Aprendizagem Profunda

7 - Optimizing Networks

Ludwig Krippahl



Optimization

Summary

- Optimizers
- Learning rate
- Initializing weights
- Overfitting and model selection
- Bias/Variance tradeoff
- Regularization methods in ANN





Optimizers





Minimizing the loss function

- We want to minimize the loss function (e.g. cross-entropy for ML) to obtain θ from some data
- Numerical optimization is outside the scope of this course
- · But it's useful to have some knowledge of the optimizers





Minimizing the loss function

- So far we saw tf.optimizers.SGD
- Basic gradient descent algorithm, single learning rate.
- Stochastic gradient descent: use gradient computed at each example, selected at random
- Mini-batch gradient descent: updates after computing the total gradient from a batch of randomly selected examples.
- Can include momentum (and you should use momentum, in general)
- This is just an alias for the tf.keras.optimizers.SGD class
- We'll be using Keras explicitely from now on





Minimizing the loss function:

- Different parameters may best be changed at different rates
- tf.keras.optimizers.Adagrad
- Keeps sum of past (squared) gradients for all parameters
- Divides learning rate of each parameter by this sum
- Parameters with small gradients will have larger learning rates, and vice-versa
- Since Adagrad sums previous gradients, learning rates will shrink
- (good for convex problems)



Minimizing the loss function:

- Some parameters may be left with too large or too small gradients
- tf.keras.optimizers.RMSProp
- Keeps moving root of the mean of the squared gradients (RMS)
- Divides gradient by this moving RMS
- Updates will tend to be similar for all parameters.
- Since it uses a moving average, learning rates don't shrink
- Good for non-convex problems, and often used in recurrent neural networks
- Most famous unpublished optimizer





Minimizing the loss function

- tf.keras.optimizers.Adam
- Adaptive Moment Estimation (Adam)
- Momentum and different learning rates using an exponentially decaying average over the previous gradients
- Fast to learn but may have convergence problems

How to choose?

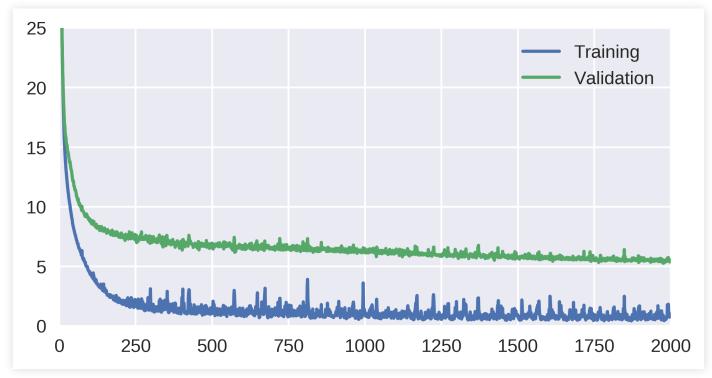
- There is no solid theoretical foundation for this
- So you must choose empirically
- Which is just a fancy way of saying try and see what works...



Learning Rate

Choosing the best learning rate

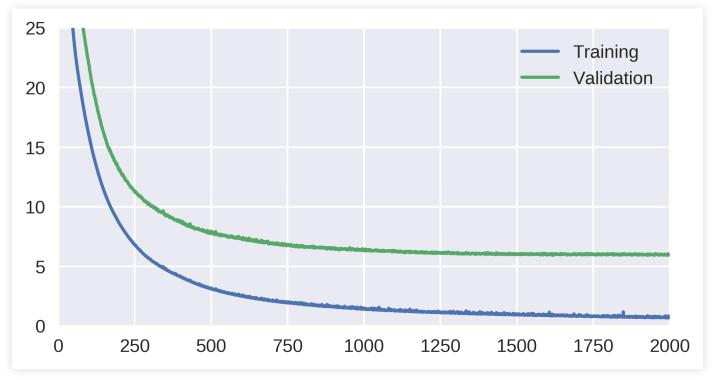
- Optimizers can have other parameters, but all have a learning rate
- Too high a learning rate can lead to convergence problems





Learning Rate

- However, if learning rate is too small training can take too long
- Try to make it as high as you can while still converging to low error
- (you can experiment with a subset of your training set, even if overfitting)





Weight Initialization

Selecting the initial values

- Bias: these can start at 0
- (or use some heuristic)
- Weights: must break symmetry, cannot all have same value
- But if they add up to large values it may cause problems
- LeCun normal initializer:

$$W_{i,j} \sim N\left(0, \sqrt{rac{1}{fan_{in}}}
ight)$$

Normalized initialization (glorot_uniform in Keras):

$$W_{i,j} \sim U\left(-\sqrt{rac{6}{fan_{in}+fan_{out}}},\sqrt{rac{6}{fan_{in}+fan_{out}}}
ight)$$

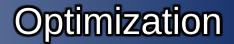
See: https://keras.io/initializers/



Normalizing (standardizing) activations

- Compute running averages and standard deviations during training
- And standardize the inputs to each layer
- Just like we do for the inputs to the network, do for hidden layers too
- Makes learning easier by preventing extreme values
- Eliminates shifts in mean and variance during training
- Reduces the need for each layer to adapt to the changes in the previous one
- This can be done easily in Keras
- The mean, standard deviation and rescaling can all be part of backpropation
- AutoDiff takes care of the derivatives
- So we can add batch normalization as an additional layer







The goal of (supervised) learning is prediction

And we want to predict outside of what we know

Overfitting

- The problem of adjusting too much to training data
- and losing generalization
- Two ways of solving this:
- Select the right model: model selection
- Adjust training: regularization



How to check for overfitting

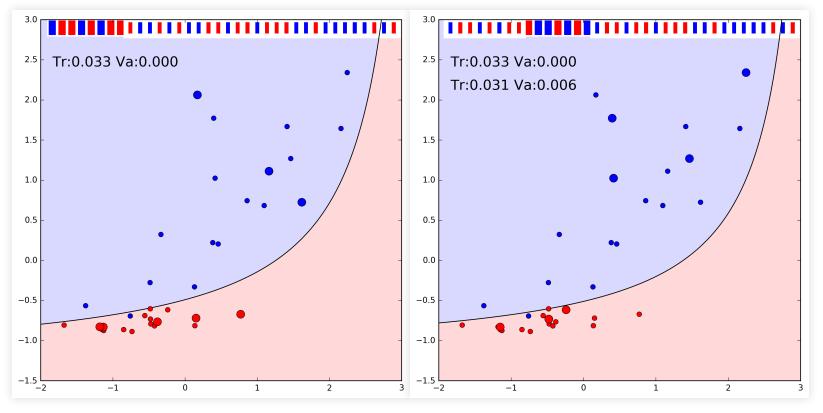
- We need to evaluate performance outside the training set
- Test set: we need to keep this for final evaluation of error rate
- We can use a validation set
- Or we can use cross-validation



How to check for overfitting

Cross-Validation:

• Split training set into K folds, average validations training on the k-1

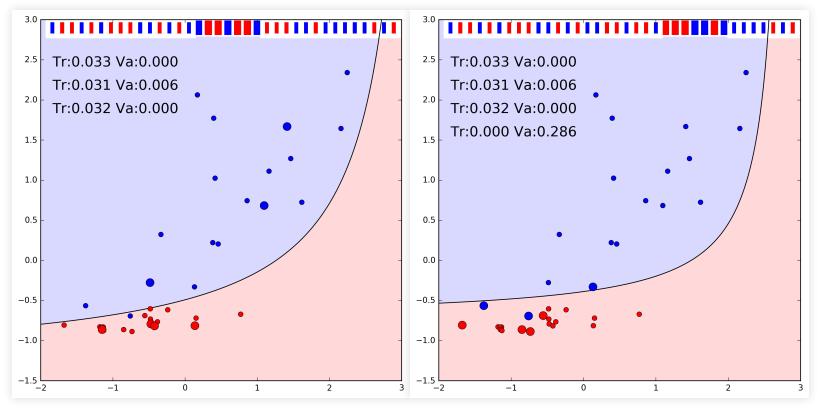




How to check for overfitting

Cross-Validation:

• Split training set into K folds, average validations training on the k-1





How to check for overfitting

- Option 1: train, validation for preventing overfitting, test
- Good when we have lots of data (which is generally the case for DL)
- Option 2: Cross-validation on training set, test
- Good when data is scarcer
- Better estimate of true error
- More computationally demanding
- Cross-validation is widely used outside deep learning
- With deep learning training and validation is more common
- Deep networks take some time to train



Estimating the true error

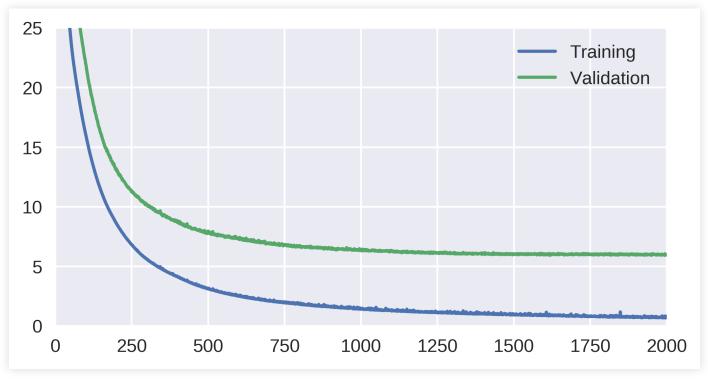
- True error: the expected error over all possible data
- We cannot measure this, since we would need all possible data
- Must be estimated with a test set, outside the training set
- This cannot be the validation set if the validation set was used to optimize hyperparameters
- We choose the combination with the smallest validation error, this makes the estimate biased.
- Solution: reserve a test set for final estimate of true error
- This set should not be used for any choice or optimization



Overfitting

Model Selection

- If the model adapts too much to the data, the training error may be low but the true error high
- Example: Auto MPG problem, 100-50-10-1 network.

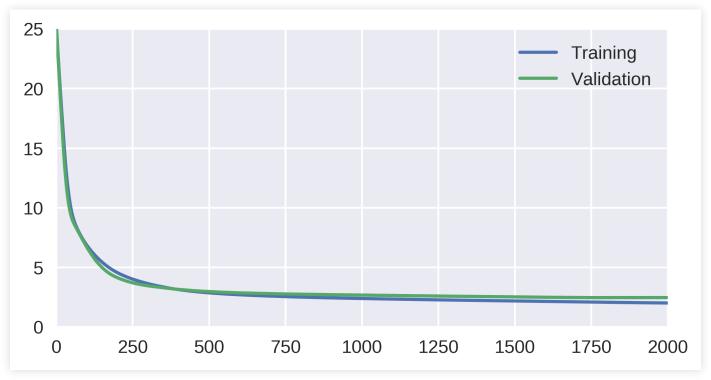




Overfitting

Model Selection

- One way of solving this problem is to use a simpler model (assuming it can fit the data)
- Example: Auto MPG problem, 30-10-1 network.

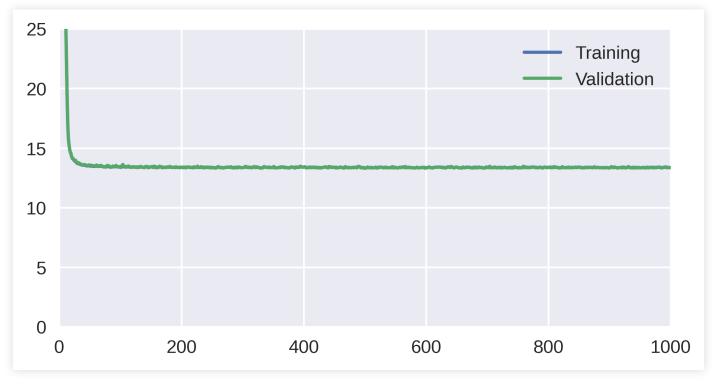




Overfitting

Model Selection

- If the model is too simple, then error may become high
- (Underfitting)
- Example: Auto MPG problem, 3-2-1 network.









- Suppose we could train our model on many data sets
- For each hypothesis, predict target value for one example
- We can decompose the error in two components:

Bias

Deviation of the average estimate from the target value

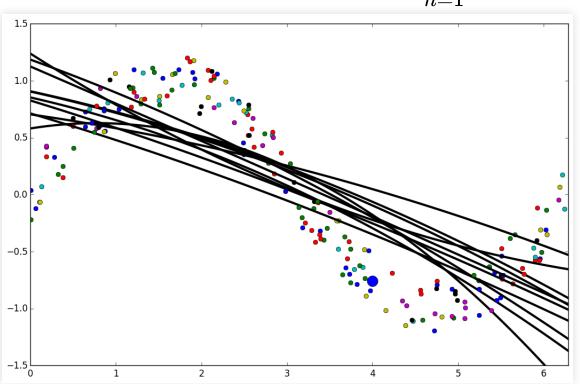
Variance

Dispersion of predictions around their average



Bias: deviation of the average estimate from the target value

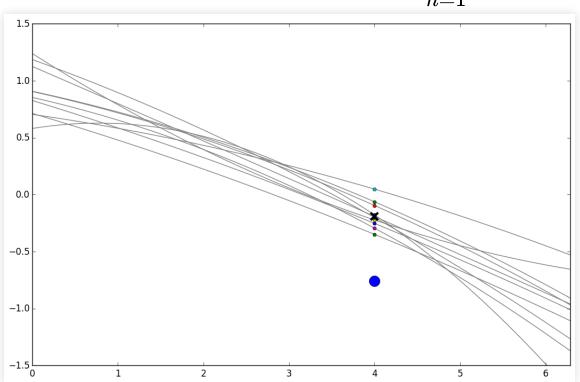
$$bias_n = \left(ar{y}(x_n) - t_n
ight)^2 \qquad bias = rac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^N \left(ar{y}(x_n) - t_n
ight)^2$$





Bias: deviation of the average estimate from the target value

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Variance: dispersion of predictions around their average

$$var_{n} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left(\bar{y}(x_{n}) - y_{m}(x_{n}) \right)^{2} \qquad var = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left(\bar{y}(x_{n}) - y_{m}(x_{n}) \right)$$



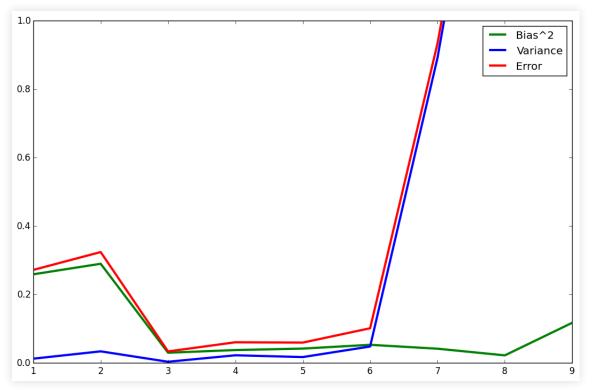
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Bias-variance tradeoff

Reducing bias increases variance





High Bias

- Model cannot adjust the data (underfitting)
- Variance is low, true error is close to training error
- But error is high because the model is too "stiff"
- Need another model, or some combination of models
- e.g. boosting
- This is not a problem with deep learning

High Variance

- Model adjusts too much to irrelevant details (overfitting)
- Training error is low but true error is high
- This is common in DL but may be fixed with regularization





Regularization in ANN



Regularization

Regularization:

- Changes to how the model is trained to reduce overfitting
- Reduces variance (may increase bias, but still pay off)



Penalizing parameter size

To reduce variance, we can force parameters to remain small by adding a penalty to the objective (cost) function:

$$ilde{J}\left(heta;X,y
ight)=J(heta;X,y)+lpha\Omega(heta)$$

- Where α is the weight of the regularization
- Note: in ANN, generally only the input weights at each neuron are penalized and not the bias weights.
- The norm function $\Omega(\theta)$ usually takes these forms:
- L 2 Regularization (ridge regression): penalize $|| heta||^2$
- L 1 Regularization: penalize $\sum_i | heta_i|$



L^2 Regularization is weight decay

If we penalize w^2 , the gradient becomes:

$$abla ilde{J}\left(heta;X,y
ight) =
abla J(heta;X,y) + 2lpha w$$

This means the update rule for the weight becomes

$$w \leftarrow w - \epsilon 2 lpha w - \epsilon
abla J(heta; X, y)$$

- We decrease the magnitude of w to $(1-\epsilon 2lpha)$ per update
- This causes weights that do not contribute to reducing the cost function to shrink



Regularization

L^1 Regularization

If we penalize |w|, the gradient becomes:

$$abla ilde{J}\left(heta;X,y
ight) =
abla J(heta;X,y) + lpha \ sign(w)$$

- This penalizes parameters by a constant value, leading to a sparse solution
- Some weights will have an optimal value of 0

\mathbf{L}^1 vs \mathbf{L}^2 Regularization

- L^1 minimizes number of non-zero weights
- L^2 minimizes overall weight magnitude



Dataset augmentation

- More data is generally better, although not always readily available
- But sometimes we cam make more data
- E.g. Image classification:
- Translate images. Rotate or flip, if appropriate (not for character recognition)



Wang et al, 2019, "A survey of face data augmentation".



Dataset augmentation by noise injection

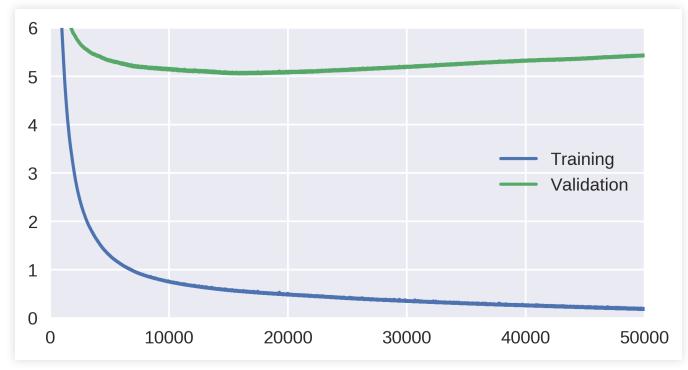
- Noise injection is an (implicit) form of dataset augmentation
- Add (carefully) noise to inputs, or even to some hidden layers
- Noise can also be applied to the weights
- Or even the output
- There may be errors in labelling
- Or for label smoothing: use $\epsilon/(k-1)$ and $1-\epsilon$ instead of 0 and 1 for target
- This prevents pushing softmax or sigmoid to infinity



Regularization

Early stopping

- Use validation to stop at best point
- · Constraints weights to be closer to starting distribution





Bagging and dropout

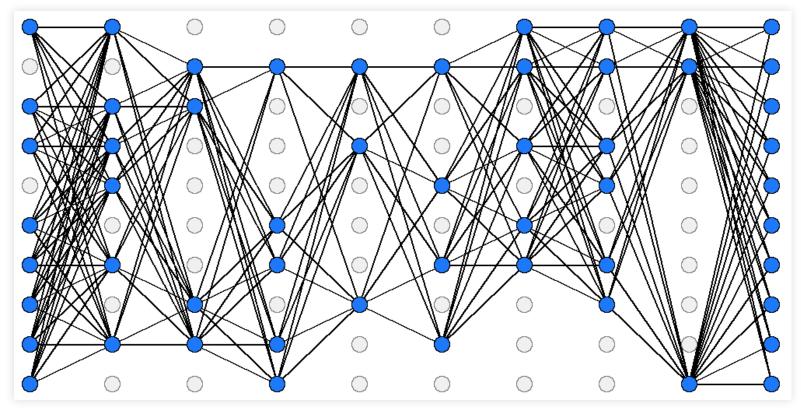
- Bagging, or model averaging, consists in training a set of models and then using the average response (or majority vote)
- This generally improves performance, as it reduces variance without affecting bias, and ANN can have high variance
- However, it can be costly to train and use many deep models.



Regularization

Dropout

"Turns off" random input and hidden neurons in each minibatch





Dropout

- Dropout does model averaging implicitely
- Turning off neurons at random trains an ensemble of many different networks
- After training, weights are scaled by the probability of being "on"
- (same expected activation value)

Inverted dropout

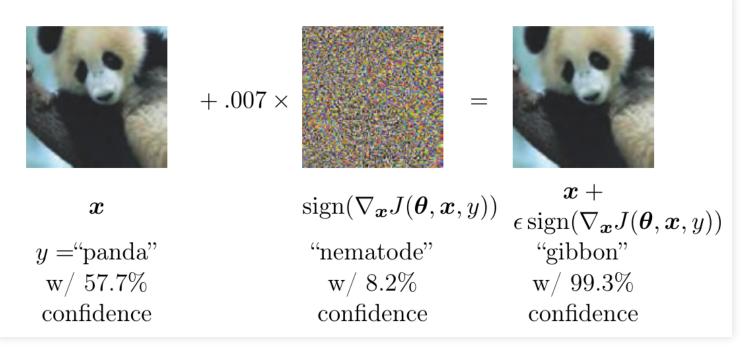
- Instead of adjusting weights after training, increase activation of neurons left on during training
- Automatically "scales" activations



Regularization

Adversarial Training

ANN can make strange mistakes with the "right" inputs



Goodfellow, Bengio, Courville, Deep Learning 2016



Adversarial Training

- ANN can make strange mistakes with the "right" inputs
- But this can be prevented by using these adversarially perturbed examples during training
- Forces the network to be locally constant in the neighbourhood of the training data



Selecting Hyperparameters

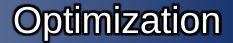
Many parameters to select

Regularization, network shape and size, optimizers, etc

Several strategies:

- Manual Optimization
- Grid search
- Random Search
- Bayesian search





Summary



Optimization

Summary

- Optimizing training
- Optimizers, initialization, learning rate, batch normalization
- Optimizing the predictions
- Model selection
- Bias and Variance
- Regularization
- Penalizing weights, Augmenting data
- Noise, Early stop, dropout, Adversarial training

Further reading:

Goodfellow et.al, Deep learning, Chaps 7 and 11, Sects 8.4; 8.7.1

