

PPGEEC2318

Machine Learning

Rock, Paper, Scissors Cont.

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Daniel Voigt Godoy **Deep Learning** with PyTorch Step-by-Step A Beginner's Guide

Chapter 6: Rock, Paper, Scissors

Spoilers

- > Jupyter Notebook
- > Rock, Paper, Scissors...
- > Data Preparation

Three-Channel Convolutions

Fancier Model

- > Dropout
- Model Configuration
- Model Training
- Learning Rates

Putting It All Together

Recap

agenda

- 1. **Standardize** an image dataset
- 2. **train** a model to predict **rock**, **paper**, **scissors** poses from hand images
- 3. use **dropout** layers to **regularize** the model
- 4. learn how to **find a learning rate** to train the model
- 5. understand how the **Adam optimizer** uses adaptive learning rates

- 6. **capture gradients** and **parameters** to visualize their evolution during training
- 7. understand how **momentum** and **Nesterov** momentum work
- 8. use **schedulers** to implement learning rate **changes** during training



Rock

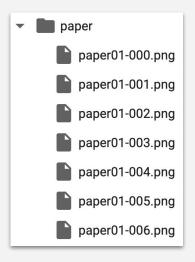


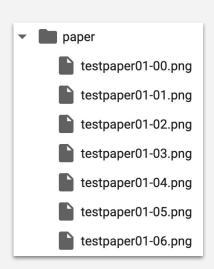
Paper

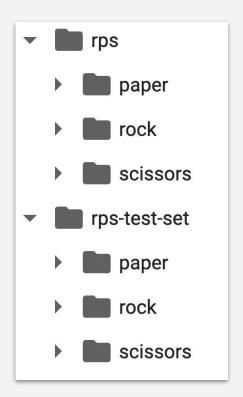


Scissors

The dataset contains 2,892 images (2,520 train, 372 test) of diverse hands in the typical rock, paper, and scissors poses against a white background. This is a synthetic dataset as well since the images were generated using CGI techniques. Each image is 300x300 pixels in size and has four channels (RGBA).







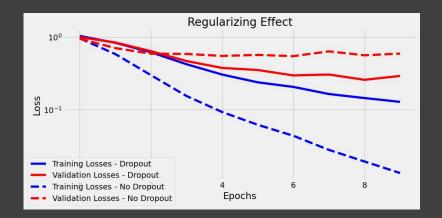
Fancier Model

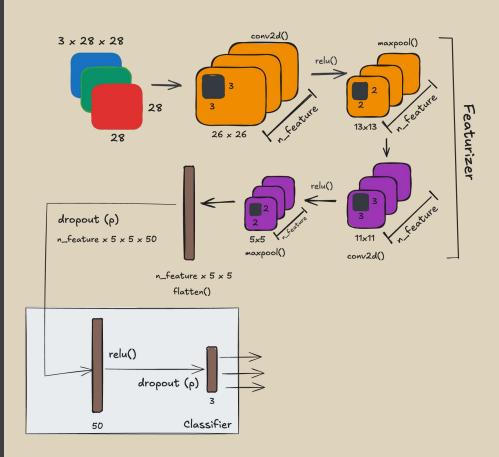
```
torch.manual_seed(13)

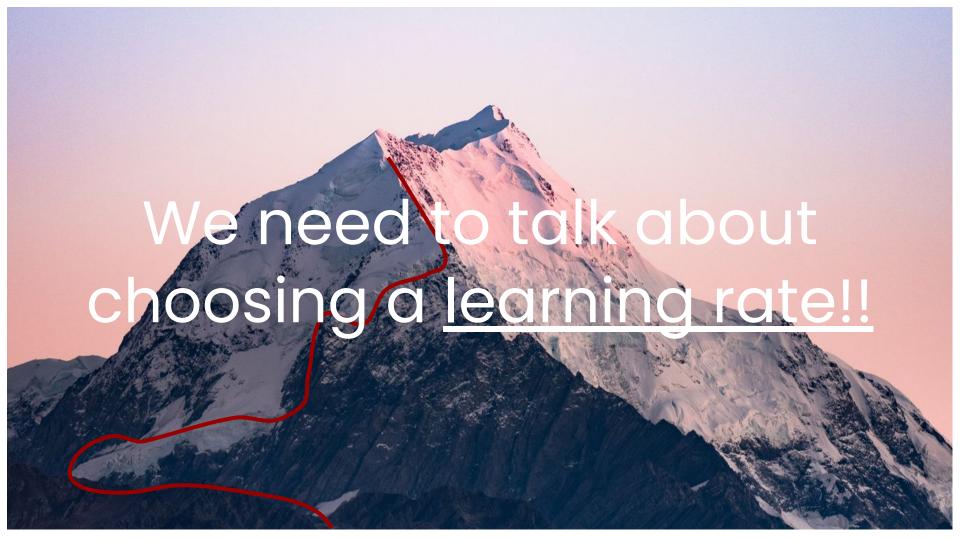
# Model/Architecture
model_cnn2 = CNN2(n_feature=5, p=0.3)

# Loss function
multi_loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss(reduction='mean')

# Optimizer
optimizer_cnn2 = optim.Adam(model_cnn2.parameters(), lr=3e-4)
```







All you need is a grid-search?

Trying multiple learning rates over a few epochs each and the evolution of the losses

```
# it is common to reduce the LR by a factor # of 3 or a factor of 10

# using factor of 3
[0.1, 0.03, 0.01, 3e-3, 1e-3, 3e-4, 1e-4]

# using a factor of 10
[0.1, 0.01, 1e-3, 1e-4, 1e-5]
```

- 1) If the learning rate is too low
 - a) The model doesn't learn much and the loss remains high.
- 2) If the learning rate is too high
 - a) The model doesn't converge to a solution and the loss gets higher.

Cyclical Learning Rates for Training Neural Networks

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Abstract

It is known that the learning rate is the most important hyper-parameter to tune for training deep neural networks. This paper describes a new method for setting the learning rate, named cyclical learning rates, which practically eliminates the need to experimentally find the best values and schedule for the global learning rates. Instead of monotonically decreasing the learning rate, this method lets the learning rate cyclically vary between reasonable boundary values. Training with cyclical learning rates instead of fixed values achieves improved classification accuracy without a need to tune and often in fewer iterations. This paper also describes a simple way to estimate "reasonable bounds" - linearly increasing the learning rate of the network for a few epochs. In addition, cyclical learning rates are demonstrated on the CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100 datasets with ResNets, Stochastic Depth networks, and DenseNets, and the ImageNet dataset with the AlexNet and GoogLeNet architectures. These are practical tools for everyone who trains neural networks.

1. Introduction

Deep neural networks are the basis of state-of-the-art results for image recognition [17, 23, 25], object detection [7], face recognition [26], speech recognition [8], machine translation [24], image caption generation [28], and driverless car technology [14]. However, training a deep neural network is a difficult global optimization problem.

A deep neural network is typically updated by stochastic gradient descent and the parameters θ (weights) are updated by $\theta^t = \theta^{t-1} - \epsilon_t \frac{\partial t}{\partial \theta}$, where L is a loss function and ϵ_t is the learning rate. It is well known that too small a learning rate will make a training algorithm converge slowly while too large a learning rate will make the training algorithm diverge [2]. Hence, one must experiment with a variety of learning rates and schedules.

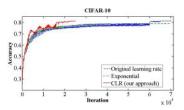


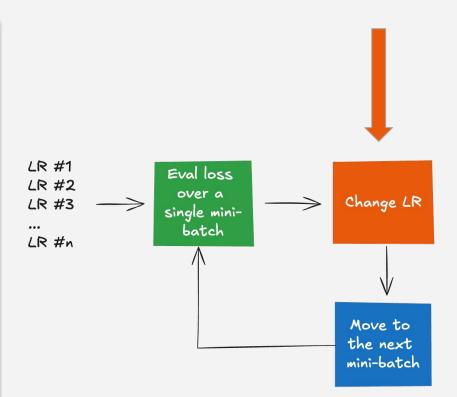
Figure 1. Classification accuracy while training CIFAR-10. The red curve shows the result of training with one of the new learning rate policies.

ing training. This paper demonstrates the surprising phenomenon that a varying learning rate during training is beneficial overall and thus proposes to let the global learning rate vary cyclically within a band of values instead of setting it to a fixed value. In addition, this cyclical learning rate (CLR) method practically eliminates the need to tune the learning rate yet achieve near optimal classification accuracy. Furthermore, unlike adaptive learning rates, the CLR methods require essentially no additional computation.

The potential benefits of CLR can be seen in Figure 1, which shows the test data classification accuracy of the CIFAR-10 dataset during training!. The baseline (blue curve) reaches a final accuracy of 81.4% after 70,000 iterations. In contrast, it is possible to fully train the network using the CLR method instead of tuning (red curve) within 25.000 iterations and attain the same accuracy.

The contributions of this paper are:

- A methodology for setting the global learning rates for training neural networks that eliminates the need to perform numerous experiments to find the best values and schedule with essentially no additional computation.
- 2. A surprising phenomenon is demonstrated allowing



LR Range Test

Higher-Order Learning Rate Function Builder

```
def make_lr_fn(start_lr, end_lr, num_iter, step_mode='exp'):
    if step_mode == 'linear':
        factor = (end_lr / start_lr - 1) / num_iter
        def lr_fn(iteration):
            return 1 + iteration * factor
    else:
        factor = (np.log(end_lr) - np.log(start_lr)) / num_iter
        def lr_fn(iteration):
            return np.exp(factor)**iteration
    return lr_fn
```

How do I change the learning rate of an optimizer?

```
dummy_model = CNN2(n_feature=5, p=0.3)
dummy_optimizer = optim.Adam(dummy_model.parameters(), lr=start_lr)
```

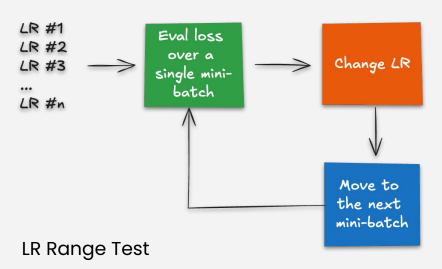
All you need is a <u>scheduler!!!</u>

The LambdaLR scheduler takes an **optimizer** and a **custom function** as arguments and modifies the learning rate of that optimizer accordingly

```
from torch.optim.lr_scheduler import StepLR, ReduceLROnPlateau, MultiStepLR, CyclicLR, LambdaLR
dummy_model = CNN2(n_feature=5, p=0.3)
dummy_optimizer = optim.Adam(dummy_model.parameters(), lr=start_lr)
dummy_scheduler = LambdaLR(dummy_optimizer, lr_lambda=lr_fn)
```

```
dummy_optimizer.step()
dummy_scheduler.step()

dummy_scheduler.get_last_lr()[0]
0.012589254117941673
```

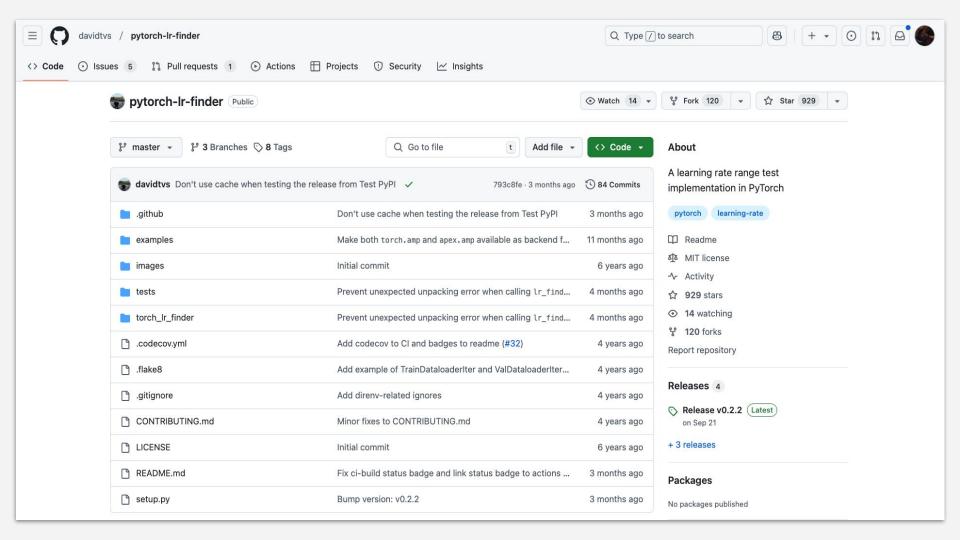




(0.04434013138652989,0.6091022460474141)

"U-Shape curve"

```
. . .
new_model = CNN2(n_feature=5, p=0.3)
multi_loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss(reduction='mean')
new_optimizer = optim.Adam(new_model.parameters(), lr=3e-4)
arch_new = Architecture(new_model, multi_loss_fn, new_optimizer)
tracking, fig = arch new.lr range test(train loader, end lr=1e-1, num iter=100)
```

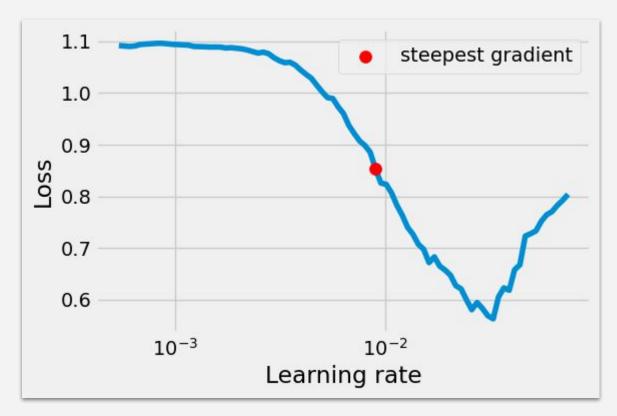


```
!pip install --quiet torch-lr-finder
from torch_lr_finder import LRFinder
```

```
. .
fig, ax = plt.subplots(1, 1, figsize=(6, 4))
# model, loss function, optimizer and device
new_model = CNN2(n_feature=5, p=0.3)
multi_loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss(reduction='mean')
new_optimizer = optim.Adam(new_model.parameters(), lr=3e-4)
device = 'cuda' if torch.cuda.is_available() else 'cpu'
# instantiate LR Finder object
lr finder = LRFinder(new_model, new_optimizer, multi_loss_fn, device=device)
# LR range test
lr finder.range test(train loader, end lr=le-1, num iter=100)
lr_finder.plot(ax=ax, log_lr=True)
fig.tight layout()
lr finder.reset()
```

The concept of the "steepest gradient" refers to the point where the loss decreases most rapidly.

The idea is to find the highest learning rate that still results in a decrease in loss before the loss starts to increase due to an excessively high learning rate. This zone is typically at the steepest part of the loss curve.



LR suggestion: **steepest gradient**Suggested LR: **9.02E-03**

"OK, if I manage to choose a good learning rate from the start, am I done with it?"

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W} - \eta \times \nabla(\mathbf{W})$$
$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} - \eta \times \nabla(\mathbf{b})$$



Moving Average (MA)

$$MA_t = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_{t-i}$$

A Moving Average (MA) is the average of the most recent values over a fixed period N.

```
def moving_average(data, N):
    return [sum(data[i:i+N])/N for i in range(len(data)-N+1)]
data = [2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16]
N = 3
ma_result = moving_average(data, N)
print(ma_result)
[4.0, 6.0, 8.0, 10.0, 12.0, 14.0]
```

Average Age for MA

$$x = [2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16]$$
 average $age_{MA} = \frac{1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + N}{N}$
$$MA_3 = \frac{1}{3}(2 + 4 + 6) = 4$$

$$= \frac{\frac{N(N+1)}{2}}{N} = \frac{N+1}{2}$$
 age (1)
$$age (2)$$
 average $age_{MA} = \frac{1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + N}{N}$

For a period of 3, it means that, on average, the data points contributing to the MA value are 2 time steps old.

Exponential Weighted Moving Average (EWMA)

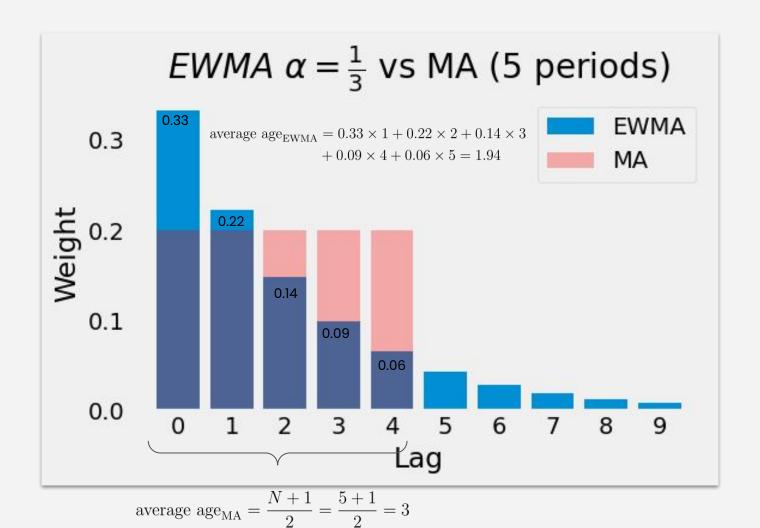
$$EWMA_t(\alpha, x) = \alpha \qquad x_t + (1 - \alpha)EWMA_{t-1}(\alpha, x)$$
$$EWMA_t(\beta, x) = (1 - \beta) \qquad x_t + \beta EWMA_{t-1}(\beta, x)$$

The first alternative, using alpha as the weight of the current value, is most common in other fields, like finance. But, the beta alternative is the one commonly found when the Adam optimizer is discussed.

Exponential Weighted Moving Average (EWMA)

$$\begin{aligned}
EWMA_{t}(\alpha, x) &= \alpha & x_{t} + (1 - \alpha)EWMA_{t-1}(\alpha, x) \\
&= \alpha x_{t} + (1 - \alpha)(\alpha x_{t-1}) + (1 - \alpha)EWMA_{t-2}(\alpha, x)) \\
&= \alpha x_{t} + (1 - \alpha)(\alpha x_{t-1}) + (1 - \alpha)^{2}\alpha x_{t-2} + \dots \\
&= (1 - \alpha)^{0}\alpha x_{t-0} + (1 - \alpha)^{1}\alpha x_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha)^{2}\alpha x_{t-2} + \dots \\
&= \alpha ((1 - \alpha)^{0} x_{t-0}) + (1 - \alpha)^{1} x_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha)^{2} x_{t-2} + \dots
\end{aligned}$$

 $EWMA_t = \alpha \sum_{\text{lag}=0} \underbrace{(1-\alpha)^{\text{lag}}}_{\text{weight}} x_{t-\text{lag}}$



Average Age for EWMA

As the total number of observed values (T) grows, the average age approaches the inverse of alpha.

average age_{EWMA} =
$$\alpha \sum_{\text{lag=0}}^{T-1} (1 - \alpha)^{\text{lag}} (\text{lag} + 1) \approx \frac{1}{\alpha}$$

```
alpha = 1/3; T = 93
t = np.arange(1, T + 1)
age = alpha * sum((1 - alpha)**(t - 1) * t)
age
3.0
```

Note:

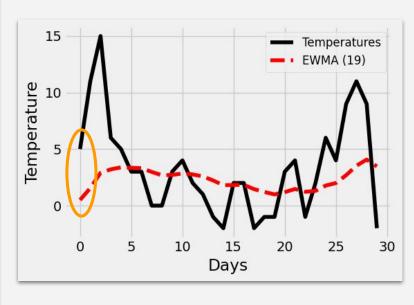
Now that we know how to compute the **average age** of an EWMA given its **alpha**, we can figure out which **moving average** has the same **average age**:

average age
$$=$$
 $\frac{N+1}{2} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \implies \alpha = \frac{2}{N+1}$; $N = \frac{2}{\alpha} - 1$

α	β	N
1/3	2/3	5
0.1	0.9	19
0.001	0.999	1999

If we'd like to compute the EWMA equivalent to a 19-period moving average, the corresponding alpha would be 0.1.

```
def EWMA(past_value, current_value, alpha):
    return (1 - alpha) * past_value + alpha * current_value
def calc_ewma(values, period):
    alpha = 2 / (period + 1)
    result = []
    for v in values:
        try:
            prev value = result[-1]
        except IndexError:
            prev value = 0
        new_value = EWMA(prev_value, v, alpha)
        result.append(new_value)
    return np.array(result)
```



In the try..except block, you can see that, if there is no previous value for the EWMA (as in the very first step), it assumes a previous value of zero.

Note:

$$EWMA_t(\alpha, x) = \alpha \sum_{\text{lag}=0}^{N-1} (1 - \alpha)^{\text{lag}} x_{t-\text{lag}}$$

For the average to be unbiased, the sum of the weights must be 1.

$$\alpha \sum_{\text{lag}=0}^{N-1} (1 - \alpha)^{\text{lag}} = 1$$

At the beginning of a time series, when *t* is small, this sum is less than 1, resulting in a biased average!!!!

Note:

$$EWMA_t(\alpha, x) = \alpha \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} (1 - \alpha)^{\log} x_{t-\log}$$

Using the formula for the sum of a geometric progression:

$$\sum_{lag=0}^{N-1} (1 - \alpha)^{lag} = \frac{1 - (1 - \alpha)^N}{\alpha}$$

Therefore, the sum of the weights is:

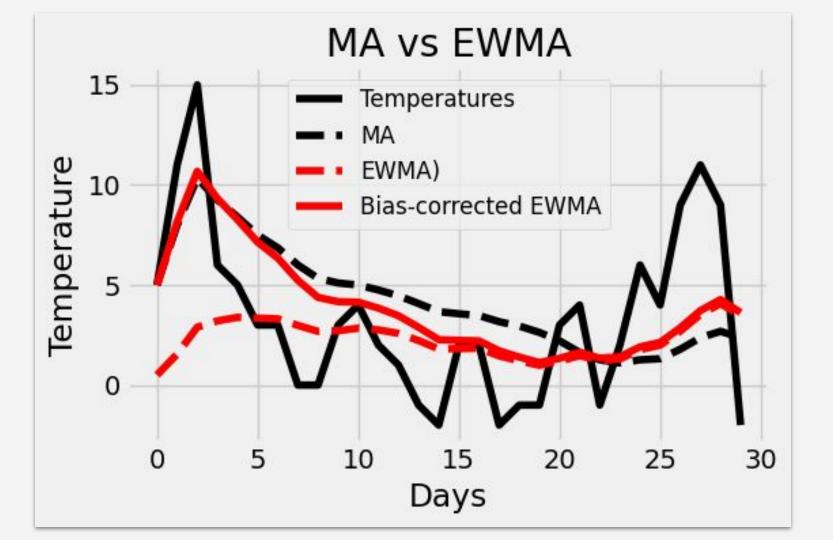
$$\alpha \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} (1-\alpha)^{lag} = \alpha \cdot \frac{1-(1-\alpha)^N}{\alpha} = 1-(1-\alpha)^N$$

Bias Correction

To correct the bias, we divide the EWMA by the factor:

Bias Corrected EWMA_t =
$$\frac{\text{EWMA}_t}{1 - (1 - \alpha)^t}$$
$$= \frac{\text{EWMA}_t}{1 - \beta^t}$$

```
def correction(averaged_value, beta, steps):
   return averaged value / (1 - (beta ** steps))
def calc_corrected_ewma(values, period):
   ewma = calc_ewma(values, period)
   alpha = 2 / (period + 1)
   beta = 1 - alpha
   result = []
   for step, v in enumerate(ewma):
       adj_value = correction(v, beta, step + 1)
       result.append(adj value)
   return np.array(result)
```



EWMA Meets Gradients

α	β	N
1/3	2/3	5
0.1	0.9	19
0.001	0.999	1999

$$adapted-gradient_t = \frac{Bias\ Corrected\ EWMA_t(\beta_1, gradients)}{\sqrt{Bias\ Corrected\ EWMA_t(\beta_2, gradients^2)} + \epsilon}$$

 $SGD : param_t = param_{t-1} - \eta \ gradient_t$

 $Adam : param_t = param_{t-1} - \eta \text{ adapted gradient}_t$