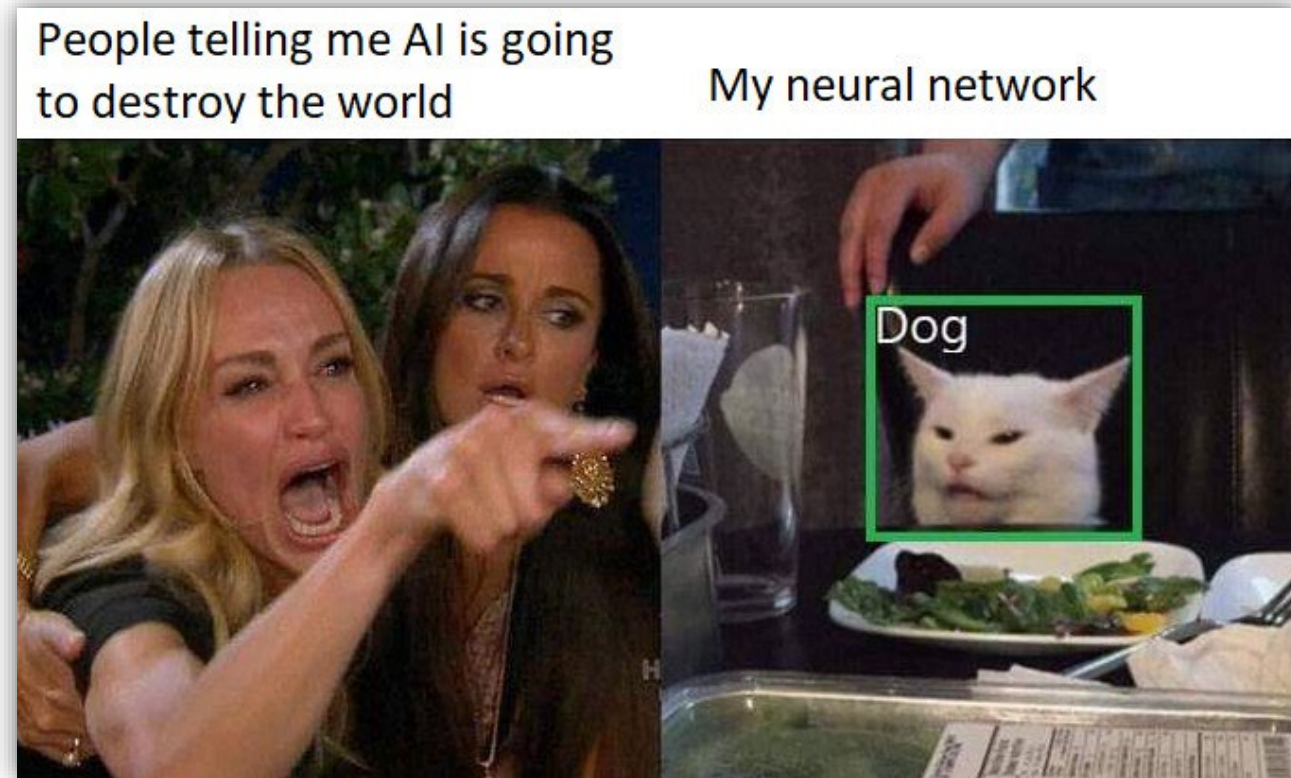


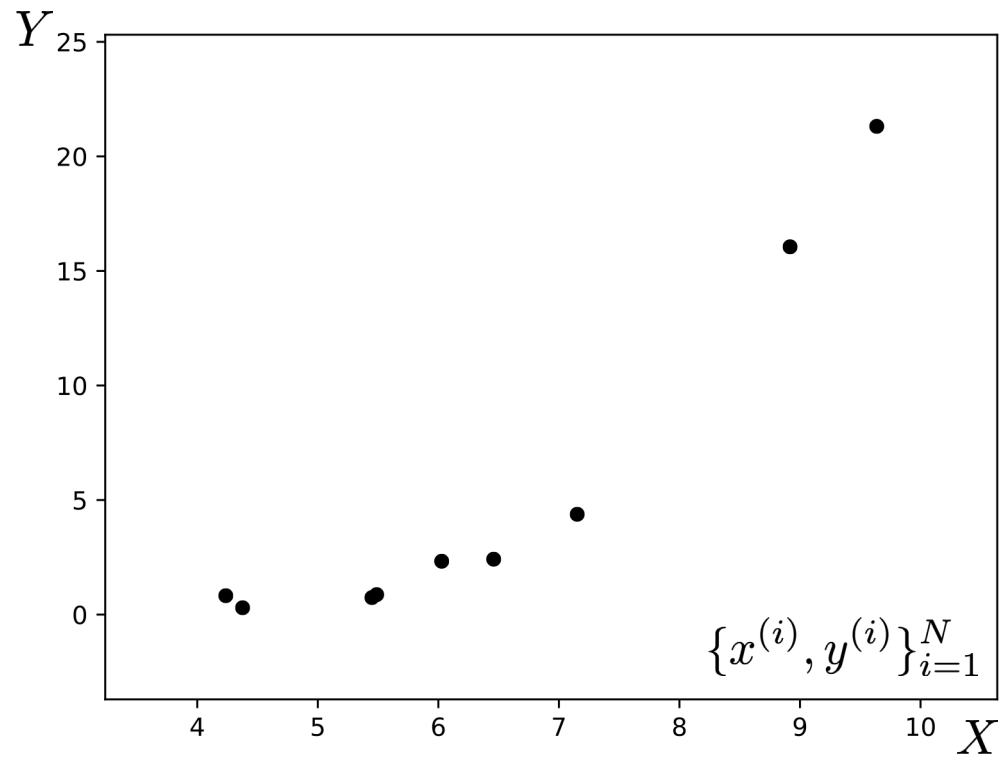
Lecture 9

Neural Networks for Computer Vision



Linear regression

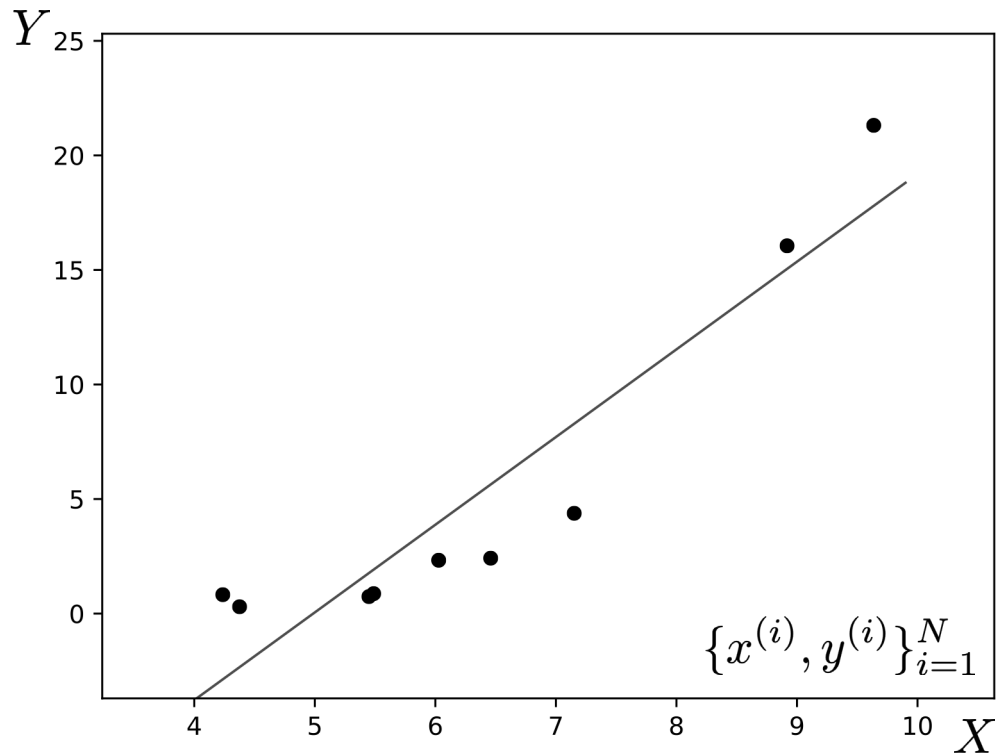
Training data



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

Linear regression

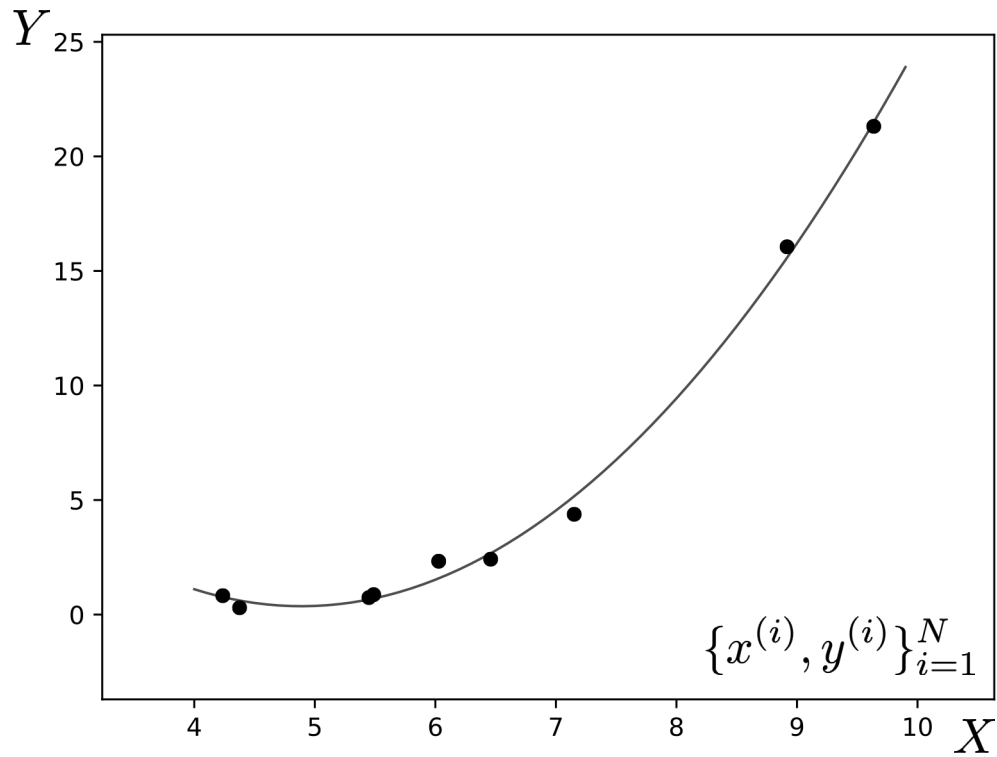
Training data



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$$

Polynomial regression

Training data

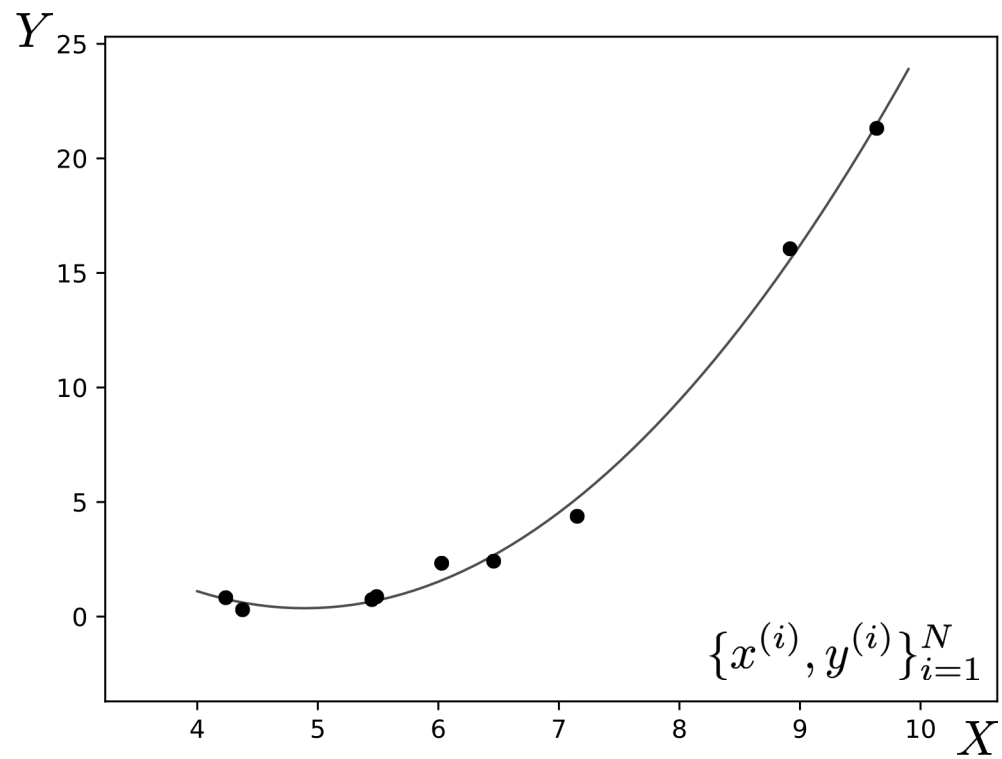


$$f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2$$

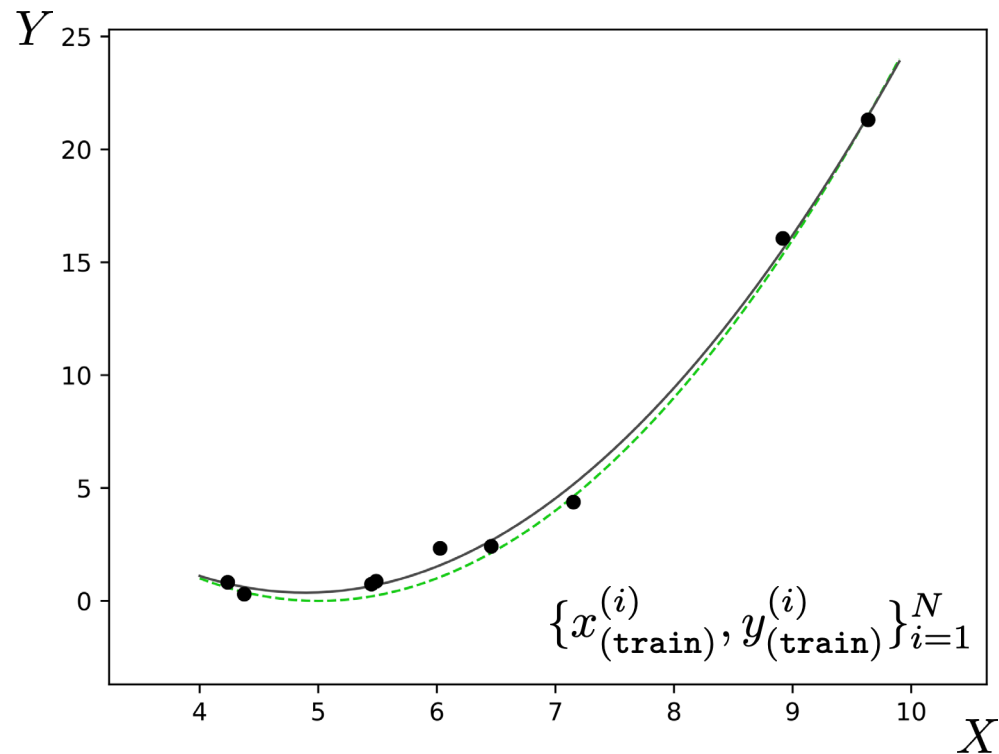
$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

K-th degree polynomial regression

Training data



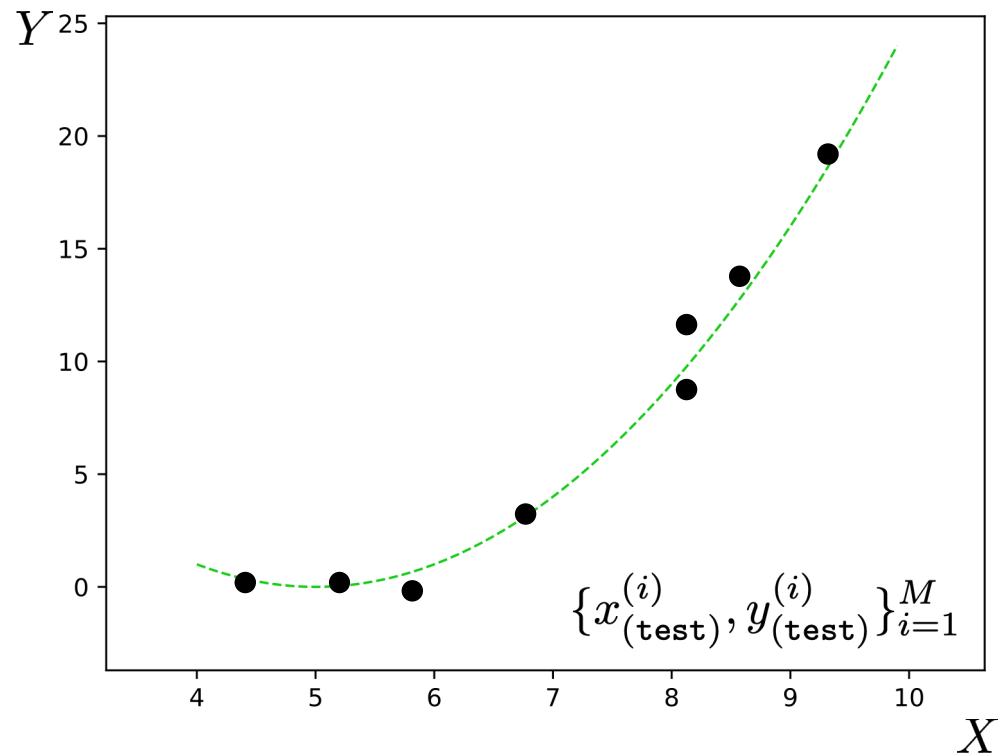
Training data



Training objective:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (f_{\theta}(x_{\text{train}}^{(i)}) - y_{\text{train}}^{(i)})^2$$

Test data

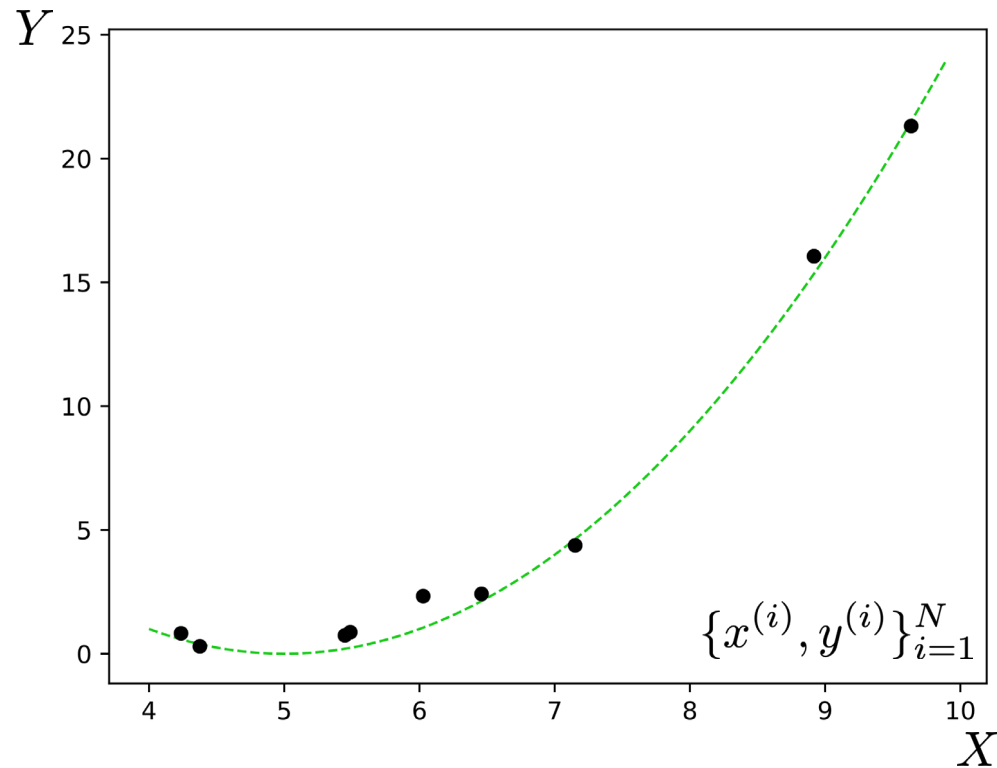


Test time evaluation:

$$\sum_{i=1}^M (f_{\theta}(x_{\text{test}}^{(i)}) - y_{\text{test}}^{(i)})^2$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

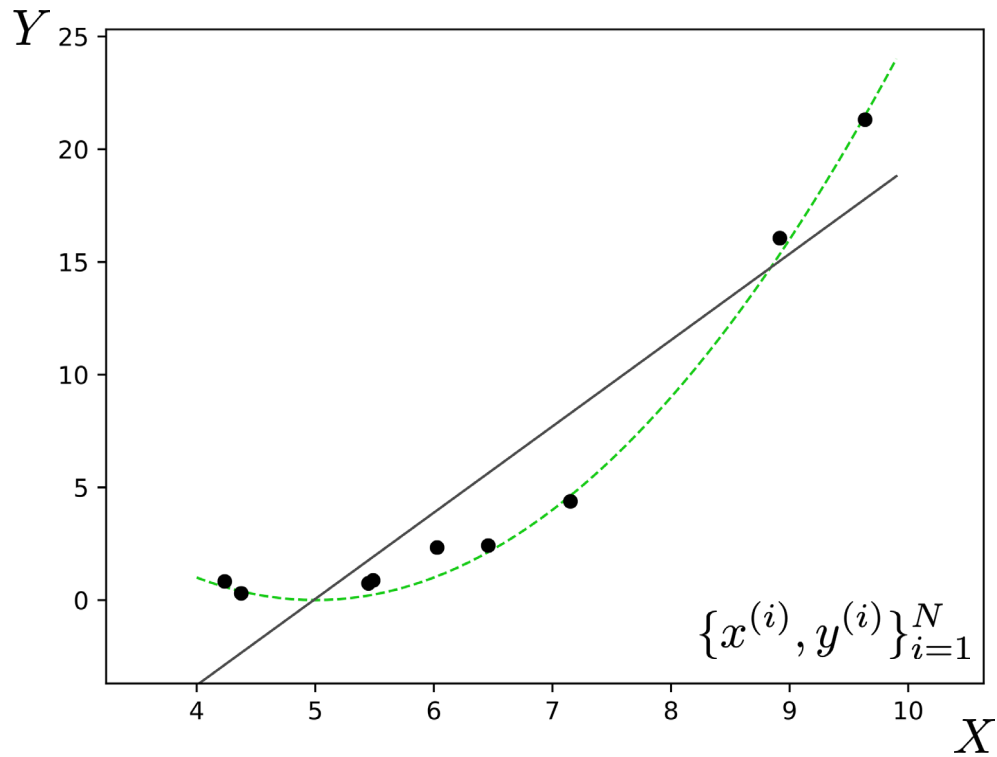
Training data



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

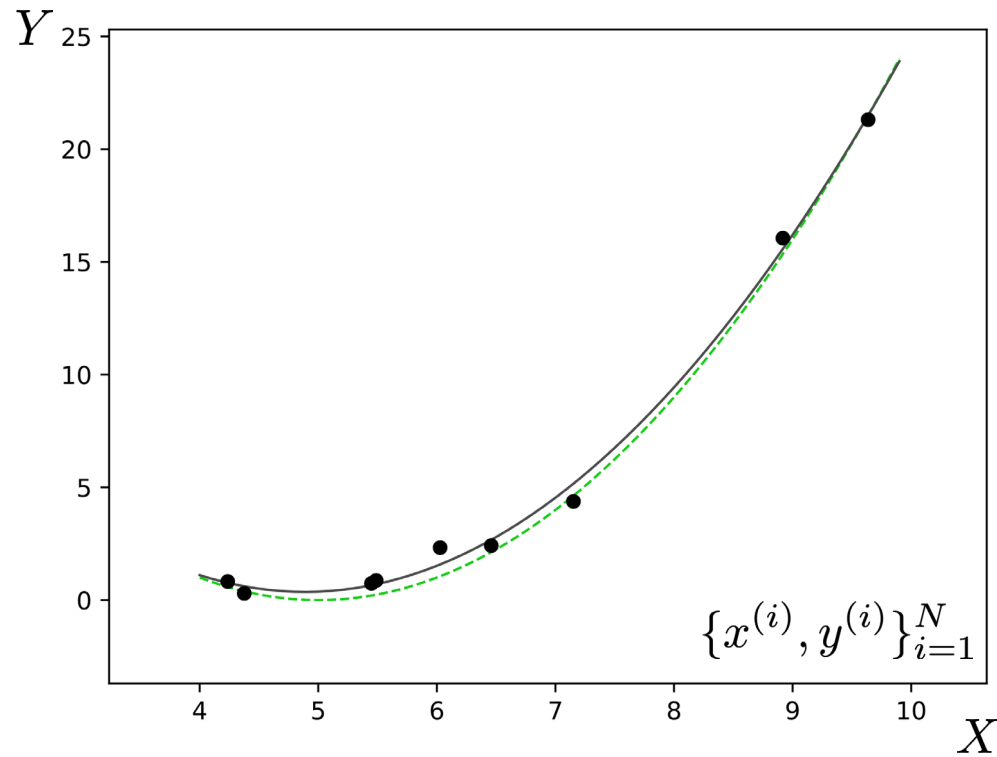
K = 1



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

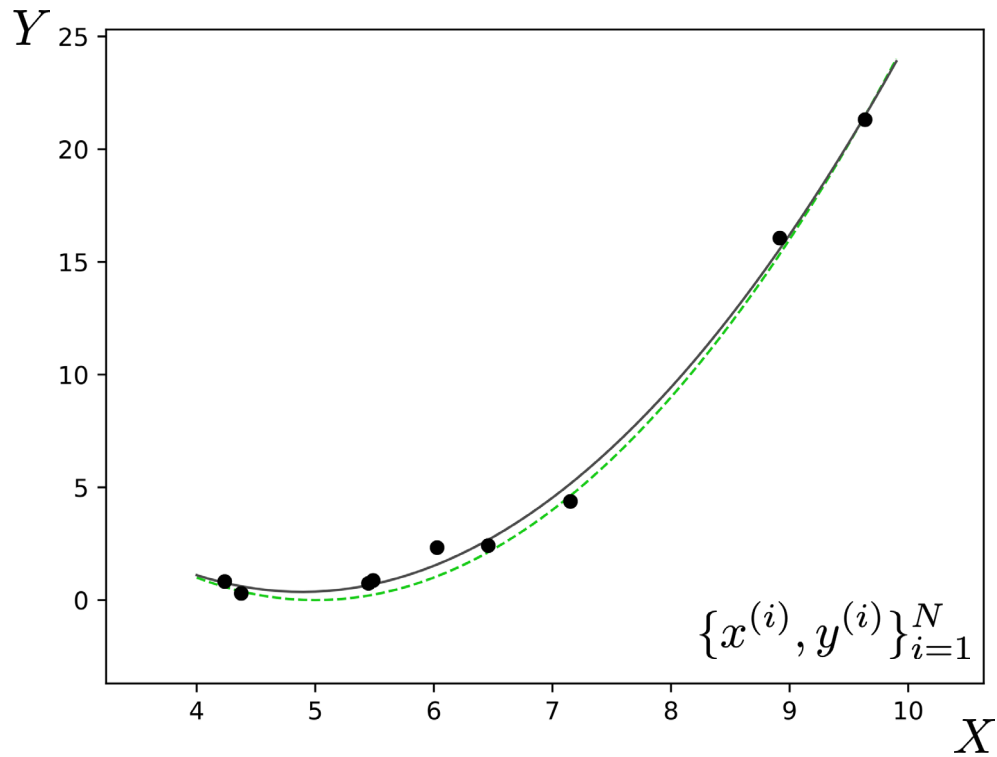
K = 2



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

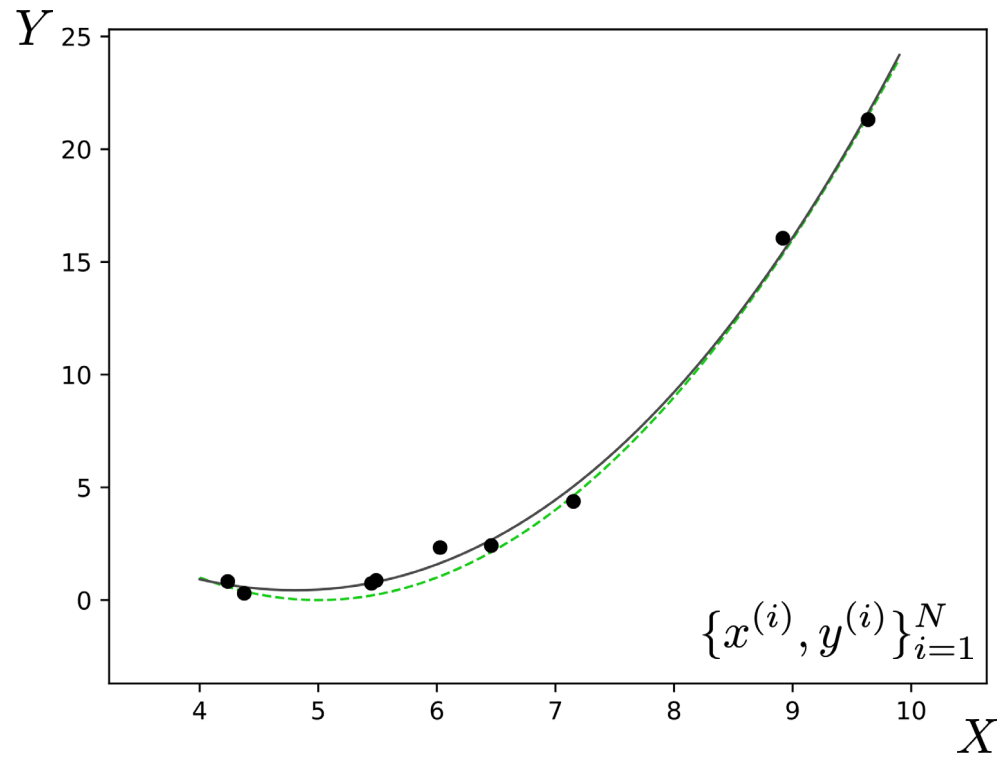
K = 3



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

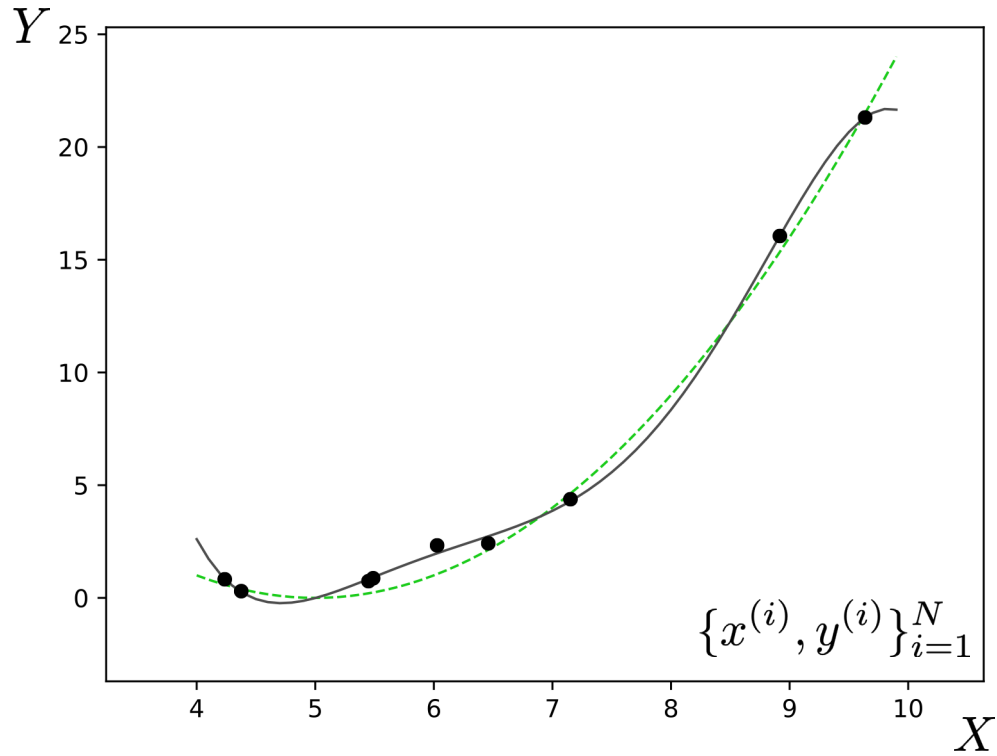
K = 4



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

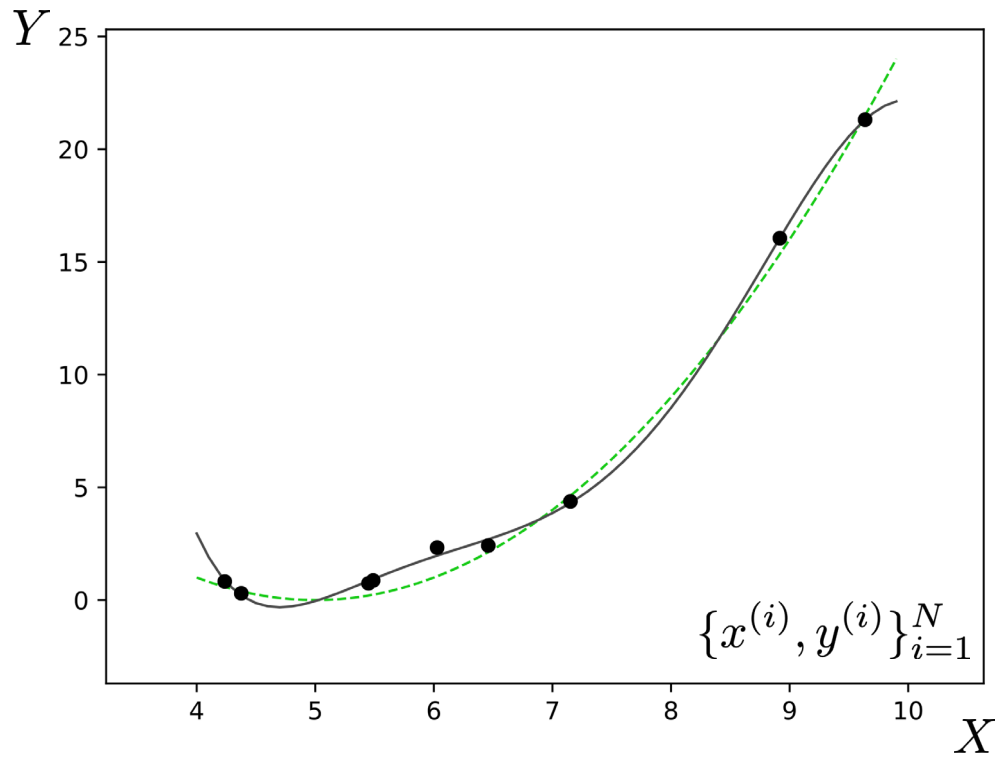
K = 5



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

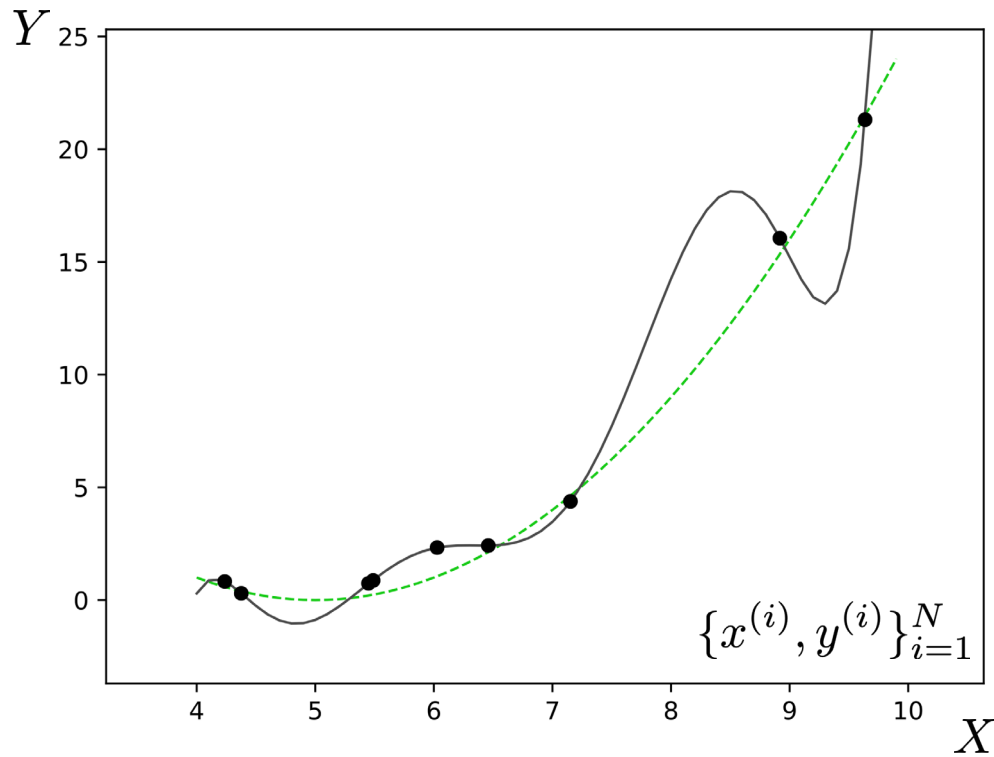
K = 6



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

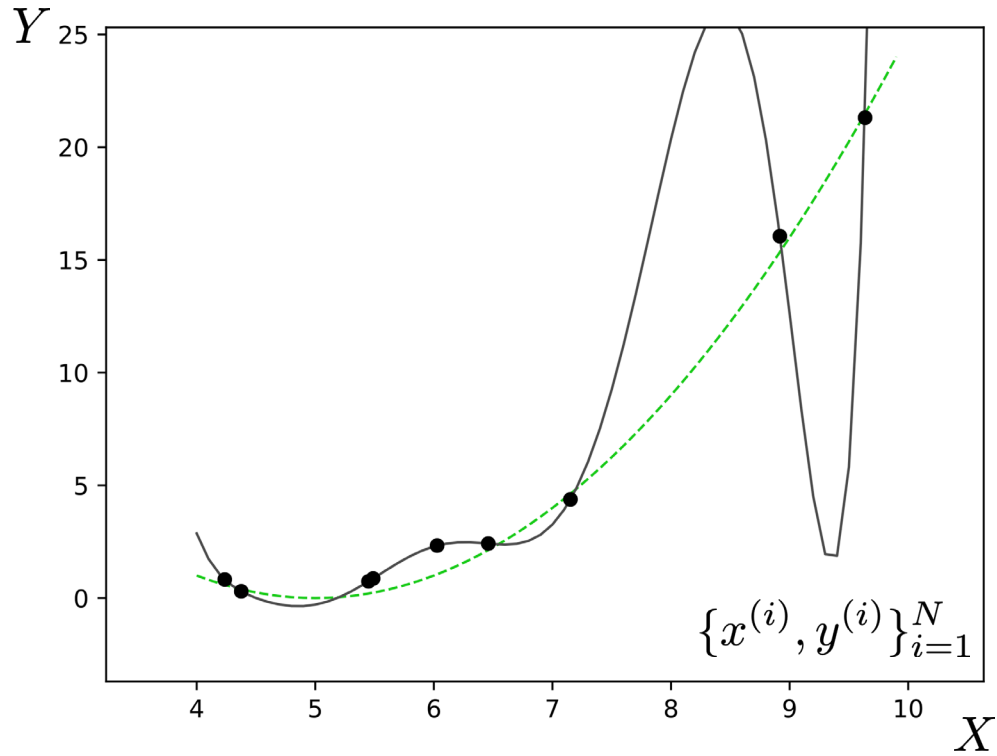
K = 7



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

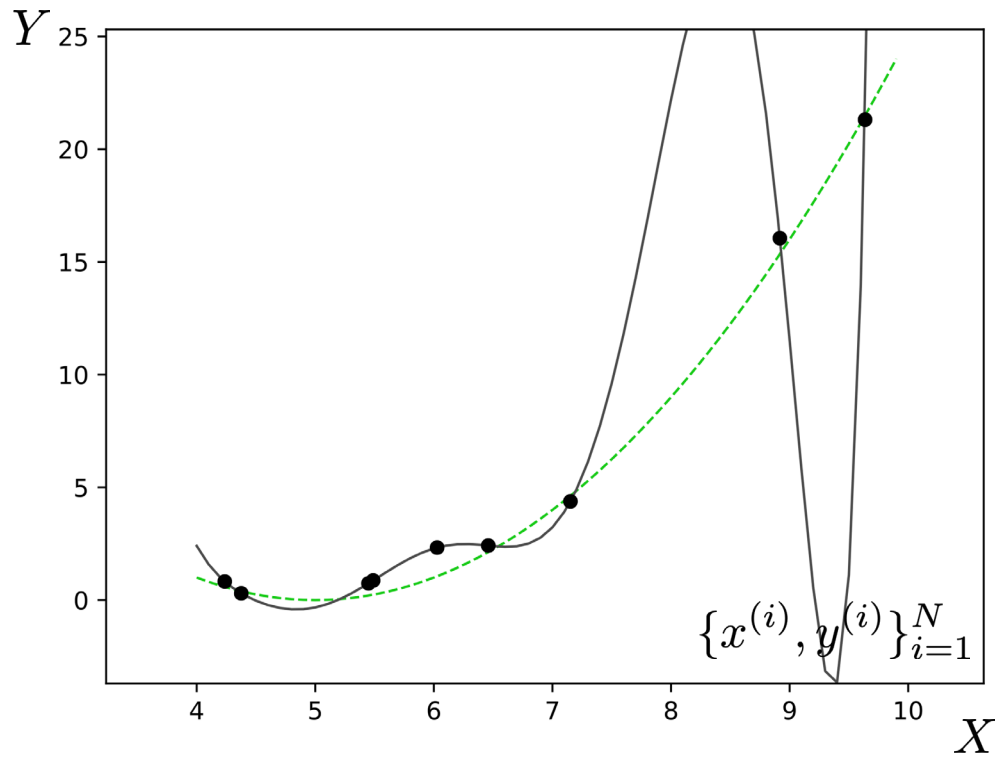
K = 8



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

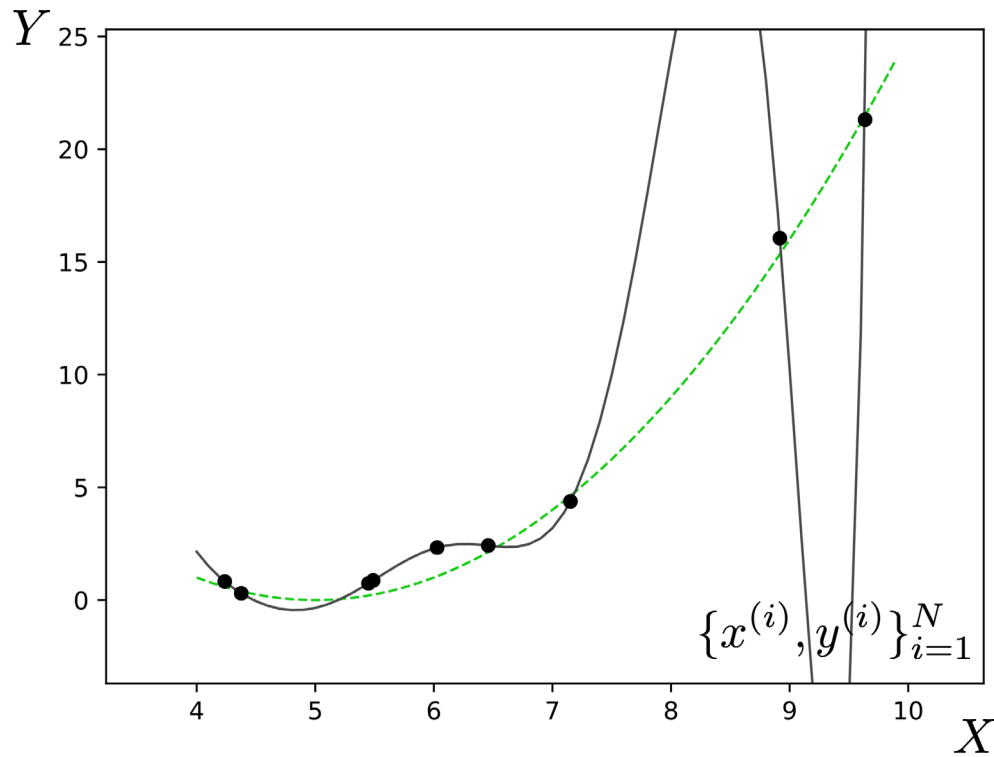
K = 9



$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

What happens as we add more basis functions?

K = 10

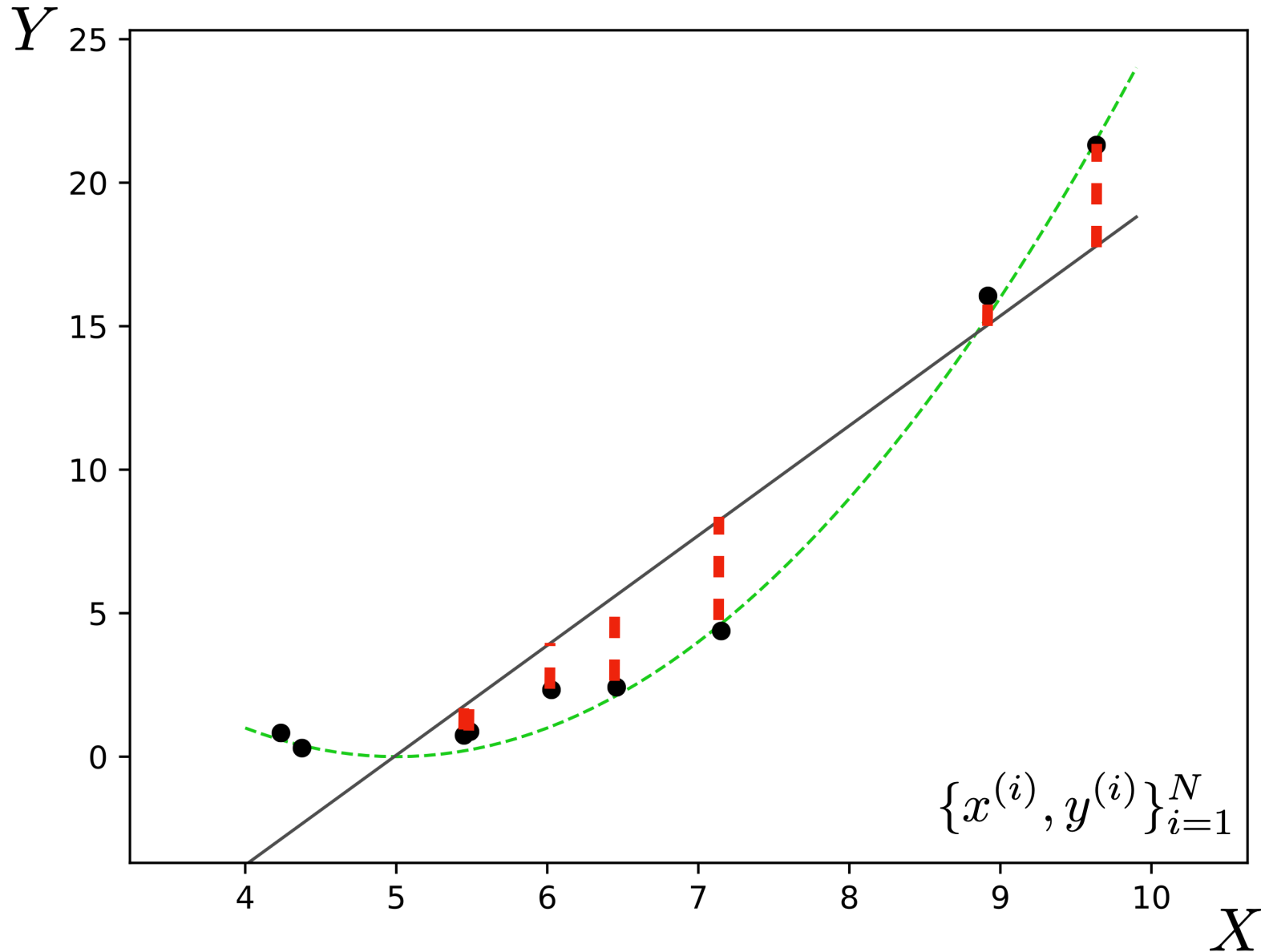


$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_k x^k$$

This phenomenon is called **overfitting**.

It occurs when we have too high **capacity** a model, e.g., too many free parameters, too few data points to pin these parameters down.

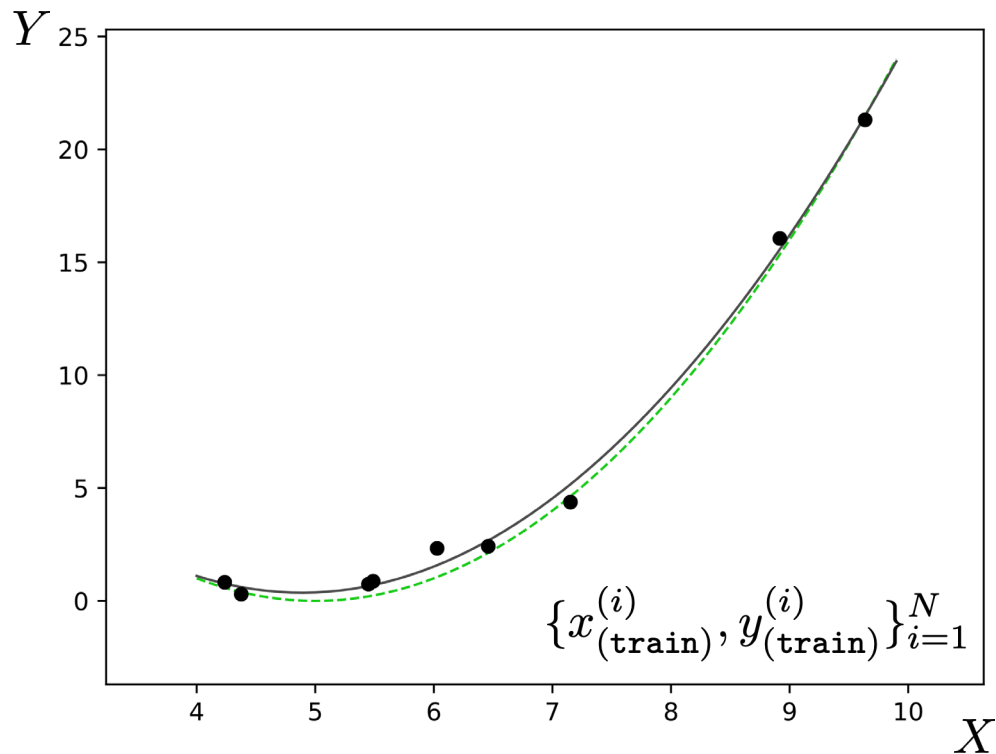
$K = 1$



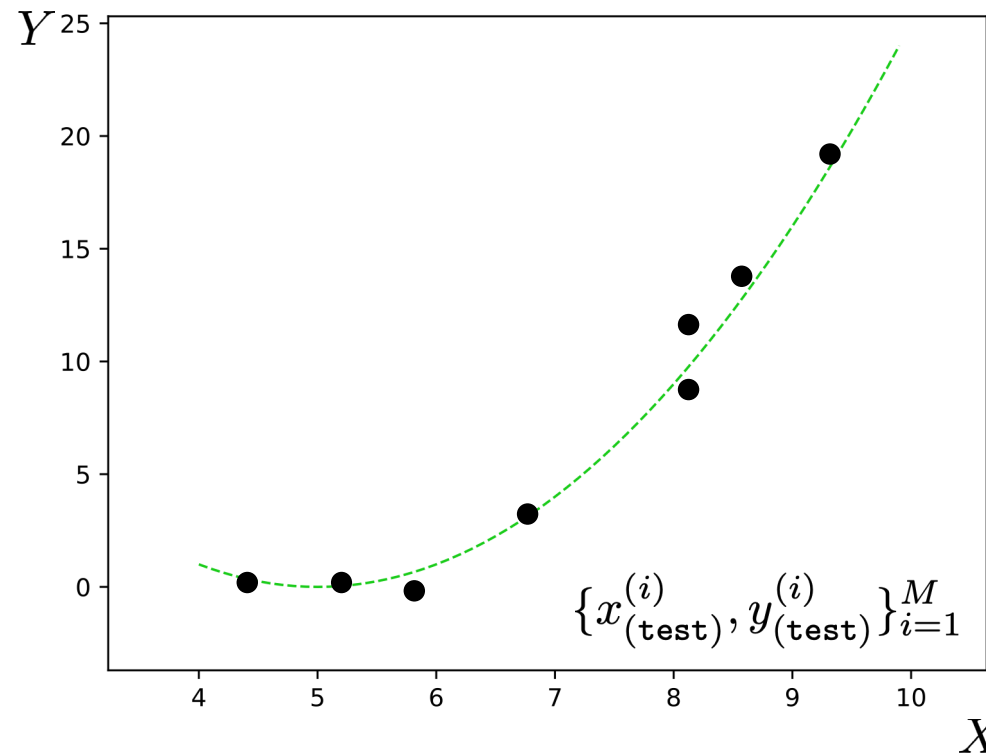
When the model does not have the capacity to capture the true function, we call this **underfitting**.

An underfit model will have high **error** on the training points. This error is known as **approximation error**.

Training data



Test data



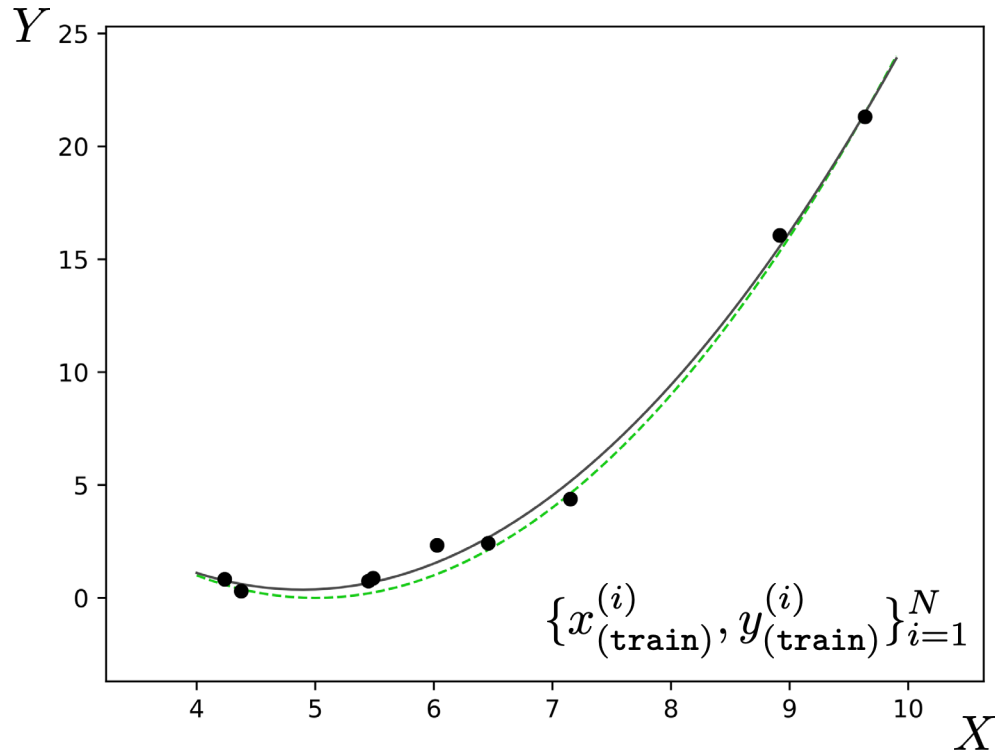
True data-generating process

p_{data}

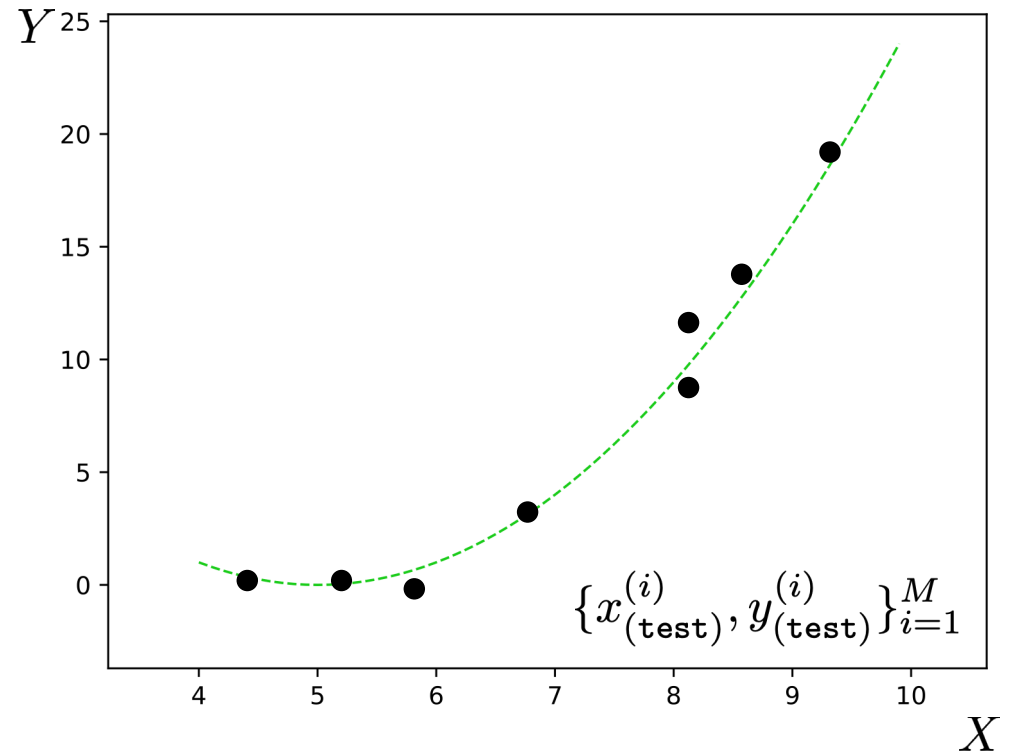
$$\{x_{(\text{train})}^{(i)}, y_{(\text{train})}^{(i)}\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}$$

$$\{x_{(\text{test})}^{(i)}, y_{(\text{test})}^{(i)}\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}$$

Training data



Test data

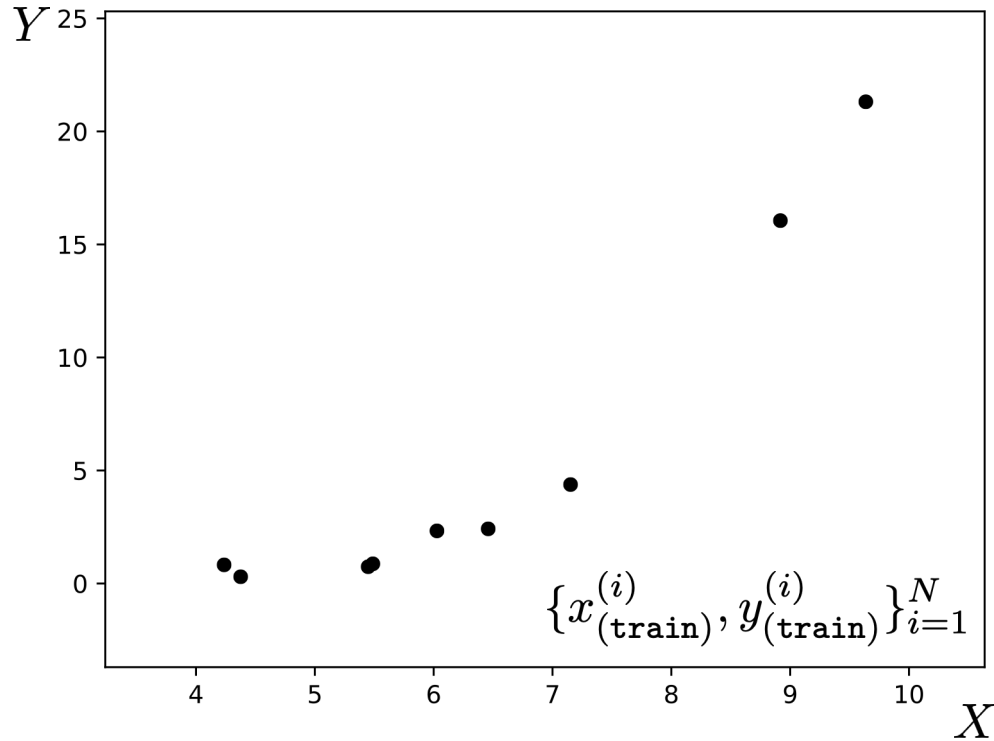


This is a huge assumption!
Almost never true in practice!

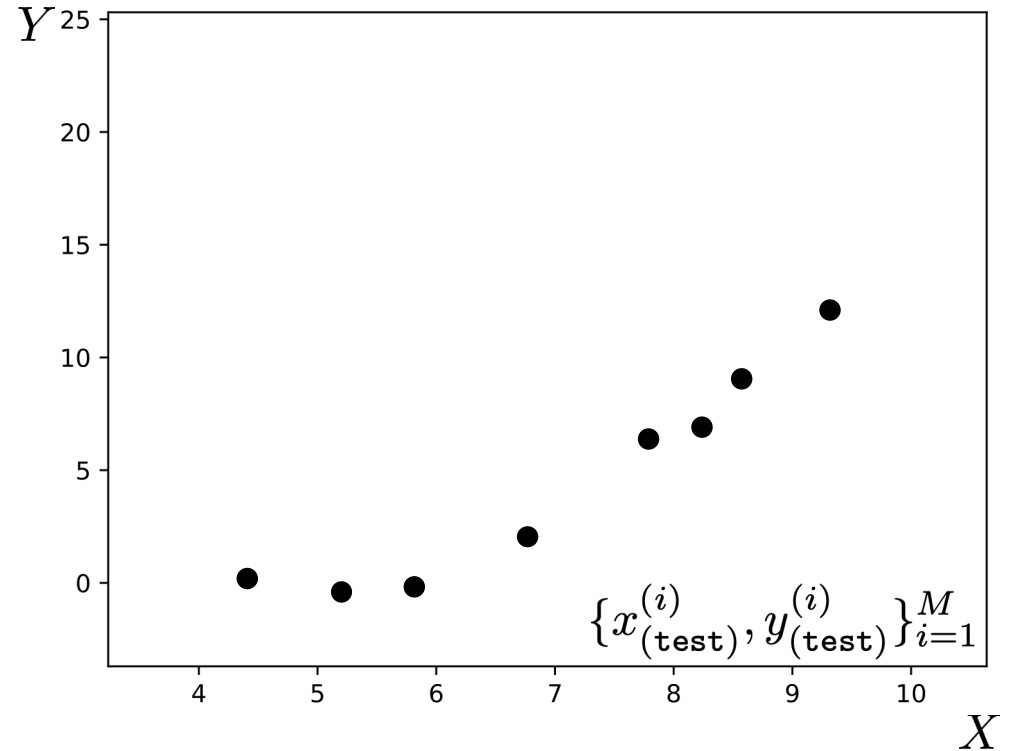
$$\{x_{(\text{train})}^{(i)}, y_{(\text{train})}^{(i)}\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}$$

$$\{x_{(\text{test})}^{(i)}, y_{(\text{test})}^{(i)}\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}$$

Training data



Test data



Much more commonly, we have

$$p_{\text{train}} \neq p_{\text{test}}$$

$$\{x_{(\text{train})}^{(i)}, y_{(\text{train})}^{(i)}\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p_{\text{train}}$$
$$\{x_{(\text{test})}^{(i)}, y_{(\text{test})}^{(i)}\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} p_{\text{test}}$$



Artificial Intelligence



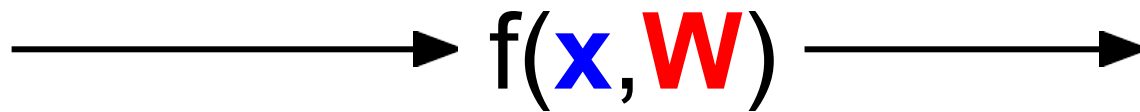
$$\hat{y} = w^T x + b$$

Parametric Approach

Image



Array of **32x32x3** numbers
(3072 numbers total)



10 numbers giving
class scores

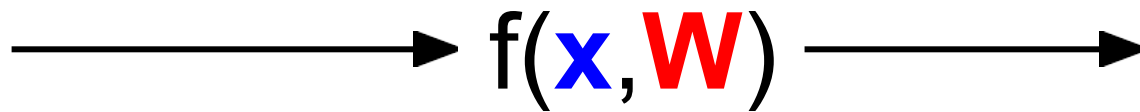
↑
W

parameters
or weights

Parametric Approach: Linear Classifier

$$f(x, W) = Wx$$

Image



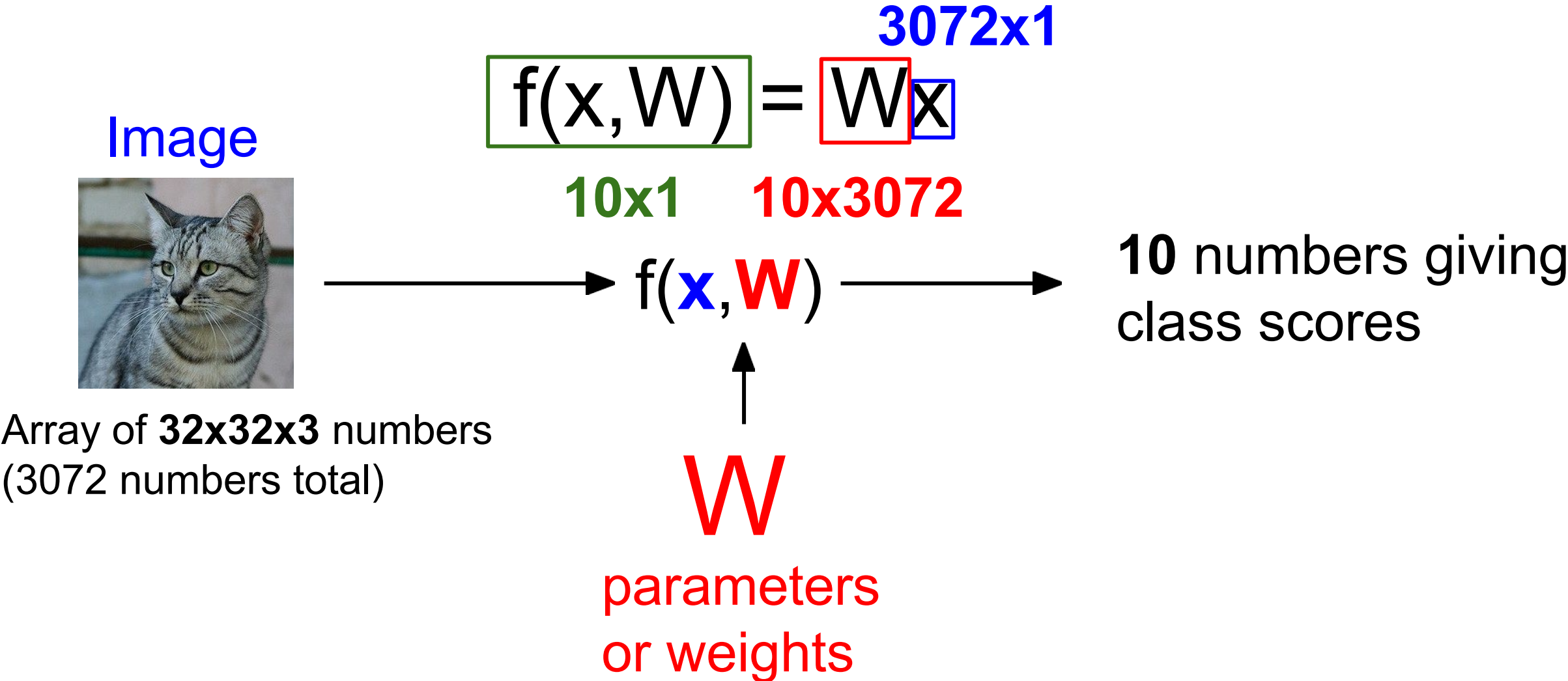
10 numbers giving
class scores

Array of **32x32x3** numbers
(3072 numbers total)

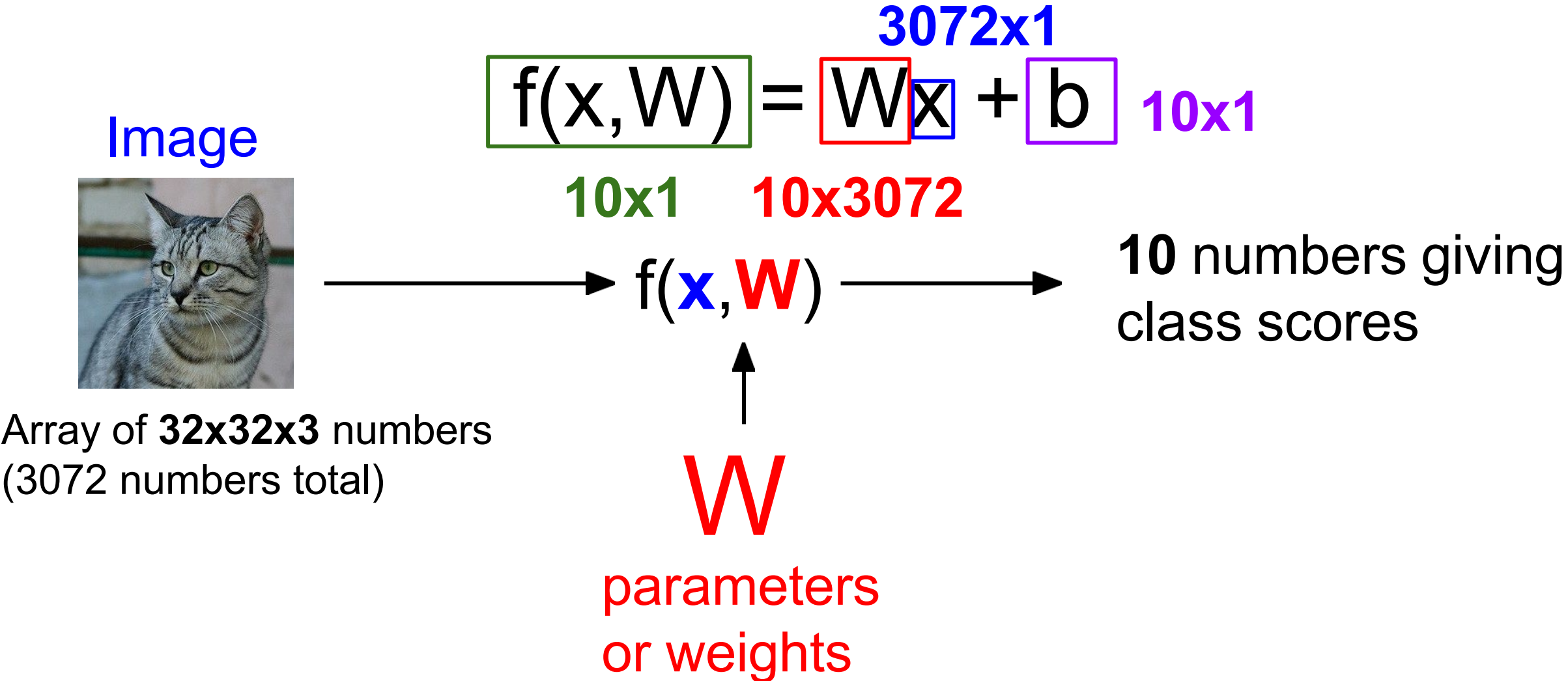
W

parameters
or weights

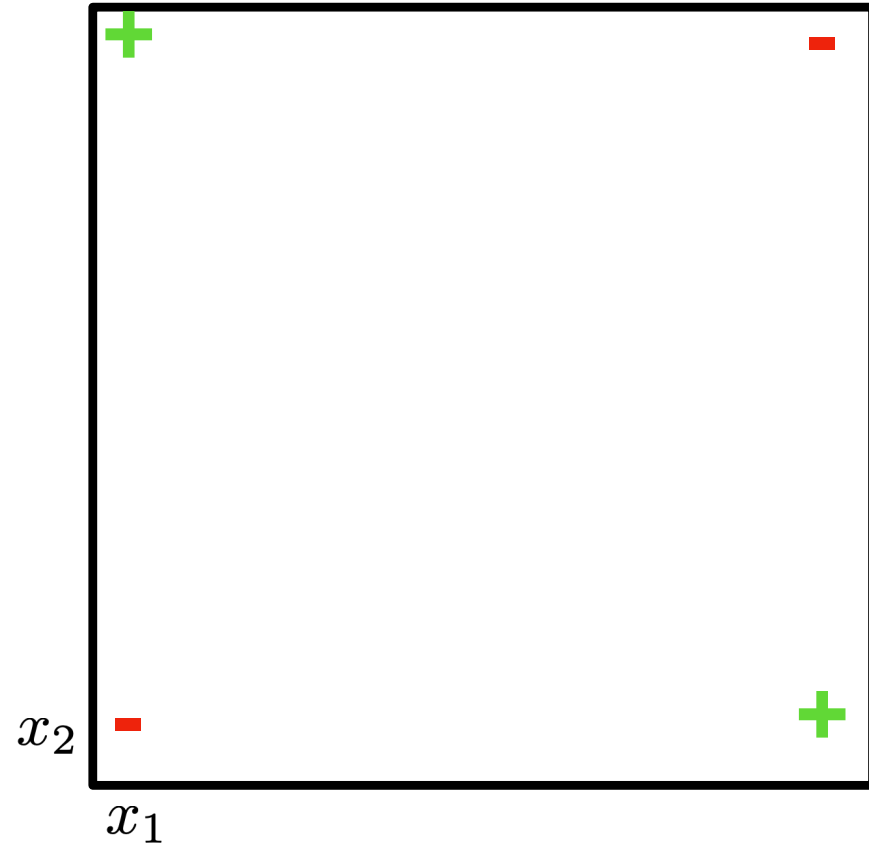
Parametric Approach: Linear Classifier



Parametric Approach: Linear Classifier



Limitations to linear classifiers

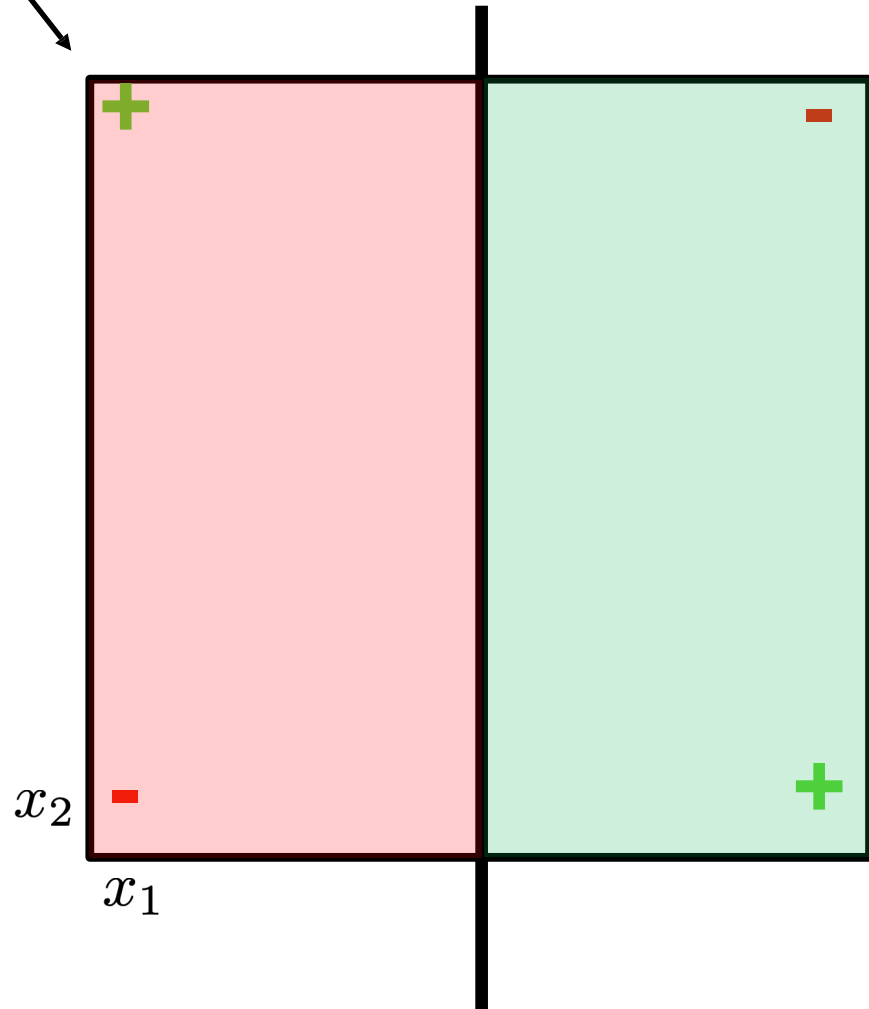


		x_2	
		0	1
x_1	0	0	1
	1	1	0
		XOR	

Limitations to linear classifiers

Wrong!

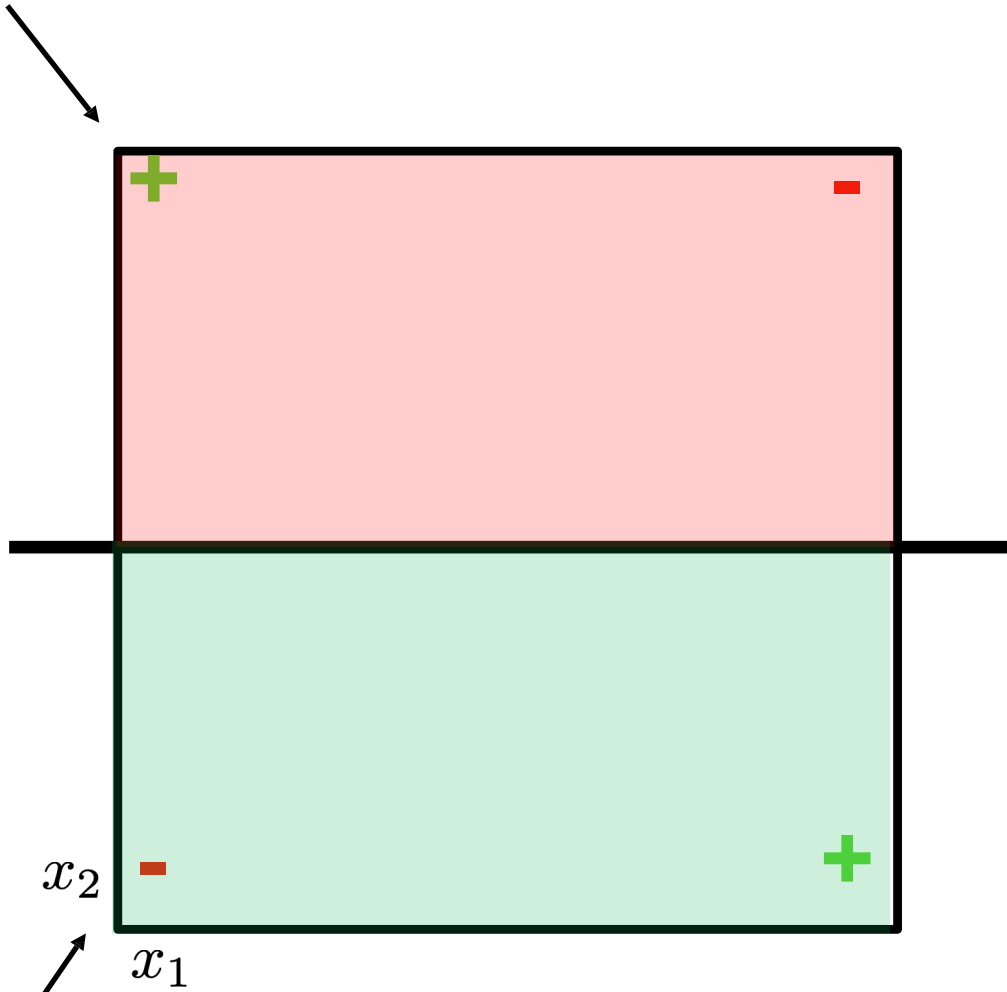
Wrong!



		x_2	
		0	1
x_1	0	0	1
	1	1	0
		XOR	

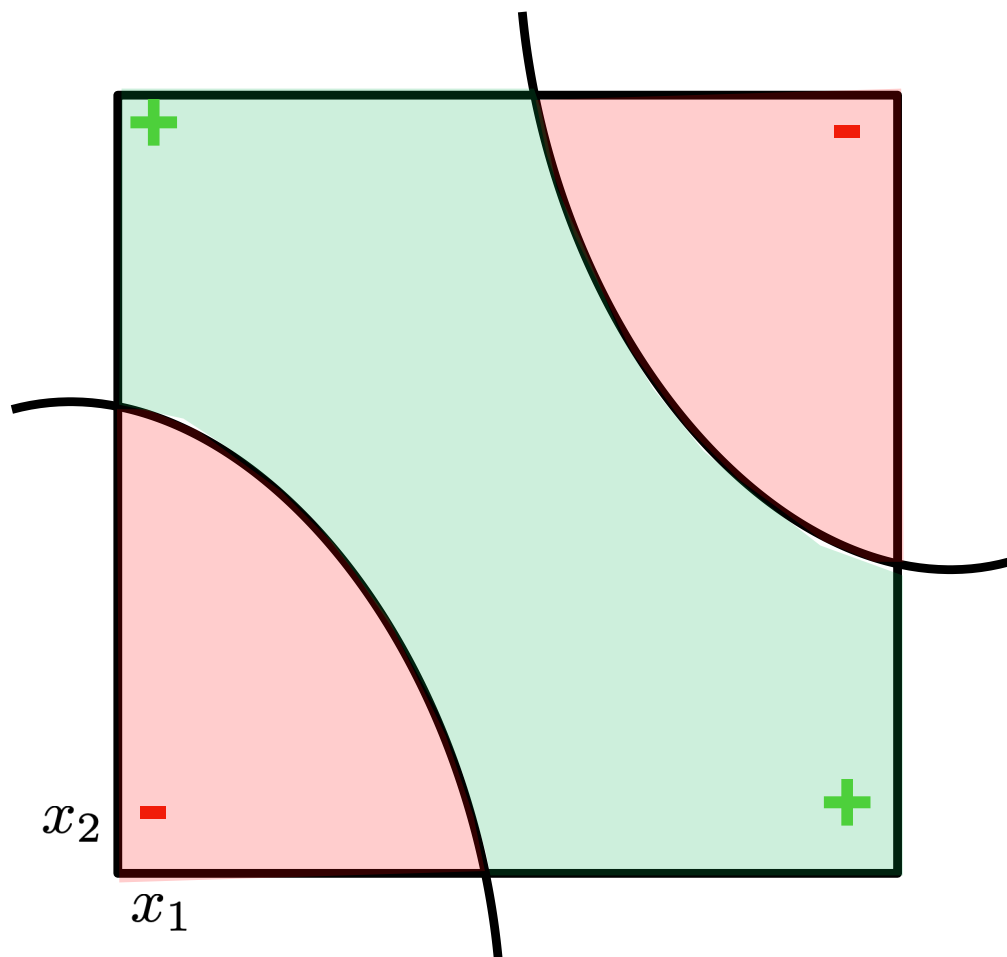
Limitations to linear classifiers

Wrong!



		x_2	
		0	1
x_1	0	0	1
	1	1	0
		XOR	

Goal: Non-linear decision boundary

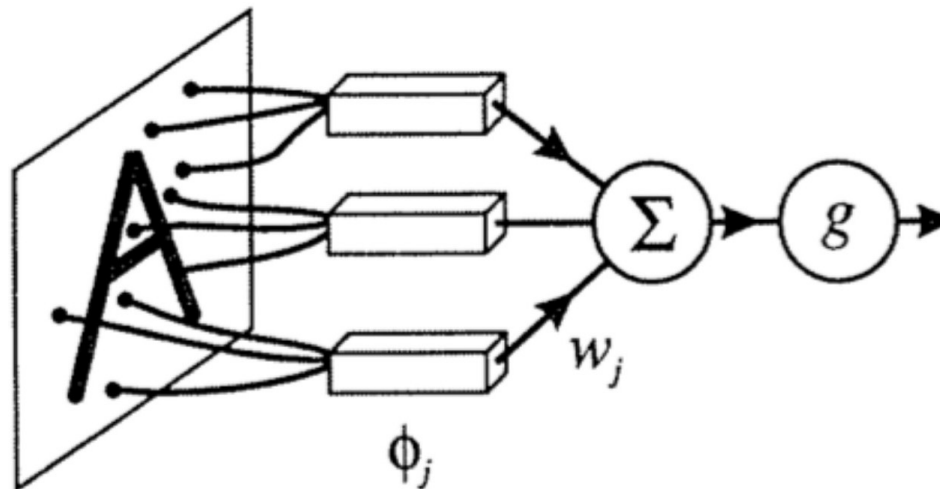


		x_2	
		0	1
x_1	0	0	1
	1	1	0

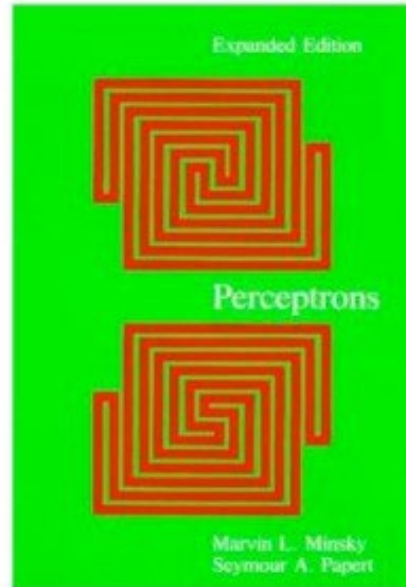
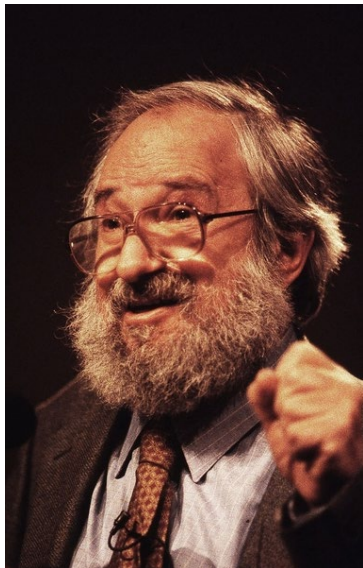
XOR

Perceptron

- In 1957 Frank Rosenblatt invented the perceptron
- Computers at the time were too slow to run the perceptron, so Rosenblatt built a special purpose machine with adjustable resistors
- New York Times Reported: "The Navy revealed the embryo of an electronic computer that it expects will be able to walk, talk, see, write, reproduce itself and be conscious of its existence"



Minsky and Papert, Perceptrons, 1972



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Select Shipping Destination

Paperback | \$35.00 Short | £24.95 |
ISBN: 9780262631112 | 308 pp. | 6 x
8.9 in | December 1987

Perceptrons, expanded edition

An Introduction to Computational Geometry

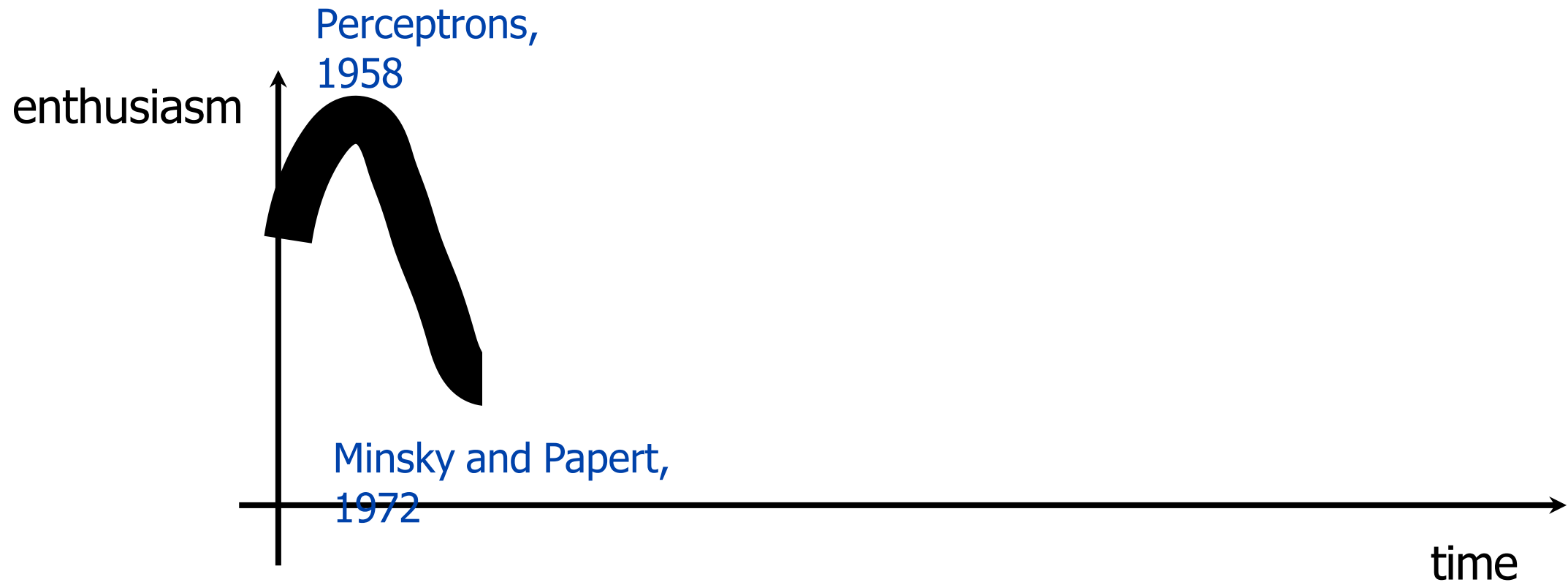
By [Marvin Minsky](#) and [Seymour A. Papert](#)

Overview

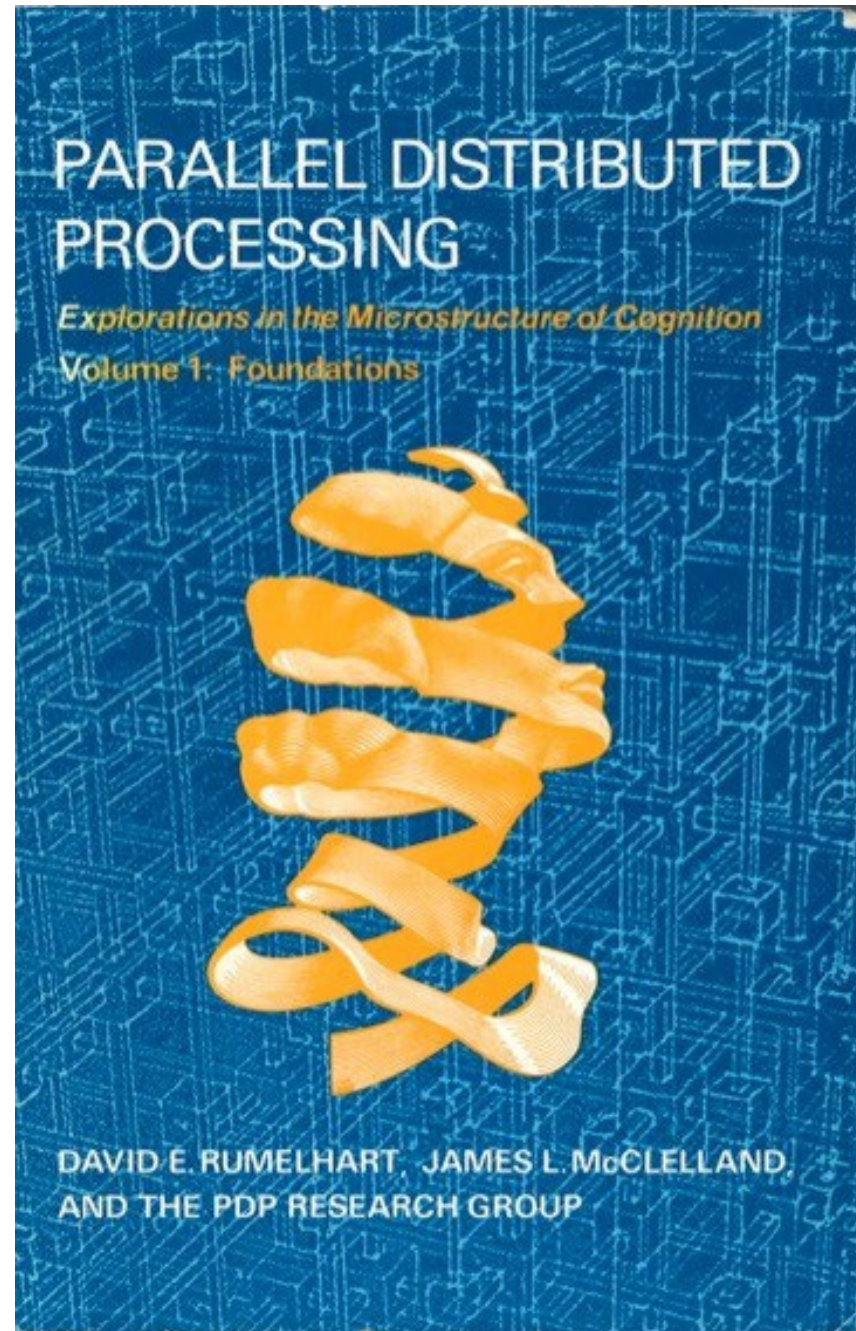
Perceptrons - the first systematic study of parallelism in computation - has remained a classical work on threshold automata networks for nearly two decades. It marked a historical turn in artificial intelligence, and it is required reading for anyone who wants to understand the connectionist counterrevolution that is going on today.

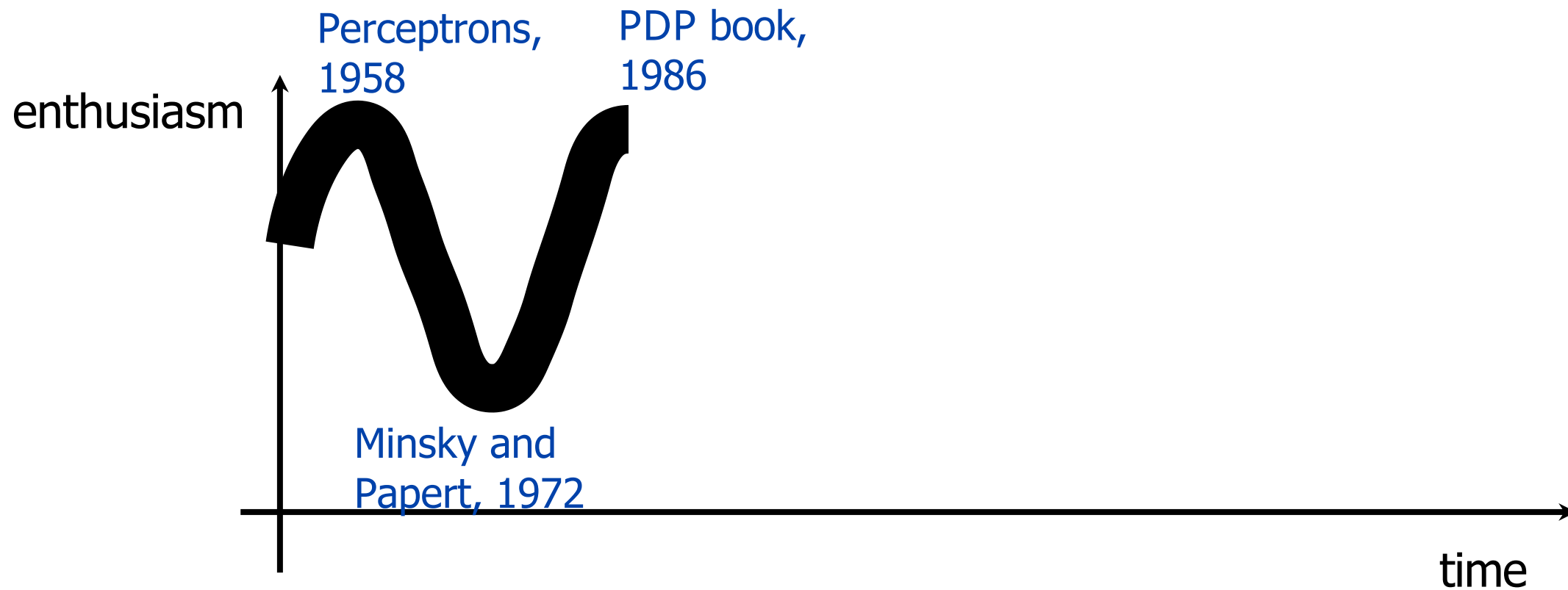
Artificial-intelligence research, which for a time concentrated on the programming of ton Neumann computers, is swinging back to the idea that intelligence might emerge from the activity of networks of neuronlike entities. Minsky and Papert's book was the first example of a mathematical analysis carried far enough to show the exact limitations of a class of computing machines that could seriously be considered as models of the brain. Now the new developments in mathematical tools, the recent interest of physicists in the theory of disordered matter, the new insights into and psychological models of how the brain works, and the evolution of fast computers that can simulate networks of automata have given *Perceptrons* new importance.

Witnessing the swing of the intellectual pendulum, Minsky and Papert have added a new chapter in which they discuss the current state of parallel computers, review developments since the appearance of the 1972 edition, and identify new research directions related to connectionism. They note a central theoretical challenge facing connectionism: the challenge to reach a deeper understanding of how "objects" or "agents" with individuality can emerge in a network. Progress in this area would link connectionism with what the authors have called "society theories of mind."



Parallel Distributed Processing (PDP), 1986





LeCun convolutional neural networks



PROC. OF THE IEEE, NOVEMBER 1998

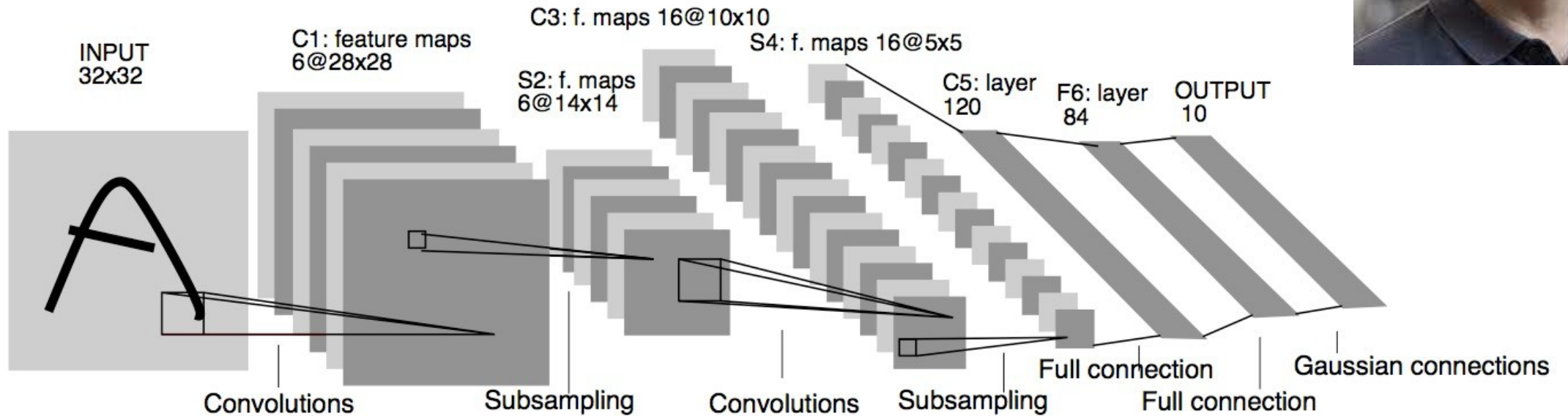


Fig. 2. Architecture of LeNet-5, a Convolutional Neural Network, here for digits recognition. Each plane is a feature map, i.e. a set of units whose weights are constrained to be identical.

Demos:

<http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/lenet/index.html>

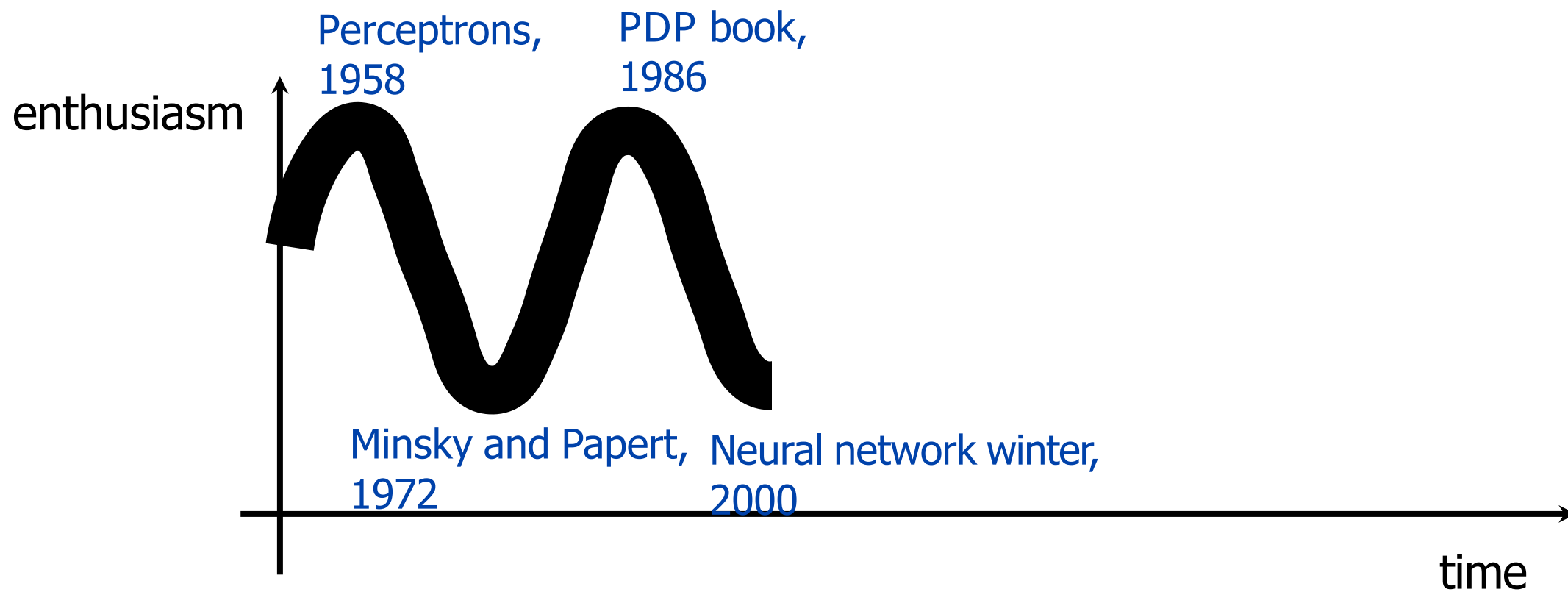


Yann LeCun

Was at Bell Labs when
this video was recorded

Now
Prof @ NYU
Chief Scientist @ Meta

Turing Award 2018
(shared with Hinton and
Bengio)



ImageNet:

First (?) large-scale computer vision dataset

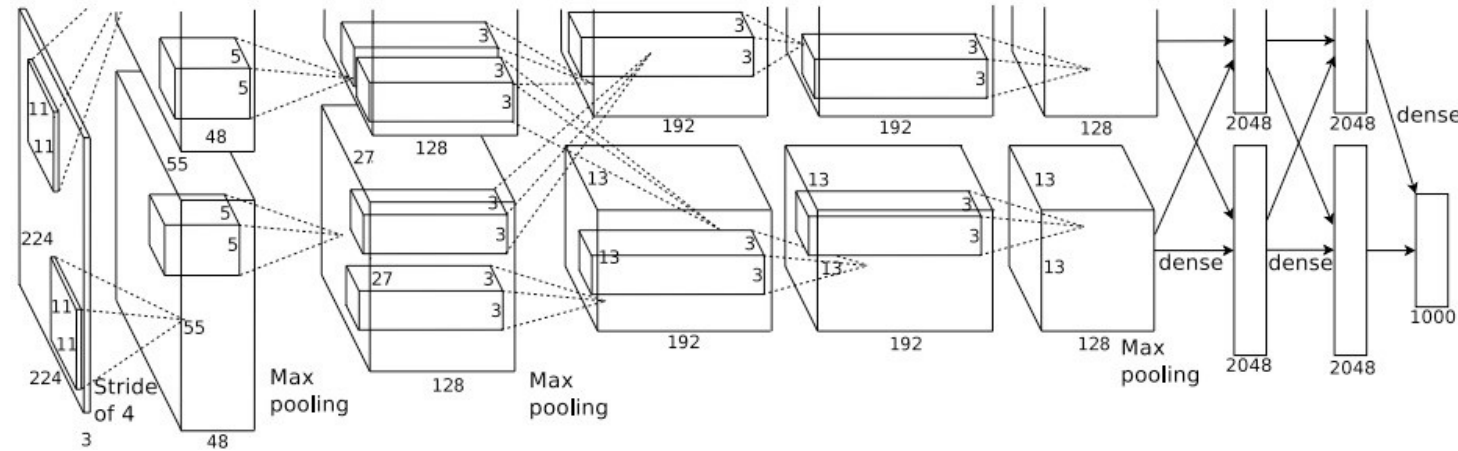


- Millions of images; 1000 categories
- **PI: Fei-Fei Li**
 - Then: Prof, Princeton
 - Now: Prof, Stanford
- 2019 Longuet-Higgins Prize
 - Some argued that Li deserved the 2018 Turing Award along with Hinton, LeCun, Bengio
 - Their work could not have been empirically tested without ImageNet!



Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and Hinton, NeurIPS 2012

“AlexNet”



Got all the “pieces” right, e.g.,

- **Trained on ImageNet**
- 8 layer architecture (for reference: today we have architectures with 100+ layers)
- Allowed for multi-GP training

Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and Hinton, NeurIPS 2012



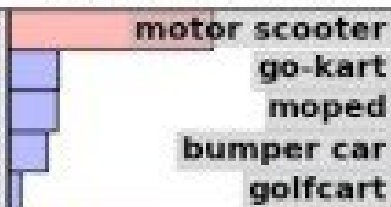
mite



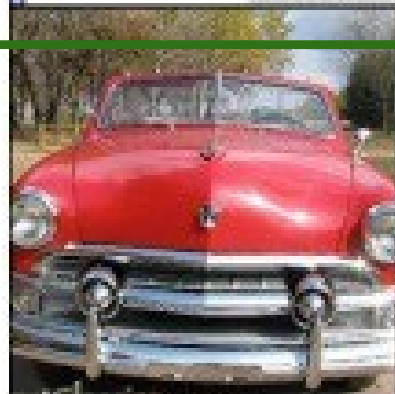
container ship



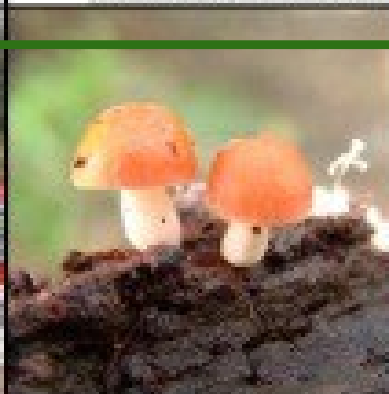
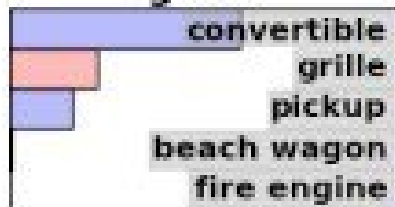
motor scooter



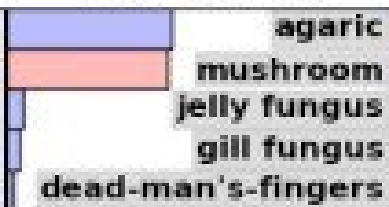
leopard



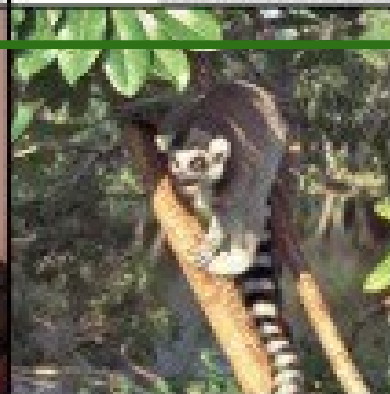
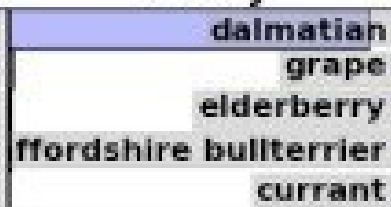
grille



mushroom



cherry



Madagascar cat



Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and Hinton, NeurIPS 2012



mite

container ship

motor scooter

leopard



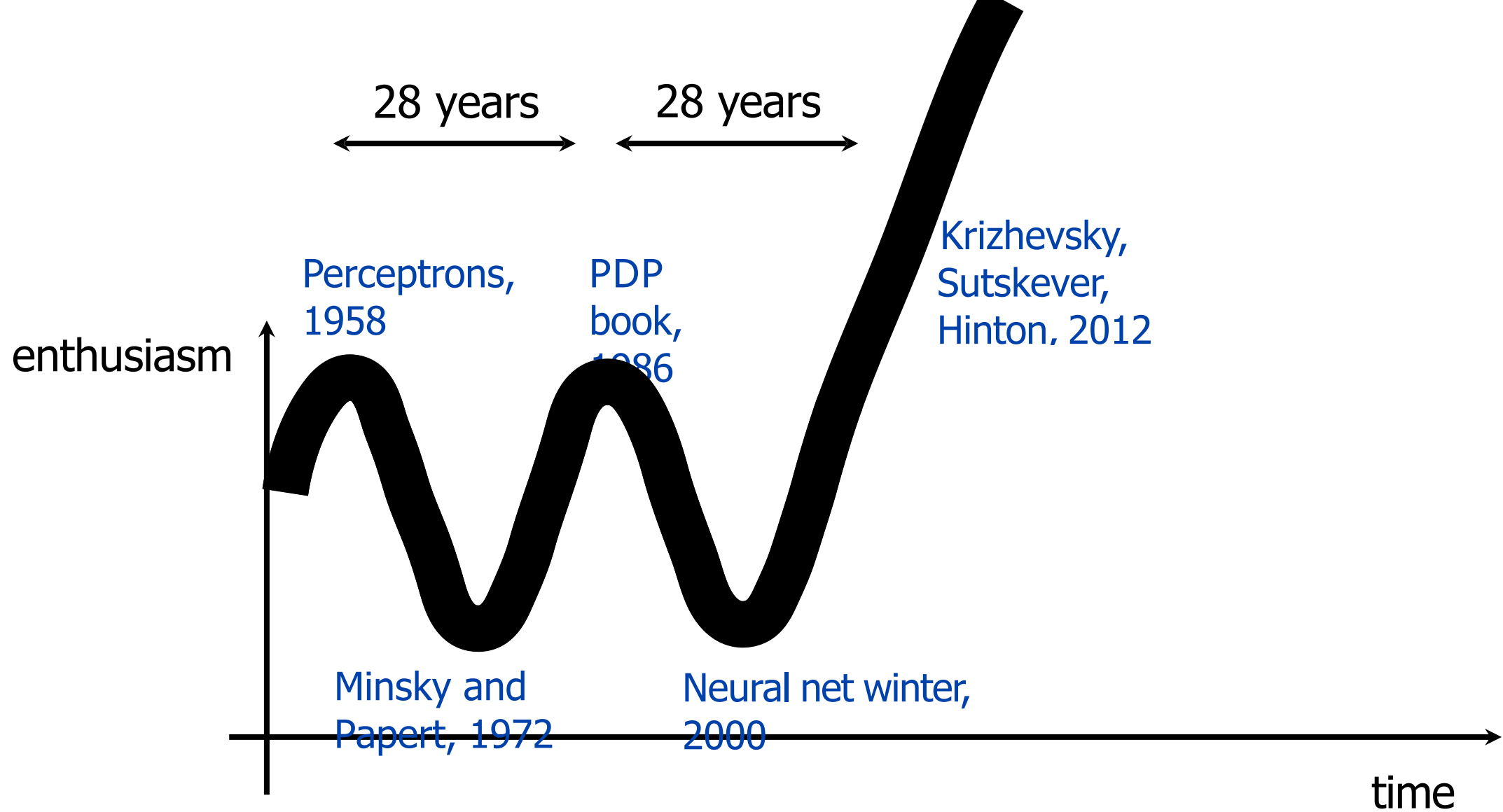
grille

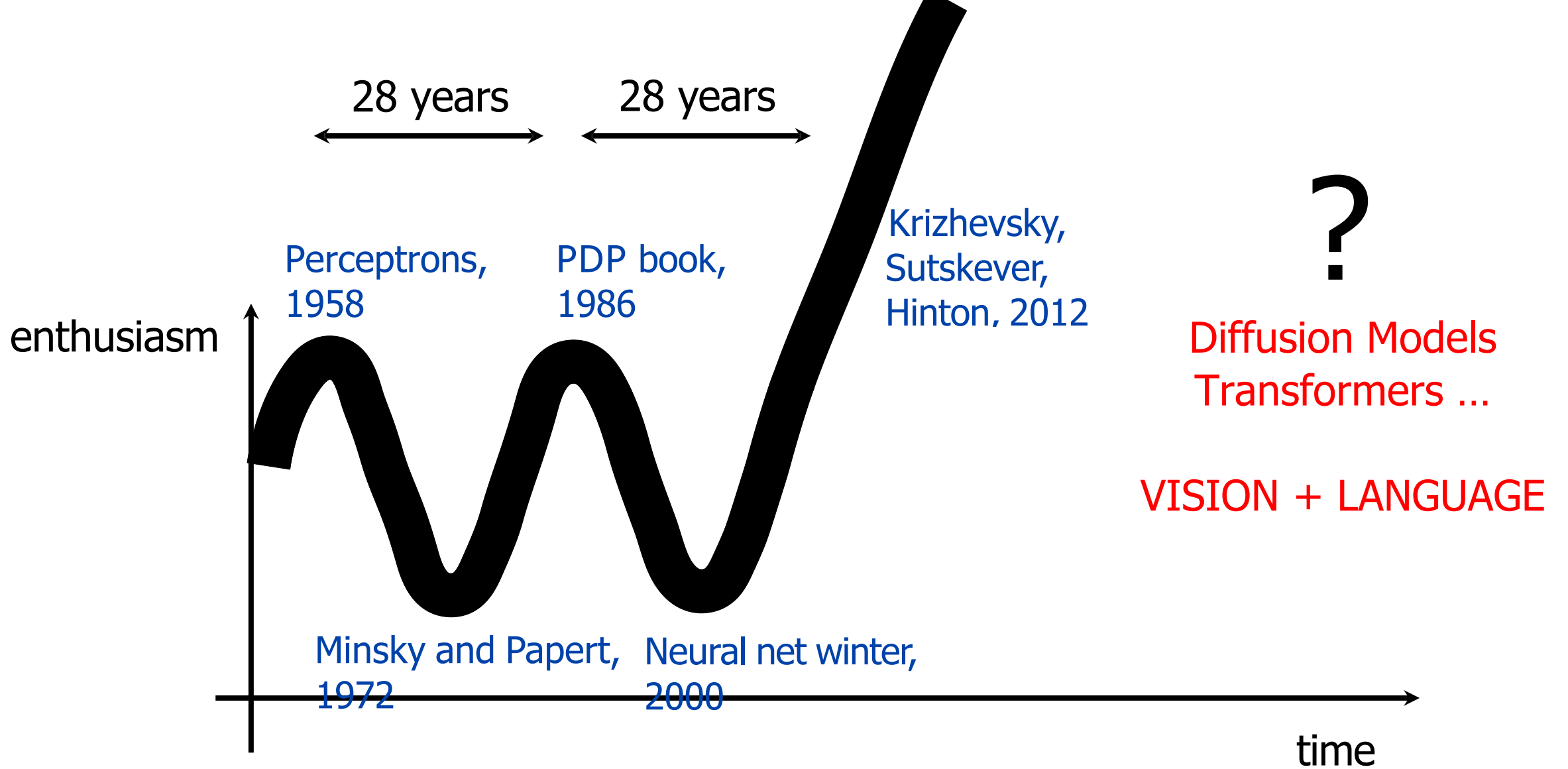
mushroom

cherry

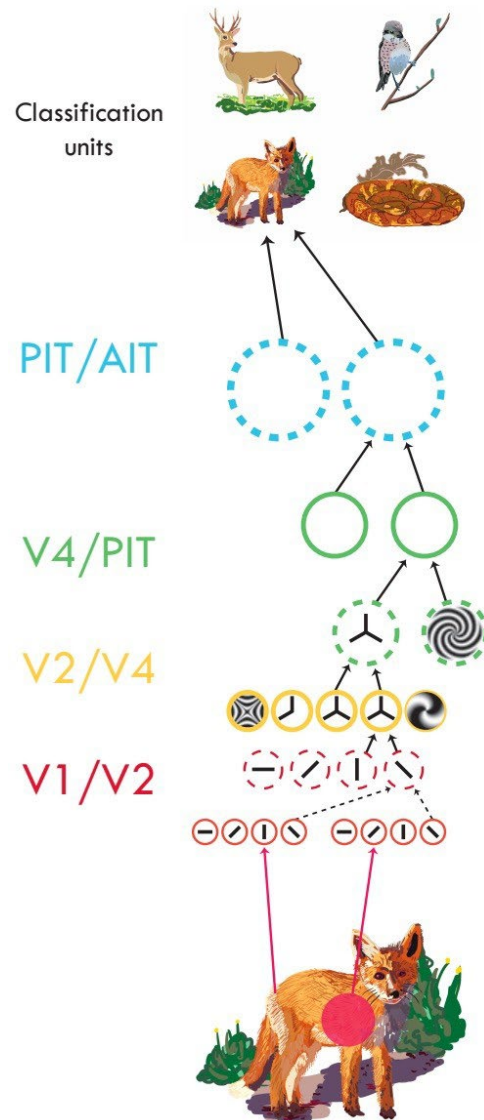
Madagascar cat







Inspiration: Hierarchical Representations



Best to treat as *inspiration*.
The neural nets we'll talk about
aren't very biologically plausible.

Object recognition

Pixel 1



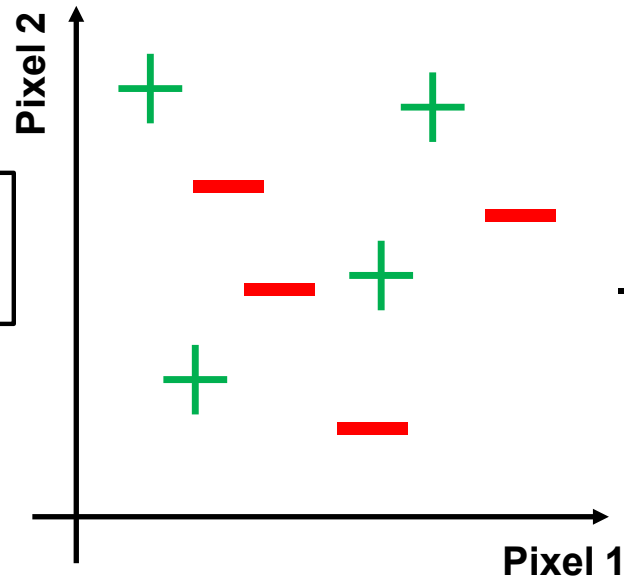
Neural Network

Is dog?

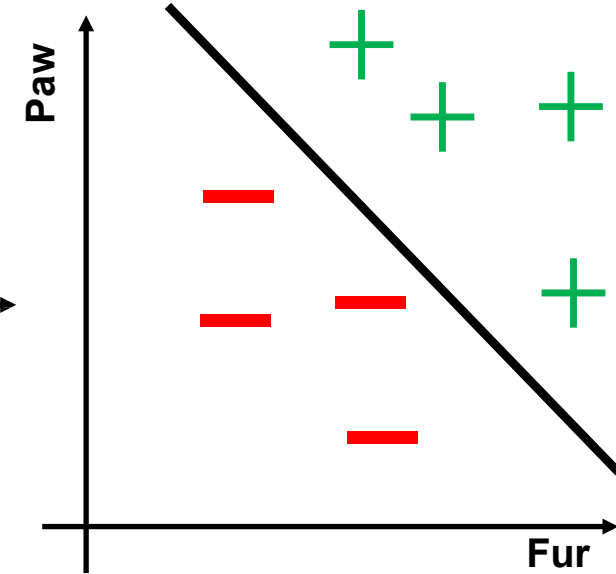
Pixel 2

Input Space

Feature Space



$f(x)$

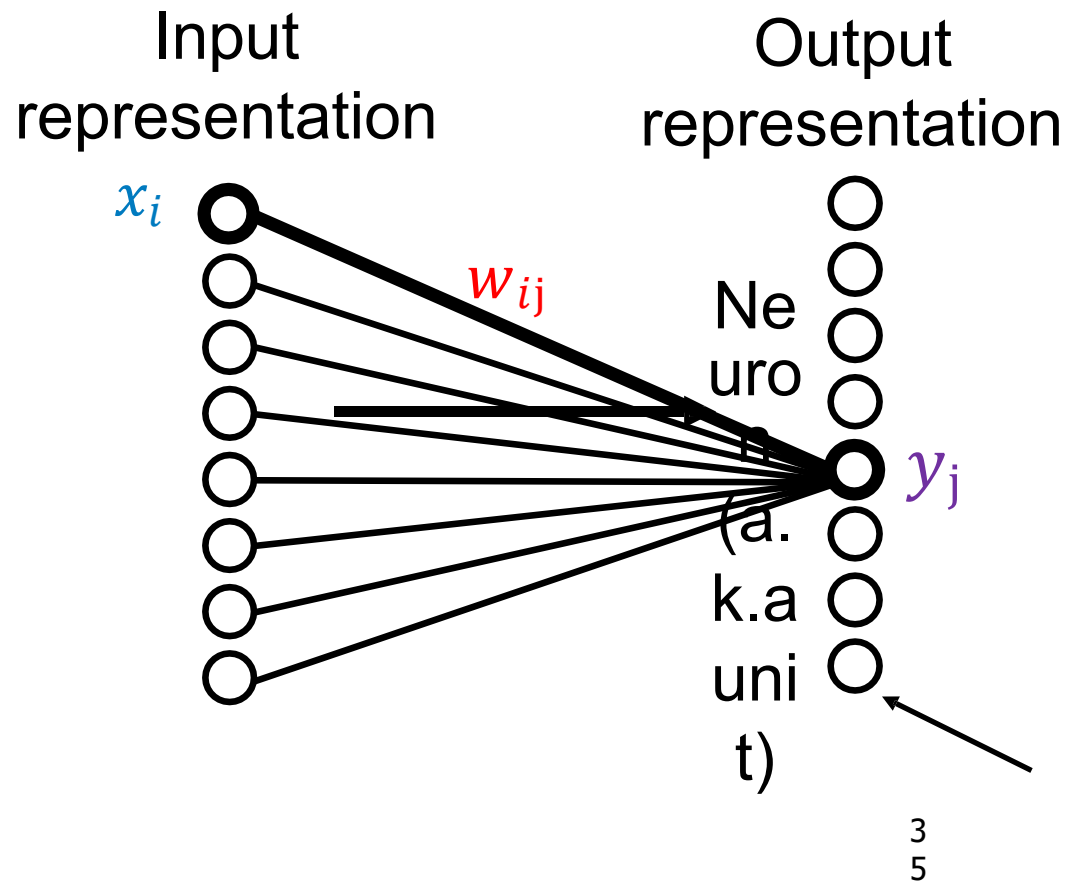


Goal: automatically learn a function that maps data from the input space to a feature space, i.e., "feature learning", rather than use hand-crafted features

Computation in a neural net

Let's say we have some 1D input that we want to convert to some new feature space:

Linear layer



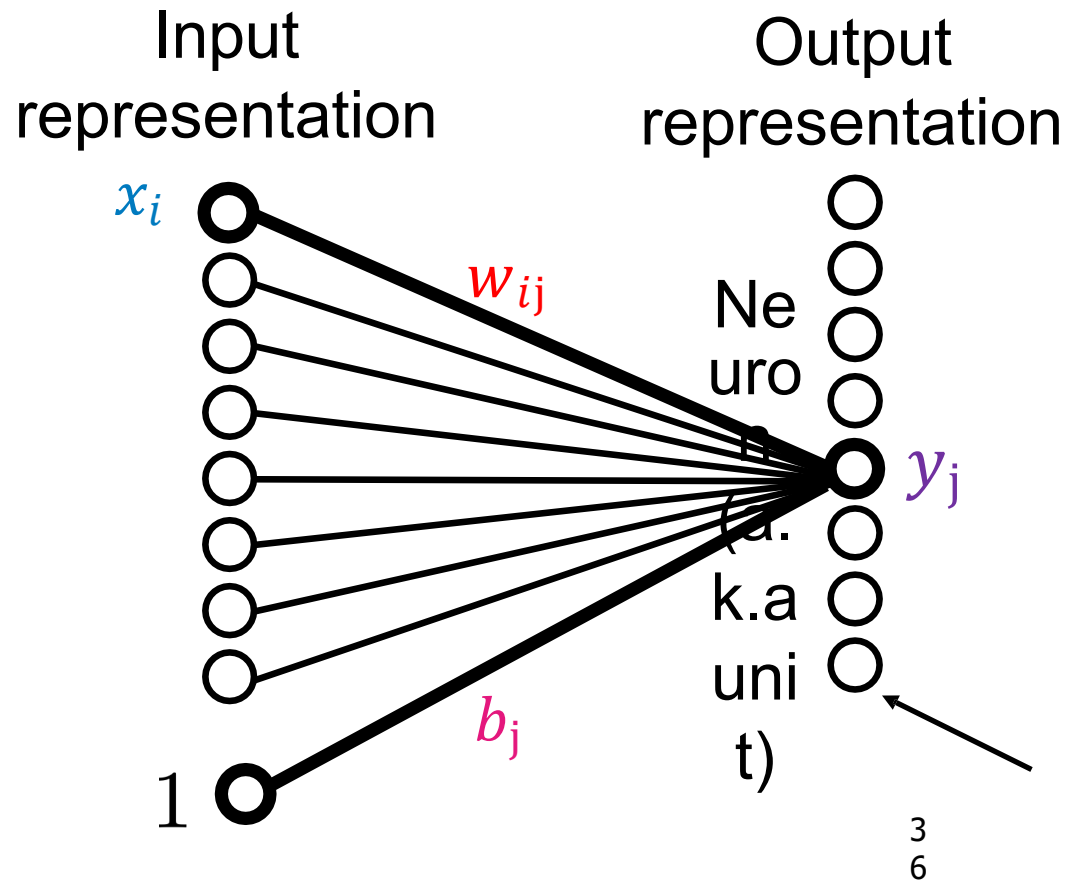
$$y_j = \sum_i w_{ij} x_i$$

weights

Computation in a neural net

Let's say we have some 1D input that we want to convert to some new feature space

Linear layer



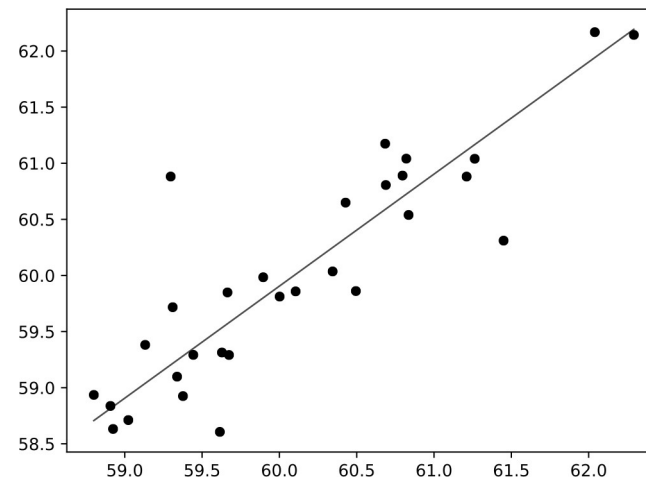
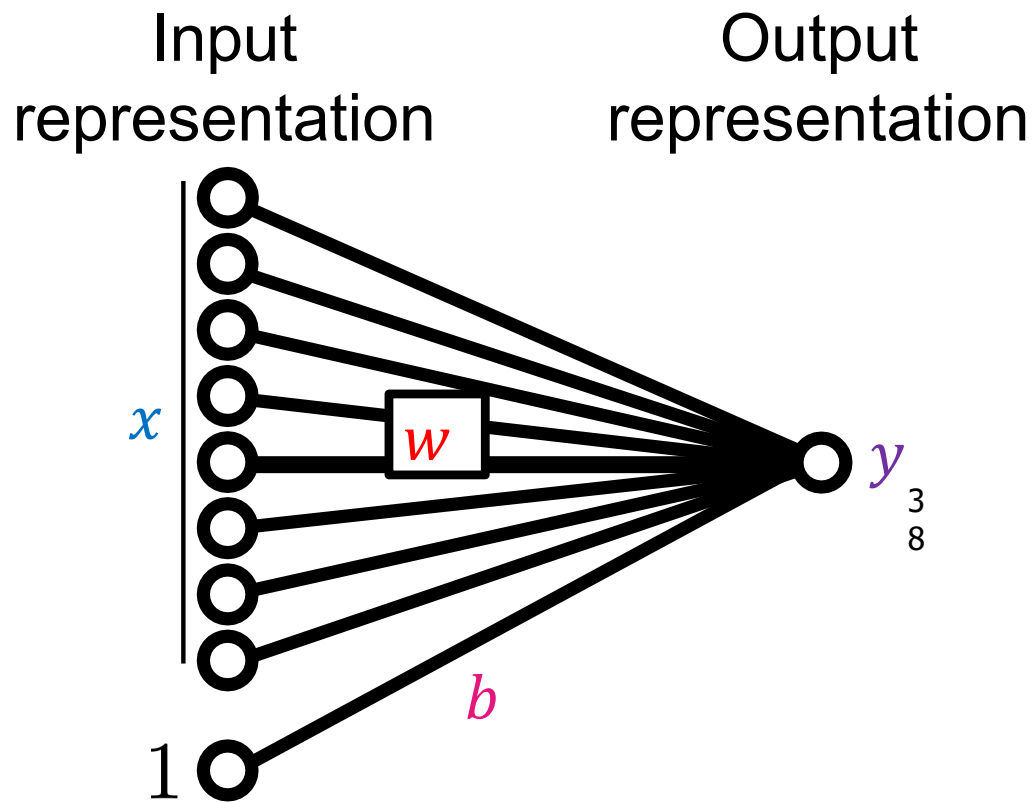
$$y_j = \sum_i w_{ij} x_i + b_j$$

weights

bias

Example: Linear Regression

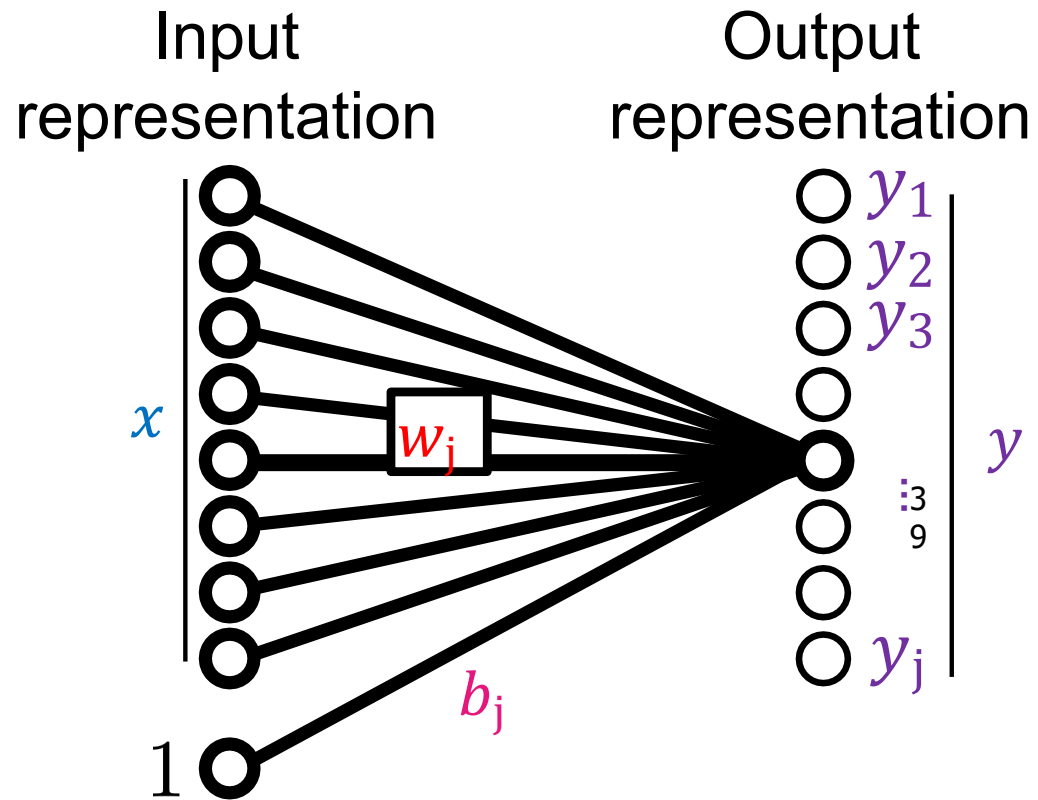
Linear layer



$$f_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

Computation in a neural net – Full Layer

Linear layer



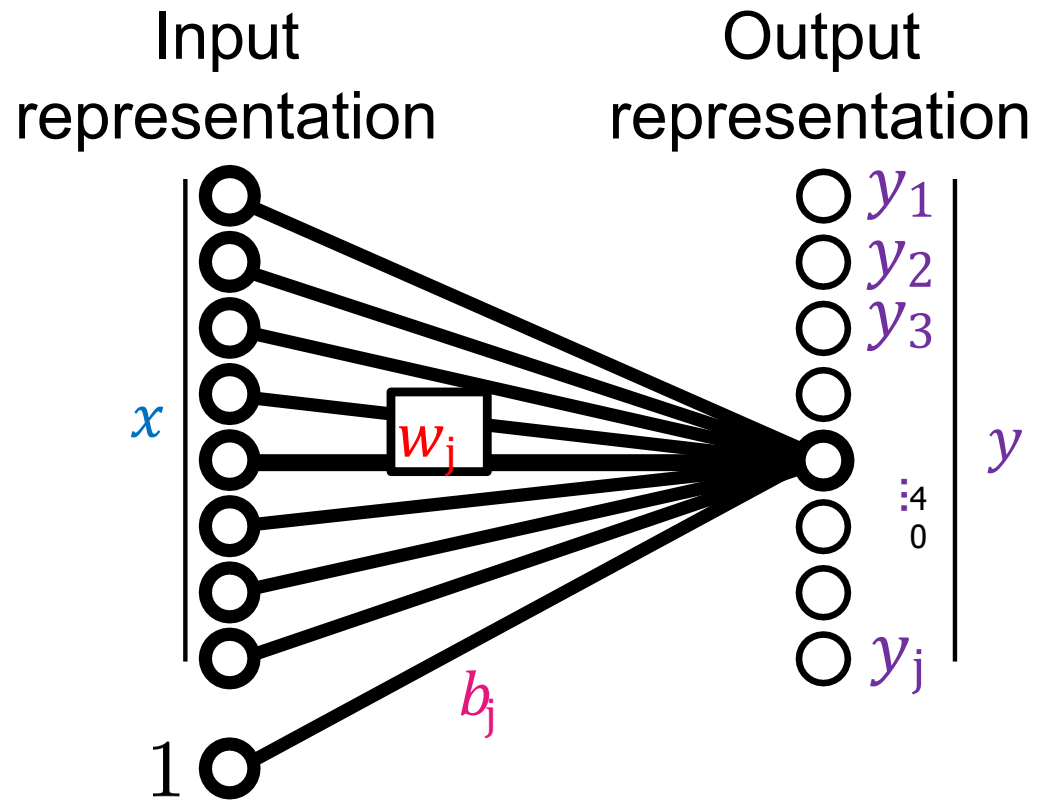
$$y = Wx + b$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} W_{11} & \cdots & W_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_{j1} & \cdots & W_{jn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \cdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \cdots \\ b_j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \cdots \\ y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

parameters of the model: $\theta = \{W, b\}$

Computation in a neural net – Full Layer

Linear layer



Full layer

$$y = Wx + b$$

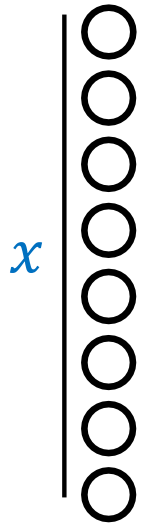
$$\begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & \cdots & w_{j1} & b_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ w_{j1} & \cdots & w_{jn} & b_j \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

Can again simplify notation by appending a 1 to \mathbf{x}

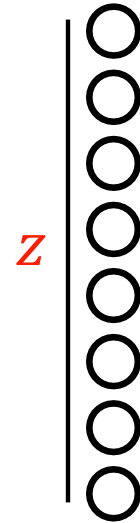
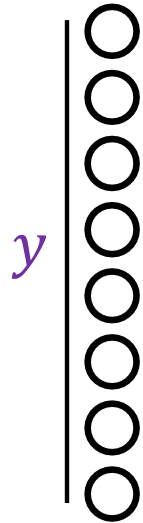
Computation in a neural net – Recap

We can now transform our input representation vector into some output representation vector using a bunch of linear combinations of the input:

Input
representation

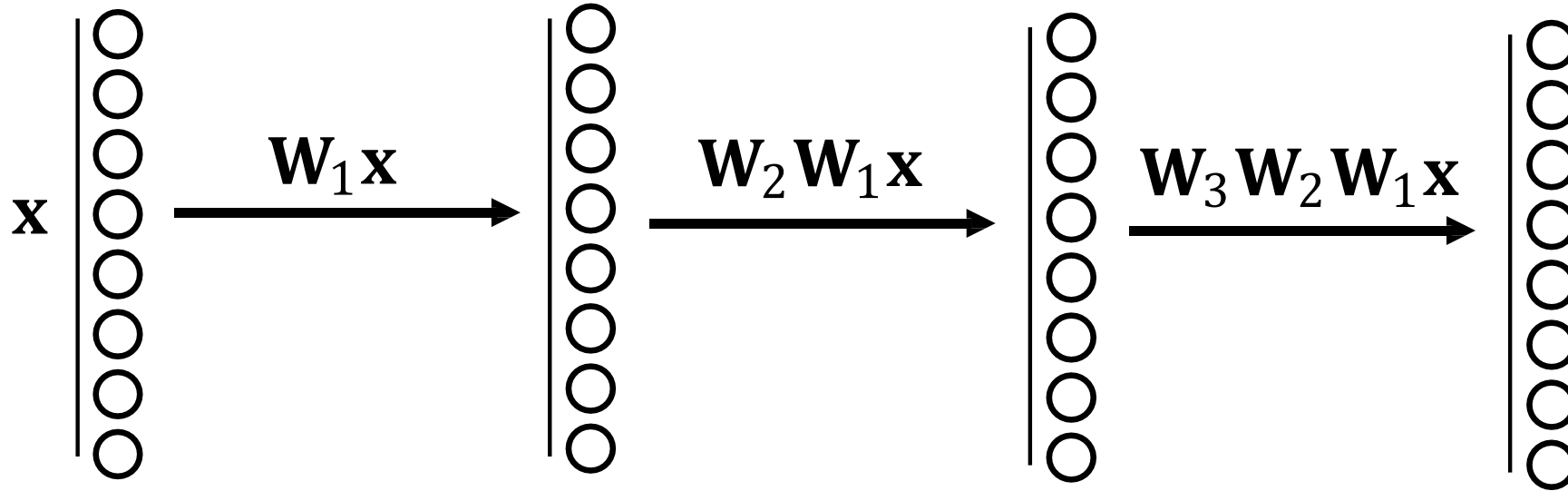


Output
representation



We can repeat this as many times as we want!

What is the problem with this idea?



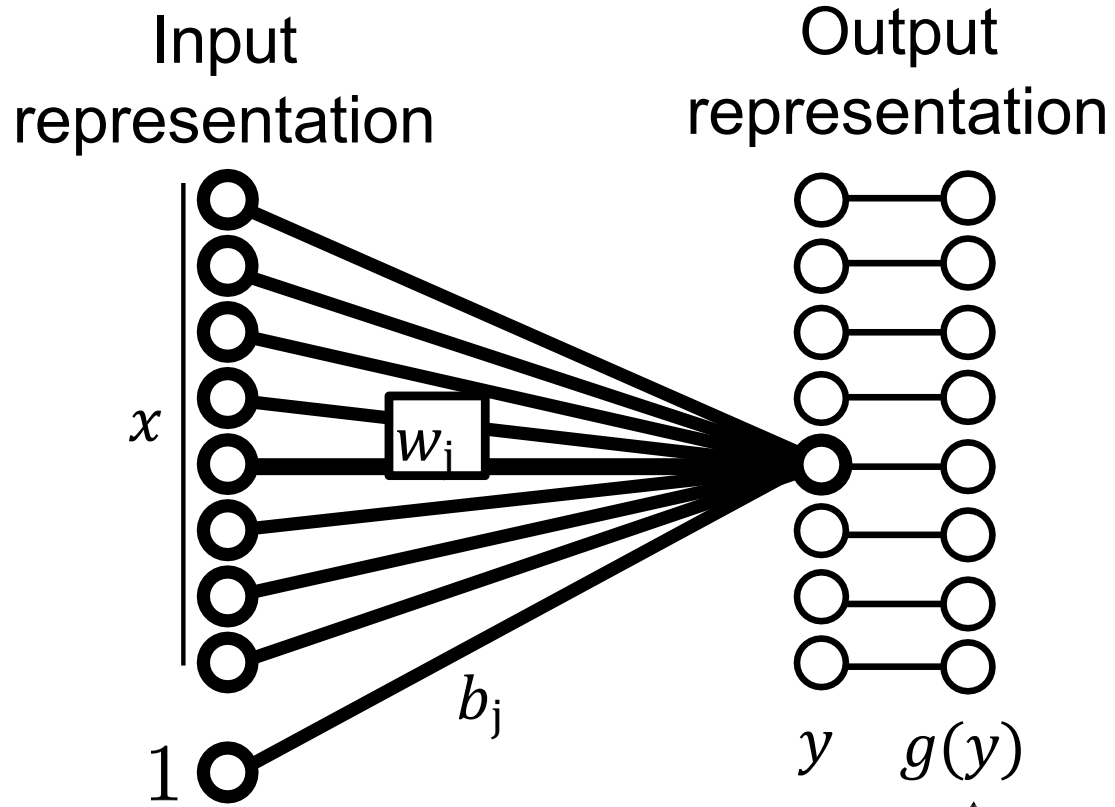
Can be expressed as single linear layer!

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{W}_i \\ & \mathbf{W}_i \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{x}$$

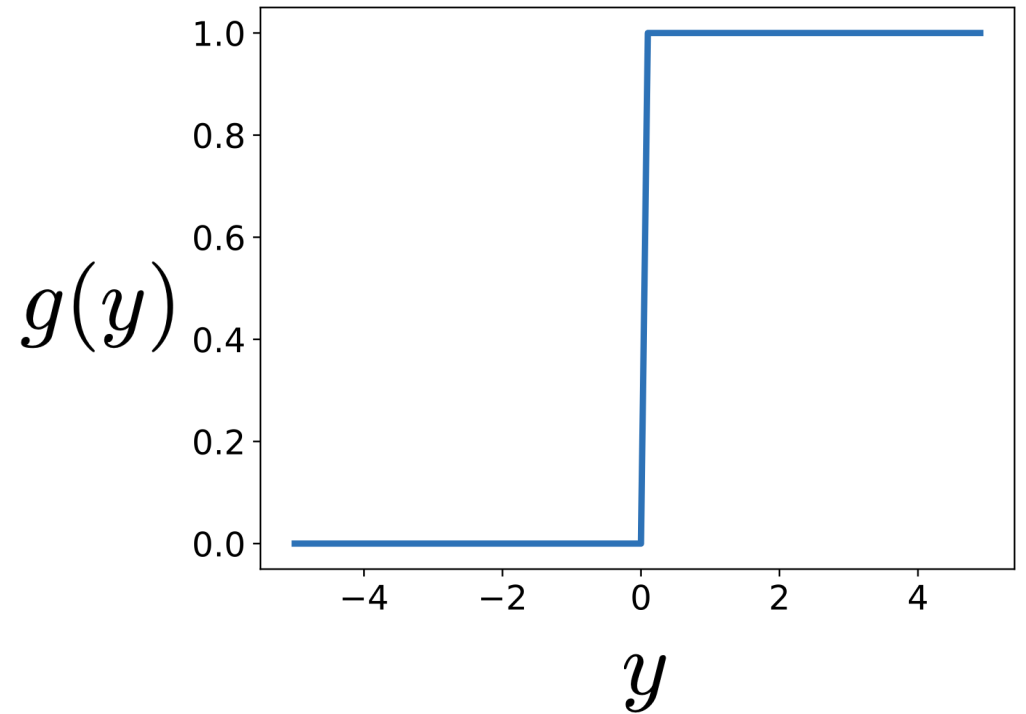
Limited power: can't solve XOR ☹️

Solution: simple nonlinearity

Linear layer

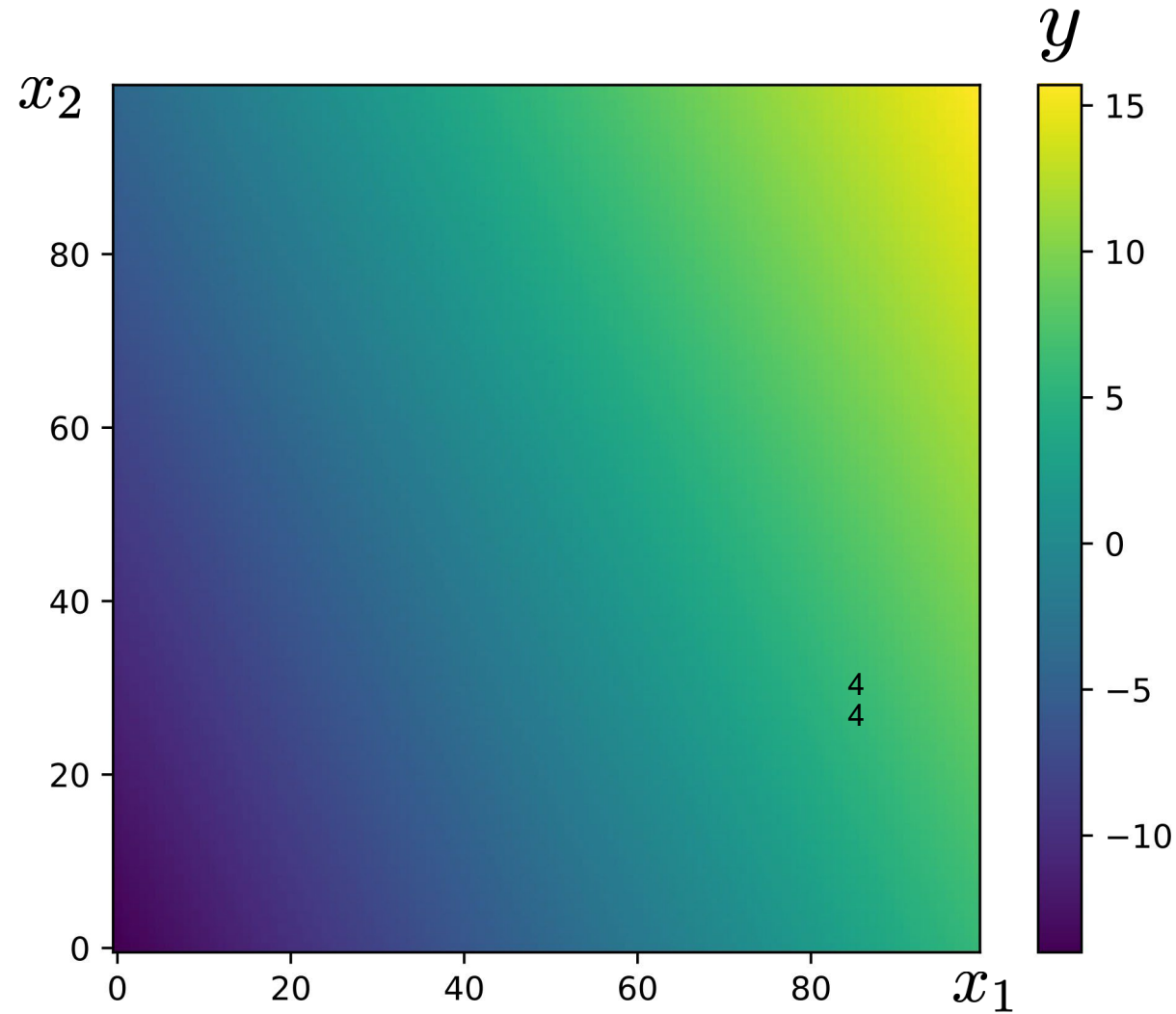


$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



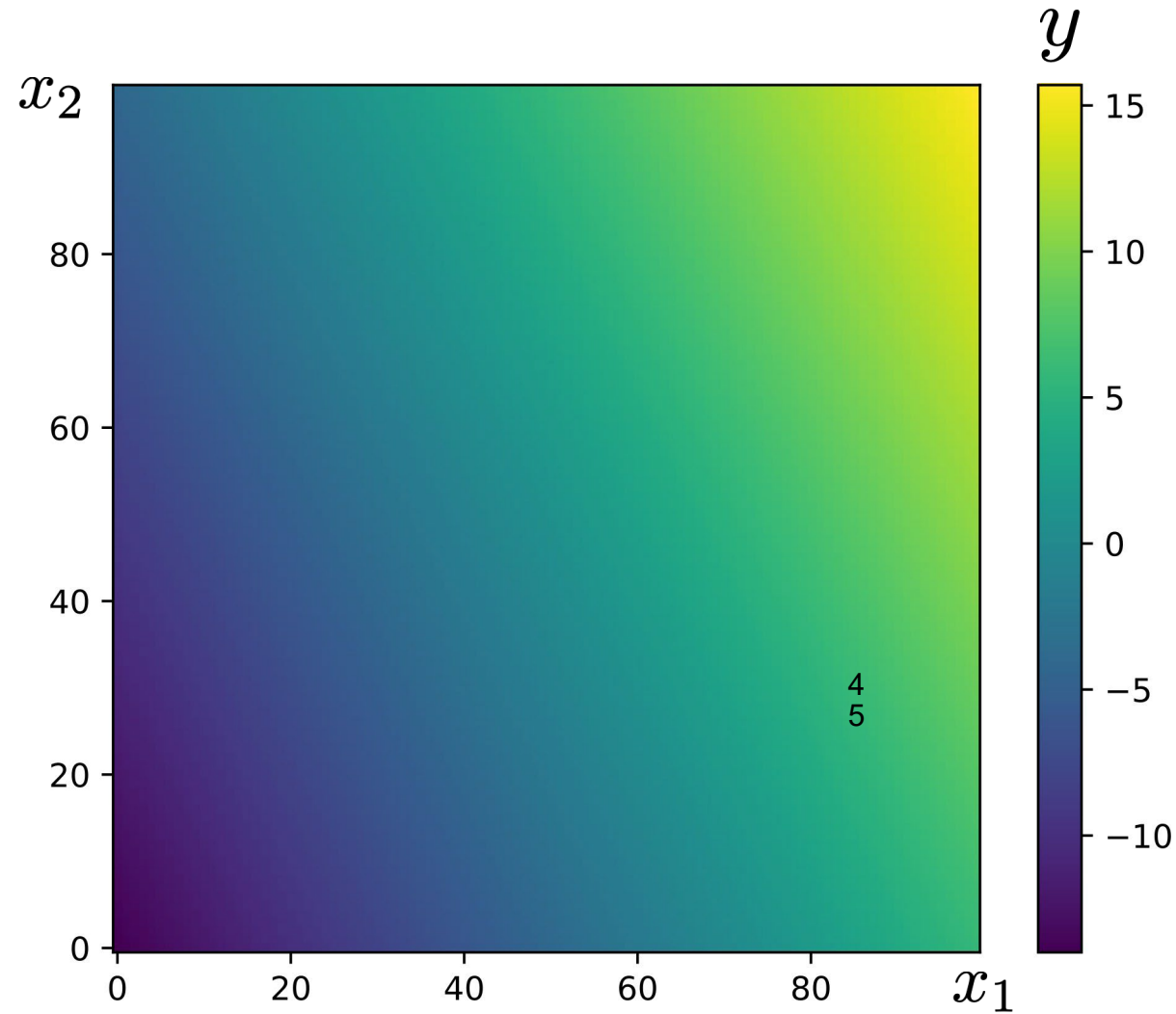
Pointwise
Non-linearity

Example: linear classification with a perceptron



$$y = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

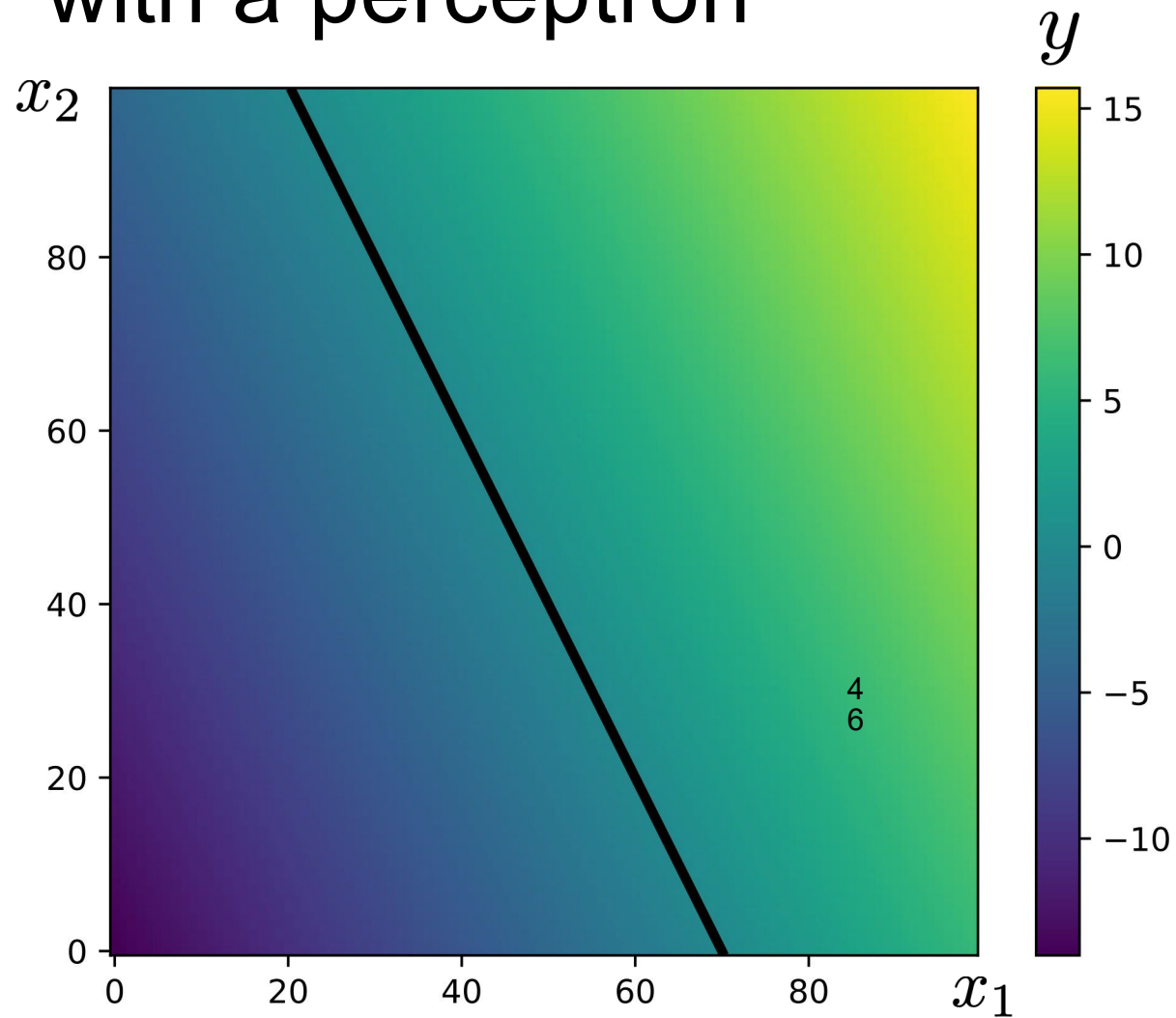
Example: linear classification with a perceptron



$$y = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example: linear classification with a perceptron



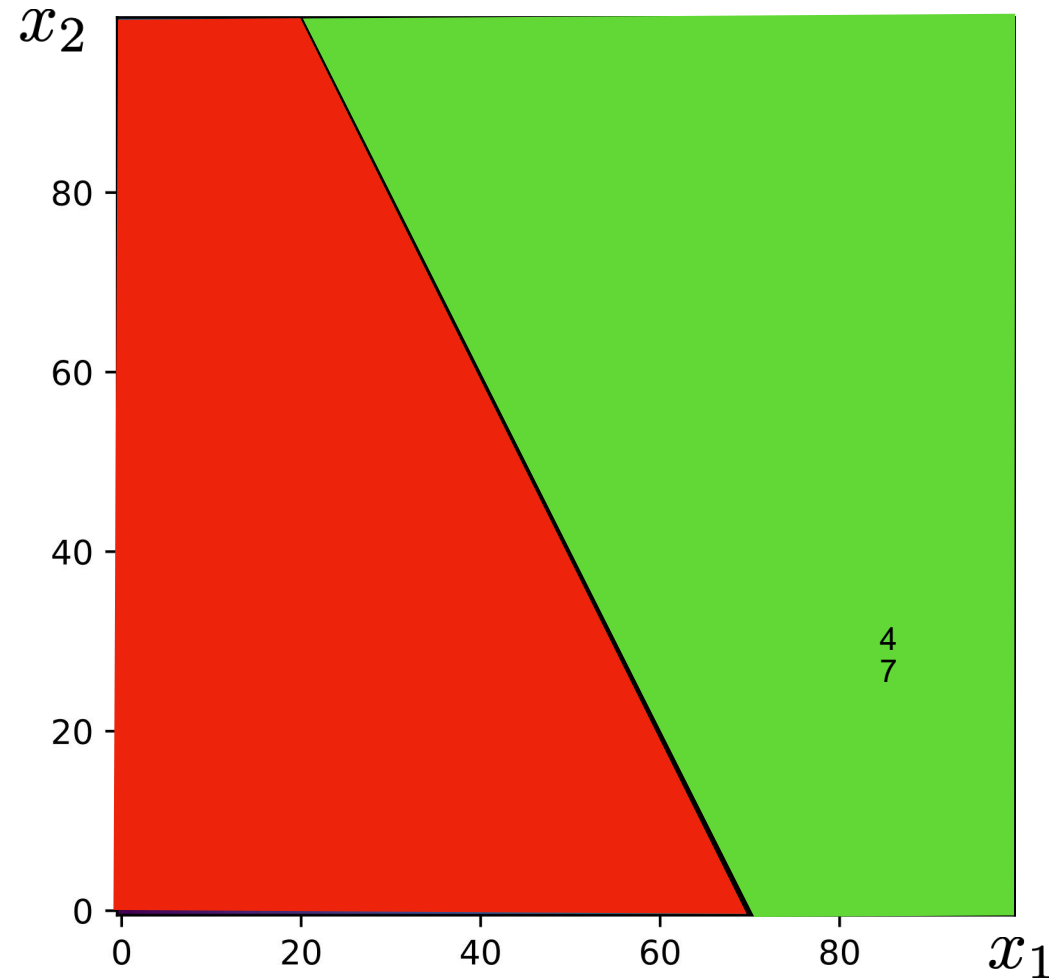
$$y = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

“when y is greater than 0, set all pixel values to 1 (green), otherwise, set all pixel values to 0 (red)”

Example: linear classification with a perceptron

$$g(y)$$



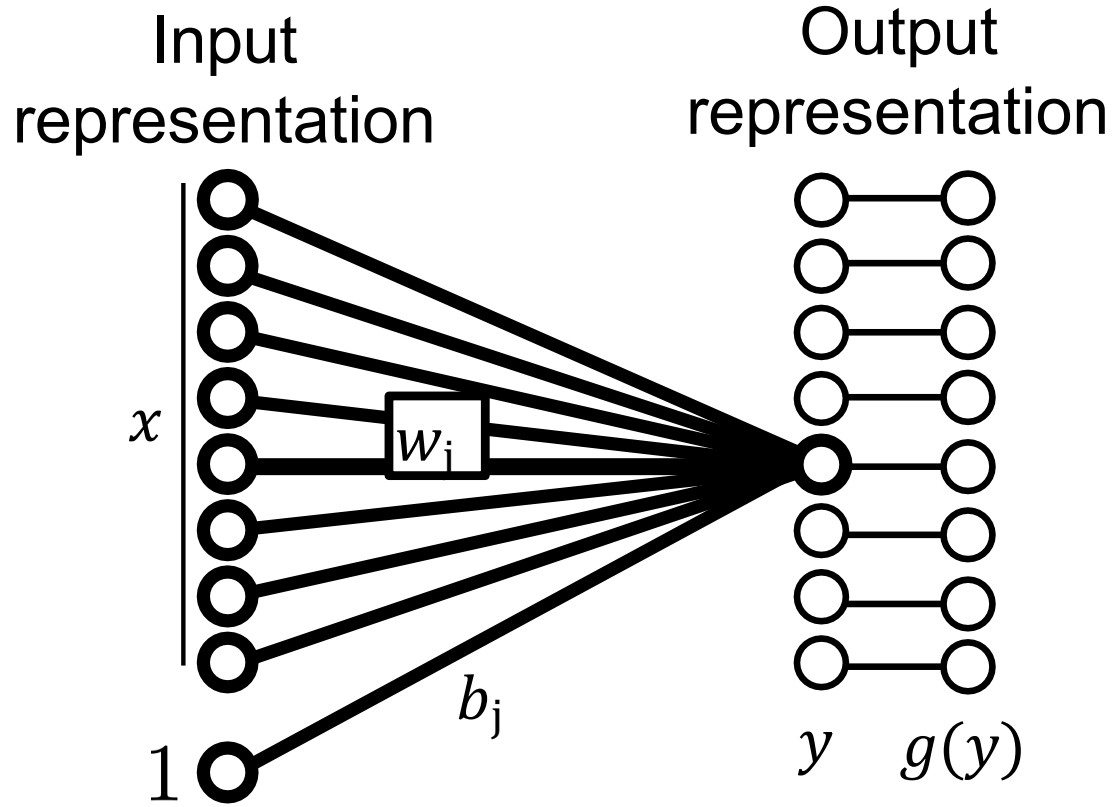
$$y = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

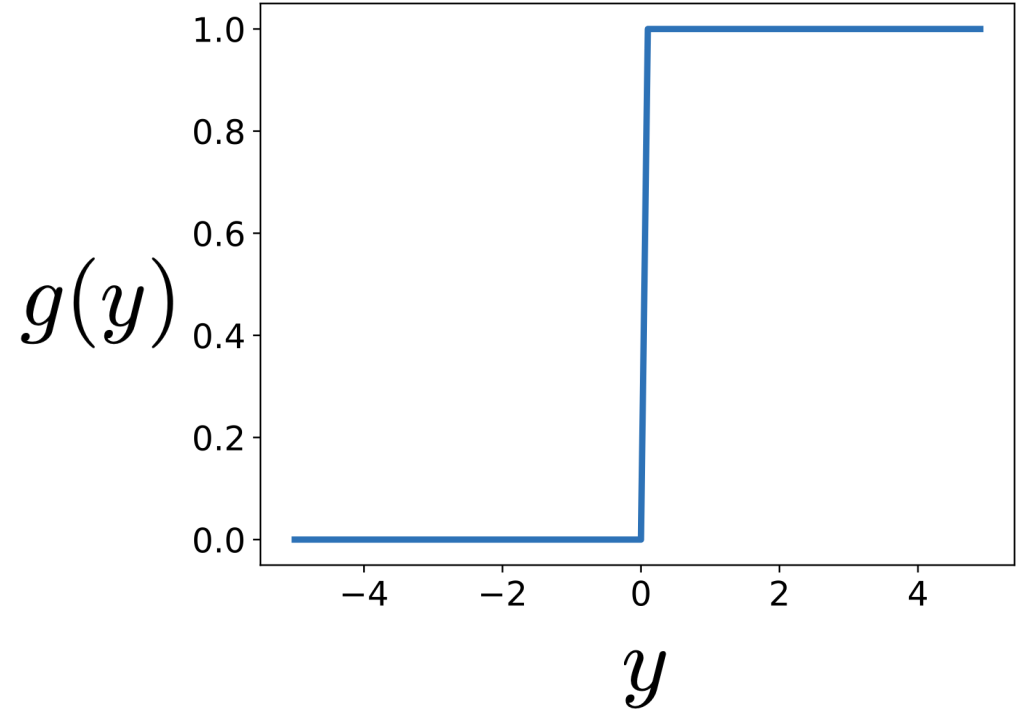
“when y is greater than 0, set all pixel values to 1 (green), otherwise, set all pixel values to 0 (red)”

Computation in a neural net - nonlinearity

Linear layer



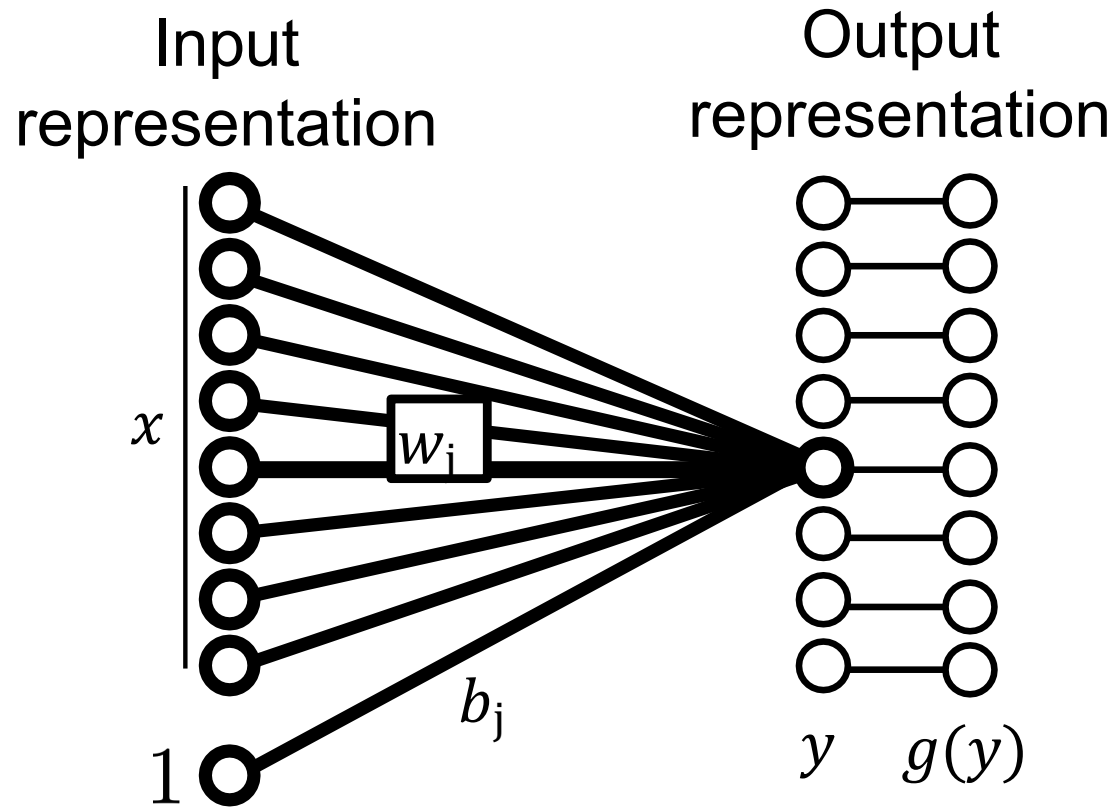
$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Can't use with gradient descent, $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} g = 0$

Computation in a neural net - nonlinearity

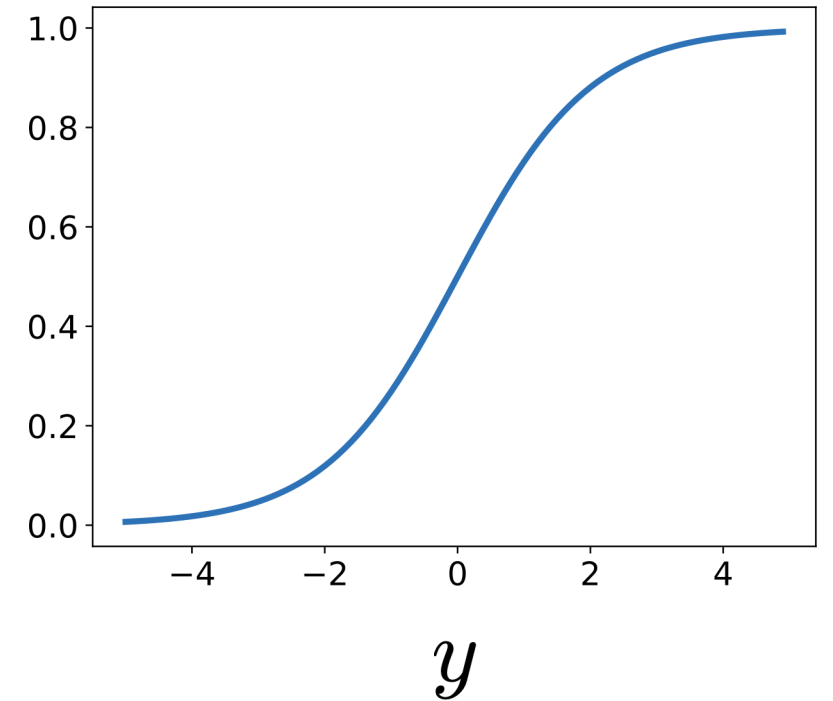
Linear layer



Sigmoid

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

$g(y)$

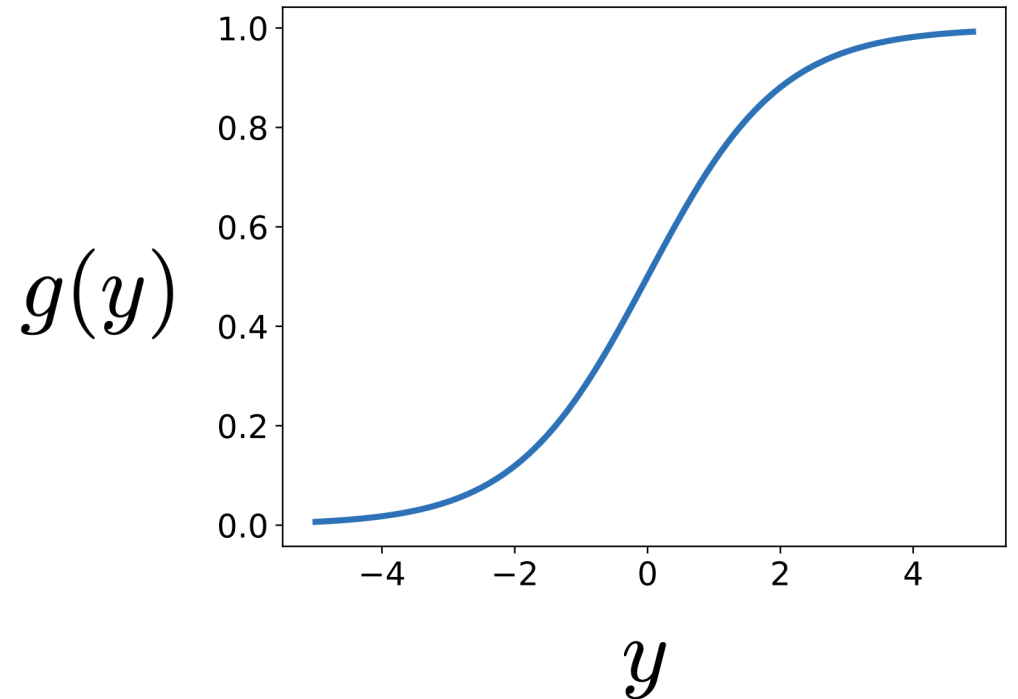


Computation in a neural net - nonlinearity

- Bounded between $[0,1]$
- Saturation for large +/- inputs
- Gradients go to zero

Sigmoid

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



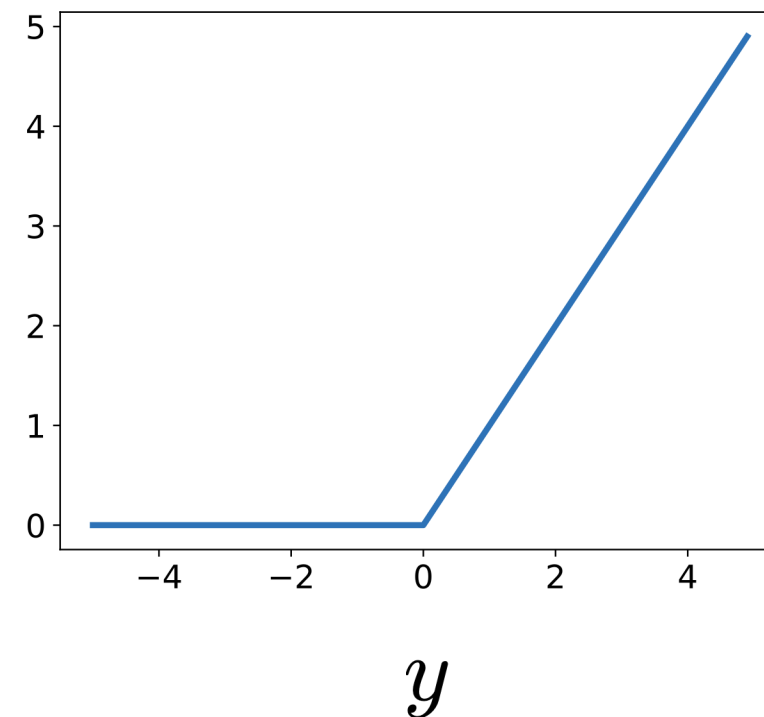
Computation in a neural net — nonlinearity

- Unbounded output (on positive side)
- Efficient to implement: $\frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } y < 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } y \geq 0 \end{cases}$
- Also seems to help convergence (6x speedup vs. tanh in [Krizhevsky et al. 2012])
- Drawback: if strongly in negative region, unit is dead forever (no gradient).
- Default choice: widely used in current models!

Rectified linear unit (ReLU)

$$g(y) = \max(0, y)$$

$g(y)$



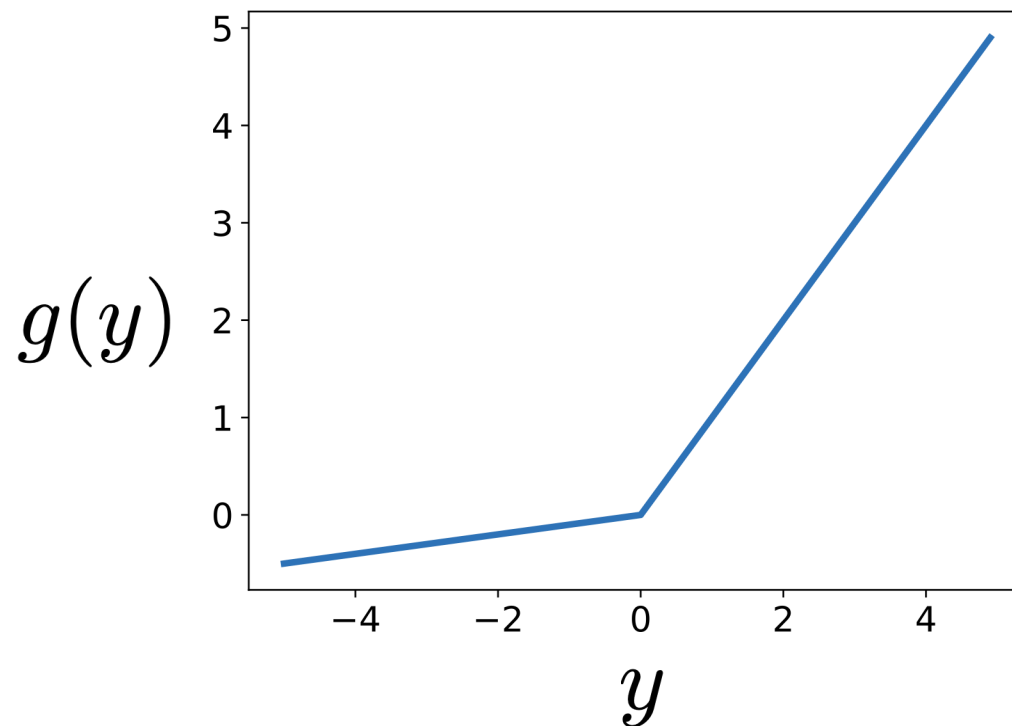
Computation in a neural net — nonlinearity

- where a is small (e.g., 0.02)
- Efficient to implement:
- Has non-zero gradients everywhere (unlike ReLU)

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = \begin{cases} -a, & \text{if } y < 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } y \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Leaky ReLU

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} \max(0, y), & \text{if } y \geq 0 \\ a \min(0, y), & \text{if } y < 0 \end{cases}$$

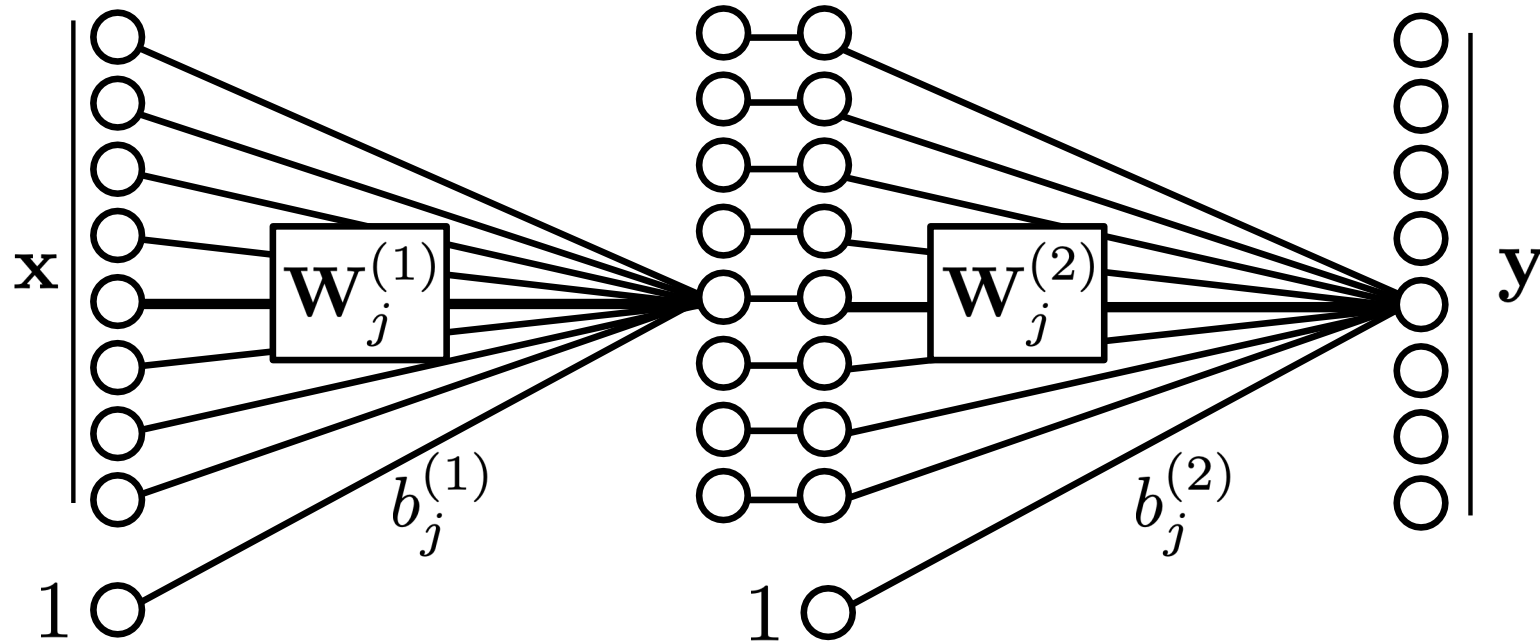


Stacking layers

Input
representation

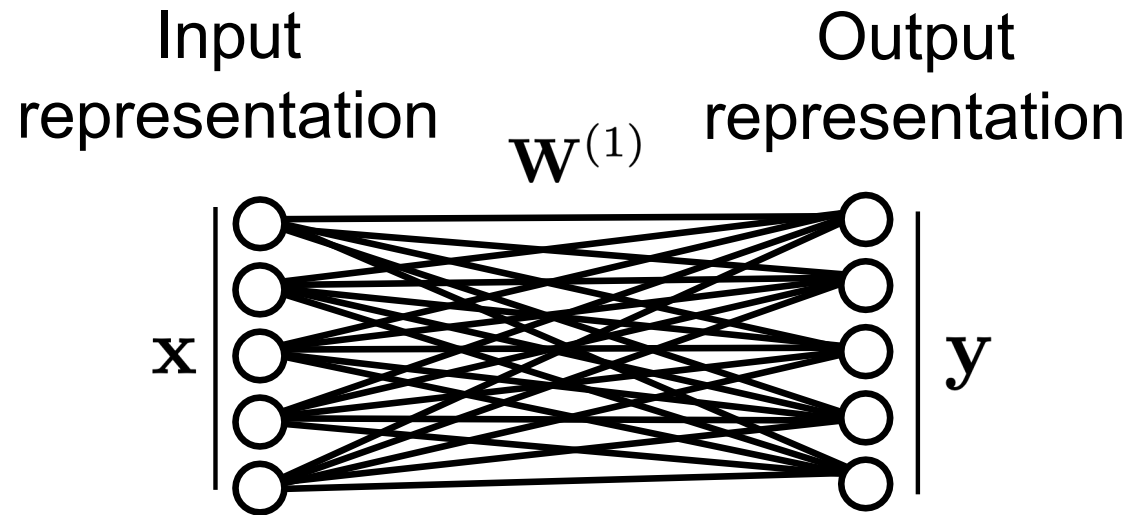
Intermediate
representation

Output
representation

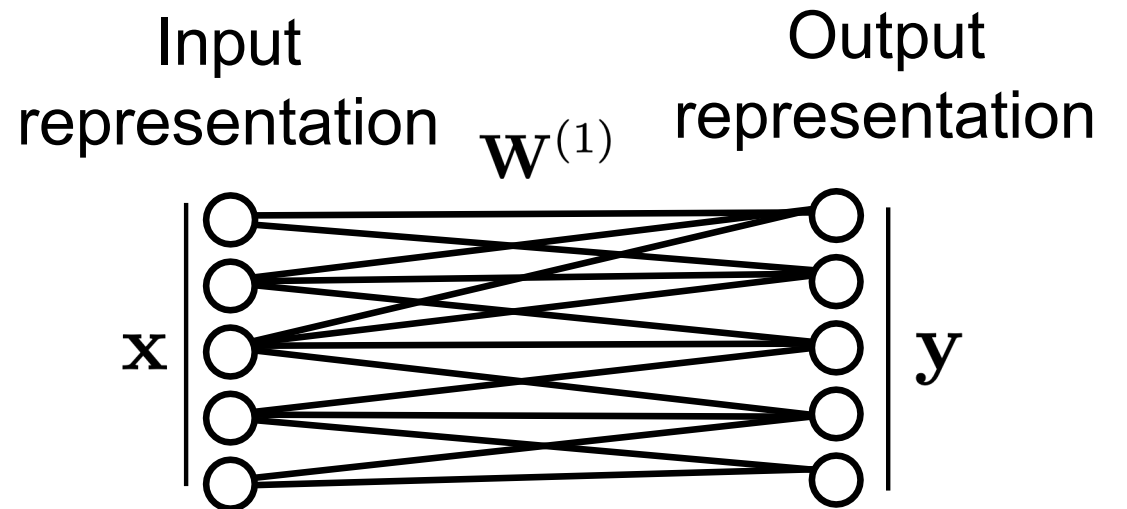


h = "hidden units"

Connectivity patterns

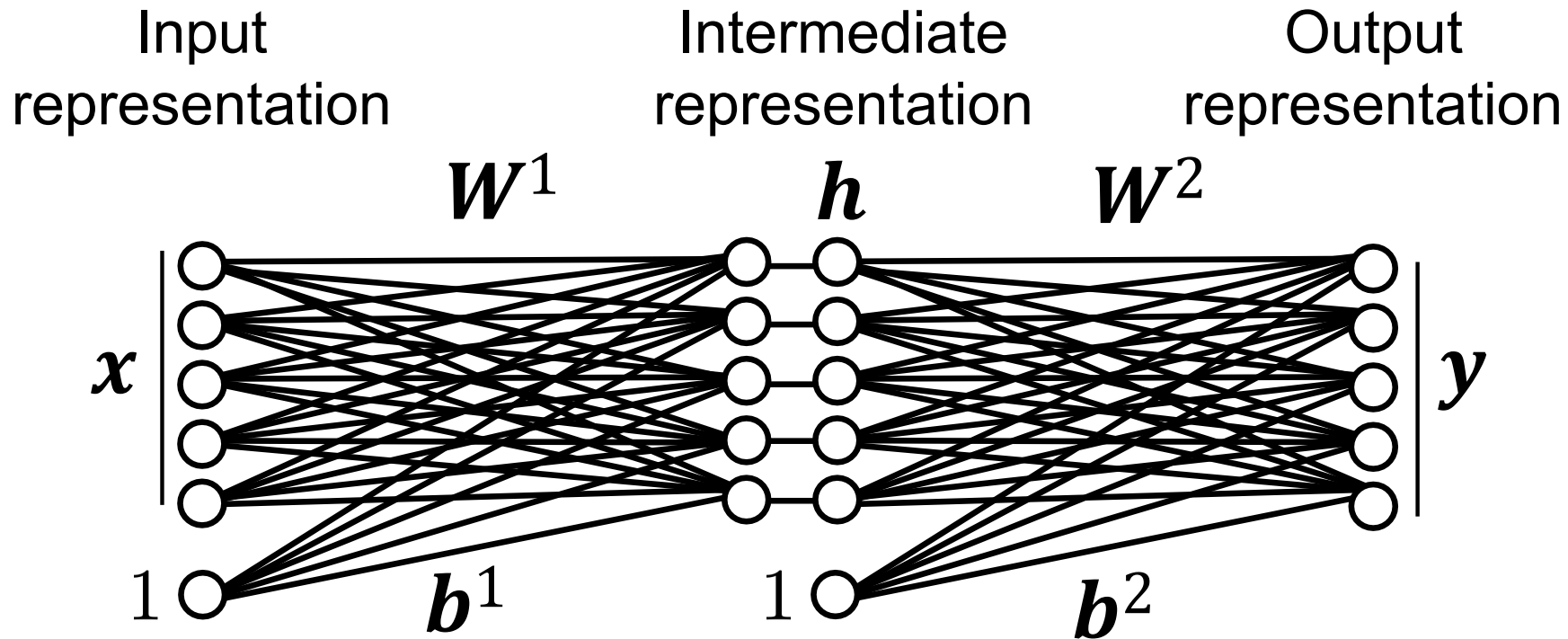


Fully connected layer



*Locally connected layer
(Sparse W)*

Stacking layers

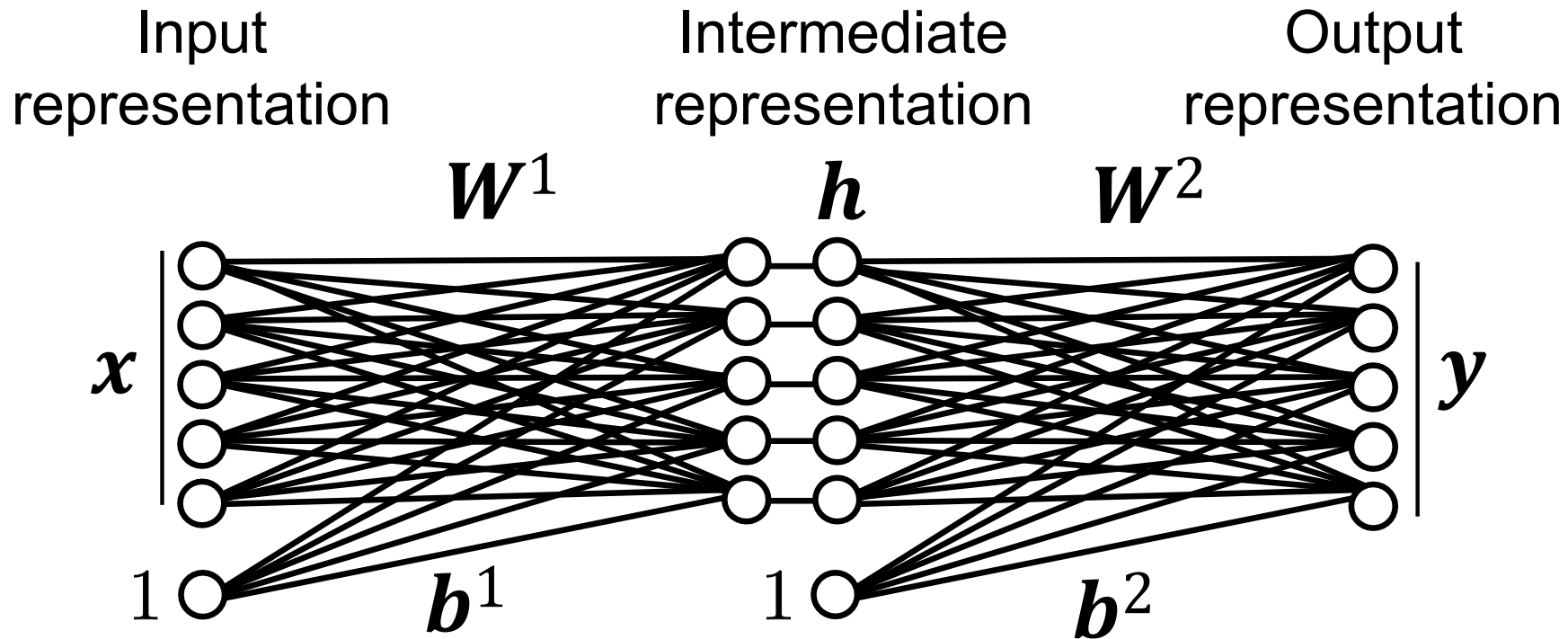


$$h = g(W^1x + b^1) \quad y = g(W^2h + b^2)$$

ReLU \nearrow

$$\theta = \{W^1, \dots, W^L, b^1, \dots, b^L\}$$

Stacking layers



positive

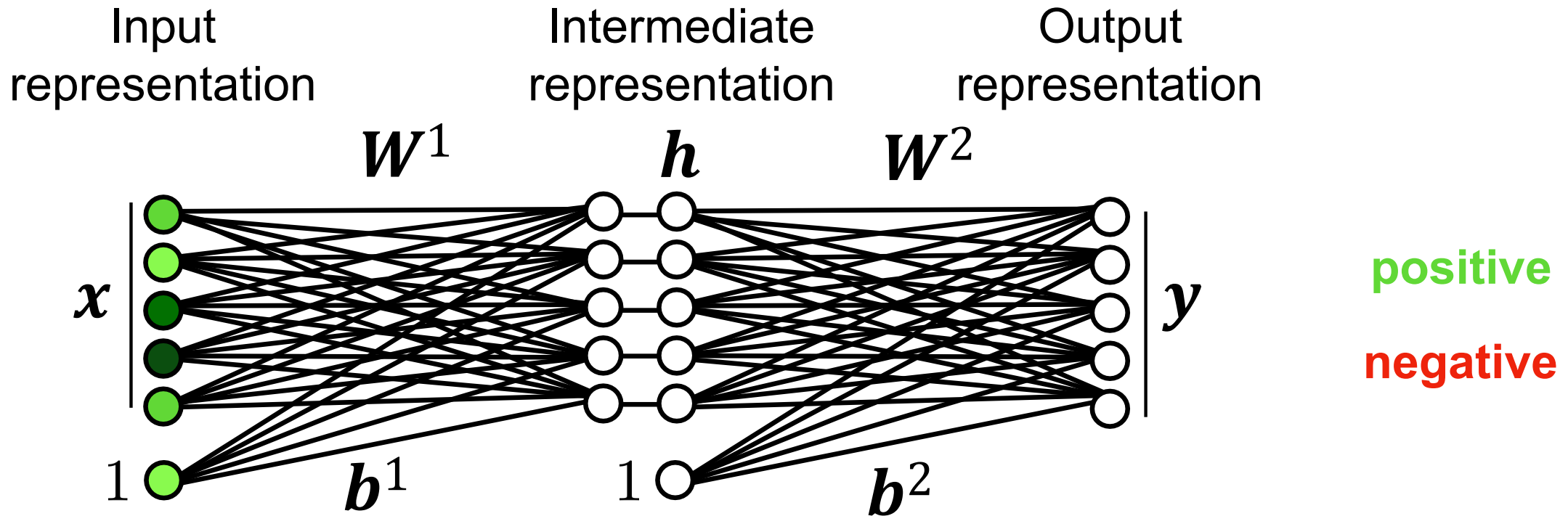
negative

$$h = g(W^1 x + b^1) \quad y = g(W^2 h + b^2)$$

ReLU \nearrow

$$\theta = \{W^1, \dots, W^L, b^1, \dots, b^L\}$$

Stacking layers

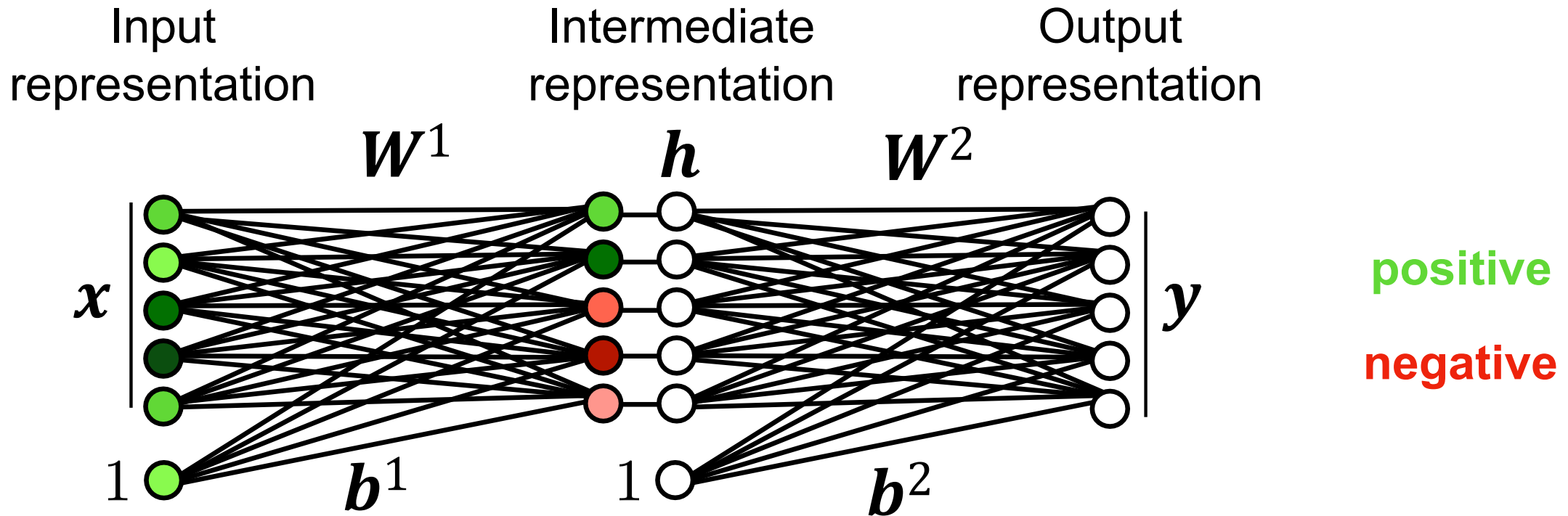


$$h = g(W^1 x + b^1) \quad y = g(W^2 h + b^2)$$

ReLU \nearrow

$$\theta = \{W^1, \dots, W^L, b^1, \dots, b^L\}$$

Stacking layers

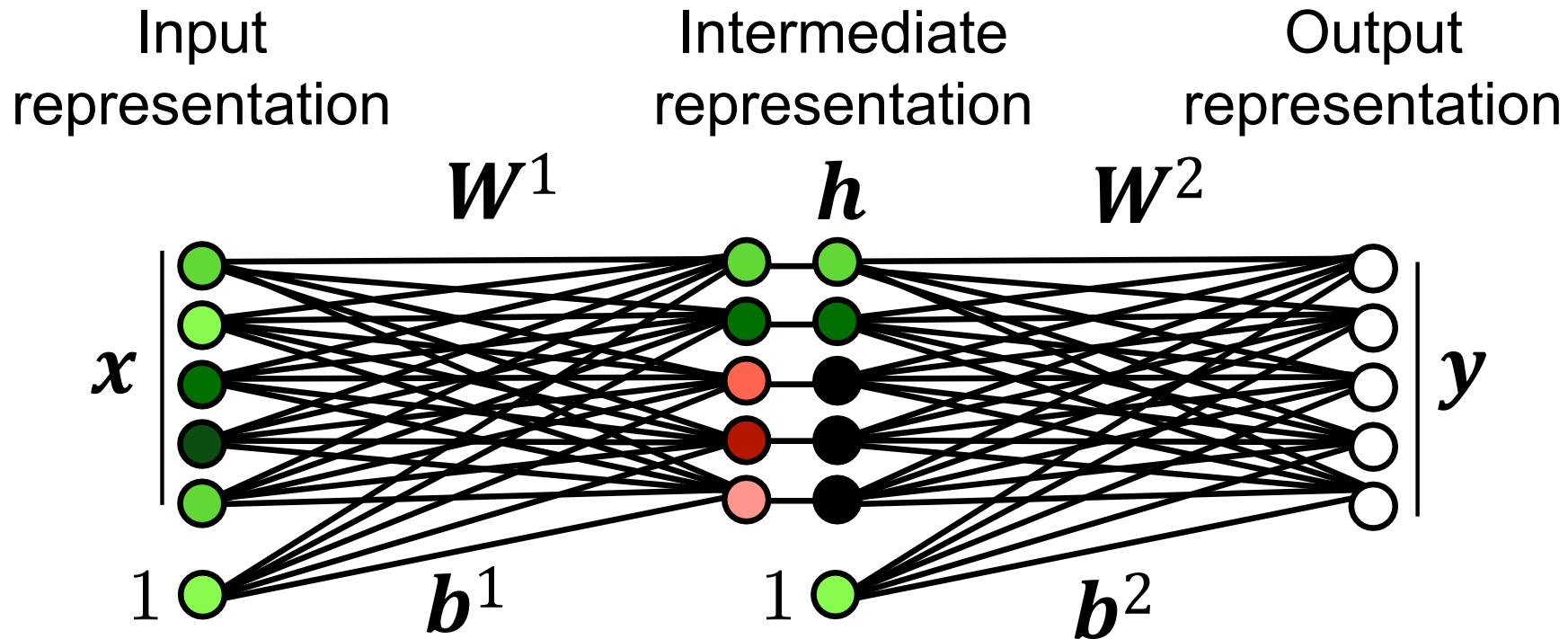


$$\mathbf{h} = g(\mathbf{W}^1 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^1) \quad \mathbf{y} = g(\mathbf{W}^2 \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^2)$$

ReLU \nearrow

$$\theta = \{\mathbf{W}^1, \dots, \mathbf{W}^L, \mathbf{b}^1, \dots, \mathbf{b}^L\}$$

Stacking layers

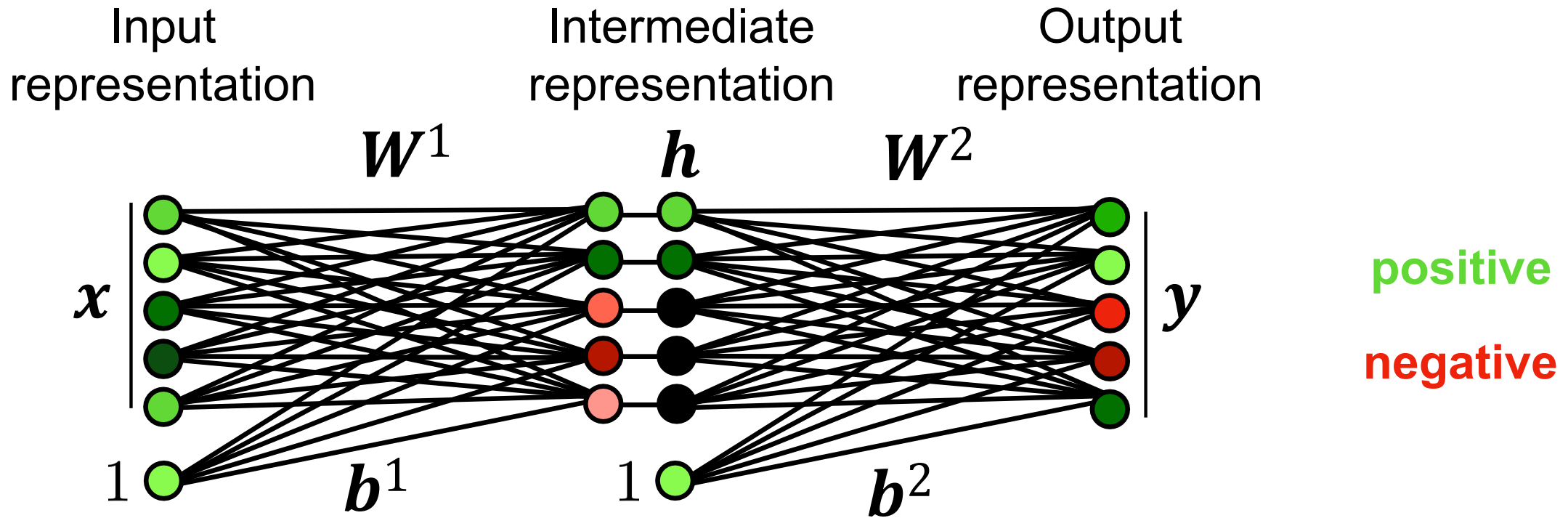


$$h = g(W^1 x + b^1) \quad y = g(W^2 h + b^2)$$

ReLU

$$\theta = \{W^1, \dots, W^L, b^1, \dots, b^L\}$$

Stacking layers

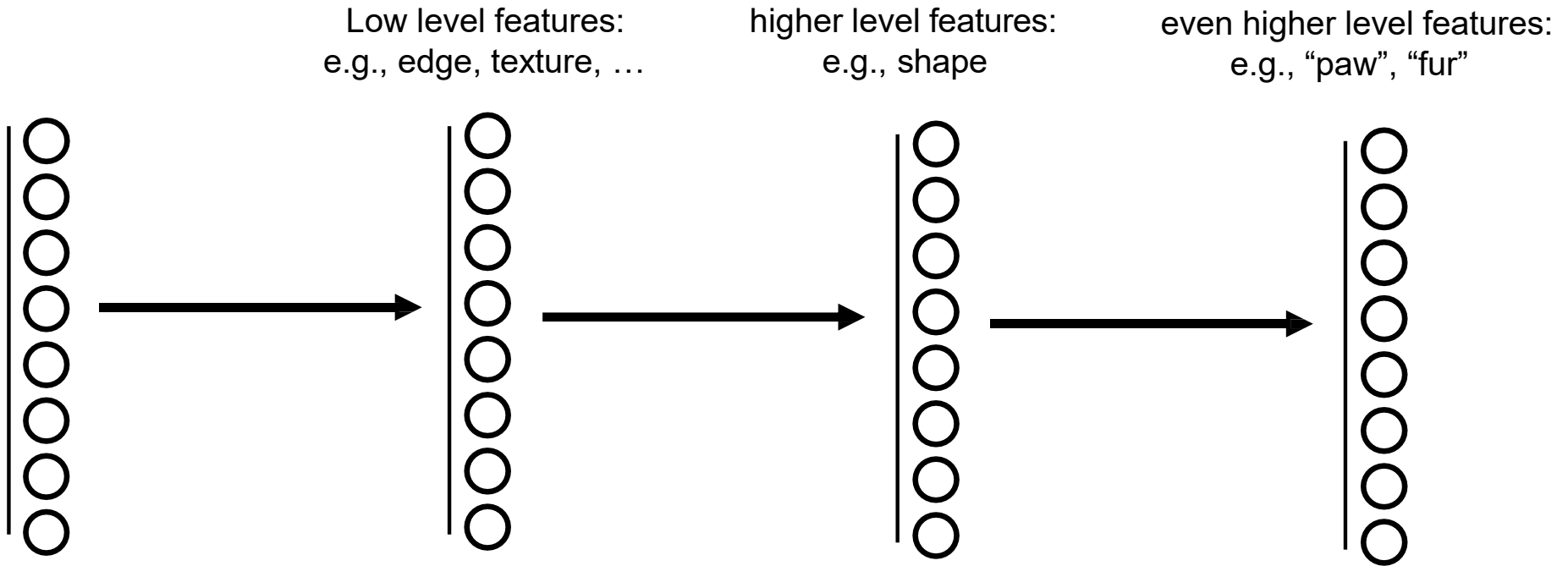


$$h = g(W^1 x + b^1) \quad y = g(W^2 h + b^2)$$

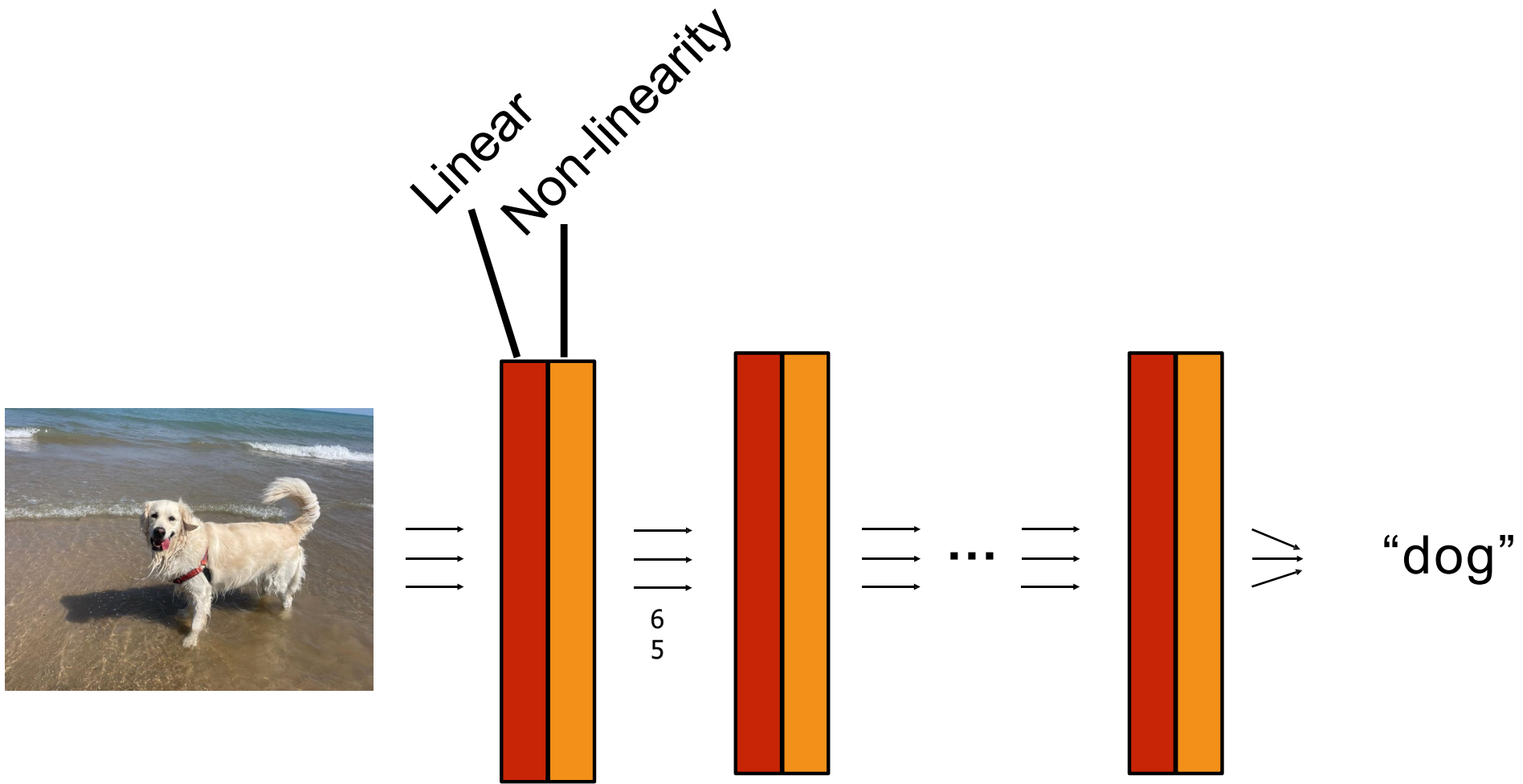
ReLU \nearrow

$$\theta = \{W^1, \dots, W^L, b^1, \dots, b^L\}$$

Stacking layers - What's actually happening?

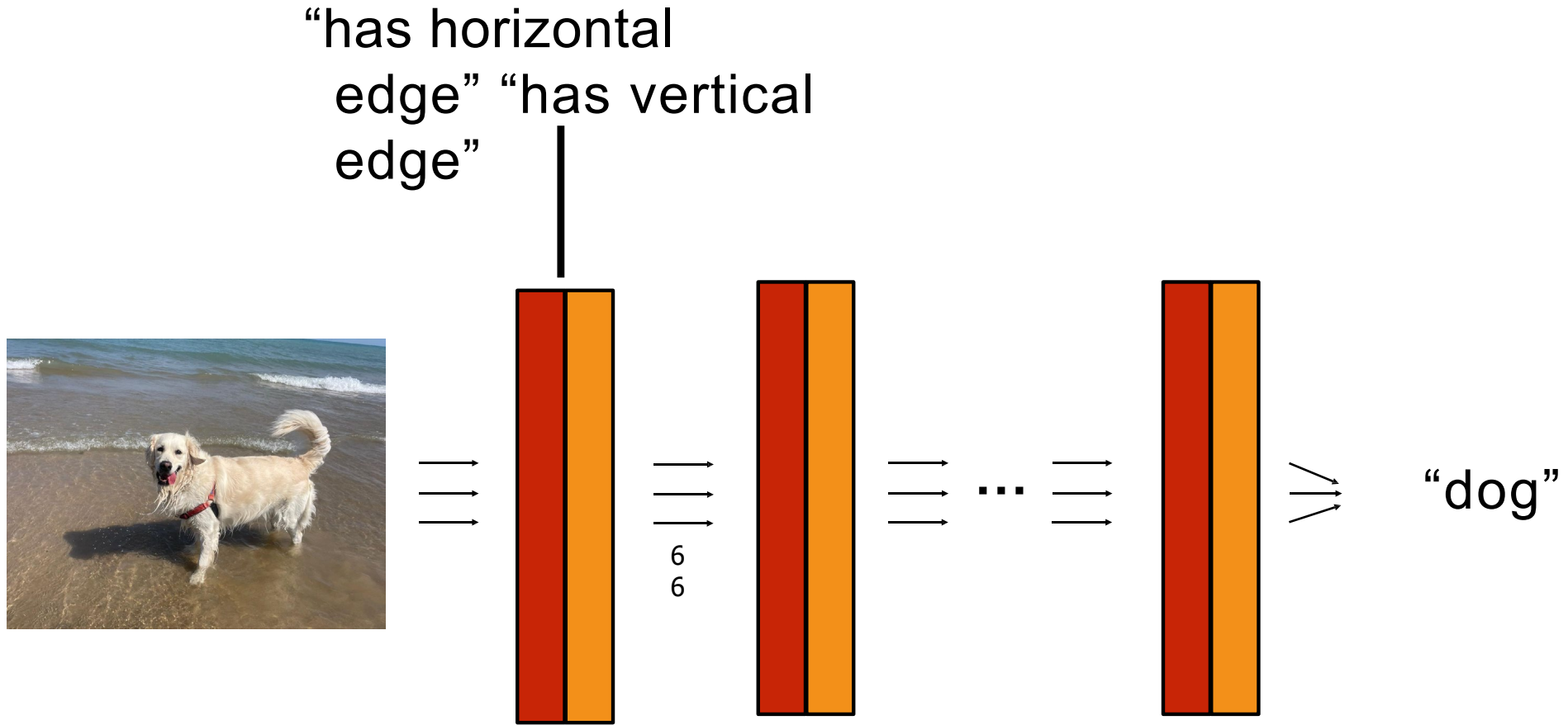


Deep nets

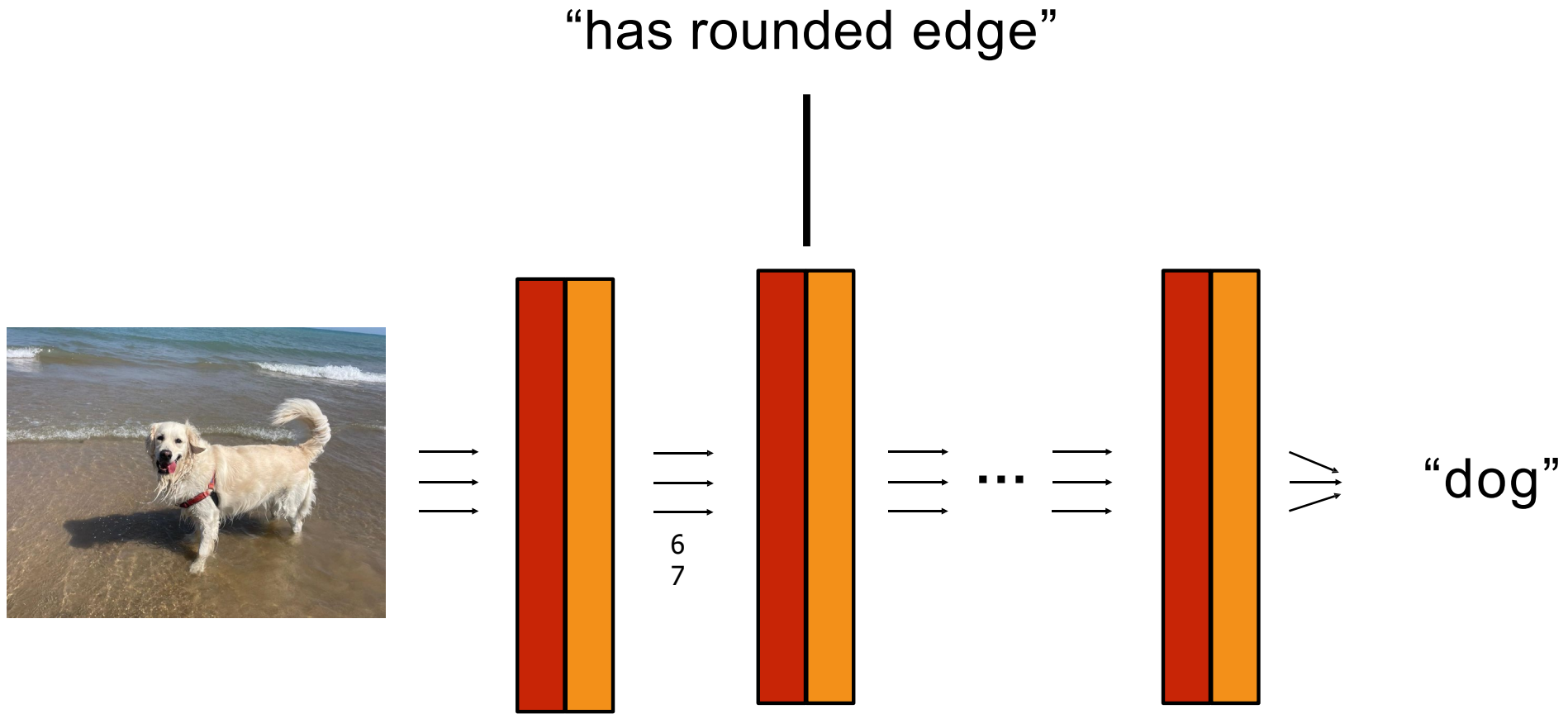


$$f(x) = f_L(\dots f_3(f_2(f_1(x))) \quad ()$$

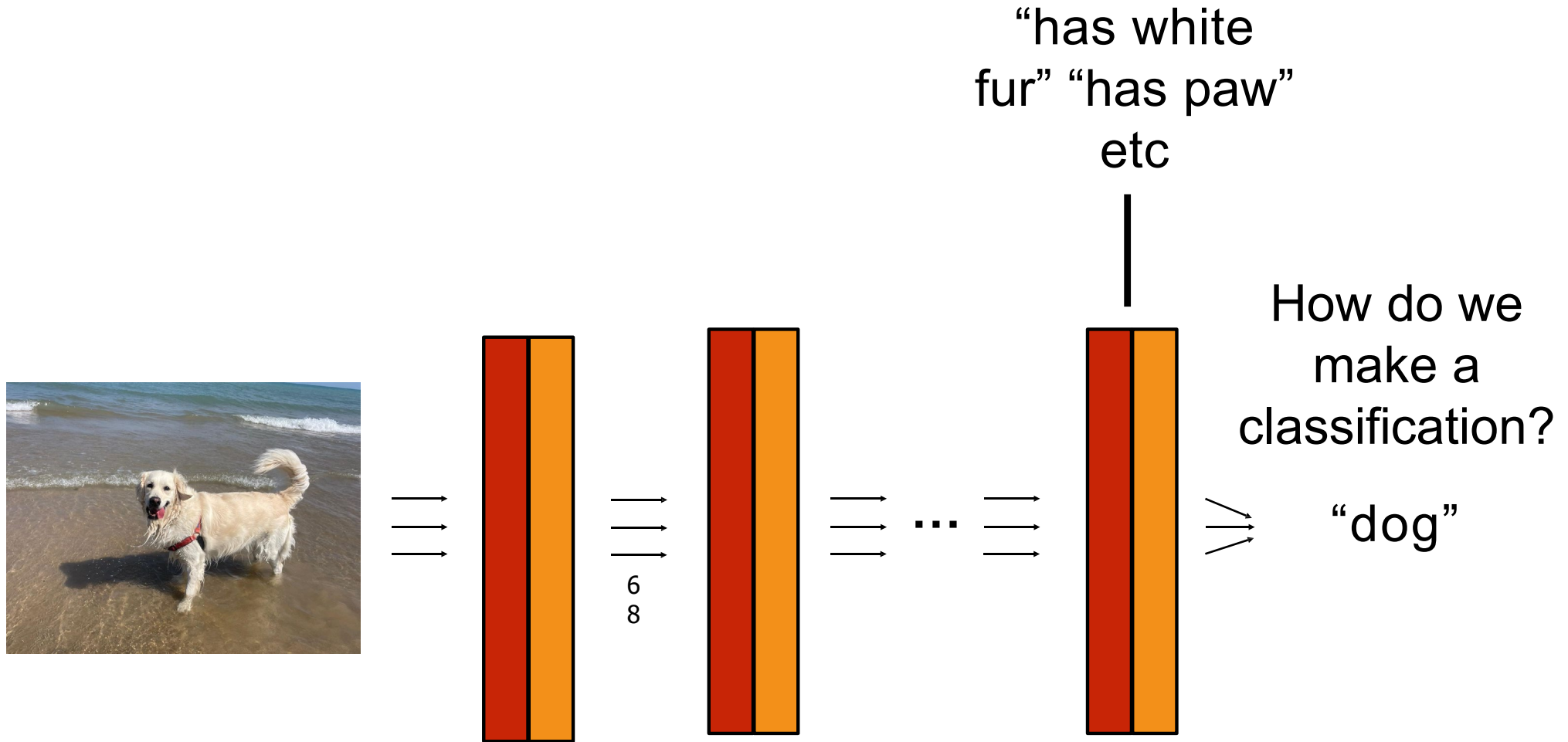
Deep nets - Intuition



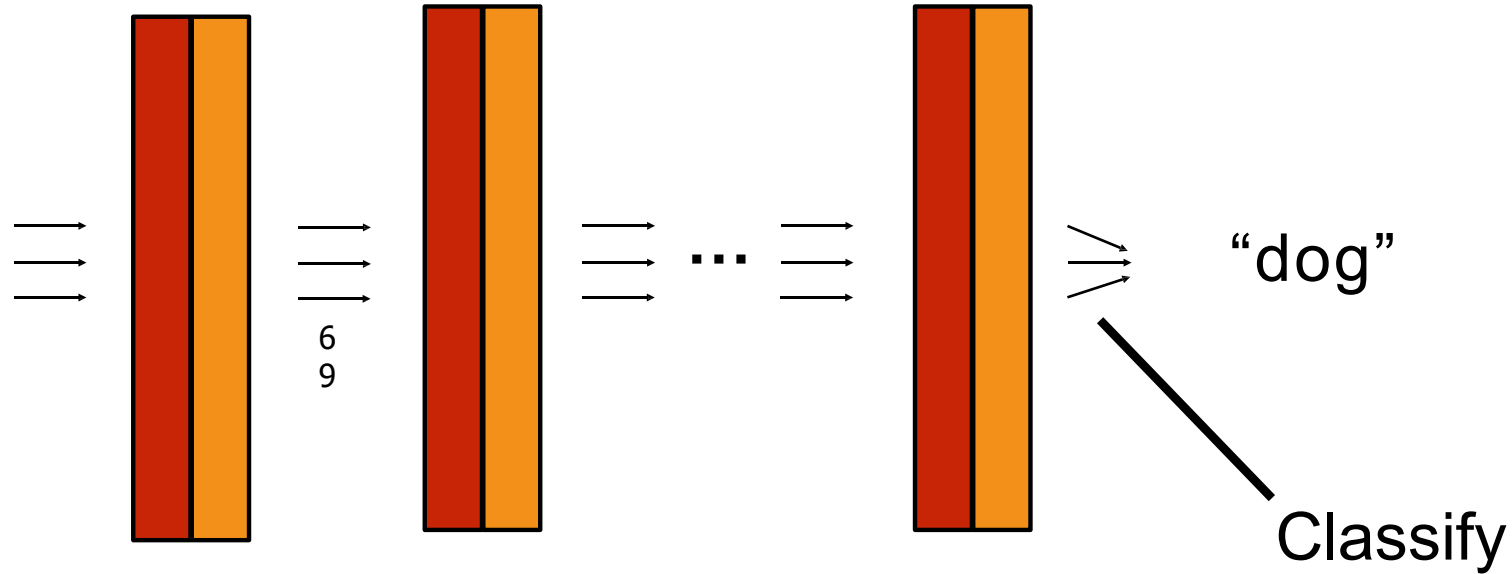
Deep nets - Intuition



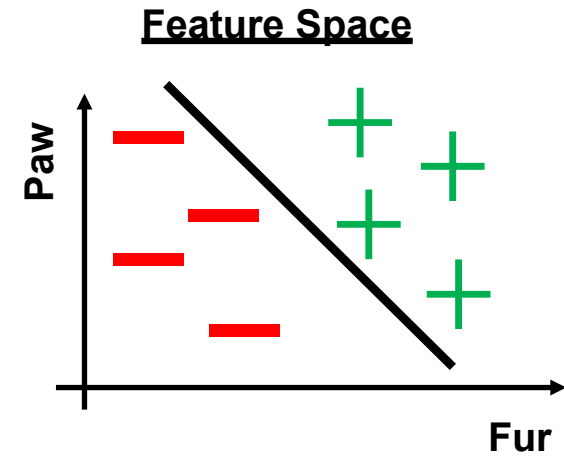
Deep nets - Intuition



Deep nets - Intuition



Recall:



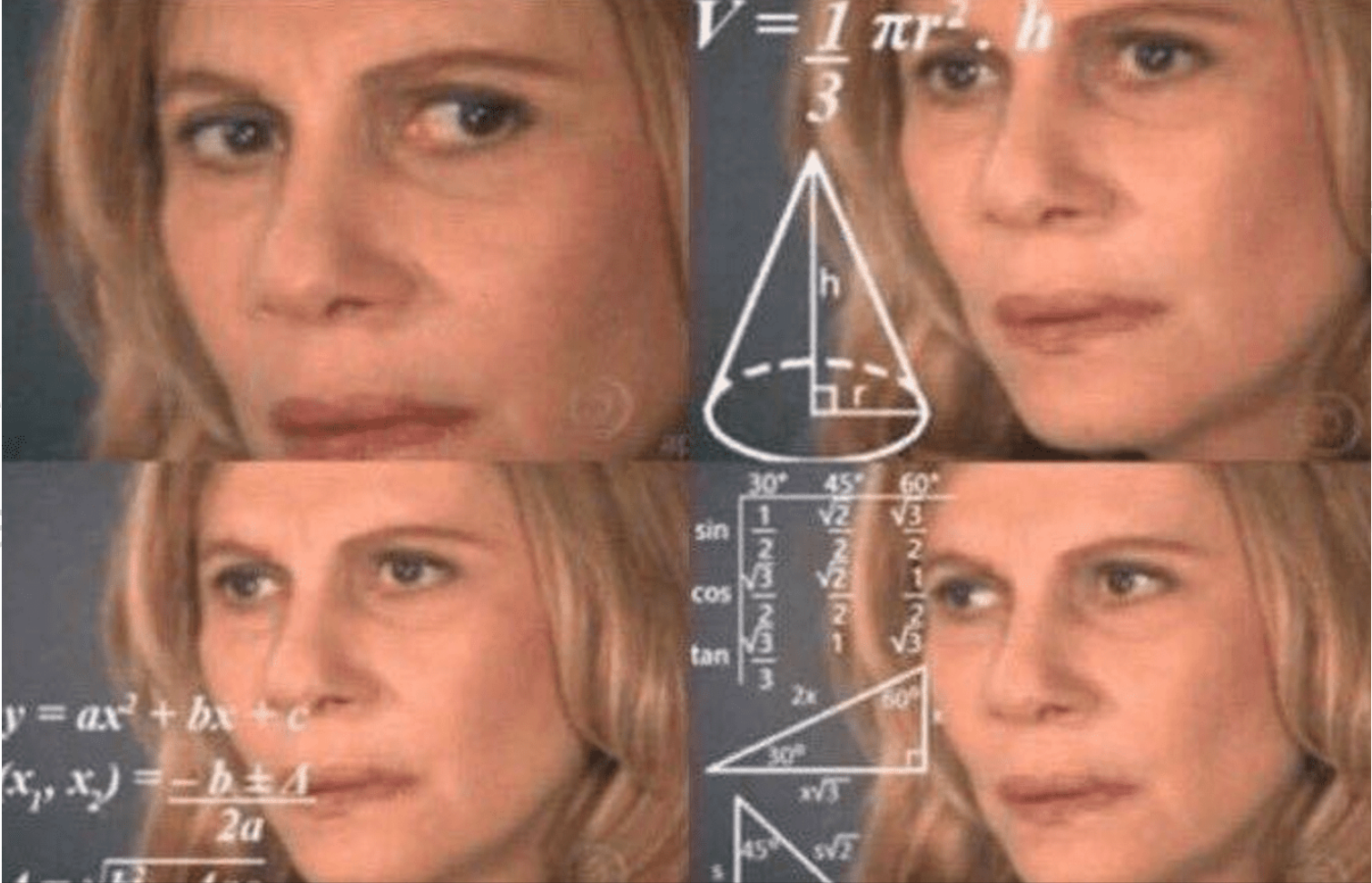
Computation has a simple form

- Composition of linear functions with nonlinearities in between
- E.g. matrix multiplications with ReLU, $\max(0, \mathbf{x})$ afterwards
- Do a matrix multiplication, set all negative values to 0, repeat

But where do we get the weights from?

Computation has a simple form

- Compos
- E.g. mat
- Do a ma



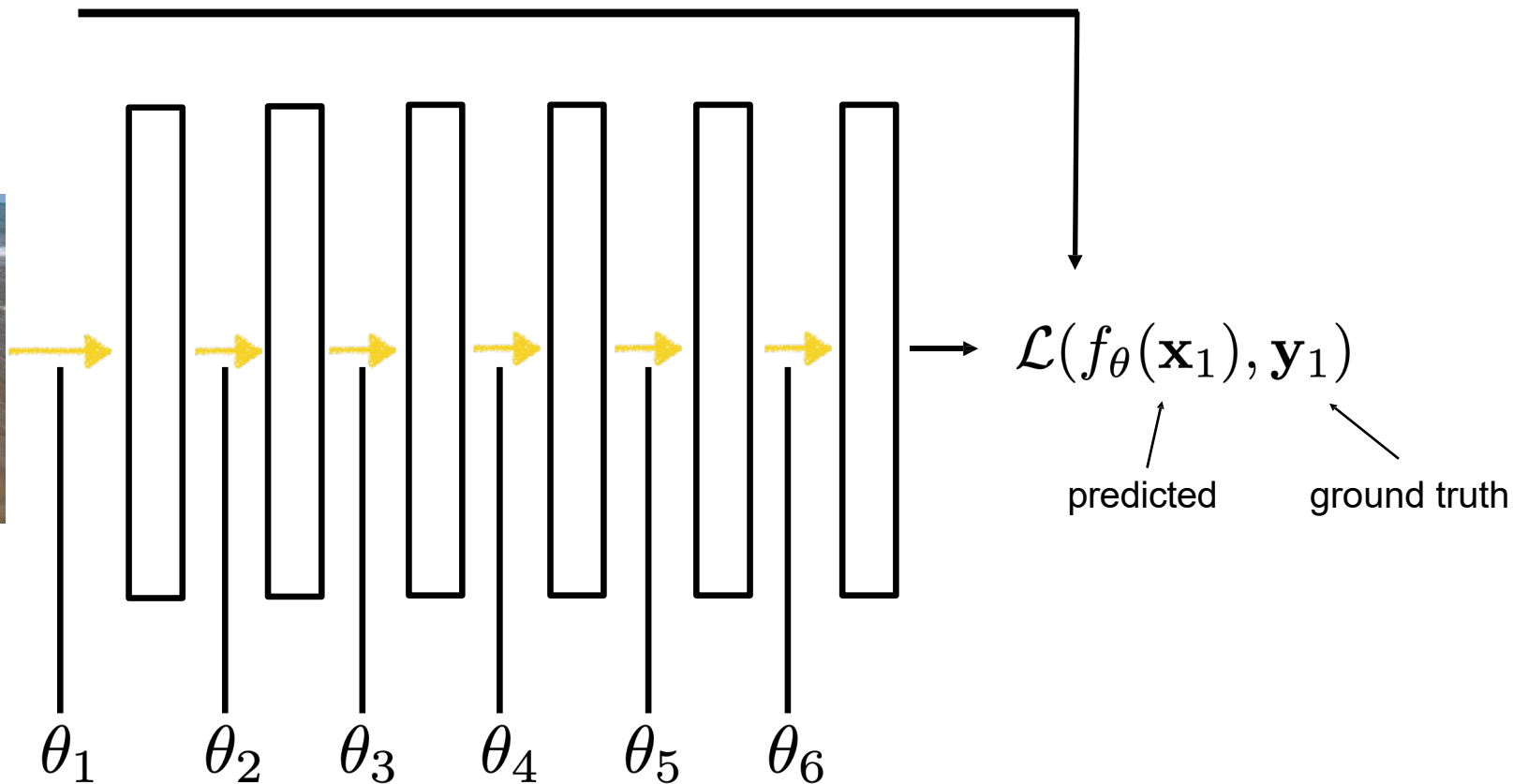
n between
afterwards
o 0, repeat

But where do we get the weights from?

How would we learn the parameters?

y_1
"dog"

\mathbf{x}_1



Learned

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{y}_i)$$