# CHALLENGES TO MACHINE LEARNING: Relations between reality and appearance

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#### Abstract

Machine learning research, e.g. as described in [Mit97], has had its goal the discovery of relations among observations, i.e. appearances. This is inadequate for science, because there is a reality behind appearance, e.g. material objects are built up from atoms. Atoms are just as real as dogs, only harder to observe, and the atomic theory arose long before there was any idea of how big atoms were.

This article discusses how atoms were discovered, as an example of discovering the reality behind appearance. We also present an example of the three-dimensional reality behind a two-dimensional appearance, and how that reality is inferred by people and might be inferred by computer programs.

Unfortunately, it is necessary to discuss the philosophy of appearance and reality, because the mistaken philosophy of taking the world (or particular phenomena) as a structure of sense data has been harmful in artificial intelligence and machine learning research, just as behaviorism and logical positivism harmed psychology.

### 1 Introduction

Apology: My knowledge of of machine learning research is no more recent than Tom Mitchell's book [Mit97]. Its chapters describe, except for inductive logic programming, programs solely aimed at classifying appearances. We live in a complicated world that existed for billions of years before there were humans, and our sense organs give us limited opportunities to observe it directly. Four centuries of science tell us that we and the objects we perceive are built in a complicated way from atoms and, below atoms, quarks. Maybe there is something below quarks.

Science, since 1700, is far better established than any kind of philosophy. Bad philosophy, proposing to base research entirely on appearances, has stunted AI, just as behaviorism stunted psychology for many decades.

Here's the philosophy in a nutshell. As emphasized by Descartes, all a human's information comes through the senses. Therefore, it is tempting to try to base science on relations among sense data and relations between actions that may be performed and subsequent sense data. [Rus13] is an important source for this approach. Unfortunately for this approach, humans and our environment are complicated structures built of vastly smaller objects that our senses do not directly observe. Science had to discover atoms.

Besides the fundamental realities behind appearance studied by science, there are hidden every day realities—the three dimensional reality behind two dimensional images, hidden surfaces, objects in boxes, people's names, what people really think of us.

Human common sense also reasons in terms of the realities that give rise to the appearances our senses provide us. Thus young babies have some initial knowledge of the permanence of physical objects.

Perhaps if your philosophy rejects the notion of reality as a fundamental concept, you'll accept a notion of *relative reality* appropriate for the design and debugging of robots. Thus the robot needs to be designed to determine this relative reality from the appearance given by its inputs.

We'll discuss:

Dalton's atomic theory as a discovery of the reality behind appearance.

The use of touch in finding the shape of an object. Results of an experiment in drawing an object which one is only allowed to touch - not see.

A simple problem involving changeable two dimensional appearances and a three dimensional reality.

Some formulas relating appearance and reality in particular cases.

What can one know about a three dimensional object and how to represent this knowledge.

How scientific study and the use of instruments extends what can be learned from the senses. Thus a doctor's training involving dissection of cadavers enables him to determine something about the liver by palpation.

#### 2 ELEMENTS, ATOMS, AND MOLECULES

Some scientific discoveries like Galileo's  $s = \frac{1}{2}gt^2$  involve discovering the relations between known entities. Patrick Langley's Bacon program did that.

John Dalton's postulation of atoms and molecules made up of fixed numbers of atoms of two or more kinds was much more creative and will be harder to make computers do.

The ancient ideas of Democritus and Lucretius that matter was made up from atoms had no important or even testable consequences. Dalton's did.

Giving each kind of atom its own atomic mass explained the complicated ratios of masses in a compound as representing small numbers of atoms in a molecule. Thus a sodium chloride (NaCl) molecule would have one atom of each of its elements. Water came out as  $H_2O$ .

The simplest forms of the atomic theory were inaccurate. [Thus early 19th century chemists didn't soon realize that the hydrogen and oxygen molecules are  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  and not just H and O.] Computers also need to be able to propose theories adventurously and fix their inaccuracies later later.

Only the relative masses of atoms could be proposed in Dalton's time. The first actual way of estimating these masses was made by Maxwell and Boltzmann about 60 years after Dalton's proposal. They realized that the coefficients of viscosity, heat conductivity, and diffusion of gases as explained by the kinetic theory of gases depended on the actual sizes of molecules.

The last important scientific holdout against the reality of atoms, the chemist Wilhelm Ostwald, was convinced by Einstein's 1905 quantitative explanation of Brownian motion as caused by liquid molecules striking a suspended object. The philosopher Ernst Mach was unconvinced.

The first actual pictures of atoms in the 1990s were a big surprise. An actual picture of a proton showing the quarks would be even more surprising and seems quite unlikely, because the quarks move too fast.

Philosophical point: Atoms cannot be regarded as just an explanation of the observations that led Dalton to propose them. Maxwell and Boltzmann used the notion to explain entirely different observations, and modern explanations of atoms are not at all based on the law of combining proportions. In short, atoms were discovered, not invented.

#### **3** ELEMENTS, ATOMS, MOLECULES—FORMULAS

Most likely, it is still too hard to make programs that will invent elements, atoms, and molecules. Let's therefore try to write logical sentences that will introduce these concepts to a knowledge base that has no ideas of them.

We assume that the notions of a body being composed of parts and of mass have already been formalized, but the idea of atom has not. The ideas of bodies being disjoint is also assumed to be formalized.

The following formulas approximate a fragment of high school chemistry and should be somewhat *elaboration tolerant* [McC99], e.g. should admit additional information about the structure of molecules. The situation argument s is included only to point out that material bodies change in chemical reactions.

$$Body(b, s) \to (\exists u \subset Molecules(b, s))(\forall y \in u)(Molecule(y) \land Part(y, b)),$$
  

$$y1 \in Molecules(b, s) \land y2 \in Molecules(b, s) \land y1 \neq y2 \to Disjoint(y1, y2),$$
  

$$Part(x, b, s) \to (\exists y \in Molecules(b, s)) \neg Disjoint(y, x),$$
  

$$Body(b, s) \to Mass(b, s) = \sum_{x \in Molecules(b, s)} Mass(x, s).$$
(1)

 $\begin{aligned} Water(b,s) \wedge x &\in Molecules(b,s) \\ \rightarrow (\exists h1 \ h2 \ o)(Atoms(x) = \{h1, h2, o\} \wedge h1 \neq h2 \\ \wedge HydrogenAtom(h1) \wedge HydrogenAtom(h2) \wedge OxygenAtom(o)), \end{aligned}$ 

 $Salt(b, s) \land x \in Molecules(b, s)$  $\rightarrow (\exists na \ cl)(Atoms(x) = \{na, cl\} \land SodiumAtom(na) \land ChlorineAtom(cl)).$ (2)

 $Molecule(x) \to Mass(x) = \sum_{y \in Atoms(x)} Mass(y),$ 

$$\begin{aligned} HydrogenAtom(y) &\to Mass(y) = 1.0, \\ OxygenAtom(y) &\to Mass(y) = 16.0, \\ SodiumAtom(y) &\to Mass(y) = 23.0, \\ ChlorineAtom(y) &\to Mass(y) = 35.5. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

# 4 APPEARANCE AND REALITY

Reality is usually more stable than appearance, i.e. changes more slowly. Formulas giving the effects of events (including actions) are almost always written in terms of reality. Getting reality from appearance is an *inverse problem*. Geologists, oil companies, and astronomers are faced with inverse problems. Their solution is intellectually difficult and computationally intensive.

The formulas that follow will need a situation or time argument once we consider changing appearances.

# 5 THREE DIMENSIONAL OBJECTS

How can we best express what a human can know and a robot should know about a three dimensional object? We start from a standard kind of object with particular types of objects and individual objects defined by successive approximations.

I propose starting with a rectangular parallelopiped, which we'll abbreviate *rppd*. An object is an rppd modified by dimension information, shape modifications, attached objects, information about its internal structure, location information, folding information, information about surfaces, physical information like mass. Perhaps one should start even more simply with just a size, a ball too large to be included in the object and too small to include it.

My small Swiss army knife is an rppd, 5cm by 2cm by 1.5cm, rounded in the width dimension at each end. Its largest surface has a smooth plastic surface texture, and its other surfaces are metallic with stripes parallel to the long axis, i.e. the backs of the blades. This description should suffice to find the knife in my pocket and get it out, even though it says nothing about the blades.

Consider a baby and a doll of the same size. Each may be described as an rppd with attached rppds in appropriate places for the arms, legs, and head. The most obvious and significant differences come in a texture, motion, and family relationships.

We begin with a little bit about touch rather than with vision. Imagine

putting one's hand into one's pocket in order to take out one of the objects.

 $Touching(Side(1), x) \land PocketKnife1(x, Jmc) \rightarrow Feels(Texture17),$ 

Texture(Side(PocketKnife1)) = Texture17

(4)

For now we needn't say anything about *Texture*17 except that it is distinguishable from other textures. Textures for touch have similarities to and differences from textures for vision. Both are very scale dependent.

Touch differs from vision in that the information is more partial, e.g. one can pickup a new object without getting a full image of its shape.

# 6 A PUZZLE ABOUT INFERRING REAL-ITY FROM APPEARANCE

Here's the appearance. The puzzle is: What is the reality behind the appearance? Clicking on the  $\langle$  and  $\rangle$  signs is how one experiments.

Alas, figures in published proceedings are still not dynamic. To experiment with this puzzle, go to http://www-formal.stanford.edu/jmc/appearance.html.

The reality is three dimensional, while the appearance is two dimensional.

Those who implement display know that computing appearance is difficult. Those who do computer vision know that inverting the relation is even more difficult.

The appearance in the puzzle is a genuine appearance. The reality behind the appearance is rather abstract. Thus the bodies have no thickness or mass. This doesn't seem to bother people; we're used to abstractions.

We use concepts like like solid body, behind, part of, length, etc.

The first step in solving the version given in the above url is to realize that partial surfaces of objects are displayed as strings of letters and that the actions move the strings. One also must realize that some surfaces are hidden behind others but can be displayed by moving the objects by clicking on the tabs. Forming wrong initial hypotheses can make the puzzle very difficult.

Some of the relevant concepts may be learned by babies from experience, as Locke proposed. However, there is good evidence that many of them, e.g. *solid body* and *behind* were learned by evolution and are built into human and most animal infants.

The quickest and most articulate human solution was by Donald Michie. Stephen Muggleton and Ramon Otero [?]MO06 have solved a simplified version of the puzzle using inductive logic programming.

# 7 FORMULAS FOR APPEARANCE AND ACTIONS IN THE PUZZLE

We introduce positions. There is a string of 13 positions. Bodies are also represented by strings of squares of length appropriate to the body. Content(sq) is either a color or a letter depending on the version of the puzzle.

$$Body(b) \land sq \in b \land Location(sq, s) = pos$$
  
 
$$\land (\forall b' \neq b)((\exists sq' \in b')(Location(sq', s) = pos$$
  
 
$$\rightarrow Higher(b, b')))$$
  
 
$$\rightarrow Appearance(pos, s) = Content(sq).$$
 (5)

$$Body(b) \land sq \in b \land Location(sq, s) = pos$$
  

$$\land (\forall b' \neq b)((\exists sq' \in b')(Location(sq', s) = pos$$
  

$$\rightarrow Higher(b, b')))$$
  

$$\rightarrow (\forall sq' \in b)(Location(sq', Result(ClickCW(pos), s)))$$
  

$$= CWloc(Location(sq', s)))$$
  

$$\land (\forall b' \notin b)(Location(sq', Result(ClickCW(pos), s)))$$
  

$$= Location(sq', s)).$$
  
(6)

Here's the formula for the effect of counter-clockwise motion.

$$Body(b) \land sq \in b \land Location(sq, s) = pos$$
  

$$\land (\forall b' \neq b)((\exists sq' \in b')(Location(sq', s) = pos$$
  

$$\rightarrow Higher(b, b')))$$
  

$$\rightarrow (\forall sq' \in b)(Location(sq', Result(ClickCCW(pos), s)))$$
  

$$= CCWloc(Location(sq', s)))$$
  

$$\land (\forall b' \notin b)(Location(sq', Result(ClickCCW(pos), s)))$$
  

$$= Location(sq', s)).$$
  
(7)

The last parts of the last two formulas tell what doesn't change.

These formulas give the appearance as a function of the reality and also tell how the reality is changed by the allowed actions. There can't be a formula giving how the appearance changes that only involves the present appearance, because an action may make a position visible that was previously invisible. Even taking into account past appearances will only work if the previous actions have uncovered all of the surfaces.

# 8 HOW SHOULD A COMPUTER DISCOVER THE REALITY?

A point of view common (and maybe dominant) in the machine learning community is that the computer should solve the problem from scratch, e.g. inventing *body* and *behind* as needed. It is not dominant in the computer vision community.

Our opinion, and that of the knowledge representation community, is that it is better to provide computer programs with common sense concepts, suitably formalized. There is some success, but the formalisms tend to be limited in the contexts in which they apply. I think, but won't argue here, that formalizing *context* itself is a necessary step.

Here are two sample formulas relevant to the version of the puzzle presented at ILP2006 in which the objects were colored rather than displayed as strings of letters. These formulas are still too specialized to be put in a *knowledge base* of common sense.

$$Color-Appearance(scene, x, s) = Color(Highest(scene, x, s))$$
(8)

 $Behind(b2, b1, s) \land Opaque(b1) \to \neg Visible(b2, s).$ (9)

Solving the puzzle involves inferring formulas like

 $Body(b) \wedge Present(b, Scene) \equiv b \in \{B1, B2, B3, B4\},\$   $Color(B1) = Blue \wedge Color(B2) = Orange \wedge Color(B3) = Green$   $\wedge Color(B4) = Red,$   $Length(B1) = 6 \wedge Length(B2) = 8, etc.,$   $Higher(B1, B2) \wedge Higher(B2, B3) \wedge Higher(B3, B4),$   $Higher(B4, Background) \wedge Length(Background) = 13.$ (10)

#### 9 Limitations of our treatment and remarks

We haven't put in effects of actions and some relations among the predicates.

The lengths and colors of the bodies are assumed not dependent of the situation. Human language tolerates *elaborations* such as actions that affect color better than do present AI formalisms.

The ideas of the last two sections about what knowledge should be given to the program have benefitted from discussions with Stephen Muggleton and Ramon Otero.

We haven't considered entities extended in time. These include histories and more abstract entities like tunes. The telling of a joke is another example.

### References

[McC99] John McCarthy. Elaboration tolerance<sup>1</sup>. web only for now, 1999.

- [Mit97] Tom Mitchell. Machine Learning. McGraw-Hill, 1997.
- [Rus13] Bertrand Russell. On the notion of cause. Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society, 13:1–26, 1913.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>http://www-formal.stanford.edu/jmc/elaboration.html