Estimating Density Ratio: Learning Changes of Patterns Change Detection, Graphical Models, and Transfer Learning

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Probabilistic Transfer Learning

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## The Institute of Statistical Mathematics (ISM), Japan



- Japan's statistical research organization.
- Hirotugu Akaike was a former researcher and director at ISM.

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Probabilistic Transfer Learning

## Data is Big and Blurry



Data is so big, so we look for compressive patterns.



Data involving uncertainty, we prefer statistical patterns .

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# Data Changes

Smart technologies provide us ways of **updating information**.

People use mobiles to send tweets, and trend topics.

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- Challenging our traditional view of statistical learning.
- Would you learn a pattern today knowing it is going to change tomorrow?
  - Particularly, when learning a pattern is expensive (Deep Net?)!
- Dataset shift problem [Quionero-Candela et al., 2009].

## Changes between Patterns

- Knowing the change itself can be helpful (Part I and II).
  - Change Detection, Outlier Detection, etc.
- The changes of patterns are also relative patterns.
- Use it to make adjustment on our old pattern (Part III).

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### Density Ratio, Measuring the Changes of Patterns

- Given a set of samples,  $\mathcal{D}_p := \{ \boldsymbol{x}_p^{(i)} \}_{i=1}^{n_p} \sim P$
- Density  $p(\mathbf{x})$  describes the static pattern of  $\mathcal{D}_p$
- Given another set of samples,  $\mathcal{D}_q := \{m{x}_q^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{n_q} \sim Q$
- Density ratio  $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$  describes the **changes** between datasets.

Ratio is directional!

## Models of Density Ratio

#### A density model

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_p) = \frac{1}{Z(\boldsymbol{\theta}_p)} \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}_p^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}))$$

Taking the ratio:

$$\frac{p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta}_p)}{q(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta}_q)} \propto \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}_p^{\top}\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}))}{\exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}_q^{\top}\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}))} = \exp((\boldsymbol{\theta}_p - \boldsymbol{\theta}_q)^{\top}\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}))$$

Letting  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_p - \boldsymbol{\theta}_q$ 

$$g(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta}) := \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta}_p)}{q(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta}_q)} = \frac{1}{N(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}))$$

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#### Models of Density Ratio

Density ratio needs to be normalized.

• 
$$\int q(\mathbf{x})g(\mathbf{x};\boldsymbol{\theta})\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = 1.$$

- Let  $N(\theta) = \int q(\mathbf{x}) \exp(\theta^{\top} f(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x}$  suffices.
  - can be approximated using samples:

$$\hat{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) := rac{1}{n_q} \sum_{j=1}^{n_q} \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(j)})\right)$$

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• We denote  $\hat{g}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} f(\mathbf{x}))}{\hat{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}$ .

#### Models of Density Ratio

- A few variations are available:
- use linear model instead of log-linear model:

$$g(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \frac{1}{N(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}), N(\boldsymbol{\theta}) := \int q(\mathbf{x}) \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}) \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x}.$$

or drop out the normalization term completely

$$g(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}),$$

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and use other methods to enforce the normalization.

#### Estimating the Density Ratio

- Need to measure the difference between the true quantity <sup>p</sup>/<sub>q</sub> and the estimated model g<sub>θ</sub>.
- No natural distances apply here.
- There are difference measures for distributions though, such as Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence [Kullback and Leibler, 1951]:

$$\mathrm{KL}\left[p\|q\right] = \int p(x)\log\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}dx$$

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### Estimating the Density Ratio

Idea: we can reconstruct a "density model" from density ratio model:

$$p_{\boldsymbol{ heta}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = q(\boldsymbol{x})g(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{ heta})$$

and minimize the difference between  $p(\mathbf{x})$  and  $p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ .

Won't be able to compute this "density" model for a specific x.

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Not interested in modelling the individual densities anyway.

Kullback-Leibler Importance Estimation Procedure (KLIEP)

Criterion [Sugiyama et al., 2008a]

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \operatorname{KL}\left[\boldsymbol{\rho} \| \boldsymbol{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\right],$$

where

$$\operatorname{KL}[p\|p_{\theta}] = \int p(\boldsymbol{x}) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x})} d\boldsymbol{x} = -\int p(\boldsymbol{x}) \log g(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + C,$$

where C is some constant.

We can approximate the above criterion using sample average:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \frac{1}{n_p} \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \log g(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

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# Kullback-Leibler Importance Estimation Procedure (KLIEP)

Plug in  $g(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ :

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{1}{n_p} \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}) - \log N(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$\approx \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{1}{n_p} \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}) - \log \hat{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$\approx \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{n_p} \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}) - \log \frac{1}{n_q} \sum_{j=1}^{n_q} \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}^\top \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(j)}))}_{\ell_{\mathrm{KLIEP}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}$$

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Concave, unconstrained, objective.

#### A Few Simplification...

Let's denote

$$\mathbb{E}_p[f(x)] := \int p(x)f(x) \mathrm{d}x$$

as the population expectation and

$$\widehat{\mathbb{E}}_p[f(x)] := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x^{(i)})$$

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as empirical expectation of f(x) given samples  $\{\mathbf{x}^i\}_{i=1}^n \sim P$ .

Kullback-Leibler Importance Estimation Procedure (KLIEP)

## KLIEP (again)

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \ell_{\mathrm{KLIEP}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{\boldsymbol{\rho}}[\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})] - \log \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{\boldsymbol{q}} \left[ \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right) \right],$$
and

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$$abla_{m{ heta}}\ell_{ ext{KLIEP}}(m{ heta}) = \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{p}\left[m{f}(m{x})
ight] - \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{q}\left[\hat{g}(m{x};m{ heta})m{f}(m{x})
ight].$$

### Variations of Density Ratio Estimators

- Can we measure the difference between true density ratio and model density?
- How about least square  $(\ell^2)$  distance?

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \int \| \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{x})} - g(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \|^2 \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}$$

Won't do, no way to compute that integral.

 However, with a little change (called uLSIF [Kanamori et al., 2009])...

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \int q(\boldsymbol{x}) \| \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{x})} - g(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \|^2 d\boldsymbol{x}$$
$$= \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \int q(\boldsymbol{x}) g(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})^2 - 2p(\boldsymbol{x}) g(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{x} + C$$

Then, sample average...

## Variations of Density Ratio Estimators

- $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$  can go to infinity!
  - which is a bad news for the estimation.
  - a few outliers may trick the estimator to think two distributions are dramatically different.
- Bound the density ratio function! [Yamada et al., 2013]

$$rac{p(x)}{lpha p(x)+(1-lpha)q(x)} < rac{1}{lpha}, lpha \in (0,1).$$

Estimate the ratio between p and an  $\alpha$ -mixture of p and q (called RuLSIF).



## Which One to Use?

- There is no definitive answer, and it's all up to the application.
- Computational efficiency:
  - KLIEP solves a non-linear optimization, and uLSIF and RuLSIF has analytical solutions.

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- Computing KLIEP gradient requires  $\mathcal{O}(max(n_p, n_q)m)$ .
- Computing uLSIF solution requires  $\mathcal{O}(max(n_q, m)m^2)$ .
- ▶ *m* is the number of dimensions of the parameter vector.
- Outlier affect KLIEP more than least square based methods.
  - "log" term is a bit troublesome.
  - "log  $g \to -\infty$ " if  $g \to 0$ .

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# Change-point Detection [Liu et al., 2013]

#### Well-log Data



- Objective: Detecting abrupt changes lying among time-series data
- Change-point score: Plausibility of changes that have happened

# Problem Formulation [Kawahara et al., 2007, Liu et al., 2013]

- Construct samples by using sliding window.
- Set an imaginary bar in the middle divides samples into two groups.
- Test divergence between two groups of samples.



#### From Ratio to Divergence

How do we convert ratio to divergence?

$$D(p||q) = \int q(x) f\left(\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}\right) \mathrm{d}x$$

where f is a convex function, and f(1) = 0.

- $f(t) = t \log t$ , we get KL divergence.
- $f(t) = (t-1)^2$ , we get Pearson divergence.

Divergence is not symmetric, we symmetrize it by

$$D(p\|q) + D(q\|p)$$

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## From Ratio to Divergence

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{rPE}\left[\boldsymbol{p} \| \boldsymbol{q}\right] \\ \approx &- \frac{\alpha}{2n_p} \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \hat{g}^2(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \frac{1-\alpha}{2n_q} \sum_{i=1}^{n_q} \hat{g}^2(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{n_q} \sum_{j=1}^{n_p} \hat{g}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(j)}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) - \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

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- where  $\hat{g}$  is estimated from RuLSIF.
- You may mix them up, but they won't be optimal.

# Fun facts [Nguyen et al., 2010]

- Estimating density ratio using KLIEP is actually maximizing the lower-bound of Kullback-leibler divergence.
- Estimating density ratio using uLSIF is actually maximizing the lower-bound of Pearson divergence.
- Estimating density ratio using RuLSIF is actually maximizing the lower-bound of *Relative* Pearson divergence.

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Fenchel Duality

#### Toy Dataset





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## Toy Dataset



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#### Twitter Data Change Detection



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Probabilistic Transfer Learning

## Changes in Interactions



- It is interesting to know interactions in many applications.
- ► However, the interactions change over time.

# Changes in Graphical Models



Given two sets of data

$$\{\mathbf{x}_{p}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{n_{p}} \sim P, \{\mathbf{x}_{q}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{n_{q}} \sim Q$$

where P and Q are Markov Networks (MNs) with respect to undirected graphs G<sub>P</sub> and G<sub>Q</sub>.

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• We would like to know the changes from  $G_P$  to  $G_Q$ 

## Graphical Lasso [Friedman et al., 2008]

- One naive way is to learn two graphical models separately.
  - then take their differences.
- If you assume the density is Gaussian:

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{\Theta}_p) = \frac{\det(\mathbf{\Theta})^{1/2}}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{\Theta} \mathbf{x}\right)$$

• We can learn a **sparse** Gaussian MN:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\Theta}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\Theta}\|_1$$

The sparsity of Ô indicates the conditional independence between random variables.

## Fused Graphical Lasso [Zhang and Wang, 2010]

- Sparse changes does not necessarily come from sparse MNs
- A fancier way of learning changes is using the fused-lasso:

$$\begin{aligned} \{\hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{p}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{q}\} &= \\ \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{p}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{q}} - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{p}} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{p}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n_{q}} \log q(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{q}) + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{p} - \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{q}\| \end{aligned}$$

- However, (Fused-) Graphical Lasso cannot handle non-Gaussian graphical model well due to the intractable normalization term.
  - e.g., in brain EEG analysis, the correlation is usually non-linear.

A pairwise MN parametrization

Pairwise MN:

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_p) = \frac{1}{Z(\boldsymbol{\theta}_p)} \exp\left(\sum_{u \leq v} \boldsymbol{\theta}_{p_{u,v}}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(x_u, x_v)\right)$$
$$Z(\boldsymbol{\theta}_p) = \int \exp\left(\sum_{u \leq v} \boldsymbol{\theta}_{p_{u,v}}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(x_u, x_v)\right) d\mathbf{x}$$

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Computing Z(θ<sub>ρ</sub>) is hard!

### Ratio Comes to Rescue

Taking the ratio:

$$\frac{p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_p)}{q(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_q)} \propto \frac{\exp(\sum_{u \leq v} \boldsymbol{\theta}_{p_{u,v}}^\top \boldsymbol{f}(x_u, x_v))}{\exp(\sum_{u \leq v} \boldsymbol{\theta}_{q_{u,v}}^\top \boldsymbol{f}(x_u, x_v))} = \exp(\sum_{u \leq v} (\boldsymbol{\theta}_{p_{u,v}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{q_{u,v}})^\top \boldsymbol{f}(x_u, x_v))$$

Letting 
$$\theta = \theta_p - \theta_q$$
  

$$g(\mathbf{x}; \theta) := \frac{p(\mathbf{x}; \theta_p)}{q(\mathbf{x}; \theta_q)} = \frac{1}{N(\theta)} \exp(\sum_{u \le v} \theta_{u,v}^\top f(x_u, x_v)).$$

where

$$N(\theta) = \int q(\mathbf{x}) \exp\left(\sum_{u \le v} \theta_{u,v}^{\top} f(x_u, x_v)\right) d\mathbf{x}$$
$$\hat{N}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n_q} \sum_{j=1}^{n_q} \exp\left(\sum_{u \le v} \theta_{u,v}^{\top} f(x_u^{(j)}, x_v^{(j)})\right).$$

## Learning Sparse Change Directly

Since the parameter of density ratio reprents the difference between θ<sub>p</sub> and θ<sub>q</sub>, we may apply sparsity inducing penalty on θ.

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{-\sum_{i=1}^{n_p} \log \hat{g}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta})} + \lambda_{n_p} \sum_{u \leq v} \|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{u,v}\|_2$$

• By checking the sparsity pattern of subvector  $\theta_{u,v}$  we know whether the interactions between random variable  $X_u$  and  $X_v$ has changed or not.

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No problem if graphical model is not Gaussian.

Successful Change Detection Theorem [Liu et al., 2015]

Exists  $\theta^*$  such that  $p(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x}; \theta^*)q(\mathbf{x})$ .

Notations

Assumptions

∇<sup>2</sup><sub>θ</sub>ℓ(θ + δ), max<sub>t∈S∪S<sup>c</sup></sub> ∇<sub>θt</sub>∇<sup>2</sup><sub>θ</sub>ℓ(θ + δ) bounded in spectral norm.

• 
$$g(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - 1$$
 is sub-Gaussian.

## Successful Change Detection Theorem

#### Theorem

Suppose that Assumptions hold, as well as  $\min_{t \in S} \|\boldsymbol{\theta}_t^*\| \geq \frac{10}{\lambda_{\min}} \sqrt{d\lambda_{n_p}}$  are satisfied, where *d* is the number of changed edges defined as d = |S|, Suppose also

$$\frac{8(2-\alpha)}{\alpha}\sqrt{\frac{M_1\log\frac{m^2+m}{2}}{n_p}} \le \lambda_{n_p} \le \frac{4(2-\alpha)M_1}{\alpha}\min\left(\frac{\|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*\|}{\sqrt{b}},1\right),$$

where  $M_1 = \lambda_{max}b + 2$ ,  $n_q \ge M_2 n_p^2 g(m)$  and  $M_2$  is a positive constant. Then there exist some constants  $L_1$ ,  $K_1$ , and  $K_2$  such that if  $n_p \ge L_1 d^2 \log \frac{m^2 + m}{2}$ , with the probability at least

$$1 - \exp\left(-K_1\lambda_{n_p}^2 n_p\right) - 4\exp\left(-K_2 dn_q \lambda_{n_p}^4\right),$$

then the proposed method is consistent on learning changes between MNs.

# Twitter Dataset (BP Oil Spill)



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Twitter Dataset (m = 10, n = 84)



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Gene Dataset ( $m = 1835, n_p = n_q = 28$ )



FOSB gene is a member of the Fos family of transcription factors, regulating expressions of other genes.

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Probabilistic Transfer Learning

## The Transfer Learning

 Build a target classifier from limited samples of the target task

$$\mathcal{D}_p := \{(y, \boldsymbol{x}_p^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^n \sim P$$

 By making use of another set of samples from a similar source task

$$\mathcal{D}_q := \{(y, \boldsymbol{x}_q^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{n'} \sim Q$$

▶ n ≪ n′

► We only consider learning a conditional probability p(y|x) in this work.

## The Transfer Learning

 In recent years, people seem to prefer complicated features (e.g., DNNs) that are computationally expensive.

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The transfer may get unnecessarily complicated!

## Existing works

- Model Reuse: Parameters of predicting functions in similar tasks are close to each other.
   [Evgeniou and Pontil, 2004, Raina et al., 2006]
  - Solution: train two tasks simultaneously, and penalize the differences between parameters so they are not "too far away".
  - Problems: How close is close? Close in what metric?



A hierarchical model assumes parameters of similar tasks are generated from the same latent parameter.

### Existing works

- Sample Reuse: Part of the source task samples can contribute to the target tasks. [Dai et al., 2007, Sugiyama et al., 2008b]
  - Solution: Weight samples!
  - Problems: Does not make use of the model similarity.



Both approaches have a common issue: during the **transferring stage**, the predicting function of the target task must be trained using the all features, however complicated they are.

A Composite Approac [Liu and Fukumizu, ]

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = q(y|\mathbf{x}) rac{p(y|\mathbf{x})}{q(y|\mathbf{x})},$$

where  $\frac{p(y|\mathbf{x})}{q(y|\mathbf{x})}$  is called **posterior ratio** and  $q(y|\mathbf{x})$  is the source classifier.

- Idea: we can model and learn posterior ratio and source classifer separately!
- Hopefully, learning  $\frac{p(y|\mathbf{x})}{q(y|\mathbf{x})}$  is computationally cheap!
  - Intuitively, the posterior ratio is an incremental pattern, that "patches" the source task predictor.
- Denote g(y, x; θ) and q(y, x; θ<sub>q</sub>) as the model of the ratio and the source classifier respectively.

## A Composite Approach

- Naturally, we would like to minimize the KL-divergence between p(y|x) and g(y, x; θ)q(y, x; θ<sub>q</sub>).
- However, directly minimizing such divergence still leads to a joint optimization.

$$\sum_{y\in\{-1,1\}}g(y,\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta})q(y,x;\boldsymbol{\theta}_q)=1.$$

#### Transfer Learning Upper-bound

if  $\frac{p(y,\mathbf{x})}{q(y,\mathbf{x})} \leq C_{\max} < \infty$  and  $0 < q_{\theta} < 1$ , then the following inequality holds

$$\mathrm{KL}\left[p\|g_{\theta} \cdot q_{\theta_q}\right] \leq \mathrm{KL}\left[p\|g_{\theta}q\right] + C_{\max}\mathrm{KL}\left[q\|q_{\theta_q}\right] + C',$$

where C' is a constant that is irrelevant to  $\theta$  or  $\theta$ . Separately learning two models become possible!

#### Is Learning the Posterior Ratio Easier?

Suppose

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_q) \propto \exp\left(y \cdot \sum_{i=1}^m \theta_{q_i} h_i(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

The ratio becomes

$$\frac{p(y|\boldsymbol{x};\theta_p)}{q(y|\boldsymbol{x};\theta_q)} \propto \exp\left(y\sum_{i=1}^m (\theta_{p,i}-\theta_{q,i})h_i(\boldsymbol{x})\right),$$

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and  $(\theta_{p,i} - \theta_{q,i}) = 0$  if feature  $h_i$  does not contribute to the transfer!

#### Modelling Posterior Ratio

Thus, we write our posterior ratio model as

$$g(y, \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})} \exp\left(y \sum_{i \in S} \theta_i h_i(\mathbf{x})\right),$$

where  $S = \{i | \theta_{p,i} - \theta_{q,i} \neq 0\}$  and  $N(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$  is the normalization term defined as

$$N(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{ heta}) = \sum_{y \in \{-1,1\}} q(y|\boldsymbol{x}) \exp\left(y \sum_{i \in S} \theta_i h_i(\boldsymbol{x})\right).$$

We assume  $|S| \ll m$ , so we have lightened the burden of transferring by not considering the full feature set.

#### Modelling Posterior Ratio

Define

$$\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{x}) := [\boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{h}_{\boldsymbol{a}_1}(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{h}_{\boldsymbol{a}_2}(\boldsymbol{x}), \dots, \boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{h}_{\boldsymbol{a}_{m'}}(\boldsymbol{x})],$$

where  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_{m'} \in S$ .

$$N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x}_{p}^{(i)}) \approx \widehat{N}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{x}_{p}^{(i)}\right) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_{n'}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{p}^{(i)}, k\right)} \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}\left(\boldsymbol{y}_{q}^{(j)}, \boldsymbol{x}_{q}^{(j)}\right)\right),$$

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where  $\mathcal{N}_{n'}(\mathbf{x}_{p}^{(i)}, k) = \left\{ j \middle| \mathbf{x}_{q}^{(j)} \text{ is one of the } k \text{-NNs of } \mathbf{x}_{p}^{(i)} \right\}$ . Finally, plug  $\hat{g}(\mathbf{x}; \theta) := \exp(\theta^{\top} f(y, \mathbf{x})) / \hat{N}(\theta)$  into KLIEP procedure, and we are done!

#### Modelling Posterior Ratio



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## Consistency

Assumptions

- The support of  $p(\mathbf{x})$  and  $q(\mathbf{x})$  overlaps.
- ► The posterior model is bounded and is identifiable. The estimated parameter  $\hat{\theta}$  converges to the true parameter  $\theta^*$  if  $n \to \infty$ ,  $n' \to \infty$ ,  $k_{n'} / \log n' \to \infty$  and  $k_{n'} / n' \to 0$ .

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#### Experiments



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