# Neural Networks: Regularization and Encodings

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#### Goals for the lecture

you should understand the following concepts

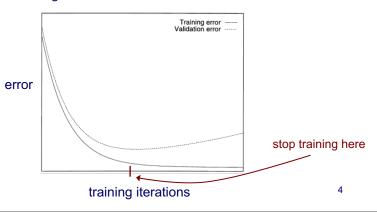
- regularization
- early stopping
- dropout
- · data augmentation
- simple input encodings (one-hot, thermometer)
- · output encodings
- most appropriate loss functions for each type of output encoding
- autoencoders
- word embeddings
- skip-gram models

# Regularization

- Regularization refers to an approach for avoiding overfitting by biasing the learning process away from completely fitting the training data
- · E.g. decision-tree pruning is a regularization method
- some regularization methods for neural networks
  - · early stopping
  - dropout
  - data augmentation
  - L2 penalty term (we'll discuss this later in the context of linear regression)

# Early stopping

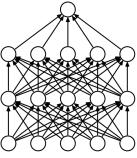
- · conventional gradient descent: train until local minimum reached
- · empirically sometimes better: early stopping
  - use a validation set to monitor accuracy during training iterations
  - · return the weights that result in minimum validation-set error

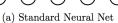


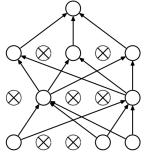
# **Dropout**

#### On each training iteration

- randomly "drop out" a subset of the units and their weights
- ignore these units; do forward and backprop on remaining network







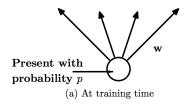
(b) After applying dropout.

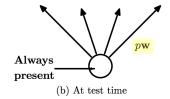
Figures from Srivastava et al., Journal of Machine Learning Research 2014

# **Dropout**

#### At test time

- final model uses all units and weights in the network
- adjust each weight by multiplying it by the fraction of iterations it was used during training





Figures from Srivastava et al., Journal of Machine Learning Research 2014

Note: this approach is very similar to ensembles, which we'll discuss in a few weeks

### **Data Augmentation**

- entails turning each training instance into many training instances
- especially applicable in image analysis tasks; can augment an image by rotation, re-scaling, shifting, flipping about axis, adding noise
- image still contains the same objects, exhibits the same event or action













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### Input (feature) encoding for neural networks

nominal features are usually represented using a 1-hot encoding

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathsf{T} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right]$$



ordinal features can be represented using a thermometer encoding

$$small = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad medium = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad large = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \bigcirc$$

$$medium = \begin{vmatrix} 1\\1\\0 \end{vmatrix}$$



real-valued features can be represented using individual input units (we may want to scale/normalize them first though)

precipitation = 
$$[0.68]$$



# Output encoding for neural networks

regression tasks usually use output units with linear transfer functions



binary classification tasks usually use one sigmoid output unit



*k*-ary classification tasks usually use *k* sigmoid or *softmax* output units

$$O_i = \frac{e^{net_i}}{\sum_{j \in outputs} e^{net_j}}$$



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# Output encoding for neural networks (continued)

Multi-label classification tasks (i.e. multiple binary labels are predicted for each instance) usually use multiple sigmoid output units



# Most appropriate objective function for each output encoding

regression: squared error

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} (y^{(d)} - o^{(d)})^2$$



binary classification, multi-label classification: cross entropy

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{d \in D} -y^{(d)} \ln(o^{(d)}) - (1 - y^{(d)}) \ln(1 - o^{(d)})$$



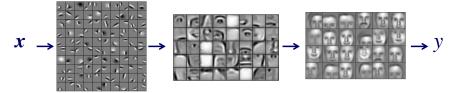
k-ary classification: multiclass cross entropy

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = -\sum_{d \in D} \sum_{i=1}^{\# classes} y_i^{(d)} ln\left(o_i^{(d)}\right)$$



#### Learning representations

- the feature representation provided is often the most significant factor in how well a learning system works
- an appealing aspect of multilayer neural networks is that they are able to change the feature representation
- can think of the nodes in the hidden layer as new features constructed from the original features in the input layer



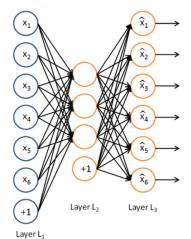
[Figures from Lee et al., ICML 2009]

# Learning encodings

Can we use multi-layer networks to learn good encodings that can be used for <u>multiple</u> tasks?

#### **Autoencoders**

- one approach: use *autoencoders* to learn hidden-unit representations
- in an autoencoder, the network is trained to reconstruct the inputs
- the hidden units can then be used as a new encoding for inputs



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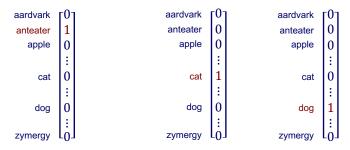
#### Autoencoder variants

- · how to encourage the autoencoder to generalize
  - bottleneck: use fewer hidden units than inputs
  - sparsity: use a penalty function that encourages most hidden unit activations to be near 0 [Goodfellow et al. 2009]
  - *denoising*: train to predict true input from corrupted input [Vincent et al. 2008]
  - *contractive*: force encoder to have small derivatives (of hidden unit output as input varies) [Rifai et al. 2011]

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### Word embeddings

• standard representation for words is a one-hot (1-of-k) encoding



 this encoding doesn't capture any information about the semantic similarity among words which may be useful for many NLP tasks

$$\boldsymbol{w}_{cat} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}_{dog} = 0$$

# Word embeddings

 How can we find dense, lower-dimensional vectors that capture semantic similarity among words?

• The key is to learn to model the context around words. Firth 1957: "You shall know a word by the company it keeps."

"...what if your dog has cold paws..."

# The skip-gram model

- · learn to predict context words in a window around given word
  - · collect a large corpus of text
  - define a window size s
  - construct training instances that map from word → other word in window

"...what if your dog has cold paws..."

```
dog \rightarrow what

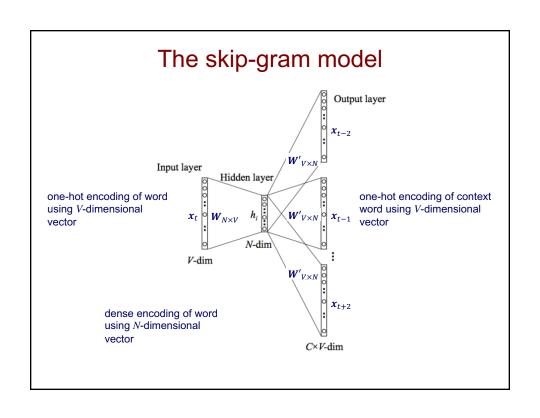
dog \rightarrow if

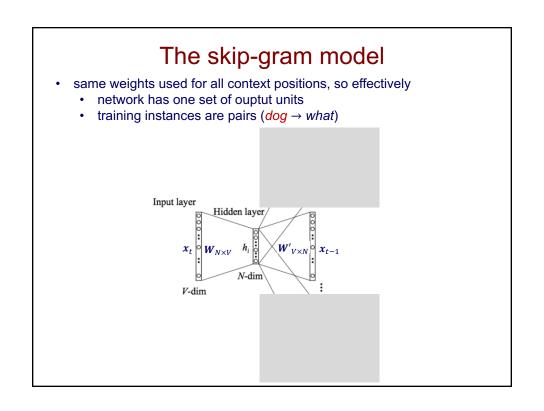
dog \rightarrow your

dog \rightarrow has

dog \rightarrow cold

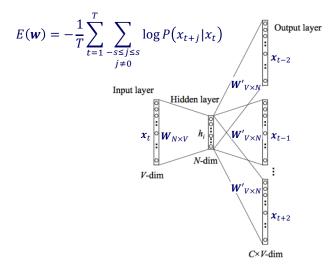
dog \rightarrow paws
```





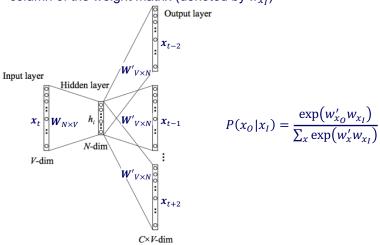
# The skip-gram model

• objective function: learn weights that minimize negative log probability (maximize probability) of words in context for each given word



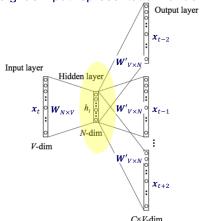
# The skip-gram model

- output units use softmax function to compute  $P(x_0|x_I)$
- · hidden units are linear
- since input vector uses a one-hot encoding, it effectively selects a column of the weight matrix (denoted by  $w_{x_I}$ )



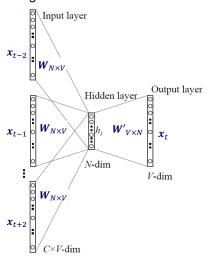
# Using word embeddings

- after training, it's the hidden layer (equivalently, the first layer of weights) we care about
- the hidden units provide a dense, low-dimensional representation for each word
- we can use these low-dimensional vectors in any NLP application (e.g. as input representation for deep network)



# An alternative: the Continuous Bag of Words (CBOW) model

· learn to predict a word given its context



# Pretrained embeddings

- Word2vec
  - skip-gram model developed by Google [Mikolov et al. 2013]
  - Original version: V = 692k, N = 300
  - Current versions: V = 1.4 3 million, N = 300 1000
  - trained on corpora with billions of words
- GloVe [Pennington et al. 2014]
  - word embeddings
- Med2Vec [Choi et al. 2006]
  - · embeddings of medical concepts