

General Principles of Human and Machine Learning



Lecture 10: Function Learning

Dr. Charley Wu

<https://hmc-lab.com/GPHML.html>

Welcome back!

Teaching evaluations

- You should have received an email asking to submit your teaching evaluations
- Please do so before January 20th

Exam registration

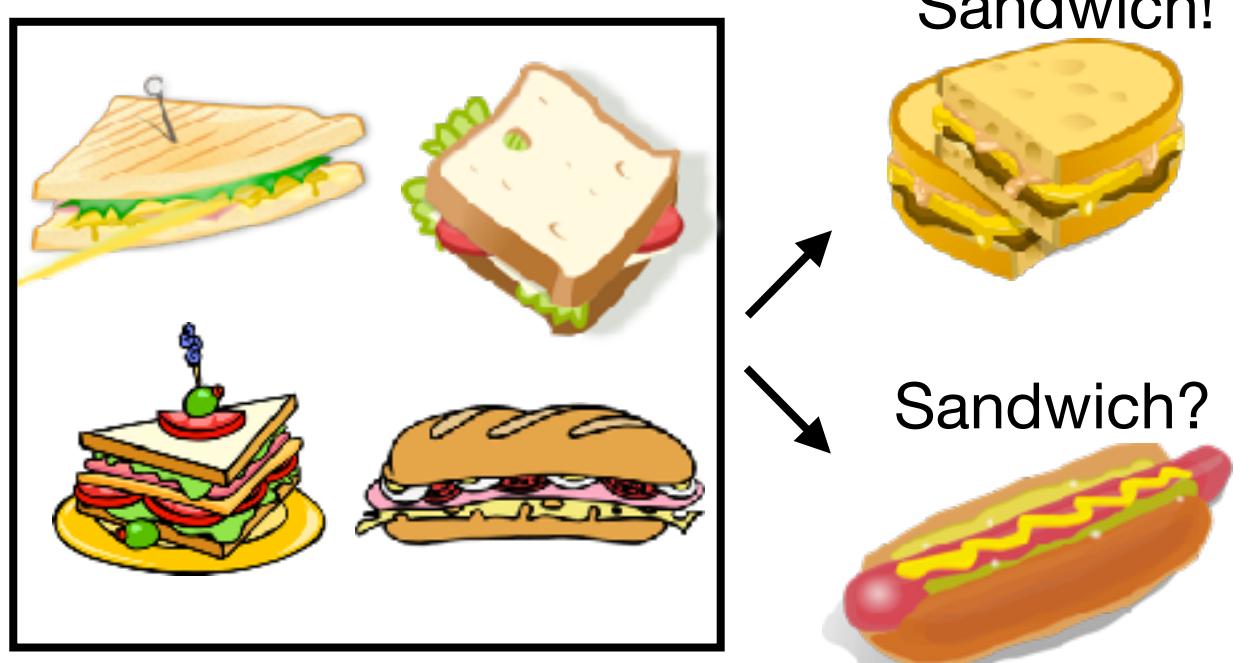
- This should now be “theoretically possible” depending on the “Prüfungsordnung” of your study program
- If you are on the new Prüfungsordnung, you can register on ALMA
- If you are on the old one and unable to register, please let me know at the next lecture and I can get you manually added

Week 10:		Jan 14: Function learning	Jan 15	Alex	Wu, Meder, & Schulz (in press)
Week 11:		Jan 21: No Lecture	Jan 22: No Tutorial		
Week 12:		Jan 28: Language and semantics	Jan 29	Hanqi	Kamath et al., (2024)
Week 13:		Feb 4: General Principles	Feb 5	Charley	Gershman (2023)
Exam 1	13:00-15:00 21.02.2025 Hörsaal 1 F119 (SAND)				
Exam 2	12:00-14:00 11.04.2025 Ground floor lecture room, AI building, Maria- von-Linden-Str. 6, D-72076 Tübingen				

The story so far ...

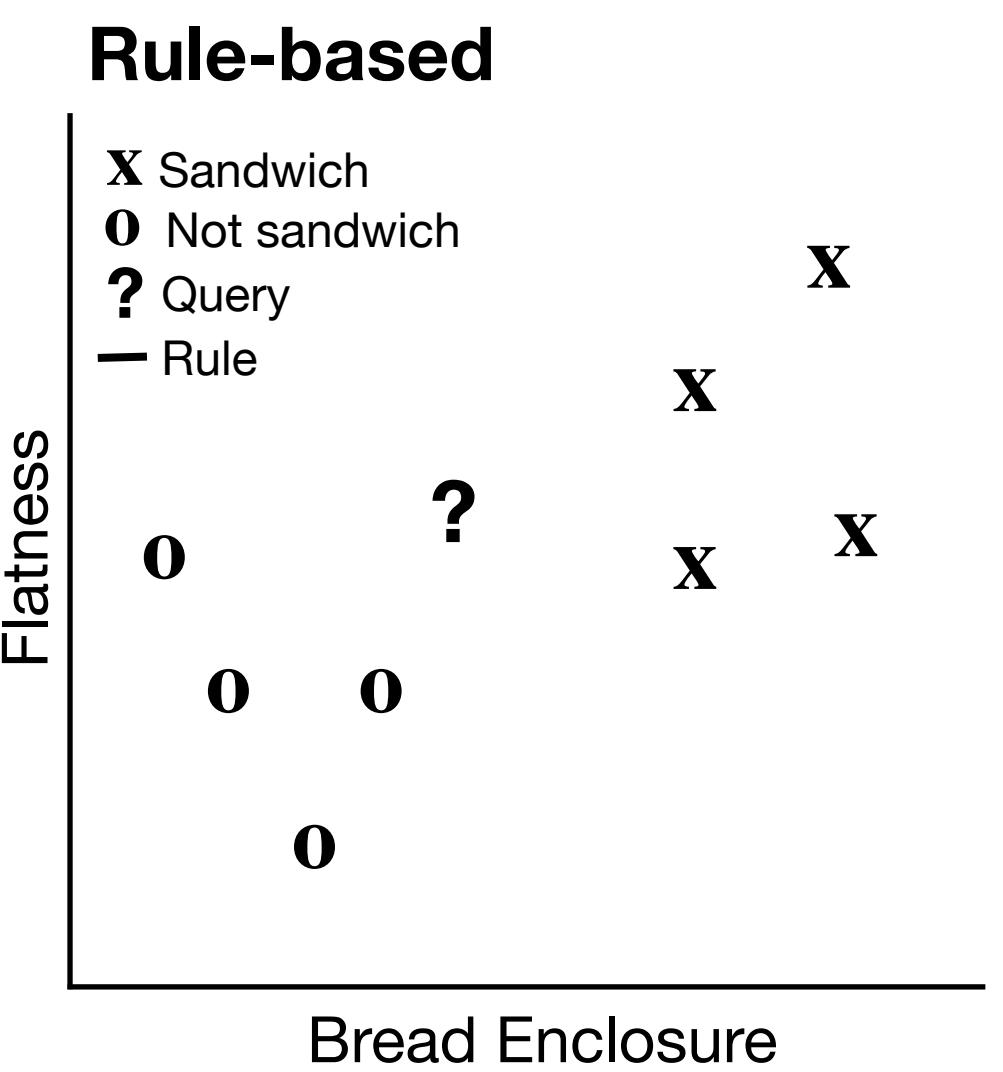
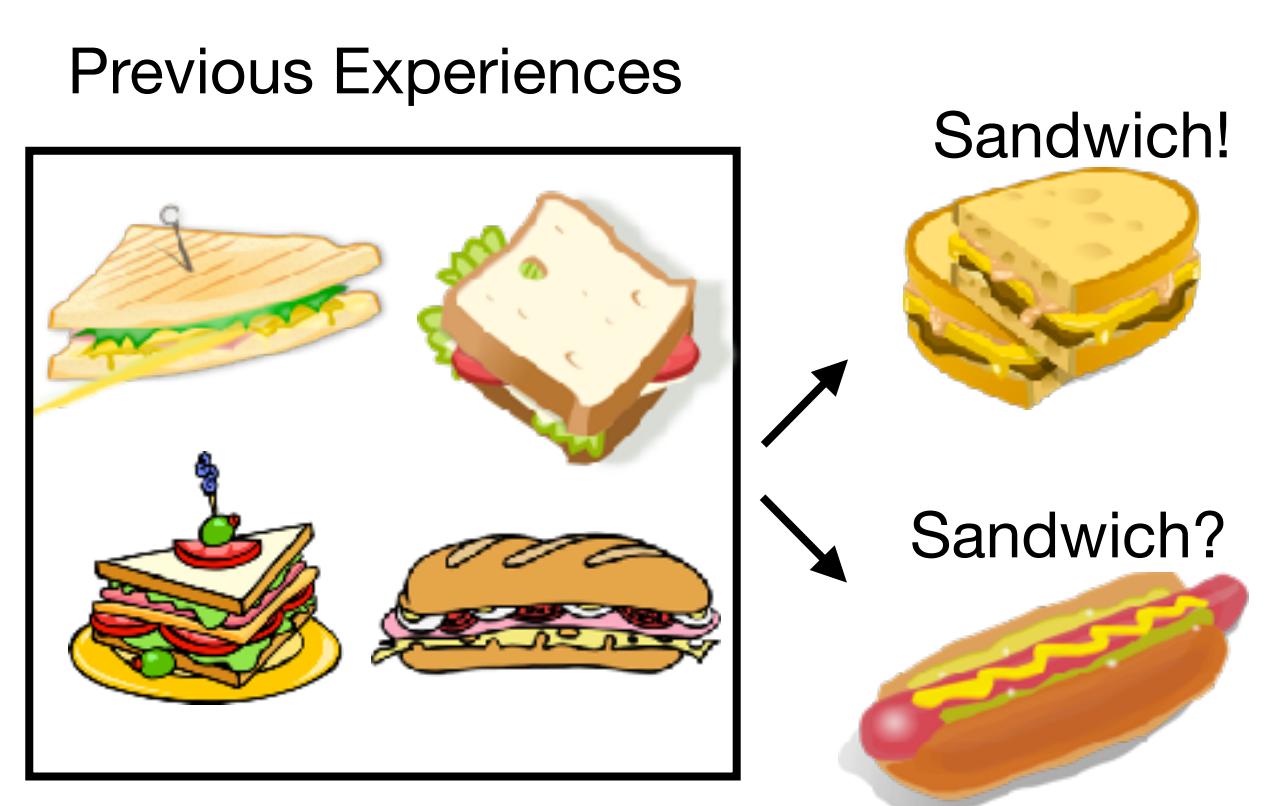
Concept learning as classification

Previous Experiences



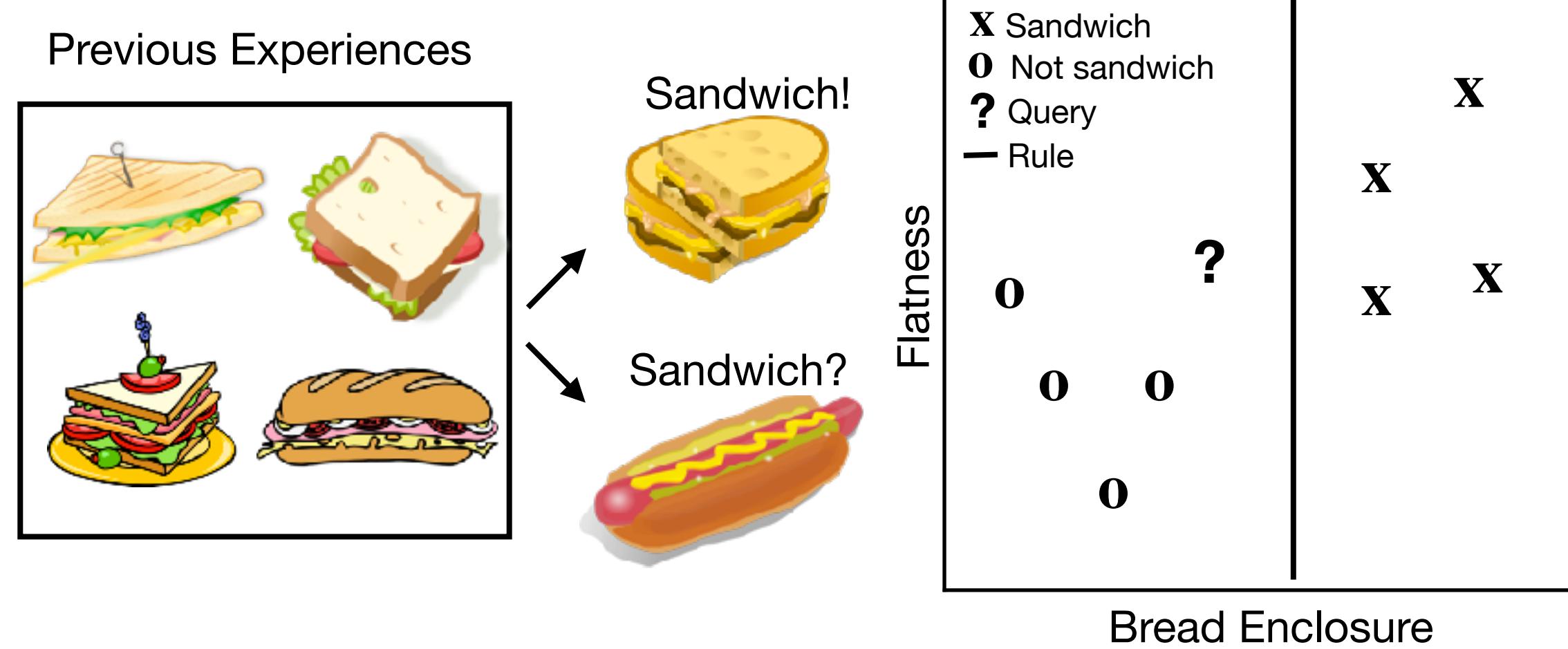
The story so far ...

Concept learning as classification



The story so far ...

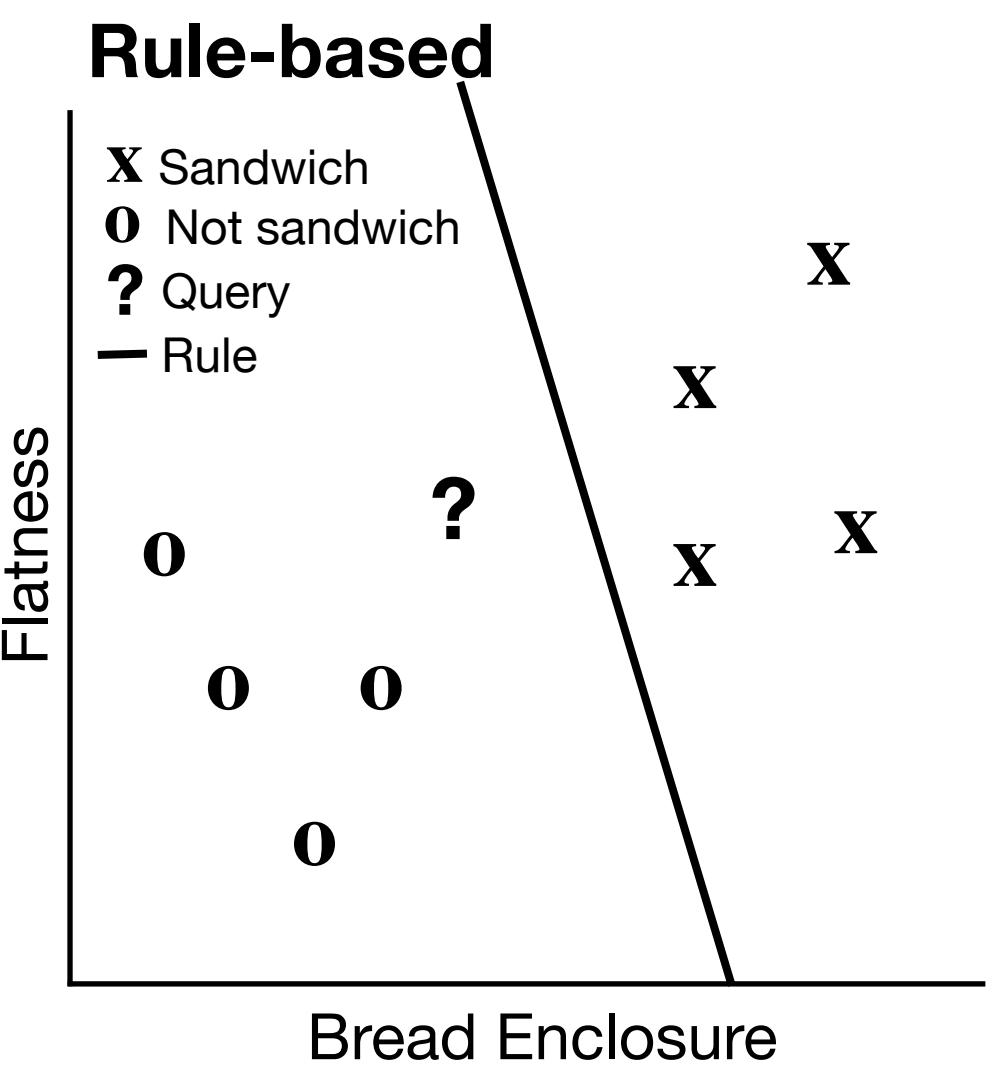
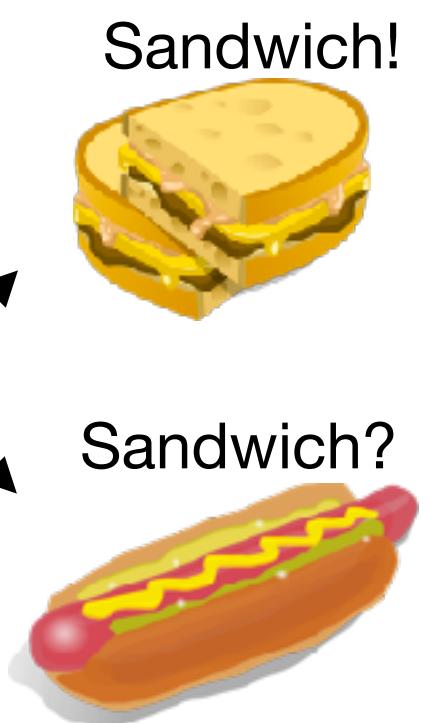
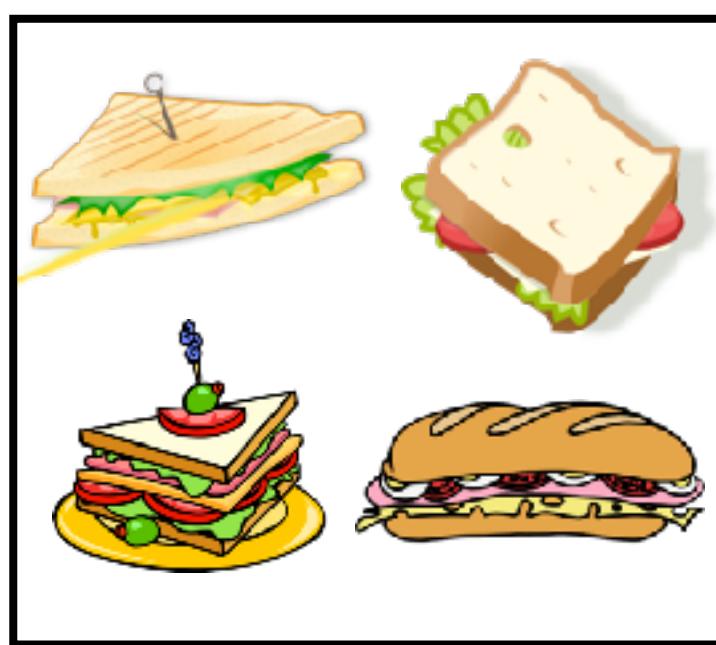
Concept learning as classification



The story so far ...

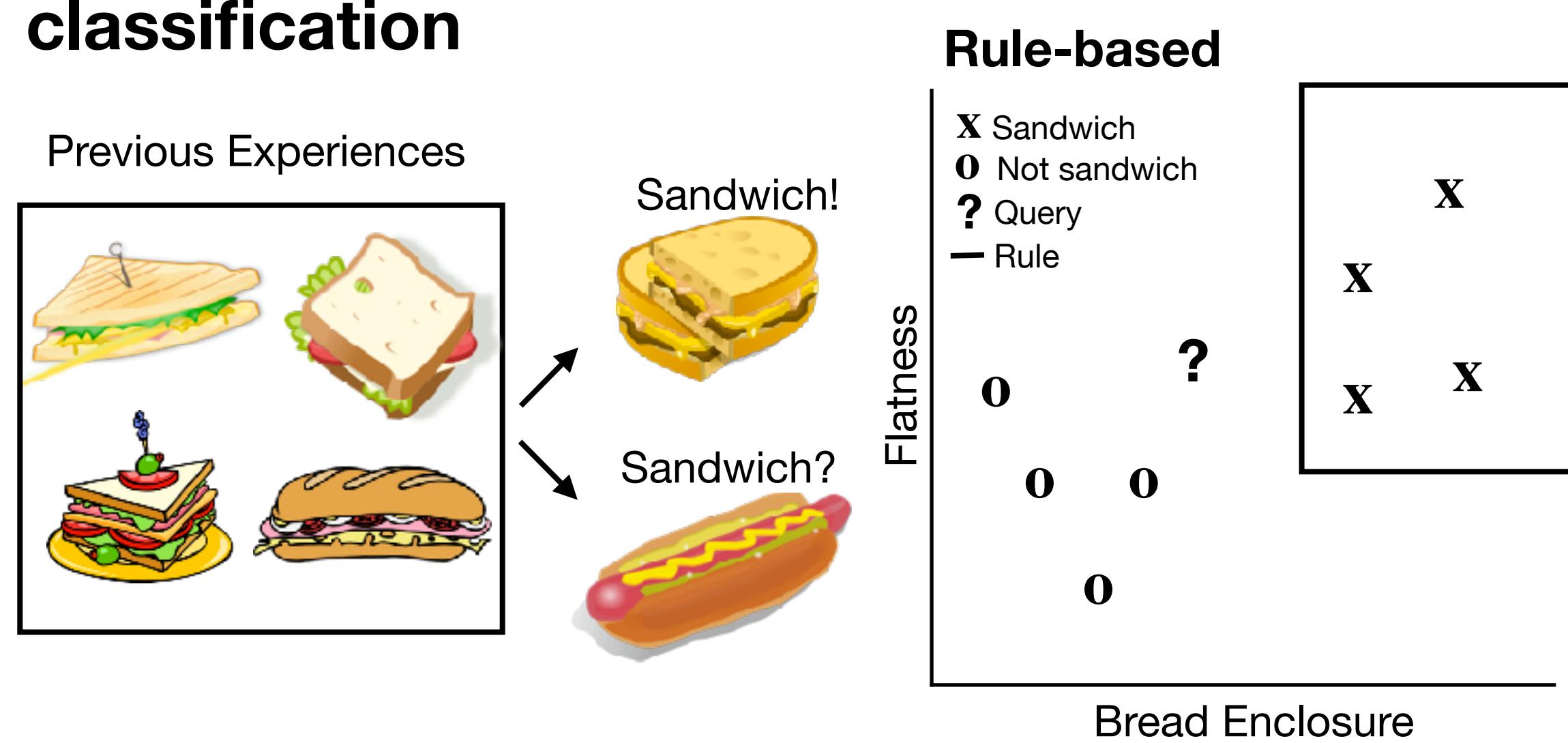
Concept learning as classification

Previous Experiences



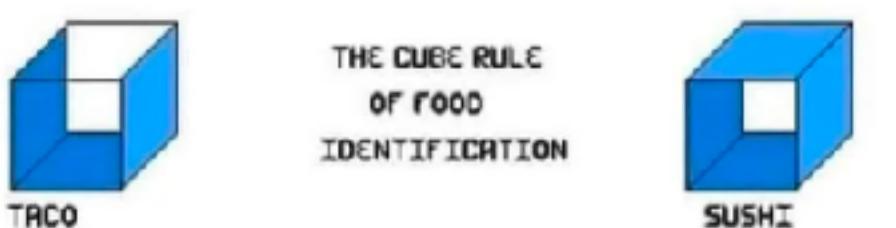
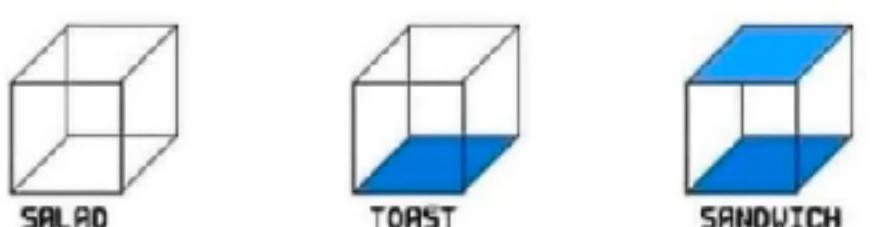
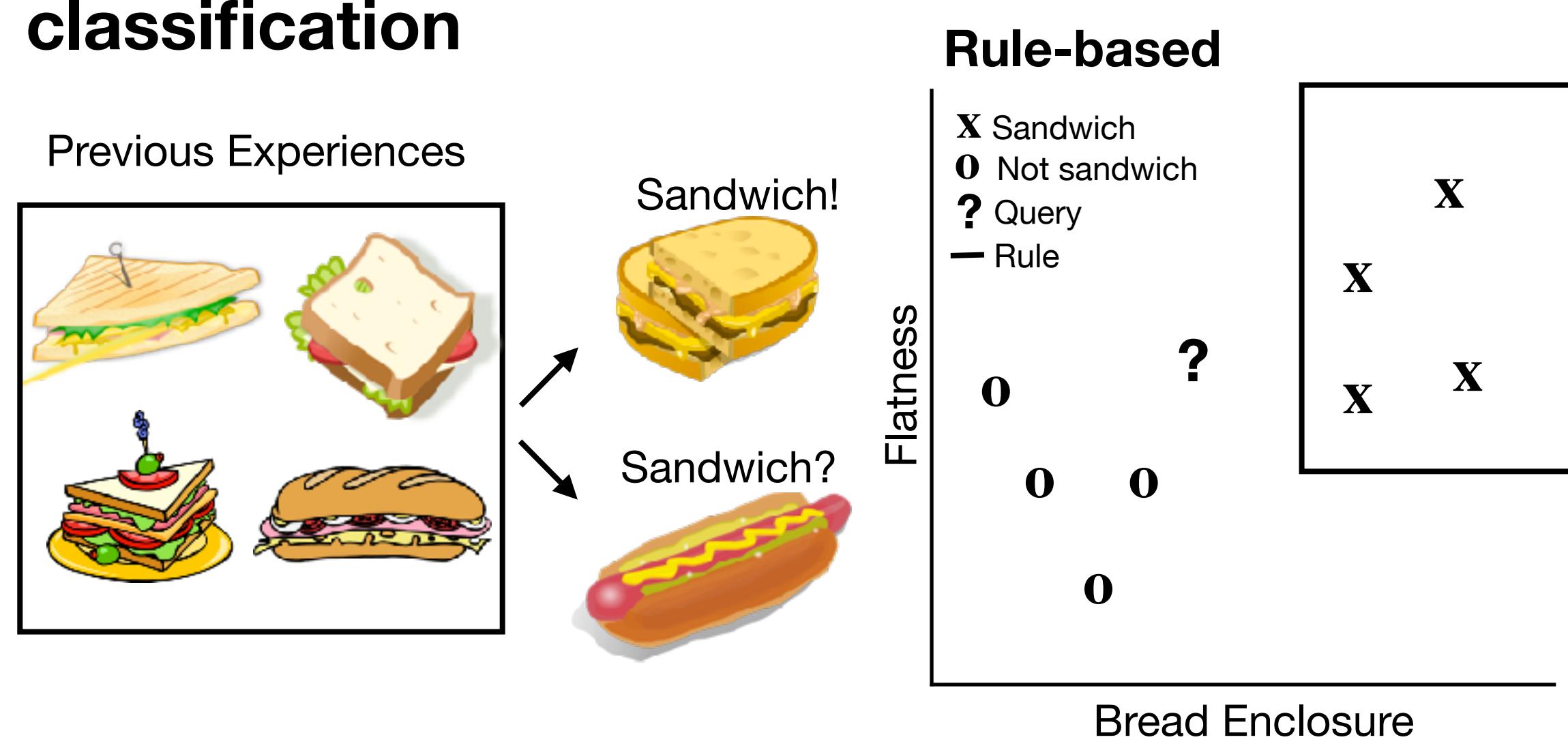
The story so far ...

Concept learning as classification



The story so far ...

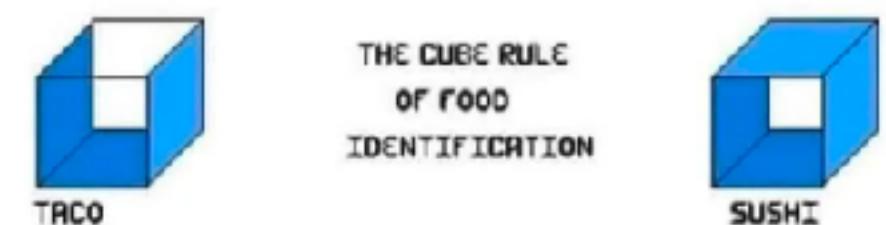
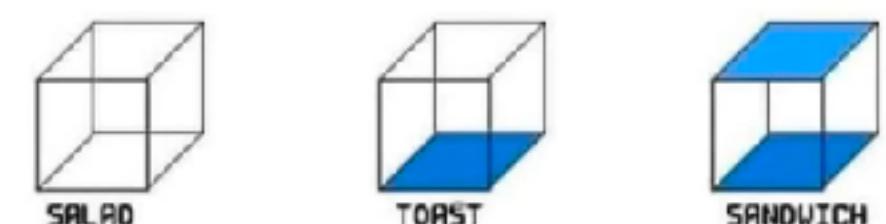
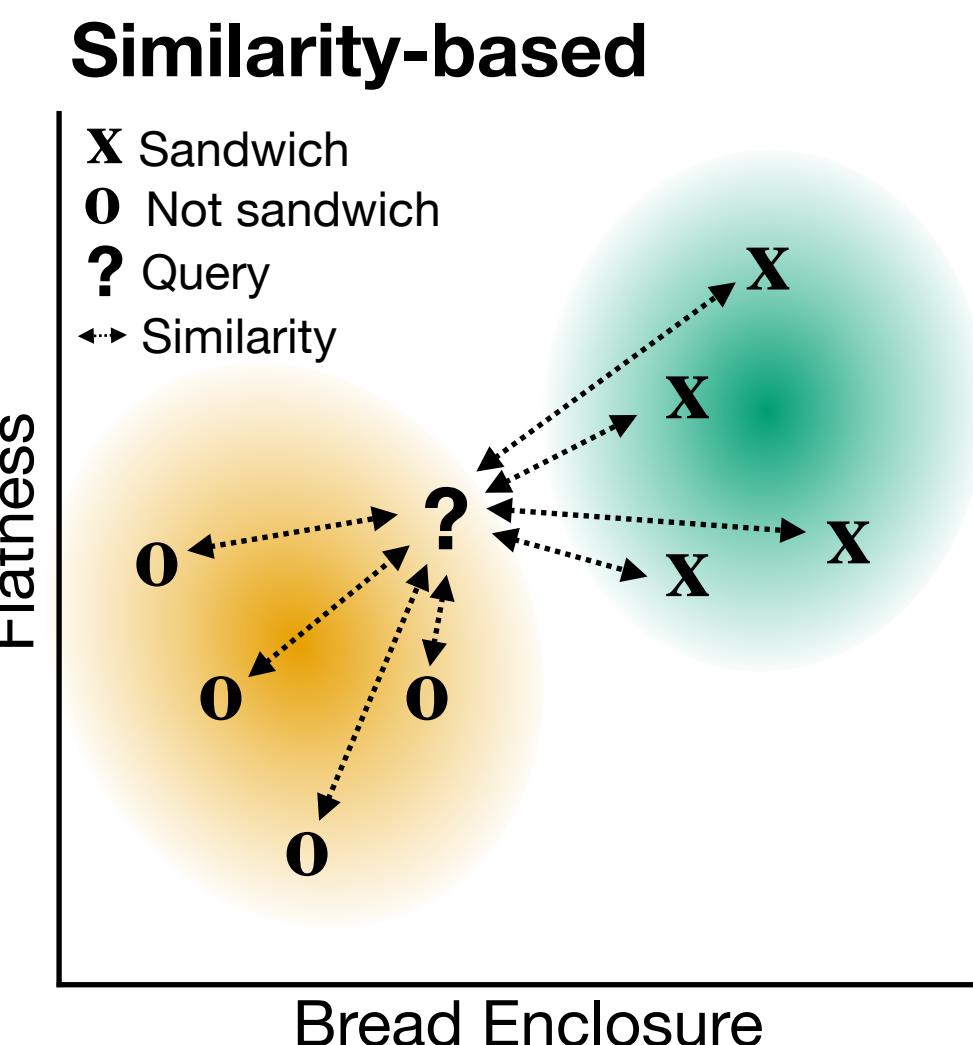
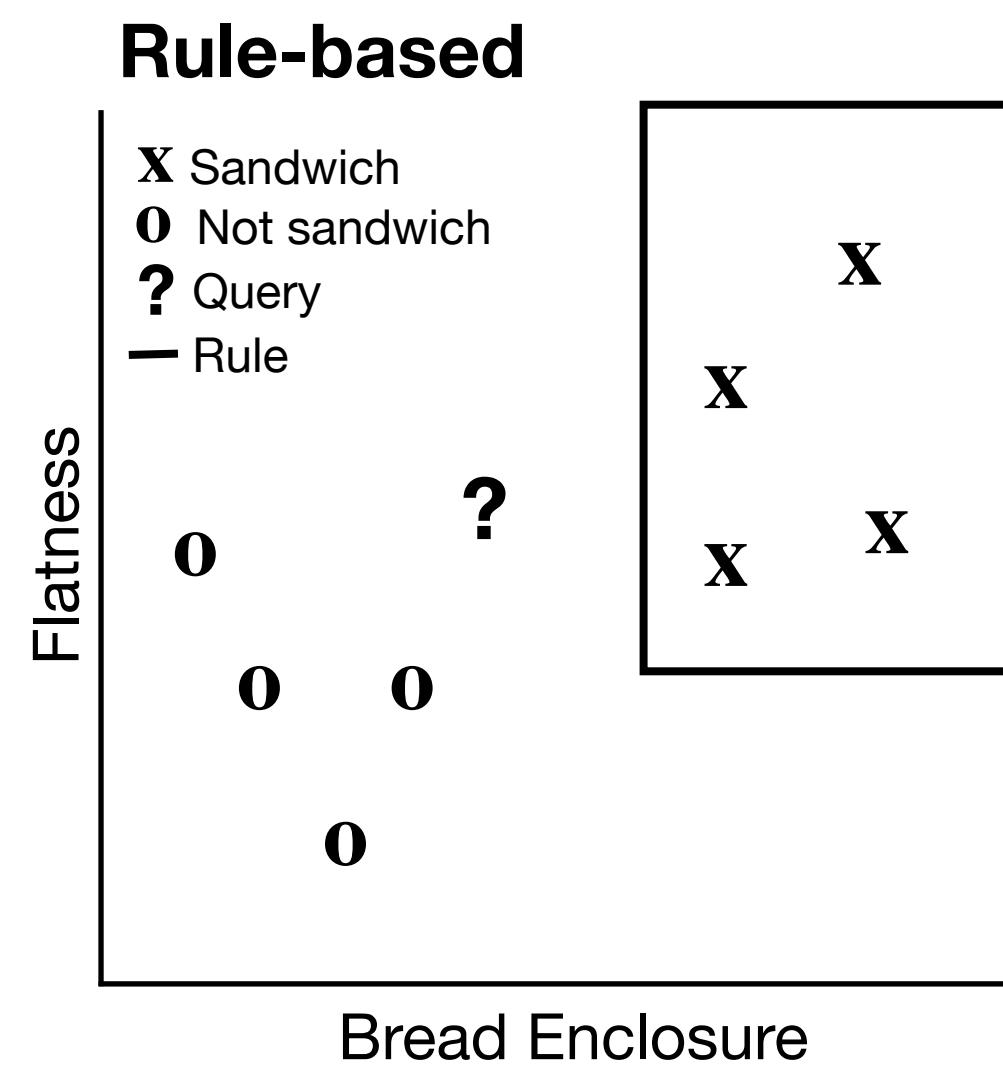
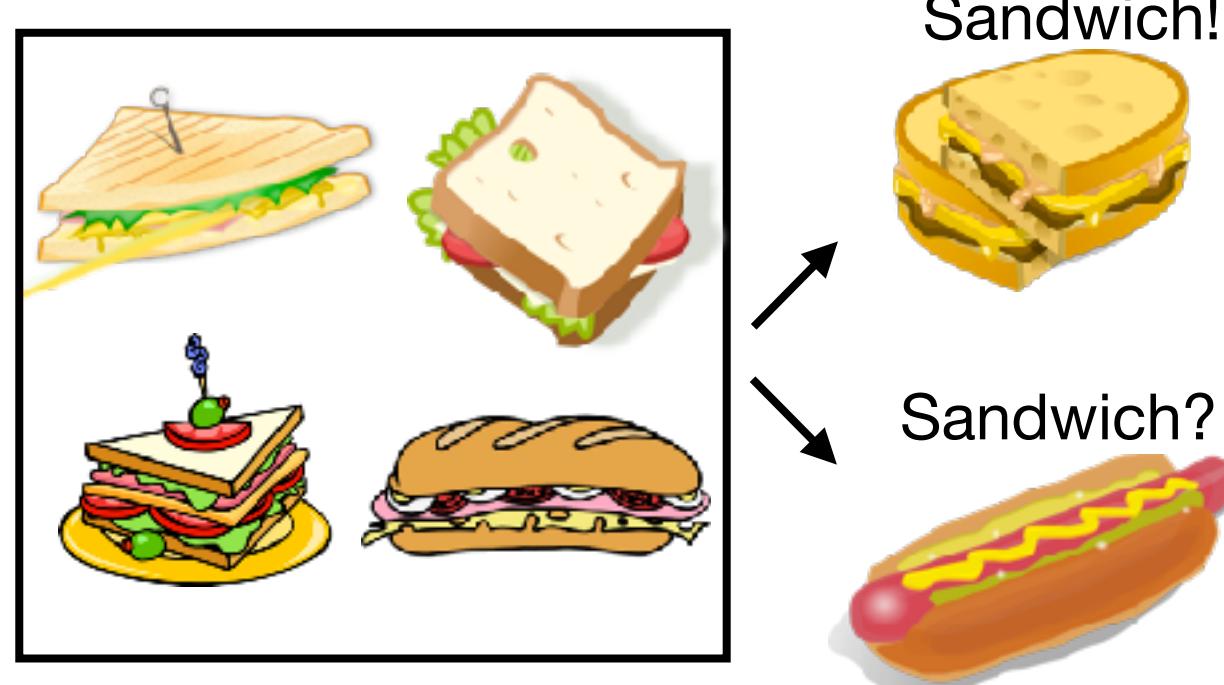
Concept learning as classification



The story so far ...

Concept learning as classification

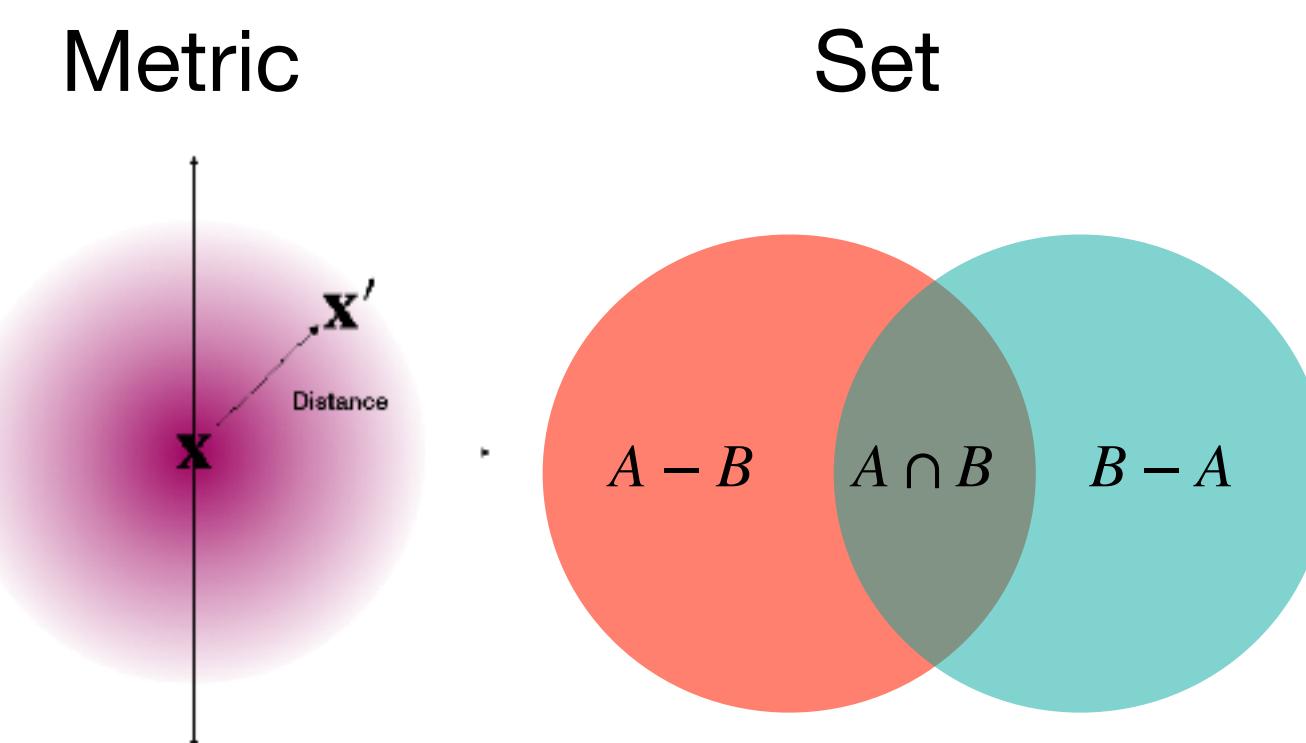
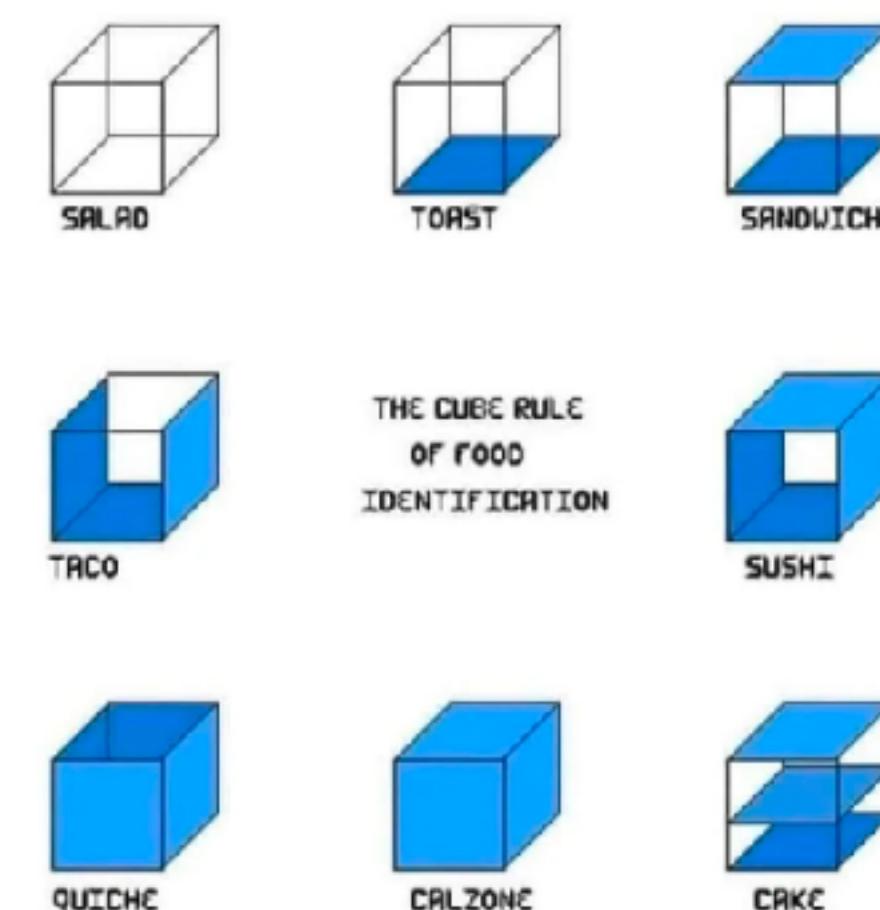
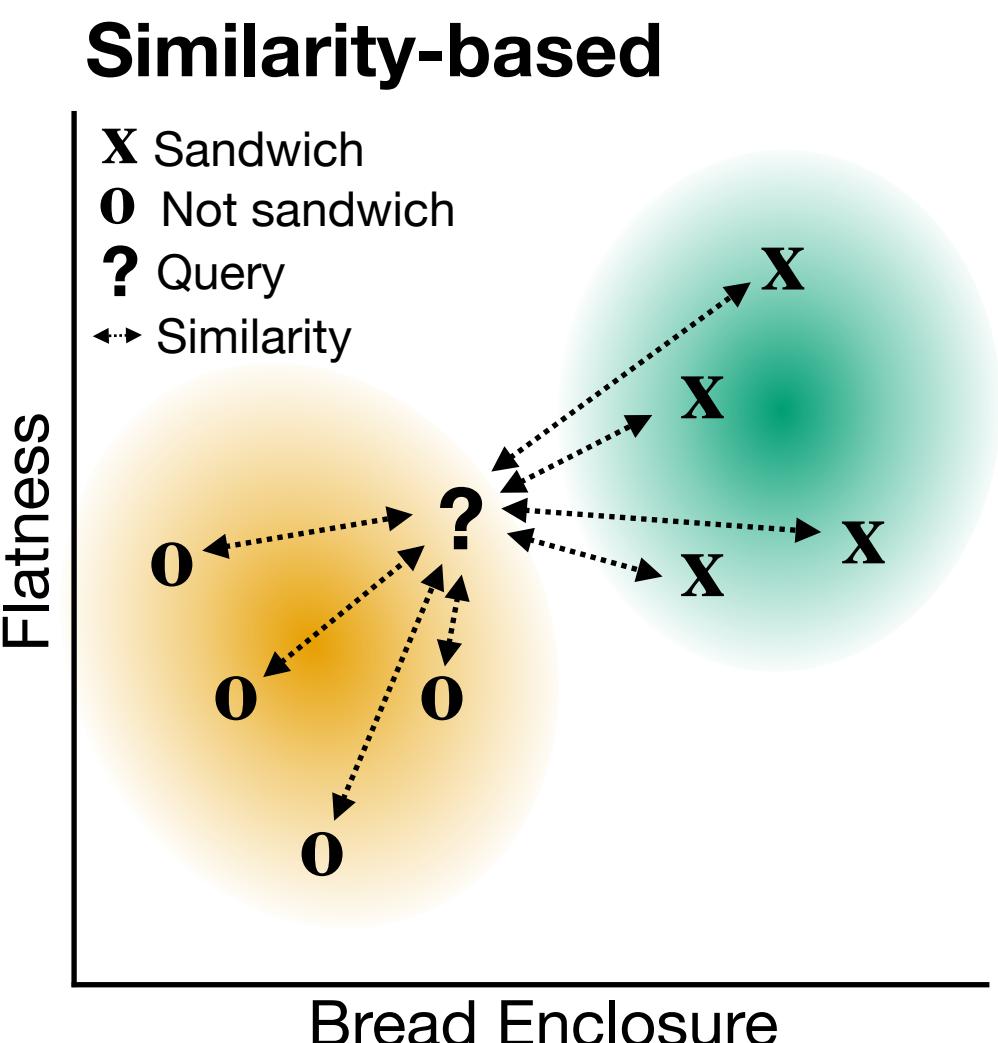
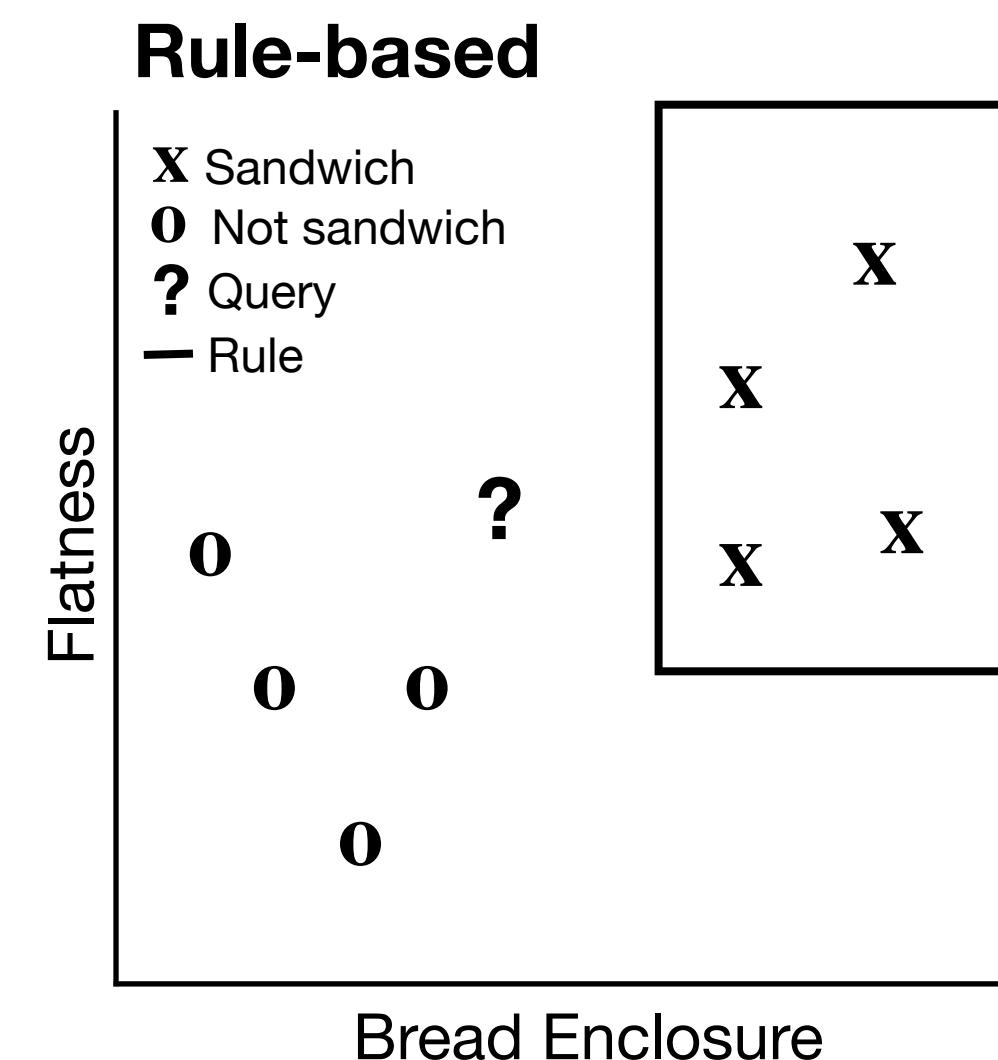
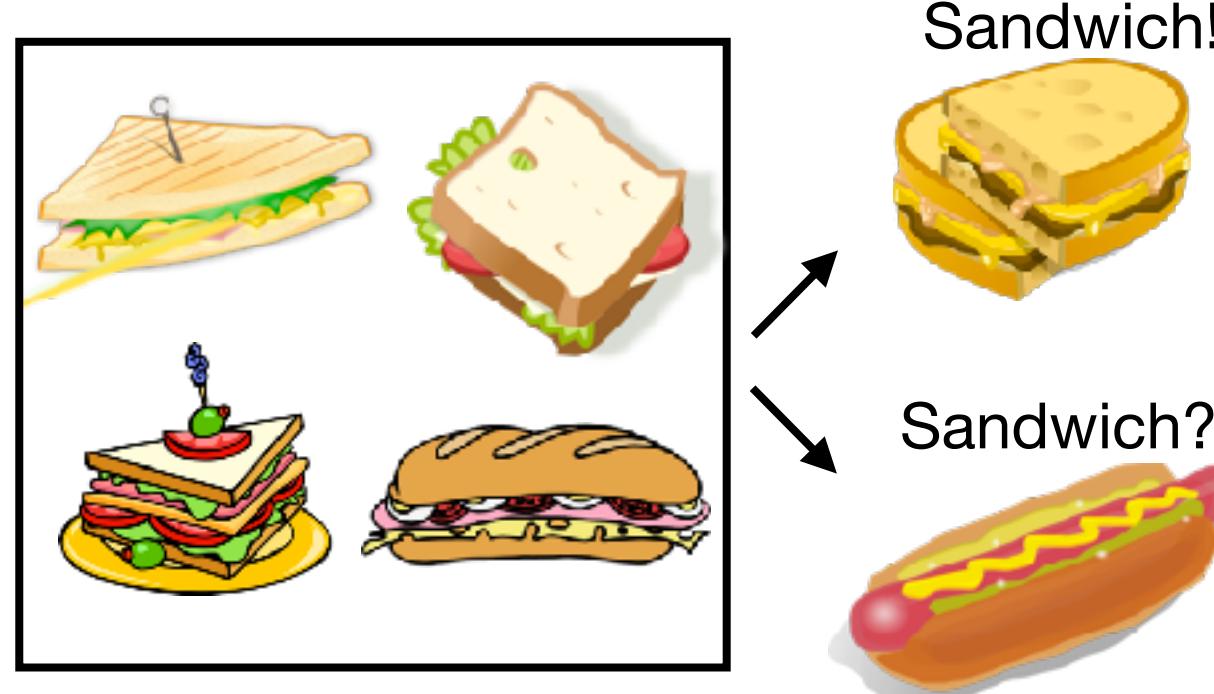
Previous Experiences



The story so far ...

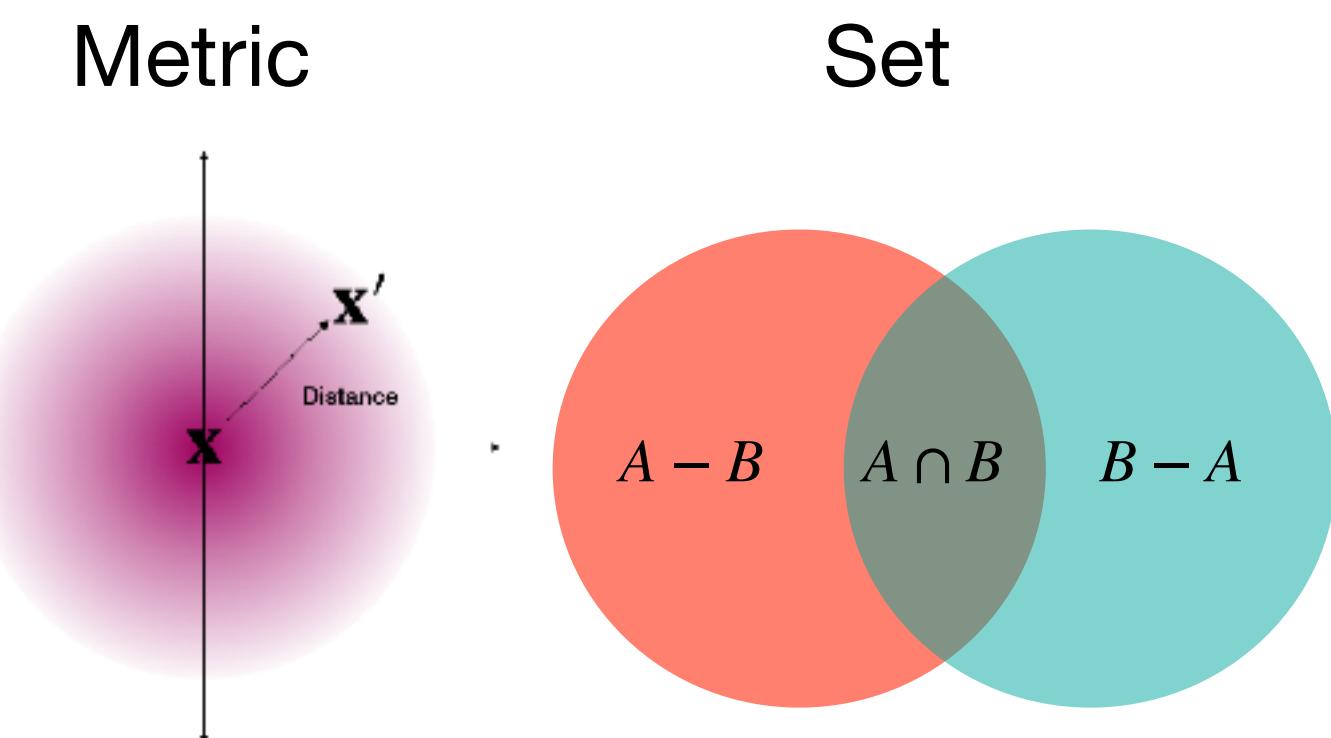
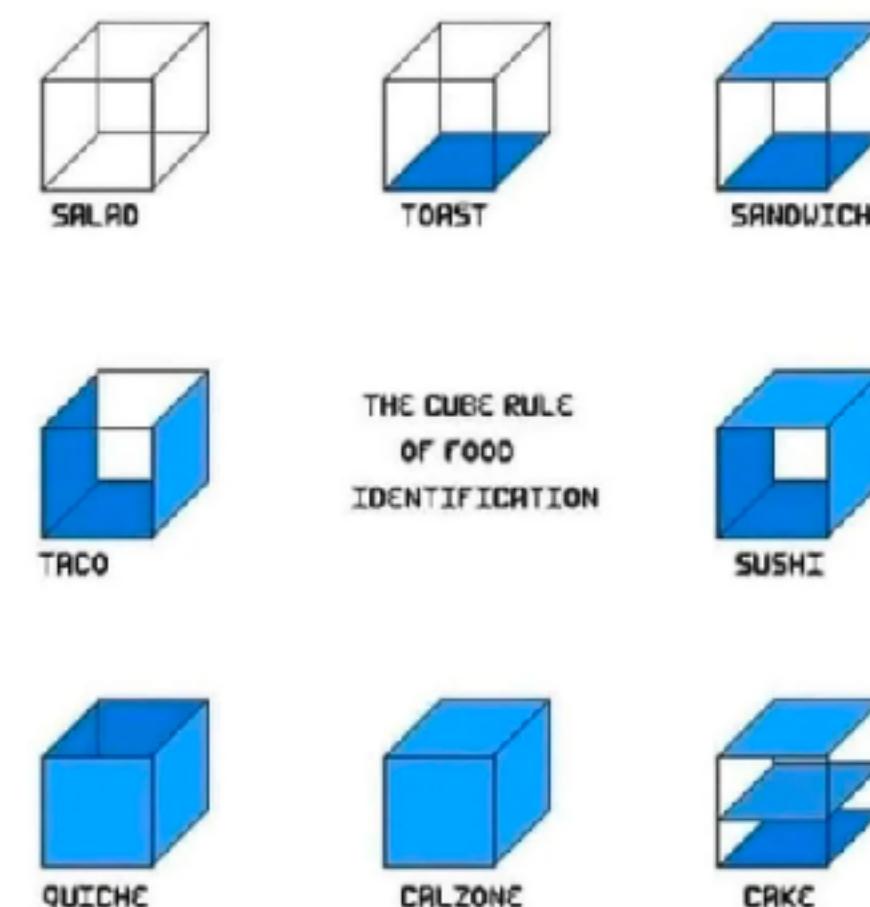
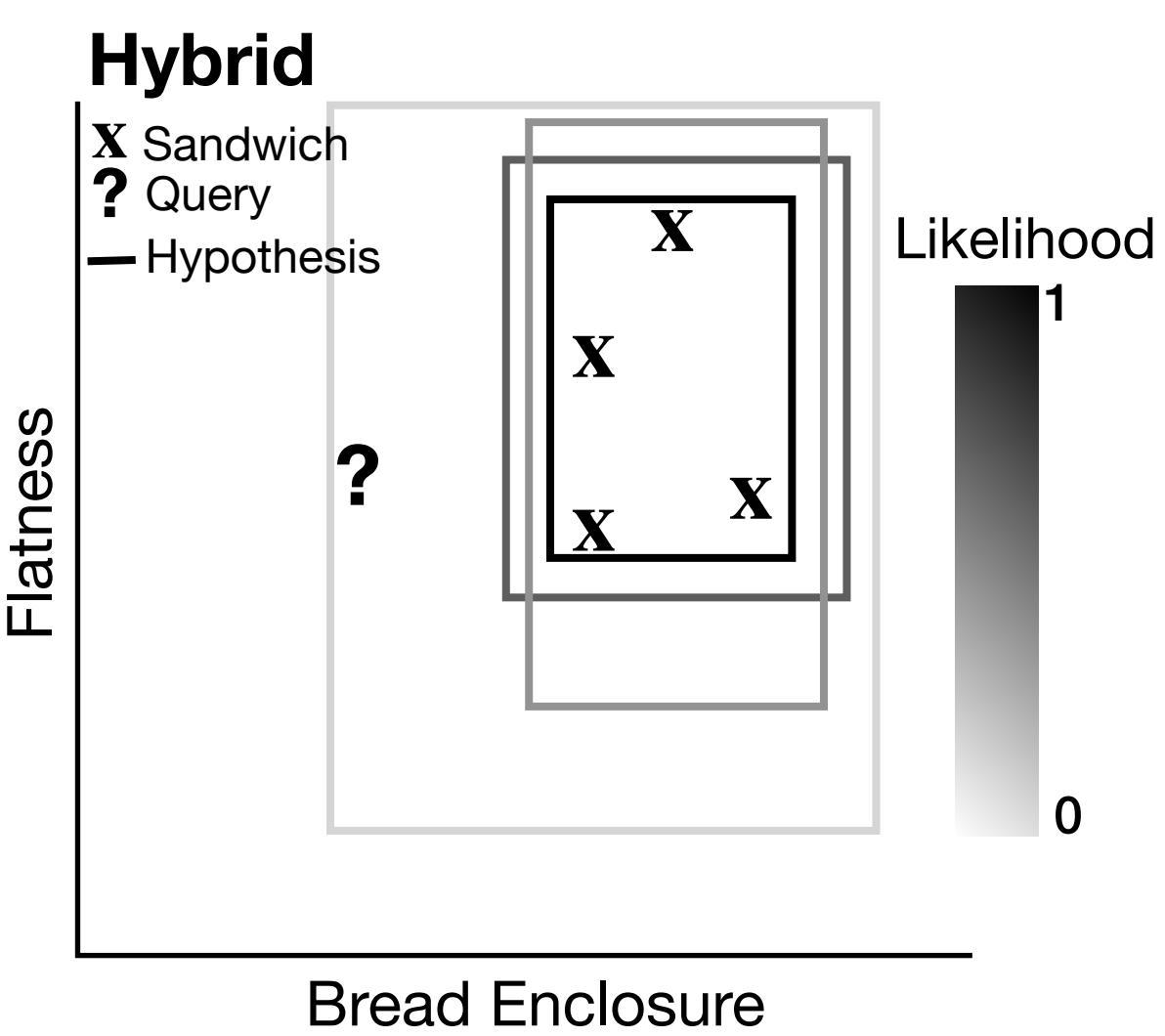
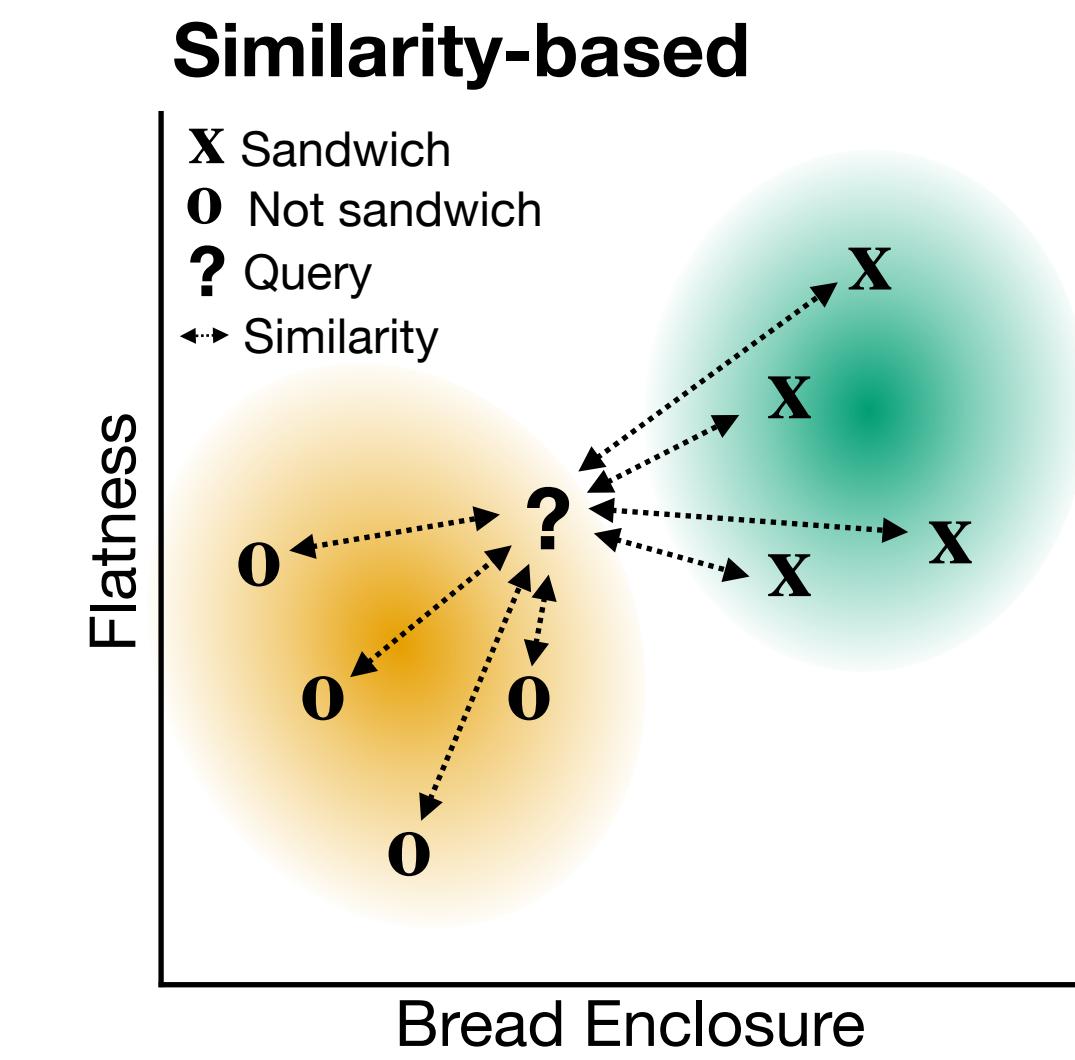
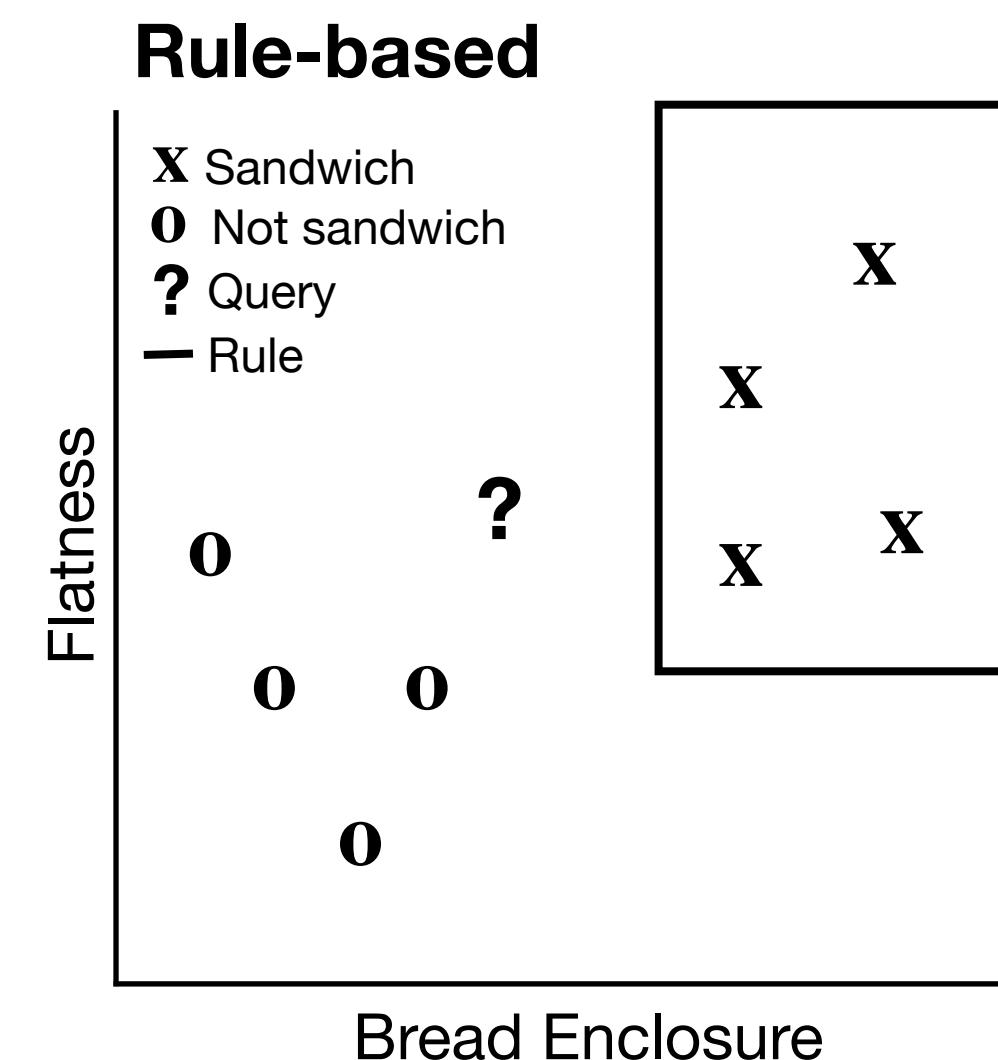
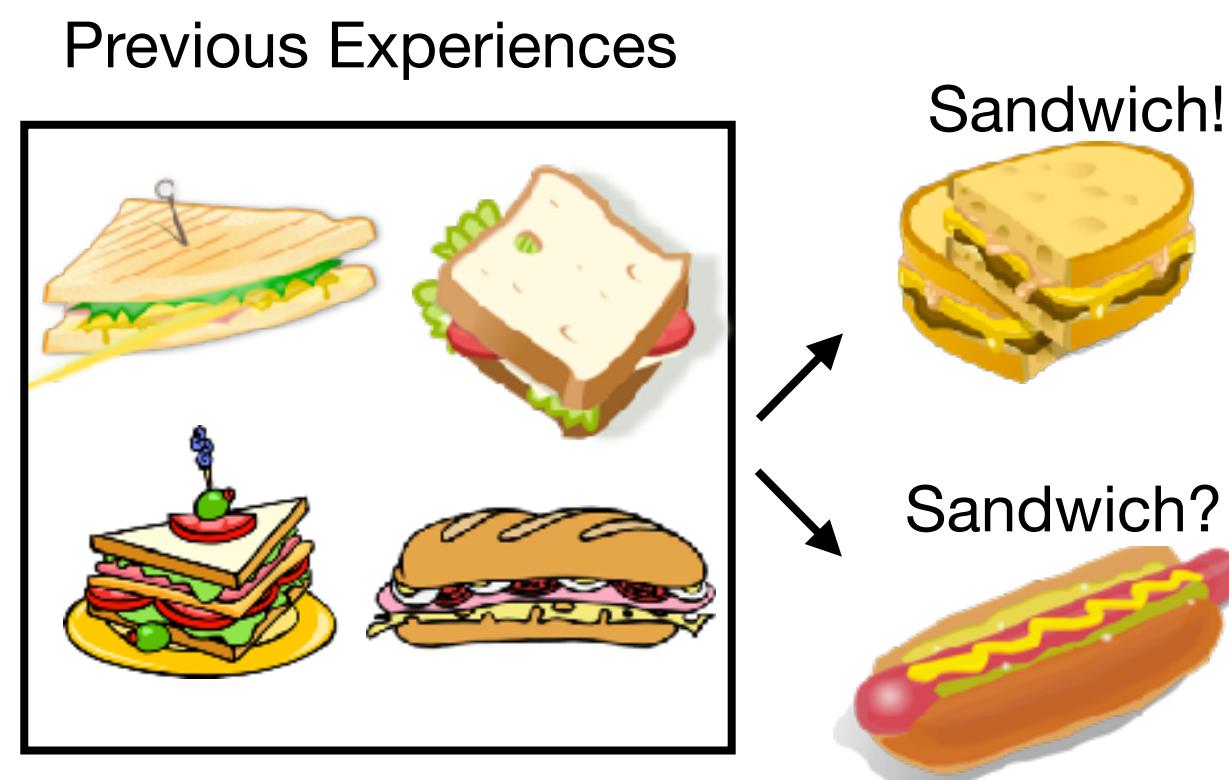
Concept learning as classification

Previous Experiences



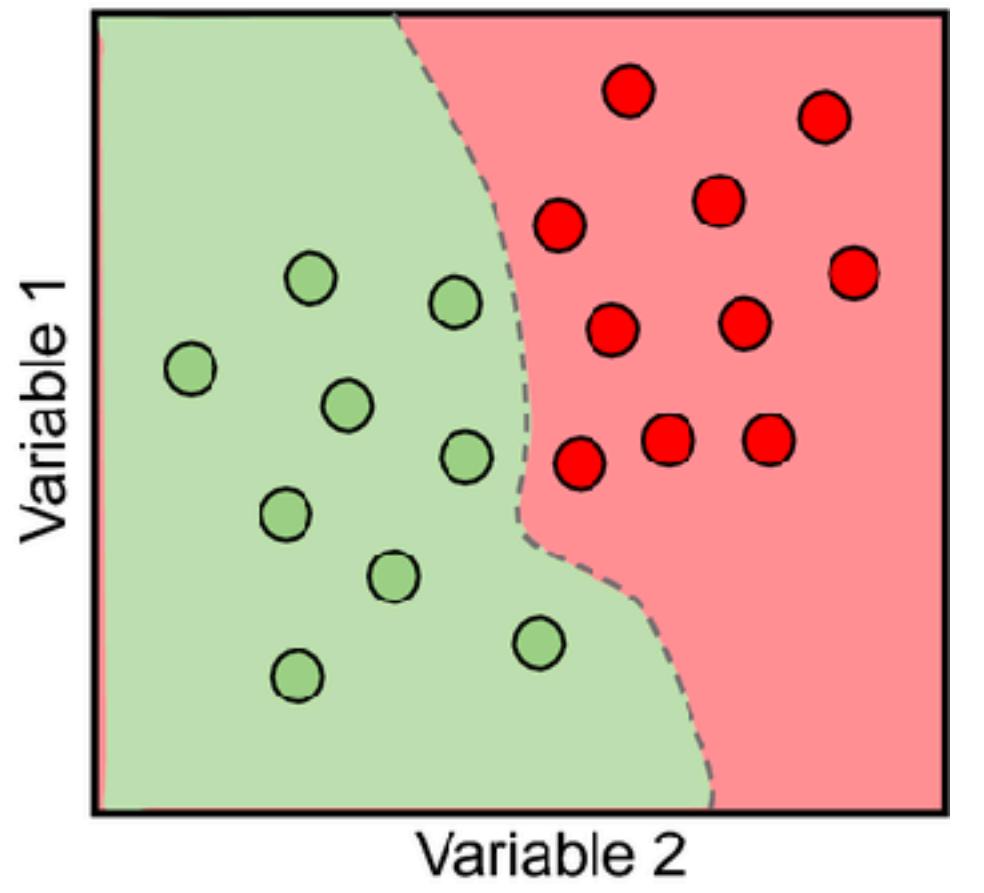
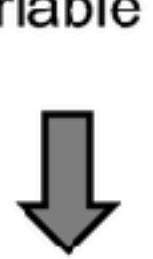
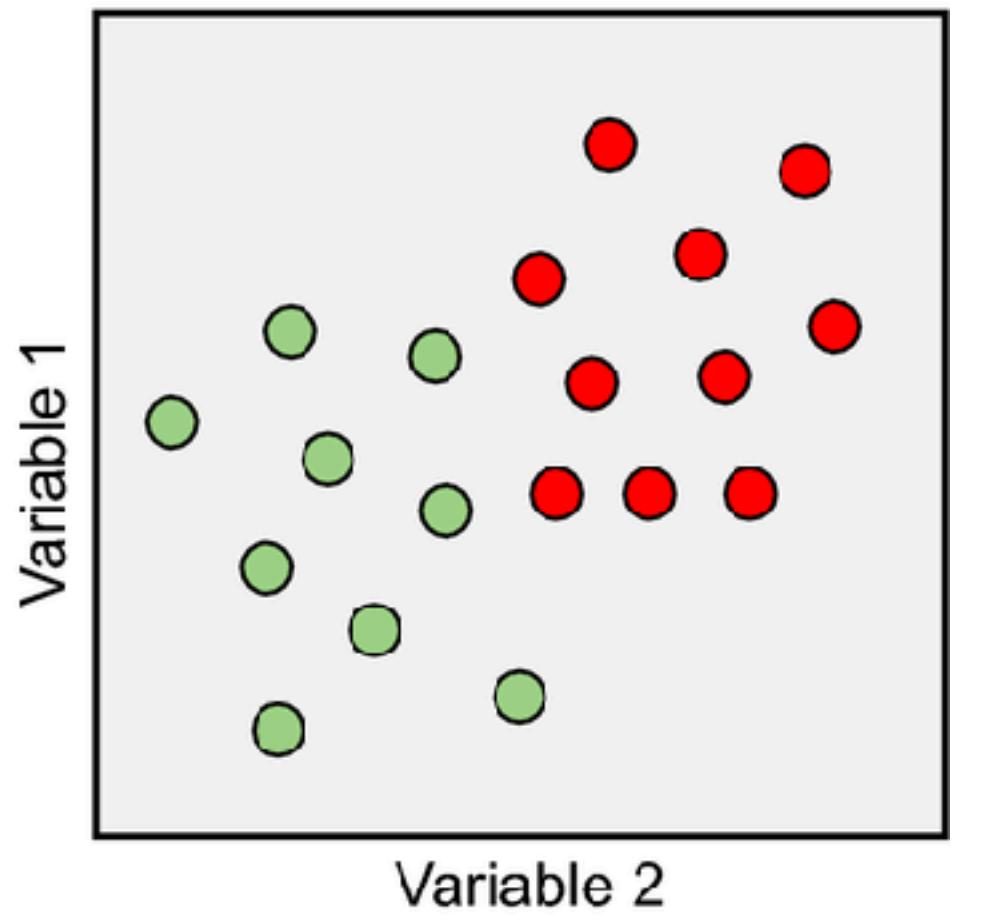
The story so far ...

Concept learning as classification

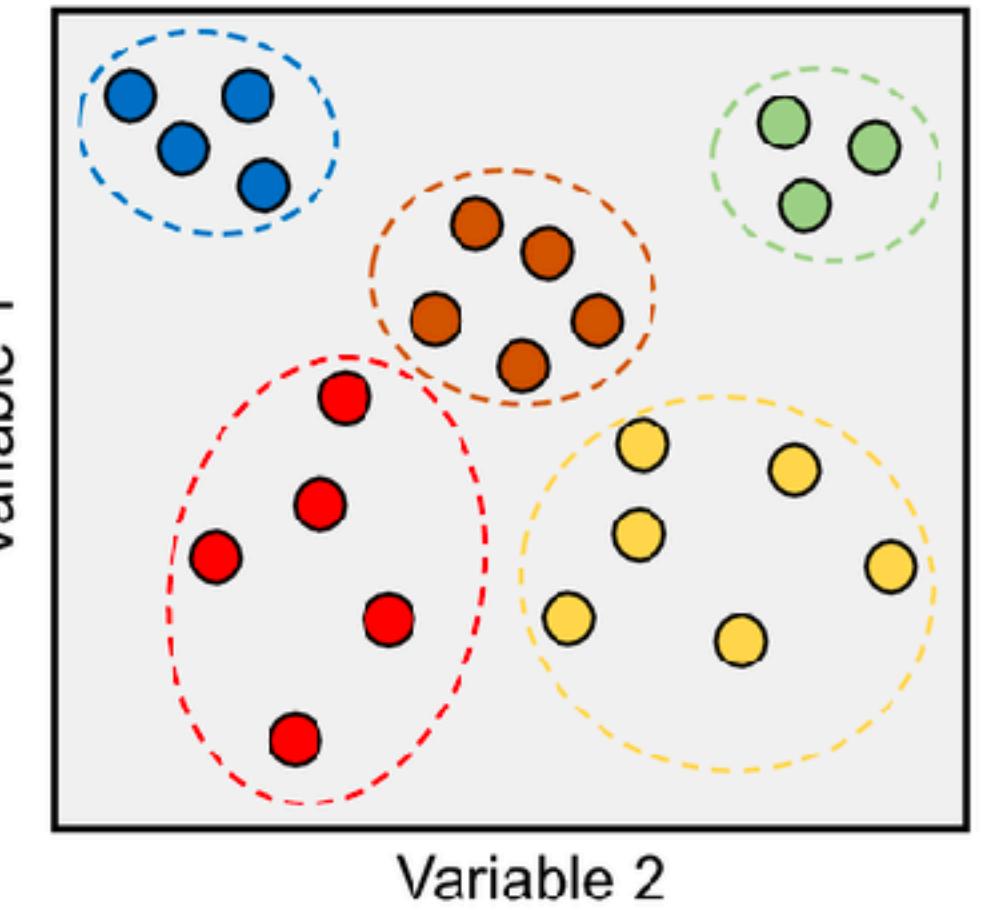
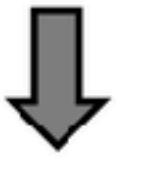
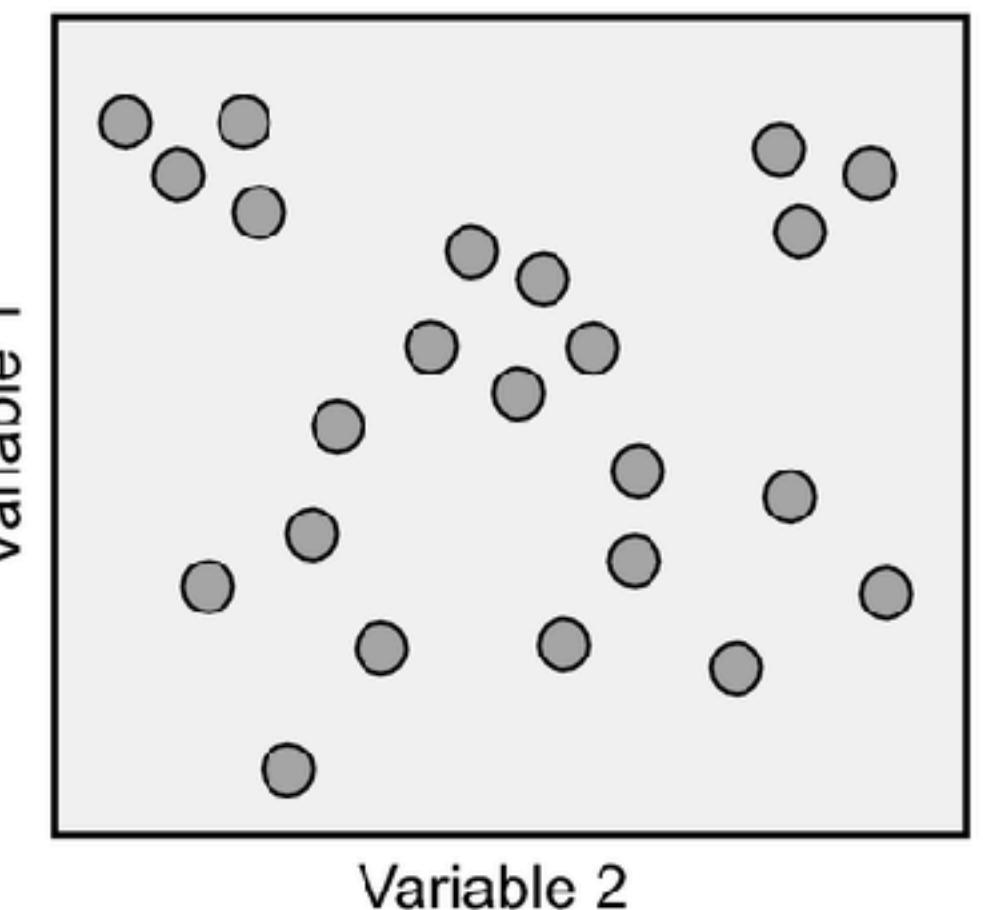


The story so far ...

Supervised

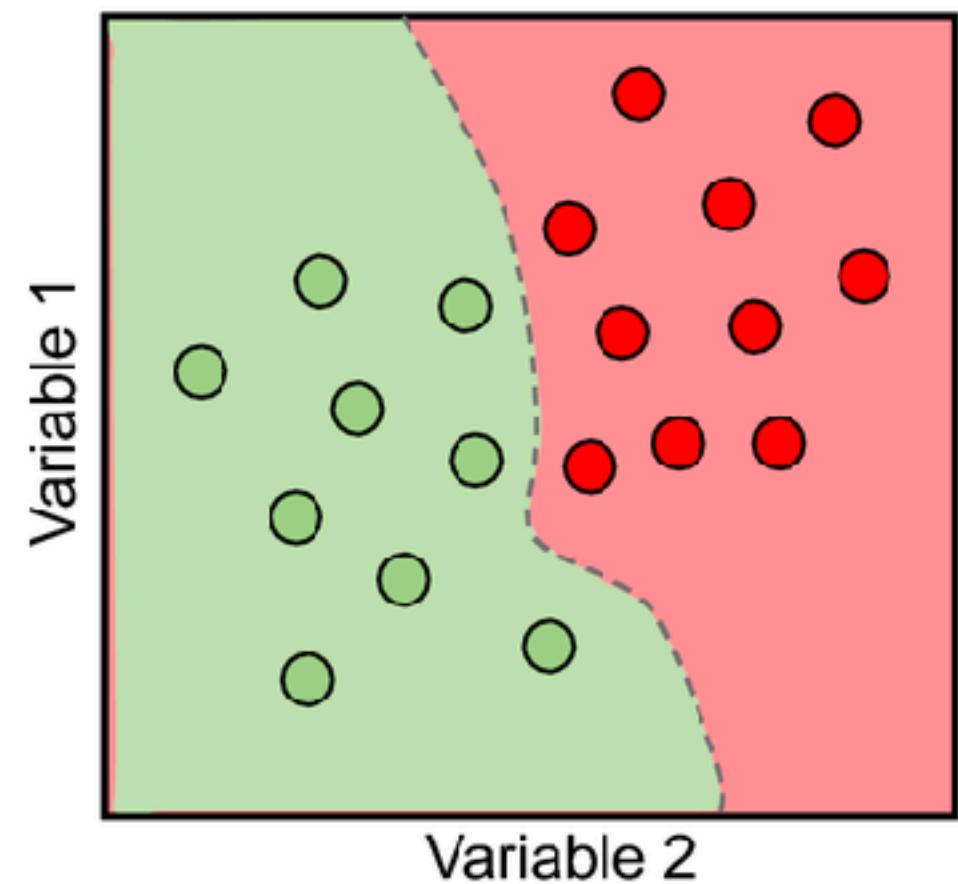
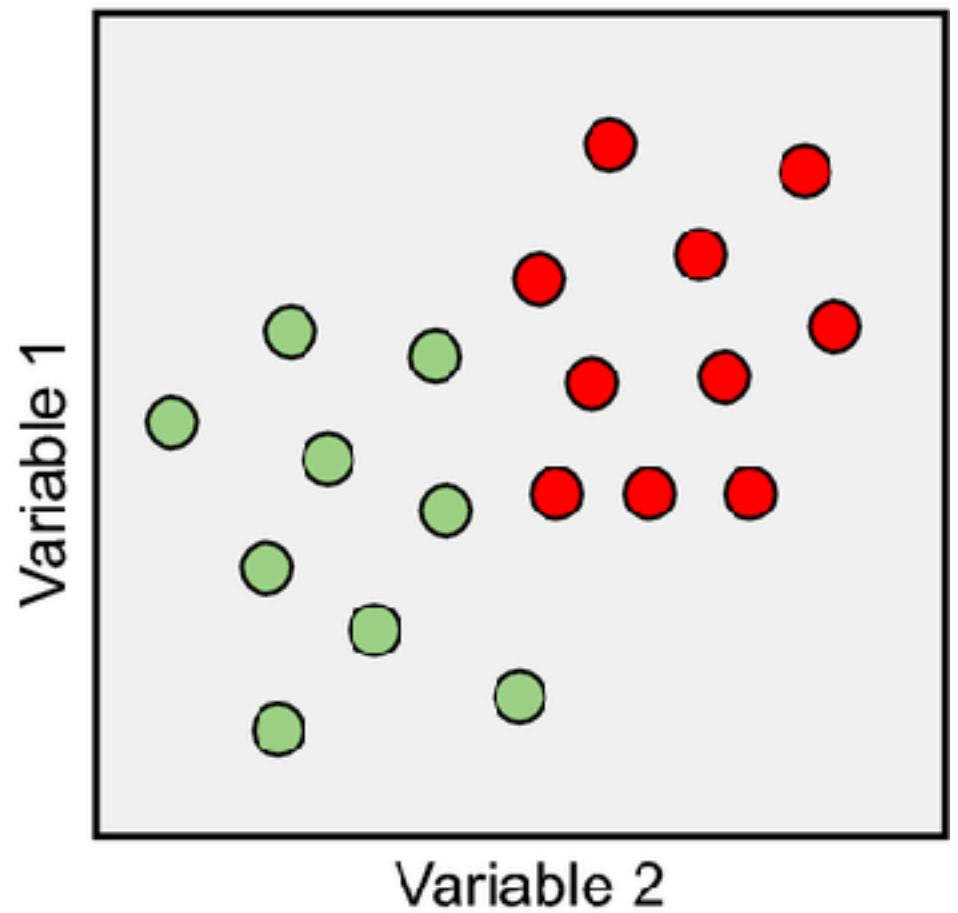


Unsupervised



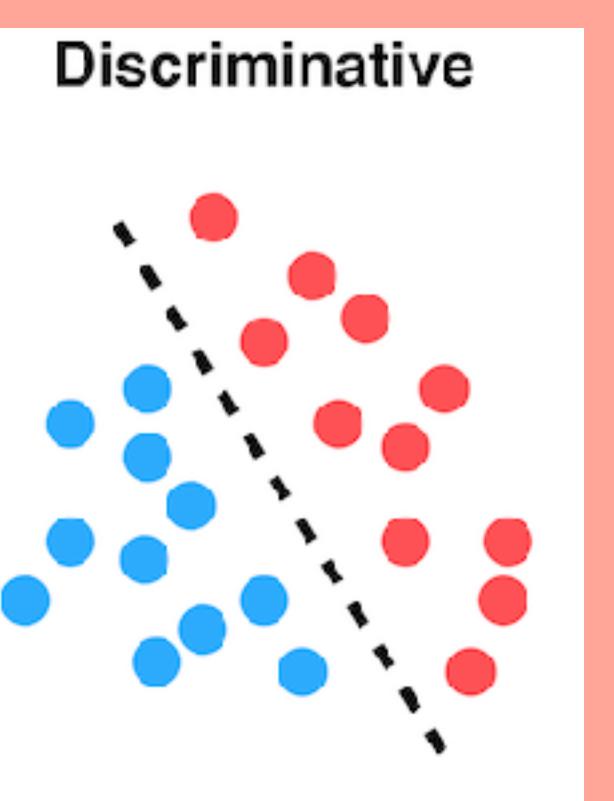
The story so far ...

Supervised



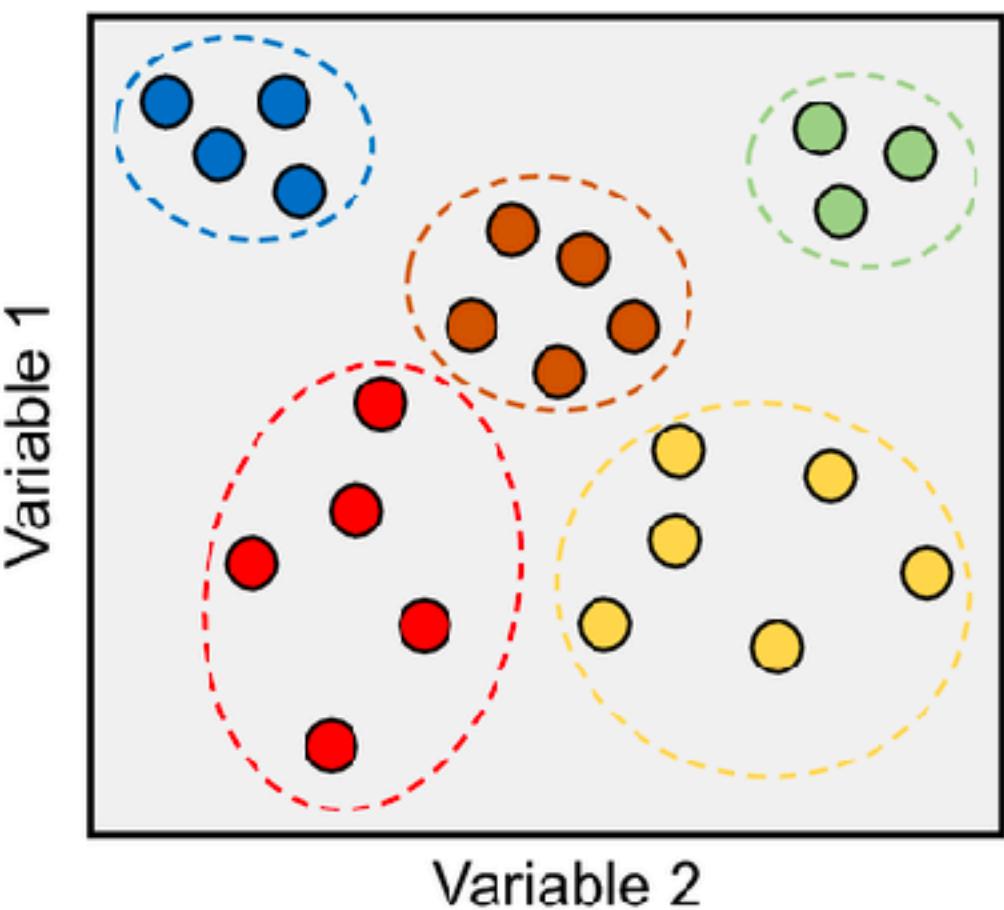
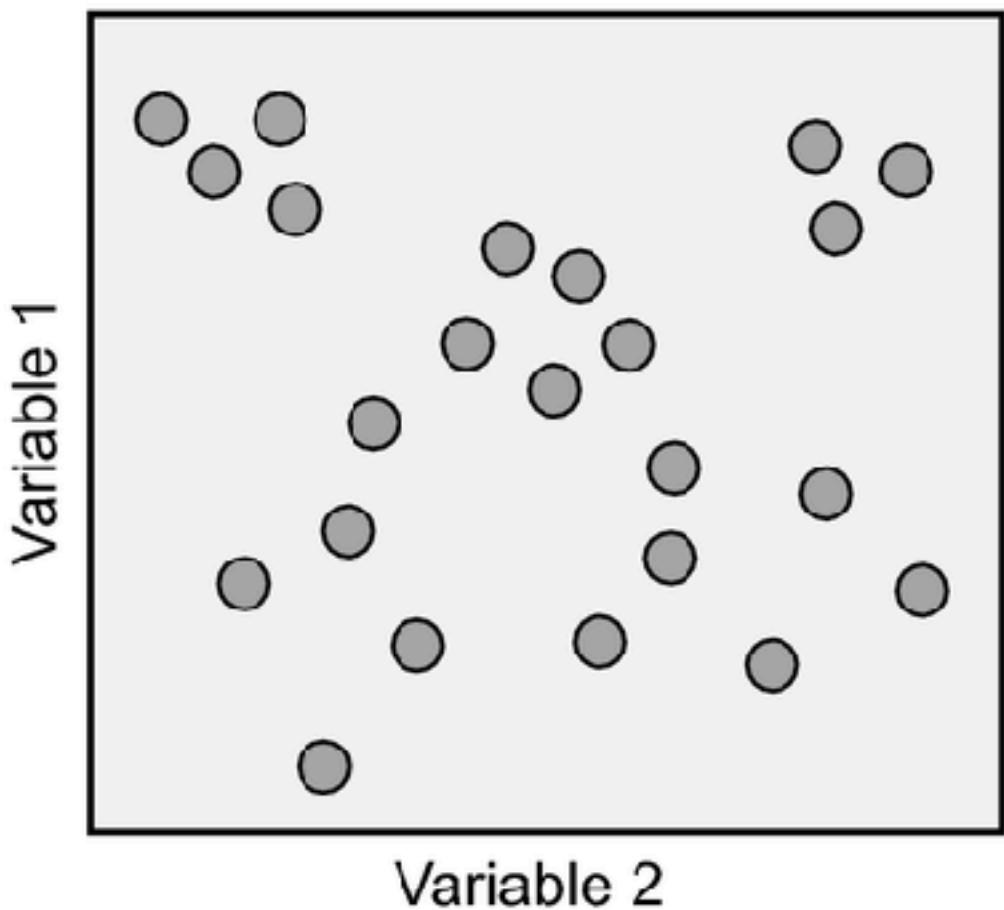
MLPs

Decision trees
and random
forests



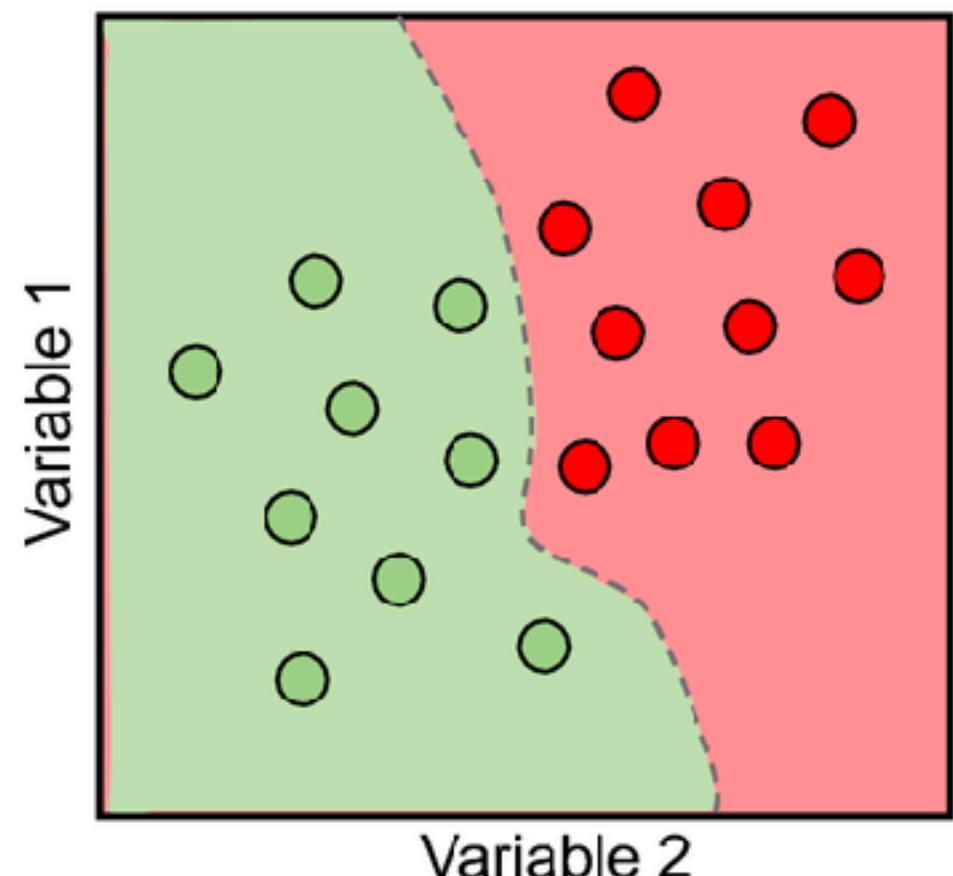
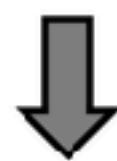
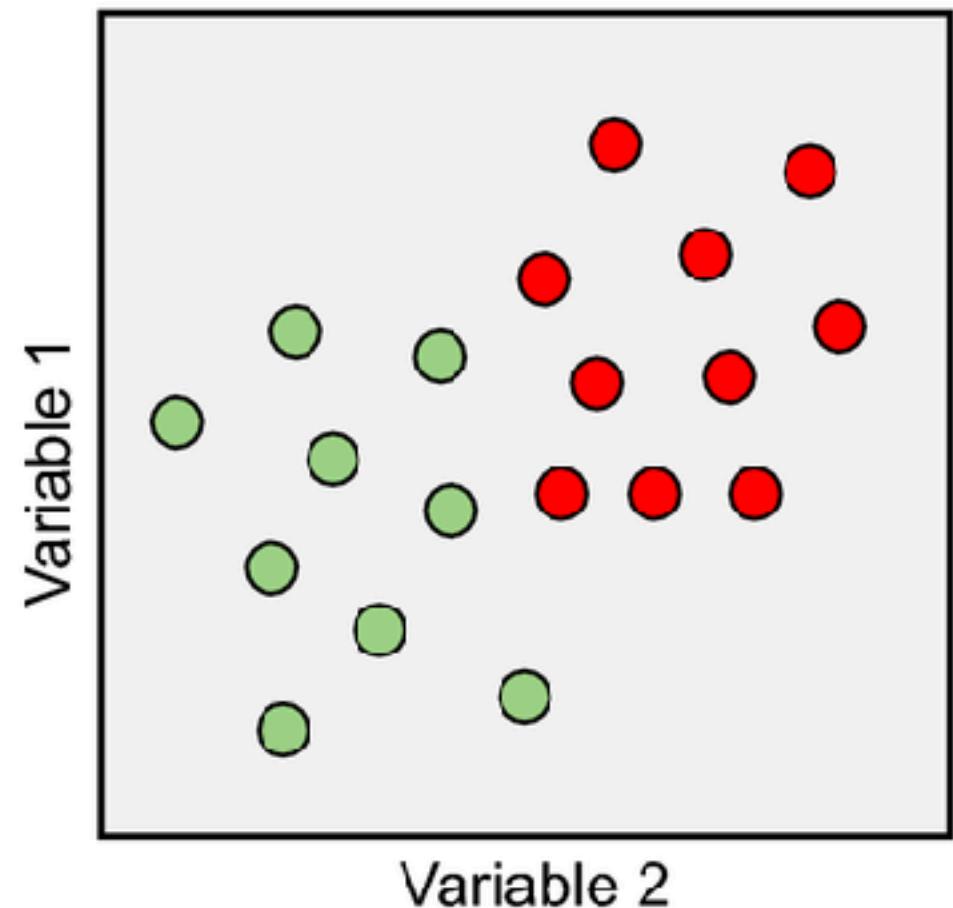
SVMs

Unsupervised



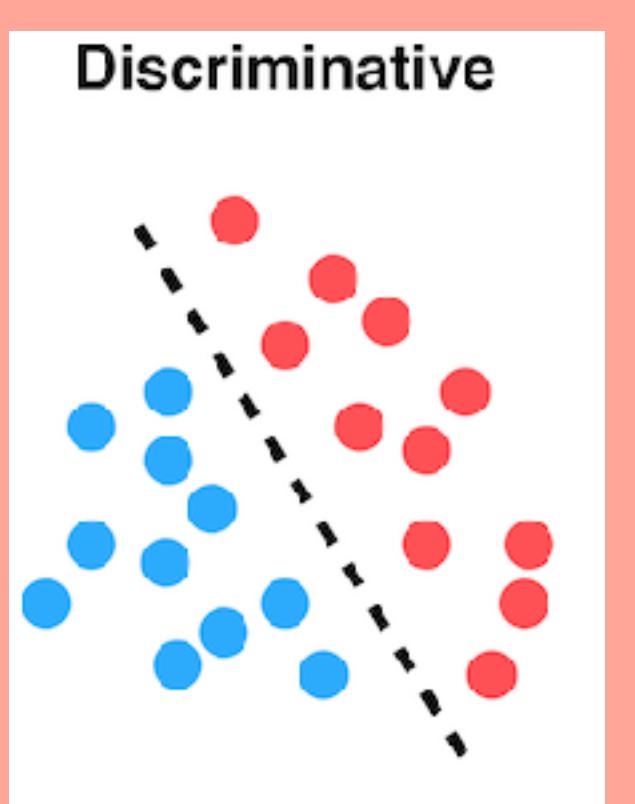
The story so far ...

Supervised



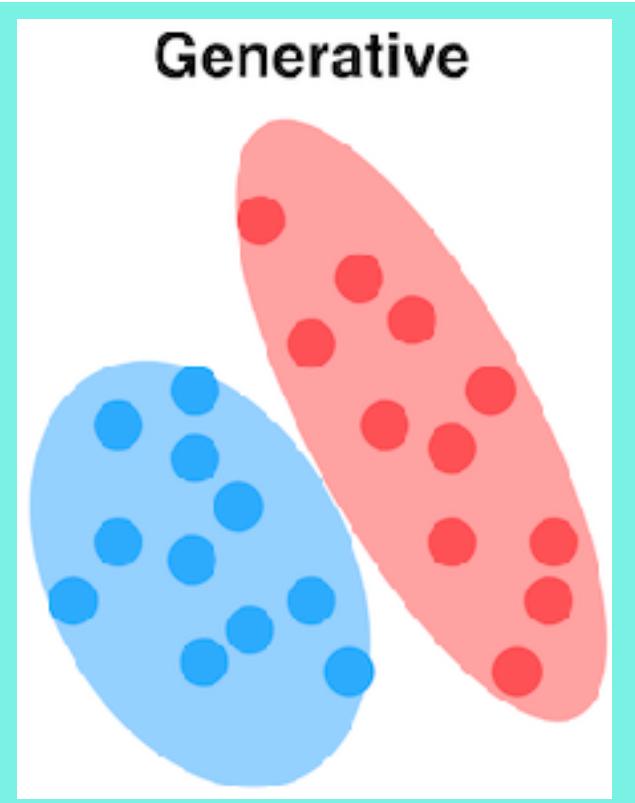
MLPs

Decision trees
and random
forests

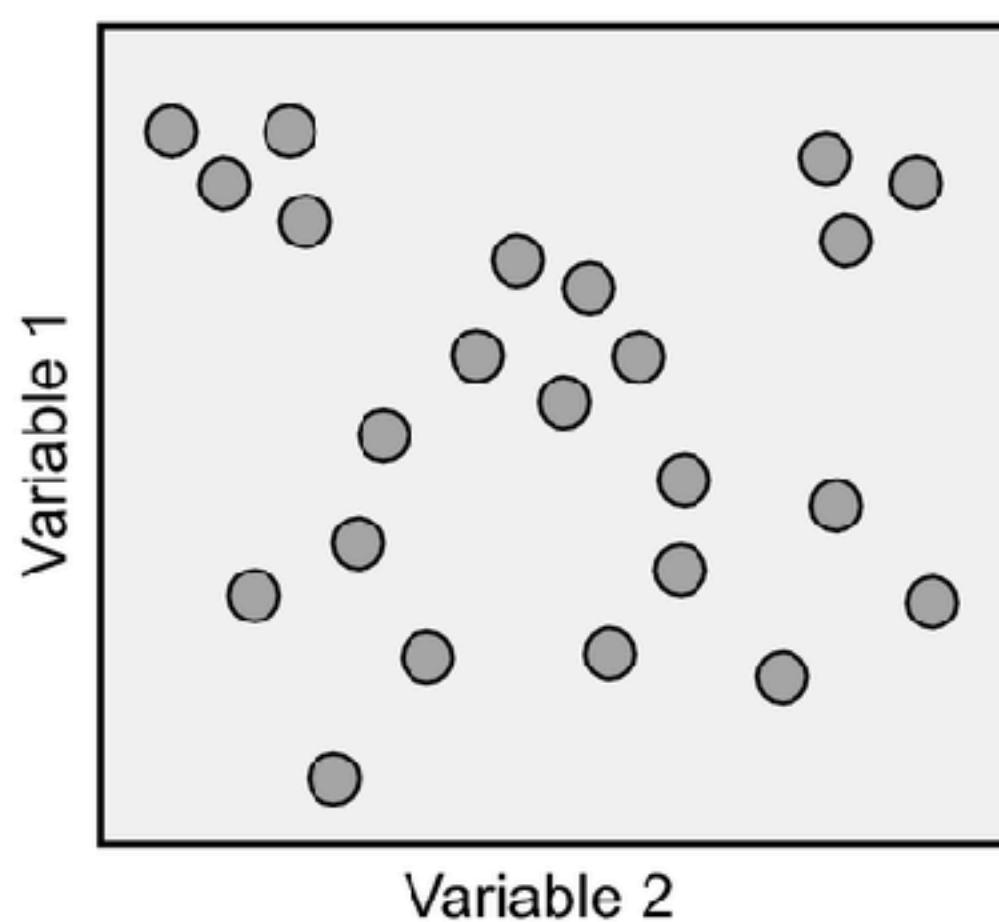


SVMs

Naïve Bayes

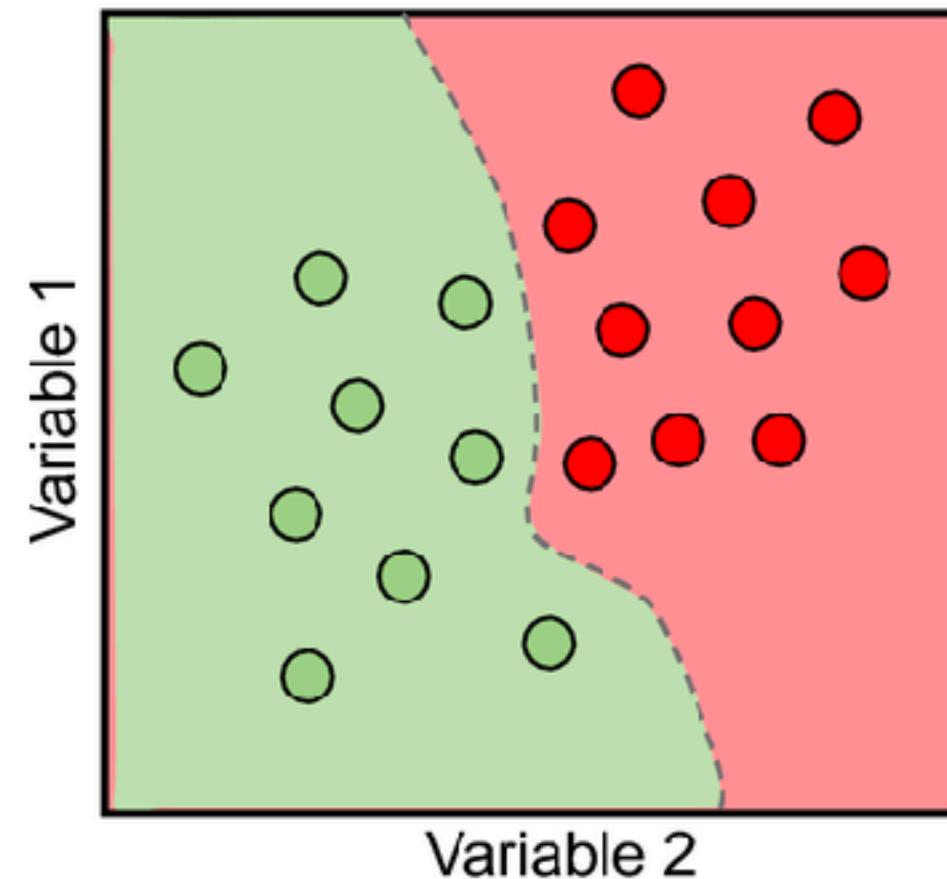
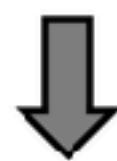
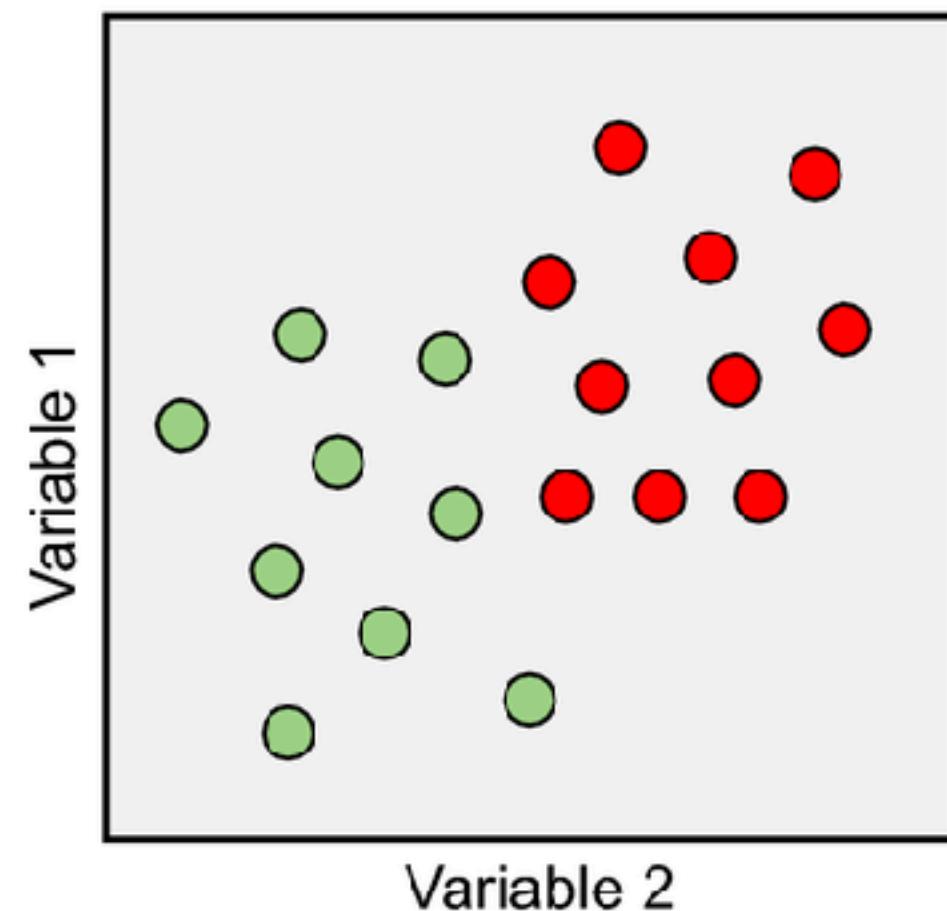


Unsupervised



The story so far ...

Supervised

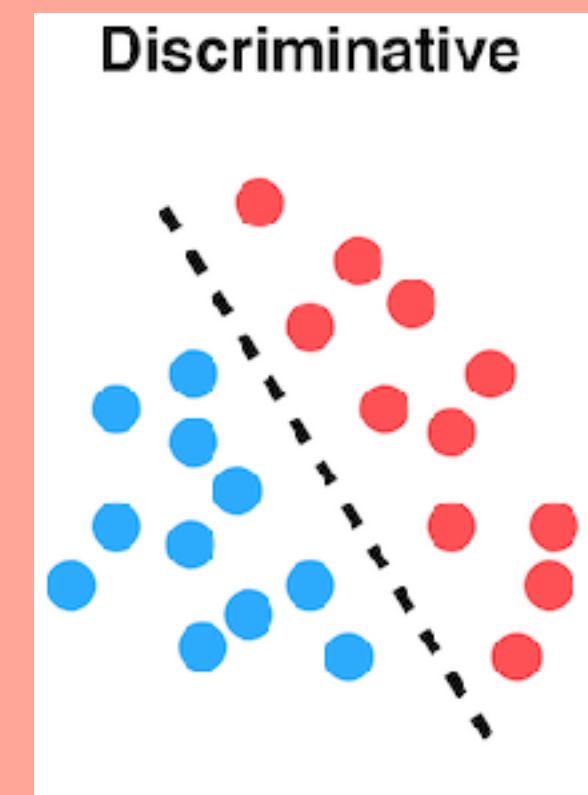


MLPs

Decision trees
and random
forests

SVMs

Naïve Bayes

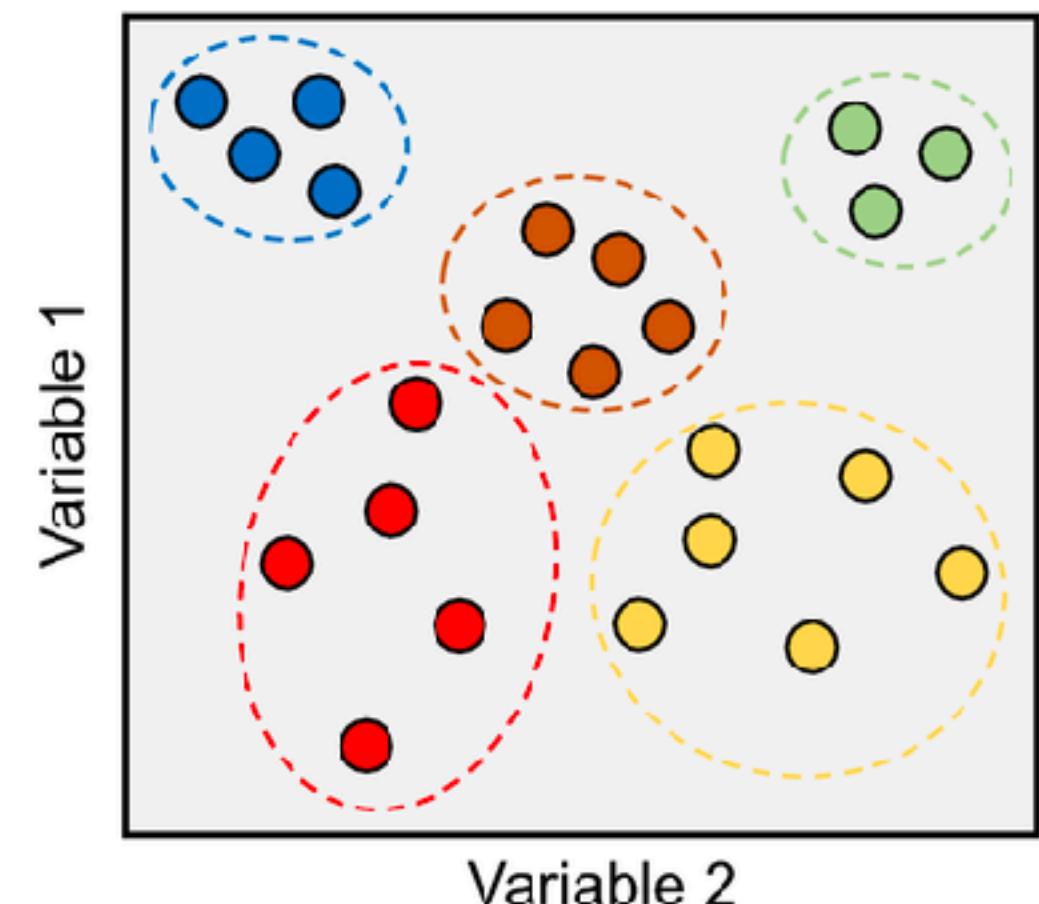
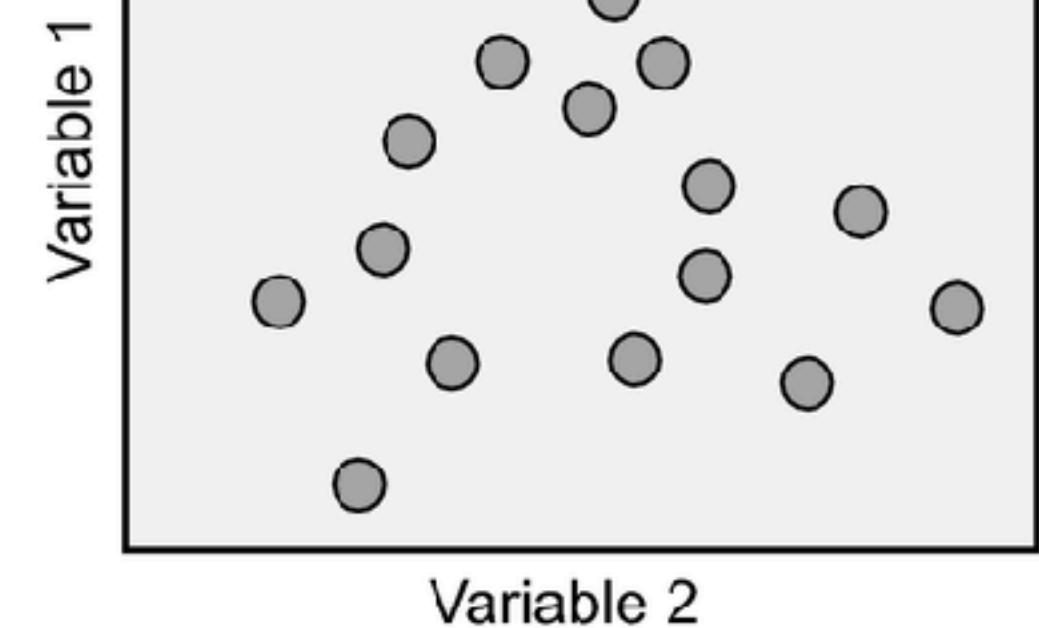


Generative

k-Means

GMMs

Unsupervised



From Concepts to Functions

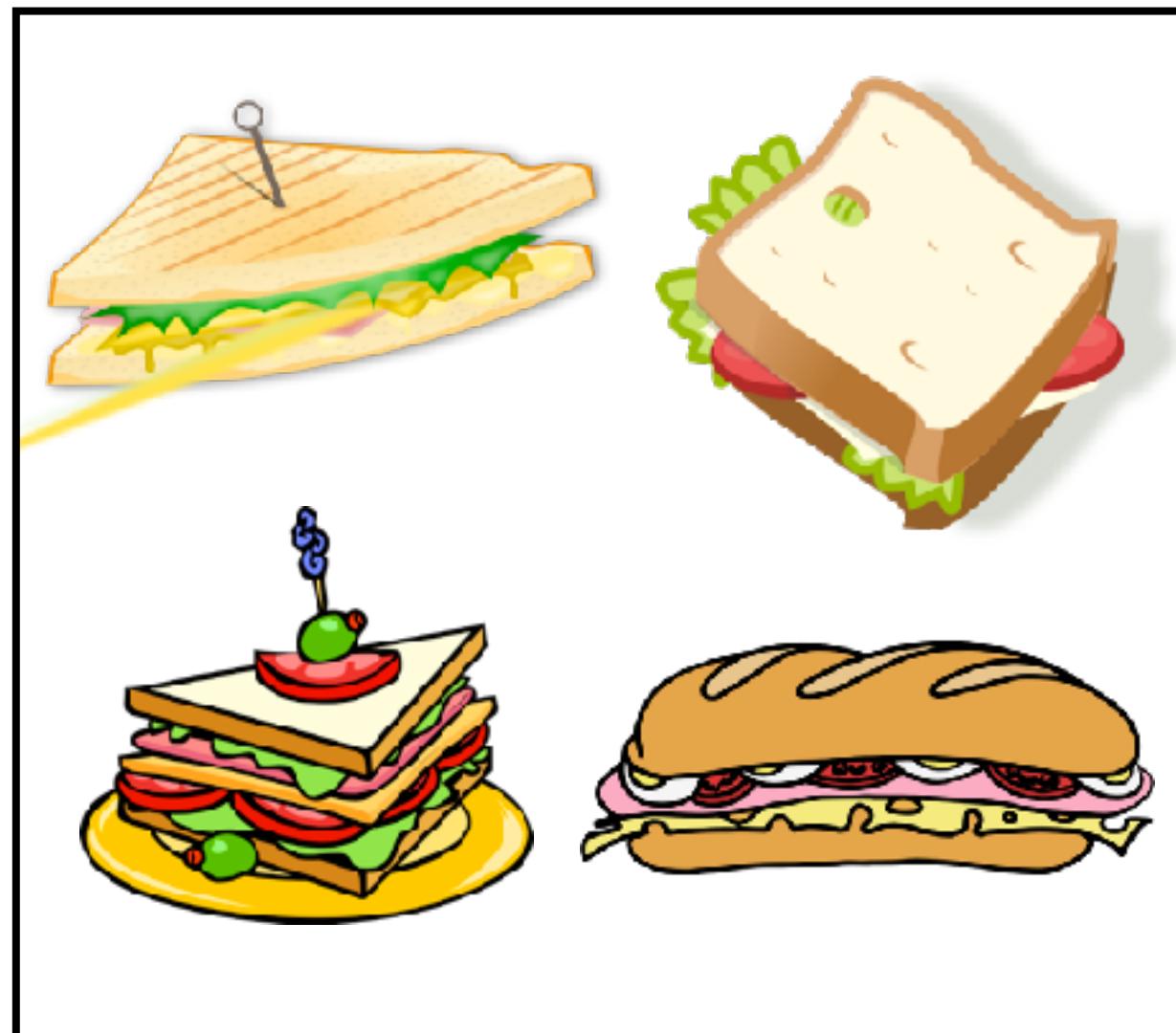
Concept Learning as Classification

Function learning as Regression

From Concepts to Functions

Concept Learning as Classification

Previous Experiences

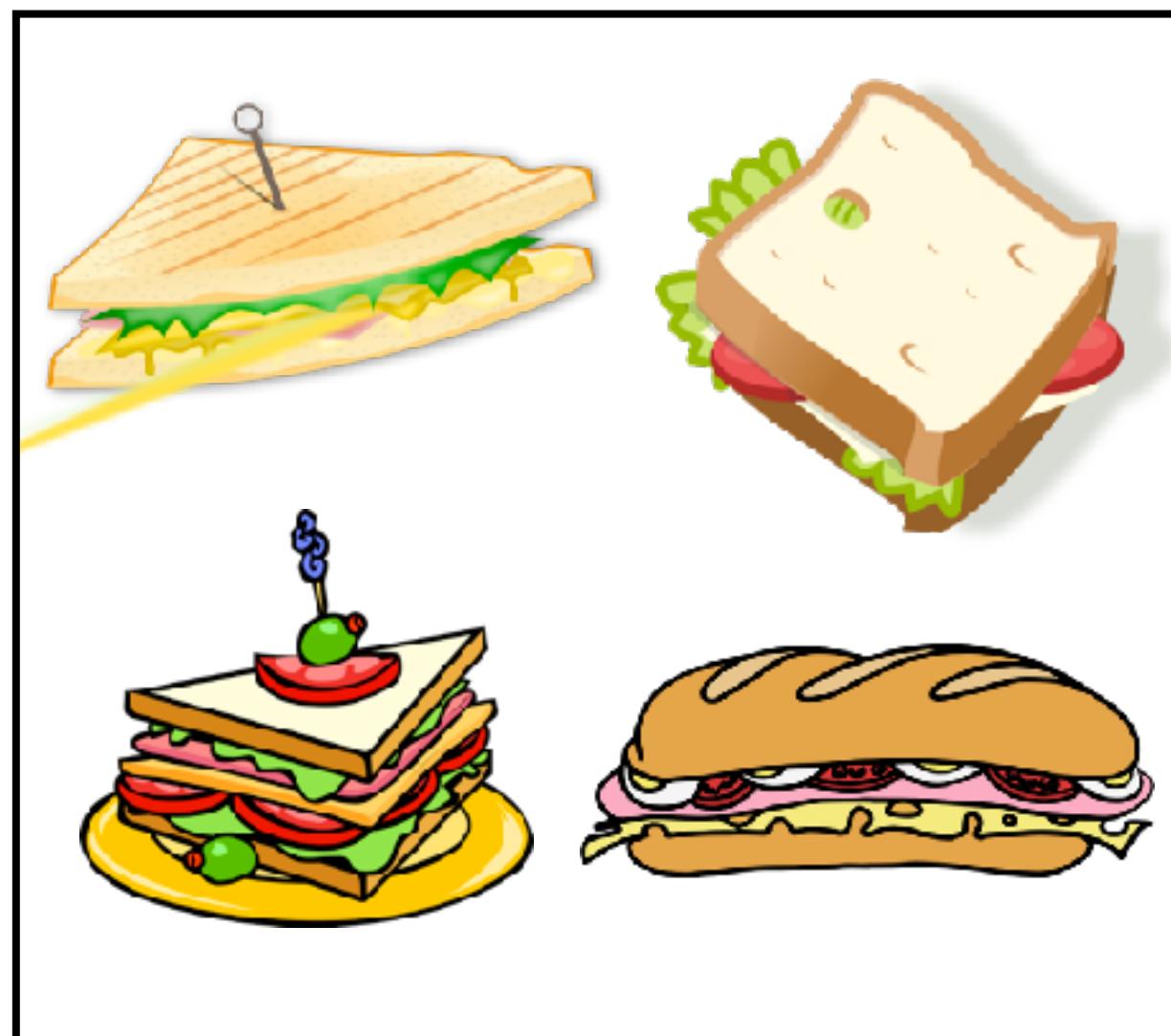


Function learning as Regression

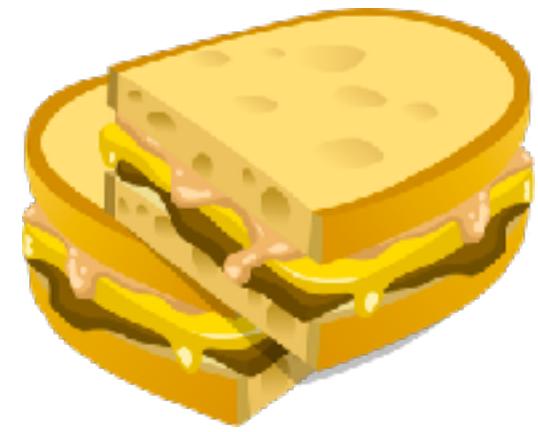
From Concepts to Functions

Concept Learning as Classification

Previous Experiences



Sandwich!

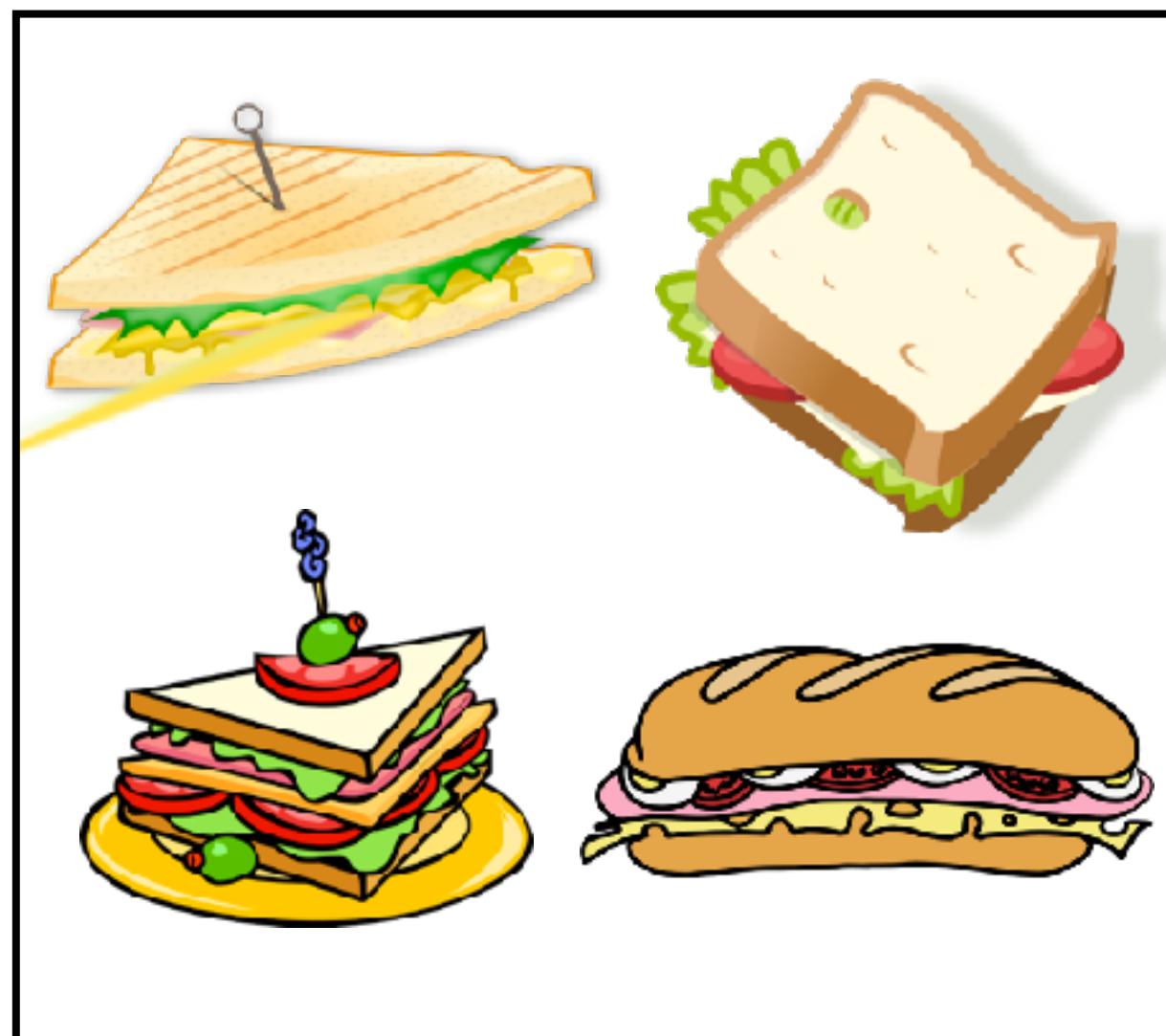


Function learning as Regression

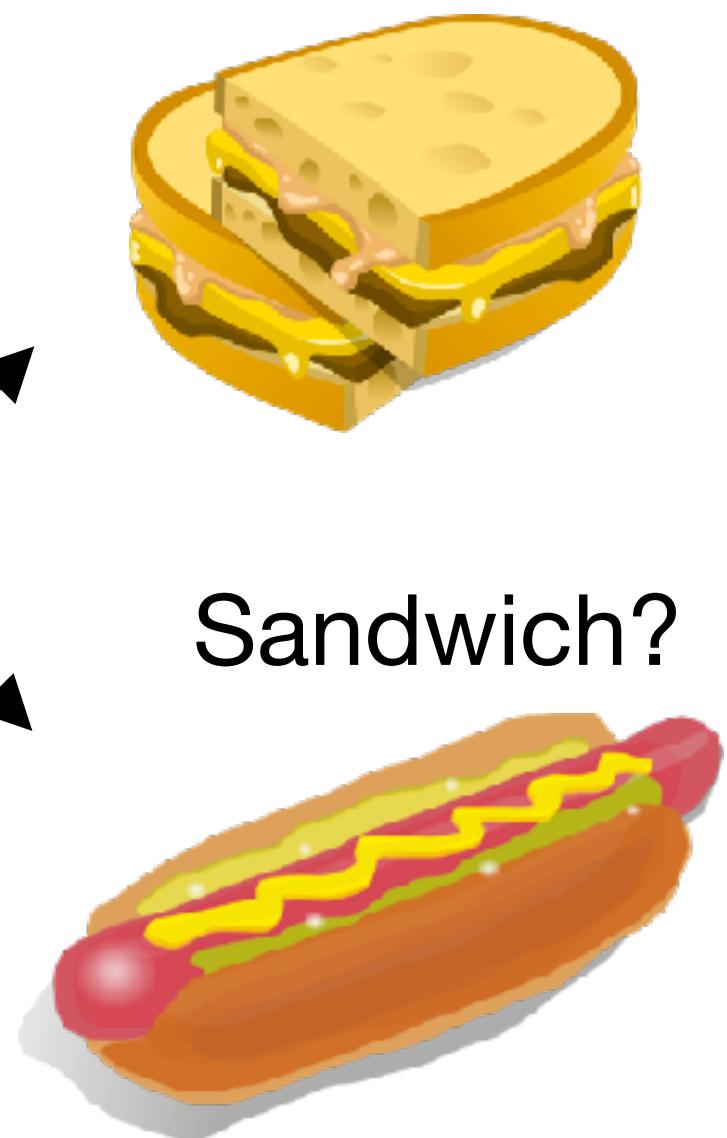
From Concepts to Functions

Concept Learning as Classification

Previous Experiences



Sandwich!

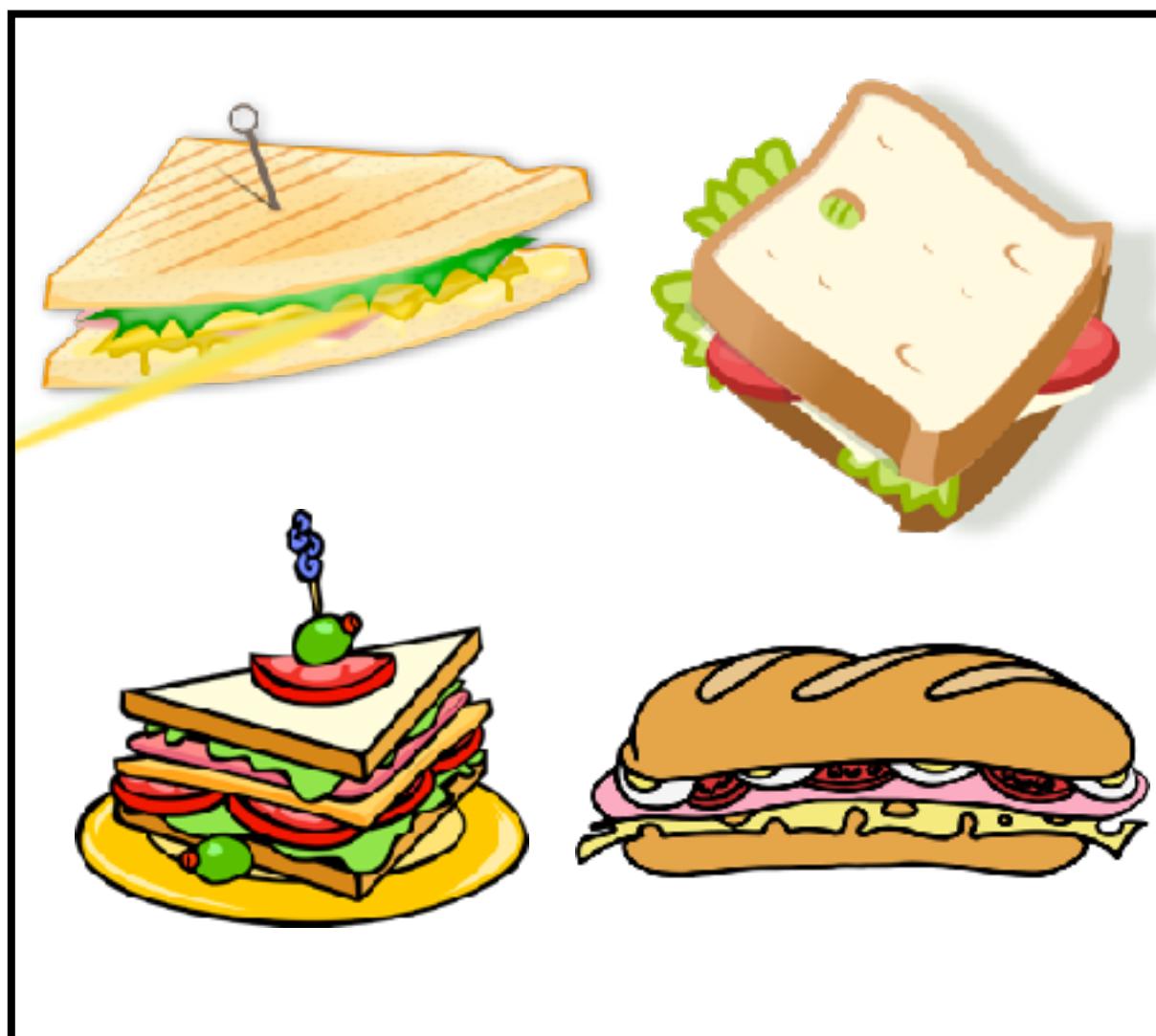


Function learning as Regression

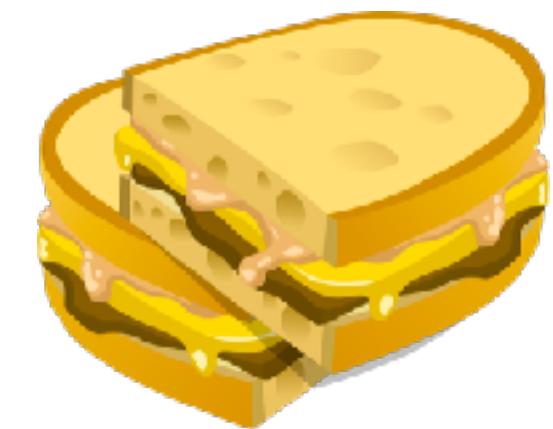
From Concepts to Functions

Concept Learning as Classification

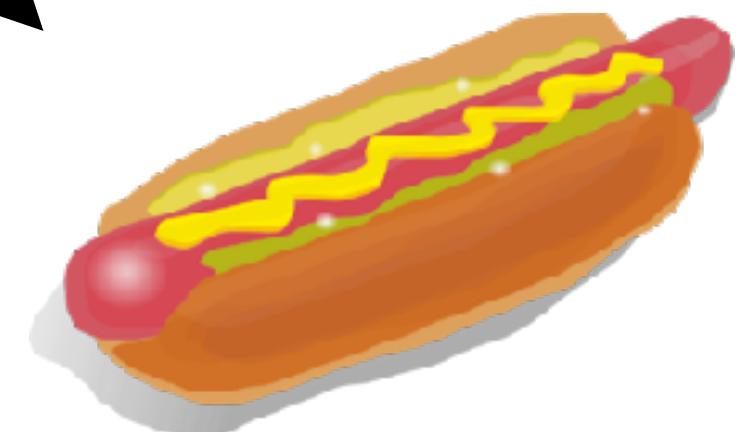
Previous Experiences



Sandwich!

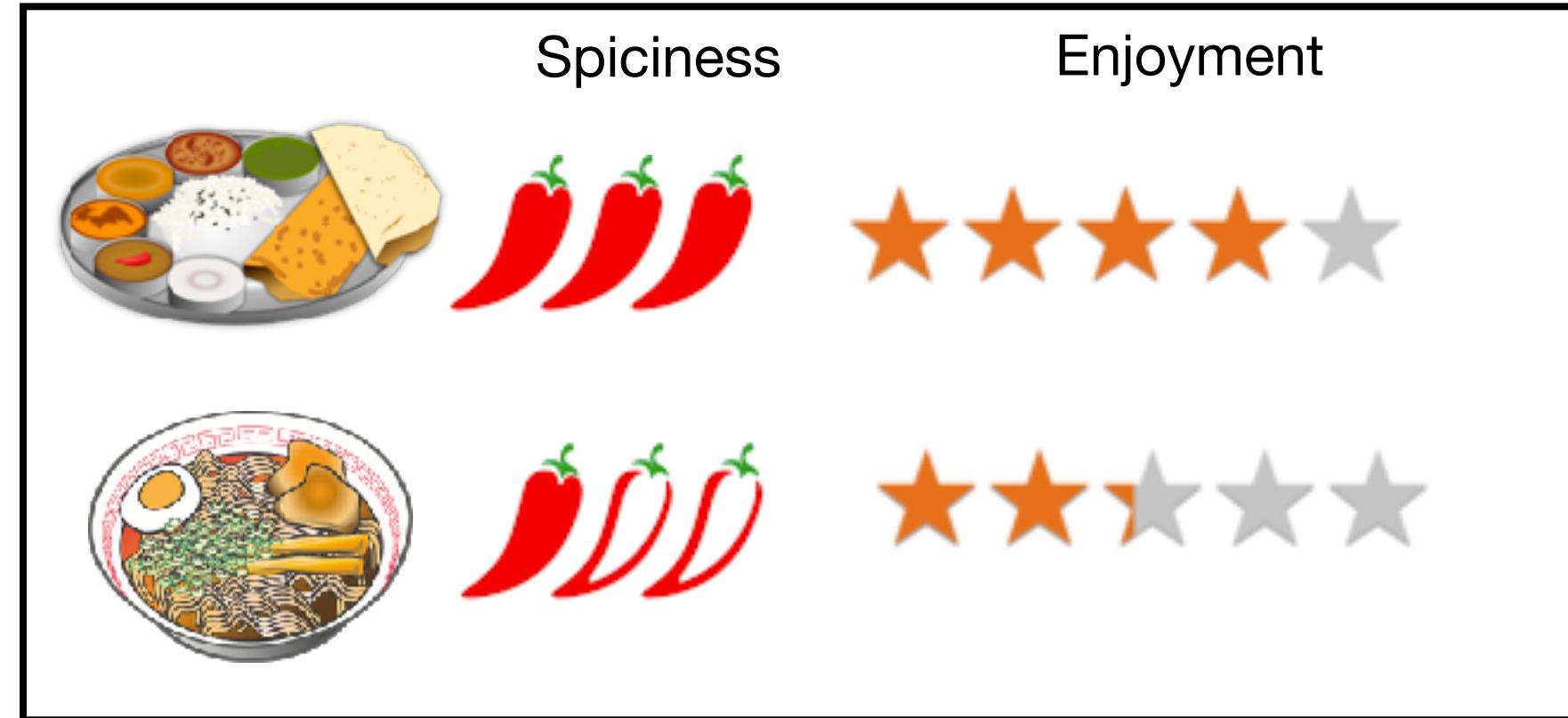


Sandwich?



Function learning as Regression

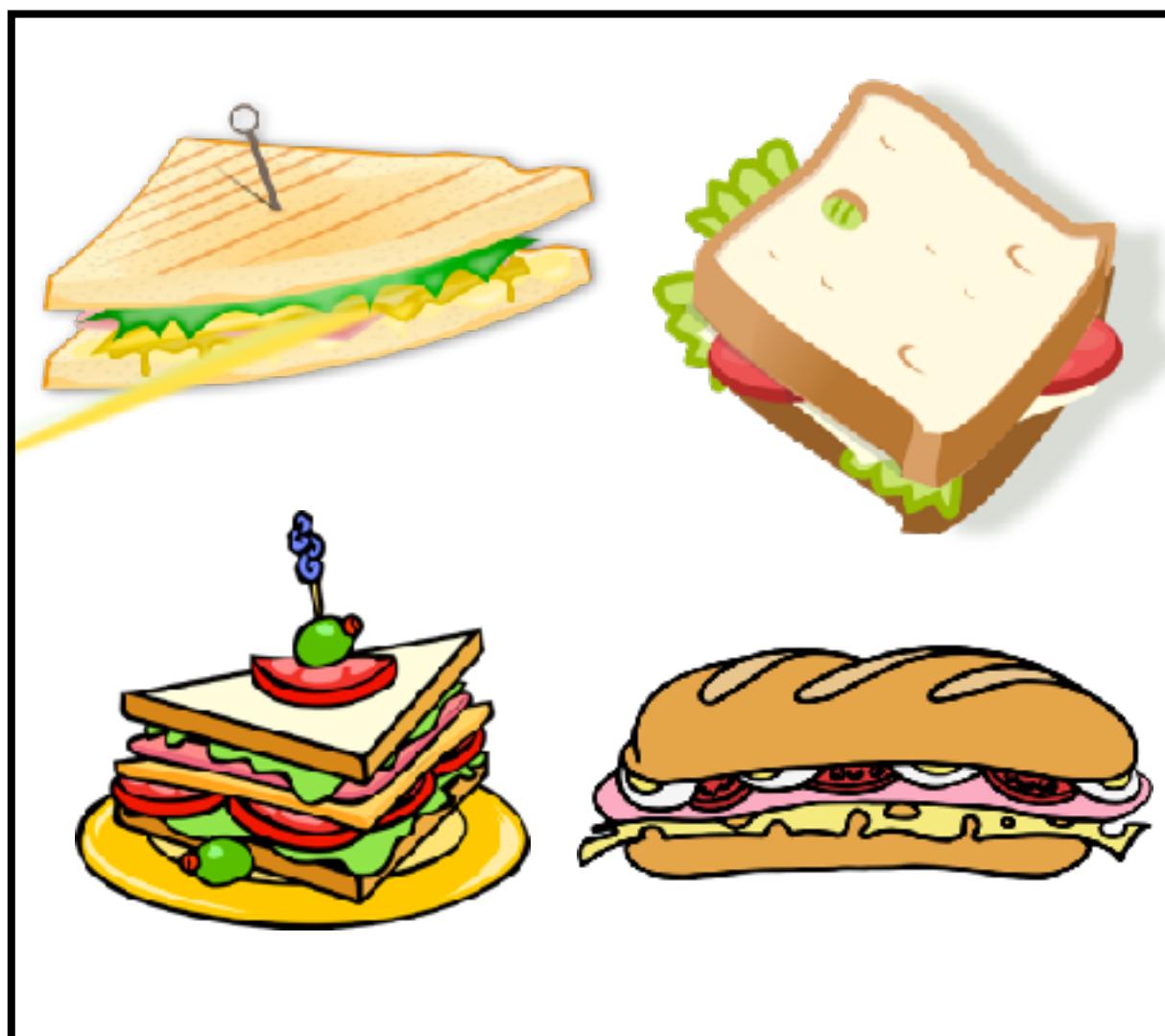
Previous Experiences



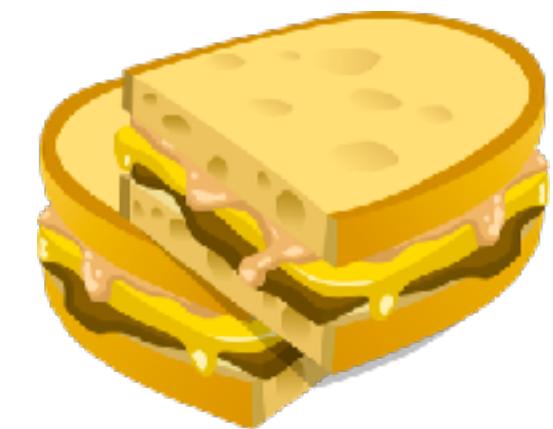
From Concepts to Functions

Concept Learning as Classification

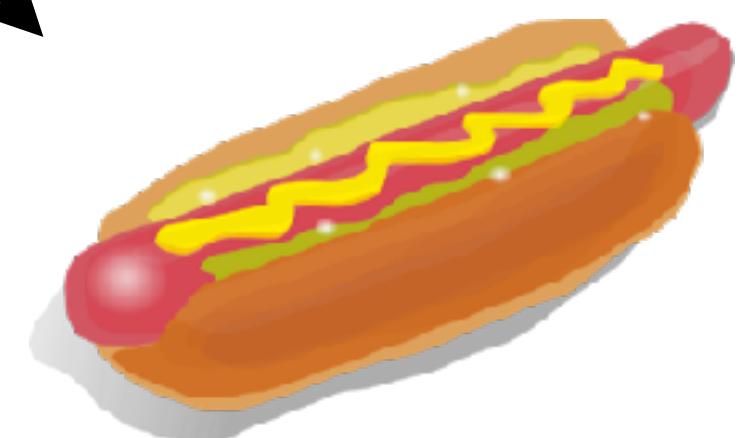
Previous Experiences



Sandwich!

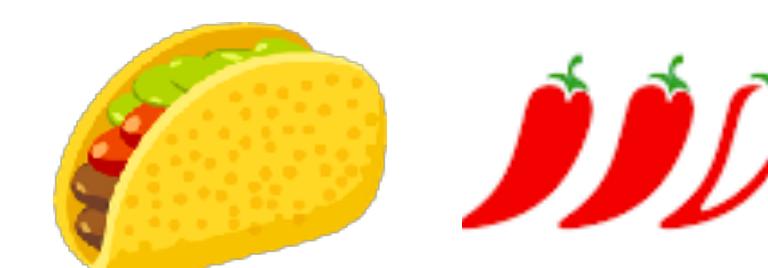
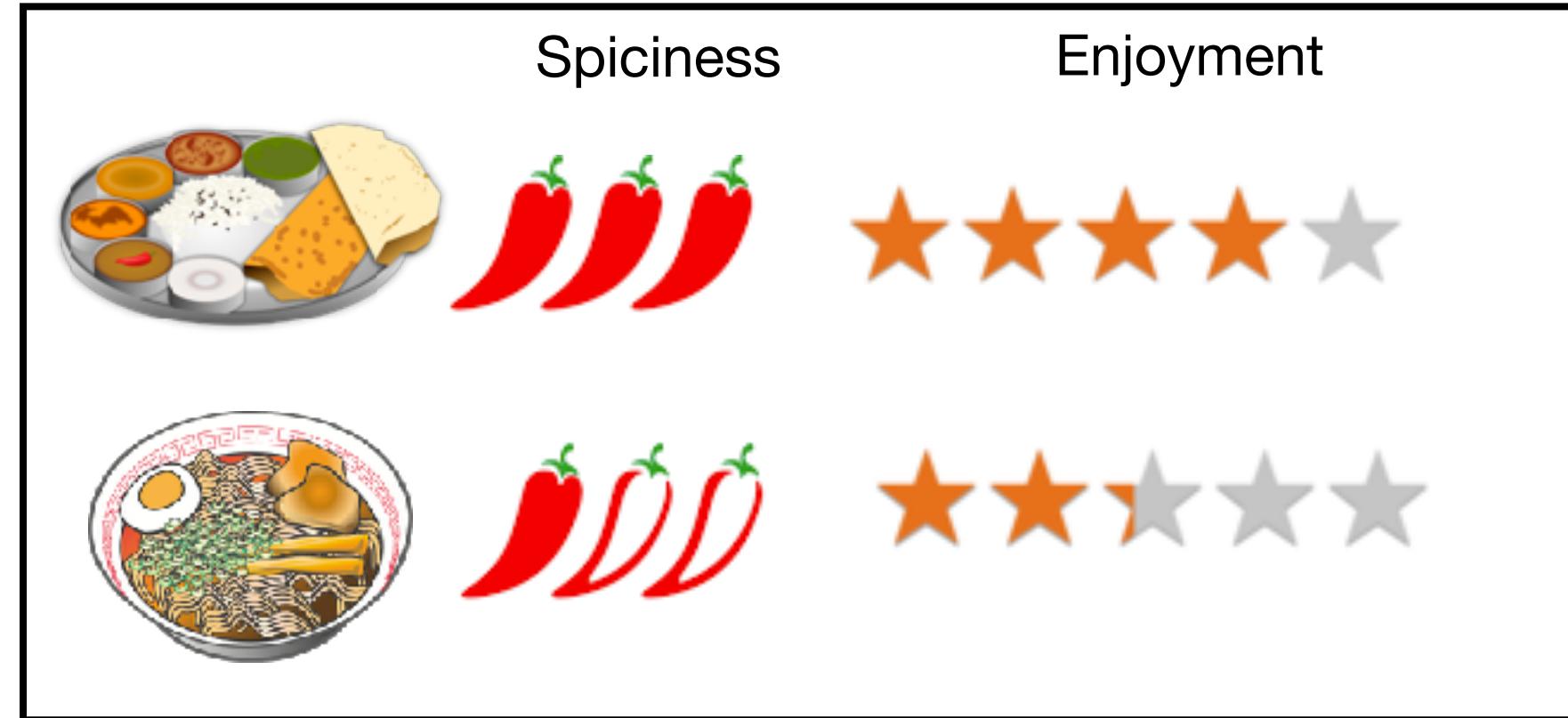


Sandwich?



Function learning as Regression

Previous Experiences



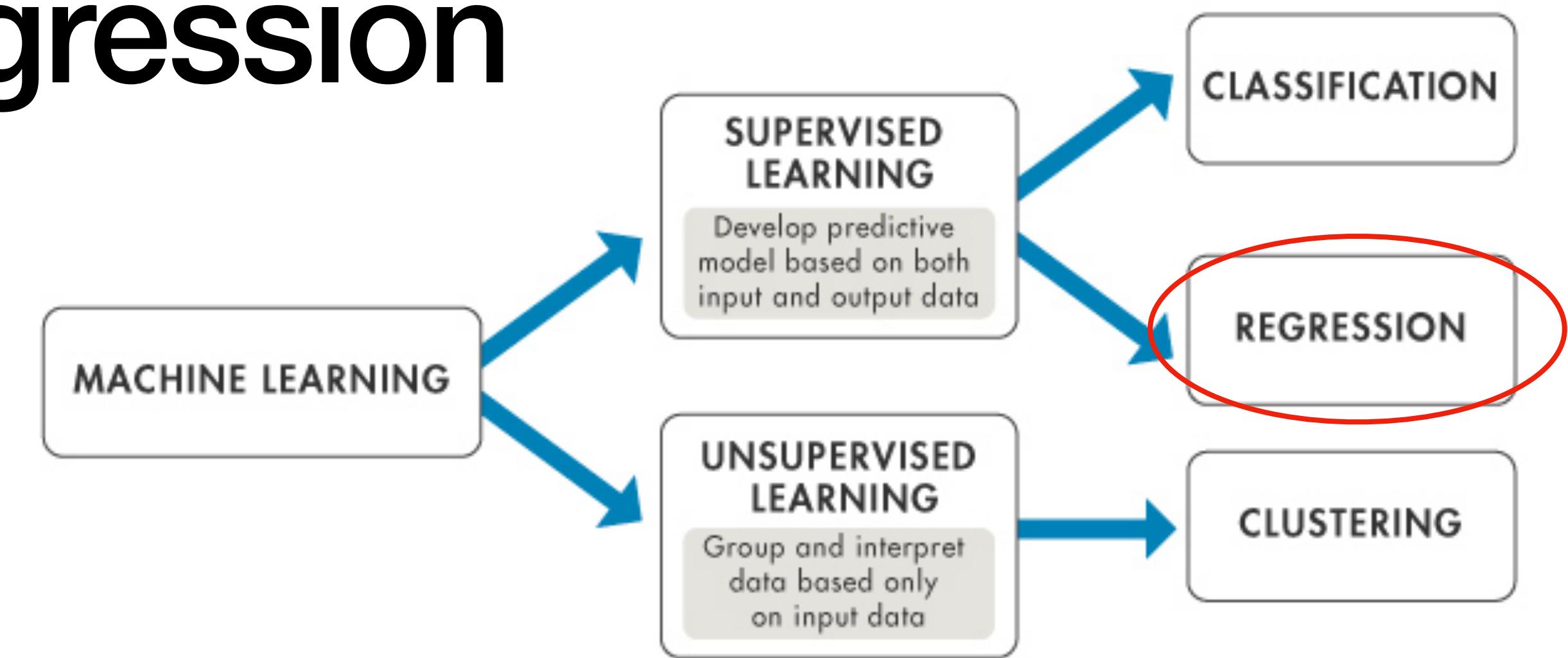
?

Today's agenda

- Early Psychological research on how people learn explicit functions
 - Rule-based
 - Similarity-based
 - Hybrid using Bayesian function learning
- Implicit function learning as a key part of generalization in RL
- Modeling human generalization and exploration in RL
 - Spatially correlated bandit (Wu et al., 2018; Giron et al., 2023)
 - Generalization to abstract (Wu et al., 2020) and graph-structured domains (Wu et al., 2021)
 - Open challenges

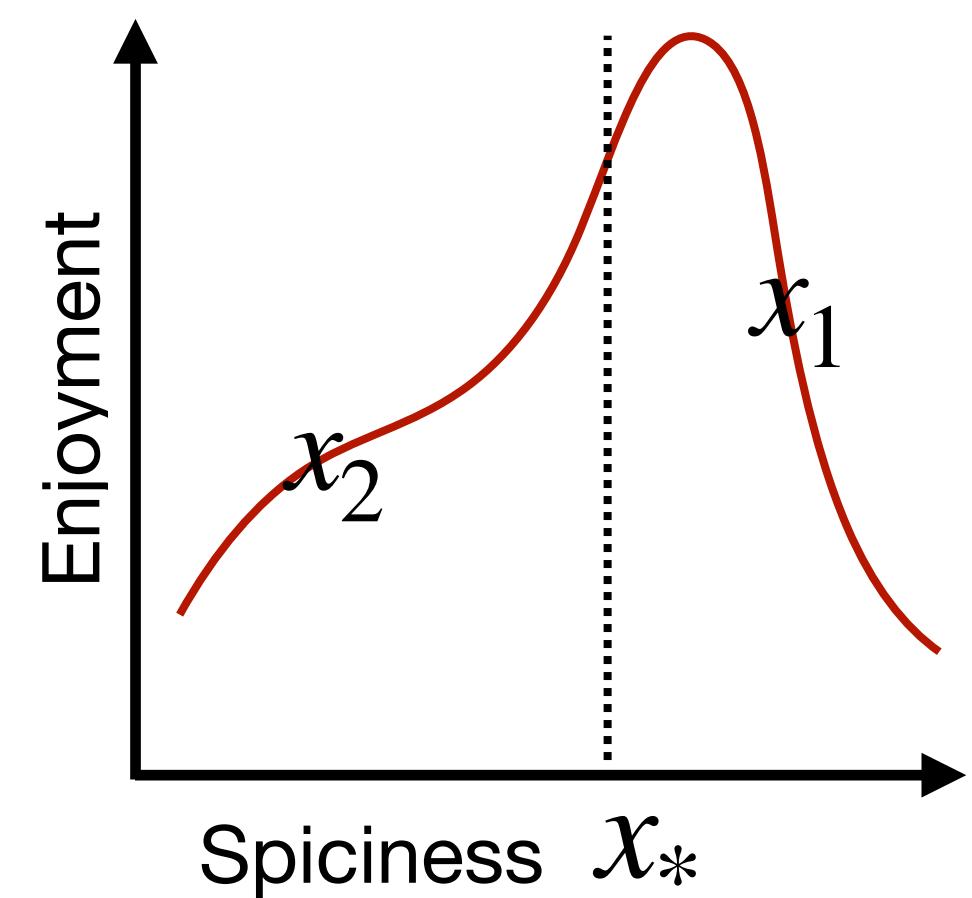
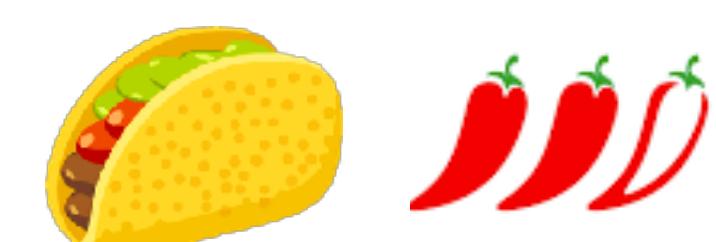
Function learning as regression

- **Regression** is that other branch of supervised learning problems we previously skipped over
- Rather than predicting *discrete* categories, we want to learn to predict a *continuous* real-valued variable
 - Learning a function mapping input space X to target variable Y
$$f: X \rightarrow Y \text{ where } y = f(x)$$
 - To make a prediction about so new situation x_* , we simply evaluate the function: $y_* = f(x_*)$
 - *But how do we learn this function?* For any set of datapoints, there are an infinite number of functions that pass through them



Previous Experiences

	Spiciness	Enjoyment



Theories of Function Learning

Regression task

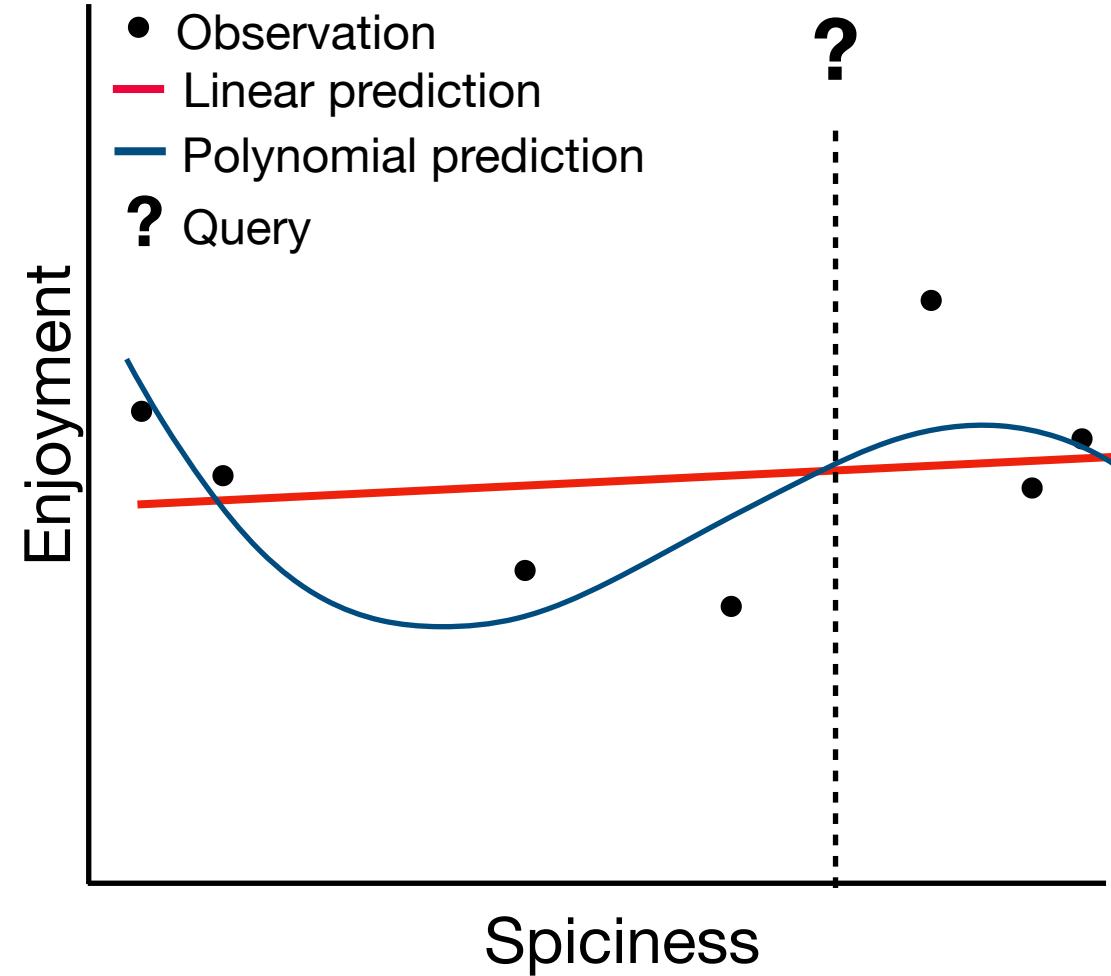


Theories of Function Learning

Regression task



Rule-based



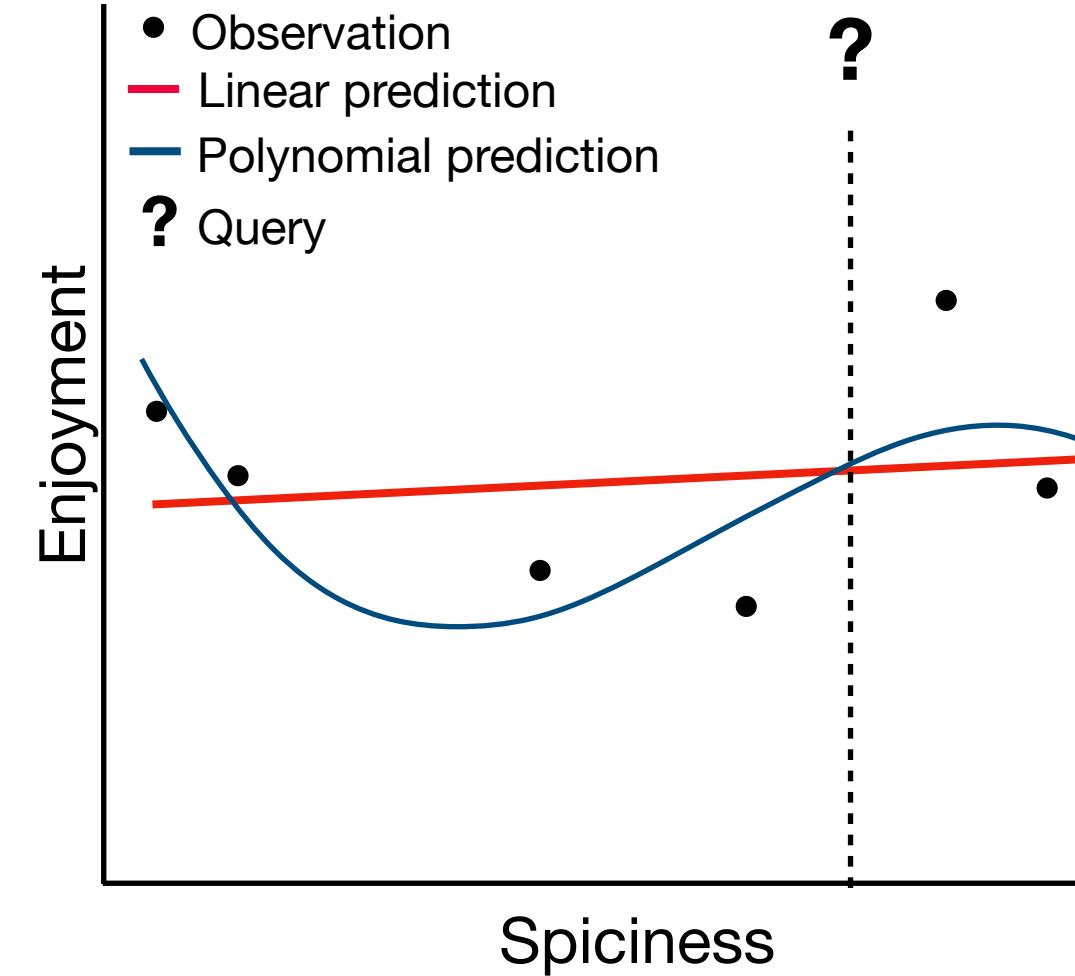
- *Rules* describe an explicit parametric family of candidate functions (e.g., linear or polynomial)
(Carroll, 1963; Brehmer, 1976)

Theories of Function Learning

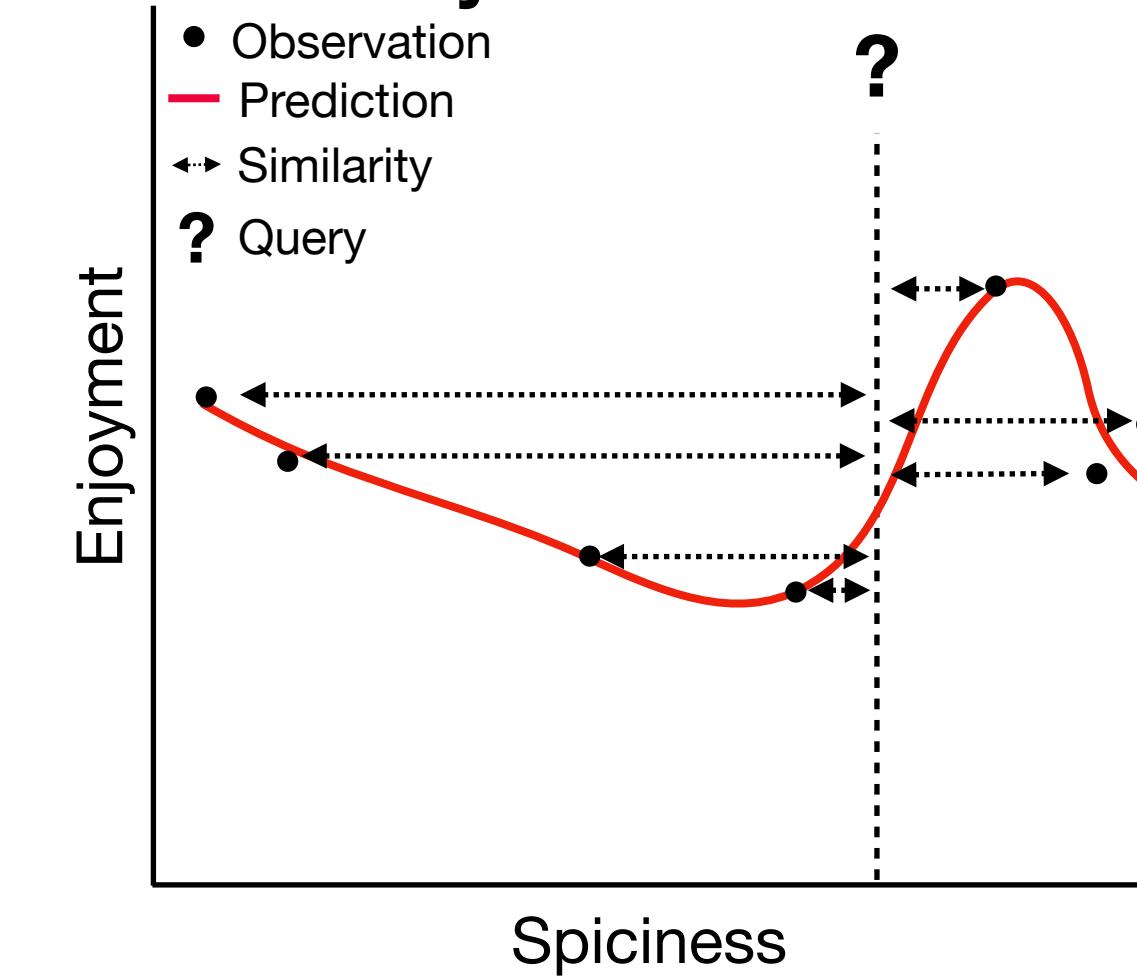
Regression task



Rule-based



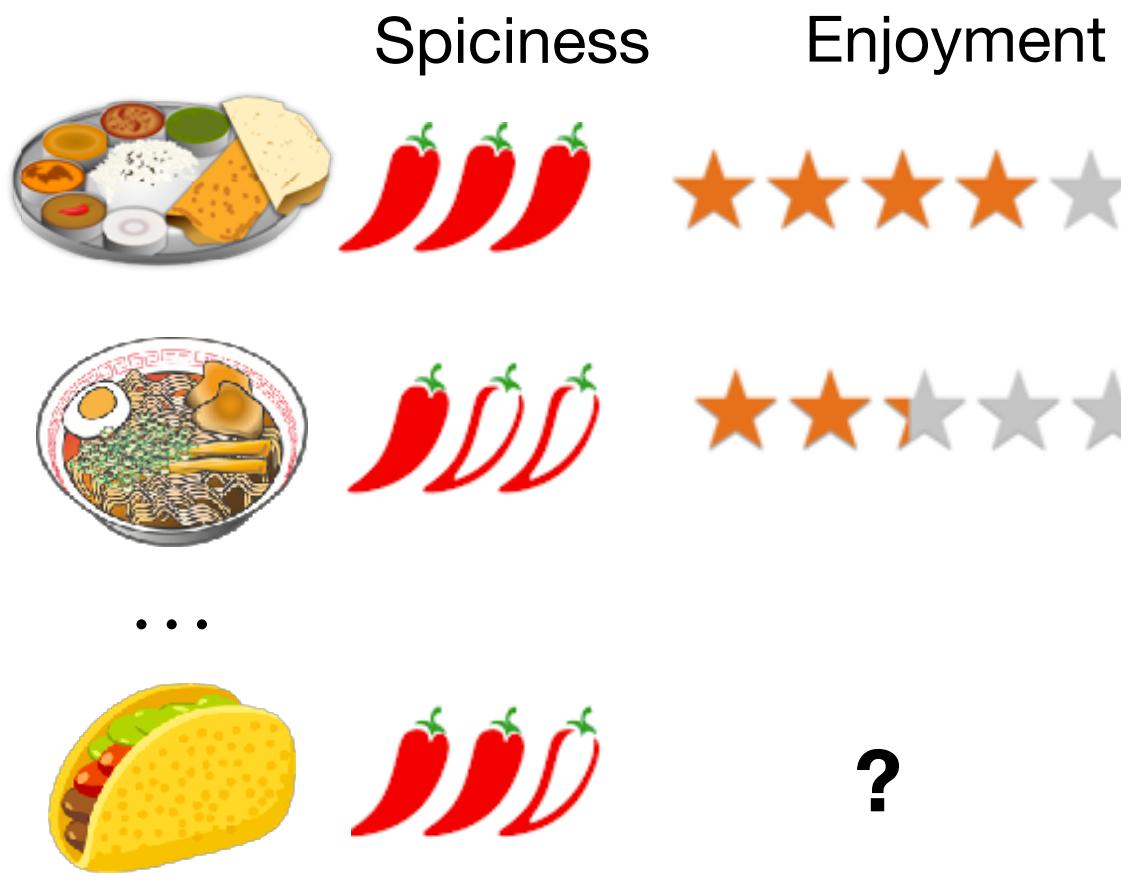
Similarity-based



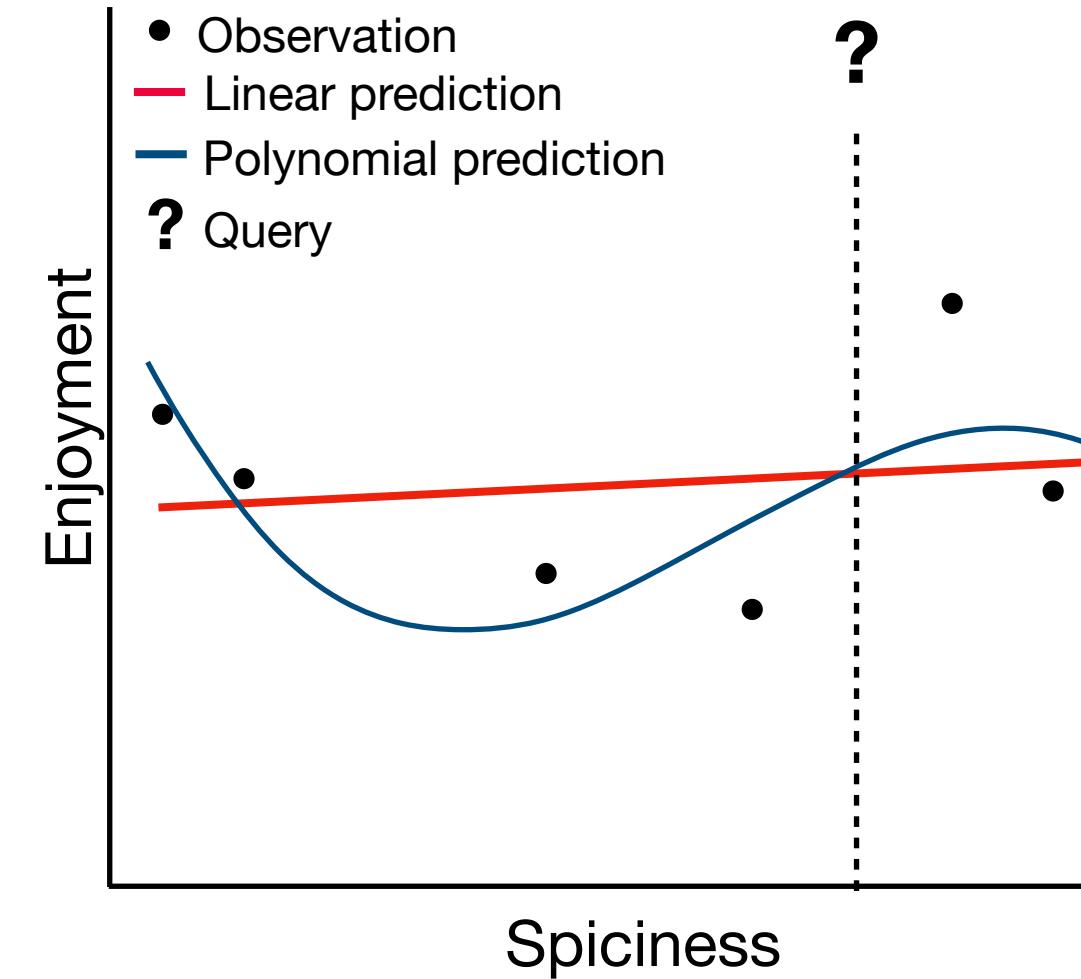
- *Rules* describe an explicit parametric family of candidate functions (e.g., linear or polynomial)
(Carroll, 1963; Brehmer, 1976)
- *Similarity* uses the generic principle that similar inputs produce similar outputs (often learned using ANNs) as the basis of generalization
(McClelland et al., 1986; Busemeyer et al., 1997)

Theories of Function Learning

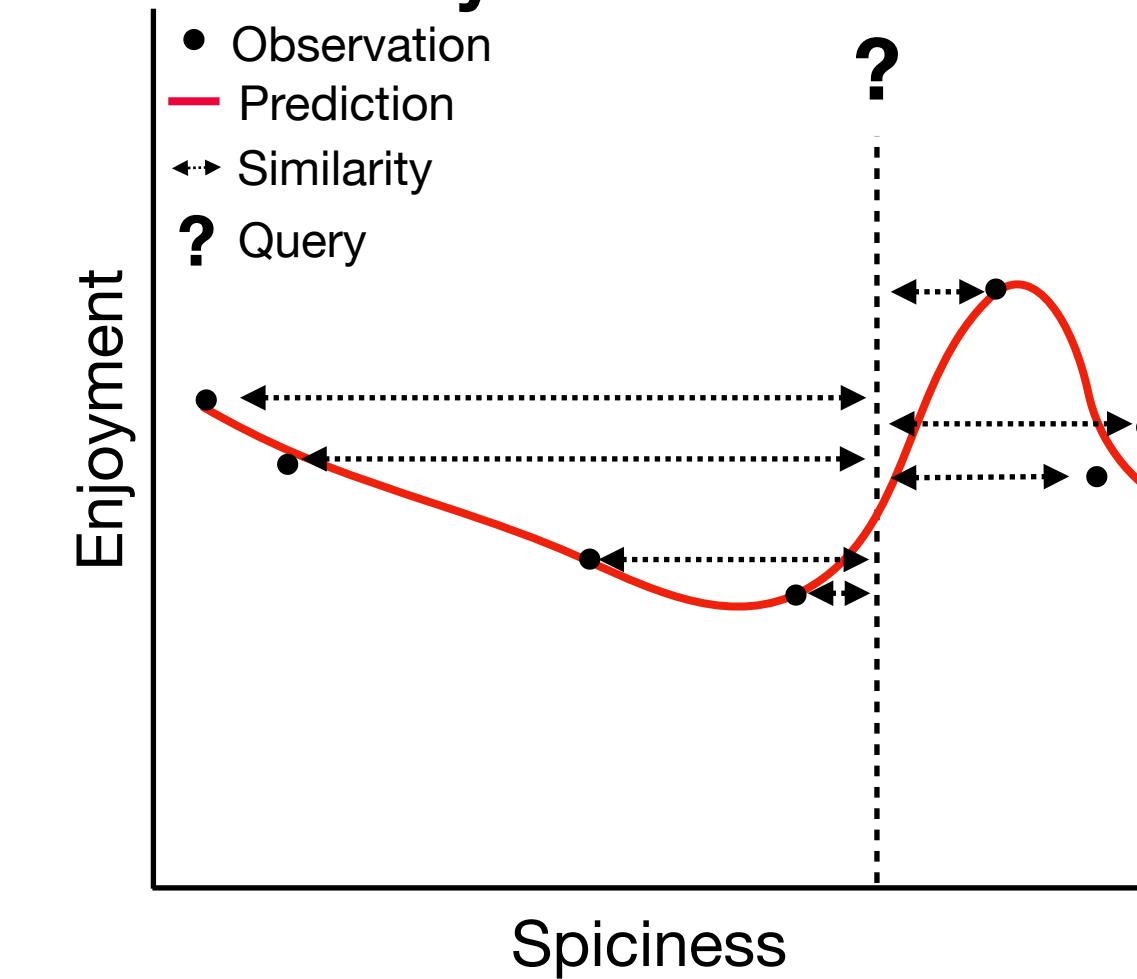
Regression task



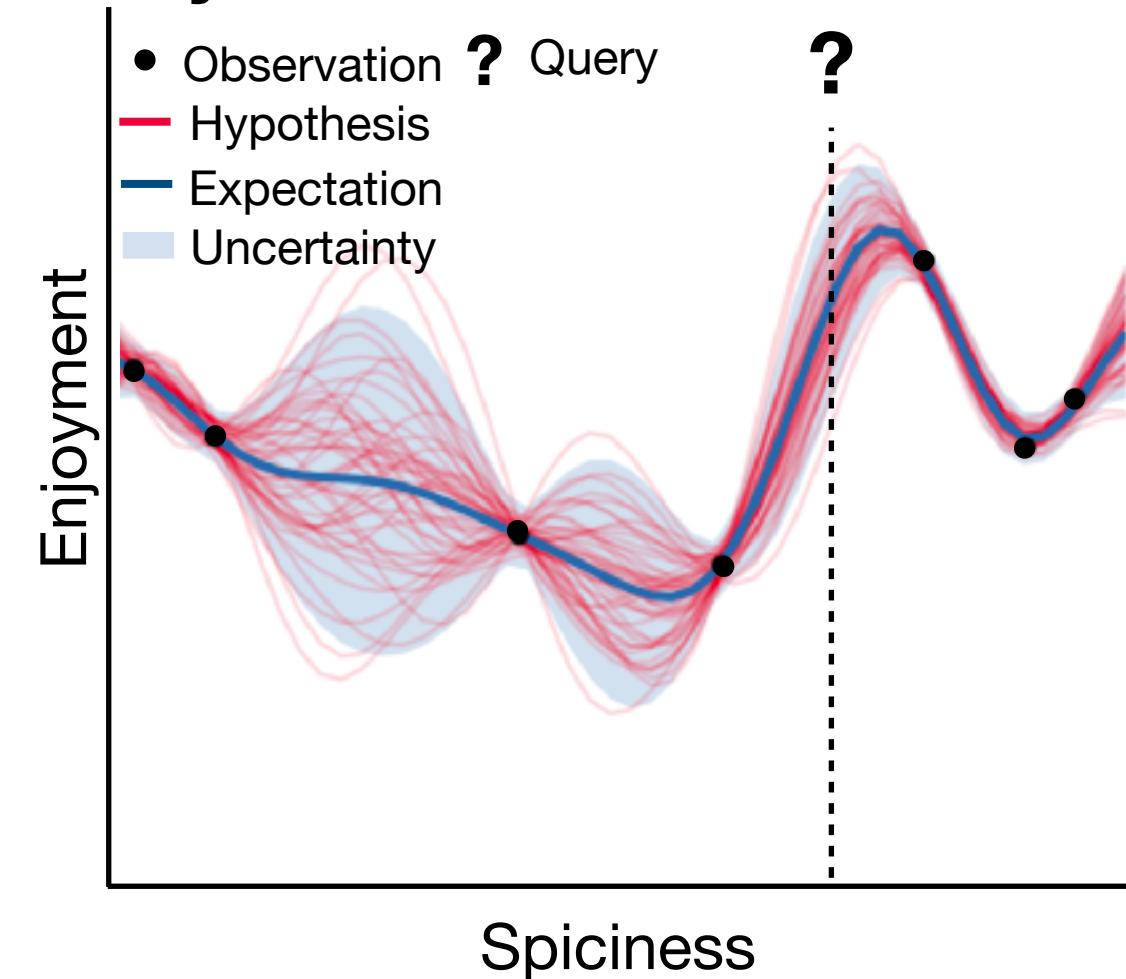
Rule-based



Similarity-based



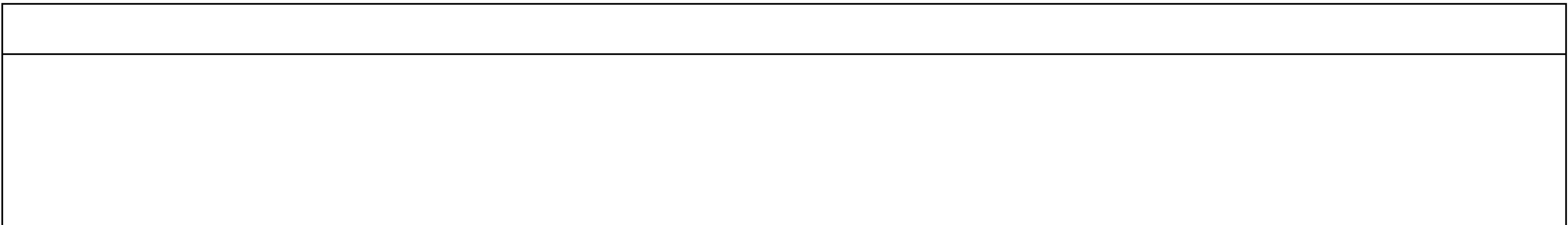
Hybrid



- *Rules* describe an explicit parametric family of candidate functions (e.g., linear or polynomial)
(Carroll, 1963; Brehmer, 1976)
- *Similarity* uses the generic principle that similar inputs produce similar outputs (often learned using ANNs) as the basis of generalization
(McClelland et al., 1986; Busemeyer et al., 1997)
- *Hybrids* combine elements of both: Gaussian process (GP) regression uses kernel similarity to learn a distribution over functions, and can compositionally combine kernels like we can combine multiple rules
(Rasmussen & Williams, 2005; Mercer, PhilTransRoySoc 1909; Lucas et al., PBR 2015)

Rule-based theories of function learning

- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$



Rule-based theories of function learning

- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$

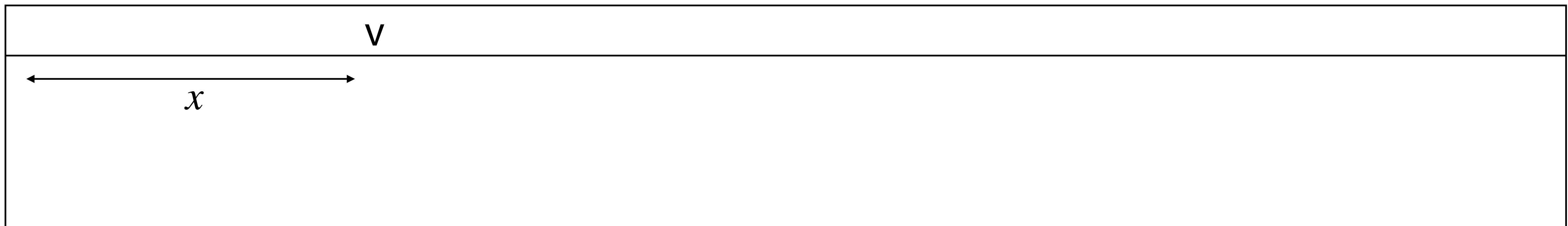
stimuli

V

Rule-based theories of function learning

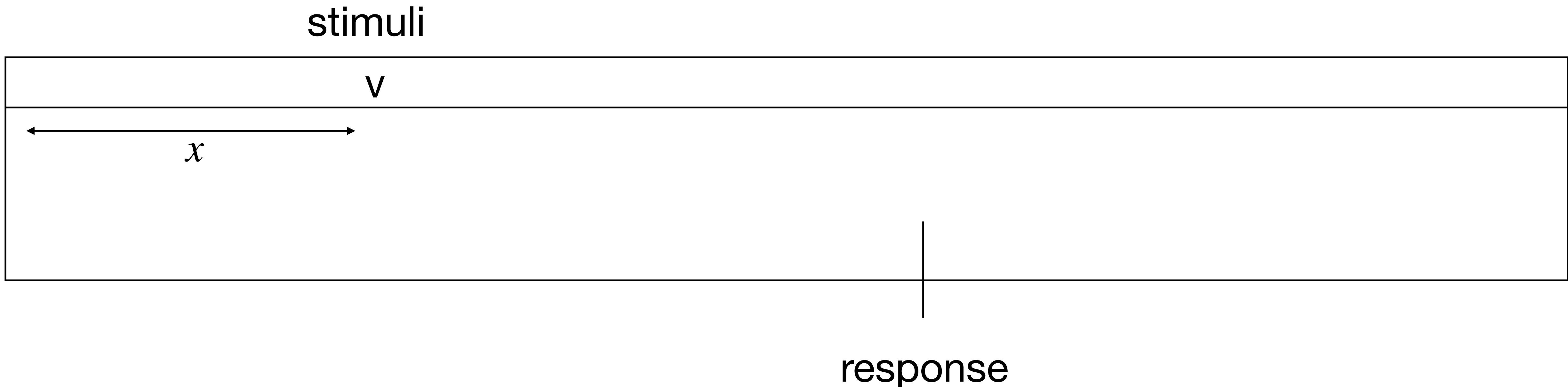
- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$

stimuli



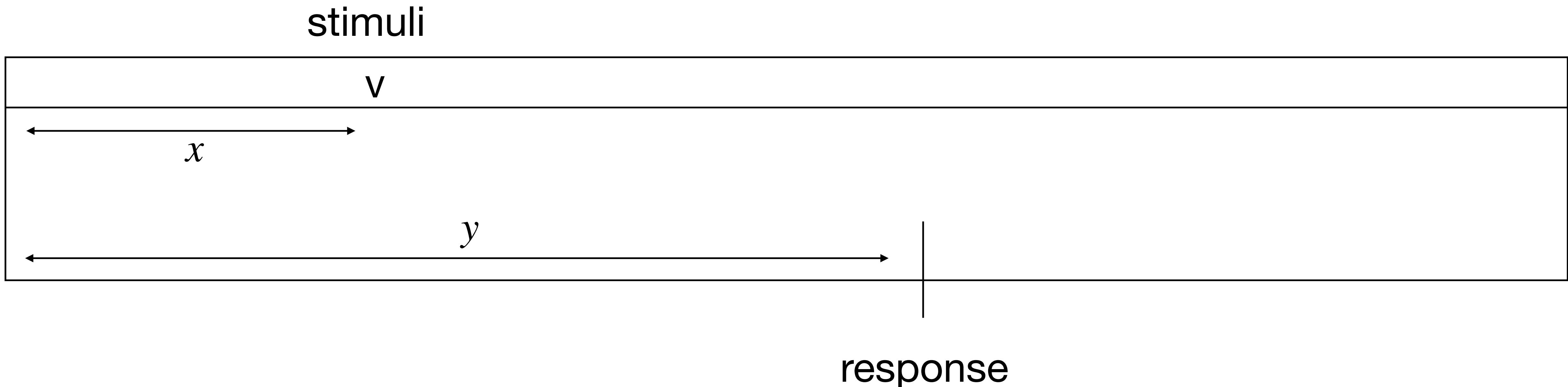
Rule-based theories of function learning

- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$



Rule-based theories of function learning

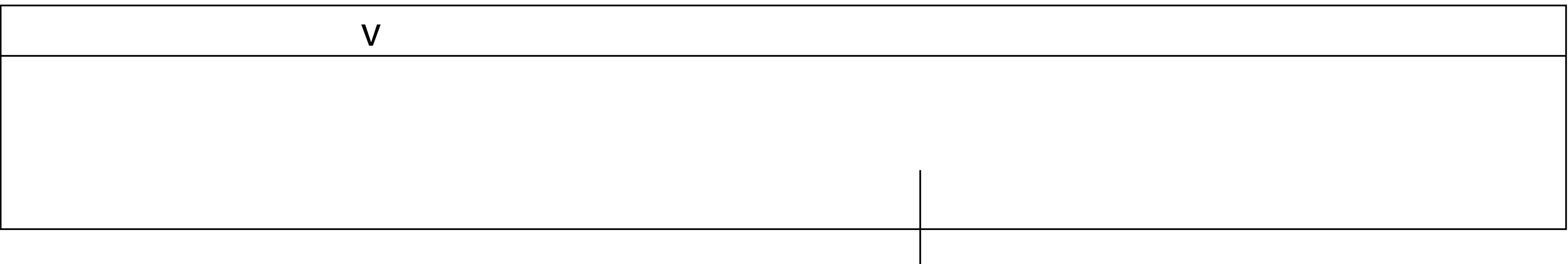
- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$



Rule-based theories of function learning

- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$

stimuli



response

Rule-based theories of function learning

- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$

stimuli

v



response

Rule-based theories of function learning

- Carroll (1963) was one of the first to study how people learned continuous mappings between stimuli and responses
 - Rather than learning discrete S-R associations, people learn functions
 - Functions are not just a response, but correspond to a set of rules or programs, allowing for interpolation and extrapolation
- Experiment using relationships such as $y = 1.22x + 1.0$ or $y = -5.1x + 0.2x^2 + 32.60$

stimuli

v



response

Results and interpretation

- Participants were shown arbitrary relationships between x and y in the training regime
- ... their responses showed that they learned functions rather than just discrete associations, based on ability to *interpolate* and *extrapolate*
- In general, participants had an inductive biases for simpler functions (e.g., lower degree polynomial)
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed people learn functions by estimating the parameters for a class of functions (e.g., polynomials) using a process equivalent to regression
 - The class of function corresponds to a hypothesized **rule** about the relationship between variables
 - e.g., the law of gravity: $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r}$

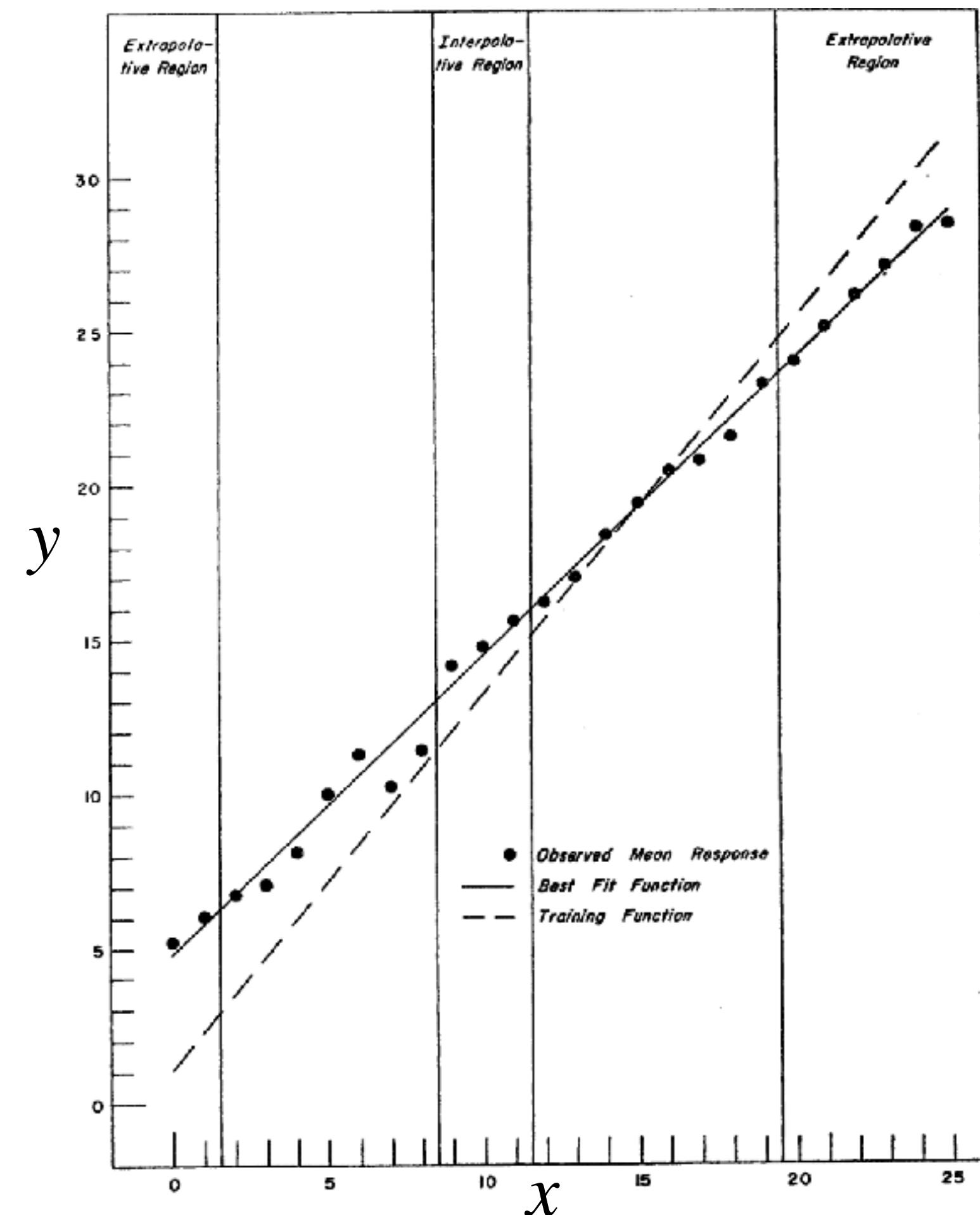


Fig. 3. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #4, condition I.

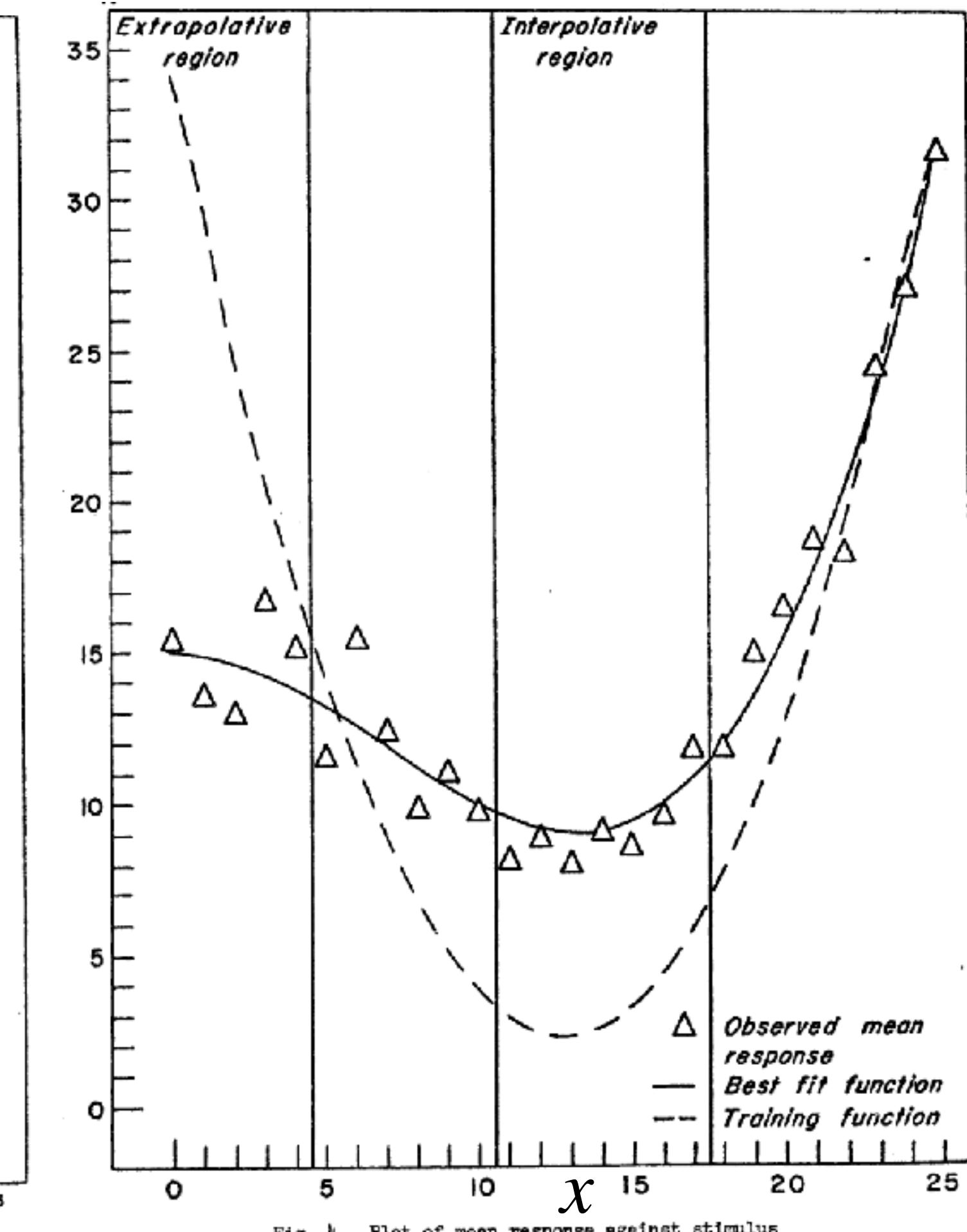


Fig. 4. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #20, condition III.

Results and interpretation

- Participants were shown arbitrary relationships between x and y in the training regime
- ... their responses showed that they learned functions rather than just discrete associations, based on ability to *interpolate* and *extrapolate*
- In general, participants had an inductive biases for simpler functions (e.g., lower degree polynomial)
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed people learn functions by estimating the parameters for a class of functions (e.g., polynomials) using a process equivalent to regression
 - The class of function corresponds to a hypothesized **rule** about the relationship between variables
 - e.g., the law of gravity: $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r}$

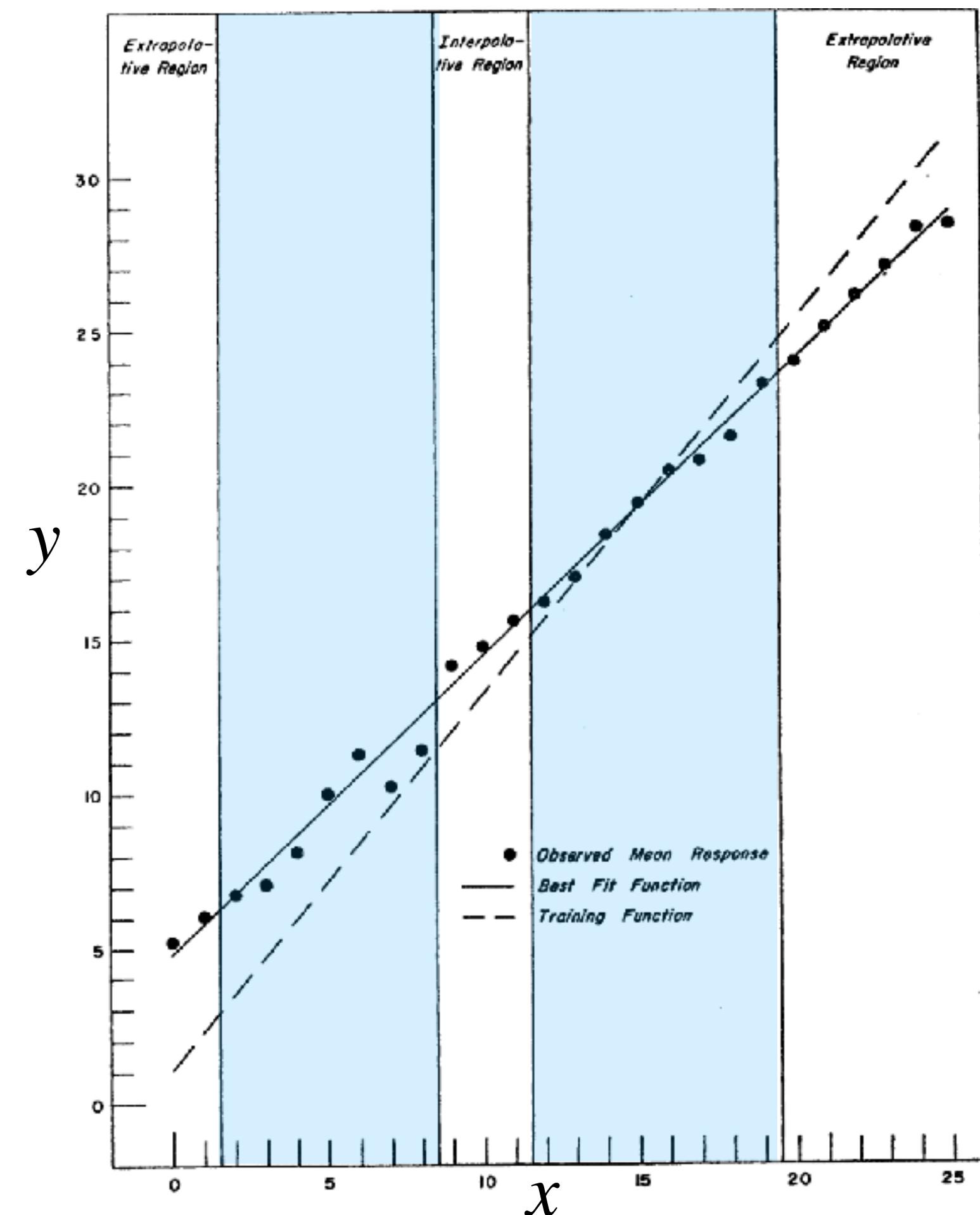


Fig. 3. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #4, condition I.

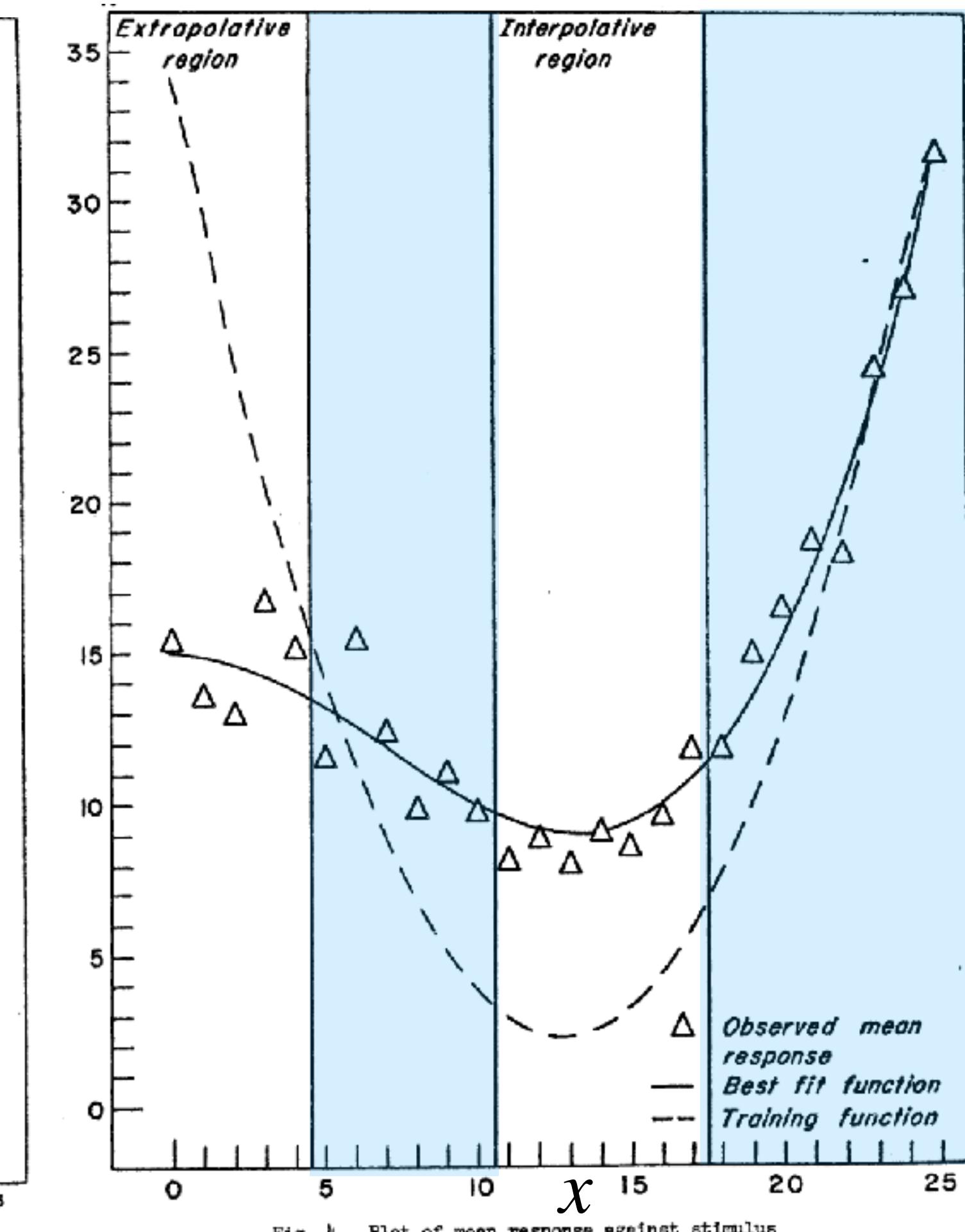


Fig. 4. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #20, condition III.

Results and interpretation

- Participants were shown arbitrary relationships between x and y in the training regime
- ... their responses showed that they learned functions rather than just discrete associations, based on ability to *interpolate* and *extrapolate*
- In general, participants had an inductive biases for simpler functions (e.g., lower degree polynomial)
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed people learn functions by estimating the parameters for a class of functions (e.g., polynomials) using a process equivalent to regression
 - The class of function corresponds to a hypothesized **rule** about the relationship between variables
 - e.g., the law of gravity: $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r}$

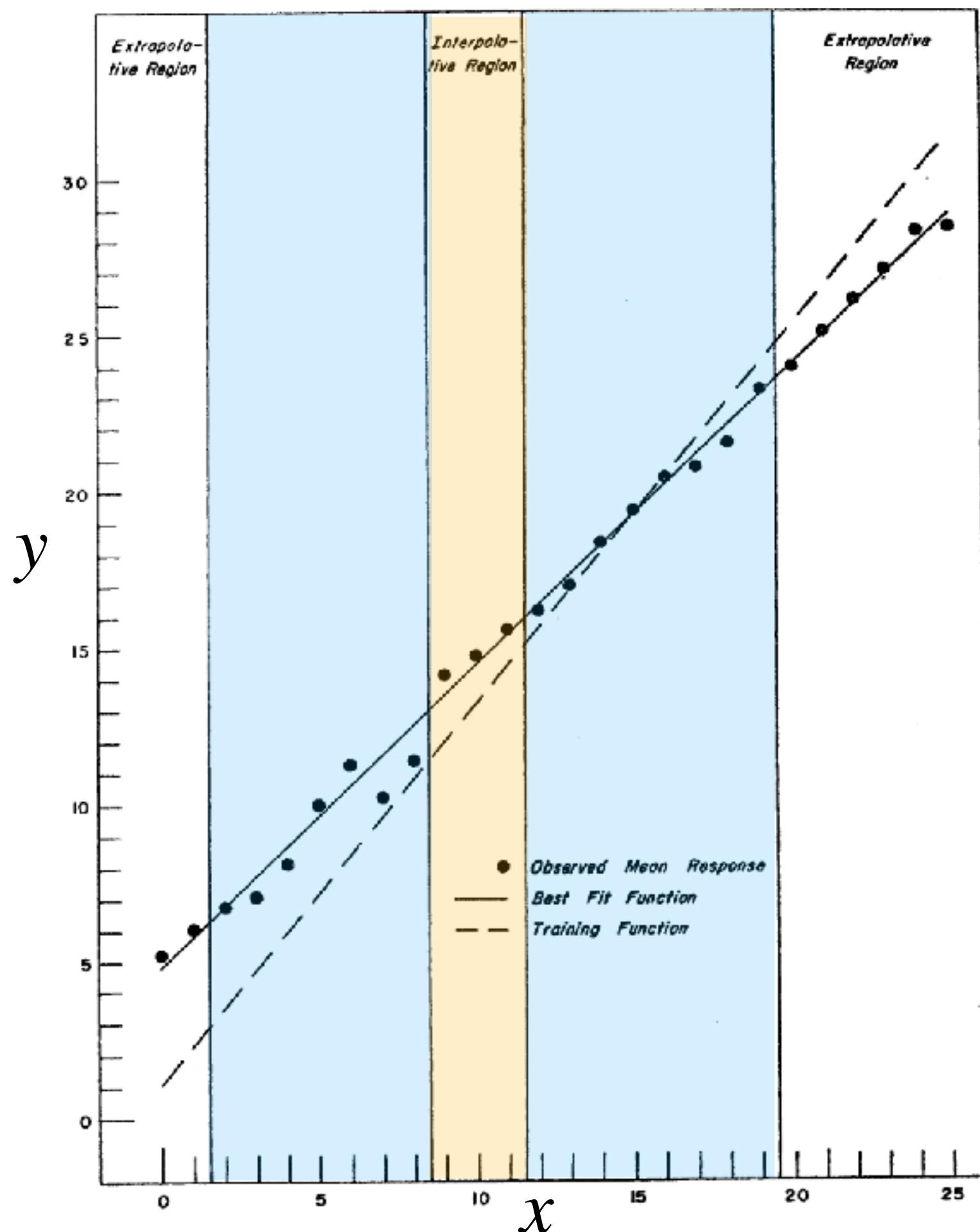


Fig. 3. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #4, condition I.

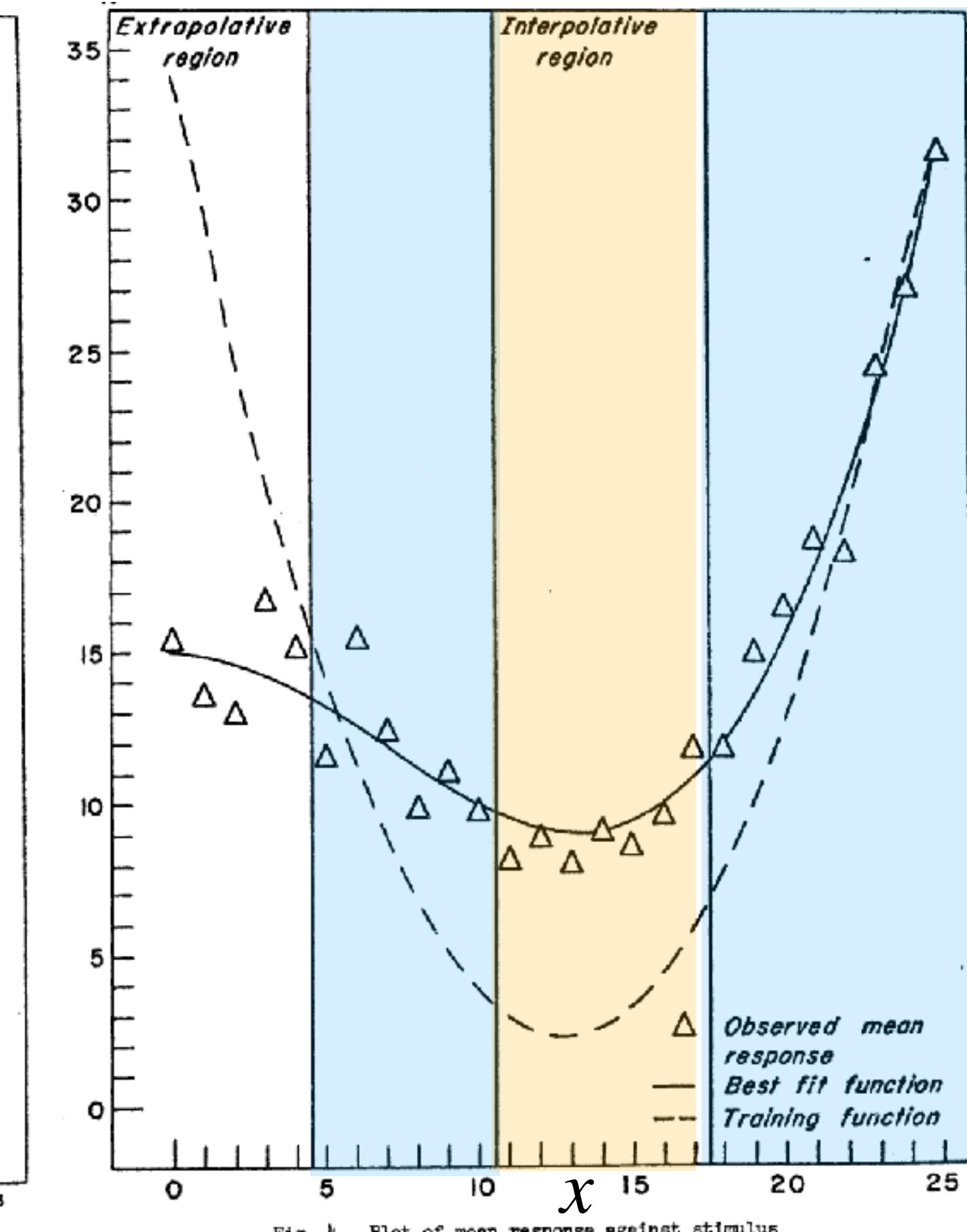


Fig. 4. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #20, condition III.

Results and interpretation

- Participants were shown arbitrary relationships between x and y in the training regime
- ... their responses showed that they learned functions rather than just discrete associations, based on ability to *interpolate* and *extrapolate*
- In general, participants had an inductive biases for simpler functions (e.g., lower degree polynomial)
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed people learn functions by estimating the parameters for a class of functions (e.g., polynomials) using a process equivalent to regression
 - The class of function corresponds to a hypothesized **rule** about the relationship between variables
 - e.g., the law of gravity: $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r}$

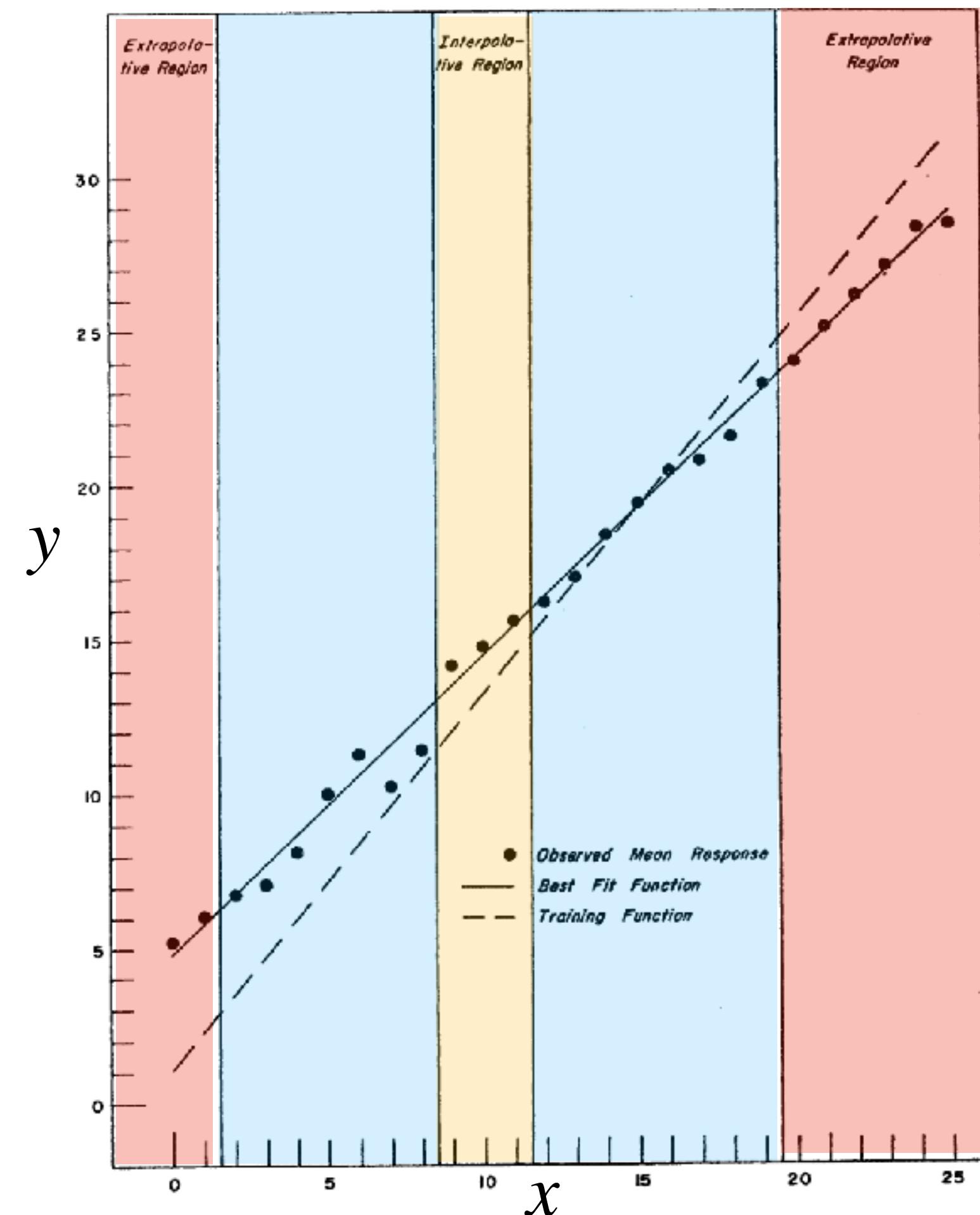


Fig. 3. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #4, condition I.

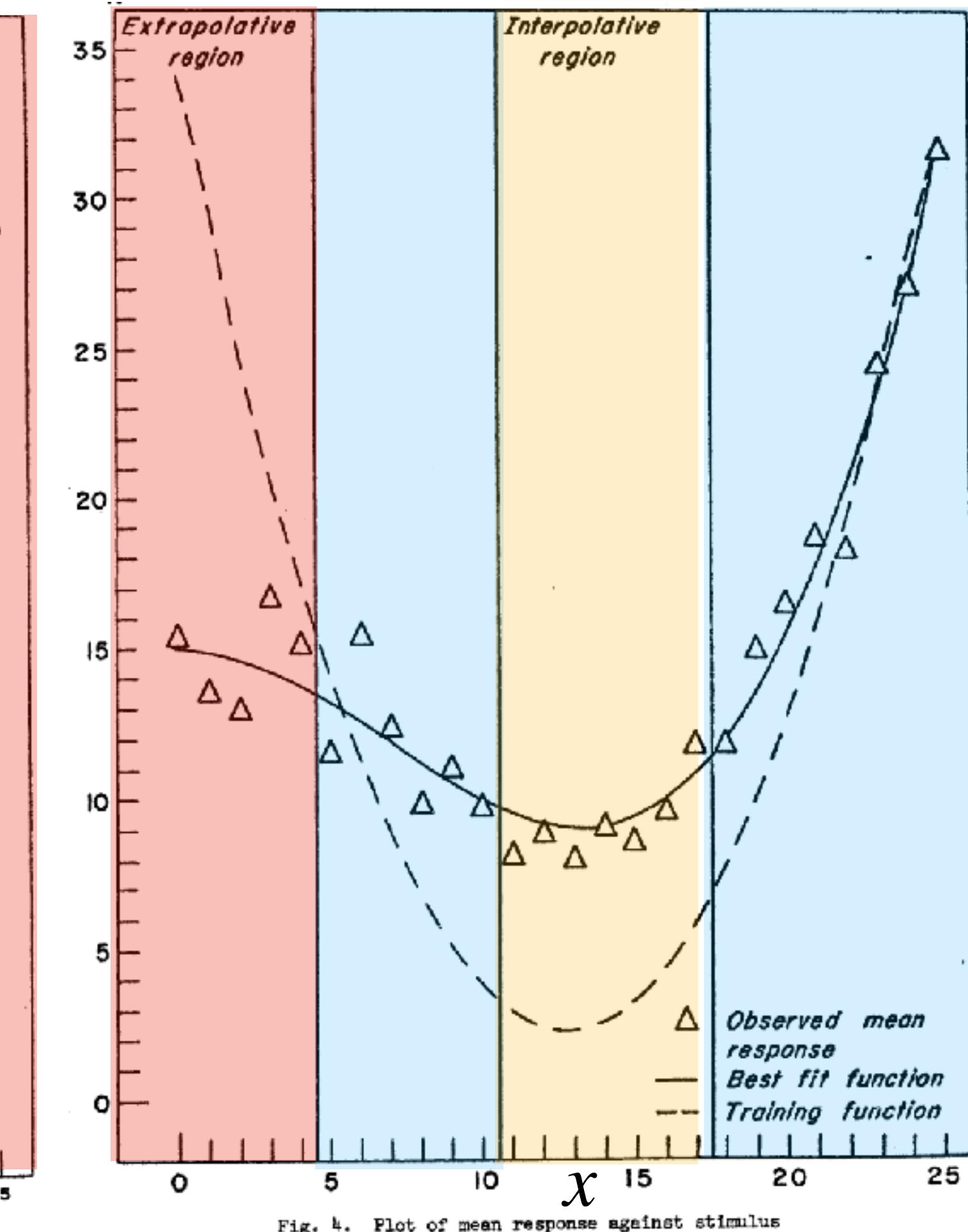
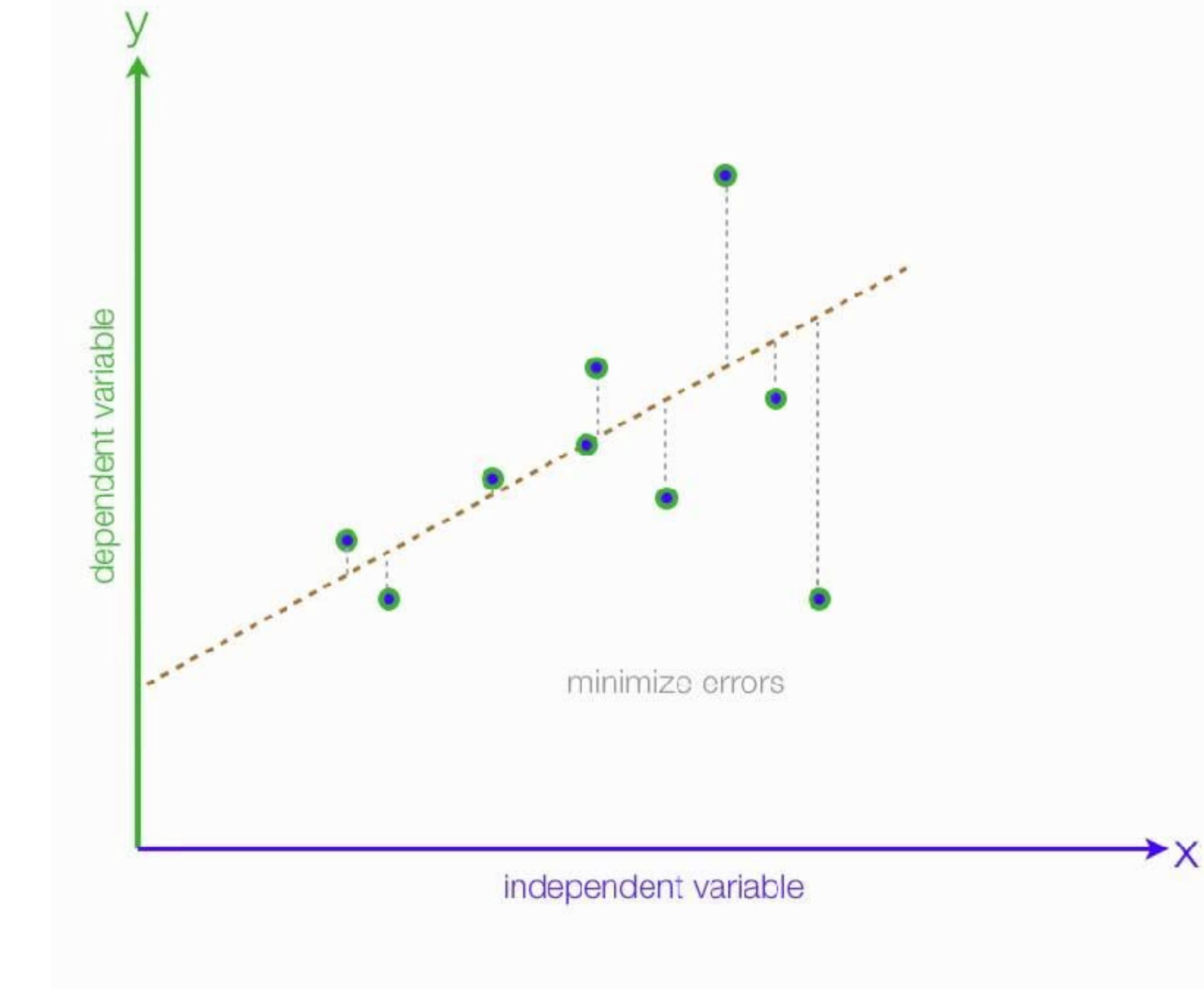


Fig. 4. Plot of mean response against stimulus for subject #20, condition III.

Linear regression

- *Find a line that minimizes errors*

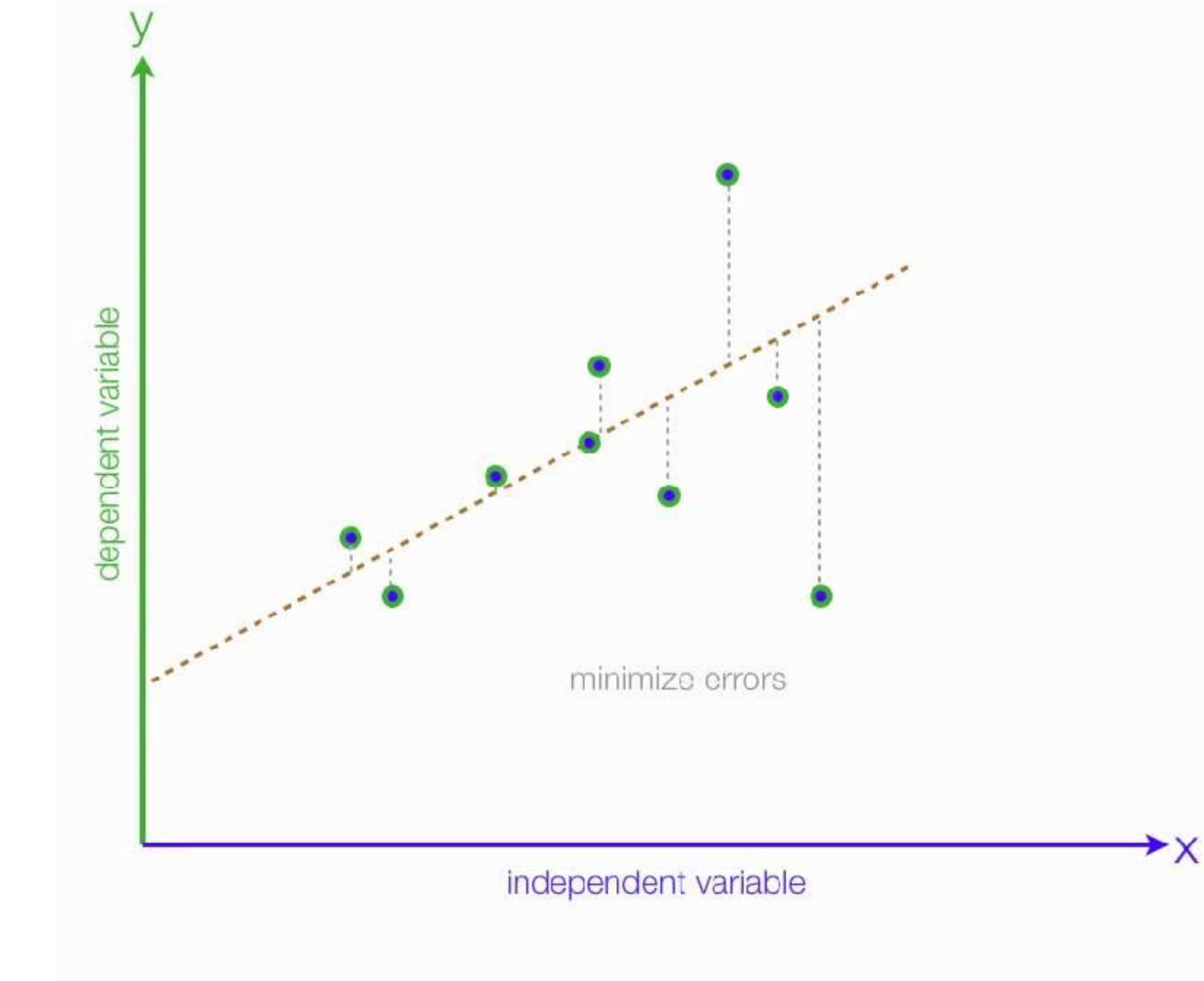


Linear regression

- Find a line that minimizes errors
- How you learn it in high school:

$$y = mx + b \quad \text{← intercept}$$

slope 



Linear regression

- Find a line that minimizes errors
- How you learn it in high school:

$$y = mx + b \quad \text{← intercept}$$

slope 

- Linear algebra version:

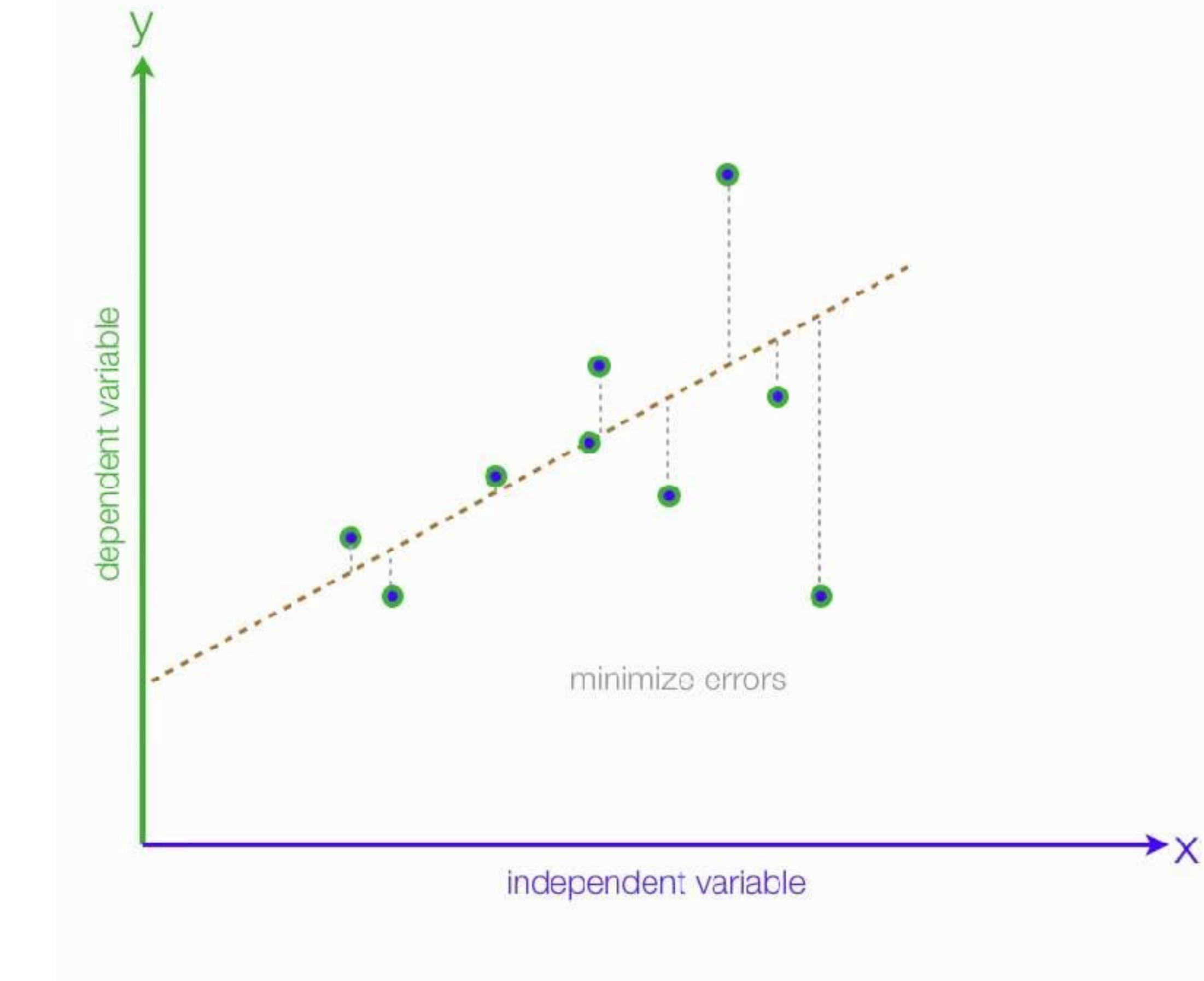
$$y = X^T \mathbf{w} + \epsilon$$

- X is a matrix of the data $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$

- We append $x_{i,0} = 1$ to each \mathbf{x}_i vector to account for the intercept

- \mathbf{w} are the *weights*

- $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$ is i.i.d. noise



Linear regression

- Find a line that minimizes errors
- How you learn it in high school:

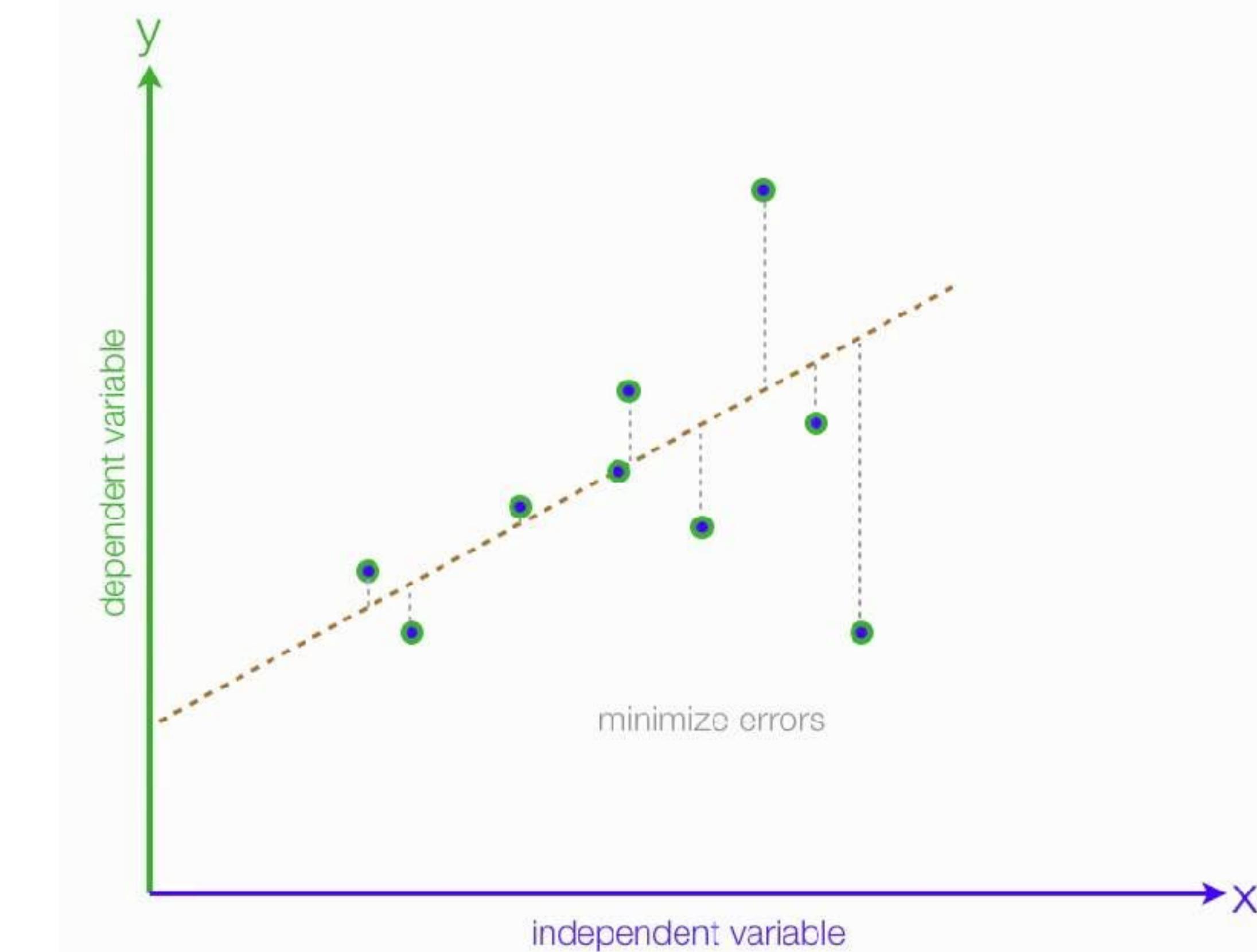
$$y = mx + b \quad \text{← intercept}$$

slope

- Linear algebra version:

$$y = X^T \mathbf{w} + \epsilon$$

- X is a matrix of the data $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$
- We append $x_{i,0} = 1$ to each \mathbf{x}_i vector to account for the intercept
- \mathbf{w} are the *weights*
- $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$ is i.i.d. noise



Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- MLE of weights can be found by minimizing the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS):
$$RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_i^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{w}\|^2$$
- An analytic solution is available through the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse (Penrose, 1955): $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$

Linear regression

- Find a line that minimizes errors
- How you learn it in high school:

$$y = mx + b \quad \begin{matrix} \leftarrow \text{intercept} \\ \text{slope} \end{matrix}$$

- Linear algebra version:

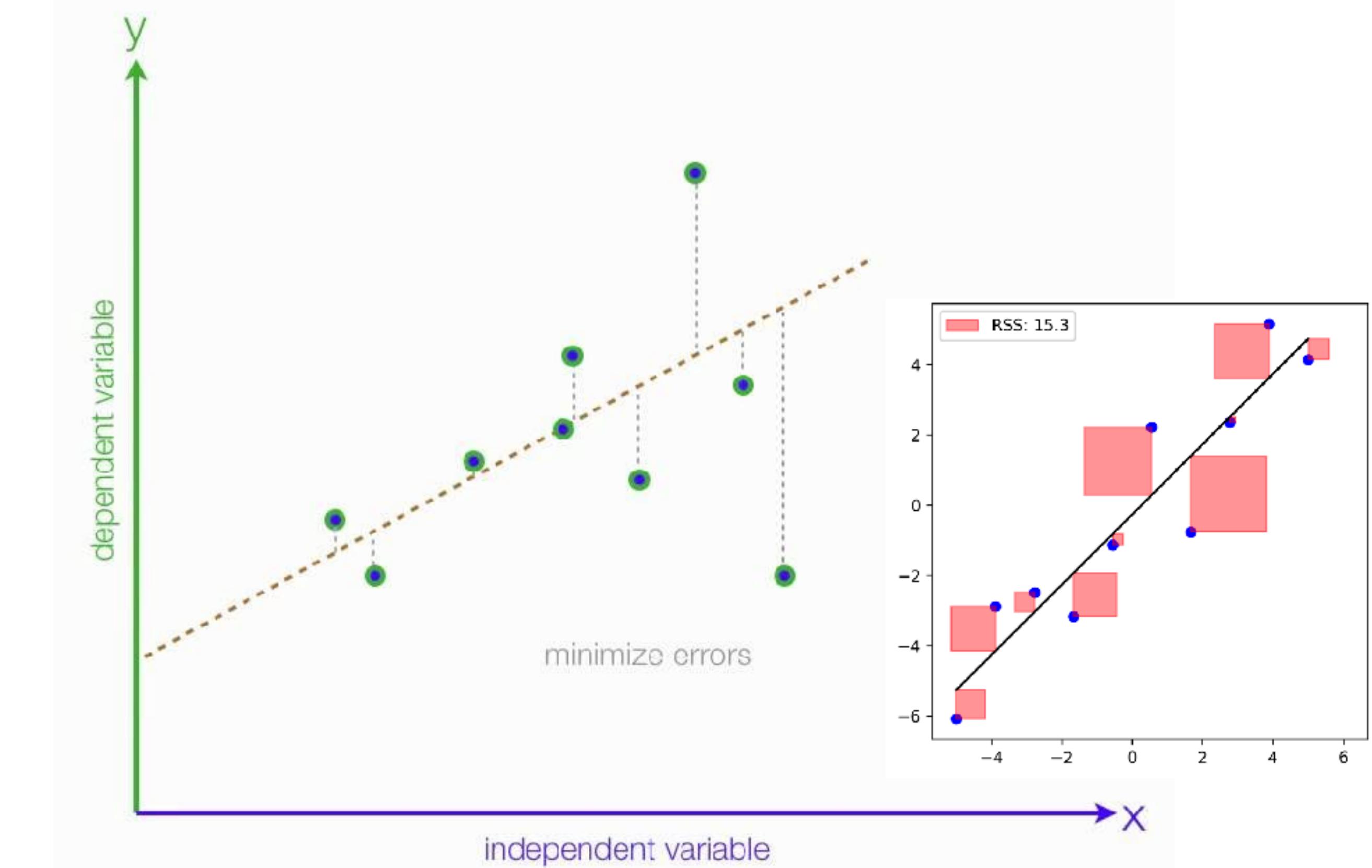
$$y = X^T \mathbf{w} + \epsilon$$

- X is a matrix of the data $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$

- We append $x_{i,0} = 1$ to each \mathbf{x}_i vector to account for the intercept

- \mathbf{w} are the *weights*

- $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$ is i.i.d. noise



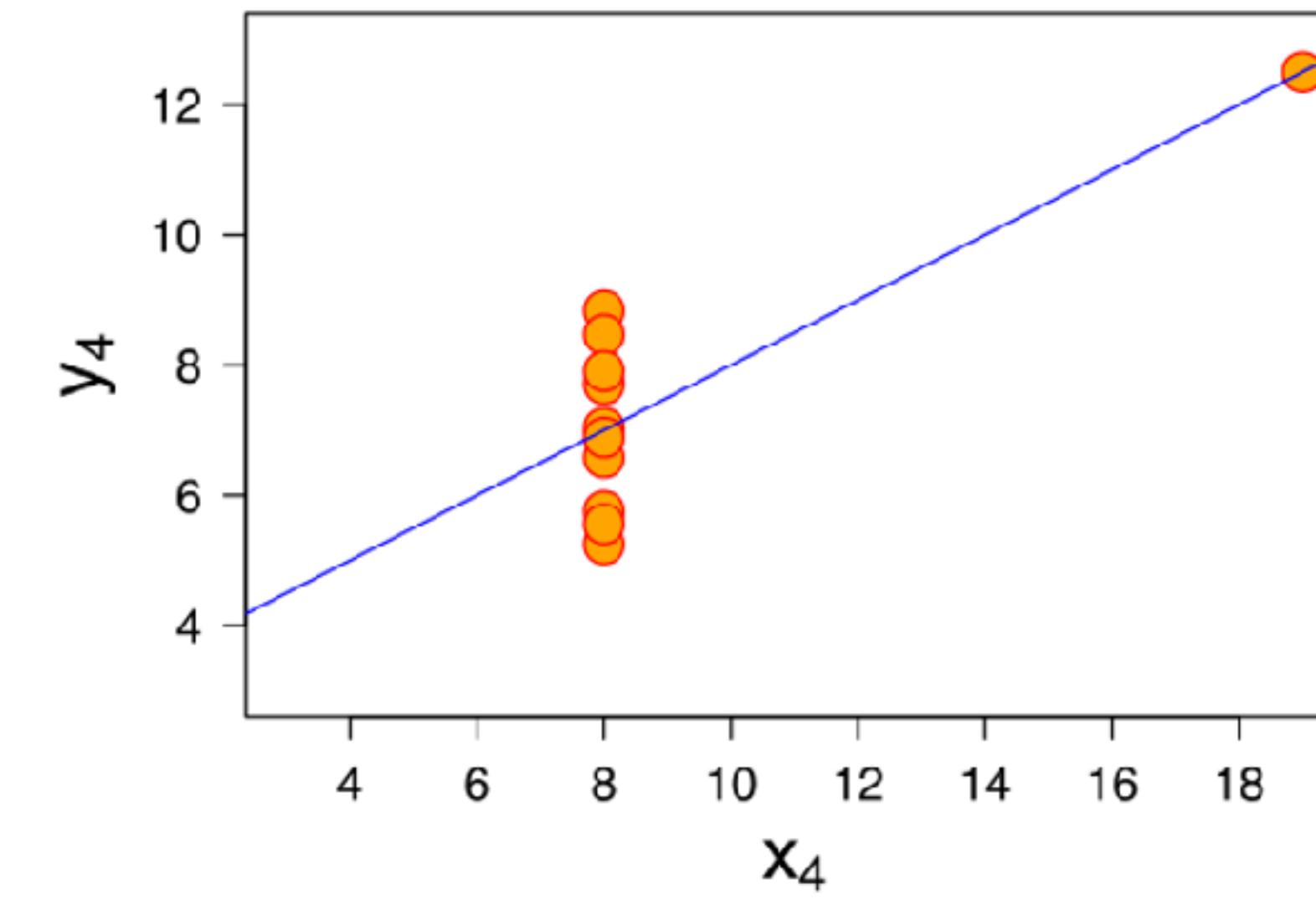
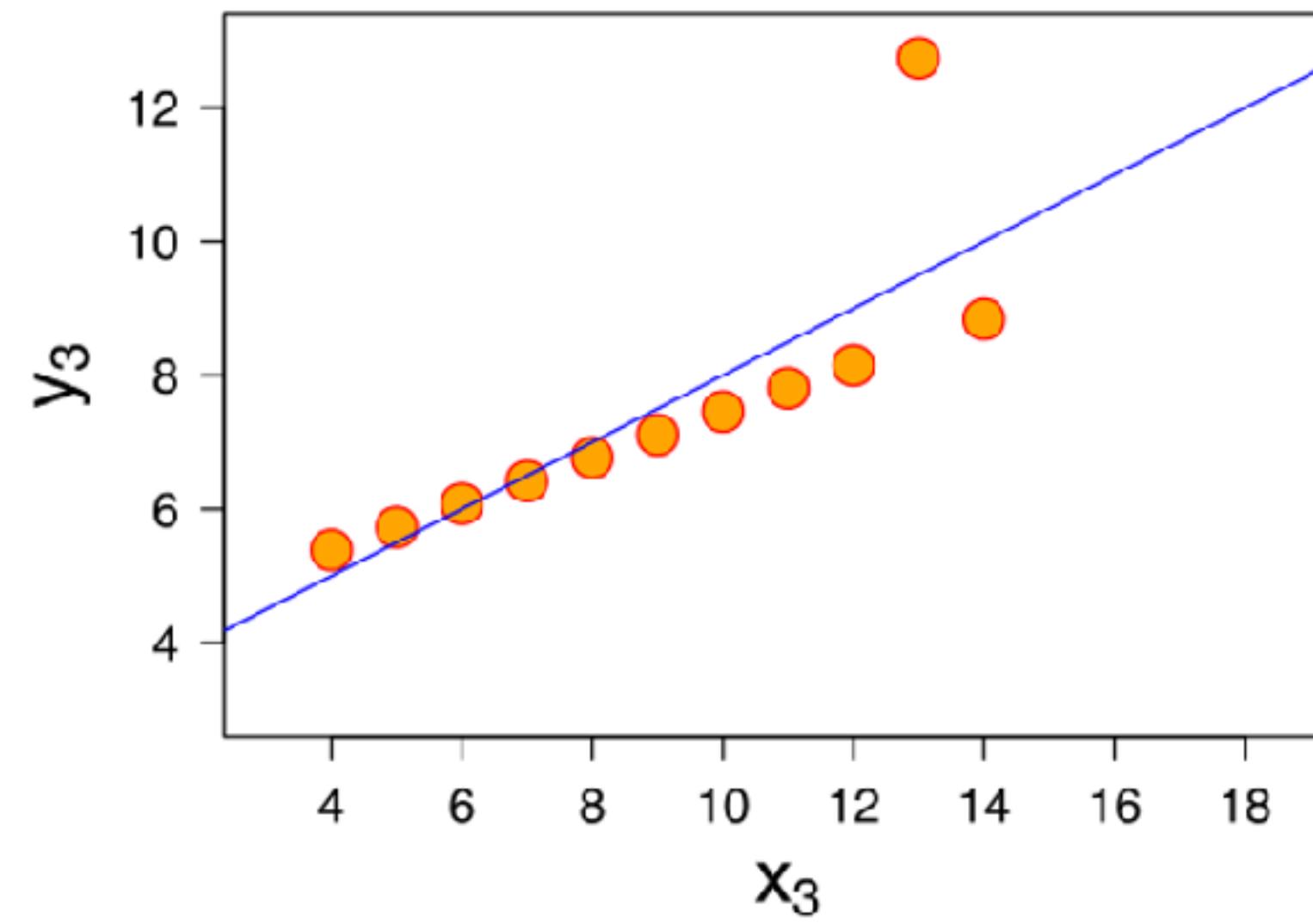
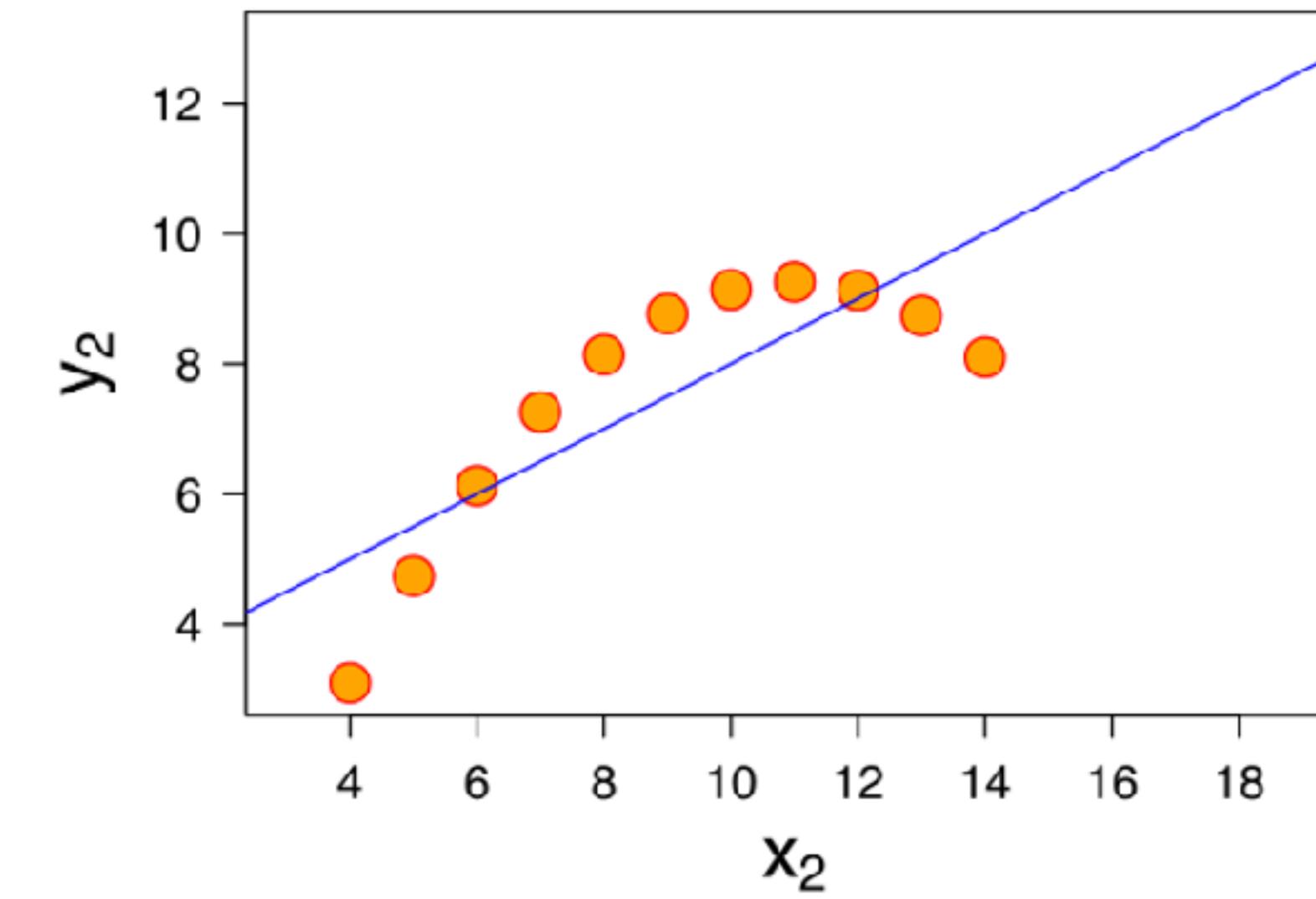
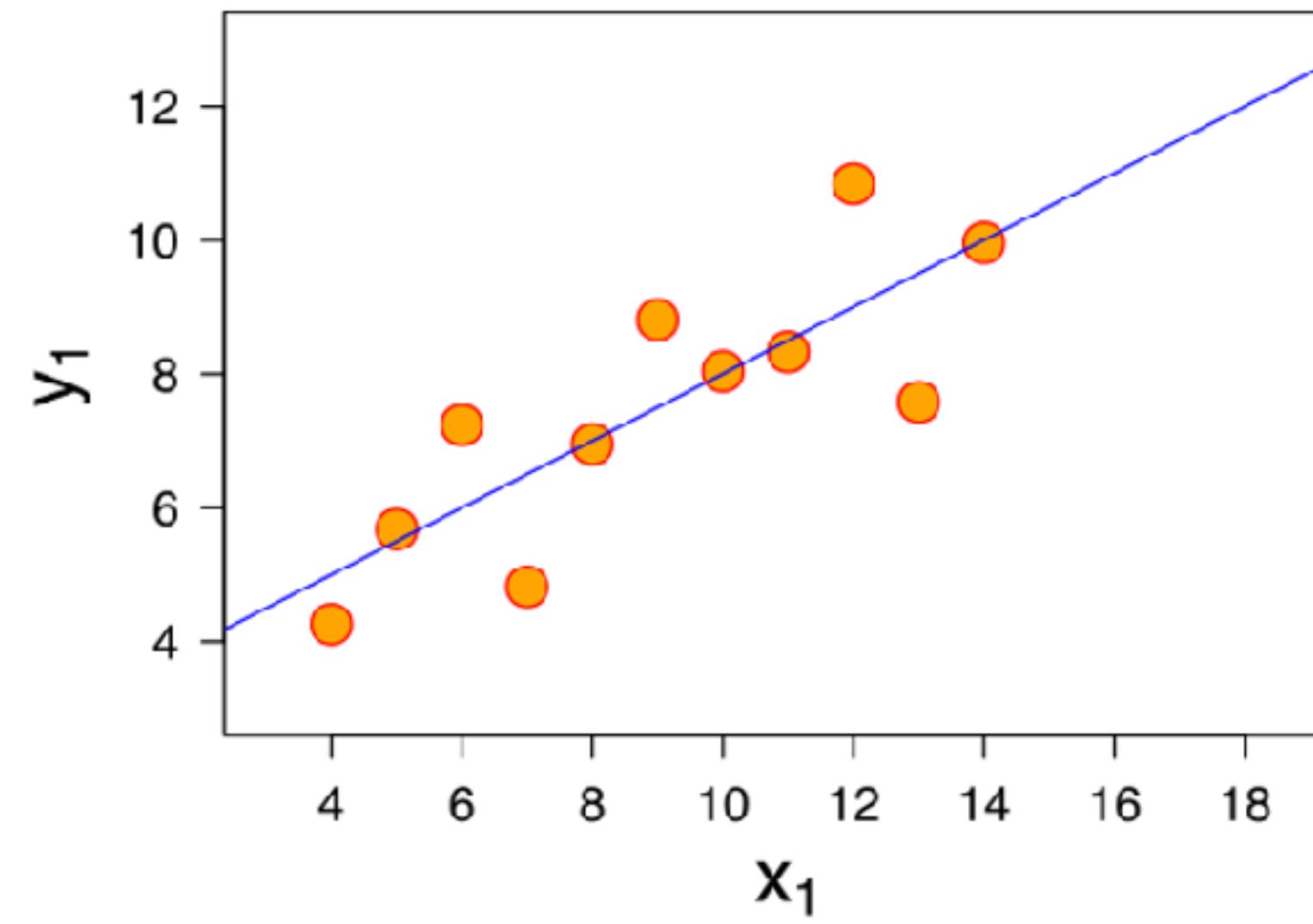
Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- MLE of weights can be found by minimizing the Residual Sum of Squares (RSS):

$$RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_i^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{w}\|^2$$

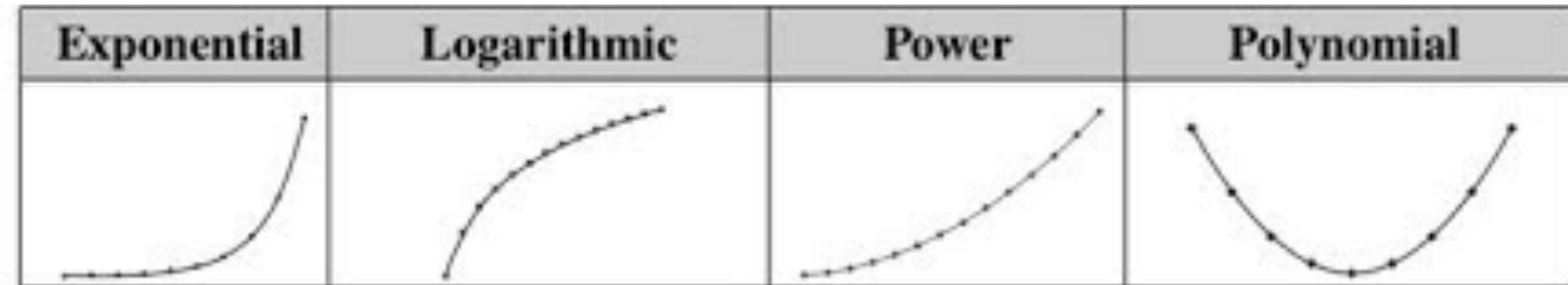
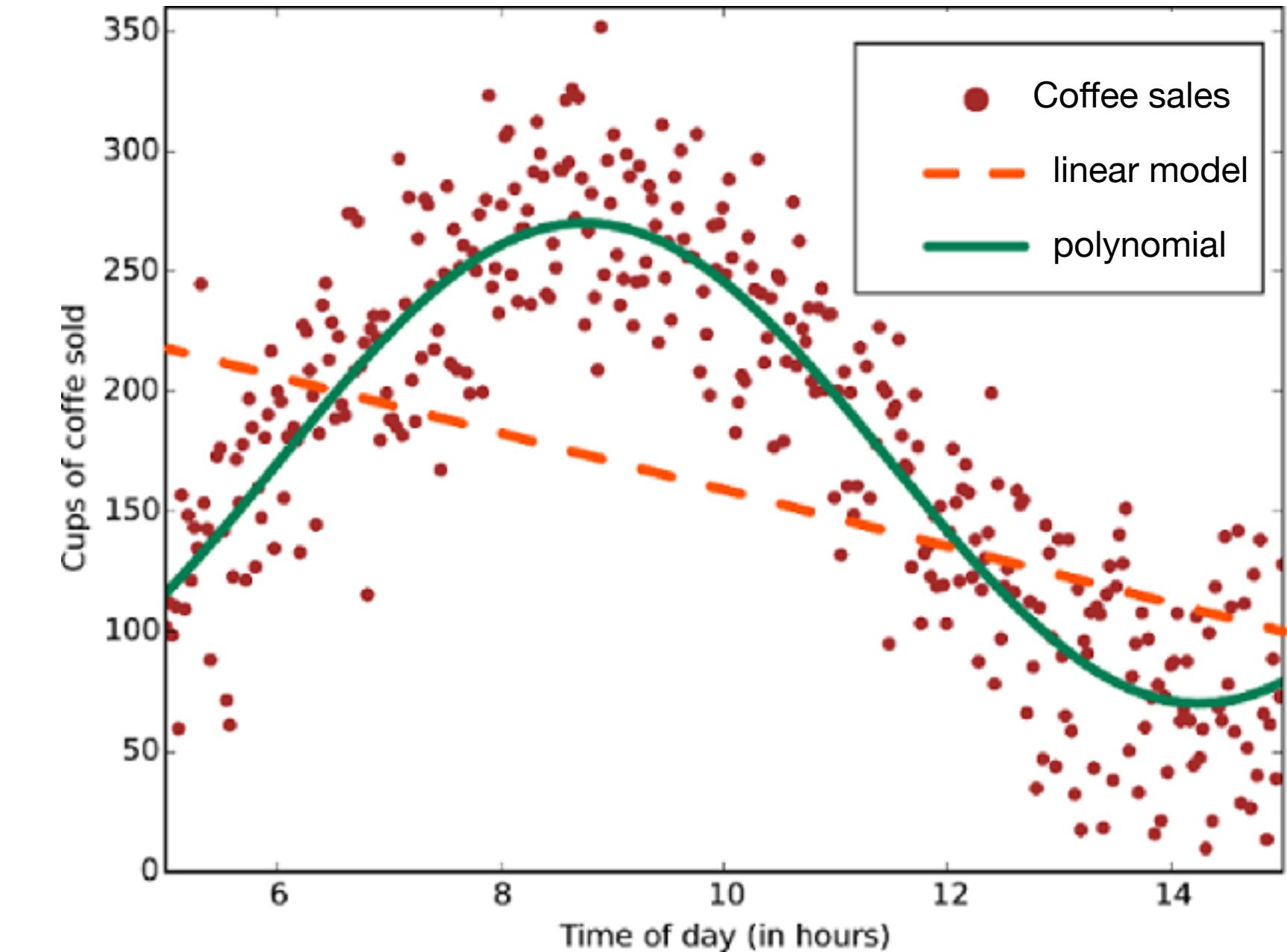
- An analytic solution is available through the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse (Penrose, 1955): $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$

Linear assumptions don't always work

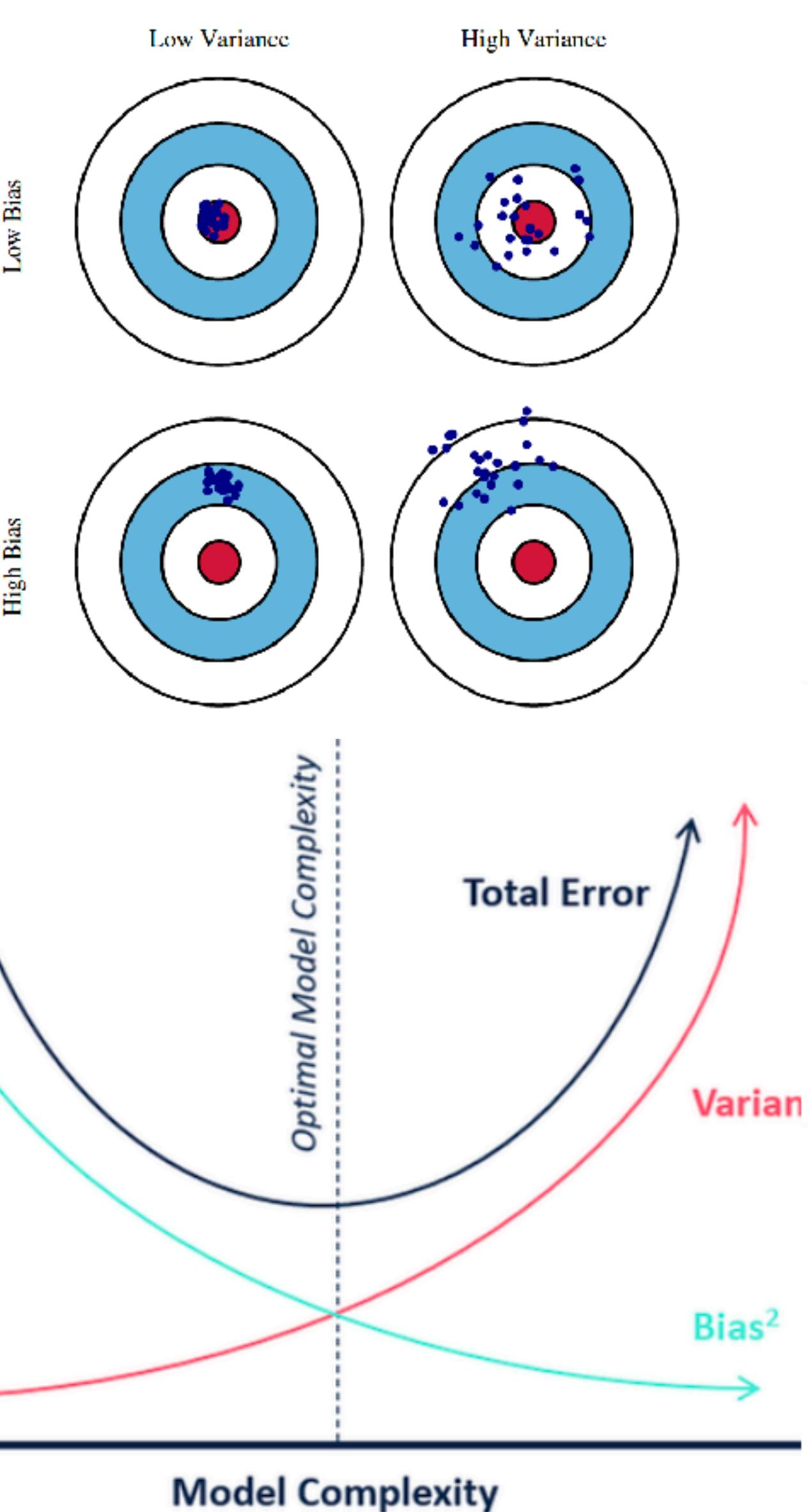
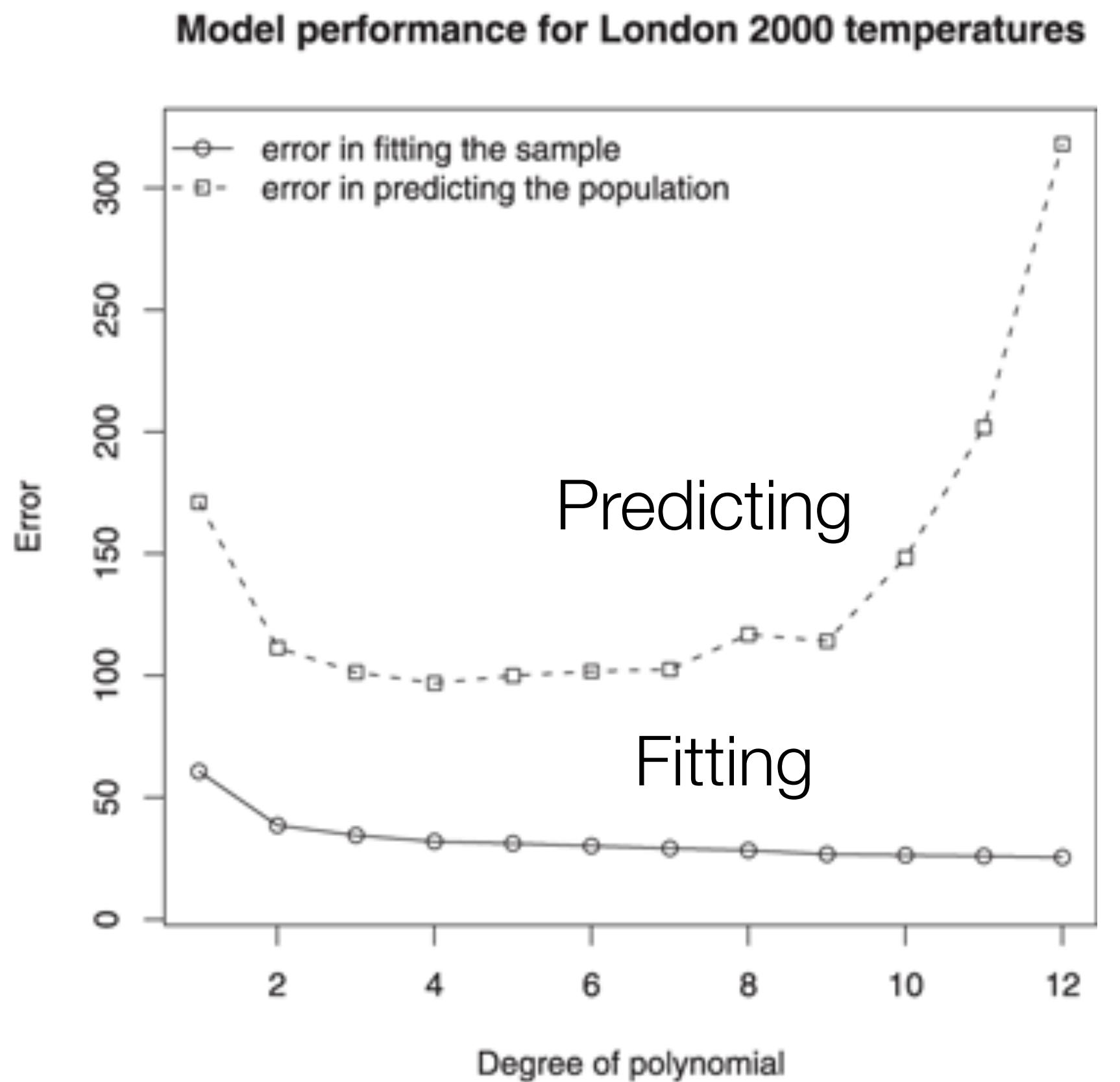
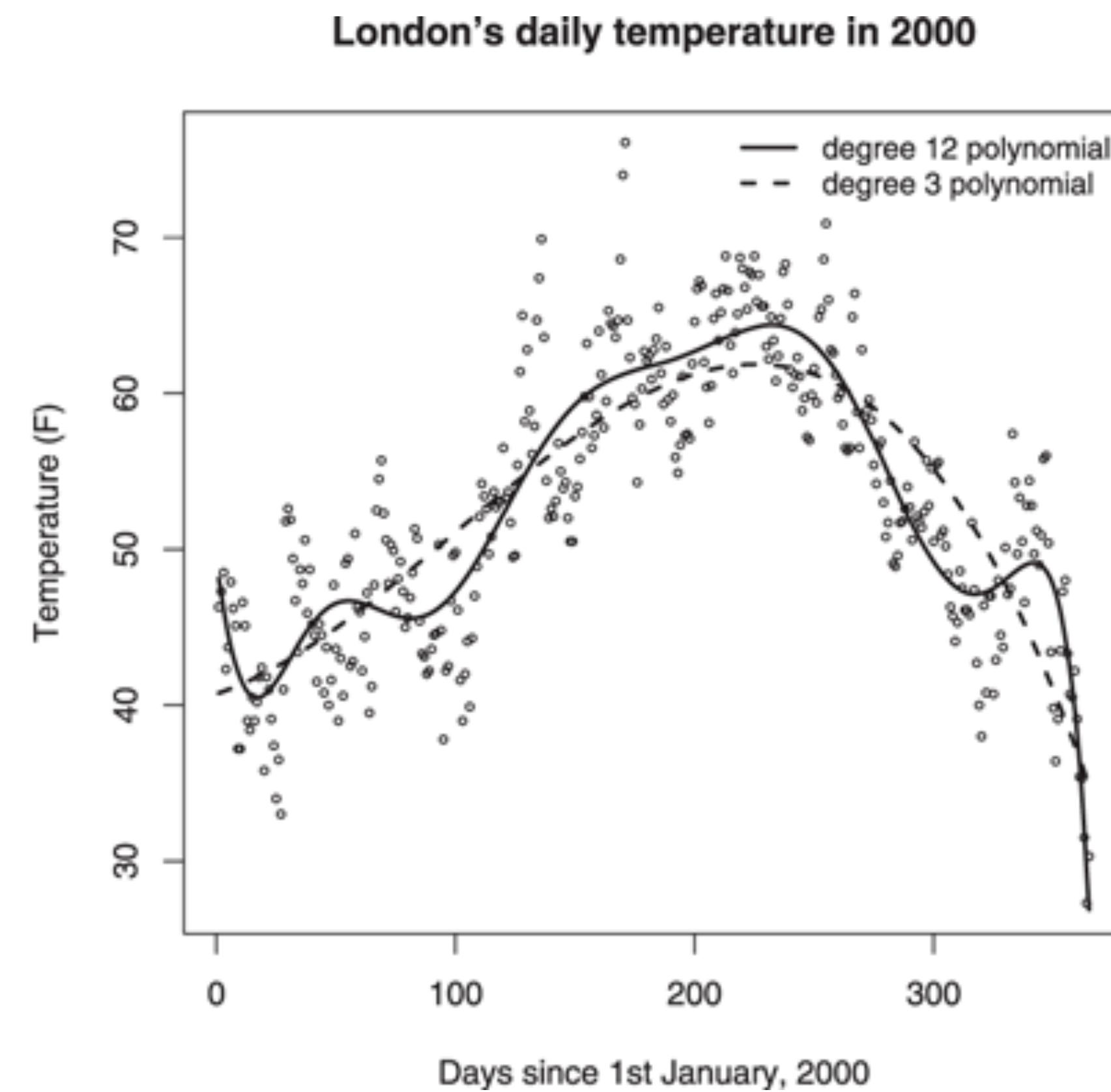


Parametric regression

- Rather than assuming a linear relationship, assume a different functional form
 - Exponential: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{x}}$
 - Logarithmic: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w} \log(\mathbf{x})$
 - Power: $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{w}}$
 - Polynomial: $f(x) = w_i x^i + w_{i-1} x^{i-1} + \dots + w_1 x$
(switching to univariate x for simplicity)

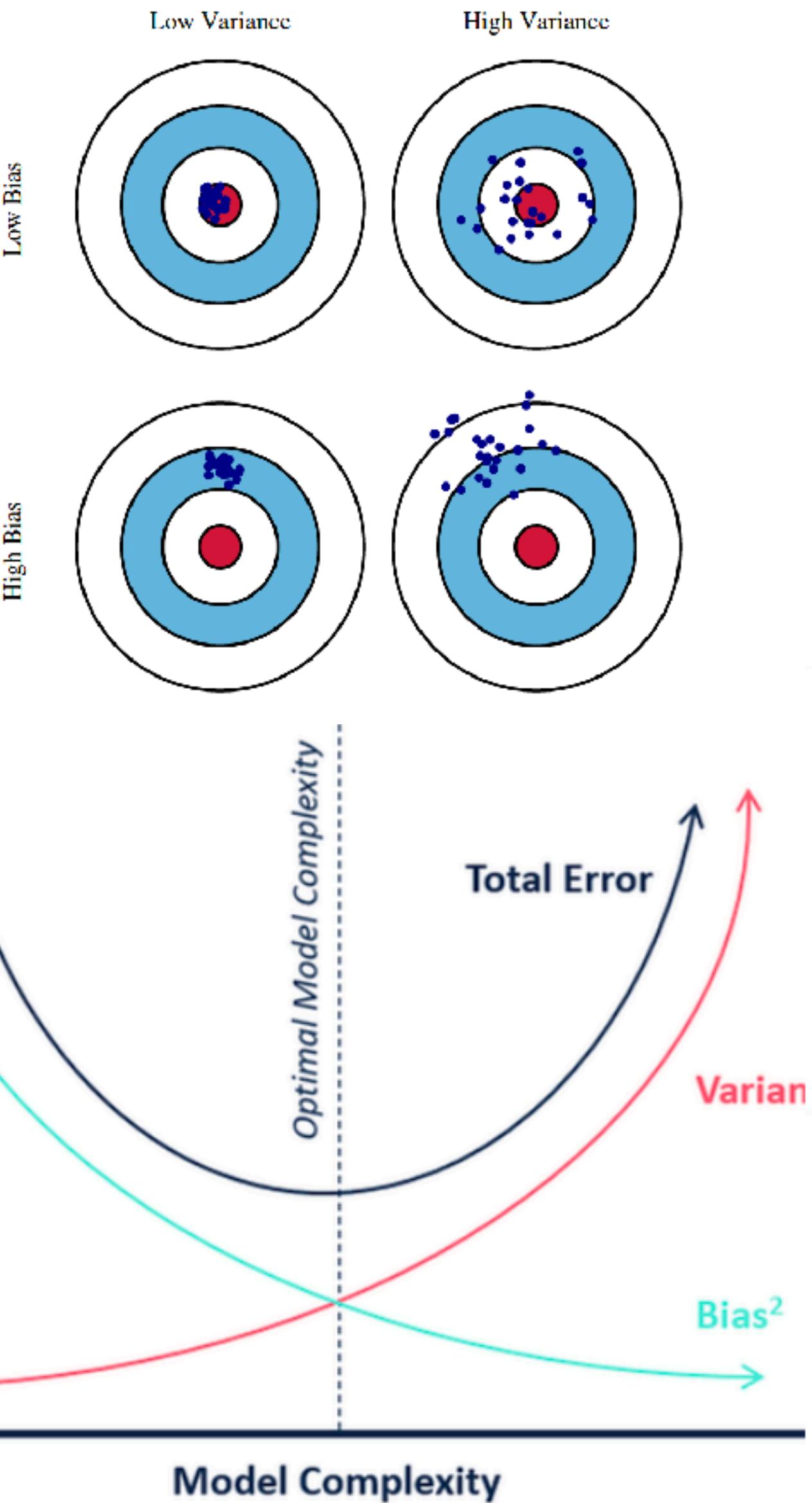
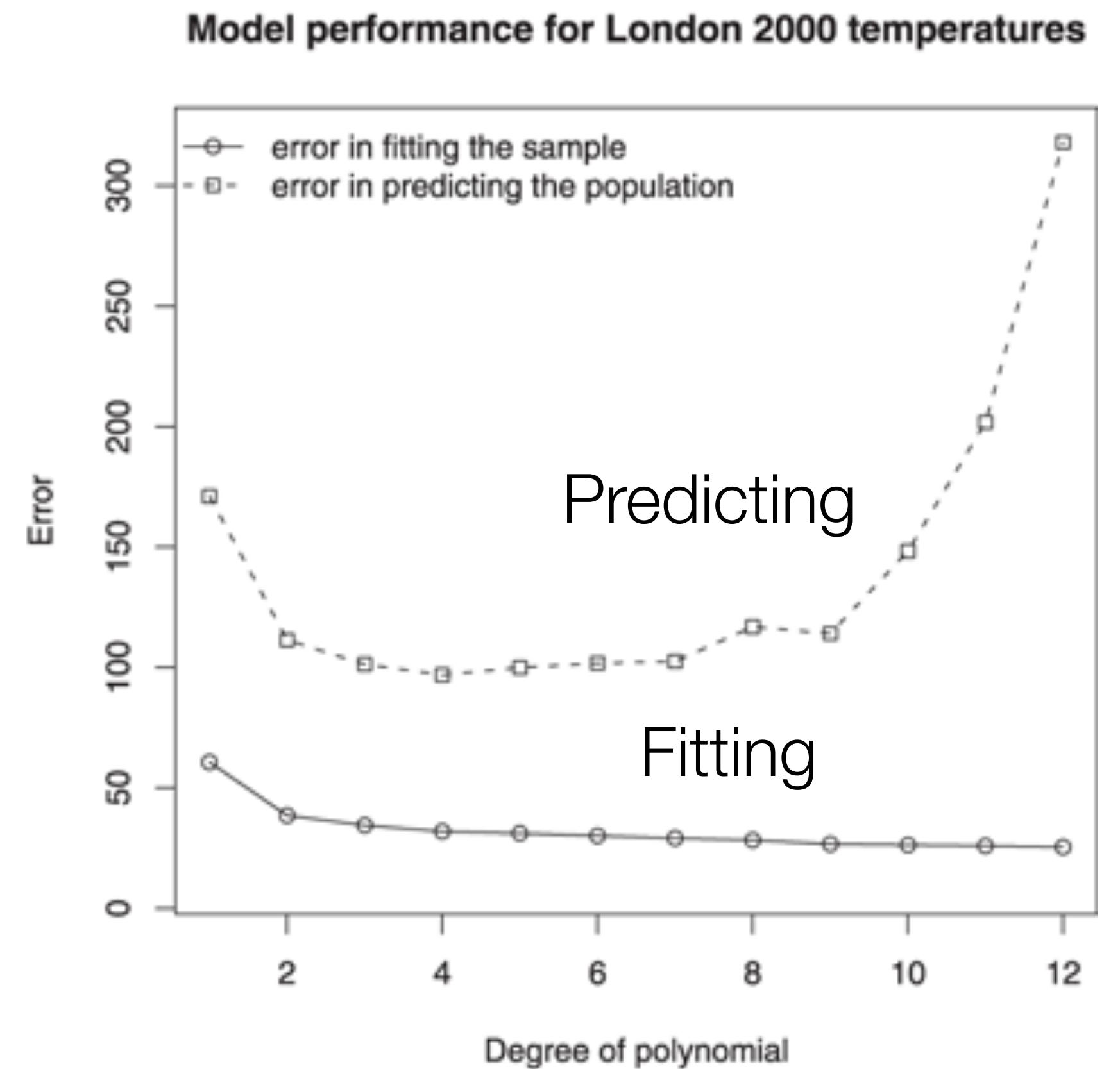
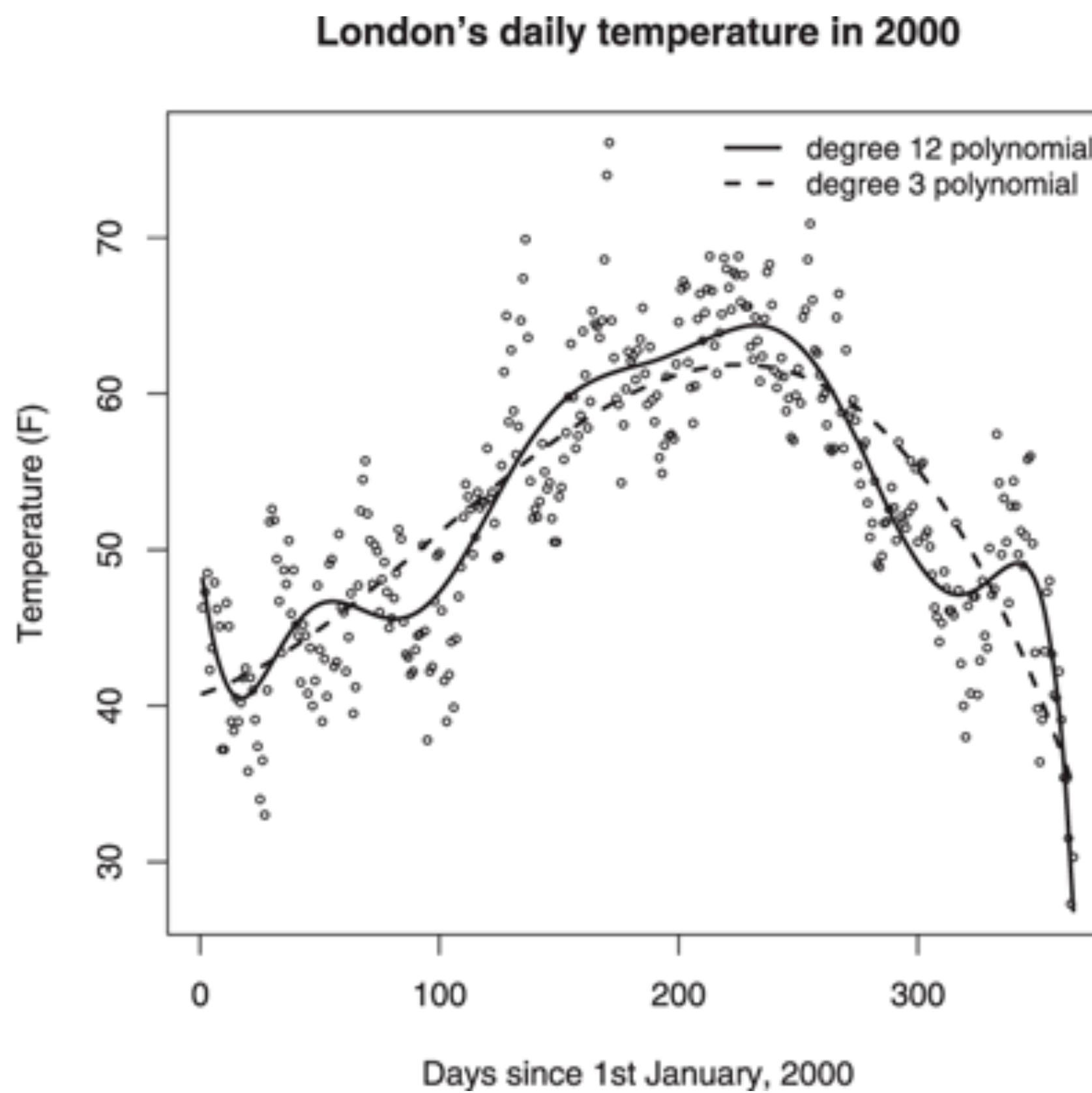


Bias-Variance trade-off



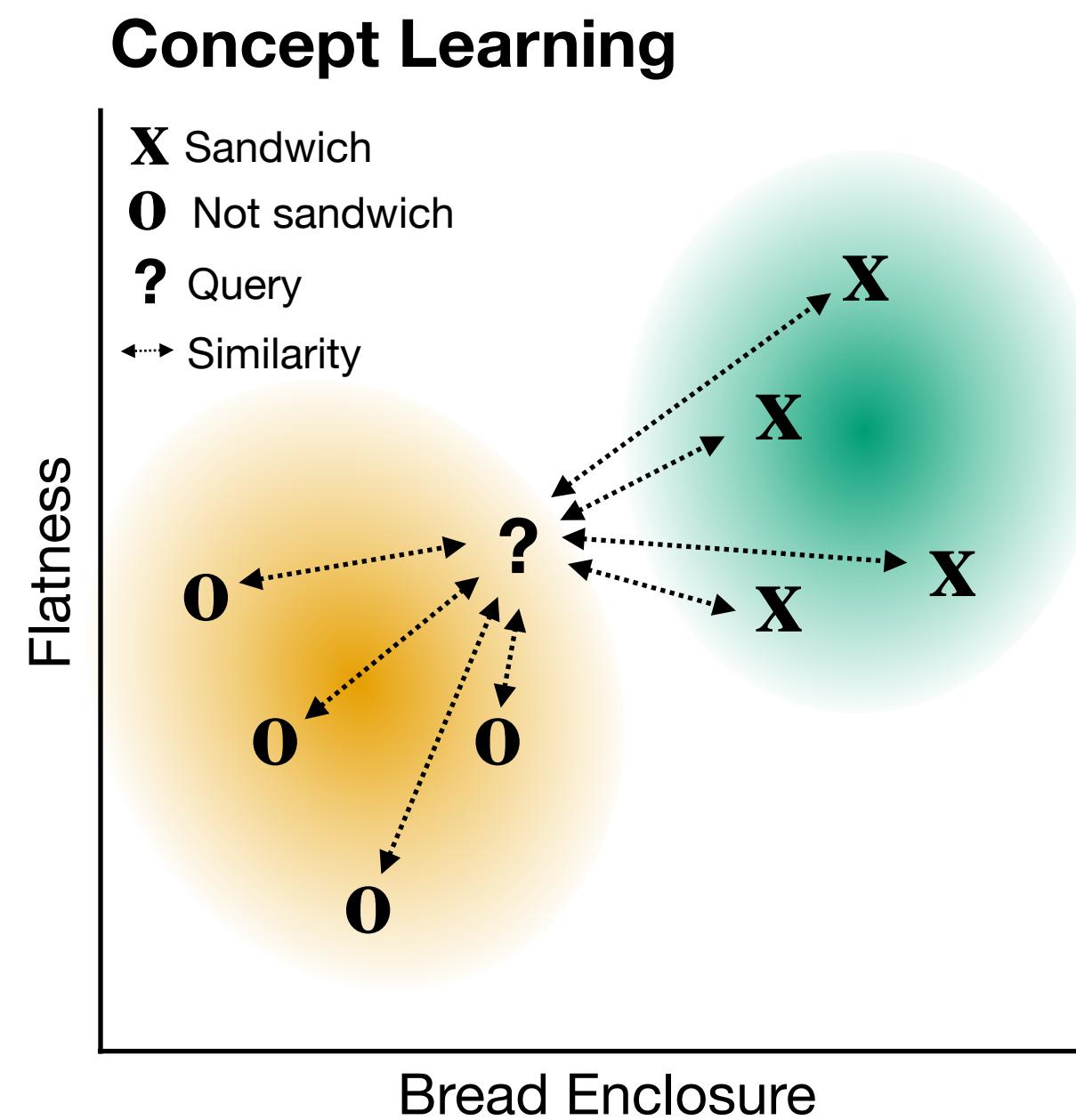
Bias-Variance trade-off

Rule-based theories don't offer guidance about how people choose between different parametric models

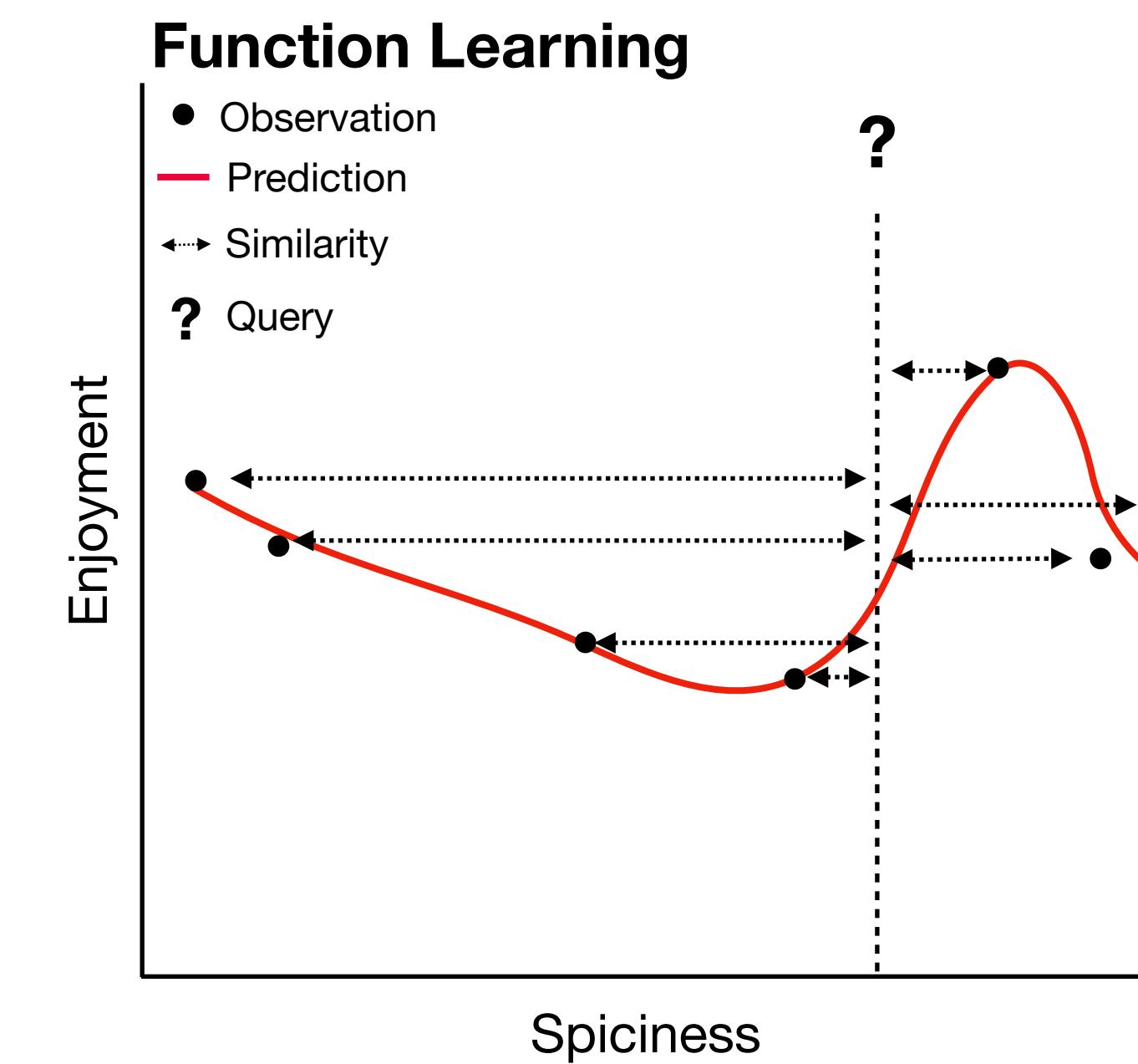
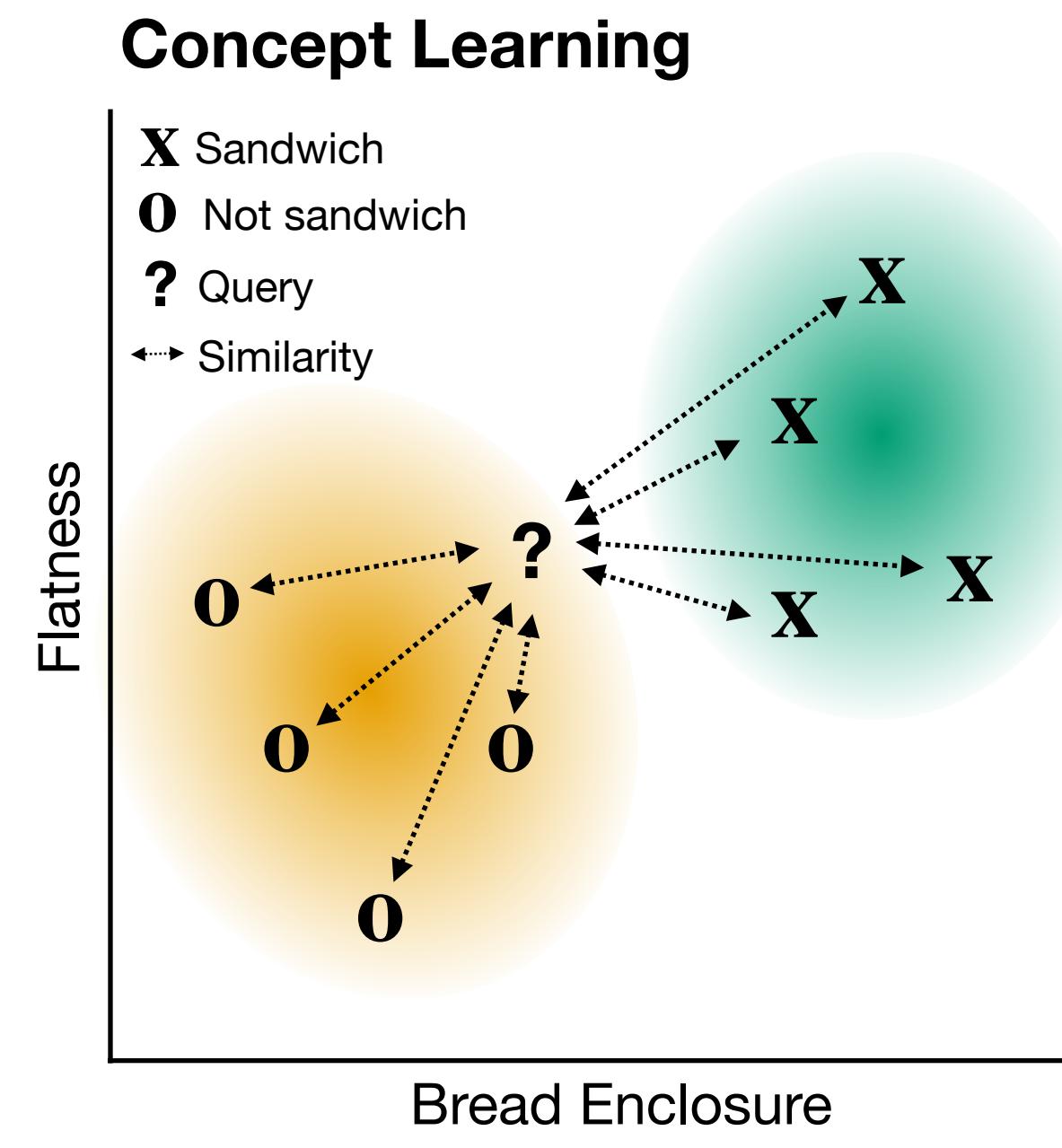


Similarity-based theories of function learning

Similarity-based theories of function learning

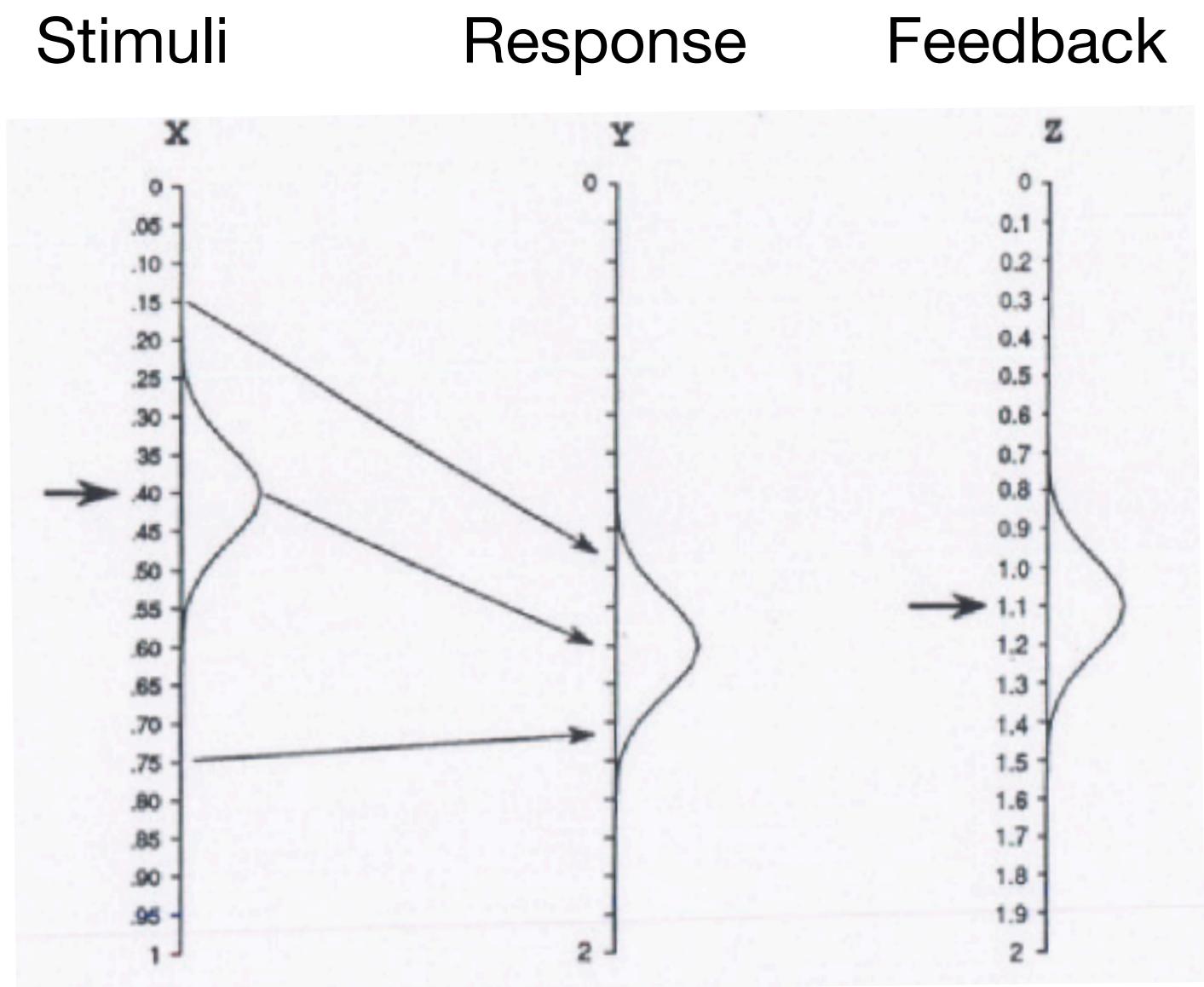


Similarity-based theories of function learning



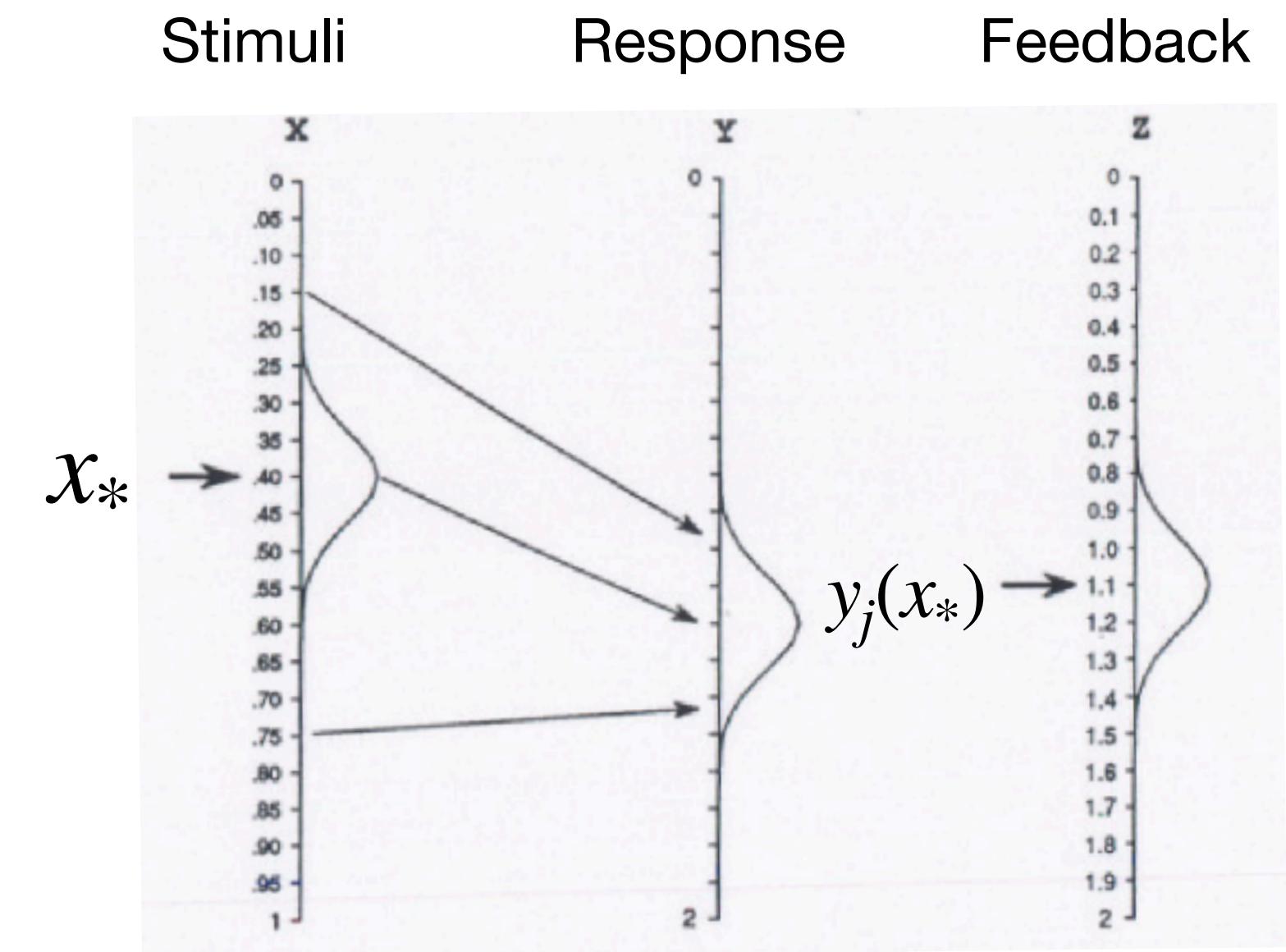
Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*



Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*
 - TL; DR: Input x_* activates response $y_j(x_*)$ based on activation weights; weights adjusted to reduce error

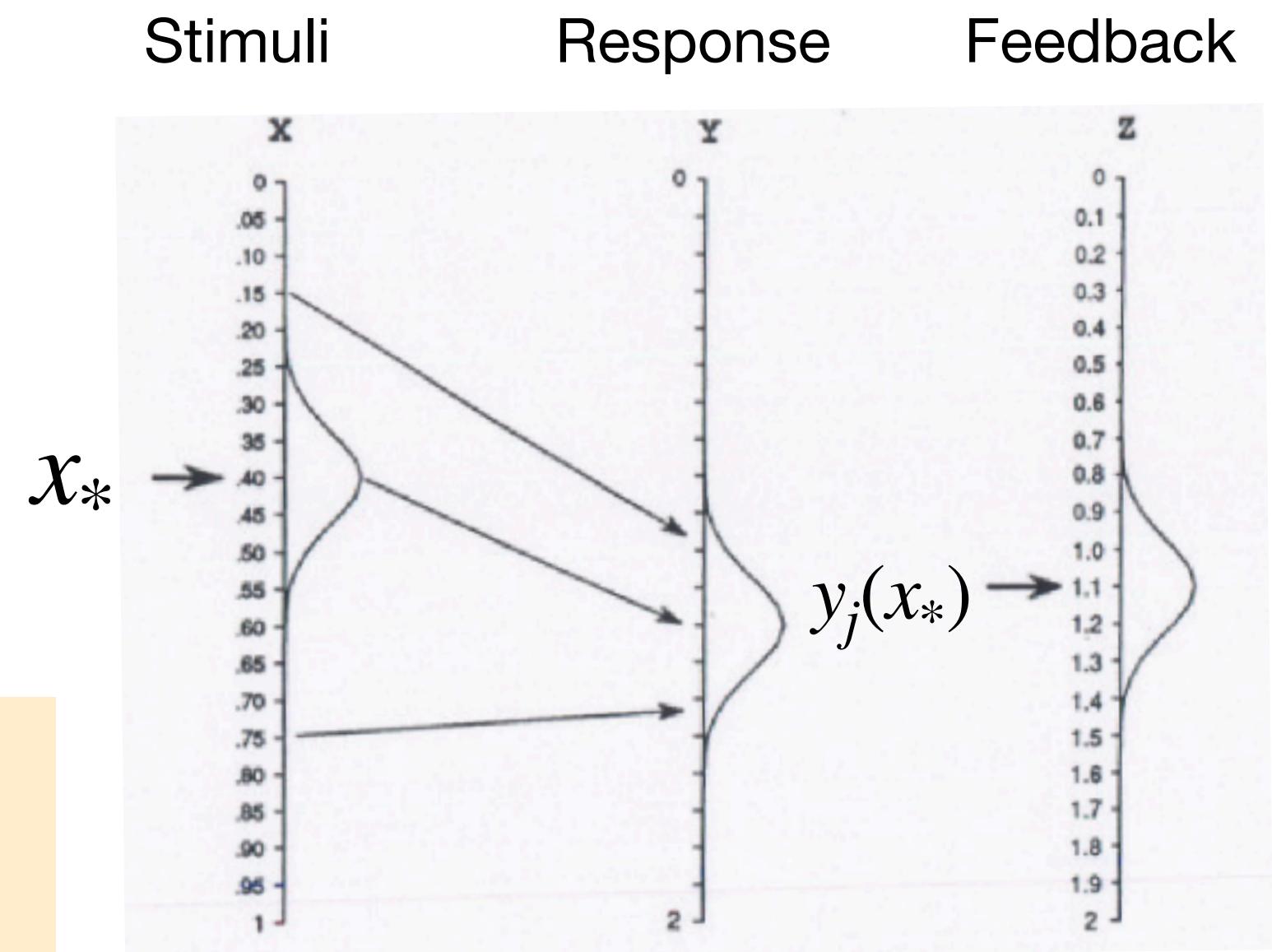


Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*

- TL; DR: Input x_* activates response $y_j(x_*)$ based on activation weights; weights adjusted to reduce error

- Stimuli x_* activates input nodes according to their similarity: $a_i(x_*) = \exp[-\gamma(x_* - x_i)^2]$ where γ is a sensitivity parameter
- Output node y_j is activated according to learned weights: $y_j(x_*) = \sum_i w_{ji} \cdot a_i(x_*)$
- Weights updated using the delta-rule based on feedback z : $w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \alpha [f_j(z) - y_j(x_*)] a_i(x_*)$ where $f_j(z) = \exp[-\gamma(z - y_j)^2]$



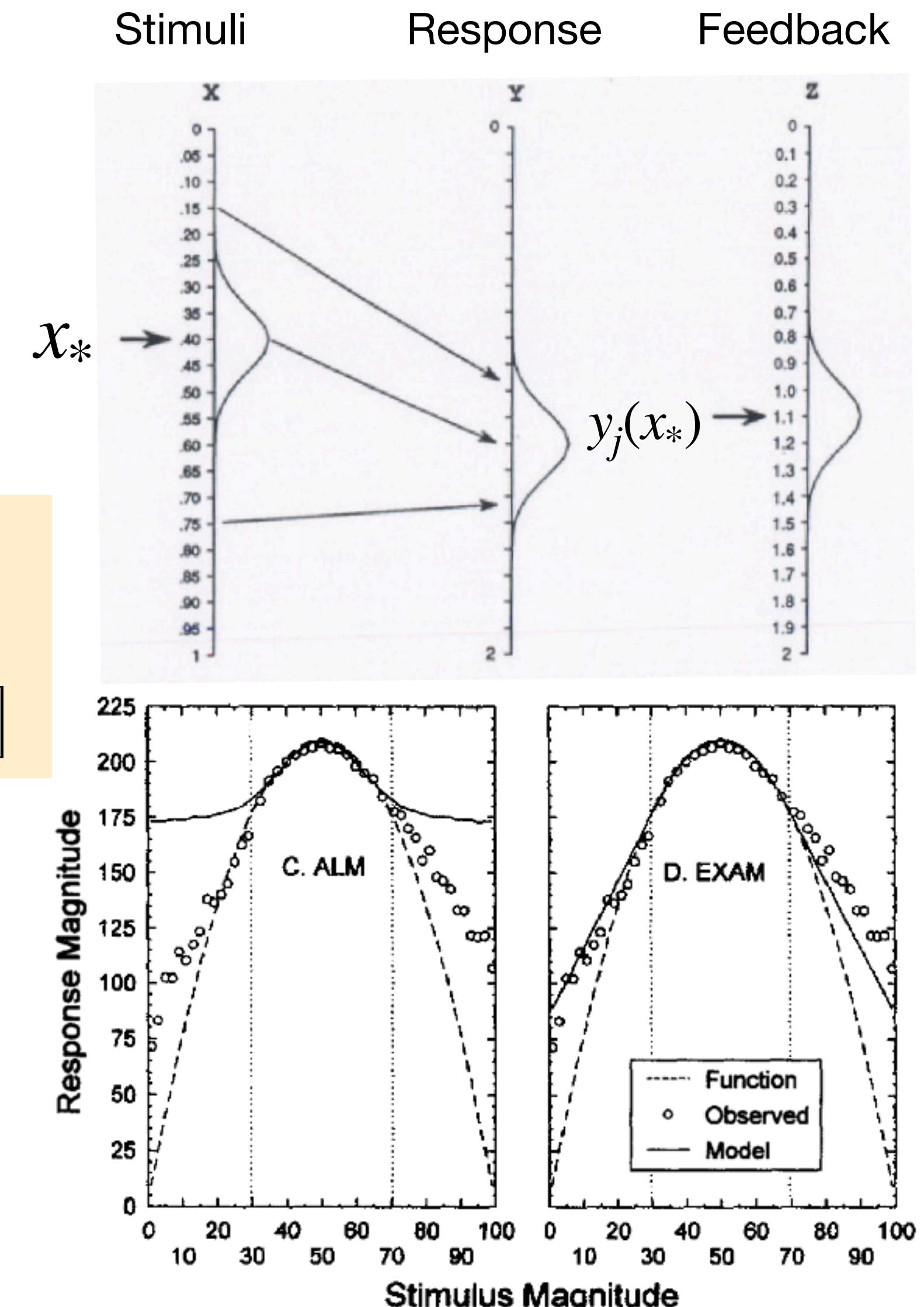
Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*

- TL; DR: Input x_* activates response $y_j(x_*)$ based on activation weights; weights adjusted to reduce error

- Stimuli x_* activates input nodes according to their similarity: $a_i(x_*) = \exp[-\gamma(x_* - x_i)^2]$ where γ is a sensitivity parameter
- Output node y_j is activated according to learned weights: $y_j(x_*) = \sum_i w_{ji} \cdot a_i(x_*)$
- Weights updated using the delta-rule based on feedback z : $w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \alpha [f_j(z) - y_j(x_*)] a_i(x_*)$ where $f_j(z) = \exp[-\gamma(z - y_j)^2]$

- Limitation: fails to capture human extrapolation patterns



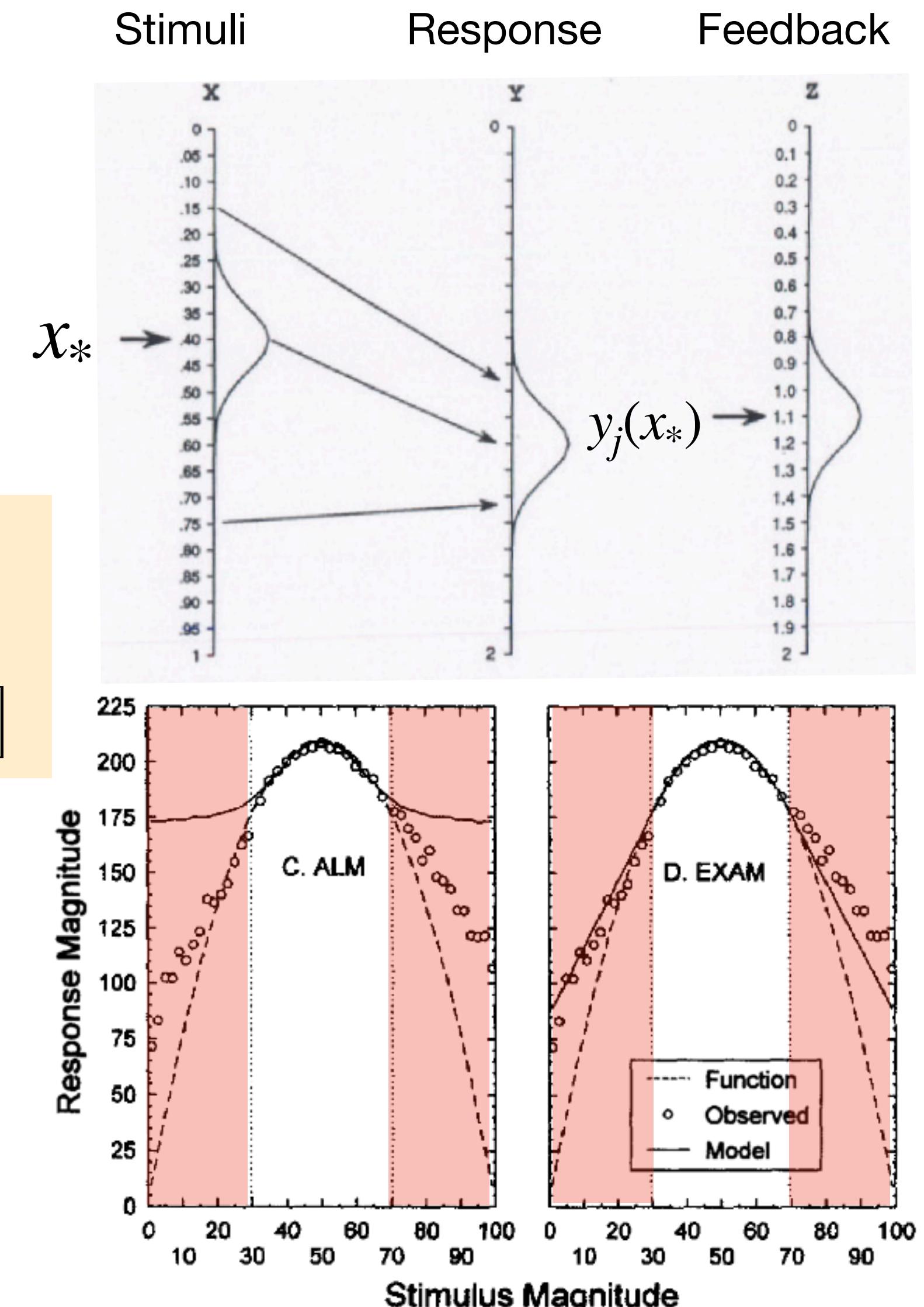
Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*

- TL; DR: Input x_* activates response $y_j(x_*)$ based on activation weights; weights adjusted to reduce error

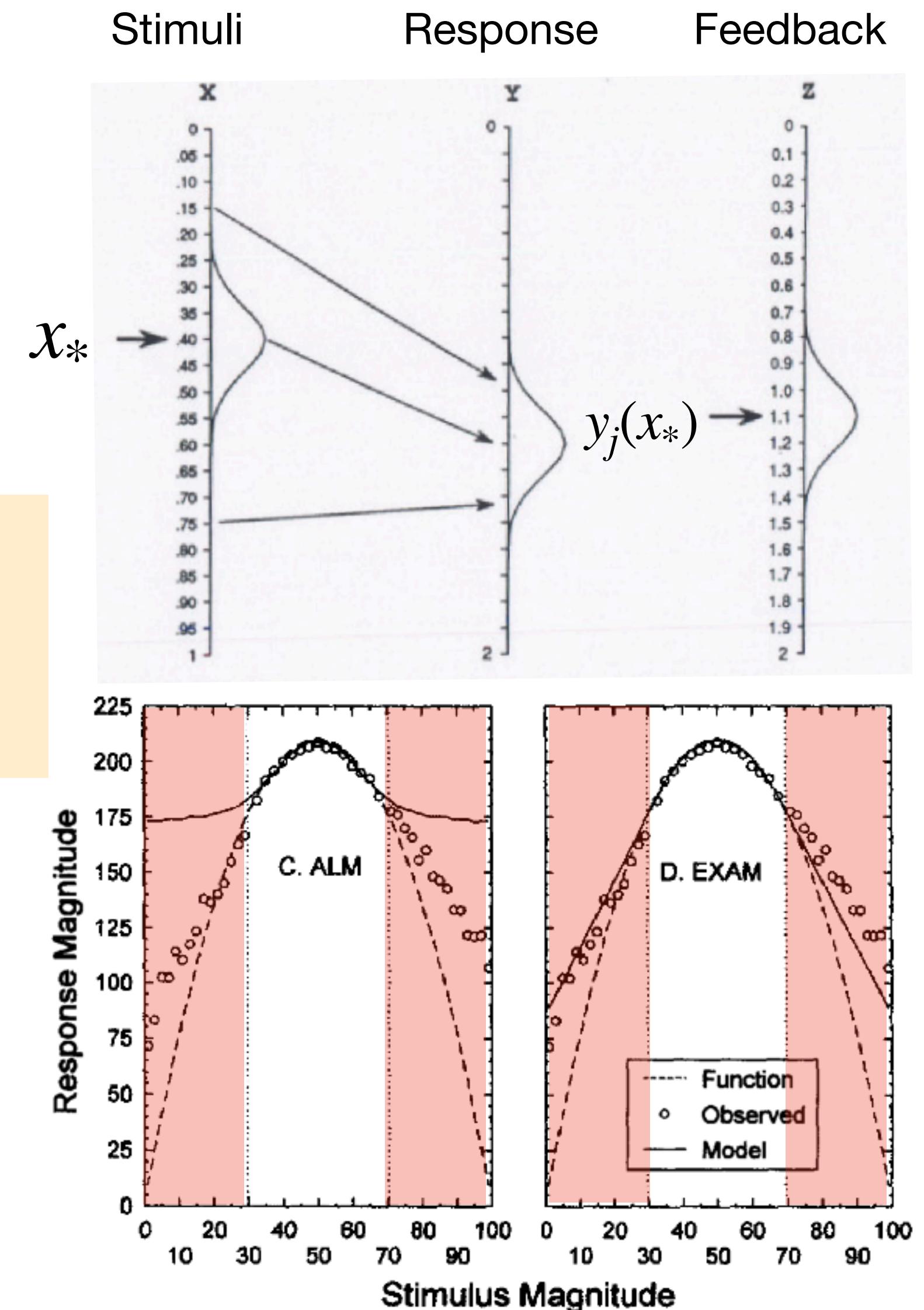
- Stimuli x_* activates input nodes according to their similarity: $a_i(x_*) = \exp[-\gamma(x_* - x_i)^2]$ where γ is a sensitivity parameter
- Output node y_j is activated according to learned weights: $y_j(x_*) = \sum_i w_{ji} \cdot a_i(x_*)$
- Weights updated using the delta-rule based on feedback z : $w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \alpha [f_j(z) - y_j(x_*)] a_i(x_*)$ where $f_j(z) = \exp[-\gamma(z - y_j)^2]$

- Limitation: fails to capture human **extrapolation** patterns



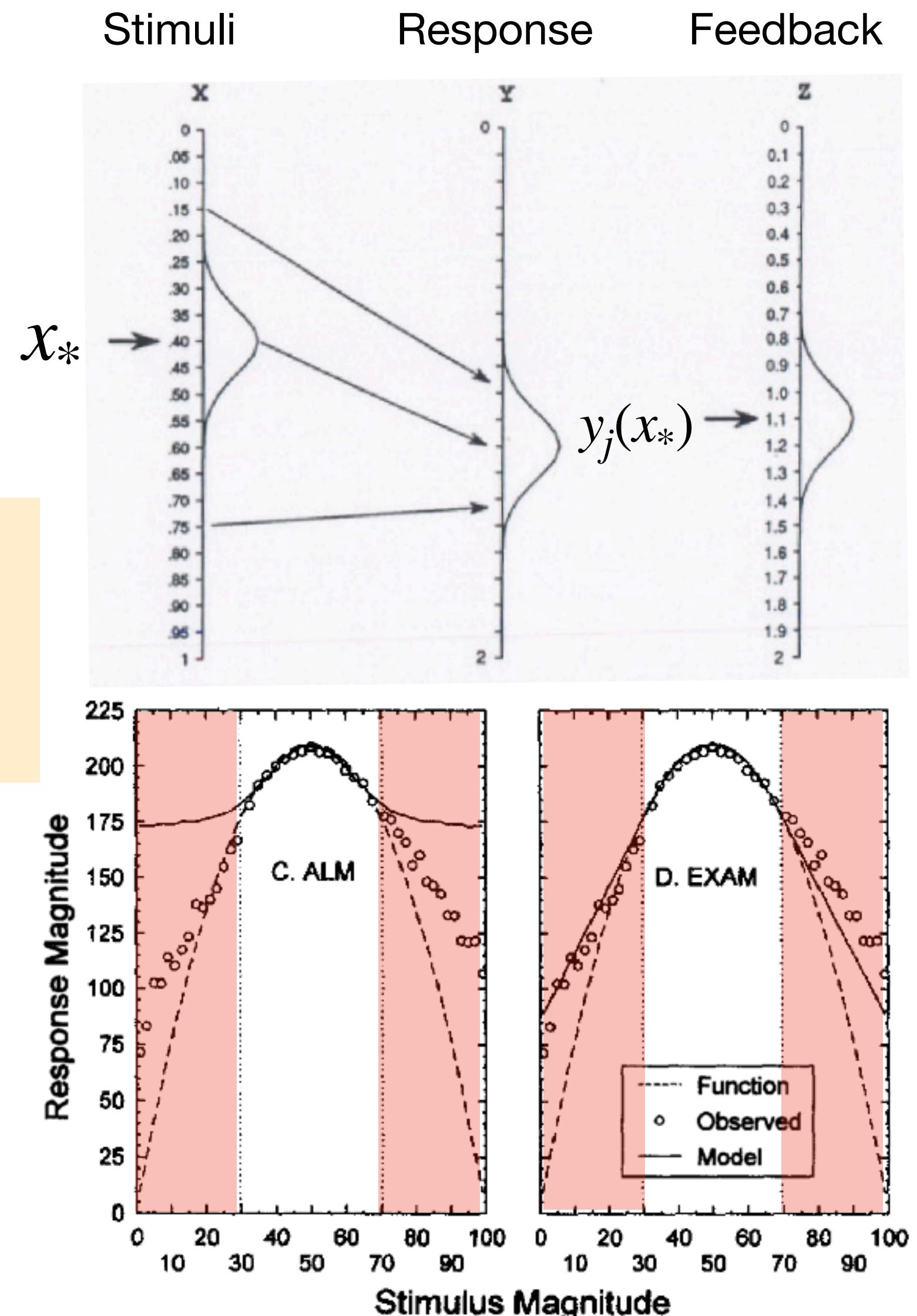
Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*
 - TL; DR: Input x_* activates response $y_j(x_*)$ based on activation weights; weights adjusted to reduce error
 - Stimuli x_* activates input nodes according to their similarity: $a_i(x_*) = \exp[-\gamma(x_* - x_i)^2]$ where γ is a sensitivity parameter
 - Output node y_j is activated according to learned weights: $y_j(x_*) = \sum_i w_{ji} \cdot a_i(x_*)$
 - Weights updated using the delta-rule based on feedback z : $w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \alpha [f_j(z) - y_j(x_*)] a_i(x_*)$ where $f_j(z) = \exp[-\gamma(z - y_j)^2]$
 - Limitation: fails to capture human **extrapolation** patterns
 - Extrapolation-Association Model (**EXAM**; Delosh et al., 1997) extends ALM by adding a linear approximation of ALM outputs to account for more linear extrapolation patterns in humans



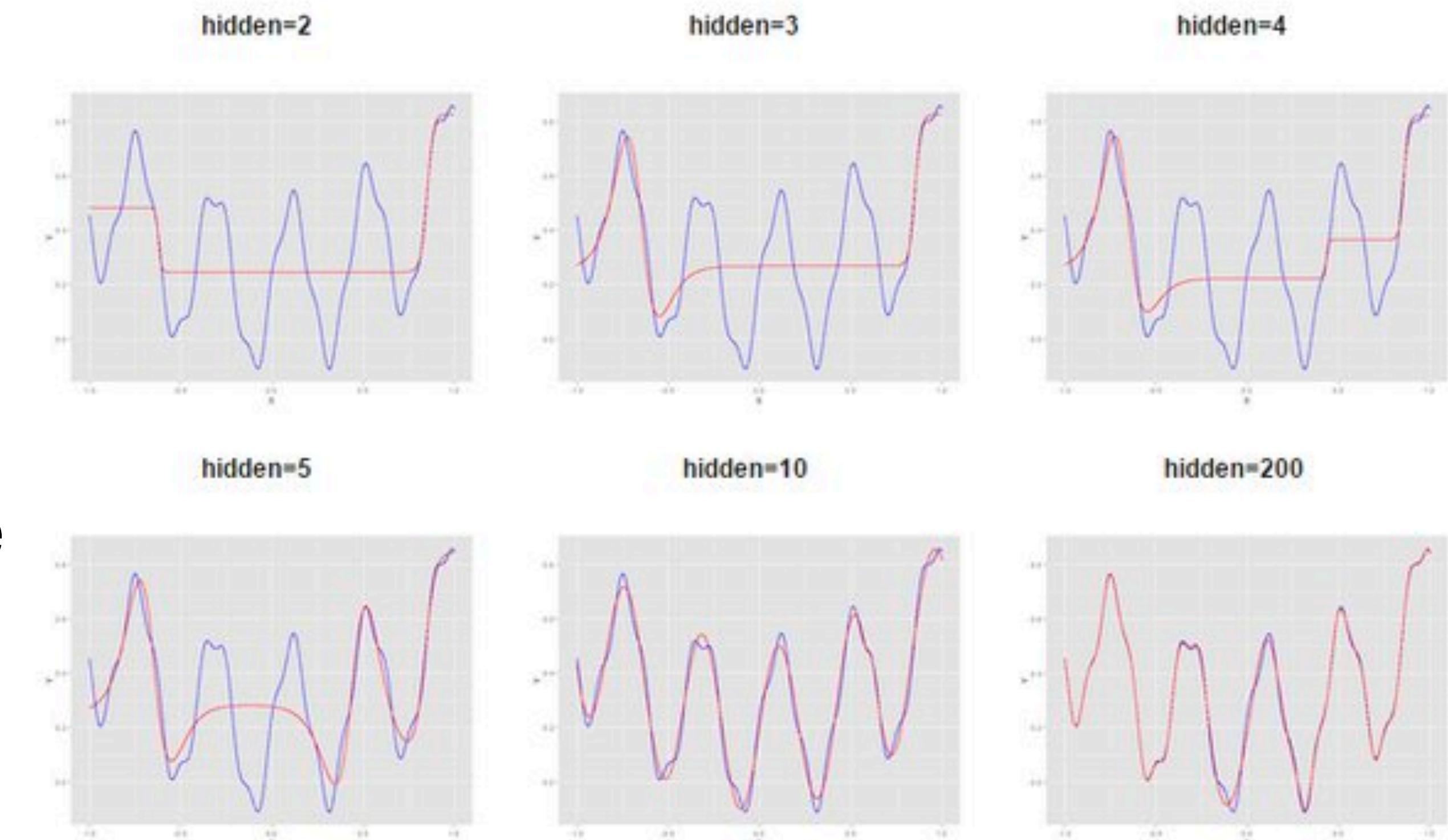
Similarity-based theories of function learning

- Associative learning model (**ALM**; Buseymeyer et al., 1997) used neural networks to encode the generic principle that *similar inputs produce similar outputs*
 - TL; DR: Input x_* activates response $y_j(x_*)$ based on activation weights; weights adjusted to reduce error
 - Stimuli x_* activates input nodes according to their similarity: $a_i(x_*) = \exp[-\gamma(x_* - x_i)^2]$ where γ is a sensitivity parameter
 - Output node y_j is activated according to learned weights: $y_j(x_*) = \sum_i w_{ji} \cdot a_i(x_*)$
 - Weights updated using the delta-rule based on feedback z : $w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \alpha [f_j(z) - y_j(x_*)] a_i(x_*)$ where $f_j(z) = \exp[-\gamma(z - y_j)^2]$
 - Limitation: fails to capture human **extrapolation** patterns
- Extrapolation-Association Model (**EXAM**; Delosh et al., 1997) extends ALM by adding a linear approximation of ALM outputs to account for more linear extrapolation patterns in humans
 - But humans also sometimes extrapolate in a non-linear fashion (Bott & Heit, 2004)



Neural networks as Universal Function Approximators

- Recall Cybenko (1989): Every continuous function can be approximated arbitrarily closely by an MLP with just a single hidden layer
 - adding more nodes in the hidden layer increases the representational capacity of the network
- But fitting is not the same as predicting
- As we see from ALM, extrapolation patterns of NNs don't always match the inductive biases of humans learners

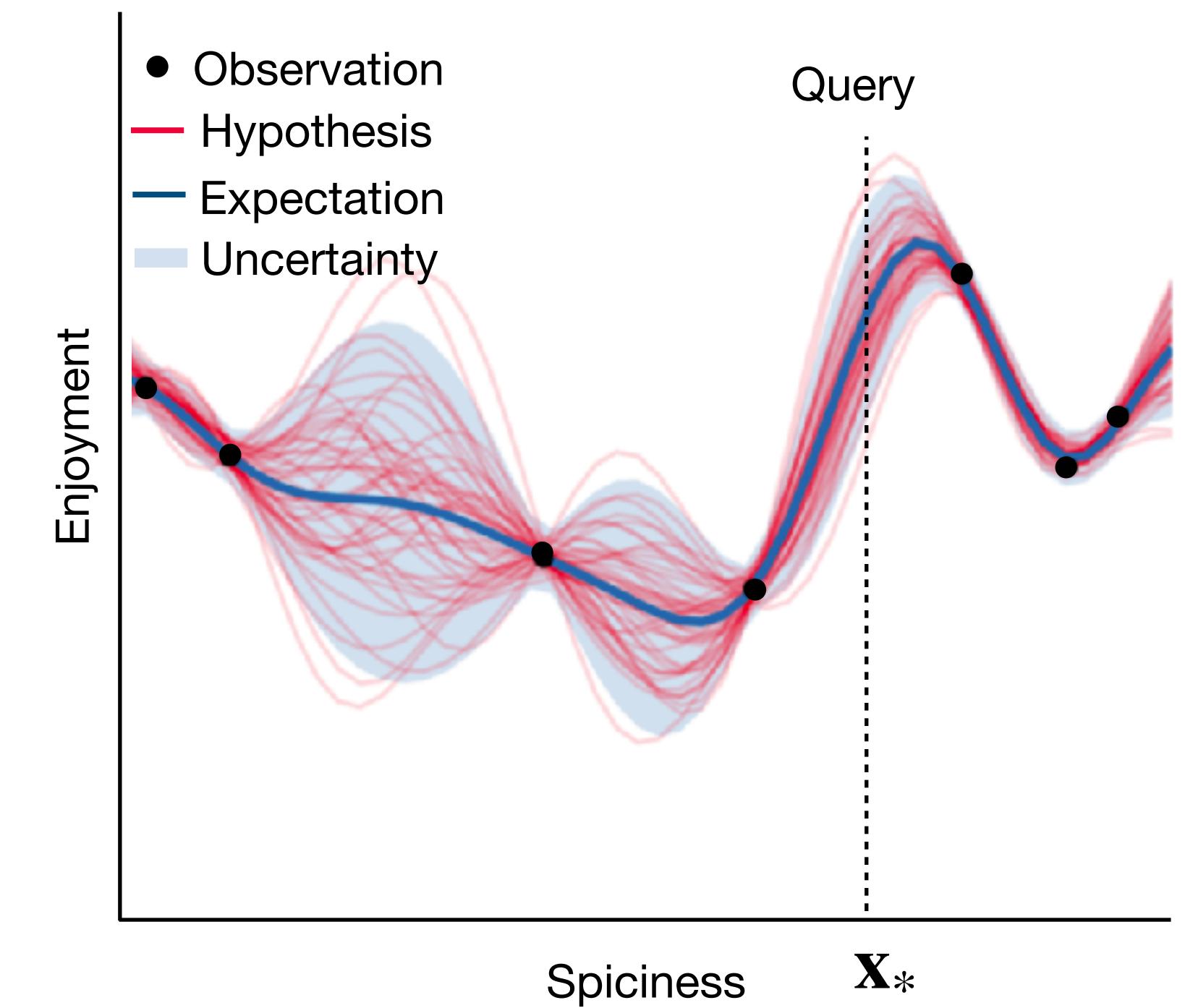


Gaussian Process (GP) regression as a hybrid model

- Bayesian framework for function learning
 - Assumes a distribution over functions: each function corresponds to a **hypothesis** about the relationship between x and y
- Bayesian posterior is conditioned on past **observations**, letting us make predictions (with uncertainty) about any point along the input space (\mathbf{x}_*)
- Called Gaussian process, because of Gaussian assumptions: predictions at each point are defined by a posterior **mean** (i.e., expectation) and **variance** (uncertainty); more details on the next slide
- GPs are a *non-parametric* model, meaning the complexity is defined by the data not the number of parameters in the chosen functional class (i.e., *parametric models*)

Gaussian Process (GP) regression as a hybrid model

- Bayesian framework for function learning
 - Assumes a distribution over functions: each function corresponds to a **hypothesis** about the relationship between x and y
- Bayesian posterior is conditioned on past **observations**, letting us make predictions (with uncertainty) about any point along the input space (\mathbf{x}_*)
- Called Gaussian process, because of Gaussian assumptions: predictions at each point are defined by a posterior **mean** (i.e., expectation) and **variance** (uncertainty); more details on the next slide
- GPs are a *non-parametric* model, meaning the complexity is defined by the data not the number of parameters in the chosen functional class (i.e., *parametric models*)



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel
e.g., RBF kernel:

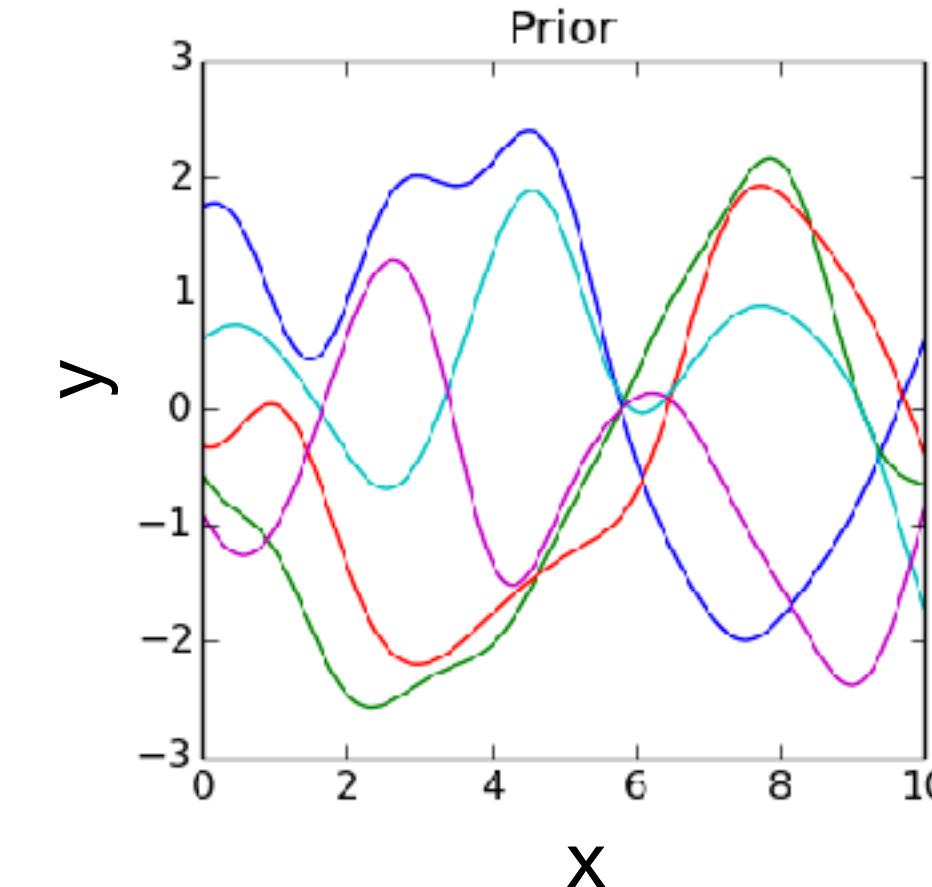
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

$$m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\nu(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$$



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

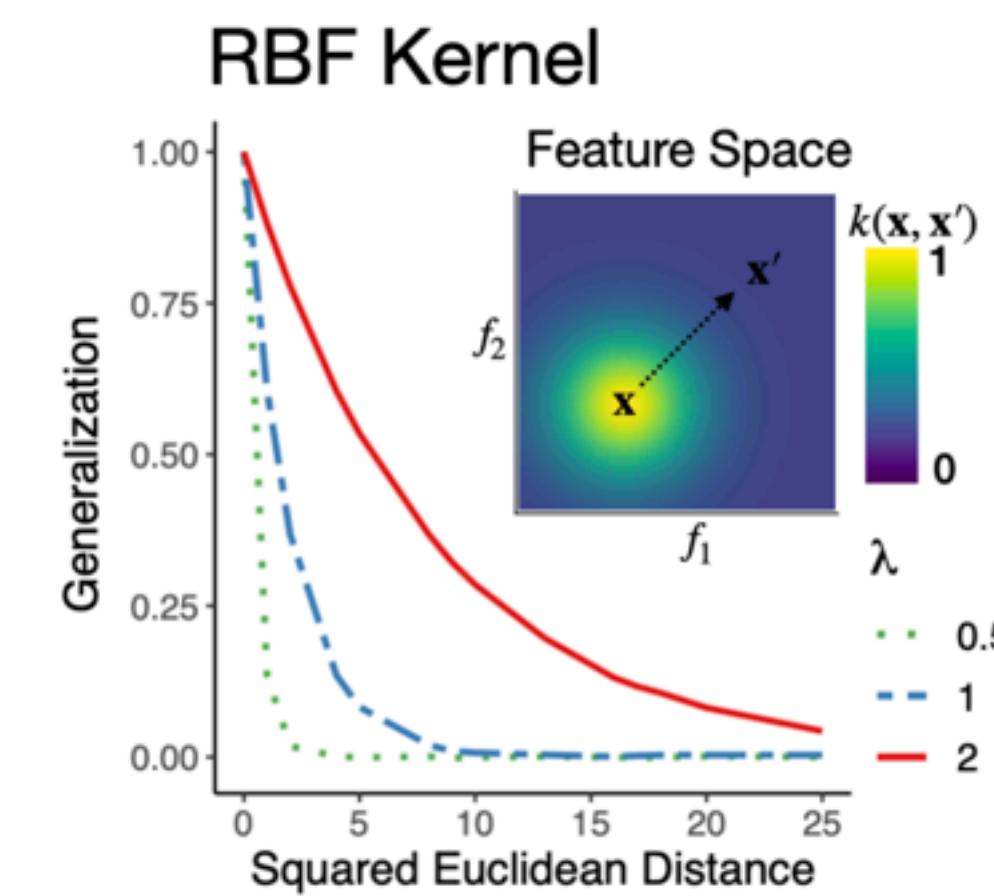
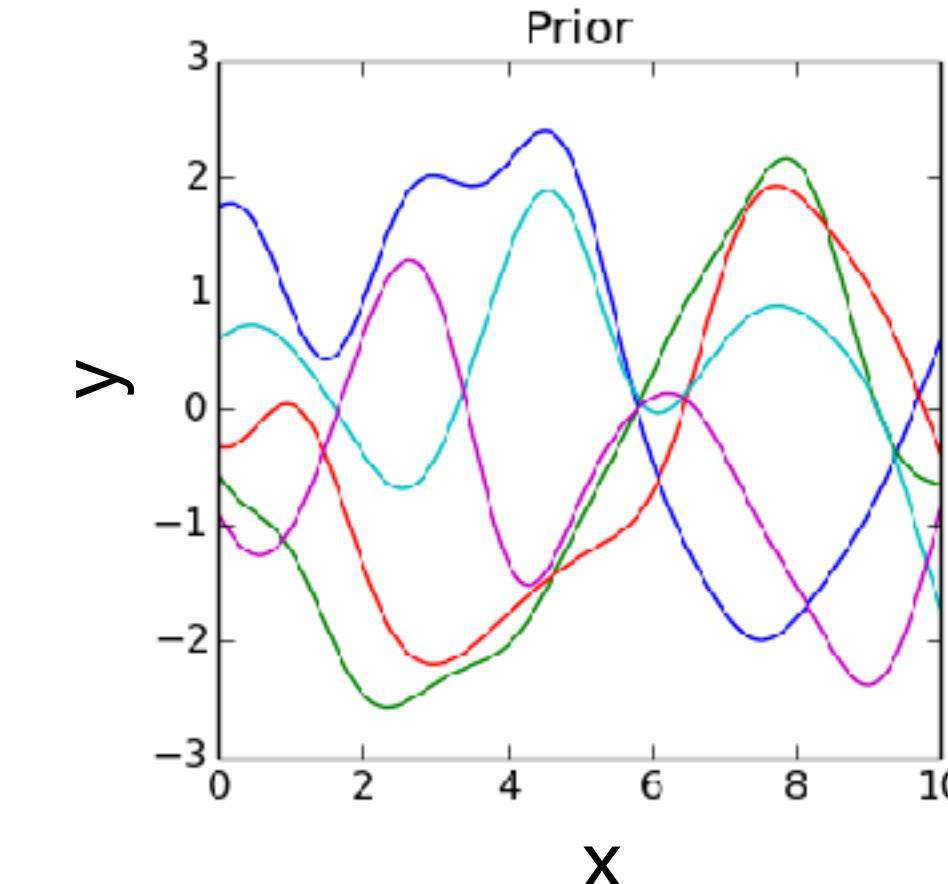
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

$$m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\nu(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$$



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

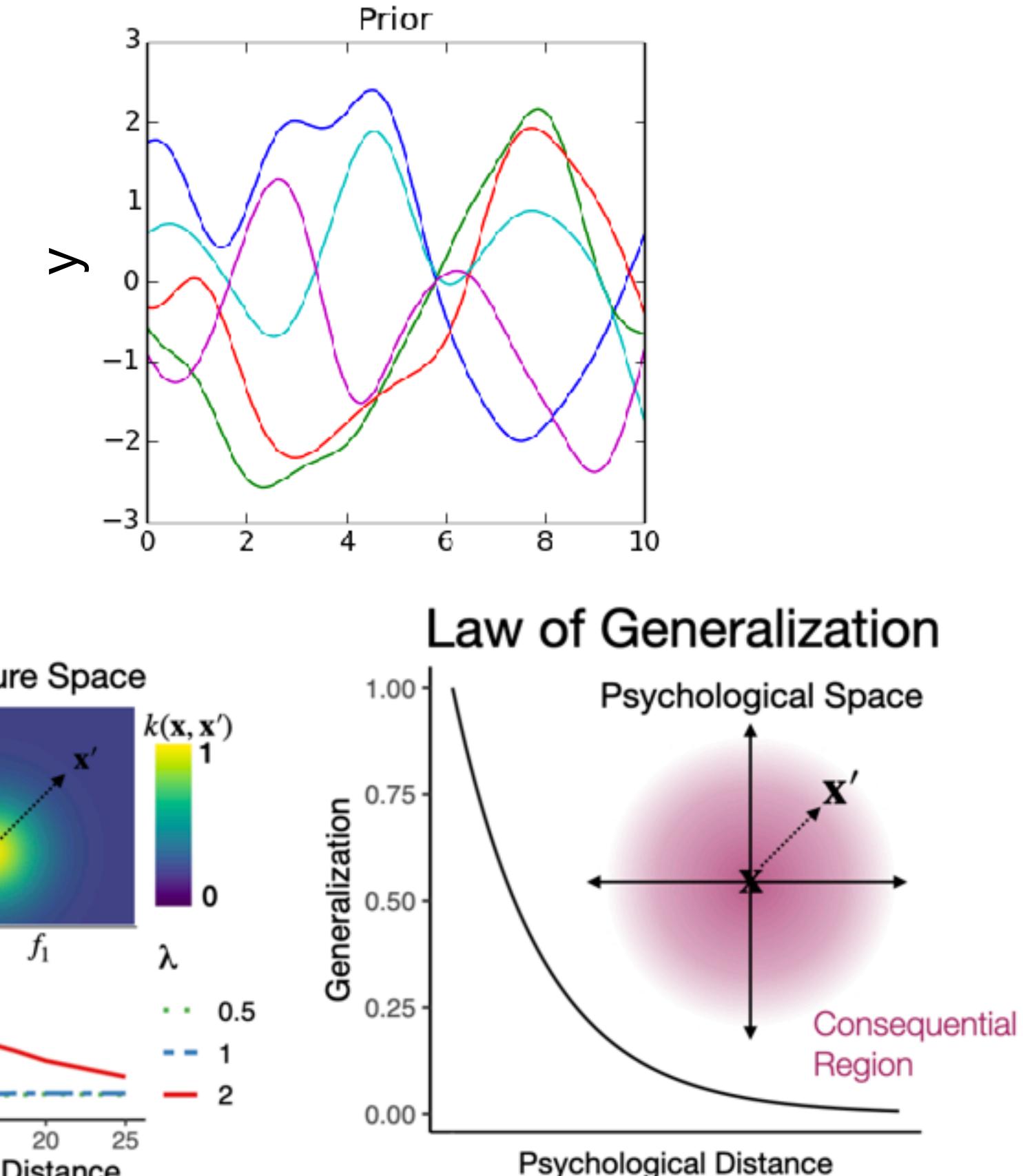
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

$$m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\nu(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$$



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

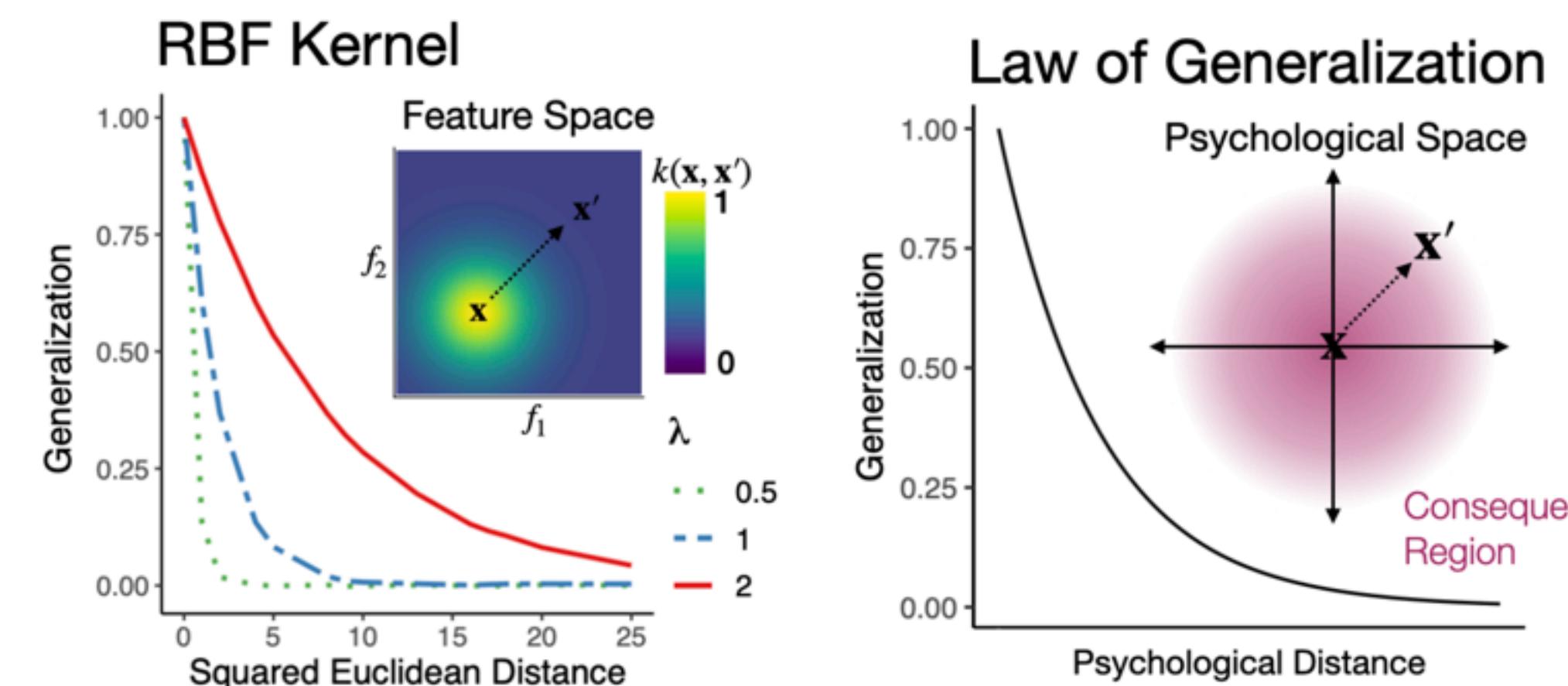
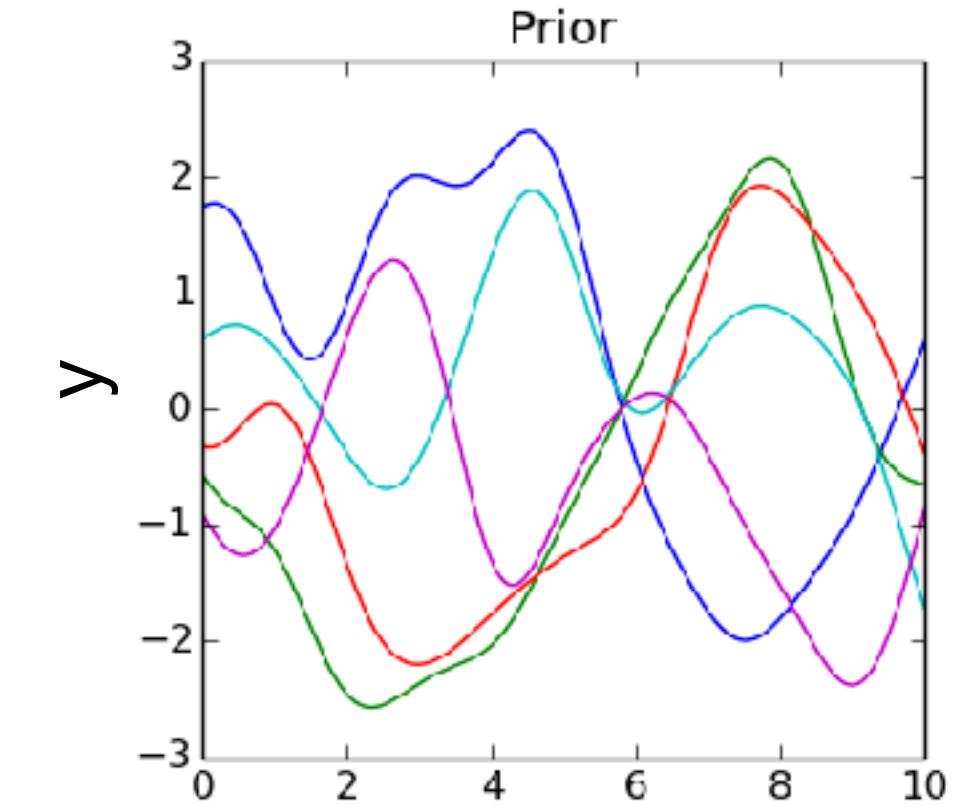
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

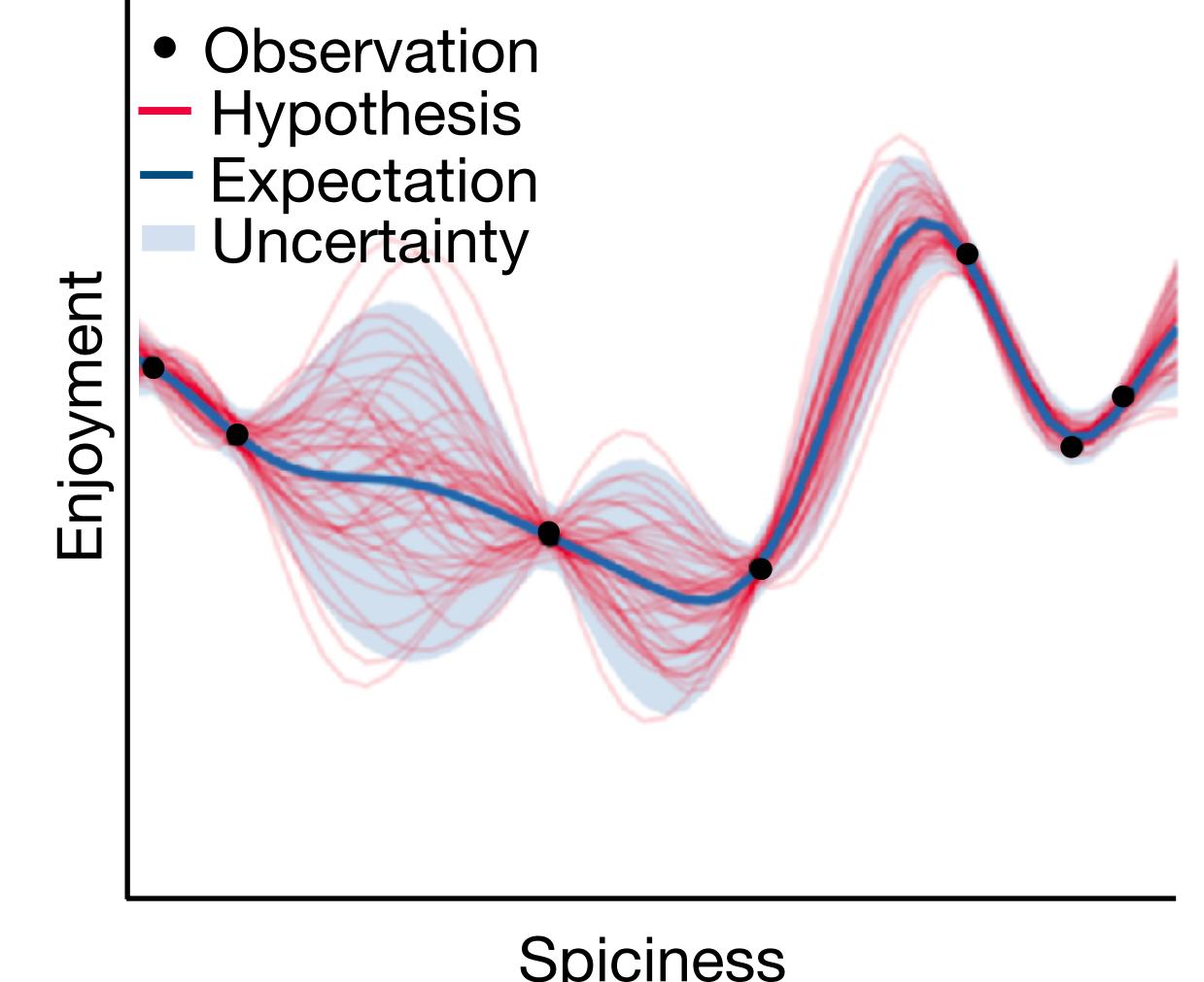
— $m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

■ $v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$



GP posterior

- Observation
- Hypothesis
- Expectation
- Uncertainty



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

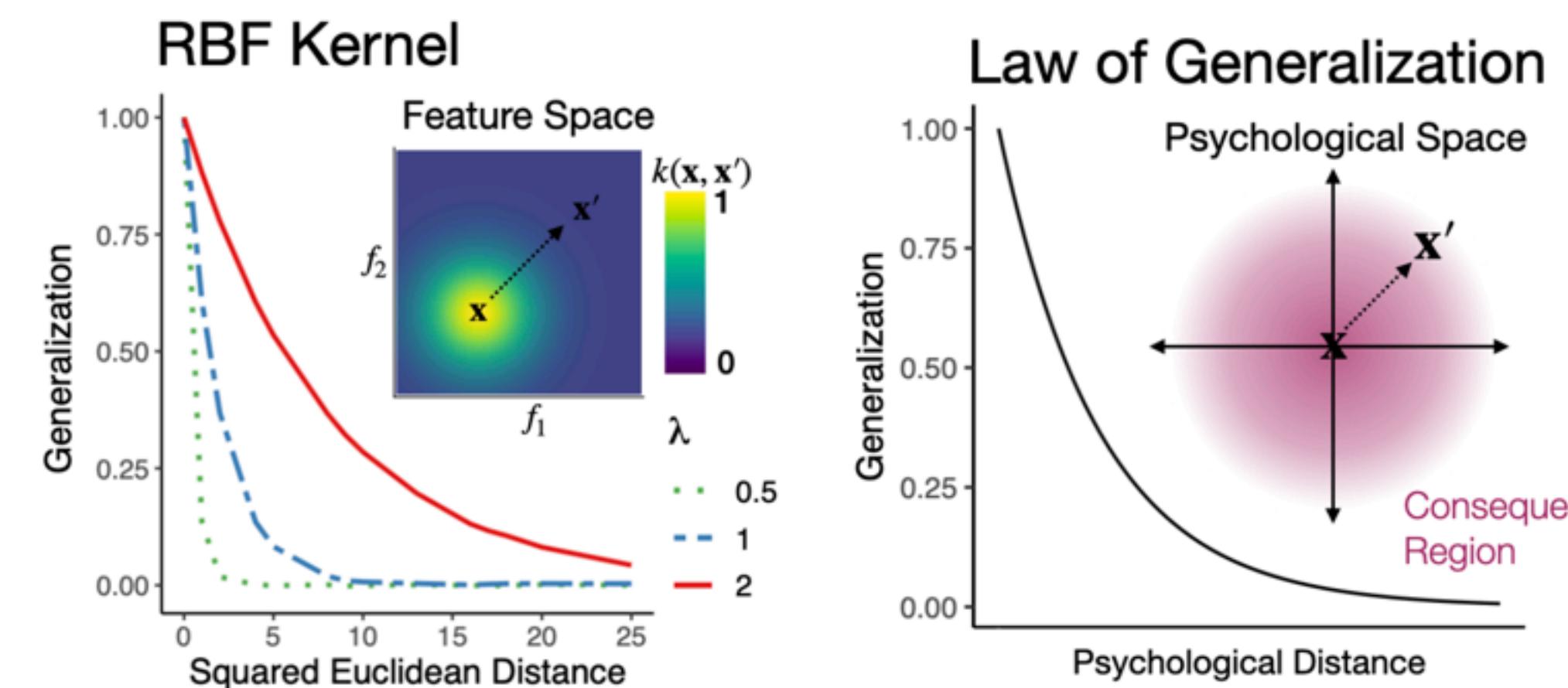
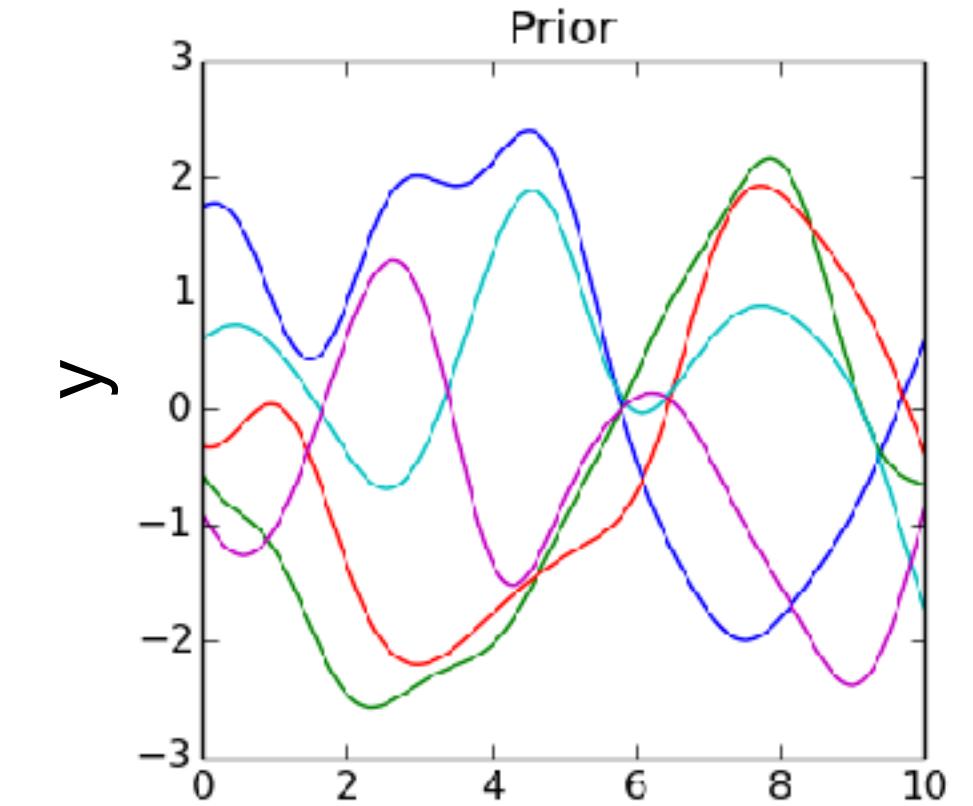
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

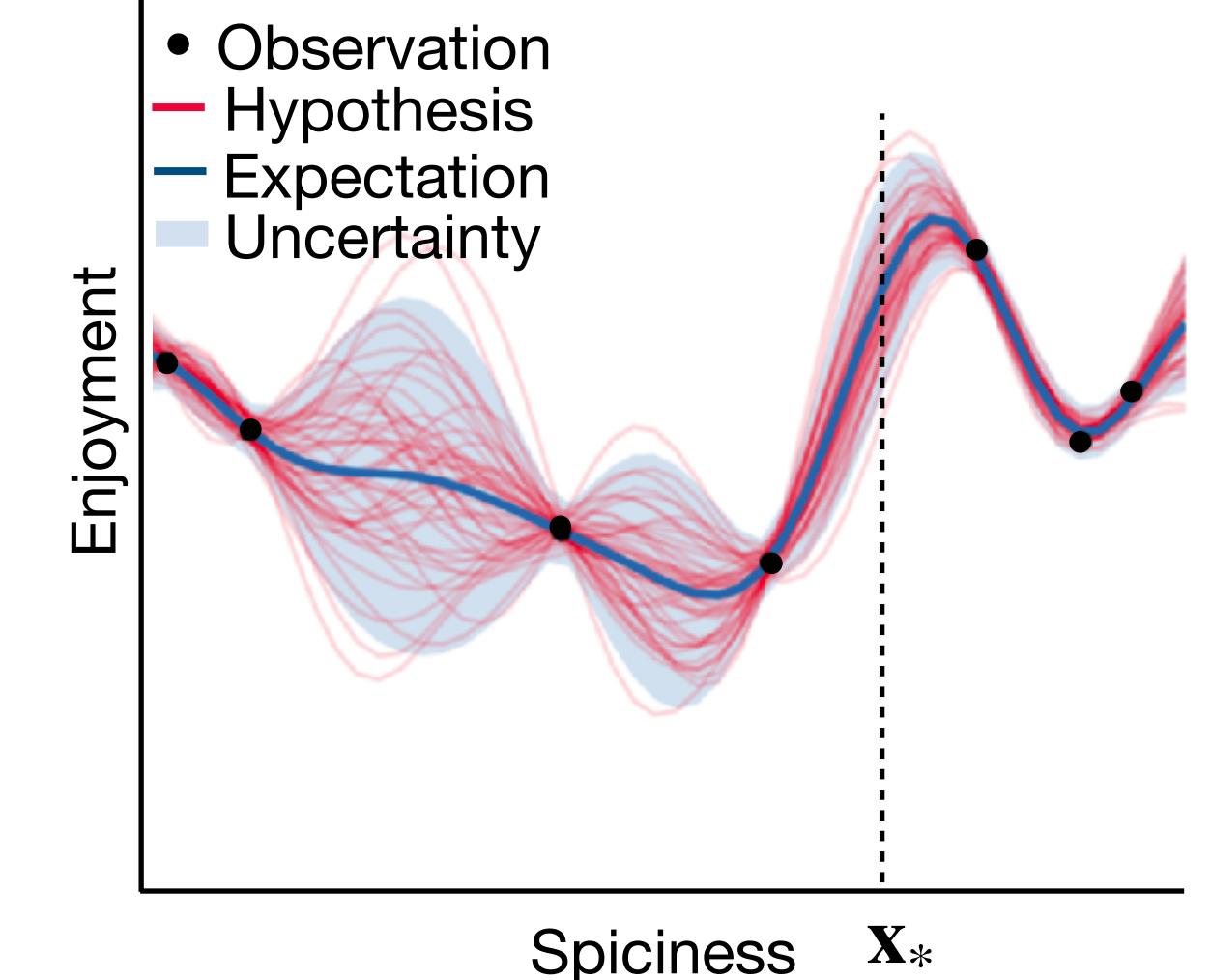
- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

— $m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

■ $v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$



GP posterior



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

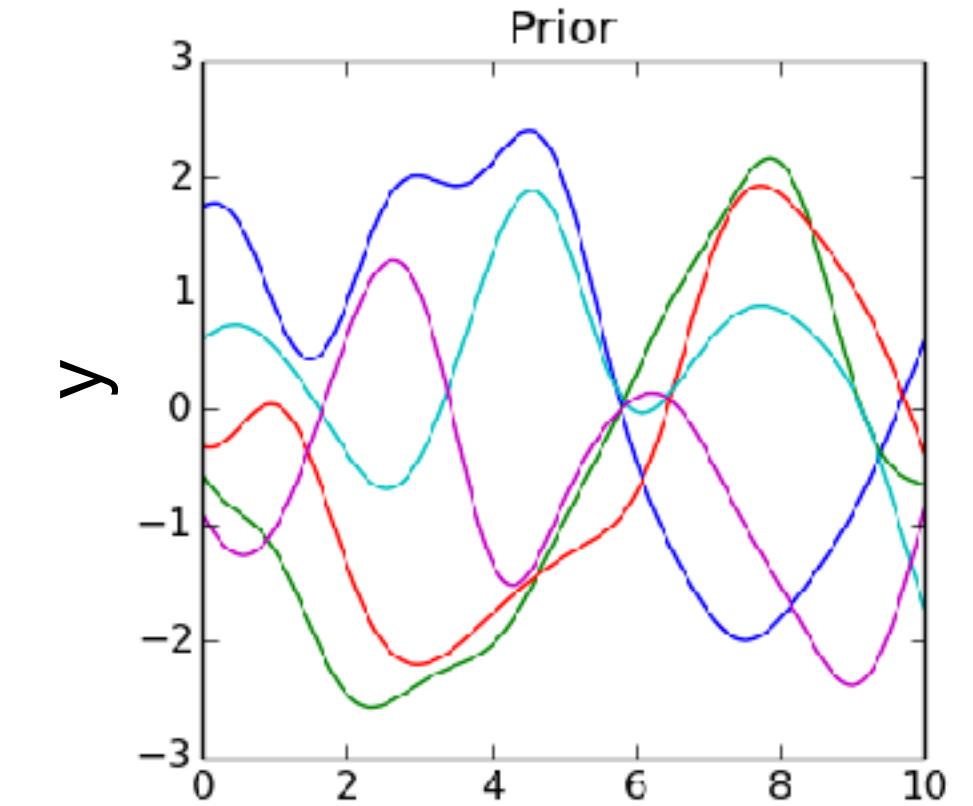
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

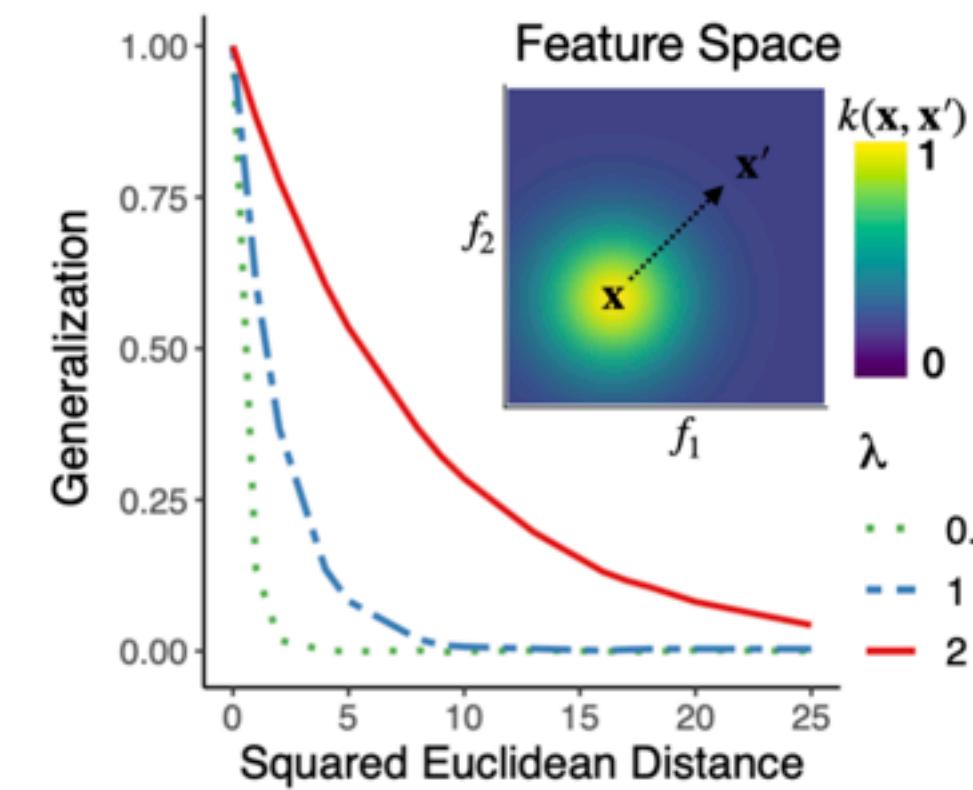
- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

— $m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

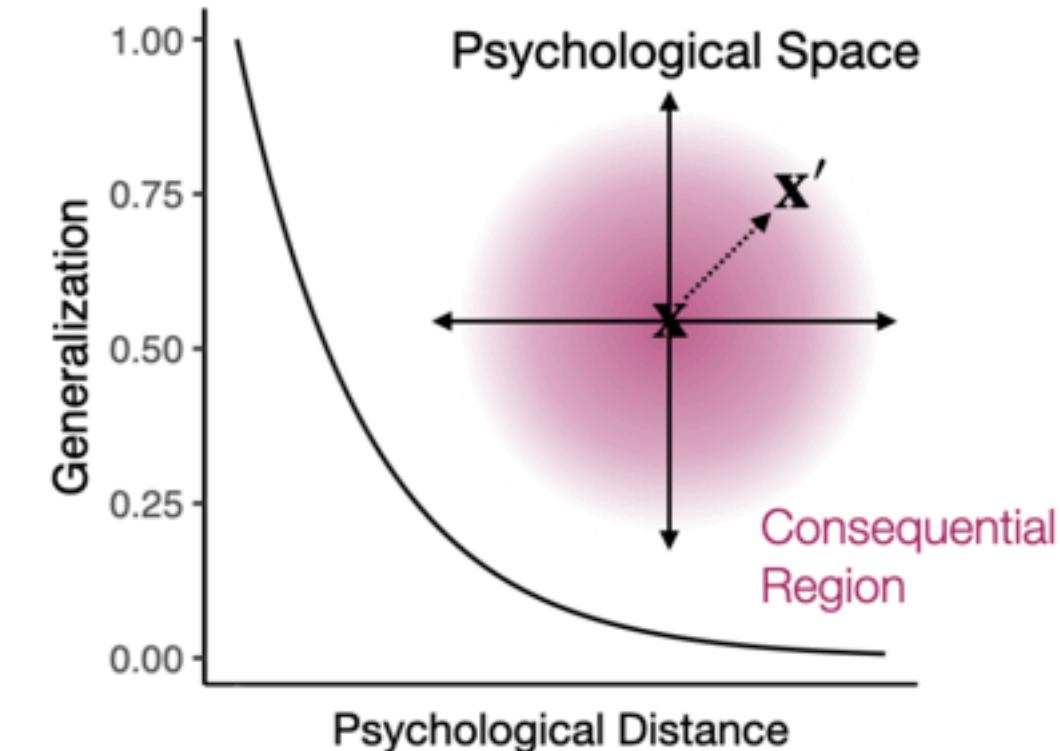
■ $v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$



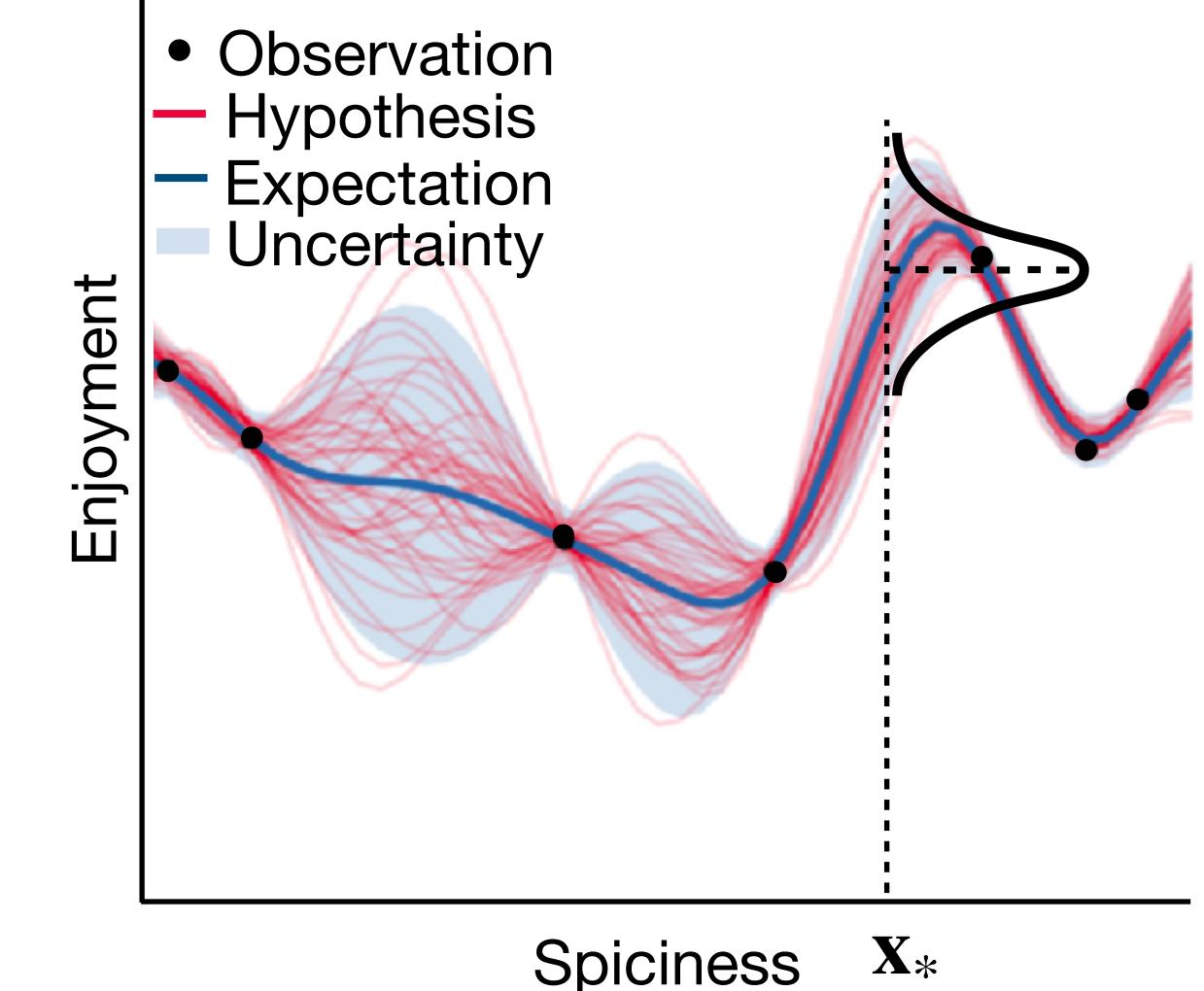
RBF Kernel



Law of Generalization



GP posterior



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

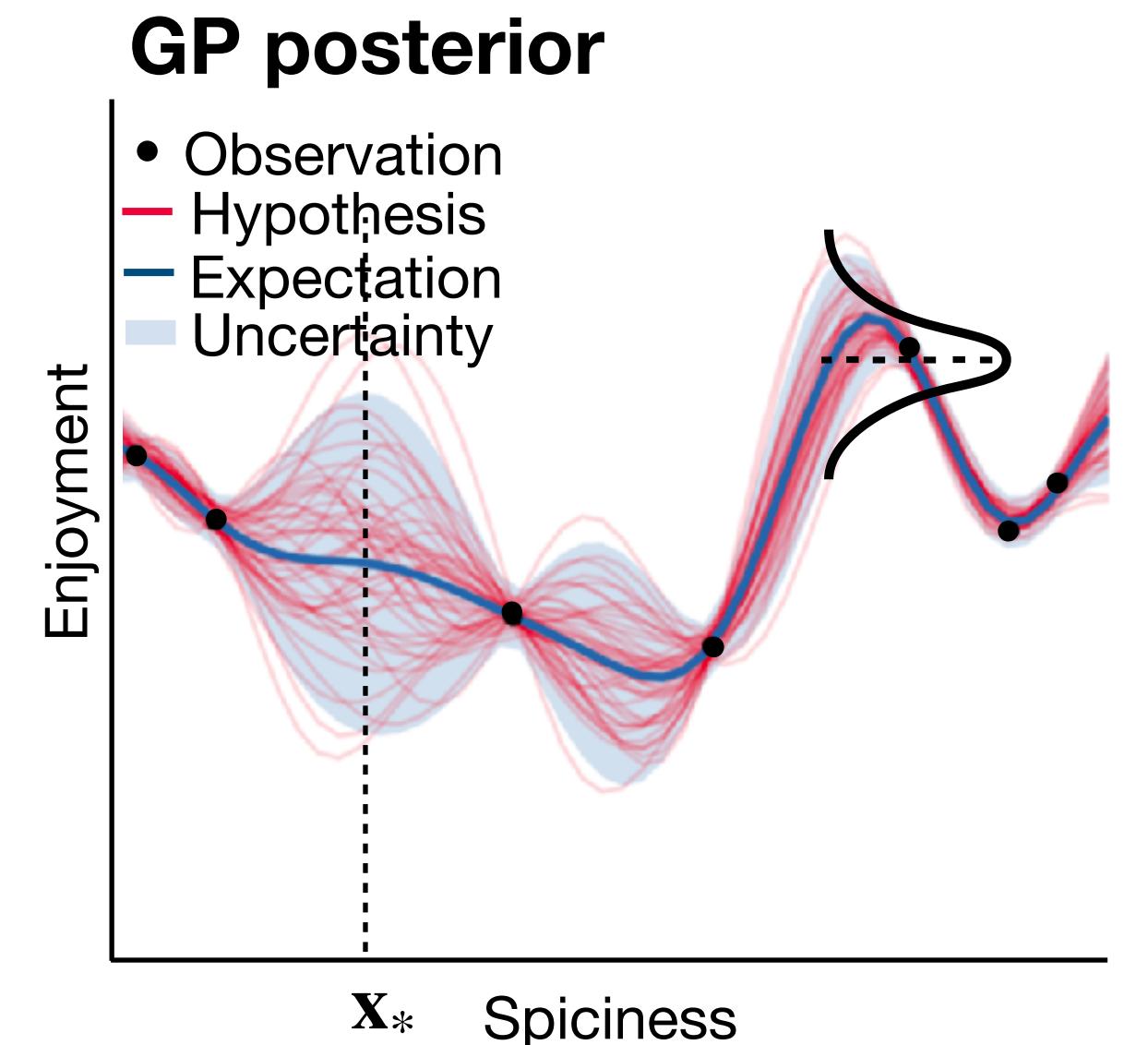
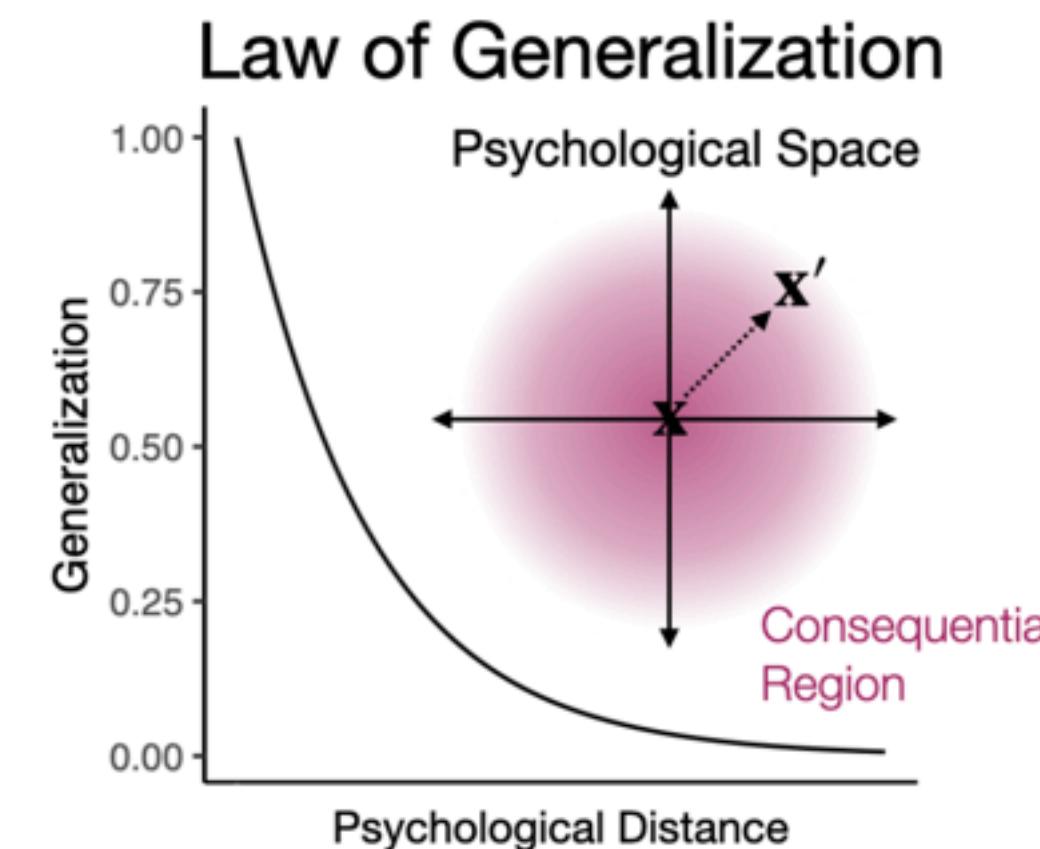
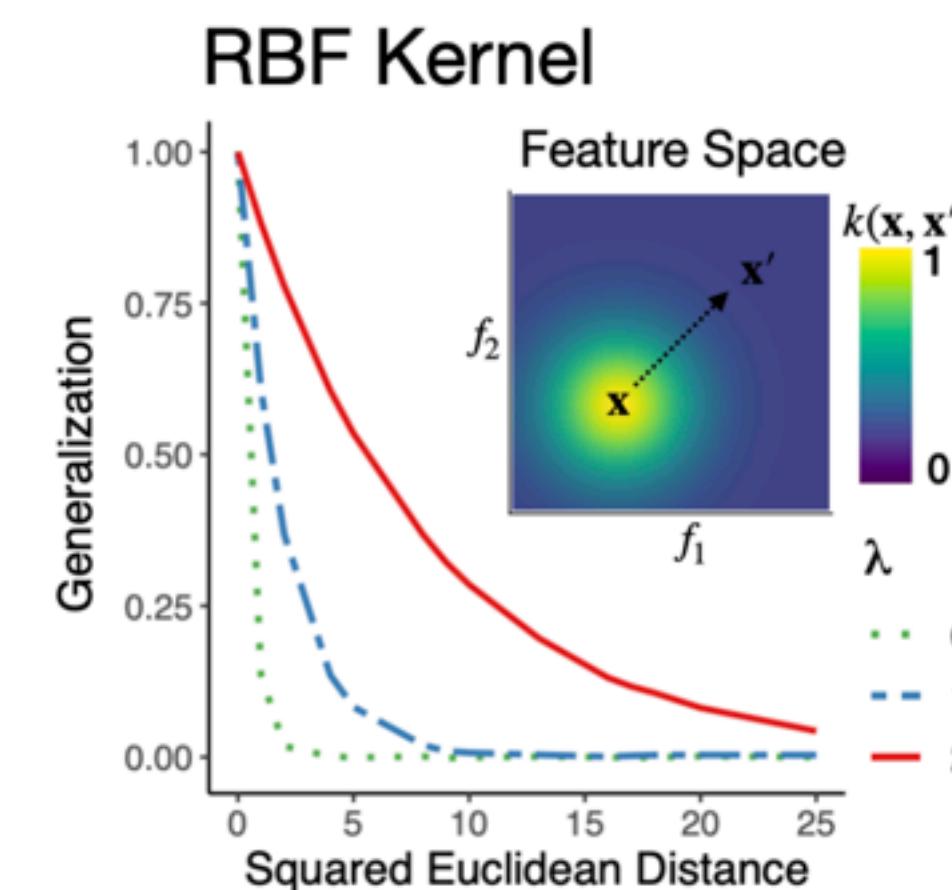
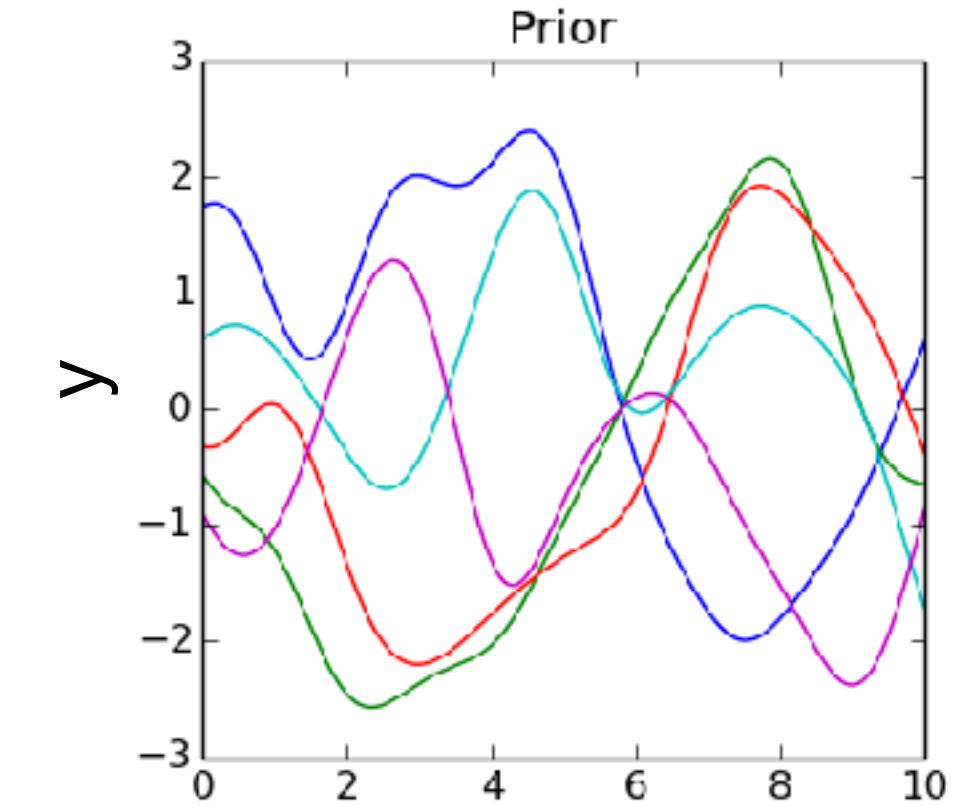
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

— $m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

■ $v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

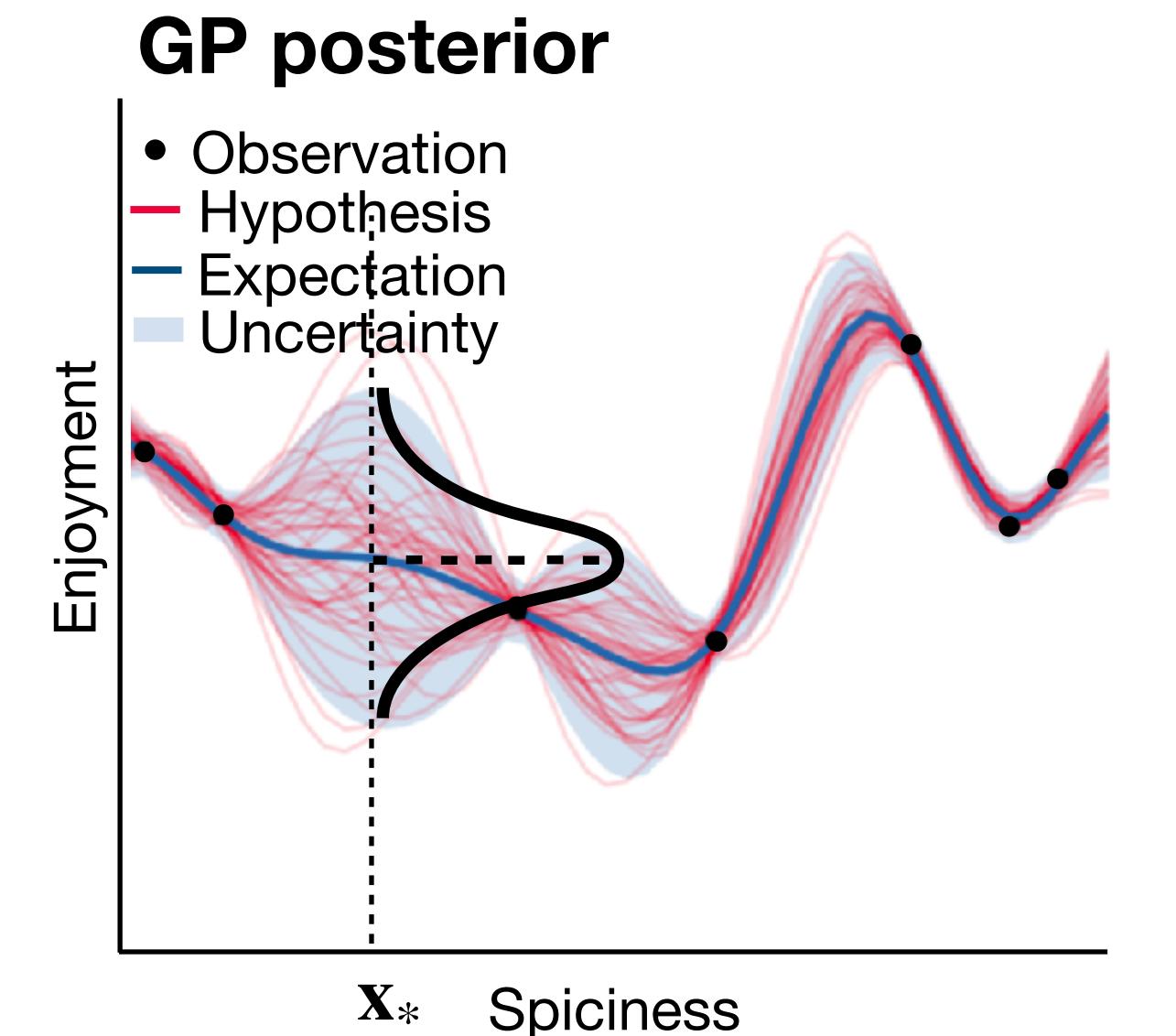
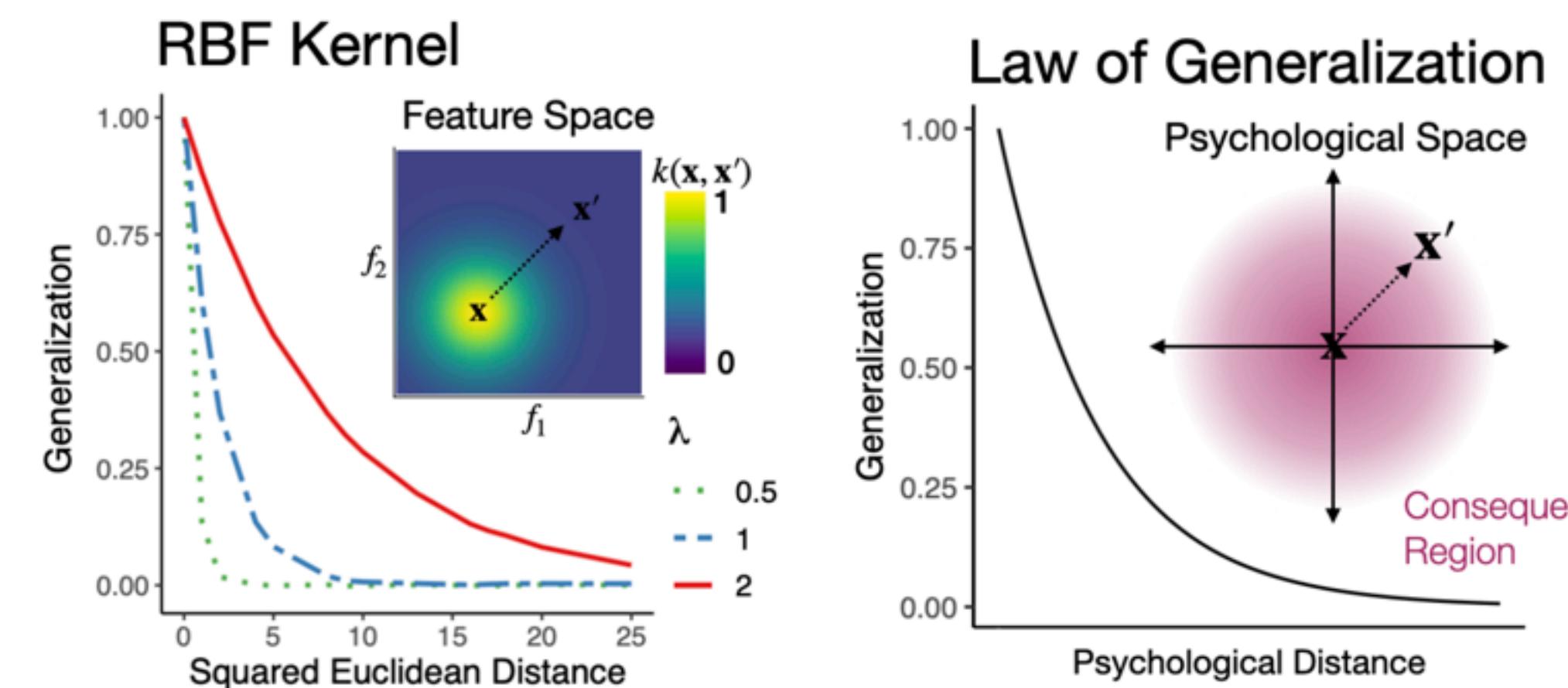
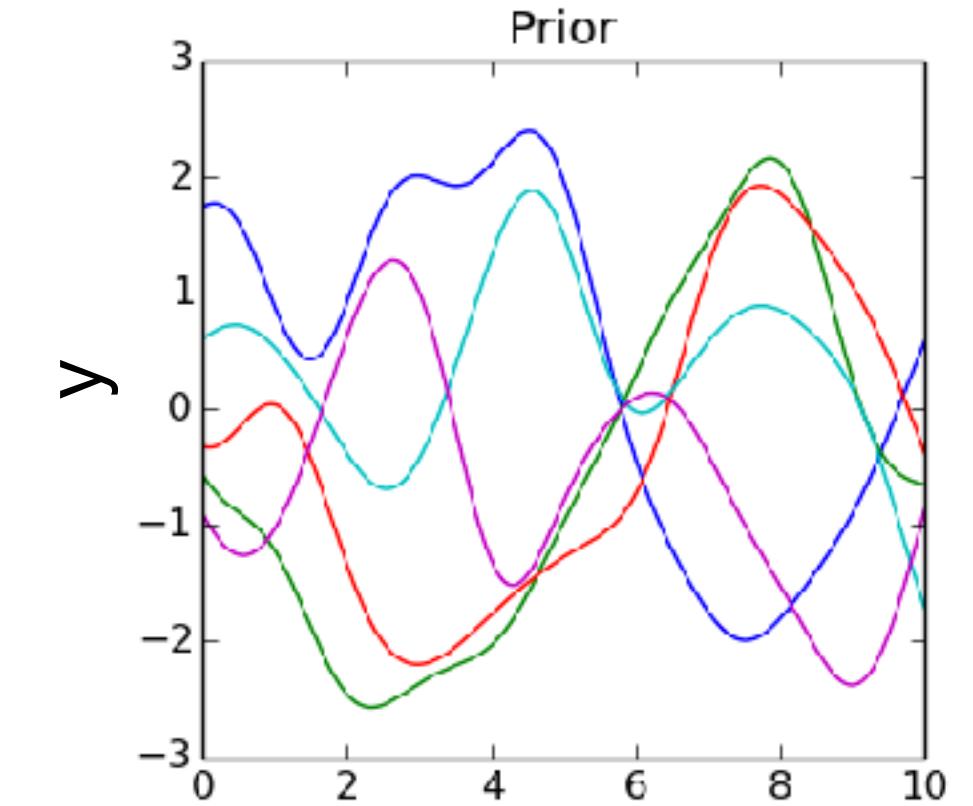
$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

— $m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

■ $v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$



Gaussian Process (GP) regression in detail

- Prior over functions (i.e., hypotheses) is a multivariate Gaussian:

$$P(f) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- prior mean $m(\mathbf{x})$ is typically set to 0 without loss of generalization
- Covariance $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is defined by a choice of kernel e.g., RBF kernel:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(\frac{-||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

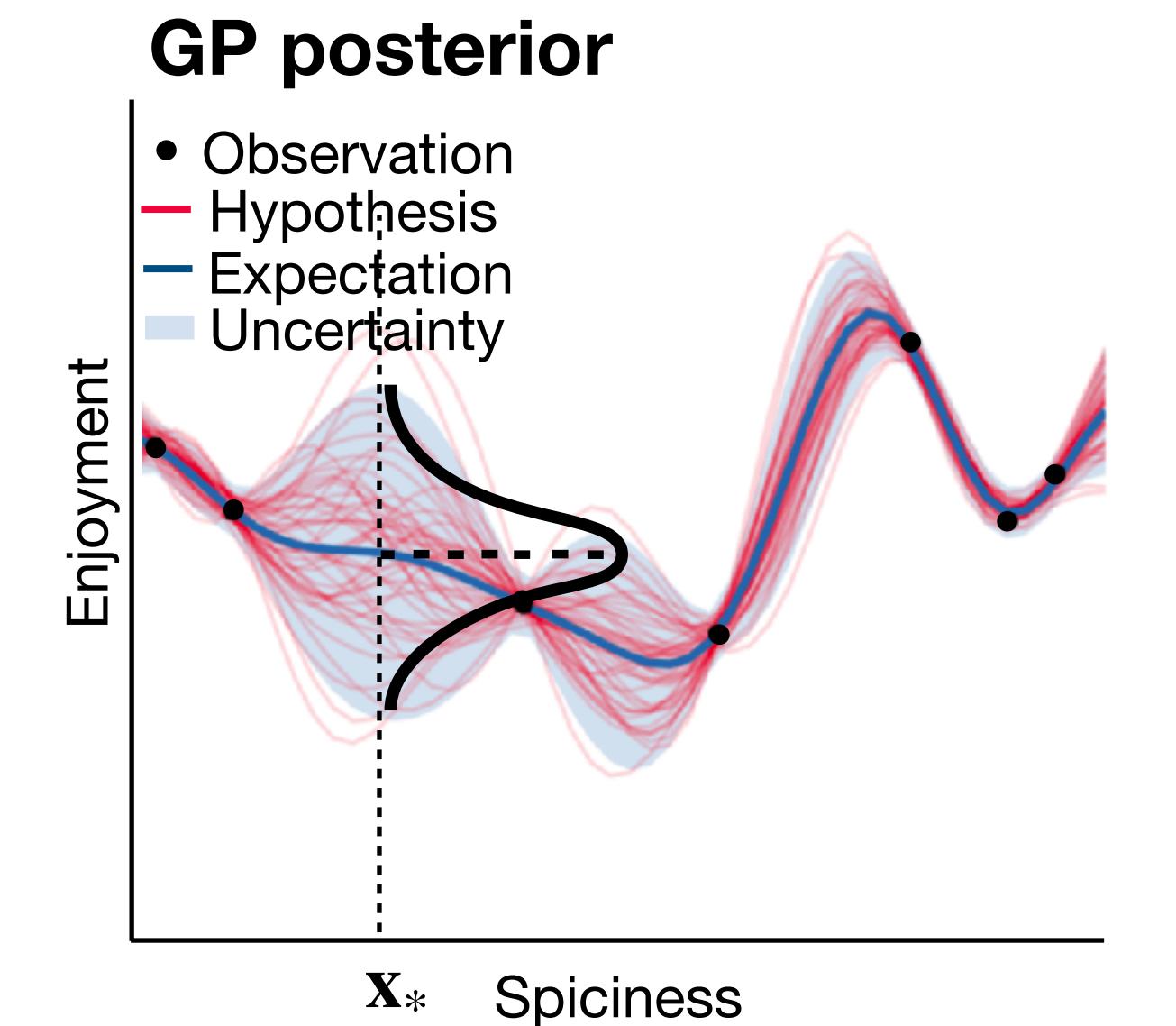
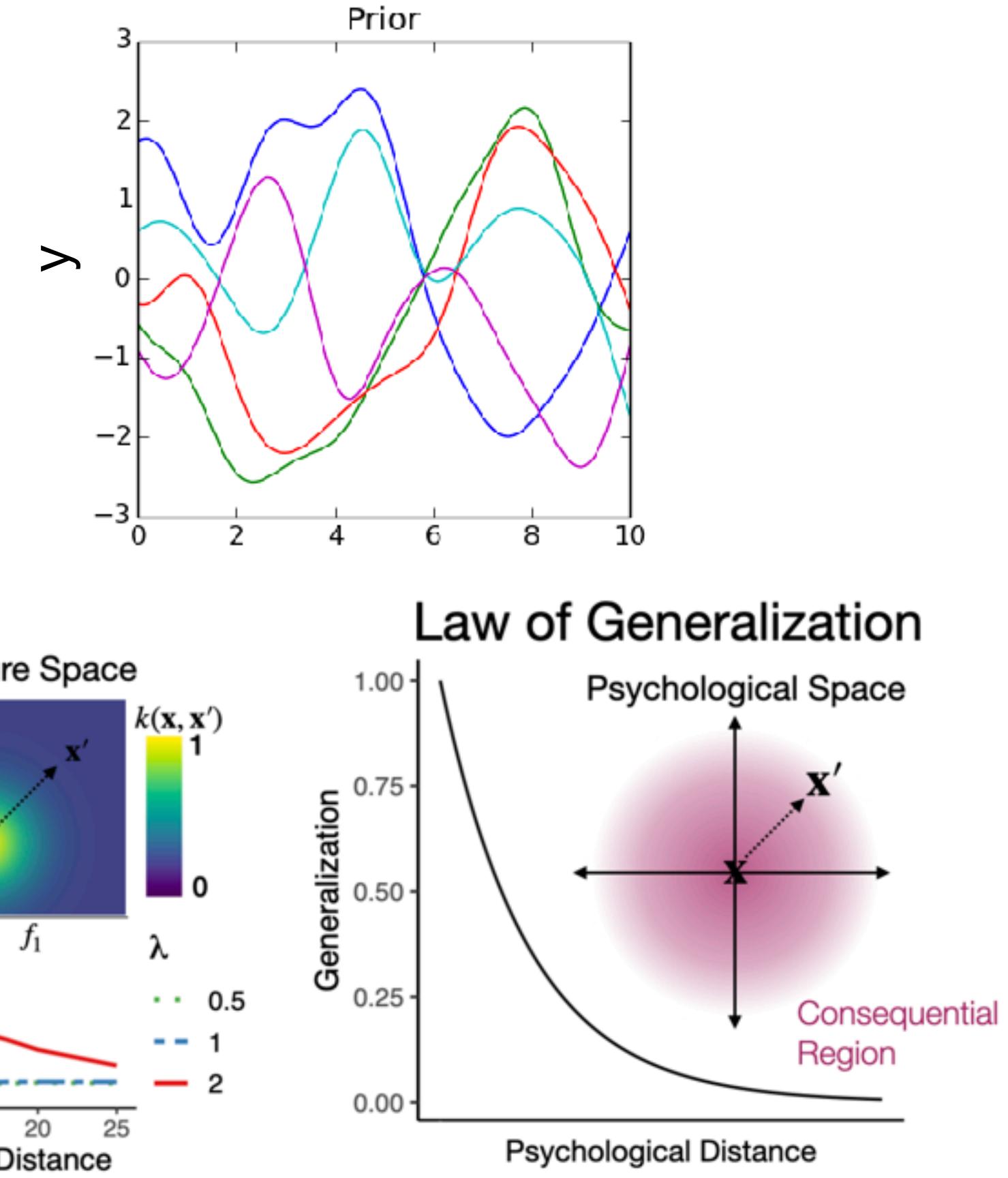
where λ defines the expected smoothness of the function

- Once we acquire some data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}\}$, we can compute a posterior prediction about any new datapoint \mathbf{x}_* that is also Gaussian with mean and variance defined as

— $m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

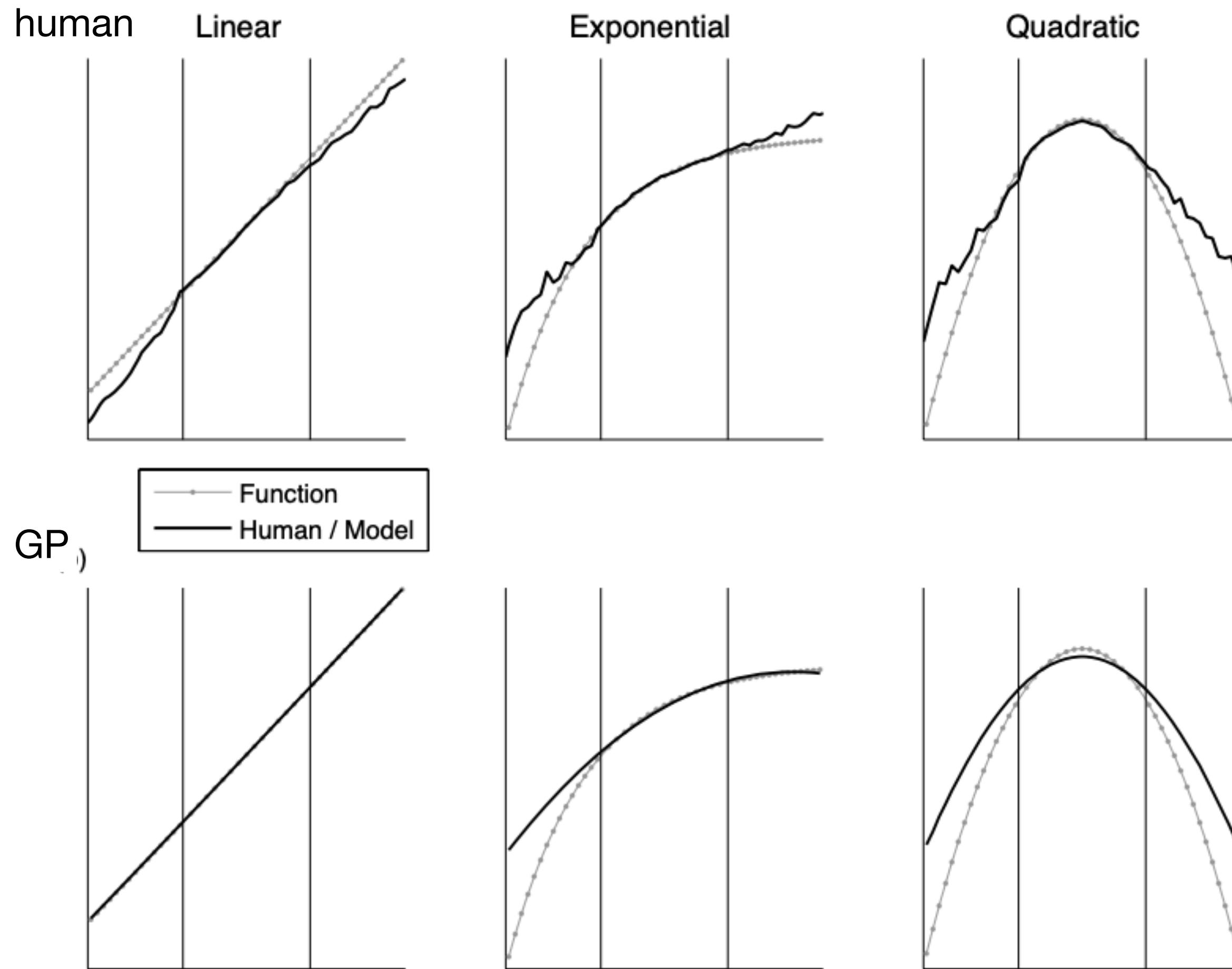
■ $v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$

*Don't worry too much about what these equations mean for now; I will provide some intuitions later

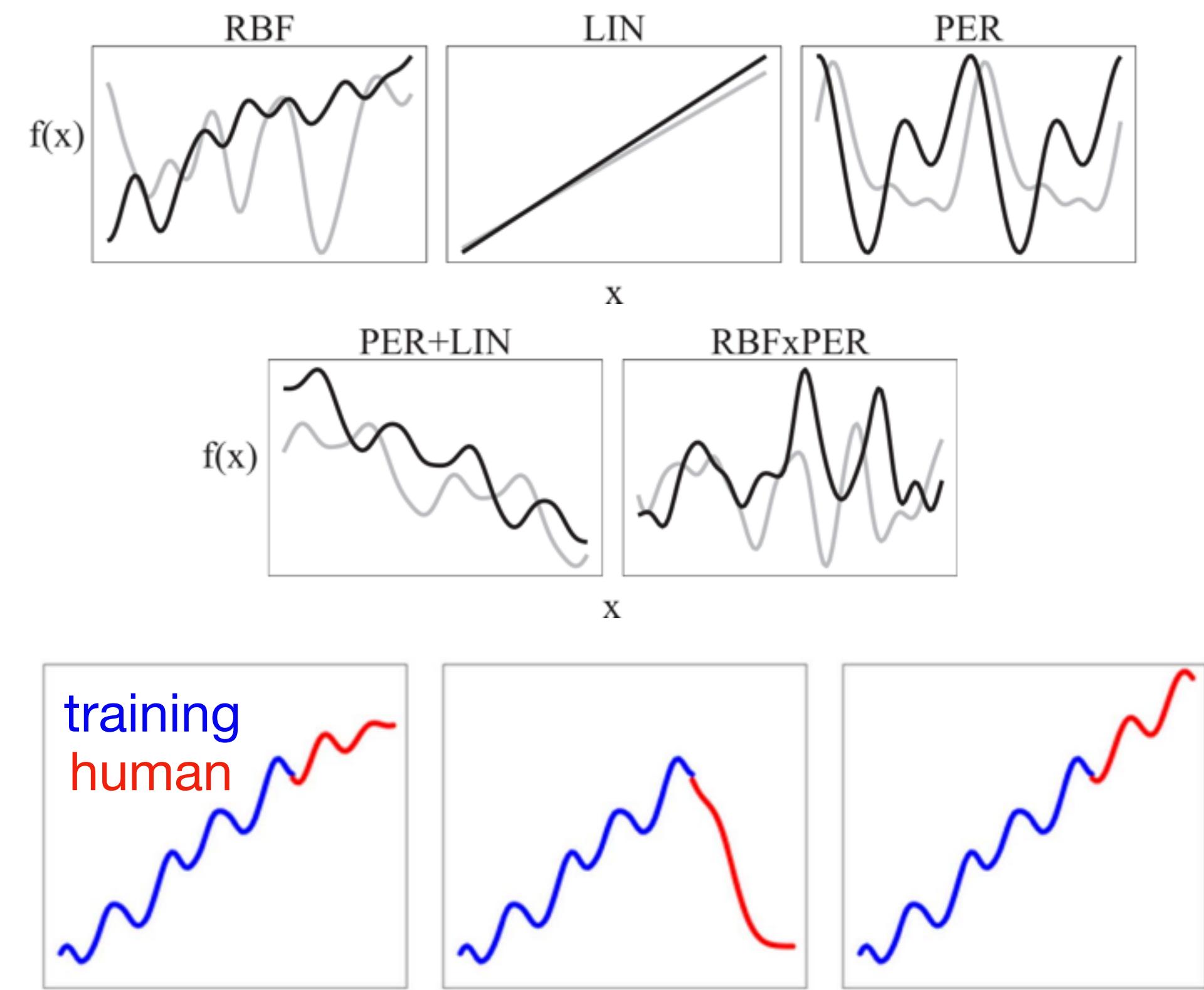


GPs provide the best predictions for human function learning

Extrapolation

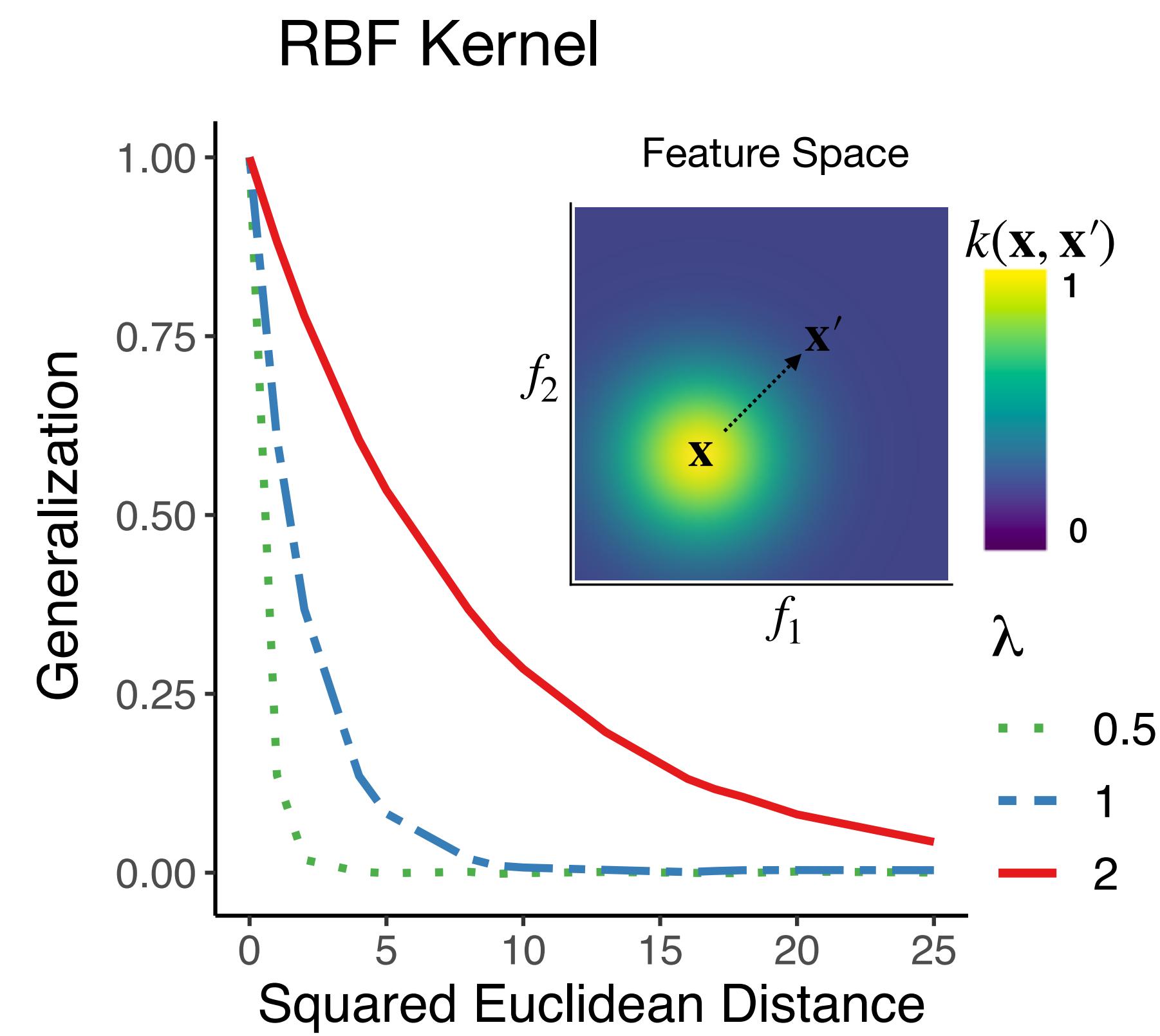


Compositional functions

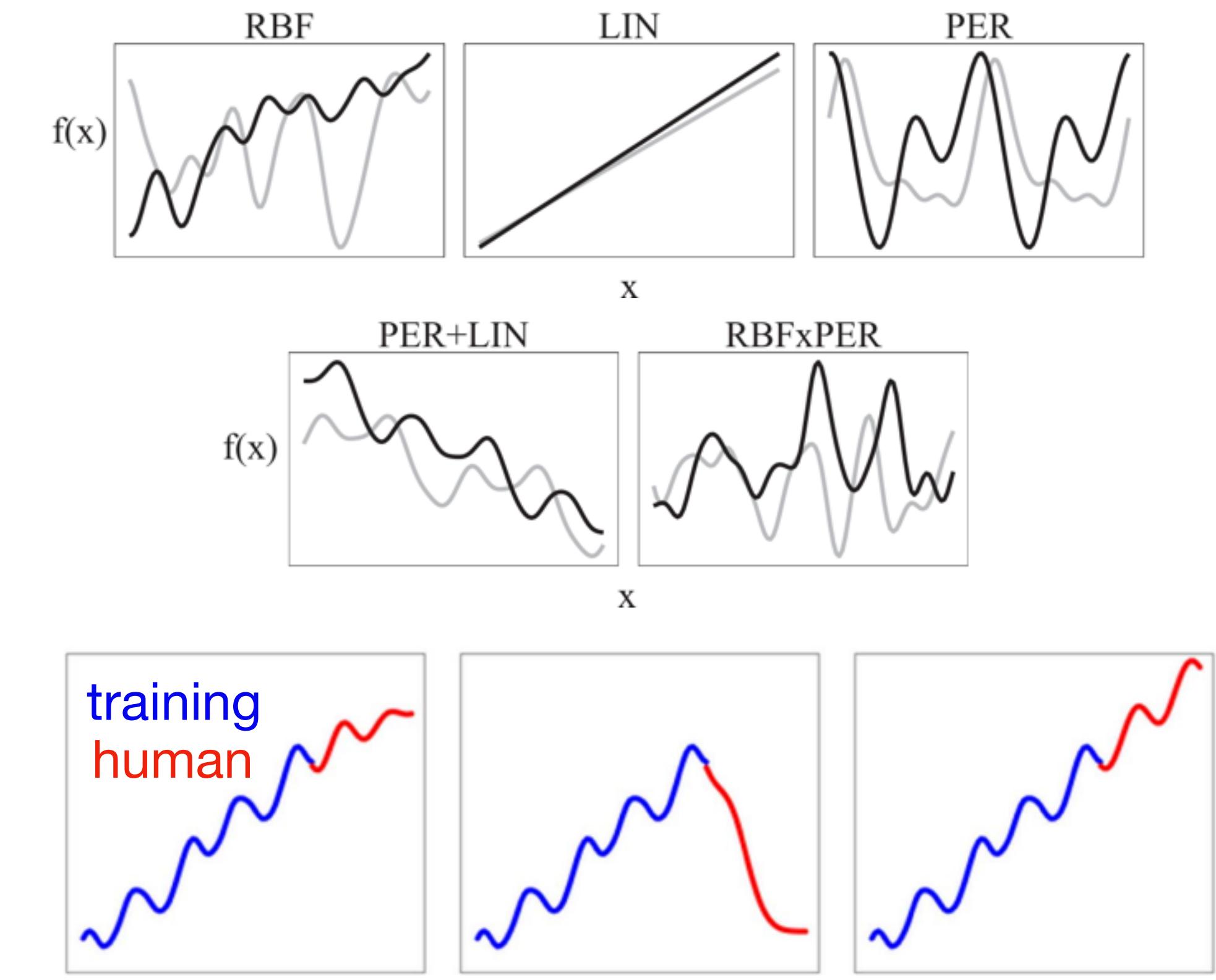


Duality of GP function learning

Kernel provides an explicit **similarity metric**



Kernels can be compositionally combined, similar to how we can combine **rules** to create new ones



Connection to RL

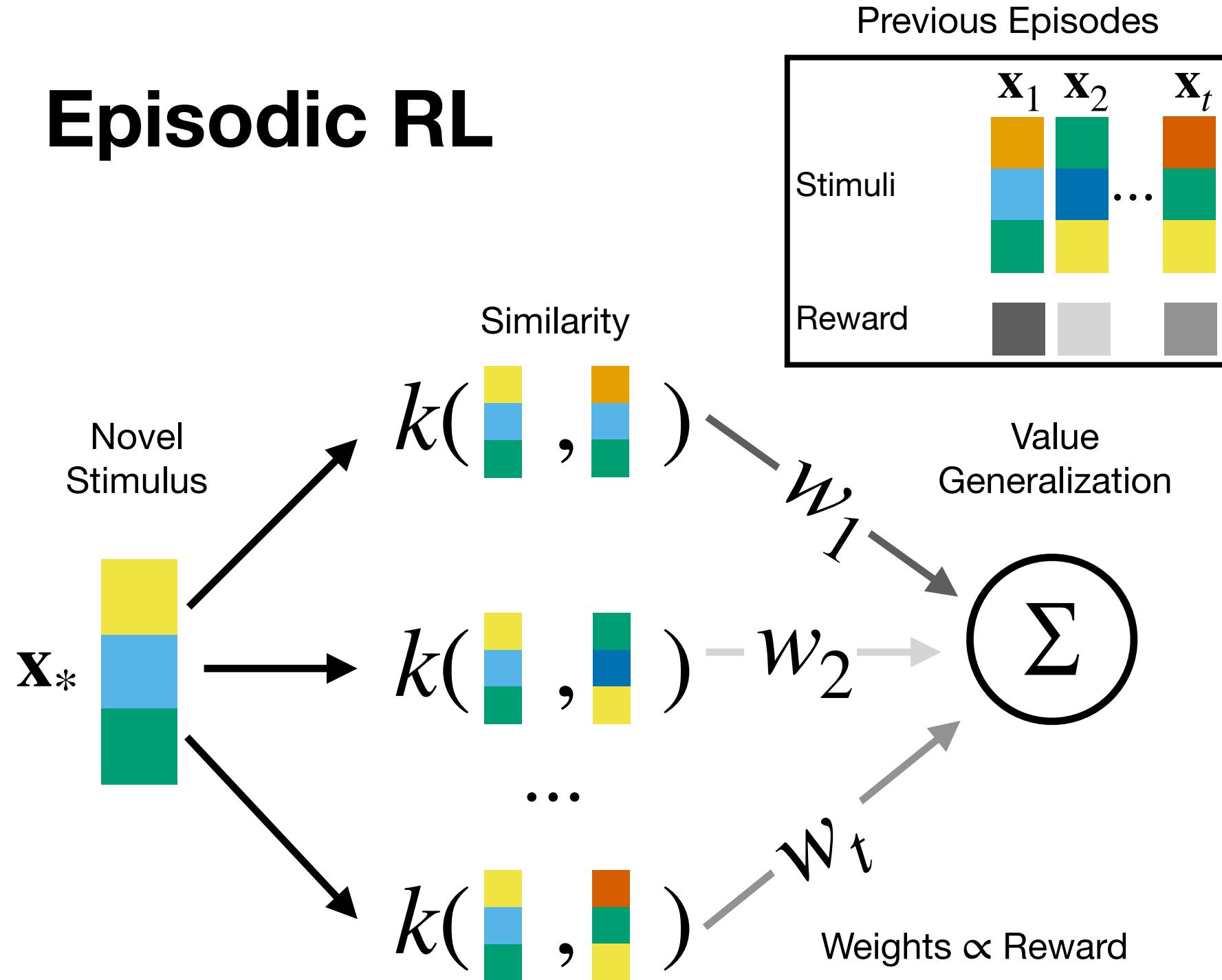
Connection to RL

- Episodic RL for generalization in new settings

(Gershman & Daw, *AnnRevPsych* 2017; Bottvinick et al., *TICS* 2019)

- Store a memory of each previously encountered stimuli \mathbf{x} and it's reward y
- Predict the value of new stimuli based on a similarity-weighted sum of past episodes

Episodic RL



Connection to RL

- Episodic RL for generalization in new settings

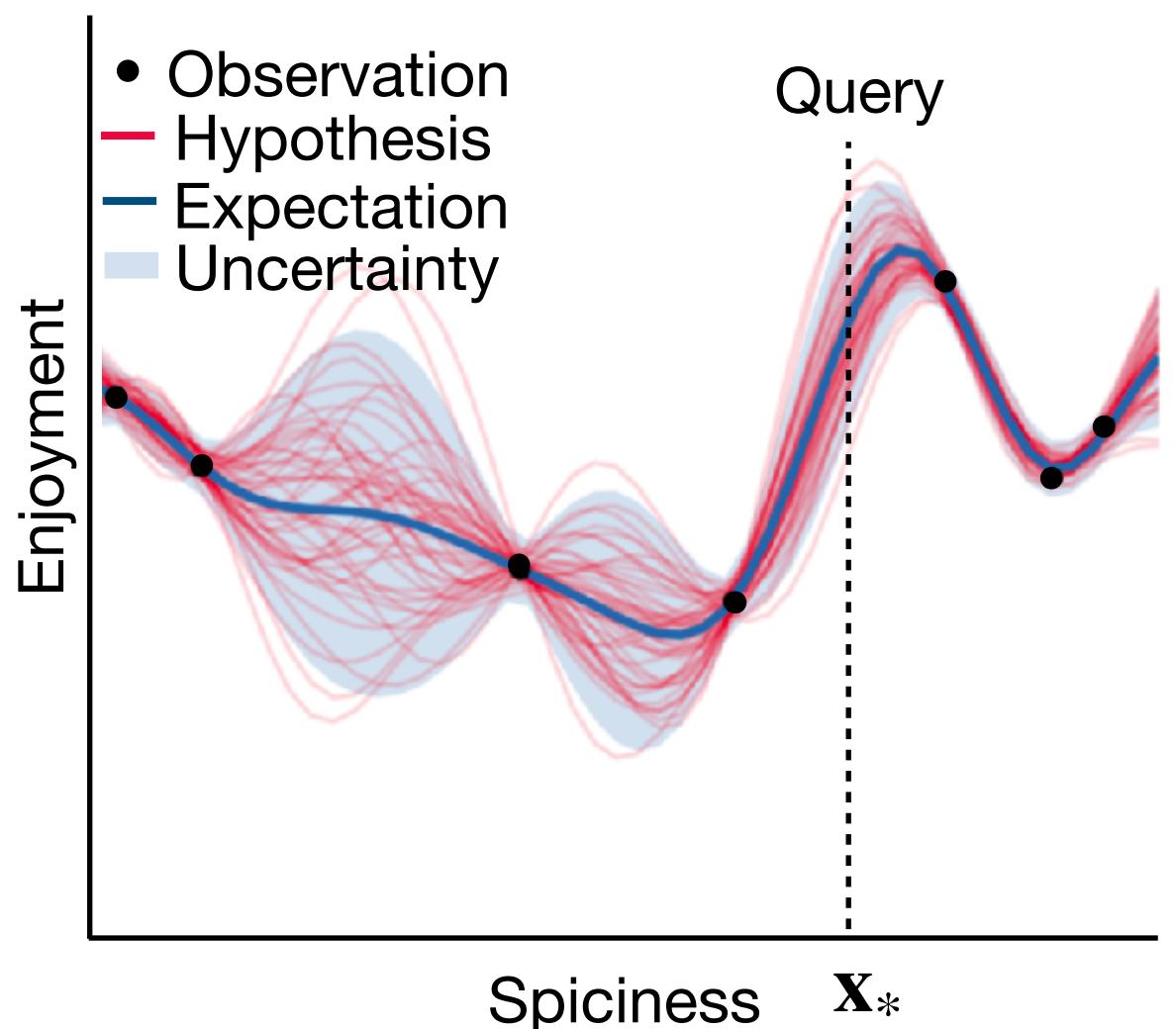
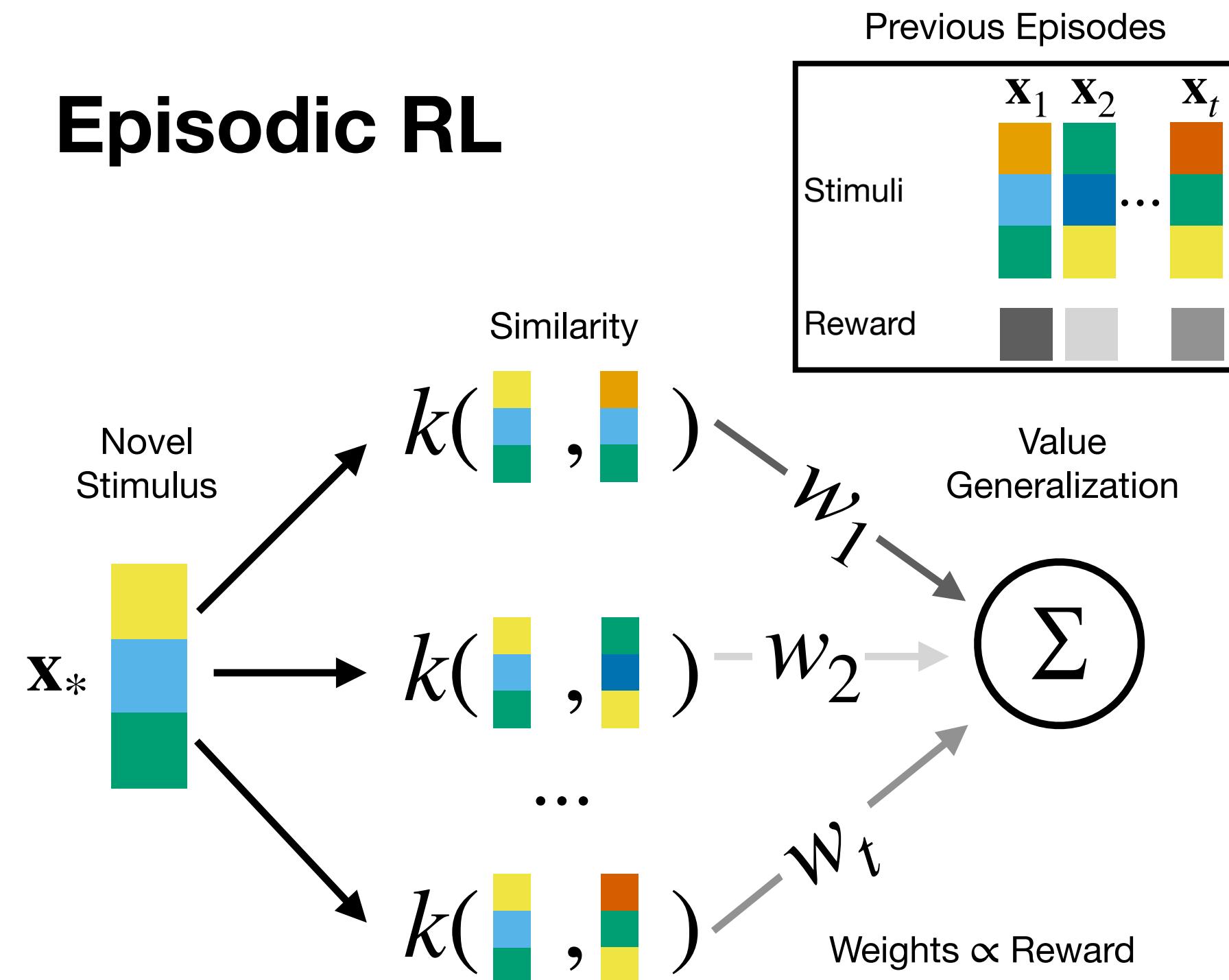
(Gershman & Daw, *AnnRevPsych* 2017; Bottvinick et al., *TICS* 2019)

- Store a memory of each previously encountered stimuli \mathbf{x} and its reward y
- Predict the value of new stimuli based on a similarity-weighted sum of past episodes
- GPs provide a Bayesian analogue of Episodic RL
 - Using an RBF kernel as the similarity metric, Episodic RL is equivalent to the GP posterior mean
- Yet GPs provide uncertainty estimates, which is essential for defining which states to explore!

$$\text{— } m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\text{■ } v(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$$

Episodic RL



Connection to RL

- Episodic RL for generalization in new settings

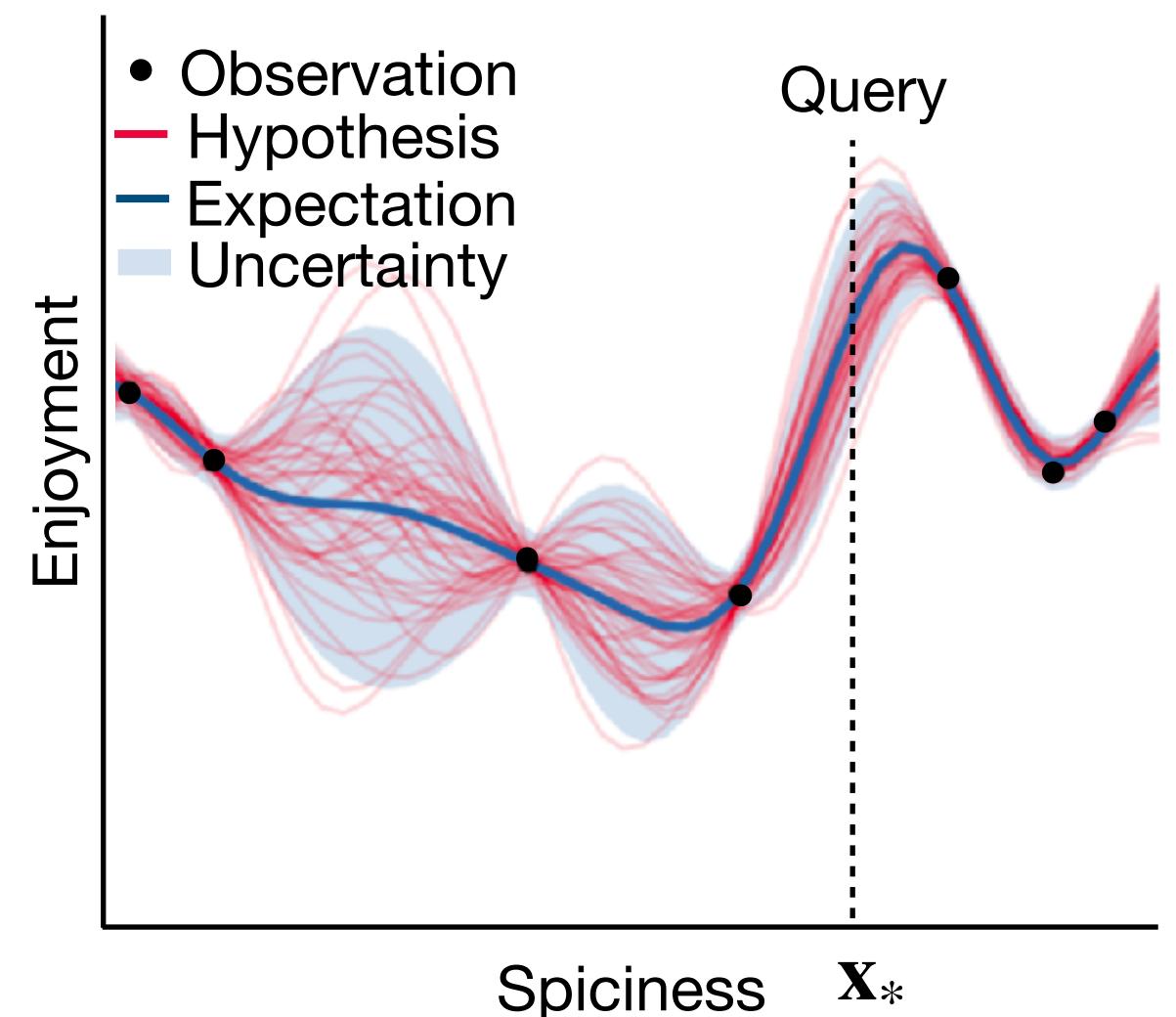
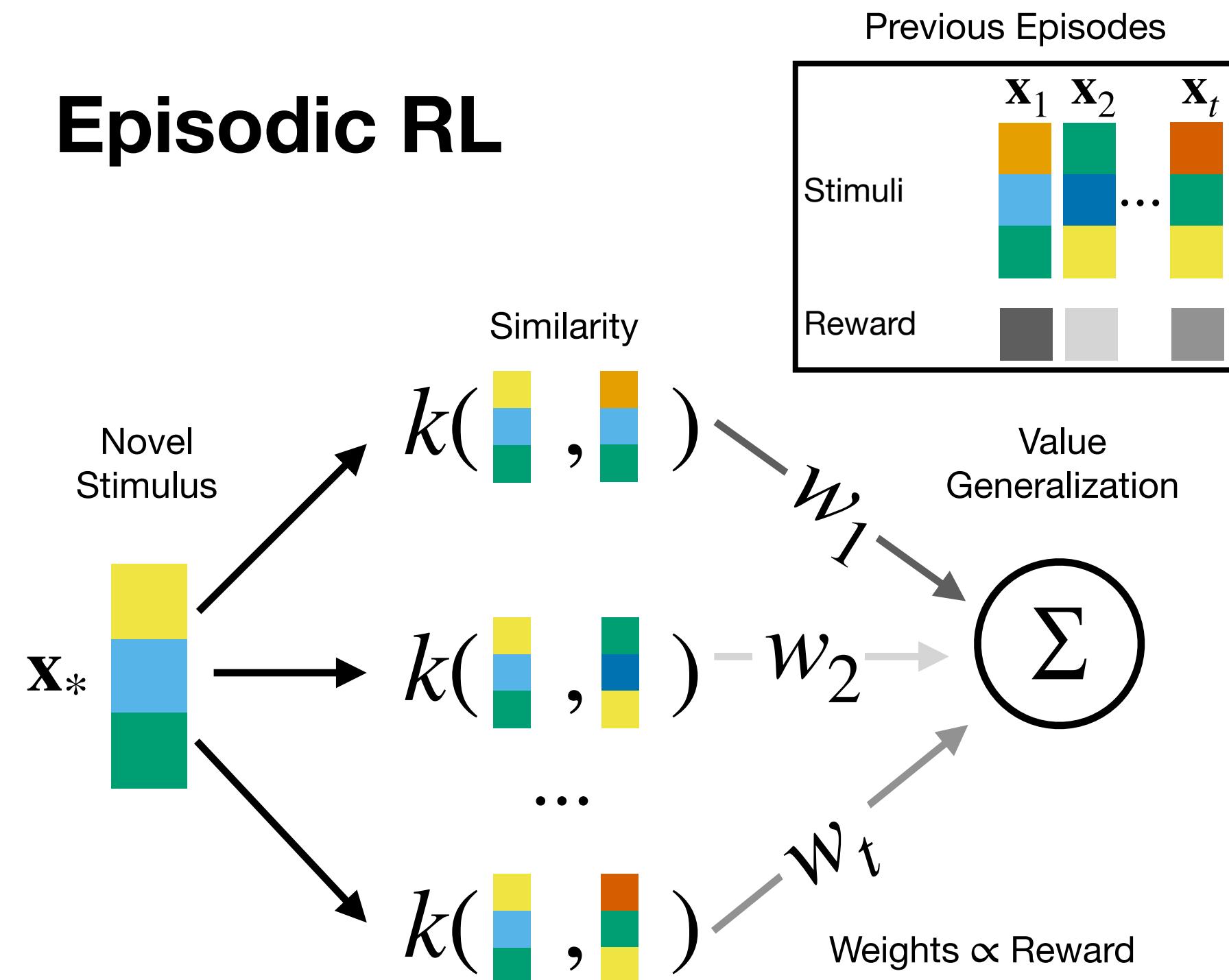
(Gershman & Daw, *AnnRevPsych* 2017; Bottvinick et al., *TICS* 2019)

- Store a memory of each previously encountered stimuli \mathbf{x} and its reward y
- Predict the value of new stimuli based on a similarity-weighted sum of past episodes
- GPs provide a Bayesian analogue of Episodic RL
 - Using an RBF kernel as the similarity metric, Episodic RL is equivalent to the GP posterior mean
- Yet GPs provide uncertainty estimates, which is essential for defining which states to explore!

$$m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \text{ where } \mathbf{w} = [\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\nu(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$$

Episodic RL



Connection to RL

- Episodic RL for generalization in new settings

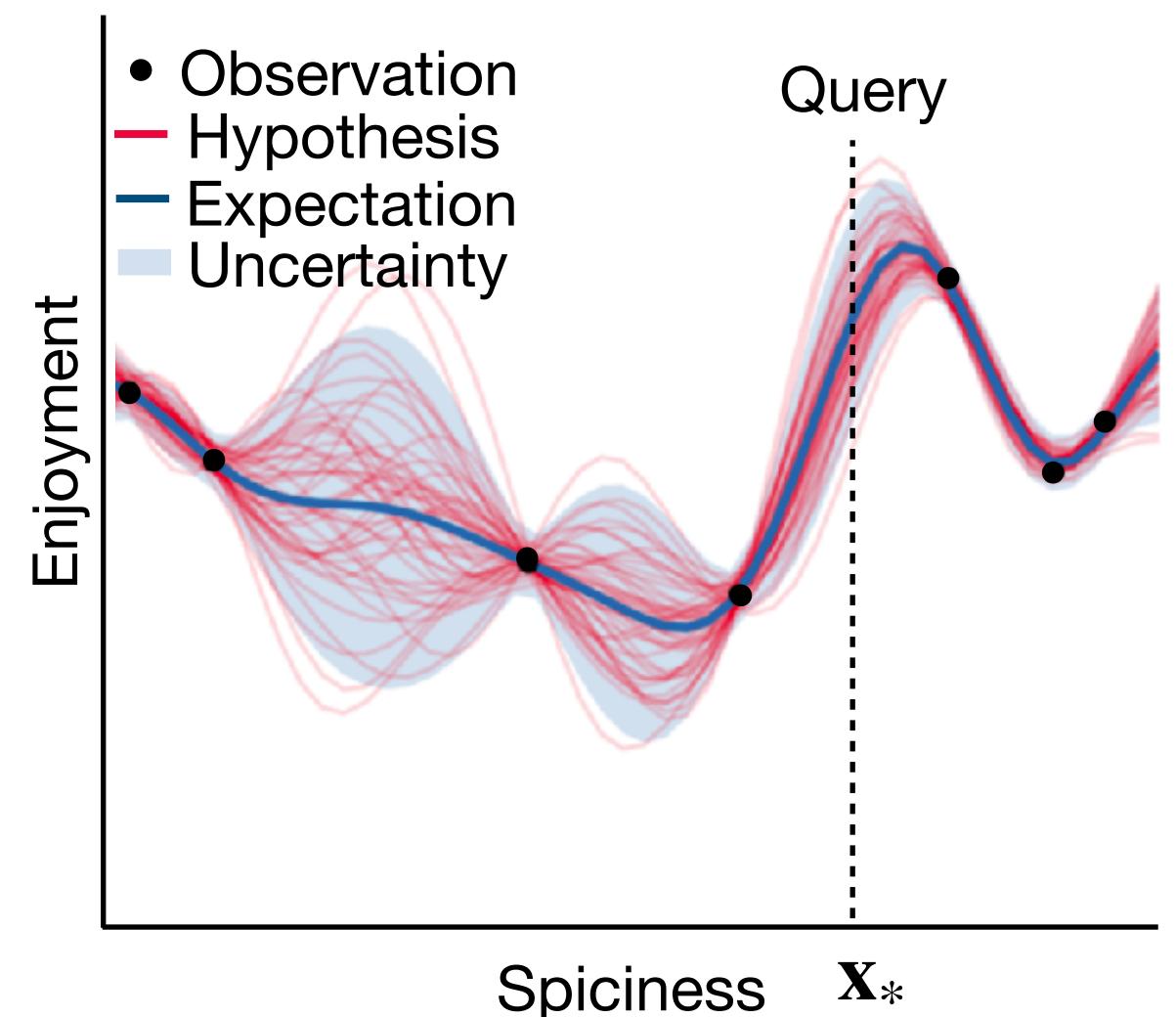
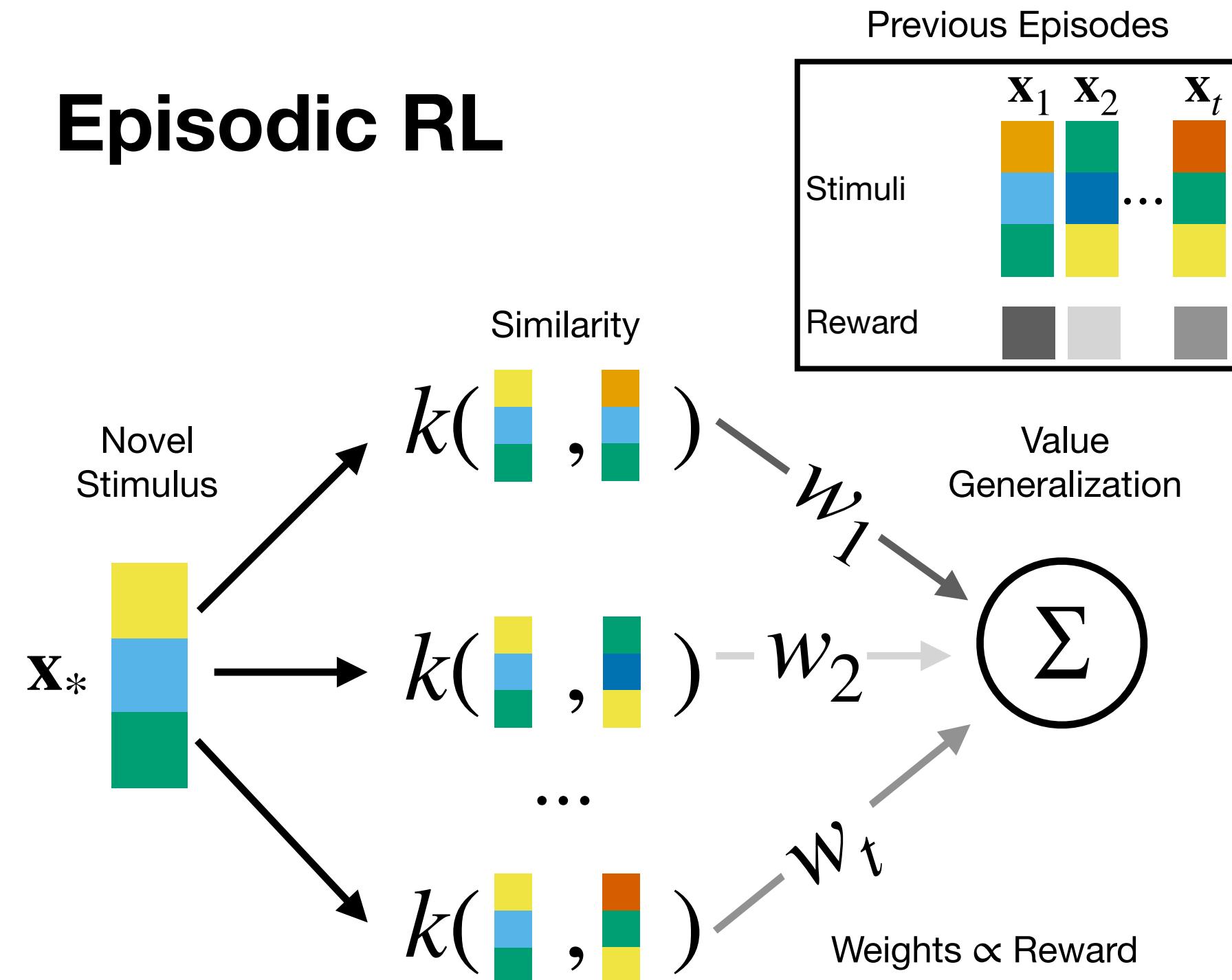
(Gershman & Daw, *AnnRevPsych* 2017; Bottvinick et al., *TICS* 2019)

- Store a memory of each previously encountered stimuli \mathbf{x} and its reward y
- Predict the value of new stimuli based on a similarity-weighted sum of past episodes
- GPs provide a Bayesian analogue of Episodic RL
 - Using an RBF kernel as the similarity metric, Episodic RL is equivalent to the GP posterior mean
- Yet GPs provide uncertainty estimates, which is essential for defining which states to explore!

$$m(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \quad \text{where } \mathbf{w} = [\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\nu(\mathbf{x}_* | \mathcal{D}) = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*$$

Episodic RL

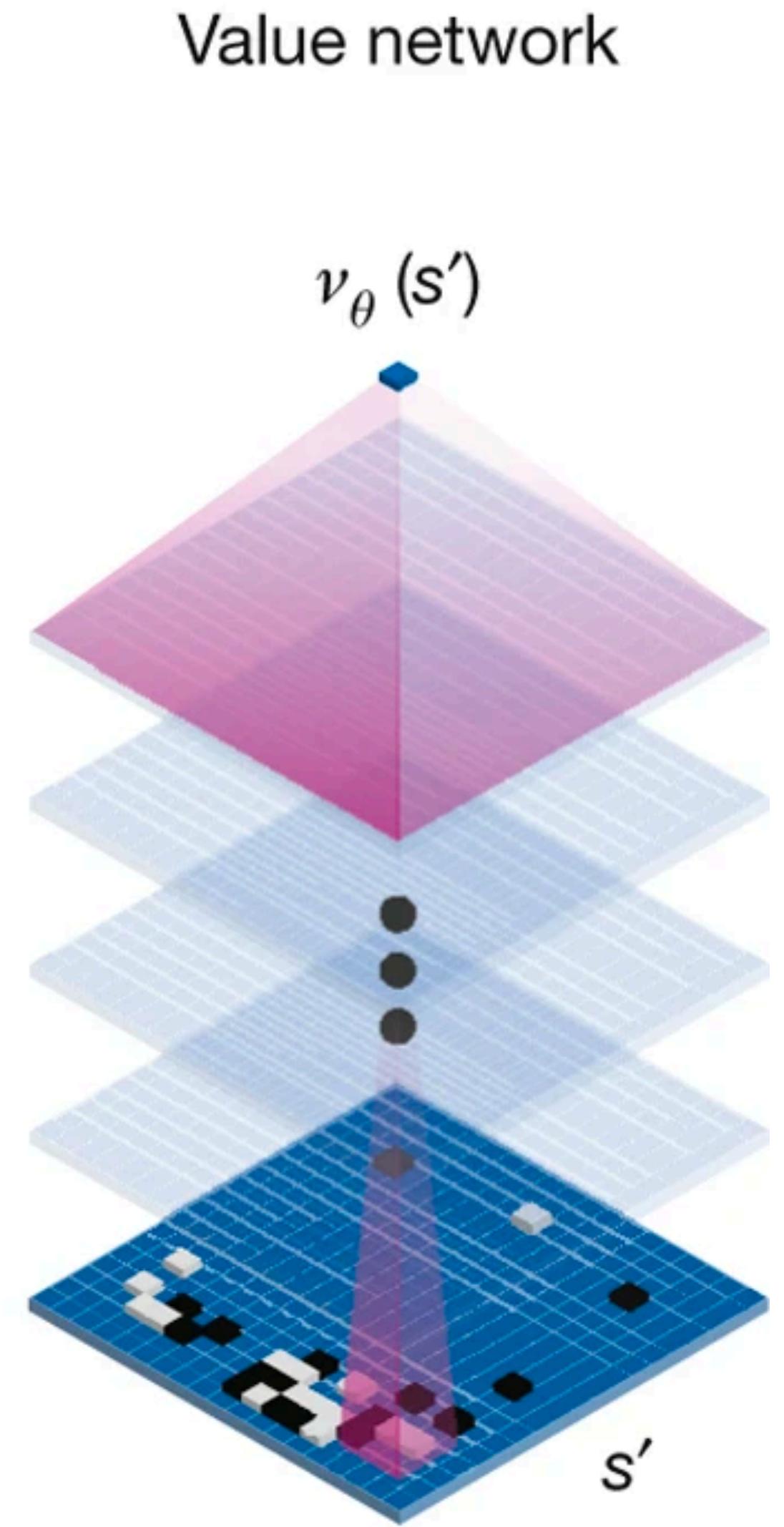


Value function approximation in RL

- Classic function learning is typically a supervised learning problem
 - Given stimulus \mathbf{x}_* predict $f(\mathbf{x}_*)$
- Value function approximation is a key method for generalization in RL
 - Use function learning mechanisms for inferring *implicit* value of novel states:
$$V(s') = f(s')$$
 - Implement a policy on the basis of value: $\pi(s') \propto \exp(V(s'))$
- AlphaGo uses a deep neural network for value function approximation
 - DNNs are simply a universal function approximator (Cybenko, 1989)
 - But for understanding human behavior, GPs offer better interpretability due to psychologically meaningful parameters
 - **GPs are equivalent to an infinitely wide deep neural network** (Neal, 1996)
- After the break, I will present some of my research using GPs to model human generalization in RL

Value function approximation in RL

- Classic function learning is typically a supervised learning problem
 - Given stimulus \mathbf{x}_* predict $f(\mathbf{x}_*)$
- Value function approximation is a key method for generalization in RL
 - Use function learning mechanisms for inferring *implicit* value of novel states:
 $V(s') = f(s')$
 - Implement a policy on the basis of value: $\pi(s') \propto \exp(V(s'))$
- AlphaGo uses a deep neural network for value function approximation
 - DNNs are simply a universal function approximator (Cybenko, 1989)
 - But for understanding human behavior, GPs offer better interpretability due to psychologically meaningful parameters
 - **GPs are equivalent to an infinitely wide deep neural network** (Neal, 1996)
- After the break, I will present some of my research using GPs to model human generalization in RL



Interim summary

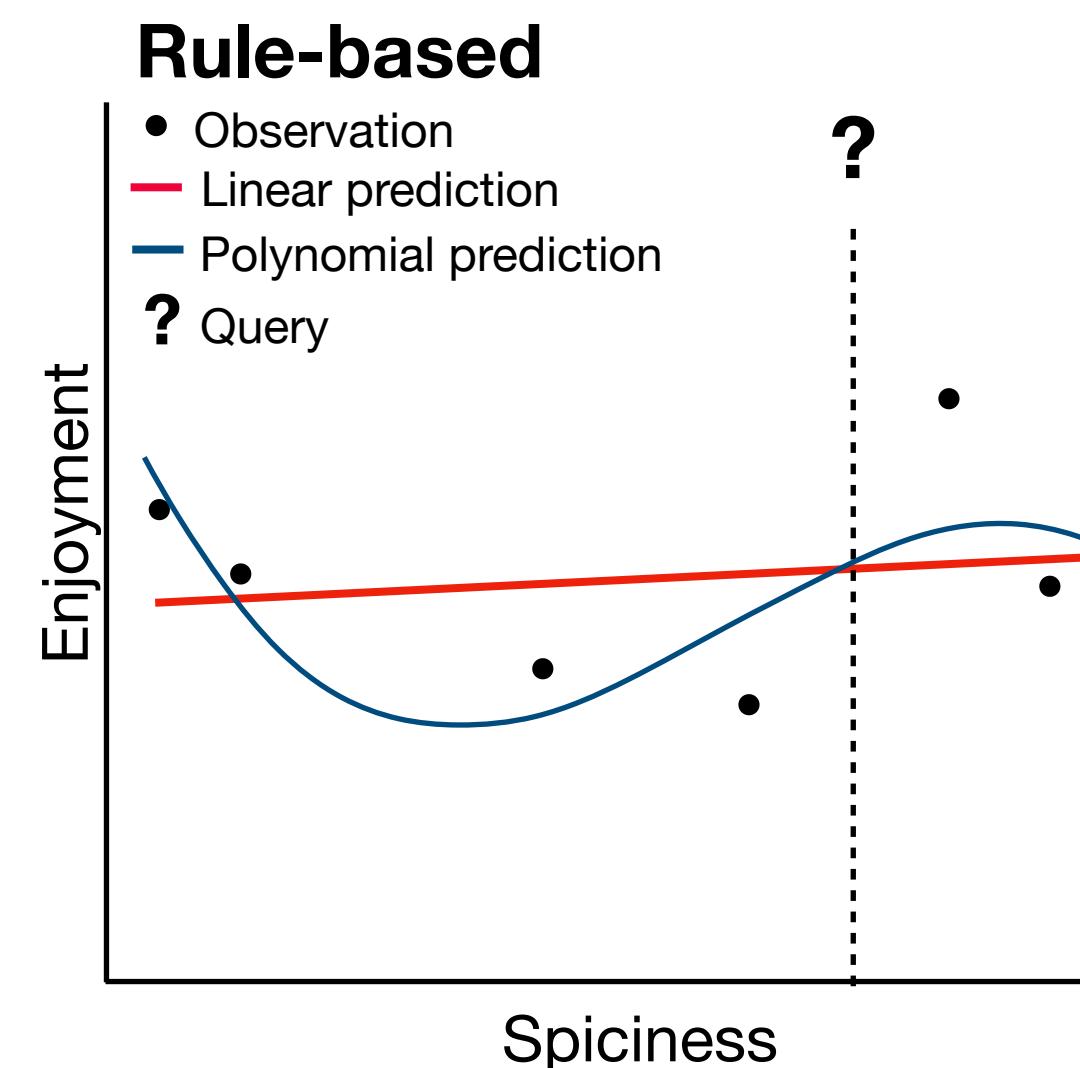
- Function learning is a regression problem
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed humans learn functions by picking specific class of functions and then optimizing the weights (as in linear or parametric regression) —> Brittle and lacked flexibility
- **Similarity-based methods** used ANNs to encode the generic principle that similar inputs produce similar outputs —> failed to capture systematic biases in how humans extrapolate
- **Hybrid approaches** using GP regression offer a Bayesian framework, combining kernel similarity and rule-like compositionality of kernels

Regression task



Interim summary

- Function learning is a regression problem
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed humans learn functions by picking specific class of functions and then optimizing the weights (as in linear or parametric regression) —> Brittle and lacked flexibility
- **Similarity-based methods** used ANNs to encode the generic principle that similar inputs produce similar outputs —> failed to capture systematic biases in how humans extrapolate
- **Hybrid approaches** using GP regression offer a Bayesian framework, combining kernel similarity and rule-like compositionality of kernels



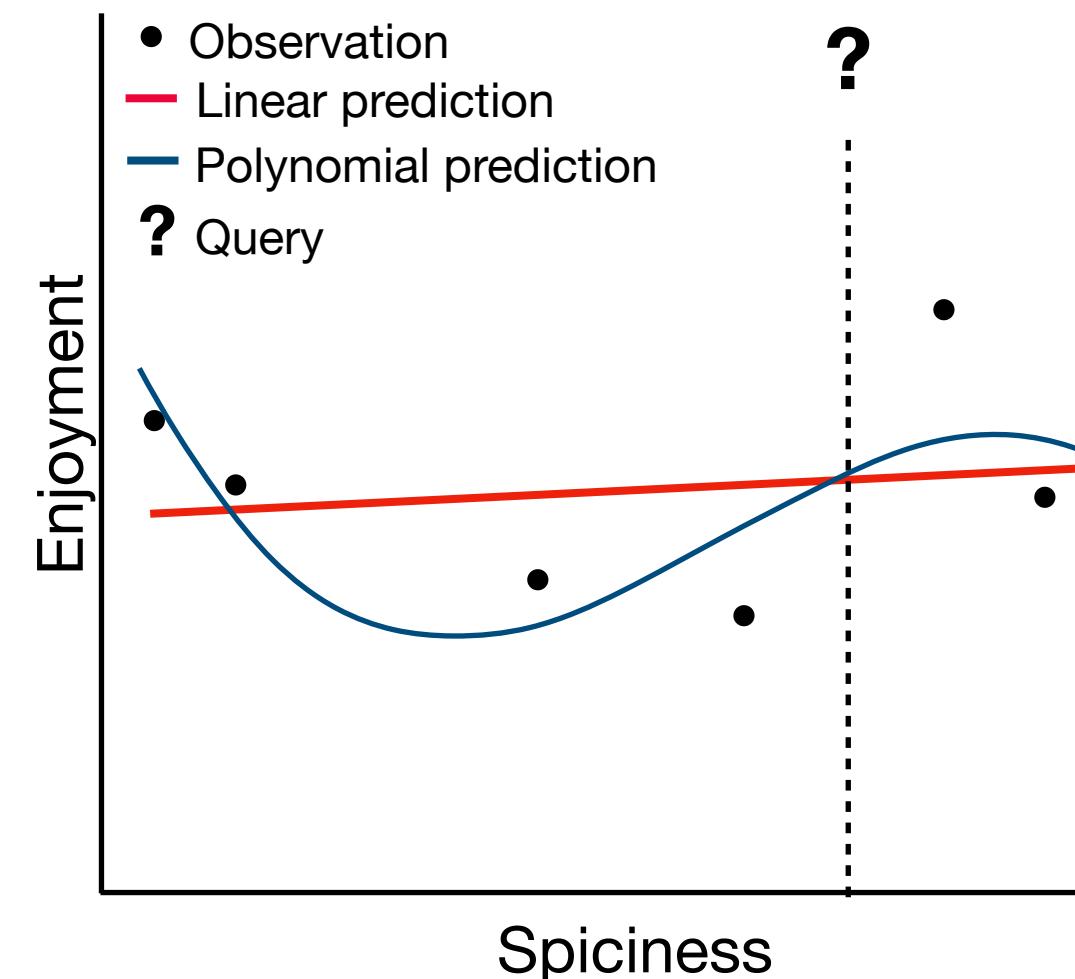
Interim summary

- Function learning is a regression problem
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed humans learn functions by picking specific class of functions and then optimizing the weights (as in linear or parametric regression) —> Brittle and lacked flexibility
- **Similarity-based methods** used ANNs to encode the generic principle that similar inputs produce similar outputs —> failed to capture systematic biases in how humans extrapolate
- **Hybrid approaches** using GP regression offer a Bayesian framework, combining kernel similarity and rule-like compositionality of kernels

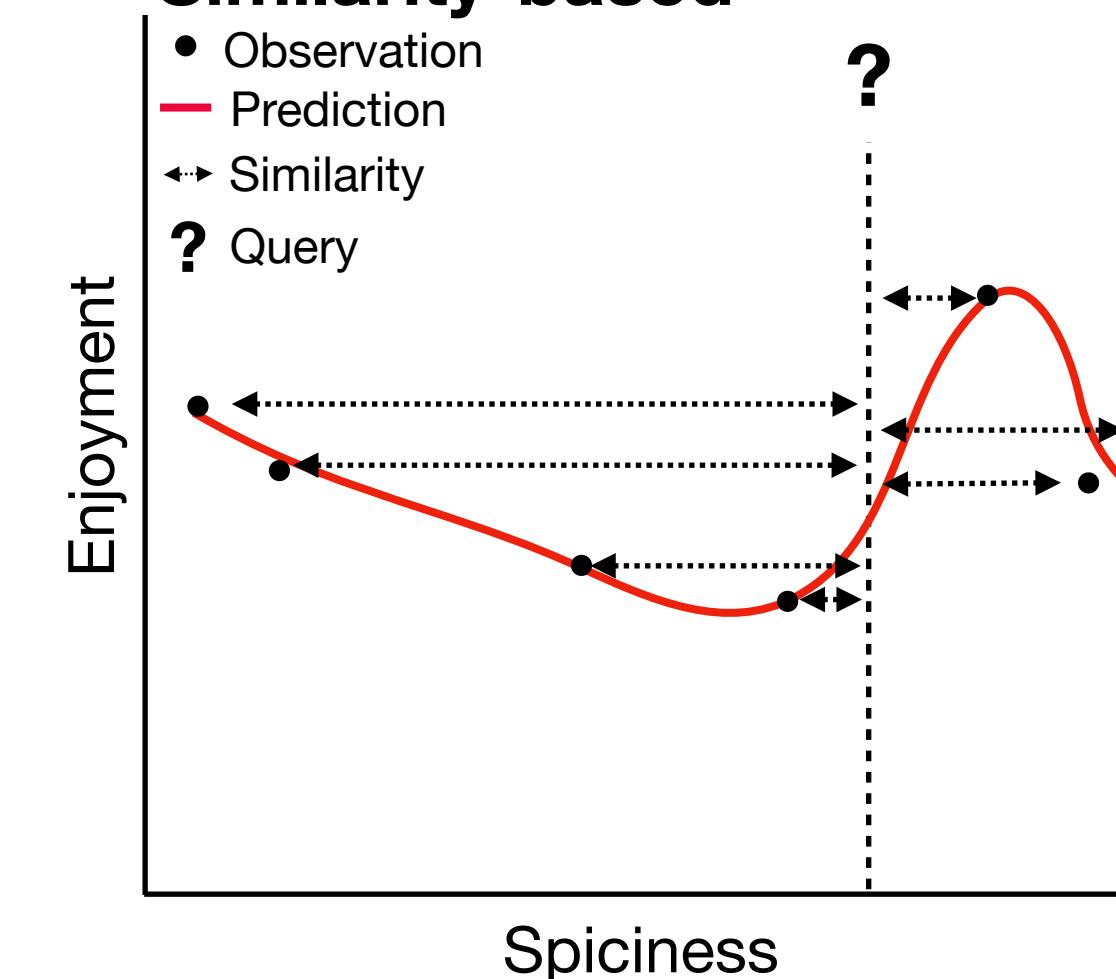
Regression task



Rule-based

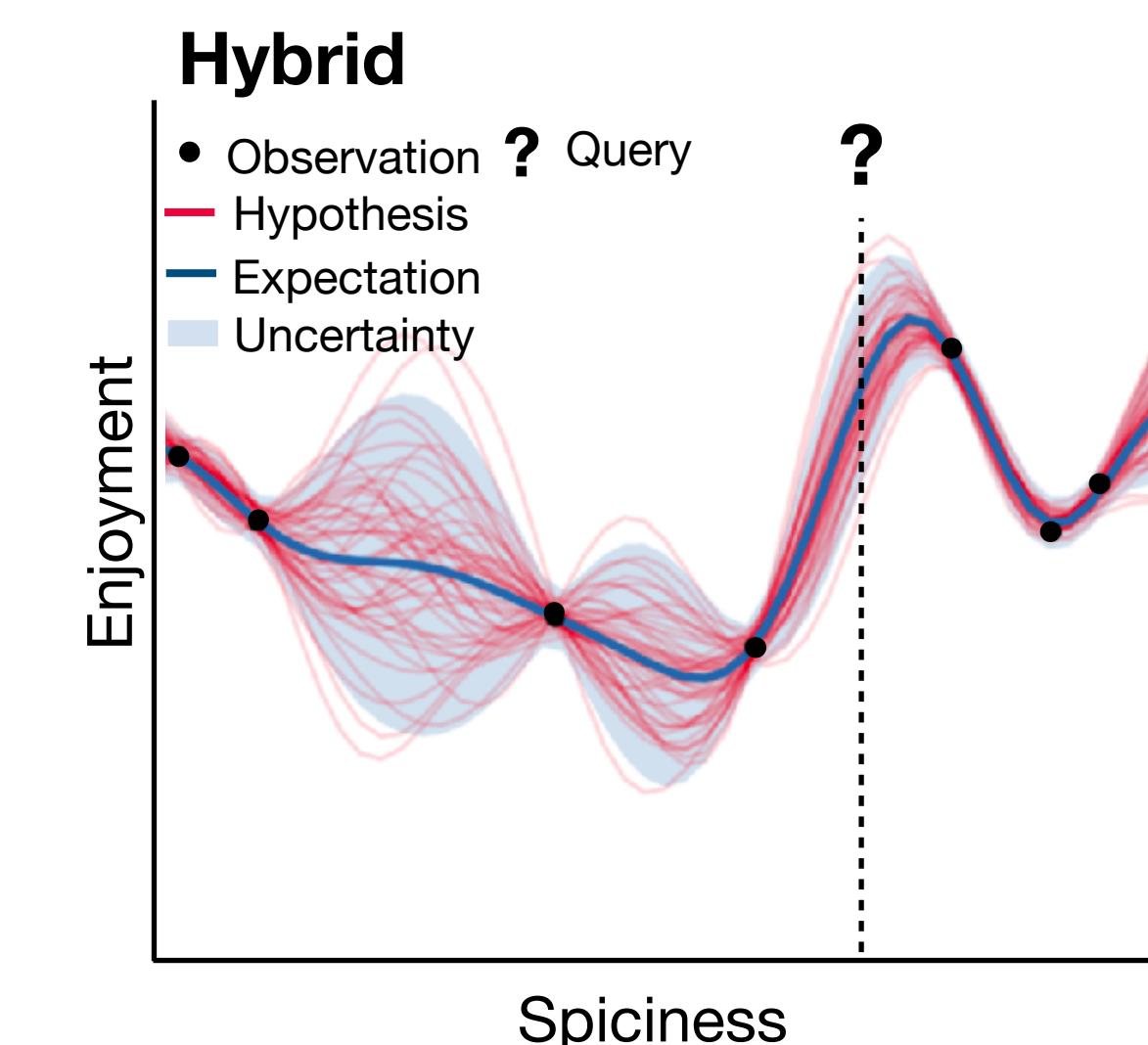
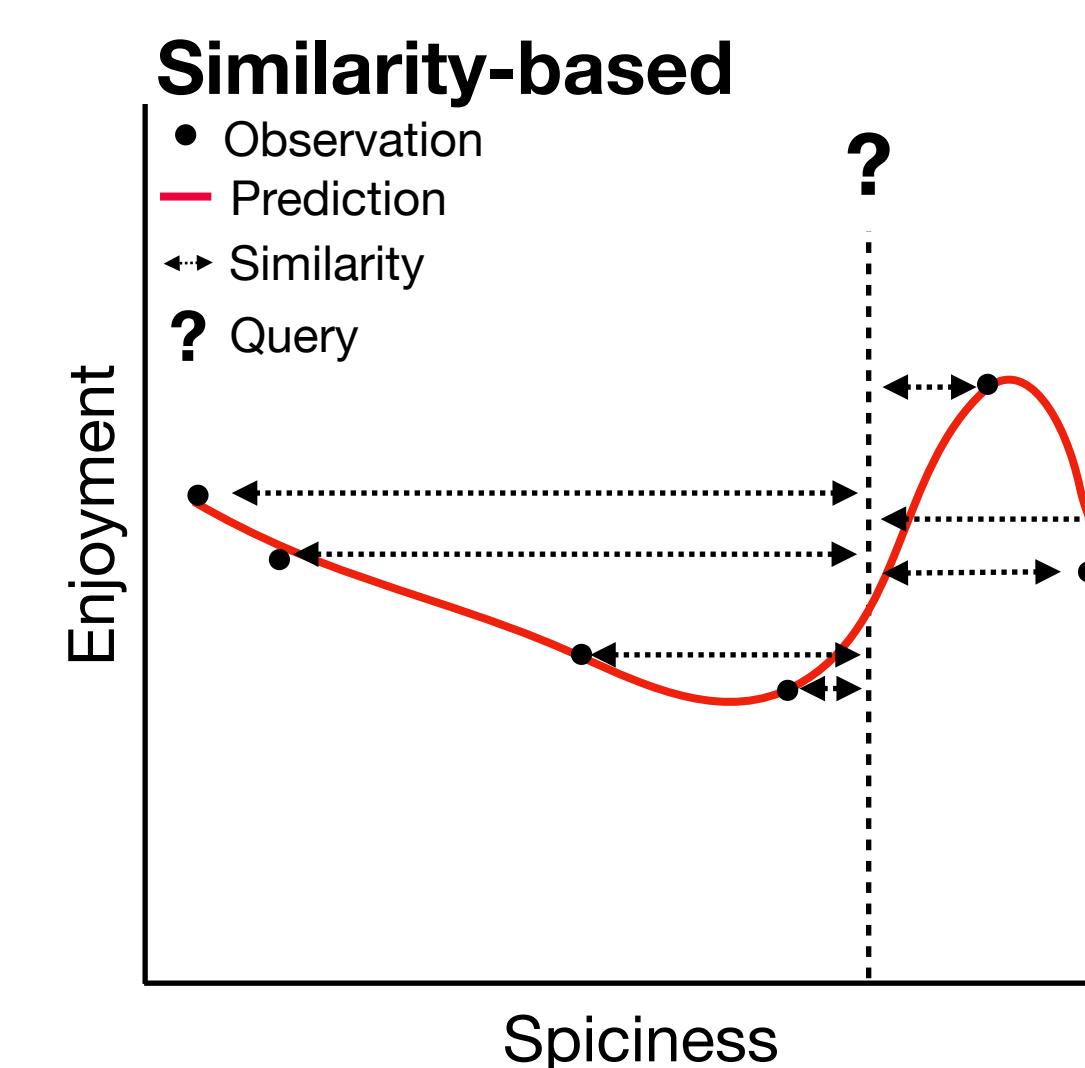
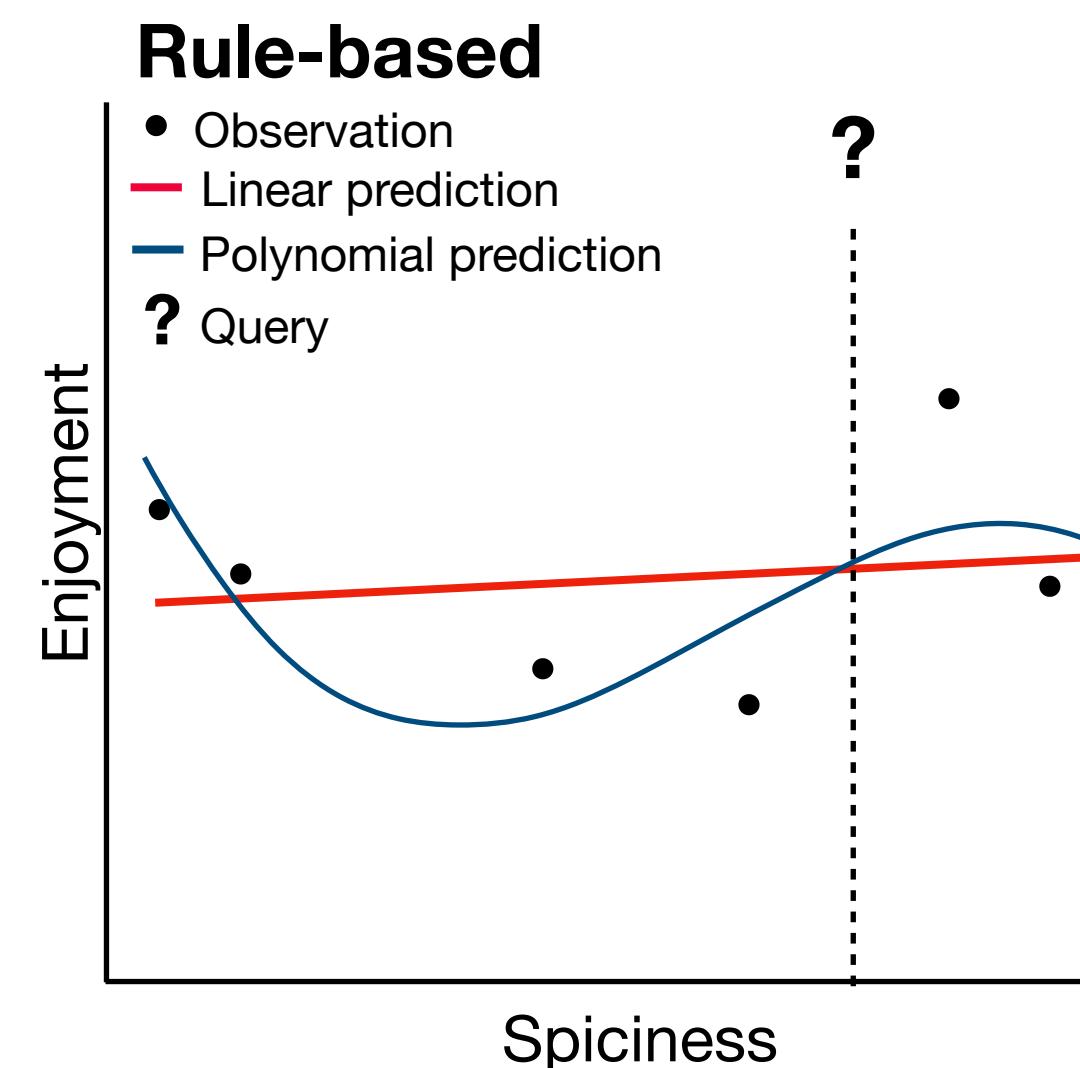


Similarity-based



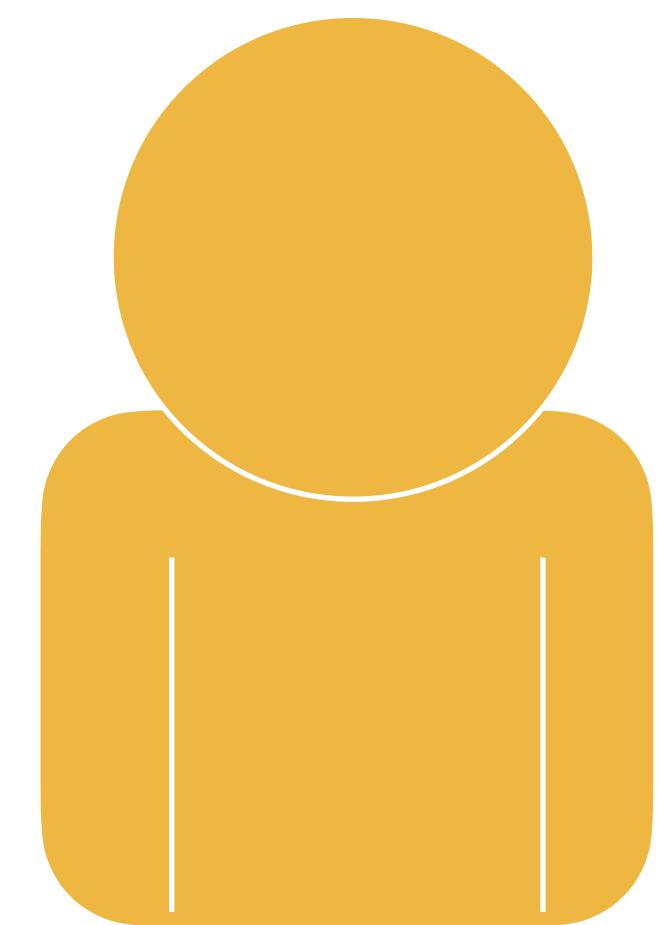
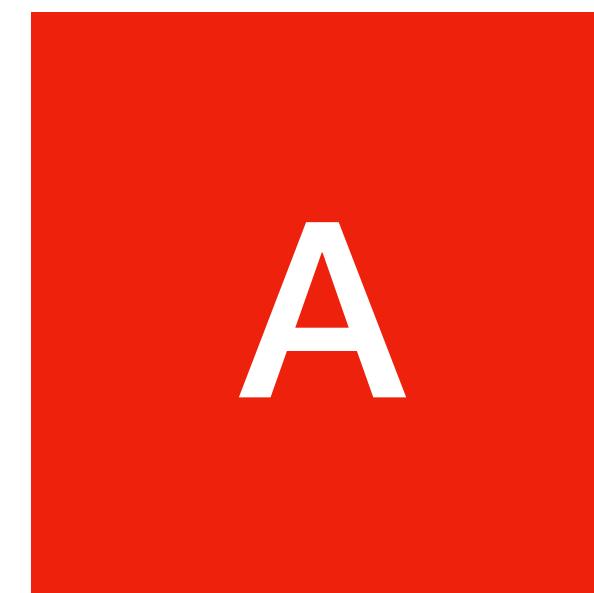
Interim summary

- Function learning is a regression problem
- Early **rule-based theories** assumed humans learn functions by picking specific class of functions and then optimizing the weights (as in linear or parametric regression) —> Brittle and lacked flexibility
- **Similarity-based methods** used ANNs to encode the generic principle that similar inputs produce similar outputs —> failed to capture systematic biases in how humans extrapolate
- **Hybrid approaches** using GP regression offer a Bayesian framework, combining kernel similarity and rule-like compositionality of kernels

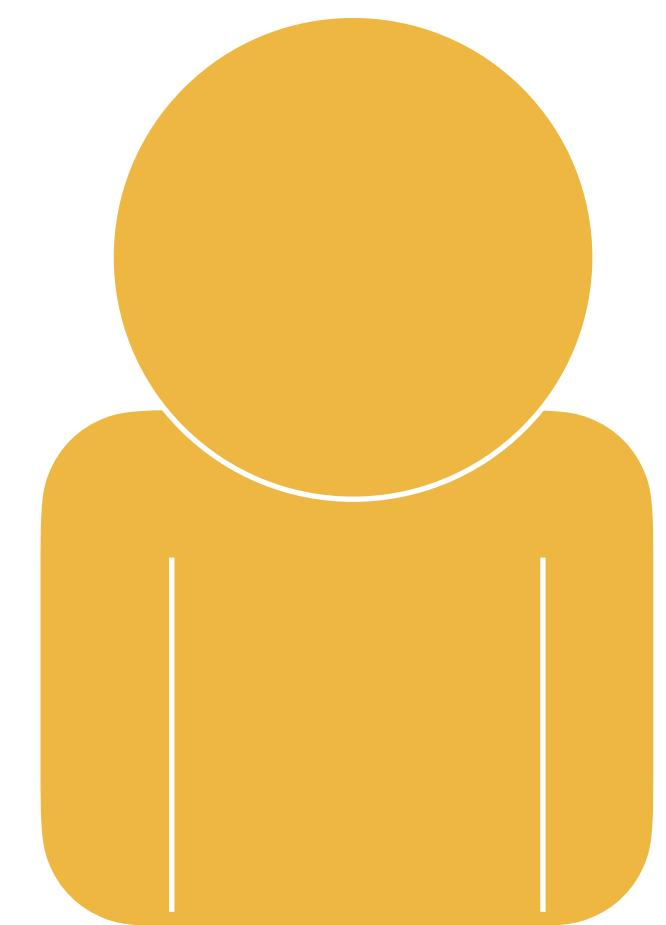
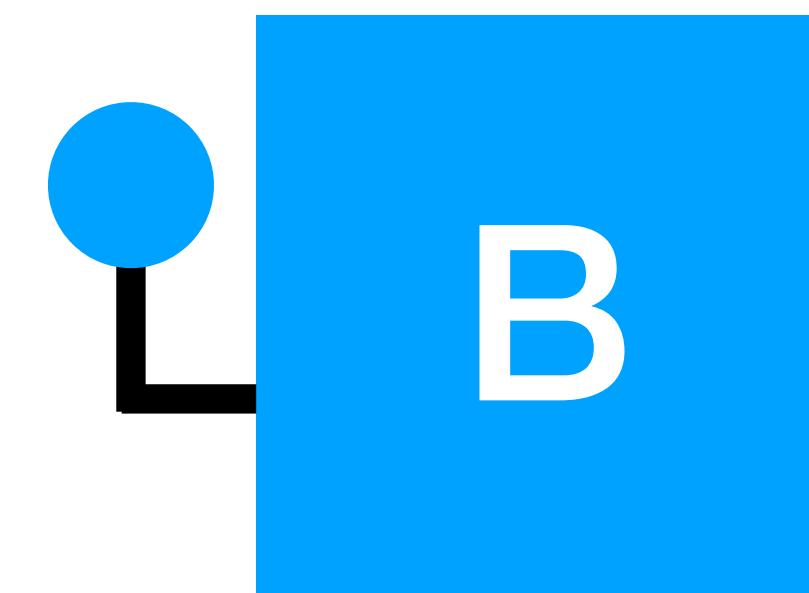
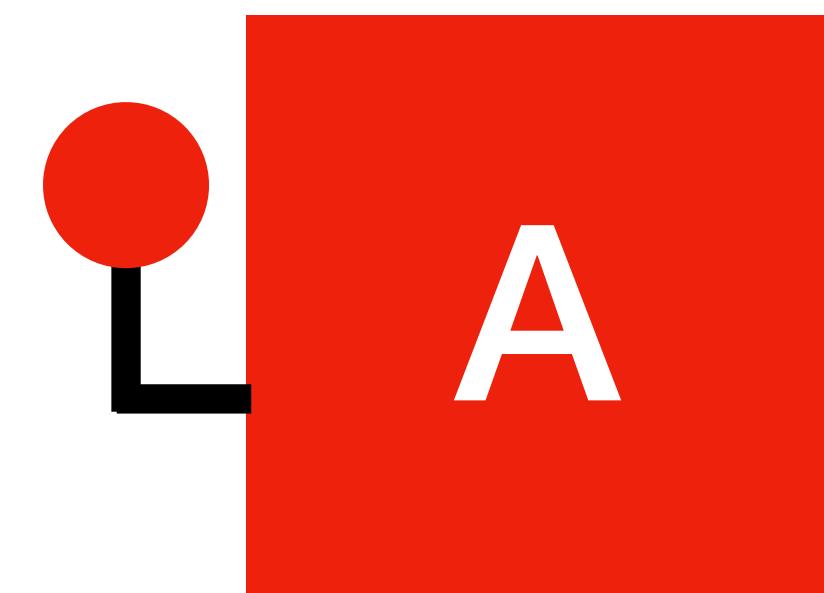


5 minute break

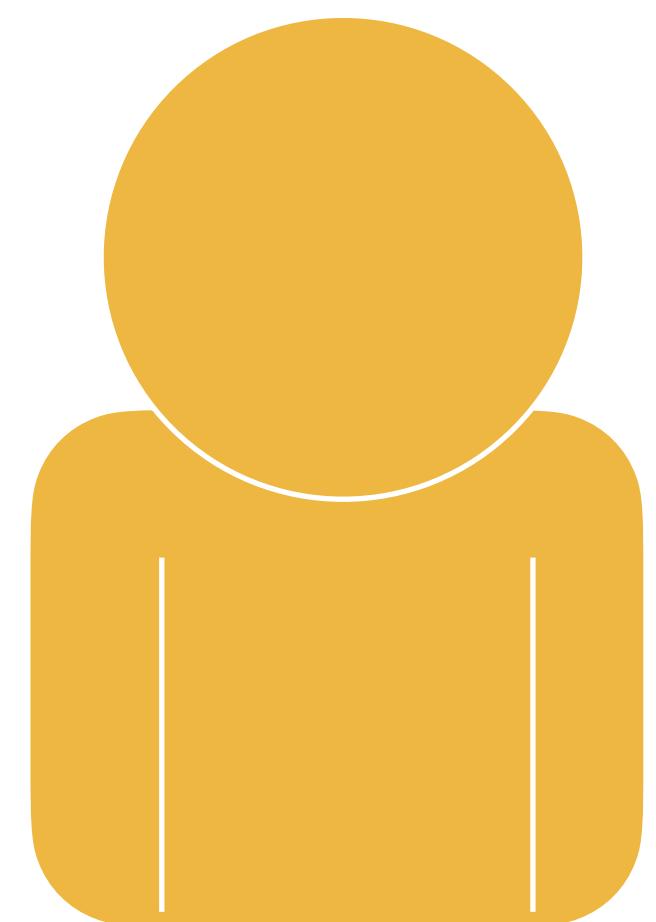
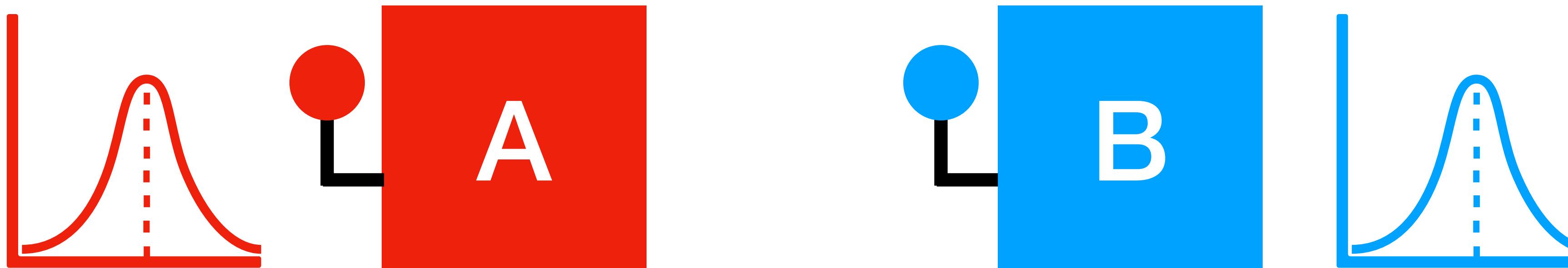
Human learning in the lab



Human learning in the lab

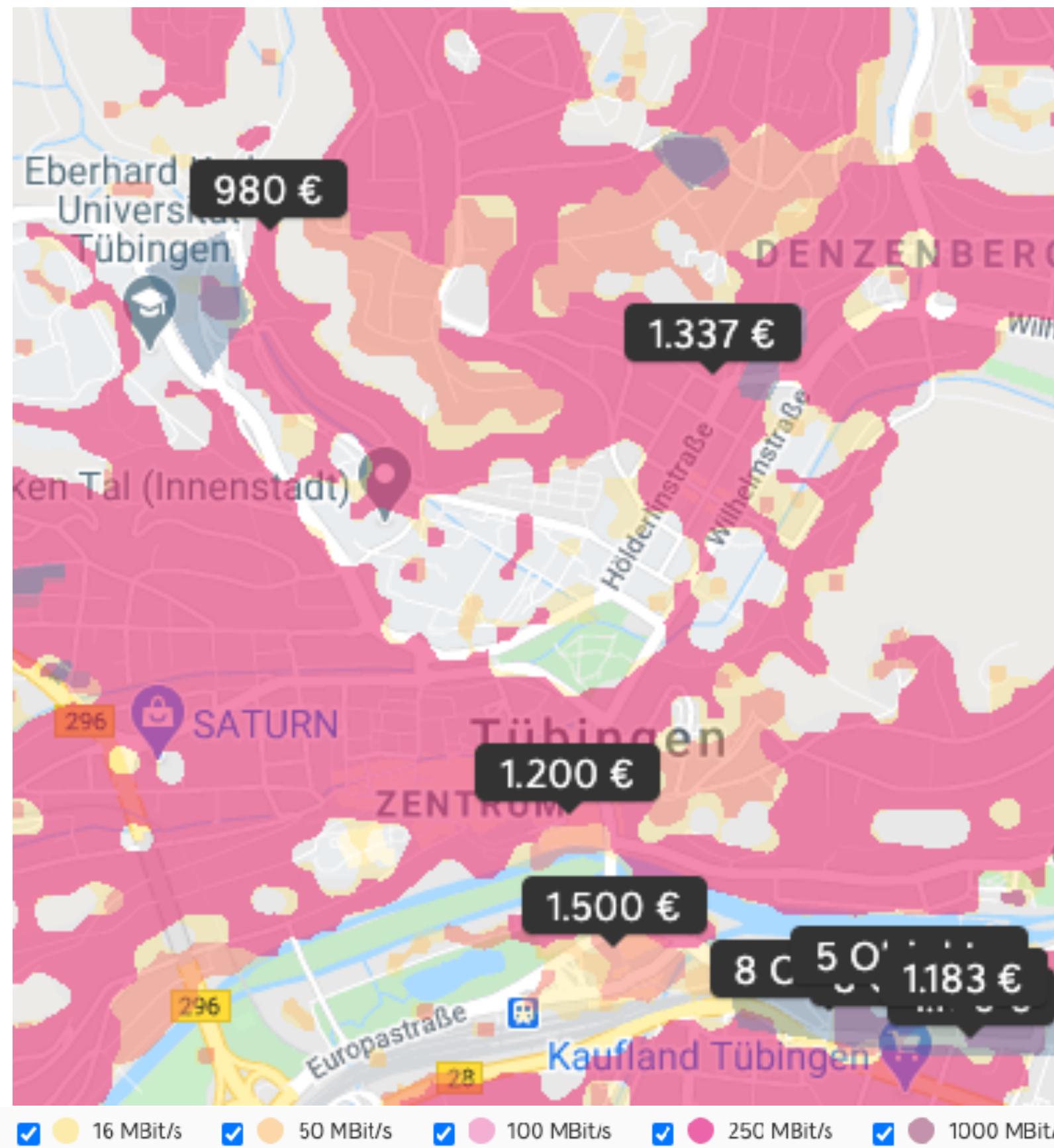


Human learning in the lab



Real life problems

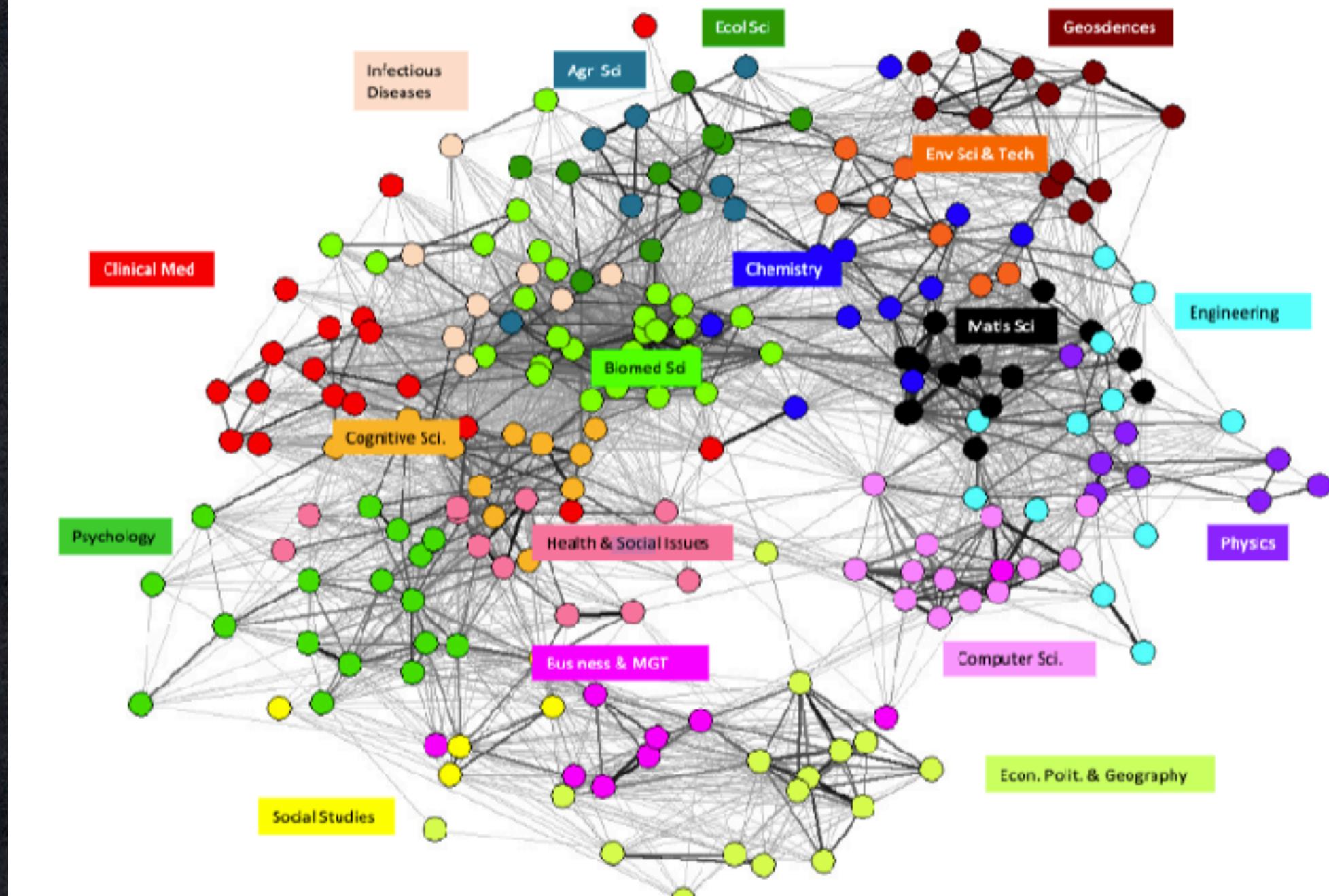
Finding a place to live



Picking what to eat



Choosing a research topic



Exploration-Exploitation Dilemma



Exploration



Exploitation

A black and white comic strip featuring Calvin and Hobbes. They are standing on a dark blue, textured surface that looks like a planet's surface or a field of grass at night. The background is a deep black sky filled with numerous small, white stars of varying sizes. Calvin, the young boy with spiky hair, is looking up at his虎 (tiger) friend Hobbes. Hobbes is standing on his hind legs, looking down at Calvin with a slightly worried expression. Both characters are wearing their signature clothing: Calvin in a green long-sleeved shirt and brown pants, and Hobbes in his orange and white striped pajama bottoms. Two white speech bubbles are positioned between them. The bubble on the left contains the text "Let's explore!" and the bubble on the right contains the text "But where?".

Let's
explore!

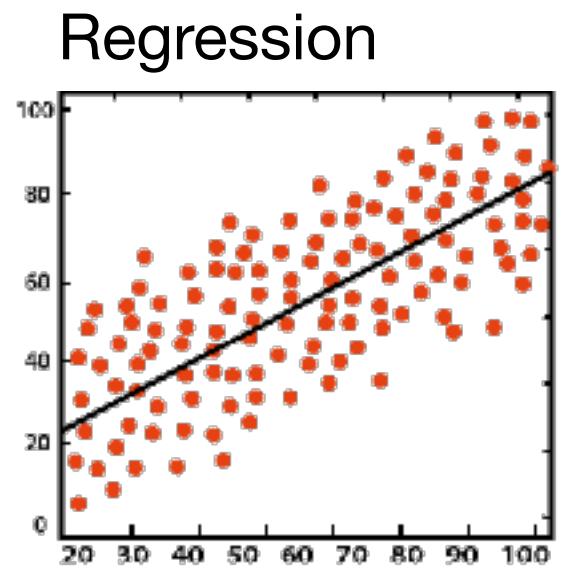
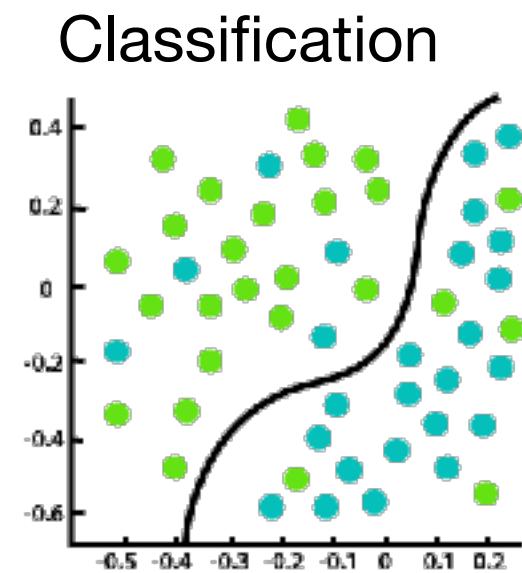
But where?

How do people navigate vast environments when we cannot explore all possibilities?



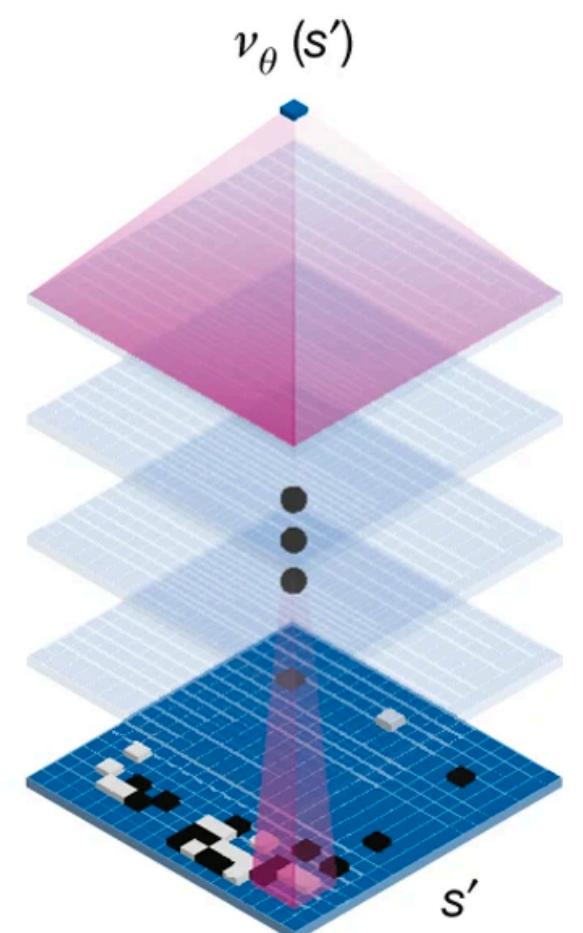
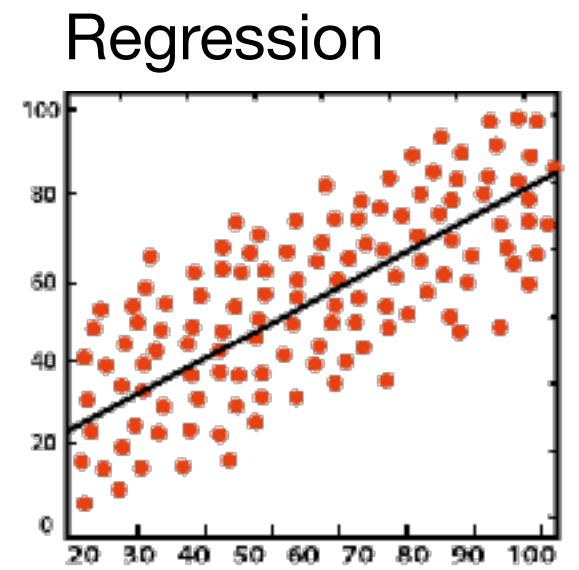
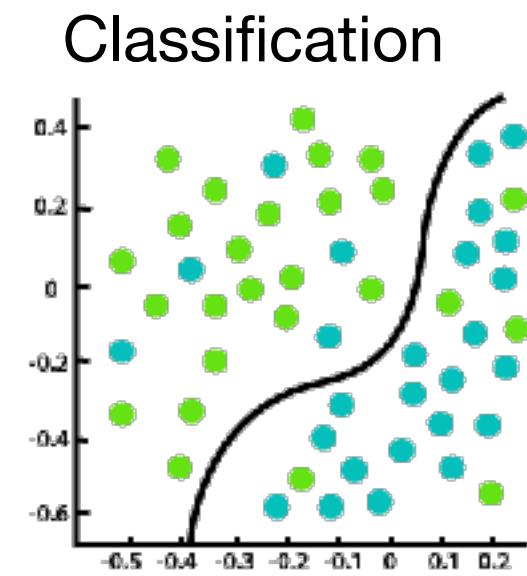
Generalization in RL

- Shepard formalized generalization as *classification*
- In RL, we can formalize generalization as *regression*: learning a value function

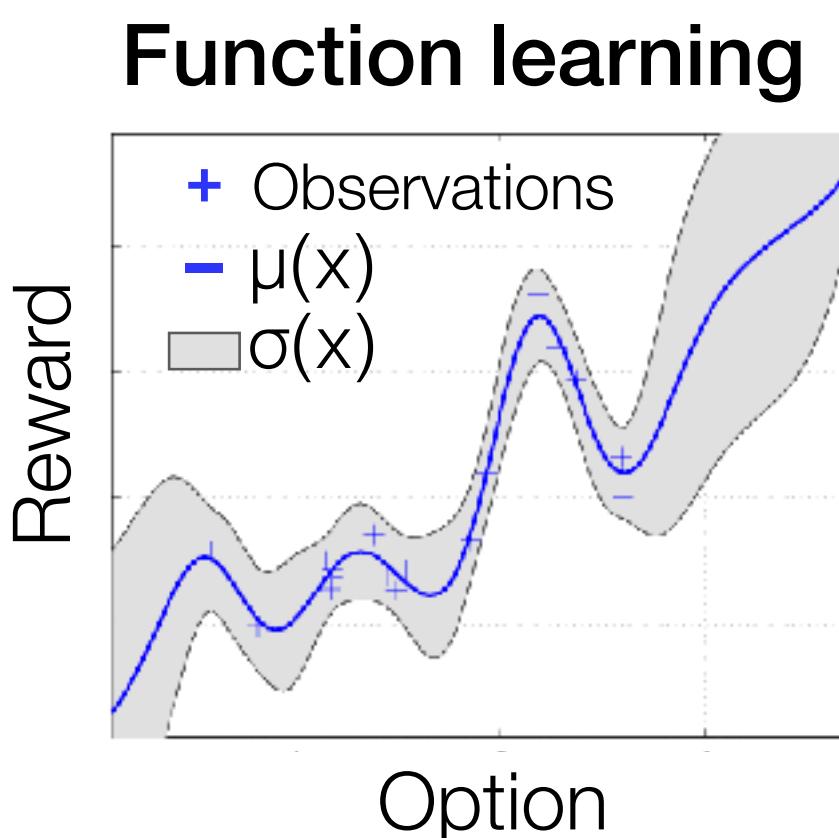


Generalization in RL

- Shepard formalized generalization as *classification*
- In RL, we can formalize generalization as *regression*: learning a value function
- **Function learning:**
 - Learn an implicit value function mapping states to reward expectations; ubiquitous in modern RL
 - Predict *where* to explore through interpolation and extrapolation

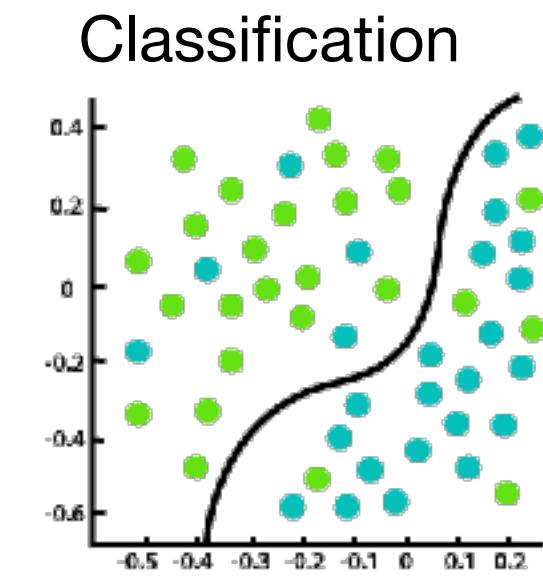


Silver et al., (Nature 2016)

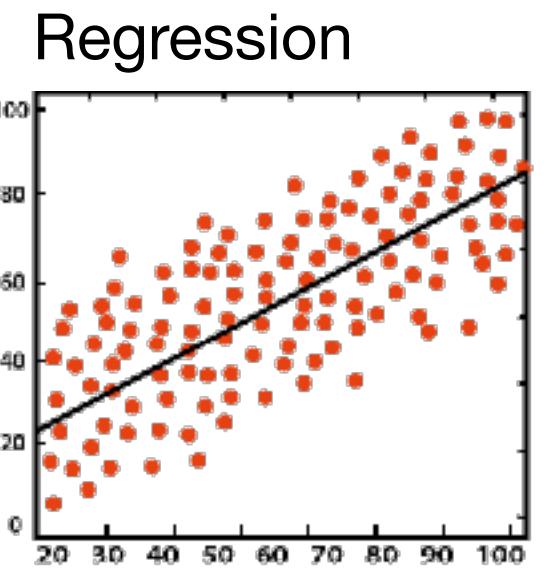


Generalization in RL

- Shepard formalized generalization as *classification*

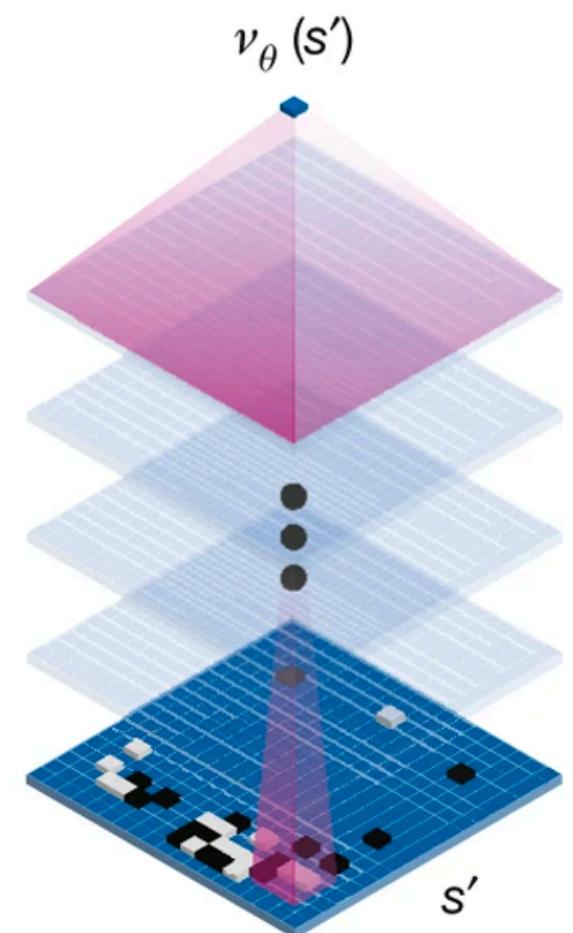


- In RL, we can formalize generalization as *regression*: learning a value function



- Function learning:**

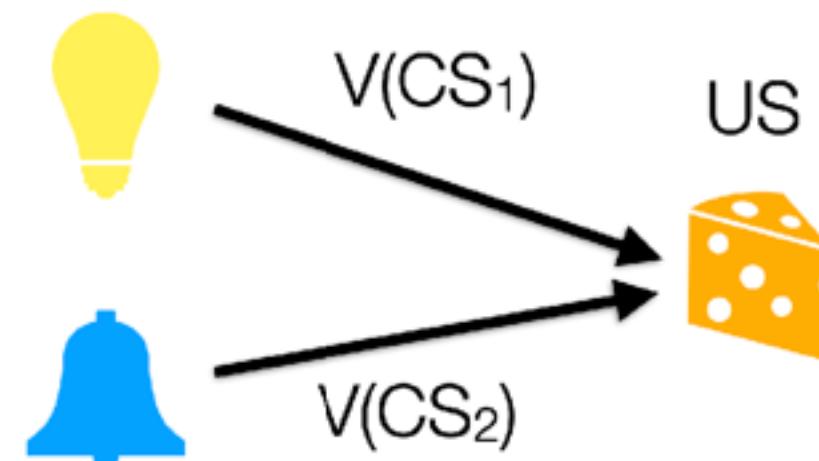
- Learn an implicit value function mapping states to reward expectations; ubiquitous in modern RL
- Predict *where* to explore through interpolation and extrapolation



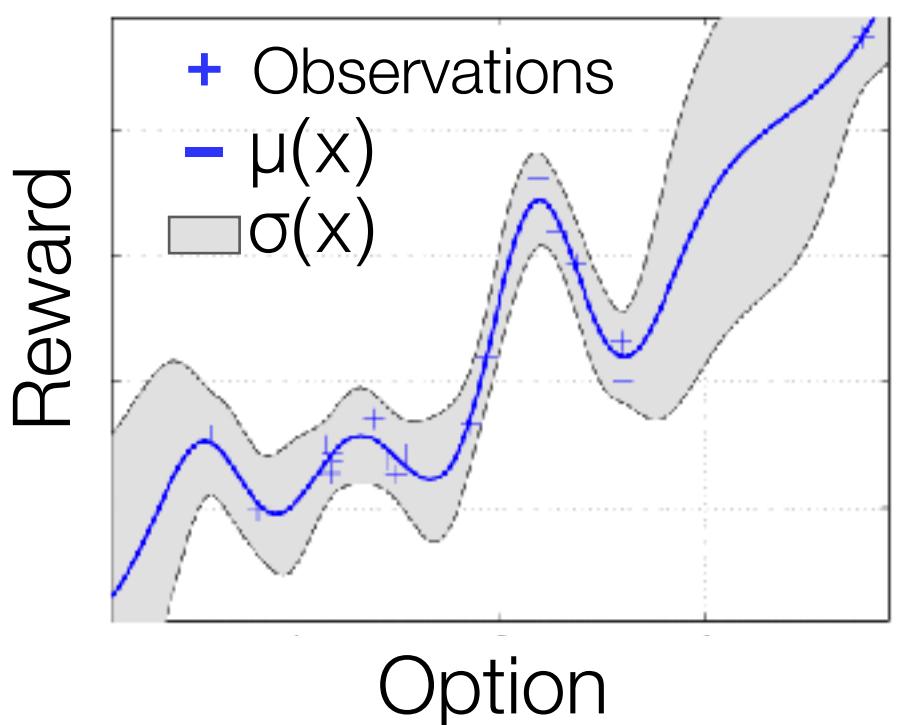
Silver et al., (Nature 2016)

- Tabular learning:**

- Traditional associative learning models learn the value of each option independently
- No guidance about *where to explore*, with novel options defaulting to some prior expectation

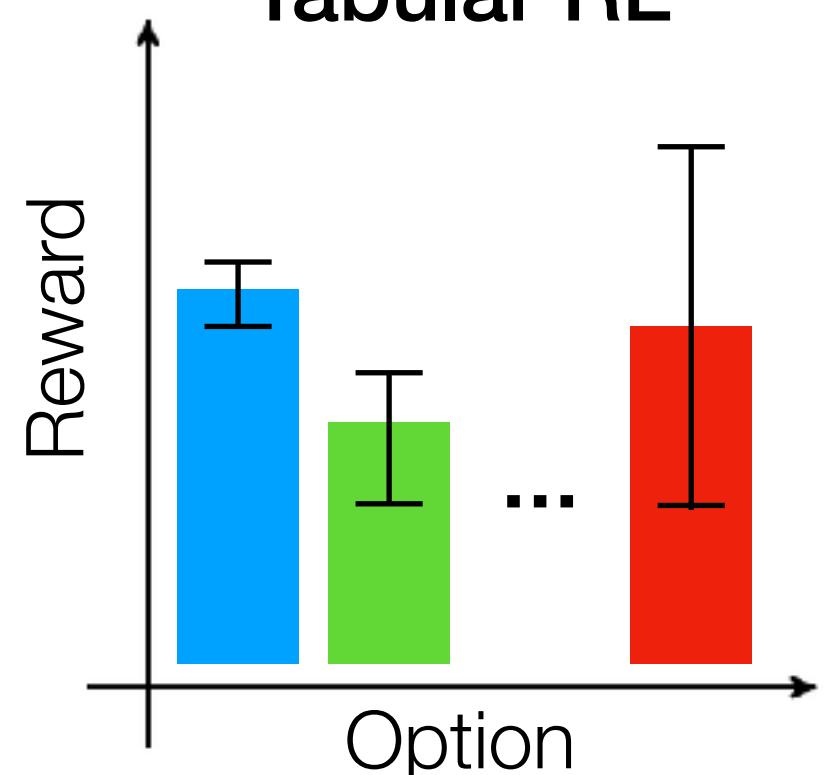


Function learning

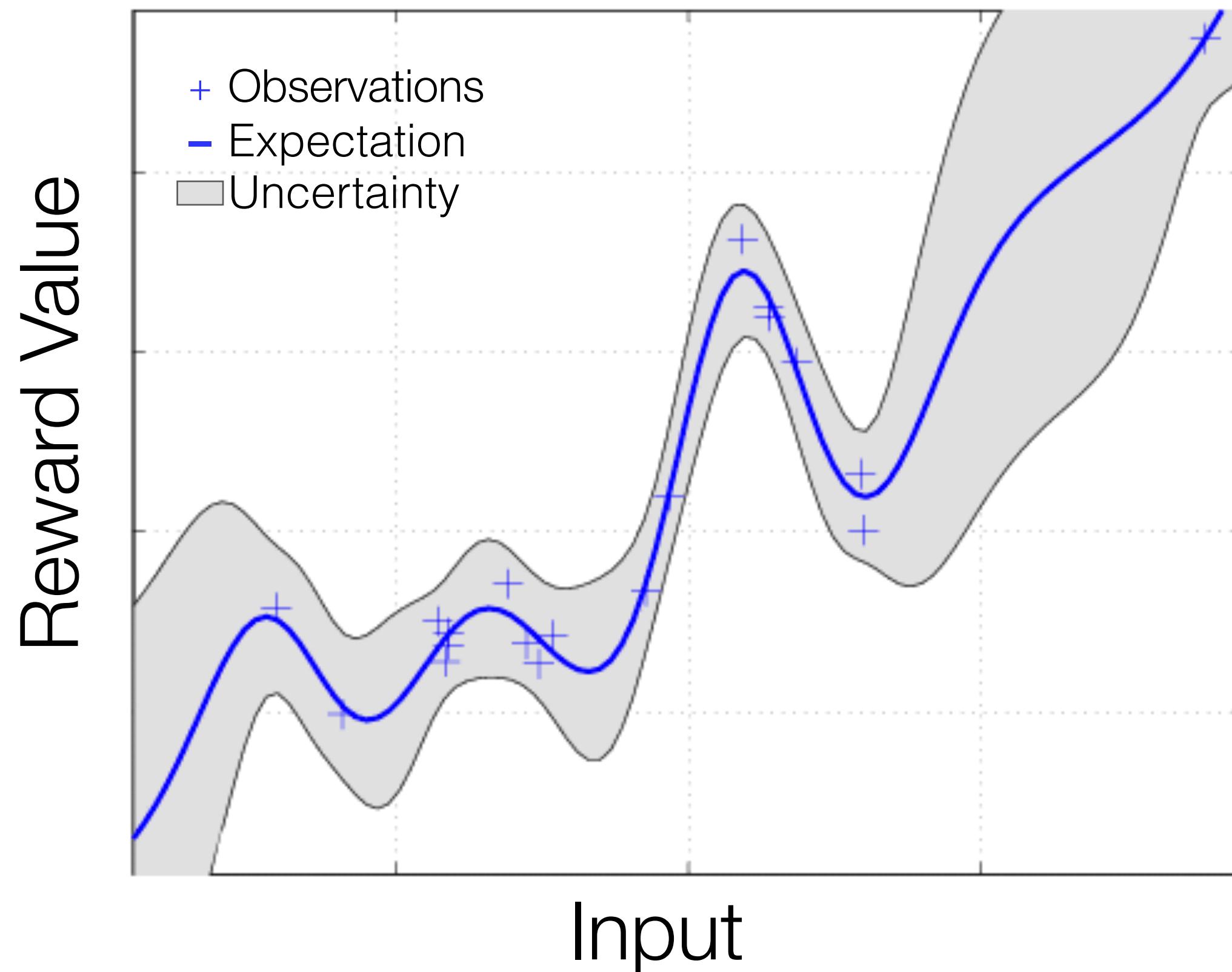


Option

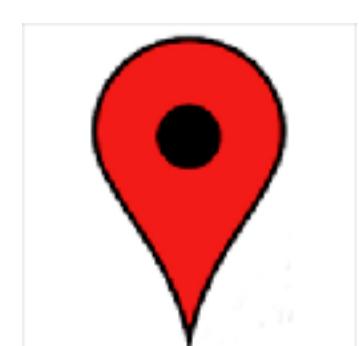
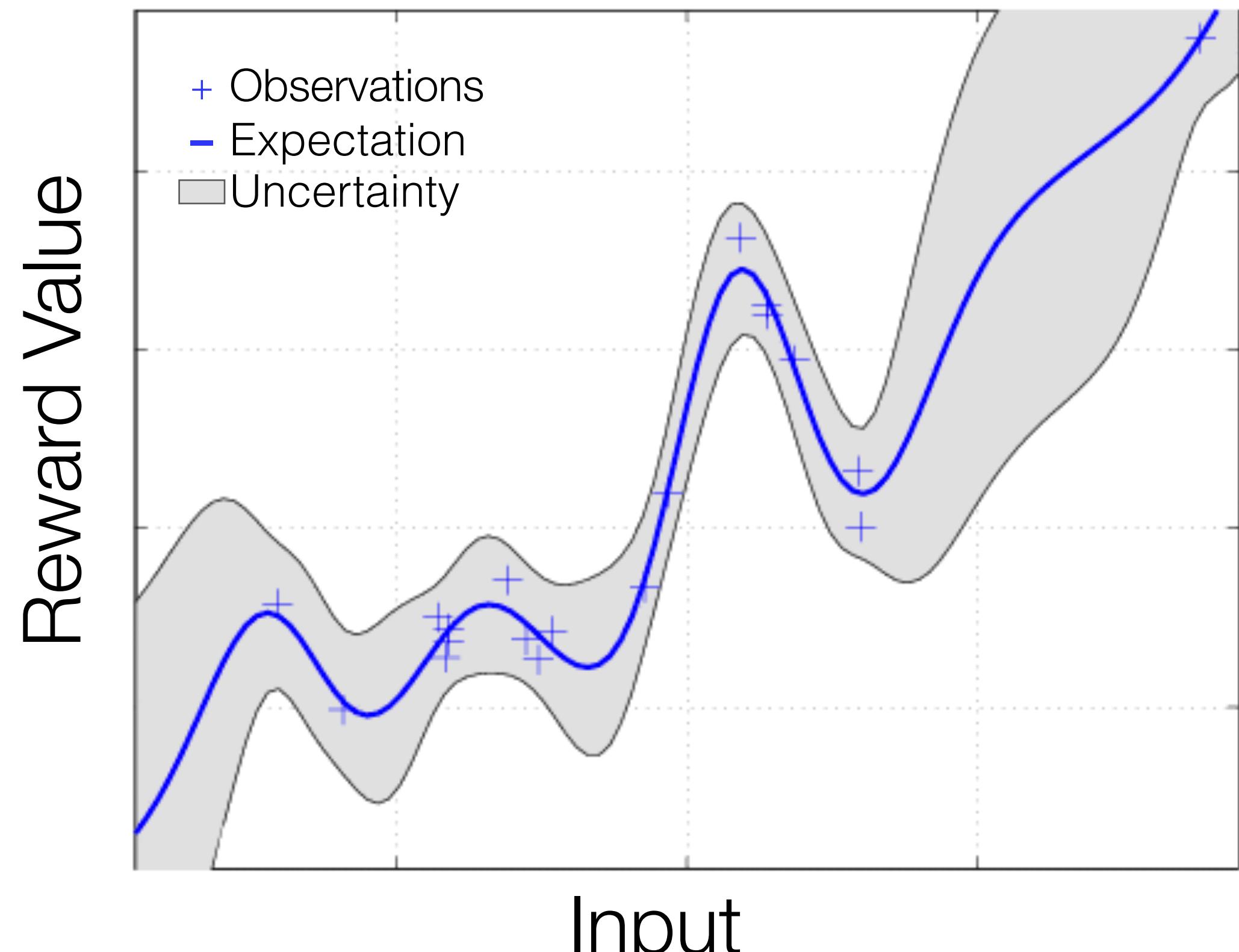
Tabular RL



Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression



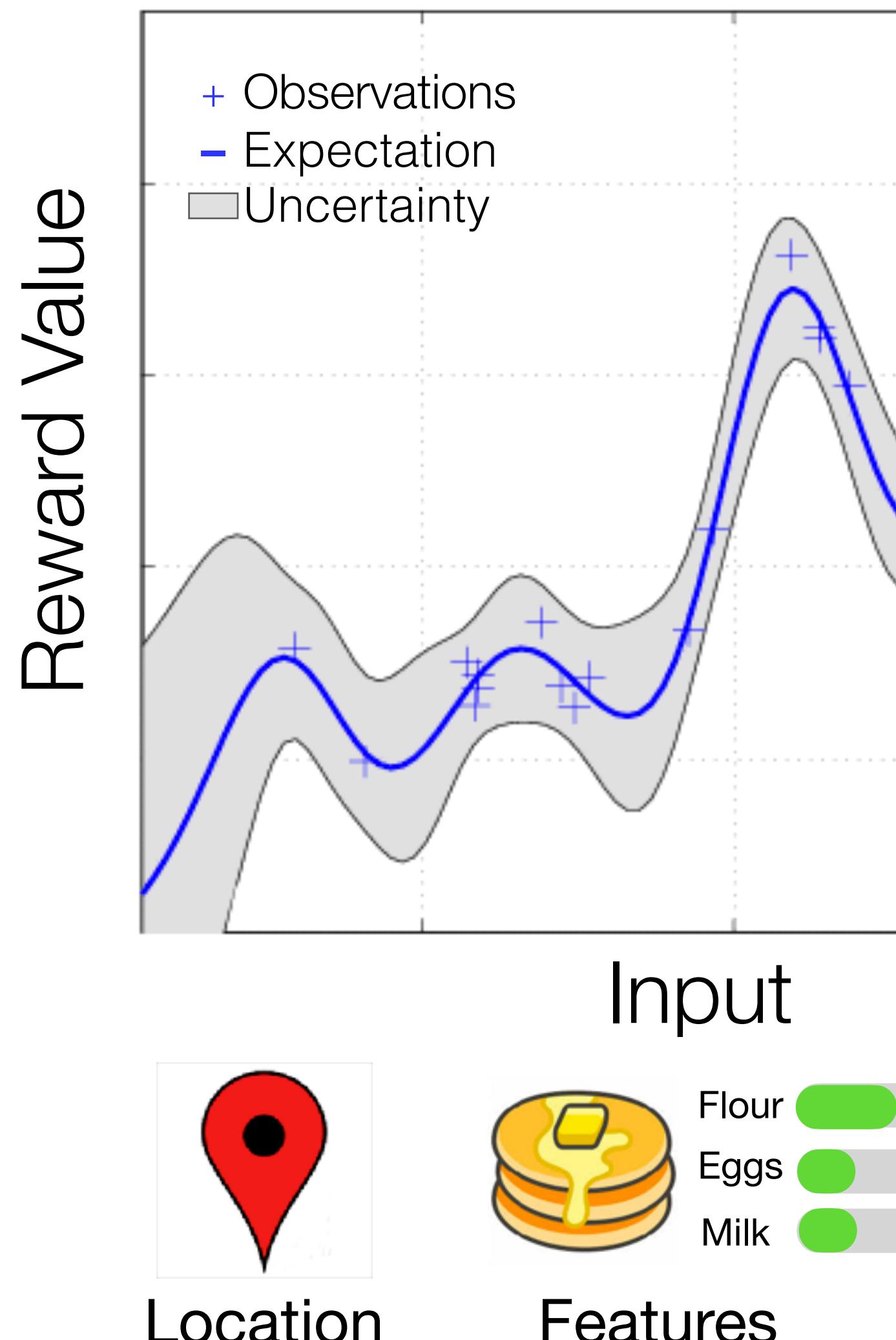
Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression



Location

(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)

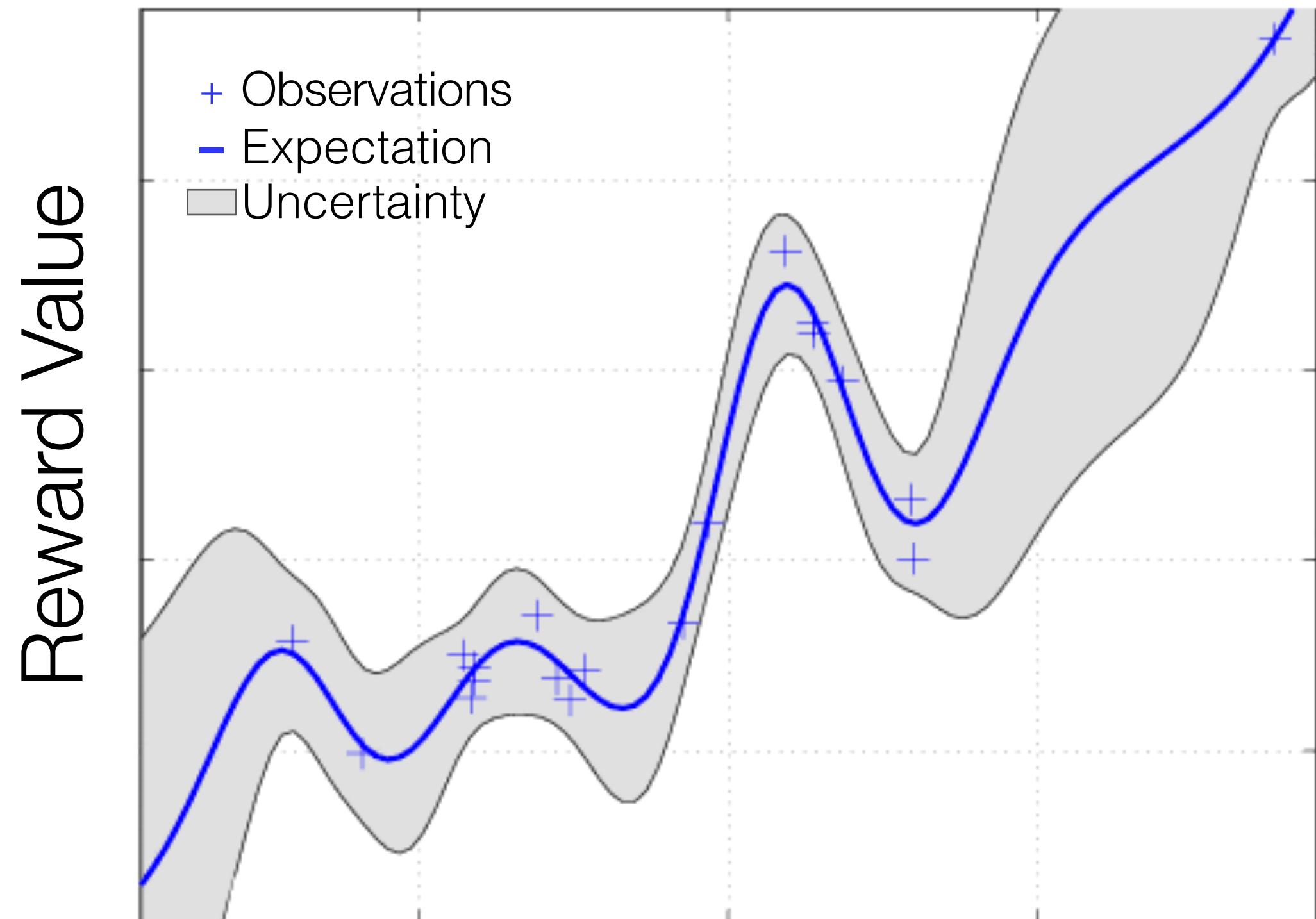
Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression



(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)

(Wu et al., *PLOS CompBio* 2020)

Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression



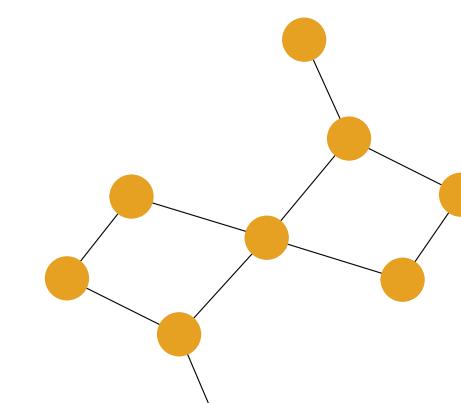
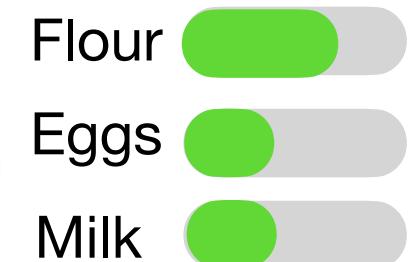
Input



Location



Features



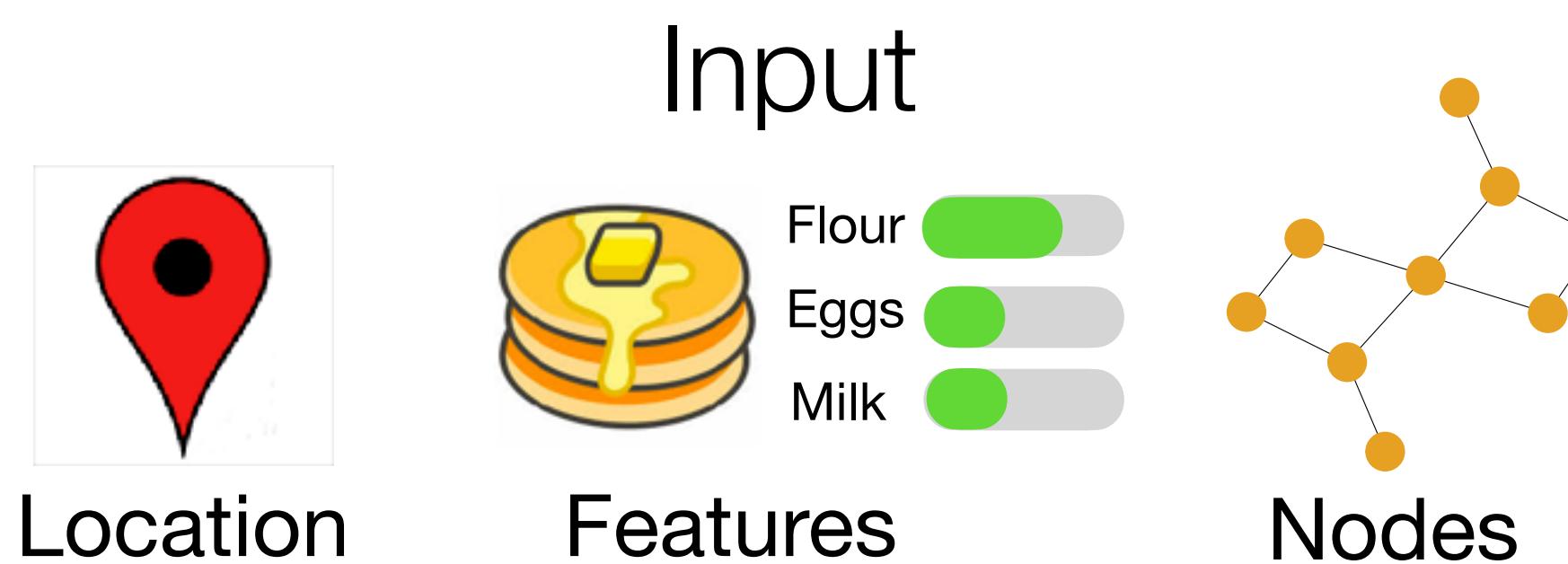
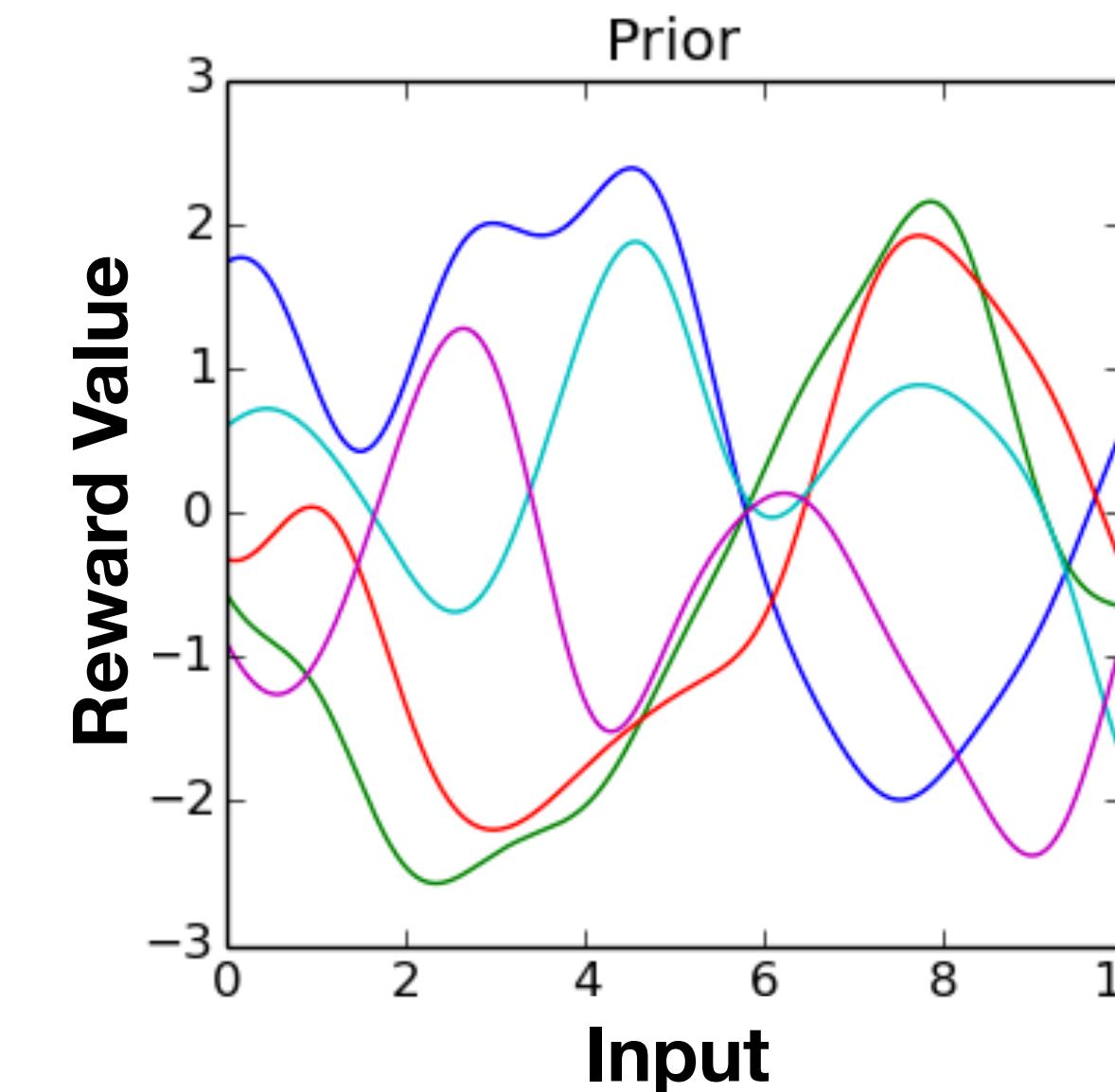
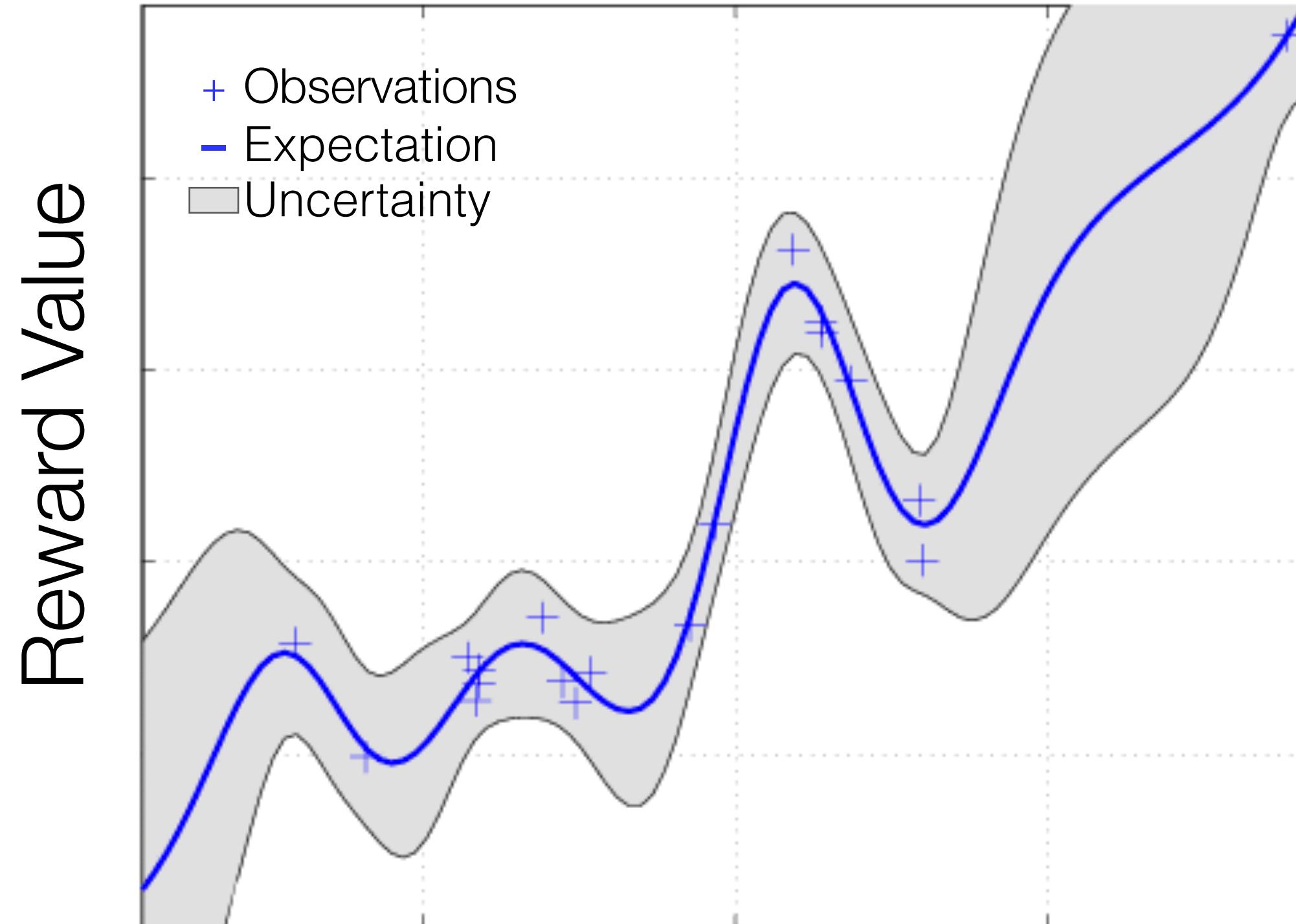
Nodes

(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)

(Wu et al., *PLOS CompBio* 2020)

(Wu et al., *CBB* 2021)

Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression

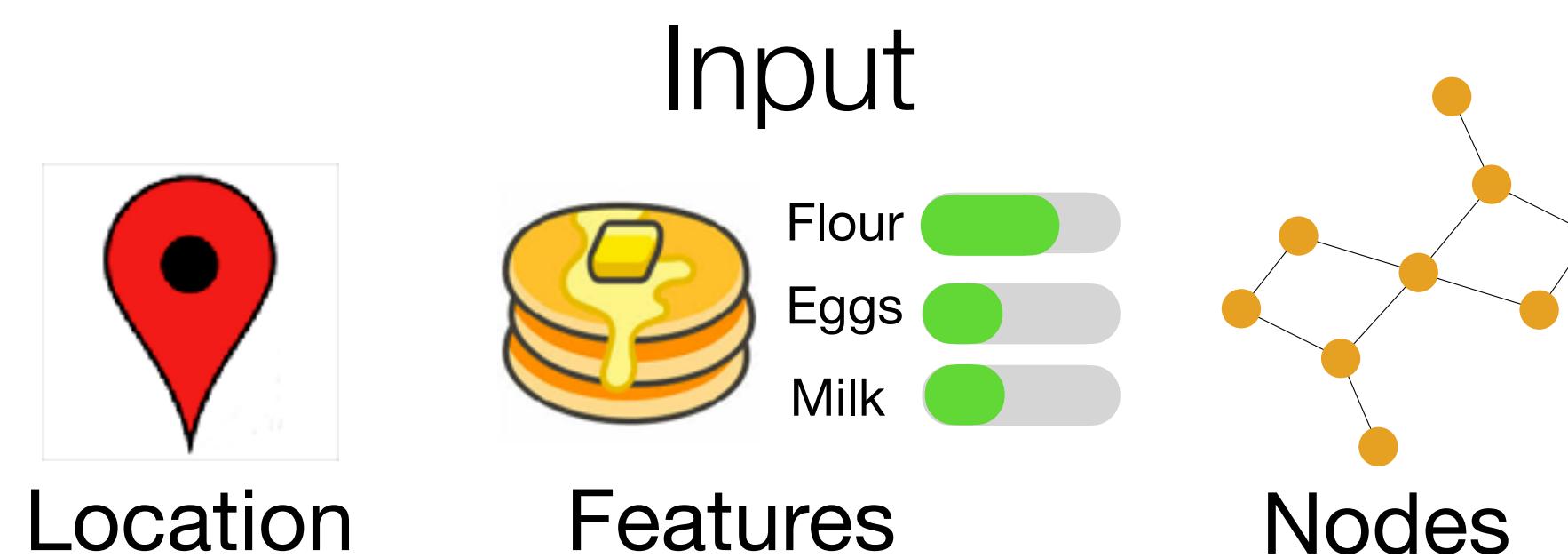
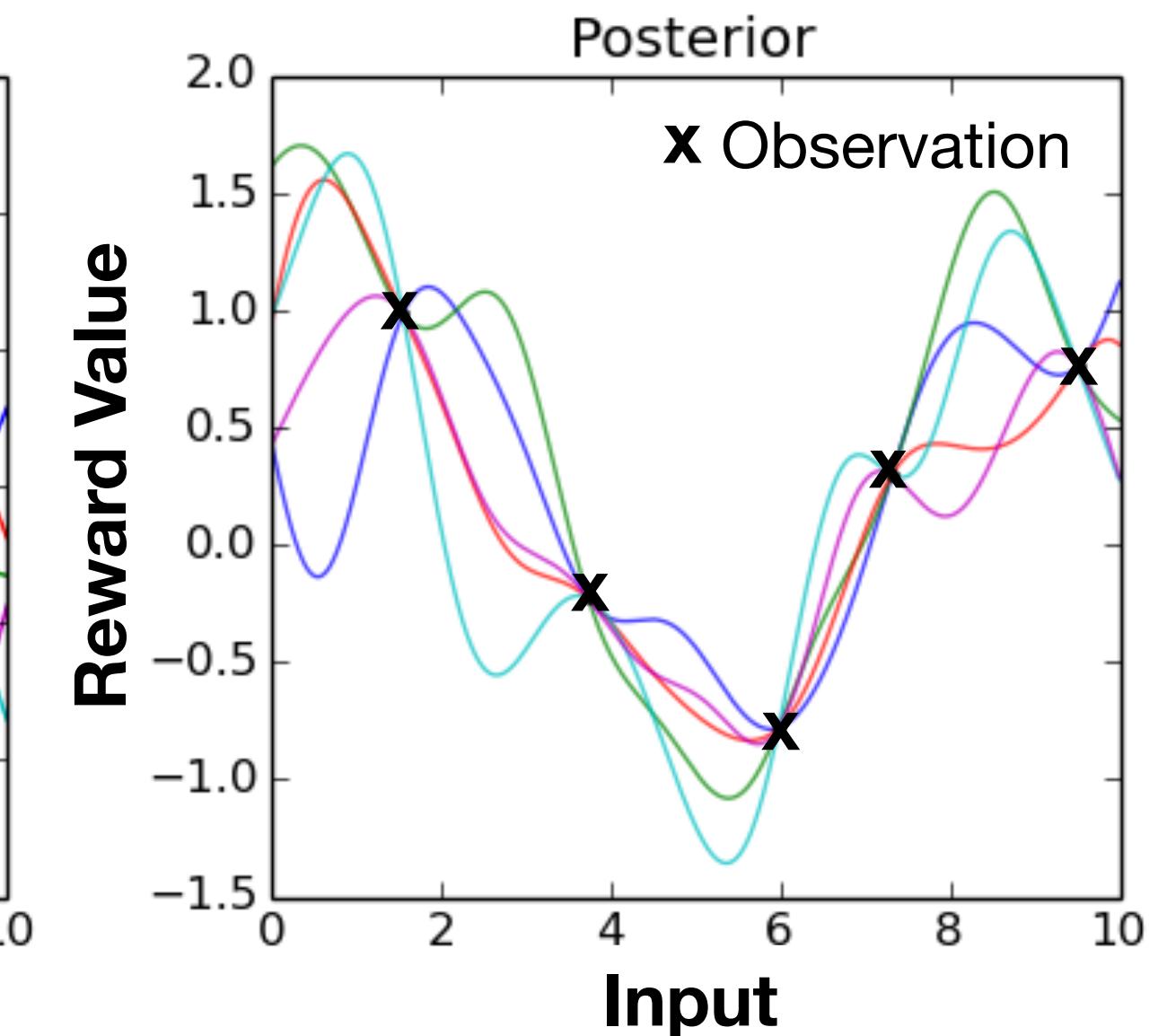
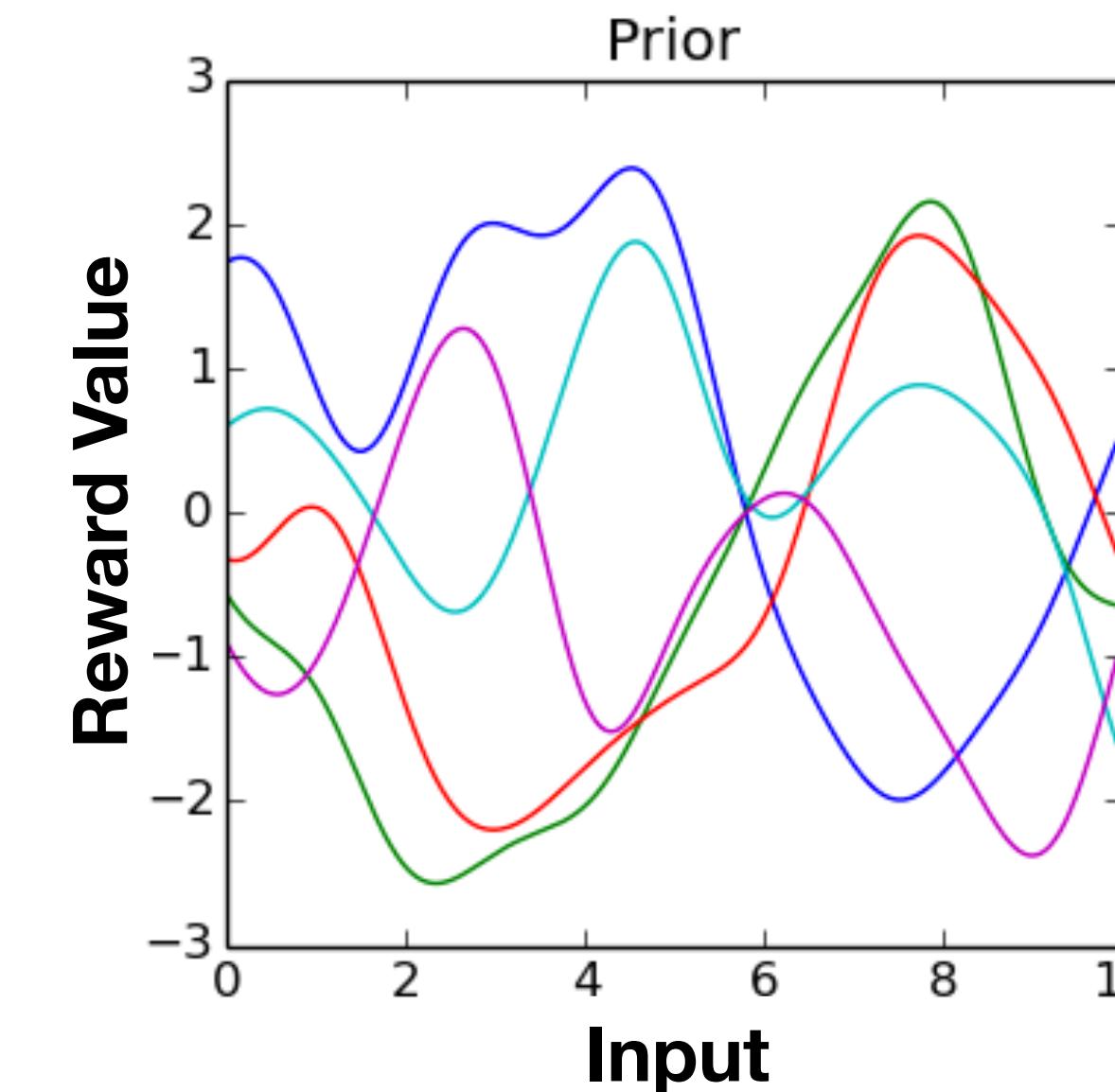
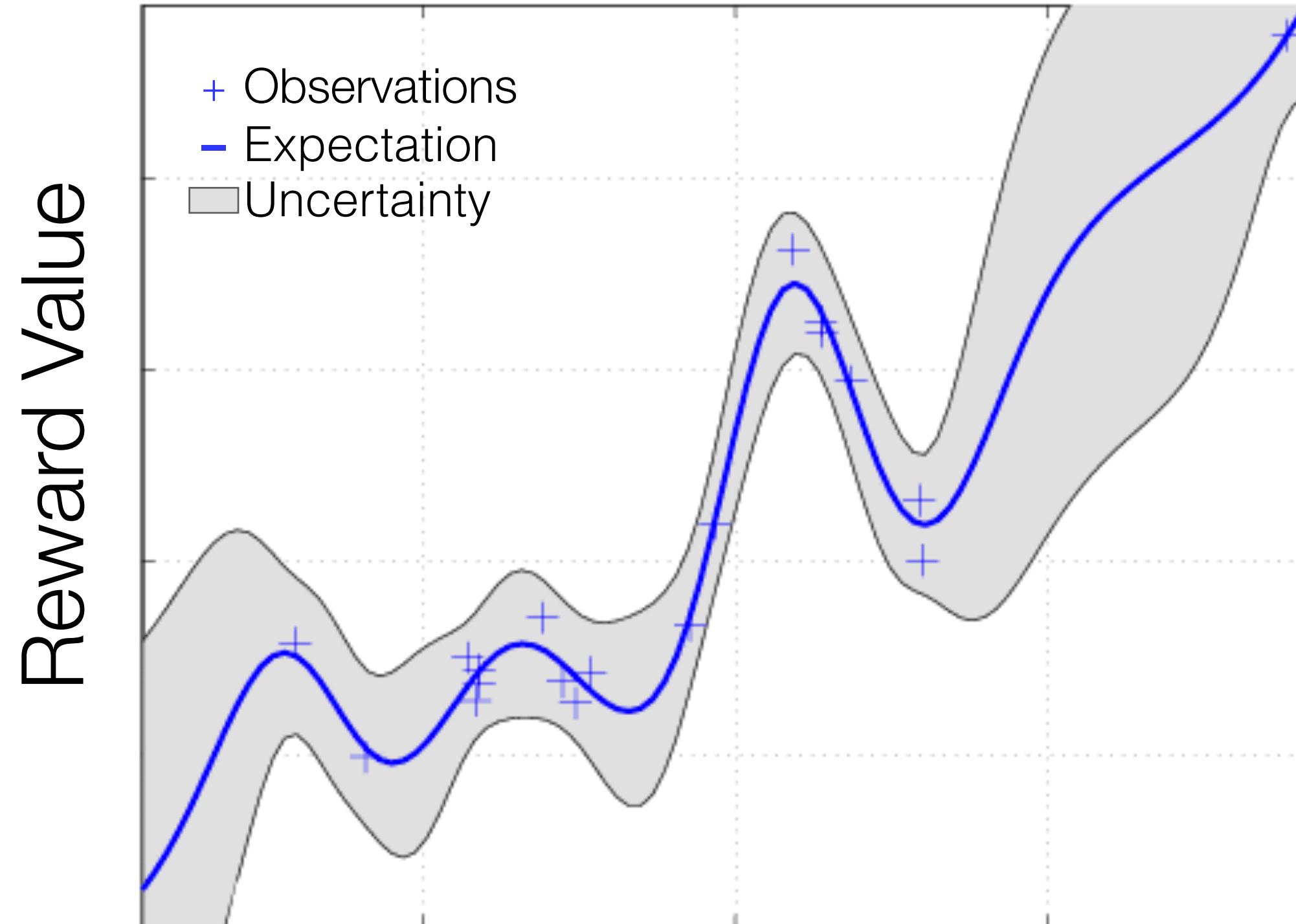


(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)

(Wu et al., *PLOS CompBio* 2020)

(Wu et al., *CBB* 2021)

Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression

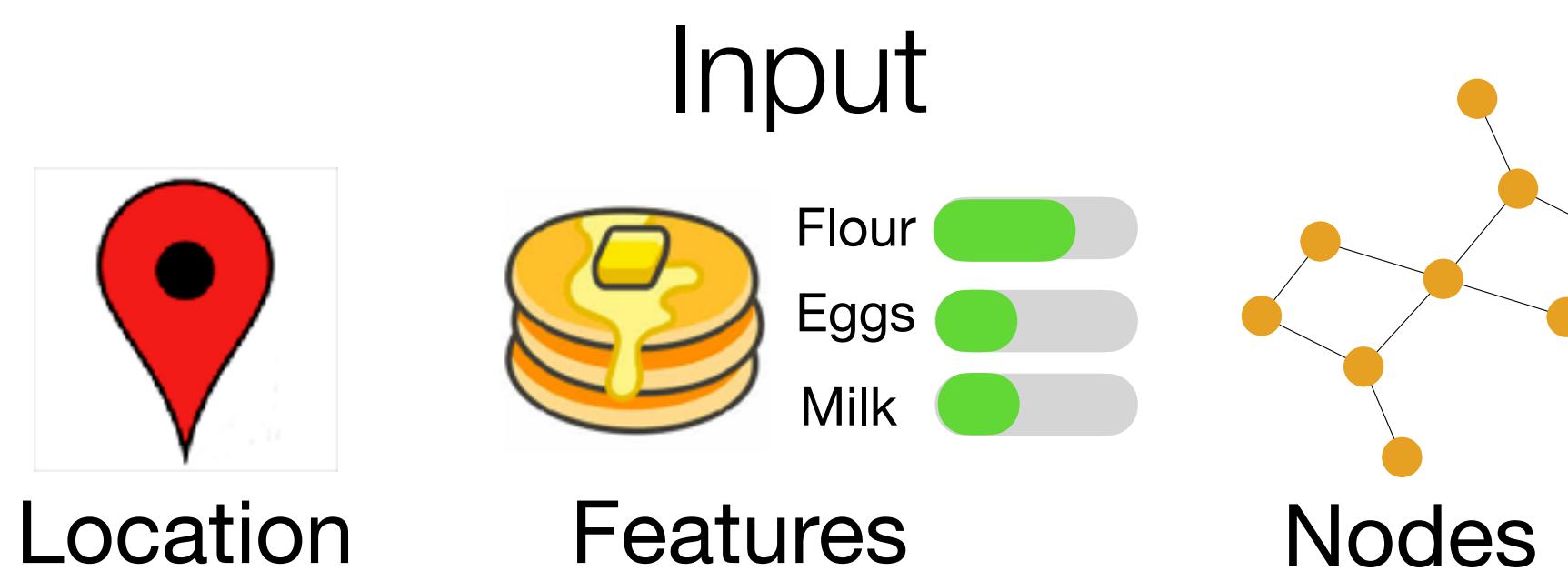
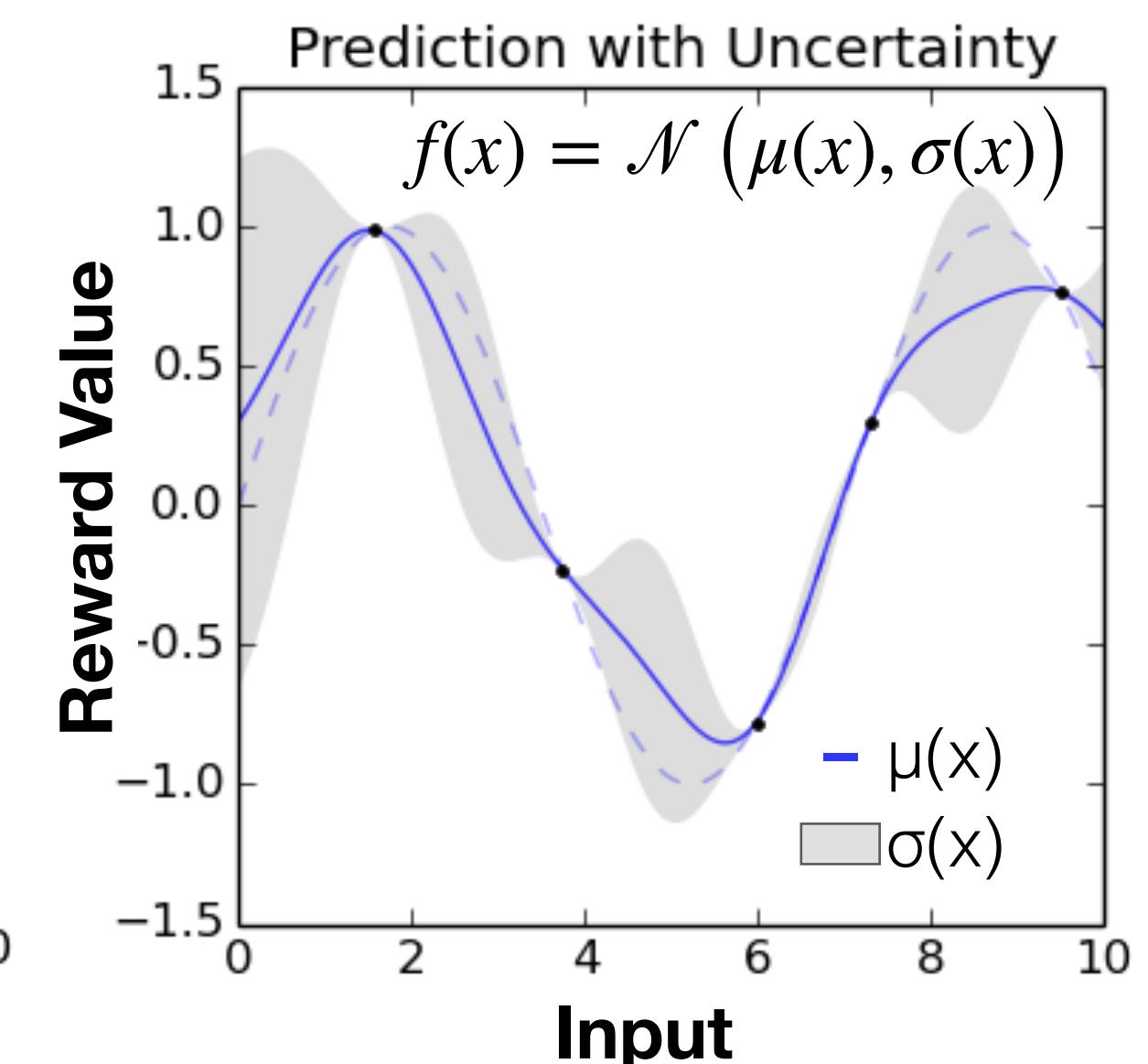
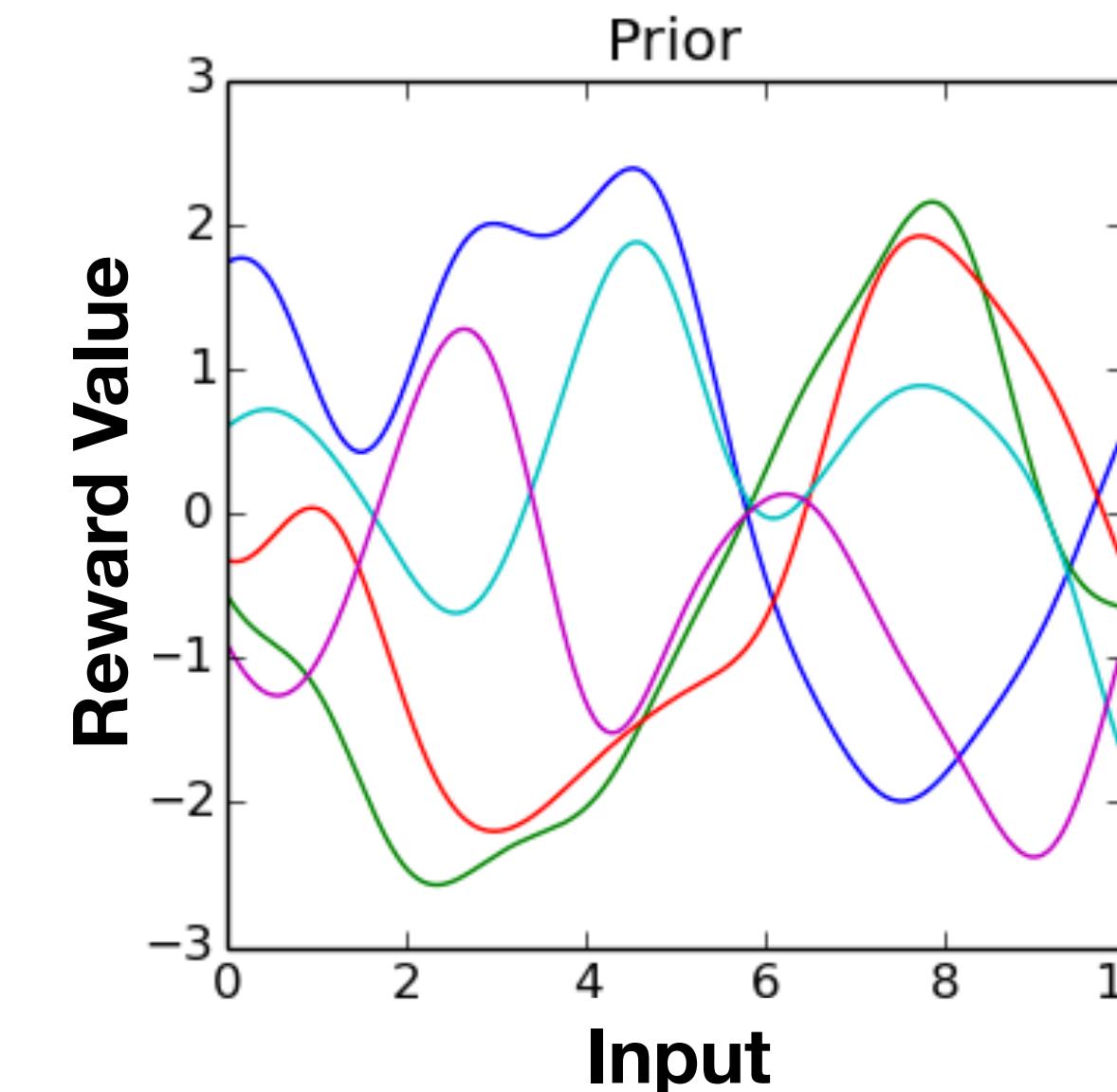
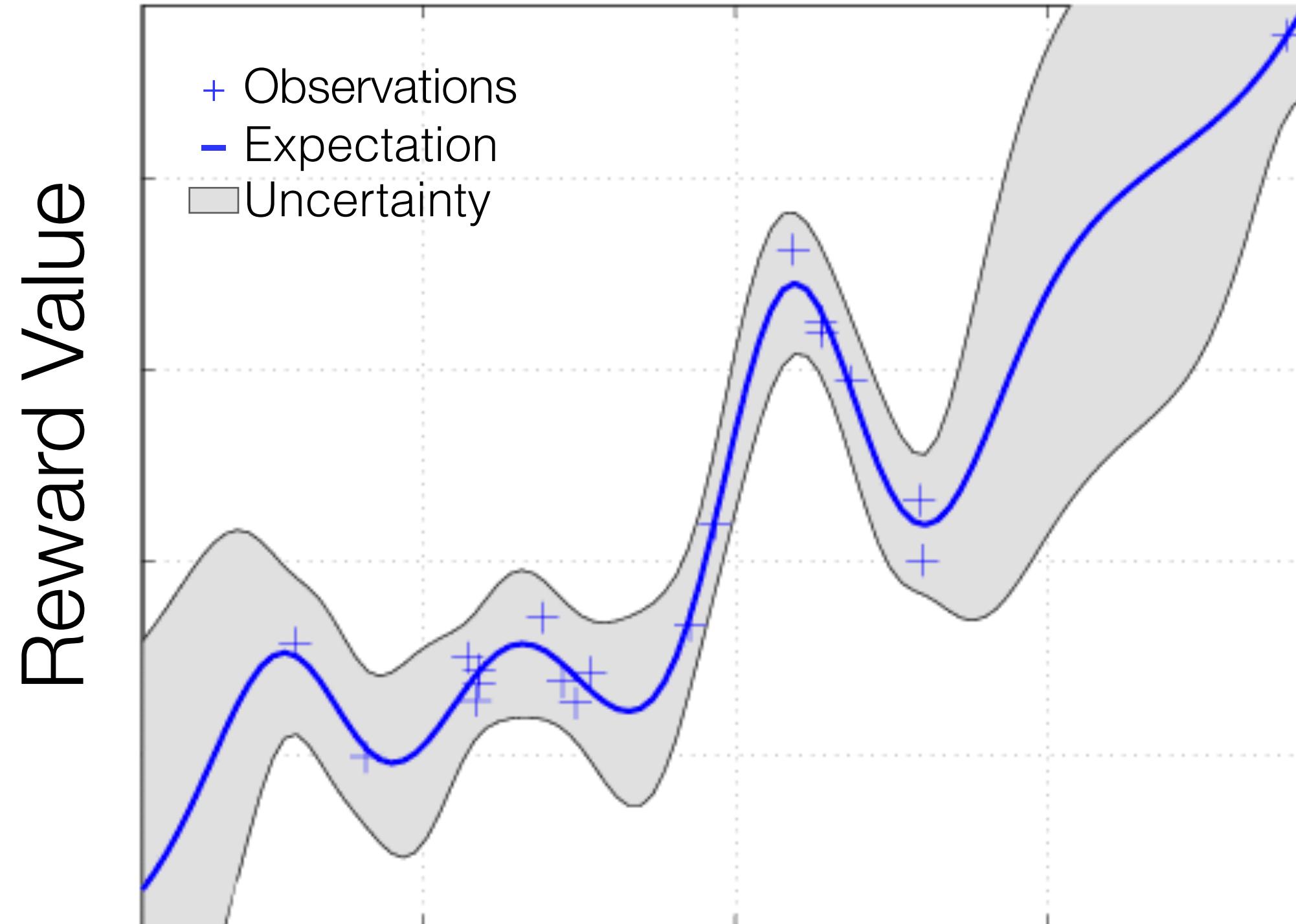


(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)

(Wu et al., *PLOS CompBio* 2020)

(Wu et al., *CBB* 2021)

Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression

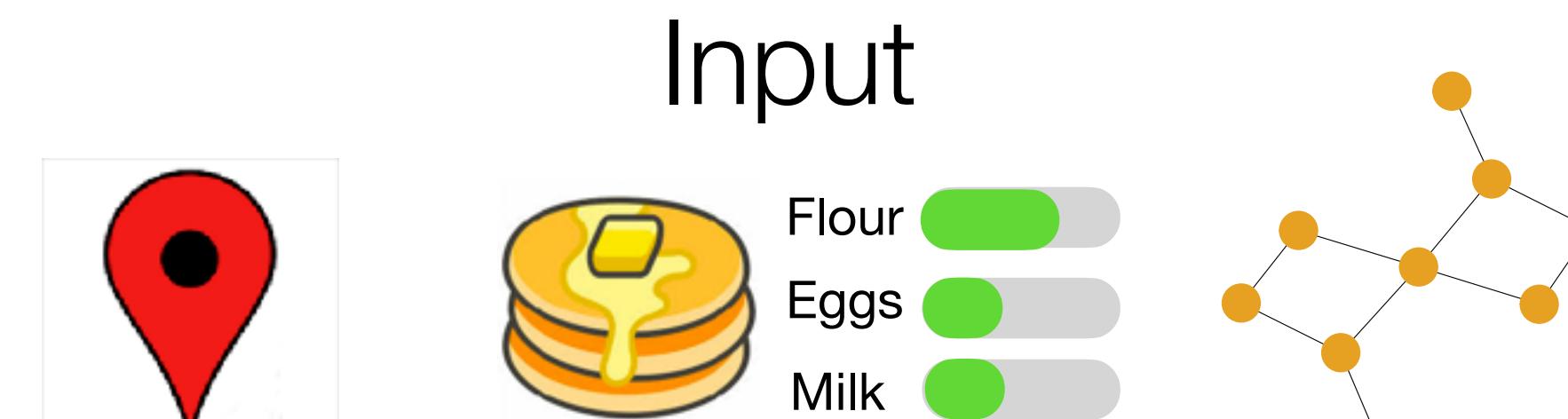
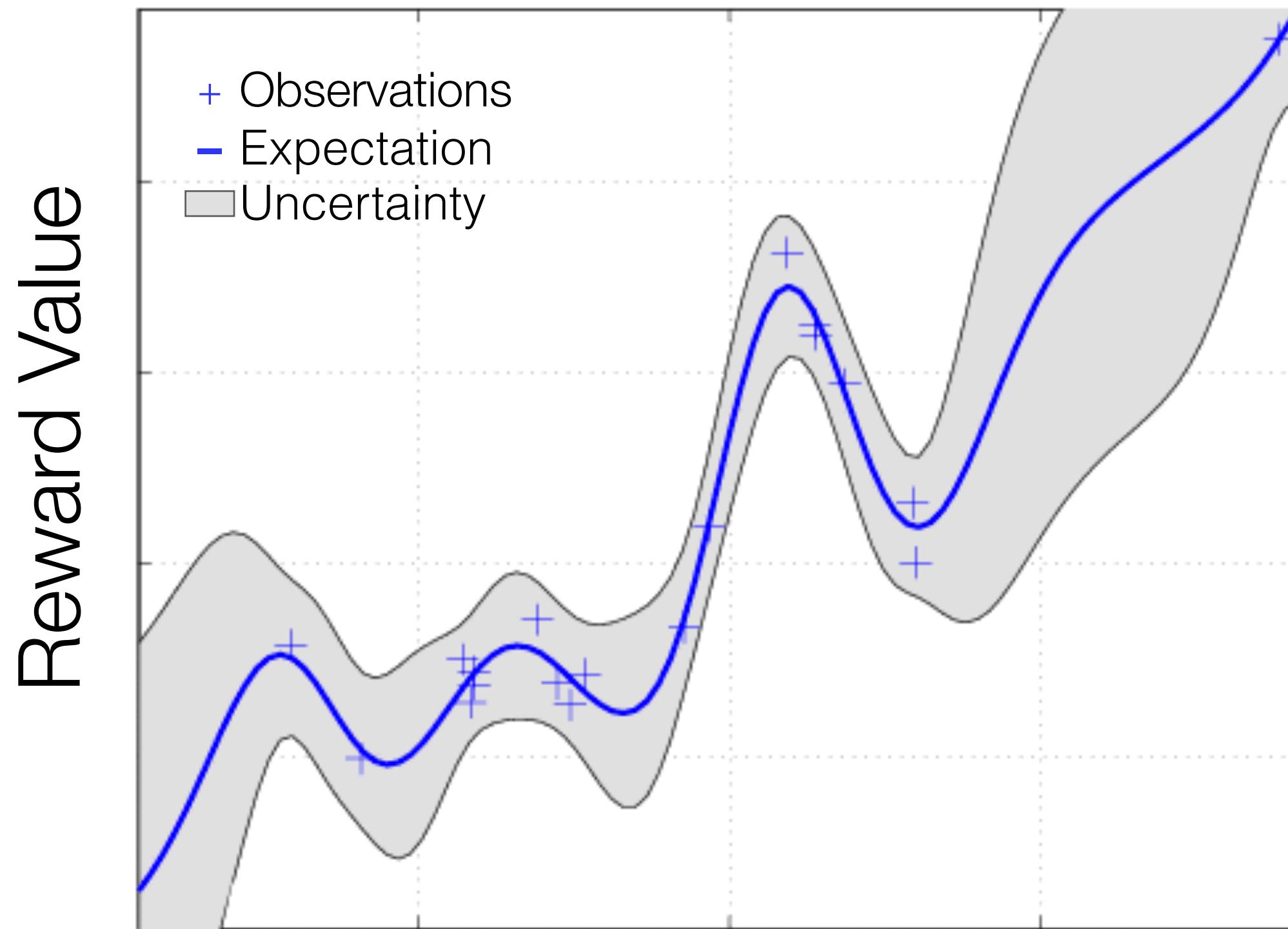


(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)

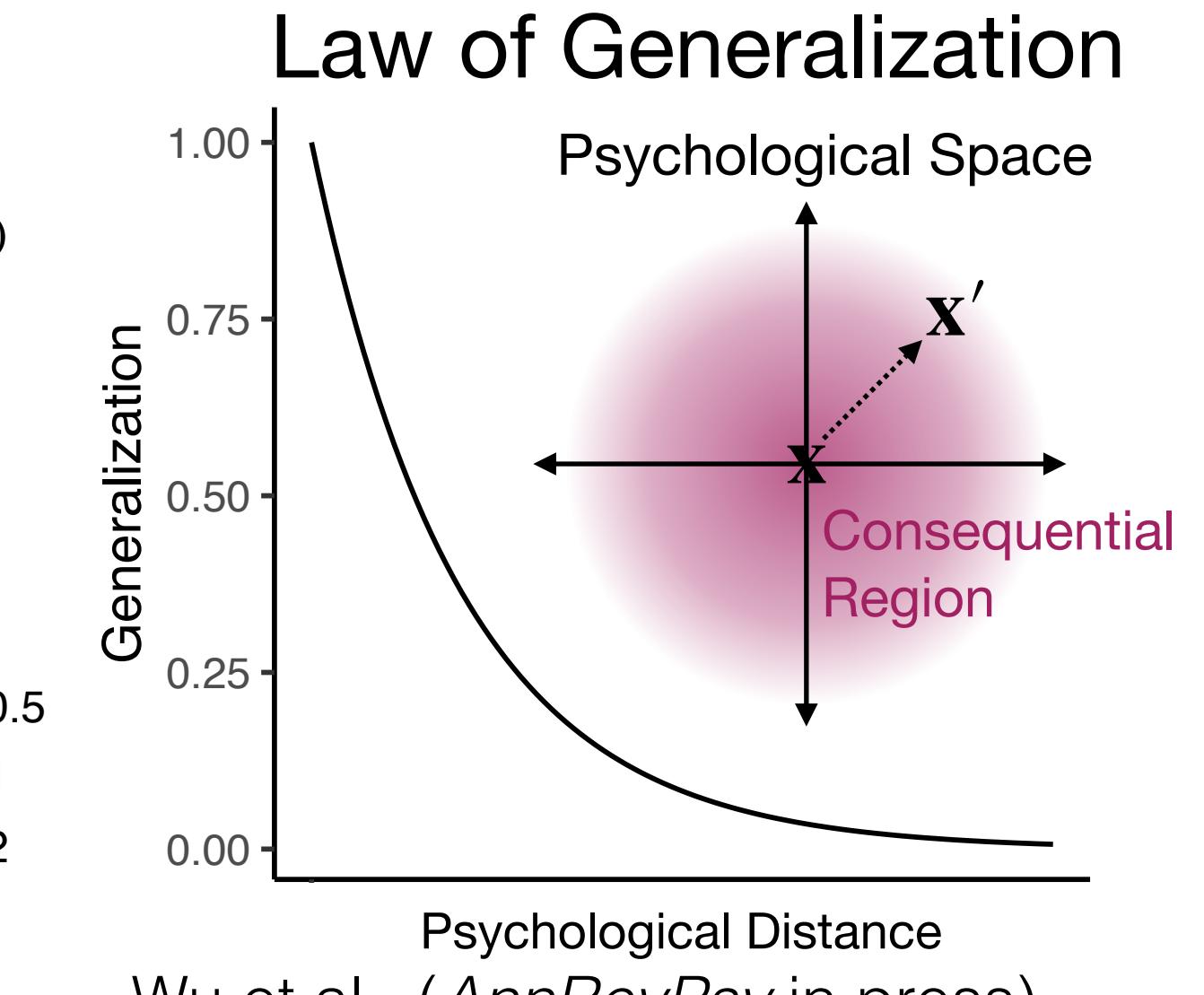
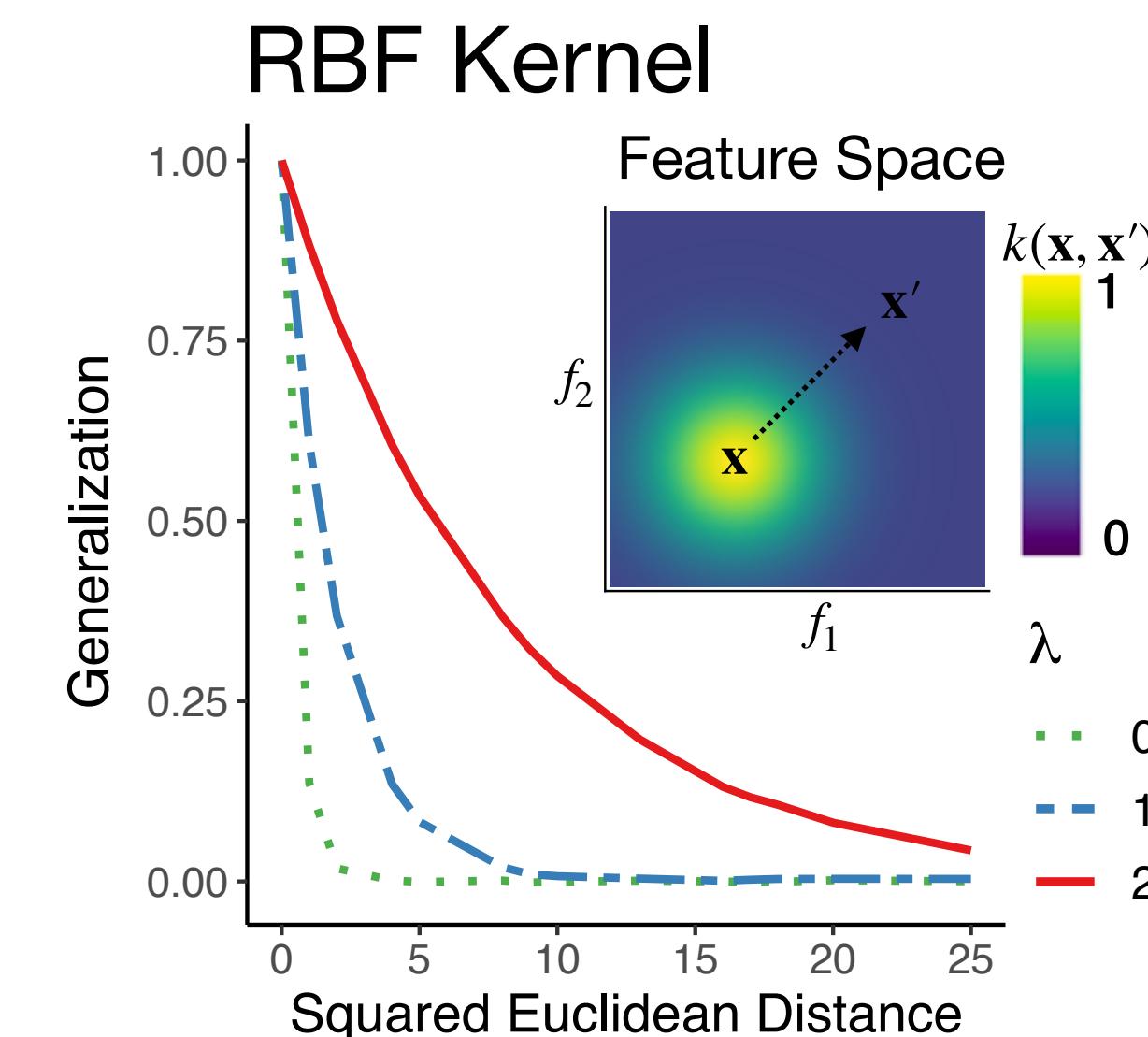
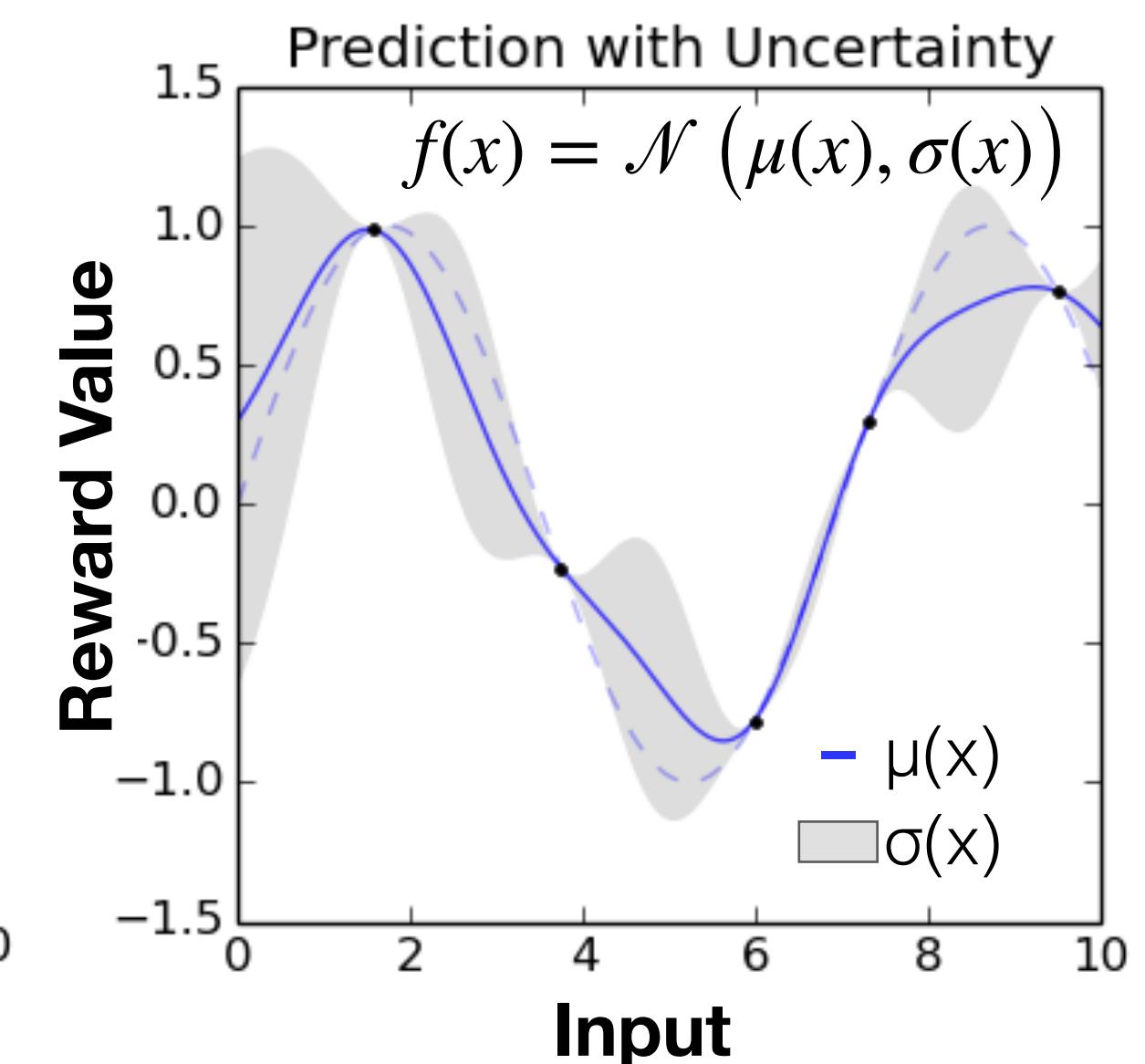
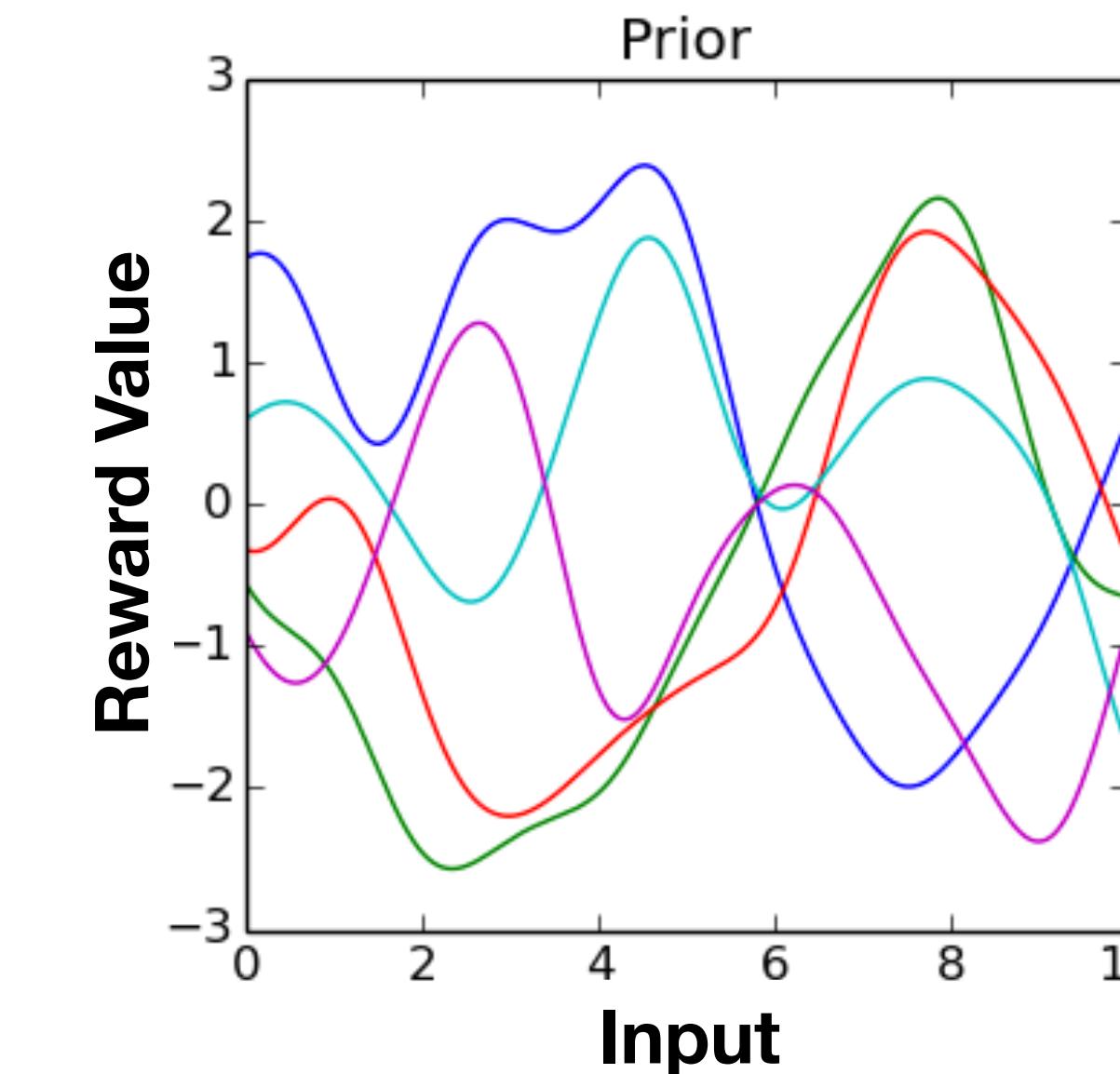
(Wu et al., *PLOS CompBio* 2020)

(Wu et al., *CBB* 2021)

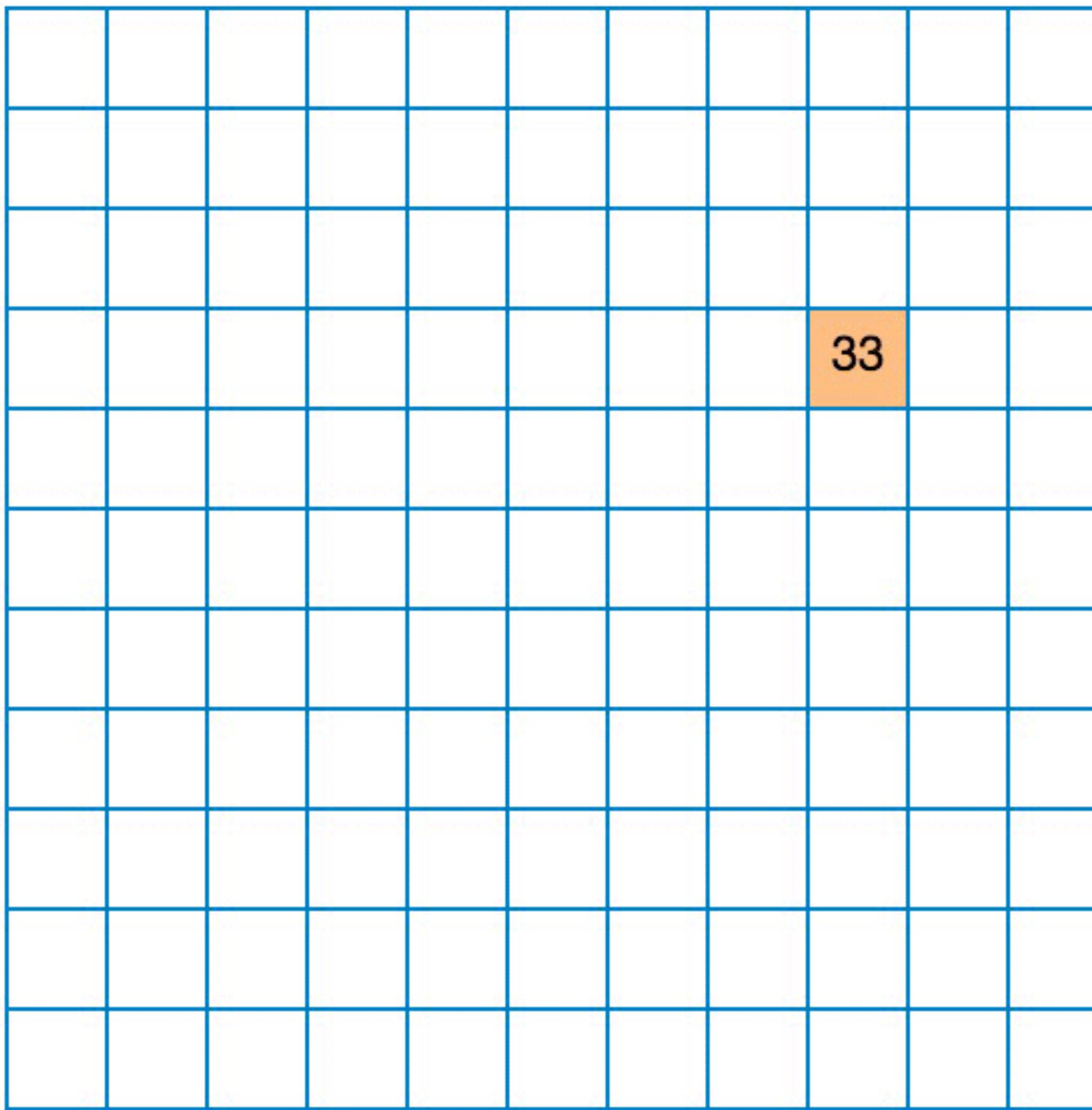
Bayesian Function Learning using Gaussian Process (GP) Regression



(Wu et al., *NHB* 2018)
 (Wu et al., *PLOS CompBio* 2020)
 (Wu et al., *CBB* 2021)



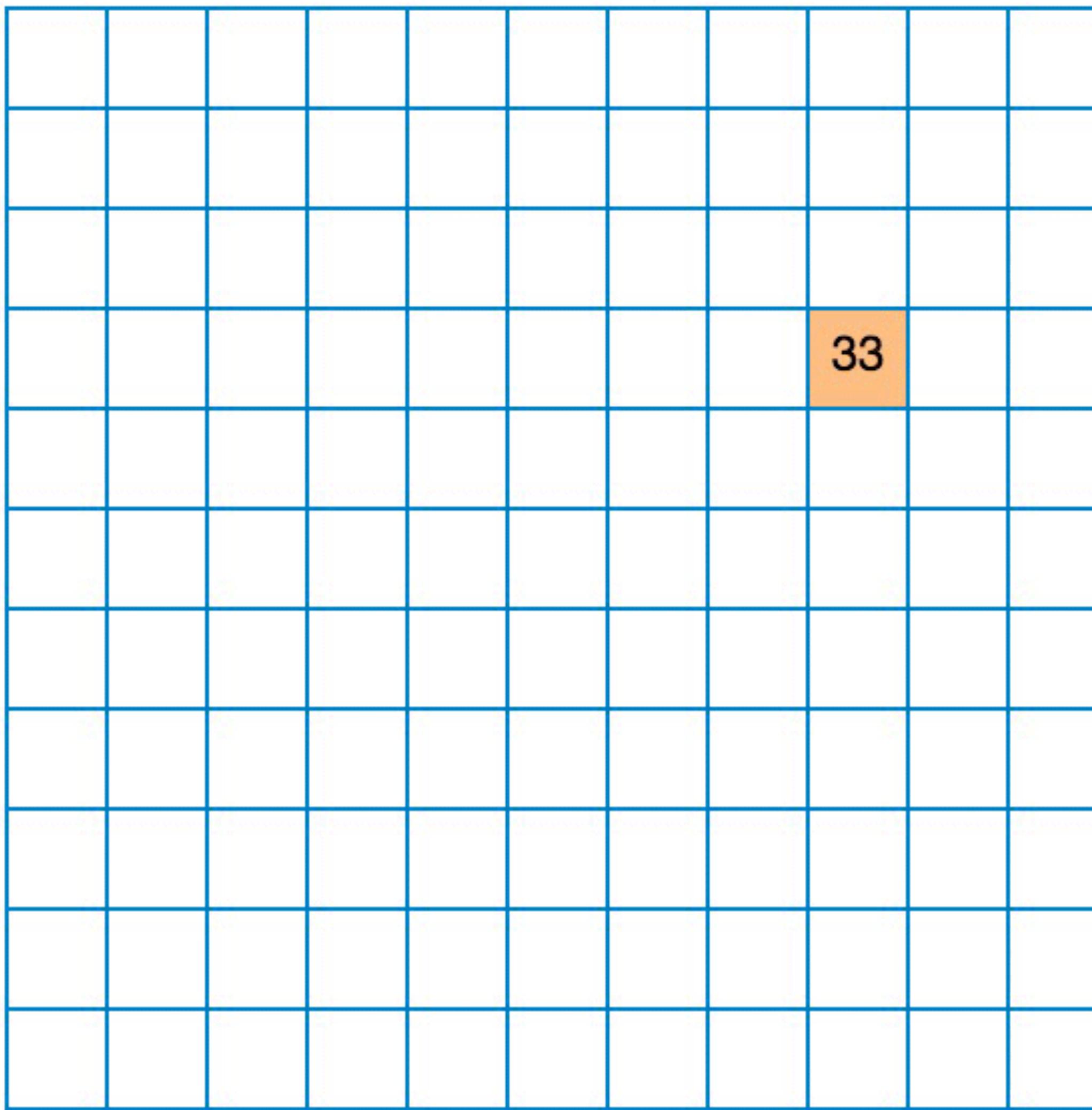
Spatially Correlated Bandit



Wu et al., (*Nature Human Behaviour* 2018)

- click tiles on the grid
- maximize reward
- each tile has normally distributed rewards
- limited search horizon
- nearby tiles have similar rewards

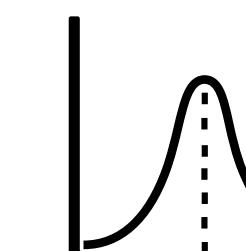
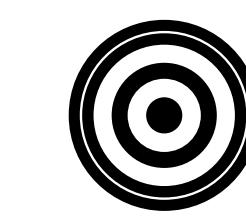
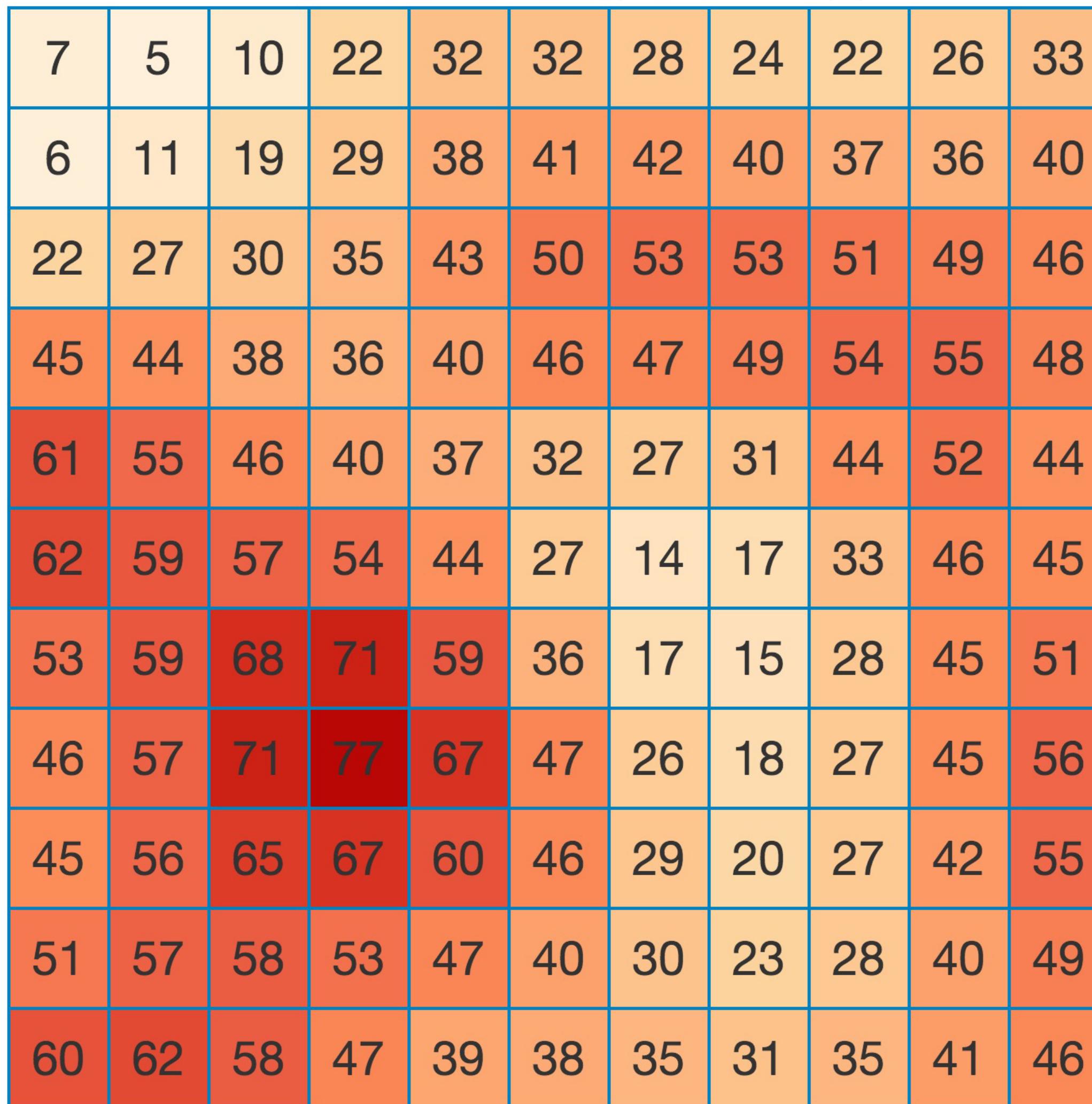
Spatially Correlated Bandit



Wu et al., (*Nature Human Behaviour* 2018)

- click tiles on the grid
- maximize reward
- each tile has normally distributed rewards
- limited search horizon
- nearby tiles have similar rewards

Spatially Correlated Bandit



click tiles on the grid

maximize reward

each tile has normally distributed rewards

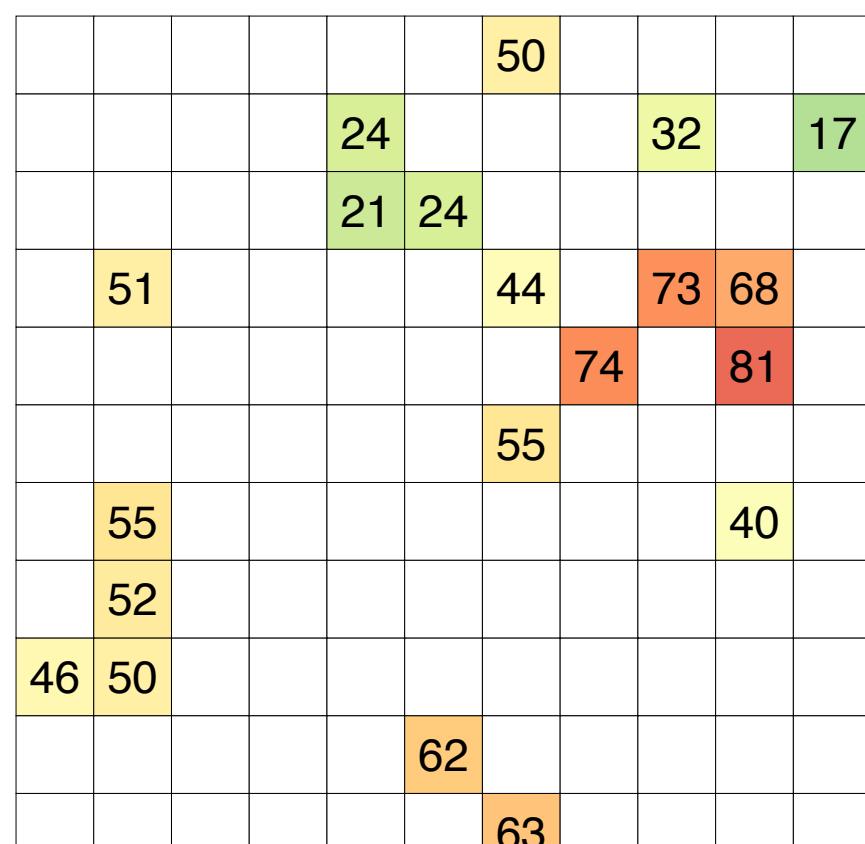
limited search horizon



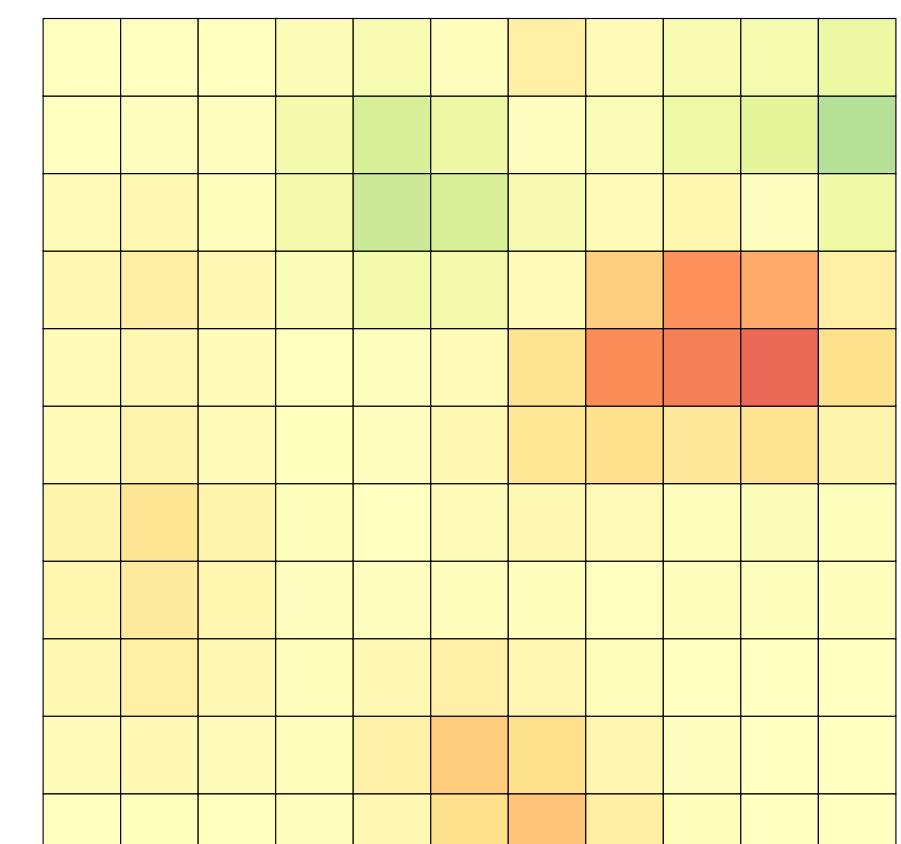
nearby tiles have similar rewards

GP-UCB Model

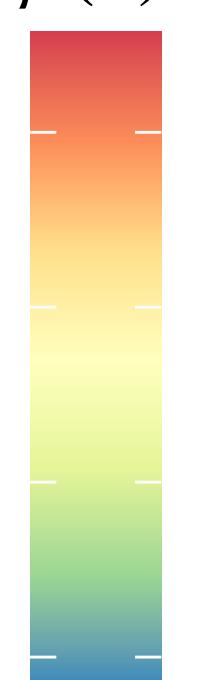
Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)



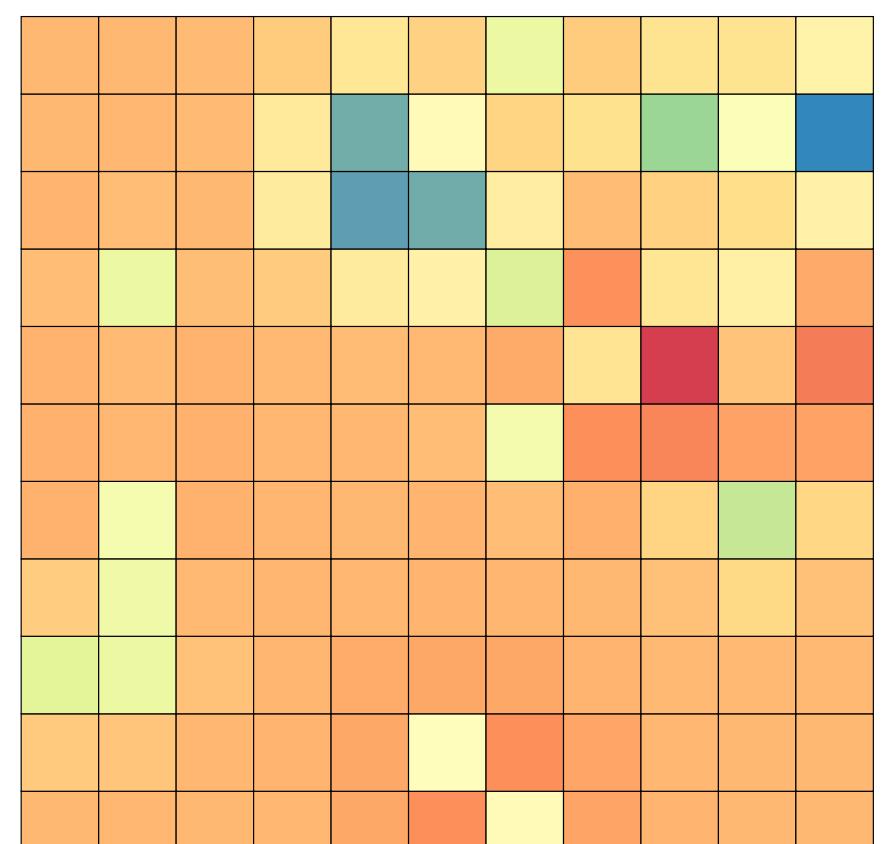
$$\mu(\mathbf{x})$$



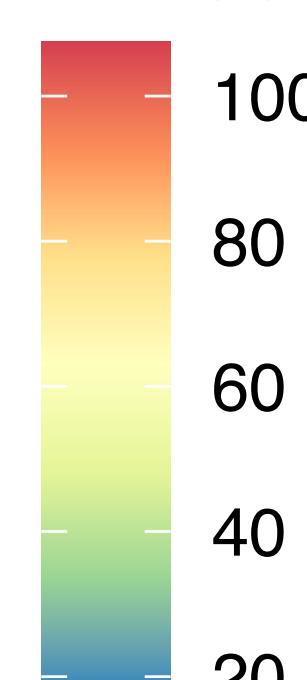
Generalization

Directed Exploration

Upper Confidence Bound
(UCB) Sampling

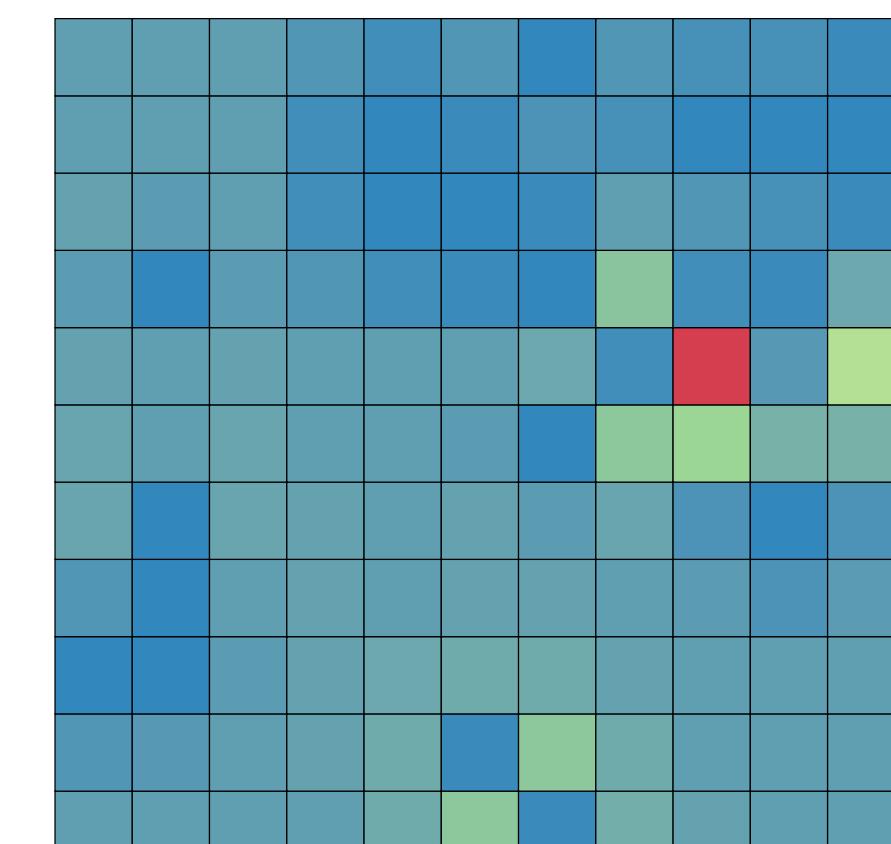


$$UCB(\mathbf{x})$$

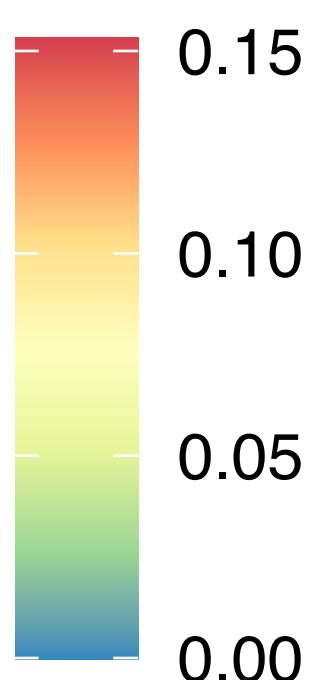


Random Temperature

Softmax Choice Rule

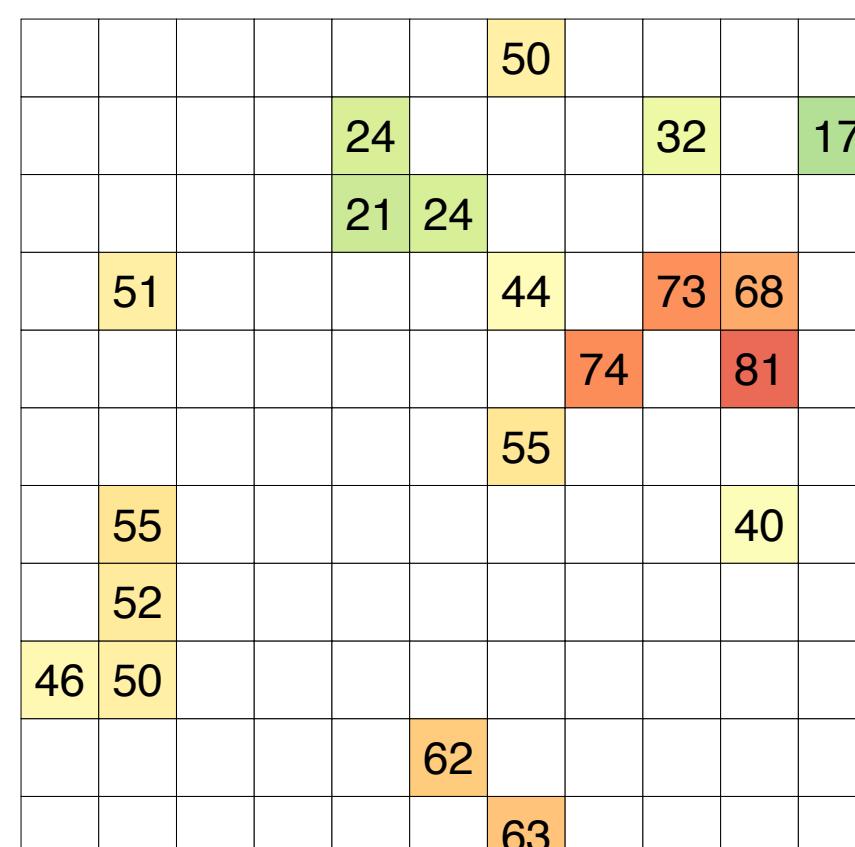


$$P(\mathbf{x})$$

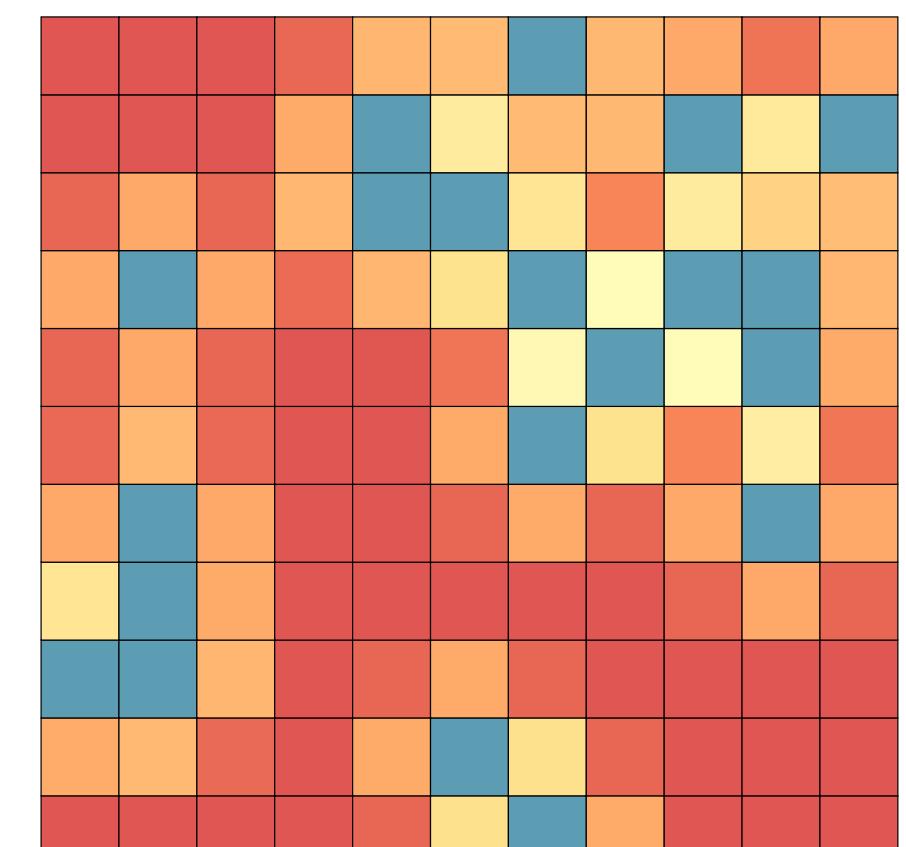


GP-UCB Model

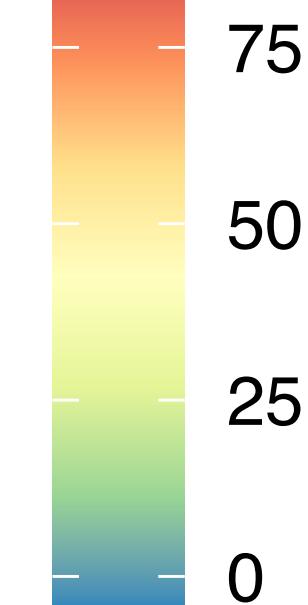
Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)



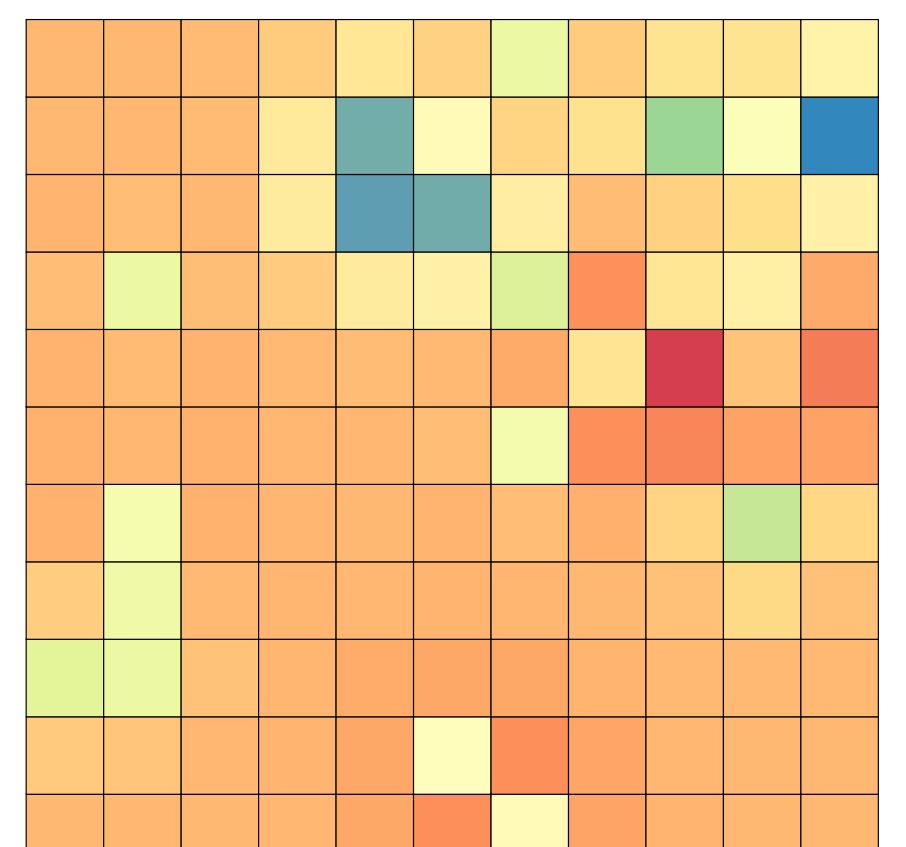
$$\sigma(\mathbf{x})$$



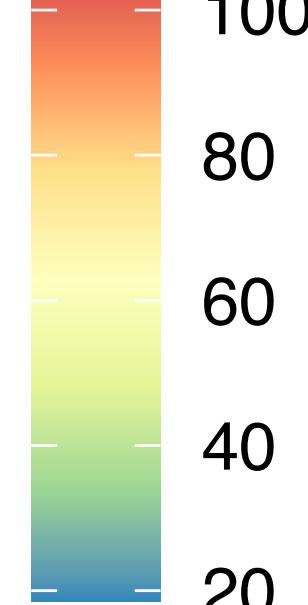
Generalization

Directed Exploration

Upper Confidence Bound
(UCB) Sampling

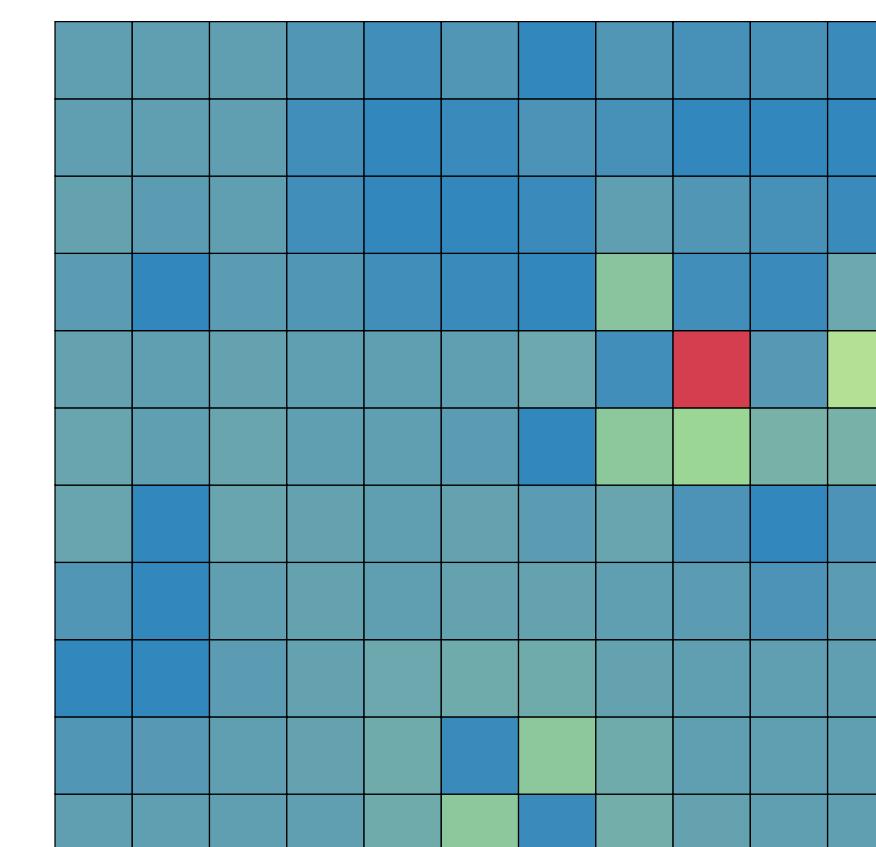


$$UCB(\mathbf{x})$$



Random Temperature

Softmax Choice Rule

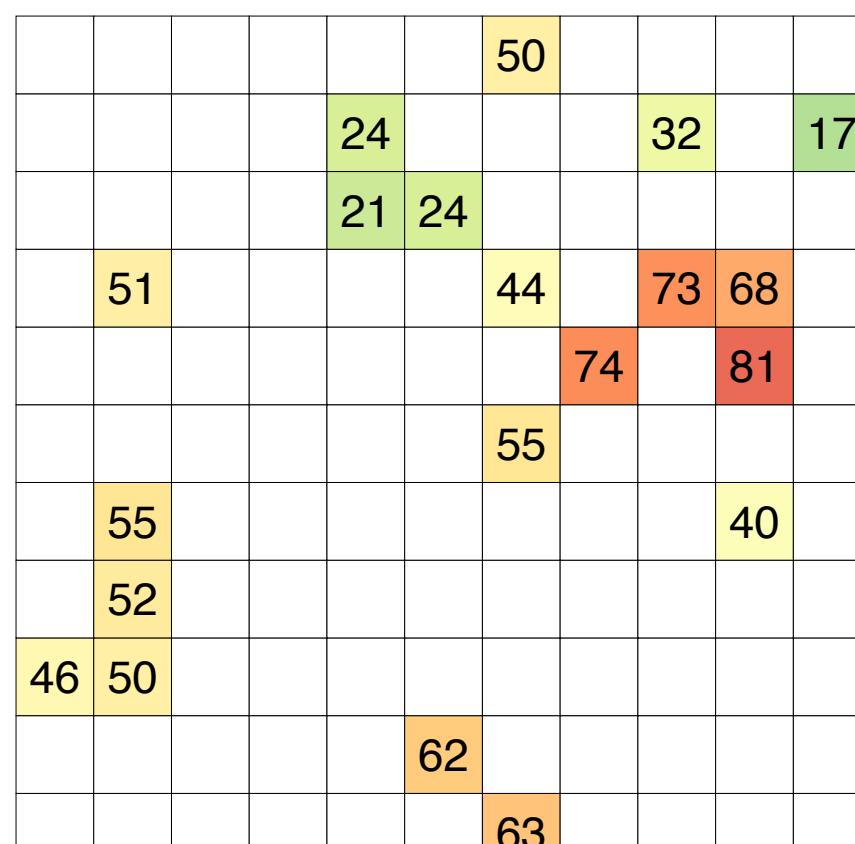


$$P(\mathbf{x})$$

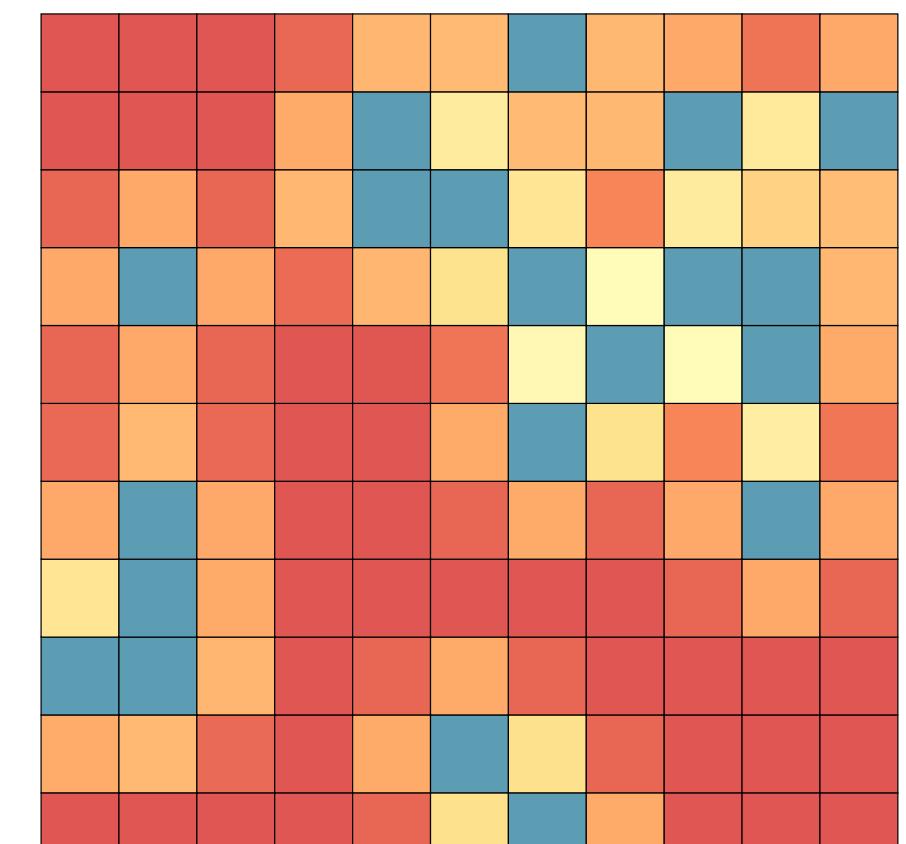


GP-UCB Model

Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)



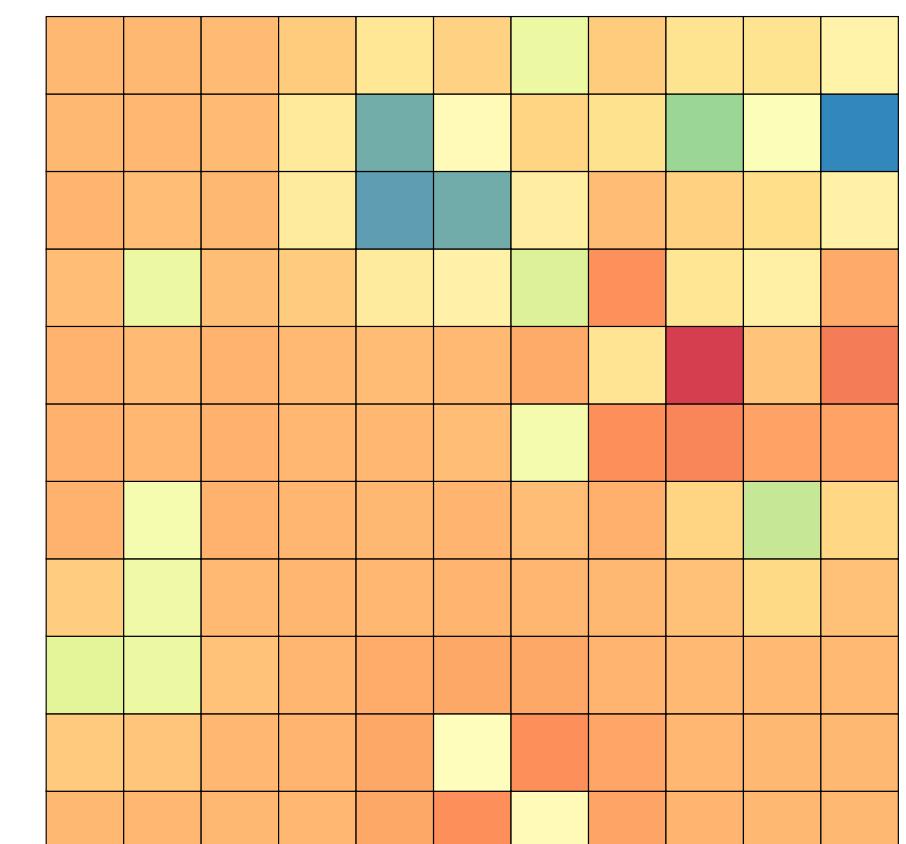
$$\sigma(x)$$

75
50
25
0

Generalization

Directed Exploration

Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) Sampling

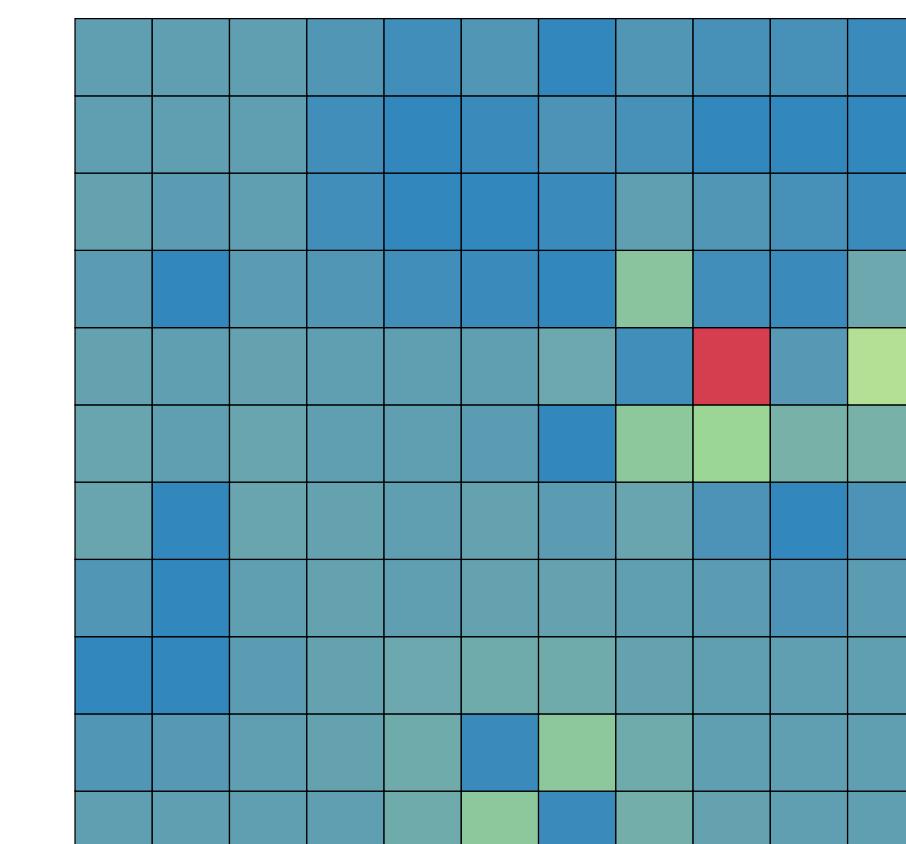


$$UCB(x)$$

100
80
60
40
20

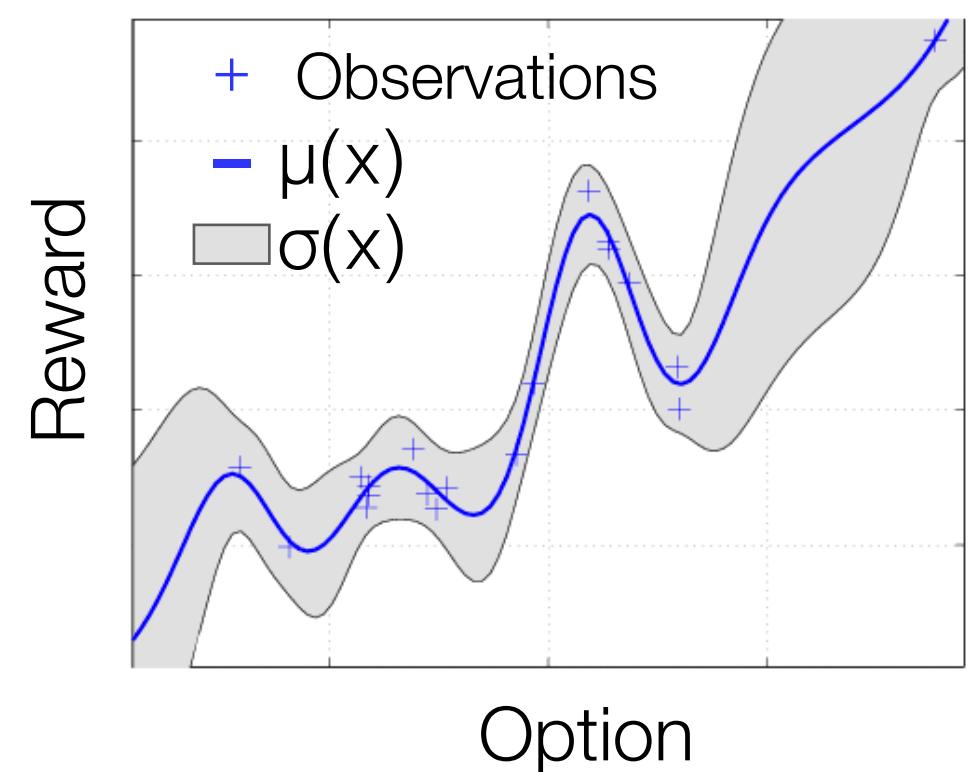
Random Temperature

Softmax Choice Rule



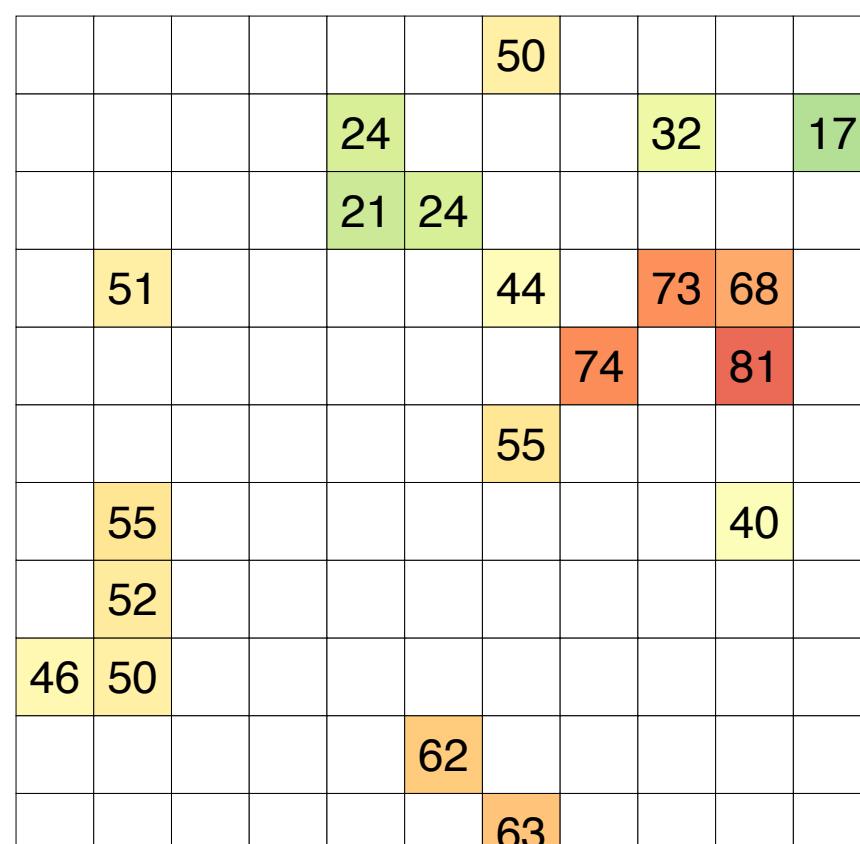
$$P(x)$$

0.15
0.10
0.05
0.00

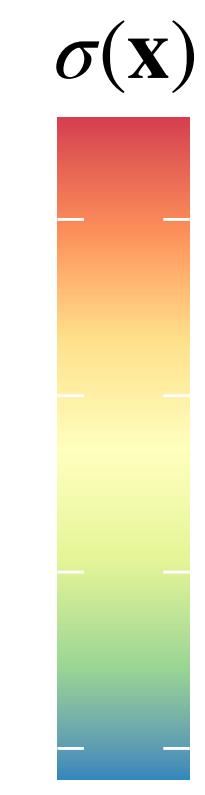
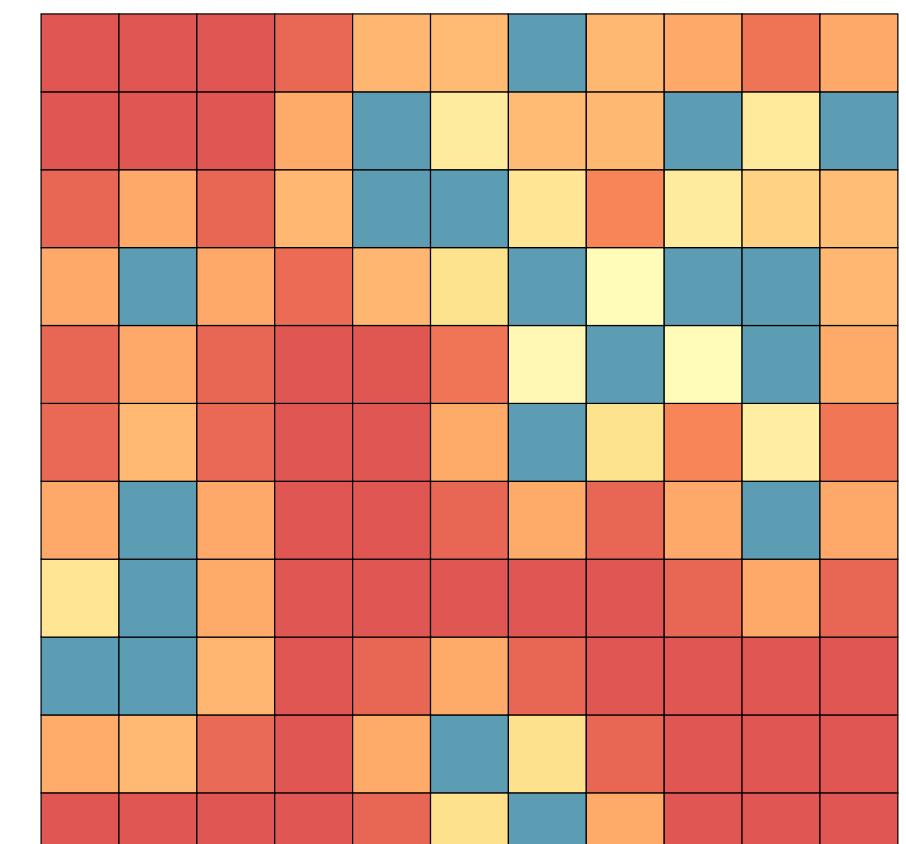


GP-UCB Model

Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)



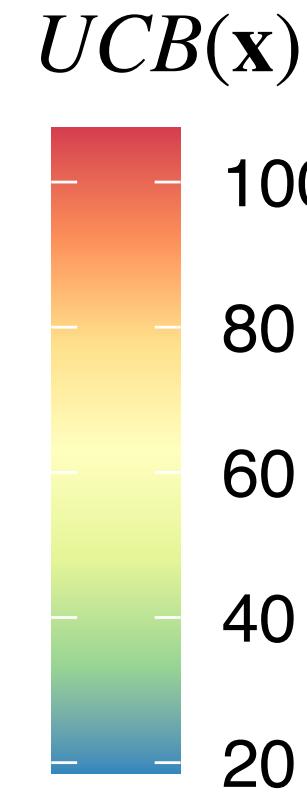
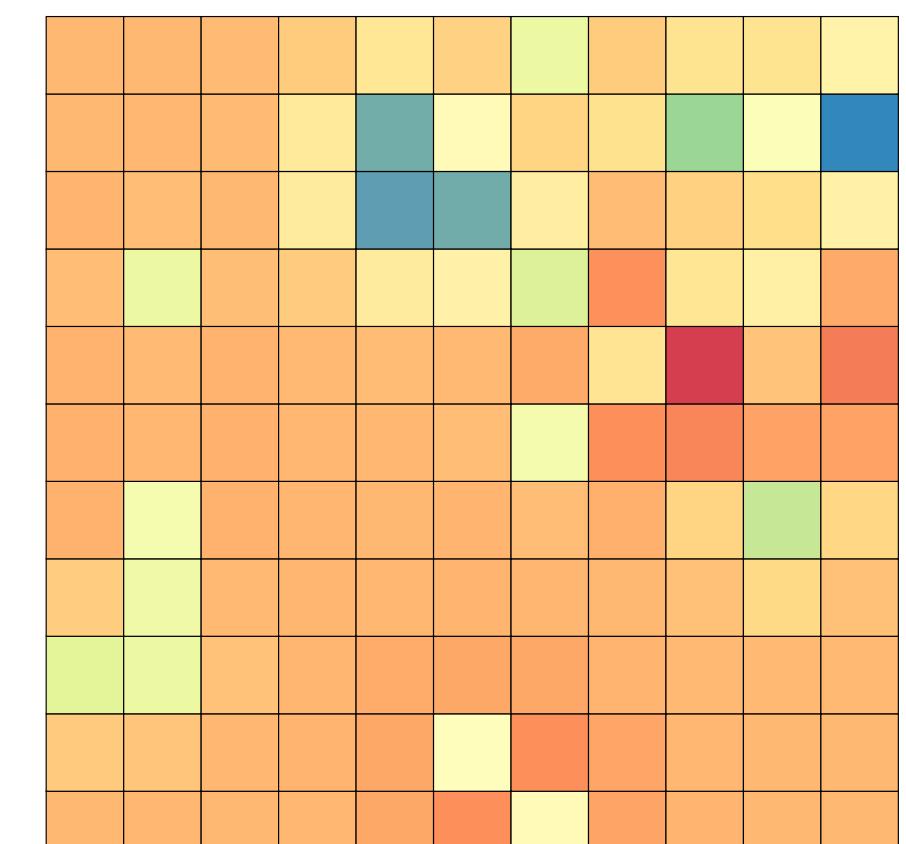
Generalization



Directed Exploration



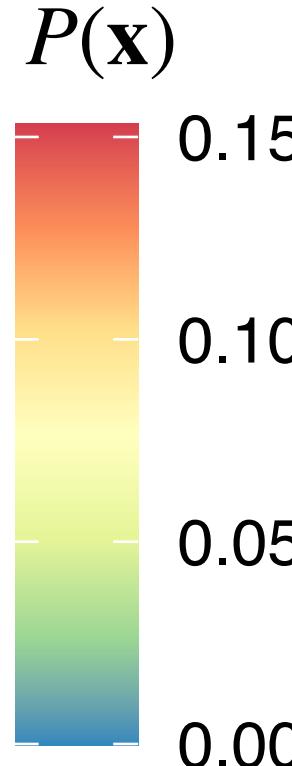
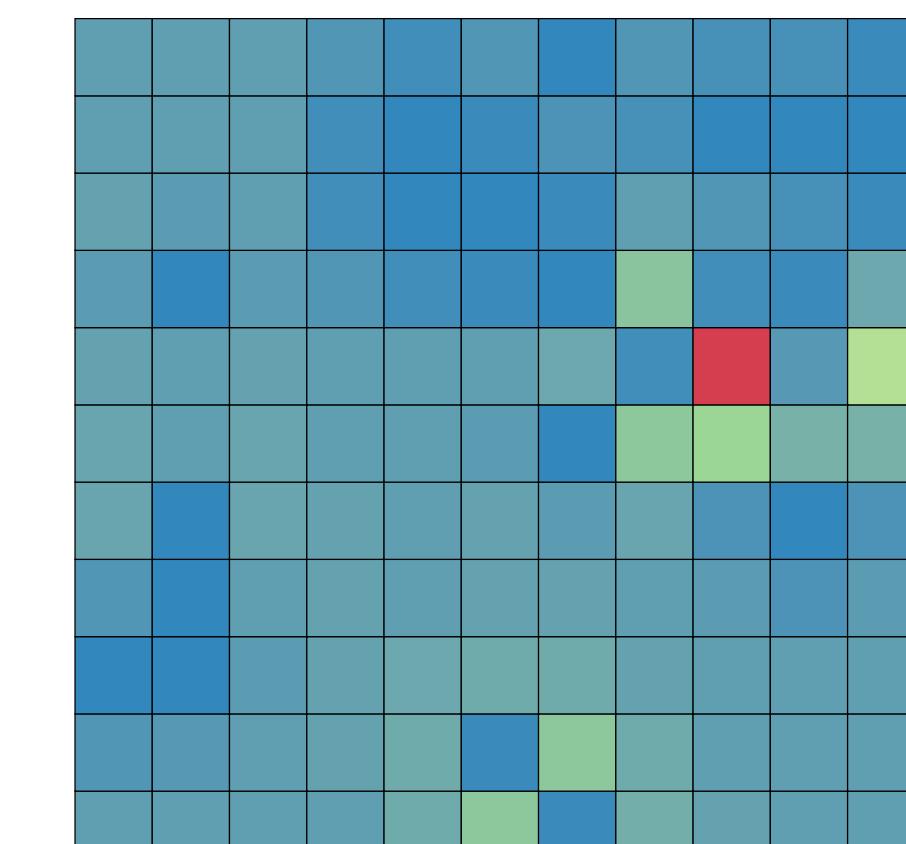
Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) Sampling



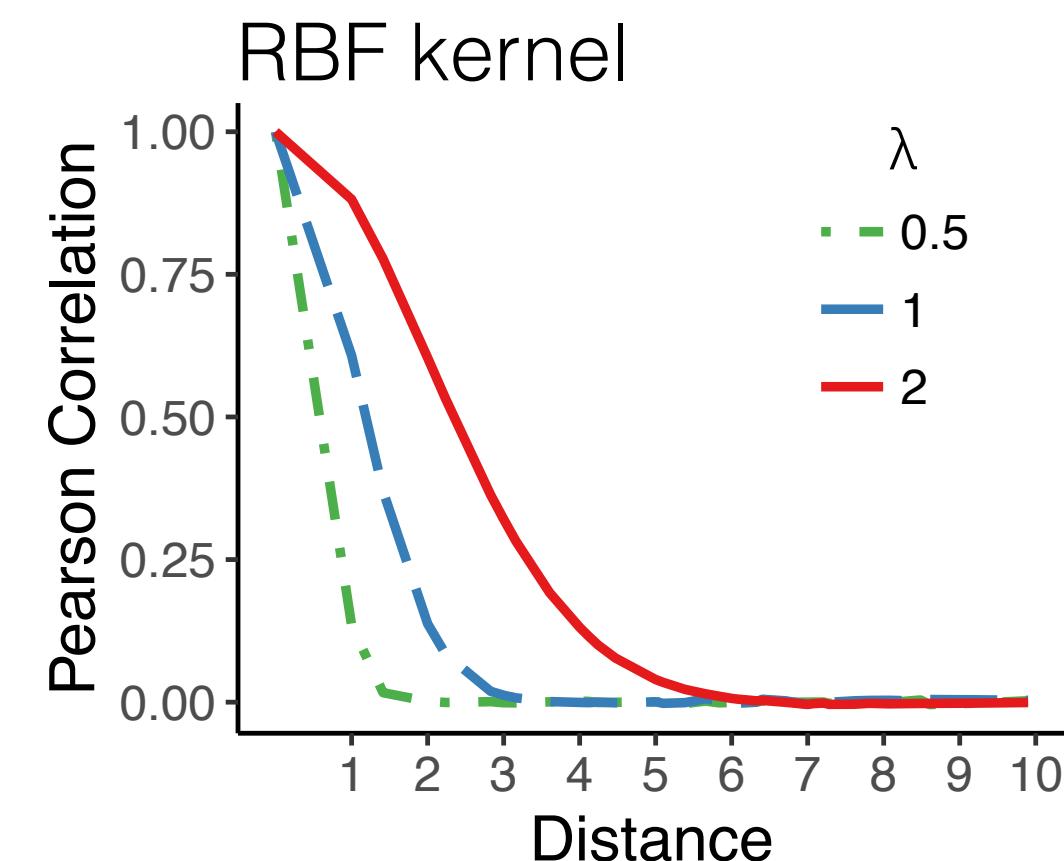
Random Temperature



Softmax Choice Rule

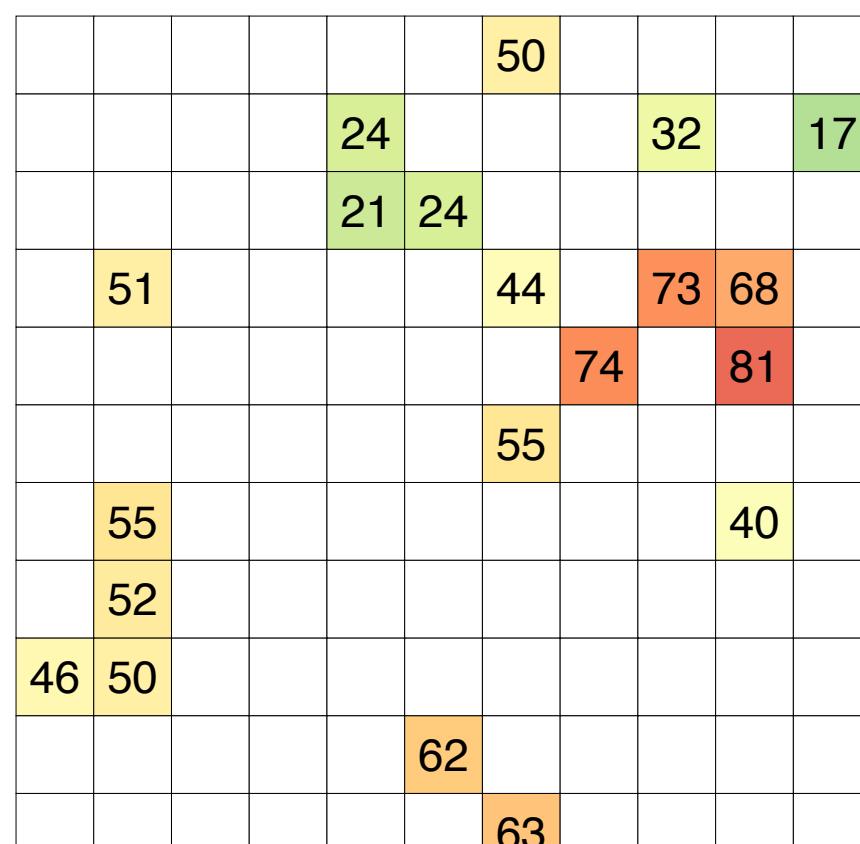


$$k_{RBF}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

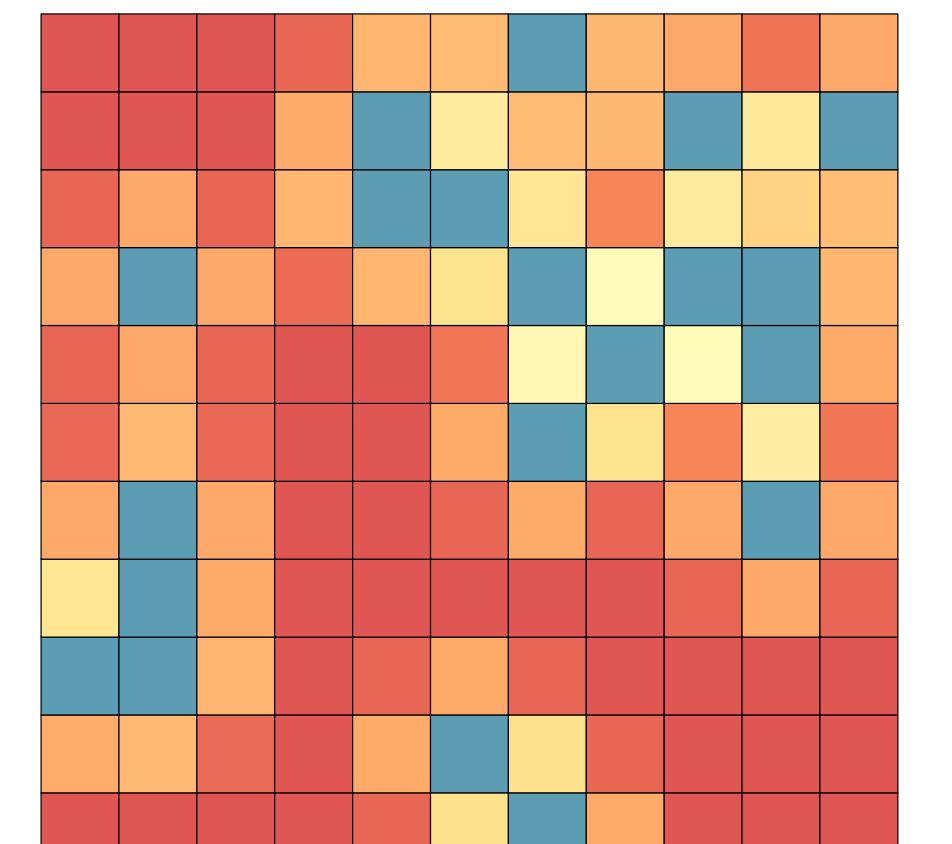


GP-UCB Model

Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)



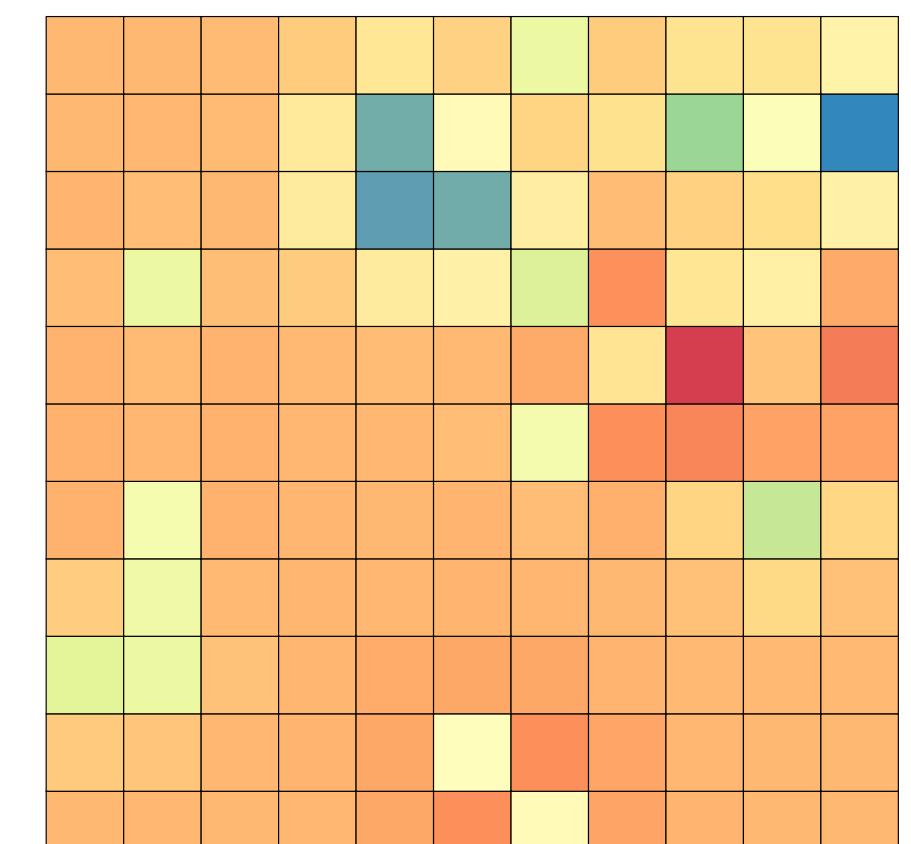
$\sigma(\mathbf{x})$

75
50
25
0

Generalization λ



Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) Sampling

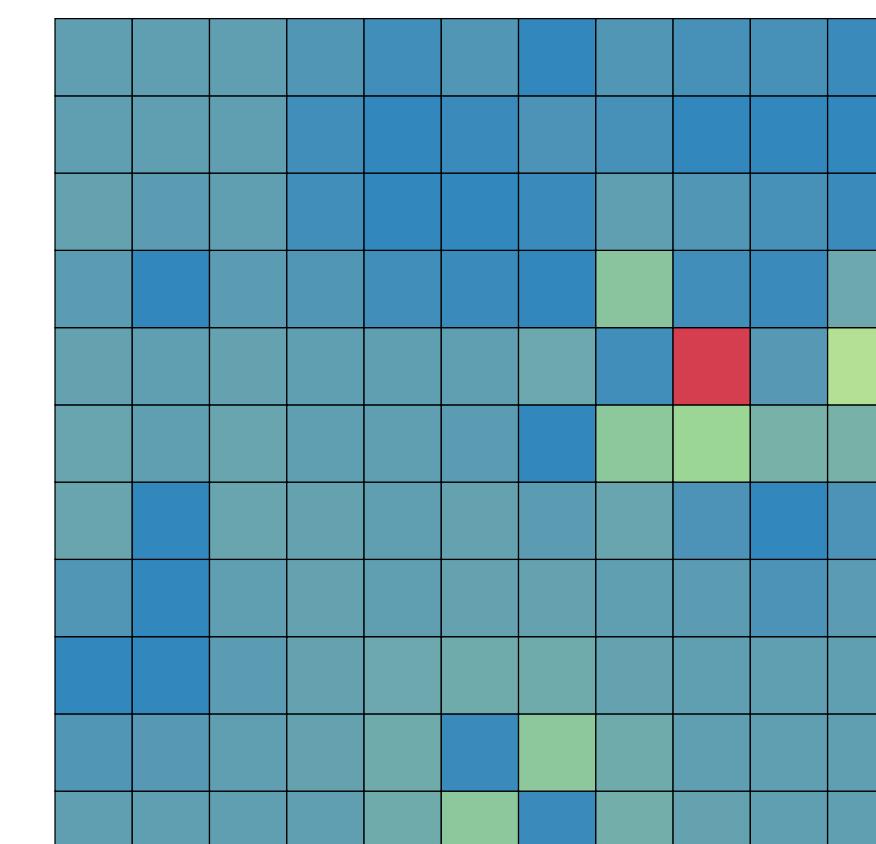


$UCB(\mathbf{x})$

100
80
60
40
20

Random Temperature

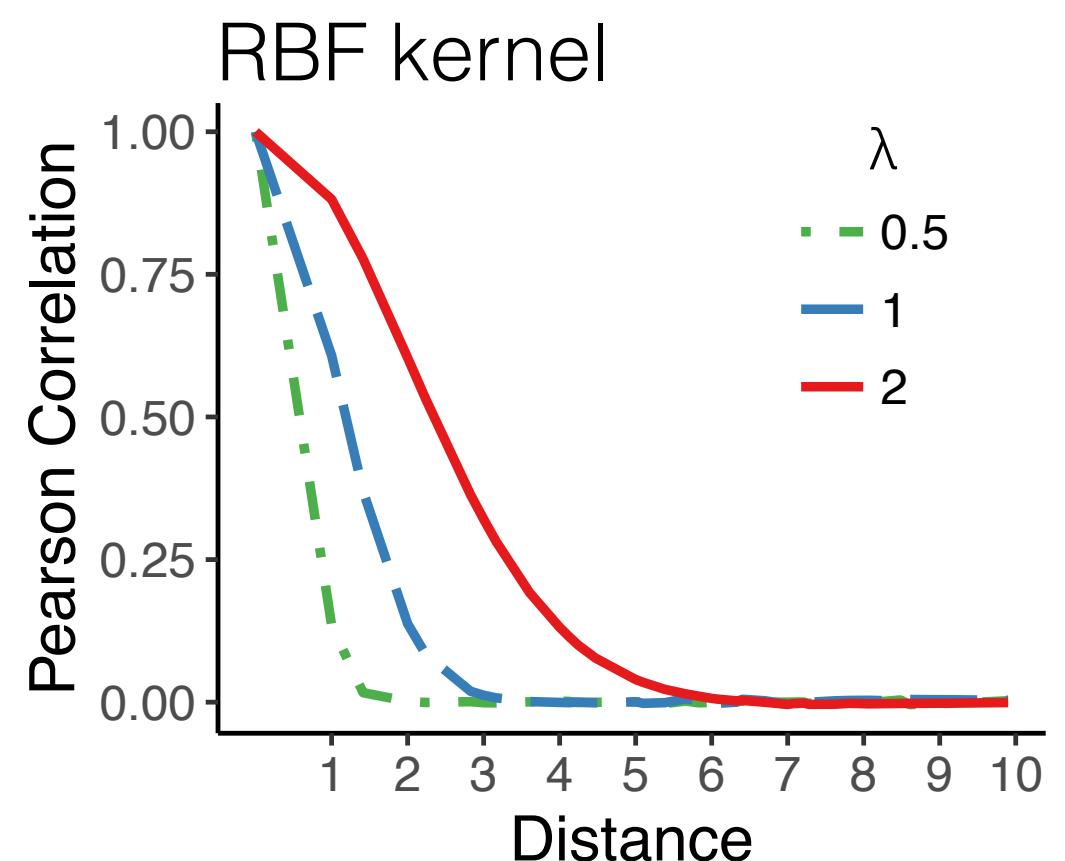
Softmax Choice Rule



$P(\mathbf{x})$

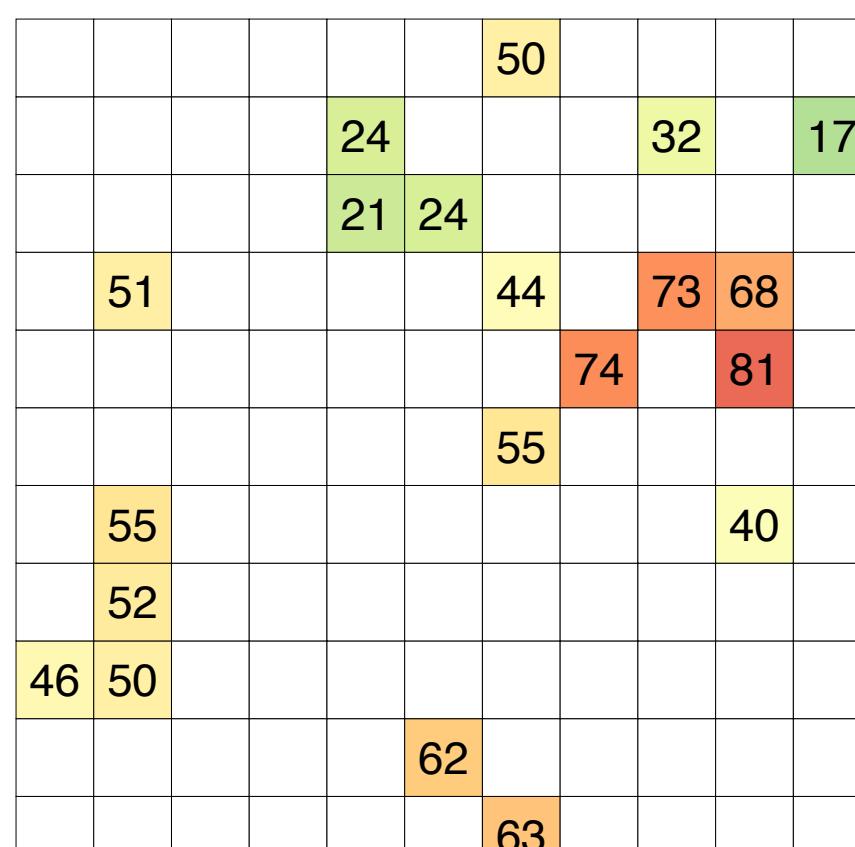
0.15
0.10
0.05
0.00

$$k_{RBF}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

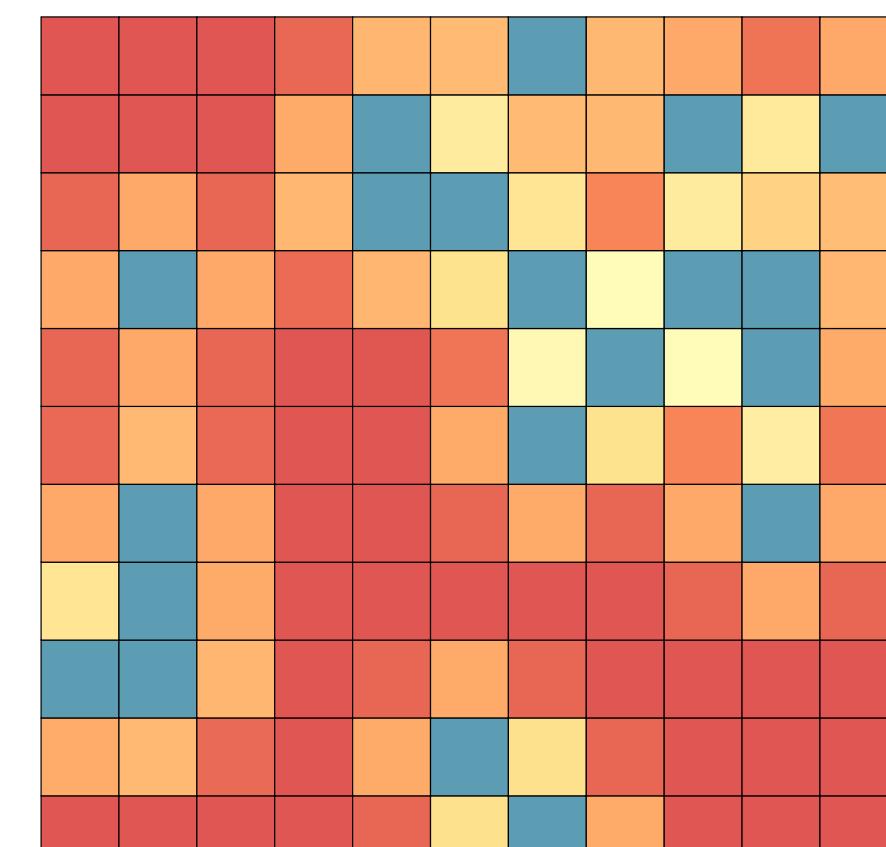


GP-UCB Model

Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)

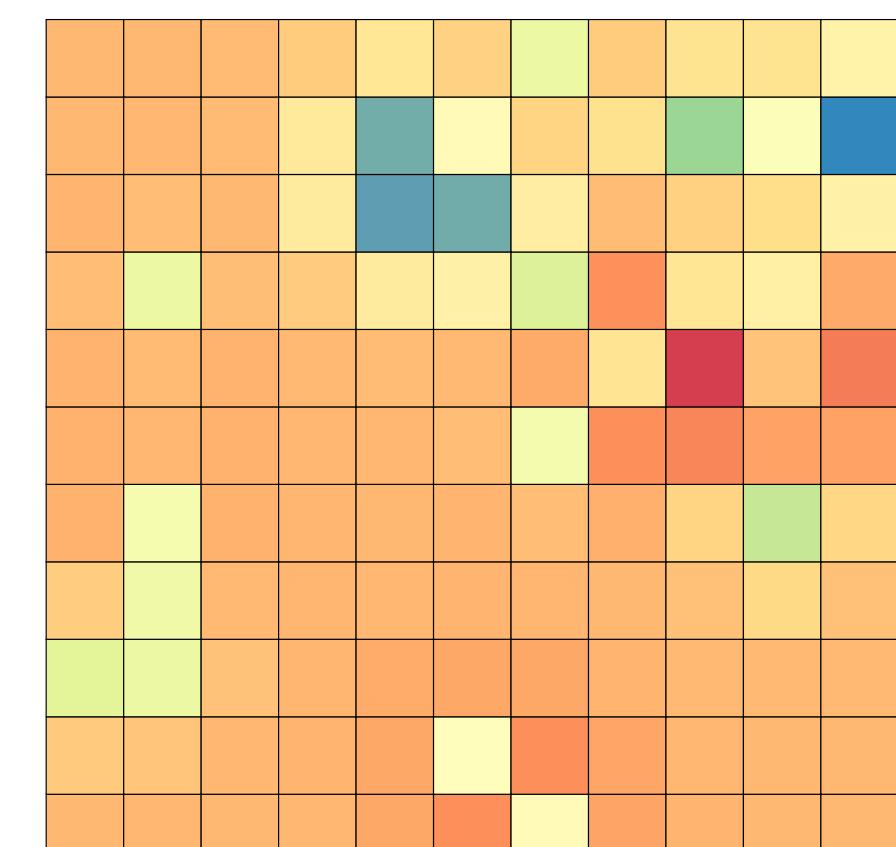


$\sigma(\mathbf{x})$

75
50
25
0

Generalization λ

Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) Sampling

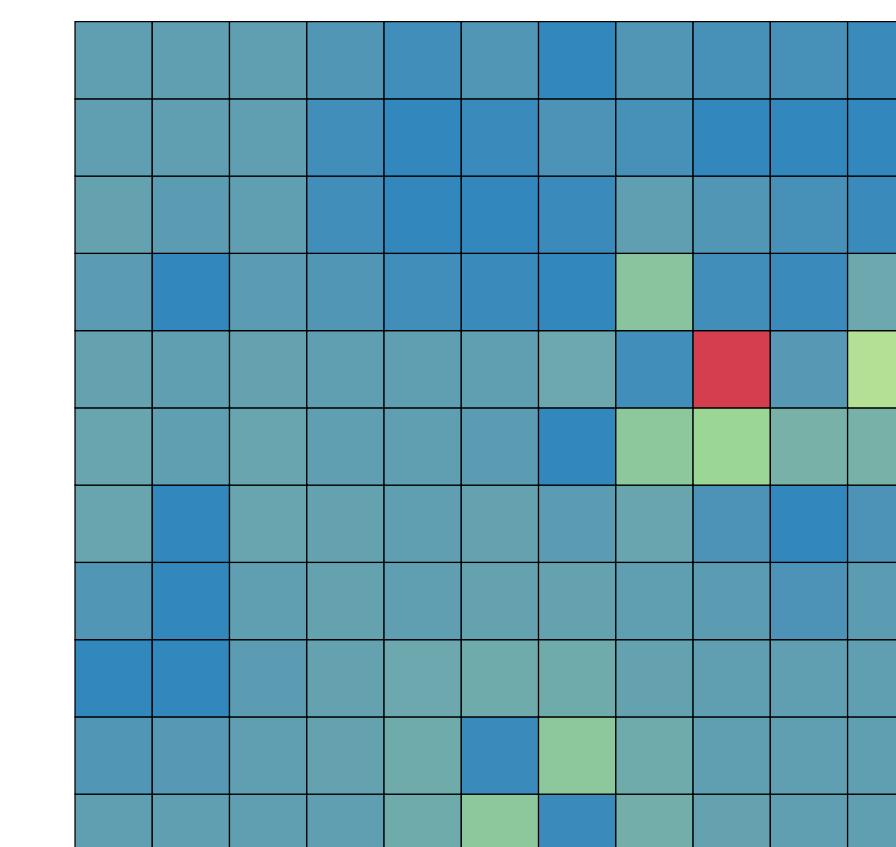


$UCB(\mathbf{x})$

100
80
60
40
20

Random Temperature

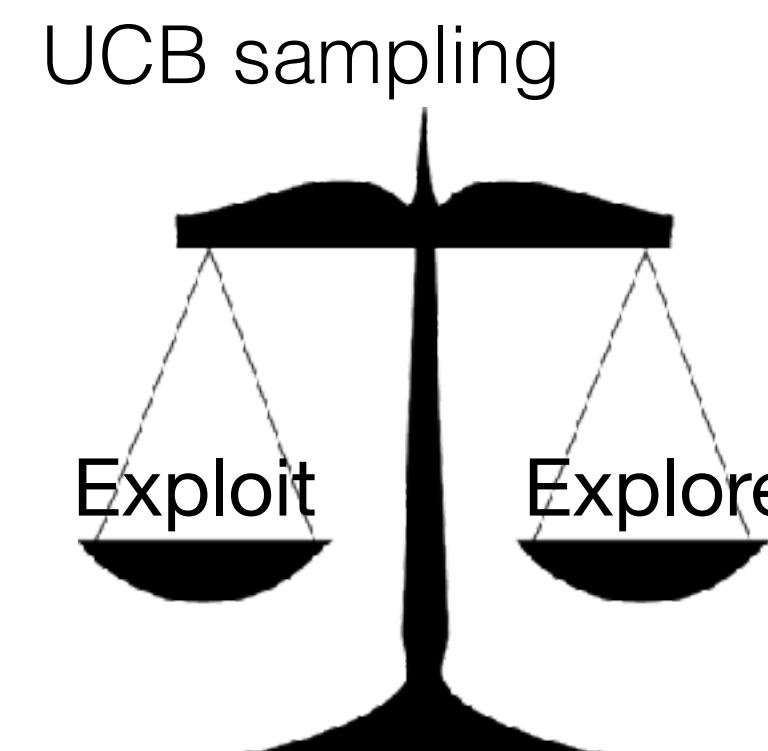
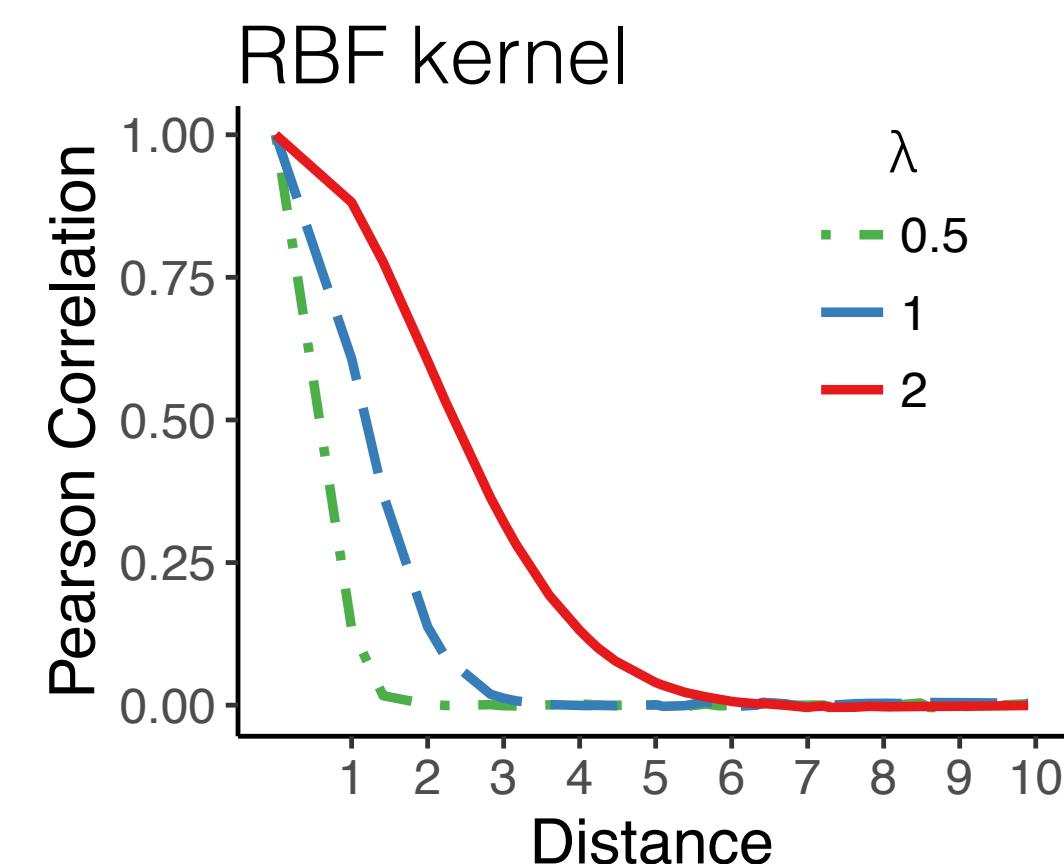
Softmax Choice Rule



$P(\mathbf{x})$

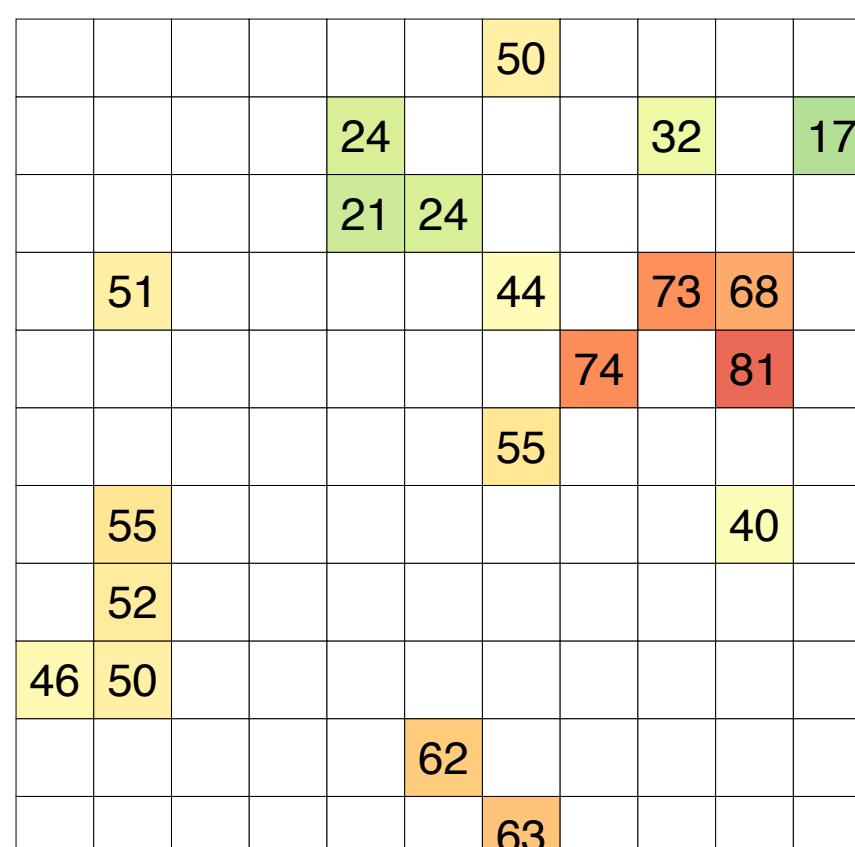
0.15
0.10
0.05
0.00

$$k_{RBF}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right) \quad UCB(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}) + \beta\sigma(\mathbf{x})$$

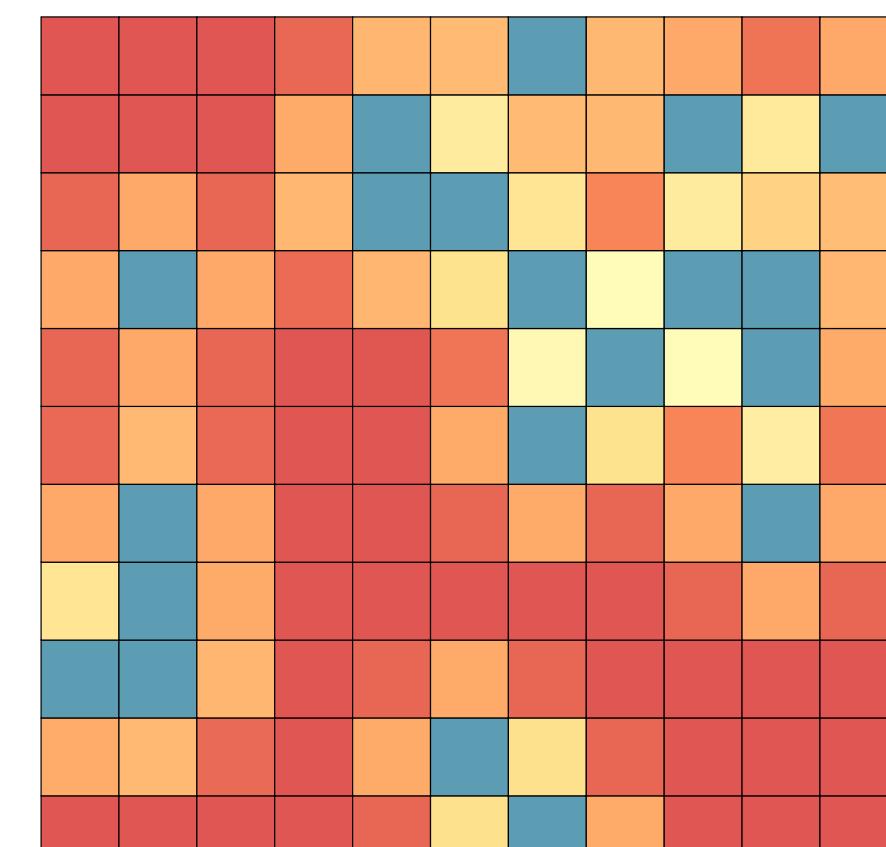


GP-UCB Model

Observations



Gaussian Process (GP)

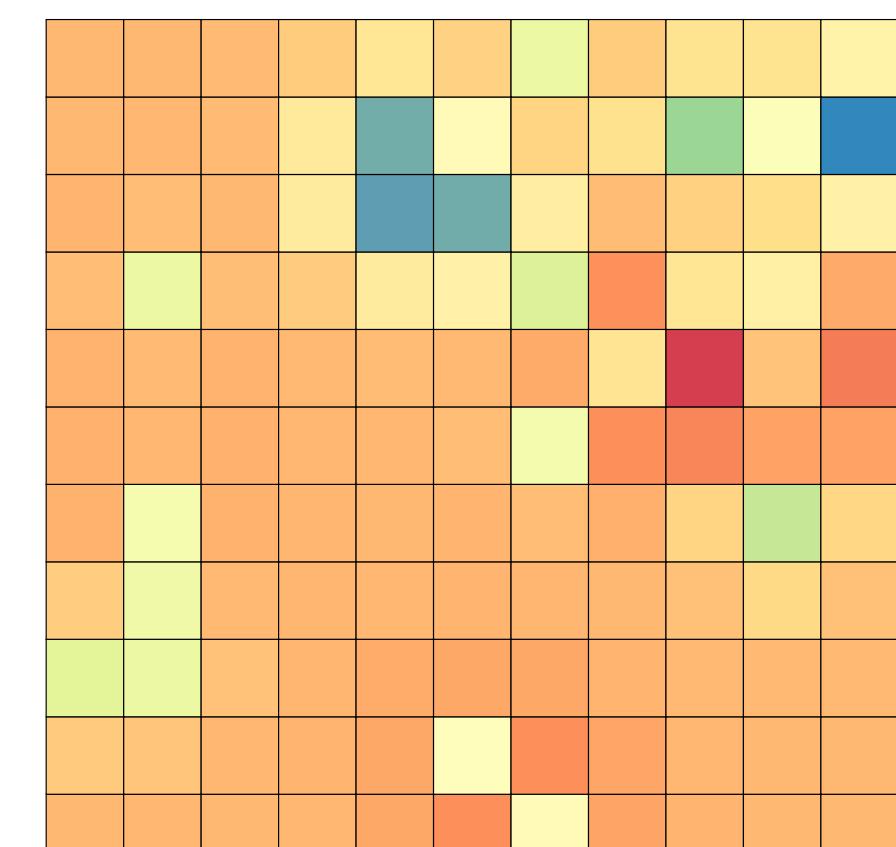


$\sigma(\mathbf{x})$

75
50
25
0

Generalization λ

Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) Sampling

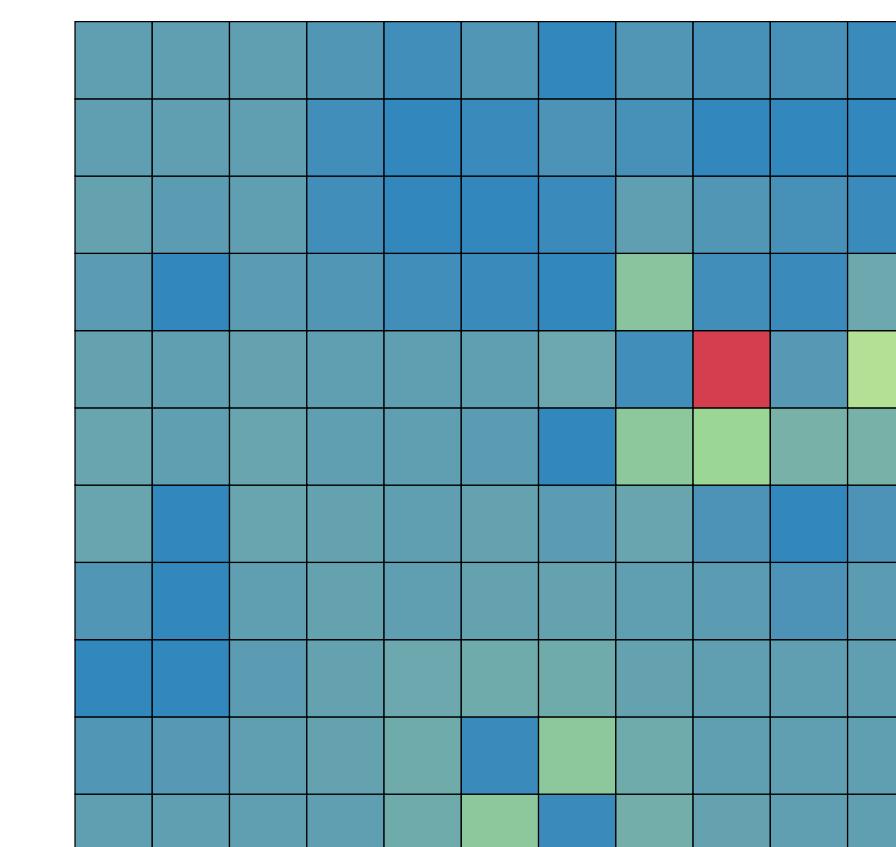


$UCB(\mathbf{x})$

100
80
60
40
20

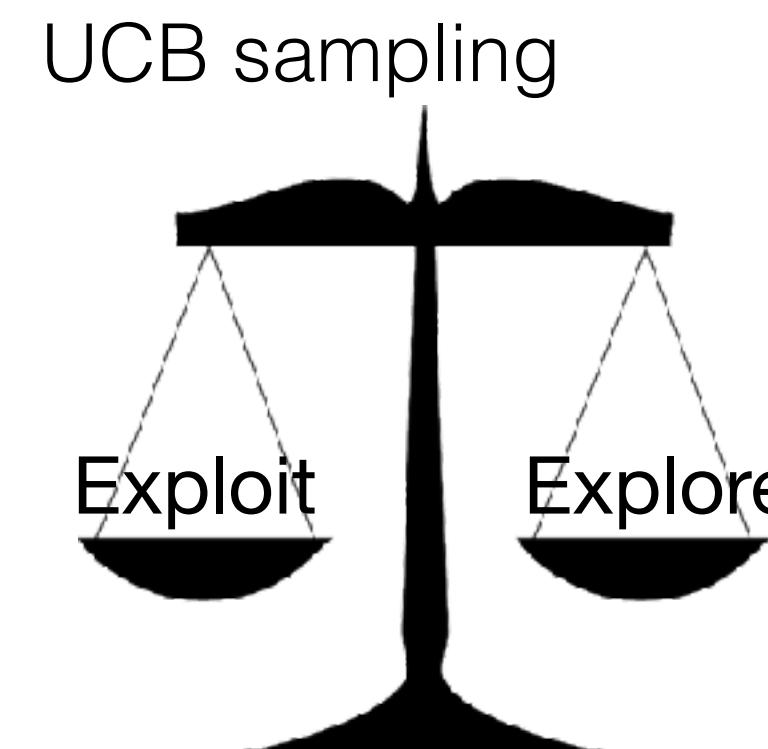
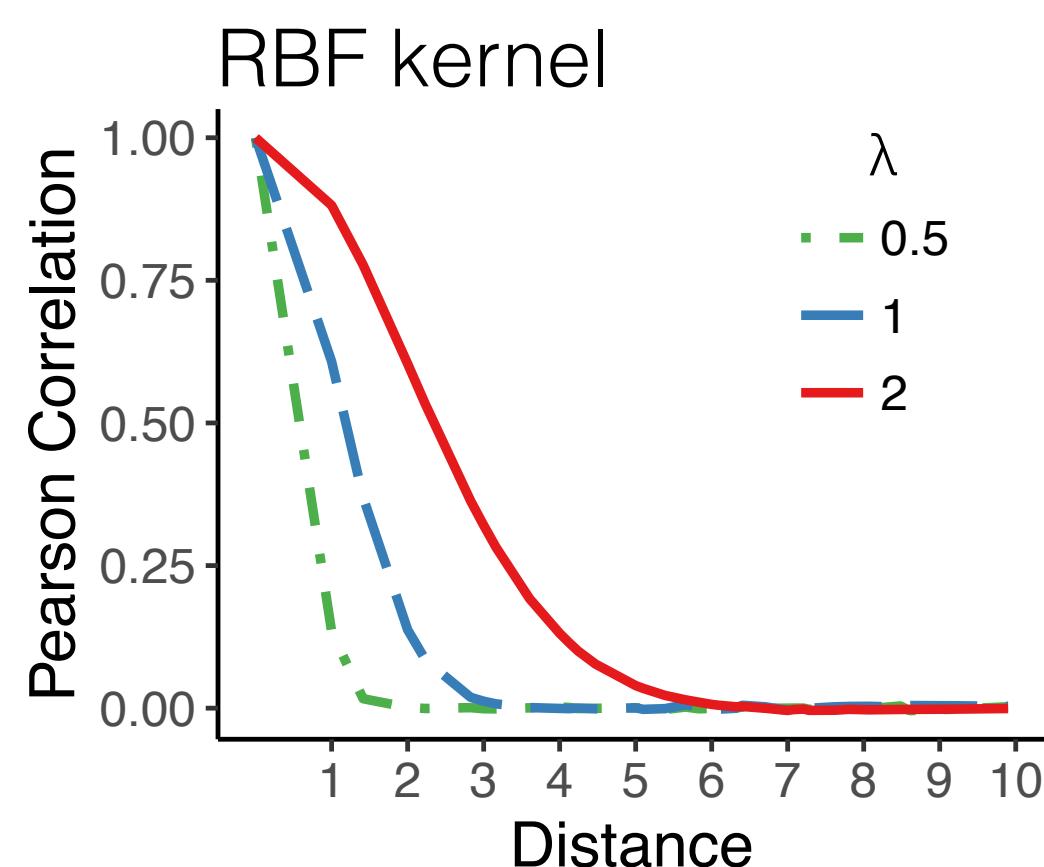
Random Temperature

Softmax Choice Rule



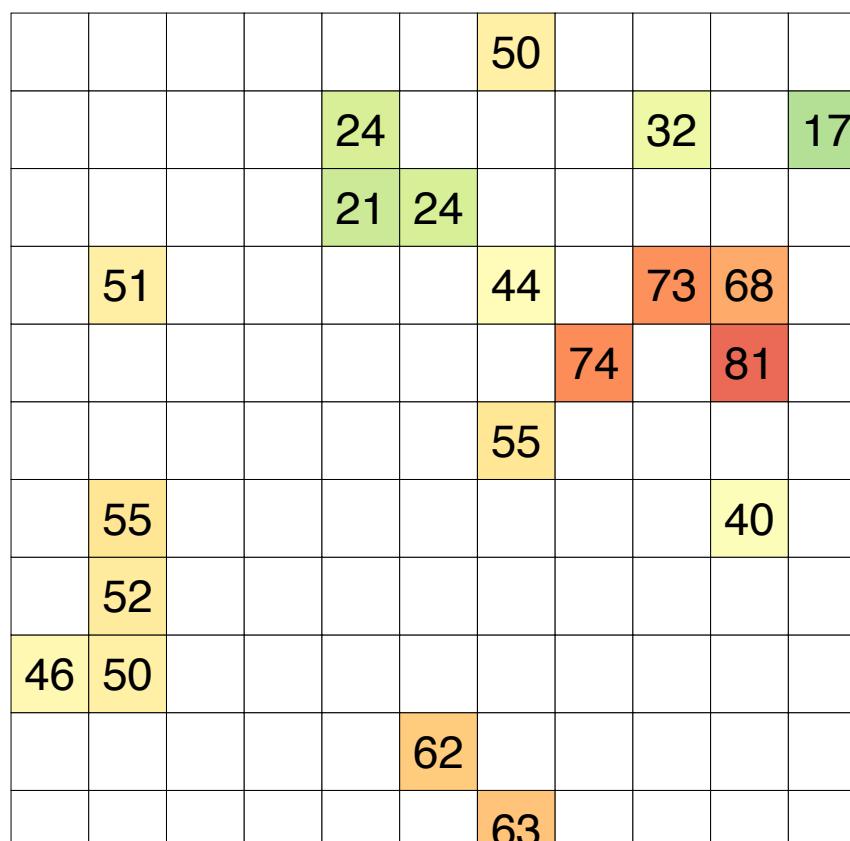
$P(\mathbf{x})$
0.15
0.10
0.05
0.00

$$k_{RBF}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right) \quad UCB(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}) + \beta\sigma(\mathbf{x})$$

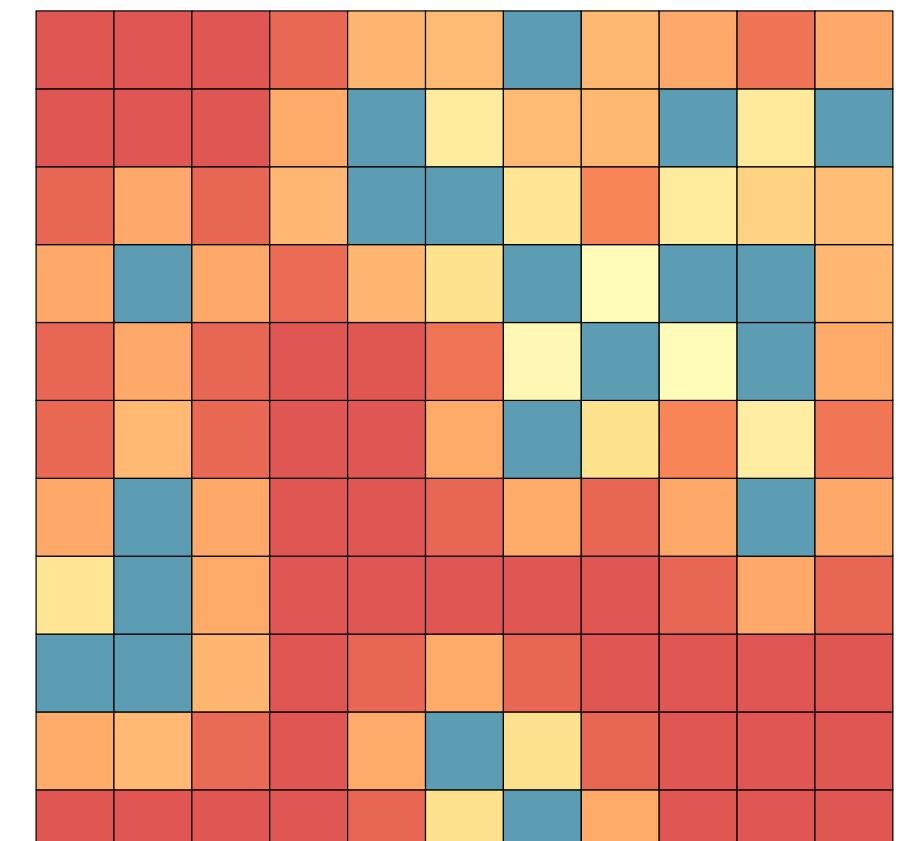


GP-UCB Model

Observations

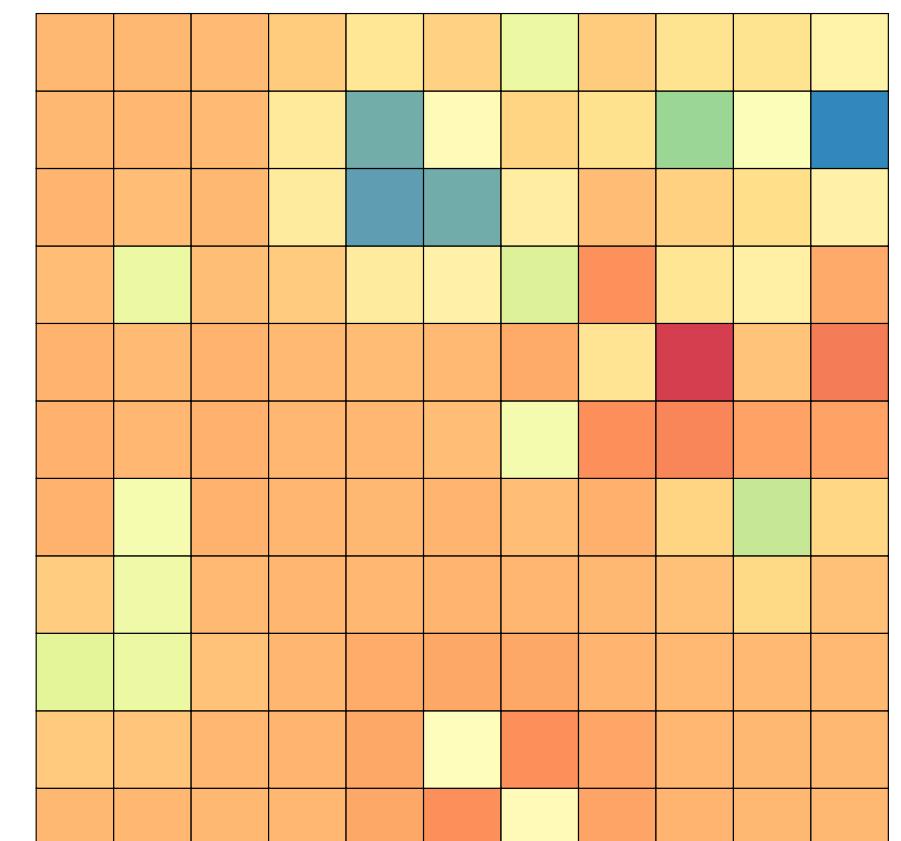


Gaussian Process (GP)



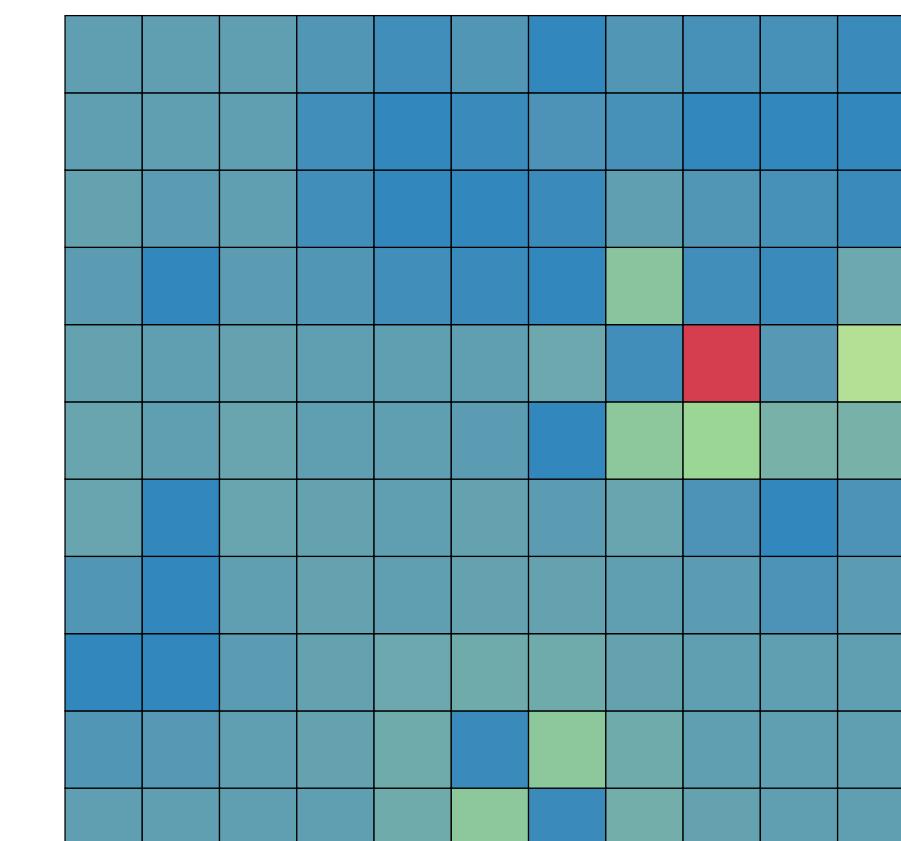
$\sigma(\mathbf{x})$

Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) Sampling



$UCB(\mathbf{x})$

Softmax Choice Rule



$P(\mathbf{x})$

Generalization λ

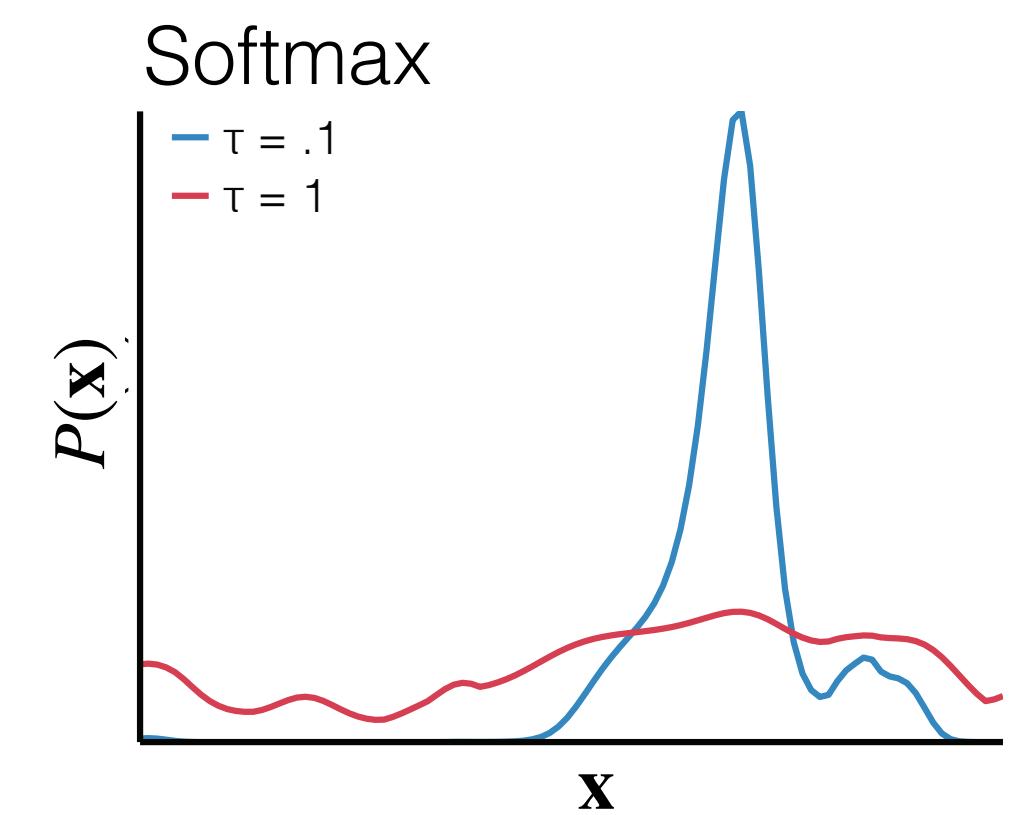
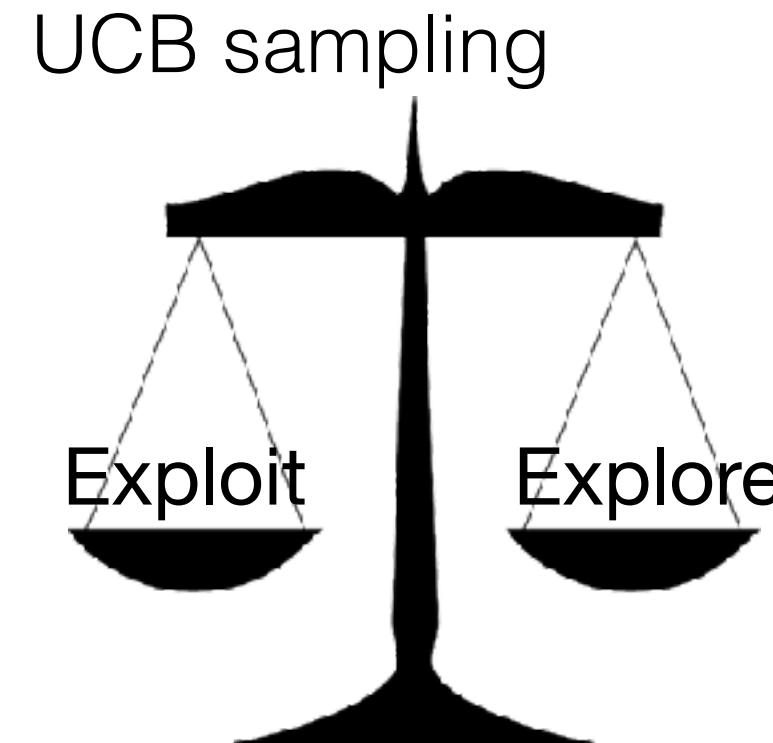
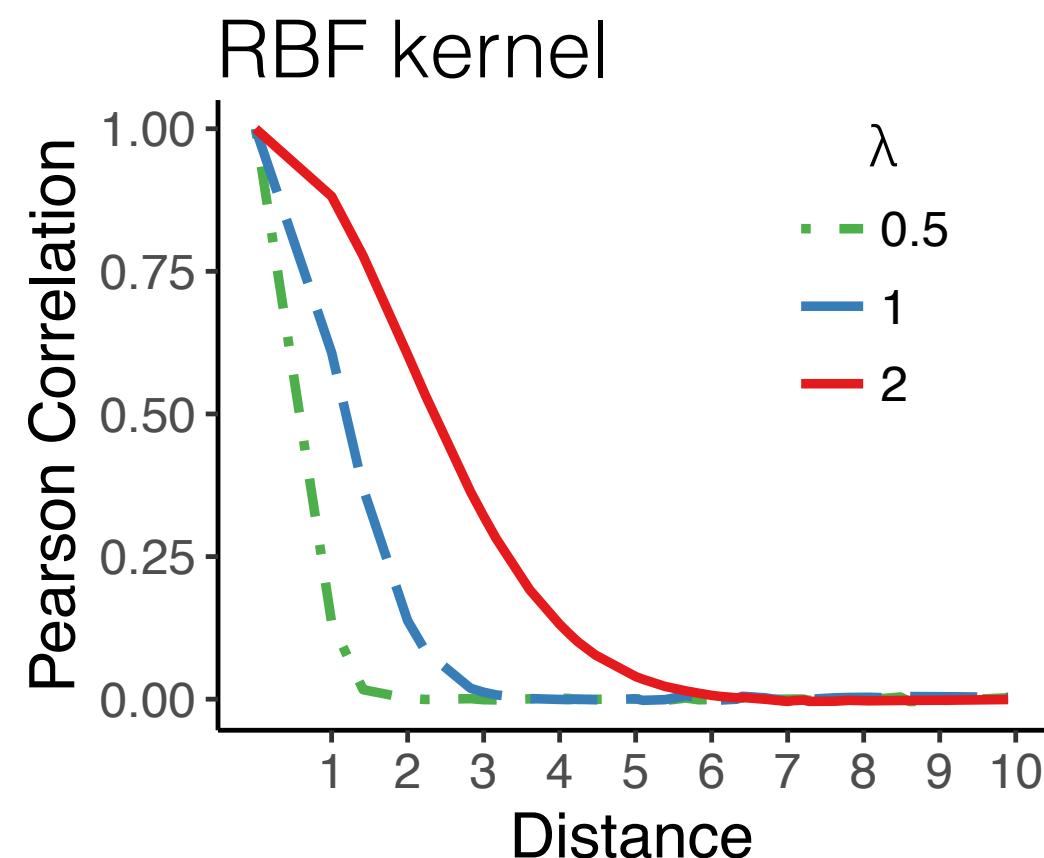
Directed Exploration β

Random Temperature

$$k_{RBF}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

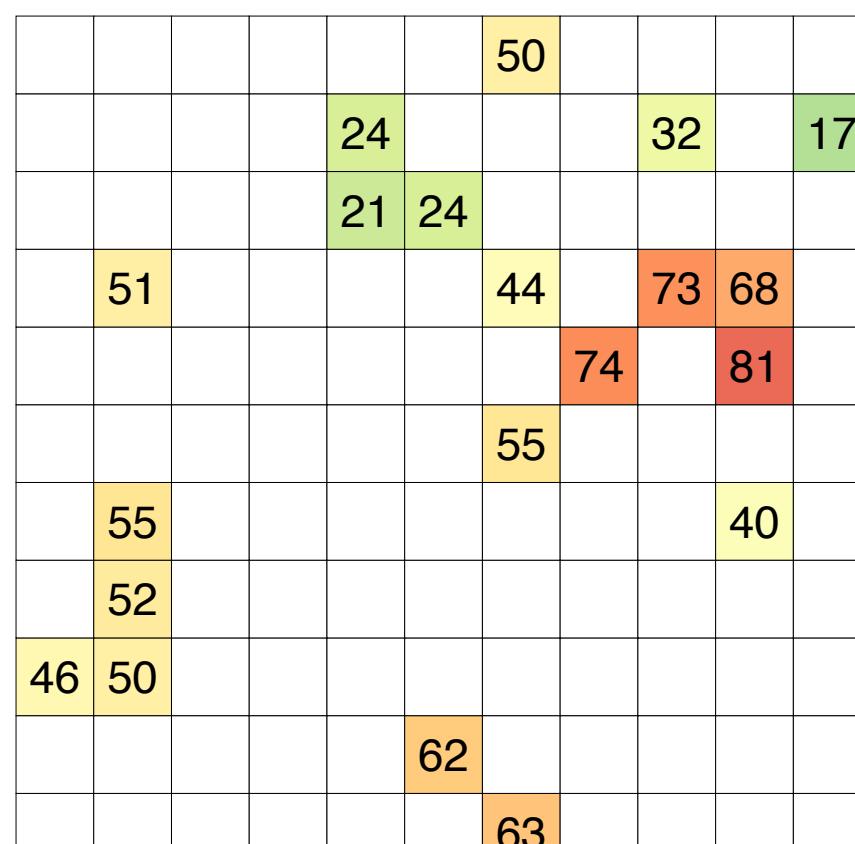
$$UCB(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}) + \beta\sigma(\mathbf{x})$$

$$P(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp(UCB(\mathbf{x})/\tau)$$

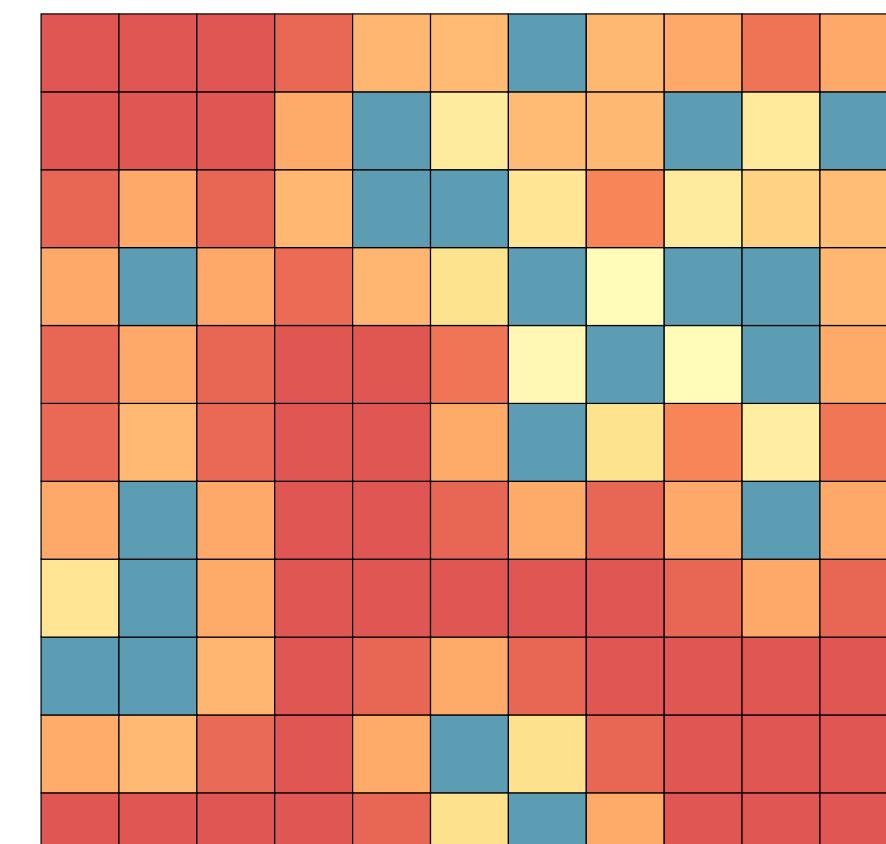


GP-UCB Model

Observations



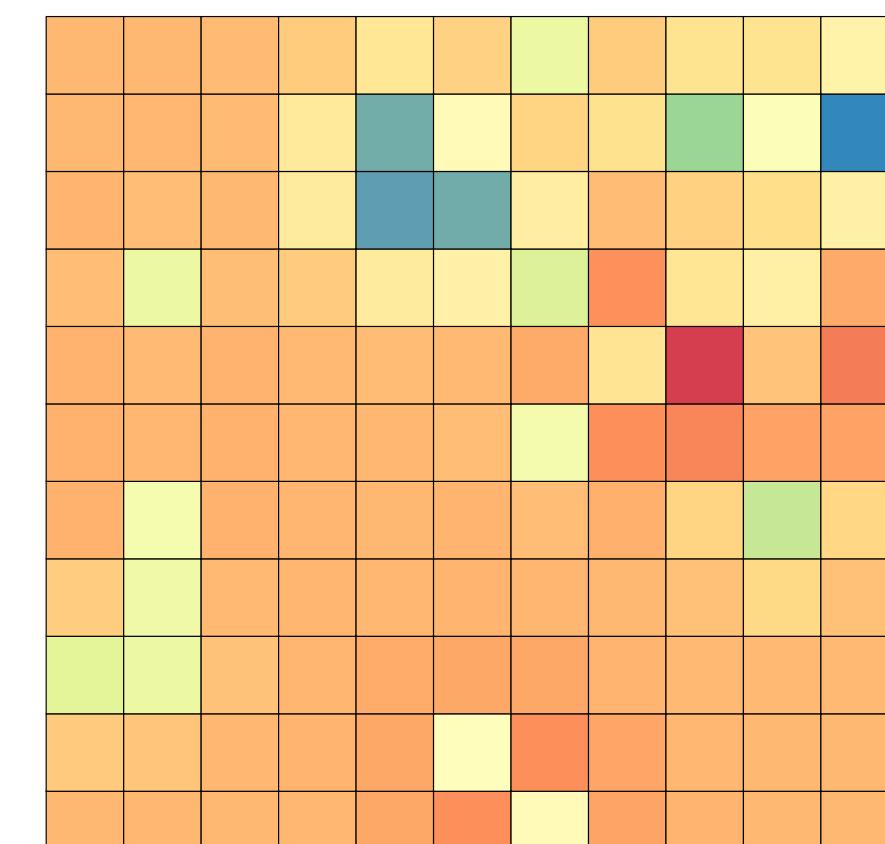
Gaussian Process (GP)



$\sigma(\mathbf{x})$

0 25 50 75

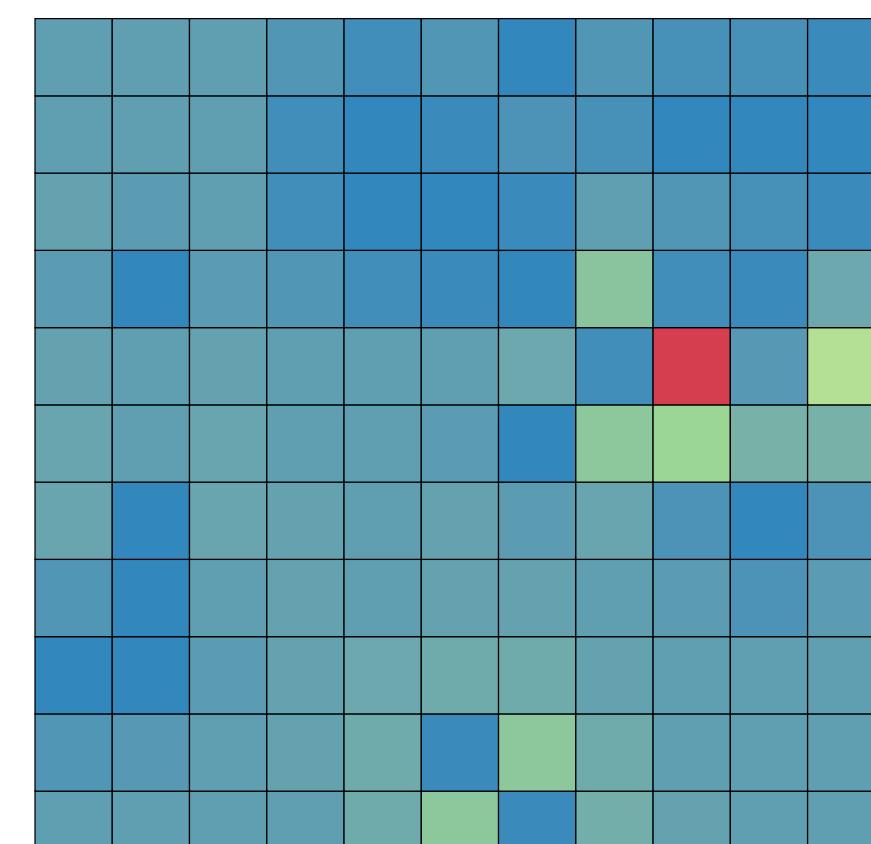
Upper Confidence Bound
(UCB) Sampling



$UCB(\mathbf{x})$

20 40 60 80 100

Softmax Choice Rule



$P(\mathbf{x})$

0.00 0.05 0.10 0.15

Generalization λ

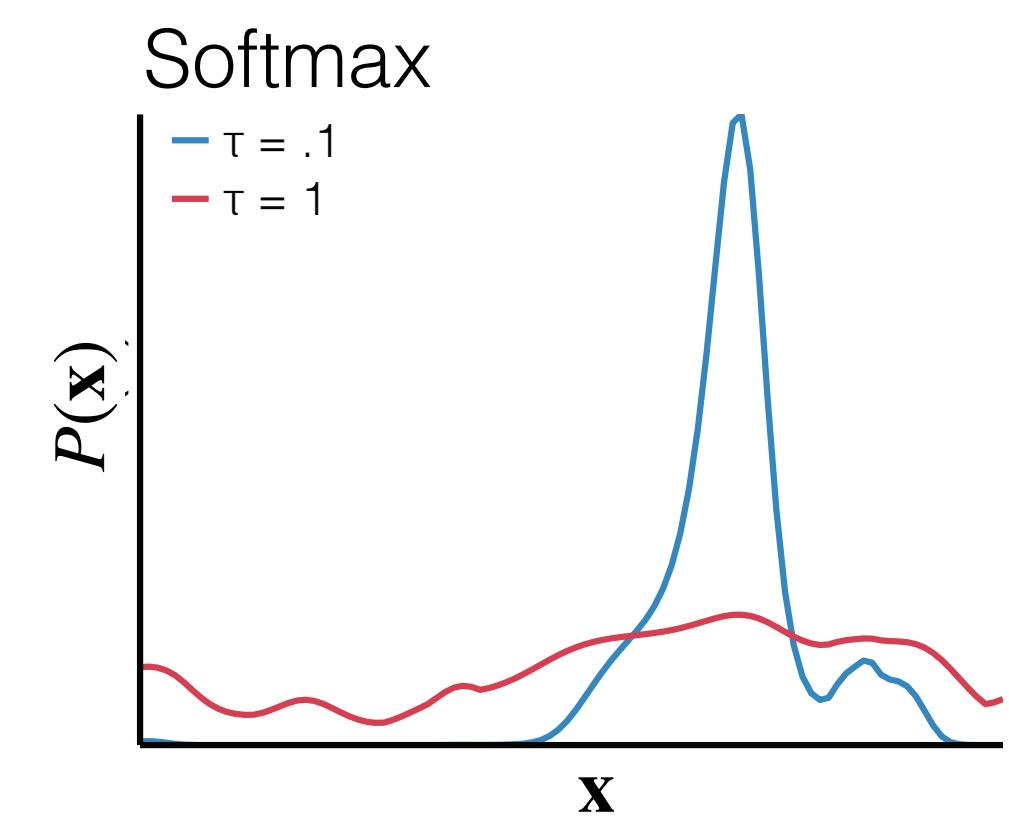
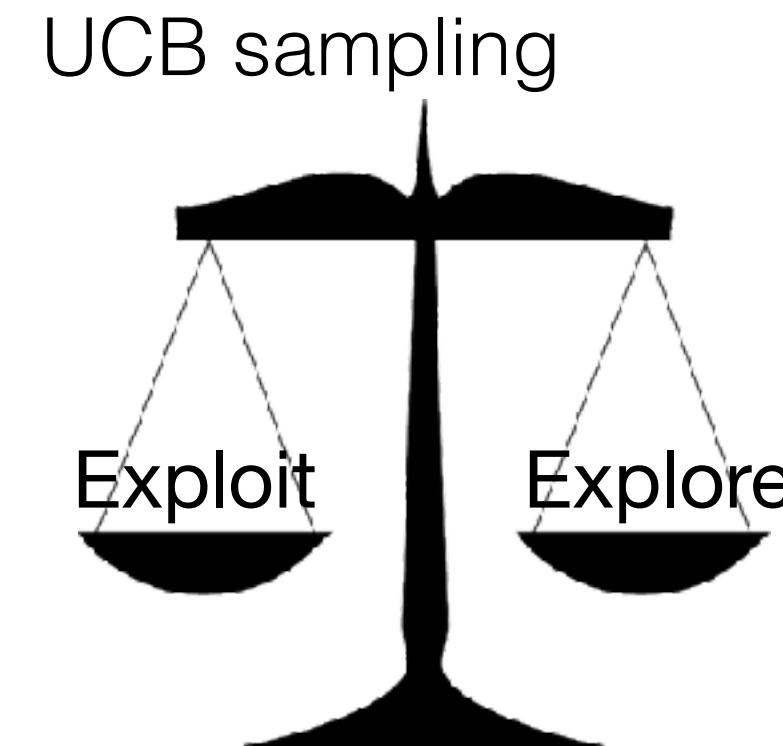
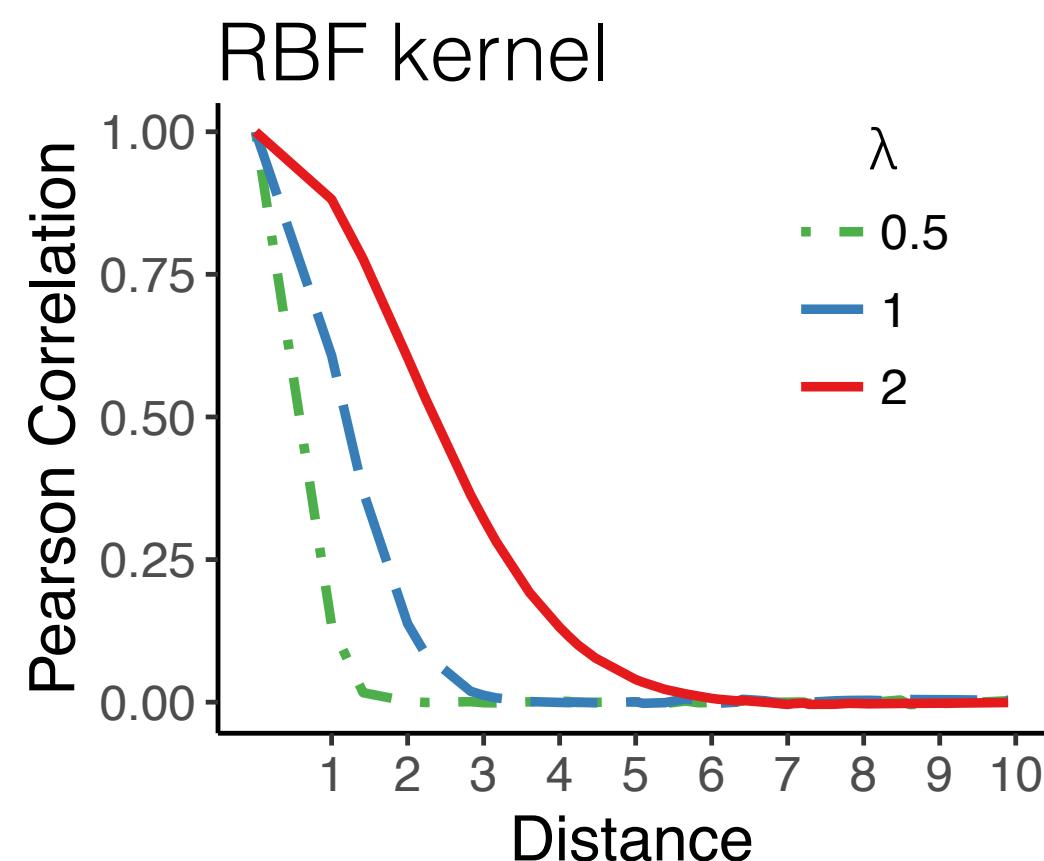
Directed Exploration β

Random Temperature τ

$$k_{RBF}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\lambda^2}\right)$$

$$UCB(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}) + \beta\sigma(\mathbf{x})$$

$$P(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp(UCB(\mathbf{x})/\tau)$$





Anna Giron
Uni Tübingen



Simon Ciranka
MPI Berlin

nature human behaviour



Article

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-023-01662-1>

Developmental changes in exploration resemble stochastic optimization

Received: 11 November 2022

Accepted: 21 June 2023

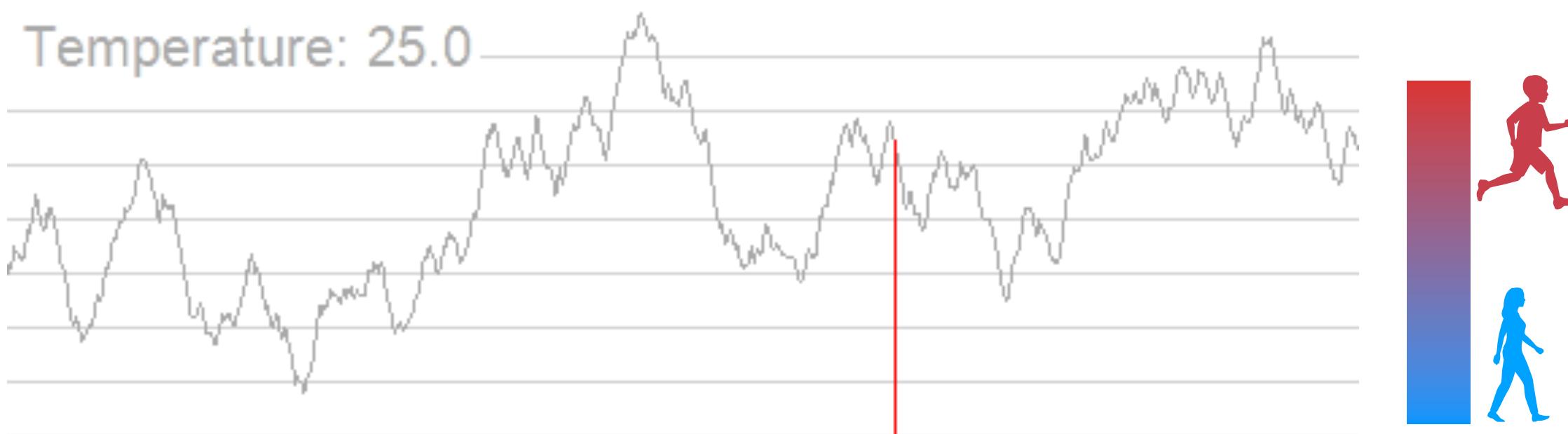
Anna P. Giron^{1,2,12}, Simon Ciranka^{3,4,12}, Eric Schulz^{10,5}, Wouter van den Bos^{6,7}, Azzurra Ruggeri^{8,9,10}, Björn Meder¹¹ & Charley M. Wu^{1,3✉}



Development as “cooling off”

- **Inspiration:** Heated metal becomes less malleable as it cools

Stochastic Optimization

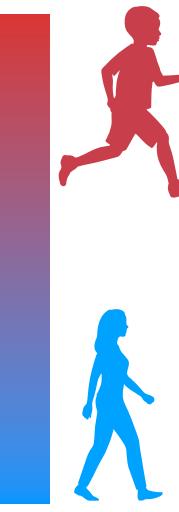
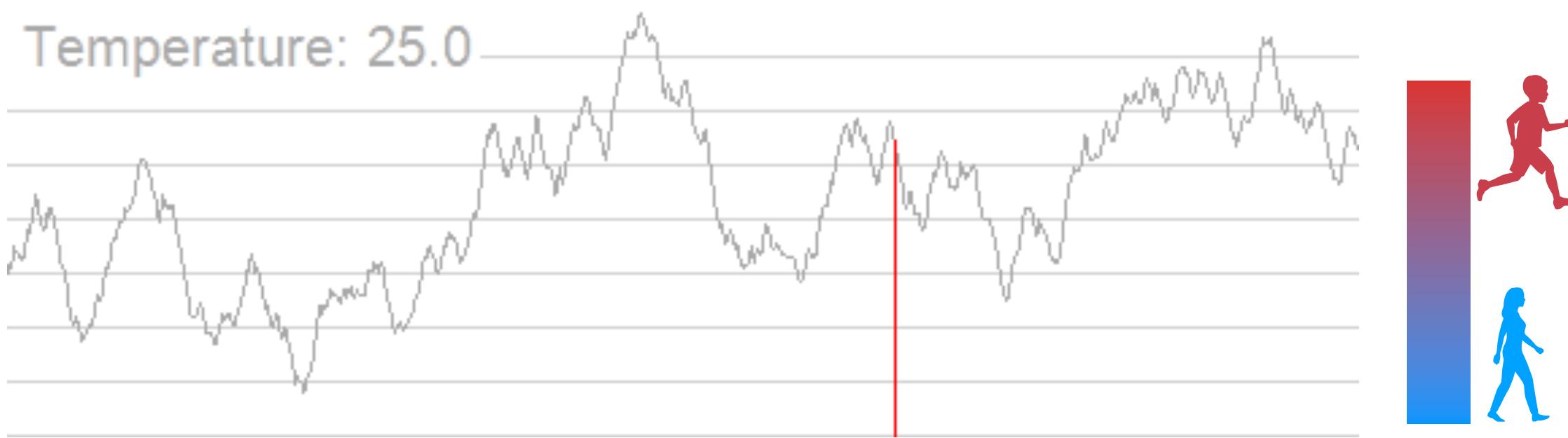




Development as “cooling off”

- **Inspiration:** Heated metal becomes less malleable as it cools
- **Application:**
 - Optimization algorithms start off very explorative (high temperature) and gradually becomes more exploitative (cools off)
 - Avoids getting stuck in a local optima

Stochastic Optimization

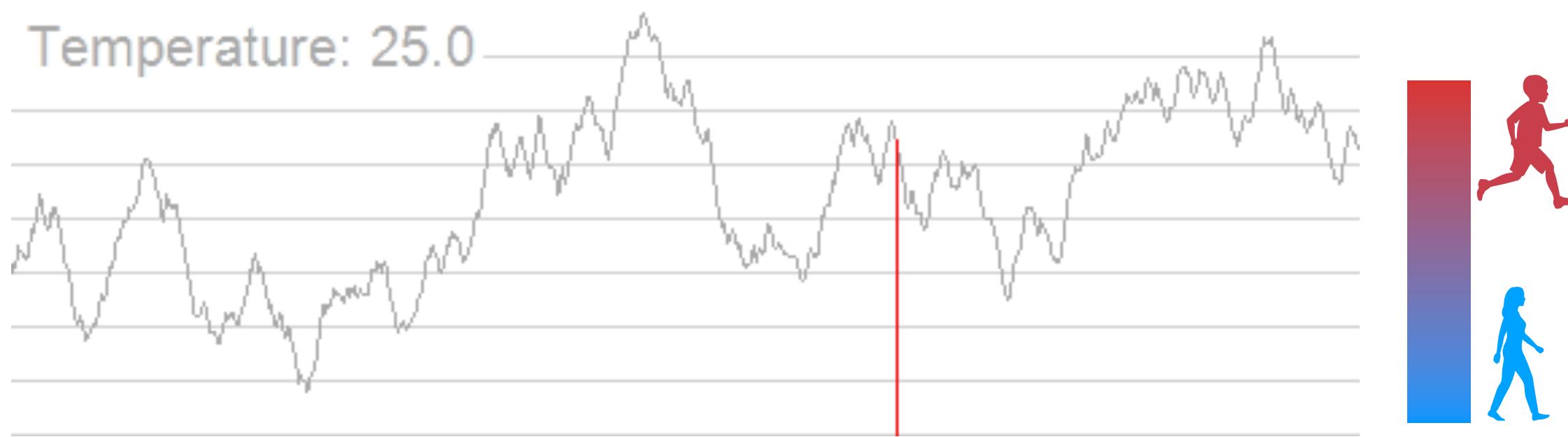




Development as “cooling off”

- **Inspiration:** Heated metal becomes less malleable as it cools
- **Application:**
 - Optimization algorithms start off very explorative (high temperature) and gradually becomes more exploitative (cools off)
 - Avoids getting stuck in a local optima
- **Theory of development:**
 - “Cooling off” as an explanation for high variability of children’s decisions/hypotheses

Stochastic Optimization

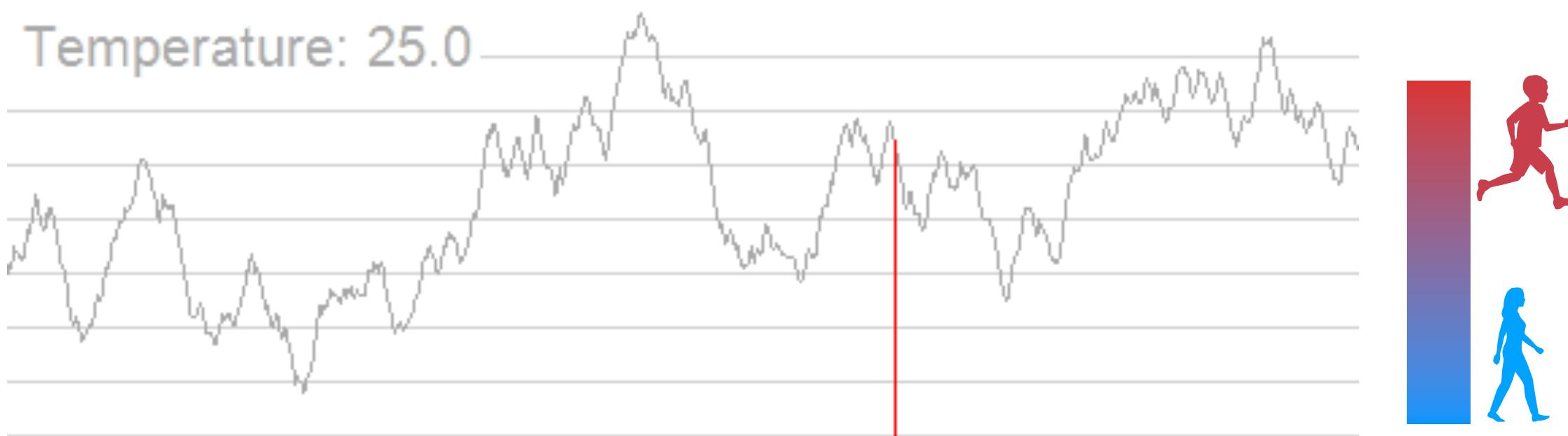




Development as “cooling off”

- **Inspiration:** Heated metal becomes less malleable as it cools
- **Application:**
 - Optimization algorithms start off very explorative (high temperature) and gradually becomes more exploitative (cools off)
 - Avoids getting stuck in a local optima
- **Theory of development:**
 - “Cooling off” as an explanation for high variability of children’s decisions/hypotheses
- **Implementation: ?**
 - Lack of a direct empirical test
 - Ambiguity in what is being optimized

Stochastic Optimization

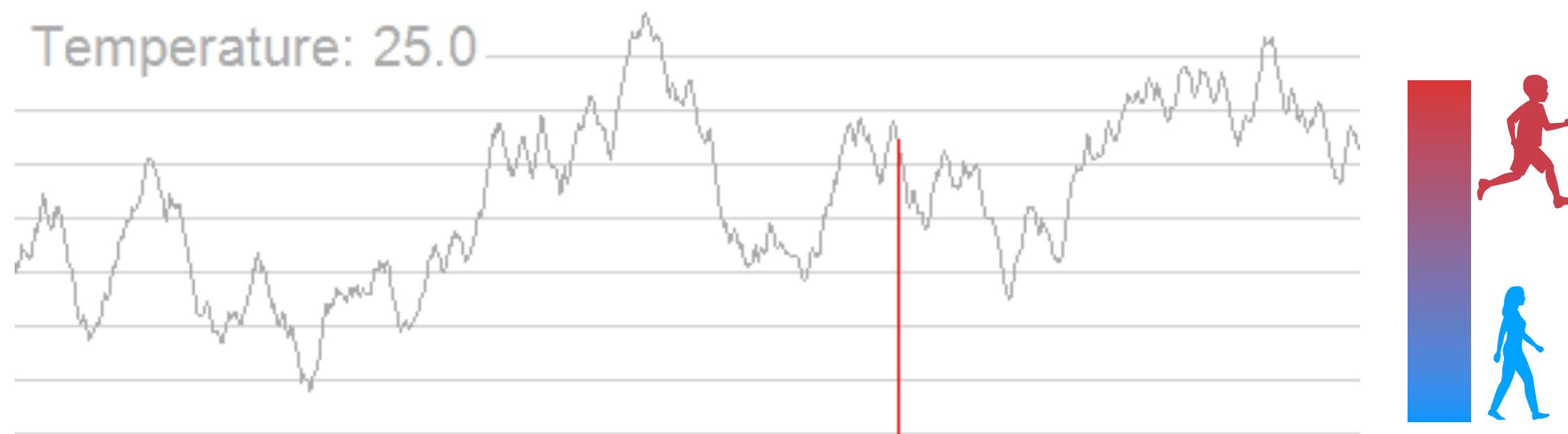




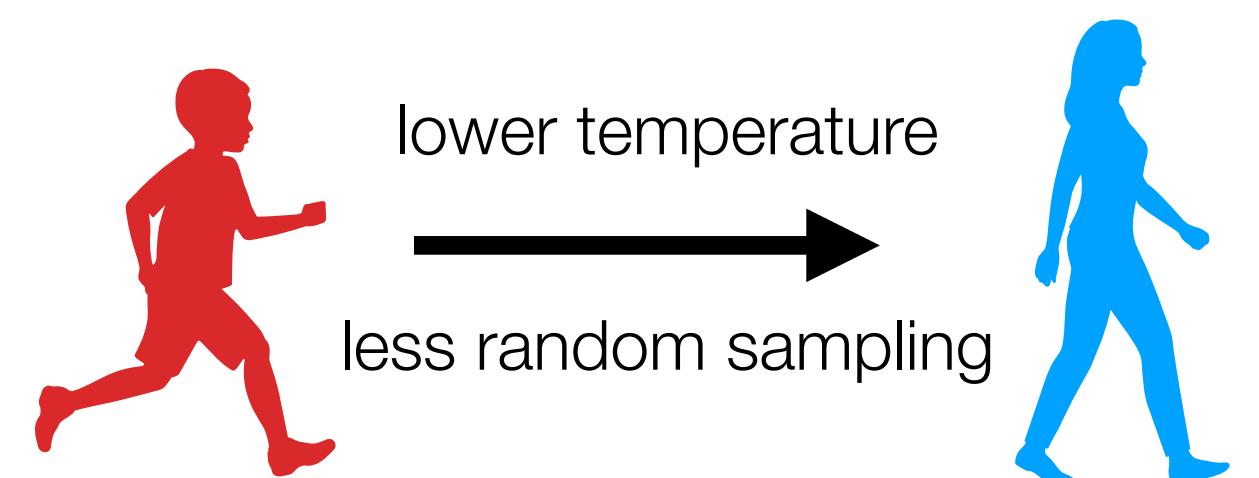
Development as “cooling off”

- **Inspiration:** Heated metal becomes less malleable as it cools
- **Application:**
 - Optimization algorithms start off very explorative (high temperature) and gradually becomes more exploitative (cools off)
 - Avoids getting stuck in a local optima
- **Theory of development:**
 - “Cooling off” as an explanation for high variability of children’s decisions/hypotheses
- **Implementation: ?**
 - Lack of a direct empirical test
 - Ambiguity in what is being optimized

Stochastic Optimization



H1: Uni-dimensional reduction of randomness in sampling

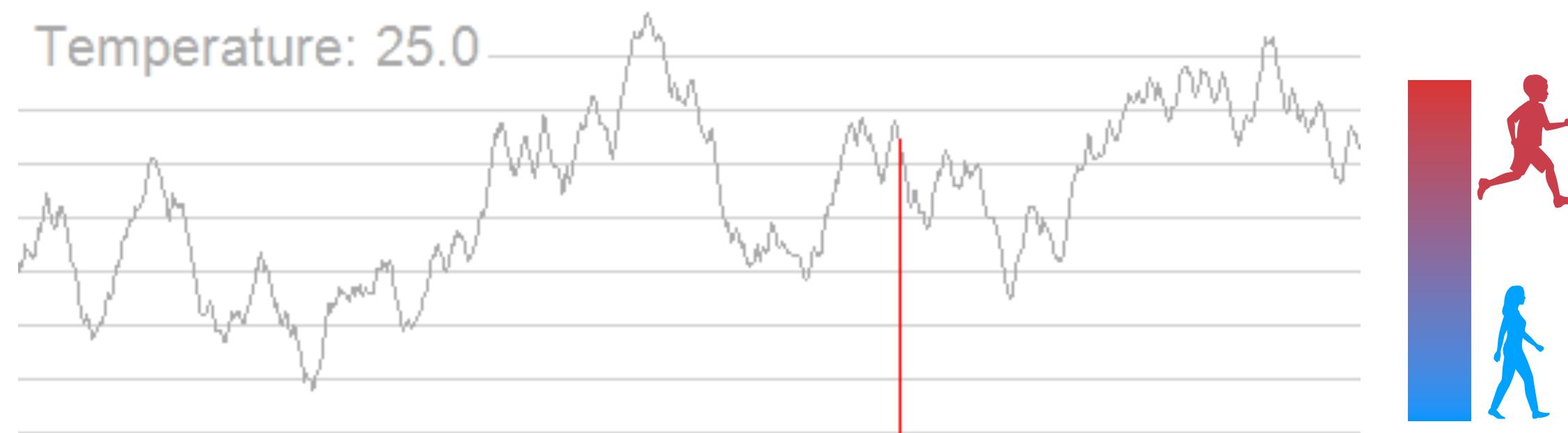




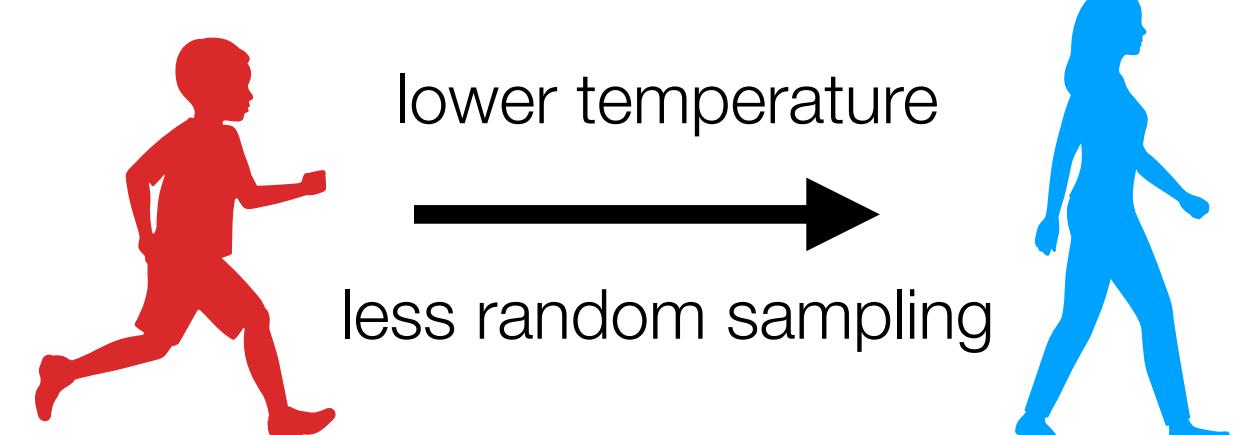
Development as “cooling off”

- **Inspiration:** Heated metal becomes less malleable as it cools
- **Application:**
 - Optimization algorithms start off very explorative (high temperature) and gradually becomes more exploitative (cools off)
 - Avoids getting stuck in a local optima
- **Theory of development:**
 - “Cooling off” as an explanation for high variability of children’s decisions/hypotheses
- **Implementation: ?**
 - Lack of a direct empirical test
 - Ambiguity in what is being optimized

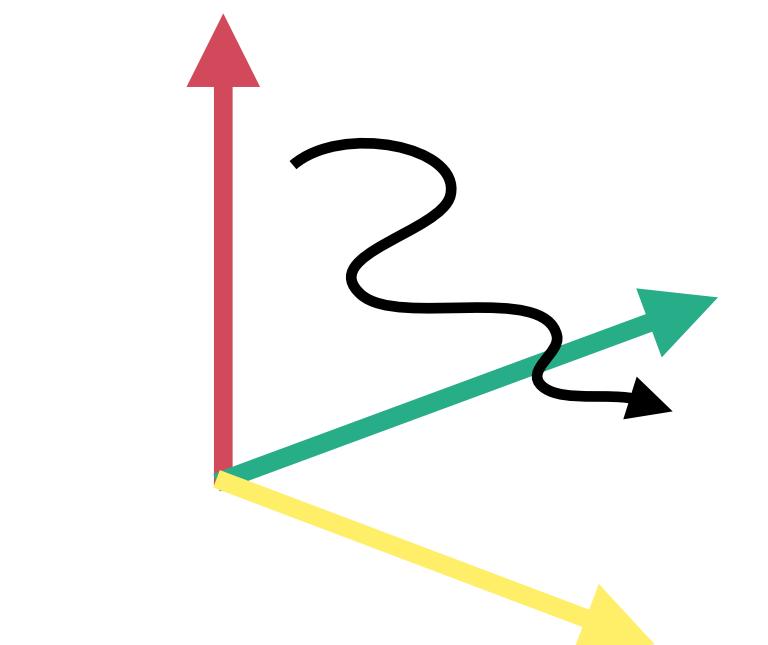
Stochastic Optimization



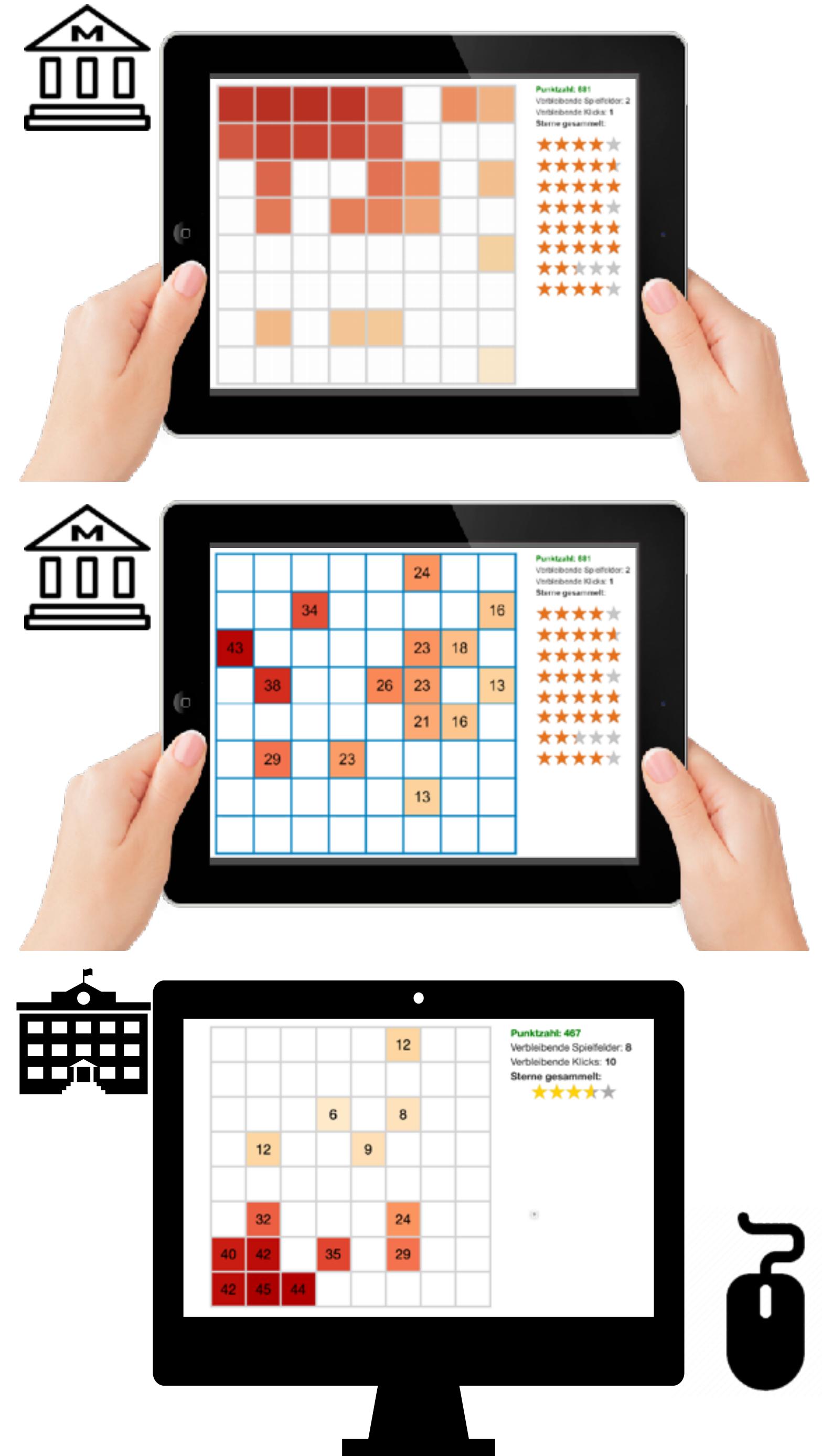
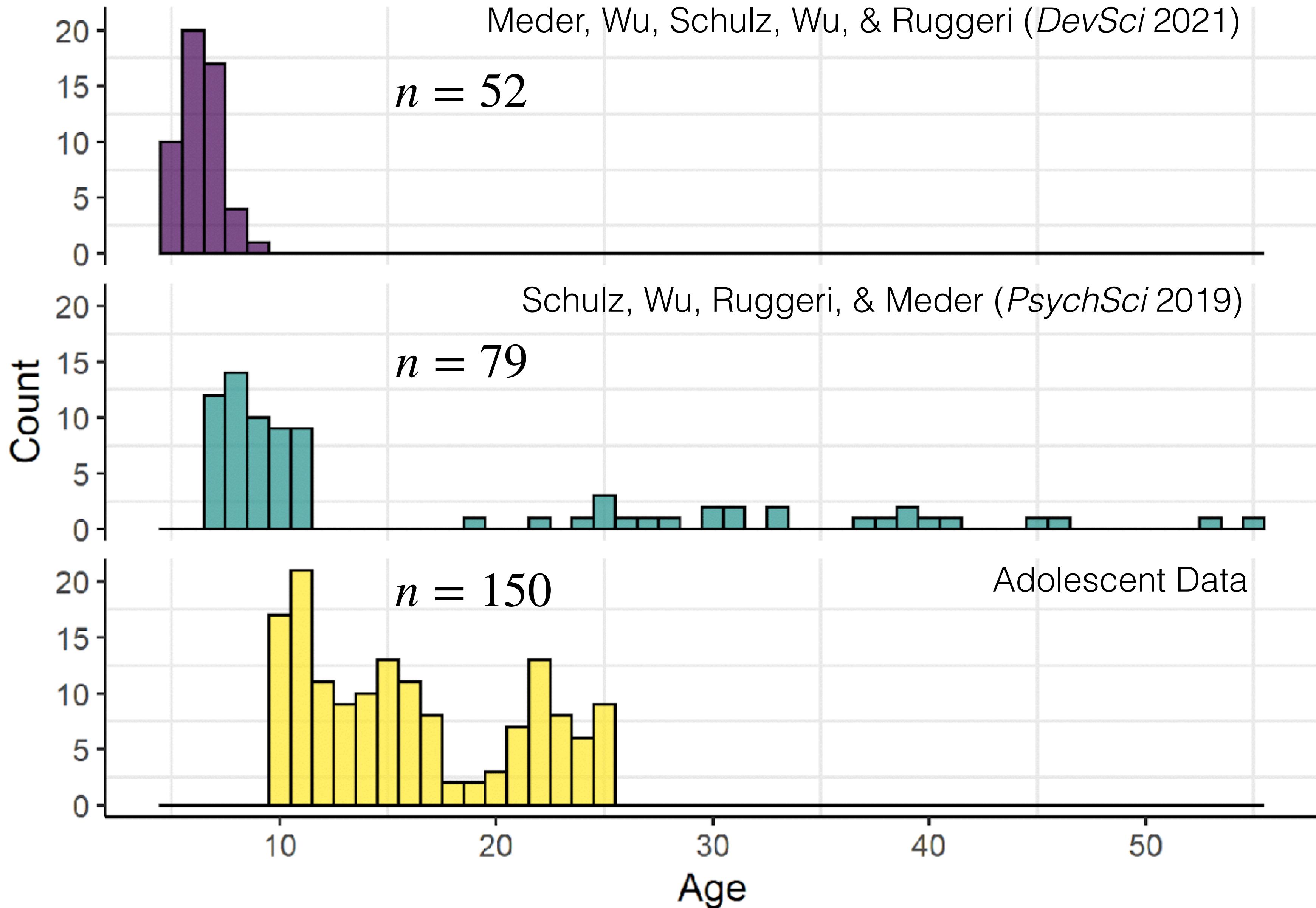
H1: Uni-dimensional reduction of randomness in sampling



H2: Multi-dimensional optimization of learning strategies



Combined dataset with $n = 281$ subjects between 5 and 55

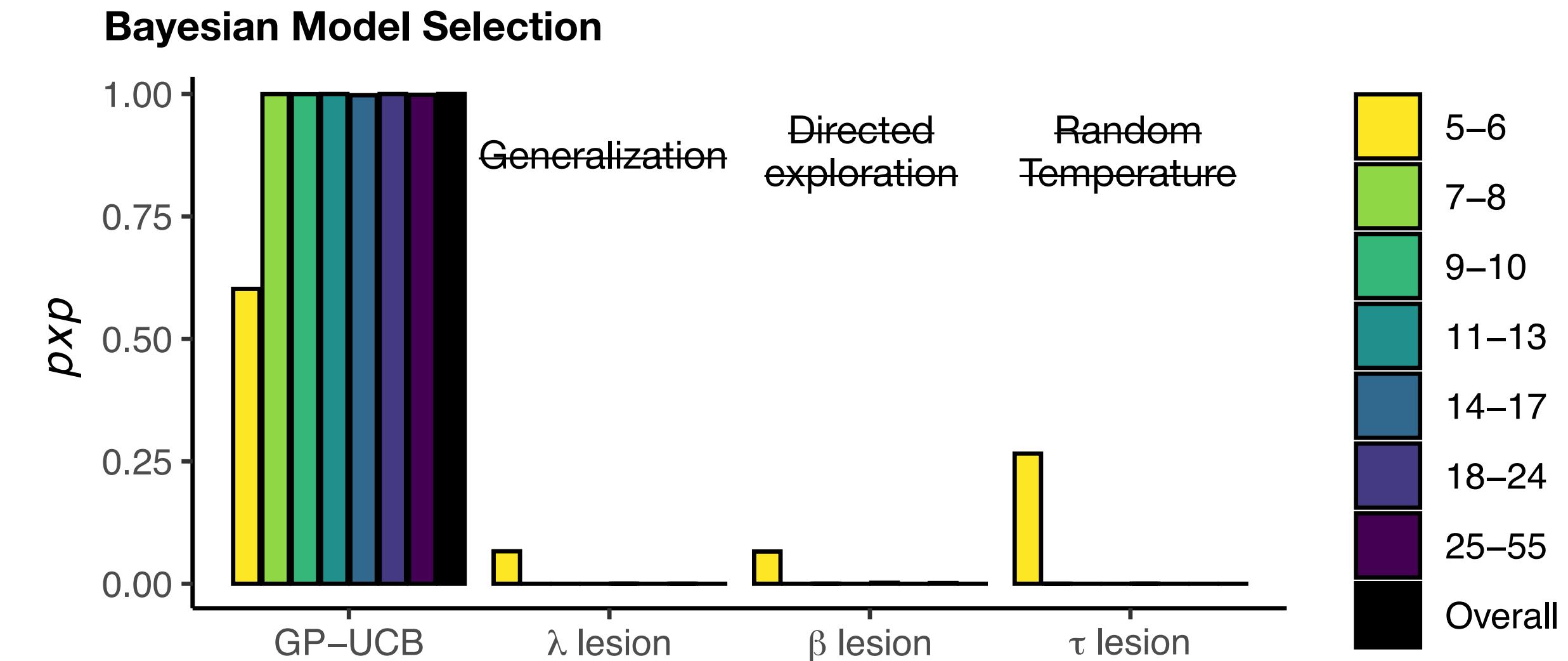


GP-UCB across the lifespan

- GP-UCB provides the predictions of behavior from the ages of 5 to 55 ($n=281$)

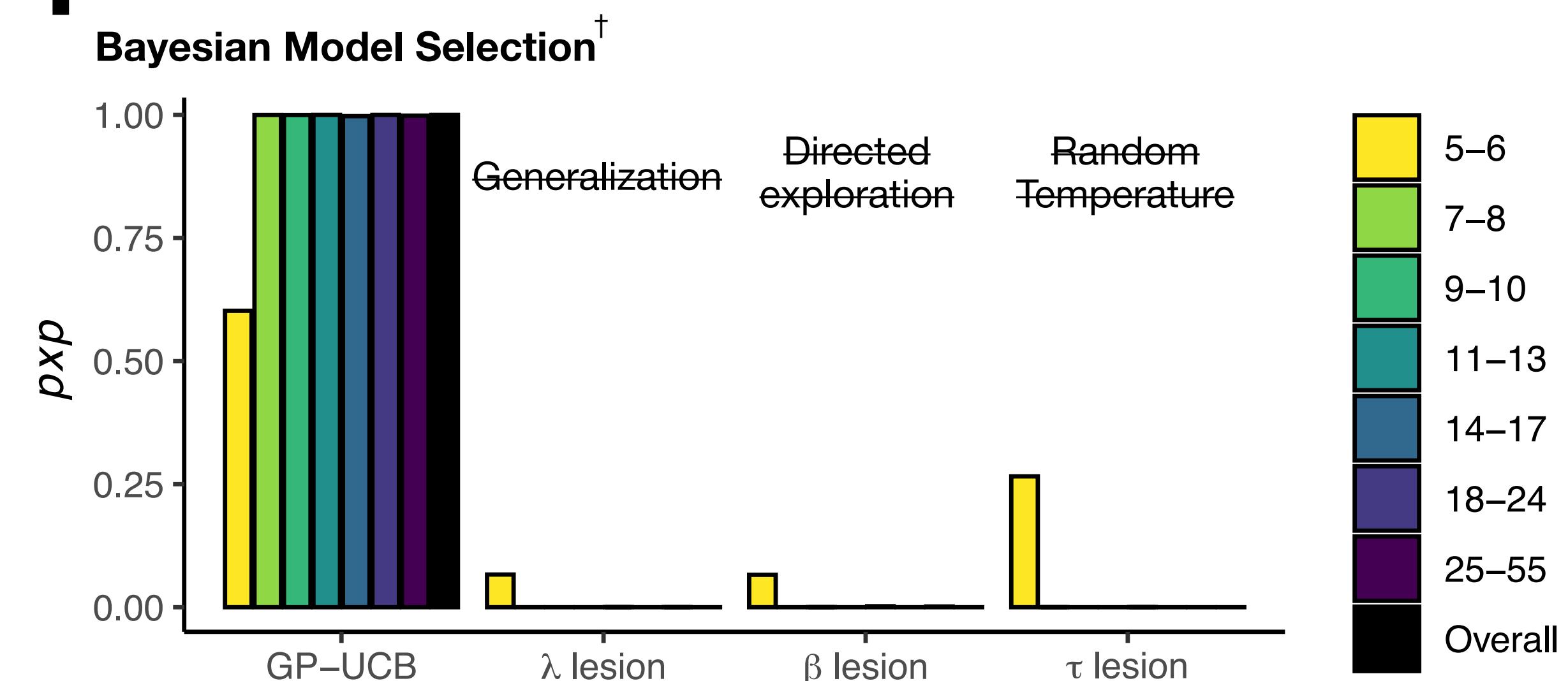
GP-UCB across the lifespan

- GP-UCB provides the predictions of behavior from the ages of 5 to 55 ($n=281$)
- We can lesion out each component to show that all are necessary
 - λ lesion replaces GP with a Tabular RL model (i.e., Kalman filter) that learns the value of each option independently without generalization
 - β lesion removes uncertainty-directed exploration by setting $\beta = 0$
 - τ lesion swaps softmax for an ϵ -greedy policy



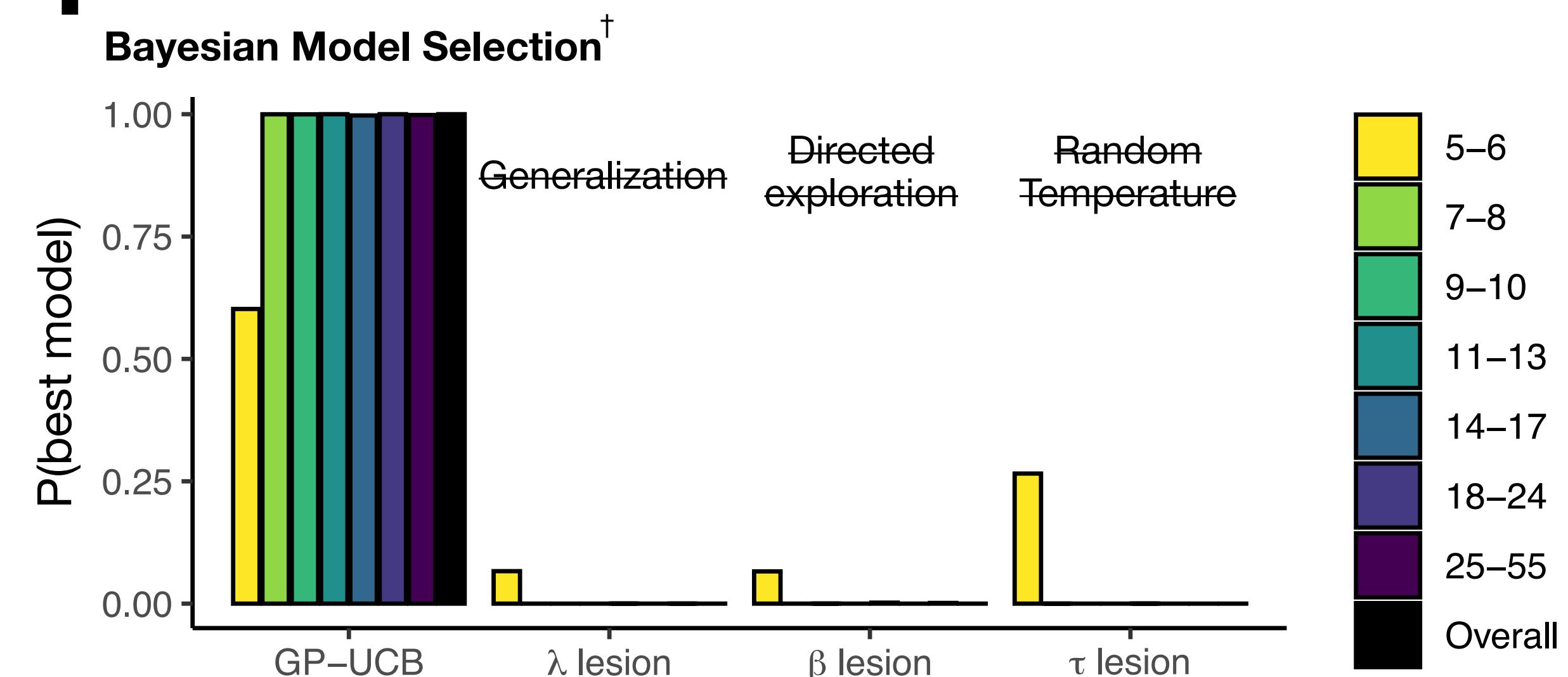
GP-UCB across the lifespan

- GP-UCB provides the predictions of behavior from the ages of 5 to 55 ($n=281$)
- We can lesion out each component to show that all are necessary
 - λ lesion replaces GP with a Tabular RL model (i.e., Kalman filter) that learns the value of each option independently without generalization
 - β lesion removes uncertainty-directed exploration by setting $\beta = 0$
 - τ lesion swaps softmax for an ϵ -greedy policy



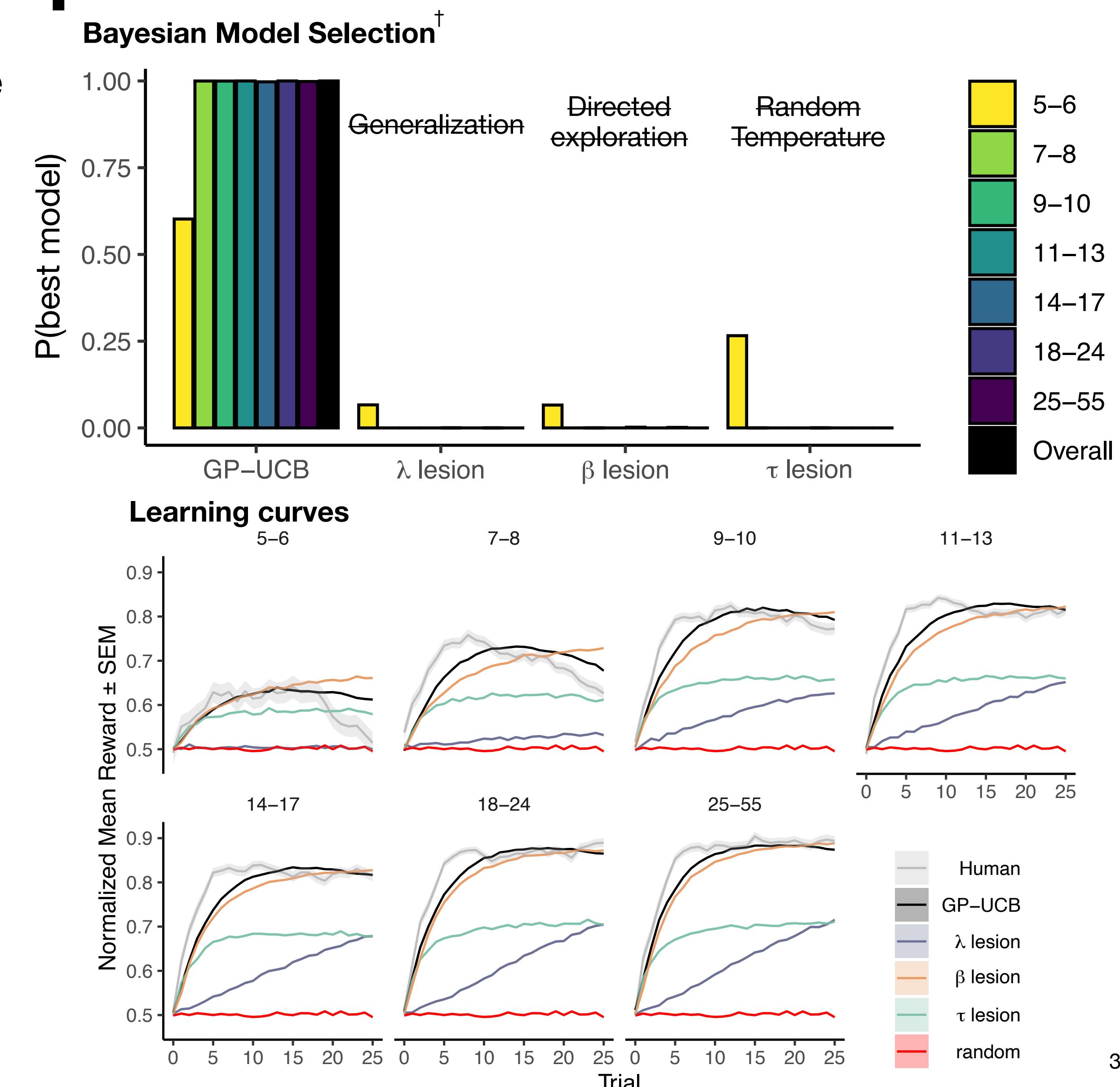
GP-UCB across the lifespan

- GP-UCB provides the predictions of behavior from the ages of 5 to 55 ($n=281$)
- We can lesion out each component to show that all are necessary
 - λ lesion replaces GP with a Tabular RL model (i.e., Kalman filter) that learns the value of each option independently without generalization
 - β lesion removes uncertainty-directed exploration by setting $\beta = 0$
 - τ lesion swaps softmax for an ϵ -greedy policy



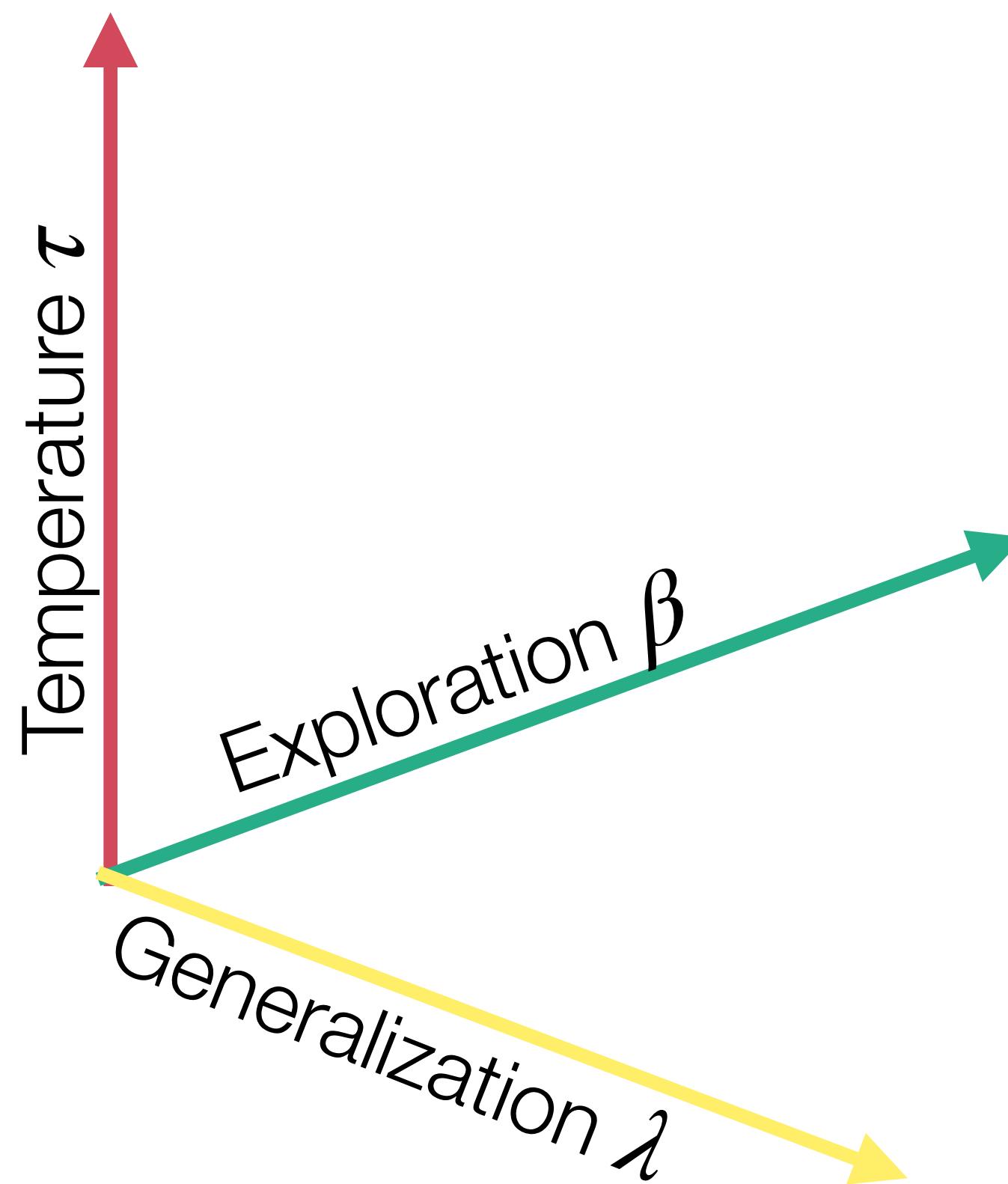
GP-UCB across the lifespan

- GP-UCB provides the predictions of behavior from the ages of 5 to 55 ($n=281$)
- We can lesion out each component to show that all are necessary
 - λ lesion replaces GP with a Tabular RL model (i.e., Kalman filter) that learns the value of each option independently without generalization
 - β lesion removes uncertainty-directed exploration by setting $\beta = 0$
 - τ lesion swaps softmax for an ϵ -greedy policy
- The **full model** reproduces the same age-related differences in learning curves
 - β -lesion is also good, but doesn't produce the same decaying learning curves that children have and generally learns slower

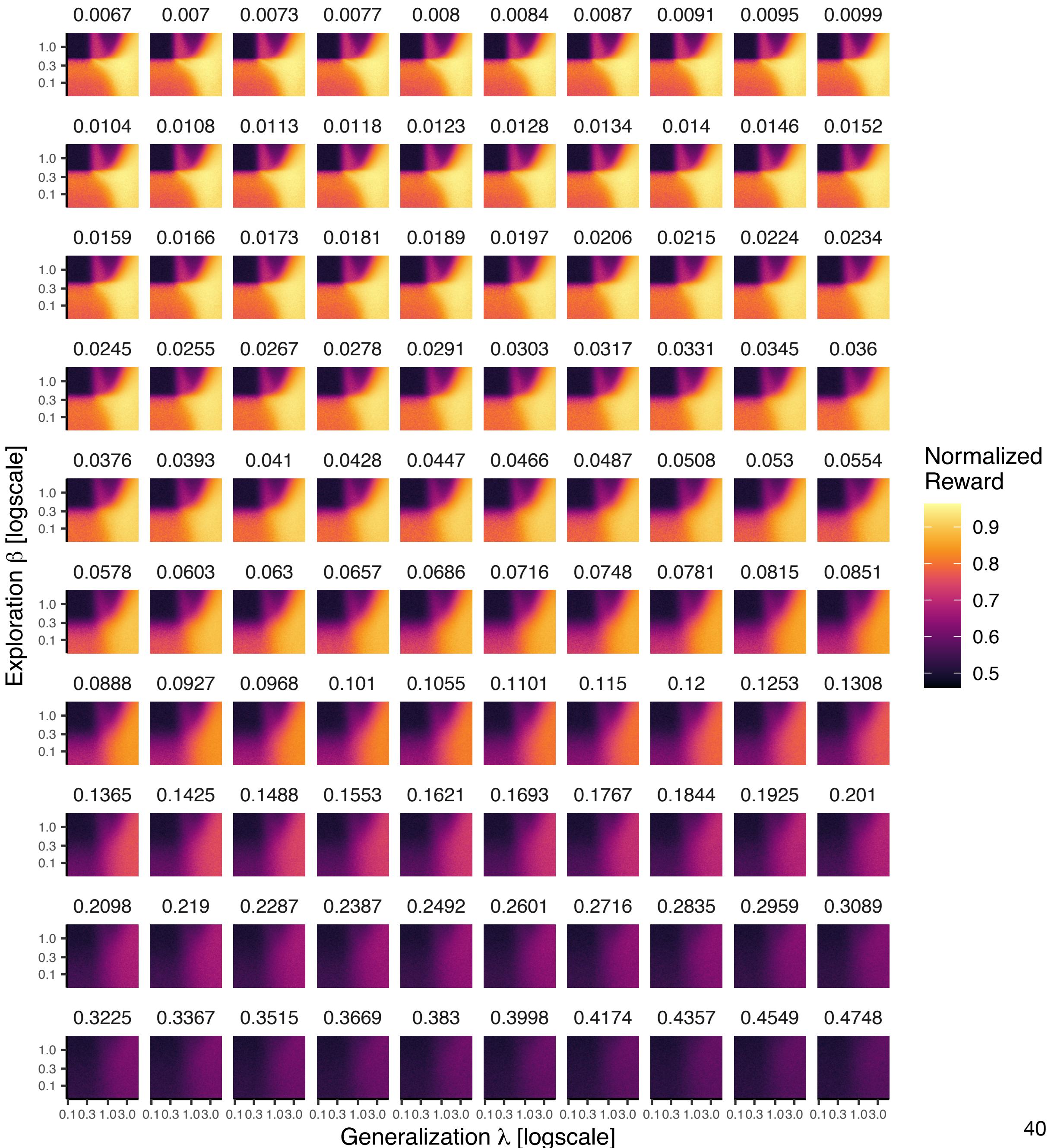


Fitness Landscape

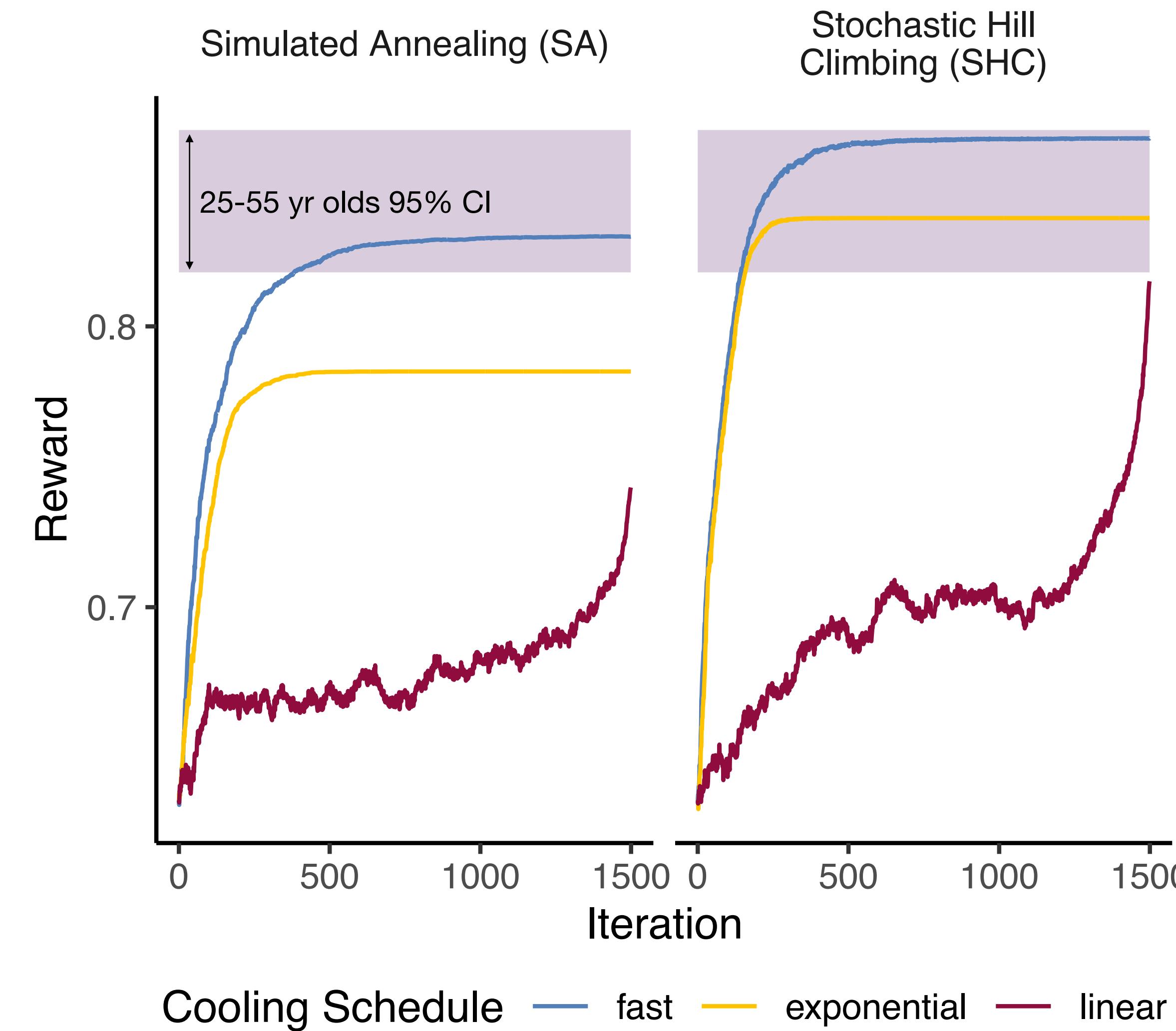
Simulations over 1 million plausible parameter combinations



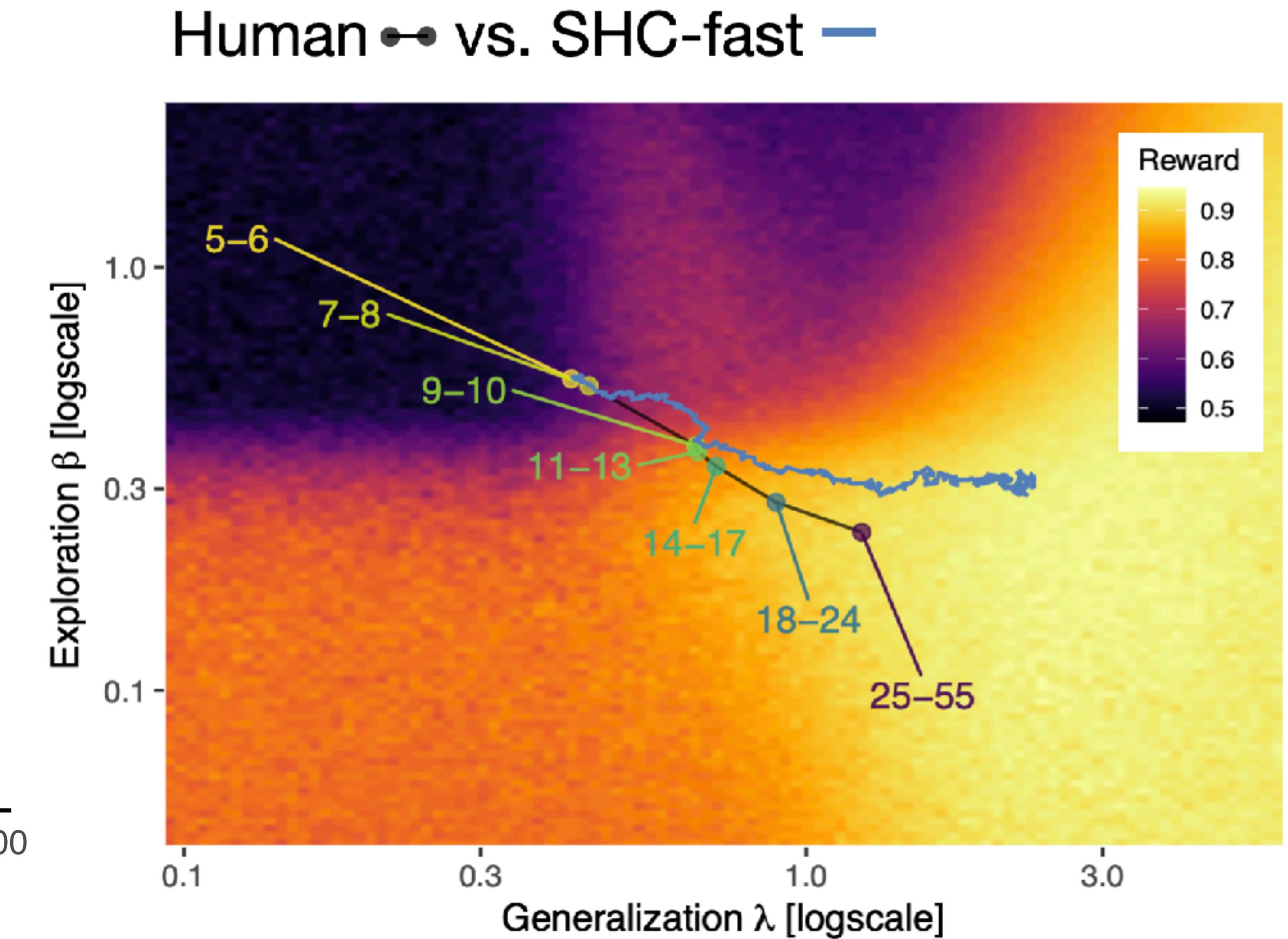
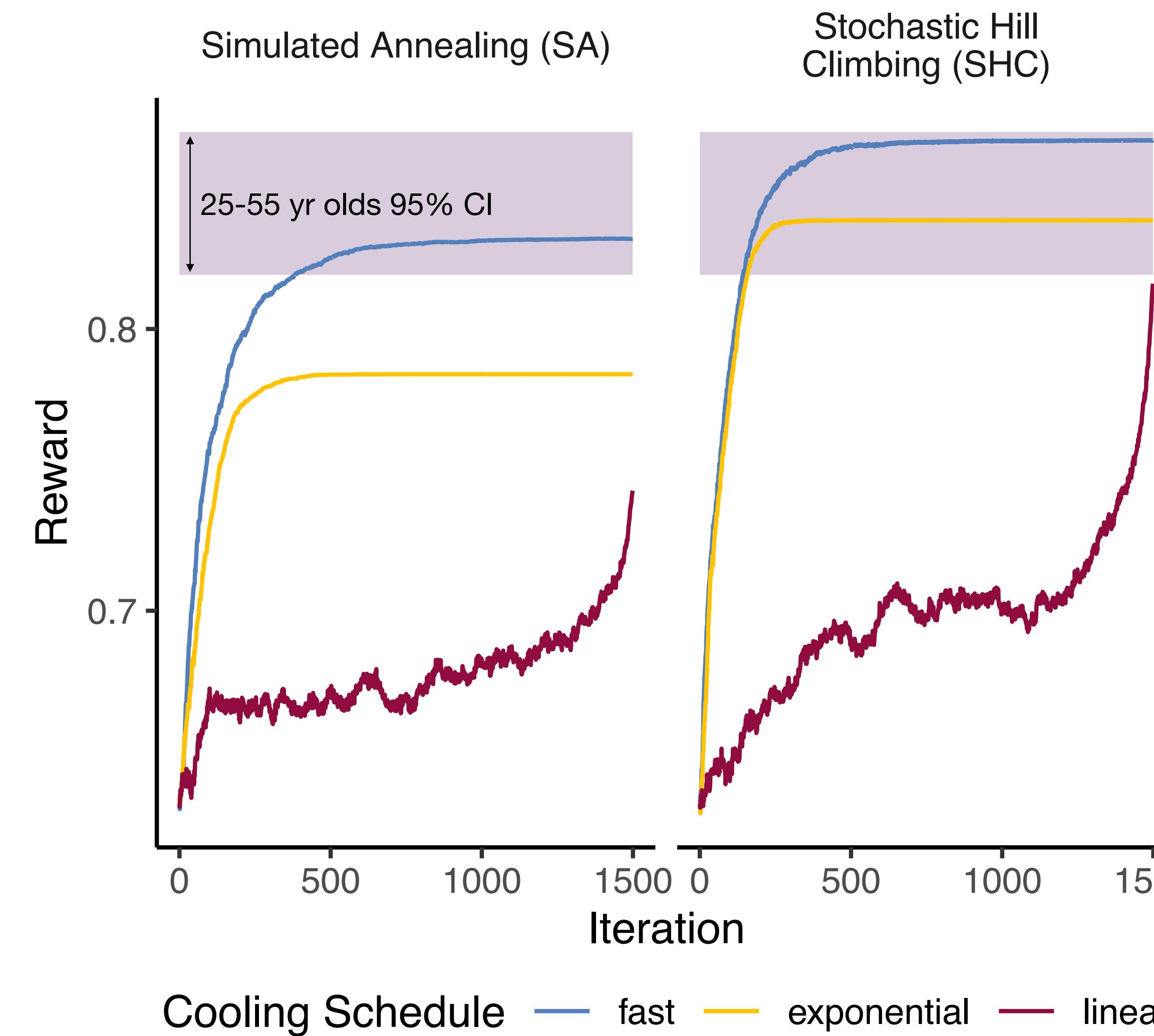
Simulated Reward (Faceted by Temperature τ)



Human development resembles an optimization process in GP parameter space



Human development resembles an optimization process in GP parameter space



A versatile and robust paradigm

- Generalization guides exploration
- Developmental trajectory of learning

Wu, Schulz, Nelson, Speekenbrink & Meder (*NHB* 2018)

Giron*, Ciranka*, Schulz, Van den Bos, Ruggeri, Meder, & Wu (*NHB* 2023)

Meder, Wu, Schulz & Ruggeri (*DevSci* 2021)

Schulz, Wu, Ruggeri & Meder (*PsychSci* 2019)

A versatile and robust paradigm

- Generalization guides exploration

Wu, Schulz, Nelson, Speekenbrink & Meder (*NHB* 2018)

- Developmental trajectory of learning

Giron*, Ciranka*, Schulz, Van den Bos, Ruggeri, Meder, & Wu (*NHB* 2023)

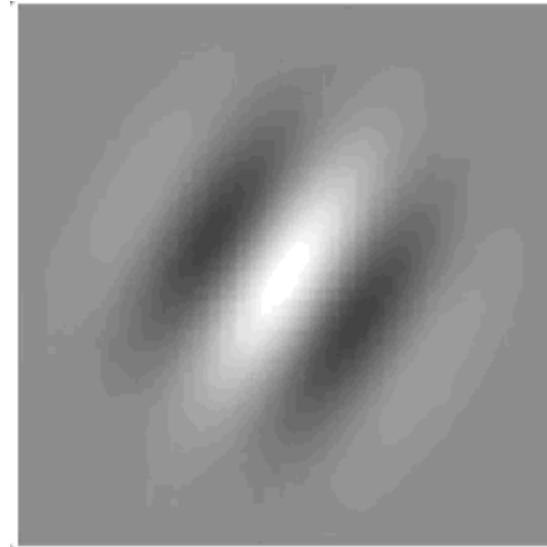
Meder, Wu, Schulz & Ruggeri (*DevSci* 2021)

Schulz, Wu, Ruggeri & Meder (*PsychSci* 2019)

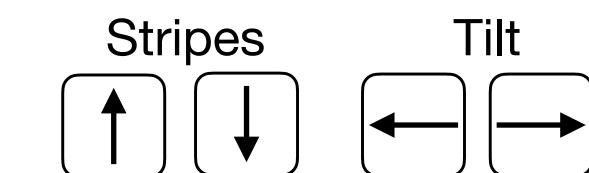
- Search in abstract conceptual spaces

Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck (*PLOS Comp Bio*, 2020)

Conceptual features



Current Score: 141
Trials Remaining: 14
Rounds Remaining: 10



Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck
(*PLOS Comp Bio* 2020)

A versatile and robust paradigm

- **Generalization guides exploration**

Wu, Schulz, Nelson, Speekenbrink & Meder (*NHB* 2018)

- **Developmental trajectory of learning**

Giron*, Ciranka*, Schulz, Van den Bos, Ruggeri, Meder, & Wu (*NHB* 2023)

Meder, Wu, Schulz & Ruggeri (*DevSci* 2021)

Schulz, Wu, Ruggeri & Meder (*PsychSci* 2019)

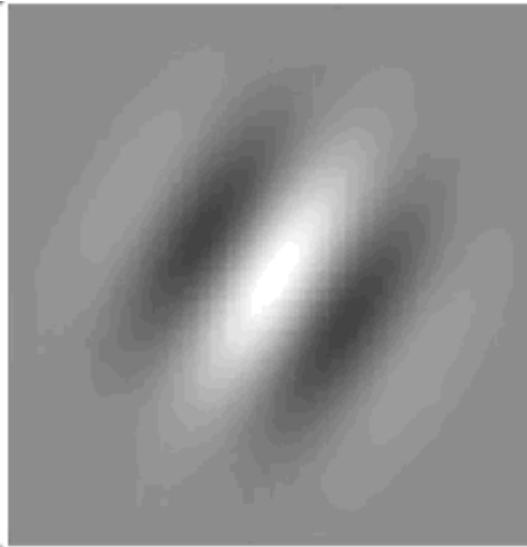
- **Search in abstract conceptual spaces**

Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck (*PLOS Comp Bio*, 2020)

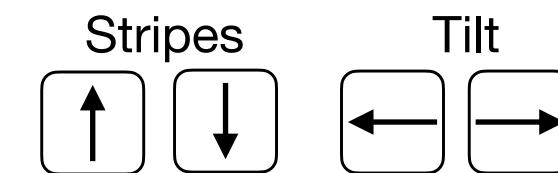
- **Graph-structured generalization**

Wu, Schulz & Gershman (*CBB* 2021)

Conceptual features

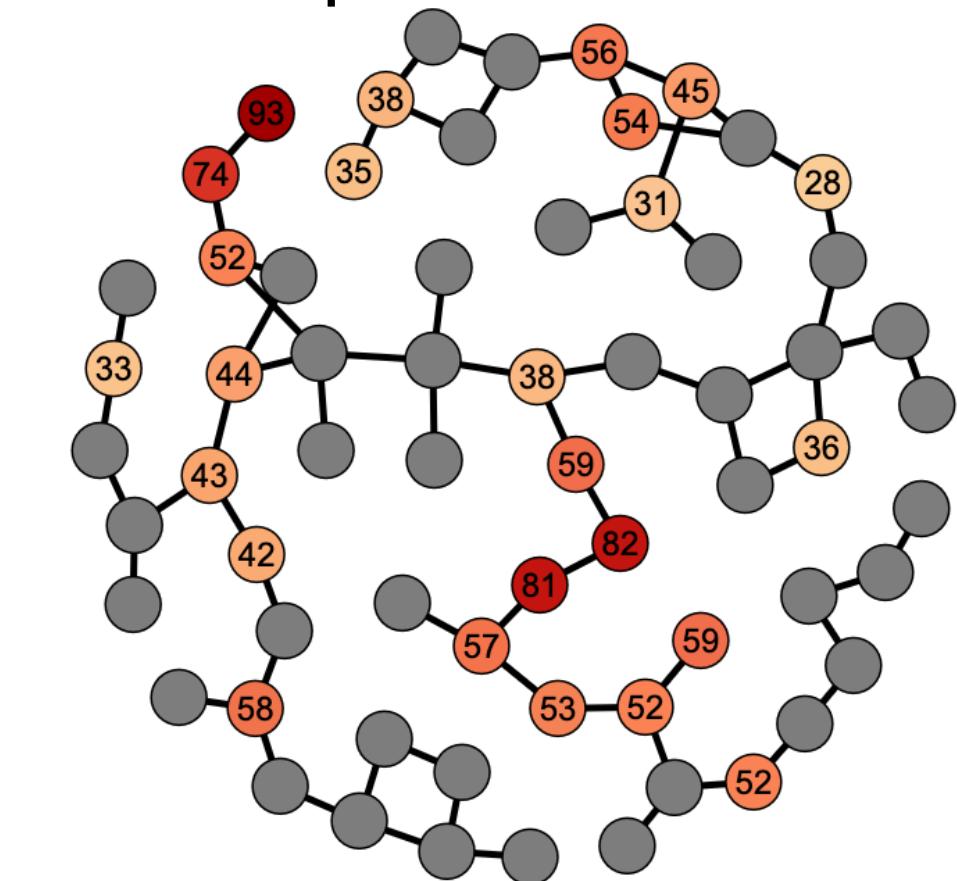


Current Score: 141
Trials Remaining: 14
Rounds Remaining: 10



Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck
(*PLOS Comp Bio* 2020)

Graph structures



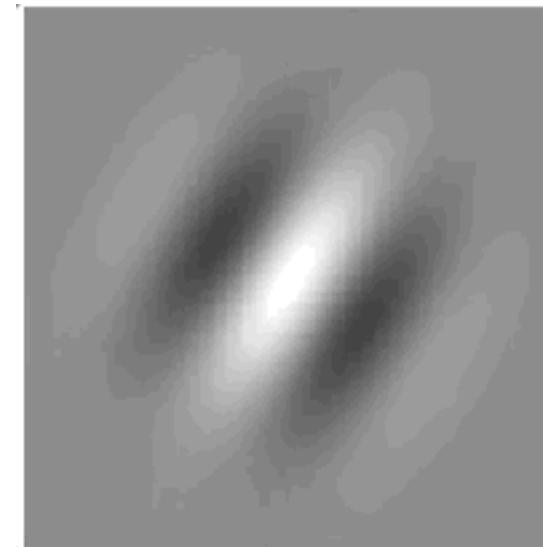
Wu, Schulz & Gershman (*CBB* 2021)

A versatile and robust paradigm



- Generalization guides exploration
Wu, Schulz, Nelson, Speekenbrink & Meder (*NHB* 2018)
 - Developmental trajectory of learning
Giron*, Ciranka*, Schulz, Van den Bos, Ruggeri, Meder, & Wu (*NHB* 2023)
Meder, Wu, Schulz & Ruggeri (*DevSci* 2021)
Schulz, Wu, Ruggeri & Meder (*PsychSci* 2019)
 - Search in abstract conceptual spaces
Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck (*PLOS Comp Bio*, 2020)
 - Graph-structured generalization
Wu, Schulz & Gershman (*CBB* 2021)
 - Safe exploration
Schulz, Wu, Huys, Krause & Speekenbrink (*Cognitive Science* 2018)
 - Forgetful generalization with limited memory
Breit, Ten, Sakaki, Murayama, & Wu (*KogWiss* 2022)
Ten, Breit, Sakaki, Murayama & Wu (*in prep*)
 - Neural basis for generalization and exploration
Liebe, Ciranka, Spies, Lanzenburger, & Wu (*in prep*)
Wong, Moneta, Schuck, Hauser & Wu (*in prep*)
 - Social generalization
Witt, Toyokawa, Lala, Gaissmaier, & Wu (*PNAS* 2024)
Wu, Deffner, Kahl, Meder, Ho* & Kurvers* (*NatComms* *in press*)
Wu, Ho, Kahl, Leuker, Meder & Kurvers (*CogSci* 2021)

Conceptual features



Current Score: 141
Trials Remaining: 14
Rounds Remaining: 1

The image shows two sets of control buttons. On the left, under the heading 'Stripes', there are two buttons: an upward-pointing arrow in a rounded rectangle and a downward-pointing arrow in a rounded rectangle. On the right, under the heading 'Tilt', there are two buttons: a leftward-pointing arrow in a rounded rectangle and a rightward-pointing arrow in a rounded rectangle.

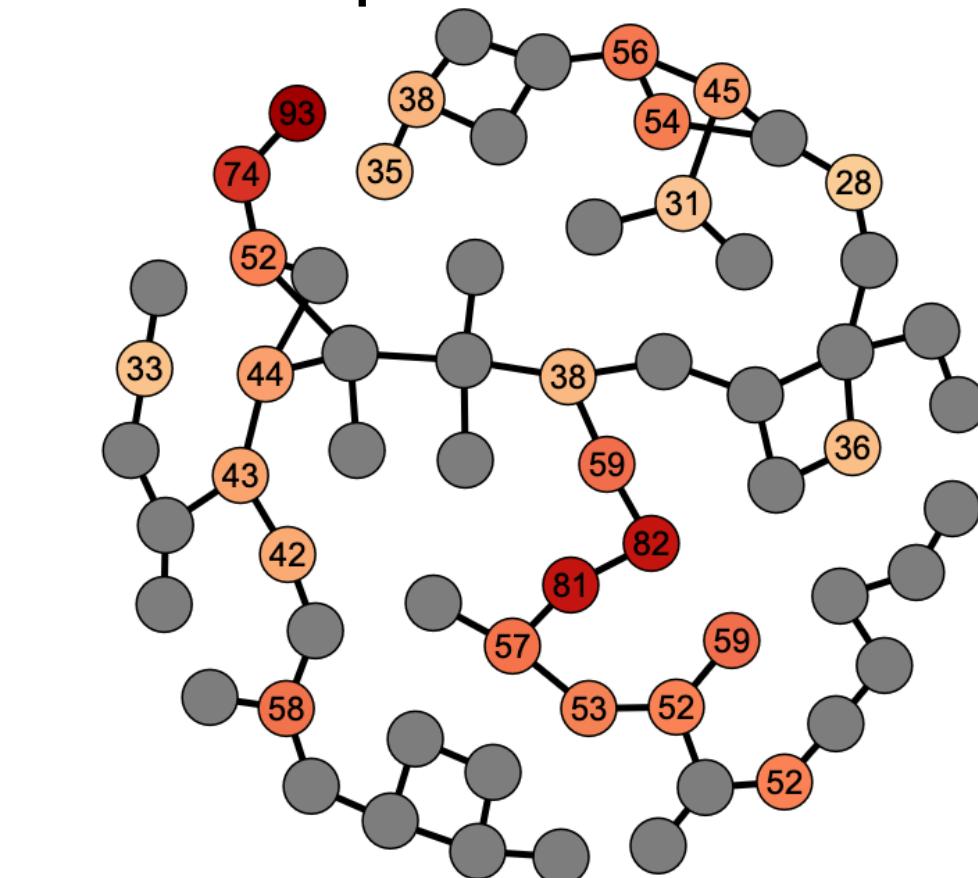
Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck
(*PLOS Comp Bio* 2020)

Safe exploration



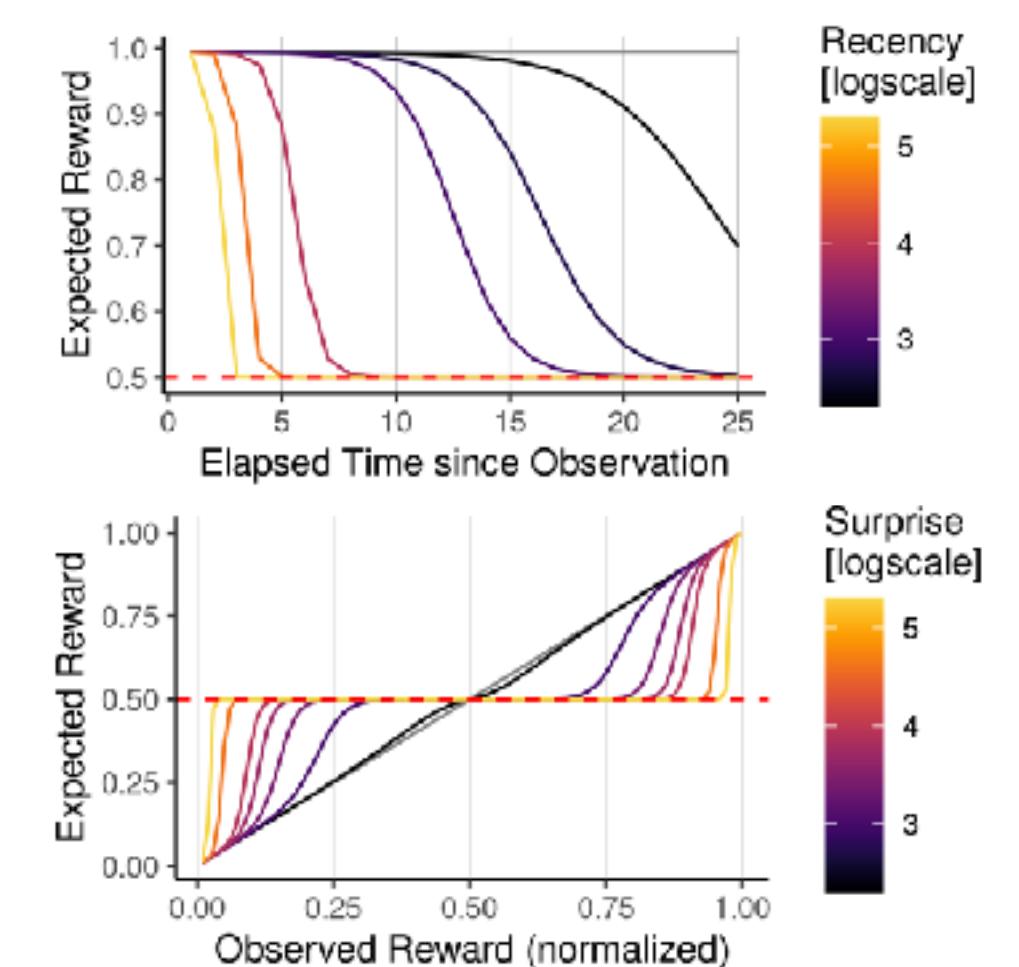
Schulz, Wu, et al., (Cognitive Science 2018)

Graph structures



Wu, Schulz & Gershman (*CBB* 2021)

Forgetful generalization



Ten, Breit, Sakaki, Murauama & Wu (*in prep*)

A versatile and robust paradigm

- Generalization guides exploration

Wu, Schulz, Nelson, Speekenbrink & Meder (*NHB* 2018)

- Developmental trajectory of learning

Giron*, Ciranka*, Schulz, Van den Bos, Ruggeri, Meder, & Wu (*NHB* 2023)

Meder, Wu, Schulz & Ruggeri (*DevSci* 2021)

Schulz, Wu, Ruggeri & Meder (*PsychSci* 2019)

- Search in abstract conceptual spaces

Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck (*PLOS Comp Bio*, 2020)

- Graph-structured generalization

Wu, Schulz & Gershman (*CBB* 2021)

- Safe exploration

Schulz, Wu, Huys, Krause & Speekenbrink (*Cognitive Science* 2018)

- Forgetful generalization with limited memory

Breit, Ten, Sakaki, Murayama, & Wu (*KogWiss* 2022)

Ten, Breit, Sakaki, Murayama & Wu (*in prep*)

- Neural basis for generalization and exploration

Liebe, Ciranka, Spies, Lanzenburger, & Wu (*in prep*)

Wong, Moneta, Schuck, Hauser & Wu (*in prep*)

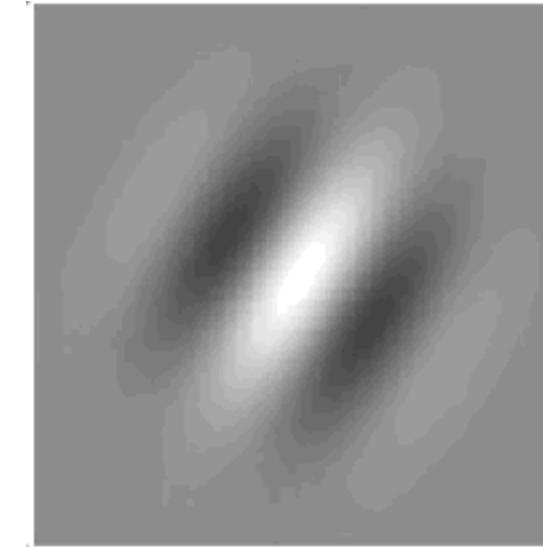
- Social generalization

Witt, Toyokawa, Lala, Gaissmaier, & Wu (*PNAS* 2024)

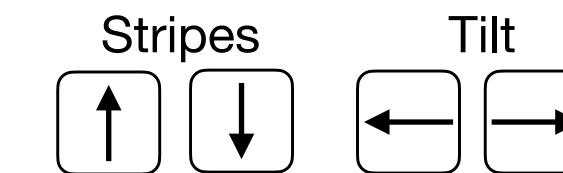
Wu, Deffner, Kahl, Meder, Ho* & Kurvers* (*NatComms* *in press*)

Wu, Ho, Kahl, Leuker, Meder & Kurvers (*CogSci* 2021)

Conceptual features

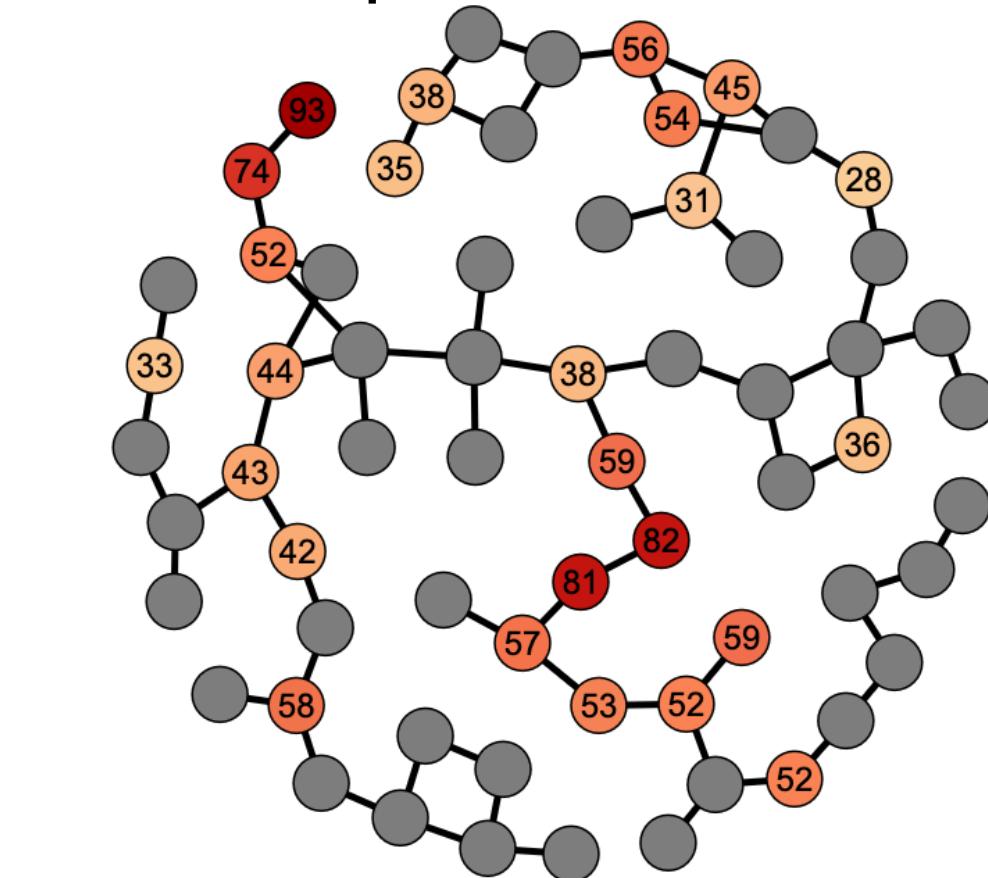


Current Score: 141
Trials Remaining: 14
Rounds Remaining: 10



Wu, Schulz, Garvert, Meder & Schuck
(*PLOS Comp Bio* 2020)

Graph structures



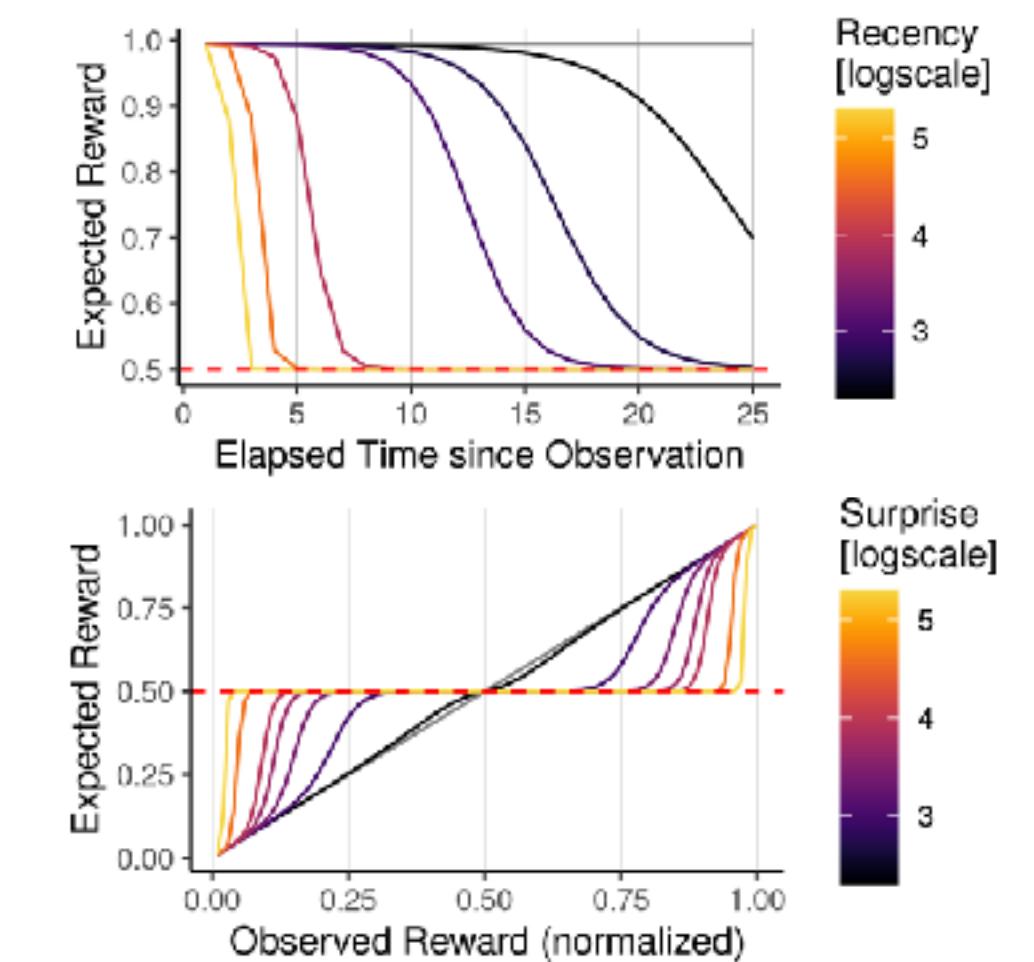
Wu, Schulz & Gershman (*CBB* 2021)

Safe exploration

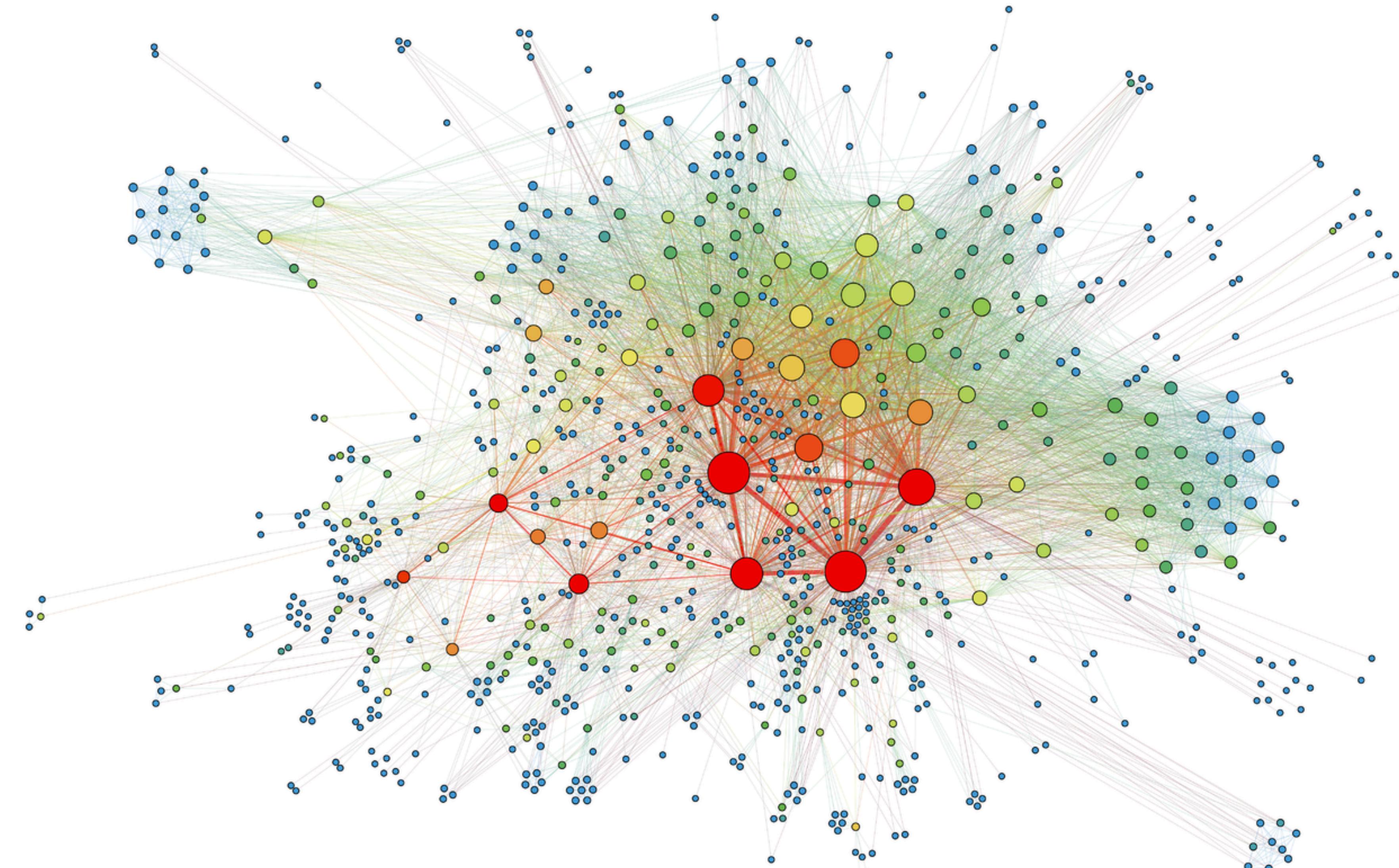


Schulz, Wu, et al., (*Cognitive Science* 2018)

Forgetful generalization

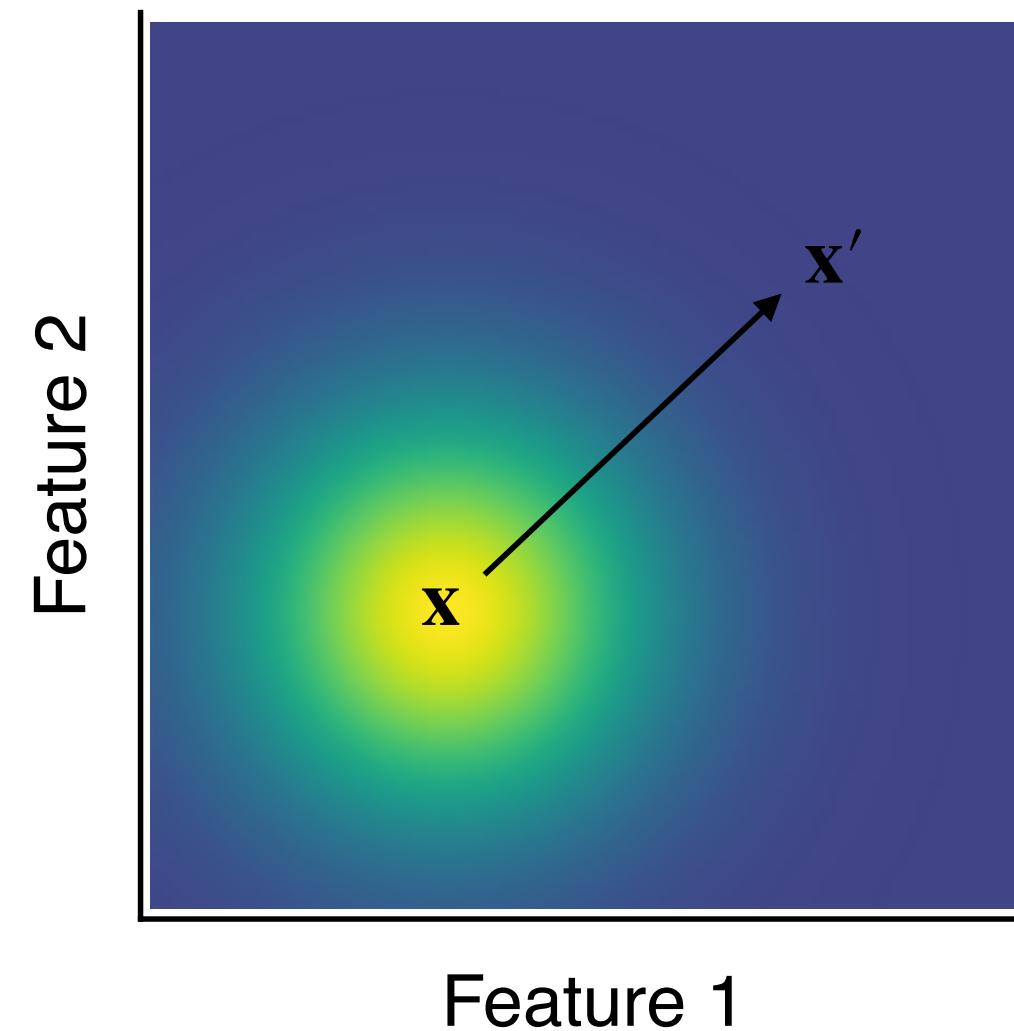


Ten, Breit, Sakaki, Murauama & Wu (*in prep*)

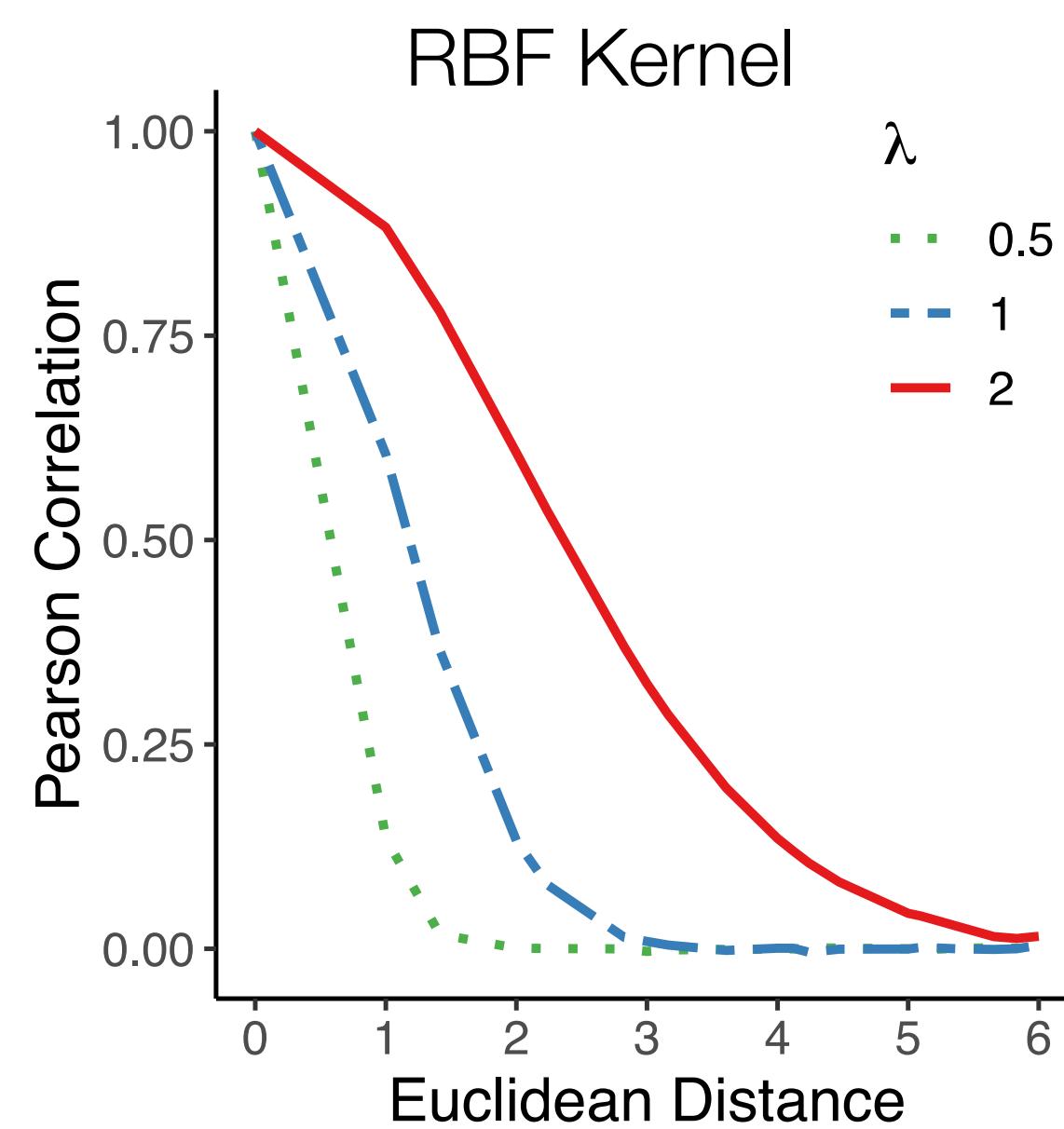
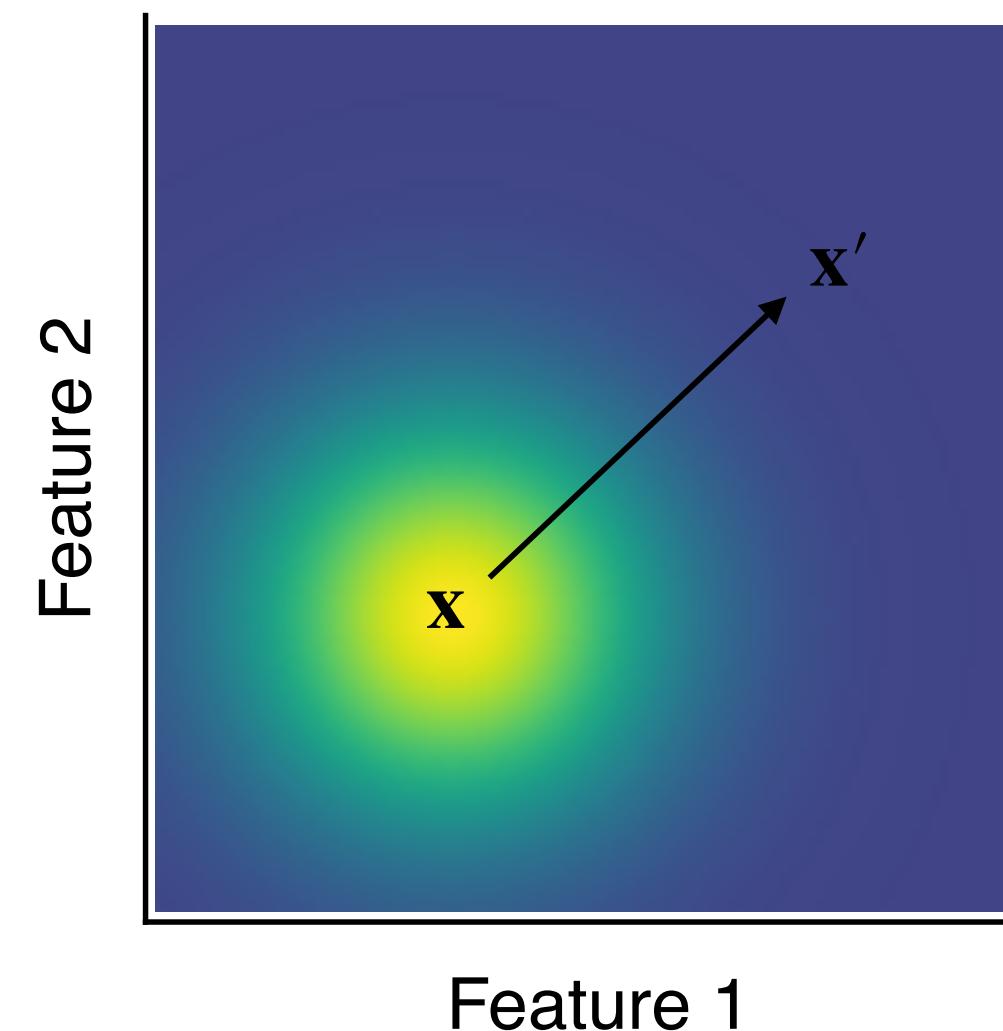


Exploring Structured Spaces

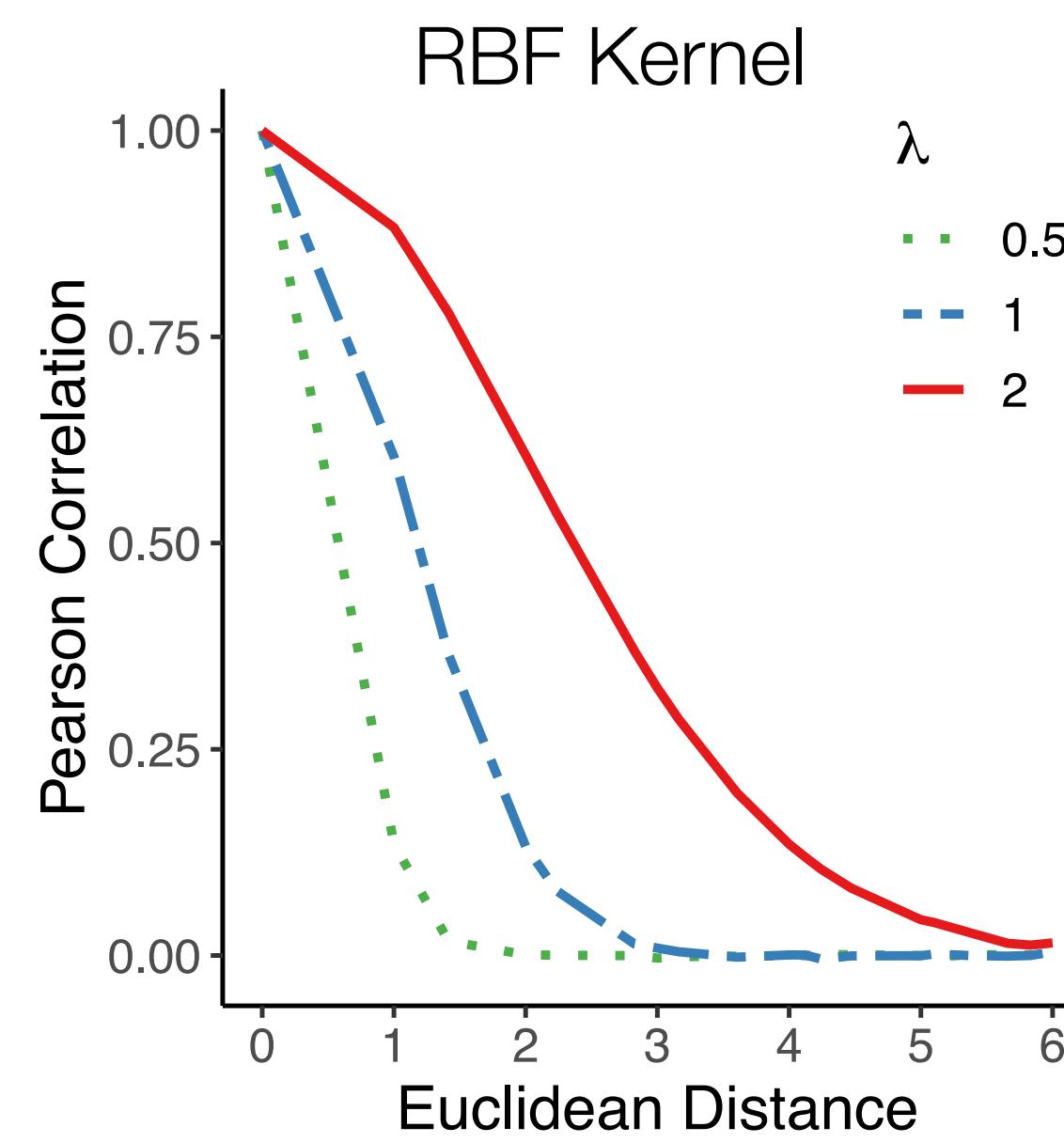
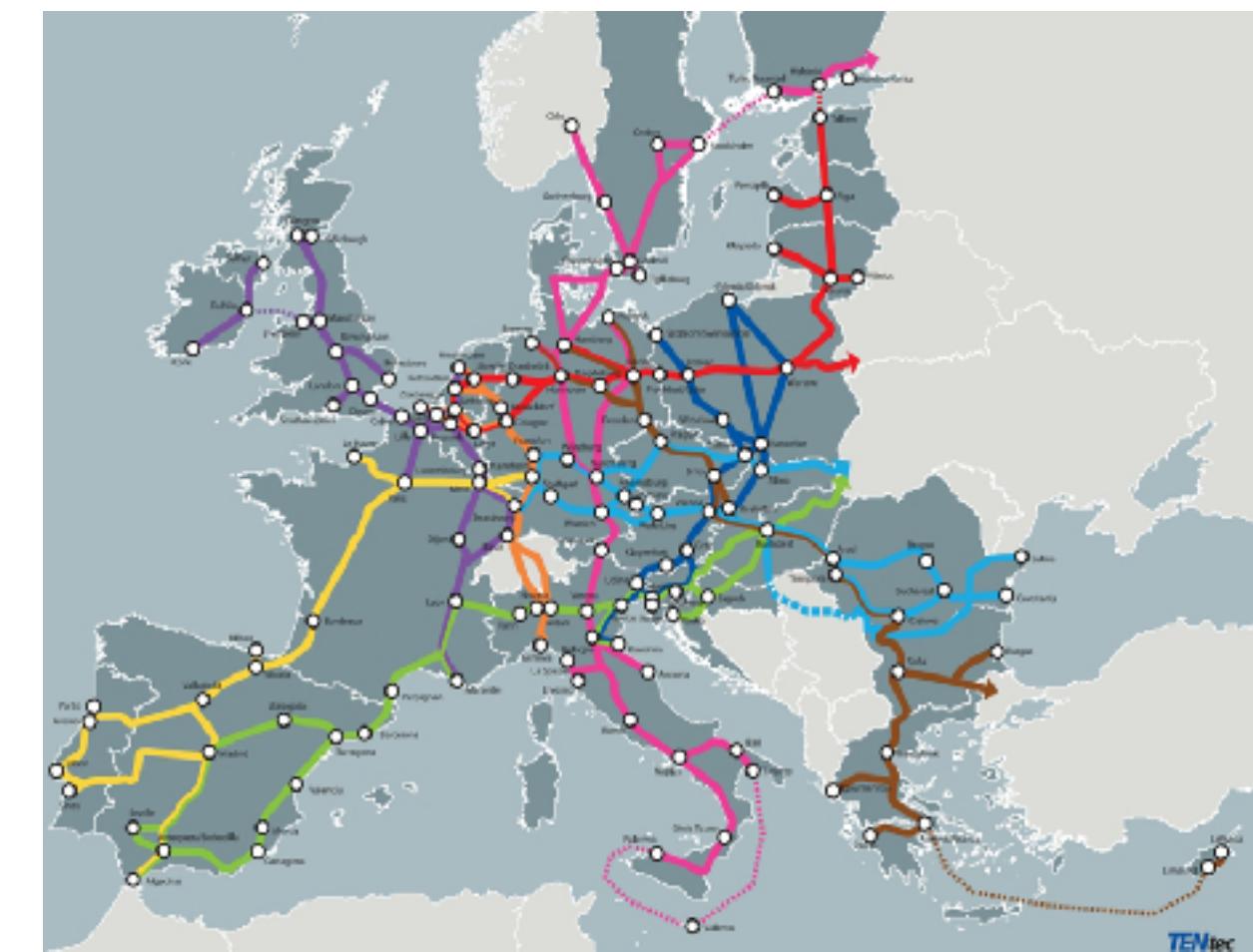
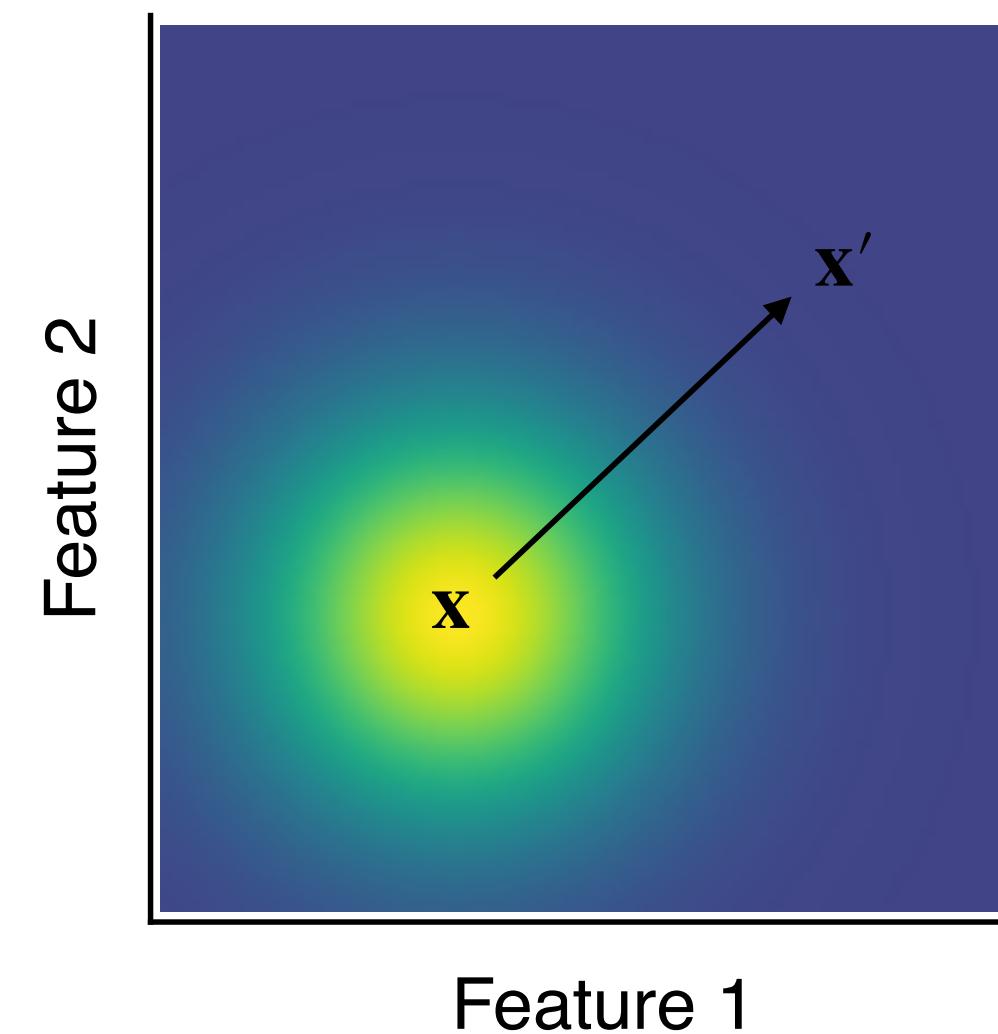
From continuous to structured spaces



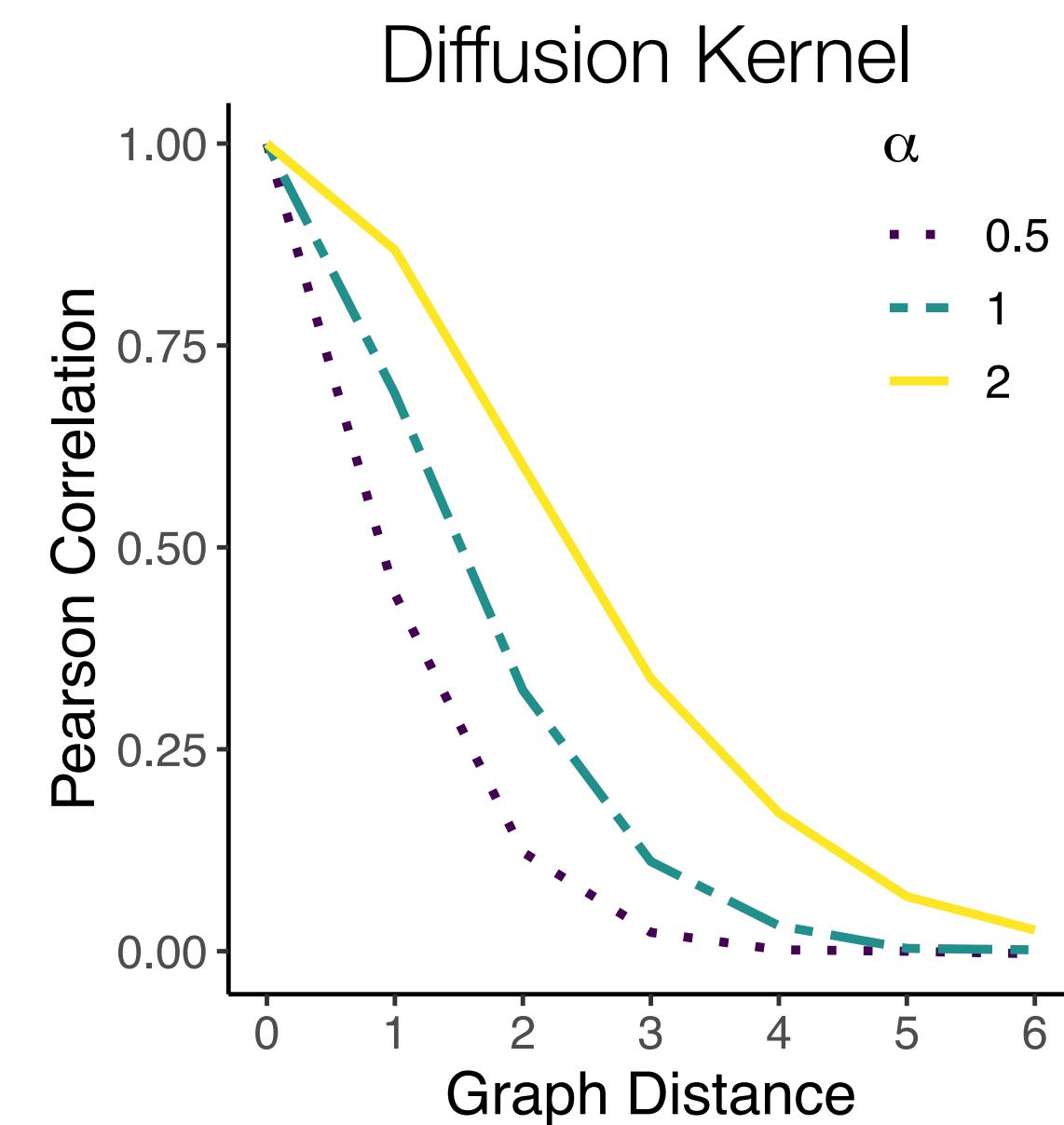
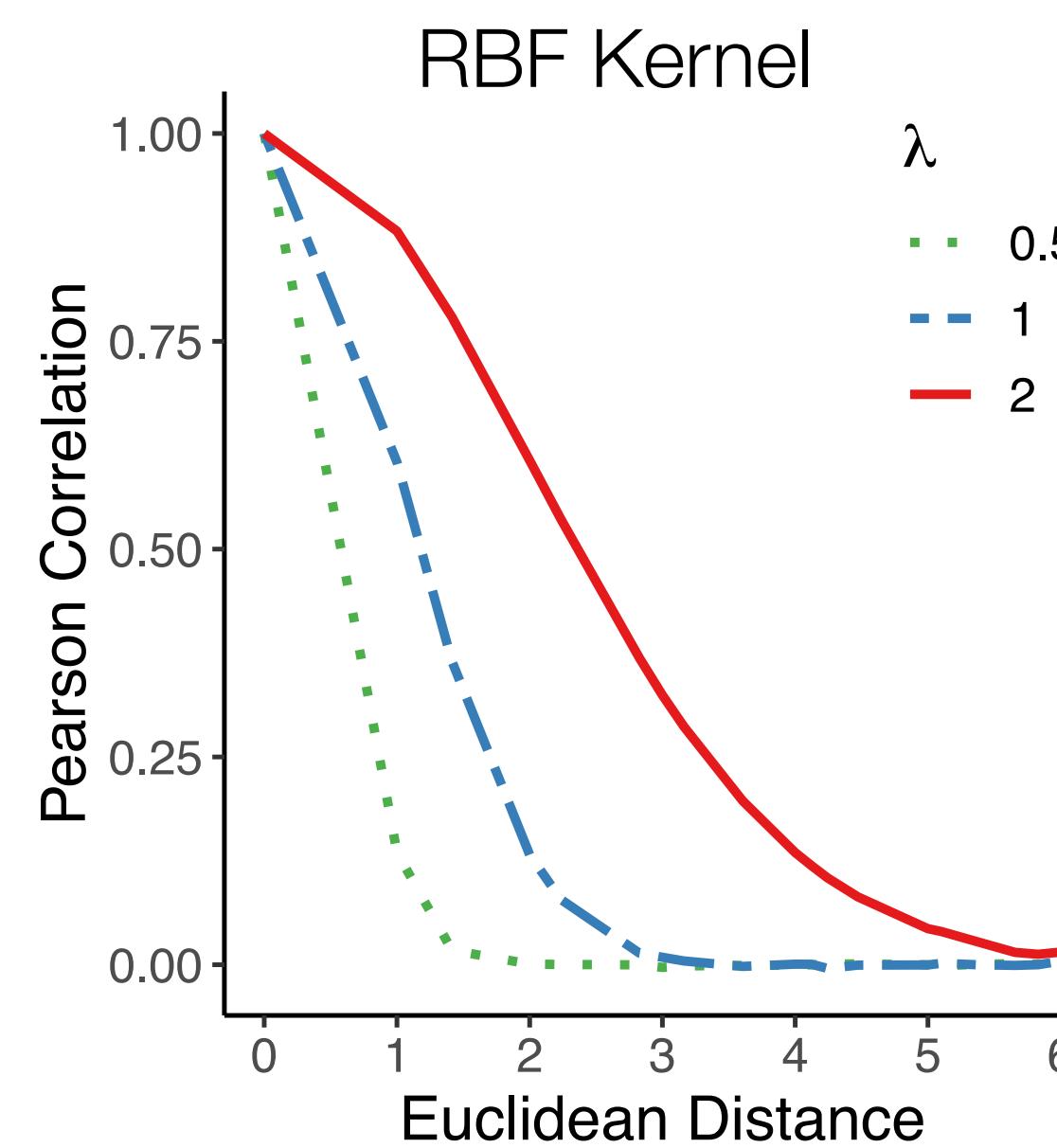
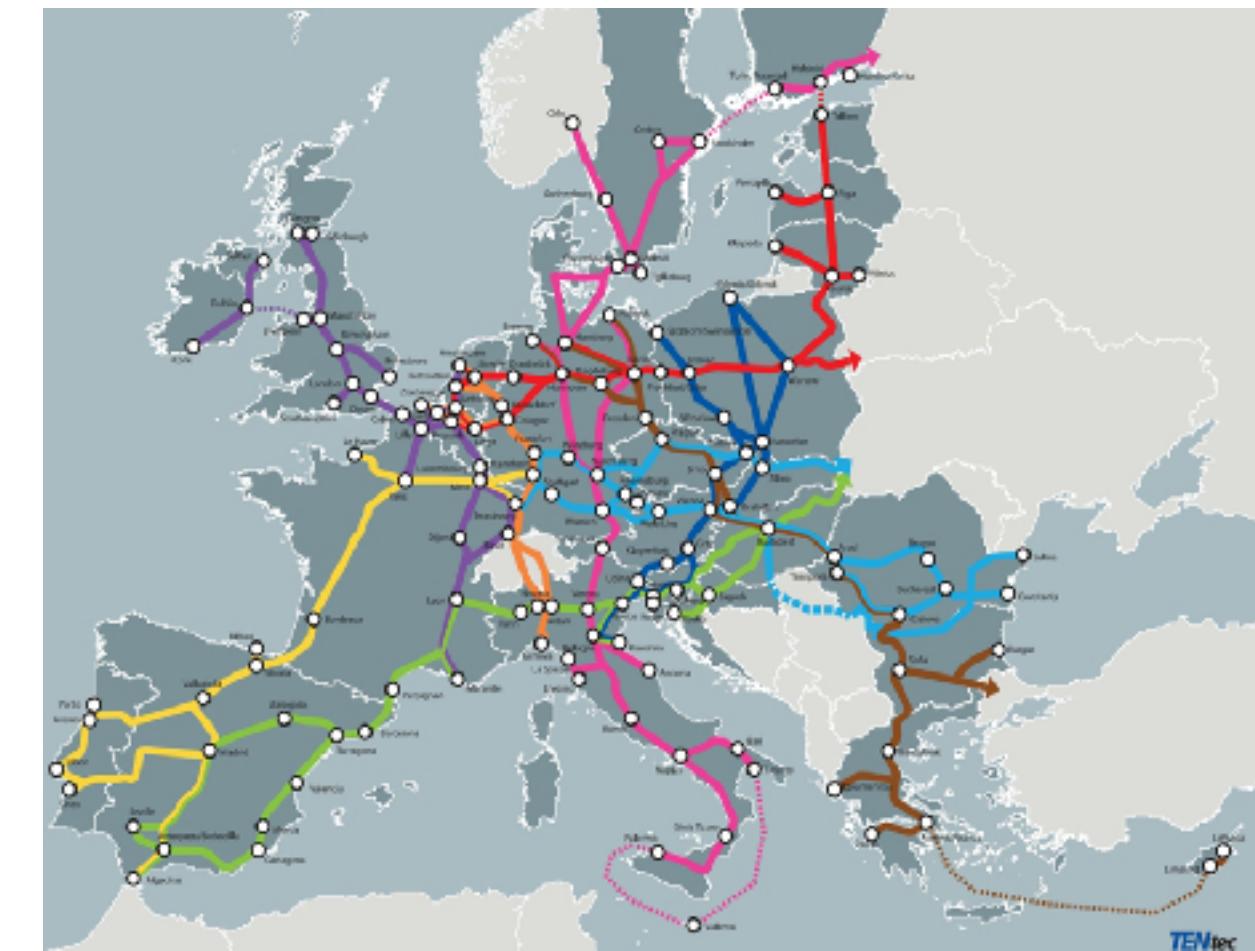
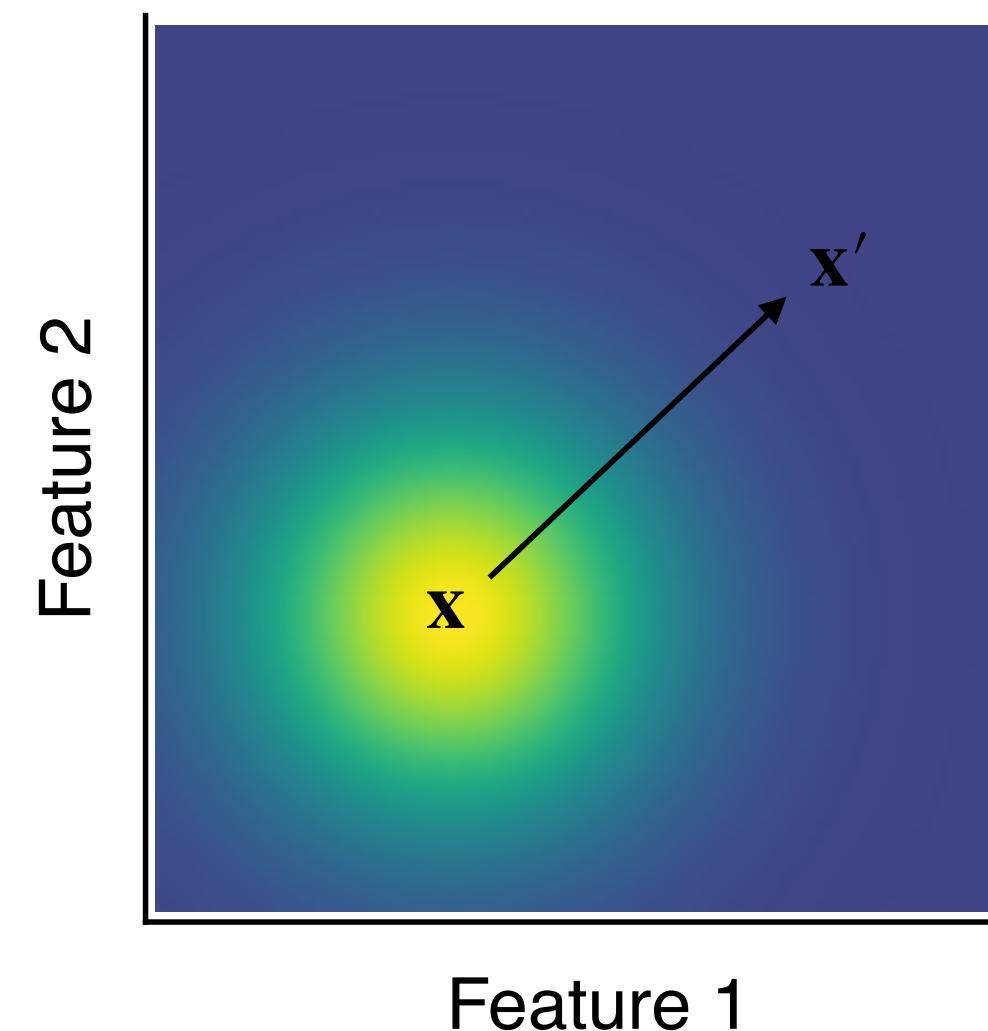
From continuous to structured spaces



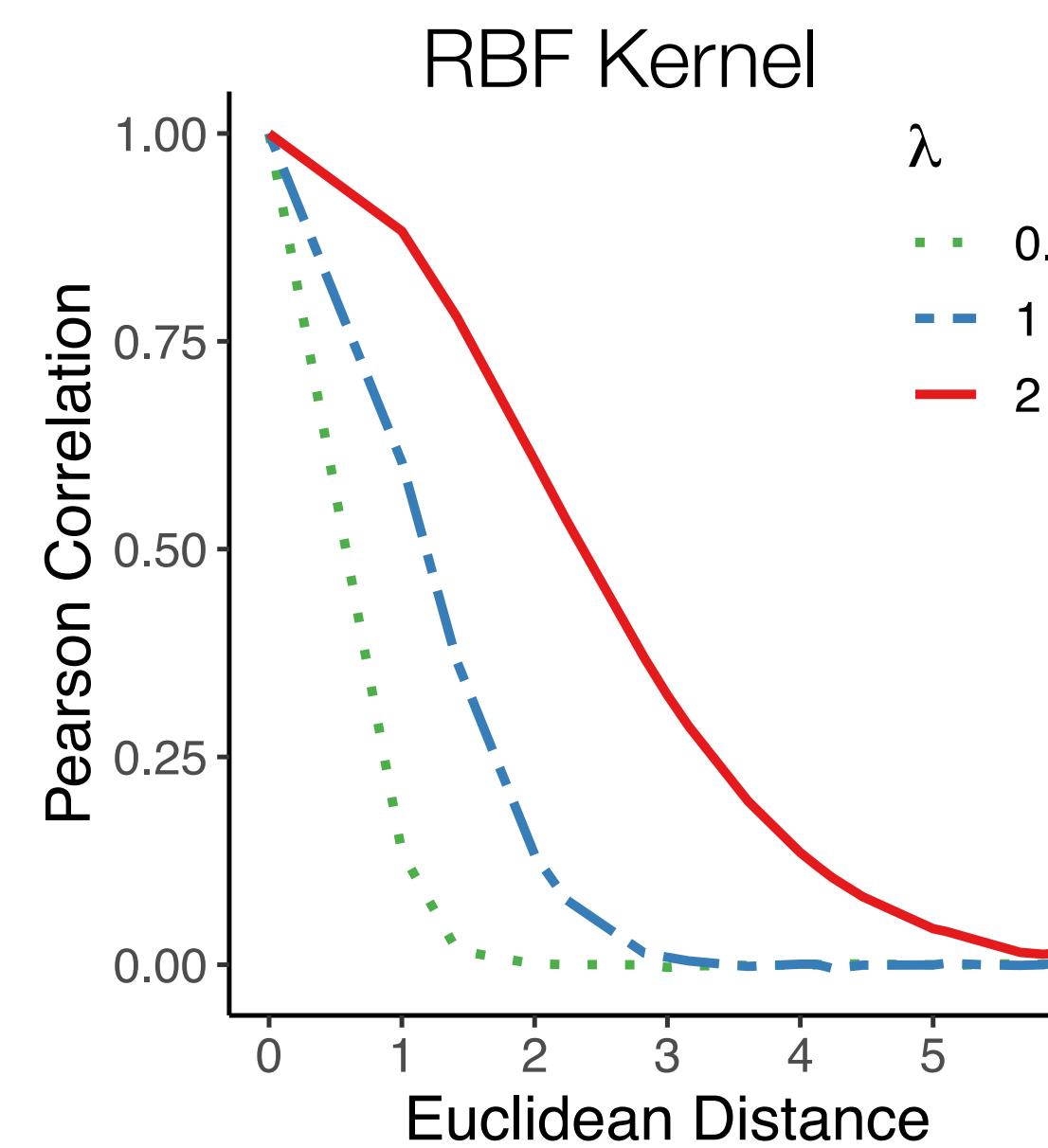
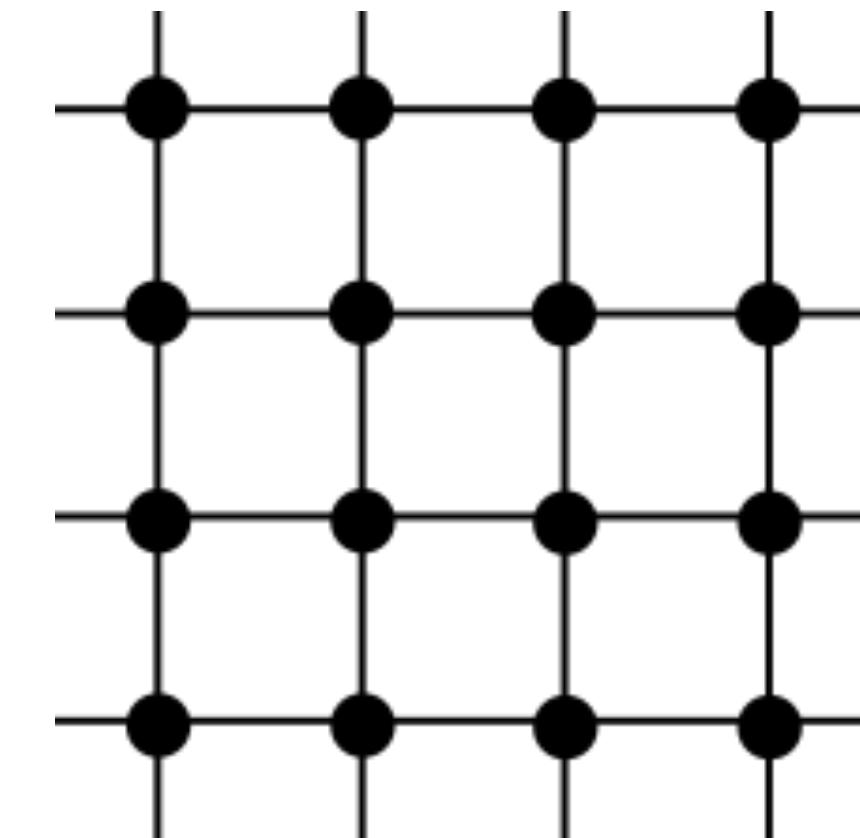
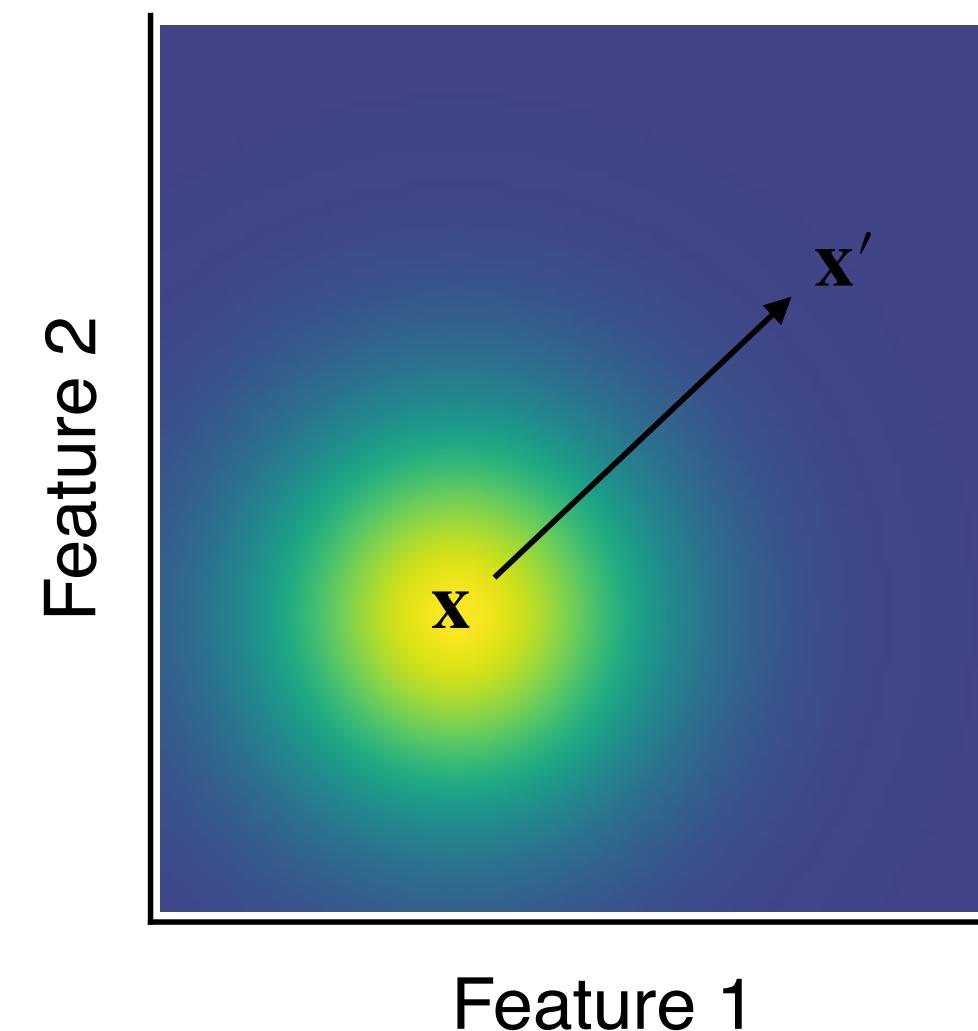
From continuous to structured spaces



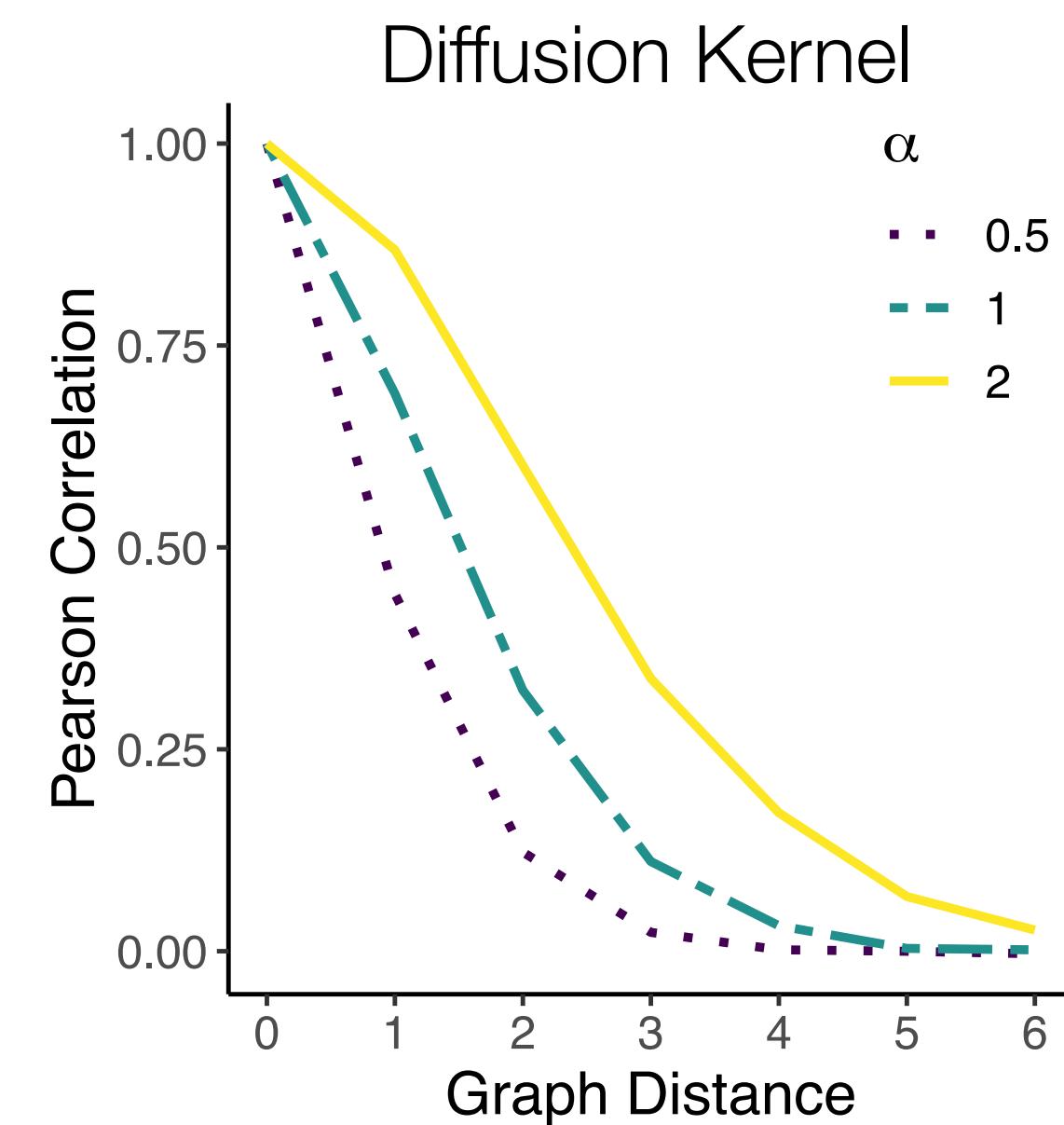
From continuous to structured spaces



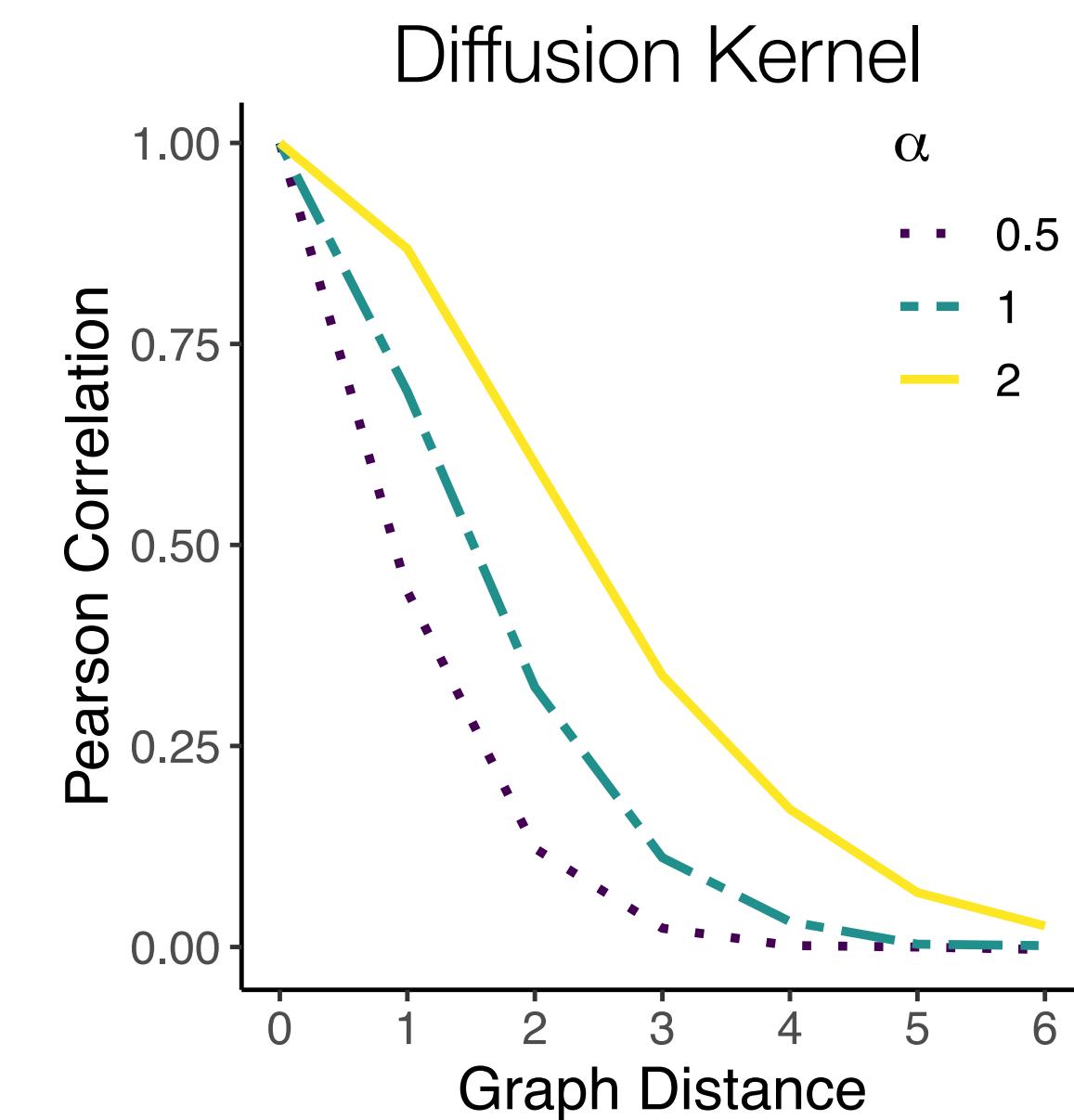
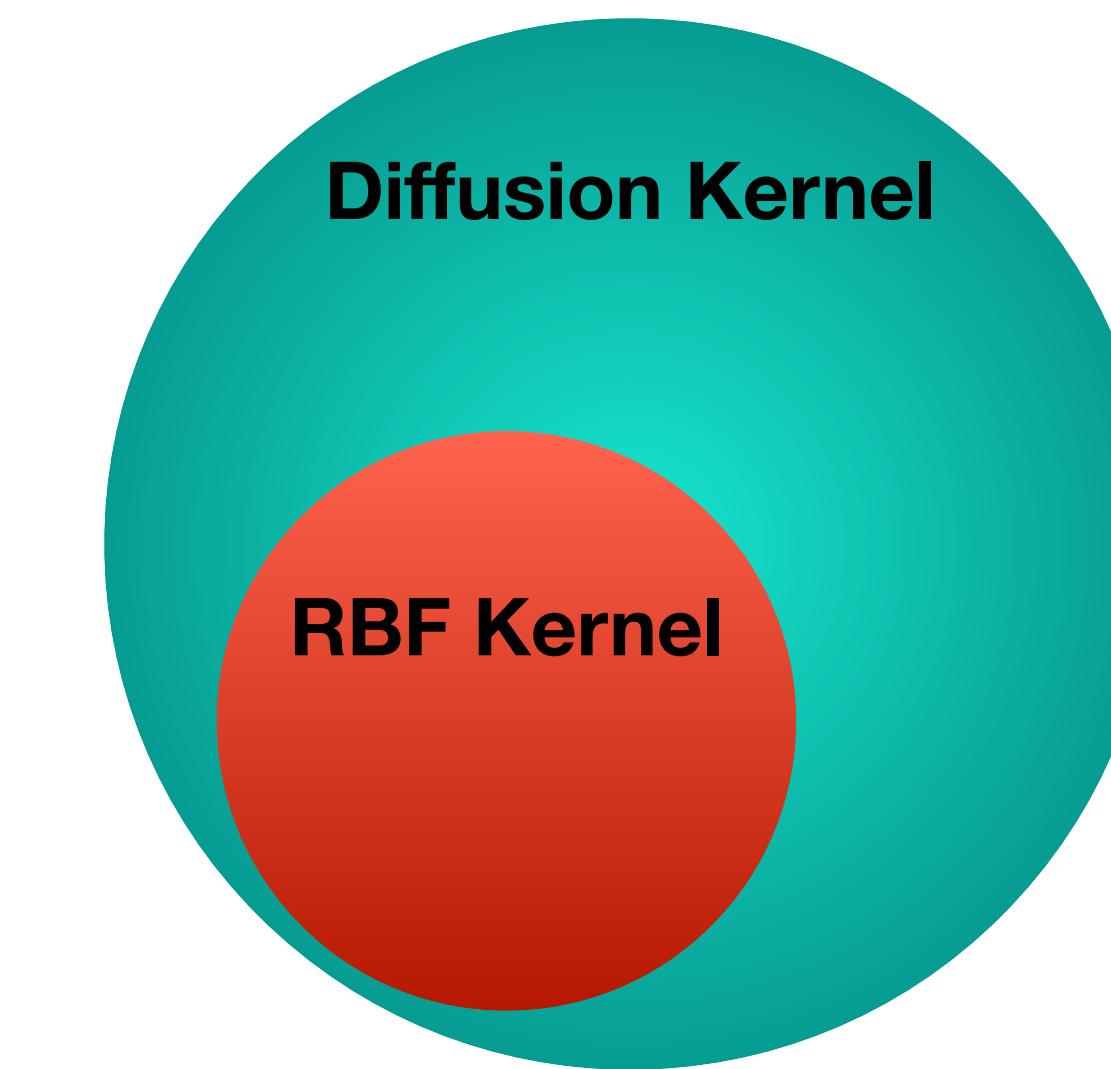
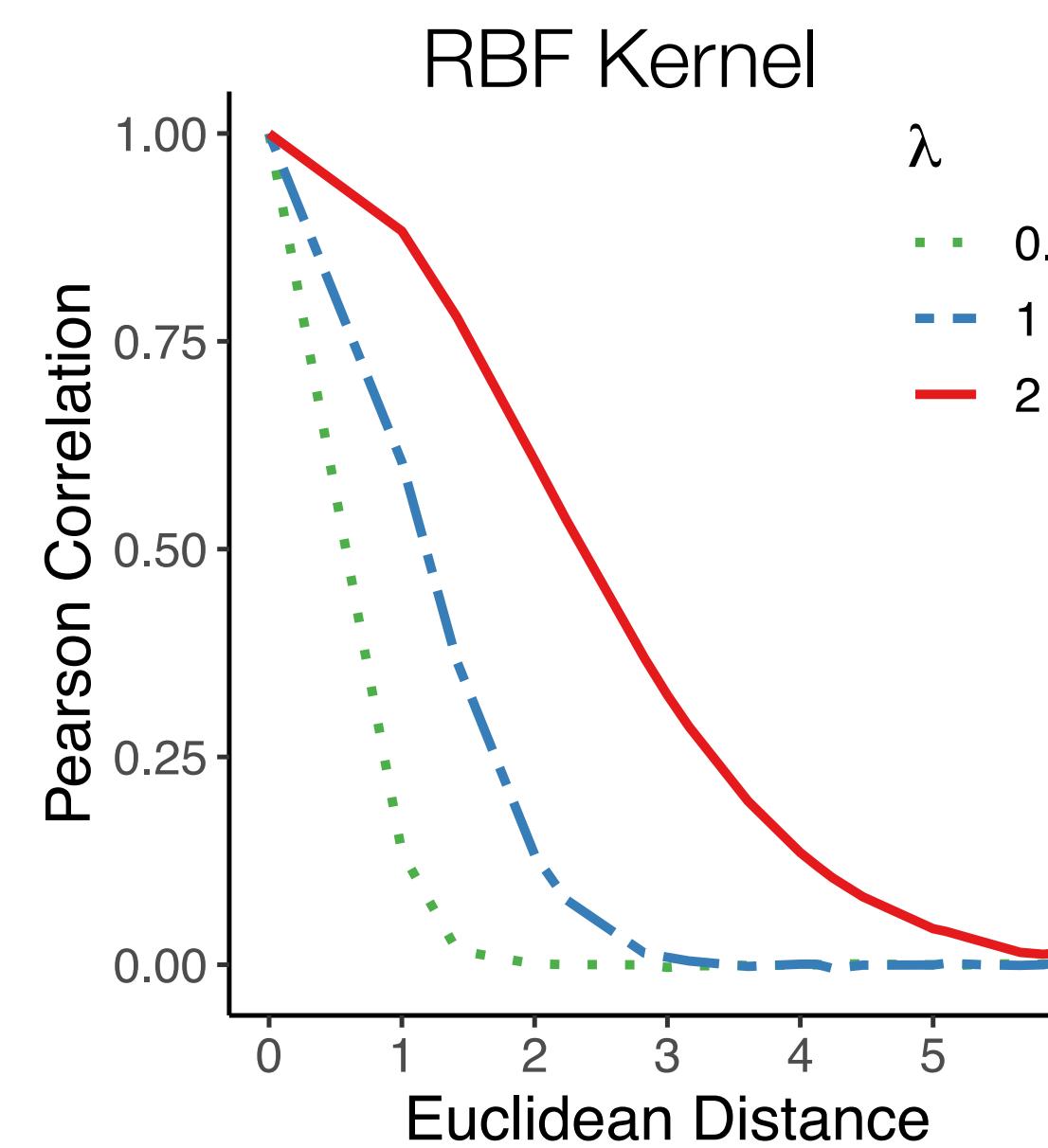
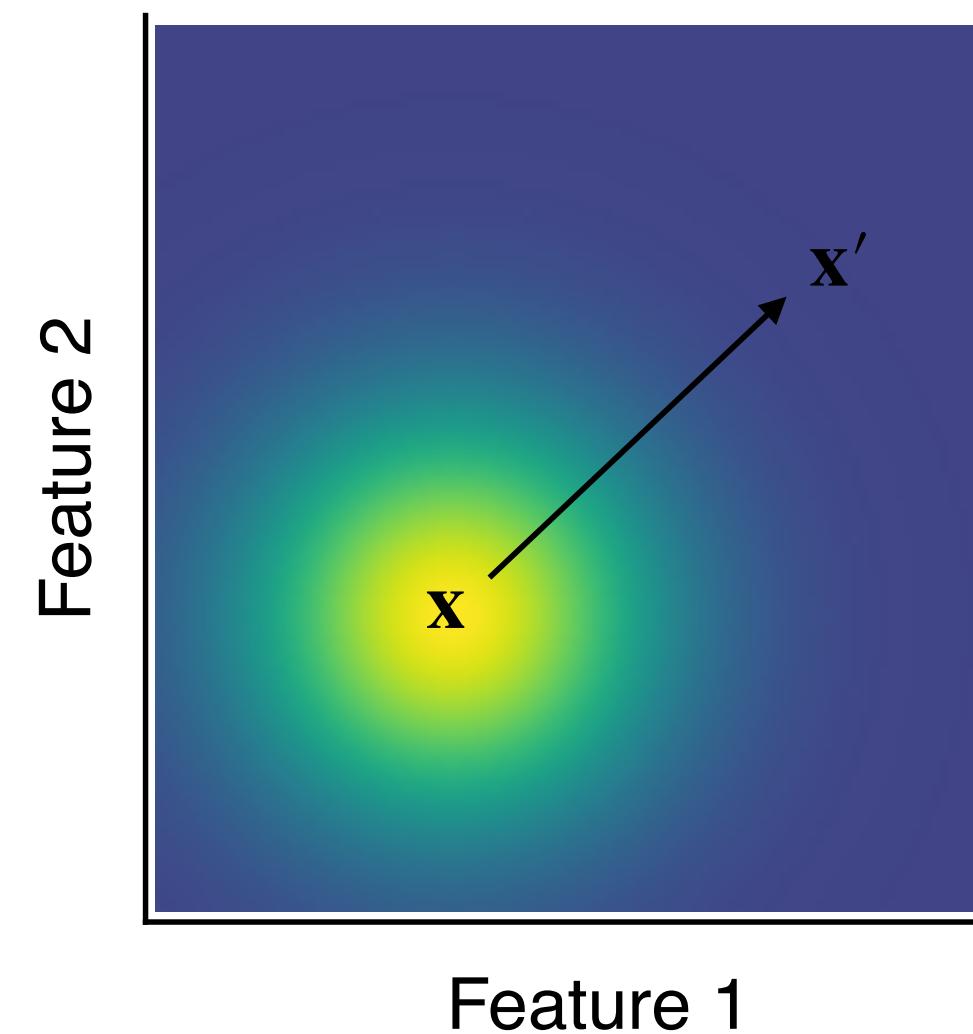
From continuous to structured spaces



=

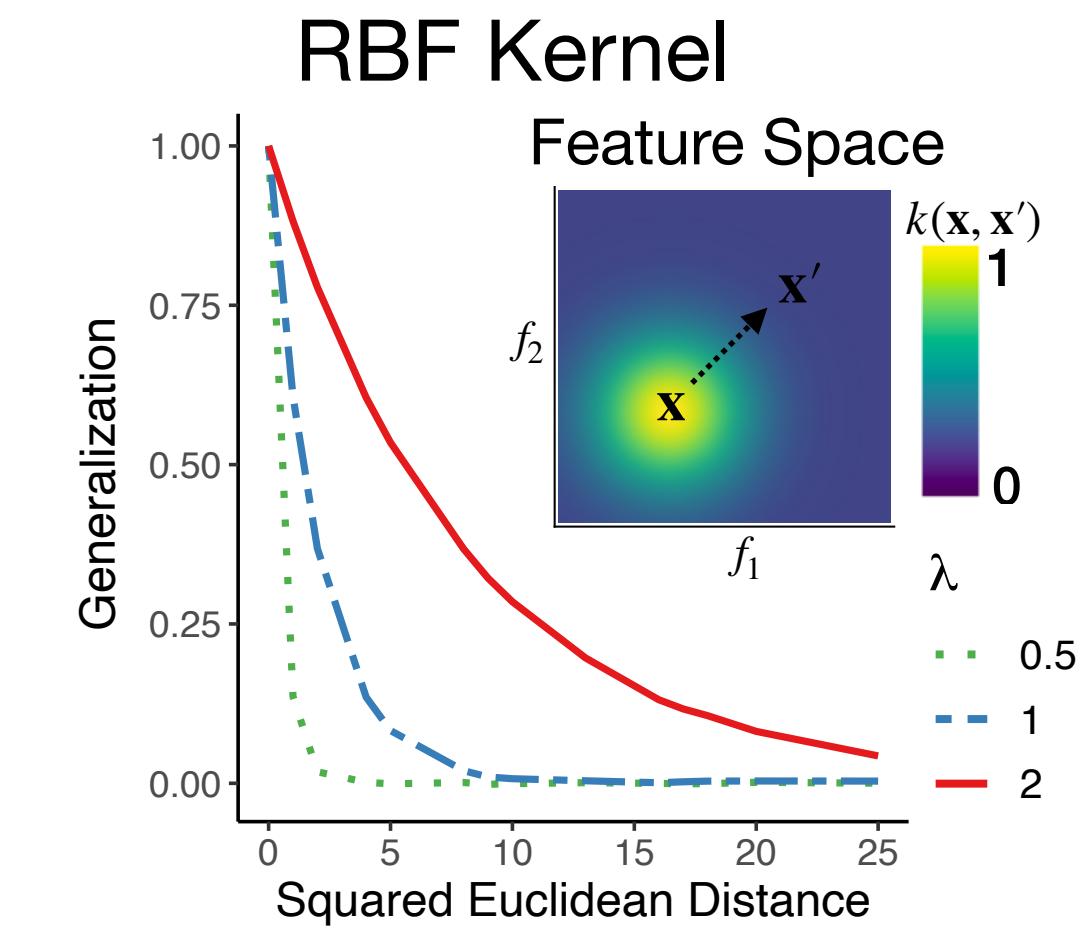


From continuous to structured spaces



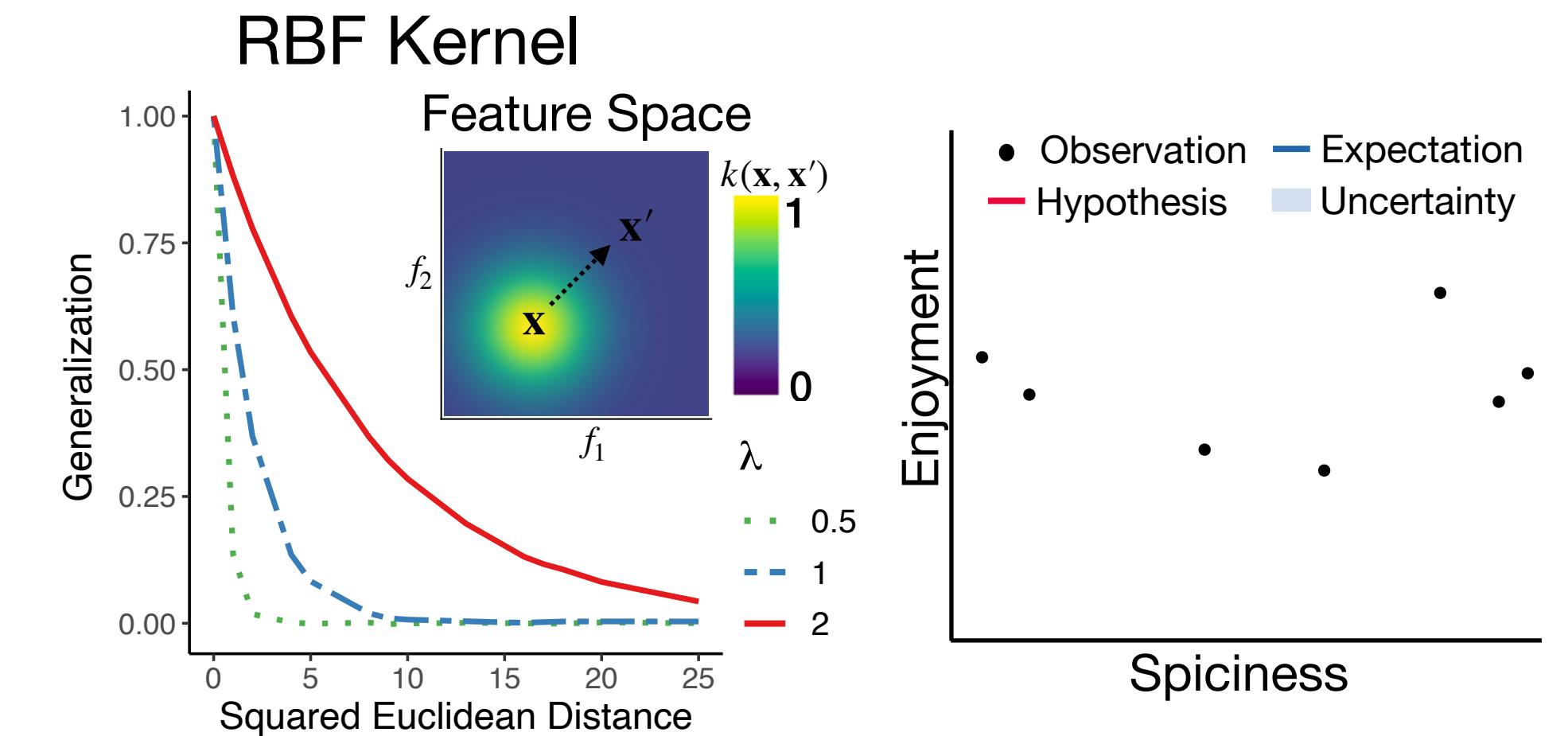
Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
 - Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain



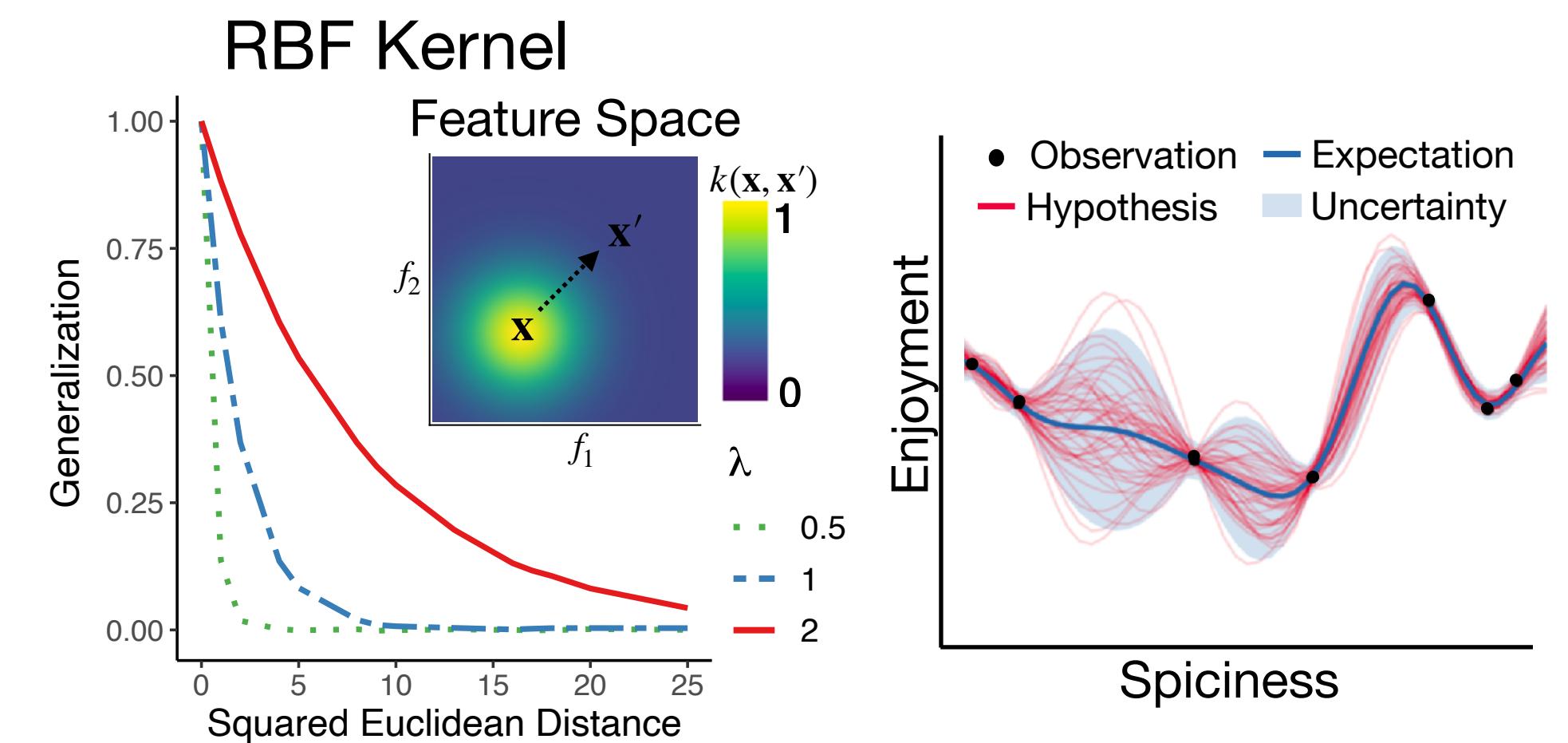
Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
- Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain



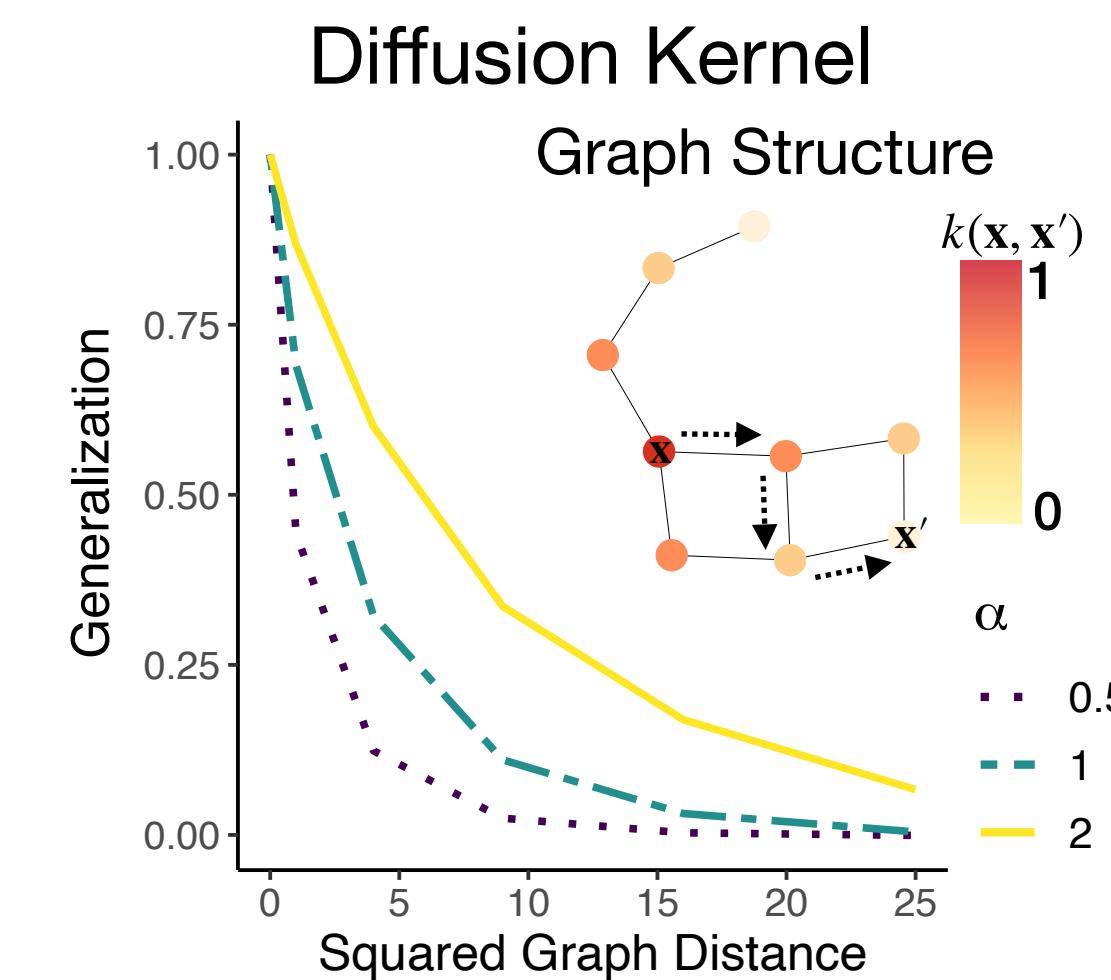
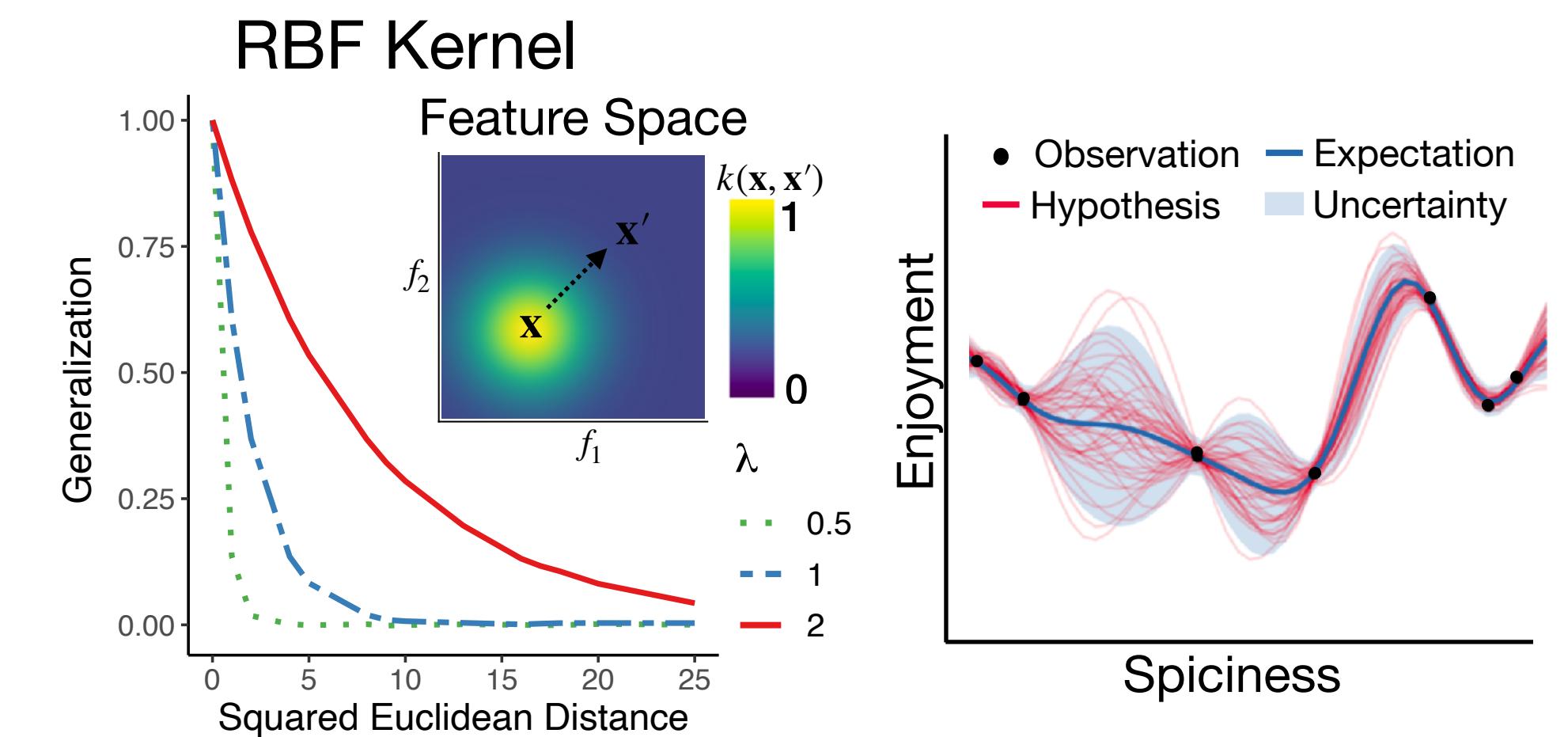
Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
 - Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain



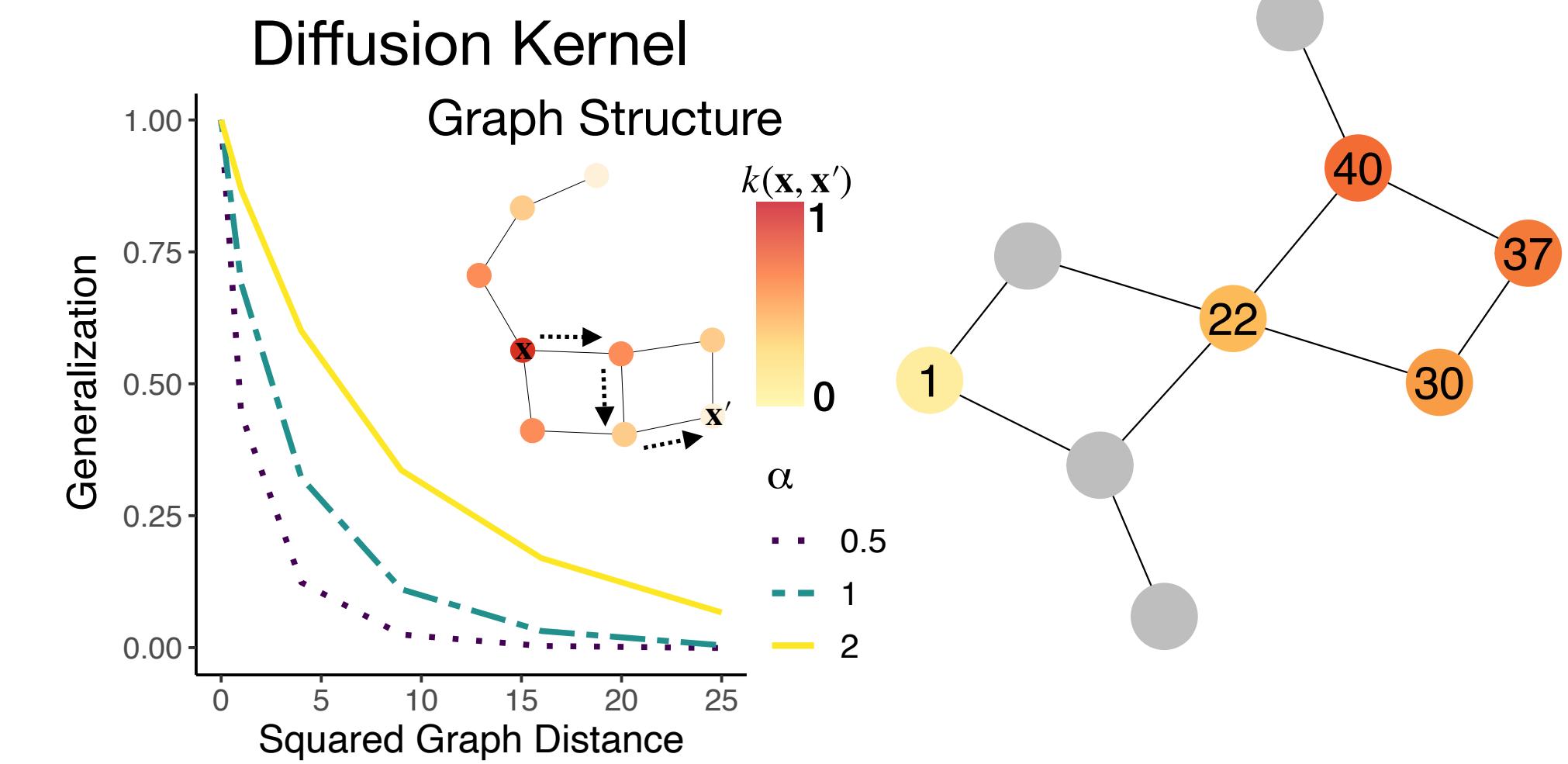
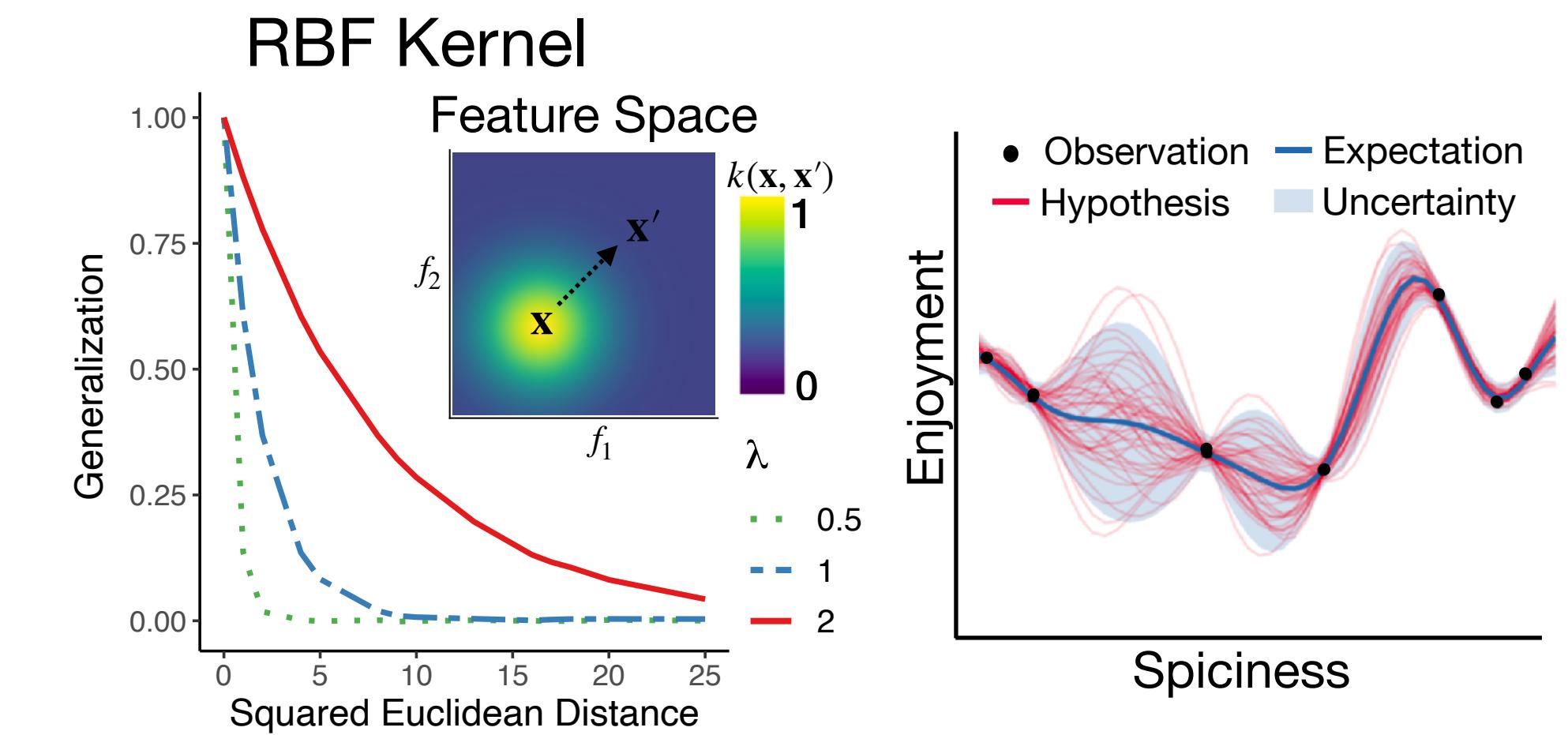
Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
 - Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain
- A diffusion kernel represents similarity based on the connectivity of a graph
 - Learns functions on discrete graph representations



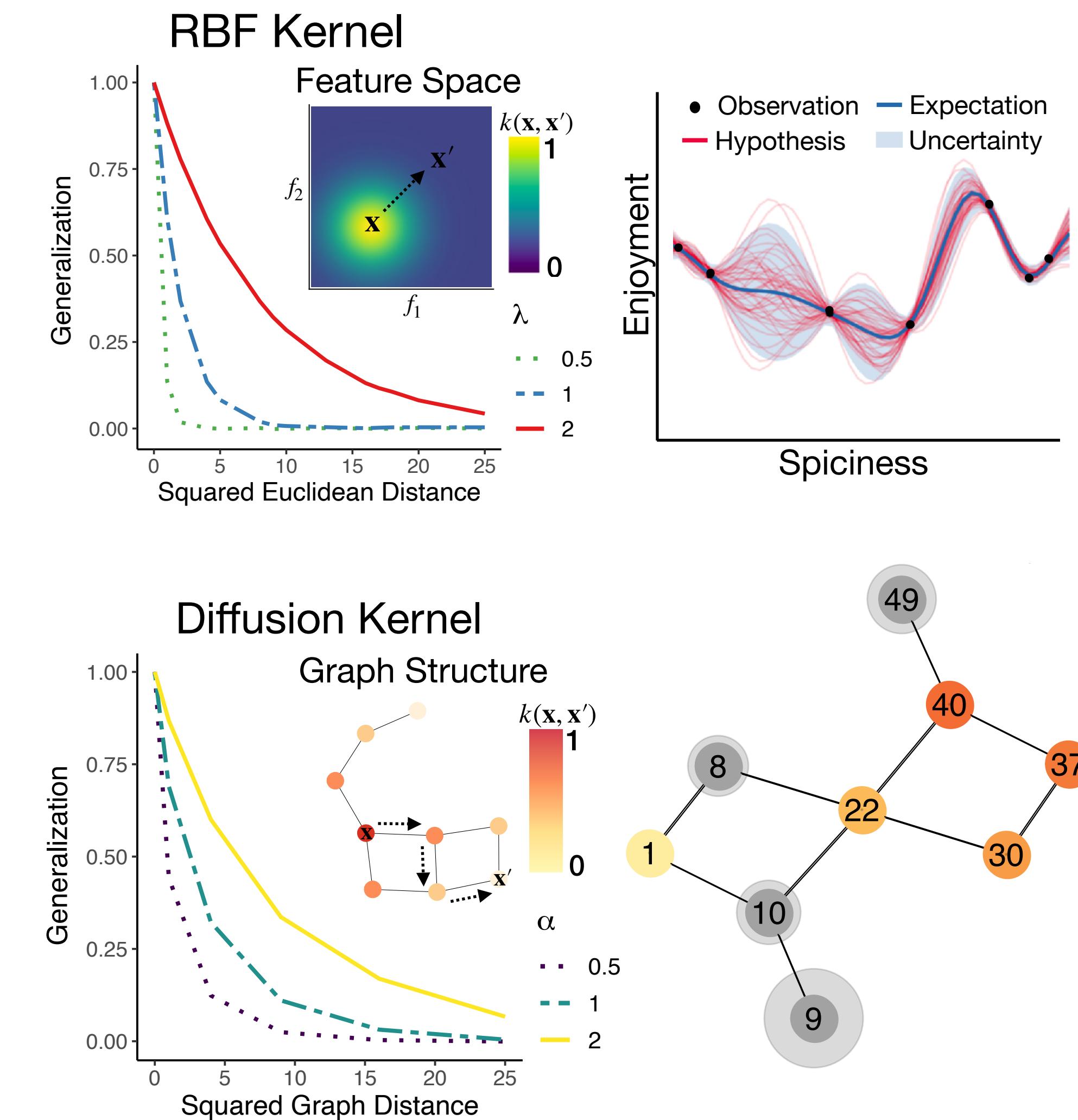
Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
 - Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain
- A diffusion kernel represents similarity based on the connectivity of a graph
 - Learns functions on discrete graph representations



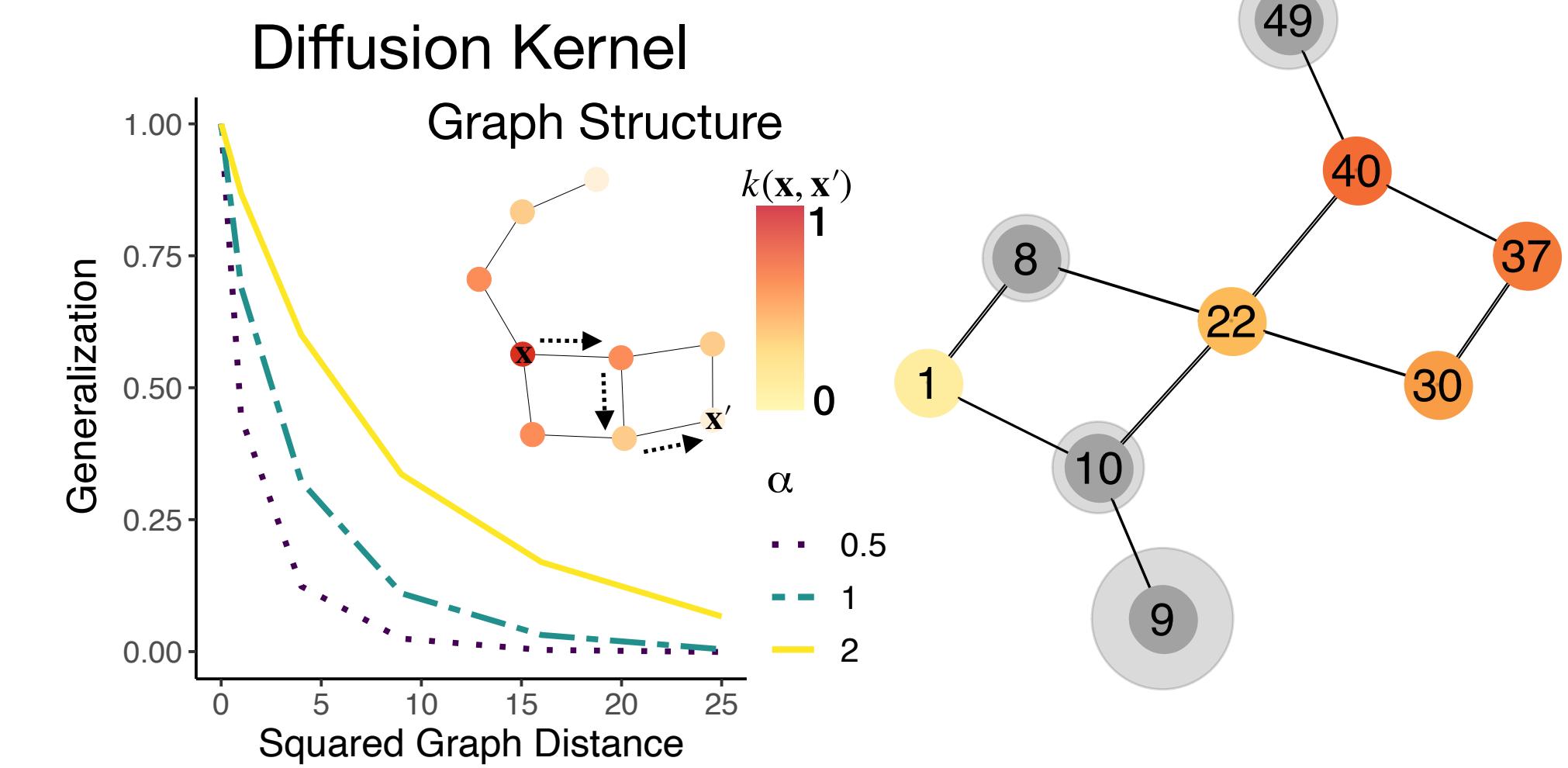
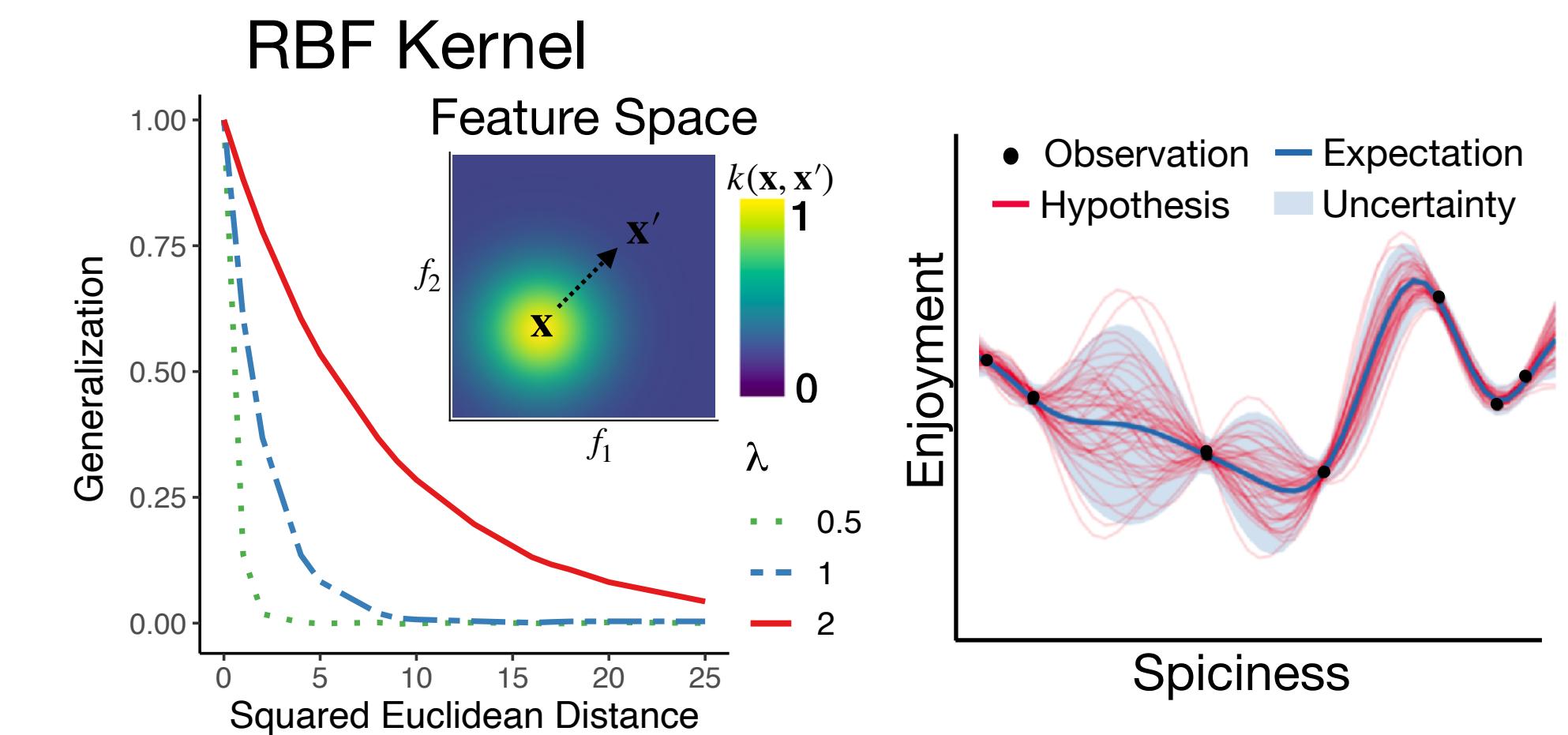
Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
 - Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain
- A diffusion kernel represents similarity based on the connectivity of a graph
 - Learns functions on discrete graph representations

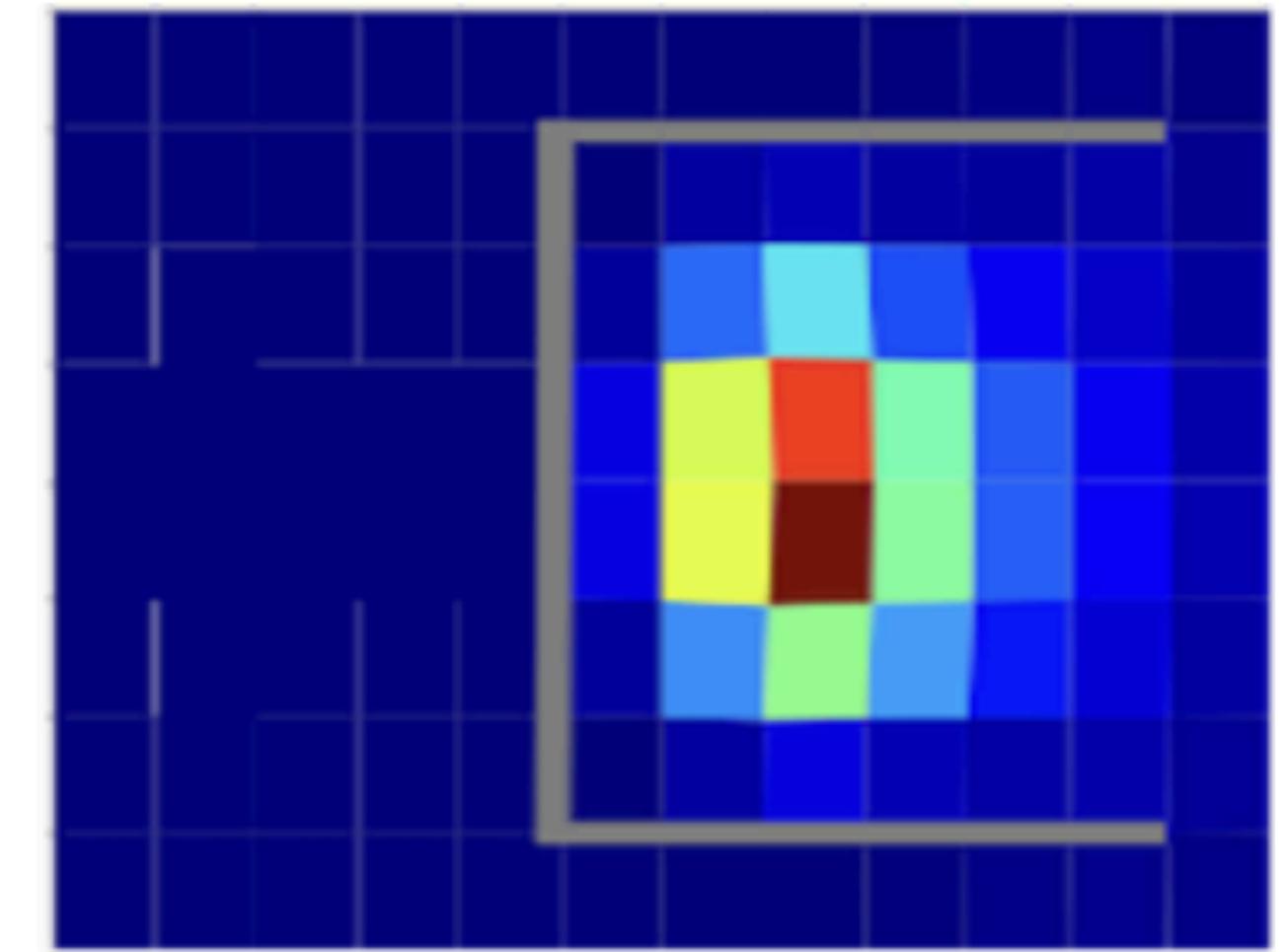
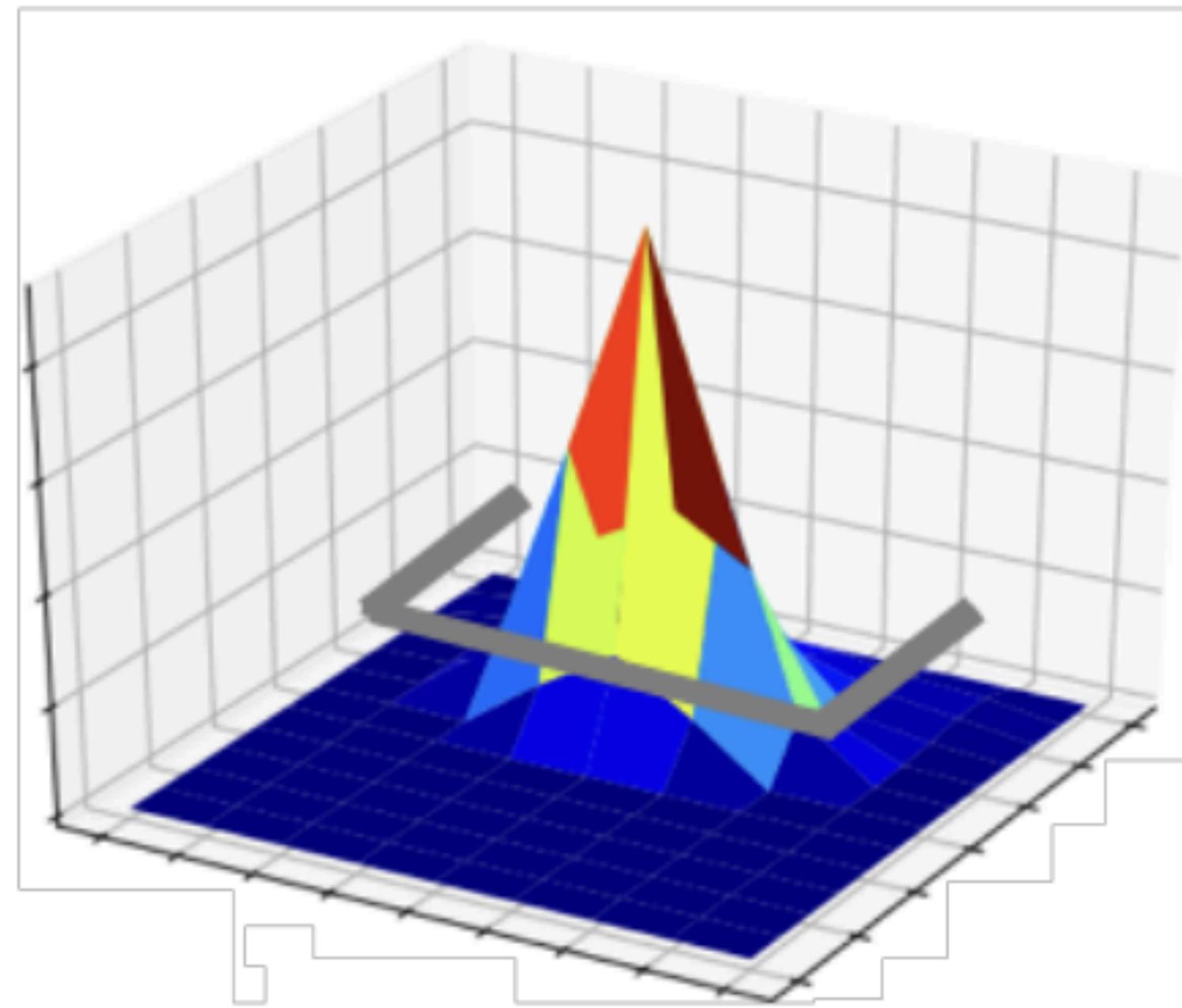
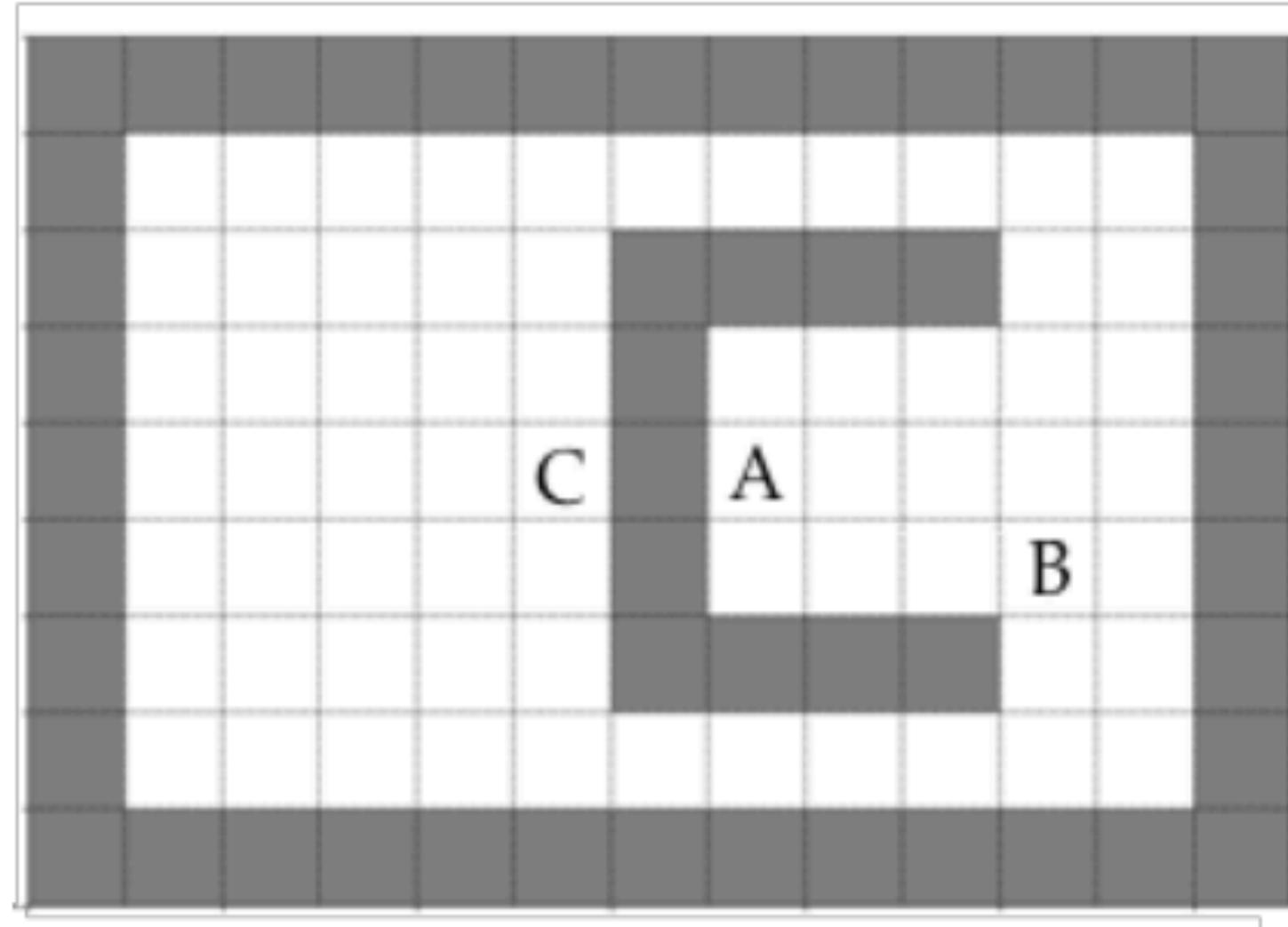


Similarity can also capture relational structure

- The RBF kernel, like most classic accounts, represent similarity as distance in feature space
 - Learns smooth functions in a continuous domain
- A diffusion kernel represents similarity based on the connectivity of a graph
 - Learns functions on discrete graph representations
 - RBF kernel = Diffusion kernel in the limit of an infinitely fine lattice graph



Generalization based on transition dynamics



Machado et al. (*ICLR* 2018)

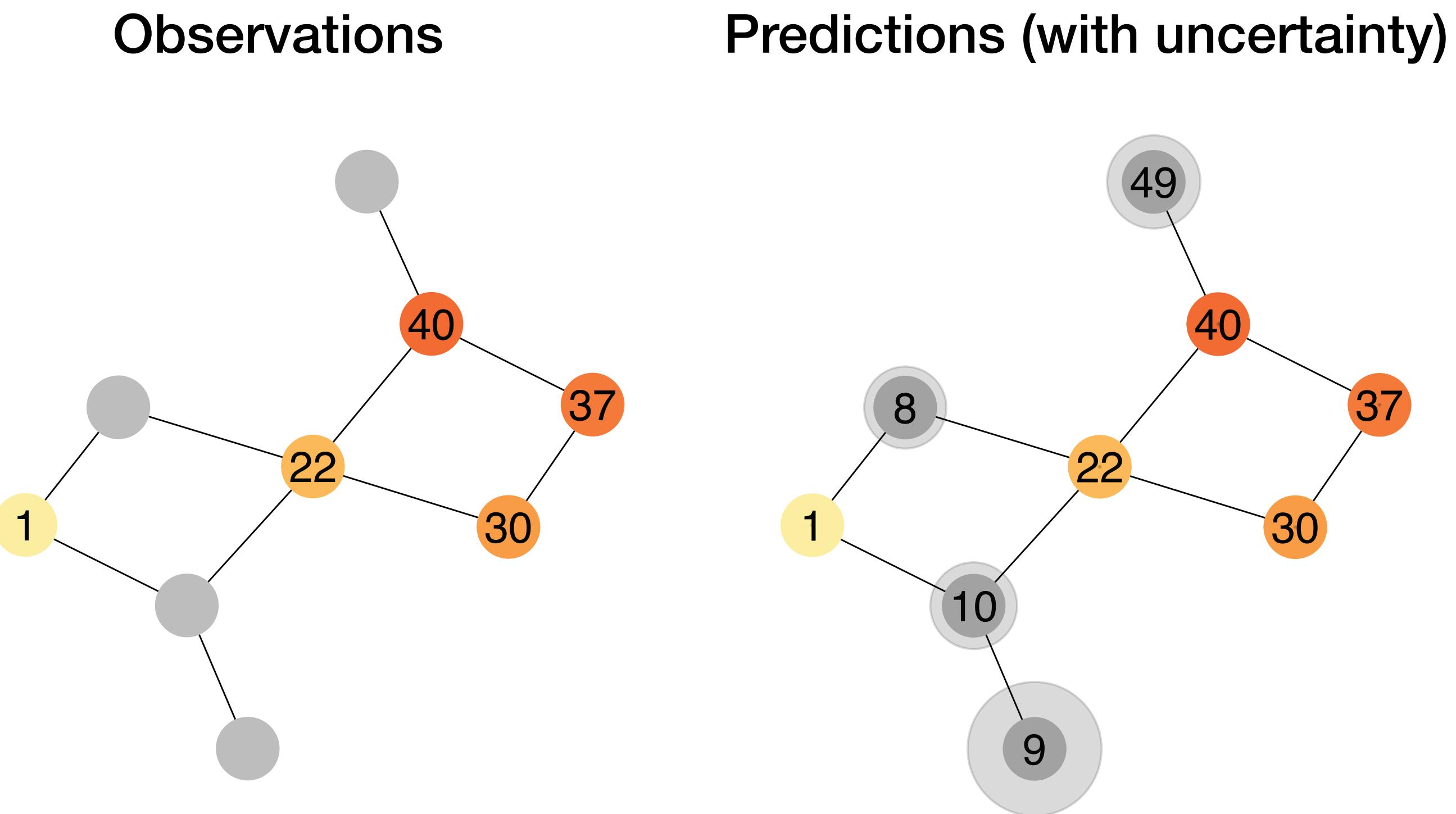
- A indicates a reward
- Even though C is closer than B, the transition dynamics of the environment make it easier for B to reach A

Diffusion Kernel

- Rather than similarity between features, we use the connectivity structure of the graph to define similarity

$$k_{DF}(s, s') = \exp(-\alpha L)$$

- Where L is the graph Laplacian
- α is a free parameter (diffusion level)
- The diffusion kernel assumes function values diffuse across the graph according to a random walk



Experiment 1

Prediction Task

Current Network: 4/30
Current Weighted Error: 10.19

How many passengers do you think will be observed at the selected station?

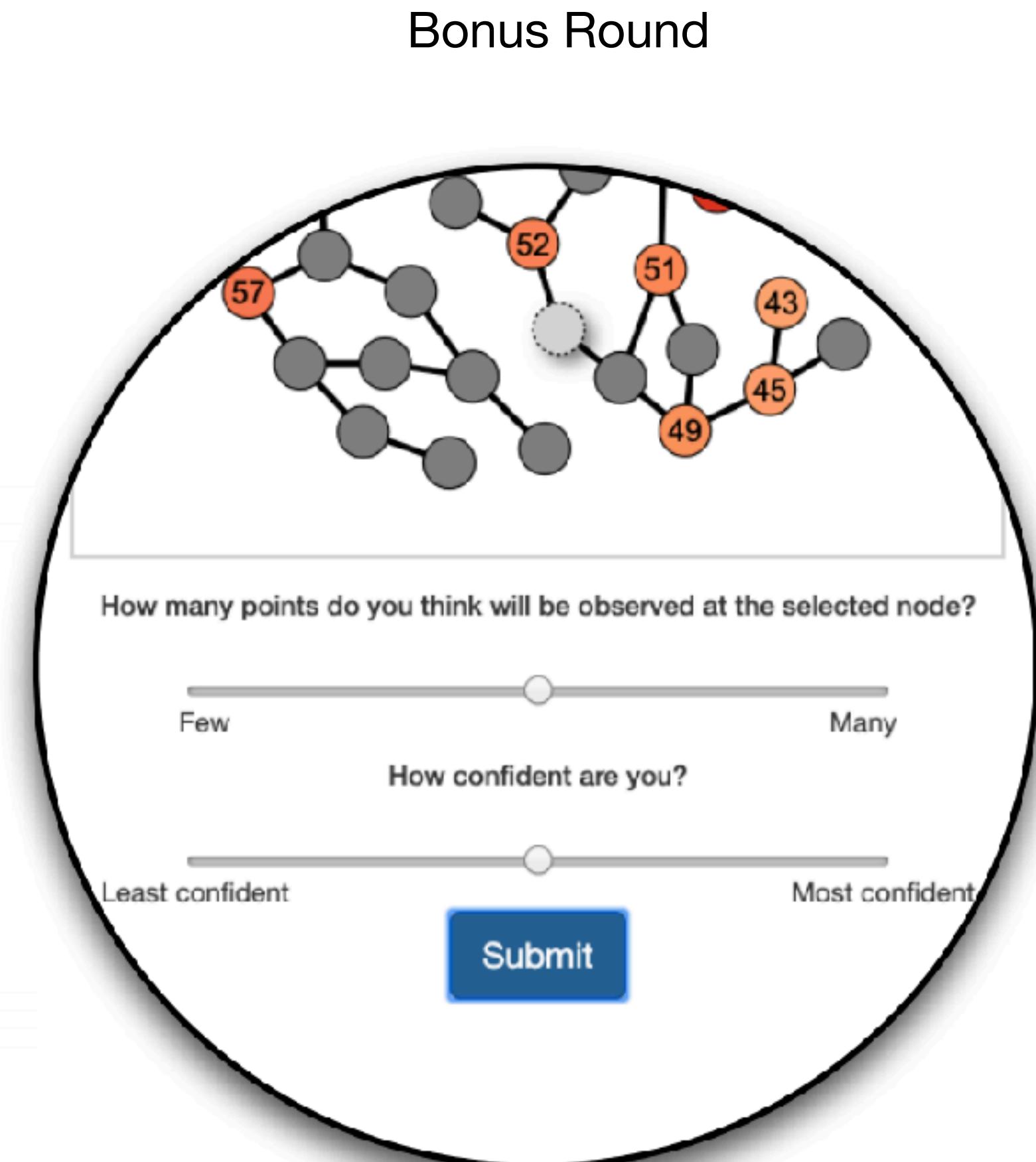
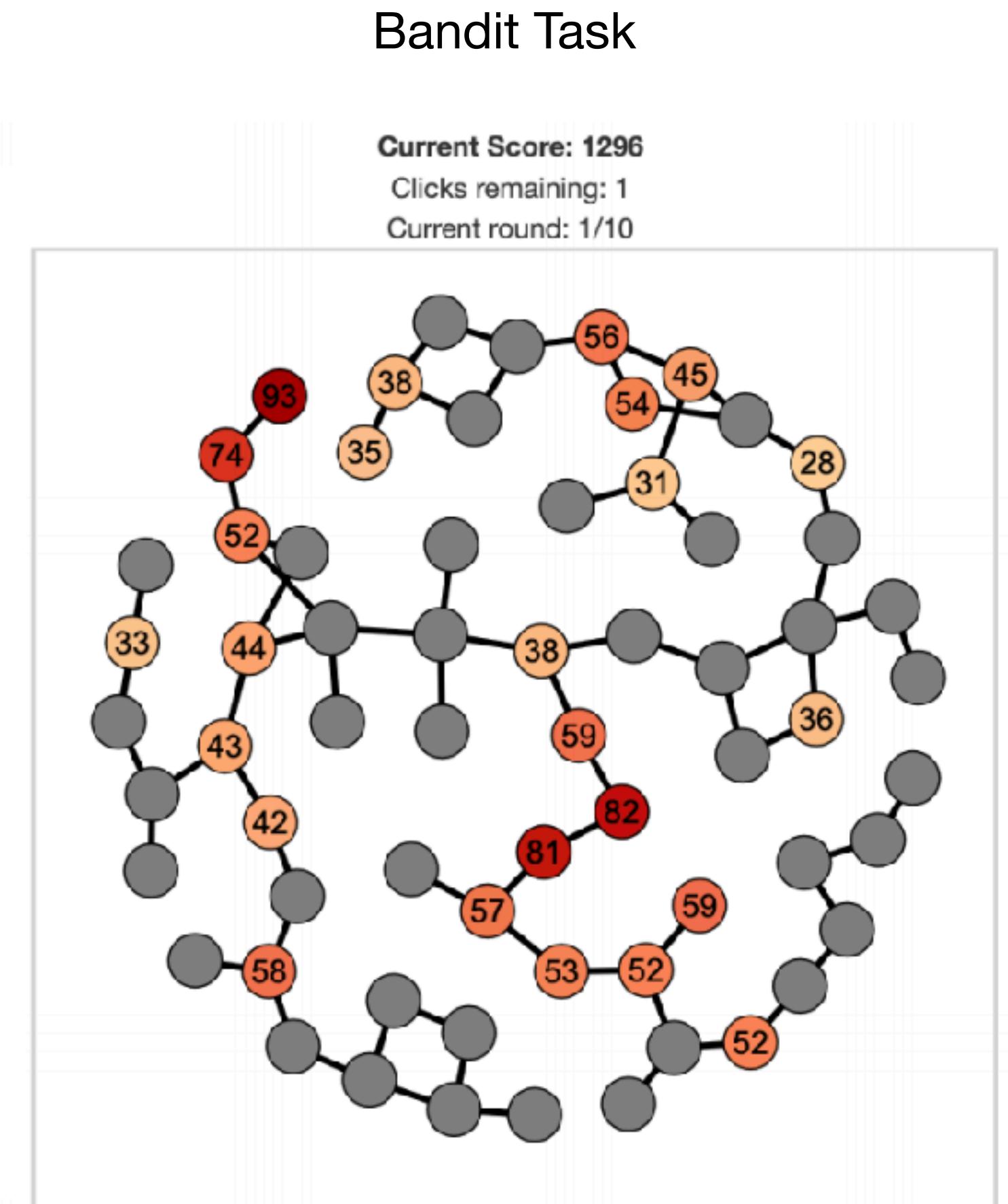
Few Many

How confident are you?

Not very confident Highly confident

Submit

Experiment 2



Experiment 1

Prediction Task

Current Network: 4/30
Current Weighted Error: 10.19

How many passengers do you think will be observed at the selected station?

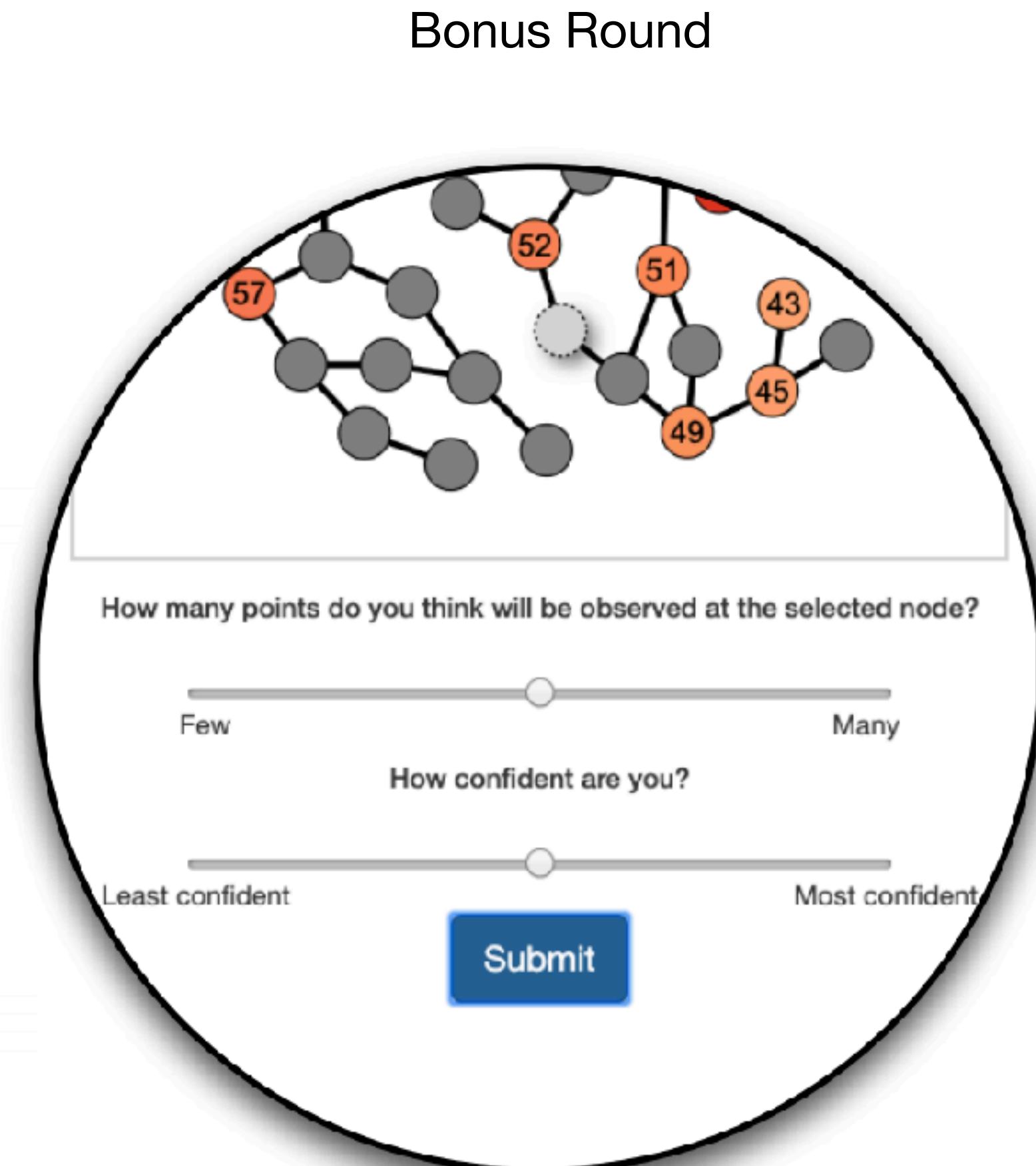
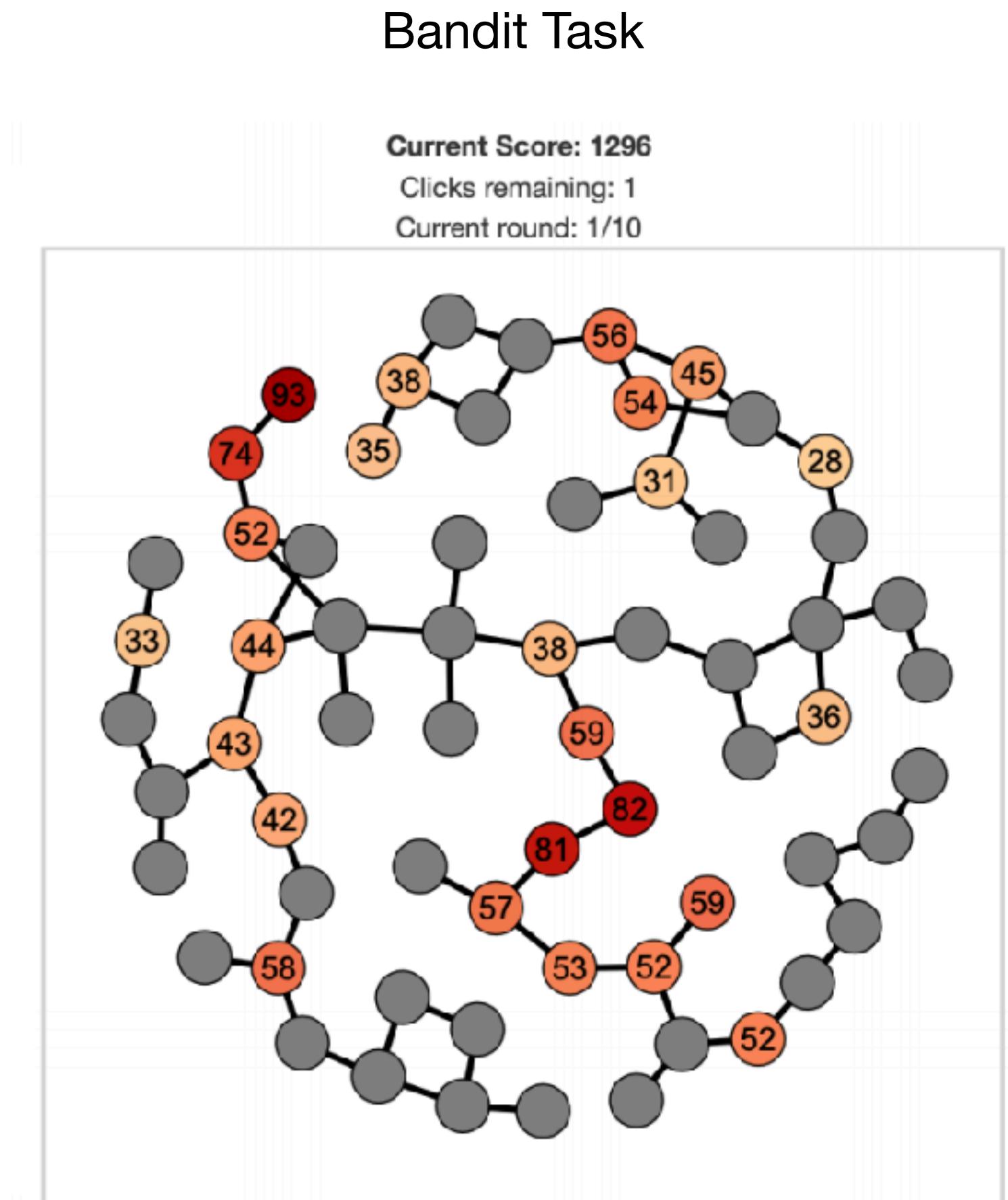
Few Many

How confident are you?

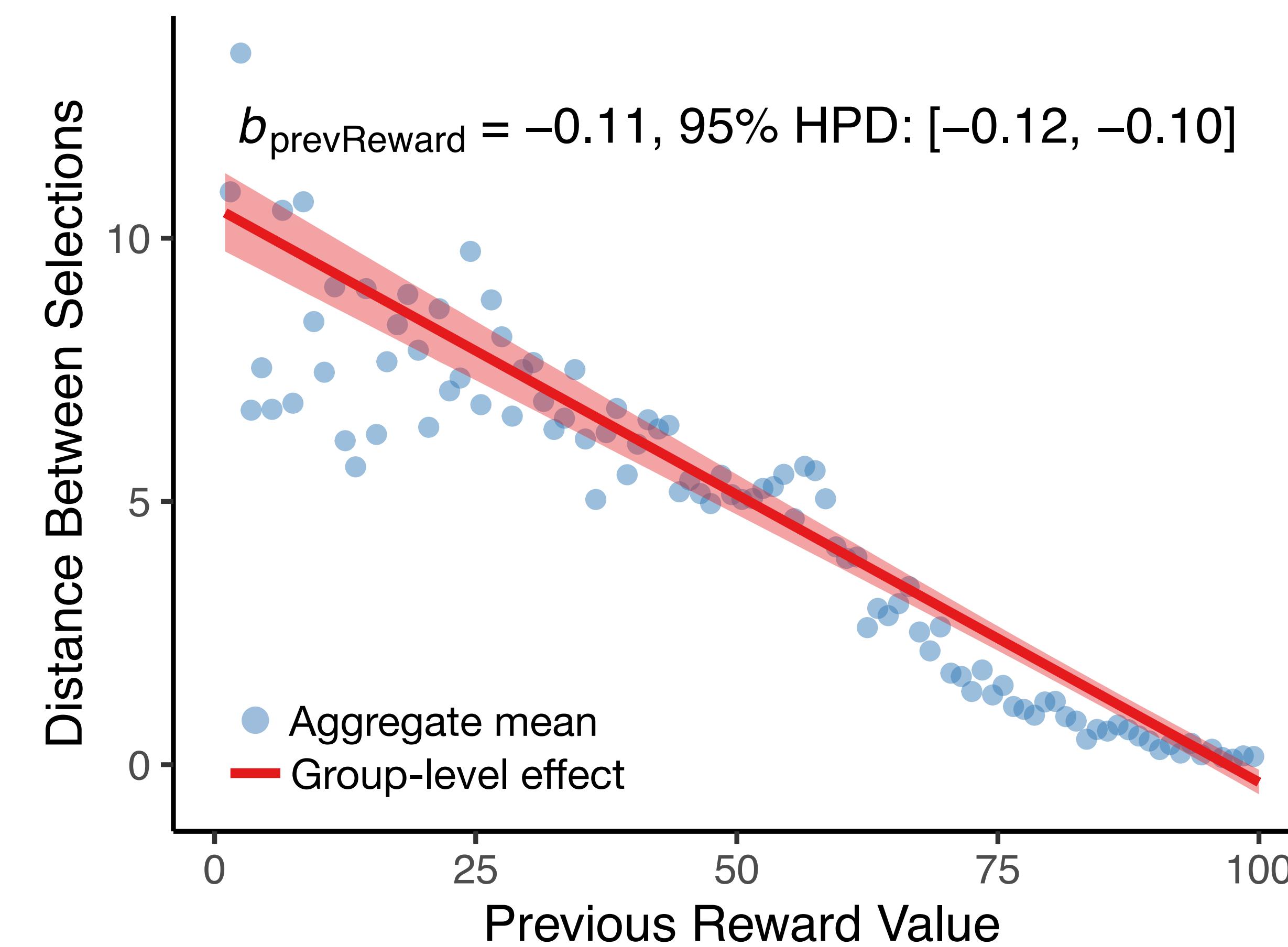
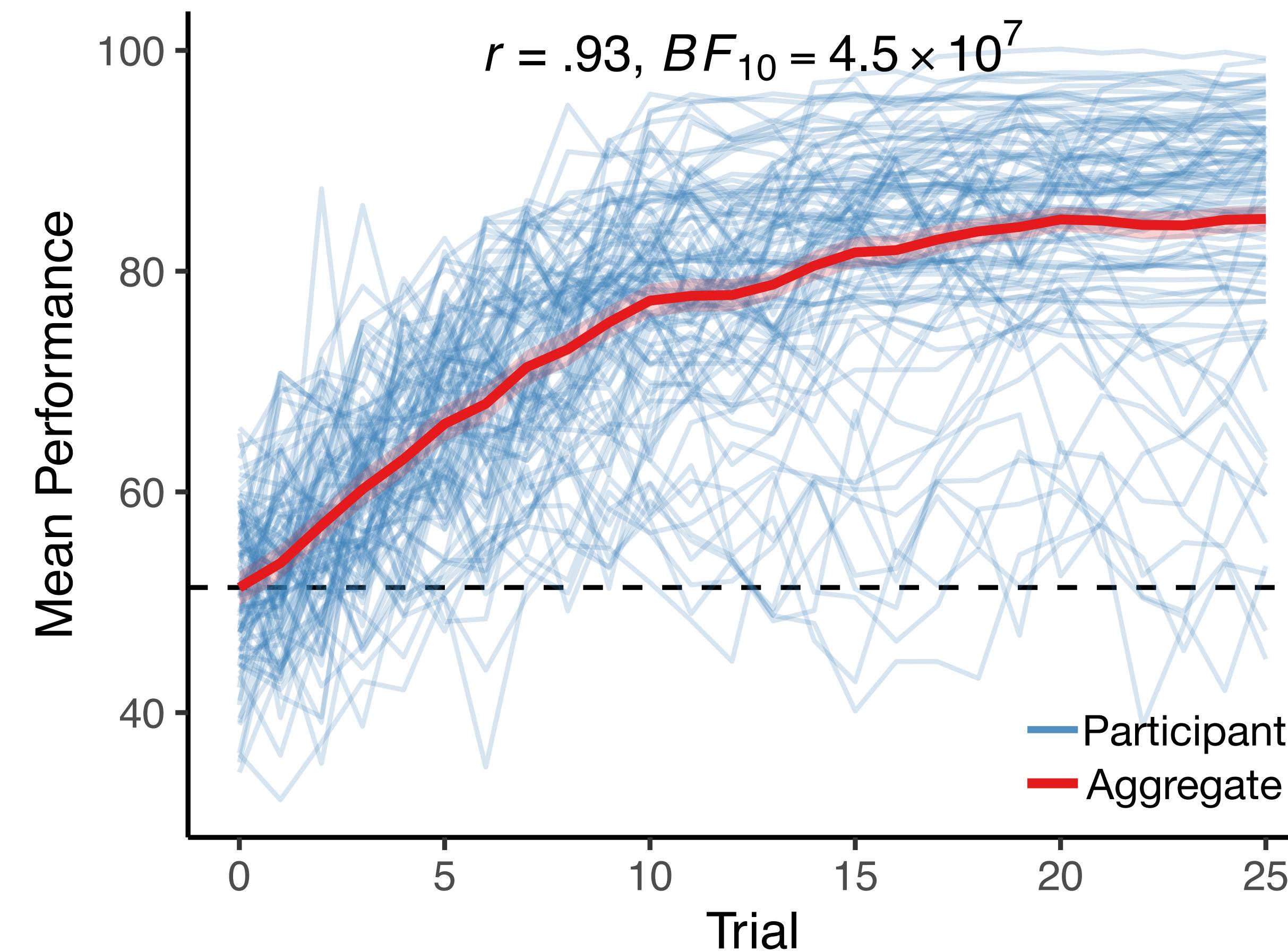
Not very confident Highly confident

Submit

Experiment 2

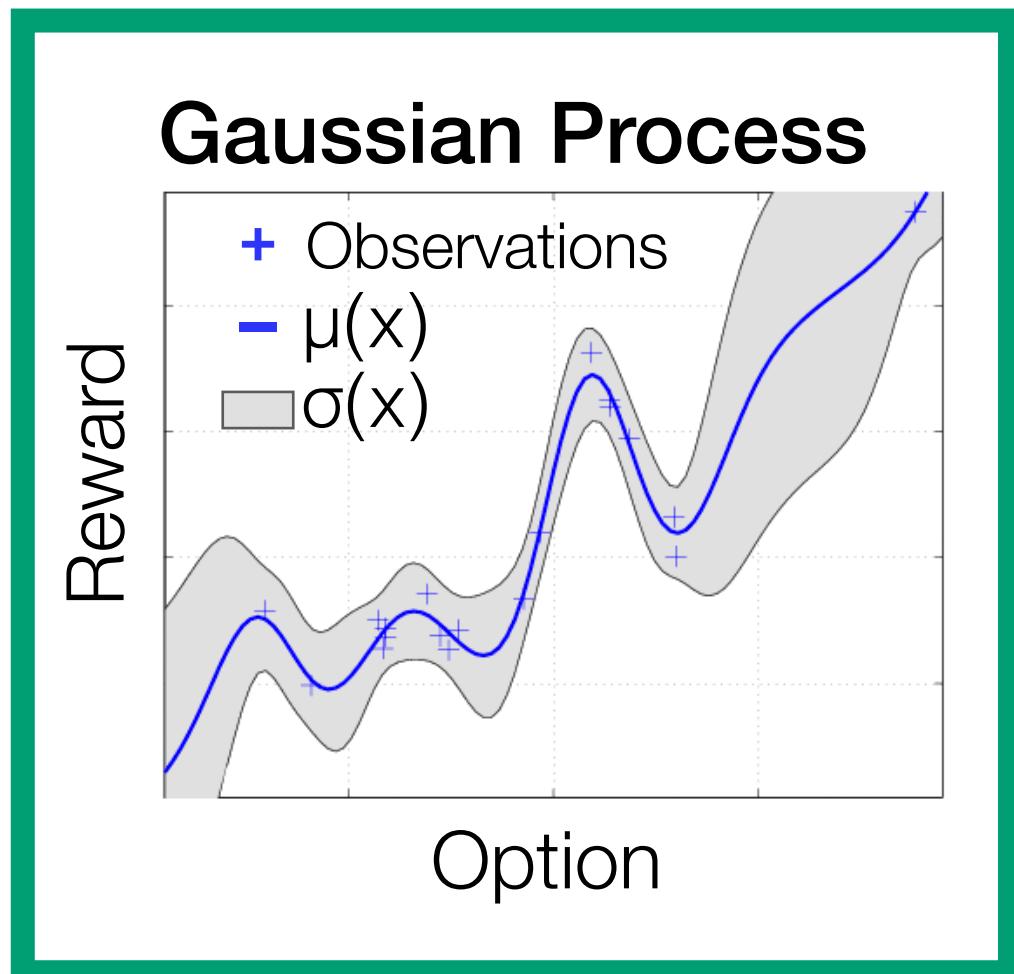


Behavioral Results

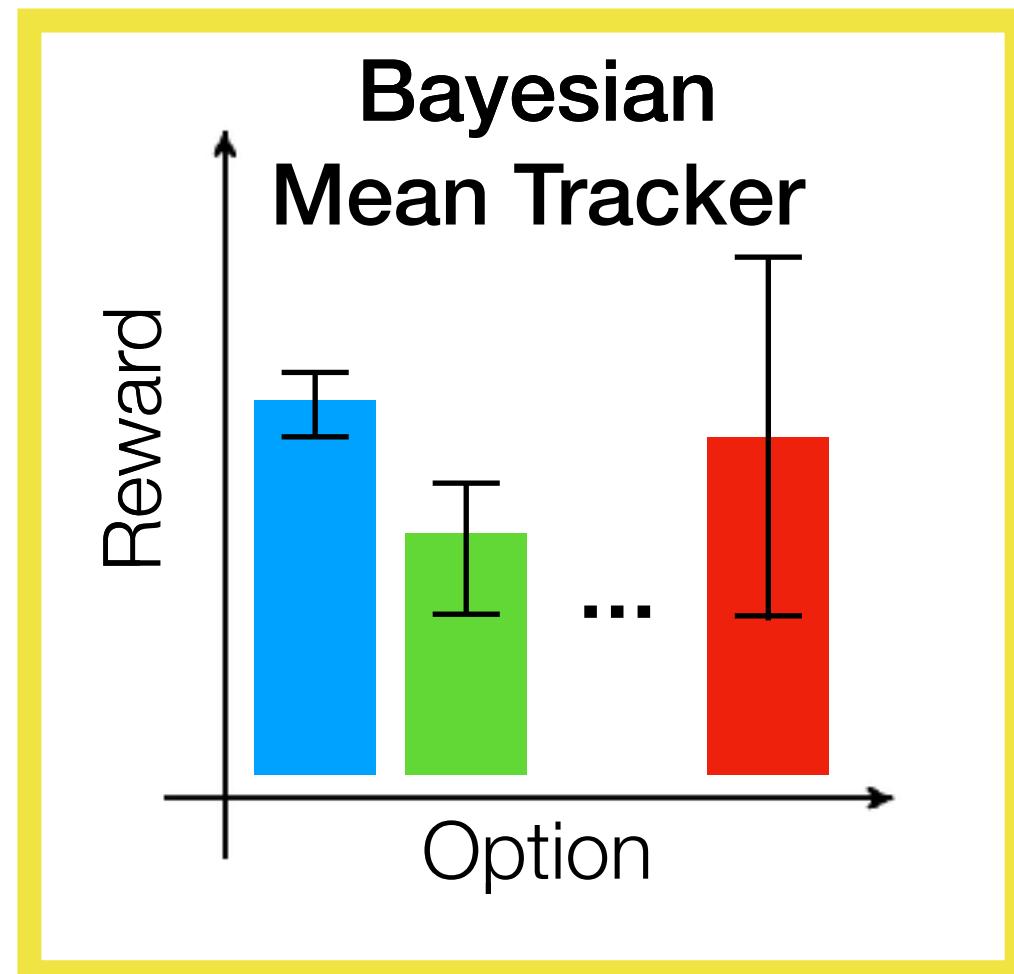


Model Results

Generalization

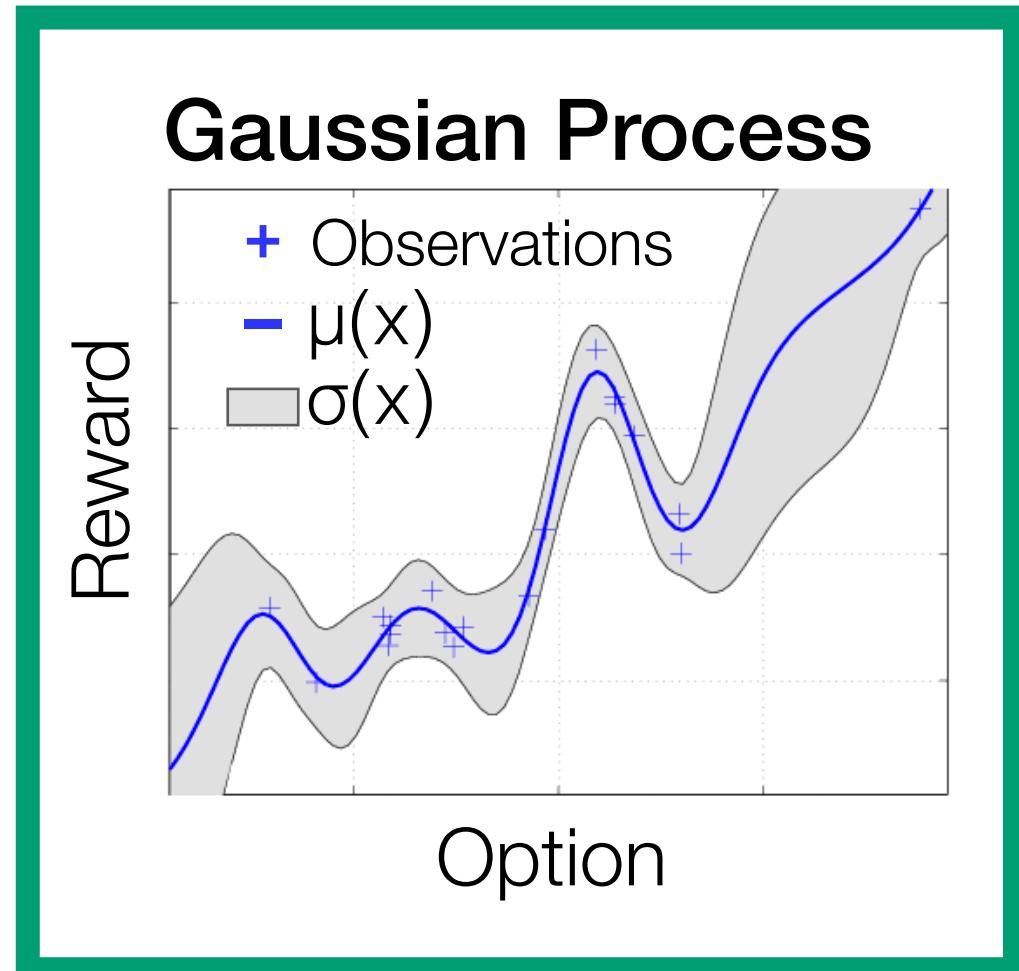


No generalization

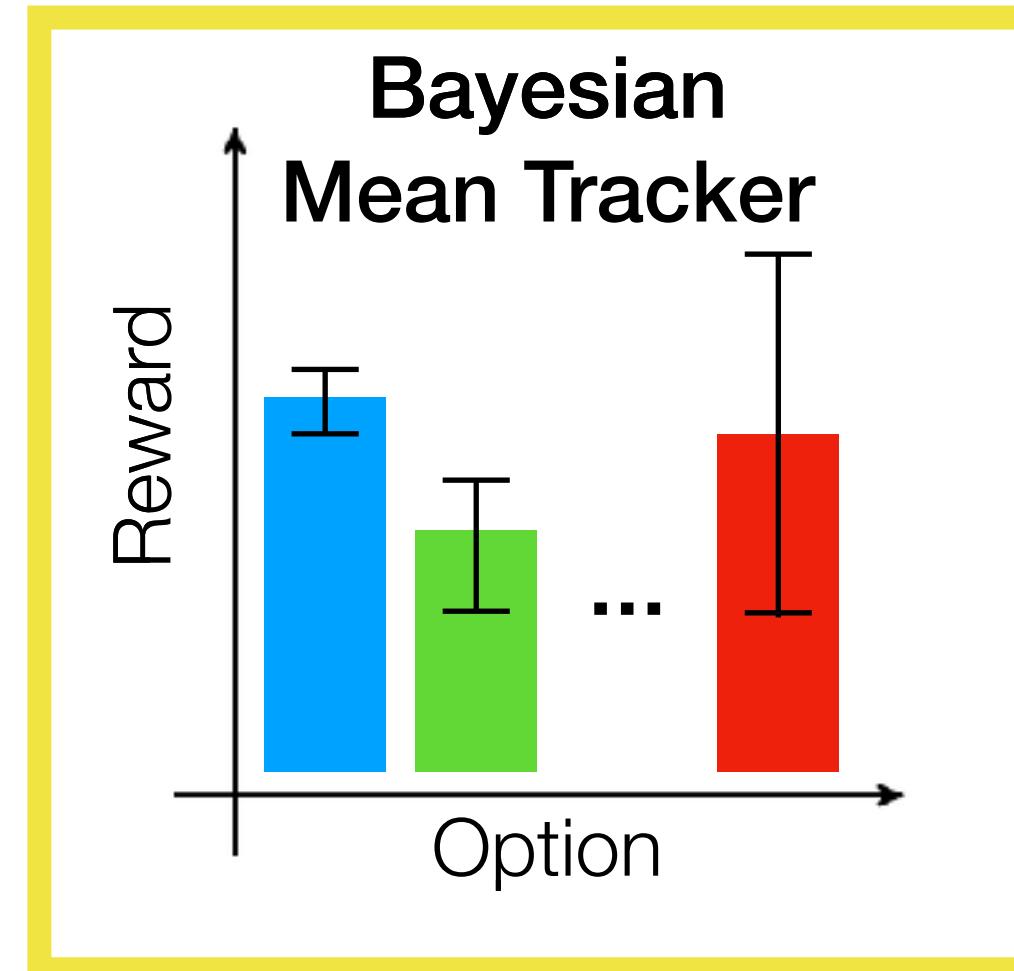


Model Results

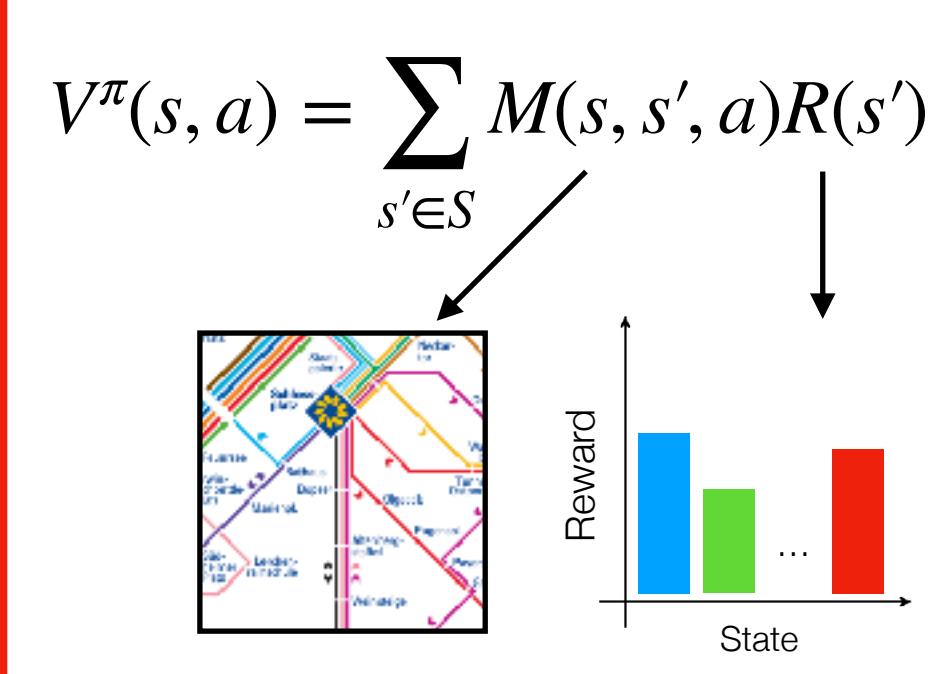
Generalization



No generalization

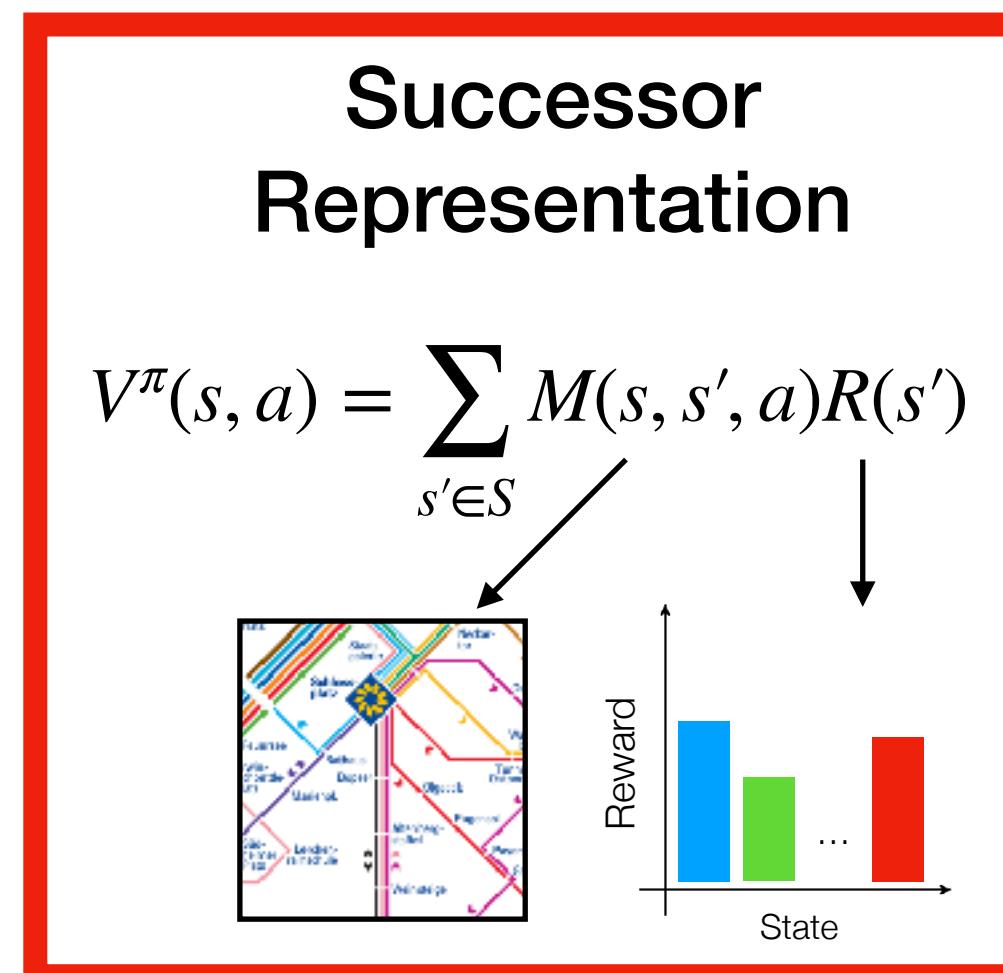
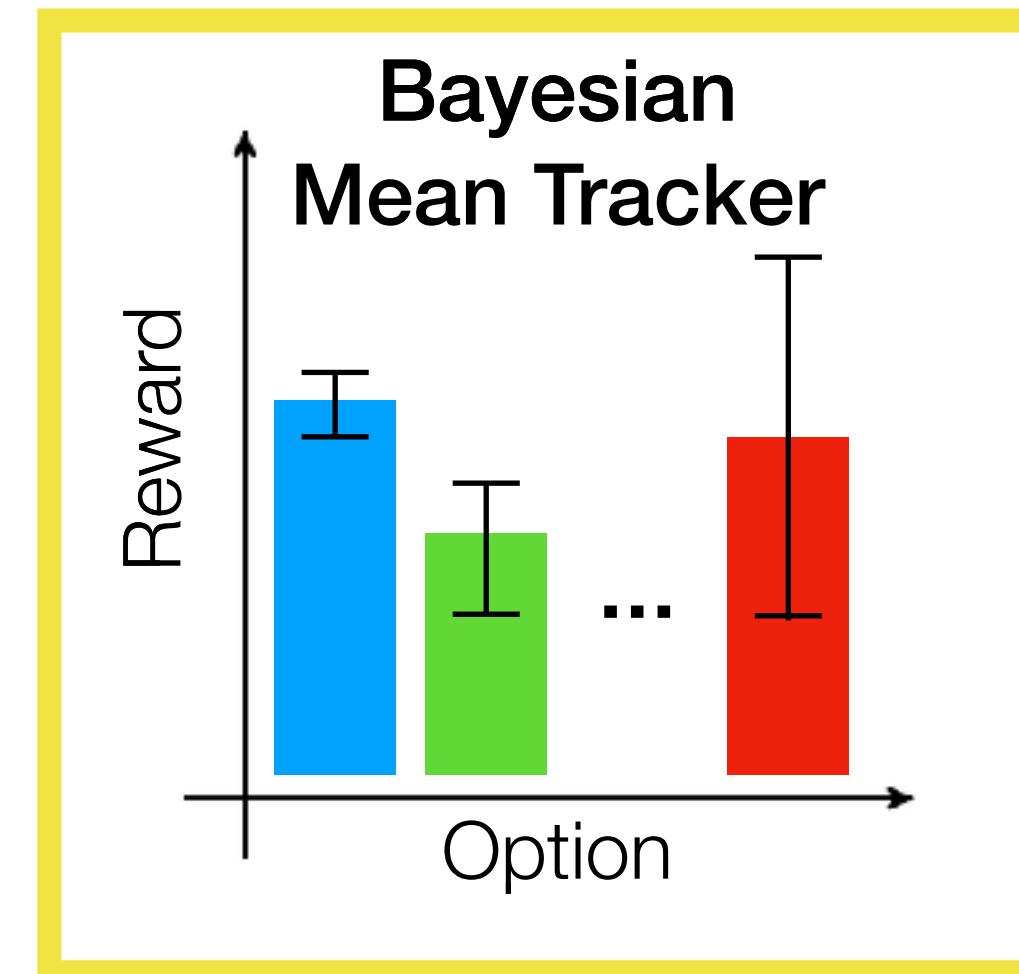
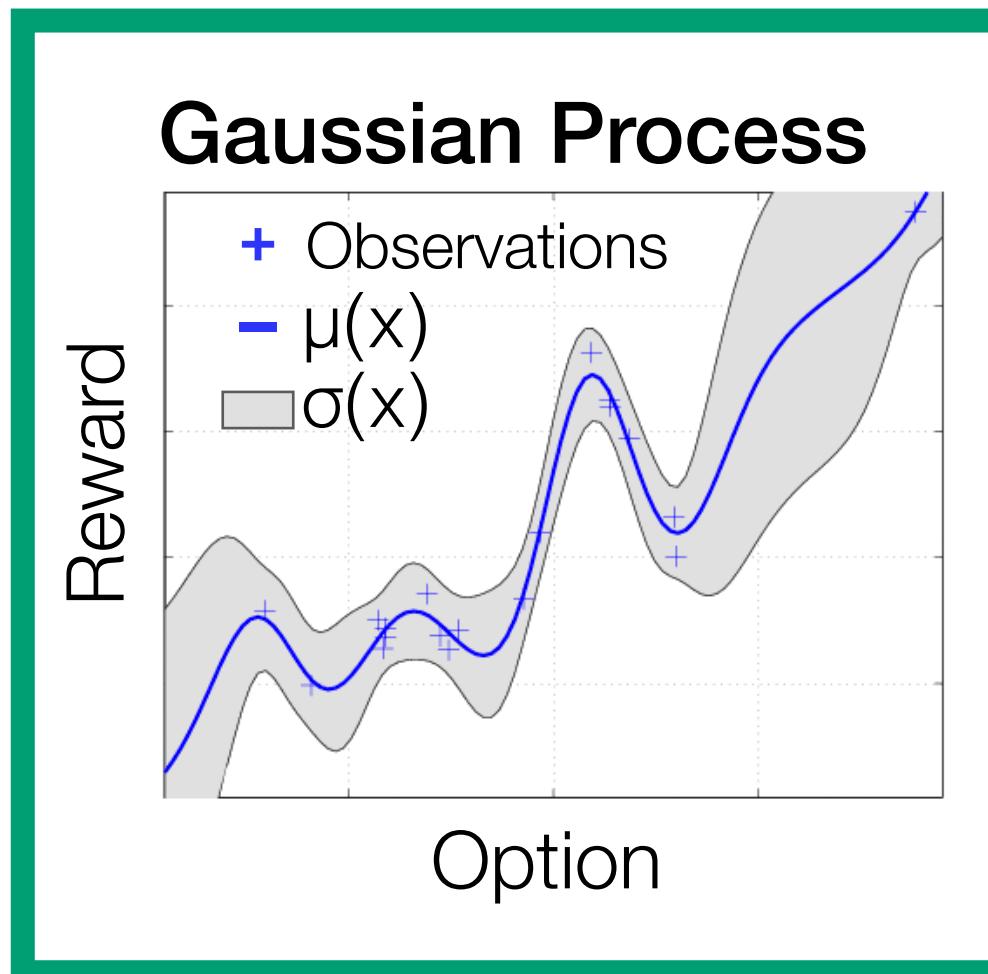


Successor Representation



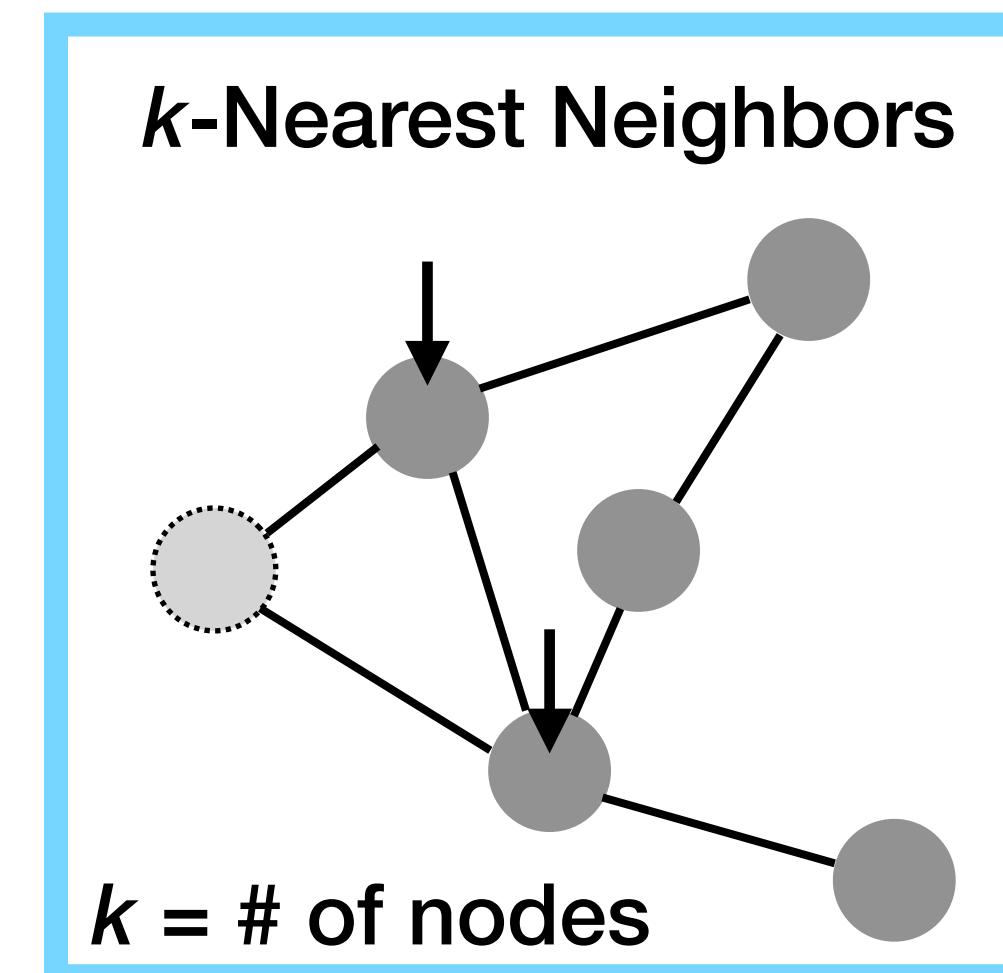
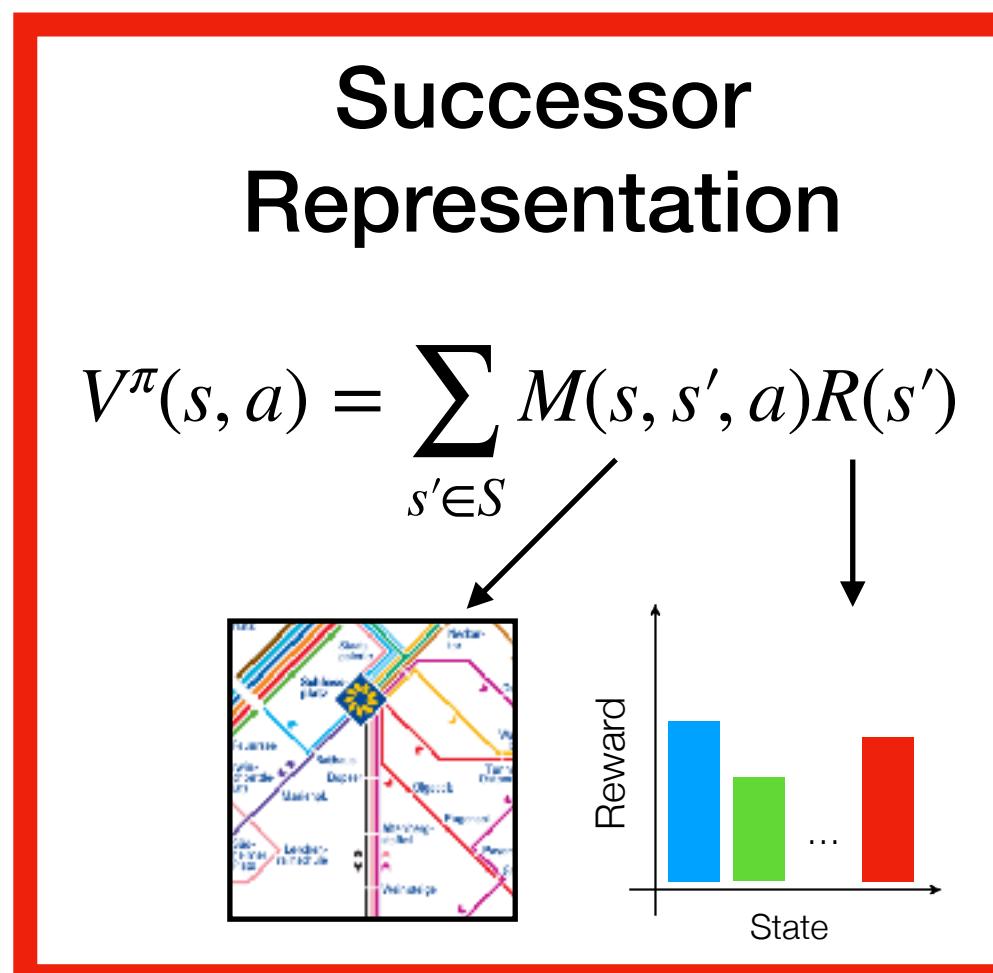
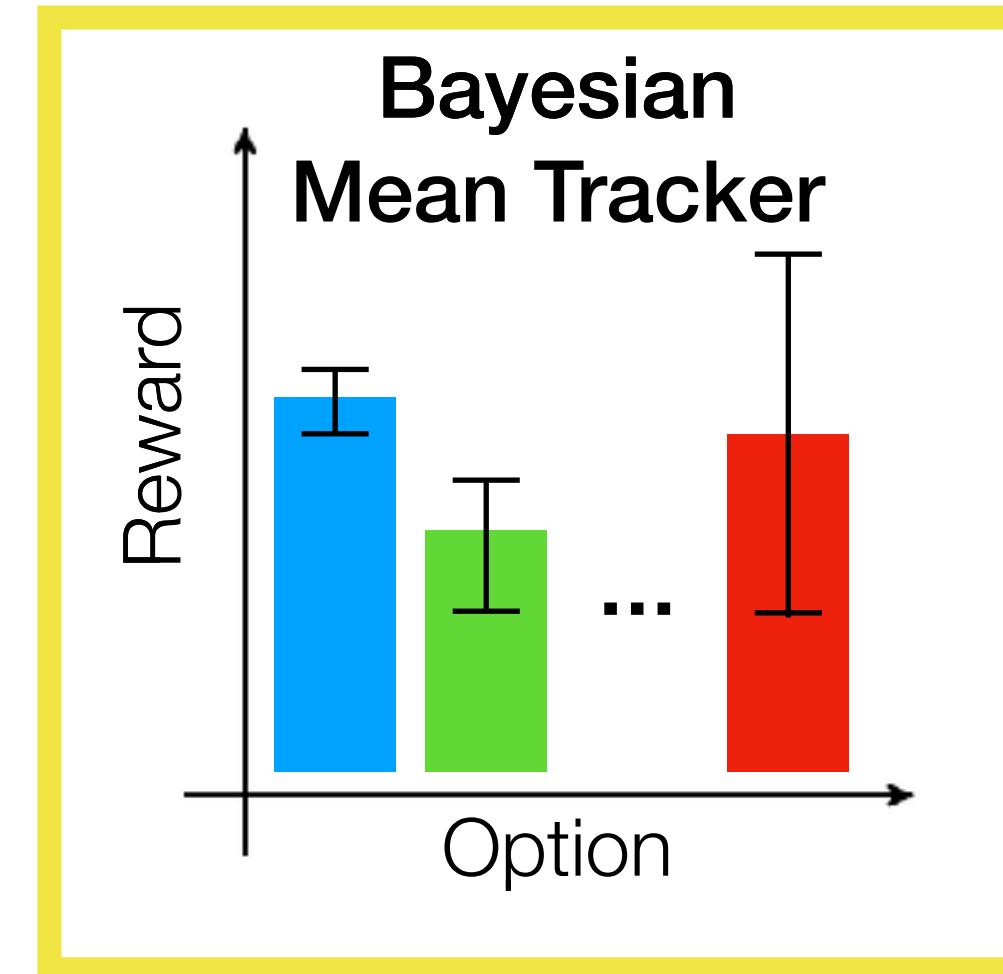
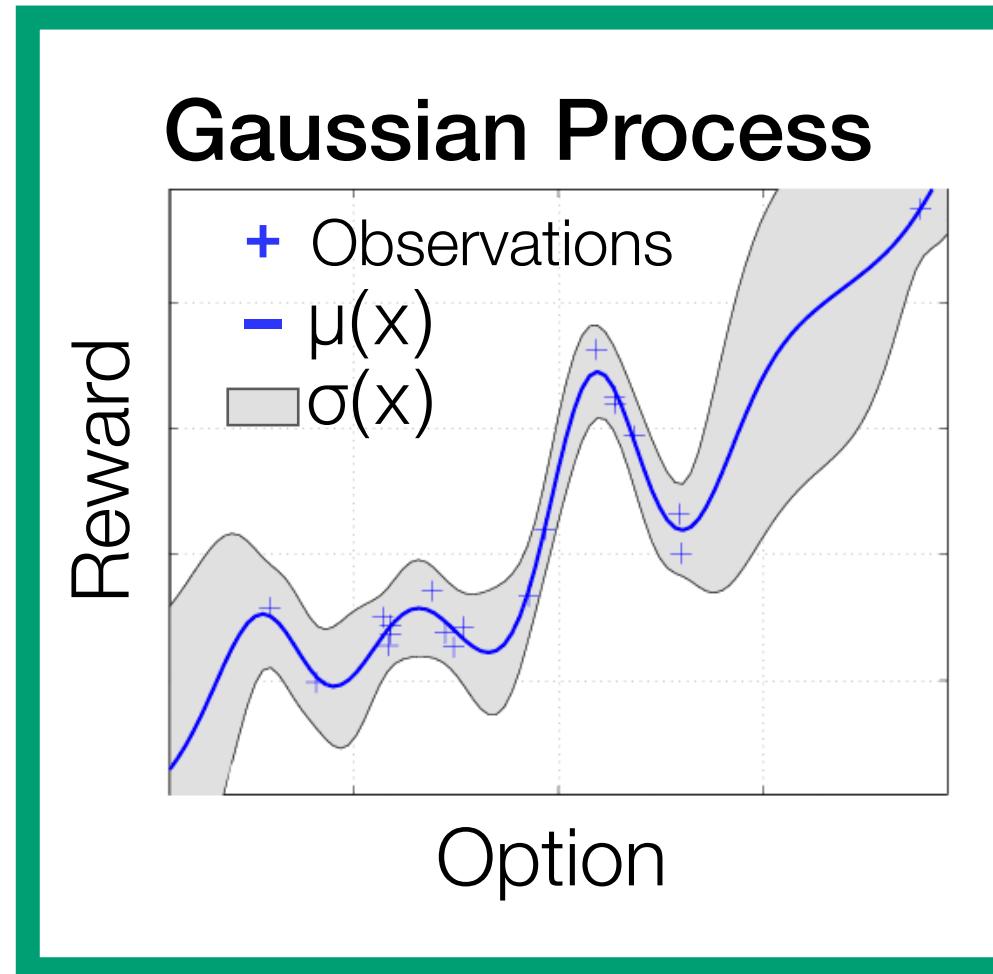
Model Results

random exploration
directed + random exploration



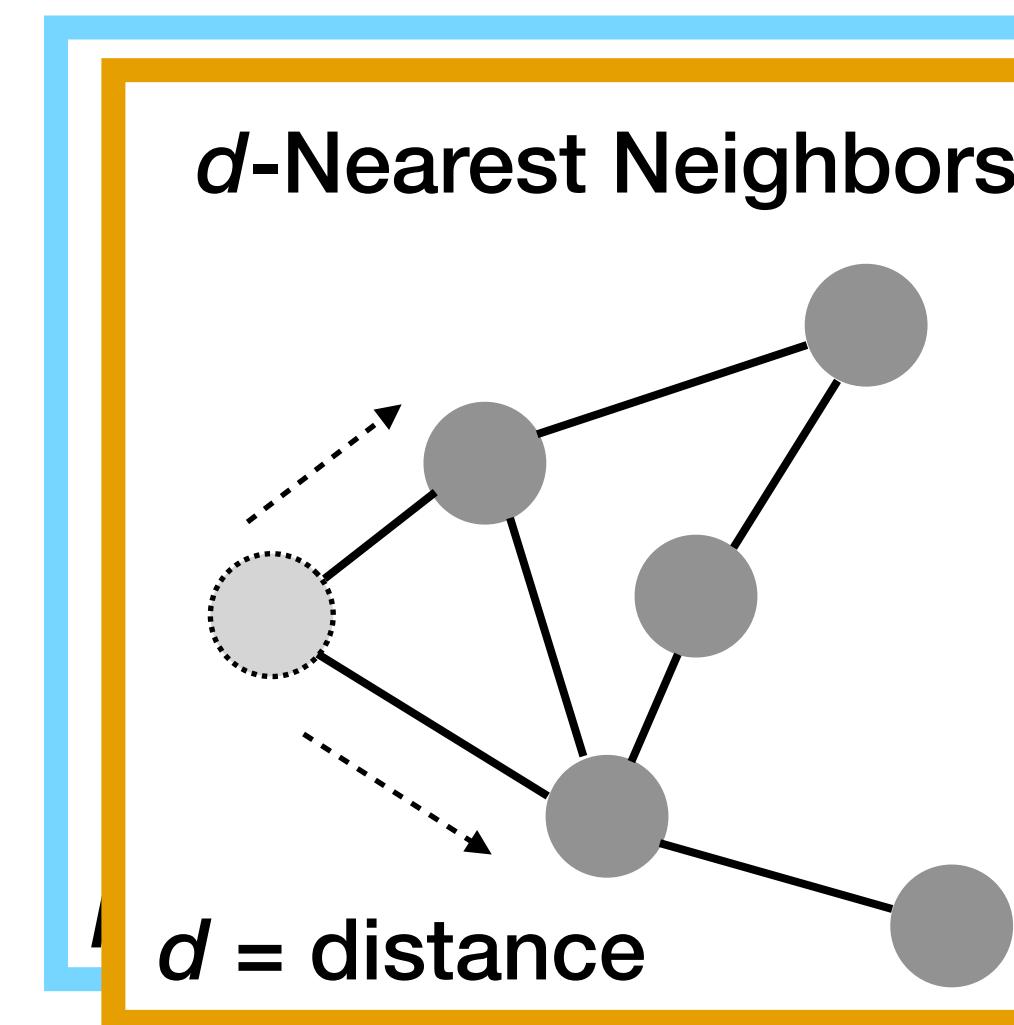
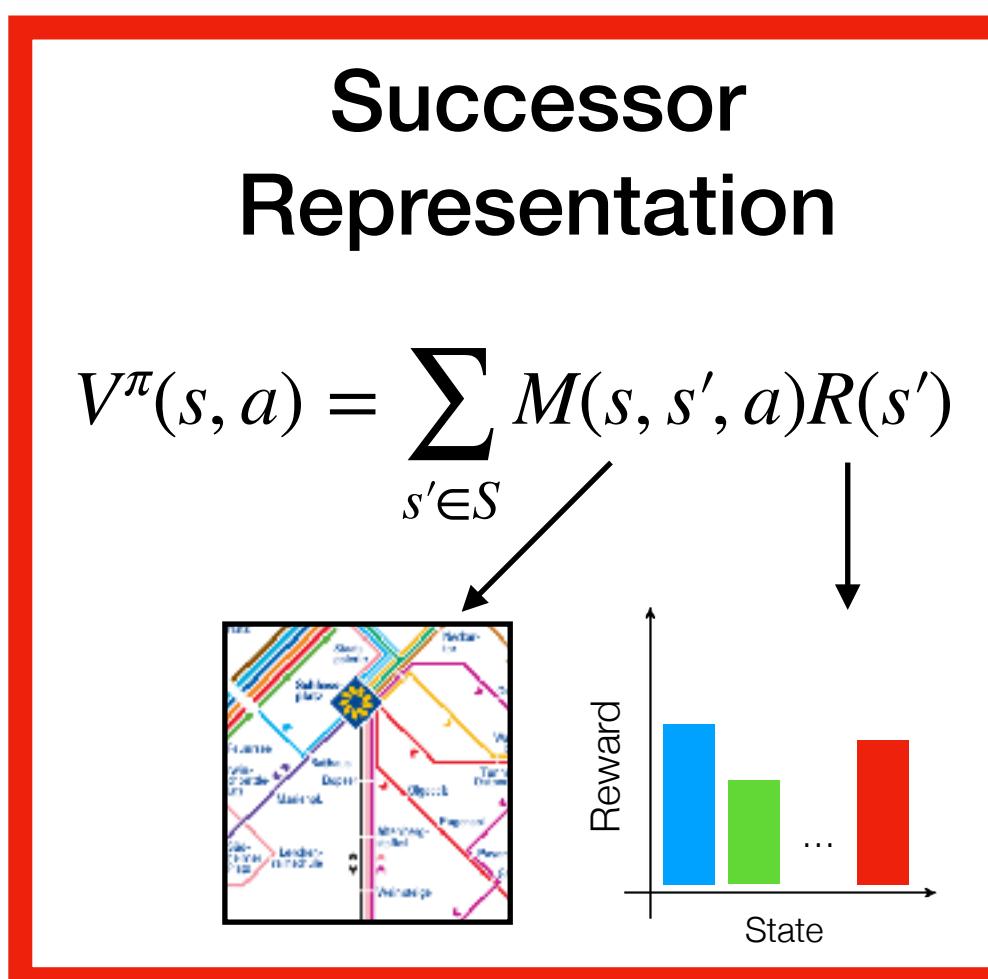
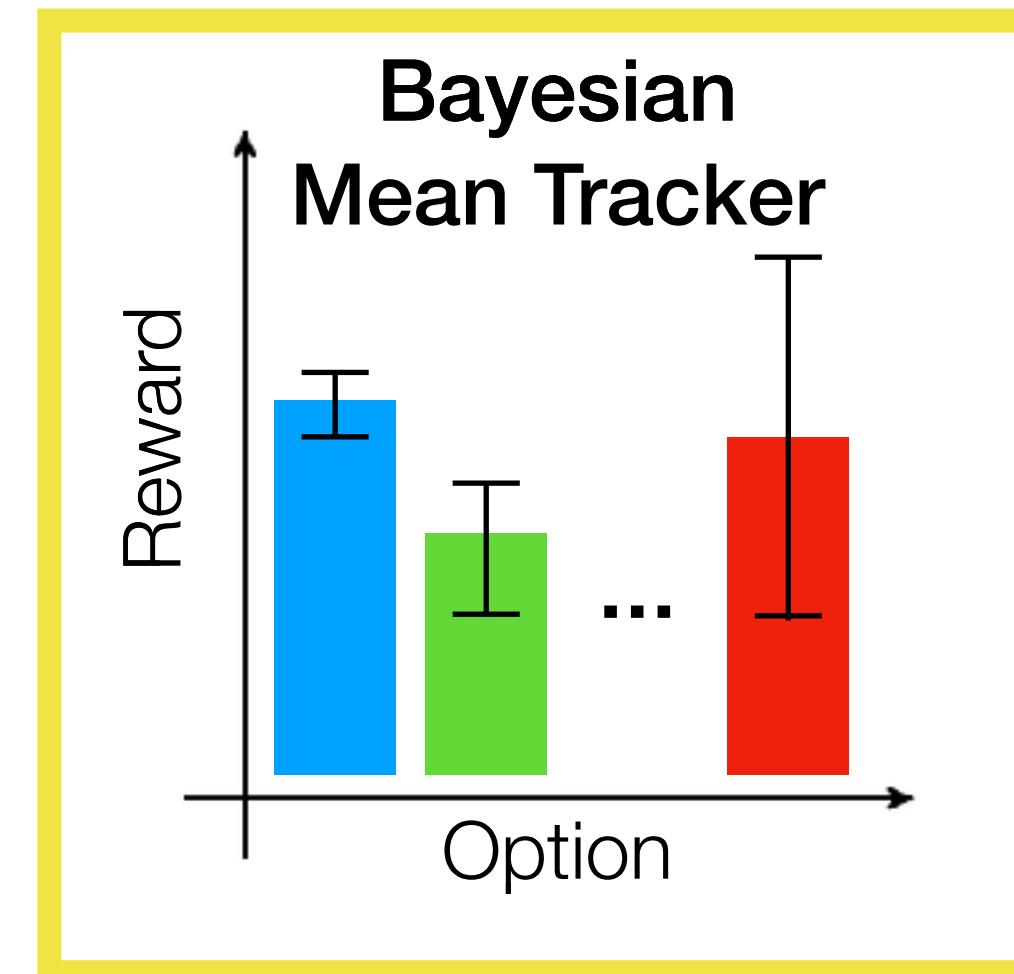
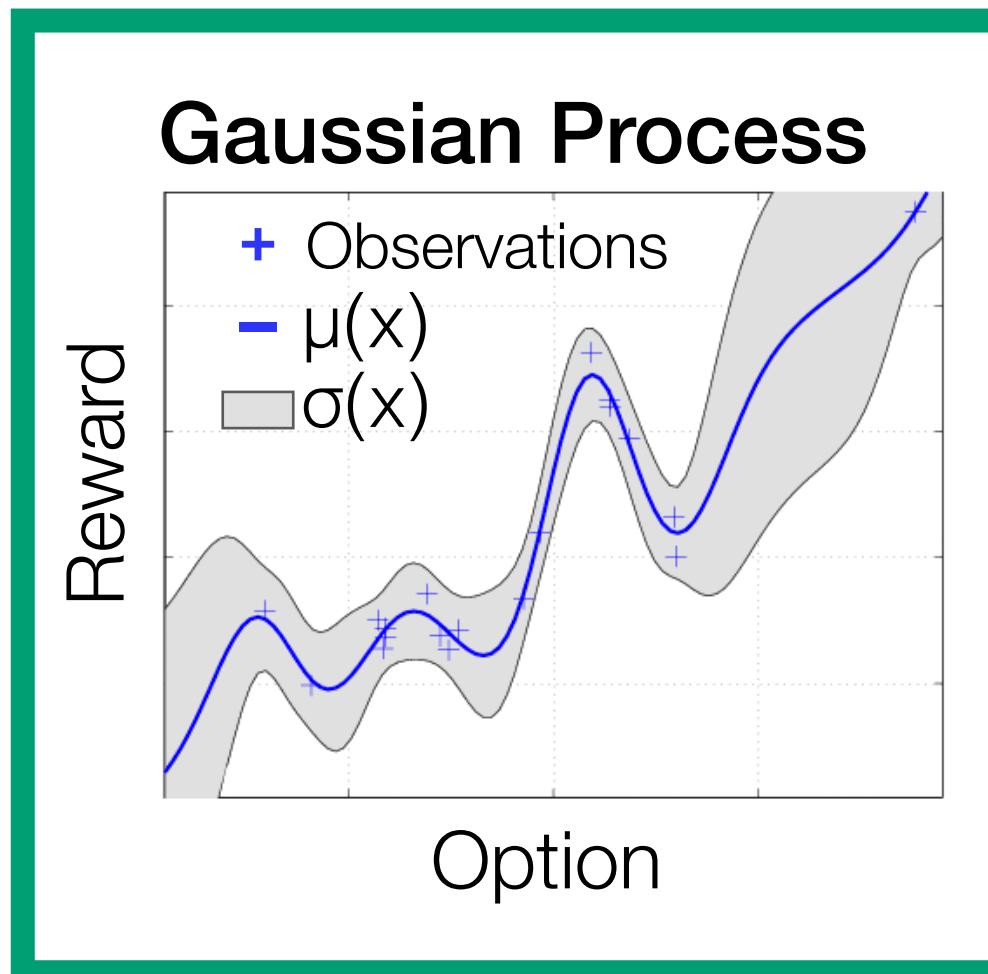
Model Results

random exploration
directed + random exploration

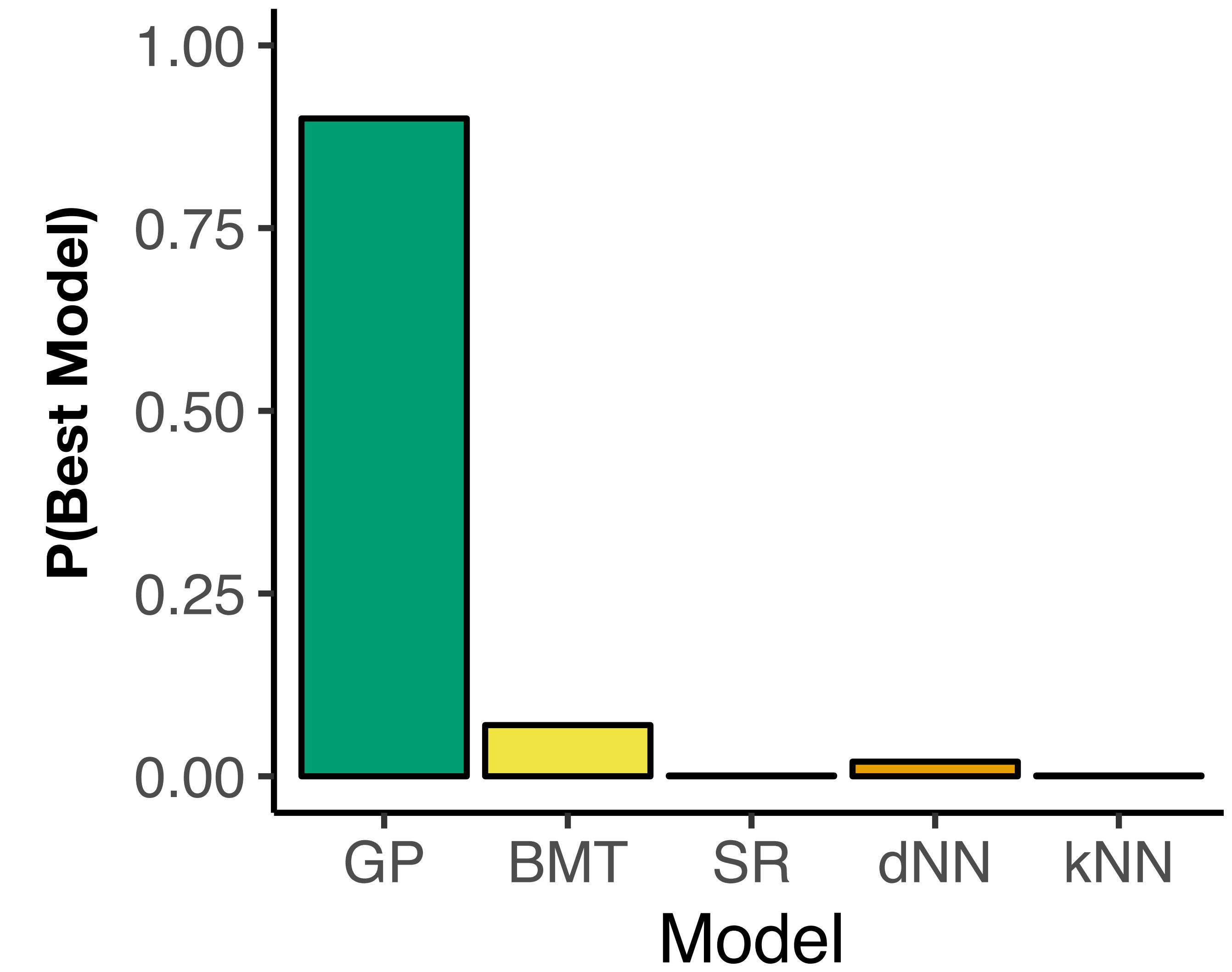
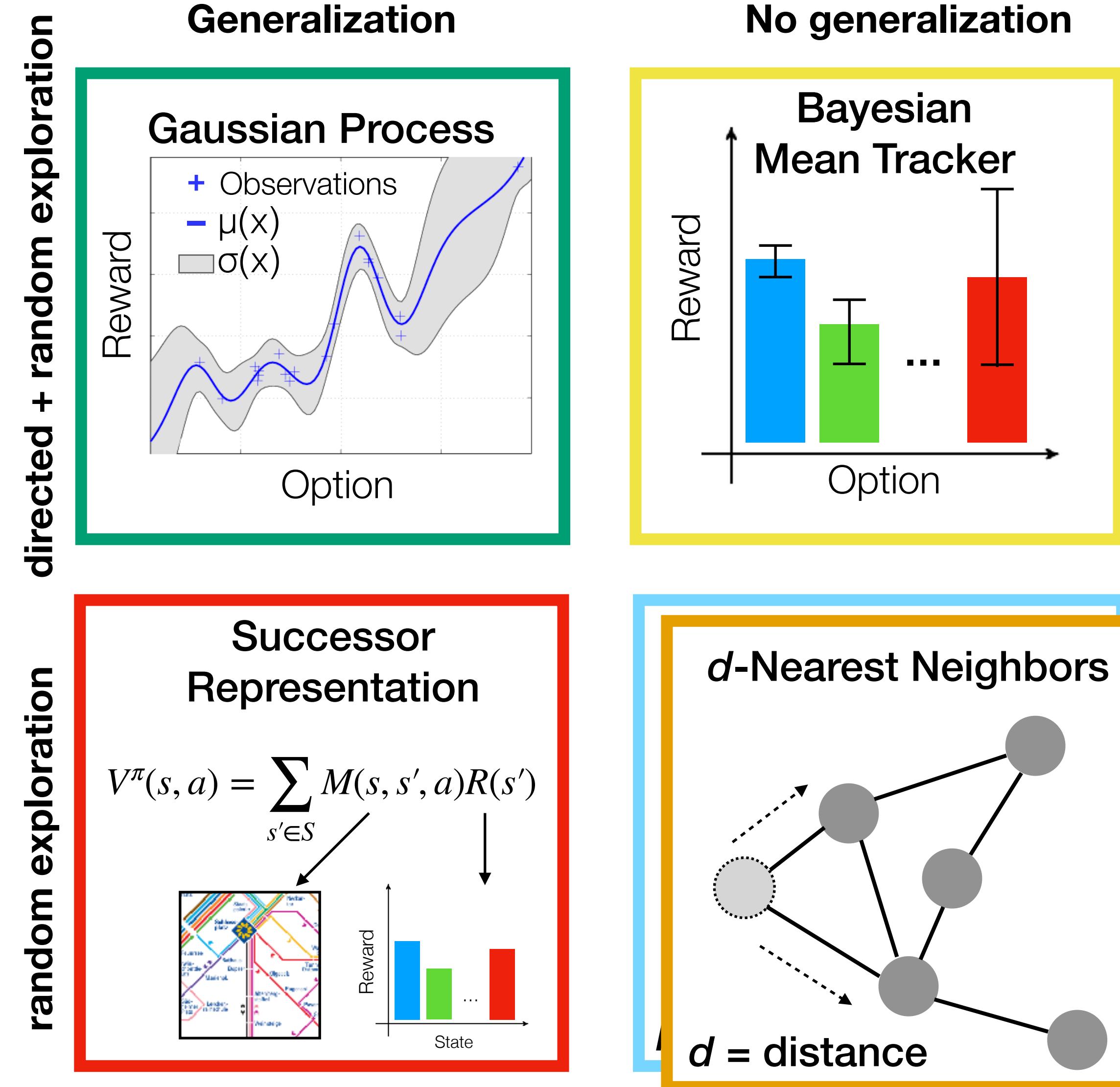


Model Results

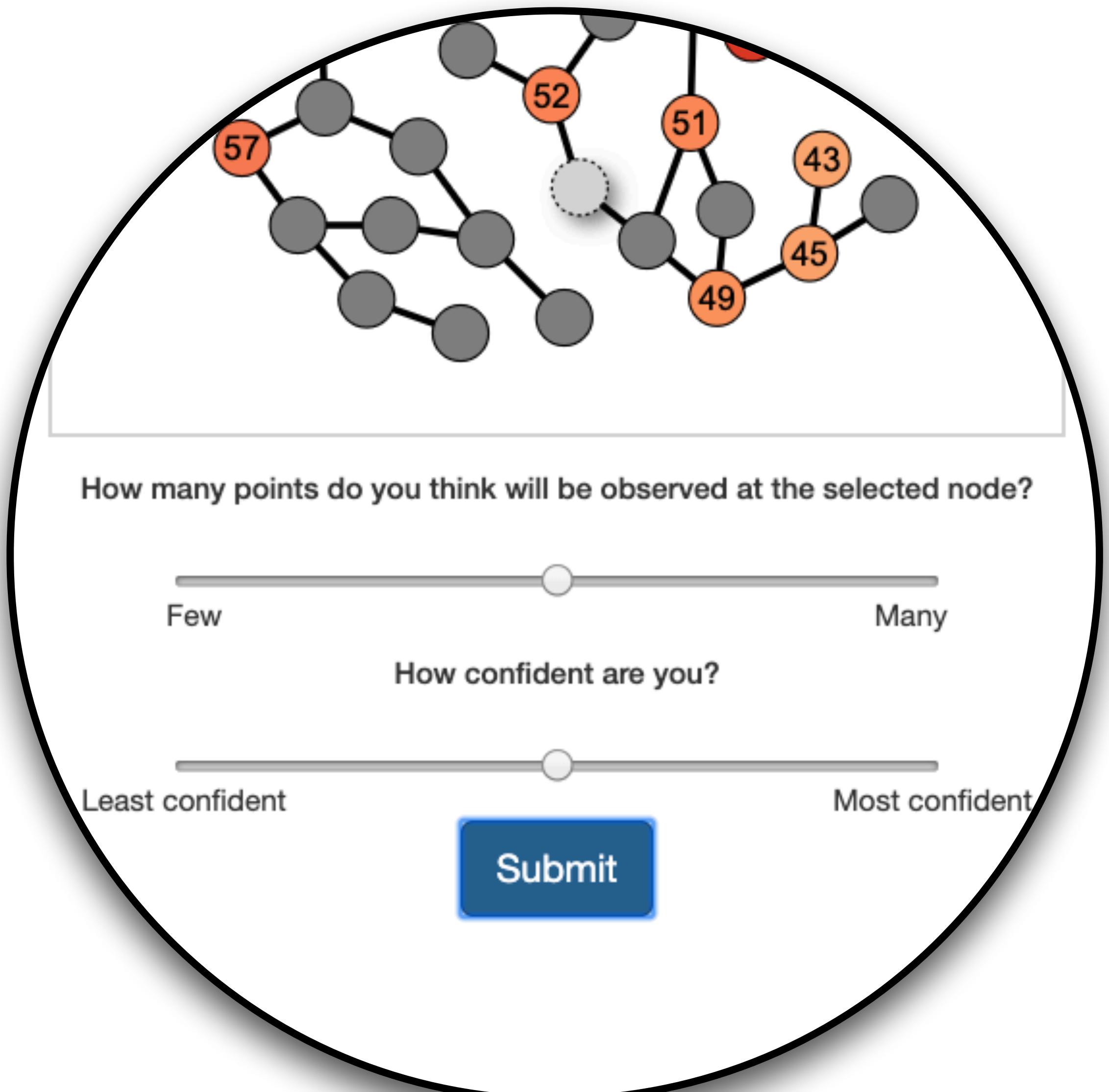
random exploration
directed + random exploration



Model Results



Validation on judgments



Validation on judgments

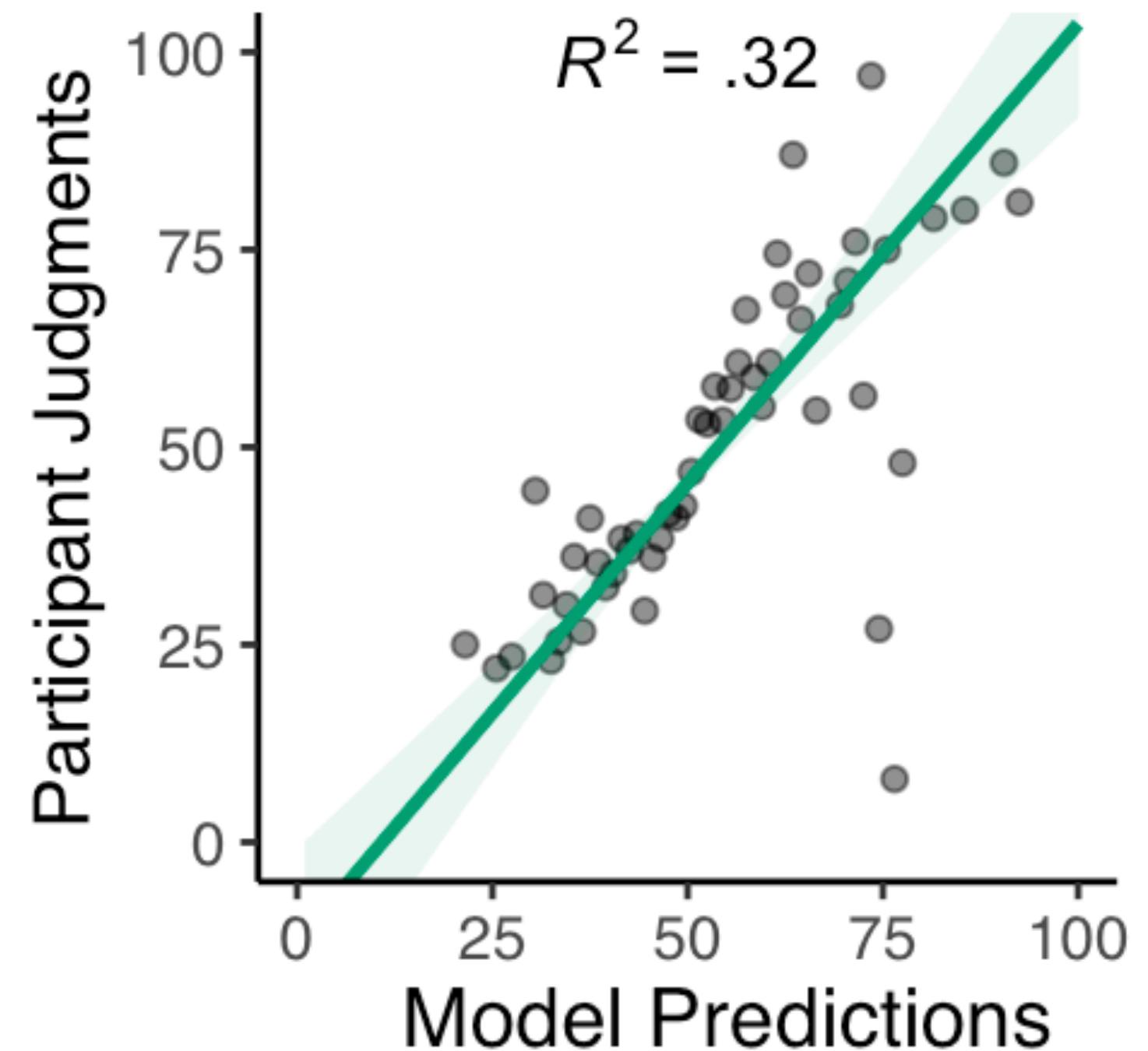
How many points do you think will be observed at the selected node?

Few Many

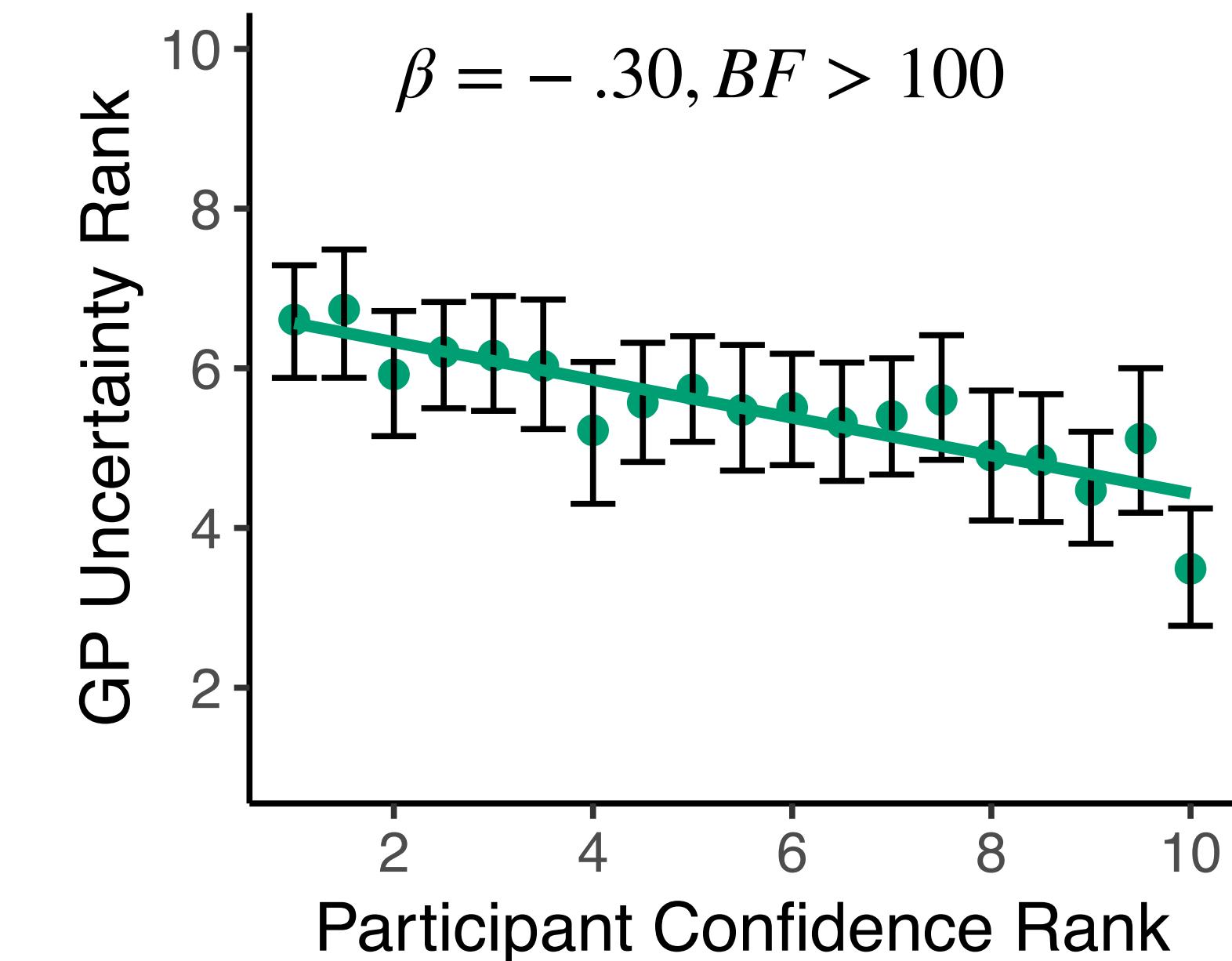
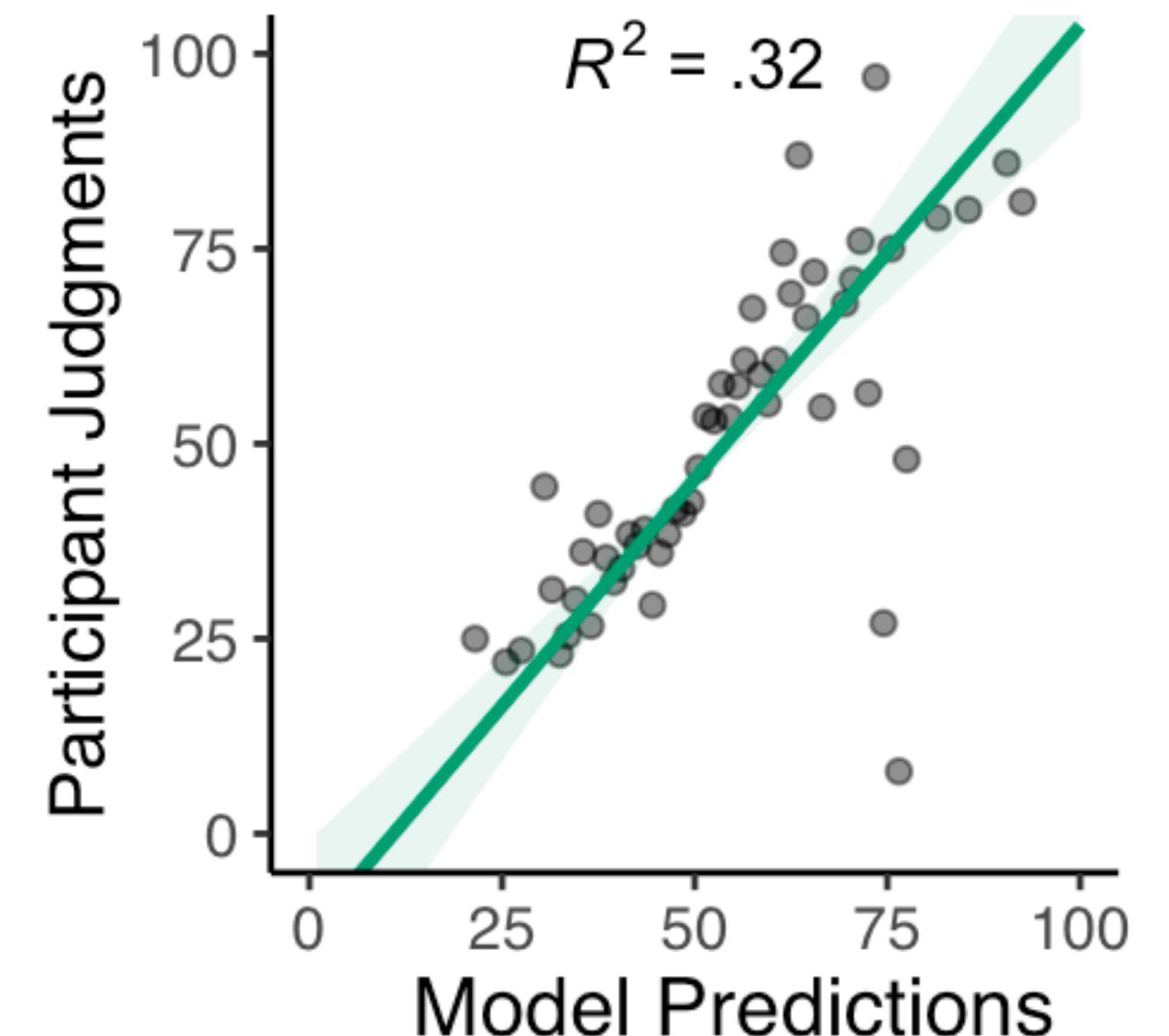
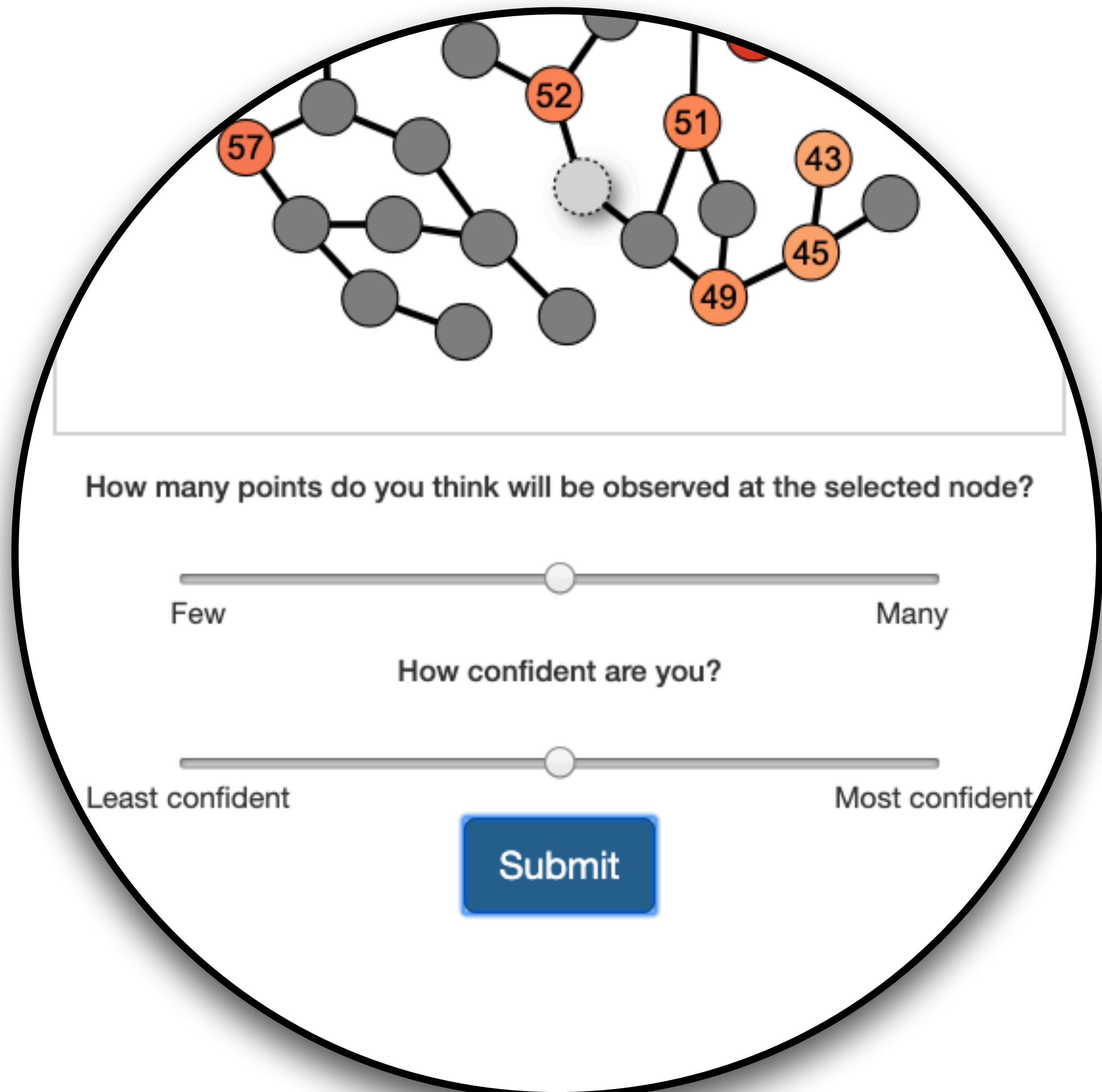
How confident are you?

Least confident Most confident

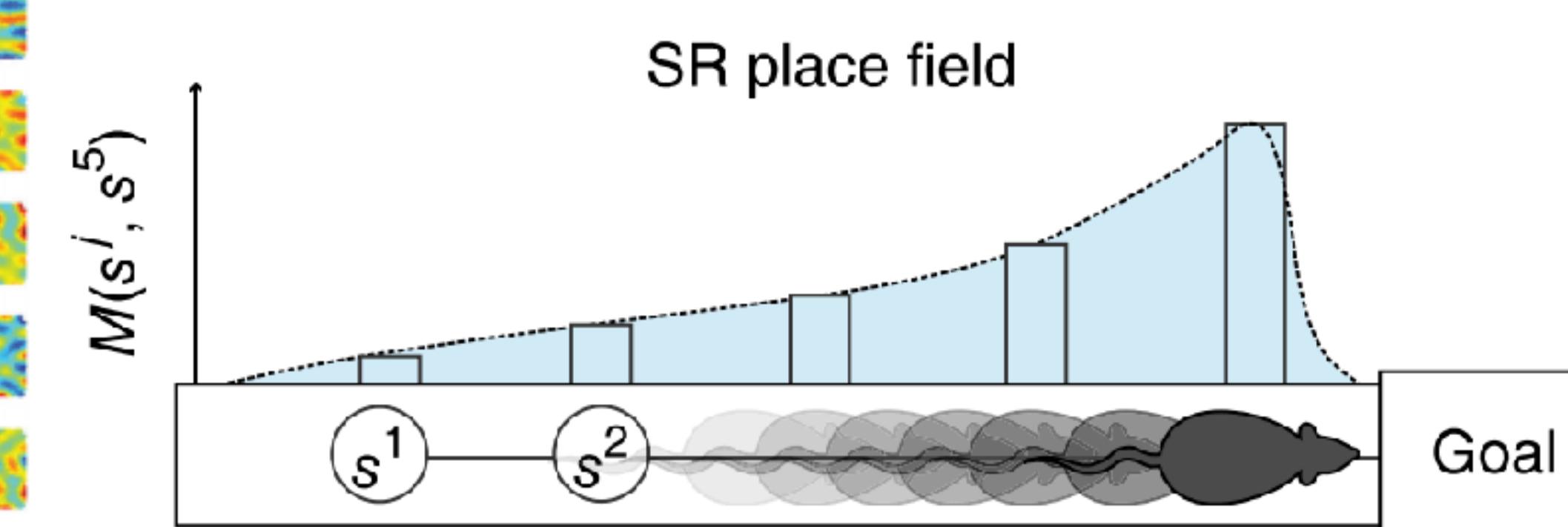
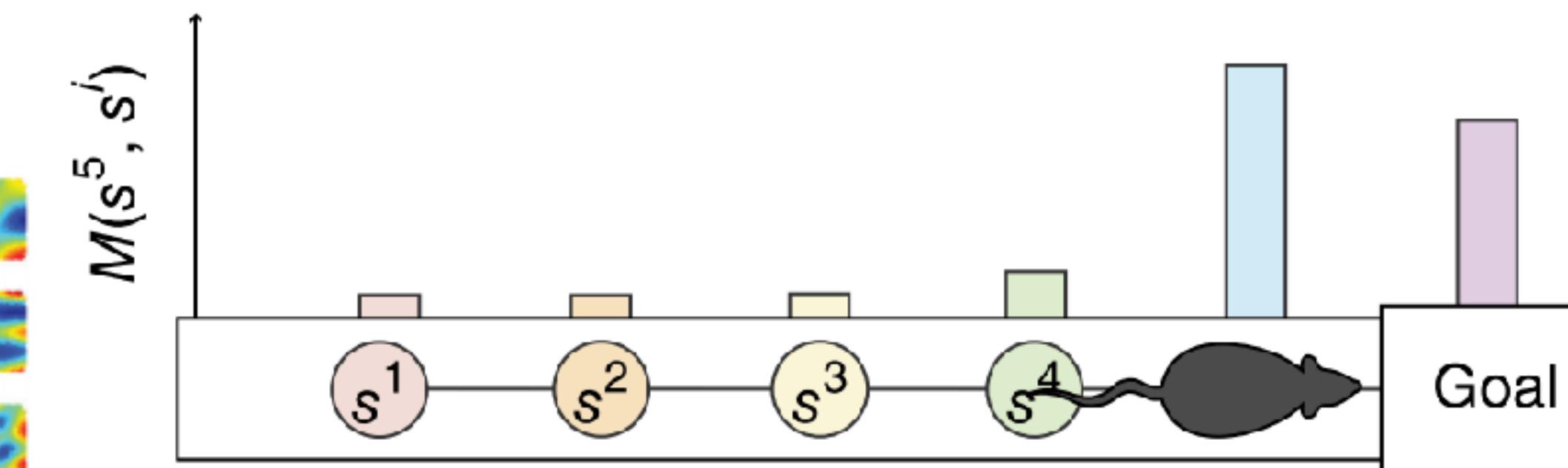
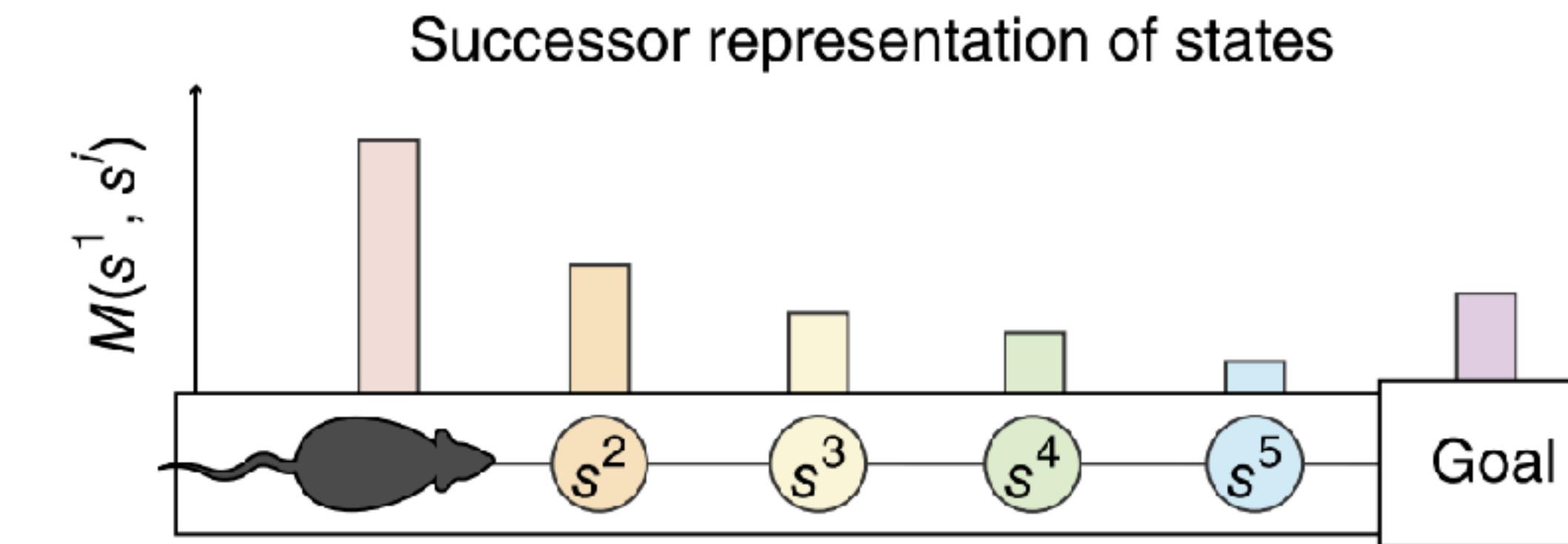
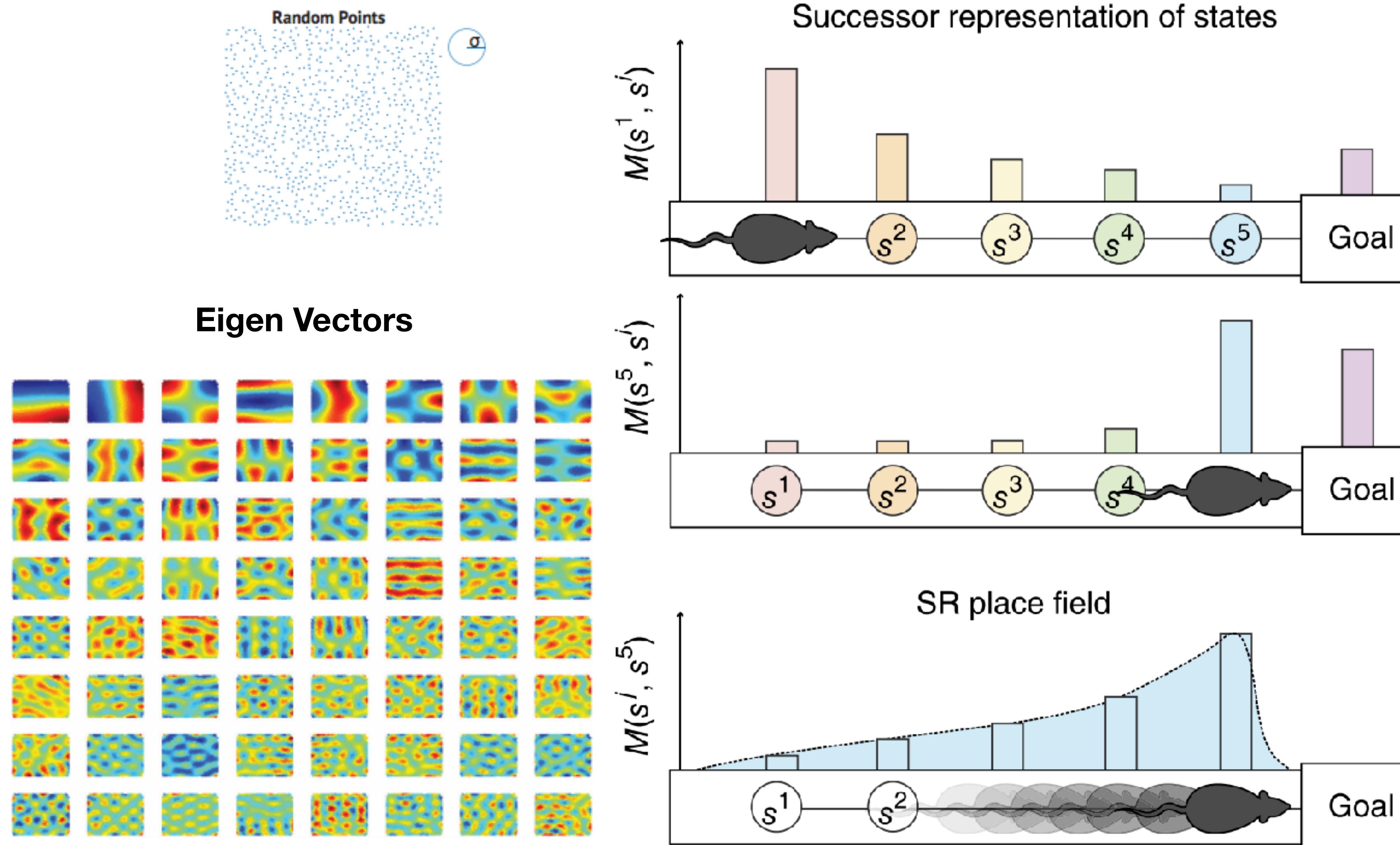
Submit



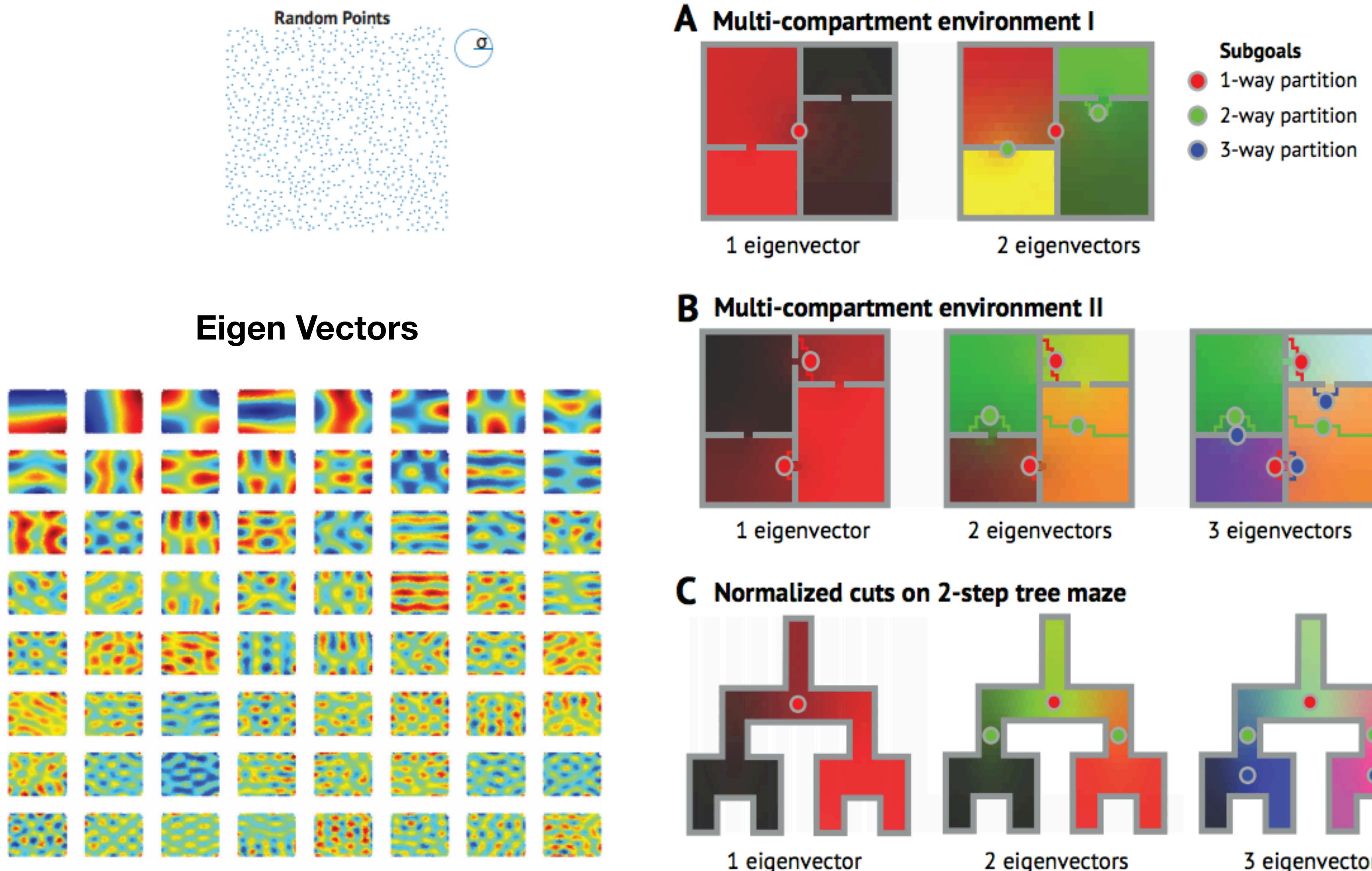
Validation on judgments

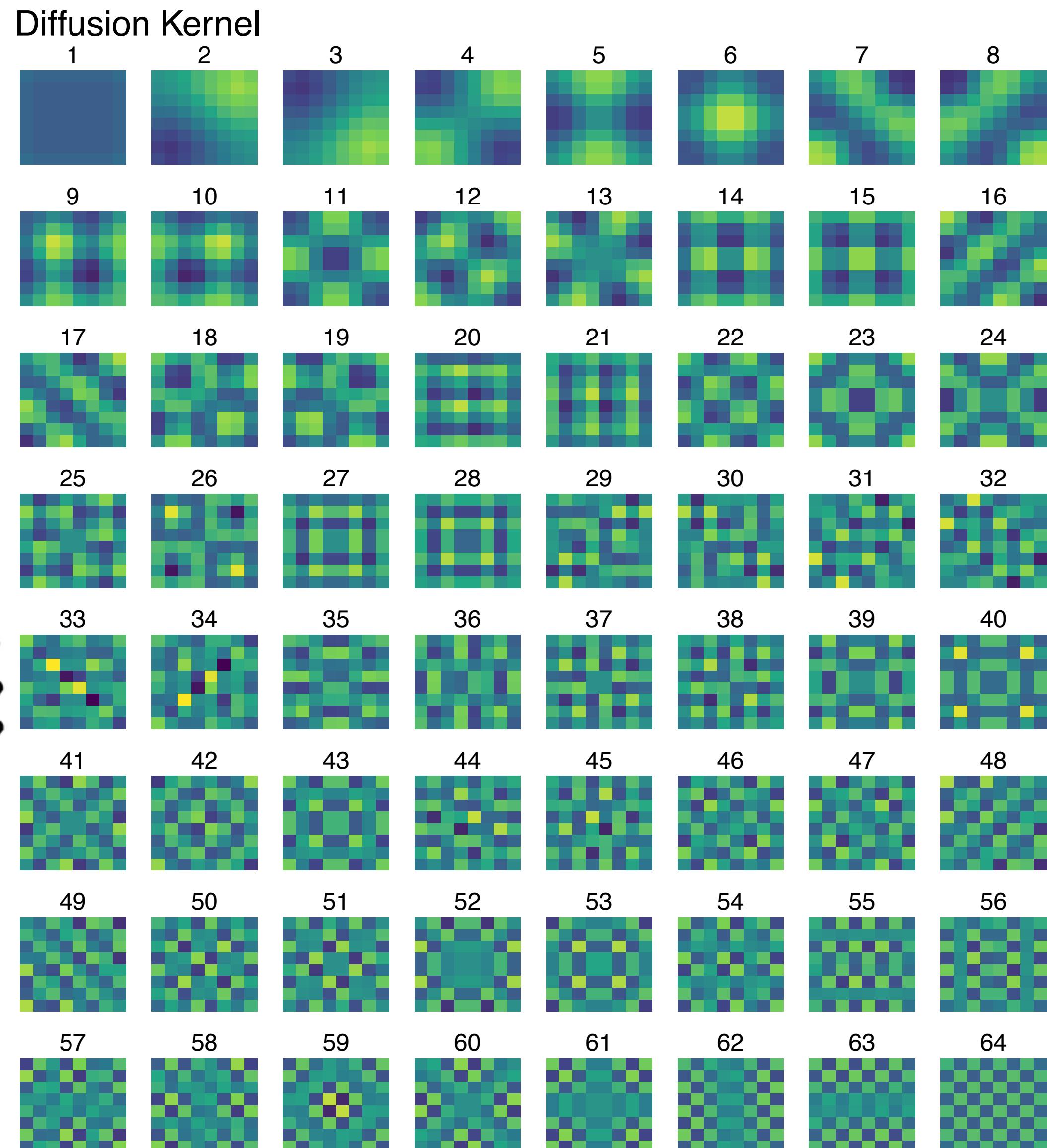
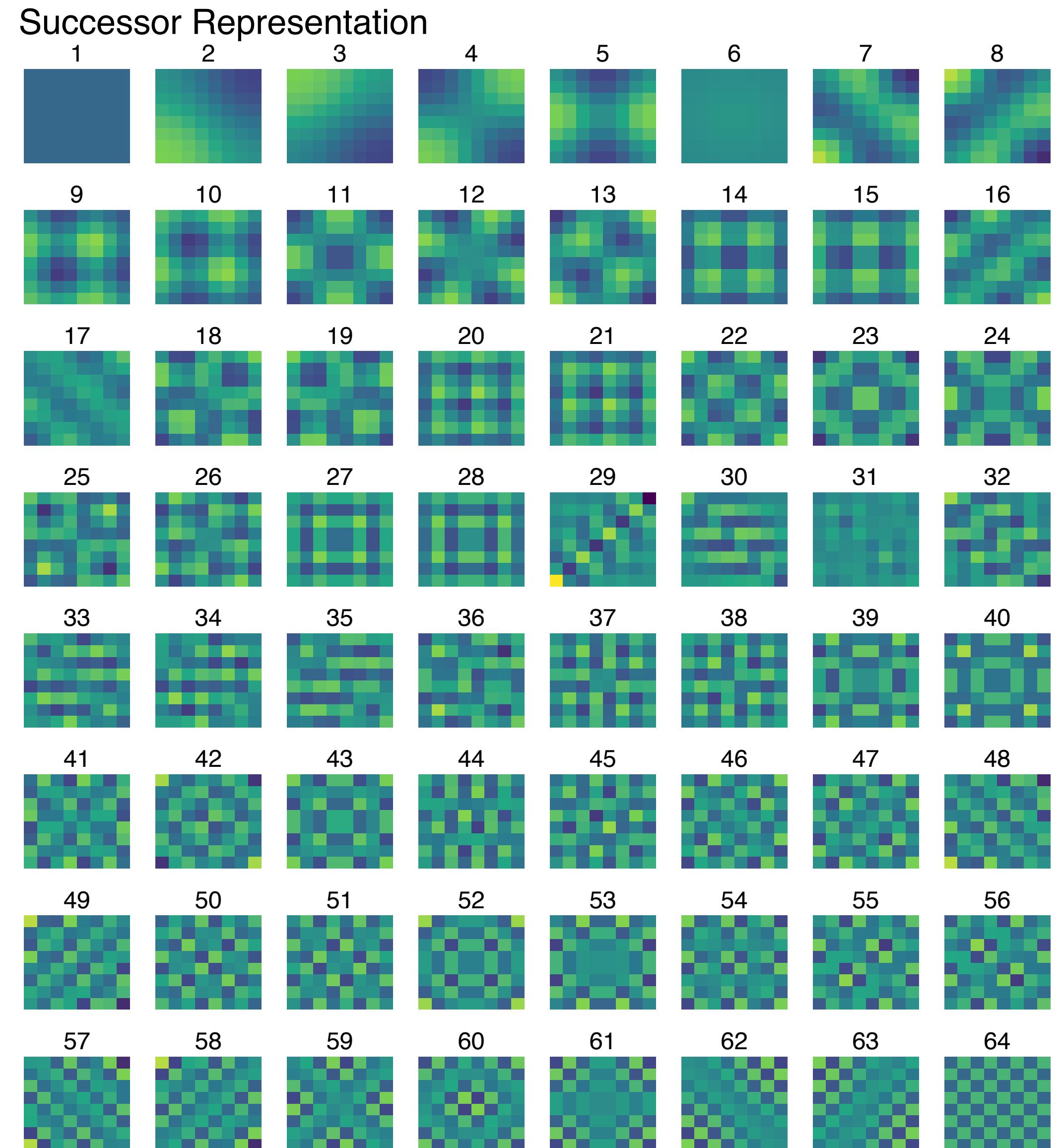


Diffusion Kernel has equivalencies to the Successor Representation

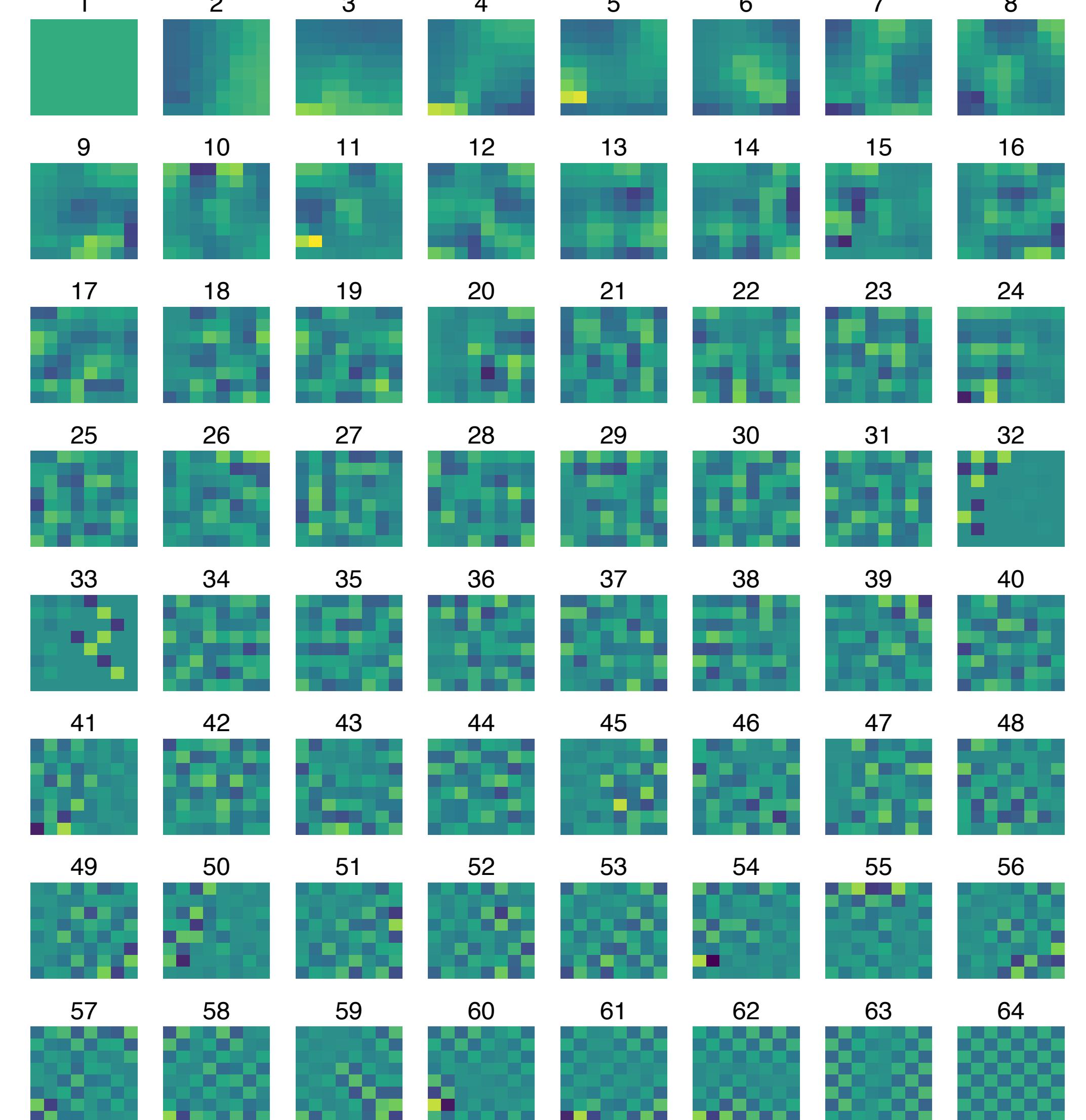


Diffusion Kernel has equivalencies to the Successor Representation

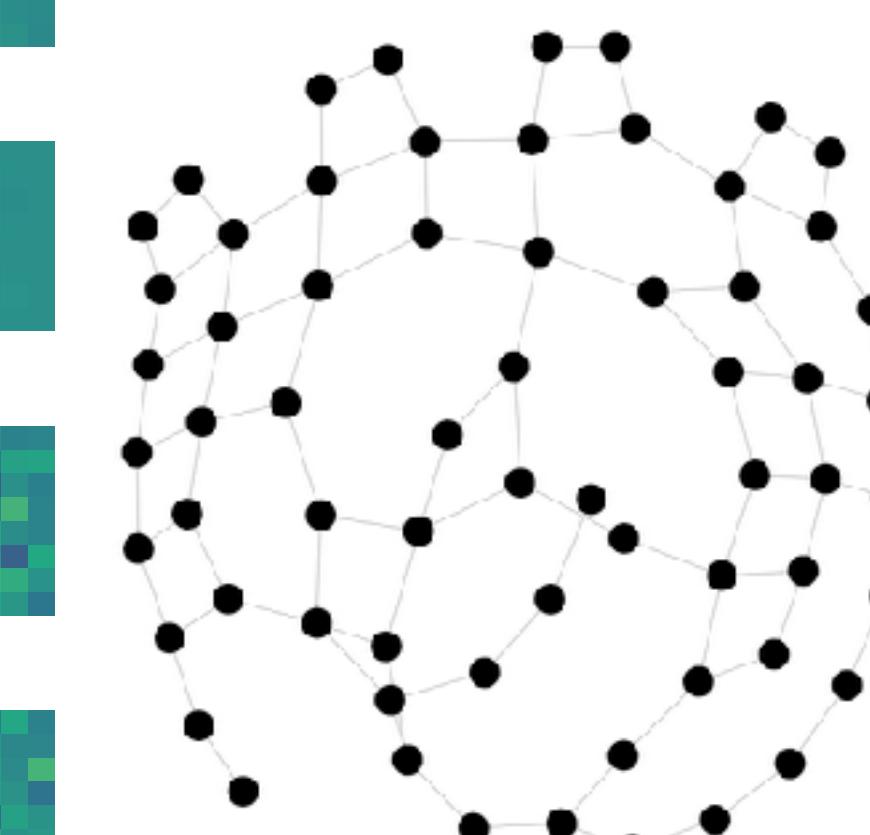
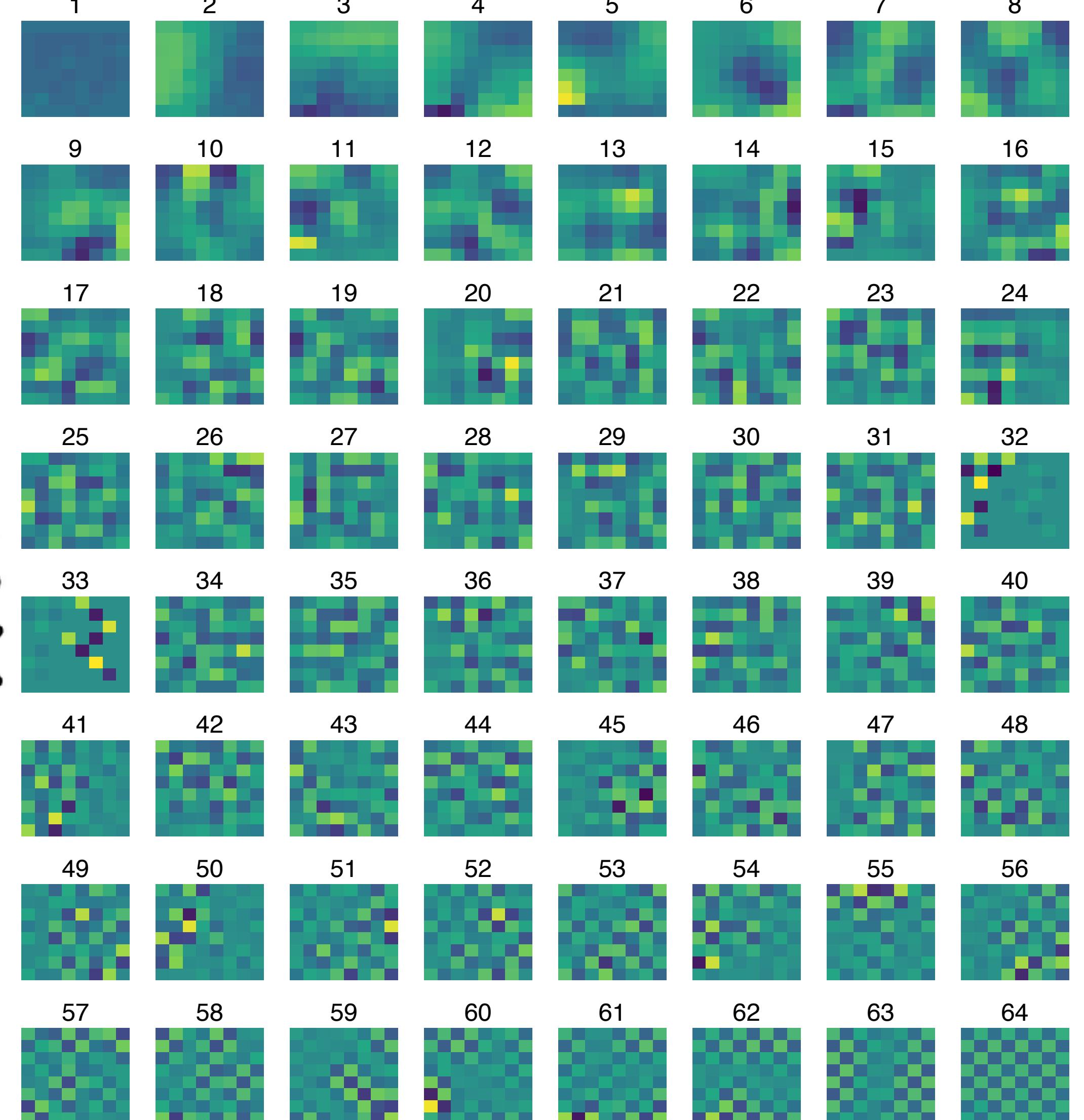




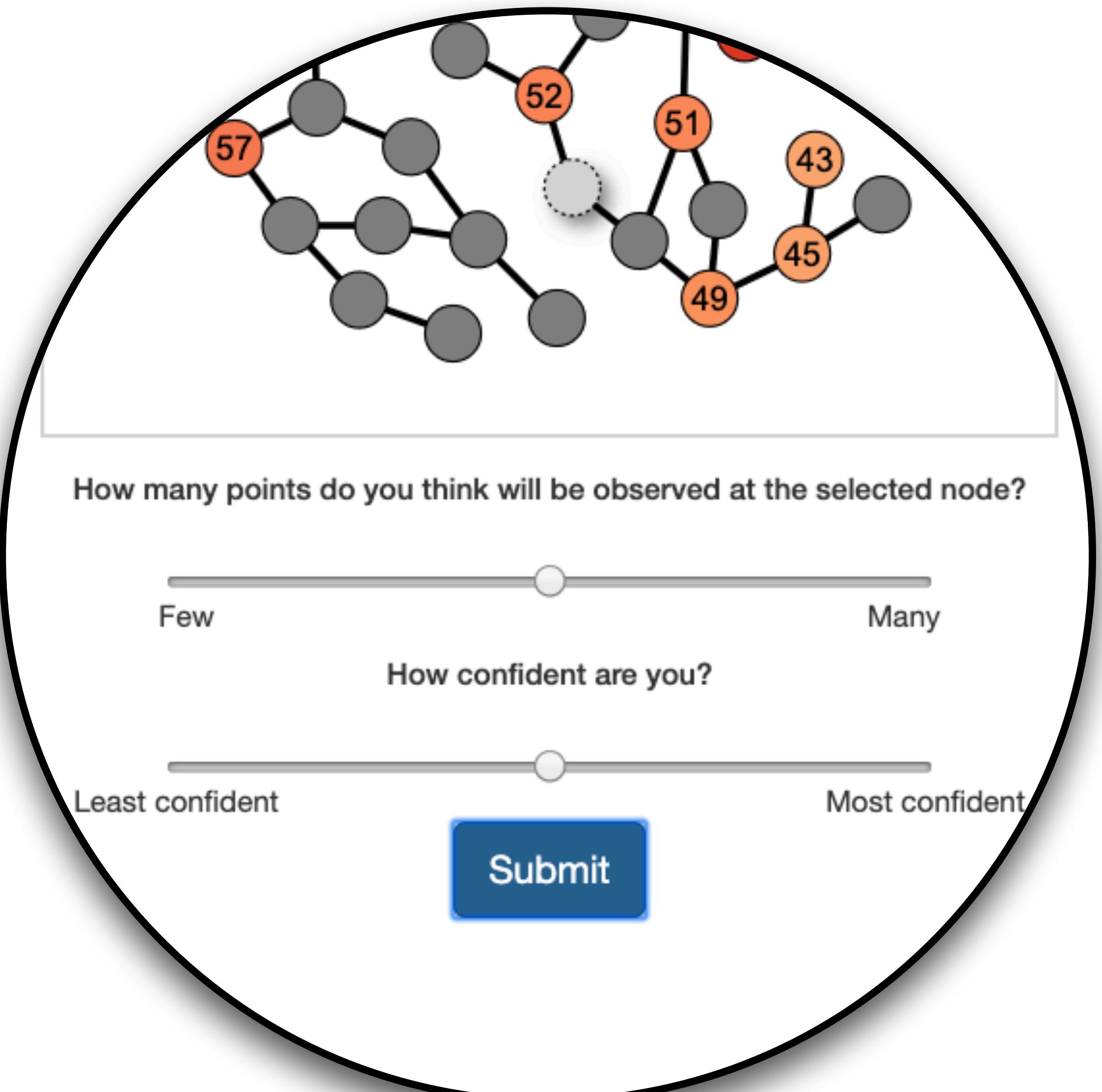
Successor Representation



Diffusion Kernel



Validation on judgments



Validation on judgments

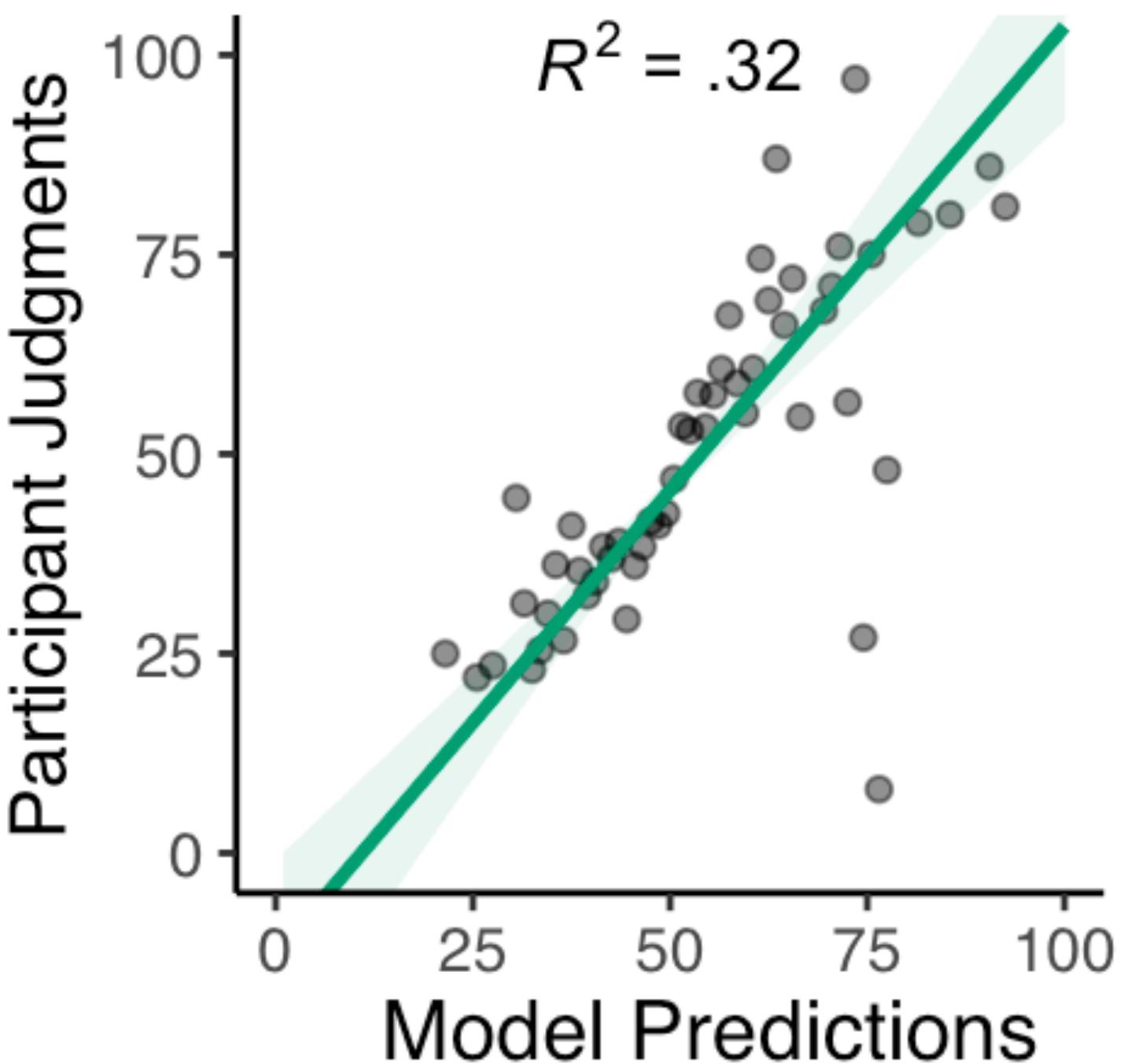
How many points do you think will be observed at the selected node?

Few Many

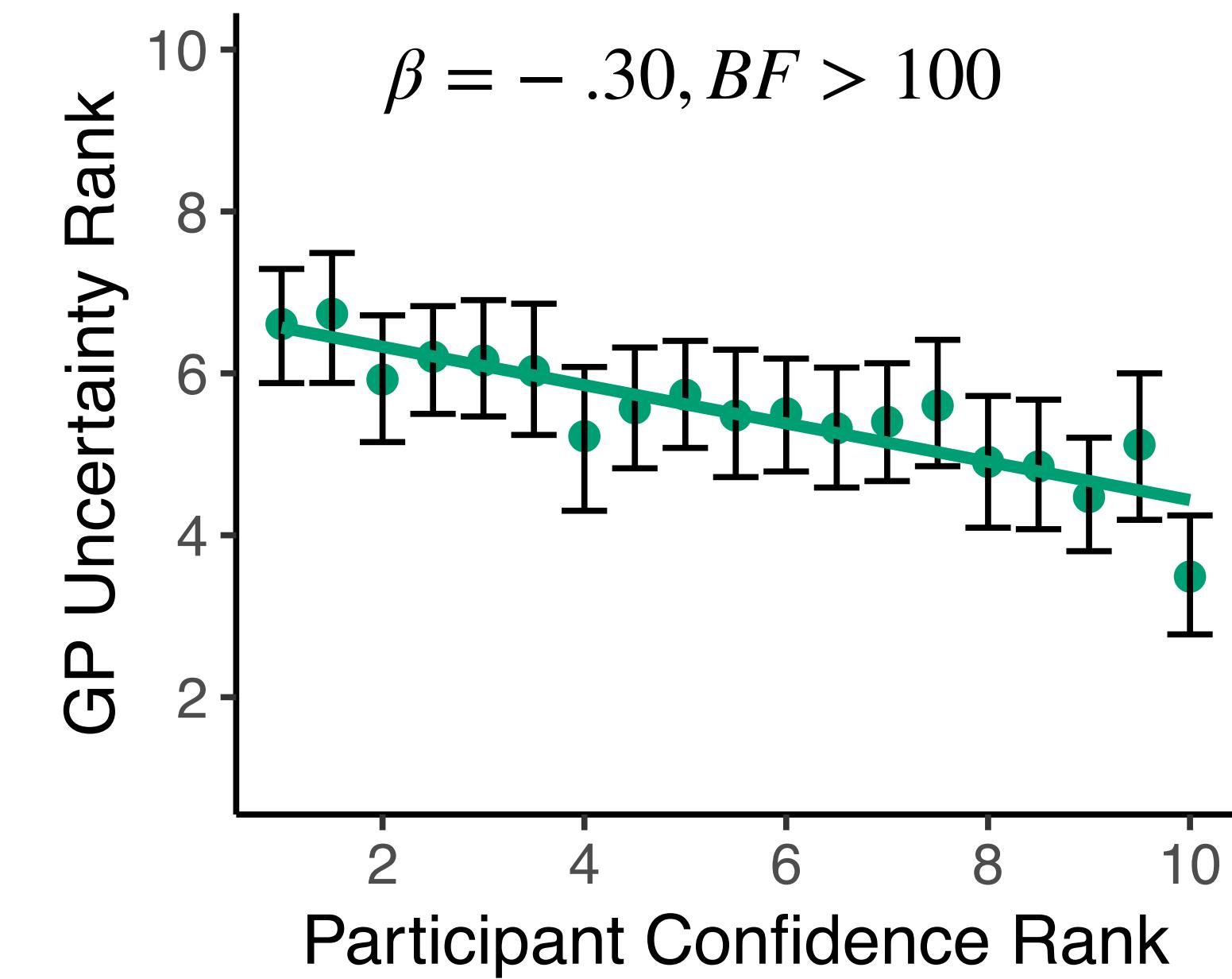
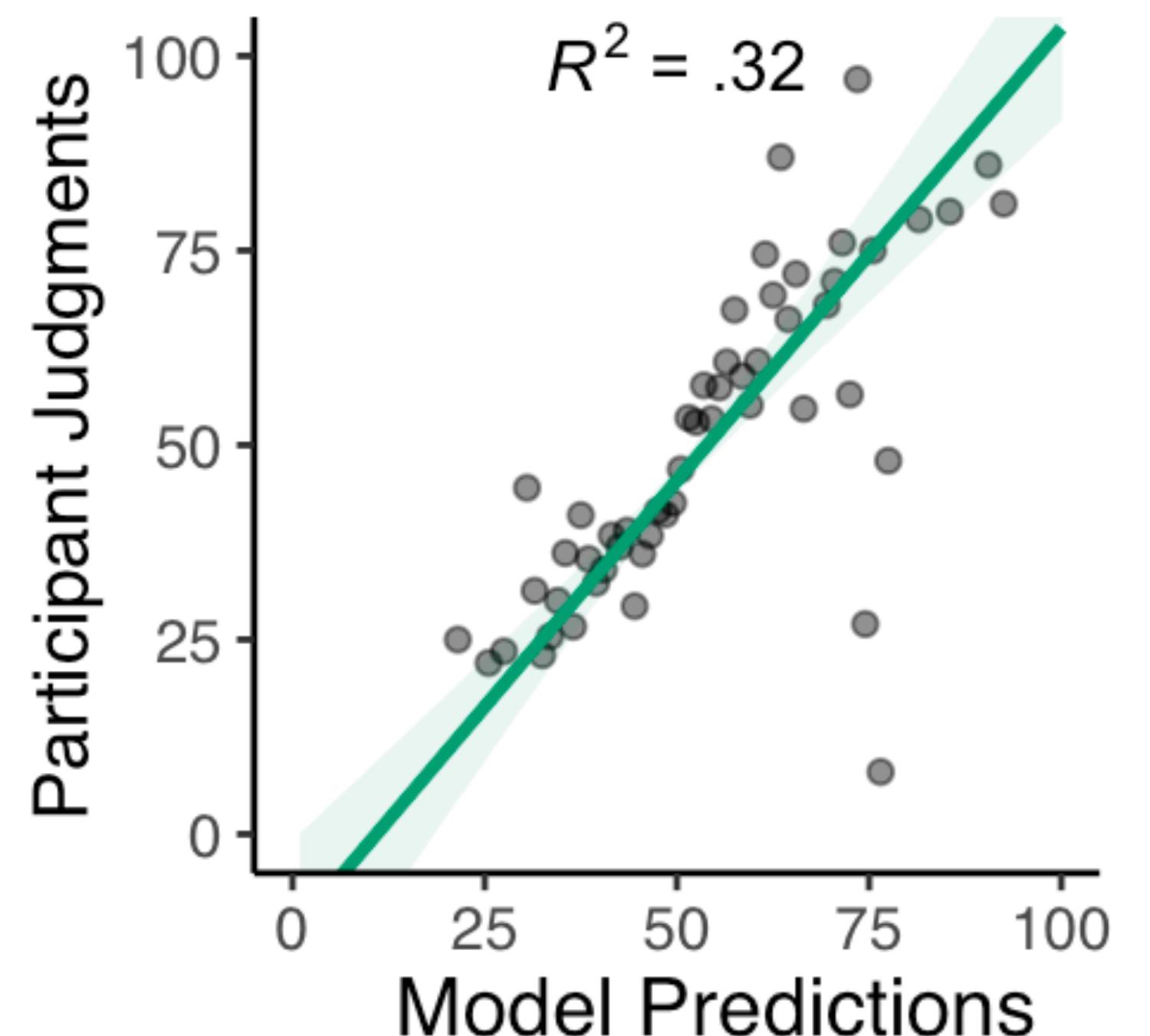
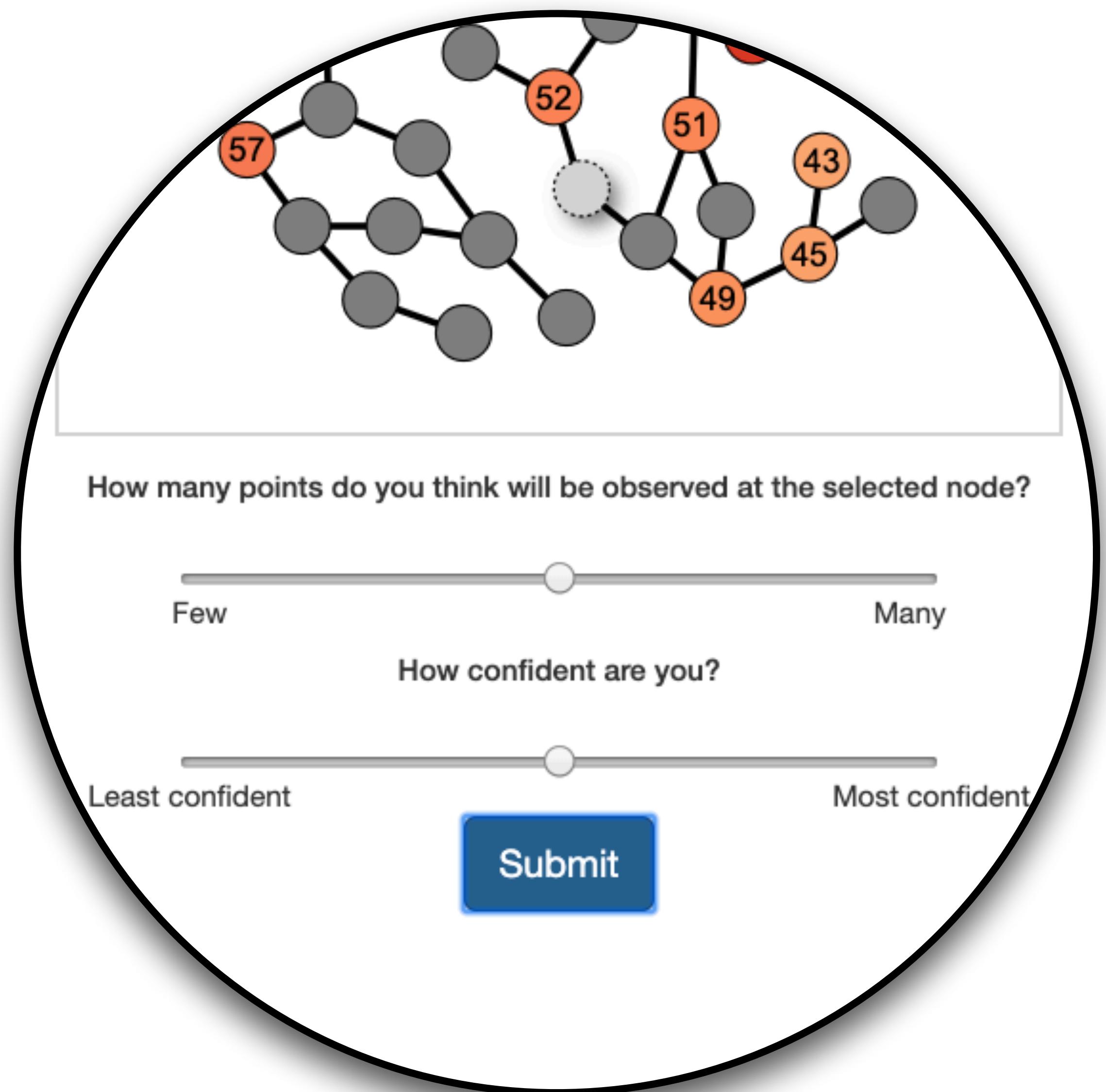
How confident are you?

Least confident Most confident

Submit



Validation on judgments

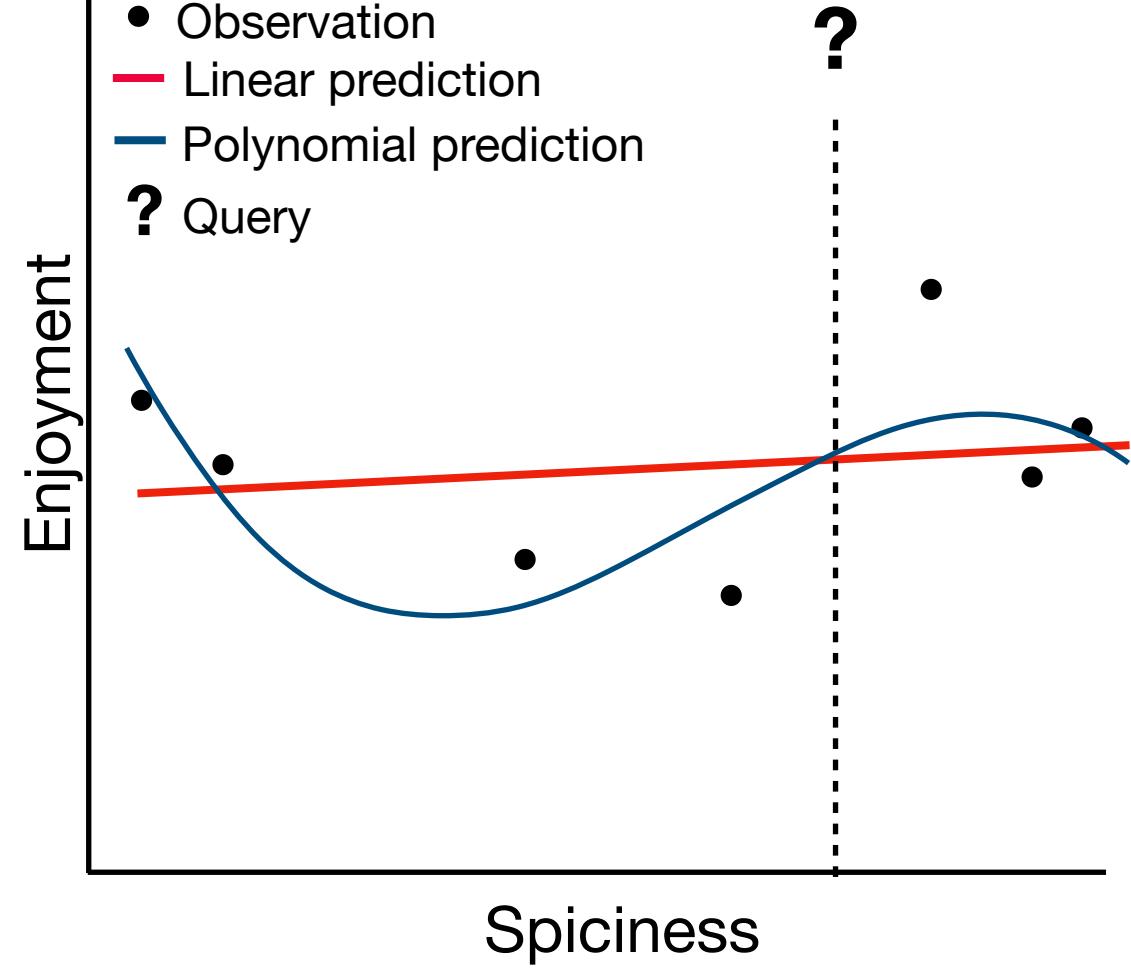


Function Learning Summary

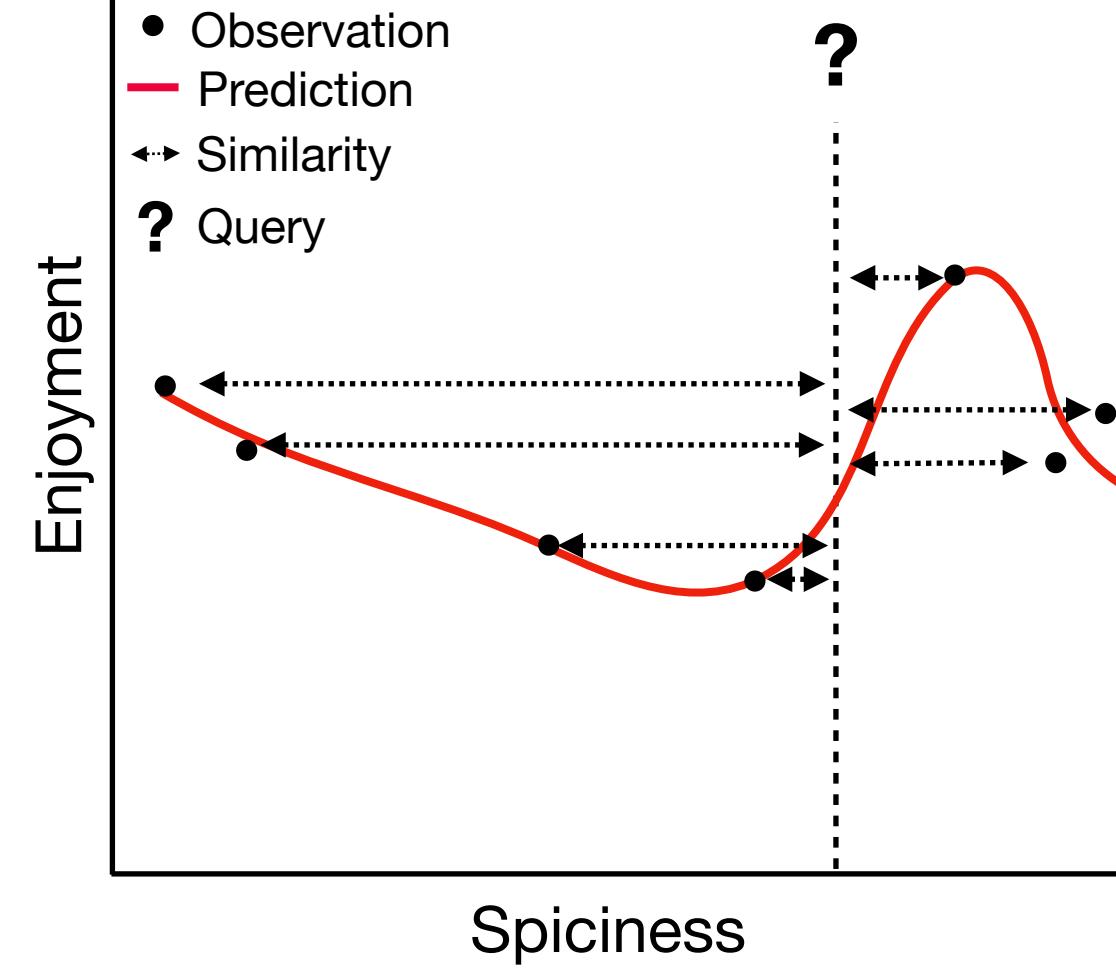
Regression task



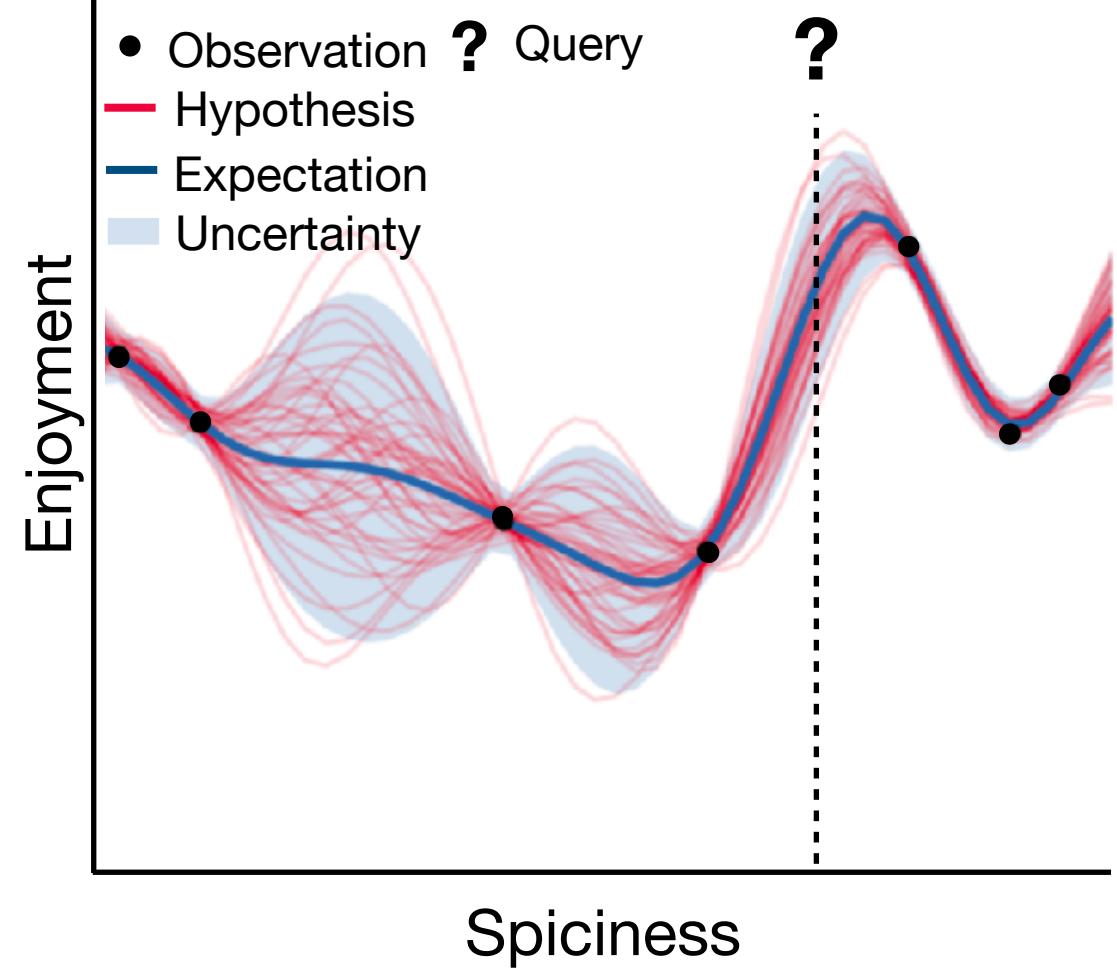
Rule-based



Similarity-based



Hybrid



- Functions represent candidate hypotheses about the world allowing us to evaluate an infinite range of possibilities through interpolation and extrapolation
- Early **rule-based** approaches lacked flexibility, while **similarity-based** approaches didn't capture human inductive biases
- GP regression is a **hybrid** model, using the principles of Bayesian inference to compute a distribution over candidate hypotheses
- GPs not only capture how humans explicitly learn functions, but also how we implicitly learn a value function to guide our exploration in RL tasks with large search spaces
- Originally tested in spatial environments (Wu et al., 2018), but can also be applied to any arbitrary features (Wu et al., 2020), or even graph-structured environments (Wu et al., 2021)

Next Lecture (in 2 weeks) - Language and Semantics

