Lecture 7:

Neural Networks Part 2

Neural networks: the original linear classifier

(**Before**) Linear score function: $f = Wx$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^D, W \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times D}$$

Neural networks: 2 layers

(**Before**) Linear score function: $f = Wx$

(**Now**) 2-layer Neural Network $f = W_2 \max(0, W_1 x)$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^D, W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times D}, W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H}$$

(In practice we will usually add a learnable bias at each layer as well)

Neural networks: also called fully connected network

(**Before**) Linear score function: $f = Wx$

(**Now**) 2-layer Neural Network $f = W_2 \max(0, W_1 x)$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^D, W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times D}, W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H}$$

"Neural Network" is a very broad term; these are more accurately called "fully-connected networks" or sometimes "multi-layer perceptrons" (MLP)

(In practice we will usually add a learnable bias at each layer as well)

Neural networks: 3 layers

(**Before**) Linear score function: $f = Wx$

(**Now**) 2-layer Neural Network $f = W_2 \max(0, W_1 x)$

or 3-layer Neural Network

$$f = W_3 \max(0, W_2 \max(0, W_1 x))$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^D, W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{H_1 \times D}, W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{H_2 \times H_1}, W_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H_2}$$

(In practice we will usually add a learnable bias at each layer as well)

Training Neural Networks

A bit of history...

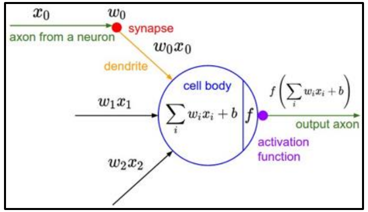
A bit of history

The **Mark I Perceptron** machine was the first implementation of the perceptron algorithm.

The machine was connected to a camera that used 20×20 cadmium sulfide photocells to produce a 400-pixel image.

recognized
letters of the alphabet

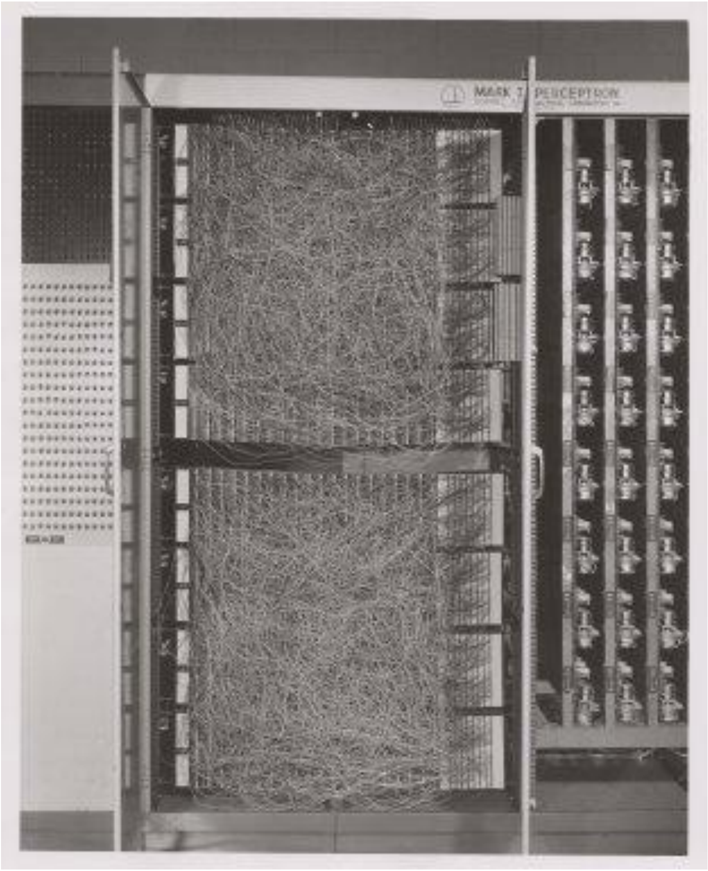
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } w \cdot x + b > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



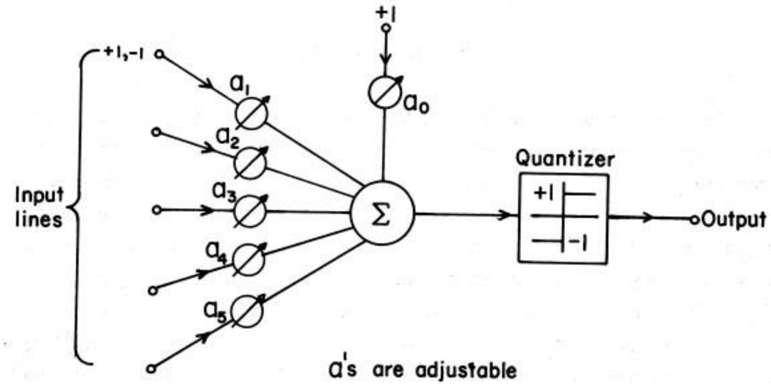
update rule:

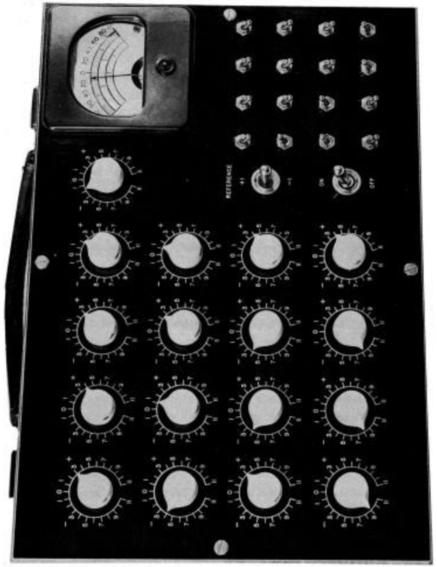
$$w_i(t+1) = w_i(t) + \alpha(d_j - y_j(t))x_{j,i},$$

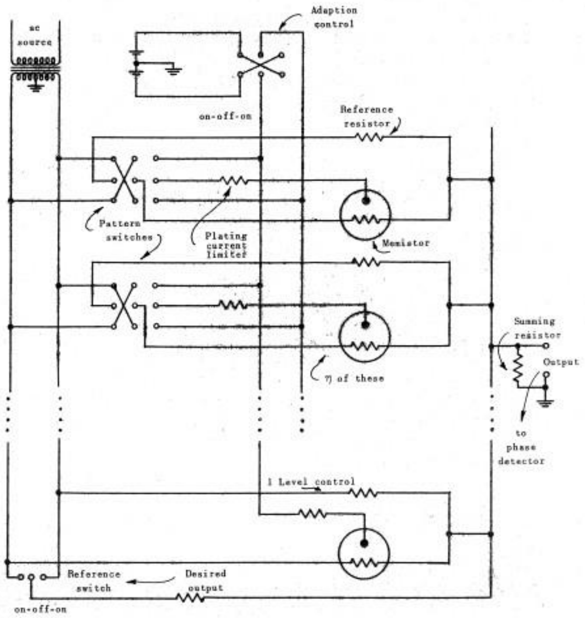
Frank Rosenblatt, ~1957: Perceptron



A bit of history

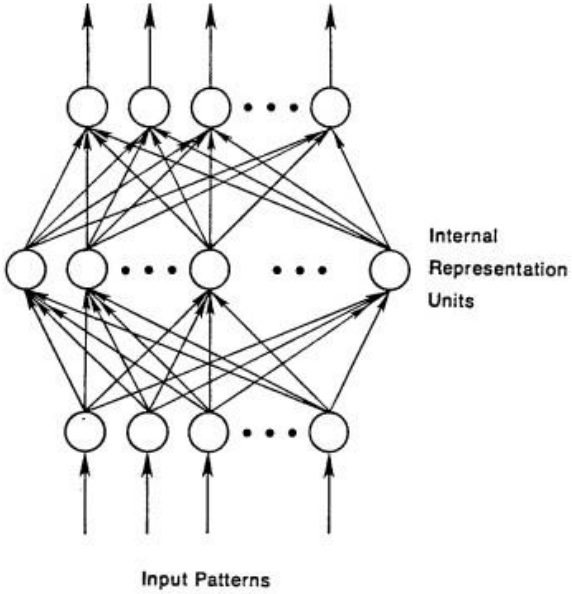






Widrow and Hoff, ~1960: Adaline/Madaline

A bit of history



To be more specific, then, let

$$E_p = \frac{1}{2}\sum_j (t_{pj} - o_{pj})^2 \qquad (2)$$

be our measure of the error on input/output pattern p and let $E = \sum E_p$ be our overall measure of the error. We wish to show that the delta rule implements a gradient descent in E when the units are linear. We will proceed by simply showing that

$$-\frac{\partial E_p}{\partial w_{ji}} = \delta_{pj} i_{pi},$$

which is proportional to $\Delta_p w_{ji}$ as prescribed by the delta rule. When there are no hidden units it is straightforward to compute the relevant derivative. For this purpose we use the chain rule to write the derivative as the product of two parts: the derivative of the error with respect to the output of the unit times the derivative of the output with respect to the weight.

$$\frac{\partial E_p}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_p}{\partial o_{pj}} \frac{\partial o_{pj}}{\partial w_{ji}}. \qquad (3)$$

The first part tells how the error changes with the output of the jth unit and the second part tells how much changing w_{ji} changes that output. Now, the derivatives are easy to compute. First, from Equation 2

$$\frac{\partial E_p}{\partial o_{pj}} = -(t_{pj} - o_{pj}) = -\delta_{pj}. \qquad (4)$$

Not surprisingly, the contribution of unit u_j to the error is simply proportional to δ_{pj}. Moreover, since we have linear units,

$$o_{pj} = \sum_i w_{ji} i_{pi}, \qquad (5)$$

from which we conclude that

$$\frac{\partial o_{pj}}{\partial w_{ji}} = i_{pi}.$$

Thus, substituting back into Equation 3, we see that

$$-\frac{\partial E_p}{\partial w_{ji}} = \delta_{pj} i_i \qquad (6)$$

recognizable maths

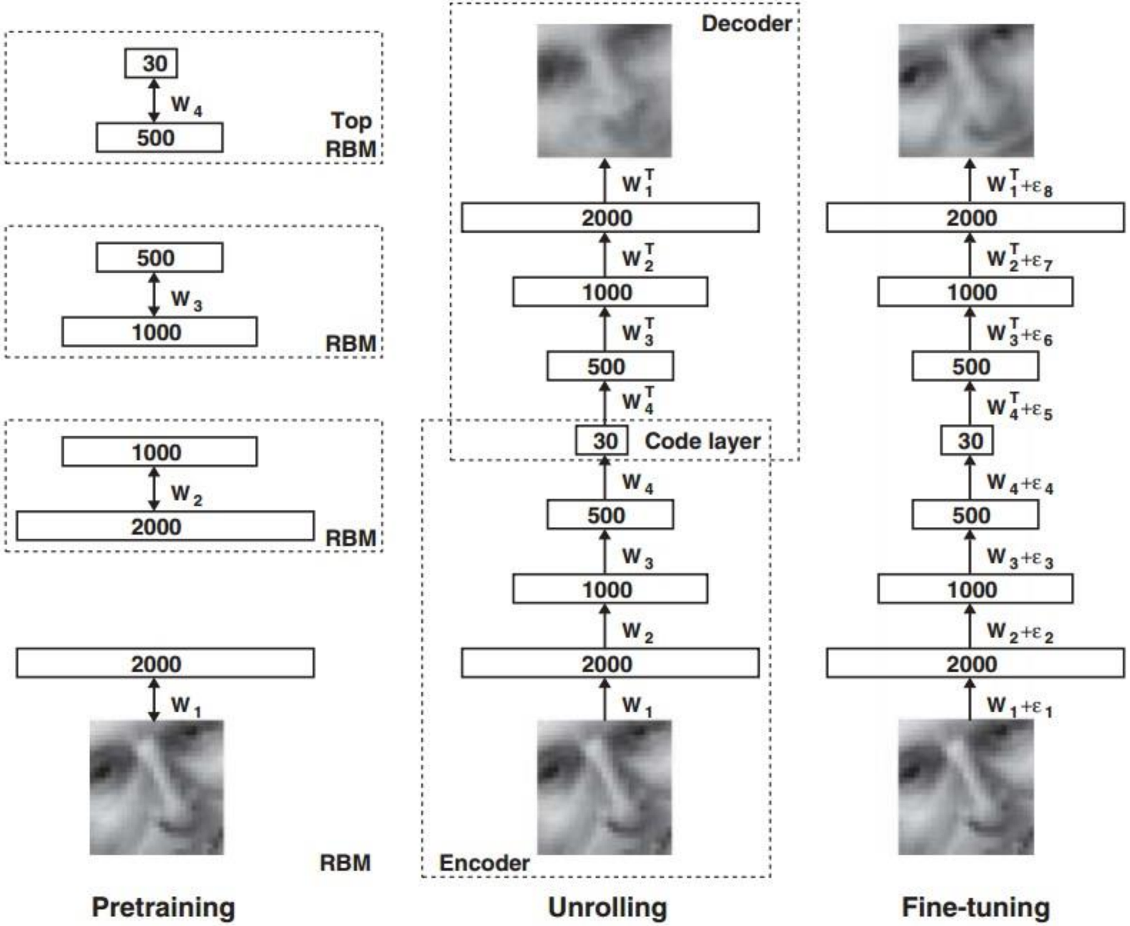
Rumelhart et al. 1986: First time back-propagation became popular

A bit of history

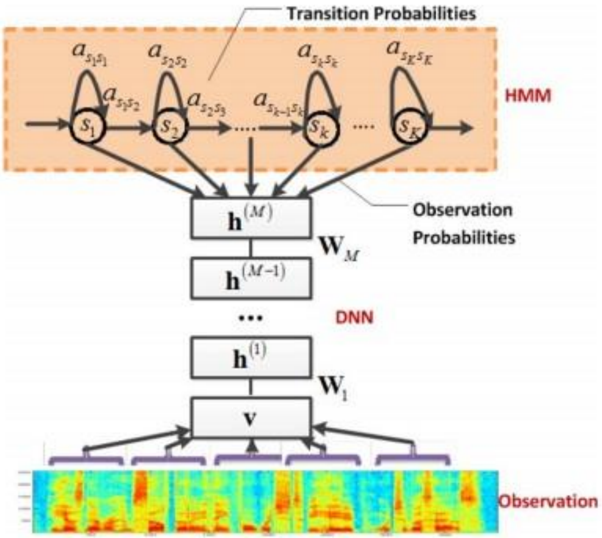
[Hinton and Salakhutdinov 2006]

Reinvigorated research in Deep Learning

NOT NEURAL NETWORKS!

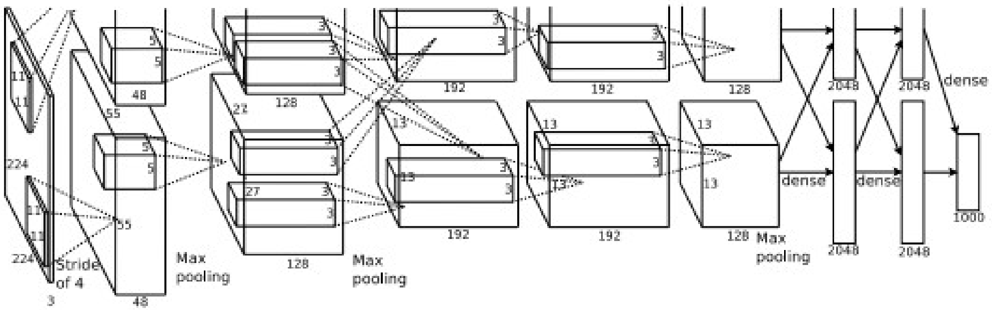


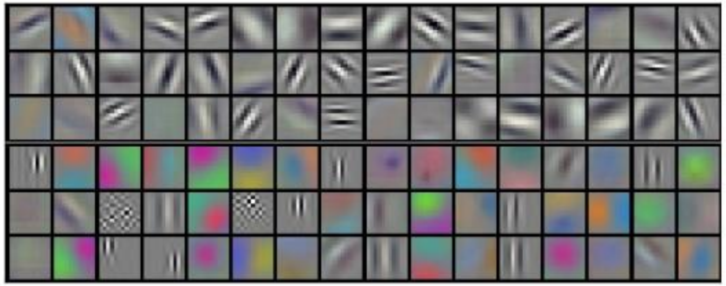
First strong results in neural nets



Context-Dependent Pre-trained Deep Neural Networks for Large Vocabulary Speech Recognition
George Dahl, Dong Yu, Li Deng, Alex Acero, 2010

Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks
Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, Geoffrey E Hinton, 2012

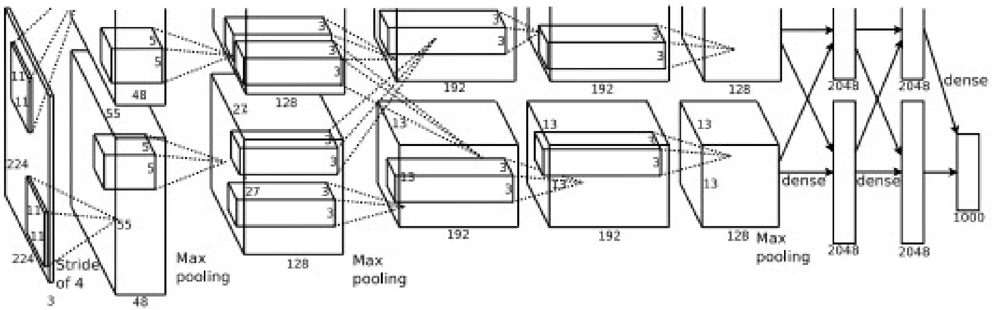


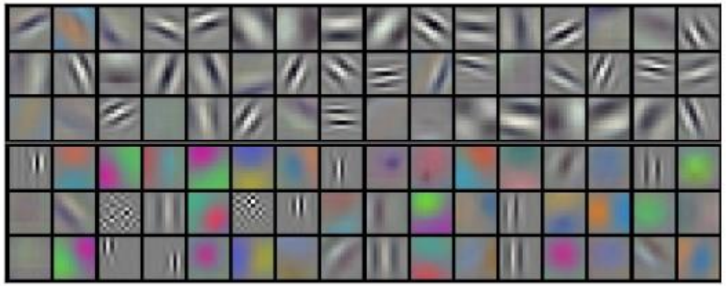


First strong results

Dropout training and ReLU's...

Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks
Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, Geoffrey E Hinton, 2012





Overview

1. **One time setup**
   activation functions, preprocessing, weight initialization, regularization, gradient checking
1. **Training dynamics**
   babysitting the learning process,
   parameter updates, hyperparameter optimization
1. **Evaluation**
   model ensembles

Activation Functions

Activation Function: **Non-linearities**

(**Before**) Linear score function: $f = Wx$

(**Now**) 2-layer Neural Network $f = W_2 \boxed{\max(0,} W_1 x)$

The function $\max(0, z)$ is called the **activation function.**

Q: What if we try to build a neural network without one?

$$f = W_2 W_1 x$$

Activation Function: **Non-linearities**

(**Before**) Linear score function: $f = Wx$

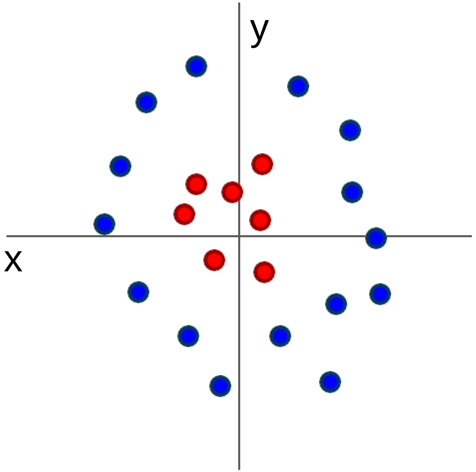
(**Now**) 2-layer Neural Network $f = W_2 \boxed{\max(0,} W_1 x)$

The function $\max(0, z)$ is called the **activation function.**
Q: What if we try to build a neural network without one?

$$f = W_2 W_1 x \qquad W_3 = W_2 W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H}, f = W_3 x$$

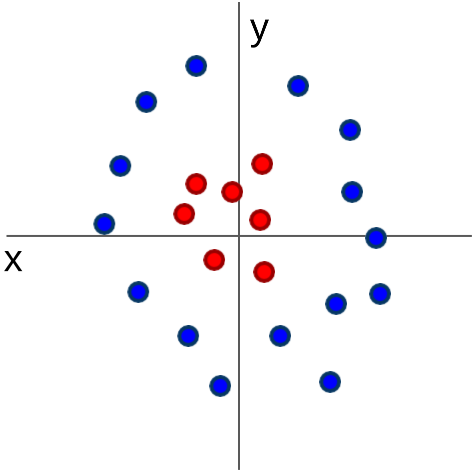
A: We end up with a linear classifier again!

Why do we want non-linearity?



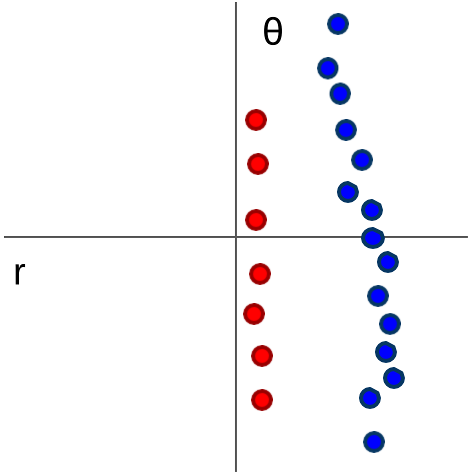
Cannot separate red and blue points with linear classifier

Why do we want non-linearity?



Cannot separate red and blue points with linear classifier

$$f(x, y) = (r(x, y), \theta(x, y))$$

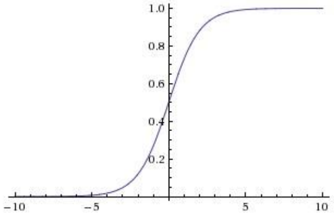


After applying feature transform, points can be separated by linear classifier

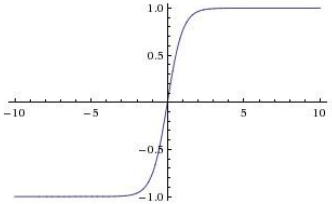
Activation Functions

Sigmoid

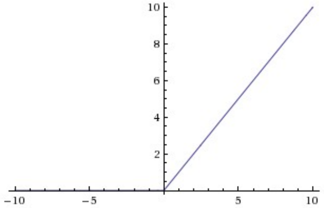
$$\sigma(x) = 1/(1+e^{-x})$$



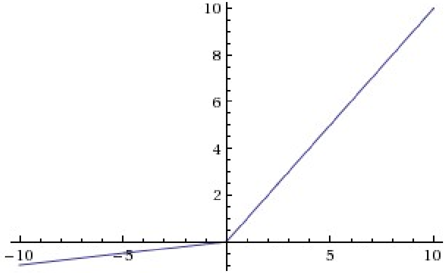
tanh tanh(x)



ReLU max(0,x)



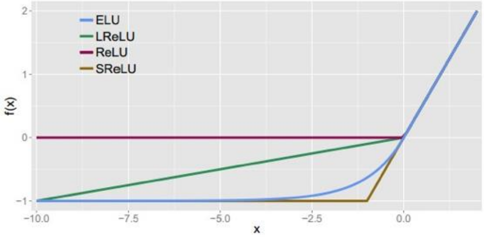
Leaky ReLU
max(0.1x, x)



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

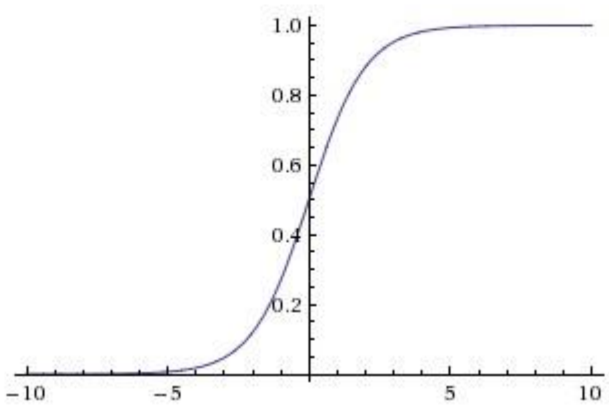
ELU

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



Activation Functions

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

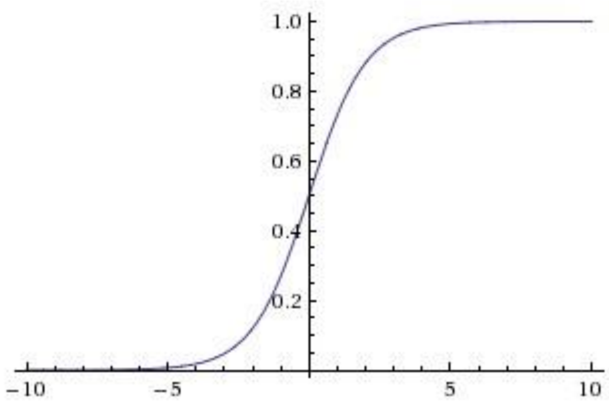


Sigmoid

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

Activation Functions

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



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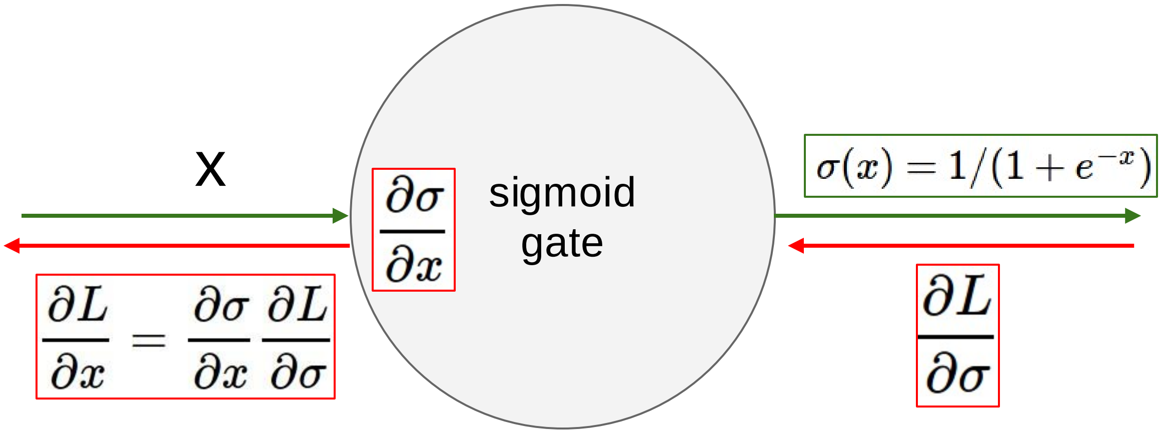
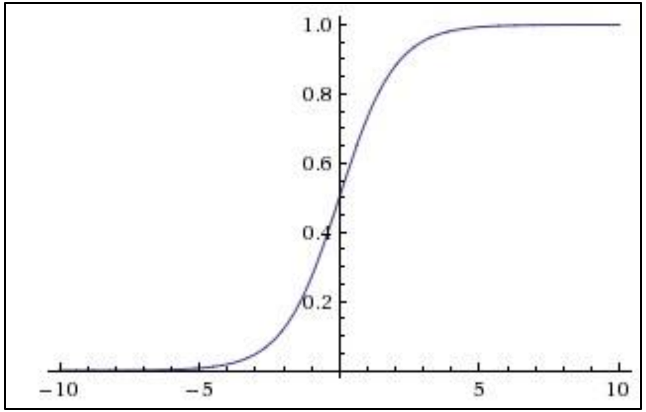
3 problems:

1. Saturated neurons "kill" the gradients

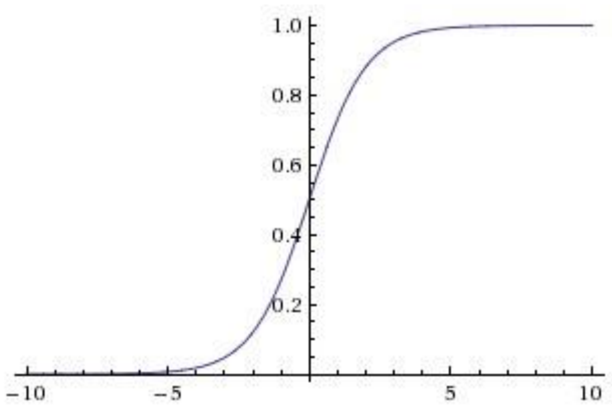




What happens when x = -10?
What happens when x = 0?
What happens when x = 10?

Activation Functions

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



Sigmoid

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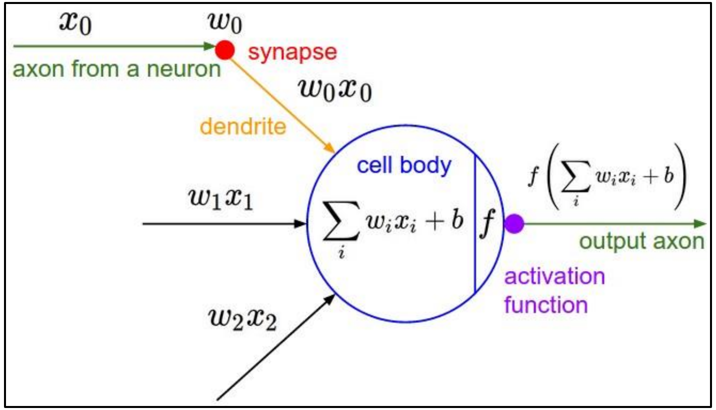
3 problems:

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

Consider what happens when the input to a neuron (x) is always positive:



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

What can we say about gradients with respect to **w**?

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

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w}$$

Let $$y = \sum_i w_i x_i.$$

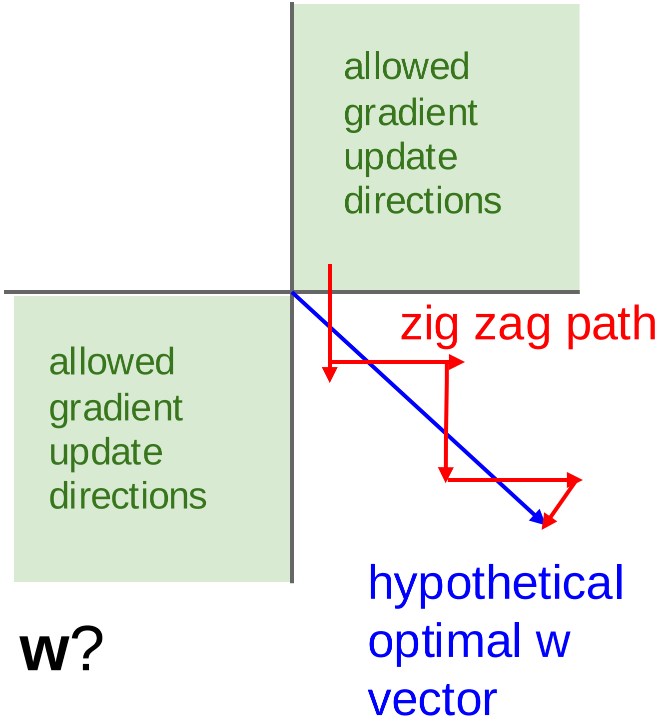
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial w}.$$

Then $$\frac{\partial y}{\partial w} = x.$$

So $$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}x$$

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

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



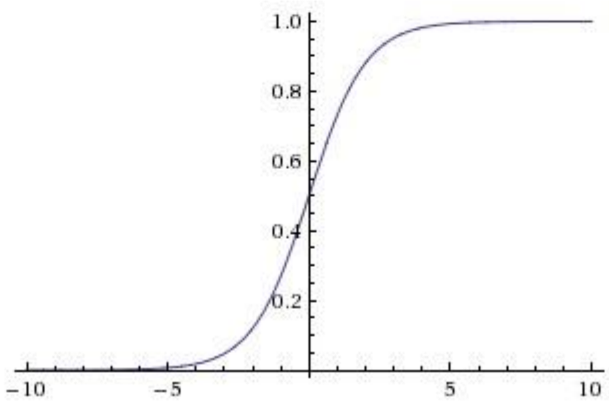
What can we say about the gradients on **w**?

Always all positive or all negative :(

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

Activation Functions

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



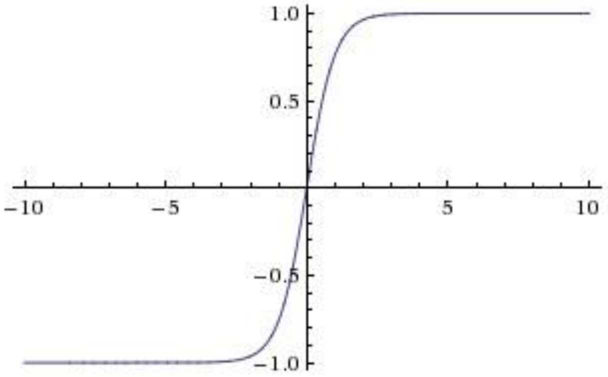
Sigmoid

- Squashes numbers to range [0,1]
- 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

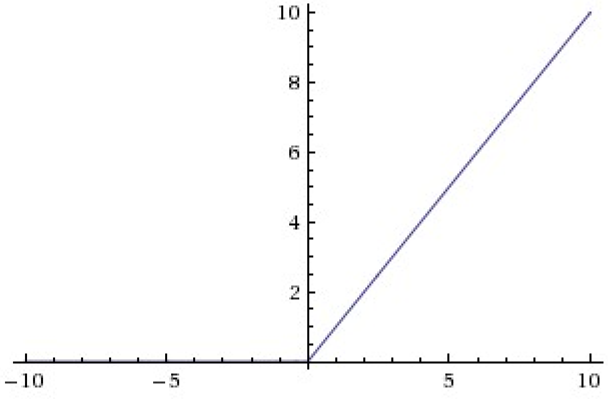


tanh(x)

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

[LeCun et al., 1991]

Activation Functions



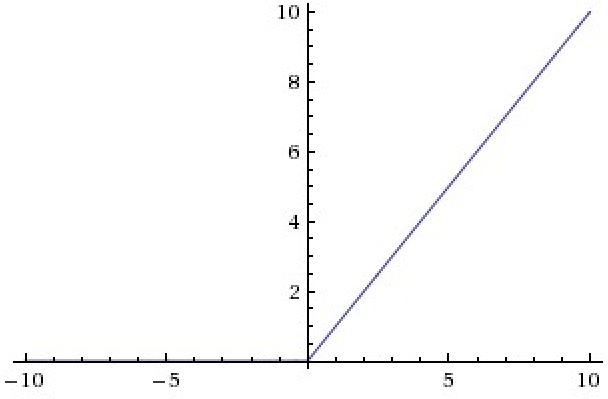
ReLU
(Rectified Linear Unit)

- Computes **f(x) = max(0,x)**

- Does not saturate (in +region)
- Very little computation
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice (e.g. 6x)

[Krizhevsky et al., 2012]

Activation Functions



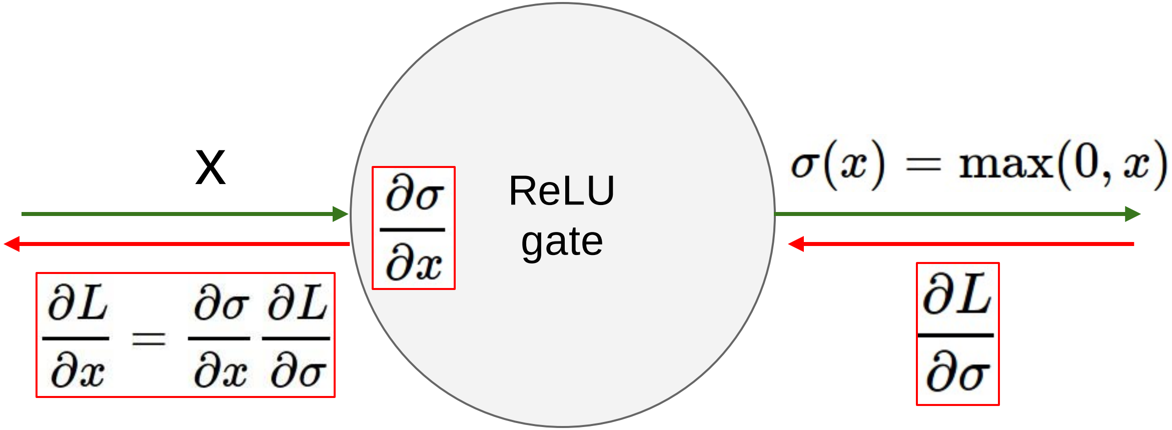
ReLU
(Rectified Linear Unit)

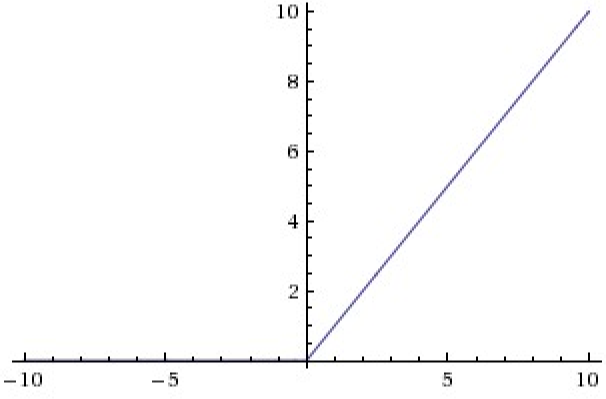
- Computes **f(x) = max(0,x)**

- Does not saturate (in +region)
- Very computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice (e.g. 6x)

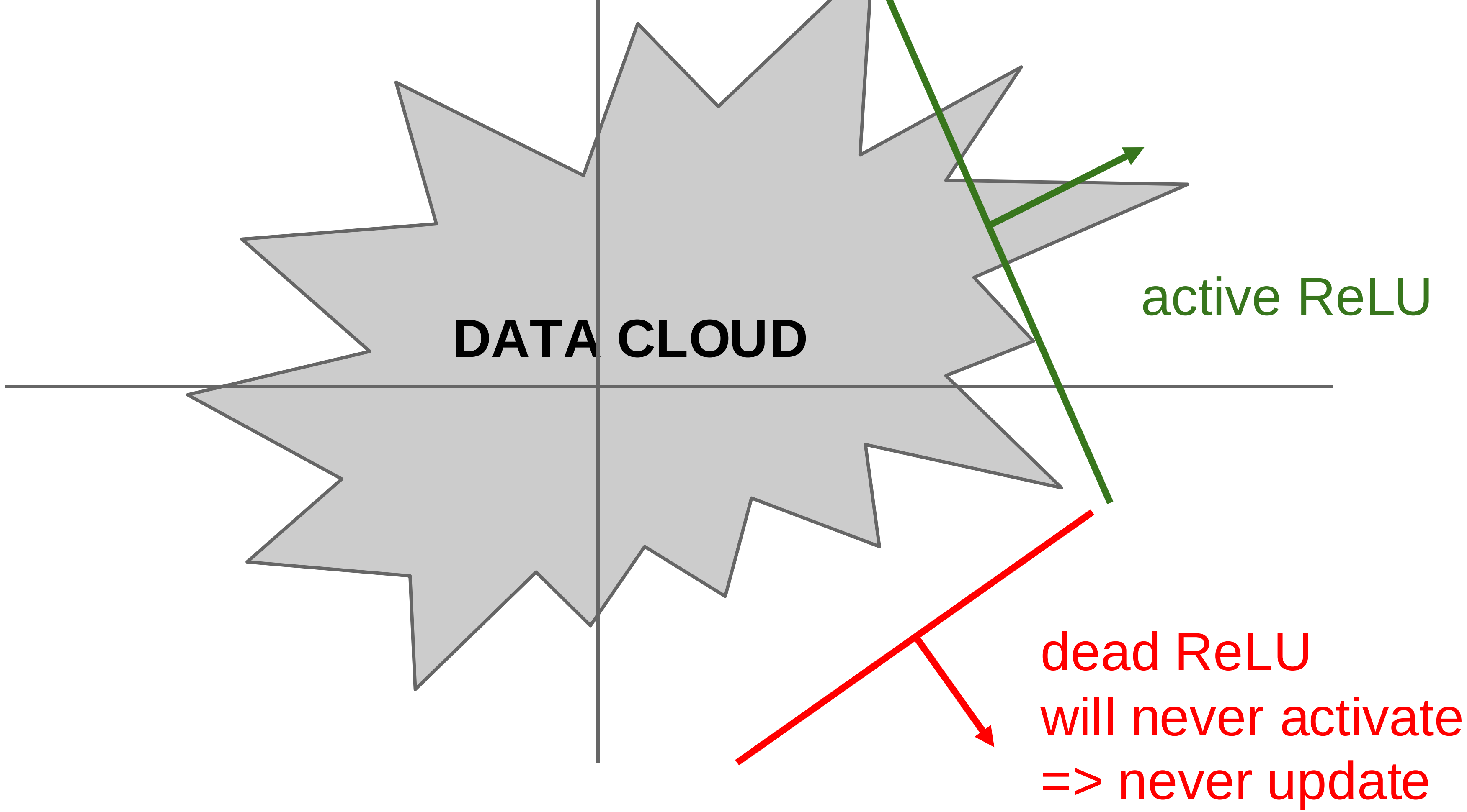
- Not zero-centered output
- An annoyance:

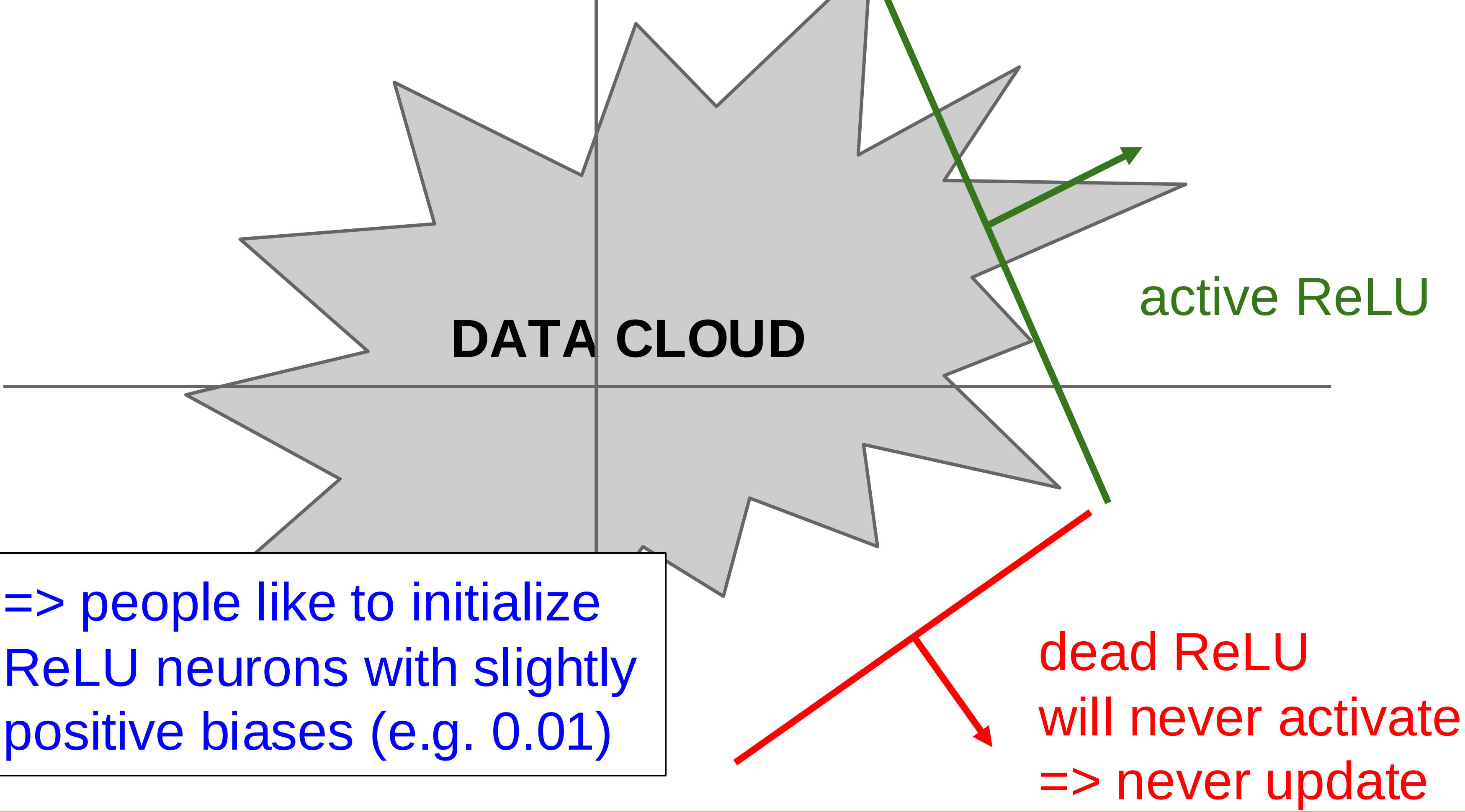
hint: what is the gradient when $x < 0$?





What happens when x = -10?
What happens when x = 0?
What happens when x = 10?

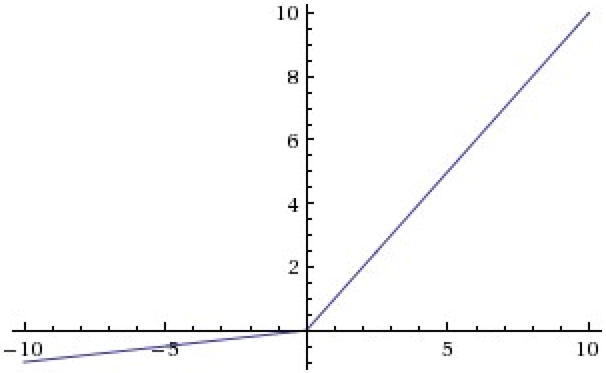

DATA CLOUD
active ReLU
dead ReLU
will never activate
=> never update



=> people like to initialize ReLU neurons with slightly positive biases (e.g. 0.01)

Activation Functions

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

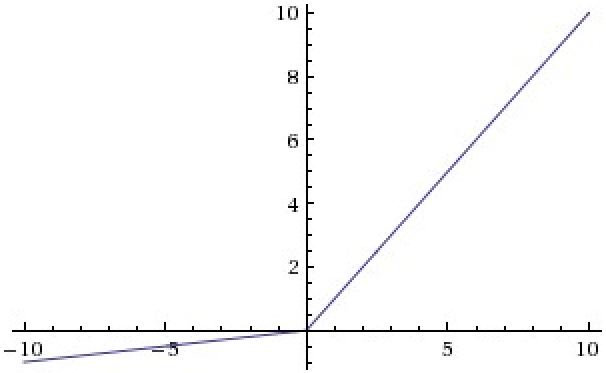


- Does not saturate
- Computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice! (e.g. 6x)
- **will not “die”.**

Leaky ReLU

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

Activation Functions



Leaky ReLU

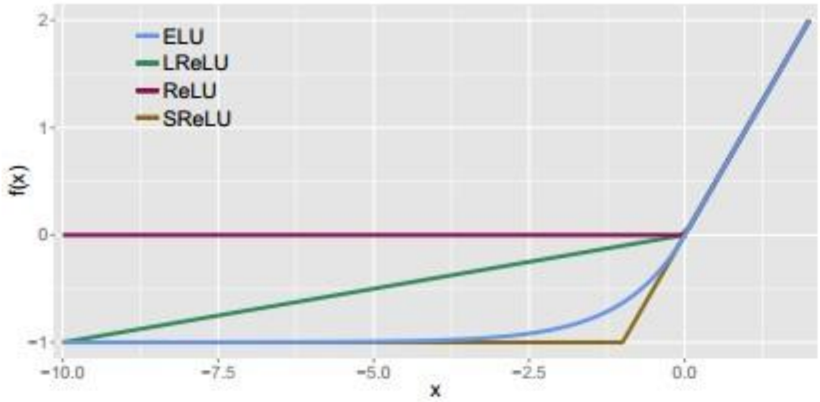
$$f(x) = \max(0.01x, x)$$

- Make up your own parametric rectifier! (Project idea!!!)
  - How about shifting the hinge?
  - How about shifting the slope?
  - How about changing the shape of the right side?
  - How about a diversity of ReLU's. What are pros and cons?

Activation Functions

[Clevert et al., 2015]

Exponential Linear Units (ELU)



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

- Most benefits of ReLU
- Does not die
- Closer to zero mean outputs

- Computation requires exp()

Maxout "Neuron"

[Goodfellow et al., 2013]

- Generalizes ReLU and Leaky ReLU
- Linear Regime! Does not saturate! Does not die!

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

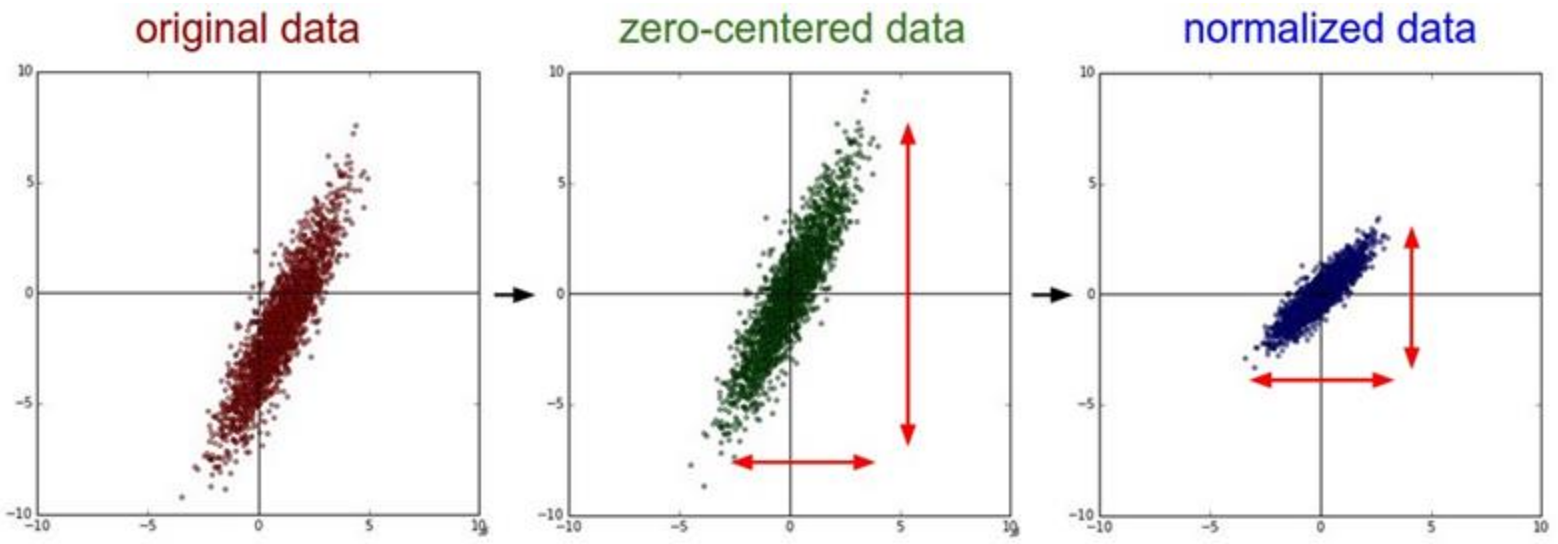
Problem: doubles the number of parameters/neuron :(

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

Step 1: Preprocess the data




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

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

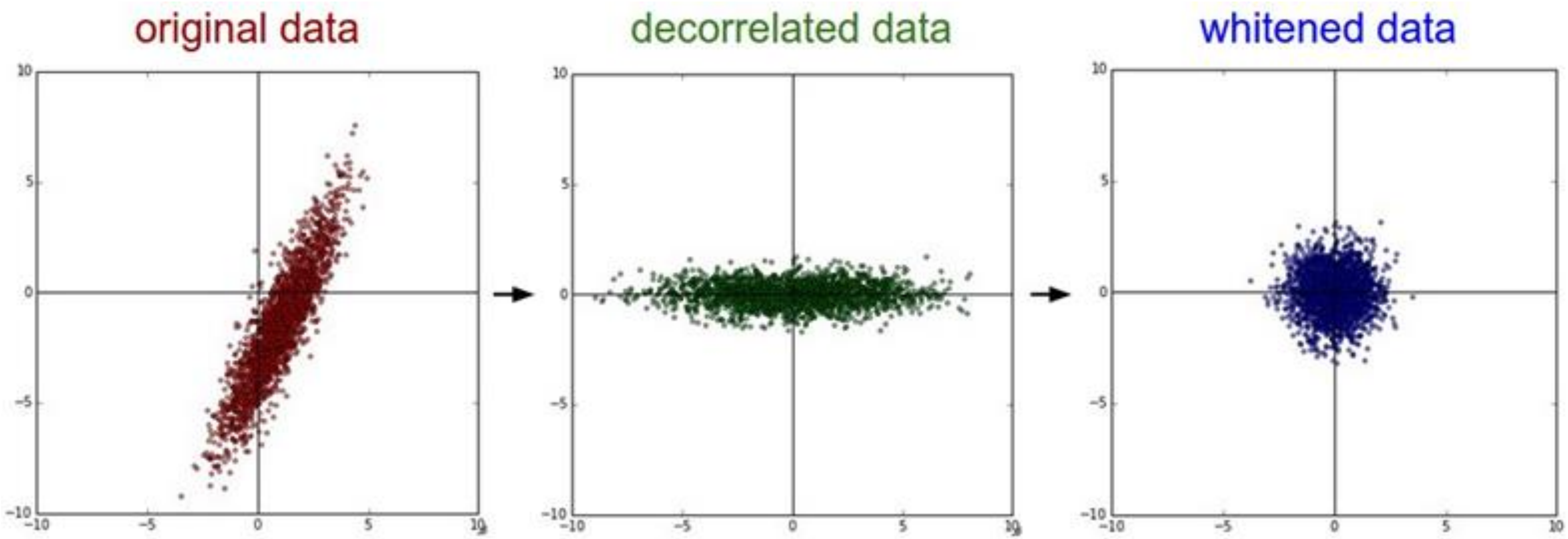
(Assume X [NxD] is data matrix, each example in a row)

Preprocessing: Why are we doing this?

- Subtracting off the mean
    - Avoid gradients that only point in two different orthants.
- Normalizing the magnitude
    - Kilometers vs. millimeters…
        - Invariance to the specific *units* of the inputs...

Step 1: Preprocess the data

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



(data has diagonal covariance matrix)

(covariance matrix is the identity matrix)

In practice for Images: center only

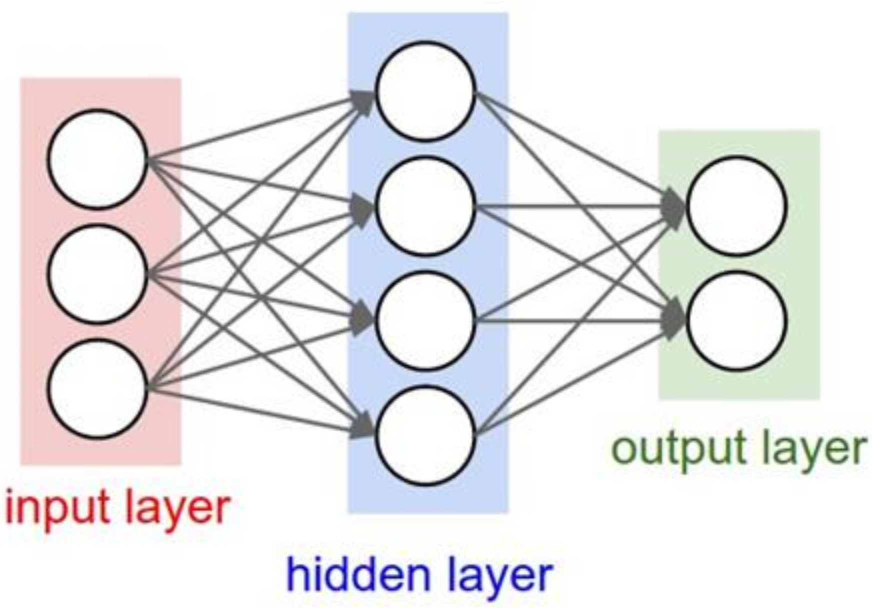
e.g. consider CIFAR-10 example with [32,32,3] images

- 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)

Not common to normalize variance, to do PCA or whitening

Weight Initialization

- Q: what happens when W=0 init is used?



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

```
W = 0.01* np.random.randn(D,H)
```

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

```
W = 0.01* np.random.randn(D,H)
```

Works ~okay for small networks, but can lead to non-homogeneous distributions of activations across the layers of a network.

Let’s look at some activation statistics

E.g. 10-layer net with 500 neurons on each layer, using tanh non-linearities, and initializing as described in last slide.

```
# assume some unit gaussian 10-D input data
D = np.random.randn(1000, 500)
hidden_layer_sizes = [500]*10
nonlinearities = ['tanh']*len(hidden_layer_sizes)
```

```
act = {'relu':lambda x:np.maximum(0,x), 'tanh':lambda x:np.tanh(x)}
Hs = {}
for i in xrange(len(hidden_layer_sizes)):
    X = D if i == 0 else Hs[i-1] # input at this layer
    fan_in = X.shape[1]
    fan_out = hidden_layer_sizes[i]
    W = np.random.randn(fan_in, fan_out) * 0.01 # layer initialization

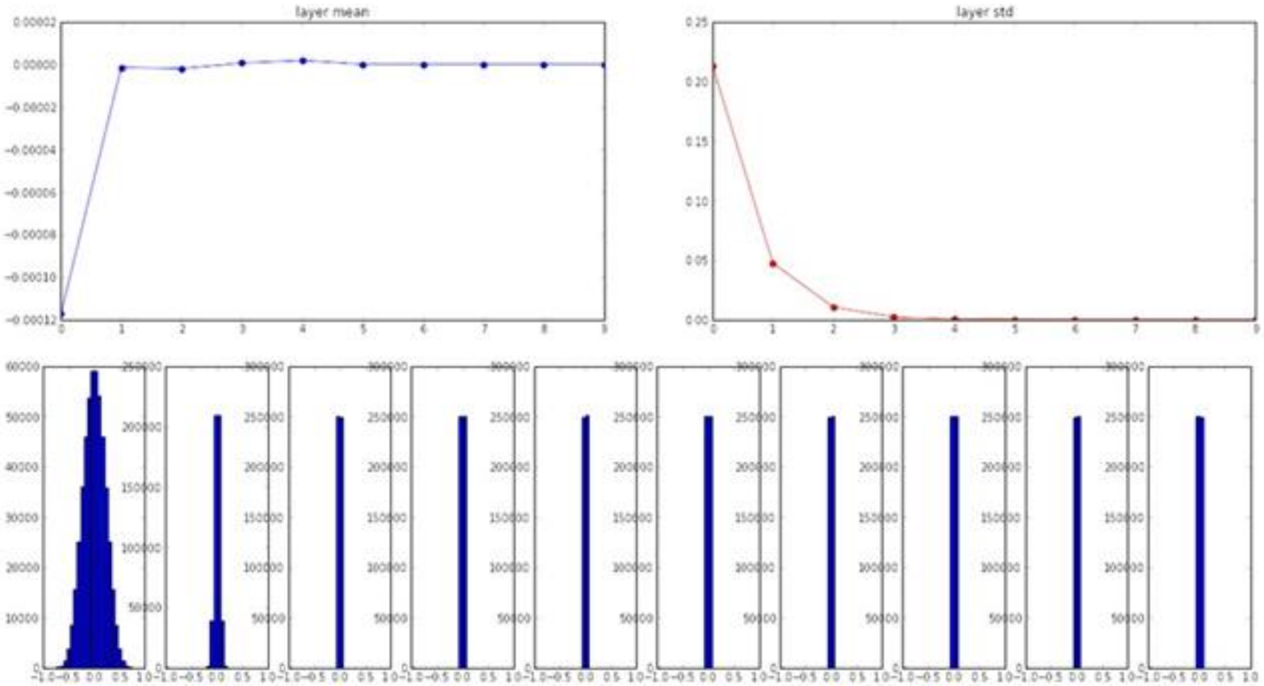
    H = np.dot(X, W) # matrix multiply
    H = act[nonlinearities[i]](H) # nonlinearity
    Hs[i] = H # cache result on this layer
```

```
# look at distributions at each layer
print 'input layer had mean %f and std %f' % (np.mean(D), np.std(D))
layer_means = [np.mean(H) for i,H in Hs.iteritems()]
layer_stds = [np.std(H) for i,H in Hs.iteritems()]
for i,H in Hs.iteritems():
    print 'hidden layer %d had mean %f and std %f' % (i+1, layer_means[i], layer_stds[i])

# plot the means and standard deviations
plt.figure()
plt.subplot(121)
plt.plot(Hs.keys(), layer_means, 'ob-')
plt.title('layer mean')
plt.subplot(122)
plt.plot(Hs.keys(), layer_stds, 'or-')
plt.title('layer std')

# plot the raw distributions
plt.figure()
for i,H in Hs.iteritems():
    plt.subplot(1,len(Hs),i+1)
    plt.hist(H.ravel(), 30, range=(-1,1))
```

```
input layer had mean 0.000927 and std 0.998388
hidden layer 1 had mean -0.000117 and std 0.213081
hidden layer 2 had mean -0.000001 and std 0.047551
hidden layer 3 had mean -0.000002 and std 0.010630
hidden layer 4 had mean 0.000001 and std 0.002378
hidden layer 5 had mean 0.000002 and std 0.000532
hidden layer 6 had mean -0.000000 and std 0.000119
hidden layer 7 had mean 0.000000 and std 0.000026
hidden layer 8 had mean -0.000000 and std 0.000006
hidden layer 9 had mean 0.000000 and std 0.000001
hidden layer 10 had mean -0.000000 and std 0.000000
```



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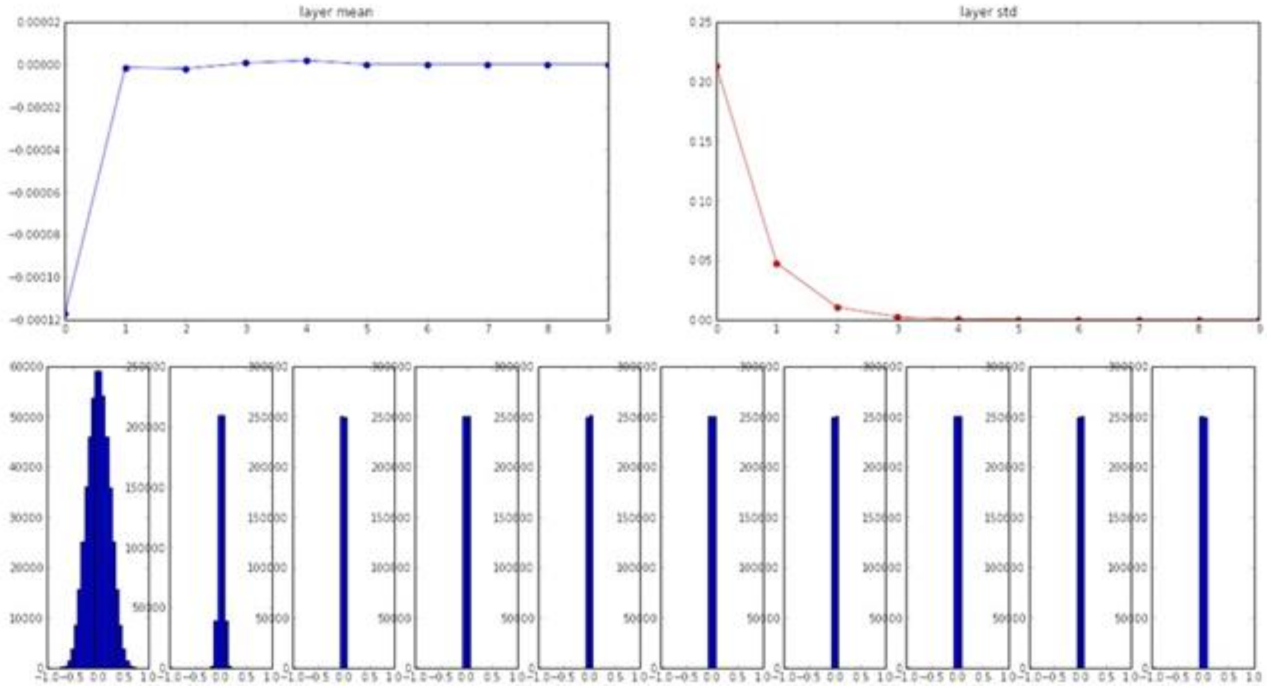
hidden layer 8 had mean -0.000000 and std 0.000006
hidden layer 9 had mean 0.000000 and std 0.000001
hidden layer 10 had mean -0.000000 and std 0.000000
```



All activations become zero!

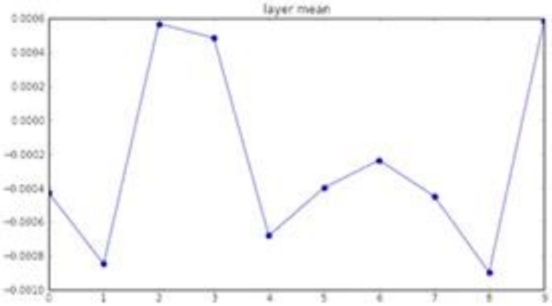
Q: think about the backward pass. What do the gradients look like?

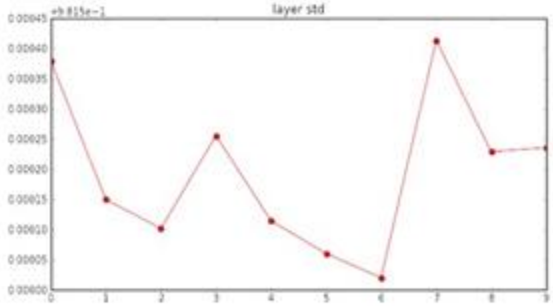
Hint: think about backward pass for a W*X gate.

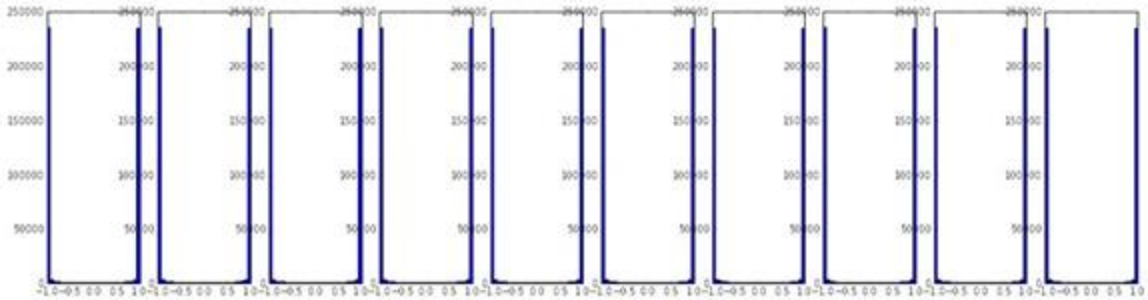
```python
W = np.random.randn(fan_in, fan_out) * 1.0 # layer initialization
```

*1.0 instead of *0.01

```
input layer had mean 0.001800 and std 1.001311
hidden layer 1 had mean -0.000430 and std 0.981879
hidden layer 2 had mean -0.000849 and std 0.981649
hidden layer 3 had mean 0.000566 and std 0.981601
hidden layer 4 had mean 0.000483 and std 0.981755
hidden layer 5 had mean -0.000682 and std 0.981614
hidden layer 6 had mean -0.000401 and std 0.981560
hidden layer 7 had mean -0.000237 and std 0.981520
hidden layer 8 had mean -0.000448 and std 0.981913
hidden layer 9 had mean -0.000899 and std 0.981728
hidden layer 10 had mean 0.000584 and std 0.981736
```





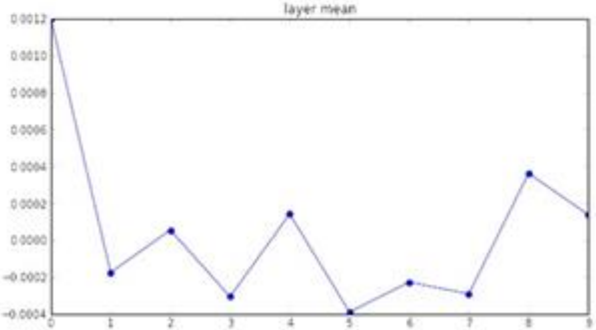


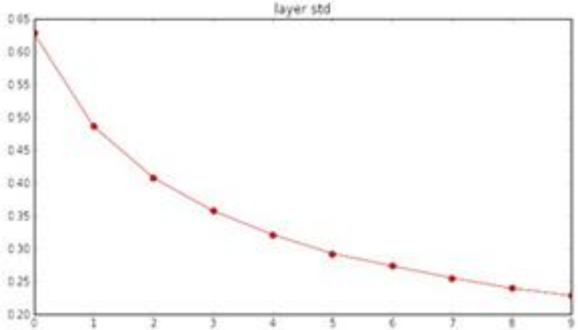
Almost all neurons completely saturated, either -1 and 1. Gradients will be all zero.

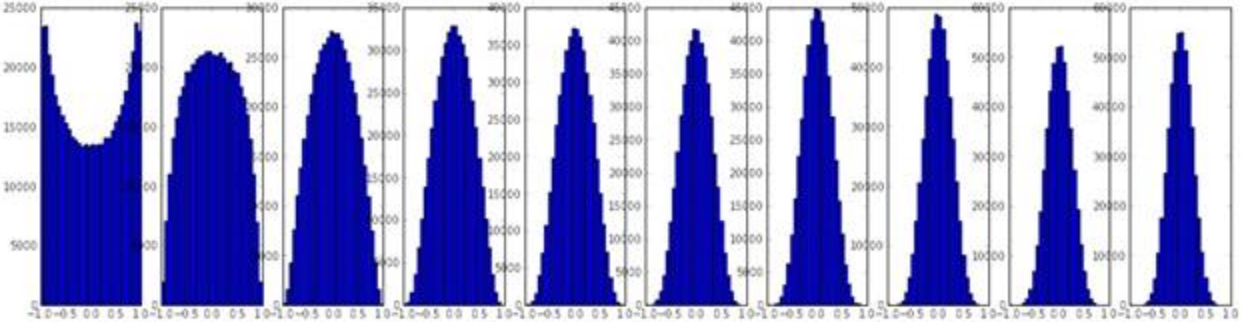
```
input layer had mean 0.001800 and std 1.001311
hidden layer 1 had mean 0.001198 and std 0.627953
hidden layer 2 had mean -0.000175 and std 0.486051
hidden layer 3 had mean 0.000055 and std 0.407723
hidden layer 4 had mean -0.000306 and std 0.357108
hidden layer 5 had mean 0.000142 and std 0.320917
hidden layer 6 had mean -0.000389 and std 0.292116
hidden layer 7 had mean -0.000228 and std 0.273387
hidden layer 8 had mean -0.000291 and std 0.254935
hidden layer 9 had mean 0.000361 and std 0.239266
hidden layer 10 had mean 0.000139 and std 0.228008
```

```
W = np.random.randn(fan_in, fan_out) / np.sqrt(fan_in) # layer initialization
```

"Xavier initialization"
[Glorot et al., 2010]





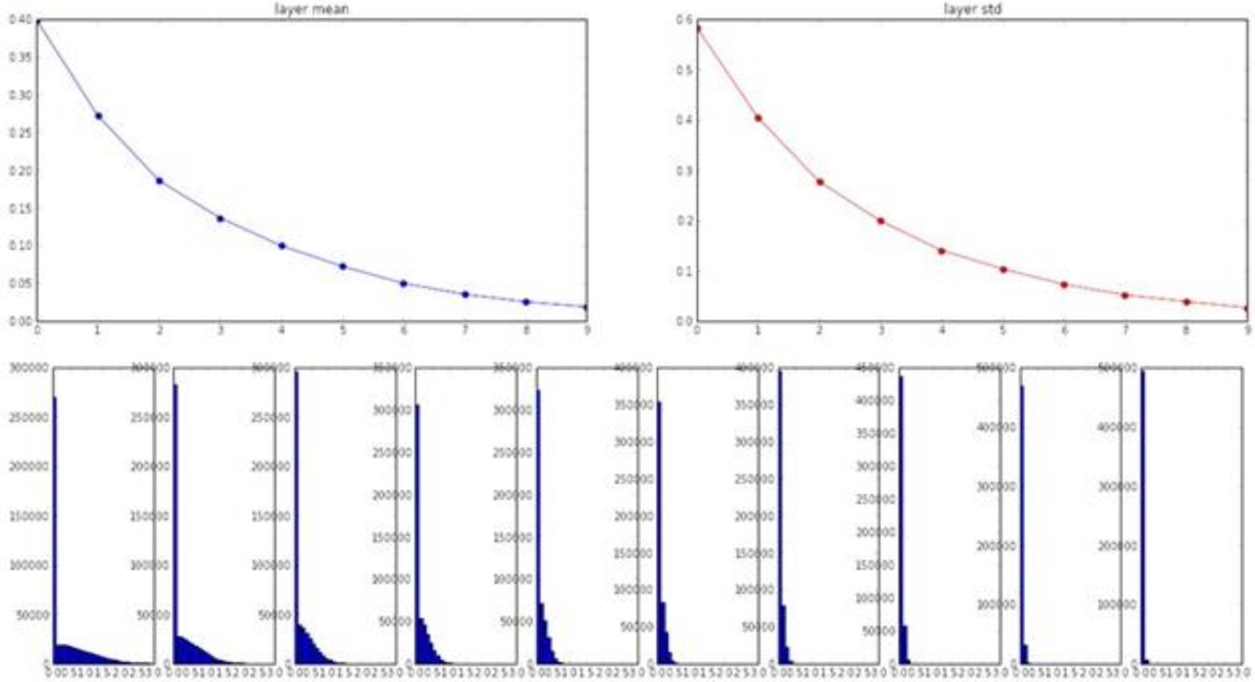


Reasonable initialization.
(Mathematical derivation assumes linear activations)

```
input layer had mean 0.000501 and std 0.999444
hidden layer 1 had mean 0.398623 and std 0.582273
hidden layer 2 had mean 0.272352 and std 0.403795
hidden layer 3 had mean 0.186076 and std 0.276912
hidden layer 4 had mean 0.136442 and std 0.198685
hidden layer 5 had mean 0.099568 and std 0.140299
hidden layer 6 had mean 0.072234 and std 0.103280
hidden layer 7 had mean 0.049775 and std 0.072748
hidden layer 8 had mean 0.035138 and std 0.051572
hidden layer 9 had mean 0.025404 and std 0.038583
hidden layer 10 had mean 0.018408 and std 0.026076
```

```
W = np.random.randn(fan_in, fan_out) / np.sqrt(fan_in) # layer initialization
```

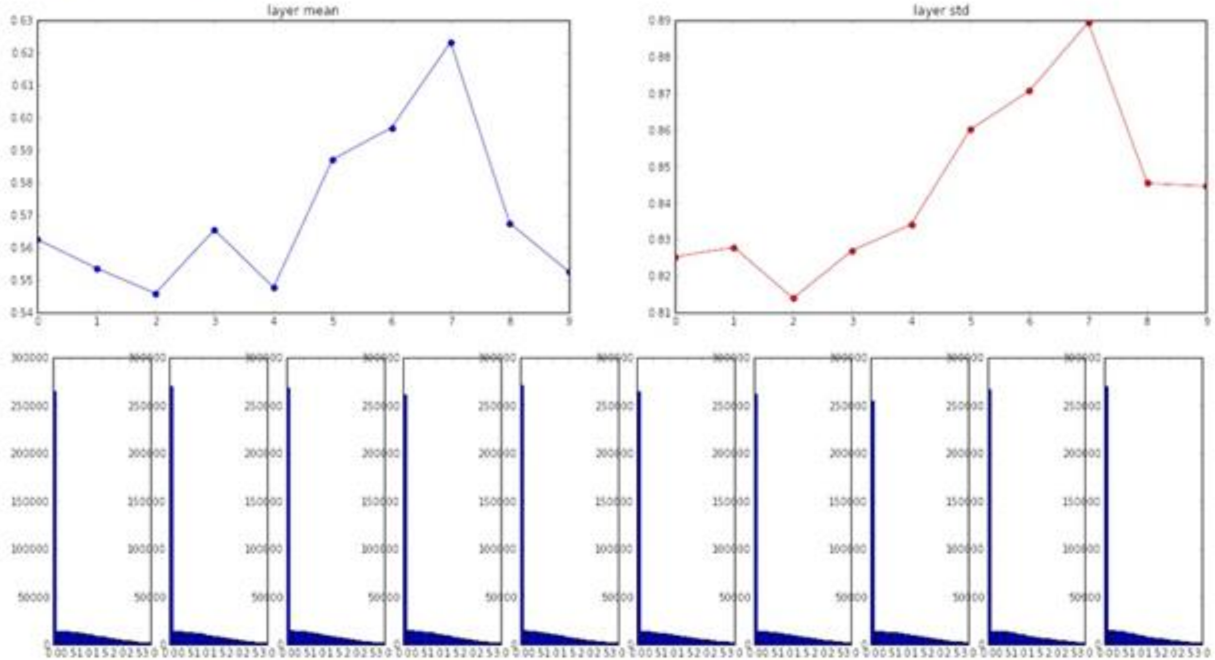
but when using the ReLU nonlinearity it breaks.



```
input layer had mean 0.000501 and std 0.999444
hidden layer 1 had mean 0.562488 and std 0.825232
hidden layer 2 had mean 0.553614 and std 0.827835
hidden layer 3 had mean 0.545867 and std 0.813855
hidden layer 4 had mean 0.565396 and std 0.826902
hidden layer 5 had mean 0.547678 and std 0.834092
hidden layer 6 had mean 0.587103 and std 0.860035
hidden layer 7 had mean 0.596867 and std 0.870610
hidden layer 8 had mean 0.623214 and std 0.889348
hidden layer 9 had mean 0.567498 and std 0.845357
hidden layer 10 had mean 0.552531 and std 0.844523
```

```python
W = np.random.randn(fan_in, fan_out) / np.sqrt(fan_in/2) # layer initialization
```

He et al., 2015
(note additional /2)



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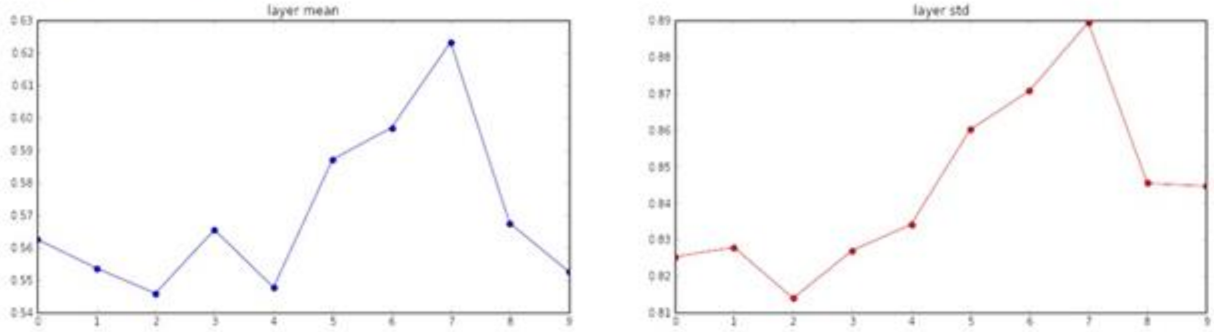
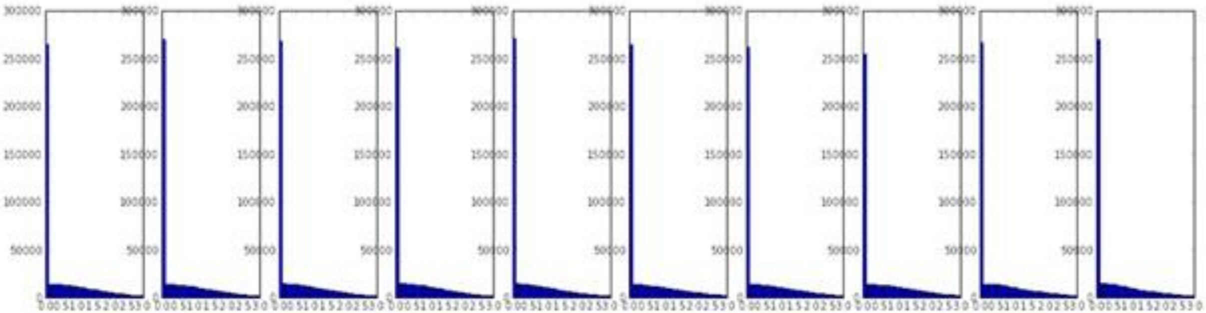
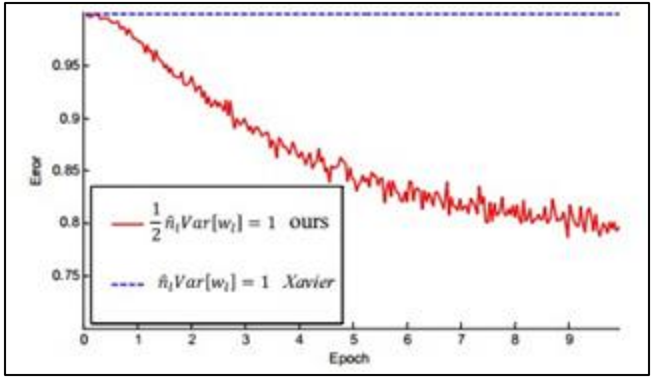






Proper initialization is an active area of research…

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

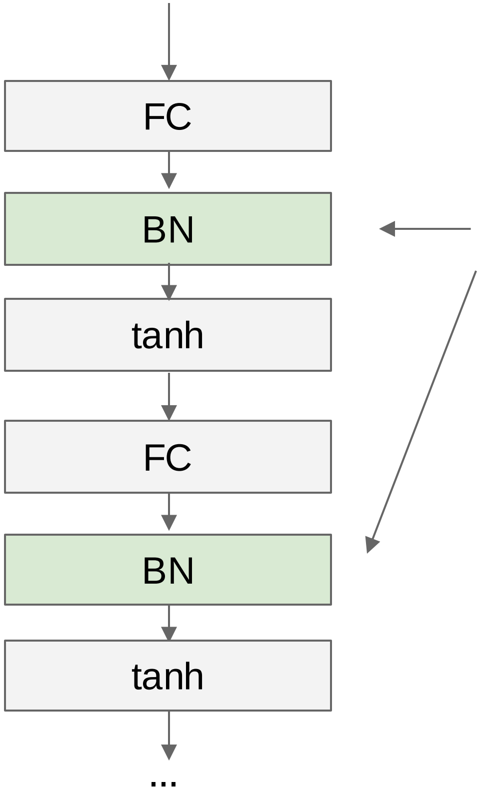
Delving deep into rectifiers: Surpassing human-level performance on ImageNet classification by He et al., 2015

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

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

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]



Usually inserted after Fully Connected / (or Convolutional, as we'll see soon) layers, and before nonlinearity.

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

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

"you want unit Gaussian activations? just make them so."
Not actually "Gaussian". Just zero mean, unit variance.

consider a batch of activations at some layer. To make each dimension unit normalized, apply:

Rambilas Varma

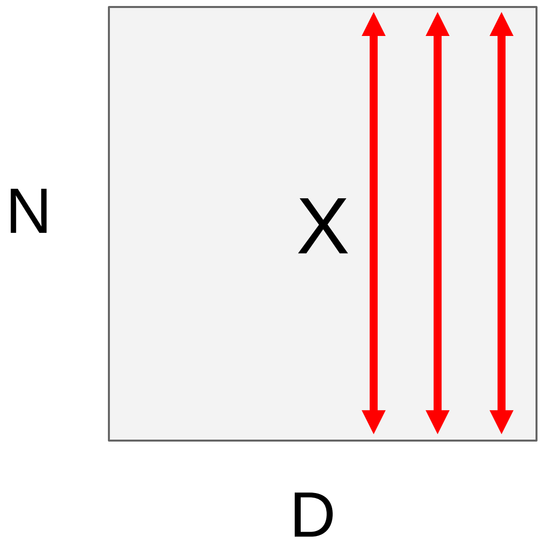
$$\widehat{x}^{(k)} = \frac{x^{(k)} - \mathrm{E}[x^{(k)}]}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}[x^{(k)}]}}$$

this is a vanilla differentiable function...

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

"you want unit Gaussian activations?
just make them so." (you want NORMALIZED activations)



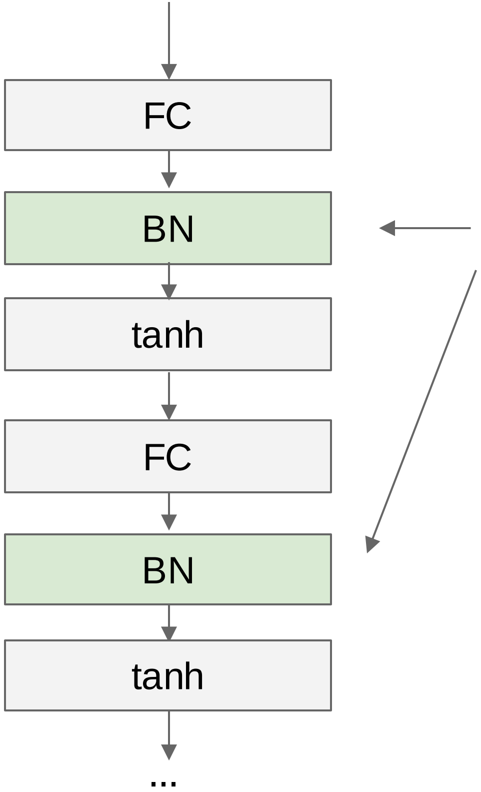
1. compute the empirical mean and variance independently for each dimension.

2. Normalize

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

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]



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

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

Normalize:

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

And then allow the network to squash the range if it wants to:

$$y^{(k)} = \gamma^{(k)} \widehat{x}^{(k)} + \beta^{(k)}$$

Note, the network can learn:

$$\gamma^{(k)} = \sqrt{\mathrm{Var}[x^{(k)}]}$$

$$\beta^{(k)} = \mathrm{E}[x^{(k)}]$$

to recover the identity mapping.

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

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

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

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

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

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

$$y_i \leftarrow \gamma\widehat{x}_i + \beta \equiv \text{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i) \qquad \text{// scale and shift}$$

- Improves gradient flow through the network
- Allows higher learning rates
- Reduces the strong dependence on initialization
- Acts as a form of regularization in a funny way, and slightly reduces the need for dropout, maybe

Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

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

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

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

$$y_i \leftarrow \gamma \widehat{x}_i + \beta \equiv \text{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i) \qquad \text{// scale and shift}$$

Note: at test time BatchNorm layer functions differently:

The mean/std are not computed based on the batch. Instead, a single fixed empirical mean of activations during training is used.

(e.g. can be estimated during training with running averages)