

Lec9 - Neural Networks CS 783 - Visual Recognition

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5th February 2019



Contents



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- Overview: DL for Categorization
- 3 Learning Perceptrons
 - The Perceptron Learning algorithm

- Limitations
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 - Sigmoidal Activation
 - Back-propagation

Outline



3 Learning Perceptrons

- Earlier Representations
- 2 Overview: DL for Categorization
- 4 Multi Layer Perceptron



How to Improve Representation further

While spatial pyramid representation was performing well, however, the results for object recognition was around 65% accuracies on one of the easy datasets i.e. Caltech 101.





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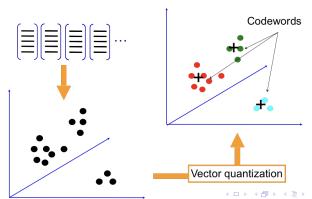
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One of the ways to improve the accuracy was to consider the problem of vector quantization and the loss due to that.



Kernel Codebook Encoding

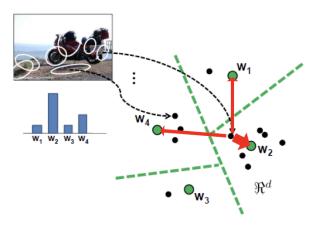


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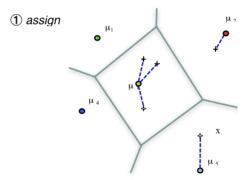
It consisted of the following steps. Initially the centroids $\{\mu_i, i = 1, ..., N\}$ is estimated from the set of sift feature vectors $X = \{x_i, j = 1, ..., T\}$.

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Next for each feature vector we associate the nearest neighbor centroid obtained by $NN(x_t) = argmin_{\mu_i} ||x_t - \mu_i||$



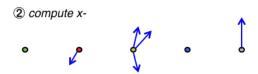


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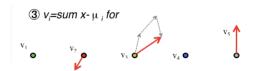


Next for centroid the difference is aggregated around each dimension of the SIFT vector from the set of centroids mapped to the centroid. each feature vector we associate the nearest neighbor centroid obtained by $v_i = \sum_{x_t:NN(x_t)=\mu_i} x_t - \mu_i$





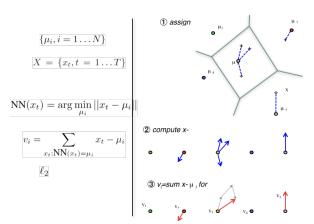
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These are the steps for VLAD summarized as follows



VLAD



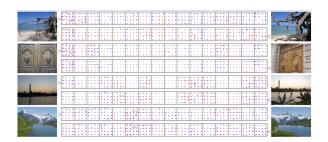
This can be understood by visualizing the variance for the case where there are 16 centroids and we consider the variance for these 16 centroids. This bag of words representation will have a length of $16+16\times128$ as its length for the case of 16 centroids

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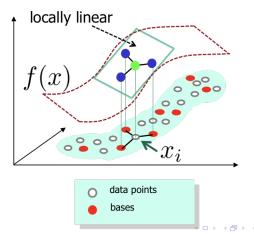
Locally linear coordinate representation

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The formulation for loally linear coordinate coding is given as follows





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Coding for x, to obtain its sparse representation a

Step 1 – ensure locality: find the K nearest bases

$$[\phi_j]_{j\in J(x)}$$

Step 2 – ensure low coding error:

$$\min_{a} \left\| x - \sum_{j \in J(x)} a_{i,j} \phi_{j} \right\|^{2}, \quad \text{s.t. } \sum_{j \in J(x)} a_{i,j} = 1$$



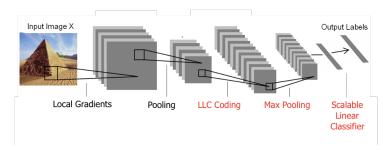
Locally linear coordinate Overview

The pipeline for the whole framework is presented as follows. This appears to be very similar to the conventional deep learning framework that consists of convolution and pooling operations



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Outline



- (3) Learning Perceptron
- 4 Multi Layer Perceptron
- 2 Overview: DL for Categorization

AlexNet



The field was revolutionized in December 2012 with the following seminal work that was presented in NIPS 2012. The work showed that object categorization could be solved with much higher accuracy than was previously thought possible.

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ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks

Alex Krizhevsky
University of Toronto
kriz@cs.utoronto.ca

Ilya Sutskever University of Toronto ilya@cs.utoronto.ca Geoffrey E. Hinton University of Toronto hinton@cs.utoronto.ca

AlexNet Architecture

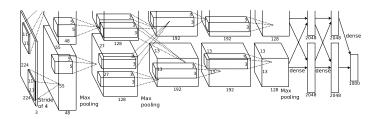


The architecture adopted by Alex Krizhevsky et al is as shown in the figure below. This architecture consists of various convolution and pooling layers with the parameters being learned. As can be observed these are conceptually similar to the architectures being followed by researchers before deep learning approach was introduced.

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AlexNet Results



The results obtained by AlexNet were far superior to those by earlier methods in the ImageNet 2010 dataset



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Model	Top-1	Top-5
Sparse coding [2]	47.1%	28.2%
SIFT + FVs [24]	45.7%	25.7%
CNN	37.5%	17.0%

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Model	Top-1 (val)	Top-5 (val)	Top-5 (test)
SIFT + FVs[7]			26.2%
1 CNN	40.7%	18.2%	
5 CNNs	38.1%	16.4%	16.4%
1 CNN*	39.0%	16.6%	_
7 CNNs*	36.7%	15.4%	15.3%



AlexNet Qualitative Results

The results from the network were also qualitatively very good with even the errors being understandable





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Figure 4: (Left) Eight ILSVRC-2010 test images and the five labels considered most probable by our model. The correct label is written under each image, and the probability assigned to the correct label is also shown with a red bar (if it happens to be in the top 5). (Right) Five ILSVRC-2010 test images in the first column. The remaining columns show the six training images that produce feature vectors in the last hidden layer with the smallest Euclidean distance from the feature vector for the test image.

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A Perceptron

• Consider a model of a linear perceptron that receives an input vector \mathbf{x} of dimension n i.e. x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . The output for such a model can be obtained through the following equation

$$o = f(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i + \theta)$$
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- The bias parameter θ can be included in the weight vector by assuming a constant input x_0 with value 1 allowing the use of n+1 weights. In general we therefore consider an input vector $\mathbf x$ that is multiplied by a parameter vector $\mathbf w$
- The function f() is a function that assigns for instance 0 for negative argument and 1 for positive argument





Illustration of a Perceptron

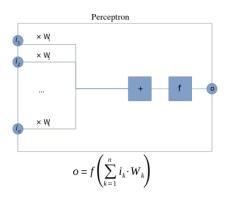


Figure: Perceptron





The question then arises as to how to learn the perceptron weights





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- A naive algorithm would involve generating various random perceptron weight vectors and checking them till we find a weight vector that separates the training samples.

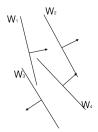


Figure: Naive algorithm for training a perceptron that consists of just sampling random weight vectors





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- Update the weights according to the following equation:

$$w_j(t+1) = w_j(t) + \eta(d-y)x \tag{2}$$

where

d is the desired output,

t is the iteration number, and

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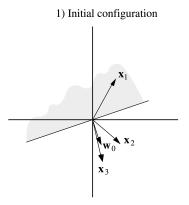
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Repeat steps 2 and 3 until the iteration error is less than a user-specified error threshold or a predetermined number of iterations have been completed.





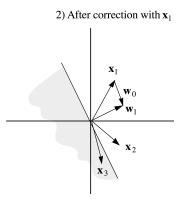
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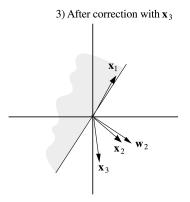
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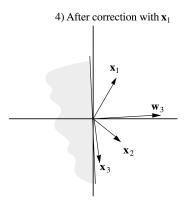
Step 3





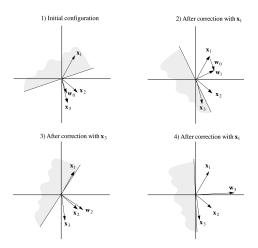


Step 4











Linear Classifier



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Next Steps

 The perceptron of optimal stability together with the kernel trick provide the conceptual foundations of the support vector machine.
 We next consider the model of Multi-layer Perceptrons



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Multi-layer Perceptron

 The multi-layer perceptron addressed the drawbacks and limitations of the perceptron.

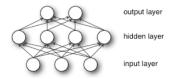


Figure: Multi-Layer Perceptron

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- Though it is termed Multi-layer perceptron, it does not use the perceptron algorithm for learning

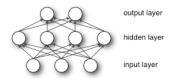


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- The multi-layer perceptron addressed the drawbacks and limitations of the perceptron.
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- For a single perceptron the method used is the delta learning rule and the method used for training the whole network is the backpropagation algorithm



Figure: Multi-Layer Perceptron



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- Suppose we have to guess the price of two items A and B from a shopkeeper who just gives the total price
- We do this by buying multiple items of A and B and summing the error from the total price. We then adjust the price based on the total error that we observe. This updation based on error is called the delta learning rule





Consider that we go to a shop and buy some object and observe the error in obtaining the price per sample



Figure: Example for delta learning rule



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Your initial guess - each = 100 Total = 300

Shop-keeper charges = 500

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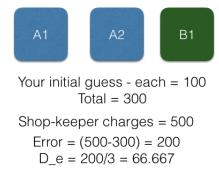


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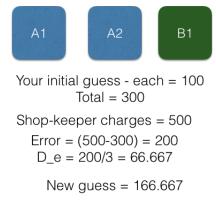


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The delta learning rule - formulation

Obtain error E given by

$$E = \sum_{j} \frac{1}{2} (t_j - y_j)^2 \tag{3}$$

where t_j is the desired output and y_j is the predicted output for sample j



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$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial \left(\sum_{j} \frac{1}{2} (t_{j} - y_{j})^{2}\right)}{\partial w_{ji}} \tag{4}$$



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where t_i is the desired output and y_i is the predicted output for sample *i*

• The contribution of the weight vector w_{ii} to the error can be used to update the weight vector. This is obtained by taking the gradient of the error E with respect to the weight vector.

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial \left(\sum_{j} \frac{1}{2} (t_j - y_j)^2\right)}{\partial w_{ji}} \tag{4}$$

The equation 4 can be solved using chain rule as

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial \left(\sum_{j} \frac{1}{2} (t_{j} - y_{j})^{2}\right)}{\partial y_{j}} \frac{\partial y_{j}}{\partial w_{ji}} \frac{\partial y_{j}}{\partial w_{ji}}$$
(5)

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• As $\frac{\partial h_j}{\partial w_{ji}}$ is just x_i we obtain the following final expression

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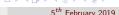
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where $g'(h_j)$ is $\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial h_i}$

• Based on this we can update the weight vector w_{ii} using the following update rule

$$w_{ii}^{t+1} = w_{ji}^t + \eta \triangle w_{ji} \tag{8}$$

where $\triangle w_{ji}$ is $\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ii}}$ and η is the learning rate parameter





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- Learning can be slow if the samples are correlated (we purchase similar number of items all the time)
- In perceptron rule, we change the weight vector if we make a mistake, in delta rule we change the weights iteratively based on the cumulative error
- The delta rule is a specialisation of the back-propagation algorithm





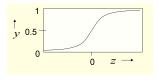


Figure: Sigmoidal Activation function

• So far we have not specified the activation function $g(h_j)$ that is used. We have $y = g(h_j)$ where $h_j = \sum_i x_i w_{ji}$. The learning procedure iteratively approaches the target output and by adapting the learning rate one can approach close to the target output



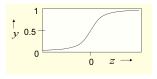


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- One such activation function that can be used is sigmoidal activation function (to approximate the discontinuous Heaviside function used in perceptrons).



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$$\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial h_j} = y_j (1 - y_j) \tag{10}$$

as
$$\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial h_j} = \frac{-1}{(1+e^{-h_j})^2} (-e^{-h_j}) = (\frac{1}{1+e^{-h_j}}) (\frac{e^{-h_j}}{1+e^{-h_j}}) = y_j (1-y_j)$$





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 The equation 7 can now be obtained by substituting the gradient of the function as

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ii}} = -(t_j - y_j)y_j(1 - y_j)x_i \tag{11}$$





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- It relies on the computation of gradient of error *E* with respect to any weight vector in the network.



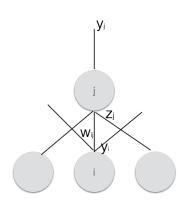


Figure: Backpropagation algorithm

• $E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j} (t_j - y_j)^2$ Therefore we have

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = -(t_j - y_j). \tag{12}$$





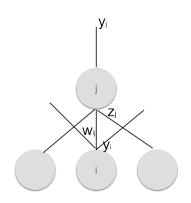


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 Next considering the gradient with respect to z_j we have

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}.$$
 (13)

which is obtained as

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = y_j (1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}.$$
 (14)



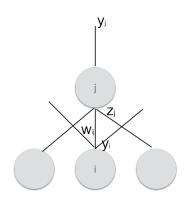


Figure: Backpropagation algorithm

 The expression for error with respect to y_i is obtained as

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}.$$
 (15)

that is given by

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j w_{ij} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}.$$
 (16)

as the output y_i is being sent to j nodes with the weight vector w_{ij} between nodes i and j





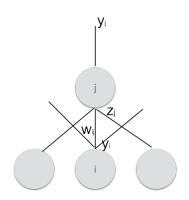


Figure: Backpropagation algorithm

 The expression for error with respect to w_{ij} is obtained as

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}.$$
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that is given by

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = y_i \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}.$$
 (18)

as the output y_i is being sent to j nodes with the weight vector w_{ij} between nodes i and j





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- Gradient descent with backpropagation is not guaranteed to find the global minimum of the error function, but only a local minimum





The End