# Deep learning hands-on
# Lecture 4 Tricks of the trade

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# Objectives of lecture

- Tricks of the trade!
- P1: Faster convergence
  - Advanced stochastic gradient descent
  - Initialization
  - Gradient clipping
  - Batch normalization
- P2: Better performance - regularization
  - Weight decay/priors
  - Early stopping
  - Dropout

# Part 1:
# Faster training convergence

# Adam algorithm by Kingma and Ba

**Algorithm 1:** *Adam*, our proposed algorithm for stochastic optimization. See section 2 for details, and for a slightly more efficient (but less clear) order of computation. $g_t^2$ indicates the elementwise square $g_t \odot g_t$. Good default settings for the tested machine learning problems are $\alpha = 0.001$, $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$ and $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$. All operations on vectors are element-wise. With $\beta_1^t$ and $\beta_2^t$ we denote $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$ to the power $t$.

**Require:** $\alpha$: Stepsize
**Require:** $\beta_1, \beta_2 \in [0, 1)$: Exponential decay rates for the moment estimates
**Require:** $f(\theta)$: Stochastic objective function with parameters $\theta$
**Require:** $\theta_0$: Initial parameter vector

$m_0 \leftarrow 0$ (Initialize $1^{\text{st}}$ moment vector)
$v_0 \leftarrow 0$ (Initialize $2^{\text{nd}}$ moment vector)
$t \leftarrow 0$ (Initialize timestep)
**while** $\theta_t$ not converged **do**
  $t \leftarrow t + 1$
  $g_t \leftarrow \nabla_\theta f_t(\theta_{t-1})$ (Get gradients w.r.t. stochastic objective at timestep $t$)
  $m_t \leftarrow \beta_1 \cdot m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) \cdot g_t$ (Update biased first moment estimate)
  $v_t \leftarrow \beta_2 \cdot v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2) \cdot g_t^2$ (Update biased second raw moment estimate)
  $\widehat{m}_t \leftarrow m_t / (1 - \beta_1^t)$ (Compute bias-corrected first moment estimate)
  $\widehat{v}_t \leftarrow v_t / (1 - \beta_2^t)$ (Compute bias-corrected second raw moment estimate)
  $\theta_t \leftarrow \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \cdot \widehat{m}_t / (\sqrt{\widehat{v}_t} + \epsilon)$ (Update parameters)
**end while**
**return** $\theta_t$ (Resulting parameters)

# Adam algorithm by Kingma and Ba

- $\mathbb{E}[(\theta)]$ is the cost function we want to optimize
- $f(\theta_t)$ stochastic estimate of $\mathbb{E}[(\theta)]$, e.g. training cost on mini-batch.
- Momentum:

$$m_t \leftarrow \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1)\nabla_\theta f(\theta_{t-1})$$

- Correct bias from $m_0 = 0$.
- Normalize stepsize with $\sqrt{\text{estimate of gradient}^2}$ so that

$$|\Delta\theta| \lesssim \alpha$$

- Never take step larger than $\alpha$
- Take roughly equal steps in all directions, but $\beta_2 > \beta_1$ and $\epsilon > 0$ ensures that we will stop at minimum.
- Demo

# Initialization

- Initialize weights $W_{ij} \sim \sqrt{\frac{4}{n_i+n_j}}\mathcal{N}(0,1)$
- where size of $\mathbf{W}$ is $n_i \times n_j$.

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- Assume independent signals.

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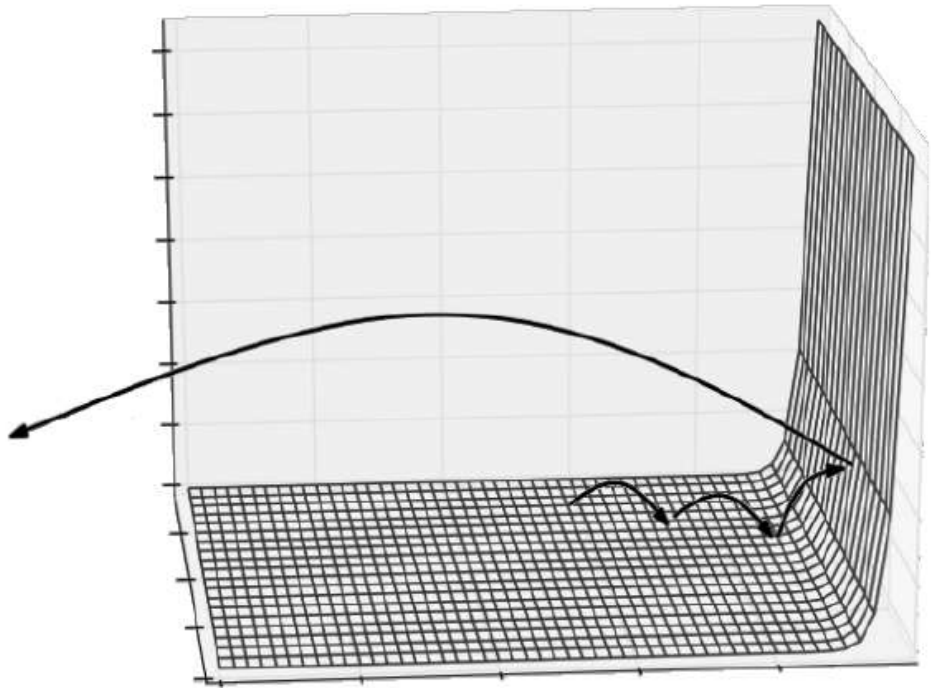
- Strike a balance between the two (Glorot and Bengio, 2010).
- (Other ideas, relevant for RNNs: sparse initialization (Martens, 2010), orthogonal initialization (Saxe et al., 2014))

# Gradient clipping



- Highly nonlinear model: Gradient update can catapult parameters very far.
- Heuristic: Clip the magnitude of the gradient.
- Figure from (Pascanu, 2014)

# Batch normalization (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015)

**Input:** Values of $x$ over a mini-batch: $\mathcal{B} = \{x_{1\ldots m}\}$;
Parameters to be learned: $\gamma$, $\beta$

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

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

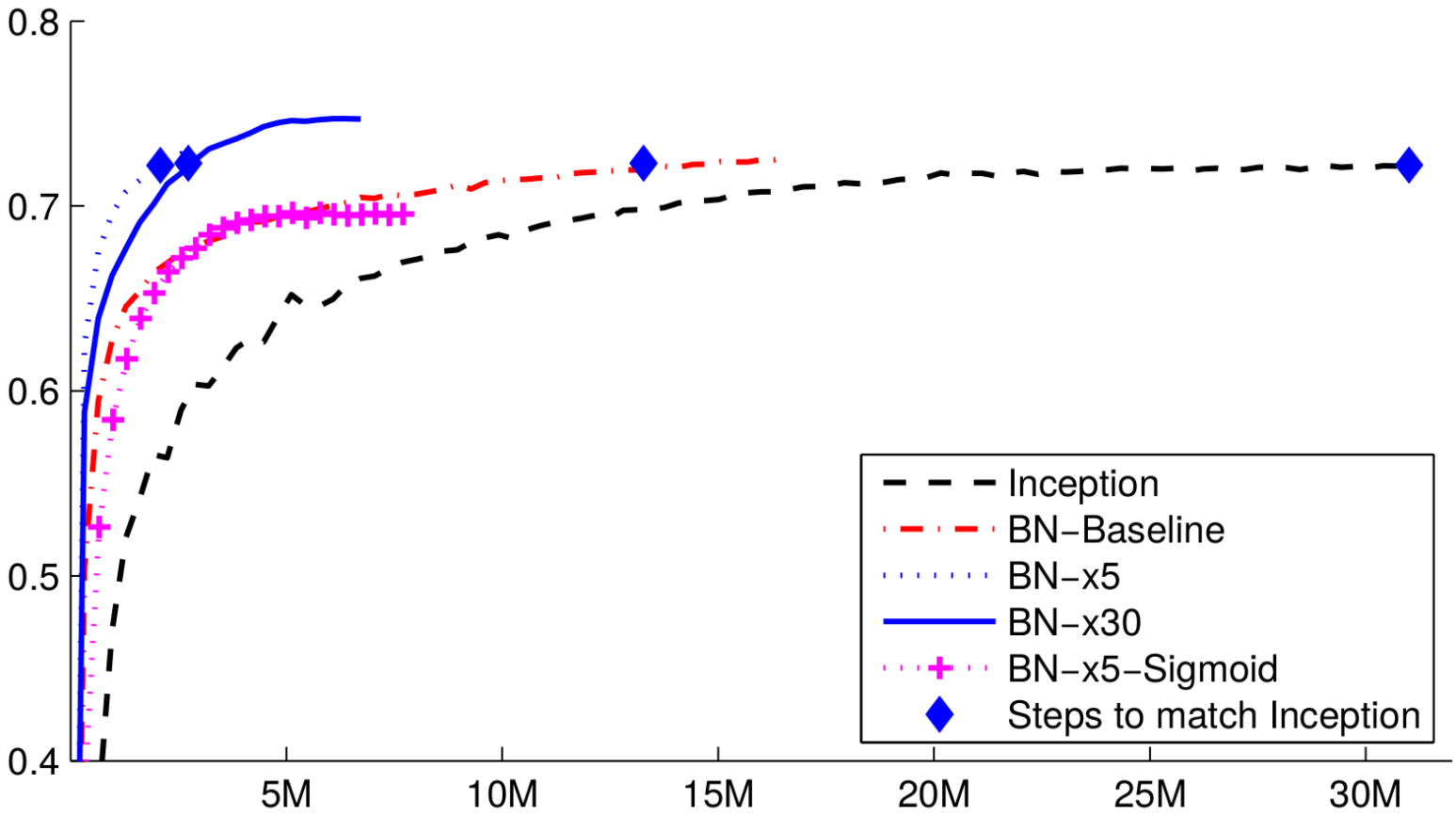
$$\sigma^2_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2 \qquad \text{// mini-batch variance}$$

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

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

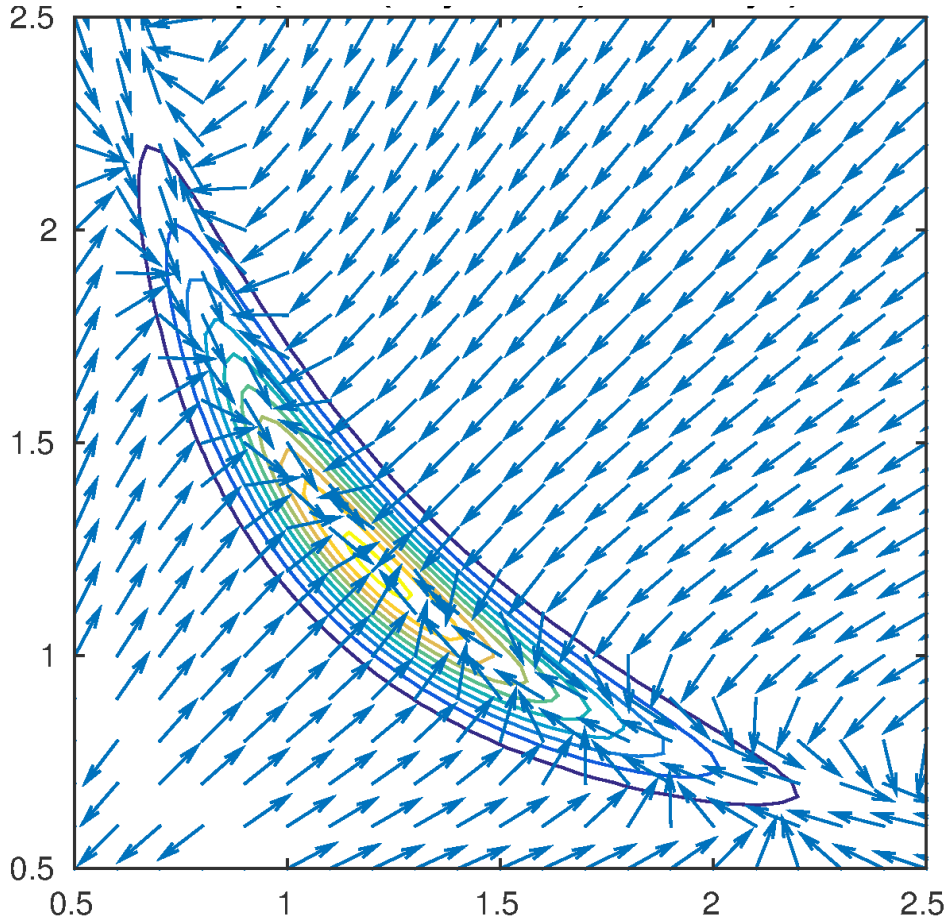
# Batch normalization (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015)

- Improves learning (BN-baseline vs. Inception)
- Allows bigger learning rates (5x and 30x)

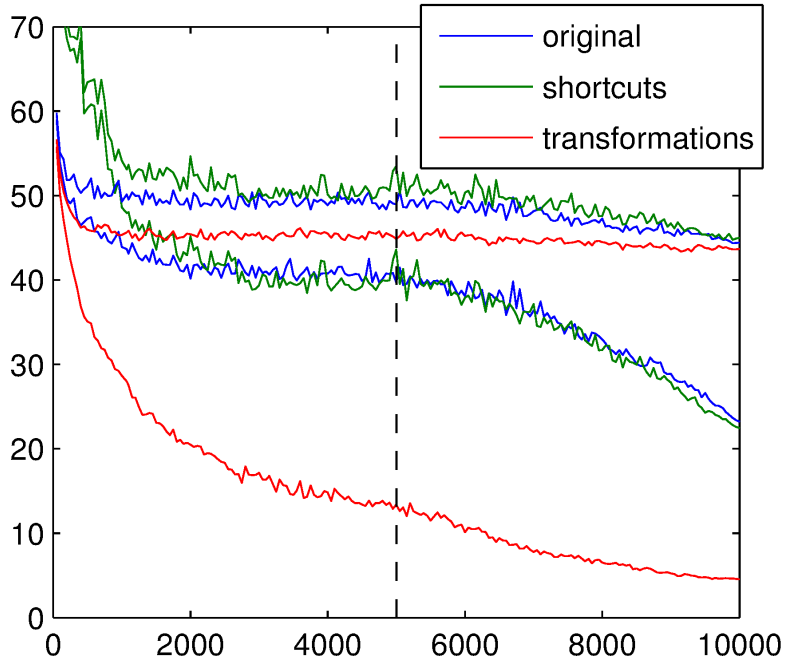


# Why does it work? Recall Newton's

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \mathbf{H}_k^{-1}\mathbf{g}_k, \quad \mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial\theta_1\partial\theta_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial\theta_1\partial\theta_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial\theta_n\partial\theta_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial\theta_n\partial\theta_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

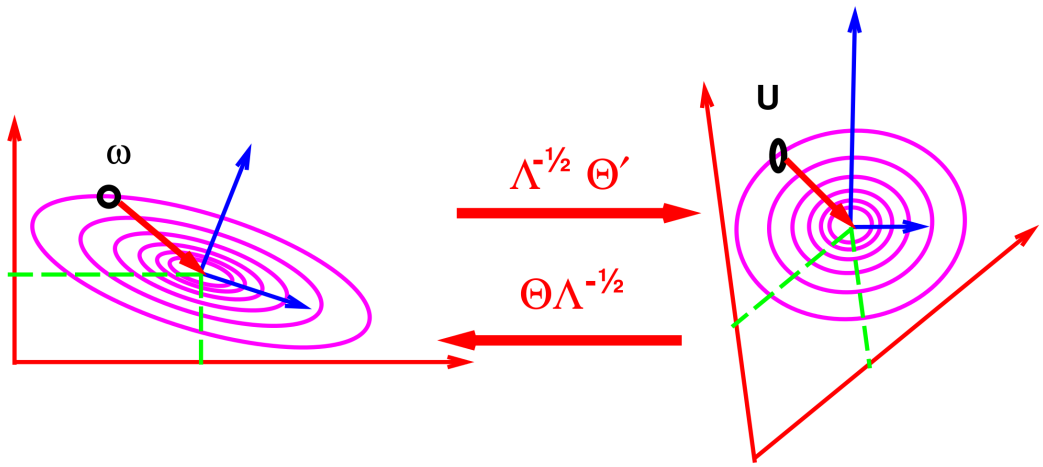


# Why does it work? (Raiko et al., 2012)




- Transformations do not change the model, but the optimisation
- Hessian **H** is closer to a diagonal
- Traditional gradient is thus closer to Newton's and parameter updates are more independent

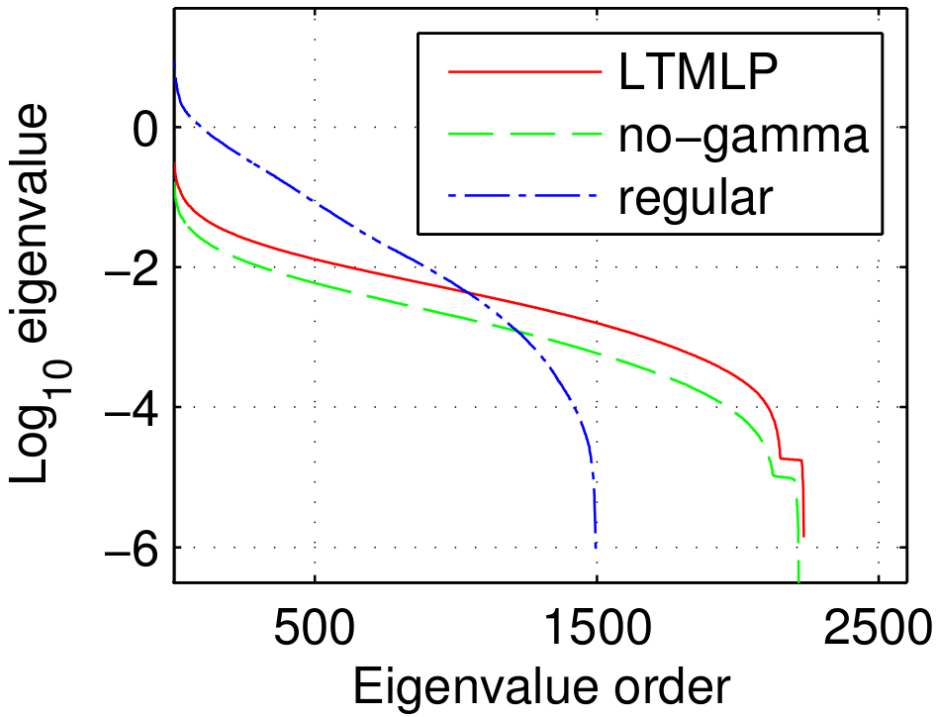
# Eigenvalues of the Hessian **H** (LeCun et al., 1998)




- Eigenvectors corresponds to (update) directions
- In Newton's method, each direction has its own learning rate: inverse of the eigenvalue
- Some eigenvalues can be negative: Newton's method points the wrong way

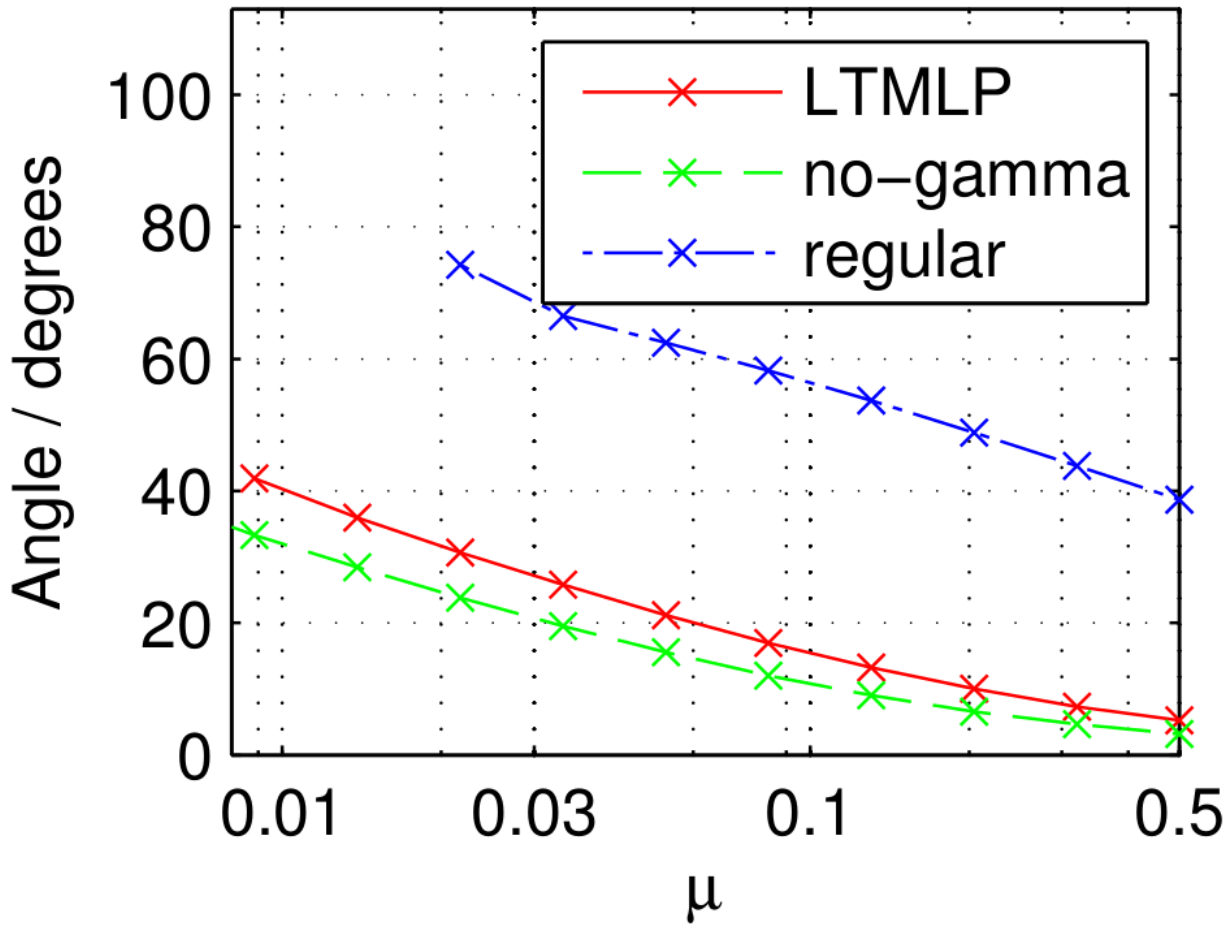
# Why does it work? (Vatanen et al., 2013)

- Analysis of eigenvalues of Hessian in 2600-parameter model
- Curvature is much more even with transformations



# Why does it work? (Vatanen et al., 2013)

Angle between gradient and second order update:
$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - (\mathbf{H}_k + \mu\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{g}_k$,



# Part 2:

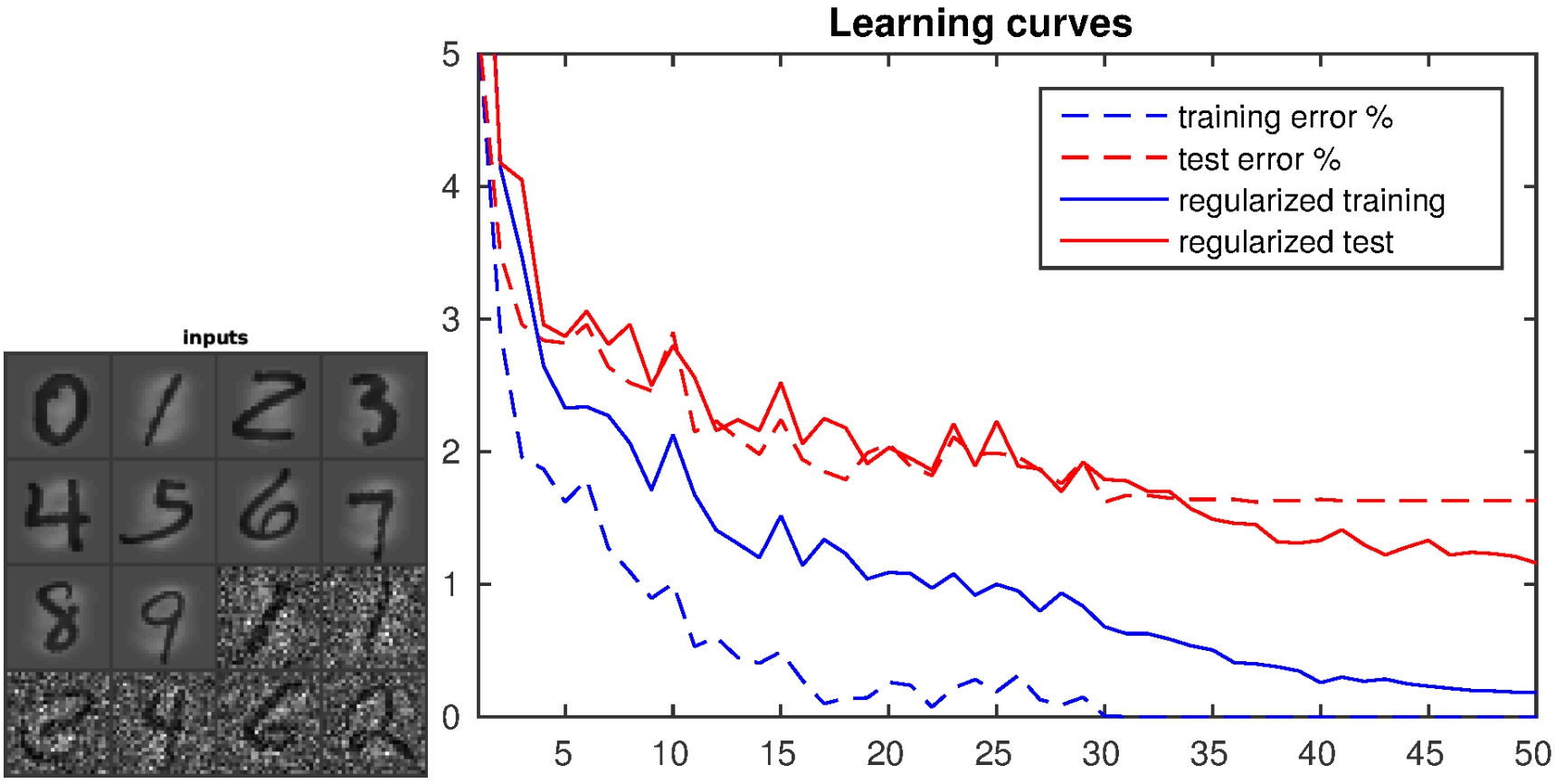
# Better performance

# Regularization

# Goal of Regularization

- Neural networks are very powerful (universal appr.).
- Easy to perform great on the training set (overfitting).
- **Regularization** improves generalization to new data at the expense of increased training error.
- Use held-out validation data to choose hyperparameters (e.g. regularization strength).
- Use held-out test data to evaluate performance.

# Example

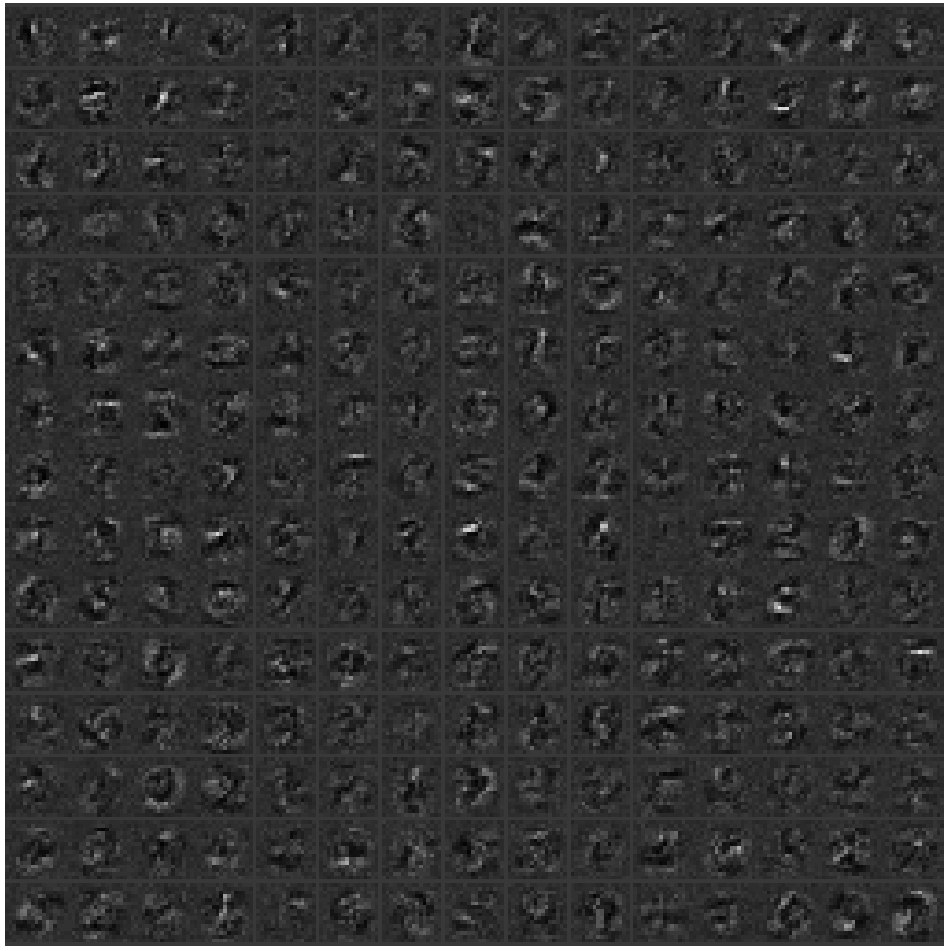



Without regularization training error goes to zero and learning stops.

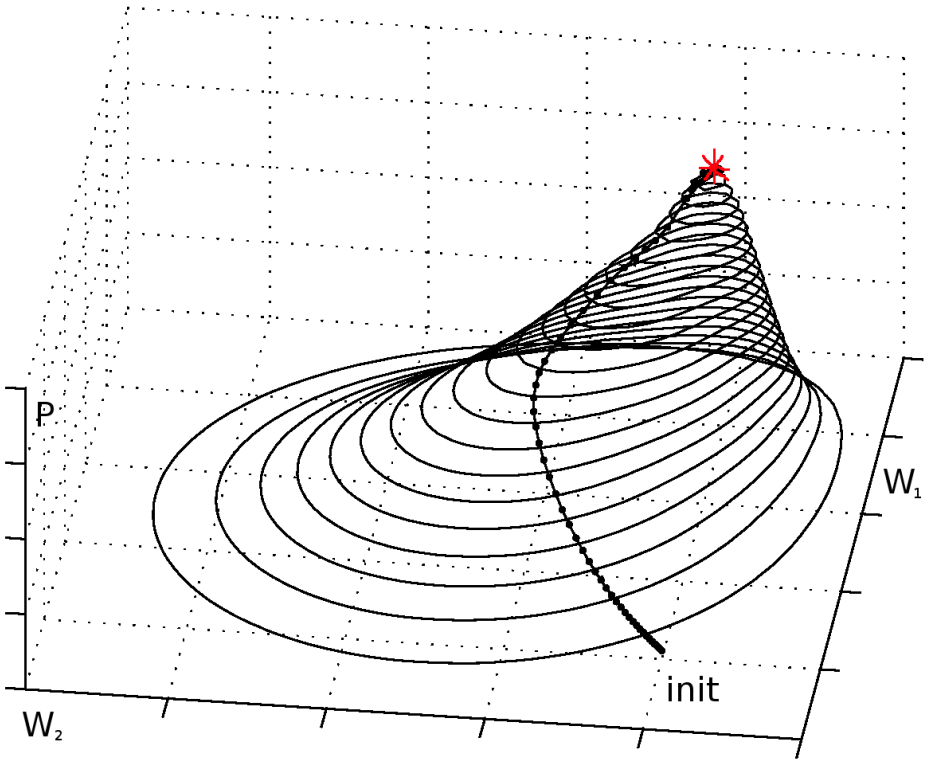
With noise regularization, test error keeps dropping.

# Expressivity demo: Training first layer only

No regularization, training $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{b}^{(1)}$ only.
0.2% error on training set, 2% error on test set.



# What is overfitting?




Posterior probability mass matters

Center of gravity $\neq$ maximum

Probability theory states how we should make predictions (of $\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}}$) using a model with unknowns $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and data $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{test}}\}$:

$$P(\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \int P(\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{X}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

$$= \int P(\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{X}) P(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{X}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta}.$$

Probability of observing $\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}}$ can be acquired by summing or integrating over all different explanations $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. The term $P(\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{X})$ is the probability of $\mathbf{y}_{\text{test}}$ given a particular explanation $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and it is weighted with the probability of the explanation $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{X})$. However, such computation is intractable. If we want to choose a single $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ to represent all the probability mass, it is better not to overfit to the highest probability peak, but to find a good representative of the mass.

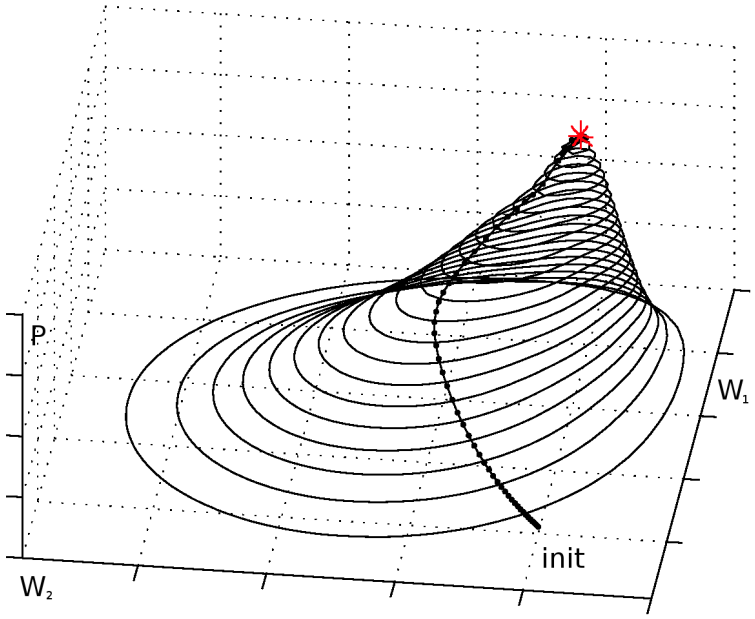
# Regularization methods

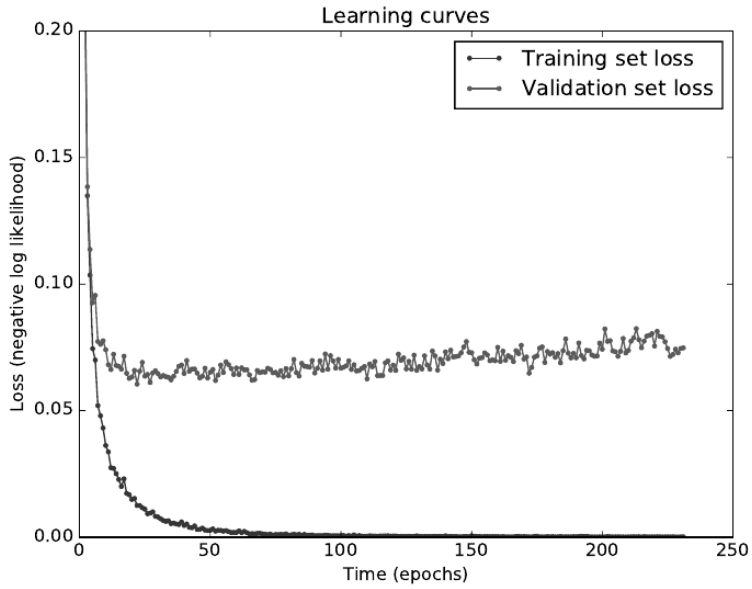
- Limited size of network
- Early stopping
- Weight decay
- Data augmentation
- Injecting noise
- Parameter sharing (e.g. convolutional)
- Sparse representations
- Ensemble methods
- Auxiliary tasks (e.g. unsupervised)
- Probabilistic treatment (e.g. variational methods)
- Adversarial training, . . .

# Limited size of network

- Rule of thumb:
  When #parameters is ten times less than #outputs $\times$ #examples, overfitting will not be severe.
- Reducing input dimensionality (e.g. by PCA) helps in reducing parameters
- Easy. Low computational complexity
- Other methods give better accuracy
- *Data augmentation* increases #examples
  *Parameter sharing* decreases #parameters
  *Auxiliary tasks* increases #outputs

# Early stopping



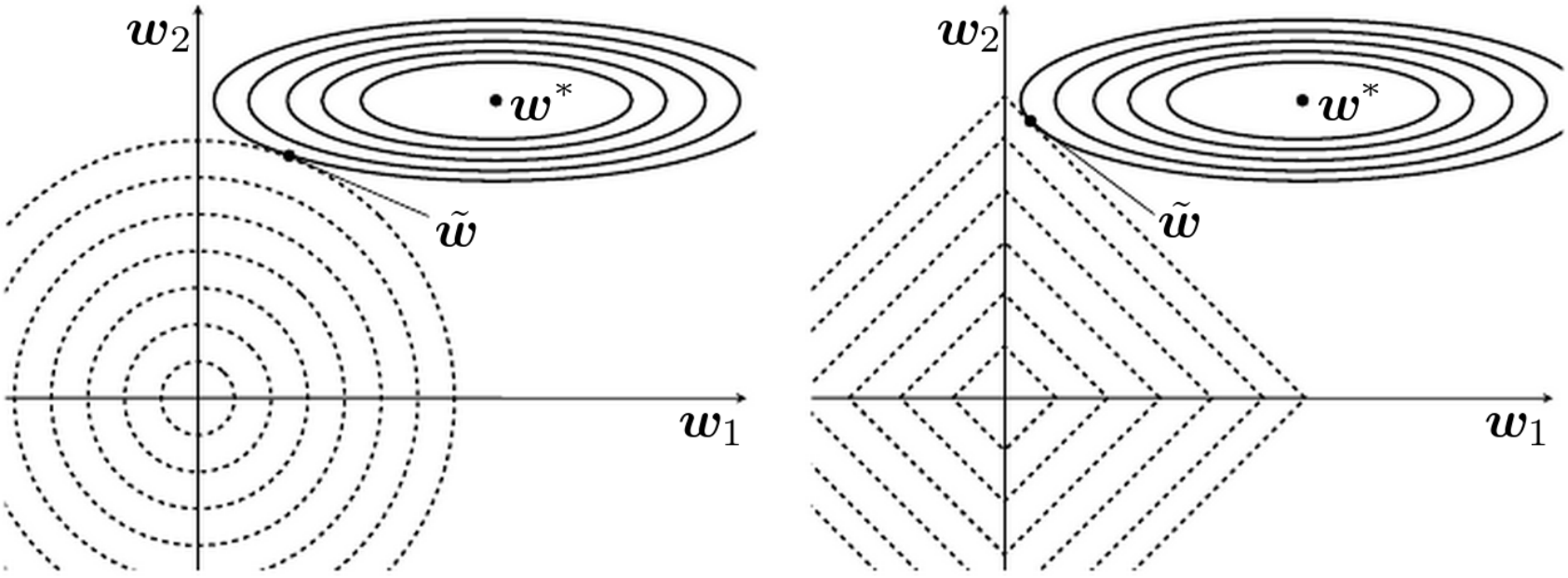




- Monitor validation performance during training
- Stop when it starts to deteriorate
- With other regularization, it might never start
- Keeps solution close to the initialization

# Weight decay (Tikhonov, 1943)

- Add a penalty term to the training cost $C = \cdots + \Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
  Note: only a function of parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, not data.
- $L^2$ regularization: $\Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2$
  hyperparameter $\lambda$ for strength.
  Gradient: $\frac{\partial\Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial\theta_i} = \lambda\theta_i$.
- $L^1$ regularization: $\Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \lambda/2\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_1$
  Gradient: $\frac{\partial\Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial\theta_i} = \lambda\text{sign}(\theta_i)$.
  Induces sparsity: Often many params become zero.
- Max-norm: Constrain row vectors $\mathbf{w}_i$ of weight matrices to $\|\mathbf{w}_i\|^2 \leq c$.

# Weight decay




- L2 (left) and L1 (right).
- $w^*$ unregularised solution, $\tilde{w}$ regularised solution.
- Note: L1 pushes small parameters more towards zero - sparsity!

# Weight decay as Bayesian prior

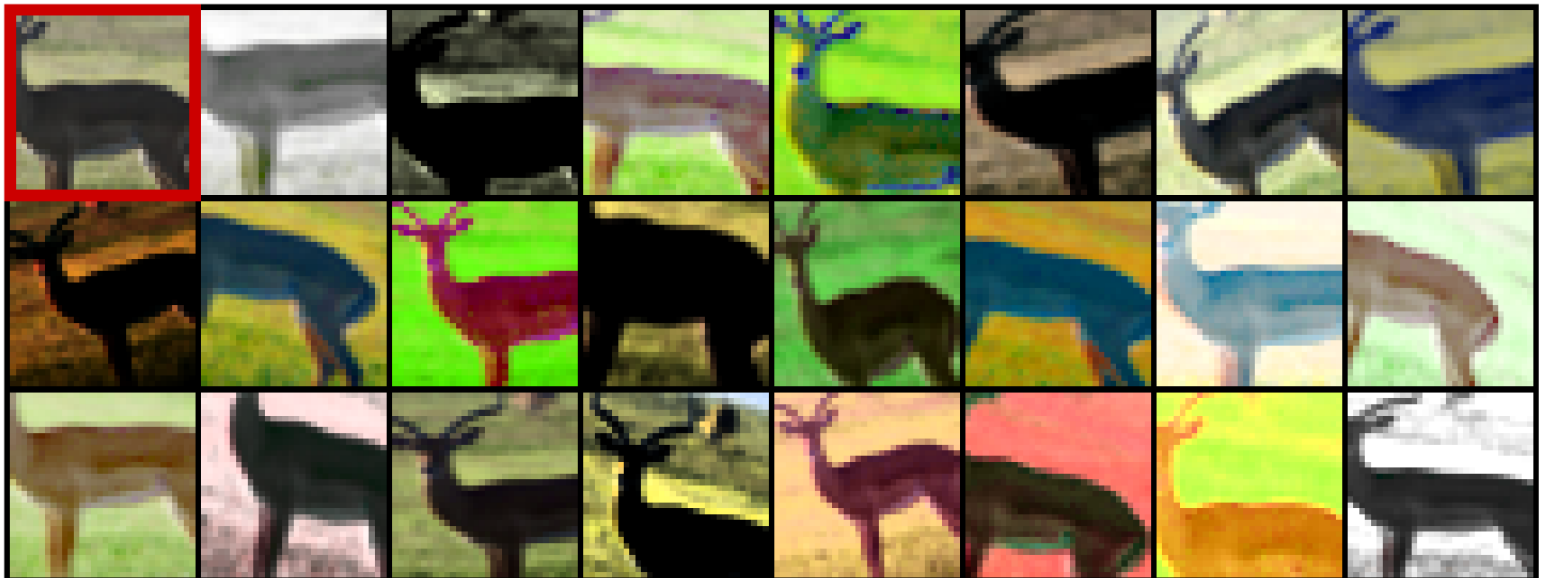
- Consider the maximum a posteriori solution
- Bayes rule: $P(\theta \mid \mathbf{X}) = P(\mathbf{X}|\theta)P(\theta)$
  written on -log scale: $C = -\log P(\mathbf{X}|\theta) - \log P(\theta)$
- Assuming Gaussian prior $P(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \lambda^{-1}\mathbf{I})$
  we get $\Omega(\theta) = \sum_i -\log \exp \frac{-\theta_i^2}{2\lambda^{-1}} = \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\theta\|^2$
- $L^2$ regularization $\Leftrightarrow$ Gaussian prior
- $L^1$ regularization $\Leftrightarrow$ Laplace prior
- Max-norm regularization $\Leftrightarrow$ Uniform prior with finite support
- $\Omega = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ Maximum likelihood

# How to set hyperparameter $\lambda$?

- In general, difficult to set strength of regularization
- Split data into training, validation, and test sets
- Choose a number of settings $\lambda$, train separately
- Use validation performance to pick the best $\lambda$
- (Retrain using both training and validation sets)
- Evaluate final performance on test data
- Ongoing work on adjusting hyperparameters on the fly (Luketina et al., 2016)

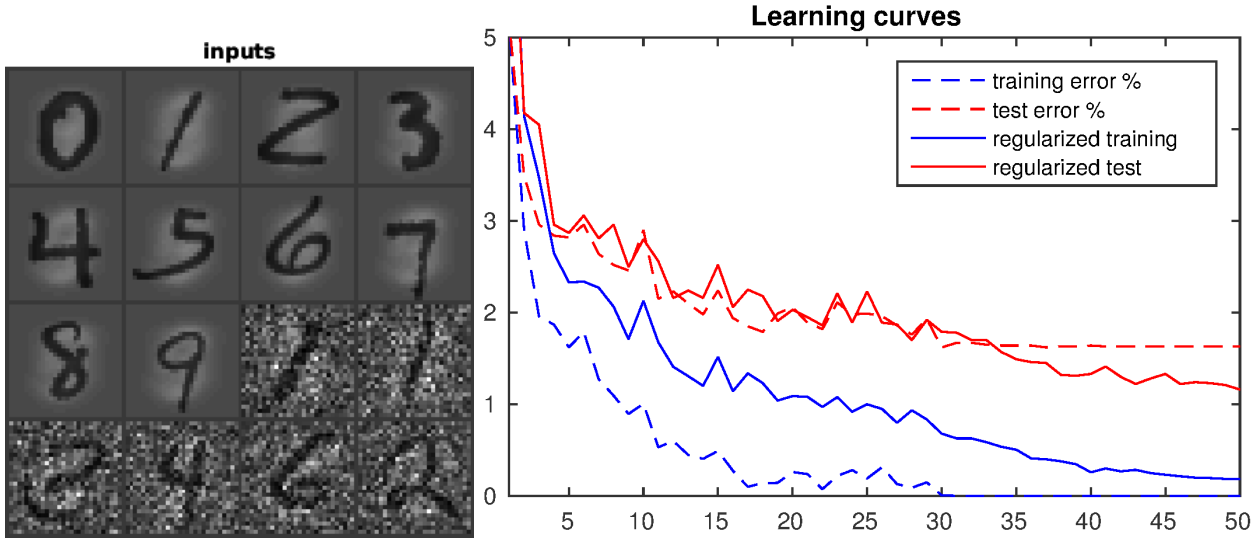
# Data augmentation

Image from (Dosovitskiy et al., 2014)



Augmented data by image-specific transformations.
E.g. cropping just 2 pixels gets you 9 times the data! Infinite MNIST: `http://leon.bottou.org/projects/infimnist`

# Injecting noise (Sietsma and Dow, 1991)




- Inject random noise during training
  separately in each epoch
- Can be applied to input data, to hidden activations, or to weights
- Can be seen as data augmentation
- Simple end effective

# Injecting noise to inputs (analysis)

- Inject small additive Gaussian noise at inputs
- Assume least squares error at output **y**
- Taylor series expansion around **x**
- $\Rightarrow$ Corresponds to penalizing the Jacobian $\|\mathbf{J}\|^2$

$$\mathbf{J} = \frac{d\mathbf{y}}{d\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_c}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_d} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_c}{\partial x_d} \end{pmatrix}$$

- For linear networks, this reduces to $L^2$ penalty
- Rifai et al. (2011) penalize the Jacobian directly

# Parameter sharing

- Force sets of parameters to be equal
- Reduces the number of (unique) parameters
- Important in convolutional networks (CNNs, this lecture)
- Auto-encoders sometimes share weights between encoder and decoder (Unsupervised learning lecture)

# Sparse representations

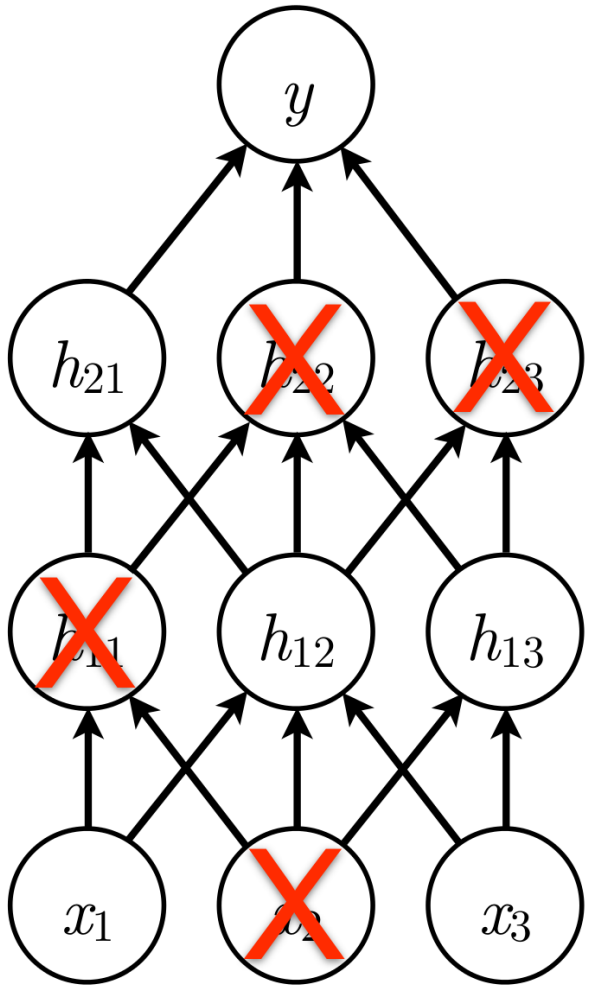
- Penalize representation $\mathbf{h}$ using $\Omega(\mathbf{h})$ to make it sparse
- $L^1$ penalty on weights makes $\mathbf{W}$ sparse
- Similarly $L^1$ penalty can make $\mathbf{h}$ sparse
- Also possible to set a desired sparsity level
- *Sparse coding* is common in image processing

# Ensemble methods

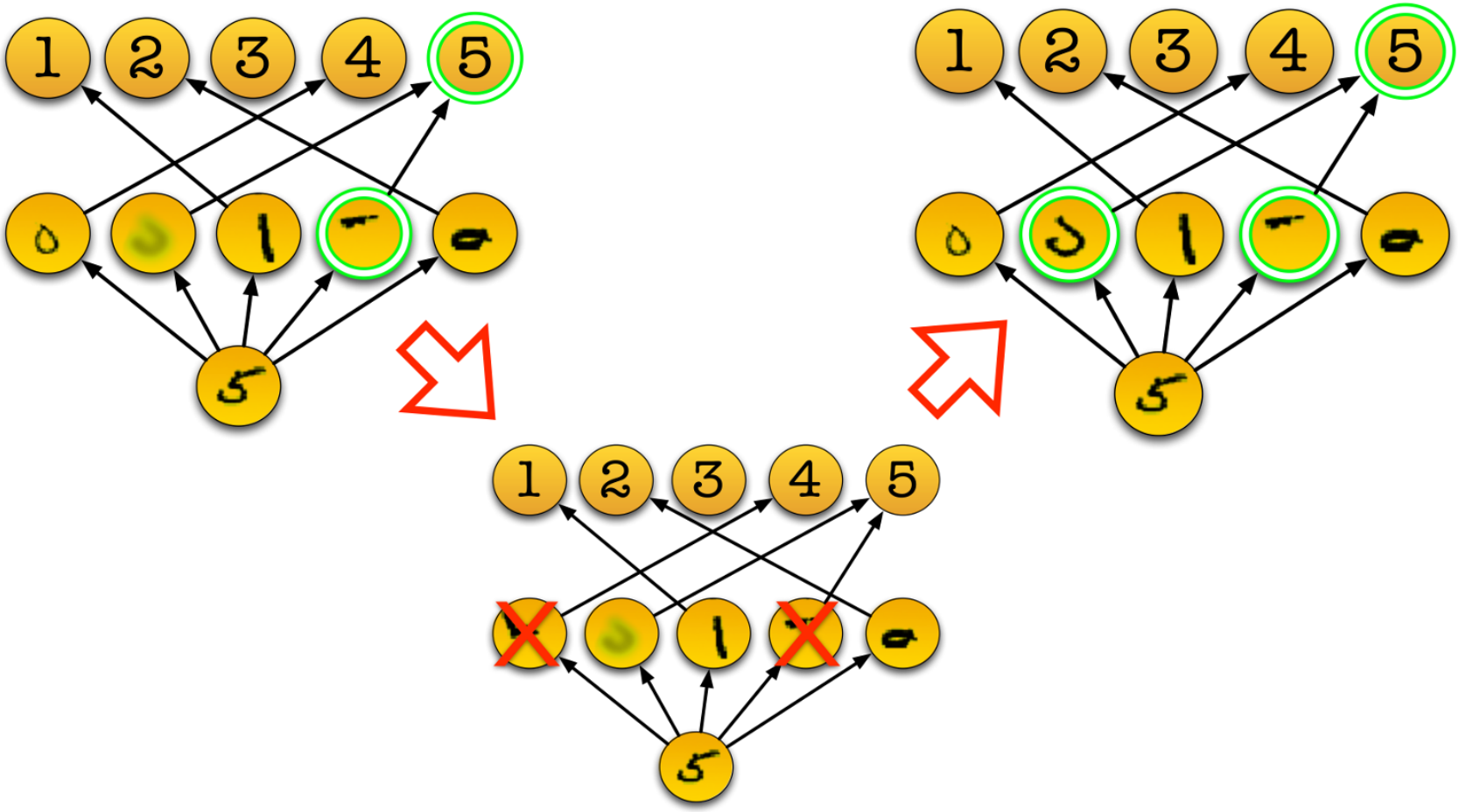
- Train several models and take average of their outputs
  Instead of one point representing $P(\theta|\mathbf{X})$, use several
- Also known as *bagging* or *model averaging*
- It helps to make individual models different by
  - varying models or algorithms
  - varying hyperparameters
  - varying data (dropping examples or dimensions)
  - varying random seed
- It is possible to train a single final model to mimick the performance of the ensemble, for test-time computational efficiency (Hinton et al., 2015)

# Dropout (Srivastava et al., 2014)

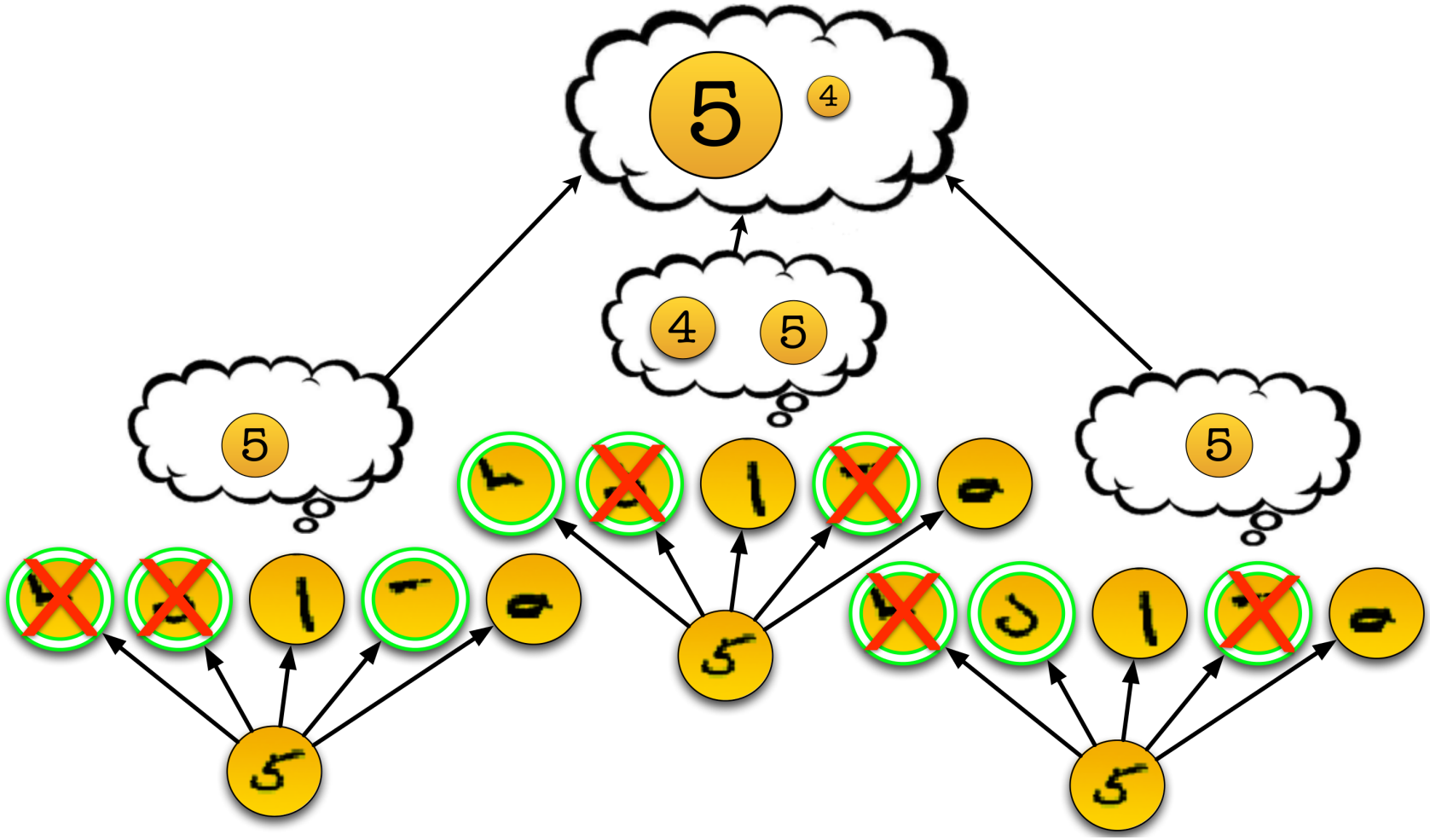
- Each time we present data example **x**, randomly delete each hidden node with 0.5 probability
- Can be seen as *injecting noise* or as *ensemble*:
  - Multiplicative binary noise
  - Training an ensemble of $2^{|h|}$ networks with weight sharing
- At test time, use all nodes but divide weights by 2



# Dropout training



# Dropout as bagging



# Auxiliary tasks

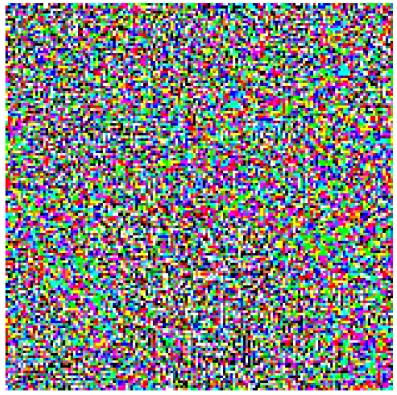
- Multi-task learning: *Parameter sharing* between multiple tasks
- E.g. speech recognition and speaker identification could share low-level representations
- Layer-wise pretraining (Hinton and Salakhutdinov, 2006) can be seen as using unsupervised learning as an auxiliary task

# Probabilistic treatment

- Probabilistic modelling is strong but complex form of regularization
- Some keywords:
  - Variational methods: E.g. model means and variances of signals
  - Sampling = Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
  - Boltzmann machines

# Adversarial training (Szegedy et al., 2014)

$$+ .007 \times$$



$$=$$

$\boldsymbol{x}$

$y =$ “panda”

$\text{sign}(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x}, y))$

$\boldsymbol{x} +$
$\epsilon \, \text{sign}(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x}, y))$
“gibbon”

- Search for an input **x**′ near a datapoint **x** that would have very different output **y**′ from **y**
- Adversaries can be found surprisingly close!
- Miyato et al. (2016) build a very effective regulariser

# 37 Reasons why your Neural Network is not working

37 reasons why your neural network is not working

# References convergence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# References regularisation


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Thanks!
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