10707 Deep Learning: Spring 2020

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Lecture 6: Advanced optimization

Supervised learning

Empirical risk minimization approach:

minimize a **training** loss l over a class of **predictors** \mathcal{F} :

$$\hat{f} = \underset{f \in \mathcal{F}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{(x,y): \text{training samples}} l(f(x), y)$$

Three pillars:

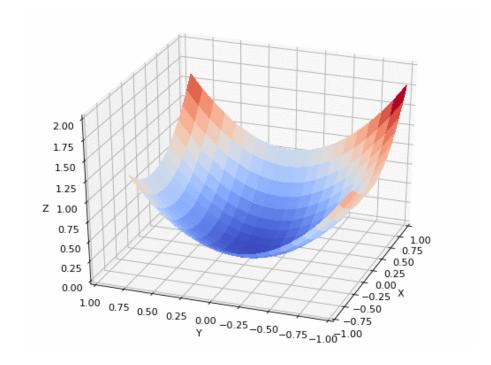
- (1) How expressive is the class \mathcal{F} ? (Representational power)
- (2) How do we minimize the training loss efficiently? (Optimization)
- (3) How does \hat{f} perform on unseen samples? (Generalization)

The typical training task in ML can be cast as: $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$

Most algorithms we will look at are iterative: they progressively pick points $x_1, x_2, ...$ that are supposed to bring "improvement".

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

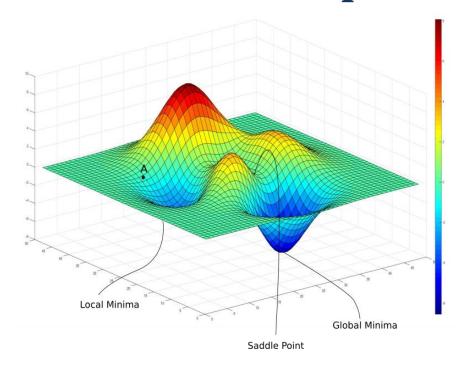
Gradient descent



What can we hope for, in the case that $\eta \to 0$?

We stop moving when $\nabla f(x_t) \approx 0$: these care called **stationary points**.

What kinds of stationary points are there?

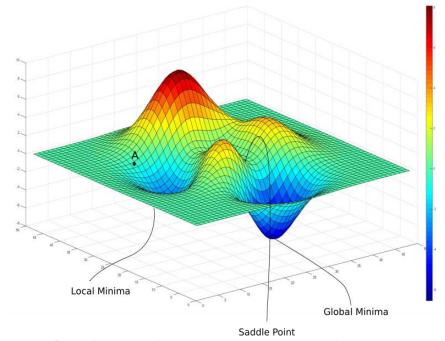


Global minimum: actual minimizer, namely $f(\hat{x}) \leq f(x)$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Local minimum: $f(\hat{x}) \le f(x)$, $\forall x \text{ s.t.} ||x - \hat{x}|| \le \epsilon \text{ for some } \epsilon > 0$

Local maximum: $f(\hat{x}) \ge f(x)$, $\forall x \text{ s. t. } ||x - \hat{x}|| \le \epsilon \text{ for some } \epsilon > 0$

Saddle points: stationary point that is *not* a local min/max.



Global minimum: finding these in general is very hard (both in theory – NP-hard, as well as in practice)

Local minimum: seem to work quite well often. Some theoretical understanding of why in very restricted cases.

Saddle points: typically bad, arise from invariances in input. Want to avoid these. (Stay tuned.)

Why are local minima good?

In short: we don't know.

Some results:

(Kawaguchi '16): Linear neural networks (that is, neural networks with linear activation functions): all local minima are also global minima.

(Hardt-Ma '18): Linear residual networks (that is, ResNets with linear activation functions): all stationary points are also global minima.

Evidence for the other side:

(Safran-Shamir '18, Yun-Sra-Jadbabie '19): Non-linear nets with:

- Virtually any non-linearity.
- *Even* Gaussian inputs (about as simple as it gets)
- Labels *generated* by a neural net of the same architecture we are training can have many bad local minima.

Overparametrization (training larger net) breaks these examples.

Why are local minima good?

In short: we don't know.

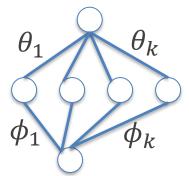
Gradient descent w/ overparametrization:

(Allen-Zhu et al '18, Du et al '18): **Sufficiently overparametrized** neural networks (that is neural nets with # parameters >> # of training samples, training from random initialization, converge to small training error solutions.

Interaction with generalization is still evolving/unclear.

Intuition: saddle points arise due to symmetry

Warning: intuition only, not formal in any way!



Permutation symmetry: loss function is

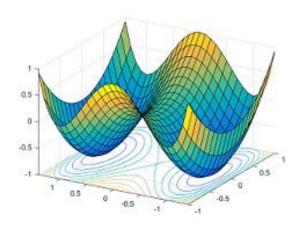
$$f(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k, \phi_1, \dots, \phi_k).$$

Clearly same loss if we permute neurons, e.g.

$$f(\theta_3, \theta_1, \theta_2 \dots, \theta_k, \phi_3, \phi_1, \phi_2 \dots, \phi_k)$$

However, averaging likely will give different (larger) loss

$$f\left(\frac{\theta_{1}+\theta_{3}}{2},\frac{\theta_{2}+\theta_{1}}{2},\frac{\theta_{3}+\theta_{2}}{2}\dots,\theta_{k},\frac{\phi_{1}+\phi_{3}}{2},\frac{\phi_{2}+\phi_{1}}{2},\frac{\phi_{3}+\phi_{2}}{2},\dots,\phi_{k}\right).$$



Isolated minima corresponding to permutations, connected via a "flat" region inbetween. (We'll see later this intuition may be deficient in some ways.)

In the supervised learning setup, function we are optimizing has the form of a sum:

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_{(x,y): \text{training samples}} l(f_{\theta}(x), y)$$

Stochastic gradient descent

- Initialize: $\theta_0 \coloneqq \{W^{(1)}, b^{(1)}, \dots, W^{(L+1)}, b^{(L+1)}\}$
- For t=1 to T
 - Pick a uniformly random training example (x, y):

- Set
$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta \nabla_{\theta} l(f_{\theta}(x), y)$$

Random variable w/ expectation true gradient

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$$\min_{\theta} \sum_{(x,y): \text{training samples}} l(f_{\theta}(x), y)$$

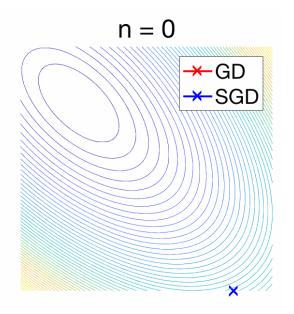
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Actually, typically, one takes a minibatch of B samples, and calculates gradient over those samples

Due to randomness, more jittery than gradient descent:



Bug? Longer convergence time

Feature? Regularization effect / better generalization.

Feature? Can help escape saddles.

Recap: local minima

Second order checks: Hessian approximates a function to second order

Taylor's thm:
$$f(x + \Delta) \approx f(x) + \Delta^T \nabla f(x) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta + O(||\Delta||^3)$$

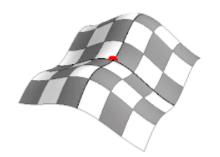
$$\approx f(x) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta + O(||\Delta||^3)$$



If $\nabla^2 f(x) > 0$: for any direction Δ , and small enough $||\Delta||$

$$\Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta + O(||\Delta||^3) \ge 0$$
, so $f(x + \Delta) > f(x)$

Local minimum! (Flipped for local maximum)



If $\nabla^2 f(x)$ has both positive and negative eigenvalues:

Saddle point (not a local minimum/maximum)

If neither of these attains, test is inconclusive!

Feature: can help escape (second-order) saddle points

- \mathfrak{G} Consider $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^{\mathsf{T}}Ax$, A is *strict saddle*: has **negative** eval
- \mathfrak{G} Write $x_t = \sum_i \mu_i^t v_i$, for the eigenbasis $\{(v_i, \lambda_i)\}_i$ of A.
- \mathfrak{G} Then, $x_{t+1} = \sum_{i} (1 \eta \lambda_i) \mu_i^t v_i$
- $\$ In other words, $x_T = \sum_i (1 \eta \lambda_i)^T \mu_i^0 v_i$

In other words: component in direction of negative eigenvalue growswe don't get stuck!

Stochastic noise helps no component to get too small.

[Can be formalized for fresh noise, Jin, Ge, Netrapalli, Jordan, Kakade '17]

The typical training task in ML can be cast as: $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$

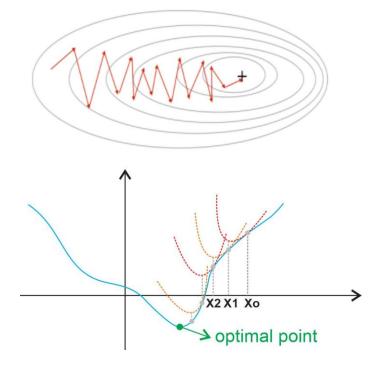
Most algorithms we will look at are iterative: they progressively pick points $x_1, x_2, ...$ that are supposed to bring "improvement".

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

Gradient descent

Set
$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \left(\nabla^2 f(x_t) \right)^{-1} \nabla f(x_t)$$

Newton's method.



Second order methods on the cheap: AdaGrad

Recall the problem with Newton: inverting large matrices

Set
$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \left(\nabla^2 f(x_t) \right)^{-1} \nabla f(x_t)$$

Newton's method.

AdaGrad (simplified): have a separate learning rate for every parameter

$$(G_t)_{ii} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{t-1} (\nabla f(x_t)_{ii})^2}, \quad \text{else 0}$$

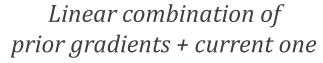
$$(G_t)_{ii} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{t-1} (\nabla f(x_t)_{ii})^2}}, \quad \text{else 0}$$

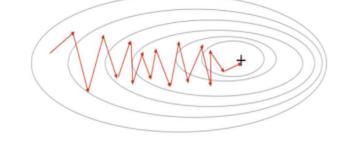
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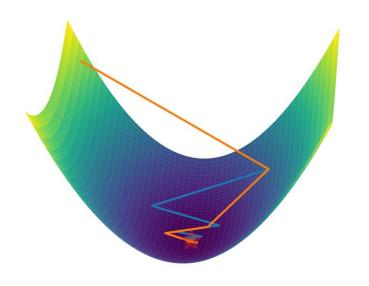
Momentum

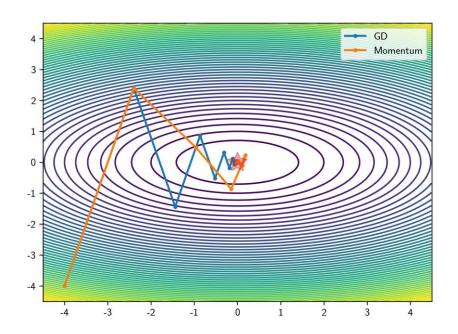
(Polyak and Nesterov)

$$v_{t+1} = -\nabla f(x_t) + \beta v_t$$
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + \eta v_{t+1}$$

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

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





Momentum vs grad. descent

https://tangbinh.github.io/01/04/Optimizers.html

Second order methods on the cheap: RMSProp

AdaGrad (simplified): have a separate learning rate for every parameter

Set
$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta G_t^{-1} \nabla f(x_t)$$
, $(G_t)_{ii} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{t-1} (\nabla f(x_t)_{ii})^2}$, else 0

RMSProp: since we keep summing the norms of the gradient, the learning rate could keep getting smaller. [**NOTE**: For convex functions, this is standard and in fact works.] Instead, keep a weighted exponential avg.

$$(g_{t+1})_i = \beta(g_t)_i + (1 - \beta)(\nabla f(x_t)_{ii})^2$$

$$(x_{t+1})_i = (x_t)_i - \frac{\eta \nabla f(x_t)_i}{\sqrt{(g_{t+1})_i}}$$

Momentum + AdaGrad = Adam

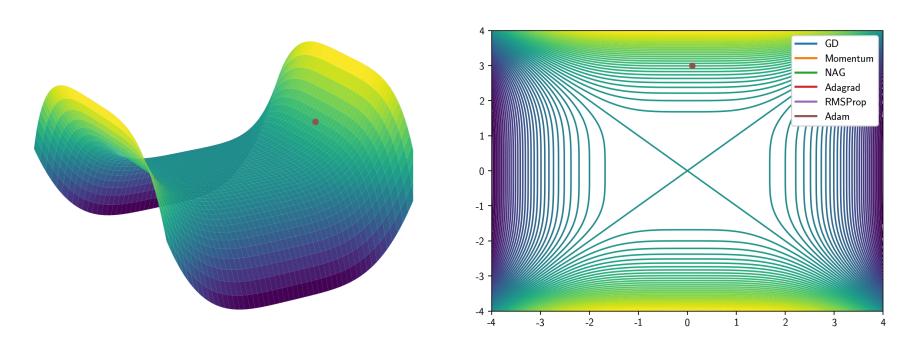
Adam: Frankenstein momentum and AdaGrad together:

 $v_{t+1} = \beta_1 v_t + (1 - \beta_1) \nabla f(x_t)$ $(g_{t+1})_i = \beta_2 (g_t)_i + (1 - \beta_2) (\nabla f(x_t)_{ii})^2$ $(x_{t+1})_i = (x_t)_i - \frac{\eta v_{t+1}}{\sqrt{(g_{t+1})_i}}$ Combine the two

Default choice nowadays.

It actually does **not** converge, even on convex instances without some modification of updates. (*Reddi, Kale, Kumar, Best paper at ICLR '18*)

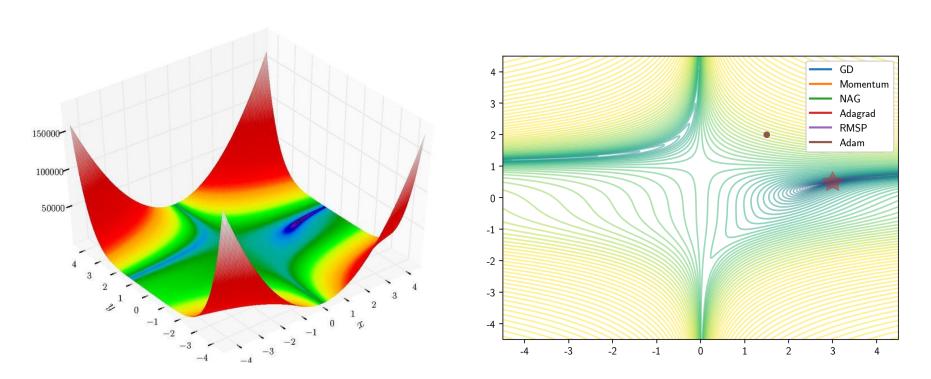
Moving around saddles with various methods



https://tangbinh.github.io/01/04/Optimizers.html

Loss function $f(x, y) = y^4 - x^4$, saddle point at (0,0), minimized at $x = \infty$.

Beale's function using various methods



https://tangbinh.github.io/01/04/Optimizers.html

Beale's function minimized at (3,0).

Are these actually helpful?

Remember, what we are trying to do is minimize *test error*. There's still the question of whether the solution generalizes well.

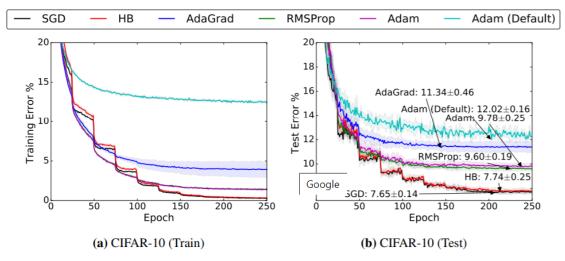


Figure 1: Training (left) and top-1 test error (right) on CIFAR-10. The annotations indicate where the best performance is attained for each method. The shading represents \pm one standard deviation computed across five runs from random initial starting points. In all cases, adaptive methods are performing worse on both train and test than non-adaptive methods.

(Wilson, Roelofs, Stern, Srebro, Recht '18)

Normalizing/whitening (mean = 0, variance = 1) the inputs speeds up training (*Lecun et al. 1998*)

Could normalization be useful at the level of the hidden layers?

Batch normalization is an attempt to do that (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2014)

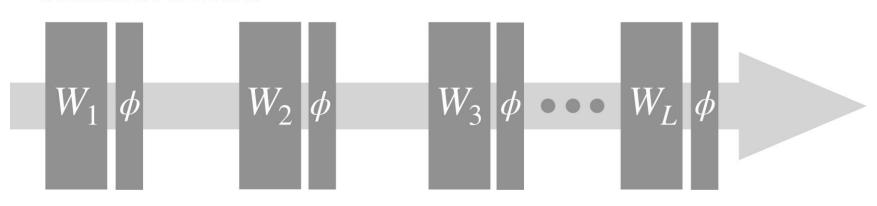
- each unit's pre-activation is normalized (mean subtraction, stddev division) $\mathbf{a}^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b}^{(k)} + \mathbf{W}^{(k)}\mathbf{h}^{(k-1)}(\mathbf{x})$
- during training, mean and stddev is computed for each minibatch
- backpropagation takes into account the normalization
- > at test time, the global mean / stddev is used



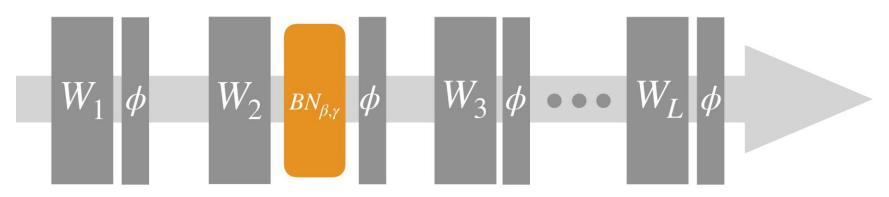
```
Input: Values of x over a mini-batch: \mathcal{B} = \{x_{1...m}\};
                Parameters to be learned: \gamma, \beta
Output: \{y_i = BN_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)\}
   \mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i
                                                                               // mini-batch mean
   \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2
                                                                         // mini-batch variance
    \widehat{x}_i \leftarrow \frac{x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 + \epsilon}}
y_i \leftarrow \gamma \widehat{x}_i + \beta \equiv \mathbf{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)
                                                                                             // normalize
                                                                                    // scale and shift
```

Learned linear transformation to adapt to non-linear activation function (γ and β are trained)

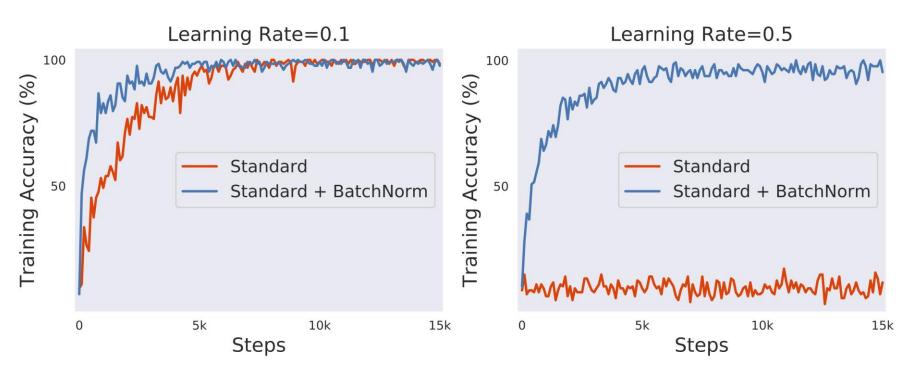
Standard Network



Adding a BatchNorm layer (between weights and activation function)



http://gradientscience.org/batchnorm/



http://gradientscience.org/batchnorm/

Why normalize the pre-activation?

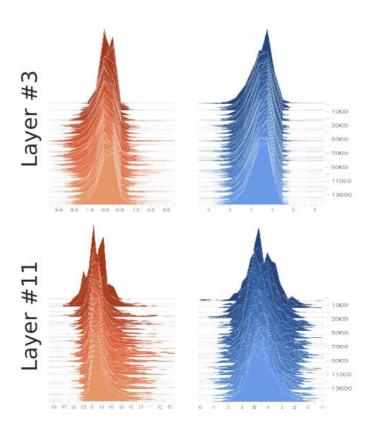
- Can help keep the pre-activation in a non-saturating regime
- Could condition Hessian better (in linear 1-layer nets, Lecun et al. 1998)

Why use minibatches?

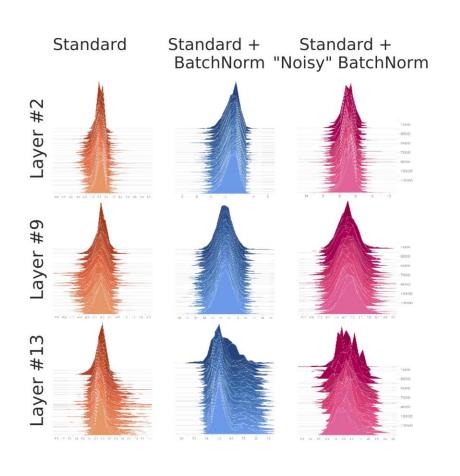
- since hidden units depend on parameters, can't compute mean/stddev once and for all
- > adds stochasticity to training, which might regularize

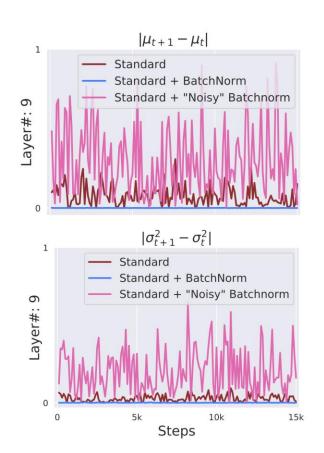
Recent observations cast some doubts on distribution shift explanation (Santurka, Tspiras, Ilyas, Madry '18)



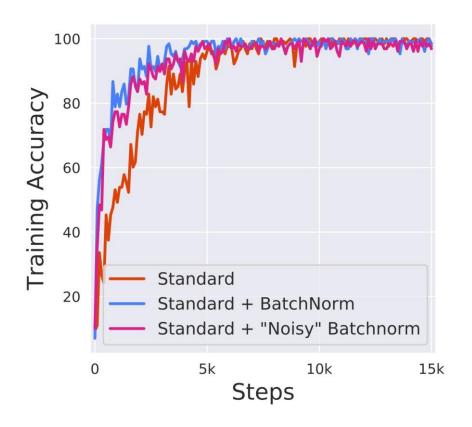


Simple experiment: inject non-stationary Gaussian noise after BN layer. This removes the alleged whitening effect of BN layers.





Simple experiment: inject non-stationary Gaussian noise after BN layer. This removes the alleged whitening effect of BN layers.



Performance doesn't suffer...

Authors suggestions (can be formalized):

Lipschitz constant of the loss improves.

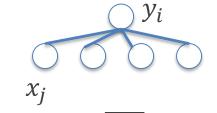
The **Hessian** evaluated in the direction of the gradient (i.e. second-order term in the Taylor expansion *decreases* in magnitude. [i.e. first-order term gets comparatively bigger]

Initialization

Warning: lots of handwaiving, intuitions

Typically, the goal of initialization is to make sure the non-linearities are in the "active" (linear) regime.

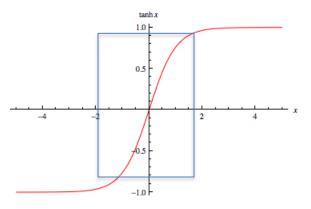
LeCun initialization:
$$\mathbb{E}[w_{ij}] = 0$$
, $Var[w_{ij}] = \frac{1}{fan-in}$



If
$$x_i$$
's are 0-mean, var-1, and $y_i = \sum_j w_{ij} x_j$, $\mathbb{E}[y_i] = 0$, $Var(y_i) = \sqrt{w_{ij}^2}$

Gradient of tanh is around 1 in the linear regime.

So, $tanh(y_i)$ has variance 1.



Initialization

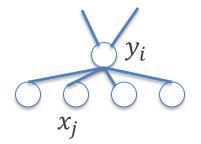
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Typically, the goal of initialization is to make sure the non-linearities are in the "active" (linear) regime.

Xavier initialization:
$$\mathbb{E}[w_{ij}] = 0$$
, $Var[w_{ij}] = \frac{2}{fan-in+fan_out}$

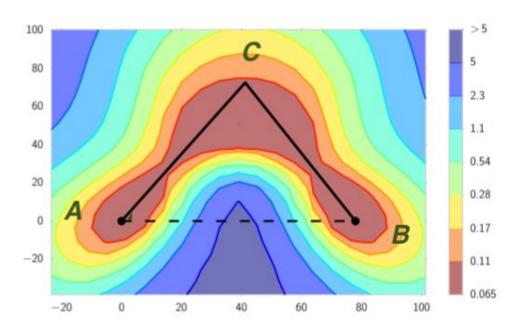
(e.g.:
$$N\left(0, \frac{2}{fan-in+fan_{out}}\right)$$
, $unif\left(\left[\frac{-\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{fan-in+fan-out}}, \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{fan-in+fan-out}}\right]\right)$,

Same argument as before, except when doing backprop, we take transposes of matrices. So, this keeps "backproped" activations also in the active regime.



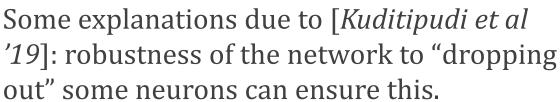
Surprises: mode connectivity

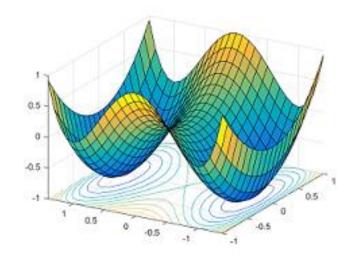
(*Freeman and Bruna, 2016, Garipov et al. 2018, Draxler et al. 2018*): Local minima can be connected by simple paths of near-same cost.



Surprising!

Remember our intuition, permutations should give rise to isolated solutions





Surprises: lottery hypothesis

(*Frankle, Carbin ICLR '20, Best paper award*): Typical neural nets have **much** smaller subnetworks that "could have been trained" in isolation to give comparable results.

More precisely, the following works reliably:

- 1. Initialize a network and train it.
- 2. "Prune" superfluous structure. (e.g. smallest weights)
- 3. Reset unpruned weights to values in 1.
- 4. Repeat 2+3.

B/w 15% and 1% of the original network!

The small network won the "**initialization lottery**" – it could've been trained to a good network w/o rest of weights.

We're training networks that are way larger than in principle necessary!