

Learning → Giving a machine the ability to learn, adapt, organize or repair itself

Ability to adapt to new surroundings and solve problems → one of the distinguishing characteristics of intelligent beings

Adaptive → same task in similar circumstance more effectively + efficiently.

Broadly → learning has two major aspects related to it  
→ Skill refinement  
→ Knowledge acquisition

Learning mechanism should be such that it can learn in an unknown environment as well and evolve itself.

→ learning one of the fundamental building blocks of artificial intelligence (AI).

From mathematical point:- AI learning processes focus on processing a collection of input - output pairs for a specific function + predict the output for new input data

## Knowledge-Based Learning

AI learning models can be classified into 2 types based on their representation of knowledge.

1) Inductive learning:- AI learning model is based on inference of general rule from datasets of input-output pairs. Process of learning general pattern or rule from data points. Common algorithms: Decision trees; Support Vector Machine (SVM), Neural Network & K-Nearest Neighbours (K-NN).

2) Deductive learning:-

AI learning model begins with a series of rules & infers new rules that are more efficient in the context of a specific AI algorithm.

In contrast to inductive learning (which starts with specific data and generalizes to create a model), deductive learning begins with established rules or knowledge & uses them to draw specific inferences.

→ Relatively less common than inductive learning

Some deductive learning machine algorithms are

1) Prolog → programming language designed for symbolic & deductive reasoning. One defines a set of rules & then queries the system to derive specific conclusions.

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Prolog - created in 1970.

Defines problem rather than how to solve it.

Uses facts, rules + queries to describe problems + infer soln.

popular in application like expert systems,  
natural language processing + tasks that require  
logical reasoning

Not straightforward concept

sentence  $\rightarrow$  noun-phrase, verb-phrase.

noun-phrase  $\rightarrow$  determiner, noun.

verb-phrase  $\rightarrow$  verb, noun-phrase.

determiner  $\rightarrow$  [the].

noun  $\rightarrow$  [cat]; [dog]; [fish].

verb  $\rightarrow$  [eats]; [chases].

check if a sentence is valid sentence or not

? - phrase(sentence, [the, cat, eats, the, fish]).

output is true.

If there were multiple possible interpretations.

Prolog's backtracking would explore each option  
to find matches.

- PySWIP → one of the most popular Prolog implementation.
- Kanren → great for constraint-solving
  - useful for ~~many~~ certain NLP tasks
- MiniKanren (via logpy).
- Clom (Constraint logic programming),

## CLIPS

- use an if-then rule-based approach.
- where rules are defined to evaluate condition and execute specific actions if condition are met.
- Knowledge in CLIPS is represented as facts.
- Rules act on these facts, allowing for complex decision-making processes.
- Inference engine processes facts & rules to derive conclusion.
- It allows developers to define what to do rather ~~what~~ to how to do (Declarative Paradigm)
- suitable for complex rule based logic

Medical diagnosis → Expert system to diagnose diseases based on symptoms & medical history.

Financial Decision → based on predefined rule.

customer support, Manufacturing

## PyCLIPS

↳ help to use both rule based reasoning (CLIPS) & other AI features (Tensorflow, scikit-learn) in single application,



CLIPS (C Language Integrated Production System)

→ forward-chaining rule-based approach.

rules are applied to data to derive specific conclusions. Developed in 1980s by NASA for building expert systems

Rete algorithm → specialized algorithm used in expert system for efficient pattern matching + inference. Optimizes rule execution by storing + matching facts + rules in network structure

Cyc; MUCIN, DataLog and so on..

Python based;

Durable rules, Pyke; Experta, Pyclips.

↓  
more closely.

## Feedback - Based Learning

L21

Based on feedback characteristic, AI learning model can be classified as supervised; unsupervised or reinforcement learning model.

- 1) Unsupervised learning - Unsupervised models focus on learning a pattern in input data without any external feedback. e.g. PCA, K-means
- 2) Supervised learning - models use external feedback to learn functions that map input data to output observation. External environment acts as a trainer of the algorithm. e.g. Linear regression, Logistic regression, Decision Tree; SVM, K-Nearest Neighbours, Linear Discriminant Analysis, RNN, CNN
- 3) Reinforcement learning - models use opposite dynamics such as rewards + punishment to emphasize on different types of knowledge obtained. e.g. Q-Learning; Deep Q-Networks, AlphaZero.

## Supervised learning

Concept behind this form of learning is to create a model such that it can be supervised by a set of examples. These examples are such that the outcome is known so that in future, if any unknown example whose outcome is not known is ~~added~~ supplied to the algorithm; then it can infer and predict the outcome.

### Two phases in supervised learning

#### 1) Training phase

↓  
model is to be learned based on training data.

#### 2) Testing phase

↓  
model created in training phase is tested against the test data. Testing phase contributes in calculating the accuracy of model.

$$\text{Accuracy measure} = \frac{\text{Number of correct classification}}{\text{Total number of test cases}}$$



## Unsupervised learning

L2

Given a set of features, aim of unsupervised learning is to gather essential information about given data and its features. Here there is no response variable to predict and give certain value.

Evaluating the outcome in this kind of problem becomes difficult as there is no procedure to perform cross-validation on the results of independent set. Mostly statistical learning tasks can be performed using Unsupervised learning technique e.g. Amazon group identical customers with similar purchase histories + browsing patterns.

Useful for exploring data

K-Means, PCA, . . . .

# 1-4a Reinforcement learning

goal oriented learning. Reinforcement learning is done on the basis of information gained by different kind of interaction with the environment:

Interacts with an environment & learns to make a sequence of decisions or actions to maximize a cumulative reward. Over time, through trial & error; agent improves its policy & becomes better at ~~playing~~ doing the job

Real world application

Autonomous driving; robotics, game playing & so on. Chess, Go, dota 2 and so on.

Q-learning → popular model-free algorithm that learns Q-value for each state-action pair

Q-value represents expected future rewards of taking a certain action in a particular state

$$Q(s, a) = Q(s, a) + \alpha (\text{reward} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a))$$

$\alpha \rightarrow$  learning rate  $\downarrow$  0.1       $\gamma \rightarrow$  discount factor  $\downarrow$  0.9

## Classifier

L21 -

We have data set. In inductive learning  
one tries to learn a function  $f$ . We have an  
hypothesis  $h \rightarrow$  it is a function that approximates  
 $f$ .

In real, we have more than one hypothesis.

So there are set of functions one can have  
which can approximate  $f$ .

Hypothesis space  $H$

Input : Training set  $X$

Output : A hypothesis  $h \in H$

One can constraint  $h$  by using some bias or  
preferences

The hypothesis consistent with all training examples  
then such a hypothesis is called consistent  
hypothesis.

If one comes with a hypothesis  $h$  which has a low training error over a sufficiently large training set then one expects that  $h$  will approximate the target function well on other unseen examples.

So, one searches the hypothesis space of possible representations for  $h$  which best fits the data; given the bias.

The tendency to prefer one hypothesis over another is called a bias.

There are different types of bias. One classical bias is a bias called Occam's Razor.

Occam's razor states that one should prefer the simplest hypothesis over a more complex hypothesis. E.g. power plug of an appliance!

As we are using a function and trying to do a kind of generalization. This can lead to some discrepancy or error.

The errors are of two types

→ Bias error

→ Variance error

Bias error → As we restrict the hypothesis space or prefer a particular hypothesis. By deciding a particular hypothesis, one applies a bias. This error introduced due to the restriction on  $h$  is called "bias error". Due to incorrect or overly simplistic assumption in learning algorithm.

Variance error → Introduced when one has small or limited test set. If one change data set and get different models. The difference between them is variance error. It represents the model's sensitivity to the specific data used for training. Model's sensitivity to small fluctuation in training set.

Underfitting → When the machine learning model is too simple to capture the underlying patterns in the data. Model consistently makes predictions that are far from the actual values.

→ High Bias & Low Variance.

→ High training error & high test error



Overfitting  $\rightarrow$  When Machine learning model is too complex & fits the training data too closely; capturing not only the underlying pattern but also the noise in the data.

$\rightarrow$  Low Bias & high Variance

$\rightarrow$  Low training error & high test error.

Hypothesis space

$\rightarrow H, X^{\text{Training set}}$

$h \in H \rightarrow$  we get  $h \rightarrow$  hypothesis

Using  $h$ ; we get  $\hat{y}$  as predicted value of target feature on test data  $X$ .

while  $y$  is the observed value on test data  $X$ .

then

one can define error as

$$\text{Absolute error} = \frac{1}{n} \sum |h(x) - y|$$

$$\text{Sum of square error} = \frac{1}{n} \sum (h(x) - y)^2$$

$$\text{No. of miss classification} = \frac{1}{n} \sum \delta(h(x), y)$$

$\delta(h(x), y) \rightarrow$  delta-function

$\delta(h(x), y) \rightarrow$  return 1 if the classification is wrong

$\delta(h(x), y) = 0$  if correct classification.

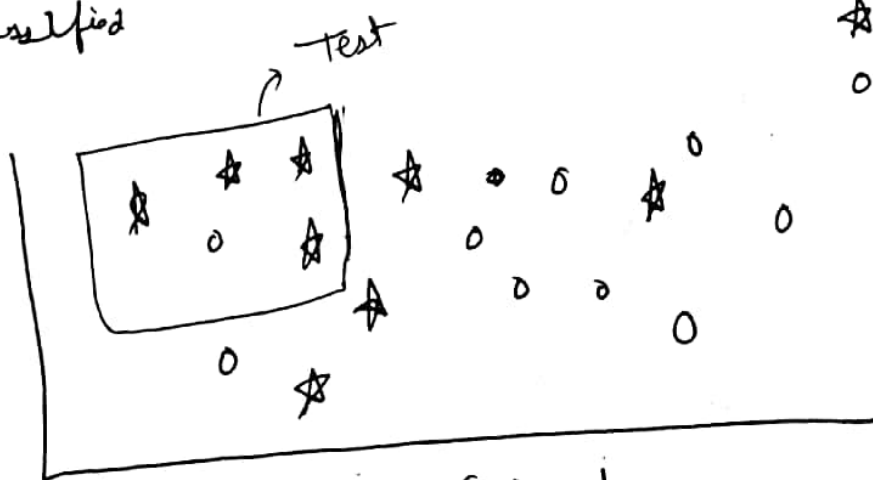
Confusion matrix we already talked in previous class.

$\text{error}_S(h)$  Sample error  $\frac{1}{n} \sum \delta(f(x), c(x))$    
 No. of miss classification divided by n.   
 (target function)

$\text{error}_D(h)$  True error

is the probability that on this distribution  $f(x) + c(x)$  will not agree. (on entire population)

Randomly drawn instance from entire distribution is misclassified



Using test, we get  $\text{error}_S(h) = \frac{1}{5}$

$$\text{error}_D(h) = \frac{10}{18}$$

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Data



→ Training → train the learner

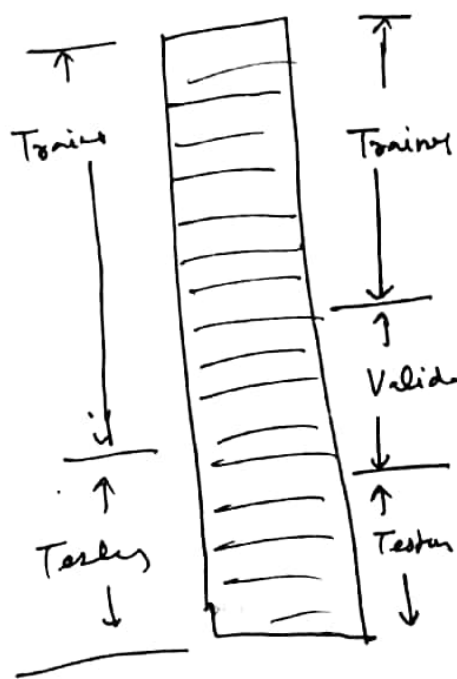
→ Testing → test the learner

If test set is small → we will have large variance  
 If test set is large → variance will be smaller.

If we use all data for training we might not be able to really get a good estimate of the error as one requires an independent set.

But if we get a good chunk of test set then training set is small. If training set is too small it will give rise to bias error (over fitting)

∴ ; one want to use as much of the training example as possible and also have sufficient test size.



60-70

15-20

15-20

hyper param = metrics tuning  
adjusting no. of layers + learning rate

This is done when we want robust model evaluation;  
3-way splitting

Split the data into training set + testing set.

During training when we are tuning the model parameters, one can use some part of training set for validation.

After training is over one checks the accuracy of hypothesis on the test set.

As we do validation, if we are splitting data into these parts validation fails to use all the available data.

There is another scheme called cross validation

## Cross validation

is a technique used in machine learning to assess the performance and generalization ability of predictive model. It involves partitioning dataset into multiple subset, training the model on some of these subsets & evaluating it on remaining data.

The most common form of cross-validation is called "k-fold cross-validation", where dataset is divided into  $k$  roughly equal sized subsets or "folds".

Steps are

- 1) Data splitting - dataset is divided into  $k$  subset of approximately equal size. If  $k = 6$ ; then data is divided into six folds.
- 2) One of  $k$  fold is used as test & remaining as training
- 3) Evaluation metrics (Accuracy, mean squared error) are computed



c) Results from each fold is recorded;  
model's performance is averaged across all folds

L21

→ Provide better estimate of the model's performance on unseen data.

→ Helps in identifying potential issues like underfitting or overfitting.

→ More efficient use of data.

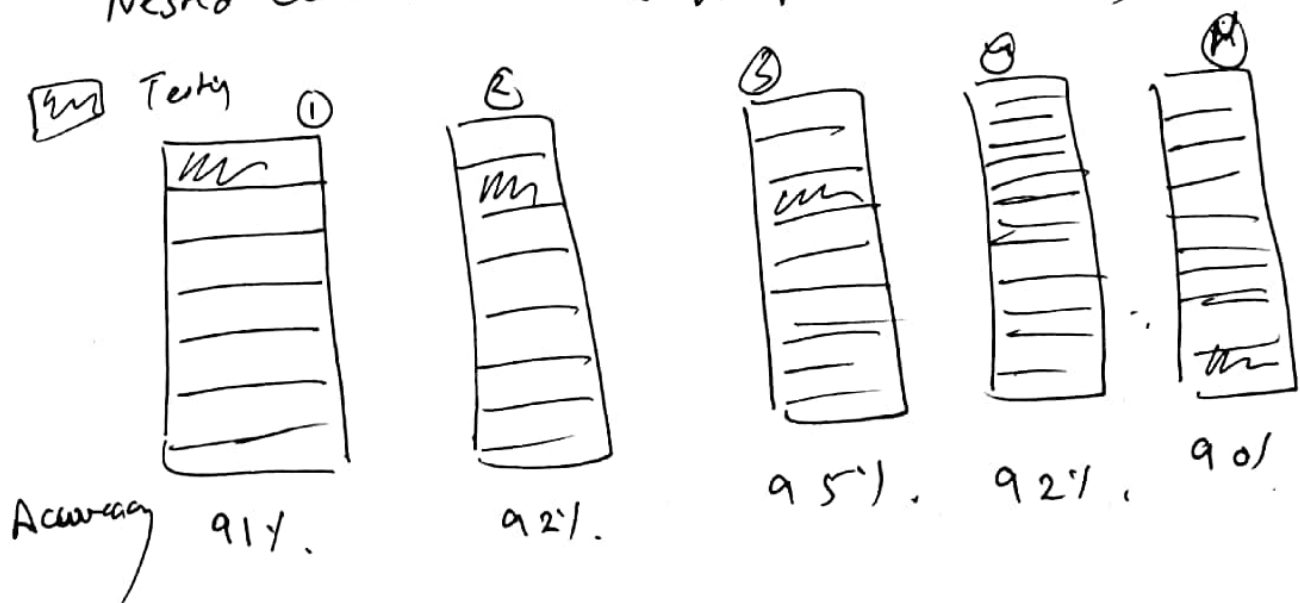
There are other variations

Common choice of values at 5-fold + 10-fold cross-validation.

→ Stratified k-fold.

→ leave-one-out cross-validation (k equals no. of data points)

Nested cross-validation (hyperparameter tuning)



Find Accuracy = ~~Average (1st fold, 2nd fold, ...)~~

Average (1st fold, 2nd fold, ... Nth fold)

→ Stratified K-fold cross validation

→ maintains the proportions of classes (for classification tasks) in each fold, ensuring each fold is representative of whole dataset.

→ Useful for imbalanced datasets

→ Leave-one-out cross validation (LOOCV)

→ dataset divided so that each data-point forms a single fold.

Model is trained on all but one data point & validated on single data point.

Useful for small datasets but computationally expensive for large datasets.

→ Leave P-out cross validation

Similar to LOOCV; but instead of leaving out a single point, p data points are left out in each iteration.

Also computationally expensive as there are  $\frac{n!}{p!(n-p)!}$  possible ways to select  $p$  data points from  $n$ .

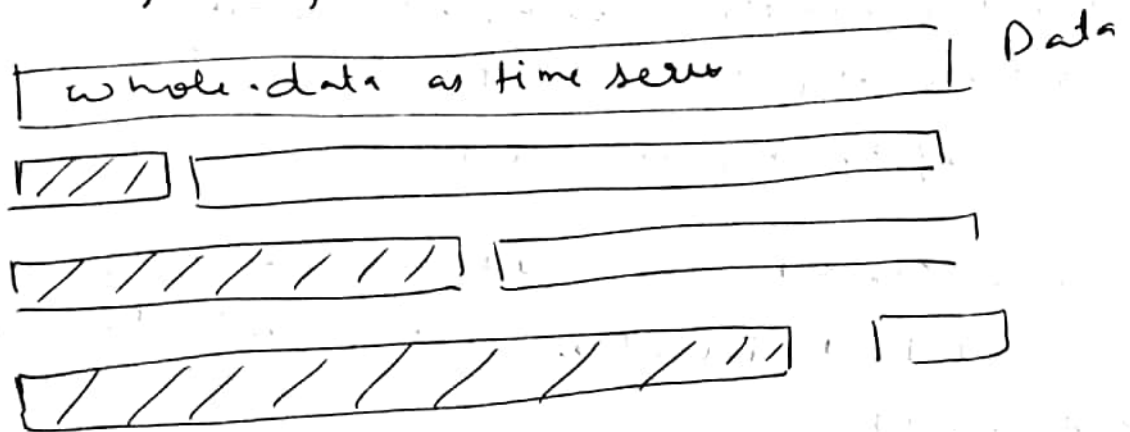
→ Time Series cross validation

Specially designed for time series data where data points depend on previous points in time.

Instead of randomly shuffling & splitting data, time series cross validation uses rolling validation window.

Train model on first portion of data + validate it on next portion.

Keep increasing training data + moving forward in time



Training