

# Accelerated deep learning with TensorFlow

## Lecture 5 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
- P3: A few final words



# Part 1: Faster training convergence

# Adam algorithm by Kingma and Ba

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**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  $t$ .

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**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<sup>st</sup> moment vector)

$v_0 \leftarrow 0$  (Initialize 2<sup>nd</sup> 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)

$\hat{m}_t \leftarrow m_t / (1 - \beta_1^t)$  (Compute bias-corrected first moment estimate)

$\hat{v}_t \leftarrow v_t / (1 - \beta_2^t)$  (Compute bias-corrected second raw moment estimate)

$\theta_t \leftarrow \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \cdot \hat{m}_t / (\sqrt{\hat{v}_t} + \epsilon)$  (Update parameters)

**end while**

**return**  $\theta_t$  (Resulting parameters)

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## 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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- Outline of derivation:
- Assume independent signals.

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- Outline of derivation:
- Assume independent signals.
- Retain variance forward:  $\sqrt{\frac{2}{n_j}}$
- Retain variance backward:  $\sqrt{\frac{2}{n_i}}$
- (2 is from relu indicators being on half the time.)

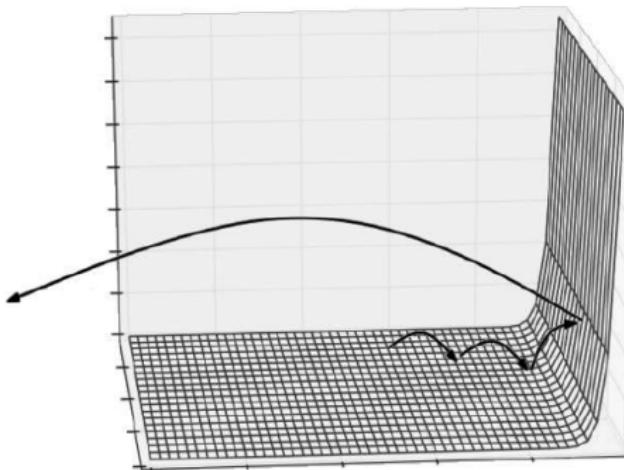
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- (2 is from relu indicators being on half the time.)
- Strike a balance between the two (Glorot and Bengio, 2010).
- (Other ideas, relevant for RNNs: sparse initialization (Martens, 2010), orthogonal initialization (Saxe et al., 2014))

# 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:  $\mathcal{B} = \{x_1 \dots m\}$ ;

Parameters to be learned:  $\gamma, \beta$

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

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

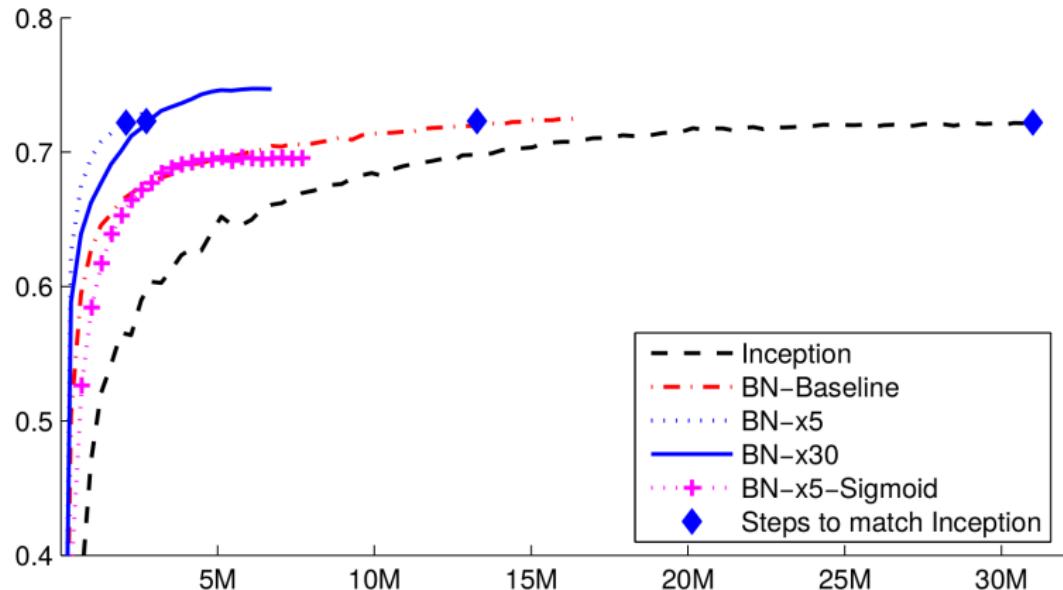
$$\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2 \quad // \text{mini-batch variance}$$

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

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

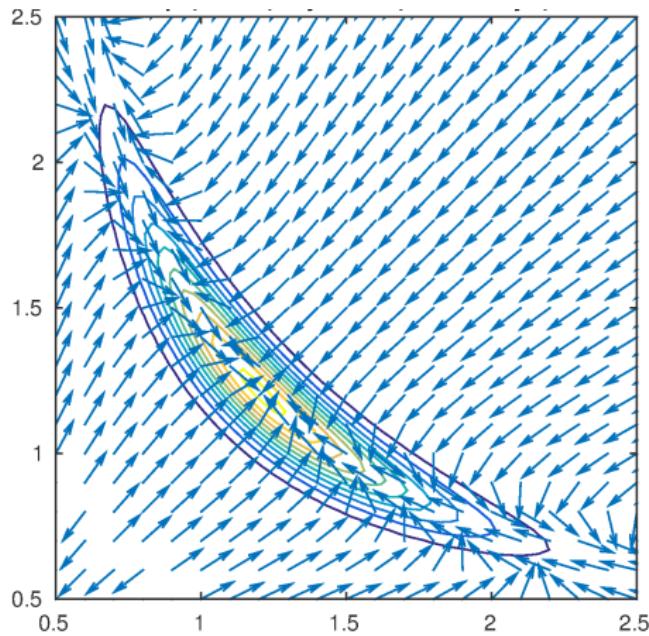
## Batch normalization (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015)

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

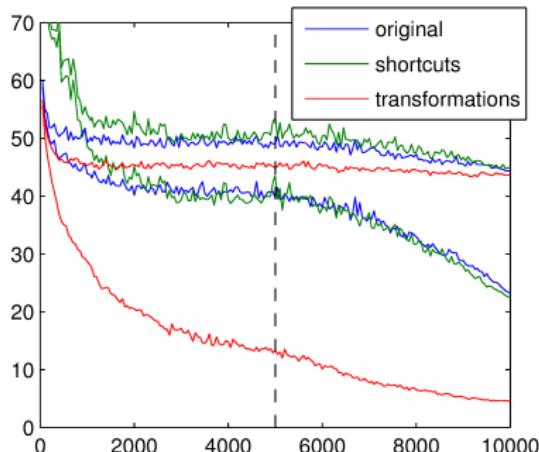


## Why does it work? Recall Newton's

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

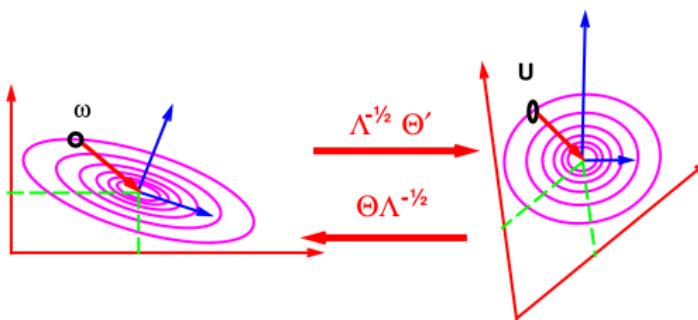


## Why does it work? (Raiko et al., 2012)



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

# Eigenvalues of the Hessian $\mathbf{H}$ (LeCun et al., 1998)

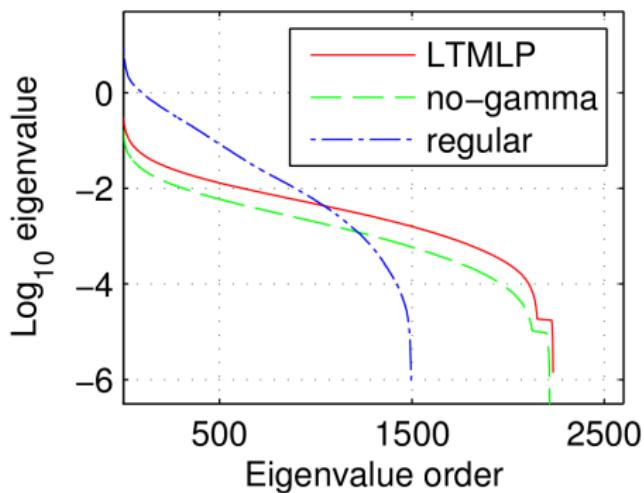


Newton Algorithm here ..... ....is like Gradient Descent there

- 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)

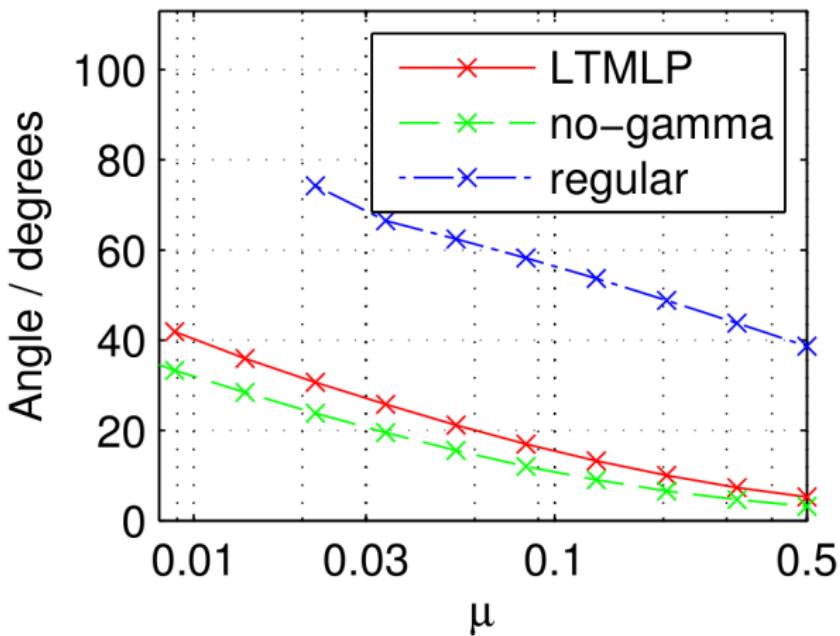
- Analysis of eigenvalues of Hessian in 2600-parameter model
- Curvature is much more even with transformations



## 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:

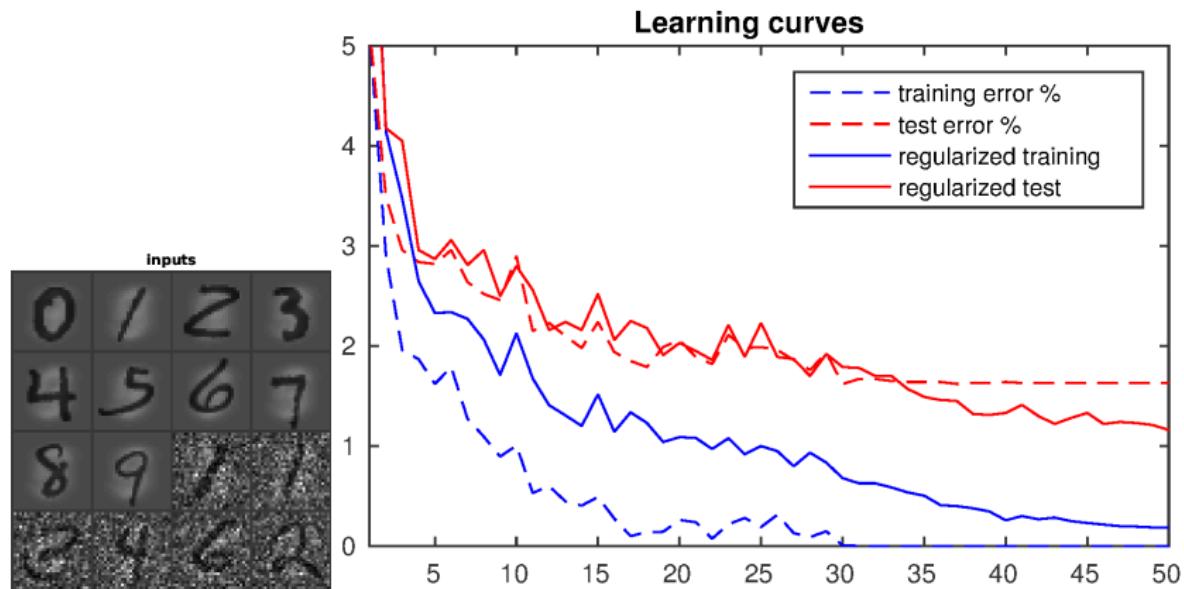
## Better performance

## 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



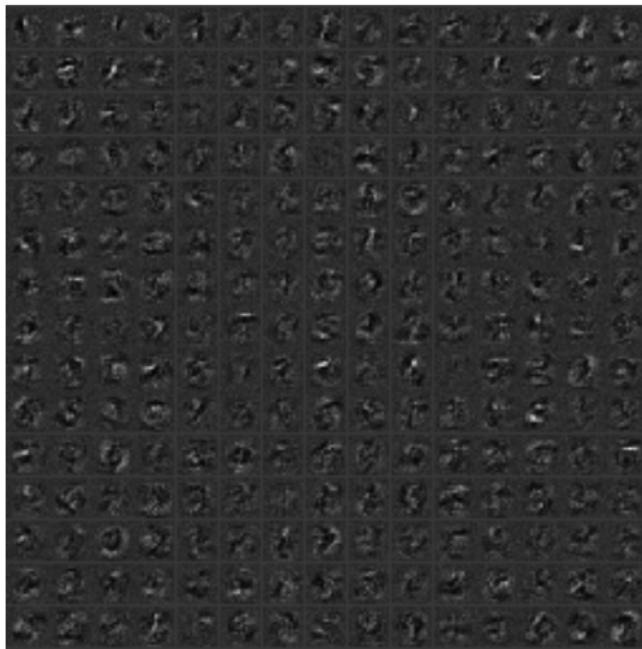
Without regularization **training error** goes to zero and learning stops.

With noise regularization, **test error** keeps dropping.

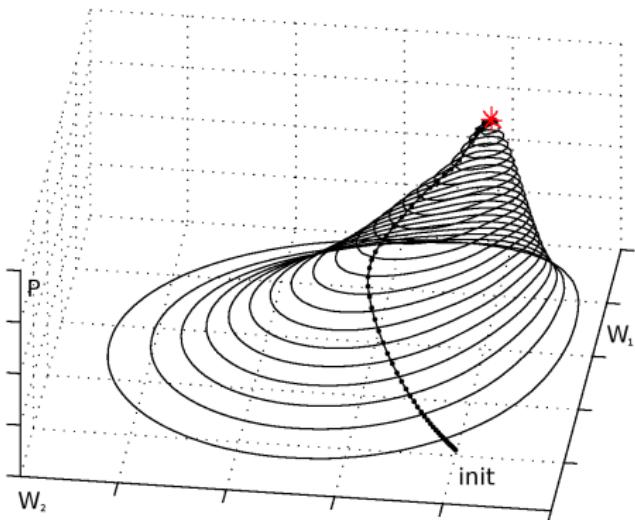
## Expressivity demo: Training first layer only

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  $y_{\text{test}}$ ) using a model with unknowns  $\theta$  and data  $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{train}}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{test}}\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}P(y_{\text{test}} | \mathbf{X}) &= \int P(y_{\text{test}}, \theta | \mathbf{X}) d\theta \\&= \int P(y_{\text{test}} | \theta, \mathbf{X}) P(\theta | \mathbf{X}) d\theta.\end{aligned}$$

Probability of observing  $y_{\text{test}}$  can be acquired by summing or integrating over all different explanations  $\theta$ . The term  $P(y_{\text{test}}|\theta, \mathbf{X})$  is the probability of  $y_{\text{test}}$  given a particular explanation  $\theta$  and it is weighted with the probability of the explanation  $P(\theta|\mathbf{X})$ . However, such computation is intractable. If we want to choose a single  $\theta$  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.

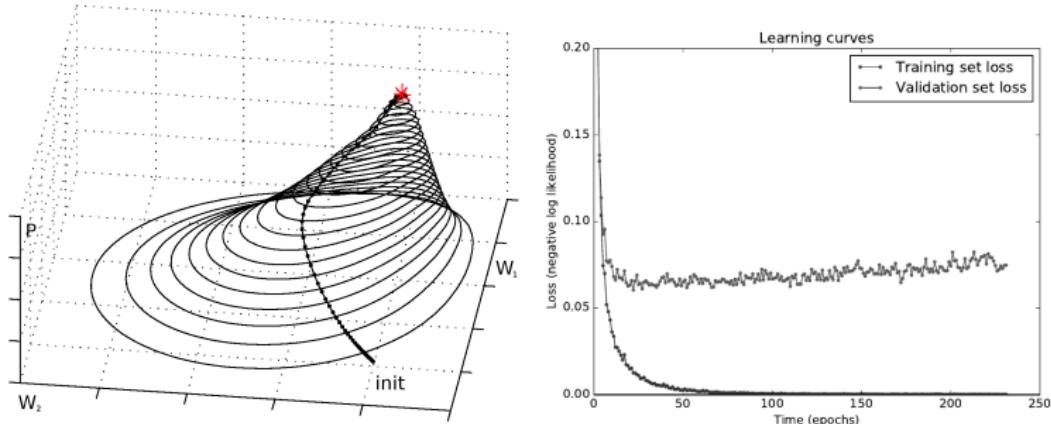
# Regularization methods

- 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 × #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

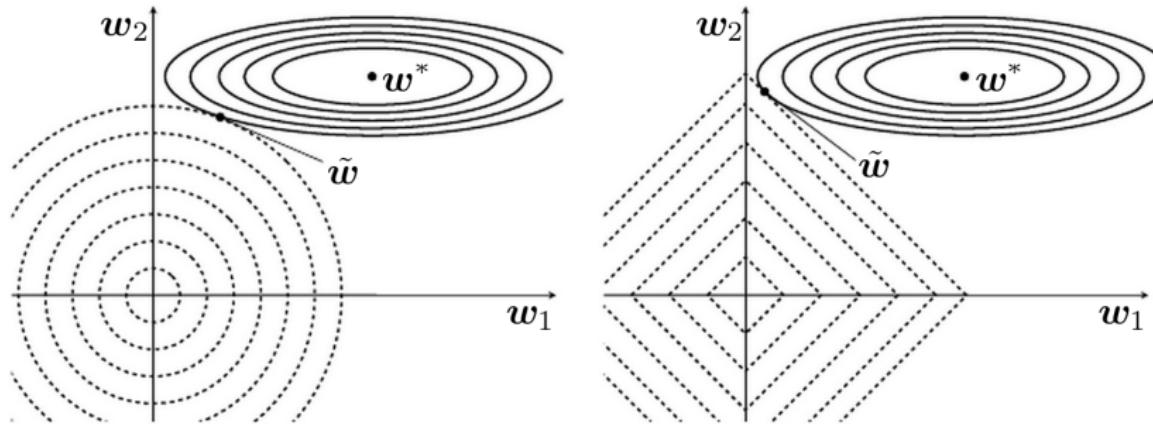


- Monitor validation performance during training
- Stop when it starts to deteriorate
- **With other regularization, it might never start**
- Keeps solution close to the initialization

## Weight decay (Tikhonov, 1943)

- Add a penalty term to the training cost  $C = \dots + \Omega(\theta)$   
Note: only a function of parameters  $\theta$ , not data.
- $L^2$  regularization:  $\Omega(\theta) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\theta\|^2$   
hyperparameter  $\lambda$  for strength.  
Gradient:  $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i} = \lambda \theta_i$ .
- $L^1$  regularization:  $\Omega(\theta) = \lambda/2 \|\theta\|_1$   
Gradient:  $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i} = \lambda \text{sign}(\theta_i)$ .  
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

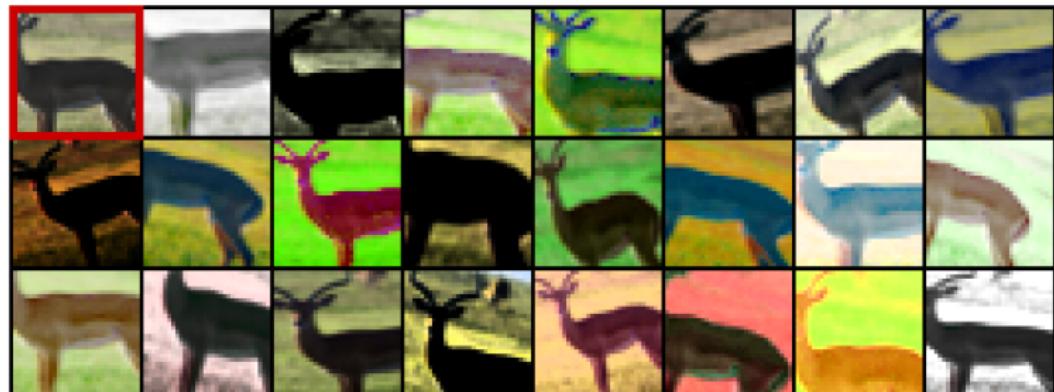
- Consider the maximum a posteriori solution
- Bayes rule:  $P(\theta | \mathbf{X}) = P(\mathbf{X}|\theta)P(\theta)$   
written on -log scale:  $C = -\log P(\mathbf{X}|\theta) - \log P(\theta)$
- Assuming Gaussian prior  $P(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \lambda^{-1}\mathbf{I})$   
we get  $\Omega(\theta) = \sum_i -\log \exp \frac{-\theta_i^2}{2\lambda^{-1}} = \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\theta\|^2$
- $L^2$  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)

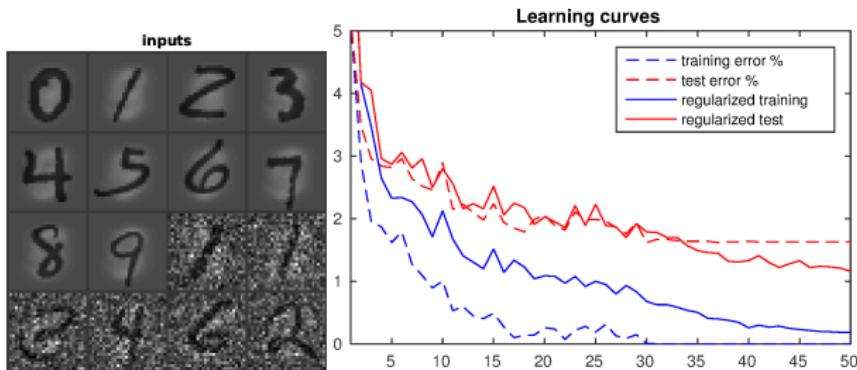


Augmented data by image-specific transformations.

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 and effective

## Injecting noise to inputs (analysis)

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

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

- 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

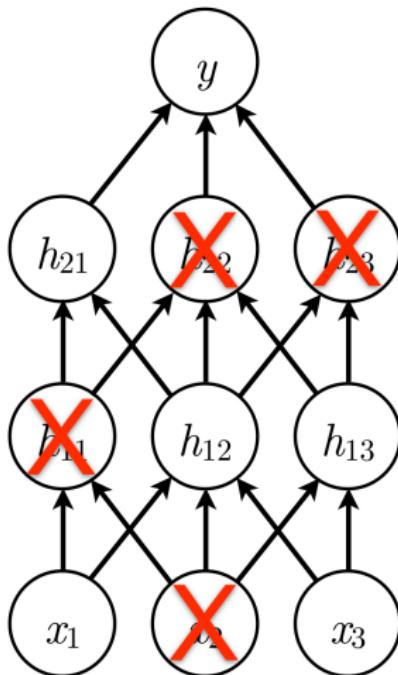
- Penalize representation  $\mathbf{h}$  using  $\Omega(\mathbf{h})$  to make it sparse
- $L^1$  penalty on weights makes  $\mathbf{W}$  sparse
- Similarly  $L^1$  penalty can make  $\mathbf{h}$  sparse
- Also possible to set a desired sparsity level
- *Sparse coding* is common in image processing

# Ensemble methods

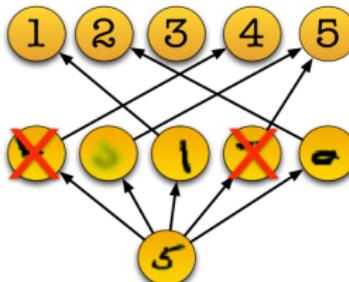
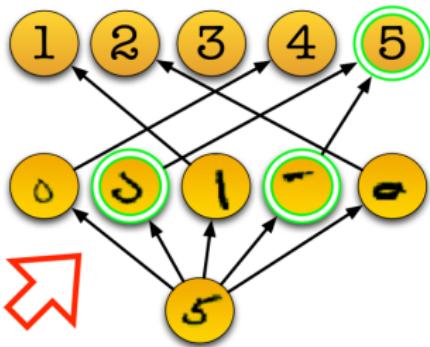
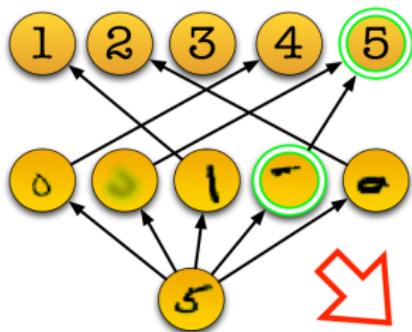
- Train several models and take average of their outputs  
Instead of one point representing  $P(\theta|\mathbf{X})$ , use several
- Also known as *bagging* or *model averaging*
- It helps to make individual models different by
  - varying models or algorithms
  - varying hyperparameters
  - varying 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)

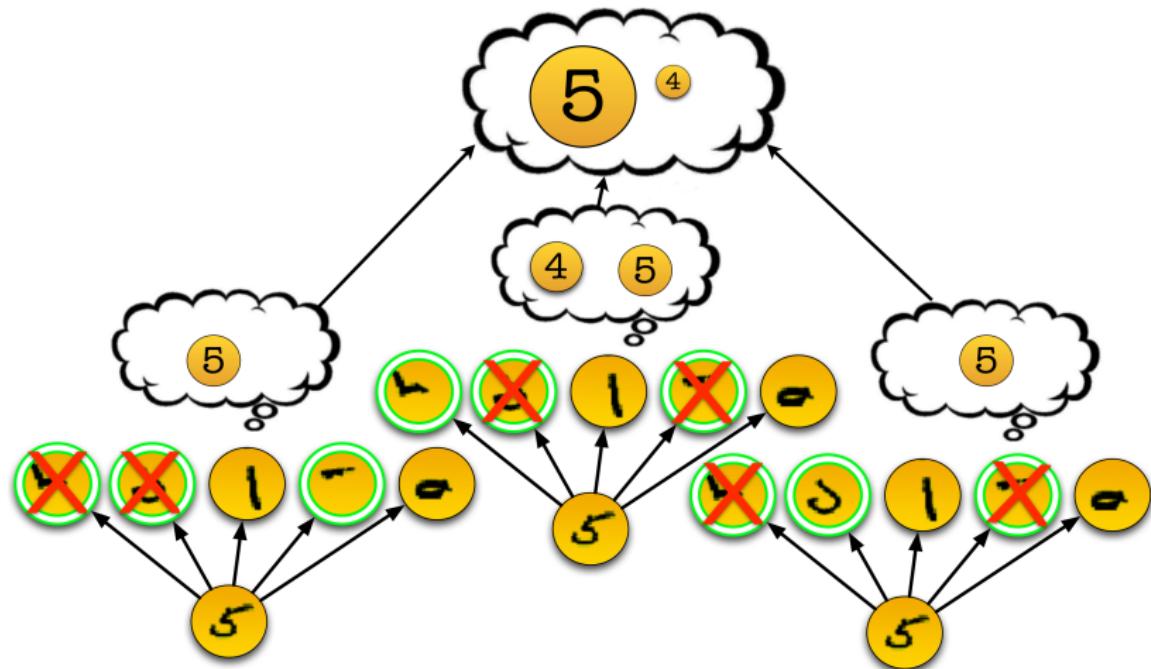
- Each time we present data example  $\mathbf{x}$ , randomly delete each hidden node with 0.5 probability
- Can be seen as *injecting noise* or as *ensemble*:
  - Multiplicative binary noise
  - Training an ensemble of  $2^{|h|}$  networks with weight sharing
- At test time, use all nodes but divide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

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{x} & \quad \text{sign}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}, y)) & \frac{\mathbf{x} +}{\epsilon \text{ sign}(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}, y))} \\ \text{y = "panda"} & & \text{"gibbon"} \end{array}$$

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

# Part 3: A few final words

Where humans excel & reinforcement learning gets nowhere



# AI versus IA



IA = Intelligence augmentation

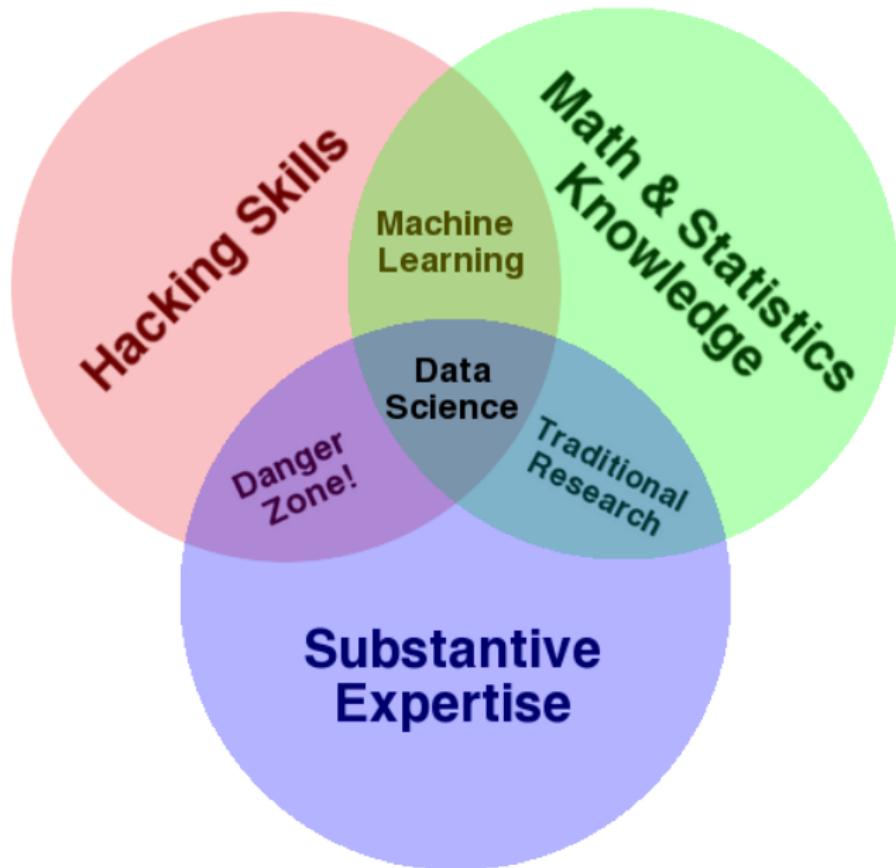
# Does it scale?



Joaquin Quiñonero Candela, Director of Applied Machine Learning at Facebook on Quora:

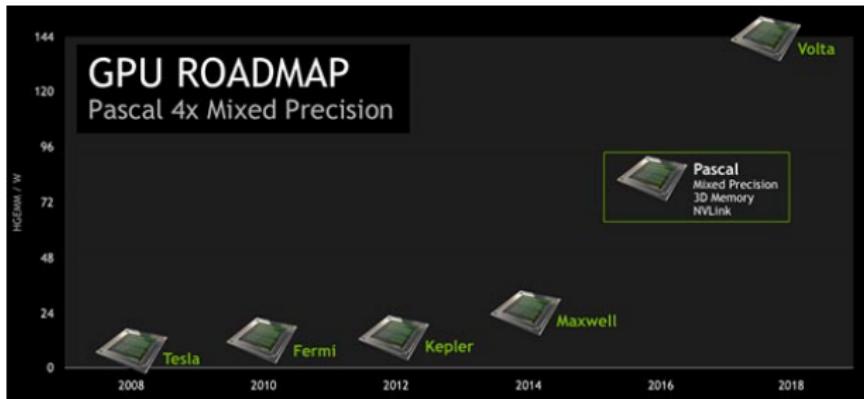
- In computer vision we have a system that processes every single image and video... well over 1B items per day.
- ... predict the content..... to generate captions for the blind,... detect and take down offensive content, improve media search results, automate visual captcha. ....
- In language technology,... translate over 2B posts every single day, with over 1800 language directions representing more than 40 unique languages.
- ... these models are used to rank news feed stories (1B users every day, 1.5K stories per user per day on average), ads, search results (1B+ queries a day), trending news, friend recommendations and even rank notifications that a user receives, or rank the comments on a post.

# Data science - we are getting there



# Deep learning prediction about the future

- Expect rapid progress in coming years!
- Machine perception will be at human level
- As you know by now it is still hard to make it work!

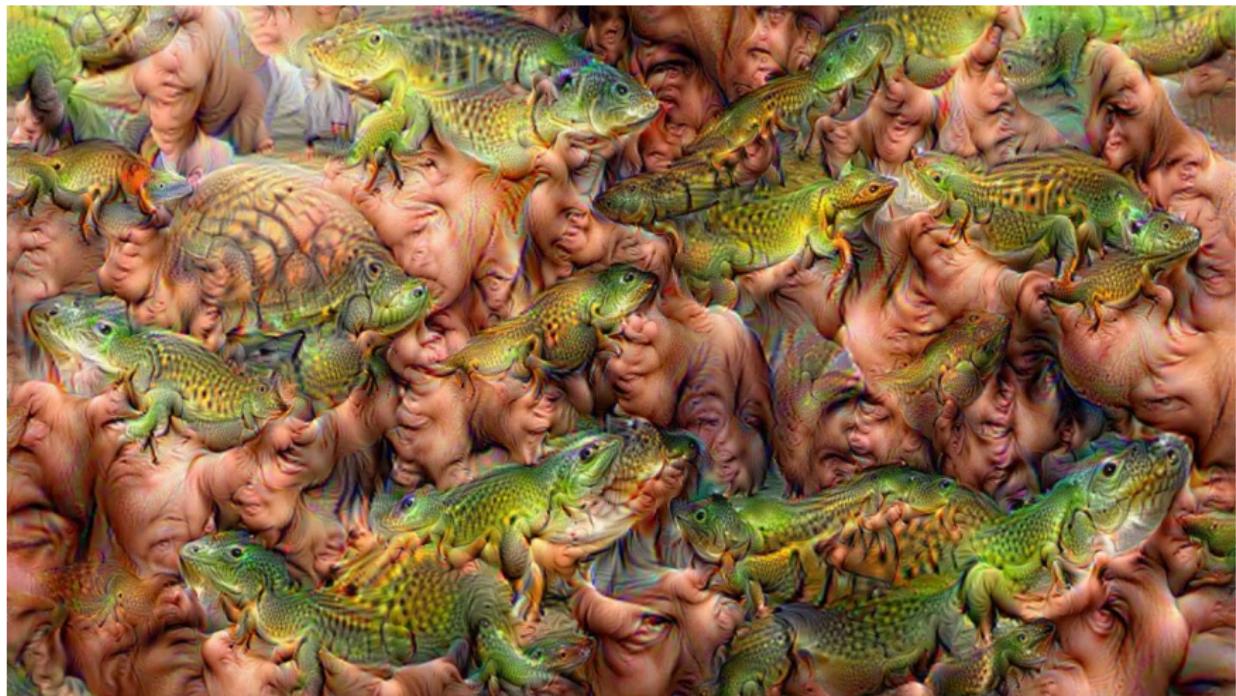


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Thanks!  
Ole Winther