CS 505: Introduction to Natural Language Processing

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Lecture 16 – Neural Network Tuning and Advanced Features







(Model Design + Hyperparameters) \rightarrow Model Parameters



Lecture Plan

Best Practices and Advanced Features of Neural Networks for NLP

- Training vs. Retraining
- Avoiding recomputation by loading and saving
- o Cross-Validation
- o Optimizers and Learning Rates
- Regularization: L1, L2, Dropout
- Layer/Batch Normalization
- Early Stopping
- Batch Size (and an argument for asking chatGPT)

Initializing and Training Models

Simple question: What is the difference between initializing your model and training it in the same cell, or doing it in two different cells?

<pre>device = "cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "cpu" print(f"Using {device}")</pre>	<pre>spam_ham_model = SpamModel().to(device)</pre>
print()	<pre>device = "cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "cpu"</pre>
num_epochs = 500	<pre>print(f"Using {device}") print()</pre>
<pre>spam_ham_model = SpamModel().to(device) # <<====</pre>	<pre>patience = 20 # how many epoches to wait with no improvement in</pre>
<pre>training_losses = np.zeros(num_epochs)</pre>	num epochs = 1000
<pre>val_losses = np.zeros(num_epochs)</pre>	nuil_epochs = 1000
	<pre># retraining = True</pre>
<pre>training_accuracy = np.zeros(num_epochs)</pre>	retraining = False
<pre>val_accuracy = np.zeros(num_epochs)</pre>	A contract of a man
	<pre># early_use_stopping = True use early stopping = False</pre>
<pre>loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()</pre>	use_earry_scopping = raise
<pre># optimizer = torch.optim.SGD(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=0.01)</pre>	if not retraining:
<pre># optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=0.001)</pre>	span_nam_model - spannodel().co(device) # <<
<pre>optimizer = torch.optim.Adagrad(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=0.01)</pre>	
<pre># optimizer = torch.optim.RMSprop(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=0.0</pre>	<pre>01 val_losses = np.zeros(num_epochs)</pre>
for much in both formations and all in	training accuracy = np.zeros(num epochs)
<pre>for epoch in tqdm(range(num_epochs)): # torring</pre>	val_accuracy = np.zeros(num_epochs)
# training	
<pre>spam_ham_model.train() t less = 0.0</pre>	<pre>loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()</pre>
$t_{loss} = 0.0$ t num correct = 0	<pre># optimizer = torch.optim.SGD(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=0.01)</pre>
t_hum_correct = 0	<pre># optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=0.001) optimizer = torch.optim.Adagrad(spam ham model.parameters(),lr=0.01)</pre>
for V turin botch V turin botch in over her turining dl.	# optimizer = torch.optim.RMSprop(spam ham model.parameters(), 1r=0.01)
<pre>for X_train_batch,Y_train_batch in spam_ham_training_dl: X train batch = X train batch.to(device)</pre>	" operation - corentoperantabiop(spam_nam_moder(parameters()))
<pre>Y_train_batch = Y_train_batch.to(device)</pre>	
optimizer.zero grad()	<pre>for epoch in tqdm(range(num_epochs)):</pre>
Y train hat = spam ham model(X train batch)	# training
loss = loss fn(Y train hat, Y train batch)	<pre>spam_ham_model.train() t loss = 0.0</pre>
loss.backward()	t_num_correct = 0
optimizer.step()	
t loss += loss.item()	<pre>for X_train_batch,Y_train_batch in spam_ham_training_dl:</pre>
C_105S += 10SS.Item()	<pre>X_train_batch = X_train_batch.to(device) # <<===</pre>
	Y_train_batch = Y_train_batch.to(device) # <<====

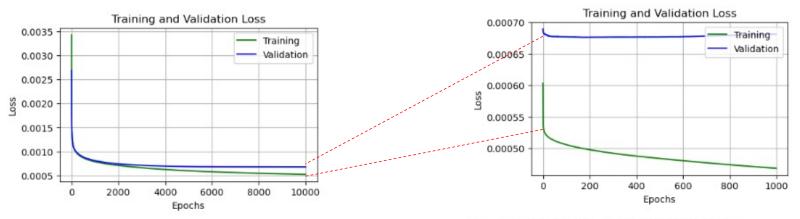
Initializing and Training Models

Simple question: What is the difference between initializing your model and training it in the same cell, or doing it in two different cells?

Answer: Nothing, as long as you always remember to run both cells for each training, especially if you change the hyperparameters!

What if you don't?

Then you will be retraining an already-trained model! Fine if that is what you intend, but easy to forget, and you will get strange results:



Training for 10,000 epochs

Retraining for 1000 more

Least Validation Loss 0.000675 found at epoch 9996.

Final Training Loss: 0.000521 Final Validation Loss: 0.000675 Least Validation Loss 0.000676 found at epoch 178.

Final Training Loss: 0.000468 Final Validation Loss: 0.000681

Initializing and Training Models

Here is a nice way to avoid confusion and have both alternatives:

```
1 # test if GPU is available
:
    2
    3 device = "cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "cpu"
    4 print(f"Using {device}")
    5 print()
    7 num epochs = 10000
    8
    9 # Normally, will create model and train it in one run
   10 # If want to retrain the model with more epoches, set next to True
   11
   12 # retrain = True
   13 retrain = False
   14
   15 if not retrain:
   16
        spam ham model = SpamModel().to(device)
   17
       train loss
                         = np.zeros(num epochs)
   18
        val loss
                         = np.zeros(num epochs)
   19
   20
         train accuracy = np.zeros(num epochs)
   21
          val accuracy = np.zeros(num epochs)
   22
   23 learning rate = 0.1
   24 learning rate = 0.01
   25 # learning rate = 0.001
   26 # learning rate = 0.0001
   27
   28 # optimizer = torch.optim.SGD(spam ham model.parameters(), lr=learning rate)
   29 # optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(spam ham model.parameters(), lr=learning rate)
   30 optimizer = torch.optim.Adagrad(spam_ham_model.parameters(),lr=learning_rate)
   31 # optimizer = torch.optim.RMSprop(spam ham model.parameters(), lr=learning rate)
```

Avoiding Redundant Computations

Try to avoid redoing the same expensive operations over and over!

We saw this with the Brown Corpus, which downloads the first time to your local disk, and thereafter checks to see if you already have it:

```
In [2]: 1 import numpy as np
2 import nltk
3 # First time you will need to download the corpus:
4 # Run the following and download the book collection
5
6 #nltk.download_shell()
7
8
```

In [3]:
1 from nltk.corpus import brown
2 nltk.download('brown')
3
[nltk_data] Downloading package brown to
[nltk_data] /Users/waynesnyder/nltk_data...
[nltk_data] Package brown is already up-to-date!

Out[3]: True

Avoiding Redundant Computations

You can do this with any data structure, such as tensors or numpy arrays.

Here is a way to do that with HW 04, Problem 2:

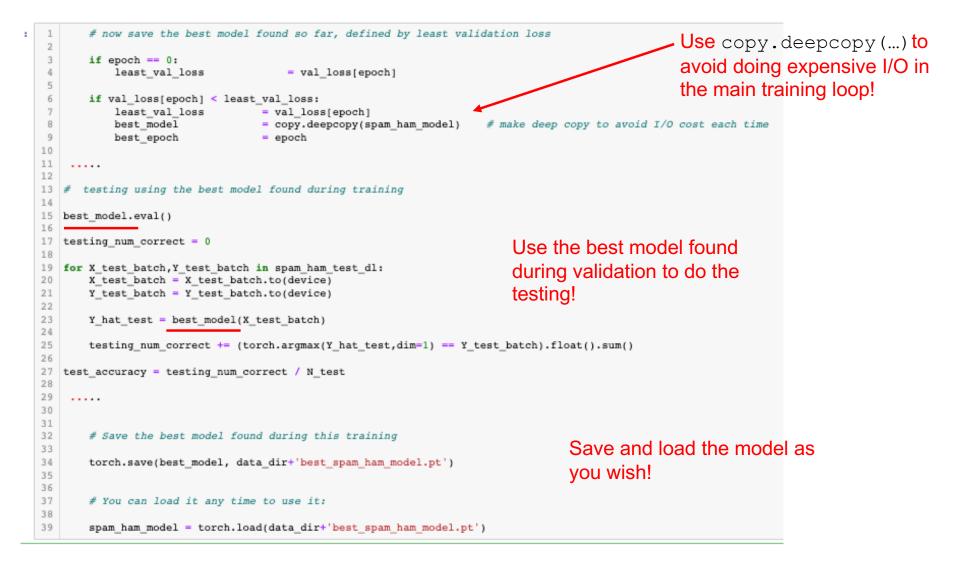
```
def load glove model(file):
   . . .
import os
if os.path.exists(data dir+'texts vector.pt'):
   texts vector = torch.load(data dir+'texts vector.pt')
else:
    glove_model = load_glove_model(data_dir+'glove.6B/glove.6B.100d.txt')
    sp = spacy.load('en core web sm')
    emails raw = pd.read csv(data dir+'data pa5/enron spam ham.csv').to numpy()
    texts_vector = []
    for text,label in tqdm(emails raw):
        text vector = torch.tensor([0]*100,dtype=torch.float32) #size of the word vector
        document=sp(text.lower())
        count = 0
        for word in document:
            if str(word) in glove_model:
                str word = str(word)
                text vector = text vector + glove model[str word]
                count += 1
        if count>0:
            text_vector /= count
        texts vector.append((text vector,torch.tensor(label,dtype=torch.int64)))
    torch.save(texts_vector,data_dir+'texts_vector.pt')
```

Thereafter, if you already have the file, just read it in using torch.load(...)

The first time, do the expensive computation, and save it to disk using torch.save(....)

Avoiding Redundant Computations

And of course you can save already-trained models, and not have to retrain them to use them later; again, we did this in HW 04 Problem 2:



Cross-Validation

Cross-Validation is a dynamic alternative to choosing a fixed validation set:

- Split the data into a training set and a testing test, and hold out the testing set as usual;
- Now split the training set into K parts ("folds") of approximately equal size;
- Training occurs in cycles of K epochs:



- At the conclusion of cycle of K epochs, take the mean of the loss and accuracy metrics;
- Report performance metrics for these means every K epochs.

Cross-Validation

Cross-Validation and Static Validation have symmetric advantages and disadvantages:

Static validation is

- Simpler and faster;
- Very dependent on quality of split, especially for small or unbalanced data sets:
 - May overfit on that specific set;
 - Performance metrics may be skewed.

Cross-validation is

- More complex to implement, less efficient;
- Uses entire training set for validation, so exact split is less critical;
 - Less possibility of overfitting;
 - More accurate performance metrics
- Does not well as work for time-series data sets (e.g., stock prices, weather)

Punchline: Static validation is fine for large datasets (always shuffle!!); Cross-Validation should be used for small or unbalanced data sets.

Cross-Validation

In Pytorch, you can simply create K different DataLoaders, and DIY as just described; sklearn also has a popular library KFold to make it simple but inefficient:

```
from sklearn.model_selection import KFold
from torch.utils.data import DataLoader, Subset
```

```
dataset = MyDataset()
k_fold = KFold(n_splits=5)
for train indices, val indices in k fold.split(dataset):
```

```
# Using Subset to create datasets for training and validation
train_subset = Subset(dataset, train_indices)
val subset = Subset(dataset, val indices)
```

```
train_loader = DataLoader(train_subset, batch_size=32, shuffle=True)
val loader = DataLoader(val subset, batch size=32)
```

Now you can use train_loader and val_loader in your training and validation loops

Optimizers: SGD, Adam, Adagram, RMSProp...

SGD (Stochastic Gradient Descent):

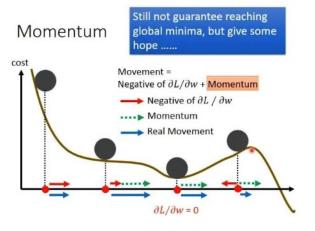
 Classic optimizer that updates the weights by taking a step in the direction of the negative gradient of the loss function

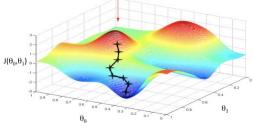
$$w_{
m new} = w_{
m old} - \eta imes
abla_w {
m Loss}$$

Can set various parameters such as

o Learning Rate Schedules with

- Step decay: reduce the learning rate by some factor each epoch
- Exponential decay: Decrease the learning rate exponentially over the epochs;
- 1/t decay: reduce the Ir as the inverse of the square root of the number of epochs;
- Momentum:
 - Add a fraction (between 0 and 1) of the previous weight update to the current update
 - Helps accelerate in the relevant direction and dampen c
- Weight decay:
 - Equivalent to L2 regularization (later in the lecture)





Optimizers: SGD, Adam, Adagram, RMSProp...

SGD (Stochastic Gradient Descent):

 Classic optimizer that updates the weights by taking a step in the direction of the negative gradient of the loss function

 $w_{
m new} = w_{
m old} - \eta imes
abla_w {
m Loss}$

Can set various p

Adagrad (Adaptive Gradient Algorithm):

 Stored a running sum of the squares of past gradients and divides the learning rate by the square root of the running sum:

$$w_{ ext{new}} = w_{ ext{old}} - rac{\eta}{\sqrt{s_t + \epsilon}} imes
abla_w ext{Loss} \qquad s_t = s_{t-1} +
abla_w ext{Loss} \odot
abla_w ext{Loss}$$

Pro: Adapts to size of gradients. Con: Can adapt too much and stop learning!

RMSProp (Root Mean Square Propagation):

 More effective version of Adagrad, using a moving average of squared past gradients:

 $s_t = eta s_{t-1} + (1-eta)
abla_w \mathrm{Loss} \odot
abla_w \mathrm{Loss}$

RMSProp tends to work better for very deep neural networks

Optimizers: SGD, Adam, Adagram, RMSProp...

Adam (Adaptive Moment Estimation):

Improves on Adagrad and RMSprob by combining both approaches with regard to past gradients:

- Keep a moving weighted average of both the past gradients and the squared past gradients (called first and second moments), and adjust the learning rate accordingly.
- Corrects for initial bias in the moving averages, so tends to have more stable starts than other algorithms.

Punchlines:

- SGD has many parameters which can be tuned for excellent performance, and may lead to better performance.
- Adam is the default optimizer for many tasks because it tends to "work well out of the box" without a lot of tuning.

Regularization attempts to prevent overfitting by preventing models from becoming too complex. There is a large variety of ways to accomplish this:

• Adding noise:

- Produce random fluctuations in the data through augmentation;
- The network generalizes instead of focusing on the details.
- L1 Regularization (Lasso Regression):
 - Adds a penalty proportional to the absolute value of the coefficients:

$$\lambda \sum |w_i|$$

• This prevents the parameters from becoming too large, limiting their range.

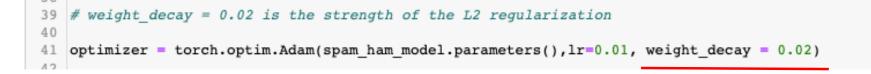
• L2 Regularization (Ridge Regression):

• Adds a penalty proportional to the square of the magnitude of the coefficients:

$$\lambda \sum w_i^2$$

L2 is generally preferred, since L1 can force some parameters to 0.

L2 Regularization is accomplished in Pytorch using the weight_decay parameter in the optimizer:

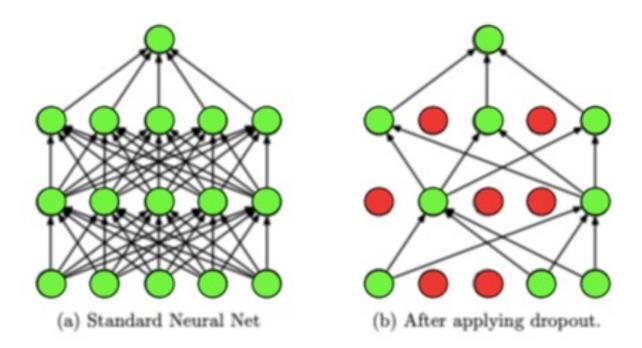


The effect is to add the following penalty term to the loss L calculated during training:

$$L' = L + \frac{\text{weight_decay}}{2} \sum w^2 \qquad \text{Parameters of model}$$

(L1 regularization is not implemented in Pytorch and you would have to DIY.)

- Dropout
 - During training, parameters are set to 0 with some probability p
 - This prevents parameters from co-evolving and effectively memorizing the data
 - The knowledge implicit in the data is generalized throughout the network and not localized in specific parameters



Note: Due to the random nature of dropout, different neurons will be dropped out for each data sample.

Dropout in Pytorch is easily accomplished with a dropout layer build into the network geometry:

```
class SpamModel(torch.nn.Module):
:
   1
          def init (self):
   2
              super(SpamModel, self). init ()
   3
              self.linear1 = torch.nn.Linear(100,15)
   4
   5
              self.activation1 = torch.nn.ReLU()
              self.linear2 = torch.nn.Linear(15,2)
   6
   7
              self.dropout = nn.Dropout(0.4)
                                                       # dropout neurons with probability 0.4
   8
          def forward(self, x):
   9
              x = self.linear1(x)
  10
  11
             x = self.dropout(x)
              x = self.activation1(x)
  12
  13
              x = self.linear2(x)
              return x
  14
```

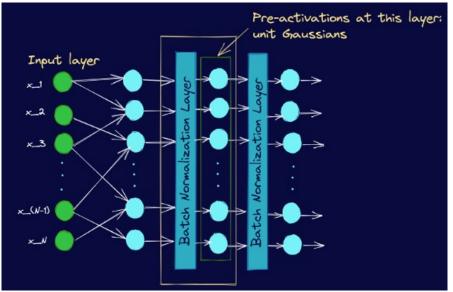
Layer and Batch Normalization

Layer Normalization: For each output value from a layer:

- Compute its mean μ and standard deviation σ ;
- Normalize to mean 0 and standard deviation 1; and then
- Scale and shift it by two parameters learned during training.
 This is done after every individual data sample.

$$y_i = \gamma \left(rac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sqrt{\sigma_i^2 + \epsilon}}
ight) + eta$$

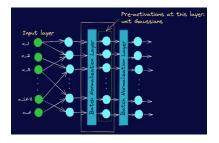
Batch Normalization is the same process, but applied to all layer outputs for a whole mini-batch.



Normalization is also considered to be a form of regularization, because it limits the range of parameters.

Layer and Batch Normalization

Why normalize layer and batch outputs?



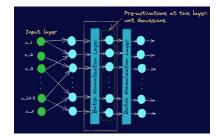
- Helps gradient flow by avoiding disappearing or exploding gradients;
- Acts as a regularizer to avoid overfitting by introducing "useful noise" into the parameters;
- Smooths the gradient landscape:
 - Allows for higher learning rates and faster convergence;
 - Makes weight initialization strategy less critical.

Normalization is particularly effective with deep networks.

Layer and Batch Normalization

Batch Normalization in Pytorch:

return x



Early Stopping

Your goal is to find the best possible model for your task, typically measured by

- Minimum loss score
- Maximum accuracy score
- Optimal value of some other metric (specificity, F1, etc.)

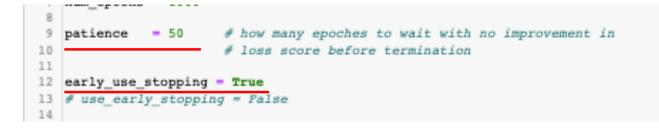
The consensus view is that "it depends" but as a first approximation, loss is better than accuracy.

There is no reason to overfit by continuing past this point, and there are simple ways to implement early stopping:

- Stop when you reach some threshold of loss;
- Define a parameter patience, and stop training if your model does not improve (i.e., the loss does not decrease) after patience epochs. Typical values are 20 – 50 epochs.

Early Stopping

Early Stopping in Pytorch:



```
87
        # now save the best model found so far, defined by least validation loss
 88
 89
        if epoch == 0:
 90
            least val loss
                                       val loss[epoch]
 91
            num epoches no improvement = 0
 92
93
        if val loss[epoch] < least val loss:
            least val loss
                                    val loss[epoch]
94
 95
            best model
                                    copy.deepcopy(spam ham model)
                                                                       # make deep copy to avoid I/O cost each time
96
            best epoch
                                    - epoch
97
            num epoches no improvement = 0
98
        else:
99
            num_epoches_no_improvement += 1
100
101
        last epoch = epoch
                                     # save if early stopping
102
103
        # early stopping
104
105
        if use early stopping and num epoches no improvement --- patience:
            print(f"Early stopping at epoch {last epoch}, no improvement in validation loss after {patience} epoches."
106
107
            break
108
```

Effect of Batch Size

You can't do better in most cases than asking chatGPT to do the research and summarize findings on all these matters. Maybe it meditates on its own creation? Here is its excellent summary of the effect of batch size on training:

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What is the effect of batch size on training a neural network?

The batch size, which is the number of training examples used in one forward-backward pass (one iteration), has a significant impact on the training dynamics and the performance of a neural network. Here are the effects and considerations associated with different batch sizes:

1. Computational Efficiency:

- Larger batches can benefit from parallel processing capabilities of modern GPUs, leading to faster computation per sample.
- Smaller batches might not fully utilize the computational resources, especially on powerful GPUs.
- 2. Memory Usage:
 - Larger batches consume more memory on the GPU, which might limit the model size or the maximum feasible batch size.
 - * Smaller batches are more memory-efficient.

Effect of Batch Size

3. Convergence Speed:

- Larger batches provide a more accurate estimate of the gradient. Fewer iterations per epoch may lead to faster convergence in terms of epochs but not necessarily in terms of wall-clock time.
- Smaller batches introduce noise in the gradient estimate, which can have a regularizing effect and might help escape from local minima or saddle points. However, it might also lead to more oscillatory convergence trajectories.
- 4. Generalization:
 - There's empirical evidence suggesting that smaller batches can lead to models that generalize better, possibly due to the aforementioned noise acting as a form of implicit regularization.
 - Larger batches may converge to sharper minima, which might not generalize as well to the validation or test set. This has led to the idea that the noise in gradient estimates from smaller batches can be beneficial.
- 5. Stability and Learning Rate:
 - Larger batches often allow for larger learning rates as the gradient estimate is more accurate. However, the optimal learning rate typically grows sublinearly with the batch size.
 - * Smaller batches might require smaller learning rates to maintain stable training.