# Vorlesung Grundlagen der Künstlichen Intelligenz

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Grundlagen der Künstlichen Intelligenz – Techniques in Artificial Intelligence

# Chapter (16+) 18

# **Decisions and Learning**

with material from Russel/Norvig original slides and Michael Beetz

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#### **Rational preferences**

Idea: preferences of a rational agent must obey constraints. Rational preferences  $\Rightarrow$ 

behavior describable as maximization of expected utility

Constraints:

 $\begin{array}{l} \underline{\operatorname{Orderability}}\\ (A \succ B) \lor (B \succ A) \lor (A \sim B) \\ \underline{\operatorname{Transitivity}}\\ (A \succ B) \land (B \succ C) \Rightarrow (A \succ C) \\ \underline{\operatorname{Continuity}}\\ A \succ B \succ C \Rightarrow \exists p \ [p, A; \ 1 - p, C] \sim B \\ \underline{\operatorname{Substitutability}}\\ A \sim B \Rightarrow \ [p, A; \ 1 - p, C] \sim [p, B; 1 - p, C] \\ \underline{\operatorname{Monotonicity}}\\ A \succ B \Rightarrow \ (p \geq q \ \Leftrightarrow \ [p, A; \ 1 - p, B] \rightleftharpoons [q, A; \ 1 - q, B]) \end{array}$ 



#### **Rational preferences (cont'd)**

Violating the constraints leads to self-evident irrationality

For example: an agent with intransitive preferences can be induced to give away all its money

If  $B \succ C$ , then an agent who has C would pay (say) 1 cent to get B

If  $A \succ B$ , then an agent who has B would pay (say) 1 cent to get A

If  $C \succ A$ , then an agent who has A would pay (say) 1 cent to get C





### **Maximizing expected utility**

**Theorem** (Ramsey, 1931; von Neumann and Morgenstern, 1944): Given preferences satisfying the constraints there exists a real-valued function U such that  $U(A) \ge U(B) \iff A \gtrsim B$ 

 $U([p_1, S_1; \ldots; p_n, S_n]) = \sum_i p_i U(S_i)$ 

MEU principle:

Choose the action that maximizes expected utility

Note: an agent can be entirely rational (consistent with MEU) without ever representing or manipulating utilities and probabilities

E.g., a lookup table for perfect tictactoe



# Learning

Learning is essential for unknown environments, i.e., when designer lacks omniscience

Learning is useful as a system construction method, i.e., expose the agent to reality rather than trying to write it down

Learning modifies the agent's decision mechanisms to improve performance





### Learning element

Design of learning element is dictated by

- $\diamondsuit$  what type of performance element is used
- $\diamondsuit$  which functional component is to be learned
- $\diamondsuit$  how that functional compoent is represented
- $\diamondsuit$  what kind of feedback is available

Example scenarios:

Performance element	Component	Representation	Feedback	
Alpha-beta search	Eval. fn.	Weighted linear function	Win/loss	
Logical agent	Transition model	Successor-state axioms	Outcome	
Utility-based agent	Transition model	Dynamic Bayes net	Outcome	
Simple reflex agent	Percept-action fn	Neural net	Correct action	

Supervised learning: correct answers for each instance Reinforcement learning: occasional rewards



## Learning in AI context

- Many learning algorithms widely used in practice:
  - (Artificial) Neural Networks
  - Support Vector Machines
  - Reinforcement learning
  - Learning from examples
  - etc.
- Special lecture "Machine learning"
- Here, we concentrate on Decision tree learning



### **Inductive learning**

Simplest form: learn a function from examples (tabula rasa)

 $\boldsymbol{f}$  is the target function

An example is a pair 
$$x$$
,  $f(x)$ , e.g.,  $\frac{O \mid O \mid X}{X}$ , +1

Problem: find a(n) hypothesis hsuch that  $h \approx f$ given a training set of examples

(This is a highly simplified model of real learning:

- Ignores prior knowledge
- Assumes a deterministic, observable "environment"
- Assumes examples are given
- Assumes that the agent wants to learn f—why?)



- In general, inference in Bayesian networks is NP-hard
- For polytrees, exact inference has linear time and space complexity.
- For all other network topologies, approximate algorithms are needed



Construct/adjust h to agree with f on training set (h is consistent if it agrees with f on all examples)





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#### **Decision trees**

One possible representation for hypotheses E.g., here is the "true" tree for deciding whether to wait:





#### **Attribute-based representations**

Examples described by attribute values (Boolean, discrete, continuous, etc.) E.g., situations where I will/won't wait for a table:

Example	Attributes									Target	
Enternipie	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	WillWait
$X_1$	Т	F	F	T	Some	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	0–10	Т
$X_2$	T	F	F	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	30-60	F
$X_3$	F	Т	F	F	Some	\$	F	F	Burger	0–10	Т
$X_4$	T	F	T	T	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10-30	Т
$X_5$	Т	F	Т	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	>60	F
$X_6$	F	Т	F	T	Some	\$\$	Т	Т	Italian	0–10	Т
$X_7$	F	Т	F	F	None	\$	Т	F	Burger	0–10	F
$X_8$	F	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$	Т	Т	Thai	0–10	Т
$X_9$	F	T	T	F	Full	\$	T	F	Burger	>60	F
$X_{10}$	Т	T	Т	T	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	Italian	10-30	F
$X_{11}$	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0–10	F
$X_{12}$	T	Т	T	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30-60	Т

Classification of examples is positive (T) or negative (F)





Decision tree learned from the 12 examples:



Substantially simpler than "true" tree—a more complex hypothesis isn't justified by small amount of data



#### **Expressiveness**

Decision trees can express any function of the input attributes. E.g., for Boolean functions, truth table row  $\rightarrow$  path to leaf:



Trivially, there is a consistent decision tree for any training set w/ one path to leaf for each example (unless f nondeterministic in x) but it probably won't generalize to new examples

Prefer to find more **compact** decision trees



# **Hypothesis space**

How many distinct decision trees with n Boolean attributes??

- = number of Boolean functions
- = number of distinct truth tables with  $2^n$  rows =  $2^{2^n}$

E.g., with 6 Boolean attributes, there are 18,446,744,073,709,551,616 trees

How many purely conjunctive hypotheses (e.g.,  $Hungry \land \neg Rain$ )??

Each attribute can be in (positive), in (negative), or out  $\Rightarrow 3^n$  distinct conjunctive hypotheses

More expressive hypothesis space

- increases chance that target function can be expressed



– increases number of hypotheses consistent w/ training set

 $\Rightarrow$  may get worse predictions



### **Decision tree learning**

Aim: find a small tree consistent with the training examples

Idea: (recursively) choose "most significant" attribute as root of (sub)tree

```
function DTL(examples, attributes, default) returns a decision tree

if examples is empty then return default

else if all examples have the same classification then return the classification

else if attributes is empty then return MODE(examples)

else

best \leftarrow CHOOSE-ATTRIBUTE(attributes, examples)

tree \leftarrow a new decision tree with root test best

for each value v_i of best do

examples_i \leftarrow \{elements of examples with best = v_i\}

subtree \leftarrow DTL(examples_i, attributes - best, MODE(examples))

add a branch to tree with label v_i and subtree subtree

return tree
```



#### **Choosing an attribute**

Idea: a good attribute splits the examples into subsets that are (ideally) "all positive" or "all negative"



*Patrons*? is a better choice—gives **information** about the classification



### Information

Information answers questions

The more clueless I am about the answer initially, the more information is contained in the answer

Scale: 1 bit = answer to Boolean question with prior (0.5, 0.5)

Information in an answer when prior is  $\langle P_1, \ldots, P_n \rangle$  is

 $H(\langle P_1, \ldots, P_n \rangle) = \sum_{i=1}^n - P_i \log_2 P_i$ 

(also called entropy of the prior)



## Information (cont'd)

Suppose we have p positive and n negative examples at the root  $\Rightarrow H(\langle p/(p+n), n/(p+n) \rangle) \text{ bits needed to classify a new example}$ E.g., for 12 restaurant examples, p = n = 6 so we need 1 bit

An attribute splits the examples E into subsets  $E_i$ , each of which (we hope) needs less information to complete the classification

Let  $E_i$  have  $p_i$  positive and  $n_i$  negative examples  $\Rightarrow H(\langle p_i/(p_i+n_i), n_i/(p_i+n_i) \rangle)$  bits needed to classify a new example  $\Rightarrow$  expected number of bits per example over all branches is

$$\sum_{i} \frac{p_i + n_i}{p + n} H(\langle p_i / (p_i + n_i), n_i / (p_i + n_i) \rangle)$$

For Patrons?, this is 0.459 bits, for Type this is (still) 1 bit

 $\Rightarrow$  choose the attribute that minimizes the remaining information needed



#### **Performance measurement**

How do we know that  $h \approx f$ ? (Hume's Problem of Induction)

1) Use theorems of computational/statistical learning theory

2) Try h on a new test set of examples (use same distribution over example space as training set)





## Performance measurement (cont'd)

Learning curve depends on

- realizable (can express target function) vs. non-realizable non-realizability can be due to missing attributes or restricted hypothesis class (e.g., thresholded linear function)
- redundant expressiveness (e.g., loads of irrelevant attributes)





### **Summary**

- Learning needed for unknown environments, lazy designers
- Learning agent = performance element + learning element
- Learning method depends on type of performance element, available feedback, type of component to be improved, and its representation
- For supervised learning, the aim is to find a simple hypothesis that is approximately consistent with training examples
- Decision tree learning using information gain
- Learning performance = prediction accuracy measured on test set

