

# **Deep Learning Perceptron, Gradient descent, Multilayer Perceptron, Backprop, CNNs**

Sergi Pujades

IntrolA (ENSIMAG - 2A)  
Intelligent Systems (MOSIG - MI)



1958 Perceptron

1974 Backpropagation

awkward silence (AI Winter)

1969  
Perceptron criticized



Convolution Neural Networks for  
Handwritten Recognition

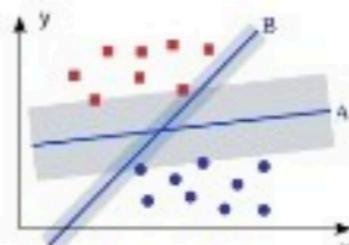
1998



Google Brain Project on  
16k Cores

2012

1995  
SVM reigns



2006  
Restricted  
Boltzmann  
Machine

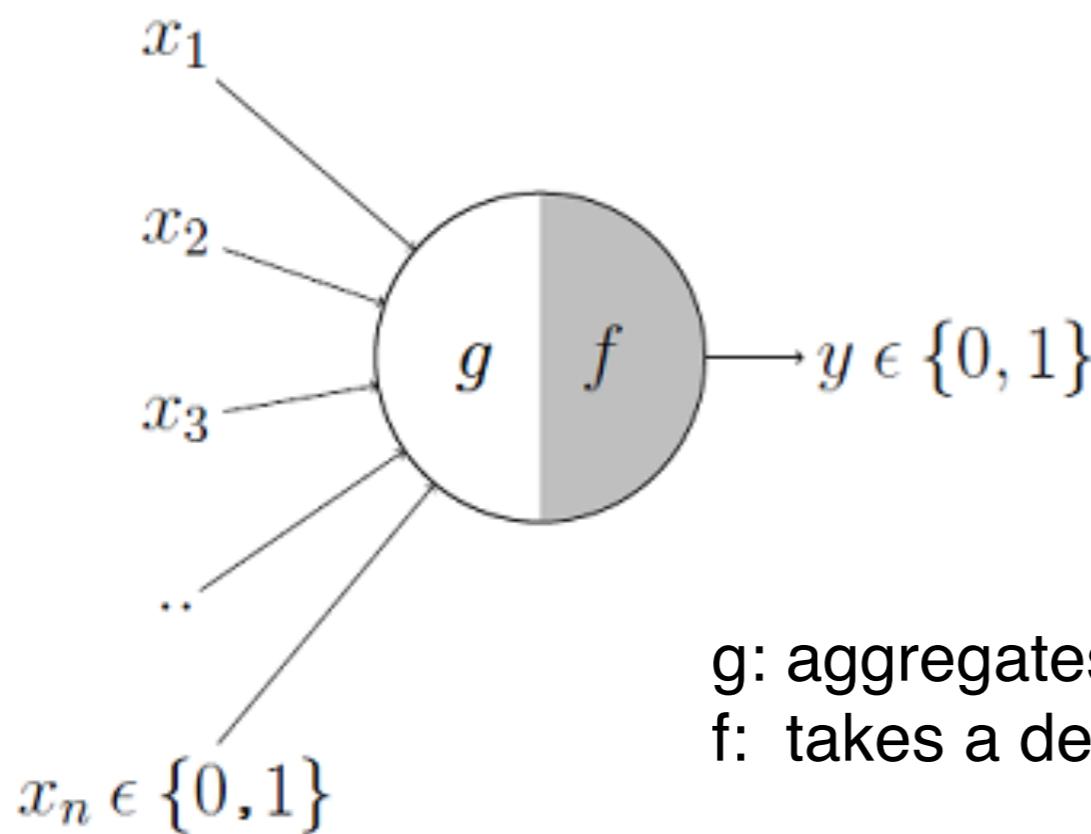


2012  
AlexNet wins  
ImageNet  
**IM<sup>GENET</sup>**

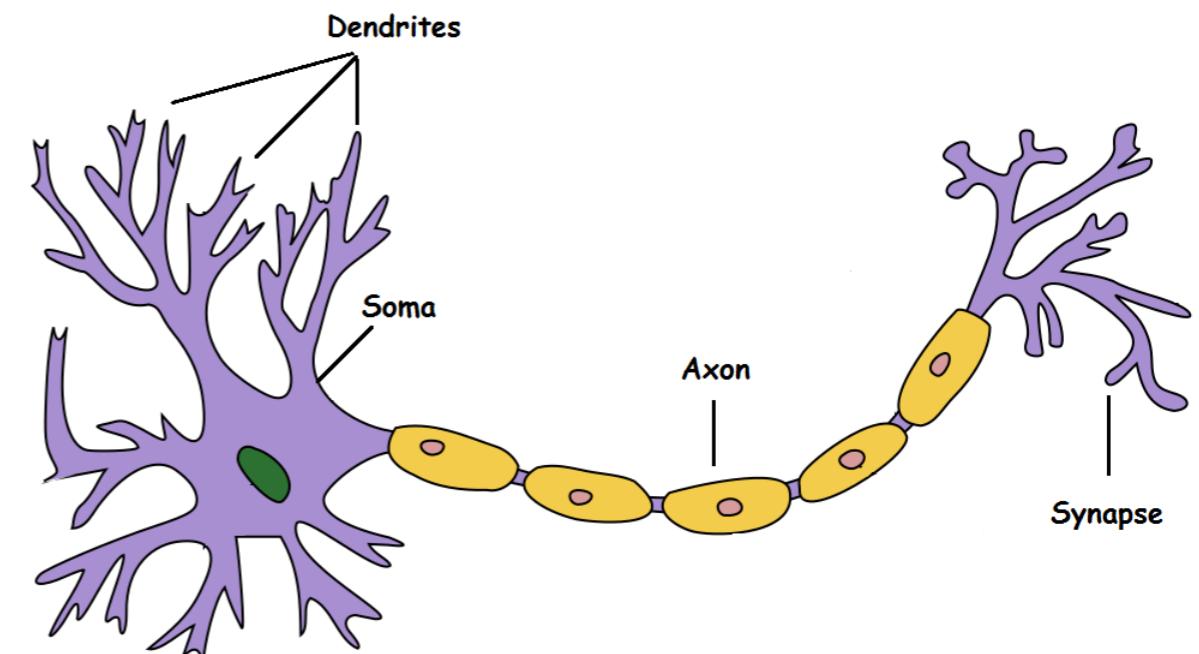
# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

Warren McCulloch (neuroscientist)

Walter Pitts (logician)



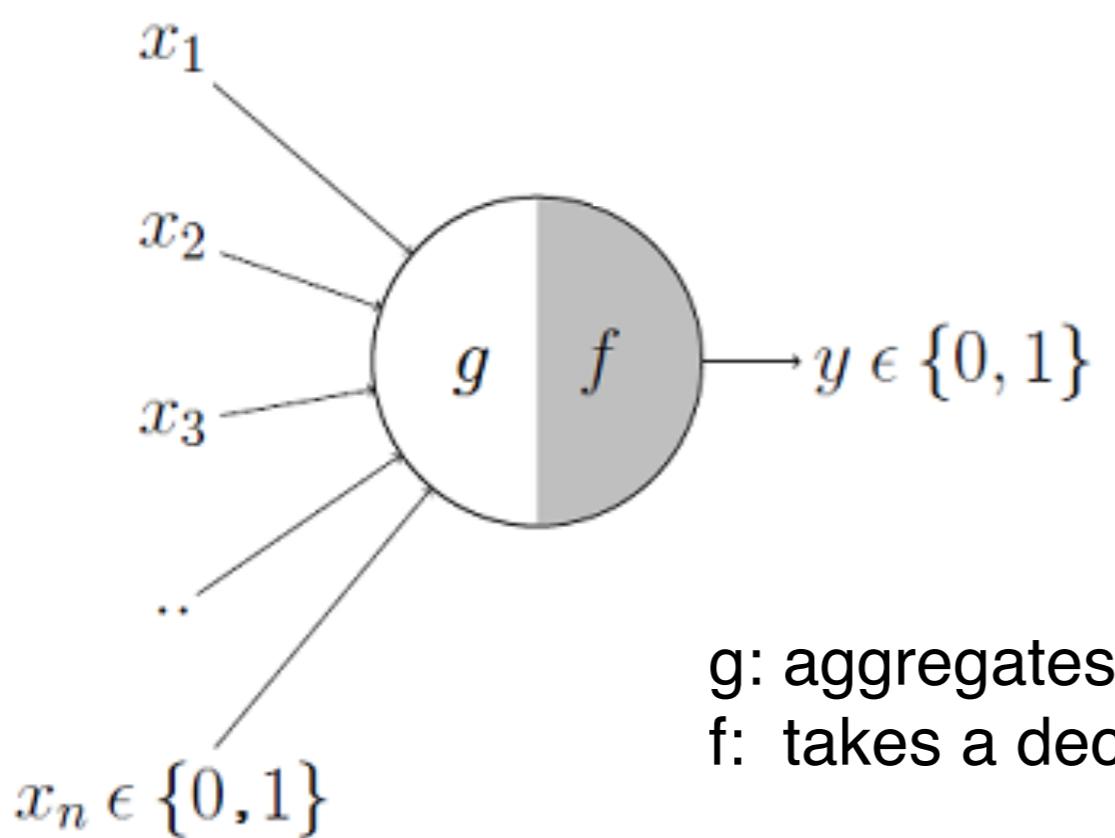
*g*: aggregates information  
*f*: takes a decision



# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} y = f(g(\mathbf{x})) &= 1 & \text{if } g(\mathbf{x}) \geq \theta \\ &= 0 & \text{if } g(\mathbf{x}) < \theta \end{aligned}$$

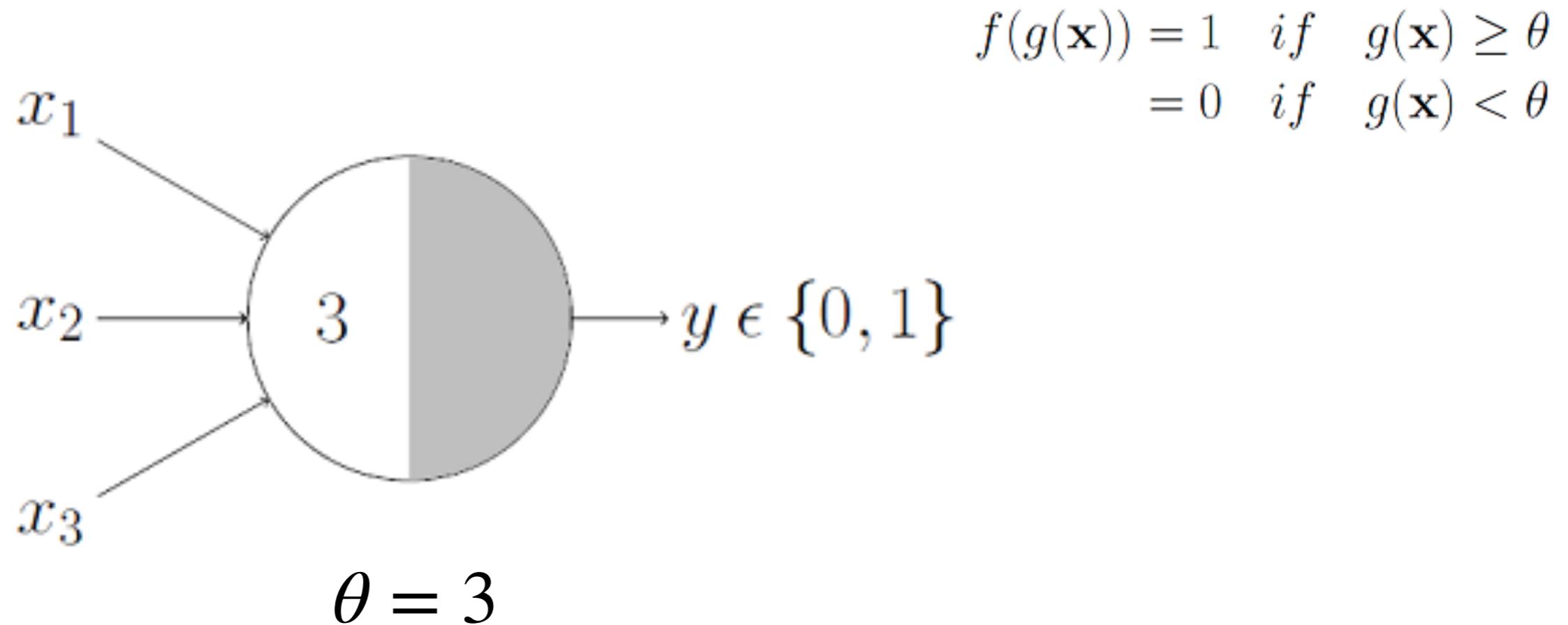


g: aggregates information  
f: takes a decision

# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

AND function

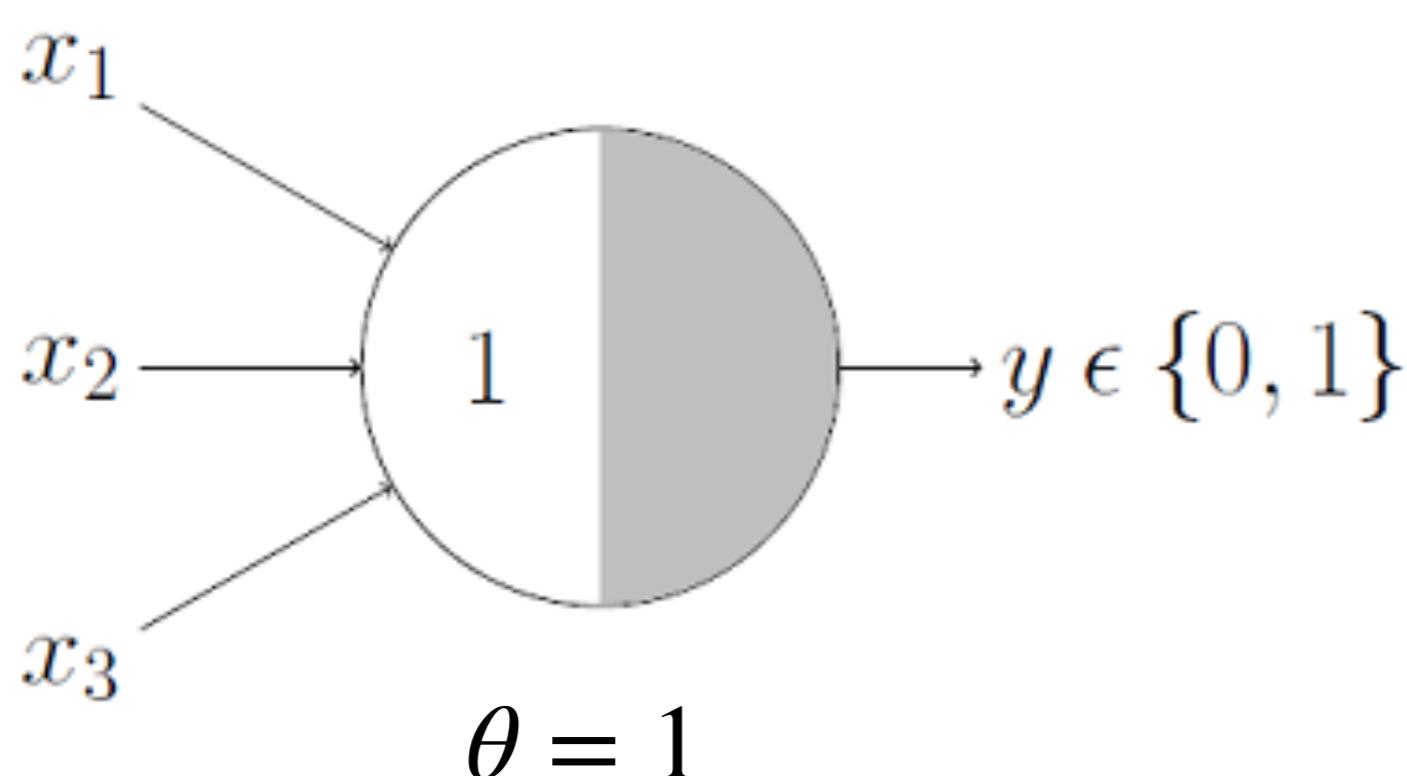
$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$



# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

OR function

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$



$$\begin{aligned} f(g(\mathbf{x})) &= 1 & \text{if} & \quad g(\mathbf{x}) \geq \theta \\ &= 0 & \text{if} & \quad g(\mathbf{x}) < \theta \end{aligned}$$

# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

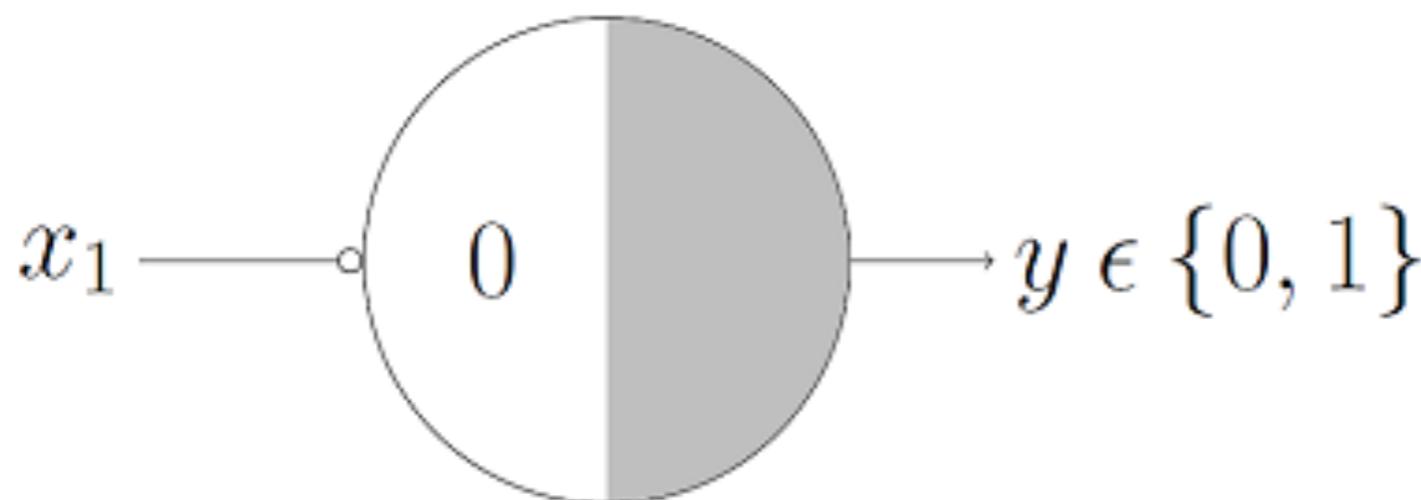
Inhibitory inputs:

if present, output is zero

NOT example

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} y &= f(g(\mathbf{x})) = 1 && \text{if } g(\mathbf{x}) \geq \theta \\ &= 0 && \text{if } g(\mathbf{x}) < \theta \\ &= 0 && \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i > 0 \end{aligned}$$



# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

Inhibitory inputs:

if present, output is zero

$$g(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Other combinations

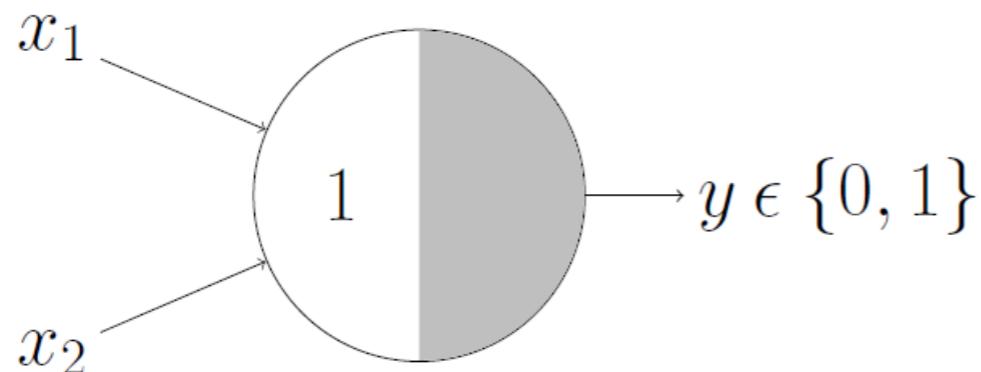
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$x_1 \text{ AND } !x_2^*$

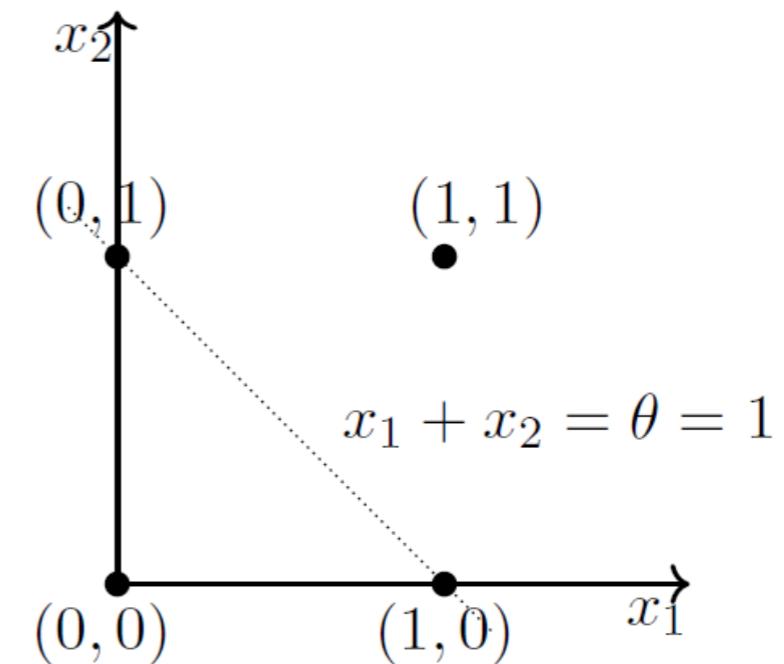
# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

Geometric interpretation



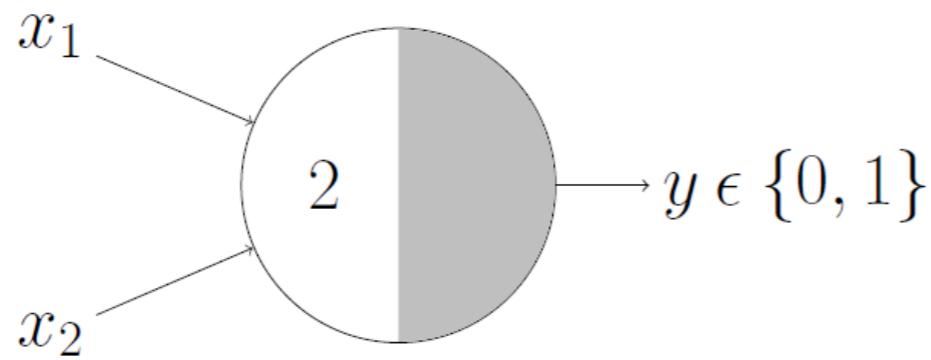
*OR function*

$$x_1 + x_2 = \sum_{i=1}^2 x_i \geq 1$$



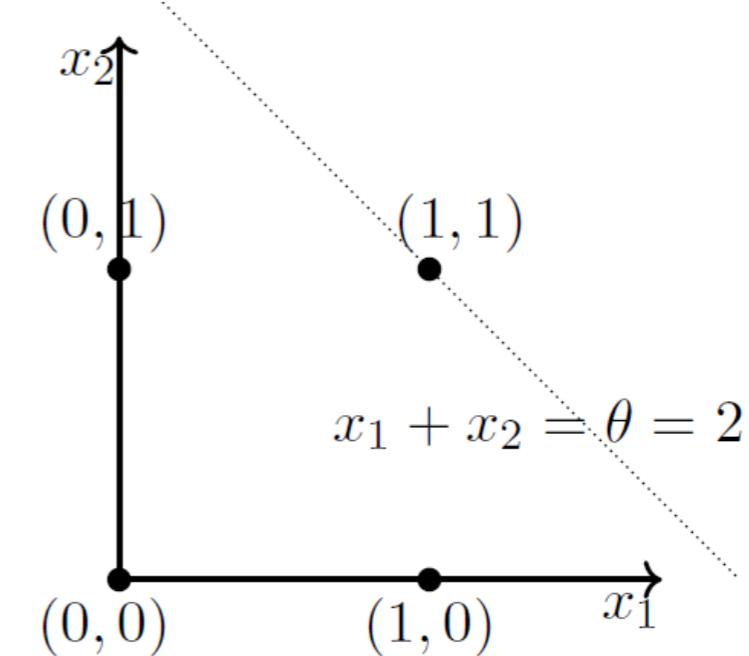
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Geometric interpretation



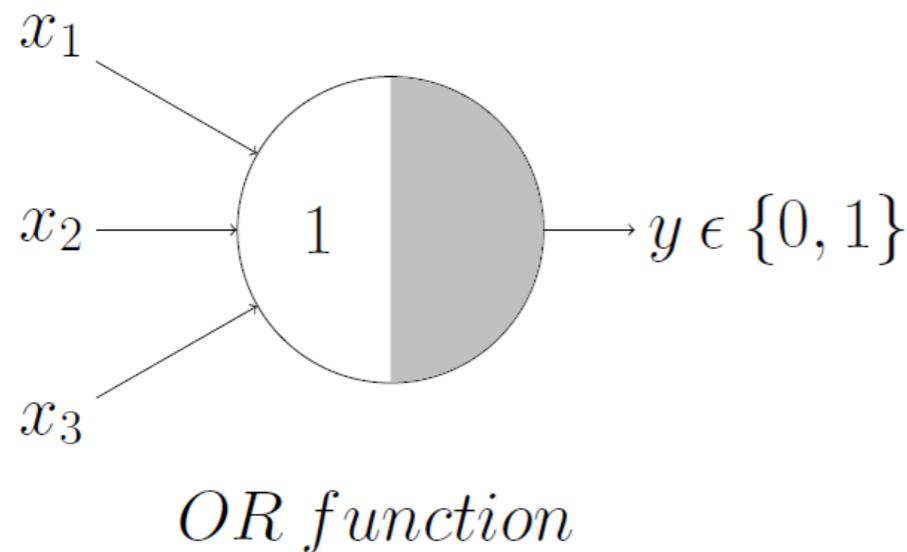
*AND function*

$$x_1 + x_2 = \sum_{i=1}^2 x_i \geq 2$$

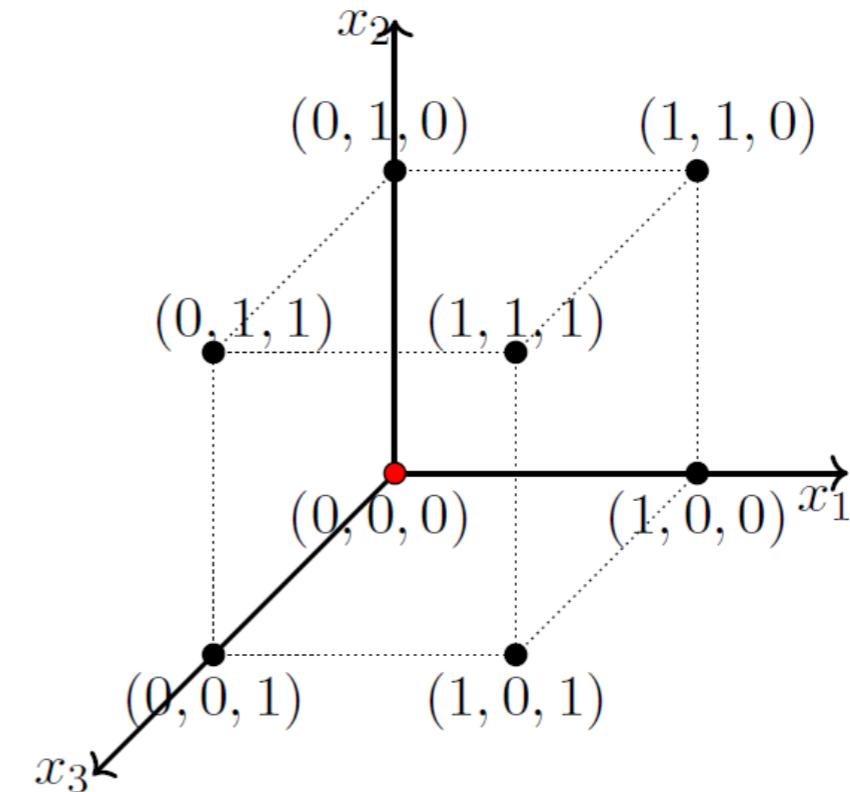


# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

Geometric interpretation

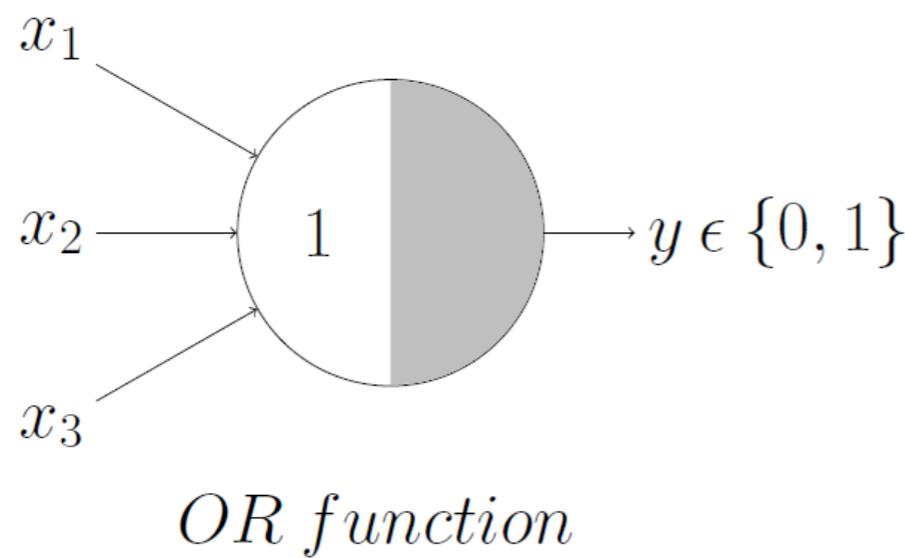


$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i \geq 1$$

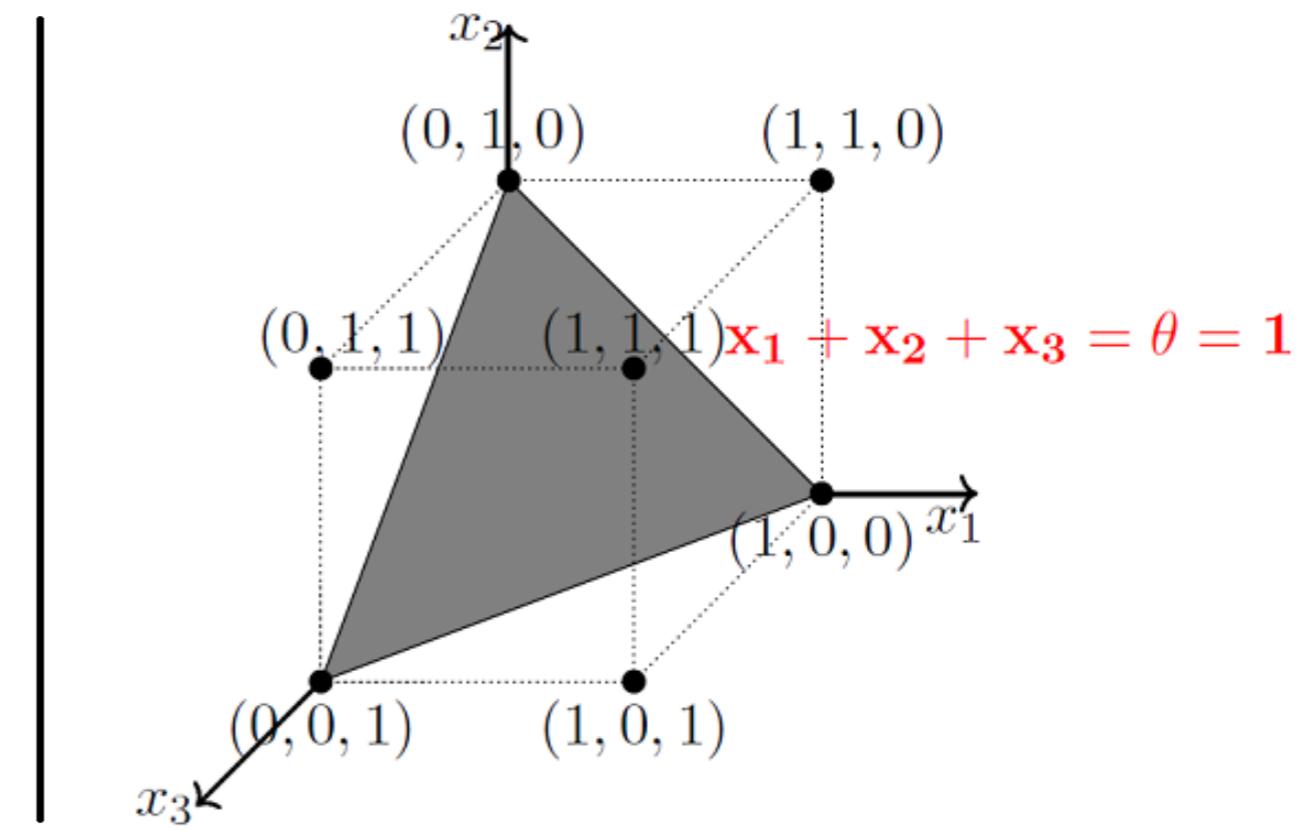


# McCulloch-Pitts neuron (1943)

Geometric interpretation



$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i \geq 1$$



# Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)

- Use data to learn the coefficients

$$f(g(\mathbf{x})) = y$$

$$f(g(x)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

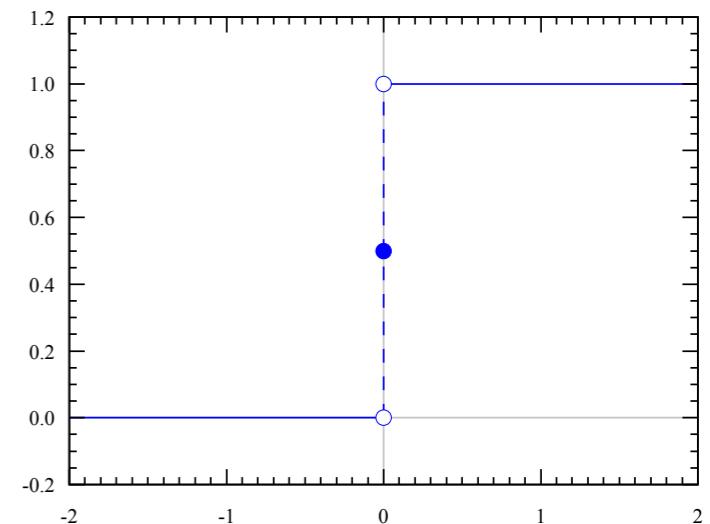
- Observations - training set  $D$

$f$ : activation function

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N & \text{input} \\ y \in \mathbb{B} & \text{output binary} \end{cases}$$

- Learnable parameters

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^N & \text{weights} \\ b \in \mathbb{R} & \text{bias} \end{cases}$$



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# Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)

## Optimization

- Initialize weights  $\mathbf{w}$  to zero (or small random)

- For each sample  $j$  in the training set  $D = \{\mathbf{x}_j, d_j\}$ :

- Compute prediction

$$y_j(t) = f(\mathbf{w}(t) \cdot \mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$= f(w_0(t) x_{j,0} + w_1(t) x_{j,1} + w_2(t) x_{j,2} + \dots + w_{N-1}(t) x_{j,N-1})$$

- Update all weights  $0 \leq i \leq N - 1$

$$w_i(t + 1) = w_i(t) + r \cdot (d_j - y_j(t)) x_{j,i}$$

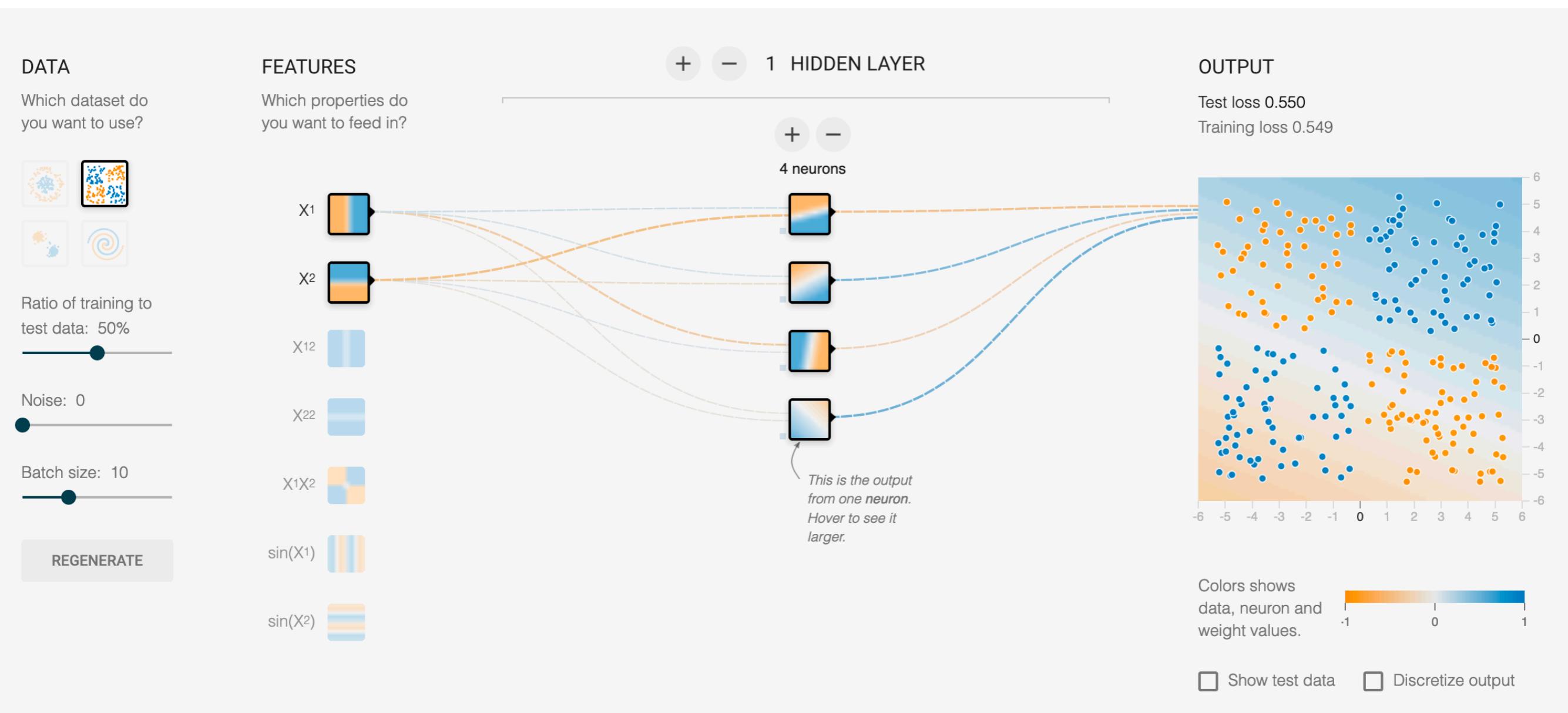
$r$  learning rate (usually small)

# **Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)**

## **Limitations:**

- The perceptron learning algorithm does not terminate if the learning set is not linearly separable
  - Needs a limit on the number of iterations!
- Example: exclusive OR (XOR)
  - Algorithm fails completely! (no approx. solution)

# Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)



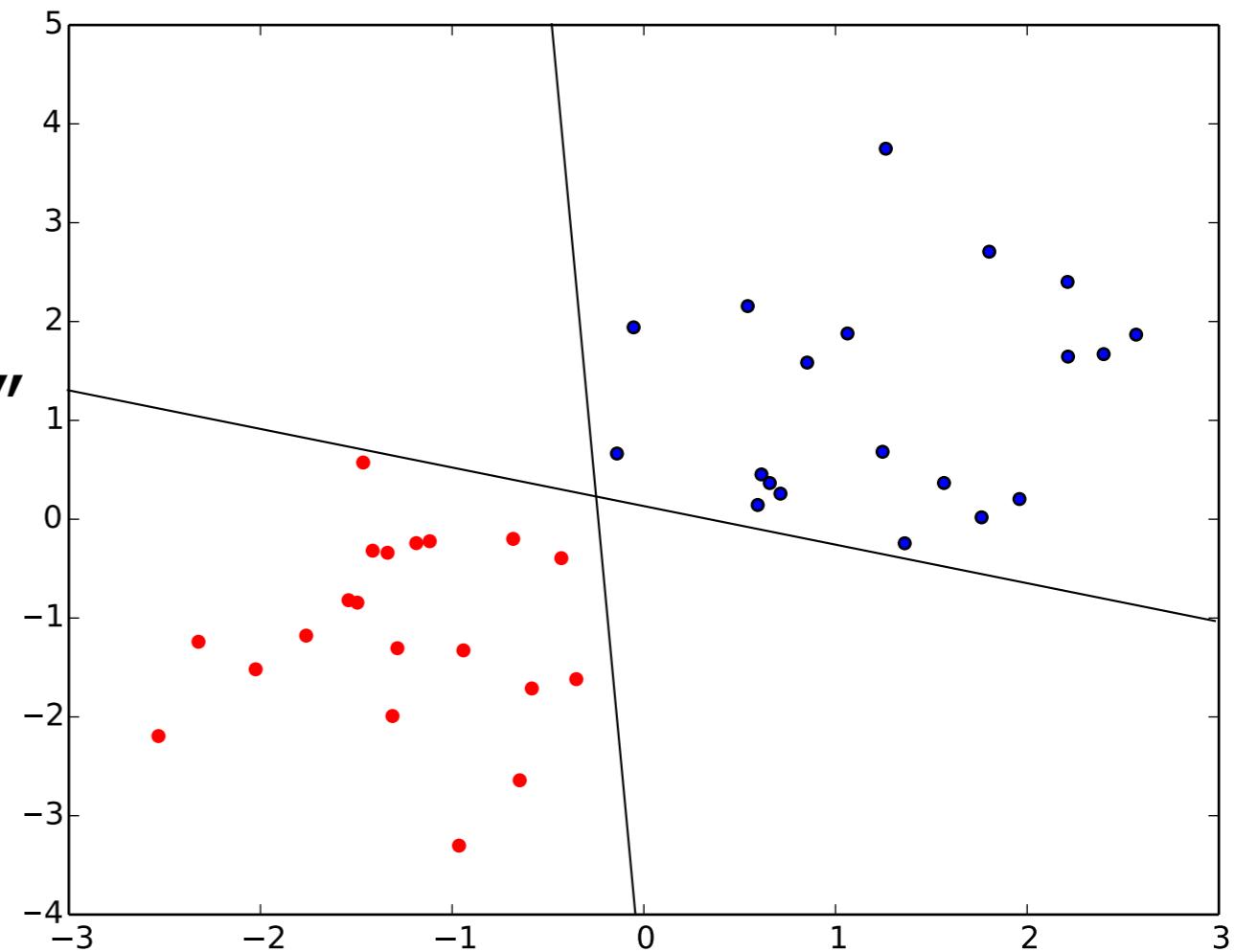
<https://playground.tensorflow.org>

# Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)

Limitations:

- Perceptron can't choose "The best solution"

- Motivation for the linear SVM  
"perceptron of optimal stability"  
(Krauth and Mezard, 1987)



# Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)

- Controversy

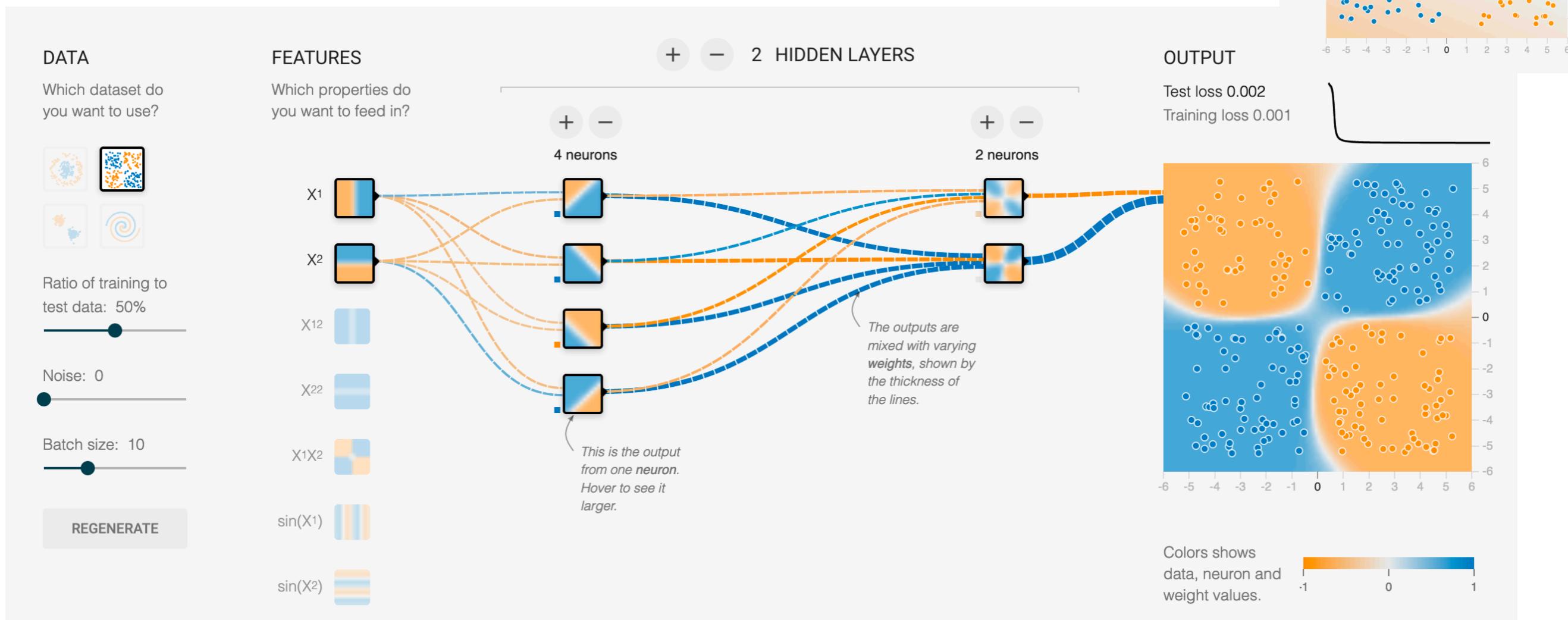
The perceptron in ... “the embryo of an electronic computer that [the Navy] expects will be able to walk, talk, see, write, reproduce itself and be conscious of its existence.”

The New York Times, 1958

*Olazaran, Mikel (1996). "A Sociological Study of the Official History of the Perceptrons Controversy". Social Studies of Science. 26 (3): 611–659*

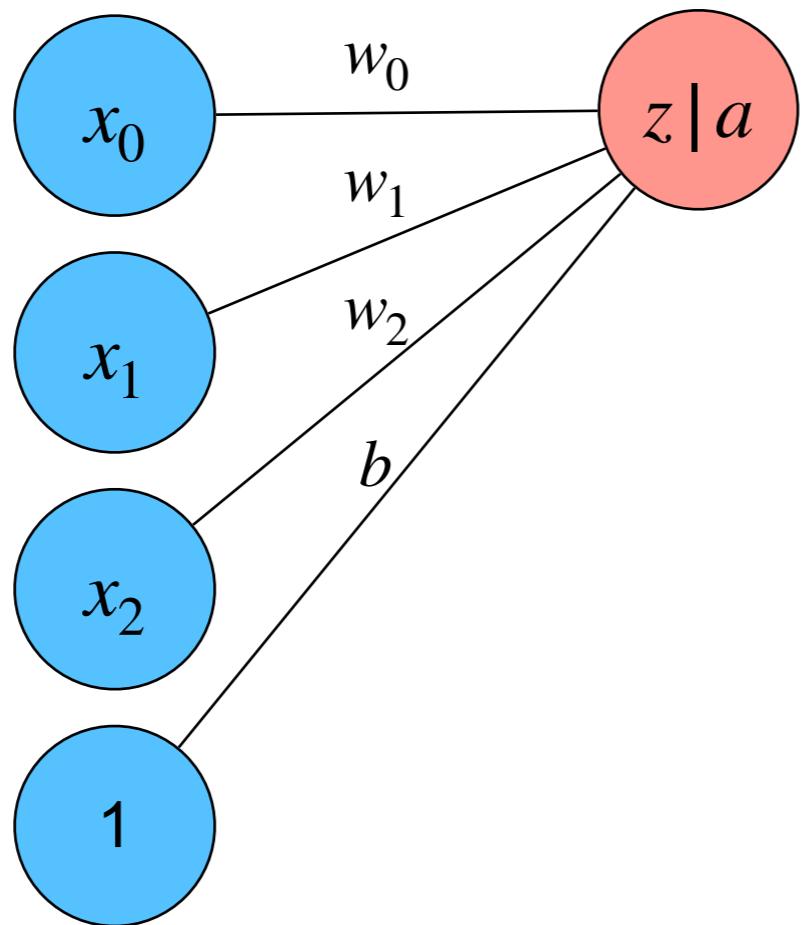
# Multi-Layer Perceptron

Two layers can handle the “non linear separable set” limitation



<https://playground.tensorflow.org>

# Multi-Layer Perceptron

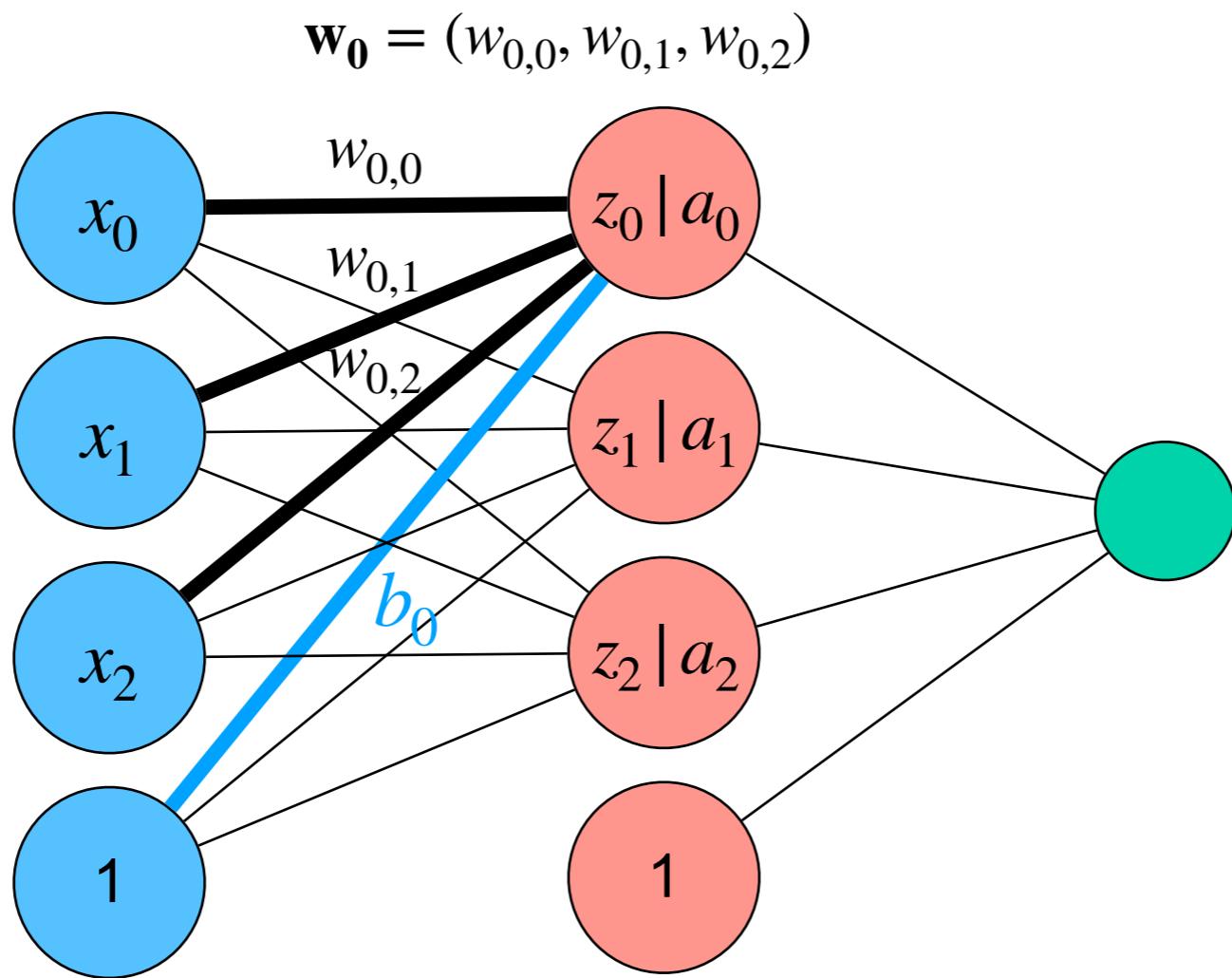


$$z = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b$$

$$a = f(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$$

$$= f(w_0 x_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \dots + w_{N-1} x_{N-1} + b)$$

# Multi-Layer Perceptron

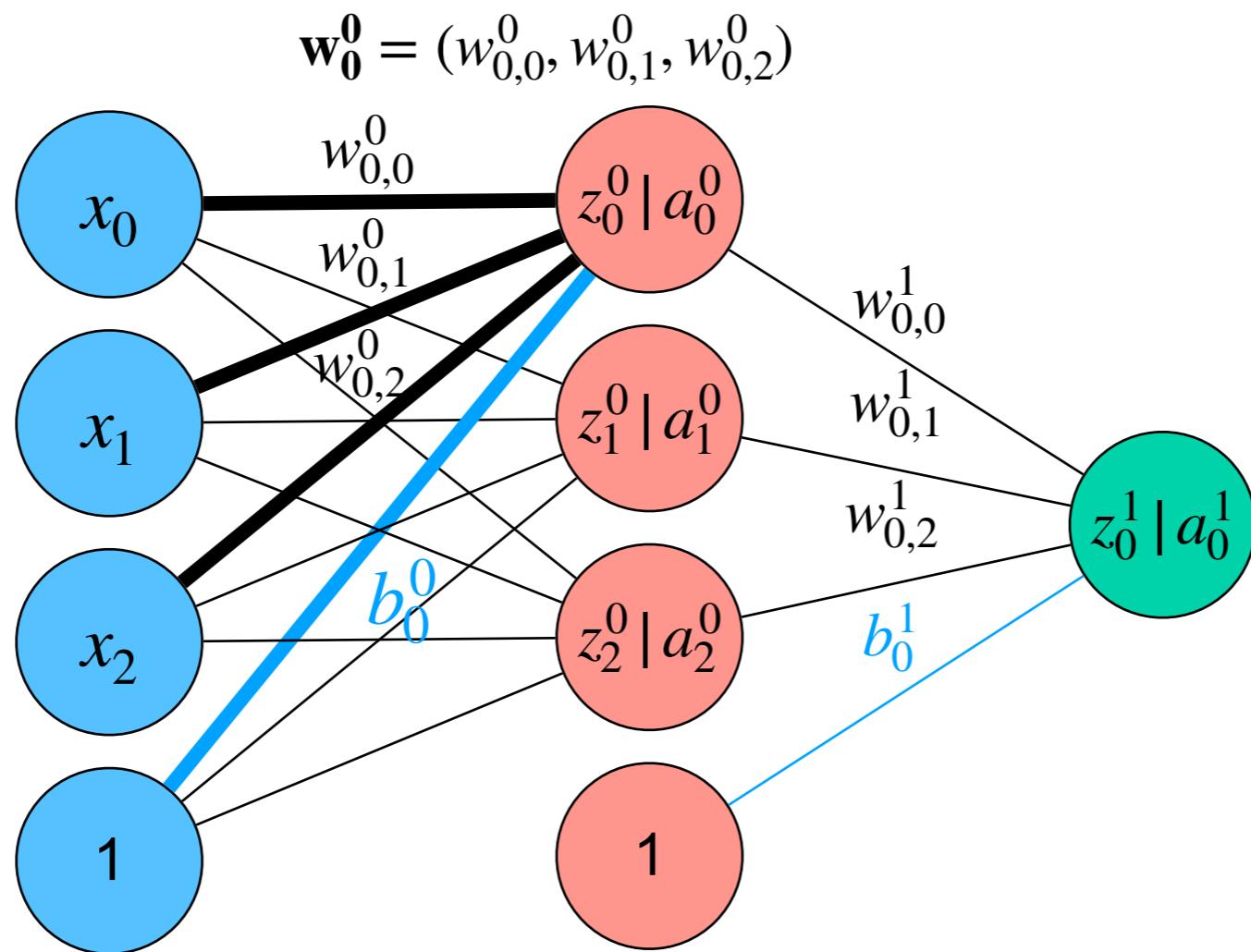


$$z_i = \mathbf{w}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_i$$

$$a_i = f(\mathbf{w}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_i)$$

$$= f(w_{i,0} x_0 + w_{i,1} x_1 + w_{i,2} x_2 + \dots + w_{i,N-1} x_{N-1} + b_i)$$

# Multi-Layer Perceptron

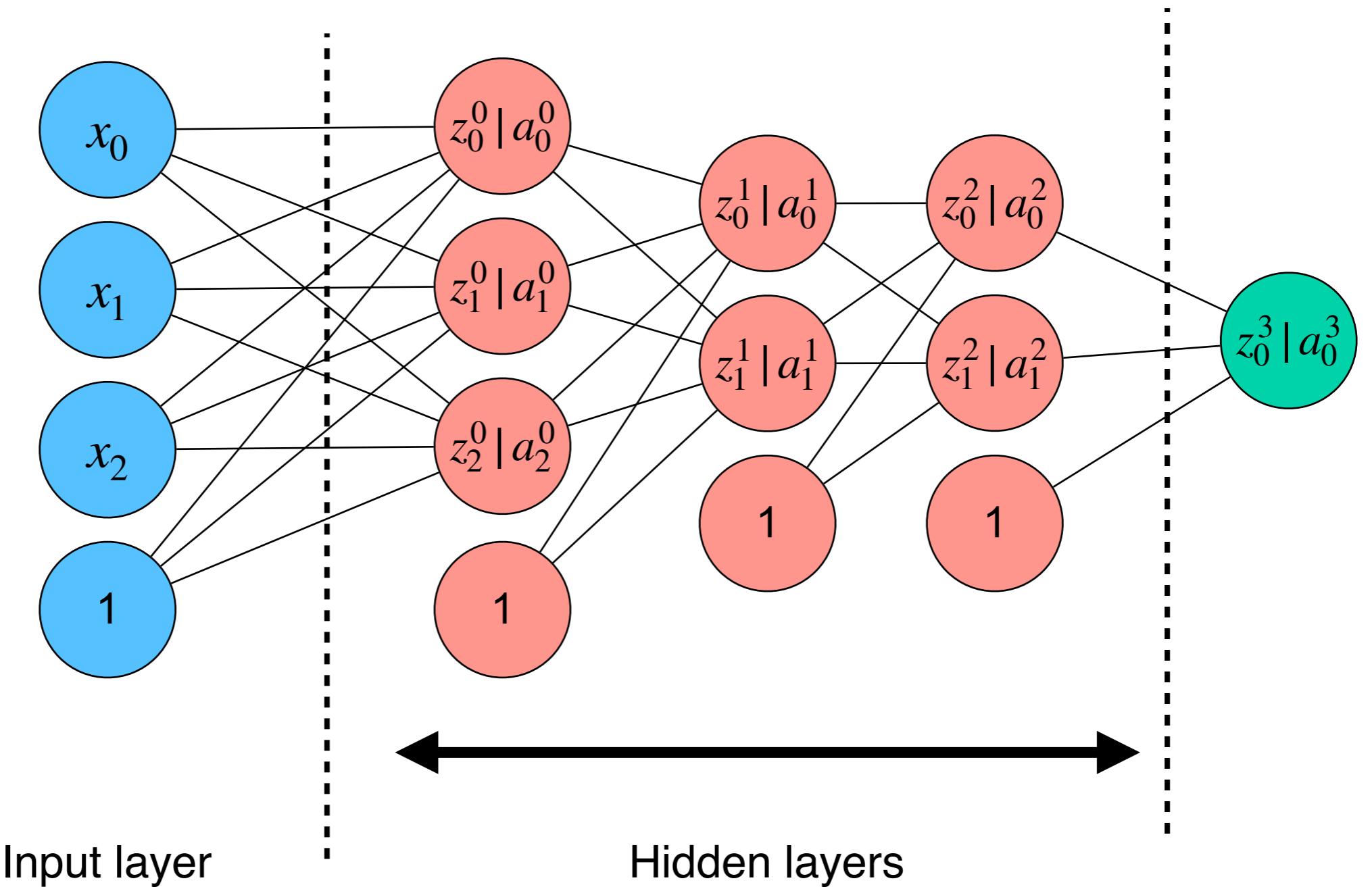


$$z_i^l = \mathbf{w}_i^l \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_i^l$$

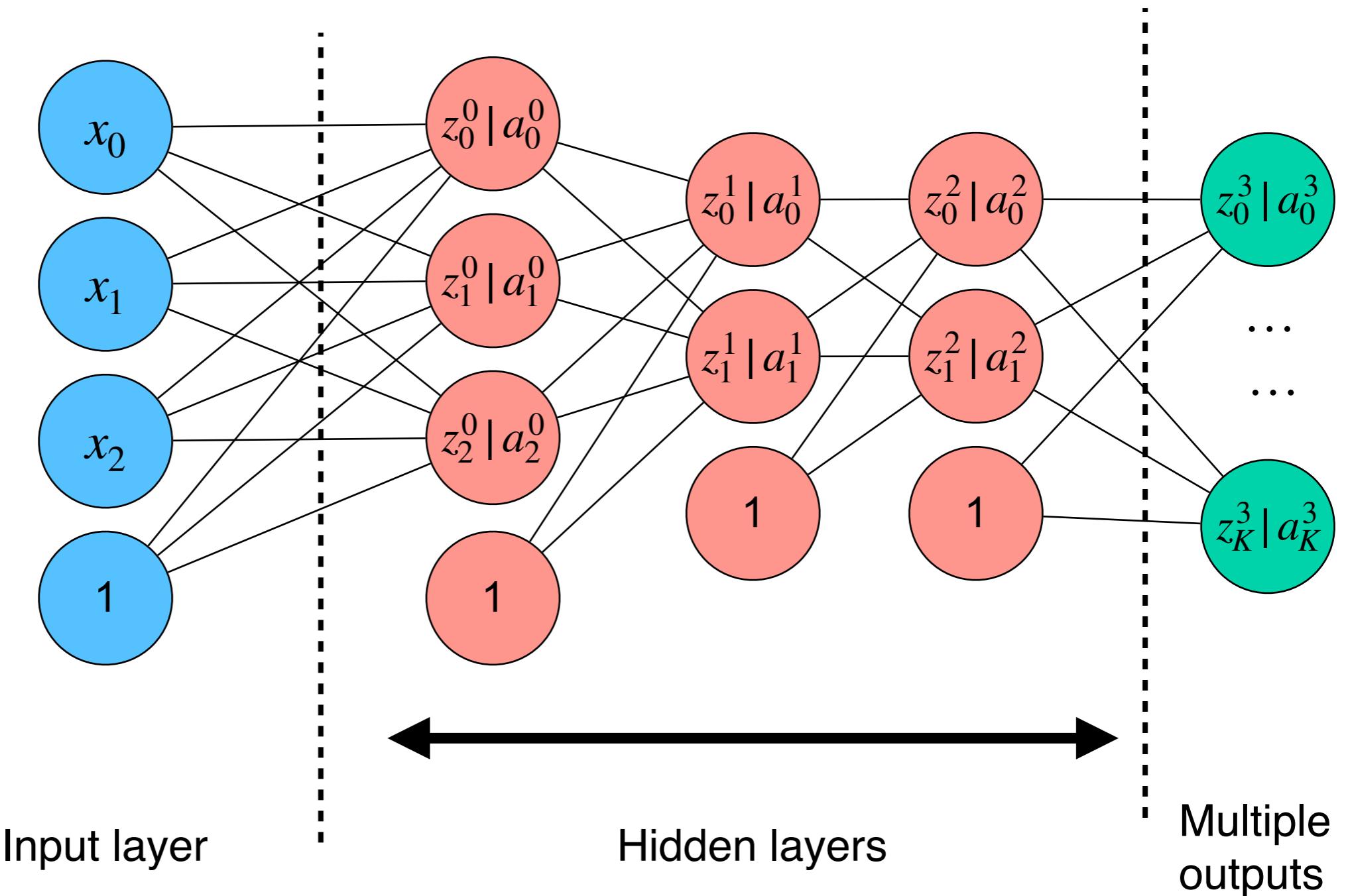
$$a_i^l = f(\mathbf{w}_i^l \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_i^l)$$

$$= f(w_{i,0}^l x_0 + w_{i,1}^l x_1 + w_{i,2}^l x_2 + \dots + w_{i,N-1}^l x_{N-1} + b_i^l)$$

# Multi-Layer Perceptron

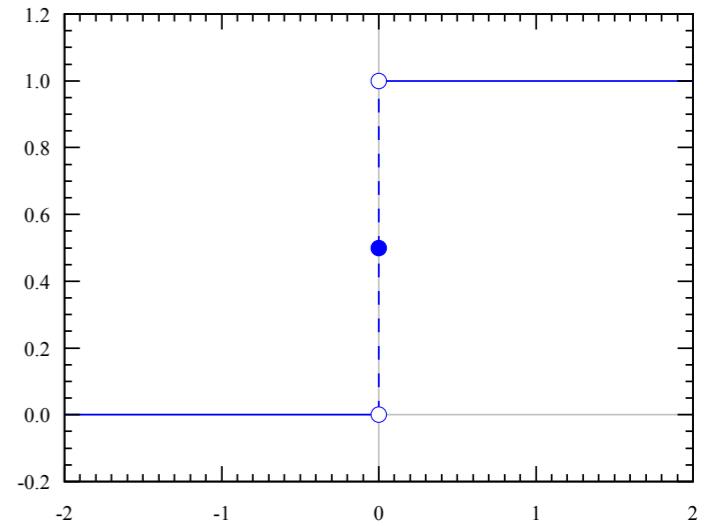


# Multi-Layer Perceptron



# Activation functions

- Play a major role
- Original perceptron: heavy side step-function
- Many variants:
  - Linear
  - Logistic
  - $\tanh$
  - ReLU - rectified linear unit
  - GeLU - Gaussian error linear unit
  - ...



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# **Activation functions**

- Limitations of linear functions:
  - A N-layer network can be written as a 2-layer network

# Linear activations

Consider a network with a single hidden layer and two activation functions  $\zeta$  and  $\sigma$ :

$$y_k(x) = \sigma \left( \sum_j w_{kj}^{(2)} \zeta \left( \sum_i w_{ji}^{(1)} x_i \right) \right)$$

If the activation functions are linear, then we can rewrite the equations in the following vectorial notation:

$$y = (\sigma \cdot W^{(2)}) (\zeta \cdot W^{(1)} x)$$

$$= W^{(2)'} (W^{(1)'} x)$$

$$= W'' x$$

Linear activation functions result in linear models!

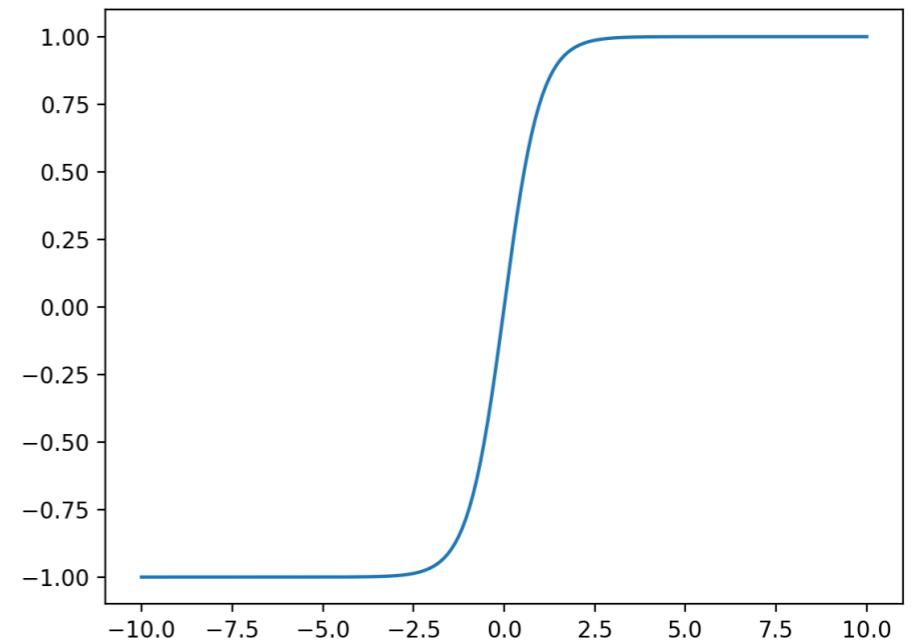
→ The activation functions between layers should be non-linear.

# Activation functions

## Examples

Hyperbolic tangent

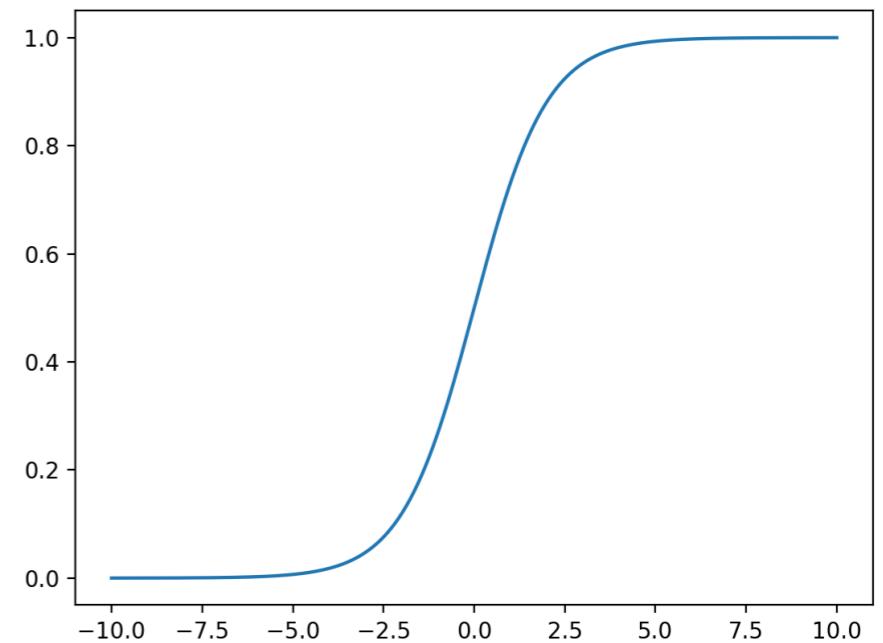
$$\tanh(x) = \frac{2}{1 + e^{-2x}} - 1 = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$



Logistic function

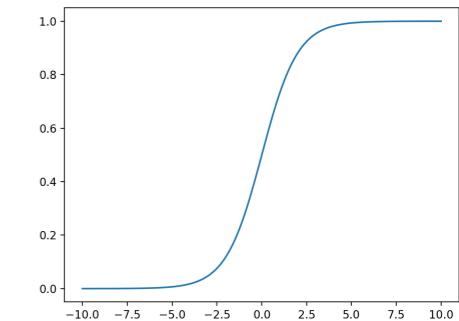
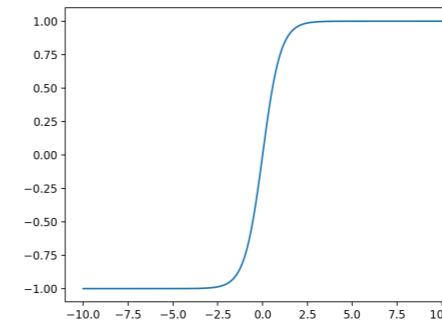
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-kx}}, \text{ with } k = 1$$

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} = \frac{e^x}{e^x + 1}$$



# Activation functions

Limitations of “sigmoid” functions: tanh and logistic



... the hyperbolic tangent activation function typically performs better than the logistic sigmoid. - Page 195

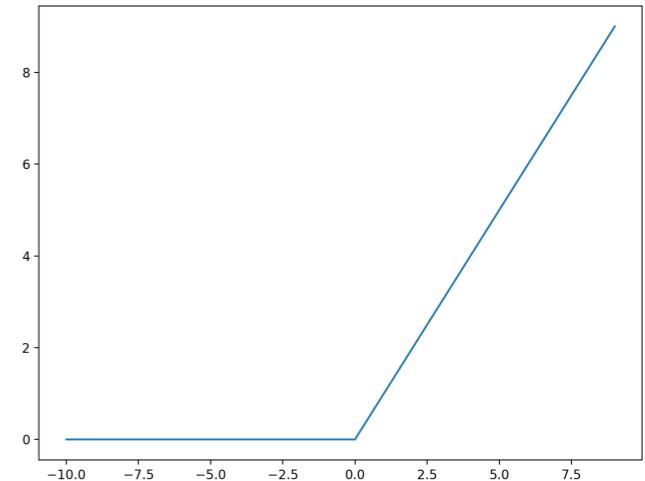
... sigmoidal units saturate across most of their domain—they saturate to a high value when  $z$  is very positive, saturate to a low value when  $z$  is very negative, and are only strongly sensitive to their input when  $z$  is near 0. - Page 195

Vanishing gradients make it difficult to know which direction the parameters should move to improve the cost function - Page 290

# Activation functions

$$ReLU(x) = \max(0, x)$$

- Motivation of ReLU
  - Computational Simplicity
  - Representation Sparsity - can output true zero values
  - Linear Behavior



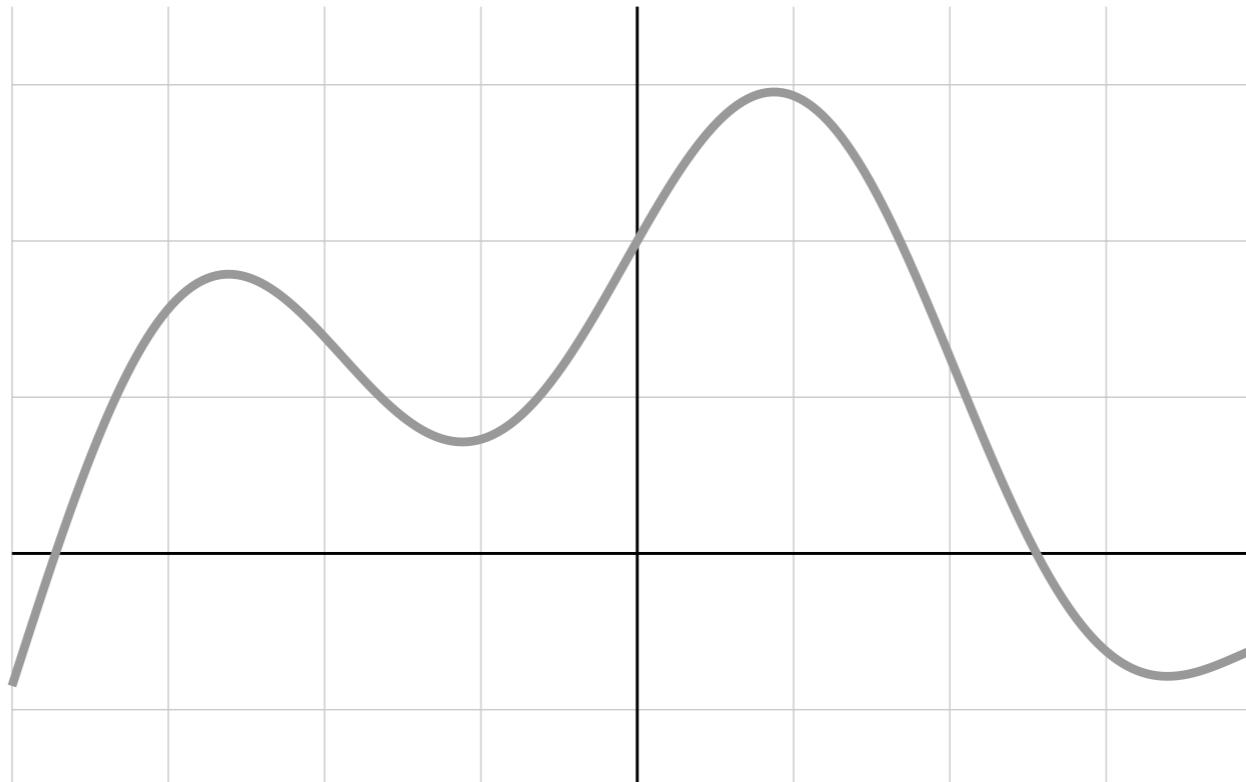
... [another] major algorithmic change that has greatly improved the performance of feedforward networks was the replacement of sigmoid hidden units with piecewise linear hidden units, such as rectified linear units. - Page 226

Computations are also cheaper: there is no need for computing the exponential function in activations. - Page 226

# **Universal approximation**

A continuous function can be approximated with a linear combination of translated/scaled ReLU functions

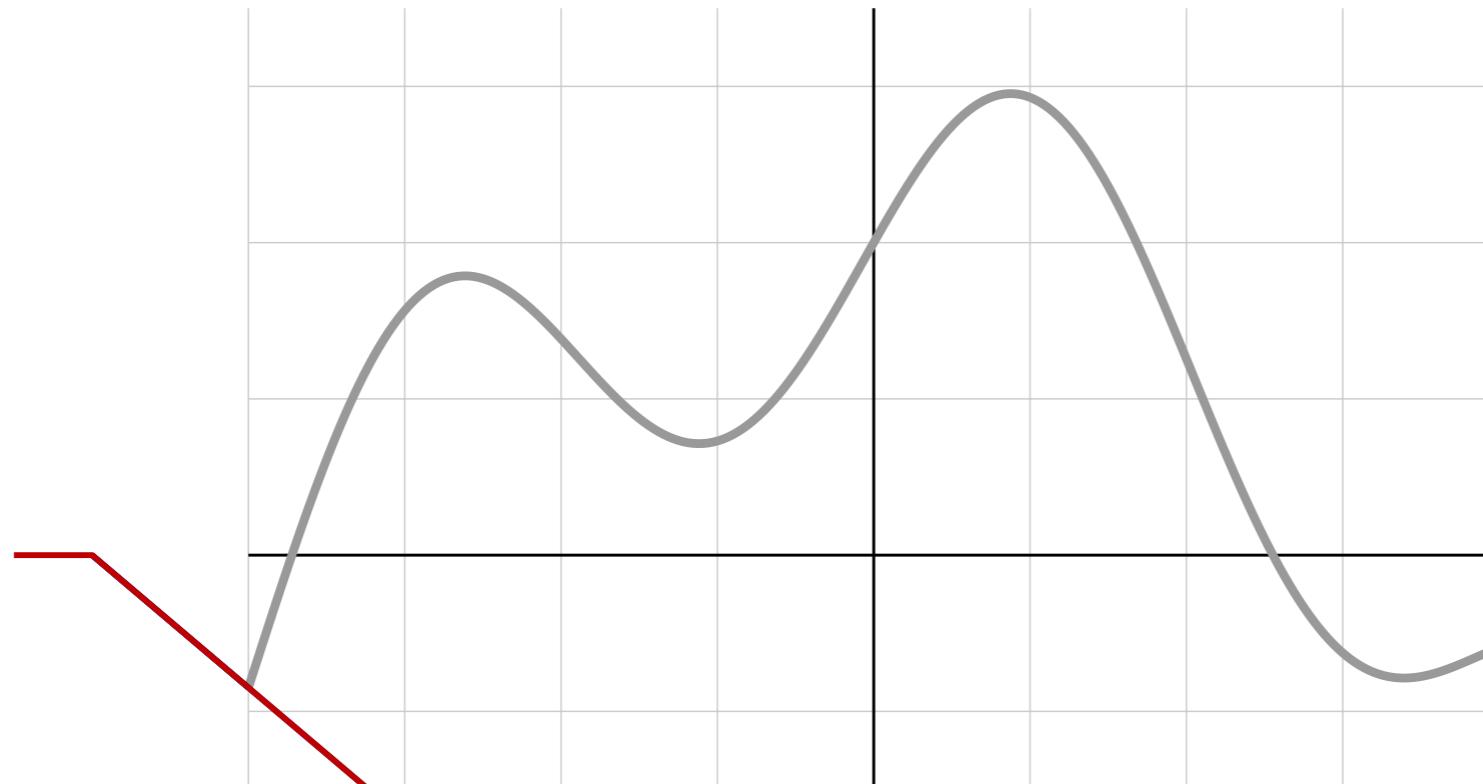
We can approximate any  $\psi \in \mathcal{C}([a, b], \mathbb{R})$  with a linear combination of translated/scaled ReLU functions.



Original Slides from François Fleuret  
<https://www.idiap.ch/~fleuret/>

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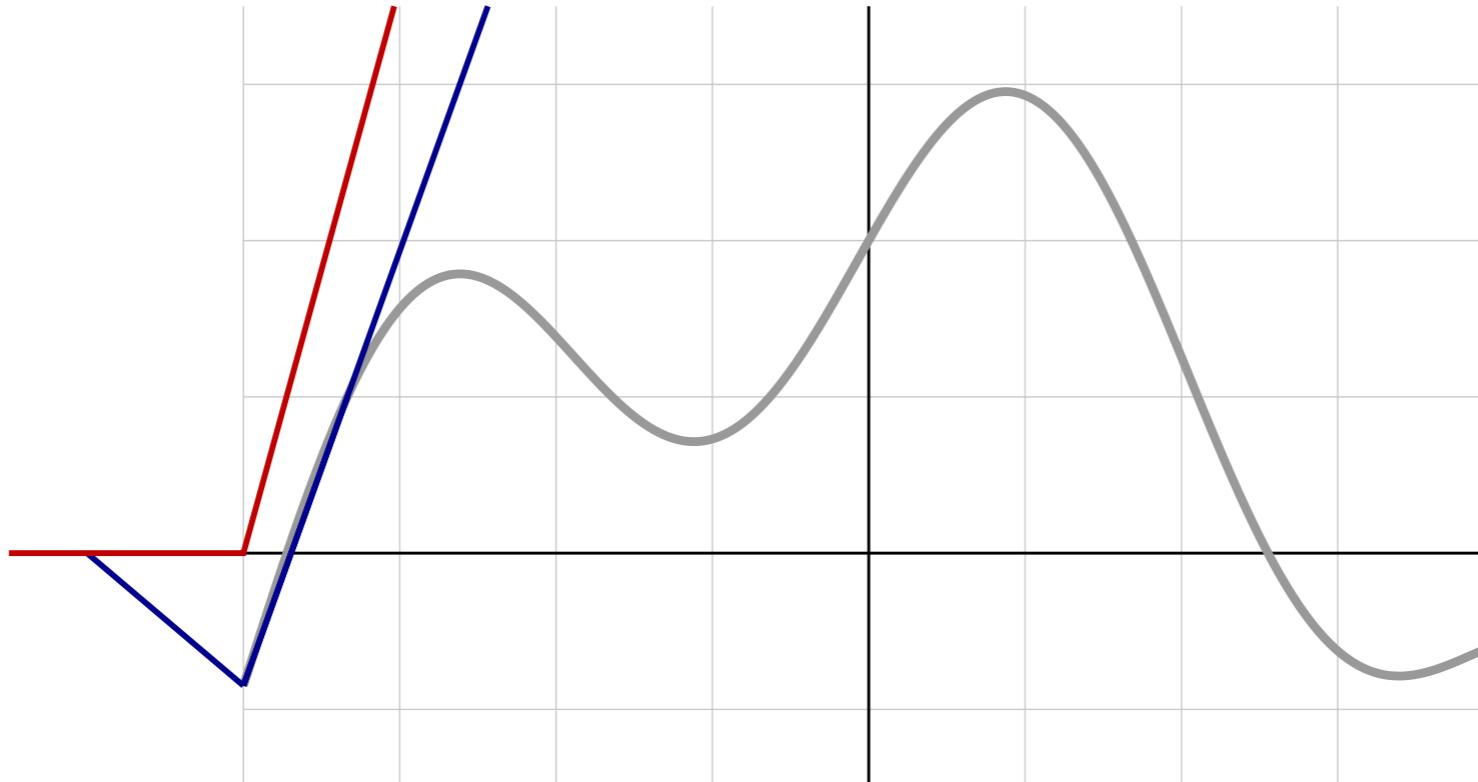
$$f(x) = \sigma(w_1 x + b_1)$$



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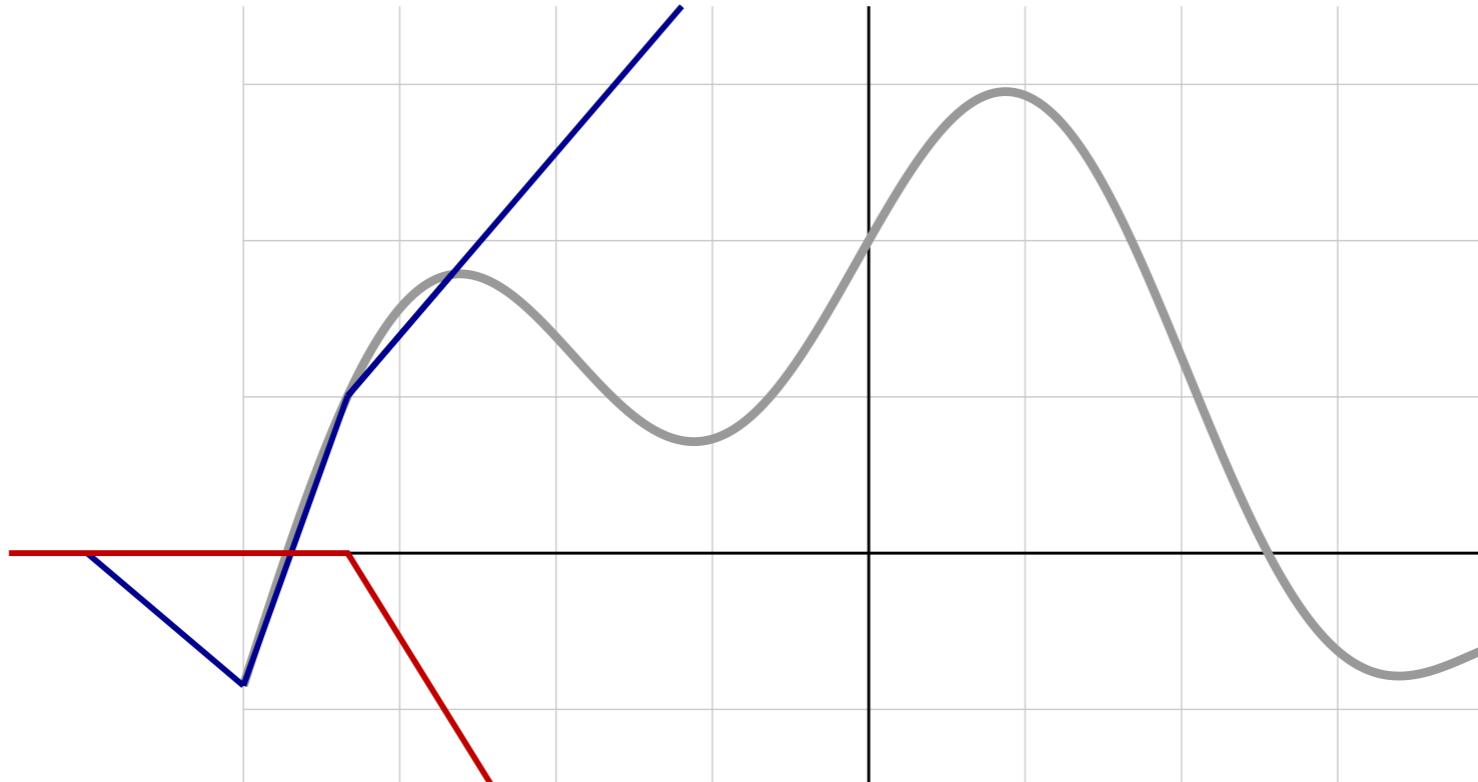
$$f(x) = \sigma(w_1x + b_1) + \sigma(w_2x + b_2)$$



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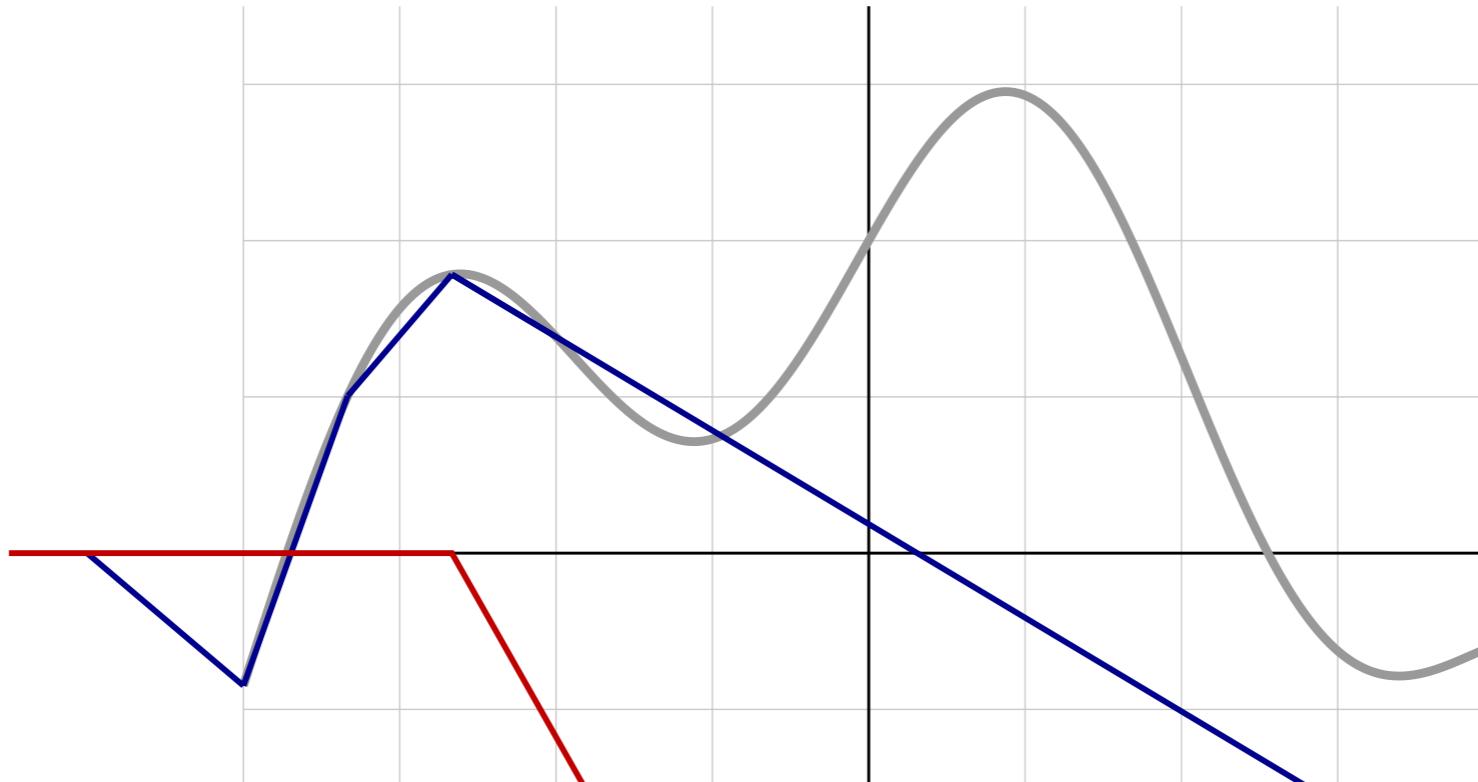
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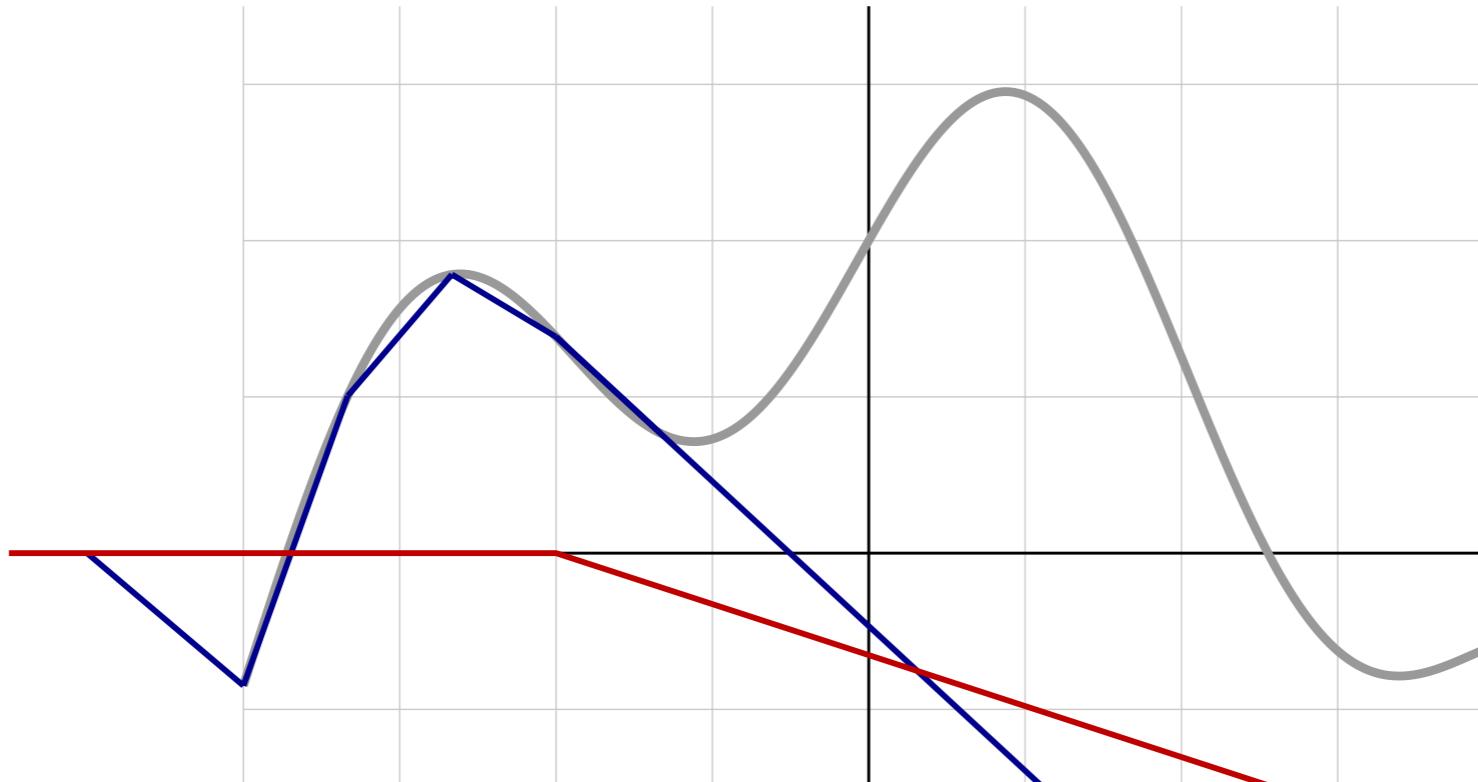
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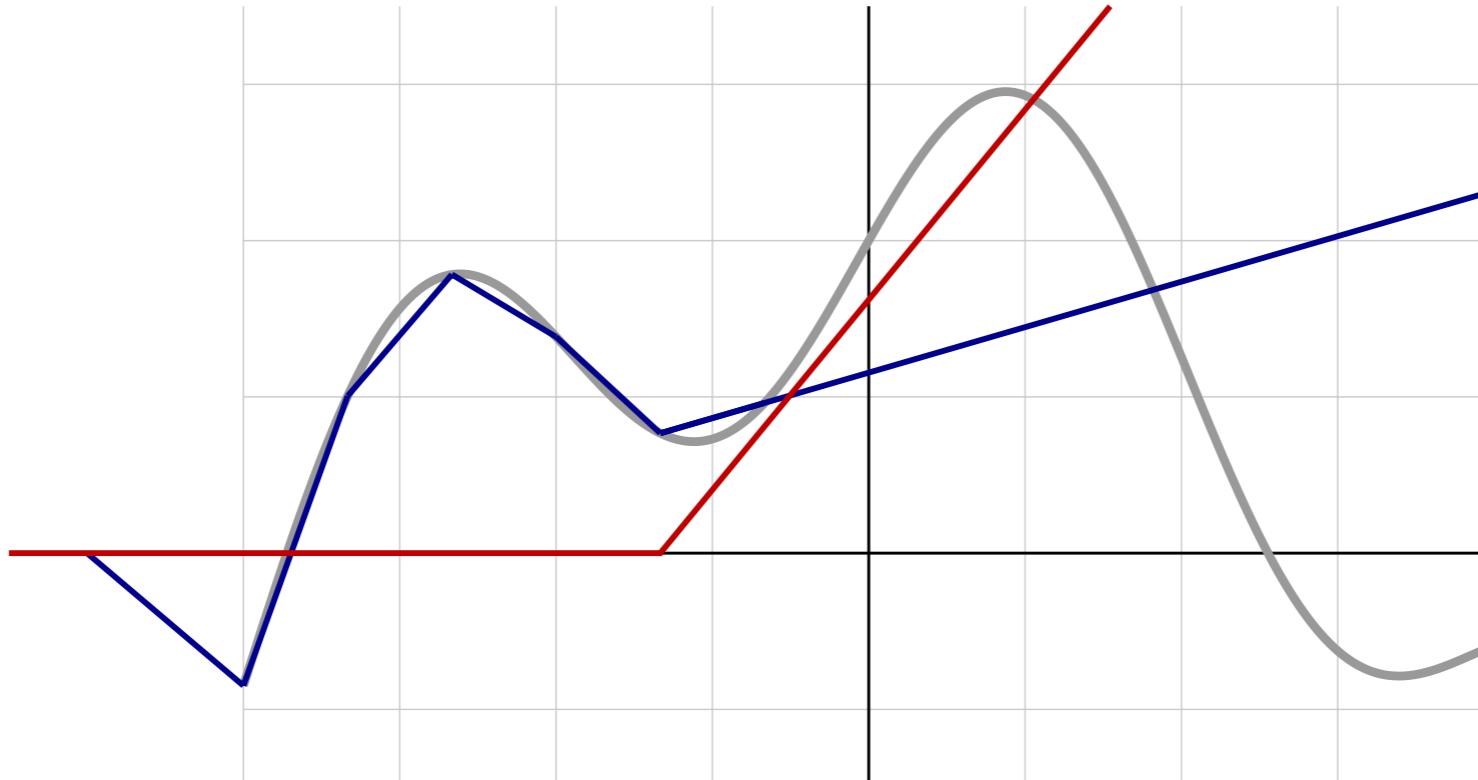
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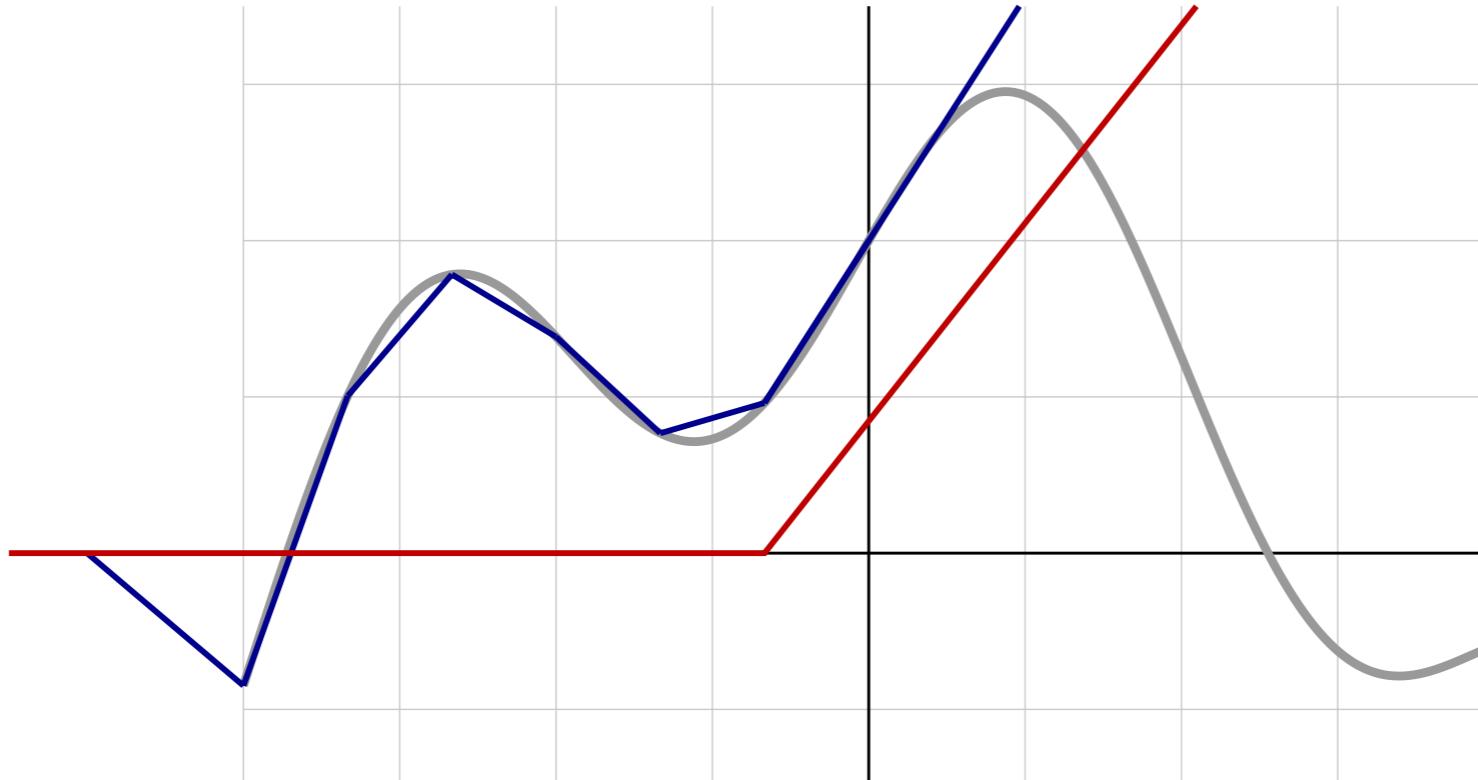
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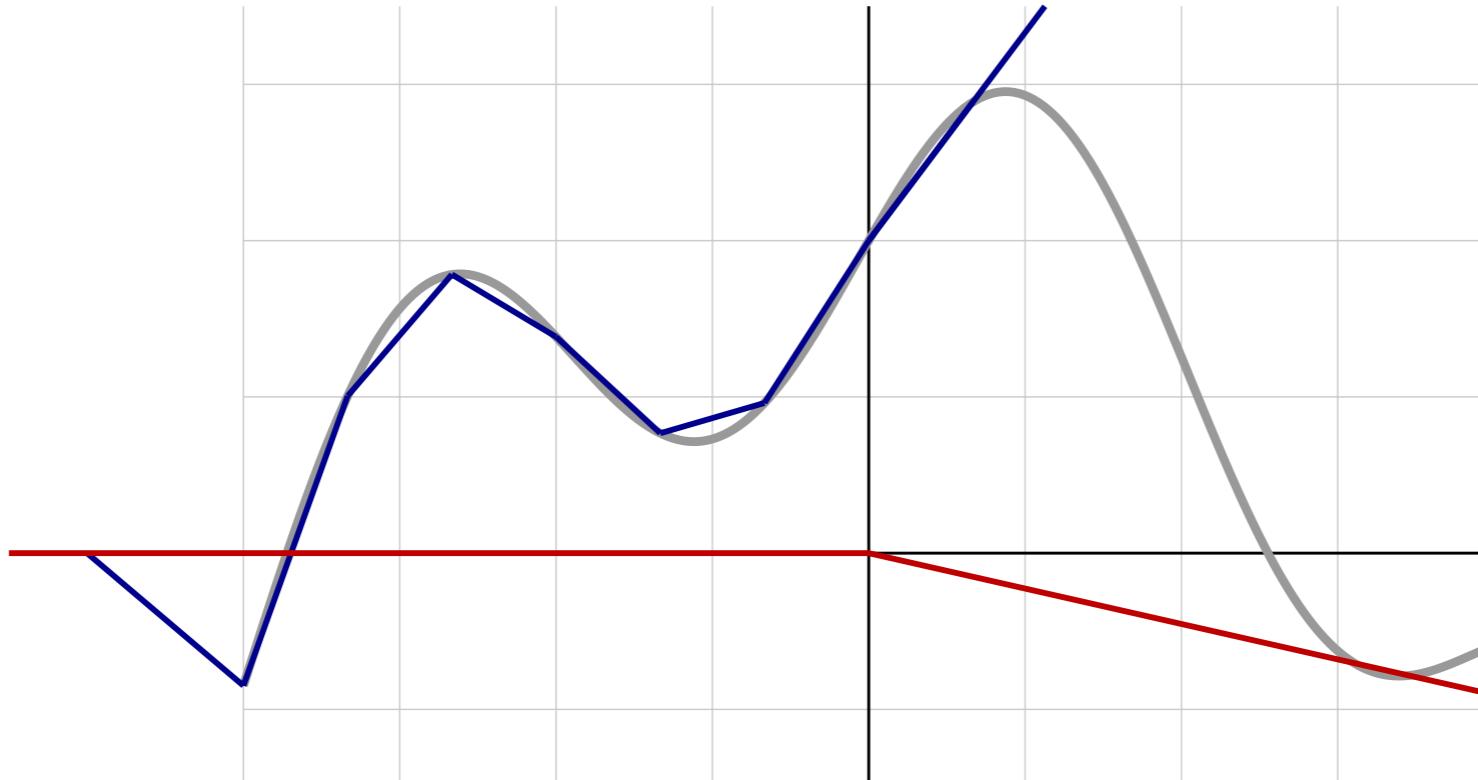
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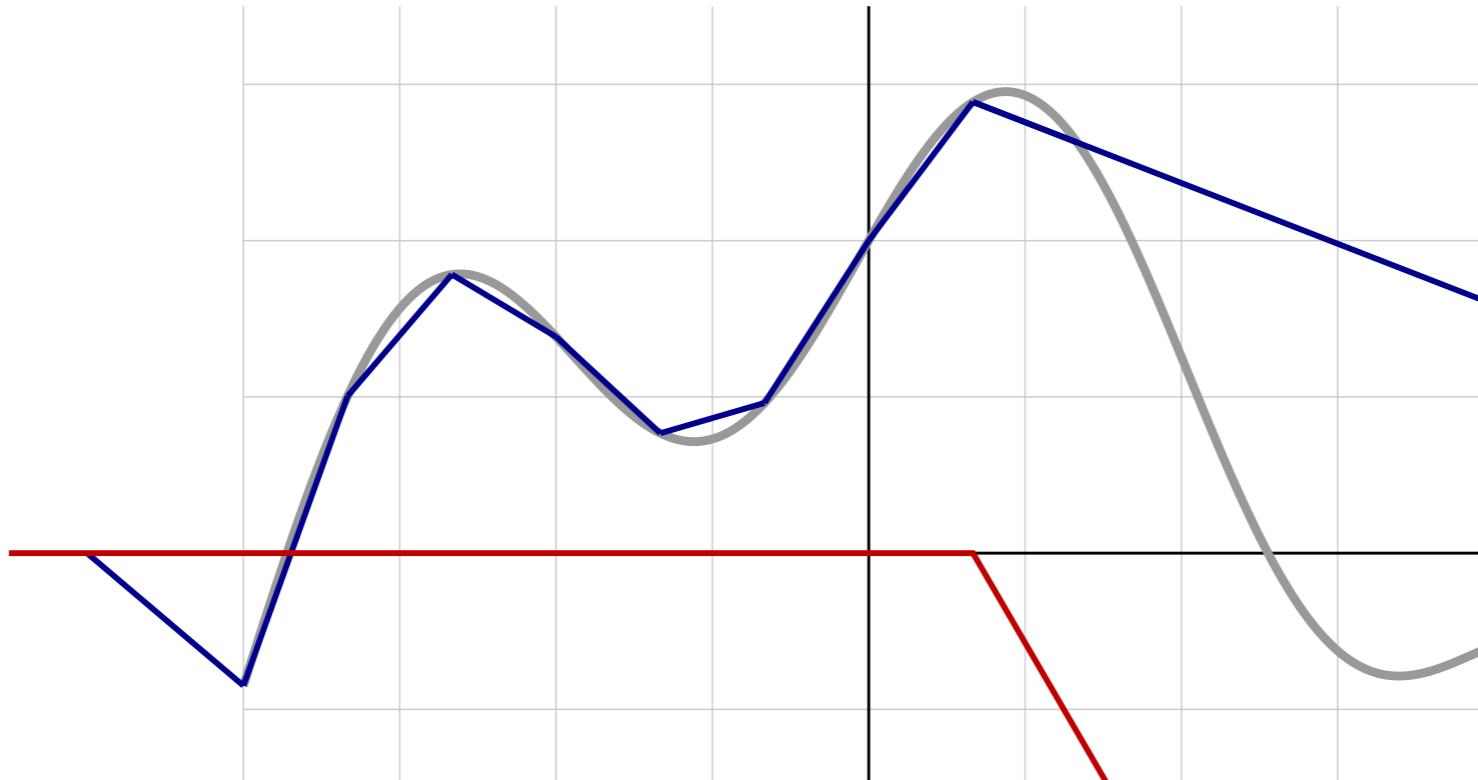
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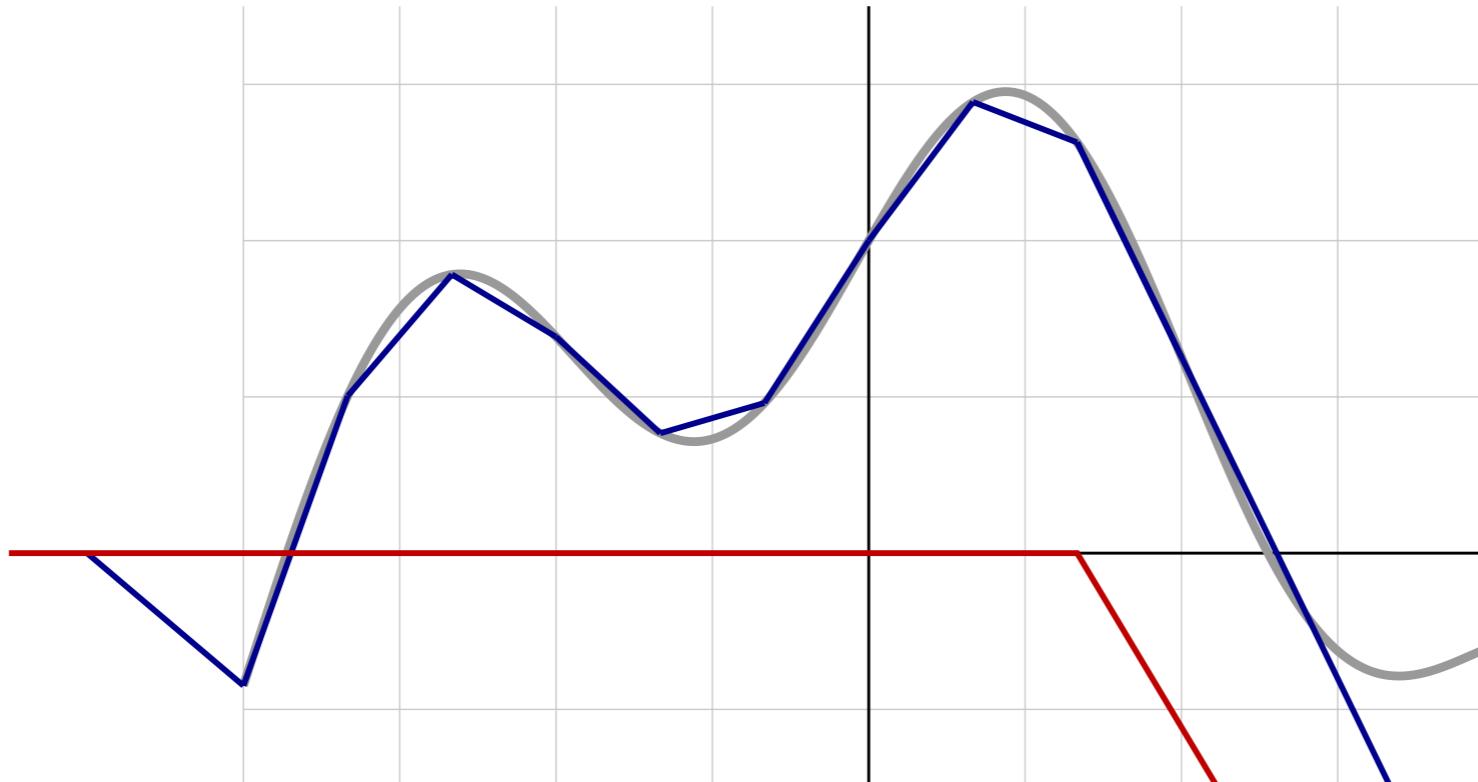
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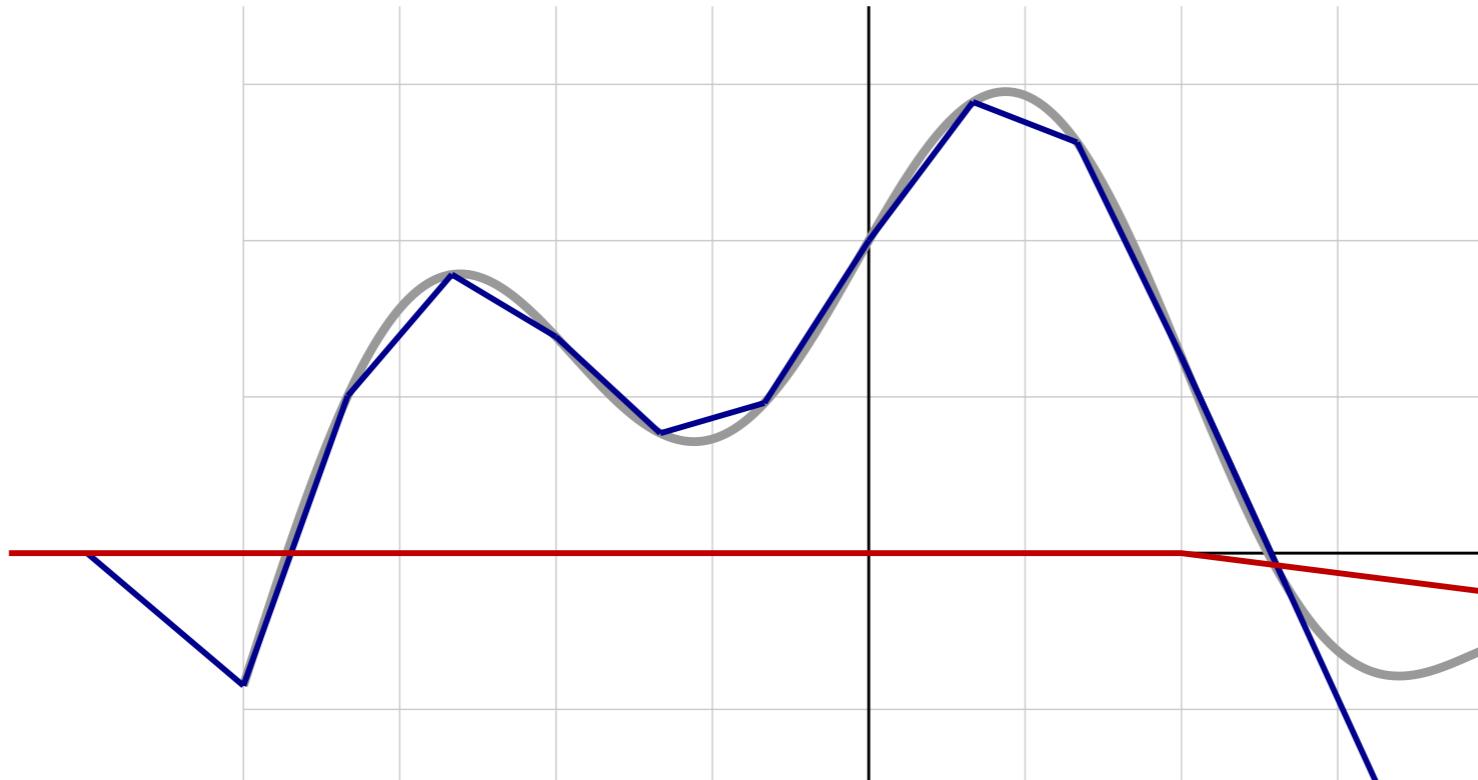
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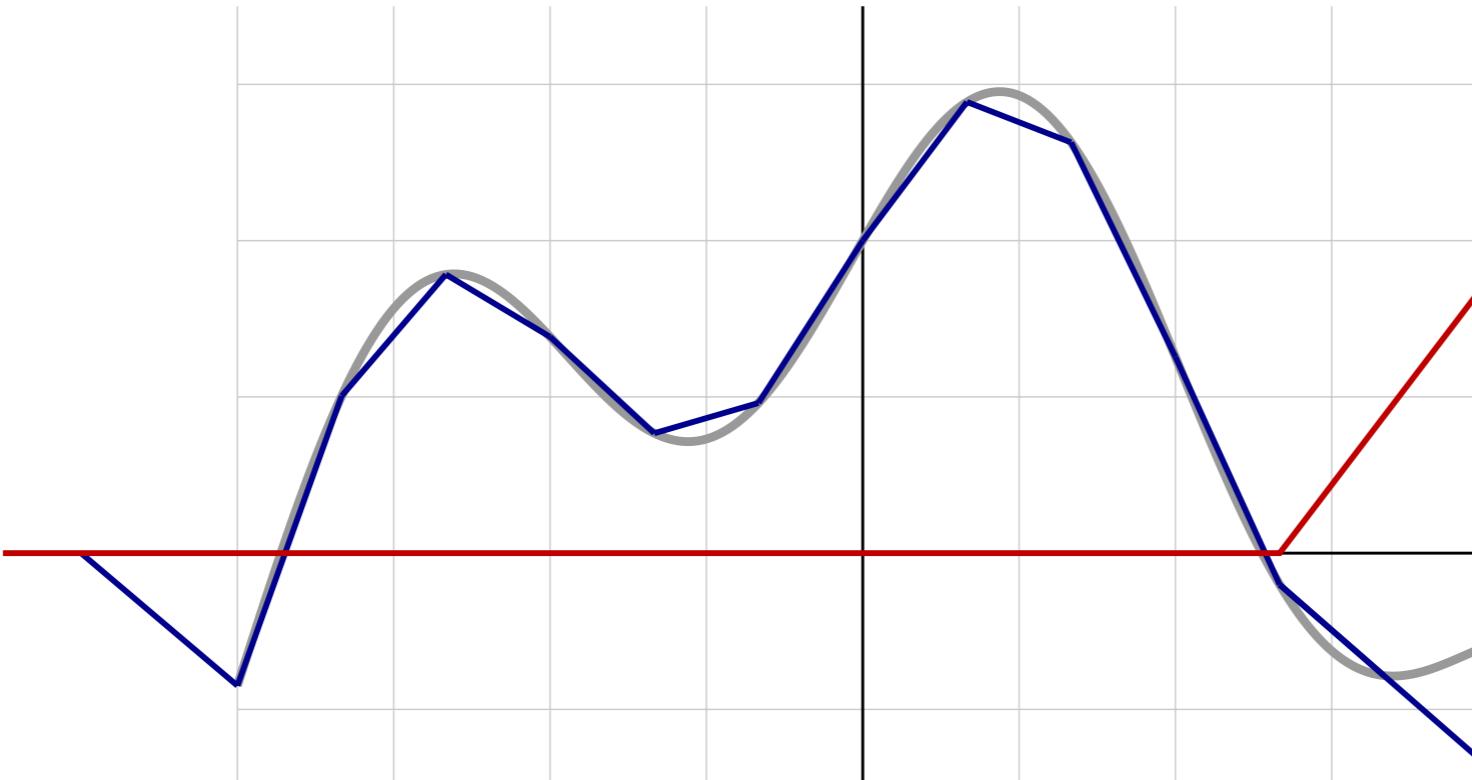
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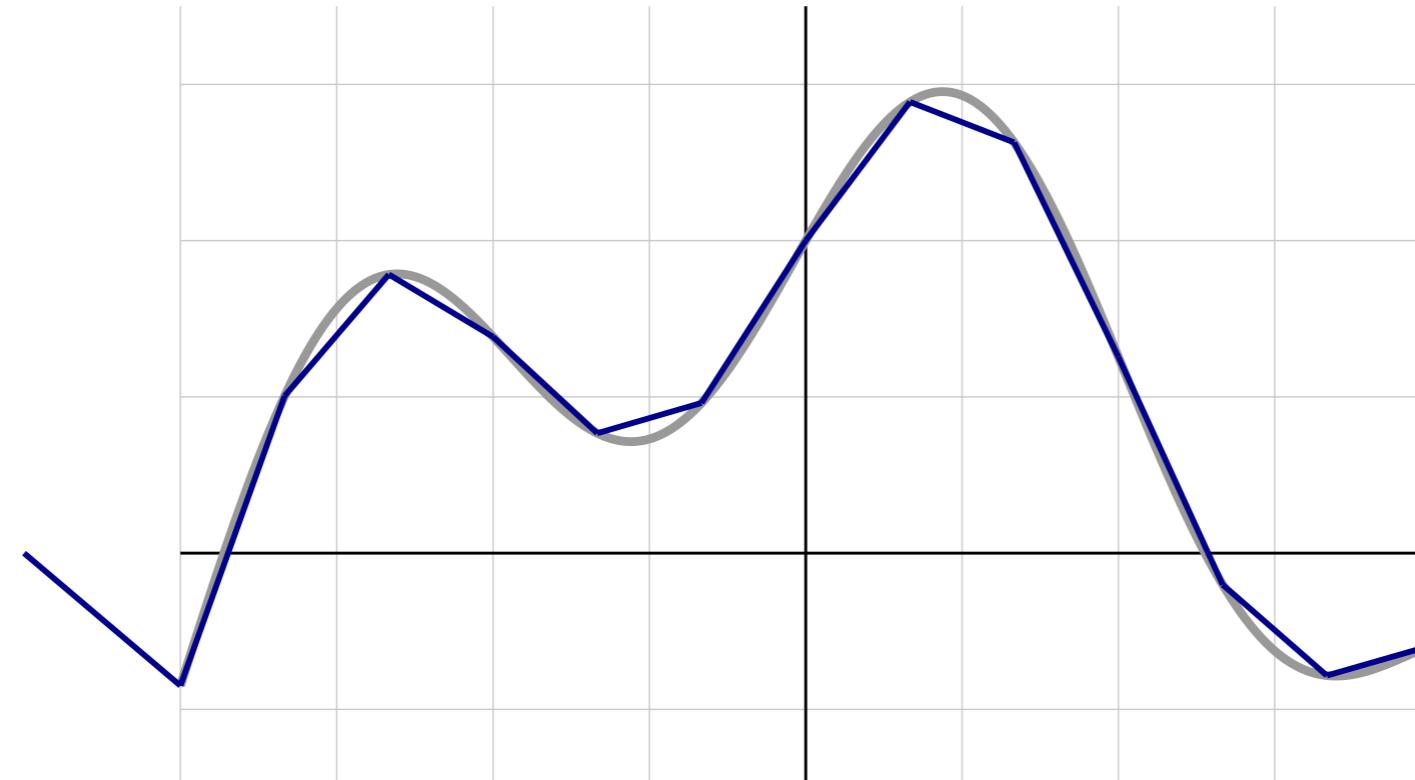
$$f(x) = \sigma(w_1x + b_1) + \sigma(w_2x + b_2) + \sigma(w_3x + b_3) + \dots$$



Original Slides from François Fleuret  
<https://www.idiap.ch/~fleuret/>

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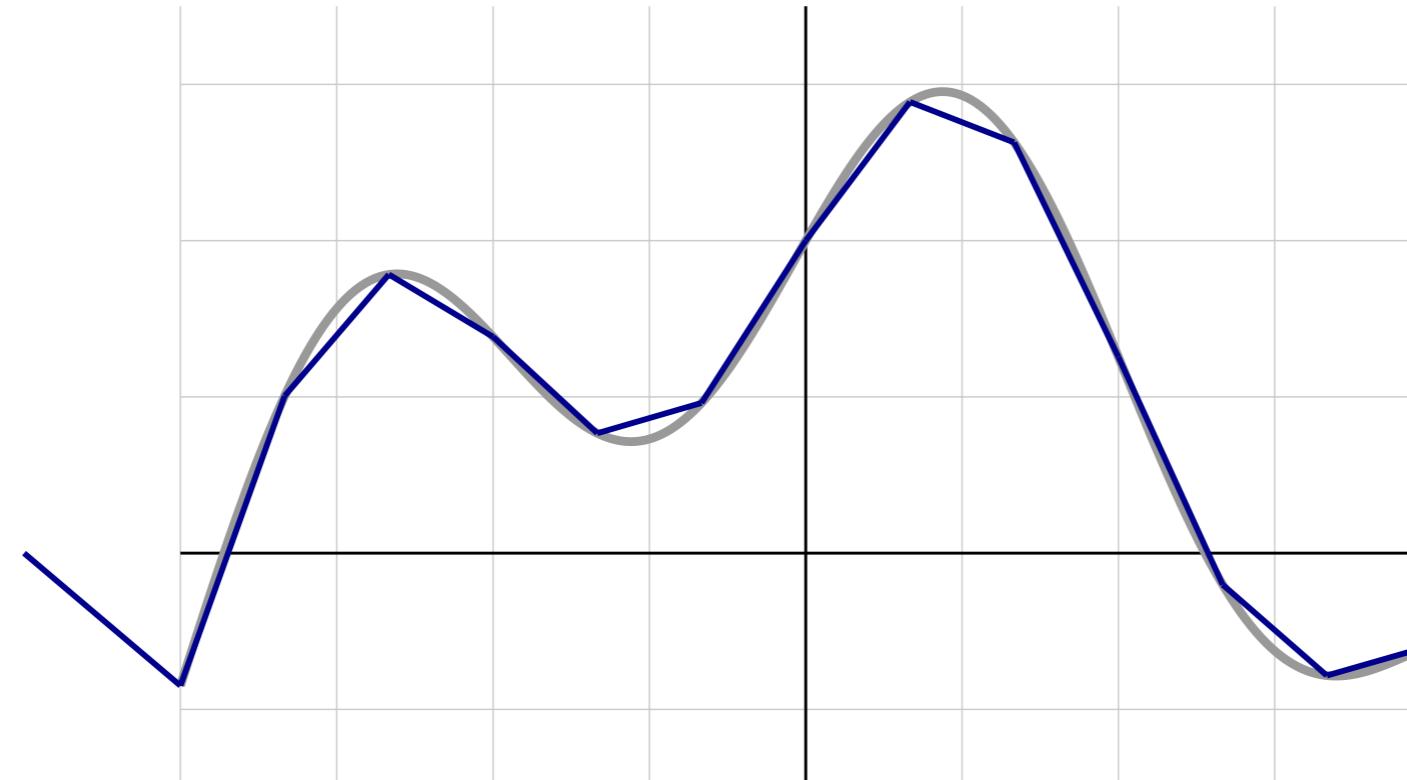
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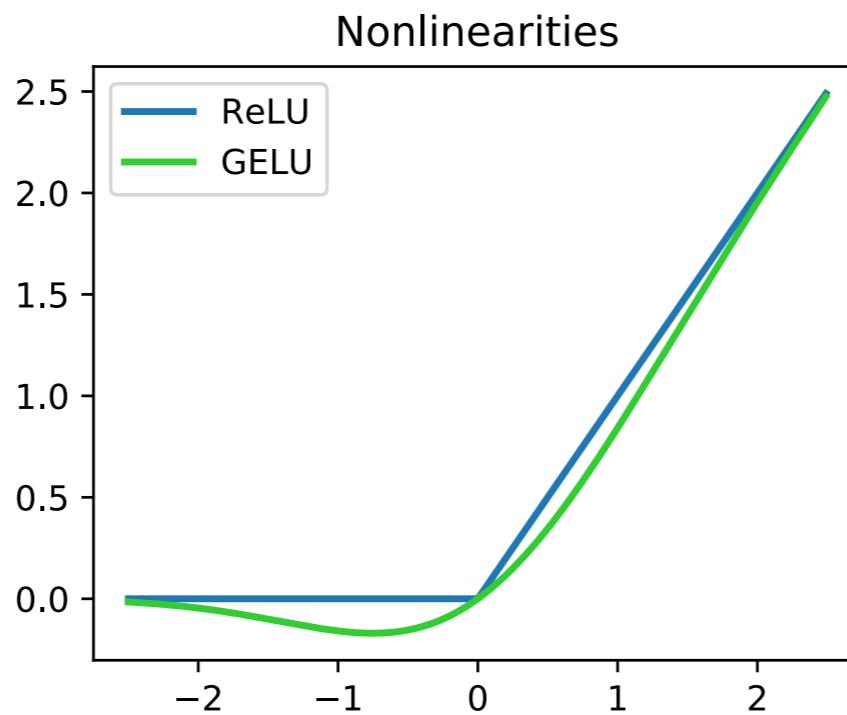


This is true for other activation functions under mild assumptions.

Original Slides from François Fleuret  
<https://www.idiap.ch/~fleuret/>

# Activation functions

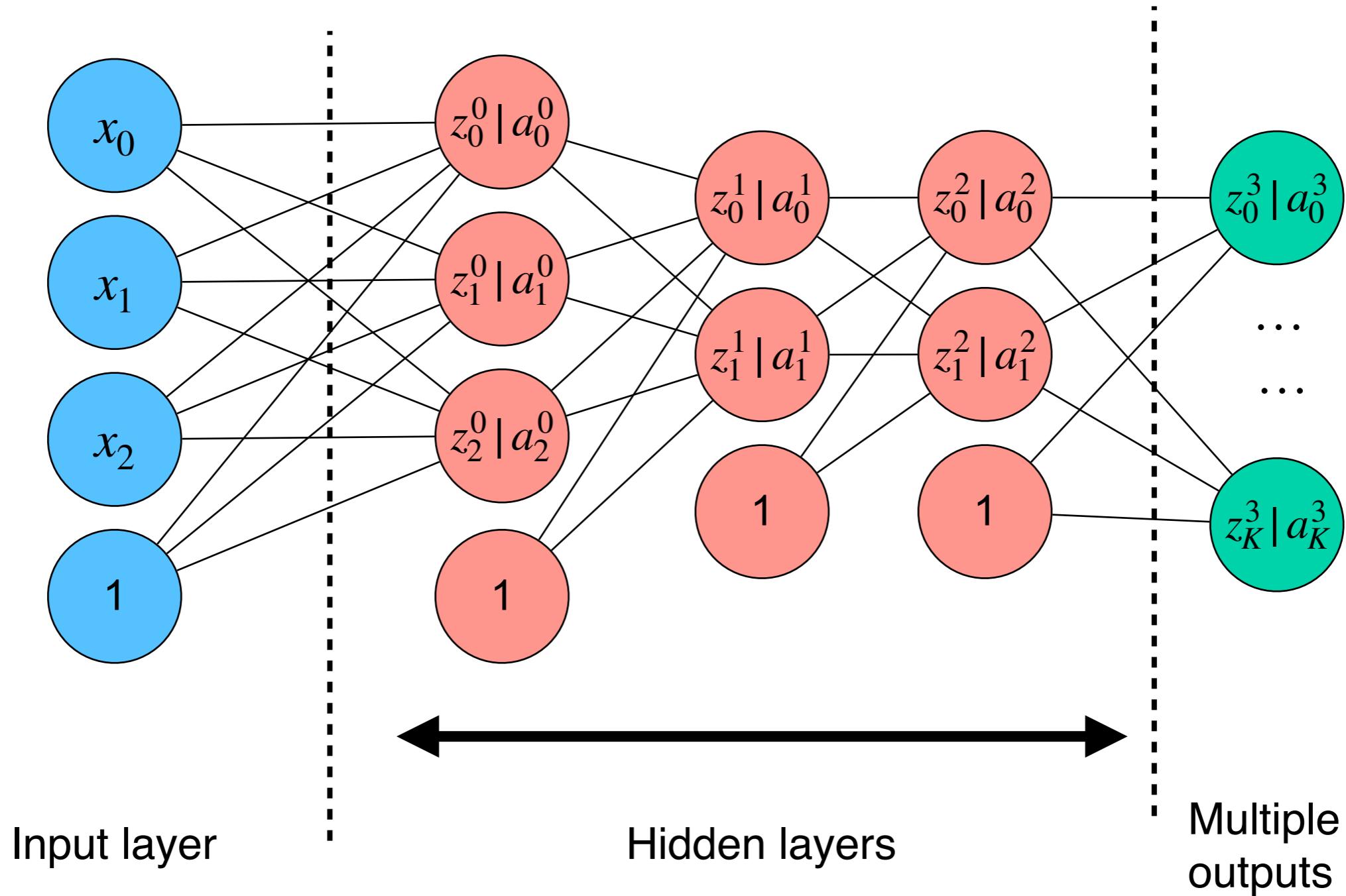
- Variant of ReLU:
  - GeLU - Gaussian Error Linear Unit



By Ringdongdang - Own work, CC BY-SA 4.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=95947821>

Hendrycks, Dan, and Kevin Gimpel. "Gaussian error linear units (gelus)." *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.08415* (2016).

# How to learn the weights?



# Frank Rosenblatt Perceptron (1956)

## Optimization

- Initialize weights  $w$  to zero (or small random)
- For each sample  $j$  in the training set  $D = \{\mathbf{x}_j, d_j\}$ :

- Compute prediction

$$y_j(t) = f(\mathbf{w}(t) \cdot \mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$= f(w_0(t) x_{j,0} + w_1(t) x_{j,1} + w_2(t) x_{j,2} + \dots + w_{N-1}(t) x_{j,N-1})$$

- Update all weights  $0 \leq i \leq N - 1$

$$w_i(t + 1) = w_i(t) + r \cdot (d_j - y_j(t)) x_{j,i}$$

$r$  learning rate (usually small)

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$r$  learning rate (usually small)

Update done for each observed sample - *stochastic gradient descent*

# Gradient descent

**First-order** iterative optimization algorithm  
to find a **local minimum**  
of a **differentiable function**

$$f : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

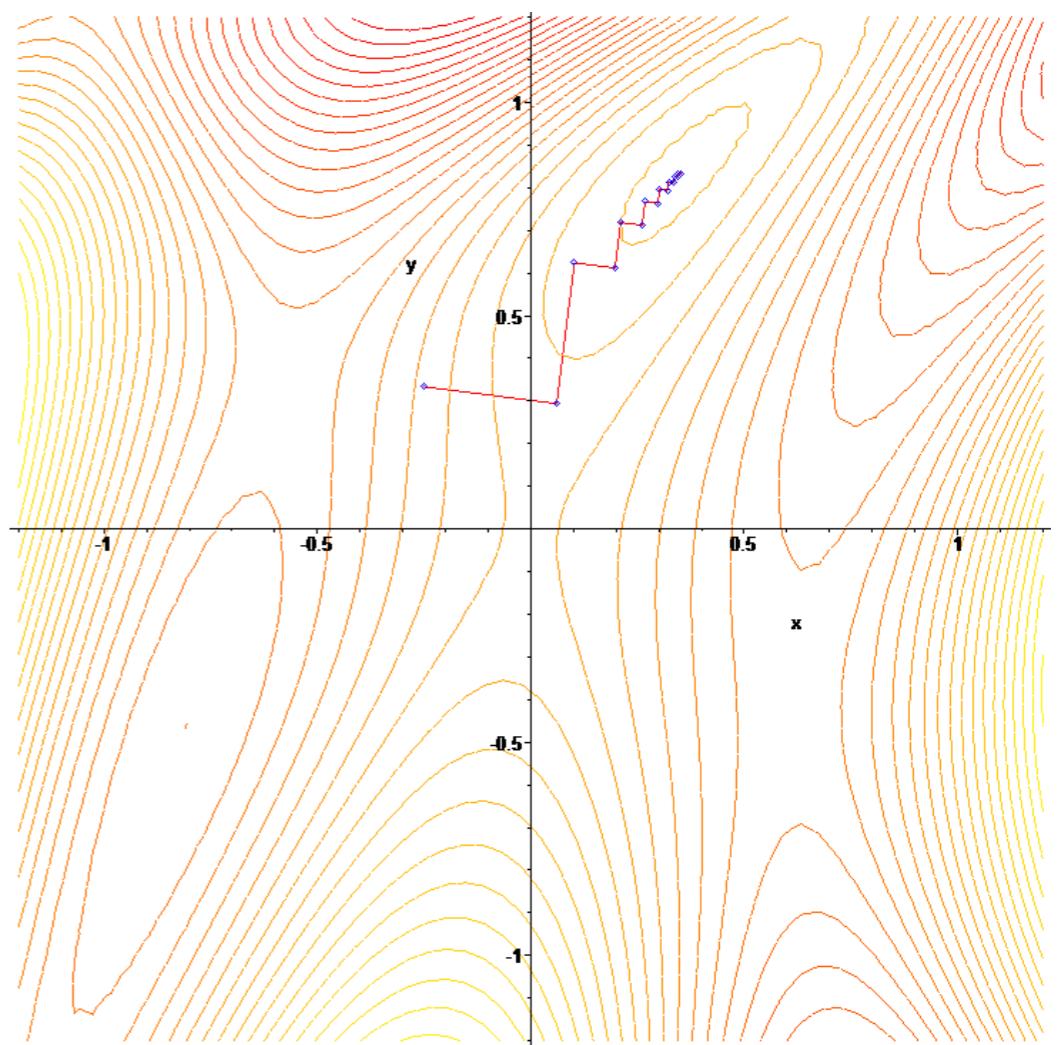
$$x \rightarrow f(x_1, \dots, x_D)$$

$$\nabla f : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$$

$$x \rightarrow \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_D}(x) \right)$$

# Gradient descent

Fog in the mountain analogy



By user:Joris Gillis - Created with Maple 10, Public Domain, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=521419>

By U.S. Forest Service- Pacific Northwest Region - Okanogan-Wenatchee National Forest, morning fog shrouds trees.jpg, Public Domain, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=72715391>

# Gradient descent

Starting with a guess  $x_0$  consider the sequence  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma_n \nabla f(x_n)$$

For a small  $\gamma_n$  we obtain that

$$f(x_0) \geq f(x_1) \geq f(x_2) \geq \dots$$

$\gamma_n$  can change at every iteration

Example: Barzilai-Borweing method

$$\gamma_n = \frac{|(x_n - x_{n-1})^T [\nabla f(x_n) - \nabla f(x_{n-1})]|}{||\nabla f(x_n) - \nabla f(x_{n-1})||^2}$$

# Gradient descent

Main limitation of gradient descent for learning:

- Evaluation of the gradient is computationally expensive

$$\nabla f(\omega, d_i), \omega \in \mathbb{R}^N, d_i \in \mathbb{R}^M, i \in [1, K]$$

- $\omega$  network parameters
- dataset  $\{d_i, y_i\}$  with  $i \in [1, K]$  with  $K$  big

To evaluate the function (gradient) one needs to use the entire dataset ( $K$  samples)

Solution: stochastic approximation of gradient descent

Estimate the function (gradient) from a randomly selected subset  $\{d_i, y_i\}, i \in [1, L], L \ll K$

# **Stochastic gradient descent**

**First-order** iterative optimization algorithm  
to find a **local minimum**  
of a **differentiable function**

## **Stochastic approximation of gradient descent**

Reduces the computational cost:

- Faster iterations
- Lower convergence rate

# Stochastic gradient descent

Minimize

$$f(\omega) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M f_i(\omega)$$

M number of data points

$$\begin{aligned}\omega_{n+1} &= \omega - r \nabla f(w) \\ &= \omega - \frac{r}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \nabla f_i(\omega)\end{aligned}$$

In stochastic (“on-line”) gradient descent  $\nabla f(w) \approx \nabla f_i(w)$  or  $\nabla f(w) \approx \sum_{i=1}^L \nabla f_i(w)$  (mini-batch)

$$\omega_{n+1} = \omega - r \nabla f_i(\omega)$$

# How to learn the weights?

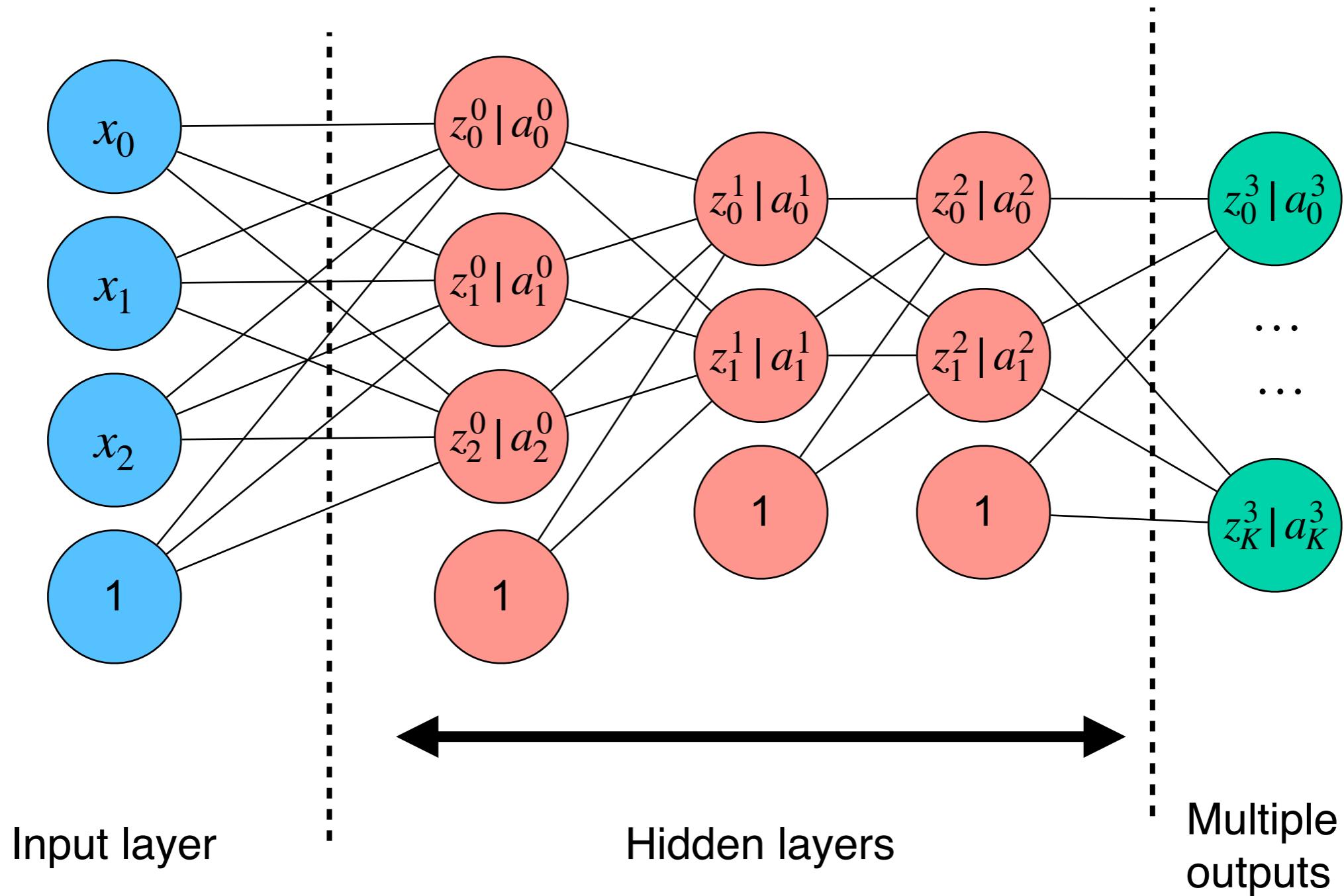
Which optimization technique to use?

- Gradient Descent
- Stochastic Gradient descent (SGD)
- SGD variants:
  - implicit updated (ISGD)
  - averaging
  - momentum
  - RMSProp
  - Adam
- BFGS (second order)
- ...

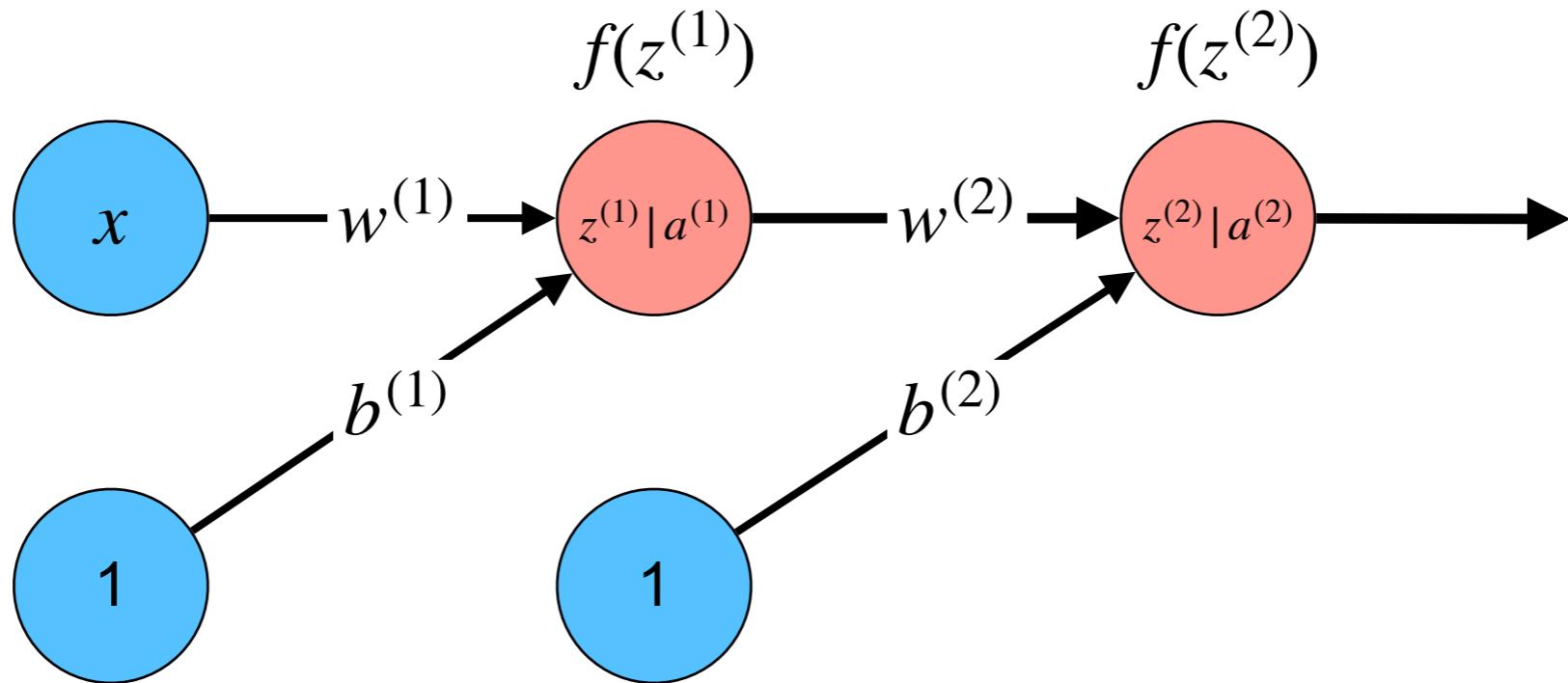
For the methods which are first order or higher:

- How to compute the gradients?

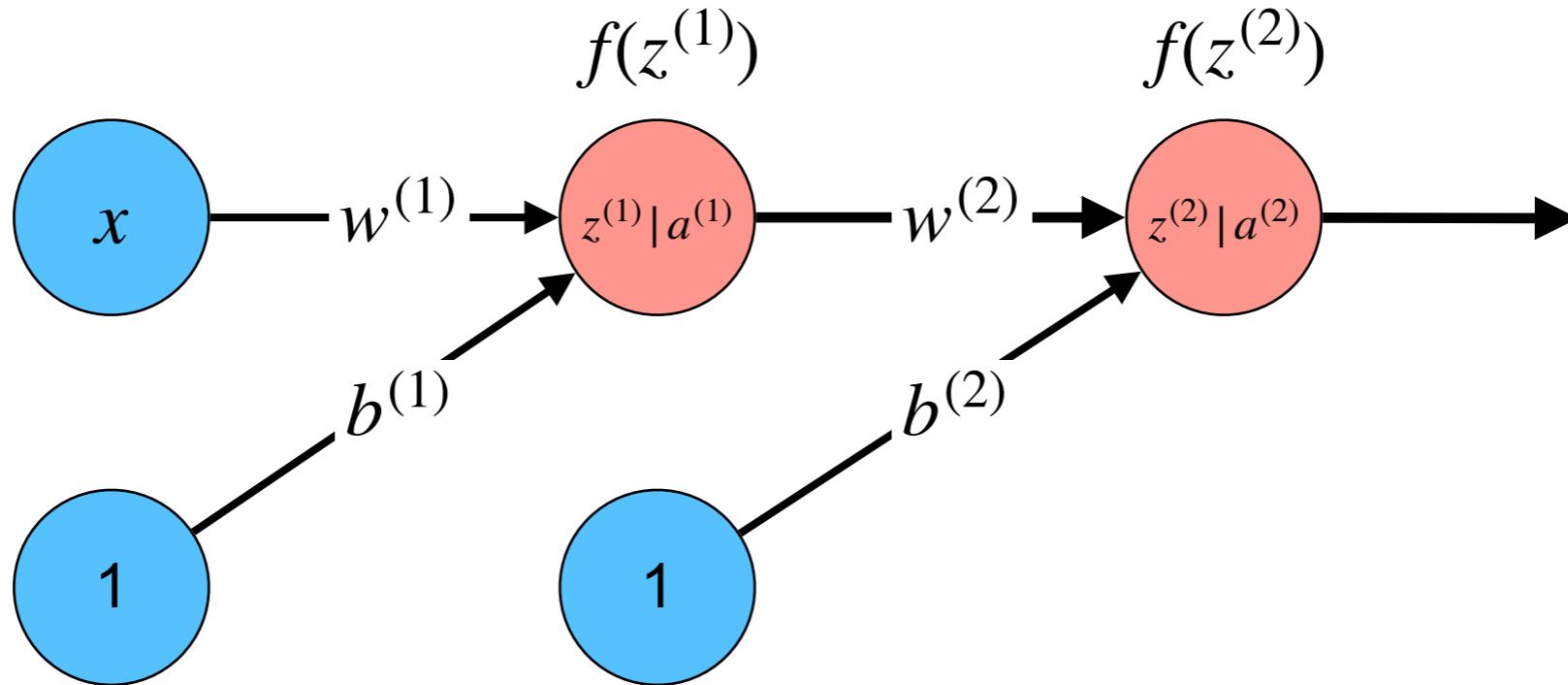
# How to compute the gradients? Backpropagation



# Backpropagation



# Backpropagation



Equations

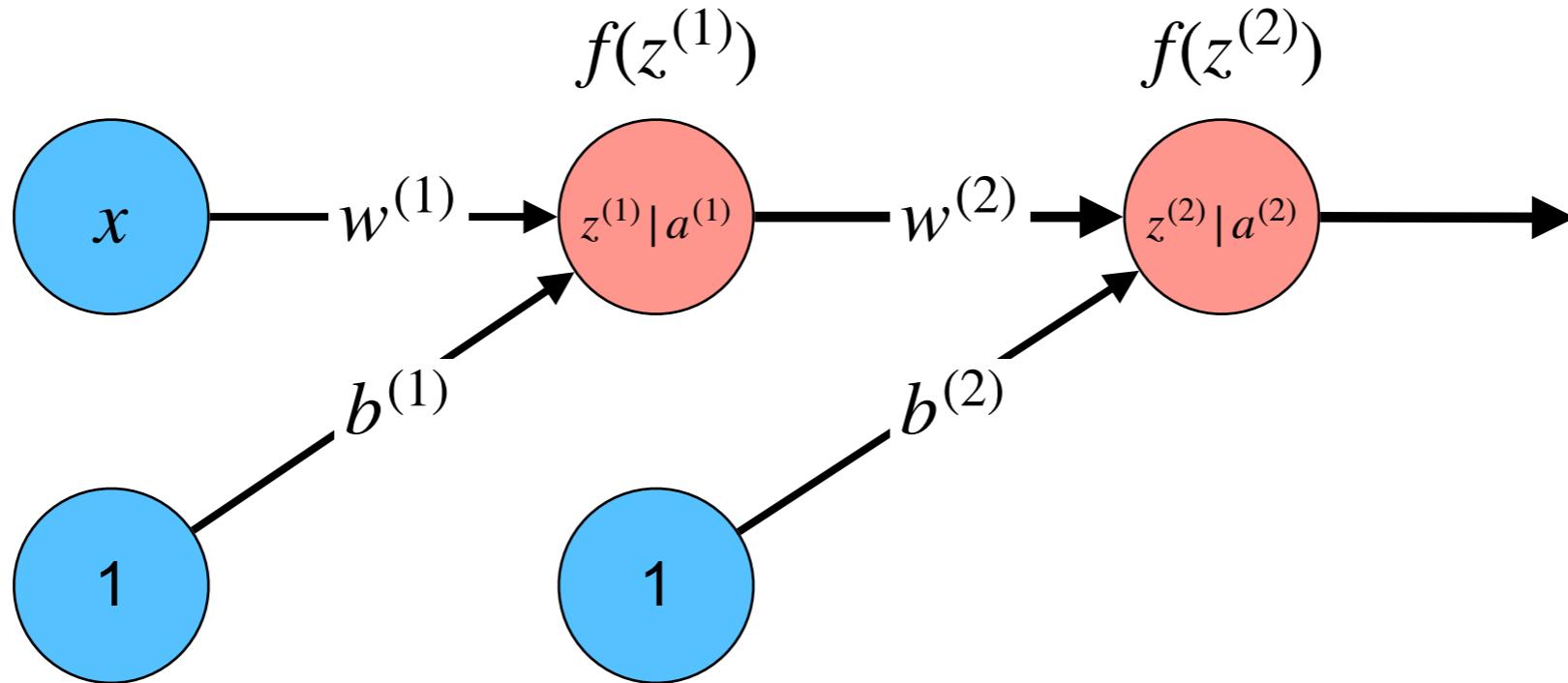
$$z^{(1)} = w^{(1)}x + b^{(1)}$$

$$a^{(1)} = f(z^{(1)}) = f(w^{(1)}x + b^{(1)})$$

$$z^{(2)} = w^{(2)}a^{(1)} + b^{(2)}$$

$$a^{(2)} = f(z^{(2)}) = f(w^{(2)}a^{(1)} + b^{(2)})$$

# Backpropagation



Equations

$$z^{(1)} = w^{(1)}x + b^{(1)}$$

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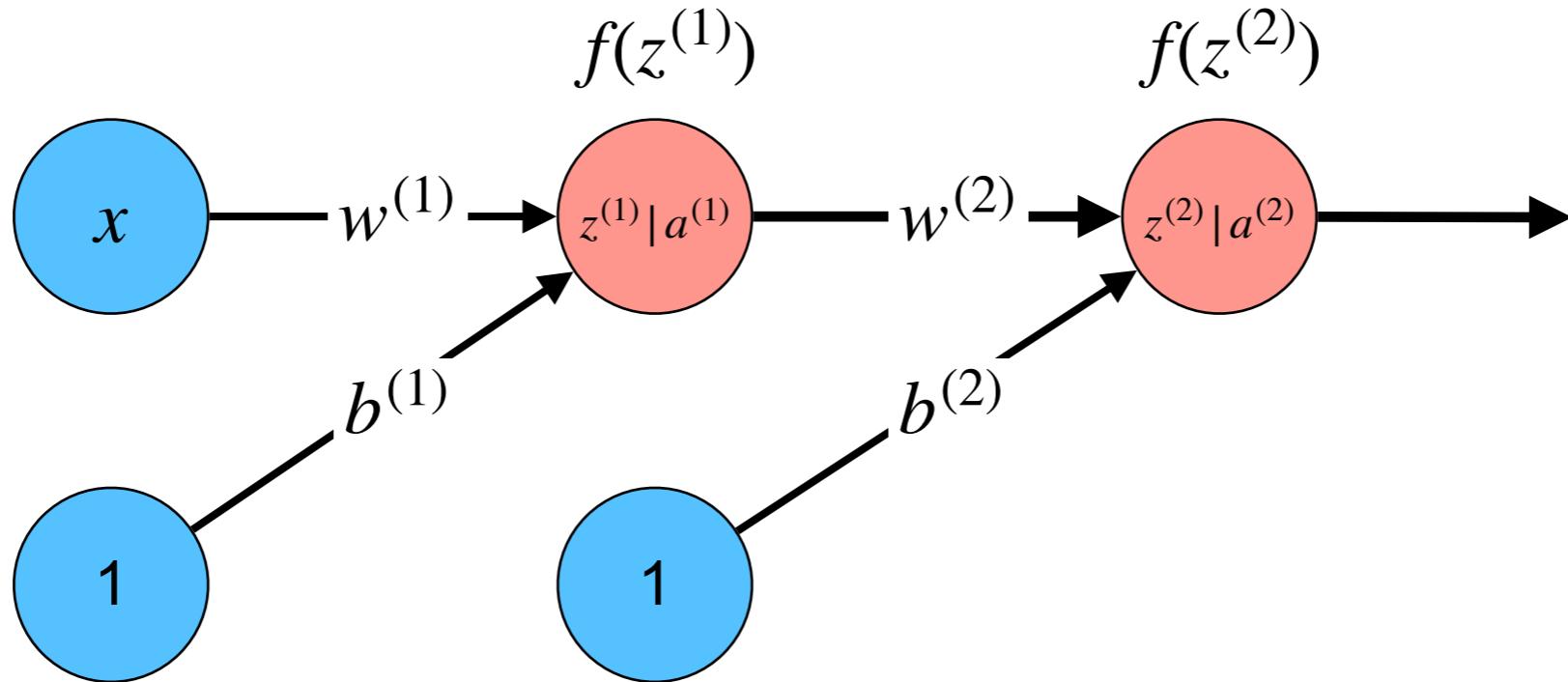
$$z^{(2)} = w^{(2)}a^{(1)} + b^{(2)}$$

$$a^{(2)} = f(z^{(2)}) = f(w^{(2)}a^{(1)} + b^{(2)})$$

Learnable  
parameters

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} w^{(1)} \\ b^{(1)} \\ w^{(2)} \\ b^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$

# Backpropagation



Equations

$$z^{(1)} = w^{(1)}x + b^{(1)}$$

$$a^{(1)} = f(z^{(1)}) = f(w^{(1)}x + b^{(1)})$$

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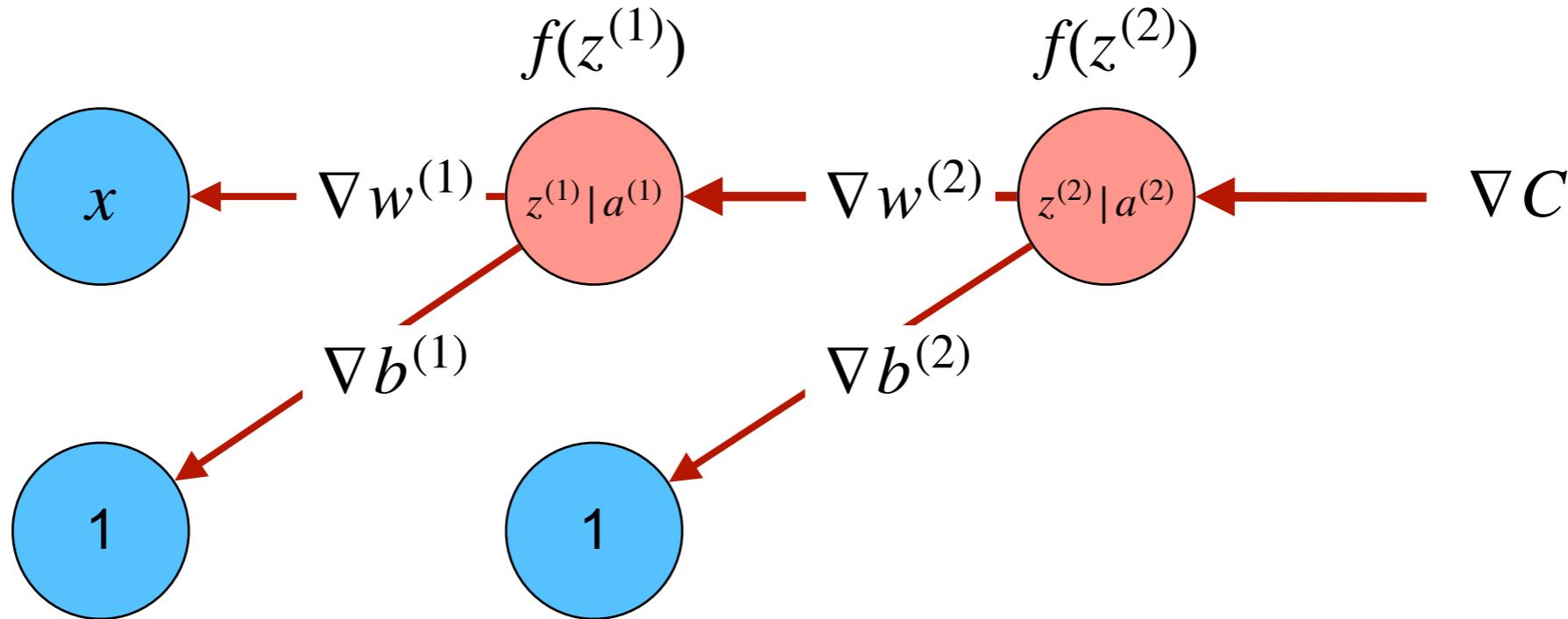
$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} w^{(1)} \\ b^{(1)} \\ w^{(2)} \\ b^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Cost (loss)

$$C = C(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(a^{(2)} - y)^2$$

# Backpropagation



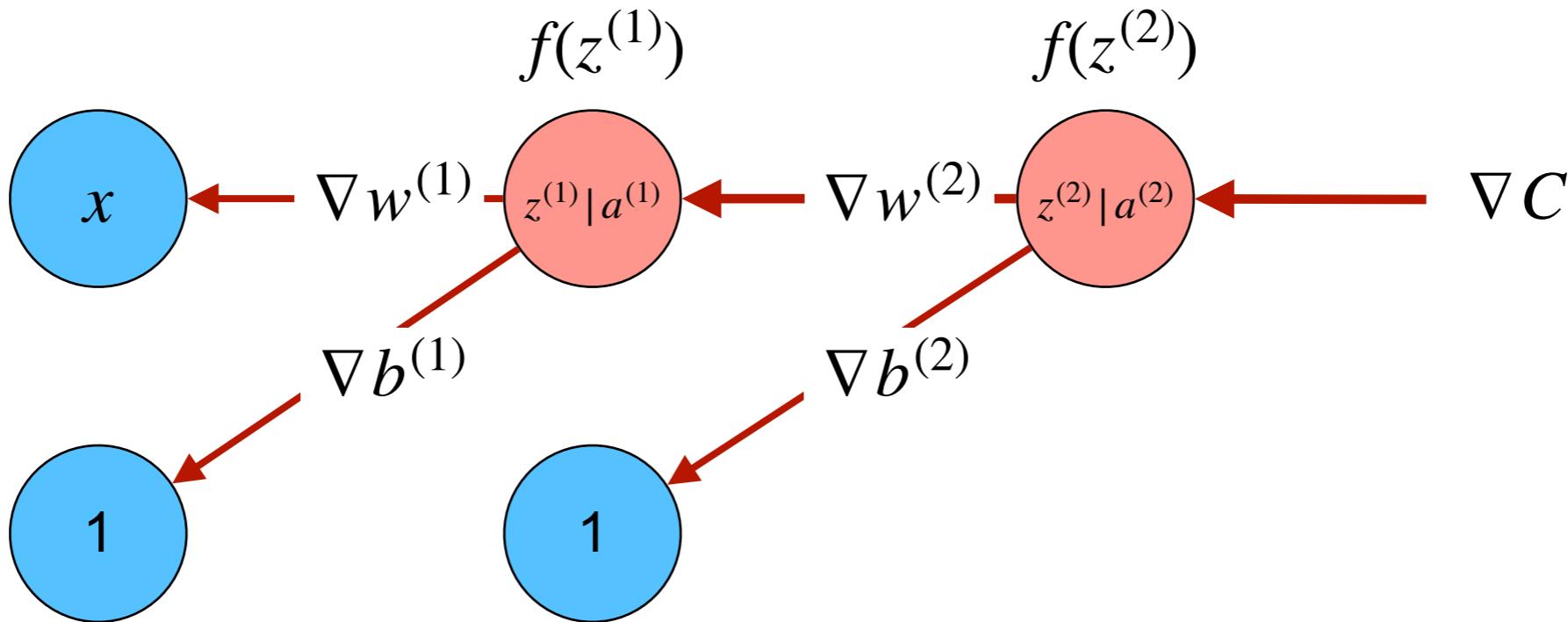
Compute the derivative of the cost wrt to the learnable parameters and update them

$$\nabla C = \frac{\partial C}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial C}{\partial w^{(1)}} \\ \frac{\partial C}{\partial b^{(1)}} \\ \frac{\partial C}{\partial w^{(2)}} \\ \frac{\partial C}{\partial b^{(2)}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla w^{(1)} \\ \nabla b^{(1)} \\ \nabla w^{(2)} \\ \nabla b^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$

Example:  $\frac{\partial C}{\partial w^{(2)}} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial a^{(2)}} \cdot \frac{\partial a^{(2)}}{\partial z^{(2)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z^{(2)}}{\partial w^{(2)}}$

Update :  $w^{(i)} \leftarrow w_i - r \frac{\partial C}{\partial w_i}(a_i)$

# Backpropagation



Summary:

- Forward pass computes  $a^{(i)}$  where derivatives are evaluated
- Chain-rule factorizes the derivatives
- Derivatives of activation functions are “closed form”
- Computing “backwards” allows to reuse the previous computations
- Can be massively parallelized:
  - All individual partials can be parallelized
  - Product is performed per-layer

# How to learn the weights?

Two layers of abstraction:

1. Gradient computation:

- where backpropagation comes to play

2. Optimization level:

- techniques like GD, SGD, Adam, Rprop, BFGS etc. come into play
  - use the computed gradient (or parts of it)

# Exercice

You are presented with one neuron with two inputs  $\mathbf{x} = (x^{(1)}, x^{(2)})$  and a single output  $y$ .

Your network initial weights are  $w^{(1)} = 0.1$ ,  $w^{(2)} = -0.2$  and  $b = 0.2$

Your activation function is a logistic function with  $k=1$  :  $a(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$

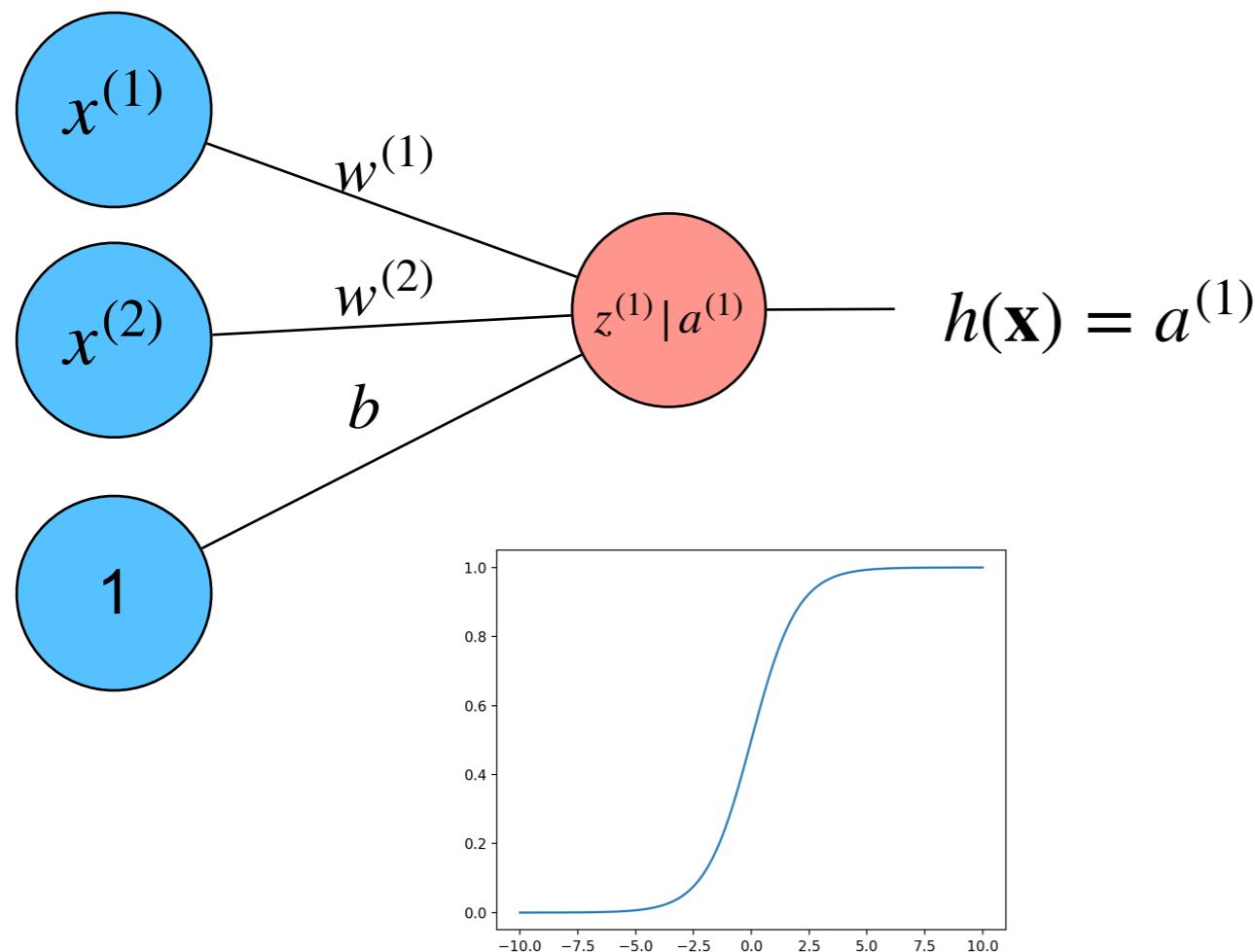
We assume a learning rate  $r = 0.1$

Your network should be optimized to recognize the following training data  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$  with  $i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

The cost to be optimized is  $C(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}(h(\mathbf{x}) - y)^2$

Q1: Compute the updated parameters for the observation  $\mathbf{x}_1, y_1$ .

Q2: Will the neuron converge for this training data?



m	x1	x2	y
1	0	1	0
2	1	0	1
3	1	1	1
4	0	0	0

# A note of weights initialization

How to initialize the weights?

Starting with all weights to 0 causes problems (weak signals)  
Starting with all weights high causes problems (overflow)

Initialize with small random values:

- sampling from a normal distribution
- Xavier method - optimized for sigmoids
- He method - variant optimized for ReLU activation

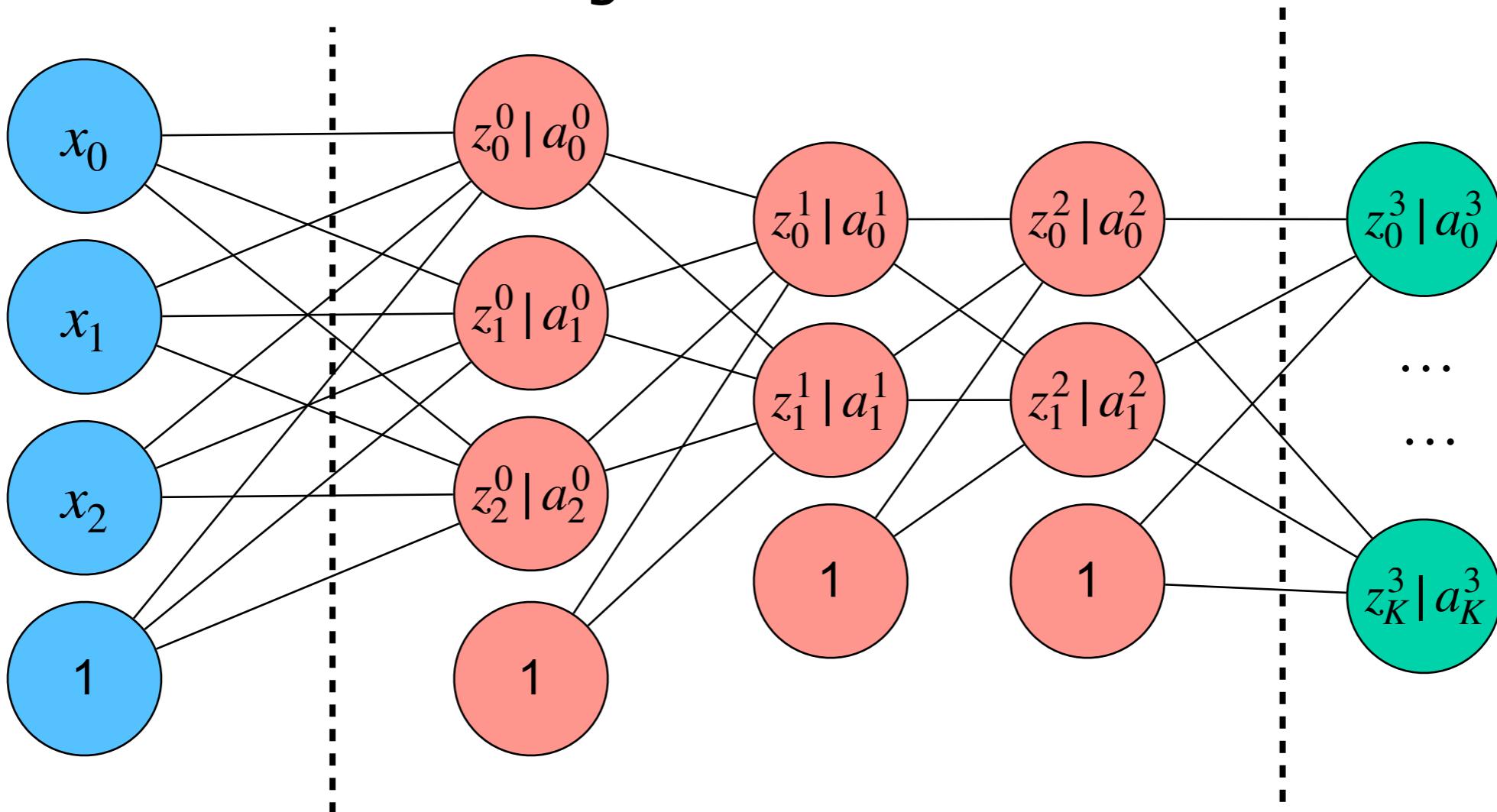
Glorot, Xavier, and Yoshua Bengio. "Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks." In *Proceedings of the thirteenth international conference on artificial intelligence and statistics*, pp. 249-256. JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings, 2010.

# **Big Families of Neural Networks**

- Multi Layer Perceptron (MLP)
- Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)
- Autoencoders (AEs)
  - Variational Autoencoders (VAEs)
- Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)
- Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)
  - Long Short Temporal Memory (LSTMs)
- Graph Neural Networks (GNNs)
- Transformers

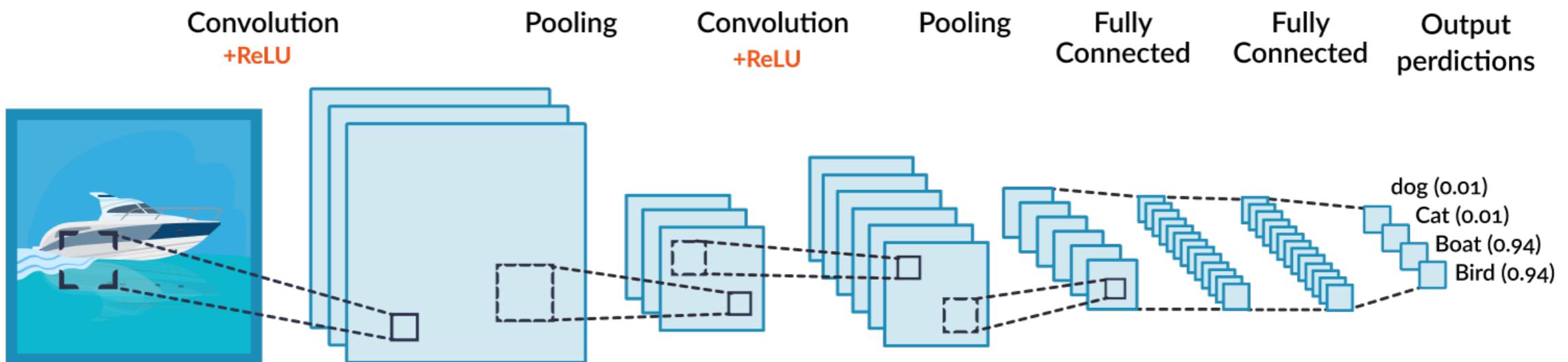
# Convolution Neural Networks

- Are MLPs suitable for images?



# CNN: Overview

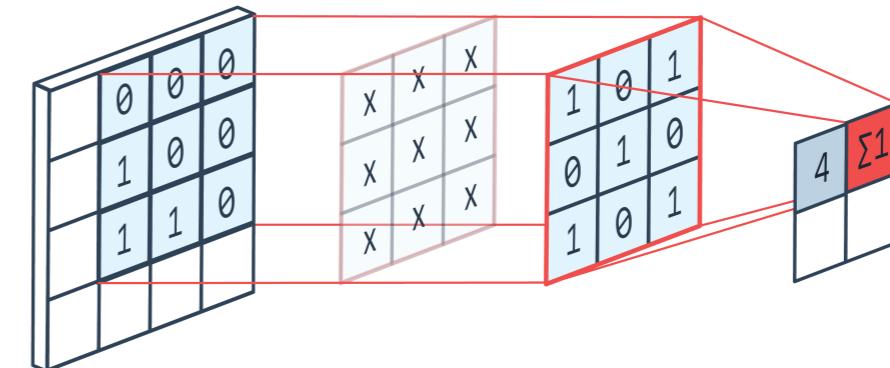
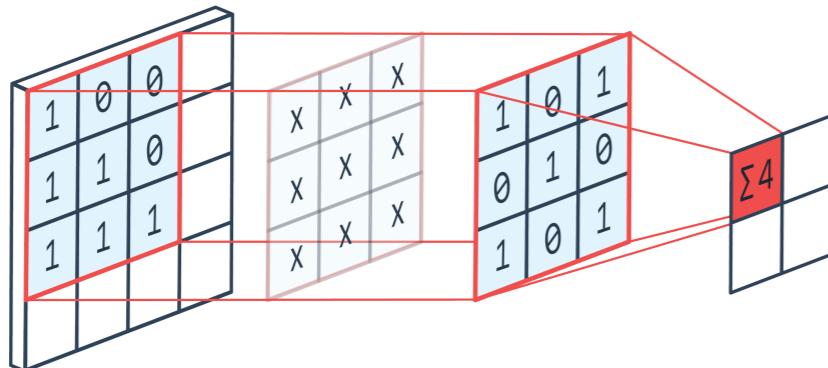
- A convolutional neural network is a special feedforward network
- Hidden units are organized into grid, as is the input
- Linear mapping from layer to layer takes form of convolution
  - ▶ Translation invariant processing
  - ▶ Local processing



Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## 2D convolutions

2D convolutions are linear operations:

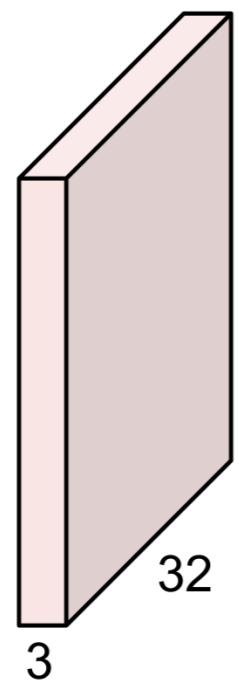


- Start from the top-left position.
- Multiply-and-add.
- Store in the output image.
- Go to next pixel position.

## Convolutions in ConvNets

In ConvNets (or CNNs), the convolution filters or kernels have **depth**:

$32 \times 32 \times 3$  image



$5 \times 5 \times 3$  filter



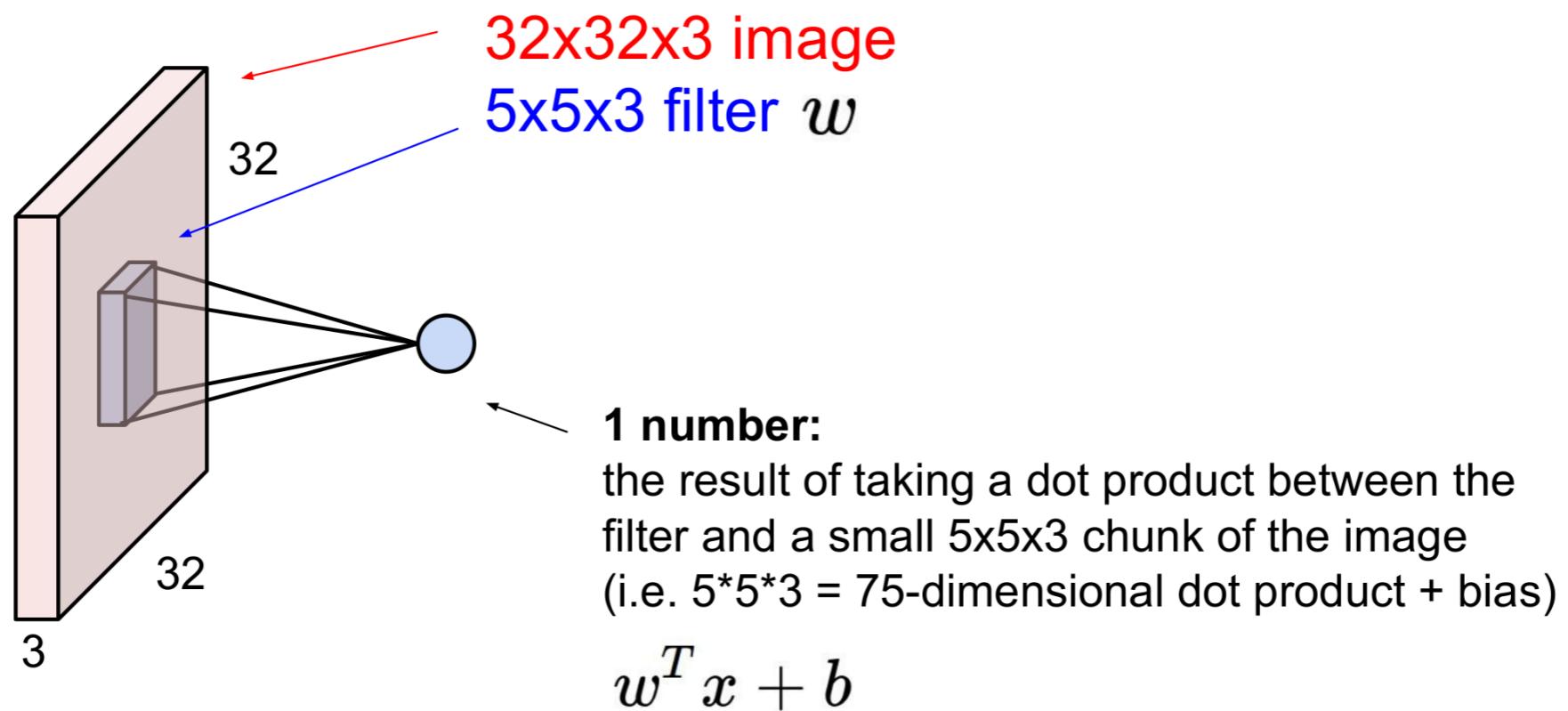
**Convolve** the filter with the image  
i.e. “slide over the image spatially,  
computing dot products”

Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## Convolutions in ConvNets (II)

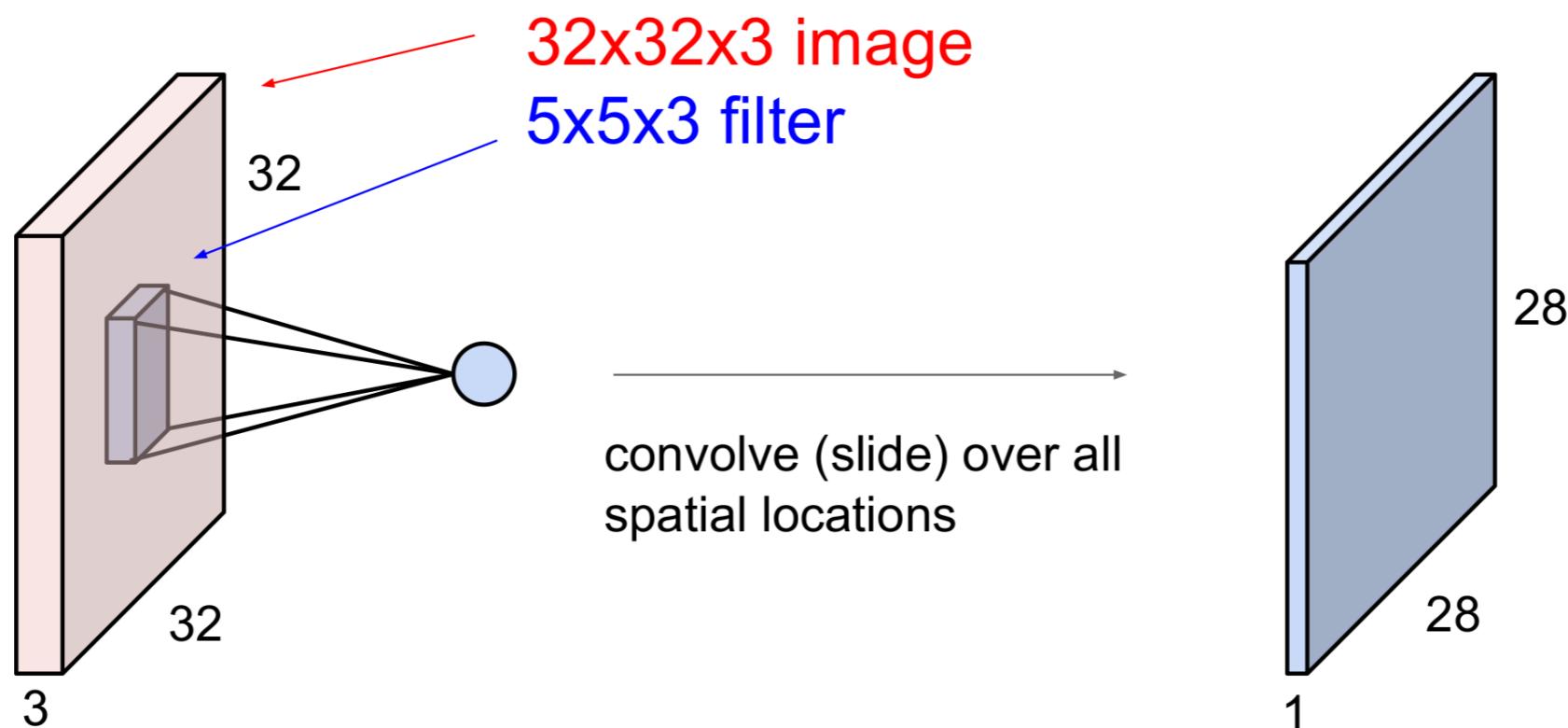
What is the width and height of the output image?



Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

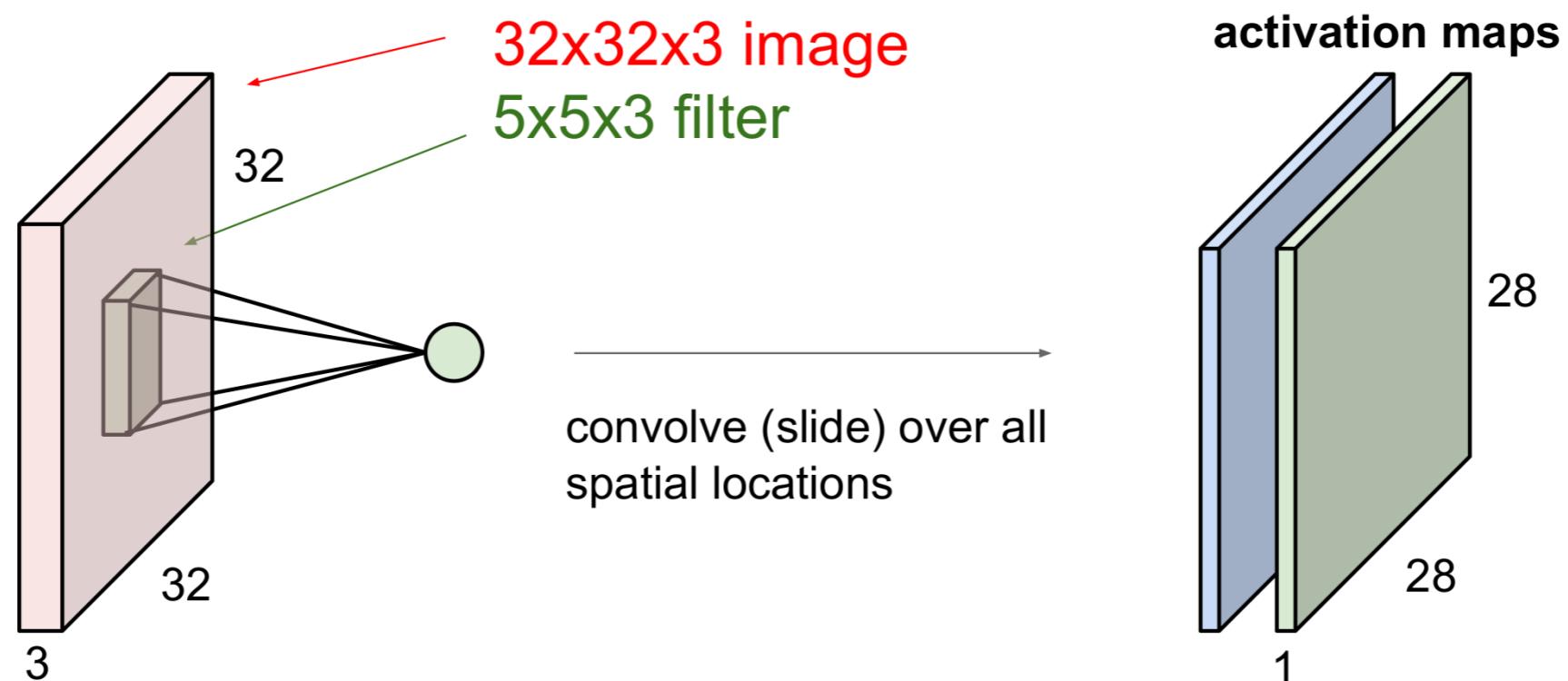
## Convolutions in ConvNets (III)



Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

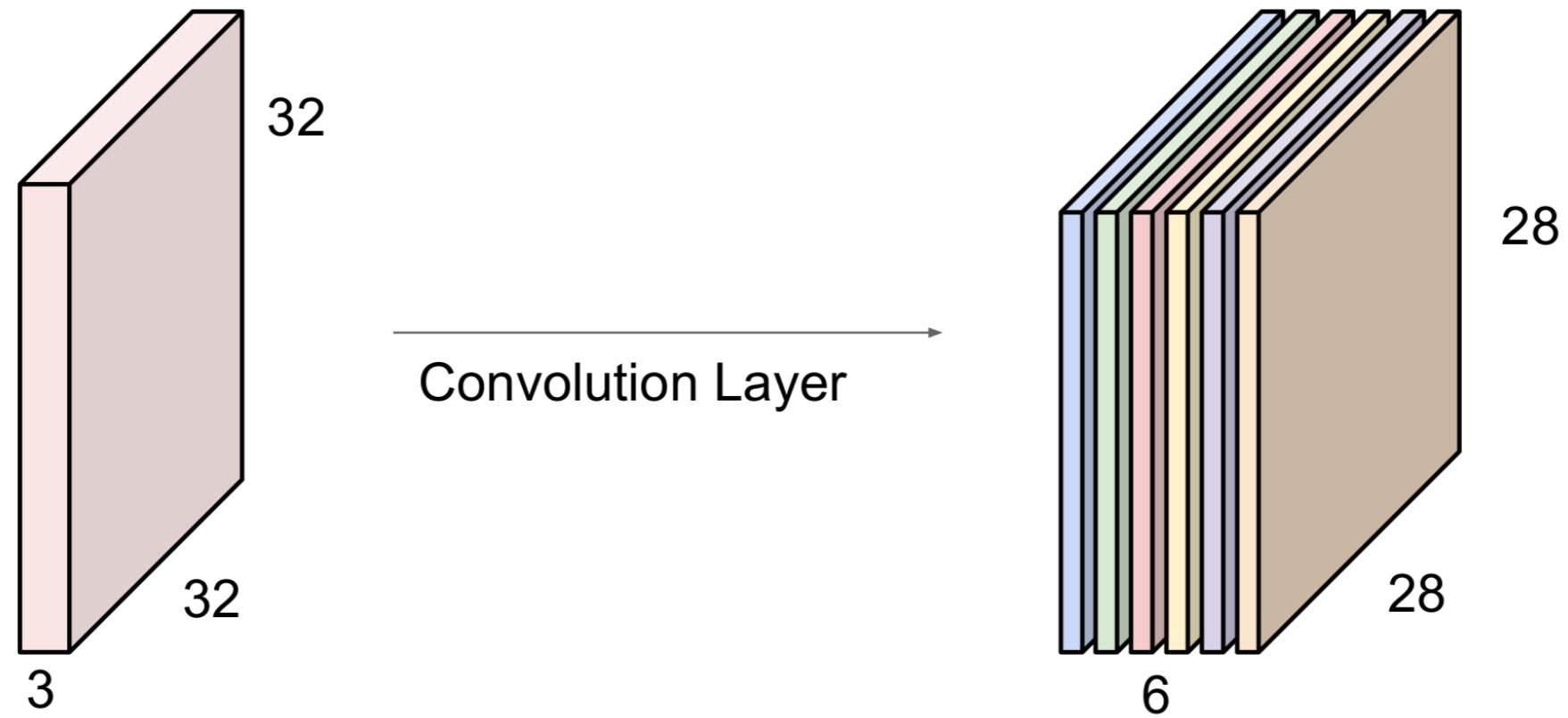
## Convolutions in ConvNets (IV)



Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## Convolutions in ConvNets (V)

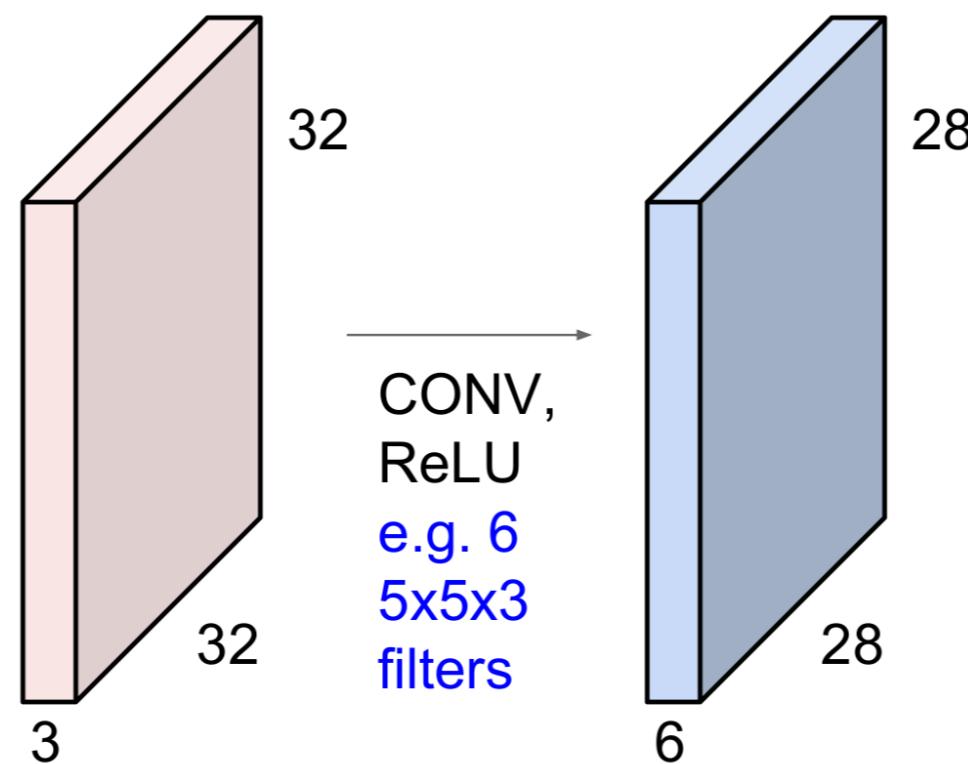


Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## Convolutions in ConvNets (VI)

The filters **must** have the same depth as the input. The output depth corresponds to the number of filters.

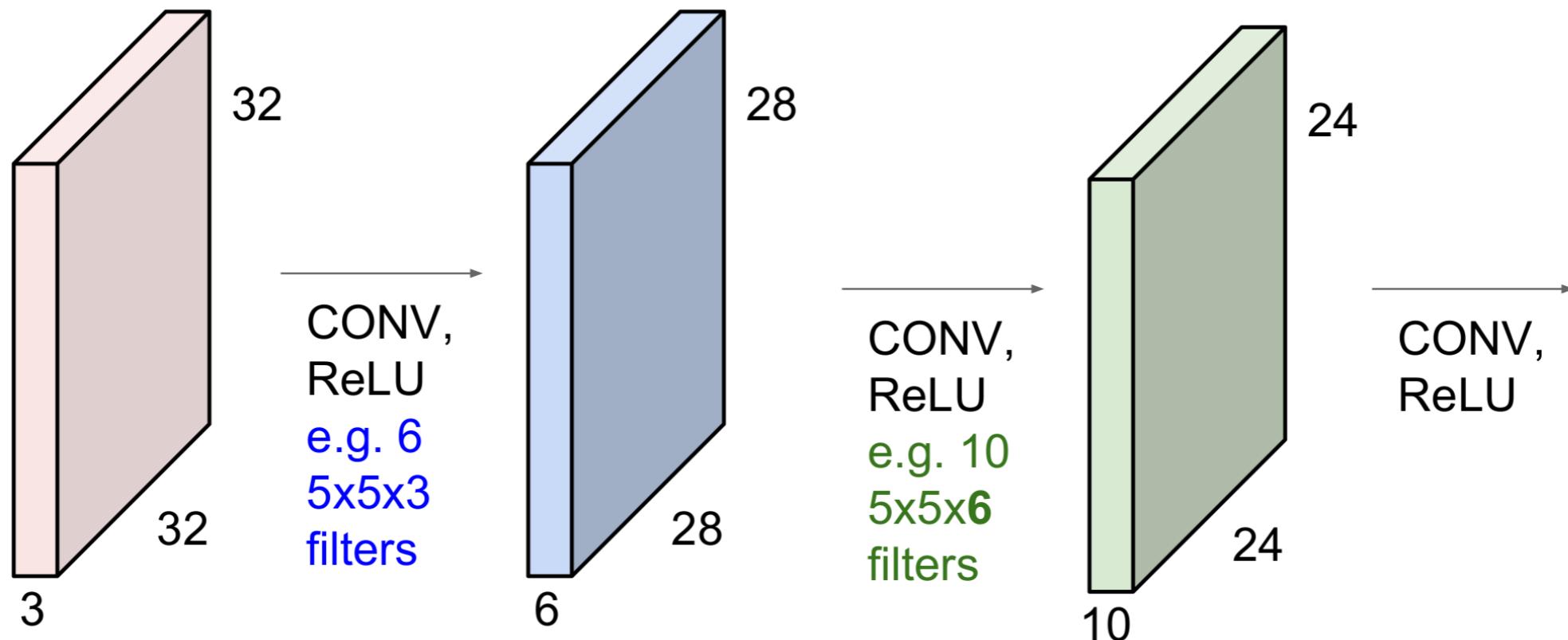


Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

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## Convolutions in ConvNets (VII)

We can repeat the operation with a second convolutional layer.



Slide from: Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

# Different types of convolutions

- Standard
- Padded (full, half, etc)
- Strided
- Dilated
- etc.

More details in

<https://towardsdatascience.com/types-of-convolutions-in-deep-learning-717013397f4d>

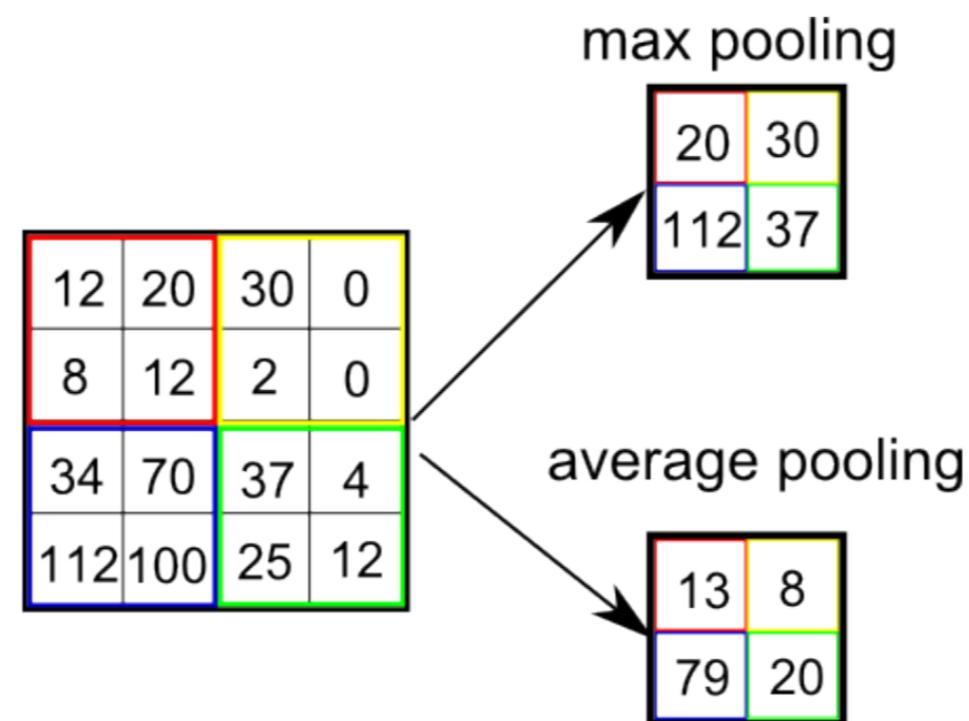
Dumoulin, Vincent, and Francesco Visin. "A guide to convolution arithmetic for deep learning." *arXiv preprint arXiv:1603.07285* (2016).

Chapters 1 & 2

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

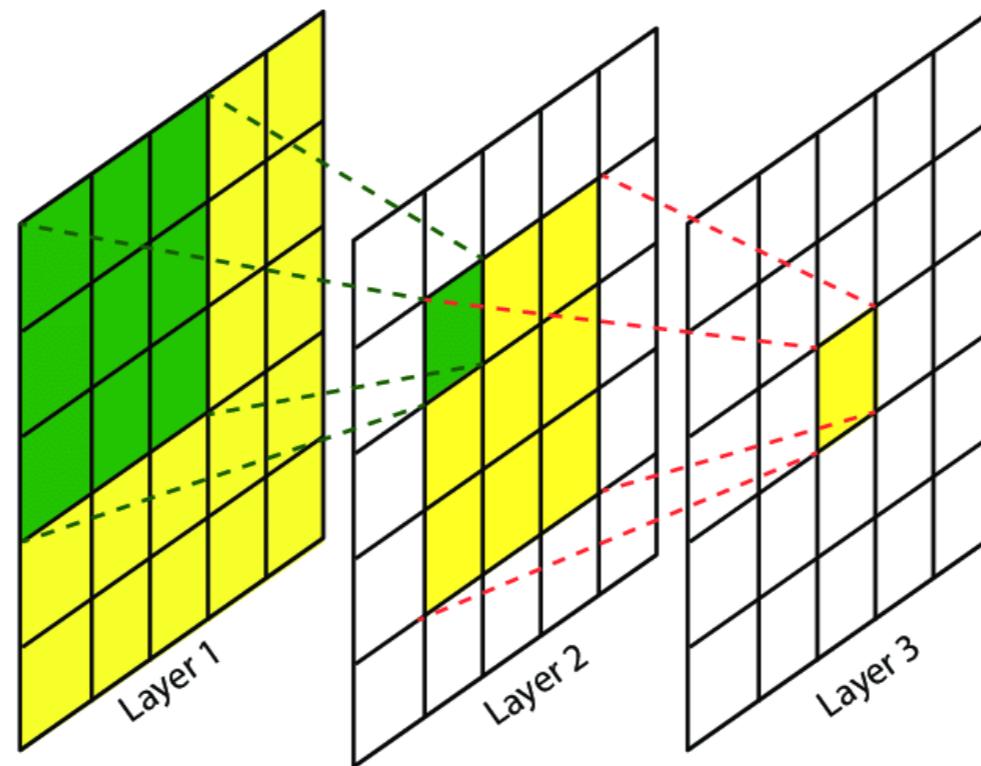
# Pooling

- Applied separately per feature channel
- Effect: invariance to small translations of the input
- Max and average pooling most common, other things possible
- Parameter free layer
- Similar to strided convolution with special non-trainable filter



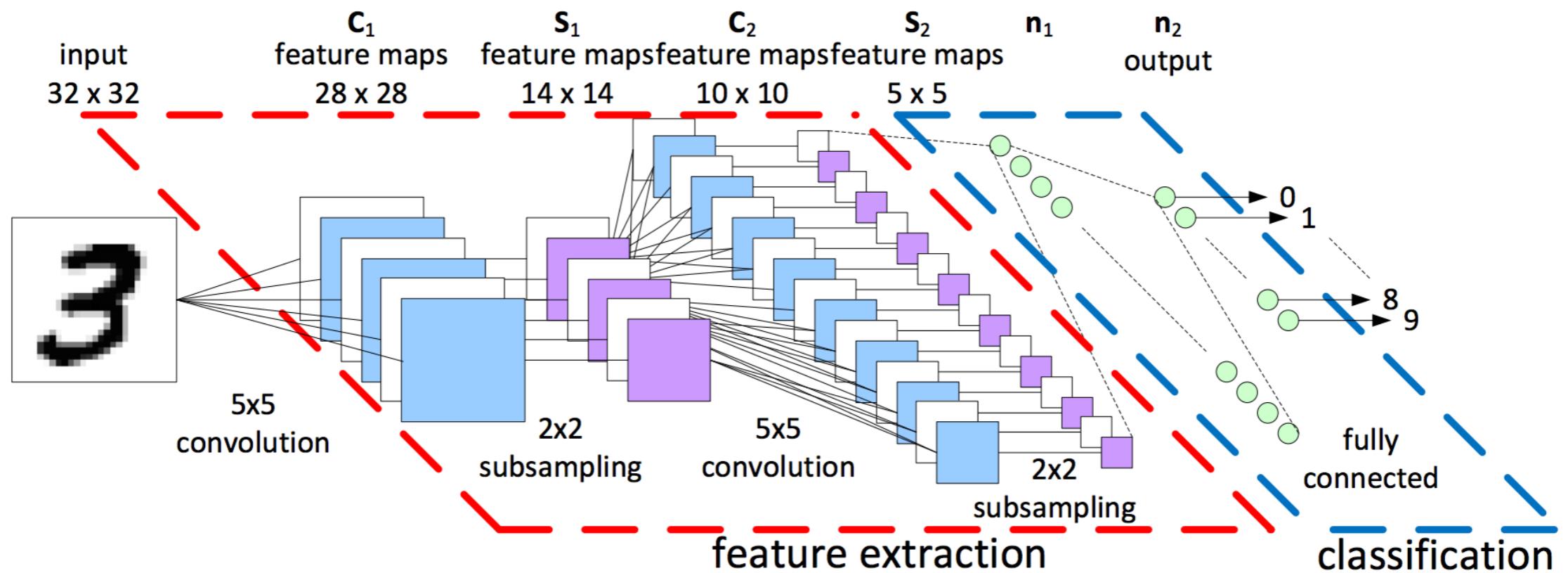
## Receptive field

- Receptive field is area in original image impacting a certain unit.  
Later layers can capture more complex patterns over larger areas.
- Receptive field size grows linearly over convolutional layers.  
If we use a convolutional filter of size  $w \times w$ , then each layer the receptive field increases by  $w - 1$ .



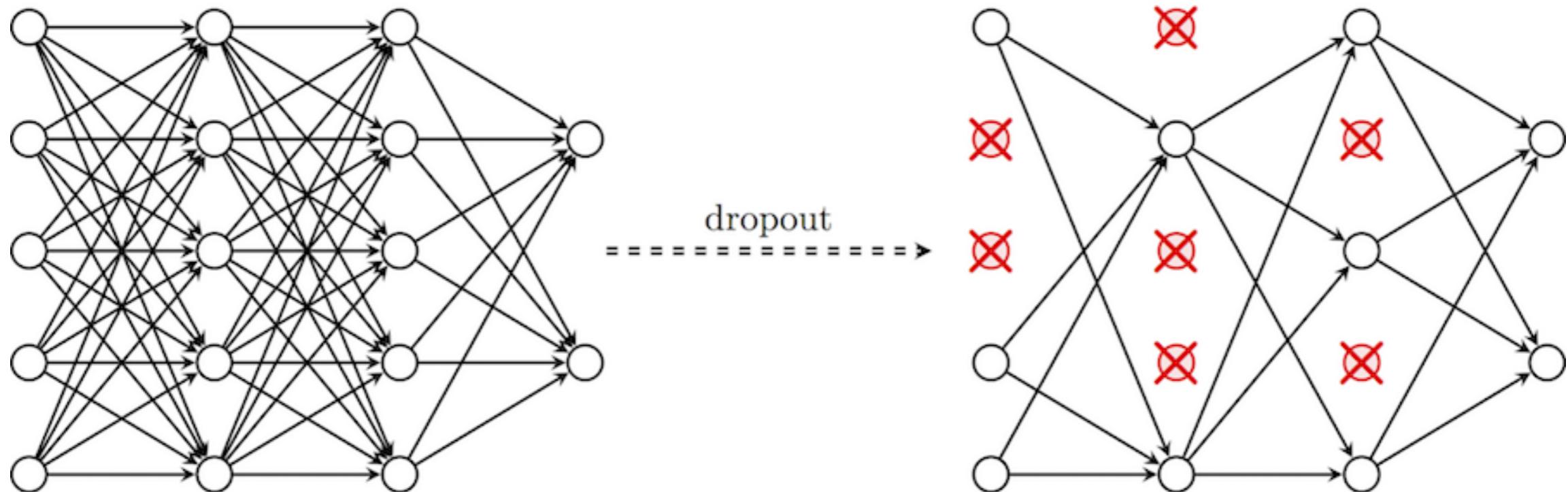
## Fully connected layers

- Convolutional and pooling layers typically followed by several “fully connected” (FC) layers, i.e. a standard MLP
- FC layer connects all units in previous layer to all units in next layer
- Assembles all local information into global vectorial representation



## Drop-out regularisation

- Main idea: deactivate a subset of neurons, randomly selected at every batch during training.
- It forces the network to be redundant, hence robust.
- Different paths to recognise the same pattern.



Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## Batch normalisation

- Motivation: for very deep networks with ReLU, we quickly overflow (very large values).
- Main idea: the output of the linear combinations must follow a standard Gaussian distribution (zero mean, unit variance).
- Rationale: then all layers work at a similar regime.
- Usually after the fully connected or convolutional layers and before the non-linear activation.
- Compute the mean and variance for each neuron and:

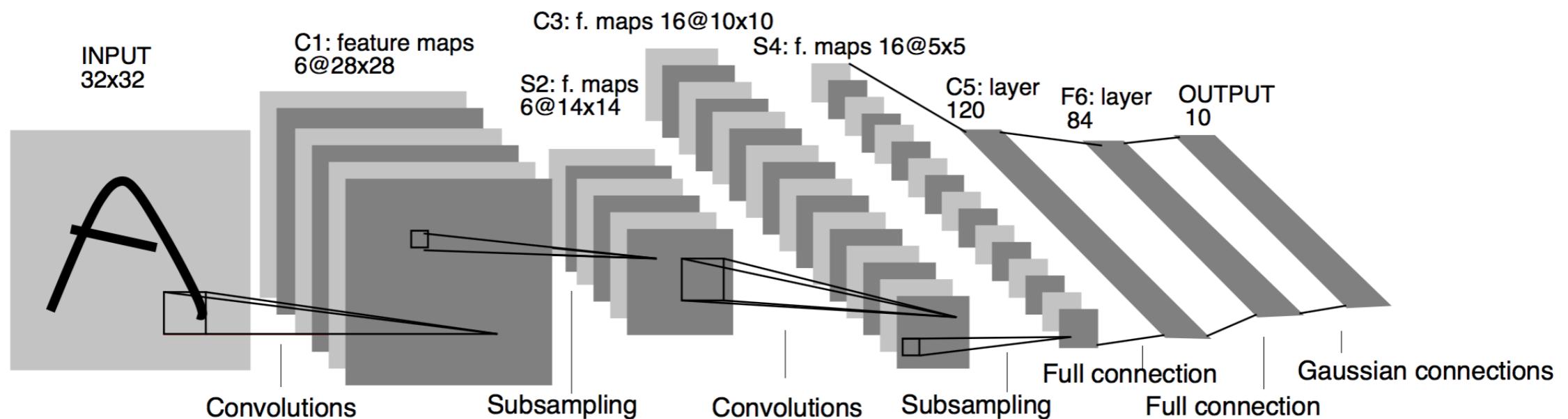
$$x^{\text{new}} = \frac{x^{\text{old}} - \mu}{\sqrt{\nu}}$$

- Improves gradient flow and allows for larger learning rates.
- It is an unsupervised process that can take place at test time as well.

## CNN Architectures

Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

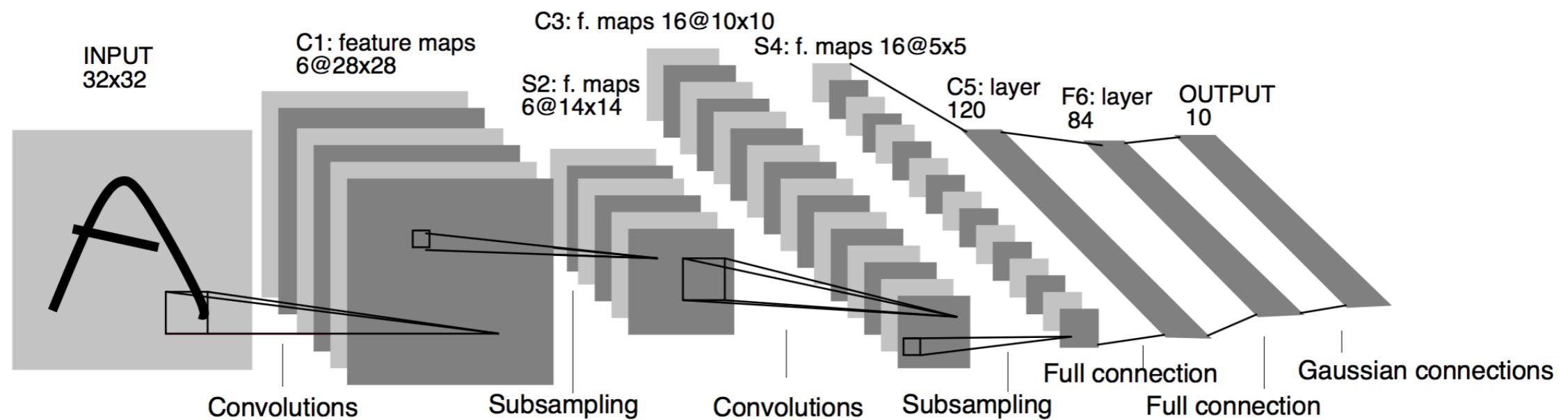
## Lenet (1998)



Let's compute the # parameters and activations (input image is  $32 \times 32$ ):

- C1 (6 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ):

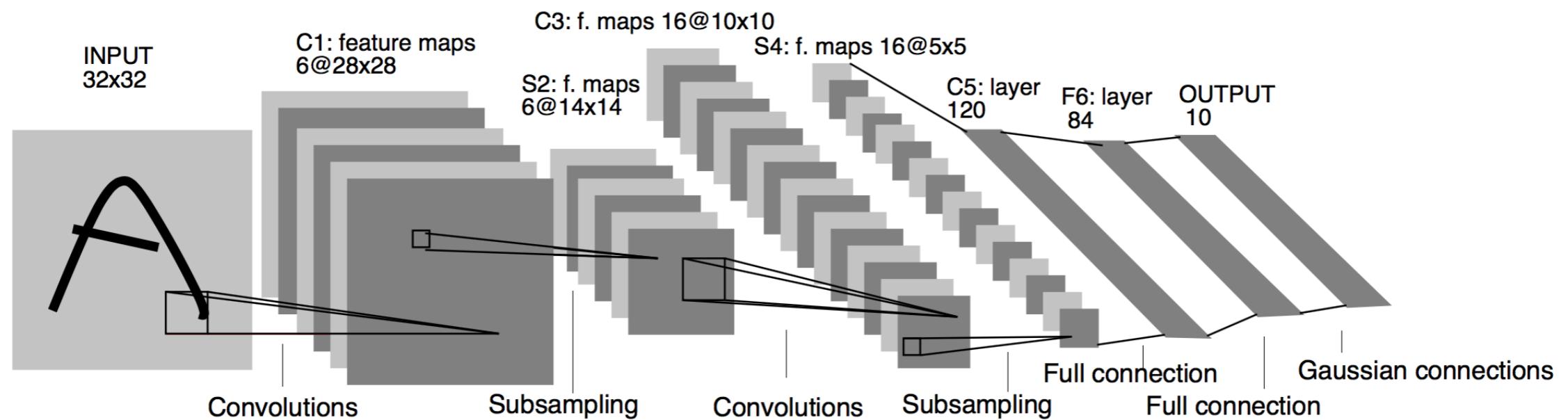
## Lenet (1998)



Let's compute the # parameters and activations (input image is  $32 \times 32$ ):

- C1 (6 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ): #par:  $(5 \times 5 + 1) \times 6 = 156$  #act:  $28 \times 28 \times 6 = 4704$ .
- S2 (subsampling):

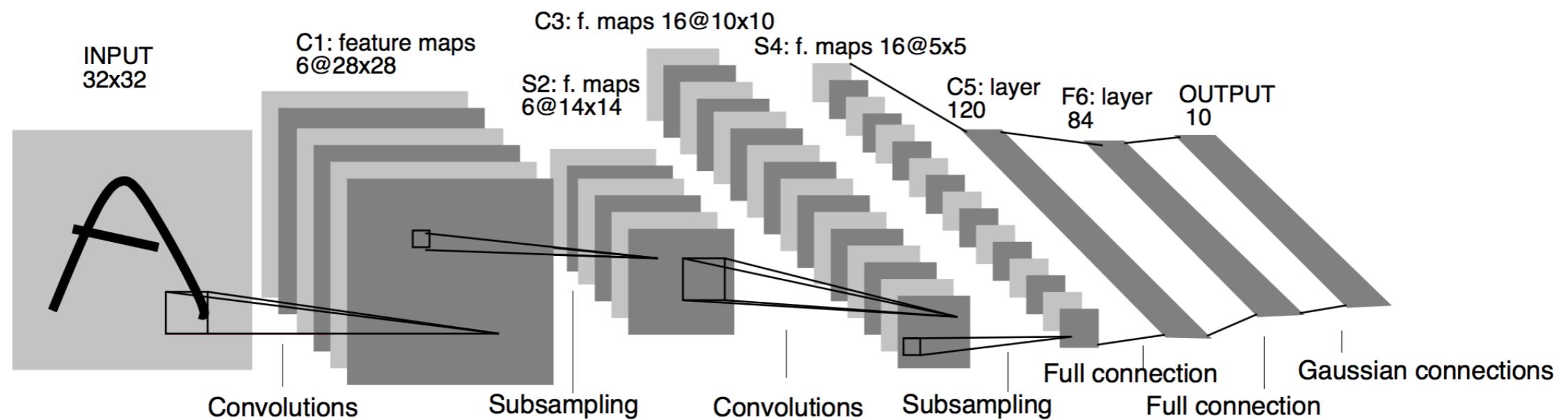
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- S2 (subsampling): #par : 0 #act:  $14 \times 14 \times 6 = 1176$ .
- C3 (16 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ):

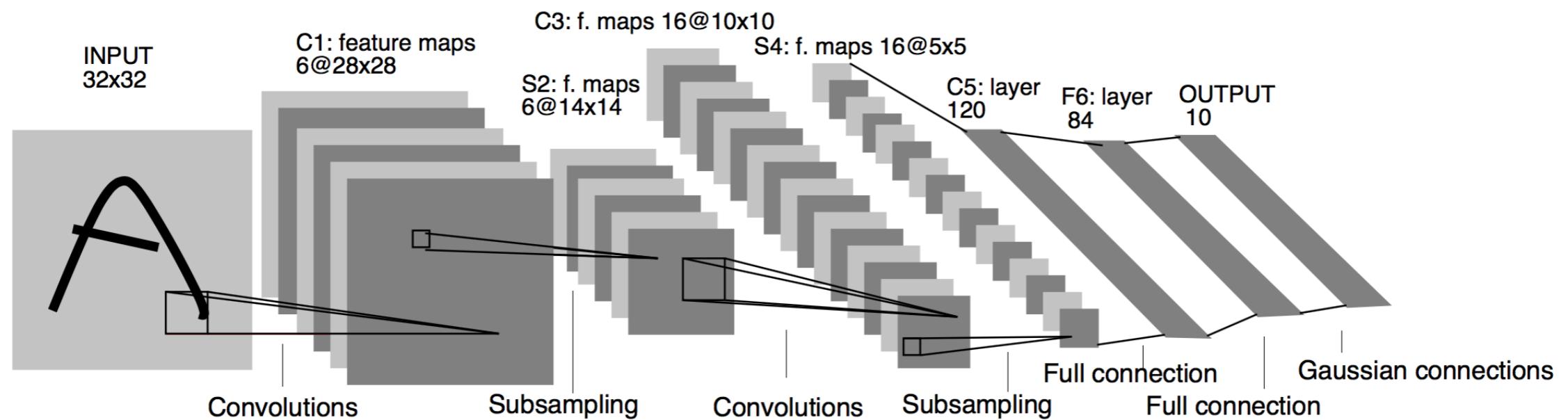
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- C3 (16 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ): #par:  $(5 \times 5 + 1) \times 16 \times 6 = 2496$  #act:  $10 \times 10 \times 16 = 1600$ .
- S4 (subsampling):

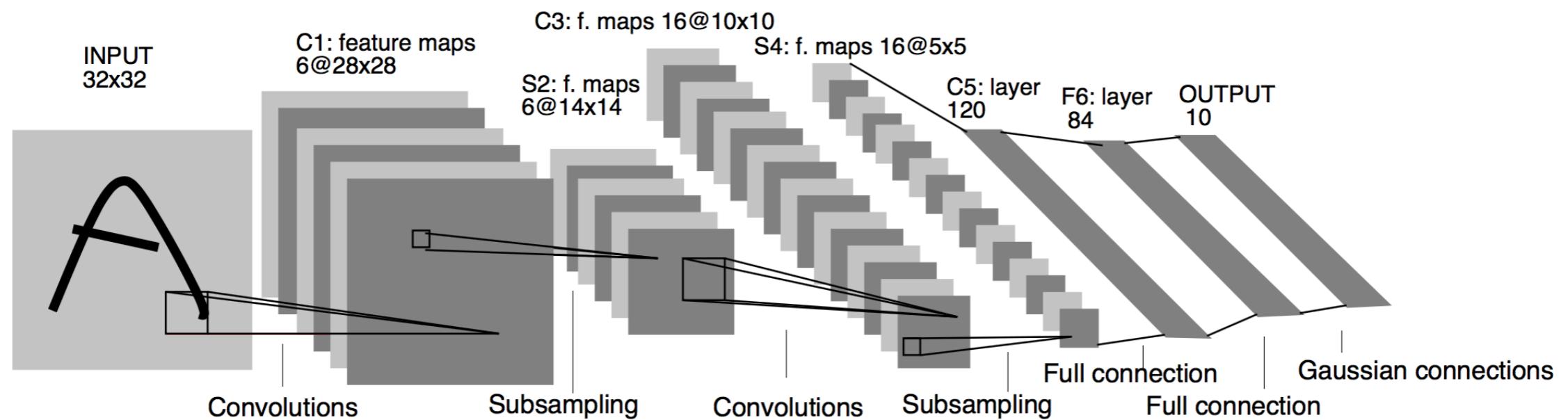
## Lenet (1998)



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- C3 (16 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ): #par:  $(5 \times 5 + 1) \times 16 \times 6 = 2496$  #act:  $10 \times 10 \times 16 = 1600$ .
- S4 (subsampling): #par: 0 #act:  $5 \times 5 \times 16 = 400$ .
- C5 (FC output 120):

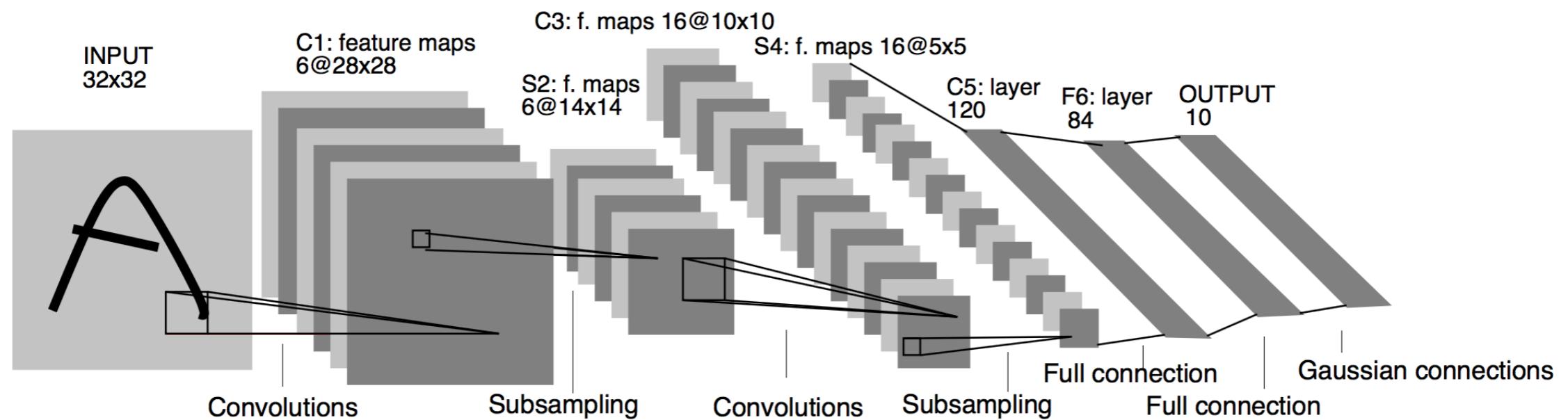
## Lenet (1998)



Let's compute the # parameters and activations (input image is  $32 \times 32$ ):

- C1 (6 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ): #par:  $(5 \times 5 + 1) \times 6 = 156$  #act:  $28 \times 28 \times 6 = 4704$ .
- S2 (subsampling): #par : 0 #act:  $14 \times 14 \times 6 = 1176$ .
- C3 (16 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ): #par:  $(5 \times 5 + 1) \times 16 \times 6 = 2496$  #act:  $10 \times 10 \times 16 = 1600$ .
- S4 (subsampling): #par: 0 #act:  $5 \times 5 \times 16 = 400$ .
- C5 (FC output 120): #par:  $(400 + 1) \times 120 = 48120$  #act: 120.
- F6 (FC output 84):

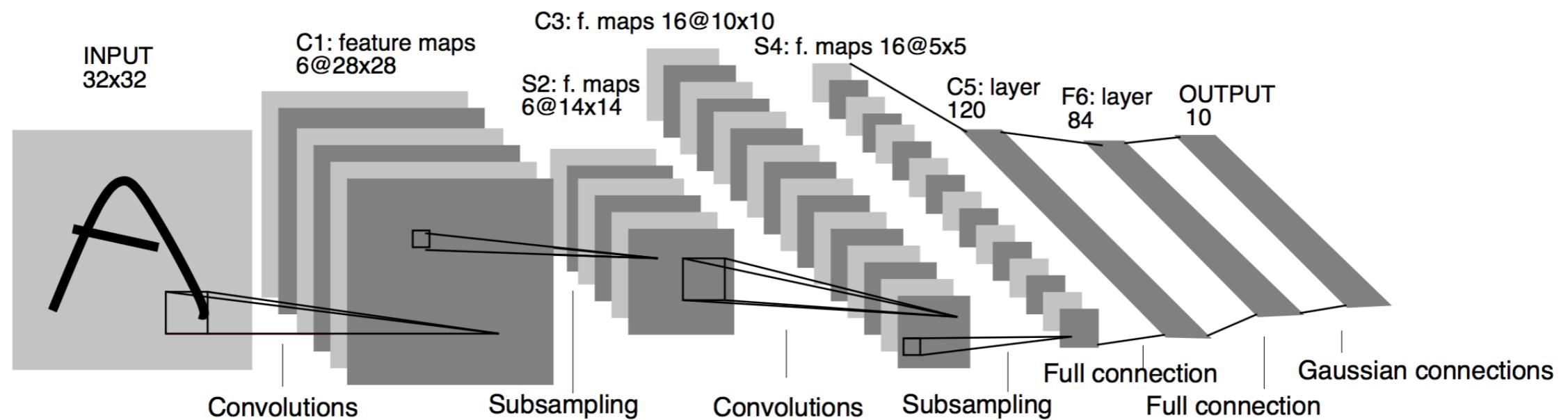
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- S4 (subsampling): #par: 0 #act:  $5 \times 5 \times 16 = 400$ .
- C5 (FC output 120): #par:  $(400 + 1) \times 120 = 48120$  #act: 120.
- F6 (FC output 84): #par:  $120 * 84 = 10080$  #act: 84.
- Class (FC output 10):

## Lenet (1998)



Let's compute the # parameters and activations (input image is  $32 \times 32$ ):

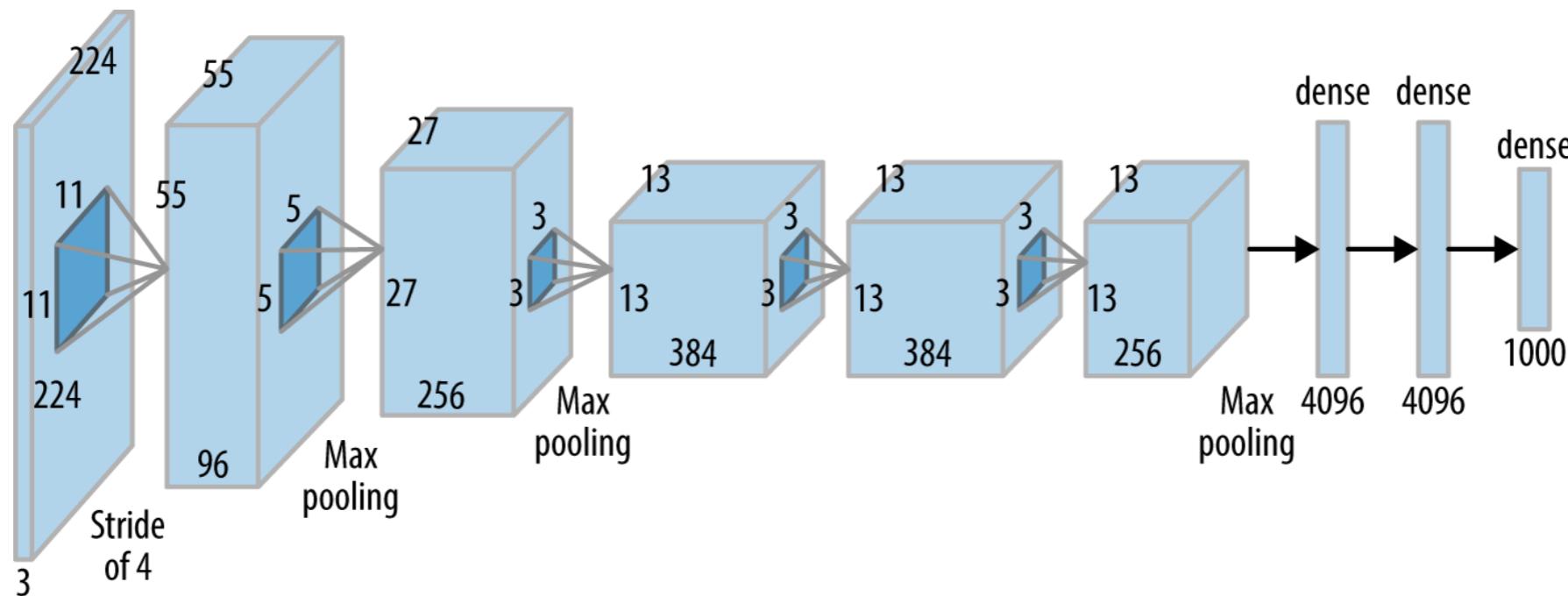
- C1 (6 filters of  $5 \times 5$ ): #par:  $(5 \times 5 + 1) \times 6 = 156$  #act:  $28 \times 28 \times 6 = 4704$ .
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- C5 (FC output 120): #par:  $(400 + 1) \times 120 = 48120$  #act: 120.
- F6 (FC output 84): #par:  $120 * 84 = 10080$  #act: 84.
- Class (FC output 10): #par:  $84 * 10 = 840$  #act: 10.

## What changed?

- Large training **datasets** for computer vision
  - ▶ 1.2 million images of 1000 classes in ImageNet challenge (2012)
  - ▶ 200 million faces to train face recognition nets (2015)
- **GPU**-based implementation: much faster than CPU
  - ▶ Parallel computation for matrix products
  - ▶ Krizhevsky & Hinton, 2012: six days on two GPUs (see next slide)
  - ▶ Rapid progress in GPU compute performance
- Network **architectures**
- Industrially backed **open-source** software (Pytorch, TensorFlow, etc)

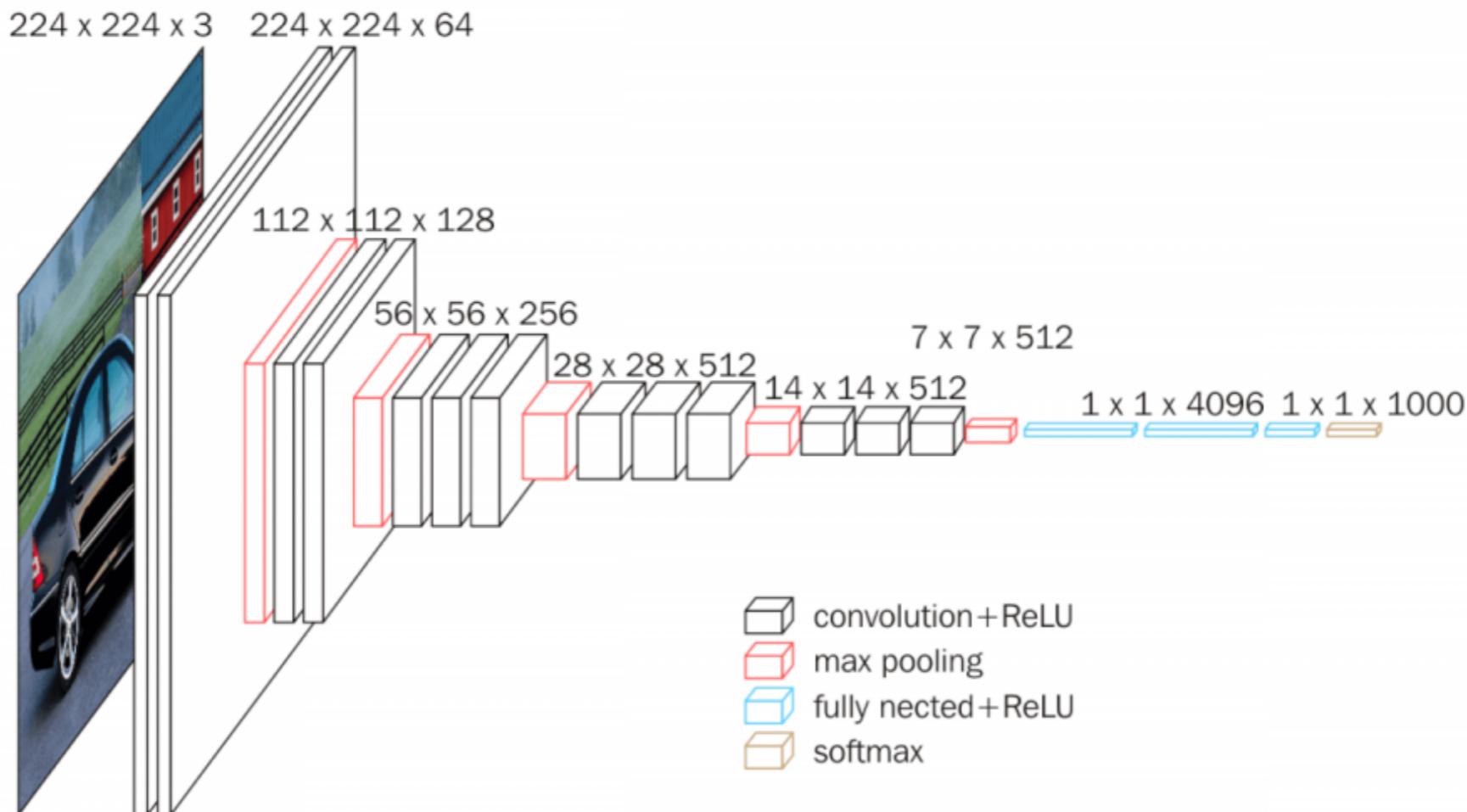
## AlexNet CNN (2012)

- Winner ImageNet 2012 image classification challenge, huge impact (+50k citations). CNNs improving “traditional” computer vision techniques.
- Compared to LeNet
  - ▶ Inputs at 224x224 rather than 32x32
  - ▶ 5 rather than 3 conv layers (more feature channels in each layer)
  - ▶ ~ 60 million parameters
  - ▶ ReLU non-linearity



## VGG CNN (2015)

- Double the number of layers (up to 16/19).
- Only small  $3 \times 3$  filters (rather than 11 in AlexNet). Same receptive field, less parameters per layer, better learned. About 140 million parameters.



Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda



I WAS WINNING  
IMAGENET

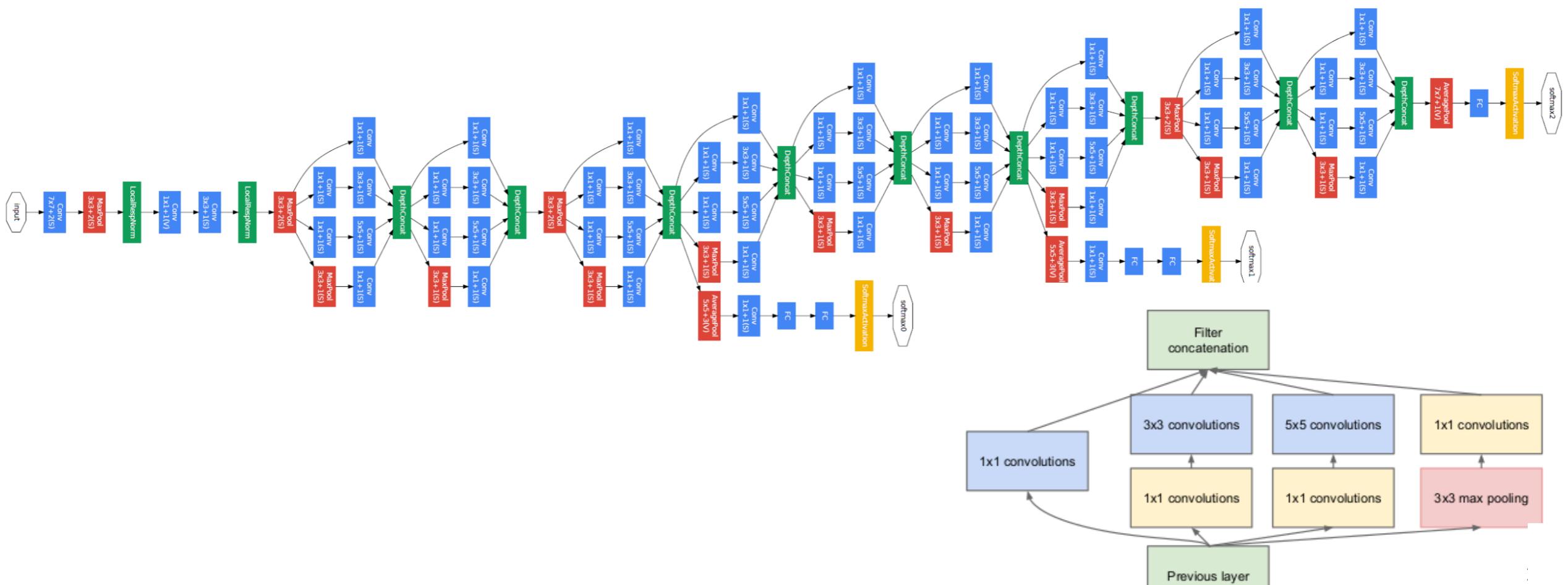
UNTIL A  
DEEPER MODEL  
CAME ALONG



Inception, Christopher Nolan, 2010

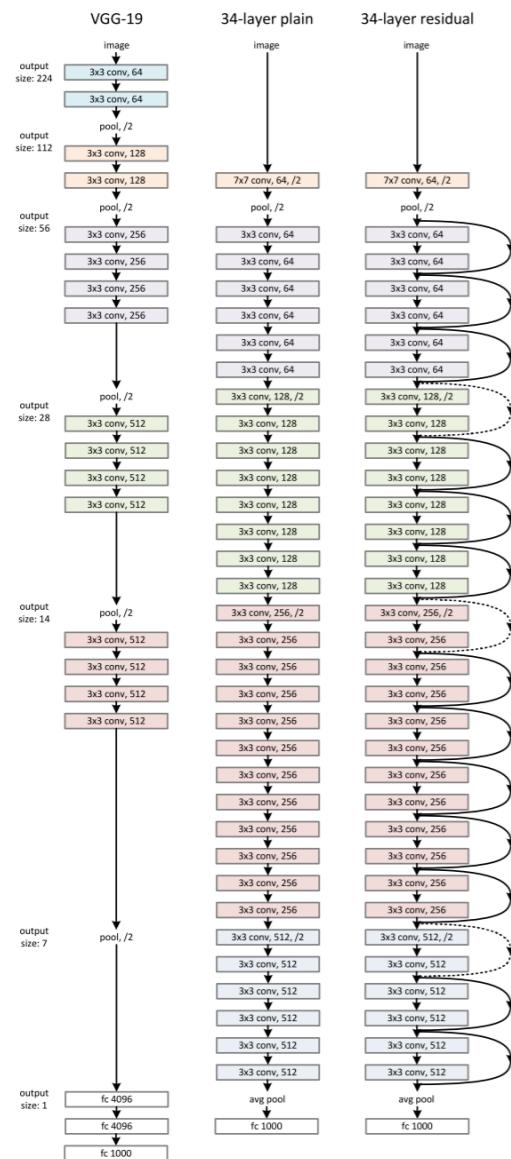
# GoogleNet Inception CNN (2015)

- Reduced number of parameters (5 million) but more layers (27 or 48).
  - Inception module to compress features before convolution.
  - Replaces fully-connected with average pooling.
  - Intermediate loss functions to improve training.

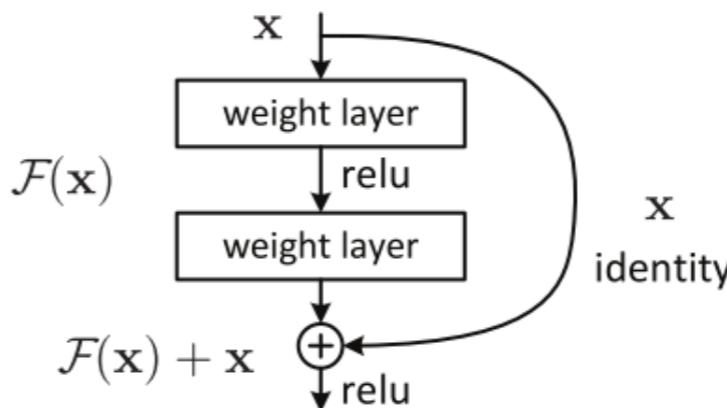


Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

# Res(idual)Net CNN (2015)

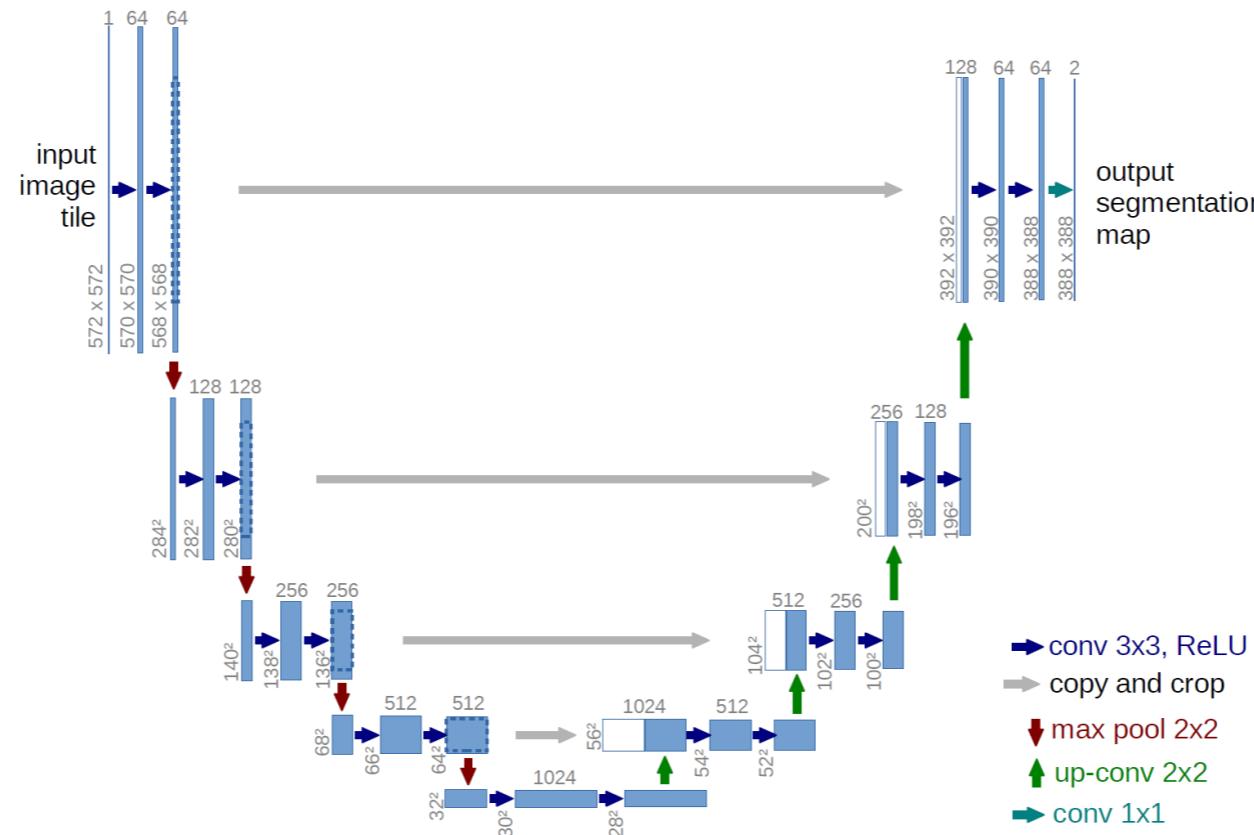


- Many more layers (34, 50, 110, 1200), multi-GPU training is required.
- Residual module to ensure gradient flow.
- Residual block does not require intermediate losses.



# U-Net (2015)

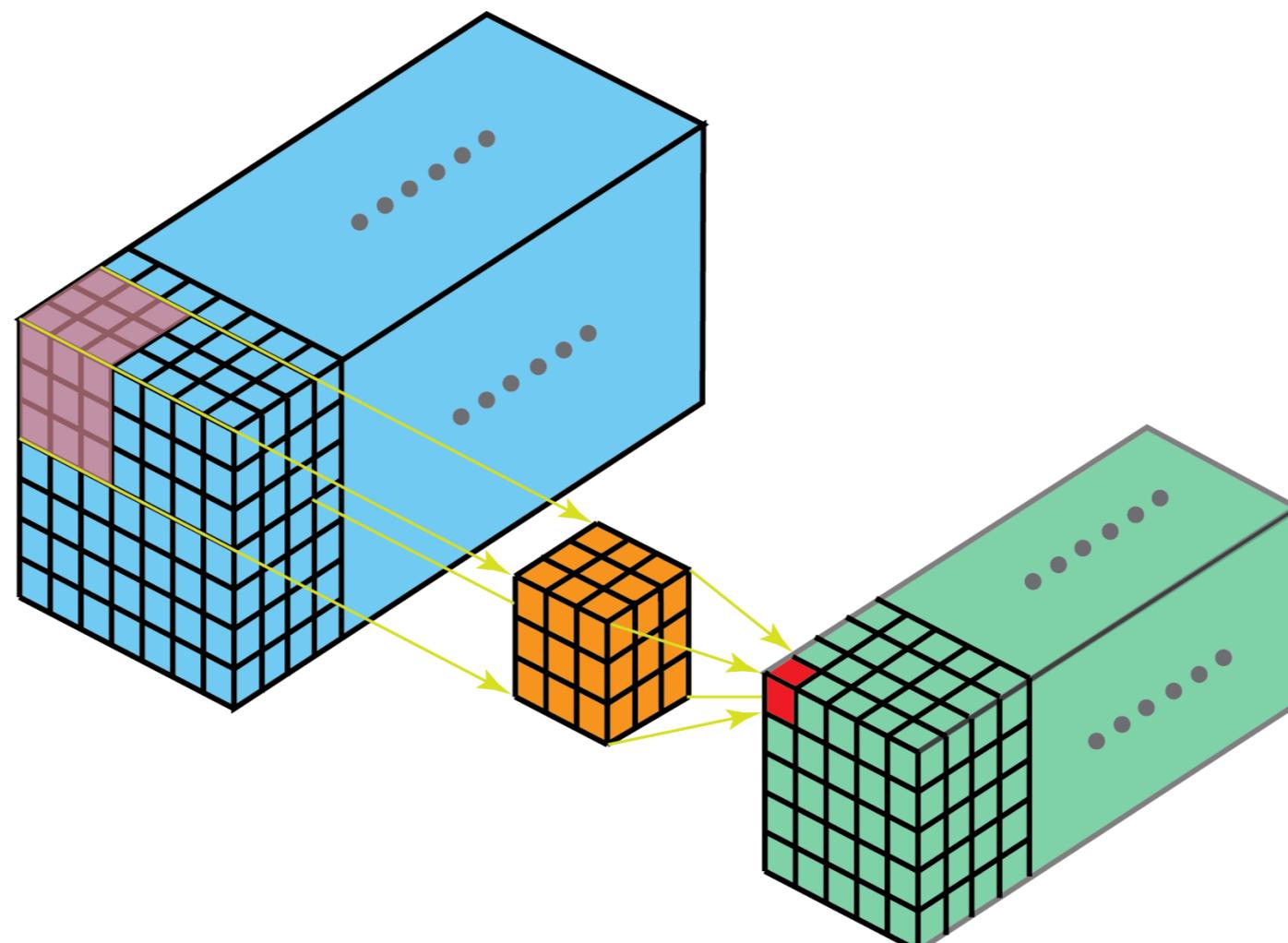
- Convolution/deconvolution architecture for tissue segmentation.
- Convolutions downsample the feature maps (and increase the # channels).
- Deconvolutions restore high-resolution image.
- Skip connections allow to transfer information from intermediate representations to the deconvolutions.



Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## C3D or 3D ConvNets (2015)

- Consider convolutional filters with less channels than the input.
- The kernel can move also along channels, and convolve the input.
- Can be used to process video frames (contactenated in a cube).



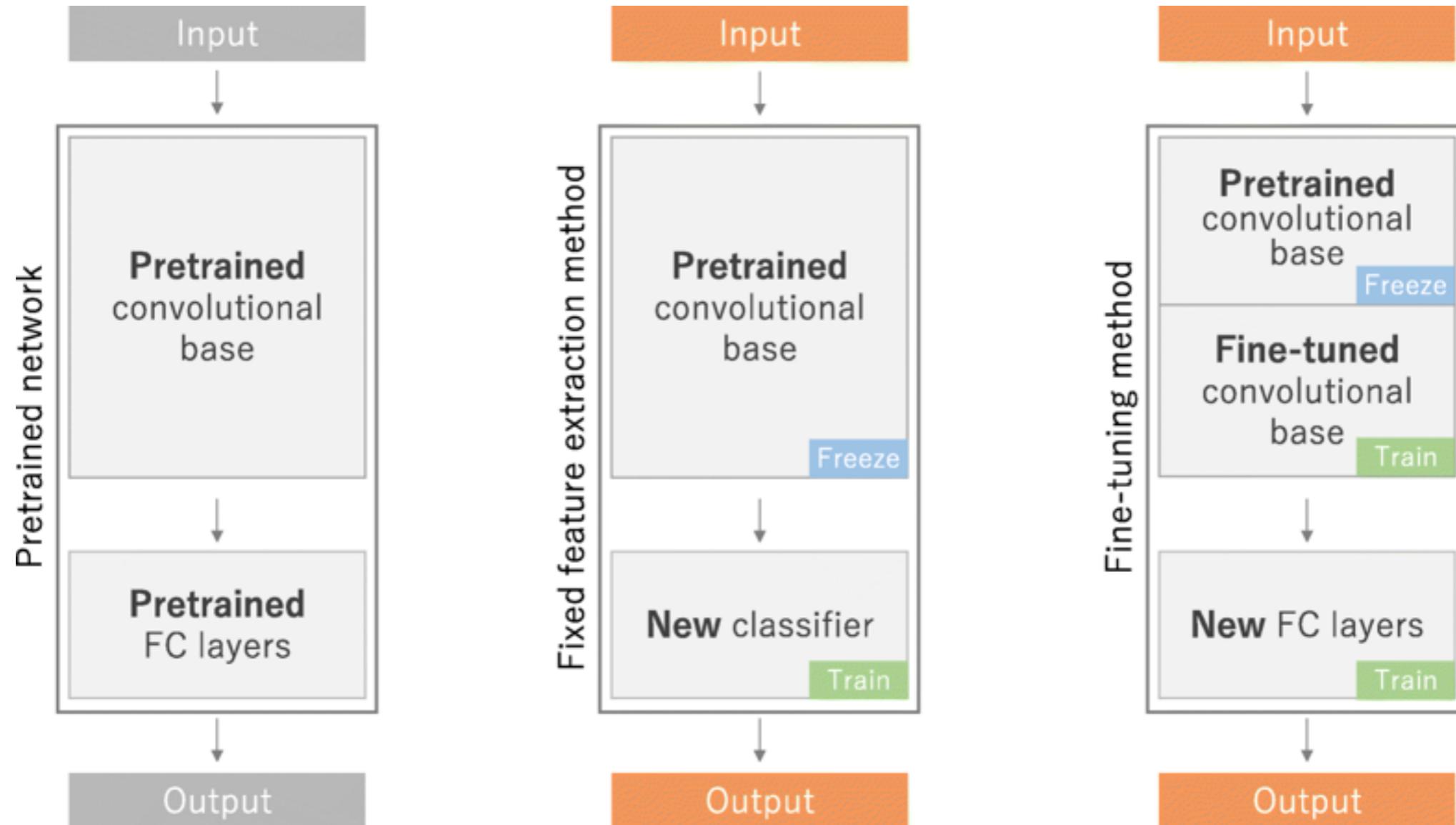
Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda

## Finetunning pre-trained CNNs

## Finetunning pre-trained CNNs

- Early CNN layers extract generic features that seem useful for different tasks.  
Object localization, semantic segmentation, action recognition, etc.
- On some datasets too little training data to learn CNN from scratch.  
For example, only few hundred objects bounding box to learn from.
- Pre-train AlexNet/VGGnet/ResNet/DenseNet on large scale dataset.  
In practice mostly ImageNet classification: millions of labeled images.
- Fine-tune CNN weights for task at hand, perhaps modifying the architecture.
  - ▶ Replace classification layer, add bounding box regression, ...
  - ▶ Reduced learning rate and possibly freezing early network layers

## Finetunning pre-trained CNNs (II)



From Yamashita et al “Convolutional neural networks: an overview and application in radiology” Insights into Imaging, 2018.

## Fine-tunning example

### Human body pose regression

- Remove the last layers of the network.
- Add new layers regression the limbs position.
- Change the loss e.g. Euclidean distance.
- Fine-tune previously trained layers and train the new ones from scratch.

# Overfit Problem



Plane



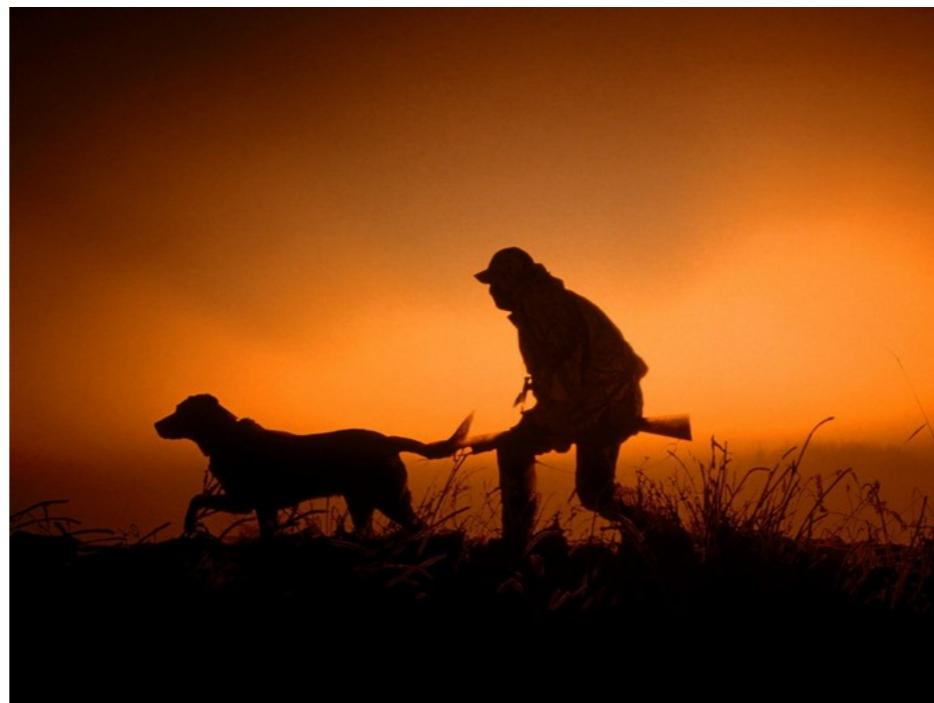
Dog



Table

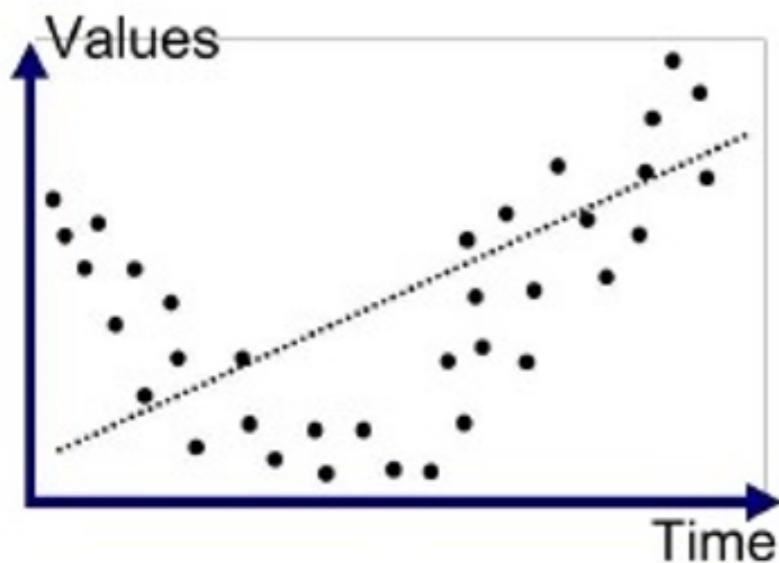


Cat

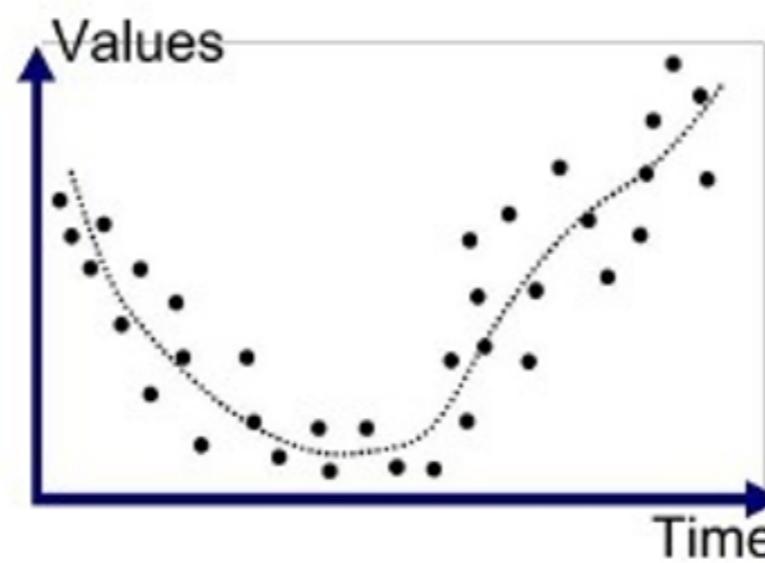


Plane!

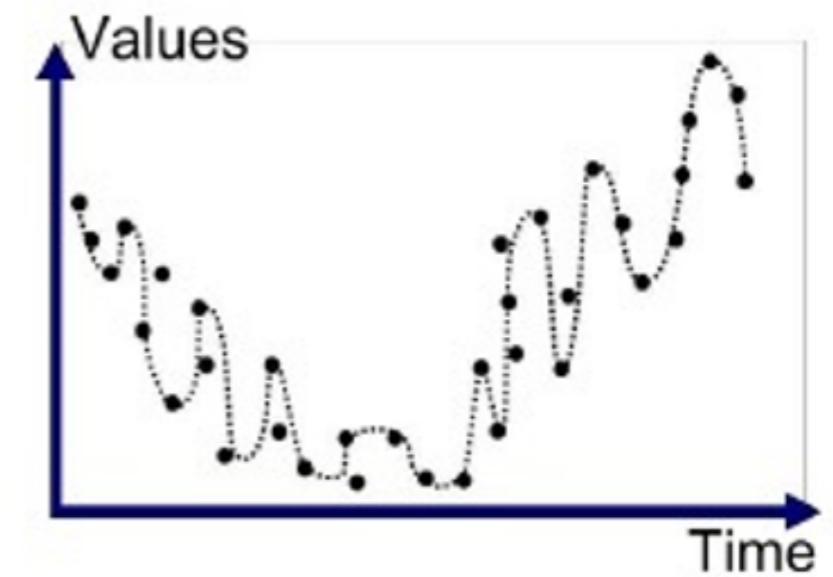
# Overfit Problem



Underfitted



Good Fit/R robust

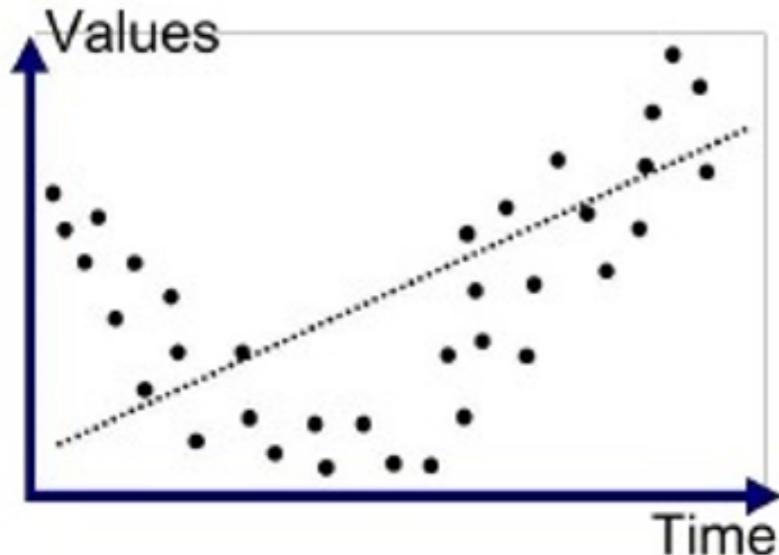


Overfitted

Images from “Machine Learning: How to Prevent Overfitting”  
<https://medium.com/swlh/machine-learning-how-to-prevent-overfitting-fdf759cc00a9>

# Overfit Problem

The bias - variance tradeoff



Underfitted

Model is too simple, not “Expressive” enough

Accuracy can still be  $> 0$

“A broken clock is right twice a day”

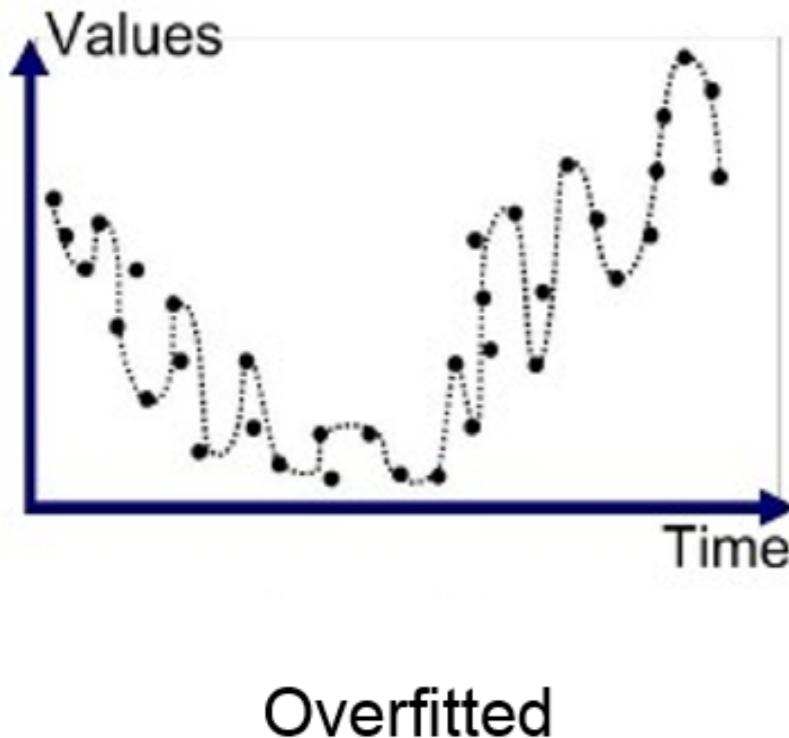
High bias - low variance

Images from “Machine Learning: How to Prevent Overfitting”

<https://medium.com/swlh/machine-learning-how-to-prevent-overfitting-fdf759cc00a9>

# Overfit Problem

The bias - variance tradeoff



Model is too complex, too “Expressive”

Very “accurate”

Does not generalize - useless!

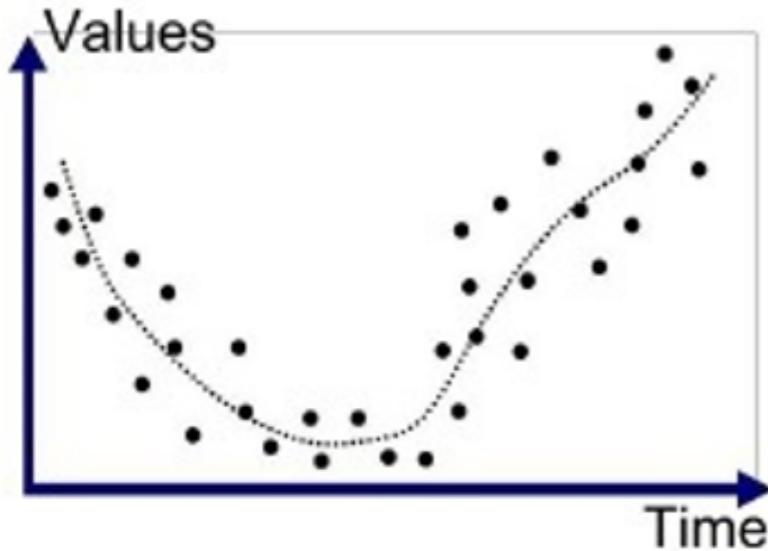
Low bias - high variance

Images from “Machine Learning: How to Prevent Overfitting”

<https://medium.com/swlh/machine-learning-how-to-prevent-overfitting-fdf759cc00a9>

# Overfit Problem

The bias - variance tradeoff



Good Fit/Robust

Tradeoff between bias and variance?

Relatively accurate

Relatively good generalization properties

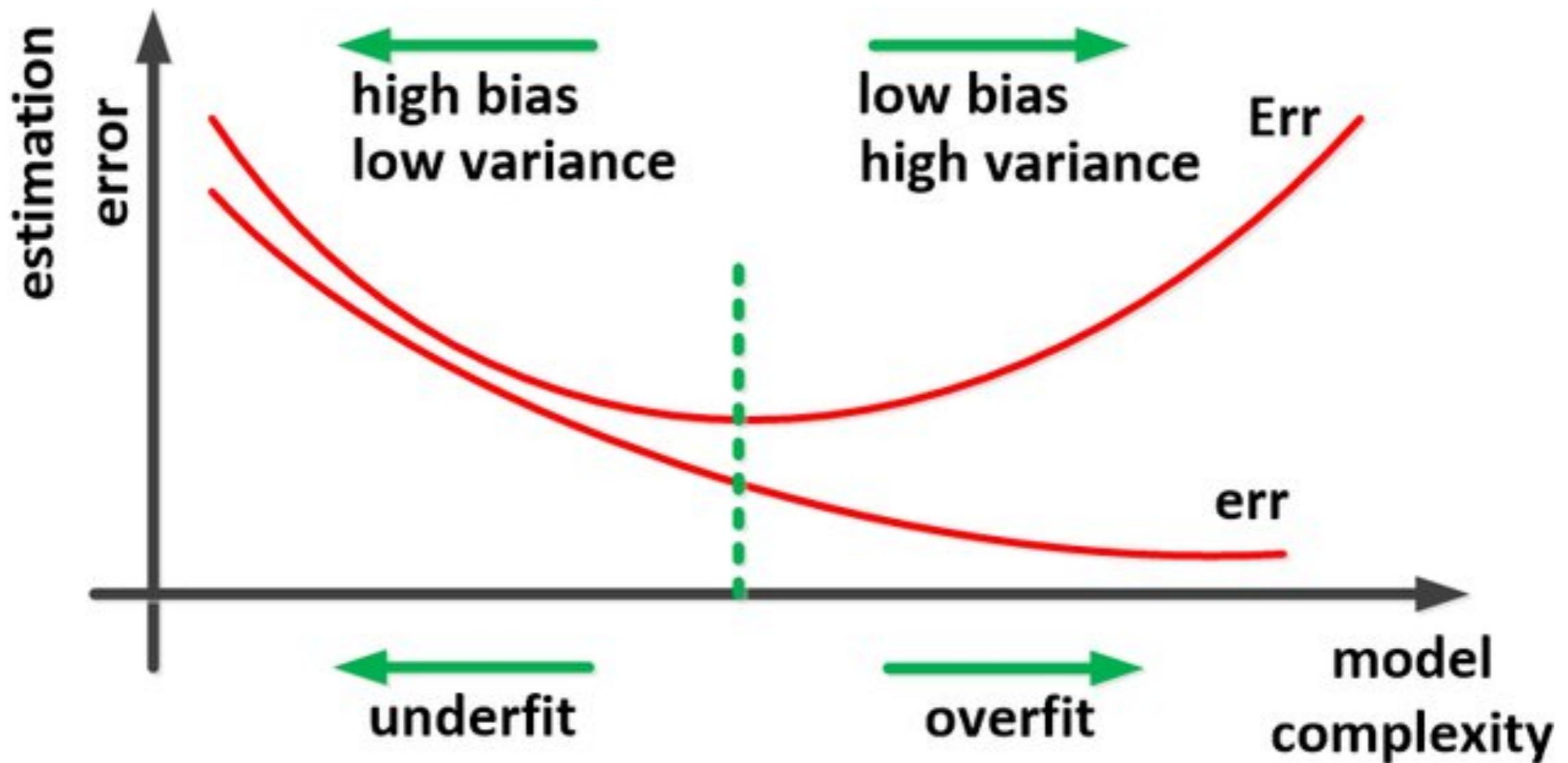
moderate bias - moderate variance

Images from “Machine Learning: How to Prevent Overfitting”

<https://medium.com/swlh/machine-learning-how-to-prevent-overfitting-fdf759cc00a9>

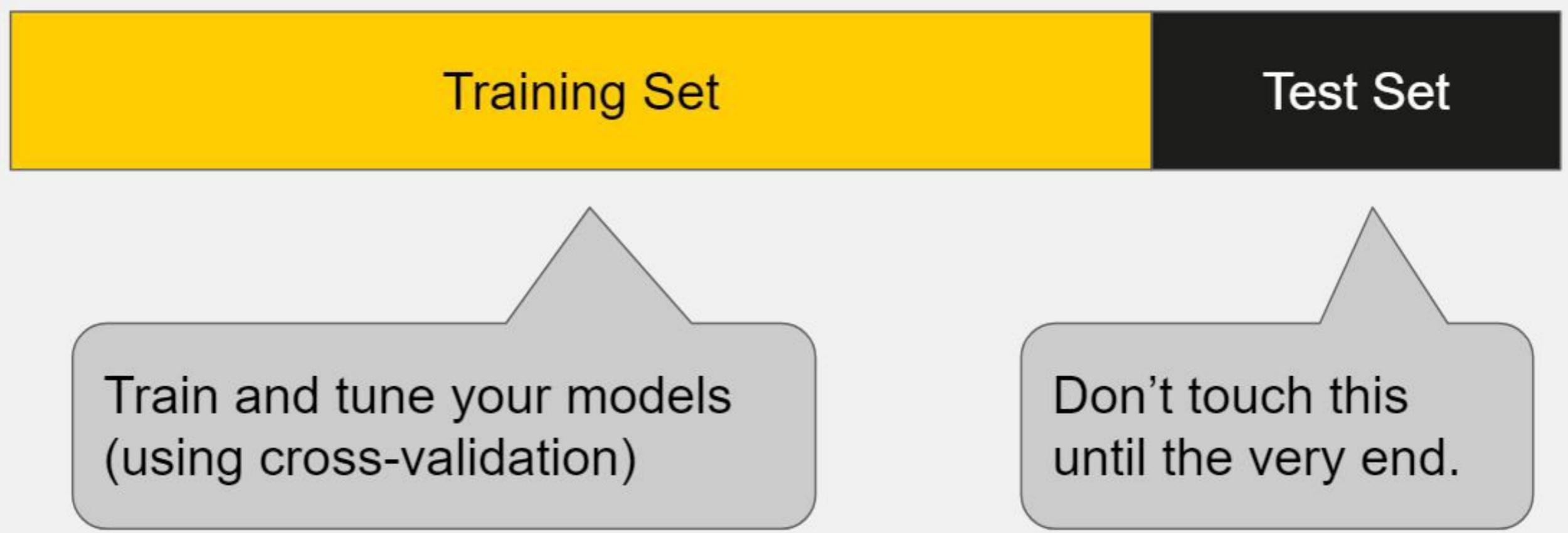
# Overfit Problem

The bias - variance tradeoff



Ghojogh, Benyamin, and Mark Crowley. "The theory behind overfitting, cross validation, regularization, bagging, and boosting: tutorial." *arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.12787* (2019).

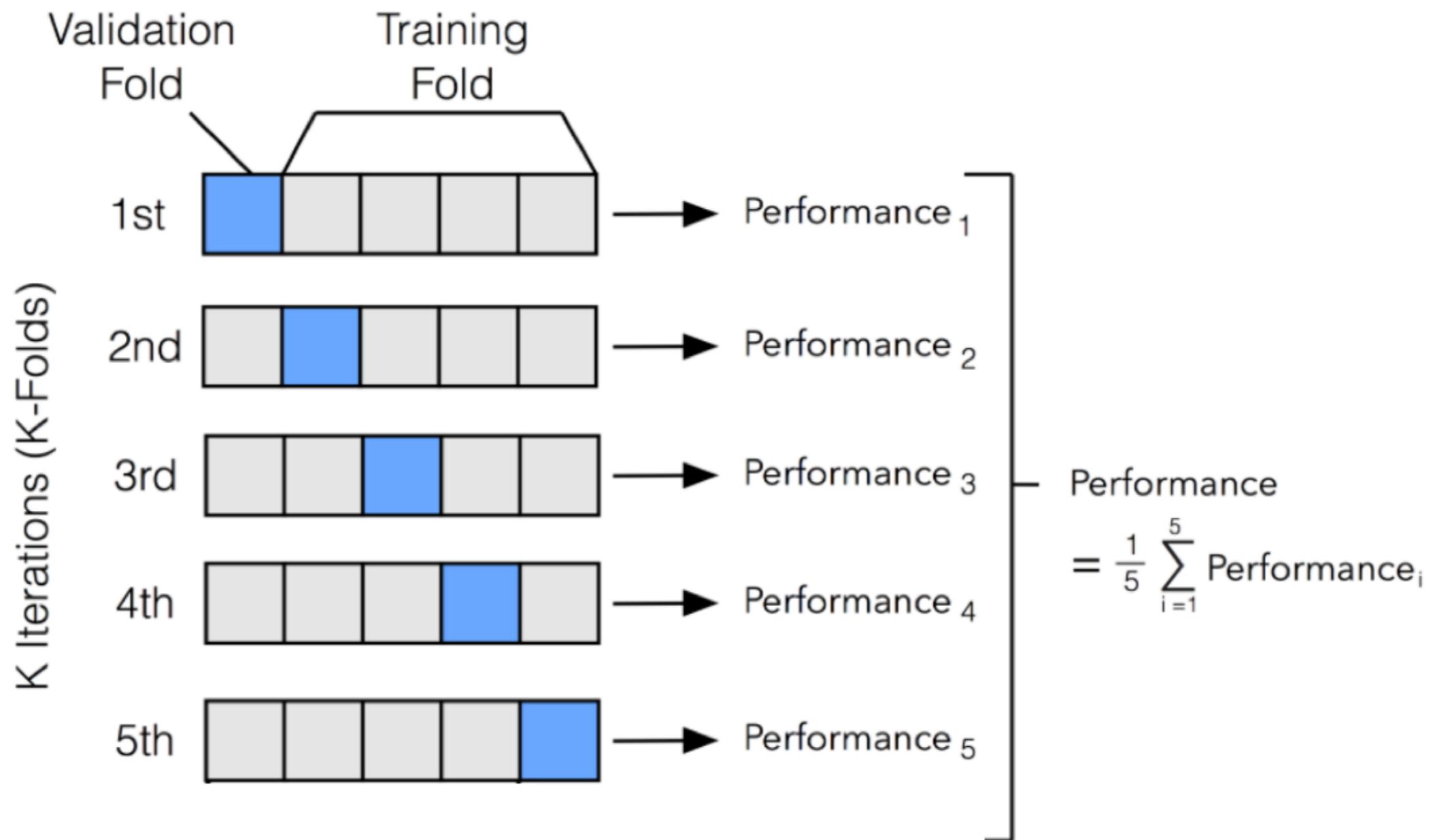
# Avoiding Overfit



# Avoiding Overfit

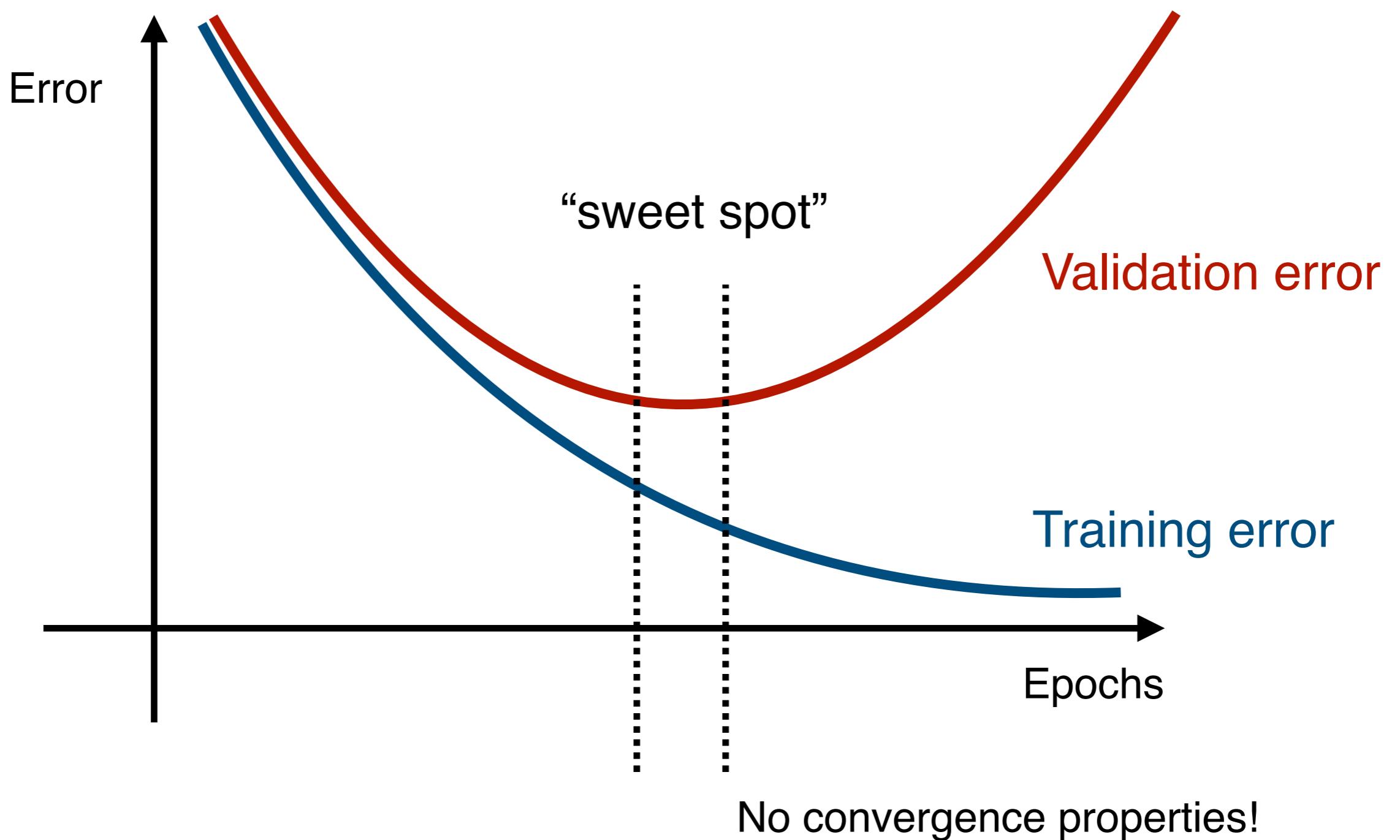
Validation set - super important!

Cross-validation (if possible)

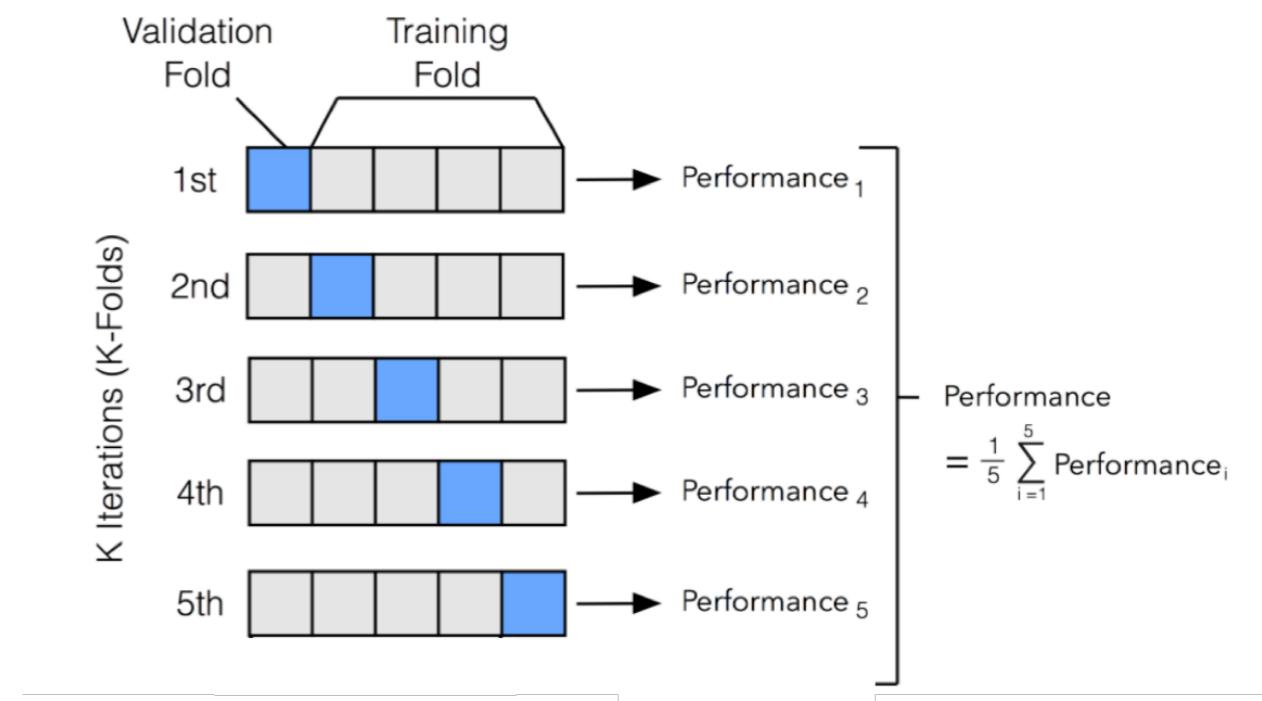
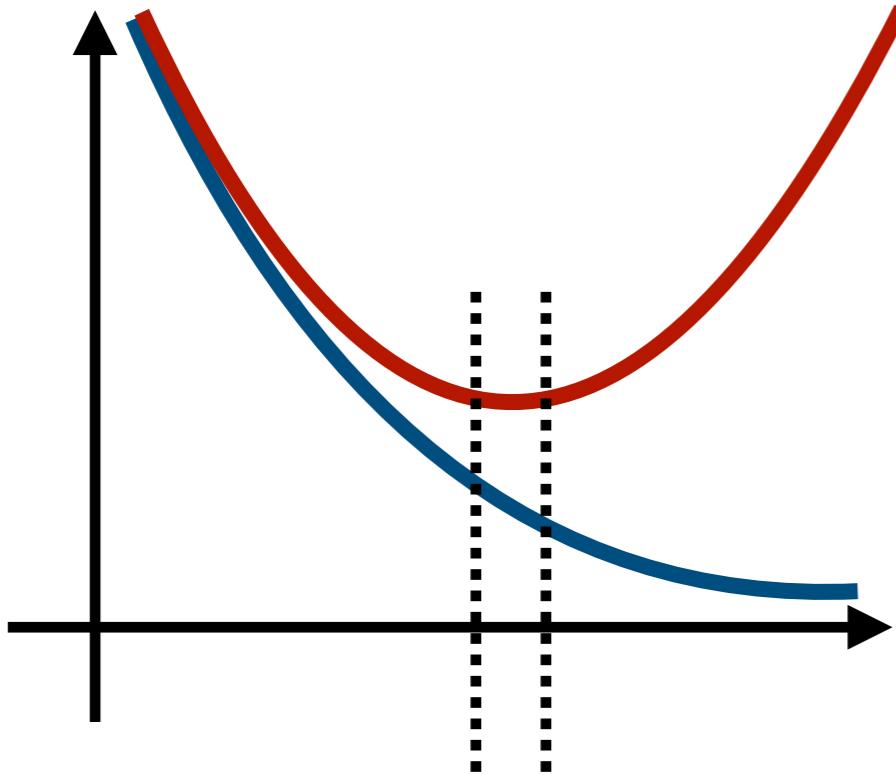


# Avoiding Overfit

Early stop

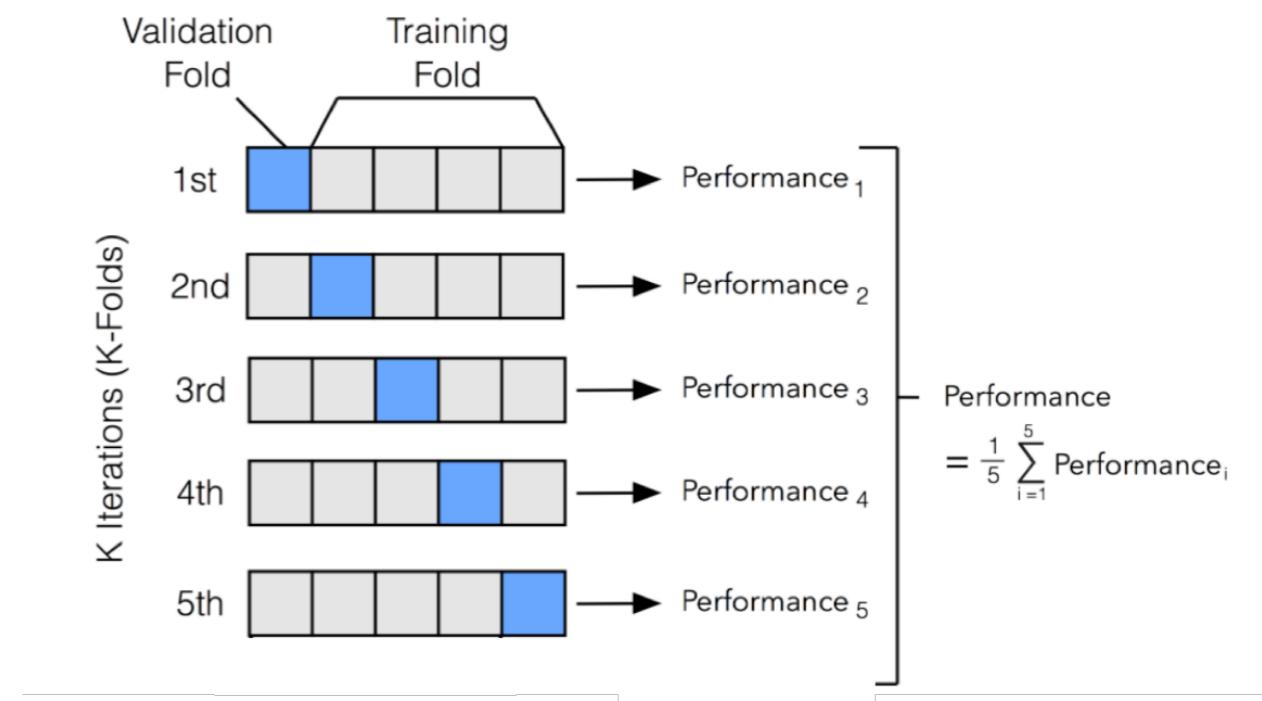
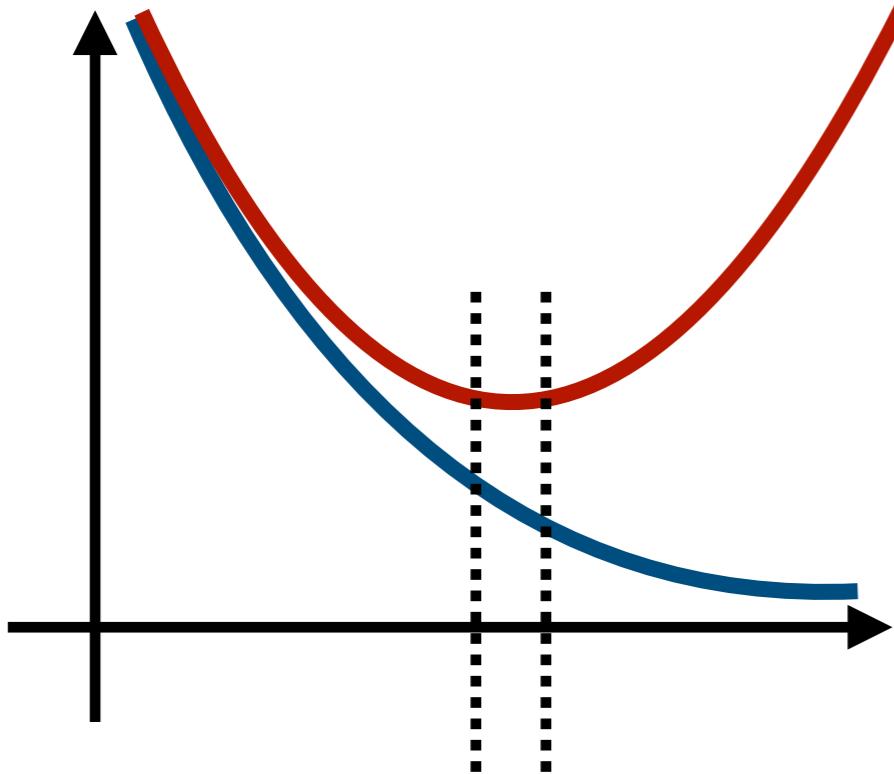


# A note on accuracy



The same method will have different results in different folds  
-> what do you think is happening?

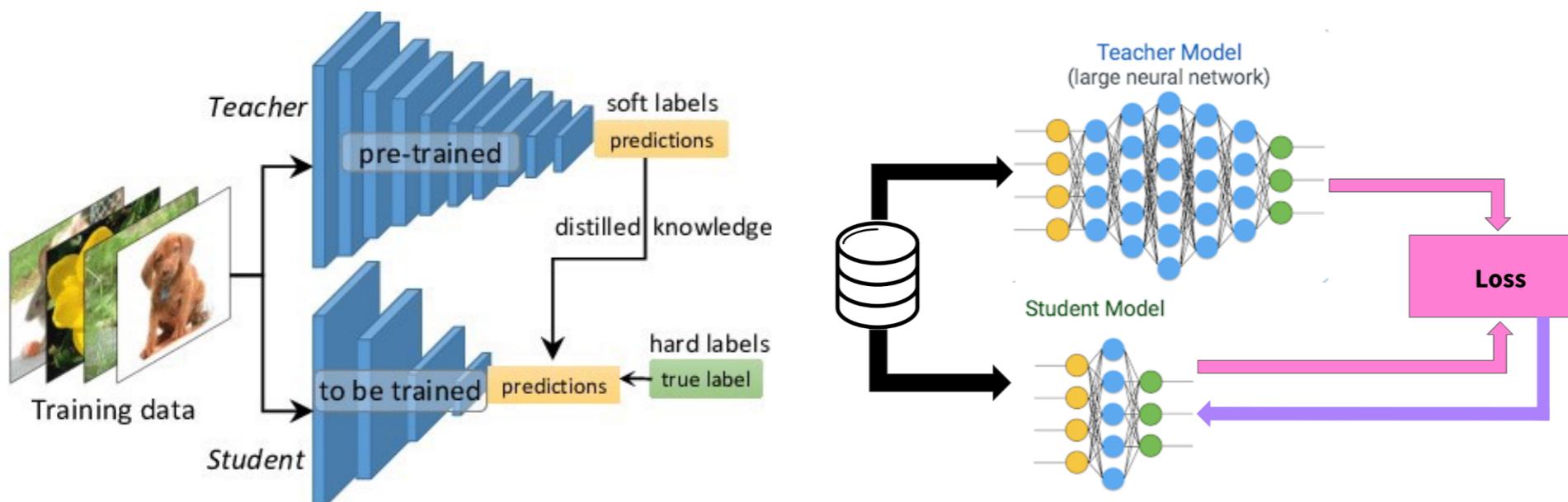
# A note on accuracy



Evaluate on easy “naive” baselines (underfit)

## Distillation [Hinton et al., 2015]

- A teacher (large) and a student (small) network.
- Teacher is pre-trained.
- The student is trained to imitate the output of the teacher network (before soft-max).
- Training the student directly does not work!



Slide from Xavier Alameda-Pineda



1958 Perceptron

1974 Backpropagation

awkward silence (AI Winter)

1969  
Perceptron criticized



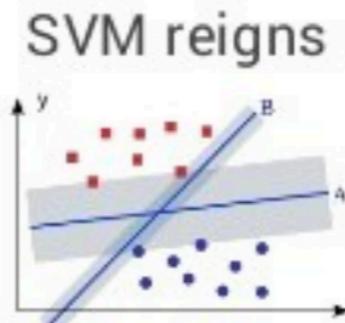
Convolution Neural Networks for  
Handwritten Recognition

1998



Google Brain Project on  
16k Cores

2012



1995

SVM reigns

2006  
Restricted  
Boltzmann  
Machine



2012  
AlexNet wins  
ImageNet

# References

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<https://machinelearningmastery.com/rectified-linear-activation-function-for-deep-learning-neural-networks/>  
(last accessed 1 Oct 2021)
- Unit on Deep Learning and Differentiable Programming  
<https://perso.liris.cnrs.fr/christian.wolf/teaching/index.html>  
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- Unit on Deep Learning UNIGE/EPFL  
<https://fleuret.org/dlc/>  
(last accessed 1 Oct 2021)
- Unit on Deep Learning - Xavier Alameda-Pineda  
<http://thoth.inrialpes.fr/people/alahari/teaching/clor19-20/8-DeepLearning.pdf>