# Lecture 08 Network Tuning I





# Regularization for Deep Learning





## Regularization in General

Any modification we make to a learning algorithm that is intended to reduce its generalization error but not its training error

### Regularization of a mismatch

- **Data generation**: almost never have access to the true data generation process
  - Measured by **test error**, to be reduced ultimately when dealing with new inputs
- **Model representation**: not sure if our model family covers the data generation or not
  - *Measured by training error*, *can be minimized by exploiting the data, not the purpose*
- The problem can be extremely complicated
  - Image, audio, text, etc.
  - Reduce the test error at the expense of increasing the training error



## Regularization in General

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### Regularization of a mismatch

- **Data generation**: almost never have access to the true data generation process
- **Model representation**: not sure if our model family covers the data generation or not
- More memorization capacity naturally tends to *overfit* 
  - Limited memorization capacity won't be able to learn the mapping, causing *underfitting*
- The best fitting model is a large model that has been *regularized appropriately*



## Training, Validation, and Test Dataset

It is a good practice to divide our dataset into three parts to reproduce the real conditions as much as possible

- Make sure that your cross-validation and test set come from the same distribution as well as that they accurately reflect data that we expect to receive in the future
- *dev* and *test* sets should be simply large enough to give us high confidence in the performance of our model.
- (Common) Small dataset: 60:20:20
- (Very) Big dataset: 98:1:1

#### Small dataset



Traing set: the data our mode learns from

**Dev set**: track our progress and draw conclusions to optimise the model **Test set**: use at the end of the training process to evaluate the performance of our model

### Data Preprocessing

How to preprocess image data?

### Mean subtraction

• Subtracting the mean across every individual feature in the data

### Normalization

- Normalizing the data dimensions so that they are of approximately the same scale.
  - One is to divide each dimension by its standard deviation, once it has been zero-centered.
  - Another is to normalize each dimension so that the min and max along the dimension is -1 and 1 respectively.

### PCA and Whitening

- In this process, the data is first centered as described above.
- Then, we can compute the covariance matrix that tells us about the correlation structure in the data





### **Batch Normalization**

Forcing the activations throughout a network to take on a unit gaussian distribution at the beginning of the training

- Common practice of setting up the initial weights (small but not destructive)
  - Small random numbers  $\Rightarrow W = 0.01 * np.random.randn(D,H)$ 
    - Setup the neurons to be all random and unique in the beginning, so they will compute distinct updates and integrate themselves as diverse parts of the full network
    - randn samples from a zero mean, unit standard deviation gaussian
    - Any problem with *backpropagation*?
- How to properly initializing neural networks?
  - Batch Normalization
    - When used with mini-batches in stochastic gradient training, each mini-batch produces estimates of the mean and variance of each activation
  - Fully Connected Layer => BatchNorm Layer => Non-linear Activation
    - Doing preprocessing at every layer of the network, but integrated into the network itself in a differentiable manner.

**Input:** Values of x over a mini-batch:  $\mathcal{B} = \{x_{1...m}\}$ ; Parameters to be learned:  $\gamma, \beta$  **Output:**  $\{y_i = BN_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)\}$   $\mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i$  // mini-batch mean  $\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2$  // mini-batch variance

https://arxiv.org/pdf/1502.03167.pdf

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

 $u_i \leftarrow \gamma \widehat{x}_i + \beta \equiv \mathbf{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)$ 

// scale and shift

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### Reducing the Network's Size

The simplest way to prevent overfitting

- Reduce the size of the model
  - the number of learnable parameters in the model (the model's *capacity*)
  - (the number of layers + the number of units per layer)
- Deep learning models tend to be good at fitting to the training data,
  - but the real challenge is generalization, not fitting

Larger Neural Networks can represent more complicated functions



6 hidden neurons



20 hidden neurons



**Overfitting** occurs when a model with high capacity fts the noise in the data instead of the (assumed) underlying relationship



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## To Find an Appropriate Model Size

### A General Workflow

- Start with relatively few layers and parameters
- Increase the size of the layers or add new layers
- Until you see diminishing returns with regard to validation loss.





# A Few Regularization Methods





## Norm Penalties as Constrained Optimization

### Weight Regularization

- Intuition: Occam's razor
  - The simplest solution is most likely the right one—the one that makes fewer assumptions
- Formulation: A simple model is always preferred
  - A model where the distribution of parameter values has less entropy (or a model with fewer parameters)
- Method: Constrain the network complexity
  - Forcing its weights to take only small values
  - Adding a cost associated with having large weights to the loss function of the network



Regularization pushes against fitting the data *too* well so we don't fit noise in the data

X



## Norm Penalties as Constrained Optimization

### Weight Regularization

### • Weight Regularization

- L1 regularization:  $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l |W_{k,l}|$ 
  - The cost added is proportional to the *absolute value of the weight coefficients*
- L2 regularization:  $R(W) = \sum_{k} \sum_{l} W_{k,l}^2$ 
  - The cost added is proportional to the square of the value of the weight coefficient









Regularization pushes against fitting the data *too* well so we don't fit noise in the data



 $\lambda$  as strength of Regularization (*hyperparameter*)

Data loss Model predictions should match training data

Elastic Net (L1+L2)

•

 $R(W) = \sum_{k} \sum_{l} \beta W_{k,l}^{2} + |W_{k,l}|$ 

### **Regularization**

Prevent the model from doing too well on training data



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## Dataset Augmentation

Create fake data and add it to the training set, particularly effective for object recognition

- We are always limited by the amount of data available for generalization
- Why Images?
  - high dimensional
  - include an enormous variety of factors, many of which can be easily simulated



https://blog.keras.io/buildingpowerful-image-classificationmodels-using-very-littledata.html



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### Dataset Augmentation

Create fake data and add it to the training set, particularly effective for object recognition

https://machinelearningmastery.com/how-to-configure-image-dataaugmentation-when-training-deep-learning-neural-networks/

#### Horizontal Shift



Vertical Shift



# All Contractions

Flip with H/V Shift





#### Random Zoom (Noise)



#### Brightness Shift (Noise)



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## Multi-Task Learning

### Improve generalization by pooling the examples arising out of several tasks.

- A common situation where
  - the tasks share a common input
  - but involve different target random variables

Robot 2

world

- The underlying assumption
  - there exists a common pool of factors that explain the variations in the input x,
  - while each task is associated with a subset of these factors

Available Modules

Robot 2

Task 2

Robot Modules

Robot 1

Task Modules

Task 1





Robot 1

world

Task 1

Task 2

0<sub>7</sub>

w,

**φ**<sub>w1</sub>(0)

Robot 1

Task 1

O<sub>T</sub>

W,

0<sub>R</sub>

## Early Stopping

Due to its simplicity and effectiveness, it is probably the most commonly used form of regularization in deep learning

- We can obtain a model with better validation set error (and thus, hopefully better test set error)
  - By returning to the parameter setting at the point in time with the lowest validation set error.
- Every time the error on the validation set improves, we store a copy of the model parameters



Time (epochs)

- As a very efficient hyperparameter selection algorithm
  - The number of training steps is just another hyperparameter

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### Learning curves showing how the negative log-likelihood loss changes over time

(epochs: the number of training iterations over the dataset)



## Dropout

Randomly drop units (along with their connections) from the neural network during training

- The dropout rate
  - The fraction of the features that are zeroed out;
  - Usually set between 0.2 and 0.5.

Unit

Type

Logistic

NA

Logistic

ReLU

ReLU

ReLU

ReLU

ReLU

Maxout

Logistic

Logistic

Logistic

Logistic

• Dropout improves the performance of neural networks on supervised learning tasks significantly

Error

%

1.60

1.40

1.35

1.251.06

1.04

1.01

0.95

0.94

1.18

0.96

0.92

0.79

Architecture

2 layers, 800 units

NA

3 layers, 1024 units

3 layers, 1024 units

3 layers, 1024 units

3 layers, 2048 units

2 layers, 4096 units

2 lavers, 8192 units

2 layers,  $(5 \times 240)$ 

units

500-500-2000

500-500-2000

500-500-2000

500-500-2000

25

2.

%

Error



AncoraSIR.com http://jmlr.org/papers/volume15/srivastava14a/srivastava14a.pdf

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Method

Dropout NN

Dropout NN

et al., 2013)

SVM Gaussian kernel

Standard Neural Net (Simard et al., 2003)

Dropout NN + max-norm constraint

DBN + dropout finetuning

DBM + dropout finetuning

Dropout NN + max-norm constraint (Goodfellow

DBN + finetuning (Hinton and Salakhutdinov, 2006)

DBM + finetuning (Salakhutdinov and Hinton, 2009)

Number of weight updates

600000

Without dropout

400000

200000

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# Optimization for Deep Models





## Optimization in General

Optimization is a process of searching for parameters that minimize or maximize our functions

- A Design Challenge with Indirect Optimzation
- Accuracy, precision or recall ...
  - How well our model solves a given problem?
  - Things we really care about
- Sum of Squared Error, Maximum-Likelihood ...
  - Optimizing a different cost function *J*(θ) and hope that minimizing its value will improve metric we care about
  - Things we are actually computing

Advanced algorithms are usually needed to find a minimum of non-convex cost functions



Points where function takes a minimum value, but only in a given region

Plateaus where the cost function is almost constant (the gradient is almost *zeroeccient*) in all directions making it impossible to escape)

### Mini-batch Gradient Descent

### Improve the efficiency of gradient processing

Vectorization: handling many training examples at once Mini-batches: further split the dataset for iterative training



Gradient descent: takes longer to process with a smoother path Mini-bach gradient descent: much faster but also noisy



**Stochastic Gradient Descent** is also an effective alternative (GD is K=1, Overfit if K=N)



### Stochastic Gradient Descent



In practice, it is common to decay the learning rate linearly until iteration  $\tau$ :

$$\epsilon_k = (1 - \alpha)\epsilon_0 + \alpha\epsilon_\tau \qquad \alpha = \frac{k}{\tau}$$

After iteration  $\tau$ , it is common to leave  $\epsilon$  constant.

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#### The "art" of choosing a learning rate

- by trial and error
- monitor learning curves that plot the objective function as a function of time.
- *ϵ*<sub>0</sub>: it is usually best to monitor the first several
   iterations and use a learning rate that is higher
   than the best-performing learning rate at this time,
   but not so high that it causes severe instability.



## Exponentially Weighted Averages

Averaging many previous values in order to become independent of local fluctuations and focus on the overall trend

- $v_t = \beta v_{t-1} + (1 \beta)\theta_t$ 
  - $\beta$ : control the range of values to be averaged
- $v_0 = 0$  (initialize)
- $v_1 = \beta v_0 + (1 \beta)\theta_1 = (1 \beta)\theta_1$
- $v_2 = \beta v_1 + (1 \beta)\theta_2 = (1 \beta)(\beta \theta_1 + \theta_2)$

• 
$$v_3 = \beta v_2 + (1 - \beta)\theta_3 = (1 - \beta)(\beta^2 \theta_1 + \beta \theta_2 + \theta_3)$$

- ...
- $v_t = \beta v_{t-1} + (1-\beta)\theta_t = \frac{1}{1/(1-\beta)} \sum_{i=1}^t \beta^{t-i} \theta_i$
- Intuition:
  - Can be considered as a weighted sum of  $1/(1 \beta)$  samples before the current time instance
    - If  $\beta = 0.9$ ,  $v_t$  average the previous  $\frac{1}{(1-\beta)} = 10$  days
    - If  $\beta = 0.98$ ,  $v_t$  average the previous  $\frac{1}{(1-\beta)} = 500$  days
  - Highly effective when applied to deep learning

A 0.90 VA 0.95 EWA 0.98 date

SUSTech

### Gradient Descent with Momentum

To gain momentum, so that even if the local gradient is zero, we still move forward relying on the previously calculated values

Compute an Exponentially Weighted Average of your gradients, and then use that gradient to update your weights instead

### One iteration *t*

- Compute dW and db on the current mini-batch
- $v_{dW} = \beta v_{dW} + (1 \beta) \cdot dW$
- $v_{db} = \beta v_{db} + (1 \beta) \cdot db$
- $W = W \alpha v_{dW}$
- $b = b \alpha v_{db}$
- $(\theta \text{ as a collection of } W \text{ and } b)$



### Standard gradient descent vs. GD with momentum



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### Classify Toy 2-D data with a Neural Network

https://cs.stanford.edu/people/karpathy/convnetjs/



Controls: CLICK: Add red data point SHIFT+CLICK: Add green data point CTRL+CLICK: Remove closest data point



fc(2) cycle through visualized neurons at selected layer (if more than 2)





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# Thank you~

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