Lecture 1

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Administrative matters

- course materials on GitHub
 - lectures notes will generally be available after the lecture, though drafts may appear before
 - exercises will also be posted on GitHub
- register for CATS points
 - assessment: homework to be handed in a the next meeting (or sent to me by email, or to PPWeekly)
 - every piece of homework is pass or fail
- course takes place Saturdays 10:00-12:30 at Ewert House
 - exceptions: no class on the 4th of May and 15th of June!
- main text: /Machine Learning/, Tom Mitchell, 1997
 - there are a couple of copies available in the ContEd library
 - you can buy it used for under 15 GBP on Amazon
 - but you should be able to complete the course using only the lecture notes

Introduction

- types of learning:
 - by rote
 - conditioning
 - from experience
 - any others?
- reasons for *machine learning*:
 - programming is hard, it would be better if computers learnt by themselves
 - to study human learning (and intelligence)
 - * perhaps we could then improve our own abilities to learn and to teach
- two main approaches:
 - modelling how we think and learn, without caring about the underlying physiological mechanisms
 - modelling the underlying physiological mechanism, without caring how they lead to thinking and learning

- **Definition** (Mitchell, p. 2) A computer program is said to **learn** from experience *E* with respect to some class of tasks *T* and performance measure *P*, if its performance at tasks in *T*, as measured by *P*, improves with experience *E*.
 - how can we understand this mathematically?
 - * for example, by representing the various elements using sets and functions
 - * the most difficult to represent in this way appears to be the task

Note

- Sets and functions are the basic building blocks of mathematics. We assume them known.
- The notation f: In → Out represents a function f taking inputs from the set In and "returning" values from the set Out. The notation f(x) refers to the element of Out that f returns when given the input x (which, therefore, must be an element of In, i.e., x ∈ In).
- In machine learning, we frequently encounter function-like "black boxes", which, however, are not functions. The typical example is the Python "function" Random.choice(seq), which takes as input a sequence (e.g., a list) and returns a randomly selected element of this sequence. Obviously, if the argument has more than one element, Random.choice(seq) will not be well-defined. We shall follow the generally accepted convention of using the function notation also for such black boxes. When we want to emphasise that we are not dealing with a proper function, we shall use a squiggly → arrow instead of the standard straight one →
- A preliminary mathematical representation:
 - the set of tasks: Task = In → Out
 - the set of experiences: Experience = List E
 - measure of performance: perf : $(Task, List Out) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 - * we expect some similarity between what we measure and the experience
 - machine learning system: learn : Experience → Task
 - for all ex1, ex2, ins, we have

```
perf (learn ex_1) ins <= perf (learn (es_1 ++ es_2)) ins
```

- Example: checkers learning
 - the task is to play a game: Play = Board → Move
 - * a function in Play tells you how to move on the board (we assume that the board contains information about whose turn it is)
 - experience: Experience = Play → List Game
 - * play : (Play, Play) → Game
 - * the list of games is created by giving the play function the same argument
- measure of performance: perf : (Play, List Play) $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ perf (learner, [adv₁, ..., adv_n]) =

```
percentage [score(play(learner, adv1)), ..., score(play(learner, advn))]
```

- Example: self-driving car
 - the task is to give steering commands based on sensor input: Drive = Sensor → Steer

- the set of experiences: Experience = List (Sensor, Steer)
- performance: perf : (Drive, Itinerary) → Time
 - * perf (learner, itinerary) measures how long the learner drives along the given itinerary before making a mistake

Homework

Give a similar interpretation for the handwriting recognition problem (Mitchell, page 3).

Concept learning

- idea: acquiring general concepts from examples
 - e.g., learn to recognise cats from images of animals
- what is a concept?
 - *nominalistic* view: the set of instances of the concept
- mathematically, we can identify a concept with a subset
 - e.g., X is the set of all images of animals, $C \subseteq X$ is the subset of images of cats
- subsets are in one-to-one correspondence with boolean-valued functions
 - C ⊆ X can be replaced by C : X → Bool such that

```
\forall x \in X \quad c(x) = 1 \quad iff x \in C
```

- Mitchell uses the functional view and defines:
 - Concept learning: inferring a boolean-valued function from training examples of input and output
- Exercise: Give an interpretation of concept learning as a learning task (i.e., identify the task, the experience, and the performance measure).
- Notation:
 - the training data $D = \{((x_1, c(x_1)) ..., (x_n, c(x_n))\}$
 - the subset of negative training examples $D_0 = \{(x, 0) \mid (x, 0) \in D\}$
 - the subset of positive training examples $D_1 = \{(x, 1) \mid (x, 1) \in D\}$
- Example: enjoyable day
 - we want to learn the concept enjoyable : Day $\rightarrow \{0, 1\}$
 - days are described via *attributes*:

training data:

Nr	Sky	Temp	Humidity	Wind	Water	Forecast	Enjoyable
1	Sunny	Warm	Normal	Strong	Warm	Same	Yes
2	Sunny	Warm	High	Strong	Warm	Same	Yes
3	Rainy	Cold	High	Strong	Warm	Change	No
4	Sunny	Warm	High	Strong	Cool	Change	Yes

• Two major related problems

- Day contains 96 elements; there are 2^{96} concepts.
- We can represent a concept by a lookup table. In general, however, we are not going to be able to represent all concepts (the space could be infinite).
- The training data does not suffice to determine the concept we are looking for. It only fixes the values of the concept for 4 elements of its domain. Thus, there are 2^{92} remaining possibilities.
- The two problems force us to make two decisions:
 - 1. Choose a representation for **some** of the concepts. We are going to have to assume that the "real" concept can be represented that way. A representable concepts is called **hypothesis**.
 - 2. In general, we will still have many hypothesis consistent with the training data. The second decision is how to pick one of them.
- The assumptions under which we manage to learn the correct concept form the inductive bias.

Find-S

- Find-S solves problem 2 by choosing the *most specific* hypothesis that is consistent with the training data. Obviously, that implies that there exists an ordering from specific to general.
- Our hypothesis correspond to subsets. We have a natural ordering on subsets: ⊆.

Find-S algorithm:

```
-- input: training data {((x1, c(x1)) ..., (xn, c(xn)))}
-- hypothesis set H
h = min H -- set the current hypothesis h to "the" (or "a") smallest element of H
for i in 1:n
  if c(xi) = 0
    then keep h
    else if xi ∈ h then keep h
        else h = min {h' ∈ H | h ⊆ h' and xi ∈ h'}
-- output: "the" (or "a" most) specific hypothesis in H consistent with the training data
```

Remarks:

• If H contains all possible concepts, then the result of Find-S is D₁.

• The result of Find-S can depend on arbitrary choices if the minimisation problems do not have a unique solution. Hence, the result might not be contained in c! A simple example:

```
- X = \{a, b, c, d\}, H = \{\emptyset, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}\}, D_1 = \{a\}
```

- The choice of H can avoid these problems.
- Hypothesis space for the weather example:

```
    each hypothesis is described by a tuple of (Sky*, Temp*, Humidity*, Wind*, Water*, Foreca where S* = S u {?, Ø}
    notation: s ~ s* iff s = s* or s* = ? (s matches s*)
```

Let h be described by (s*, t*, u*, wi*, wa*, f*). Then

```
h (s, t, u, wi, wa, f) = s \sim s* and t \sim t* and u \sim u* and wi \sim wi* and wa \sim wa* and f \sim f*
```