LAMDA group, Nanjing University

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Active Learning for Regression: Algorithms and Applications



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Supervised Learning

- Learn a target function f(x) from input-output samples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$.
- This allows us to predict outputs of unseen inputs: "generalization"



Active Learning (AL)

Choice of input location affects the generalization performance.

Goal: choose the best input location!



Motivation of AL

AL is effective when sampling cost is high.

- Ex.) Predicting the length of a patient's life
 - Input x : features of patients
 - Output \mathcal{Y} : the length of life
 - In order to observe the outputs, the patients need to be nursed for years
- It is highly valuable to optimize the choice of input locations!

Organization of My Talk

- 1. Formulation.
- 2. AL for correctly specified models.
- 3. AL for misspecified models.
- 4. Choosing inputs from unlabeled samples.
- 5. AL with model selection.



Problem Formulation



Training samples: {(x_i, y_i)}ⁿ_{i=1}
Input: x_i $\stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{train}(x)$ Output: y_i = f(x_i) + ε_i
Noise: ε_i $\stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim}$ mean 0, unknown variance σ²

Problem Formulation

Use a linear model for learning:

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \alpha_i \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})$$

 $lpha_i$: parameter $arphi_i(m{x})$: basis function

Generalization error:

$$G = \int \left(\widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x})\right)^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

*p*_{test}(*x*) :Test input density (assumed known)
 Goal of AL: Choose *p*_{train}(*x*) so that the generalization error is minimized.



Difficulty of AL

 $\min_{p_{train}} G$

$$G = \int \left(\widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x})\right)^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

- Gen err is unknown.
- In AL, gen error needs to be estimated before observing output samples $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$.
- Thus standard gen err estimators such as cross-validation or Akaike's information criterion cannot be used in AL.

Bias-Variance Decomposition 9 $\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon}G = B + V$

 \mathbb{E}_{ϵ} : Expectation over noise





Bias and Variance

Bias: depends on the unknown target function f(x), so it is not possible to estimate it before observing output samples $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$.

$$B = \int \left(\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x}) \right)^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

Variance: for linear estimator $\widehat{lpha} = Ly$,

$$V = \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} \int \left(\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right)^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$
$$= \sigma^2 \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top}) \propto \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top})$$

$$oldsymbol{U}_{i,j} = \int arphi_i(oldsymbol{x}) arphi_j(oldsymbol{x}) p_{test}(oldsymbol{x}) doldsymbol{x}$$

Basic Strategy for AL¹¹

For an unbiased linear estimator, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon}G = B + V \propto \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top})$$

Thus, gen error can be minimized before observing output samples $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$!

$$\underset{p_{train}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} G = \underset{p_{train}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top})$$

Organization of My Talk ¹²

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Correctly Specified Models ¹³

Assume that the target function is included in the model:

$$\exists \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*, \ \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*) = f(\boldsymbol{x})$$

Learn the parameters by ordinary least-squares (OLS):

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) - y_i \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \alpha_i \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})$$

Properties of LS

OLS estimator is linear:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} = \boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{y}$$

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} = \boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{y}$$

$$\boldsymbol{X}_{i,j} = \varphi_j(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

$$\boldsymbol{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^\top$$
Variance is $V = \sigma^2 \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^\top) \propto \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^\top)$

OLS estimator is unbiased:

$$\mathbb{E}_{oldsymbol{\epsilon}} \widehat{oldsymbol{lpha}} = oldsymbol{lpha}^*$$



 $(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}\top\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z})-1\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}\top$

AL for Correctly Specified Models

When OLS is used,

 p_{train}

Thus

$$\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} G = B + V$$

= 0 \quad \text{tr}(ULL^\text{T})
argmin \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} G = argmin \text{tr}(ULL^\text{T})

 p_{train}

Fedorov, *Theory of Optimal Experiments*, Academic Press, 1972.

Illustrative Examples 16 $\delta = 0, 0.03, 0.3$

Learning target: $f(x) = 1 - x + x^2 + \delta x^3$ Model: $\hat{f}(x) = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 x + \alpha_3 x^2$

Test input density: $\mathcal{N}(0.2, (0.4)^2)$

Training input density: $\mathcal{N}(0.2, (0.4c)^2)$



 $c = 0.8, 0.9, 1.0, \dots, 2.5$

Obtained Generalization Error ¹⁷

Mean ± Std (1000 trials)

	$\delta = 0$	$\delta = 0.03$	$\delta = 0.3$
OLS-AL	1.45 ± 1.82	2.56 ± 2.24	113 ± 63.7
Passive	3.10 ± 2.61	3.13 ± 2.61	5.75 ± 3.09

- When model is correctly specified, OLS-AL works well.
- Even when model is slightly misspecified, the performance degrades significantly.
- When model is highly misspecified, the performance is very poor.

OLS-based AL: Summary 18 $\min_{p_{train}} \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top}) = \begin{cases} \boldsymbol{x}_i \}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}) \\ \boldsymbol{U}_{i,j} = \int \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \varphi_j(\boldsymbol{x}) p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x} \\ \boldsymbol{X}_{i,j} = \varphi_j(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \end{cases}$

Pros:

- Gen err estimation is exact.
- Easy to implement.

Cons:

- Correctly specified models are not available in practice.
- Performance degradation for model misspecification is significant.

Organization of My Talk ¹⁹

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Misspecified Models

Consider general cases where the target function is not included in the model:

$$\forall \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \ \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \neq f(\boldsymbol{x})$$

However, if the model is completely misspecified, learning itself is meaningless (need model selection, discussed later)

Here we assume that the model is approximately correct.

Orthogonal Decomposition ²¹ f(x) = g(x) + r(x)



$$\varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})r(\boldsymbol{x})p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})d\boldsymbol{x}=0$$

($\varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x})$ and $r(\boldsymbol{x})$ are orthogonal)

Approximately correct model: $r(x) \approx 0$



Further Decomposition of Bias²² Bias: $B = \int \left(\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x}) \right)^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$ $= B_{out} + B_{in}$ Out-model bias: $B_{out} = \int (g(\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x}))^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$ In-model bias: $B_{in} = \int \left(\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} \widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) - g(\boldsymbol{x})\right)^2 p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$



Difficulty of AL for Misspecified Models

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$$B = B_{out} + B_{in}$$

Out-model bias remains, so bias cannot be zero.
Out-model bias is constant, so it can be ignored.
However, OLS does not reduce in-model bias to zero.

$$B_{in} \neq 0$$

"Covariate shift" is the cause!

Covariate Shift

Training and test inputs follow different distributions:

$$p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}) \neq p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})$$

Covariate = Input

In AL, covariate shift always occurs!

Difference of input distributions causes OLS not to reduce in-model bias to zero.

$$\mathbb{E}_{oldsymbol{\epsilon}} \widehat{lpha}
eq lpha^*$$

Shimodaira, Improving predictive inference under covariate shift by weighting the log-likelihood function, *Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference*, vol. 90, pp. 227-244, 2000.

Example of Covariate Shift ²⁵



Bias of OLS under Covariate Shift

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\hat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) - y_{i} \right)^{2} \right]$$

OLS:

- Unbiased for correctly specified models.
- For misspecified models, in-model bias remains even asymptotically.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} B_{in} \neq 0$$



The Law of Large Numbers ²⁷

Sample average converges to the population mean:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{loss}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) \longrightarrow \int \operatorname{loss}(\boldsymbol{x}) p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x}_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x})$$

We want to estimate the expectation over test distribution using training samples (following training distribution).

$$\int \text{loss}(\boldsymbol{x}) p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

Importance-Weighted Average²⁸

Importance: the ratio of input densities

 $\frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x})}$

Importance-weighted average:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)} \operatorname{loss}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \qquad \boldsymbol{x}_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x})$$
$$\longrightarrow \int \frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x})} \operatorname{loss}(\boldsymbol{x}) p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$
$$= \int \operatorname{loss}(\boldsymbol{x}) p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x}$$

(cf. importance sampling)

Importance-Weighted LS (WLS)⁹

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)} \left(\widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) - y_i \right)^2 \right]$$

WLS:

• Even for misspecified models, in-model bias vanishes asymptotically. $\lim B_{in} = 0$

 $\lim_{n \to \infty} B_{in} = 0$

 For approximately correct models, in-model bias is very small.

 $0 \approx B_{in} \ll V$



Importance-Weighted LS (WLS)⁰ WLS is linear:

 $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} = \boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{y} \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{L} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{D} \\ \boldsymbol{X}_{i,j} = \varphi_j(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \quad \boldsymbol{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^{\top} \\ \boldsymbol{D} = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}, \dots, \frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}\right)$

Thus variance is given by

 $V = \sigma^2 \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top}) \propto \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top})$





Sugiyama, Active learning in approximately linear regression based on conditional expectation of generalization error, *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, vol.7, pp.141-166, 2006.

Obtained Generalization Error ³²

Mean±Std (1000 trials)			T-test (95%)
	$\delta = 0$	$\delta = 0.03$	$\delta = 0.3$
WLS-AL	2.07 ± 1.90	2.09 ± 1.90	4.28 ± 2.02
OLS-AL	1.45 ± 1.82	2.56 ± 2.24	113 ± 63.7
Passive	3.10 ± 2.61	3.13 ± 2.61	5.75 ± 3.09

- When model is exactly correct, OLS-AL works well.
- However, when model is misspecified, it is totally unreliable.
- WLS-AL works well even when model is misspecified.

Application to Robot Control ³³
 Golf robot: control the robot arm so that the ball is driven as far as possible.

- State s : joint angles, angular velocities
- Action a : torque to be applied to joints
- We use reinforcement learning (RL).
- In RL, reward r (carry distance of the ball) is given to the robot.
- Robot updates its control policy π so that the maximum amount of rewards is obtained.



Policy Iteration

Value function $Q^{\pi}(s, a)$: sum of rewards rwhen taking action a at state s and then following policy π .



Sutton & Barto, *Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction,* MIT Press, 1998.



When policies are updated, the distribution of *s* and *a* changes.

Thus we need to use importance weighting for being consistent.

Hachiya, Akiyama, Sugiyama & Peters. Adaptive importance sampling for value function approximation in off-policy reinforcement learning. *Neural Networks*, to appear

AL in Policy Iteration

Sampling cost is high in golf robot control (manually measuring carry distance is painful).



Akiyama, Hachiya & Sugiyama. Active policy iteration, *IJCAI2009*.



The difference of the performances at 7-th iteration is statistically significant by the t-test at the significance level 1%.

AL improves the performance!

Passive Learning



Active Learning



40 WLS-based AL: Summary $oldsymbol{U}_{i,j} = \int arphi_i(oldsymbol{x}) arphi_j(oldsymbol{x}) p_{test}(oldsymbol{x}) doldsymbol{x}$ $\boldsymbol{L} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \boldsymbol{D}$ min tr $(\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{L}^{\top})$ $oldsymbol{X}_{i,j}=arphi_{j}(oldsymbol{x}_{i})$ p_{train} $\{\boldsymbol{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x})$ $\boldsymbol{D} = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}, \dots, \frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}\right)$

Pros:

- Robust against model misspecification.
- Easy to implement.

Cons:

• Test input density $p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})$ could be unknown in practice.

Organization of My Talk ⁴¹

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Pool-based AL: Setup

Test input density $p_{test}(x)$ is unknown.

A pool of input samples following $p_{test}(x)$ is available.

$$\{\boldsymbol{x}'_i\}_{i=1}^N \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}) \quad n \leq N$$

From the pool, we choose sample $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ and gather output values $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$.





Naïve Approach

$$\{\boldsymbol{x}'_i\}_{i=1}^N \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})$$

Estimate test density from $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$. Plug-in the estimator $\hat{p}_{test}(x)$:

$$oldsymbol{U}_{i,j} pprox \int arphi_i(oldsymbol{x}) arphi_j(oldsymbol{x}) \widehat{p}_{test}(oldsymbol{x}) doldsymbol{x}$$

$$\boldsymbol{D} \approx \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{\widehat{p}_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}, \dots, \frac{\widehat{p}_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}\right)$$

However, density estimation is hard and thus this approach is not reliable.

Better Approach

U : empirical approximation

$$\widehat{U}_{i,j} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \varphi_i(\boldsymbol{x}'_i) \varphi_j(\boldsymbol{x}'_i) \qquad \{\boldsymbol{x}'_i\}_{i=1}^{N} \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})$$

D : define resampling probability over pool

$$p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)r(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} r(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = 1, \ r(\boldsymbol{x}_i') \ge 0$$

$$p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) = \frac{1}{r(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}$$

$$D = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{1}{r(\boldsymbol{x}_1)}, \dots, \frac{1}{r(\boldsymbol{x}_n)}\right)$$
This is exact!

Sugiyama & Nakajima.

Pool-based active learning in approximate linear regression. *Machine Learning*, vol.75, no.3, pp.249-274, 2009.

Benchmark Datasets (8-dim) ⁴⁶

Mean (std.) of normalized test error.

Red: Significantly better by 95% Wilcoxon test, Blue: Worth than baseline passive

Dataset	Pool / WLS-AL	Pool / OLS-AL	Population / WLS-AL	Passive
Bank-8fm	0.89(0.14)	0.91(0.14)	1.16(0.26)	1.00(0.19)
Bank-8fh	0.86(0.14)	0.85(0.14)	0.97(0.20)	1.00(0.20)
Bank-8nm	0.89(0.16)	0.91(0.18)	1.18(0.28)	1.00(0.21)
Bank-8nh	0.88(0.16)	0.87(0.16)	1.02(0.28)	1.00(0.21)
Kin-8fm	0.78(0.22)	0.87(0.22)	0.39(0.20)	1.00(0.25)
Kin-8fh	0.80(0.17)	0.85(0.17)	0.54(0.16)	1.00(0.23)
Kin-8nm	0.91(0.14)	0.92(0.14)	0.97(0.18)	1.00(0.17)
Kin-8nh	0.90(0.13)	0.90(0.13)	0.95(0.17)	1.00(0.17)
Pumadyn-8fm	0.89(0.13)	0.89(0.12)	0.93(0.16)	1.00(0.18)
Pumadyn-8fh	0.89(0.13)	0.88(0.12)	0.93(0.15)	1.00(0.17)
Pumadyn-8nm	0.91(013.)	0.92(0.13)	1.03(0.18)	1.00(0.18)
Pumadyn-8nh	0.91(013.)	0.91(0.13)	0.98(0.16)	1.00(0.17)
Average	0.87(0.16)	0.89(0.15)	0.92(0.30)	1.00(0.20)

"Pool/WLS" is consistently better than "Passive".
"Pool/OLS" is still useful.

"Population/WLS" is unstable.

Benchmark Datasets (32-dim) 47

Mean (std.) of normalized test error.

Red: Significantly better by 95% Wilcoxon test, Blue: Worth than baseline passive

Dataset	Pool / WLS-AL	Pool / OLS-AL	Population / WLS-AL	Passive
Bank-32fm	0.97(0.05)	0.96(0.04)	1.04(0.06)	1.00(0.06)
Bank-32fh	0.98(0.05)	0.96(0.04)	1.01(0.05)	1.00(0.05)
Bank-32nm	0.98(0.06)	0.96(0.05)	1.03(0.07)	1.00(0.07)
Bank-32nh	0.97(0.05)	0.96(0.05)	0.99(0.05)	1.00(0.06)
Kin-32fm	0.79(0.07)	1.53(0.14)	0.98(0.09)	1.00(0.11)
Kin-32fh	0.79(0.07)	1.40 (0.12)	0.98(0.09)	1.00(0.10)
Kin-32nm	0.95(0.04)	0.93(0.04)	1.03(0.05)	1.00(0.05)
Kin-32nh	0.95(0.04)	0.92(0.03)	1.02(0.04)	1.00(0.05)
Pumadyn-32fm	0.98(0.12)	1.15(0.15)	0.96(0.12)	1.00(0.13)
Pumadyn-32fh	0.96(0.04)	0.95(0.04)	0.97(0.04)	1.00(0.05)
Pumadyn-32nm	0.96(0.04)	0.93(0.03)	0.96(0.03)	1.00(0.05)
Pumadyn-32nh	0.96(0.03)	0.92(0.03)	0.97(0.04)	1.00(0.04)
Average (32d)	0.94(0.09)	1.05(0.21)	1.00(0.07)	1.00(0.07)

"Pool/WLS" is consistently better than "Passive"."Pool/OLS" and "population/WLS" are unstable.

Wafer Alignment in Semiconductor Exposure Apparatus

Recent silicon wafers have layer structure.
Circuit patterns are exposed multiple times.
Exact alignment of wafers is necessary.











Markers on Wafer

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Wafer alignment process:

- Measure marker location printed on wafers.
- Shift and rotate the wafer to minimize the gap.
- For speeding up, reducing the number of markers to measure is highly important.



Non-linear Alignment Model ⁵⁰

When the gap is caused only by shift and rotation, linear model is exact:

 $\Delta u \text{ or } \Delta v = \theta_0 + \theta_1 u + \theta_2 v$

However, non-linear factors exist, e.g.,

- Warp
- Biased characteristic of measurement apparatus
- Different temperature conditions
- Exactly modeling non-linear factors is not possible in practice!



Experimental Results

- 20 markers (out of 38) are chosen by AL.
- Gaps of all markers are predicted.
- Repeated for 220 different wafers.
- Mean (standard deviation) of the gap prediction error
- Red: Significantly better by 95% Wilcoxon test
- Blue: Worse than the baseline passive method



Model	WLS-AL	OLS-AL	"Outer" heuristic AL	Passive (Random)
Order 1	2.27(1.08)	2.37(1.15)	2.36(1.15)	2.32(1.11)
Order 2	1.93(0.89)	1.96(0.91)	2.13(1.08)	2.32(1.15)

Order 1: Δu or $\Delta v = \theta_0 + \theta_1 u + \theta_2 v$

Order 2: Δu or $\Delta v = \theta_0 + \theta_1 u + \theta_2 v + \theta_3 u v + \theta_4 u^2 + \theta_5 v^2$

WLS-based method works well.

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Pros:

- Robust against model misspecification.
- $p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x})$ can be unknown.
- Easy to implement.

Cons:

• WLS has a larger variance.

Organization of My Talk ⁵³

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Adaptive WLS (ALS) ⁵⁴

"flattening" importance for variance reduction.

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{p_{test}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)}{p_{train}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)} \right)^{\boldsymbol{\lambda}} \left(\widehat{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_i) - y_i \right)^2 \right]$$





MS/AL Dilemma

Model selection (MS):

- Choose models using input-output training samples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$.
- Thus MS is possible only after AL.
- Active learning (AL):
 - Choose input points $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ for a fixed model.
 - Thus AL is possible only after MS.
- MS and AL cannot be carried out by simply combining existing MS and AL methods.

Sequential Approach

Iteratively choose

- a training input point (or a small portion)
- a model
- This is commonly used in practice.



Model Drift

However, sequential approach is not effective.

- Target model varies through learning process.
- Good training input density depends heavily on the target model.
- Training input points determined in early stages could be poor for finally chosen model.
- AL overfits to target models.



Batch Approach

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Perform batch AL for an initially chosen model.
This does not suffer from model drift.



Difficulty in Initial Model Choice³⁰

We need to choose an initial model before observing training samples $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$.

- MS is not possible.
- Variance-only AL is possible in principle, but the simplest model is always chosen.
- In practice, we may have to determine the initial model randomly.
- Therefore, batch approach is not reliable.

Ensemble Active Learning (EAL)^I

Idea: perform AL for a set of model candidates



Sugiyama & Rubens. A batch ensemble approach to active learning with model selection. *Neural Networks*, vol.21, pp.1278-1286, 2008.

Simulation Results

Wilcoxon test (95%)

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Dataset	Passive	Sequential	Batch	Ensemble
Bank-8fm	1.00(1.22)	0.59(0.85)	0.46(0.25)	0.45(0.28)
Bank-8fh	1.00(0.42)	0.53(0.22)	0.46(0.18)	0.44(0.11)
Bank-8nm	1.00(0.76)	0.63(0.19)	0.58(0.21)	0.56(0.10)
Bank-8nh	1.00(0.28)	0.61(0.19)	0.53(0.14)	0.51(0.11)
Pumadyn-8fm	1.00(0.22)	0.83(0.36)	0.92(0.68)	0.91(0.73)
Pumadyn-8fh	1.00(0.17)	0.80(0.17)	0.76(0.22)	0.71(0.19)
Pumadyn-8nm	1.00(0.18)	0.86(0.15)	0.85(0.20)	0.81(0.18)
Pumadyn-8nh	1.00(0.19)	0.85(0.14)	0.81(0.17)	0.77(0.15)

All methods outperform passive.Ensemble method works the best!

Conclusions

- Active learning (AL) is useful when sampling cost is high.
- OLS-AL: good for correct models.
- WLS-AL: good for misspecified models.
- Pool-based AL: unlabeled samples are utilized.
- Ensemble AL: also choosing models.



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Books

 Quiñonero-Candela, Sugiyama, Schwaighofer & Lawrence (Eds.),
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