

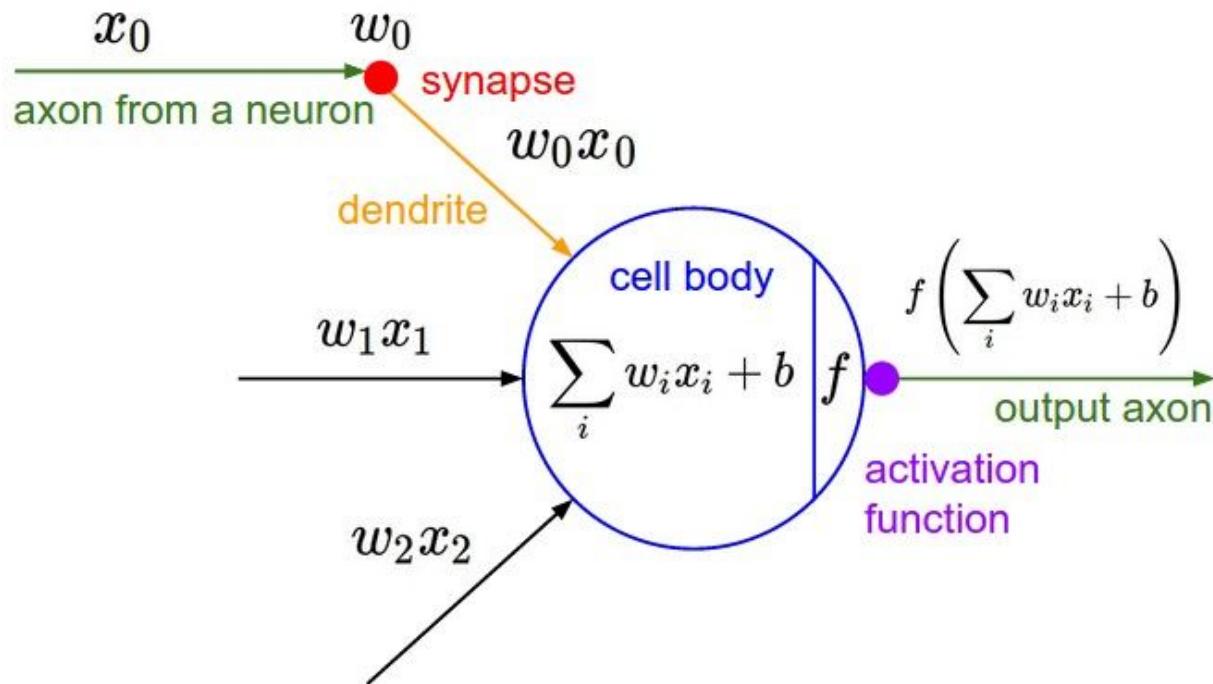
Lecture 7: Training Neural Networks, Part I

Part 1

- Activation Functions
- Data Preprocessing
- Weight Initialization
- Batch Normalization
- Babysitting the Learning Process
- Hyperparameter Optimization

Activation Functions

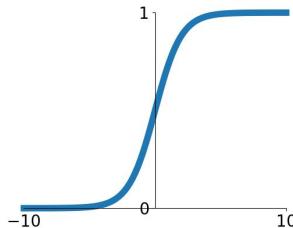
Activation Functions



Activation Functions

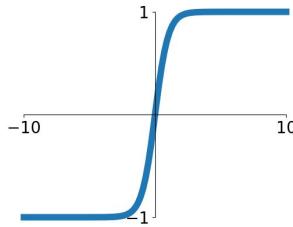
Sigmoid

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$



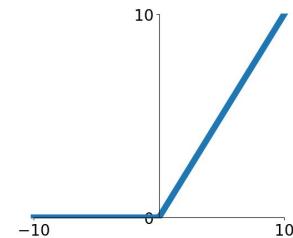
tanh

$$\tanh(x)$$



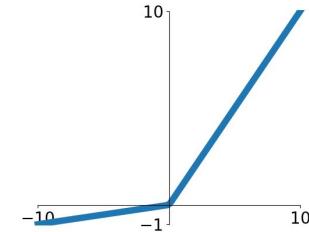
ReLU

$$\max(0, x)$$



Leaky ReLU

$$\max(0.1x, x)$$

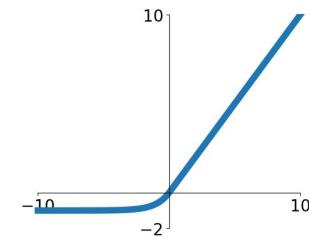


Maxout

$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

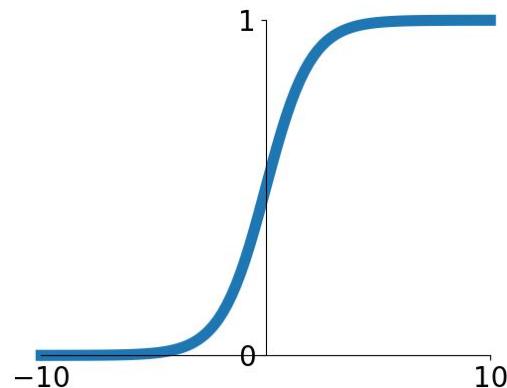
ELU

$$\begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



Activation Functions

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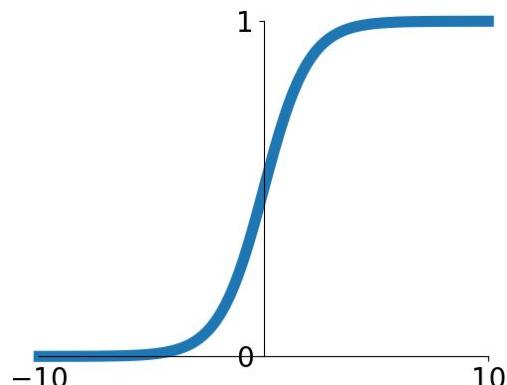


Sigmoid

- Squashes numbers to range [0,1]
- Historically popular since they have nice interpretation as a saturating “firing rate” of a neuron

Activation Functions

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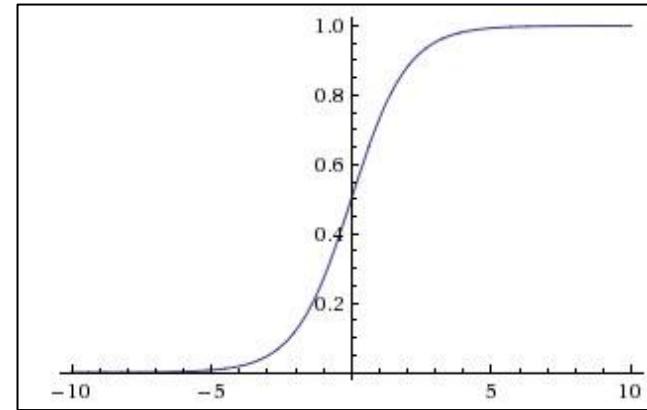
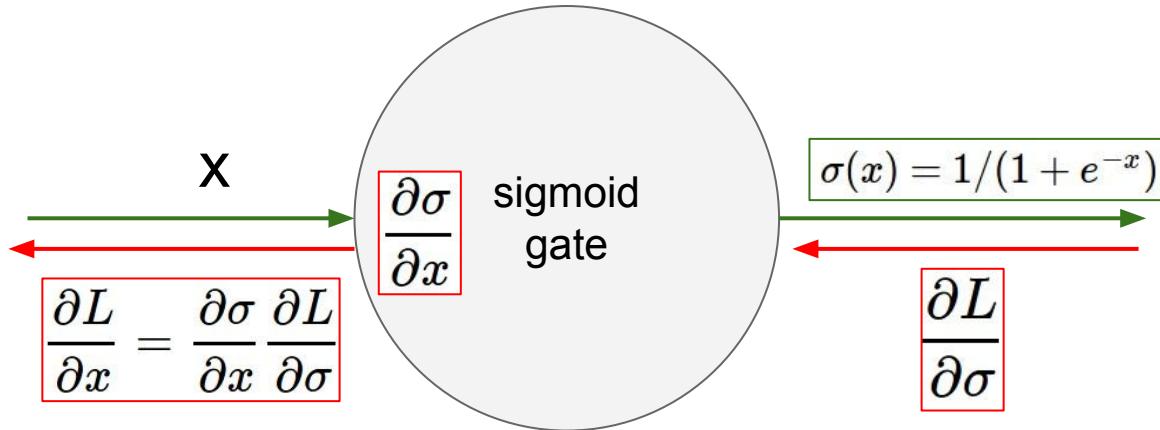


Sigmoid

- Squashes numbers to range [0,1]
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3 problems:

1. Saturated neurons “kill” the gradients



What happens when $x = -10$?

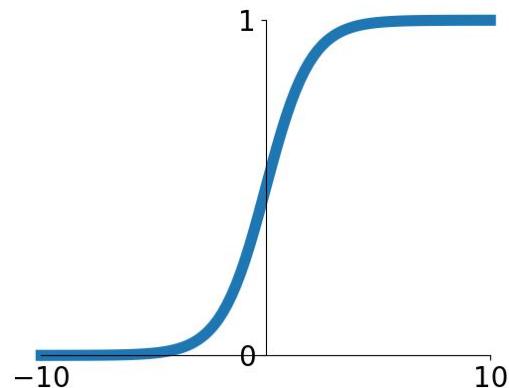
What happens when $x = 0$?

What happens when $x = 10$?

Activation Functions

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- Squashes numbers to range [0,1]
- Historically popular since they have nice interpretation as a saturating “firing rate” of a neuron



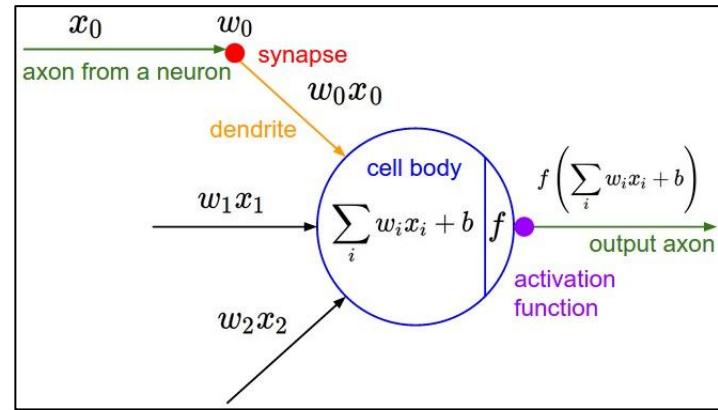
Sigmoid

3 problems:

1. Saturated neurons “kill” the gradients
2. Sigmoid outputs are not zero-centered

Consider what happens when the input to a neuron is always positive...

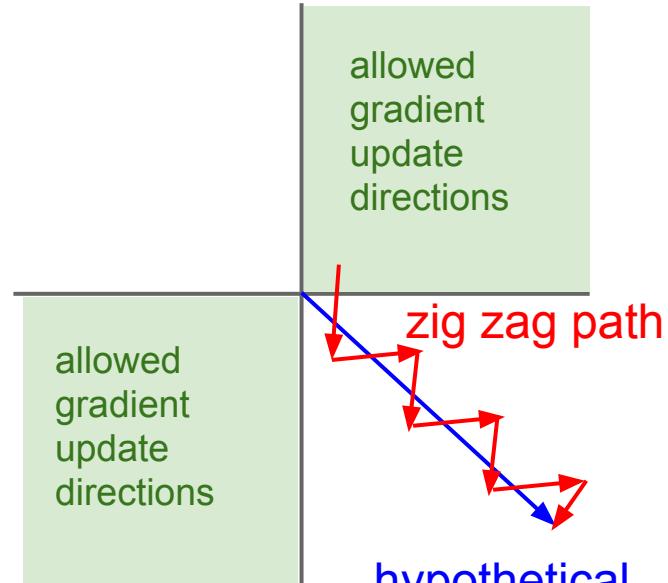
$$f \left(\sum_i w_i x_i + b \right)$$



What can we say about the gradients on w ?

Consider what happens when the input to a neuron is always positive...

$$f \left(\sum_i w_i x_i + b \right)$$



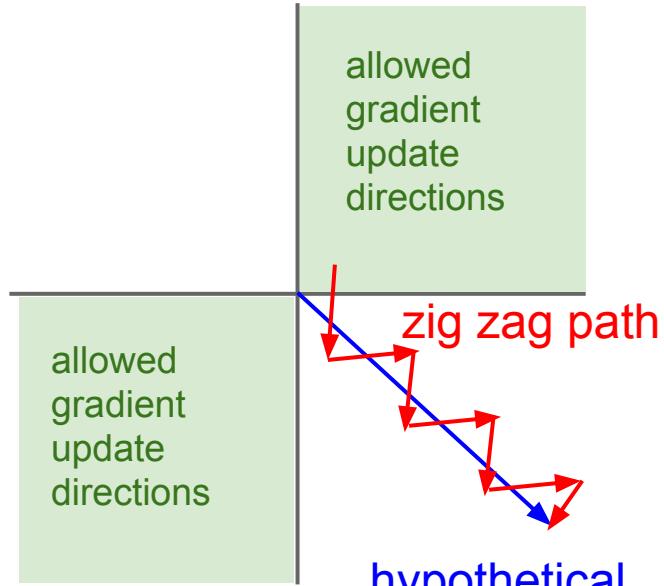
What can we say about the gradients on w ?

Always all positive or all negative :(

hypothetical
optimal w
vector

Consider what happens when the input to a neuron is always positive...

$$f \left(\sum_i w_i x_i + b \right)$$



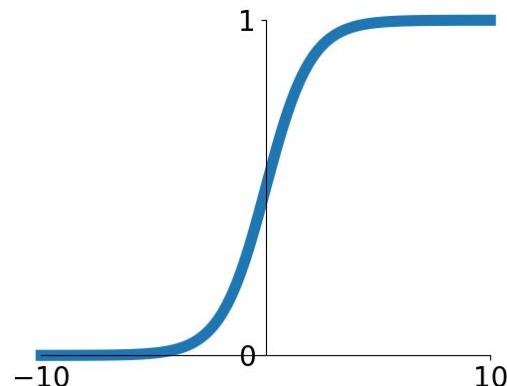
What can we say about the gradients on w ?

Always all positive or all negative :(

(For a single element! Minibatches help)

Activation Functions

$$\sigma(x) = 1/(1 + e^{-x})$$



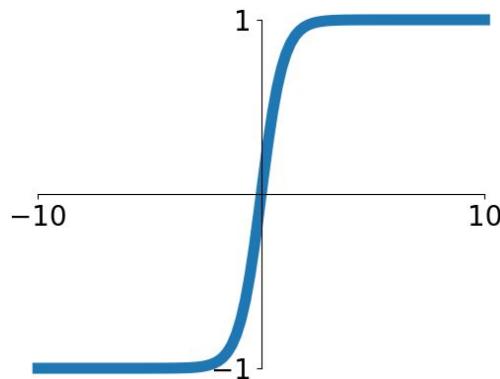
Sigmoid

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- Historically popular since they have nice interpretation as a saturating “firing rate” of a neuron

3 problems:

1. Saturated neurons “kill” the gradients
2. Sigmoid outputs are not zero-centered
3. $\exp()$ is a bit compute expensive

Activation Functions

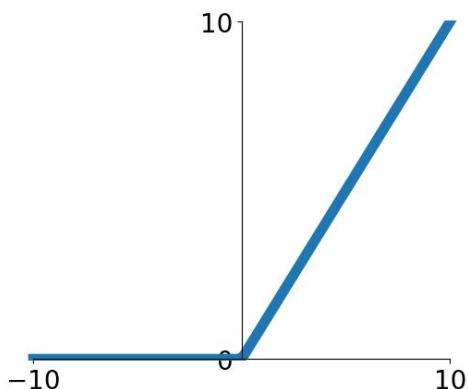


tanh(x)

- Squashes numbers to range [-1,1]
- zero centered (nice)
- still kills gradients when saturated :(

[LeCun et al., 1991]

Activation Functions

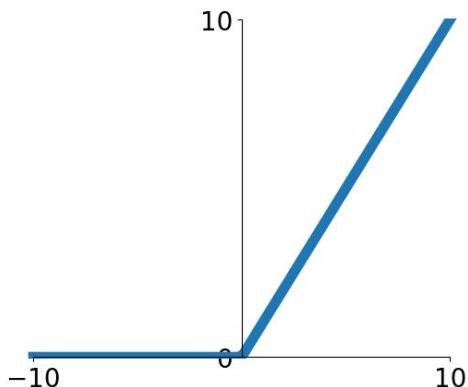


- Computes $f(x) = \max(0, x)$
- Does not saturate (in +region)
- Very computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice (e.g. 6x)

ReLU
(Rectified Linear Unit)

[Krizhevsky et al., 2012]

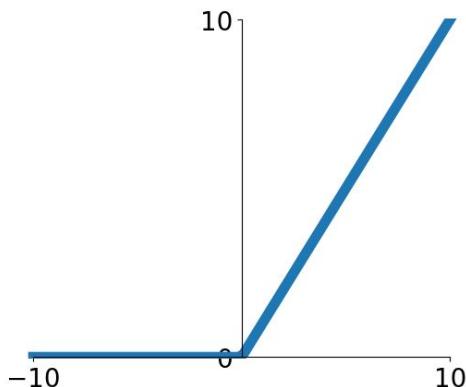
Activation Functions



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Activation Functions

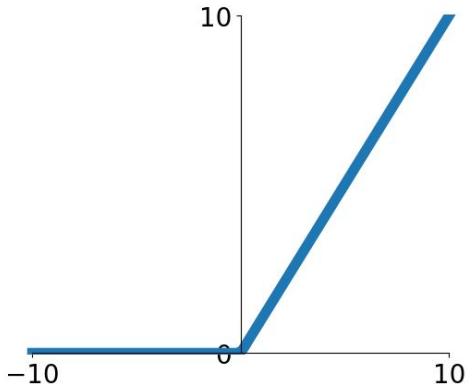
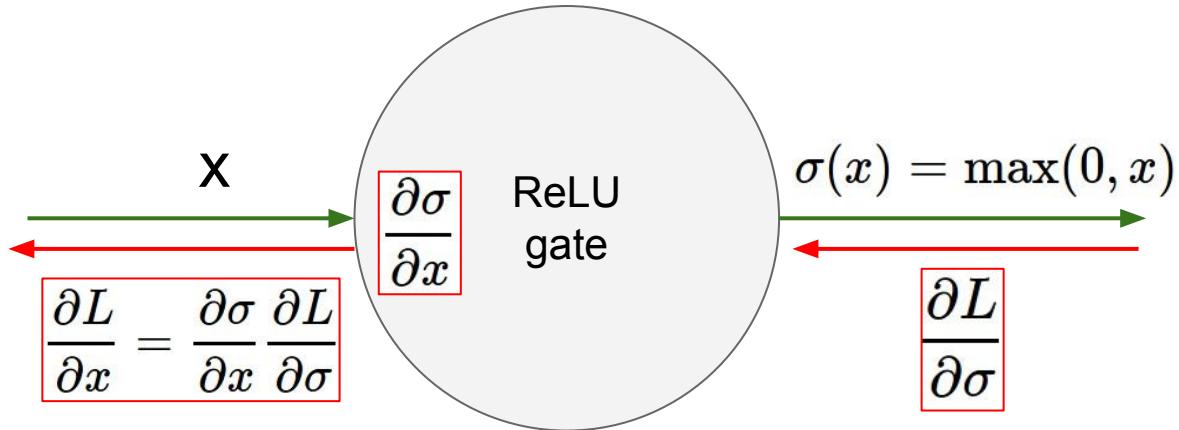


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- Very computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice (e.g. 6x)

- Not zero-centered output
- An annoyance:

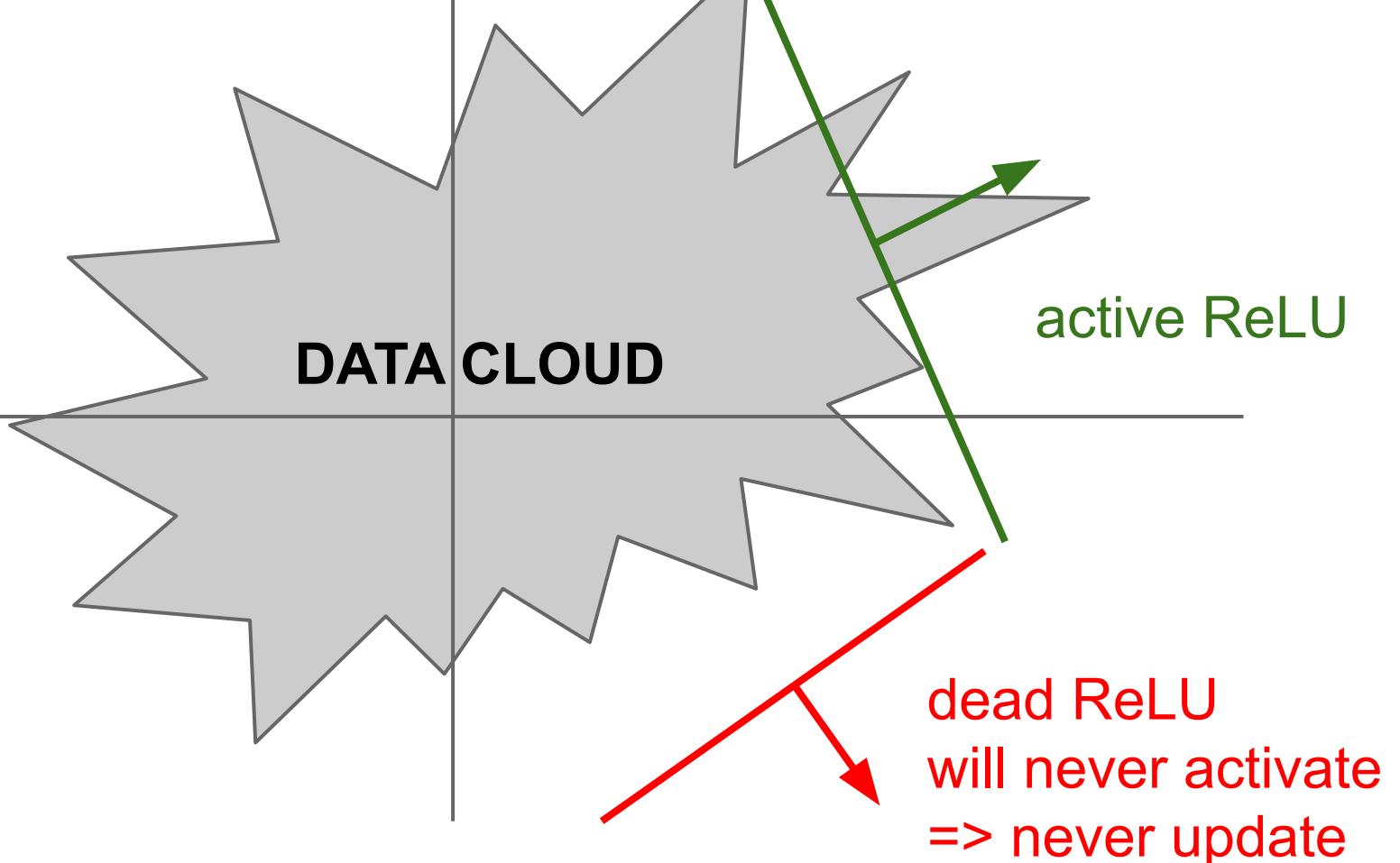
hint: what is the gradient when $x < 0$?

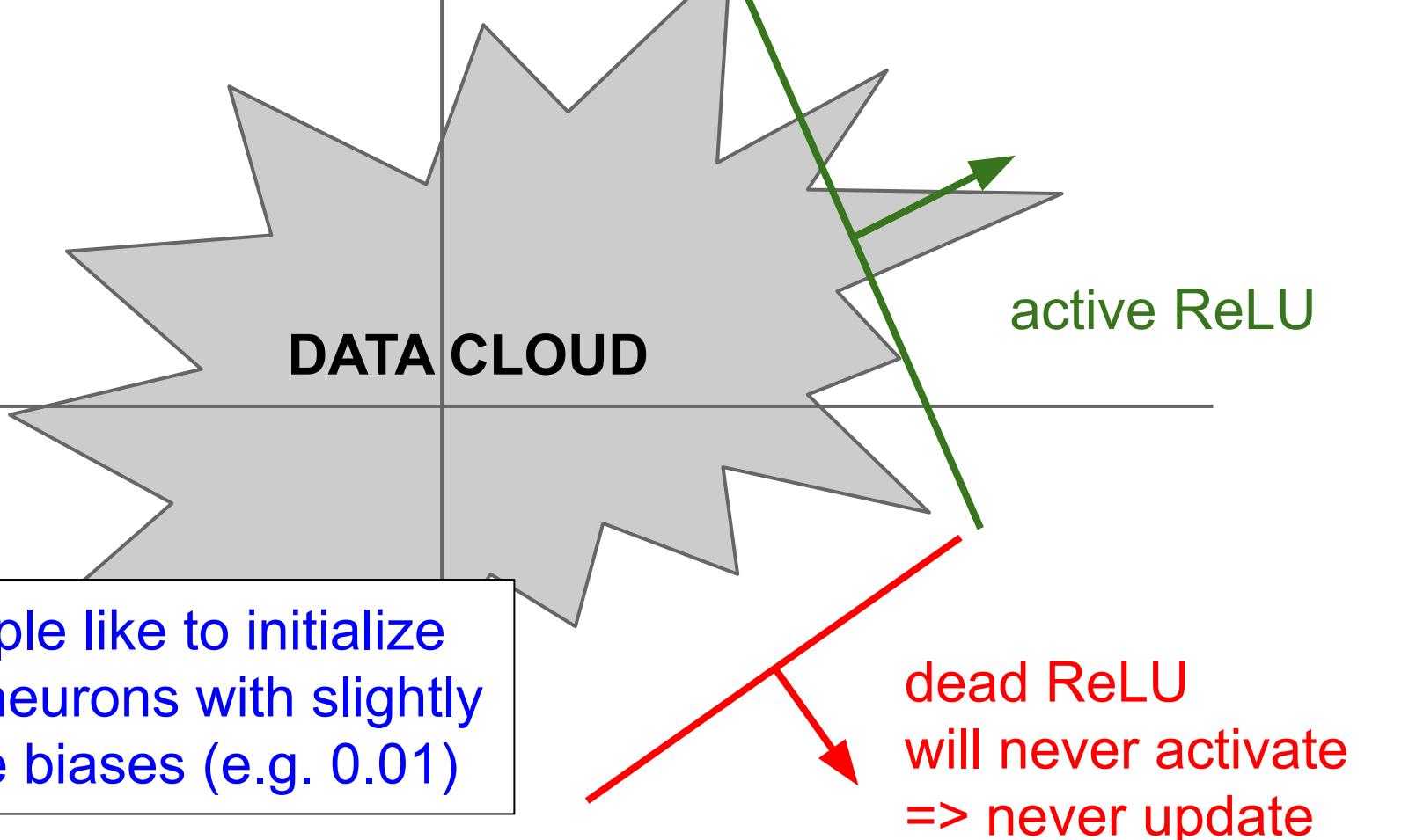


What happens when $x = -10$?

What happens when $x = 0$?

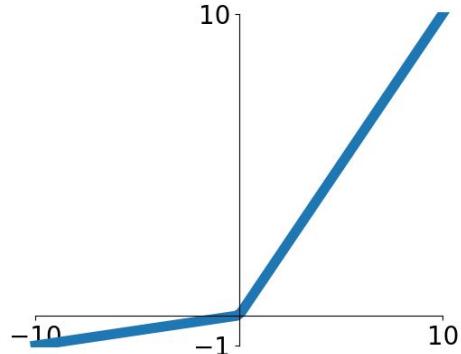
What happens when $x = 10$?





Activation Functions

[Mass et al., 2013]
[He et al., 2015]



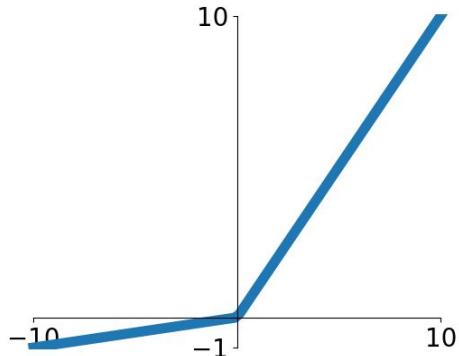
- Does not saturate
- Computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice! (e.g. 6x)
- **will not “die”.**

Leaky ReLU

$$f(x) = \max(0.01x, x)$$

Activation Functions

[Mass et al., 2013]
[He et al., 2015]



Leaky ReLU

$$f(x) = \max(0.01x, x)$$

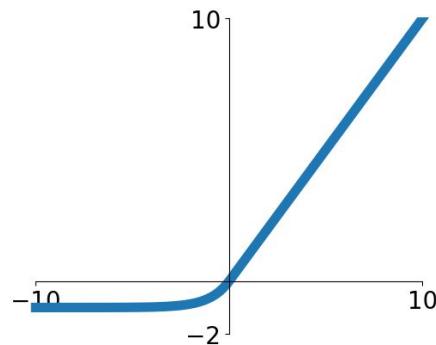
- Does not saturate
- Computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice! (e.g. 6x)
- **will not “die”.**

Parametric Rectifier (PReLU)

$$f(x) = \max(\alpha x, x)$$

backprop into α
(parameter)

Exponential Linear Units (ELU)



- All benefits of ReLU
- Closer to zero mean outputs
- Negative saturation regime compared with Leaky ReLU adds some robustness to noise

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \alpha (\exp(x) - 1) & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

- Computation requires $\exp()$

Maxout “Neuron”

[Goodfellow et al., 2013]

- Does not have the basic form of dot product -> nonlinearity
- Generalizes ReLU and Leaky ReLU
- Linear Regime! Does not saturate! Does not die!

$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

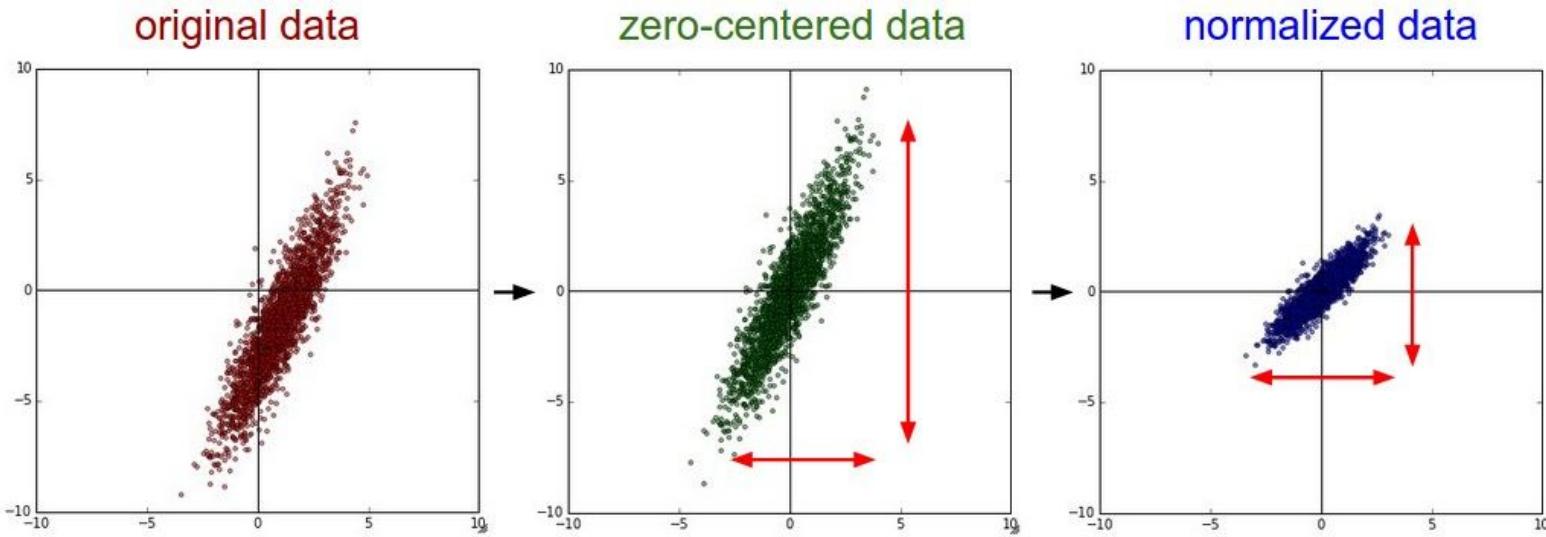
Problem: doubles the number of parameters/neuron :(

TLDR: In practice:

- Use ReLU. Be careful with your learning rates
- Try out Leaky ReLU / Maxout / ELU
- Try out tanh but don't expect much
- Don't use sigmoid

Data Preprocessing

Data Preprocessing



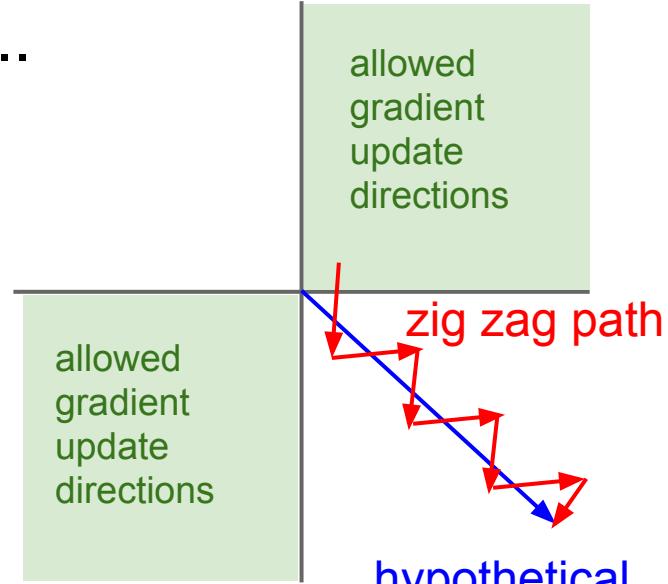
```
X -= np.mean(X, axis = 0)
```

```
X /= np.std(X, axis = 0)
```

(Assume X [NxD] is data matrix,
each example in a row)

Remember: Consider what happens when the input to a neuron is always positive...

$$f \left(\sum_i w_i x_i + b \right)$$

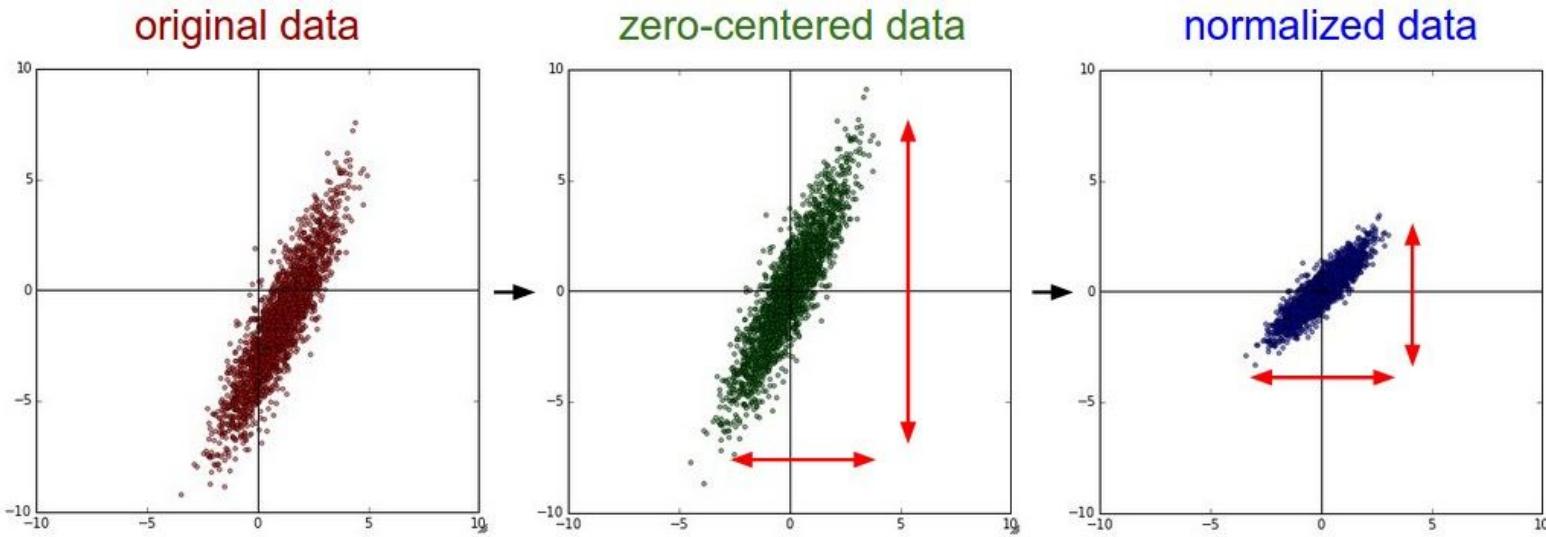


What can we say about the gradients on w ?

Always all positive or all negative :(

(this is also why you want zero-mean data!)

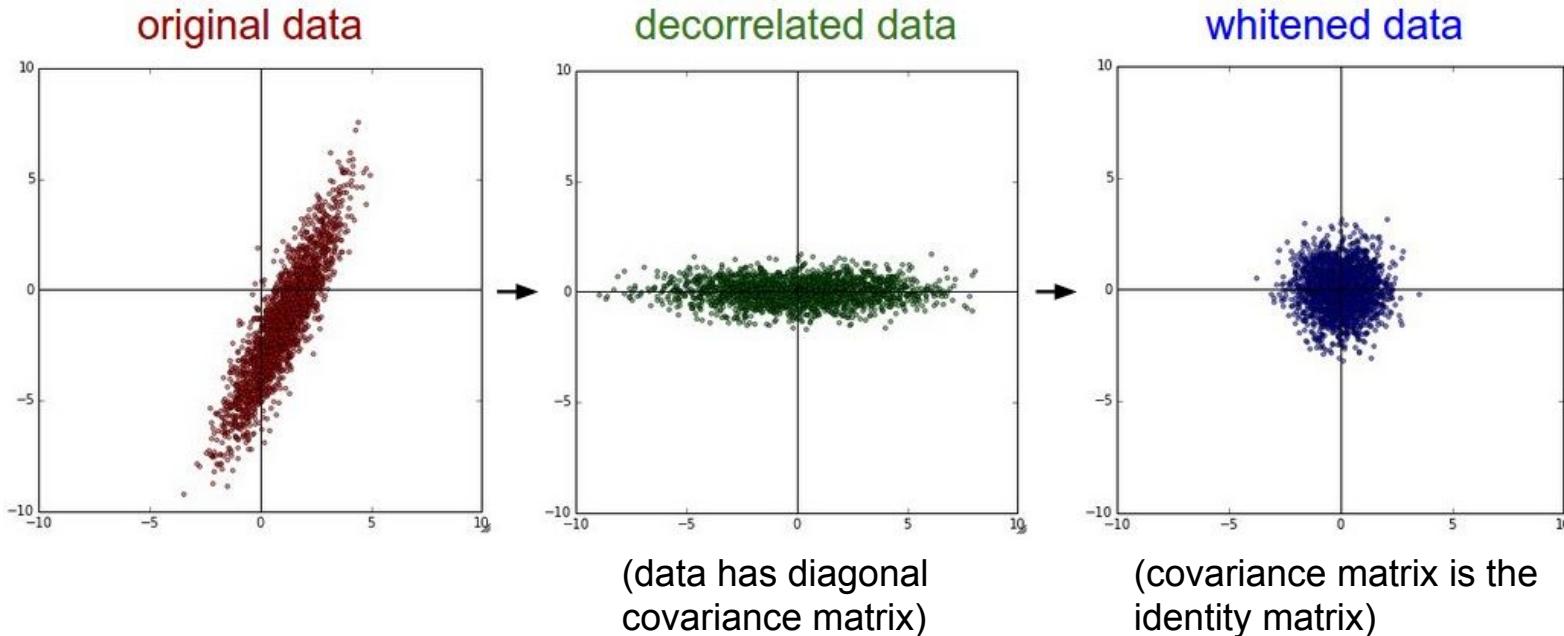
Data Preprocessing



(Assume X [$N \times D$] is data matrix, each example in a row)

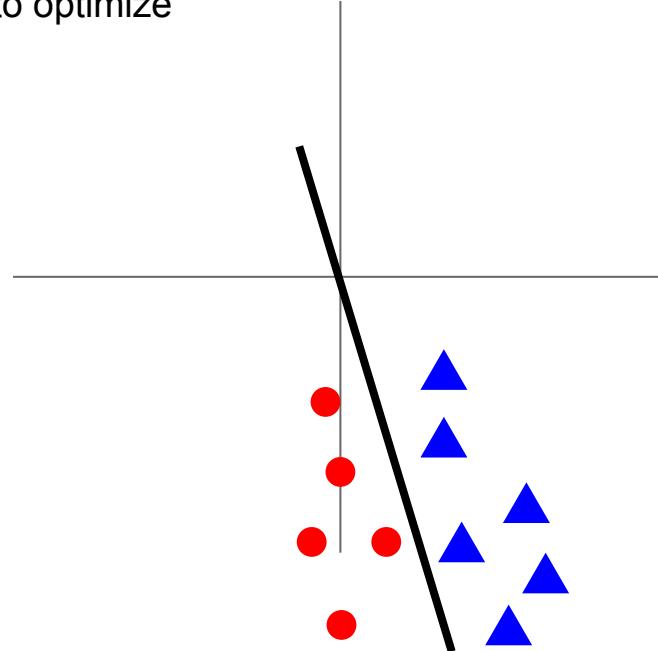
Data Preprocessing

In practice, you may also see **PCA** and **Whitening** of the data

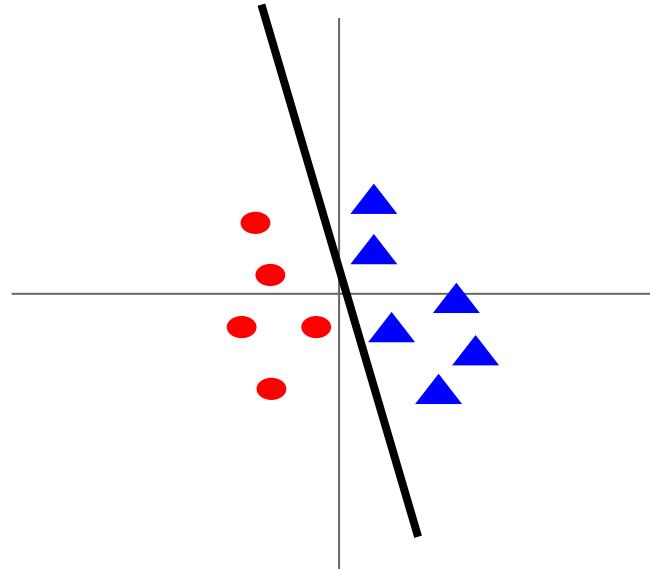


Data Preprocessing

Before normalization: classification loss very sensitive to changes in weight matrix; hard to optimize



After normalization: less sensitive to small changes in weights; easier to optimize



TLDR: In practice for Images: center only

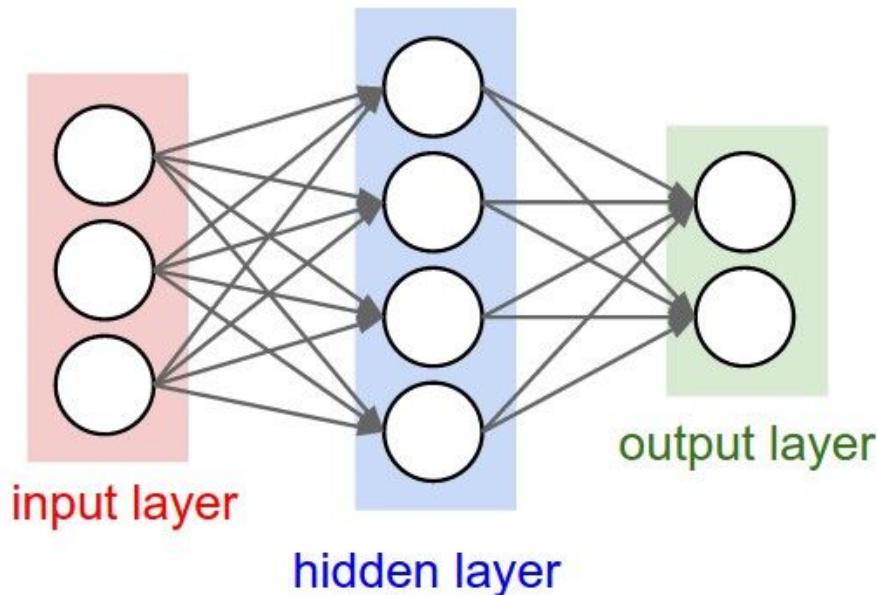
e.g. consider CIFAR-10 example with [32,32,3] images

- Subtract the mean image (e.g. AlexNet)
(mean image = [32,32,3] array)
- Subtract per-channel mean (e.g. VGGNet)
(mean along each channel = 3 numbers)
- Subtract per-channel mean and
Divide by per-channel std (e.g. ResNet)
(mean along each channel = 3 numbers)

Not common
to do PCA or
whitening

Weight Initialization

- Q: what happens when $W=\text{constant init}$ is used?



- First idea: **Small random numbers**
(gaussian with zero mean and 1e-2 standard deviation)

```
W = 0.01 * np.random.randn(Din, Dout)
```

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(gaussian with zero mean and 1e-2 standard deviation)

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```

Works ~okay for small networks, but problems with deeper networks.

Weight Initialization: Activation statistics

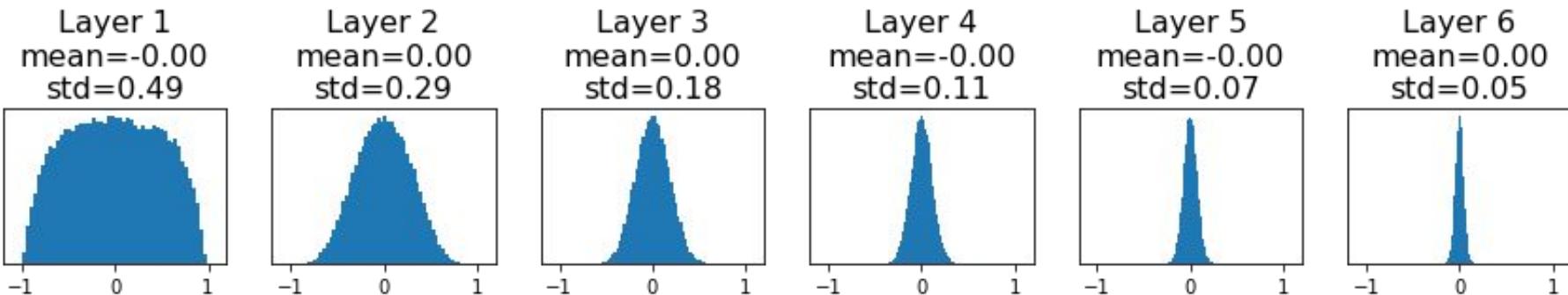
```
dims = [4096] * 7      Forward pass for a 6-layer  
hs = []                  net with hidden size 4096  
x = np.random.randn(16, dims[0])  
for Din, Dout in zip(dims[:-1], dims[1:]):  
    W = 0.01 * np.random.randn(Din, Dout)  
    x = np.tanh(x.dot(W))  
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All activations tend to zero for deeper network layers

Q: What do the gradients dL/dW look like?



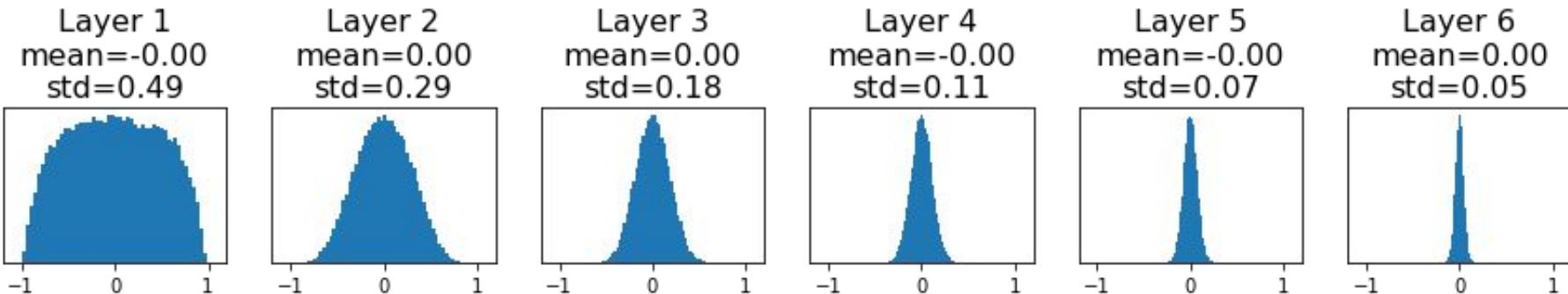
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A: All zero, no learning =(



Weight Initialization: Activation statistics

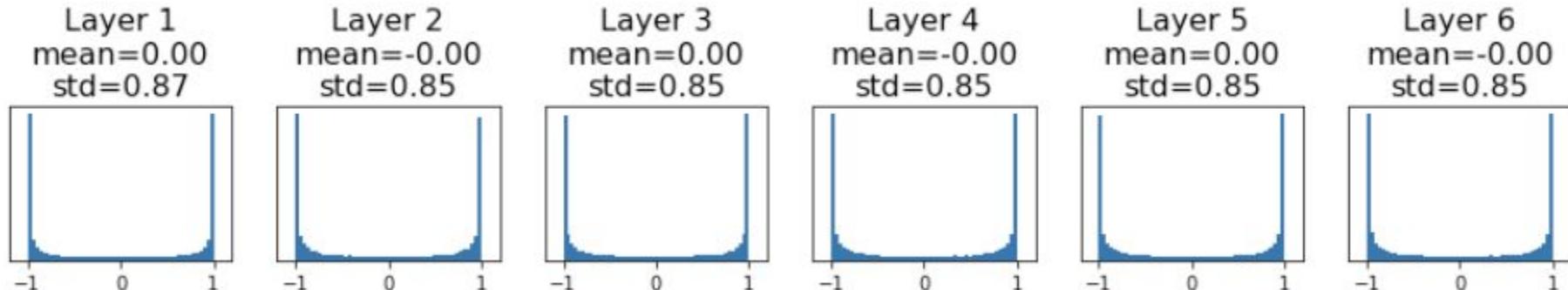
```
dims = [4096] * 7    Increase std of initial  
hs = []              weights from 0.01 to 0.05  
x = np.random.randn(16, dims[0])  
for Din, Dout in zip(dims[:-1], dims[1:]):  
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All activations saturate

Q: What do the gradients look like?



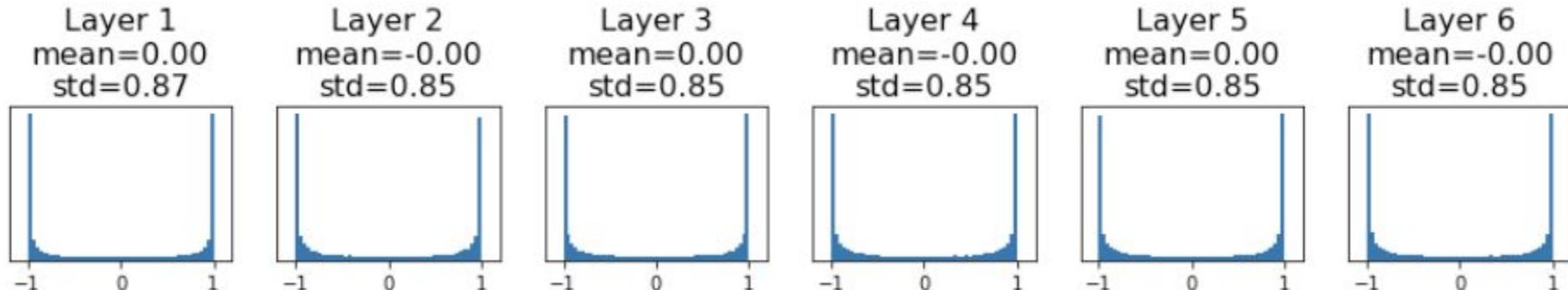
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All activations saturate

Q: What do the gradients look like?

A: Local gradients all zero, no learning =(



Weight Initialization: “Xavier” Initialization

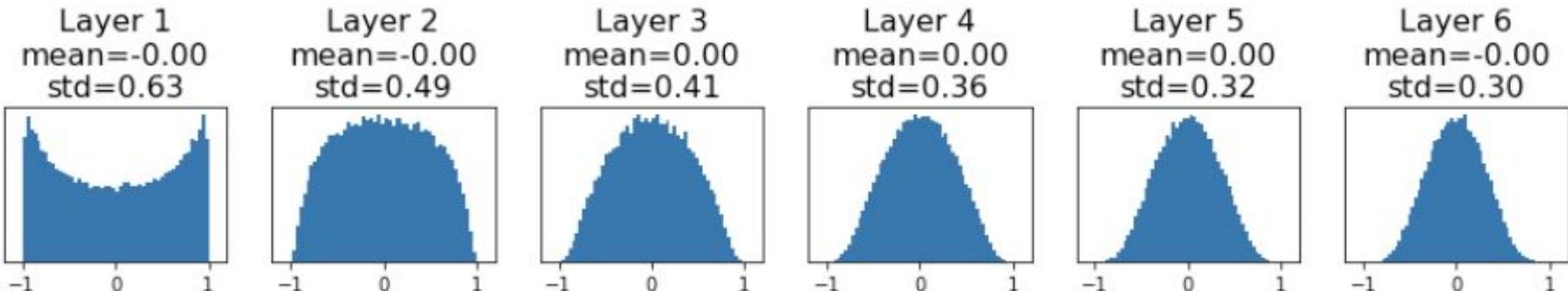
```
dims = [4096] * 7           "Xavier" initialization:  
hs = []                      std = 1/sqrt(Din)  
x = np.random.randn(16, dims[0])  
for Din, Dout in zip(dims[:-1], dims[1:]):  
    W = np.random.randn(Din, Dout) / np.sqrt(Din)  
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Glorot and Bengio, “Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks”, AISTAT 2010

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“Just right”: Activations are nicely scaled for all layers!



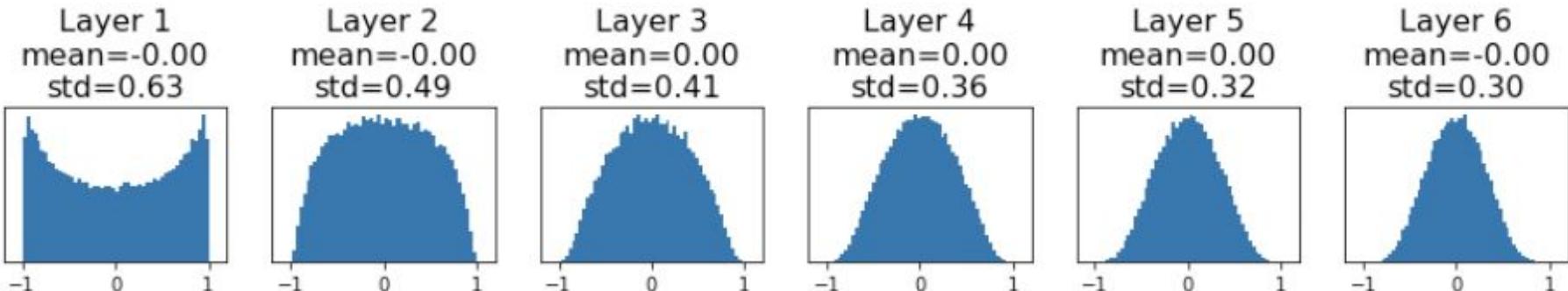
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For conv layers, Din is $\text{kernel_size}^2 * \text{input_channels}$



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For conv layers, Din is $\text{kernel_size}^2 * \text{input_channels}$

Derivation:

$$y = Wx$$
$$h = f(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(y_i) &= \text{Din} * \text{Var}(x_i w_i) && [\text{Assume } x, w \text{ are iid}] \\ &= \text{Din} * (\mathbb{E}[x_i^2]\mathbb{E}[w_i^2] - \mathbb{E}[x_i]^2 \mathbb{E}[w_i]^2) && [\text{Assume } x, w \text{ independant}] \\ &= \text{Din} * \text{Var}(x_i) * \text{Var}(w_i) && [\text{Assume } x, w \text{ are zero-mean}]\end{aligned}$$

If $\text{Var}(w_i) = 1/\text{Din}$ then $\text{Var}(y_i) = \text{Var}(x_i)$

Glorot and Bengio, “Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks”, AISTAT 2010

Weight Initialization: What about ReLU?

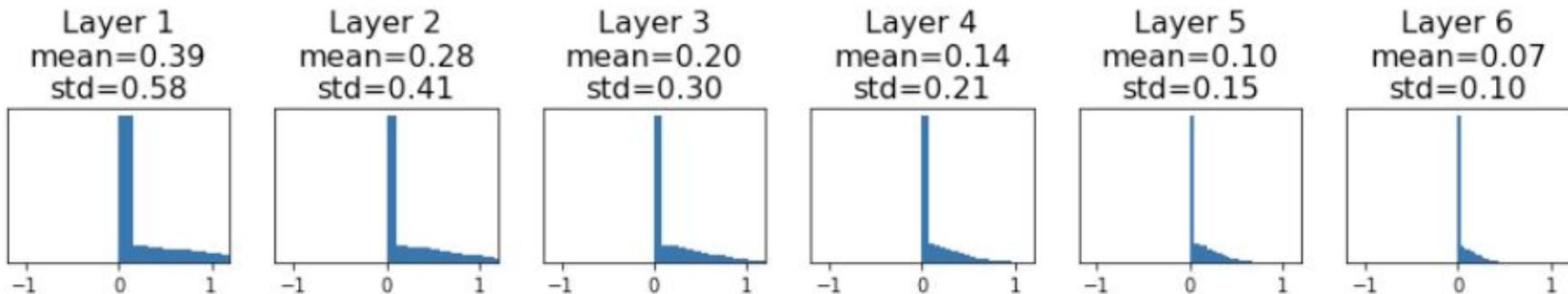
```
dims = [4096] * 7      Change from tanh to ReLU
hs = []
x = np.random.randn(16, dims[0])
for Din, Dout in zip(dims[:-1], dims[1:]):
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```

Xavier assumes zero centered activation function

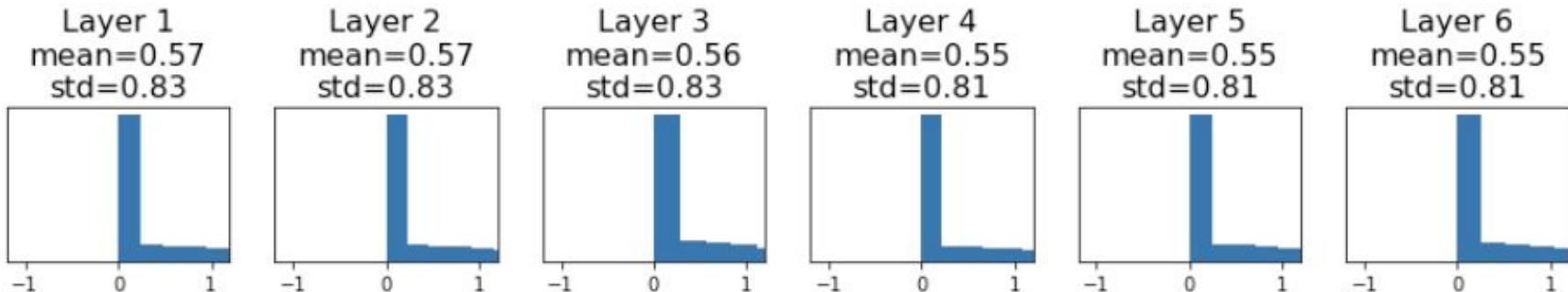
Activations collapse to zero again, no learning =(



Weight Initialization: Kaiming / MSRA Initialization

```
dims = [4096] * 7  ReLU correction: std = sqrt(2 / Din)
hs = []
x = np.random.randn(16, dims[0])
for Din, Dout in zip(dims[:-1], dims[1:]):
    W = np.random.randn(Din, Dout) * np.sqrt(2/Din)
    x = np.maximum(0, x.dot(W))
    hs.append(x)
```

“Just right”: Activations are nicely scaled for all layers!



He et al, “Delving Deep into Rectifiers: Surpassing Human-Level Performance on ImageNet Classification”, ICCV 2015

Proper initialization is an active area of research...

Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks

by Glorot and Bengio, 2010

Exact solutions to the nonlinear dynamics of learning in deep linear neural networks by Saxe et al, 2013

Random walk initialization for training very deep feedforward networks by Sussillo and Abbott, 2014

Delving deep into rectifiers: Surpassing human-level performance on ImageNet classification by He et al., 2015

Data-dependent Initializations of Convolutional Neural Networks by Krähenbühl et al., 2015

All you need is a good init, Mishkin and Matas, 2015

Fixup Initialization: Residual Learning Without Normalization, Zhang et al, 2019

The Lottery Ticket Hypothesis: Finding Sparse, Trainable Neural Networks, Frankle and Carbin, 2019

Batch Normalization

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

“you want zero-mean unit-variance activations? just make them so.”

consider a batch of activations at some layer. To make each dimension zero-mean unit-variance, apply:

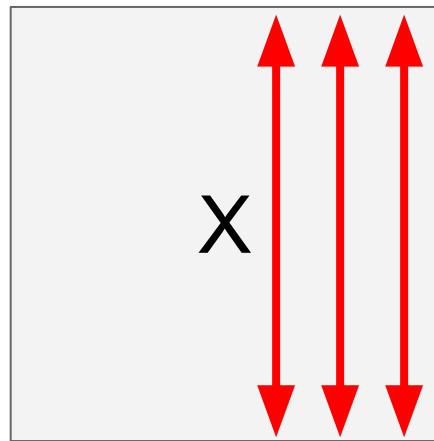
$$\hat{x}^{(k)} = \frac{x^{(k)} - \text{E}[x^{(k)}]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[x^{(k)}]}}$$

this is a vanilla
differentiable function...

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

Input: $x : N \times D$



$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{i,j}$$

Per-channel mean,
shape is D

$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{i,j} - \mu_j)^2$$

Per-channel var,
shape is D

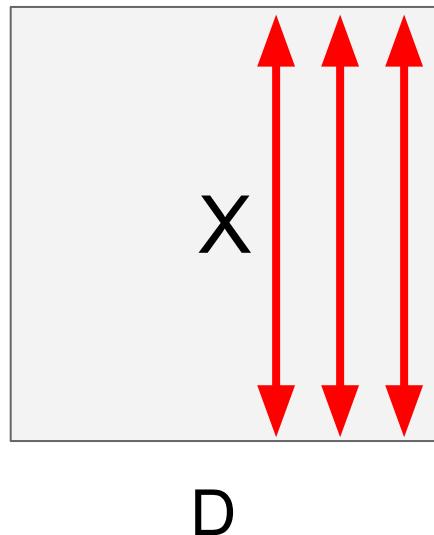
$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Normalized x,
Shape is $N \times D$

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

Input: $x : N \times D$



$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{i,j}$$

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Per-channel var,
shape is D

$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Normalized x,
Shape is $N \times D$

Problem: What if zero-mean, unit variance is too hard of a constraint?

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

Input: $x : N \times D$

Learnable scale and shift parameters:

$\gamma, \beta : D$

Learning $\gamma = \sigma$,
 $\beta = \mu$ will recover the identity function!

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{i,j}$$

Per-channel mean,
shape is D

$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{i,j} - \mu_j)^2$$

Per-channel var,
shape is D

$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Normalized x,
Shape is $N \times D$

$$y_{i,j} = \gamma_j \hat{x}_{i,j} + \beta_j$$

Output,
Shape is $N \times D$

Batch Normalization: Test-Time

Estimates depend on minibatch;
can't do this at test-time!

Input: $x : N \times D$

Learnable scale and shift parameters:

$\gamma, \beta : D$

Learning $\gamma = \sigma$,
 $\beta = \mu$ will recover the identity function!

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{i,j}$$
 Per-channel mean,
shape is D

$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{i,j} - \mu_j)^2$$
 Per-channel var,
shape is D

$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$
 Normalized x,
Shape is $N \times D$

$$y_{i,j} = \gamma_j \hat{x}_{i,j} + \beta_j$$
 Output,
Shape is $N \times D$

Batch Normalization: Test-Time

Input: $x : N \times D$

$\mu_j =$ (Running) average of
values seen during training

Per-channel mean,
shape is D

**Learnable scale and
shift parameters:**

$\gamma, \beta : D$

$\sigma_j^2 =$ (Running) average of
values seen during training

Per-channel var,
shape is D

$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Normalized x,
Shape is N x D

$$y_{i,j} = \gamma_j \hat{x}_{i,j} + \beta_j$$

Output,
Shape is N x D

During testing batchnorm
becomes a linear operator!
Can be fused with the previous
fully-connected or conv layer

Batch Normalization: Test-Time

Input: $x : N \times D$

$\mu_j =$ (Running) average of
values seen during training

Per-channel mean,
shape is D

**Learnable scale and
shift parameters:**

$\gamma, \beta : D$

$\sigma_j^2 =$ (Running) average of
values seen during training

Per-channel var,
shape is D

Learning $\gamma = \sigma$,
 $\beta = \mu$ will recover the
identity function!

$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Normalized x,
Shape is N x D

$$y_{i,j} = \gamma_j \hat{x}_{i,j} + \beta_j$$

Output,
Shape is N x D

Batch Normalization for ConvNets

Batch Normalization for
fully-connected networks

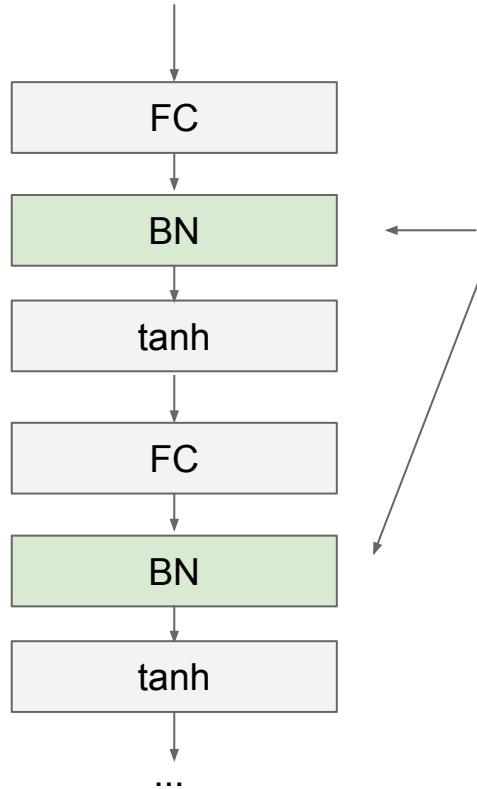
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &: N \times D \\ \text{Normalize} & \quad \downarrow \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma &: 1 \times D \\ \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \beta &: 1 \times D \\ \mathbf{y} &= \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) / \sigma + \beta \end{aligned}$$

Batch Normalization for
convolutional networks
(Spatial Batchnorm, BatchNorm2D)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &: N \times C \times H \times W \\ \text{Normalize} & \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma &: 1 \times C \times 1 \times 1 \\ \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \beta &: 1 \times C \times 1 \times 1 \\ \mathbf{y} &= \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) / \sigma + \beta \end{aligned}$$

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

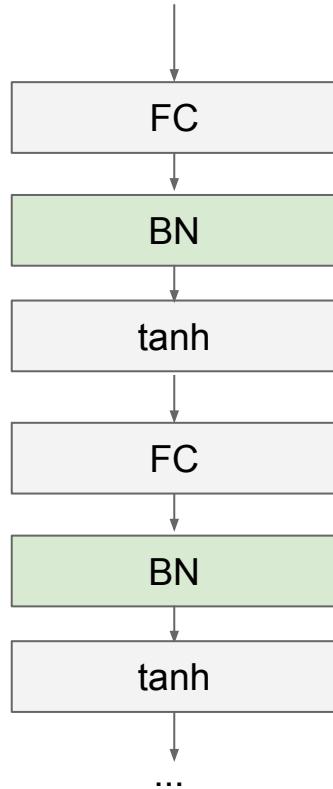


Usually inserted after Fully Connected or Convolutional layers, and before nonlinearity.

$$\hat{x}^{(k)} = \frac{x^{(k)} - \text{E}[x^{(k)}]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[x^{(k)}]}}$$

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]



- Makes deep networks **much** easier to train!
- Improves gradient flow
- Allows higher learning rates, faster convergence
- Networks become more robust to initialization
- Acts as regularization during training
- Zero overhead at test-time: can be fused with conv!
- **Behaves differently during training and testing: this is a very common source of bugs!**

Layer Normalization

Batch Normalization for
fully-connected networks

Layer Normalization for
fully-connected networks
Same behavior at train and test!
Can be used in recurrent networks

$\mathbf{x}: N \times D$

Normalize

$\mu, \sigma: 1 \times D$

$\gamma, \beta: 1 \times D$

$$\mathbf{y} = \gamma(\mathbf{x} - \mu) / \sigma + \beta$$

$\mathbf{x}: N \times D$

Normalize

$\mu, \sigma: N \times 1$

$\gamma, \beta: 1 \times D$

$$\mathbf{y} = \gamma(\mathbf{x} - \mu) / \sigma + \beta$$

Ba, Kiros, and Hinton, "Layer Normalization", arXiv 2016

Instance Normalization

Batch Normalization for convolutional networks

$x: N \times C \times H \times W$

Normalize



$\mu, \sigma: 1 \times C \times 1 \times 1$

$\gamma, \beta: 1 \times C \times 1 \times 1$

$$y = \gamma(x - \mu) / \sigma + \beta$$

Instance Normalization for convolutional networks
Same behavior at train / test!

$x: N \times C \times H \times W$

Normalize



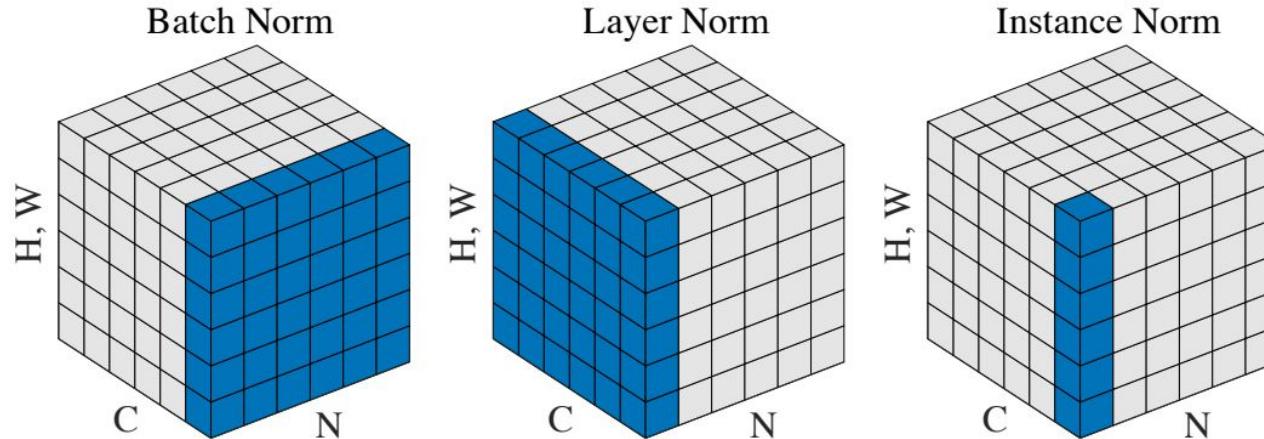
$\mu, \sigma: N \times C \times 1 \times 1$

$\gamma, \beta: 1 \times C \times 1 \times 1$

$$y = \gamma(x - \mu) / \sigma + \beta$$

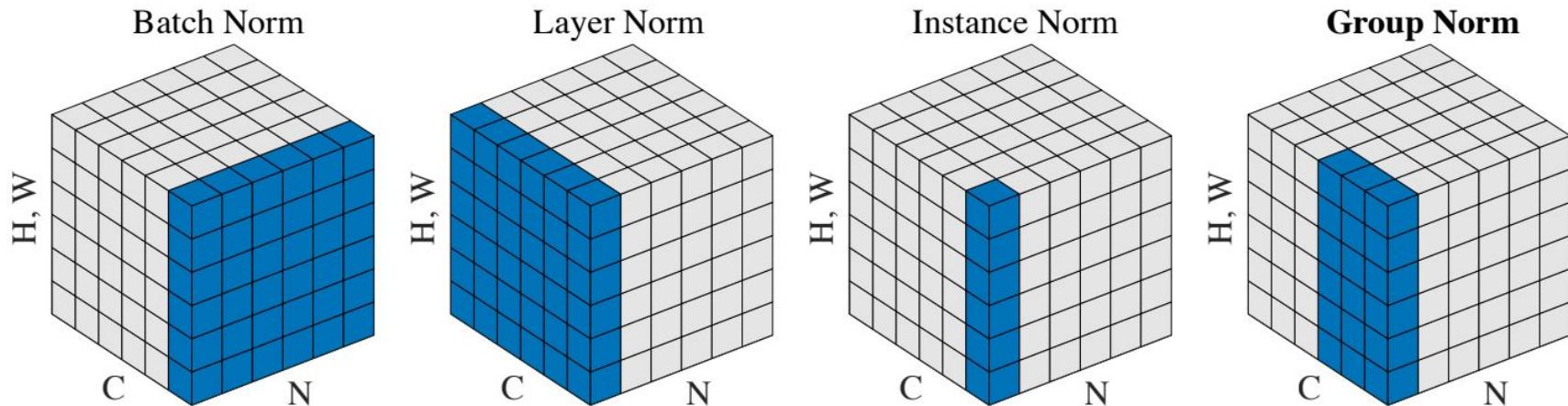
Ulyanov et al, Improved Texture Networks: Maximizing Quality and Diversity in Feed-forward Stylization and Texture Synthesis, CVPR 2017

Comparison of Normalization Layers



Wu and He, "Group Normalization", ECCV 2018

Group Normalization

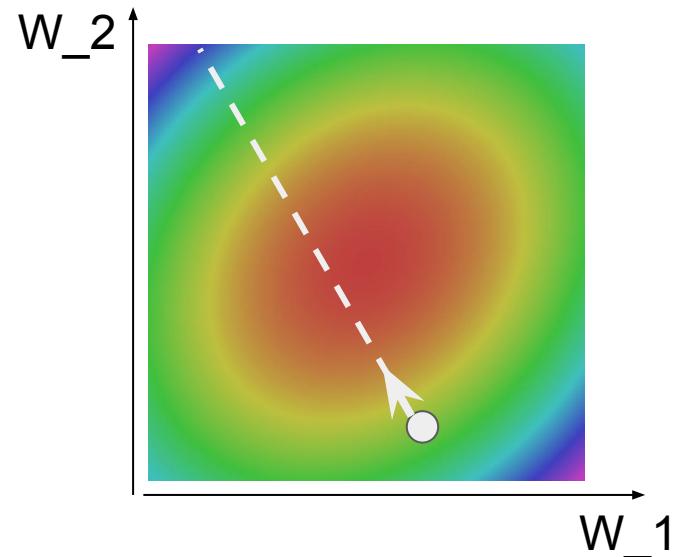


Wu and He, "Group Normalization", ECCV 2018

Optimization

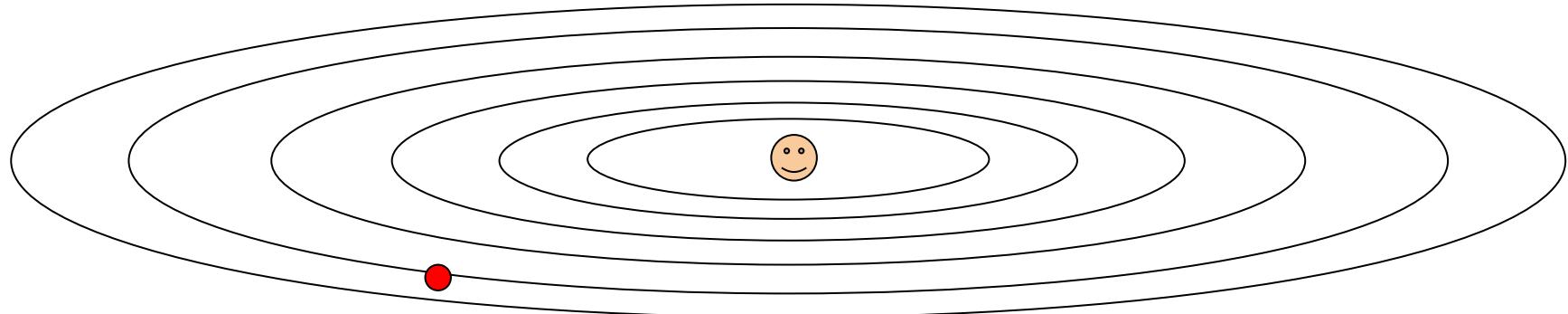
```
# Vanilla Gradient Descent

while True:
    weights_grad = evaluate_gradient(loss_fun, data, weights)
    weights += - step_size * weights_grad # perform parameter update
```



Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if loss changes quickly in one direction and slowly in another?
What does gradient descent do?



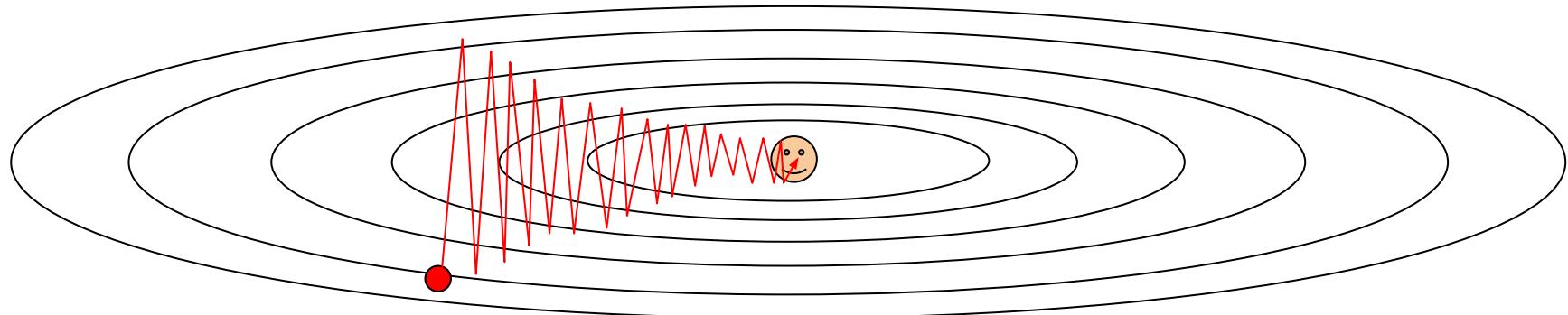
Loss function has high **condition number**: ratio of largest to smallest singular value of the Hessian matrix is large

Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if loss changes quickly in one direction and slowly in another?

What does gradient descent do?

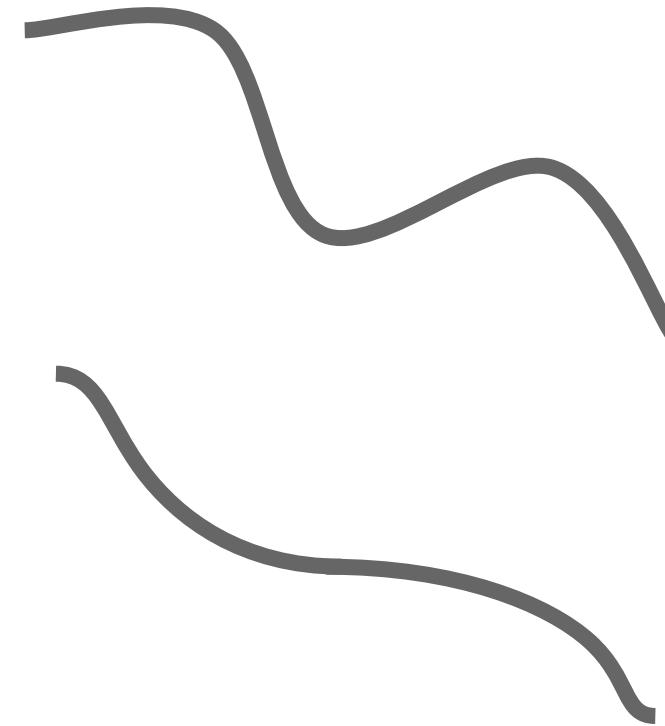
Very slow progress along shallow dimension, jitter along steep direction



Loss function has high **condition number**: ratio of largest to smallest singular value of the Hessian matrix is large

Optimization: Problems with SGD

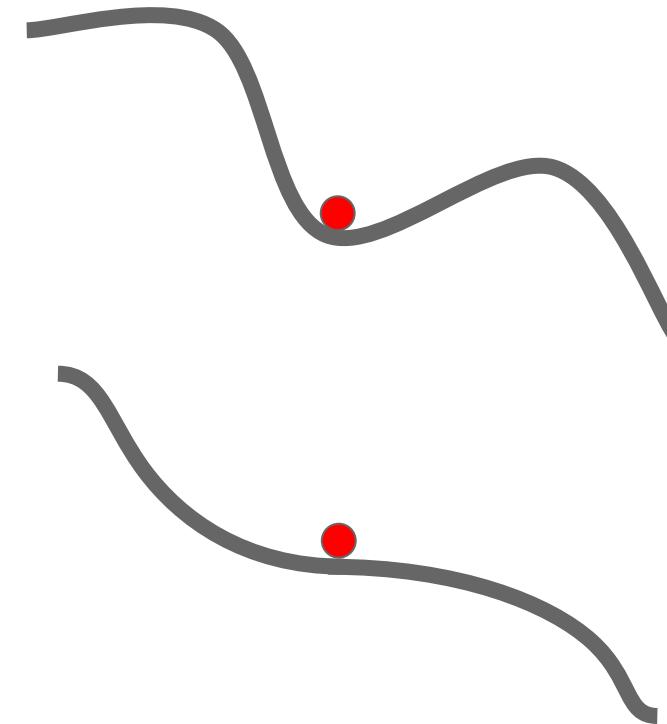
What if the loss
function has a
local minima or
saddle point?



Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if the loss
function has a
local minima or
saddle point?

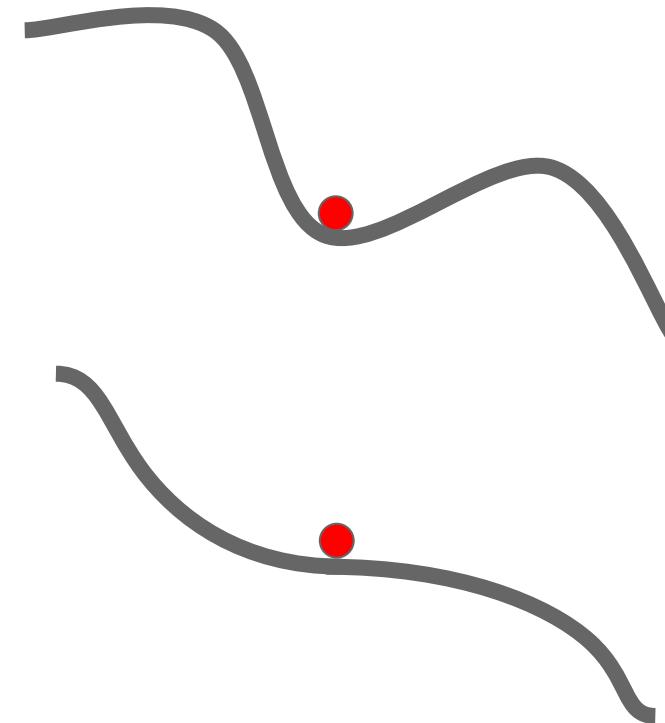
Zero gradient,
gradient descent
gets stuck



Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if the loss
function has a
local minima or
saddle point?

Saddle points much
more common in
high dimension



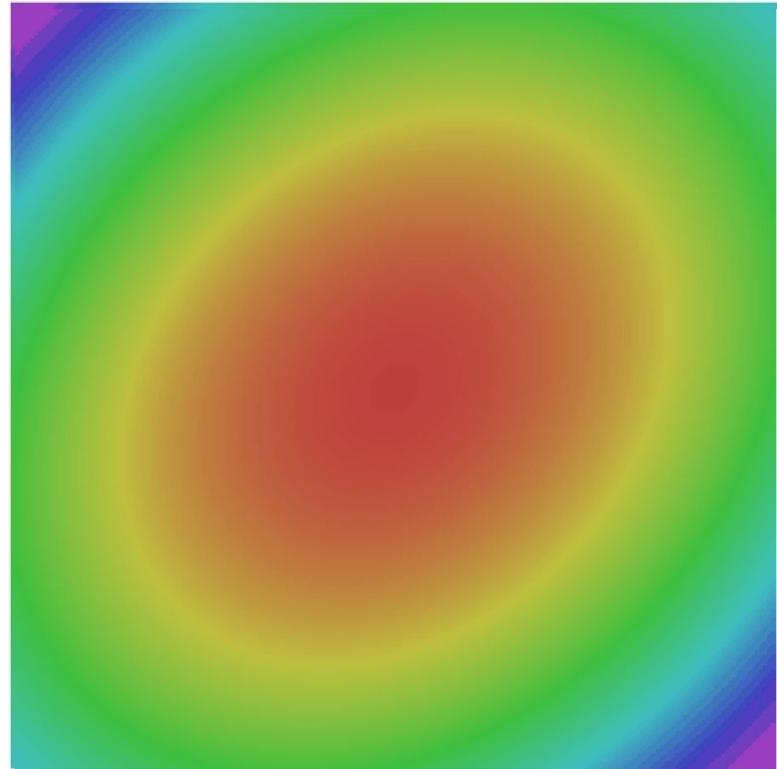
Dauphin et al, "Identifying and attacking the saddle point problem in high-dimensional non-convex optimization", NIPS 2014

Optimization: Problems with SGD

Our gradients come from
minibatches so they can be noisy!

$$L(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(x_i, y_i, W)$$

$$\nabla_W L(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla_W L_i(x_i, y_i, W)$$



SGD + Momentum

SGD

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t)$$

```
while True:  
    dx = compute_gradient(x)  
    x -= learning_rate * dx
```

SGD+Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t + \nabla f(x_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha v_{t+1}$$

```
vx = 0  
while True:  
    dx = compute_gradient(x)  
    vx = rho * vx + dx  
    x -= learning_rate * vx
```

- Build up “velocity” as a running mean of gradients
- Rho gives “friction”; typically rho=0.9 or 0.99

Sutskever et al, “On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning”, ICML 2013

SGD + Momentum

SGD+Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$

```
vx = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    vx = rho * vx - learning_rate * dx
    x += vx
```

SGD+Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t + \nabla f(x_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha v_{t+1}$$

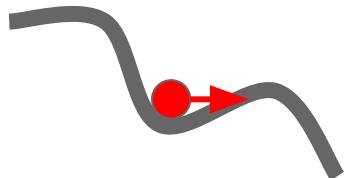
```
vx = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    vx = rho * vx + dx
    x -= learning_rate * vx
```

You may see SGD+Momentum formulated different ways,
but they are equivalent - give same sequence of x

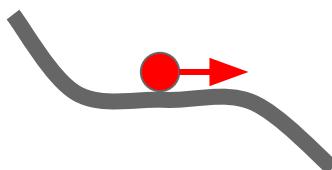
Sutskever et al, "On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning", ICML 2013

SGD + Momentum

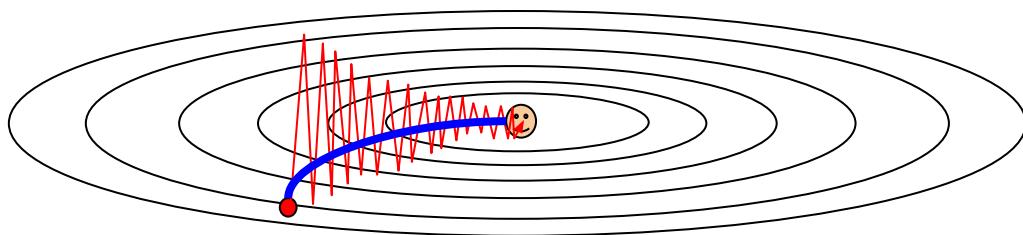
Local Minima



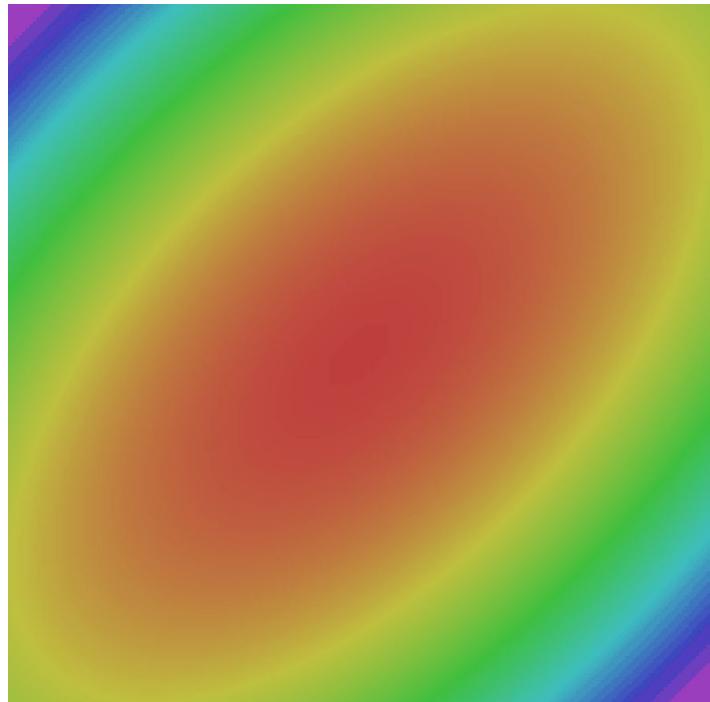
Saddle points



Poor Conditioning



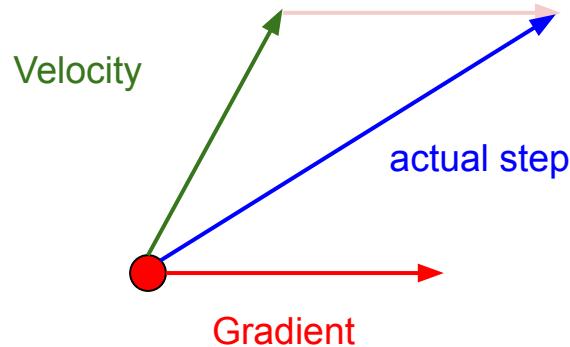
Gradient Noise



— SGD — SGD+Momentum

SGD+Momentum

Momentum update:



Combine gradient at current point with velocity to get step used to update weights

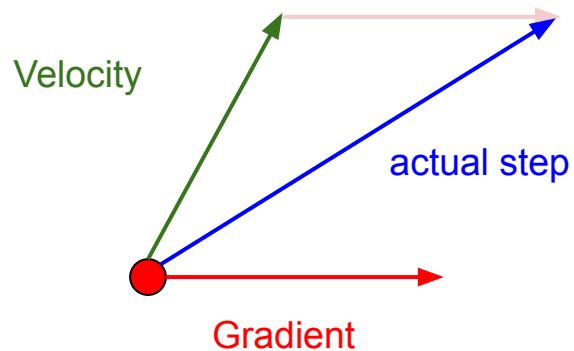
Nesterov, "A method of solving a convex programming problem with convergence rate $O(1/k^2)$ ", 1983

Nesterov, "Introductory lectures on convex optimization: a basic course", 2004

Sutskever et al, "On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning", ICML 2013

Nesterov Momentum

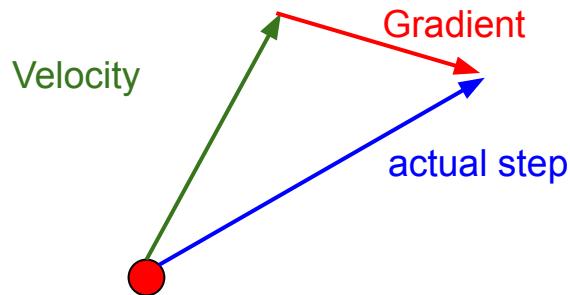
Momentum update:



Combine gradient at current point with velocity to get step used to update weights

Nesterov, "A method of solving a convex programming problem with convergence rate $O(1/k^2)$ ", 1983
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Nesterov Momentum

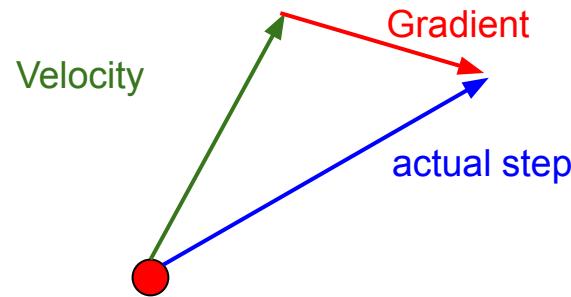


"Look ahead" to the point where updating using velocity would take us; compute gradient there and mix it with velocity to get actual update direction

Nesterov Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t + \rho v_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$



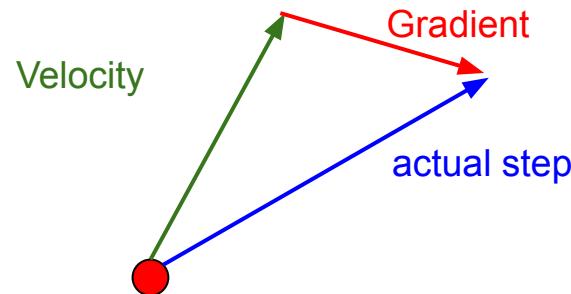
“Look ahead” to the point where updating using velocity would take us; compute gradient there and mix it with velocity to get actual update direction

Nesterov Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t + \rho v_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$

Annoying, usually we want update in terms of $x_t, \nabla f(x_t)$



“Look ahead” to the point where updating using velocity would take us; compute gradient there and mix it with velocity to get actual update direction

Nesterov Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t + \rho v_t)$$

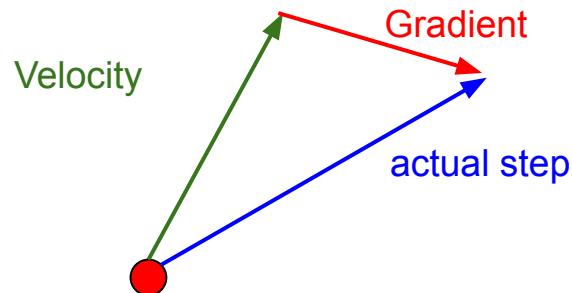
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$

Change of variables $\tilde{x}_t = x_t + \rho v_t$ and rearrange:

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(\tilde{x}_t)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{x}_{t+1} &= \tilde{x}_t - \rho v_t + (1 + \rho)v_{t+1} \\ &= \tilde{x}_t + v_{t+1} + \rho(v_{t+1} - v_t)\end{aligned}$$

Annoying, usually we want update in terms of $x_t, \nabla f(x_t)$



“Look ahead” to the point where updating using velocity would take us; compute gradient there and mix it with velocity to get actual update direction

Nesterov Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t + \rho v_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$

Annoying, usually we want update in terms of $x_t, \nabla f(x_t)$

Change of variables $\tilde{x}_t = x_t + \rho v_t$ and rearrange:

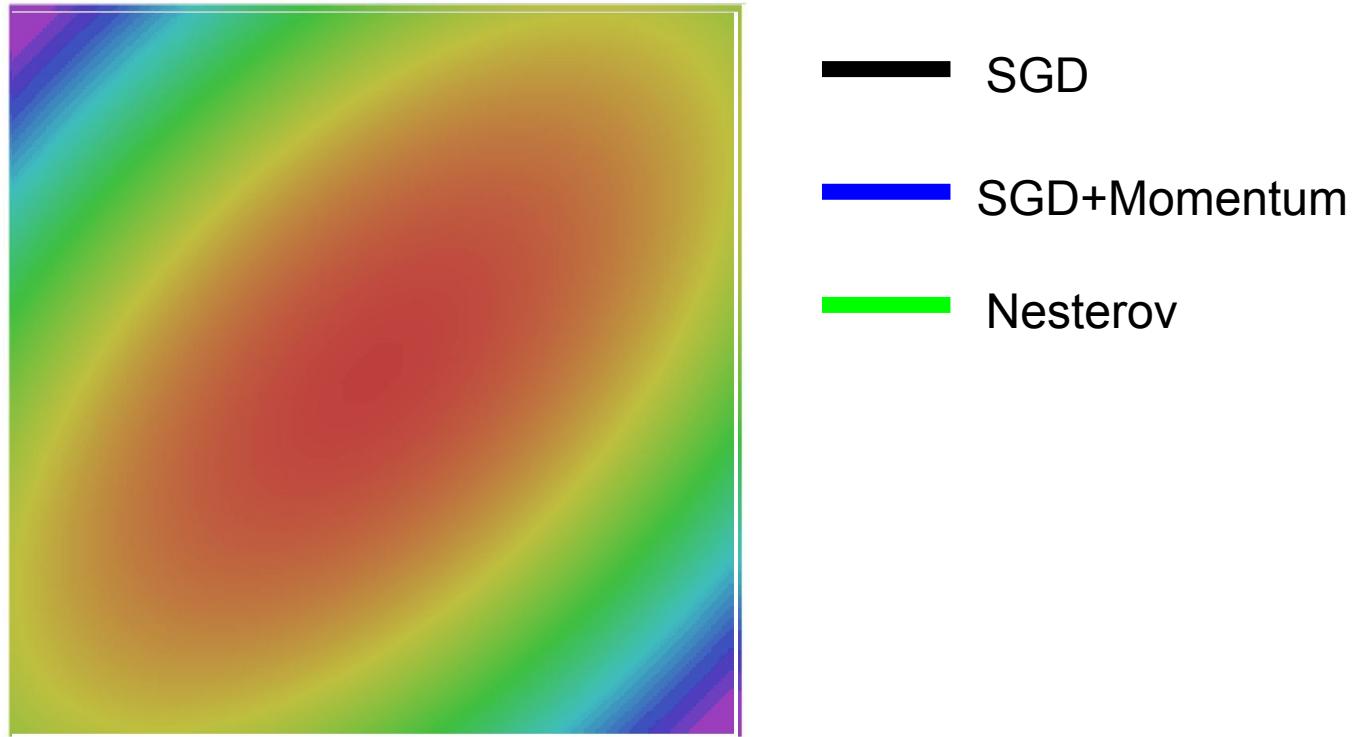
$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(\tilde{x}_t)$$

$$\tilde{x}_{t+1} = \tilde{x}_t - \rho v_t + (1 + \rho)v_{t+1}$$

$$= \tilde{x}_t + v_{t+1} + \rho(v_{t+1} - v_t)$$

```
dx = compute_gradient(x)
old_v = v
v = rho * v - learning_rate * dx
x += -rho * old_v + (1 + rho) * v
```

Nesterov Momentum



AdaGrad

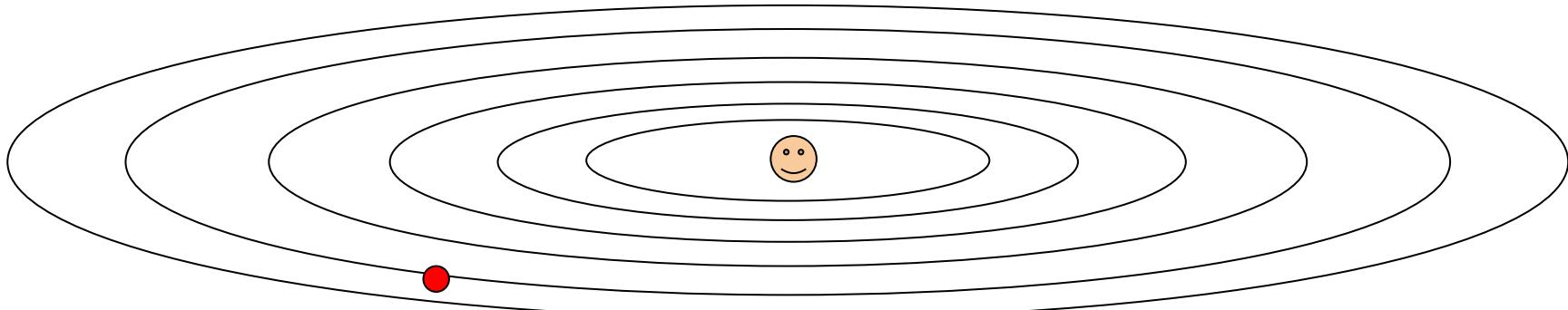
```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared += dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

Added element-wise scaling of the gradient based on the historical sum of squares in each dimension

“Per-parameter learning rates”
or “adaptive learning rates”

AdaGrad

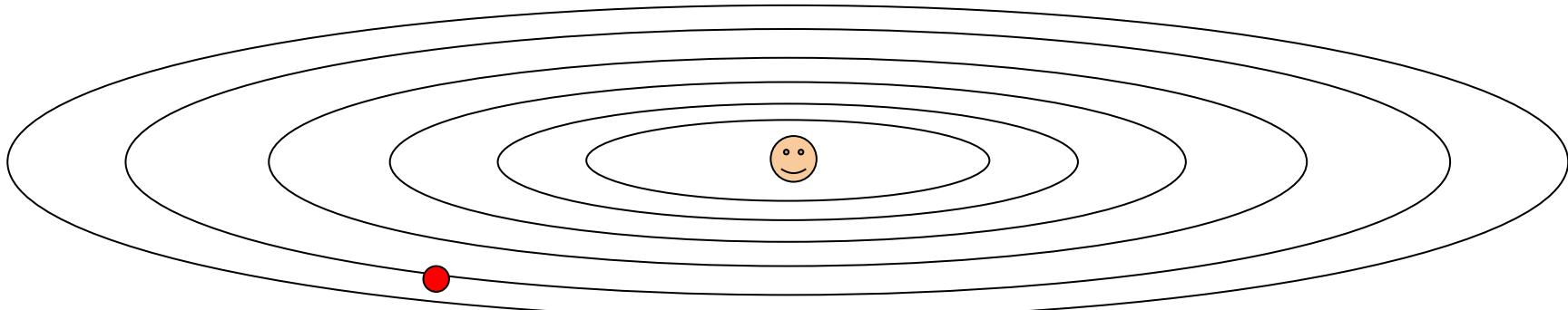
```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared += dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```



Q: What happens with AdaGrad?

AdaGrad

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared += dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

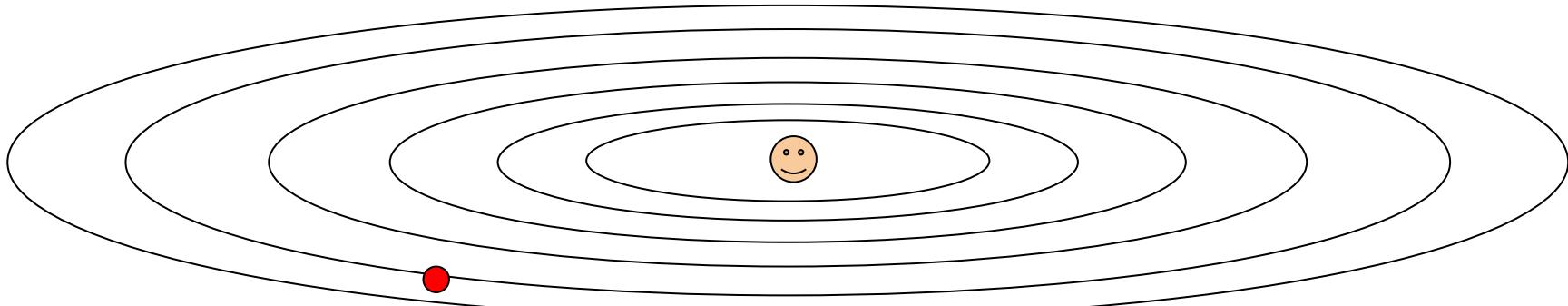


Q: What happens with AdaGrad?

Progress along “steep” directions is damped;
progress along “flat” directions is accelerated

AdaGrad

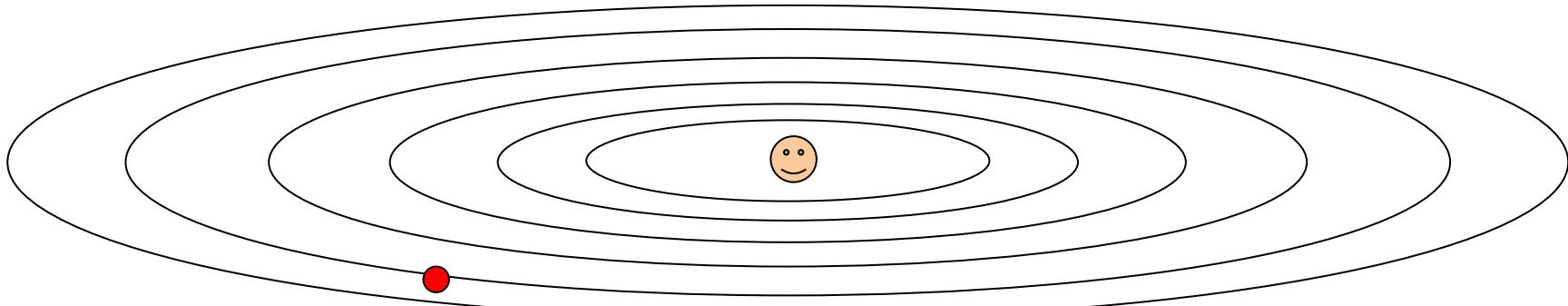
```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared += dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```



Q2: What happens to the step size over long time?

AdaGrad

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared += dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```



Q2: What happens to the step size over long time? Decays to zero

RMSProp: “Leaky AdaGrad”

AdaGrad

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared += dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

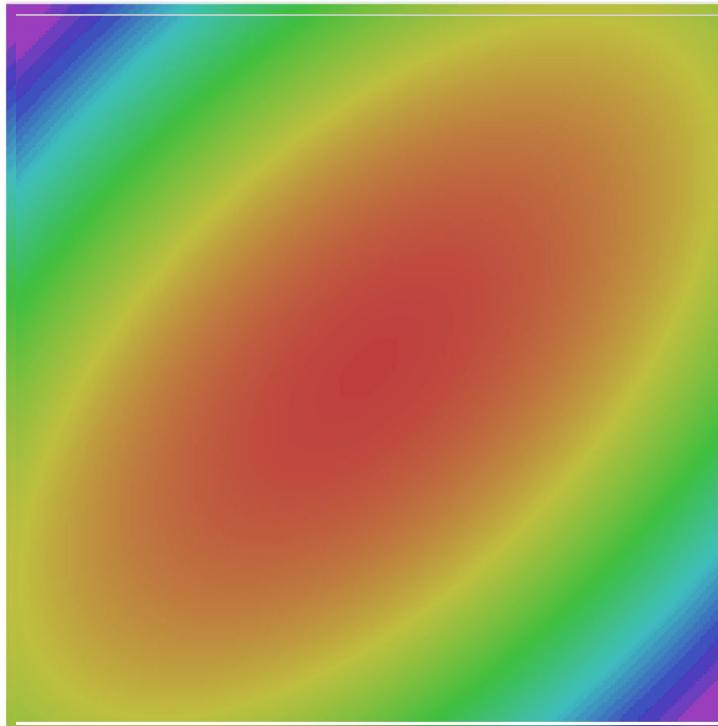


RMSProp

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    grad_squared = decay_rate * grad_squared + (1 - decay_rate) * dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

Tieleman and Hinton, 2012

RMSProp



- SGD
- SGD+Momentum
- RMSProp

Adam (almost)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    first_moment = beta1 * first_moment + (1 - beta1) * dx
    second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * first_moment / (np.sqrt(second_moment) + 1e-7))
```

Kingma and Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization", ICLR 2015

Adam (almost)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
while True:
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    first_moment = beta1 * first_moment + (1 - beta1) * dx
    second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
    x -= learning_rate * first_moment / (np.sqrt(second_moment) + 1e-7))
```

Momentum

AdaGrad / RMSProp

Sort of like RMSProp with momentum

Q: What happens at first timestep?

Kingma and Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization", ICLR 2015

Adam (full form)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
for t in range(1, num_iterations):
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    first_moment = beta1 * first_moment + (1 - beta1) * dx
    second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
    first_unbias = first_moment / (1 - beta1 ** t)
    second_unbias = second_moment / (1 - beta2 ** t)
    x -= learning_rate * first_unbias / (np.sqrt(second_unbias) + 1e-7))
```

Momentum

Bias correction

AdaGrad / RMSProp

Bias correction for the fact that
first and second moment
estimates start at zero

Kingma and Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization", ICLR 2015

Adam (full form)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
for t in range(1, num_iterations):
    dx = compute_gradient(x)
    first_moment = beta1 * first_moment + (1 - beta1) * dx
    second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
    first_unbias = first_moment / (1 - beta1 ** t)
    second_unbias = second_moment / (1 - beta2 ** t)
    x -= learning_rate * first_unbias / (np.sqrt(second_unbias) + 1e-7))
```

Momentum

Bias correction

AdaGrad / RMSProp

Bias correction for the fact that
first and second moment
estimates start at zero

Adam with $\beta_1 = 0.9$,
 $\beta_2 = 0.999$, and $\text{learning_rate} = 1e-3$ or $5e-4$
is a great starting point for many models!

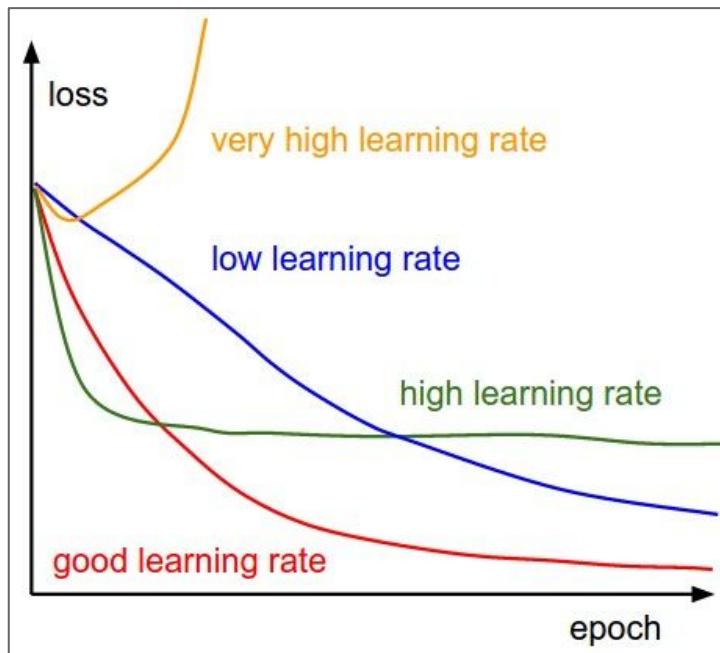
Kingma and Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization", ICLR 2015

Adam



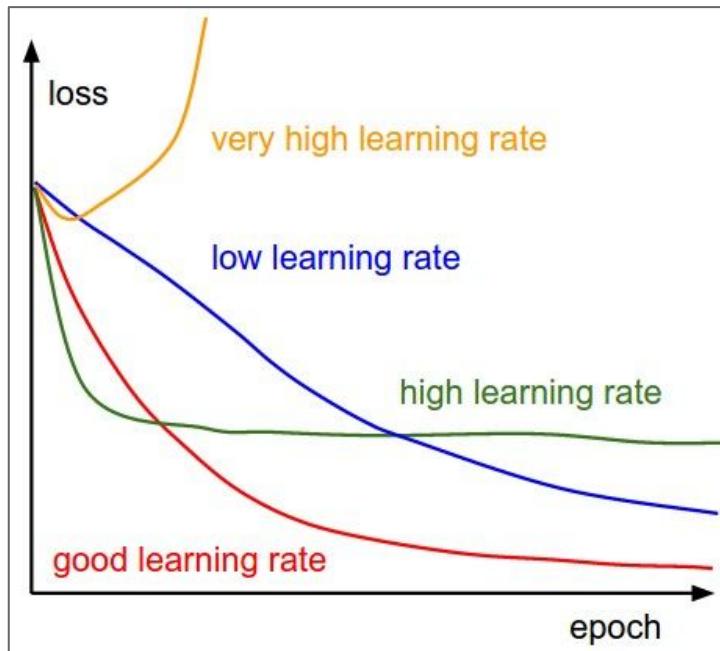
- SGD
- SGD+Momentum
- RMSProp
- Adam

SGD, SGD+Momentum, Adagrad, RMSProp, Adam all have **learning rate** as a hyperparameter.



Q: Which one of these learning rates is best to use?

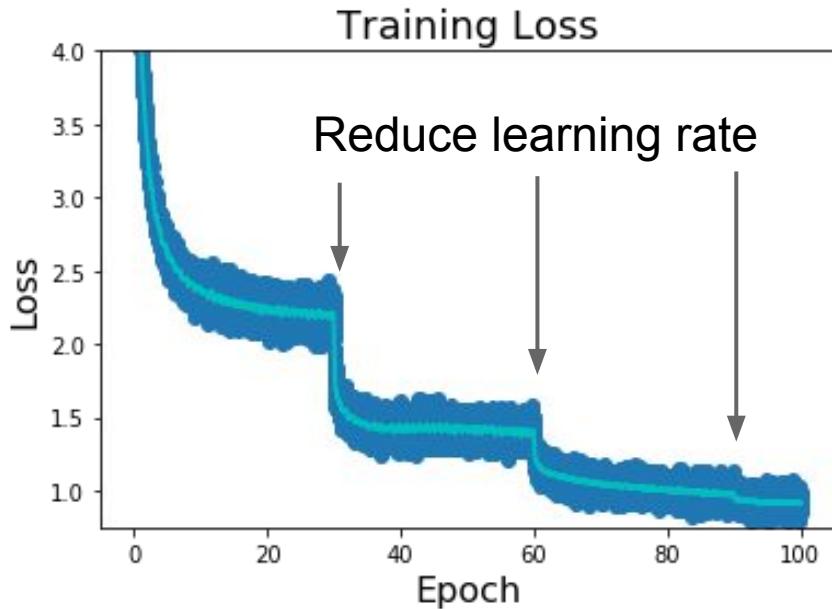
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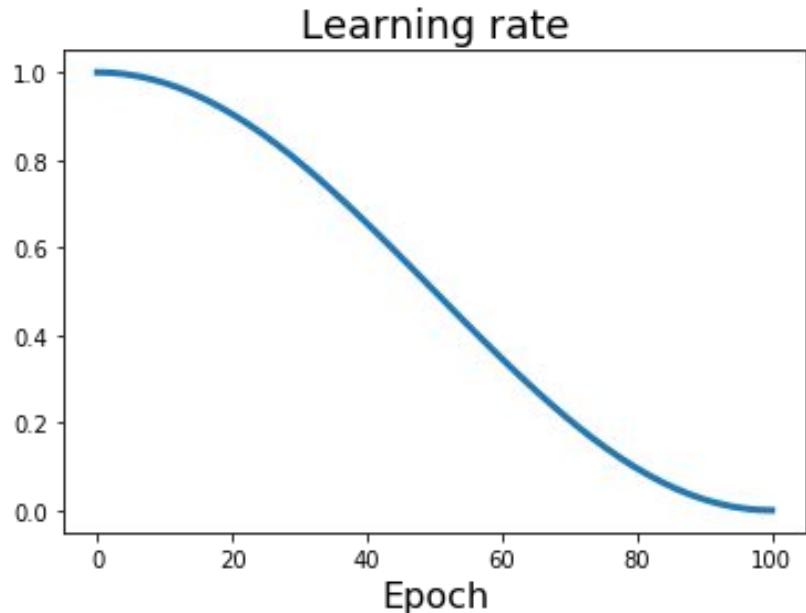
A: All of them! Start with large learning rate and decay over time

Learning Rate Decay



Step: Reduce learning rate at a few fixed points. E.g. for ResNets, multiply LR by 0.1 after epochs 30, 60, and 90.

Learning Rate Decay



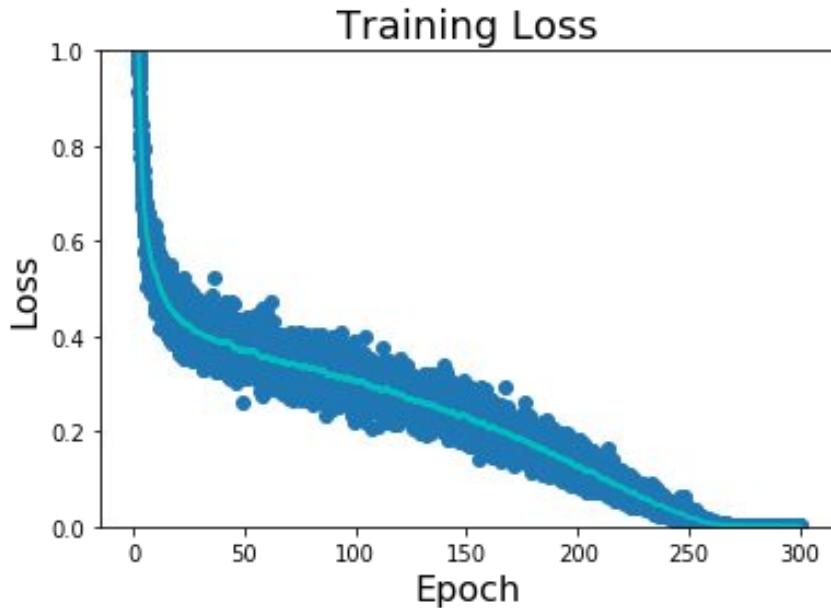
Step: Reduce learning rate at a few fixed points. E.g. for ResNets, multiply LR by 0.1 after epochs 30, 60, and 90.

Cosine: $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_0 (1 + \cos(t\pi/T))$

α_0 : Initial learning rate
 α_t : Learning rate at epoch t
 T : Total number of epochs

Loshchilov and Hutter, "SGDR: Stochastic Gradient Descent with Warm Restarts", ICLR 2017
Radford et al, "Improving Language Understanding by Generative Pre-Training", 2018
Feichtenhofer et al, "SlowFast Networks for Video Recognition", arXiv 2018
Child et al, "Generating Long Sequences with Sparse Transformers", arXiv 2019

Learning Rate Decay



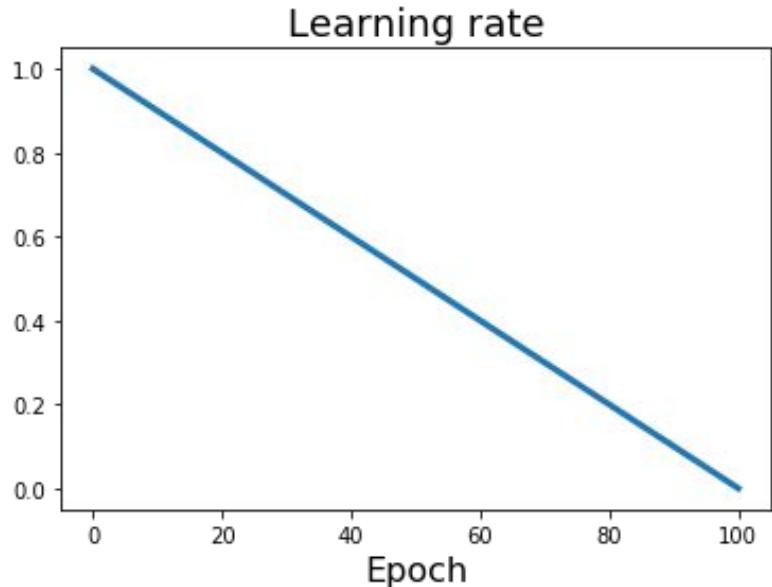
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Learning Rate Decay



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Linear: $\alpha_t = \alpha_0(1 - t/T)$

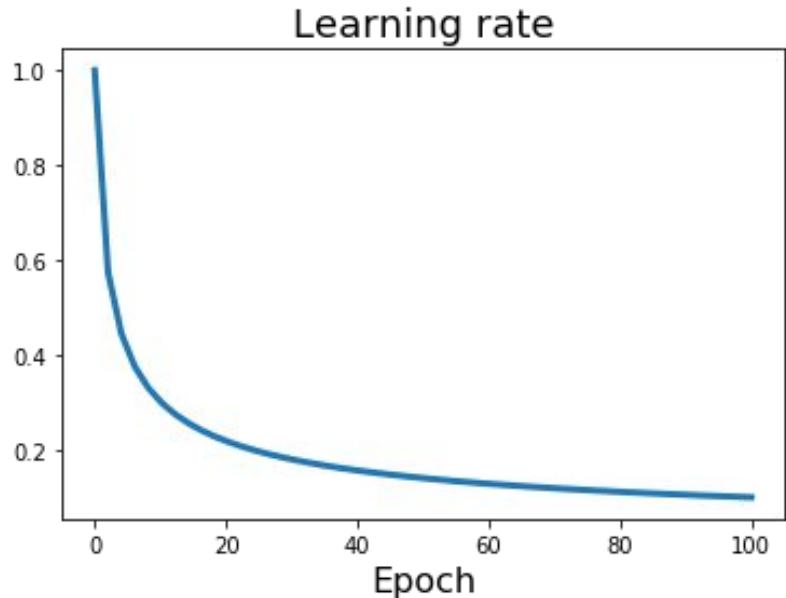
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Devlin et al, "BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding", 2018

Learning Rate Decay



Step: Reduce learning rate at a few fixed points. E.g. for ResNets, multiply LR by 0.1 after epochs 30, 60, and 90.

Cosine: $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_0 (1 + \cos(t\pi/T))$

Linear: $\alpha_t = \alpha_0(1 - t/T)$

Inverse sqrt: $\alpha_t = \alpha_0/\sqrt{t}$

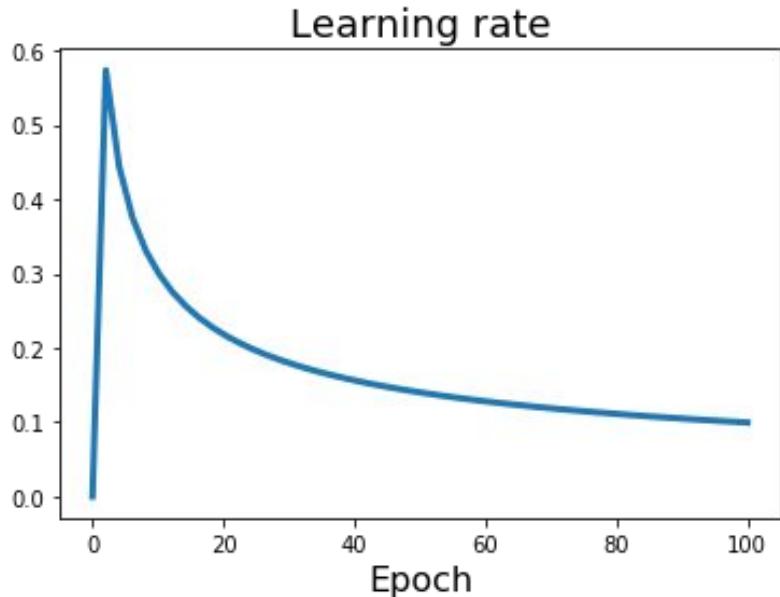
α_0 : Initial learning rate

α_t : Learning rate at epoch t

T : Total number of epochs

Vaswani et al, "Attention is all you need", NIPS 2017

Learning Rate Decay: Linear Warmup

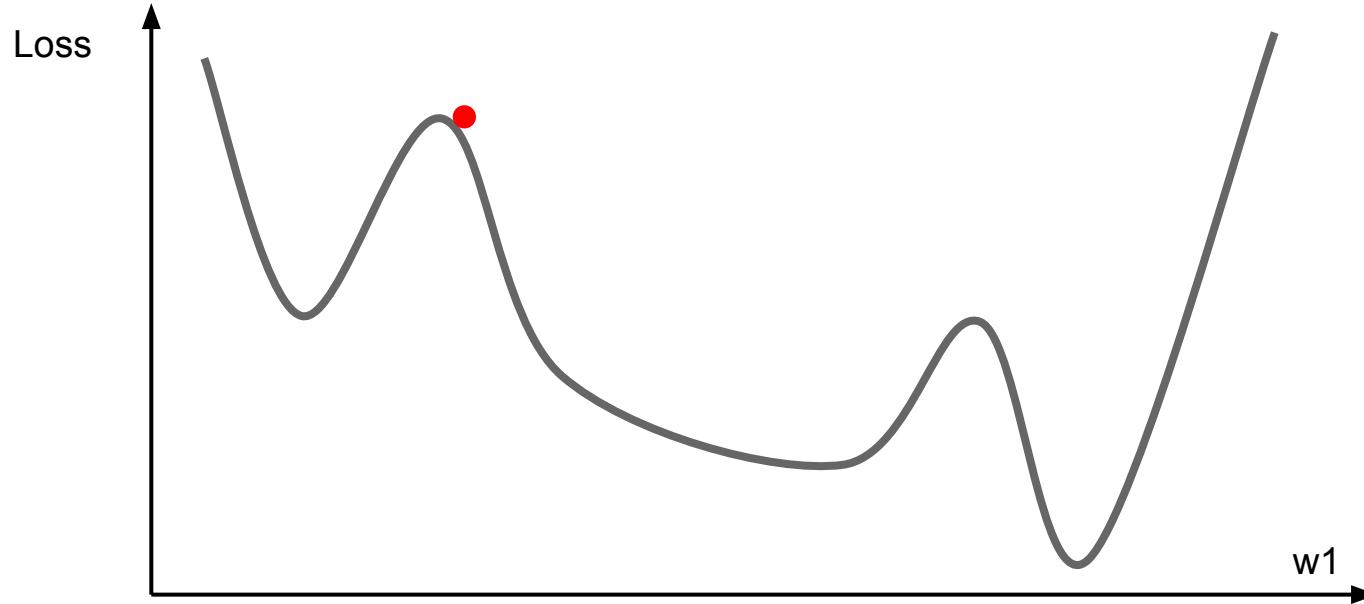


High initial learning rates can make loss explode; linearly increasing learning rate from 0 over the first ~5000 iterations can prevent this

Empirical rule of thumb: If you increase the batch size by N, also scale the initial learning rate by N

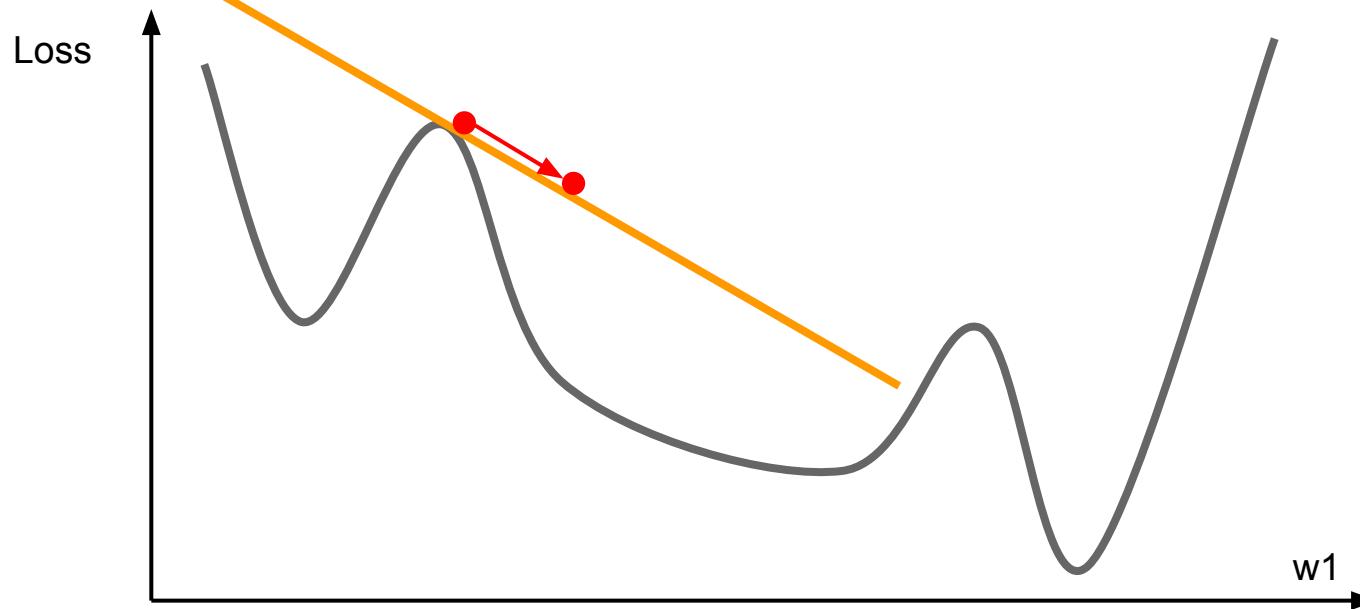
Goyal et al, "Accurate, Large Minibatch SGD: Training ImageNet in 1 Hour", arXiv 2017

First-Order Optimization



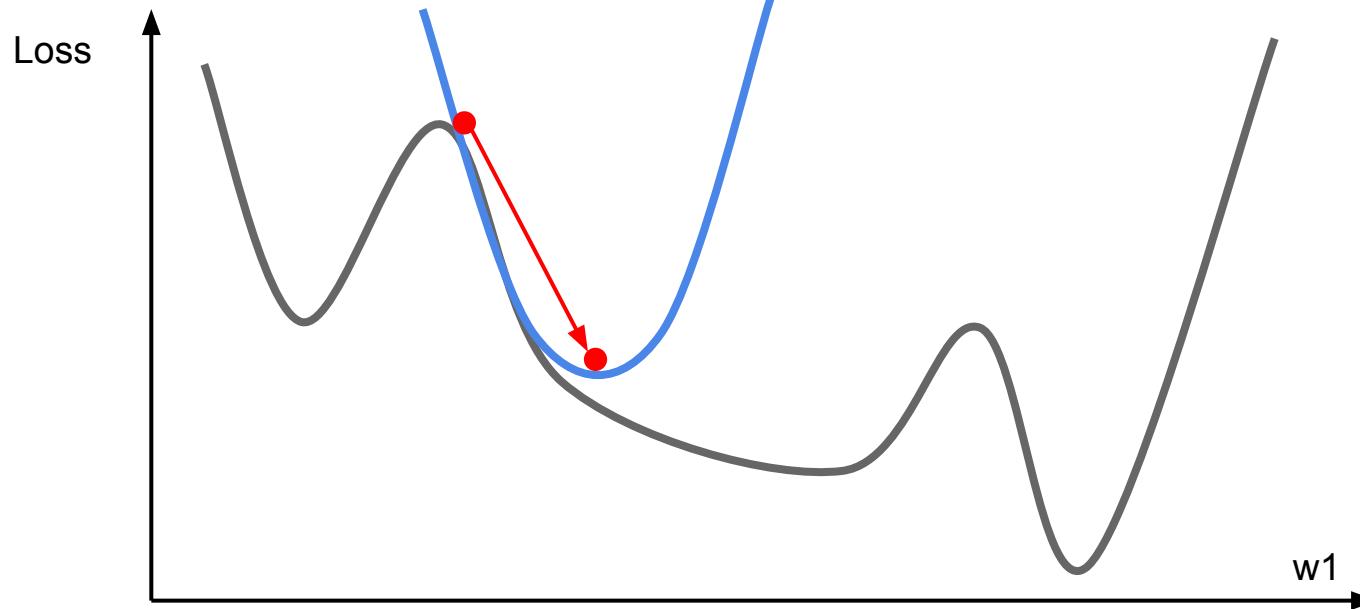
First-Order Optimization

- (1) Use gradient form linear approximation
- (2) Step to minimize the approximation



Second-Order Optimization

- (1) Use gradient **and Hessian** to form **quadratic approximation**
- (2) Step to the **minima** of the approximation



Second-Order Optimization

second-order Taylor expansion:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Solving for the critical point we obtain the Newton parameter update:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 - \mathbf{H}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Q: Why is this bad for deep learning?

Second-Order Optimization

second-order Taylor expansion:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Solving for the critical point we obtain the Newton parameter update:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 - \mathbf{H}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Hessian has $O(N^2)$ elements
Inverting takes $O(N^3)$
 $N = (\text{Tens or Hundreds of}) \text{ Millions}$

Q: Why is this bad for deep learning?

Second-Order Optimization

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 - \boldsymbol{H}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

- Quasi-Newton methods (**BGFS** most popular):
instead of inverting the Hessian ($O(n^3)$), approximate inverse Hessian with rank 1 updates over time ($O(n^2)$ each).
- **L-BFGS** (Limited memory BFGS):
Does not form/store the full inverse Hessian.

L-BFGS

- **Usually works very well in full batch, deterministic mode**
i.e. if you have a single, deterministic $f(x)$ then L-BFGS will probably work very nicely
- **Does not transfer very well to mini-batch setting.** Gives bad results. Adapting second-order methods to large-scale, stochastic setting is an active area of research.

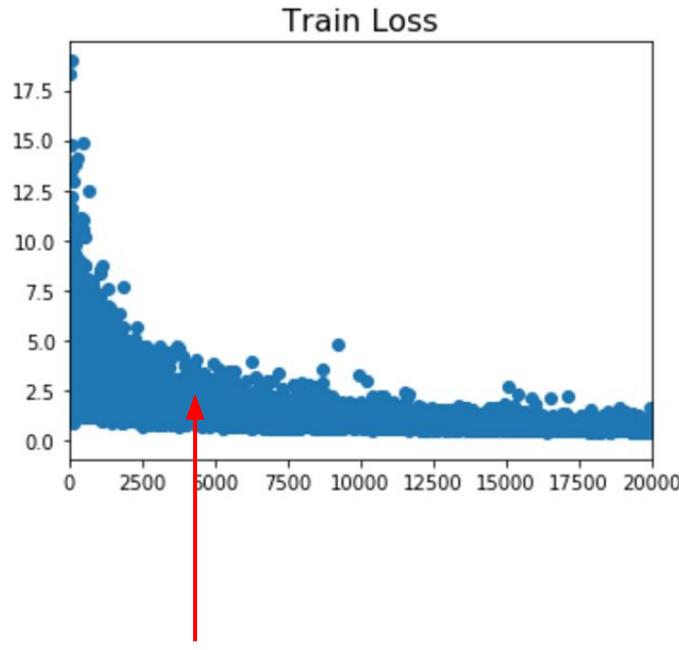
Le et al, "On optimization methods for deep learning, ICML 2011"

Ba et al, "Distributed second-order optimization using Kronecker-factored approximations", ICLR 2017

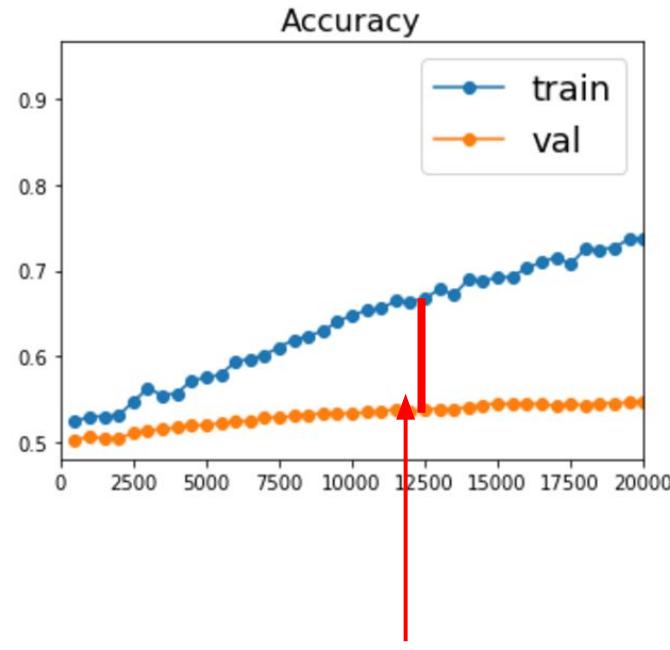
In practice:

- **Adam** is a good default choice in many cases; it often works ok even with constant learning rate
- **SGD+Momentum** can outperform Adam but may require more tuning of LR and schedule
 - Try cosine schedule, very few hyperparameters!
- If you can afford to do full batch updates then try out **L-BFGS** (and don't forget to disable all sources of noise)

Beyond Training Error

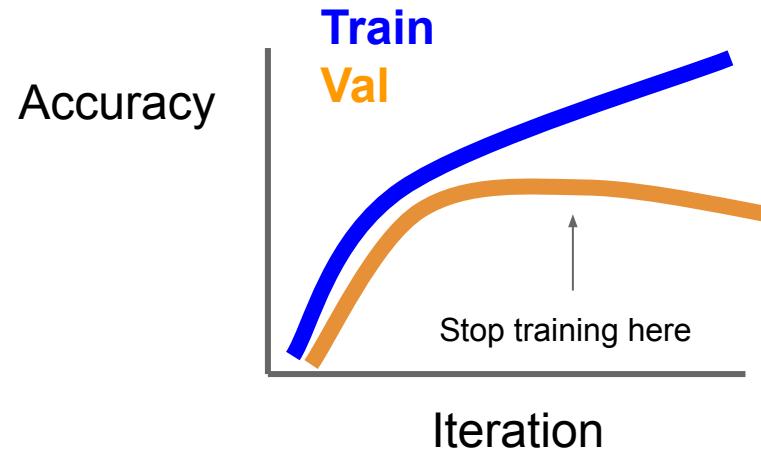
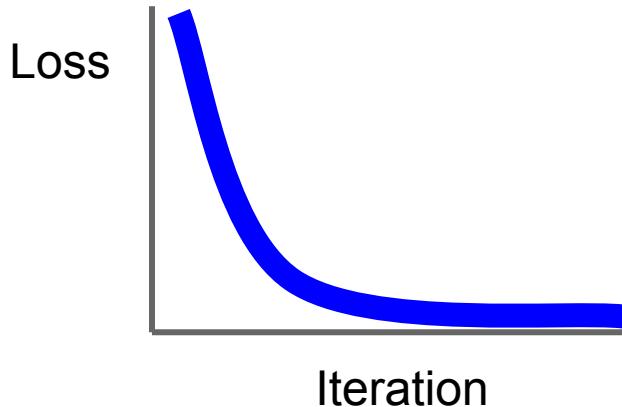


Better optimization algorithms help reduce training loss



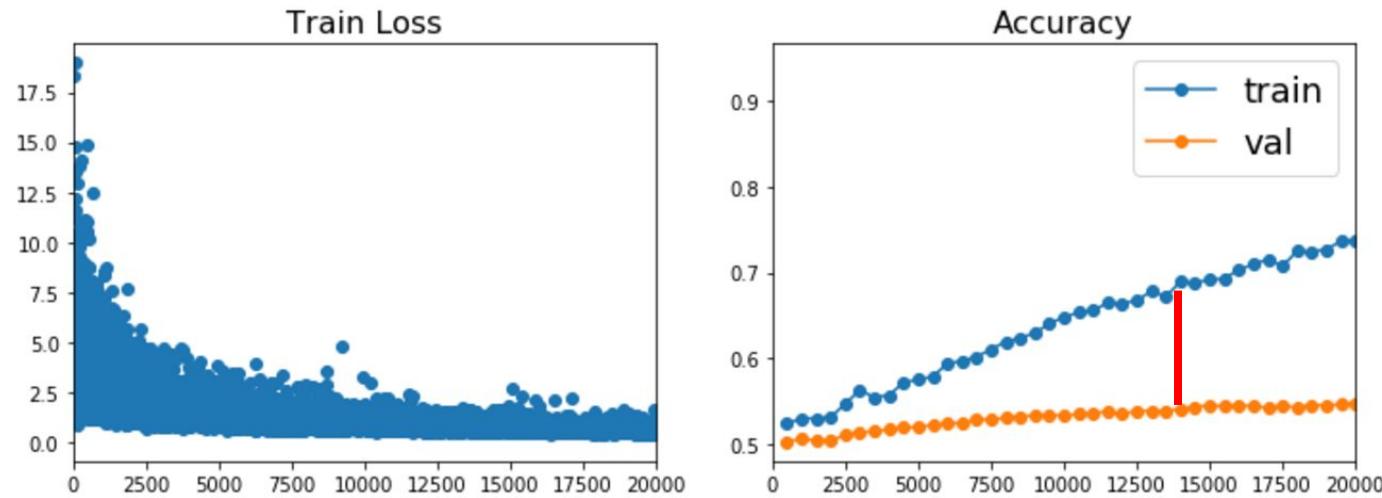
But we really care about error on new data - how to reduce the gap?

Early Stopping: Always do this



Stop training the model when accuracy on the validation set decreases
Or train for a long time, but always keep track of the model snapshot
that worked best on val

How to improve single-model performance?



Regularization

Regularization: Add term to loss

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq y_i} \max(0, f(x_i; W)_j - f(x_i; W)_{y_i} + 1) + \boxed{\lambda R(W)}$$

In common use:

L2 regularization

$$R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l W_{k,l}^2 \quad (\text{Weight decay})$$

L1 regularization

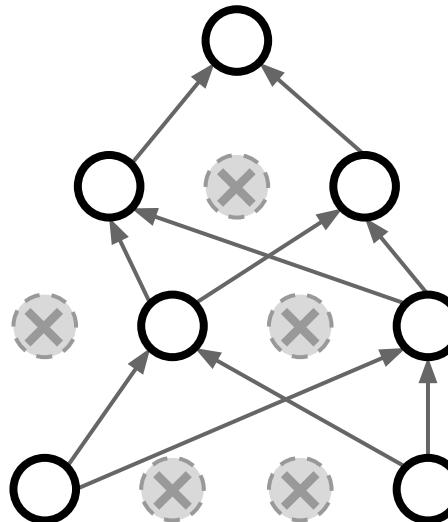
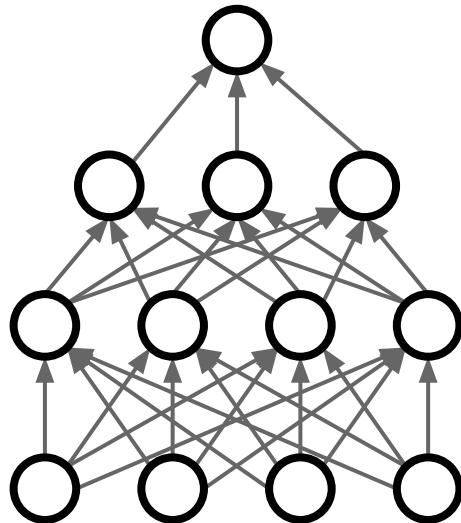
$$R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l |W_{k,l}|$$

Elastic net (L1 + L2)

$$R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l \beta W_{k,l}^2 + |W_{k,l}|$$

Regularization: Dropout

In each forward pass, randomly set some neurons to zero
Probability of dropping is a hyperparameter; 0.5 is common



Srivastava et al, "Dropout: A simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting", JMLR 2014

Regularization: Dropout

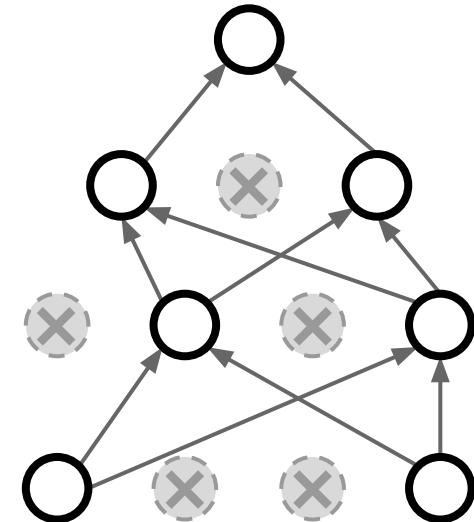
```
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout

def train_step(X):
    """ X contains the data """

    # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
    H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
    U1 = np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p # first dropout mask
    H1 *= U1 # drop!
    H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
    U2 = np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p # second dropout mask
    H2 *= U2 # drop!
    out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3

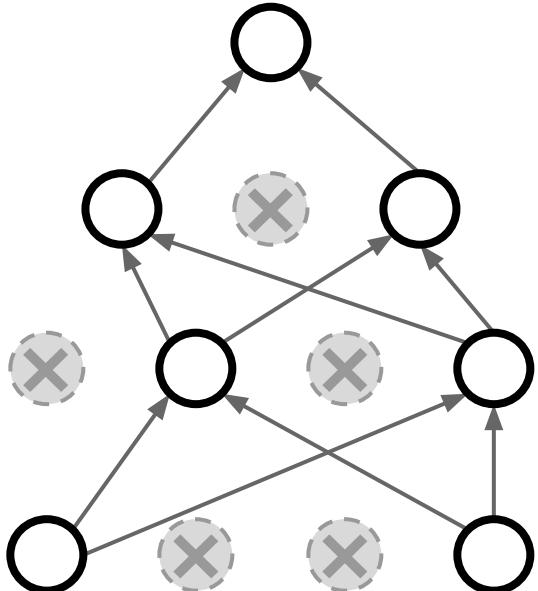
    # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
    # perform parameter update... (not shown)
```

Example forward pass with a 3-layer network using dropout



Regularization: Dropout

How can this possibly be a good idea?

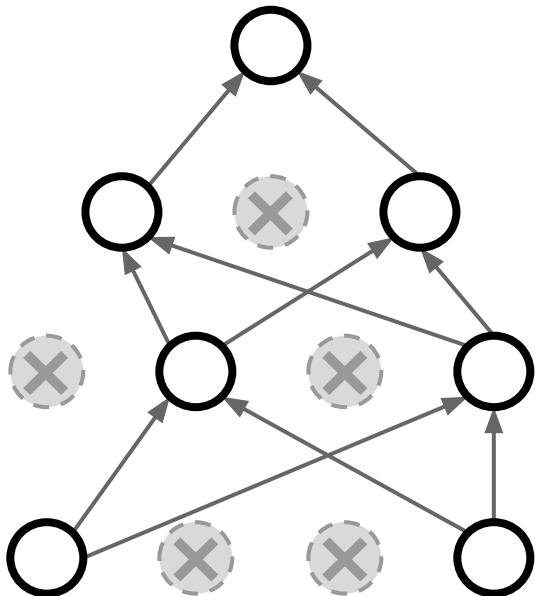


Forces the network to have a redundant representation;
Prevents co-adaptation of features



Regularization: Dropout

How can this possibly be a good idea?



Another interpretation:

Dropout is training a large **ensemble** of models (that share parameters).

Each binary mask is one model

An FC layer with 4096 units has $2^{4096} \sim 10^{1233}$ possible masks!

Only $\sim 10^{82}$ atoms in the universe...

Dropout: Test time

Dropout makes our output random!

$$\boxed{y} = f_W(\boxed{x}, \boxed{z})$$

Output
(label) Input
(image) Random
mask

Want to “average out” the randomness at test-time

$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x, z)] = \int p(z)f(x, z)dz$$

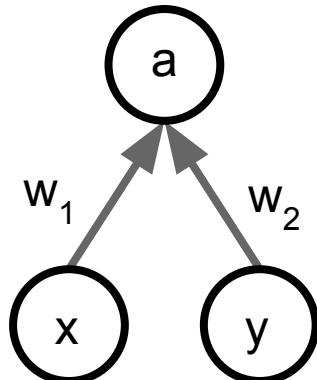
But this integral seems hard ...

Dropout: Test time

Want to approximate
the integral

$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x, z)] = \int p(z)f(x, z)dz$$

Consider a single neuron.

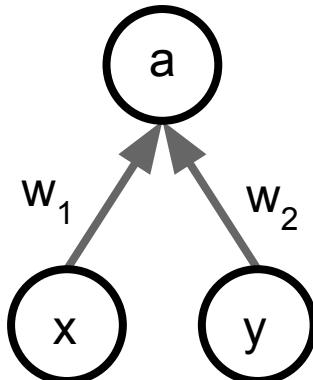


Dropout: Test time

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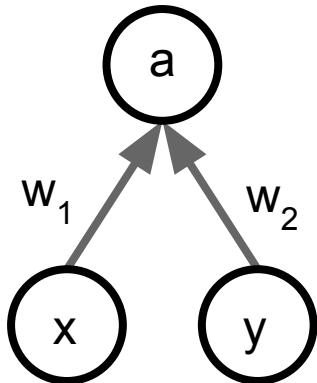
At test time we have: $E[a] = w_1x + w_2y$

Dropout: Test time

Want to approximate
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$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x, z)] = \int p(z)f(x, z)dz$$

Consider a single neuron.



At test time we have: $E[a] = w_1x + w_2y$

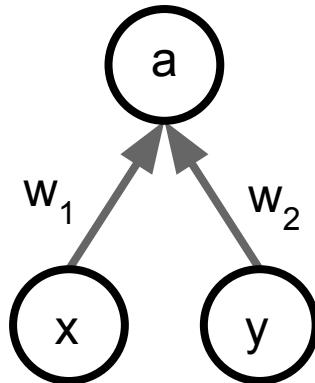
During training we have:

$$\begin{aligned} E[a] &= \frac{1}{4}(w_1x + w_2y) + \frac{1}{4}(w_1x + 0y) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{4}(0x + 0y) + \frac{1}{4}(0x + w_2y) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(w_1x + w_2y) \end{aligned}$$

Dropout: Test time

Want to approximate
the integral

$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x, z)] = \int p(z)f(x, z)dz$$



Consider a single neuron.

At test time we have: $E[a] = w_1x + w_2y$

During training we have:

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At test time, multiply
by dropout probability

Dropout: Test time

```
def predict(X):
    # ensembled forward pass
    H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
    H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
    out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

At test time all neurons are active always

=> We must scale the activations so that for each neuron:

output at test time = expected output at training time

```
""" Vanilla Dropout: Not recommended implementation (see notes below) """
```

```
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout
```

```
def train_step(X):  
    """ X contains the data """
```

```
# forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
```

```
H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
```

```
U1 = np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p # first dropout mask
```

```
H1 *= U1 # drop!
```

```
H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
```

```
U2 = np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p # second dropout mask
```

```
H2 *= U2 # drop!
```

```
out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

```
# backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
```

```
# perform parameter update... (not shown)
```

```
def predict(X):
```

```
# ensembled forward pass
```

```
H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
```

```
H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
```

```
out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

Dropout Summary

drop in forward pass

scale at test time

More common: “Inverted dropout”

```
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout

def train_step(X):
    # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
    H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
    U1 = (np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p) / p # first dropout mask. Notice /p!
    H1 *= U1 # drop!
    H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
    U2 = (np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p) / p # second dropout mask. Notice /p!
    H2 *= U2 # drop!
    out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3

    # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
    # perform parameter update... (not shown)

def predict(X):
    # ensembled forward pass
    H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) # no scaling necessary
    H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
    out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

test time is unchanged!



Regularization: A common pattern

Training: Add some kind
of randomness

$$y = f_W(x, z)$$

Testing: Average out randomness
(sometimes approximate)

$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x, z)] = \int p(z)f(x, z)dz$$

Regularization: A common pattern

Training: Add some kind of randomness

$$y = f_W(x, z)$$

Testing: Average out randomness (sometimes approximate)

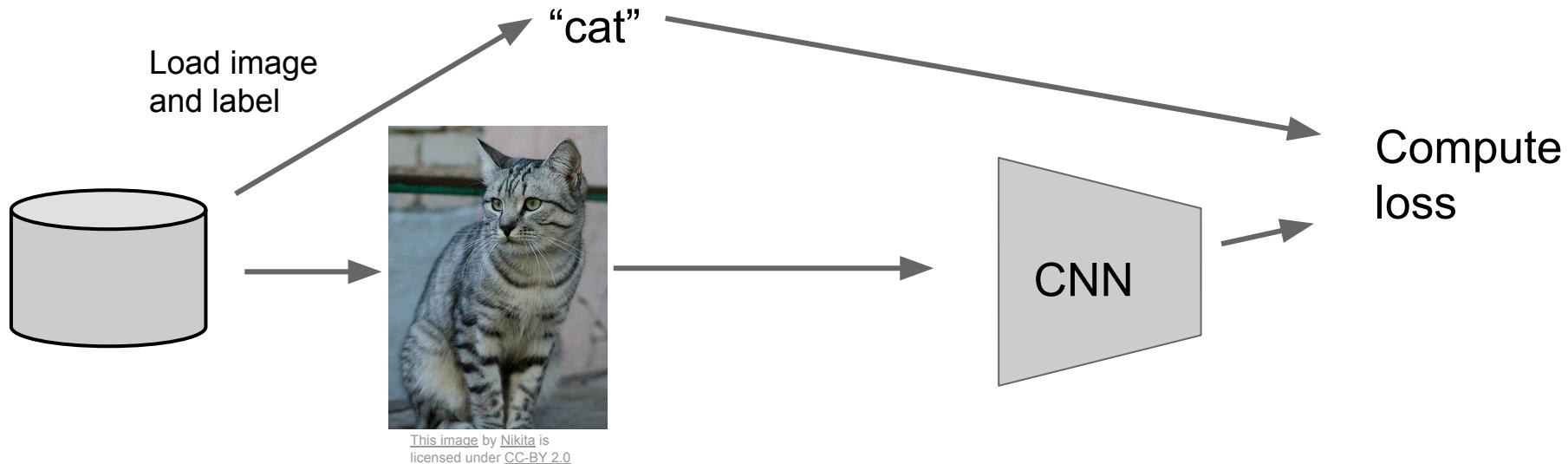
$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x, z)] = \int p(z)f(x, z)dz$$

Example: Batch Normalization

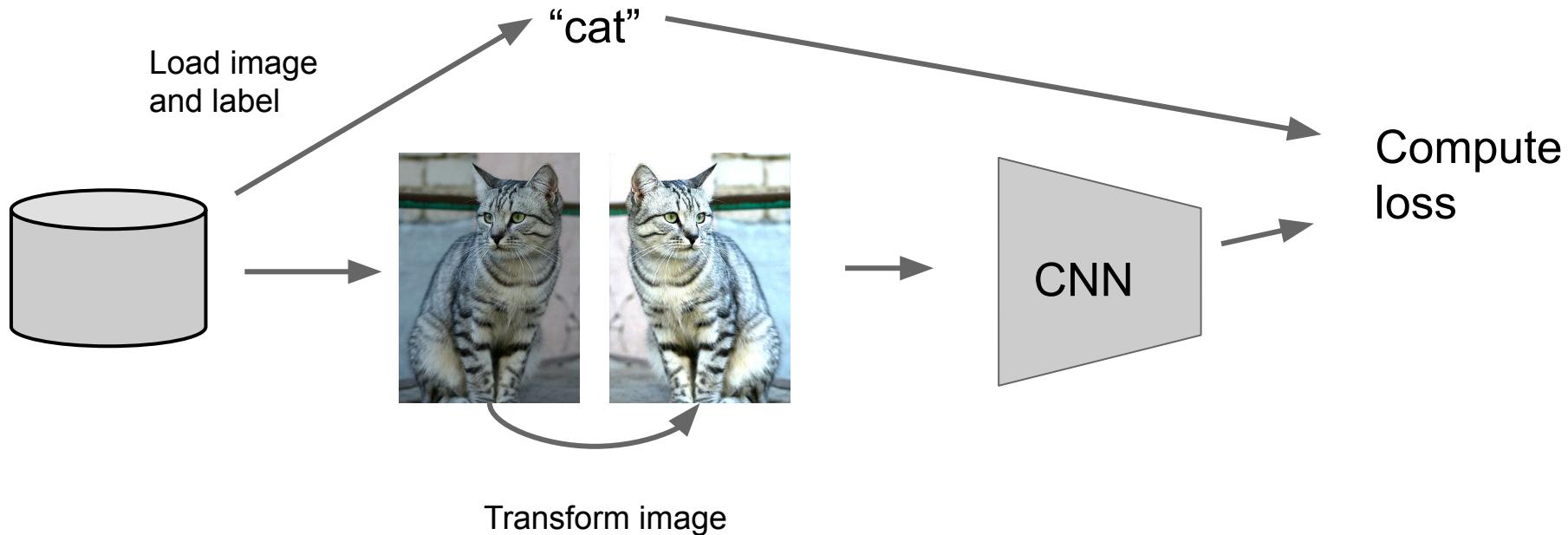
Training: Normalize using stats from random minibatches

Testing: Use fixed stats to normalize

Regularization: Data Augmentation

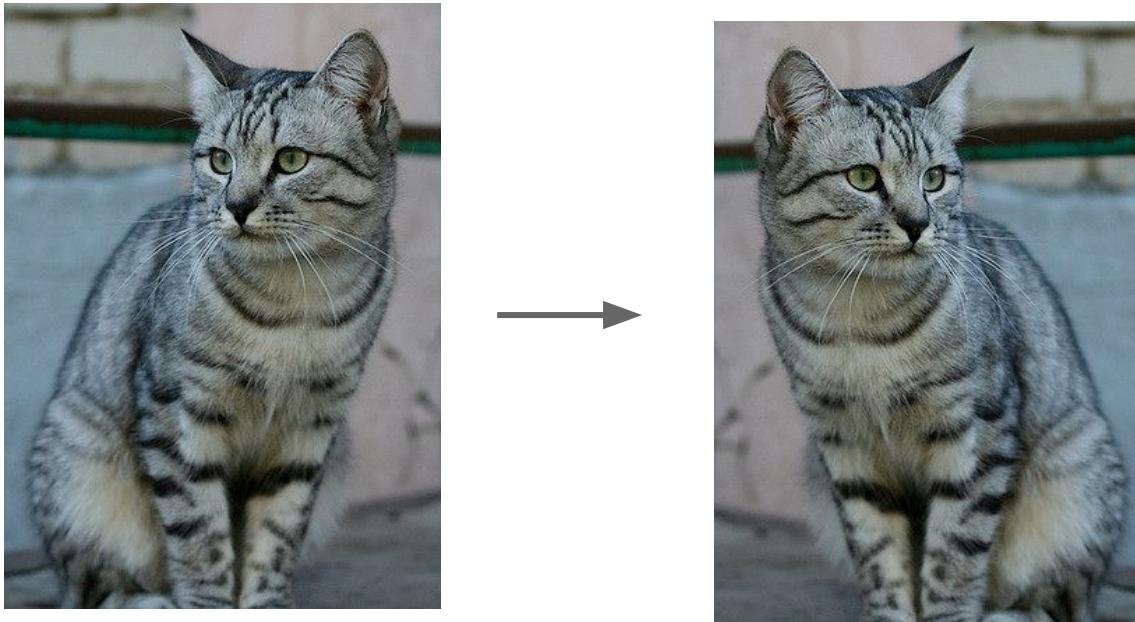


Regularization: Data Augmentation



Data Augmentation

Horizontal Flips



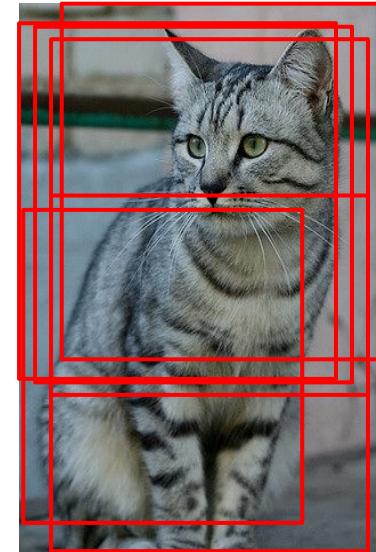
Data Augmentation

Random crops and scales

Training: sample random crops / scales

ResNet:

1. Pick random L in range [256, 480]
2. Resize training image, short side = L
3. Sample random 224×224 patch



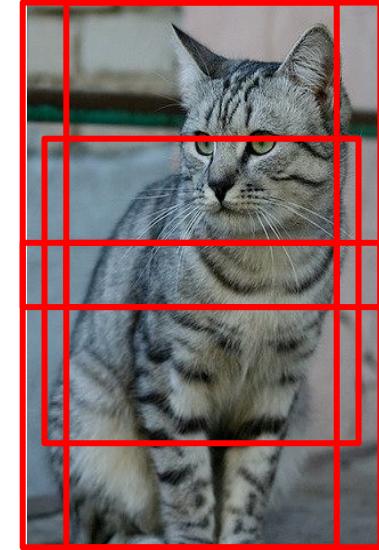
Data Augmentation

Random crops and scales

Training: sample random crops / scales

ResNet:

1. Pick random L in range [256, 480]
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3. Sample random 224×224 patch



Testing: average a fixed set of crops

ResNet:

1. Resize image at 5 scales: {224, 256, 384, 480, 640}
2. For each size, use 10 224×224 crops: 4 corners + center, + flips

Data Augmentation

Color Jitter

Simple: Randomize
contrast and brightness



Data Augmentation

Color Jitter

Simple: Randomize
contrast and brightness



More Complex:

1. Apply PCA to all [R, G, B] pixels in training set
2. Sample a “color offset” along principal component directions
3. Add offset to all pixels of a training image

(As seen in *[Krizhevsky et al. 2012]*, ResNet, etc)

Data Augmentation

Get creative for your problem!

Random mix/combinations of :

- translation
- rotation
- stretching
- shearing,
- lens distortions, ... (go crazy)

Regularization: A common pattern

Training: Add random noise

Testing: Marginalize over the noise

Examples:

Dropout

Batch Normalization

Data Augmentation