Deep Learning 1

2025-2026 – Pascal Mettes

Lecture 4

Deep learning optimization II

Previous lecture

Lecture	Title
1	Intro and history of deep learning
3	Deep learning optimization I
5	Convolutional deep learning
7	Graph deep learning
9	Multi-modal deep learning
11	What doesn't work in deep learning
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Lecture	Title
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4	Deep learning optimization II
6	Attention-based deep learning
8	From supervised to unsupervised deep learning
10	Generative deep learning
12	Non-Euclidean deep learning
14	Deep learning for videos

This lecture

Overfitting and regularization

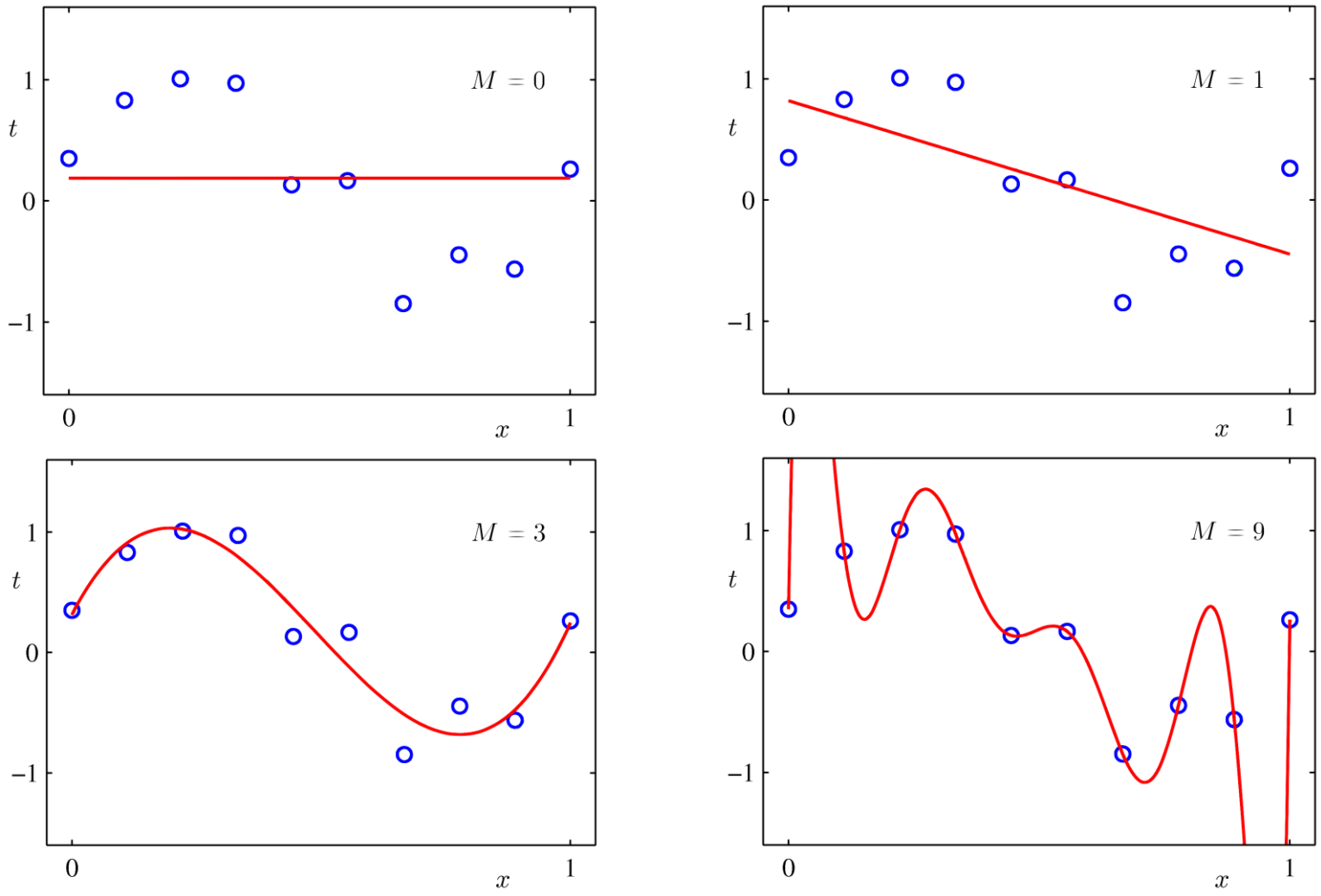
Initialization

Augmentation

Normalization

Hyperparameters

Which fit is best?



Bias-variance tradeoff

Bias

“The difference between an estimator’s expected value and the true value of the parameter being estimated”.

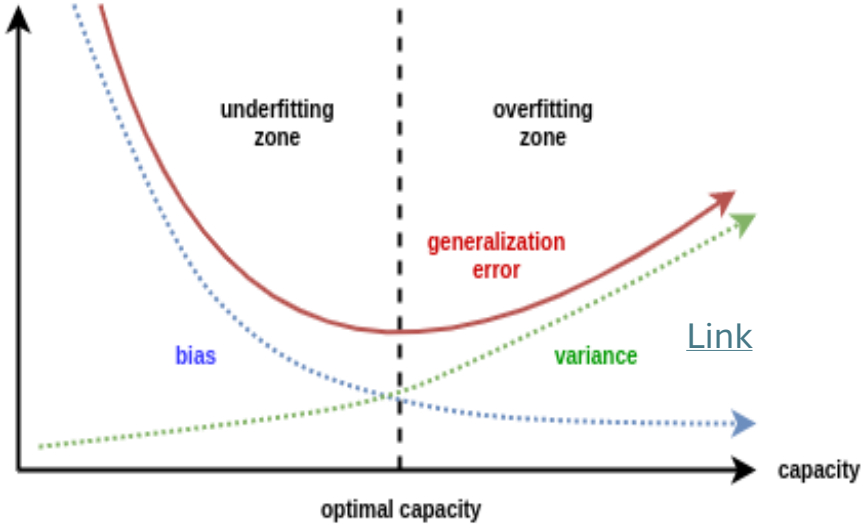
The bias error is an error from erroneous assumptions in the learning algorithm.

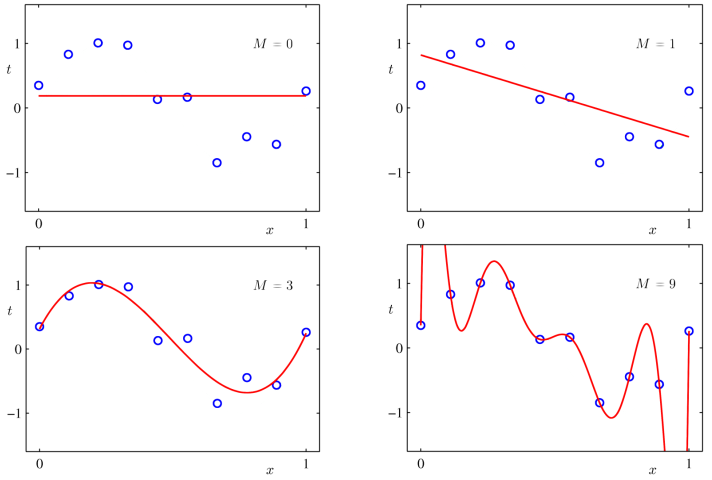
Variance

The amount that the estimate of the target function will change if different training data was used.

The variance is an error from sensitivity to small fluctuations in the training set.

Bias-variance tradeoff





High bias: algorithm misses relevant relations between features and targets.

Relates to underfitting, high bias is common in linear models.

High variance: algorithm uses random noise in training data for their modelling.

Relates to overfitting, high variance is common in deep non-linear models.

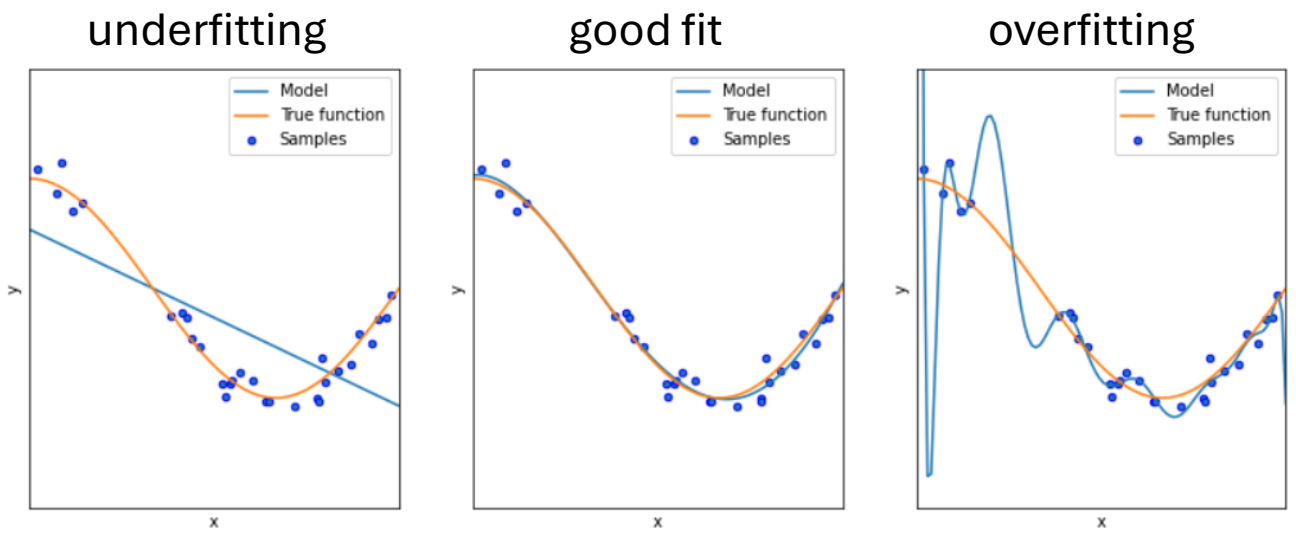
Overfitting

One of the key aspects to deal with when training neural networks.

Overfitted models perform poorly on new data from the same domain.

Low/zero training error is not automatically overfitting!

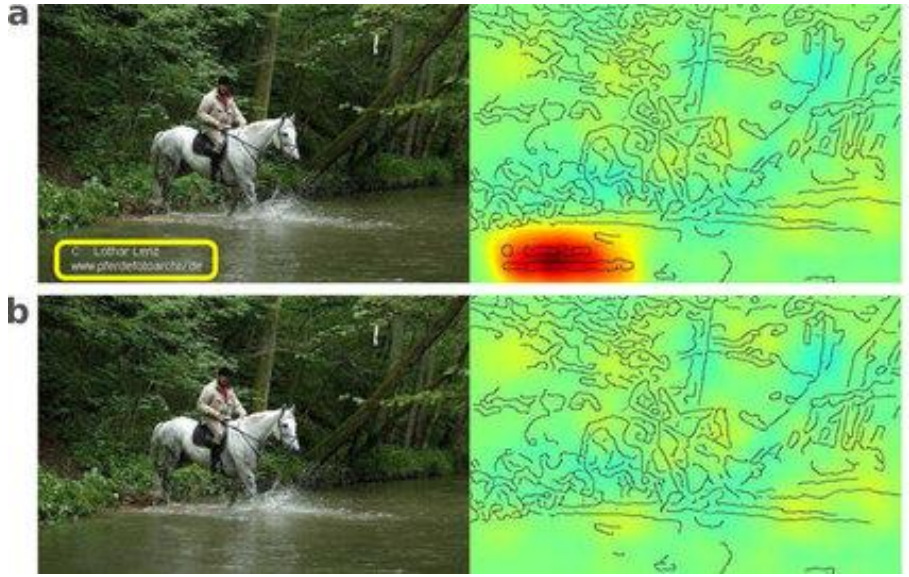
Only in combination with worse generalization as a function of training error.



Why would overfitting even happen?

We don't know the true data distribution

1. Complexity / parameter count >> problem / data.
2. Overfitting especially common when dealing with co-occurrences.
3. Memorization (i.e., learning individual samples instead of their distribution).
4. Silly things you might have missed in your data.



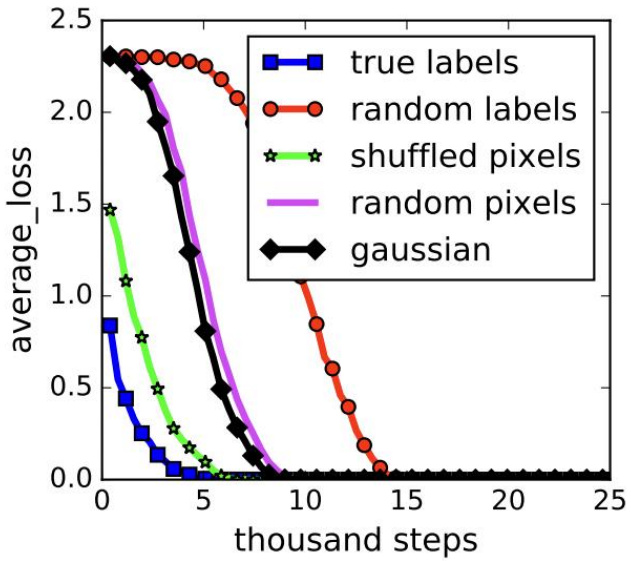
The severity of the overfitting problem

Randomization tests. At the heart of our methodology is a variant of the well-known randomization test from non-parametric statistics (Edgington & Onghena, 2007). In a first set of experiments, we train several standard architectures on a copy of the data where the true labels were replaced by random labels. Our central finding can be summarized as:

Deep neural networks easily fit random labels.

More precisely, when trained on a completely random labeling of the true data, neural networks achieve 0 training error. The test error, of course, is no better than random chance as there is no correlation between the training labels and the test labels. In other words, by randomizing labels alone we can force the generalization error of a model to jump up considerably without changing the model, its size, hyperparameters, or the optimizer. We establish this fact for several different standard architectures trained on the CIFAR10 and ImageNet classification benchmarks. While simple to state, this observation has profound implications from a statistical learning perspective:

1. The effective capacity of neural networks is sufficient for memorizing the entire data set.
2. Even optimization on random labels remains easy. In fact, training time increases only by a small constant factor compared with training on the true labels.
3. Randomizing labels is solely a data transformation, leaving all other properties of the learning problem unchanged.

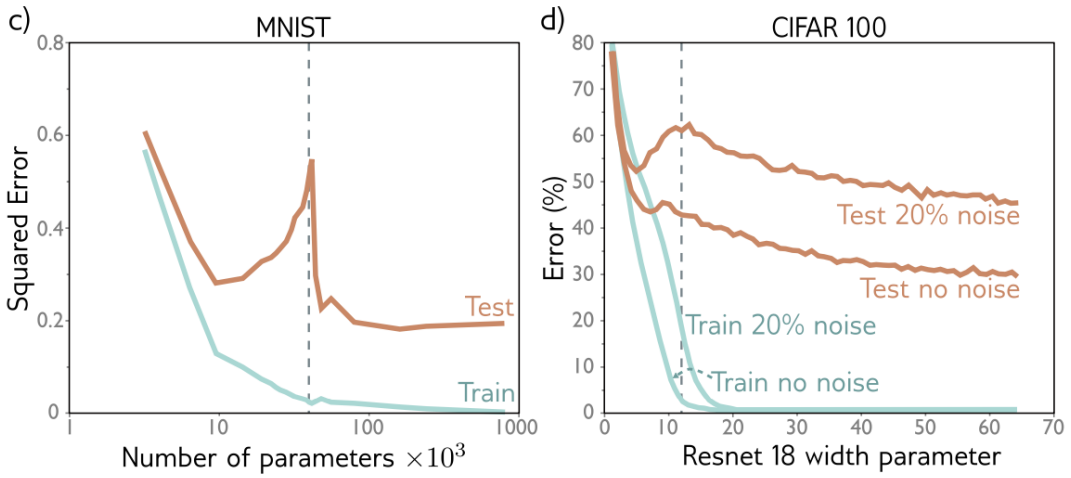


(a) learning curves

In Deep Learning the problem is that we can fit everything we want

Understanding deep learning requires rethinking generalization. Zhang et al. 2016

Bias-variance tradeoff – the sequel



A counter-intuitive finding: when model size > dataset size, error goes down again.

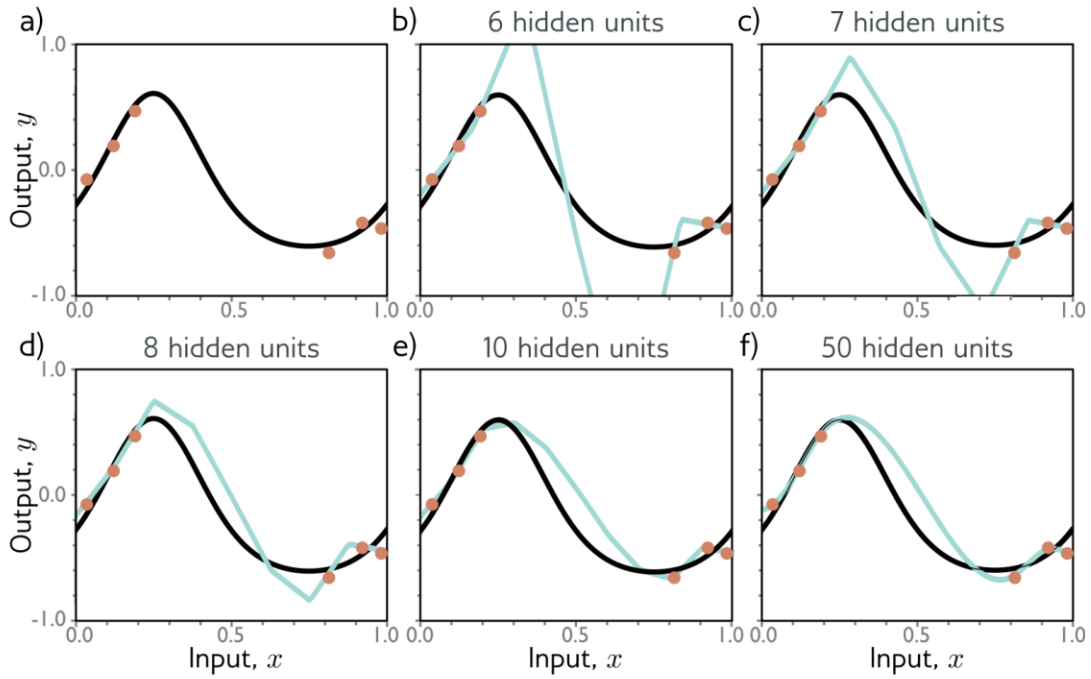
This is double-descent.

In short: one form of regularization can come from simply using bigger models, in direct conflict with the bias-variance tradeoff.

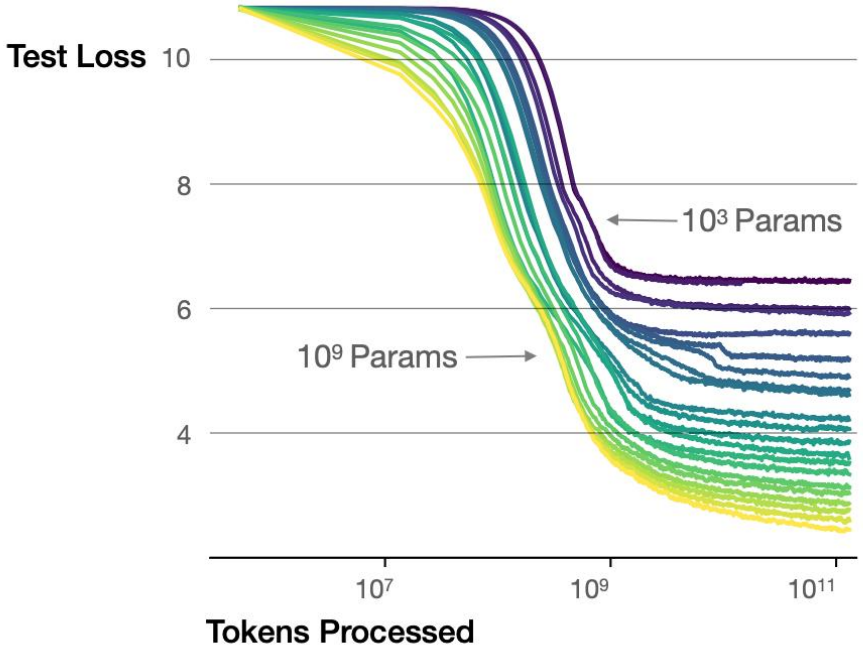
Belkin, M., Hsu, D., Ma, S., & Mandal, S. (2019) Reconciling modern machine-learning practice and the classical bias–variance trade- off. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences

Double descent: smoothness from bigger models

Using much more complex model at a certain points (after a period of worsening) actually seems to improve the performances



Larger models require **fewer samples** to reach the same performance



Scaling Laws for Neural Language Models. Kaplan et al. 2020

Double descent: no golden ticket

In practice: simply increasing parameter count does not magically solve all problems.

Double descent only happens under some conditions, not universal.

Solution: fall back on regularization (ubiquitous in all of deep learning, including LLMs).

ℓ_2-regularization

The ℓ_2 regularization is the most common type of all regularization techniques

Commonly known as *weight decay* or *ridge regression* (in the linear case).

The regularization term Ω is defined as the Euclidean Norm of the weight matrices.

I.e., simply the sum over all squared weight values of a weight matrix.

$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{l}\|w_l\|_2^2$$

In deep learning we call it weight decay

ℓ_2 regularization encourages the weight values towards zero.

ℓ_2-regularization

The loss function with ℓ_2-regularization:

$$\mathrm{w}^* \leftarrow \arg\min_w \sum_{(x,y)\subseteq(X,Y)} \mathcal{L}(y, a_L(x; w_{1,\ldots,\mathrm{L}})) + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_l \|w_l\|_2^2$$

The ℓ_2-regularization is added to the gradient descent update rule

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t(\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L} + \lambda w_l) \Longrightarrow$$
$$w_{t+1} = (1 - \lambda\eta_t)w^{(t)} - \eta_t \nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}$$

λ is usually about $10^{-1}, 10^{-2}$

"Weight decay", because weights get smaller

Why would a force to zero values help prevent overfitting?

ℓ_1-regularization

ℓ_1-regularization is one of the most important regularization techniques

$$\mathrm{w}^* \leftarrow \arg\min_w \sum_{(x,y)\subseteq(X,Y)} \mathcal{L}(y, a_L(x; w_{1,\ldots,\mathrm{L}})) + \frac{\lambda}{2}\sum_l |w_l|$$

Also ℓ_1-regularization is added to the gradient descent update rule

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t \left(\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L} + \lambda \frac{w^{(t)}}{\mathrm{sgn}(w^{(t)})} \right)$$

Sign function

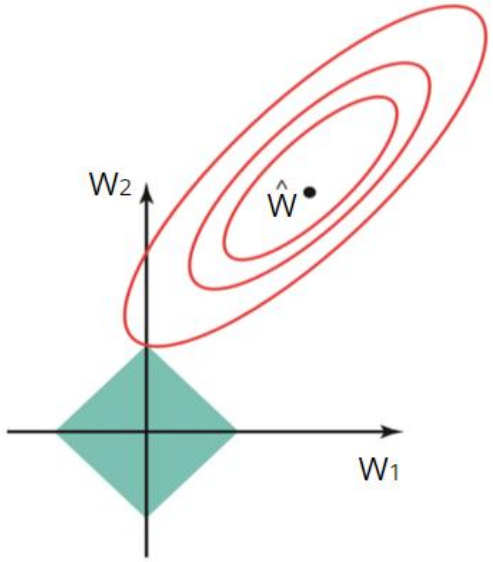
ℓ_1-regularization → sparse weights

- $\lambda \nearrow$ → more weights become 0

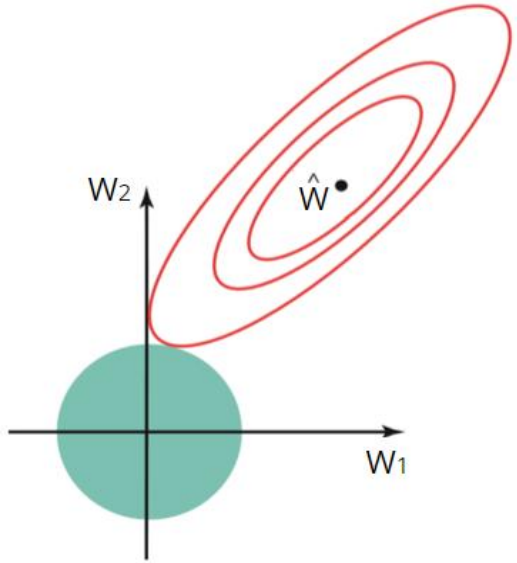
ℓ_1 regularization is sparser than ℓ_2 regularization, but why?

Due to the geometry of the constraint space

Visualizing weight decay



ℓ_1-regularization

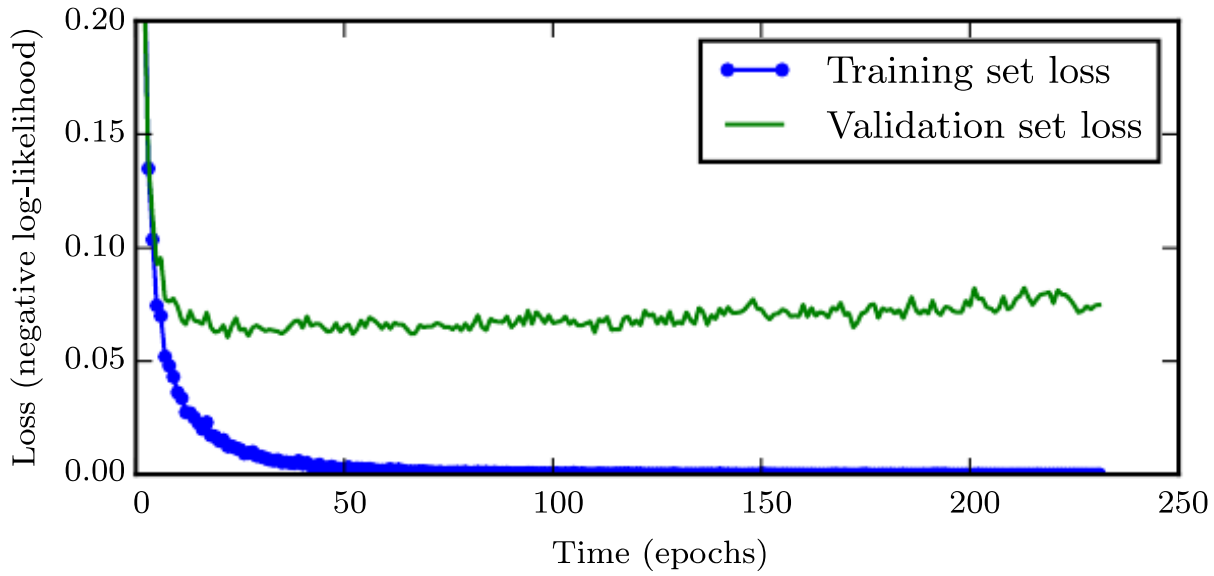


ℓ_2-regularization

Early stopping

Even simpler solution: just stop training.

Test losses tend to increase gradually, avoid by checking with validation set.

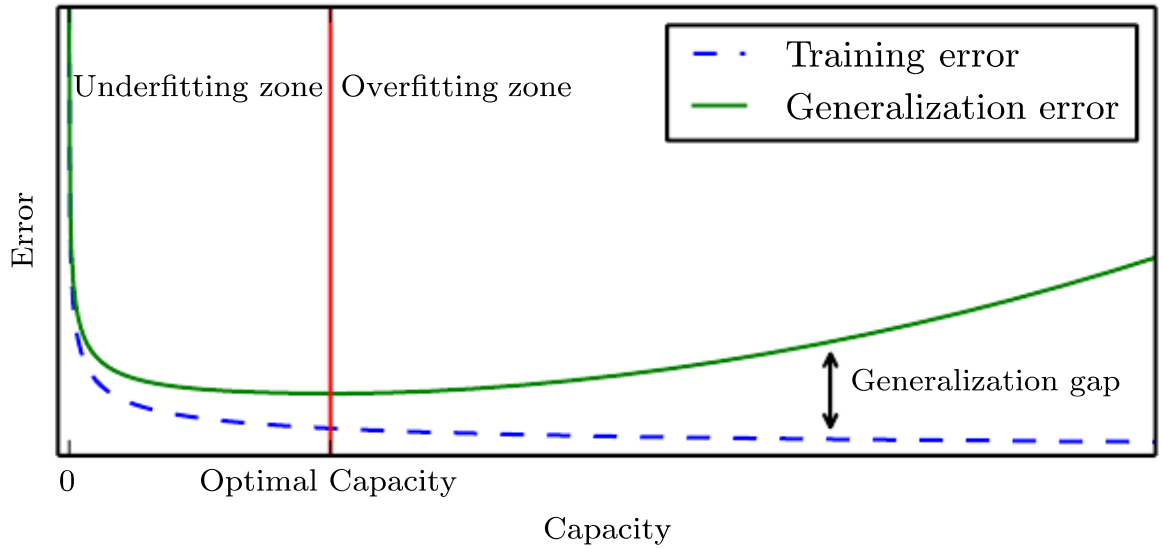


Early stopping as a hyperparameter

All we need to do if find the right epoch to stop training.

Underlying idea: bias-variance progression gradually occurs as a function of #epochs.

Naturally not possible to monitor using the training set, only with independent sets.



DropOut

The co-adaptation observation

When different hidden units in a neural networks have highly correlated behaviour.

Some of the connections will have more predictive capability than the others.

These powerful connections are learned more while the weaker ones are ignored.

Over many iterations, only a fraction of the node connections is trained.

The rest stops participating. DropOut seeks to prevent this.

Co-adaptation means that different hidden units (neurons) start relying on each other so heavily that they behave very similarly, rather than learning individually useful features.

As these stronger connections dominate, the weaker ones become less useful, stop learning, and get ignored during training. Eventually, only a small subset of the connections is actively contributing, limiting the network's ability to generalize.

Implementation of DropOut

Dropout tries to solve the co adaptation by randomly removing (or "dropping out") some units during each training step so that all units must learn to work independently and cannot rely too much on any single set of connections. This prevents any particular node from becoming too influential, reduces correlation among units, and encourages each neuron to contribute meaningfully to the prediction. As a result, the whole network becomes more robust and better at generalizing to new inputs.

During training randomly set activations to 0

- Neurons sampled at random from a Bernoulli distribution with p (eg, $p = 0.5$)
- Neuron activations reweighted by $1/p$

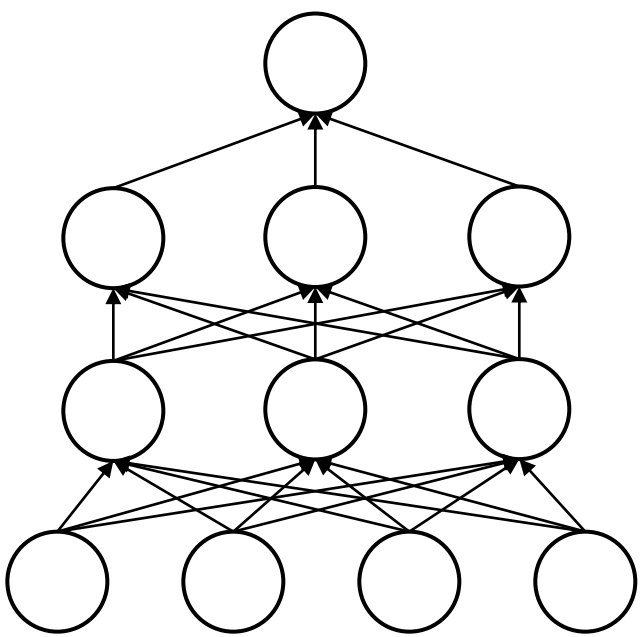
During testing all neurons are used

Benefits

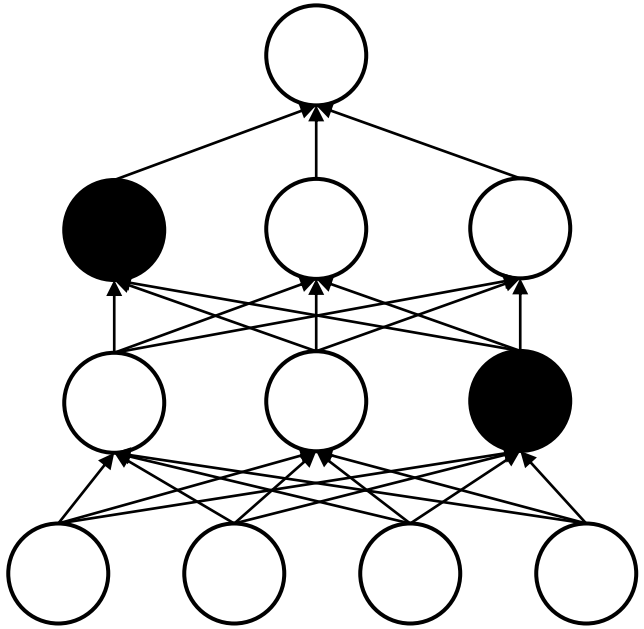
- Reduces complex co-adaptations between neurons
- Every neuron becomes more robust
- Decreases overfitting

DropOut: effectively 2^n architectures

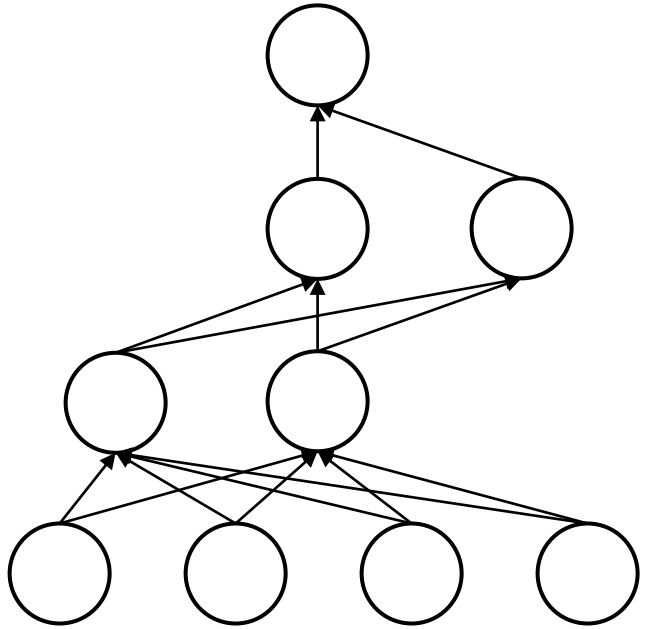
Original model



Batch 1

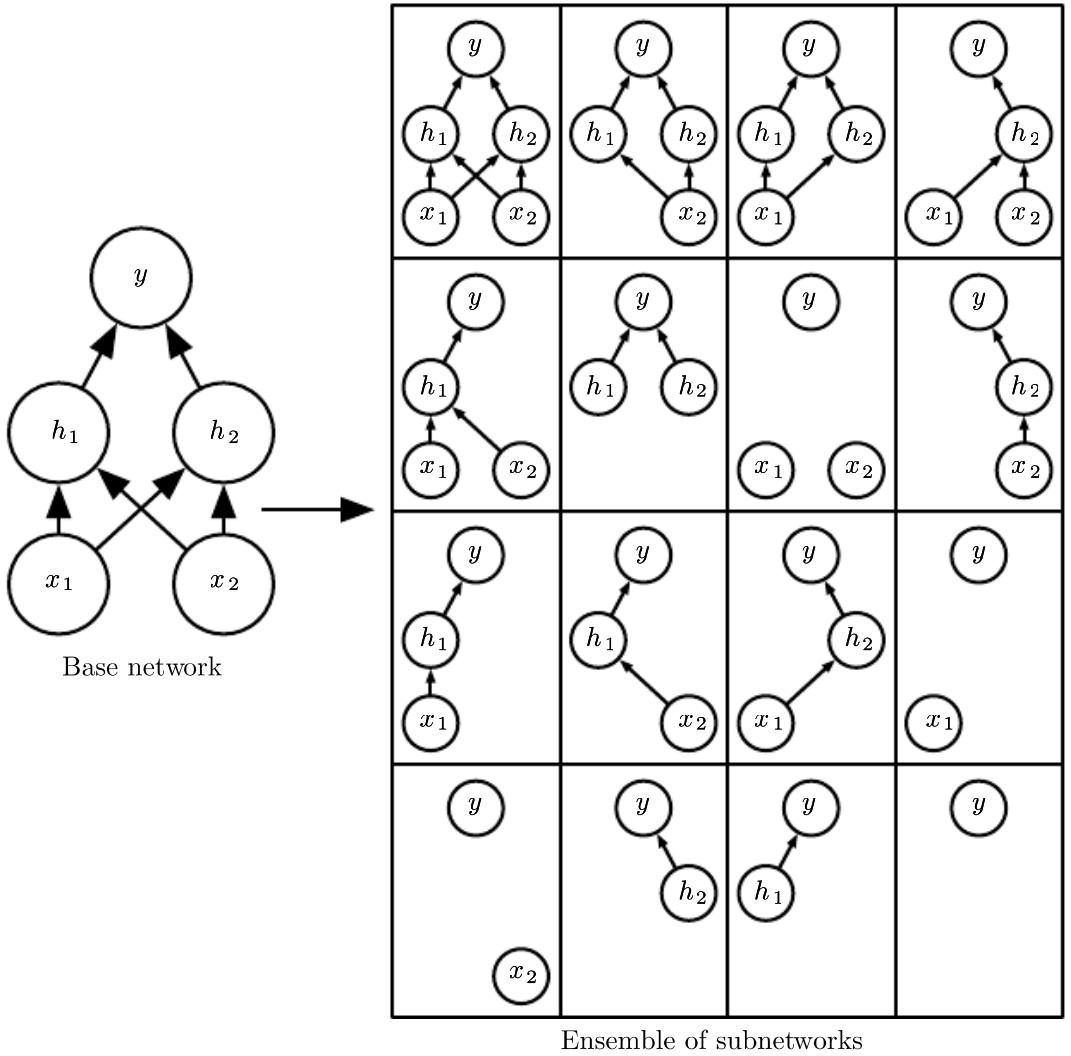


Batch 1



DropOut: effectively 2^n architectures

With dropout, each subnetwork does not have its own unique weights. Instead, every subnetwork is formed by temporarily masking (zeroing out) a different random subset of units and their outgoing connections in the same weight matrix during training. Thus, all subnetworks share the exact same weights—they just use different subsets on each forward and backward pass.



During training with dropout, the network is constantly forced to learn with different random subsets of its neurons active. This means that the network can't rely on specific neurons or very particular combinations of parameters; instead, it must learn redundant and resilient patterns that work no matter which subset is active. So, the dropout network is compelled to distribute the ability to detect features across many different paths in the network, rather than letting specialization or co-adaptation form—where certain neurons only work if others are present.

DropOut: effectively 2^n architectures

Ensembling is a well-known way to improve/regularize machine learning models.

In DropOut, each combination of selected neurons forms its on submodel.

The parameters between the submodels share weights.

During testing, no need to run data on multiple models (unlike assembling).

Setting neurons to zero also breaks co-adaption/co-occurrrences, i.e.:

Dropout regularizes each hidden unit to be not merely a good feature but a feature that is good in many contexts.

Network initialization

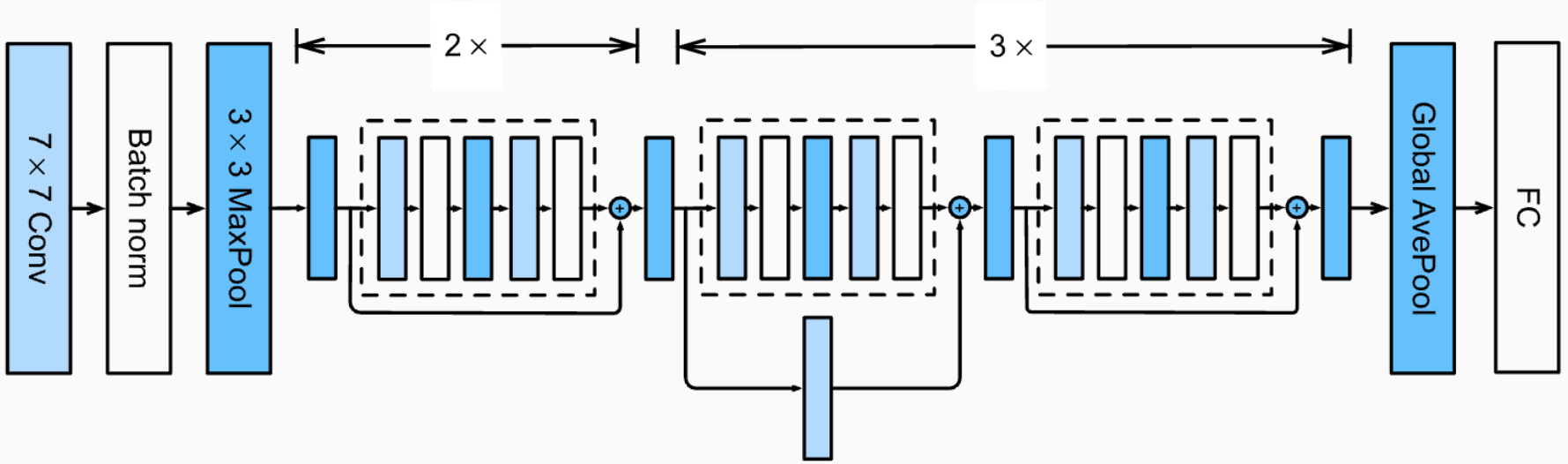


Fig. 8.6.4 The ResNet-18 architecture.

Weight initialization

To prevent layer activation outputs from exploding or vanishing gradients.

Initialize weights correctly and our objective will be achieved in the least time.

Zero Initialization

- Leads to symmetric hidden layers.
- Makes your network no better than a linear model.
- Setting biases to 0 will not create any problems.

We set it to 0 and not to any other values because it would induce a bias in the data, if a bias is needed the model will figure it out and learn it

Random Initialization

- Breaks symmetry.
- Prevents neurons from learning the same features.

Random how?

Weights initialized **to preserve the variance** of the activations

- During the forward and backward computations.
- We want similar input and output variance because of modularity.

Weights must be initialized to be different from one another

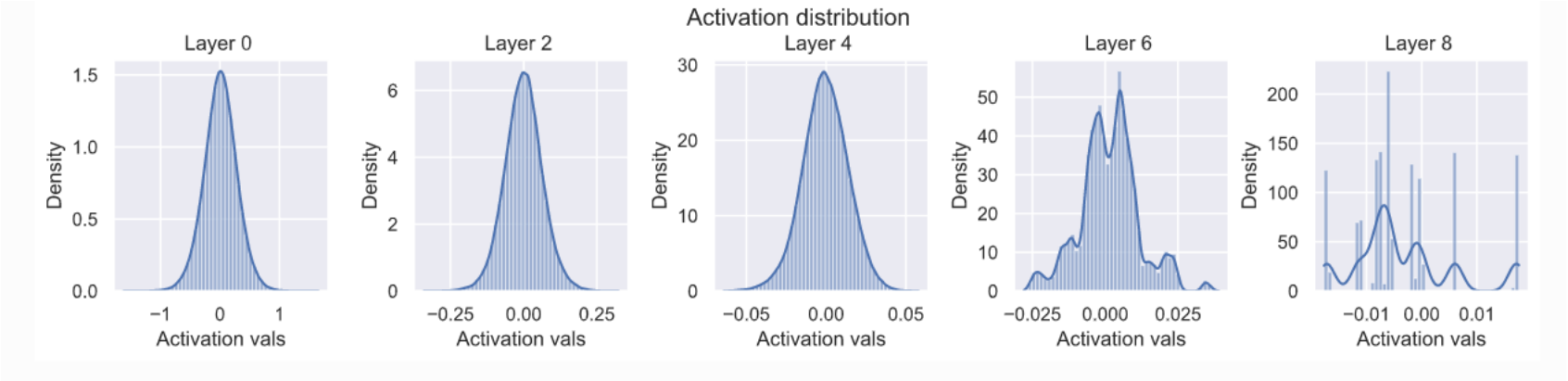
- Don’t give same values to all weights (like all 0).
- All neurons (in one layer) generate same gradient → no learning.

Initialization depends on:

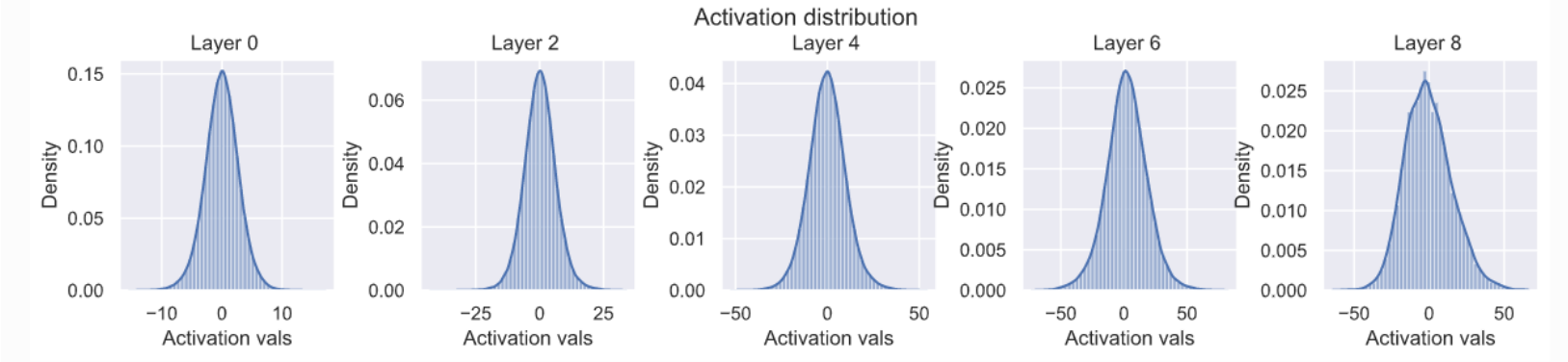
- non-linearities.
- data normalization.

Bad initialization will come back to haunt you

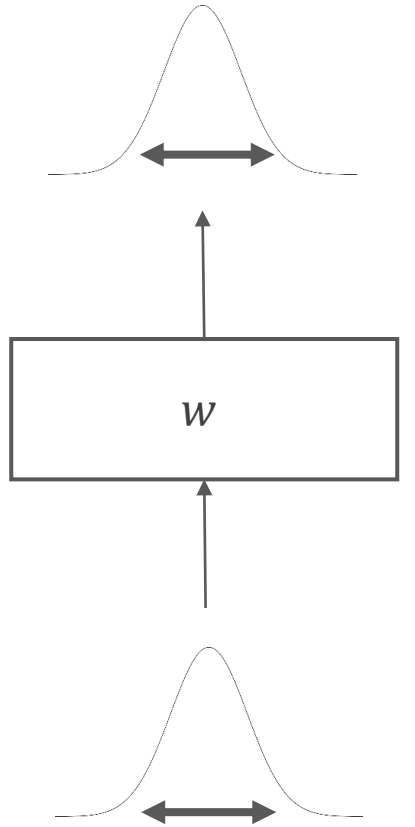
Initializing weights in every layer with same constant variance → can diminish variance in activations



Initializing weights in every layer with increasing variance → can explode the variance in activations



Preserving variance



For x and y independent

$$var(xy) = \mathbb{E}[x]^2 var(y) + \mathbb{E}[y]^2 var(x) + var(x)var(y)$$

For $a = wx \Rightarrow var(a) = var(\sum_i w_i x_i) = \sum_i var(w_i x_i) \approx d \cdot var(w_i x_i)$

$$var(w_i x_i) = \mathbb{E}[x_i]^2 var(w_i) + \mathbb{E}[w_i]^2 var(x_i) + var(x_i)var(w_i)$$

$$= var(x_i)var(w_i)$$

Because we assume that x_i, w_i are unit Gaussians $\rightarrow \mathbb{E}[x_i] = \mathbb{E}[w_i] = 0$

So, the variance in our activation $var(a) \approx d \cdot var(x_i)var(w_i)$

Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks, Glorot, Bengio, 2010

Preserving variance

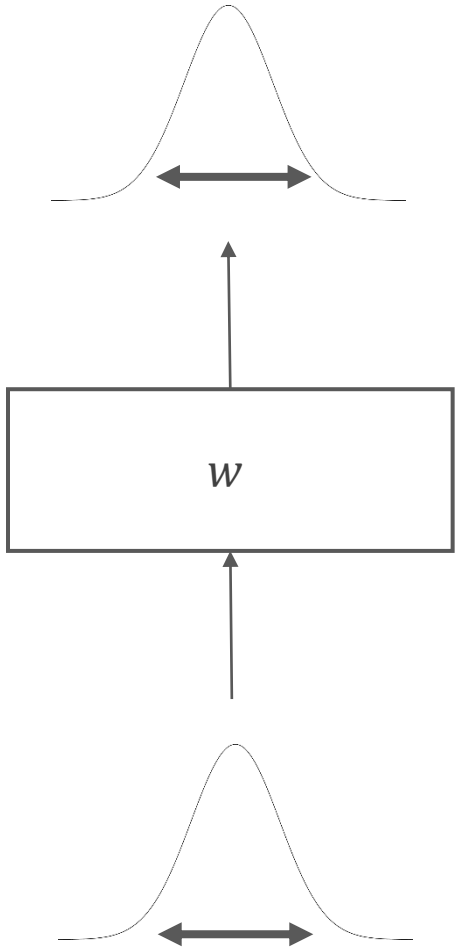
Since we want the same input and output variance

$$var(a) = d \cdot var(x_i)var(w_i) \Rightarrow var(w_i) = \frac{1}{d}$$

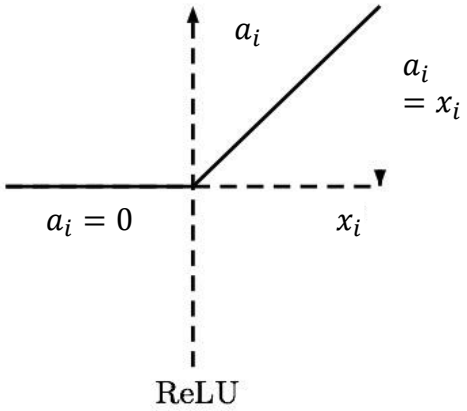
Draw random weights from

$$w \sim N(0, 1/d)$$

where d is the number of input variables to the layer



Kaiming Initialization



ReLU's return 0 half of the time: $\mathbb{E}[w_i] = 0$ but $\mathbb{E}[x_i] \neq 0$

$$var(w_i x_i) = var(w_i)(\mathbb{E}[x_i]^2 + var(x_i))$$

$$= var(w_i)\mathbb{E}\left[x_i^2\right] \; (var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2)$$

$$\mathbb{E}\left[x_i^2\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_i^2 p(x_i) dx_i = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \max(0, a_i)^2 \, p(a_i) da_i = \int_{0}^{\infty} a_i^2 p(a_i) da_i$$

$$= 0.5 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_i^2 p(a_i) da_i = 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[a_i^2\right] = 0.5 \cdot var(a_i)$$

the data after relu are no longer 0 means

exam question why

Draw random weights from $w \sim N(0, 2/d)$ – **Kaiming Initialization**

Xavier initialization

For tanh: initialize weights from $\mathrm{U}\left[-\sqrt{\frac{6}{d_{l-1}+d_l}}, \sqrt{\frac{6}{d_{l-1}+d_l}}\right]$

d_{l-1} is the number of input variables to the tanh layer and d_l is the number of the output variables

For a sigmoid $\mathrm{U}\left[-4 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{6}{d_{l-1}+d_l}}, 4 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{6}{d_{l-1}+d_l}}\right]$

Random networks are already great deep learners

What's Hidden in a Randomly Weighted Neural Network? Ramanujan et al. 2019

*Hidden in a **randomly weighted Wide ResNet-50** we find a subnetwork (with random weights) **that is smaller than, but matches the performance of a ResNet-34 trained on ImageNet** [4]. Not only do these "untrained subnetworks" exist, but we provide an algorithm to effectively find them.*

there is a lot of inductive bias in our networks, so a lot of the good comes from the architecture that we use on the specific type of data

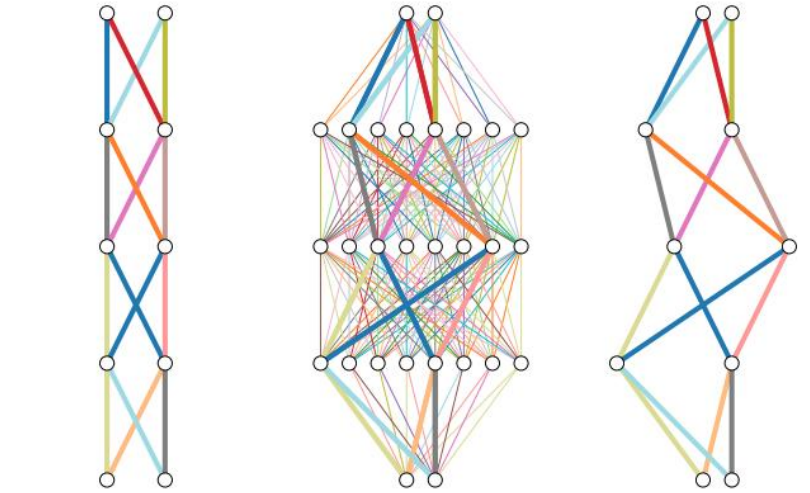


Figure 1. If a neural network with random weights (center) is sufficiently overparameterized, it will contain a subnetwork (right) that perform as well as a trained neural network (left) with the same number of parameters.

Break

Data augmentation

The best way to make a machine learning model generalize better is to train it on more data. (see: ”The unreasonable effectiveness of data”)

- Data* is limited in practice
- One way is to create fake data – *Data Augmentation***

we are gonna deal with invariances, invariances are changes in the inputs which does not make any change in the outputs

Your neural network is only as good as the data you feed it.

By performing augmentation, we can prevent neural networks from learning or memorizing irrelevant patterns, essentially boosting overall performance.

* Labeled data
** Not that trivial. Augmentations are more than just fake data!

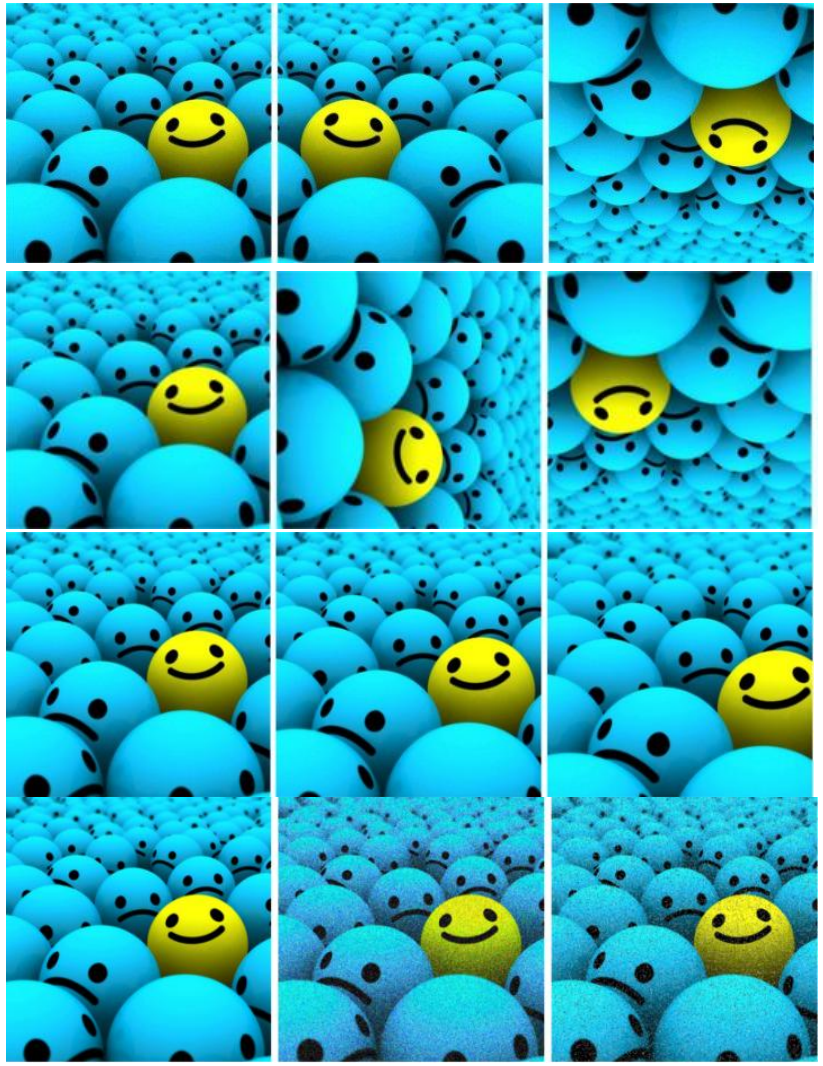
Examples of data augmentation

In computer vision

- Flip
- Rotation
- Scale
- Crop
- Translation
- Gaussian noise

Be aware of label change

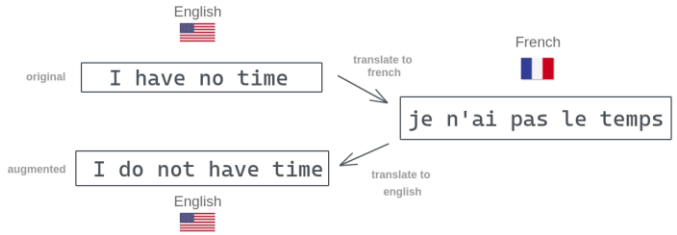
- “b” and “d”
- “6” and “9”



Link

In NLP

Backtranslation



Synonym replacement

Random insertion

Random deletion

Random swapping

Data augmentation = pre-defined invariance

Essentially a form of injecting prior knowledge to instill **invariance**.

A dog flipped vertically is still a dog, so a network should still predict that label

Other data augmentations

Noise robustness

Adding noise to weights – uncertainty.

Adding noise to outputs - label smoothing.

Semi or self-supervised learning

Introducing a particular form of prior belief about the solution.

Multi-task learning

Shared input and parameters – improve statistical strength.

Requires statistical relationship between tasks.

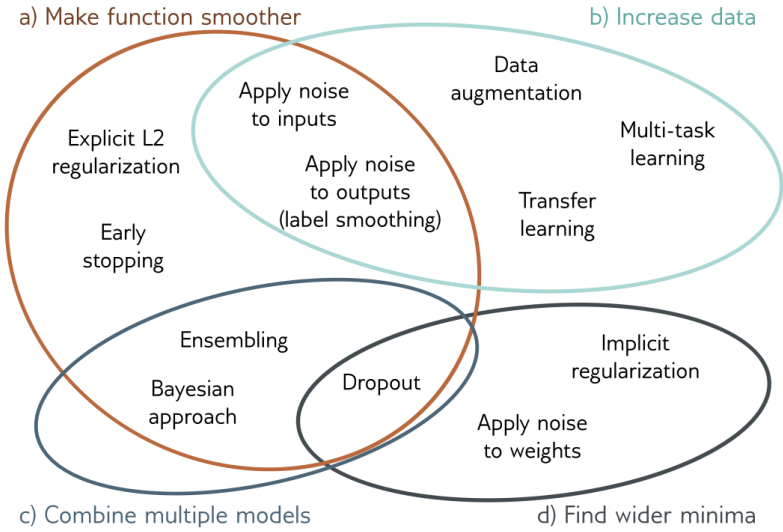
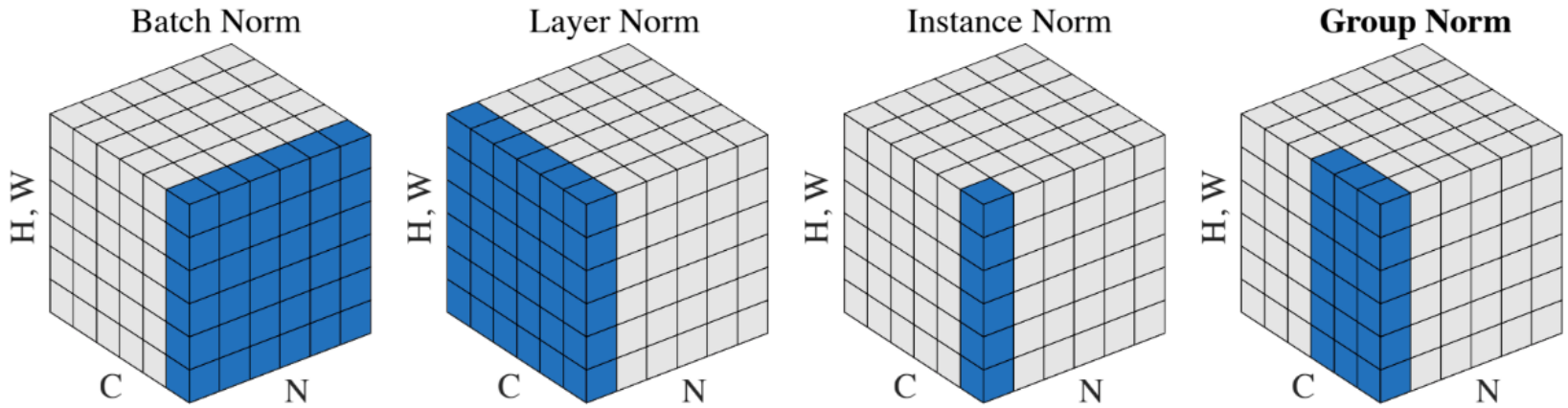


Figure 9.14 Regularization methods. The regularization methods discussed in this chapter aim to improve generalization by one of four mechanisms. a) Some methods aim to make the modeled function smoother. b) Other methods increase the effective amount of data. c) The third group of methods combine multiple models and hence mitigate against uncertainty in the fitting process. d) Finally, the fourth group of methods encourages the training process to converge to a wide minimum where small errors in the estimated parameters are less important.

UDL – Chapter 9

Normalization

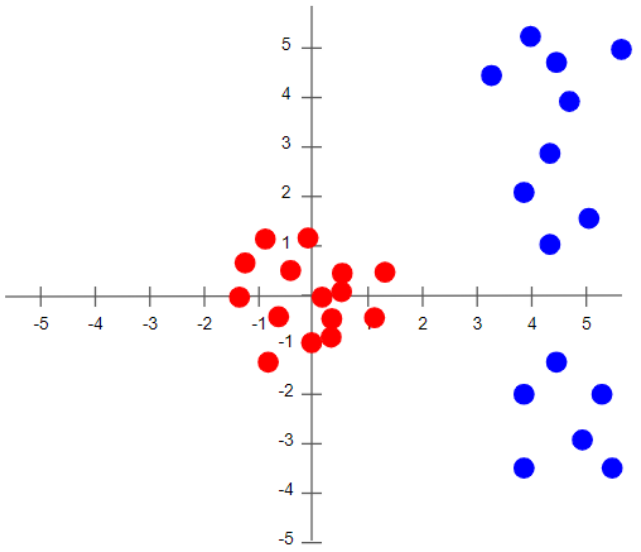


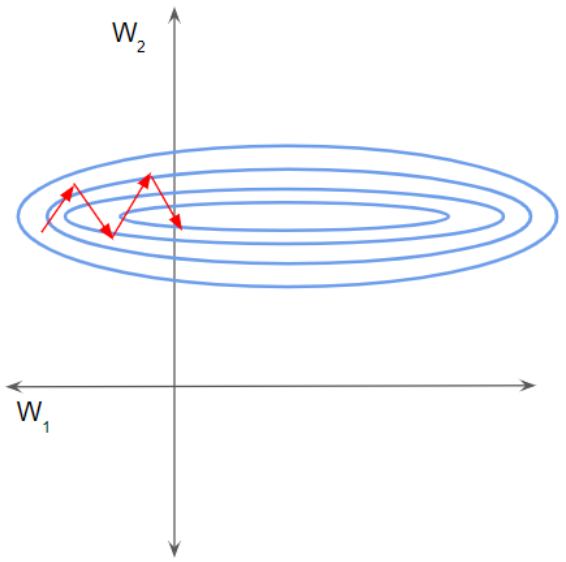
Normalization as data preprocessing

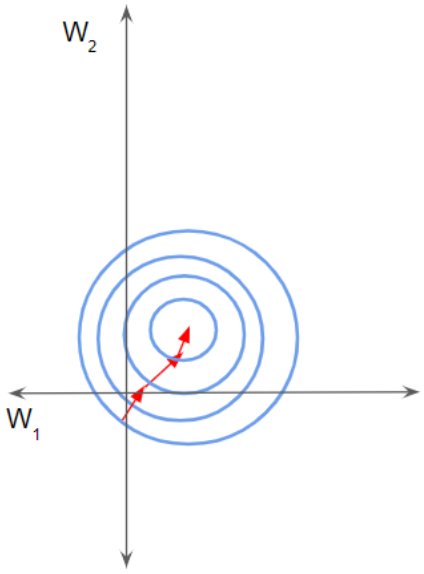
Data pre-processing brings numerical data to a common scale without distorting shape.

The reason is partly to ensure that our model can generalize appropriately.

This ensures that all the feature values are now on the same scale.







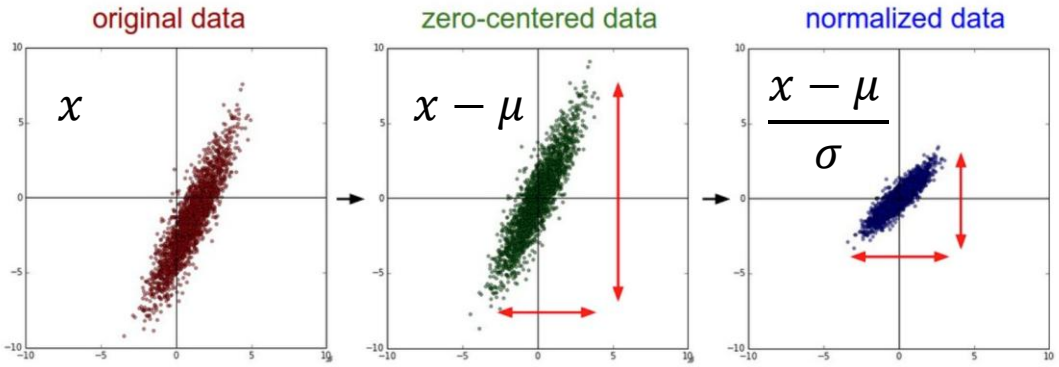
Must in deep learning: normalizing input data

Transforming the input to zero-mean, unit variance

Assume: Input variables follow a Gaussian distribution (roughly)

Subtract input by the mean

Optionally, divide by the standard deviation $N(\mu, \sigma^2) \rightarrow N(0, 1)$



Known by all practitioners:

ImageNet: mean = [0.485, 0.456, 0.406] and std = [0.229, 0.224, 0.225]

Picture credit: Stanford Course

Normalizing intermediate layers

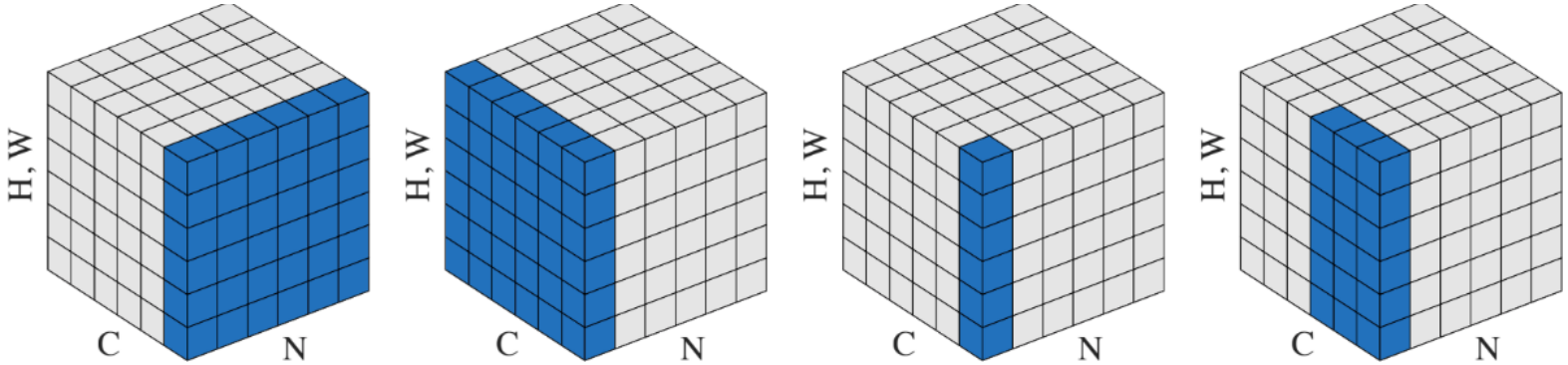
Batch normalization

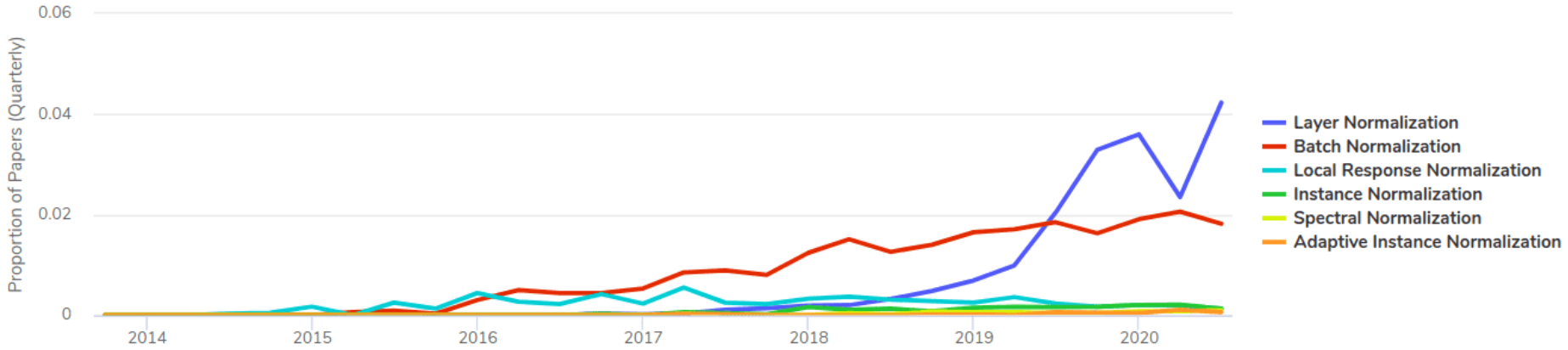
Layer normalization

Instance normalization

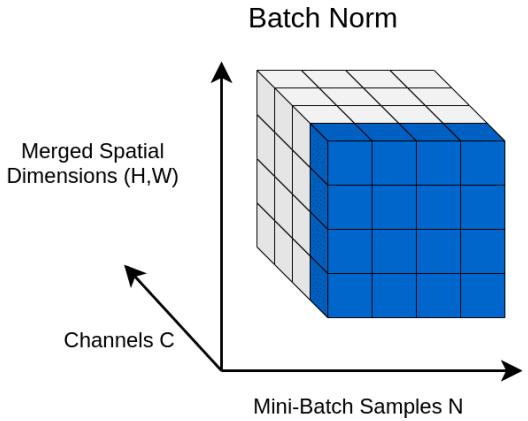
Group normalization

Weight normalization





Batch normalization



Normalize the layer inputs with batch normalization

Normalize $a_l \sim N(0,1)$

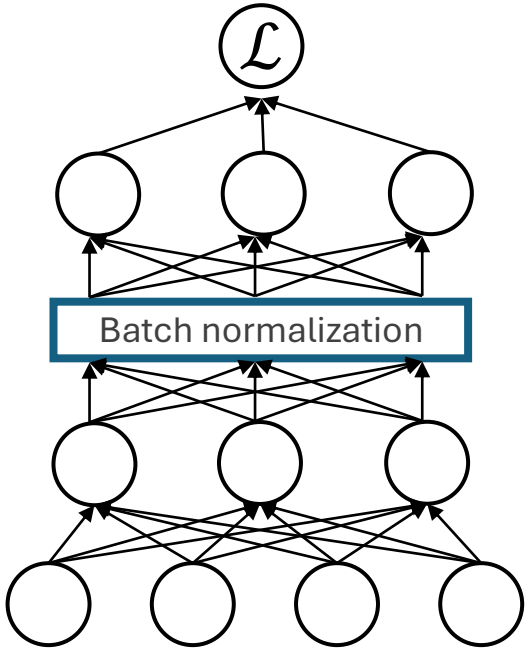
Followed by affine transformation $a_l \leftarrow \gamma a_l + \beta$

The parameters γ and β are trainable

Used for re-scaling (γ) and shifting (β) of the vector values.

Ensure the optimal values of γ and β are used.

Enable the accurate normalization of each batch.



Batchnorm algorithm

$$\mu_j \leftarrow \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{ij}$$

[compute mini-batch mean]

$$\sigma_j^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(x_{ij} - \mu_j\right)^2$$

[compute mini-batch variance]

$$\hat{x}_{ij} \leftarrow \frac{x_{ij} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

[normalize input]

$$\hat{x}_{ij} \leftarrow \gamma \hat{x}_{ij} + \beta$$

[scale and shift input]

Trainable parameters

we can't normalize the layer because we would destroy what we have done.

this change the zero mean unit variance gaussian to another gaussian thus improving performance

the choice of batch size now becomes more important than before

i runs over mini-batch samples,
j over the feature dimensions

Batchnorm at test time

there are 2 way to do testing:

Inductive: each test sample is independently check

Trasductive: very often we have a data distribution during testing, and this gave us a lot intuition.

How do we ship the Batch Norm layer after training?

We might not have batches at test time

Batches are random? -> not reproducible

why moving average and not the mean of the whole train=

Usually: keep a moving average of the mean and variance during training

Plug them in at test time

In the limit, the moving average of mini-batch statistics approaches the batch statistics

$$\mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i$$

$$\sigma_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2$$

$$\hat{x_i} \leftarrow \frac{x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

$$\hat{y_i} \leftarrow \gamma \hat{x_i} + \beta$$

Benefits of batchnorm

Networks train faster

Allows higher learning rates

Makes more activation functions viable

Reduces overfitting

Simplifies the creation of deeper networks

May give better results overall

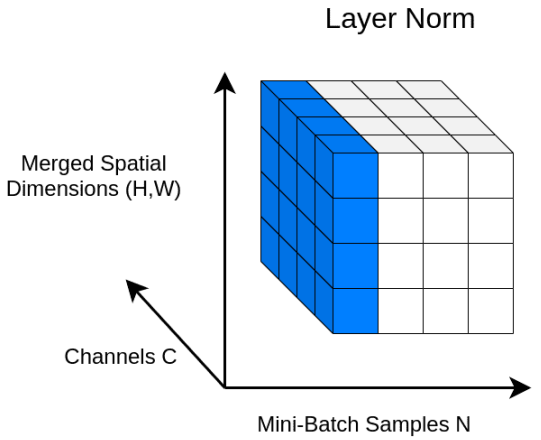
Drawbacks of batchnorm

- Requires large mini-batches
  - Cannot work with mini-batch of size 1 ($\sigma = 0$)
  - Performance is sensitive to the batch size
  - Memory intense, all the batch statistics must be stored in the layer.
  - Discrepancy between training and test data
  - Breaks the independence between training examples in the minibatch
  - Not applicable to online learning
- Awkward to use with recurrent neural networks
  - Must interleave it between recurrent layers
  - Also, store statistics per time step
- Often the reason for bugs

In deep learning there are not outliers because we're gonna fit all the data anyway. A way to improve training is to randomly create outlier by changing the label (adding label noise) this make the model more robust.

We do not detect them,

Layer normalization

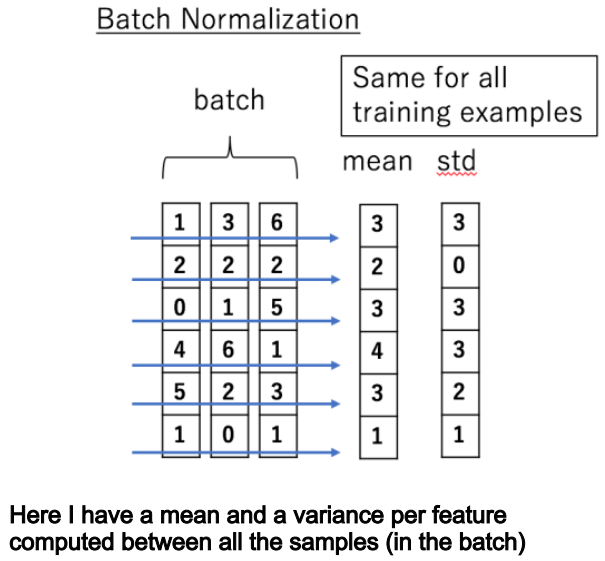


The statistics (mean and variance) are computed across all channels and spatial dimensions.

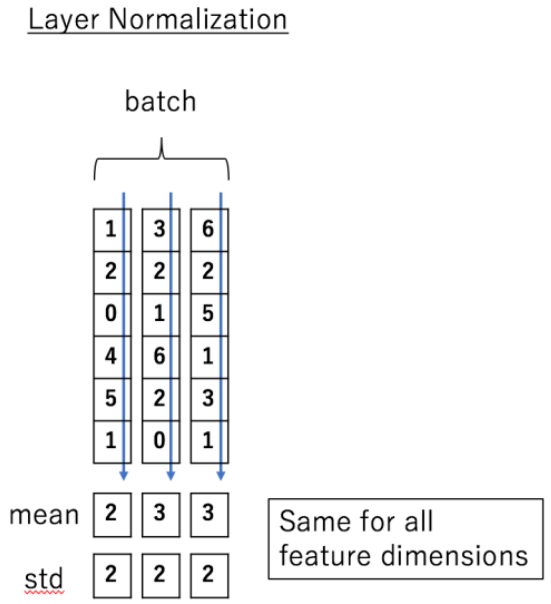
The statistics are independent of the batch.

This layer was initially introduced to handle vectors (mostly the RNN outputs).

Layer normalization performs the same computation at training and test times.



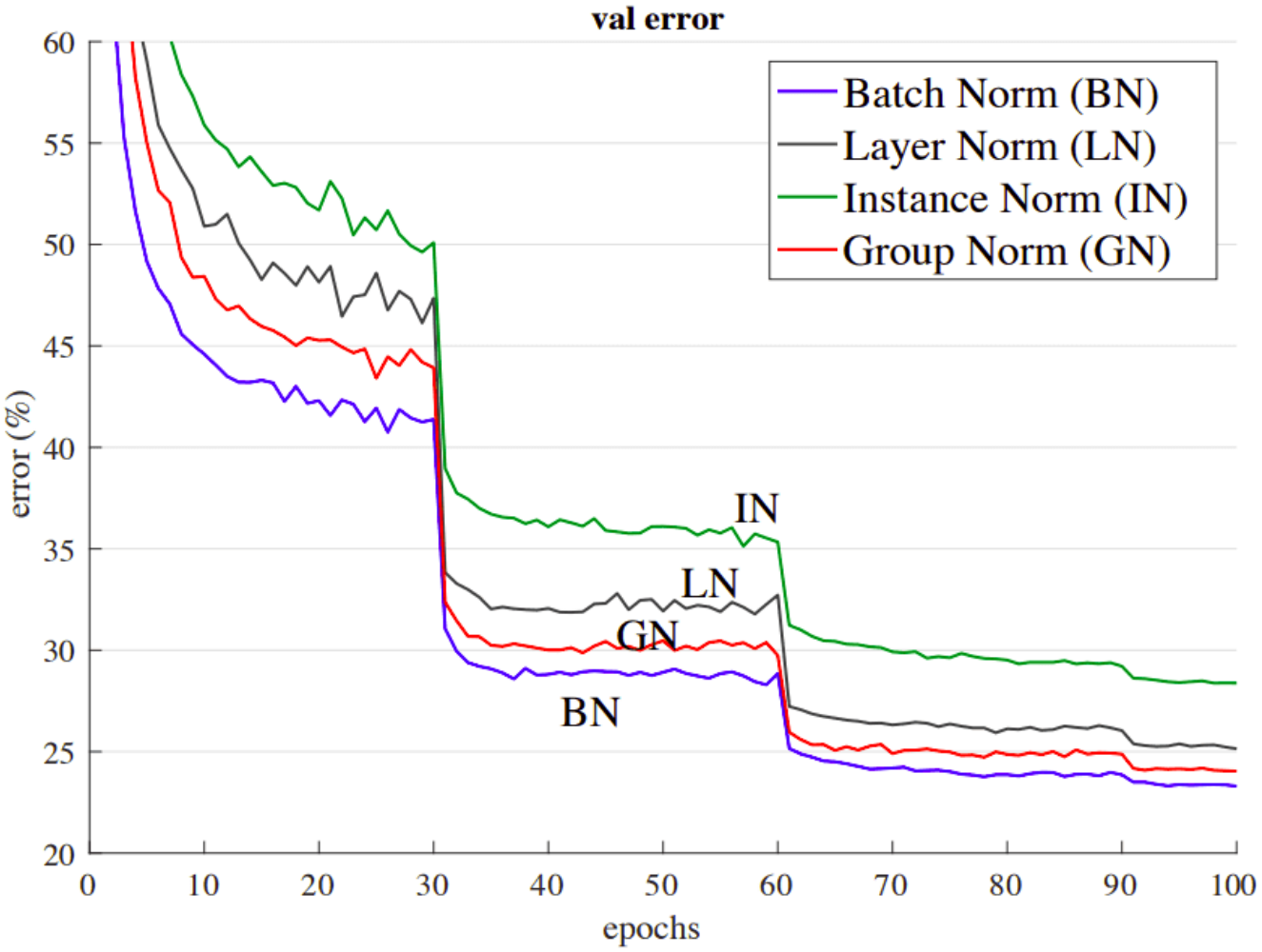
Here I have a mean and a variance per feature computed between all the samples (in the batch)



Here I have a mean and a variance for each sample, computed all over the features

Layer Normalization, Ba, Kiros, Hinton, 2016

Comparing different normalizations



Paper list for the interested reader

Ioffe, S., & Szegedy, C. (2015).Batch normalization: Accelerating deep network training by reducing internal covariate shift. arXiv preprint arXiv:1502.03167.

Salimans, T., & Kingma, D. P. (2016). Weight normalization: A simple reparameterization to accelerate training of deep neural networks. In Advances in neural information processing systems (pp. 901-909).

Ba, J. L., Kiros, J. R., & Hinton, G. E. (2016). Layer normalization. arXiv preprint arXiv:1607.06450.

Ulyanov, D., Vedaldi, A., & Lempitsky, V. (2016). Instance normalization: The missing ingredient for fast stylization. arXiv preprint arXiv:1607.08022.

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Zhang, H., Dana, K., Shi, J., Zhang, Z., Wang, X., Tyagi, A., & Agrawal, A. (2018). Context encoding for semantic segmentation. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (pp. 7151-7160).

Santurkar, S., Tsipras, D., Ilyas, A., & Madry, A. (2018). How does batch normalization help optimization?. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (pp. 2483-2493).

Dumoulin, V., Shlens, J., & Kudlur, M. (2016). A learned representation for artistic style. arXiv preprint arXiv:1610.07629.

Park, T., Liu, M. Y., Wang, T. C., & Zhu, J. Y. (2019). Semantic image synthesis with spatially-adaptive normalization. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (pp. 2337-2346).

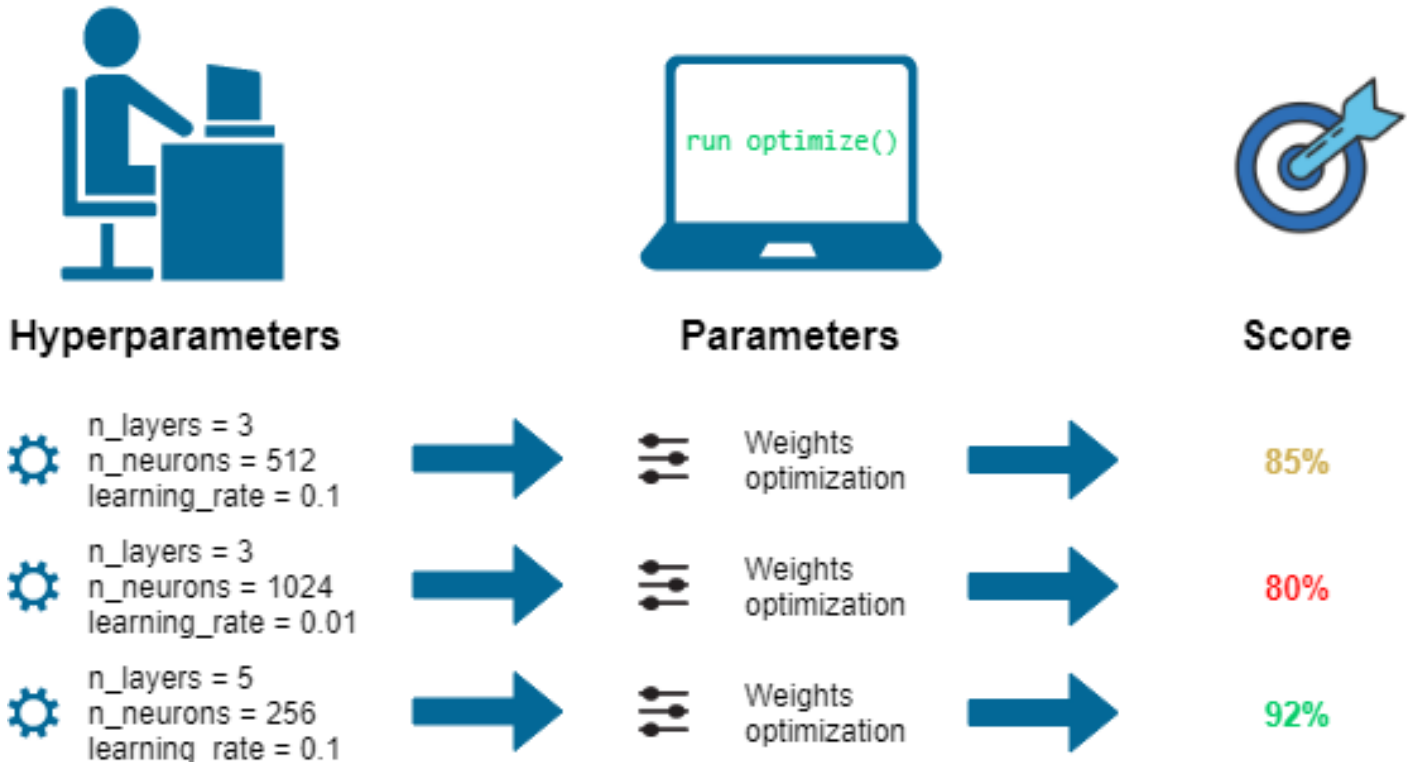
Huang, X., & Belongie, S. (2017). Arbitrary style transfer in real-time with adaptive instance normalization. In Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (pp. 1501-1510).

Kolesnikov, A., Beyer, L., Zhai, X., Puigcerver, J., Yung, J., Gelly, S., & Houlsby, N. (2019). Big transfer (BiT): General visual representation learning. arXiv preprint arXiv:1912.11370.

Qiao, S., Wang, H., Liu, C., Shen, W., & Yuille, A. (2019). Weight standardization. arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.10520.

Hyperparameters

All values that cannot be tuned through backprop.
Hyperparameter tuning most important part of daily deep learning life.



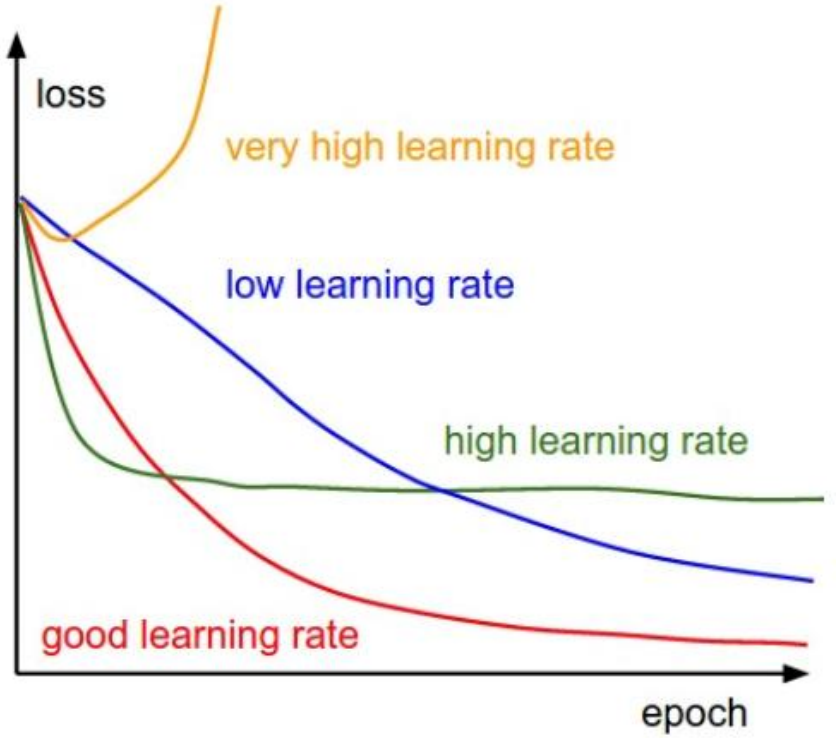
Learning rates in practice

The learning rate is probably the most influence hyperpar, start with different scale then adjust

Try several log-spaced values $10^{-1}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, \ldots$ on a smaller set.

Then, you narrow it down from there around where you get the lowest **validation** error.

You will learn to become and expert in learning rate pattern recognition over time.



Picture credit:
Stanford Course

different opinion:

One rule, doen't make it too smal if using match norm

try to make it as big to fit GPU

Batch size

Scaling Laws for Neural Language Models

Jared Kaplan *
Johns Hopkins University, OpenAI
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Alec Radford
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Jeffrey Wu
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Dario Amodei
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Revisiting Small Batch Training for Deep Neural Networks

Dominic Masters and Carlo Luschi
Graphcore Research
Bristol, UK
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Don't Decay the Learning Rate, Increase the Batch Size

Samuel L. Smith; **Pieter-Jan Kindermans**; **Chris Ying & Quoc V. Le**
Google Brain
{slsmith, pikinder, chrisying, qvl}@google.com

ABSTRACT

The Limit of the Batch Size

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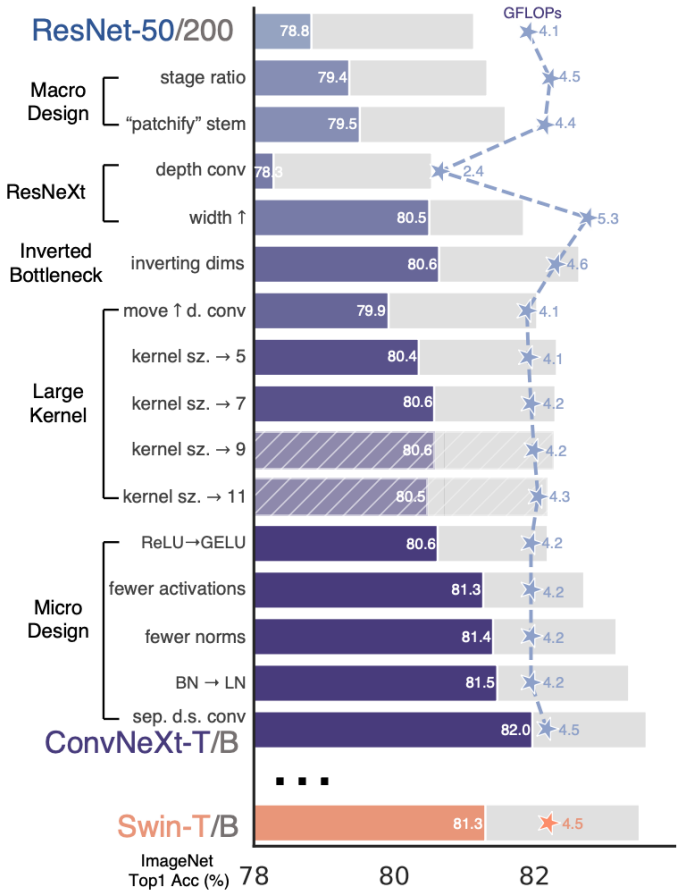
the biggest source of uncertainty is the architecture

Architecture hyperparameter tuning

Table 2: Ingredients and hyper-parameters used for ResNet-50 training in different papers. We compare existing training procedures with ours.

	Previous approaches					Ours		
Procedure →	ResNet	PyTorch	FixRes	DeiT	FAMS (×4)	A1	A2	A3
Reference	[13]	[1]	[48]	[45]	[10]			
Train Res	224	224	224	224	224	224	224	160
Test Res	224	224	224	224	224	224	224	224
Epochs	90	90	120	300	400	600	300	100
# of forward pass	450k	450k	300k	375k	500k	375k	188k	63k
Batch size	256	256	512	1024	1024	2048	2048	2048
Optimizer	SGD-M	SGD-M	SGD-M	AdamW	SGD-M	LAMB	LAMB	LAMB
LR	0.1	0.1	0.2	1×10^{-3}	2.0	5×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	8×10^{-3}
LR decay	step	step	step	cosine	step	cosine	cosine	cosine
decay rate	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	$0.02^{t/400}$	-	-	-
decay epochs	30	30	30	-	1	-	-	-
Weight decay	10^{-4}	10^{-4}	10^{-4}	0.05	10^{-4}	0.01	0.02	0.02
Warmup epochs	✗	✗	✗	5	5	5	5	5
Label smoothing ε	✗	✗	✗	0.1	0.1	0.1	✗	✗
Dropout	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
Stoch. Depth	✗	✗	✗	0.1	✗	0.05	0.05	✗
Repeated Aug	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗
Gradient Clip.	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
H. flip	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
RRC	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Rand Augment	✗	✗	✗	9/0.5	✗	7/0.5	7/0.5	6/0.5
Auto Augment	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗
Mixup alpha	✗	✗	✗	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Cutmix alpha	✗	✗	✗	1.0	✗	1.0	1.0	1.0
Erasing prob.	✗	✗	✗	0.25	✗	✗	✗	✗
ColorJitter	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
PCA lighting	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
SWA	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗
EMA	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
Test crop ratio	0.875	0.875	0.875	0.875	0.875	0.95	0.95	0.95
CE loss	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
BCE loss	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓
Mixed precision	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Top-1 acc.	75.3%	76.1%	77.0%	78.4%	79.5%	80.4%	79.8%	78.1%

ResNet strikes back: An improved training procedure in timm. Wightman et al. 2021



A ConvNet for the 2020s. Liu et al. CVPR 2022

Some magic starting numbers I'm aware of

Learning rate: 0.01 with a nice scheduler (my goto is standard multi-step) or 0.1

Weight decay: 1e-4 or 5e-4 always works lol

Batch size: Biggest power of 2 that fits in memory

DropOut: 20-50% drop out rate

And make sure to compute the mean and variance of the training samples!

Babysitting deep networks

Establish baselines

Check that in the first round you get loss that corresponds to random guess

Check network with few samples

- Turn off regularization. You should predictably overfit and get a loss of 0
- Turn on regularization. The loss should be higher than before

Always a separate validation set for hyper-parameter tuning

- Compare the training and validation losses - there should be a gap, not too large

Preprocess the data (at least to have 0 mean)

Initialize weights based on activations functions Xavier or Kaiming initialization

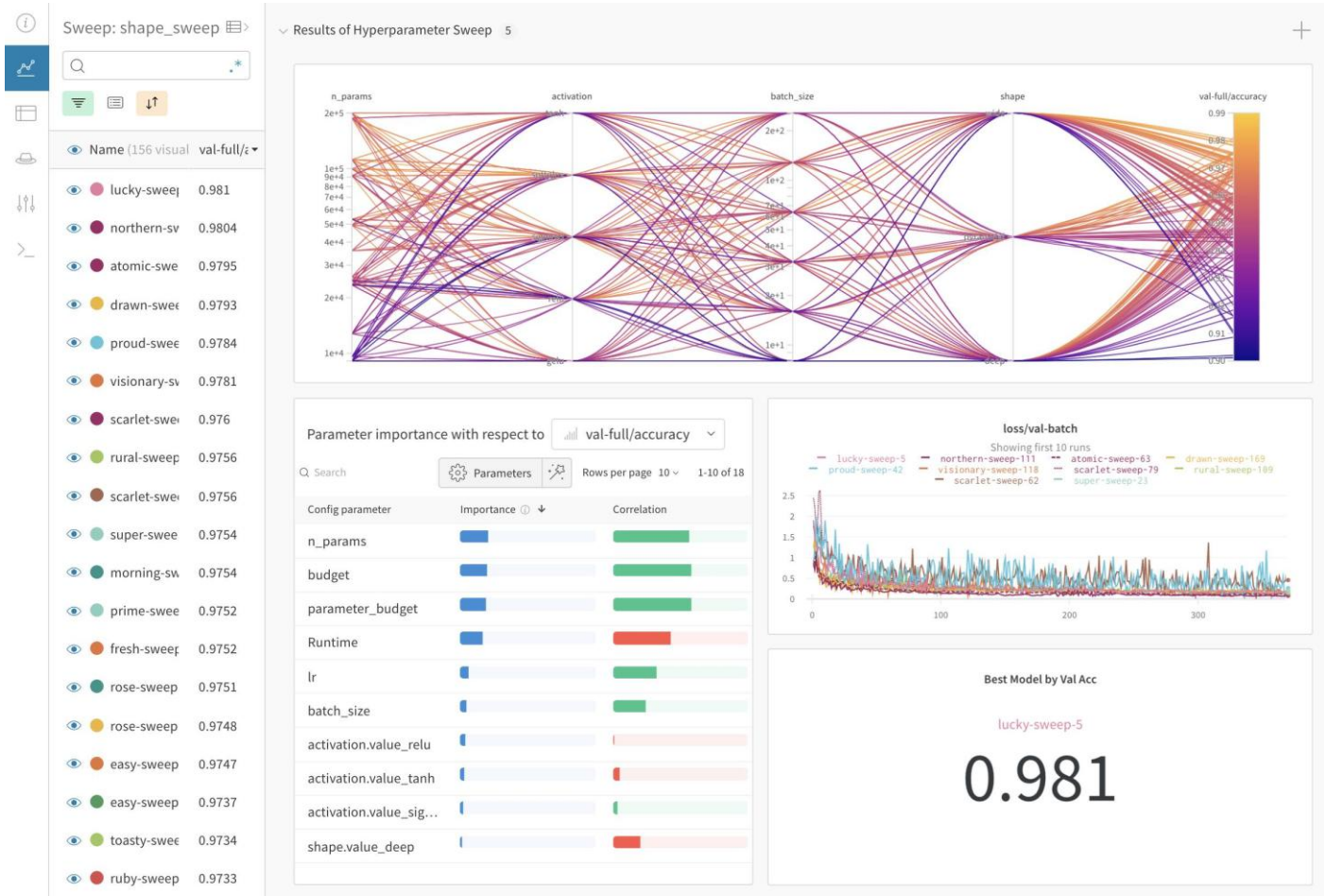
Use regularization (ℓ_2-regularization, dropout, …)batch normalization

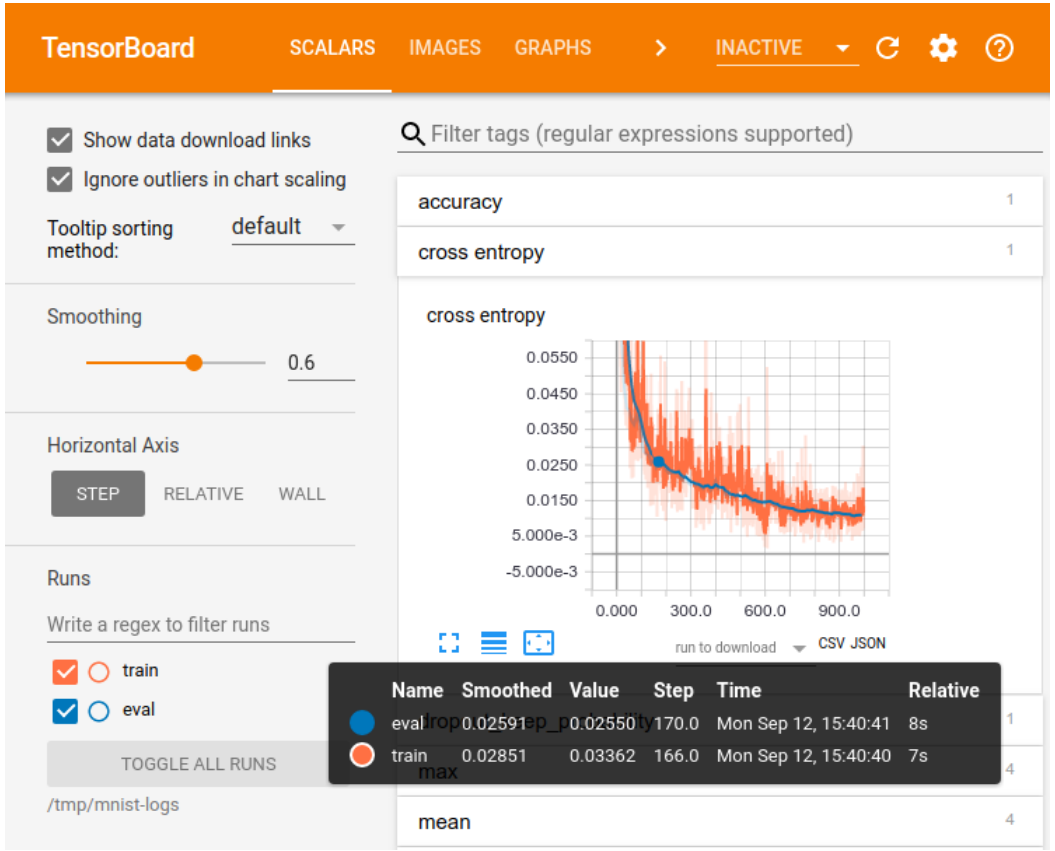
Prefer residual connections, they make a difference

Use an experiment manager like tensorboard or Neptune or wand

Track further metrics that are relevant to the problem at hand

Logging tools





Summary

Tackling overfitting is key in deep learning.

Initialization: *een goed begin is het halve werk*.

Regularization, DropOut, early stopping, normalization: all dampening factors.

Your lives will be dominated by hyperparameters.

Learning and reflection

Understanding Deep Learning: Chapter 8

Understanding Deep Learning: Chapter 9

Next lecture

Lecture	Title	Lecture	Title
1	Intro and history of deep learning	2	AutoDiff
3	Deep learning optimization I	4	Deep learning optimization II
5	Convolutional deep learning	6	Attention-based deep learning
7	Graph deep learning	8	From supervised to unsupervised deep learning
9	Multi-modal deep learning	10	Generative deep learning
11	What doesn't work in deep learning	12	Non-Euclidean deep learning
13	Q&A	14	Deep learning for videos