Apprentissage séquentiel pour la classification de données complexes

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## Context

### State-of-the-art

- ML models are very good for some generic problems
  - Text Classification, Object Recognition, Speech Recognition

# Big Data

"Big Data" is not a quantiative problem that concerns power/parallelization, but mainly a qualitative problem: it changes **the nature** and **the way we access information** and encourages the development of new ML paradigms.



## Context

## Usual assumptions

- When computing  $f_{\theta}(x)$ , we consider that x is known
- x has a known topology
- x has a pre-computed representation (i.e  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ )
- ▶ When learning, we consider a known (acquired) training set.

Theses assumptions are not appropriated for dealing with actual systems  $\Rightarrow$ 

### New Needs

- Learning to deal with heterogeneous/complex data
- Learning to acquire data
- Learning to deal with operationnal constraints
- Decentralized Learning
- Never-Ending Learning

...

## Context

#### Datum

A datum  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is made up of features  $x_{i \in [0,n]}$ :

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \cdots, x_n)$$

#### Empirical Risk Minimization

Find 
$$f_{ heta^*}(\mathbf{x}) = y$$
 such that

$$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} [L(\theta)] = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} [\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x_i}), y_i)]$$

#### Remarks

- Classification procedure is *atomic* and same for each datum.
- ▶ What matters is the result, but not *how* it was obtained.

# Drawbacks of Atomic Classifiers

#### Feature Acquisition

- Entire datum must be available upfront.
- Cannot adapt feature choice to each datum.

### **Costly Features**

- Costs associated to features cannot be taken into account.
- Any trade-offs between cost and accuracy occur on a dataset level.



- Ask general questions to get context.
- Ask increasingly specific questions based on previous answers.
- During entire process, gauge cost-benefit trade-off for expensive or risky diagnostic procedures.

Two aspects:

- Adaptive information querying.
- Cost-benefit trade-offs.

This is a general procedure for domain experts when analyzing a problem.

## Outline

### Sequential Learning Models

- Models that learn to acquire information during inference
  - and that can deal with complex topologies
- ► Models able to handle operationnal constraints during inference

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#### Complex Data

A complex datum can be represented as a graph of content nodes

A sequence...

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...as a multi-relationnal graph

#### Complex Data

A complex datum can be represented as a graph of content nodes



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### Complex Data

#### A complex datum can be represented as a graph of content nodes





...as a multi-relationnal graph

An Image...

### Complex Data

A complex datum can be represented as a graph of content nodes



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# A Sequential Approach to Classification

### Sequential Classification

- Classification is modeled as a *sequential* process.
- Learning considers *how* the information is acquired.

### Advantages of Sequential Classification

- Previously acquired information can guide further queries.
- The existence of a classification process allows it to be constrained to make cost/accuracy trade-offs.

We use the term *datum-wise* classifier, as each datum is classified differently.

# Similar Approaches

### Adaptive Feature Order

Reinforcement learning approaches.

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Decision trees.

### Fixed Feature Order

- Cascade classifiers.
- Early-stopping algorithms.



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## Illustration



#### Sequential Process for Classification

- an initial block  $x_{(0)}$  is sampled
- the classifier sequentially chooses a relation r<sub>(t)</sub> and acquires the information x<sub>(t+1)</sub>

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At last, the classifier chooses which category to assign to x

## Classification as a Sequential Process

Two conceptual elements to the sequential classification process:

- Look at information (select features).
  - Look at a first element of information.
  - Given this new information and previously acquired information...
  - ...choose a new element of information.
- Once enough information considered, emit a decision (classify).

These two aspects can be learned jointly as a Markov decision process!

## Benefits

### Benefits

- It can classify any type of block data.
- It can classify data are are only partially known (e.g. streams).
- Acquired part can be processed on the fly
  - speed-up of the process when processing is expensive.
  - able to learn/predict with data that are not fully known
- The process is able to focus on relevant parts avoiding noise and misleading information.

#### Drawback

Learning is not really fast.... (but can be parallelized)

## Markov Decision Process

#### Classification as an MDP

Let an MDP  $\mathcal{M}$  be defined by a 4-tuple  $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, r)$ .

- ➤ S is the set of states, representing all information acquired thus far for a specific datum.
- A is the set of possible actions, either information acquisition actions a ∈ A<sub>V</sub> or classification actions a ∈ A<sub>f</sub>.
- $T : S \times A \rightarrow S$  is the MDP's *transition function*, returning the requested information.
- r: S × A → ℝ is the reward function, returning the reward for taking action a in state s and ending up in state s'.
  - Responsible for defining the agent's ultimate goal for the task.

## Classifier as a Policy

### Policy

Decisions in an MDP are taken by a *policy*  $\pi_{\theta}$ .

- The classifier *is* a policy: the final output of  $\pi_{\theta}$  is our class label.
- The policy is a parameterized function  $\pi_{\theta}(s) = a$ .
- The goal of the policy  $\pi_{\theta}$  is to maximize the overall reward:

$$heta^* = rgmax_{ heta} rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_{ heta}(\mathbf{x}_i)} r(\mathbf{x}_i, \pi_{ heta}^t(\mathbf{x}_i)).$$

Defining a proper reward function is key.

## Reward & 0/1 Loss

## Learning Goal

$$\begin{split} \theta^* &= \operatorname*{argmin}_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta_{0-1}(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}), y_{i}) \qquad \text{minimize loss} \\ \Leftrightarrow \\ \theta^* &= \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_{\theta}(s_{i})+1} r(s_{i}, \pi_{\theta}^{t}(s_{i})) \qquad \text{maximize reward} \end{split}$$

### Reward Definition

Reward designed to correspond to a 0/1 classification loss:

$$r(s, a) = egin{cases} -1 ext{ if } a \in \mathcal{A}_y \land a 
eq y_i \\ 0 ext{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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# Policy

## Defining the Policy

The policy is a linear function approximator parameterized by  $\theta$ ,  $\pi_{\theta}$ :

- $\pi_{\theta}(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \theta^{\mathsf{T}} \Phi(s, a)$
- Φ(s, a) represents acquired features, their values, and the given action.
- z is and indicator vector of selected features.

Masked representation:

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})^i = egin{cases} x^i & ext{if } z^i = 1 \ 0 & ext{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

State representation:

$$\phi(\boldsymbol{s}) = (\mu(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}),\mathbf{z})$$

State-Action tuple:

$$\Phi(s,a) = (0,\cdots,\phi(s)_a,\cdots,0)$$

# Training

### Rollouts Classification Policy Iteration

Monte-Carlo policy iteration:

- Sample a series of random states: random datum, random set of features.
- Estimate best action  $a^*$  for state  $s_t$  by sampling:



• Train parameterized policy with best action for  $\Phi(s_t, a^*)$ .

# **RCPI** Training

#### Algorithm 1 RCPI

```
1: procedure TRAIN-RCPI(S_R, M, \pi_0, K)
 2:
             \pi = \pi_0
 3:
             repeat
 4:
                  S_{\mathsf{T}} = \emptyset
 5:
                   for s \in S_R do
                          for a \in A do
 6:
                                 \tilde{Q}_{\pi}(s, a) \leftarrow \mathsf{Rollout}(\mathcal{M}, s, a, K, \pi)
 7:
                         \mathcal{A}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in A} \tilde{Q}_{\pi}(s, a)
 8:
                          S_{\mathsf{T}} \leftarrow S_{\mathsf{T}} \cup \{(s, a^*) \forall a^* \in \mathcal{A}^*\}
 9:
                   f_{\theta} = \operatorname{Train}(\mathcal{S}_{\mathrm{T}})
                                                                                  \triangleright f_{\theta} is a multiclass classifier
10.
                   \pi' from f_{\theta} as defined in Eq. (??)
11.
                   \pi_t = \alpha(\pi', \pi_{t-1})
12.
13:
             until \pi_t \sim \pi_{t-1}
             return \pi_t
14:
```

# **RCPI** Complexity

• Inference Complexity is  $\mathcal{I}(A)$  at each step

- $\mathcal{I}(A)$  is the cost of choosing the action to do
- $\mathcal{I}(A) = |\mathcal{A}|$  when using One Against All classifiers.
- Learning Complexity:  $SAK \times TI(A) + C(S, A)$ .
  - TI(A) is the cost of sampling one trajectory of size T
  - ► SAK is the number trajectories necessary during simulation.

• C(S, A) is the cost of learning the corresponding classifier.

When using OVA classifiers, RCPI learning complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{A}^2)$  !.

#### Later

This complexity can be reduced to  $\mathcal{O}(log(A))$ 

# Section Summary

### Sequential Classification & Reinforcement Learning

Two concepts introduced:

- Classification as a sequential process.
- Markov decision process & reinforcement learning to find a good policy.

Now, some applications.

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# Sequential Classification Tasks



#### Sentence-Based Text Classification

Each document is read sentence-by-sentence, with the classifier allowed to classify at any point.

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► A Bag-of-Words representation is used for each sentence.

# Sequential Classification Tasks



### Region-Based Image Classification

- Each image is acquired region-by-region, with the classifier deciding which region to acquire next or which class to classify into.
- Each region is represented by its local SIFT features.

#### **MDP** Elements

- States composed of images or text information acquired thus far.
- Actions allow for reading next sentence or acquiring particular region.

## Experiments

### **Experimental Protocol**

 Standard datasets such as Reuters 8-class for text (3 actions) or PPMI (18 actions) for image.

- Datasets split into train & test (varrying splits).
- Classification policy trained on training set.
- Performance calculated on test set with final learned policy.

# Sequential Text Classification: Experimental Results



#### **Reuters-8** Performance

Performance is comparable to state-of-the-art approaches (BoW SVM).

## Sequential Text Classification: Behavior



#### **Reuters-8 Behavior**

Number of sentences used for classifying each document.

• We see that most documents are barely read.

# Sequentiual Image Classification: Performance

Instrument	Sequential Image	SVM 16
Bassoon	0.77 @ 0.04	0.77
Cello	0.76 @ 0.03	0.75
Clarinet	0.69 @ 0.02	0.69
Erhu	0.82 @ 0.08	0.80
Flute	0.90 @ 0.05	0.89
French Horn	0.85 @ 0.03	0.84
Guitar	0.85 @ 0.03	0.85
Harp	0.81 @ 0.06	0.81
Recorder	0.69 @ 0.03	0.68
Saxophone	0.80 @ 0.06	0.79
Trumpet	0.72 @ 0.05	0.68
Violin	0.86 @ 0.06	0.85
Average	<b>0.8</b> @ 0.08	0.78

Sequential Image Classification on PPMI

Performance on the PPMI dataset is comparable to baseline SVM, but sparsity is not appearing natively (number after the @)...

# A Lack of Constraints

### Conclusions:

- Sequential text classification offers good performance and naturally uses very little information.
- Sequential image classification also performs well ... but does not constrain its use of features.

### Solutions

Find a way to encourage the sequential classifier to be efficient with its information usage.

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## Presentation Structure

#### Outline

#### Three main parts to this presentation:

1. Introduce sequential classification and some example tasks.

#### 2. Constrain the classification task to encourage sparsity.

3. Show that our sparse model can easily be extended to many cost-sensitive tasks.

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## Sparsity and Classification

An existing approach to encouraging efficiency is to consider a sparsity constraint:

Regularized Empirical Loss

$$R(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}), y_{i}) + \underbrace{\lambda ||\theta||_{0}}_{L_{0} \text{ regularization term}}$$

▶ The *L*<sup>0</sup> norm penalizes feature usage by the model on a *dataset* level.

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► For a sequential, *datum-wise* classifier, we need a *datum-wise* penalization.

### Datum-Wise Sparsity

#### Sequential Classifier Definition

Let  $y^{\mathbf{x}_i}$  be a class label,  $\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{x}_i}$  be an indicator vector of selected features.

$$f_{ heta}(\mathbf{x}_i) = (y_{ heta}^{\mathbf{x}_i}, \mathbf{z}_{ heta}^{\mathbf{x}_i})$$

#### Datum-Wise Loss

$$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta(y_{\theta}^{\mathbf{x}_i}, y_i) + \underbrace{\lambda \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{z}_{\theta}^{\mathbf{x}_i}\|_0}_{\underbrace{\lambda = 1}^{N}}$$

datum-wise regularization term

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# Datum-Wise Sparse Model

#### Corresponding MDP

As mentioned previously, the reward function must be equivalent to the defined loss.

#### Reward

Reward must correspond to a 0/1 classification loss with a datum-wise regularization penalty:

$$r(s, a) = \begin{cases} -\lambda \text{ if } a \in \mathcal{A}_f \text{ (instead of 0)} \\ -1 \text{ if } a \in \mathcal{A}_y \land a \neq y_i \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Datum-Wise Sparse Classification (contd.)



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In this illustrated example, the final reward is  $-3\lambda$ .

### Experiments

#### **Experimental Protocol**

- Experiments are run on 8 single-class and 4 multi-class vectorial datasets, with varying train/test splits.
- ► Datasets have between 6 to 60 features, and 200-1000 elements.
- For each classifier, the sparsity parameter is varied from one extreme (no features selected) to the other (all features selected).
- ▶ We compare DWSM's performance to an *L*<sub>1</sub> regularized linear SVM and LARS as well as a C4.5 decision tree (CART).

## Datum-Wise Sparsity: Experiments



- This accuracy vs. sparsity plot is typical of results with DWSM.
- DWSM performs is able to keep accuracy high even under high levels of sparsity.

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## **Experimental Behavior**



This graphic shows the average number of features used when classifying data on the Breast Cancer dataset. Feature usage is constant for LARS but varies for DWSM.

## **Experimental Behavior**



This graphic shows how much each feature was used to classify data on the Breast Cancer dataset. We see that some features chosen by LARS are also used heavily by DWSM.

## A wider field of application...

#### Conclusions

- DWSM is able to compete with state-of-the-art sparsity constraints.
- ► DWSM is able to find a good policy for the complex datum-wise L<sub>0</sub> loss.

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- The learning algorithm does not require a uniform cost.
- ... which can allow us to consider more complex constrained classification problems.

## Presentation Structure

#### Outline

#### Three main parts to this presentation:

- 1. Introduce sequential classification and some example tasks.
- 2. Constrain the classification task to encourage sparsity.
- 3. Show that our sparse model can easily be extended to many cost-sensitive tasks.

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## **Budgeted classifiers**

### Budgeted classifiers

Standard classifier:  $f_{\theta} : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  Budgeted classifier:  $f_{\theta} : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Z}$ 

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- $\blacktriangleright~\mathcal{Z}$  corresponds to all the ways the classifier can classify.
- $y_{\theta}(x)$  is the prediction,  $z_{\theta}(x)$  is the classification process.

#### Advantage

We can define a risk with a datum process loss:

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) = \int_{x,y} (\Delta(y_{\theta}(x), y) + C(z_{\theta}(x))P(x, y)dx.dy)$$

## **Budgeted classifiers**

 $C \equiv$ 

Empirical Risk minimization

$$heta^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{ heta} rac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} (\Delta(y_{ heta}(x^i), y^i) + C(z_{ heta}(x^i))$$

- ► C is a loss (or constraint) over the way inputs are processed
- C is defined at the datum level
- Note that: if C only depends on θ, it corresponds to the classical regularization term of usual classifiers

Price of the acquisition of a learning example Time spent to classify Interpretability of the resulting model

••

## **Budgeted Classifier**

This generic loss can be optimized through Sequential Learning methods (RL) by modifying the shape of the previously presented MDP.

- ▶ No constraint: The classifier can stop when it wants
- **Sparse Classification**: minimization of acquisition
- ► Cost-Sensitive Classification: Each feature/block has a cost
- **Budgeted Classification**: Limited or Maximum Budget
- Relationnal Features: The cost of acquiring a part depends on the previouly acquired parts

Structured Output: Outputs are structures

### Datum-Wise Constrained Losses

An example datum-wise risk for cost-sensitive classification: Cost-Sensitive Datum-Wise Empirical Risk

$$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta_{cost}(y_{\theta}^{\mathbf{x}_i}, y_i) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle \xi, \mathbf{z}_{\theta}^{\mathbf{x}_i} \rangle$$

Example

$$egin{aligned} \xi &= (8, 1, 123, 1, 1, 40) \ \mathbf{z}_{ heta}^{\mathbf{x}_i} &= (1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1) \ \mathsf{Cost} &= \langle \xi, \mathbf{z}_{ heta}^{\mathbf{x}_i} 
angle = 49 \end{aligned}$$

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...and their corresponding MDP definitions.

#### Cost-Sensitive Reward Function

Once again we define a reward function that is equivalent to the loss:

$$r(s, a_i) = \begin{cases} -\xi_i \text{ if } a_i \in \mathcal{A}_f \text{ (instead of } -\lambda) \\ -C_{a_i, y} \text{ if } a_i \in \mathcal{A}_y \text{ (instead of -1)} \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Task	Regularized Empirical Loss		
Hard Budget	$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta(y_{\theta}^{x_i}, y_i) + \lambda \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ z_{\theta}^{x_i}\ _0$		
	subject to $\ z_{\theta}^{\star_i}\ _0 \leq M$ .		
Cost-Sensitive	$ heta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{ heta} rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta_{cost}(y^{\mathbf{x}_i}_{ heta}, y_i) + rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \langle \xi, \mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{x}_i}_{ heta}  angle$		
Grouped			
Features	$\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \Delta(y_{\theta}^{\mathbf{x}_i}), y_i) + \lambda \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{g} \mathbb{1}(\mathcal{F}_t \subset \mathcal{Z}_{\theta}^{\mathbf{x}_i})$		
Relational Features	$egin{aligned} & heta^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{ heta} rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \Delta(y^{\mathbf{x}_i}_{ heta}), y_i) \ &+ rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{f \ f' \in \mathcal{Z}^{\mathbf{x}_i}} \operatorname{Related}(f, f') (\lambda - \gamma) + \gamma \end{aligned}$		

Proposed tasks and corresponding learning problems.

Task	Decision Process Modification	Commentary
Hard Budget	$\mathcal{A}(s) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{A}_f(s) \bigcup \mathcal{A}_y(s) \text{ if } \ \mathbf{z}\ _0 < M \\ \mathcal{A}_y(s) \text{ if } \ \mathbf{z}\ _0 = M \end{cases}$	Allows users to choose minimum level of spars Reduces training complex
Cost-Sensitive	$r(s_i, a) = egin{cases} -\xi_i  ext{ if } a \in \mathcal{A}_f \ -C_{a,y_i}  ext{ if } a \in \mathcal{A}_y \end{cases}$	Well-suited for features v variable costs.
Grouped Fea- tures	$egin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_{f} &= \mathcal{A}_{group} \ \mathcal{T}(m{s},m{a}_{j}) &= (m{x},m{z} + \sum_{i\in\mathcal{F}_{j}}m{e}_{m{i}}) \end{aligned}$	Well adapted to featu presenting a grouped natu Complexity is reduced.
Relational Fea- tures	$r(s_i, a_j) = egin{cases} -\lambda  ext{ if } ( \ orall f \in \mathcal{Z}(\mathbf{x}), \  ext{Related}(f_j, f) = 1 \ ) \ -\gamma  ext{ otherwise} \end{cases}$	Naturally suited for comp feature inter-dependencie

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## Medical Diagnosis: Results

Classifier	Error Penalty	Average Cost	Accuracy
DWSM	800	181	0.75
DWSM	400	74	0.76
Li & Carin	800	180	0.75
Li & Carin	400	75	0.75

The modified DWSM MDP is able to compete with other state-of-the-art cost-sensitive classifiers on the Pima Diabetes dataset.

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## Maximum Cost



A hard limit on features makes attaining specific levels of sparsity easier.

## Grouped Features for Image Classification



With a penalty for each region, DWSM is able to maintain accuracy with much less information consumption relative to a baseline method.

# Regionally-Constrained Image Regions



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Most utilized regions on the regionally-constrained MNIST task.

## Structured Output Classification

Different tasks and Complex Transformations scheme:



## Future Workd

- Online Budgeted Learning
  - Budgeted constraints during learning
  - Use of bandit-based methods or transfer learning techniques

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- Classification under Realistic Budgets
  - Time (in seconds)
  - Electric Power Consumption
  - ► ...
- Interaction in ML

# Learning on the Web

#### Sequential Search Engines

- Find a relevant document for a particular query in 1 minute
- Find me a good hotel in Orsay in less than 3 days
- Organize my trip to Barcelona

#### Sequential Recommender Systems

Able to ask questions to a new user (cold start)



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# Learning on the real world

#### Robots

- Tell me where you are in 5 seconds
- Find a target in 3 seconds





Movement computed by the robot to acquire relevant information



Final state

#### Visual Reinforcement Learning

Decide based on cameras

#### Sensors Networks

Choose which sensor to ask for collecting information

Learning on the Web and the real world

#### Web Social Robots

- Learning to talk
- ► fill my fridge



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Not clear difference between robots and ML models.....

# **RCPI** Complexity

- Inference Complexity is  $\mathcal{I}(A)$  at each step
  - I(A) is the cost of choosing the action to do
  - $\mathcal{I}(A) = |\mathcal{A}|$  when using One Against All classifiers.
- Learning Complexity:  $SAK \times TI(A) + C(S, A)$ .
  - TI(A) is the cost of sampling one trajectory of size T
  - ► SAK is the number trajectories necessary during simulation.

• C(S, A) is the cost of learning the corresponding classifier.

When using OVA classifiers, RCPI learning complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{A}^2)$  !.

# Error-Correcting Output Code (ECOC)

Error-Correcting Output Codes (ECOCs) have been used for multiclass classification for a while (Dietterich and Bakiri (1995)). Each of the 5 labels is associated to a binary code of length 3.

	$b_1$	<i>b</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>b</i> <sub>3</sub>
<i>y</i> <sub>1</sub>	+	+	_
<i>y</i> <sub>2</sub>	-	+	-
<i>y</i> <sub>3</sub>	+	-	+
<i>y</i> <sub>4</sub>	-	+	+
<i>y</i> 5	+	_	_

- Minimum code length:  $C = \log_2(|\mathcal{Y}|)$ .
- In general:  $C = \gamma \log(|\mathcal{Y}|)$  with  $\gamma \approx 15$ .

## **ECOC** Inference



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- $f(x) = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} d_{\operatorname{Hamming}}(y, (f_1(x), f_2(x), f_3(x)))$
- ▶ Only  $O(\log(n))$  classifiers.

# **ECOC**-Training

Question How to learn the  $\gamma \log(n)$  classifiers  $f_{i \in [1,C]}$ ?

▶ Original labels are mapped to *C* binary label spaces:

$$y(x) = y_3$$
  
 $c(y(x)) = (+, -, +)$   
 $y^1(x) = +$ 

One binary classifier learned for each space

$$Y^{1} = \{y^{1}(x) \forall x \in X\}$$
$$f_{1} = Train(X, Y^{1})$$

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# ECOC for MDPs

#### ECOC w/ RCPI

RCPI allows for the use of any multiclass classifier to define a policy. In this case we use an ECOC classifier, where each action is given a binary label of length  $C = \gamma \log(|\mathcal{A}|)$ .

	<i>b</i> <sub>1</sub>	<b>b</b> <sub>2</sub>	<i>b</i> <sub>3</sub>
$a_1$	+	+	_
<b>a</b> 2	-	+	—
a <sub>3</sub>	+	—	+
<b>a</b> 4	-	+	+
$a_5$	+	-	—

## General Idea (cont.)

We effectively define C new sub-policies, each one associated to a particular binary mapping of the MDP.

$$\pi_i : s \to \{+, -\}$$
  

$$\pi_i(s) = f_i(s)$$
  

$$\pi(s) = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\operatorname{argmin}} d_{\operatorname{Hamming}}(\mathsf{M}^c_{[a,*]}, (\pi_1(s), \cdots, \pi_C(s)).$$

#### ERCPI

- ► The sub-policies are learned conjointly using the RCPI algorithm.
- Training is performed as for a standard ECOC multiclass classifier.

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# BRCPI

- ► ERCPI still requires the full policy π<sub>t-1</sub> to be available for simulation, and must still run a simulation for every action in every state.
- ERCPI Learning complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{A} \log \mathcal{A})$

#### Second Idea

To reduce the complexity of this algorithm, we propose learning the *C* binary sub-policies —  $\pi_{i \in [1,C]}$  — **independently**, transforming our initial MDP into *C* sub-MDPs, each one corresponding to the environment in which a particular  $\pi_i$  is acting.

## **BRCPI Example**



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# BRCPI (cont.)

We can now define C new binary MDPs that we name sub-MDPs, and denote  $\mathcal{M}_{i\in[1,C]}.$ 

- $S_i = S$ , the same state-set as the original MDP.
- $A_i$  is the binary action set:  $\{+, -\}$ .
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{T}_i = \mathcal{T}(s', s, a) P(a|a_i) = P(s'|s, a) P(a|a_i).$ 
  - P(a|a<sub>i</sub>) is the probability of choosing action a ∈ A<sup>a<sub>i</sub></sup>, knowing that the sub-action applied on the sub-MDP M<sub>i</sub> is a<sub>i</sub> ∈ {+, -}.
  - We consider P(a|+) to be uniform for a ∈ A<sup>+</sup> and null for a ∈ A<sup>-</sup>, and vice versa. P(s'|s, a) is the original MDP's transition probability.

$$r_i(s,a_i) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}_i^{a_i}} P(a|a_i)r(s,a).$$

# **BRCPI** - Algorithm

#### Algorithm 2 BRCPI

```
1: procedure TRAIN-BRCPI(S_R, \mathcal{M}, \pi_0, K, T)
23:4:5:6:7:8:9:
          for i \in C do
                \pi_{i} = \pi_{0}
                repeat
                     S_T = \emptyset
                     for s \in S_R do
                          for a \in \{+, -\} do
                                \tilde{Q}_{\pi}(s, a) \leftarrow \text{Rollout}(\mathcal{M}_i, s, a, K, \pi_i)
                          A^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in A} \tilde{Q}_{\pi}(s, a)
10:
11:
                             for a^* \in \mathcal{A}^* do
                                  S_T = S_T \cup \{(s, a^*)\}
12:
                      f_{\theta_i} = \operatorname{Train}(S_T)
13:
                        \pi'_i from f_{\theta_i} as defined in Eq. (??)
14.
                        \pi_i = \alpha(\pi_i, \pi'_i)
15:
                   until \pi_i \sim \pi'_i
          return \pi(s) = \operatorname{argmin}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} d_{\operatorname{Hamming}}(\mathsf{M}^{c}_{[a,*]}, (\pi_{1}(s), \cdots, \pi_{C}(s)).
```

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### Complexities

#### Complexities

Algorithm	Simulation Cost	Learning Cost
ORCPI	$\mathcal{O}(A^2)$	$\mathcal{O}(A)$
ERCPI	$\mathcal{O}(A\log(A))$	$\mathcal{O}(\log(A))$
BRCPI	$\mathcal{O}(\log(A))$	$\mathcal{O}(\log(A))$

# Mountain Car

- Mountain Car problem
- Actions (between -1 and 1) have been discretized



Smaller is Better

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#### Results

ERCPI gives similar results to ORCPI BRCPI allows one to obtain a non-trivial sub-optimal policy

# Maze

- Negative reward associated to some cells
- Base actions are *up*, *down*, and *right*
- We define sequences of base actions i.e. up. up. right



#### Results

ERCPI outperforms ORCPI when the number of actions is large BRCPI allows one to obtain a non-trivial sub-optimal policy **when other methods fail** 

# Speedup

#### Tradeoff between training speed and policy quality.

Mountain Car - 100 Actions - 46 bits				
	Sim.	Learning	Total	Speedup
OVA	4312	380	4698	×1.0
ERCPI	3188	190	3378	×1.4(×1.35)
BRCPI	184	190	374	×12.5(×23.5)

### Questions

 Sequential approaches for learning datum-wise sparse representations

 G Dulac-Arnold, L Denoyer, P Preux, P Gallinari in Machine learning 2012

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 Structured prediction with reinforcement learning – F Maes, L Denoyer, P Gallinari, in Machine learning 2009