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Meta-uczenie z analizą profilu

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What is meta-learning?

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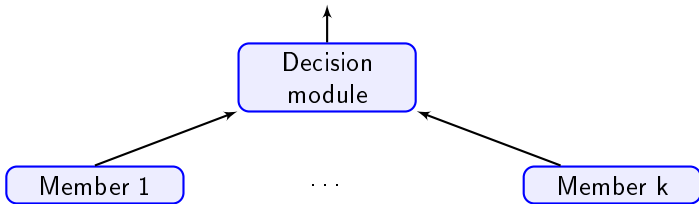
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- ▶ Generally, **meta-learning** encompasses all efforts to **learn how to learn** including gathering **meta-knowledge** and using meta-knowledge in further learning.
- ▶ **Meta-knowledge** is knowledge about learning processes, about influence of machine parameters on final results, etc.

During last two decades, the term **meta-learning** has been used in many different contexts:

- ▶ building **committees** of decision models,
- ▶ building **regression models** predicting machine accuracy,
- ▶ building **algorithms rankings** for given datasets,
- ▶ **searching through spaces** of learning machines parameters augmented by meta-knowledge and gathering new meta-knowledge.



- ▶ Simple committees **do not learn at meta-level**: e.g. simple majority voting.
- ▶ Some “intelligent” decision modules perform meta-analysis.
 - **Bagging, arcing, boosting** — perform some meta-analysis to build more stable decision makers (Dietterich 1997) and are very popular, but this is not exactly what we would name “meta-learning”.
 - **Stacking** — the decision module is a meta-level learner.
 - Many advanced, heterogeneous, **undemocratic** committees have been published.



Stacking

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- ▶ **Learning machines are trained on results** of a group of models.
- ▶ Stolfo et al (1997), Prodromidis and Chan (2000) — **JAM** (Java Agents for Meta-learning) — a parallel, distributed system for scalable computing.
- ▶ Todorovski and Dzeroski (2003) — **Meta Decision Trees** — properly adapted C4.5 decision trees determine which model to use.
- ▶ NOEMON — Kalousis and Theoharis (1999), Kalousis and Hilario (2000) — also called stacking a meta-learning.



Undemocratic committees

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Meta-analysis may lead to estimation of the **areas and degrees of competence** of each base learner to provide more reasonable decision of the decision module.

- ▶ Chan and Stolfo (1993, 1996):
 - Meta-learning by **arbitration** and **combining**.
 - **Arbiters**: binary tree of arbiters (members organized in pairs, arbiter for each pair, arbiters in pairs, and so on),
 - **Combiners**: a sort of stacking.
 - **Combiners compute** a prediction that may be entirely different from any proposed by base models, whereas **arbiters choose** one of the predictions of the base models.
- ▶ Duch and Itert (2003) define **incompetence functions** that describes member (in)competence in particular points of the data space.
- ▶ Jankowski and Grąbczewski (2005) reflect **global and local** competence in final ensemble decisions.



Meta-level regression

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- ▶ Regression methods **predict accuracies** of different learning machines on the basis of dataset descriptions.
- ▶ Köpf et al (2000), Bensusan and Kalousis (2001):
 - Input: **dataset description** as a series of values derived from information theory and statistics.
 - Output: **accuracy** of the model (usually classifier).
- ▶ **Ranking** learning machines:
 - One regression model for each algorithm to rank.
 - Machines are **ranked** in the decreasing order of predicted accuracy.

- ▶ The most popular approach initiated by (probably largest so far) meta-learning project **MetaL** (1998-2002).
- ▶ Rankings learned from **simple descriptions** of data.

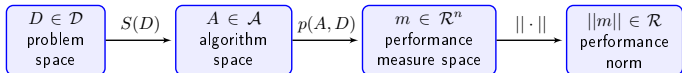


- ▶ **Meta-attributes** are basic data characteristics: number of instances, number of features, types of features (continuous or discrete, how many of which), data statistics etc.
- ▶ **Rankings** are generated by meta-learners:
 - **for each pair of algorithms** to be ranked, a classification algorithm is trained on two-class datasets describing wins and losses of the algorithms on some collection of datasets,
 - decisions of **meta-classifiers are combined** to build final ranking.

Algorithm selection problem

Algorithm selection problem (ASP)

- ▶ May be regarded as **equivalent** to building algorithm rankings.
- ▶ ASP was addressed already by Rice (1974, 1976):



- ▶ Most often, it gets reduced to the problem of assigning optimal algorithm to a **vector of features** describing data, which is quite **restrictive**.



No Free Lunch theorems

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No free lunch theorems, in this context, may be expressed as:

Each single learning algorithm tested on all possible datasets will be, on average, as accurate as random choice.

So does building learning machines make any sense?

- ▶ Yes, because **all possible datasets** is what makes NFL **provable but useless!**
- ▶ In the context of training and test, “all possible” means also those, where training and test come from completely different distributions, are **completely unrelated**.
- ▶ We expect training data **representative** for the population and NFL does not care about representativeness.
- ▶ **Inductive bias** of algorithms is not an explanation.

Conclusion: let's **not pay much attention** to NFL!



Landmarking

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- ▶ Pfahringer et al (2000)– the idea of **landmarking**: using meta-features measuring the **performance of some simple and efficient** learning algorithms (**landmarkers**).

- **linear discriminant** learner,
- **naive bayes** learner,
- **C5.0 tree** learner.

Meta-learners used:

- C5.0 trees and rules,
- boosted C5.0,
- RIPPER,
- LTREE,
- linear discriminant,
- naive bayes,
- nearest neighbor.



Landmarking continued

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Fürnkranz and Petrak (2001):

- ▶ **Relative landmarking** – meta-attributes describe relations between results instead of accuracies:
 - **Ranks** of landmarks,
 - **Order** of landmarks (inverse of ranks),
 - **Pairwise** comparisons between accuracies of landmarks (+1, -1, ?),
 - Pairwise accuracies **ratios** (continuous).
- ▶ **Subsampling** – original datasets reduced to facilitate landmarking by algorithms of larger computational complexity.

Soares et al (2001):

- ▶ Relative landmarking and subsampling combined.
- ▶ **Adjusted ratio of ratios (ARR) index** — a **combination of accuracy and time** to assess relative performance:

$$ARR_{i,j}^d = \frac{\frac{A_i^d}{A_j^d}}{1 + \log\left(\frac{T_i^d}{T_j^d}\right) * X}$$

A_i^d and T_i^d are accuracy and time of i 'th landmarker on data d , X is a parameter: „the amount of accuracy we are willing to trade for 10-times speed-up”.

- ▶ When $n > 2$ algorithms are involved, they calculate **relative landmark**:

$$rl_i^d = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i} ARR_{i,j}^d}{n - 1}$$



Still landmarking. . .

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Brazdil and Soares (2000), Brazdil et al (2003):

- ▶ more **advanced statistical measures** of datasets (including histogram analysis and information theory based indices) as meta-attributes,
- ▶ **k nearest neighbor (kNN)** algorithm choses similar datasets; ranking created from **results** obtained by ranked algorithms on the nearest neighbors,
- ▶ methods of **combining results** to create rankings:
 - **ARR** – adjusted ratio of ratios,
 - **counting statistically significant differences** in results: **average ranks (AR)** and **significant wins (SW)**.
 - ranking methods estimated by **comparison to the ideal ranking**
 - Spearman's rank correlation coefficient,
 - Friedman's significance test,
 - Dunn's multiple comparison technique.



Other landmarking related approaches

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- ▶ DecT by Peng et al (2002):
 - Data characteristics derived from the **structure of C5.0 decision trees** built on the data.
 - Like in other approaches:
 - kNN to select similar datasets,
 - rankings by ARR,
 - Spearman's correlation coefficient to estimate rankings.
- ▶ Bensusan et al (2000):
 - Landmarking and decision trees techniques combined.
 - **Typed higher-order inductive learning** directly from decision trees instead of trees characteristics.
- ▶ Todorovski et al (2002):
 - Meta-data obtained from statistics, information theory and landmarking.
 - **Predictive Clustering Trees** – multi-split decision trees
 - minimization of intra-clusters variance and maximization of inter-clusters variance, clusters contain data with similar relative performance of algorithms,
 - ranks instead of accuracies – ranking trees.



Rankings of algorithms – general remarks

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- ▶ Very **naive approach**: simple data transformation may completely change the ranking; simple descriptions are not likely to contain information about successful methods.
- ▶ Resembles common approach to split data analysis process into **data preprocessing** stage and **final learning**.
- ▶ We are not interested in raw rankings, but in **complex machine combinations** that model the data as accurately as possible.
- ▶ Even very accurate rankings **do not give hints about data transformations** that could improve the results.
- ▶ No human expert would use such technique to select most promising learning algorithms – **validation required**.
- ▶ Landmarking goes in a right direction, but is **passive** (does not adapt on-line).
- ▶ Ranking quality measures — **the top is more important** than the bottom.



Meta-learning as an advanced search process

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- ▶ **Fundamental aim** of meta-learning is to be more successful in object-level (base-level) learning.
- ▶ **What do human experts do** to obtain optimal model for given data?
 - **search** for solutions by **testing** subsequent candidates,
 - test candidates not at random but **after selection and in order** based on some meta-knowledge,
 - **gain new meta-knowledge** (general and specific to the task being solved) while learning.
- ▶ Grąbczewski and Jankowski (2007, 2011): **Automated meta-learning** should mimic behavior of human experts. Therefore, in our approach, we:
 - **generate candidate machine configurations** according to meta-knowledge (initially from human experts),
 - **order** candidates with special **complexity measure**,
 - **test candidates** to create a ranking,
 - **gather new** meta-knowledge and **refine** human experts' meta-knowledge to successfully drive the search process.^{17 / 42}



Ranking-based meta search algorithm

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Input: A ranking \mathcal{C} of machine configurations, a validation scenario (VS), a time deadline.

Output: Machine configuration ranking.

The algorithm:

- 1 $C_R \leftarrow \emptyset$
- 2 $step \leftarrow 0$
- 3 While the time deadline is not exceeded:
 - a $step \leftarrow step + 1$
 - b $c \leftarrow \mathcal{C}[step]$
 - c $r \leftarrow VS(c)$ (perform VS for c and get the result r)
 - d Add (c, r) to C_R
- 4 Return the configurations from C_R in the order of decreasing results



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- ▶ Computationally complex ranking algorithms (ARR with RL, SRR or SW) not eligible for large numbers of machine configurations.
- ▶ **Average test accuracy:**

$$AA(c) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Acc_c(i). \quad (1)$$

- ▶ **Average difference** with the best method, in the units of standard deviations of the best method:

$$AD(c) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Acc_c(i) - Acc_{Best(i)}(i)}{\sigma_{Best(i)}(i)}. \quad (2)$$



Rankings II

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- ▶ **Average ranks:**

$$AR(c) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Rank(c, i), \quad (3)$$

- ▶ **Average p-value:**

$$AP(c) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p(c, i). \quad (4)$$

- ▶ Weighting or nearest neighbors methods may be used to select “similar” datasets before averaging indices.



The idea of profiles

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- ▶ The problems of handling **many machine configurations of similar complexity** — tiny or no difference in time and memory consumption, but significant difference in accuracy.
- ▶ **Complexity estimates** would be equally successful as random guess in this case.
- ▶ The idea: **relative differences** between the results obtained by different machines may point the directions.
- ▶ **Adaptive (or active) relative landmarking** — any machine can be a landmarker.
- ▶ **Profiles** — the results of arbitrary selection of learning machines
- ▶ Profiles **can change in time**, when the feedback shows that the current profile predictions are inaccurate.
- ▶ **Active search** process.



PBML algorithm I

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- ▶ **Search** within a set of candidate machine configurations \mathcal{C} .
- ▶ Machine **validation procedure** returns some information about the quality of the machine as an element of a set \mathcal{R} (with a defined order relation).
- ▶ The algorithm is based on **three collections**:
 - \mathcal{C}_R – a collection of pairs $(c, r) \in \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{R}$ of machine configurations c validated so far (in the search process) with the validation results r ,
 - $\mathcal{C}_P \subseteq \mathcal{C}_R$ – a collection of specially selected results (the profile),
 - \mathcal{C}_Q – a sequence of candidate configurations (the queue) ordered with respect to estimated qualities and step numbers at which they were added.



PBML algorithm II

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Input: A set \mathcal{C} of machine configurations,
a validation scenario (VS), a time deadline, a profile manager (PM).

- 1 $C_R \leftarrow \emptyset, C_Q \leftarrow \emptyset, step \leftarrow 0$
- 2 Initialize PM
- 3 While the time deadline is not exceeded:
 - If $step == 0$ or PM changed the profile since last time:
 - 1 $C_B \leftarrow$ new ranking for current profile
 - 2 For each $c \in C_B$, if c does not occur in C_R then add $(c, step + \frac{rank\ of\ c\ in\ C_B}{length(C_B)})$ to C_Q
 - If C_Q is empty then break the loop
 - Pop an item c with maximum rank from C_Q
 - $r \leftarrow VS(c)$ (perform VS for c and get the result r)
 - Add (c, r) to C_R
 - Adjust the profile by PM with (c, r)
 - $step \leftarrow step + 1$
- 4 Return configurations from C_R (ordered)



PBML algorithm III

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- ▶ **New ranking** is generated each time a **profile is changed**.
- ▶ To speed up, the queue is updated only if several configurations have been validated.
- ▶ **Queue order**—first the most recent ranking is considered.
- ▶ The algorithm is very general, **configurable**:
 - machine configuration space,
 - validation scenario (VS)—here CV-test and a query,
 - profile management (PM).



Profile management

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- ▶ The functionality of the **profile manager**
 - decides about the shape of the profile, that is **when and how the profile is modified**,
 - calculates **profile similarities** for ranking generation,
 - manages the **knowledge base**.
- ▶ Example profile manager **parameters**:
 - the number of configuration–result pairs to keep in the profile,
 - the strategy of determining the configurations to remove from the profile, when new configuration is provided and the profile has already reached its destination size.
- ▶ Needed research:
 - What **size of the profile** is optimal?
 - Which **configurations** should be kept?
 - How to measure **profile similarity**?



Experiments — the knowledge base

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- ▶ To test the PBML framework, a **nontrivial knowledge base** had to be available.
- ▶ Results from another research task on DT CV Committees (Grąbczewski, 2013).
- ▶ 21 UCI datasets.
- ▶ **13660** machine configurations:
 - 13560 different settings of cross-validation committees.
 - 100 parameter settings of single DT induction methods
- ▶ 10×10 -fold CV results for all configurations.



Experiments datasets

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Dataset	classes	instances	features	ordered f.
appendicitis	2	106	7	7
Australian credit	2	690	14	6
breast cancer (Wisconsin)	2	699	9	9
flag	8	194	28	10
glass	6	214	9	9
heart	2	303	13	13
image	7	2310	19	19
ionosphere (trn+tst)	2	351	34	34
iris	3	150	4	4
kr-vs-kp	2	3196	36	0
Ljubljana breast cancer	2	286	9	1
letter recognition	26	20000	16	16
Pima indians diabetes	2	768	8	8
sonar	2	208	60	60
soybean large	19	307	35	0
splice	3	3190	60	0
thyroid (trn+tst)	3	7200	21	6
vote	2	435	16	0
vowel	6	871	3	3
waveform	3	5000	21	21
wine	3	178	13	13



Experiments — learning machines

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13560 DT CV Committees configurations

- ▶ 4 **DT induction algorithms** (Gini index, information gain, QUEST, SSV),
- ▶ **committee size** in the range from 1 to 10 (10-fold CV-based validation),
- ▶ 6 **DT validation methods**: Reduced Error Pruning (REP), cost-complexity (CC), degree-based pruning, OPTimal pruning, Minimum Error Pruning 2 and Depth Impurity,
- ▶ respecting **standard error**: 0SE, .5SE, 1SE, and estimated from sample .5SE and 1SE,
- ▶ **training error factor**: 0, 0.5, 1,
- ▶ **common or separate** parameter optimization,
- ▶ **decision making** by: proportions, Laplace correction, m-estimates.



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100 parameter settings of **single DT** induction methods

- ▶ 4 **DT induction algorithms** (Gini index, information gain, QUEST, SSV),
- ▶ 6 **DT validation** methods: Reduced Error Pruning (REP), cost-complexity (CC), degree-based pruning, OPTimal pruning, Minimum Error Pruning 2 and Depth Impurity,
- ▶ Respecting **standard error**: 0SE, .5SE, 1SE, and estimated from sample .5SE and 1SE,



Experiments — PBML configuration

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- ▶ Profiles of **variable size** (full profiles, up to 100 configurations).
- ▶ Profiles **updated** after each 5 configurations.
- ▶ Profile **similarity** measure — Pearson linear correlation coefficient (truncated to 0 if negative)
- ▶ **First ranking** on the basis of average p-values (4).
- ▶ **Weighted p-values**, when profile with at least 2 results:

$$WPV(c) \leftarrow \sum_{D \in KB} \text{Max}(0, CC(P, D)) * PV(c, D), \quad (5)$$

where

- $D \in KB$ means “dataset D in the knowledge base”,
- $CC(P, D)$ is the Pearson linear correlation coefficient,
- $PV(c, D)$ is the p-value obtained in paired t-test.



Experiment 1 — PBML vs passive rankings

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- ▶ PBML algorithm **compared** with 5 ranking methods:
 - completely random,
 - average accuracy (1),
 - average accuracy difference in st. deviations (2),
 - average ranks (3),
 - average p-values (4).
- ▶ **Leave-one-out** procedure for the 21 datasets.
- ▶ The most important aspect: what **maximum validation accuracy** can be obtained in given time.
- ▶ **Time unit** \approx the number of configurations validated so far.
- ▶ Rankings of 100 configurations **visualized** as:
 - maximum accuracy till given time,
 - average of 3 maximum accuracies till given time,
 - average accuracy difference,
 - average mean accuracy till given time.



Experiment 1 results |

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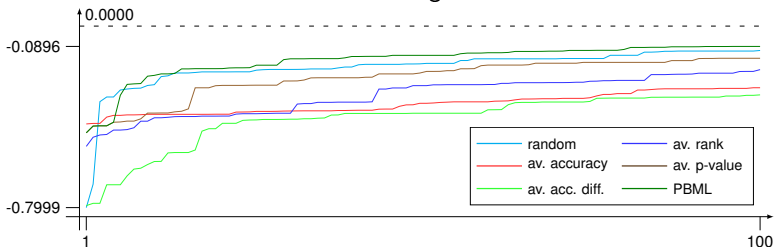
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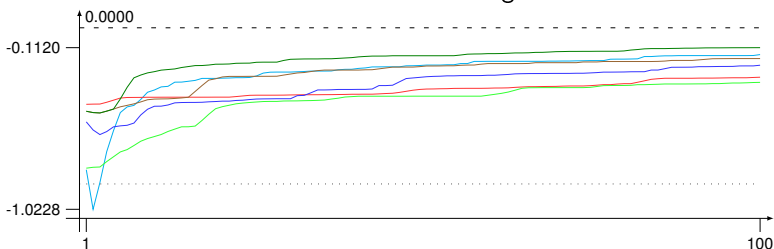
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Maxima found till given time



Means of 3 maximal results till given time



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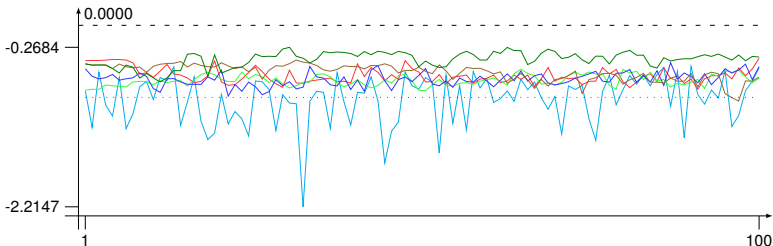
Datasets
Machines

Results

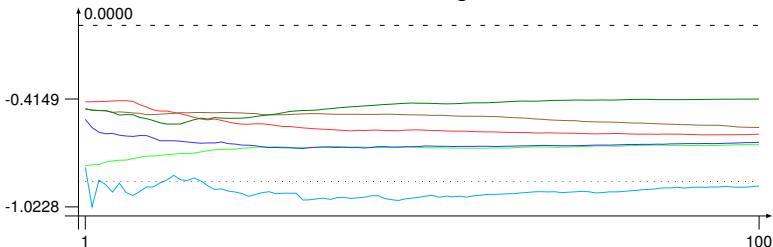
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Accuracy difference



Means of all results till given time





Experiment 2 — passive vs kNN vs active

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- ▶ Passive rankings can be significantly improved by **averaging over NNs**.
 - kNN analysis by **landmarking** with selected machines of the examined population.
 - 5NN with Euclidean distance used here.
- ▶ As before, 4 ranking measures:
 - average accuracy (1),
 - average accuracy difference in st. deviations (2),
 - average ranks (3),
 - average p-values (4).
- ▶ PBML framework also suitable for passive methods with kNN.
- ▶ **Three versions** of each ranking method:
 - passive,
 - passive with kNN selection,
 - active.



Experiment 2 results I

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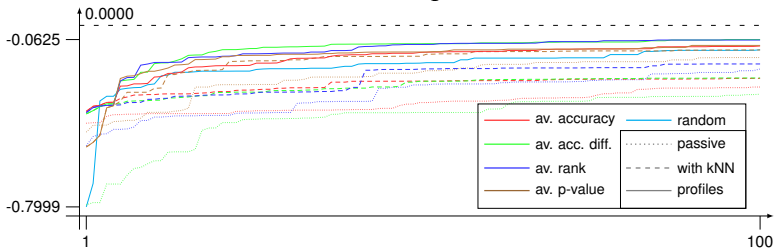
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Results

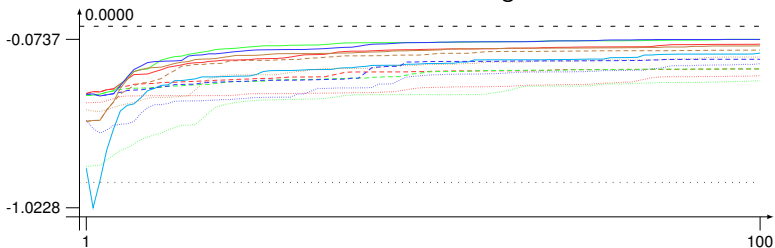
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Maxima found till given time



Means of 3 maximal results till given time



Experiment 2 results II

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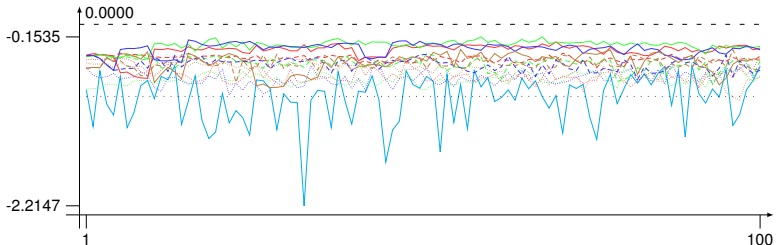
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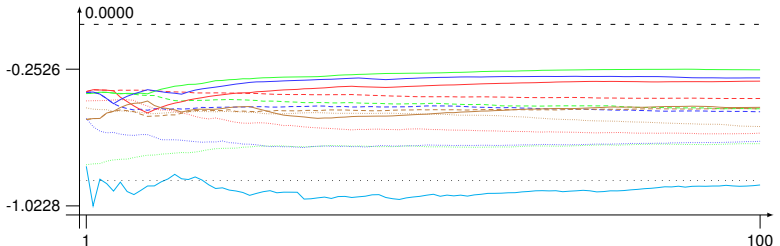
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References

Accuracy difference



Means of all results till given time





Conclusions and further research

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- ▶ PBML is an **open framework**, that facilitates easy implementation of many meta-learning algorithms.
- ▶ Different kinds of problems solved with appropriate **validation scenario** and **profile manager**.
- ▶ Active management of **learning results profiles** leads to more adequately adapted meta-learning algorithms.
- ▶ **Further research on PBML:**
 - intelligent methods for profile management,
 - knowledge base properties analysis for most eligible form of profiles for meta-learning.
- ▶ **Profile management** problems
 - profiles diversity,
 - continuous profile control,
 - adaptive methods of dataset similarity measurement,
 - most suitable ranking generation.
- ▶ Efficient specialized PBMLs as modules of more general meta-search processes (Jankowski and Grąbczewski, 2011)



Future of meta-learning

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- ▶ **Transfer of knowledge** between learning processes
 - by means of **ontologies** (knowledge repositories),
 - **data-independent** representation,
- ▶ **Knowledge verbalization**
 - **rules** describing results relations,
 - extraction of informative **features**,
- ▶ **Ontologies**
 - more experiments **results**,
 - **representation** of knowledge,
 - **queries/interfaces** for knowledge extraction.



Dziękuję!

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Serdecznie dziękuję za uwagę!



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