What is the place of Reasoning in Machine Learning?

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Outline

1. What is reasoning (1)

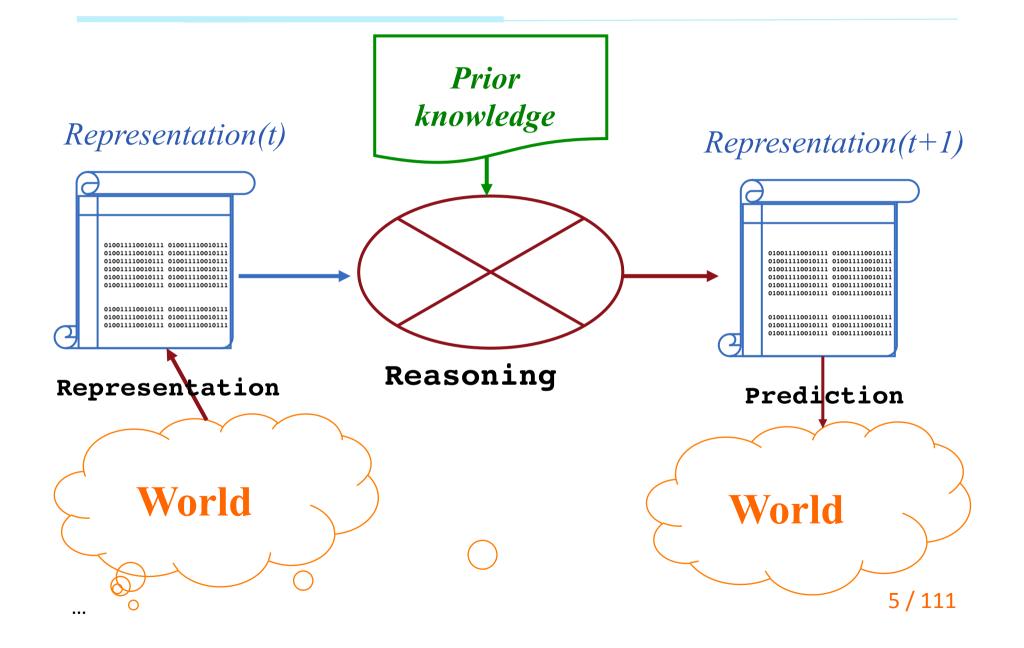
- 2. Machine Learning nowadays: a path to fast thinking
- 3. The future of Machine Learning: what is reasoning (2)
- **4.** Conclusion

What is reasoning (1)

Reasoning

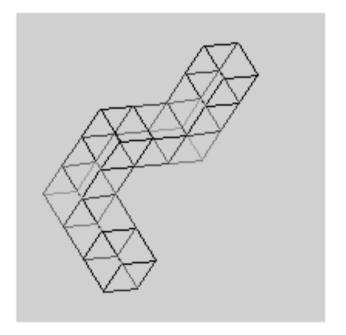
1. Manipulate representations

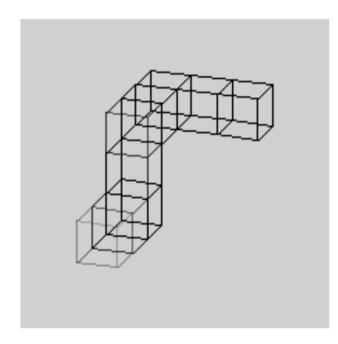
2. To **solve** a problem

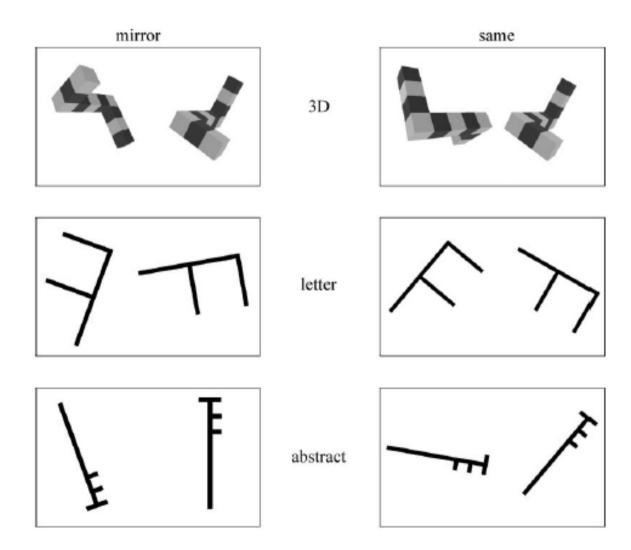


• Experiments of Shepard

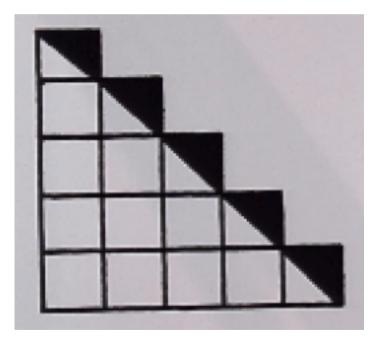
http://www.ulb.ac.be/psycho/fr/docs/museum/Experiments/Shepard/Shepard.html



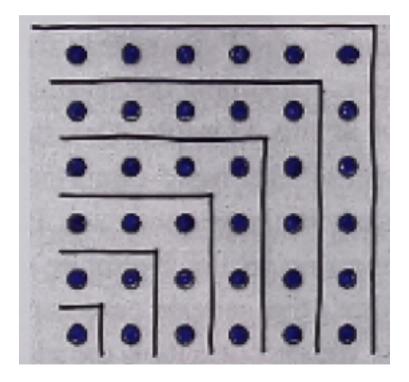




$$1+2+3+\ldots+n = \frac{n^2}{2}+\frac{n}{2}$$



$$1 + 3 + 5 + \ldots + (2n - 1) = n^2$$



- On a boat, suppose that two measurements of distance are made three minutes apart, and that 1500 yards have been covered
- 2. A nautical mile = 2000 yards

What is the speed of the boat in knots (nautical miles / hour)?

• Solution 1

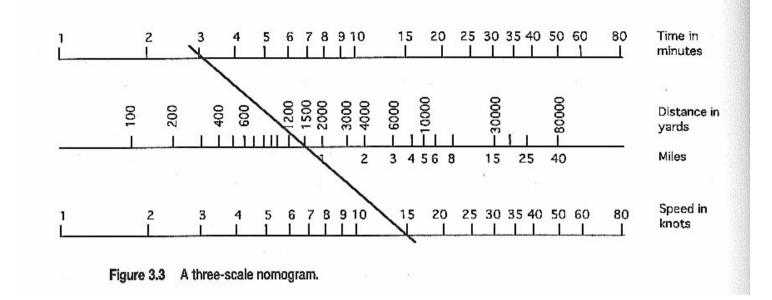
$$d = V \times t \implies V = \frac{d}{t}$$
 (prior K on algebra)

- d = 1500 yards = 1500/2000 mille
- t = 3mn = 3/60 hour
- ightarrow v = 0.75 / 0.05 = 15 miles/h

Rks :

- Operations can be carried out in different orders
- They must be organized

- Solution 2
 - Same but without external memory in order to store the intermediate results
 - The difficulty lies in ordering the operations



- Solution 3
 - Use of a **nautical rule**
 - Draw a line between the time and the distance to get the speed
 - The representation allows one to get the result easily
 - But it is highly specialized

- Solution 4: the 3mn rule
 - 3 mn = 1/20 hour
 - 100 yards = 1/20 mile
 - You just have to remove the 2 last digits of the distance (e.g. 1500 yards) to get the speed -> 15 knots
 - But the measurements have to be made three minutes apart

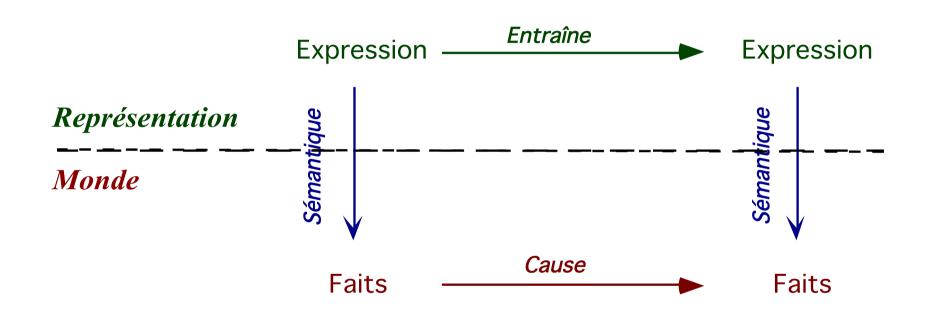
Lesson

- A reasoning system
 - Must chose an **appropriate representation**
 - And select and organize the right operations

The Riddle of the Buddhist Monk:

- A Buddhist monk begins at dawn one day walking up a mountain, reaches the top at sunset, meditates at the top overnight until, at dawn, he begins to walk back to the foot of the mountain, which he reaches at sunset.
- Make no assumptions about his starting or stopping or about his pace during the trips.
- Riddle: *is there a place* on the path that the monk occupies *at the same hour of the day* on the two trips?

Reasoning



Reasoning

Entails

- Inferencing information that is **not explicitly given** in the initial representation
- Jack is married either to Francesca or to Sophie
 Sophie is not married
 - \Rightarrow Jack is married to Francesca
- John looks at Isabel and Isabel looks at Kevin
 John is married, and Kevin is not married
 ⇒ A married person looks at a non married person

Many forms of reasoning

- Deduction
- Induction
- Abduction
- Analogy
- Blending

. . .

• Probabilistic reasoning

With rules that define legitimate operations

Provide some guarantees on the results

Propositional logics: inference rules

- Modus ponens
- $\frac{\alpha \Longrightarrow \beta, \quad \alpha}{\beta}$
- AND-elimination
- AND-introduction
- OR-introduction
- Elimination double negation
- Unitary Resolution
- Resolution

 $\begin{array}{c} \underline{\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \alpha_n} \\ \alpha_1 \\ \underline{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n} \\ \alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \alpha_n \\ \hline \\ \underline{\alpha_1 \vee \alpha_2 \vee \ldots \vee \alpha_n} \end{array}$

$$\frac{\alpha v \beta, \quad \neg \beta v \gamma}{\alpha v \gamma}$$

 $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha}$

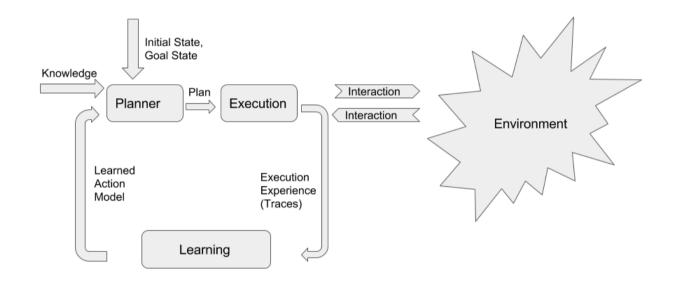
Reasoning

1. Manipulate **representations**

2. To solve a problem

Prodigy

• Steve Minton



22 / 111

E.g. The PRODIGY system

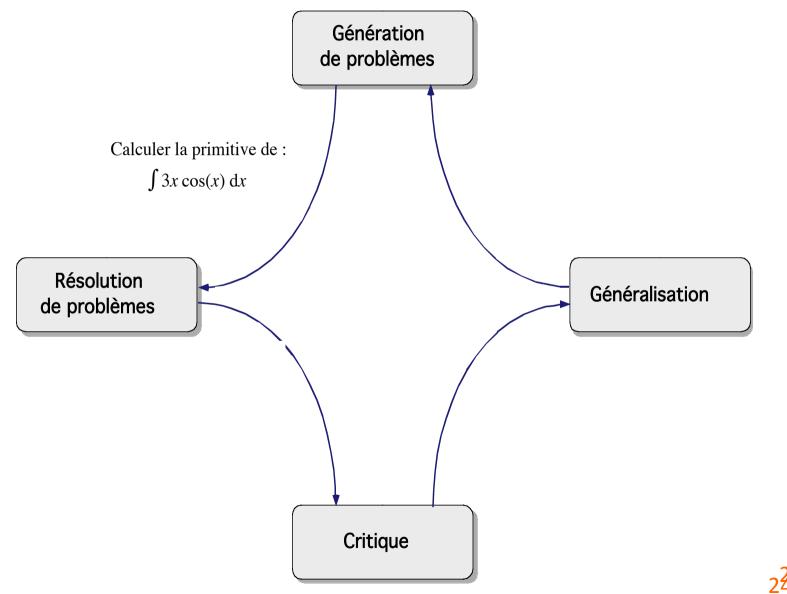
ACM SIGART Bulletin, 1991, vol. 2, no 4, p. 51-55

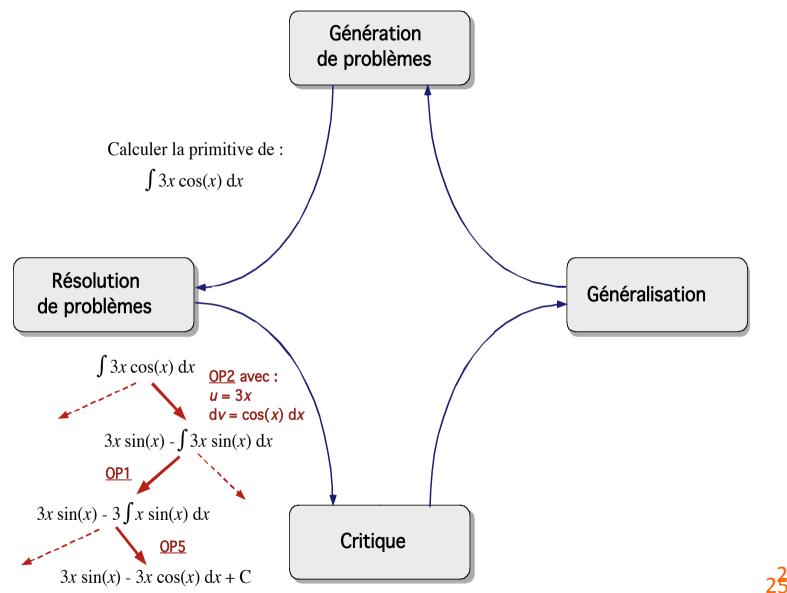
PRODIGY: An Integrated Architecture for Planning and Learning

Jaime Carbonell, Oren Etzioni^{*}, Yolanda Gil, Robert Joseph Craig Knoblock, Steve Minton[†], and Manuela Veloso

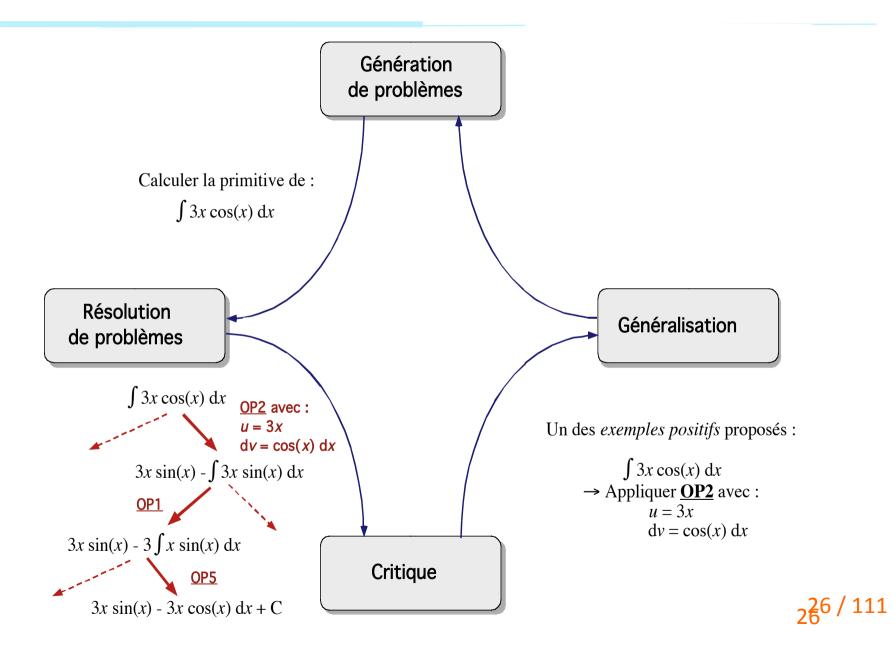
PRODIGY's basic reasoning engine is a general-purpose problem solver and planner [10] that searches for sequences of operators (i.e., plans) to accomplish a set of goals from a specified initial state description. Search in PRODIGY is guided by a set of *control rules* that apply at each decision point.

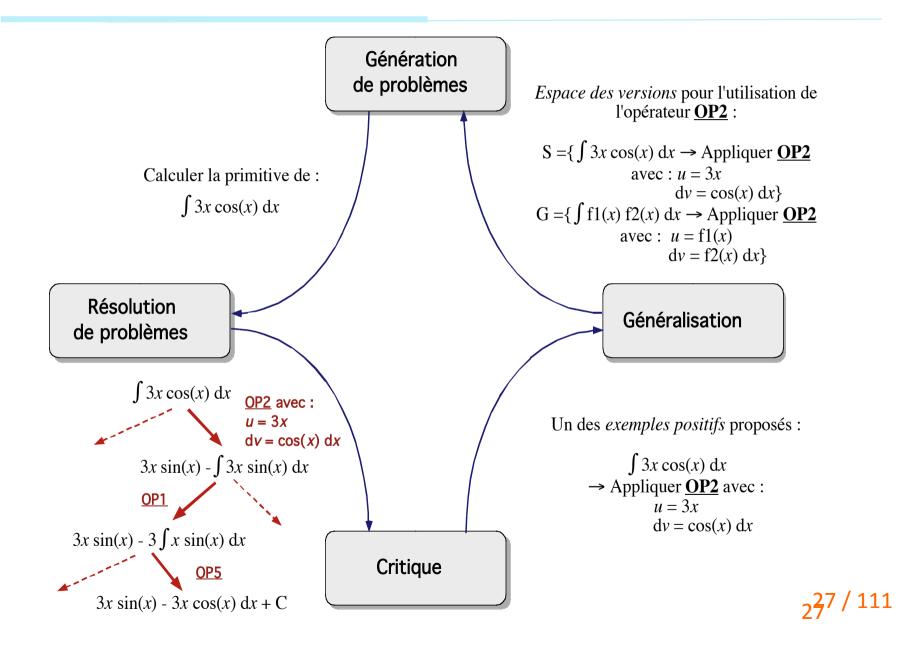
PRODIGY's reliance on explicit control rules, which can be learned for specific domains, distinguishes it from most domain independent problem solvers. Instead of using a leastcommitment search strategy, for example, PRODIGY expects that any important decisions will be guided by the presence of appropriate control knowledge. If no control rules are relevant to a decision, then PRODIGY makes a quick, arbitrary choice. If in fact the wrong choice is made, and costly backtracking proves necessary, an attempt will be made to learn the control knowledge that must be missing.





2⁵ / 111

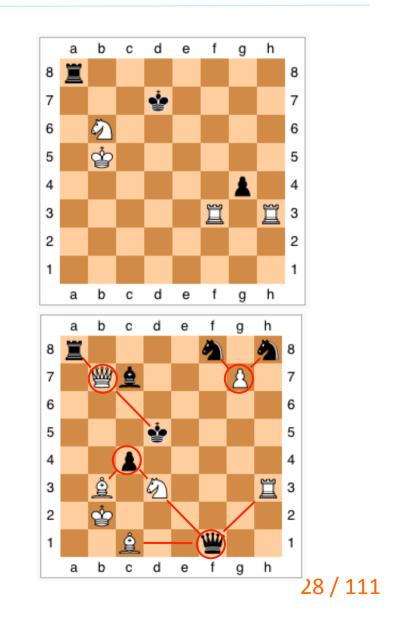




Learning from a single example

Explanation-Based Learning

- 1. A single example
- 2. Search for a proof of a « fork »
- **3**. Generalization



Explanation-Based Learning

Ex:learn the concept stackable(Object1, Object2)

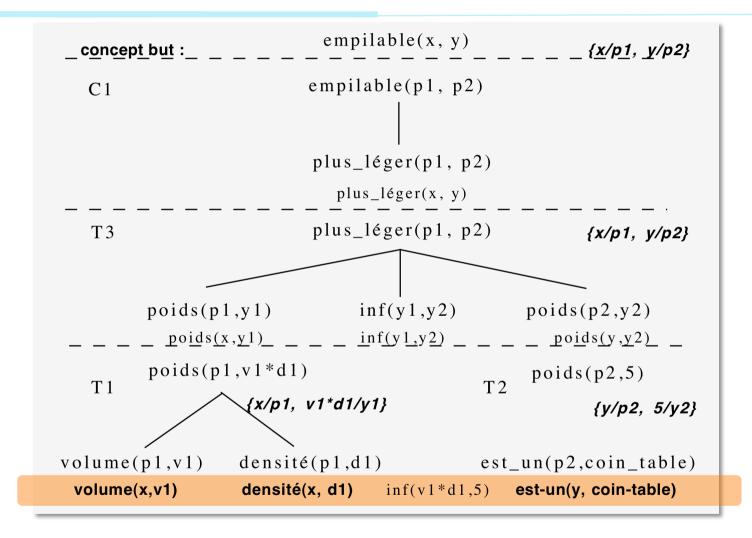
• Domain theory :

(T1): weight(X, W) :- volume(X, V), density(X, D), W is V*D.
(T2): weight(X, 50) :- is_a(X, table).
(T3): lighter than(X, Y) :- weight(X, W1), weight(X, W2), W1 < W2.

- Operationality constraint:
 - Concept should be expressible using volume, density, color, ...
- **Positive example (solution)** :

on(obj1, obj2).	volume(object1, 1).	
<pre>is_a(object1, box).</pre>	volume(object2, 0.1).	
<pre>is_a(object2, table).</pre>	owner(object1, frederic).	
color(object1, red).	<pre>density(object1, 0.3).</pre>	
color(object2, blue).	Made_of(object1, cardboard).	
<pre>made_of(object2, wood).</pre>	<pre>owner(object2, marc).</pre>	29 / 111

Explanation-Based Learning



Generalized search tree resulting from regression of the target concept in the proof tree by computing at each step the most general literals allowing this step.

Explanation-Based Learning

- Induction **from a single example**
 - ... and a strong domain theory
- Language of **logics**
- **Operators** for reasoning (deduction, ...)

Now used in « solvers » of SAT problems And accelerate them immensely because the "data" is clean

Lesson (1-1)

- Reasoning can be used in order to learn
 - To **recognize** concept
 - By abstracting the conditions of membership
 - To accelerate problem-solving
 - By **compiling** search procedures

Lesson (1-2)

• Reasoning can be used in order to learn

- Which does not mean that the results
 - Prediction
 - Learned hypothesis

Should be automatically readily interpretable

More on this later

Outline

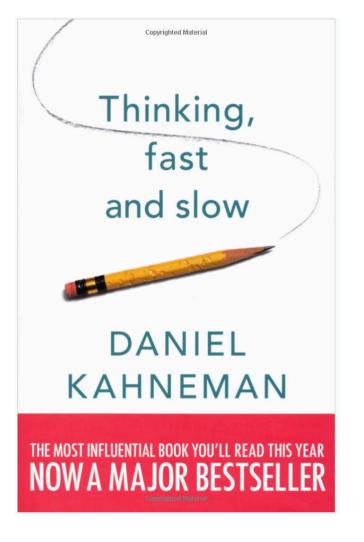
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Machine Learning nowadays

A path to fast thinking

Thinking: fast and slow

Daniel Kahneman



Thinking: fast and slow

- Type 1 process: Fast
 - Fast
 - Effortless
 - Parallel
 - Unconscious
 - Automatic
 - Associative
 - Contextualized
 - Heuristic
 - Intuitive
 - Implicit
 - Nonverbal
 - Independent of general intelligence
 - Independent of working memory
 - Shared with non human animals

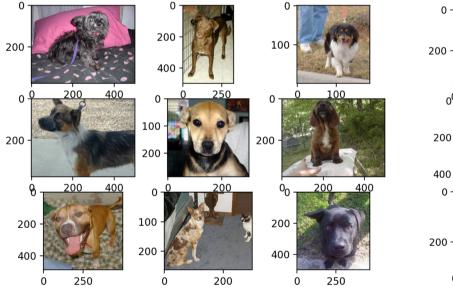
- Type 2 process: Slow
 - Slow
 - Effortful
 - Serial
 - Conscious
 - Controlled
 - Rule-Based
 - Decontextualized
 - Analytic
 - Reflective
 - Explicit
 - Linked to language
 - Linked to general intelligence
 - Involving working memory
 - Specifically human

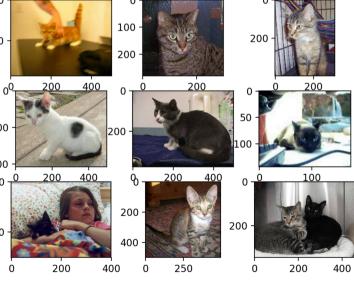
Machine Learning as ...

... Learning a function from an **input** space X to an **output** space Y









Supervised learning

Given a training set

$$\mathcal{S}_m = \{ (\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m) \}$$

• Find an hypothesis $h \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $h(\mathbf{x_i}) ~pprox ~y_i$

• Hoping that it generalizes well :

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} : \quad h(\mathbf{x}) \approx \mathbf{y}$$

• Examples described using:

Number (1 or 2); *size* (small or large); *shape* (circle or square); *color* (red or green)

• They belong either to class '+' or to class '-'

• Examples described using:

Number (1 or 2); *size* (small or large); *shape* (circle or square); *color* (red or green)

• They belong either to class '+' or to class '-'

Description	Your prediction	True class
1 large red square		-
1 large green square		+
2 small red squares		+
2 large red circles		-
1 large green circle		+
1 small red circle		+

• Examples described using:

Number (1 or 2); size (small or large); shape (circle or square); color (red or green)

Description	Your prediction	True class
1 large red square		-
1 large green square		+
2 small red squares		+
2 large red circles		-
1 large green circle		+
1 small red circle		+

How many possible functions altogether from X to Y? $2^{2^4} = 2^{16} = 65,536$

How many functions do remain after 6 training examples?

,

 $2^{10} = 1024$

• Examples described using:

Number (1 or 2); *size* (small or large); *shape* (circle or square); *color* (red or green)

Description	Your prediction	True class	
1 large red square		-	
1 large green square		+	
2 small red squares		+	
2 large red circles		-	
1 large green circle		+	
1 small red circle		+	
1 small green square		-	
1 small red square		+	How many
2 large green squares		+	remaining
2 small green squares		+	functions?
2 small red circles		+	
1 small green circle		-	
2 large green circles		-	
2 small green circles		+	
1 large red circle		-	
2 large red squares	?		→ ?

15 -

• How to chose an hypothesis?

A statistical theory of induction

What **performance** do we aim at?

- Cost of a prediction error
 - The loss function

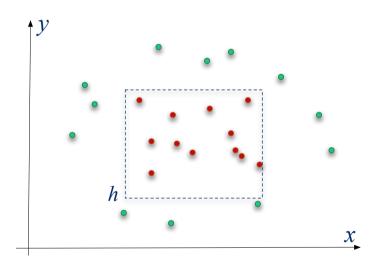
 $\ell(h(\mathbf{x}),y)$

- What is the expected cost if I choose *h*?
 - Expected cost: the "true risk"

$$R(h) = \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} \ell(h(\mathbf{x}), y) \mathbf{p}_{\mathcal{X} \mathcal{Y}}(\mathbf{x}, y) \, d\mathbf{x} \, dy$$

A statistical theory of induction

- The empirical performance of *h*
 - E.g. No prediction error on the training sample S



The "empirical risk"

$$\hat{R}(\boldsymbol{h}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell(\boldsymbol{h}(\mathbf{x}_i), y_i)$$

Statistical study for $|\mathcal{H}|$ hypotheses

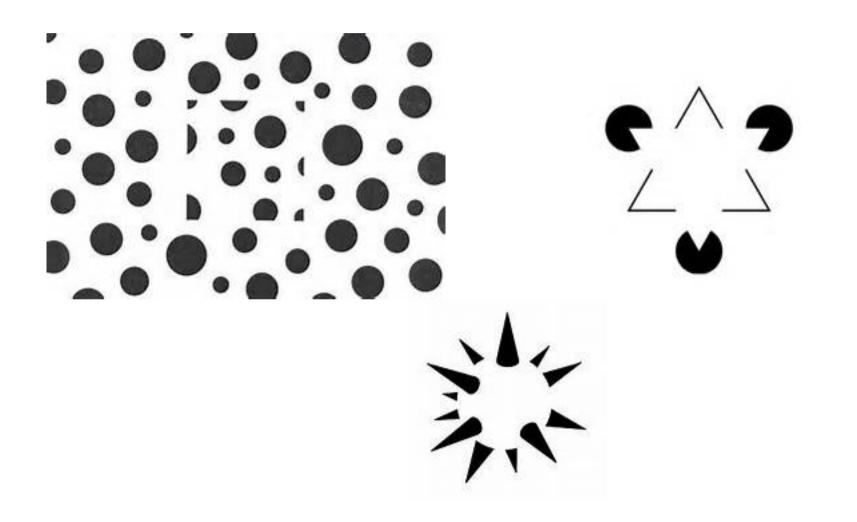
It leads to:

$$\forall h \in \mathcal{H}, \forall \delta \leq 1: \quad P^m \left[\frac{R(h)}{k} \leq \widehat{R}(h) + \frac{\log |\mathcal{H}| + \log \frac{1}{\delta}}{m} \right] > 1 - \delta$$

The Empirical Risk Minimization principle

is sound **only if** there exists a limit (a bias) on the expressivity of ${\cal H}$

Learning – completing data with necessary a aprioris



HOW TO ... devise learning algorithms

- 1. Define an appropriate **regularized** (inductive) **criterion**
 - 1. Translate the cost of errors of prediction in the domain into a loss function
 - 2. Define a **regularization term** that expresses *assumptions about the underlying regularities of the world*
 - 3. If possible, make the resulting **optimization** problem a **convex** one

$$h_{opt} = \operatorname{ArgMin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left[\underbrace{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} l(h(\mathbf{x}_i), y_i)}_{\text{empirical risk}} + \lambda \underbrace{\frac{reg(\mathcal{H})}_{\text{bias on the world}}}_{\text{bias on the world}} \right]$$

2. Use or develop an efficient optimization solver

Learning sparse linear approximator

- The **hypothesis** is of the form $h(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}$
- A priori assumption: few non zero coefficients

Ridge regression

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{ridge}}^{*} = \operatorname{Argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_{i} - \mathbf{w} \mathbf{x}_{i})^{2} + \frac{\lambda}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_{2}^{2}} \right\}$$

Lasso regression
$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{lasso}}^* = \operatorname{Argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - \mathbf{w} \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_1} \right\}$$

3.3 du chapitre 3. Ainsi, étant donnés un échantillon source étiqueté $S = \{(x_i^s, y_i^s)\}_{i=1}^m$
constitué de m exemples *i.i.d.* selon P_S et un échantillon cible non étiqueté $T = \{(x_i^t)\}_{i=1}^m$
composé de m exemples *i.i.d.* selon D_T , en posant $S_u = \{x_i^s\}_{i=1}^m$ l'échantillon S privé deRegularized
empirical riskoù dis $_{\rho_{\mathbf{x}'}}(S_u, T_u) = \begin{bmatrix} E\\(h,h') \sim \rho_{\mathbf{w}^2} \\ R_{S_u}(h,h') - E\\(h,h') \sim \rho_{\mathbf{w}^2} \\ R_{T_u}(h,h') \end{bmatrix}$ est le désaccord empi-
rique entre S_u et T_u spécialisé à une distribution ρ_w sur l'espace \mathcal{H} des classifieurs
linéaires considéré. Les réels a > 0 et c > 0 sont des hyperparamètres de l'algorithme.
Notons que les constantes A et C du théorème [7:7] peuvent être retrouvées à partir de
n'importe quelle valeur de a et c. Étant donnée la fonction $\ell_{dis}(x) = 2\ell_{Erf}(x) \ell_{Erf}(-x)$
(illustrée sur la figure [7:1]), pour toute distribution D sur X, on a :

$$\begin{split} \underset{(h,h')\sim\rho_{w^2}}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{R}_D(h,h') &= \underset{\mathbf{x}\sim D}{\mathbf{E}} \underset{(h,h')\sim\rho_{w^2}}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{I} \left[h(\mathbf{x}) \neq h'(\mathbf{x}) \right] \\ &= 2 \underset{\mathbf{x}\sim D}{\mathbf{E}} \underset{(h,h')\sim\rho_{w^2}}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{I} \left[h(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \right] \mathbf{I} \left[h'(\mathbf{x}) = -1 \right] \\ &= 2 \underset{\mathbf{x}\sim D}{\mathbf{E}} \underset{h\sim\rho_w}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{I} \left[h(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \right] \underset{h'\sim\rho_w}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{I} \left[h'(\mathbf{x}) = -1 \right] \\ &= 2 \underset{\mathbf{x}\sim D}{\mathbf{E}} \underset{h\sim\rho_w}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{I} \left[h(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \right] \underset{h'\sim\rho_w}{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{I} \left[h'(\mathbf{x}) = -1 \right] \\ &= 2 \underset{\mathbf{x}\sim D}{\mathbf{E}} \underset{\ell_{\mathrm{erf}}}{\mathbf{E}} \left(\frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \right) \underset{\ell_{\mathrm{erf}}}{\mathbf{E}} \left(-\frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \right) \end{split}$$

Surrogate expression of the regularized empirical risk

Optimization

Ainsi, trouver la solution optimale de l'équation (7.5) revient à chercher le vecteur w qui minimise :

$$c\sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell_{\mathrm{Erf}}\left(y_{i}^{\mathrm{s}}\frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{s}}\rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{s}}\|}\right) + a\left|\sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[\ell_{\mathrm{dis}}\left(\frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{s}}\rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{s}}\|}\right) - \ell_{\mathrm{dis}}\left(\frac{\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{t}}\rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{t}}\|}\right)\right]\right| + \frac{\|\mathbf{w}\|^{2}}{2}.$$
 (7.6)

L'équation précédente est fortement non convexe. Afin de rendre sa résolution plus facilement contrôlable, nous remplaçons la fonction $\ell_{\text{Erf}}(\cdot)$ par sa relaxation convexe

 $\ell_{\text{Erf}_{exx}}(\cdot)$ (comme pour PBGD₃ et illustrée sur la figure 7.1). L'optimisation se réalise ensuite par une descente de gradient. Le gradient de l'équation 7.6 étant :

A lot of "Lamppost theorems"

Theorems that guarantee that:

- If the world obeys my a priori assumptions
- Then the learning algorithm will end up with a good hypothesis (closed to the "real" one)
- Otherwise learning can lead to very bad hypotheses
 (e.g. *If the world is not sparse*)

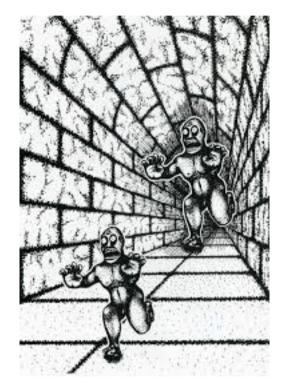


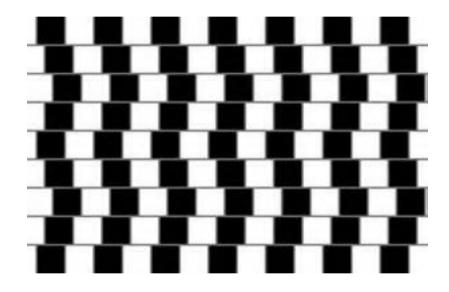
Interpreting – completion of percepts





Induction and its illusions





Induction and illusions



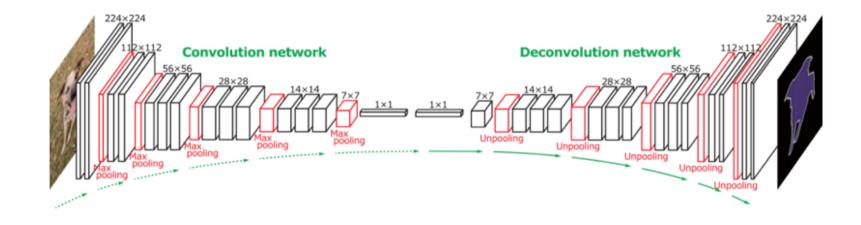


Crater or hill?

Lesson (2-1)

• In the current ML methods, **prior knowledge** takes the form of imposed bias on the type of regularities that can be captured

- **No reasoning** takes place during learning
 - Just an **exploration** of the hypothesis space
 - Subject to an optimization criterion



- Of course there are biases in the current machine learning algorithms and techniques
- But it seems that in the new paradigm there is no place nor need for reasoning

 Maybe we don't yet understand the biases that are entailed in deep Neural Networks

See C. Zhang, S. Bengio, M. Hardt, B. Recht, O. Vinyals (ICLR, **May 2017**). "Understanding deep learning **requires rethinking generalization**"

But what does it have to do with reasoning?

A car in a swimming pool

... or no car ... ?

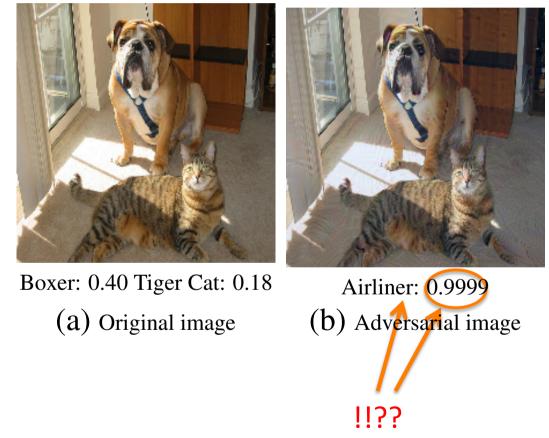


Is this less of a car because the context is wrong?

[Léon Bottou (ICML-2015, invited talk) « Two big challenges in Machine Learning »]

Adversarial learning

Central question: which guarantees ?



[Selvaraju et al. (2017) « Grad-CAM: Visual explanations from deep networks via gradient-based localization »]

The case of AlphaGo

- Plays like an "alien"
- Stunning moves
- A revolution for go playing
- Effervescence in the go playing circles





The case of AlphaGo: to understand its plays

Fan Hui, Gu Li, Zhou Ruyang (very strong players at go) are converting themselves in the analysis of the games played by AlphaGo

- Kind of exegesis. Explanations a posteriori
- Necessary for
 - Communication
 - Teaching



And even AlphaGo can make mistakes

Lesson (2-2)

- For various reasons, sometimes, there are needs for:
 - Justification of the result
 - Transparency of the learned hypothesis

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- 1. What is reasoning (1)
- 2. Machine Learning nowadays: a path to fast thinking
- 3. The future of Machine Learning: what is reasoning (2)

4. Conclusion

The future of Machine Learning

What is reasoning (2)

Reasoning ...

... comes after the fact

- Most of our inferences result from specialized modules with little access to their functioning
 - Perception
 - Memory access (and reconstruction)
 - Interpreting other's states of mind

We use reasons to justify ourselves and convince others

Finding reasons

• Try to identify **bits of information** that **did play a role** in our beliefs and decisions

- People were told that they would participate in a market study on games. Participants were individually welcomed at the door of the lab by a friendly assistant who took them to a room connected to her office, gave them a questionnaire to fill out, and went back to her office, where she could be heard shuffling papers, opening drawers, and so on.
 - A while later, the participants heard her climb on a chair and then heard a loud crash and a scream, "Oh, my God, my foot ... I ... can't move it. Oh ... my ankle! ... I can't get this ... thing ... of me."

 In one condition, the participant was alone in the room when all this happened.

 In another condition, there was a man in the room who acted as if he were a participant too.

This man hardly reacted to the crash and the scream.

He just shrugged and went on filling out the questionnaire.

What do you expect ?

What do you expect ?

• In the first condition, 70% of the participants intervened to help.

• In the second condition, only 7% did

After all this the participants were **interviewed about their reactions**.

First condition, typically: "I wasn't quite sure what had happened;
 I thought I should at least find out."

• Second condition, typically the participants thought that whatever had happened was not too serious

Not one ever mentioned the presence of the other participant!!

And even more, they claimed this presence had no influence at all on their decision

• The reasons invoked **come after the fact** of deciding

• Indeed they are blatantly faulty

• Reasons are justifications

- If I base my "intuitions" on good reasons
 - Other actors will **increase their trust** in my claims
- Reasons
 - 1. Premises or important influencing factors for the final decision
 - 2. The reasoning that uses them. Others should be able to duplicate it
 - Both together should lead to the same final decision deemed to be explained

A new perspective

- Reasoning **can be used** to solve problems and then be the basis of learning in order to gain efficiency: compilation of knowledge
- But it **is not required** to learn

- Reasoning is required when
 - **sub-systems** are **interacting** in a repeated manner
 - Or there are interactions with humans

An accident of an (autonomous) car

On May 7th, 2016, a Tesla car in autopilot mode collided with a semitrailer across the road

- The analysis reveals that:
 - The radar did detect the semi-trailer but there were numerous road signs on the road with a radar "signature" similar to one of a car
 - The camera was unsure of its detections due to a dazzling milky sky (the semi-trailer was white).

Combination of adaptive sub-systems and justifications

- The analysis reveals that:
 - The **radar** did detect a semi-trailer but ...
 - The **camera** was not sure of its detection of a semi-trailer because ...

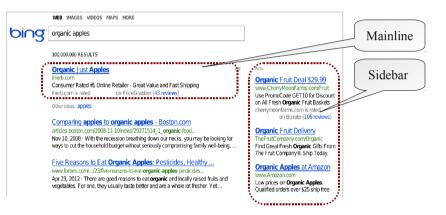
- What if the radar had said: "Even though I am **not quite sure**, I do not believe it to be a semi-trailer **because** it looks to me like a road sign of which I have detected many on this road."
- What if the camera had said: "Even though I am **not quite sure**, I do not believe it to be a semi-trailer **because** the color is close to the color of the sky which is milky today."
- What if the radar and camera had a long history of such exchanges and were influencing each other ...

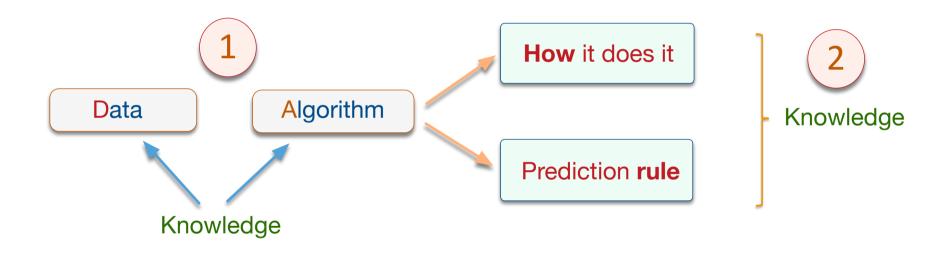
Interactions between learning modules

Adaptive advertising placement system

- Two sub-systems
 - One placing advertising links
 - The other one choosing the adds
- Mutually influencing each other
 - Each one is based on click data
 - Which also depends on the intervention of the other system
 - And other **uncontrolled factors** (price, user requests, ...)

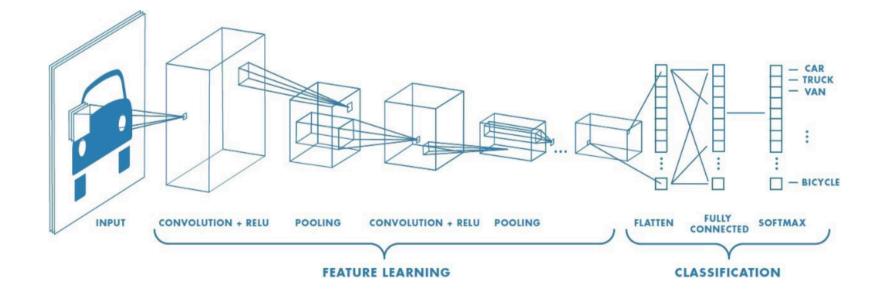
[L. Bottou et al. *«Counterfactual Reasoning and Learning Systems: The Example of Computational Advertising »*, JMLR, 14, (2013), 3207-3260]





Knowledge as **input** to ML

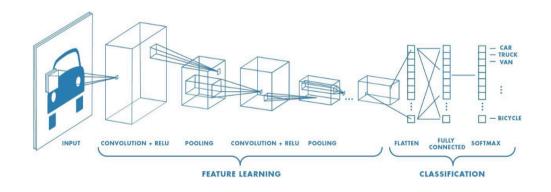
- Convolutional Neural Networks
 - Knowledge embedded in the architecture of the network



From https://towardsdatascience.com/a-comprehensive-guide-to-convolutional-neural-networks-the-eli5-way-3bd2b1164a53 80 / 111

Knowledge as **input** to ML

- Convolutional Neural Networks
 - Knowledge embedded in the architecture of the network



- How to obtain an explanation
 - About the procedure? Forget it! It is opaque
 - About the premises?

What kind of "reasons" can we extract?

- The hypothesis returned: a decision function
 - Recommending a movie
 - Recommending a life partner
 - Written character recognition
 - Recognize traffic signs
 - Decide the value of a position in go
 - Predict the risk of crime occurrence
 - Decide if someone should get a loan
 - Decide to **hire or not** someone

- Various approaches to "explain" the decision-making of pre-trained models
 - 1. Feature-based explanations methods
 - Attribute the decision to **important features in the input space**
 - 2. Sample-based explanation methods
 - Attribute the decision to **previously observed samples**
 - **3. Concept**-based explanation methods
 - estimates the importance of a concept (intermediate category / intermediate layers) to a given class

- **1. Feature**-based explanations methods
 - Attribute the decision to **important features in the input space**



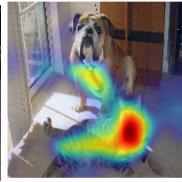
Boxer: 0.40 Tiger Cat: 0.18 (a) Original image



Airliner 0.9999 (b) Adverse ial image



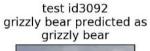
Boxer: 1.1e-20 (C) Grad-CAM "Dog"



Tiger Cat: 6.5e-17 (d) Grad-CAM "Cat"

[Selvaraju et al. (2017) « Grad-CAM: Visual explanations from deep networks via gradient-based localization »]

- 2. Sample-based explanation methods
 - Attribute the decision to **previously observed samples**





train id13033 grizzly bear predicted as grizzly bear



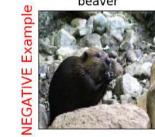
train id21249 polar bear predicted as



train id12728 grizzly bear predicted as grizzly bear



train id1228 beaver predicted as beaver



train id12742 grizzly bear predicted as grizzly bear

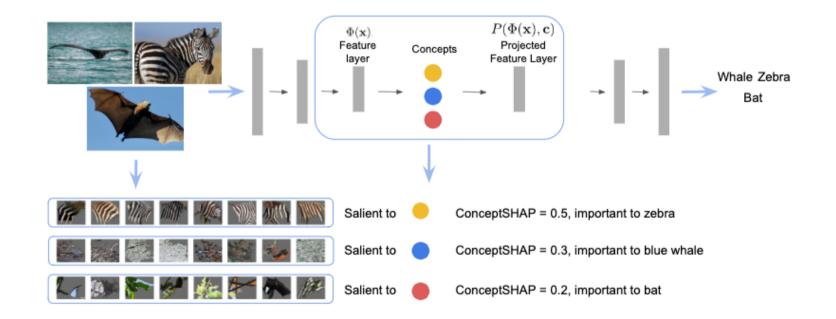


train id20730 pig predicted as



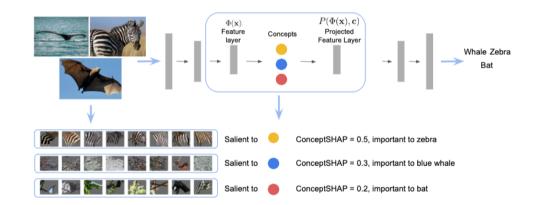
[Chih-Kuan Yeh et al. (2018) « Representer Point Selection for Explaining Deep Neural Networks », NIPS-2018]

- 3. Concept-based explanation methods
 - estimates the importance of a concept (intermediate category) to a given class



[Chih-Kuan Yeh et al. (2019) « On concept-based explanations in deep neural networks »]

- **3. Concept**-based explanation methods
 - estimates the importance of a concept (intermediate category) to a given class



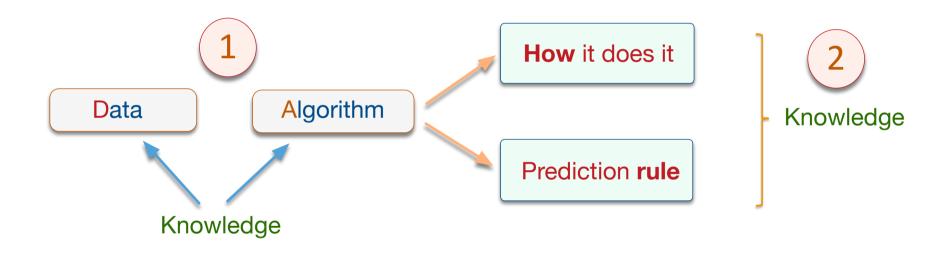
- Concepts are taken (by clustering) at an intermediate layer of the NN
- Each concept should be **interpretable** and semantically-meaningful

[Chih-Kuan Yeh et al. (2019) « On concept-based explanations in deep neural networks »]

- Concept-based explanation methods
 - estimates the importance of a concept (intermediate category) to a given class
 - Notion of **completeness** of the concepts
 - Concepts are learned after training

Concepts	Nearest Neighbors		SHAP	Related Classes
stripe 1	Fr. MP	Nille .	0.126	horse, lion
ripple 1			0.120	panda, hippopotamus, ox, wearus, wolf
stripe 2	1		0.124	bobcat, collie, rabbit, zebra
leaf/ branch			0.121	antelope, bat, deer, hamster, mouse, tiger,
grass		No.	0.08	grizzly-bear, raccoon
thick snow			0.109	dalmatian, leopard, otter, squirrel
ripple 2			0.105	blue-whale, dolphin, mole, spider-monkey
dots	\$		0.124	persian-cat, polar-bear, rhinoceros, siamese-cat, skunk

[Chih-Kuan Yeh et al. (2019) « On concept-based explanations in deep neural networks »]



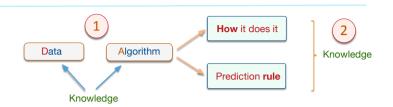
What kind of "reasons" can we **extract**?

- Interpretability of the decision function
 - **Decision trees** seem readily interpretable
 - Linear decision functions are less so
 - Random forests are much less still
 - SVM
 - Neural Networks

Require a difficult analysis

Knowledge as **input** to ML

• Knowledge in the learning algorithm



91/111

- Constraints on the hypothesis space: representation bias

$$h^{\star} = \operatorname{ArgMin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left[\frac{R_{\operatorname{Emp}}(h) + \lambda \operatorname{reg}(h)}{2} \right]$$

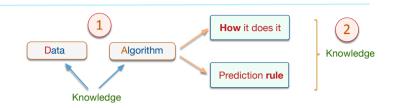
Looking for **sparse linear hypotheses**

$$h^{\star} = \operatorname{ArgMin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell(h(\mathbf{x}_{i}), y_{i}) + \lambda ||h||_{1} \right]$$

Favors hypotheses with few non null coefficients

Knowledge as **input** to ML

• Knowledge in the learning algorithm



Looking for **sparse linear hypotheses**

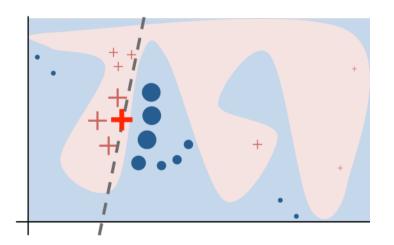
$$h^{\star} = \operatorname{ArgMin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell(h(\mathbf{x}_{i}), y_{i}) + \lambda ||h||_{1} \right]$$

Favors hypotheses with few non null coefficients

"Hey, I am looking for sparse hypotheses, and if this fits the data, I am satisfied"

Explaining any classifier?

- [Ribeiro et al. (2016)]: LIME (Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations)
 - An explanation is a local linear approximation of the decision function
 - Whereas the model may be very complex globally, it is easier to approximate it around the vicinity of a particular instance.
 - While treating the model as a black box, perturb the instance we want to explain and learn a sparse linear model around it, as an explanation.



"Explaining" the instance +

sample instances around +, and weight them
according to their proximity to + (weight here is
indicated by size).
Then learn a linear model (dashed line) that
approximates the model well in the vicinity of +

Explaining any classifier?

• [Ribeiro et al. (2016)]: LIME (Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations)

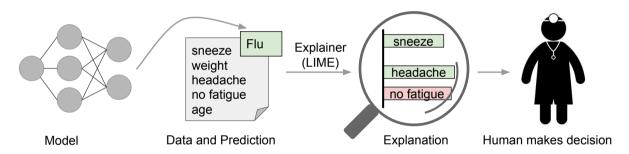


Figure 1: Explaining individual predictions. A model predicts that a patient has the flu, and LIME highlights the symptoms in the patient's history that led to the prediction. Sneeze and headache are portrayed as contributing to the "flu" prediction, while "no fatigue" is evidence against it. With these, a doctor can make an informed decision about whether to trust the model's prediction.

Explaining any classifier?

• [Ribeiro et al. (2016)]: LIME (Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations)



(a) Original Image (b) Explaining *Electric guitar* (c) Explaining *Acoustic guitar* (d) Explaining *Labrador*

Figure 4: Explaining an image classification prediction made by Google's Inception neural network. The top 3 classes predicted are "Electric Guitar" (p = 0.32), "Acoustic guitar" (p = 0.24) and "Labrador" (p = 0.21)

Explanations in **Expert Systems**

Why should tetracycline not be prescribed to a child under 8 years of age?

Explanations in Expert Systems

Why should tetracycline not be prescribed to a child under 8 years of age?

Supporting knowledge

- Drug deposition on **developing bones**
- Permanent blackening of the teeth
 - → Socially undesirable **staining**
 - → **Do not give** tétracycline to children under 8 years of age

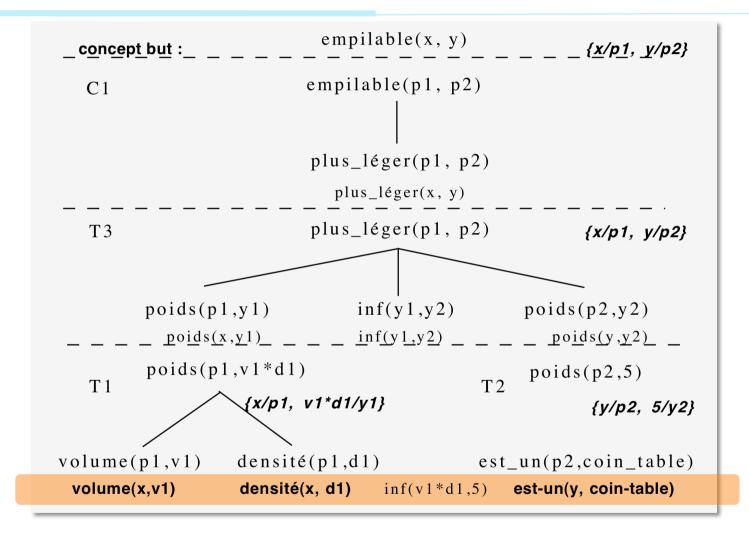
Notion of undesirable secondary effects

Causality relationship

Explanation obtained by "decompiling" the initial reasoning

97

Explanation-Based justification: decompiling



Generalized search tree resulting from regression of the target concept in the proof tree by computing at each step the most general literals allowing this step.

Reasons not always in need

• When interpretability is **NOT** needed?

Reasons not always in need

- When interpretability is **NOT** needed?
 - When **low risk** associated with the decision
 - E.g. recommendation for a movie
 - When **good guarantees** on performance exist
 - E.g. character recognition

• When interpretability IS needed?

- When interpretability IS needed?
 - 1. With high risk decisions
 - E.g. chirurgical operation
 - E.g. shutting down a nuclear plant
 - E.g. autonomous vehicle

- When interpretability IS needed?
 - 1. With high risk decisions
 - E.g. chirurgical operation
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- When interpretability IS needed?
 - 2. Satisfying **curiosity** (what science is about)
 - E.g. explain surprising results
 - E.g. when no easy explanation exists
 - E.g. when the decision function must be included in a larger inference system (a domain theory)

- When interpretability IS needed?
 - **3.** Debugging / exchanges between sub-systems
 - E.g. why is that decision wrong (counterfactual)
 - E.g. if a bicycle is recognized because it has two wheels, what if one is hidden behind side bags?
 - E.g. why the system seems gender biased?

A paradox

• An interpretable system can be manipulated

• E.g. if someone knows that a loan is granted if you have more than 2 credit cards

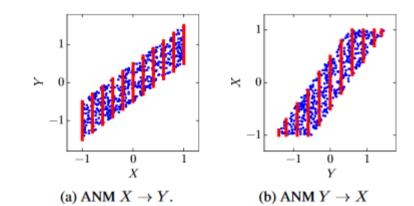
In order not to be manipulated,

the predictive system must use causal factors

Identification of causal relationships

• In images







[David Lopez-Paz, Robert Nishihara, Soumith Chintala, Bernhard Schölkopf, and Léon Bottou. « *Discovering causal signals in images* ». *arXiv preprint arXiv :1605.08179*, 2016.]

Outline

- 1. What is reasoning (1)
- 2. Machine Learning nowadays: a path to fast thinking
- **3.** The future of Machine Learning: what is reasoning (2)

4. Conclusion

Claims about machine learning and reasoning

- 1. Reasoning does not need to come first
- 2. Intelligence lies in the **interplay of many specialized modules**
- In order to interact in the long term and trust each other's productions, these modules need to exchange "reasons" for their results
- 4. Reasons come after the fact.

They are most of the time post hoc reconstructions

Central question

- How do we **reconstruct reasons** after the fact such that
 - They **provide justifications** for the conclusions reached
 - And are as **exact** and **informative** as possible

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