

CS-E4800 Artificial Intelligence

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Learning and Adaptation

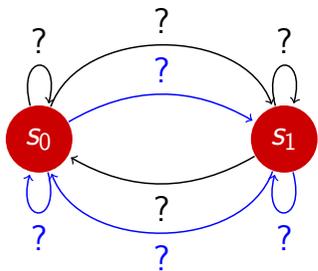
(Automated) **learning** useful when

- constructing a model **explicitly** (by hand) too difficult
- the model **changes** over time (adaptation)

This lecture:

- **Reinforcement Learning**: interleaved decision-making and learning when parts of model (initially) unknown
- **Neural Networks**: supervised learning from samples of data

Reinforcement Learning



Actions: Pick mushrooms, **Move**

States: s_0 , s_1

Costs and rewards: unknown

Consequences of actions: unknown

Question: What to do?

Reinforcement Learning

What if system model (as with MDPs) is **incomplete**?

- reward function $R(s, a, s')$ is unknown
- transition probabilities $P(s, a, s')$ unknown

Find near-optimal policies by **Reinforcement Learning**:

- Learning and execution are **interleaved**
- With every new reward and state, **update** model

Reinforcement Learning

- Applications:
 - robotics
 - control of distributed systems: power, telecom, ...
 - game playing
- Lots of different algorithms and approaches
- Issues:
 - Size of the state space
 - Slow learning when lots of states
 - Particularly difficult with partial observability
- This lecture: brief intro to **Q-learning**

Q-Learning

Inputs to Q-Learning

- action set A
- discount factor γ (as with MDPs)
- state set S
- learning rate $\lambda \in]0, 1[$ (higher \rightarrow faster learning)

Output: **Q-values** $Q(s, a) : S \times A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- An estimate for the value of taking action a in state s
- Summarizes both
 - the transition probabilities from s with a , and
 - the values of successors of s with a

Reinforcement Learning

Q-Learning

Collection of statistics on actions' consequences is interleaved with execution

- Try out different actions
- Observe reward and successor state
- Keep statistic $Q(s, a)$ on value of action a in state s
- Optimal policy is reached asymptotically

Q-Learning

Algorithm

- 1 Let $Q(s, a) = 0$ for all $s \in S$ and $a \in A$
- 2 $s :=$ starting state
- 3 Execute some action a , with new state s' and reward r
- 4 $Q(s, a) := (1 - \lambda)Q(s, a) + \lambda(r + \gamma \cdot \max_{a' \in A} Q(s', a'))$
- 5 Set $s := s'$ and go to 3

Choice of a at step 3 tries to balance between

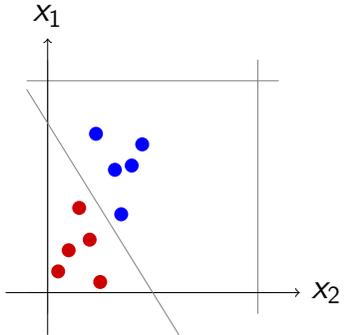
- **exploration**: Improving accuracy of $Q(s, a)$
- **exploitation**: Taking action a with highest $Q(s, a)$

Exploration vs. Exploitation

Choice of action in s based on $Q(s, a_1), \dots, Q(s, a_n)$:

- Prefer actions a with high $Q(s, a)$ (**exploitation**)
- Try also other actions (**exploration**) to gain more information
- Best to base this on a measure on confidence
 - How much confidence in current $Q(s, a)$?
 - How many times has a been tried before in s ?
- First more exploration
- Later more exploitation
- Lots of different ways of doing this! (See **Multi-armed bandits** for solutions that apply to both RL and to MCTS.)

Classification Problems



If $x_1 + 0.625 \cdot x_2 \geq 0.8$ then classify as **blue**, otherwise **red**.
 (Many other classifiers $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 \geq c$ possible.)

Classification Problems

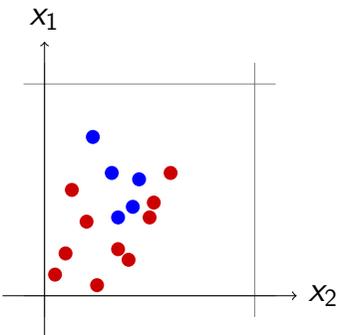
- 1 Construct a classifier **manually**
 - Example: Eligibility for student status (Boolean classifier)
 - Example: Eligibility for a specific type of immigration visa (Boolean classifier)
- 2 Construct a classifier by **supervised learning**
 - Manual construction difficult or impossible, when classification problem is too complex or unclearly defined
 - Procedure:
 - 1 Assign classes to **training examples** (labeling)
 - 2 Run a supervised learning algorithm on all training instances
 - 3 Apply the resulting classifier to new instances
 - Sometimes works really well

Classification Error

What is the Best Classifier?

- Often: no perfect classifier, some instances always classified wrong
- Even when training data fully fits, quality of classifiers vary
- **Error** = Difference between **actual value** y and **desired value** t
- **Squared error** $\sum_i (t_i - y_i)^2$ is often used

Classification Problems

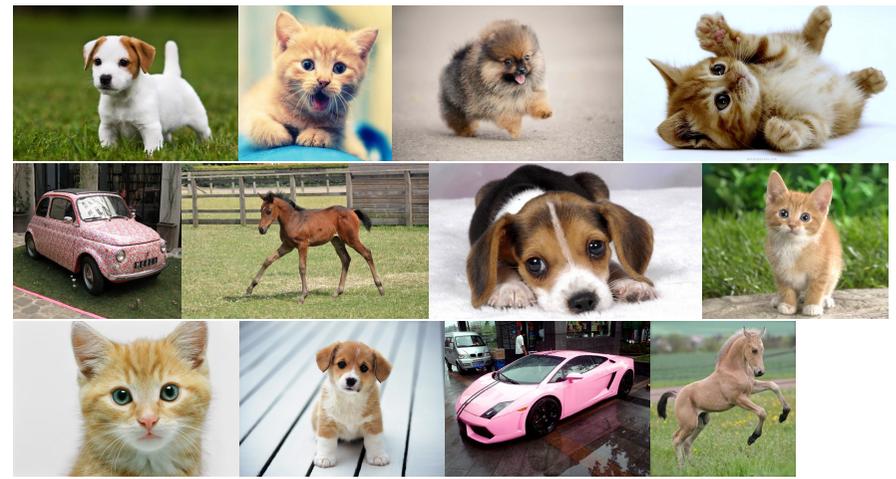


No (good) linear classifier exists

Classification Generally

- Dividing the n -dimensional space to 2 parts (or m parts)
- Linear classification: division by a line, a plane, a hyperplane
- Neural networks one way of doing **non-linear** classification
- Classify 1000×1000 pixel images: 10^6 -dimensional space

Classification Problems



Supervised Learning

- Decision-tree learning
- Support vector machines (SVM)
- Naive Bayes
- Linear regression
- Neural networks

Neural Networks

- Speech recognition, signal processing
- Natural language processing
- Image classification
- Bioinformatics

Neural Networks

- 1943 McCulloch & Pitts model
- 1958 Rosenblatt's single-layer **perceptron** model
- 1969 Minsky & Papert demonstrate limitations of perceptrons
- 1986 Hinton's Backpropagation algorithm for multi-layer networks
- 2012 Image classification (ImageNet) success for AlexNet
- 2013- lots of interest in neural networks, also outside academia...
- 2015 AlphaGo enhances tree search with NNs, beats human champions

Neural Networks

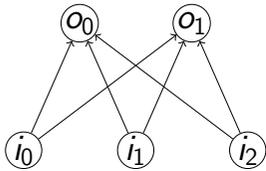
- + "Model" automatically constructed based on training data
- + Learn complex non-linear models effectively (in some applications)
- + Networks can represent **arbitrary functions** (over a bounded interval)
(suitable neuron type, high accuracy on a finite interval)
(function determined by the *weights* of connections between neurons)
- Require *lots* of training data (which has to be labelled)
- Result of learning **implicit** in the neural network (the weights!)

Neural Networks

- Feed-forward neural networks (acyclic)
 - Most commonly used
 - Good training algorithms exist
- Recurrent networks (cyclic)
 - More brain-like model
 - Fewer applications (currently)
 - Poorly understood, difficult to train

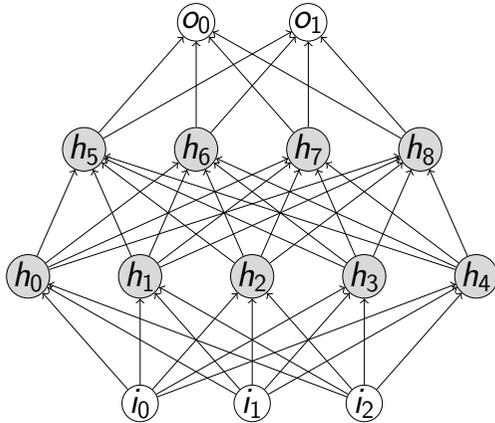
Neural Networks

Single-layer neural network without hidden nodes

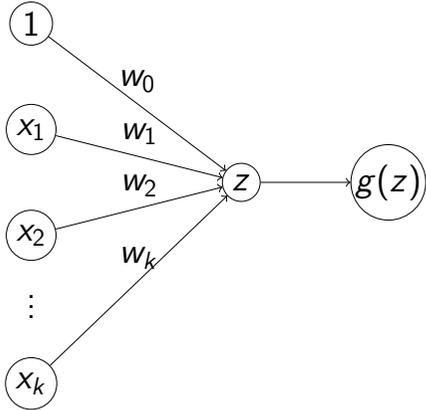


(Not all arrows always included!)

Multi-layer network (“deep learning”)



Nodes (“neurons”) in Neural Networks



Weighted sum of inputs:

$$z = w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k x_i w_i$$

Output by activation function $g(z)$ (next slide)

Types of Neurons

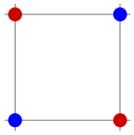
Activation (output) of a neuron:

- Linear: $y = c \cdot z$
- Binary threshold: $y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- Rectified linear: $y = \begin{cases} z & \text{if } z \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- Sigmoid: $y = \frac{1}{1+e^{-cz}}$ ($\lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} y$ approaches Binary threshold)

Why Not Just Linear Neurons (Perceptrons)?

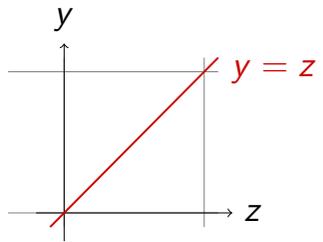
Linear inseparability: Even with multiple layers, cannot represent

- $x = y$ for Booleans, nor
- $x \neq y$ (XOR).

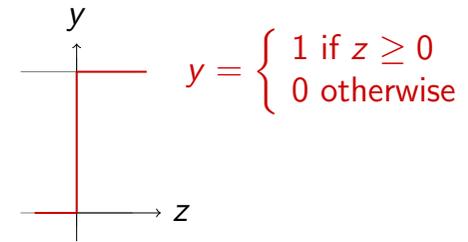


- Led to declined interest in NNs! (Minsky & Papert 1969)
- Solution: Use non-linear activation functions!

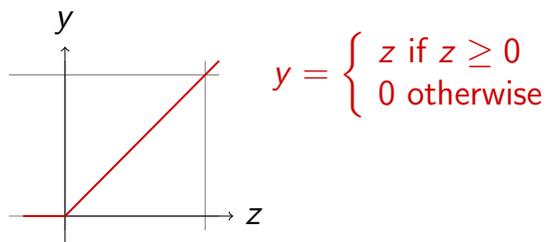
Linear



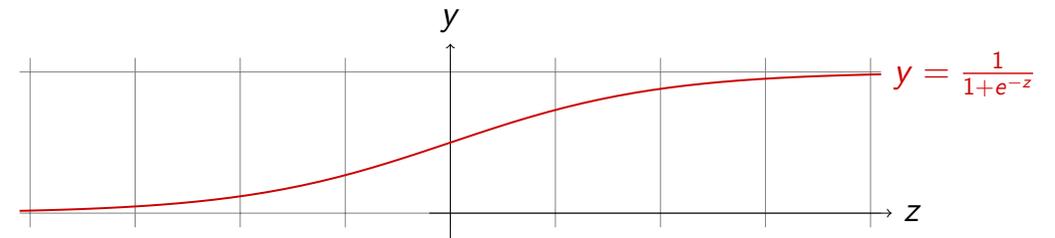
Binary Threshold



Rectified Linear

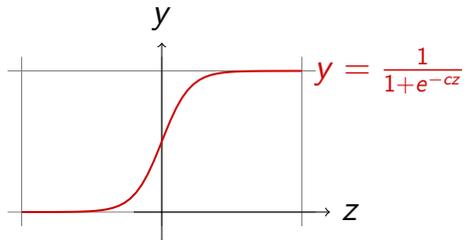


Sigmoid



Steepness of the Logistic Function

The steepness of the jump from $y = 0$ to $y = 1$ can be controlled by the constant c . This example has $c = 10$.

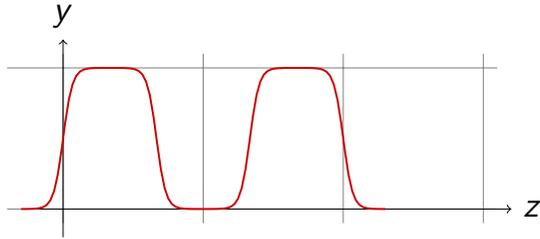


For $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-cz}}$, the derivative $\frac{d\sigma(z)}{dz} = c\sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z))$.

The Logistic Function

sum of four logistic functions

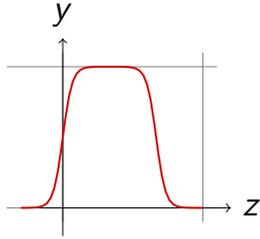
$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-30z}} - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(30z-20)}} + \frac{1}{1 + e^{-30z-40}} - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(30z-60)}}$$



The Logistic Function

sum of two logistic functions

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-30z}} - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(30z-20)}}$$



The Backpropagation Algorithm

For every training instance do the following.

- 1 Compute **the activation** for every node
- 2 Compute **the error**, i.e. the difference between
 - the output activation and
 - the desired activation.
- 3 Propagate the error backwards to all nodes
- 4 Adjust the *weights* to reduce the error

The algorithm is the same for all neuron types. We use $g(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ and $g'(x) = g(x)(1 - g(x))$ (the logistic function i.e. sigmoid neurons).

Reference: Russell & Norvig, *Introduction to A.I. – A Modern Approach*

The Backpropagation Algorithm: Phase 1

- L number of layers
- N number of nodes (input nodes + neurons)
- x_0, \dots, x_n the inputs to the neural network
- a_i for all $i \in \{0, \dots, N\}$ the activation level of node i

Calculate the activation levels of all nodes (forwards):

- 1 Let $a_i = x_i$ for all $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ activation of input nodes
- 2 For layers $l \in \{2, \dots, L\}$, and for each node j in layer l
 - 1 $in_j := \sum_{i \in pred(j)} w_{i,j} a_i$ weighted sum of inputs
 - 2 $a_j := g(in_j)$ activation

Here $pred(j)$ is the set of predecessors of j (and $succ(j)$ is the set of successors).

Application of the Backpropagation Algorithm

- Initial weights **random** (but range should be sensible)
- Weight updates
 - Separately for each training instance (**on-line**)
 - Gradient for small set of training instances (**mini batch**) + weight update
 - Gradient for all training instances (**full batch**) + weight update
 - Possibly: multiple runs with the same training data
- Convergence often slow: millions of training instances
- Fastest implementations with CUDA and GPUs
- Specialized hardware being developed

The Backpropagation Algorithm: Phase 2

Propagate error to all nodes (backwards); adjust weights

- 1 For output nodes j (level L) do
 - $\Delta(j) := g'(in_j) \cdot (y_j - a_j)$ where y_j is the desired output for j
- 2 For each level $l = L - 1, L - 2, \dots, 3, 2$, and each node i on level l
 - $\Delta(i) := g'(in_i) \sum_{j \in succ(i)} w_{i,j} \Delta(j)$

This propagates the error backwards through the whole network.
- 3 Update every weight by $w_{i,j} := w_{i,j} + \lambda a_i \Delta(j)$
(λ is the learning rate.)

Properties of the Backpropagation Algorithm

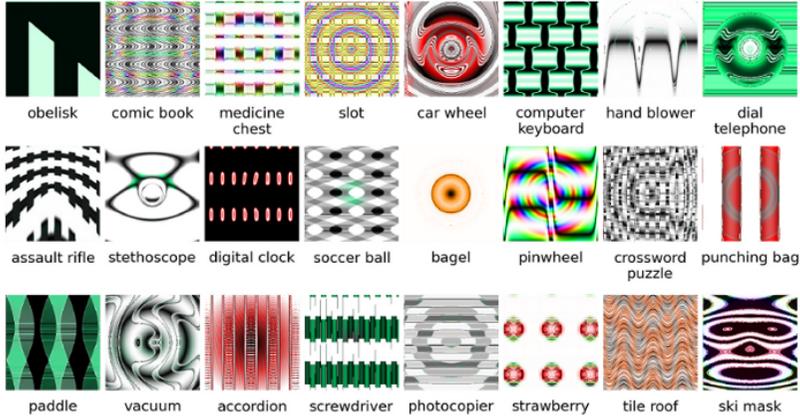
- Runtime is **polynomial**, in size of the network and the training set
- Backpropagation cannot guarantee finding a **global minimum**:
Different **local minima** can be reached, depending on initial weights, ordering of training data
- Finding weights that minimize error is **NP-hard**
Finding optimum not practical because of very large size of networks

AlexaNet

- Breakthrough in ImageNet classification competition 2012
 - 1000 image categories
 - 10'000'000 images (labelled), 256 × 256 RGB pixels
- AlexNet's network structure:
 - 5 convolutional layers +
 - 3 fully connected layers (4096, 4096 & 1000 nodes, respectively) with $4096 \cdot 4096 = 16'777'216$ and $4096 \times 1000 = 4'096'000$ connections
 - Total number of connections (weights) is about 60 million
 - The 1000-node layer is the outputs for the 1000 classes
 - Rectified linear nodes (as good as but faster than sigmoid)
- Later winners had more layers: 19 layers in 2014, 152 layers in 2015
- AlexNet error rate 15.3 per cent, ResNet (2015) 3.57 per cent

Reliability of Image Classification

Images misclassified as real objects, with high confidence!



Nguyen, Yosinski, Clune, *Deep Neural Networks are Easily Fooled: High Confidence Predictions for Unrecognizable Images*, Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR'15), IEEE, 2015

Reliability of Image Classification

50 pixels randomly perturbed can lead to misclassification



stingray → sea lion, ostrich → goose, jay → junco, water ouzel → redshank

Narodytska & Kasiviswanathan, *Simple Black-Box Adversarial Perturbations for Deep Networks*, arXiv, 2016