

Optimization for Deep Models

Initialization, Activation, and Normalization

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0. Challenges





Optimization: finding the parameters Θ of a model that significantly reduce a cost function $J(\Theta)$, which typically includes a performance measure evaluated on the entire training set as well as additional regularization terms.

The simplest way to convert a ML problem back into an optimization problem is to minimize the expected lost on the training set \rightarrow empirical risk minimization

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x},y}[L(f(\mathbf{x}; heta),\mathbf{y})] = rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^m L(f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; heta),y^{(i)})$$

Rather than optimizing the **risk directly**, we optimize the empirical risk and hope that the risk decreases significantly as well.





Unfortunately, the empirical risk minimization is prone to **overfitting** as model with **high capacity** such as a neural net can simply memorize the training set.

In deep learning, we use a slightly different approach here → mini-batch stochastic methods

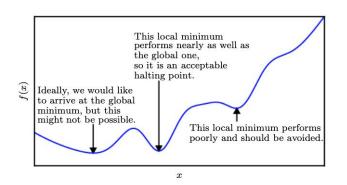
- Mini-batch sizes are driven by hardware, parallel, memory. It is common for power of 2 as batch sizes (32--256)
- It is crucial that the mini-batch is selected randomly → stochastic

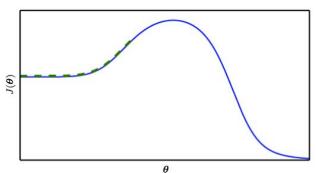
Compute the gradient of the loss w.r.t. the parameters for that minibatch, then updating the parameters in the direction of the gradient:

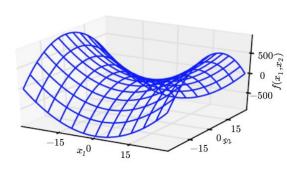
$$\mathbf{g} \leftarrow rac{1}{m}
abla_{ heta} \sum_{i} L(f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; heta), y^{(i)}) \ heta \leftarrow heta - \epsilon \mathbf{g}$$



Local Minima, Plateaus, and Saddle Points







- With non-convex functions, such as neural nets, it's possible to have many local minima
- Local minima with high cost could pose a serious problem for gradient-based algo
- High-D non-convex functions, another point with zero gradient: a saddle point
- Some points around a saddle point have greater cost while others have lower cost





To tackle complex problems such as a visual perception task, we usually need to train a much **deeper network** with hundreds of layers and thousands of neurons.

A few issue with deep models includes:

- Training will be extremely slow
- Millions of parameters risking overfitting
- Facing the tricky "vanishing gradients" problem?





- Backpropagation works by passing the error gradient back and forth among input, output, and hidden layers. It uses gradient to update the parameters
- For deep computational graph, repeated applying the same operation at each time step makes the gradients get smaller and smaller to which point they leave the weights virtually unchanged → vanishing gradient problem







- The opposite of vanishing gradient can also happen
- Repeated matrix multiplication at each time step of a computational graph
- Gradients grow bigger and bigger → many layers got insanely large weight updates, and the network becomes unstable and diverged



Optimization of Deep Neural Nets



- 1. **Initialization:** how to initialize the weights so that they do not saturate?
- 2. **Activation:** how to solve the vanishing gradient problem?
- 3. **Normalization:** how to get the model to learn the optimal scale?
- 4. **Optimizers:** when gradient descent was too slow or not good enough?
- 5. Adaptive Learning Rate: what if convergence is too slow or sub-optimal?
- 6. **Second-Order Training Methods**: can we make use of second derivatives?





1. Initialization



Xavier Initialization



- Iterative algorithms require the user to specify some initial point from which to begin the iterations → deep learning are strongly affected by initialization
- We don't want the signal to vanish, explode, nor saturate → break symmetry between different units.
- To keep it flow symmetrically, Xavier Glorot and Yoshua Bengio argue that "we need the variance of the outputs of each layer to be equal to the variance of its inputs" → Xavier Initialization for Logistic Activation (2010)
- This heuristic strategy led to the current success of Deep Learning.

$$egin{align*} \mathbf{W}_{i,j} \sim ext{Uniform}igg(-\sqrt{rac{6}{n_{ ext{inputs}}+n_{ ext{outputs}}}},\sqrt{rac{6}{n_{ ext{inputs}}+n_{ ext{outputs}}}}igg) \ \mathbf{W}_{i,j} \sim \mathcal{N}igg(0,\sqrt{rac{2}{n_{ ext{inputs}}+n_{ ext{outputs}}}}igg) \end{aligned}$$





Similar to Xavier Initialization, but for different activation functions

Activation function	Uniform distribution [-r, r]	Normal distribution
Logistic	$r = \sqrt{\frac{6}{n_{\rm inputs} + n_{\rm outputs}}}$	$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{2}{n_{\rm inputs} + n_{\rm outputs}}}$
Hyperbolic tangent	$r = 4\sqrt{\frac{6}{n_{\rm inputs} + n_{\rm outputs}}}$	$\sigma = 4\sqrt{\frac{2}{n_{\rm inputs} + n_{\rm outputs}}}$
ReLU (and its variants)	$r = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{6}{n_{\rm inputs} + n_{\rm outputs}}}$	$\sigma = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{2}{n_{\rm inputs} + n_{\rm outputs}}}$



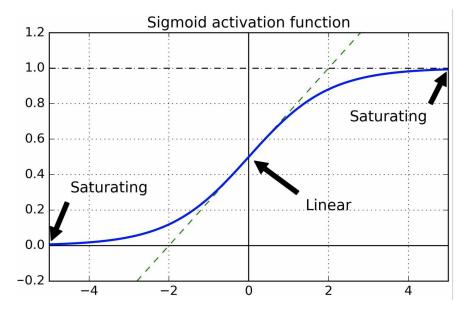
2. Activation





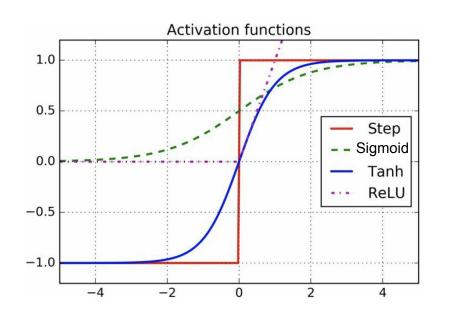


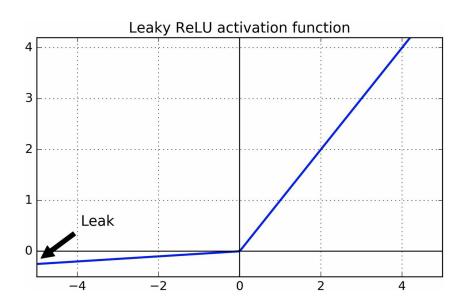
- Poor choice of activation function can lead to vanishing/exploding gradient
- Nature chooses to use roughly sigmoid activation function in biological neurons, but it turns out that other functions (eg. ReLU) behave much faster and better.



ReLU Activation







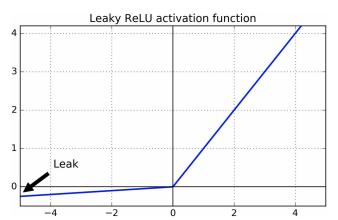
- Fast to compute, but suffer from **dying**: meaning not outputting anything but 0
- To solve this, you can use a variant of ReLU called leaky ReLU

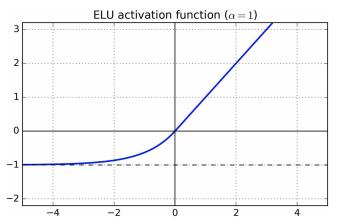




Outperform ReLU on faster convergence and accuracy (Clevert et al 2015)

$$ELU_{\alpha}(z) = \begin{cases} \alpha(\exp(z) - 1) & \text{if } z < 0\\ z & \text{if } z \ge 0 \end{cases}$$





Why ELU is better than ReLU?

Dying neuron? non-zero gradient? smoothness?



3. Normalization



Batch Normalization



- He Initialization reduces vanishing/exploding gradient problems at the beginning of training, but does not guarantee they won't come back during training
- Sergey Ioffe and Christian Szegedy (2015) address this by a technique called Batch Normalization (BN)
- This adds an operation before activation function: simply zero-centering and normalizing the inputs, then scaling and shifting the results → optimal scale.





Learn 4 parameters: scale, offset, mean, and standard deviation

$$\mathbf{\mu}_B = \frac{1}{m_B} \sum_{i=1}^{m_B} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

$$\sigma_B^2 = \frac{1}{m_B} \sum_{i=1}^{m_B} \left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{\mu}_B \right)^2$$

$$\widehat{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} = \frac{\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{\mu}_B}{\sqrt{\mathbf{\sigma}_B^2 + \epsilon}}$$

$$\mathbf{z}^{(i)} = \mathbf{\gamma} \otimes \mathbf{\hat{x}}^{(i)} + \mathbf{\beta}$$

- μ_B is the empirical mean, evaluated over the whole mini-batch B.
- \bullet σ_B is the empirical standard deviation, also evaluated over the whole mini-batch.
- \blacksquare m_R is the number of instances in the mini-batch.
- $\mathbf{X}^{(i)}$ is the zero-centered and normalized input.
- γ is the scaling parameter for the layer.
- β is the shifting parameter (offset) for the layer.
- ϵ is a tiny number to avoid division by zero (typically 10^{-3}). This is called a *smoothing term*.
- $\mathbf{z}^{(i)}$ is the output of the BN operation: it is a scaled and shifted version of the inputs.





```
model = keras.models.Sequential([
    keras.layers.Flatten(input_shape=[28,
    keras.layers.BatchNormalization(),
    keras.layers.Dense(300, activation="el
    keras.layers.BatchNormalization(),
    keras.layers.Dense(100, activation="el
    keras.layers.BatchNormalization(),
    keras.layers.Dense(10, activation="sof")
```

Layer (type) 	Output	Shape	Param #
flatten_3 (Flatten)	(None,	784)	0
batch_normalization_v2 (Batc	(None,	784)	3136
dense_50 (Dense)	(None,	300)	235500
batch_normalization_v2_1 (Ba	(None,	300)	1200
dense_51 (Dense)	(None,	100)	30100
batch_normalization_v2_2 (Ba	(None,	100)	400
dense_52 (Dense)	(None,	10)	1010

>>> model.summary()

Model: "sequential 3"

Gradient Clipping



- Use as an alternative to Batch Normalization
- Quick and dirty: simply clip the gradients during backpropagation so that they can never exceed some threshold.
- Often use in Recurrent Neural Nets (RNNs)

```
optimizer = keras.optimizers.SGD(clipvalue=1.0)
model.compile(loss="mse", optimizer=optimizer)
```





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