

Meta-Learning for Hyperparameter Optimization

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Outline

1. Introduction
2. Basics
3. The Power of Transfer-Learning for HPO
4. Experimental Protocol and Meta-Features
5. Transfer-Learning Strategies for HPO
6. Conclusion

"Textbook" ML: A Simplified Skeleton

Data:

- ▶ Training dataset with features x^{train} and target y^{train}

Model:

- ▶ Prediction model $f(x; \theta)$ with parameters $\theta \in \Theta$

Problem:

- ▶ Loss $\mathcal{L}(y^{\text{train}}, f(x^{\text{train}}))$ abbreviated as $\mathcal{L}^{\text{train}}(\theta)$
- ▶ Objective: $\theta^* := \arg \min_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathcal{L}^{\text{train}}(\theta)$

"Real-world" ML: Lots of Hyperparameters

- ▶ The "textbook" simplified supervised learning definition is of little practical use.
- ▶ ML methods require several design choices before we can optimize the parameters.
 - ▶ Preprocessing
 - ▶ Data Augmentation
 - ▶ Model and Neural Architecture
 - ▶ Regularization
 - ▶ Optimization
- ▶ Entirety of design choices are called **hyperparameters**

Search Spaces of Hyperparameter Configurations

An example search space Λ :

Hyperparameter	Range	Scale
Architecture	{ConvNext, ViT, EfficientNet}	Discrete
Dropout	[0.0, 1.0]	Uniform
Optimizer	{SGD, Adam, RMSProp}	Discrete
Learning Rate	$[10^{-5}, 10^0]$	Log

A configuration $\lambda \in \Lambda$ is an element of the Cartesian product of hyperparameter ranges, e.g.:

$$\lambda = [\text{Arch.: ViT, Dropout : } 0.2, \text{Optim.: Adam, LR : } 10^{-4}]$$

Objective: **How** to find the optimal λ for a particular task?

Hyperparameter Optimization (HPO)

Hyperparameters $\lambda \in \Lambda$ where Λ is the design/search space.

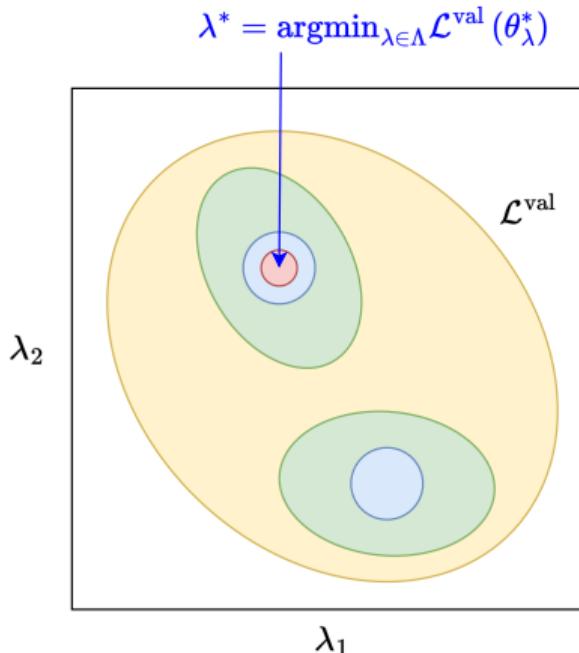
- ▶ Effect: Parameters depend on hyperparameters θ_λ
- ▶ Goal: Find λ to minimize a validation loss $\mathcal{L}^{\text{val}}(\theta_\lambda)$

Hyperparameter optimization (HPO) problem:

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda^* &:= \arg \min_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mathcal{L}^{\text{val}}(\theta_\lambda^*) \\ \text{s.t. } \theta_\lambda^* &:= \arg \min_{\theta_\lambda \in \Theta} \mathcal{L}^{\text{train}}(\theta_\lambda)\end{aligned}$$

For the sake of brevity, $\mathcal{L}^{\text{val}}(\theta_\lambda^*)$ can be alternatively denoted as $\ell(\lambda)$.

Difficulty of HPO



- ▶ \mathcal{L}^{val} is non-convex
- ▶ \mathcal{L}^{val} is expensive
- ▶ \mathcal{L}^{val} is non-analytic

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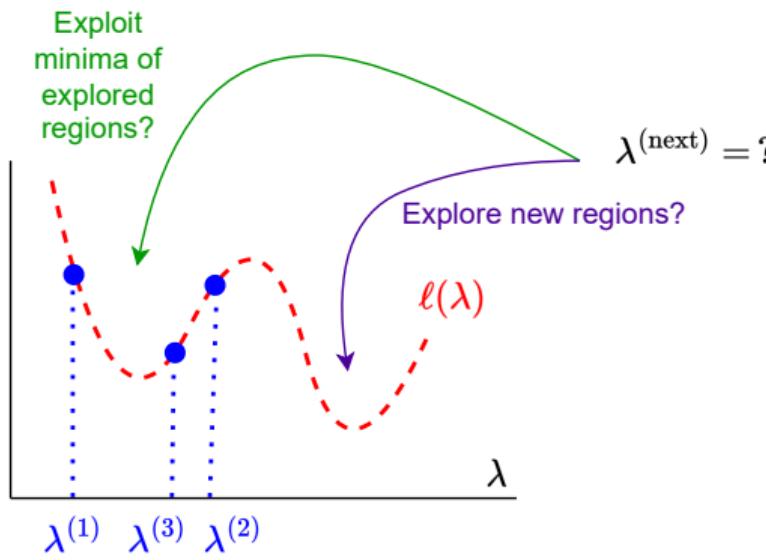
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HPO as a sequential search



- ▶ HPO = sequential search
- ▶ Given evaluations $\{\lambda^{(t)}, \ell(\lambda^{(t)})\}_{t=1}^T$
- ▶ Which $\lambda^{(\text{next})}$ to evaluate next?
- ▶ To explore, or to exploit, that is the question.

Flavors of HPO

► Black-box

The only access to a function $\ell : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is by evaluating $\ell(\lambda)$ for any $\lambda \in \Lambda$.

► Gray-box

Access to a function $\ell : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is by partial (low-cost) evaluations $\ell(\lambda)_b$ at a budget b .

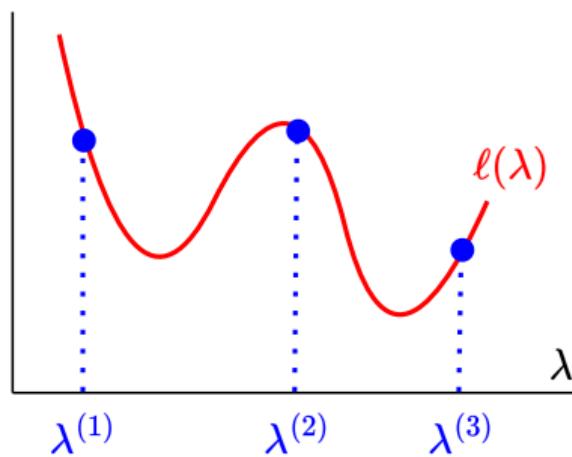
In deep learning, additional access to model weights, layer activations, etc.

► White-Box:

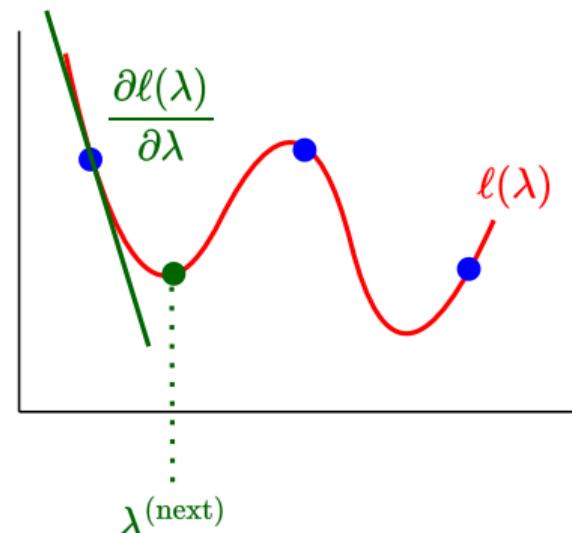
In addition to the gray-box level of access, we can compute the gradients $\frac{\partial \ell(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda}$.

First-order optimization: Access to gradients

Function evaluations

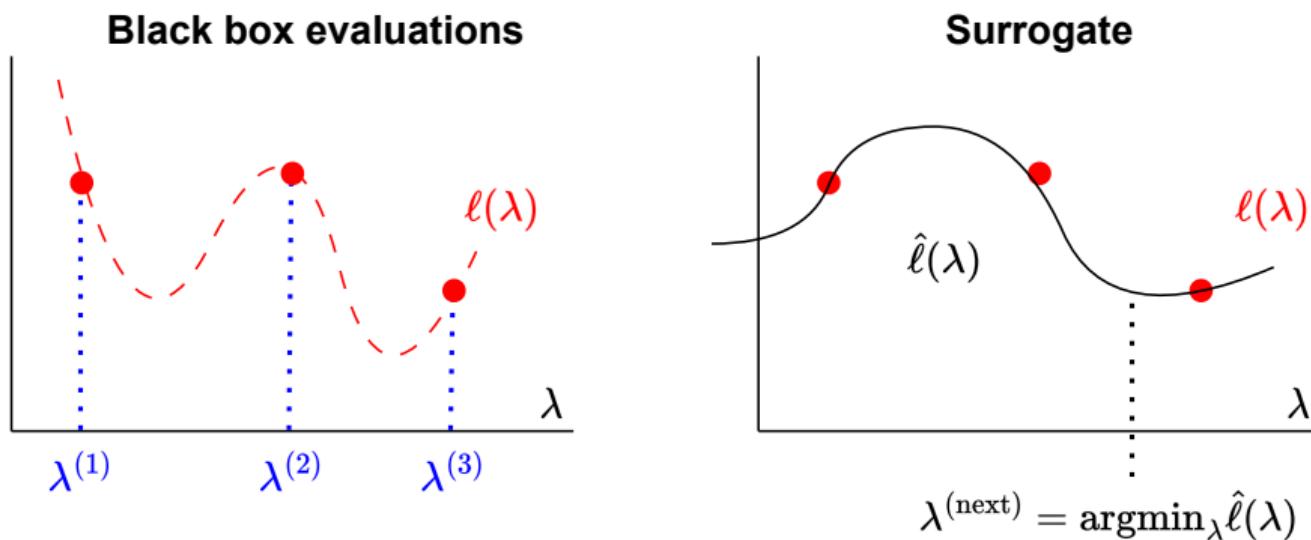


Next point to evaluate



Standard optimization of analytic functions with off-the-shelf first-/second-order techniques.

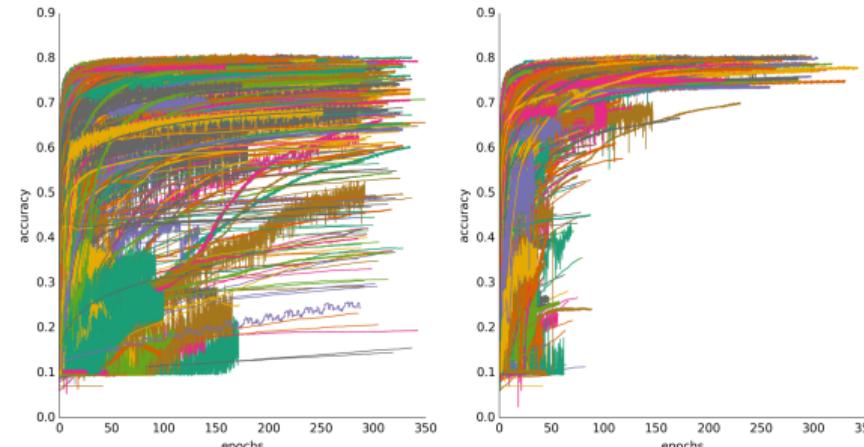
Black-box HPO: No access to gradients



Black-box optimization of non-analytic functions through optimizable surrogates.

Gray-Box HPO

- ▶ Measure **approximately** $\ell(\lambda; \text{"budget"}) \approx \ell(\lambda)$:
 - ▶ Train on a **subset** of the dataset
 - ▶ Train for **fewer** epochs
 - ▶ Train for **less** ensemble models
- ▶ Rule out configurations after low-budget evaluations



White-Box HPO

Update parameters θ **and** hyperparameters λ jointly [1]:

$$\theta^{(t)} \leftarrow u\left(\theta^{(t-1)}, \lambda^{(t)}\right) \text{ and } \lambda^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \lambda^{(t)} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{\text{val}}\left(\theta^{(t)}\right)}{\partial \lambda^{(t)}}$$

where:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{\text{val}}\left(\theta^{(t)}\right)}{\partial \lambda^{(t)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{\text{val}}\left(\theta^{(t)}\right)}{\partial \theta^{(t)}} \frac{\partial u\left(\theta^{(t-1)}, \lambda^{(t)}\right)}{\partial \lambda^{(t)}}$$

For instance, in the case where λ is the learning rate:

$$\frac{\partial u\left(\theta^{(t-1)}, \lambda^{(t)}\right)}{\partial \lambda^{(t)}} = \frac{\partial \left(\theta^{(t-1)} - \lambda^{(t)} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{\text{train}}\left(\theta^{(t-1)}\right)}{\partial \theta^{(t-1)}} \right)}{\partial \lambda^{(t)}} = - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}^{\text{train}}\left(\theta^{(t-1)}\right)}{\partial \theta^{(t-1)}}$$

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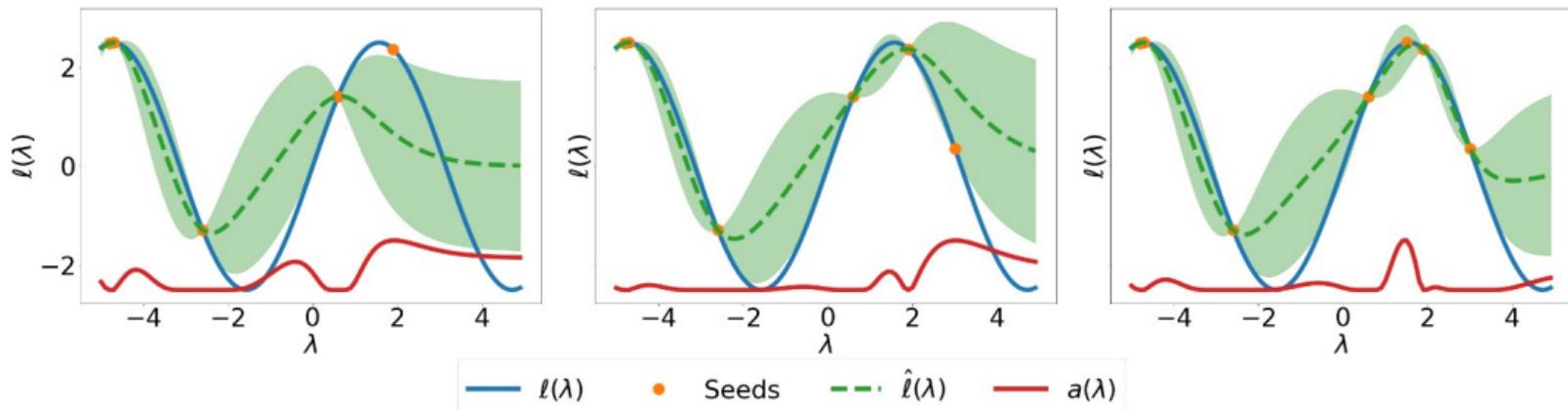
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Bayesian Optimization - Mechanism

Black-box policies for minimizing/maximizing functions $\ell(\lambda)$:

- **Given** $H := \{\lambda^{(i)}, \ell(\lambda^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n$
- **Evaluate** $\lambda^{(\text{next})}$



The acquisition function a promotes regions where the surrogate $\hat{\ell}$ has both a high predicted mean and a high variance.

Bayesian Optimization - Algorithm

Algorithm 1: Bayesian Optimization

Initial design $H := \{(\lambda^{(i)}, \ell(\lambda^{(i)}))\}_{i=1}^n$;

while still budget remaining **do**

Fit a probabilistic surrogate $\hat{\ell}$, e.g. surrogate $\hat{\ell} := \text{Gaussian-Process}(H)$;

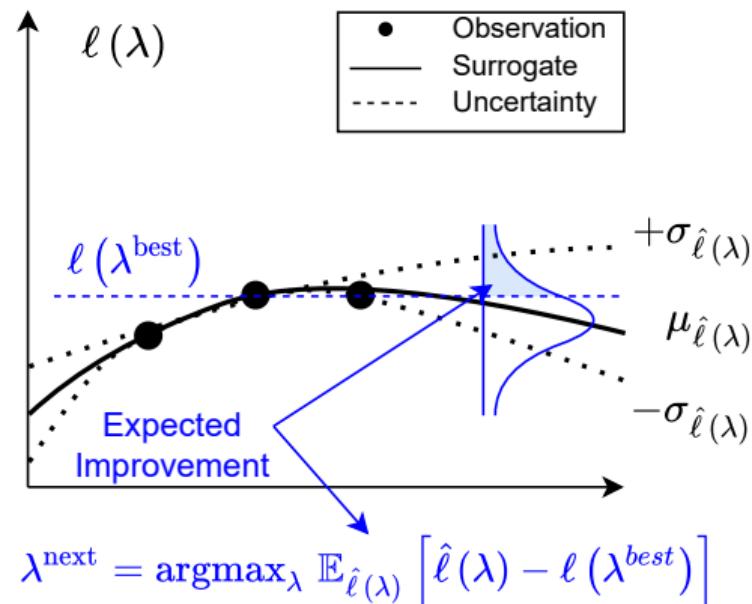
Recommend $\lambda^{\text{next}} := \arg \max_{\lambda} a(\hat{\ell}(\lambda))$, e.g. acquisition $a = \text{Expected-Improvement}$;

Evaluate $H \leftarrow H \cup \{(\lambda^{\text{next}}, \ell(\lambda^{\text{next}}))\}$

end

return $\lambda^* \leftarrow \arg \min_{(\lambda, \cdot) \in H} \ell(\lambda);$

Typical Acquisition: Expected Improvement



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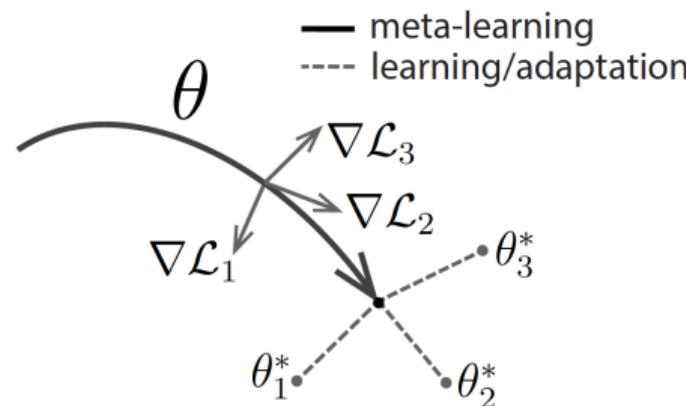
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Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning

- ▶ Model learns from all the tasks
- ▶ Learn a representation that requires only few steps to the optimal representation for each task
- ▶ Performs well for few-shot learning problems



Chelsea Finn, Pieter Abbeel, and Sergey Levine. "Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning for Fast Adaptation of Deep Networks". In: *ICML*. vol. 70. Proceedings of Machine Learning Research. PMLR, 2017, pp. 1126–1135

MAML Algorithm

Algorithm 2: Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning

Require: $p(\mathcal{T})$: distribution over tasks

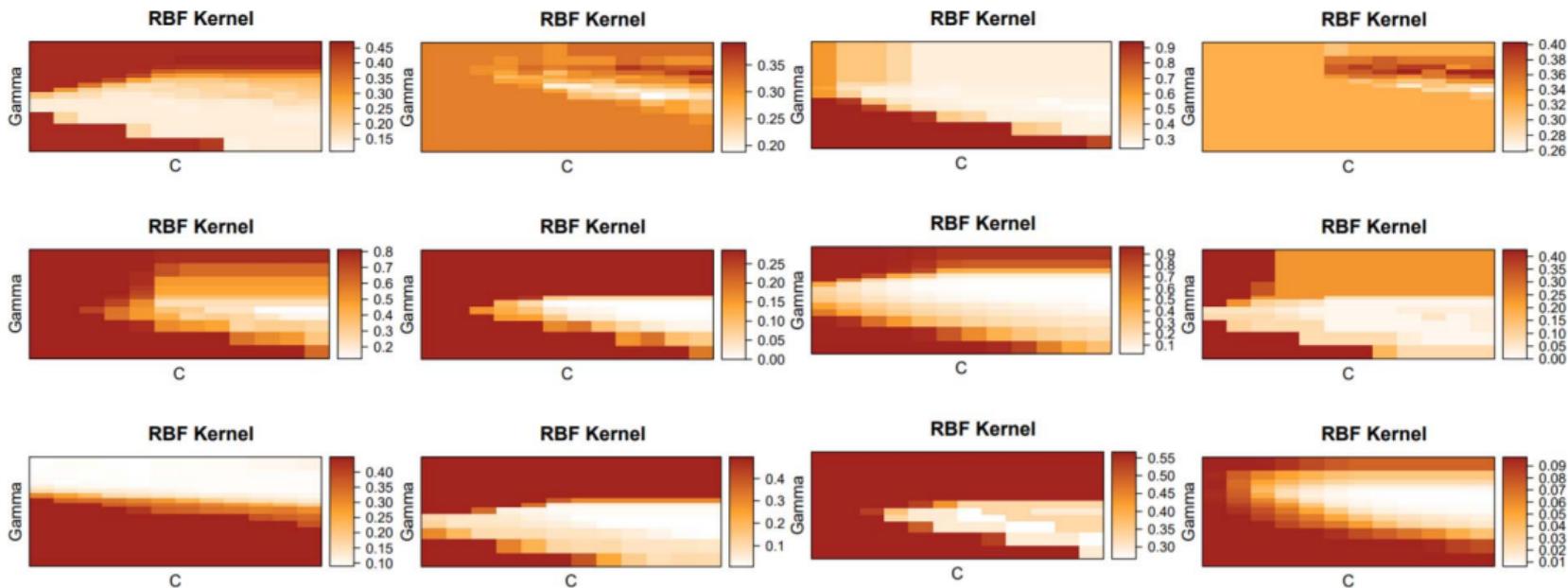
Require: β, γ : step size hyperparameters

- 1: randomly initialize θ
 - 2: **while** not done **do**
 - 3: Sample batch of tasks $\mathcal{T}_i \sim p(\mathcal{T})$
 - 4: **for all** \mathcal{T}_i **do**
 - 5: $\theta'_i = \theta - \beta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_i(\ell_{\theta})$
 - 6: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \gamma \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{\mathcal{T}_i \sim p(\mathcal{T})} \mathcal{L}_i(\ell_{\theta'_i})$
-

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Transfer Learning helps HPO



Response function of different datasets can look very similar.

Objective of Transfer Learning in HPO

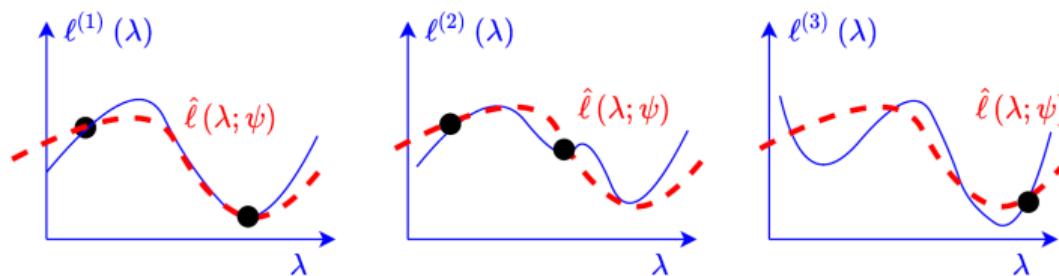
In transfer learning for HPO, we have access to a history of HPO runs (a meta-dataset),

$$\mathcal{H} = \left\{ \left(\lambda^{(1)}, \ell^{(1)}(\lambda^{(1)}) \right), \dots, \left(\lambda^{(n_1)}, \ell^{(1)}(\lambda^{(n_1)}) \right), \dots, \left(\lambda^{(1)}, \ell^{(M)}(\lambda^{(1)}) \right), \dots, \left(\lambda^{(n_M)}, \ell^{(M)}(\lambda^{(n_M)}) \right) \right\},$$

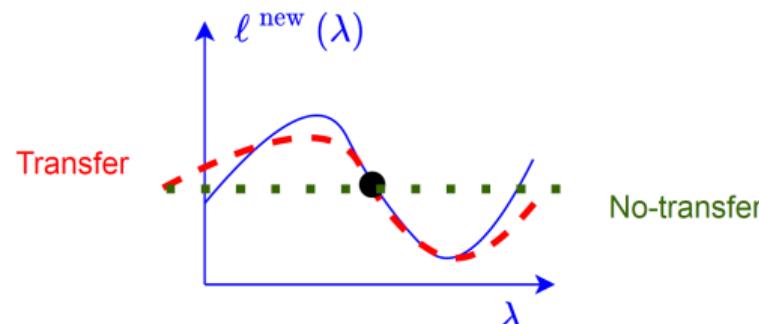
for a set of datasets $\{D_1, \dots, D_M\}$ with respective response functions $\{\ell^{(1)}, \dots, \ell^{(M)}\}$.

Objective: Use \mathcal{H} to find good λ for a new $\ell^{(M+1)}$ faster.

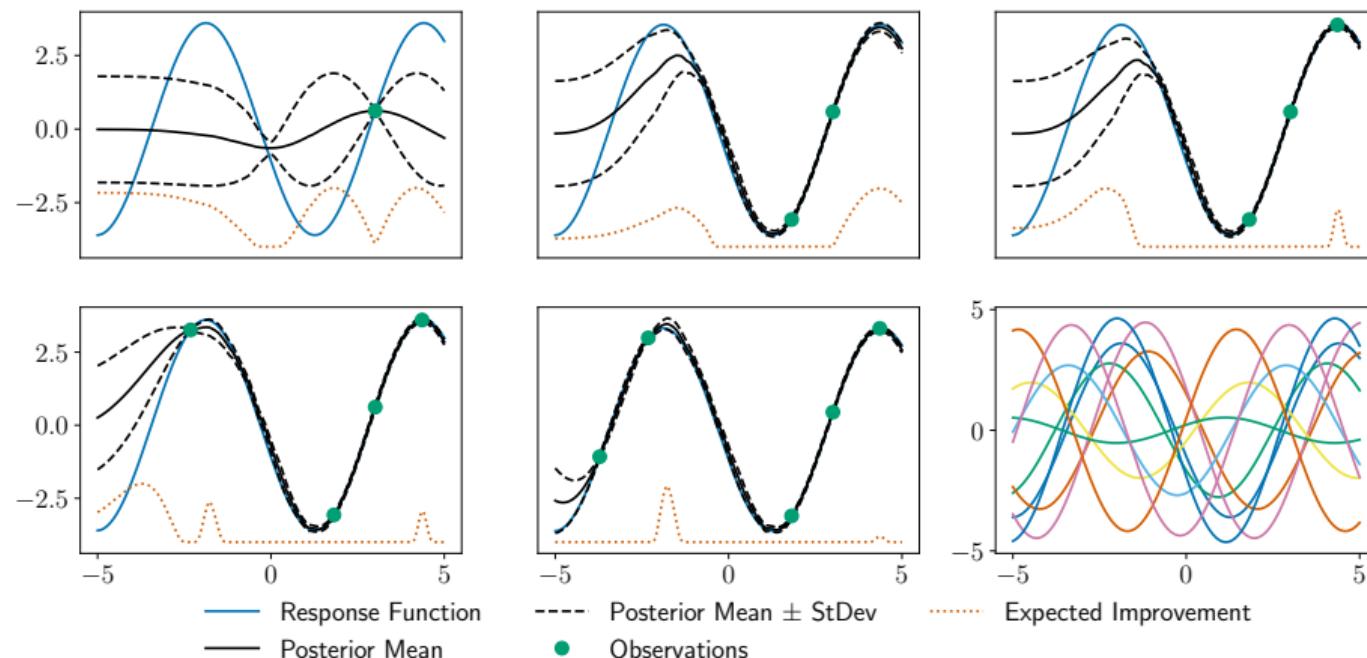
Conceptual Illustration: Meta-Learned Surrogates



Meta-learning a surrogate on source tasks (above) helps HPO on a target task (below):



Transfer Learning: Fewer HPO Trials



Martin Wistuba and Josif Grabocka. "Few-Shot Bayesian Optimization with Deep Kernel Surrogates". In: *ICLR*. OpenReview.net, 2021

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Evaluation Metrics (1/3)

- ▶ Evaluation is done on multiple benchmarks, each having many different tasks.
- ▶ Presenting results per task is infeasible, aggregation of results is required.
- ▶ Aggregation is non-trivial.
 - ▶ Do you account only for performance after a fixed budget or do you also consider the speed of progress?
 - ▶ How do you define a fixed budget for datasets of with different sizes?
 - ▶ How do you account for different scales in different datasets?

Evaluation Metrics (2/3)

► Average Regret

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \ell^{(i)}(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)}) - \ell_{\min}^{(i)}$$

Evaluation Metrics (2/3)

► Average Regret

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \ell^{(i)}(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)}) - \ell_{\min}^{(i)}$$

► Normalized Average Regret

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{\ell^{(i)}\left(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)}\right) - \ell_{\min}^{(i)}}{\ell_{\max}^{(i)} - \ell_{\min}^{(i)}}$$

Evaluation Metrics (3/3)

► Average Rank

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \text{rank}^{(i)} \left(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)} \right)$$

where $\text{rank}^{(i)} \left(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)} \right)$ is the rank obtained by the method compared to other methods.

Evaluation Metrics (3/3)

- ▶ Average Rank

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \text{rank}^{(i)} \left(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)} \right)$$

where $\text{rank}^{(i)} \left(\lambda_{\text{best}}^{(i)} \right)$ is the rank obtained by the method compared to other methods.

- ▶ Area under any of the previous metric curves.
- ▶ All previous metrics can only be reported for a given budget.
- ▶ The sum of a metric at every given budget will yield a single value.

Evaluation Metrics - Example

Dataset	Opt1	Opt2	Opt3	$\ell_{\min}^{(t)}$	$\ell_{\max}^{(t)}$
Dataset 1	70%	65%	80%	60%	80%
Dataset 2	60%	59%	58%	20%	65%
Dataset 3	98%	99%	97.9%	97%	99%

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Average Regret	17%	15.3%	19.6%		

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Dataset 3	98%	99%	97.9%	97%	99%
Average Regret	17%	15.3%	19.6%		
Normalized Average Regret	62.9%	70.6%	76.5%		

Evaluation Metrics - Example

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Dataset 2	60%	59%	58%	20%	65%
Dataset 3	98%	99%	97.9%	97%	99%
Average Regret	17%	15.3%	19.6%		
Normalized Average Regret	62.9%	70.6%	76.5%		
Average Rank	2.3	2.0	1.7		

Evaluation Metrics - Summary

- ▶ What is the right evaluation metric?
 - ▶ Every single one has their own problems.
 - ▶ Evaluate with respect to all.
 - ▶ If they all agree on a best method, that's probably the best one.
 - ▶ If they disagree, results are inconclusive.
 - ▶ Unclear: Performance differences at different optimization budgets.

Benchmarks Overview

Benchmark	#Evals	#Datasets	#HPs	#Fidelities	Comments
LCBench [19]	70K	35	7	50	MLP - architecture and HPs
WEKA [14]	1.3M	59	1-7	1	several search spaces
HPO-B v1 [11]	6.4M	196	1-53	1	OpenML benchmark
HPO-B v2 [11]	6.3M	101	2-18	1	for cross-search space HPO
HPOBench [3]	50K	1-20	2-26	varies	trees or epochs as fidelity
TaskSet [10]	29M	1162	1-10	varies	optimizer HPs for different NNs

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Meta-Features

- ▶ Meta-features are describing properties of the dataset.
 - ▶ Desired property: iff the meta-features between two datasets are similar, the best hyperparameter configurations are similar.

We categorize them according to how they are generated:

- ▶ **Feature Engineering:** All meta-features that are created based on human-defined operations.
 - ▶ Classical approach
 - ▶ Big variety of meta-features proposed in the literature
- ▶ **Feature Learning:** Meta-features are learned directly from the data.

Meta-Features - Engineering

- ▶ **Simple:** Such as dataset size, number of features, etc.
- ▶ **Statistical:** Such as kurtosis, skewness, etc.
- ▶ **Information Theoretic:** Such as normalized class entropy, mutual information, etc.
- ▶ **Model-Based:** Features are extracted from a simple model trained on the data
 - ▶ Examples: number of leaves in a decision tree trained without pruning
- ▶ **Landmarking:** Performance metrics of simple learners. (e.g. Naive Bayes accuracy)

Matthias Reif et al. “Automatic classifier selection for non-experts”. In: *Pattern Anal. Appl.* 17.1 (2014), pp. 83–96

Meta-Features - Learning

In meta-feature learning, a function $\phi : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is learned, which extracts k -dimensional meta-features from a given dataset $D \in \mathcal{D}$.

The function φ is parameterized and its parameters are learned from datasets and their similarity scores.

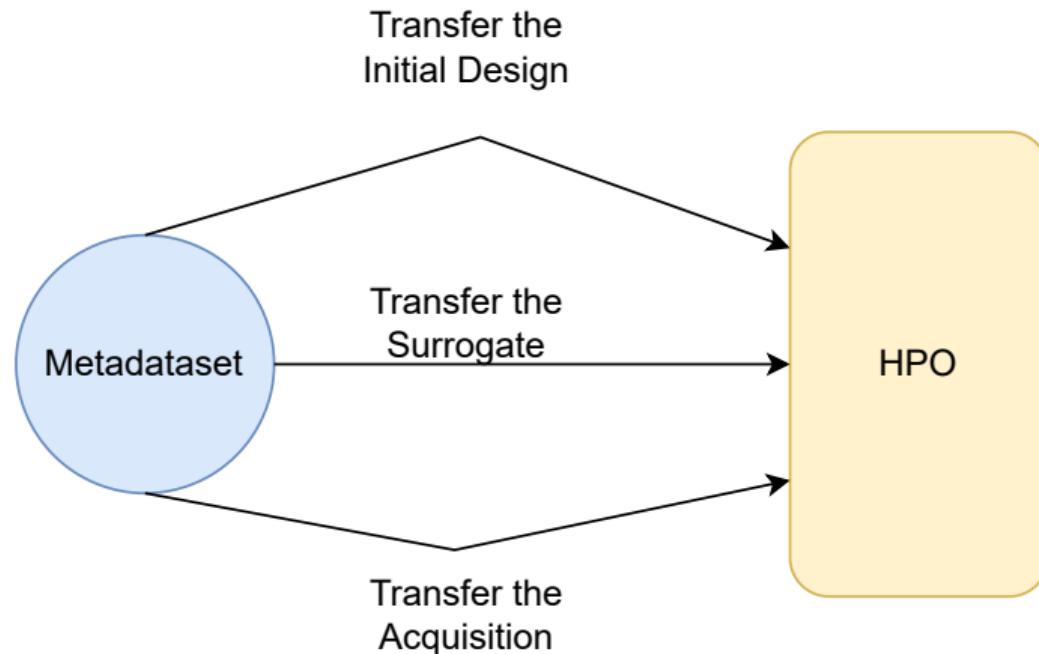
Noteworthy meta-feature learning strategies:

- ▶ Tabular Data: Dataset2Vec [7].
- ▶ Image Data: Set transformer [9].

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Transfer modalities for HPO with Bayesian Optimization



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Transfer by Initialization

Basic idea: Start with configurations that did well in the past. Then, continue with an arbitrary HPO technique.

Advantages

- ▶ Works very well in practice.
- ▶ Transparent method, easy to understand.
- ▶ Works with most HPO methods.
- ▶ Typically easy to implement.
- ▶ No additional overhead introduced.
- ▶ Can be shared and updated easily.

Disadvantages

- ▶ Initialization length might be a critical hyperparameter.
- ▶ Does not adapt, might struggle with negative transfer.

Formal Problem Definition

A hyperparameter optimization initialization is a sequence of hyperparameter configurations $\mathcal{I} = (\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n)$ which minimizes

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I}) = \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \min\{\ell_D(\lambda_i) \mid i \in \{1 \dots n\}\} .^1$$

In words: At least one configuration is a good configuration for any dataset we have seen so far.

Desired Properties

- ▶ **No redundancies:** There should be no two configurations that are very similar.
- ▶ **Coverage:** The entire search space should be covered.
- ▶ **Good performance:** The initialization should already yield good results.

¹For simplicity, we ignore that ℓ_D may require normalization.

Nearest-Neighbor Initialization (1/2)

1. Given is a set of datasets $\{D_1, \dots, D_M\}$ and corresponding best hyperparameter configurations $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_M\}$.
2. Measure the similarity between each dataset and the new dataset D_{new} with some distance function d .
3. Select the n configurations from the best configurations corresponding to the datasets with the highest similarity.

Matthias Feurer, Jost Tobias Springenberg, and Frank Hutter. “Initializing Bayesian Hyperparameter Optimization via Meta-Learning”. In: AAAI. AAAI Press, 2015, pp. 1128–1135

Nearest-Neighbor Initialization (2/2)

- ▶ The distance between two datasets is non-trivial to compute.
- ▶ Common choice: Euclidean distance between meta-features.

Problems

- ▶ **Possible redundancies:** Similar datasets may have similar best configurations.
- ▶ **Dataset similarity:** With wrong similarities, we may use a bad initialization.

Greedy Initialization (1/2)

Greedy initialization uses a greedy selection algorithm to minimize

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I}) = \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \min\{\ell_D(\lambda_i) \mid i \in \{1 \dots n\}\} .$$

1. Create an empty list $\mathcal{I} = \emptyset$.
2. Add the element $\lambda^* \in \Lambda$ to \mathcal{I} , where

$$\lambda^* = \arg \min_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I} \cup \{\lambda\}) ,$$

until $|\mathcal{I}| = I$

Martin Wistuba, Nicolas Schilling, and Lars Schmidt-Thieme. “Sequential Model-Free Hyperparameter Tuning”. In: *ICDM*. IEEE Computer Society, 2015, pp. 1033–1038

Greedy Initialization (2/2)

- ▶ In the optimal case, a set of configurations is evaluated on all datasets.
- ▶ If this is not possible, use surrogate models $\hat{\ell}_D$ to impute the missing values.

Advantages

- ▶ **Low redundancies:** Configurations are chosen to complement each other.
- ▶ **Robust:** If a new set is similar to any previously dataset, the initialization sequence contains at least one good configuration.

Disadvantages

- ▶ Greedy selection is an approximation.
- ▶ Can depend on quality of surrogates.

Initialization with Evolutionary Algorithms

- ▶ Alternative to the greedy selection that will find solutions closer to the optimum.
 - ▶ Same advantages and disadvantages.
1. Initialize \mathcal{I} with configurations that performed best on some random datasets.
 2. Update \mathcal{I} with an evolutionary algorithm.

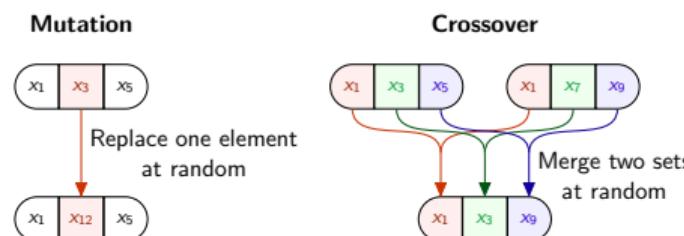


Figure 1: Examples for the mutation and crossover operation with $I = 3$.

Martin Wistuba and Josif Grabocka. "Few-Shot Bayesian Optimization with Deep Kernel Surrogates". In: *ICLR*. OpenReview.net, 2021

Initialization Learning (1/3)

In initialization learning our problem is solved via gradient-based methods.

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I}) = \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \min\{\ell_D(\lambda_i) \mid i \in \{1 \dots n\}\} .$$

Problem: This loss is not differentiable because

1. the minimum function is not differentiable and
2. ℓ_D is only partially observed and the computation for arbitrary λ is expensive.

Martin Wistuba, Nicolas Schilling, and Lars Schmidt-Thieme. “Learning hyperparameter optimization initializations”. In: *DSAA*. IEEE, 2015, pp. 1–10

Differentiable Meta-Loss

Problem 1: Minimum function is not differentiable.

- ▶ Replace it with the soft-minimum function.

$$\min \{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\} \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \sigma(\lambda)_i$$

where

$$\sigma((\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)^T)_i = \frac{e^{\beta \lambda_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^n e^{\beta \lambda_j}}$$

Differentiable Meta-Loss

Problem 2: ℓ_D is only partially observed and the computation for arbitrary λ is expensive.

- ▶ Replace ℓ_D with a differentiable surrogate models $\hat{\ell}_D$ that is trained on all available observations on D .

Thus, the final, differentiable meta-loss is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{D,i} \hat{\ell}_D(\lambda_i)$$

Initialization Learning Algorithm

1. Initialize \mathcal{I} with configurations that performed best on some random datasets.

2. Update \mathcal{I} with gradient descent

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{I,j}} \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{I}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}} \sigma_{D,I} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_{I,j}} \hat{\ell}_D(\lambda_I) \right) \cdot \left(\beta (1 - \sigma_{D,I}) \hat{\ell}_D(\lambda_I) + 1 \right)$$

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Transfer by Surrogates

Basic idea: Meta-learn a probabilistic surrogate from the evaluations of a meta-dataset

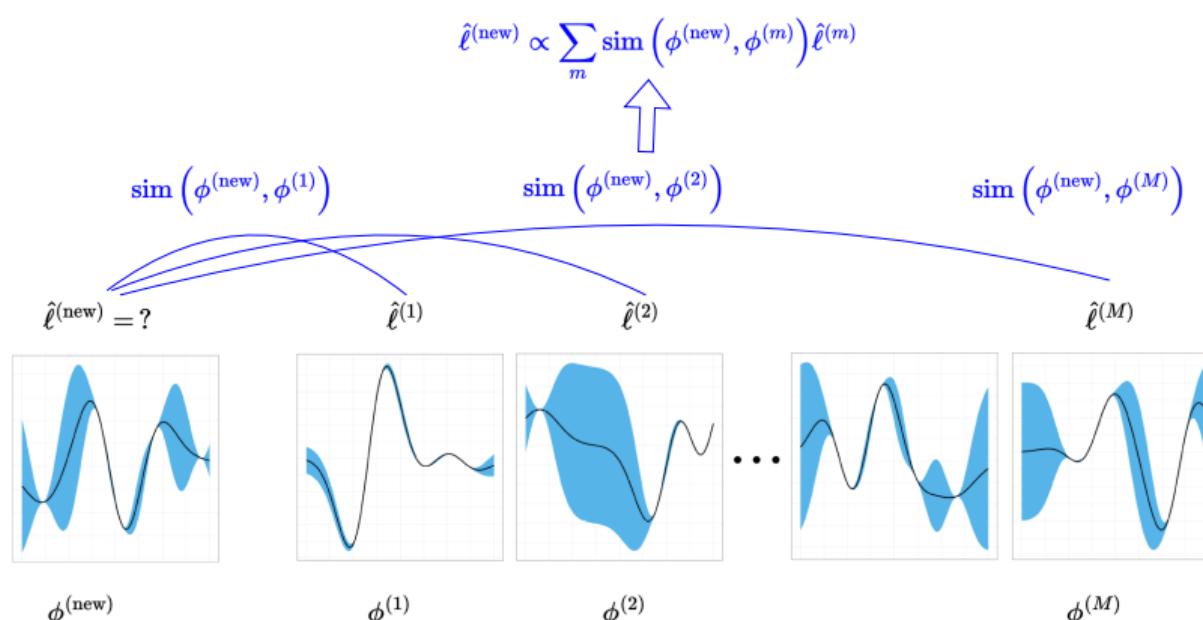
Advantages

- ▶ Leads to state-of-the-art results
- ▶ Easily accommodates meta-features as auxiliary surrogate features
- ▶ Can be extended to zero-shot HPO without an initial design

Disadvantages

- ▶ Requires implementing and running a meta-learning procedure for the surrogate parameters
- ▶ Requires a careful selection of hyper-hyper-parameters for the meta-learning procedure

Two-stage Surrogate Transfer



Martin Wistuba, Nicolas Schilling, and Lars Schmidt-Thieme. "Two-Stage Transfer Surrogate Model For Automatic Hyperparameter Optimization". In: *European Conference on Machine Learning and Knowledge Discovery in Databases - Volume 9851*. ECML PKDD 2016. Riva del Garda, Italy: Springer-Verlag, 2016,

Few-Shot Bayesian Optimization (FSBO)

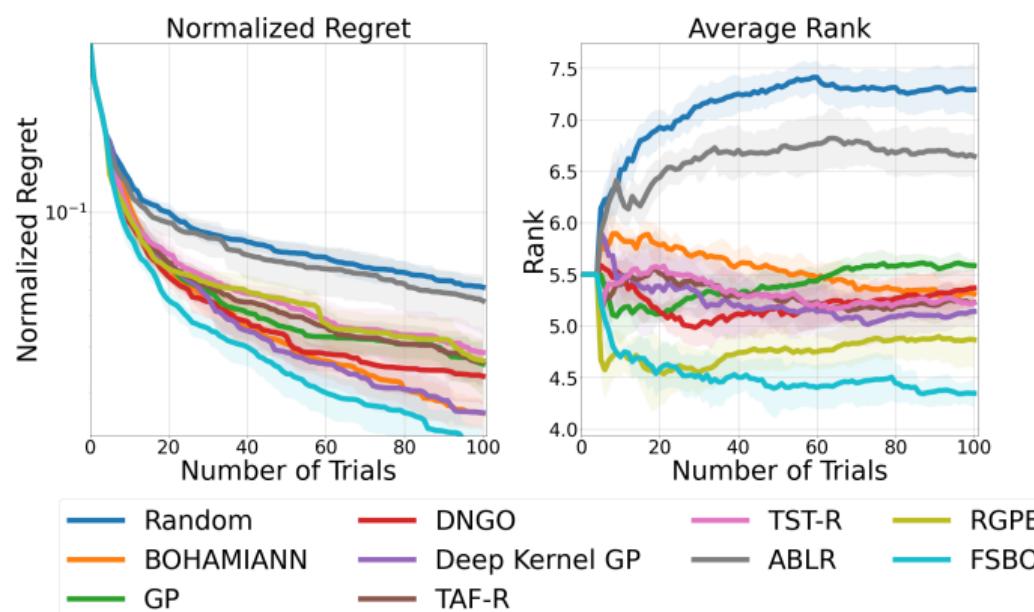
- ▶ Given n hyperparameter configs evaluated on K datasets
- ▶ Meta-dataset of evaluations $M := \bigcup_{m=1}^M \{\lambda_i, \ell^{(m)}(\lambda_i)\}_{i=1}^n$
- ▶ Meta-learn a parametric probabilistic surrogate $\ell(\lambda) \approx \hat{\ell}(\lambda; \psi) + \epsilon$ to approximate:

$$\psi^* := \arg \max_{\psi} \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{i=1}^n \log p \left(\ell^{(m)}(\lambda_i) \mid \lambda_i, \psi \right)$$

- ▶ On a new task: Initialize Bayesian optimization with the meta-learned surrogate $\hat{\ell}(\lambda; \psi^*)$

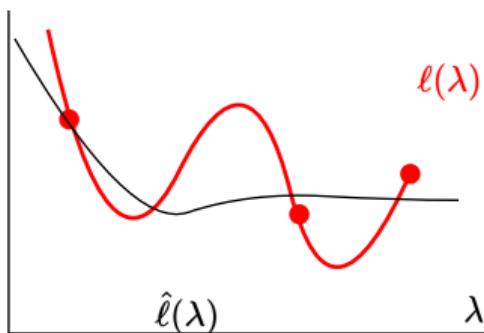
Martin Wistuba and Josif Grabocka. "Few-Shot Bayesian Optimization with Deep Kernel Surrogates". In: *ICLR*. OpenReview.net, 2021

FSBO - Performance

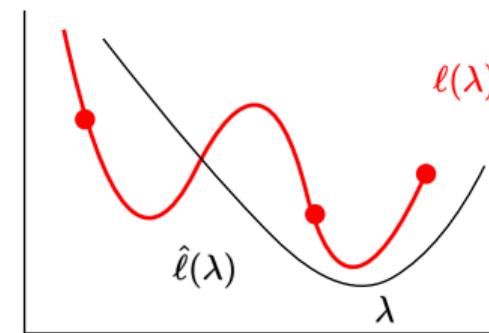


Novel Paradigm: Surrogate fitting as Learning-to-rank

Better fit, worse surrogate



Worse fit, better surrogate



- ▶ A good surrogate when $\left[\arg \min_{\lambda} \hat{\ell}(\lambda) \approx \arg \min_{\lambda} \ell(\lambda) \right]$
- ▶ Rank preservation is more important than fitness

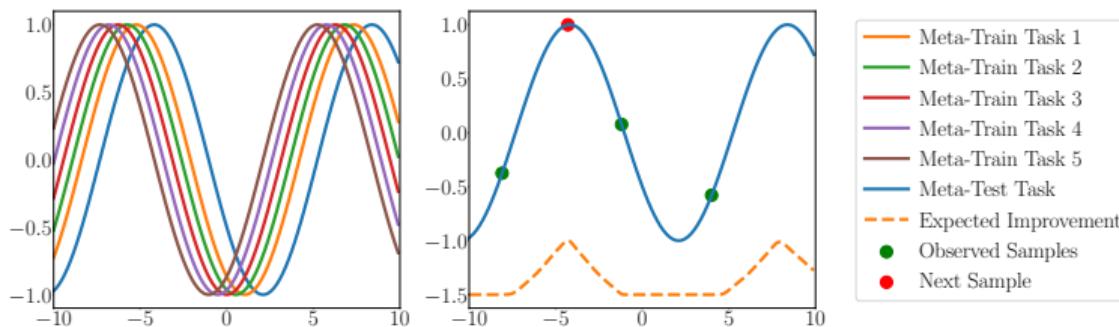
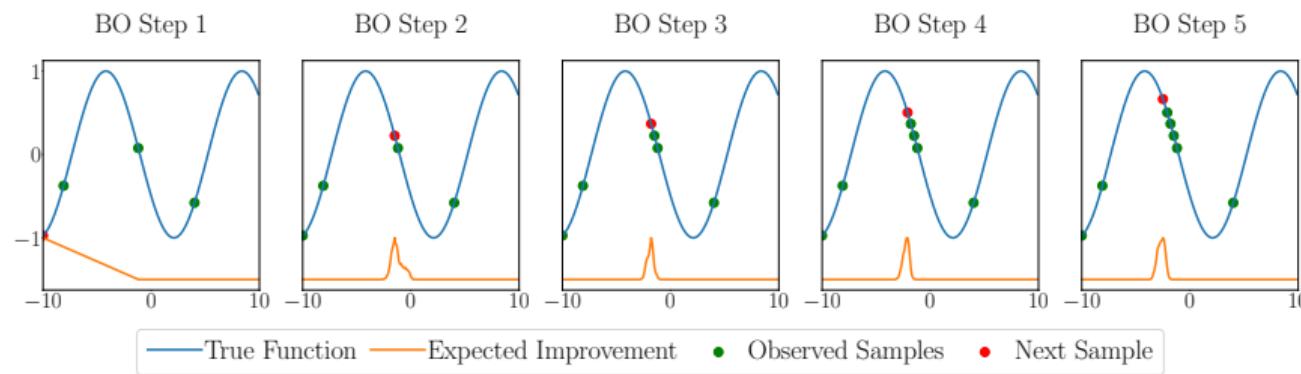
Deep Ranking Ensembles (DRE)

- ▶ In HPO only the best hyperparameter configuration matters.
- ▶ Ground-truth rank $\pi(i) = \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\ell(\lambda_k) \leq \ell(\lambda_i)}$
- ▶ We learn a ranker $r : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to approximate the true ranks.
- ▶ Optimize the ranker via a list-wise learning-to-rank loss:

$$\arg \min_{\psi} \sum_{i=1}^n w(\pi(i)) \frac{e^{r(\lambda_{\pi(i)}; \psi)}}{\sum_{j=k}^n e^{r(\lambda_{\pi(j)}; \psi)}}, \quad w(\pi(i)) = \frac{1}{\log(\pi(i) + 1)}$$

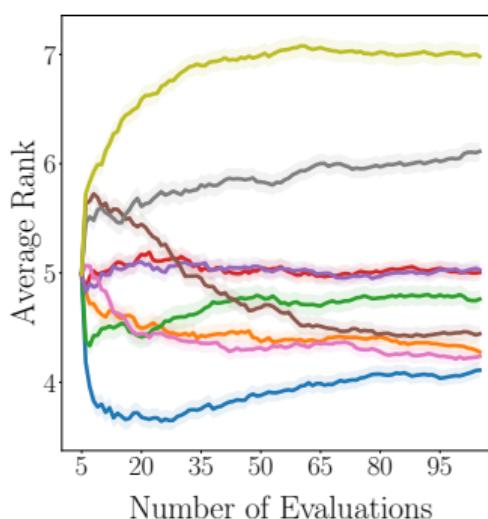
- ▶ Create a probabilistic ranker via ensembling
- ▶ Meta-learn the ranking ensemble from a meta-dataset

Ranking Ensembles - Impact of Transfer Learning

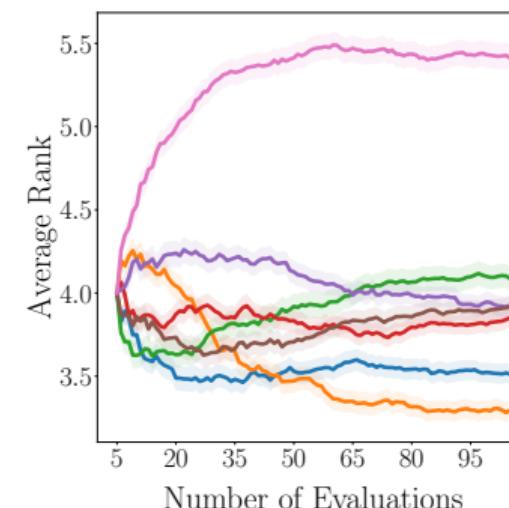


Ranking Ensembles - Performance

(a) Transfer Methods



(b) Non-Transfer Methods



Outline

1. Introduction
2. Basics
3. The Power of Transfer-Learning for HPO
4. Experimental Protocol and Meta-Features
5. Transfer-Learning Strategies for HPO
 - 5.1 Transfer by Initial Design
 - 5.2 Transfer by Surrogates
 - 5.3 Transfer by Acquisition Function

Transfer by Acquisition Function

Definition

An acquisition function is a mapping $a(\lambda, \mu(\lambda), \sigma(\lambda), \ell^{\text{best}})$ that measures the expected utility of a configuration λ .

We discuss

- ▶ Transfer with true acquisition functions
 - ▶ Acquisition functions according to above definition but which use transfer learning.
- ▶ Transfer with policies
 - ▶ Policies allow for sampling candidates. They do not evaluate their utility.

Transfer Acquisition Function

TAF is an acquisition function that combines EI with the predicted performance on other datasets.

$$a(\lambda) = \frac{w_{M+1} E[I_{M+1}(\lambda)] + \sum_{i=1}^M w_i I_i(\lambda)}{\sum_{i=1}^{M+1} w_i}$$

with

$$I_i(\lambda) = \max \left\{ \ell_{\min}^{(i)} - \hat{\ell}^{(i)}(\lambda), 0 \right\}$$

- ▶ $\ell_{\min}^{(i)}$ - Best value observed on D_i .
- ▶ $\hat{\ell}^{(i)}$ - Surrogate for D_i .
- ▶ w_i chosen as in TST.

Martin Wistuba, Nicolas Schilling, and Lars Schmidt-Thieme. “Scalable Gaussian process-based transfer surrogates for hyperparameter optimization”. In: *Mach. Learn.* 107.1 (2018), pp. 43–78

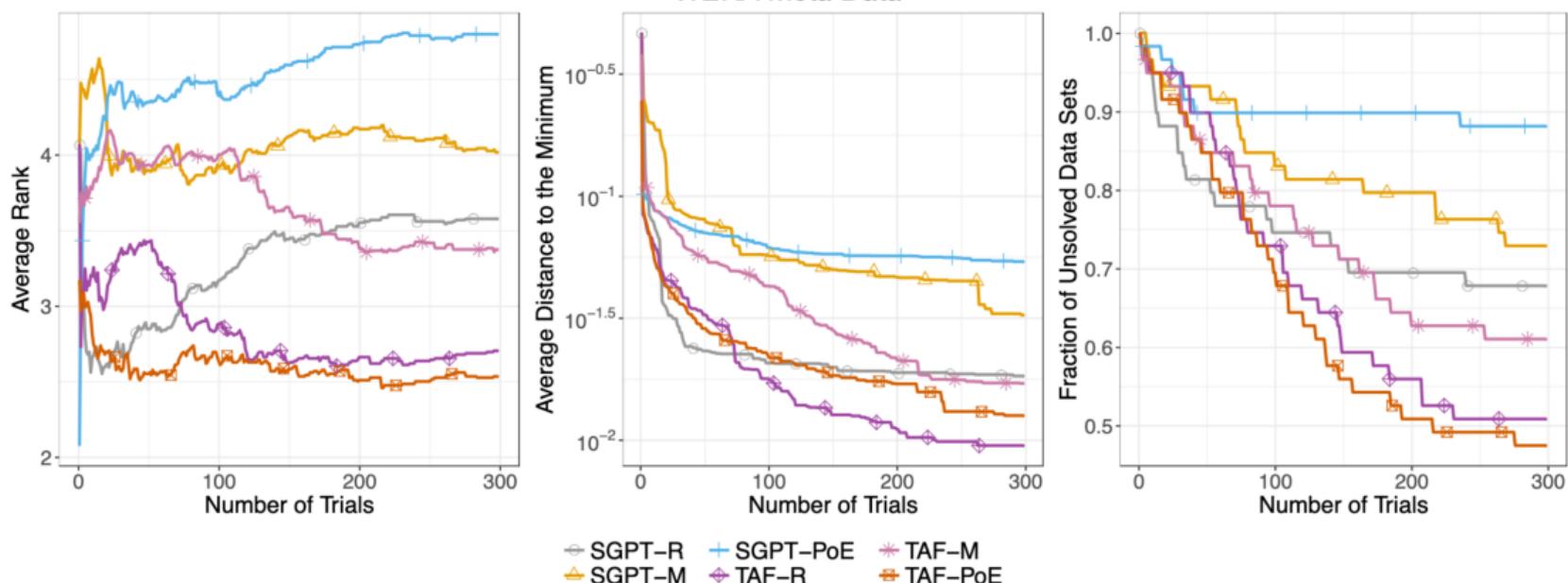
Transfer Acquisition Function - Effects

$$a(\lambda) = \frac{w_{M+1}E[I_{M+1}(\lambda)] + \sum_{i=1}^M w_i I_i(\lambda)}{\sum_{i=1}^{M+1} w_i}$$

Effects

- ▶ Different scales between datasets are no longer a problem.
- ▶ Diminishing effect of other datasets over time. Avoids problems with negative transfer.
- ▶ Early phase: High uncertainty on $\ell^{(M+1)}$, search mostly guided by other datasets.
- ▶ Late phase: No further improvements on other datasets, converges to EI.

TAF - Empirical Results



Few-Shot Acquisition Function

FSAF combines meta-learning and Deep Q-Learning to learn an acquisition function:

- ▶ State representation: $(\mu(\lambda), \sigma(\lambda), \ell^{\text{best}}, t/T)$
- ▶ Tackle overfitting via Bayesian DQL:

$$\min_{q(\theta)} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim q(\theta)} [C(\theta)] + \alpha D_{\text{KL}}(q \| q_0) \right\}$$

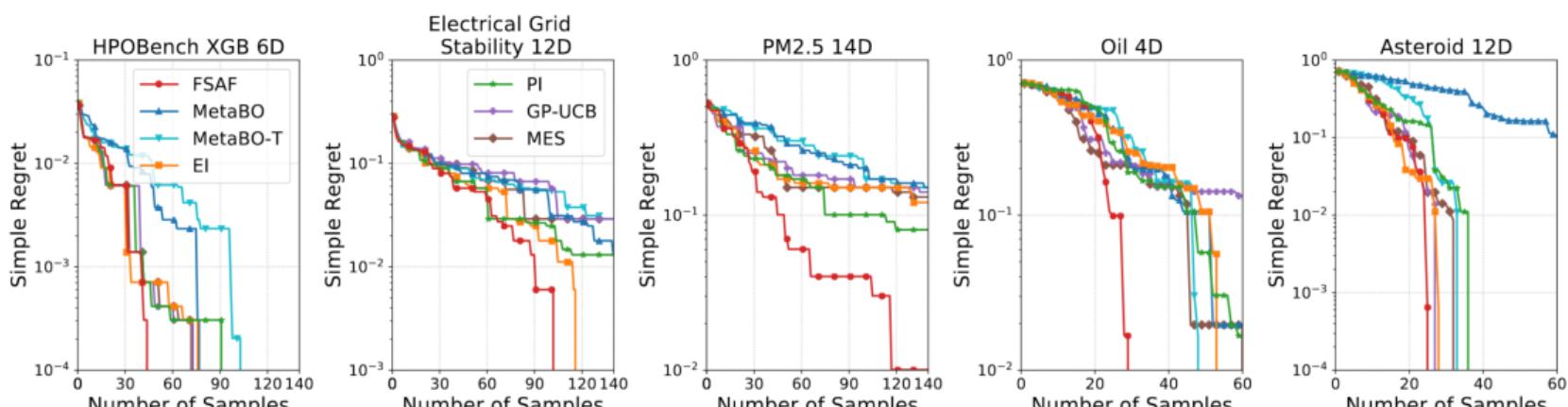
- ▶ Use a demo policy (EI) as prior

$$q_0(\theta) \propto \exp(\delta(\pi_\theta, \pi_D))$$

- ▶ Bayesian MAML loss as meta-loss

Bing-Jing Hsieh, Ping-Chun Hsieh, and Xi Liu. “Reinforced Few-Shot Acquisition Function Learning for Bayesian Optimization”. In: *NeurIPS*. 2021, pp. 7718–7731

FSAF - Empirical Results

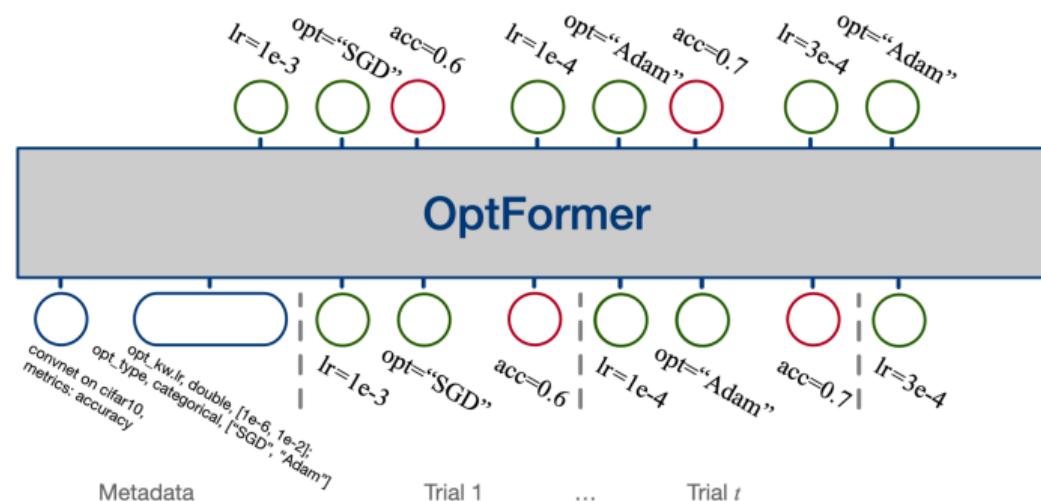


One task is used for few-shot adaptation, remaining serve for testing purposes.

OptFormer

OptFormer uses a transformer architecture to learn across search spaces, and is both a surrogate model and acquisition function at the same time.

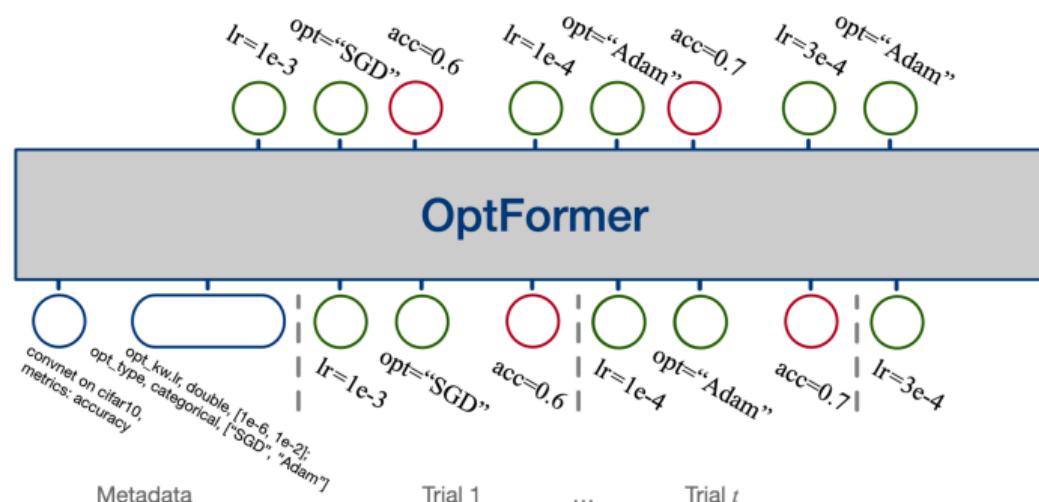
- Metadata: all information related to the task such as objective, search space, algorithm.
- At inference time: next token prediction.



Yutian Chen et al. "Towards Learning Universal Hyperparameter Optimizers with Transformers". In: NeurIPS. 2022

OptFormer - Training

- ▶ Optformer learns from data that was created by other optimization policies π_i .
- ▶ Objective: Learn a policy π_{prior} that simply clones the behavior of other optimizers.
- ▶ Auxiliary task: Predict the hyperparameter response.



OptFormer - Beyond Imitation

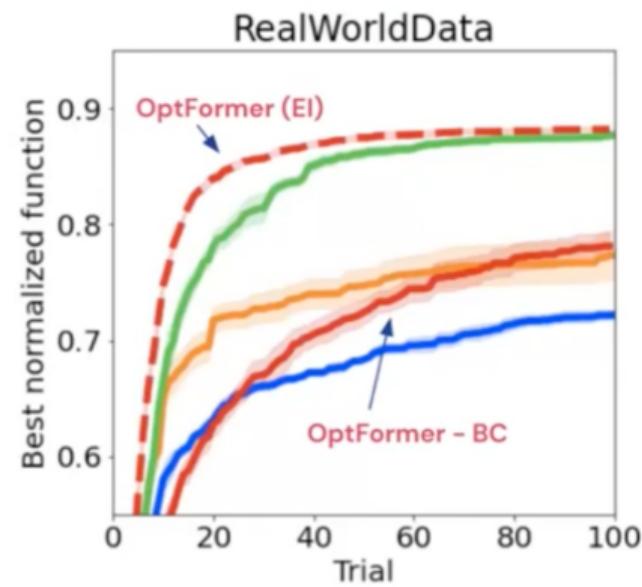
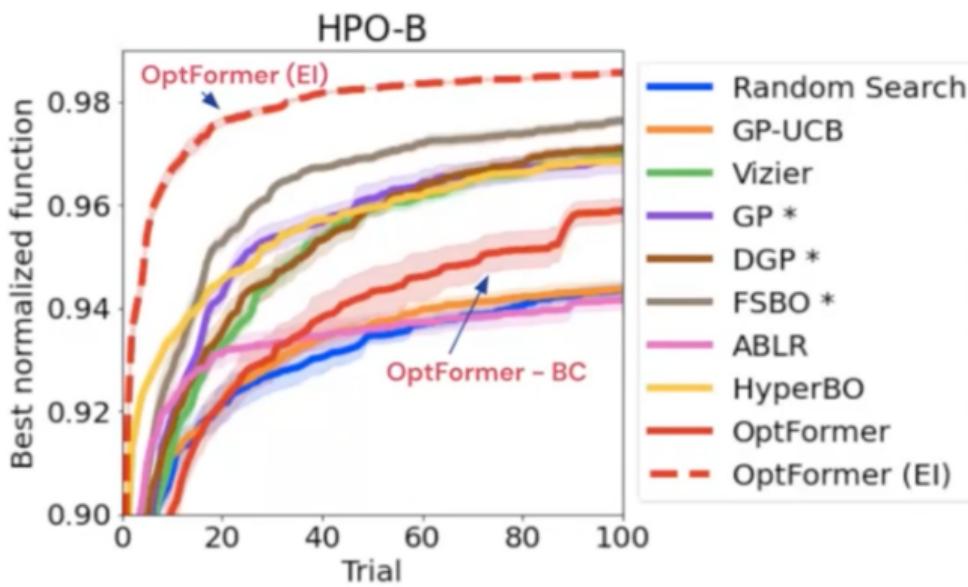
- ▶ OptFormer: Prior policy
 - ▶ Sample from the prior policy π_{prior} .
- ▶ OptFormer + Acquisition Function
 - ▶ Sample multiple candidates from the prior policy $\lambda^{(i)} \sim \pi_{\text{prior}}$.
 - ▶ Predict their performance with the OptFormer surrogate model.
 - ▶ Evaluate the candidate with highest measured utility according to EI.

OptFormer - Imitation Performance



Changing the algorithm in the metadata allows to imitate different optimizers.

OptFormer - Results



π_{prior} allows for successfully pruning the candidate space.

Outline

1. Introduction
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6. Conclusion

Conclusion

- ▶ Introduction to (Transfer) HPO
 - ▶ Flavors of HPO (black-box, gray-box, white-box)
 - ▶ Motivation for transferring knowledge in HPO
 - ▶ Meta-Features
 - ▶ Evaluation Metrics
- ▶ Overview over Transfer Methods
 - ▶ Initialization
 - ▶ Surrogate Models
 - ▶ Acquisition Functions

Thank you for your attention.

Questions? Comments?

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