

Machine Learning – Lecture 14

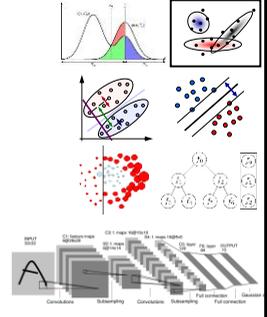
Tricks of the Trade

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Course Outline

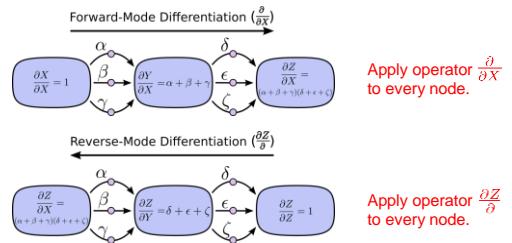
- Fundamentals
 - Bayes Decision Theory
 - Probability Density Estimation
- Classification Approaches
 - Linear Discriminants
 - Support Vector Machines
 - Ensemble Methods & Boosting
 - Random Forests
- Deep Learning
 - Foundations
 - Convolutional Neural Networks
 - Recurrent Neural Networks



Topics of This Lecture

- Recap: Optimization
 - Effect of optimizers
- Tricks of the Trade
 - Shuffling
 - Data Augmentation
 - Normalization
- Nonlinearities
- Initialization
- Advanced techniques
 - Batch Normalization
 - Dropout

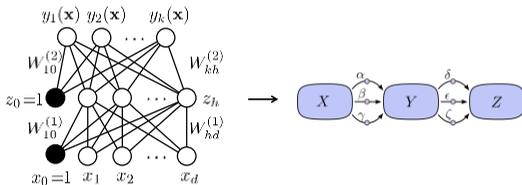
Recap: Computational Graphs



- Forward differentiation needs one pass per node. Reverse-mode differentiation can compute all derivatives in one single pass.
- ⇒ Speed-up in $\mathcal{O}(\#inputs)$ compared to forward differentiation!

Recap: Automatic Differentiation

- Approach for obtaining the gradients



- Convert the network into a computational graph.
- Each new layer/module just needs to specify how it affects the forward and backward passes.
- Apply reverse-mode differentiation.
- ⇒ Very general algorithm, used in today's Deep Learning packages

Correction: Implementing Softmax Correctly

- Softmax output

- De-facto standard for multi-class outputs

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = - \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \left\{ \mathbb{I}(t_n = k) \ln \frac{\exp(\mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(\mathbf{w}_j^T \mathbf{x})} \right\}$$

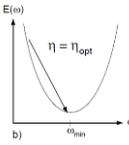
- Practical issue

- Exponentials get very big and can have vastly different magnitudes.
- **Trick 1:** Do not compute first softmax, then log, but instead directly evaluate **log-exp in the numerator** and **log-sum-exp in the denominator**.
- **Trick 2:** Softmax has the property that for a fixed vector \mathbf{b} $\text{softmax}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{a})$
- ⇒ Subtract the largest weight vector \mathbf{w}_j from the others.

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Recap: Choosing the Right Learning Rate

- Convergence of Gradient Descent
 - Simple 1D example

$$W^{(\tau-1)} = W^{(\tau)} - \eta \frac{dE(W)}{dW}$$
 - What is the optimal learning rate η_{opt} ?
 
 - If E is quadratic, the optimal learning rate is given by the inverse of the Hessian

$$\eta_{opt} = \left(\frac{d^2 E(W^{(\tau)})}{dW^2} \right)^{-1}$$
 - Advanced optimization techniques try to approximate the Hessian by a simplified form.
 
 - If we exceed the optimal learning rate, bad things happen!

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Recap: Advanced Optimization Techniques

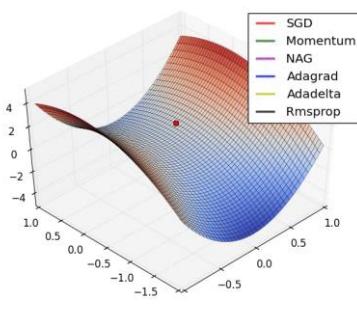
- Momentum
 - Instead of using the gradient to change the *position* of the weight "particle", use it to change the *velocity*.
 - Effect: dampen oscillations in directions of high curvature
 - Nesterov-Momentum: Small variation in the implementation
- RMS-Prop
 - Separate learning rate for each weight: Divide the gradient by a running average of its recent magnitude.
- AdaGrad
- AdaDelta
- Adam

Some more recent techniques, work better for some problems. Try them.

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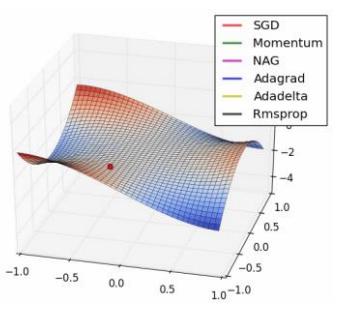
Example: Behavior in a Long Valley



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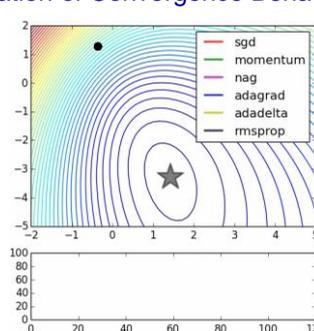
Example: Behavior around a Saddle Point



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Visualization of Convergence Behavior

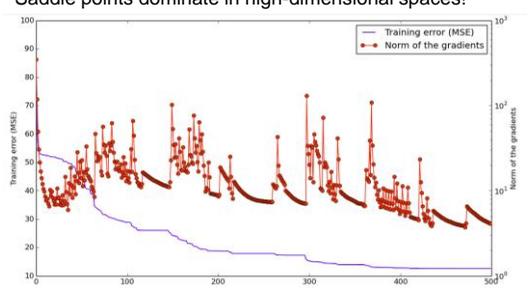


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Trick: Patience

- Saddle points dominate in high-dimensional spaces!



⇒ Learning often doesn't get stuck, you just may have to wait...

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Reducing the Learning Rate

- Final improvement step after convergence is reached
 - Reduce learning rate by a factor of 10.
 - Continue training for a few epochs.
 - Do this 1-3 times, then stop training.
- Effect
 - Turning down the learning rate will reduce the random fluctuations in the error due to different gradients on different minibatches.
- Be careful: Do not turn down the learning rate too soon!**
 - Further progress will be much slower/impossible after that.

Slide adapted from Geoff Hinton

Summary

- Deep multi-layer networks are very powerful.
- But training them is hard!
 - Complex, non-convex learning problem
 - Local optimization with stochastic gradient descent
- Main issue: getting good gradient updates for the lower layers of the network
 - Many seemingly small details matter!
 - Weight initialization, normalization, data augmentation, choice of nonlinearities, choice of learning rate, choice of optimizer,...

In the following, we will take a look at the most important factors

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Shuffling the Examples

- Ideas
 - Networks learn fastest from the most unexpected sample.
 - It is advisable to choose a sample at each iteration that is most unfamiliar to the system.
 - E.g. a sample from a *different class* than the previous one.
 - This means, do not present all samples of class A, then all of class B.
 - A large relative error indicates that an input has not been learned by the network yet, so it contains a lot of information.
 - It can make sense to present such inputs more frequently.
 - But: be careful, this can be disastrous when the data are outliers.
- Practical advice
 - When working with stochastic gradient descent or minibatches, make use of shuffling.

Data Augmentation

- Idea
 - Augment original data with synthetic variations to reduce overfitting
- Example augmentations for images
 - Cropping
 - Zooming
 - Flipping
 - Color PCA

Image source: Lucas Reyer

Data Augmentation

- Effect
 - Much larger training set
 - Robustness against expected variations
- During testing
 - When cropping was used during training, need to again apply crops to get same image size.
 - Beneficial to also apply flipping during test.
 - Applying several ColorPCA variations can bring another ~1% improvement, but at a significantly increased runtime.

Augmented training data (from one original image)

Image source: Lucas Reyer

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Practical Advice

APPLY ALL

THE AUGMENTATIONS

generator.net

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19

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Normalization

- Motivation
 - Consider the Gradient Descent update steps

$$w_{kj}^{(\tau+1)} = w_{kj}^{(\tau)} - \eta \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_{kj}} \Big|_{\mathbf{w}^{(\tau)}}$$
 - From backpropagation, we know that

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = y_i \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

- When all of the components of the input vector y , are positive, all of the updates of weights that feed into a node will be of the same sign.
 - ⇒ Weights can only all increase or decrease together.
 - ⇒ Slow convergence

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Normalizing the Inputs

- Convergence is fastest if
 - The mean of each input variable over the training set is zero.
 - The inputs are scaled such that all have the same covariance.
 - Input variables are uncorrelated if possible.
- Diagram illustrating Mean Cancellation and Covariance Equalization leading to KL-Expansion.
- Advisable normalization steps (for MLPs only, not for CNNs)
 - Normalize all inputs that an input unit sees to zero-mean, unit covariance.
 - If possible, try to decorrelate them using PCA (also known as Karhunen-Loeve expansion).

B. Leibe image source: Yann LeCun et al., Efficient BackProp (1998)

21

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Choosing the Right Sigmoid

$\tanh(a) = 2\sigma(2a) - 1$

- Normalization is also important for intermediate layers
 - Symmetric sigmoids, such as tanh, often converge faster than the standard logistic sigmoid.
 - Recommended sigmoid:

$$f(x) = 1.7159 \tanh\left(\frac{2}{3}x\right)$$
 - ⇒ When used with transformed inputs, the variance of the outputs will be close to 1.

B. Leibe image source: Yann LeCun et al., Efficient BackProp (1998)

23

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Usage

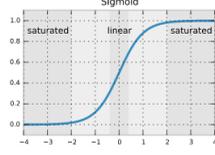
- Output nodes
 - Typically, a sigmoid or tanh function is used here.
 - Sigmoid for nice probabilistic interpretation (range [0, 1]).
 - tanh for regression tasks
- Internal nodes
 - Historically, tanh was most often used.
 - tanh is better than sigmoid for internal nodes, since it is already centered.
 - Internally, tanh is often implemented as piecewise linear function (similar to hard tanh and maxout).
 - More recently: ReLU often used for classification tasks.

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24

Effect of Sigmoid Nonlinearities

- Effects of sigmoid/tanh function
 - Linear behavior around 0
 - Saturation for large inputs
- If all parameters are too small
 - Variance of activations will drop in each layer
 - Sigmoids are approximately linear close to 0
 - Good for passing gradients through, but...
 - Gradual loss of the nonlinearity
 - ⇒ No benefit of having multiple layers
- If activations become larger and larger
 - They will saturate and gradient will become zero

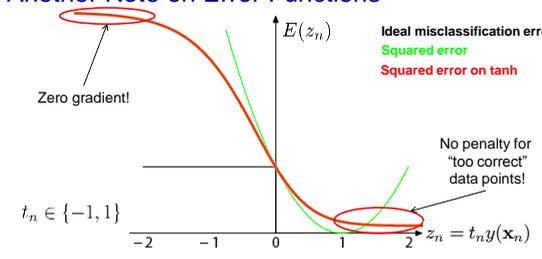


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Image source: <http://deeplearningbook.com/2015/02/24/network-initialization>

25

Another Note on Error Functions



- Squared error on sigmoid/tanh output function**
 - Avoids penalizing "too correct" data points.
 - But: zero gradient for confidently incorrect classifications!
 - ⇒ Do not use L_2 loss with sigmoid outputs (instead: cross-entropy)!

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Image source: Bishop, 2006

26

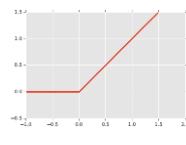
Extension: ReLU

- Another improvement for learning deep models
 - Use Rectified Linear Units (ReLU)

$$g(a) = \max\{0, a\}$$
 - Effect: gradient is propagated with a constant factor

$$\frac{\partial g(a)}{\partial a} = \begin{cases} 1, & a > 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
- Advantages
 - Much easier to propagate gradients through deep networks.
 - We do not need to store the ReLU output separately
 - Reduction of the required memory by half compared to tanh!

⇒ ReLU has become the de-facto standard for deep networks.



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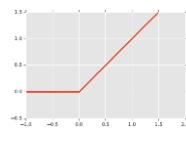
27

Extension: ReLU

- Another improvement for learning deep models
 - Use Rectified Linear Units (ReLU)

$$g(a) = \max\{0, a\}$$
 - Effect: gradient is propagated with a constant factor

$$\frac{\partial g(a)}{\partial a} = \begin{cases} 1, & a > 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
- Disadvantages / Limitations
 - A certain fraction of units will remain "stuck at zero".
 - If the initial weights are chosen such that the ReLU output is 0 for the entire training set, the unit will never pass through a gradient to change those weights.
 - ReLU has an **offset bias**, since its outputs will always be positive



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28

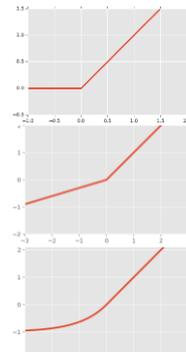
Further Extensions

- Rectified linear unit (ReLU)

$$g(a) = \max\{0, a\}$$
- Leaky ReLU

$$g(a) = \max\{\beta a, a\}$$
 - Avoids stuck-at-zero units
 - Weaker offset bias
- ELU

$$g(a) = \begin{cases} a, & x < 0 \\ e^a - 1, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$
 - No offset bias anymore
 - BUT: need to store activations



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29

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33

Initializing the Weights

- Motivation
 - The starting values of the weights can have a significant effect on the training process.
 - Weights should be chosen randomly, but in a way that the sigmoid is primarily activated in its linear region.
- Guideline (from [LeCun et al., 1998] book chapter)
 - Assuming that
 - The training set has been normalized
 - The recommended sigmoid $f(x) = 1.7159 \tanh\left(\frac{2}{3}x\right)$ is used
 the initial weights should be randomly drawn from a distribution (e.g., uniform or Normal) with mean zero and variance

$$\sigma_w^2 = \frac{1}{n_{in}}$$
 where n_{in} is the fan-in (#connections into the node).

Historical Sidenote

- Apparently, this guideline was either little known or misunderstood for a long time
 - A popular heuristic (also the standard in Torch) was to use

$$W \sim U\left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n_{in}}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_{in}}}\right]$$
 This looks almost like LeCun's rule. However...
- When sampling weights from a uniform distribution $[a, b]$
 - Keep in mind that the standard deviation is computed as

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}(b-a)^2$$
 - If we do that for the above formula, we obtain

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{n_{in}}}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{3n_{in}}$$
 ⇒ Activations & gradients will be attenuated with each layer! (bad)

Glorot Initialization

- Breakthrough results
 - In 2010, Xavier Glorot published an analysis of what went wrong in the initialization and derived a more general method for automatic initialization.
 - This new initialization massively improved results and made direct learning of deep networks possible overnight.
 - Let's look at his analysis in more detail...

X. Glorot, Y. Bengio, [Understanding the Difficulty of Training Deep Feedforward Neural Networks](#), AISTATS 2010.

Analysis

- Variance of neuron activations
 - Suppose we have an input X with n components and a linear neuron with random weights W that spits out a number Y .
 - What is the variance of Y ?

$$Y = W_1 X_1 + W_2 X_2 + \dots + W_n X_n$$
 - If inputs and outputs have both mean 0, the variance is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(W_i X_i) &= E[X_i]^2 \text{Var}(W_i) + E[W_i]^2 \text{Var}(X_i) + \text{Var}(W_i) \text{Var}(X_i) \\ &= \text{Var}(W_i) \text{Var}(X_i) \end{aligned}$$
 - If the X_i and W_i are all i.i.d, then

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \text{Var}(W_1 X_1 + W_2 X_2 + \dots + W_n X_n) = n \text{Var}(W_i) \text{Var}(X_i)$$
 - ⇒ The variance of the output is the variance of the input, but scaled by $n \text{Var}(W_i)$.

Analysis (cont'd)

- Variance of neuron activations
 - if we want the variance of the input and output of a unit to be the same, then $n \text{Var}(W_i)$ should be 1. This means

$$\text{Var}(W_i) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n_{in}}$$
 - If we do the same for the backpropagated gradient, we get

$$\text{Var}(W_i) = \frac{1}{n_{out}}$$
 - As a compromise, Glorot & Bengio proposed to use

$$\text{Var}(W) = \frac{2}{n_{in} + n_{out}}$$
 - ⇒ Randomly sample the weights with this variance. That's it.

Sidenote

- When sampling weights from a uniform distribution $[a, b]$
 - Again keep in mind that the standard deviation is computed as

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}(b-a)^2$$
 - Glorot initialization with uniform distribution

$$W \sim U\left[-\frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{n_{in} + n_{out}}}, \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{n_{in} + n_{out}}}\right]$$

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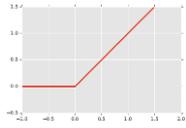
Extension to ReLU

- Important for learning deep models
 - Rectified Linear Units (ReLU)

$$g(a) = \max\{0, a\}$$
 - Effect: gradient is propagated with a constant factor

$$\frac{\partial g(a)}{\partial a} = \begin{cases} 1, & a > 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
- We can also improve them with proper initialization
 - However, the Glorot derivation was based on tanh units, linearity assumption around zero does not hold for ReLU.
 - He et al. made the derivations, derived to use instead

$$\text{Var}(W) = \frac{2}{n_{\text{in}}}$$



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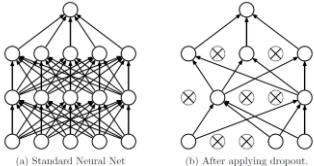
Batch Normalization [Ioffe & Szegedy '14]

- Motivation
 - Optimization works best if all inputs of a layer are normalized.
- Idea
 - Introduce intermediate layer that centers the activations of the previous layer per minibatch.
 - I.e., perform transformations on all activations and undo those transformations when backpropagating gradients
 - Complication: centering + normalization also needs to be done at test time, but minibatches are no longer available at that point.
 - Learn the normalization parameters to compensate for the expected bias of the previous layer (usually a simple moving average)
- Effect
 - Much improved convergence (but parameter values are important!)
 - Widely used in practice

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Dropout [Srivastava, Hinton '12]



- Idea
 - Randomly switch off units during training.
 - Change network architecture for each data point, effectively training many different variants of the network.
 - When applying the trained network, multiply activations with the probability that the unit was set to zero.

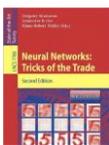
⇒ Greatly improved performance

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References and Further Reading

- More information on many practical tricks can be found in Chapter 1 of the book



G. Montavon, G. B. Orr, K.-R. Müller (Eds.)
Neural Networks: Tricks of the Trade
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Yann LeCun, Leon Bottou, Genevieve B. Orr, Klaus-Robert Müller
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