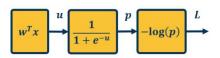
Topics:

Optimization

CS 4644-DL / 7643-A ZSOLT KIRA

- Assignment 1 grace period ends today!!!
- Assignment 2
 - Implement convolutional neural networks
- Piazza: Start with public posts so that others can benefit!
 - Doesn't mean don't post!
- Facebook Lectures: Data wrangling video available online
 - See dropbox link piazza @8 and M1L4 folder
 - Opportunity to talk to them Wed. 02/17 4-5pm
- Project details coming soon



$$\overline{p} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{p}$$

where
$$p = \sigma(w^T x)$$
 and $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$

$$\overline{u} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial p} \frac{\partial p}{\partial u} = \overline{p} \sigma (1 - \sigma)$$

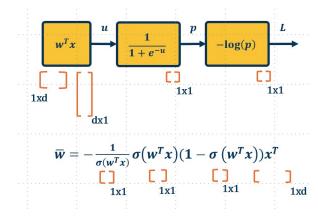
$$\overline{w} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial w} = \overline{u}x^T$$

We can do this in a combined way to see all terms together:

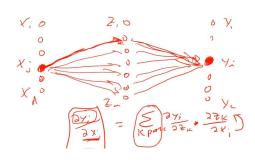
$$\begin{split} \overline{w} &= \frac{\partial L}{\partial p} \frac{\partial p}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial w} = -\frac{1}{\sigma(w^T x)} \sigma(w^T x) (1 - \sigma(w^T x)) x^T \\ &= -\left(1 - \sigma(w^T x)\right) x^T \end{split}$$

This effectively shows gradient flow along path from $\it L$ to $\it w$

Computation Graph / Global View of Chain Rule

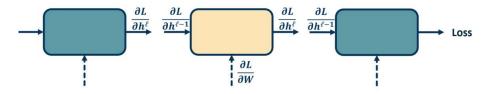


Computational / Tensor View



Graph View

• We want to to compute:
$$\{\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell-1}}, \frac{\partial L}{\partial W}\}$$



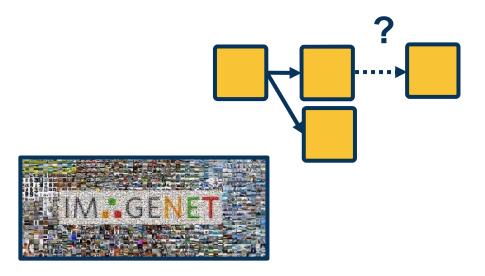
Backpropagation View (Recursive Algorithm)

- Backpropagation: Recursive, modular algorithm for chain rule + gradient descent
- When we move to vectors and matrices:
 - Computation graph (composition of functions) => Multiplication of Jacobians along path
- Automatic differentiation:
 - Reduction of modules to simple operations we know (simple multiplication, etc.)
 - Automatically build computation graph in background as write code
 - Automatically compute gradients via backward pass
- We now have a generic algorithm! Considerations:
 - Architecture
 - Data Considerations
 - Training and Optimization
 - Machine Learning Considerations



There are still many design decisions that must be made:

- Architecture
- Data Considerations
- Training and Optimization
- Machine Learning Considerations

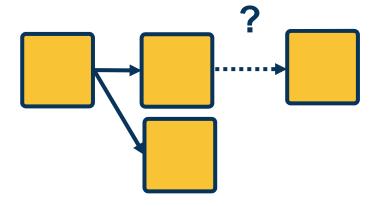




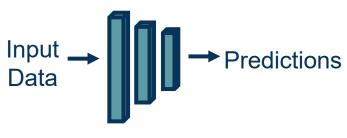


We must design the **neural network** architecture:

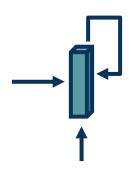
- What modules (layers) should we use?
- How should they be connected together?
- Can we use our domain knowledge to add architectural biases?



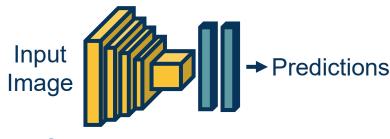




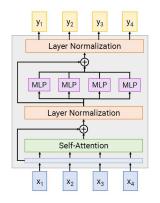
Fully Connected Neural Network



Recurrent Neural Network



Convolutional Neural Networks



Transformers

Different architectures are suitable for different applications or types of input

Example Architectures

As in traditional machine learning, **data** is key:

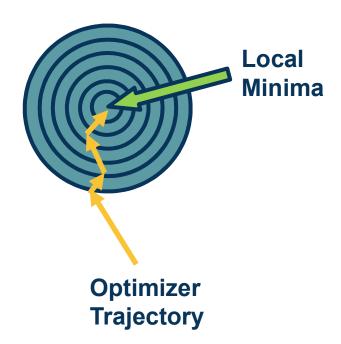
- Should we pre-process the data?
- Should we normalize it?
- Can we augment our data by adding noise or other perturbations?





Even given a good neural network architecture, we need a good optimization algorithm to find good weights

- What optimizer should we use?
 - Different optimizers make different weight updates depending on the gradients
- How should we initialize the weights?
- What regularizers should we use?
- What loss function is appropriate?





Machine Learning Considerations

The practice of machine learning is complex: For your particular application you have to trade off all of the considerations together

- Trade-off between model
 capacity (e.g. measured by # of
 parameters) and amount of data
- Adding appropriate biases based on knowledge of the domain

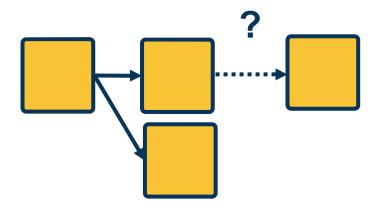


Architectural Considerations



Determining what modules to use, and how to connect them is part of the **architectural design**

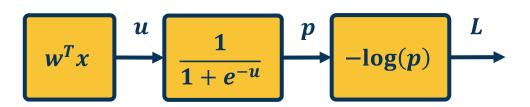
- Guided by the type of data used and its characteristics
 - Understanding your data is always the first step!
- Lots of data types (modalities) already have good architectures
 - Start with what others have discovered!
- The flow of gradients is one of the key principles to use when analyzing layers

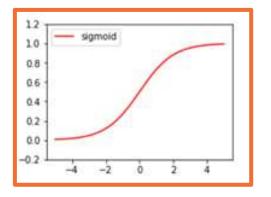




- Combination of linear and non-linear layers
- Combination of only linear layers has same representational power as one linear layer
- Non-linear layers are crucial
 - Composition of non-linear layers enables complex transformations of the data

$$\mathbf{w}_1^T(\mathbf{w}_2^T(\mathbf{w}_3^T\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{w}_4^T\mathbf{x}$$

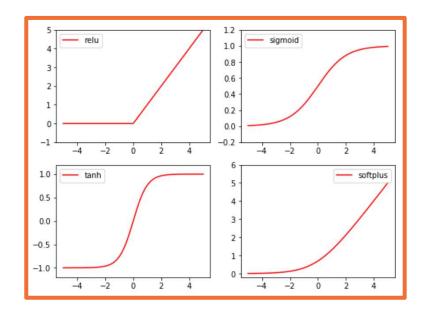






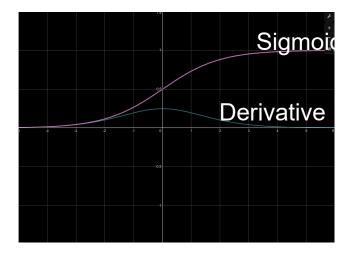
Several aspects that we can **analyze**:

- Min/Max
- Correspondence between input & output statistics
- Gradients
 - At initialization (e.g. small values)
 - At extremes
- Computational complexity





- Min: 0, Max: 1
- Output always positive
- Saturates at both ends
- Gradients
 - Vanishes at both end
 - Always positive
- Computation: Exponential term



$$h^{\ell} = \sigma (h^{\ell-1})$$

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

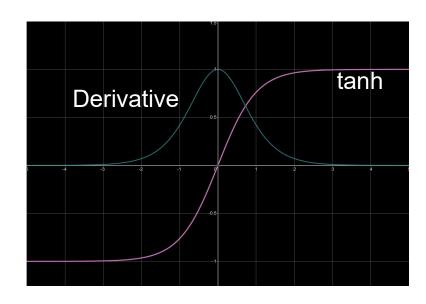
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell-1}} \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial W} \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell}}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W} \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell}} \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell}}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell}} \quad \frac{\partial h^{\ell}}{\partial W}$$



- Min: -1, Max: 1
 - Centered
- Saturates at both ends
- Gradients
 - Vanishes at both end
 - Always positive
- Still somewhat computationally heavy



$$h^{\ell} = tanh(h^{\ell-1})$$



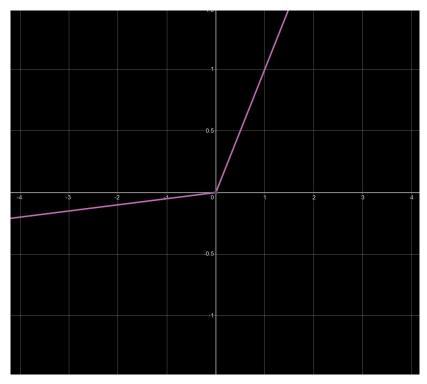
- Min: 0, Max: Infinity
- Output always positive
- No saturation on positive end!
- Gradients
 - $\mathbf{0}$ if $\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{0}$ (dead ReLU)
 - Constant otherwise (does not vanish)
- Cheap to compute (max)



$$h^{\ell} = max(0, h^{\ell-1})$$



- Min: -Infinity, Max: Infinity
- Learnable parameter!
- No saturation
- Gradients
 - No dead neuron
- Still cheap to compute



$$h^{\ell} = max(\alpha h^{\ell-1}, h^{\ell-1})$$



Selecting a Non-Linearity

Which **non-linearity** should you select?

- Unfortunately, no one activation
 function is best for all applications
- ReLU is most common starting point
 - Sometimes leaky ReLU can make a big difference
- Sigmoid is typically avoided unless clamping to values from [0,1] is needed



Initialization



Initializing the Parameters

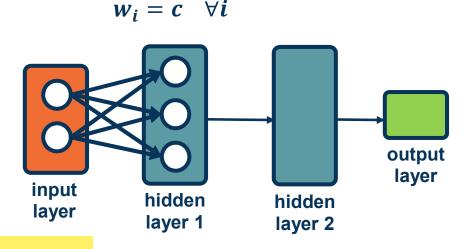
The parameters of our model must be initialized to something

- Initialization is extremely important!
 - Determines how statistics of outputs (given inputs) behave
 - Determines how well gradients flow in the beginning of training (important)
 - Could limit use of full capacity of the model if done improperly
- Initialization that is close to a good (local)
 minima will converge faster and to a better solution



Initializing values to a constant value leads to a degenerate solution!

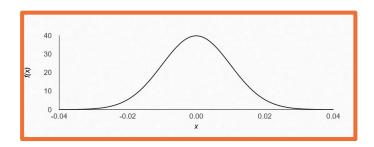
- What happens to the weight updates?
- Each node has the same input from previous layers so gradients will be the same
- As a results, all weights
 will be updated to the
 same exact values

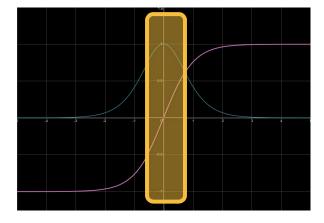




Common approach is small normally distributed random numbers

- E.g. $N(\mu, \sigma)$ where $\mu = 0$, $\sigma = 0.01$
- Small weights are preferred since no feature/input has prior importance
- Keeps the model within the linear region of most activation functions



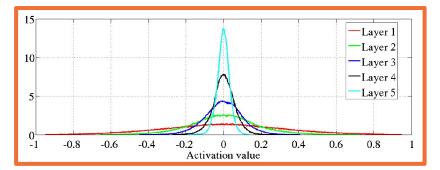




Deeper networks (with many layers) are more sensitive to

initialization

- With a deep network, activations (outputs of nodes) get smaller
 - Standard deviation reduces significantly
- Leads to small updates smaller values multiplied by upstream gradients



Distribution of activation values of a network with tanh nonlinearities, for increasingly deep layers

From "Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks." AISTATS, 2010.



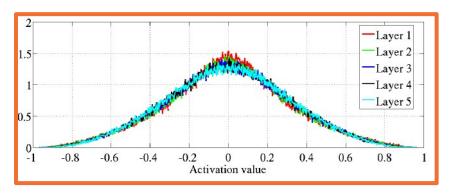
Ideally, we'd like to maintain the variance at the output to be similar

to that of input!

This condition leads to a simple initialization rule, sampling from uniform distribution:

Uniform
$$\left(-\frac{\sqrt{6}}{n_j+n_{j+1}}, +\frac{\sqrt{6}}{n_j+n_{j+1}}\right)$$

• Where n_j is fan-in (number of input nodes) and n_{j+1} is fan-out (number of output nodes)



Distribution of activation values of a network with tanh nonlinearities, for increasingly deep layers

From "Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks." AISTATS, **2010**.



In practice, simpler versions perform empirically well:

$$N(0,1) * \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_j}}$$

- This analysis holds for tanh or similar activations.
- Similar analysis for ReLU activations leads to:

$$N(0,1) * \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_j/2}}$$

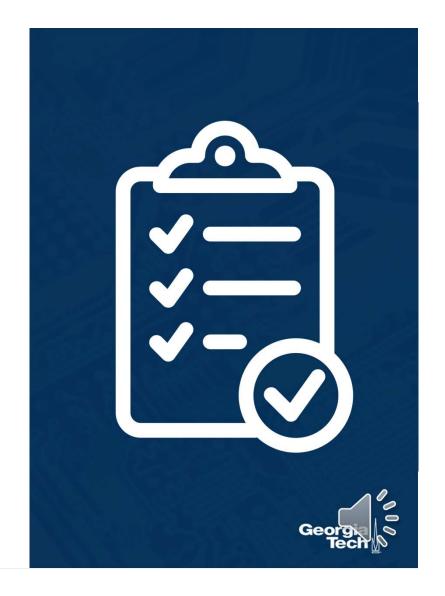
"Delving Deep into Rectifiers: Surpassing Human-Level Performance on ImageNet Classification", ICCV, 2015.



Summary

Key takeaway: Initialization matters!

- Determines the activation (output) statistics, and therefore gradient statistics
- If gradients are small, no learning will occur and no improvement is possible!
- Important to reason about output/gradient statistics and analyze them for new layers and architectures



Normalization,
Preprocessing,
and
Augmentation



Importance of Data

In deep learning, data drives learning of features and classifier

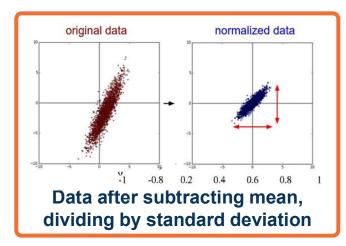
- Its characteristics are therefore extremely important
- Always understand your data!
- Relationship between output statistics, layers such as nonlinearities, and gradients is important



Just like initialization, normalization can improve gradient flow and learning

Typically **normalization methods** apply:

- Subtract mean, divide by standard deviation (most common)
 - This can be done per dimension
- Whitening, e.g. through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) (not common)



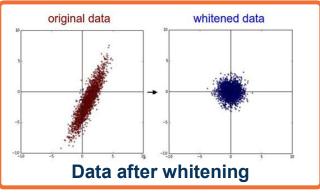


Figure from slides by Fei-Fei Li, Justin Johnson, Serena Yeung, CS 231n



- We can try to come up with a layer that can normalize the data across the neural network
- Given: A mini-batch of data $[B \times D]$ where B is batch size
- Compute mean and variance for each dimension d

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

Parameters to be learned: \gamma, \beta

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

\mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \qquad // \text{ mini-batch mean}
\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2 \qquad // \text{ mini-batch variance}
```

From: Batch Normalization: Accelerating Deep Network Training by Reducing Internal Covariate Shift, Sergey Ioffe, Christian Szegedy



Normalize data

$$\widehat{x}_i = \frac{x_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

Note: This part does not involve new parameters

Input: Values of
$$x$$
 over a mini-batch: $\mathcal{B} = \{x_{1...m}\}$;
Parameters to be learned: γ , β

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

$$\mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \qquad // \text{mini-batch mean}$$

$$\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2 \qquad // \text{mini-batch variance}$$

$$\widehat{x}_i \leftarrow \frac{x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 + \epsilon}} \qquad // \text{normalize}$$

From: Batch Normalization: Accelerating Deep Network Training by Reducing Internal Covariate Shift, Sergey Ioffe, Christian Szegedy



- We can give the model flexibility through
 learnable parameters
 γ (scale) and β (shift)
- Network can learn to **not normalize** if necessary!
- This layer is called aBatch Normalization(BN) layer

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

Parameters to be learned: \gamma, \beta

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

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

From: Batch Normalization: Accelerating Deep Network Training by Reducing Internal Covariate Shift, Sergey Ioffe, Christian Szegedy



Some Complexities of BN

During inference, stored mean/variances calculated on training set are used

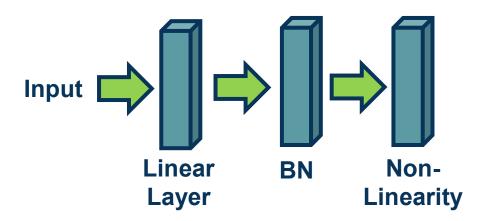
Sufficient batch sizes must be used to get stable per-batch estimates during training

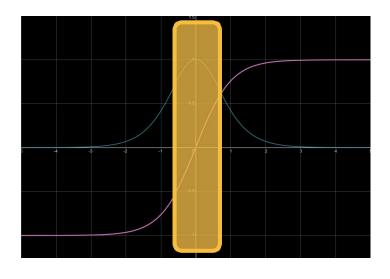
- This is especially an issue when using multi-GPU or multi-machine training
- Use torch.nn.SyncBatchNorm to estimate batch statistics in these settings



Normalization especially important before non-linearities!

 Very low/high values (unnormalized/imbalanced data) cause saturation







Generalization of BN

There are many variations of batch normalization

See Convolutional Neural
 Network lectures for an example

Resource:

ML Explained - Normalization



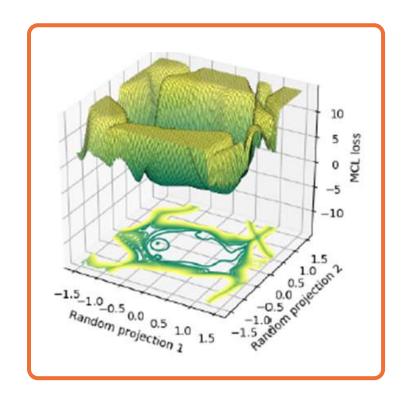
Optimizers

Deep learning involves complex, compositional, non-linear functions

The **loss landscape** is extremely **non-convex** as a result

There is **little direct theory** and a **lot of intuition/rules of thumbs** instead

 Some insight can be gained via theory for simpler cases (e.g. convex settings)



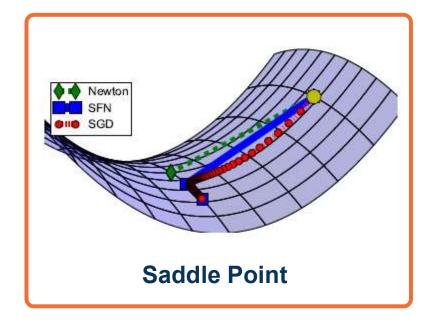
Loss Landscape



It used to be thought that existence of local minima is the main issue in optimization

There are other **more impactful issues**:

- Noisy gradient estimates
- Saddle points
- III-conditioned loss surface



From: Identifying and attacking the saddle point problem in highdimensional non-convex optimization, Dauphi et al., 2014.

Loss Landscape



- We use a subset of the data at each iteration to calculate the loss (& gradients)
- This is an unbiased estimator but can have high variance
- This results in noisy steps in gradient descent

$$L = \frac{1}{M} \sum L(f(x_i, W), y_i)$$

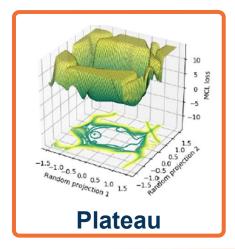


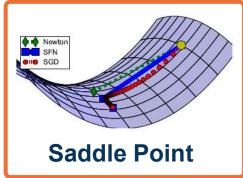
Several **loss surface geometries** are difficult for optimization

Several types of minima: Local minima, plateaus, saddle points

Saddle points are those where the gradient of orthogonal directions are zero

 But they disagree (it's min for one, max for another)





Loss Surface Geometry



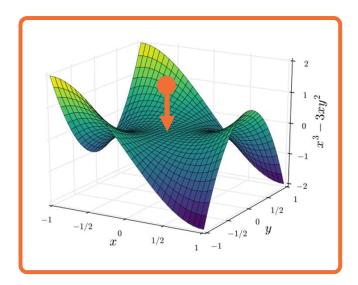
- Gradient descent takes a step in the steepest direction (negative gradient)
- Intuitive idea: Imagine a ball rolling down loss surface, and use
 momentum to pass flat surfaces

$$v_i = \beta v_{i-1} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$
 Update Velocity (starts as 0, $\beta = 0.99$)

$$w_i = w_{i-1} - \alpha v_i$$
 Update Weights

Generalizes SGD $(\beta = 0)$





Velocity term is an exponential moving average of the gradient

$$v_i = \beta v_{i-1} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$

$$v_{i} = \beta(\beta \ v_{i-2} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-2}}) + \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$

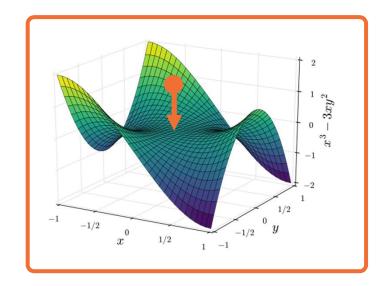
$$= \beta^2 v_{i-2} + \beta \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-2}} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$

 There is a general class of accelerated gradient methods, with some theoretical analysis (under assumptions)

Equivalent formulation:

$$v_i = \beta v_{i-1} - \alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$
 Update Velocity (starts as 0)

$$w_i = w_{i-1} + v_i$$
 Update Weights



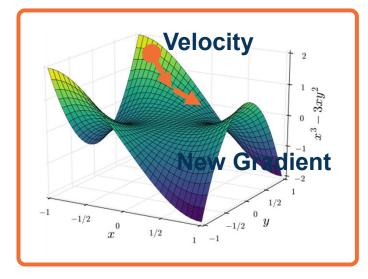
Key idea: Rather than combining velocity with current gradient, go along velocity **first** and then calculate gradient at new point

We know velocity is probably a reasonable direction

$$\widehat{w}_{i-1} = w_{i-1} + \beta v_{i-1}$$

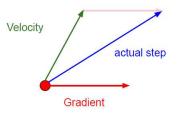
$$v_i = \beta v_{i-1} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \widehat{w}_{i-1}}$$

$$w_i = w_{i-1} - \alpha v_i$$



Momentum update:

Nesterov Momentum



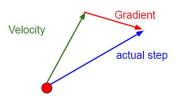


Figure Credit: Fei-Fei Li, Justin Johnson, Serena Yeung, CS 231n

Nesterov Momentum



Momentum

Note there are **several equivalent formulations** across deep learning frameworks!

Resource:

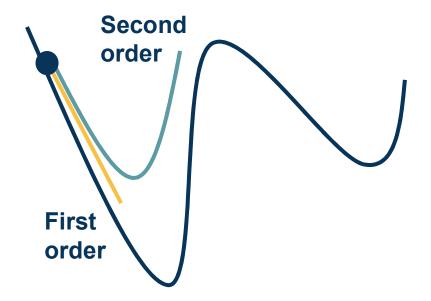
https://medium.com/the-artificial-impostor/sgd-implementation-in-pytorch-4115bcb9f02c



- Various mathematical ways to characterize the loss landscape
- If you liked Jacobians... meet the

$$\mathbf{H} = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \, \partial x_2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \, \partial x_n} \ & & & & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \, \partial x_1} & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \, \partial x_n} \ & dots & dots & dots & dots & dots \ rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \, \partial x_1} & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \, \partial x_2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \ \end{bmatrix}$$

 Gives us information about the curvature of the loss surface

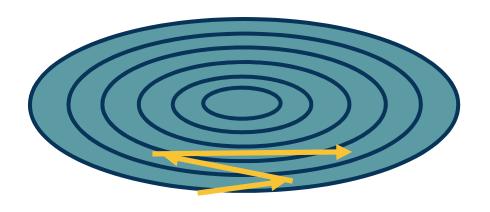


Condition number is the ratio of the largest and smallest eigenvalue

 Tells us how different the curvature is along different dimensions

If this is high, SGD will make **big** steps in some dimensions and **small** steps in other dimension

Second-order optimization methods divide steps by curvature, but expensive to compute



Condition Number



Per-Parameter Learning Rate

Idea: Have a dynamic learning rate for each weight

Several flavors of **optimization algorithms**:

- RMSProp
- Adagrad
- Adam
- **-** ...

SGD can achieve similar results in many cases but with much more tuning



Idea: Use gradient statistics to reduce learning rate across iterations

Denominator: Sum up gradients over iterations

Directions with high curvature will have higher gradients, and learning rate will reduce

$$G_{i} = G_{i-1} + \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}\right)^{2}$$

$$w_{i} = w_{i-1} - \frac{\alpha}{G_{i} + \epsilon} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$

As gradients are accumulated learning rate will go to zero

Duchi, et al., "Adaptive Subgradient Methods for Online Learning and Stochastic Optimization"

Adagrad



Solution: Keep a moving average of squared gradients!

Does not saturate the learning rate

$$G_{i} = \beta G_{i-1} + (1 - \beta) \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}} \right)^{2}$$

$$w_i = w_{i-1} - \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{G_i + \epsilon}} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}$$

RMSProp



Combines ideas from above algorithms

Maintains both first and second moment statistics for gradients

$$v_i = \beta_1 v_{i-1} + (1 - \beta_1) \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}} \right)$$

$$G_i = \beta_2 G_{i-1} + (1 - \beta_2) \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}\right)^2$$

$$w_i = w_{i-1} - \frac{\alpha v_i}{\sqrt{G_i + \epsilon}}$$

But unstable in the beginning (one or both of moments will be tiny values)

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

Adam



Solution: Time-varying bias correction

Typically
$$\beta_1 = 0.9$$
, $\beta_2 = 0.999$

So $\hat{v_i}$ will be small number divided by (1-0.9=0.1) resulting in more reasonable values (and \hat{G}_i larger)

$$v_i = \beta_1 v_{i-1} + (1 - \beta_1) \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}} \right)$$

$$G_i = \beta_2 G_{i-1} + (1 - \beta_2) \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i-1}}\right)^2$$

$$\widehat{v}_{i} = \frac{v_{i}}{1 - \beta_{1}^{t}} \quad \widehat{G}_{i} = \frac{G_{i}}{1 - \beta_{2}^{t}}$$

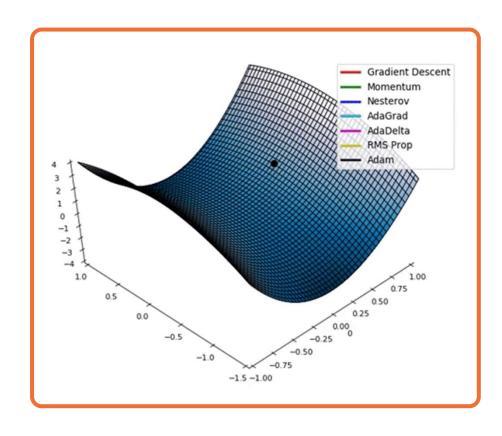
$$w_{i} = w_{i-1} - \frac{\alpha \widehat{v}_{i}}{\sqrt{\widehat{G}_{i} + \epsilon}}$$

Optimizers behave differently depending on landscape

Different behaviors such as **overshooting**, **stagnating**, **etc.**

Plain SGD+Momentum can generalize better than adaptive methods, but requires more tuning

See: Luo et al., Adaptive Gradient Methods with Dynamic Bound of Learning Rate, ICLR 2019



From: https://mlfromscratch.com/optimizers-explained/#/





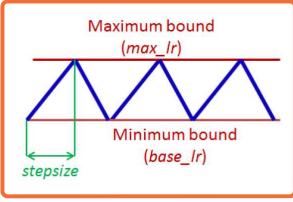
First order optimization methods have **learning rates**

Theoretical results rely on **annealed learning rate**

Several schedules that are typical:

- Graduate student!
- Step scheduler
- Exponential scheduler
- Cosine scheduler





From: Leslie Smith, "Cyclical Learning Rates for Training Neural Networks"

Learning Rate Schedules

