Sustaining learning under density shift: A big data volume to velocity reduction

Anonymous Authors1

Abstract

The continuous surge in data volume which is often dealt using data orchestration and distributed processing approaches, abstracting away the machine learning challenges that exist at the algorithmic level. These either require in-memory presence of complete dataset, lead to synchronization barriers, and makes the memory cost a function of the size of the dataset; or have stale gradients issues. Commercial libraries have too pick up on algorithm-level solutions. This works takes a distributed density estimation angle to the problem where data are temporally or geographically distributed, and are too voluminous to be brought into contiguous memory. It processes data in batches, and allows a neural network to treat a batch as training data. The method accumulates knowledge about the data density via posterior probability absorption using Cramer Rao Lower Bound Optimization (CRLBO), and therefore the density estimate for the entire dataset is more robust to the non-iid distribution drift. The space cost is linear and no longer a function of the size of the complete, distributed dataset. The robustness of CRLBO to distribution drift is seen in improved accuracy on an average of 19% in both online settings and a 20 batch split and 2% in a 5 batch split where variance/drift across batches is high.

1. Introduction

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Organizations continue to invest in big data strategy but successful transitions from pilot to large scale deployments remains a challenge. (Morales & Bifet, 2015) reports 49 success in the projects undertaken by Fortune 1000 business in last 5 years. (Kourtellis et al., 2019) and (Kourtellis et al.,

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2016) confirmed a transfer to production rate of 10 and 15 in separate studies. Big data are firstly defined by huge volumes. Harnessing this volume emanating from temporally or geographically distributed environments constitutes a considerable proportion of this conundrum. Currently two variations of distributed cluster computing using data parallelism namely cloud and on-premises based are used for high volume analysis. However, both have their demerits:

- Cloud-based services These offer on-cloud compute resources enabling data parallelism but dataset residency on provider's cloud is mandatory [colab]. This has following disadvantages:
 - Regulatory compliance: Industry regulators restrict on-cloud customer/transactional data placement like financial datasets. This makes the cloud offering useless in these settings.
 - Data security and governance: The cloud model has yet to earn a secure data hosting platform status as data breach incidents occurrences increase. Namely, 100 million consumer data breach at CapitalOne on AWS, (Flitter & Weise, 2019), 80 million households data leak at unprotected server on Microsoft Cloud, (Baig, 2019), 6500 stores data compromised at Volusion on Google cloud, (Jowitt, 2019).
- On-premises frameworks These implementations provide distributed machine learning capabilities but have following disadvantages:
 - Synchronization barriers and stale gradients: The
 prevalent implementations use synchronous or
 asynchronous variants of distributed mini batch
 gradient descent. The former suffers from synchronization barrier where the reduce process
 stalls until all worker nodes have retuned their
 updated models. While the later has stale gradient
 problem due to inherent asynchronization feature.
 - High memory cost: These require in memory dataset presence, large memory being an expensive resource increases the solution cost by the factor of the resource required.

¹Anonymous Institution, Anonymous City, Anonymous Region, Anonymous Country. Correspondence to: Anonymous Author <anon.email@domain.com>.

 High native dependency: The implementations are completely dependant on the offering's native library algorithms. Nonexistence of a required algorithm may lead to stalling the process.

The literature for online learning in deep neural networks has struggled to produce techniques that take an approach at the algorithmic level, rather, depending on data management and orchestration techniques that these frameworks too employ. Dean et al. (2012) and Huang et al. (2019) This does seem to fulfil the needs of the data-led computing community, however none seem to really address the problem of the breaking down of the iid assumption. The specific case of that which presents itself in the case of density estimates being made on parts (by distribution) of the data is the problem of distribution drift Žliobaitė (2010). This work addresses the machine learning problem of iid loss directly, and therefore offers a way for these frameworks to adopt such an approach. Designed on the concept of knowledge accumulation via posterior probability absorption; the proposed model requires only previous and current batch in-memory presence for parameter update. The model uses Laplace approximation to estimate the current data batch's class-conditional given that of the previous batch, allowing a summarized view of the data in the previous batch. This approach is a ligt-wight posterior-estimation alternative to both MCMC and variational inference. The choice of the method is made on the fact that unlike MCMC, its computation could be elegantly incorporated the existing backpropagation mechanism as a regularisation penalty.

Contributions

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The major contributions of the paper are:

- It addresses the problem of distribution drift using a computationally-tractable method for estimating the priors for a data subset's weight estimates given those from another, previous data subset. The estimates regularise the cross-entropy loss for the subset in training.
- It breaks the synchronization barrier inherent in prevalent approaches as it requires presence of a small subset of data for accomplishing an iteration.
- 3. Memory cost is linear in the size of a data subset/batch and no longer a function of complete dataset.

2. Related works

Lifelong learning is usually studied under single-task or multi-task contexts, respectively as *online learning* and *incremental learning*. The works presented here fall within the = first category, although we have addressed the second in the latter half pf this section because the approch we develop bears some similarity with the concepts. The related

works are organized as follows. Distributed machine learning libraries countering high volume are discussed. This is followed by incremental learning techniques. This arrangement follows from the idea behind the proposed technique which combats high volume using an incremental learning approach.

MLib a machine learning library by Meng et al. (2016) uses Spark as distributed in memory data processing engine, Zaharia et al. (2016). It uses Resilient Distributed Datasets for fast distributed in-memory processing, Zaharia et al. (2012). In-memory fault tolerance is provided using directed acyclic graphs, Karau et al. (2015). The library has distinctive extensibility feature where users can develop and extend algorithms, Venkataraman et al. (2016). Matrix computations are optimized by distributing these to the cluster while retaining vectors locally, Bosagh Zadeh et al. (2016). Classification algorithms include Naïve Bayes, Random Forest, SVM and GBM. Regression algorithms supported are linear regression and gradient boosting while gaussian mixture and k-means with variances are the supported clustering counterparts, Richter et al. (2015). Wide scale adoptions include Bioinformatics, Guo et al. (2018) and streaming, Armbrust et al. (2018).

Apache Mahout a distributed machine-learning library designed for recommendation, classification and clustering on very large datasets, Owen et al. (2011). It is built on top of Hadoop file system with current implementation Samsara supporting in-memory processing, Schelter et al. (2016). Wide scale implementations of recommendation systems with item and user collaborative filtering are available, Manu & Ramesh (2017). Works by Wu et al. (2018) and Beck et al. (2017) discuss movie and online news recommendation models. It has limited support for classification namely Random Forest and Naïve Bayes with implementations in healthcare Ko et al. (2014) and social media data analysis, Demirbaga & Jha (2018). Clustering support includes k-means with variances, Hefeeda et al. (2012) and spectral clustering, Esteves et al. (2011), Sharma et al. (2018).

H2O a machine learning platform with distributed in memory computation capabilities. It uses distributed Fork/Join technique for parallel in-memory computation. Excluding SVM, it supports all classification and regression algorithms as Spark. The platform derives its high usability distinction via a rich GUI with large number of languages support(Ghodsi, 2019). H2O provides strong integration with Spark using Sparkling Water where models share the same JVM container. Current implementations use Spark RDD for pre-processing and H2O frames for modelling

and analytics. This has in-memory data duplication issues as the later uses its own memory store, data structure and execution engine.

Apache Samoa is a distributed streaming machine learning framework, Morales & Bifet (2015). Designed for theoretically infinite streams with in-model concept drift capture, Kourtellis et al. (2019). A solution to non stationery and large volume datasets supporting Samza, S4 and Storm streaming engines (Kourtellis et al., 2019). The alogrithms include Vertical Hoeffding tree (VHT) for classification, Kourtellis et al. (2016), Clustream for clustering, Richter et al. (2015) and adaptive model rules for regression, Nasir et al. (2015). Instance wise horizontal and attribute wise vertical parallelism feature provided, Bifet & Morales (2014). Works by Kourtellis et al. (2015) used VHT with Bagging for Twitter streams real time analysis. Di Mauro & Di Sarno (2014) used VHT with Preqential feature for Skype internet traffic detection.

Dask a machine learning library designed for parallelizing numeric python eco system is used for large datasets that do not fit in memory, Rocklin (2015). It achieves scale out feature by building a task graph executed via dynamic scheduler executed across the cluster, Christ et al. (2018). The distributed algorithms supported are GLM, k-means and spectral clustering.

Catastrophic forgetting occurs in high velocity dynamics where the neural network forgets information of the first task after training the second task. Incremental moment matching by (Lee, 2017) counters catastrophic forgetting uses bayesian neural networks with mean and mode based moment matching. Average of two networks is calculated using mean while maximum of mixture of Gaussian posteriors is calculated using mode. The model uses drop transfer novelty for making the search space convex likeable. Path-Net by (Fernando, 2017) achieves multi task learning by utilizing available large space of the network for distributive storing tasks information[w]. It associates a subset of modules in each layer to a specific task. Learning without forgetting exhibits multi task learning by combining knowledge distillation with fine tuning. It follows a regularization approach by optimizing current task data and pseudo training data of the old task.

The posterior of the previous task updates the new prior which learns the new posterior of the new task. *Hard interest mechanism* by (Serrà, 2018) mask the new task while keeping the previous masks intact. The technique using SGD jointly trains the main and ground network with fractional addition to its weights in a lightweight manner. *Crème* an online learning library designed for large datasets

that have streaming dynamics or are large for the memory, Rocklin (2019). The model learns one observation at a time with interleaving training and prediction capability. The technique can scale incoming data via online mean and variance and extract features. Supported online gradient descent algorithms include SGD, Adam, RMS Prop, FTRL.

3. Proposed Method

This work extends the idea of catastrophic forgetting in neural networks to high voluminous and temporally distributed data streams. Works byLi & Hoiem (2018)minimize catastrophic forgetting in neural networks by using adaptable weight linkages. Their model attempts to build an analogy with brain functioning where past knowledge is retained by reducing elasticity of the relevant significant synapses. The proposed method in this work accumulates and retains knowledge on massive yet temporally disseminated datasets. The technique derives its novelty by requiring in-memory presence of only two data batches the previous and current for an effective parameter update iteration fig. 1 . This is in contrast to prevalent approaches which require complete dataset in memory presence for similar operation.

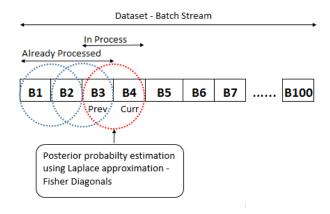


Figure 1. Online learning framework for big data challenges

The proposed model is expressed using Bayes rule in Equation(1). This shows the posterior $P(\theta|D)$ calculated from $P(D_t|\theta)$ data likelihood of current and $P(\theta|D_{t-1})$ prior from previous batch. The arrangement presumes independence of the two batches. This advocates significance of absorbing knowledge from the previous batch mandating its true distribution to be approximated. This is done using Laplace approximation for Bayesian estimation MacKay (1992).

From Bayes' rule,

$$(\log(p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{D})) = \log(p(\mathbf{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})) + \log(p(\boldsymbol{\theta})) - \log(p(\mathbf{D})))$$
(1)

For a pair of data batches in a sequence,

$$log P(\theta|D) = log P(D_t|\theta) + log P(\theta|D_{t-1}) - log P(D_t)$$

Laplace method approximates intractable distribution in Bayesian statistics. It results in Gaussian approximation of the posterior using second-order Taylor expansion. The resulting bell-shaped curve has variance and likelihood inversely related. Low variance means a steep peak with high values of curvature, likelihood and information number and vice versa.

To elaborate, the previous batch $P(\theta|D_{t-1})$ is expressed as intractable true distribution P(x) in equation (2). Taylor expansion on f(x) results in normalized gaussian distribution with mean x_0 and variance R as shown in equation (3). The variance is the Fisher information matrix. Formulation of the parametric Laplace approximator now makes the distribution an absorber of past knowledge.

We look to optimize

$$\underset{\theta}{\arg\max}\{\ell(\theta) = \log(p(\theta|D))\}\tag{2}$$

The Laplace approxiation fits a Gaussian around a mode (the supremum above) to approximate the latter's magnitude **cite Edgeworth**. Pascano and Bengio determine that the following derivation may be performed using the first derivative intsead of computing the Hessian.

The intractability of the estimation draws from the computation of the partition function Z below, which necessitates extensive marginalisaion in high dimensions.

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{Z}f(x) \tag{3}$$

The optimization objective, by Taylor approximation woule be:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) exp(-\frac{1}{2}R(x - x_0)^2)$$
 (4)

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \ell \left(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathcal{D}_{\square-\infty}}^{\star}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathcal{D}_{\square-\infty}}^{\star}\right)^{\top}$$

$$\left(\left.\frac{\partial^{2} \ell(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial^{2} \boldsymbol{\theta}}\right|_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathcal{D}_{\square-\infty}}^{\star}}\right) \left(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\mathcal{D}_{\square-\infty}}^{\star}\right)$$
(5)

Discounting higher order terms, we arrive at the closed form or the loss:

The loss function in (equation 4) consolidates current batch's cross entropy loss (first term) regularized by the Laplace approximator (second term) substituted from equation 3. The former encapsulates current and the latter ensures prior knowledge preservation by approximating its posterior as Gaussian.The equation variables are $C_{\scriptscriptstyle C}(\theta)$ current batch loss, $D_{\scriptscriptstyle P}$ previous data batch, $\overline{\theta}_{\scriptscriptstyle C,i}$ current and $\overline{\theta}_{\scriptscriptstyle P,i}$ previous mean value of the i^{th} model parameter.

$$C(\theta) = C_{\scriptscriptstyle C}(\theta) + \sum_{\scriptscriptstyle i} \frac{\phi}{2} \big[\frac{\partial^2 L(\overline{\theta}_{\scriptscriptstyle P,i}|D_{\scriptscriptstyle P})}{\partial^2 \overline{\theta}_{\scriptscriptstyle P,i}} \big] [\overline{\theta}_{\scriptscriptstyle C,i} - \overline{\theta}_{\scriptscriptstyle P,i}]^2 \ \ (6)$$

The parametric quantification of the distance from the mean between previous and current batch scaled by the Fisher variance produces the required delay learning effect. It decelerates learning on parameters significant to previous batch by constraining their value boundaries to be within archival range.

The algorithm in detail is stated as follows:

4. Experimental Setup

In this section details of dataset, model configurations, evaluation metrics and results of similarity experiments carried out under this experimental setup. The results of the experiments of the technique are discussed in Results and discussion chapter. Table 1 shows the datasets used later in the experiments.

4.1. Datasets

Dataset	Access	Type	Total
AML	Proprietary Public Public Public Public	Tabular	10,000,000
Credit Default		Tabular	270 ,915
Credit Fraud		Tabular	256 ,326
Paysim		Tabular	6,353,307
CIFAR10		Image	60,000

Table 1. Datasets

AML dataset: Anti-money laundering dataset comprises of SAR (suspicious activity report) and Non-SAR transactions of the individuals in a financial institution accumulated for the period of 1 year.

Home Credit Default dataset: Home credit default contain the transactional and repayment history of the customers which are provided loan with no credit history.

Credit card fraud dataset: This dataset contain the fraudulent and non-fraudulent credit card transactions of all the

220 **Algorithm 1** Weights preservation using CRLBO 221 **Initialization:** Split dataset into β batches where $\beta \in \{5,$ 222 20, 40} 223 batch = $b \in \beta$ 224 $t \leftarrow 1 = \text{current batch}$ 225 t-1 =previous batch **Training:** 227 if t = 1 then 1. Initialize classifier with random weights 229 2. Weights optimization - for b_t are learned using 230 CrossEntropyLoss 231 //Distribution learnt using cross entropy which consti-232 tutes the term 1 of the proposed model 233 else if t > 1 then 234 while $t < \beta$ do 235 1. Initialize classifier with weights of b_{t-1} 236 2. Weight update - for b_t are learned using CrossEn-237 tropyLoss 238 3. Weight update - for b_{t-1} are adjusted using 239 Cramer Rao bound 240 3.1 Mean $\leftarrow \theta_t - \theta_{t-1}$ 3.2 Fisher Variance $\leftarrow E\left[\frac{\partial L(\theta|X_{t-1})}{\partial \theta}\right]$ 3.3 Loss $L(\theta) \leftarrow L_B(\theta) + \sum_i E\left[\frac{\partial L(\theta|X_{t_i-1})}{\partial \theta}\right]$. 241 242 243 244 $(\theta_{t_i} - \theta_{t_i-1})^2$ 245 //Weights adjusted using Cramer Rao Lower bound 246 which constitutes the term 2 of the proposed model 247 t++ 248 end while 249 end if 250

customers for a period of one month which are European credit card holders.

Paysim: The dataset comprises of simulated mobile money transactions based real transactions extracted from one month of financial logs which consists of around 6 million transactions out of which 8312 transactions are labeled as fraud.

CIFAR: This dataset consists of 32x32 colour images in 10 classes, with 6000 images per class. There are 50000 training images and 10000 test images.

4.2. Model Configurations

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Model wise configurations used in the experiments are listed in Table 2.

*Fisher multiplier: The Fisher is scaled by this number to form the Cramer bound.

Model Configurations					
Optimizer Activation	SGD Relu				
Loss function	CrossEntropy Loss				
Epochs Batch size	20 100				
Learning rate Momentum	$0.001 \mid 0.1$				
No. of hidden layers *Fisher multiplier	2 400				

Table 2. Model Configurations

4.3. Evaluation metrics

The evaluation metrics used in this experimental setup is accuracy which is measured as correctly predicted to the total predictions in the dataset. (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017) suggest the use of L2 regularisation and the noise in the SGD training as alternative processes to carry estimates across batches, and therefore these form our benchmarks.

4.4. Experimental Nomenclature

The experiments are categorized into 3 types: Cramer Rao Lower Bound, No Penalty and L2 penalty based on multiple batch settings e.g., 5 and 20 batches for each data-set. Cramer Rao Lower Bound Optimization is one of artifacts of the proposed model in this study which ensures the information retention of the previous batches when training on the current batch, however the competing techniques of optimization from the literature were also compared namely SGD in which gradient steps according to the current batch only and will minimize the loss of the current batch but destroy information of the previous batch and L2 penalty which is too severe that it tries to retain the information of previous batch only at the expense of not learning current batch data distribution. The experiments are carried out using multiple batch sizes as to validate the technique on different variances among the batches. Also in case of online setting, the technique is validated in comparison of the prevailing techniques.

4.5. Investigating for similarity among batches

To further investigate the results of the technique, an analysis of the percentage difference in the two means was performed for finding the similarity among batches of a dataset.

The mean of a batch was calculated after averaging the mean of each column in the batch set. Following are the mean percentage difference between batches which will be referred in the results section below.

The percentage difference in the two means shows that the batches appears quite different in distribution and inter-batch variance across batches was observed quite high with the net difference of 184.32% in all the batches of Credit Default dataset and vice versa in all the rest of the datasets.

Dataset	% Diff in means
AML	0.75
Credit Default	184.32
Credit Fraud	2.05
Paysim	4.07

Table 3. Datasets

5. Results and Discussion

This section is organized in further sub-sections based on the batch size of the dataset as the experiments were carried out under different settings discussed in experimental setup. Following are the results of our technique with competing state of the art techniques in online mode, 20 batches and 5 batches on each data-set which are formulated as:

AML	L2 CRLBO	0.9986 0.9985
Credit Default	L2 CRLBO	0.9192 0.9194
Paysim	L2 CRLBO	0.9987 0.9986
CIFAR10	L2 CRLBO	0.332 0.526

Table 4. Online Results

L2	Testing				
Training	Batch 1	Batch 10	Batch 15	Batch 20	
Batch 1	0.7043				
Batch 10	0.8199	0.8098			
Batch 15	0.8047	0.8206	0.7943		
Batch 20	0.7413	0.7502	0.7468	0.7370	
SGD					
Batch 1	0.7755				
Batch 10	0.8728	0.8896			
Batch 15	0.2823	0.2737	0.2822		
Batch 20	0.6766	0.6874	0.6706	0.6966	
CRLBO					
Batch 1	0.9067				
Batch 10	0.9032	0.9114			
Batch 15	0.9035	0.9076	0.9078		
Batch 20	0.9074	0.9114	0.9109	0.9119	

Table 5. Credit Default Results (20 Batches)

As shown in Table 5, CRLBO outperforms other techniques on a tabular dataset in 20 batch setting by 18%. This can be attributed to the high inter-batch variance present in the dataset. Thus it can be inferred that CRLBO retains maximum information on tabular datasets in high variant settings.

As shown in Table 4 CRLBO outperforms other techniques

L2	Testing				
Training	Batch 1	Batch 10	Batch 15	Batch 20	
Batch 1	0.9978				
Batch 10	0.9930	0.9985			
Batch 15	0.9987	0.9984	0.9988		
Batch 20	0.9893	0.9984	0.9972	0.9985	
SGD					
Batch 1	0.9987				
Batch 10	0.9987	0.9987			
Batch 15	0.9969	0.9919	0.9984		
Batch 20	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	
CRLBO					
Batch 1	0.9989				
Batch 10	0.9802	0.9982			
Batch 15	0.9897	0.9981	0.9985		
Batch 20	0.9923	0.9982	0.9988	0.9990	

Table 6. Paysim Results (20 Batches)

L2	Testing				
Training	Batch 1	Batch 10	Batch 15	Batch 20	
Batch 1	0.1000				
Batch 10	0.1000	0.1000			
Batch 15	0.1000	0.1000	0.0900		
Batch 20	0.1000	0.1000	0.0900	0.0900	
SGD					
Batch 1	0.1000				
Batch 10	0.1000	0.1000			
Batch 15	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000		
Batch 20	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000	0.1000	
CRLBO					
Batch 1	0.0900				
Batch 10	0.0900	0.0900			
Batch 15	0.0900	0.0900			
Batch 20	0.0900	0.0900	0.0800	0.1000	

Table 7. CIFAR10 Results (20 Batches)

by 19% on high dimensional images in online settings. Thus it can be inferred that CRLBO retains maximum information in high dimensional settings.

The inference obtained from this investigation is that in high volume settings, if the distribution of the data is similar then any state of the art technique could achieve comparable generalization however in case of varying distribution and high variance across batches, CRLBO achieves best generalization by adjusting the weights in a way that it also retains the information of the previous batches which makes this technique work better over state of the art prevailing techniques.

In online settings where the data with high velocity and high variance is exposed to the model for training, the proposed

L2		Tes	sting	
Training	Batch 1	Batch 10	Batch 15	Batch 20
Batch 1	0.9985			
Batch 10	0.9985	0.9986		
Batch 15	0.9975	0.9975	0.9972	
Batch 20	0.9982	0.9981	0.9980	0.9981
SGD				
Batch 1	0.9980			
Batch 10	0.9986	0.9986		
Batch 15	0.9985	0.9985	0.9985	
Batch 20	0.9986	0.9986	0.9985	0.9986
CRLBO				
Batch 1	0.9983			
Batch 10	0.9984	0.9984		
Batch 15	0.9982	0.9979	0.9978	
Batch 20	0.9985	0.9984	0.9984	0.9985

L2 - 0.9985			Testing		
Training	Batch 1	Batch 2	Batch 3	Batch 4	Batch 5
Batch 5	0.9986	0.9986	0.9986	0.9986	0.9987
SGD - 0.9983 Batch 5	0.9986	0.9986	0.9986	0.9986	0.9987
CRLBO - 0.998 Batch 5	0.998	0.9979	0.9981	0.998	0.9981

Table 9. AML Dataset Results (5 Batches)

L2 - 0.9131			Testing		
Training	Batch 1	Batch 2	Batch 3	Batch 4	Batch 5
Batch 5	0.8996	0.9026	0.8993	0.9017	0.898
SGD - 0.9103 Batch 5	0.9113	0.91	0.9096	0.9114	0.9093 W
CRLBO - 0.9172 Batch 5	0.9173	0.9167	0.9152	0.9176	0.9216

Table 10. Credit Default Dataset Results (5 Batches)

technique also stand out from the state of the art prevailing techniques but in case of low variance and high similarity between the batches, the distribution to learn is not as challenging hence similar results for all the techniques. A comparison of the results is shown in the Table.4.

L2 - 0.9987			Testing		
Training	Batch 1	Batch 2	Batch 3	Batch 4	Batch 5
Batch 5	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987
SGD - 0.999 Batch 5	0.9988	0.9988	0.9988	0.9988	0.9988
CRLBO - 0.999 Batch 5	0.999	0.999	0.9991	0.9988	0.9991

Table 11. Paysim Dataset Results (5 Batches)

6. Conclusion

We study a distribution density estimation angle for sustaining learning where data are temporally or geographically distributed or high volume constraints their in-memory presence. In summary:

- 1. The proposed model accumulates knowledge about the data density via posterior probability absorption using Cramer Rao Lower Bound Optimization.
- 2. The model scales with high volume as the memory required is linear and merely a function of the batch size rather than the complete dataset.
- 3. The model is adaptable in high velocity as information is retained in online settings.
- The model achieves an increase in 19% accuracy with competing techniques in online and multi-batch settings.
- 5. The model is equally effective on high dimensional
 image based or tabular data.

This work opens possibilities in working with online settings where neither complete dataset presence is required nor distribution drift stales the model as knowledge is sustained with a small subset of data in online and multi batch settings.

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