# On Regularizing Deep Learning using Mutual Information

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## **Motivation**

### Deep neural networks (DNNs) are over-parameterized

*Over-parameterization*: redundant parameterization (deeper or wider); even more parameters than training points.

Why do we use over-parametrized DNNs?

- Empirically good performance.
- Easier to train (Hinton et al., 2012; Denil et al., 2013).



Figure 1: source: Figure 1 & 2 in Canziani et al. (2016).

Interesting observations on over-parameterized DNNs:

- 1. High capacity: achieve 0 training errors even with random data.
- 2. Do not overfit on real datasets as # params increasing.
- 3. Tend to converge to simple solutions.



### Over-parameterization and the generalization puzzle

Why gradient based optimizers can learn an over-parameterized DNN with small generalization error?

• Is it consistent with the bias-variance tradeoff?

test error = estimator variance + squared estimator bias + noise.

• PAC learning with VC-dimension cannot explain this:

$$\begin{split} \text{generalization error} &\leq \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{\text{complexity}(\mathcal{H}_{\mathrm{DNN}})}{\sqrt{\#\text{points}}}\Big),\\ \text{VC-dimension}(\mathcal{H}_{\mathrm{DNN}}) &= \mathcal{O}(\#\text{params} \cdot \log(\#\text{params})) \end{split}$$

The reasons:

- Loose bound: usually #points is smaller than #params.
- Universal bound: it has to hold for all hypotheses in  $\mathcal{H}_{\rm DNN}.$

### Need to understand the regularization in deep learning

- Over-parameterization eliminates bad local minima (Soudry and Hoffer, 2017; Kawaguchi, 2016; Lu and Kawaguchi, 2017; Li et al., 2017; Haeffele and Vidal, 2017; Wu et al., 2018).
- 2. SGD biases towards low-complexity solutions:
  - Flat minima conjecture (Keskar et al., 2016; Dinh et al., 2017).
  - Information bottleneck (Tishby et al., 2000): minimal sufficient activation (Tishby and Zaslavsky, 2015), minimal sufficient weights (Achille and Soatto, 2017).



## **Mutual Information**

### Mutual information: a math concept from Shannon

Mutual information measures statistical dependency

$$\begin{split} I(X;Y) &:= \mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p(x,y)} \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)} \\ &= H(X,Y) - H(X|Y) - H(Y|X) \\ &= H(X) - H(X|Y) \\ H(X) &= I(X;X) = \text{ expected amount of information in} \end{split}$$



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If we decompose the joint distribution as p(x, y) = p(x)q(y|x), then the mutual information can be writen as a functional of p and q:

$$I(X;Y) \equiv I(p,q) := \mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p(x,y)} \log \frac{q(y|x)}{q(y)} = \mathbb{E}_x D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(y|x) || q(y)),$$
$$q(y) := \sum_x p(x)q(y|x).$$

**Issue**: it is computationally difficult since q(y|x) and q(y) are coupled.

Lemma (Cover and Thomas, 2012, Theorem 10.8.1)

$$I(X;Y) = \max_{\phi(x|y) \in \Delta} \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p(x,y)} \log \frac{\phi(x|y)}{p(x)}}_{\tilde{I}(p,q,\phi)}$$
$$I(X;Y) = \min_{m(y) \in \Delta} \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{x,y \sim p(x,y)} \log \frac{q(y|x)}{m(y)}}_{\hat{I}(p,q,m)}.$$

Learning as lossy compression: a rate-distortion perspective on Bayesian neural networks A brief introduction:

• Bayesians describe data Y through the latent variable model

$$p(Y,w) = p(Y|w)p(w) = p(w)\prod_{i} p(y_i|w),$$

assuming the likelihood p(Y|w) and the prior p(w) are given.

• Bayesians make predictions according to

$$p(y_{\text{new}}|Y) = \int p(y_{\text{new}}|w)p(w|Y)dw,$$

where p(w|Y) is the posterior.

Vanilla Bayesian neural networks (BNNs) by Hinton and Van Camp (1993); Graves (2011); Blundell et al. (2015):

• Given data S, approximate the posterior p(w|S) by a Gaussian variational distribution  $q(w|\theta^*)$  with mean-field form:

$$\begin{split} \theta^* &= \arg\min_{\theta} D_{\mathrm{KL}} \big( q(w|\theta) \| p(w|S) \big) \\ &= \arg\min_{\theta} \int q(w|\theta) \log \frac{q(w|\theta)}{p(w)p(S|w)} dw \\ &= \arg\min_{\theta} - \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)} [\log p(S|w)] + D_{\mathrm{KL}} (q(w|\theta) \| p(w)). \end{split}$$

• Fix the prior p(w) as Gaussian, Laplace, mixture of Gaussians or spike-and-slab distribution.

To induce a lossy compression of  $X \to \hat{X}$ , when p(x) is given:

$$\min_{q(\hat{x}|x)\in\Delta} I(p,q)$$
  
s.t.  $\sum_{\substack{x,\hat{x} \\ D(p,q)}} p(x)q(\hat{x}|x) \ d(x,\hat{x}) \leq \text{ const.}$ 

Plugging variational characterization and fixing the Lagrange multiplier  $\beta$ :

$$\min_{q(\hat{x}|x)\in\Delta}\min_{m(\hat{x})\in\Delta}\hat{l}(p,q,m)+\beta D(p,q).$$

The optimization problem of the rate-distortion tradeoff:

$$\min_{q(\hat{x}|x)\in\Delta}\min_{m(\hat{x})\in\Delta}\hat{l}(p,q,m)+\beta \ D(p,q).$$

Alternating projection algorithm (aka Blahut-Arimoto algorithm) Provided an initial  $q_t(\hat{x}|x)$  at t = 0. At iteration t > 0, taking the following steps:

$$q_t(\hat{x}|x) = \frac{m_t(\hat{x})e^{-\beta d(x,\hat{x})}}{\sum_{\hat{x}'}m_t(\hat{x}')e^{-\beta d(x,\hat{x})}},$$
$$m_{t+1}(\hat{x}) = \sum_x p(x)q_t(\hat{x}|x).$$

Then, the algorithm converges to a global minimum.

### Rate-distortion perspective on supervised learning

Supervised learning as a lossy compression for the dataset S:

• We define the joint distribution by the graphical model  $S \rightarrow w$ :

$$p(S,w) = q(w \mid S)p^*(S).$$

• As a comparison, Bayesians use a different decomposition:

$$P(S,w) = p(S \mid w)p(w).$$

• We make predictions according to

$$q(y \mid x, S) := \int p(y \mid x, w)q(w \mid S)dw.$$



The lossy-compression induced objective:

$$\begin{split} &\min_{q(w|S)\in\Delta} \left[ I(q(w|S), p^*(S)) \right] \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{E}_{p^*(S)} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|S)} d(w, S) \leq D \\ &I(q(w|S), p^*(S)) \equiv I(w; S) := \mathbb{E}_{p^*(S)} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|S)} \left[ \log \frac{q(w|S)}{q(w)} \right], \\ &d(w, S) := -\sum_{i=1}^n \log p(y_i|x_i, w). \end{split}$$

Applying variational characterization, we obtain

$$I(w;S) \equiv \min_{m(w)\in\Delta} I(q,m) := \mathbb{E}_{p^*(S)} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|S)} \big[ \log \frac{q(w|S)}{m(w)} \big].$$

**Intuition**: I(w; S) is a regularizer, which forces w to contain less information about a particular S. Less memorization implies better generalization.

1. We use a variational approximation  $q(w|\theta)$  for q(w|S) by solving  $\theta(S) = \underset{\theta}{\arg\min} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(w|\theta) || q(w|S))$ 

$$= \arg\min_{\theta} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(w|\theta)||m(w)) + \beta \mathbb{E}_{q(w|\theta)}[d(w,S)].$$

2.  $m(w) \approx \sum_{S} p^{*}(S)q(w|\theta(S)) \approx \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} q(w|\theta(B_{k})) =: \tilde{m}(w),$ where  $B_{k}$  is a bootstrap sample of size  $n_{b}$  drawn from the empirical distribution  $p_{S}(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta(x_{i} = x) \delta(y_{i} = y).$ 

### β-BNN

- Input: S (dataset), β (coefficient), K (#mixture components), n<sub>b</sub> (size of a bootstrap sample).
- 2: Initialize:  $\Theta = \{\theta_k^{(0)} = (0, I)\}_{k=1}^K$ ;  $\tilde{m}(w) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} q(w|\theta)$ .
- 3: for all  $t = 1, \ldots, T$  do
- 4: Draw K bootstrap samples  $\{B_k\}_{k=1}^K$  of size  $n_b$  from  $p_S(x, y)$ .
- 5: **for all** k = 1, ..., K **do**
- 6:  $\theta_k^{(t)} \leftarrow \theta(B_k).$

7: 
$$\Theta = \Theta \cup \{\theta_k^{(t)}\} \setminus \{\theta_k^{(t-1)}\}$$

8: **if** do online update **or** k = K **then** 

9: 
$$\tilde{m}(w) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{\theta \in \Theta} q(w|\theta).$$

10: **Output**:  $\Theta$ .

Baselines:

- Vanilla BNN: Blundell et al. (2015).
- Fixed-prior  $\beta$ -BNN:  $\tilde{m}(w) \equiv \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ .

Algorithm	$\beta^*$	Accuracy
Vanilla BNN	$\frac{1}{n}$	90.05
Fixed-prior $\beta$ -BNN	$10^{-10}$	95.86
$\beta$ -BNN	$10^{-5}$	96.08
Online $\beta$ -BNN	$10^{-3}$	97.12

Test accuracy over training epochs:



A bias-variance interpretation:

$$\begin{split} I_{f}(w;S) &= \mathbb{E}_{p^{*}(S)} \int dw \ q(w|S) \ f\Big(\frac{q(w)}{q(w|S)}\Big) & \text{f-mutual-information} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p^{*}(S)} \int dw \ q(w|S) \Big(\frac{q(w)}{q(w|S)} - 1\Big)^{2} & \text{if } f(t) = (t-1)^{2} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p^{*}(S)} \mathbb{V}_{q(w|S)} \Big[\frac{q(w)}{q(w|S)}\Big] & \text{since } \mathbb{E}_{q(w|S)} \Big[\frac{q(w)}{q(w|S)}\Big] = 1 \end{split}$$

A **PAC learning interpretation** by Xu and Raginsky (2017) if the loss is  $\sigma$ -subgaussian:

$$\mathsf{gen-error} = \mathbb{E}_{p^*(S)} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|S)} \Big[ d(w, p^*) - d(w, S) \Big] \leq \sqrt{\frac{2\sigma^2}{n}} I(w; S).$$

Moreover, I(w; S) is upper bounded by sharpness: Flat minimum  $\Rightarrow$  small I(w; S), but not vice versa. One plausible objective for meta learning is to learn a weight generator q(w|S) such that it is a good approximation for all posteriors:

$$\begin{split} \min_{q} \quad & \mathbb{E}_{p^{*}(S)} D_{\mathrm{KL}} \Big( q(w|S) \| p(w|S) \Big) \\ & = -H(p^{*}(S)) + D_{\mathrm{KL}} \Big( q(w) \| p(w) \Big) \\ & + \mathbb{E}_{p^{*}(S)} \mathbb{E}_{q(w|S)} \Big[ d(w,S) \Big] + I(w;S). \end{split}$$

This is almost identical to the objective for supervised learning.

# Variational information distillation for knowledge transfer

Issue: over-parameterized models are often trained with huge data.

- Medical applications is constrained by the number of patients of a particular disease.
- Semantic segmentation requires pixel-level annotation.
- A potential **solution**: transfer learning.
  - *Finetuning*: initialize with the weights of the source network.
  - *Teacher-student knowledge transfer* by Ba and Caruana (2014); Hinton et al. (2015).

#### There is no commonly agreed theory behind knowledge transfer.



Figure 2: FitNet by Romero et al. (2014).

Figure 3: Attention transfer by Zagoruyko and Komodakis (2016).

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s(1)

Denote by **t** and **s** the activations of the teacher and the student respectively. Intuitively,  $l(\mathbf{t}; \mathbf{s})$  is maximized when  $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{s}$ .



Knowledge transfer as a regularization:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{task}} - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \lambda_k I(\mathbf{t}^{(k)}, \mathbf{s}^{(k)}),$$

Recall the variational characterization:

$$I(p;q) = \max_{\phi(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{s})} \tilde{I}(p,q,\phi)$$

Instead of searching for all valid  $\phi$ , we focus on diagonal Gaussians:

$$-\log \phi(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{s}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \sigma_n + \frac{(t_n - \mu_n(\mathbf{s}))^2}{2\sigma_n^2} + \text{constant},$$

### Noisy channel decoding theorem

Given a noisy channel from X to Y with transition q(y|x), the channel capacity is given by

$$C = \max_{\substack{p(x) \in \Delta}} I(p, q)$$
$$= \max_{p(x) \in \Delta} \max_{\phi(x|y) \in \Delta} \tilde{I}(p, q, \phi).$$

### Dataset: Caltech-UCSD Birds 200.

Networks: teacher (ResNet-34), student (ResNet-18).

data per class	≈29.95	20	10	5
Student	37.22	24.33	12.00	7.09
Finetuned	76.69	71.00	59.25	44.07
LwF	55.18	42.13	26.23	14.27
FitNet	66.63	56.63	46.68	31.04
AT	54.62	41.44	28.90	16.55
NST	55.01	41.87	23.76	15.63
VID	73.25	67.20	56.86	46.21

Dataset: MIT-67.

Networks: teacher (ResNet-34), student (VGG-9).

data per class	$\approx$ 80	50	25	10
Student	53.58	43.96	29.70	15.97
Finetuned	65.97	58.51	51.72	39.63
LwF	60.90	52.01	41.57	27.76
FitNet	70.90	64.70	54.48	40.82
AT	60.90	52.16	42.76	25.60
NST	55.60	46.04	35.22	21.64
VID	72.01	67.01	59.33	45.90

Two-stage transition: before epoch 51, only  $-\mathcal{L}_{S}$  increases significantly,  $\mathbb{E}_{t,s}[\log \phi(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{s})]$  barely changes, so does  $I(\mathbf{t};\mathbf{s})$ ; the first stage ends at epoch 60; at the second stage,  $I(\mathbf{t};\mathbf{s})$  slowly increases, which also drives  $-\mathcal{L}_{S}$  increasing.



Dataset: CIFAR-10.

Networks: teacher (WRN-40-2), student (MLP).

Network	MLP-4096	MLP-2048	MLP-1024
Student	70.60	70.78	70.90
KD	70.42	70.53	70.79
FitNet	76.02	74.08	72.91
VID	85.18	83.47	78.57
Urban et al. (2017)		74.32	
Lin et al. (2015)		78.62	

# **Questions?**

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