Computer vision and deep learning

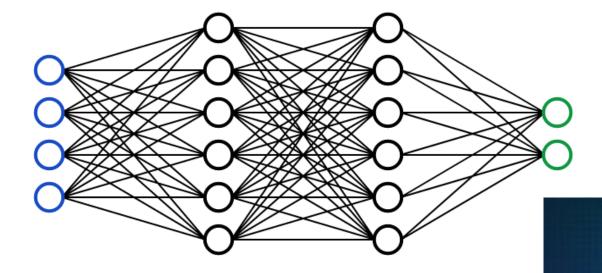
Lecture 5

Training a neural network

Training a neural network

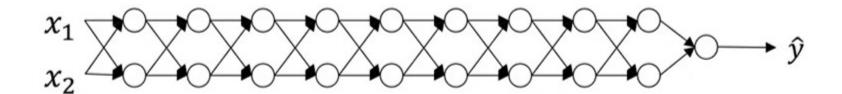
Weights initialization

How **not** to initialize: zero weights



No symmetry breaking

Vanishing and exploding gradients



Weight initialization

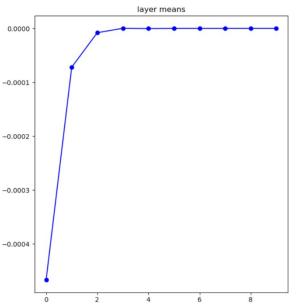
Example credit: Andrew Karpathy

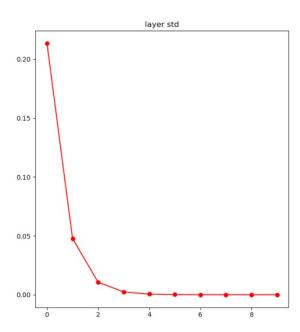
https://

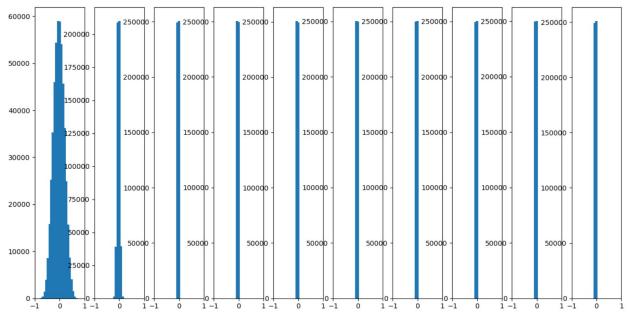
<u>colab.research.google.com/drive/1CvCXZlevs6M</u><u>vQnldyG2UHZevG0bKaeiu?usp=sharing</u>

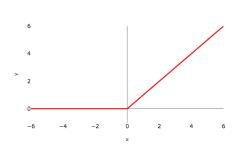
W = np.random.randn(in, out)*0.01

input layer had mean -0.001449 and stddev 0.999223 hidden layer 0 had mean 0.000289 and stddev 0.213667 hidden layer 1 had mean -0.000064 and stddev 0.047754 hidden layer 2 had mean -0.000001 and stddev 0.010667 hidden layer 3 had mean -0.000003 and stddev 0.002391 hidden layer 4 had mean 0.000000 and stddev 0.000535 hidden layer 5 had mean -0.000000 and stddev 0.000119 hidden layer 6 had mean 0.000000 and stddev 0.000027 hidden layer 7 had mean -0.000000 and stddev 0.000006 hidden layer 8 had mean 0.000000 and stddev 0.000001 hidden layer 9 had mean 0.000000 and stddev 0.000000









Xavier initialization

- Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks, Xavier Glorot Yoshua Bengio https://
 proceedings.mlr.press/v9/glorot10a/glorot10a.pdf
- Random initialization from a distribution with a variance of:
- If inputs are roughly mean 0 and std 1, this initialization will also cause the outputs to have mean 0 and stddev 1

Additional reading:

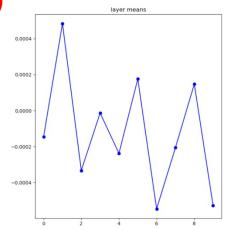
<u>https</u>

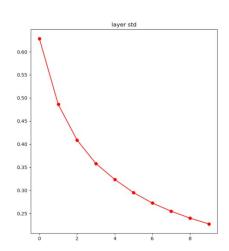
://www.machinecurve.com/index.php/2019/09/16/he-xavier-initializa tion-activation-functions-choose-wisely/

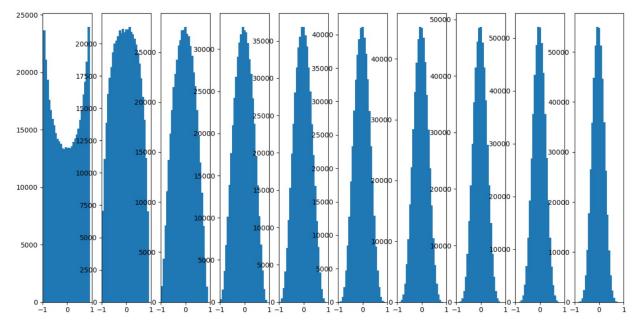
Xavier initialization

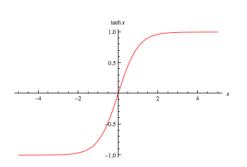
W = np.random.randn(in, out)/np.sqrt(in)

hidden layer 0 had mean -0.000145 and stddev 0.628485 hidden layer 1 had mean 0.000485 and stddev 0.486178 hidden layer 2 had mean -0.000333 and stddev 0.408851 hidden layer 3 had mean -0.000013 and stddev 0.358011 hidden layer 4 had mean -0.000238 and stddev 0.323565 hidden layer 5 had mean 0.000176 and stddev 0.295040 hidden layer 6 had mean -0.000547 and stddev 0.272295 hidden layer 7 had mean -0.000206 and stddev 0.254713 hidden layer 8 had mean 0.000148 and stddev 0.239710 hidden layer 9 had mean -0.000529 and stddev 0.227241





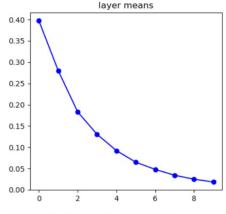


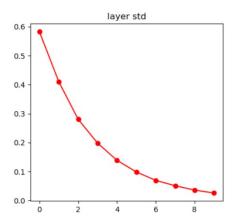


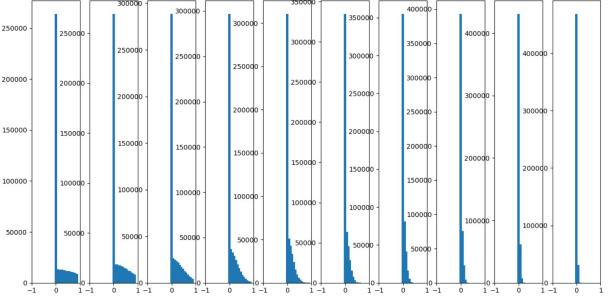
Xavier initialization

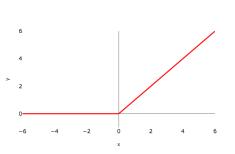
W = np.random.randn(in, out)/np.sqrt(in)

input layer had mean 0.000422 and stddev 1.000922 hidden layer 0 had mean 0.397685 and stddev 0.583384 hidden layer 1 had mean 0.280004 and stddev 0.410386 hidden layer 2 had mean 0.183151 and stddev 0.280291 hidden layer 3 had mean 0.130450 and stddev 0.198090 hidden layer 4 had mean 0.092056 and stddev 0.138666 hidden layer 5 had mean 0.064787 and stddev 0.098349 hidden layer 6 had mean 0.047867 and stddev 0.069325 hidden layer 7 had mean 0.034165 and stddev 0.050724 hidden layer 8 had mean 0.024928 and stddev 0.035902 hidden layer 9 had mean 0.018272 and stddev 0.025658





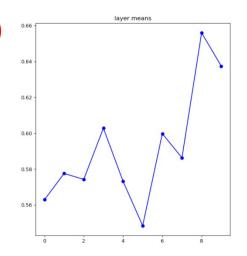


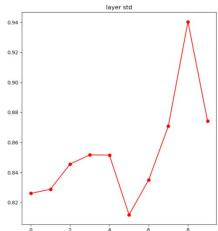


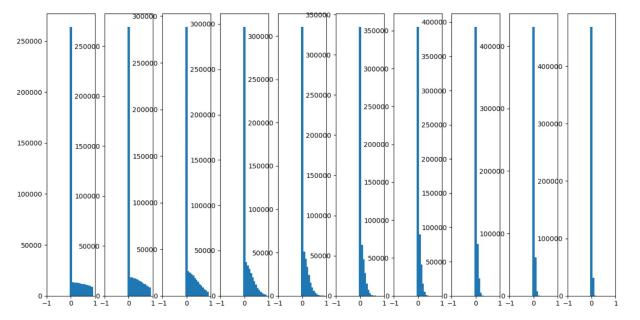
He initialization

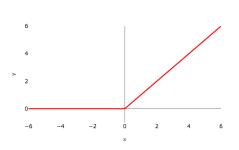
W = np.random.randn(in, out)/np.sqrt(in/2)

input layer had mean -0.001160 and stddev 1.000333 hidden layer 0 had mean 0.562934 and stddev 0.826029 hidden layer 1 had mean 0.577537 and stddev 0.828810 hidden layer 2 had mean 0.574250 and stddev 0.845599 hidden layer 3 had mean 0.602799 and stddev 0.851682 hidden layer 4 had mean 0.573220 and stddev 0.851573 hidden layer 5 had mean 0.548410 and stddev 0.811833 hidden layer 6 had mean 0.599740 and stddev 0.834997 hidden layer 7 had mean 0.586302 and stddev 0.870794 hidden layer 8 had mean 0.655965 and stddev 0.940311 hidden layer 9 had mean 0.637412 and stddev 0.874220









"Delving Deep into Rectifiers: Surpassing Human-Level Performance on ImageNet Classification"

https://arxiv.org/pdf/1502.01852.pdf

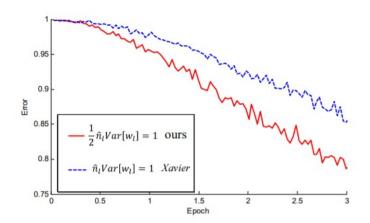


Figure 2. The convergence of a **22-layer** large model (B in Table 3). The x-axis is the number of training epochs. The y-axis is the top-1 error of 3,000 random val samples, evaluated on the center crop. We use ReLU as the activation for both cases. Both our initialization (red) and "*Xavier*" (blue) [7] lead to convergence, but ours starts reducing error earlier.

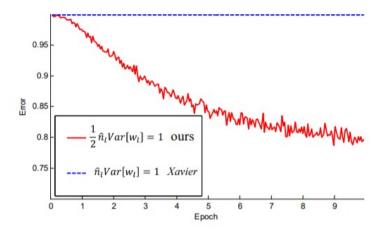


Figure 3. The convergence of a **30-layer** small model (see the main text). We use ReLU as the activation for both cases. Our initialization (red) is able to make it converge. But "*Xavier*" (blue) [7] completely stalls - we also verify that its gradients are all diminishing. It does not converge even given more epochs.

Data driven initialization

 "All you need is a good init": https://arxiv.org/pdf/1511.06422.pdf

Algorithm 1 Layer-sequential unit-variance orthogonal initialization. L – convolution or full-connected layer, W_L - its weights, B_L - its output blob., Tol_{var} - variance tolerance, T_i – current trial, T_{max} – max number of trials.

keras initialization

Conv2D class

```
tf.keras.layers.Conv2D(
    filters,
   kernel_size,
    strides=(1, 1),
    padding="valid",
   data_format=None,
   dilation_rate=(1, 1),
    groups=1,
    activation=None,
    use_bias=True,
   kernel initializer="glorot uniform",
   bias_initializer="zeros",
   kernel regularizer=None,
   bias_regularizer=None,
    activity_regularizer=None,
   kernel constraint=None,
   bias constraint=None,
    **kwargs
```

Dense class

```
tf.keras.layers.Dense(
   units,
   activation=None,
   use_bias=True,
   kernel_initializer="glorot_uniform",
   bias_initializer="zeros",
   kernel_regularizer=None,
   bias_regularizer=None,
   activity_regularizer=None,
   kernel_constraint=None,
   bias_constraint=None,
   **kwargs
)
```

▼ initializers

Overview

Constant

GlorotNormal

GlorotUniform

HeNormal

HeUniform

Identity

Initializer

LecunNormal

LecunUniform

Ones

Orthogonal

RandomNormal

RandomUniform

TruncatedNormal

VarianceScaling

Zeros

Training a neural network

Regularization

Regularization

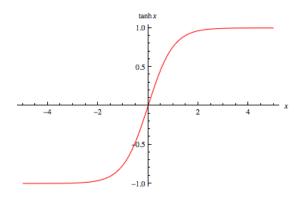
- Remember regularization techniques
 - L1 regularization
 - L2 regularization

Regularization

Weight decay

Regularization

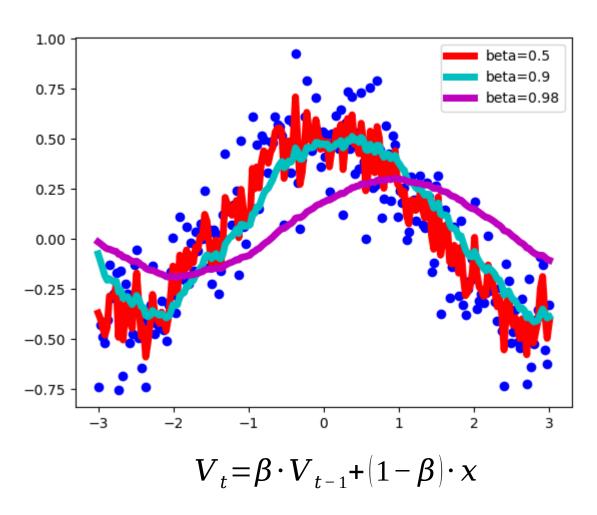
Why does regularization reduce overfitting?



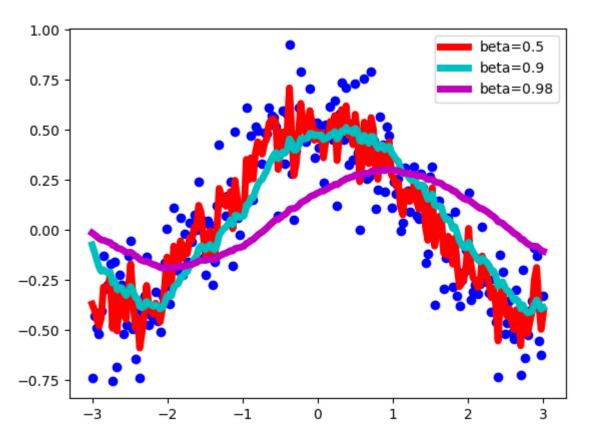
Exponential weighted averages



Exponential weighted averages



Exponential weighted averages



 V_t approximates over: $\frac{1}{1-B}$ samples

https://towardsdatascience.com/stochastic-gradient-descent-with-momentum-a84097641a5d

Exponential weighted average

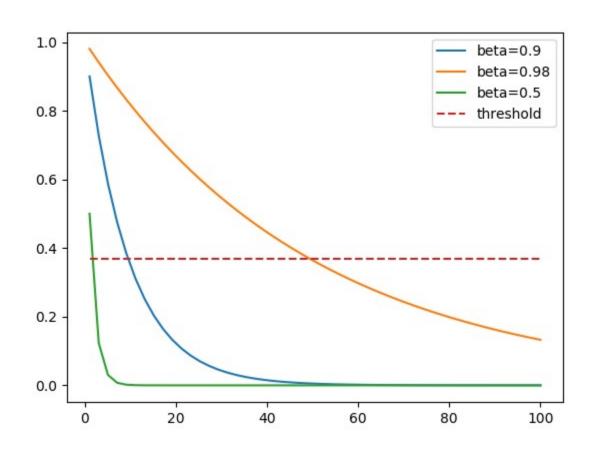
$$\begin{split} & V_{t} \! = \! \beta V_{t-1} \! + \! (1 \! - \! \beta) S_{t} \\ & V_{t-1} \! = \! \beta V_{t-2} \! + \! (1 \! - \! \beta) S_{t-1} \\ & V_{t-2} \! = \! \beta V_{t-3} \! + \! (1 \! - \! \beta) S_{t-2} \end{split}$$

$$V_{t} = \beta(\beta(\beta V_{t-3} + (1-\beta)S_{t-2}) + (1-\beta)S_{t-1}) + (1-\beta)S_{t}$$

$$V_{t} = \beta \beta (1 - \beta) S_{t-2} + \dots + \beta (1 - \beta) S_{t-1} + \dots + (1 - \beta) S_{t}$$

The coefficients add up to approximately 1

Exponential weighted average



threshold 1/e

$$(1-\varepsilon)^{1/\varepsilon}=1/e$$

Exponential weighted average Bias correction

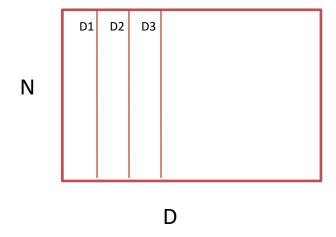
- The first couple of iterations will provide a pretty bad averages because we don't have enough values yet to average over
- Instead of using V_t use the bias corrected version of it:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IAq96T8FkTw

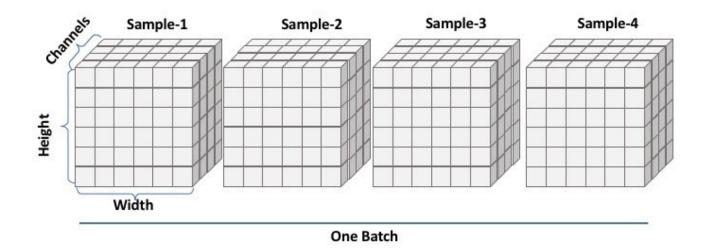
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NxTFlzBjS-4

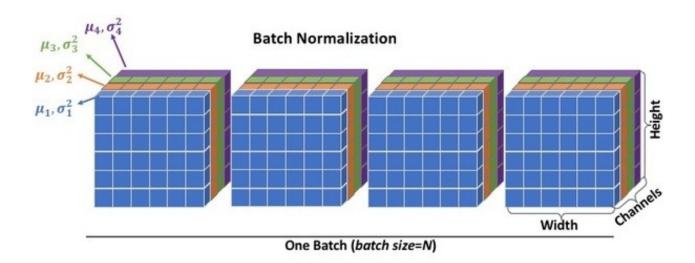
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IWzo8CajF5s - bias correction

Compute mean and variance across each dimension



Normalize





```
Input: Values of x over a mini-batch: \mathcal{B} = \{x_{1...m}\};

Parameters to be learned: \gamma, \beta

Output: \{y_i = \mathrm{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)\}

\mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \qquad // \text{mini-batch mean}
\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2 \qquad // \text{mini-batch variance}
\widehat{x}_i \leftarrow \frac{x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 + \epsilon}} \qquad // \text{normalize}
y_i \leftarrow \gamma \widehat{x}_i + \beta \equiv \mathrm{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i) \qquad // \text{scale and shift}
```

Simple idea: just make the output of the linear units have 0 mean and unit standard deviation

Algorithm 1: Batch Normalizing Transform, applied to activation x over a mini-batch.

algorithm source: https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.03167

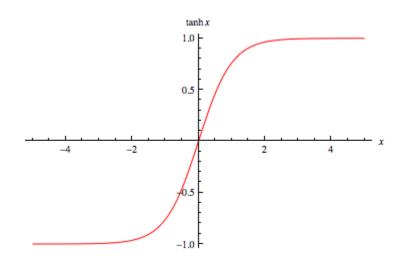
Normalize:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} z^{(i)}$$
 $\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} (z^{(i)} - \mu)^{2}$

$$z_{norm}^{(i)} = \frac{z^{(i)} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Allow the network to modify the range

$$\widetilde{\boldsymbol{z}}^{(i)} = \boldsymbol{\gamma} \, \boldsymbol{z}_{nor\,m}^{(i)} + \boldsymbol{\beta}$$



Normalize:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} z^{(i)}$$
 $\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} (z^{(i)} - \mu)^{2}$

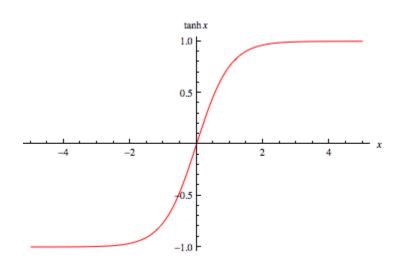
$$z_{norm}^{(i)} = \frac{z^{(i)} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Allow the network to modify the range

$$\widetilde{\boldsymbol{z}}^{(i)} = \boldsymbol{\gamma} \, \boldsymbol{z}_{nor\,m}^{(i)} + \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Can learn the identity function





Batch normalization at test time

- We cannot compute the mean and standard deviation on a batch of samples
- Instead we use a static mean and standard deviation were computed empirically during training
 - Compute the mean and standard deviation on the entire training set
 - Estimate the mean and standard deviation using exponential weighted averages

Batch normalization (advantages)

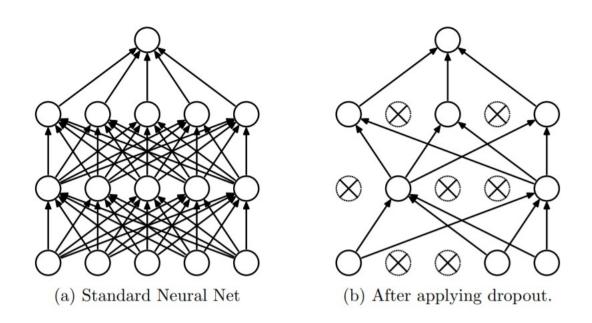
- Reduces the dependence on weights initialization
- Improves gradient flow through the network
- Allows you to set a higher learning rate
- Slight regularization effect

 Further reading (batch normalization and transfer learning):

https://keras.io/guides/transfer_learning/

Dropout (2014)

Randomly *drop units* (and their connections) from the neural network *during training*

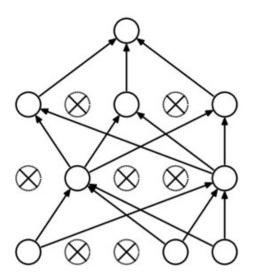


SRIVASTAVA, Nitish, et al. Dropout: a simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting. *The journal of machine learning research*, 2014, 15.1: 1929-1958.

Dropout

keep prop – probability of keeping a neuron; larger value, less dropout

```
# LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID
Z1 = np.dot(W1, X) + b1
A1 = relu(Z1)
# Step 1: initialize matrix D1 = np.random.rand(..., ...)
D1 = np.random.rand(A1.shape[0], A1.shape[1])
# Step 2: convert entries of D1 to 0 or 1 (using keep prob as the threshold)
D1 = (D1 < keep prob).astype(int)
# Step 3: shut down some neurons of A1
A1 = A1*D1
Z2 = np.dot(W2, A1) + b2
A2 = relu(Z2)
# Step 1: initialize matrix D2 = np.random.rand(..., ...)
D2 = np.random.rand(A2.shape[0], A2.shape[1])
# Step 2: convert entries of D2 to 0 or 1 (using keep prob as the threshold)
D2 = (D2 < keep prob).astype(int)
# Step 3: shut down some neurons of A2
A2 = A2*D2
```



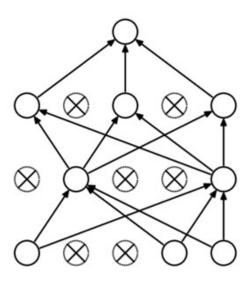
Dropout visualization

Dropout intuition

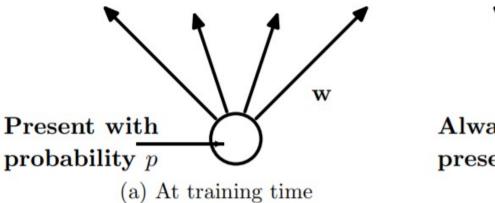
- At each iteration you actually modify your model:
 - train a different model that uses only a subset of your neurons
 - neurons thus become less sensitive to the activation of one other specific neuron (others neuron might be shut down at any time)

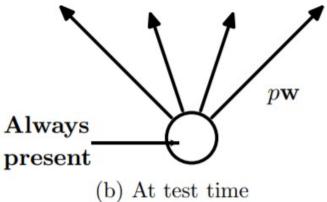
Dropout intuition

- Train a large ensemble of models (with shared parameters)
- Forces the model to have a redundant representation



Dropout at test time





Dropout at test time

- The neurons are always turned on
- Scale the activation for each neuron
 - output at test time = expected output at training time

Dropout at test time

keep prop – probability of keeping a neuron; larger value, less dropout

```
# LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID
Z1 = np.dot(W1, X) + b1
A1 = relu(Z1)
D1 = np.random.rand(A1.shape[0], A1.shape[1])
                                                   # Step 1: initialize matrix D1 = np.random.rand(..., ...)
D1 = (D1 < keep prob).astype(int)
                                                   # Step 2: convert entries of D1 to 0 or 1 (using keep prob as the threshold)
A1 = A1*D1
                                                   # Step 3: shut down some neurons of A1
                                                   # Step 4: scale the value of neurons that haven't been shut down
A1 = A1/keep prob
Z2 = np.dot(W2, A1) + b2
A2 = relu(Z2)
D2 = np.random.rand(A2.shape[0], A2.shape[1])
                                                   # Step 1: initialize matrix D2 = np.random.rand(..., ...)
D2 = (D2 < keep prob).astype(int)
                                                   # Step 2: convert entries of D2 to 0 or 1 (using keep prob as the threshold)
A2 = A2*D2
                                                   # Step 3: shut down some neurons of A2
                                                # Step 4: scale the value of neurons that haven't been shut down
A2 = A2/keep prob
Z3 = np.dot(W3, A2) + b3
A3 = sigmoid(Z3)
```

Dropout in practice

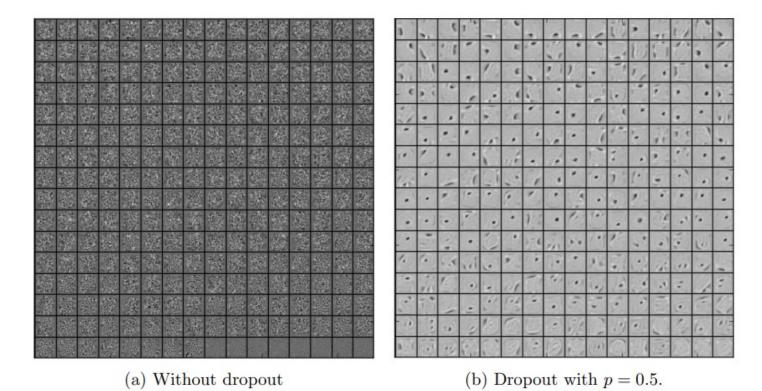


Figure 7: Features learned on MNIST with one hidden layer autoencoders having 256 rectified linear units.

A hidden unit cannot rely on other specific units to correct its mistakes. It must perform well in a wide variety of different contexts provided by the other hidden units.

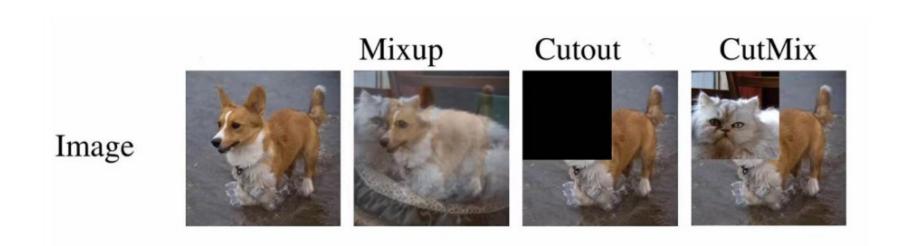
Dropout class

tf.keras.layers.Dropout(rate, noise_shape=None, seed=None, **kwargs)

Data augmentation



Data augmentation



keras – data augmentation

ImageDataGenerator Class

```
tf.keras.preprocessing.image.ImageDataGenerator(
    featurewise center=False,
    samplewise center=False,
    featurewise std normalization=False,
    samplewise std normalization=False,
    zca whitening=False,
    zca epsilon=1e-06,
    rotation range=0,
   width shift range=0.0,
    height shift range=0.0,
    brightness range=None,
    shear range=0.0,
    zoom range=0.0,
    channel shift range=0.0,
    fill mode="nearest",
    cval=0.0,
   horizontal flip=False,
    vertical flip=False,
    rescale=None,
    preprocessing function=None,
    data format=None,
   validation split=0.0,
    dtype=None,
```

Training a neural network

Optimization algorithms

Vanilla gradient descent:

- 1. Forward propagation through the network
- 2. Compute loss
- 3. Back-propagate to compute gradients
- 4. Update the parameters using the gradient

- 1. Batch gradient descent
 - "classical" implementation of gradient descent
 - Use vectorization and process the entire training set at the same time
- 2. Split the training set into *mini-batches*

```
.... ]
```

Minibatch *t*:

Example *i*:

- "Classical" gradient descent
 - Use vectorization and process the entire training set at the same time

Split the training set into mini-batches

```
while True:
   batch = sample_batch(data)
   W_gradient = compute_gradient(loss_func, batch,
W)
   # update parameters
   W += -lr*W_gradient
```

Mini-batch gradient descent

Epoch: single pass through the entire training set

```
Epoch 37/400
Epoch 38/400
Epoch 39/400
Epoch 40/400
Epoch 41/400
Epoch 42/400
Epoch 43/400
```

Size of the mini-batches

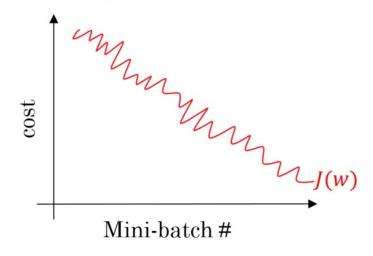
- Stochastic gradient descent (m=1)
- Mini-batch gradient descent
- Batch gradient descent (m = M)

J(w)

iterations

Batch gradient descent

Mini-batch gradient descent



Size of the mini-batches

- Stochastic gradient descent (m=1)
 - no vectorization, lose speedup
- Mini-batch gradient descent
 - Fastest learning: use vectorization and doesn't take top much time to update the weights
 - -2^6 , 2^7 , ..., 2^{10}
- Batch gradient descent (m = M)
 - Too much time per iteration

Parameters update – mini-batch gradient descent

foreach batch t:

- 1. Forward propagation through the network
- 2. Compute loss
- 3. Backpropagate to compute gradients
- 4. Update the parameters using the gradient