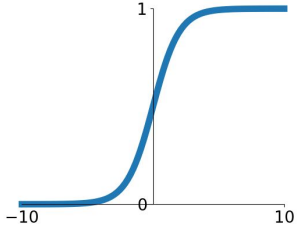
Lecture 8:
Training Neural Networks, Part 2

Last time: Activation Functions

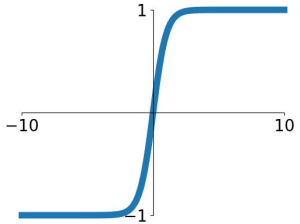
Sigmoid

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



tanh

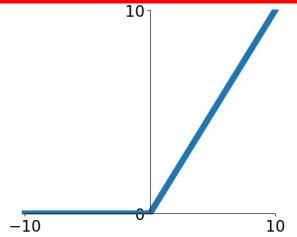
$$\tanh(x)$$



ReLU

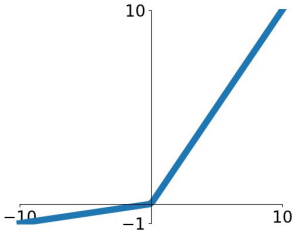
$$\max(0, x)$$

Good default choice



Leaky ReLU

$$\max(0.1x, x)$$

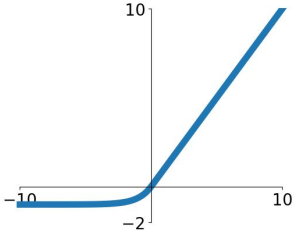


Maxout

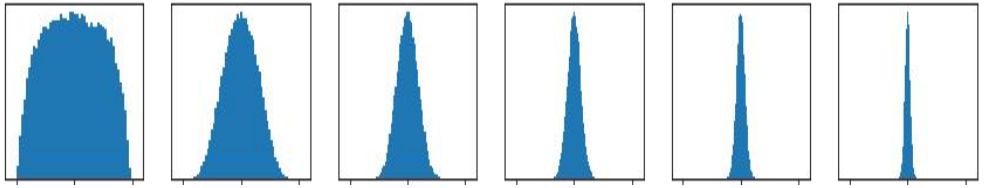
$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

ELU

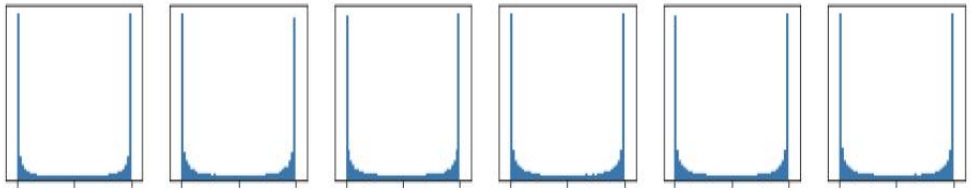
$$\begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



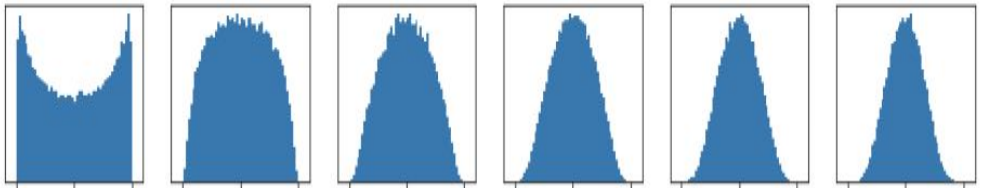
Last time: Weight Initialization



Initialization too small:
Activations go to zero, gradients also zero,
No learning =(

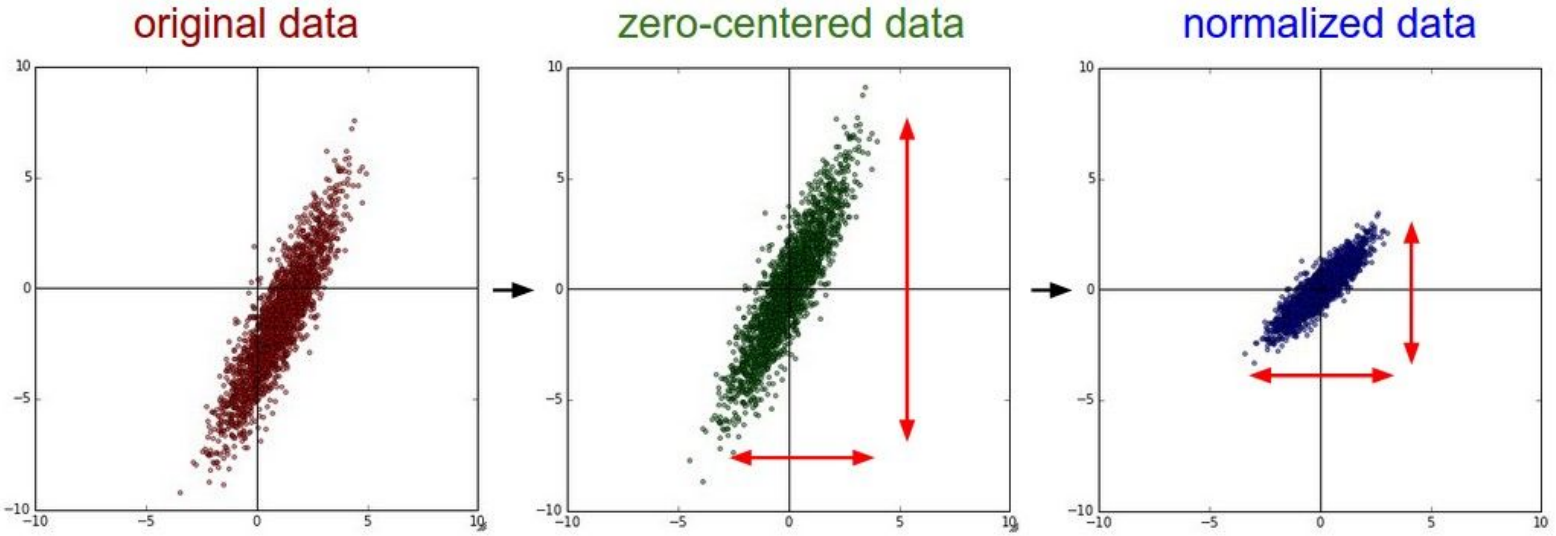


Initialization too big:
Activations saturate (for tanh),
Gradients zero, no learning =(



Initialization just right:
Nice distribution of activations at all layers,
Learning proceeds nicely =)

Last time: Data Preprocessing



Last Time: Batch Normalization

[Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015]

Input: $x : N \times D$

Learnable scale and shift parameters:

$$\gamma, \beta : D$$

Learning $\gamma = \sigma$, $\beta = \mu$ will recover the identity function!

$$\mu_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i,j}$$

Per-channel mean, shape is D

$$\sigma_j^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_{i,j} - \mu_j)^2$$

Per-channel var, shape is D

$$\hat{x}_{i,j} = \frac{x_{i,j} - \mu_j}{\sqrt{\sigma_j^2 + \varepsilon}}$$

Normalized x, Shape is N x D

$$y_{i,j} = \gamma_j \hat{x}_{i,j} + \beta_j$$

Output, Shape is N x D

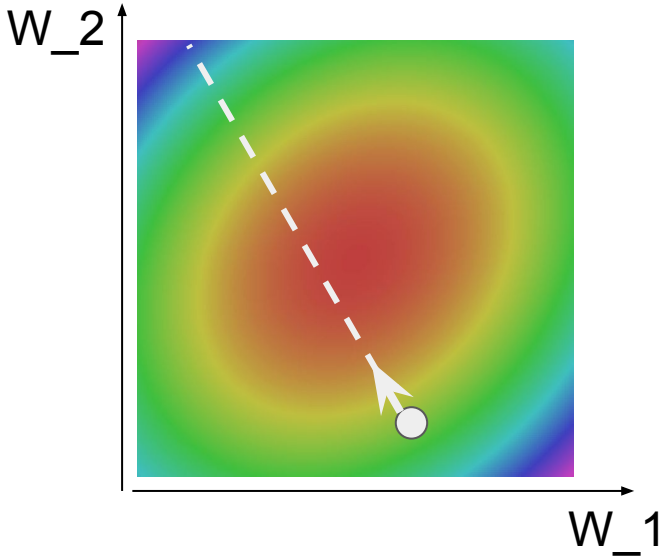
Today

- Improve your training error:
  - (Fancier) Optimizers
  - Learning rate schedules
- Improve your test error:
  - Regularization
  - Choosing Hyperparameters

Optimization

```
# Vanilla Gradient Descent

while True:
  weights_grad = evaluate_gradient(loss_fun, data, weights)
  weights += - step_size * weights_grad # perform parameter update
```

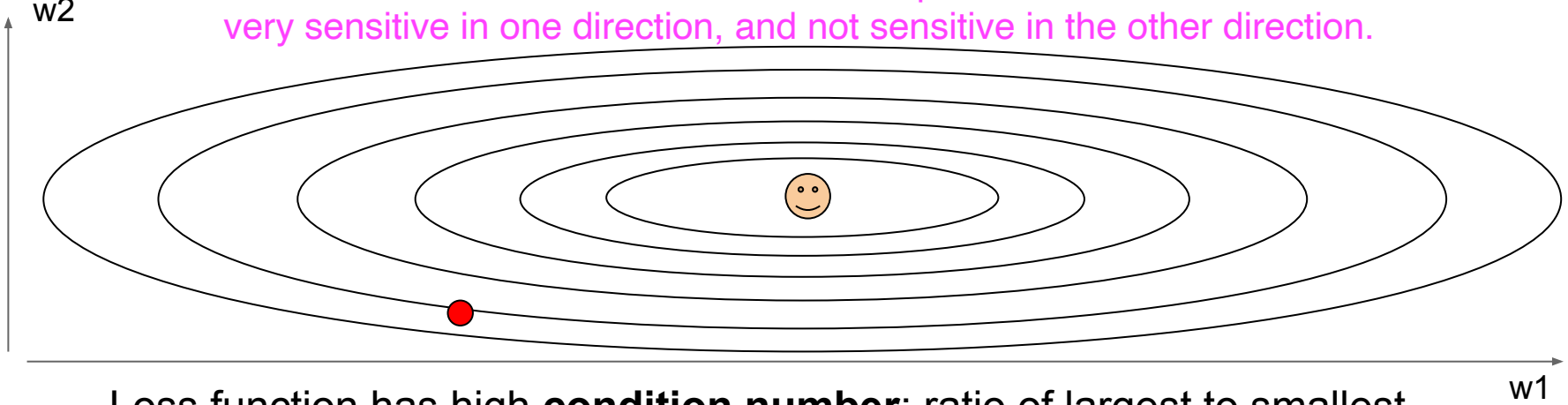


may have many problems in practice.

Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if loss changes quickly in one direction and slowly in another?
What does gradient descent do?

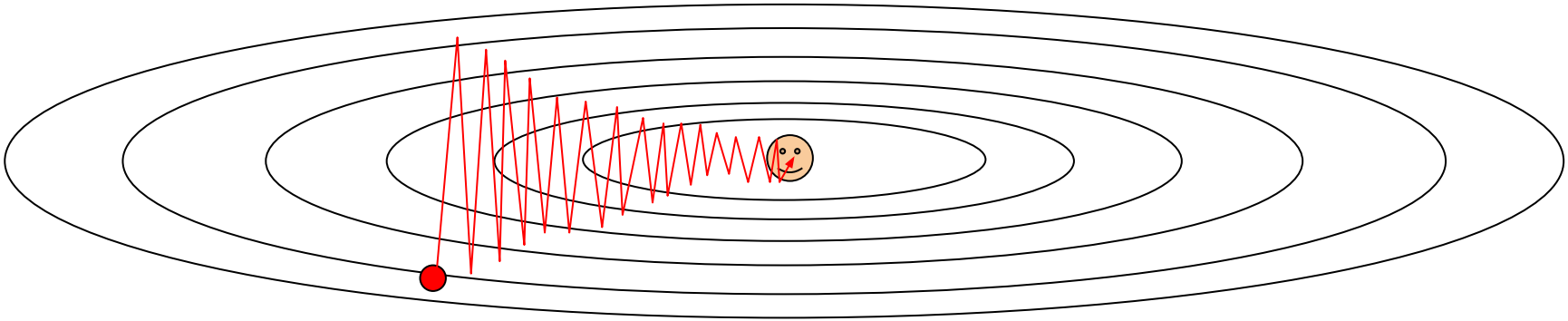
Tne intuitive idea is that the loss landscape looks like a taco shell. It's sort of very sensitive in one direction, and not sensitive in the other direction.



Loss function has high **condition number**: ratio of largest to smallest singular value of the Hessian matrix is large

Optimization: Problems with SGD

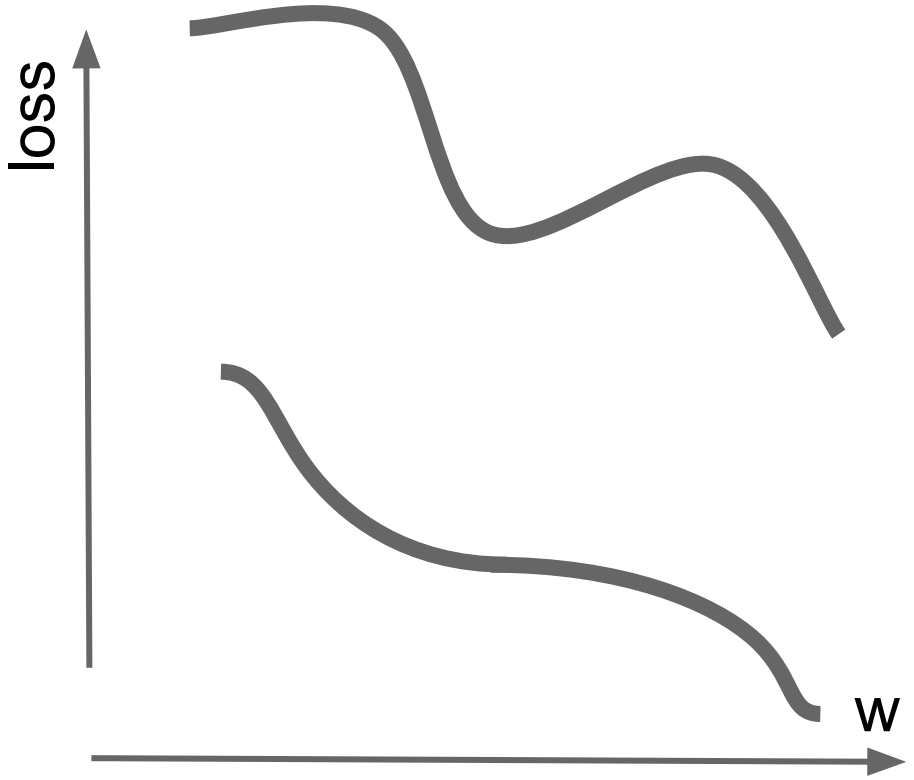
What if loss changes quickly in one direction and slowly in another?
What does gradient descent do?
Very slow progress along shallow dimension, jitter along steep direction



Loss function has high **condition number**: ratio of largest to smallest singular value of the Hessian matrix is large

Optimization: Problems with SGD

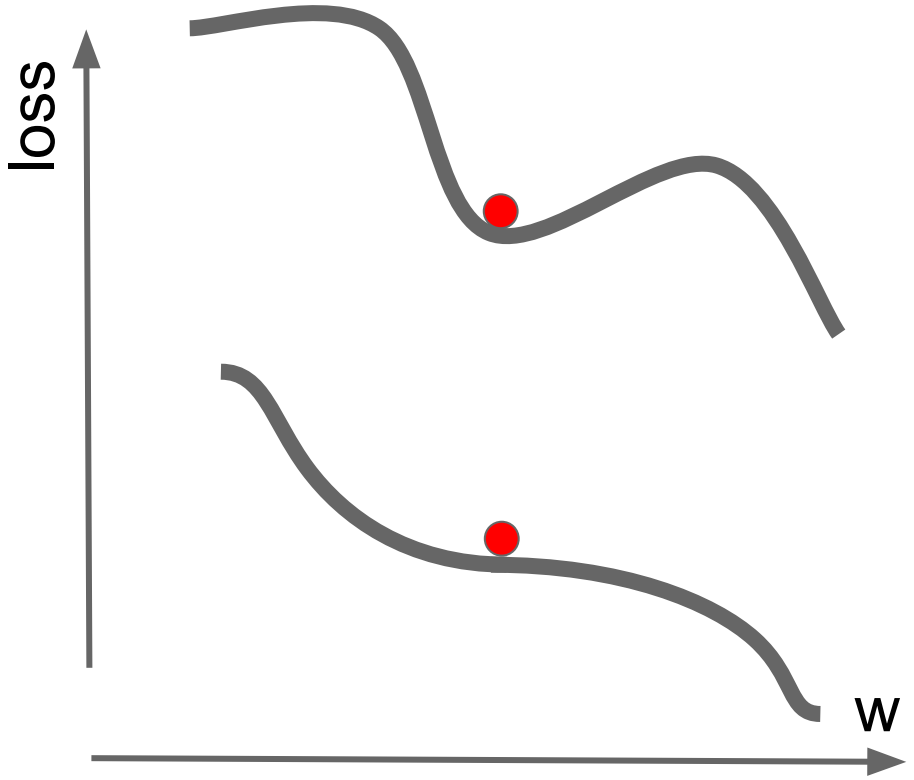
What if the loss function has a **local minima** or **saddle point**?



Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if the loss function has a **local minima** or **saddle point**?

Zero gradient, gradient descent gets stuck



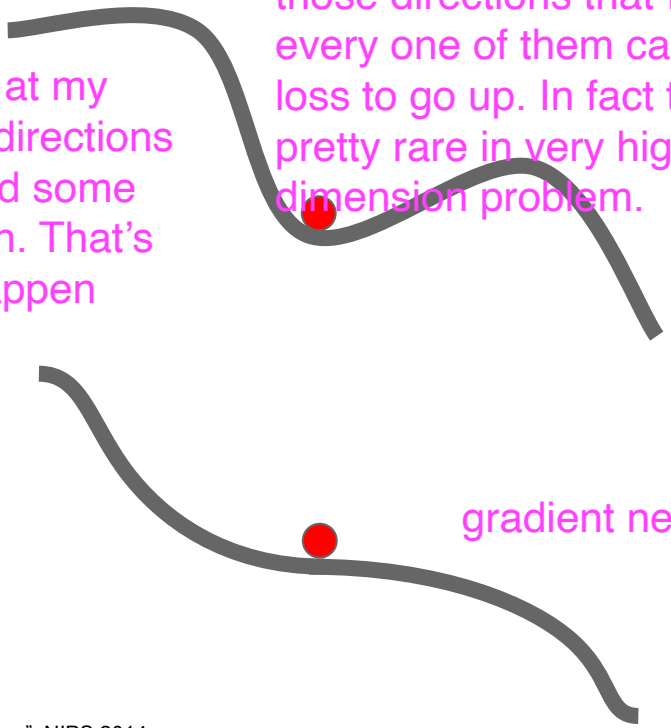
Optimization: Problems with SGD

What if the loss function has a **local minima** or **saddle point**?

Saddle points much more common in high dimension

Saddle point means at my current point, some directions the loss goes up, and some directions goes down. That's probably going to happen everywhere in high dimensions.

A local minima say that of all those directions that I can move, every one of them causes the loss to go up. In fact that seems pretty rare in very high dimension problem.



gradient nears 0.

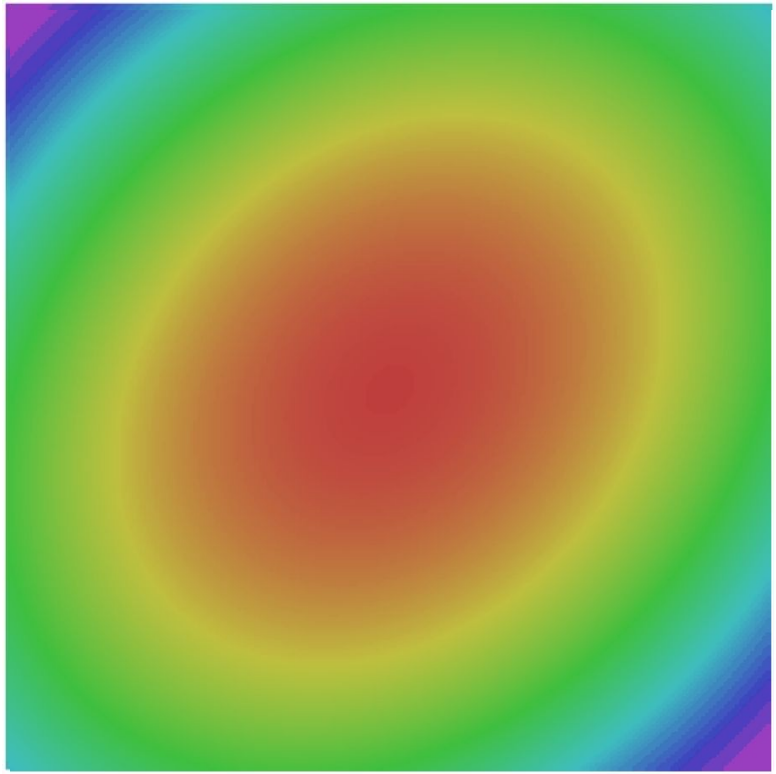
Dauphin et al, "Identifying and attacking the saddle point problem in high-dimensional non-convex optimization", NIPS 2014

Optimization: Problems with SGD

Our gradients come from minibatches so they can be noisy!

$$L(W) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} L_i(x_i, y_i, W)$$

$$\nabla_W L(W) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_W L_i(x_i, y_i, W)$$



SGD + Momentum

There's a really, really simple strategy, the idea of adding a momentum term to our stochastic gradient descent.

SGD

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t)$$

```
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  x -= learning_rate * dx
```

SGD+Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t + \nabla f(x_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha v_{t+1}$$

```
vx = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  vx = rho * vx + dx
  x -= learning_rate * vx
```

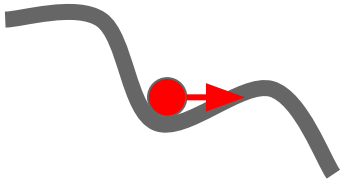
The idea is that we maintain a velocity over time, and we add our gradient estimates to the velocity. Then we step in the direction of the velocity, rather than stepping in the direction of the gradient.

- Build up "velocity" as a running mean of gradients
- Rho gives "friction"; typically rho=0.9 or 0.99

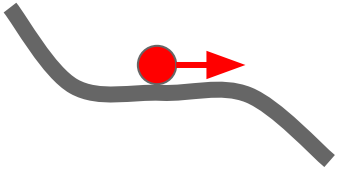
Sutskever et al, "On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning", ICML 2013

SGD + Momentum

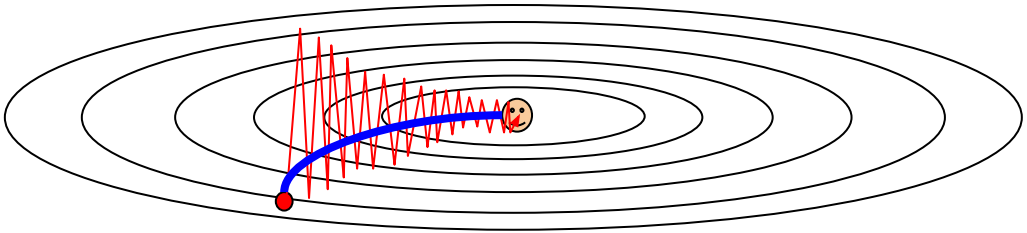
Local Minima



Saddle points

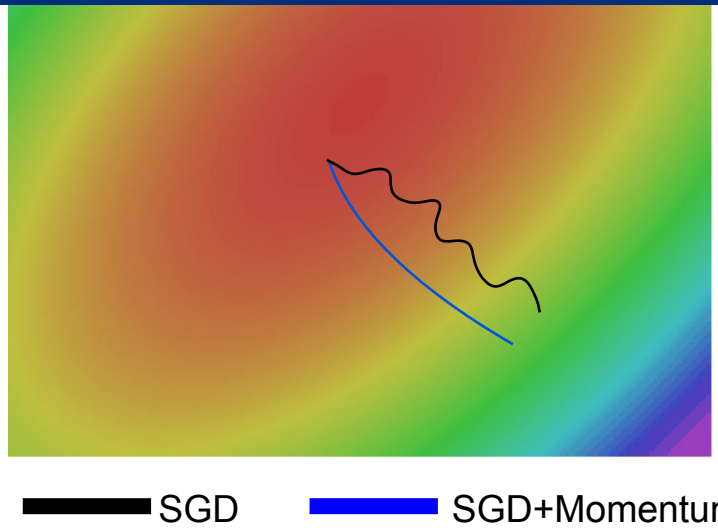


Poor Conditioning



Gradient Noise

imagine the ball rolling down the hill, picking up speed as it comes down. when the ball pass the point of local minima, the point still has velocity even though it doesn't have gradient. The noise is averaged out.



SGD + Momentum

kind of similar idea in TD learning

SGD+Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$

```
vx = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  vx = rho * vx - learning_rate * dx
  x += vx
```

SGD+Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t + \nabla f(x_t)$$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha v_{t+1}$$

```
vx = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  vx = rho * vx + dx
  x -= learning_rate * vx
```

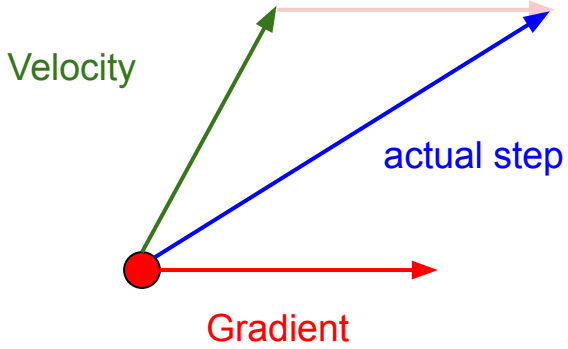
You may see SGD+Momentum formulated different ways, but they are equivalent - give same sequence of x

Sutskever et al, “On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning”, ICML 2013

Nesterov Momentum

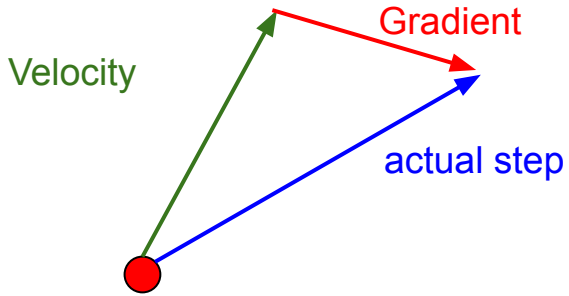
the difference is at which point you calculate gradient(red)

Momentum update:



Combine gradient at current point with velocity to get step used to update weights

Nesterov Momentum



"Look ahead" to the point where updating using velocity would take us; compute gradient there and mix it with velocity to get actual update direction

Nesterov, "A method of solving a convex programming problem with convergence rate O(1/k^2)", 1983
Nesterov, "Introductory lectures on convex optimization: a basic course", 2004
Sutskever et al, "On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning", ICML 2013

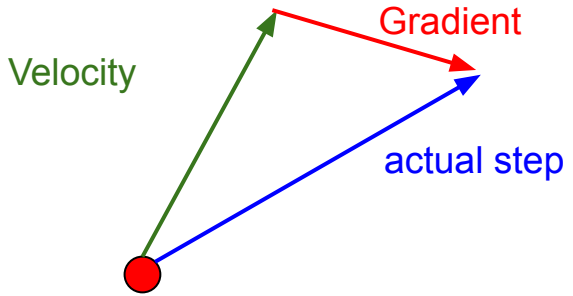
Nesterov Momentum

$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(x_t + \rho v_t)$$
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_{t+1}$$

Annoying, usually we want update in terms of $x_t, \nabla f(x_t)$

Change of variables $\tilde{x}_t = x_t + \rho v_t$ and rearrange:

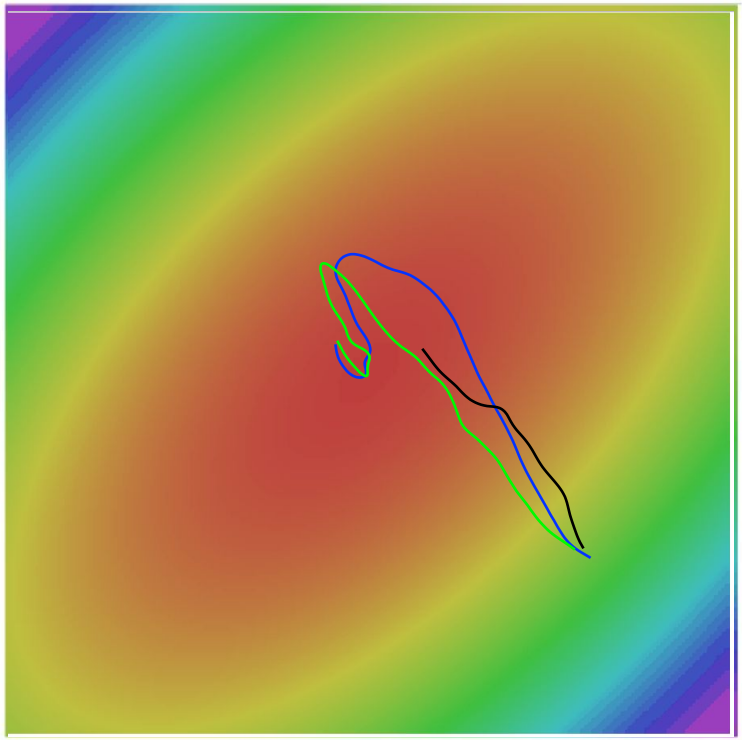
$$v_{t+1} = \rho v_t - \alpha \nabla f(\tilde{x}_t)$$
$$\tilde{x}_{t+1} = \tilde{x}_t - \rho v_t + (1+\rho) v_{t+1}$$
$$= \tilde{x}_t + v_{t+1} + \rho(v_{t+1} - v_t)$$



"Look ahead" to the point where updating using velocity would take us; compute gradient there and mix it with velocity to get actual update direction

https://cs231n.github.io/neural-networks-3/

Nesterov Momentum



SGD

SGD+Momentum

Nesterov

AdaGrad

You're going to keep a running estimate, or a running sum of all the squared gradients that you see during training. Now rather than having a velocity term, instead we have this grad squared term, and during training, we're going to just keep adding the squared gradients to this grad squared term.

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  grad_squared += dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

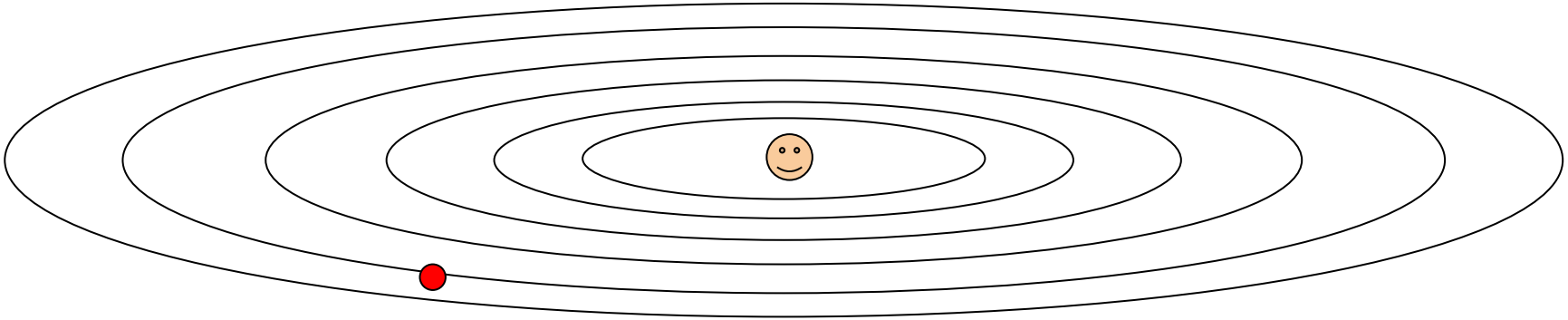
Added element-wise scaling of the gradient based on the historical sum of squares in each dimension

"Per-parameter learning rates"
or "adaptive learning rates"

Duchi et al, "Adaptive subgradient methods for online learning and stochastic optimization", JMLR 2011

AdaGrad

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  grad_squared += dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

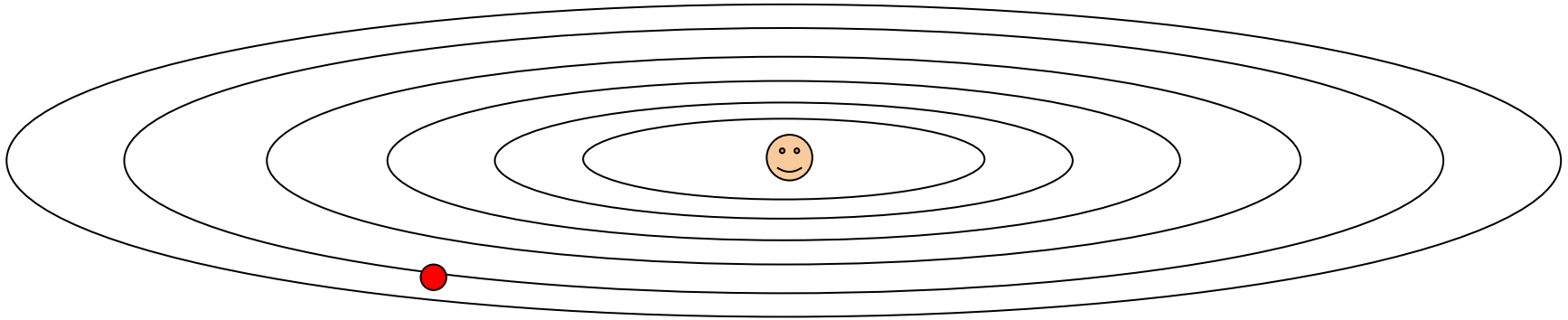


Q: What happens with AdaGrad?

Progress along “steep” directions is damped;
progress along “flat” directions is accelerated

AdaGrad

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  grad_squared += dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```



Q2: What happens to the step size over long time? Decays to zero

RMSProp: “Leaky AdaGrad”

AdaGrad

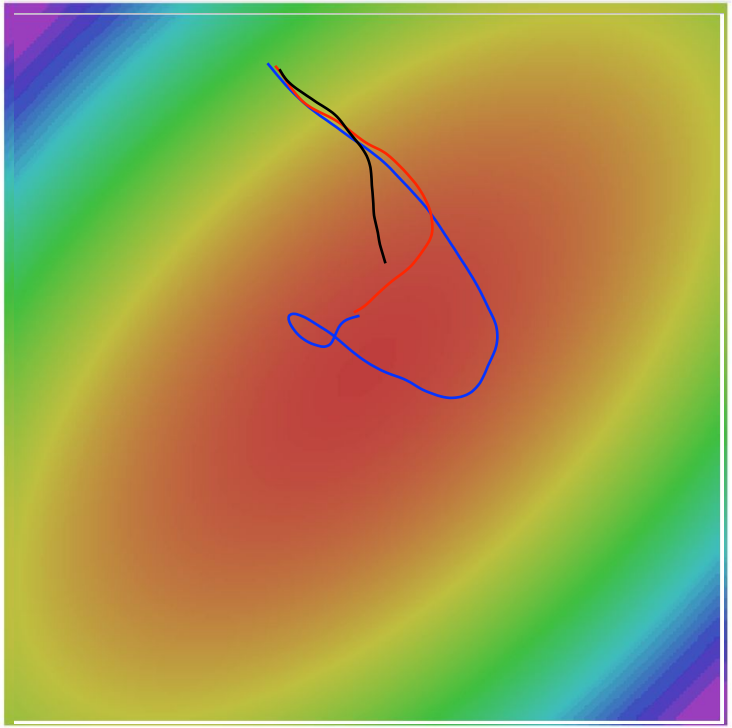
```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  grad_squared += dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

RMSProp

```
grad_squared = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  grad_squared = decay_rate * grad_squared + (1 - decay_rate) * dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * dx / (np.sqrt(grad_squared) + 1e-7)
```

Tieleman and Hinton, 2012

RMSProp



SGD

SGD+Momentum

RMSProp

AdaGrad

(stuck due to decaying lr)

in general, we tend not to use AdaGrad so much when training NN.

Adam (almost)

why not combine the ideas in Momentum and RMPProp ?

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  first_moment = beta1 * first_moment  + (1 - beta1) * dx
  second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * first_moment / (np.sqrt(second_moment) + 1e-7))
```

Kingma and Ba, “Adam: A method for stochastic optimization”, ICLR 2015

Adam (almost)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
while True:
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  first_moment = beta1 * first_moment  + (1 - beta1) * dx
  second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
  x -= learning_rate * first_moment / (np.sqrt(second_moment) + 1e-7))
```

Momentum

AdaGrad / RMSProp

Sort of like RMSProp with momentum

Q: What happens at first timestep?

second_moment is very close to zero, and normally we make a very very large step at the beginning.

Kingma and Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization", ICLR 2015

Adam (full form)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
for t in range(1, num_iterations):
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  first_moment = beta1 * first_moment  + (1 - beta1) * dx
  second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
  first_unbias = first_moment / (1 - beta1 ** t)
  second_unbias = second_moment / (1 - beta2 ** t)
  x -= learning_rate * first_unbias / (np.sqrt(second_unbias) + 1e-7))
```

Momentum

Bias correction

AdaGrad / RMSProp

Bias correction for the fact that first and second moment estimates start at zero

Kingma and Ba, “Adam: A method for stochastic optimization”, ICLR 2015

Adam (full form)

```
first_moment = 0
second_moment = 0
for t in range(1, num_iterations):
  dx = compute_gradient(x)
  first_moment = beta1 * first_moment  + (1 - beta1) * dx
  second_moment = beta2 * second_moment + (1 - beta2) * dx * dx
  first_unbias = first_moment / (1 - beta1 ** t)
  second_unbias = second_moment / (1 - beta2 ** t)
  x -= learning_rate * first_unbias / (np.sqrt(second_unbias) + 1e-7))
```

Momentum

Bias correction

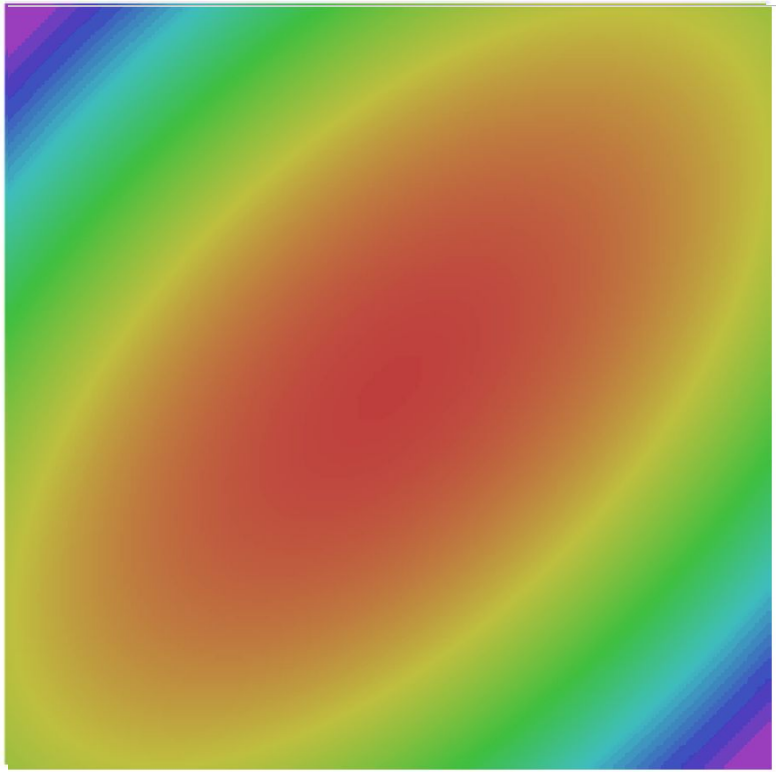
AdaGrad / RMSProp

Bias correction for the fact that first and second moment estimates start at zero

Adam with beta1 = 0.9,
beta2 = 0.999, and learning_rate = 1e-3 or 5e-4
is a great starting point for many models!

Kingma and Ba, "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization", ICLR 2015

Adam



SGD

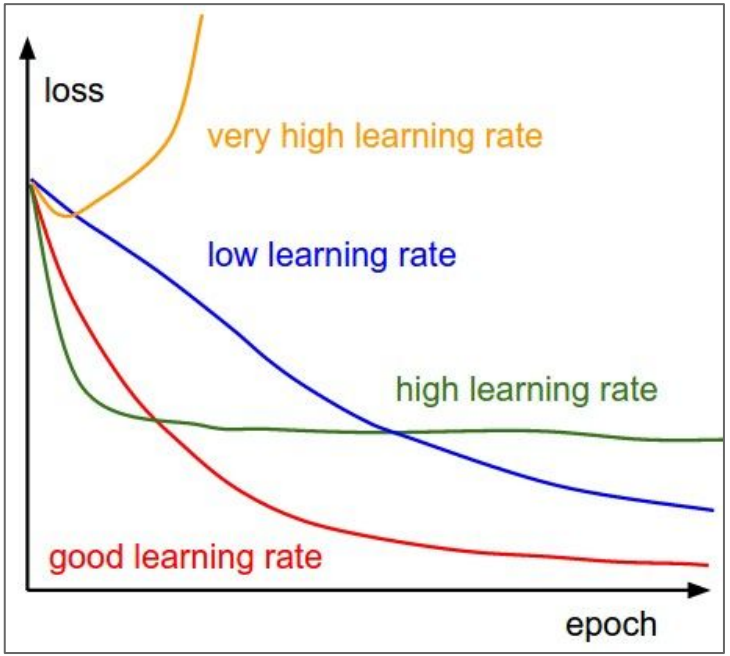
SGD+Momentum

RMSProp

Adam

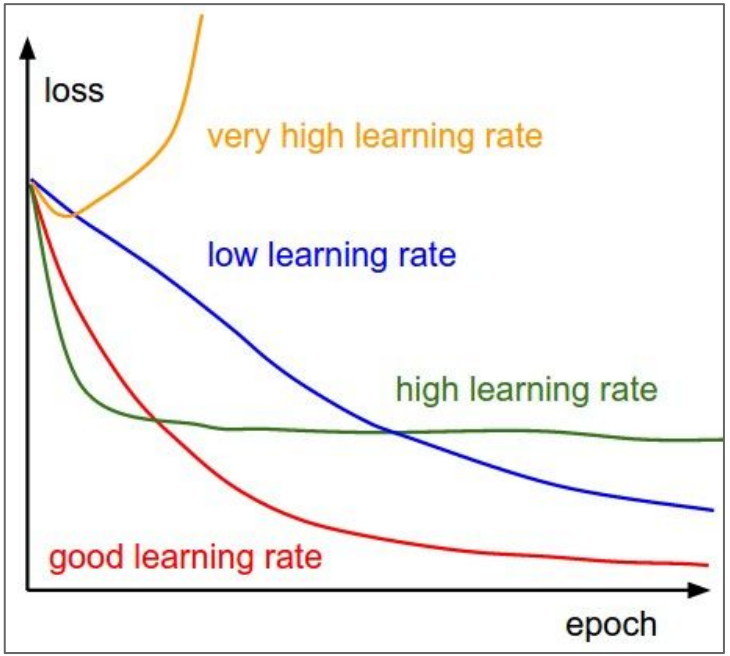
Learning rate schedules

SGD, SGD+Momentum, Adagrad, RMSProp, Adam all have **learning rate** as a hyperparameter.



Q: Which one of these learning rates is best to use?

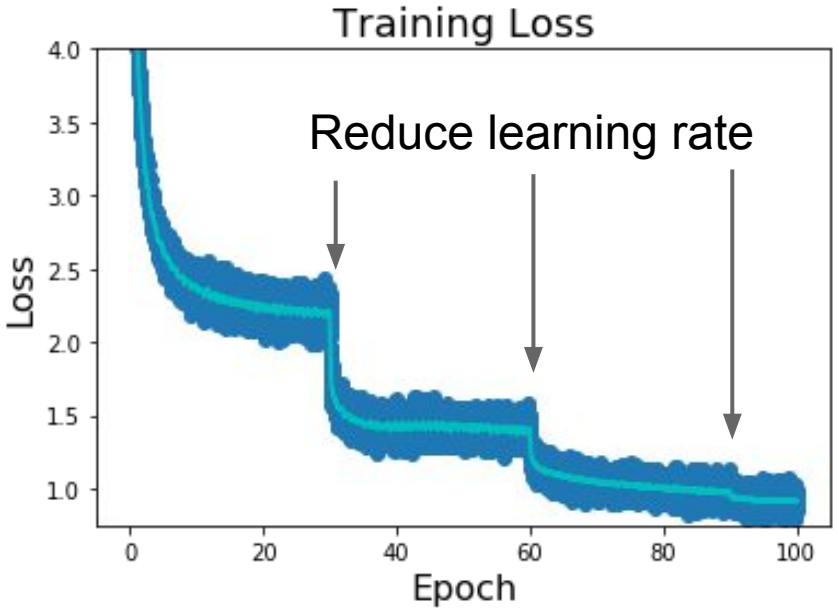
SGD, SGD+Momentum, Adagrad, RMSProp, Adam all have **learning rate** as a hyperparameter.



Q: Which one of these learning rates is best to use?

A: All of them! Start with large learning rate and decay over time

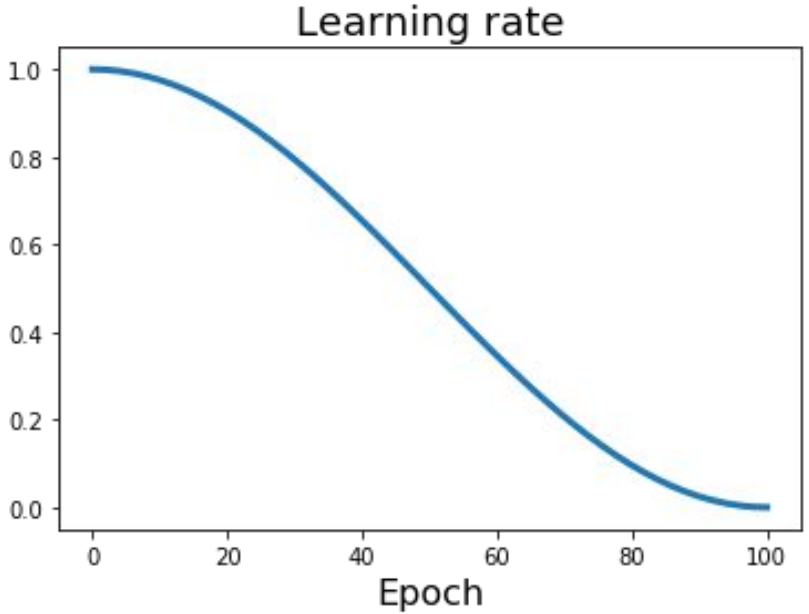
Learning Rate Decay



Step: Reduce learning rate at a few fixed points. E.g. for ResNets, multiply LR by 0.1 after epochs 30, 60, and 90.

What you do for setting learning rate decay is try with no decay, see what happens. Then kind of eyeball the loss curve and see where you think you might need decay.

Learning Rate Decay



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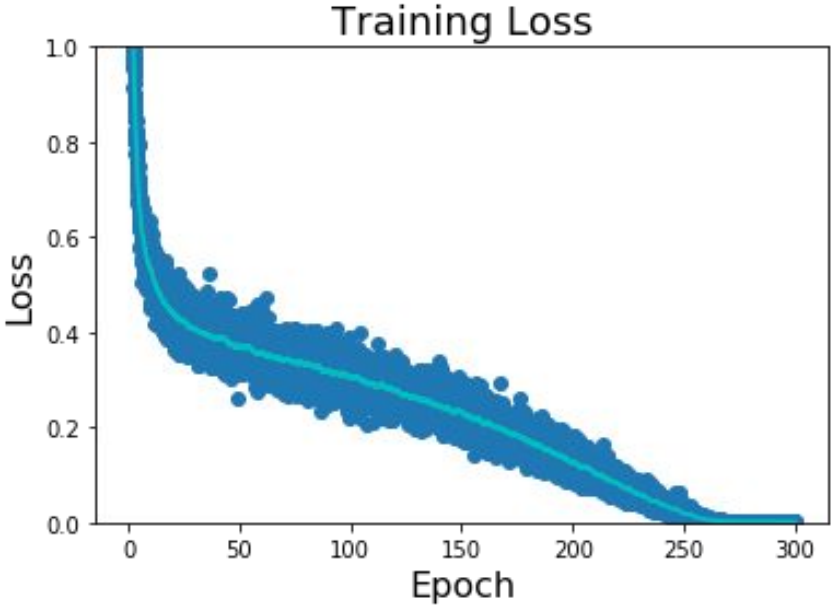
Cosine: $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_0 \left(1 + \cos(t\pi/T)\right)$

α_0 : Initial learning rate
α_t : Learning rate at epoch t
T : Total number of epochs

Loshchilov and Hutter, "SGDR: Stochastic Gradient Descent with Warm Restarts", ICLR 2017
Radford et al, "Improving Language Understanding by Generative Pre-Training", 2018
Feichtenhofer et al, "SlowFast Networks for Video Recognition", arXiv 2018
Child at al, "Generating Long Sequences with Sparse Transformers", arXiv 2019

Learning Rate Decay



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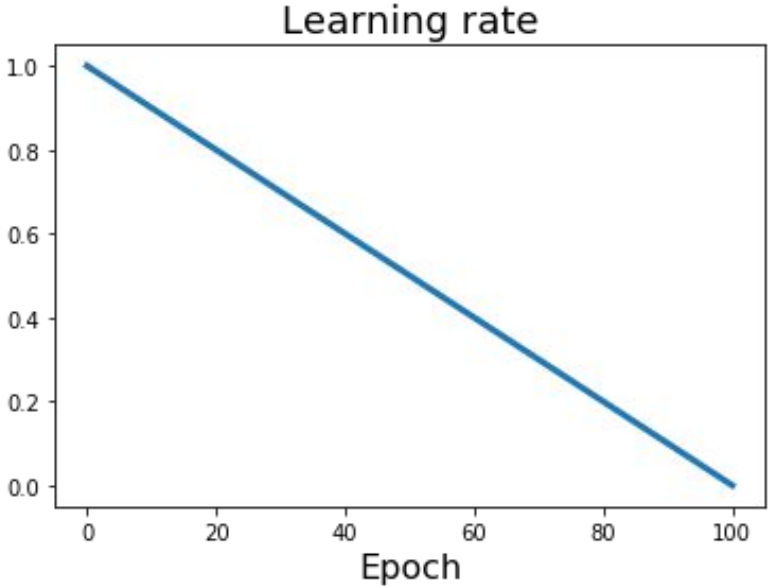
Learning Rate Decay



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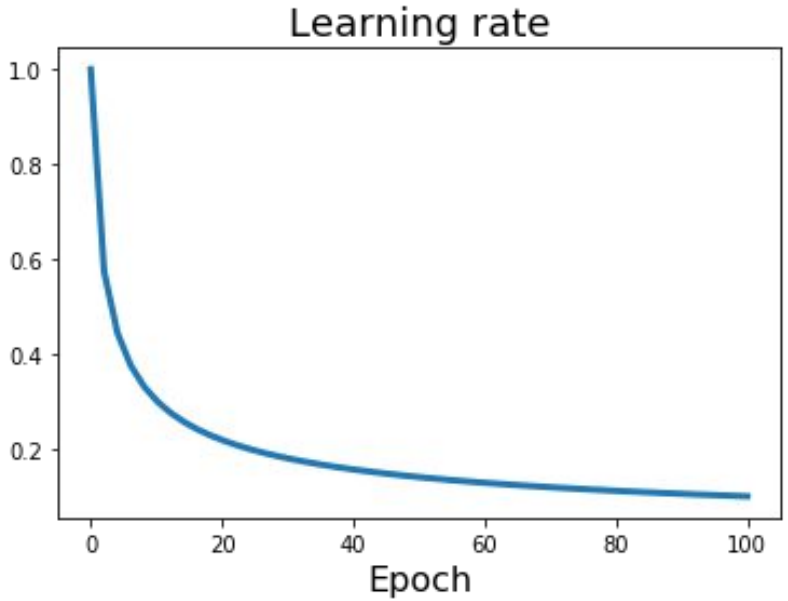
Cosine: $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_0 \left(1 + \cos(t\pi/T)\right)$

Linear: $\alpha_t = \alpha_0(1 - t/T)$

α_0 : Initial learning rate
α_t : Learning rate at epoch t
T : Total number of epochs

Devlin et al, “BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding”, 2018

Learning Rate Decay



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Cosine: $\alpha_t = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_0 \left(1 + \cos(t\pi/T)\right)$

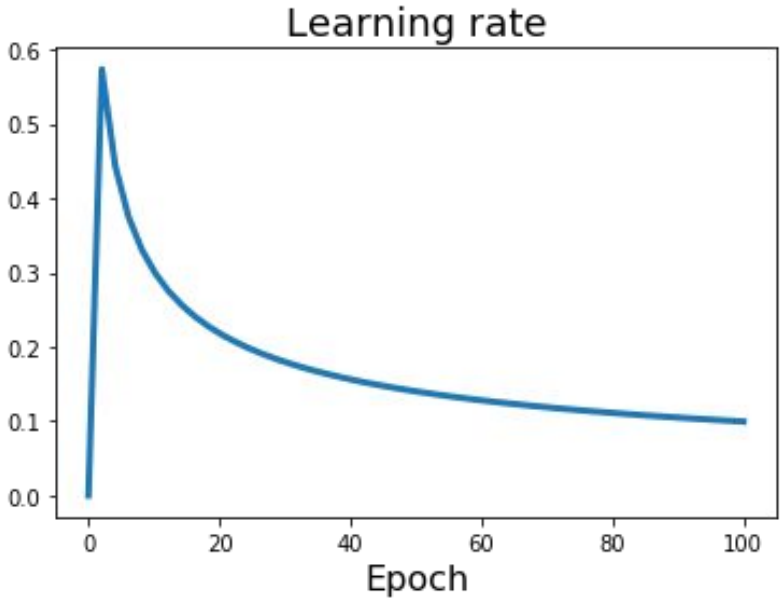
Linear: $\alpha_t = \alpha_0(1 - t/T)$

Inverse sqrt: $\alpha_t = \alpha_0/\sqrt{t}$

α_0 : Initial learning rate
α_t : Learning rate at epoch t
T : Total number of epochs

Vaswani et al, “Attention is all you need”, NIPS 2017

Learning Rate Decay: Linear Warmup



High initial learning rates can make loss explode; linearly increasing learning rate from 0 over the first ~5000 iterations can prevent this

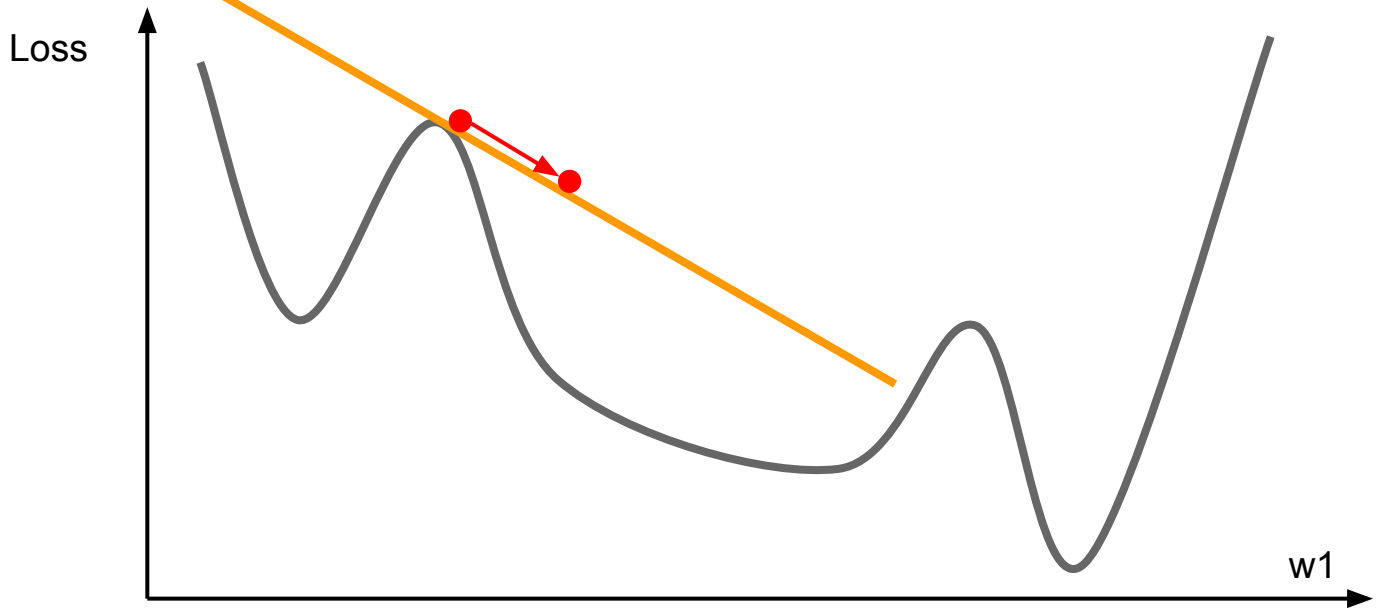
Empirical rule of thumb: If you increase the batch size by N, also scale the initial learning rate by N

Goyal et al, “Accurate, Large Minibatch SGD: Training ImageNet in 1 Hour”, arXiv 2017

First-Order Optimization

(1) Use gradient form linear approximation
(2) Step to minimize the approximation

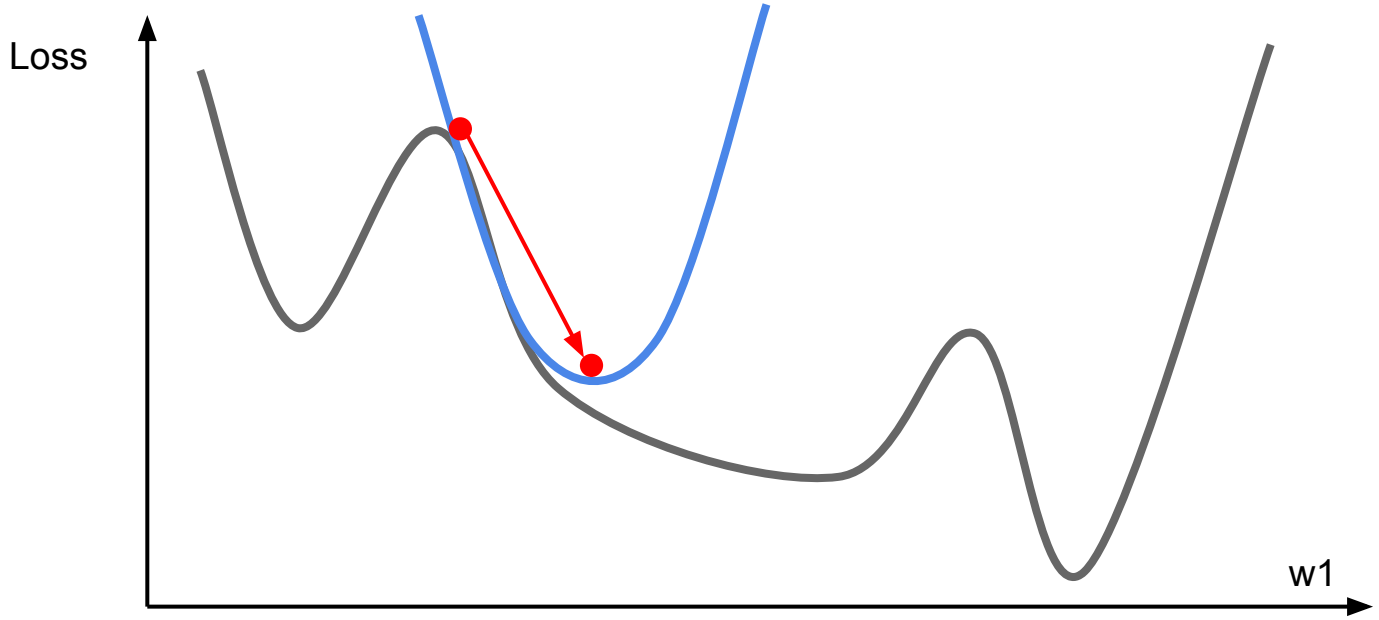
kind of a first-order Taylor approximation, so we can't step too far in that direction.



Second-Order Optimization

Hessian matrix: a matrix of second derivatives

(1) Use gradient **and Hessian** to form **quadratic** approximation
(2) Step to the **minima** of the approximation



Second-Order Optimization

second-order Taylor expansion:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Solving for the critical point we obtain the Newton parameter update:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 - \boldsymbol{H}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

good: doesn't have a learning rate.

Q: Why is this bad for deep learning?

Second-Order Optimization

second-order Taylor expansion:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^\top \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Solving for the critical point we obtain the Newton parameter update:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 - \boldsymbol{H}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

Hessian has O(N^2) elements
Inverting takes O(N^3)
N = (Tens or Hundreds of) Millions

Q: Why is this bad for deep learning? impractical in deep learning.

Second-Order Optimization

$$\theta^* = \theta_0 - \boldsymbol{H}^{-1} \nabla_\theta J(\theta_0)$$

- Quasi-Newton methods (**BGFS** most popular):
  instead of inverting the Hessian (O(n^3)), approximate inverse Hessian with rank 1 updates over time (O(n^2) each).

- **L-BFGS** (Limited memory BFGS):
  Does not form/store the full inverse Hessian.

L-BFGS

- **Usually works very well in full batch, deterministic mode** i.e. if you have a single, deterministic f(x) then L-BFGS will probably work very nicely

- **Does not transfer very well to mini-batch setting**. Gives bad results. Adapting second-order methods to large-scale, stochastic setting is an active area of research.

Le et al, “On optimization methods for deep learning, ICML 2011”
Ba et al, “Distributed second-order optimization using Kronecker-factored approximations”, ICLR 2017

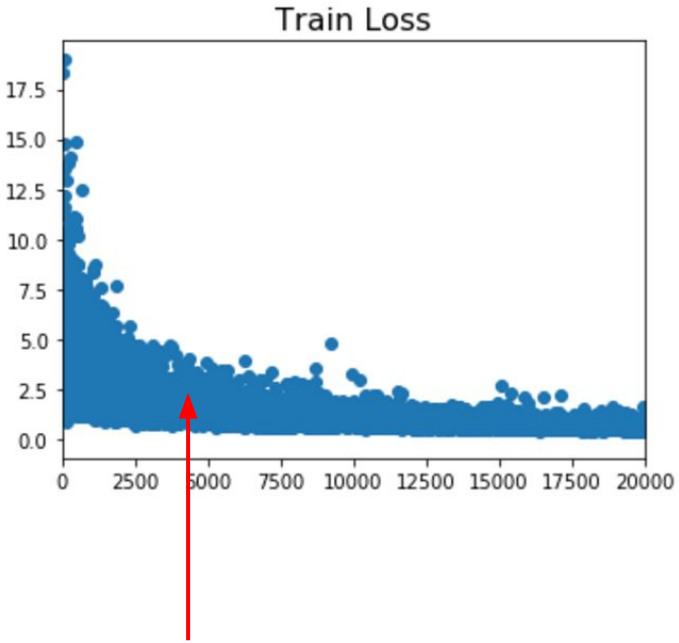
In practice:

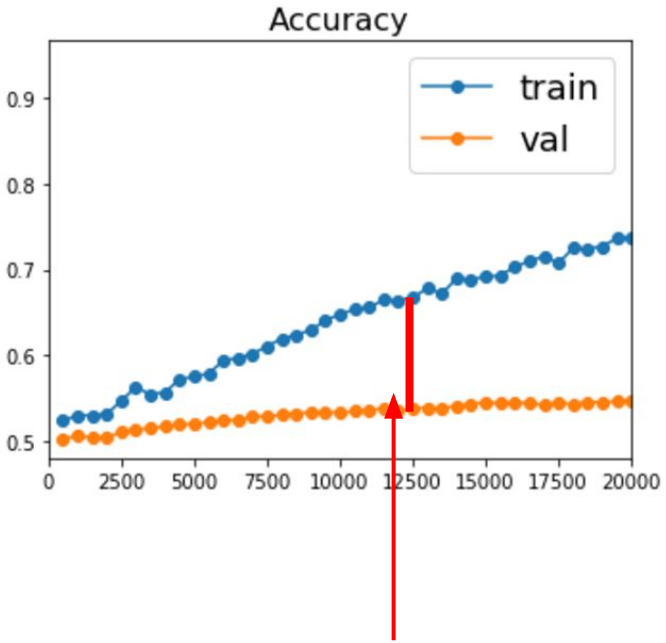
- **Adam** is a good default choice in many cases; it often works ok even with constant learning rate
- **SGD+Momentum** can outperform Adam but may require more tuning of LR and schedule
  - Try cosine schedule, very few hyperparameters!

- If you can afford to do full batch updates then try out **L-BFGS** (and don't forget to disable all sources of noise)

Improve test error

Beyond Training Error

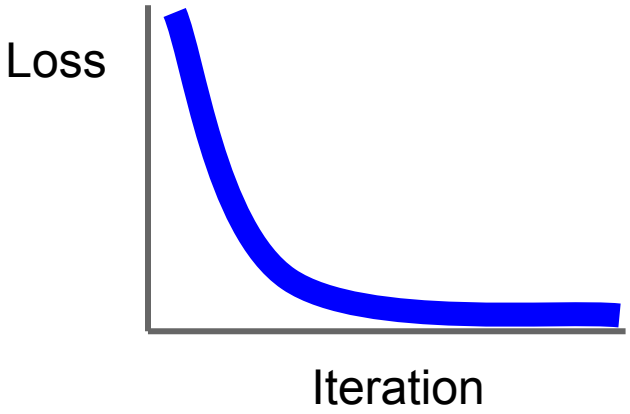


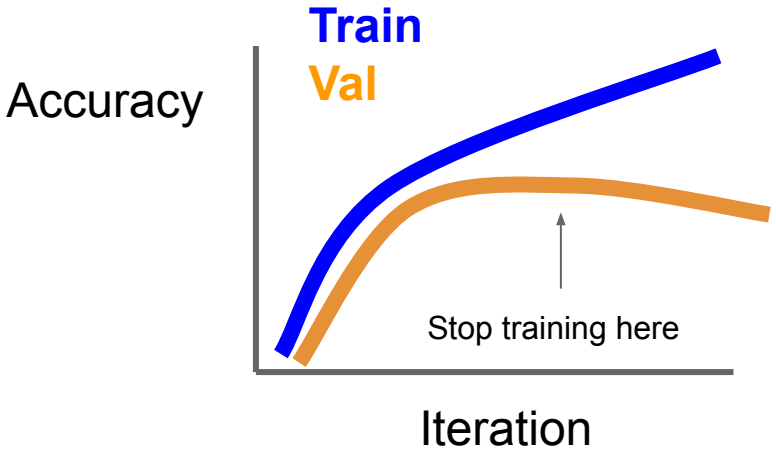


Better optimization algorithms help reduce training loss

But we really care about error on new data - how to reduce the gap?

Early Stopping: Always do this





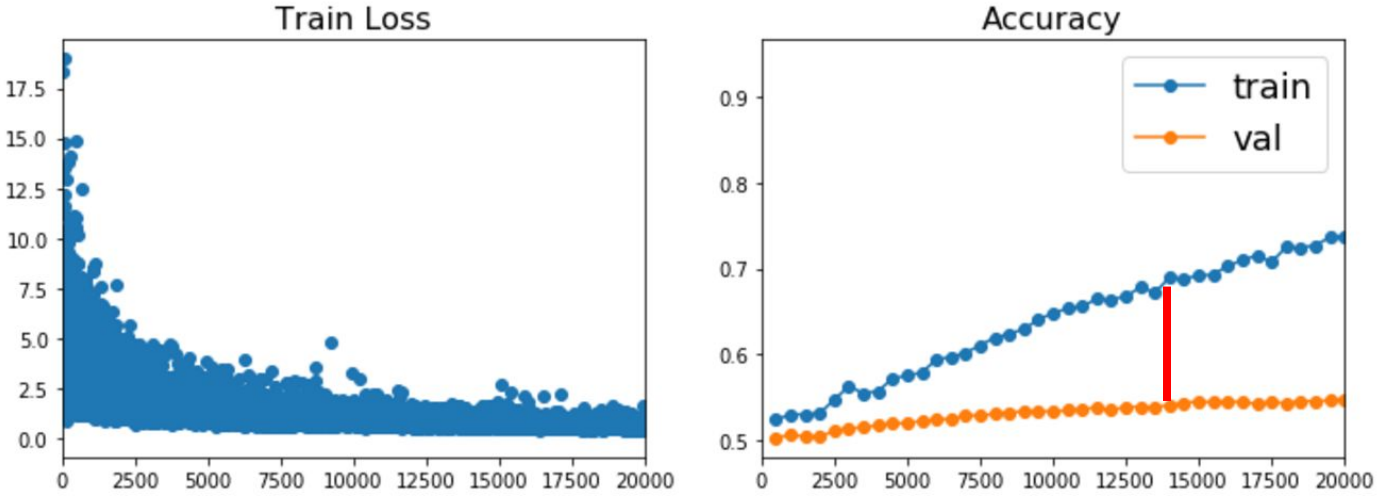
Stop training the model when accuracy on the validation set decreases
Or train for a long time, but always keep track of the model snapshot that worked best on val

Model Ensembles

1. Train multiple independent models
2. At test time average their results
   (Take average of predicted probability distributions, then choose argmax)

Enjoy 2% extra performance

How to improve single-model performance?



Regularization

Regularization: Add term to loss

$$L = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{j\neq y_i}\max(0, f(x_i; W)_j - f(x_i; W)_{y_i} + 1) + \boxed{\lambda R(W)}$$

In common use:

L2 regularization $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l W_{k,l}^2$ (Weight decay)

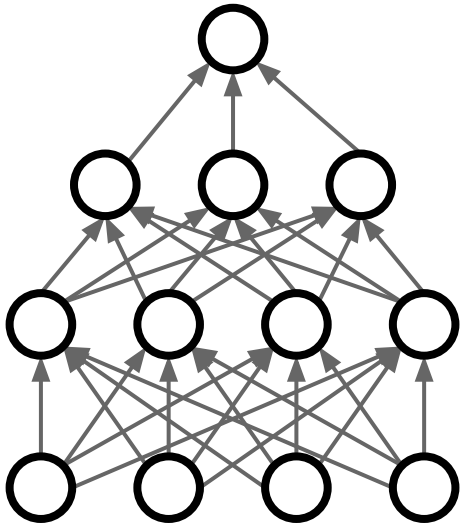
L1 regularization $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l |W_{k,l}|$

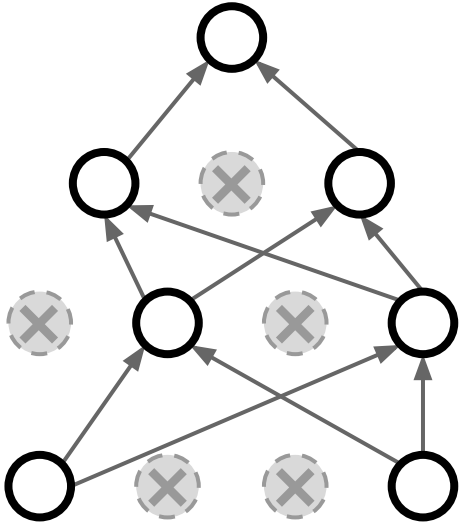
Elastic net (L1 + L2) $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l \beta W_{k,l}^2 + |W_{k,l}|$

Regularization: Dropout

It's more common in fully connected layers, but you sometimes see this in convolutional layers, as well.

In each forward pass, randomly set some neurons to zero
Probability of dropping is a hyperparameter; 0.5 is common





Srivastava et al, "Dropout: A simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting", JMLR 2014

Regularization: Dropout

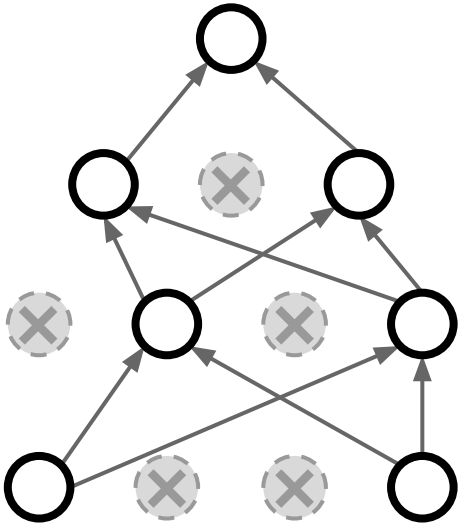
```python
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout

def train_step(X):
  """ X contains the data """

  # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
  H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
  U1 = np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p # first dropout mask
  H1 *= U1 # drop!
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
  U2 = np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p # second dropout mask
  H2 *= U2 # drop!
  out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3

  # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
  # perform parameter update... (not shown)
```

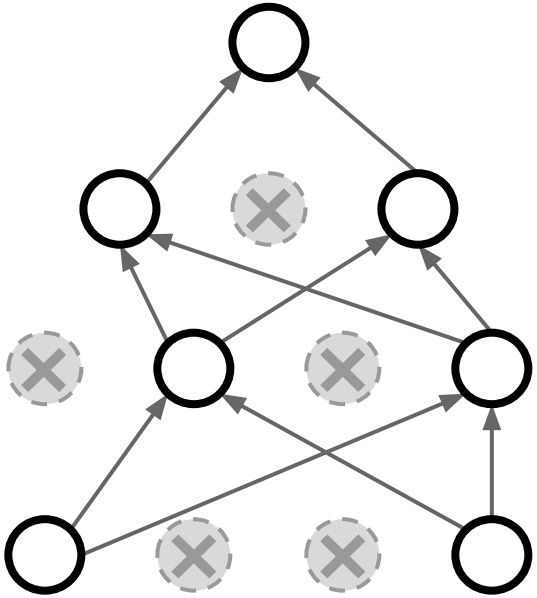
Example forward pass with a 3-layer network using dropout



Regularization: Dropout

How can this possibly be a good idea?

for classifying cats, the network might learn that one neuron for having a ear, one neuron for having a tail, one neuron for being furry , and then it can combine these things together to decide whether or not it;s a cat.



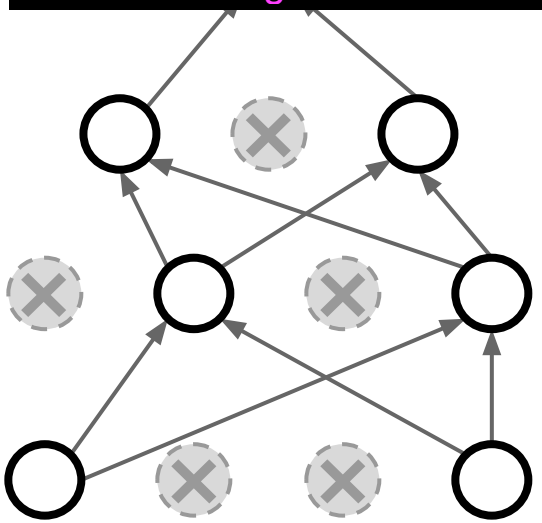
Forces the network to have a redundant representation;
Prevents co-adaptation of features

But now if we have drop out, then in making the final decision about catness, the network cannot depend too much on any of these features. Instead, it kind of needs to distribute its idea of catness across many different features. This might help prevent overfitting somehow.

Regularization: Dropout

How can this possibly be a good idea?

after you apply dropout, we're kind of computing this subnetwork using some subset of the neurons. Now every different potential dropout mask leads to a different potential subnetwork. Now dropout is kind of learning a whole ensumble of networks all at the same time that all share parameters.



Dropout is training a large **ensemble** of models (that share parameters).

Each binary mask is one model

by the may, you're nerver gonna sample all the things

An FC layer with 4096 units has $2^{4096} \sim 10^{1233}$ possible masks!

Only $\sim 10^{82}$ atoms in the universe...

Dropout: Test time

Q: what happens at test time ?

Output (label)

Input (image)

Dropout makes our output random!

$$y = f_W(x, z)$$

Random mask

Previously, we've had our neural network, y = f_w(x). But now our network is also taking this additional input z, which is some like random dropout mask. Having randomness at test time is maybe bad.

Want to "average out" the randomness at test-time

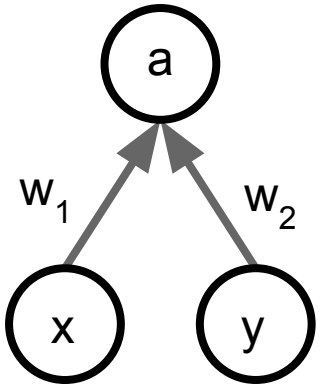
$$y = f(x) = E_z\big[f(x, z)\big] = \int p(z) f(x, z) dz$$

But this integral seems hard …

Dropout: Test time

Want to approximate the integral

$$y = f(x) = E_z\big[f(x,z)\big] = \int p(z) f(x,z) dz$$



Consider a single neuron.

At test time we have: $E\big[a\big] = w_1 x + w_2 y$

During training we have:

$$\begin{aligned} E\big[a\big] =& \frac{1}{4}(w_1 x + w_2 y) + \frac{1}{4}(w_1 x + 0y) \\ &+ \frac{1}{4}(0x + 0y) + \frac{1}{4}(0x + w_2 y) \\ =& \frac{1}{2}(w_1 x + w_2 y) \end{aligned}$$

At test time, **multiply** by dropout probability

Dropout: Test time

```
def predict(X):
  # ensembled forward pass
  H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
  out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

At test time all neurons are active always
=> We must scale the activations so that for each neuron:
output at test time = expected output at training time

Dropout Summary

```
""" Vanilla Dropout: Not recommended implementation (see notes below) """

p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout

def train_step(X):
  """ X contains the data """

  # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
  H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
  U1 = np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p # first dropout mask
  H1 *= U1 # drop!
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
  U2 = np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p # second dropout mask
  H2 *= U2 # drop!
  out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3

  # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
  # perform parameter update... (not shown)

def predict(X):
  # ensembled forward pass
  H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2) * p # NOTE: scale the activations
  out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

drop in train time

scale at test time

More common: “Inverted dropout”

```python
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout

def train_step(X):
  # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
  H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
  U1 = (np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p) / p # first dropout mask. Notice /p!
  H1 *= U1 # drop!
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
  U2 = (np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p) / p # second dropout mask. Notice /p!
  H2 *= U2 # drop!
  out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3

  # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
  # perform parameter update... (not shown)

def predict(X):
  # ensembled forward pass
  H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) # no scaling necessary
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
  out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

test time is unchanged!

Regularization: A common pattern

Training: Add some kind of randomness

$$y = f_W(x, z)$$

actually, when you train networks with batch normalization, sometimes you don't need dropout at all.

Testing: Average out randomness (sometimes approximate)

$$y = f(x) = E_z\big[f(x, z)\big] = \int p(z) f(x, z) dz$$

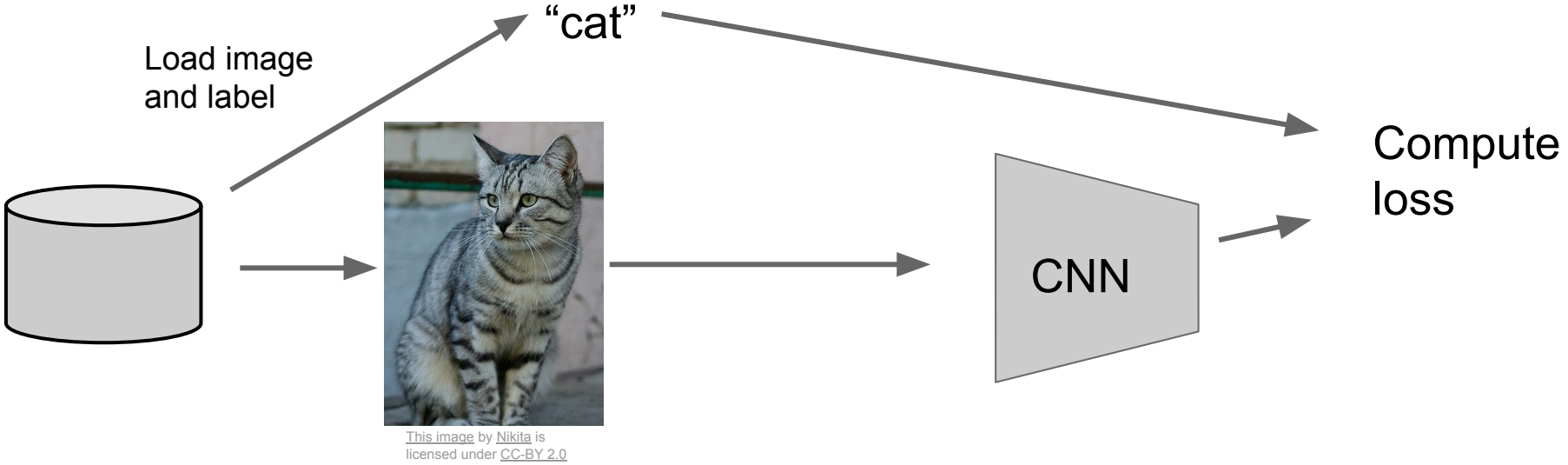
But dropout is somewhat nice because you can tune the regularization strength by varying the parameter p.

Example: Batch Normalization

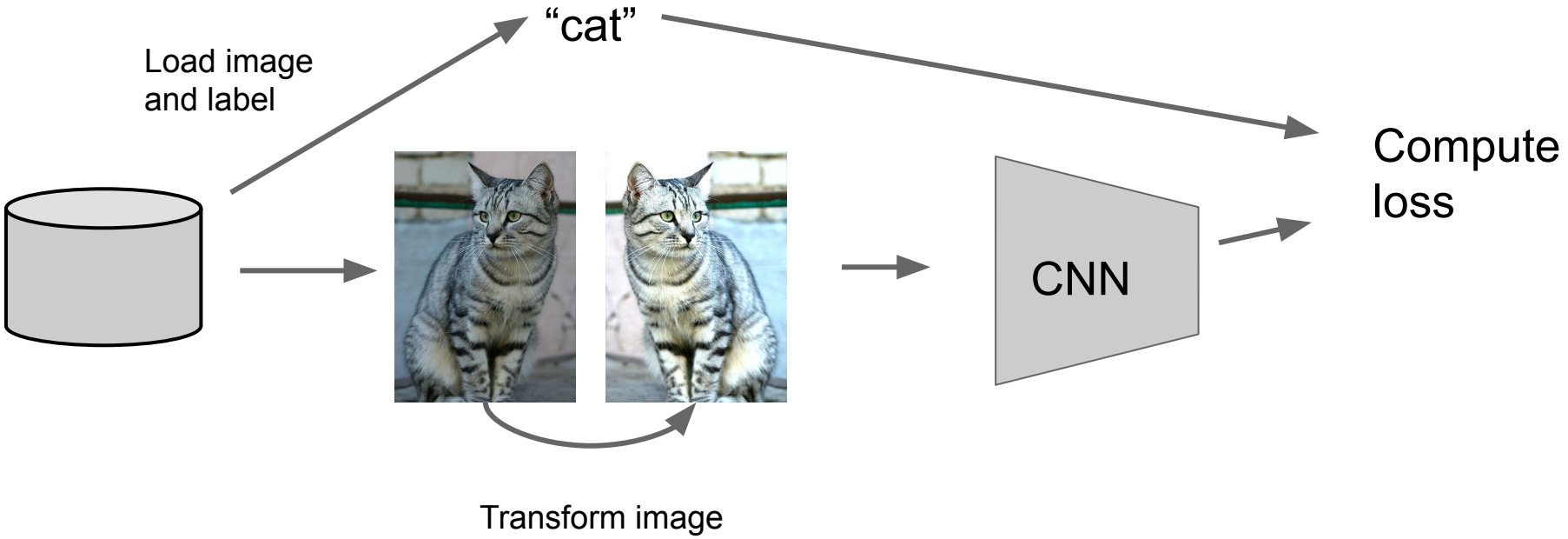
Training: Normalize using stats from random minibatches

Testing: Use fixed stats to normalize

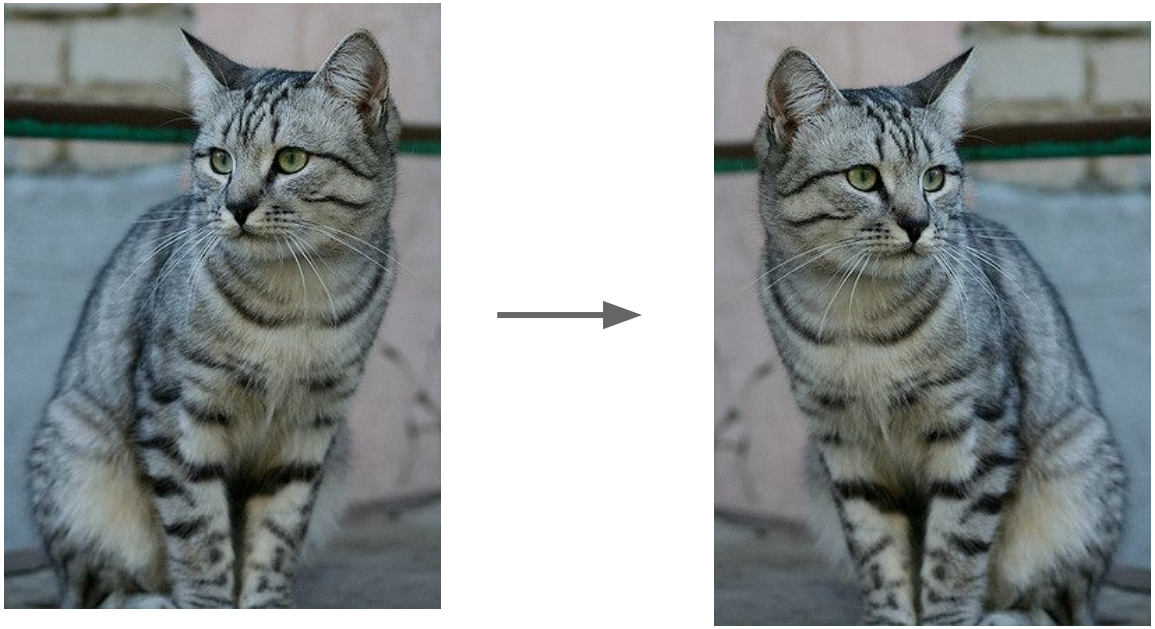
Regularization: Data Augmentation



Regularization: Data Augmentation

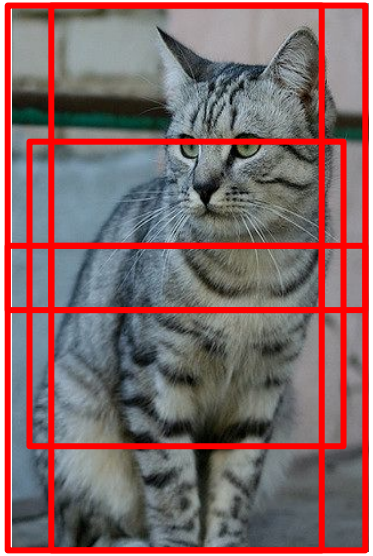


Data Augmentation
Horizontal Flips



Data Augmentation

Random crops and scales



Training: sample random crops / scales

ResNet:

1. Pick random L in range [256, 480]
2. Resize training image, short side = L
3. Sample random 224 x 224 patch

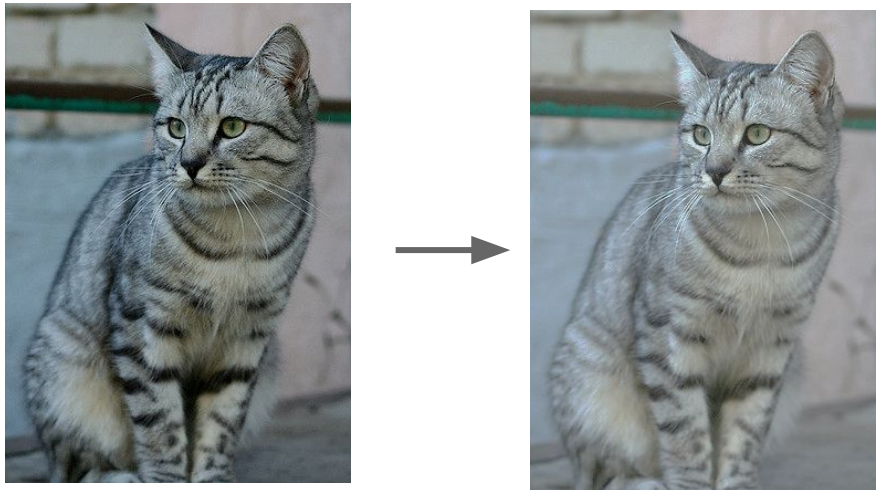
Testing: average a fixed set of crops

ResNet:

1. Resize image at 5 scales: {224, 256, 384, 480, 640}
2. For each size, use 10 224 x 224 crops: 4 corners + center, + flips

Data Augmentation
Color Jitter

Simple: Randomize contrast and brightness



More Complex:

1. Apply PCA to all [R, G, B] pixels in training set
2. Sample a “color offset” along principal component directions
3. Add offset to all pixels of a training image

(As seen in *[Krizhevsky et al. 2012],* ResNet, etc)

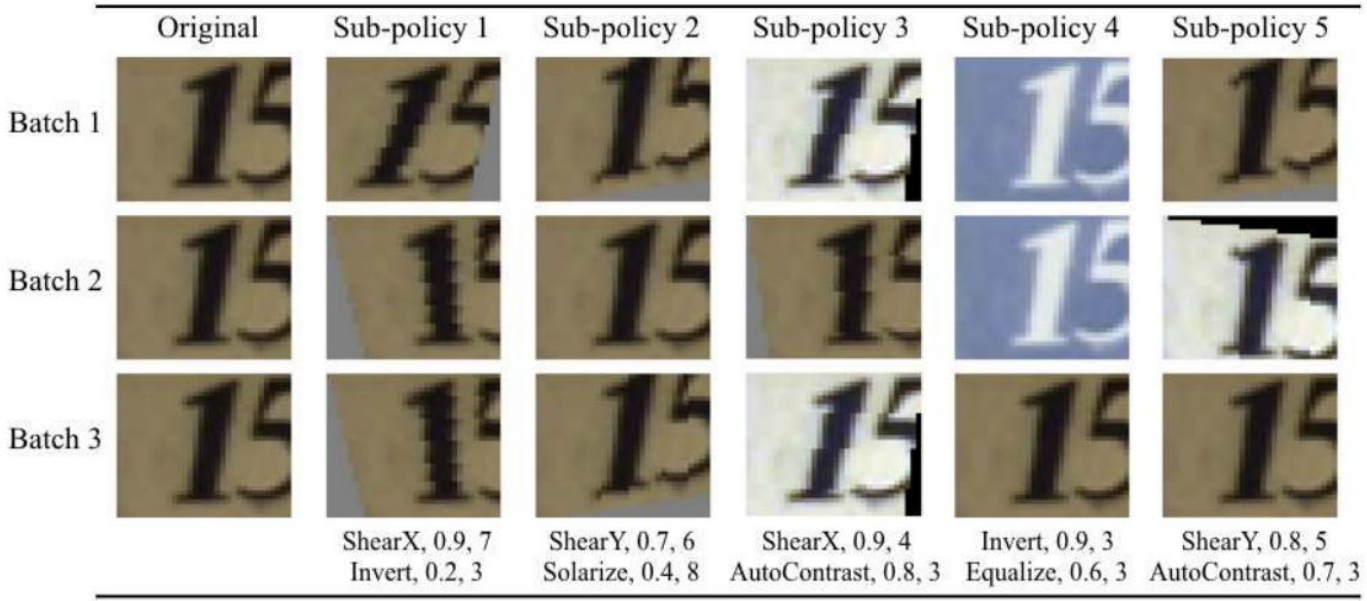
Data Augmentation

Get creative for your problem!

Random mix/combinations of :

- translation
- rotation
- stretching
- shearing,
- lens distortions, … (go crazy)

Automatic Data Augmentation



Cubuk et al., “AutoAugment: Learning Augmentation Strategies from Data”, CVPR 2019

Regularization: A common pattern

Training: Add random noise

Testing: Marginalize over the noise

Examples:

Dropout

Batch Normalization

Data Augmentation

Regularization: DropConnect

Training: Drop connections between neurons (set weights to 0)

Testing: Use all the connections

Examples:

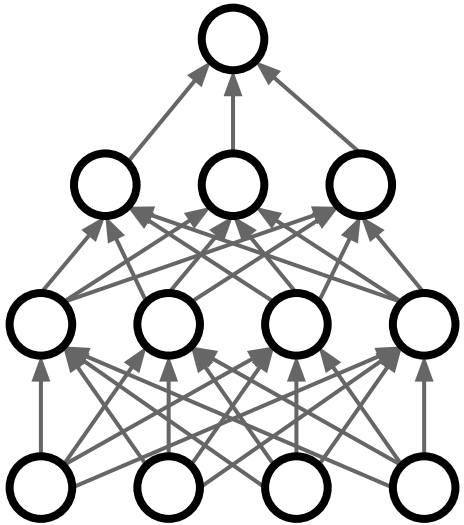
Dropout

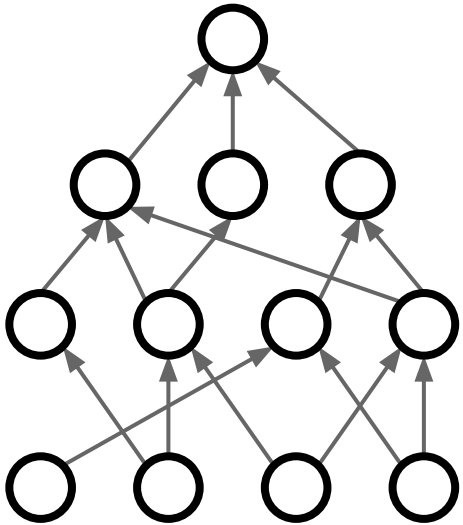
Batch Normalization

Data Augmentation

DropConnect

rather than zeroing out the activations, instead we randomly zero out some of the values of the WEIGHT matrix.





Wan et al, “Regularization of Neural Networks using DropConnect”, ICML 2013

Regularization: Fractional Pooling

Training: Use randomized pooling regions

Testing: Average predictions from several regions

Examples:

Dropout

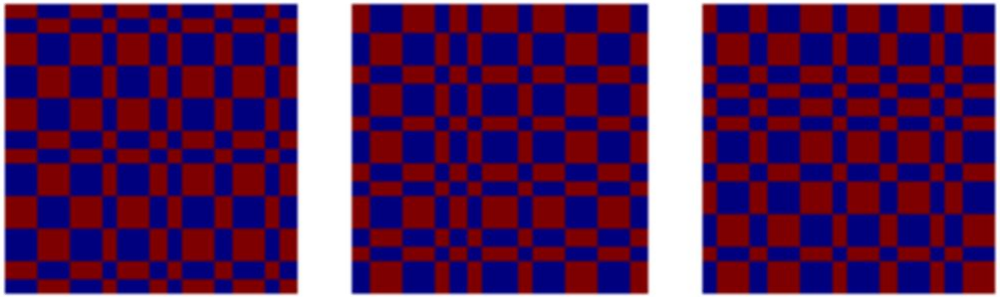
Batch Normalization

Data Augmentation

DropConnect

Fractional Max Pooling

cool idea, not so commonly used: randomize the pooling region, not fixed 2x2 region any more.



Graham, “Fractional Max Pooling”, arXiv 2014

Regularization: Stochastic Depth

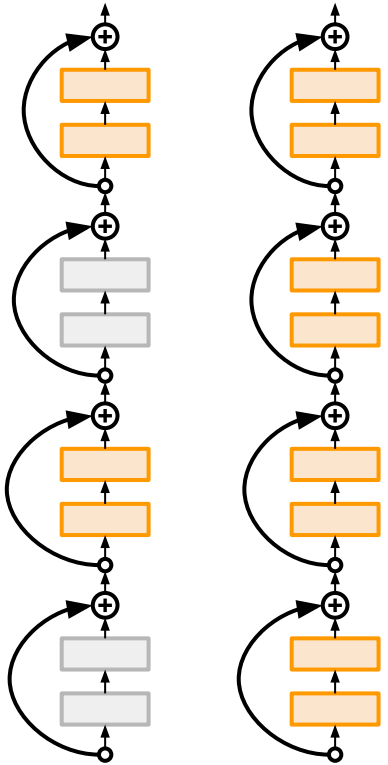
Training: Skip some layers in the network

Testing: Use all the layer

Examples:

Dropout
Batch Normalization
Data Augmentation
DropConnect
Fractional Max Pooling
Stochastic Depth

The idea is that we have a very deep network. We're going to randomly drop layers from the network. Duriing training, we're going to only use some subset layers. During test time, we'll use the whole network.



Huang et al, "Deep Networks with Stochastic Depth", ECCV 2016

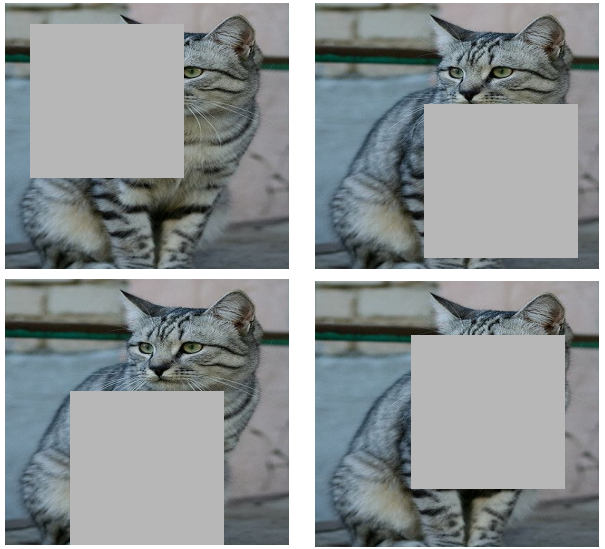
Regularization: Cutout

Training: Set random image regions to zero

Testing: Use full image

Examples:

Dropout
Batch Normalization
Data Augmentation
DropConnect
Fractional Max Pooling
Stochastic Depth
Cutout / Random Crop



Works very well for small datasets like CIFAR, less common for large datasets like ImageNet

DeVries and Taylor, “Improved Regularization of Convolutional Neural Networks with Cutout”, arXiv 2017

Regularization: Mixup

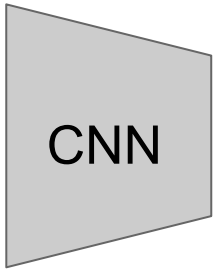
Training: Train on random blends of images

Testing: Use original images

Examples:

Dropout
Batch Normalization
Data Augmentation
DropConnect
Fractional Max Pooling
Stochastic Depth
Cutout / Random Crop
Mixup

Randomly blend the pixels of pairs of training images, e.g. 40% cat, 60% dog



Target label:
cat: 0.4
dog: 0.6

Zhang et al, "*mixup*: Beyond Empirical Risk Minimization", ICLR 2018

Regularization - In practice

Training: Add random noise

Testing: Marginalize over the noise

Examples:

Dropout

Batch Normalization

Data Augmentation

DropConnect

Fractional Max Pooling

Stochastic Depth

Cutout / Random Crop

Mixup

- Consider dropout for large fully-connected layers
- Batch normalization and data augmentation almost always a good idea
- Try cutout and mixup especially for small classification datasets

Choosing Hyperparameters

(without tons of GPUs)

Choosing Hyperparameters

Step 1: Check initial loss

Turn off weight decay, sanity check loss at initialization
e.g. log(C) for softmax with C classes

Choosing Hyperparameters

Step 1: Check initial loss
Step 2: Overfit a small sample

Try to train to 100% training accuracy on a small sample of training data (~5-10 minibatches); fiddle with architecture, learning rate, weight initialization

Loss not going down? LR too low, bad initialization
Loss explodes to Inf or NaN? LR too high, bad initialization

Choosing Hyperparameters

Step 1: Check initial loss
Step 2: Overfit a small sample
Step 3: Find LR that makes loss go down

Use the architecture from the previous step, use all training data, turn on small weight decay, find a learning rate that makes the loss drop significantly within ~100 iterations

Good learning rates to try: 1e-1, 1e-2, 1e-3, 1e-4

Choosing Hyperparameters

Step 1: Check initial loss
Step 2: Overfit a small sample
Step 3: Find LR that makes loss go down
Step 4: Coarse grid, train for ~1-5 epochs

Choose a few values of learning rate and weight decay around what worked from Step 3, train a few models for ~1-5 epochs.

Good weight decay to try: 1e-4, 1e-5, 0

Choosing Hyperparameters

Step 1: Check initial loss
Step 2: Overfit a small sample
Step 3: Find LR that makes loss go down
Step 4: Coarse grid, train for ~1-5 epochs
Step 5: Refine grid, train longer

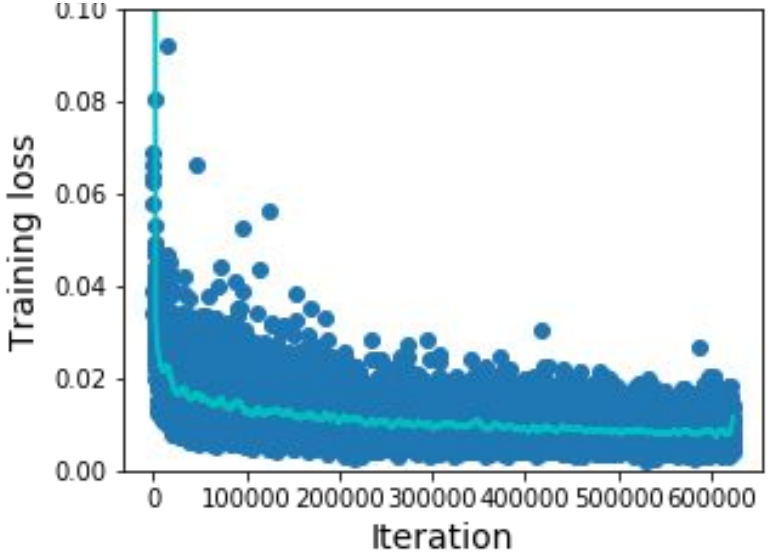
Pick best models from Step 4, train them for longer (~10-20 epochs) without learning rate decay

Choosing Hyperparameters

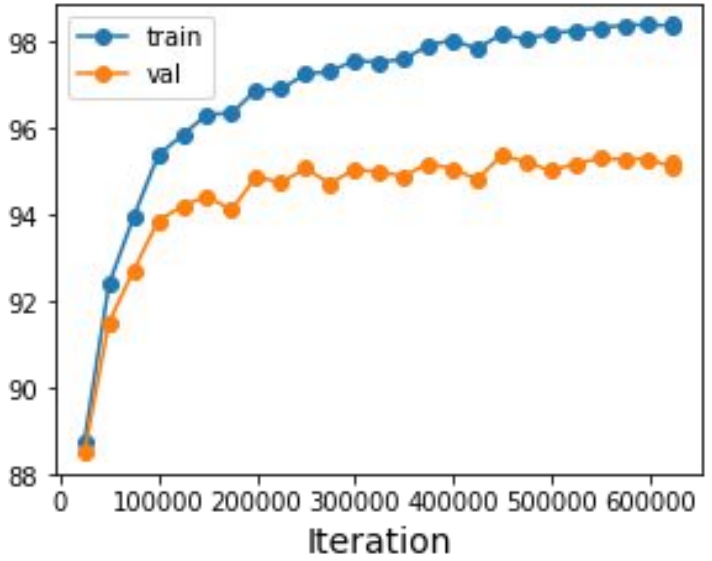
Step 1: Check initial loss
Step 2: Overfit a small sample
Step 3: Find LR that makes loss go down
Step 4: Coarse grid, train for ~1-5 epochs
Step 5: Refine grid, train longer
Step 6: Look at loss curves

Look at learning curves!

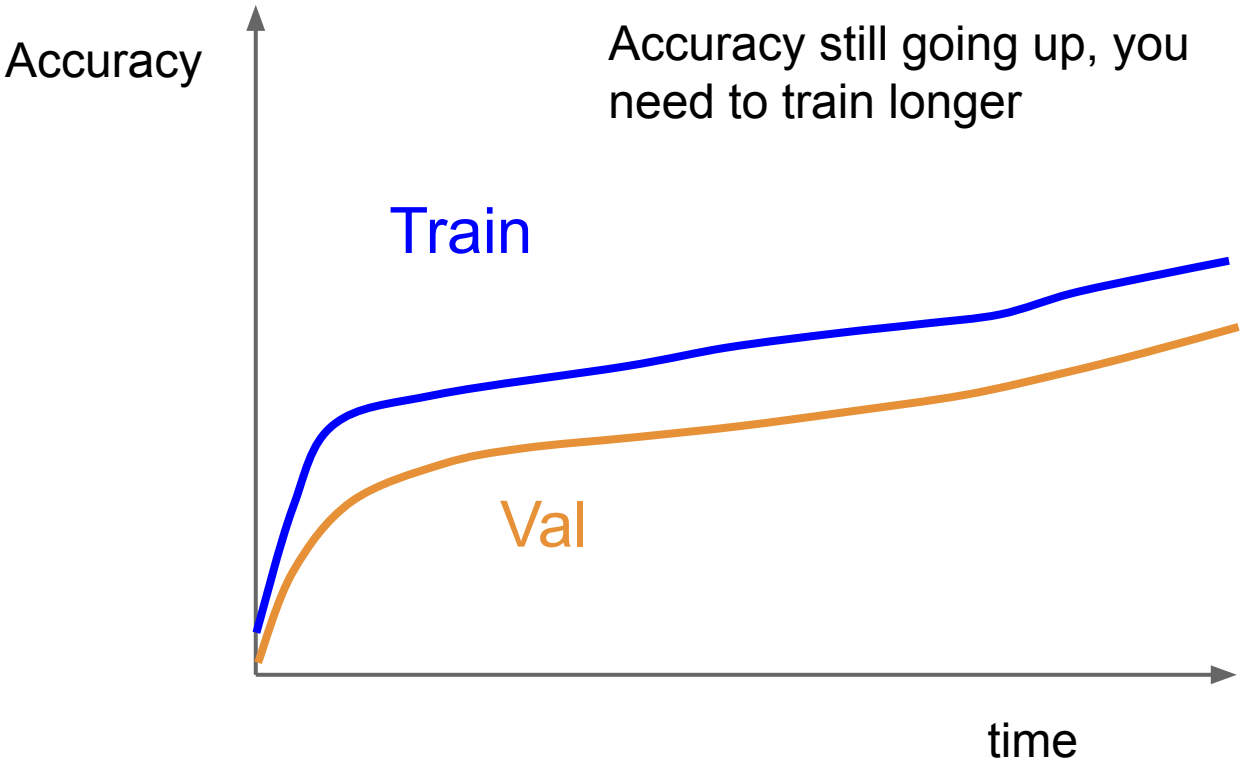
Training Loss

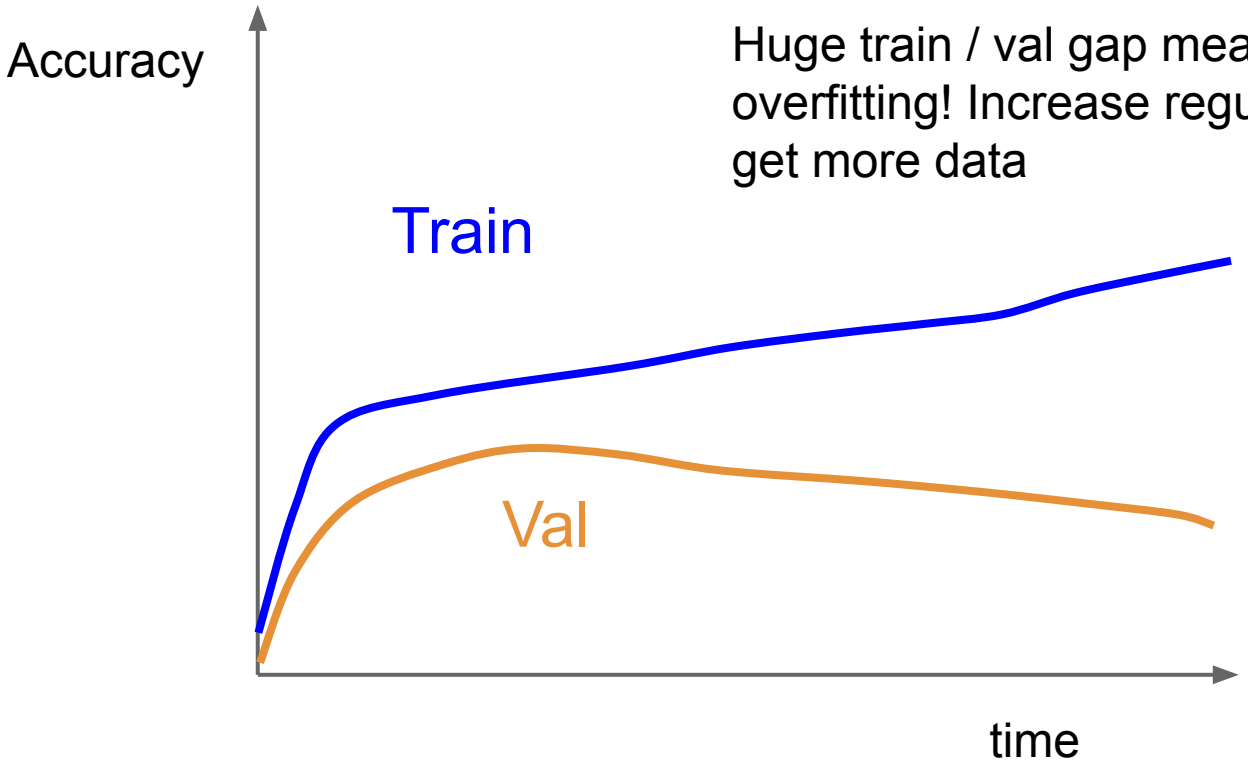


Train / Val Accuracy

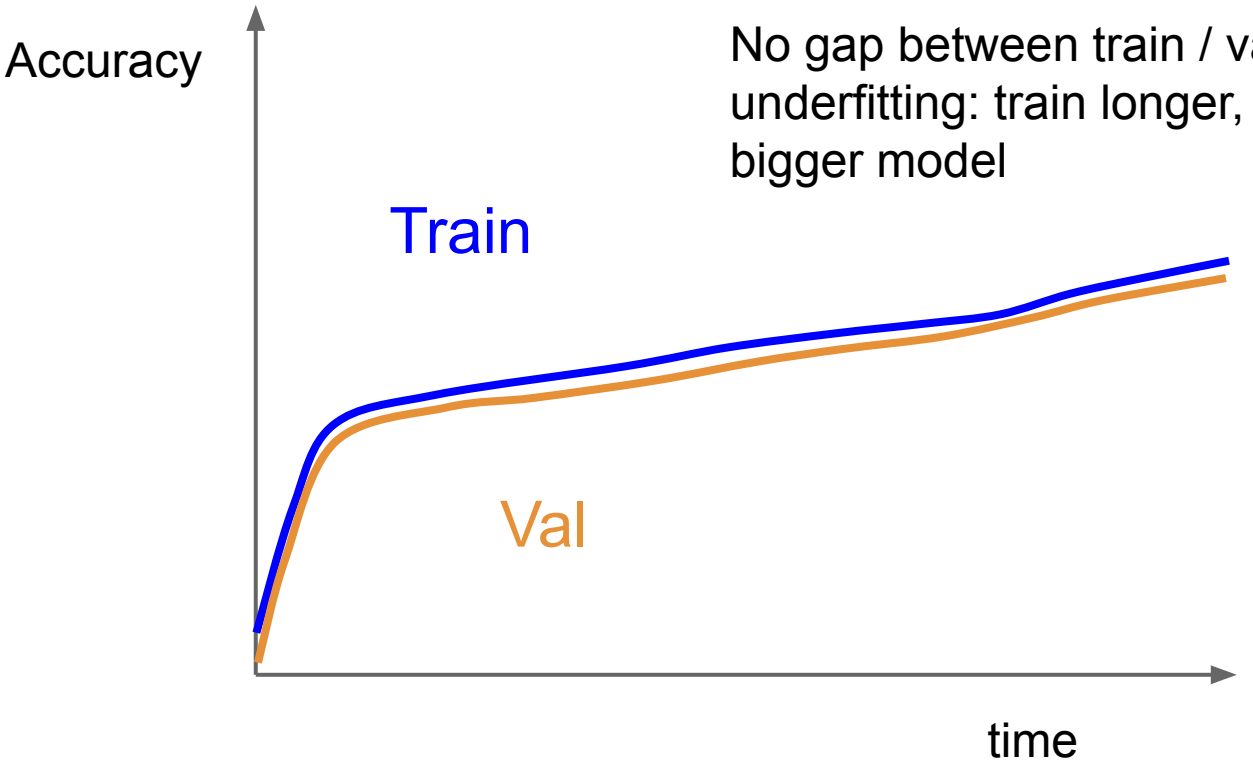


Losses may be noisy, use a scatter plot and also plot moving average to see trends better


Accuracy
Accuracy still going up, you need to train longer
Train
Val
time



Huge train / val gap means overfitting! Increase regularization, get more data



No gap between train / val means underfitting: train longer, use a bigger model

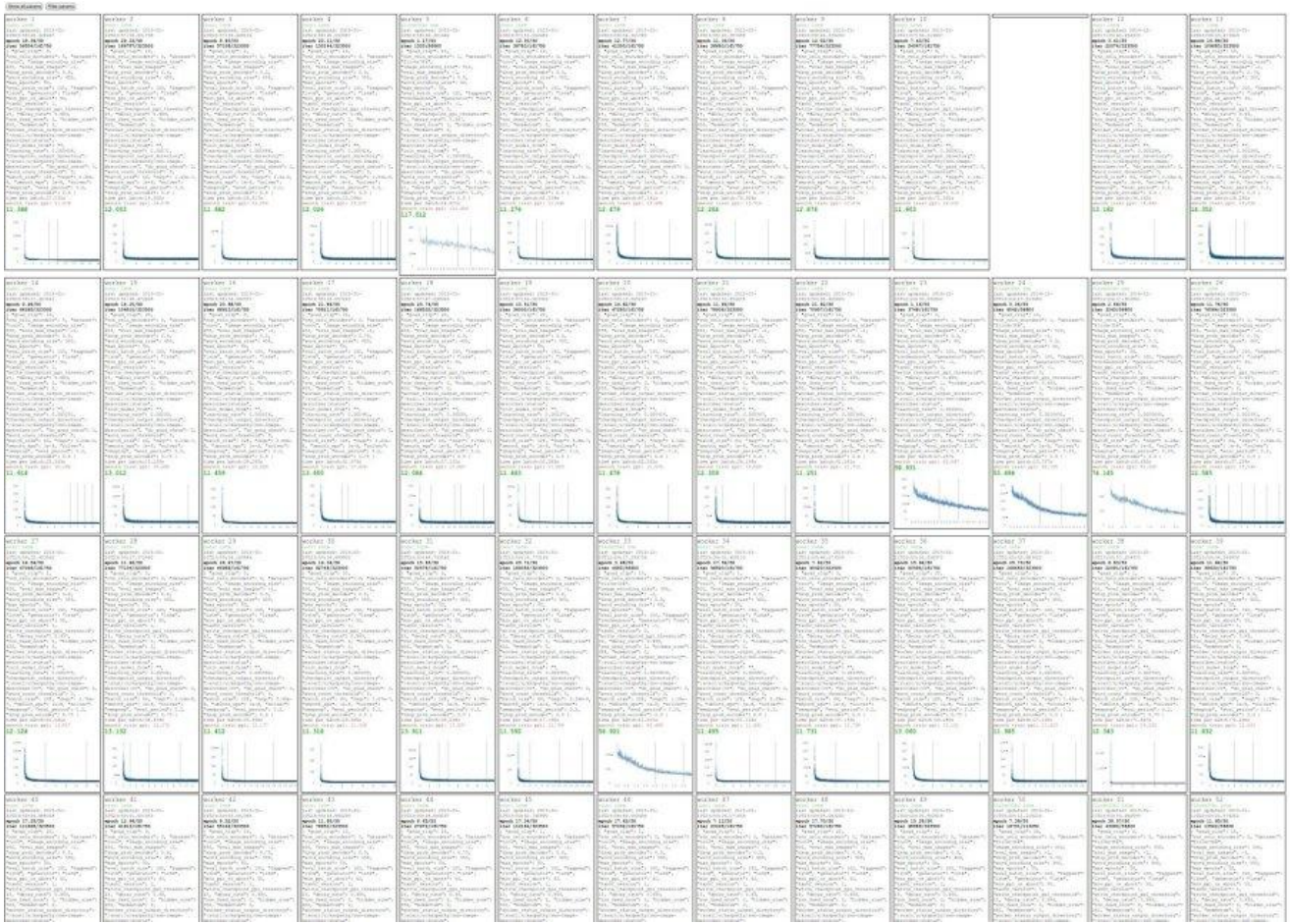
Choosing Hyperparameters

Step 1: Check initial loss
Step 2: Overfit a small sample
Step 3: Find LR that makes loss go down
Step 4: Coarse grid, train for ~1-5 epochs
Step 5: Refine grid, train longer
Step 6: Look at loss curves
Step 7: GOTO step 5

Hyperparameters to play with:

- network architecture
- learning rate, its decay schedule, update type
- regularization (L2/Dropout strength)

Cross-validation
“command center”



Random Search vs. Grid Search

Random Search for Hyper-Parameter Optimization
Bergstra and Bengio, 2012

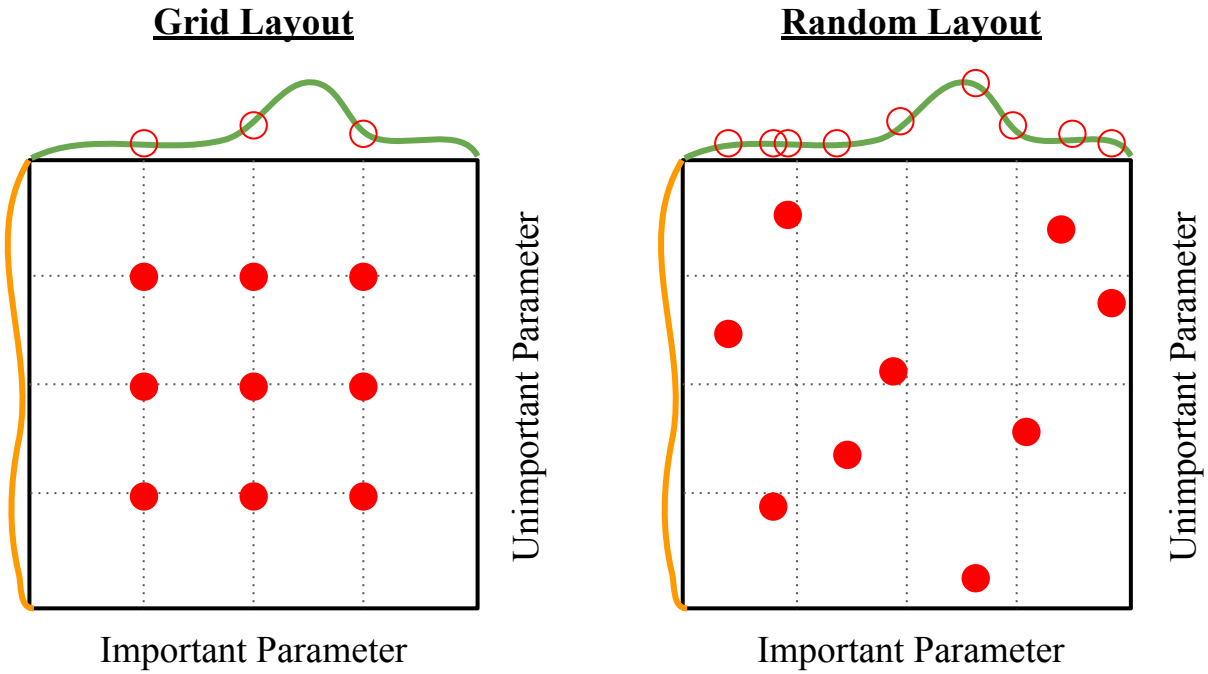


Illustration of Bergstra et al., 2012 by Shayne Longpre, copyright CS231n 2017

Summary

- Improve your training error:
  - Optimizers
  - Learning rate schedules
- Improve your test error:
  - Regularization
  - Choosing Hyperparameters

Next time: CNN Architecture Design