CSE 473

Lecture 24 (Chapter 18)

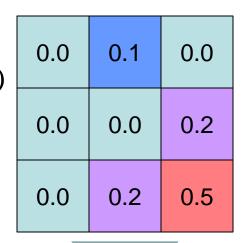
From Particle Filtering to Supervised Learning and Decision Trees

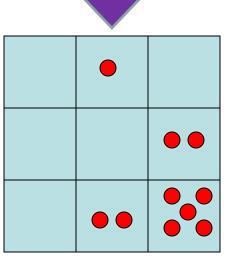


© CSE AI faculty + Chris Bishop, Dan Klein, Stuart Russell, Andrew Moore

Last Time: Particle Filtering

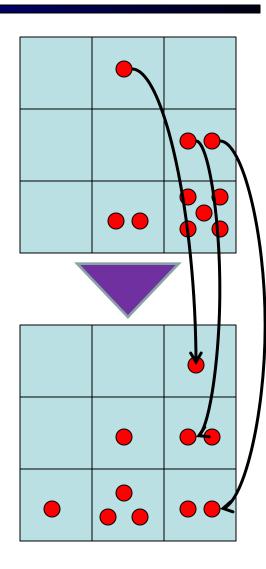
- Sometimes |X| is too big for exact inference
 - |X| may be too big to even store $P(X_t | e_{1:t})$ E.g. when X is continuous
- Solution: Approximate inference
 - Track a set of samples of X
 - Samples are called *particles*
 - Number of samples for X=x is proportional to probability of x





Particle Filtering Step 1: Elapse Time

- Each particle x is moved by sampling its next position using the transition model
 - $x' = \operatorname{sample}(P(X'|x))$
 - Samples' frequencies reflect the transition probabilities
 - In example, most samples move clockwise, but some move in another direction or stay in place
- This step captures passage of time



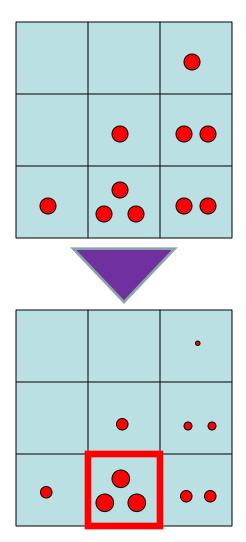
Particle Filtering Step 2: Observe

Weight particles according to evidence

 Assign weights w to samples based on the new observed evidence e

w(x) = P(e|x)

 In example, true ghost position is shown in red outline; samples closer to ghost get higher weight (bigger size of circles) based on noisy distance emission model



Particle Filtering Step 3: Resample

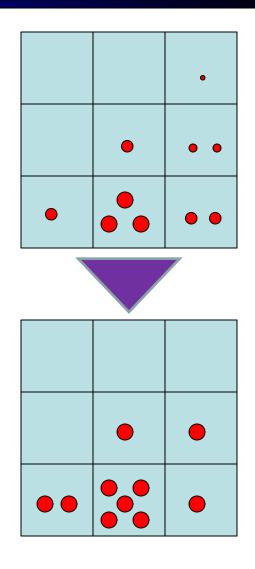
- N times, we choose from our weighted sample distribution (i.e. randomly select with replacement)
 - Each sample selected with probability proportional to its weight
- Now the update is complete for this time step, continue with the next one

Old Particles: (1,3) w=0.1 (3,2) w=0.9 (3,2) w=0.9 (3,1) w=0.4 (2,3) w=0.3 (2,2) w=0.4 (3,3) w=0.4 (3,3) w=0.4 (3,2) w=0.9 (2,3) w=0.3

New Particles:

- (3,2) w=1 (3,2) w=1
- (3,2) w=1
- (2,3) w=1
- (2,2) w=1
- (3,2) w=1
- (3,1) w=1
- (3,3) w=1
- (3,3) W=1(3,2) W=1
- (3,2) W = (3,2) W = 1





Particle Filtering Summary

- Represent current belief P(X | evidence to date) as set of N samples (actual values x)
- For each new observation e:
 - 1. Sample transition, once for each current particle x

$$x' = \operatorname{sample}(P(X'|x))$$

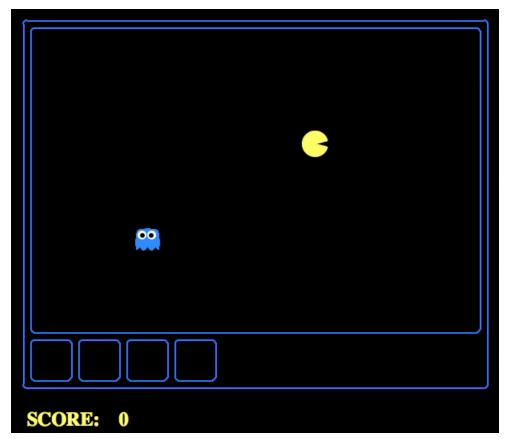
2. For each new sample x', *compute importance weights* for the new evidence e:

$$w(x') = P(e|x')$$

3. Finally, *resample* the importance weights to create N new particles

Example 1

Particle filter, uniform initial beliefs, 25 particles



Example 2

Particle filter, uniform initial beliefs, 300 particles



WWW.Wipro.com

Big Data is data that is too large, complex and dynamic for any conventional data tools to capture, store, manage and analyze.

The right use of Big Data allows analysts to spot trends and gives niche insights that help create value and innovation much faster than conventional methods. The "three V's", i.e the Volume, Variety and Velocity of the data coming in is what creates the challenge.



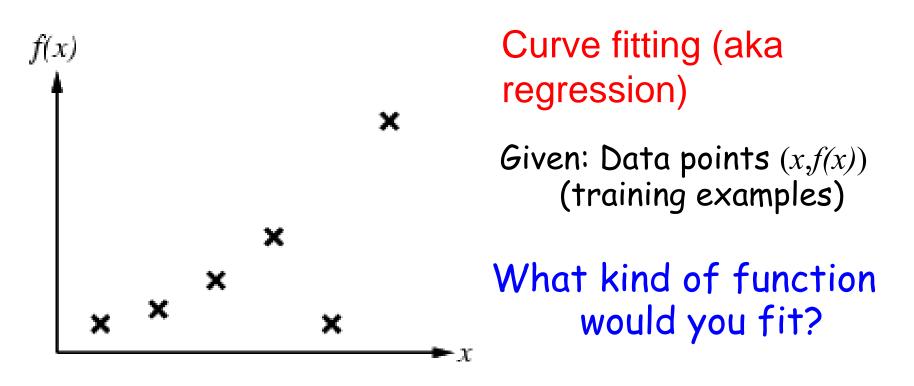
Enter...Machine Learning

Varieties of Machine Learning

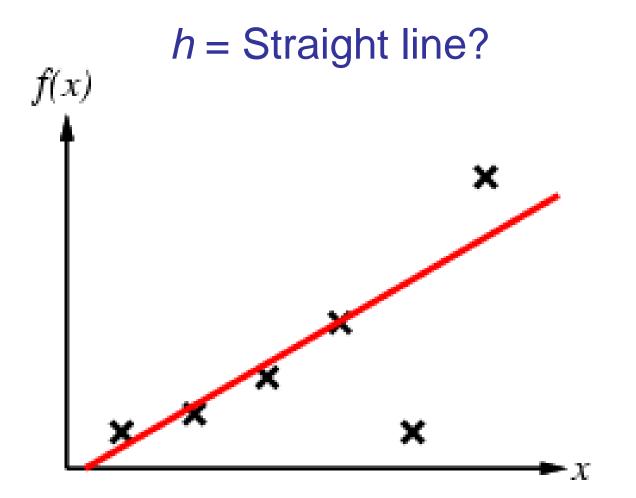
- Supervised learning: correct answers for each input is provided, goal is to generalize to new data
 - E.g., decision trees, neural networks
- Unsupervised learning: correct answers not given, must discover patterns in input data
 - E.g., clustering, principal component analysis
- Reinforcement learning: occasional *rewards* (or punishments) given to guide behavior
 - We've covered this already! (Q-learning, MDPs)

Supervised learning

- Goal: Construct a function *h* from training data to approximate the hidden function *f* that is generating the data
 - *h* is consistent if it agrees with *f* on all training examples

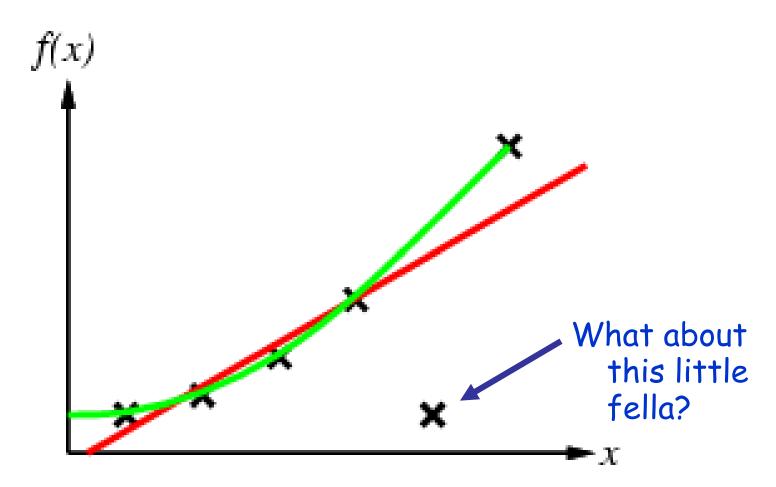


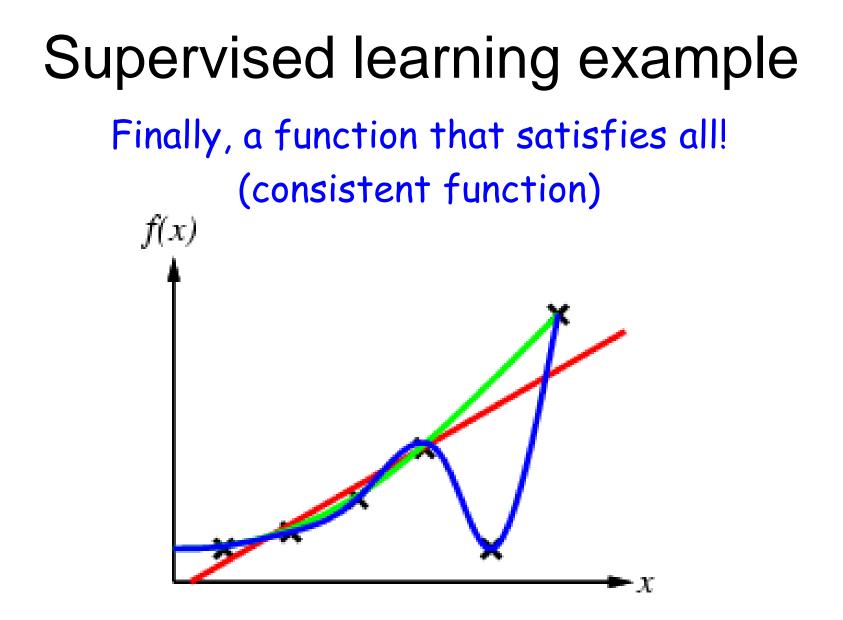
Supervised learning example



Supervised learning example

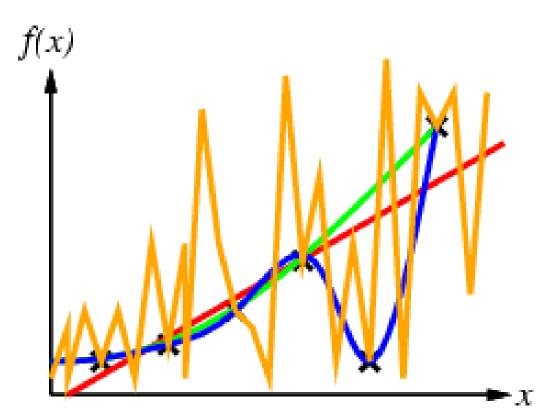
What about a quadratic function?



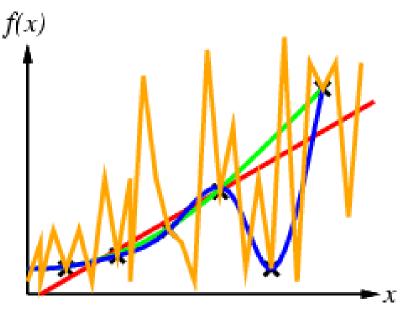


Supervised learning example

But so does this one...



Ockham's Razor Principle



Prefer the simplest hypothesis consistent with data

- Related to KISS principle ("keep it simple stupid")
- Smooth blue function preferable over wiggly yellow one
- If noise known to exist in data, even linear might be better (the lowest x might be due to noise)

Types of Supervised Learning

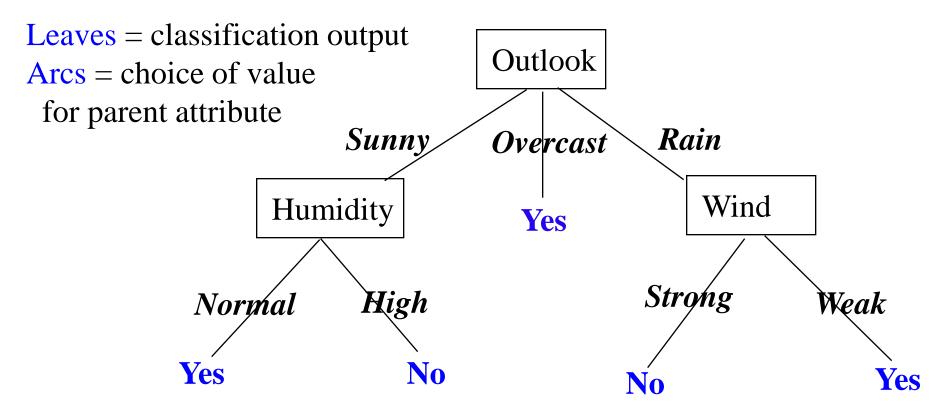
- Classification: Output is discrete (e.g., Yes/No, Class 1 or Class 2 or Class 3, etc.)
 - Decision trees
 - K-nearest neighbor
 - Linear Classifiers
 - Support Vector Machines (SVMs)
 - Cross validation
- Regression: Output is continuous
 - Linear regression and Neural networks
 - Backpropagation learning algorithm

Goal: Learn the function "PlayTennis?" from example data

Input Attributes				Output	
Day <mark>Outlook</mark>		Humid Wind		PlayTennis	s? "yes" (y) or "no" (n)
d1	S	h	W	n	
d2	S	h	S	n	
d3	0	h	W	У	
d4	r	h	W	У	 Outlook = sunny
d5	r	n	W	У	(s), overcast (o),
d6	r	n	S	У	or rain (r)
d7	0	n	S	У	
d8	S	h	W	n	 Humidity = high
d9	S	n	W	У	(h), or normal (n)
d10	r	n	W	У	
d11	S	n	S	У	· Mind - woold (w)
d12	0	h	S	У	• Wind = weak (w)
d13	0	n	W	У	or strong (s)
d14	r	h	S	n	

A Decision Tree for the Same Data

Decision Tree for "PlayTennis?"



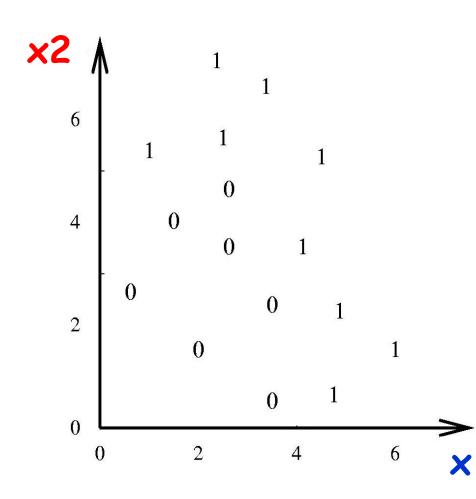
Decision tree equivalent to logical statment in disjunctive normal form PlayTennis \Leftrightarrow (Sunny \land Normal) \lor Overcast \lor (Rain \land Weak)

Decision Trees

- Input: Set of attributes describing an object or situation
- Output: Predicted output value for the input
- Decision tree is consistent if it produces the correct output on all training examples
- Input and output can be discrete or continuous

Example: Decision Tree for Continuous Values

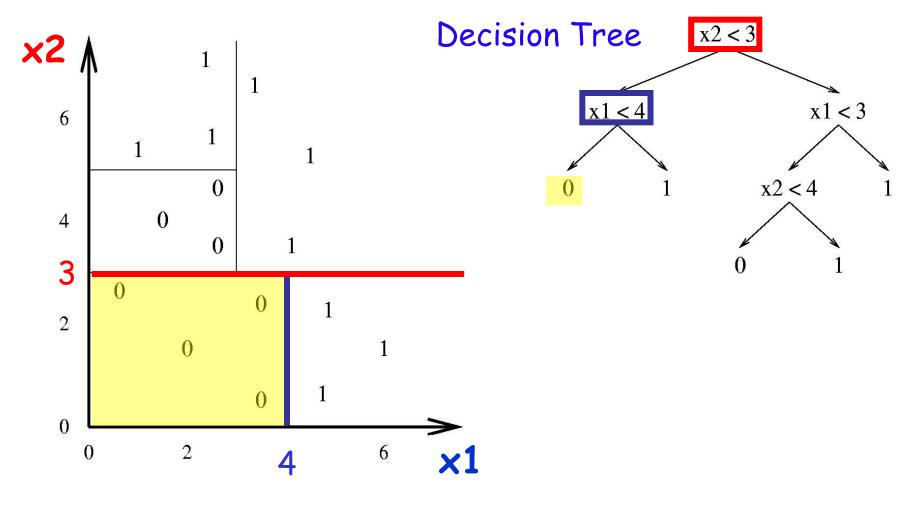
Input: Continuous-valued attributes (x1,x2) Output: 0 or 1



How do we branch on attribute values x1 and x2 to partition the space and generate correct outputs?

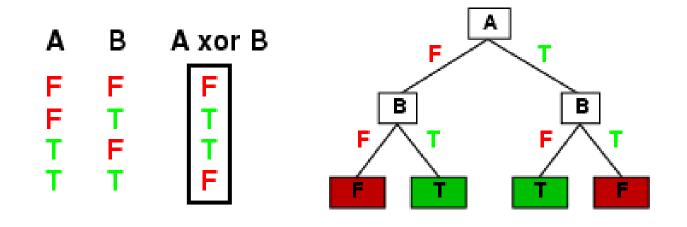
Example: Classification of Continuous Valued Inputs

Decision trees divide the feature space into axis-parallel rectangles, and label each rectangle with one of the K classes.



Expressiveness of Decision Trees

- Decision trees can express any function of the input attributes.
- E.g., Boolean functions, truth table row = path to leaf:



- Trivially, there is a consistent decision tree for any training set with one path to leaf for each example
 - But most likely won't generalize to new examples
- Prefer to find more compact decision trees

Learning Decision Trees

Example: When should I wait for a table at a restaurant?

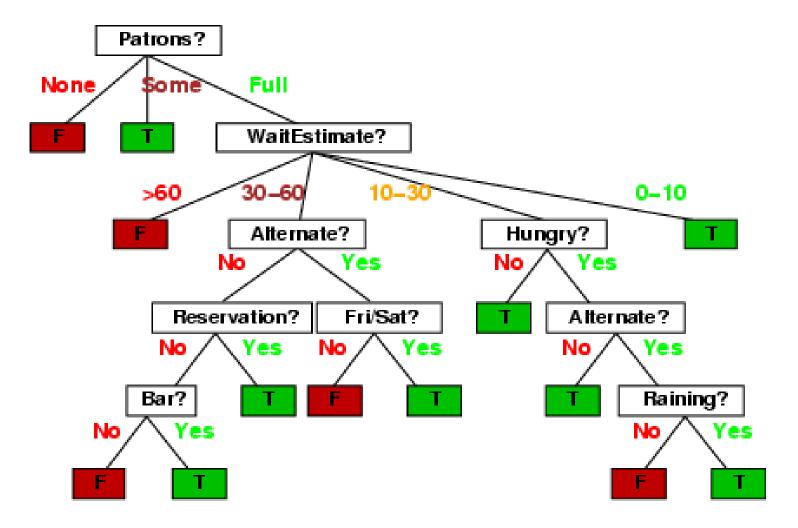


Learning Decision Trees

- Example: When should I wait for a table at a restaurant?
- Attributes (features) relevant to *Wait?* decision:
 - 1. Alternate: is there an alternative restaurant nearby?
 - 2. Bar: is there a comfortable bar area to wait in?
 - 3. Fri/Sat: is today Friday or Saturday?
 - 4. Hungry: are we hungry?
 - 5. Patrons: number of people in the restaurant (None, Some, Full)
 - 6. Price: price range (\$, \$\$, \$\$\$)
 - 7. Raining: is it raining outside?
 - 8. Reservation: have we made a reservation?
 - 9. Type: kind of restaurant (French, Italian, Thai, Burger)
 - 10. WaitEstimate: estimated waiting time (0-10, 10-30, 30-60, >60)

A "personal" decision tree

• A decision tree for *Wait?* based on personal "rules of thumb":



Input Data for Learning

Past examples when I did/did not wait for a table:

Example	Attributes										
	Alt	Bar	Fri	Hun	Pat	Price	Rain	Res	Type	Est	Wait
X_1	Т	F	F	Т	Some	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	0–10	Т
X_2	Т	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	Т	F	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Thai	10–30	Т
X_5	Т	F	Т	F	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	French	>60	F
X_6	F	Т	F	Т	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	Т	Т	F	Full	\$	Т	F	Burger	>60	F
X_{10}	Т	Т	Т	Т	Full	\$\$\$	F	Т	Italian	10–30	F
X_{11}	F	F	F	F	None	\$	F	F	Thai	0–10	F
X_{12}	Т	Т	Т	Т	Full	\$	F	F	Burger	30–60	Т

Next Time

- Learning Decision Trees from Data
- Preventing Overfitting and Generalization
 - Cross-Validation
- To Do:
 - Project 4
 - Read Chapter 18