Introduction to Deep Learning

Lecture 01

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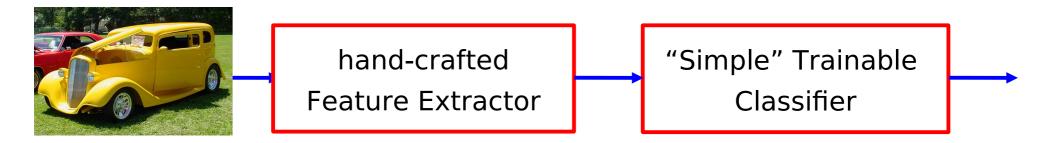
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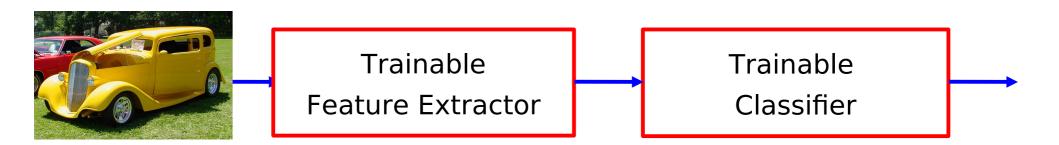


Deep Learning = Learning Representations/Features

- The traditional model of pattern recognition (since the late 50's)
 - Fixed/engineered features (or fixed kernel) + trainable classifier



- End-to-end learning / Feature learning / Deep learning
 - Trainable features (or kernel) + trainable classifier





Ideas for "generic" feature extraction

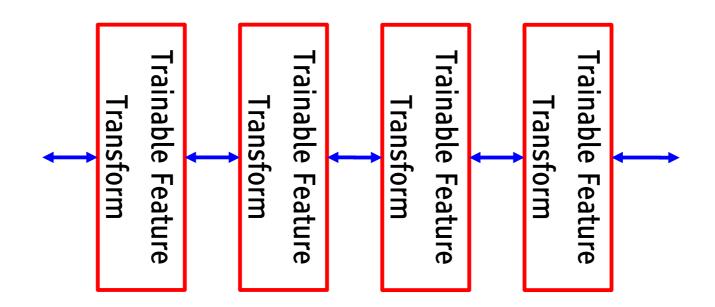
Basic principle:

- expanding the dimension of the representation so that things are more likely to become linearly separable.
- space tiling
- random projections
- polynomial classifier (feature cross-products)
- radial basis functions
- kernel machines



Hierarchical representation

- Hierarchy of representations with increasing level of abstraction
- Each stage is a kind of trainable feature transform
- Image recognition
 - \triangleright Pixel → edge → texton → motif → part → object
- Text
 - Character → word → word group → clause → sentence → story
- Speech
 - \triangleright Sample → spectral band → sound → ... → phone → phoneme → word

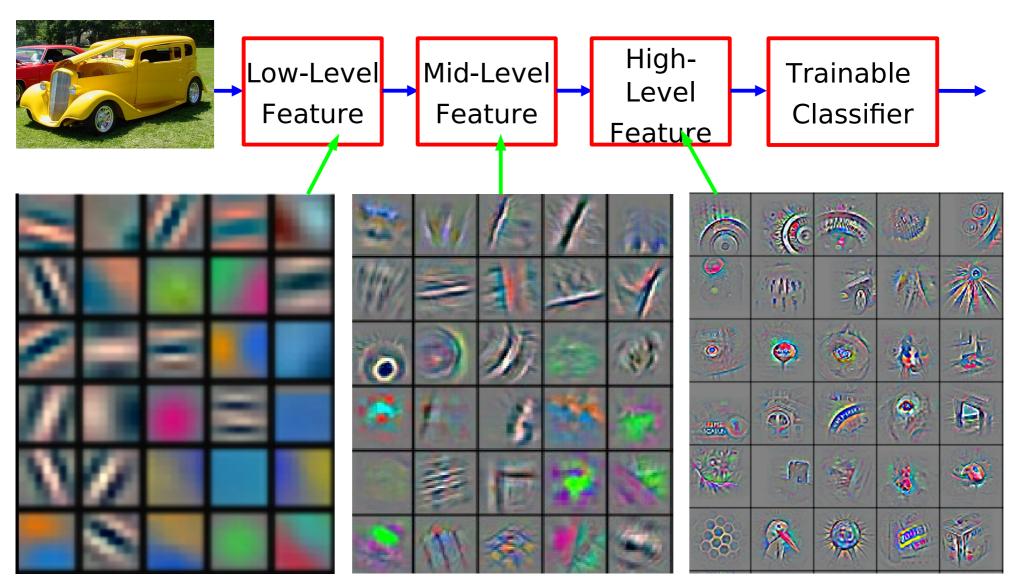




Deep Learning = Learning Hierarchical Representations

Y LeCun MA Ranzato

It's deep if it has more than one stage of non-linear feature transformation



Feature visualization of convolutional net trained on ImageNet from [Zeiler & Fergus 2013]

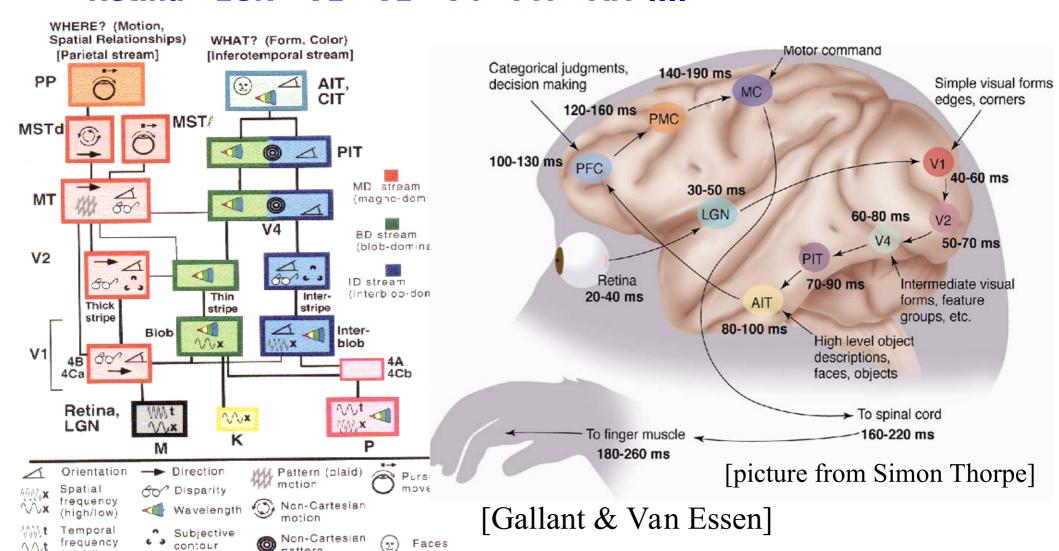


(high/low)

The Mammalian Visual Cortex is Hierarchical

- The ventral (recognition) pathway in the visual cortex has multiple stages
- **Retina LGN V1 V2 V4 PIT AIT**

pattern

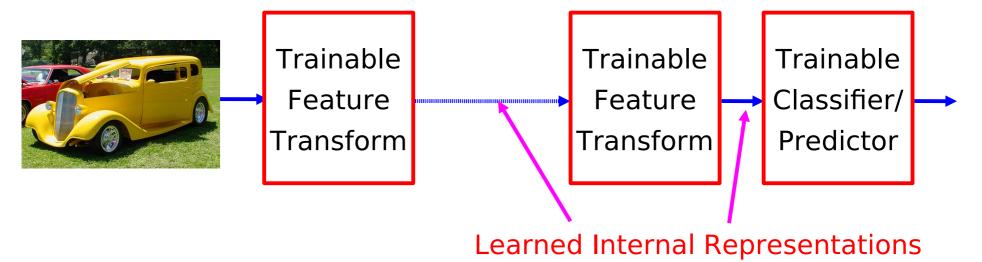




Trainable Feature Hierarchies: End-to-end learning

A hierarchy of trainable feature transforms

- Each module transforms its input representation into a higher-level one.
- High-level features are more global and more invariant
- Low-level features are shared among categories



How can we make all the modules trainable and get them to learn appropriate representations?



Theoretician's dilemma: "We can approximate any function as close as we want with shallow architecture. Why would we need deep ones?"

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{P} \alpha_i K(X, X^i)$$
 $y = F(W^1.F(W^0.X))$

- kernel machines (and 2-layer neural nets) are "universal".
- Deep learning machines

$$y = F(W^K.F(W^{K-1}.F(....F(W^0.X)...)))$$

- Deep machines are more efficient for representing certain classes of functions, particularly those involved in visual recognition
 - they can represent more complex functions with less "hardware"
- We need an efficient parameterization of the class of functions that are useful for "AI" tasks (vision, audition, NLP...)

Why would deep architectures be more efficient?

[Bengio & LeCun 2007 "Scaling Learning Algorithms Towards Al"] Y LeCun

A deep architecture trades space for time (or breadth for depth)

- more layers (more sequential computation),
- but less hardware (less parallel computation).

Example1: N-bit parity

- requires N-1 XOR gates in a tree of depth log(N).
- Even easier if we use threshold gates
- requires an exponential number of gates of we restrict ourselves to 2 layers (DNF formula with exponential number of minterms).

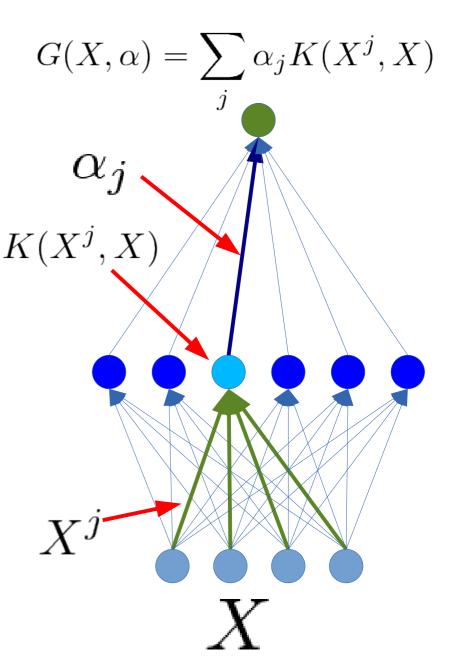
Example2: circuit for addition of 2 N-bit binary numbers

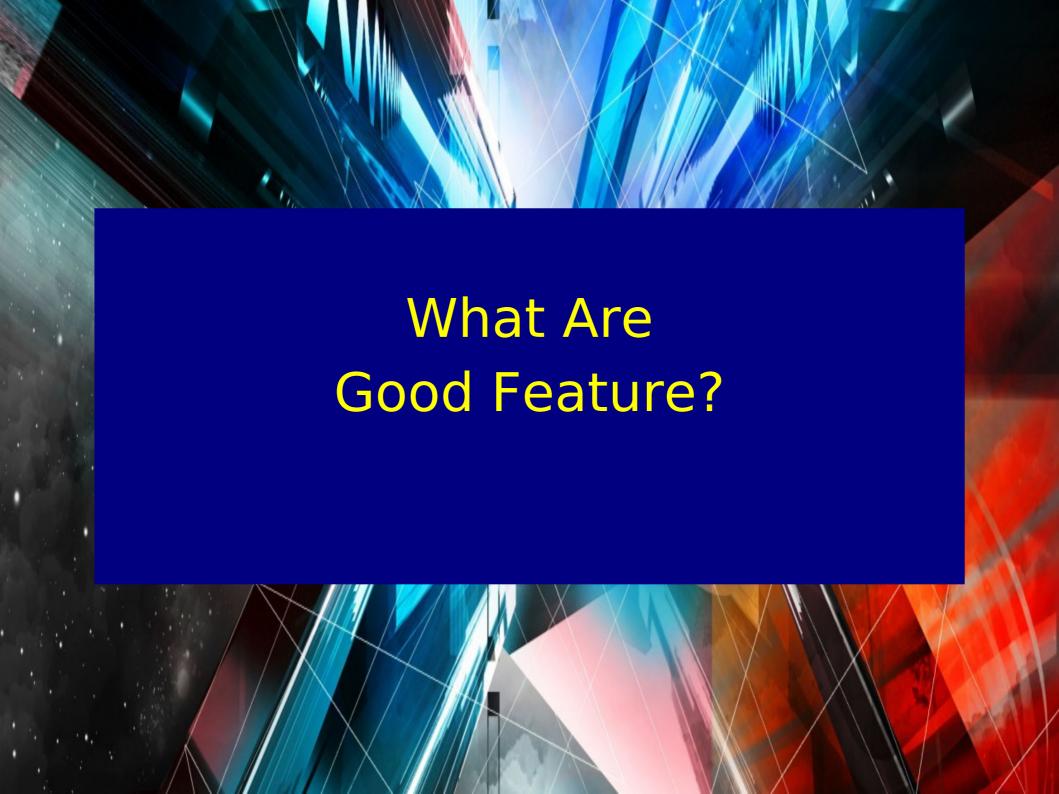
- Requires O(N) gates, and O(N) layers using N one-bit adders with ripple carry propagation.
- Requires lots of gates (some polynomial in N) if we restrict ourselves to two layers (e.g. Disjunctive Normal Form).
- Bad news: almost all boolean functions have a DNF formula with an exponential number of minterms O(2^N).....



Which Models are Deep?

- 2-layer models are not deep (even if you train the first layer)
 - Because there is no feature hierarchy
- Neural nets with 1 hidden layer are not deep
- lacksquare SVMs and Kernel methods are not $K(X^j,X)$ deep
 - Layer1: kernels; layer2: linear
 - The first layer is "trained" in with the simplest unsupervised method ever devised: using the samples as templates for the kernel functions.
- Classification trees are not deep
 - No hierarchy of features. All decisions are made in the input space

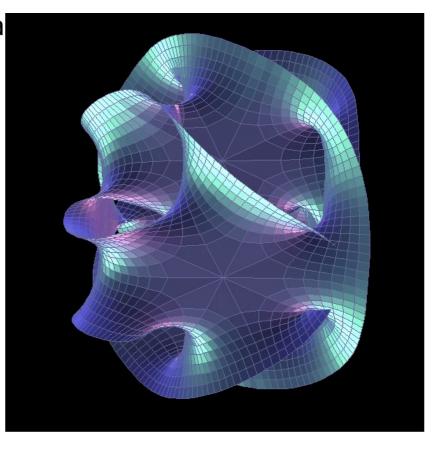




Discovering the Hidden Structure in High-Dimensional Data: The manifold hypothesis

- Learning Representations of Data:
 - Discovering & disentangling the independent explanatory factors
- The Manifold Hypothesis:
 - Natural data lives in a low-dimensional (non-linear) manifold
 - Because variables in natural data





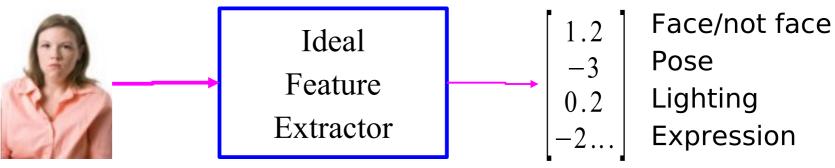
Discovering the Hidden Structure in High-Dimensional Data

Example: all face images of a person

- ▶ 1000x1000 pixels = 1,000,000 dimensions
- But the face has 3 cartesian coordinates and 3 Euler angles
- And humans have less than about 50 muscles in the face
- Hence the manifold of face images for a person has <56 dimensions</p>

The perfect representations of a face image:

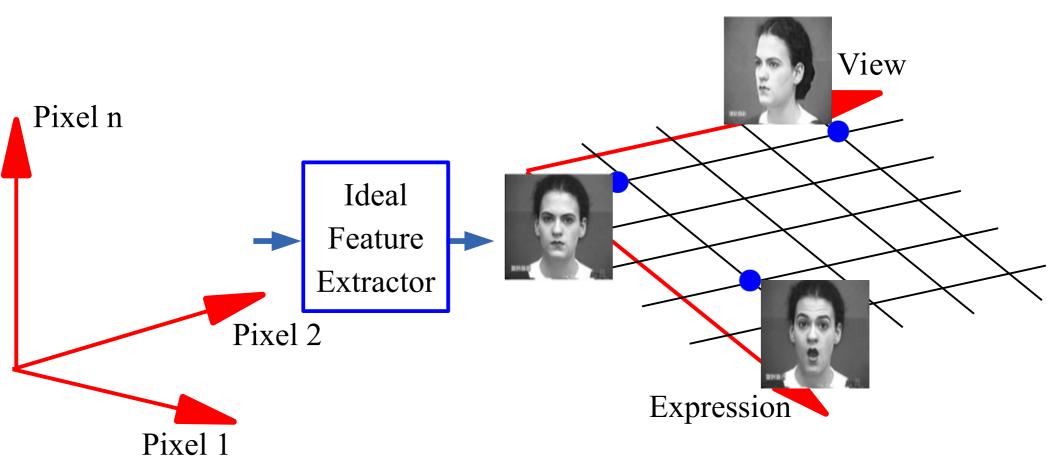
- Its coordinates on the face manifold
- Its coordinates away from the manifold
- We do not have good and general methods to learn functions that turns an image into this kind of representation





Disentangling factors of variation

The Ideal Disentangling Feature Extractor

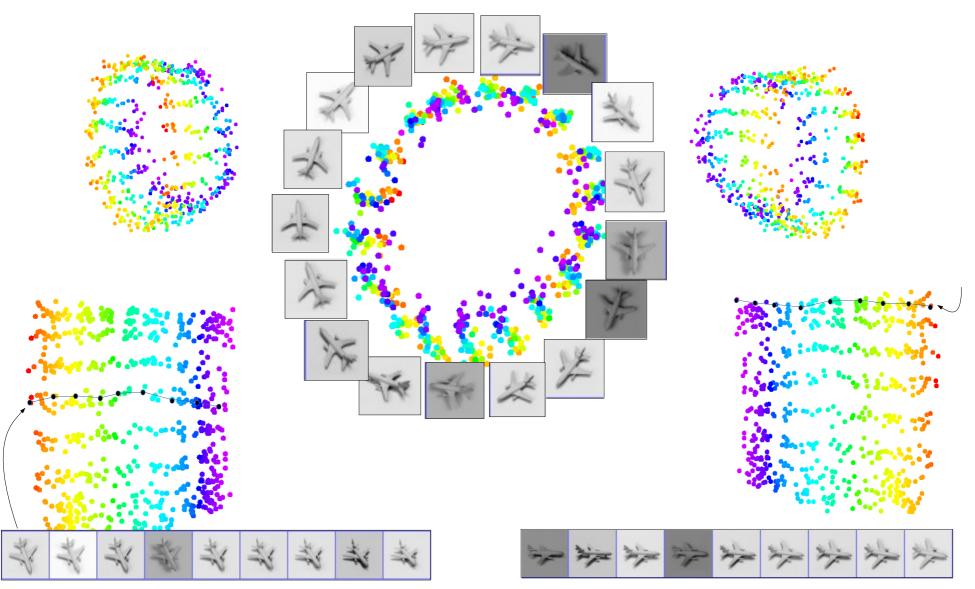




Data Manifold & Invariance: Some variations must be eliminated

[Hadsell et al. CVPR 2006]

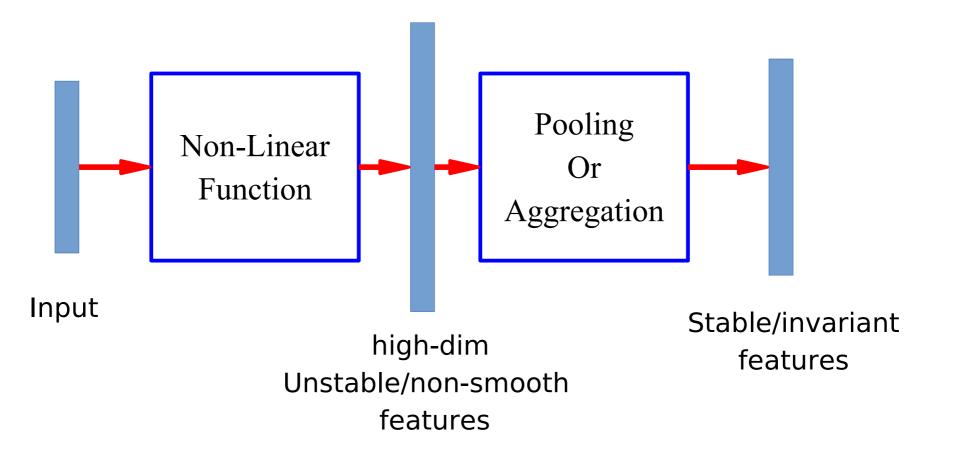
Azimuth-Elevation manifold. Ignores lighting.





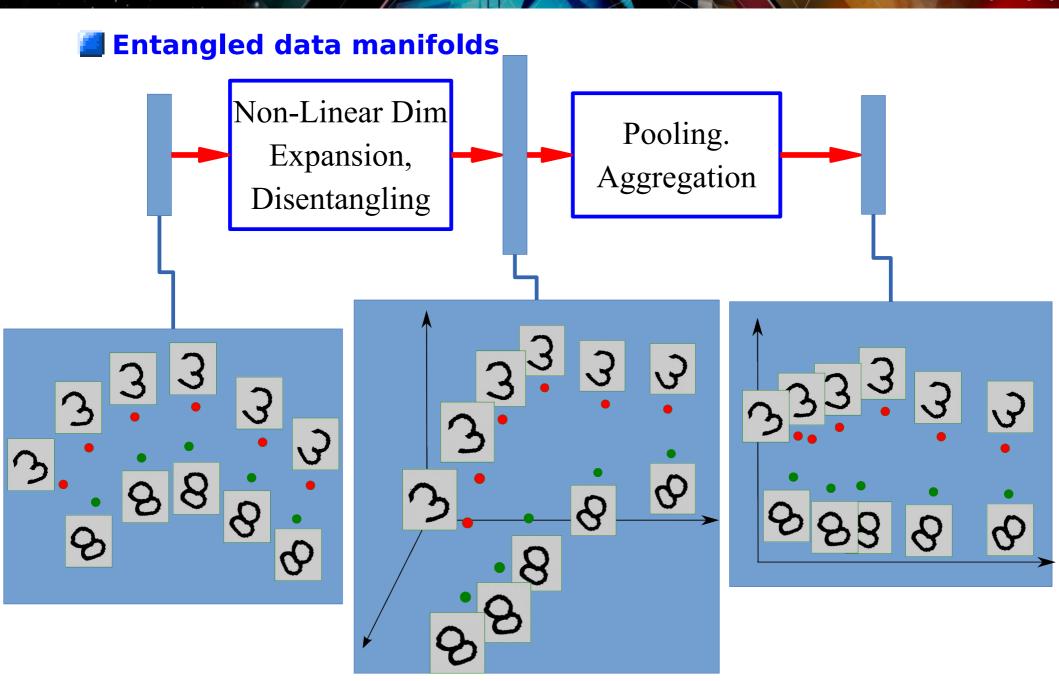
Basic Idea for Invariant Feature Learning

- Embed the input non-linearly into a high(er) dimensional space
 - In the new space, things that were non separable may become separable
- Pool regions of the new space together
 - Bringing together things that are semantically similar. Like pooling.



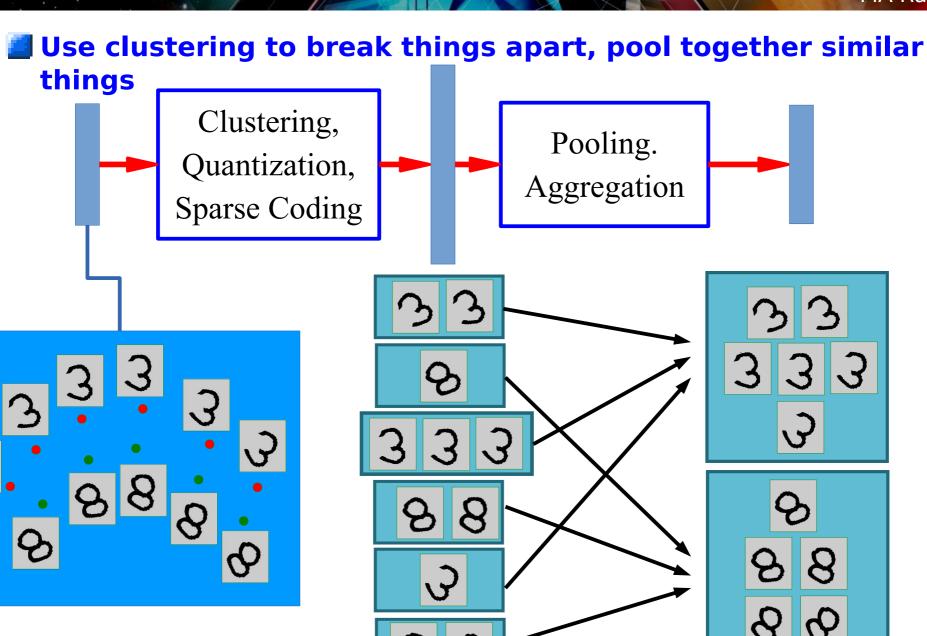


Non-Linear Expansion → Pooling





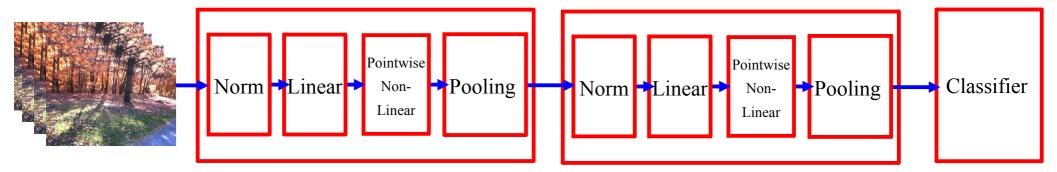
Sparse Non-Linear Expansion > Pooling





Overall Architecture:

Y LeCun Normalization → Filter Bank → Non-Linearity → Pool Ranzato



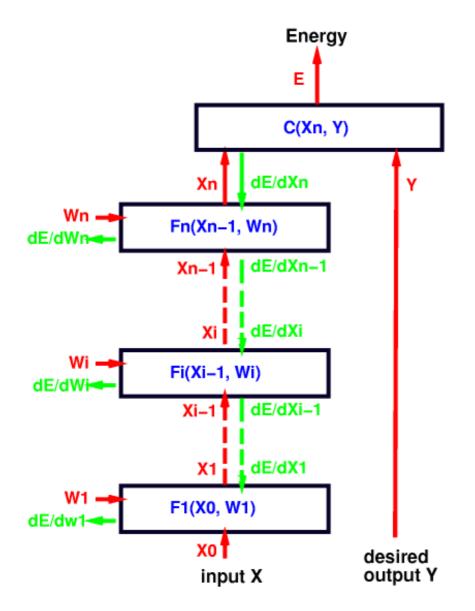
- Stacking multiple stages of
 - Normalization → Filter Bank → Non-Linearity → Pooling].
- Normalization: variations on whitening
 - Subtractive: average removal, high pass filtering
 - Divisive: local contrast normalization, variance normalization
- Linear: dimension expansion, projection on overcomplete basis
- (Pointwise) Non-Linear: Rectification, saturation....
 - ReLU, Component-wise shrinkage, tanh, winner-takes-all
- Pooling: aggregation over space or feature type

$$X_i$$
; L_p : $\sqrt[p]{X_i^p}$; $PROB$: $\frac{1}{b} \log \left(\sum_i e^{bX_i} \right)$





Multimodule Systems: Cascade



- Complex learning machines can be built by assembling modules into networks
- Simple example: sequential/layered feedforward architecture (cascade)
- Forward Propagation: let $X = X_0$,

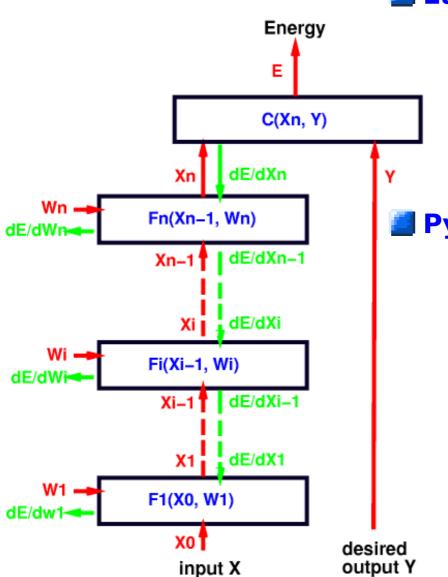
$$X_i = F_i(X_{i-1}, W_i) \quad \forall i \in [1, n]$$

$$E(Y, X, W) = C(X_n, Y)$$



Multimodule Systems: Implementation

Each module is an object



- Contains trainable parameters
- Inputs are arguments
- Output is returned, but also stored internally
- Example: 2 modules m1, m2

PyTorch (functional paradigm)

- m1 = nn.Linear(in_size, h_size)
- m2 = nn.Linear(h_size, out_size)
- # forward prop
- hid = torch.relu(m1(image.view(1)))
- out = m2(hid)

image.view(-1) flattens a tensor

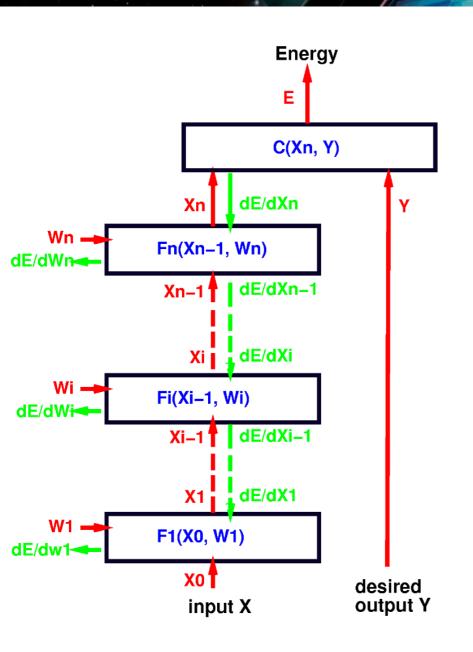


Multimodule Systems: Pytorch Implementation Y LeCun

```
import torch
from torch import nn
image = torch.randn(3, 10, 20)
in size = image.nelement()
h size = 60
out size = 6
#### Functional paradigm
m1 = nn.Linear(in size, h size)
m2 = nn.Linear(h size, out size)
# forward prop
hid = torch.relu(m1(image.view(-1)))
out = m2(hid)
#### Using containers
model = nn.Sequential(m1, nn.ReLU(), m2)
# forward prop
out = model(image.view(-1))
#### Using object oriented programming
class Net(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, in_s, h_s, out_s):
    super().__init__()
        self.m1 = nn.Linear(in_s, h_s)
        self.m2 = nn.Linear(h s, out s)
    def forward(self, x):
        x = torch.relu(self.m1(x.view(-1)))
        x = self.m2(x)
        return x
model = Net(in_size, h_size, out_size)
out = model(image)
```



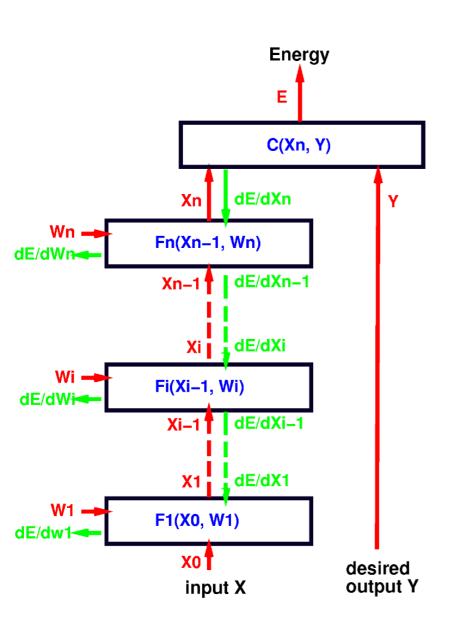
Computing the Gradient in Multi-Layer Systems Y LeCun



- To train a multi-module system, we must compute the gradient of E(W, Y, X) with respect to all the parameters in the system (all the W_k).
- Let's consider module i whose fprop method computes $X_k = F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)$.
- Let's assume that we already know $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k}$, in other words, for each component of vector X_k we know how much E would wiggle if we wiggled that component of X_k .



Computing the Gradient in Multi-Layer Systems Y LeCun MA Ranzato



We can apply chain rule to compute $\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_k}$ (how much E would wiggle if we wiggled each component of W_k):

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_k} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k} \frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial W_k}$$

$$[1 \times N_w] = [1 \times N_x].[N_x \times N_w]$$

 $\frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial W_k}$ is the Jacobian matrix of F_k with respect to W_k .

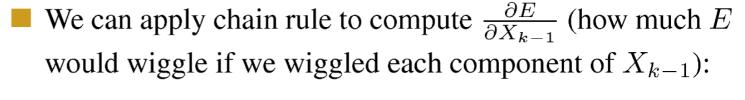
$$\left[\frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial W_k}\right]_{pq} = \frac{\partial \left[F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)\right]_p}{\partial [W_k]_q}$$

Element (p,q) of the Jacobian indicates how much the p-th output wiggles when we wiggle the q-th weight.



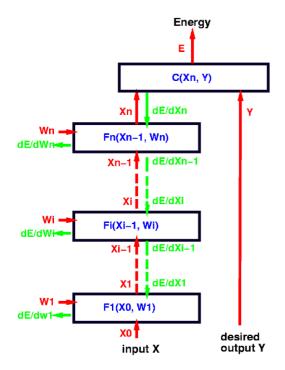
Computing the Gradient in Multi-Layer Systems Y LeCun MA Ranzato

Using the same trick, we can compute $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{k-1}}$. Let's assume again that we already know $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k}$, in other words, for each component of vector X_k we know how much E would wiggle if we wiggled that component of X_k .



$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{k-1}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k} \frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial X_{k-1}}$$

- $\frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial X_{k-1}}$ is the *Jacobian matrix* of F_k with respect to X_{k-1} .
- \blacksquare F_k has two Jacobian matrices, because it has to arguments.
- Element (p, q) of this Jacobian indicates how much the p-th output wiggles when we wiggle the q-th input.
- The equation above is a recurrence equation!





Jacobians and Dimensions

derivatives with respect to a column vector are line vectors (dimensions: $[1 \times N_{k-1}] = [1 \times N_k] * [N_k \times N_{k-1}]$)

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{k-1}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k} \frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial X_{k-1}}$$

dimensions: $[1 \times N_{wk}] = [1 \times N_k] * [N_k \times N_{wk}]$:

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_k} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k} \frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)}{\partial W}$$

we may prefer to write those equation with column vectors:

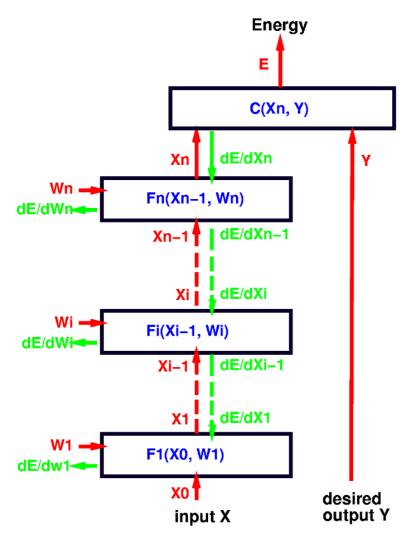
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{k-1}}' = \frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)'}{\partial X_{k-1}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_k}'$$

$$\frac{\partial E'}{\partial W_k} = \frac{\partial F_k(X_{k-1}, W_k)'}{\partial W} \frac{\partial E'}{\partial X_k}$$



Back Propgation

To compute all the derivatives, we use a backward sweep called the **back-propagation** algorithm that uses the recurrence equation for $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_L}$



$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{n-1}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_n} \frac{\partial F_n(X_{n-1}, W_n)}{\partial X_{n-1}}$$

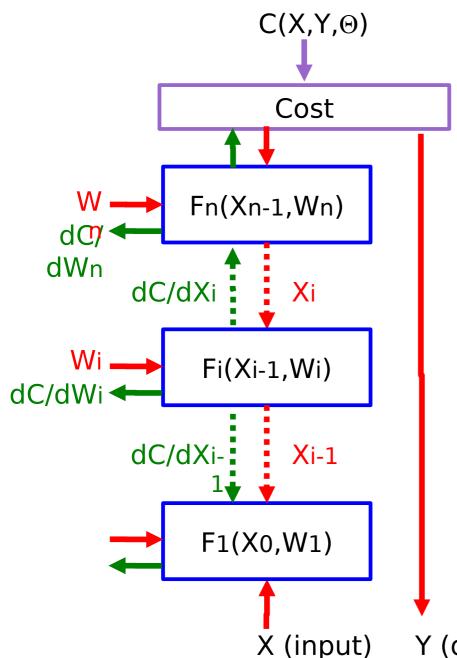
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_n} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_n} \frac{\partial F_n(X_{n-1}, W_n)}{\partial W_n}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{n-2}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{n-1}} \frac{\partial F_{n-1}(X_{n-2}, W_{n-1})}{\partial X_{n-2}}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{n-1}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{n-1}} \frac{\partial F_{n-1}(X_{n-2}, W_{n-1})}{\partial W_{n-1}}$$

-etc, until we reach the first module.
- \blacksquare we now have all the $\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_k}$ for $k \in [1, n]$.

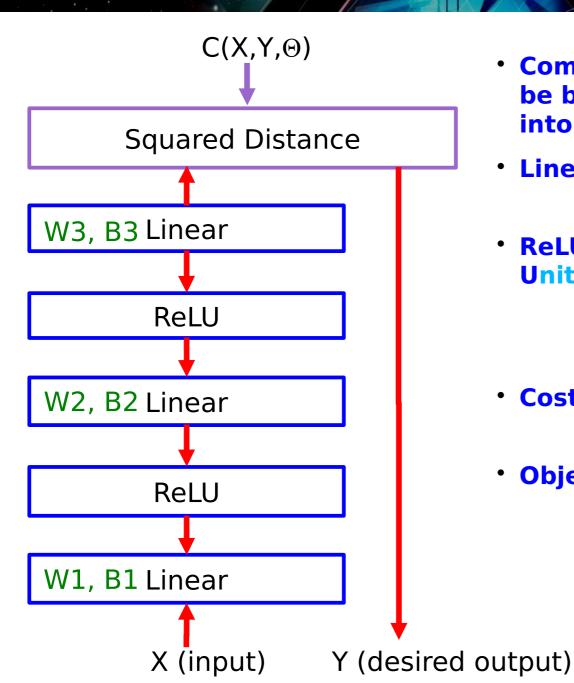




- A practical Application of Chain Rule
- Backprop for the state gradients:
- dC/dXi-1 = dC/dXi . dXi/dXi-1
- dC/dXi-1 = dC/dXi . dFi(Xi-1,Wi)/dXi-1
- Backprop for the weight gradients:
- dC/dWi = dC/dXi . dXi/dWi
- dC/dWi = dC/dXi . dFi(Xi-1,Wi)/ dWi

Y (desired output)





- Complex learning machines can be built by assembling modules into networks
- Linear Module
 - Out = W.In+B
- ReLU Module (Rectified Linear Unit)
 - Out_i = 0 if $In_i < 0$
 - Out_i = In_i otherwise
- Cost Module: Squared Distance
 - $C = ||In1 In2||^2$
- **Objective Function**
 - $L(\Theta)=1/p \Sigma_k C(X^k,Y^k,\Theta)$
 - $\Theta = (W1,B1,W2,B2,W3,B3)$



Building a Network by Assembling Modules

- All deep learning frameworks use modules (inspired by SN/Lush, 1991)
 - PyTorch, TensorFlow.... PyTorch

```
C(X,Y,\Theta)
NegativeLogLikelihood
  LogSoftMax
w2,B2Linear
      ReLU
w1,B1Linear
       X
     input
                Label
```

```
class Net(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self,insize,hsize,outsize):
        super().__init__()
        self.m1 = nn.Linear(insize,hsize)
        self.m2 = nn.Linear(hsize,outsize)
    def forward(self, x):
        x = F.relu(self.m1(x))
        x = self.m2(x)
        return F.logsoftmax(x)
model = Net(784, 500, 10)
model(image)
```



Running Backprop

PyTorch example

PyTorch

```
C(X,Y,\Theta)
                              optimizer =
                              optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr = 0.01,
       NegativeLogLikelihood nomentum=0.9)
                             # or
          LogSoftMax
                              optimizer = optim.Adam([var1, var2], lr
                              = 0.0001)
        w2,B2Linear
Θ
             ReLU
                             output = model(image)
        w1,B1Linear
                              loss = F.nll_loss(output,target)
                             optimizer.zero_grad()
                             loss.backward()
               X
              inpu
                        Labe optimizer.step()
```



Module Classes

```
Linear • Y = W.X; dC/dX = W^{T}. dC/dY; dC/dW = dC/dY.X^{T}
```

ReLU •
$$y = ReLU(x)$$
; if $(x<0)$ dC/dx = 0 else dC/dx = dC/dy

Duplicate •
$$Y1 = X$$
, $Y2 = X$; $dC/dX = dC/dY1 + dC/dY2$

Add •
$$Y = X1 + X2$$
 ; $dC/dX1 = dC/dY$; $dC/dX2 = dC/dY$

Max
$$y = max(x1,x2)$$
; if $(x1>x2)$ dC/dx1 = dC/dy else dC/dx1=0

LogSoftMax
• Yi = Xi - $log[\sum_{i} exp(Xj)]$;