Topic 2: Efficient Learning

Inefficiencies in Learning

- Sampling Error and Overfitting
 - What if, the training data is sampled to have a certain pattern that is not present in the original input-output relationship?
- Variance in Stochastic Gradient Descent
 - Randomness in Gradient estimates can introduce a bias that is directly proportional to the variance in the gradient estimate.
- ► Complexity of Gradient Computation
 - Gradients for each complex model is very tedious to compute.

Can We Mitigate Overfitting?

- ▶ Best Approach: Get more data!
 - ► Train on different bags of data
- Use the right model...
 - Hard to accomplish... similar to model-based learning.
- ► Consider model ensembles...
 - Use different function classes (models of different forms)
 - Identify multiple weight parameters for different initializations and take their average
- ► How about **regularization** to limit the capacity of neural networks?
 - Limit the number of hidden layers and/or units per layer.
 - ► Early stopping criteria in optim algorithms, before overfitting begins
 - Penalize the objective for large weights using ℓ_1 penalty, or ℓ_2 penalty
 - Introduce hard constraint on weight capacity (a.k.a. max-norm, i.e. $||\mathbb{W}||_p \leq c$.).

Bootstrap Aggregation (in short, Bagging)¹

- ► Reduce generalized error by aggregating the outcomes of several models.
- ▶ Generate a bootstrap sample, say \mathcal{D}_k , which follows the same distribution as the training set \mathcal{D} , for $k = 1, \cdots, K$.
- ▶ Train a new classifier, say $\hat{y}_k = \hat{f}_k(x)$, on each bootstrap sample \mathcal{D}_k .
- ▶ Aggregation rule: Count the number of times a class label appears amongst the *K* classifiers. The label with highest count is returned as output. Ties are broken by choosing the labels with lowest class label.
- ► Can also aggregate via averaging the outcomes.
- Let ϵ_k denote the error in the k^{th} classifier, with variance $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_k^2)=v$, and covariance $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_k\epsilon_j)=c$.

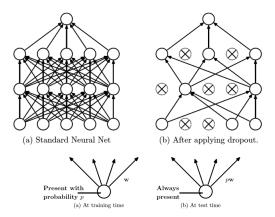
$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{K}\sum_{k=1}^{K}\epsilon_{k}\right)^{2}\right] &= \frac{1}{K^{2}}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=1}^{K}\left(\epsilon_{k}^{2}+\sum_{j\neq k}\epsilon_{k}\epsilon_{j}\right)\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{K}v+\frac{K-1}{K}c \end{split}$$

• If c = 0, squared error reduces by a factor of K.

¹Leo Breiman, "Bagging Predictors," *Machine learning*, vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 123-140, 1996. CS 6406: Machine Learning for Computer Vision (Sid Nadendla)

Dropout²

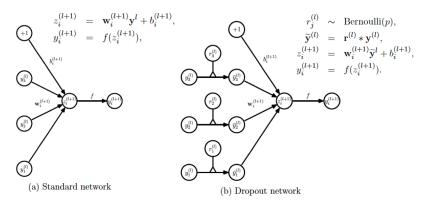
- Bagging and other ensemble methods is hard, especially with large neural network models.
- ▶ **Simple Approach:** Drop neurons with a fixed probability *p*, during training.
- Aggregate by averaging the weight parameters across different models



²N. Srivastava, G. Hinton, A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and R. Salakhutdinov, "Dropout: a simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting," *The Journal of Machine Learning Research*, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 1929-1958, 2014. CS 6406: Machine Learning for Computer Vision (Sid Nadendla)

Dropout (cont...)

Formally, dropout is modeled as follows...



- ▶ Note: Backpropagation on thinned networks over several mini-batches of data
- ▶ Dropout + Norm-Regularization + AdaM (with large learning rates and high momentum) ⇒ Huge boost in performance!

Regularization in Neural Networks

$$\hat{f}_N = \underset{\mathbb{W}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \ L_N(\mathbb{W}) + \lambda \Phi(\mathbb{W}),$$

where $\Phi(\mathbb{W})$ is the term that penalizes undesirable weights.

- ▶ Weight Decay (ℓ_2 -Penalty): $\Phi(\mathbb{W}) = \frac{1}{2}||\mathbb{W}||_2^2$
 - ► Also called ridge regression, or Tikhonov regularization
 - Drives weights closer to zero.
 - ▶ Let $\Psi_2(\mathbb{W}) = L_N(\mathbb{W}) + \lambda ||\mathbb{W}||_2^2 \Rightarrow \nabla \Psi_2(\mathbb{W}) = \nabla L_N(\mathbb{W}) + 2\lambda \mathbb{W}$
 - ► GD: $\mathbb{W}^{r+1} = (1 2\delta\lambda)\mathbb{W}^r \delta\nabla L_N(\mathbb{W}) \Rightarrow \mathbb{W} \to -\frac{1}{2\lambda}\nabla L_N(\mathbb{W})$
- \blacktriangleright ℓ_1 -Penalty: $\Phi_1(\mathbb{W}) = ||\mathbb{W}||_1$
 - ► Results in sparse W.
 - $\blacktriangleright \ \ \mathsf{Let} \ \Psi_1(\mathbb{W}) = L_N(\mathbb{W}) + \lambda ||\mathbb{W}||_1 \ \Rightarrow \nabla \Psi_1(\mathbb{W}) = \nabla L_N(\mathbb{W}) + 2\lambda \cdot \mathsf{sign}(\mathbb{W})$
 - $lackbox{ Weight update: } \mathbb{W}^{r+1} = \mathbb{W}^r \delta \nabla L_N(\mathbb{W}) 2\lambda \delta \cdot \mathrm{sign}(\mathbb{W}) \text{ (for each entry in } \mathbb{W})$
 - $\blacktriangleright \mathbb{W}^{r+0.5} = \mathbb{W}^r \delta \nabla L_N(\mathbb{W})$

 - $\blacktriangleright \ \ \text{If} \ \mathbb{W}^{r+0.5} < 0, \text{then} \ \mathbb{W}^{r+1} = \min\{0, \mathbb{W}^{r+0.5} + 2\lambda\delta\}$

Batch Normalization^{3,4}

- Internal Covariance Shift: Change in distribution of activations due to change in model parameters – slows training
- ► Solution: Whitening activation functions
 - Linearly transform features to have zero mean and unit variances, i.e. decorrelated.

Input: Values of
$$x$$
 over a mini-batch: $\mathcal{B} = \{x_{1...m}\}$; Parameters to be learned: γ , β

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

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

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

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

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

³S. loffe, and C. Szegedy, "Batch Normalization: Accelerating Deep Network Training by Reducing Internal Covariate Shift," in *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 448-456, 2015.

⁴Ping Luo, Xinjiang Wang, Wenqi Shao, Zhanglin Peng, "Towards Understanding Regularization in Batch Normalization." *ICLR*, 2019.

Batch Normalization (cont...)

Backpropagation for BatchNorm:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \widehat{x}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_{i}} \cdot \gamma$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \widehat{x}_{i}} \cdot (x_{i} - \mu_{\mathcal{B}}) \cdot \frac{-1}{2} (\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^{2} + \epsilon)^{-3/2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu_{\mathcal{B}}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \widehat{x}_{i}} \cdot \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^{2} + \epsilon}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial x_{i}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \widehat{x}_{i}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^{2} + \epsilon}} + \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^{2}} \cdot \frac{2(x_{i} - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})}{m} + \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu_{\mathcal{B}}} \cdot \frac{1}{m}$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_{i}} \cdot \widehat{x}_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_{i}}$$

Mini-Batch Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Random coordinate descent⁵ (RCD) provides same convergence rate as that of full gradient descent
- RCD takes a fraction of effort by evaluating gradients only for one (or a small subset of) random coodinate(s).
- But, computer vision problems require a lot of images for training RCD is not sufficient!
- ► Solution: Mini-batch SGD⁶

$$\left[\nabla L_N(\mathbb{W}^{r-1})\right]_{\mathcal{B}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}} \ell(y_i, \hat{y}_i | \mathbb{W}^{r-1})$$

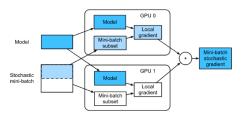
- Estimate the gradient using a small sample (mini-batch) of training data.
- Introduces bias which is a function of variance in the gradient estimate.
 - Variance in gradient estimate reduces as the size of mini-batch increases.
 - Alternatively, change the learning rate to $\delta_t = \delta \cdot \gamma^t$, where γ is a discounting factor that forces mini-batch SGD to converge.

⁵Y. Nesterov, "Efficiency of Coordinate Descent Methods on Huge-Scale Optimization Problems," *SIAM Journal on Optimization*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 341-362, 2012.

⁶M. Li, T. Zhang, Y. Chen, and A. J. Smola, "Efficient Mini-Batch Training for Stochastic Optimization," in *Proceedings of the 20th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pp. 661-670. 2014.

Data Parallelism: Accelerating Computation using Hardware

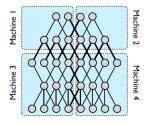
Parallelizing Mini-Batch SGD: Compute each mini-batch on a different GPU.



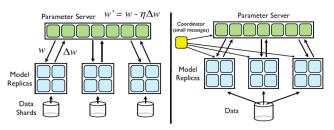
- ► Minibatch SGD is robust to asynchronous gradient computation
- However, some GPUs (workers) may compute gradient for older models due to asynchrony
- ► Solution: Synchronous SGD (Sync-SGD)
 - ► Wait until all gradients are available
 - ► Update time dictated by slowest worker.

Model Parallelism - for Large (Wide/Deep) Neural Networks

DistBelief: Each model partition on a different CPU.



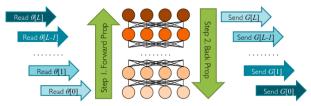
Model Aggregation: Models are trained on each mini-batch on a different GPU.



Source: J. Dean, G. Corrado, R. Monga, K. Chen, M. Devin, M. Mao, M. Ranzato et al. "Large Scale Distributed Deep Networks," Advances in neural information processing systems, vol. 25, 2012.

Synchronous vs. Asynchronous Computation

- ▶ Optimization algorithms are robust to asynchronous gradient computation
- ► However, model parallelism is sensitive to asynchrony
- ► Synchronous Computation
 - Accurate outcomes
 - ► Slow due to some *stragglers* in the tail end of queue (gradients for lower layers).

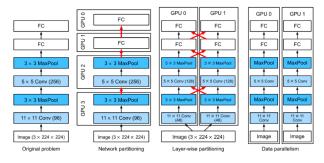


- Fix: Can be accelerated using backup GPUs and discarding straggler computations.
- Mixed Computation
 - Group certain number of workers together, synchronize intra group and perform asynchronous updates across groups⁷
 - ► Slower than Sync-SGD!

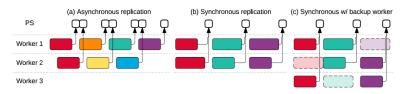
⁷ J. Chen, R. Monga, S. Bengio, and R. Jozefowicz, "Revisiting Distributed Synchronous SGD," in *Proceedings of ICLR Workshop Track*, 2016. Available: https://arxiv.org/abs/1604.00981.

Combining Model/Data Parallelisms...

In summary, there are several parallel architectures:



Accordingly, modern deep learning libraries use one of the communication strategies:

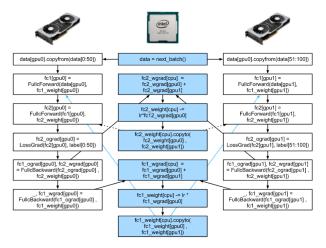


Source: M. Abadi et al., "TensorFlow: A System for Large-Scale Machine Learning," in 12th USENIX Symposium on Operating Systems

Design and Implementation (OSDI 16), pp. 265-283. 2016.

Illustrative Example: Data Workflow

Consider a simple two-layer neural network model trained on one CPU and two GPUs:



The only difficult aspect is to compute gradients using backprop!

Computational Graphs and Automatic Differentiation⁸

- ► Automatic differentiation is **not** symbolic computation!
 - ► The goal is not to evaluate a formula instead compute the gradients efficiently.
 - Identify a sequence of primitive computations, which have specific routines for computing derivatives
 - Perform backprop in a mechanical way.
- Types of Automatic differentiation
 - ► Forward Mode (slower method)
 - ▶ Reverse Mode Backprop!
- ► Consider the following simple example of an NN-1 model for scalar input:

Computation Sequence:

Original Loss Function:

$$\ell = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-wx - b\right)} - y \right]^2 \qquad \qquad \hat{y} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-z\right)}$$

$$z = wx + b$$

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-z\right)}$$

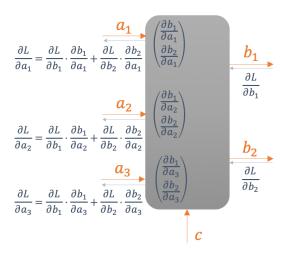
$$\ell = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{y} - y)^2$$

► Automatic Differentiation ⇒ Construct a computational graph and evaluate backprop using primitives' gradients

⁸ Source: A. G. Baydin, B. A. Pearlmutter, A. A. Radul, and J. M. Siskind. "Automatic Differentiation in Machine Learning: A Survey." Journal of Marchine Learning Research, vol. 18, pp. 1-43, 2018. CS 6406: Machine Learning for Computer Vision (Sid Nadendla)

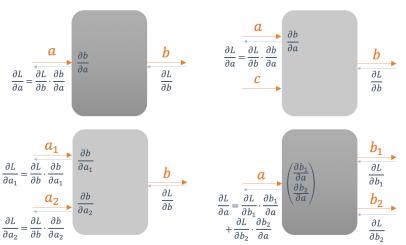
Message Passing in Computational Graphs

- ▶ During the backward pass, each node in the graph receives upstream gradients
- ► Compute downstream gradients by multiplying them by local gradients



Message Passing on Primitives

- ► Identify basic primitives that constitutes a given function
- ► Construct a computational graph automatically
- ► Perform message passing on gradients in reverse mode.



How to Construct a Computational Graph?

Approach:

- ► Define a node class
- ► Construct a primitive
- Define primitive on basic numpy functions

```
add new = primitive(np.add)
mul_new = primitive(np.multiply)
div_new = primitive(np.divide)
sub_new = primitive(np.subtract)
neg_new = primitive(np.negative)
exp_new = primitive(np.exp)
```

Ref. https://tomroth.com.au/compgraph2/

```
class Node:
   """A node in a computation graph."""
   def init (self, value, fun, parents):
        self.parents = parents
        self.value = value
        self.fun = fun
   def repr (self):
        """A (very) basic string representation"""
        if self.value is None: str val = 'None'
                               str val = str(round(self.value,3))
        else:
        return "\n" + "Fun: " + str(self.fun) +\
                " Value: "+ str val + \
                " Parents: " + str(self.parents)
from functools import wraps
def primitive(f):
    @wraps(f)
    def inner(*args, **kwargs):
        ## Code to add operation/primitive to computation graph
        # We need to separate out the integer/non node case.
Sometimes you are adding
        # constants to nodes.
        def getval(o):
                            return o.value if type(o) == Node else
        if len(args):
                            argvals = [getval(o) for o in args]
        e1se ·
                            argvals = args
        if len(kwargs):
                            kwargvals = dict([(k,getval(o)) for
k,o in kwargs.items()])
        else:
                            kwargvals = kwargs
        # get parents
        1 = list(args) + list(kwargs.values())
        parents = [o for o in 1 if type(o) == Node ]
        value = f(*argvals, **kwargvals)
        print("add", "'" + f. name + "'", "to graph with
value", value)
        return Node(value, f, parents)
    return inner
```

Using these primitives...

```
def start_node(value = None):
    """A function to create an empty node to start off the
graph"""
    fun,parents = lambda x: x, []
    return Node(value, fun, parents)

z = start_node(1.5)
t1 = mul_new(z, -1)
t2 = exp_new(t1)
t3 = add_new(t2, 1)
y = div_new(1,t3)
print("Final answer:", round(y.value,3)) # correct final output
print(y)
```

```
add 'multiply' to graph with value -1.5
add 'exp' to graph with value 0.22313016014842982
add 'add' to graph with value 1.22313016014843
add 'true_divide' to graph with value 0.8175744761936437
Final answer: 0.818

Fun: <ufunc 'true_divide'> Value: 0.818 Parents: [
Fun: <ufunc 'add'> Value: 1.223 Parents: [
Fun: <ufunc 'exp'> Value: 0.223 Parents: [
Fun: <ufunc 'multiply'> Value: -1.5 Parents: [
Fun: <function start_node.<locals>.<lambda> at 0x10fea27b8> Value: 1.5 Parents: []
Fun: <function start_node.</li>
```

Computational Graphs in PyTorch: A Simple Example⁹

Consider a simple function: $z = \log(x_1x_2) * \sin(x_2)$

Primitives:

$$ightharpoonup a = x_1 x_2$$

$$ightharpoonup y_1 = \log(a)$$

$$> y_2 = \sin(x_2)$$

$$v = y_1 y_2$$

z = w

Derivatives:

$$\blacktriangleright \ \frac{\partial z}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_1} \cdot \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial a} = y_2 \cdot \frac{1}{a}$$

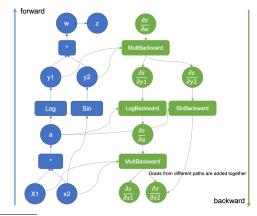
$$\blacktriangleright \ \ \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial a} \cdot \frac{\partial a}{\partial x_1} = \frac{y_2}{a} \cdot x_2$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_2} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial a} \cdot \frac{\partial a}{\partial x_2} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_2} \cdot \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2}$$

$$= \frac{y_2}{2} \cdot x_1 + \cos(x_2)$$

>>>
$$y = torch.log(x[0] * x[1]) * torch.sin(x[1])$$

tensor([1.3633, 0.1912])



⁹ Source: https://pytorch.org/blog/overview-of-pytorch-autograd-engine/ CS 6406: Machine Learning for Computer Vision (Sid Nadendla)

AutoGrad¹⁰: Automatic Differentiation in PyTorch

Components of Autograd:

- tools/autograd: Contains definitions of derivatives (derivates.yaml), and the necessary scripts to compute derivatives. Mostly written in C++.
- ► torch/autograd: Contains Python classes for users to write their own functions (torch.autograd.Function) and their gradients (functional.py)
- torch/csrc/autograd: Contains graph creation files and other execution-related code. Mostly written in C++.

¹⁰ Source: https://github.com/pytorch/pytorch CS 6406: Machine Learning for Computer Vision (Sid Nadendla)

Autograd: Computing the Gradient

```
>>> x = torch.tensor([0.5, 0.75], requires grad=True)
                                                                            >>> v = x[0] * x[1]
                                                                            >>> v
variable list MulBackward0::apply(variable list&& grads) {
                                                                            tensor(0.3750.grad fn=<MulBackward0>)
  std::lock_guard<std::mutex> lock(mutex_);
  IndexRangeGenerator gen:
  auto self ix = gen.range(1);
                                                        Generates this function automatically using tools/autograd
  auto other_ix = gen.range(1);
                                                        based on the script present in derivatives.vaml
  variable_list grad_inputs(gen.size());
  auto& grad = grads[0]:
  auto self = self .unpack();
                                                        Inherited from TraceableFunction class, a descendant of Node
  auto other = other_.unpack();
 bool any grad defined = any variable defined(grads);
                                                        with just a property to enable tracing for debugging/optim purposes.
  if (should compute output({ other ix })) {
   auto grad_result = any_grad_defined ? (mul_tensor_backward(grad, self, other_scalar_type)) : Tensor();
   copy_range(grad_inputs, other_ix, grad result):
  if (should compute output({ self ix })) {
   auto grad_result = any_grad_defined ? (mul_tensor_backward(grad, other, self_scalar_type)) : Tensor();
    copy range(grad inputs, self ix, grad result):
                                                                      struct TORCH API Node : std::enable shared from this<Node> {
  return grad_inputs;
                                                                       /// Evaluates the function on the given inputs and returns the result of the
                                                                        /// function call.
                                                                        variable_list operator()(variable_list&& inputs) {
        struct Edge {
         /// The function this 'Edge' points to.
                                                                      protected:
         std::shared ptr<Node> function:
                                                                        /// Performs the 'Node''s actual operation.
         uint32_t input_nr;
                                                                        virtual variable list apply(variable list&& inputs) = 0:
                                                                        edge list next edges ;
```

But, how is graph constructed, and how are the nodes linked automatically?

Autograd: Linking Nodes (Tensor Multiplication)

