

3/27/01

IDSIA:

Title, Abstract, of first talk April 4, (Wed) 11AM

130-2307
Growth

System
& Programs Machine Learning.

High Level

~~The Scientist Assistant: a subject for Machine Learning.~~

The Scientist Assistant has been a long term subject in our research in machine learning. We will describe "The Scientist Assistant" — a program for machine learning that we have been working on for many years. Very little of it has been software. Our discussions will be largely about the operation of the system: how it learns to solve problems, and some of its apparent difficulties, and our motivation for a system of this kind.

The system begins with some relatively simple techniques for solving problems. We gradually solve more and more difficult problems, which it solves using some of the techniques that it acquires in solving its initial set. We continue to give the system problems of progressively greater difficulty, until it has acquired the desired level of intelligence. We continue this process by using techniques acquired in solving previous problems. We continue this until it acquires the desired level of intelligence.

We begin training the system by giving it an initial set of simple problems. Using a kind of Levin-Universal Search, it is able to solve these simple problems, guided by a probability distribution over possible solutions. Having solved these problems, the existing probability distribution is modified in view of the problems solved. We then give it more difficult problems that it is able to solve using very slow search, but guided by this modified probability distribution. This process of problem solving is repeated until the probability distribution is modified to accommodate the newly solved problems. This process is repeated until the system is able to solve problems of progressively greater difficulty. This process is alternated with modification of the probability distribution, which can be pursued in this manner. As they high level of problem solving expertise is acquired.

We will discuss some of the details of program construction, the kinds of problems solved, the method of modification of the probability distribution, as well as the capabilities and limitations of the system.

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D

Abstract

That was
 We will describe a System for Machine Learning based on Lenn's Universal Search Algorithm (Lsearch) to solve problems of progressively increasing difficulty.
 First a discussion of the search algorithm - its ~~the~~ necessary limitations and how they can be overcome - partly by modifying the algorithm itself and partly by projects ⁱⁿ the modification of the probability distribution and ~~goals~~ ^{it}.

Title: ^{Universal} A System for Machine Learning based on Lenn's Search Algorithm.

We will ^{discuss} ~~describe~~ Lenn's search algorithm in ~~the~~ various forms ~~with~~ and ~~how~~ for kinds of problems ^{it} can solve.

There are ~~necessary~~ ^{over} necessary limitations ^{its} One limitation ~~is~~ normally limited ^{to} simple problems ~~we~~ ^{we} will show how to overcome this limitation by using a ~~probability~~ ^{probability} distribution ~~and~~ ^{and} conditions | probability distribution to guide the search.

By ^{updating} this conditional ~~probability~~ ^{probability} distribution, the system ^{is} able to integrate its knowledge ~~about~~ ^{about} base ~~solutions~~ ^{solutions} to problems it has solved. The updating ~~algorithm~~ ^{algorithm} is based on ~~the~~ ^{global} credit assignment function.

We will ~~describe~~ ^{describe} the ~~updating~~ ^{updating} algorithm and the Global credit assignment function ~~used~~ ^{used} to govern the updating algorithm.

In previous papers, ^{we} ~~we~~ claimed that ~~in~~ ^{it} was very possible that ~~we~~ ^{we} were within a factor of 4 of optimum, if we restricted the behavior of competing systems in certain ways.

If we ^{relax} ~~relax~~ these ^{restrictions} ~~restrictions~~ and modify our system accordingly, the factor of 4 becomes closer to "a factor of one" but the plausibility arguments ^{are} ~~are~~ more uncertain.

If we relax these ~~restrictions~~ ^{restrictions} on competing systems and suitably augment our own system, it appears that we may be very close to optimum, but the "plausibility arguments" are not as strong as they were formerly.

Within a certain restricted class of problem solving systems, the system proposed, we have ^{heuristic} ~~heuristic~~ ^{plausibility} ~~plausibility~~ arguments to show it was optimum within a factor of 4. Using a more efficient ^{for} ~~for~~ Lenn's ^{universal} ~~universal~~ algorithm we ^{now} ~~now~~ obtain a factor of 2. ~~If we also compare~~ ^{If we also compare} our system with an unrestricted set of problem solving algorithms -

If we augment our system ~~it~~ ^{it} appears to be within a factor of 2 of unrestricted ~~learning~~ ^{heuristic} algorithms solving the same kinds of problems - but the arguments justifying this claim are weaker than before.

arguments to show it

18

26

3/22/01

Eds₂

• Do²²⁶ We will discuss this again in some detail as well as more recent aspects of ~~the~~ new optimality under less restricted conditions.

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The Scientist Assistant has been a long term subject in our research in machine learning. We will describe "The Scientist Assistant" — a program for machine learning that we have been writing on for many years. Very little of it has been software. Our discussions will be largely about the operation of the system: how it learns to solve problems, and some of its apparent difficulties, and our motivation for a system of this kind.

The system begins with some relatively simple techniques for solving problems. We give it so the problems, which it solves easily. Having solved these easy problems, we give it somewhat more difficult problems — which it solves using some of the techniques that it acquired in solving the initial set. We continue to give the system problems of progressively greater difficulty, until it has acquired the desired level of intelligence. At each time it is able to solve them by using techniques acquired in solving previous problems. We continue this until it acquires the desired level of intelligence.

We begin training the system by giving it an initial set of simple problems. Using a kind of Levin-Universal Search, it is able to solve these simple problems, guided by a probability distribution over possible solutions. Having solved these problems, the existing probability distribution is modified in view of the problems solved. We then give it more difficult problems that it is able to solve using very little search, but guided by the modified probability distribution. This process of problem solving is repeated until the probability distribution is modified to accommodate the newly solved problems. This is a form of reinforcement learning. The modification of the probability distribution and the increasing problems of progressively greater difficulty is alternated with modification of the probability distribution. As the high level of problem solving expertise is acquired, the process can be pursued in this manner.

We will discuss some of the details of program construction, the kinds of problems solved, the method of modification of the probability distribution, as well as the capabilities and limitations of the system.

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D

Abstract

That was
 we will describe a System for Machine Learning based on Leavis Unrestricted
 (Leavis) search algorithm to solve problems of progressively increasing difficulty.
 First a discussion of the search algorithm — its ~~the~~ necessary limitations and how
 they can be overcome — partly by modifying the algorithm itself and partly by
 projects ⁱⁿ the modification of the probability distribution and ~~evaluating~~ ^{it}.

Title: ^{Universal} A System for Machine Learning based on Leavis Search Algorithm.

We will ^{discuss} Leavis search algorithm in ~~the~~ various forms ^{and} ~~how~~ ^{to} solve ~~it~~ ^{it} for kinds of problems.

~~There are necessary or necessary limitations~~ its

One limitation ~~is~~ normally limited ~~to~~ ^{we} simple problems ~~and~~ ^{we} will show how to overcome this limitation by using a ~~probability distribution~~ ^{probability distribution} ~~and~~ ^{and} conditions.

Probability distribution to guide the search.

By ^{updating} this conditional ~~probability~~ ^{probability} distribution, the system ^{is} able to integrate its knowledge ~~about~~ ^{about} ~~the~~ ^{base of} solutions to ~~all of the~~ ^{all of the} problems it has solved. The updating ~~algorithm~~ ^{algorithm} is based on ~~global credit assignment~~ ^{global credit assignment} function.

~~We will discuss the updating algorithm and the Global credit assignment~~

~~function upon which the updating algorithm is based that governs the updating algorithm.~~

In previous papers, ^{we} claimed that ^{it was very possible that} ~~in a restricted version~~ ^{restricted} ~~of our~~ ^{of our} system ~~was~~ ^{was} within a factor of 4 of optimum, if we restricted the behavior of competing systems in certain ways. If we ^{relax} ~~relax~~ these ~~restrictions~~ ^{restrictions} and modify our system accordingly, the factor of 4 becomes closer to "a factor of one" but the ~~plausibility~~ ^{plausibility} arguments ^{are} ~~are~~ ^{more} ~~more~~ ^{uncertain}.

If we relax these ~~restrictions~~ ^{restrictions} on competing systems and ~~substantially~~ ^{substantially} augment our own system, it appears that we may be very close to optimum, but the "plausibility arguments" are not as strong as they were formerly.

Within a certain restricted class of problem solving systems, the system proposed, we have ^{heuristic} ~~plausibility~~ ^{plausibility} arguments to show it ~~was~~ ^{is} within a factor of 4. Using a more efficient ^{for Leavis} ~~search~~ ^{search} algorithm we ~~can~~ ^{now} obtain a factor of 2. ~~If we also compare~~ ^{It is also possible to compare} our system with an unrestricted set of problem solving algorithms —

If we augment our system ~~and~~ ^{and} it appears to be within a factor of 2 of unrestricted ^{heuristic} ~~learning~~ ^{learning} algorithms solving the same kinds of problems — but the arguments justifying this claim are weaker than before.

arguments to show it

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Eds₂

• DO²²⁶ We will discuss this again in some detail as well as more recent aspects of ~~the~~ new optimality under less restricted conditions.

Talk $\approx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$

10:24:40

deal w. it more fully, after we discuss the estimation of probabilities.

The particular method of probability estimation we used called Algorithmic Probability.

Suppose we ~~are doing~~ ^{Binary} sequential prediction! We have a seq/sequence

~~strings~~, S and we want to know the relative probability of the next symbol

being a rather than b . — ~~S is a sequence of symbols in an Alphabet of which~~

~~we are to make predictions.~~ Let us assume that we know an a priori distribution on all possible ^{Binary} strings ~~of length~~,

~~R , binary alphabet.~~ $P(R)$ assigns a probability to each such string.

Then the relative probabilities of the continuations a & b will be $\frac{P(Sa)}{P(Sb)}$.

This would solve the sequential prediction problem, if we knew $P(R)$.

How to find $P(R)$.

For a heuristic understanding of ~~what~~ ^{what} follows, consider Ockham's ~~idea~~ ^{idea}!

That simpler hypotheses are more likely than complex ones. We will quantify this

idea ~~and~~ ^{and} describe some results on ~~the accuracy of the resultant system.~~

~~the accuracy of the resultant system.~~

To quantify Ockham: Suppose B is a finite binary sequence. —

Then D_B is "description" of B if $M(D_B) = B$.

Here M is an algorithm or Turing computer machine that is able to take the

Binary string D_B as input, for which it gives B as output. D_B can be

regarded as ^{description} ~~the~~ of B in terms of Machan function M .

I use the subscript r , because M_r is to be regarded as a reference machine.

(Clearly, by changing reference machines, ~~the~~ ^{the} ~~the~~ ^{the} the shortest descriptions for B will

change. ~~the~~ ^{the} shortest description will be the one with fewest bits —

contains latest information. We could approximate the probability of B by $2^{-|D_B|}$.

For more accurate estimation, we use $\sum_i 2^{-|D_{B_i}|}$. ^(Also mention "theory" "recursive") Here we are counting the

total probability due to all possible descriptions of B . We will call $\sum_i 2^{-|D_{B_i}|}$

the Algorithmic probability assigned to B by $M_r = p_{M_r}(B)$



100:95,40: There are 2 kinds of lossy codes: First, what reference machine to use for our probable code?

There is a group of machines called "universal machines", that are particularly good for ~~describing~~ describing things. They have the property that if we compare 2 of them, there will always be a constant factor that tells how much they differ from one another.

Two machines M_1, M_2 then $P^{M_1}(B)$ and $P^{M_2}(B)$ are always w.r.t a constant factor $C_{1,2}$ of one another. This constant factor depends on M_1 and M_2 , but is independent of B .

The constant factor can be quite large ~~and~~ - so it is usually makes a lot of difference as to what reference machine we use.

In our system for machine learning we will be periodically changing the reference machine as a way to accommodate new things that the system ~~learns~~ learns.

Second The method of computing probabilities of strings may seem a bit arbitrary, and after several years after I thought of this method, I wasn't sure it would work - and

sure about the details of the method. However, I ~~finally~~ finally did work out a proof that the system was very accurate in estimating probabilities from empirical data.

~~if we used universal reference machines~~
This It turns out that $\sum_i 2^{-D_i}$ is not ~~computable~~ computable in a finite amount of time.

We can't even be sure that we've found the shortest code for $B!$ That Algorithmic probability is uncomputable may seem like $\rightarrow 99.00$

Strong argument against - but it is not - this incomputability is an essential part of probability - of science.

The short codes that contribute most to the $\sum_i 2^{-D_i}$ correspond to strings

repeated in the data. Consider the string $(01)^{1024}$. We can easily program a machine

to write that sequence by simply telling it to write 01 1024 times -

which takes 2 bits to say "01" and 10 bits to say 10024 plus 2 low order bits -

a nice compressor over the 2048 bits in the original string.

~~...~~

... and it is a 02 problem.

96.23 : The reason is not so much that we can't try all possible codes! —
 Very long codes don't contribute much to the sum. The main problem is that
 there are certain short strings that are submitted to the Machine, and the machine
 runs and runs, and after a long time we still don't know what will output it and stop —
 and there is no surveyor to tell. → **Back to 96.23**

~~unusable~~ In general, in science, when you have a batch of data
 and you are looking for regularities in the data which appear to be used for
 prediction — you can never be sure that if you spend 10 more minutes
 hunting for regularities you'd not find one much better than the best
 you've found yet.

The corresponding thing occurs with random sequences that seem
 to be "RANDOM" — i.e. no discernible regularities. It is balanced by
 many, that the stock market prices are random — yet there is no finite amount
 of investigation that could be convincing on this question. On the other
 hand, once a ^{story} regularity is found, ~~it becomes~~ it becomes

very unlikely that the sequence is ~~random~~ random.

The problem of induction is to obtain good approximations to P

This is done by $\left[\sum_{i=1}^n 2^{-2^i} \text{ summing over not } \geq 11 \text{ of } P \text{ codes.} \right] \leftarrow \epsilon P$

P' is an approximation to P . The more codes one finds the closer P' is to P .

To maximize P' by finding as many codes as possible ~~in~~ in n -variables
 time, is a time limited optimization problem. It is equivalent to

having a minimum error $(i.e. P - P')$ in one's estimates P' .

~~The~~ ^{induction inference} ~~problem~~ problem and its solution as a time limited optima

problem are very important in the ~~learning~~ learning system that I'm describing.

One reason is that the problem of updating the probability distribution that
 guides searches for solutions to problems — is an induction problem.

How is this so?

Consider all of the $\left[\text{problem description, solution program, time} \right]$ triples
 that have occurred thus far.

$\left[\text{problem desc, solution, program, time} \right]$

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.00 : 97.40 ! What we want is a bunch of relatively short codes to describe all of this data.
From a set of codes of this sort, we want to extrapolate the data to buy now.

GPD₁ (problem, solution) ~~XXXXXXXXXX~~ → Probability distribution on Time to Solution.

From GPD₁ it is possible by a process of integration, to create

GPD₂ (problem, soln) → Probability that this is ~~the~~ fastest solution to the problem.

This cost distribution is the Guiding distribution for search for solutions to new problems.

I will now discuss Levin's universal search ~~XXXXXXXXXX~~ procedure:

Suppose I'm in a Gambling house and there is a kind of lottery with a ~~the~~ single ticket price. I am the only customer
~~A ticket costs \$1 and I am allowed to choose any bank~~

Each ticket ticket has a certain probability of winning — which is printed on the ticket.
In the first ~~case~~, all tickets cost \$1. The best ticket to get would be one with max win probability. If it doesn't win, choose next largest — and so on.

In the next case, each ticket costs a different amount of money, (P_i, M_i) are the probability, cost associated with the P_i ticket type.

The best choice to make is the ticket with maximum $\frac{P_i}{M_i}$. You get the maximum probability of winning, per dollar spent. If you continue to buy tickets in $\frac{P_i}{M_i}$ order you are ~~not~~ ~~guaranteed~~ certain to ~~make~~ ~~your~~ least expected money spent before winning.

The Gambling house ~~XXXXXXXXXX~~ can be translated into a problem solving environment. Instead of money for a trial, we ~~not~~ spend TIME.

The best ~~trial~~ to choose is one with ~~the~~ maximum $\frac{P_i}{t_i}$.

Normally in trying to solve problems, one ~~does~~ may know P_i , but one doesn't know t_i . In this ~~XXXXXX~~ case, every good strategy is Levin's time share strategy — (which I think is likely to be the best possible.)

The way it works: You work on all trials simultaneously, but you work harder on trials with larger P_i values. The rate at which you work on trial i is proportional to P_i . Suppose we use this strategy and after a while the j th trial gives a solution after spending a total time t_j on it. Since other trials have amounts of time spent on them proportional to their P_i . The j th trial will have $\frac{P_j}{P_i} \cdot t_j$ time spent on it.

.00: 98.40: The total time spent on all trials will be $\sum \frac{p_i}{p_j} t_j = \frac{T_j}{p_j} \leq p_i$
 $\leq p_i$ will measure by 1. So the total time needed to solve the problem
 this way is $\frac{t_i}{p_j}$.

So: This is Levin's time shared search and it works if it is possible
 for the kinds of problems in which it is used — i.e. **INVERSION PROBLEMS**

~~And an application for this search~~
 This technique can also be used for time limited optimization problems,
 In this case our trials are not ~~programs that attempt~~
 to solve inversion problems! They are **optimization techniques**
 each one takes as input, the problem description, $f(x)$ the function
 to be maximized, and the time available for solution

As before we have a conditional probability distribution that looks at the problem
 description and assigns probabilities to various optimization techniques to
 be applied to the problem. However, ~~since we know the time cost for~~
~~each trial — (say it is T), the best strategy is to try the optimization~~

~~techniques in p_j order. If~~

The way we do the search: start with ^{our} time limit T
 for some small ϵ we spend time $\epsilon \cdot p_j$ in the j th $O.T.$
 and slowly increase T . We keep track of the $O.T.$ that has best G value
 of all the $O.T.$'s. When $\epsilon \cdot p_i = T$ for any $O.T.$, we stop. Spend all time on
 that $O.T.$ when $\epsilon \cdot p_i = T$ for the best $O.T.$, we stop. That is our best value.
 Total time $\leq \sum \epsilon \cdot p_i = \epsilon \cdot \sum p_i = \epsilon \cdot 1 = \epsilon$ so time $\leq \epsilon$ obtain
 best soln. in time ϵ , i.e. $\leq \frac{1}{p_i}$ so we have efficiency factor of $\frac{1}{p_i}$ — as we did for INVERSION PROBLEMS

Factor of
= 71.13

61.35
All in all
into P.D.

~~50.30~~
63.30
on 02

10sec Talk,

.00:

Learn from System

Issues of optimality in system.

- ① ON OPTIMALITY: Learn from ~~data~~ LTV problems is \approx OPTIMUM of All info used in such as in P.D.
 - ① method
 - ② How much is recording & fetching & learn
 - ③ How fast P.D.'s re-synthesis Date.
- ② No learning allowed during ~~search~~ computing such routines

So we modify system so it ~~uses~~ uses time learning before. Main problem is problem of improving GPD

The new system would seem to be much better than a system that allows no learning before trials — I have no ideas on how close it could be to optimum

.14

② On Inductive ~~power~~ resource ~~is~~ limited ~~or~~ problem! (85.coff)

While it may be true for early (like the system, it is not true in general).

If you have a very large mass of data, say information about the stock market and you want to do prediction, ~~in some form~~ for next day's price, and

if you have one hour to make the prediction, you will not be able to process all of the data — i.e. try to find short codes for it. Typically you will consider only the data that seems most relevant and try to describe ~~the~~ that data using "Burrhead" "Short Codes".

~~I have got to solve the trade-off problem between the desirability of using as much data as possible, and the increasing time limits on competition. The fact that one can't download good ~~data~~ find many good codes in a very long data sequence, in a short time.~~

There are two conflicting goals in induction = ~~learning~~

~~It is easier to find regularities in small data sets.~~

Using large data sets gives more accurate ~~model~~ probabilities. — but takes more time.

③ How system can transcend learn if necessary! That code can be short runs doing learning during search.

④ How to get good set of OT's $\bar{\alpha}$ expansion set.

Things left out in talk:
" needed for various lectures.

- 1. Details on how induction is done for BAG, Operator, Sequential! What are the codes? What are Ray codes of, act. \leftarrow GPD, is of this type
- 2. Some ways in which ^{practical} induction is actually done — particularly for Regs & Operator probs.
- 3. Details of update process — for OZ, for INV, for induction (Bgs, Operator, Sequential).
- 4. How new (non-Lsrch) forms are done (Mantson, Marcos/Jacob's ideas on Regs) — maybe in Appendix, (How System can transcend Lsrch)
Q — Are they really analogous? — do they actually work?
- 5. \leq Plot I made to show how induction was a OZ problem

Q's Jurgan was concerned w. a situation in which ~~the~~ GPD system was obtained that had a short code, but a long execution time. Main Q's how long does GPD take to implement it [Andy PC's]

- 6. Discuss of optimality of Lsrch in what sense is it "optimal"?
 - for INV probs
 - for OZ probs \leftarrow (Abstracted Literature) see 102.04

- 7. Discuss. of optimality of System as a whole: Re "factor of 2" Question, Re "no learning during soln", etc. see (3)
- 8. Clearer statement of Duff's in Induction as a "pure OZ problem" How size of complex enters (do I have a soln?) see, e.g. 100.14 (But I want to work on this Wachray Price)

9. How to start w. Goodset of OZ's — Plan was "factor" drawn into a stack lang, that extrapolates to set: This can be done (at least partly) by humans.

I can do easily
I can do, but not quite so easy.
— needs a lot of work!

- 10. perhaps discuss ^{details of} Lsrch for both INV & OZ problems (Along w. optimality) \leftarrow see (6)
- 11. That the incomputability of ALP is not a valid criticism of it. Riss uses computable version of ALP & it has serious deficits.

- 12. Discuss "random" Lsrch: Have any papers been written using actual Lsrch? Also, other kinds of random srch. N.B. My Argts about Random Search only correct if there is 1 or no soln.
- 13. Ti Q of Optimality of learning during Lsrch (modeln. of GPD during Lsrch) is allowed.

- 14. MPA is Logical reasoning: Impl. in proba solving, yet not explicitly considered in Reg System
- 15. Trains Sogus is how to write from "CJS" (maybe use CJS — its only used faulting).

16. Serious diff! In converting from GPD₁ to GPD₂: we write $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d\epsilon P_1(\epsilon) \prod_{i=1}^k P_i(\epsilon) \rightarrow (112, 28)$
Hm. Pw P_i(ϵ) are used by highly correlated (2009) S & P's S is use off!

17. OSL: how most induction schemes (2 MDS) have to be modified to access metadata.