

HWA: Hyperparameters Weight Averaging in Bayesian Neural Networks

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Abstract

Bayesian neural networks attempt to combine the strong predictive performance of neural networks with formal quantification of uncertainty associated with the predicted output in the Bayesian framework. Confidence of the model and the predictions at inference time are left alone. Applying randomness and Bayes Rule to the weights of a deep neural network is a step towards achieving this goal. Current state of the art optimization methods for training Bayesian Neural Networks are relatively slow and inefficient, compared to their deterministic counterparts. In this paper, we propose HWA (Hyperparameters Weight Averaging) algorithm that leverages an averaging procedure in order to train faster and achieve better accuracy. We develop our main algorithm using the simple averaging heuristic and demonstrate its effectiveness on the space of the hyperparameters of the neural networks random weights. Numerical applications are presented to confirm the empirical benefits of our method.

1. Introduction

While Deep Learning methods have shown increasing efficiency in various domains such as natural language processing, computer vision or robotics, sensible areas including autonomous driving or medical imaging not only require accurate predictions but also uncertainty quantification. In (Neal, 2012), authors develop a bayesian variant of plain feed-forward multilayer neural networks in which weights and biases are considered as random variables. For supervised learning tasks, deterministic models are prone to overfitting and are not capable of estimating uncertainty in the training data resulting in making overly confident decisions about the correct class, *i.e.* miscalibration (Guo et al., 2017; Kendall and Gal, 2017). Nevertheless, representing that aforementioned uncertainty is crucial for decision making.

Bayesian methods display a hierarchical probabilistic model that assume a (prior) random distribution over the parameters of the parameters and are useful for assessing the uncertainty of the model via posterior predictive distribution quantification (Blundell et al., 2015; Kingma et al., 2015). Current training methods for Bayesian Neural Networks (BNN) (Neal, 2012) include Variational Inference (Graves, 2011; Hoffman et al., 2013) or BayesByBackprop (Blundell et al., 2015) based on Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO) maximization task. Naturally, Bayesian methods, and in particular BNNs, are thus highly sensitive to the parameters choice of the prior distribution and current state-of-the-art models are not as efficient and robust as traditional deep learning models.

In this paper, we introduce a new *optimization* algorithm to alleviate those challenges. Our main contributions read as follows:

- We introduce Hyperparameter Weight Averaging (HWA), a training algorithm that leverages stochastic averaging techniques (Polyak and Juditsky, 1992) and posterior sampling methods.
- Given the high nonconvexity of the loss landscape, our method finds heuristic explanation from theoretical works on averaging and generalization such as (Keskar et al., 2016; He et al., 2019) and more practical work on Deep Neural Networks (DNN) optimization such as (Izmailov et al., 2018).
- We provide numerical examples showcasing the effectiveness of our method on simple and complex supervised classification tasks.

The remaining of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the related works in the fields of optimization, Variational Inference and posterior sampling. Section 3 introduces the HWA algorithm which is the main contribution of our paper. Section 4 highlights the benefits of our averaging procedure on simple and complex numerical classification tasks. Section 5 concludes our work.

Notations: We denote for all $n > 1$, $[n]$ the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$, $\pi(w)$ denotes the prior distribution on the vector of random weights w .

2. Related Work

Posterior Prediction. Due to the nonconvexity of the loss landscapes involved in modern and complex deep learning tasks, direct sampling from the posterior distribution of the weights is not an option. Depending on the nature and in particular the dimensionality of the problem, Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods have been employed to overcome this intractability issue. By constructing a Markov chain, the samples drawn at convergence are guaranteed to be drawn from the target distribution. Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) (Neal et al., 2011) or Metropolis Hastings (MH) (Hastings, 1970) are two standard solutions used. Their stochastic gradients counterpart are extensively studied in (Ma et al., 2015).

Variational Inference (VI). When tackling an optimization problem, exact posterior sampling may be computationally involved and not even required. variational inference was proposed in (Graves, 2011), in the particular case of BNNs, in order to fit a Gaussian variational posterior approximation over the weights of neural networks. Through a simple reparameterization trick (Blundell et al., 2015), several methods have emerged to train BNNs leveraging the ease of use and implementation of VI (Kingma et al., 2015; Blundell et al., 2015; Molchanov et al., 2017). Though, those methods appear to be inefficient for large-scale datasets and newer methods were proposed to alleviate this issue such as the use of normalizing flows (Louizos and Welling, 2017), deterministic VI (Wu et al., 2018) or dropout VI (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016).

Stochastic Averaging. Averaging methods include the seminal papers of (Polyak, 1990) and (Ruppert, 1988), both based on the combination of past iterates along a stochastic approximation trajectory. For nonconvex loss objectives, this averaging procedure has been

adapted to Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) trajectory (Zhou and Cong, 2017). In particular, in modern deep learning examples, Izmailov et al. (2018) develops a novel method that averages snapshots of a deep neural networks (DNN) through the iterations and shows empirical benefits leading to a better generalization. Those experimental discoveries are then backed by theoretical understanding of the DNN loss landscape and the impact of averaging successive iterates in (Keskar et al., 2016; He et al., 2019).

3. Hyperparameters Averaging in Bayesian Neural Networks

In this section, we introduce the basic concepts of Bayesian Neural Networks and their corresponding loss function which plays a key role in this paper. From an optimization perspective, we review the Stochastic Weight Averaging (SWA) (Izmailov et al., 2018) averaging procedure, which can be seen as an approximation of the mean trajectory of the SGD iterates and introduce our method, namely HWA. *While SWA averages snapshots of the weights of the neural networks from past and successive iterations, our method HWA only captures snapshots of the hyperparameters, and not of the weights that are sampled at each training iteration.* We then discuss the uncertainty estimation prediction of such method and how our proposed extra step combining *posterior sampling* and *optimization* can lead to a better generalization of the trained model on test sets.

3.1. Bayesian Neural Networks and ELBO Maximization

Let $((x_i, y_i), i \in [n])$ be i.i.d. input-output pairs and $w \in \mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be a latent variable. When conditioned on the input data $x = (x_i, i \in [n])$, the joint distribution of $y = (y_i, i \in [n])$ and w is given by:

$$p(y, w|x) = \pi(w) \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|x_i, w) . \quad (1)$$

In the particular case of BNN, this likelihood function is parametrized by a multilayer neural network, which can be convolutional or not. The latent variables w are thus the weights and the biases of the model and are considered as latent (and random) variables. Training of such hierarchical models implies sampling from the posterior distribution of the weights w conditioned on the data (x, y) and noted $p(w|y, x)$. In most cases, this posterior distribution $p(w|y, x)$ is intractable and is approximated using a family of parametric distributions, $\{q(w, \theta), \theta \in \Theta\}$. The variational inference (VI) problem (Blei et al., 2017) boils down to minimizing the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between $q(w, \theta)$ and the posterior distribution $p(w|y, x)$:

$$\min_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta) := \text{KL}(q(w; \theta) || p(w|y, x)) := \mathbb{E}_{q(w; \theta)} [\log (q(w; \theta)/p(w|y, x))] . \quad (2)$$

Using (1), we decompose $\mathcal{L}(\theta) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{L}_i(\theta) + \text{const.}$ where:

$$\mathcal{L}_i(\theta) := -\mathbb{E}_{q(w; \theta)} [\log p(y_i|x_i, w)] + \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}_{q(w; \theta)} [\log q(w; \theta)/\pi(w)] . \quad (3)$$

Directly optimizing the finite sum objective function in (2) can be difficult. First, with $n \gg 1$, evaluating the objective function $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ requires a full pass over the entire dataset. Second, for some complex models, the expectations in (3) can be intractable even if we

assume a simple parametric model for $q(w; \theta)$. Thus, the computation of the gradient requires an approximation step usually invoking Monte Carlo (MC) approximation step. The full Variational inference procedure for training Bayesian Neural Networks, including the *MC approximation* step and the *parameter update* step, is summarized in Algorithm 2.

Solutions simply include using SGD (Bottou and Bousquet, 2008) where the gradient of the individual ELBO (3) is computed using Automatic Differentiation (Kucukelbir et al., 2017). The final update goes in the opposite direction of that gradient up to a learning rate factor. In the sequel, we develop an improvement over baseline SGD, invoking averaging virtue of several successive snapshots of the gradients. The method, called Hyperparameters Weight Averaging (HWA), aims at improving the generalization property of the trained model on unseen data.

3.2. Averaging model snapshots through hyperparameters loss landscapes

We now recall the classical SWA method developed in (Izmailov et al., 2018). Consider a deterministic deep neural network, the idea behind the Stochastic Weight Averaging procedure is to run several iterates of the classical SGD procedure, starting from a pre-trained model. At each timestep noted T_{avg} , the model estimate is equal to the average of the last T_{avg} iterates. Empirically, a constant and large learning rate is more efficient given the exploration virtue that it implies.

After establishing the connectivity between several modes (point estimate of minimal loss) of the same deep neural network (after different training procedure) in (Garipov et al., 2018), being able to average all those iterates probably traversing several models or at least model estimates that belong to low loss region would make the resulting trained model more robust and thus generalize better to unseen data. Several theoretical paper such as (He et al., 2019) or (Keskar et al., 2016) provide an attempt at explaining this phenomena.

Hyperparameters Weight Averaging: Based on the probabilistic model developed above, the loss function (2) is defined on the space of the hyperparameters, *i.e.* the mean and the variance of the variational candidate distribution.

Regarding the parameterization choice of the variational candidate $q(w; \theta)$, we chose for simplicity a scalar mean μ_ℓ depending on the layer $\ell \in [L]$ and constant between each neuron. Classically, the covariance of this variational distribution is diagonal, see (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017; Blundell et al., 2015), yet can be too restrictive. We follow the direction taken in (Maddox et al., 2019), where the covariance of $q(w, \theta)$ is a diagonal matrix. As a result, the averaging procedure practically occurs on the set of hyperparameters and requires updating the mean and the variance of the variational candidate distribution, at iteration $k + 1$, if k , the iteration index, is a multiple of the cycle length c , as below:

$$\mu_\ell^{HWA} = \frac{n_m \mu_\ell^{HWA} + \mu_\ell^{k+1}}{n_m + 1} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma^{HWA} = \frac{n_m \sigma^{HWA} + (\mu_\ell^{k+1})^2}{n_m + 1} - (\mu_\ell^{HWA})^2, \quad (4)$$

where for all $\ell \in [L]$, μ_ℓ^{k+1} and σ^{k+1} are both obtained via Stochastic Variational Inference.

Algorithm 1 HWA: Hyperparameters Weight Averaging

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- 1: **Input:** Iteration index k . Trained hyperparameters $\hat{\mu}_\ell$ and $\hat{\sigma}$. LR γ_k . Cycle length c . Gradient vector $\nabla \mathcal{L}_{i_k}(\theta^k)$
 - 2: $\gamma \leftarrow \gamma(k)$ (Cyclical LR for the iteration)
 - 3: **SVI updates:**
 - 4: $\mu_\ell^{k+1} \leftarrow \mu_\ell^k - \gamma_k \nabla_{\mu_\ell} \mathcal{L}_{i_k}(\mu_\ell^k)$
 - 5: $\sigma^{k+1} \leftarrow \sigma^k - \gamma_k \nabla_{\sigma} \mathcal{L}_{i_k}(\sigma^k)$
 - 6: **if** $\text{mod}(k, c) = 0$ **then**
 - 7: $n_m \leftarrow k/c$ (Number of models to average over)
$$\mu_\ell^{HWA} \leftarrow \frac{n_m \mu_\ell^{HWA} + \mu_\ell^{k+1}}{n_m + 1} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma^{HWA} \leftarrow \frac{n_m \sigma^{HWA} + (\mu_\ell^{k+1})^2}{n_m + 1} - (\mu_\ell^{HWA})^2$$
 - 8: **end if**
 - 9: **Return** hyperparameters $(\{\mu_\ell^{HWA}\}_{l=1}^L, \sigma^{HWA})$.
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Algorithm 1 develops the main method of our paper. Stochastic Variational update is executed Line 4. The stochastic averaging procedure happens every c iterations, and consists in computing the weight sum between the latest model estimate and the running average noted using the superscript HWA.

Several hyperparameters are worth highlighting here. The standard learning rate γ_k plays a key role and is either equal to a constant or a cyclical learning rate. The cycle length c which monitors the number of times snapshots of the model estimates are being averaged is also of utmost importance and needs careful tuning.

3.3. Comparison with other classical averaging procedures in nonconvex optimization

From Algorithm 1, we note that the averaging procedure happens once at each cycle c , a tuning hyperparameter, on the parameter estimates resulting from a simple stochastic gradient descent update. Yet, another natural averaging step would be to keep K snapshots of the past stochastic gradients and compute an aggregated sum used as the drift term in the general update rule, see (Zhou and Cong, 2017). Nevertheless, in our setting, the objective function while being nonconvex is (possibly) parameterized by a high dimensional neural network making it computationally involved to store those K gradients.

Incremental Aggregated Gradients methods: Popular optimization methods, such as SAG (Schmidt et al., 2017) or SAGA (Defazio et al., 2014), make use of the past individual gradient and compute a moving average of those vectors as the final drift term. Those methods are proven to be faster than plain SGD in both convex and nonconvex cases, leveraging among other reasons variance reduction effect, but suffer from a high storage cost. Indeed the drift term is composed of the sum of the n past individual gradient where n is equal to the size of the training set.

MISO (Mairal, 2015): Another important method invoking variance reduction through incremental update of the drift term in a gradient descent step is the Minimization by Incremental Surrogate Optimization method, namely MISO, developed in Mairal (2015).

Contrary to the method mentionned above, the accumulation does not happen on the gradient but on the sum of individual surrogate objective functions. While this framework is more general than SAG or SAGA, and also does not require storing n past gradients, it is still computationally heavy to store those n past objective functions, rather their model parameter estimates, when tackling deep neural networks training.

For all those reasons, HWA surely combines the virtue of the accumulation/aggregation effect and the low computing cost of vanilla SGD.

3.4. Variational Inference with HWA

Note that in the above procedure, the variational candidate $q(w, \theta)$ has a diagonal covariance matrix where the scalar standard deviations are obtained through Algorithm 1. One parameter estimates are updated via (4), the neural network weights are then sampled according to the updated variational candidate distributions in order to compute the next iteration approximate stochastic gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}_{i_k}(\theta)$. Yet it is also possible build a non diagonal proposal covariance to bypass the restriction of such structure. Besides, given the nonconvexity and high dimensionality of the true posterior distribution, adding even a low rank non diagonal structure to the covariance of our proposal would yield a gain in efficiency in the variational inference procedure. Of course the ideal option would be to build a posterior curvature-informed covariance but at a higher cost. The trade-off between computational costs and proposal efficiency is detailed in the following. The low-rank plus diagonal posterior approximation matrix, noted Σ of $q(w, \theta)$ introduced in (Maddox et al., 2019) reads:

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{2}\Sigma_{\text{diag}} + \frac{\widehat{D}\widehat{D}^\top}{2(R-1)} \quad (5)$$

where $\mu^{HWA} = (\mu_\ell^{HWA}, \ell \in [L])$, R is the maximum number of columns in the low rank deviation matrix \widehat{D} and Σ_{diag} is the diagonal covariance defined above. The r -th component, where $r \in [R]$, of the low rank deviation matrix \widehat{D} is defined as the gap between the current estimate and the running average: $\widehat{D}_r = \theta_r - \theta_r^{HWA}$. It quantifies how far the current estimate parameter deviate from the current averaged parameter.

Then the covariance of the proposal $q(\cdot)$ in Algorithm 2 is either set to (4) or (5).

Discussion on the choice of the variational candidate distribution: The general aim of the update rules presented above is to construct an efficient variational candidate distribution that would provide an approximate shape of the true posterior. Our method acts on the mean and covariance of a simple Gaussian distribution where the covariance matrix is either diagonal or low rank. Nevertheless, other choice of proposal can be employed such as the spike and slab variational distribution, in (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016), leveraging dropout mechanism in VI. The other similar idea, namely concrete dropout in (Gal et al., 2017) not only optimizes the hyperparameters of the weights but also the dropout probabilities. We do not consider those variants as our work focuses on Gaussian approximations of the posterior distribution and how their parameters are updated, see Section 4 for a description of baseline methods used in our numerical experiments.

We now give in Algorithm 2, the overall training algorithm of the Bayesian Neural Network using the proposed HWA algorithm to update the parameters.

Algorithm 2 Variational Inference with HWA for BNNs

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- 1: **Input:** Trained hyperparameters $\hat{\mu}_\ell$ and $\hat{\sigma}$. Sequence of LR $\{\gamma_k\}_{k>0}$. Cycle length c . K iterations.
 - 2: **for** $k = 0, 1, \dots$ **do**
 - 3: Sample an index i_k uniformly on $[n]$
 - 4: Sample MC batch of weights $\{w_k^m\}_{m=1}^{M_k}$ from variational candidate $q(w, \theta^k)$ with $\theta^k = (\mu^k, \Sigma^k)$ and the covariance is either diagonal (4) or low rank (5).
 - 5: Compute MC approximation of the gradient vectors:

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}_{i_k}(\theta^k) \approx \frac{1}{M_k} \sum_{m=1}^{M_k} \log p(y_{i_k} | x_{i_k}, w_m^k) + \nabla KL(q(w, \theta^k) || \pi(w))$$

- 6: Update the vector of parameter estimates calling Algorithm 1: $(\mu^K, \Sigma^K) = \text{HWA}(k, c, \gamma_k, \nabla \mathcal{L}_{i_k}(\theta^k))$
 - 7: **end for**
 - 8: **Return** Fitted parameters (μ^K, Σ^K) .
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4. Numerical Experiments

In this section, we provide experiments on classification tasks with various neural network architectures and datasets to demonstrate the effectiveness of our hyperparameter averaging method, namely HWA.

Methods. We consider two baselines. The first one is the standard BAYESBYBACKPROP method developed in (Blundell et al., 2015). This optimization is achieving state-of-the-art results when training Bayesian Neural Network. The second method is the Stochastic Gradient Langevin Dynamics (SGLD) optimization method introduced in (Welling and Teh, 2011). The algorithms are initialized at the same point and the results are averaged over 5 repetitions.

Datasets. We compare different algorithms on *MNIST* (LeCun and Cortes, 2010) and *CIFAR10* (Krizhevsky et al., 2009) datasets. The *MNIST* training set is composed of $n = 55\,000$ handwritten digits, 28×28 images. Each image is labelled with its corresponding number (from zero to nine). *CIFAR10* is a popular computer-vision datasets of 50 000 training images and 10 000 test images, of size 32×32 .

Network architectures. (MNIST) We train a Bayesian variant of LeNet-5 convolutional neural network on the MNIST dataset. Under the prior distribution π , see (1), the weights are assumed independent and identically distributed according to $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. We also assume a Gaussian variational candidate distribution such that $q(\cdot; \theta) \equiv \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$. The variational posterior parameters are thus $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$ where $\mu = (\mu_\ell, \ell \in [d])$ where d is the number of weights in the neural network.

(CIFAR-10) We train here the Bayesian variant of the VGG neural network introduced in (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014) on the CIFAR-10 dataset. As in the previous example, the weights are assumed independent and identically distributed according to $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$. Standard hyperparameters values found in the literature, such as the annealing constant or

the number of MC samples, were used for the benchmark methods. For better efficiency and lower variance, the Flipout estimator (Wen et al., 2018) is used.

Results. Results for both datasets and network architectures are reported Figure 1. While for the MNIST dataset the runs for HWA and SGLD are comparable both in terms of train and testing loss and accuracy, they both highlights better convergence properties compared to BAYESBYBACKPROP (BBB). It is worth mentioning that our method HWA displays a similar behavior as a gradient based method, such as SGLD, by only leveraging the average of past snapshots of the variational candidate hyperparameters.

Regarding the CIFAR10 experiment, our method shows overfitting on training data with respect to the loss objective but seems to generalize better to unseen data (cf. last figure on bottom line in Figure 1). In conclusion, HWA achieves state-of-the-art results for either small or large bayesian variants of standard network architectures while using a simple and efficient averaging update at each *cycle*.

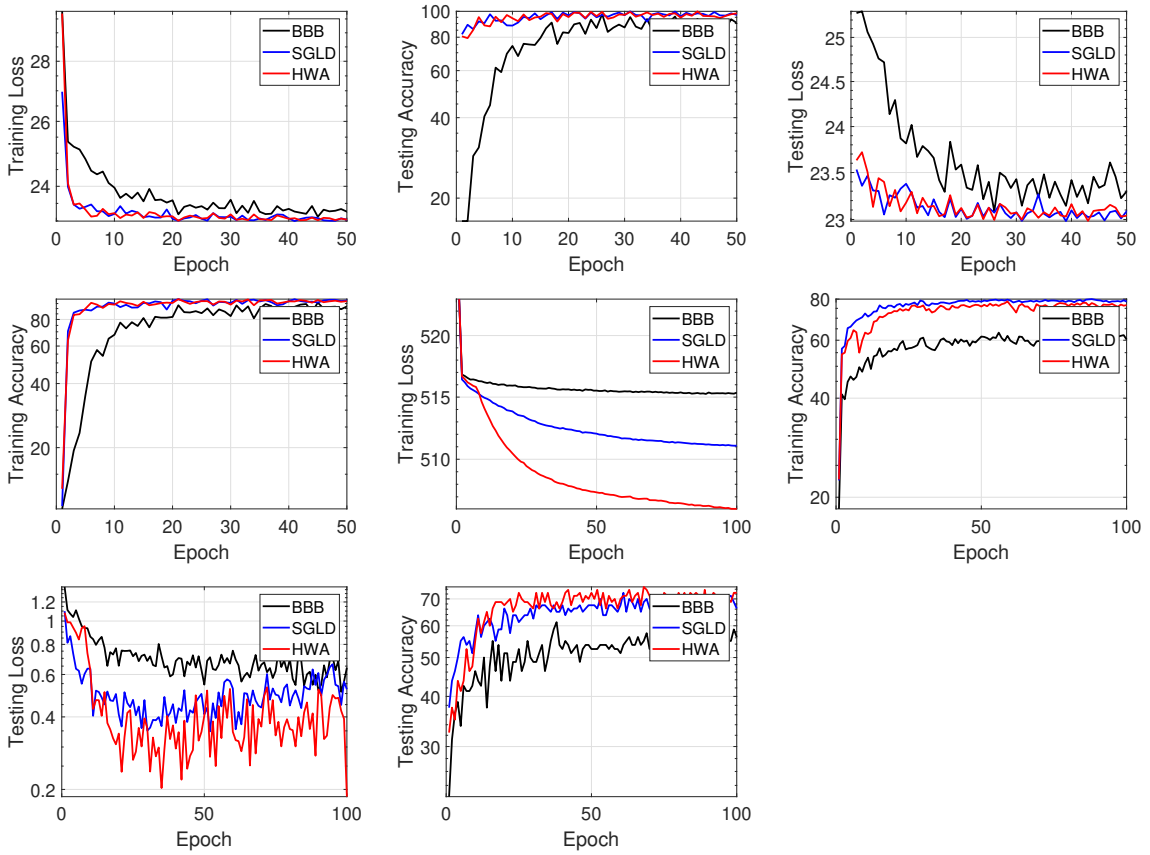


Figure 1: Comparison for Bayesian LeNet CNN architecture on MNIST dataset (top) and Bayesian VGG architecture on CIFAR-10 dataset (bottom). The plots are averaged over 5 repetitions.

5. Conclusion

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