ECE408 / CS483 / CSE 408 Fall 2022

From Machine Learning to Deep Learning

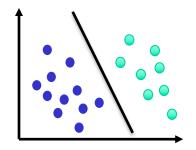
Course Reminders

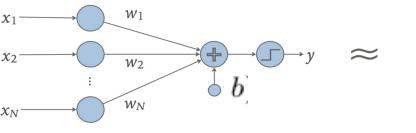
- Grading of Labs to be completed by end of week
- Midterm 1 is on Tuesday, October 11th
 - On-line, everybody will be taking it at the same time
 - Tuesday, Oct. 11th 7:00pm-8:20pm US Central time
 - Wednesday, Oct. 12th 8:00am-9:20am Beijing time
 - Includes materials from Lecture 1 through Lecture 10
 - If you have a legit conflict, please let us know by Friday Sept 30th
- Project Milestone 1: Baseline CPU implementation is due Friday 8pm US CT October 14th
 - Project details to be posted this week on course wiki

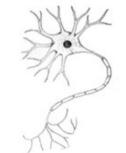
Perceptron is a Simple Example

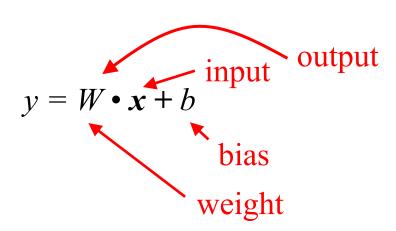
• Example: a perceptron

$$y = \operatorname{sign}(W \cdot x + b)$$
 $\Theta = \{W, b\}$
The perceptron

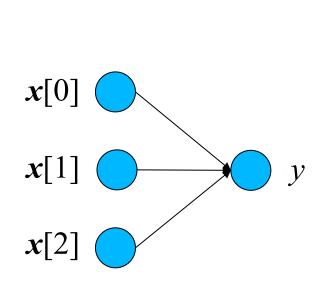


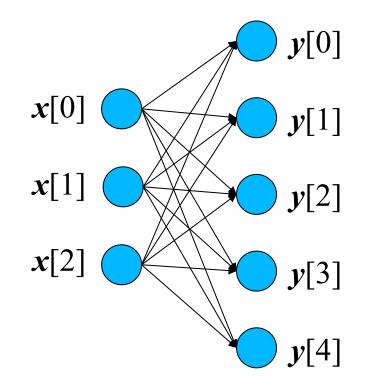






Generalize to Fully-Connected Layer





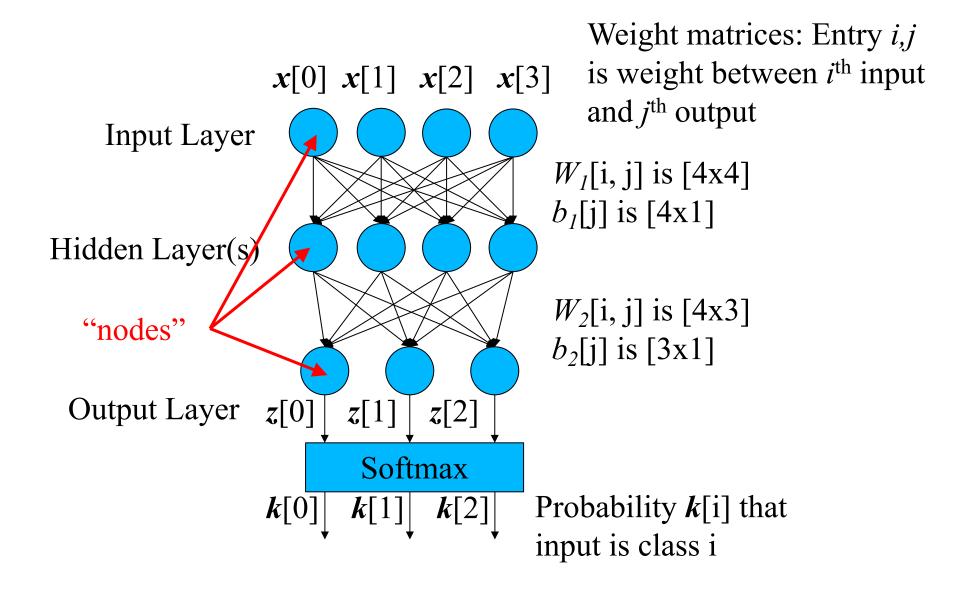
Linear Classifier:

Input vector $x \times$ weight vector w plus bias scalar b to produce scalar output y

Fully-connected:

Input vector $x \times$ weight matrix w plus bias vector b to produce vector output y

Multilayer Terminology



Example: Digit Recognition

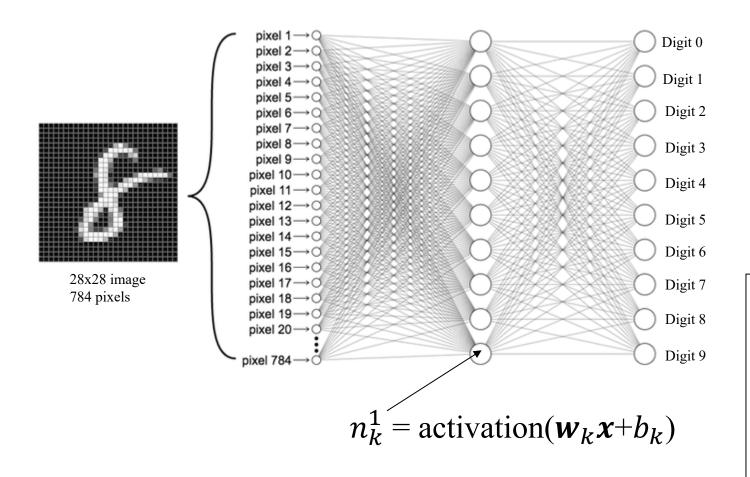
Handwritten digit recognition:

- given a 28 × 28 grayscale image,
- produce a number from 0 to 9.

Input dataset

- 60,000 images
- Each labeled by a human with correct answer.

MultiLayer Perceptron (MLP) for Digit Recognition



This network would has

- 784 nodes on input layer (L0)
- 10 nodes on hidden layer (L1)
- 10 nodes on output layer (L2)

784*10 weights + 10 biases for L1 10*10 weights + 10 biases for L2

A total of 7,960 parameters

Each node represents a function, based on a linear combination of inputs + bias

Activation function "repositions" output value.

Sigmoid, sign, ReLU are common...

How Do We Determine the Weights?

First layer of perceptrons

- 784 (28²) inputs, 1024 outputs, fully connected
- $[1024 \times 784]$ weight matrix W
- [1024 x 1] bias vector **b**

Idea: given enough labeled input data, we can approximate the input-output function.

Forward and Backward Propagation

Forward (inference):

- given input x (for example, an image),
- use parameters Θ (W and b for each layer)
- to compute probabilities k[i] (ex: for each digit i).

Backward (training) [Rumelhart, Hinton, Williams 1986]:

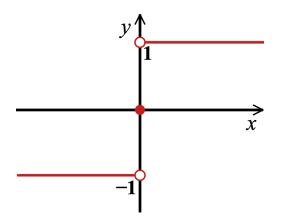
- given input x, parameters θ , and outputs k[i],
- compute error *E* based on target label *t*,
- then adjust θ proportional to E to reduce error.

Neural Functions Impact Training

Recall perceptron function: $y = sign (W \cdot x + b)$

To propagate error backwards,

- use chain rule from calculus.
- Smooth functions are useful.



Sign is not a smooth function, and has regions of 0 slope.

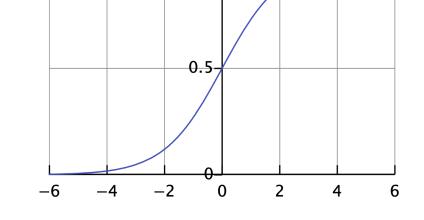
One Choice: Sigmoid/Logistic Function

Until about 2017,

• sigmoid / logistic function most popular

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$
 (f: $\mathbb{R} \to (0,1)$)

for replacing sign.



• Once we have f(x), finding df/dx is easy:

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \frac{e^{-x}}{(1+e^{-x})^2} = f(x) \frac{e^{-x}}{(1+e^{-x})} = f(x)(1-f(x))$$

(Our example used this function.)

Today's Choice: ReLU

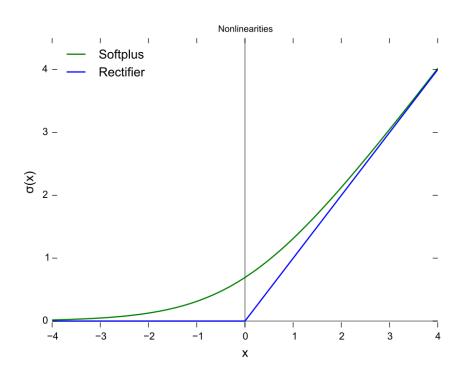
In 2017, most common choice became

- rectified linear unit / ReLU / ramp function $f(x) = \max(0, x)$ (f: $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$) which is much faster (no exponent required).
- A smooth approximation is softplus/SmoothReLU

$$f(x) = \ln (1 + e^x)$$
 (f: $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$)

which is the integral of the logistic function.

• Lots of variations exist. See Wikipedia for an overview and discussion of tradeoffs.



Use Softmax to Produce Probabilities

How can sigmoid / ReLU produce probabilities?

They can't.

- Instead, given output vector $\mathbf{Z} = (\mathbf{z}[0], ..., \mathbf{z}[\mathbf{C}-1])^*$,
- we produce a second vector $\mathbf{K} = (\mathbf{k}[0], ..., \mathbf{k}[\mathbf{C}-1])$
- using the softmax function

$$k[i] = \frac{e^{z[i]}}{\sum_{j=0}^{C-1} e^{z[j]}}$$

Notice that the k[i] sum to 1.

*Remember that we classify into one of C categories.

Choosing an Error Function

Many error functions are possible.

For example, given label T (digit T),

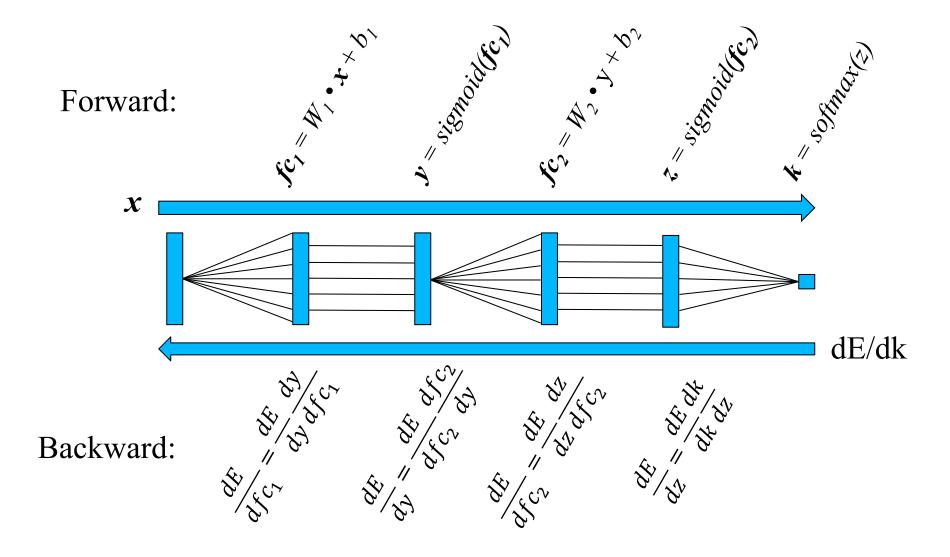
• E = 1 - k[T], the probability of not classifying as t.

Alternatively, since our categories are numeric, we can penalize quadratically:

$$E = \sum_{j=0}^{C-1} k[j](j-T)^2$$

Let's go with the latter.

Forward and Backward Propagation



Example: Gradient Update with One Layer

Parameter Update
$$y = W \cdot x + b \qquad \text{Network function}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dW} = x \qquad \text{Network weight gradient}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(y - t)^2 \qquad \text{Error function}$$

$$\frac{dE}{dy} = y - t = Wx + b - t \qquad \text{Error function gradient}$$

$$\Delta W = \frac{dE}{dw} = \frac{dE}{dy} \frac{dy}{dw} \qquad \text{Full weight update expression}$$

$$W_{i+1} = W_i - \varepsilon(Wx + b - t)x \qquad \text{Full weight update term}$$

Fully-Connected Gradient Detail

$$\frac{dE}{dW_{1}[i,j]} = \frac{dE}{dfc_{1}[i]} \frac{dfc_{1}[i]}{dW_{1}[i,j]} = \frac{dE}{dfc_{1}[i]} x_{1}[j]$$

Computed from previous layer

Batch Gradient Descent

How do we calculate the weights?

For ALL inputs in Batch of X,

- 1. evaluate network to compute k[i] (forward),
- 2. then use k[i] and label T (target digit) to compute error E.
- 3. Backpropagate error derivative to find derivatives for each parameter.

Adjust Θ to reduce total E: $\Theta_{i+1} = \Theta_i - \varepsilon \Delta \Theta$ (The ε is called the learning rate)

X is the entire training set of data. We divide X into randomly sampled partitions called Batches.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

For a random input in Batch of *X*,

- 1. evaluate network to compute k[i] (forward),
- 2. then use k[i] and label T (target digit) to compute error E.
- 3. Backpropagate error derivative to find derivatives for each parameter.

Adjust Θ to reduce total E: $\Theta_{i+1} = \Theta_i - \varepsilon \Delta \Theta$

Far less computation than BGD

Mini-Batch Gradient Descent

For a set of random input in Batch of X,

- 1. evaluate network to compute k[i] (forward),
- 2. then use k[i] and label T (target digit) to compute error E.
- 3. Backpropagate error derivative to find derivatives for each parameter.

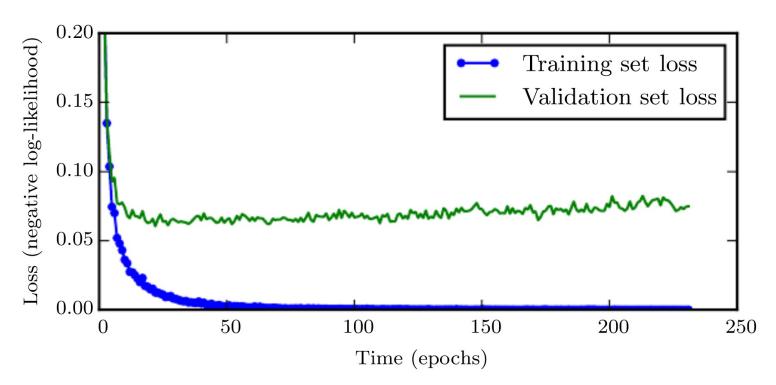
Adjust Θ to reduce total E: $\Theta_{i+1} = \Theta_i - \varepsilon \Delta \Theta$

Balance between accuracy of gradient estimation (BGD) and speed (SGD)

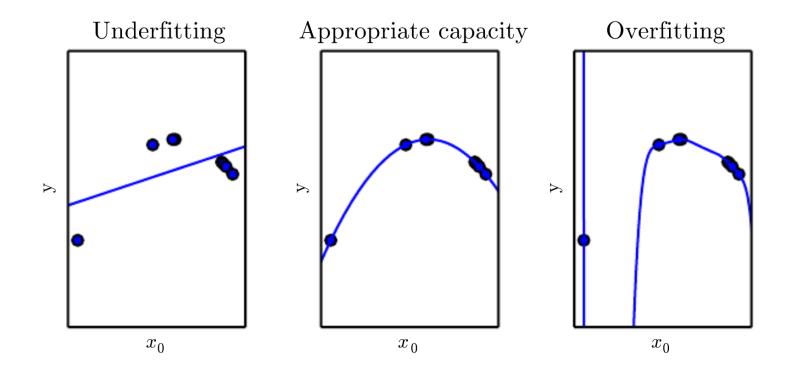
When is Training Done?

Split labeled data into training and test sets.

- Training set is used to compute parameter updates.
- Testing set checks how well model generalizes to new inputs
- The network can become too good at classifying training inputs!

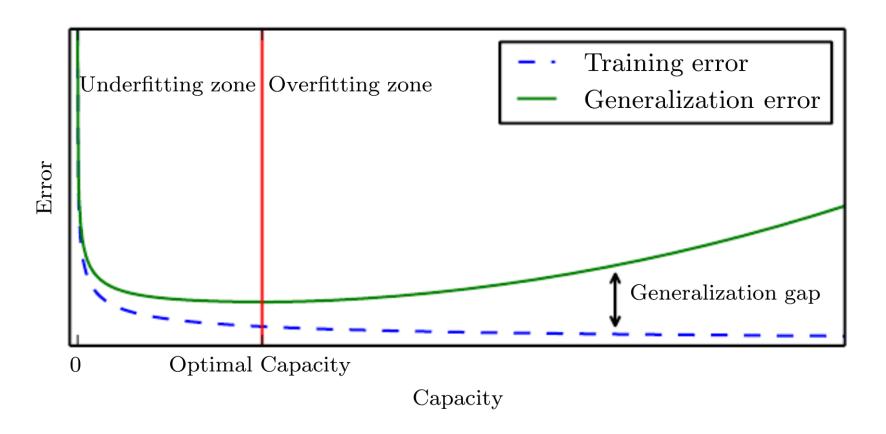


How Complicated Should a Network Be?



Intuition: like a polynomial fit. High-order terms improve fit, but add unpredictable swings for inputs outside the training set.

Overtraining Decreases Accuracy



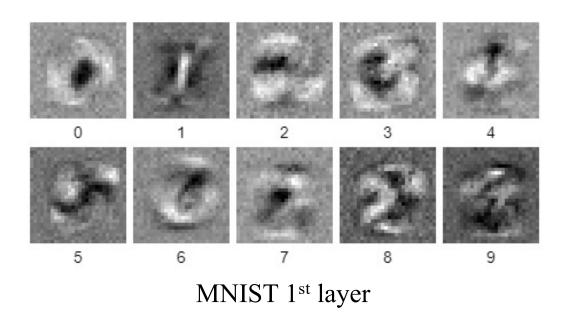
If network works too well for training data, new inputs cause big unpredictable output changes.

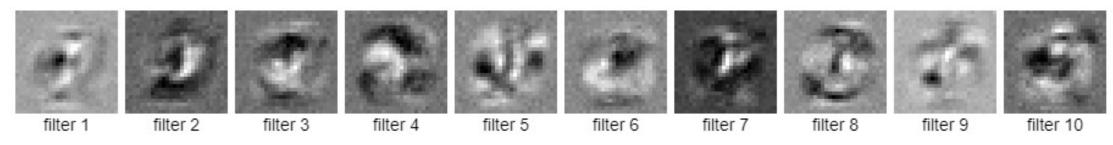
No Free Lunch Theorem

• Every classification algorithm has the same error rate when classifying previously unobserved inputs when averaged over all possible input-generating distributions.

• Neural networks must be tuned for specific tasks

Visualizing Neural Network Weights





MNIST 2nd layer

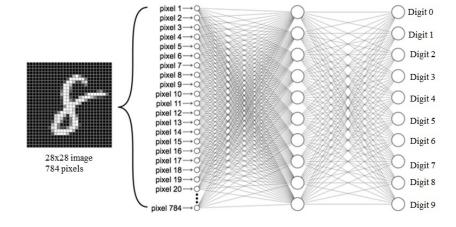
Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) for an Image

Consider a 250 x 250 image...

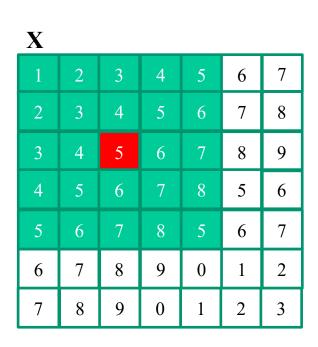
- input: 2D image treated as 1D vector
- Fully connected layer is huge:
 - 62,500 (250²) weights per node!
 - Comparable number of nodes gives ~4B weights total!
- Need >1 hidden layer? Bigger images?
- Too much computation, and too much memory.

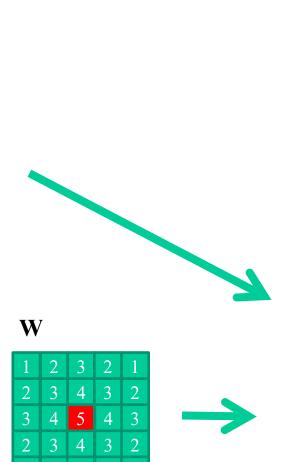
Traditional feature detection in image processing uses

- Filters → Convolution kernels
- Can we use them in neural networks?



2-D Convolution

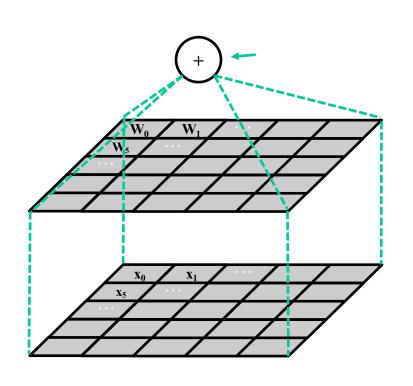


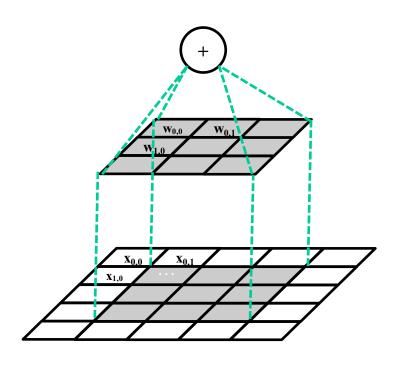


Y			
	321		

1	4	9	8	5
4	9	16	15	12
9	16	25	24	21
8	15	24	21	16
5	12	21	16	5

Convolution vs Fully-Connected (Weight Sharing)





Convolution Naturally Supports Varying Input Sizes

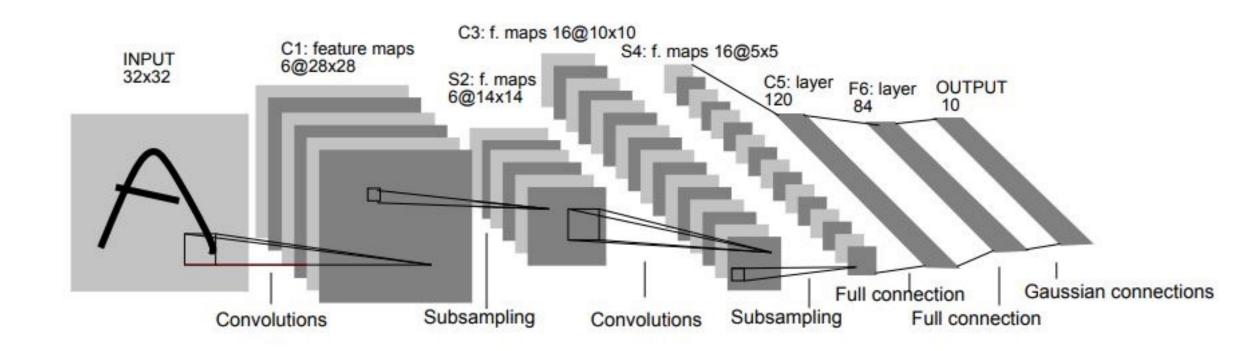
- As discussed so far,
 - perceptron layers have fixed structure, so
 - number of inputs / outputs is fixed.

- Convolution enables variably-sized inputs (observations of the same kind of thing)
 - Audio recording of different lengths
 - Image with more/fewer pixels

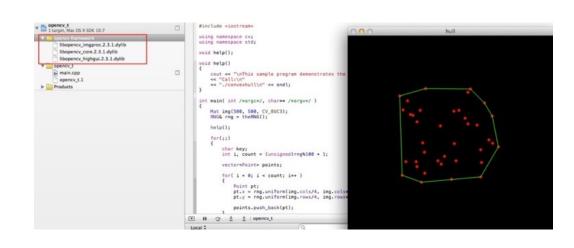
Example Convolution Inputs

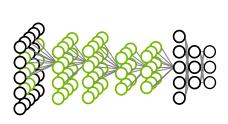
	Single-channel	Multi-channel
1D	audio waveform	Skeleton animation data: 1-D joint angles for each joint
2D	Fourier-transformed audio data Convolve over frequency axis: invariant to frequency shifts Convolve over time axis: invariant to shifts in time	Color image data: 2D data for R,G,B channels
3D	Volumetric data (example: medical imaging)	Color video: 2D data across 1D time for R,G,B channels

LeNet-5:CNN for hand-written digit recognition



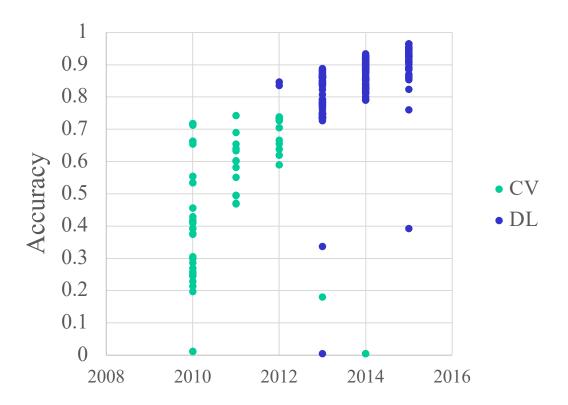
Deep Learning Impact in Computer Vision







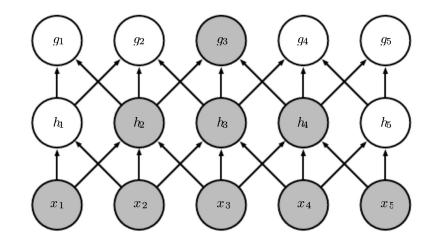
The Toronto team used GPUs and trained on 1.2M images in their 2012 winning entry at the Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge



Why Convolution

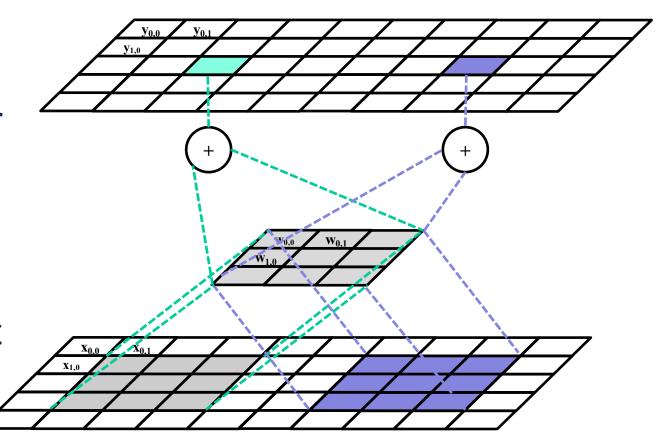
Sparse interactions

- Meaningful features in small spatial regions
- Need fewer parameters (less storage, better statistical characteristics, faster training)
- Need multiple layers for wide receptive field



Why Convolution

- Parameter sharing
 - Kernel mask is applied repeatedly computing layer output
- Equivariant Representations
 - If input is translated, output is similarly translated
 - Output is a map of where features appear in input



Convolution

- 2-D Matrix
- $Y = W \otimes X$
- Kernel smaller than input: smaller receptive field
- Fewer Weights

<u>MLP</u>

- Vector
- $\bullet \quad Y = w x + b$
- Maximum receptive field
- More weights

ANY MORE QUESTIONS?