META LEARNING

Machine Learning for Autonomous Robots

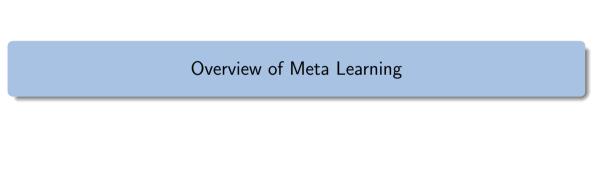
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What is Meta Learning?

Meta-learning in this lecture is different from the *Meta-Learning* in the current Deep Learning literature.

- Meta-Learning here refers to classic models of models (the meta part).
- ▶ Meta-Learning in Deep Learning is also models of models but more related to things like *learning to learn* and its use with neural network models.
- ► This is just a word of warning in case you perform a literature search and are a bit confused...

What is Meta Learning?

Meta-learning includes... (ordered by degree of automization)

- guidelines and heuristics for the application of algorithms
- ► tools that enable users without experience in machine learning (ML) to solve tasks with ML, these tools include
 - broad set of algorithms
 - evaluation methods
 - model selection
- meta-level learning schemes:
 - multi-task learning
 - transfer learning
 - ► lifelong learning
 - ensemble learning
- automatic machine learning (active field of research)

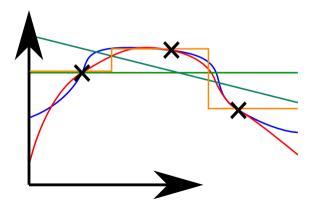
Why not just one algorithm that solves everything?

There is no free lunch.

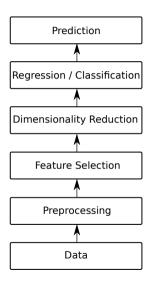
- Every learning algorithm has an inductive bias.
- No learning algorithm is better than any other learning algorithm on average over all datasets.
- ▶ No Free Lunch (NFL) theorem.

Inductive Bias

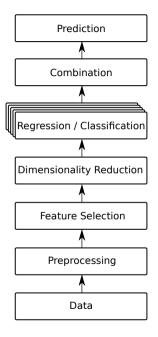
- ▶ An unbiased algorithm cannot generalize. Having no inductive bias means immediate overfitting.
- ▶ The bias of a learning algorithm is called **inductive bias**.
- Examples: min. CV error, maximum margin, Occam's razor



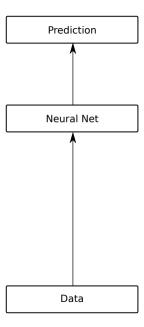
Standard Pipeline



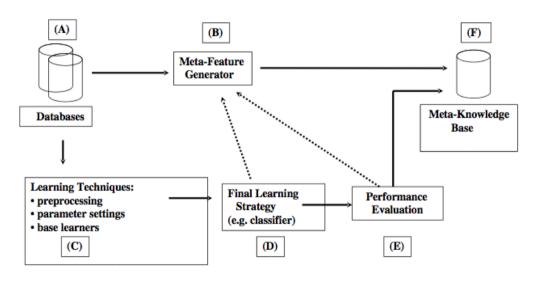
Ensemble Learning



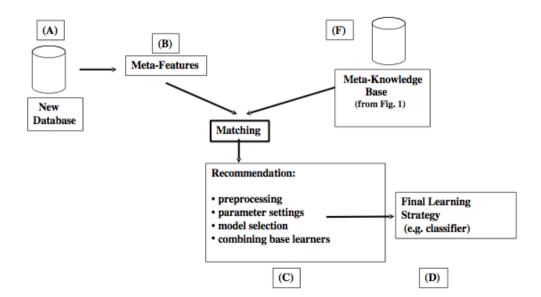
Outlook



The Knowledge-Acquisition Mode



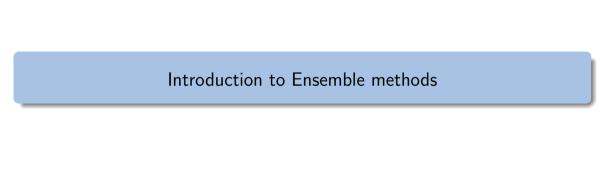
The Advisory Mode



Techniques in Meta Learning

Dataset Characterization:

- Statistical and Information-Theoretic Characterization
 - # classes, # features, # examples, # features
 - degree of correlation between features and target concept
 - skewness, kurtosis, signal-to-noise ratio
- Model-Based Characterization
 - e.g. support vector machine: C, kernel, kernel parameters
- Landmarking
 - performance of different learning mechanisms
 - sampling landmarks



Motivation

When wise people make critical decisions, they usually take into account the opinions of several experts rather than relying on their own judgment or that of a solitary trusted adviser.

Ensemble methods

Ensemble: using many classifiers together

- could be different types of classifiers
- each classifier gives a different view
- usually each is trained differently
- need a sensible method of combining classifiers

Popular methods:

- bagging
- boosting
- stacking
- ▶ random forest (see Classification 1)

Combining classifiers

Suppose that we have:

- ▶ *m* labeled examples $\langle \mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x}) \rangle$, where $f : R \to \{-1, +1\}$
- ightharpoonup a number of T hypotheses h_1, \ldots, h_T , each trained on the data
- ▶ each $h_t : R \to \{-1, +1\}$

How should we combine the T classifiers?

- \triangleright choose h_t with the least training error
- ightharpoonup choose h_t with the least validation error
- use all T classifiers in a sum
- ▶ use all *T* classifiers in a weighted sum



Bias-Variance Decomposition

In the ideal situation of an infinite dataset:

- → error will still occur because no learning scheme is perfect
- → **bias** for the learning problem

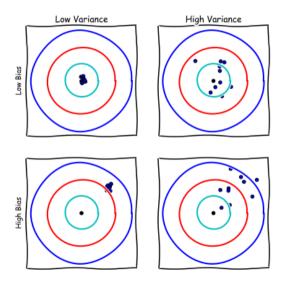
In **practical situations** there is another error:

- stems from the particular training set used (unavoidably finite)
- ightarrow not fully representative of the actual population of instances
- → variance for the learning method

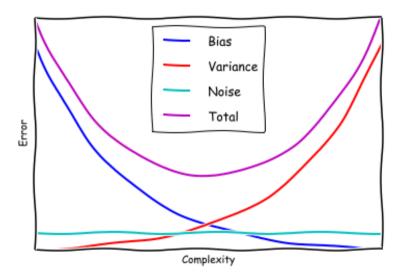
total expected error is a sum of bias and variance (and noise)

⇒ combining multiple classifiers decreases the expected error by reducing the variance component

Bias / Variance



Bias / Variance



Inductive Bias vs. Bias Error

Can you imagine an example where we have an inductive bias but no bias error? **Example:**

▶ We know that we want to approximate a sine function:

$$f(x) = a\sin(bx + c)$$

- ► We don't know a, b, c
- ▶ We can fit a, b, c from data
- \rightarrow Strong inductive bias
- \rightarrow No bias error



Unstable learners

Imagine:

- several randomly chosen training sets of the same size
- build a decision tree for each dataset

Will the trees make the same predictions?

- → No! (particularly for small datasets)
- → reason: unstable learning process
- ⇒ voting becomes more reliable with more votes
- ⇒ combined classifiers will seldom be less accurate
- ⇒ but improvement is not guaranteed

Bagging – bootstrap aggregation

- reduces variance (typically uses complex models)
- random sampling with replacement from dataset
- ▶ applies base learner to each new dataset
- votes with equal weights

combined model ...

- + ... often performs significantly better than single model
- + ... is never substantially worse

Bagging – bootstrap aggregation

```
Bagging(\mathcal{D}, T):
     model generation(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{T}):
           m \leftarrow |\mathcal{D}|
          for t \in \{1, \ldots, T\} do
         \mathcal{D}_t \leftarrow bootstrap(\mathcal{D}, m)h_t \leftarrow build\_model(\mathcal{D}_t)
           end
     classification(x):
          for t \in \{1, ..., T\} do
              store(h_t(x))
           end
           return class that has been predicted most often
```



Ideas behind Boosting

- reduces bias (typically uses simple models)
- design significantly different models
- ▶ each model treats a reasonable percentage of the data correctly
- ightarrow aim: models complement one another, each being a specialist in a part of the domain
- weighting is used to give more influence to the more successful models

Bagging vs. Boosting

Similarities:

- both use voting
- both combine models of the same type, e.g. decision trees

Differences:

- Boosting is sequential
- Boosting weights a model's contribution by its performance
- ▶ Boosting reduces bias, bagging reduces variance

The AdaBoost Algorithm

```
AdaBoost(\mathcal{D}, T):
   model generation(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{T}):
       for i \in \{1, ..., m\} do W_1(i) \leftarrow 1/m // sample weights
      for t \in \{1, \ldots, T\} do
```

The AdaBoost Algorithm

AdaBoost(
$$\mathcal{D}, T$$
):

| :
| classification(x):
| $H(x) = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x)\right)$

If model class can handle weighted instances:

$$\epsilon = rac{\sum w_i}{\sum w_j}$$
 for $i \in \{i | h(x_i)
eq f(x_i)\}$ and $j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$

Otherwise, resample the data according to a distribution W_t

How much can the weights change?

$$W_{t+1}(i) \leftarrow \frac{W_t(i)}{Z_t} \times \begin{cases} e^{-\alpha_t} & \text{if } h_t(x_i) = f(x_i) \\ e^{\alpha_t} & \text{if } h_t(x_i) \neq f(x_i) \end{cases}$$

recall:

$$ightharpoonup 0 < \epsilon_t < 0.5$$

$$ho \quad \alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln(\frac{1-\epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t}) \to \alpha \in (0,\infty)$$

- $ightharpoonup e^{-\alpha_t} = \sqrt{\epsilon_t/(1-\epsilon_t)}$, correct \rightarrow sample weight decreases
- $ightharpoonup e^{\alpha_t} = \sqrt{(1-\epsilon_t)/\epsilon_t}$, error \rightarrow sample weight increases

Thus, if $\epsilon_t \approx 0$ then $W_t(i) \rightarrow 0$

Role of α_t

Recall the final classifiers's form:

$$H(x) = sign\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x)\right)$$

Also,

$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2} \ln(\frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t})$$

Thus,

$$\epsilon_t = 0.5 \rightarrow \alpha_t = 0$$

$$ightharpoonup \epsilon_t < 0.5 \rightarrow \alpha_t > 0$$

$$ightharpoonup \epsilon_t > 0.5
ightarrow \alpha_t < 0$$
, will not happen, because those classifiers are ignored!

Greedy search

Interestingly, AdaBoost is a greedy strategy.

It always minimizes the error with respect to the current W_t , and does not backtrack.

How does boosting help?

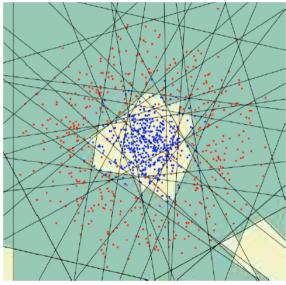
Assumption:

- easy to find weak learners that are "often" correct (slightly more than random)
- ▶ hard to find a *strong learner*, that is highly accurate

Combination of weak learners to generate a strong learner:

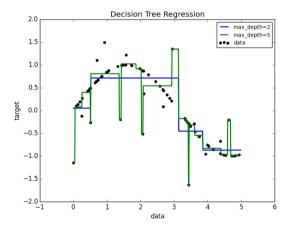
- focuses effort on hard-to-classify examples
- takes hard work off the learner
- learners only have to specialize in small areas
- can identify outliers

How does boosting help?



Gradient boosting

- ▶ generalizes AdaBoost to optimize an arbitrary differentiable loss function
- → inspired from regression



Gradient boosting

- boosting can be seen as an iterative functional gradient descent algorithm
- example: MSE for regression
- → residuals are the negative gradients of the squared error loss function

$$-\nabla_{F(x)}\left[\frac{1}{2}(y-F(x))^2\right]=y-F(x)$$

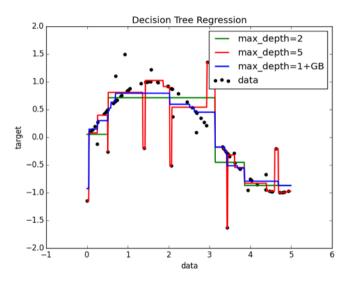
Gradient Boosting - Idea of the algorithm

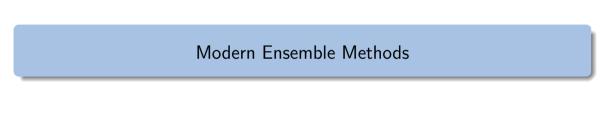
- input: \mathcal{D} , T, and some specified loss function L(y, F(x))
- ightharpoonup in each step, the previous model F_{t-1} is improved by adding an estimator h (weak learner)
- $\rightarrow F_t = F_{t-1} + h(x)$
- \blacktriangleright How to find h?
- \rightarrow optimal h would imply

$$F_t = F_{t-1} + h(x) = y \Leftrightarrow h(x) = y - F_{t-1}$$

- \rightarrow train h that approximates the negative gradient of L
- $F_t(x) = F_{t-1}(x) + \gamma_t h_t(x)$

Gradient boosting for decision tree regression





Deep Ensembles

- ➤ Simple idea, make an ensemble of neural networks [Lakshminarayanan et al. 2017].
- ► Trained on the same data, models converge to different solutions due to random weight initialization.
- ▶ It has properties of good uncertainty quantification and out of distribution detection.
- It can estimate aleatoric (data) and epistemic (model) uncertainty. For aleatoric uncertainty in regression it uses the following loss:

$$-\log p_{\theta}(y_n|x_n) = 0.5 \left(\log \sigma_{\theta}^2(x) + \frac{(y - \mu_{\theta}(x))^2}{\sigma_{\theta}^2(x)}\right)$$

Deep Ensembles

Classification

Take average of ensemble member output probabilities.

Regression

Each ensemble member outputs $\mu_{\theta_m}(x)$ and $\sigma_{\theta_m}^2(x)$, and they are combined as a mixture of gaussians $M^{-1} \sum \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\theta_m}(x), \sigma_{\theta_m}^2(x))$ represented as $\mathcal{N}(\mu_*(x), \sigma_*^2(x))$ where:

$$\mu_*(x) = M^{-1} \sum_m \mu_{\theta_m}(x)$$

$$\sigma_*^2(x) = M^{-1} \sum_m (\sigma_{\theta_m}^2(x) + \mu_{\theta_m}^2(x)) - \mu_*^2(x)$$

Deep Ensembles - Performance

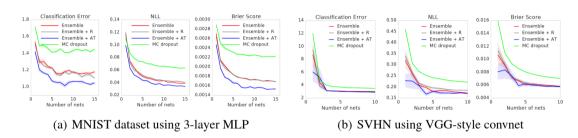
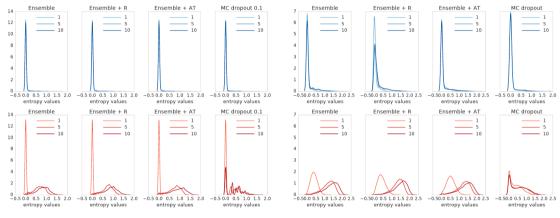


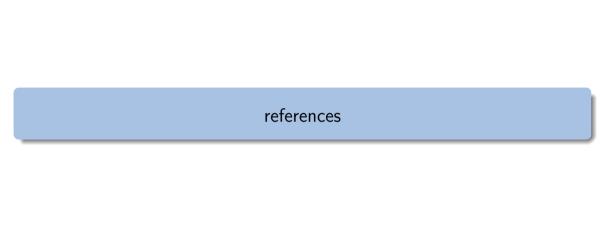
Figure 2: Evaluating predictive uncertainty as a function of ensemble size M (number of networks in the ensemble or the number of MC-dropout samples): Ensemble variants significantly outperform MC-dropout performance with the corresponding M in terms of all 3 metrics. Adversarial training improves results for MNIST for all M and SVHN when M=1, but the effect drops as M increases.

Deep Ensembles - Out of Distribution Detection



(a) MNIST-NotMNIST

(b) SVHN-CIFAR10



Literature

- "Meta-Learning Concepts and Techniques", O. Maimon, L. Rokach (eds.), In: Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery Handbook (2nd Ed.), 2010
- "Data Mining: Practical Machine Learning Tools and Techniques" (2nd Ed.), Ian H. Witten, Eibe Frank, Morgan Kaufmann, 2005
- "A short introduction to boosting", Y. Freund, R. Schapire, N. Abe,In: JOURNAL-JAPANESE SOCIETY FOR ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE, Vol. 14, p.771–780,1999
- ► Lakshminarayanan B, Pritzel A, Blundell C. Simple and scalable predictive uncertainty estimation using deep ensembles. NeurIPS 2017.

forums.

Thank You! Please feel free to ask questions in the