Multi-Step Decentralized Domain Adaptation

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Abstract

Despite the recent breakthroughs in unsupervised domain adaptation (uDA), no prior work has studied the challenges of applying these methods in practical machine learning scenarios. In this paper, we highlight two significant bottlenecks for uDA, namely excessive centralization and poor support for distributed domain datasets. Our proposed framework, MDDA, is powered by a novel collaborator selection algorithm and an effective distributed adversarial training method, and allows for uDA methods to work in a decentralized and privacy-preserving way.

1 Introduction

In practical machine learning systems, test samples are often drawn from a different data distribution than the training samples, due to variations in data acquisition processes between the training and test sets – caused by for example, different illumination conditions and cameras in the context of visual tasks. This shift in data distributions, known as domain shift, is a core reason which hinders the generalizability of predictive models to new domains. As manual labeling of data in each test domain is prohibitively expensive, unsupervised domain adaptation **(uDA)** has emerged as a promising solution to transfer the knowledge from a labeled source domain to unlabeled target domains (Long et al. (2015; 2017); Ganin et al. (2016); Tzeng et al. (2017); Hoffman et al. (2018); Shen et al. (2018); Sankaranarayanan et al. (2018); Hoffman et al. (2018)).

While these methods are indeed effective, little attention has been paid on how they would be incorporated in real-world machine learning systems. In this paper, we study and propose solutions for the practical issues that arise while applying uDA techniques in ML systems, namely the challenges of distributed domain datasets and the overly centralized nature of existing uDA approaches. As a motivating example, consider a scenario wherein a model is trained for the task of fetal head detection from labeled ultrasound images collected in a hospital in Finland (source domain S_{fin}). Subsequently, this pre-trained model has to be deployed in four target hospitals - two in the US (T_{usa}) and two in China (T_{cn1} and T_{cn}). Due to variations in sonogram machines and medical training of sonographers, a domain shift is likely to occur in the test samples; hence we need to apply uDA to adapt the source classifier in the target domains.

Existing uDA methods are centralized by design, in that they assume that each target domain would *always* adapt from the labeled source domain (S_{fin}). This raises two issues: firstly, if the machine hosting the labeled source dataset is unavailable (e.g., it is undergoing maintenance or has connectivity issues), then clearly adaptation is not possible. More importantly, we argue that this choice of *always* adapting from a labeled source is not optimal from an adaptation perspective, because the domain discrepancy between the labeled source and a potential target domain could be high in some cases. Our work seeks to explore an interesting proposition: *in addition to adapting from the labeled source, can we also perform uDA with other target domains, which themselves may have undergone domain adaptation in the past.*

Further, existing uDA methods do not support distributed domain datasets and assume that source and target data are available on the same machine. Clearly, this raises severe privacy and legal concerns since either the source domain (S_{fin}) or the target domains (T_{usa}, T_{cn1}, T_{cn2}) will have to send their sensitive data (i.e., sonograms) to each other in order to perform adaptation. In addition, such transfer of potentially large datasets also incurs severe communication costs.

This paper makes the following contributions:

- We formulate and study a brand-new problem focusing on the challenges of uDA in practical machine learning systems.

- We propose a multi-step uDA framework, wherein target domains can adapt not only from the labeled source, but also from other target domains. Powering this framework is a novel collaborator

selector algorithm that chooses the optimal adaptation collaborator for each target domain, before initiating the adaptation.

- We propose an effective technique for allowing uDA algorithms and adversarial training to work across distributed datasets.

- Through extensive experiments on five image and speech datasets, we demonstrate the efficacy of our proposed solution.

2   Problem Formulation and Related Work

Consider a practical scenario of deploying an unlabeled domain adaptation (uDA) method in a real-world machine learning system. Assume that a data collection exercise yields a labeled dataset upon which a model is trained using supervised learning. Thereafter, this model needs to be deployed to a population of users (or targets) whose data is unlabeled and divergent from the original training dataset. Mathematically, we are presented with a single source domain $S = (\mathbb{R}^n, p_S(x, y))$, with input data X_S and labels Y_S. There are multiple target domains $\{T^j | j = 1, \ldots, K\}$, with target data X_T^j drawn from target distribution $p_T^j(x, y)$, but *no labeled observations are available*. Using supervised learning, we train a representation mapping, $\mathcal{M}_S$, and a classifier, $\mathcal{C}_S$ for the source domain. However, for target domain T^j, due to the absence of labeled observations, supervised learning is not possible and hence we would like to do adaptation with the source domain. We assume that target domains are introduced sequentially, one at a time, into the system.

Under this problem formulation, we highlight two unexplored research challenges:

Collaborator Selection. For each target domain that joins the system, how do we select an optimal collaborator for domain adaptation that will lead to highest post-adaptation accuracy for the target domain? Existing uDA methods (e.g., Hoffman et al. (2018); Tzeng et al. (2017); Ganin et al. (2016) always use the labeled source domain $\mathcal{S}$ as the adaptation collaborator for each target domain, however we argue that it is not optimal to *always* adapt for the labeled source domain for two reasons: i) if the domain shift between the target domain and the labeled source is too high, we may not achieve a good adaptation performance (Wulfmeier et al. (2017)); (ii) from a practical perspective, it makes the entire system centralized and prone to failure if the device hosting the source dataset is unavailable for adaptation (e.g., due to connectivity issues). Instead, we propose a multi-step decentralized domain adaptation approach built upon the idea that a new target domain can adapt not only from the labeled source domain, but also from other target domains in the system which have already undergone domain adaptation.

More concretely, we define a collaborator set $\mathcal{C}$ as the set of domains that are available to collaborate with a target domain on an adaptation task. At step $\tau = \tau_0$, only the source domain is present in the system, hence $\mathcal{C}_0 = \{\mathcal{S}\}$. At step $\tau = \tau_1$, the first target domain T^1 joins the system – at this moment, only the source domain S has a learned representation $\mathcal{M}_S$. Thereafter, T^1 performs uDA with the source S and learns a representation $\mathcal{M}_{T^1}$. Subsequently, we have $\mathcal{C}_1 = \{S, T^1\}$, i.e., future target domains now have two candidates with whom they can collaborate to perform domain adaptation. In general, at step $\tau = \tau_K$, $\mathcal{C}_K = \{S\} \cup \{T^j | k = 1, \ldots, K\}$.

In § 3.3, we propose an algorithm to select an optimal collaborator $c \in \mathcal{C}_K$ for each target domain, that is likely to yield the best accuracy post-adaptation. Once the optimal collaborator is chosen by our algorithm, any existing uDA method could be employed to perform the pairwise adaptation between the chosen collaborator and the target domain. Our empirical results in § 4 demonstrate the effectiveness of this multi-step adaptation approach against a number of existing baselines.

Distributed and Private Data. Existing uDA methods assume that the datasets from the source domain $\mathcal{S}$ and a given target domain T^j are available on the same compute unit (e.g., on a server). However, as we explained earlier, this assumption is violated in real-world settings, as the datasets are often private, and users or companies may not be allowed to share them with other parties due to legal reasons such as the data privacy law (GDPR) in Europe. In addition to the privacy issue, exchanging potentially large datasets incur high communication costs, making it undesirable in practical settings. This raises the question: can we make domain adaptation methods to work in a distributed and privacy-preserving manner such that the collaborators in the domain adaptation process can keep their data private and still receive the benefits of adaptation?

These challenges about making uDA algorithms work in a decentralized and distributed way are closely related, and addressing them is critical for widespread usage of uDA methods in practical ML systems. In what follows, we first describe (in §3.2) how we address the challenge of data privacy in uDA using a combination of model parallelism and data parallelism. Our key idea is to exchange knowledge between the adaptation collaborators only using the Discriminator neural network, which allows for the raw data and encoded features of each domain to remain private. Next, in §3.3, we build upon the idea of distributed adaptation to propose an algorithm for selecting an optimal adaptation collaborator.

2.1 Related Work

Bobu et al. (2018) presented the problem of continuous unsupervised adaptation wherein the target domain is smoothly varying temporally. They proposed an iterative uDA method with a replay loss to prevent the model from forgetting knowledge from past domains. Although our solution of multi-step domain adaptation is also iterative, we do not assume any smooth ordering between target domains, hence warranting the need for collaboration selection. Zhao et al. (2018) proposed MDAN where a target domain can adapt from multiple labeled source domains. As there is only one labeled source domain in our setup, this method cannot be directly applied. However, we can still combine the adversarial losses from multiple domains as proposed in MDAN - as such, we implement a variant of MDAN as a baseline for our method. Finally, there has been active research on distributed training of neural networks (Li et al. (2014); Ho et al. (2013); Konečnỳ et al. (2016)), however to the best of our knowledge, no methods have been proposed to make adversarial domain adaptation distributed, which is the focus of our work.

3 Our Approach

3.1 Primer on Adversarial Domain Adaptation

Before describing our approach, we provide a primer on adversarial domain adaptation which is a widely used approach for uDA and serves as the basic foundation of our solution. The core idea here is to use adversarial learning to align the feature representations of the source and target domains, thereby allowing a source classifier to be used in the target domain. In relation to our problem formulation, firstly, a source extractor E_S and a source classifier C_S is trained using supervised learning by solving the optimization problem:

$$\min_{E_S, C_S} \mathcal{L}_{cls} = -\mathbb{E}_{(x_s, y_s) \sim (X_S, Y_S)} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbb{1}_{[k=y_s]}[\log(C_S(E_S(x_s))]$$

The goal of the adaptation process is to learn a target extractor E_T using adversarial learning. To this end, the source extractor E_S is used as an initialization for the target extractor E_T. The weights of the source model are fixed during adversarial training. As in standard adversarial learning, two losses are optimized in the training process, a discriminator loss $\mathcal{L}_{adv_D}$ and a mapping loss $\mathcal{L}_{adv_M}$. Different uDA methods compute these two losses in their own way, e.g., ADDA (Tzeng et al. (2017)) uses the following loss formulations:

$$\min_D \mathcal{L}_{adv_D} = -\mathbb{E}_{x_s \sim \mathcal{X}_S}[\log(D(E_S(x_s))] - \mathbb{E}_{x_t \sim \mathcal{X}_T}[\log(1 - D(E_T(x_t))] \tag{1}$$

$$\min_{E_T} \mathcal{L}_{adv_M} = -\mathbb{E}_{x_t \sim \mathcal{X}_T}[\log(D(E_T(x_t))] \tag{2}$$

where D represents a domain discriminator which aims to distinguish source domain data and target domain data. DANN (Ganin et al. (2016)) uses a gradient reversal technique which results in $\mathcal{L}_{adv_M} = -L_{adv_D}$, Shen et al. (2018) estimates $\mathcal{L}_{adv_D}$ using the Wasserstein Distance.

Our work in general applies to any feature-alignment based uDA technique, which allows for source and target encoders to be trained independently. We note that there are indeed uDA approaches which optimize the source classification loss and adversarial loss in the same batch during training, but they are not compatible with our problem formulation wherein a pre-trained source model is to be deployed on a set of target domains. Further, uDA approaches based on generative modeling (Hoffman et al. (2018); Hosseini-Asl et al. (2018)) are also out of scope of our work.

Algorithm 1: DISTRIBUTED_UDA: Lazy-Synchronized Distributed Domain Adaptation

Result: E_T and C_T

1 **Input**: Pre-trained E_S and C_S; Randomly Initialize D_S; Initialize $E_T = E_S$, $D_T = D_S$, and $C_T = C_S$; Sync up step p; number of total steps N;

2 **for** $n = 1, 2, ..., N$ **do**

3   Source node and target node sample a batch of data respectively, $\xi_s^{(n)}$ and $\xi_t^{(n)}$;

4   Calculate gradients $\nabla g(D_S, \xi_s^{(n)})$ on source node, gradients $\nabla g(E_T, \xi_t^{(n)})$ and $\nabla g(D_T, \xi_t^{(n)})$ on target node ;

5   **if** *isTargetNode* **then**

6   Apply $\nabla g(E_T, \xi_t^{(n)})$ to E_T

7   **end**

8   Add $\nabla g(D_S, \xi_s^{(n)})$ to source gradients buffer G_S, add $\nabla g(D_T, \xi_t^{(n)})$ to target gradients buffer G_T;

9   **if** $n\%p == 0$ **then**

10   Exchange gradients buffer and calculate averaged gradients $g_{avg} = \frac{G_S + G_T}{2p}$;

11   Apply g_{avg} to D_S and D_T ;

12   Clear G_S and G_T ;

13   **end**

14 **end**

Algorithm 2: COLAB_SELECT: Wasserstein-Distance Guided Collaborator Selection

1 **Input**: Candidate set $\mathbb{C} = \{(p_1, E_1, C_1), (p_2, E_2, C_2)...(p_N, E_N, C_N)\}$, Target Dataset p_T;

2 **for** (p_i, E_i, C_i) *in* $\mathbb{C}$ **do**

3   W_i = compute_wasserstein_distance(p_i, p_T);

4   Compute source error ϵ_s using a small labeled test set.;

5   Compute the Lipschitz Constant K for the source extractor E_i and classifier C_i. ;

6    $\epsilon_{t_{max}}^i = \epsilon_s + 2.K.\mathbf{W}_i$;

7 **end**

8 Optimal Collaborator $O = \underset{i=1...N}{\arg\min} (\epsilon_{t_{max}}^i)$;

9 Return E_O and C_O;

Algorithm 3: MDDA: Multi-step Decentralized Domain Selection

1 **Input**: Initial Candidate set $\mathbb{C} = \{(E_S, C_S)\}$, Ordering of K target domains $\mathbb{T} = T_1, T_2 ... T_K$;

2 **for** T_i *in* $\mathbb{T}$ **do**

3   Obtain the optimal collaborator $O \in \mathbb{C}$ using COLAB_SELECT;

4   Run DISTRIBUTED_DA between O and T_i to obtain E_{T_i} and C_{T_i} ;

5    $\mathbb{C} \leftarrow \mathbb{C} \cup \{(E_{T_i}, C_{T_i})\}$;

6 **end**

3.2 Distributed Domain Adaptation

Prior adversarial uDA methods assume that source and target data is available on the same compute unit to perform adversarial learning. However as discussed in §2, data from different domains is often distributed and private in realistic applications, and sharing it could be legally prohibited. We present an approach of training an adversarial domain adaptation network with distributed domain datasets. In this vein, two key questions are: a) how to distribute the adversarial network architecture across nodes?, b) how to exchange information between the source and target nodes during adversarial learning?

We propose to split each constituent neural network in the adversarial training framework across the source and target nodes. Consequently, the *extractor*, *domain discriminator* and *task classifier* have source components (E_S, D_S, C_S) and target components (E_T, D_T, C_T). Source data and target data can therefore be fed separately into their own model components to prevent any exchange of raw data or feature representations across nodes. Given this network architecture, we now present our training strategy (also summarized in Algorithm 1). The first step is pre-training and initialization. We assume that the encoder and classifier (E_S and C_S) of the source domain have been trained either using supervised learning or through prior domain adaptation, and the source discriminator D_S is initialized randomly. Thereafter, the target domain components, E_T, C_T and D_T, are initialized with the respective source components.

During the adversarial training, for each step, source and target domains sample a training batch from their own domain data and calculate stochastic gradients for D_S on source domain and for E_T, D_T on target domain accordingly. The target extractor E_T is independent of the source data, therefore it is updated for each batch. However, as shown in Eq.1, the discriminator needs to be trained on data from both the source and target domains, therefore a simple strategy would be to exchange and average the gradients of the two discriminators after each step, and then update D_S

and D_T with the averaged gradients. While this will ensure that the discriminators are synchronized, it incurs a significant communication cost for each step. Instead, we propose a simple but effective method, called *Lazy Synchronization*, to reduce the communication cost of the algorithm.

The basic idea is to synchronize the source and target discriminators every p training steps. We refer to the training steps at which the synchronization takes place as the *sync-up steps* while the other steps during which both nodes are computing the gradients locally are called *local steps*. For discriminators D_S and D_T, their local gradients are accumulated during *local steps* and during the *sync-up steps*, the accumulated gradients on each node will be averaged and applied to D_S and D_T. Through this, we can ensure there is no divergence between the discriminators, and at the same time we are able to decrease the communication cost to $1/p$.

Another way of looking at our approach is that we update the target encoder E_T after every batch, but the discriminators are updated after every p batches. In §4.2, we empirically show that our method can obtain comparable accuracies to centralized training algorithms, while preserving private user data and minimizing the communication costs in the training process.

3.3 Wasserstein distance guided collaborator selection

We now discuss how to select an optimal adaptation collaborator $c \in \mathcal{C}_K$ for each target domain. Indeed, we should select a collaborator that is likely to yield the lowest target error post adaptation, but can we choose the optimal collaborator even before performing domain adaptation? In a seminal theoretical work, Ben-David et al. (2010) showed that the target error is bounded by the sum of source error and the divergence between source and target distributions. Redko et al. (2017) and Shen et al. (2018) did a similar analysis using the Wasserstein distance, which, together with Lipschitz functions, forms the basis for our collaborator selection method.

A function $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is θ-Lipschitz if it satisfies the inequality $\|f(x) - f(y)\| \le \theta \|x - y\|$ for some $\theta \in \mathbb{R}_+$. The smallest such θ is called the Lipschitz constant $\mathrm{Lip}(f)$ of f. Further, the 1-Wasserstein distance (Villani (2008)) between two distributions p_1 and p_2 – using the duality formula – is

$$W_1(p_1, p_2) = \sup_{f:\mathrm{Lip}(f) \le 1} \mathbb{E}_{p_1}[f] - \mathbb{E}_{p_2}[f] \tag{3}$$

Shen et al. (2018) computed the following robustness bound

$$\epsilon_{p_2}(h, h') \le \epsilon_{p_1}(h, h') + 2\theta W_1(p_1, p_2) \tag{4}$$

for any two θ-Lipschitz hypotheses h and h', where we denoted

$$\epsilon_p(h, h') = \mathbb{E}_p\left[\|h - h'\|\right]. \tag{5}$$

Our method is motivated by the observation that the above bound for the error

$$\epsilon_{p_2}(h) = \epsilon_{p_2}\left(h, h^{\mathrm{true}}\right), \tag{6}$$

where h^{true} is the true hypothesis, is a useful approximation of the error as long as the following conditions are satisfied for a sufficiently small θ:

- the true hypothesis h^{true} and the learned hypotheses $h = E \circ C$ are θ-Lipschitz,
- the push-forward measures $E_* p$ are close together in the Wasserstein distance.

These conditions are motivated by the fact that the domains should be well aligned for unsupervised domain adaptation to be effective. Using a Lipschitz continuous encoder allows us to perform adversarial alignment of higher order features, while maintaining a Lipschitz continuity guarantee on the true hypothesis as a function of the encoded features $E(x)$, where $x \sim p_2$.

Now assume we are trying to use domain adaptation to find a model for a domain $D = (\mathbb{R}^n, p)$ and we have a set of *candidate* domains $D_k = (\mathbb{R}^n, p_k)$, $k = 1, \ldots, K$ each with a pre-trained model $\mathcal{M}_k = (E_k, C_k)$, obtained by using either supervised learning or prior domain adaptation. We use the estimate provided by Equation 4 to select the optimal collaborator domain

$$D_{opt} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{k=1,\ldots,K} \epsilon_{p_k}(E_k \circ C_k) + 2\theta W_1(p_k, p) \tag{7}$$

and thereafter perform adaptation from D_{opt} to D. We note that while the Euclidean loss is not the loss function we are interested in for the purposes solving the classification problem, it serves as a useful proxy, as we will empirically show in Section 4.2.

Enforcing Lipschitz continuity and computing the Wasserstein distance. Training neural networks with minimal Lipschitz constants can be done by directly regularizing the spectral norm of the linear part of each layer by using power iterations Mises & Pollaczek-Geiringer (1929); Gouk et al. (2018), or a gradient penalty Gulrajani et al. (2017), or indirectly by using $L1$ or $L2$ weight decay. Enforcing a hard constraint on θ can be done by simply rescaling the linear part of the layer, or indirectly by weight clipping. For the feature extractor and classifier neural networks, we employ Spectral Norm regularization proposed by Gouk et al. (2018). Further, to compute the Wasserstein distance W_1 between distributions, we train a Wasserstein critic with gradient penalty as proposed by Gulrajani et al. (2017). Interestingly, training of this critic is also done in a distributed manner following the lazy synchronization strategy proposed in § 3.2.

3.4 Multi-Step Decentralized Domain Adaptation (MDDA)

Using the two core ideas discussed § 3.2 and § 3.3, we now summarize our multi-step DA algorithm MDDA (Algorithm 3). Assume we are given a labeled source domain with pre-trained model and an arbitrary ordering of K unlabeled target domains. For every target domain that joins the system, we first run collaborator selection with all the candidates available in the system. Upon selecting an optimal collaborator, we execute the distributed DA algorithm to enable uDA in a privacy-preserving manner. The adaptation process results in a feature extractor E_T and a classifier C_T for the target domain. Finally, the recently adapted target domain is added to the candidate set, and may serve as a potential collaborator for future domains.

4 Evaluation

4.1 Implementation

Datasets. We conduct experiments on five image and audio datasets: Rotated MNIST, Digits, and Office-Caltech, DomainNet and Mic2Mic. *Rotated MNIST* is a variant of MNIST with numbers rotated from 0°to 330°at increments of 30°. Each rotation is considered a separate domain. The *Digits* adaptation task has five domains: MNIST (M), USPS (U), SVHN (S) (Netzer et al. (2011)), MNIST-M and SynNumbers (SYN) (Ganin & Lempitsky (2014)). Each domain consists of 10 digit classes ranging from 0-9 in different styles. The *Office-Caltech* dataset contains object images from 10 classes obtained from Amazon (A), DSLR camera (D), Web camera (W), and Caltech-256 (C). *DomainNet* (Peng et al. (2018)) is a new dataset with four labeled image domains containing 345 classes each: Real (R), QuickDraw (Q), Infograph (I), and Sketch (S). Finally, Mic2Mic (Mathur et al. (2019)) is a speech-based keyword detection dataset wherein the keywords are recorded with four different microphones: Matrix Creator (C), Matrix Voice (V), ReSpeaker (R) and USB (U). Each microphone represents a domain.

Baselines. To evaluate our collaborator selection strategy, we compare it against the following:

- **Labeled Source.** This represents the most commonly used approach in uDA works, wherein every target domain performs a pairwise adaptation with the labeled source domain S.
- **Random Collaborator.** Here, we randomly choose a collaborator $c \in \mathcal{C}_K$ from the collaborator set and perform adaptation with the target domain.
- **Multi-Collaborator.** This approach is based on MDAN proposed by Zhao et al. (2018), wherein all available candidate domains are used for adaptation, however the contribution of each domain is dynamically re-weighted in the adversarial training process. However, note that MDAN assumes that all the candidate domains are labeled and jointly optimize the classification loss with the adversarial training. In our scenario, only one candidate domain has labeled data (S) while others are unlabeled. As such, we implement a modified version of MDAN which only optimizes their proposed adversarial loss in line with our problem formulation in §3.1.

Further, we compare our proposed distributed adversarial learning architecture against (i) a centralized uDA baseline wherein the source and target data reside on the same node and adversarial training takes place in a non-distributed manner, and (ii) D-PSGD proposed by Lian et al. (2017) for decentralized training of neural networks.

	RMNIST			Mic2Mic			Digits			Office-Caltech			DomainNet	
	O_1	O_2	O_3	O_1	O_2	O_3	O_1	O_2	O_3	O_1	O_2	O_3	O_1	O_2
No Adaptation	36.23	36.23	35.80	73.11	73.38	74.7	64.34	73.42	57.80	93.41	87.15	92.32	19.09	19.03
Random	42.89	39.73	43.49	76.9	79.1	78.0	65.11	78.41	59.5	95.45	90.10	95.69	32.21	33.19
Labeled Source	53.62	54.53	46.47	**78.07**	**80.96**	**79.96**	66.02	81.46	**65.89**	95.45	**91.98**	95.57	**34.28**	34.21
Multi-Collaborator	36.08	37.88	37.84	74.34	75.19	75.37	60.63	64.19	62.91	87.64	88.33	92.37	25.3	24.1
MDDA (Ours)	**86.08**	**70.84**	**79.19**	**78.07**	80.12	**79.96**	**81.87**	**89.03**	64.85	**95.82**	89.58	**96.01**	34.21	**34.34**
Ideal	86.38	71.77	79.52	78.07	80.96	79.96	83.84	89.03	69.32	95.82	92.09	96.01	34.28	34.34

Table 1: Target Domain Accuracy (%) under different techniques of selecting a collaborator using ADDA. *Ideal* refers to the best achievable performance if the most optimal collaborator is picked for each target domain.

Experiment Setup. We follow the same evaluation protocol as earlier uDA works (Hoffman et al. (2018); Tzeng et al. (2017)) wherein the unlabeled training instances from source and target domains are used for adversarial training, and the adapted model is evaluated on a held-out test dataset from target domain. In addition, we use a small subset of the training instances (10% of the total instances) for doing collaborator selection. Further, as we explained earlier, we assume that target domains join the system sequentially in an order, one at a time. Therefore, for each dataset, we randomly select different orderings of source and target domains and present average results across them. Our system is implemented with Tensorflow 2.0 and trained on Nvidia V100 GPUs. For more details about neural network architectures and the training hyper-parameters, please see Appendix A.

4.2 Results

We now present our results of applying MDDA on five datasets. Overall, our results show that MDDA selects the right collaborator for adaptation in 82% of the cases, which result in the highest mean target domain accuracy when compared to other baselines.

Performance of Collaborator Selection. For each dataset, we choose three random orderings of source and target domains, e.g., for *Office-Caltech*, we choose O_1=**W**,A,D,C; O_2=**D**,C,A,W; and O_3=**A**,D,W,C. Here the first domain in the order (in bold) represents the labeled source domain, while the others are unlabeled target domains in the order in which they join the system. Please refer to Appendix A for details about the orderings used for other datasets.

Figure 1 shows the accuracy of our collaborator selection algorithm. For this experiment, we perform adaptation between a target domain and each available candidate, and based on the target accuracy after each pairwise adaptation, we obtain the collaborator that yields the highest accuracy for each target domain. This serves as the ground truth for our algorithm. Thereafter, we run our collaborator selection algorithm on each ordering and obtain the optimal collaborator based on Algorithm 2. By comparing the output of our algorithm with the ground truth, we obtain Figure 1 which shows that on average, our algorithm has a selection accuracy of 82%. On further analysis, we found that our algorithm primarily makes mistakes when two candidates have similar domain discrepancy (estimated using the W_1 distance) with the target domain and we pick the second most optimal collaborator. In such scenarios, although the top-1 collaborator selection accuracy drops, it typically does not impact the target error significantly because adapting with the second-most optimal domain also yields a good adaptation performance.

Table 4 shows, for three different orderings, the mean accuracy across all target domains with MDDA and other baselines. We observe that in majority of the scenarios, MDDA outperforms the labeled-source adaptation baseline which is commonly used in uDA methods. This confirms our key intuition that a labeled source domain is not always optimal for domain adaptation, and demonstrates the value of a more flexible and decentralized approach like MDDA. Interestingly, we observe that while the multi-collaborator baseline is less accurate than MDDA in general, its performance is particularly poor on Rotated MNIST in which the number of collaborators are quite high – while a detailed investigation of this finding is outside the scope of this paper, we surmise that this technique does not scale well as the number of collaborator domains increase. MDDA, on the contrary, only performs pairwise adaptation once an optimal collaborator is selected, as such it scales gracefully as the number of target domains increase.

The results presented so far used the adversarial loss formulation from Eq. 1 and 2 which was proposed in ADDA. In Table 2, we evaluate the applicability of MDDA to methods that use other forms

of adversarial losses. More specifically, we evaluate MDDA a) when a Gradient Reversal Layer (GRL) is used to compute the mapping loss ($\mathcal{L}_{adv_M} = -\mathcal{L}_{adv_D}$), and b) in cases where Wasserstein Distance is used as a loss metric for domain discriminator. (Shen et al. (2018)). We observe that while different loss formulations yield different target accuracies, MDDA can work in conjunction with all of them to improve the overall accuracy over a labeled source-only adaptation.
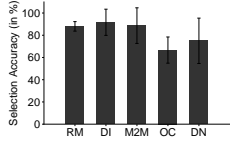

Figure 1: Mean accuracy of collaborator selection across three random orderings for Rotated MNIST (RM), Digits (DI), Mic2Mic (M2M), OfficeCaltech (OC) and Domain-Net(DN).

	RMNIST (O_1)			Digits (O_2)		
	ADDA	GRL	WassDA	ADDA	GRL	WassDA
No Adaptation	36.23	36.23	36.23	73.42	73.42	73.42
Random	42.89	39.33	43.78	78.41	79.22	74.91
Labeled Source	53.62	45.60	37.99	81.46	76.66	77.31
MDDA(Ours)	**86.08**	**63.49**	**85.6**	**89.03**	**85.24**	**79.48**
Ideal	86.38	68.92	86.94	68.92	85.42	79.9

Table 2: Mean target accuracy for a random order of domains across a range of adaptation methods.

Performance of Distributed Domain Adaptation. We now present the performance of our Lazy-synchronized DA algorithm. In Figure 2, we plot the target domain accuracy with the number of adversarial training steps for three uDA tasks. It can be observed that even with lazy discriminator synchronization, we can achieve similar target accuracy and convergence rate as centralized and synchronous training methods. We also note that the distributed training baseline (DPSGD) performs poorly for adversarial training.

Table 3 expands on this finding to show the target domain accuracy for 10 adaptation tasks under different training mechanisms. For example, in the D $\rightarrow$ A task in Office-Caltech, the centralized training mechanism has a 92.01% target accuracy, while our approach can reach 91.77% accuracy, while ensuring that domain data remains private.
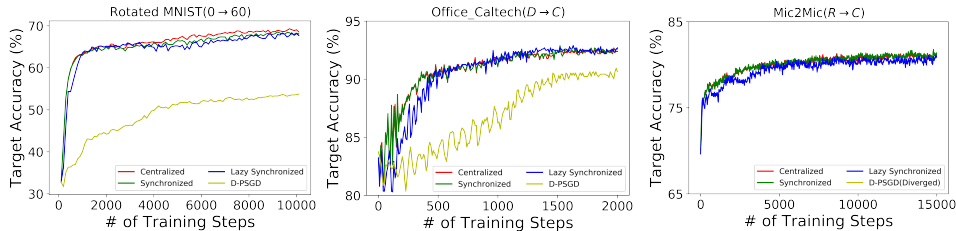

Figure 2: Comparison of target domain accuracy and training convergence across centralized and distributed training methods. For Mic2Mic, the PSGD baseline did not improve the accuracy, as such we omit it from the figure.

	RMNIST			Office-Caltech			Digits			DomainNet			Mic2Mic		
Training	0 $\rightarrow$ 60	150 $\rightarrow$ 180	t	W $\rightarrow$ C	D $\rightarrow$ A	t	M-M $\rightarrow$ U	Syn $\rightarrow$ U	t	S $\rightarrow$ R	Q $\rightarrow$ R	t	C $\rightarrow$ R	R $\rightarrow$ C	t
Source-Only	32.68	61.51	-	87.81	85.28	-	57.54	79.32	-	34.34	30.75	-	69.65	69.11	-
Centralized	69.61	91.86	8.5s	91.74	92.01	26.5s	82.1	90.1	10.5s	54.91	50.67	40.2s	78.02	77.94	55.48s
Synchronized	69.30	91.21	195.5s	91.02	92.13	28.1s	82.13	89.9	33.2s	54.23	49.95	82.1s	81.5	81.1	134.98s
Lazy Synchronized	68.34	90.16	55.2s	90.56	91.77	27.25s	81.66	89.78	15.5s	53.25	49.02	49.2s	77.48	81.03	75.28s

Table 3: Target Domain Accuracy (%) and Epoch Time for different training strategies with distributed domain datasets. Note that for *Centralized* case, the domain data transferring time should be considered on top of it's Epoch Time.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced a novel perspective on uDA research and explored practical challenges associated with deploying uDA methods in real-world ML systems. Our proposed framework MDDA is the first-ever solution aiming to make uDA methods work in a decentralized and distributed manner. As uDA is a rapidly evolving field, we did not study every class of uDA algorithms (e.g., those which combine feature-level adaptations with instance-level adaptations) in this

paper and we leave it as a future work. We also made an assumption that target domains are introduced sequentially in the system, however there could indeed be other ways in which ML models would evolve in practice (e.g., multiple target domains join together or in batches). We leave those scenarios as future work.

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A Appendix

Here we provide details about our experiment setup and model architectures. We are also in the process of obtaining necessary clearances to release our source code to the community.

A.1 Domain Orderings.

As we mentioned in the paper, the order of target domains joining the system can effect the decisions of our collaborator selecting algorithm, and then cause different adaptation results. To measure the effect of target orders, we reported three different orders for each data set in our experiments. We specify these order as follows:

	O_1	O_2	O_3
RMNIST	**0**,30,60,90,120,150 180,210,240,270,300,330	**0**,180,210,240,270,300,330,30,60,90,120,150 300,330,30,60,90,120,150	**30**,0,180,210,240 330,60,90,270,300,120,150
Mic2Mic	**C**,V,R,U	**R**,U,C,V	**V**,R,U,C
Digits	svhn,mnist,mnist_modified,synth_digits,usps	synth_digits,usps,mnist,mnist_modified,svh	mnist_modified,mnist,svhn,usps,synth_digits
Office-Caltech	**W**-A-D-C	**D**-C-A-W	**A**-D-W-C
DomainNet	S,R,I,Q	S,Q,I,R	R,I,Q,S

Table 4

A.2   Model Architectures and Hyperparameters.

We now describe the neural architectures used for each dataset along with the hyperparameters used in supervised and adversarial learning.

Rotated MNIST: We use the well-known LeNet architecture for this dataset as shown below. The model was trained for each source domain with a learning rate of 10^{-4} using the Adam optimizer and a batch size of 32.

```
Conv2D(filters = 20, kernel_size = 5, activation='relu'),
MaxPooling2D(pool_size = 2, strides = 2),
Conv2D(filters = 50, kernel_size = 5, activation='relu'),
MaxPooling2D(pool_size = 2, strides = 2),
Flatten(),
Dense(500, activation='relu'),
Dense(10, activation='softmax')
```

In order to enforce the Lipschitz continuity, we added spectral norm regularization during the training process. In the adversarial training process, we used the ADDA losses to perform domain adaptation with a learning rate of 10^{-5} for the target extractor and 10^{-4} for the discriminator.

Office-Caltech: We used Keras Inception-V3 pre-trained on ImageNet as the base model for this task. We added a bottleneck layer and a final classification layer. The model was trained for each source domain with a learning rate of 10^{-5} using the Adam optimizer and a batch size of 32.

```
InceptionV3(include_top=False, input_shape=(299, 299, 3),avg='pool'),
Dense(256, activation='relu')
Dense(10, activation='softmax')
```

In order to enforce the Lipschitz continuity, we added spectral norm regularization during the training process. In the adversarial training process, we used the ADDA losses to perform domain adaptation with a learning rate of 10^{-5} for the target extractor and 1e-4 for the discriminator.

DomainNet: We used Keras ResNet50-v2 pre-trained on ImageNet as the base model for this task. The model was trained for each source domain with a learning rate of 1e-5 using the Adam optimizer and a batch size of 64.

```
ResNet50V2(include_top=False, input_shape=(224, 224,3), avg='pool'),
Dense(245, activation='softmax')
```

In order to enforce the Lipschitz continuity, we added spectral norm regularization during the training process. In the adversarial training process, we used the ADDA losses to perform domain adaptation with a learning rate of 10^{-6} for the target extractor and 10^{-4} for the discriminator.

Mic2Mic: We mainly used three convolutional layers for this task. The model was trained for each source domain with a learning rate of 10^{-5} using the Adam optimizer and a batch size of 64.

```
Conv2D(filters = 64, kernel_size = (8,20), activation='relu')
MaxPooling2D(pool_size = (2,2)),
Conv2D(filters = 128, kernel_size = (4,10), activation='relu'),
MaxPooling2D(pool_size = (1,4)),
Conv2D(filters = 512, kernel_size = (2,2)),
Flatten(),
Dense(256, activation='relu'),
Dense(31)
```

In order to enforce the Lipschitz continuity, we added spectral norm regularization during the training process. In the adversarial training process, we used the ADDA losses to perform domain adaptation with a learning rate of 10^{-6} for the target extractor and 10^{-4} for the discriminator.

Digits: We constructed a neural network with three convolutional layer and some additional techniques like Dropout, BatchNormalization, for this task. The model was trained for each source domain with a learning rate of 10^{-5} using the Adam optimizer and a batch size of 64.

```
inputs = tf.keras.Input(shape=(32,32,3), name='img')
x = Conv2D(filters = 64, kernel_size = 5, strides=2)(inputs)
x = BatchNormalization()(x, training=is_training)
x = Dropout(0.1)(x, training=is_training)
x = ReLU()(x)
x = Conv2D(filters = 128, kernel_size = 5, strides=1)(x)
x = BatchNormalization()(x, training=is_training)
x = Dropout(0.3)(x, training=is_training)
x = ReLU()(x)
x = Conv2D(filters = 256, kernel_size = 5, strides=1)(x)
x = BatchNormalization()(x, training=is_training)
x = Dropout(0.5)(x, training=is_training)
x = ReLU()(x)
x = Flatten()(x)
x = Dense(512)(x)
x = BatchNormalization()(x, training=is_training)
x = ReLU()(x)
x = Dropout(0.5)(x, training=is_training)
outputs = Dense(10)(x)
```

In order to enforce the Lipschitz continuity, we added spectral norm regularization during the training process. In the adversarial training process, we used the ADDA losses to perform domain adaptation with a learning rate of 10^{-6} for the target extractor and 10^{-4} for the discriminator.