

Lecture 15

- Learning
 - PAC, Version space, Decision trees (part 1)

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PAC: definition

Relax this requirement by not requiring that the learning program necessarily achieve a small error but only that it to keep the error small **with high probability**.

Probably approximately correct (PAC) with probability δ and error at most ϵ if, given any set of training examples drawn according to the fixed distribution, the program outputs a hypothesis f such that

$$\Pr(\text{Error}(f) > \epsilon) < \delta$$

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PAC Training examples

Theorem:

If the number of hypotheses $|H|$ is finite, then a program that returns an hypothesis that is consistent with

$$m = \ln(\delta / |H|) / \ln(1 - \epsilon)$$

training examples (drawn according to \Pr) is guaranteed to be PAC with probability δ and error bounded by ϵ .

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We want....

- PAC (so far) describes accuracy of the hypothesis, and the chances of finding such a concept.
 - How many examples do we need to rule out the “really bad” hypotheses.
- We also want the process to proceed *quickly*.

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PAC learnable spaces

A class of concepts C is said to be

PAC learnable for a hypothesis space H

if there exists an polynomial time algorithm A
such that:

for any $c \in C$, distribution Pr , ϵ , and δ ,

if A is given a quantity of training examples
polynomial in $1/\epsilon$ and $1/\delta$,

then with probability $1 - \delta$

the algorithm will return a hypothesis f from H such
that

$$\text{error}(f) \leq \epsilon .$$

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Observations on PAC

- PAC learnability doesn't tell us *how* to find the learning algorithm.
- The number of examples needed grows slowly as the concept space increases, and with other key parameters.

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Example

- Target and learned concepts are conjunctions with up to n predicates. (This is our bias.)
 - Each predicate might appear in either positive or negated form, or be absent: 3 options.
 - This gives 3^n possible conjunctions in the hypothesis space.

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Result

- I have such a formula in mind.
- I'll give you some examples.
- You try to guess what the formula is.

A concept that matches all our examples will be PAC
if m is at least

$$n/\epsilon \ln (3/\delta)$$

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How

- How can we actually find a suitable concept?
- One key approach: start with the examples themselves, and try to generalize.
- E.g. Given $f(3,5)$ and $f(5,5)$.
 - We might try replacing the first argument with a variable X : $f(X,5)$.
 - We might try replacing both arguments with variables: $f(X,Y)$.
 - We want to get as general as possible, but not too general.
- The converse of this generalization is specialization.

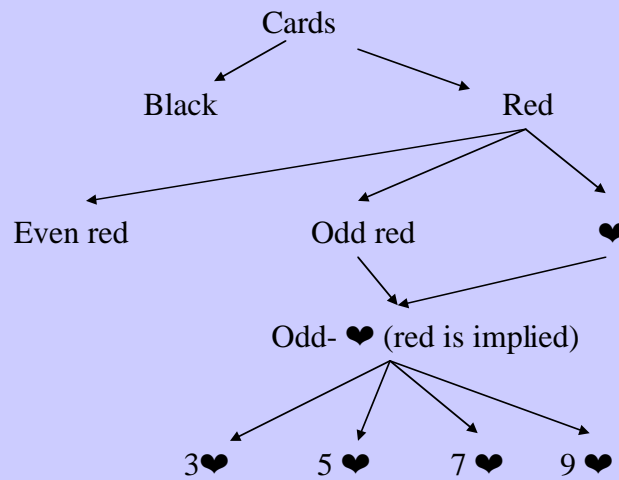
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Version Space [DAA 5.3]

- Deals with *conjunctive concepts*.
- Consider a concept C as being identified with the set of positive examples it associated with.
 - C : even numbered hearts = $\{3♥, 5♥, 7♥, 9♥\}$.
- A concept C_1 is a **specialization** of concept C_2 if the examples associated with C_1 are a subset of those associated with C_2 .
- **3-of-hearts** more specialized than **odd hearts**.

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Specialization/Generalization



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Immediate

- **Immediate Specialization**: no intermediate.
- Red is not the immediate specialization of 2-of-hearts.
- Red is the immediate specialization of hearts and diamonds.
 - Note: This observation depends on knowing the hypothesis space restriction.

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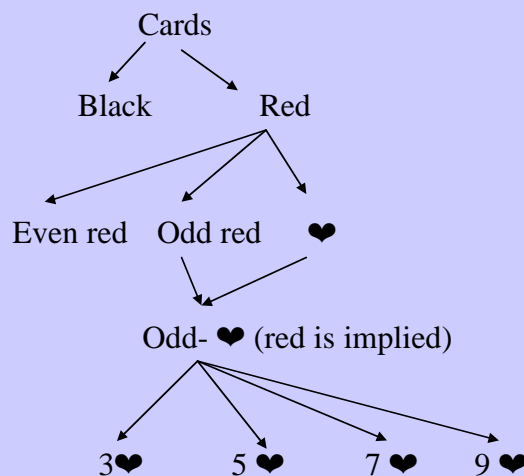
Algorithm outline

- Incrementally process training data.
- Keep list of most and least specific concepts consistent with the observed data.
 - For two concepts A and B that are consistent with the data, the concept $C = (A \text{ AND } B)$ will also be consistent yet more specific.
- Tied in a subtle way to **conjunctions**.
 - Disjunctive concepts can be obtained trivially by joining examples, but they're not interesting.

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VS example

- 4 ♥ :no
- 5 ♥ :yes
- 5 ♣ :no
- 7 ♥ :yes
- 9 ♠ ---
- 3 ♥ yes



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Algorithm specifics

- Maintain two bounding concepts:
 - The most specialized (DAA: *specific boundary*)
 - The broadest (DAA: *general boundary*).
 - Each example we see is either positive (yes) or negative (no).
 - Positive examples (+) tend to make the concept more general (or inclusive). Negative examples (-) are used to make the concept more exclusive (to reject them).
- + -> move “up” the specific boundary
- -> move “down” the general boundary.

Detailed algorithm: DAA p. 191-192.

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Observations

- It allows you to **GENERALIZE** from a training set to examples never-before-seen !!!
 - In contrast, consider table lookup or rote learning.
- Why is that good?
 - 1 It allows you to infer things about new data (the whole point of learning)
 - 2 It allows you to (potentially) remember old data much more efficiently.
- Version space method is optimal for a conjunction of positive literals.
 - How does it perform with noisy data?

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Learning Decision Trees

- **Decision tree** takes as input a set of properties and outputs yes/no “decisions”.
- A tree structure such that
 - Internal nodes correspond to questions
 - Arcs are associated with answers to questions
 - Terminal (leaf) nodes are decisions.
- Example:
goal predicate: *WillWait*
do we want to wait for a table at a restaurant?

Restaurant Selector

Example attributes:

- 1. Alternate
- 2. Bar
- 3. Fri/Sat
- 4. Hungry
- 5. Patrons
- 6. Price
- etc.

forall r Patrons(r, Full) AND
WaitEstimate(r, under_10) AND Hungry(r, N) ->
WillWait(r)\$

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Example 2

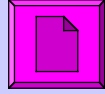
Maybe we should have made a reservation?
(using a decision tree)

- Restaurant lookup: you've heard Joe's is good.
- Lookup Joe's
-
-
-
-
-
-
-

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Decision trees: issues

- Constructing a decision tree is easy... really easy!
 - Just add examples in turn.



- Difficulty: how can we extract a *simplified* decision tree?
 - This implies (among other things) establishing a preference order (bias) among alternative decision trees.
 - Finding the smallest one proves to be VERY hard. Improving over the trivial one is okay.

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