

Hybrid Machine Learning Algorithms



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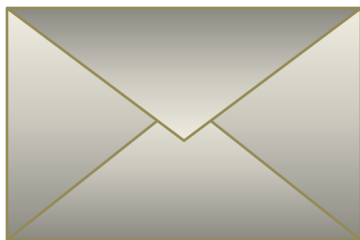
Includes joint work with:

Rob Schapire (Princeton)

Nina Mishra, Alex Slivkins (Microsoft)

Common Approaches to Machine Learning

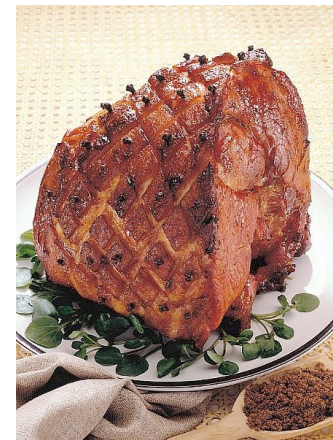
- **Supervised Learning:** Learn a concept from examples.
- Example: Spam Filtering



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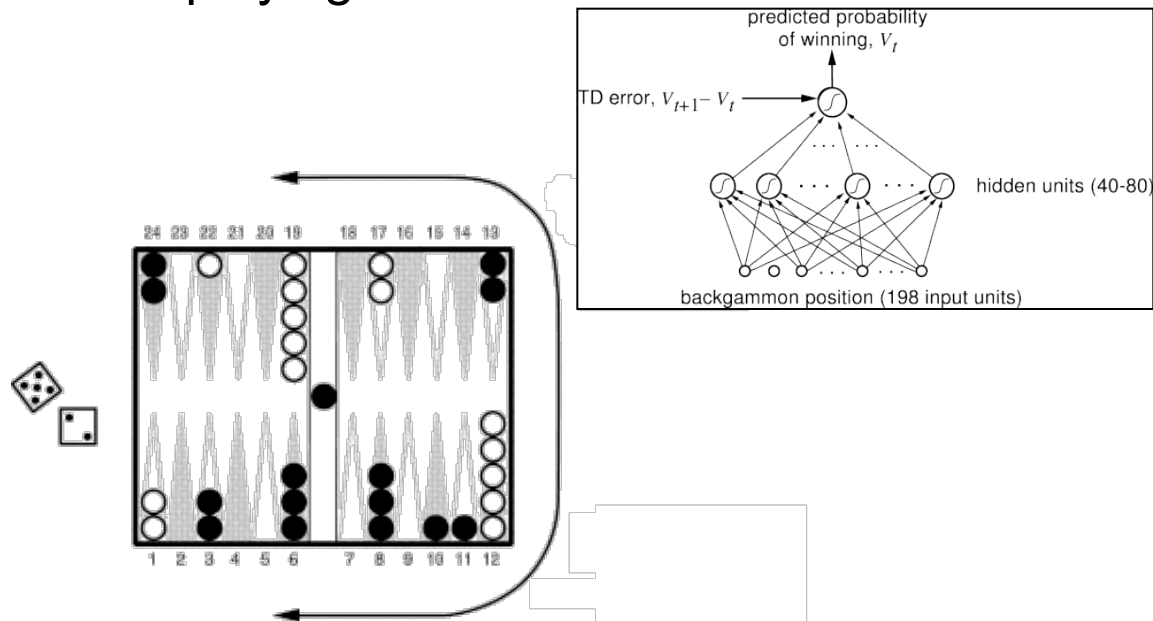
or



?

Common Approaches to Machine Learning

- **Reinforcement Learning:** Learn optimal behavior from interactive experience.
- Example: Game playing



[Tesauro 1995]

This Talk



- In this talk, I will describe approaches to machine learning that combine features of supervised and reinforcement learning:
 1. Apprenticeship Learning
 2. Bandit Problems with Events



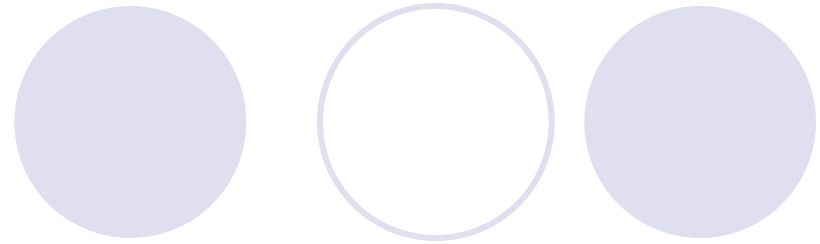
Apprenticeship Learning

Application: Car Driving

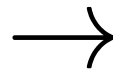
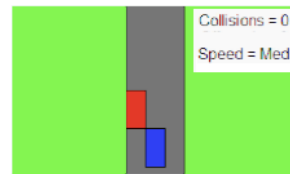


- **Problem:** Learn a good driving policy for this environment.

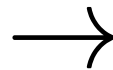
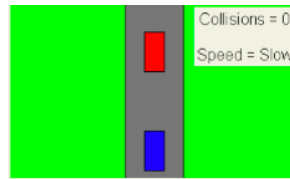
What is a Policy?



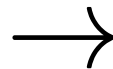
- A *policy* assigns a driving action to each possible environment state:



Move Right



Accelerate



Brake

Reinforcement Learning Procedure

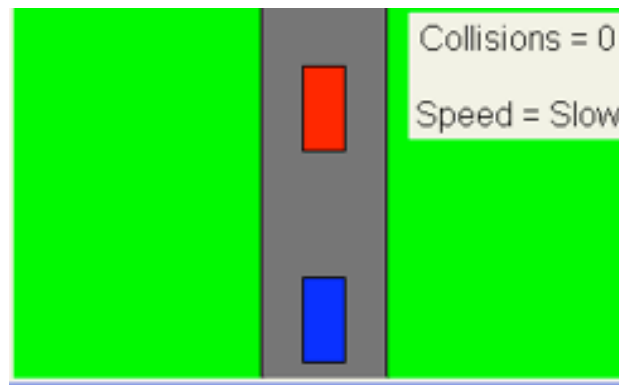


1. Assign a *reward* to each environment state.
 - e.g. Reward = (1 × high-speed?) + (-10 × collide?)
3. Let $V(\pi)$ be the average total reward for following driving policy π .
 - $V(\pi)$ is called the *value function*.
4. By repeated interaction with the driving environment, find a driving policy π^* such that

$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{\pi} V(\pi)$$

Value of a Policy – Example

- When a car follows this driving policy...



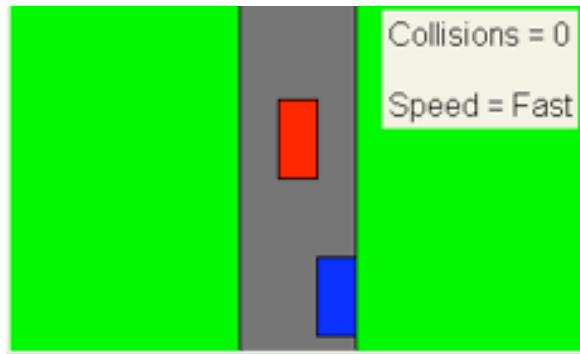
...then at the end of an average driving episode:

1. The car was at high-speed in 3.5 time steps.
2. The car collided with another car in 57 time steps.

- \therefore Value of policy = $(1 \times 3.5) + (-10 \times 57) = -566.5$

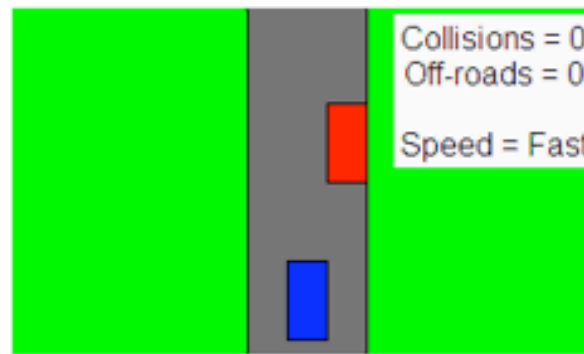
Drawbacks of Reinforcement Learning

- Usually need to tune rewards manually. This can be tricky.



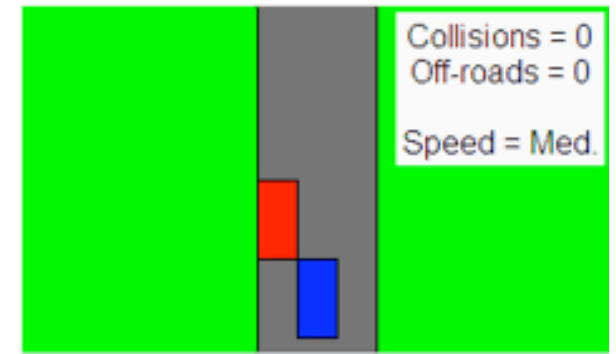
1st attempt

Forgot
penalty for
off-road!



2nd attempt

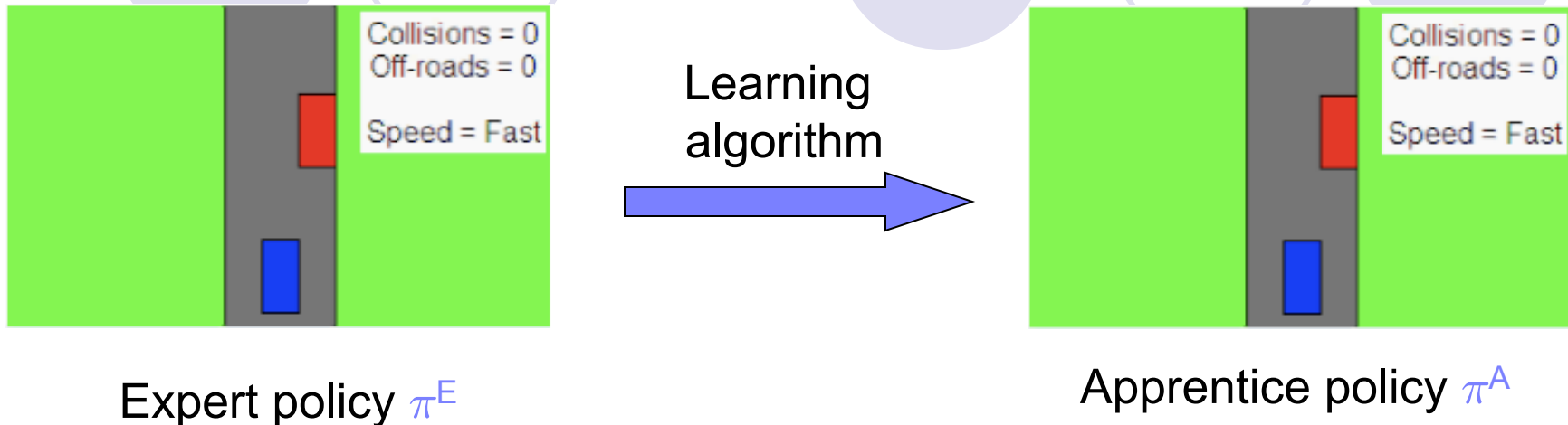
Collision
penalty too
low!



Nth attempt

Good!

Apprenticeship Learning (Abbeel & Ng, 2004)



- **Given:** Demonstrations from an *expert policy* π^E .
- **Objective:** Learn an *apprentice policy* π^A such that

$$V(\pi^A) \geq V(\pi^E)$$

where the value function $V(\pi)$ is unknown.

Apprenticeship Learning

- **Our contribution:** New algorithm for apprenticeship learning that:
 1. Is simpler,
 2. Is more efficient, and
 3. Outputs a better apprentice policythan existing algorithms.

Assumptions



- **Definition:** Let $\mu(\pi)$ be the *feature vector* for policy π . For example:
 - $\mu_1(\pi)$ = Average total collisions for π (negated).
 - $\mu_2(\pi)$ = Average total off-roads for π (negated).
 - $\mu_3(\pi)$ = Average total high-speed time steps for π .

- **Main Assumption:** There exists w^* such that

$$V(\pi) = w^* \cdot \mu(\pi)$$

where w^* is an unknown convex combination.

A Basic Question



- Let's first ask what can we learn without the expert demonstrations.
- Can we always learn a policy π such that $V(\pi)$ is large?
- In general no, because we have no way of computing $V(\pi)$.
- But we can learn a policy that is good in a conservative sense.

A “Max-Min” Policy

- **Objective:** Find policy π^* satisfying

$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{\pi} \min_w w \cdot \mu(\pi)$$

- In other words, choose π^* so that $V(\pi^*)$ is as large as possible for adversarially chosen weights.
- Since true weights w^* are unknown, this is a suitably conservative approach.

A “Max-Min” Policy

- **Objective:** Find policy π^* satisfying

$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{\pi} \min_w w \cdot \mu(\pi)$$

- Objective is essentially a *two-player zero-sum game*.
 - Player 1 (algorithm) wants to maximize $V(\pi)$.
 - Player 2 (nature) wants to minimize $V(\pi)$.
- Policy π^* is an *optimal strategy* for Player 1.

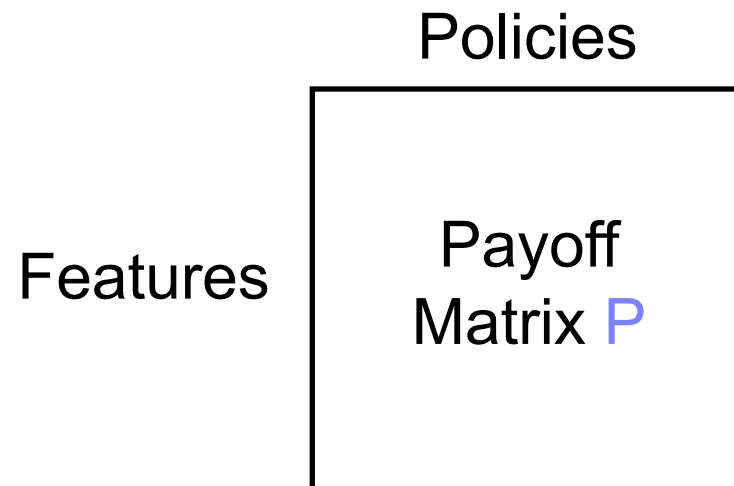
Computing Optimal Strategy

- An optimal strategy for two-player zero-sum games can be computed with a linear program.
- Size of linear program is proportional to size of the *payoff matrix*, which defines possible game outcomes.
 - e.g. Payoff matrix for the game “Rock, Paper, Scissors”:

	Rock	Paper	Scissors
Rock	0	+1	-1
Paper	-1	0	+1
Scissors	+1	-1	0

Computing Optimal Strategy

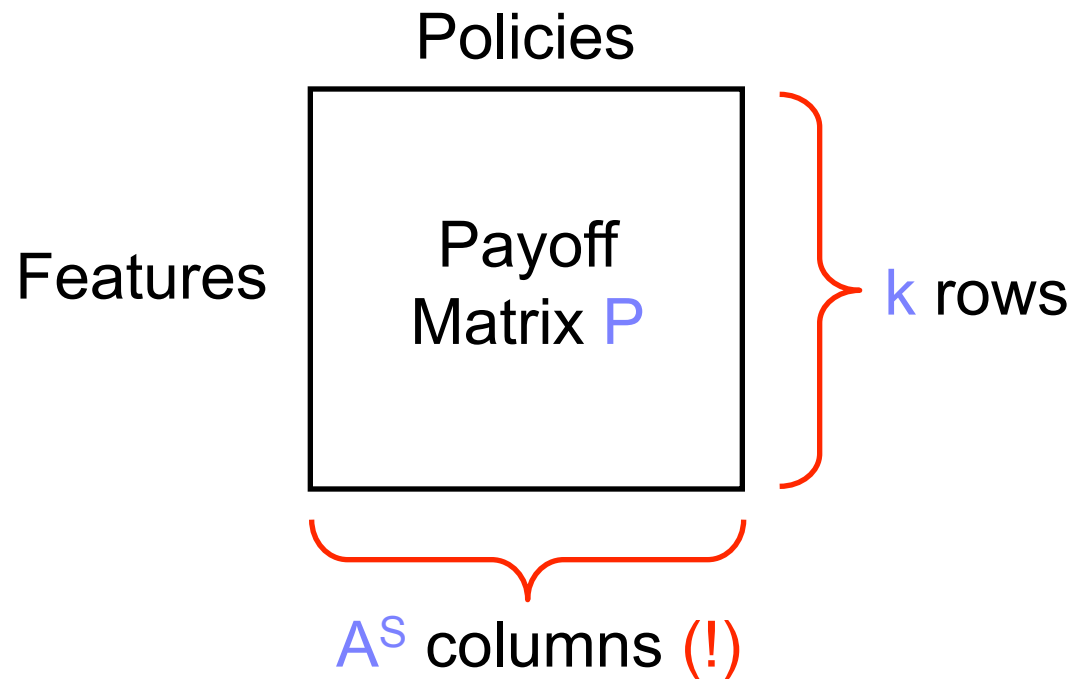
- Payoff matrix for the game $\max_{\pi} \min_w w \cdot \mu(\pi)$:



where $P(i, j) = \mu_i(\pi^j) = i^{\text{th}}$ feature value for j^{th} policy.

Computing Optimal Strategy

- **Problem:** Payoff matrix is too big!



- k = # of features
- S = # of environment states
- A = # of driving actions

Computing Optimal Strategy



- **Solution:** Use a multiplicative weights algorithm (Freund & Schapire, 1996) instead.
- MW algorithm can compute optimal strategies for large — even infinite — payoff matrices.
- MW algorithm is closely related to boosting, online learning.

MW Algorithm for Apprenticeship Learning

1. Maintain a weight vector w_t over several rounds.
2. In round t , compute best policy π_t for reward function
$$R(s) = w_t \cdot \mu(s)$$
using a standard reinforcement learning algorithm.
3. Update $w_t \rightarrow w_{t+1}$ by shifting weight to features where π_t does badly.
 - The update is essentially the boosting update.
4. After T rounds, output π^* chosen uniformly at random from $\{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_T\}$.

Analysis

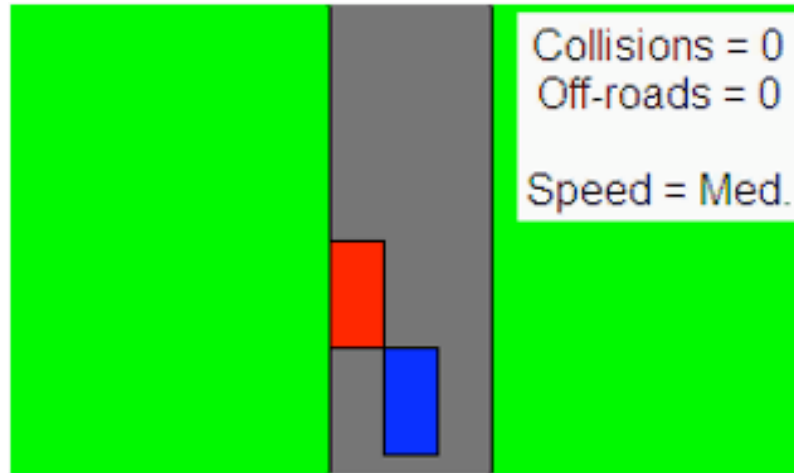
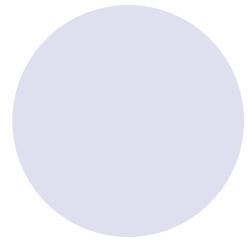
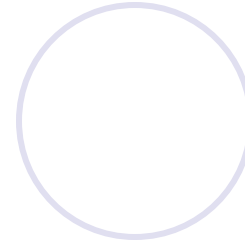
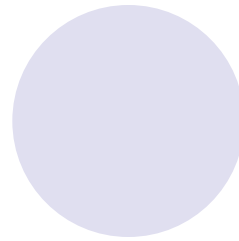
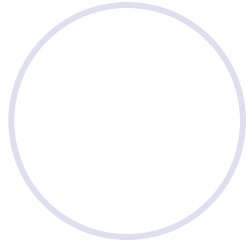
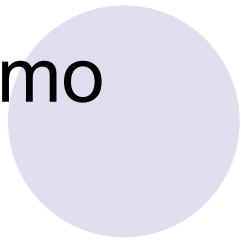
- **Theorem:** After $O(\log k)$ iterations of MW algorithm, it outputs a policy π^* such that

$$E[V(\pi^*)]$$

is as large as possible for adversarially chosen w^* .

(Expectation is over randomness in algorithm; $k = \#$ of features)

Demo



Conservative driving policy:
Drives as fast as possible without hitting other cars
or going off-road.

Back to Apprenticeship Learning

- Given demonstrations from an expert policy π^E , follow this procedure:

1. Use demonstrations to estimate $\mu(\pi^E)$.

- i.e. Estimate expert's average total crashes, off-roads, etc.

2. Use MW algorithm to solve this objective

$$\pi^A = \arg \max_{\pi} \min_w [w \cdot \mu(\pi) - w \cdot \mu(\pi^E)]$$

New!

- i.e. MW will choose π^A so that $V(\pi^A) - V(\pi^E)$ is as large as possible for adversarially chosen weights.

Analysis

- **Theorem:** After $O(\log k)$ iterations of MW algorithm, it outputs a policy π^A such that

$$E[V(\pi^A)] - V(\pi^E)$$

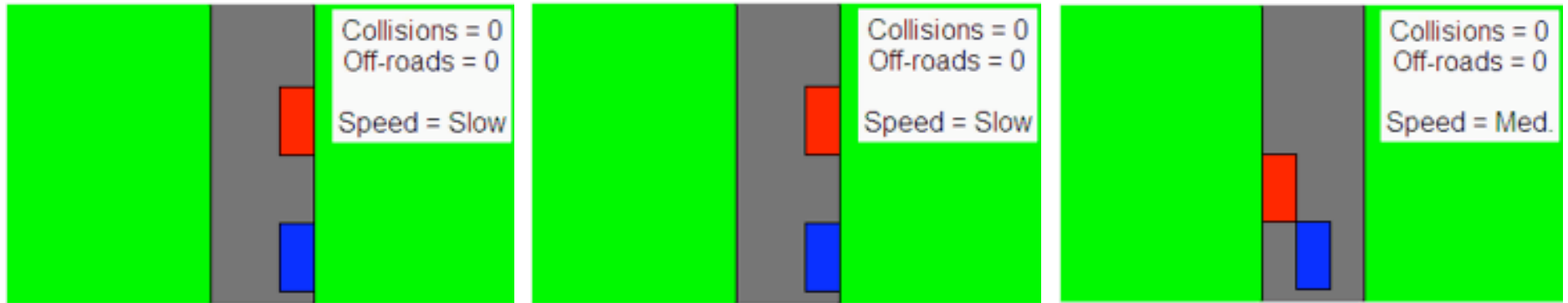
is as large as possible for adversarially chosen w^* .

(Expectation is over randomness in algorithm; $k = \#$ of features)

- **Corollary:** $E[V(\pi^A)] \geq V(\pi^E)$

Proof idea: Algorithm can always choose $\pi^A = \pi^E$, so we have $E[V(\pi^A)] - V(\pi^E) \geq 0$.

Demo



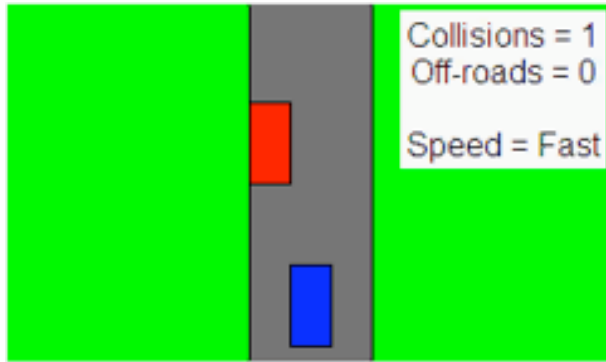
Expert

Projection algorithm
(Abbeel & Ng, 2004)

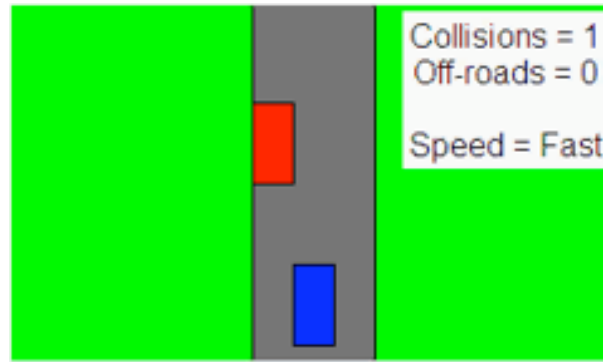
MW algorithm

- Projection algorithm mimics expert.
- MW algorithm learns better policy than expert!
 - This can happen when expert policy is *dominated*.

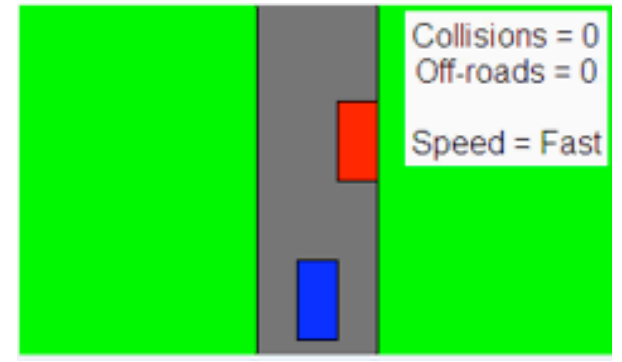
Demo



Expert



Projection algorithm
(Abbeel & Ng, 2004)



MW algorithm

- An example where expert policy can't be ignored.

Comparison of Algorithms

	Projection algorithm	MW algorithm
No. of iterations	$O((k / \epsilon^2) \log (k / \epsilon))$	$O((1 / \epsilon^2) \log k)$
Post-processing	Requires QP solver	None
Guarantee	$ V(\pi^A) - V(\pi^E) \leq \epsilon$	$V(\pi^A) \geq V(\pi^E) - \epsilon$ and possibly $V(\pi^A) \gg V(\pi^E)$
Applicable without expert?	No	Yes

k = # of features

Refining the Analysis

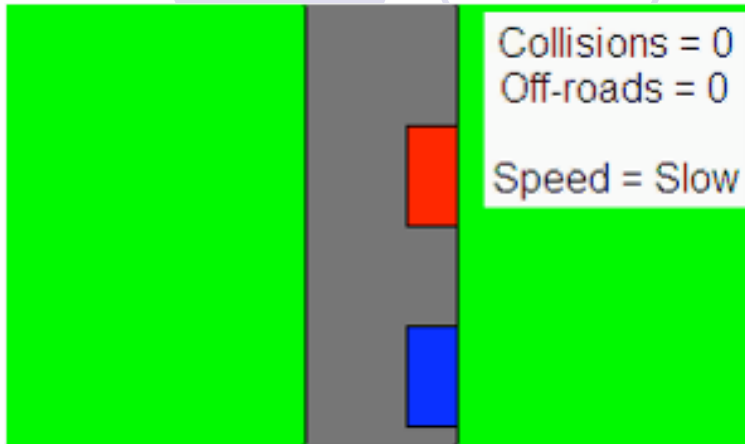


- Recall our earlier objective:

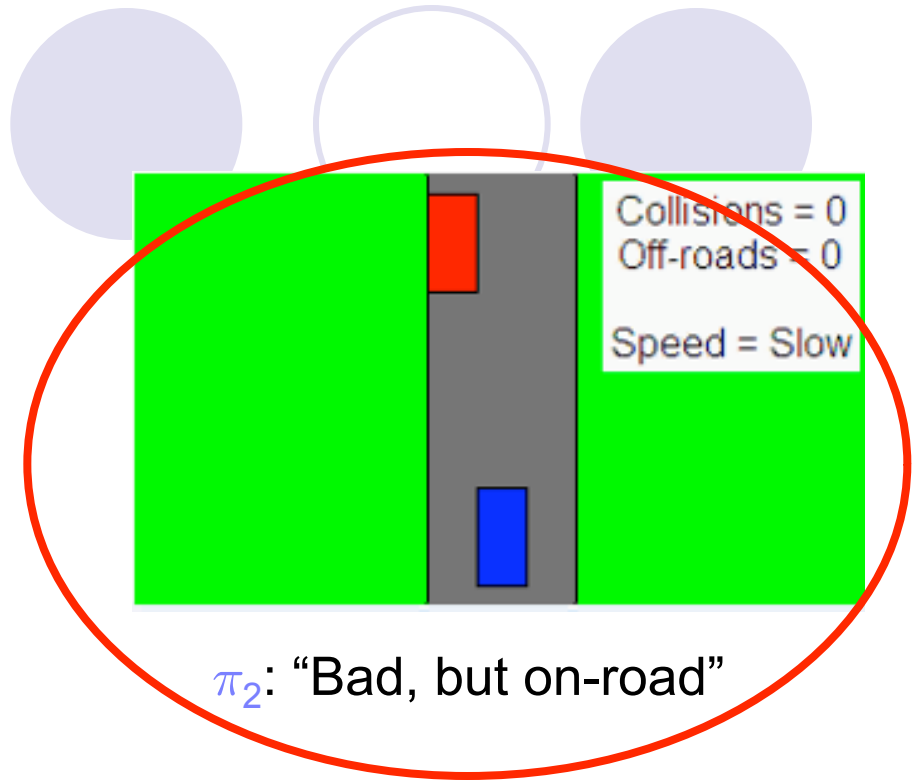
$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{\pi} \min_w w \cdot \mu(\pi)$$

- Put differently: Choose π^* so that smallest element of vector $\mu(\pi^*)$ is maximized.
- What can we say about the other elements of $\mu(\pi^*)$?

Refining the Analysis



π_1 : "Bad"



π_2 : "Bad, but on-road"

- Smallest elements in $\mu(\pi_1)$ and $\mu(\pi_2)$ are equal.
 - Both have the same average number of collisions.
- But π_2 is clearly a better policy.
- So which policy does MW algorithm converge to?

Refining the Analysis



- **Theorem:** Under certain conditions, MW outputs a policy π^* such that

Smallest element of $E[\mu(\pi^*)]$ is maximized,

and further, among all such policies, MW outputs a policy π^* such that

2nd smallest element of $E[\mu(\pi^*)]$ is maximized,

and so on for 3rd smallest, 4th smallest, ...

Refining the Analysis



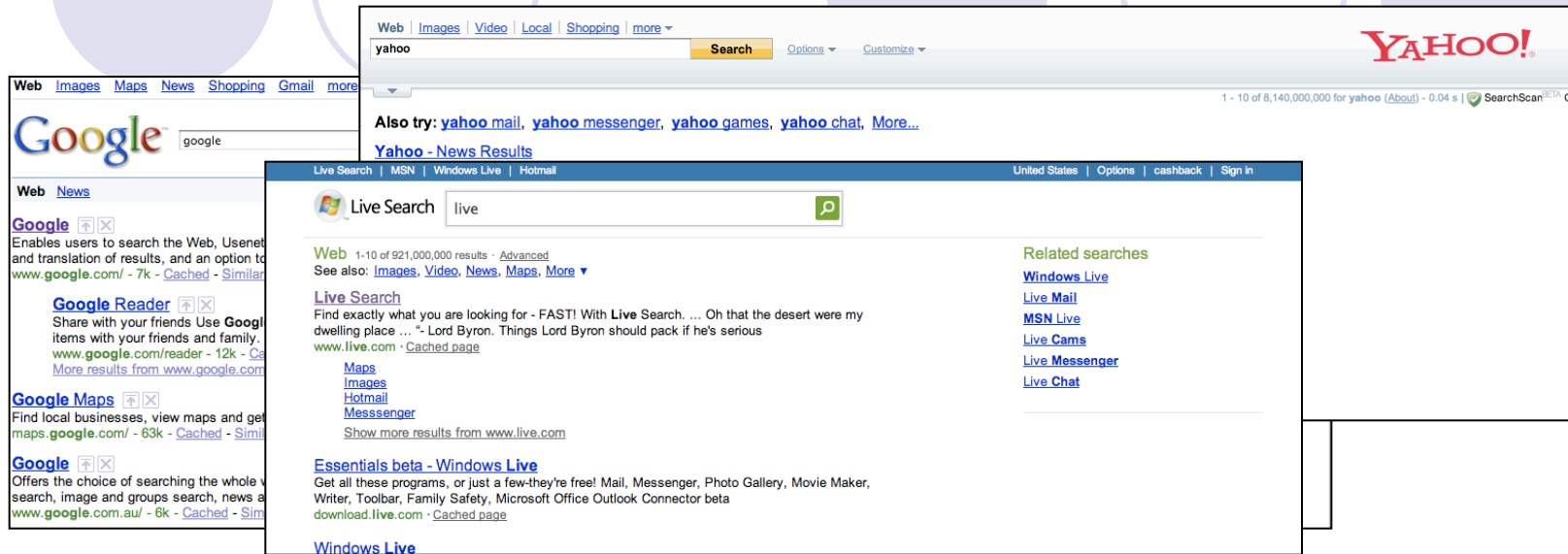
- **Proof Idea:**
 - Recall that the MW algorithm maintains a weight vector w_t .
 - MW constantly adjusts w_t so as to place the most weight on the “hardest” feature.
 - We show that MW also places the second-most weight on the second-hardest feature, and so on.

- **Note:** Result applies to the generic MW algorithm. Has implications beyond apprenticeship learning (e.g boosting).



Bandit Problems with Events

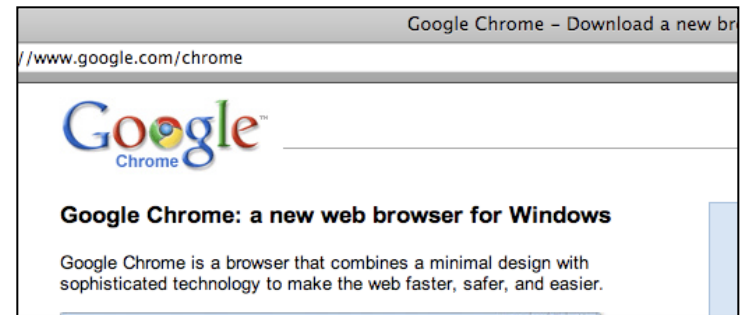
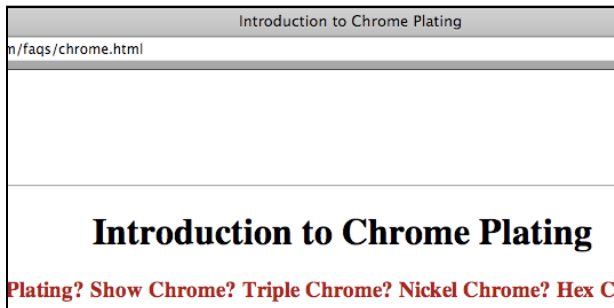
Application: Web Search



- Users issue *queries* to search engine, which tries to return the most relevant documents.
- Sometimes, a query will acquire a different meaning in response to an external *event*.

Examples of Event-Sensitive Queries

Query = "chrome"

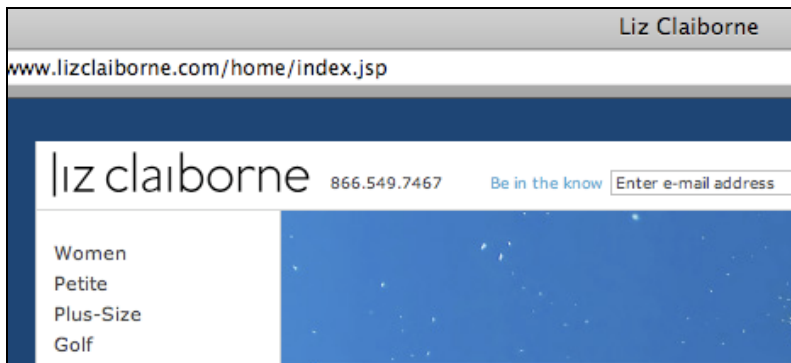


Event

Google releases "Chrome"
web browser

Examples of Event-Sensitive Queries

Query = "liz claiborne"



Event

Liz Claiborne dies

- **Problem:** Provide better search results for event-sensitive queries.

The “Bandit” Approach to Search



- Methods like PageRank uses the link structure of the web to determine the most relevant document for a query.
- These methods are slow to adapt to abrupt changes in query meaning caused by external events.
- Our approach is to use feedback from user clicks to determine the most relevant document.
 - Document gets more clicks \Rightarrow Document is more relevant.
- We call this a *bandit problem with events*.

Bandit Problem

- Fix a query q , and let D be a set of candidate documents for q .
- For time $t = 1 \dots T$:
 1. User searches for q .
 2. Search engine returns one document $d_t \in D$ to user.
(For simplicity, we focus on returning the single best document.)
 3. User clicks on d_t with unknown probability $p_{d_t,t}$.
- **Goal:** Choose d_1, \dots, d_T to maximize expected total number of clicks.

Bandit Problem with Events



- **Our contribution:** A new algorithm that:
 1. Is $O(\log T)$ suboptimal for this problem, while existing algorithms are $\Omega(\sqrt{T})$ suboptimal.
 2. Performs better than existing algorithms in experiments on web search data.

UCB Algorithm (Auer et al, 2002)

- Suitable for the special case of $k = 0$ (no events).
 - i.e. $p_{d,t} = p_d$ for all documents d .

- **Theorem [Auer et al 2002]:**

$$E_{\text{UCB}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] \geq E_{\text{Opt}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] - O(\log T)$$

Regret

where **Opt** is the algorithm that always chooses the document with highest click probability.

- Details interesting, but not relevant: our algorithm uses UCB as a black-box subroutine.

Handling Events

The title 'Handling Events' is positioned on the left side of the slide. To its right, there are two groups of three circles each. The first group consists of a solid light purple circle, a white circle with a light purple outline, and another solid light purple circle. The second group consists of a solid light purple circle, a white circle with a light purple outline, and another solid light purple circle.

- UCB algorithm assumes that click probabilities are fixed, i.e. no events.
- So what happens if there are events?

Lower Bound

- **Theorem:** If the click probabilities can change even *once*, then for *any* algorithm:

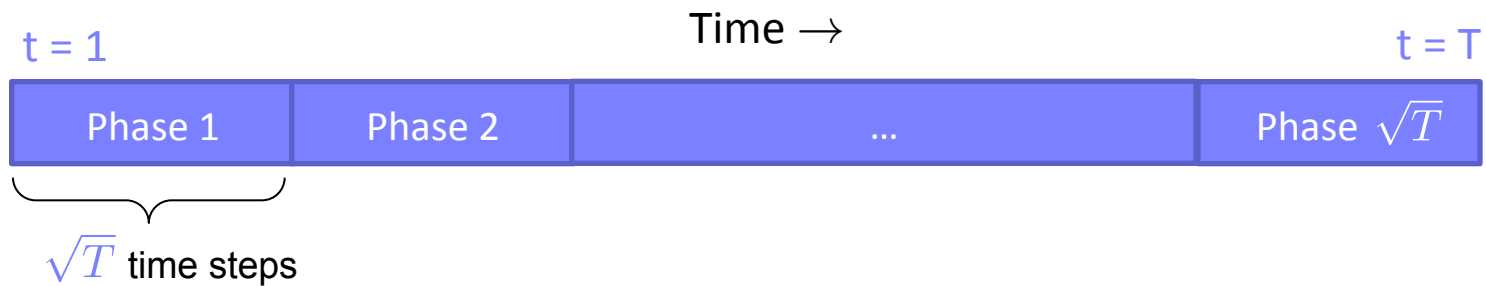
$$E_{\text{Algorithm}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] \geq E_{\text{Opt}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] - \Omega(\sqrt{T})$$

- The number of impressions T can be very large (millions/day).
- So even one event can result in large regret.

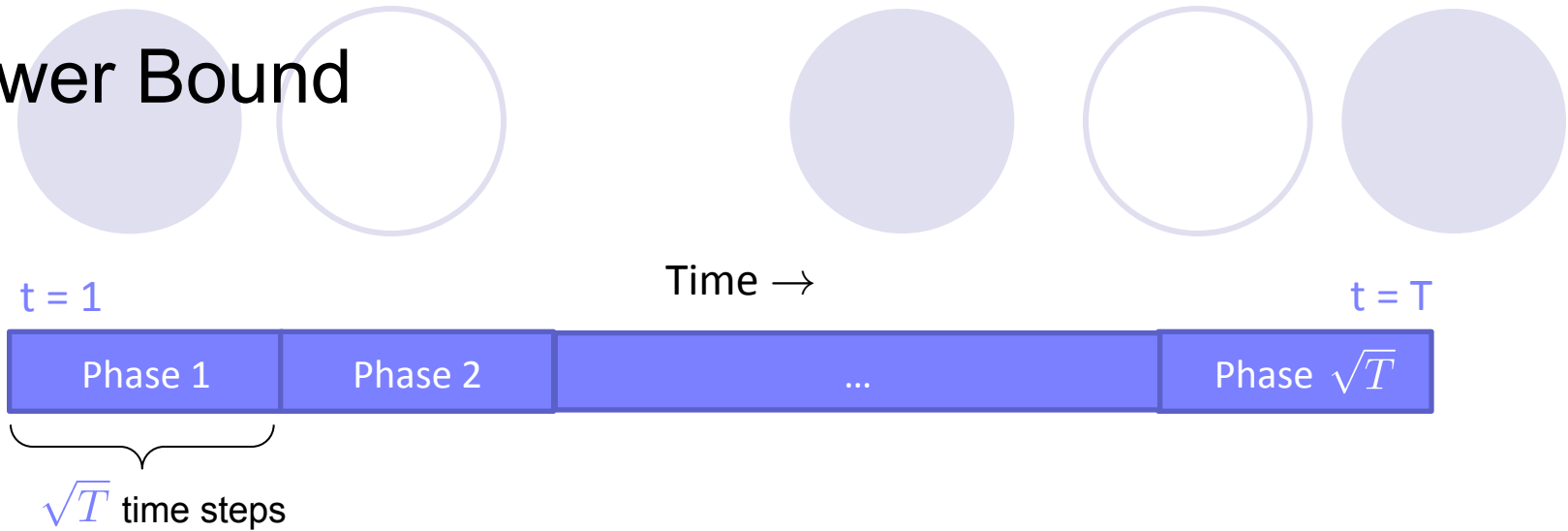
Lower Bound



- **Proof sketch:** Let there be two documents, x and y , with click probabilities $p_x > p_y$.
- Divide the time period into \sqrt{T} phases, each of length \sqrt{T} :



Lower Bound



- For any algorithm A , there are two cases:
 1. A selects both documents at least once per phase.
 $\Rightarrow \Omega(\sqrt{T})$ regret.
 2. A selects only document x in some phase. Then in that phase, increase p_y so that $p_y > p_x$.
 $\Rightarrow \Omega(\sqrt{T})$ regret.
- **Note:** This lower bound is not based on $|p_x - p_y|$ being small (unlike existing lower bounds).

Lower Bound – Caveat

- Proof of lower bound assumes that algorithm has no knowledge about when events occur.
- But this is not really the case!

Signals Correlated with Events



- An event related to query q may have occurred if:
 - Increased volume for q .
 - Increased mentions of q in news stories/blogs.
 - Increased reformulations of q by users.
 - Change in geographical distribution of q
 - e.g. “independence day” in US vs. India

Event Oracle



- Suppose that on every time step t we receive a feature vector x_t .
- Assume there exists an *event oracle* function f such that:

$$f(x_t) = +1$$

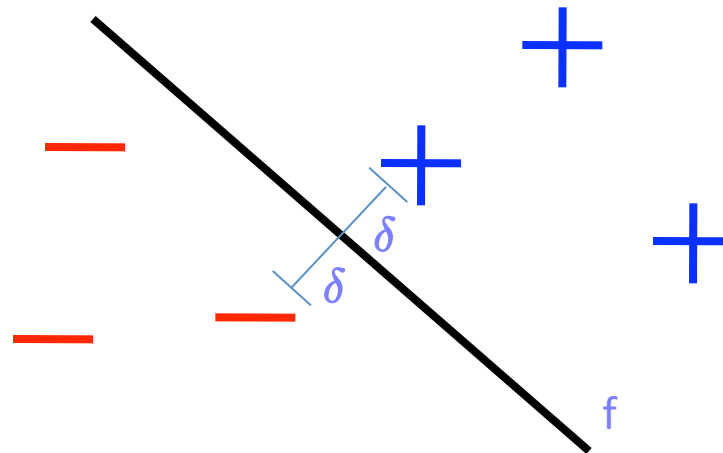


Event occurs at time t .

Event Oracle



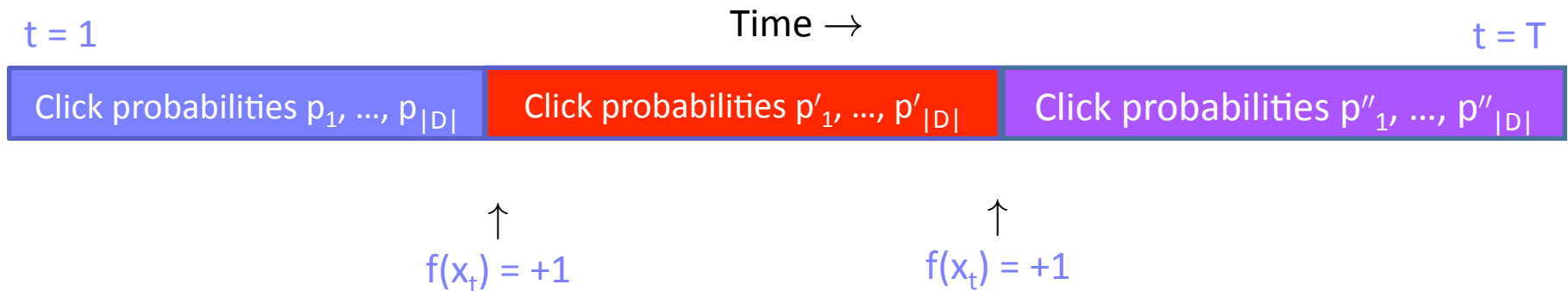
- Assume that f is a linear separator in feature space:
 $f(x) = \text{sign}(w \cdot x)$ for some unknown weight vector w .



- Also assume a margin δ for all examples from the separator.

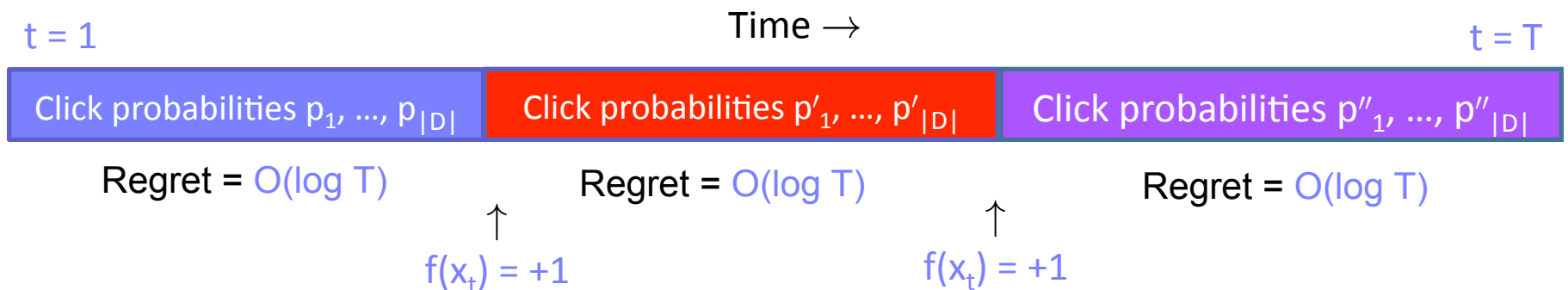
UCB Algorithm with Event Oracle

- For each time $t = 1 \dots T$:
 1. User searches for q .
 2. Choose document d_t according to UCB algorithm.
 3. Receive feature vector x_t .
 4. If $f(x_t) = +1$ then restart UCB algorithm.



UCB Algorithm with Event Oracle

- **Theorem:** $E_{\text{UCB+Oracle}}[\text{\# of clicks}] \geq E_{\text{Opt}}[\text{\# of clicks}] - O(k \log T)$,
where k = number of events.
- **Proof:** UCB algorithm suffers $O(\log T)$ regret in each phase, and there are $O(k)$ phases.

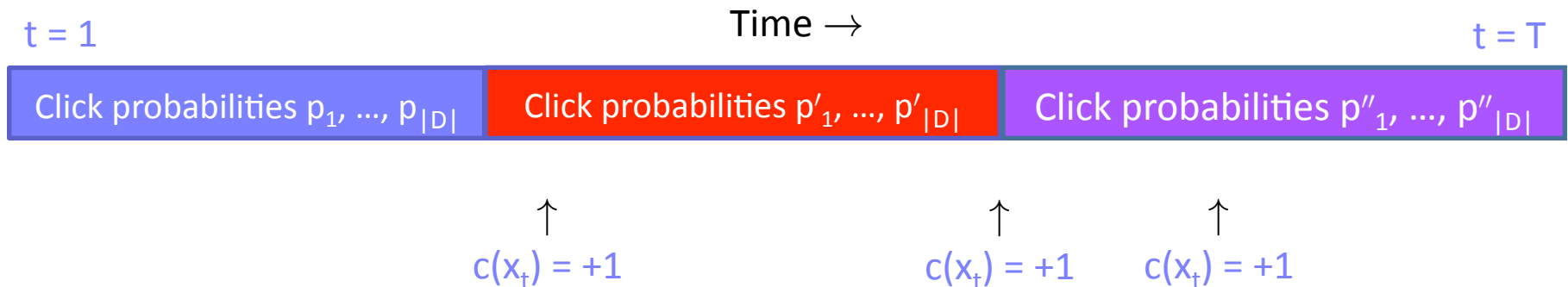


Event Classifier

- Of course, the event oracle function f will not be known in advance.
- So we want to learn a function $c \approx f$ as we go, from examples of events and non-events.
- This is a classification problem, and we call c an *event classifier*.

UCB Algorithm with Event Classifier

- For each time $t = 1 \dots T$:
 1. User searches for q .
 2. Choose document d_t according to UCB algorithm.
 3. Receive feature vector x_t .
 4. If $c(x_t) = +1$, then restart UCB algorithm.
 5. If $c(x_t) = +1$ prediction was wrong, then improve c .



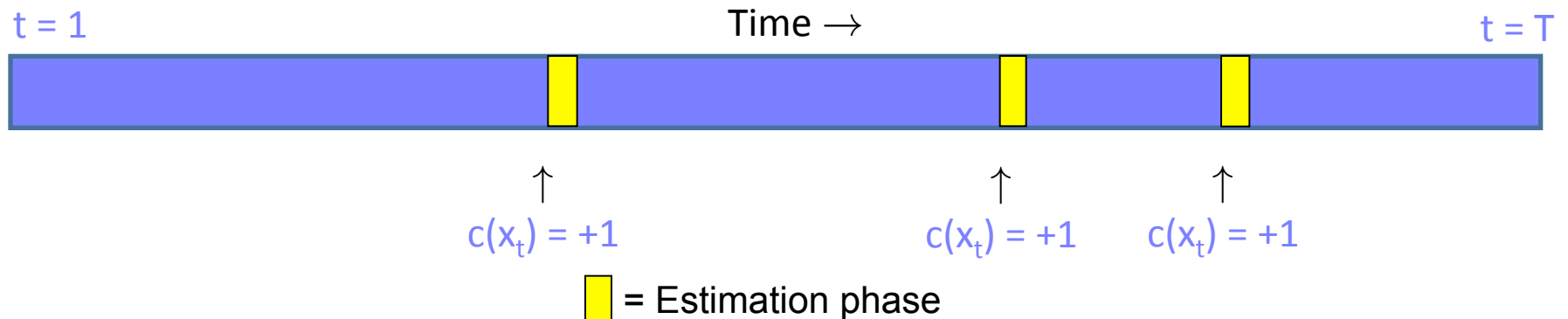
UCB Algorithm with Event Classifier



- As time goes on, we want $c \approx f$.
- So how do we ...
 - ... determine that a prediction was wrong?
 - ... represent classifier c , and improve c after a mistake?
 - ... bound the impact of mistakes on regret?

Determining That a Prediction Was Wrong

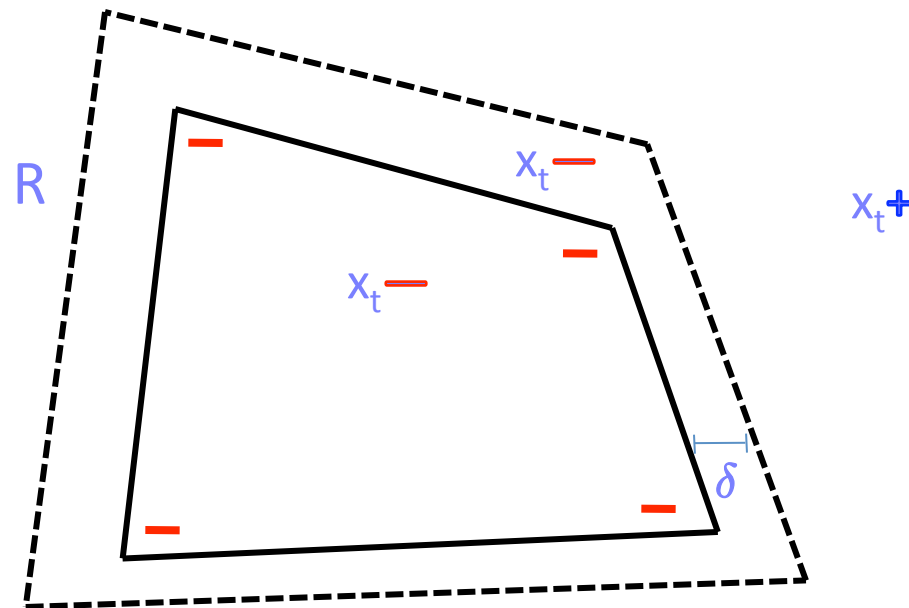
- If an event occurred, then click probability p_d of some document d must have changed.
- For each d , we can estimate p_d by repeatedly displaying d , and recording its empirical click frequency.
- So to check whether $c(x_t) = +1$ was a false positive:
 - Spend a little time immediately after the prediction to estimate p_d for all d .



Classifier c



- Let R be the “ δ -extended” convex hull of previous false positives.

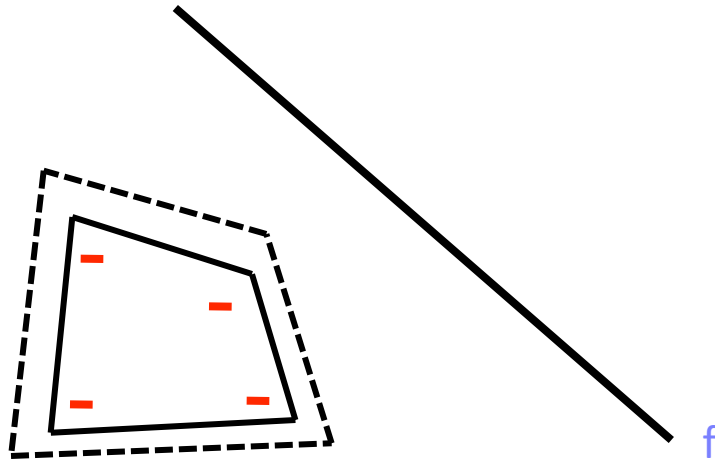


- We predict $c(x_t) = -1$ if and only if $x_t \in R$

Bounding Mistakes



- **Fact:** We will never predict a false negative!
 - Our negative predictions are very conservative.



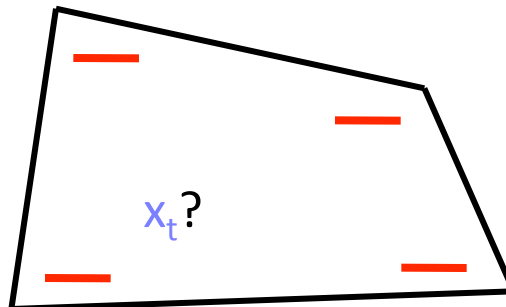
- **Fact:** Every time we predict a false positive, the convex hull grows.
 - So we can bound the number of false positives.

Technicalities

- Technically, due to complications such as:
 - Noise
 - Multiple events occurring in a brief time span.

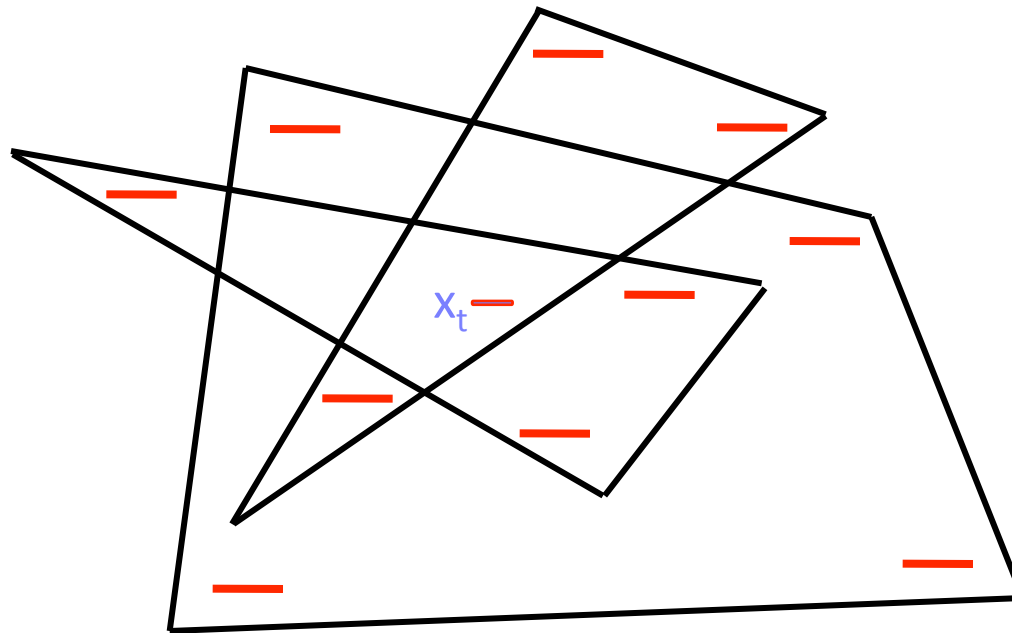
we can never be certain that a prediction is a false positive.

- Hence, we can never be certain that an example inside the convex hull is really a negative.



Technicalities

- So we maintain several convex hulls:



- And predict $c(x_t) = -1$ only if x_t is inside all of them.
- We will be correct with high probability.

UCB Algorithm with Event Classifier

- **Theorem:**

$$E_{\text{UCB+Classifier}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] \geq E_{\text{Opt}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] - O\left(\frac{1}{\delta^d} k \log T\right)$$

Oops!

- where:

- δ = Margin
- d = Dimension of feature space
- k = Number of events

- **Intuition:** Convex hulls grow very slowly, hence strong dependence on d .

Another Lower Bound

- **Theorem:** For any algorithm, one of the following holds:
 1. $E_{\text{Alg}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] \geq E_{\text{Opt}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] - \Omega((1/\delta)^d \log T)$, or
 2. $E_{\text{Alg}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] \geq E_{\text{Opt}}[\# \text{ of clicks}] - \Omega(\sqrt{T}/(1/\delta)^d)$
- **Intuition:** Convex hull-based prediction necessary, because we can't afford to miss even one event (remember lower bound).
- **Moral:** You can have subexponential dependence on d , or logarithmic dependence on T , but never both.



Experiment: Setup

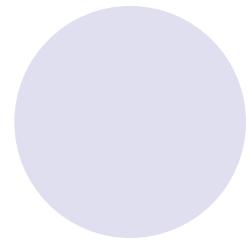
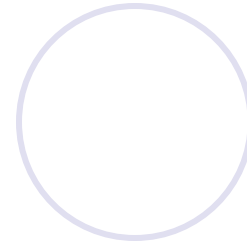
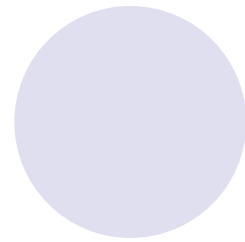
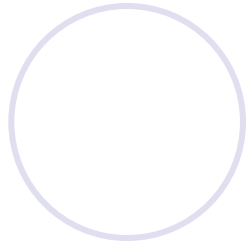
- Used search log data from Microsoft Live Search.
- Used data for the query “liz claiborne”, from the year of her death.
- To conduct a realistic experiment, we just “replayed” the log data against our algorithms.
- We replayed the same year’s data five consecutive times.
 - So in this experiment, Liz dies five times.
 - This simulates multiple events.
- We use only $d = 3$ features, so we don’t suffer from exponential dependence on d .

Results

A decorative graphic at the top of the slide consists of two groups of three circles. The left group has a solid light purple circle on the left, a white circle with a light purple outline in the middle, and a white circle with a light purple outline on the right. The right group has a solid light purple circle on the left, a white circle with a light purple outline in the middle, and a solid light purple circle on the right.

Method	Total Clicks Over Five Years
UCB	49,679
UCB+Classifier	50,621 (+1.9%)
UCB+Oracle	51,207 (+3.1%)

Recap



- New algorithms for ...
 - ... apprenticeship learning, which can output policies that outperform the expert being followed.
 - ... web search, which efficiently provide relevant search results for queries whose meaning can abruptly change.
- Thanks!