0/1},T}(h)$$

$[c]$ is an indicator function returning 1 if $c = True$ and otherwise 0

Training a Model

- Models are “trained” (learned) on **the training data**. This involved estimating the model parameters (the model): E.g., probabilities, weights, factors.
- **Hyperparameters**: Many learning algorithms have choices for learning rate, regularization λ , maximal decision tree depth, selected features,... The algorithm tries to optimizes the model parameters given user-specified hyperparameters.
- We need to tune the hyperparameters!

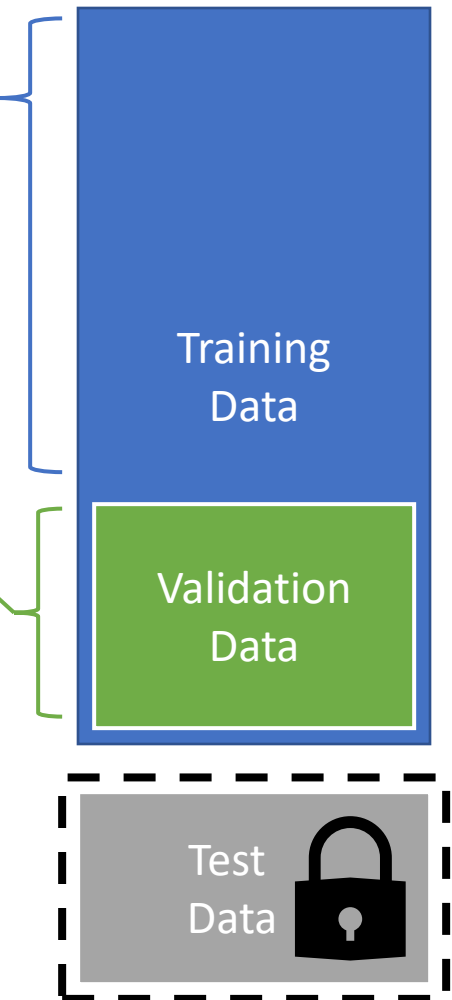


Hyperparameter Tuning/Model Selection

1. Hold a validation data set back from the training data.
2. **Learn models** using the training set with different hyperparameters. Often a grid of possible hyperparameter combinations or some greedy search is used.
3. **Evaluate the models** using the validation data and choose the model with the best accuracy. Selecting the right type of model, hyperparameters and features is called **model selection**.
4. Learn the final model with the chosen hyperparameters using all training (including validation data).

- Notes:

- The validation set was not used for training, so we get generalization accuracy for the different hyperparameter settings.
- If no model selection is necessary, then no validation set is used.



Testing a Model

- After the model is selected, the final model is evaluated against the test set to **estimate the final model accuracy**.
- Very important: never “peek” at the test set during training!

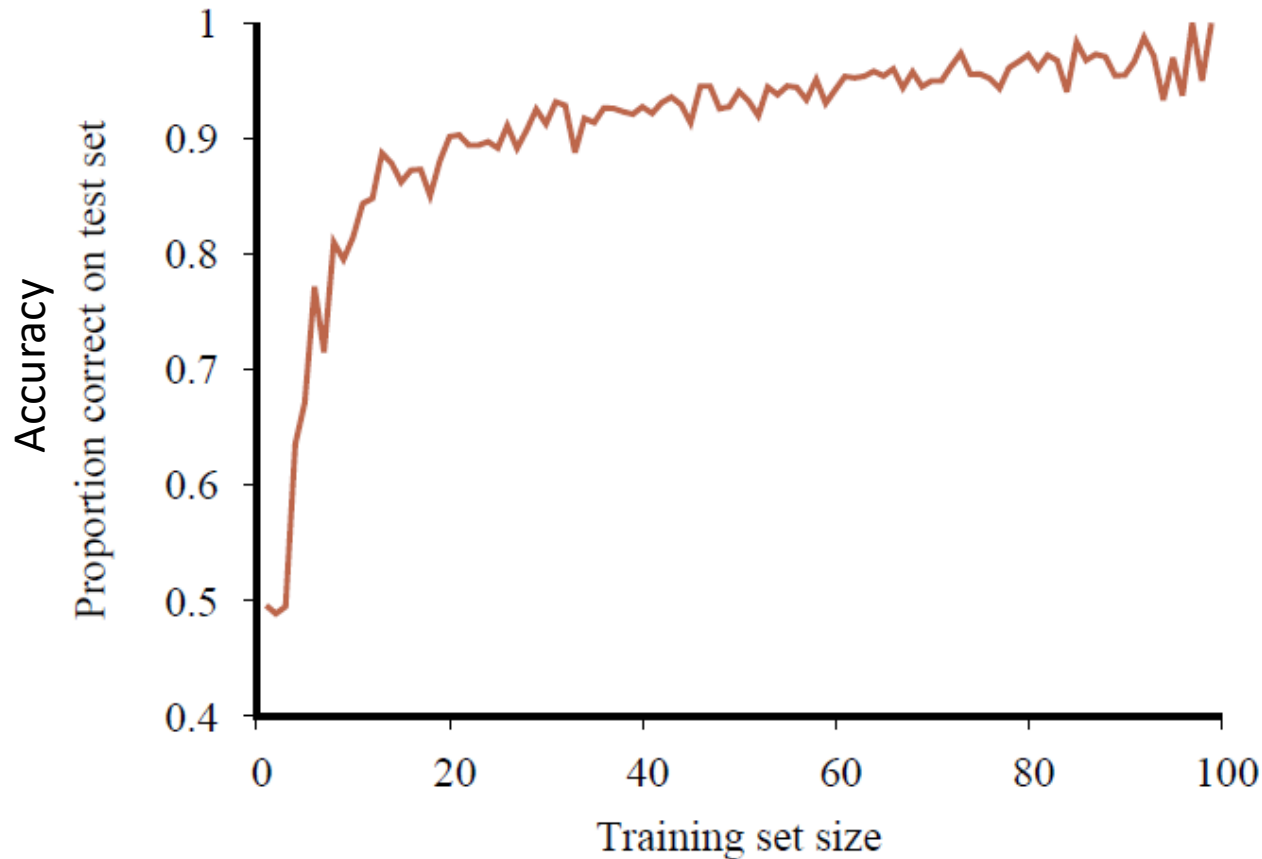


How to Split the Dataset

- **Random splits:** Split the data randomly in, e.g., 60% training, 20% validation, and 20% testing.
- **Stratified splits:** Like random splits, but balance classes and other properties of the examples.
- **k-fold cross validation:** Use training & validation data better
 - Split the training & validation data randomly into k folds.
 - For k rounds hold 1 fold back for testing and use the remaining $k - 1$ folds for training.
 - Use the average error/accuracy as a better estimate.
 - Some algorithms/tools do this internally.
- **LOOCV** (leave-one-out cross validation): $k = n$ used if very little data is available.



Learning Curve: The Effect the Training Data Size



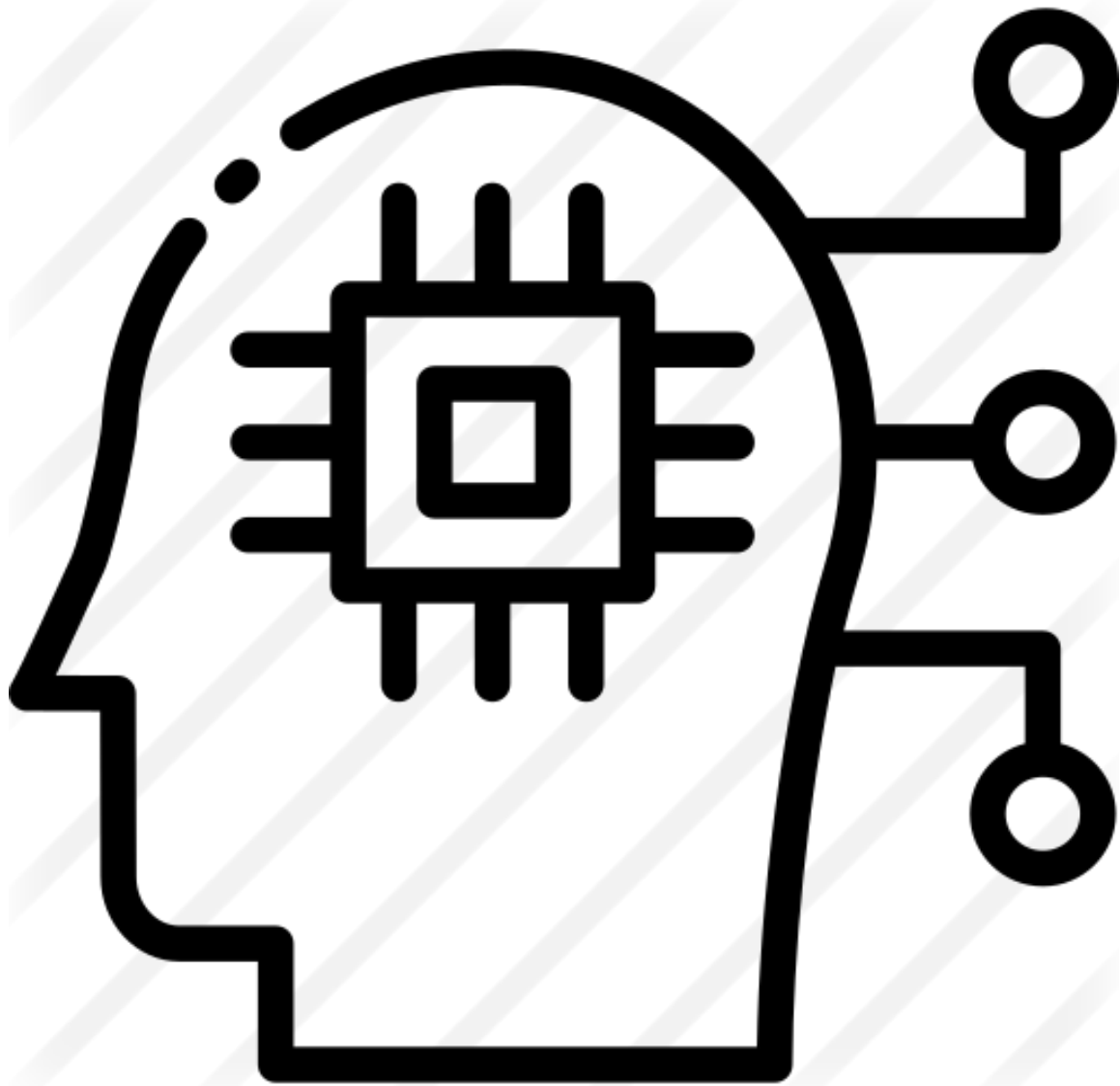
Accuracy of a classifier
when the amount of
available training data
increases.

More data is better!

Comparing to a Baselines

- First step: get a **baseline**
 - Baselines are very simple straw man model.
 - Helps to determine how hard the task is.
 - Helps to find out what a good accuracy is.
- **Weak baseline:** The most frequent label classifier
 - Gives all test instances whatever label was most common in the training set.
 - Example: For spam filtering, give every message the label “ham.”
 - Accuracy might be very high if the problem is skewed (called class imbalance).
 - Example: If calling everything “ham” gets already 66% right, so a classifier that gets 70% isn’t very good...
- **Strong baseline:** For research, we typically compare to previous published state-of-the-art as a baseline.





Types of Models

Regression: Predict a number

Classification: Predict a label



Regression: Linear Regression

Model:
$$h_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{x}_j) = w_0 + w_1x_{j,1} + \dots + w_nx_{j,n} = \sum_i w_ix_{j,i} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_j$$

Empirical Loss:
$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

Squared error loss over the whole data matrix \mathbf{X}

Gradient:
$$\nabla L(\mathbf{w}) = 2\mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})$$

The gradient is a vector of partial derivatives

$$\nabla L(\mathbf{w}) = \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1}(\mathbf{w}), \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2}(\mathbf{w}), \dots, \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_n}(\mathbf{w}) \right]^T$$

Find:
$$\nabla L(\mathbf{w}) = 0$$

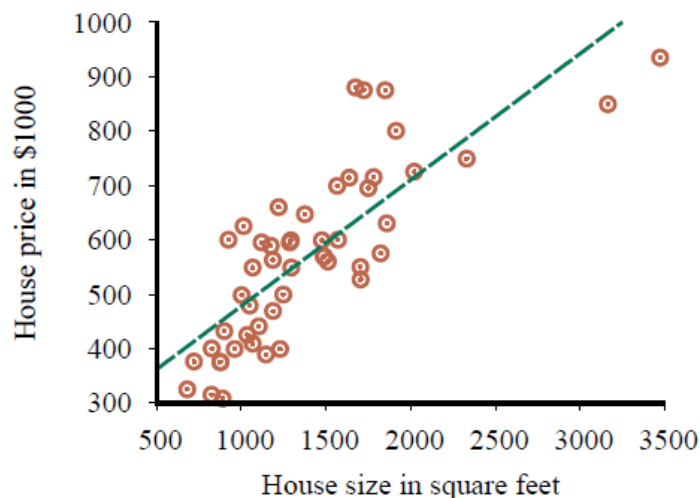
Gradient descend:

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \alpha \nabla L(\mathbf{w})$$

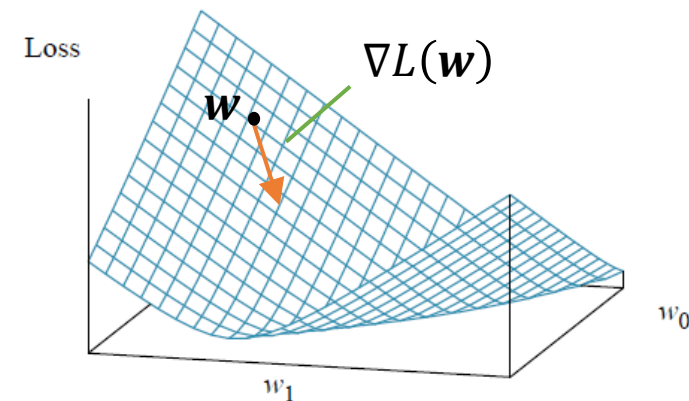
Analytical solution:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \underbrace{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}}_{\text{Pseudo inverse}}$$

Pseudo inverse



(a)



(b)

Naïve Bayes Classifier

- Approximates a Bayes classifier with the **naïve independence assumption** that all n features are conditional independent given the class.

$$h(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_y P(y) \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | y)$$

The $P(y)$ s and the $P(x_i | y)$ s are estimated from the data by counting.

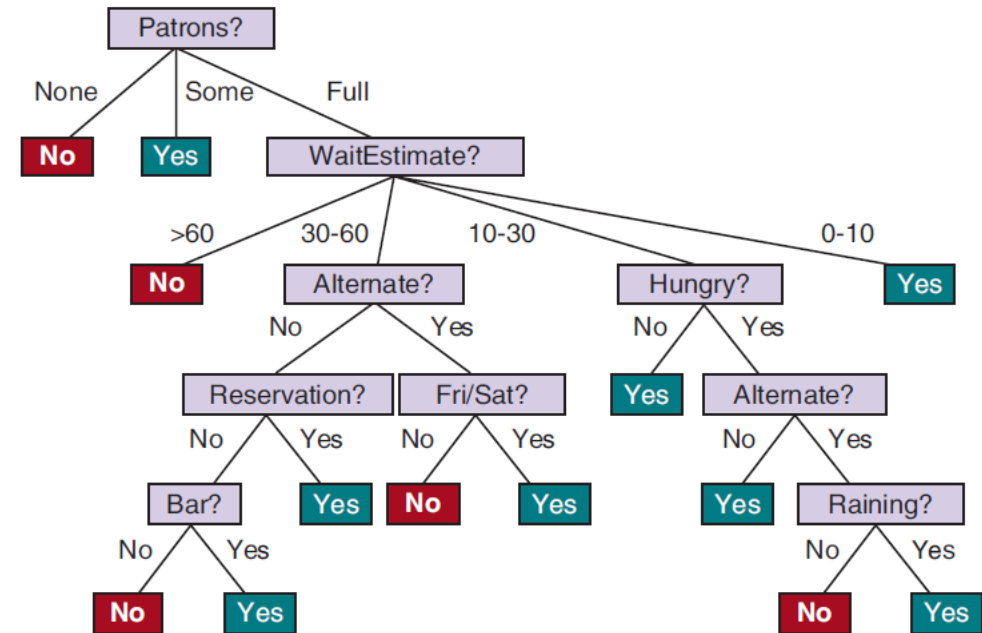
- Gaussian Naïve Bayes Classifiers extend the approach to continuous features by assuming:

$$P(x_i | y) \sim N(\mu_y, \sigma_y)$$

The parameters for the normal distribution $N(\mu_y, \sigma_y)$ are estimated from data.

Decision Trees

Example	Input Attributes										Output
	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
x ₁	Yes	No	No	Yes	Some	\$\$\$	No	Yes	French	0-10	y ₁ = Yes
x ₂	Yes	No	No	Yes	Full	\$	No	No	Thai	30-60	y ₂ = No
x ₃	No	Yes	No	No	Some	\$	No	No	Burger	0-10	y ₃ = Yes
x ₄	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Full	\$	Yes	No	Thai	10-30	y ₄ = Yes
x ₅	Yes	No	Yes	No	Full	\$\$\$	No	Yes	French	>60	y ₅ = No
x ₆	No	Yes	No	Yes	Some	\$\$	Yes	Yes	Italian	0-10	y ₆ = Yes
x ₇	No	Yes	No	No	None	\$	Yes	No	Burger	0-10	y ₇ = No
x ₈	No	No	No	Yes	Some	\$\$	Yes	Yes	Thai	0-10	y ₈ = Yes
x ₉	No	Yes	Yes	No	Full	\$	Yes	No	Burger	>60	y ₉ = No
x ₁₀	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	\$\$\$	No	Yes	Italian	10-30	y ₁₀ = No
x ₁₁	No	No	No	No	None	\$	No	No	Thai	0-10	y ₁₁ = No
x ₁₂	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Full	\$	No	No	Burger	30-60	y ₁₂ = Yes

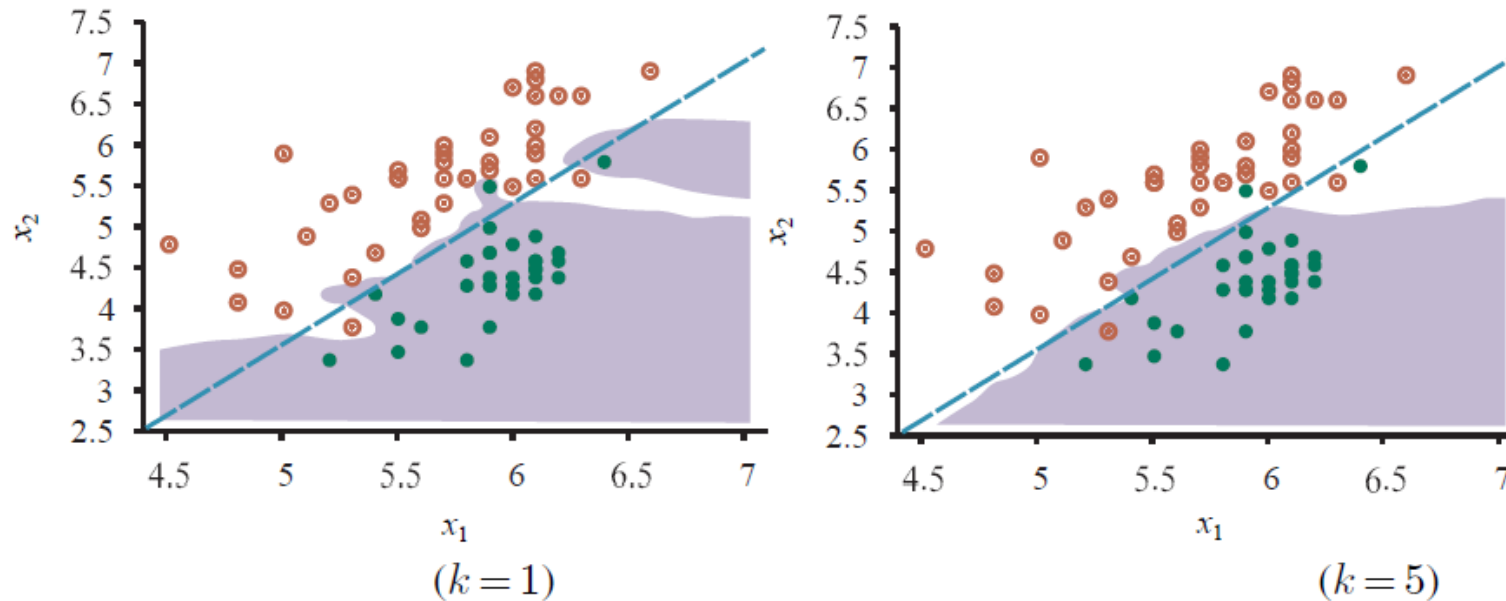


- A **sequence of decisions** represented as a tree.
- Many implementations that differ by
 - How to select features to split?
 - When to stop splitting?
 - Is the tree pruned?

- Approximates a Bayesian classifier by

$$h(x) = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(Y = y \mid \text{leafNodeMatching}(x))$$

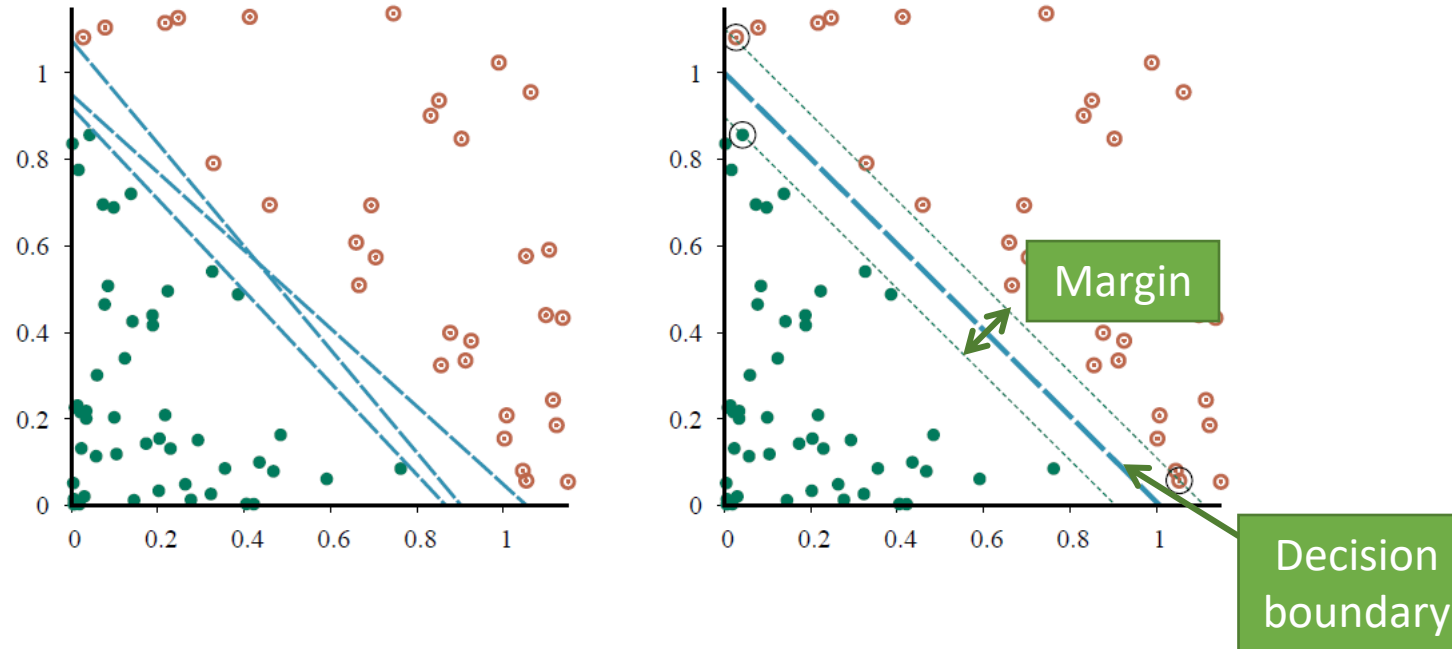
K-Nearest Neighbors Classifier



- Class is predicted by looking at the majority in the set of the k nearest **neighbors**. k is a hyperparameter. Larger k smooth the decision boundary.
- Neighbors are found using a distance measure (e.g., Euclidean distance between points).
- Approximates a Bayesian classifier by

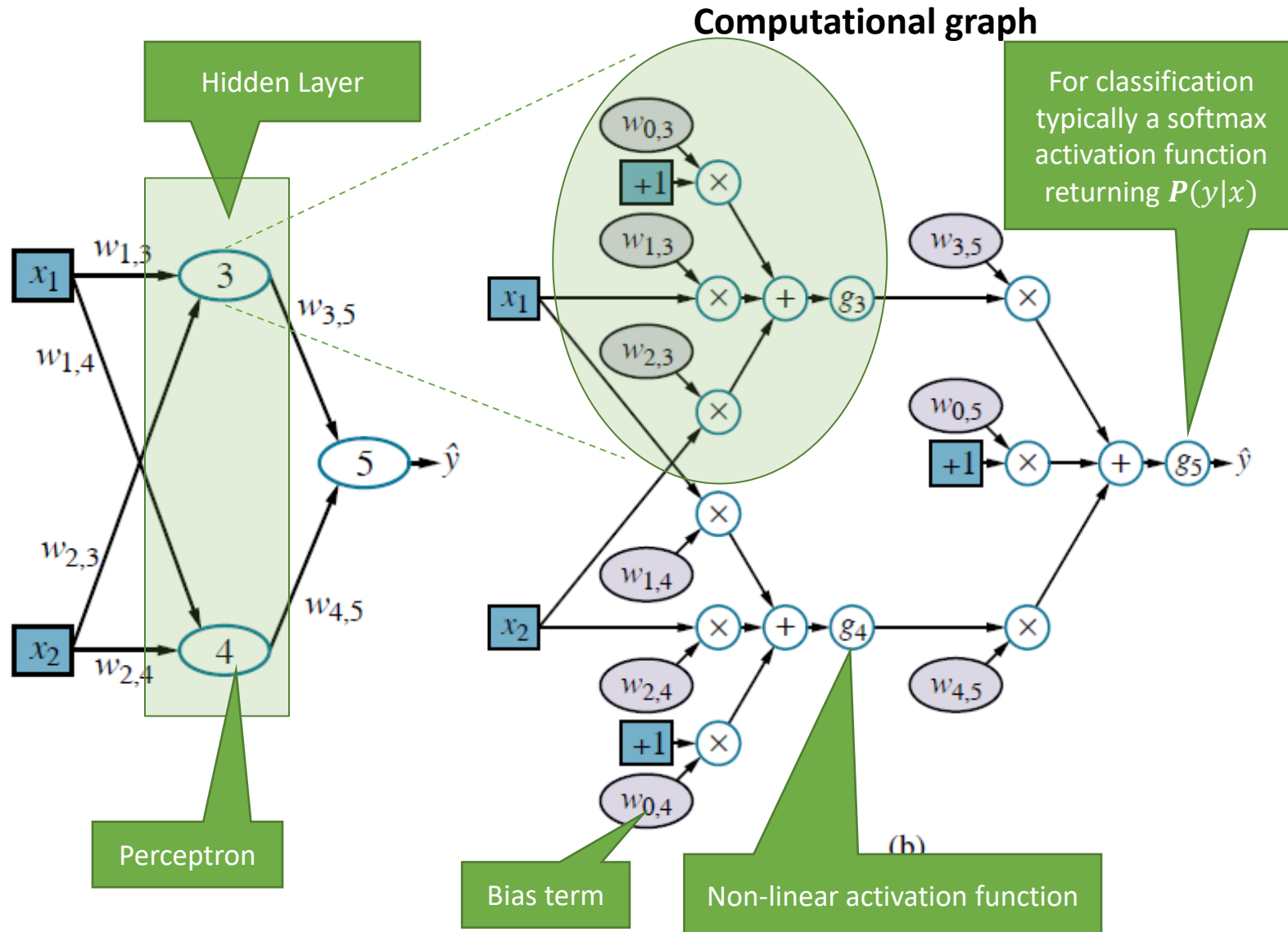
$$h(x) = \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(Y = y \mid \text{neighborhood}(x))$$

Support Vector Machine (SVM)



- Linear classifier that finds **the maximum margin separator** using only the points that are “support vectors” and quadratic optimization.
- The kernel trick can be used to learn non-linear decision boundaries.

Artificial Neural Networks/Deep Learning



- Represent $\hat{y} = h(x)$ as a network of weighted sums with non-linear **activation functions** g (e.g., logistic, ReLU).
- Learn weights \mathbf{w} from examples using **backpropagation** of prediction errors $L(\hat{y}, y)$ (gradient descend).
- ANNs are **universal approximators**. Large networks can approximate any function (no bias). **Regularization** is typically used to avoid overfitting.
- **Deep learning** adds more hidden layers and layer types (e.g., convolution layers) for better learning.

Other Popular Models and Methods

Many other models exist

- **Generalized linear model (GLM):** This important model family includes **linear regression** and the classification method **logistic regression**.

Often used methods

- **Regularization:** enforce simplicity by using a penalty for complexity.
- **Kernel trick:** Let a linear classifier learn non-linear decision boundaries (= a linear boundary in a high dimensional space).
- **Ensemble Learning:** Use many models and combine the results (e.g., random forest, boosting).
- **Embedding and Dimensionality Reduction:** Learn how to represent data in a simpler way.

Some Use Cases of ML for Intelligent Agents

Learn Actions

- Directly learn the best action from examples.

$$action = h(state)$$

- This model can also be used as a **playout policy** for Monte Carlo tree search with data from self-play.

Learn Heuristics

- Learn evaluation functions for states.

$$eval = h(state)$$

- Can learn a **heuristic** for minimax search from examples.

Perception

- **Natural language processing:** Use deep learning / word embeddings / language models to understand concepts, translate between languages, or generate text.
- Speech recognition: Identify the most likely sequence of words.
- Vision: Object recognition in images/videos. Generate images/video.

Bottom line: Learning a function is often more effective than hard-coding it, but we do not always know how it performs in very rare cases!