

This lecture covers

- Gradient descent
- Backpropagation
- Improved optimization: momentum, RMS-Prop, Adam
- Initialization
- Pragmatics of training neural networks
- Hyperparameter tuning

# Gradient Descent

- If the domains are continuous, **Gradient descent** moves each variable downhill; proportional to the gradient of the heuristic function in that direction.  
The value of variable  $X_i$  goes from  $v_i$  to

- If the domains are continuous, **Gradient descent** moves each variable downhill; proportional to the gradient of the heuristic function in that direction.

The value of variable  $X_i$  goes from  $v_i$  to  $v_i - \eta \frac{\partial h}{\partial X_i}$ .  
 $\eta$  is the step size.

- If the domains are continuous, **Gradient descent** moves each variable downhill; proportional to the gradient of the heuristic function in that direction.

The value of variable  $X_i$  goes from  $v_i$  to  $v_i - \eta \frac{\partial h}{\partial X_i}$ .  
 $\eta$  is the step size.

- Neural networks do gradient descent with many parameters (variables) to minimize an error on a dataset. Some large language models have over  $10^{12}$  parameters.

Two properties of differentiation are used in backpropagation:

- **Linear rule:** the derivative of a linear function,  $aw + b$ , is given by:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w}(aw + b) = a$$

- **Chain rule:** if  $g$  is a function of  $w$  and function  $f$ , which does not depend on  $w$ , is applied to  $g(w)$ , then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w} f(g(w)) = f'(g(w)) * \frac{\partial}{\partial w} g(w)$$

where  $f'$  is the derivative of  $f$ .

## Use of chain rule

A network represents  $f(e) = f_n(f_{n-1}(\dots f_2(f_1(x_e))))$ , where example  $e$  has features  $x_e$ . Suppose  $v_i = f_i(v_{i-1})$  and  $v_0 = x_e$ . Consider weight  $w$  used in the definition of  $f_j$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \text{error}(f(e)) \\ &= \text{error}'(v_n) * \frac{\partial}{\partial w} f_n(v_{n-1}) \\ &= \text{error}'(v_n) * \frac{\partial}{\partial w} f_n(f_{n-1}(v_{n-2})) \\ &= \text{error}'(v_n) * f_n'(v_{n-1}) * \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (f_{n-1}(v_{n-2})) \\ &= \text{error}'(v_n) * f_n'(v_{n-1}) * f_{n-1}'(v_{n-2}) * \dots * \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (f_j(v_{j-1})) \end{aligned}$$

where  $f_i'$  is the derivative of  $f_i$  with respect to its inputs.

# Backpropagation

- Backpropagation implements (stochastic) gradient descent for all weights.
- Two passes:
  - ▶ Prediction: given inputs compute outputs of each layer
  - ▶ Back propagate: Going backwards,

$$error'(v_n) * \prod_{i=0}^k f'_{n-i}(v_{n-i-1})$$

for  $k$  starting from 0 are computed and passed to the lower layers. Weights in each layer are updated.

*functions* is the list of functions that compose the neural network.

- 1: **repeat**
- 2:     *batch* := random sample of *batch\_size* examples
- 3:     **for each** example *e* in *batch* **do**
- 4:         **for each** input unit *i* **do**  $values[i] := X_i(e)$
- 5:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from lowest to highest **do**
- 6:              $values := fun.output(values)$
- 7:         **for each** output unit *j* **do**  
            $error[j] := \phi_o(values[j]) - Y_s[j]$
- 8:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from highest to lowest **do**
- 9:              $error := fun.Backprop(error)$
- 10:        **for each** *fun* in *functions* that contains weights **do**
- 11:             $fun.update()$
- 12: **until** termination



# Neural-network learner

*functions* is the list of functions that compose the neural network.

- 1: **repeat**
- 2:     *batch* := random sample of *batch\_size* examples
- 3:     **for each** example *e* in *batch* **do**
- 4:         **for each** input unit *i* **do** *values*[*i*] :=  $X_i(e)$
- 5:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from lowest to highest **do**
- 6:             *values* := *fun.output*(*values*)
- 7:         **for each** output unit *j* **do**  
            $error[j] := \phi_o(values[j]) - Y_s[j]$
- 8:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from highest to lowest **do**
- 9:              $error := fun.Backprop(error)$
- 10:        **for each** *fun* in *functions* that contains weights **do**
- 11:            *fun.update*()
- 12: **until** termination

*functions* is the list of functions that compose the neural network.

- 1: **repeat**
- 2:     *batch* := random sample of *batch\_size* examples
- 3:     **for each** example *e* in *batch* **do**
- 4:         **for each** input unit *i* **do**  $values[i] := X_i(e)$
- 5:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from lowest to highest **do**
- 6:              $values := fun.output(values)$
- 7:         **for each** output unit *j* **do**  
            $error[j] := \phi_o(values[j]) - Y_s[j]$
- 8:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from highest to lowest **do**
- 9:              $error := fun.Backprop(error)$
- 10:        **for each** *fun* in *functions* that contains weights **do**
- 11:             $fun.update()$
- 12: **until** termination

*functions* is the list of functions that compose the neural network.

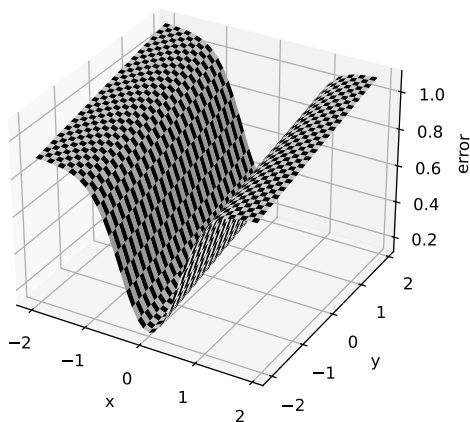
- 1: **repeat**
- 2:     *batch* := random sample of *batch\_size* examples
- 3:     **for each** example *e* in *batch* **do**
- 4:         **for each** input unit *i* **do**  $values[i] := X_i(e)$
- 5:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from lowest to highest **do**
- 6:              $values := fun.output(values)$
- 7:         **for each** output unit *j* **do**  
            $error[j] := \phi_o(values[j]) - Y_s[j]$
- 8:         **for each** *fun* in *functions* from highest to lowest **do**
- 9:              $error := fun.Backprop(error)$
- 10:        **for each** *fun* in *functions* that contains weights **do**
- 11:             $fun.update()$
- 12: **until** termination

# Dense linear function

```
1: class Dense( $n_i, n_o$ )           ▷  $n_i$  is # inputs,  $n_o$  is #outputs
2:   for each  $0 \leq i \leq n_i$  and each  $0 \leq j < n_o$  do
3:      $d[i, j] := 0$ ;  $w[i, j] :=$  a random value
4:   def output(in)               ▷ in is array with length  $n_i$ 
5:     for each  $j$  do  $out[j] := w[n_i, j] + \sum_i in[i] * w[i, j]$ 
6:     return out
7:   def Backprop(error)         ▷ error is array with length  $n_o$ 
8:     for each  $i, j$  do  $d[i, j] := d[i, j] + in[i] * error[j]$ 
9:     for each  $i$  do  $ierror[i] := \sum_j w[i, j] * error[j]$ 
10:    return ierror
11:   def update()                 ▷ update weights.  $\eta$  is learning rate.
12:     for each  $i, j$  do
13:        $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \eta / batch\_size * d[i, j]$ 
14:        $d[i, j] := 0$ 
```

# Problems for (stochastic) gradient descent

Error as a function of parameters  $x$  and  $y$ :



Want different step sizes for  $x$  and  $y$ .

With many parameters, treat each parameter independently.

# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.

# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size

# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.



# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.
- For updates are in opposite direction, the step size

# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.
- For updates are in opposite direction, the step size decreases.

# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.
- For updates are in opposite direction, the step size decreases.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:
  - 1: **def** *update*() ▷ update all weights
  - 2:     **for each** *i, j* **do**
  - 3:          $v[i, j] := \alpha * v[i, j] - \eta / \text{batch\_size} * d[i, j]$
  - 4:          $w[i, j] := w[i, j] + v[i, j]$
  - 5:          $d[i, j] := 0.$

Hyperparameter  $\alpha$ , with  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$ , specifies how much of the momentum should be used.

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.
- For updates are in opposite direction, the step size decreases.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:
  - 1: **def** *update*() ▷ update all weights
  - 2:     **for each** *i, j* **do**
  - 3:          $v[i, j] := \alpha * v[i, j] - \eta / \text{batch\_size} * d[i, j]$
  - 4:          $w[i, j] := w[i, j] + v[i, j]$
  - 5:          $d[i, j] := 0.$

Hyperparameter  $\alpha$ , with  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$ , specifies how much of the momentum should be used.

- The SDG update method is equivalent to this with

# Momentum

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.
- For updates are in opposite direction, the step size decreases.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:
  - 1: **def** *update*() ▷ update all weights
  - 2:     **for each** *i, j* **do**
  - 3:          $v[i, j] := \alpha * v[i, j] - \eta / \text{batch\_size} * d[i, j]$
  - 4:          $w[i, j] := w[i, j] + v[i, j]$
  - 5:          $d[i, j] := 0.$

Hyperparameter  $\alpha$ , with  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$ , specifies how much of the momentum should be used.

- The SDG update method is equivalent to this with  $\alpha = 0$ .

- The **momentum** for a parameter acts like a velocity of the step size. The standard stochastic gradient descent update acts like an acceleration.
- For updates are in the same direction, the step size increases.
- For updates are in opposite direction, the step size decreases.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:
  - 1: **def** *update*() ▷ update all weights
  - 2:     **for each** *i, j* **do**
  - 3:          $v[i, j] := \alpha * v[i, j] - \eta / \text{batch\_size} * d[i, j]$
  - 4:          $w[i, j] := w[i, j] + v[i, j]$
  - 5:          $d[i, j] := 0.$

Hyperparameter  $\alpha$ , with  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$ , specifies how much of the momentum should be used.

- The SDG update method is equivalent to this with  $\alpha = 0$ .
- What happens in the canyon?

# RMS-Prop

- In **RMS-Prop** the magnitude of the change in a weight depends on how its gradient compares to its historic value.
- It maintains  $r$ , a rolling average of the square of the gradient.

- In **RMS-Prop** the magnitude of the change in a weight depends on how its gradient compares to its historic value.
- It maintains  $r$ , a rolling average of the square of the gradient.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:

```
1: def update() ▷ update weights
2:   for each  $i, j$  do
3:      $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$ 
4:      $r[i, j] := \rho * r[i, j] + (1 - \rho) * g^2$ 
5:      $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * g}{\sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}}$ 
6:      $d[i, j] := 0$  .
```

- $\epsilon$  ( $\approx 10^{-7}$ ) is used to ensure numerical stability.



- In **RMS-Prop** the magnitude of the change in a weight depends on how its gradient compares to its historic value.
- It maintains  $r$ , a rolling average of the square of the gradient.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:

```
1: def update() ▷ update weights
2:   for each  $i, j$  do
3:      $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$ 
4:      $r[i, j] := \rho * r[i, j] + (1 - \rho) * g^2$ 
5:      $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * g}{\sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}}$ 
6:      $d[i, j] := 0$  .
```

- $\epsilon$  ( $\approx 10^{-7}$ ) is used to ensure numerical stability.

- In **RMS-Prop** the magnitude of the change in a weight depends on how its gradient compares to its historic value.
- It maintains  $r$ , a rolling average of the square of the gradient.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:

```
1: def update() ▷ update weights
2:   for each  $i, j$  do
3:      $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$ 
4:      $r[i, j] := \rho * r[i, j] + (1 - \rho) * g^2$ 
5:      $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * g}{\sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}}$ 
6:      $d[i, j] := 0$  .
```

- $\epsilon$  ( $\approx 10^{-7}$ ) is used to ensure numerical stability.
- When  $r[i, j] \approx g^2 \gg \epsilon$ , the ratio  $g / \sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}$  is

- In **RMS-Prop** the magnitude of the change in a weight depends on how its gradient compares to its historic value.
- It maintains  $r$ , a rolling average of the square of the gradient.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:

```
1: def update() ▷ update weights
2:   for each  $i, j$  do
3:      $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$ 
4:      $r[i, j] := \rho * r[i, j] + (1 - \rho) * g^2$ 
5:      $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * g}{\sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}}$ 
6:      $d[i, j] := 0$  .
```

- $\epsilon$  ( $\approx 10^{-7}$ ) is used to ensure numerical stability.
- When  $r[i, j] \approx g^2 \gg \epsilon$ , the ratio  $g / \sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}$  is approximately 1 or  $-1$ , depending on the sign of  $g$ .
- When  $g^2 \ll r[i, j]$ ,

- In **RMS-Prop** the magnitude of the change in a weight depends on how its gradient compares to its historic value.
- It maintains  $r$ , a rolling average of the square of the gradient.
- For a dense layer, the update becomes:

```
1: def update() ▷ update weights
2:   for each  $i, j$  do
3:      $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$ 
4:      $r[i, j] := \rho * r[i, j] + (1 - \rho) * g^2$ 
5:      $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * g}{\sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}}$ 
6:      $d[i, j] := 0$  .
```

- $\epsilon$  ( $\approx 10^{-7}$ ) is used to ensure numerical stability.
- When  $r[i, j] \approx g^2 \gg \epsilon$ , the ratio  $g / \sqrt{r[i, j] + \epsilon}$  is approximately 1 or  $-1$ , depending on the sign of  $g$ .
- When  $g^2 \ll r[i, j]$ , the step size is smaller than  $\eta$ .

- **Adam**, for “adaptive moments”, uses both momentum and the square of the gradient.

- **Adam**, for “adaptive moments”, uses both momentum and the square of the gradient.
- It corrects to account for the parameters being initialized to 0.

- **Adam**, for “adaptive moments”, uses both momentum and the square of the gradient.
- It corrects to account for the parameters being initialized to 0.
  - 1: **def** *update*() ▷ update weights
  - 2:      $t := t + 1$  ▷  $t$  is initially 0
  - 3:     **for each**  $i, j$  **do**
  - 4:          $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$
  - 5:          $s[i, j] := \beta_1 * s[i, j] + (1 - \beta_1) * g$
  - 6:          $r[i, j] := \beta_2 * r[i, j] + (1 - \beta_2) * g^2$
  - 7:          $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * s[i, j] / (1 - \beta_1^t)}{\sqrt{r[i, j] / (1 - \beta_2^t)} + \epsilon}$
  - 8:          $d[i, j] := 0.$
- $s$  acts as momentum (initially 0)
- $r$  is the rolling average of the square (initially 0).

- **Adam**, for “adaptive moments”, uses both momentum and the square of the gradient.
- It corrects to account for the parameters being initialized to 0.
  - 1: **def** *update*() ▷ update weights
  - 2:      $t := t + 1$  ▷  $t$  is initially 0
  - 3:     **for each**  $i, j$  **do**
  - 4:          $g := d[i, j] / \text{batch\_size}$
  - 5:          $s[i, j] := \beta_1 * s[i, j] + (1 - \beta_1) * g$
  - 6:          $r[i, j] := \beta_2 * r[i, j] + (1 - \beta_2) * g^2$
  - 7:          $w[i, j] := w[i, j] - \frac{\eta * s[i, j] / (1 - \beta_1^t)}{\sqrt{r[i, j] / (1 - \beta_2^t)} + \epsilon}$
  - 8:          $d[i, j] := 0.$
- $s$  acts as momentum (initially 0)
- $r$  is the rolling average of the square (initially 0).
- What happens at first step (when  $t$  becomes 1)?



- Real-valued variables are normalized by subtracting the mean, and dividing by the standard deviation.

- Real-valued variables are normalized by subtracting the mean, and dividing by the standard deviation.

- Real-valued variables are normalized by subtracting the mean, and dividing by the standard deviation.
- In a **one-hot encoding**, categorical input variable  $X$  with domain  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  is represented as  $k$  input **indicator variables**,  $X_1, \dots, X_k$ . An input example with  $X = v_j$  is represented with  $X_j = 1$  and every other  $X_{j'} = 0$ .

- Real-valued variables are normalized by subtracting the mean, and dividing by the standard deviation.
- In a **one-hot encoding**, categorical input variable  $X$  with domain  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  is represented as  $k$  input **indicator variables**,  $X_1, \dots, X_k$ . An input example with  $X = v_j$  is represented with  $X_j = 1$  and every other  $X_{j'} = 0$ .
- What happens if the weights in the hidden layers are all set to the same value?

- Real-valued variables are normalized by subtracting the mean, and dividing by the standard deviation.
- In a **one-hot encoding**, categorical input variable  $X$  with domain  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  is represented as  $k$  input **indicator variables**,  $X_1, \dots, X_k$ . An input example with  $X = v_j$  is represented with  $X_j = 1$  and every other  $X_{j'} = 0$ .
- What happens if the weights in the hidden layers are all set to the same value?
- For the output units, non-bias weights can be set to zero and the bias weights to the mean for regression or inverse-sigmoid of the empirical probability for classification. (Why?)

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates



# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates **overfitting**.)

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates **overfitting**.)  
In this case you should

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates **overfitting**.)  
In this case you should simplify the model.

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates **overfitting**.)  
In this case you should simplify the model.
- Then carry out **hyperparameter tuning**.

# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates **overfitting**.)  
In this case you should simplify the model.
- Then carry out **hyperparameter tuning**.
- If the performance isn't adequate, try to collect more data!



# Pragmatics of Training Neural Networks

- Make sure it is learning something: The error on the training set should beat a naive baseline corresponding to the loss being evaluated.
- If the performance on the training set is poor, change the model.  
(Poor performance on the training set indicates **under-fitting**.)
- Test the error on the validation set. If the validation error does not improve as the algorithm proceeds, it means the learning is not generalizing, and it is fitting to noise.  
(Poor performance on the validation set indicates **overfitting**.)  
In this case you should simplify the model.
- Then carry out **hyperparameter tuning**.
- If the performance isn't adequate, try to collect more data!
- Data augmentation can be a way to get more data, e.g., adding noise, scaling, translating or rotating images. (What can go wrong?)

# Hyperparameter Tuning

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

# Hyperparameter Tuning

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)

# Hyperparameter Tuning

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)
- number of layers

# Hyperparameter Tuning

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)
- number of layers
- width of each layer

# Hyperparameter Tuning

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)
- number of layers
- width of each layer
- number of epochs, to allow for early stopping

# Hyperparameter Tuning

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)
- number of layers
- width of each layer
- number of epochs, to allow for early stopping
- learning rate

The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)
- number of layers
- width of each layer
- number of epochs, to allow for early stopping
- learning rate
- batch size



The hyperparameters that can be tuned include:

- the algorithm (a decision tree or gradient-boosted trees may be more appropriate than a neural network)
- number of layers
- width of each layer
- number of epochs, to allow for early stopping
- learning rate
- batch size
- $L1$  and  $L2$  regularization parameters.

- **dropout** involves randomly dropping some units during training.

- **dropout** involves randomly dropping some units during training.
- Ignoring a unit is equivalent to temporarily setting its output to zero.

- **dropout** involves randomly dropping some units during training.
- Ignoring a unit is equivalent to temporarily setting its output to zero.
- Dropout is controlled by a parameter *rate*, which specifies the proportion of values that are zeroed.

- **dropout** involves randomly dropping some units during training.
- Ignoring a unit is equivalent to temporarily setting its output to zero.
- Dropout is controlled by a parameter *rate*, which specifies the proportion of values that are zeroed.
- During evaluation, dropout is not used.

- **dropout** involves randomly dropping some units during training.
- Ignoring a unit is equivalent to temporarily setting its output to zero.
- Dropout is controlled by a parameter *rate*, which specifies the proportion of values that are zeroed.
- During evaluation, dropout is not used.
- To account for missing units, the prediction needs to be scaled by

- **dropout** involves randomly dropping some units during training.
- Ignoring a unit is equivalent to temporarily setting its output to zero.
- Dropout is controlled by a parameter *rate*, which specifies the proportion of values that are zeroed.
- During evaluation, dropout is not used.
- To account for missing units, the prediction needs to be scaled by  $1/(1 - \text{rate})$ .