Introduction to Deep Learning



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Regularization

Introduction

- In machine learning, target is to make an algorithm performs well not only on training data but also on new data
- Many strategies exist to reduce test error at the cost of training error
- Any modification we make to a learning algorithm that is intended to reduce its generalization error but not its training error
- Objectives
 - To encode prior knowledge
 - Constraints and penalties are designed to express generic preference for simpler model

Regularization in DL

- In DL regularization works by trading increased bias for reduced variance
- Consider the following scenario
 - Excluded the true data generating process
 - Underfitting, inducing bias
 - Matched the true data generating process
 - Desired one
 - Included the generating process but also many other generating process
 - Overfitting, variance dominates
 - Goal of regularizer is to take an model overfit zone to desired zone

Norm penalties

- Most of the regularization approaches are based on limiting the capacity of the model
- Objective function becomes $\tilde{J}(\theta; X, y) = J(\theta; X, y) + \alpha \Omega(\theta)$
 - α Hyperparameter denotes relative contribution
 - Minimization of \tilde{J} implies minimization of J
 - Ω penalizes only the weight of affine transform
 - Bias remain unregularized
 - Regularizing bias may lead to underfitting

- Weights are closer to origin as $\Omega(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$
 - Also known as ridge regression or Tikhonov regression
- Objective function $\tilde{J}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w} + J(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$

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- Assuming quadratic nature of curve in the neighborhood of
 w* = arg min J(w)
 - J(w) unregularized cost
 - Perfect scenario for linear regression with MSE

Jacobian & Hessian

- Derivative of a function having single input and single output $-\frac{dy}{dx}$
- Derivative of function having vector input and vector output that is, $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$
 - Jacobian $\mathbf{J} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ of f defined as $J_{i,j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x})_i$
- Second derivative is also required sometime
 - For example, $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} f$
 - If second derivative is 0, then there is no curvature
- Hessian matrix $H(f)(x)_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} f(x)$

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- Hessian matrix $H(f)(x)_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} f(x)$
 - Jacobian of gradient
 - Symmetric

Directional derivative

• The directional derivative of a scalar function $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ along a vector $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ is given by

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h}$$

• If f is differentiable at point x then

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

Taylor series expansion

• A real valued function differentiable at point x_0 can be expressed as

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{f'(x_0)}{1!}(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(x_0)}{3!}(x - x_0)^3 + \cdots$$

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• When input is a vector

$$f(x) \approx f(x^{(0)}) + (x - x^{(0)})^{\mathsf{T}}g + \frac{1}{2}(x - x^{(0)})^{\mathsf{T}}H(x - x^{(0)})$$

• g — gradient at $x^{(0)}$, H — Hessian at $x^{(0)}$

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- g g gradient at $x^{(0)}$, H Hessian at $x^{(0)}$
- If ϵ is the learning rate, then $f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \epsilon \mathbf{g}) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) \epsilon \mathbf{g}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{g} + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \mathbf{g}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{g}$

Quadratic approximation

- Let w* = arg minw J(w) be optimum weights for minimal unregularized cost
- If the objective function is quadratic then

$$\hat{J}(\theta) = J(\mathbf{w}^*) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^*)^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^*)$$

- H is the Hessian matrix of J with respect to w at w*
- No first order term as w* is minimum
- H is positive semidefinite
- Minimum of \hat{J} occurs when $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}\hat{J}(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^*) = \mathbf{0}$
- With weight decay we have

$$\alpha \tilde{\mathbf{w}} + \mathbf{H}(\tilde{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{w}^*) = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow (\mathbf{H} + \alpha \mathbf{I})\tilde{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{w}^* \Rightarrow \tilde{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{H} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{w}^*$$

Quadratic approximation (contd)

- As $\alpha \to 0$, regularized solution $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}$ approaches to \mathbf{w}^*
- As $\alpha \to \infty$
 - *H* is symmetric, therefore $H = Q\Lambda Q^T$. Now we have

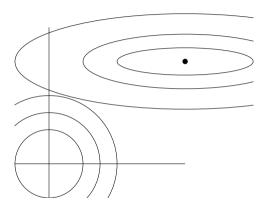
$$\tilde{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{Q}\Lambda\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}} + \alpha\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{Q}\Lambda\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^{*}$$

$$= [\mathbf{Q}(\Lambda + \alpha\mathbf{I})\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}]^{-1}\mathbf{Q}\Lambda\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^{*}$$

$$= \mathbf{Q}(\Lambda + \alpha\mathbf{I})^{-1}\Lambda\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^{*}$$

- Weight decay rescale w* along the eigen vector of H
 - Component of \mathbf{w}^* that is aligned to i-th eigen vector, will be rescaled by a factor of $\frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_i + \alpha}$
 - $\lambda_i \gg \alpha$ regularization effect is small

L² Norm



Linear regression

- For linear regression cost function is $(Xw y)^T(Xw y)$
- Using L^2 regularization we have $(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} \mathbf{y})^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} \mathbf{y}) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$

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- Solution for with weight decay $\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{X} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{y}$

L¹ regularization

- Formally it is defined as $\Omega(\theta) = \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \sum_i |w_i|$
- Regularized objective function will be $\tilde{J}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \alpha ||\mathbf{w}||_1 + J(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$

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- The gradient will be $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \tilde{J}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \alpha \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$
 - Gradient does not scale linearly compared to L2 regularization
- Taylor series expansion with approximation provides $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \hat{J}(\mathbf{w}) = H(\mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^*)$
- Simplification can be made by assuming H to be diagonal
 - Apply PCA on the input dataset

L¹ regularization

- Quadratic approximation of L^1 regularization objective function becomes $\hat{J}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = J((\mathbf{w}^*; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) + \sum_i \left[\frac{1}{2}H_{i,i}(\mathbf{w}_i \mathbf{w}_i^*)^2 + \alpha |\mathbf{w}_i|\right]$
- So, analytical solution in each dimension will be $w_i = \text{sign}(w_i^*) \max \left\{ |w_i^*| \frac{\alpha}{H_{i,i}}, 0 \right\}$
- Consider the situation when $w_i^* > 0$
 - If $w_i^* \leq \frac{\alpha}{H_{ij}}$, optimal value for w_i will be 0 under regularization
 - If $\mathbf{w}_i^* > \frac{\alpha'}{H_{i,i}}$, \mathbf{w}_i moves towards 0 with a distance equal to $\frac{\alpha}{H_{i,i}}$

Constrained optimization

Cost function regularized by norm penalty is given by

$$\tilde{J}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) + \alpha \Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

• Let us assume f(x) needs to be optimized under a set of equality constraints $g^{(i)}(x) = 0$ and inequality constraints $h^{(j)}(x) \le 0$, then generalized Lagrangian is then defined as

$$L(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} g^{(i)}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i} \alpha_{j} h^{(j)}(\mathbf{x})$$

If there exists a solution then

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \max_{\mathbf{\lambda}} \max_{\alpha \geq 0} L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\lambda}, \alpha) = \min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

• This can be solved by $\nabla_{\mathbf{x},\lambda,\alpha} L(\mathbf{x},\lambda,\alpha) = 0$

Constraint optimization (contd.)

• Suppose $\Omega(\theta) < k$ needs to be satisfied. Then regularization equation becomes

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \alpha; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) + \alpha(\Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathbf{k})$$

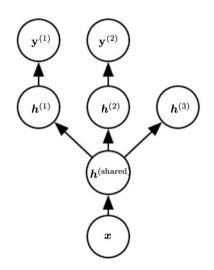
• Solution to the constrained problem

$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} \max_{\alpha > 0} L(\theta, \alpha)$$

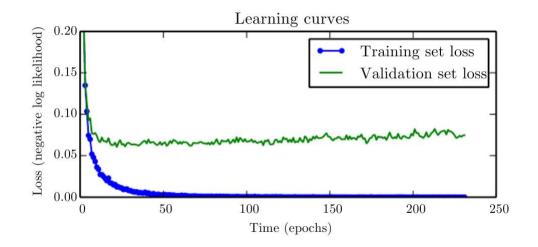
Dataset augmentation

- If data are limited, fake data can be added to training set
 - Computer vision problem
 - Speech recognition
- Easiest for classification problem
- Very effective in object recognition problem
 - Translating
 - Rotating
 - Scaling
 - Need to be careful for 'b' and 'd' or '6' and '9'
- Injecting noise to input data can be viewed as data augmentation

Multitask learning



Early stopping



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Early stopping approach

- Initialize the parameters
- Run training algorithm for n steps and update i = i + n
- Compute error on the validation set (v')
- ullet If ${f v}'$ is less than previous best, then update the same. Start step 2 again
- If v' is more than the previous best, then increment the count that stores the number of such occurrences. If the count is less than a threshold go to step 2, otherwise exit.

Early stopping (contd)

- Number of training step is a hyperparameter
 - Most hyperparameters that control model capacity have U-shaped curve
- Additional cost for this approach is to store the parameters
- Requires a validation set
 - It will have two passes
 - First pass uses only training data for update of the parameters
 - Second pass uses both training and validation data for update of the parameters
 - Possible strategies
 - Initialize the model again, retrain on all data, train for the same number of steps as obtained by early stopping in pass 1
 - Keep the parameters obtained from the first round, continue training using all data until the loss is less than the training loss at the early stopping point
- It reduces computational cost as it limits the number of iteration

• Provides regularization without any penalty

Early stopping as regularizer

- Let us assume τ training iteration, ϵ learning rate
 - $\epsilon \tau$ measures effective capacity
- We have, $\hat{J}(\theta) = J(\mathbf{w}^*) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^*)H(\mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^*)$ and $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}}\hat{J}(\mathbf{w}) = H(\mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^*)$
- Assume $\mathbf{w}^{(0)} = \mathbf{0}$

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$$\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{w}^{(\tau)} - \mathbf{w}^*) = (\mathbf{I} - \epsilon \Lambda) \mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{w}^{(\tau-1)} - \mathbf{w}^*)$$

$$\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^{(\tau)} = [\mathbf{I} - (\mathbf{I} - \epsilon \Lambda)^{\tau}] \mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^*$$

- Assuming $\mathbf{w}^{(0)} = \mathbf{0}$ and ϵ is small value such that $|1 \epsilon \lambda_i| < 1$
- From L² regularization, we have

$$\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\tilde{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{\Lambda} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^{*}$$
$$\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\tilde{\mathbf{w}} = [\mathbf{I} - (\mathbf{\Lambda} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1}\alpha]\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}^{*}$$

- Therefore we have, $(I \epsilon \Lambda)^{\tau} = (\Lambda + \alpha I)^{-1} \alpha$
- Hence, $\tau \approx \frac{1}{\epsilon \alpha}$, $\alpha \approx \frac{1}{\tau \epsilon}$

Bagging

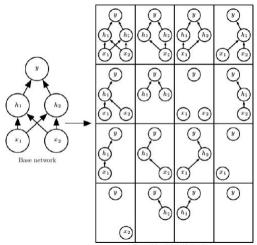
- Also known as Bootstrap aggregating
- Reduces generalization error by combining several models
- Train multiple models then vote on output for the test example
 - Also known as model averaging, ensemble method
- Suppose we have k regression model and each model makes an error ϵ_i such that $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_i) = 0$, $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_i^2) = v$, $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_i \epsilon_j) = c$
- Error made by average prediction $\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i} \epsilon_{i}$

Bagging (contd.)

• Expected mean square error

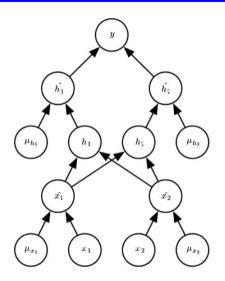
$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{k}\sum_{i}\epsilon_{i}\right)^{2}\right] = \frac{1}{k^{2}}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i}\left(\epsilon_{i}^{2} + \sum_{i \neq j}\epsilon_{i}\epsilon_{j}\right)\right] = \frac{v}{k} + \frac{k-1}{k}c$$

Dropout



Ensemble of Sub-Networks

Dropout



Adversarial training





