An Adaptive Empirical Bayesian Method for Sparse Deep Learning

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Overview

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Sampling in DNNs

Sampling in deep neural networks (DNN) has many desired properties.

- Asymptotic properties in modeling uncertainty, [9, 2].
- Proven guarantees in non-convex optimizations, e.g. [7, 11, 12, 6].

Stochastic Gradient Langevin Dynamics

SGLD (no momentum) [10] is formulated as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)} + \epsilon^{(k)} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{L}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}) + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\epsilon^{(k)} \tau^{-1}), \tag{1}$$

where $\nabla_{\beta}\tilde{L}(\beta)$ is the stochastic gradient calculated from a mini-batch of data of size n randomly sampled from the whole dataset of size N to approximate the exact gradient $\nabla_{\beta}L(\beta)$:

$$\nabla_{\beta} \tilde{L}(\beta) = \nabla_{\beta} \log P(\beta) + \frac{N}{n} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \nabla_{\beta} \log P(\mathbf{d}_i | \beta).$$
 (2)

Stochastic Gradient Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

SGHMC [3], proposes to generate samples as follows:

$$\begin{cases} d\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{r}dt, \\ d\boldsymbol{r} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\beta})dt - \boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{r}dt + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\boldsymbol{B}\tau^{-1}dt) + \mathcal{N}(0, 2(\boldsymbol{C} - \hat{\boldsymbol{B}})\tau^{-1}dt), \end{cases}$$
 where \boldsymbol{r} is the momentum item, $\hat{\boldsymbol{B}}$ is an estimate of the stochastic

where r is the momentum item, \ddot{B} is an estimate of the stochastic gradient variance, c is a user-specified friction term. Regarding the discretization of (3), we follow the numerical method proposed by [8] due to its convenience to import parameter settings from SGD.

A class of Adaptive Stochastic Gradient MCMC

Unlike the exsiting framework for adaptive SG-MCMC [5], which aims to sample the original distribution $\pi_{\theta}(\beta)$, our interest is to sample from **a new distribution** $\pi(\beta, \theta_*)$, where θ_* is adaptively obtained by solving a fixed-point formulation $\int g_{\theta_*}(\beta)\pi(\beta, \theta_*)d\beta = \theta_*$ and g_{θ_*} here can be a closed-form expression update.

A class of Adaptive Stochastic Gradient MCMC

The stochastic approximation algorithm can be used to solve the fixed-point iterations:

- (1) Sample $\beta^{(k+1)}$ from a transition kernel $\Pi_{\theta^{(k)}}(\beta)$ based on SGMCMC, which yields the distribution $\pi(\beta, \theta^{(k)})$,
- (2) Update $\theta^{(k+1)} = \theta^{(k)} + \omega^{(k+1)} H(\theta^{(k)}, \beta^{(k+1)}) = \theta^{(k)} + \omega^{(k+1)} (h(\theta^{(k)}) + \Omega^{(k)}).$

where $\omega^{(k+1)}$ is the step size. The equilibrium point θ_* is obtained when the distribution of β converges to the invariant distribution $\pi(\beta, \theta_*)$.

A class of Adaptive Stochastic Gradient MCMC

Stochastic approximation [1] differs from the Robbins-Monro algorithm in that sampling β from a transition kernel instead of a distribution introduces a Markov **state-dependent noise** $H(\theta_k, \beta_{k+1}) - h(\theta_k)$, where $h(\theta)$ is the mean field function s.t. $h(\theta) := E[H(\beta, \theta)]$.

Convergence of Latent Variables

The key to guaranteeing the convergence of the adaptive SGLD algorithm is to use **Poisson's equation** to analyze additive functionals. By decomposing the Markov state-dependent noise Ω into martingale difference sequences and perturbations, where the latter can be controlled by the **regularity of the solution of Poisson's equation**, we can guarantee the consistency of the latent variable estimators.

Theorem (L_2 convergence rate)

For any $\alpha \in (0,1]$, under assumptions in the appendix, the algorithm satisfies: there exists a constant λ and a local optimum θ^* such that

$$\mathsf{E}\left[\|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*\|^2\right] \le \lambda \omega^{(k)},$$

Weak Convergence of Samples

SGLD with adaptive latent variables forms a sequence of inhomogenous Markov chains and the weak convergence of β to the target posterior is equivalent to proving the weak convergence of SGLD with biased estimations of gradients. Inspired by [2], we have:

Corollary

Under assumptions in Appendix B.2, the random vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}$ from the adaptive transition kernel $\Pi_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)}}$ converges weakly to the invariant distribution $e^{\tau L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)}$ as $\epsilon \to 0$ and $k \to \infty$.

Application: A hierarchical formulation

We assume the weight β_{lj} in sparse layer l with index j follow the spike-and-slab Gaussian-Laplace (SSGL) prior

$$\beta_{lj}|\sigma^2, \gamma_{lj} \sim (1-\gamma_{lj})\mathcal{L}(0, \sigma v_0) + \gamma_{lj}\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 v_1).$$

The variance σ^2 follows an inverse gamma prior

$$\pi(\sigma^2) = IG(\nu/2, \nu\lambda/2).$$

The i.i.d. Bernoulli prior is used for γ , namely

$$\pi(\gamma_I|\delta_I) = \delta_I^{|\gamma_I|} (1 - \delta_I)^{p_I - |\gamma_I|},$$

 δ_I follows Beta distribution. The use of adaptive penalty enables to learn the level of sparsity automatically. Finally the posterior is as follows:

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2, \delta, \boldsymbol{\gamma} | \mathcal{B}) \propto \pi(\boldsymbol{\mathcal{B}} | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)^{\frac{N}{n}} \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta} | \sigma^2, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \pi(\sigma^2 | \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \pi(\boldsymbol{\gamma} | \delta) \pi(\delta)$$

Sampling from Exact Likelihood with Empirical Prior

Instead of tackling $\pi(\beta, \sigma^2, \delta, \gamma | \mathcal{D})$ directly, we propose to iteratively update the expectation of the lower bound Q by Fubini's theorem and Jensen's inequality:

$$Q(\beta, \sigma, \delta | \beta^{(k)}, \sigma^{(k)}, \delta^{(k)})$$

$$= E_{\mathcal{B}} \left[E_{\gamma|\mathcal{D}} \left[\log \pi(\beta, \sigma^2, \delta, \gamma | \mathcal{B}) \right] \right].$$

Given $(\beta^{(k)}, \sigma^{(k)}, \delta^{(k)})$ at the k-th iteration, we first sample $\beta^{(k+1)}$ from Q, then optimize Q with respect to σ, δ and $E_{\gamma_l|\cdot,\mathcal{D}}$ via SA, where $E_{\gamma_l|\cdot,\mathcal{D}}$ is used since γ is treated as unobserved variable.

We decompose our Q as follows:

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma, \delta | \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}, \sigma^{(k)}, \delta^{(k)})$$

$$= Q_1(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma | \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}, \sigma^{(k)}, \delta^{(k)})$$

$$+ Q_2(\delta | \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}, \sigma^{(k)}, \delta^{(k)}) + C,$$

Sampling from Exact Likelihood with Empirical Prior

$$Q_{1}(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)},\sigma^{(k)},\delta^{(k)})$$

$$= \frac{N}{n}\log \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\boldsymbol{\beta}) - \sum_{I \in \mathcal{C}} \sum_{j \in p_{I}} \frac{\beta_{Ij}^{2}}{2\sigma_{0}^{2}} - \frac{p + \nu + 2}{2}\log(\sigma^{2})$$

$$= \sum_{I \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{j \in p_{I}} \left[\frac{|\beta_{Ij}|E_{\gamma_{I}|\cdot,\mathcal{D}}\left[\frac{1}{v_{0}(1-\gamma_{Ij})}\right]}{\sigma}\right]$$

$$= \sum_{I \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{j \in p_{I}} \left[\frac{\beta_{Ij}^{2}E_{\gamma_{I}|\cdot,\mathcal{D}}\left[\frac{1}{v_{1}\gamma_{Ij}}\right]}{\sigma}\right]$$

$$= \sum_{I \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{j \in p_{I}} \left[\frac{\beta_{Ij}^{2}E_{\gamma_{I}|\cdot,\mathcal{D}}\left[\frac{1}{v_{1}\gamma_{Ij}}\right]}{2\sigma^{2}}\right] - \frac{\nu\lambda}{2\sigma^{2}}$$

$$Q_{2}(\delta_{I}|\beta_{I}^{(k)}, \delta_{I}^{(k)}) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{j \in p_{I}} \log \left(\frac{\delta_{I}}{1 - \delta_{I}}\right) \underbrace{\sum_{\gamma_{I}|\cdot, \mathcal{D}}^{p_{Ij}}}_{\gamma_{I}|\cdot, \mathcal{D}} \gamma_{Ij} + (a - 1)\log(\delta_{I}) + (p_{I} + b - 1)\log(1 - \delta_{I}),$$

$$(4)$$

Regarding the closed-form updates with respect to ρ , we denote the optimal ρ based on the current β and δ by $\tilde{\rho}$. We have that $\tilde{\rho}_{lj}^{(k+1)}$, the probability of β_{lj} being dominated by the L_2 penalty is

$$\tilde{\rho}_{lj}^{(k+1)} = \mathop{\mathsf{E}}_{\gamma_l|\cdot,\mathcal{B}} \gamma_{lj} = \mathrm{P}(\gamma_{lj} = 1 | \boldsymbol{\beta}_l^{(k)}, \delta_l^{(k)}) = \frac{\mathsf{a}_{lj}}{\mathsf{a}_{lj} + b_{lj}},\tag{5}$$

where $a_{lj}=\pi(\beta_{lj}^{(k)}|\gamma_{lj}=1)\delta_l^{(k)}$ and $b_{lj}=\pi(\beta_{lj}^{(k)}|\gamma_{lj}=0)(1-\delta_l^{(k)})$. Similarly, as to the updates w.r.t. κ , the optimal $\tilde{\kappa}_{lj0}$ and $\tilde{\kappa}_{lj1}$ based on the current ρ_{lj} are given by:

$$\tilde{\kappa}_{lj0} = \underset{\gamma_l|\cdot,\mathcal{B}}{\mathsf{E}} \left[\frac{1}{v_0(1-\gamma_{lj})} \right] = \frac{1-\rho_{lj}}{v_0}; \ \tilde{\kappa}_{lj1} = \underset{\gamma_l|\cdot,\mathcal{B}}{\mathsf{E}} \left[\frac{1}{v_1\gamma_{lj}} \right] = \frac{\rho_{lj}}{v_1}. \tag{6}$$

To optimize Q_1 with respect to σ , by denoting diag $\{\kappa_{0li}\}_{i=1}^{p_l}$ as \mathcal{V}_{0l} , diag $\{\kappa_{1li}\}_{i=1}^{p_l}$ as \mathcal{V}_{1l} we have:

$$\tilde{\sigma}^{(k+1)} = \begin{cases} \frac{R_b + \sqrt{R_b^2 + 4R_aR_c}}{2R_a} & \text{(regression)}, \\ \frac{C_b + \sqrt{C_b^2 + 4C_aC_c}}{2C_a} & \text{(classification)}, \end{cases}$$
(7)

where
$$R_a = N + \sum_{l \in \mathcal{X}} p_l + \nu$$
, $C_a = \sum_{l \in \mathcal{X}} p_l + \nu + 2$, $R_b = C_b = \sum_{l \in \mathcal{X}} ||\mathbf{\mathcal{V}}_{0l}\mathbf{\mathcal{\beta}}_l^{(k+1)}||_1$, $R_c = I + J + \nu\lambda$, $C_c = J + \nu\lambda$, $I = \frac{N}{n} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} (y_i - \psi(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k+1)}))^2$, $J = \sum_{l \in \mathcal{X}} ||\mathbf{\mathcal{V}}_{1l}^{1/2} \boldsymbol{\beta}_l^{(k+1)}||^2$.

 \parallel_1 represents L_1 norm.

²The quadratic equation has only one unique positive root. $\|\cdot\|$ refers to L_2 norm,

To optimize Q_2 , a closed-form update can be derived from Eq.(4) and Eq.(5) given batch data \mathcal{B} :

$$\widetilde{\delta}_{l}^{(k+1)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\delta_{l} \in \mathbb{R}} Q_{2}(\delta_{l} | \beta_{l}^{(k)}, \delta_{l}^{(k)})
= \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{p_{l}} \rho_{lj} + a - 1}{a + b + p_{l} - 2}.$$
(8)

Pruning Strategy

Although the magnitude-based **unit pruning** shows more computational savings, it doesn't demonstrate robustness under coarser pruning. Pruning based on the probability ρ is also popular in the Bayesian community, but achieving the target sparsity in sophisticated networks requires extra fine-tuning. We instead apply the magnitude-based **weight-pruning** to our compression experiments.

Stochastic Approximatioin SGLD

Algorithm 1 SGLD-SA with SSGL priors

```
Initialize: \beta^{(1)}, \rho^{(1)}, \kappa^{(1)}, \sigma^{(1)} and \delta^{(1)} from scratch, set target sparse rates \mathbb{D}, \mathcal{V} and \mathbb{S}
for k \leftarrow 1 : k_{\text{max}} do
      Sampling
      \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)} + \epsilon^{(k)} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} Q(\cdot | \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(k)}) + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\epsilon^{(k)} \tau^{-1})
      Stochastic Approximation for Latent Variables
      SA: \rho^{(k+1)} \leftarrow (1 - \omega^{(k+1)}) \rho^{(k)} + \omega^{(k+1)} \tilde{\rho}^{(k+1)} following Eq.(12)
      SA: \kappa^{(k+1)} \leftarrow (1 - \omega^{(k+1)}) \kappa^{(k)} + \omega^{(k+1)} \tilde{\kappa}^{(k+1)} following Eq.(13)
      SA: \sigma^{(k+1)} \leftarrow (1 - \omega^{(k+1)})\sigma^{(k)} + \omega^{(k+1)}\tilde{\sigma}^{(k+1)} following Eq.(14)
      SA: \delta^{(k+1)} \leftarrow (1 - \omega^{(k+1)})\delta^{(k)} + \omega^{(k+1)}\tilde{\delta}^{(k+1)} following Eq.(15)
      if Pruning then
             Prune the bottom-s\% lowest magnitude weights
             Increase the sparse rate s \leftarrow \mathbb{S}(1 - \mathbb{D}^{k/\mho})
      end if
end for
```

Simulation of Large-p-Small-n Regression

Dataset: n = 100 and p = 1000. $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\eta}$ where $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}_p(0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, 0, 0, ..., 0)'$, $\boldsymbol{\eta} \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{0}, 3\mathbf{I}_n)$, $\beta_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(3, \sigma_c^2)$, $\beta_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(2, \sigma_c^2)$, $\beta_3 \sim \mathcal{N}(1, \sigma_c^2)$, $\sigma_c = 0.2$.

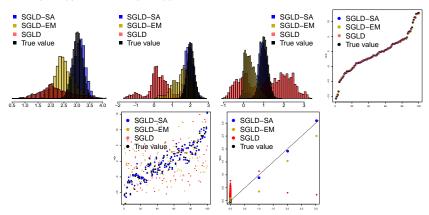


Figure: (a-c): Posterior estimation of β_1 , β_2 and β_3 , (d): training performance, (e): testing performance, (f): variable estimates

Classification with Auto-tuning Hyperparameters

Fixed temperature can also be powerful in escaping "shallow" local traps [12], our temperatures are set to $\tau=1000$ for MNIST and $\tau=2500$ for FMNIST.

Table 2: Classification accuracy using shallow networks

DATASET	MNIST	DA-MNIST	FMNIST	DA-FMNIST
VANILLA	99.31	99.54	92.73	93.14
DROPOUT	99.38	99.56	92.81	93.35
SGHMC	99.47	99.63	92.88	94.29
SGHMC-SA	99.59	99.75	93.01	94.38

Here, DA-MNIST and DA-FMNIST are tested with data augmentation and batch normalization, while MNIST and FMNIST are not.

Defenses against Adversarial Attacks

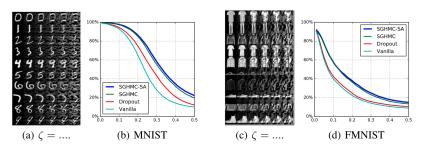


Figure 2: Adversarial test accuracies based on adversarial images of different levels

Residual Network Compression

Table: Resnet20 Compression on CIFAR10. When $\mathbb{S}=0.9$, we fix $v_0=0.005$, $v_1=1\text{e-}5$; When $\mathbb{S}=0.7$, we fix $v_0=0.1$, $v_1=5\text{e-}5$; When $\mathbb{S}=0.5$, we fix $v_0=0.1$, $v_1=5\text{e-}4$; When $\mathbb{S}=0.3$, we fix $v_0=0.5$, $v_1=1\text{e-}3$.

Methods \ S	30%	50%	70%	90%
A-SGHMC	94.07	94.16	93.16	90.59
A-SGHMC-EM	94.18	94.19	93.41	91.12
SGHMC-SA	94.13	94.11	93.52	91.45
A-SGHMC-SA	94.23	94.27	93.74	91.68

Most notably, **91.68% accuracy based on 27K parameters (90% sparsity) in Resnet20 is the besting existing result**. By contrast, targeted dropout (2018) achieved 91.48% accuracy based on 47K parameters (90% sparsity) of Resnet32, BC-GHS (2017) achieved 91.0% accuracy based on 8M parameters (94.5% sparsity) of VGG models.

Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a sparse Bayesian deep learning algorithm, SG-MCMC-SA, to adaptively learn the hierarchical Bayes mixture models in DNNs. This algorithm has four main contributions:

- We propose a novel AEB method to efficiently train hierarchical Bayesian mixture DNN models, where the parameters are learned through sampling while the priors are learned through optimization.
- We prove the convergence of this approach to the asymptotically correct distribution, and it can be further generalized to a general adaptive sampling algorithm for estimating state-space models in deep learning.
- We apply this adaptive sampling algorithm in the DNN compression problems firstly, with potential extension to a variety of model compression problems.
- It achieves the state of the art in terms of compression rates, which is 91.68% accuracy on CIFAR10 using only 27K parameters (90% sparsity) with Resnet20 [4].

The End

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