

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

L^2 parameter regularization

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

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- Assuming quadratic nature of curve in the neighborhood of $\mathbf{w}^* = \arg \min_{\mathbf{w}} J(\mathbf{w})$
 - $J(\mathbf{w})$ — 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, $f: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
 - Jacobian $J \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ of f defined as $J_{i,j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} f(x)_i$
- Second derivative is also required sometime
 - For example, $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} f$
 - 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

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

- If f is differentiable at point \mathbf{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

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

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- When input is a vector

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

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

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

Quadratic approximation

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

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

- 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 $\nabla_w \hat{J}(w) = H(w - w^*) = 0$
 - With weight decay we have
$$\alpha \tilde{w} + H(\tilde{w} - w^*) = 0 \Rightarrow (H + \alpha I)\tilde{w} = Hw^* \Rightarrow \tilde{w} = (H + \alpha I)^{-1}Hw^*$$

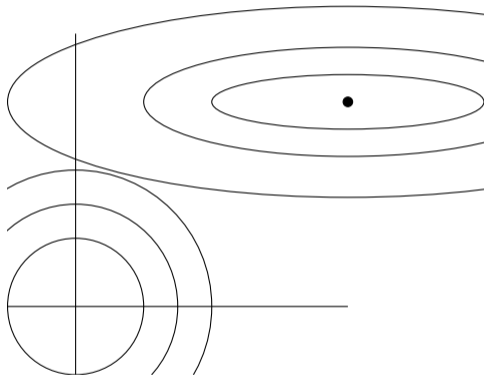
Quadratic approximation (contd)

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

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{w} &= (Q\Lambda Q^T + \alpha I)^{-1} Q\Lambda Q^T w^* \\ &= [Q(\Lambda + \alpha I)Q^T]^{-1} Q\Lambda Q^T w^* \\ &= Q(\Lambda + \alpha I)^{-1} \Lambda Q^T w^*\end{aligned}$$

- Weight decay rescale w^* along the eigen vector of H
 - Component of 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

L^2 Norm



Linear regression

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

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

L^1 regularization

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

L^1 regularization

- Formally it is defined as $\Omega(\theta) = \|w\|_1 = \sum_i |w_i|$
- Regularized objective function will be $\tilde{J}(w; X, y) = \alpha \|w\|_1 + J(w; X, y)$
- The gradient will be $\nabla_w \tilde{J}(w; X, y) = \alpha \text{sign}(w) + \nabla_w J(w; X, y)$
 - Gradient does not scale linearly compared to L^2 regularization
- Taylor series expansion with approximation provides $\nabla_w \hat{J}(w) = H(w - w^*)$
- Simplification can be made by assuming H to be diagonal
 - Apply PCA on the input dataset

L^1 regularization

- Quadratic approximation of L^1 regularization objective function becomes $\hat{J}(w; X, y) = J(w^*; X, y) + \sum_i [\frac{1}{2} H_{i,i} (w_i - w_i^*)^2 + \alpha |w_i|]$
- 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 $w_i^* \leq \frac{\alpha}{H_{i,i}}$, optimal value for w_i will be 0 under regularization
 - If $w_i^* > \frac{\alpha}{H_{i,i}}$, 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 $h^{(j)}(x) \leq 0$, then generalized Lagrangian is then defined as

$$L(x, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = f(x) + \sum_i \lambda_i g^{(i)}(x) + \sum_j \alpha_j h^{(j)}(x)$$

- If there exists a solution then

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

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

Constraint optimization (contd.)

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

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

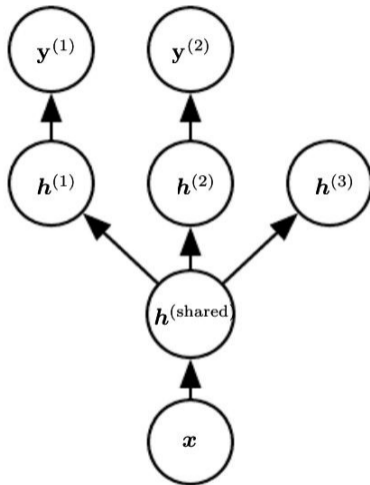
- Solution to the constrained problem

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

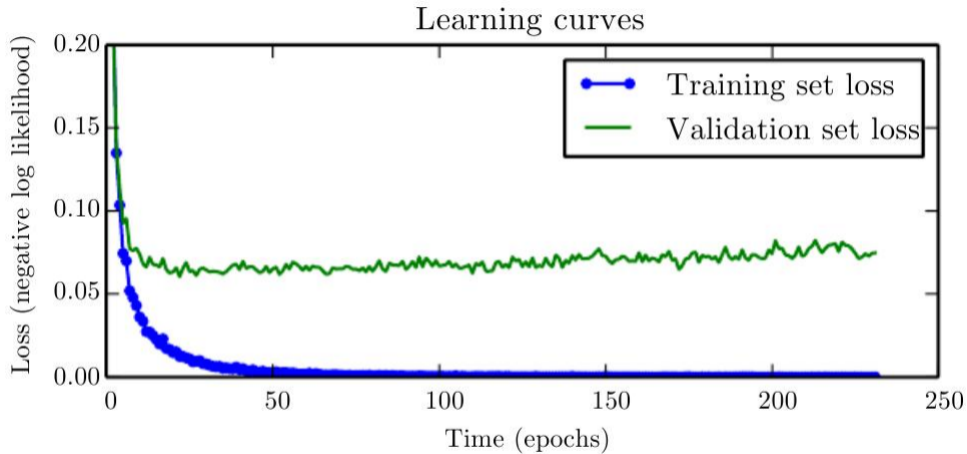
Dataset augmentation

- 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



Early stopping approach

- Initialize the parameters
- Run training algorithm for n steps and update $i = i + n$
- Compute error on the validation set (v')
- If 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, $\hat{J}(\theta) = J(w^*) + \frac{1}{2}(w - w^*)H(w - w^*)$ and $\nabla_w \hat{J}(w) = H(w - w^*)$
- Assume $w^{(0)} = 0$

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

Early stopping as regularizer (contd)

- Assuming $\mathbf{w}^{(0)} = 0$ and ϵ is small value such that $|1 - \epsilon\lambda_i| < 1$
- From L^2 regularization, we have

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

- Therefore we have, $(\mathbf{I} - \epsilon \mathbf{\Lambda})^\tau = (\mathbf{\Lambda} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1} \alpha$
- 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 $\frac{1}{k} \sum_i \epsilon_i$
- Expected mean square error

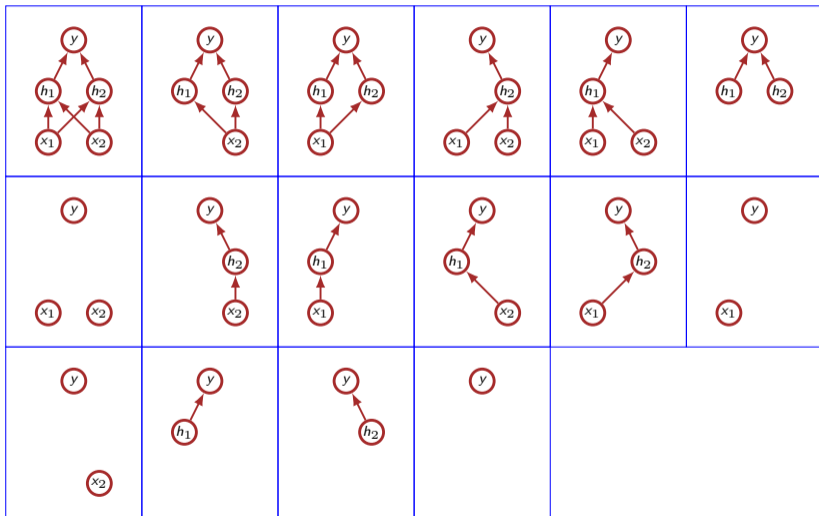
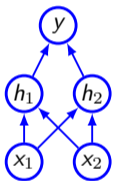
$$\mathbb{E} \left[\left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_i \epsilon_i \right)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{k^2} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_i \left(\epsilon_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} \epsilon_i \epsilon_j \right) \right] = \frac{v}{k} + \frac{k-1}{k} c$$

- If ϵ_i and ϵ_j are uncorrelated, ie. $c = 0$, then expected mse will be $\frac{v}{k}$ - Significant reduction in error
- If ϵ_i and ϵ_j are correlated, ie. $c = v$, then expected mse will be v - No change in error

Dropout

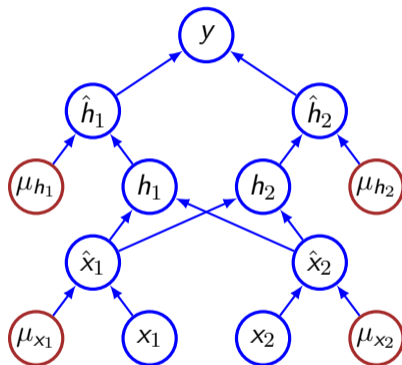
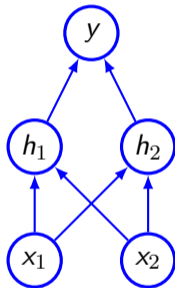
- It can be treated as a method of making bagging practical for ensembles of many large neural networks
 - Bagging is impractical with large number of models
 - Dropout is capable of handling exponentially many networks
- It trains the ensemble consisting of all subnetworks that can be formed by removing non-output units for the base network
- Removal of a node can be realized by multiplying it with 0, hence, binary mask is used
- Typically, dropout probability for input layer is low (~ 0.2). Hidden layer can have high probability (~ 0.5)
- Dropout is not used after training when making a prediction with the fit network.
- If a unit is retained with probability p during training, the outgoing weights of that unit are multiplied by p at test time

Dropout: sub-networks



Dropout

- μ_u denotes the binary mask for node u



Adversarial training

- It is expected that outcome of an example to be constant in the close vicinity of the training data
- Small change in input can lead to misclassification because linearity with high coefficient



Panda

+ .007 ×



Noise

=



Gibbon

Summary

- Goal of regularization techniques is to reduce generalization error. Large data sets help in generalization
- Increasing the number of units in hidden layer increases the model capacity. Increasing the depth helps in reducing the number of units in intermediate layers.
- Common approaches for regularization
 - Penalty based
 - Ensemble method
 - Introducing stochasticity to inputs and weights