



# Training Neural Networks: Optimization: Part 2

Intro to Deep Learning, Spring 2019

# Story so far

- SGD: Presenting training instances one-at-a-time can be more effective than full-batch training
  - Provided they are provided in random order
- For SGD to converge, the learning rate must shrink sufficiently rapidly with iterations
  - Otherwise the learning will continuously “chase” the latest sample
- SGD estimates have higher variance than batch estimates
- Minibatch updates operate on *batches* of instances at a time
  - Estimates have lower variance than SGD
  - Convergence rate is theoretically worse than SGD
  - But we compensate by being able to perform batch processing

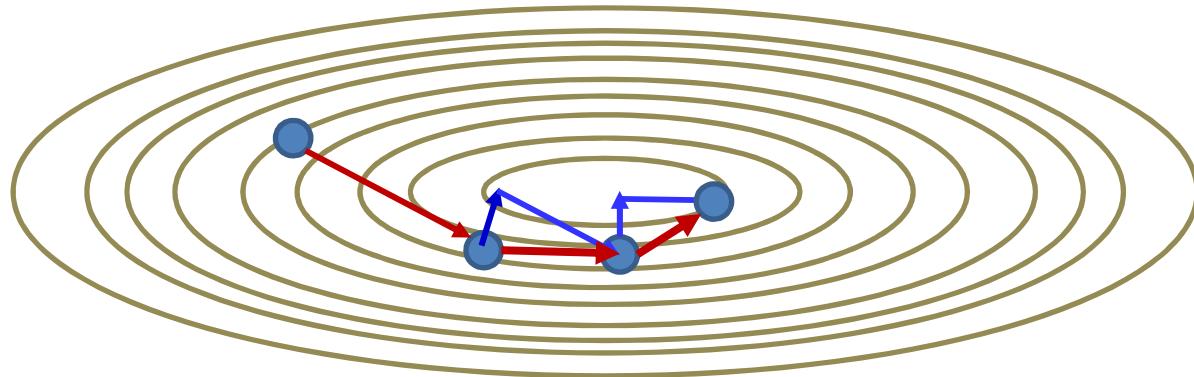
# Training and minibatches

- Convergence depends on learning rate
  - Simple technique: fix learning rate until the error plateaus, then reduce learning rate by a fixed factor (e.g. 10)
  - ***Advanced methods:*** Adaptive updates, where the learning rate is itself determined as part of the estimation

# Moving on: Topics for the day

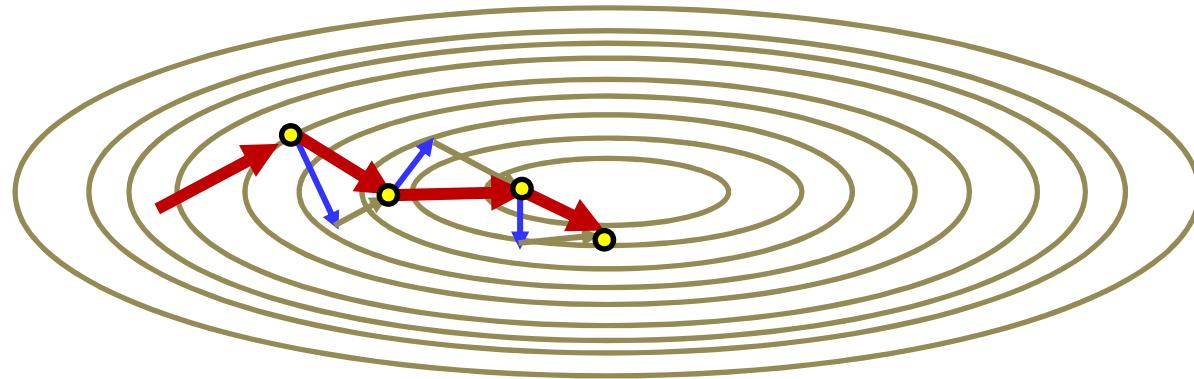
- Incremental updates
- Revisiting “trend” algorithms
- Generalization
- Tricks of the trade
  - Divergences..
  - Activations
  - Normalizations

# Recall: Momentum



- The momentum method
$$\Delta W^{(k)} = \beta \Delta W^{(k-1)} - \eta \nabla_W Err(W^{(k-1)})$$
- Updates using a running average of the gradient

# Momentum and incremental updates



- The momentum method

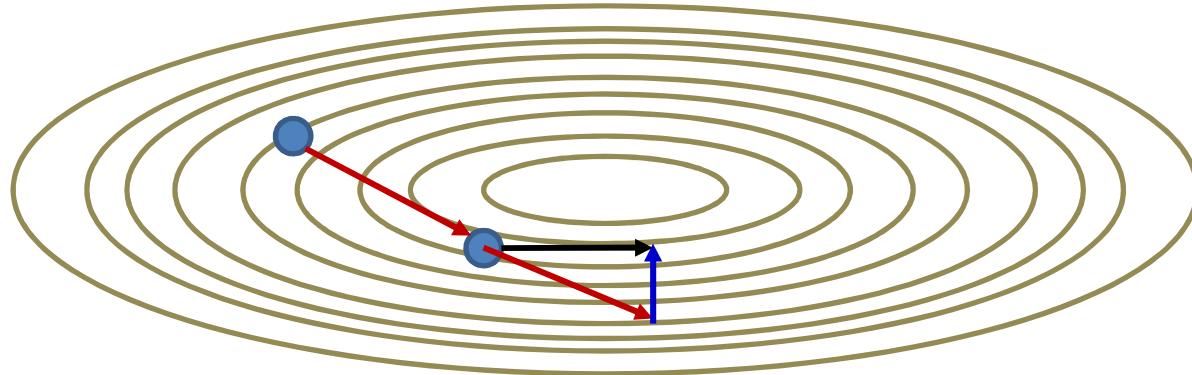
$$\Delta W^{(k)} = \beta \Delta W^{(k-1)} - \eta \nabla_W Err(W^{(k-1)})$$

- Incremental SGD and mini-batch gradients tend to have high variance
- Momentum smooths out the variations
  - Smoother and faster convergence

# Incremental Update: Mini-batch update

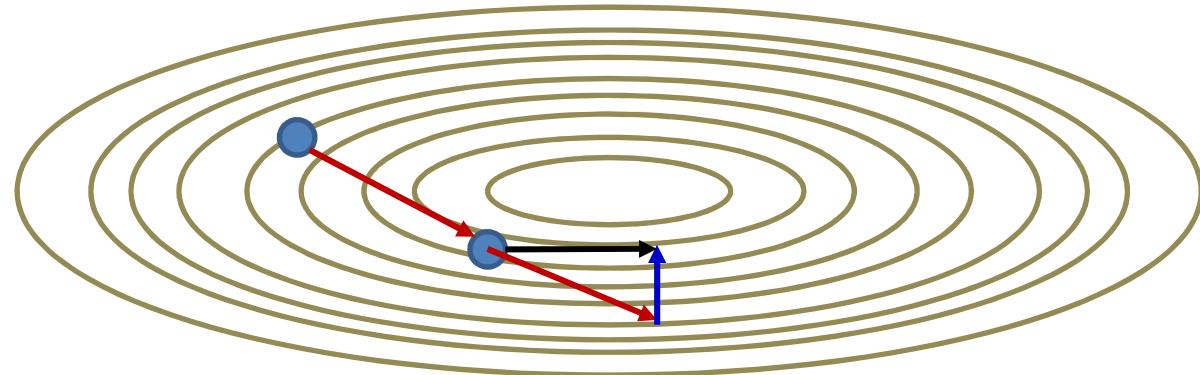
- Given  $(X_1, d_1), (X_2, d_2), \dots, (X_T, d_T)$
- Initialize all weights  $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K; j = 0, \Delta W_k = 0$
- Do:
  - Randomly permute  $(X_1, d_1), (X_2, d_2), \dots, (X_T, d_T)$
  - For  $t = 1:b:T$ 
    - $j = j + 1$
    - For every layer  $k$ :
      - $\nabla_{W_k} Err = 0$
    - For  $t' = t : t+b-1$ 
      - For every layer  $k$ :
        - » Compute  $\nabla_{W_k} Div(Y_t, d_t)$
        - »  $\nabla_{W_k} Err += \frac{1}{b} \nabla_{W_k} Div(Y_t, d_t)$
    - Update
      - For every layer  $k$ :
$$\Delta W_k = \beta \Delta W_k - \eta_j \nabla_{W_k} Err$$
$$W_k = W_k + \Delta W_k$$
  - Until  $Err$  has converged

# Nestorov's Accelerated Gradient



- At any iteration, to compute the current step:
  - First extend the previous step
  - Then compute the gradient at the resultant position
  - Add the two to obtain the final step
- This also applies directly to incremental update methods
  - The accelerated gradient smooths out the variance in the gradients

# Nestorov's Accelerated Gradient



- Nestorov's method

$$\Delta W^{(k)} = \beta \Delta W^{(k-1)} - \eta \nabla_W Err(W^{(k-1)} + \beta \Delta W^{(k-1)})$$
$$W^{(k)} = W^{(k-1)} + \Delta W^{(k)}$$

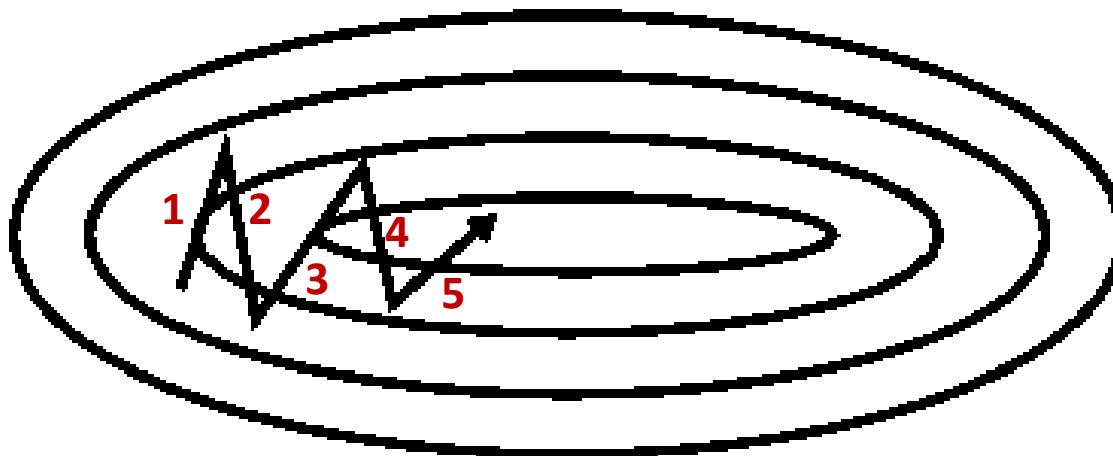
# Incremental Update: Mini-batch update

- Given  $(X_1, d_1), (X_2, d_2), \dots, (X_T, d_T)$
- Initialize all weights  $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K$ ;  $j = 0, \Delta W_k = 0$
- Do:
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  - For  $t = 1:b:T$ 
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    - Update
      - For every layer  $k$ :
$$W_k = W_k - \eta_j \nabla_{W_k} Err$$
$$\Delta W_k = \beta \Delta W_k - \eta_j \nabla_{W_k} Err$$
  - Until  $Err$  has converged

# More recent methods

- Several newer methods have been proposed that follow the general pattern of enhancing long-term trends to smooth out the variations of the mini-batch gradient
  - RMS Prop
  - Adagrad
  - AdaDelta
  - ADAM: very popular in practice
  - ...
- All roughly equivalent in performance

# Smoothing the trajectory



Step	X component	Y component
1	1	+2.5
2	1	-3
3	3	+2.5
4	1	-2
5	2	1.5

- Simple gradient and acceleration methods still demonstrate oscillatory behavior in some directions
- Observation: Steps in “oscillatory” directions show large total movement
  - In the example, total motion in the vertical direction is much greater than in the horizontal direction
- Improvement: Dampen step size in directions with high motion
  - ***Second order term***

# Variance-normalized step



- In recent past
  - Total movement in  $Y$  component of updates is high
  - Movement in  $X$  components is lower
- Current update, modify usual gradient-based update:
  - Scale *down*  $Y$  component
  - Scale *up*  $X$  component
  - *According to their variation (and not just their average)*
- A variety of algorithms have been proposed on this premise
  - We will see a popular example

# RMS Prop

- Notation:
  - Updates are *by parameter*
  - Sum derivative of divergence w.r.t any individual parameter  $w$  is shown as  $\partial_w D$
  - The *squared* derivative is  $\partial_w^2 D = (\partial_w D)^2$ 
    - Short-hand notation represents the squared derivative, not the second derivative
  - The *mean squared* derivative is a running estimate of the average squared derivative. We will show this as  $E[\partial_w^2 D]$
- Modified update rule: We want to
  - scale down updates with large mean squared derivatives
  - scale up updates with small mean squared derivatives

# RMS Prop

- This is a variant on the *basic* mini-batch SGD algorithm
- **Procedure:**
  - Maintain a running estimate of the mean squared value of derivatives for each parameter
  - Scale update of the parameter by the *inverse* of the *root mean squared* derivative

$$E[\partial_w^2 D]_k = \gamma E[\partial_w^2 D]_{k-1} + (1 - \gamma)(\partial_w^2 D)_k$$

$$w_{k+1} = w_k - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[\partial_w^2 D]_k + \epsilon}} \partial_w D$$

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Note similarity to RPROP  
The magnitude of the derivative is being normalized out

# RMS Prop (updates are for each weight of each layer)

- Do:
  - Randomly shuffle inputs to change their order
  - Initialize:  $k = 1$ ; for all weights  $w$  in all layers,  $E[\partial_w^2 D]_k = 0$
  - For all  $t = 1:B:T$  (incrementing in blocks of  $B$  inputs)
    - For all weights in all layers initialize  $(\partial_w D)_k = 0$
    - For  $b = 0:B-1$ 
      - Compute
        - » Output  $\mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{X}_{t+b})$
        - » Compute gradient  $\frac{d\text{Div}(\mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{X}_{t+b}), \mathbf{d}_{t+b})}{dw}$
        - » Compute  $(\partial_w D)_k += \frac{1}{B} \frac{d\text{Div}(\mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{X}_{t+b}), \mathbf{d}_{t+b})}{dw}$
    - update:
 
$$E[\partial_w^2 D]_k = \gamma E[\partial_w^2 D]_{k-1} + (1 - \gamma)(\partial_w^2 D)_k$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \mathbf{w}_k - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[\partial_w^2 D]_k + \epsilon}} \partial_w D$$
    - $k = k + 1$
  - Until  $E(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}, \mathbf{W}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{W}^{(K)})$  has converged

# ADAM: RMSprop with momentum

- RMS prop only considers a second-moment normalized version of the current gradient
- ADAM utilizes a smoothed version of the *momentum-augmented* gradient
- **Procedure:**
  - Maintain a running estimate of the mean derivative for each parameter
  - Maintain a running estimate of the mean squared value of derivatives for each parameter
  - Scale update of the parameter by the *inverse* of the *root mean squared* derivative

$$m_k = \delta m_{k-1} + (1 - \delta)(\partial_w D)_k$$

$$v_k = \gamma v_{k-1} + (1 - \gamma)(\partial_w^2 D)_k$$

$$\hat{m}_k = \frac{m_k}{1 - \delta^k}, \quad \hat{v}_k = \frac{v_k}{1 - \gamma^k}$$

$$w_{k+1} = w_k - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_k + \epsilon}} \hat{m}_k$$

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- **Procedure:**
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  - Maintain a running estimate of the mean squared value of the derivative for each parameter
  - Scale update of the parameter by the *inverse* of the mean squared derivative

$$m_k = \delta m_{k-1} + (1 - \delta)(\partial_w D)_k$$

$$v_k = \gamma v_{k-1} + (1 - \gamma)(\partial_w^2 D)_k$$

$$\hat{m}_k = \frac{m_k}{1 - \delta^k}, \quad \hat{v}_k = \frac{v_k}{1 - \gamma^k}$$

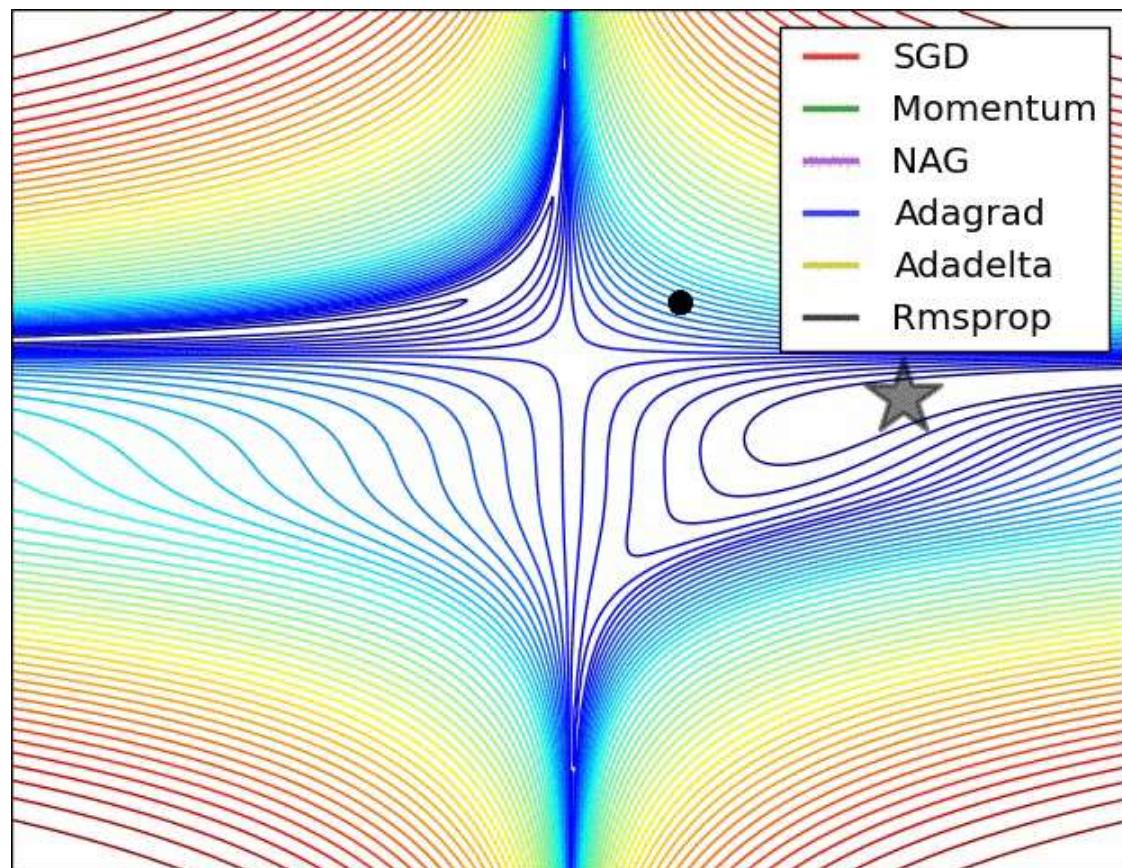
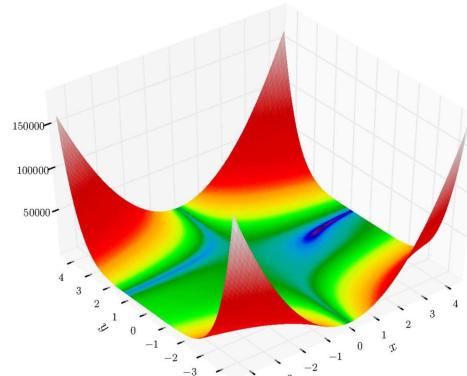
$$w_{k+1} = w_k - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_k + \epsilon}} \hat{m}_k$$

Ensures that the  $\delta$  and  $\gamma$  terms do not dominate in early iterations

# Other variants of the same theme

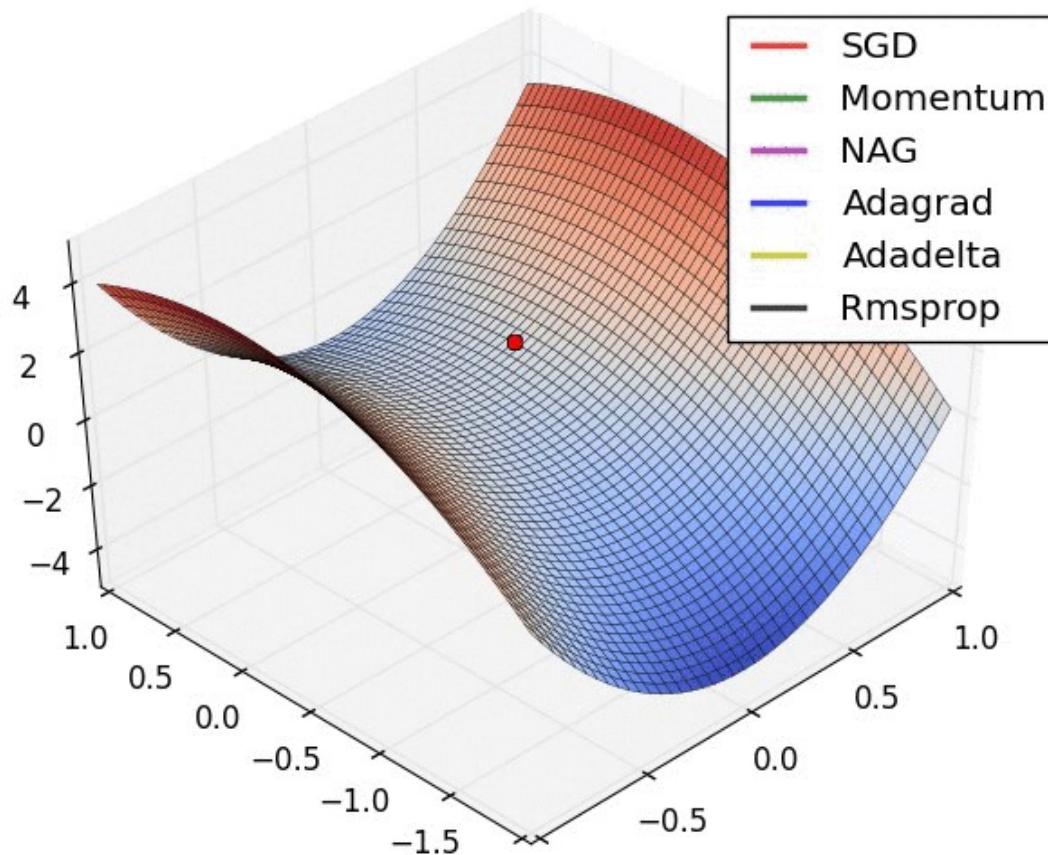
- Many:
  - Adagrad
  - AdaDelta
  - ADAM
  - AdaMax
  - ...
- Generally no explicit learning rate to optimize
  - But come with other hyper parameters to be optimized
  - Typical params:
    - RMSProp:  $\eta = 0.001, \gamma = 0.9$
    - ADAM:  $\eta = 0.001, \delta = 0.9, \gamma = 0.999$

# Visualizing the optimizers: Beale's Function



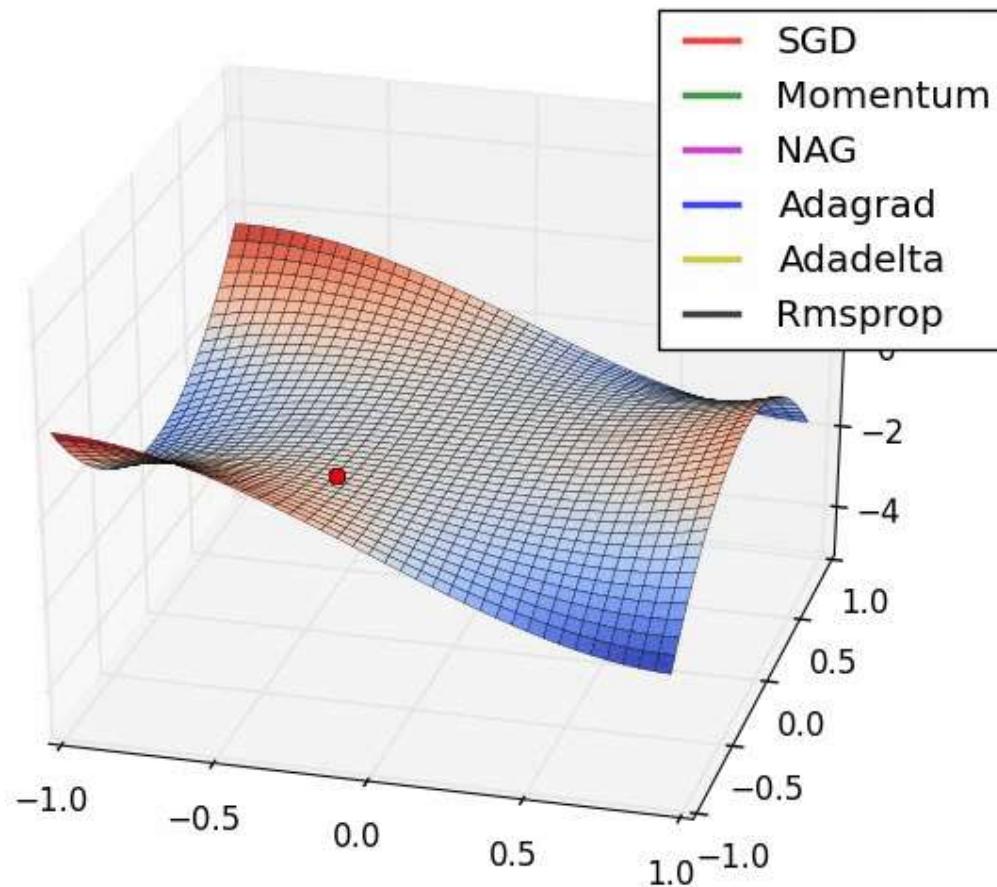
- <http://www.denizyuret.com/2015/03/alec-radfords-animations-for.html>

# Visualizing the optimizers: Long Valley



- <http://www.denizyuret.com/2015/03/alec-radfords-animations-for.html>

# Visualizing the optimizers: Saddle Point



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# Story so far

- Gradient descent can be sped up by incremental updates
  - Convergence is guaranteed under most conditions
    - Learning rate must shrink with time for convergence
  - Stochastic gradient descent: update after each observation. Can be much faster than batch learning
  - Mini-batch updates: update after batches. Can be more efficient than SGD
- Convergence can be improved using smoothed updates
  - RMSprop and more advanced techniques

# Moving on: Topics for the day

- Incremental updates
- Revisiting “trend” algorithms
- Generalization
- Tricks of the trade
  - Divergences..
  - Activations
  - Normalizations

# Tricks of the trade..

- To make the network converge better
  - The Divergence
  - Dropout
  - Batch normalization
  - Other tricks
    - Gradient clipping
    - Data augmentation
    - Other hacks..

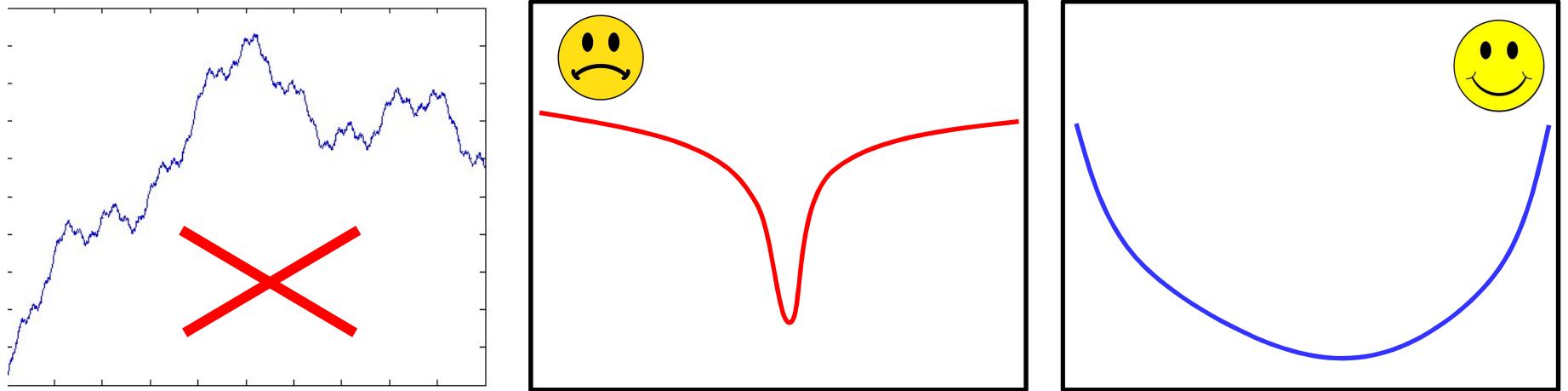
# Training Neural Nets by Gradient Descent: The Divergence

Total training error:

$$Err = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t Div(\mathbf{Y}_t, \mathbf{d}_t; \mathbf{W}_1, \mathbf{W}_2, \dots, \mathbf{W}_K)$$

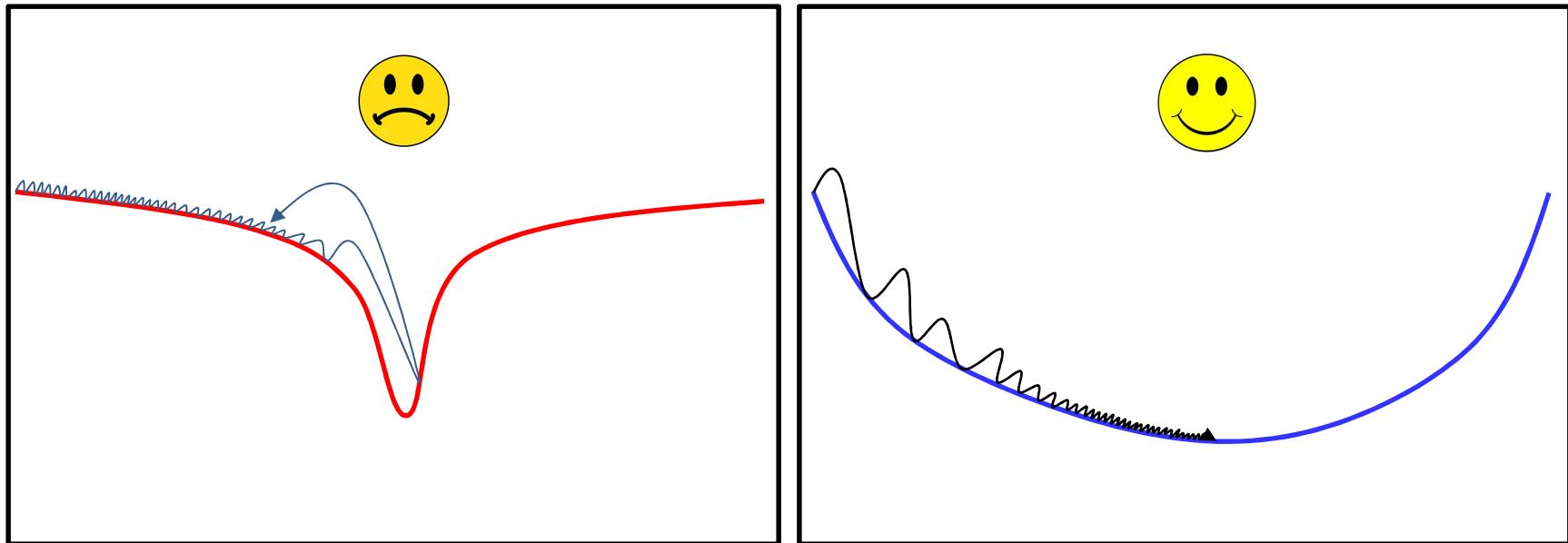
- The convergence of the gradient descent depends on the divergence
  - Ideally, must have a shape that results in a significant gradient in the right direction outside the optimum
    - To “guide” the algorithm to the right solution

# Desiderata for a good divergence



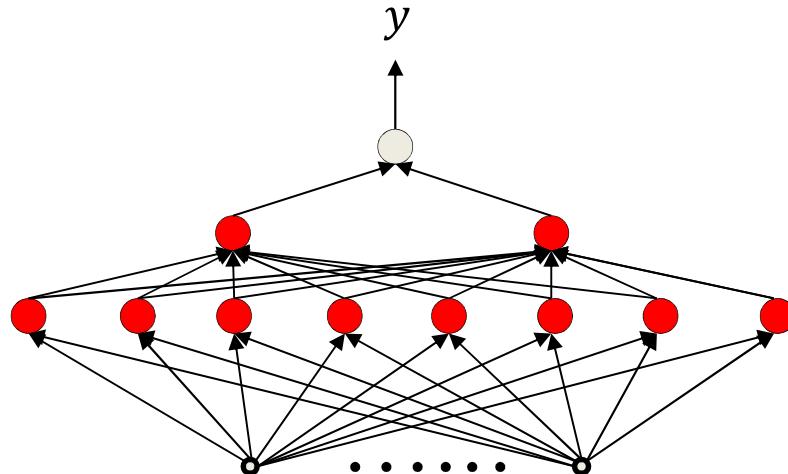
- Must be smooth and not have many poor local optima
- Low slopes far from the optimum == bad
  - Initial estimates far from the optimum will take forever to converge
- High slopes near the optimum == bad
  - Steep gradients

# Desiderata for a good divergence



- Functions that are shallow far from the optimum will result in very small steps during optimization
  - Slow convergence of gradient descent
- Functions that are steep near the optimum will result in large steps and overshoot during optimization
  - Gradient descent will not converge easily
- The best type of divergence is steep far from the optimum, but shallow at the optimum
  - But not *too* shallow: ideally quadratic in nature

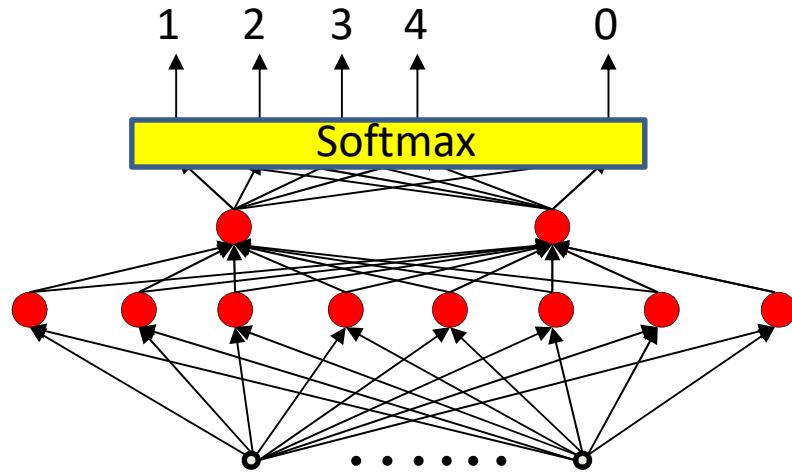
# Choices for divergence



Desired output:  $d$

$$\text{L2} \quad \text{Div} = \frac{1}{2}(y - d)^2$$

$$\text{KL} \quad \text{Div} = -d \log(y) - (1 - d) \log(1 - y)$$



Desired output:  $[0, 0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0]$

$$\text{Div} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (y_i - d_i)^2$$

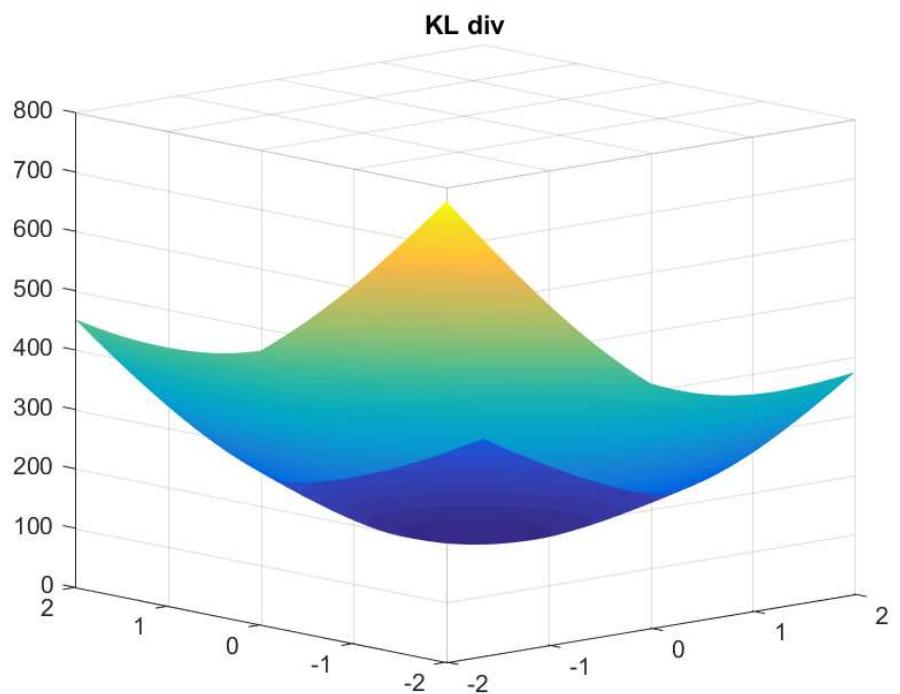
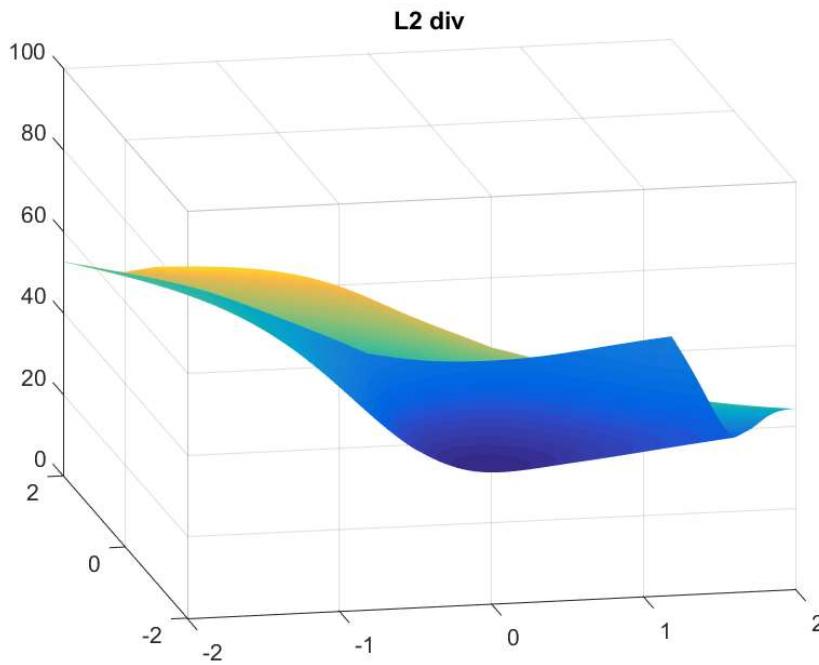
$$\text{Div} = \sum_i d_i \log(d_i) - \sum_i d_i \log(y_i)$$

- Most common choices: The L2 divergence and the KL divergence

# L2 or KL?

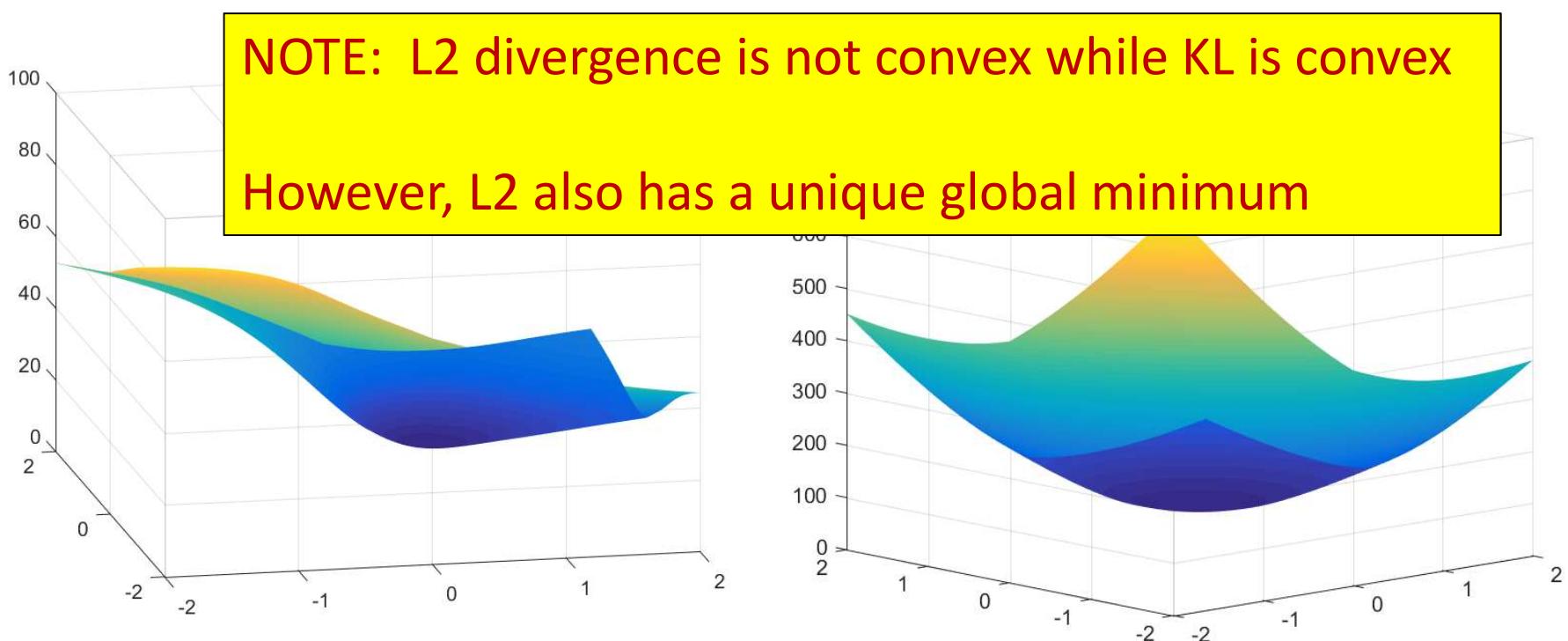
- The L2 divergence has long been favored in most applications
- It is particularly appropriate when attempting to perform *regression*
  - Numeric prediction
- The KL divergence is better when the intent is classification
  - The output is a probability vector

# L2 or KL



- Plot of L2 and KL divergences for a *single* perceptron, as function of weights
  - Setup: 2-dimensional input
  - 100 training examples randomly generated

# L2 or KL



- Plot of L2 and KL divergences for a *single* perceptron, as function of weights
  - Setup: 2-dimensional input
  - 100 training examples randomly generated

# A note on derivatives

- Note: For L2 divergence the derivative w.r.t. the pre-activation  $\mathbf{z}$  of the output layer is:

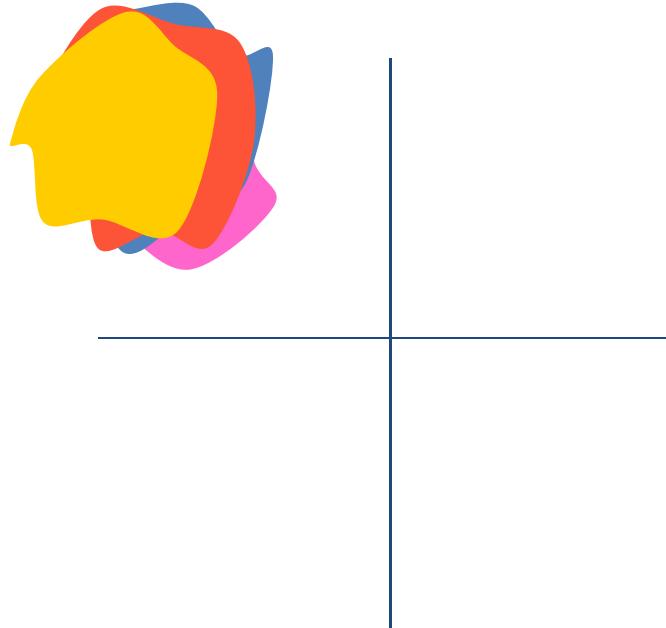
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{d}\|^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{d}) J_y(\mathbf{z})$$

- We literally “propagate” the error  $(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{d})$  backward
  - Which is why the method is sometimes called “error backpropagation”

# Story so far

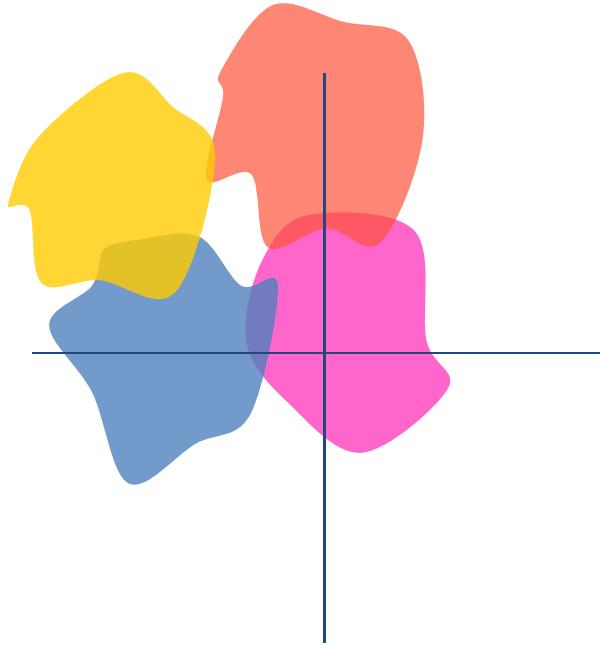
- Gradient descent can be sped up by incremental updates
- Convergence can be improved using smoothed updates
- The choice of divergence affects both the learned network and results

# The problem of covariate shifts



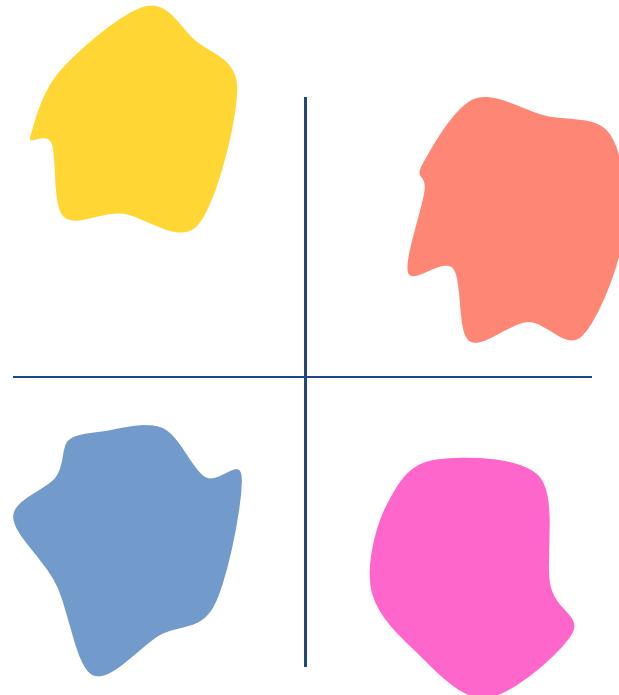
- Training assumes the training data are all similarly distributed
  - Minibatches have similar distribution

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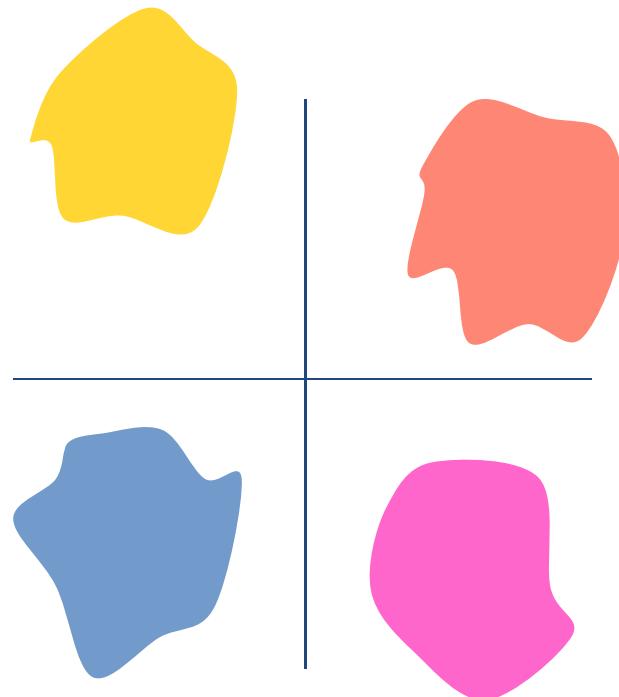
- Training assumes the training data are all similarly distributed
  - Minibatches have similar distribution
- In practice, each minibatch may have a different distribution
  - A “covariate shift”
  - Which may occur in *each* layer of the network

# The problem of covariate shifts



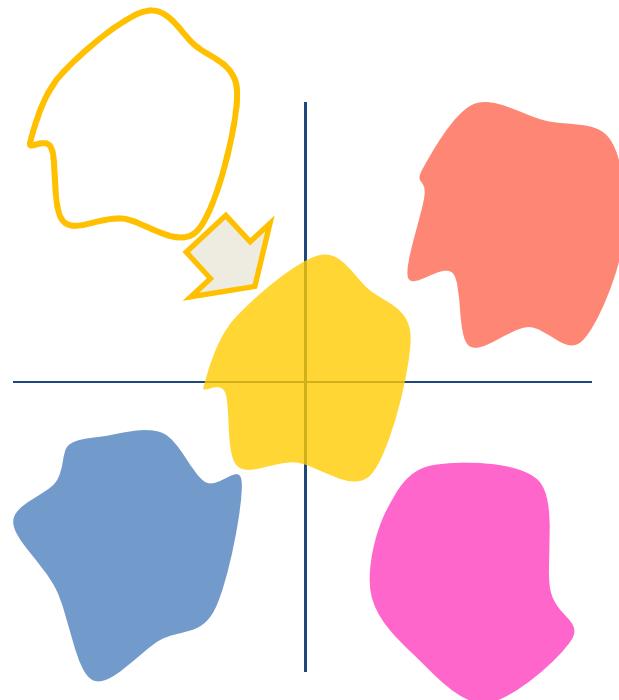
- Training assumes the training data are all similarly distributed
  - Minibatches have similar distribution
- In practice, each minibatch may have a different distribution
  - A “covariate shift”
- Covariate shifts can be large!
  - All covariate shifts can affect training badly

# Solution: Move all subgroups to a “standard” location



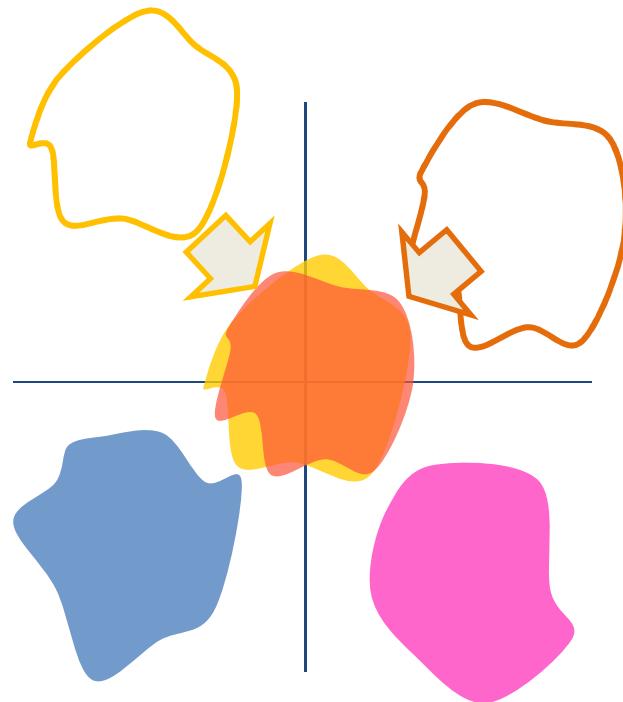
- “Move” all batches to have a mean of 0 and unit standard deviation
  - Eliminates covariate shift between batches

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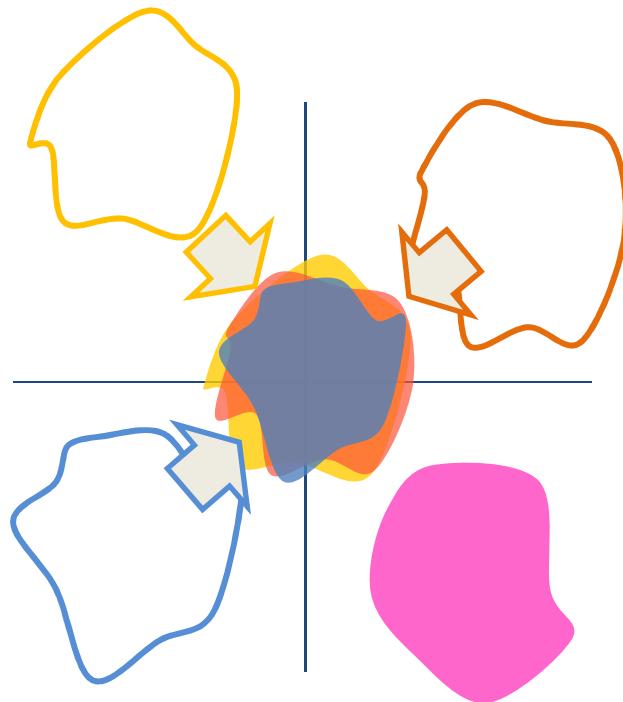
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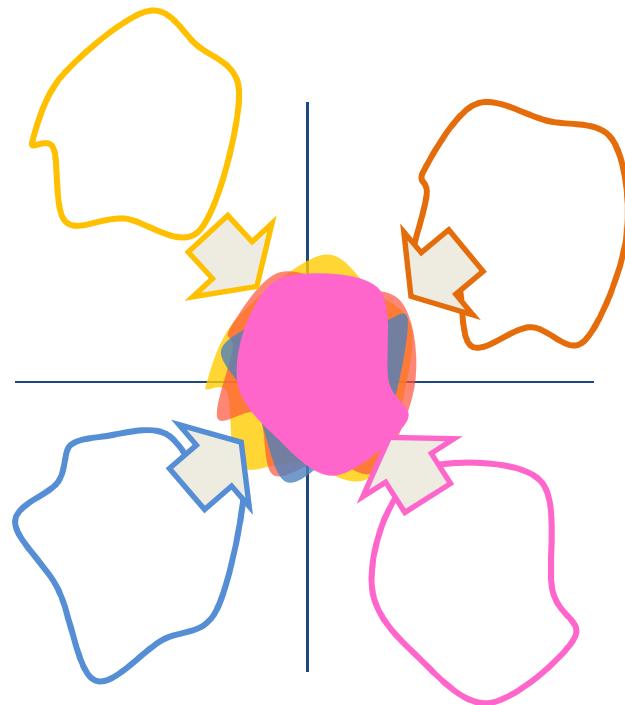
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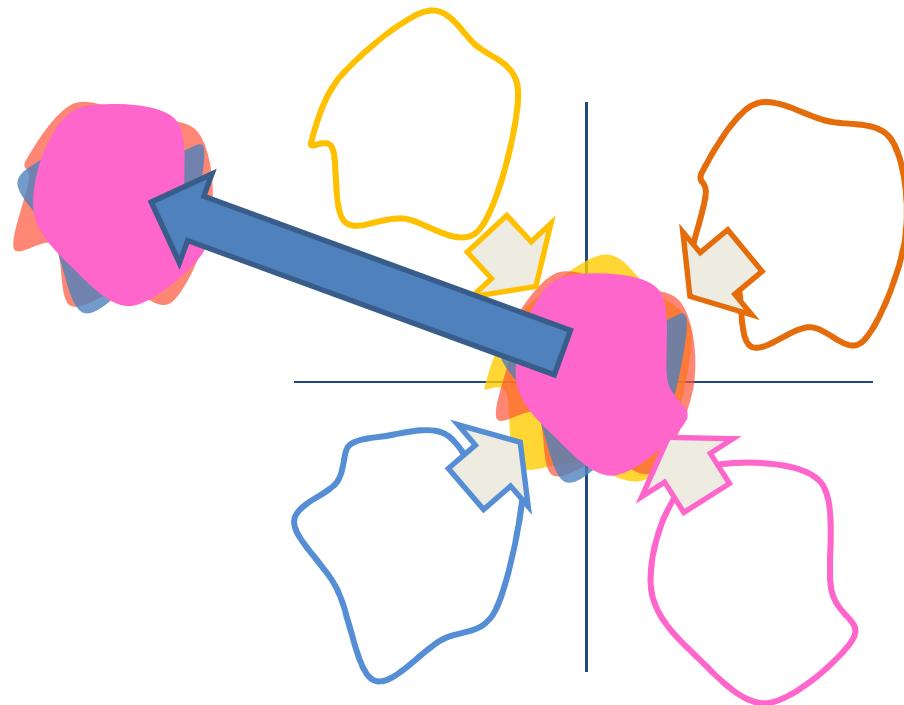
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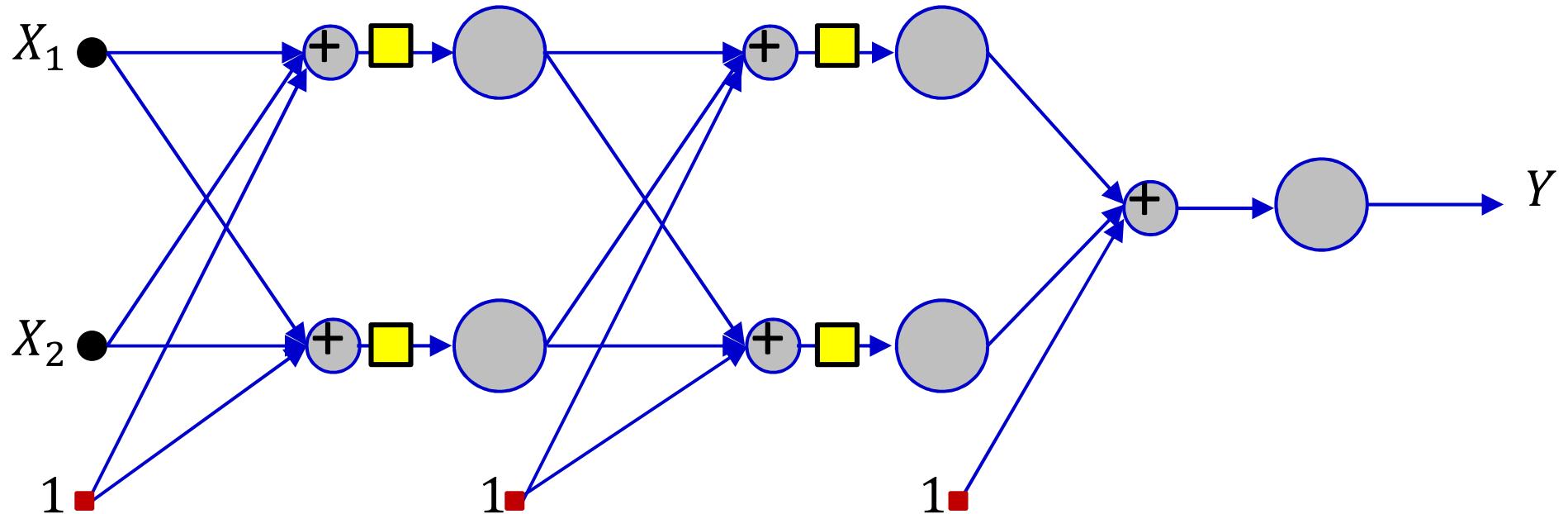
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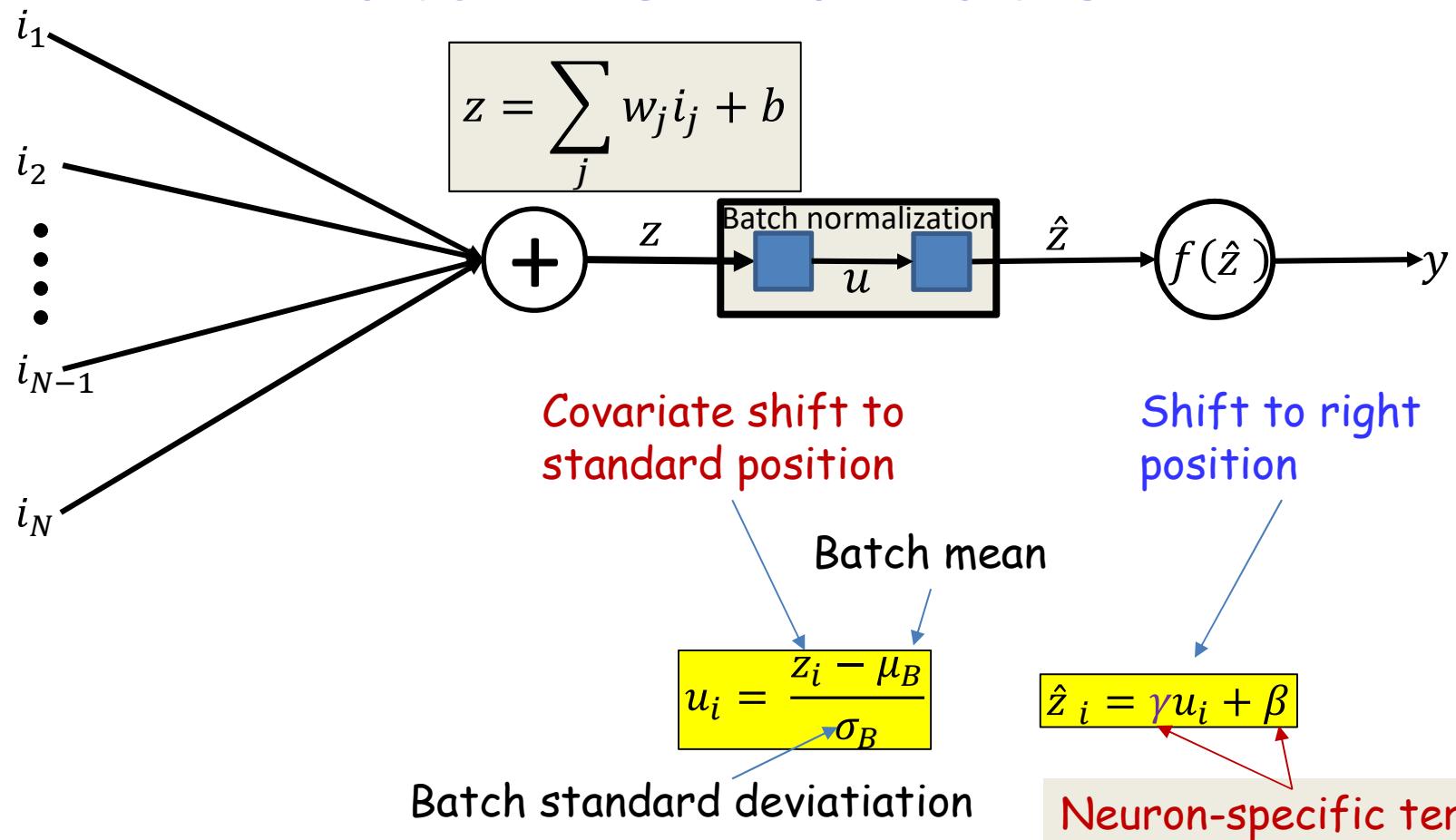
- “Move” all batches to have a mean of 0 and unit standard deviation
  - Eliminates covariate shift between batches
  - Then move the entire collection to the appropriate location

# Batch normalization



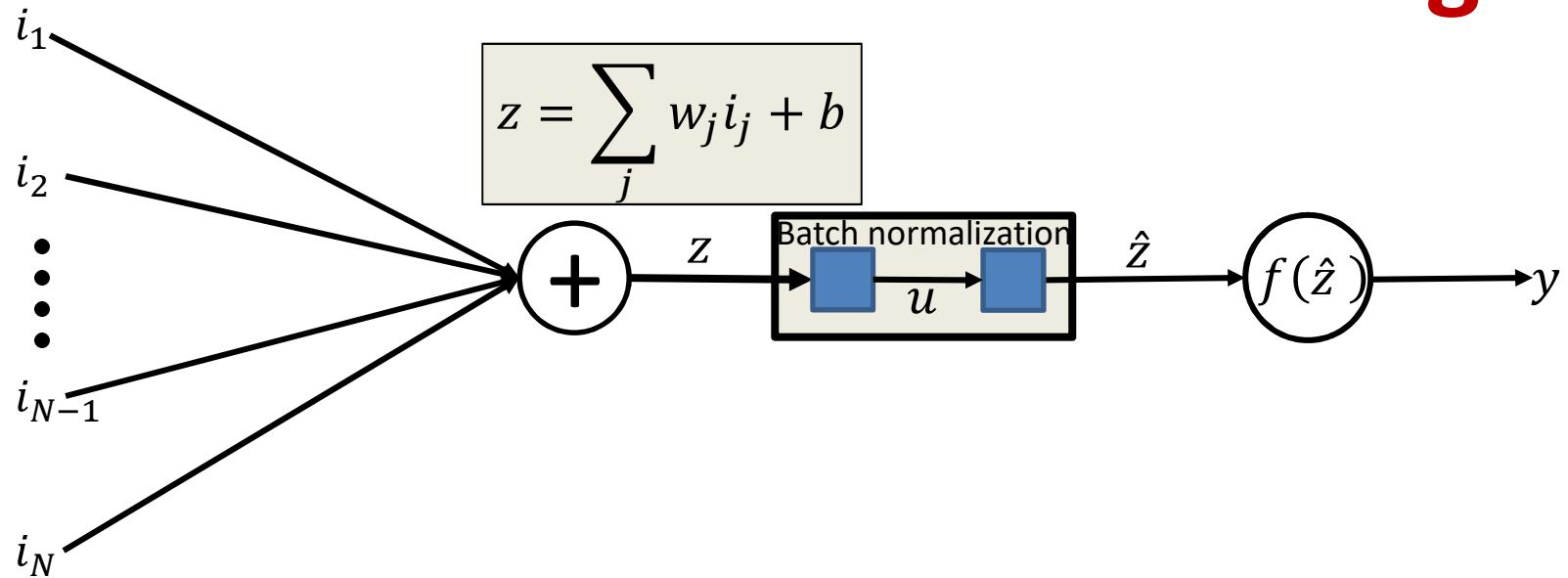
- Batch normalization is a covariate adjustment unit that happens after the weighted addition of inputs but before the application of activation
  - Is done independently for each unit, to simplify computation
- **Training:** The adjustment occurs over individual minibatches

# Batch normalization



- BN aggregates the statistics over a minibatch and normalizes the batch by them
- Normalized instances are “shifted” to a *unit-specific* location

# Batch normalization: Training



$$\mu_B = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B z_i$$

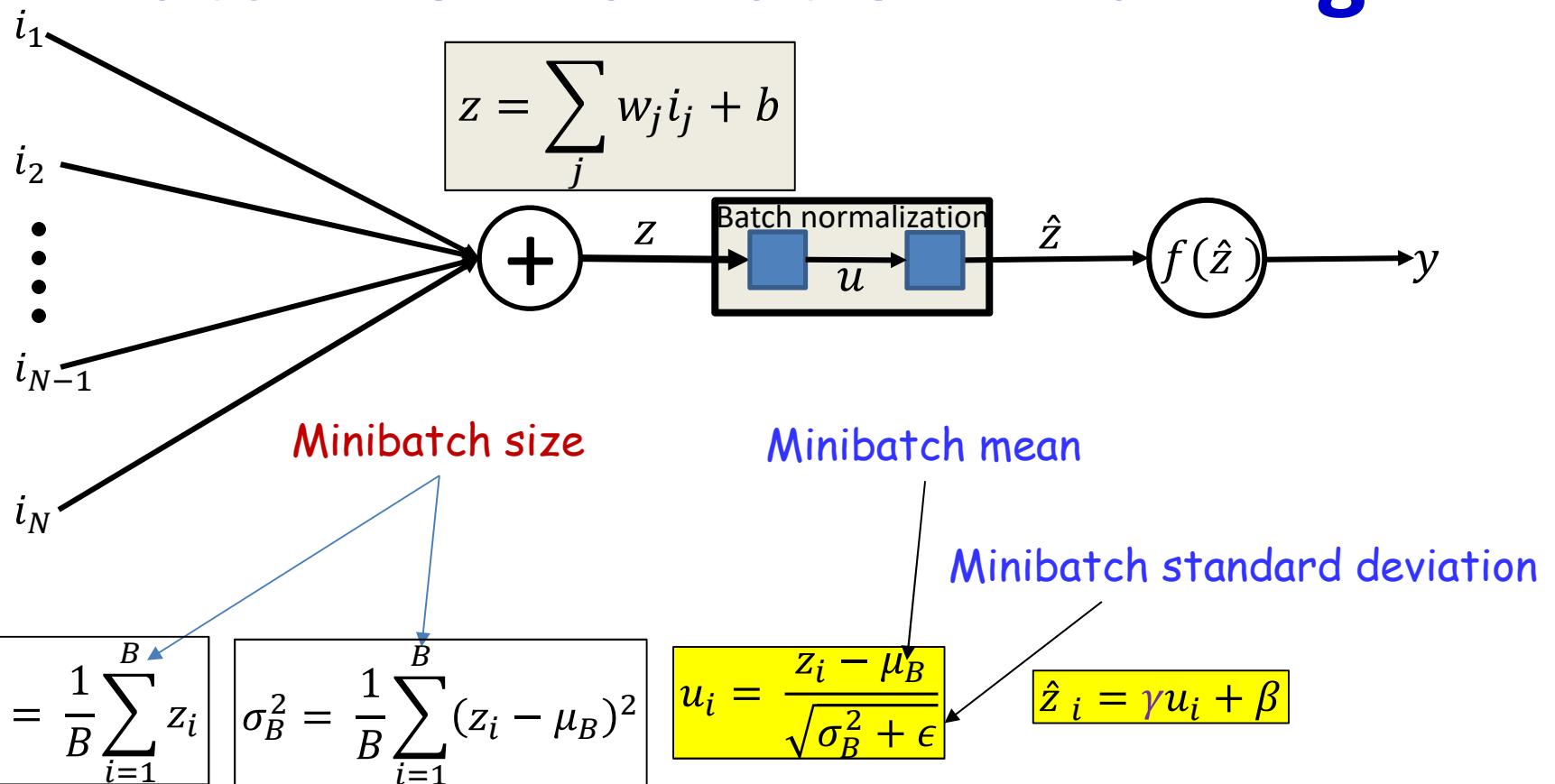
$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (z_i - \mu_B)^2$$

$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\hat{z}_i = \gamma u_i + \beta$$

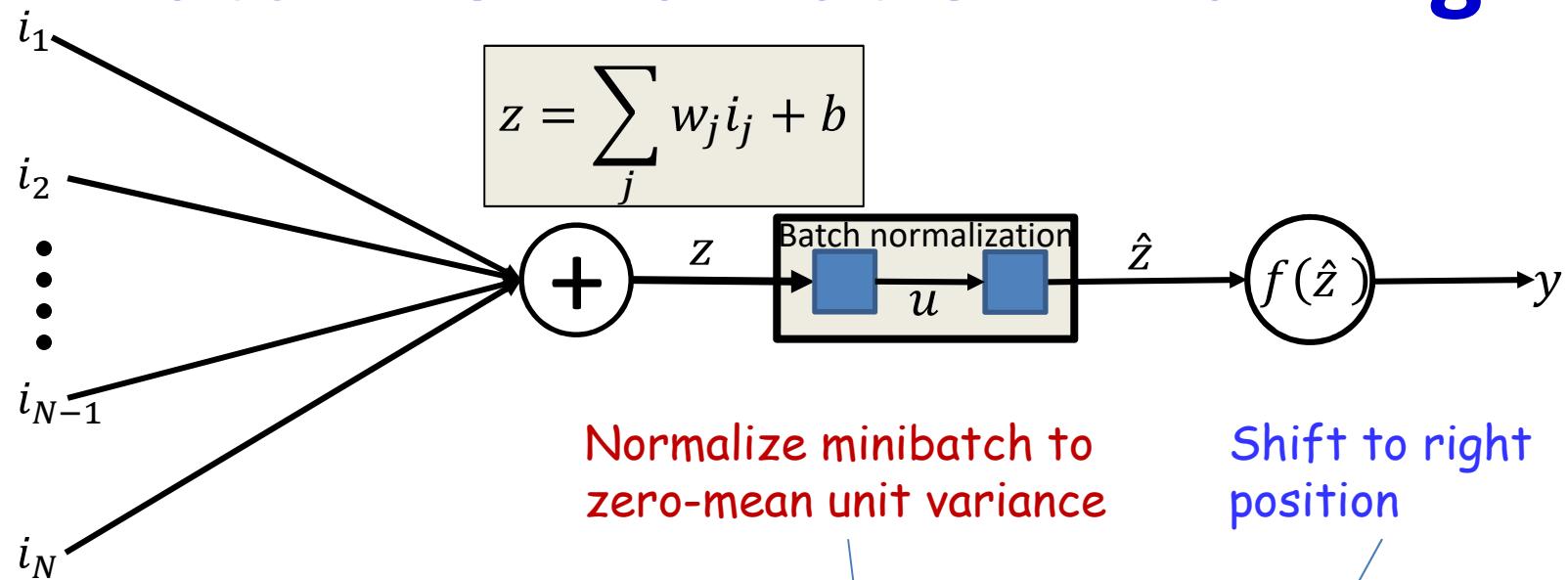
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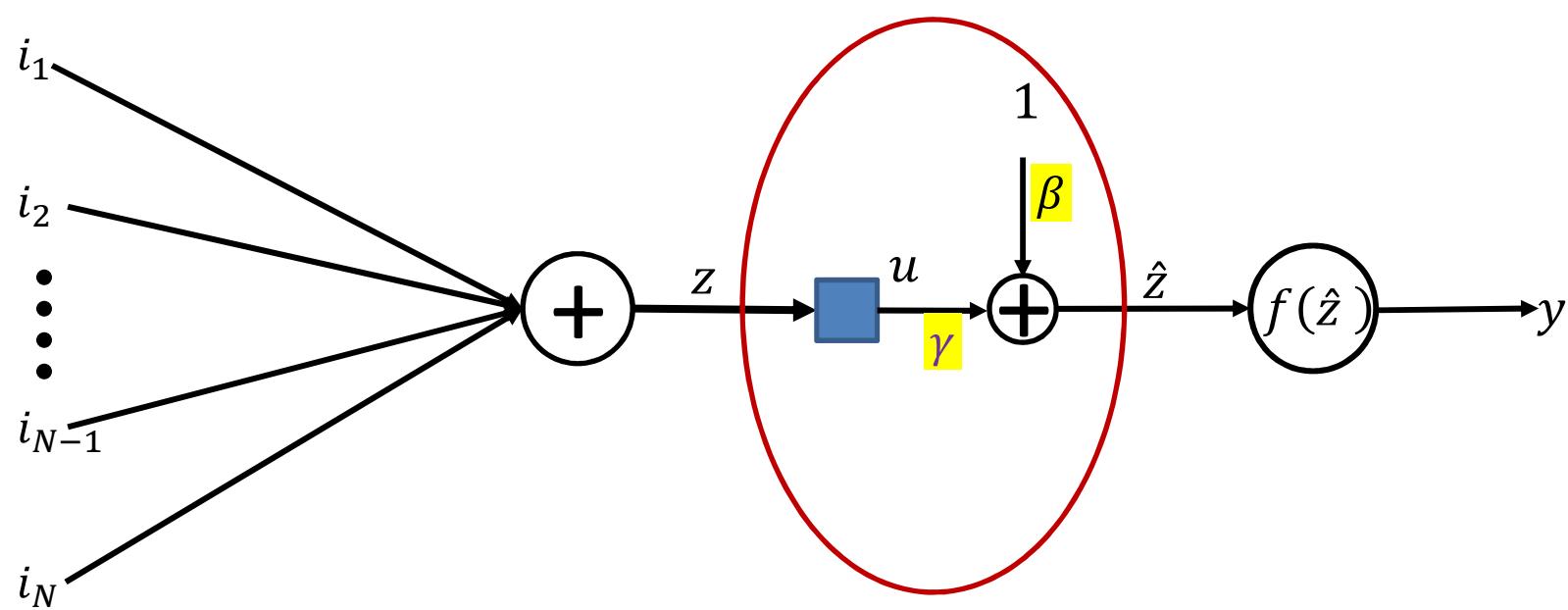
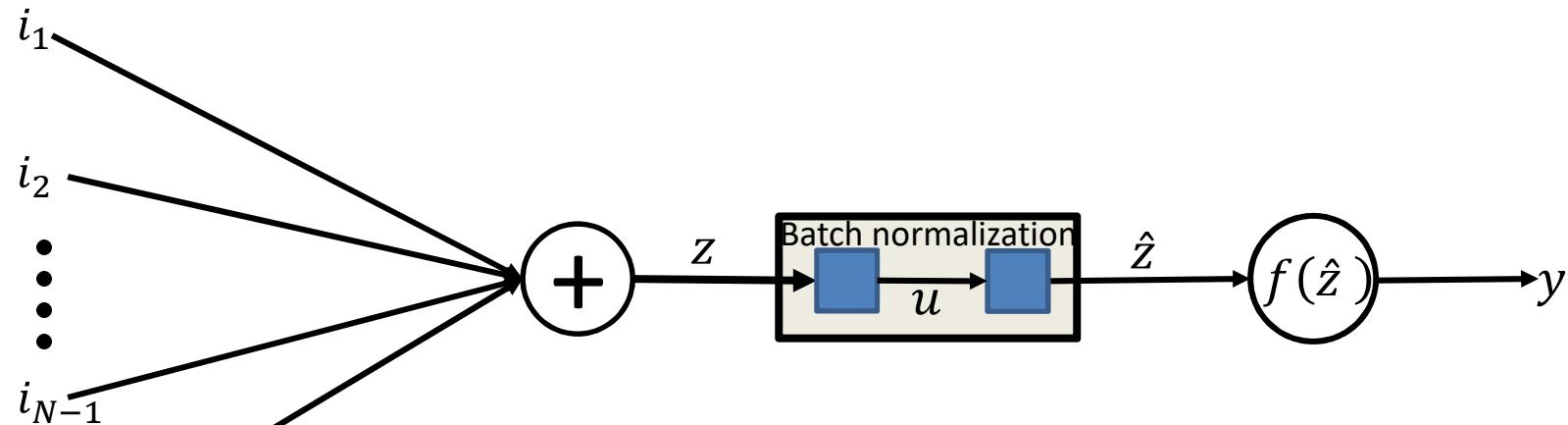
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$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\hat{z}_i = \gamma u_i + \beta$$

- BN aggregates the statistics over a minibatch and normalizes the batch by them
- Normalized instances are “shifted” to a *unit-specific* location

# A better picture for batch norm



# A note on derivatives

- In conventional learning, we attempt to compute the derivative of the divergence for *individual* training instances w.r.t. parameters
- This is based on the following relations

$$Div(minibatch) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_t Div(Y_t(X_t), d_t(X_t))$$

$$\frac{dDiv(minibatch)}{dw_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \frac{dDiv(Y_t(X_t), d_t(X_t))}{dw_{i,j}^{(k)}}$$

- If we use Batch Norm, the above relation gets a little complicated

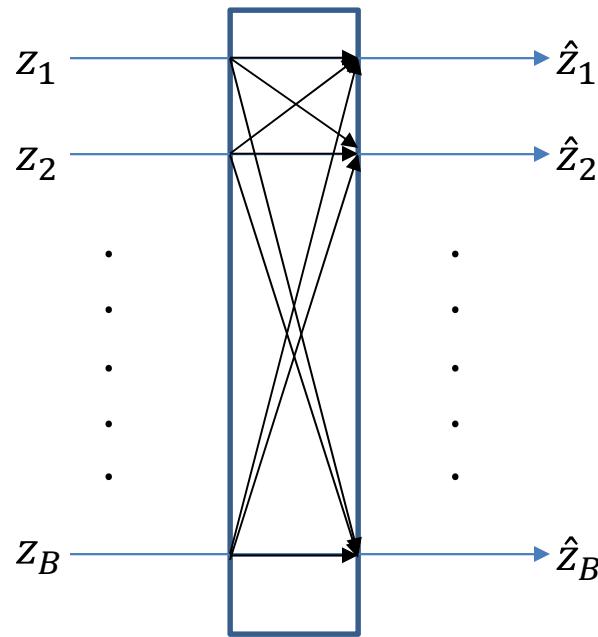
# A note on derivatives

- The outputs are now functions of  $\mu_B$  and  $\sigma_B^2$  which are functions of the entire minibatch

$$Div(MB) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_t Div(Y_t(X_t, \mu_B, \sigma_B^2), d_t(X_t))$$

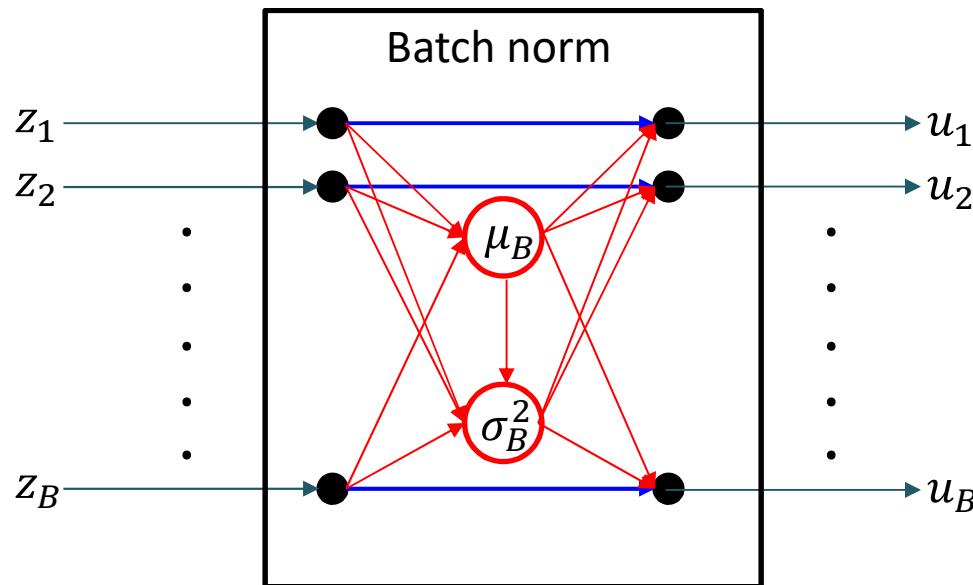
- The Divergence for each  $Y_t$  depends on *all* the  $X_t$  within the minibatch
- Specifically, within each layer, we get the relationship in the following slide

# Batchnorm is a vector function over the minibatch



- Batch normalization is really a *vector* function applied over all the inputs from a minibatch
  - Every  $z_i$  affects every  $\hat{z}_j$
  - Shown on the next slide
- To compute the derivative of the divergence w.r.t any  $z_i$ , we must consider all  $\hat{z}_j$ s in the batch

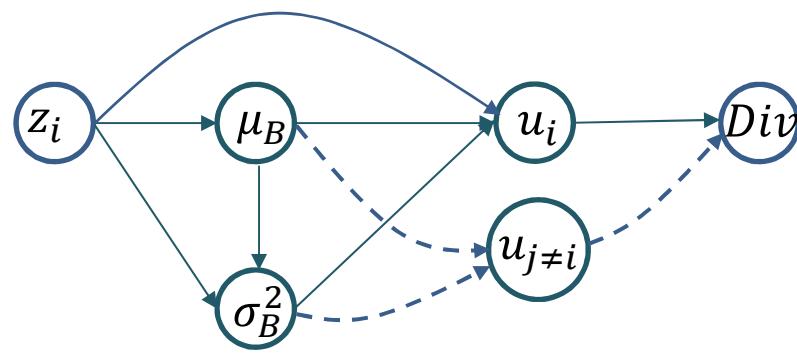
# Batchnorm



- The complete dependency figure for Batchnorm
- Note : inputs and outputs are different *instances* in a minibatch
  - The diagram represents BN occurring at a *single neuron*
- You can use vector function differentiation rules to compute the derivatives
  - But the equations in the following slides summarize them for you
  - The actual derivation uses the simplified diagram shown in the next slide, but you could do it directly off the figure above and arrive at the same answers

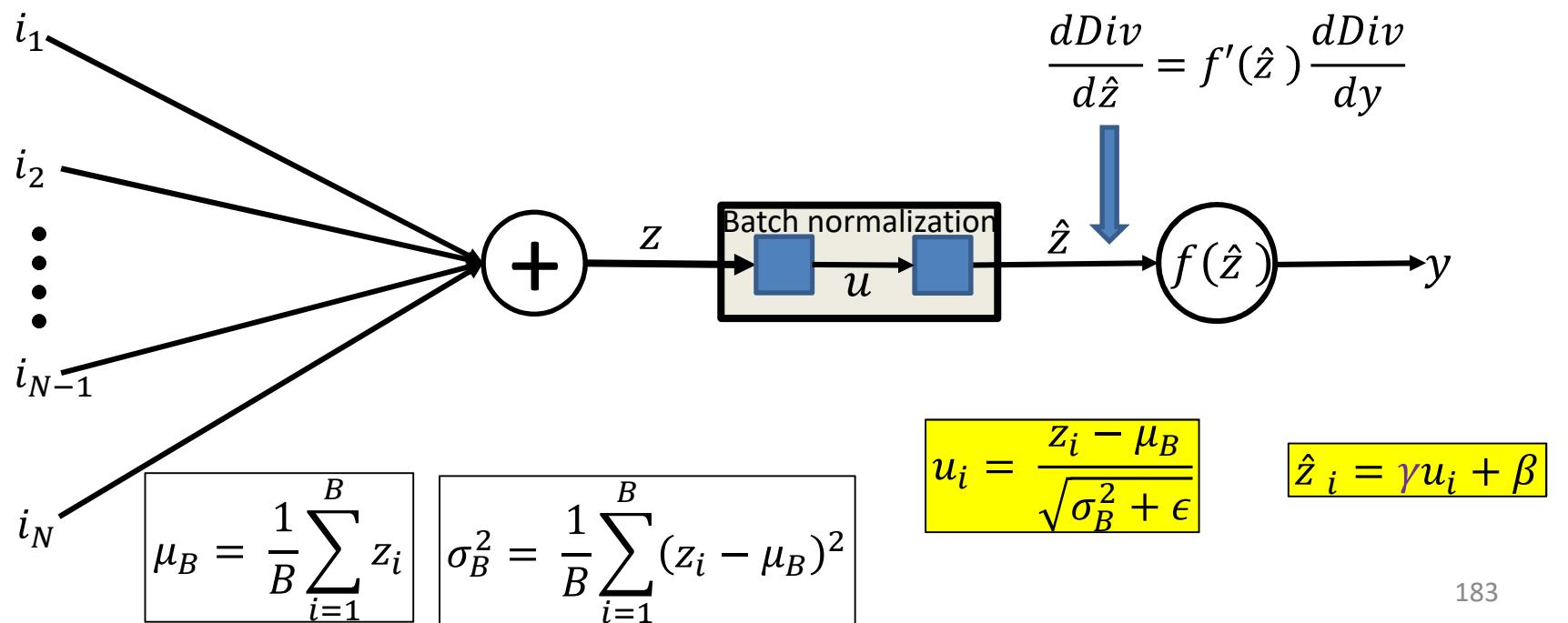
# Batchnorm

Influence diagram

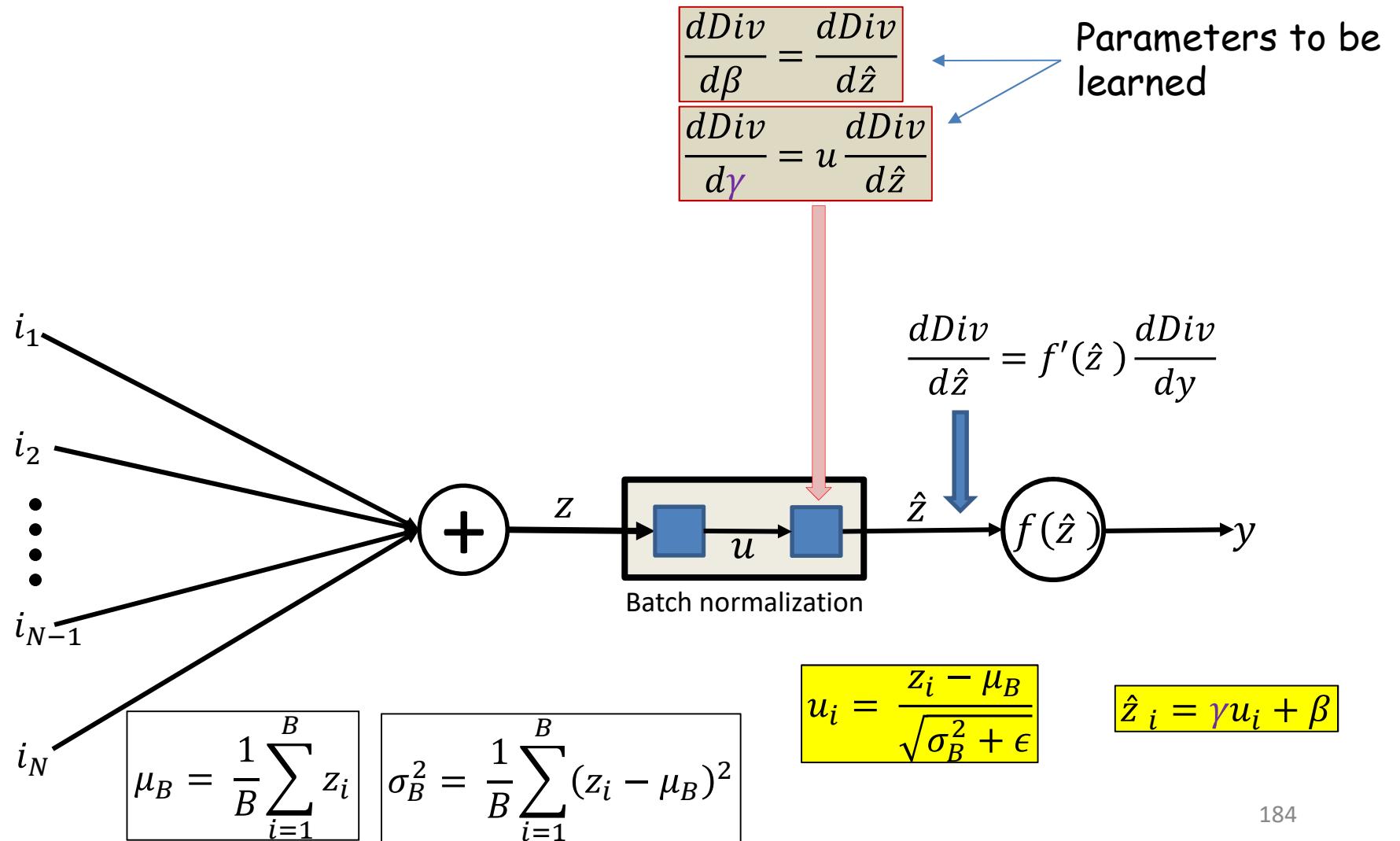


- Simplified diagram for a *single* input in a minibatch

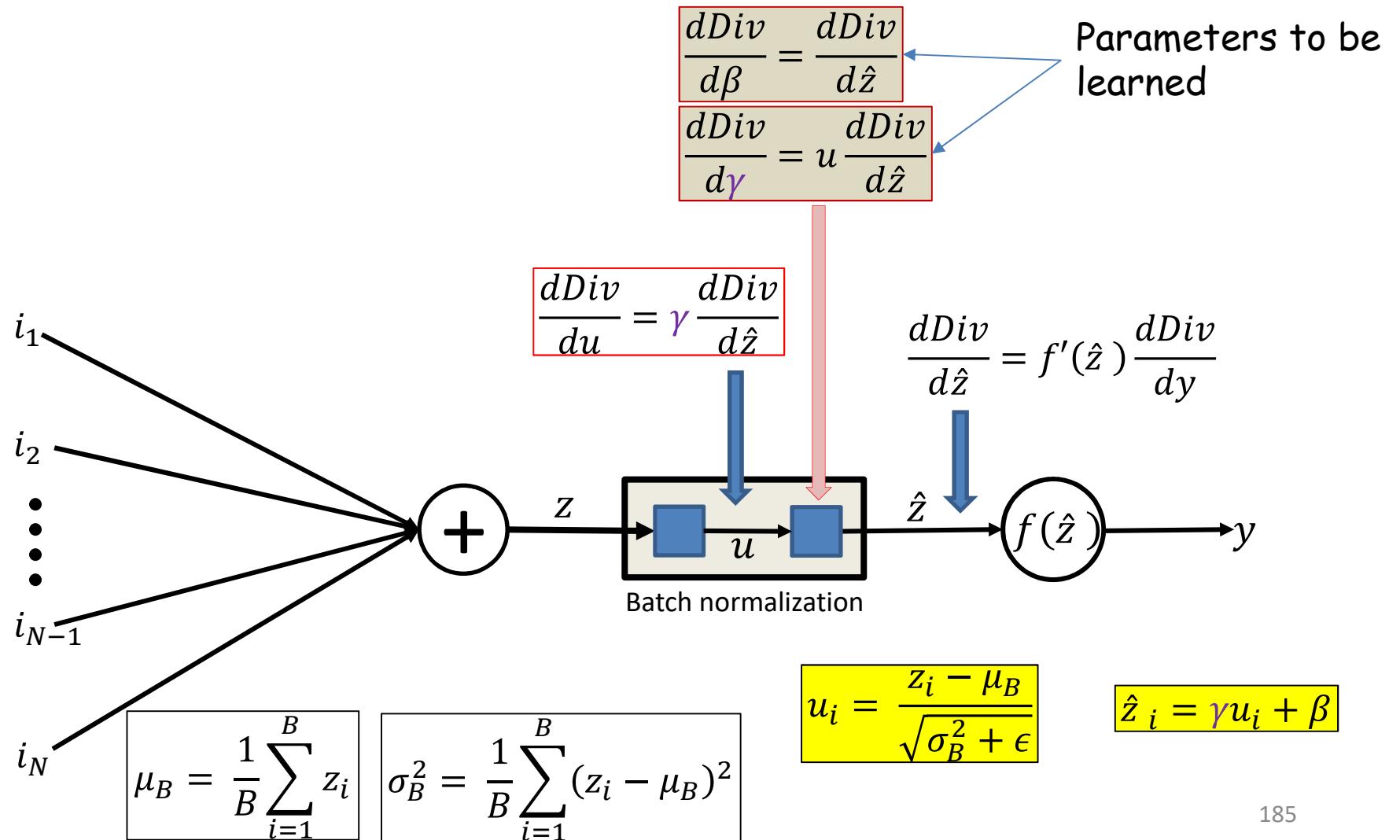
# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



# Batch normalization: Backpropagation

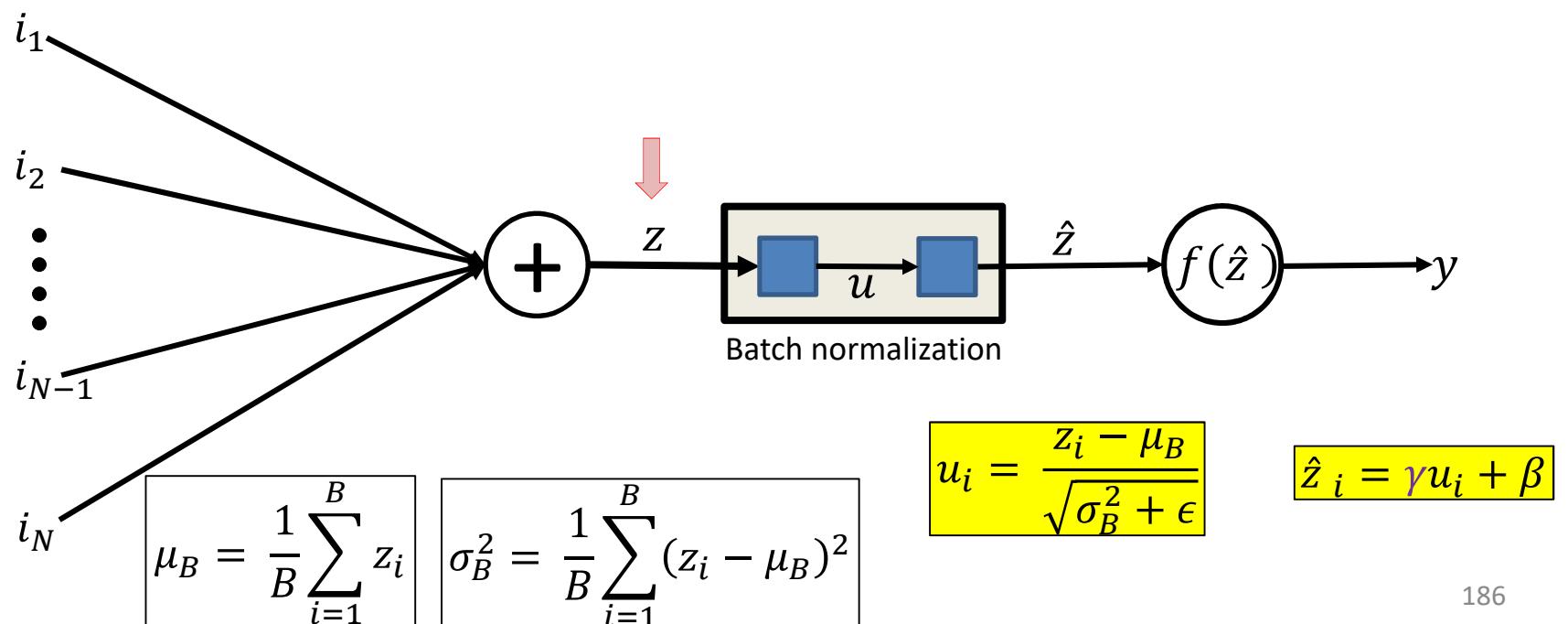


# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



# Batch normalization: Backpropagation

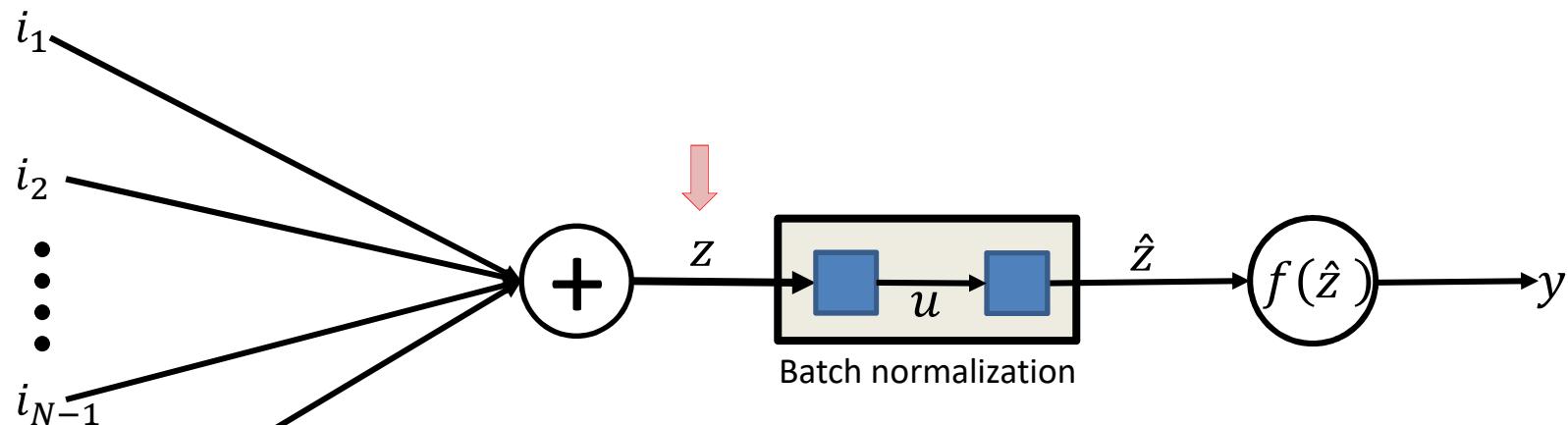
- Final step of backprop: compute  $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i}$



# Batch normalization: Backpropagation

$Div = function(u_i, \mu_B, \sigma_B^2)$

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$



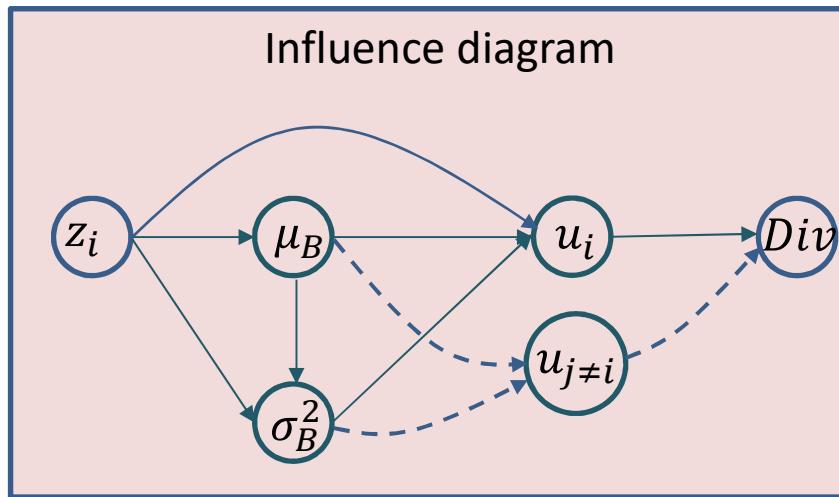
$$\mu_B = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B z_i$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (z_i - \mu_B)^2$$

$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\hat{z}_i = \gamma u_i + \beta$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation

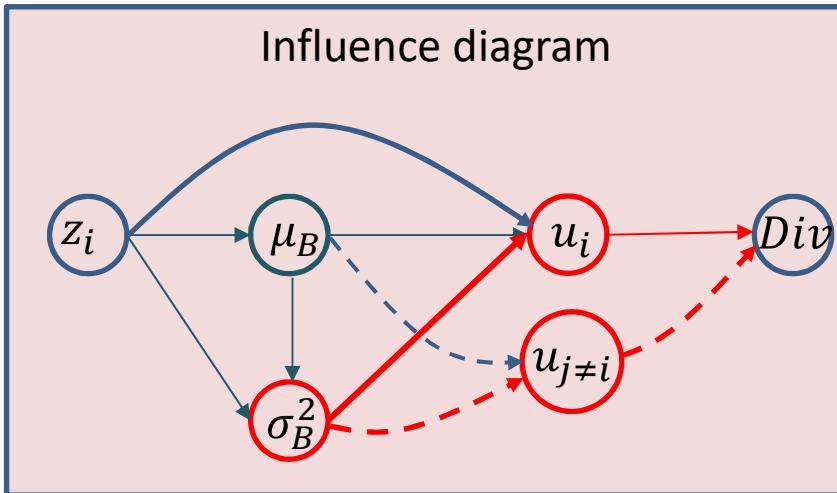
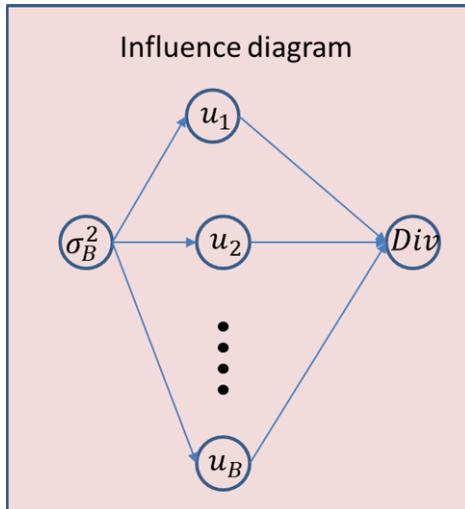


Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

# Batch normalization:

## Backpropagation



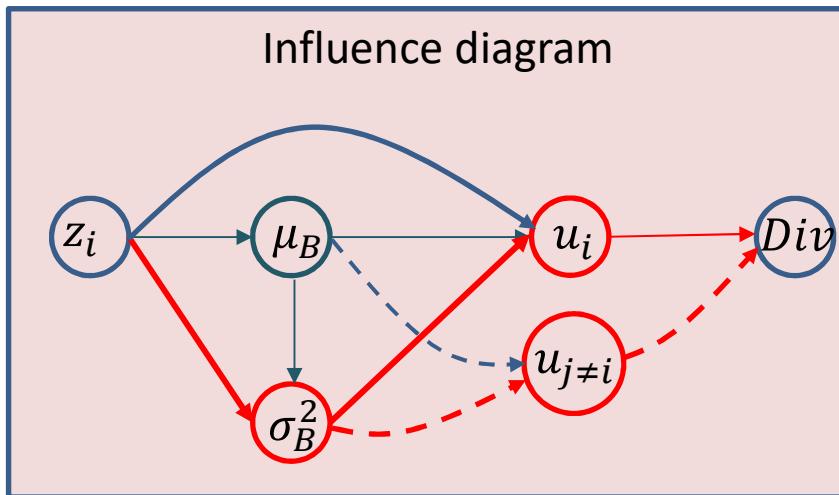
Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} = \frac{-1}{2} (\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon)^{-3/2} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} (z_i - \mu_B)$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

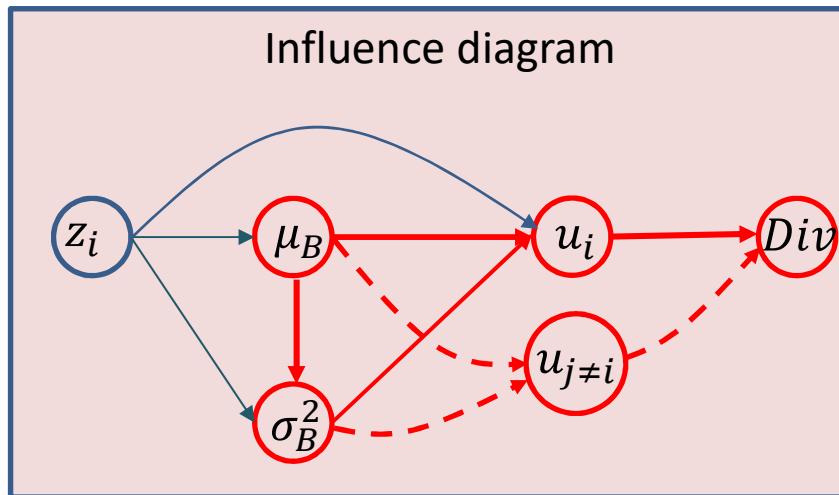
$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} = \frac{-1}{2} (\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon)^{-3/2} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} (z_i - \mu_B)$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (z_i - \mu_B)^2 \quad \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} = \frac{2(z_i - \mu_B)}{B}$$

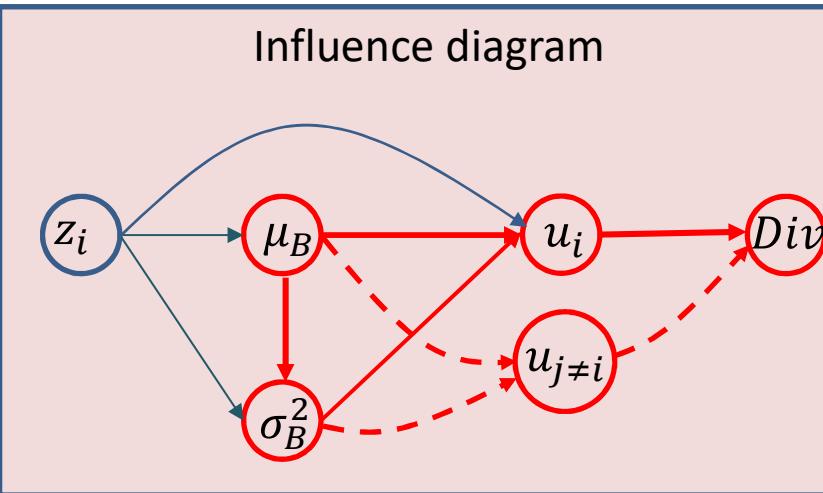
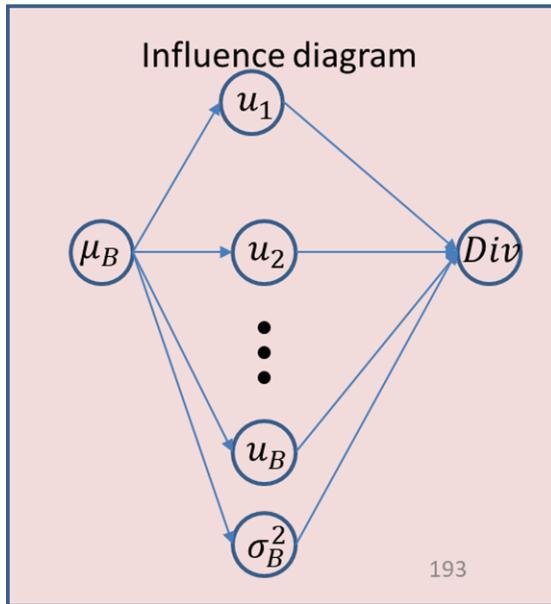
# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

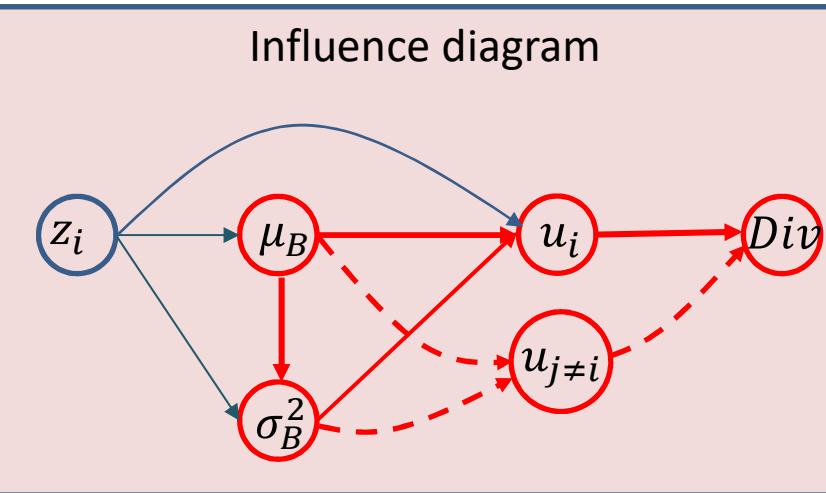
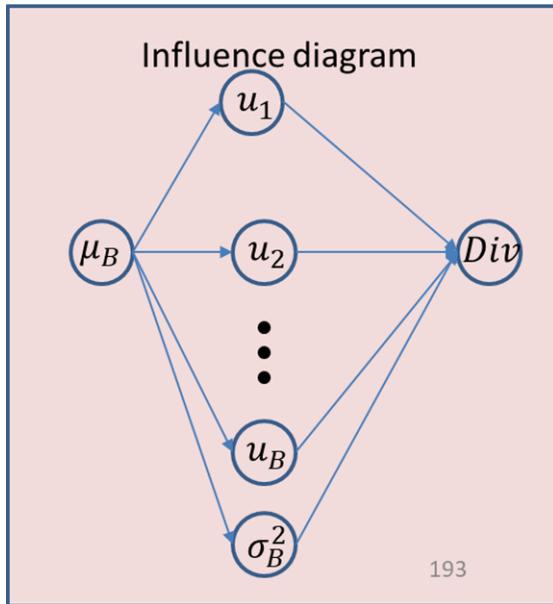
Second term goes to 0

$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (z_i - \mu_B)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}} \right) + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\sum_{i=1}^B -2(z_i - \mu_B)}{B}$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

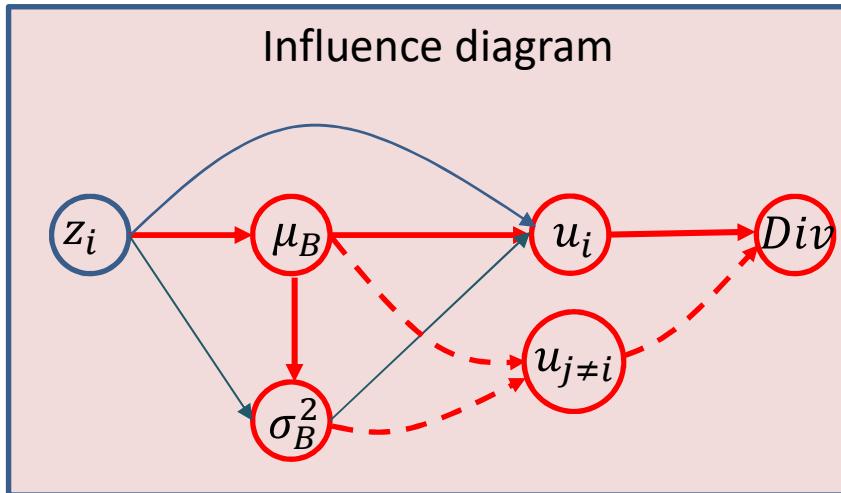
$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (z_i - \mu_B)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i}$$

# Batch normalization:

## Backpropagation



Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

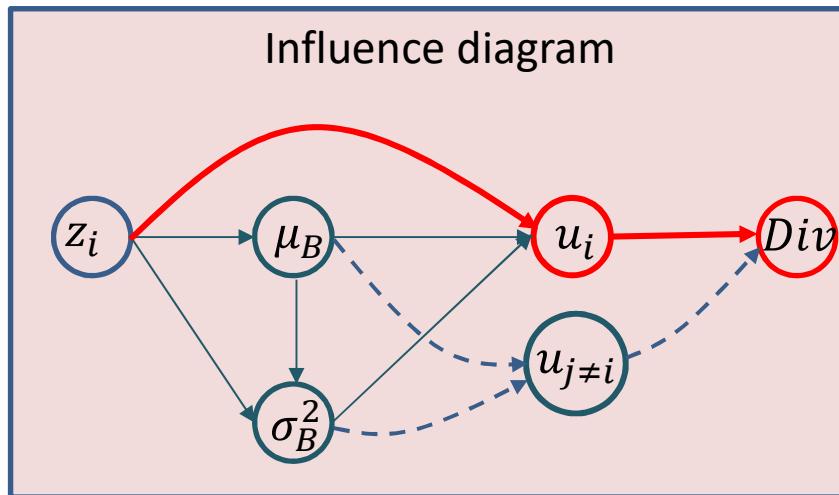
$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i} = \frac{1}{B}$$

$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial \mu_B} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial \text{Div}}{\partial u_i}$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation



Dotted lines show dependence through other  $u_j$ s because Divergence is computed over a minibatch

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_i}}_{\text{Red circled term}} - \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \sigma_B^2} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma_B^2}{\partial z_i} + \frac{\partial Div}{\partial \mu_B} \cdot \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial z_i}$$

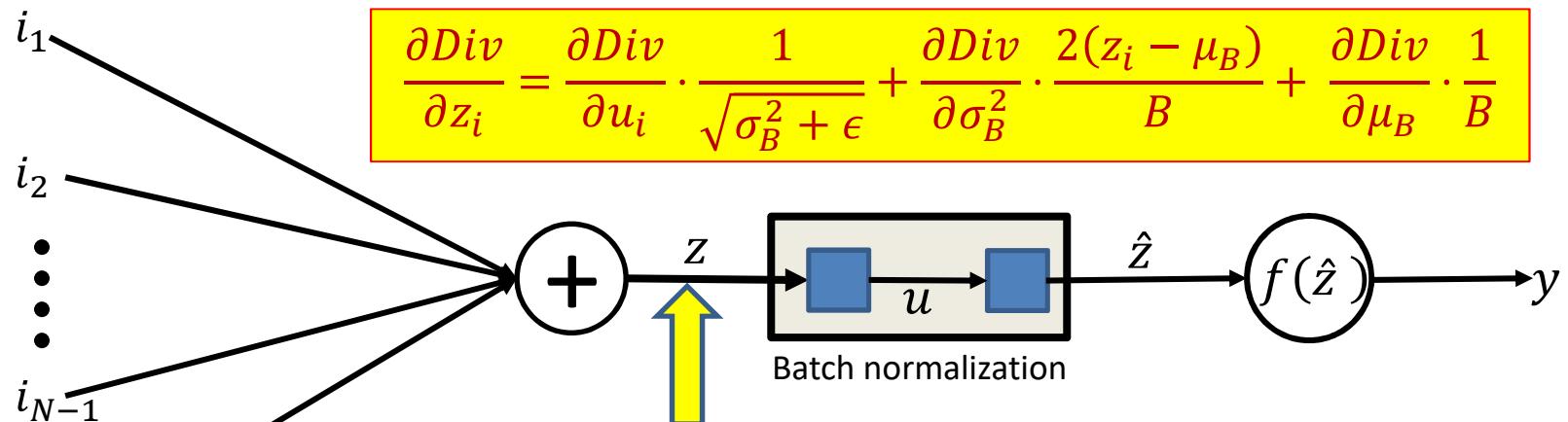
$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial \sigma_B^2} = \frac{-1}{2} (\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon)^{-3/2} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} (z_i - \mu_B)$$

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial \mu_B} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i}$$



$$\mu_B = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B z_i$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (z_i - \mu_B)^2$$

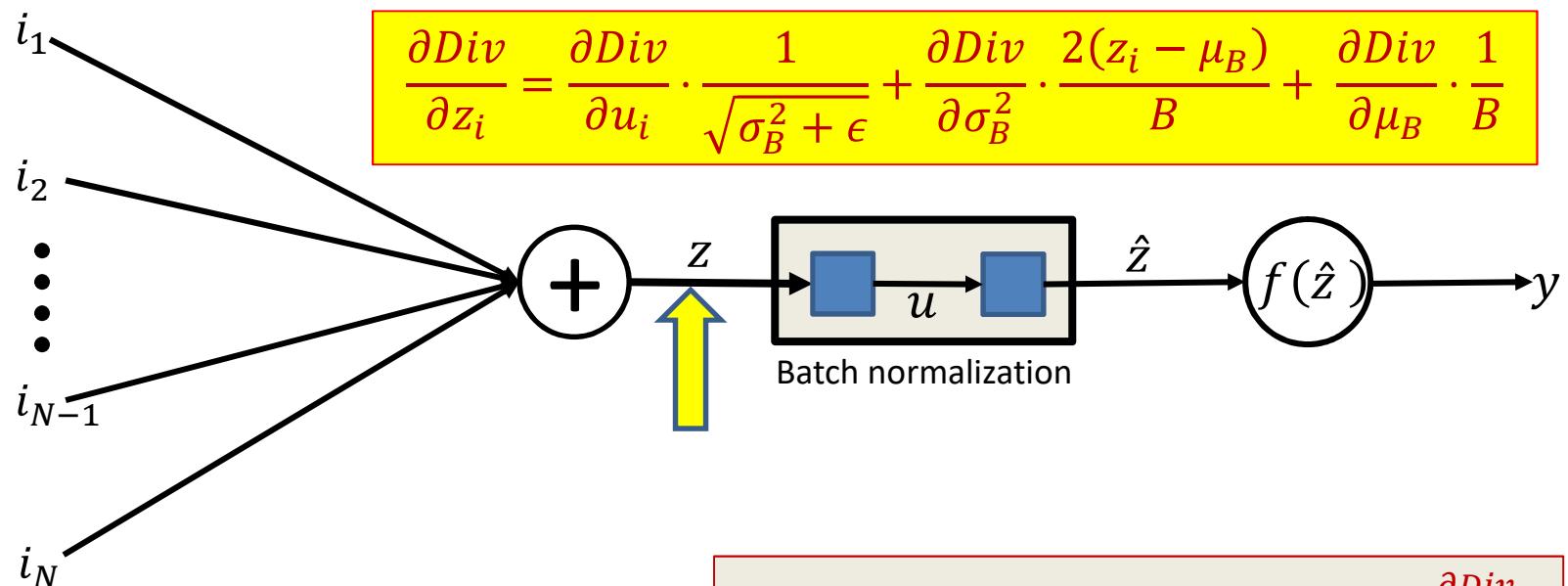
$$u_i = \frac{z_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\hat{z}_i = \gamma u_i + \beta$$

# Batch normalization: Backpropagation

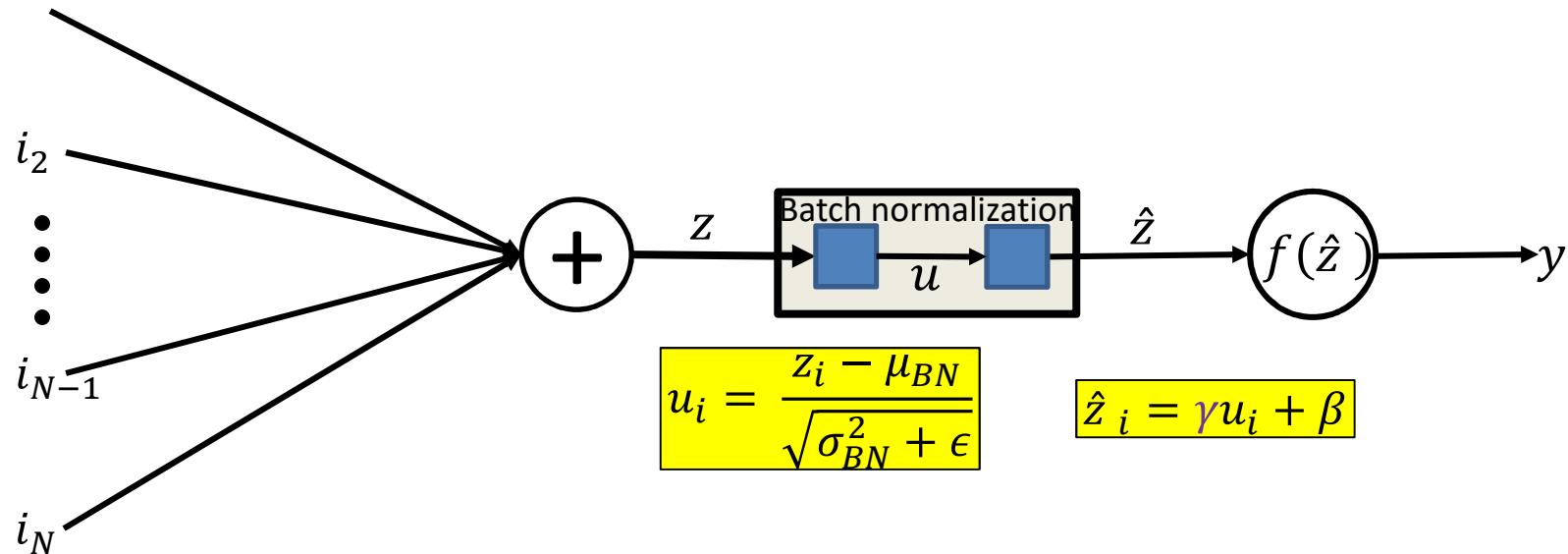
$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial \sigma_B^2} = \frac{-1}{2} (\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon)^{-3/2} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i} (z_i - \mu_B)$$

$$\frac{\partial Div}{\partial \mu_B} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \epsilon}} \sum_{i=1}^B \frac{\partial Div}{\partial u_i}$$



The rest of backprop continues from  $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i}$

# Batch normalization: Inference



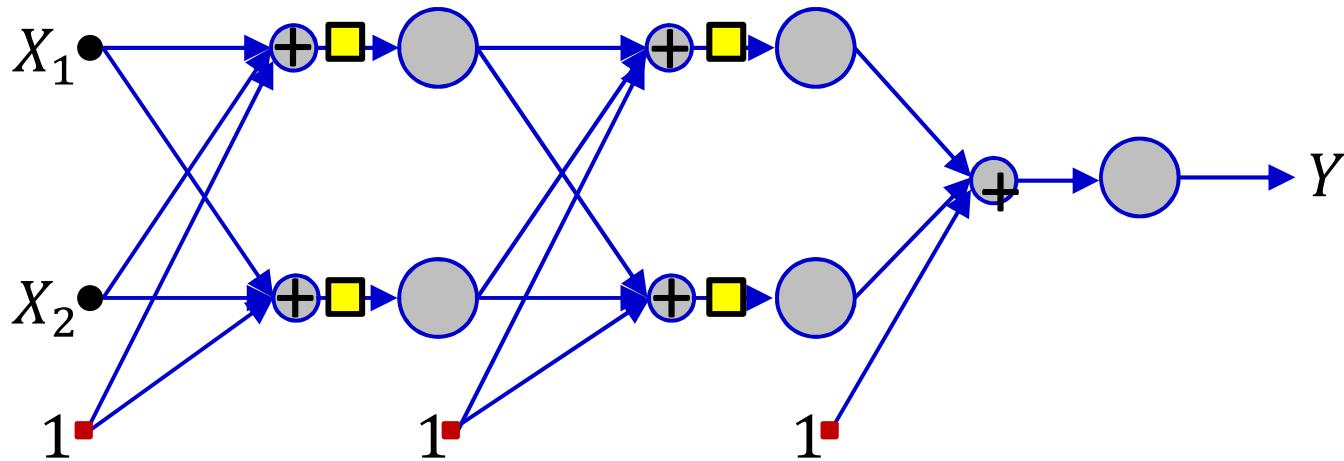
- On test data, BN requires  $\mu_B$  and  $\sigma_B^2$ .
- We will use the *average over all training minibatches*

$$\mu_{BN} = \frac{1}{Nbatches} \sum_{batch} \mu_B(batch)$$

$$\sigma_{BN}^2 = \frac{B}{(B-1)Nbatches} \sum_{batch} \sigma_B^2(batch)$$

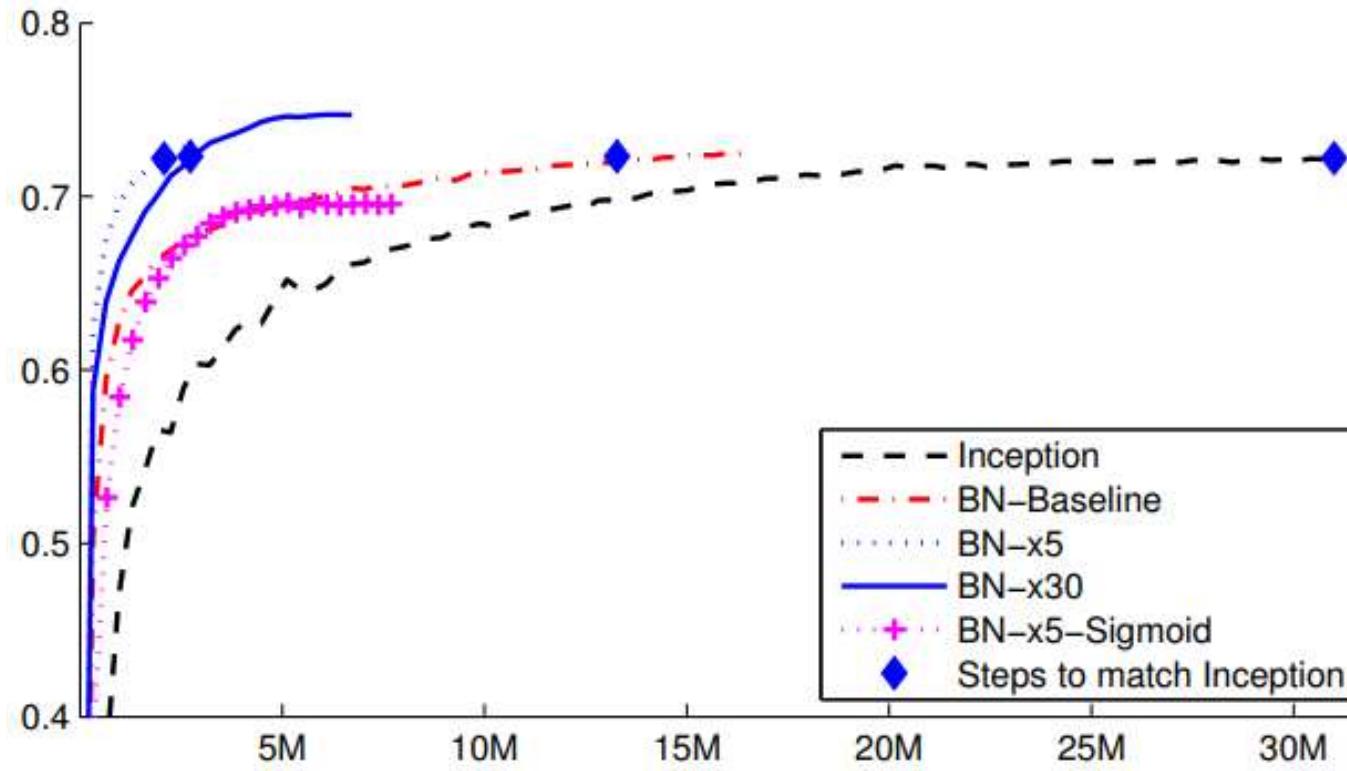
- Note: these are *neuron-specific*
  - $\mu_B(batch)$  and  $\sigma_B^2(batch)$  here are obtained from the *final converged network*
  - The  $B/(B-1)$  term gives us an unbiased estimator for the variance

# Batch normalization



- Batch normalization may only be applied to *some* layers
  - Or even only selected neurons in the layer
- Improves both convergence rate and neural network performance
  - Anecdotal evidence that BN eliminates the need for dropout
  - To get maximum benefit from BN, learning rates must be increased and learning rate decay can be faster
    - Since the data generally remain in the high-gradient regions of the activations
  - Also needs better randomization of training data order

# Batch Normalization: Typical result



- Performance on Imagenet, from Ioffe and Szegedy, JMLR 2015

# Story so far

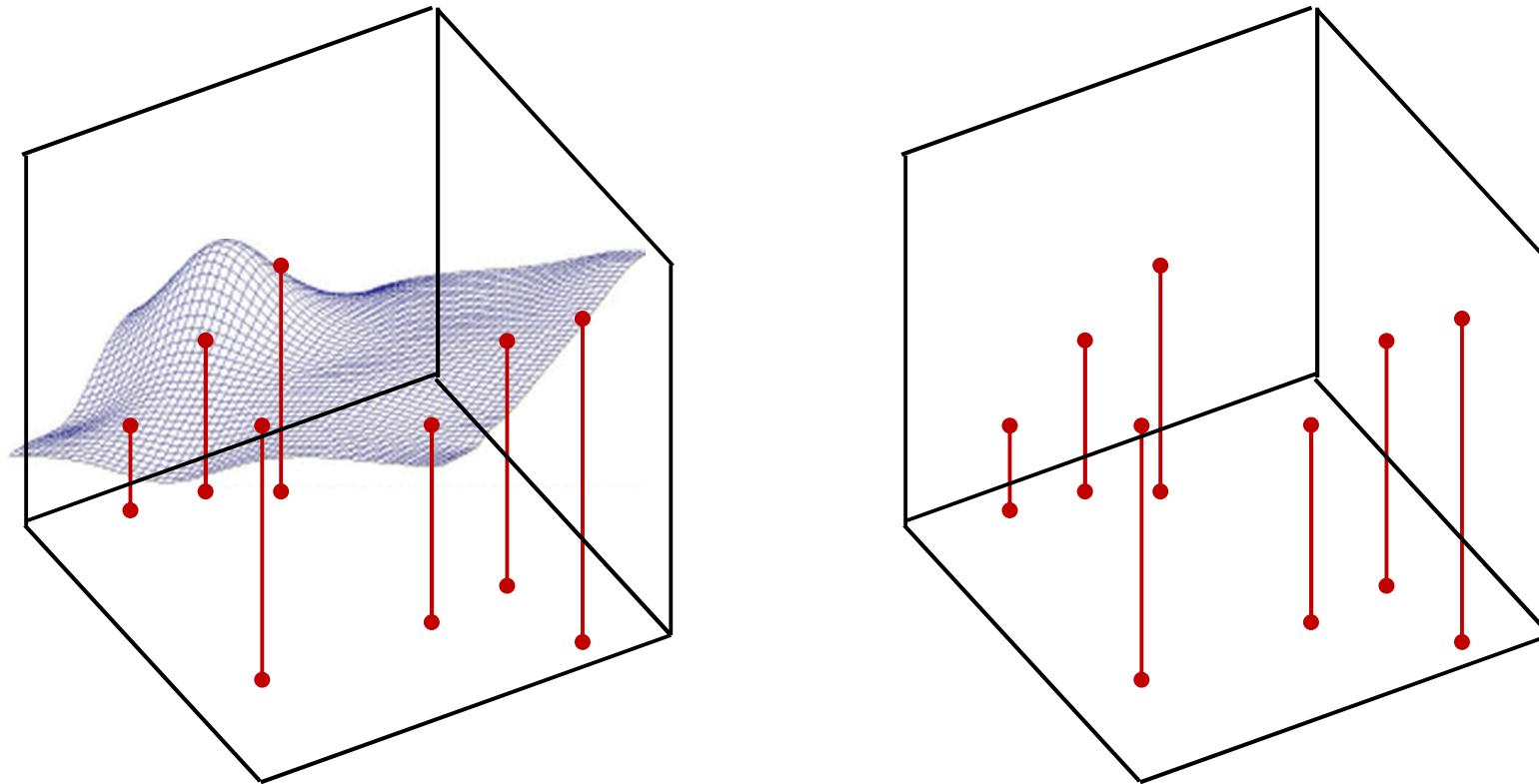
- Gradient descent can be sped up by incremental updates
- Convergence can be improved using smoothed updates
- The choice of divergence affects both the learned network and results
- Covariate shift between training and test may cause problems and may be handled by batch normalization

# The problem of data underspecification

- The figures shown to illustrate the learning problem so far were *fake news*..



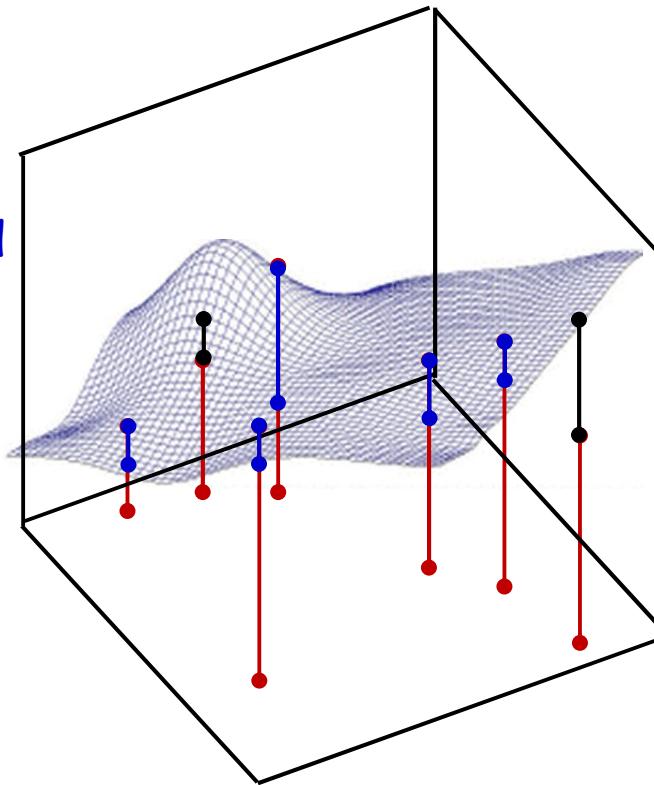
# Learning the network



- We attempt to learn an entire function from just a few *snapshots* of it

# General approach to training

Blue lines: error when function is *below* desired output

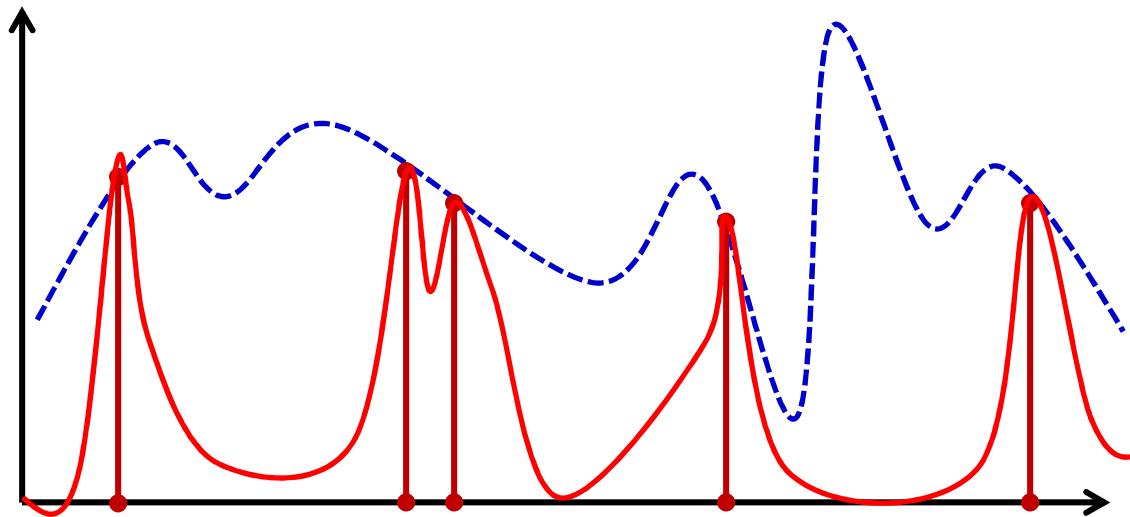


Black lines: error when function is *above* desired output

$$E = \sum_i (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{W}))^2$$

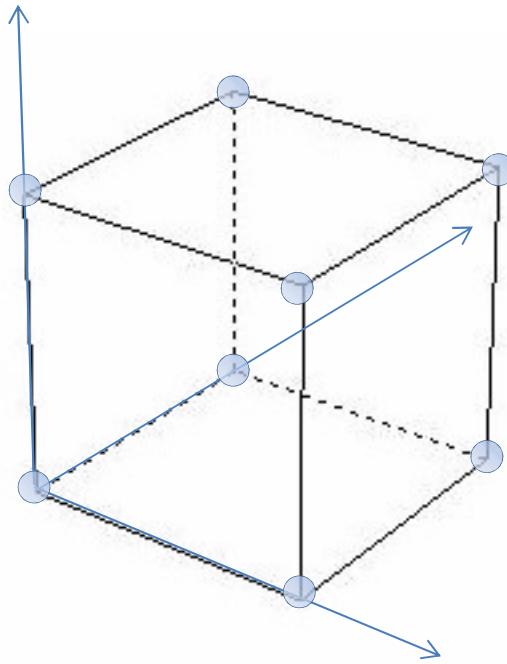
- Define an *error* between the *actual* network output for any parameter value and the *desired* output
  - Error typically defined as the *sum* of the squared error over individual training instances

# Overfitting



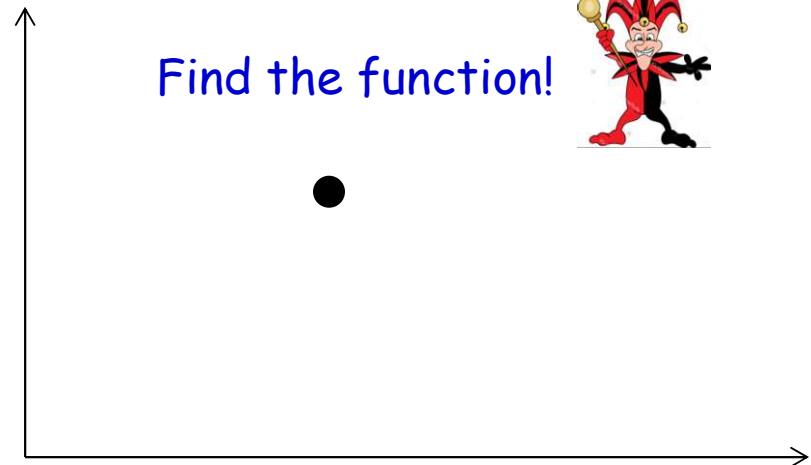
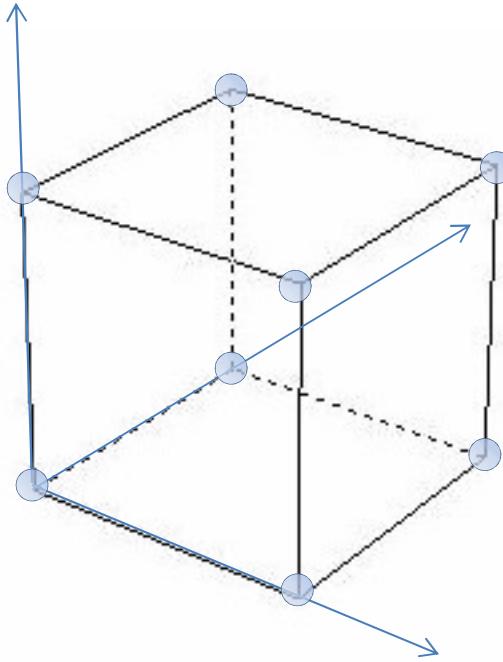
- Problem: Network may just learn the values at the inputs
  - Learn the red curve instead of the dotted blue one
    - Given only the red vertical bars as inputs

# Data under-specification



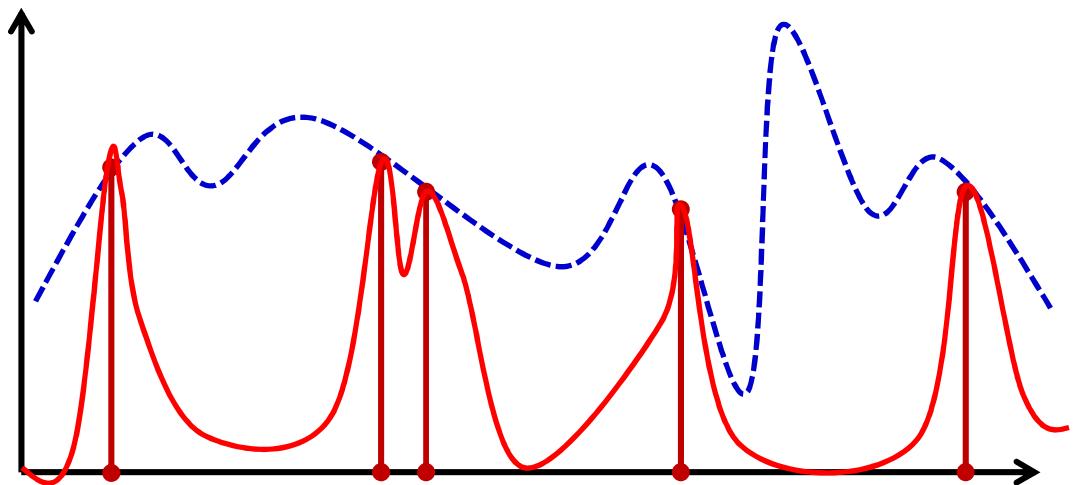
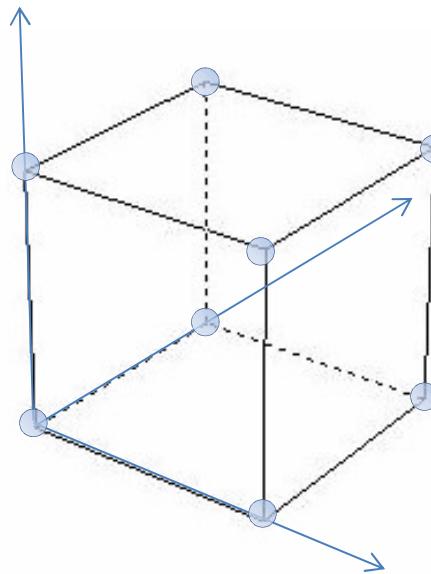
- Consider a binary 100-dimensional input
- There are  $2^{100}=10^{30}$  possible inputs
- Complete specification of the function will require specification of  $10^{30}$  output values
- A training set with only  $10^{15}$  training instances will be off by a factor of  $10^{15}$

# Data under-specification in learning



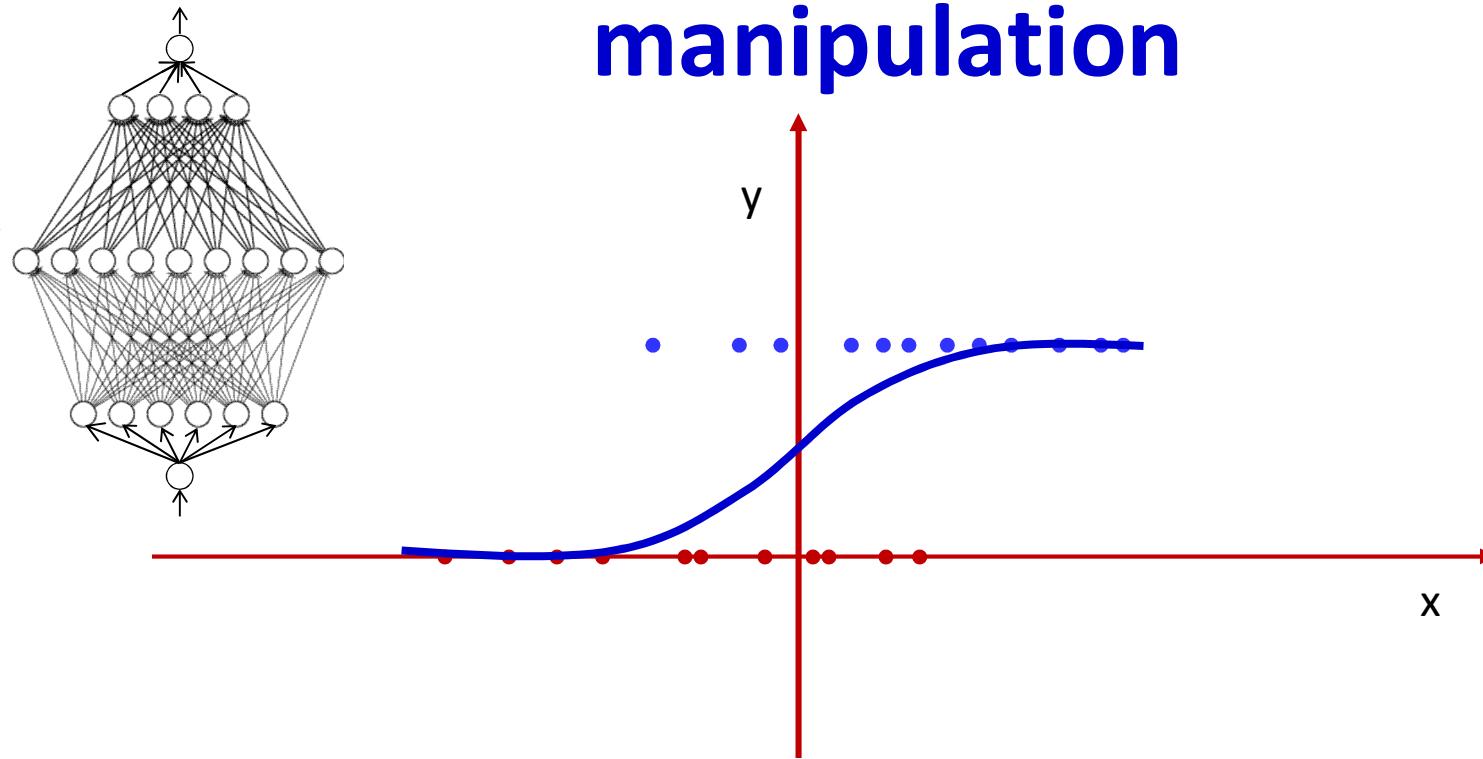
- Consider a binary 100-dimensional input
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- Complete specification of the function will require specification of  $10^{30}$  output values
- A training set with only  $10^{15}$  training instances will be off by a factor of  $10^{15}$

# Need “smoothing” constraints



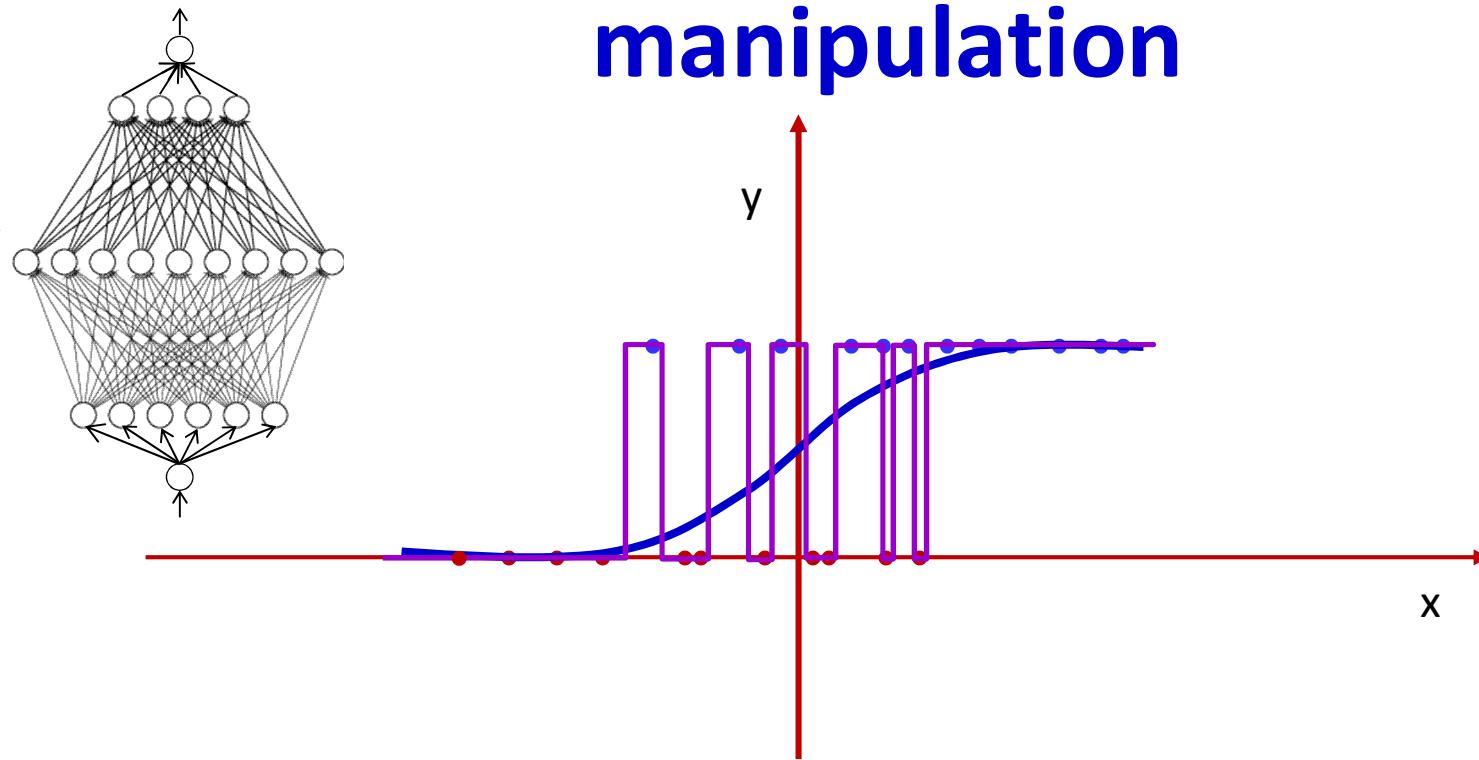
- Need additional constraints that will “fill in” the missing regions acceptably
  - Generalization

# Smoothness through weight manipulation



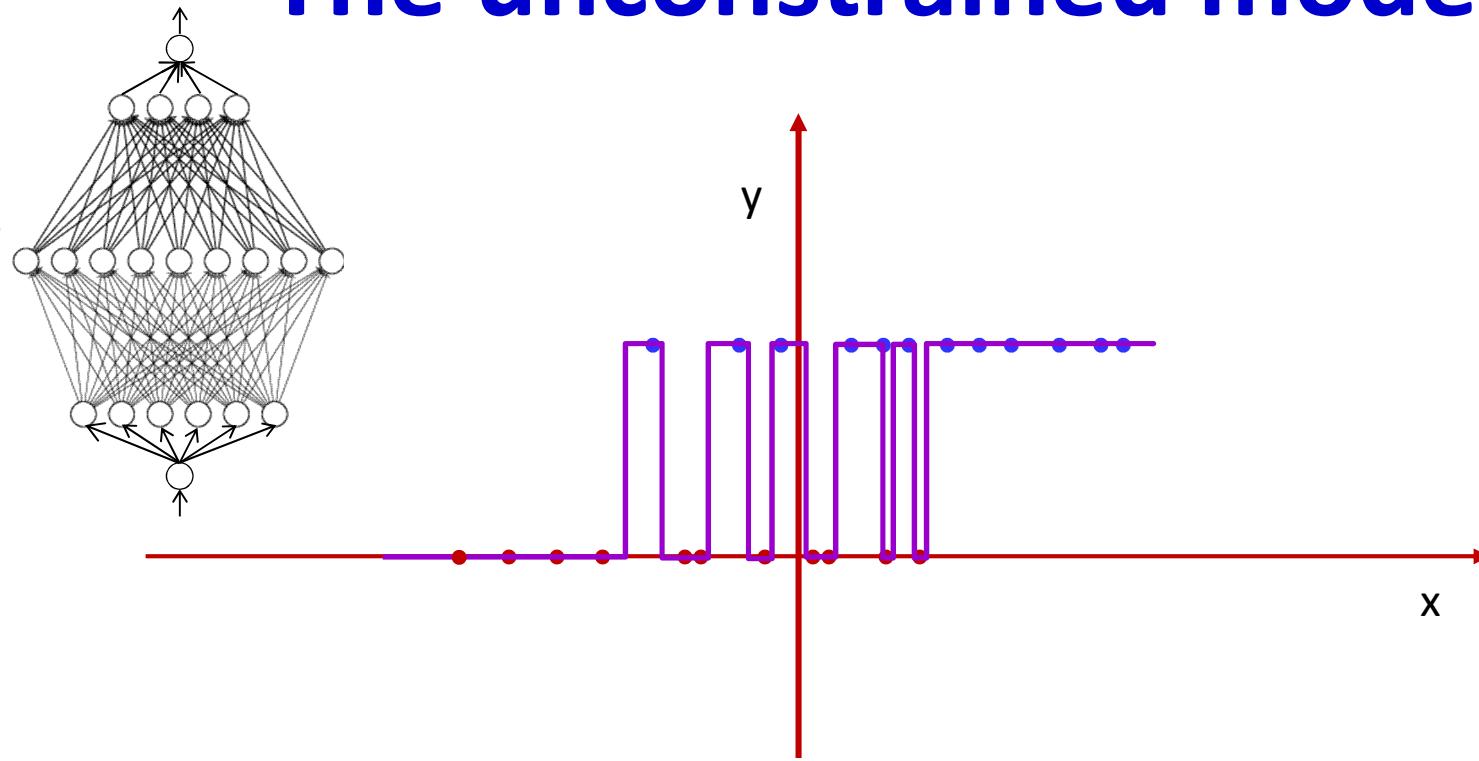
- Illustrative example: Simple binary classifier
  - The “desired” output is generally smooth

# Smoothness through weight manipulation



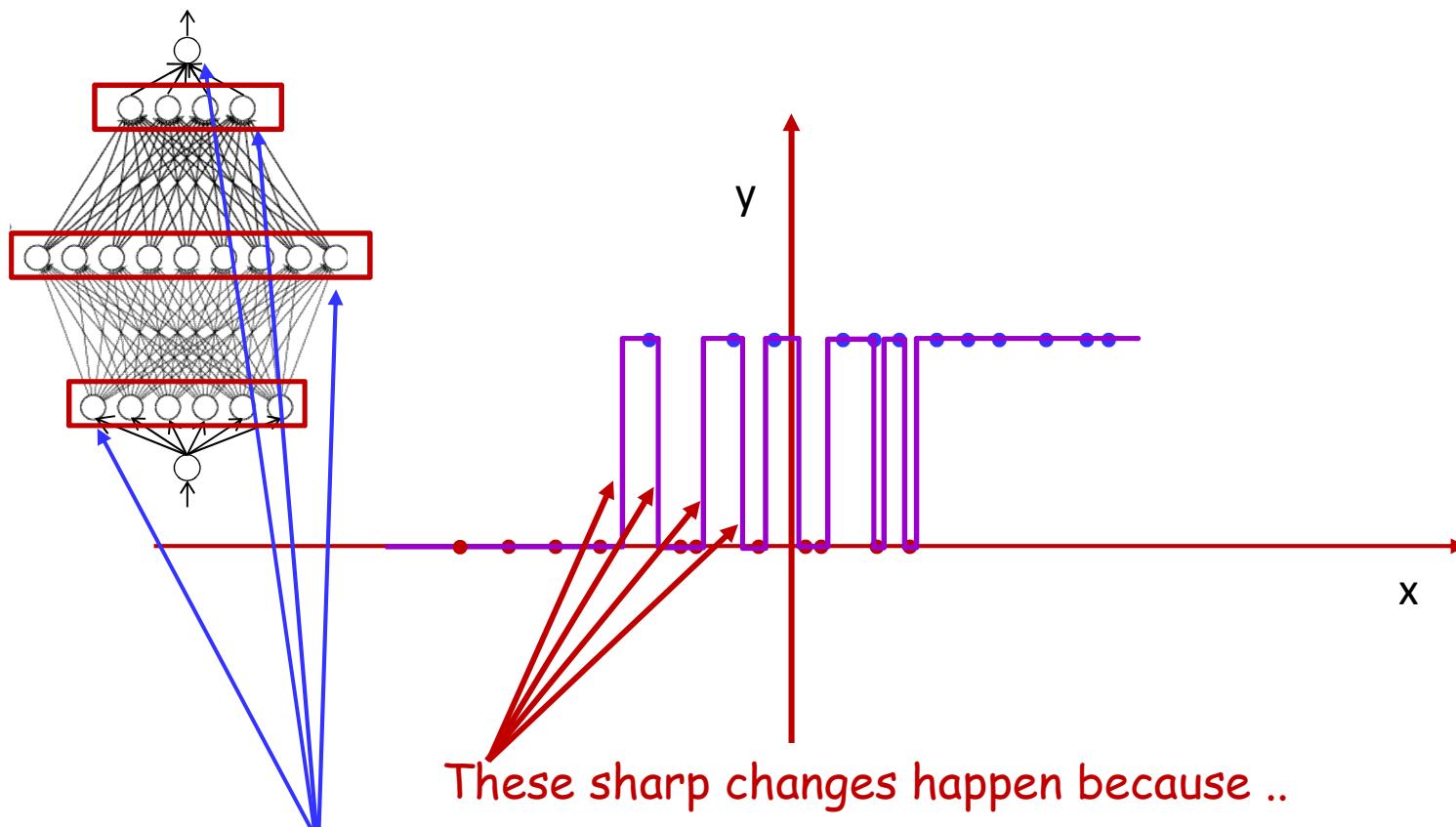
- Illustrative example: Simple binary classifier
  - The “desired” output is generally smooth
    - Capture statistical or average trends
  - An unconstrained model will model individual instances instead

# The unconstrained model



- Illustrative example: Simple binary classifier
  - The “desired” output is generally smooth
    - Capture statistical or average trends
  - An unconstrained model will model individual instances instead

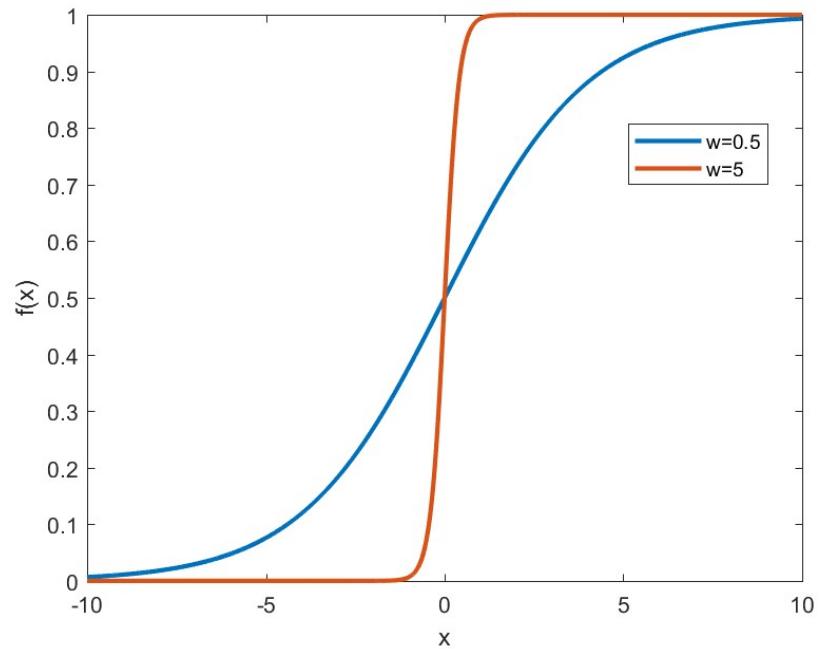
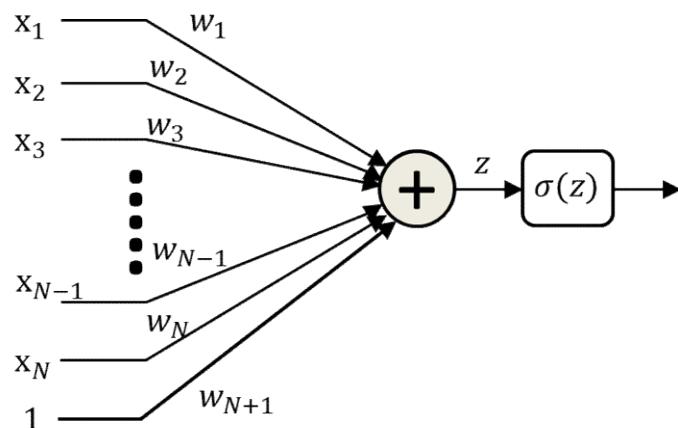
# Why overfitting



These sharp changes happen because ..

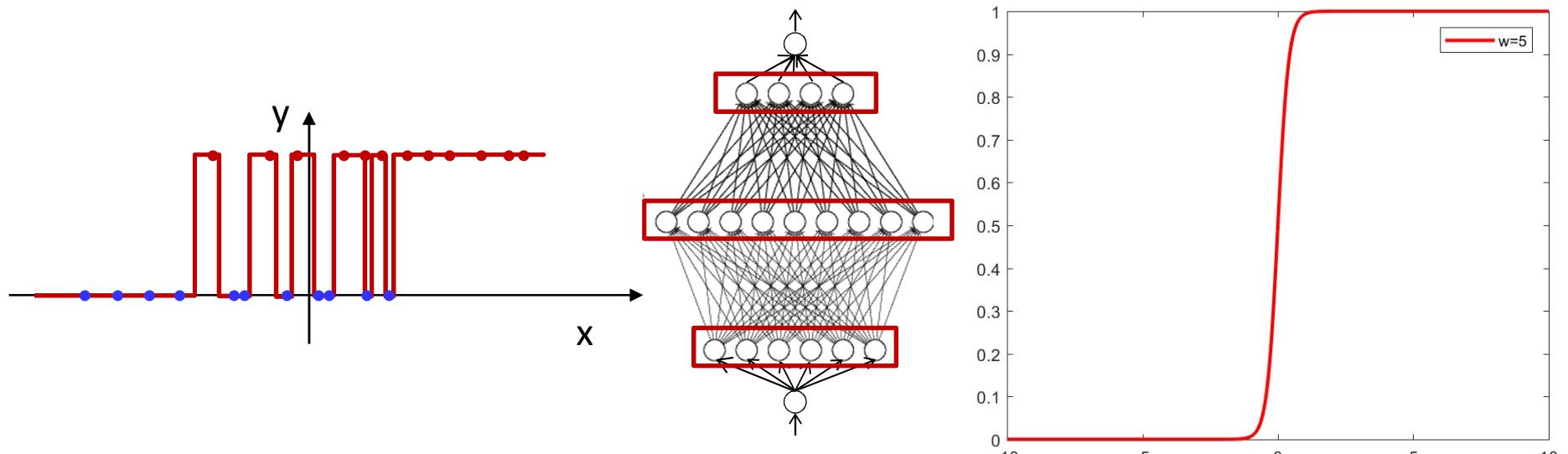
..the perceptrons in the network are individually capable of sharp changes in output

# The individual perceptron



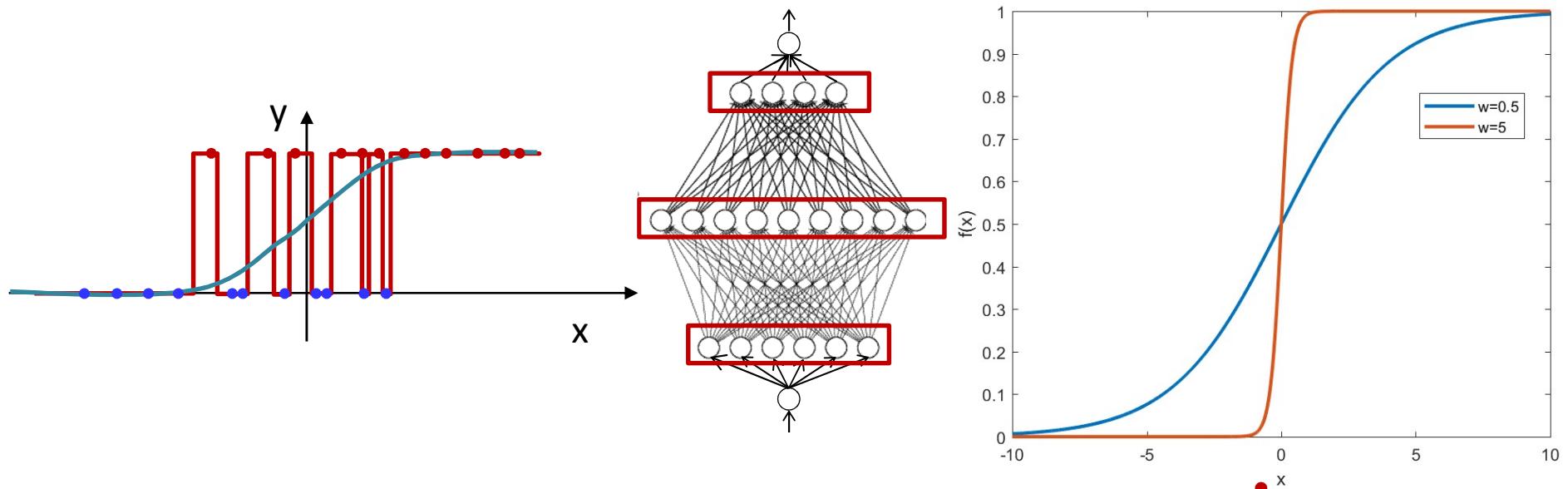
- Using a sigmoid activation
  - As  $|w|$  increases, the response becomes steeper

# Smoothness through weight manipulation



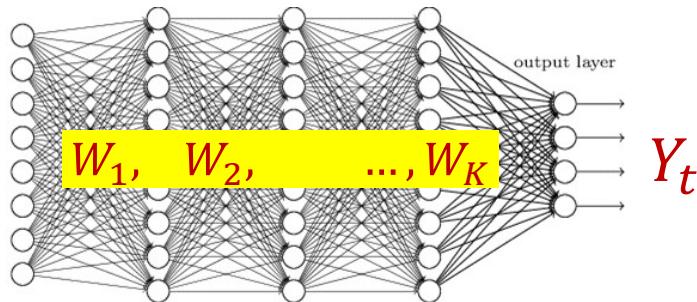
- Steep changes that enable overfitted responses are facilitated by perceptrons with large  $w$

# Smoothness through weight manipulation



- Steep changes that enable overfitted responses are facilitated by perceptrons with large  $w$
- Constraining the weights  $w$  to be low will force slower perceptrons and smoother output response

# Objective function for neural networks



Desired output of network:  $d_t$

Error on i-th training input:  $\text{Div}(Y_t, d_t; W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K)$

Batch training error:

$$\text{Err}(W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \text{Div}(Y_t, d_t; W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K)$$

- Conventional training: minimize the total error:

$$\widehat{W}_1, \widehat{W}_2, \dots, \widehat{W}_K = \underset{W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K}{\operatorname{argmin}} \text{Err}(W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K)$$

# Smoothness through weight constraints

- Regularized training: minimize the error while also minimizing the weights

$$L(W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K) = Err(W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K) + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_k \|W_k\|_2^2$$

$$\widehat{W}_1, \widehat{W}_2, \dots, \widehat{W}_K = \operatorname{argmin}_{W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K} L(W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K)$$

- $\lambda$  is the regularization parameter whose value depends on how important it is for us to want to minimize the weights
- Increasing  $\lambda$  assigns greater importance to shrinking the weights
  - Make greater error on training data, to obtain a more acceptable network

# Regularizing the weights

$$L(W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \text{Div}(Y_t, d_t) + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_k \|W_k\|_2^2$$

- Batch mode:

$$\Delta W_k = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \nabla_{W_k} \text{Div}(Y_t, d_t)^T + \lambda W_k$$

- SGD:

$$\Delta W_k = \nabla_{W_k} \text{Div}(Y_t, d_t)^T + \lambda W_k$$

- Minibatch:

$$\Delta W_k = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{\tau=t}^{t+b-1} \nabla_{W_k} \text{Div}(Y_\tau, d_\tau)^T + \lambda W_k$$

- Update rule:

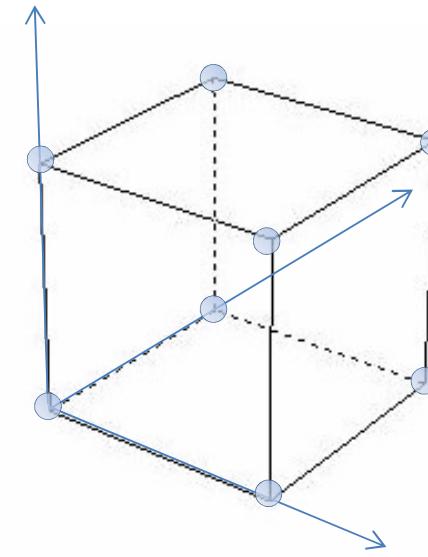
$$W_k \leftarrow W_k - \eta \Delta W_k$$

# Incremental Update: Mini-batch update

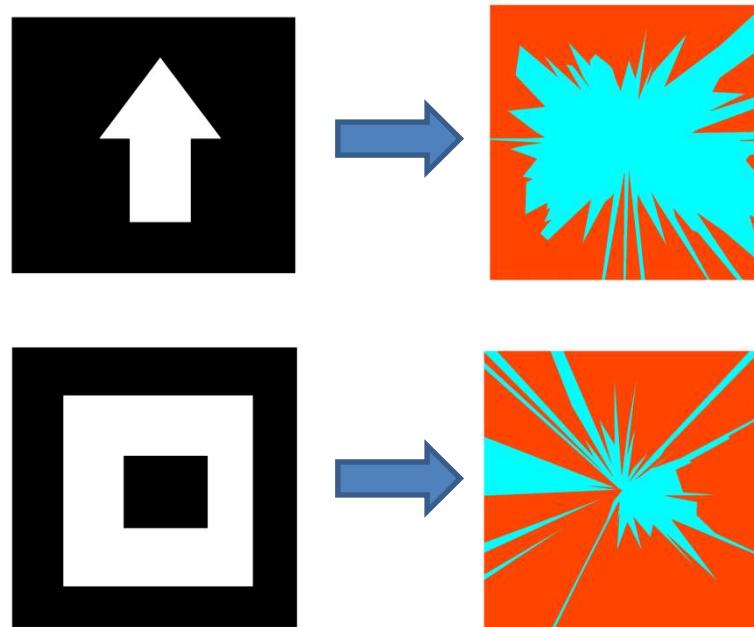
- Given  $(X_1, d_1), (X_2, d_2), \dots, (X_T, d_T)$
- Initialize all weights  $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_K; j = 0$
- Do:
  - Randomly permute  $(X_1, d_1), (X_2, d_2), \dots, (X_T, d_T)$
  - For  $t = 1:b:T$ 
    - $j = j + 1$
    - For every layer  $k$ :
      - $\Delta W_k = 0$
    - For  $t' = t : t+b-1$ 
      - For every layer  $k$ :
        - » Compute  $\nabla_{W_k} \text{Div}(Y_t, d_t)$
        - »  $\Delta W_k = \Delta W_k + \nabla_{W_k} \text{Div}(Y_t, d_t)$
    - Update
      - For every layer  $k$ :
$$W_k = W_k - \eta_j (\Delta W_k + \lambda W_k)$$
  - Until  $Err$  has converged

# Smoothness through network structure

- MLPs naturally impose constraints
- MLPs are universal approximators
  - Arbitrarily increasing size can give you arbitrarily wiggly functions
  - The function will remain ill-defined on the majority of the space
- *For a given number of parameters deeper networks impose more smoothness than shallow ones*
  - Each layer works on the already smooth surface output by the previous layer

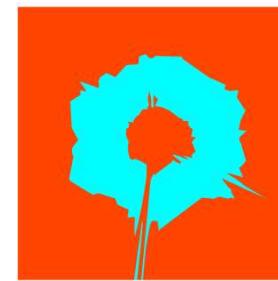
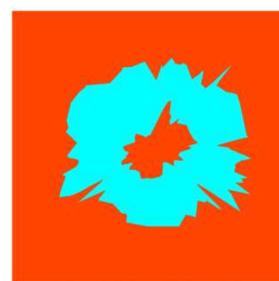
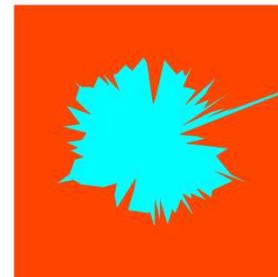
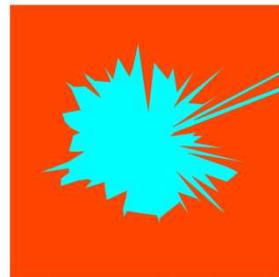
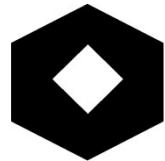


# Even when we get it all right



- Typical results (varies with initialization)
- 1000 training points – orders of magnitude more than you usually get
- All the training tricks known to mankind

# But depth and training data help

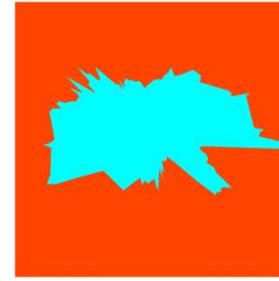
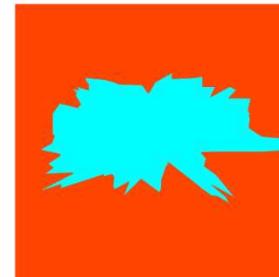


3 layers

4 layers

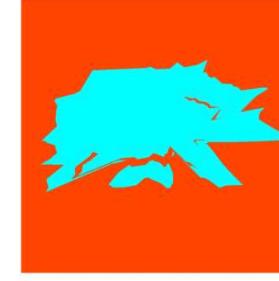
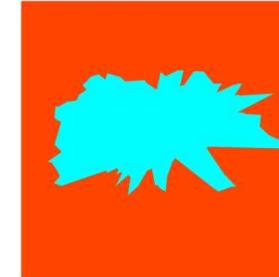
6 layers

11 layers



3 layers

6 layers



4 layers

11 layers



- Deeper networks seem to learn better, for the same number of total neurons
  - *Implicit smoothness constraints*
    - *As opposed to explicit constraints from more conventional classification models*
- **Similar functions not learnable using more usual pattern-recognition models!!**

10000 training instances



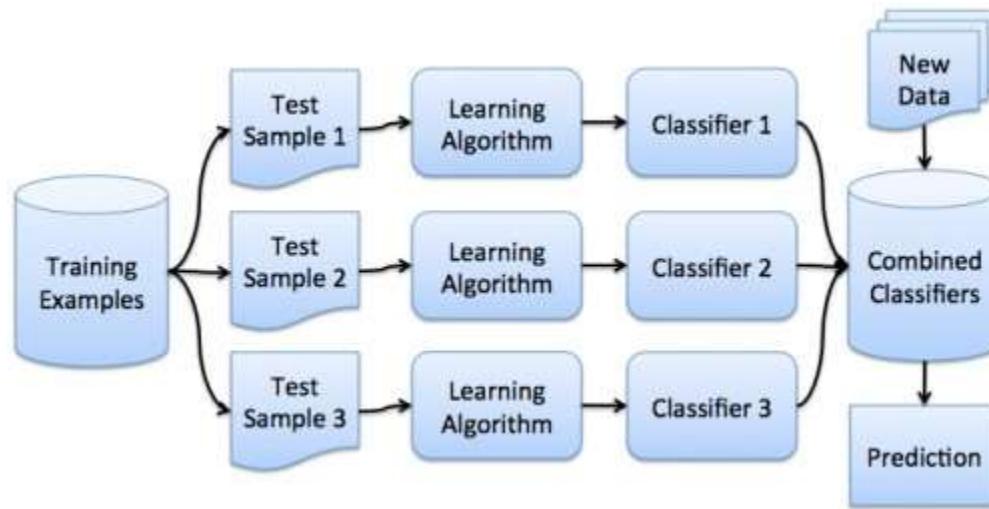
# Regularization..

- Other techniques have been proposed to improve the smoothness of the learned function
  - $L_1$  regularization of network activations
  - Regularizing with added noise..
- Possibly the most influential method has been “dropout”

# Story so far

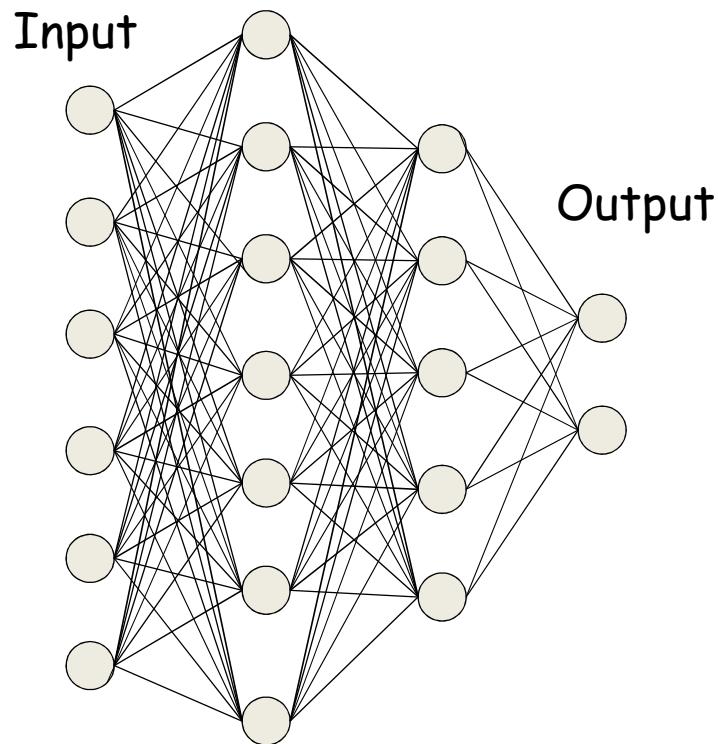
- Gradient descent can be sped up by incremental updates
- Convergence can be improved using smoothed updates
- The choice of divergence affects both the learned network and results
- Covariate shift between training and test may cause problems and may be handled by batch normalization
- Data underspecification can result in overfitted models and must be handled by regularization and more constrained (generally deeper) network architectures

# A brief detour.. Bagging



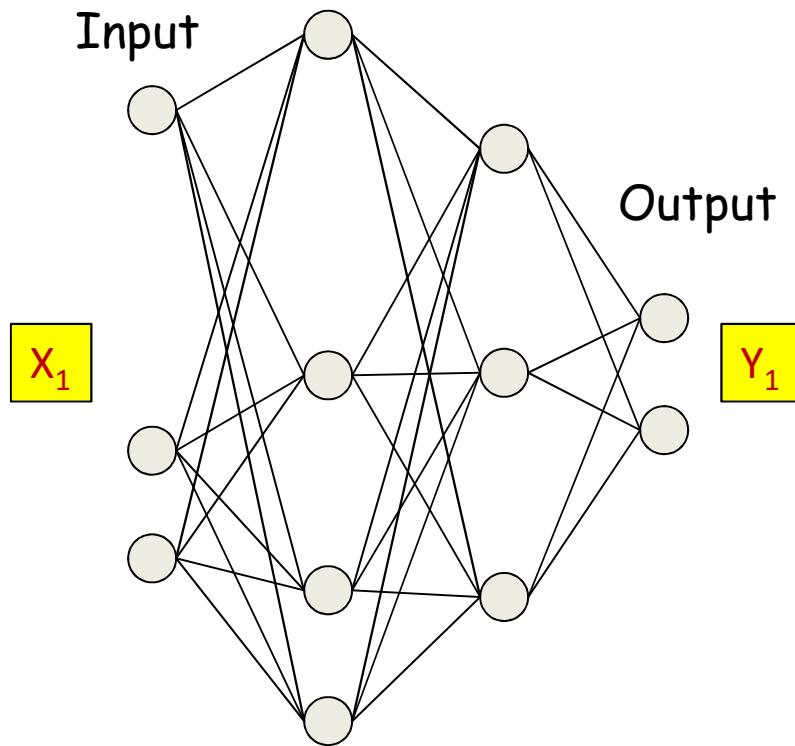
- Popular method proposed by Leo Breiman:
  - Sample training data and train several different classifiers
  - Classify test instance with entire ensemble of classifiers
  - Vote across classifiers for final decision
  - Empirically shown to improve significantly over training a single classifier from combined data
- Returning to our problem....

# Dropout



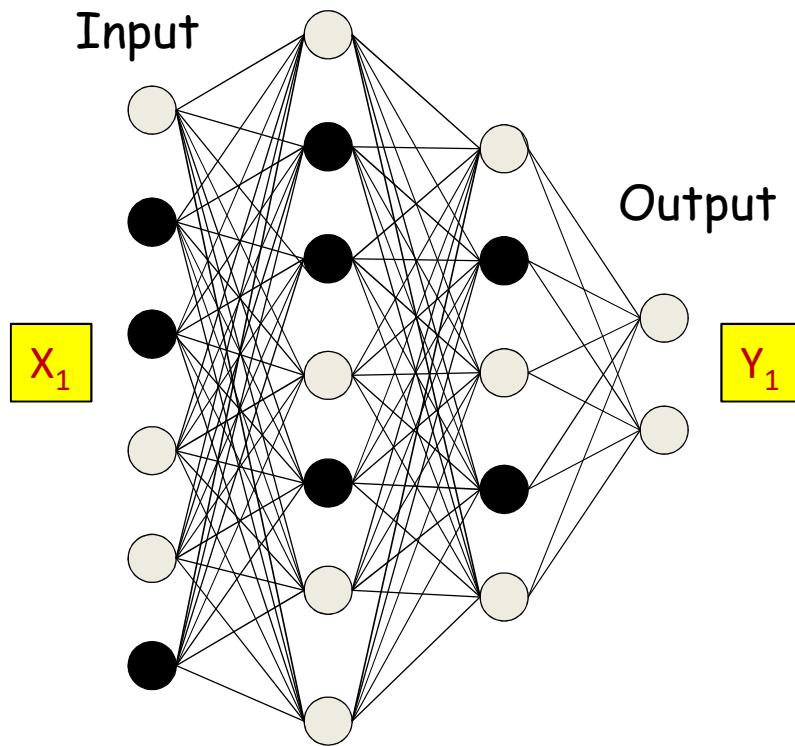
- **During training:** For each input, at each iteration, “turn off” each neuron with a probability  $1-\alpha$

# Dropout



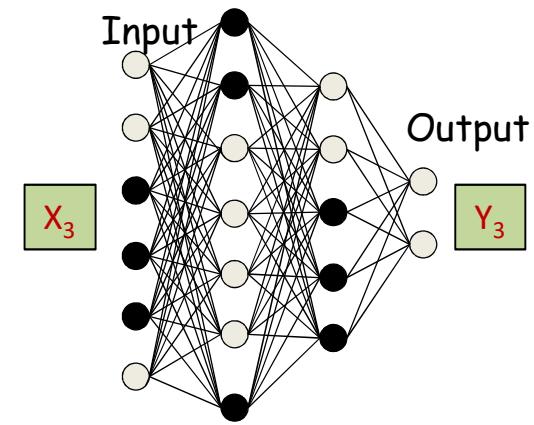
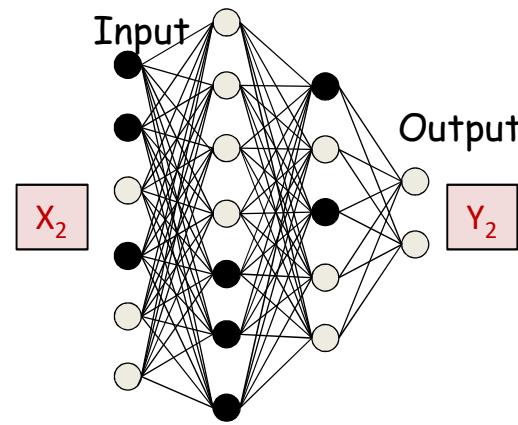
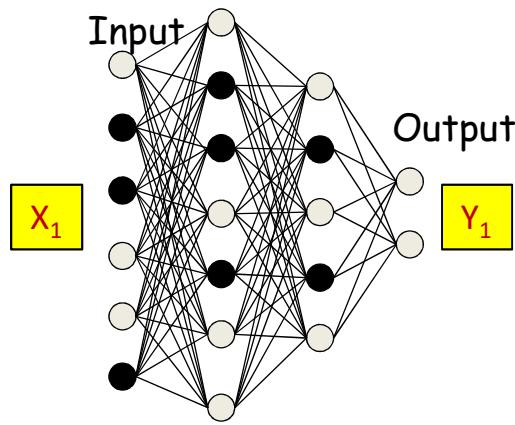
- **During training:** For each input, at each iteration, “turn off” each neuron with a probability  $1-\alpha$ 
  - Also turn off inputs similarly

# Dropout



- **During training:** For each input, at each iteration, “turn off” each neuron (including inputs) with a probability  $1-\alpha$ 
  - In practice, set them to 0 according to the success of a Bernoulli random number generator with success probability  $1-\alpha$

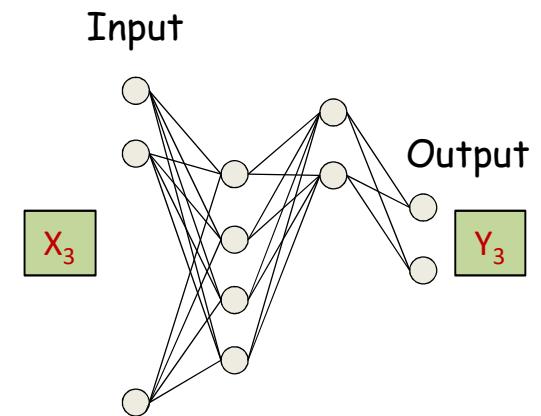
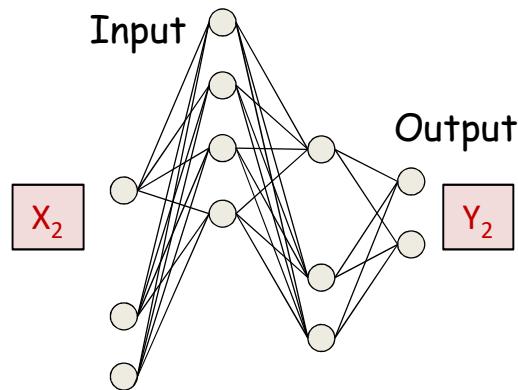
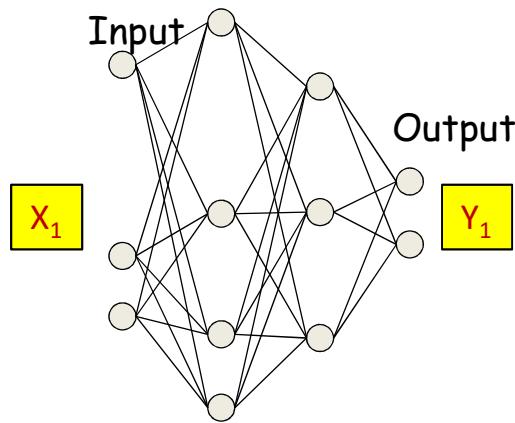
# Dropout



The pattern of dropped nodes changes for each input i.e. in every pass through the net

- **During training:** For each input, at each iteration, “turn off” each neuron (including inputs) with a probability  $1-\alpha$ 
  - In practice, set them to 0 according to the success of a Bernoulli random number generator with success probability  $1-\alpha$

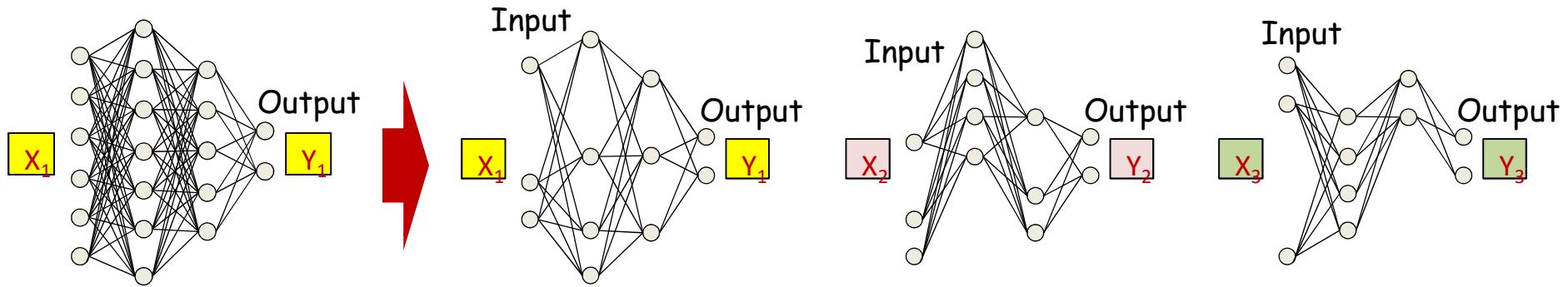
# Dropout



The pattern of dropped nodes changes for each input i.e. in every pass through the net

- **During training:** Backpropagation is effectively performed only over the remaining network
  - The effective network is different for different inputs
  - Gradients are obtained only for the weights and biases from “On” nodes to “On” nodes
    - For the remaining, the gradient is just 0

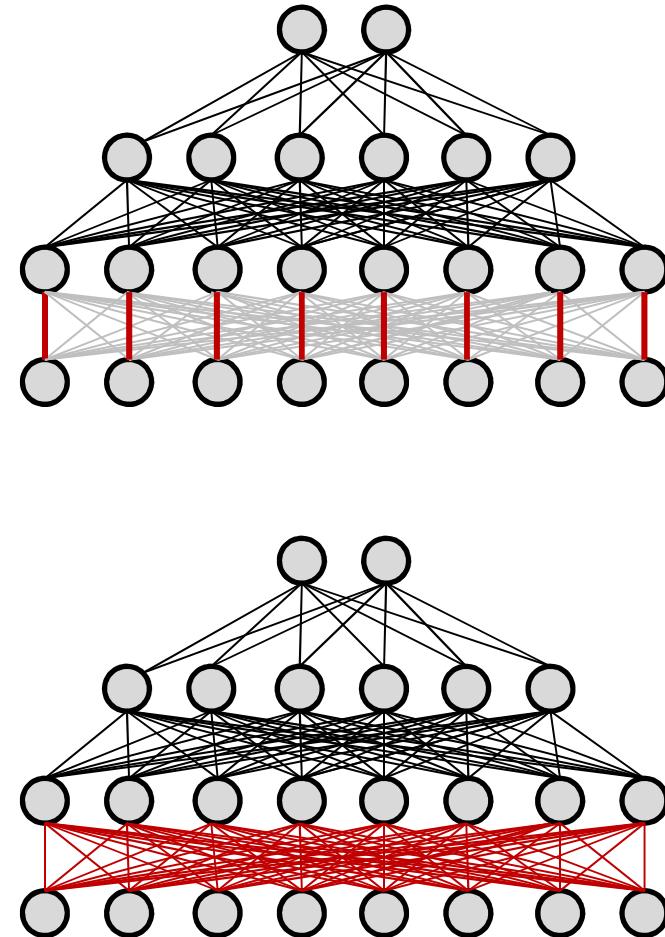
# Statistical Interpretation



- For a network with a total of  $N$  neurons, there are  $2^N$  possible sub-networks
  - Obtained by choosing different subsets of nodes
  - Dropout *samples* over all  $2^N$  possible networks
  - Effectively learns a network that *averages* over all possible networks
    - Bagging

# Dropout as a mechanism to increase pattern density

- Dropout forces the neurons to learn “rich” and redundant patterns
- E.g. without dropout, a non-compressive layer may just “clone” its input to its output
  - Transferring the task of learning to the rest of the network upstream
- Dropout forces the neurons to learn denser patterns
  - With redundancy



# The forward pass

- Input:  $D$  dimensional vector  $\mathbf{x} = [x_j, j = 1 \dots D]$
- Set:
  - $D_0 = D$ , is the width of the 0<sup>th</sup> (input) layer
  - $y_j^{(0)} = x_j, j = 1 \dots D; y_0^{(k=1\dots N)} = x_0 = 1$
- For layer  $k = 1 \dots N$

- For  $j = 1 \dots D_k$ 
  - $z_j^{(k)} = \sum_{i=0}^{N_k} w_{i,j}^{(k)} y_i^{(k-1)} + b_j^{(k)}$
  - $y_j^{(k)} = f_k(z_j^{(k)})$
  - If ( $k = \text{dropout layer}$ ):
    - $\text{mask}(k,j) = \text{Bernoulli}(\alpha)$
    - If  $\text{mask}(k,j) == 0$ 
      - »  $y_j^{(k)} = 0$

- Output:
  - $Y = y_j^{(N)}, j = 1..D_N$

# Backward Pass

- Output layer ( $N$ ) :

- $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial Y_i} = \frac{\partial Div(Y, d)}{\partial y_i^{(N)}}$

- $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i^{(k)}} = f'_k(z_i^{(k)}) \frac{\partial Div}{\partial y_i^{(k)}}$

- For layer  $k = N - 1$  down to 0

- For  $i = 1 \dots D_k$

- If (not dropout layer OR  $mask(k, i)$ )

- $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial y_i^{(k)}} = \sum_j w_{ij}^{(k+1)} \frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_j^{(k+1)}} mask(k + 1, j)$

- $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_i^{(k)}} = f'_k(z_i^{(k)}) \frac{\partial Div}{\partial y_i^{(k)}}$

- $\frac{\partial Div}{\partial w_{ij}^{(k+1)}} = y_i^{(k)} \frac{\partial Div}{\partial z_j^{(k+1)}} mask(k + 1, j)$  for  $j = 1 \dots D_{k+1}$

- Else

- $\frac{\partial Di}{\partial z_i^{(k)}} = 0$

# What each neuron computes

- Each neuron actually has the following activation:

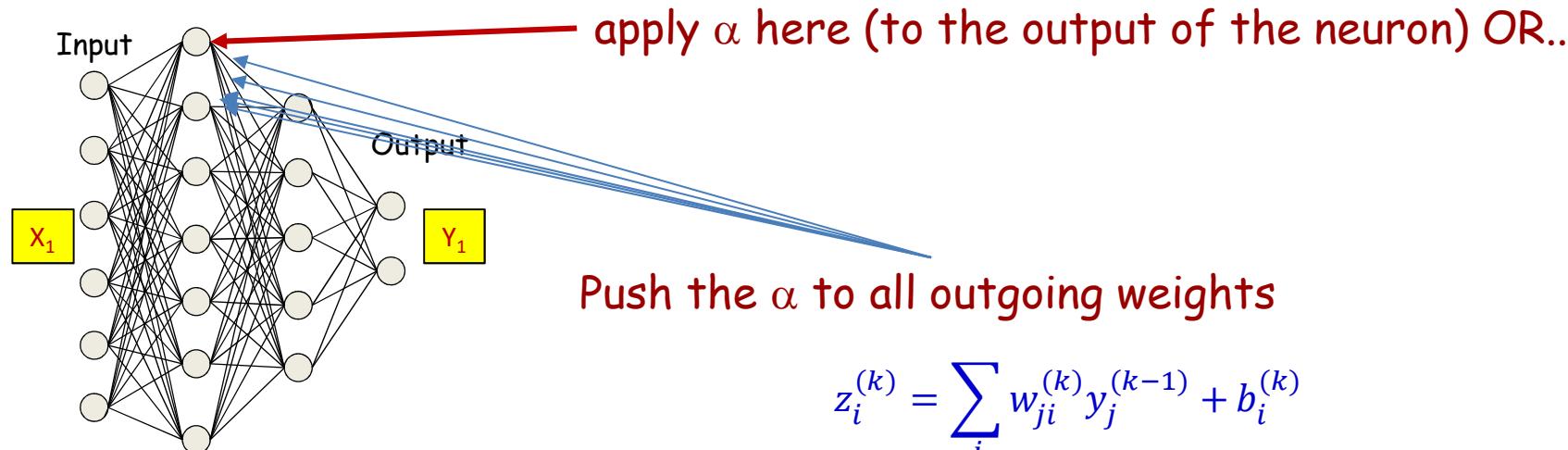
$$y_i^{(k)} = D\sigma \left( \sum_j w_{ji}^{(k)} y_j^{(k-1)} + b_i^{(k)} \right)$$

- Where  $D$  is a Bernoulli variable that takes a value 1 with probability  $\alpha$
- $D$  may be switched on or off for individual sub networks, but over the ensemble, the *expected output* of the neuron is

$$y_i^{(k)} = \alpha\sigma \left( \sum_j w_{ji}^{(k)} y_j^{(k-1)} + b_i^{(k)} \right)$$

- During *test* time, we will use the *expected* output of the neuron
  - Which corresponds to the bagged average output
  - Consists of simply scaling the output of each neuron by  $\alpha$

# Dropout during test: implementation



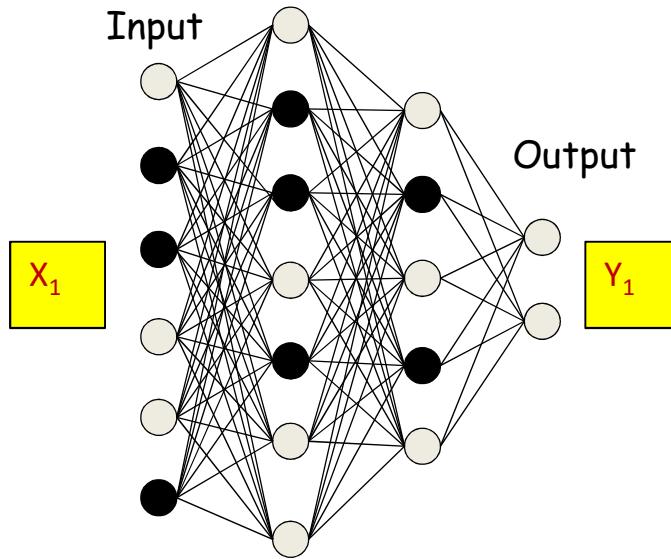
$$y_i^{(k)} = \alpha \sigma(z_i^{(k)})$$

$$\begin{aligned} z_i^{(k)} &= \sum_j w_{ji}^{(k)} y_j^{(k-1)} + b_i^{(k)} \\ &= \sum_j w_{ji}^{(k)} \alpha \sigma(z_j^{(k-1)}) + b_i^{(k)} \\ &= \sum_j (\alpha w_{ji}^{(k)}) \sigma(z_j^{(k-1)}) + b_i^{(k)} \end{aligned}$$

$$W_{test} = \alpha W_{trained}$$

- Instead of multiplying every output by  $\alpha$ , multiply all weights by  $\alpha$

# Dropout : alternate implementation



- Alternately, during *training*, replace the activation of all neurons in the network by  $\alpha^{-1}\sigma(.)$ 
  - This does not affect the dropout procedure itself
  - We will use  $\sigma(.)$  as the activation during testing, and not modify the weights

# The forward pass (testing)

- Input:  $D$  dimensional vector  $\mathbf{x} = [x_j, j = 1 \dots D]$

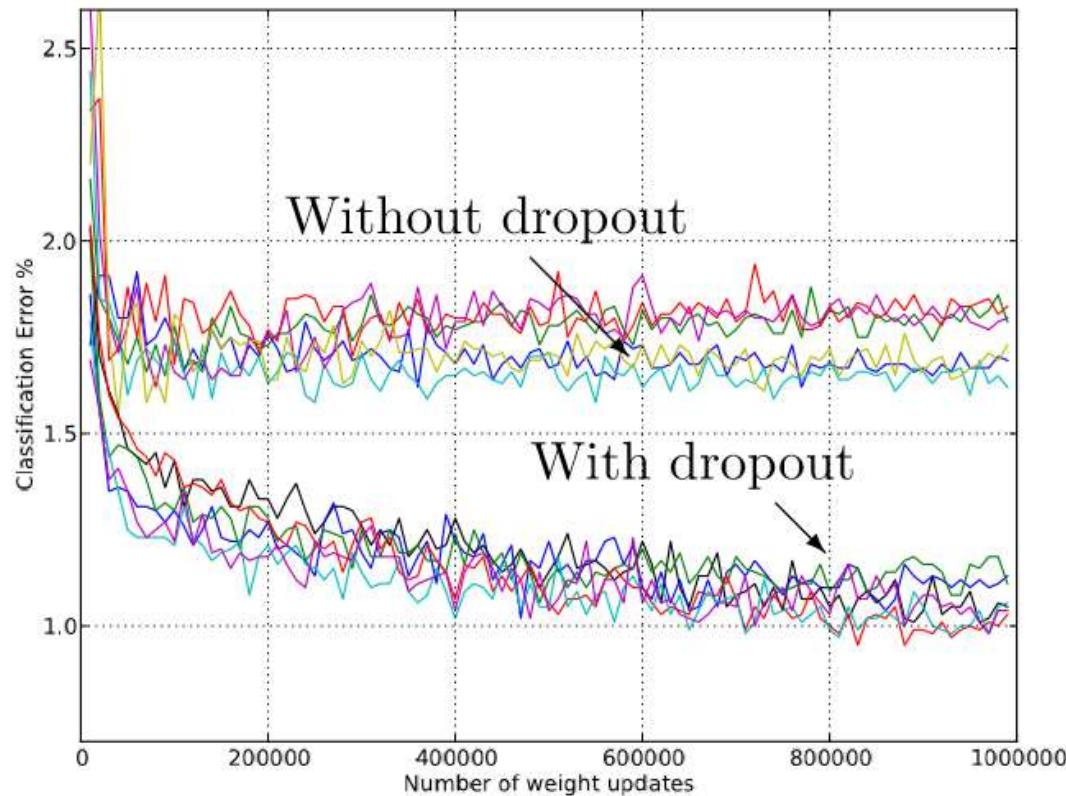
- Set:
  - $D_0 = D$ , is the width of the 0<sup>th</sup> (input) layer
  - $y_j^{(0)} = x_j, j = 1 \dots D; y_0^{(k=1\dots N)} = x_0 = 1$

- For layer  $k = 1 \dots N$

- For  $j = 1 \dots D_k$ 
    - $z_j^{(k)} = \sum_{i=0}^{N_k} w_{i,j}^{(k)} y_i^{(k-1)} + b_j^{(k)}$
    - $y_j^{(k)} = f_k(z_j^{(k)})$
    - If ( $k = \text{dropout layer}$ ) :
      - »  $y_j^{(k)} = y_j^{(k)} / \alpha$
      - Else
        - »  $y_j^{(k)} = 0$

- Output:
  - $Y = y_j^{(N)}, j = 1..D_N$

# Dropout: Typical results



- From Srivastava et al., 2013. Test error for different architectures on MNIST with and without dropout
  - 2-4 hidden layers with 1024-2048 units

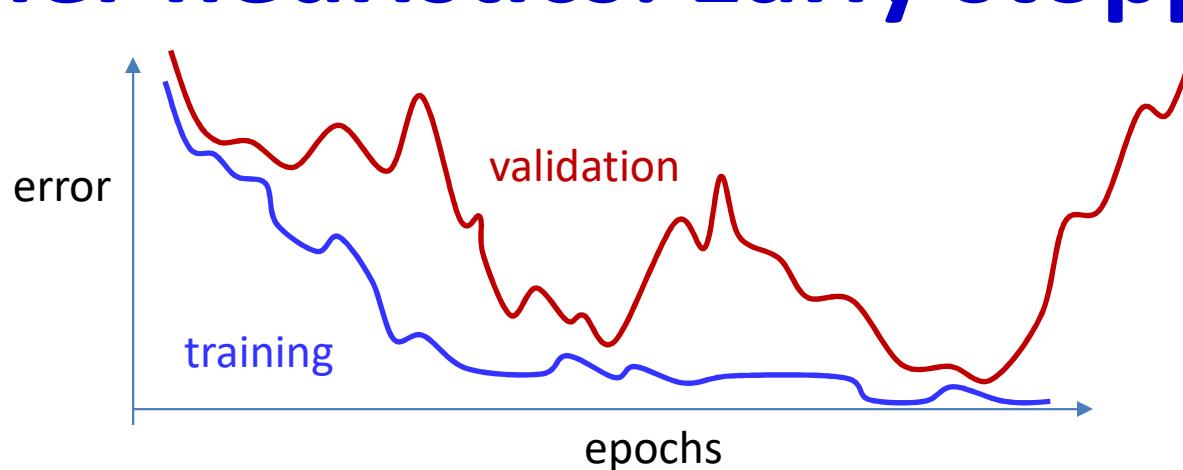
# Variations on dropout

- Zoneout: For RNNs
  - Randomly chosen units remain unchanged across a time transition
- Dropconnect
  - Drop individual connections, instead of nodes
- Shakeout
  - Scale *up* the weights of randomly selected weights
    - $|w| \rightarrow \alpha|w| + (1 - \alpha)c$
  - Fix remaining weights to a negative constant
    - $w \rightarrow -c$
- Whiteout
  - Add or multiply weight-dependent Gaussian noise to the signal on each connection

# Story so far

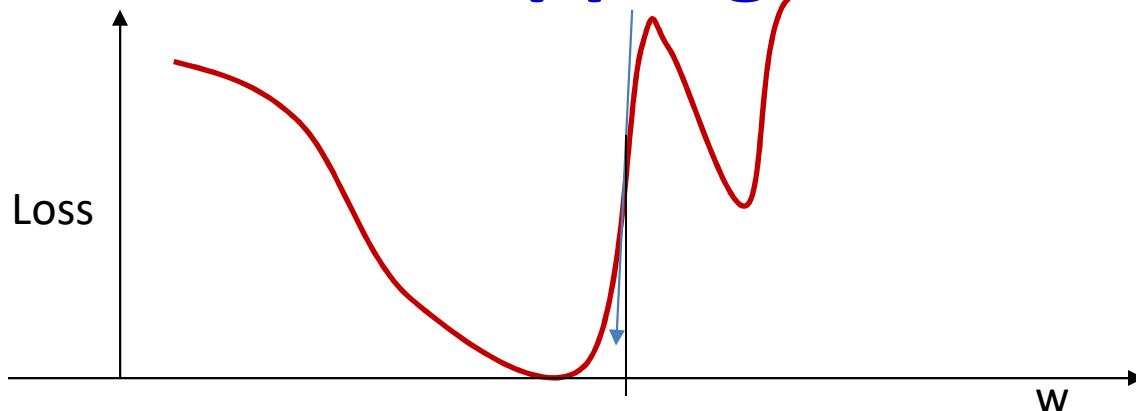
- Gradient descent can be sped up by incremental updates
- Convergence can be improved using smoothed updates
- The choice of divergence affects both the learned network and results
- Covariate shift between training and test may cause problems and may be handled by batch normalization
- Data underspecification can result in overfitted models and must be handled by regularization and more constrained (generally deeper) network architectures
- “Dropout” is a stochastic data/model erasure method that sometimes forces the network to learn more robust models

# Other heuristics: Early stopping



- Continued training can result in over fitting to training data
  - Track performance on a held-out validation set
  - Apply one of several early-stopping criterion to terminate training when performance on validation set degrades significantly

# Additional heuristics: Gradient clipping



- Often the derivative will be too high
  - When the divergence has a steep slope
  - This can result in instability
- **Gradient clipping:** set a ceiling on derivative value
$$\text{if } \partial_w D > \theta \text{ then } \partial_w D = \theta$$
  - Typical  $\theta$  value is 5

# Additional heuristics: Data Augmentation



CocaColaZero1\_1.png



CocaColaZero1\_2.png



CocaColaZero1\_3.png



CocaColaZero1\_4.png



CocaColaZero1\_5.png



CocaColaZero1\_6.png



CocaColaZero1\_7.png



CocaColaZero1\_8.png

- Available training data will often be small
- “Extend” it by distorting examples in a variety of ways to generate synthetic labelled examples
  - E.g. rotation, stretching, adding noise, other distortion

# Other tricks

- Normalize the input:
  - Apply covariate shift to entire training data to make it 0 mean, unit variance
  - Equivalent of batch norm on input
- A variety of other tricks are applied
  - Initialization techniques
    - Typically initialized randomly
    - Key point: neurons with identical connections that are identically initialized will never diverge
  - Practice makes man perfect

# Setting up a problem

- Obtain training data
  - Use appropriate representation for inputs and outputs
- Choose network architecture
  - More neurons need more data
  - Deep is better, but harder to train
- Choose the appropriate divergence function
  - Choose regularization
- Choose heuristics (batch norm, dropout, etc.)
- Choose optimization algorithm
  - E.g. Adagrad
- Perform a grid search for hyper parameters (learning rate, regularization parameter, ...) on held-out data
- Train
  - Evaluate periodically on validation data, for early stopping if required

# In closing

- Have outlined the process of training neural networks
  - Some history
  - A variety of algorithms
  - Gradient-descent based techniques
  - Regularization for generalization
  - Algorithms for convergence
  - Heuristics
- Practice makes perfect..