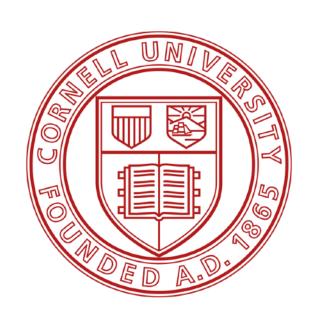
Lecture 6: Linear classifiers

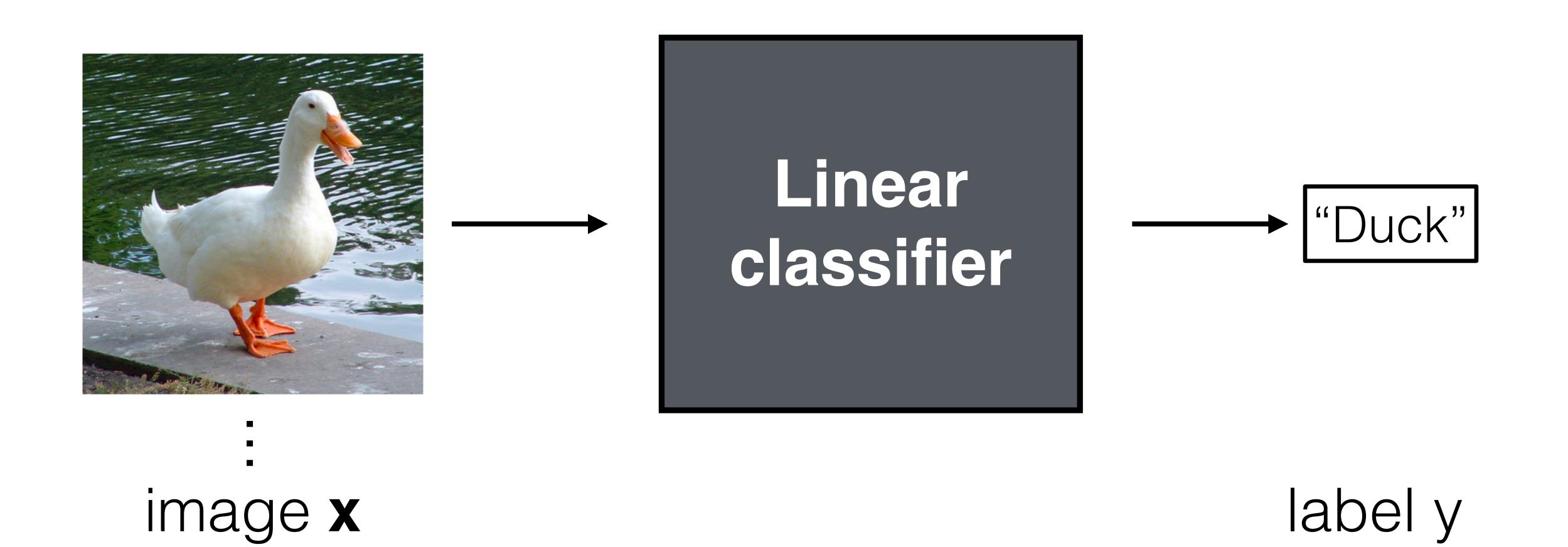
CS 5670: Introduction to Computer Vision



Announcements

- PS1 due tonight
- PS2 out tonight
- PyTorch Colab notebook will be on website
 - Course staff can walk you through it during office hours.

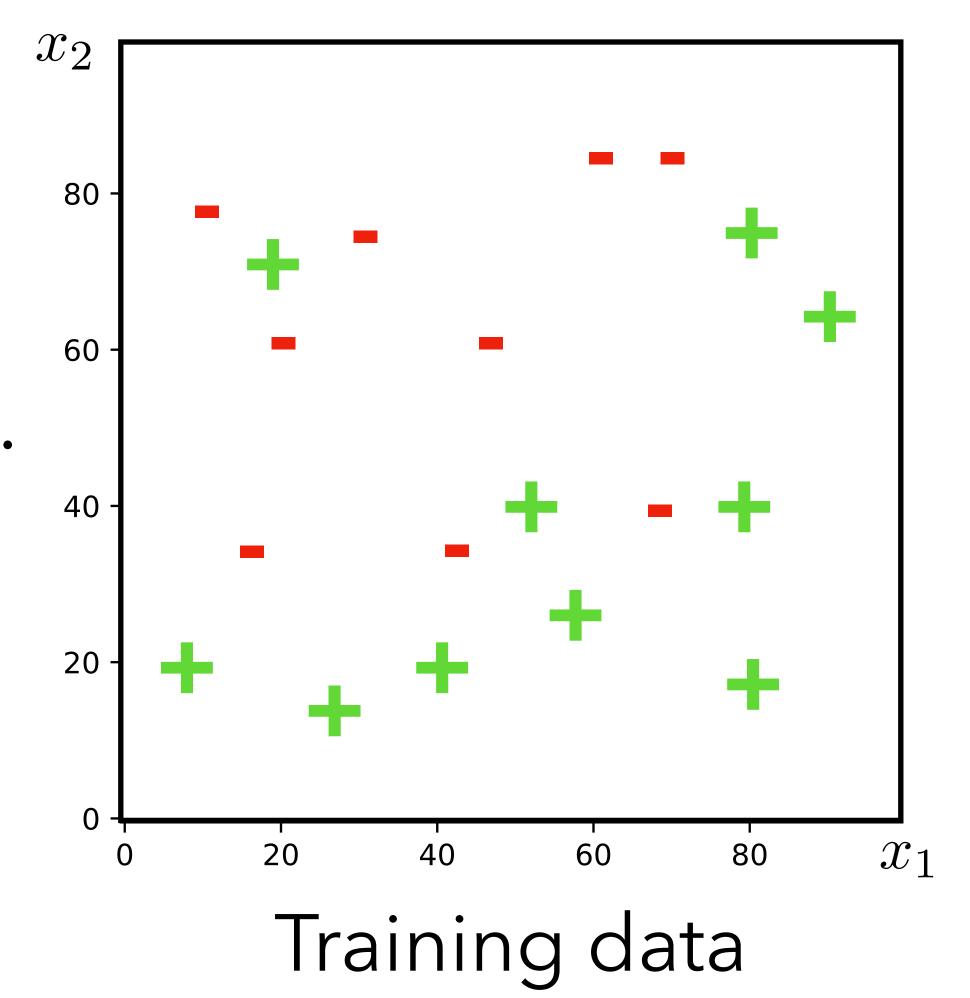
Image classification with linear models



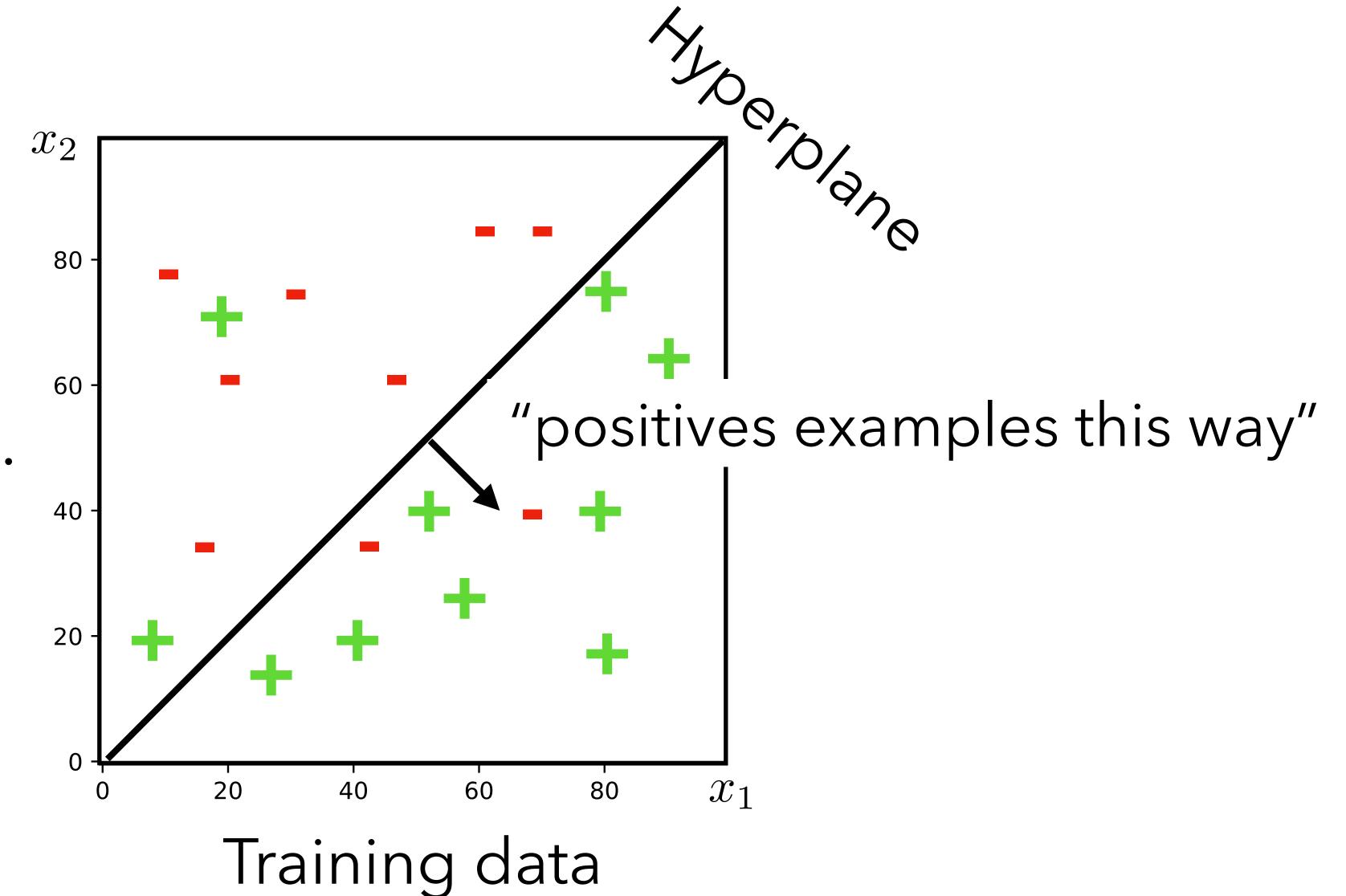
3

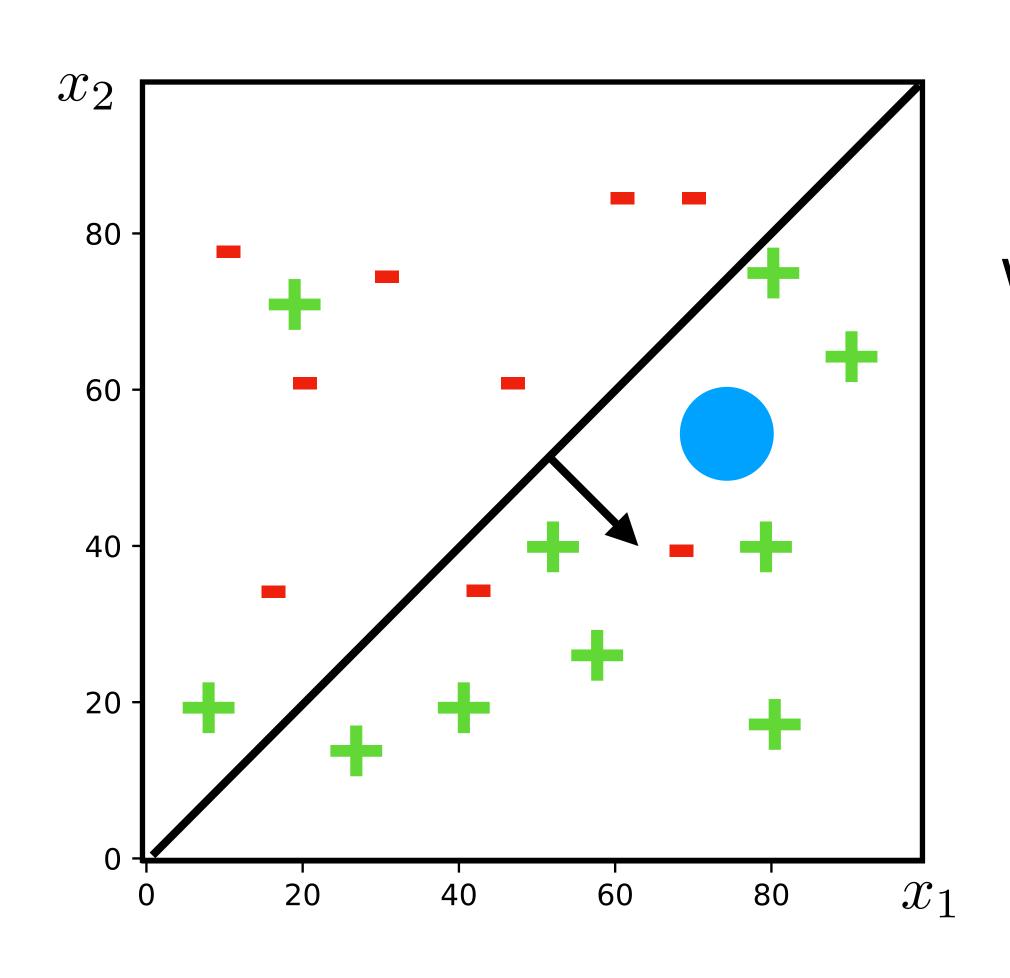
A geometric view

Consider a binary classification problem.



Consider a binary classification problem.



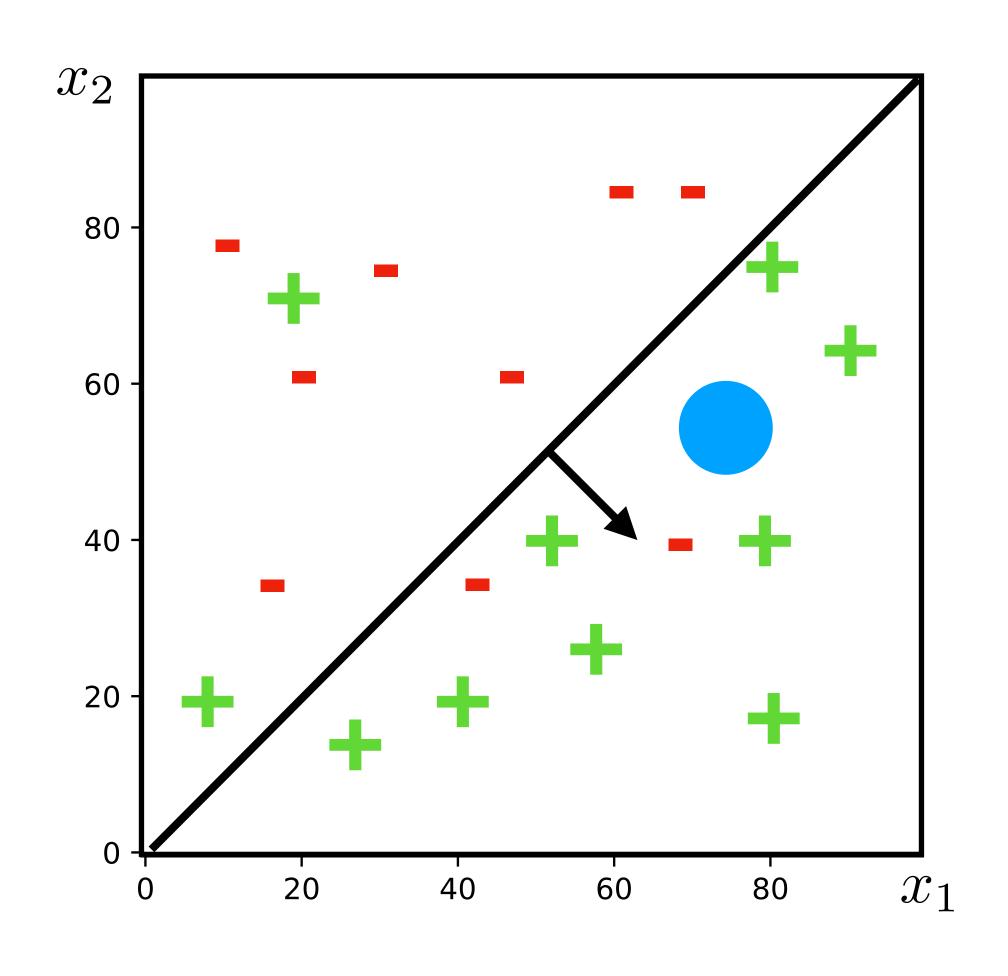


Which side of the hyperplane is x on?

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

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

"What label is point?"



Notational simplification:

Can get rid of b by "tacking on" a 1 to x

$$\hat{y} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{\mathsf{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{w}}$$

$$\tilde{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\tilde{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w \\ b \end{bmatrix}$

"What label is point?"

Multiway classification

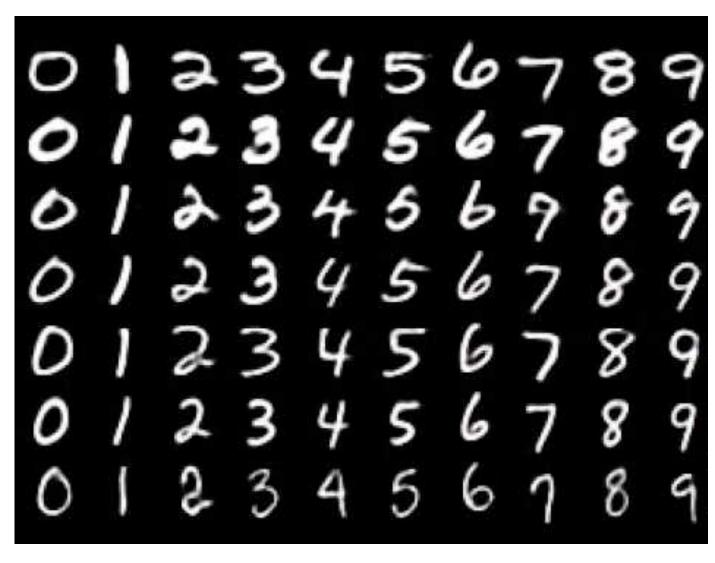
For a k-class problem, we'll make a matrix "stacking" k hyperplanes as rows of a matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$:

To classify an example: which row has the highest dot product with x?

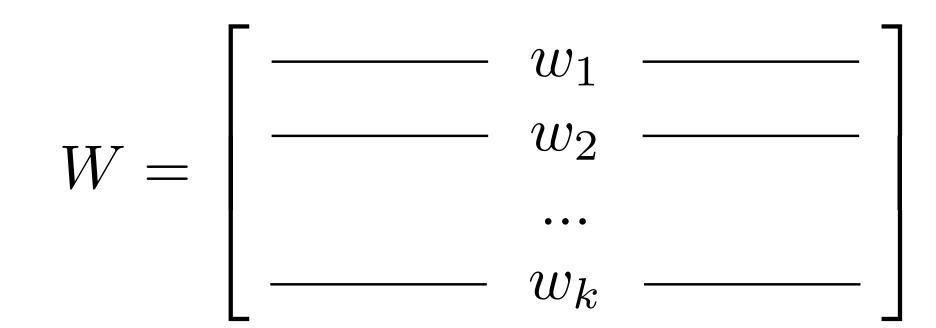
$$z = Wx + b$$
$$g(\hat{y}) = \operatorname{argmax}_k z_k$$

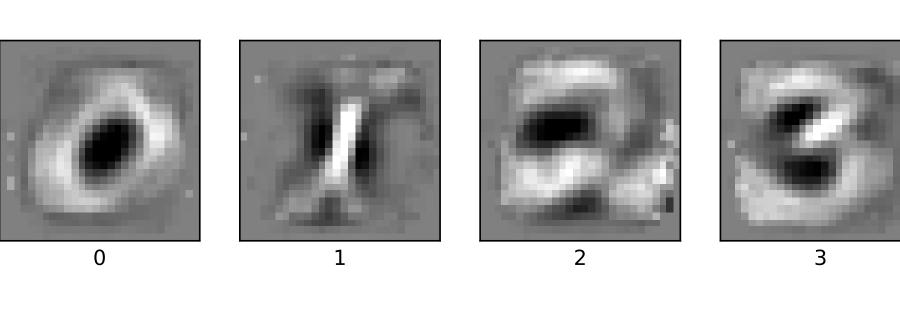
Example: handwritten digits

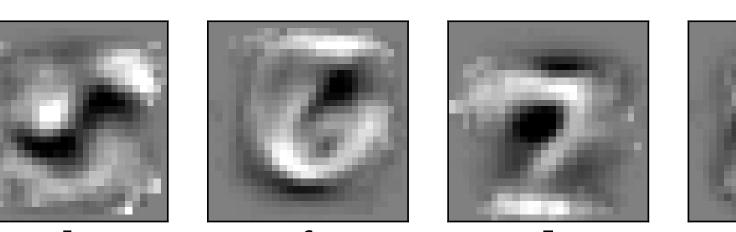
$$z = Wx + b$$
$$g(\hat{y}) = \operatorname{argmax}_k z_k$$

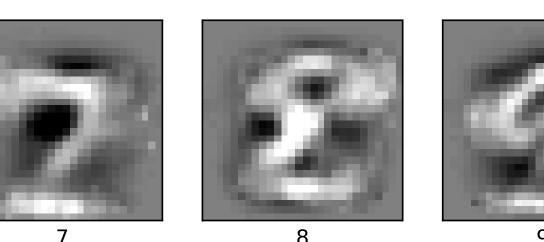


inputs



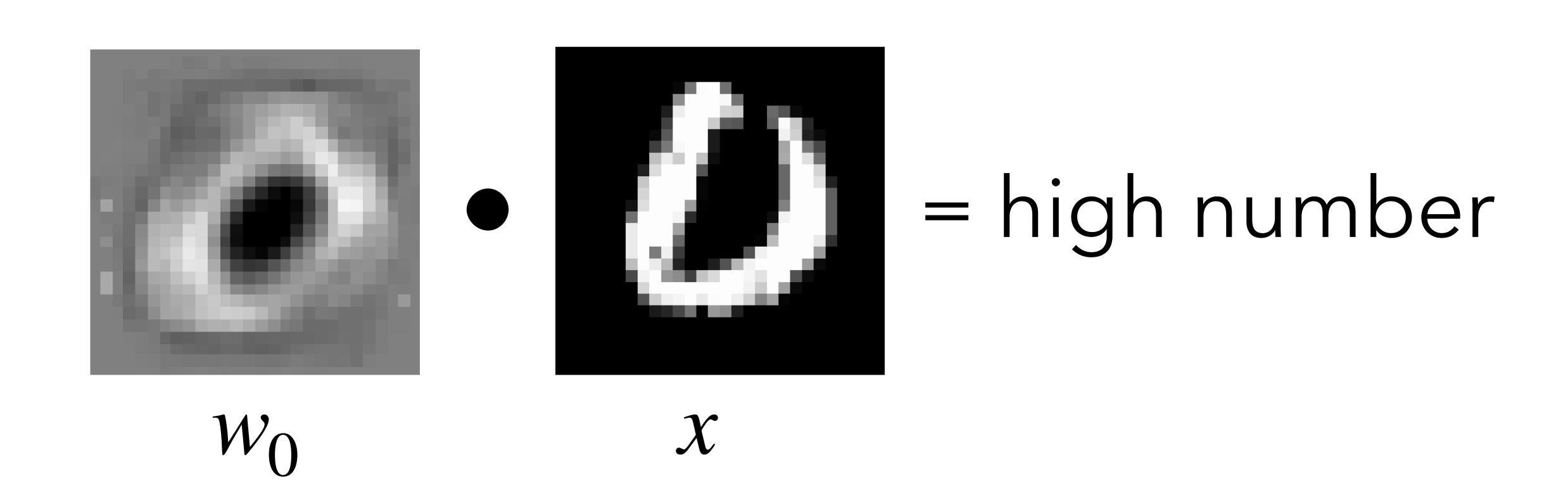




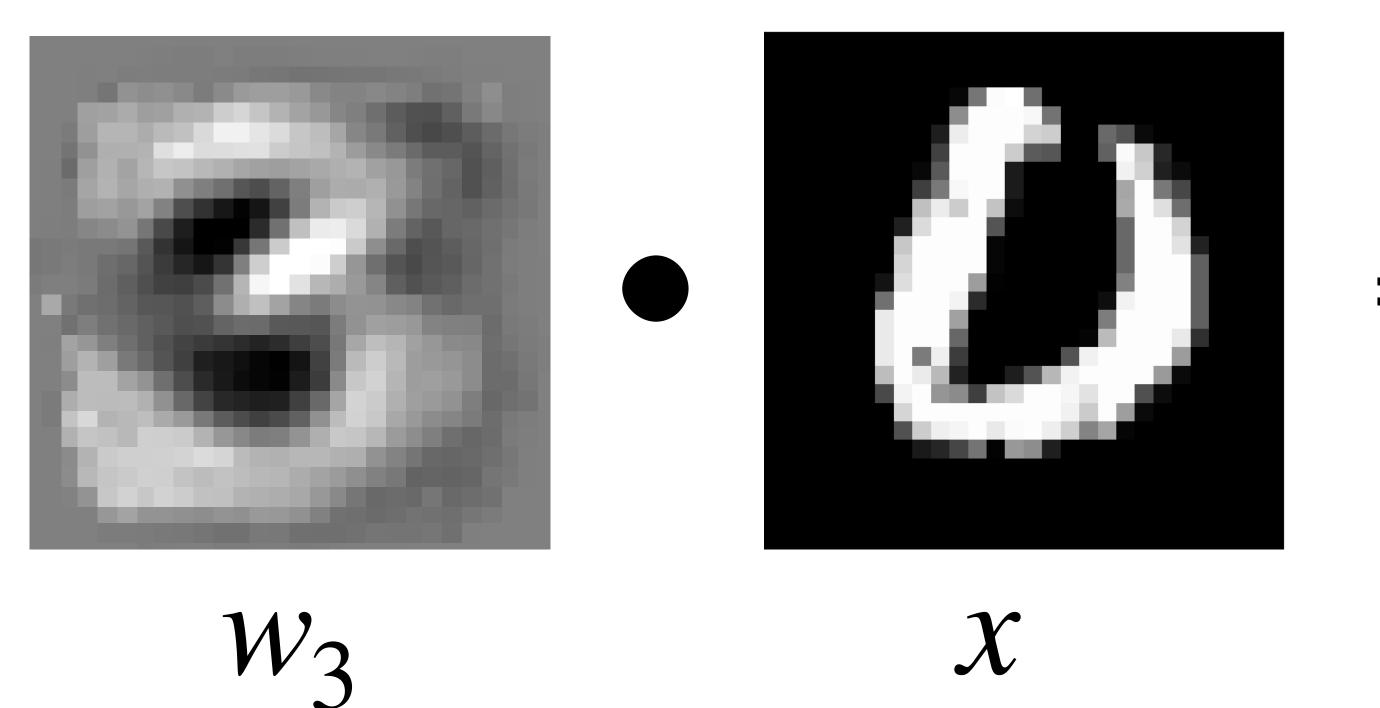


example of learned weights

Example: handwritten digits



Example: handwritten digits

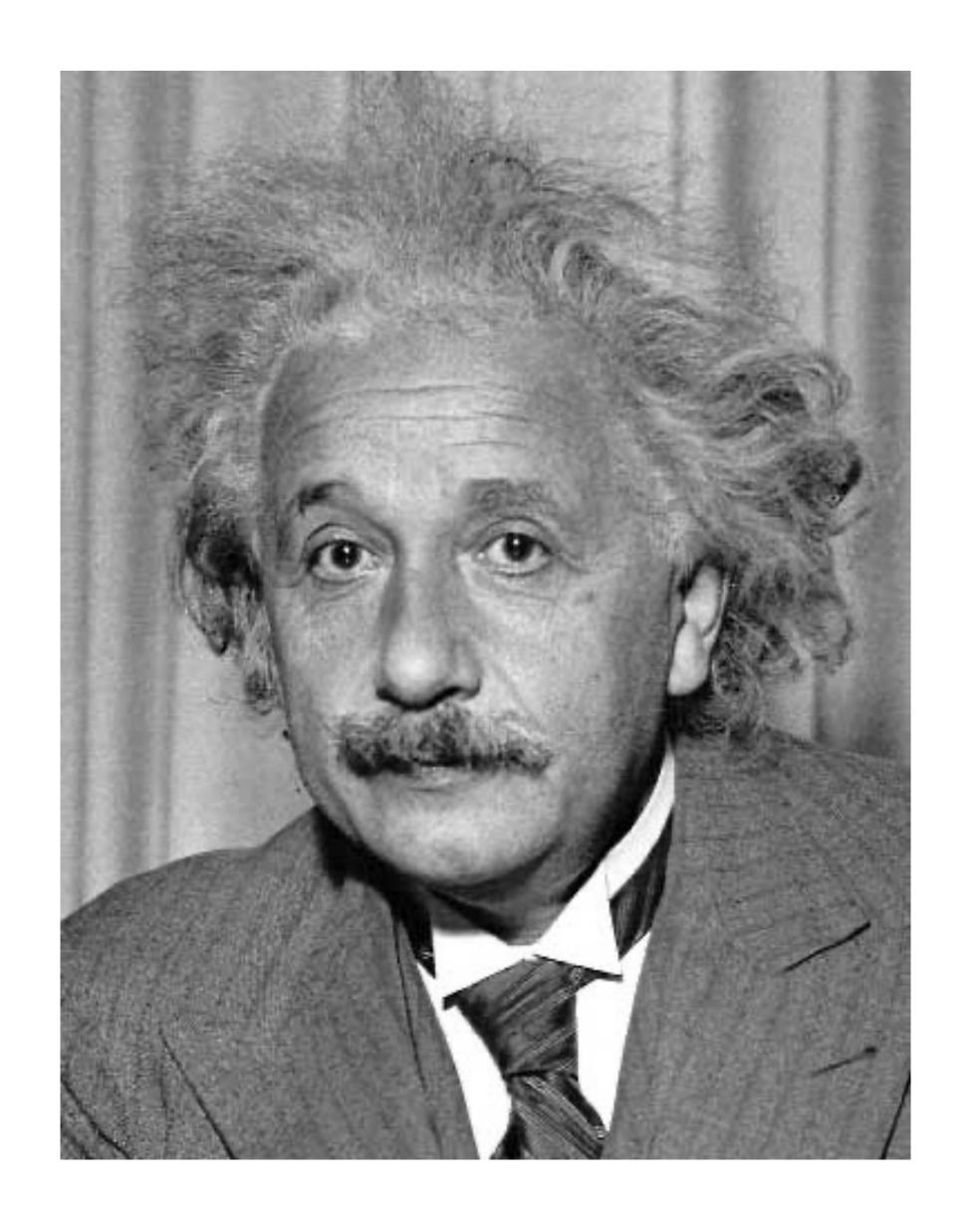


= low number

Recall: image patches as filters



Find in an image



Source: D. Hoiem 13

Converting to probabilities

We have: z = Wx + b

We want probabilistic predictions: $p(y_k|x)$

i.e.
$$\sum_{k} p(y_k | x) = 1$$
, and $p(y_k | x) \ge 0$

Solution: use the softmax function:

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{softmax}(Wx + b)$$

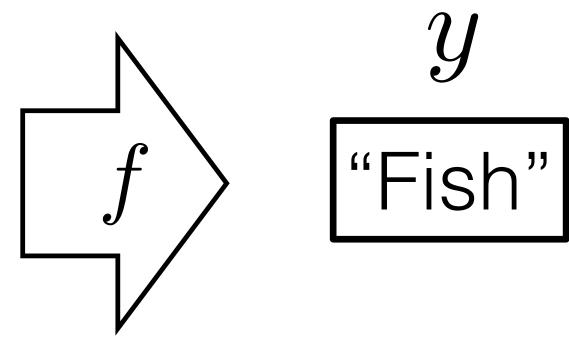
$$p(y_k | x) = \hat{y}_k$$

n:
$$n: = \frac{\text{non-negative}}{\text{sums-to-1}}$$

$$\text{oftmax}(z)_k = \frac{\exp(z_k)}{\sum_i \exp(z_i)}$$







$$\underset{f \in \mathcal{F}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(f(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{y}_i)$$

Recall: one-hot vectors

Training data Training data Training data [0,0,1]"Fish" "Grizzly" [0, 1, 0][1,0,0] "Chameleon"

Source: Isola, Torralba, Freemar

One-hot vector

Recall: loss function

0-1 loss: number of misclassifications

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{\hat{y}},\mathbf{y}) = 1 - \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{\hat{y}},\mathbf{y})$$
 — number of misclassifications

Least squares: predict 1 for true class, 0 for others

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2$$

Cross entropy: a good surrogate that we'll be able to optimize:

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{y}) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k \log \hat{y}_k$$

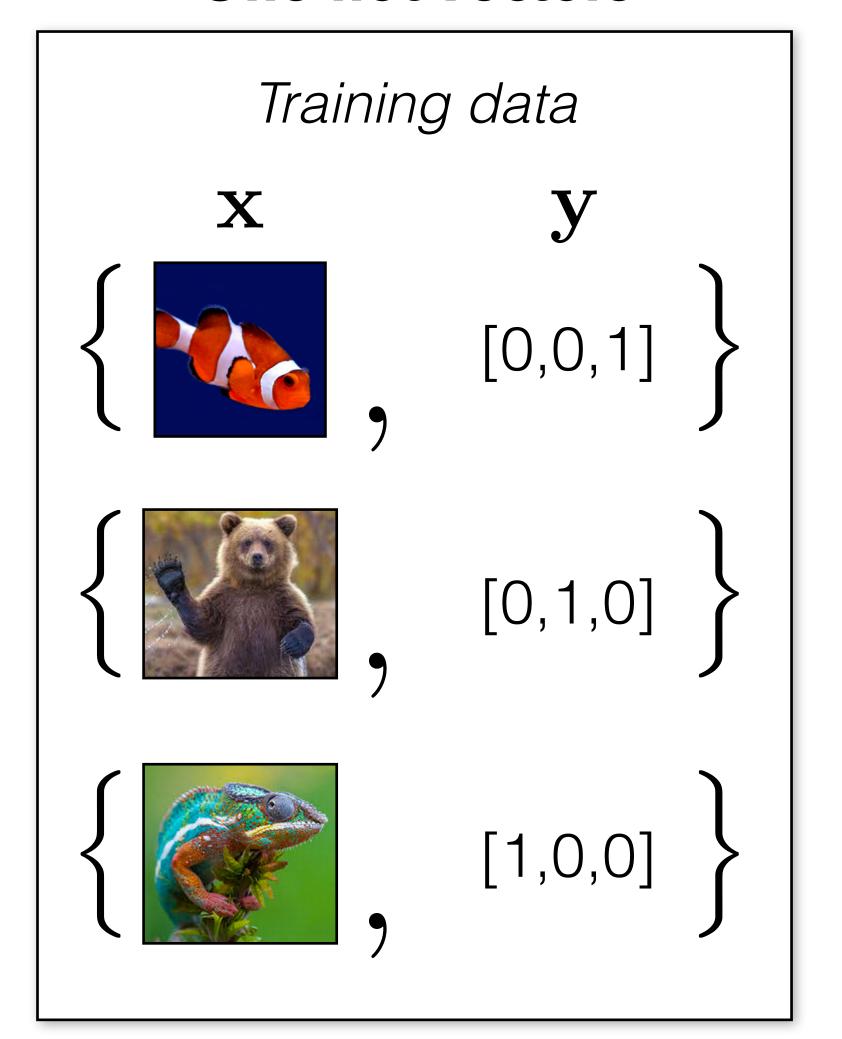
Loss function

Simpler than it looks:

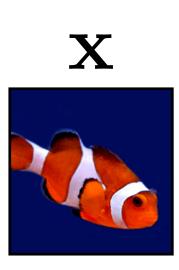
$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{y}) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k \log \hat{y}_k$$

Therefore:

One-hot vectors

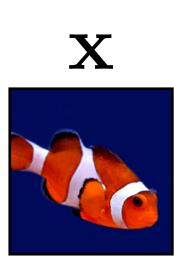


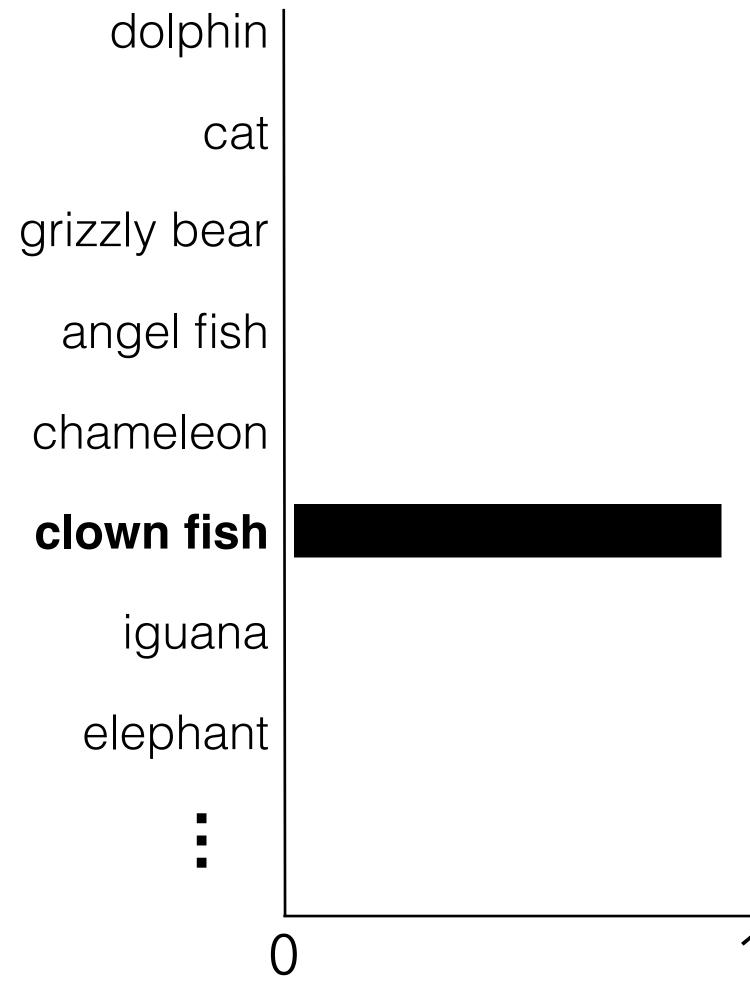
Ground truth label y

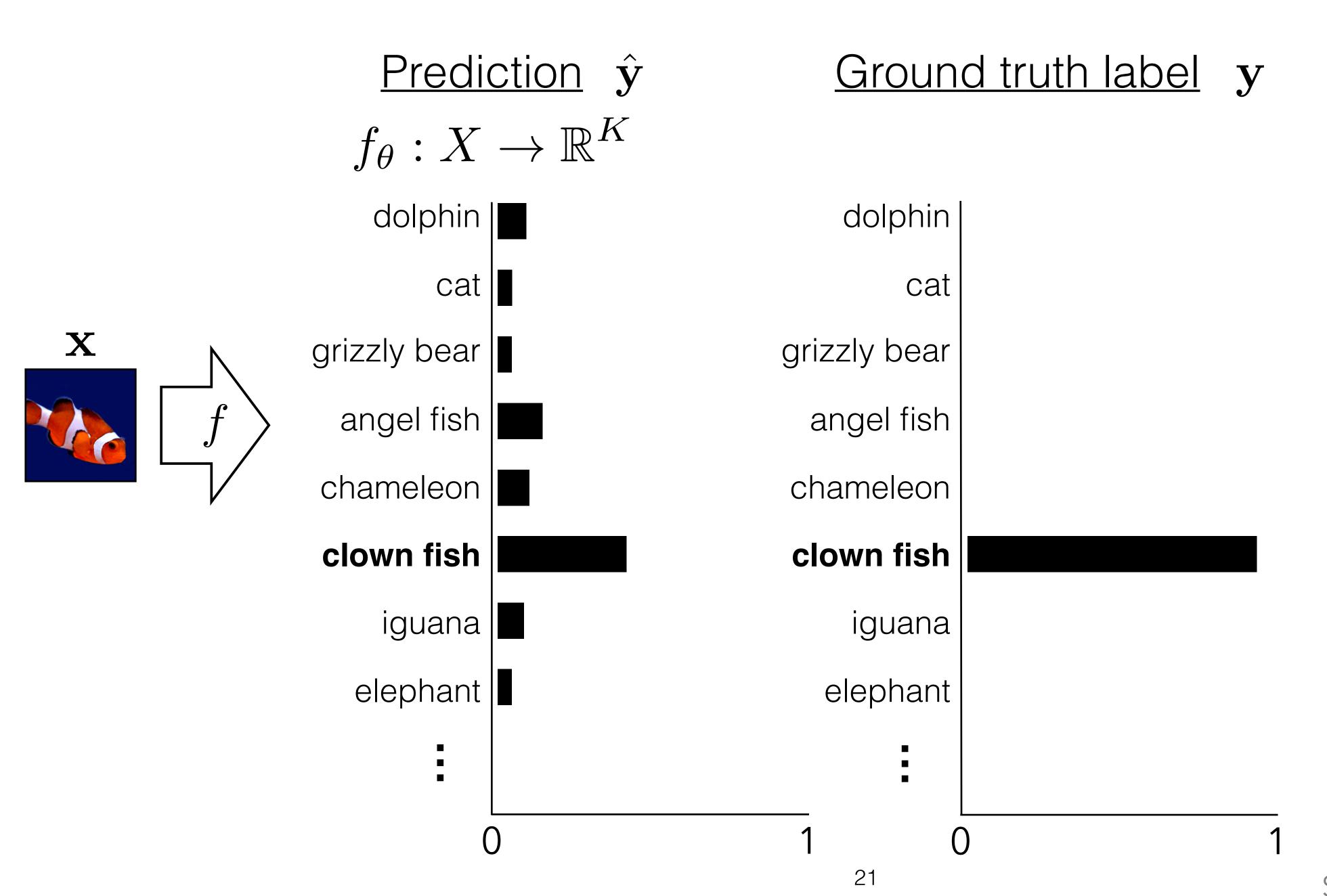


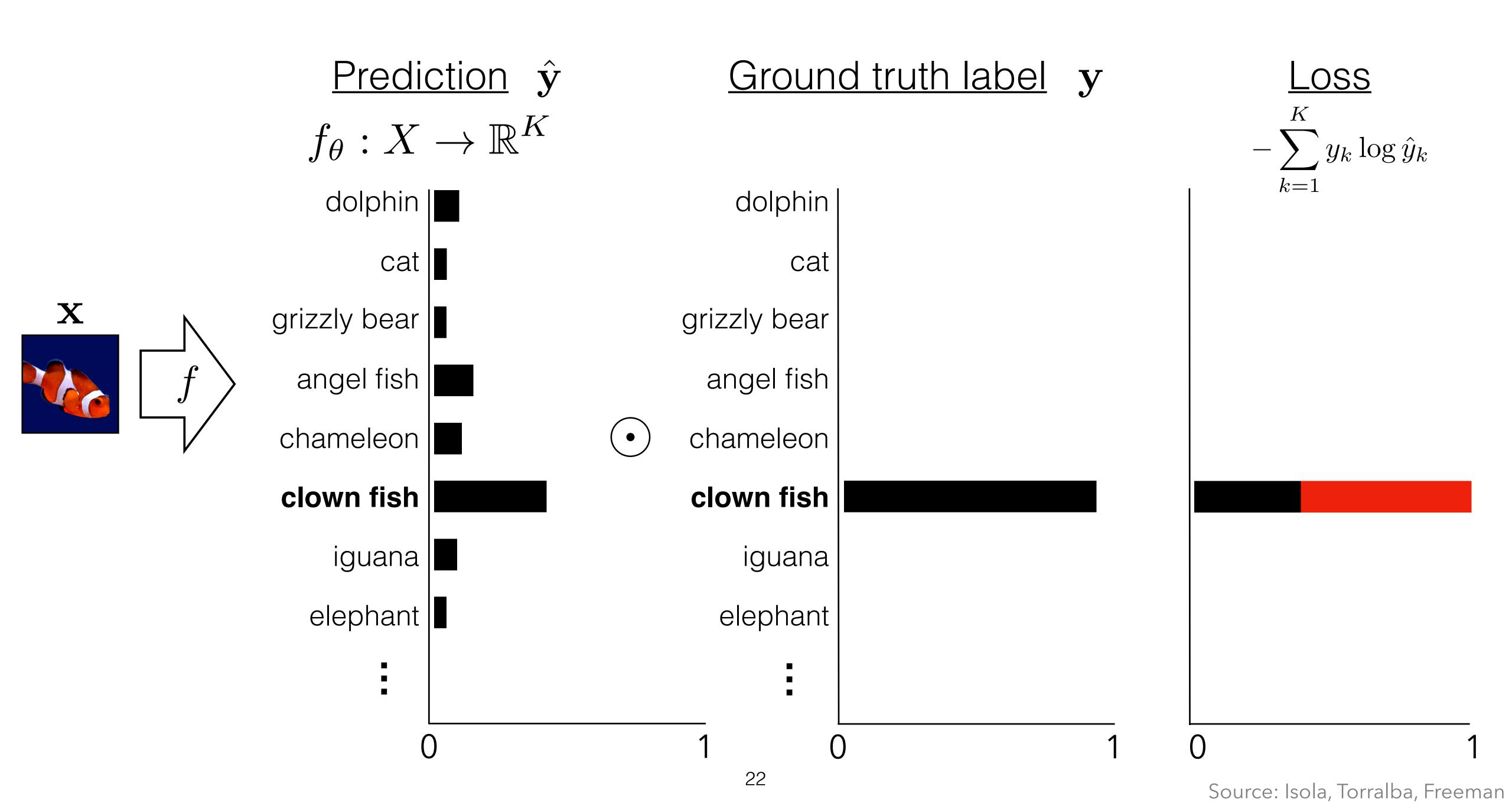
 $[0,0,0,0,0,1,0,0,\ldots]$

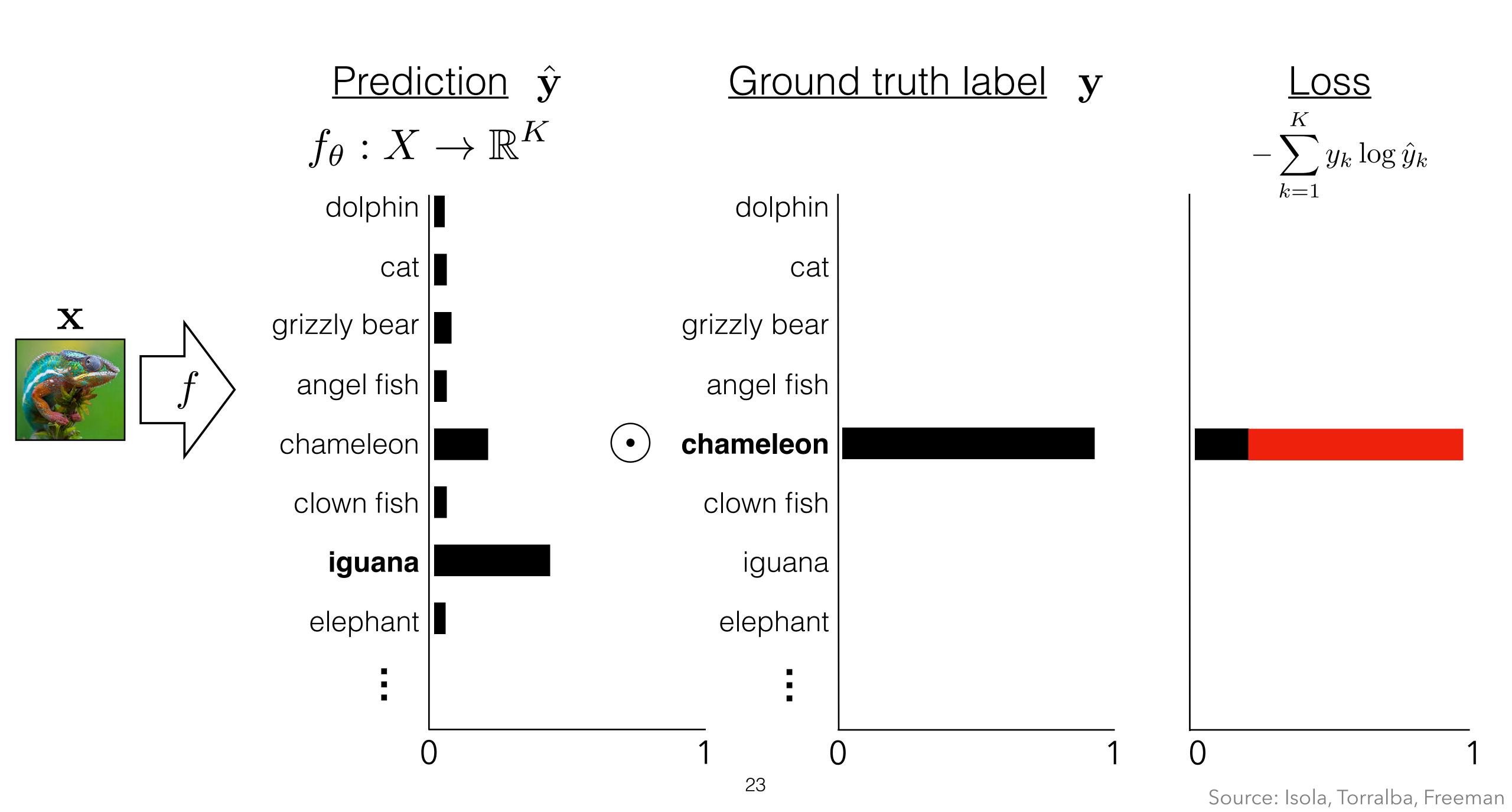
Ground truth label y











Hinge loss

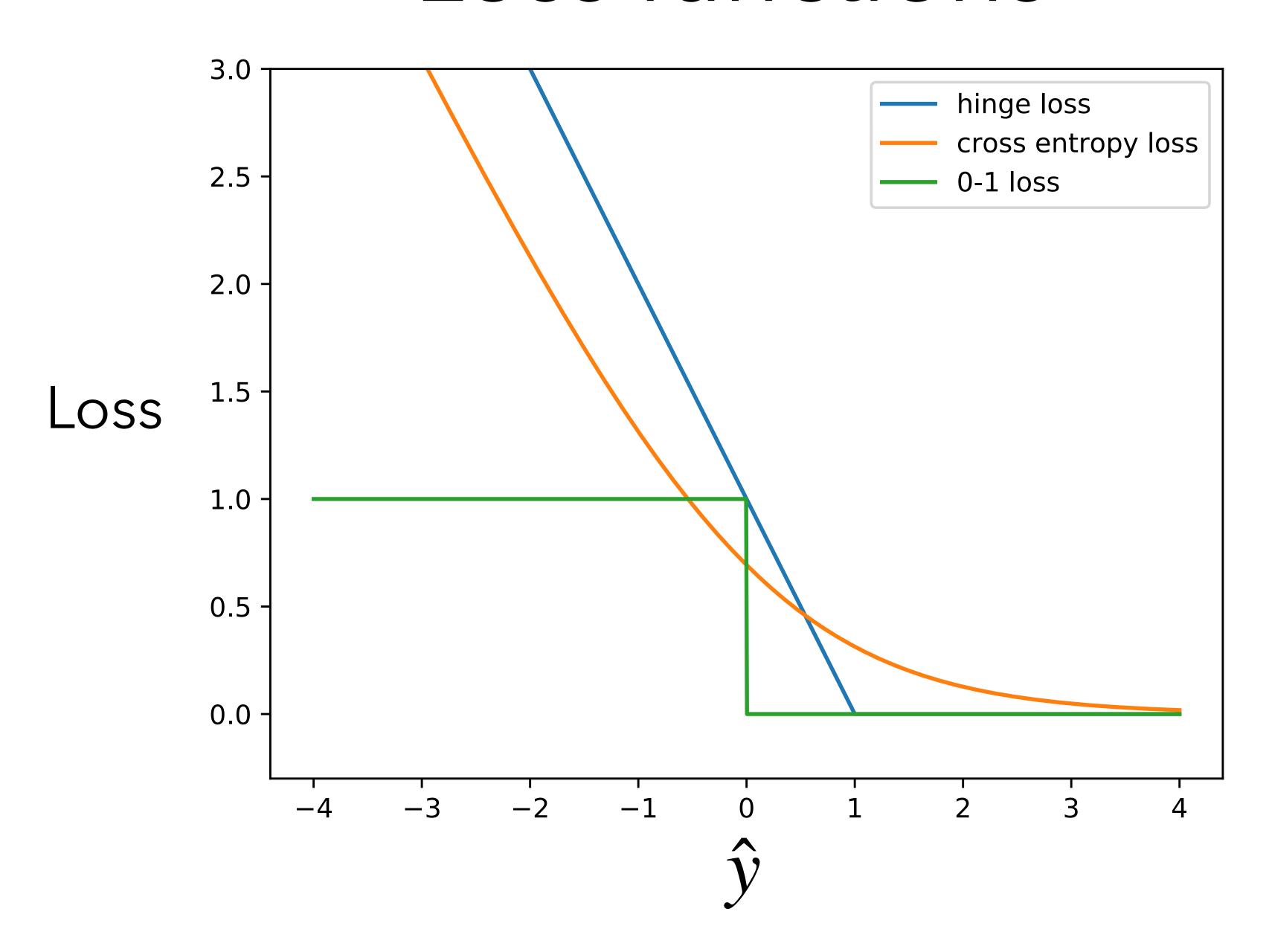
One more you might see: hinge loss

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{y}) = \max(0, 1 - y\hat{y}, 0)$$
 \longleftarrow upper bound on 0-1 loss (true class \mathbf{y} is $\{+1, -1\}$ instead of $\{0, 1\}$)

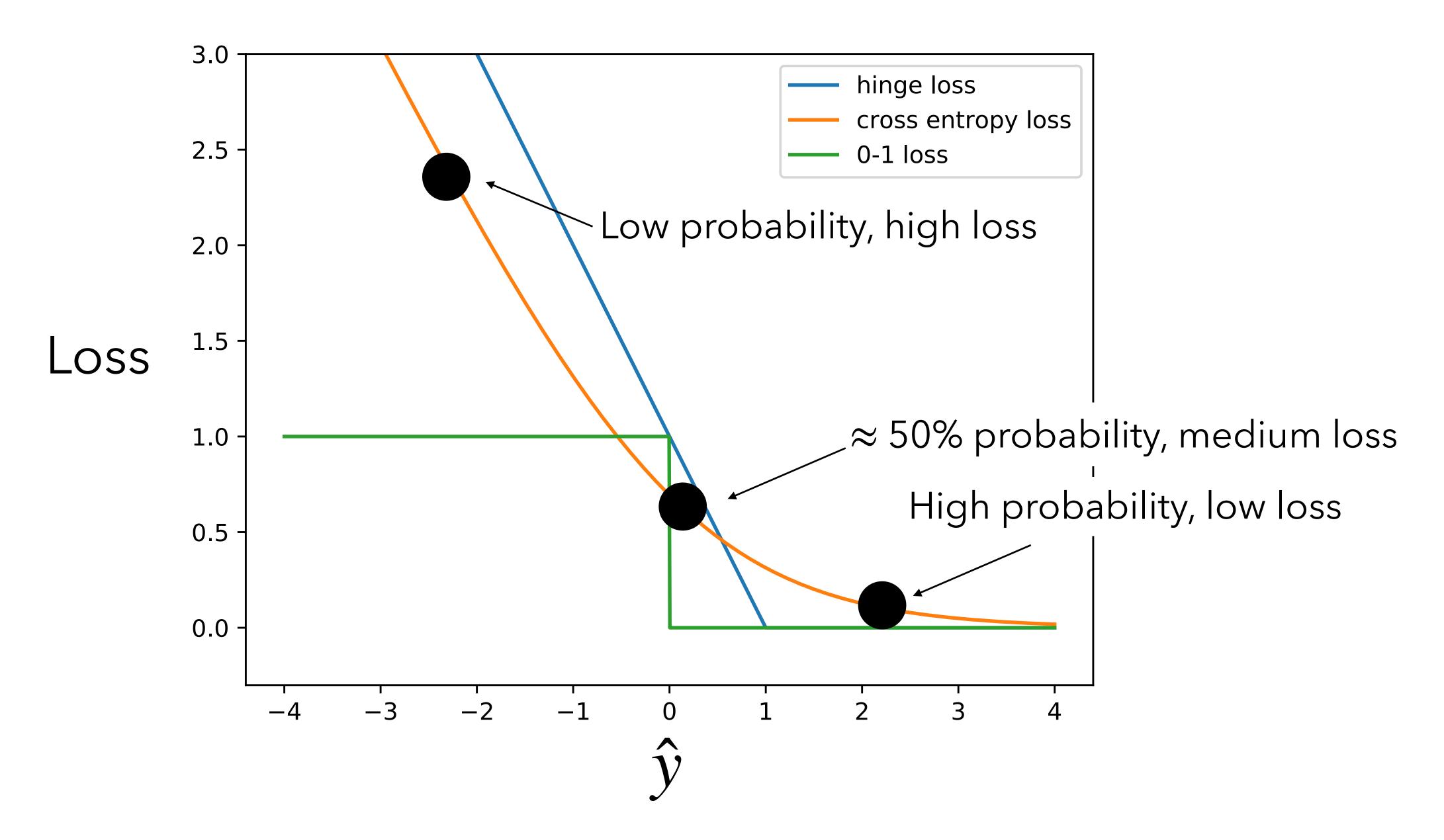
A linear classifier that uses a hinge loss is called a **support vector machine (SVM)**.

It has some very nice properties (they can be made nonlinear with "kernels"). Generally performs similar to logistic regression.

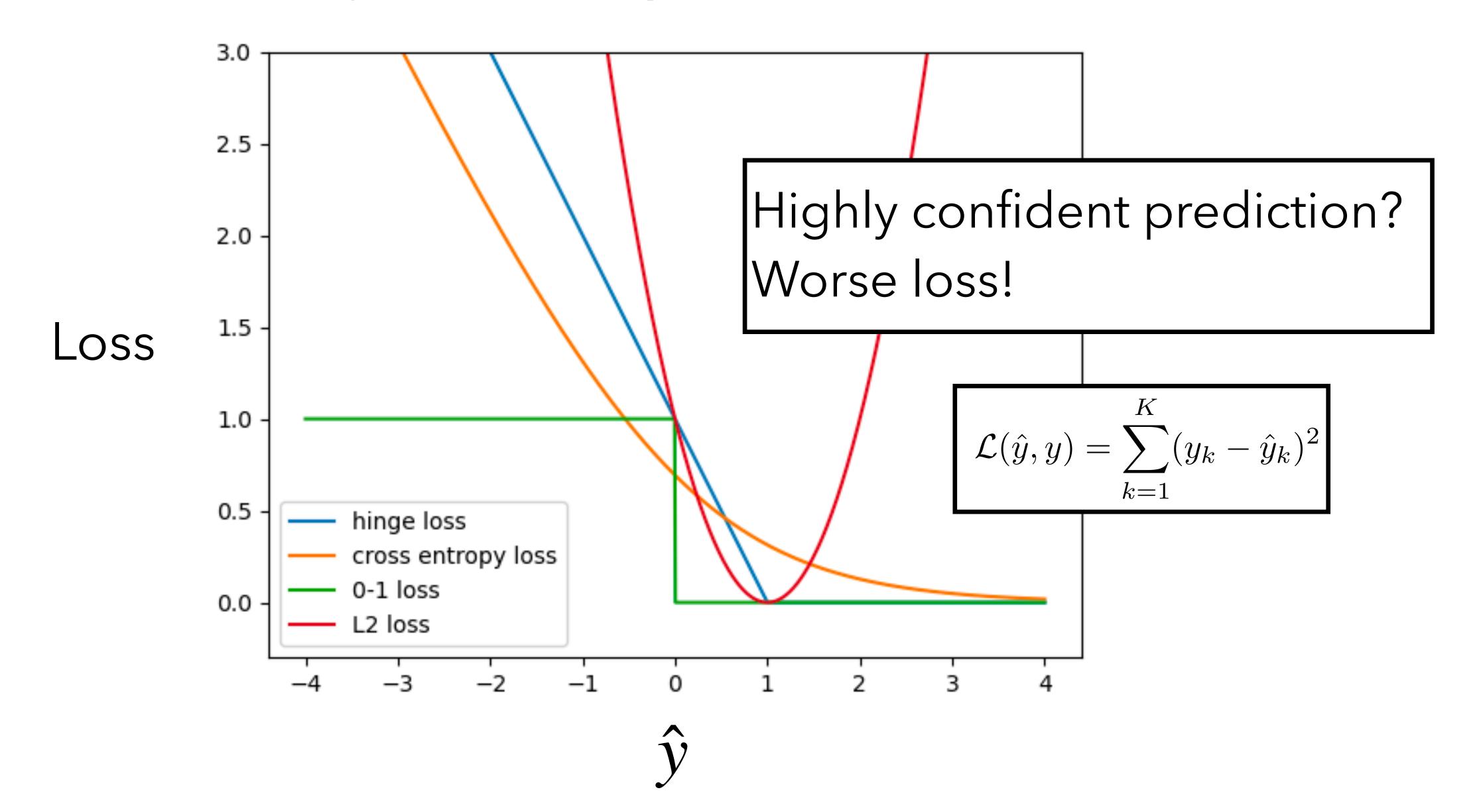
Loss functions



Loss functions



Why not squared loss?

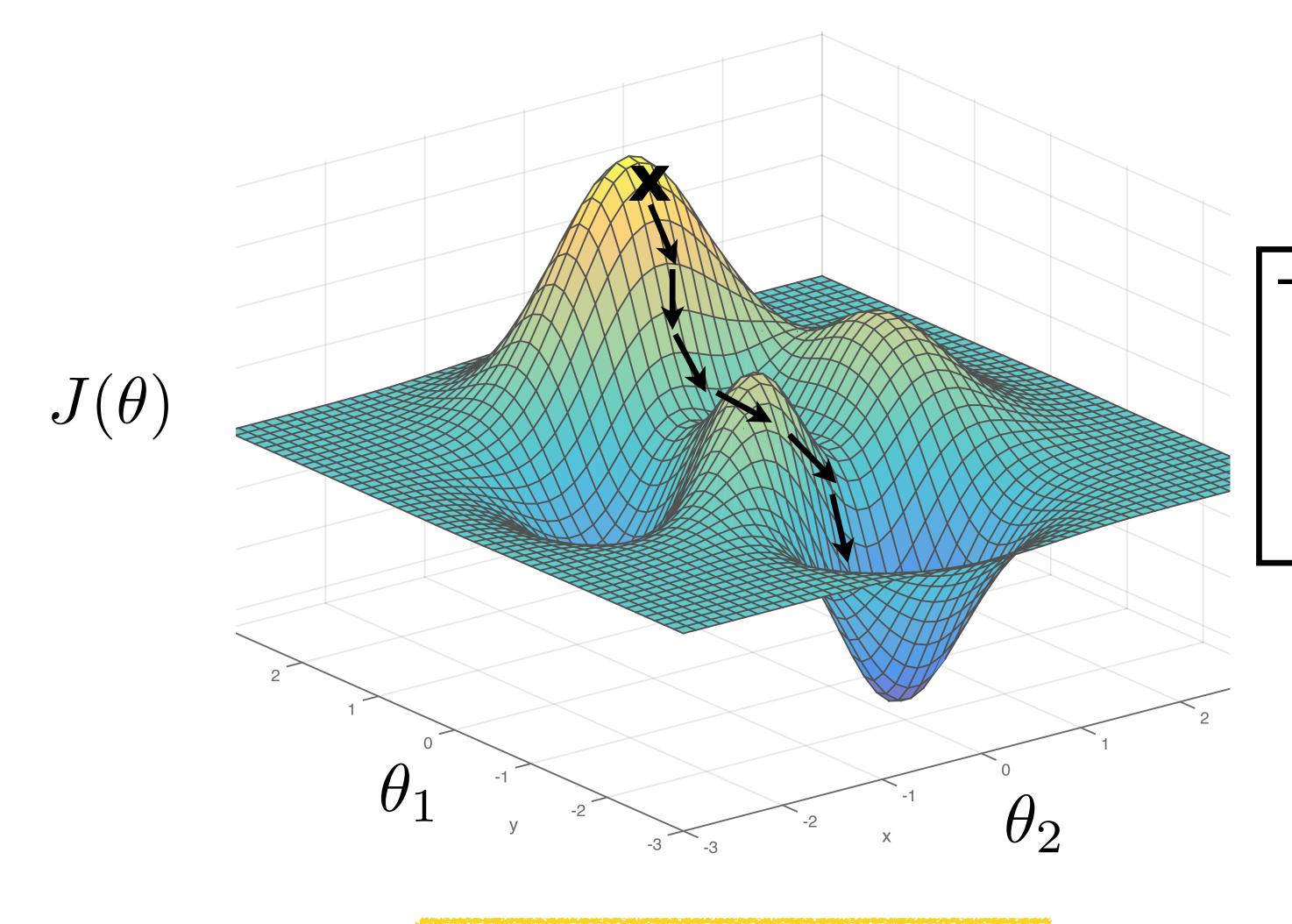


How do we learn a classifier?

$$heta^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{ heta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(f_{ heta}(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{y}_i)$$

$$\underbrace{J(heta)}$$

Source: Isola, Torralba, Freeman



Take direction of "steepest descent"

$$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} J(\theta)$$

Source: Isola, Torralba, Freeman

$$heta^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{ heta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(f_{ heta}(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{y}_i)$$

$$\underbrace{J(heta)}$$

One iteration of gradient descent:

$$heta^{t+1} = heta^t - \eta_t
abla_{ heta} J(heta) igg|_{ heta = heta^t}$$
 learning rate

Source: Isola, Torralba, Freeman

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t - \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) \Big|_{\theta = \theta^t}$$

What's this again?

- 1. Gradient of the loss w.r.t. the classifier's parameters
- 2. Direction of steepest descent
- 3. "Local" linear approximation to the function

For a refresher on gradients and partial derivatives:

https://www.khanacademy.org/math/multivariable-calculus/multivariable-derivatives#partial-derivatives

Take gradient at current θ

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t - \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) \bigg|_{\theta = \theta^t}$$

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\theta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\theta_d} \end{bmatrix}$$
 Vector of partial derivatives for loss

Estimating the gradient

Idea #1: finite differences $\underline{f(x+\epsilon)-f(x)}$

$$\nabla J(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\theta_2} \\ \cdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\theta_d} \end{bmatrix} \approx \frac{J(\theta + \epsilon e_2) - J(\theta - \epsilon e_2)}{2\epsilon}$$
 where e_2 is vector of zeros except for a 1 in 2nd component

Estimating the gradient

Idea #1: finite differences
$$\underline{f(x+\epsilon)-f(x)}$$

$$\nabla J(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\theta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\theta_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Easy to compute but slow!
- Inaccurate in some cases, unless careful
 - Useful for checking other methods

Estimating the gradient

Idea #2: compute it analytically using calculus.

Simple example: binary labels, squared loss, and regularization on θ

$$J(\theta) = \frac{\lambda ||\theta||^2}{N} + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x_i)^2$$

$$\nabla_{\theta} \qquad \qquad |$$

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} 2(y_i - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x_i) x_i$$

Analyzing the gradient descent update

Recall update rule: $\theta^{t+1}=\theta^t-\eta_t\nabla_\theta J(\theta)\Big|_{\theta=\theta^t}$ How does this change θ ?

$$-\nabla_{\theta}J(\theta) =$$

Analyzing the gradient descent update

Recall update rule: $\theta^{t+1}=\theta^t-\eta_t\nabla_\theta J(\theta)\Big|_{\theta=\theta^t}$ How does this change θ ?

"Decay" toward 0 Scalar
$$\alpha_i$$
 per example
$$-\nabla_{\theta}J(\theta) = -2\lambda\theta - \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{2(y_i - \theta^{\mathsf{T}}x_i)x_i}{2(y_i - \theta^{\mathsf{T}}x_i)x_i}$$

Analyzing the gradient descent update

What happens at each example?

Scalar
$$\alpha_i$$

$$-\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = -2\lambda \theta - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} 2(y_i - \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x_i) x_i$$

If $\theta^T x_i < y$ (too low): then $\theta_{t+1} = \theta + \alpha x_i$ for some $\alpha > 0$

Dot product before: $\theta^{\mathsf{T}} x_i$

Dot product after: $(\theta + \alpha x_i)^{\mathsf{T}} x_i = \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x_i + \alpha x_i^{\mathsf{T}} x_i$

Computational issues

Batch gradient descent

Loss function:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(x_i, y_i, \theta)$$

Its gradient is the sum of gradients for each example:

$$\nabla J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla L(x_i, y_i, \theta)$$

Problem: requires iterating over every training example each gradient step!

Can we speed this up?

Stochastic gradient descent

This is just an average!

$$\nabla J(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla L(x_i, y_i, \theta)$$

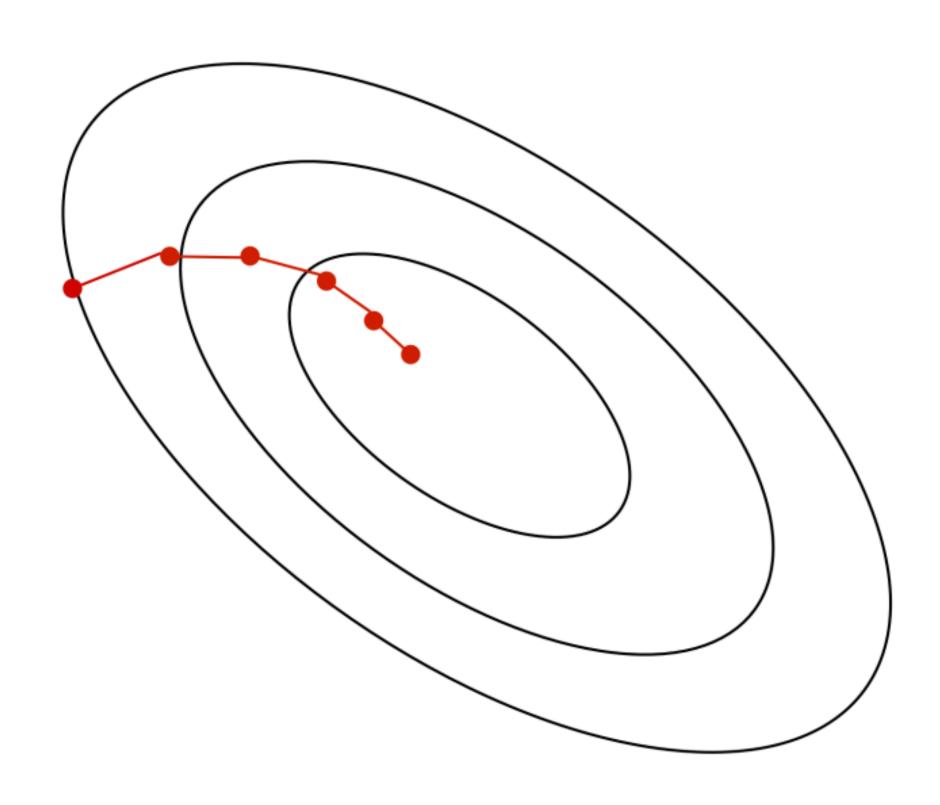
We know from statistics that we can estimate the average of a full "population" from a *sample*.

$$\nabla J(\theta) \approx \frac{1}{|B|} \sum_{i \in B} \nabla L(x_i, y_i, \theta)$$

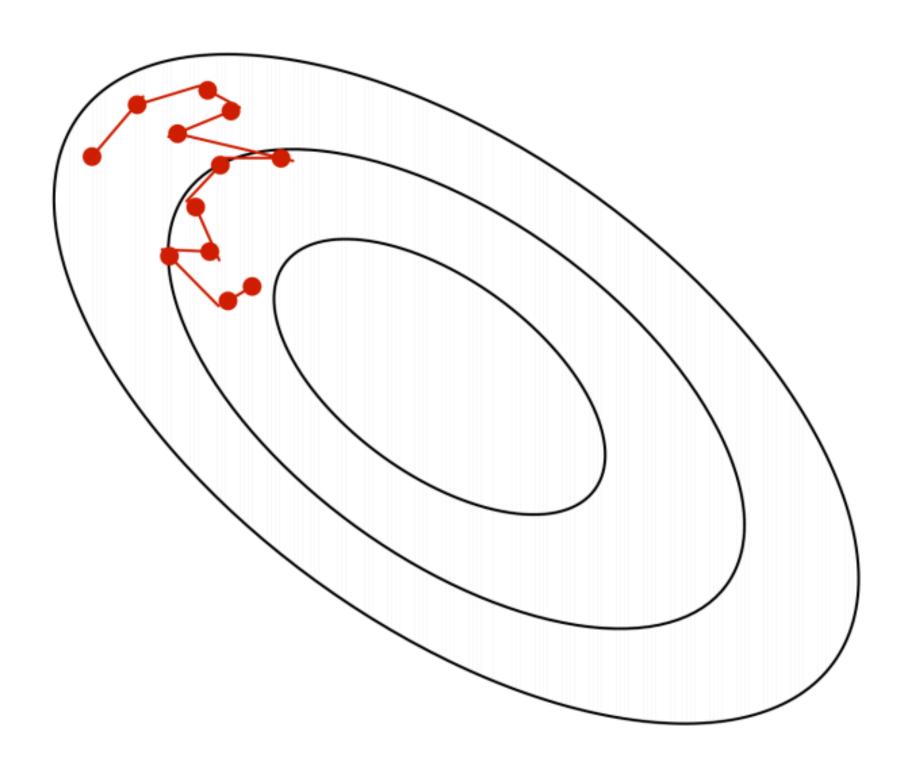
where B is a minibatch: a random subset of examples.

This is called stochastic gradient descent (SGD).

Stochastic gradient descent



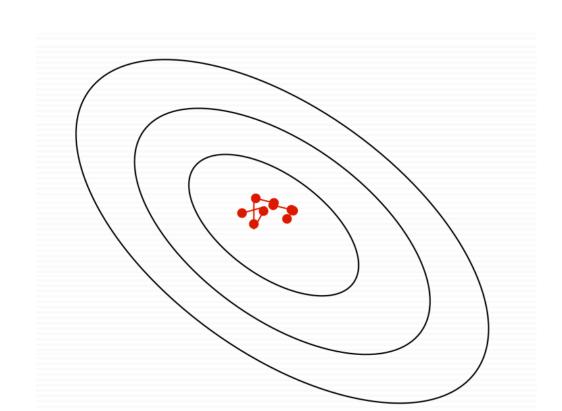
Batch gradient descent



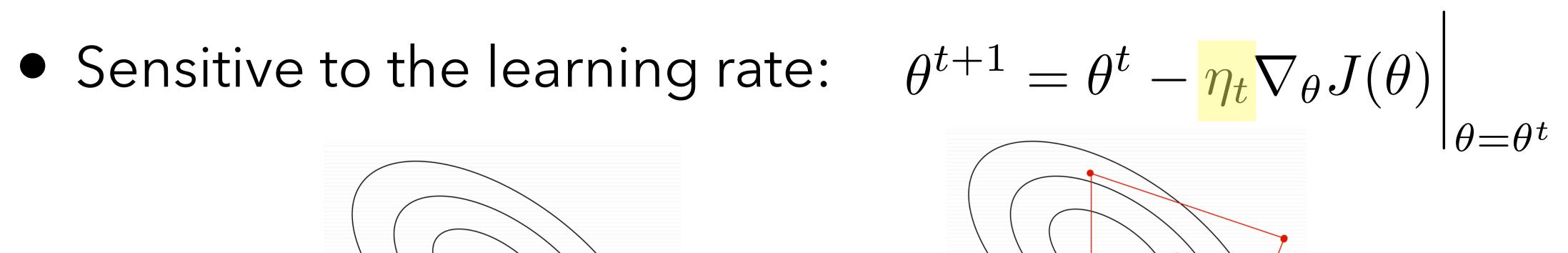
Stochastic gradient descent

Source: R. Grosse

Learning rate

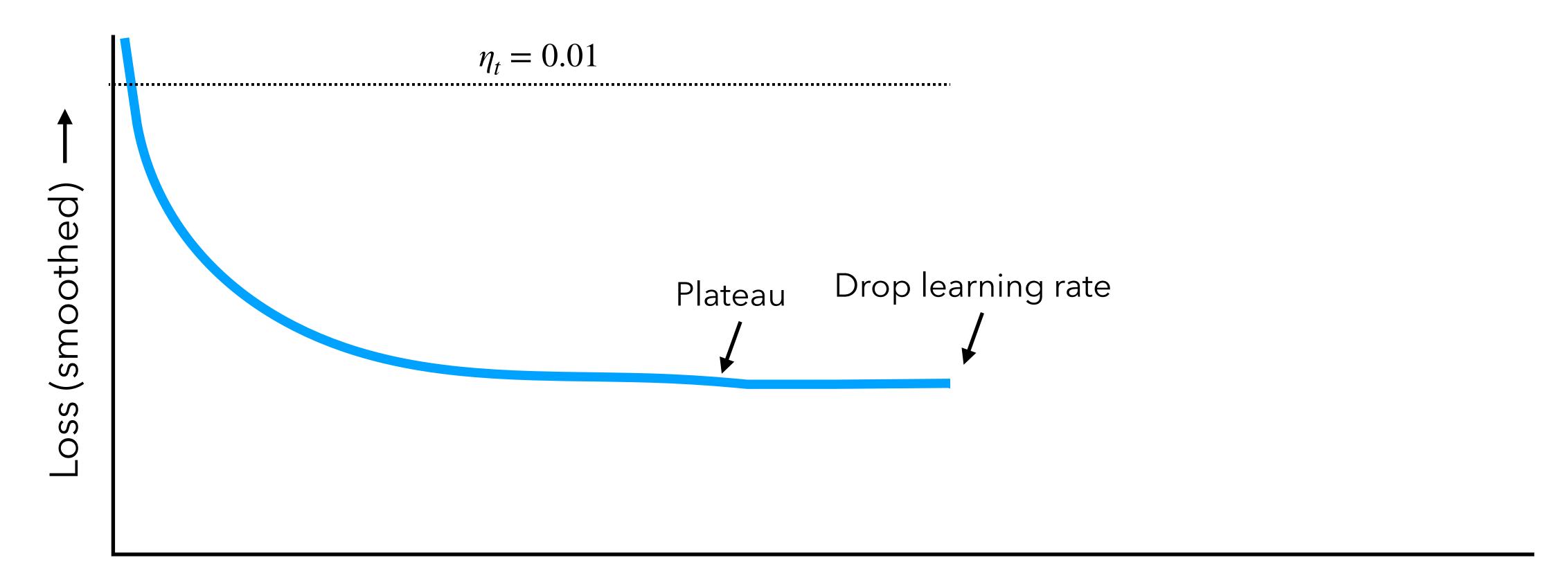


Small learning

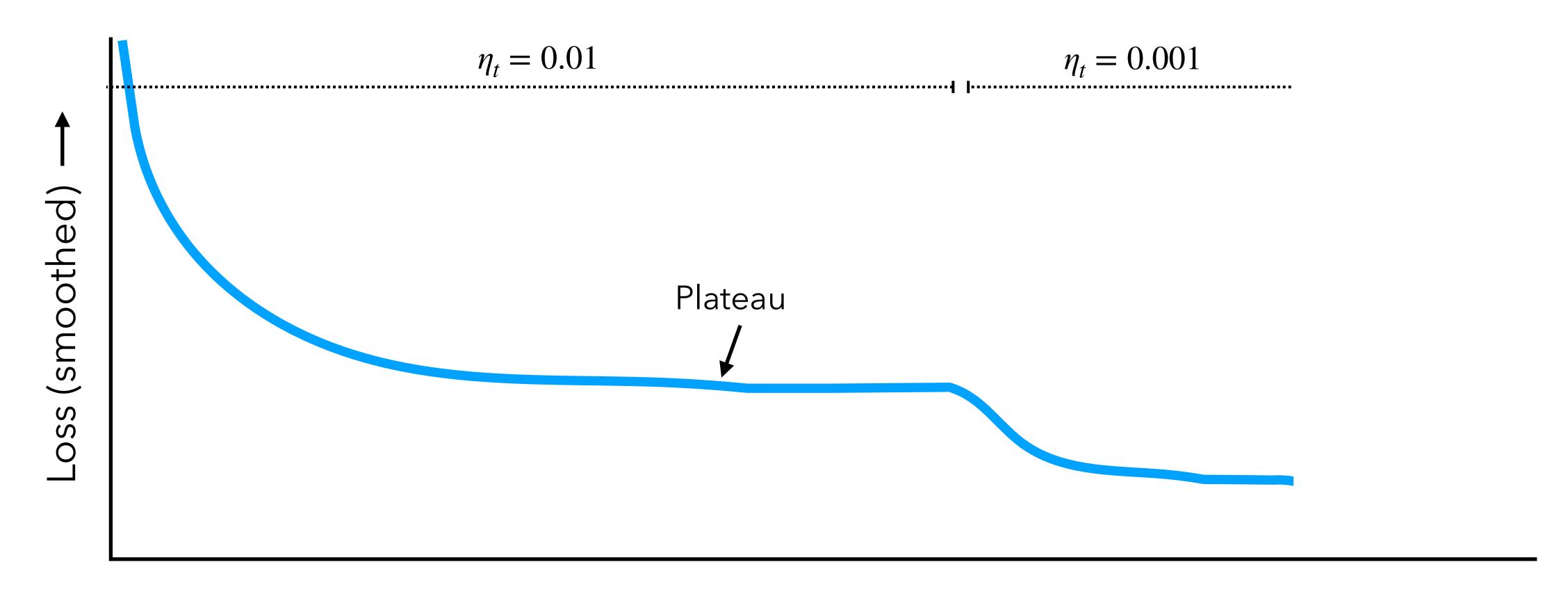


Large learning rate

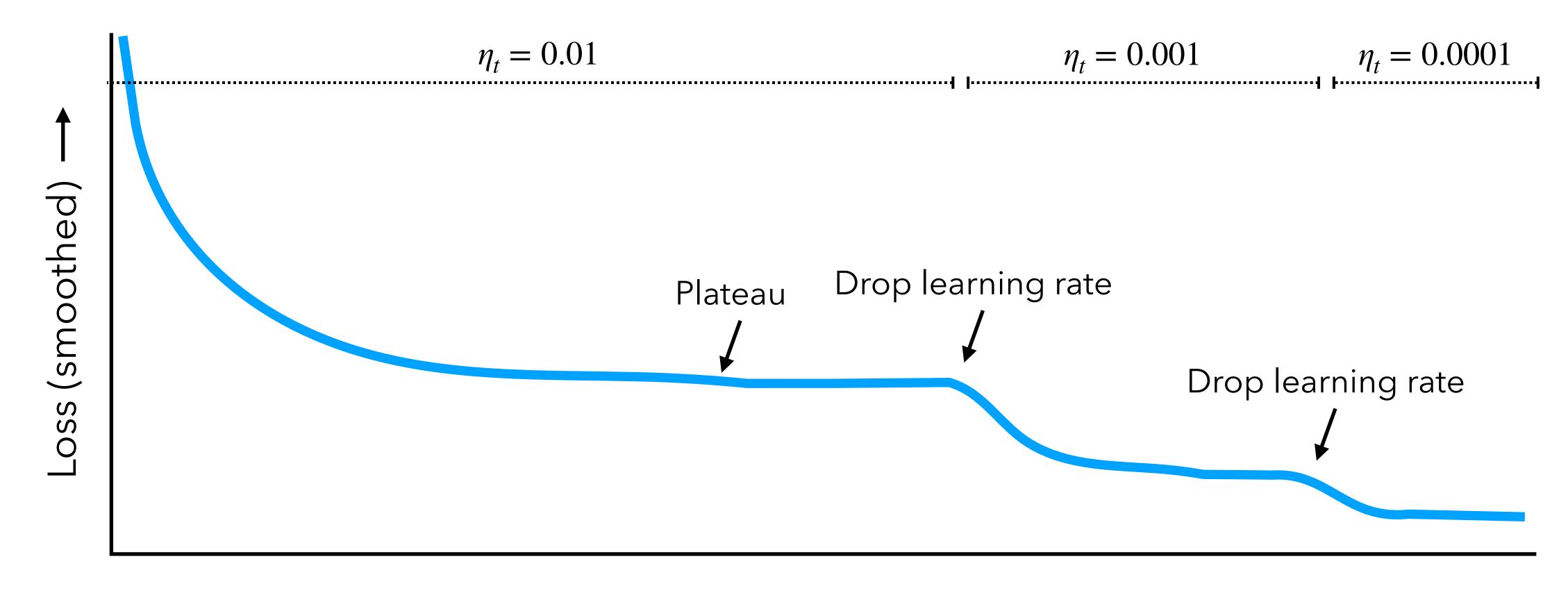
• Start with high learning rate, and decrease over time.



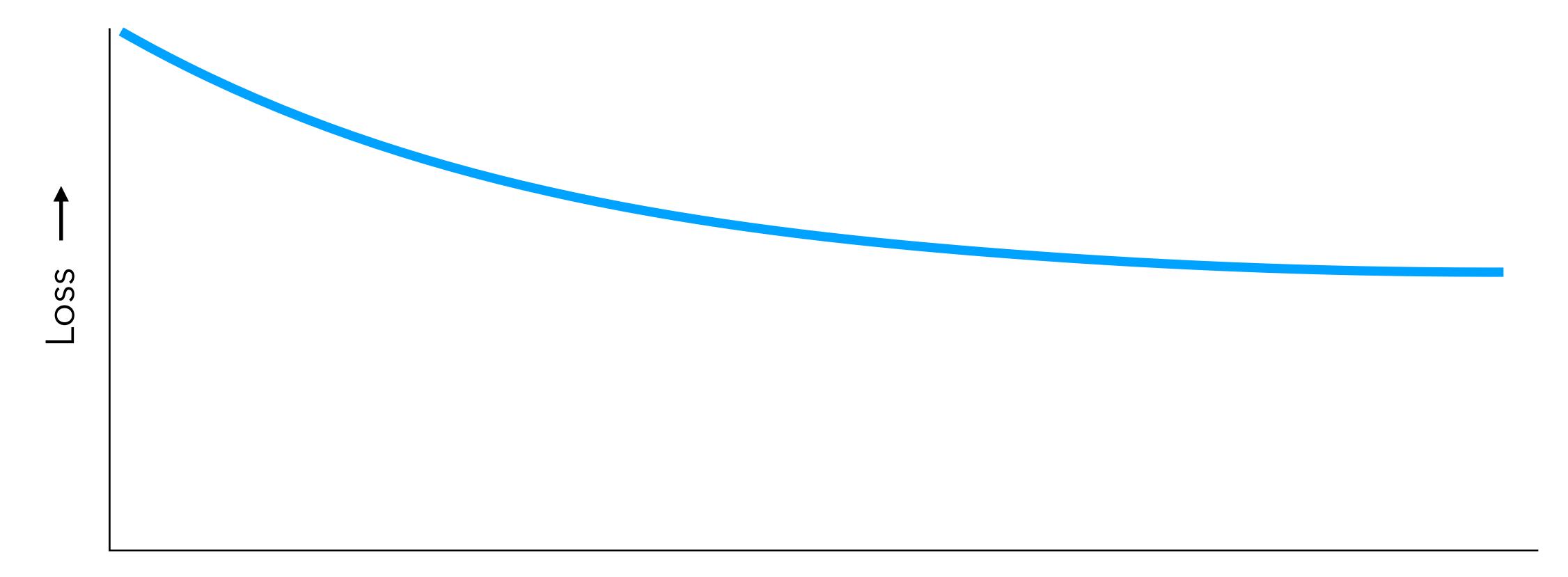
• Start with high learning rate, and decrease over time.



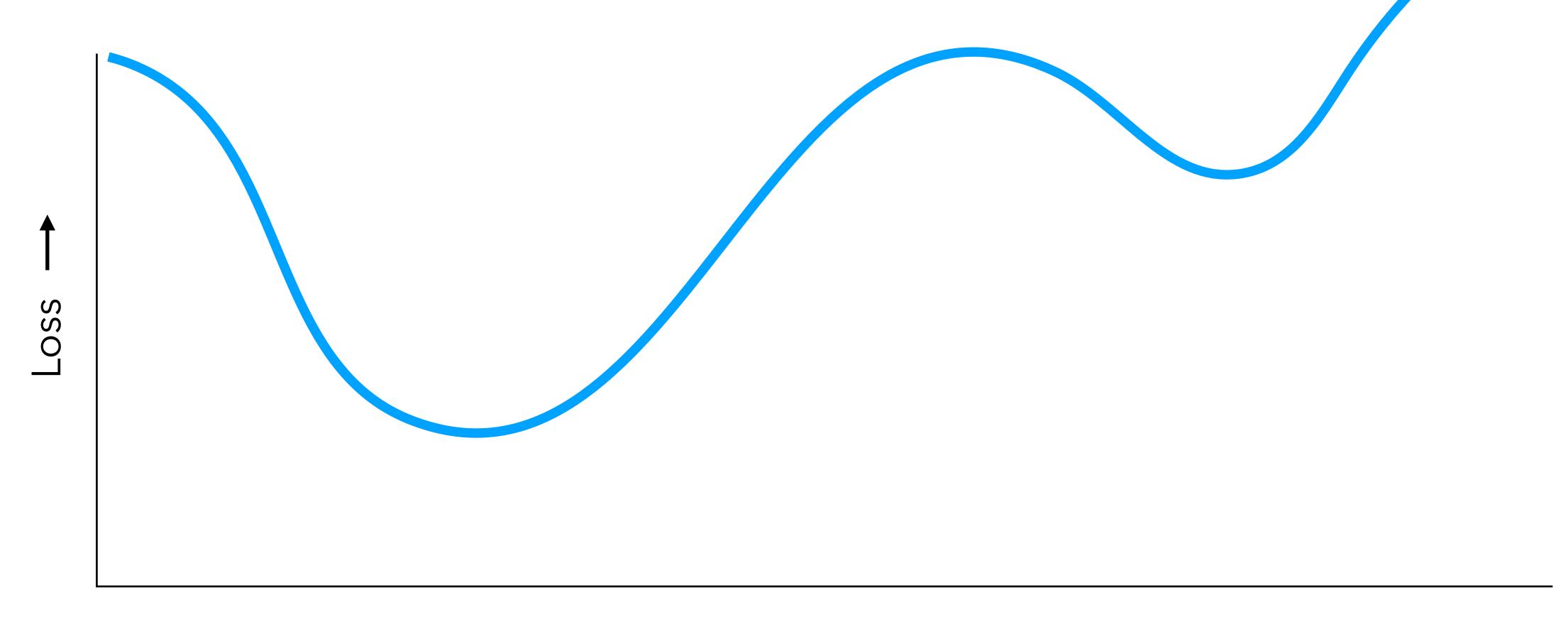
• Start with high learning rate, and decrease over time.



- What if you always use a small learning rate?
- Loss goes down extremely slowly



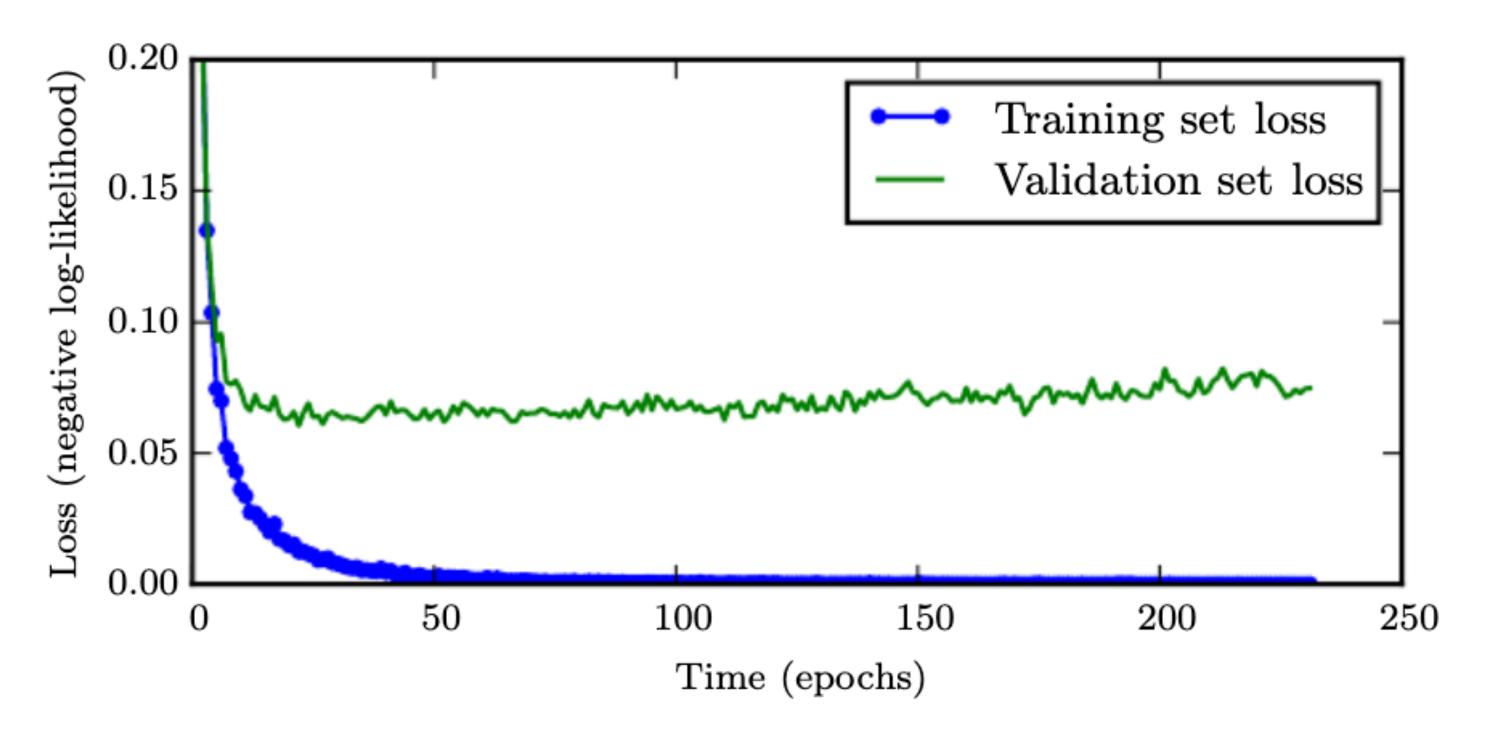
• Learning rate too high? Unstable!



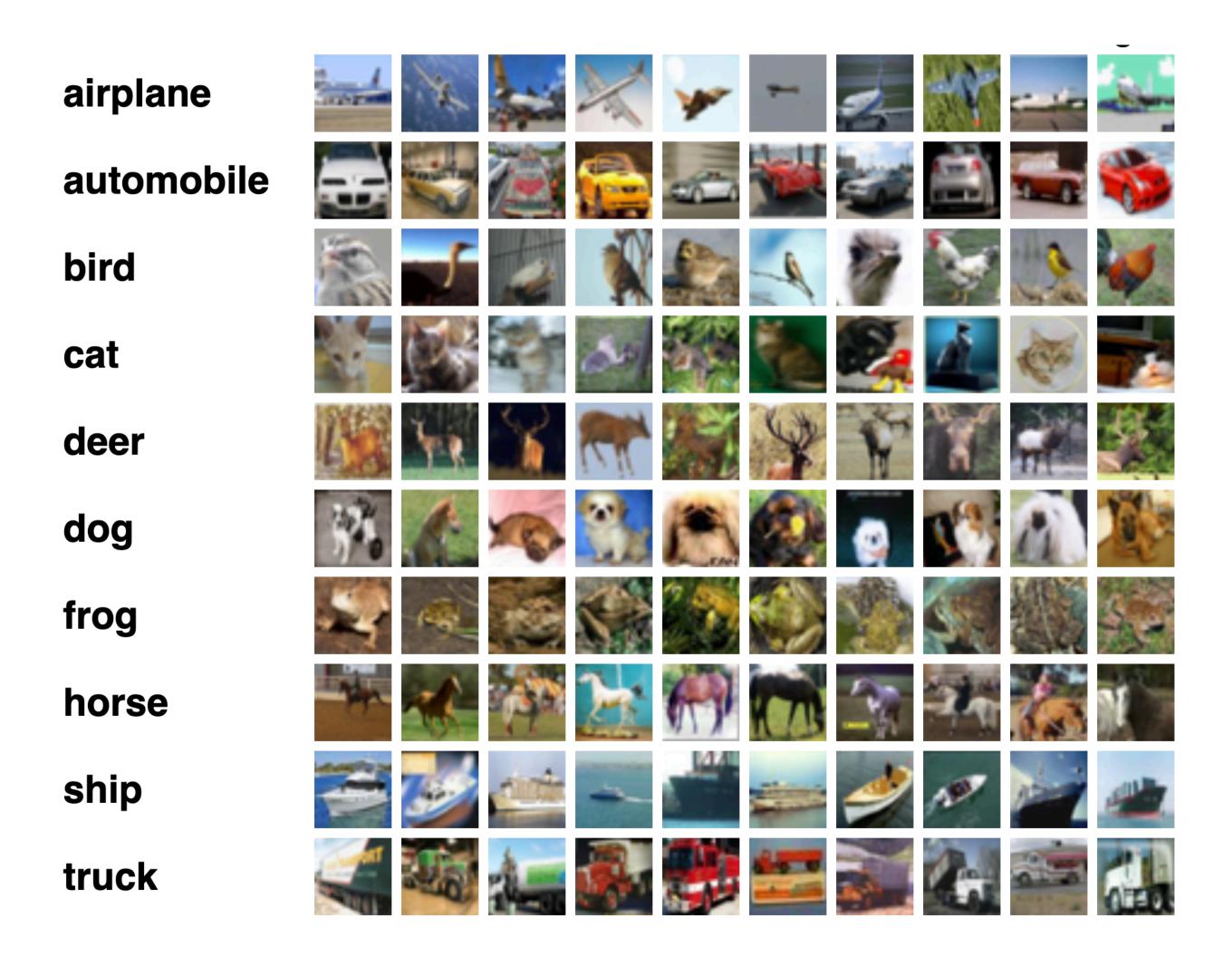
- Choosing the initial learning rate is surprisingly hard. Often requires grid search, i.e., trying many rates and choosing the best.
- When do you drop the learning rate? Some strategies:
 - Wait until validation or training loss plateaus, then drop it (e.g., by a factor of 10).
 - Smoothly drop the learning rate over time. Requires choosing the rate of dropping.
 - Warm up: make the beginning of training easier. Start learning rate at 0 and gradually increase for the first few iterations.
- Another option: decrease *and* increase the learning rate using a periodic function (e.g., cosine) [Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017]

Regularization

- ullet As before, add L_2 regularization $R(heta) = \| heta\|^2$ model parameters.
- Early stopping: stop training when validation loss increases, and revert to previous checkpoint.



PS2: intro to machine learning



Part #1: classification

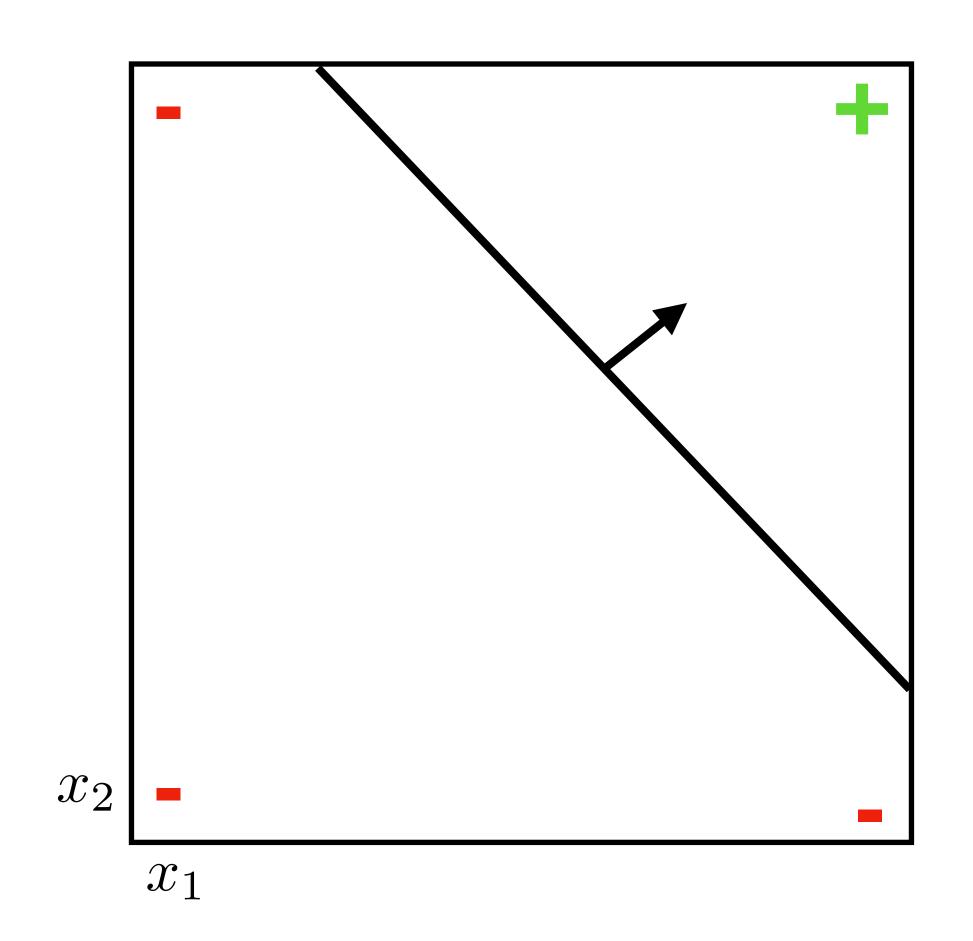
- Object recognition with tiny images
- K-nearest neighbor
- Logistic regression with SGD
- Cross-validation

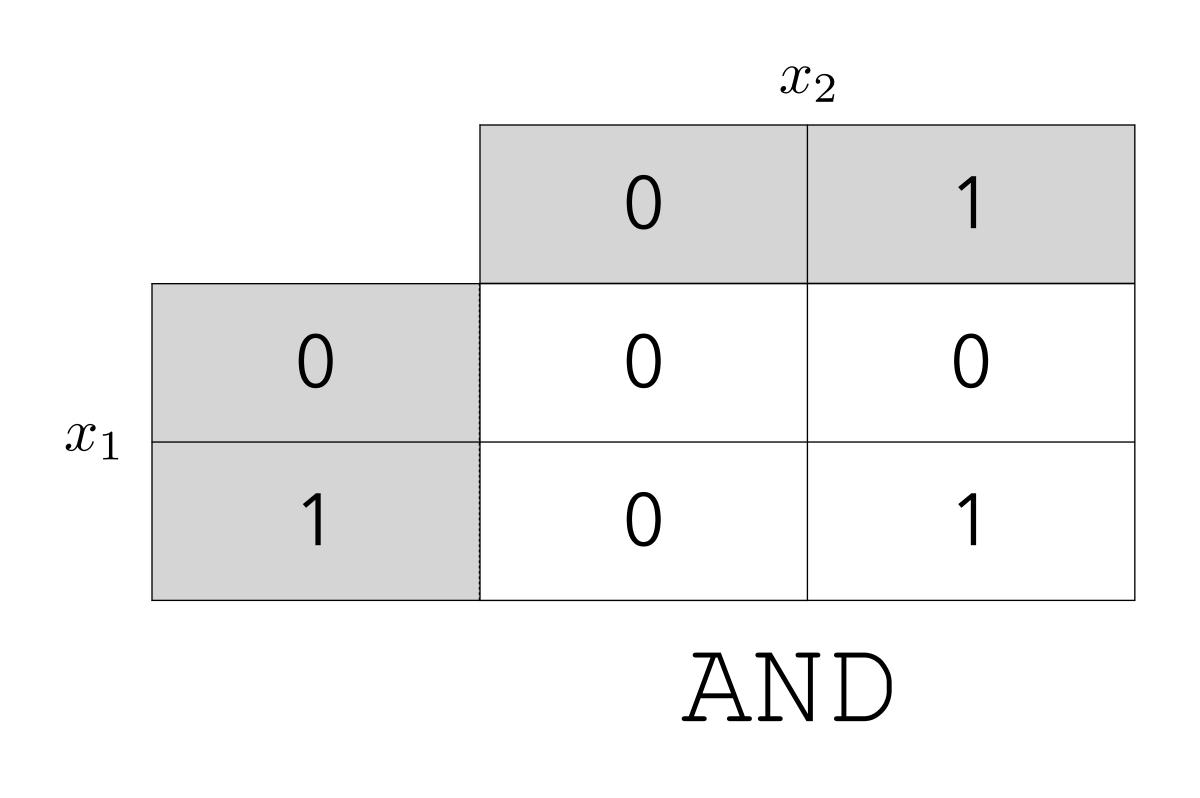
Can be completed after today's class.

Part #2: neural nets with PyTorch

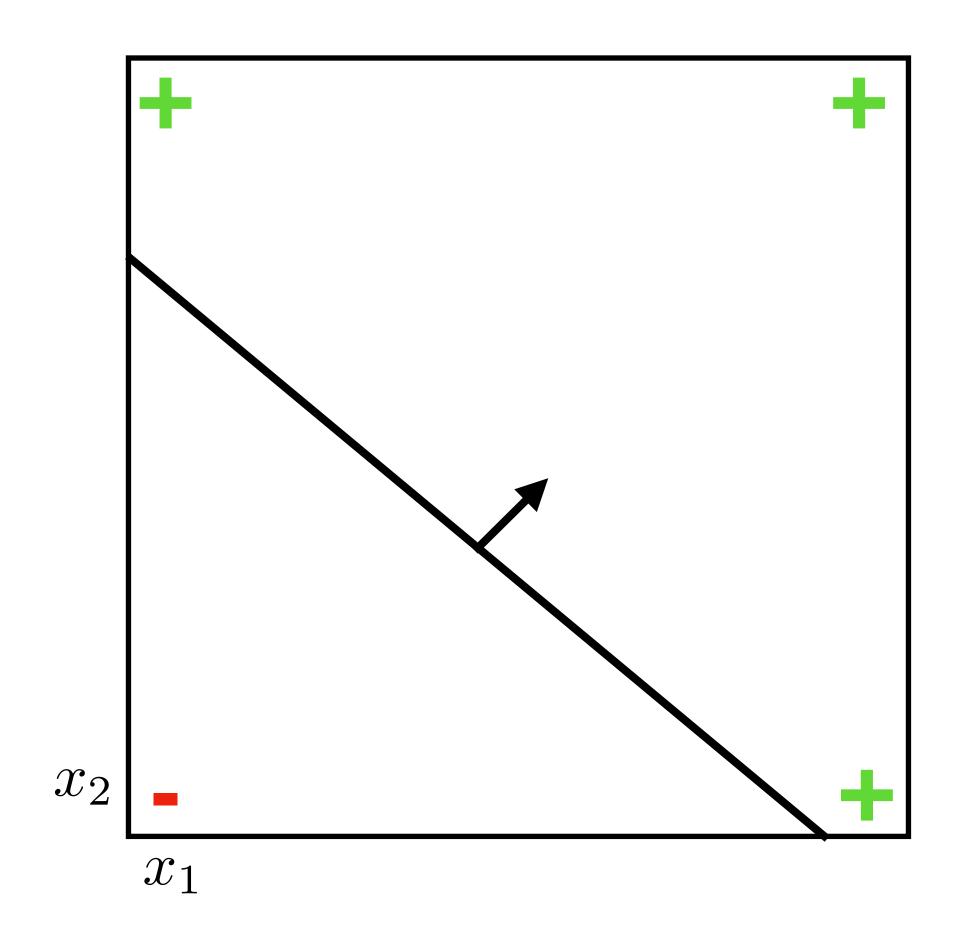
- Neural nets in PyTorch
- Convolutional networks
 Covered this Weds. and next Mon.

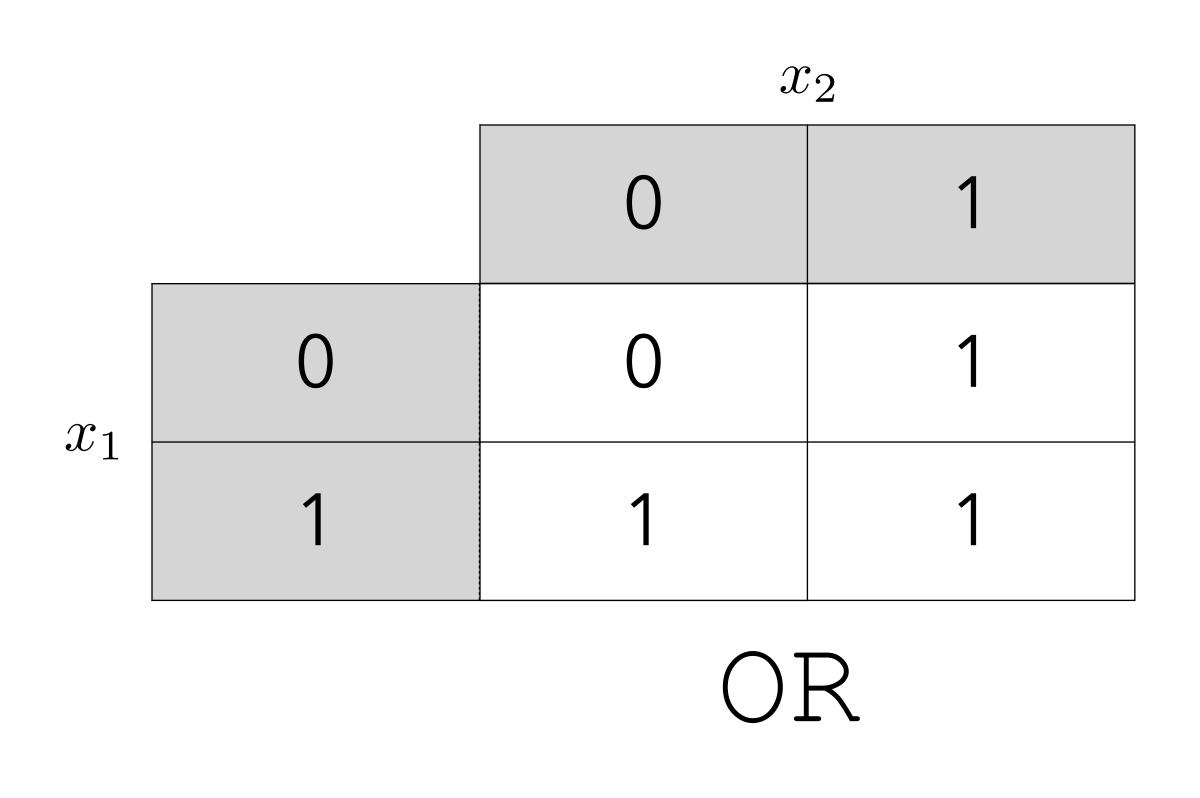
Limitations to linear classifiers



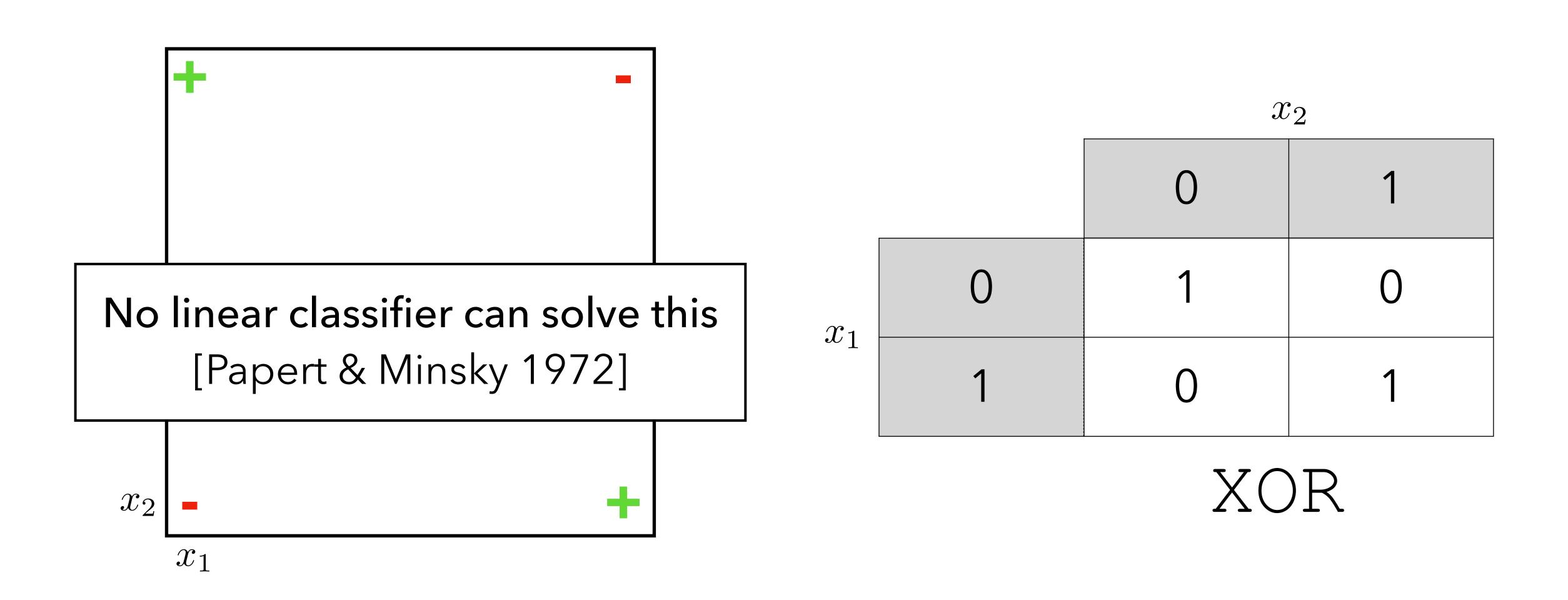


Limitations to linear classifiers



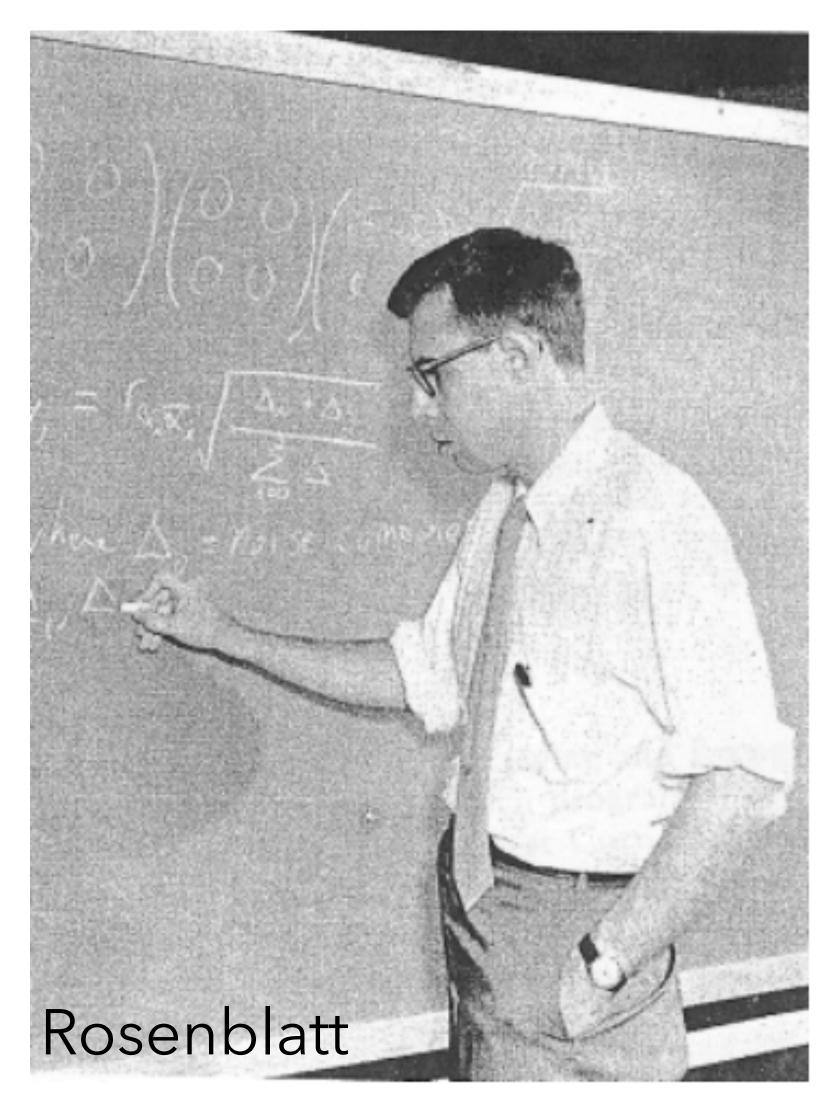


Limitations to linear classifiers

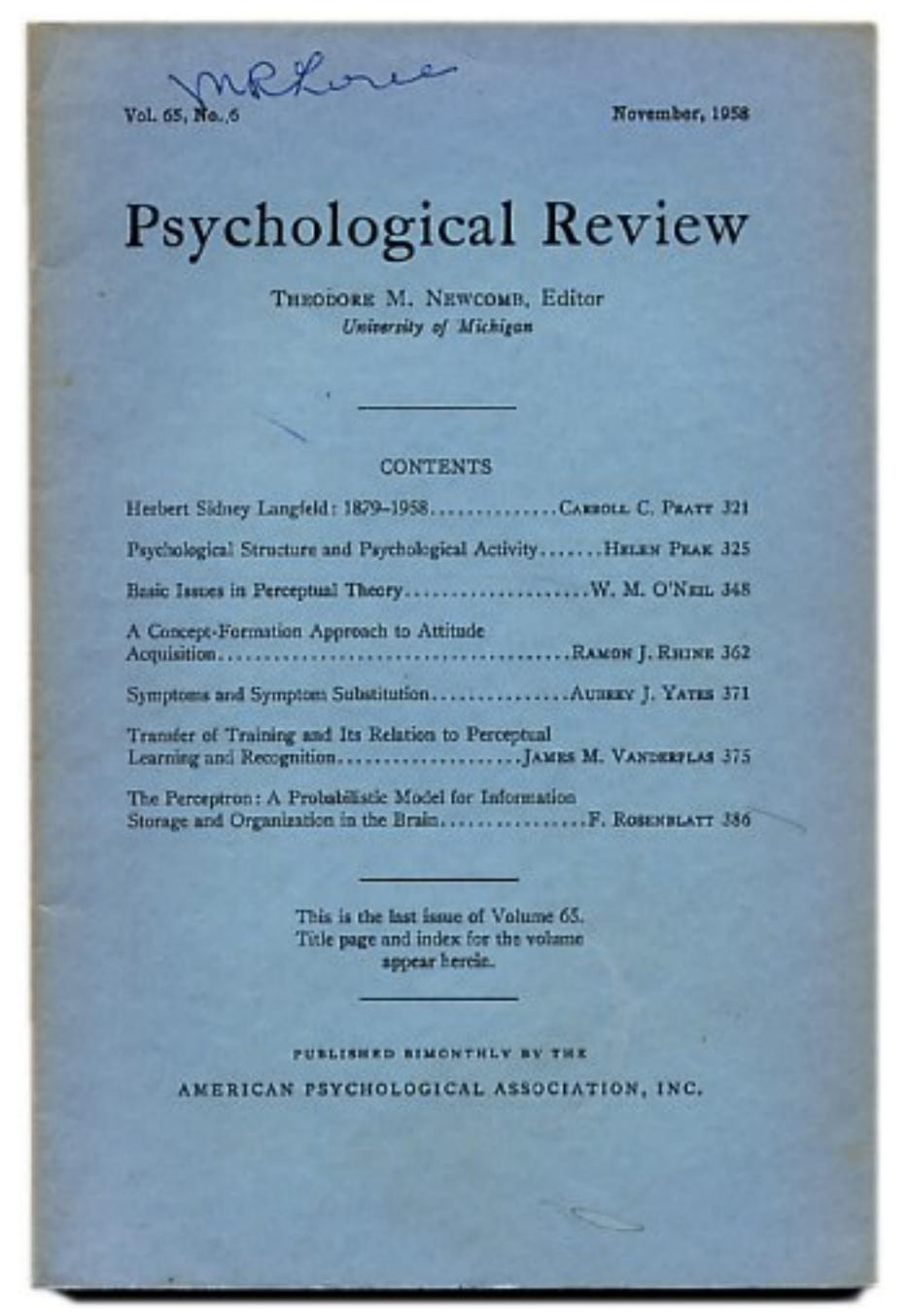


Next class: Neural networks

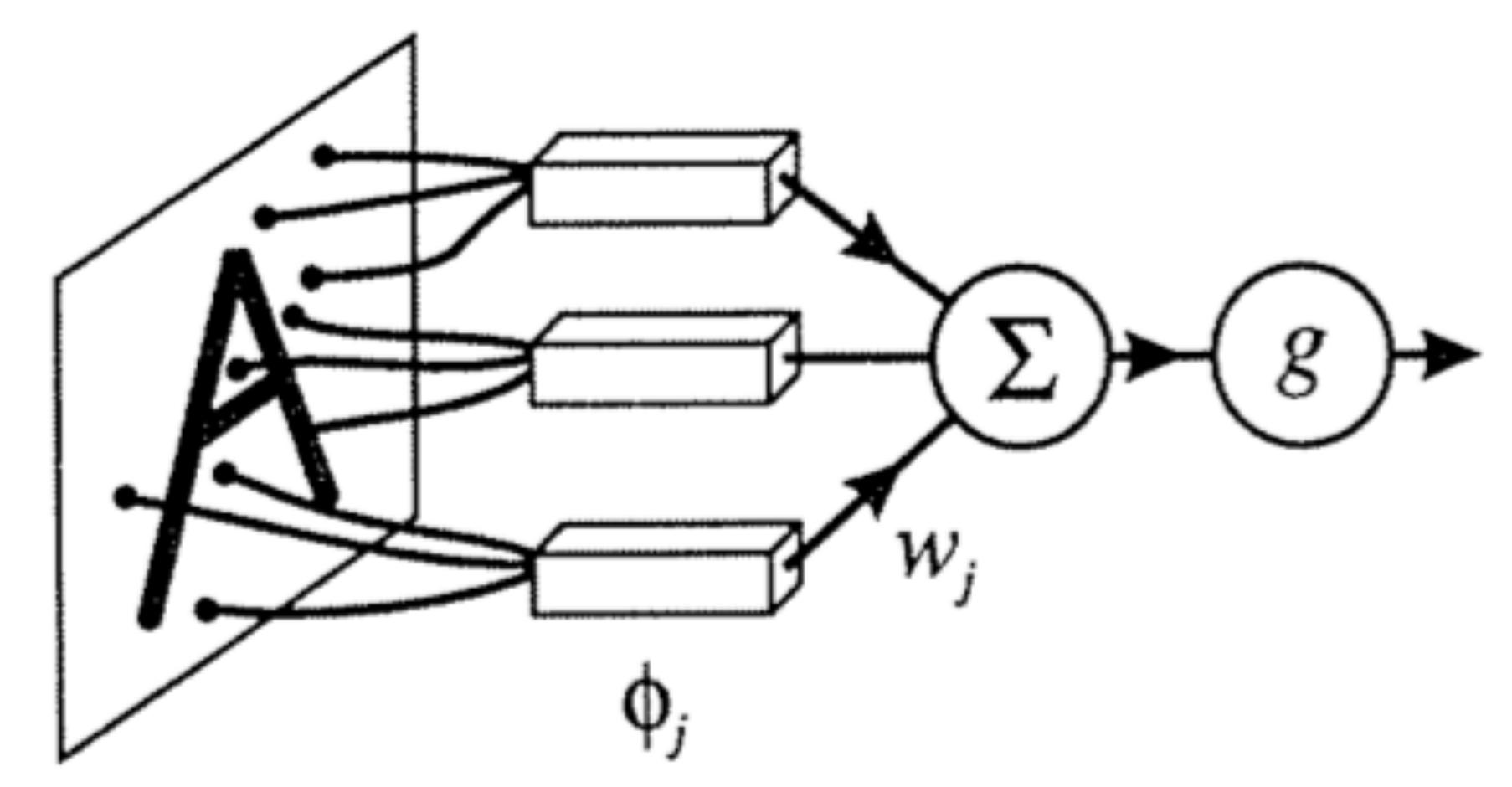
Perceptrons, 1958



http://www.ecse.rpi.edu/homepages/nagy/PDF_chrono/ 2011_Nagy_Pace_FR.pdf. Photo by George Nagy

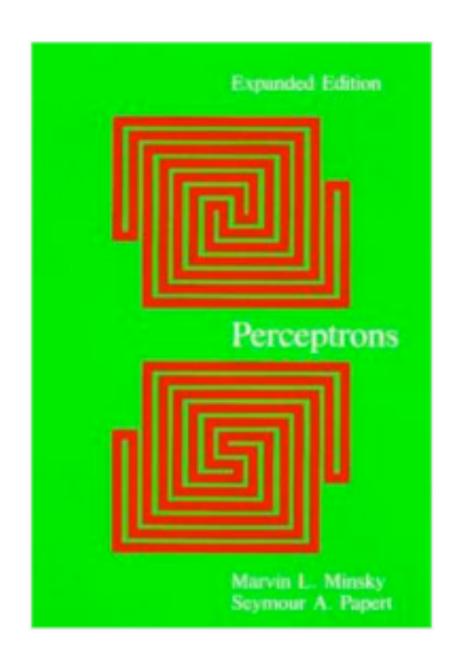


Perceptrons, 1958



Very similar to the linear models we've seen.

Minsky and Papert, Perceptrons, 1972



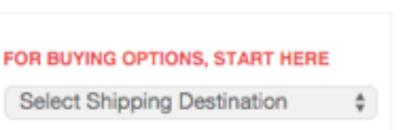












Paperback | \$35.00 Short | £24.95 | ISBN: 9780262631112 | 308 pp. | 6 x 8.9 in | December 1987

Perceptrons, expanded edition

An Introduction to Computational Geometry

By Marvin Minsky and Seymour A. Papert

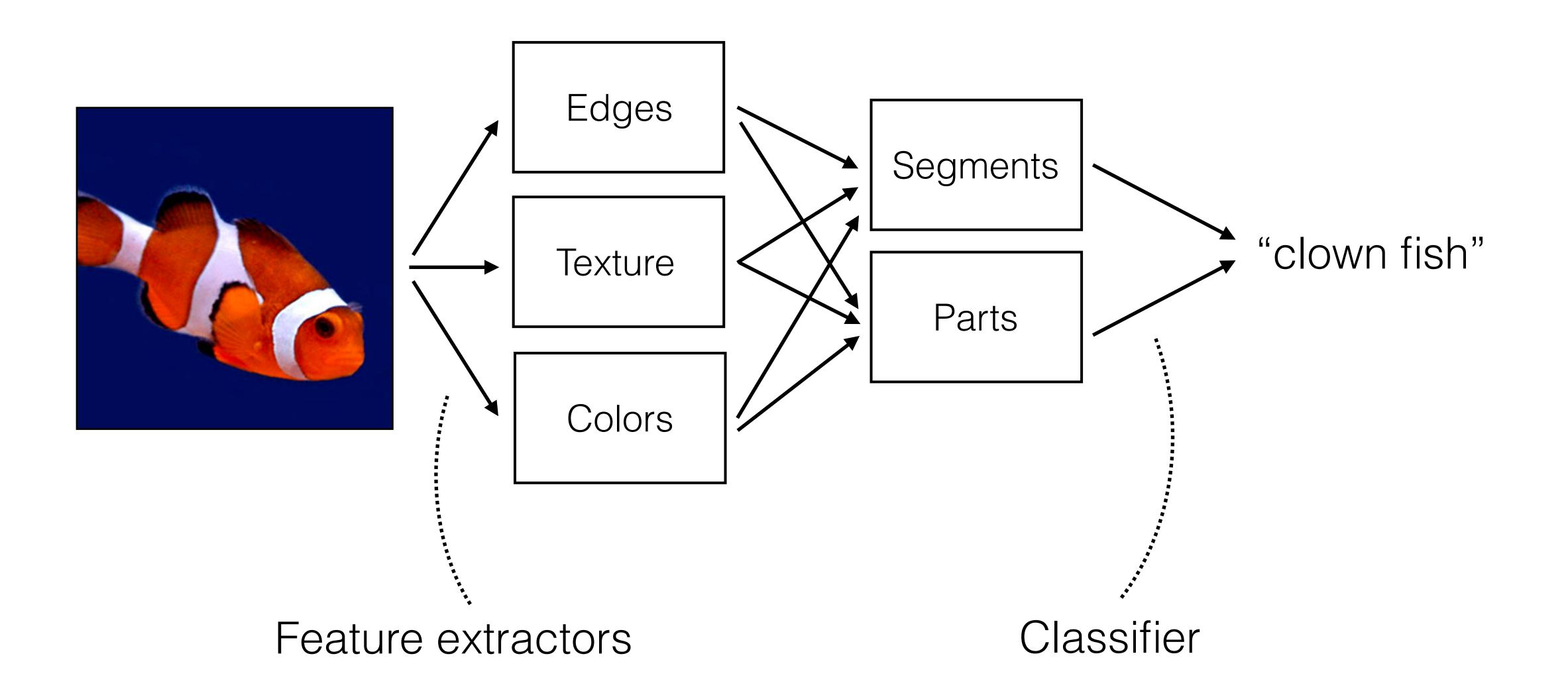
Overview

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.

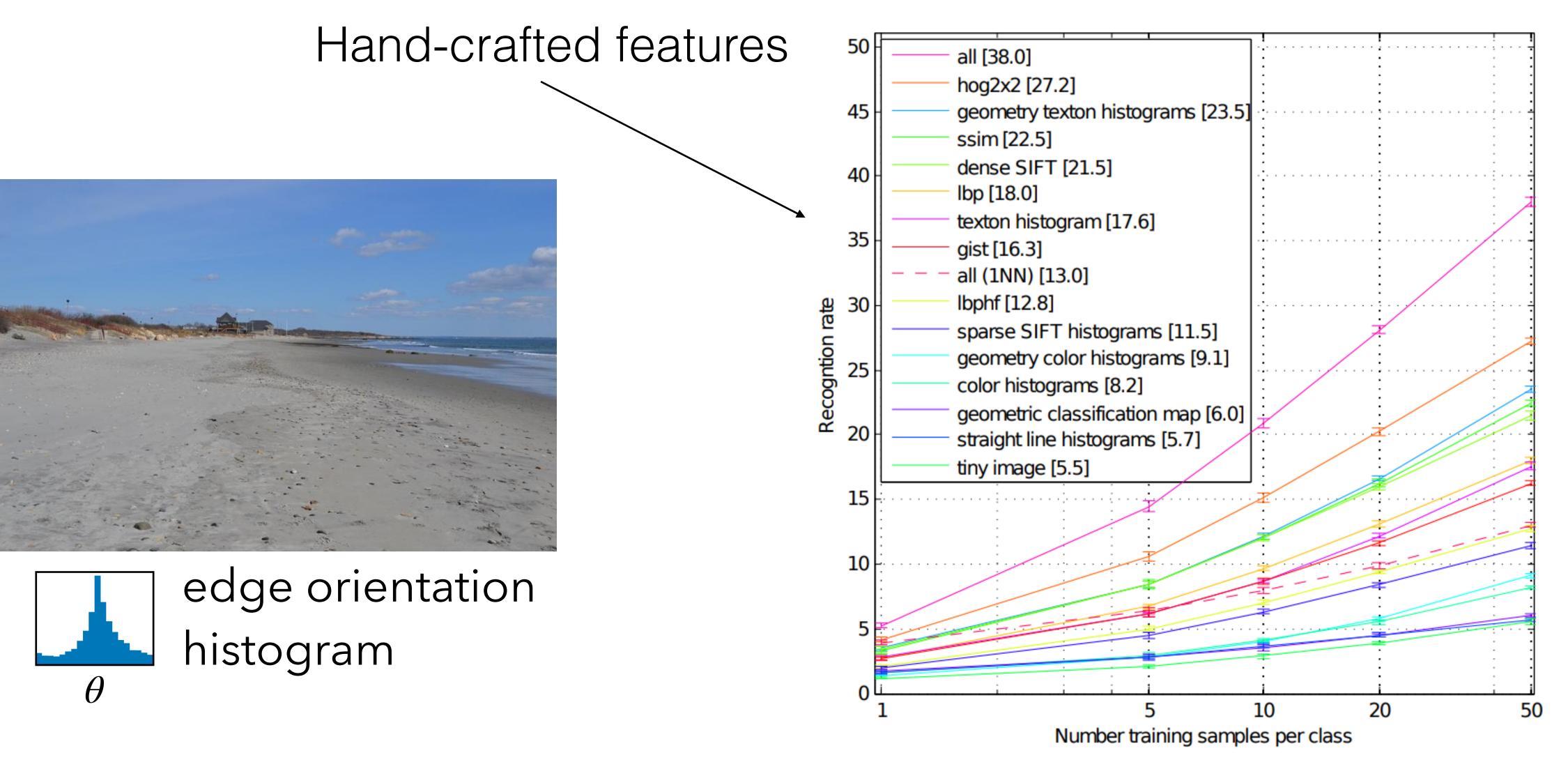
Artificial-intelligence research, which for a time concentrated on the programming of ton Neumann computers, is swinging back to the idea that intelligence might emerge from the activity of networks of neuronlike entities. Minsky and Papert's book was the first example of a mathematical analysis carried 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."

"Classic" recognition without neural nets

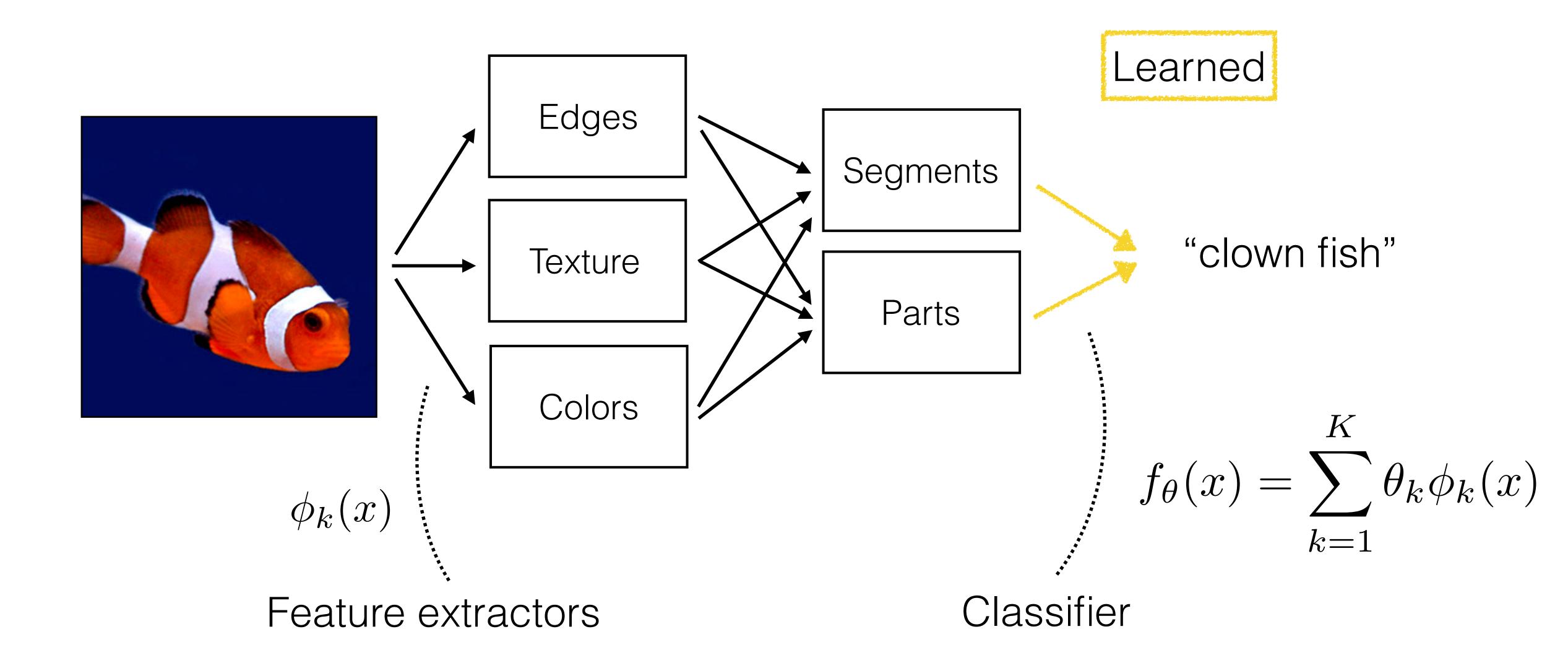


"Classic" recognition without neural nets

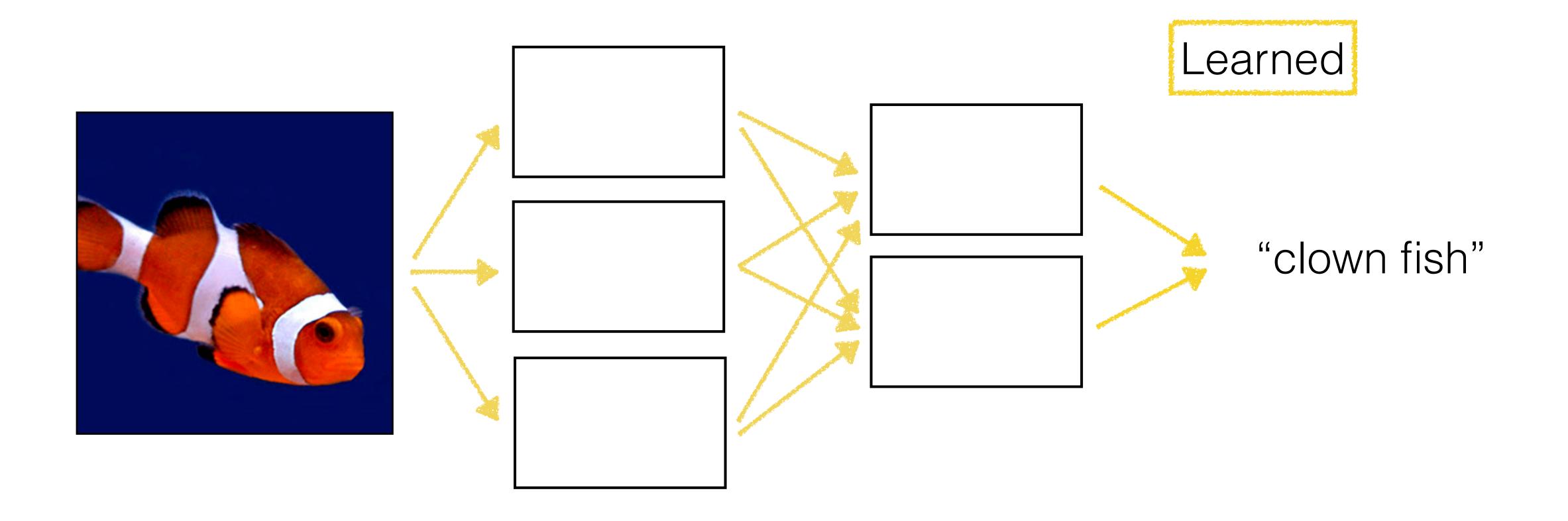


[Xiao et al., "SUN database", 2010]

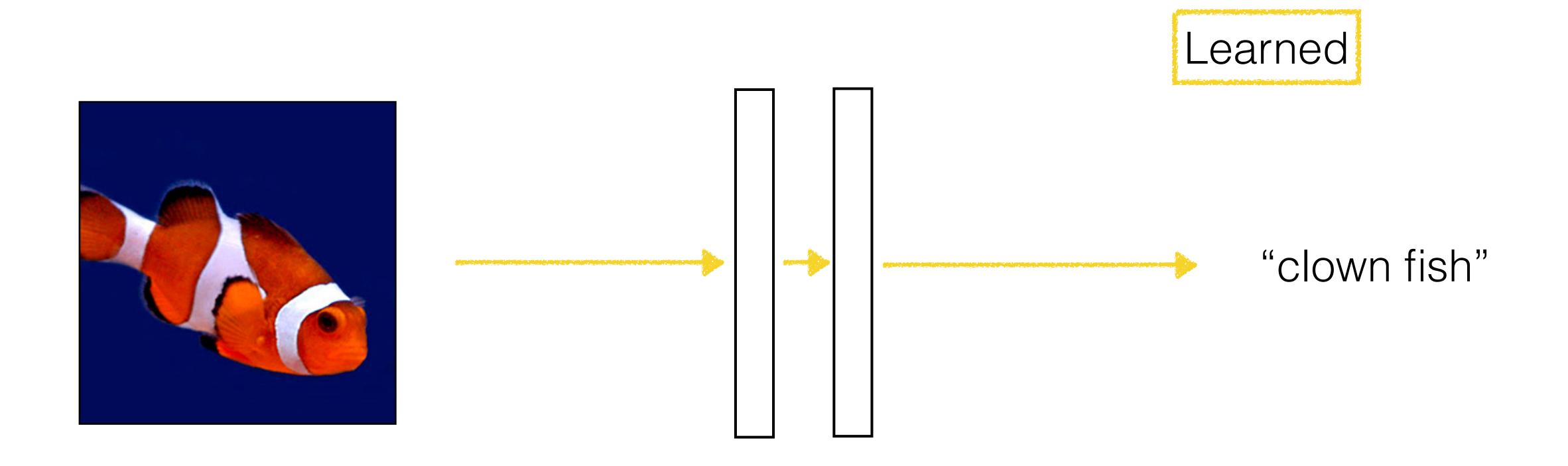
"Classic" object recognition without neural nets



Object recognition

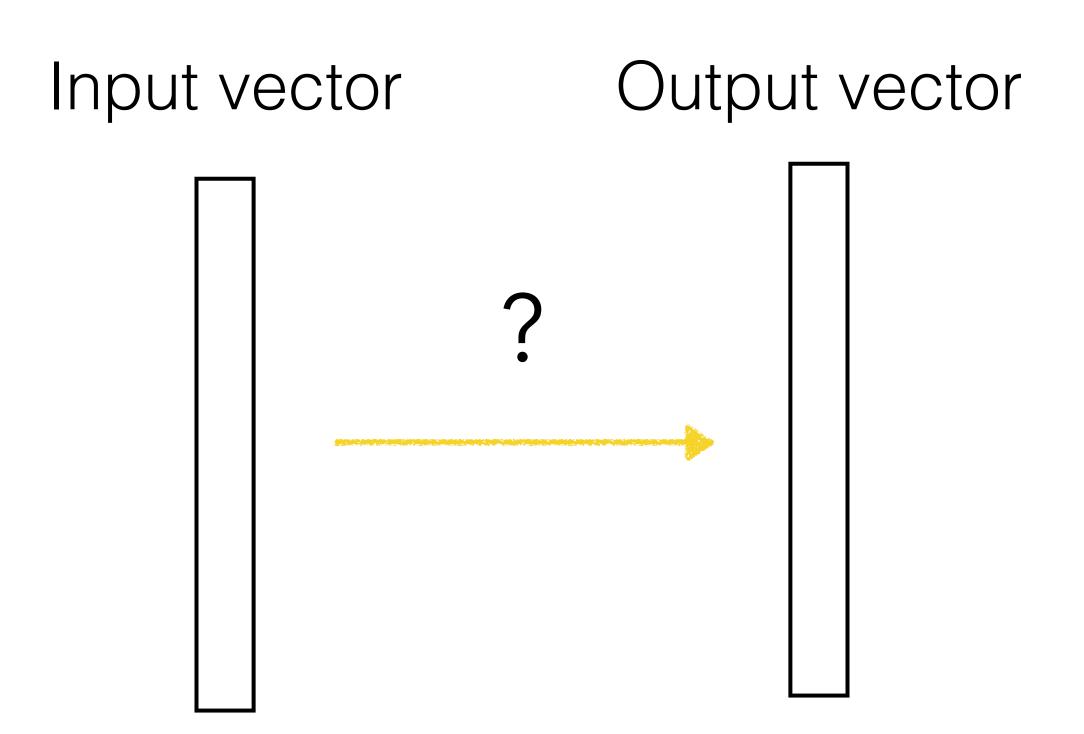


Object recognition



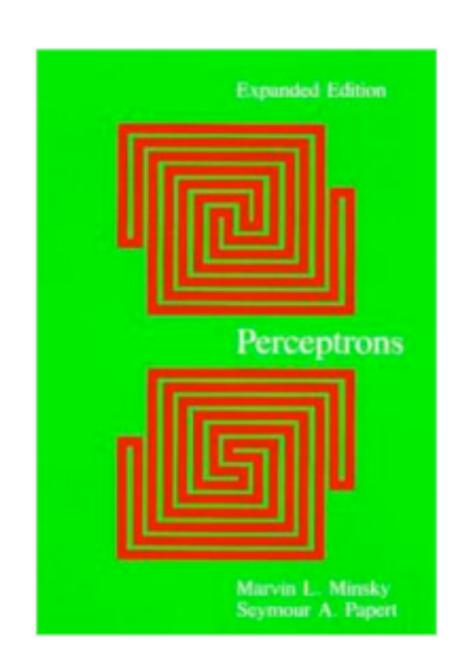
Neural net

Computation in a neural net



Next lecture: neural networks

Minsky and Papert, Perceptrons, 1972



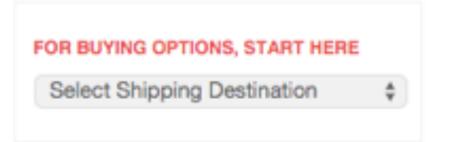












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Perceptrons, expanded edition

An Introduction to Computational Geometry

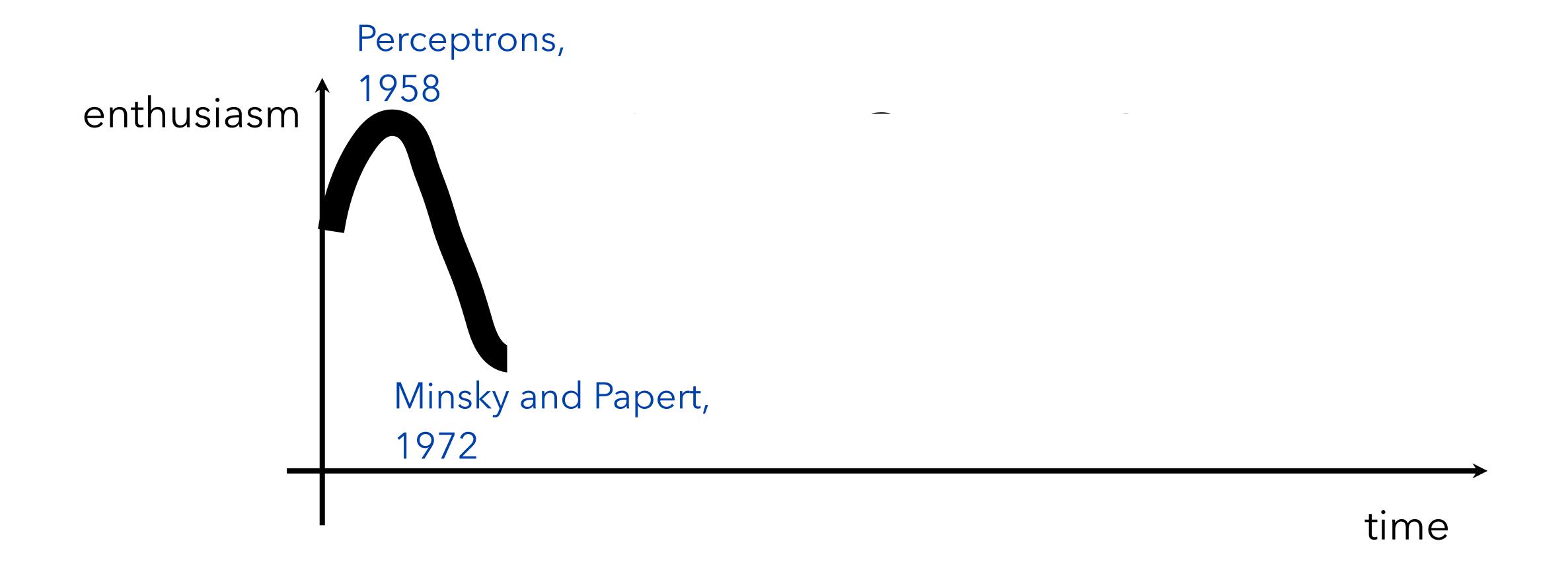
By Marvin Minsky and Seymour A. Papert

Overview

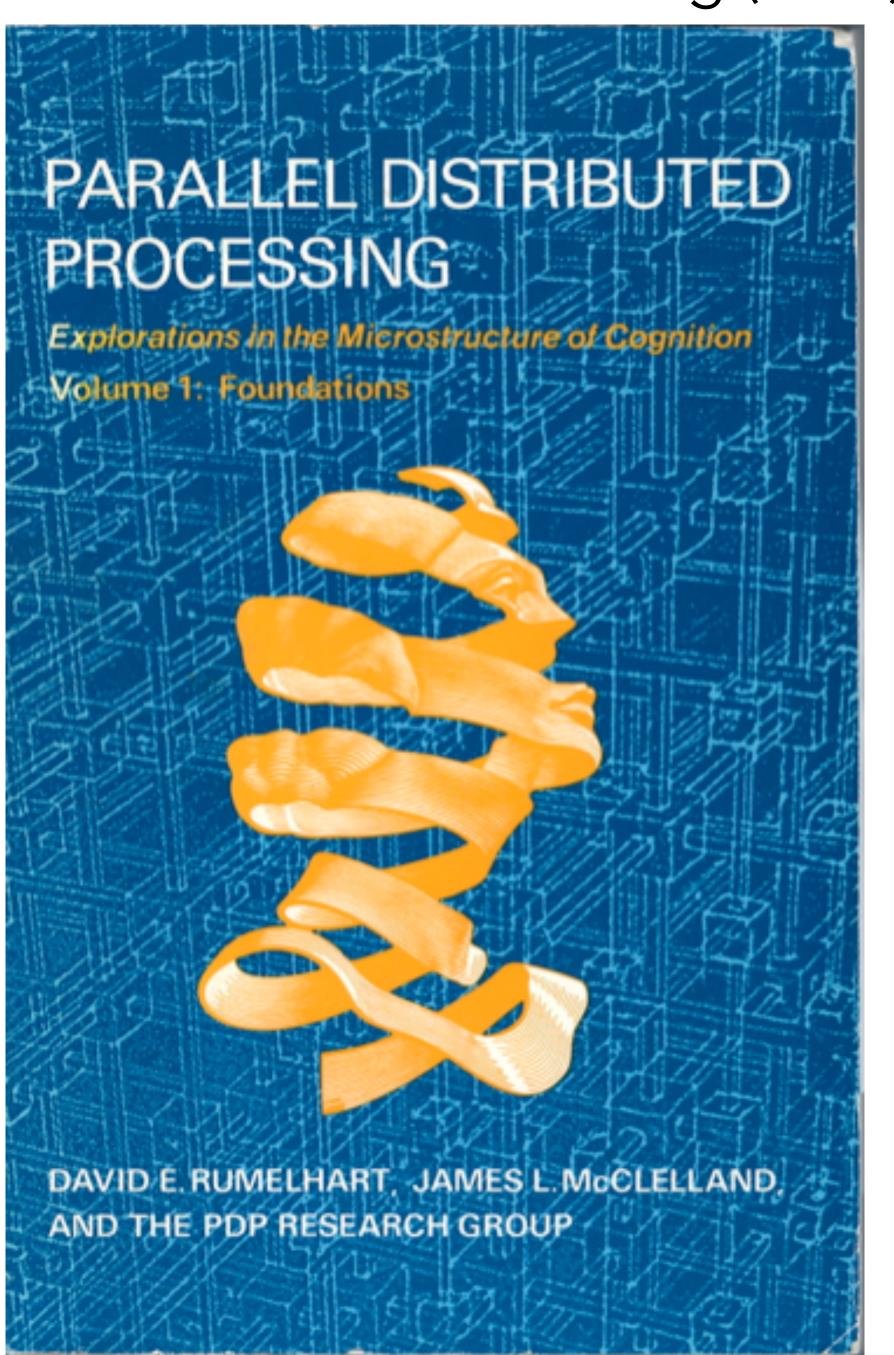
Perceptrons - the first systematic study of parallelism in computation - has remained a classical work on threshold automata networks for nearly two decades. It marked a historical turn in artificial intelligence, and it is required reading for anyone who wants to understand the connectionist counterrevolution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

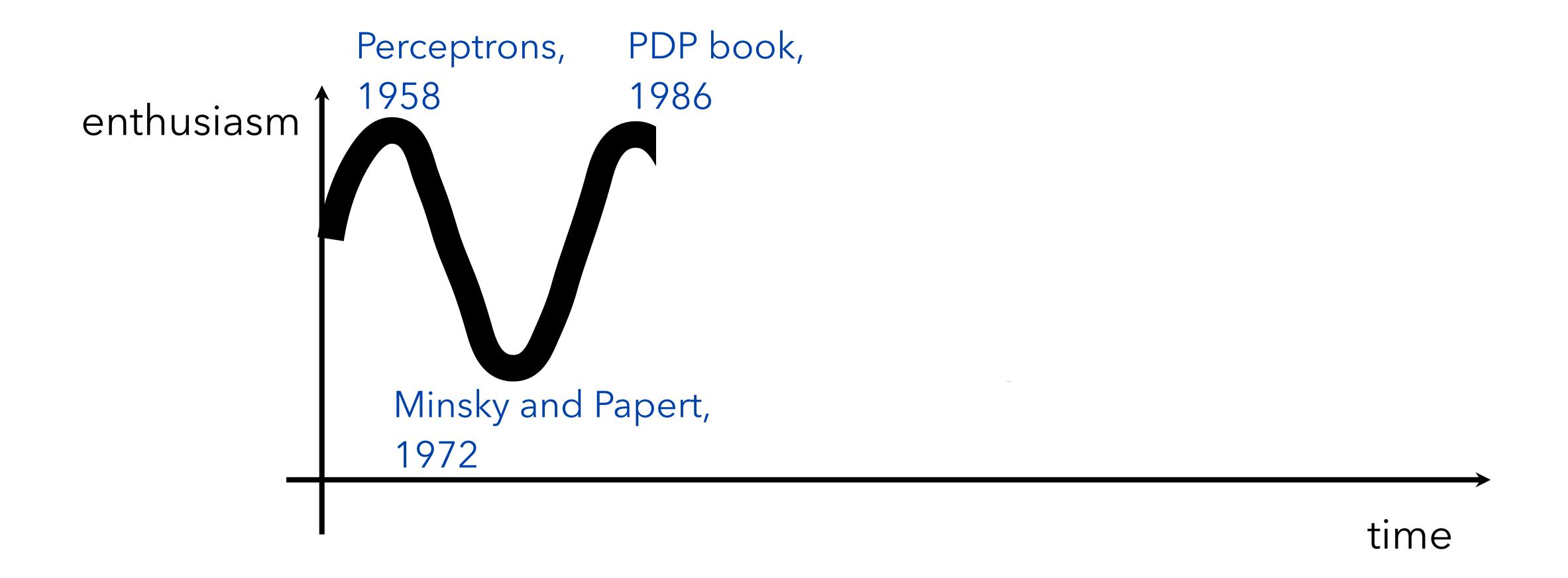
Artificial-intelligence research, which for a time concentrated on the programming of ton Neumann computers, is swinging back to the idea that intelligence might emerge from the activity of networks of neuronlike entities. Minsky and Papert's book was the first example of a mathematical analysis carried 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

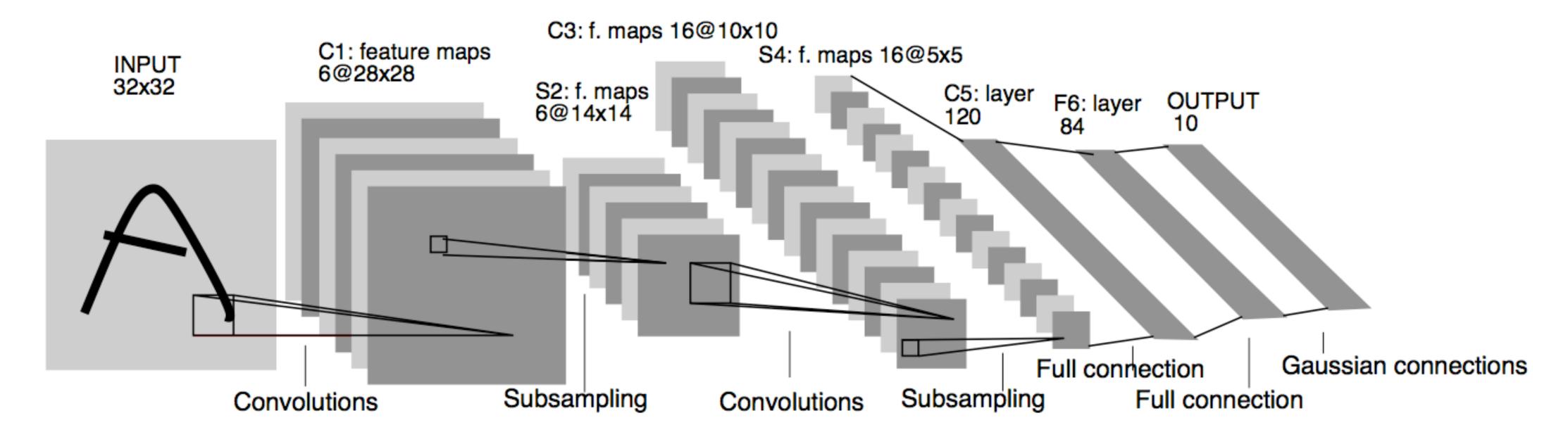


Fig. 2. Architecture of LeNet-5, a Convolutional Neural Network, here for digits recognition. Each plane is a feature map, i.e. a set of units whose weights are constrained to be identical.

Demos:

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

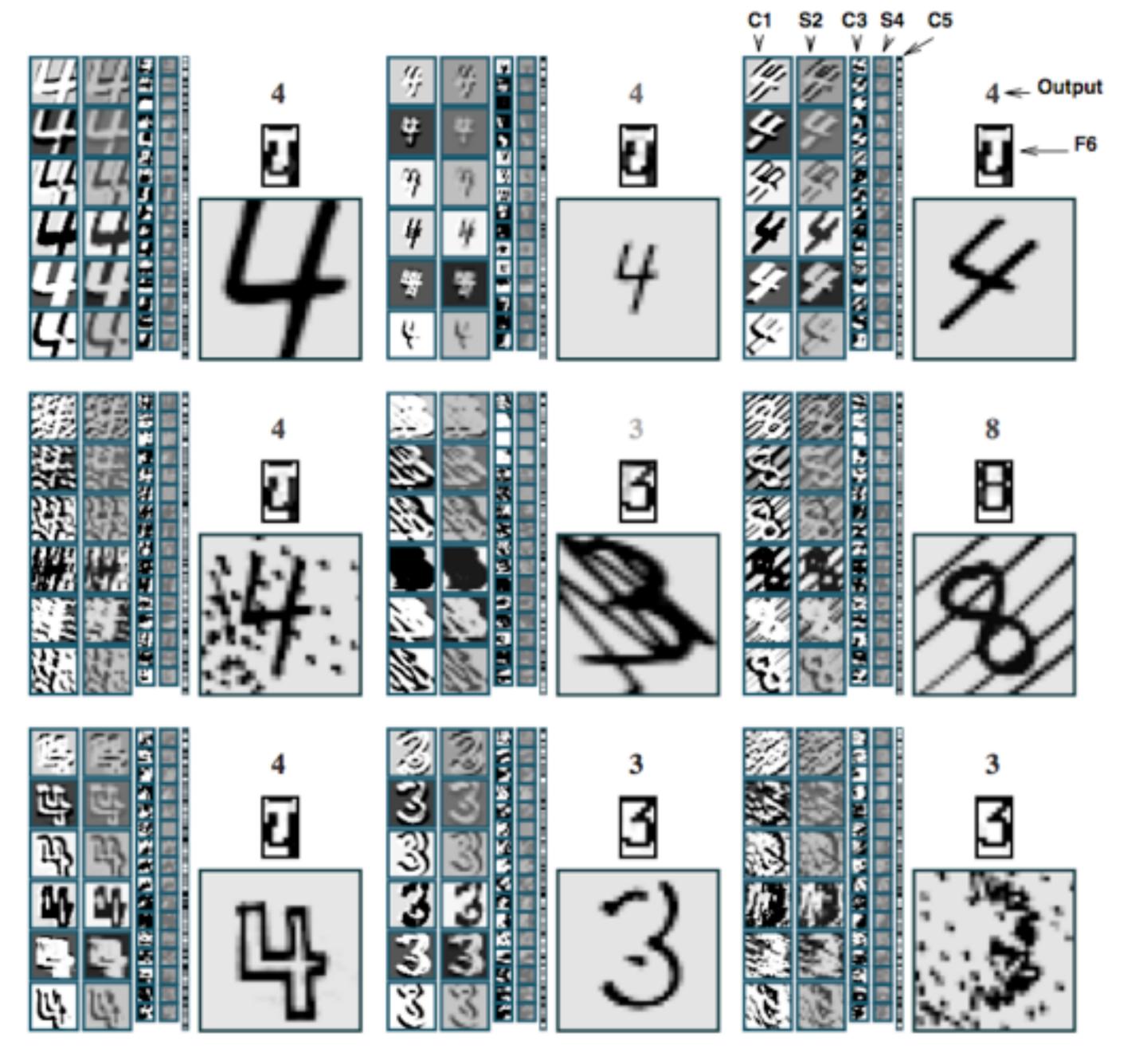
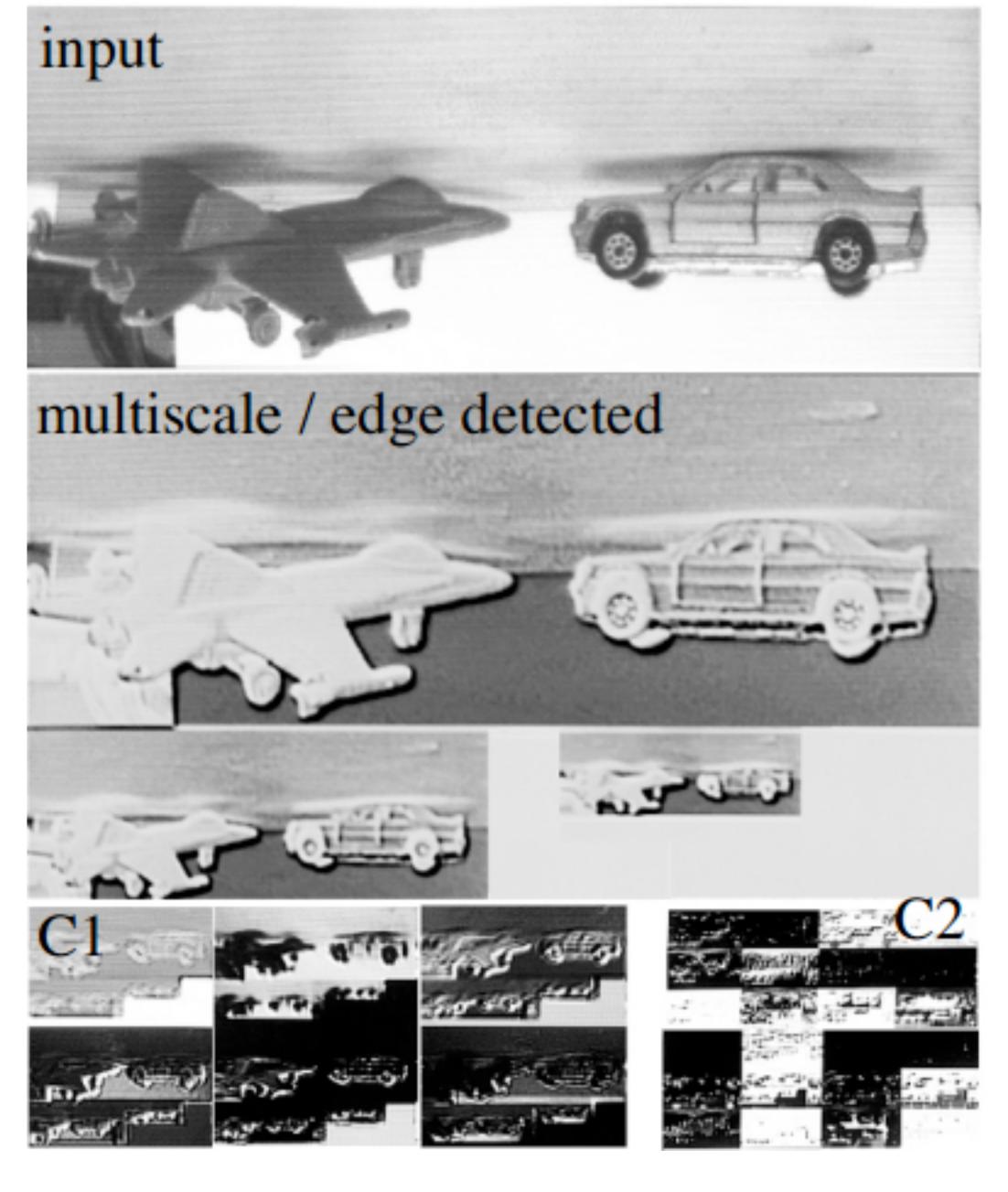


Fig. 13. Examples of unusual, distorted, and noisy characters correctly recognized by LeNet-5. The grey-level of the output label represents the penalty (lighter for higher penalties).

Source: Isola, Torralba, Freeman

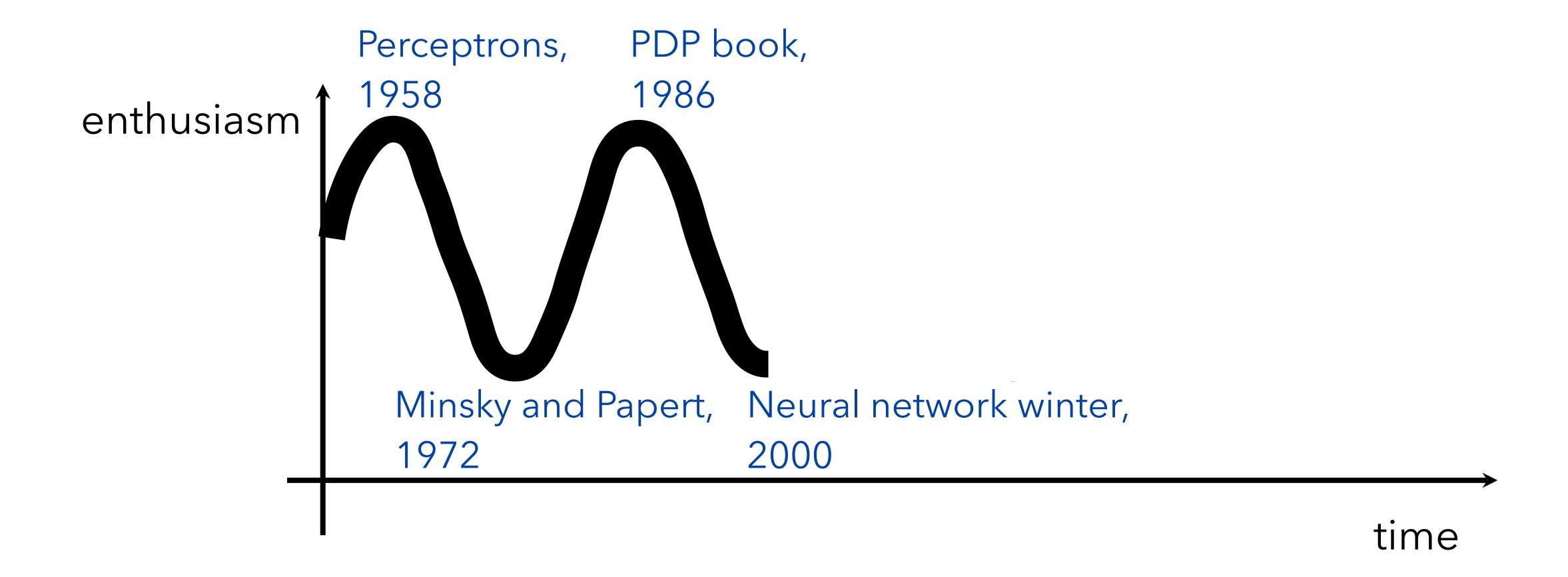


Neural networks to recognize handwritten digits and human faces?

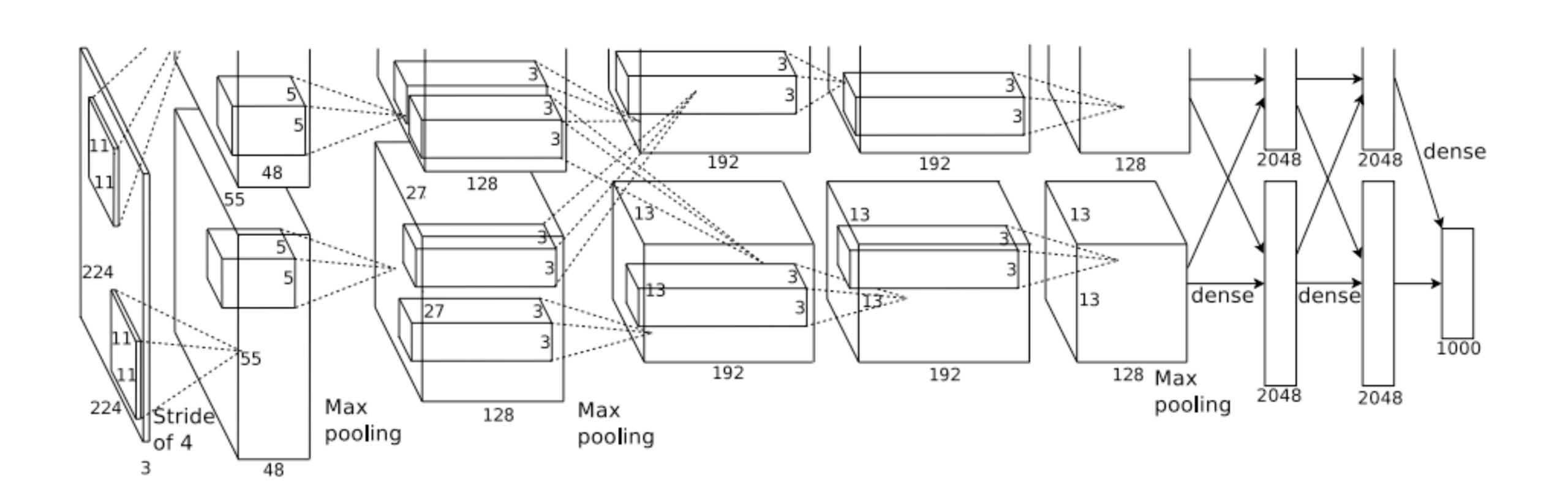
Neural networks for tougher problems? not really

Machine learning circa 2000

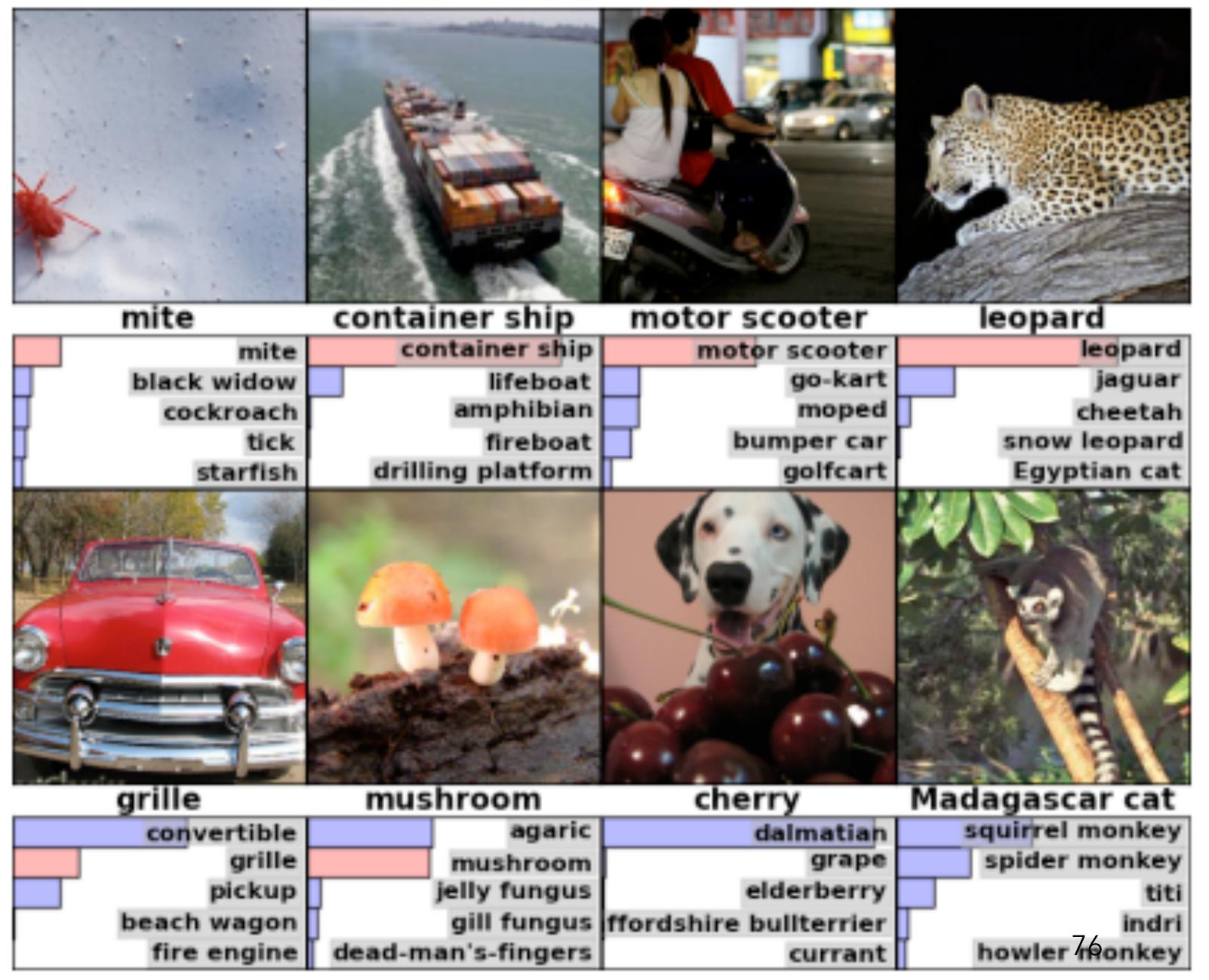
- Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS), is a top conference on machine learning.
- For the 2000 conference:
 - <u>title words predictive of paper acceptance</u>: "Belief Propagation" and "Gaussian".
 - <u>title words predictive of paper rejection</u>: "Neural" and "Network".

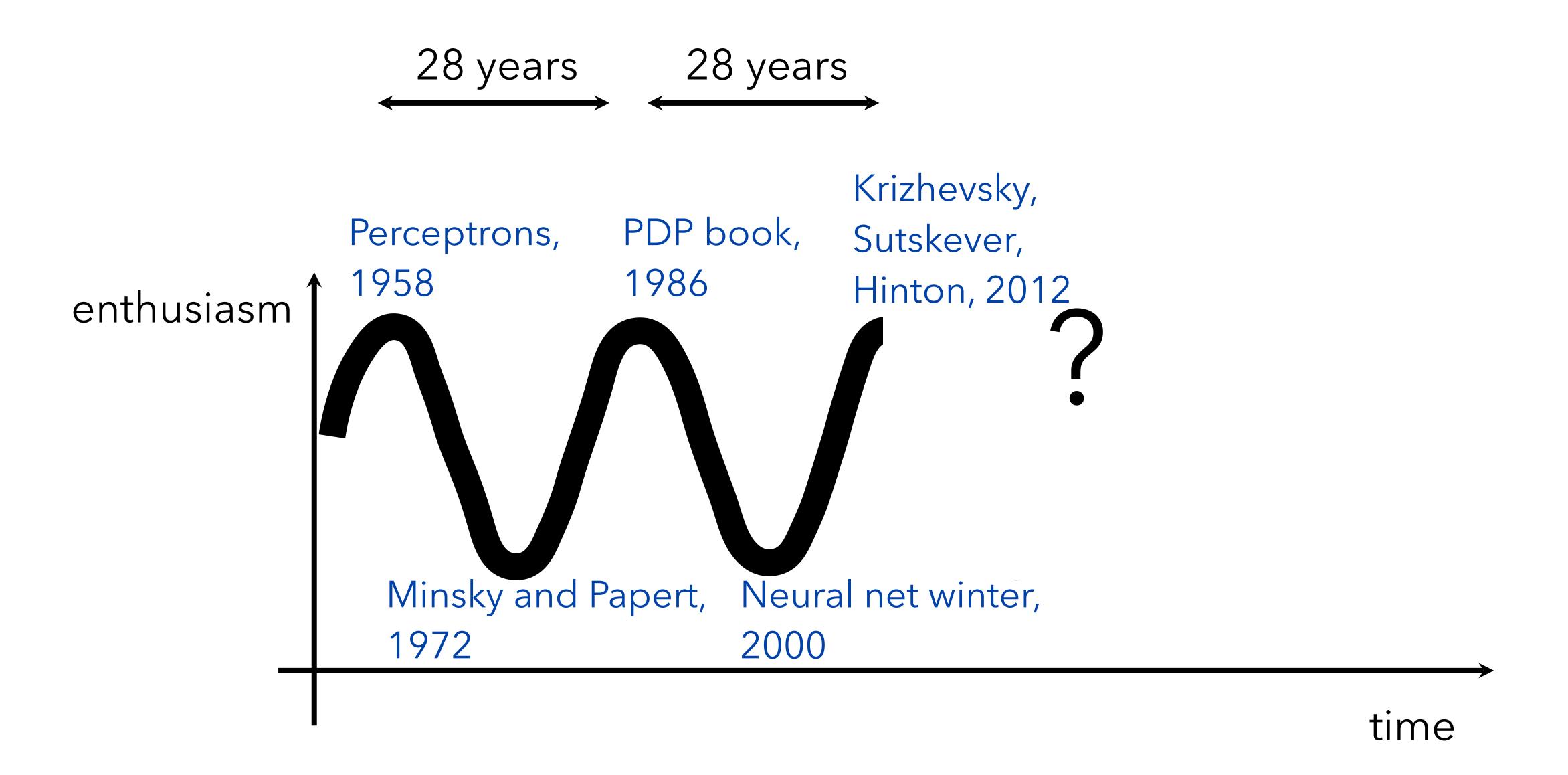


Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and Hinton, NeurIPS 2012 "AlexNet"

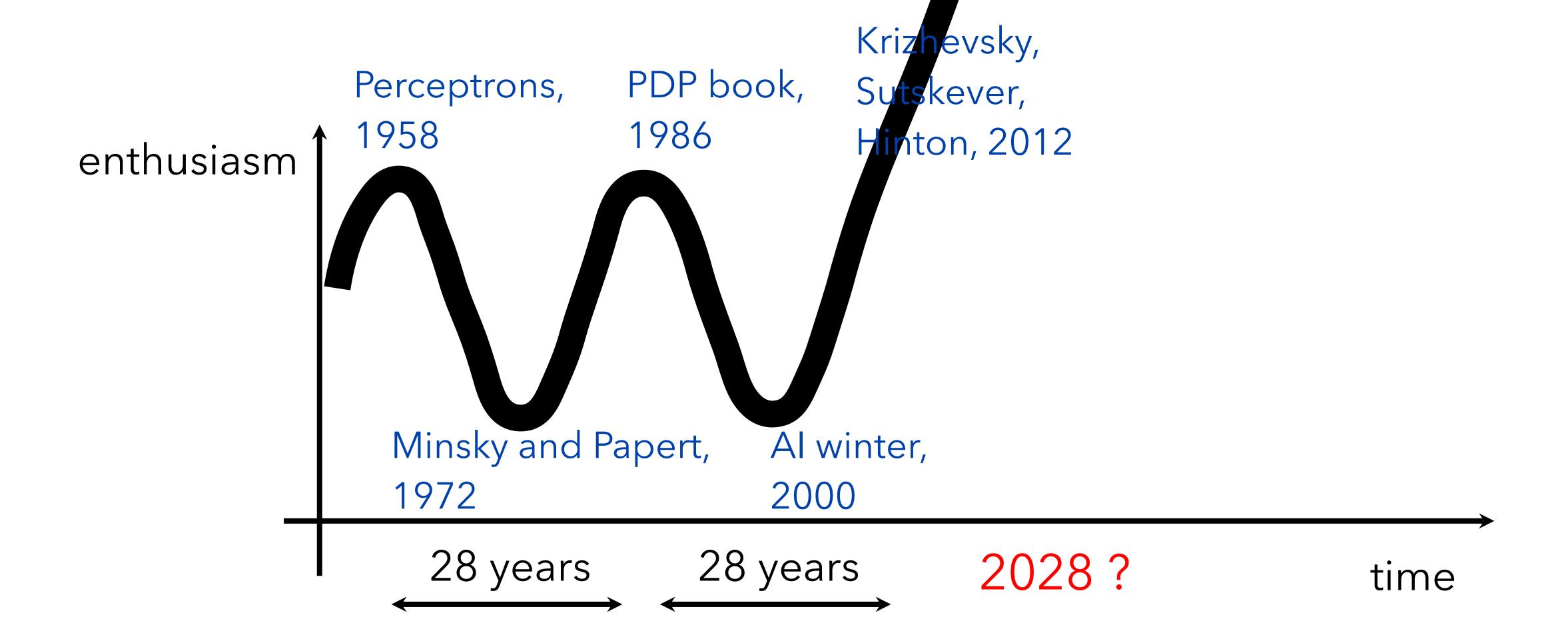


Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and Hinton, NeurIPS 2012

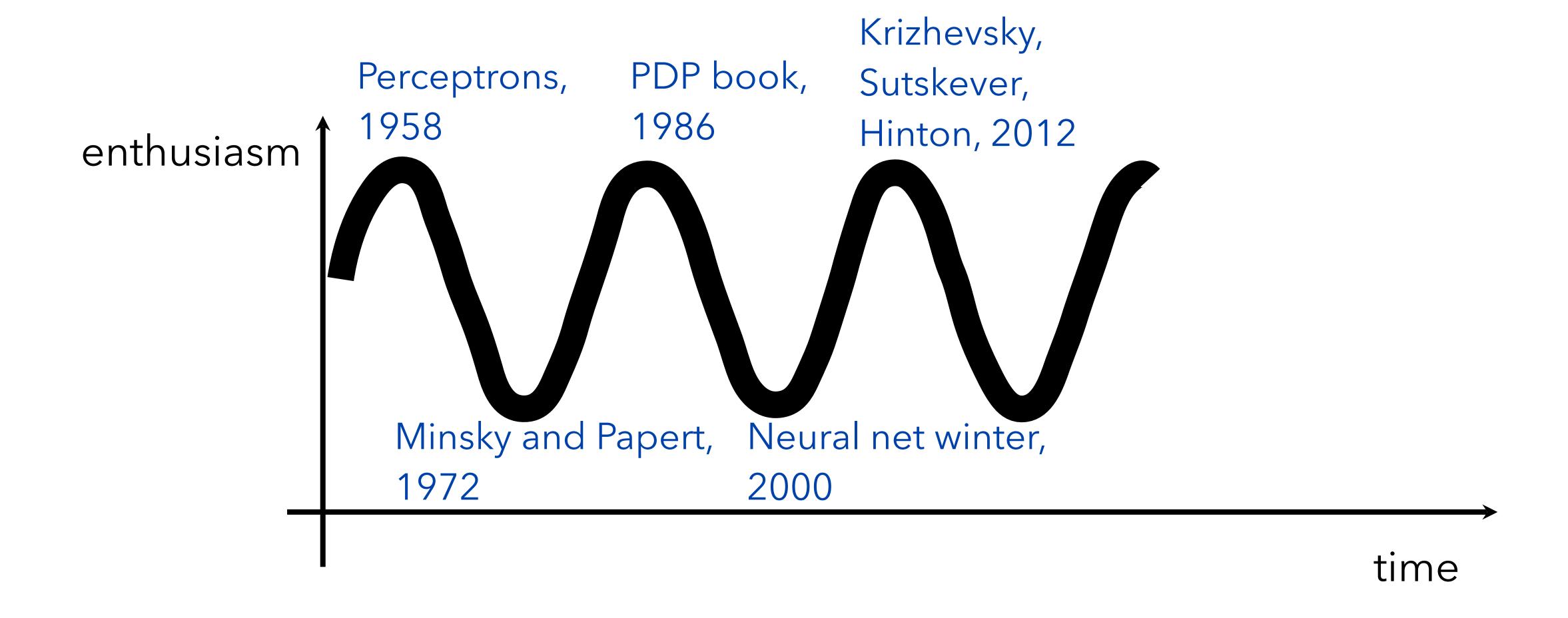




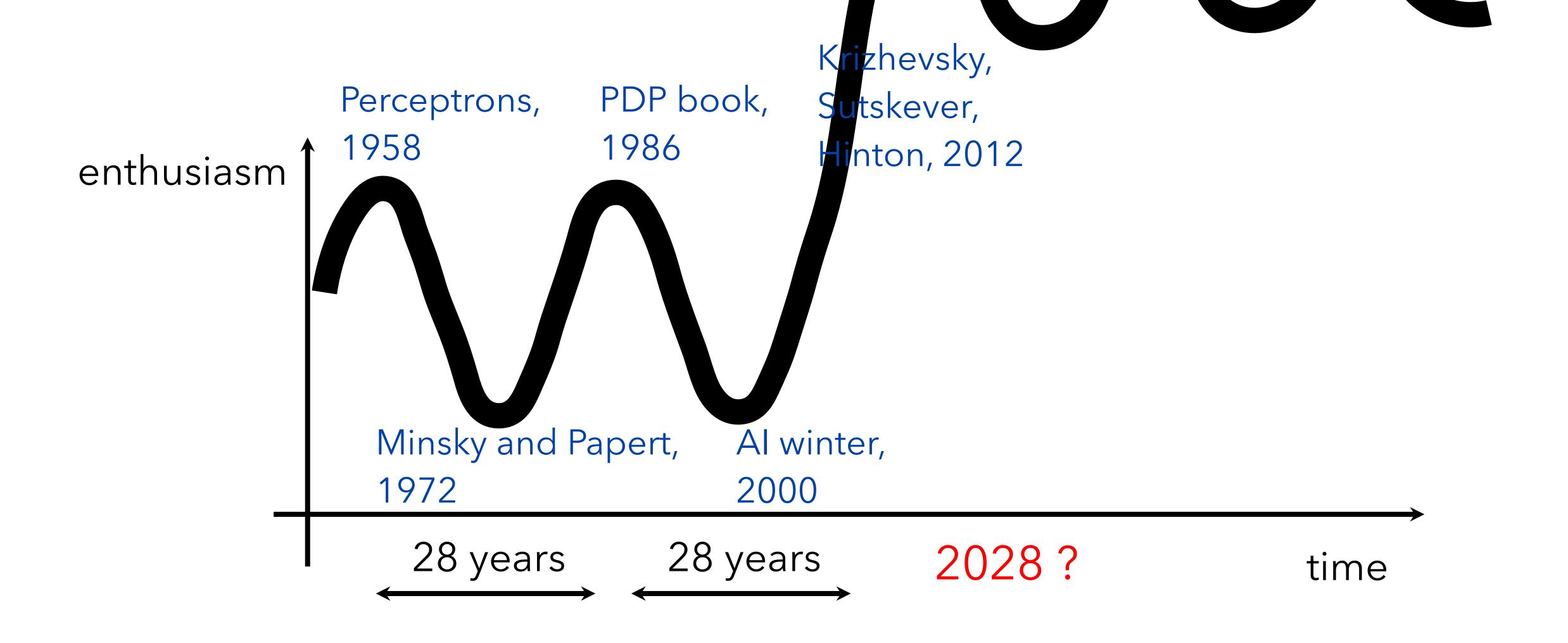
What comes next?



What comes next?

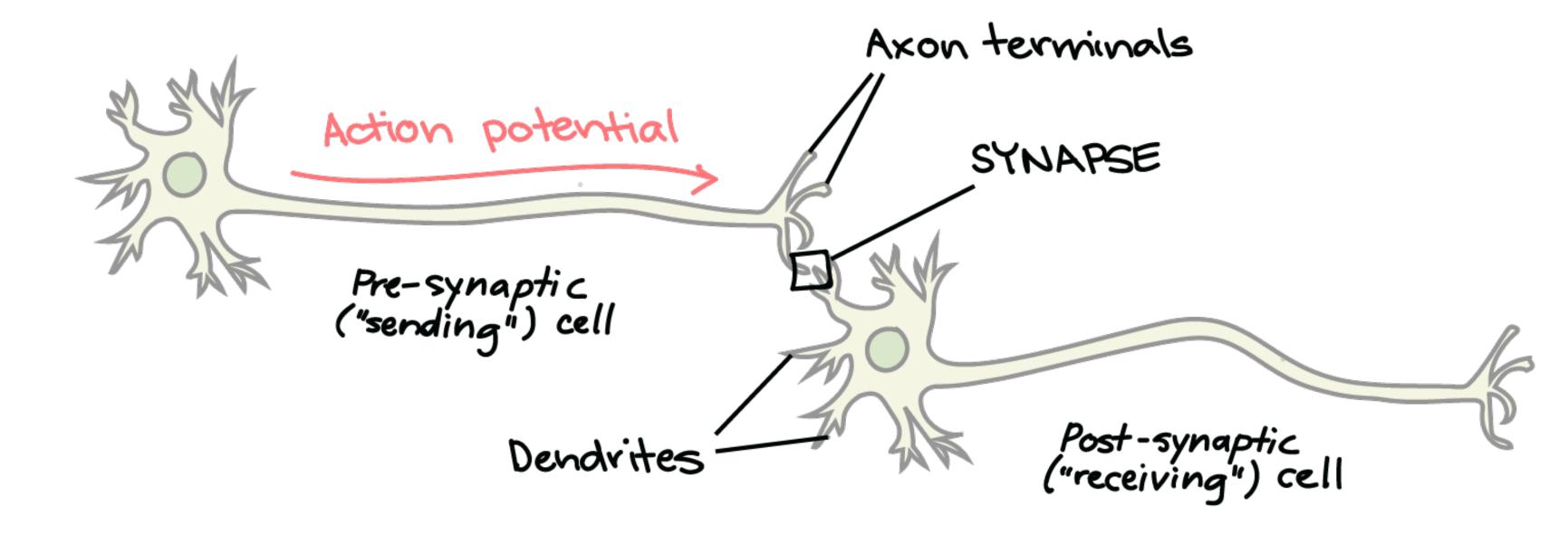


What comes next?



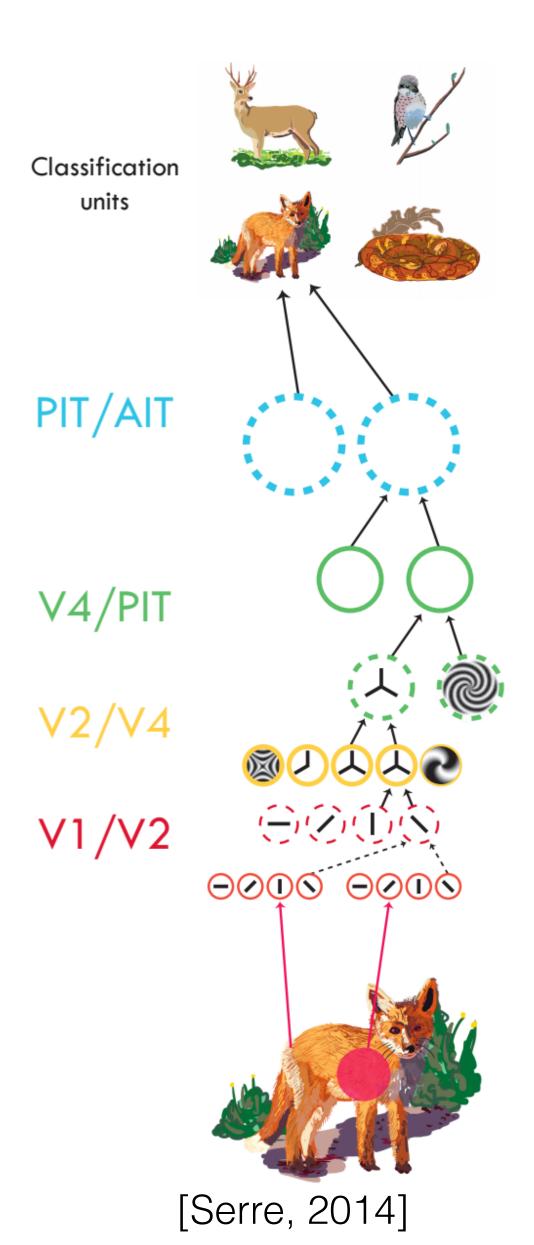
Inspiration: Neurons





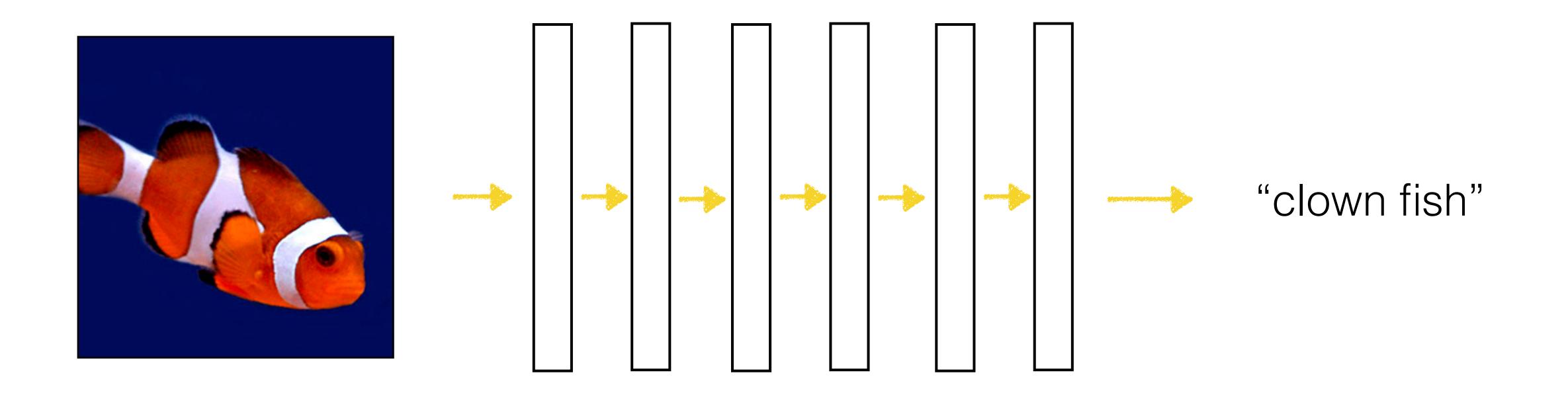
Inspiration: Hierarchical Representations



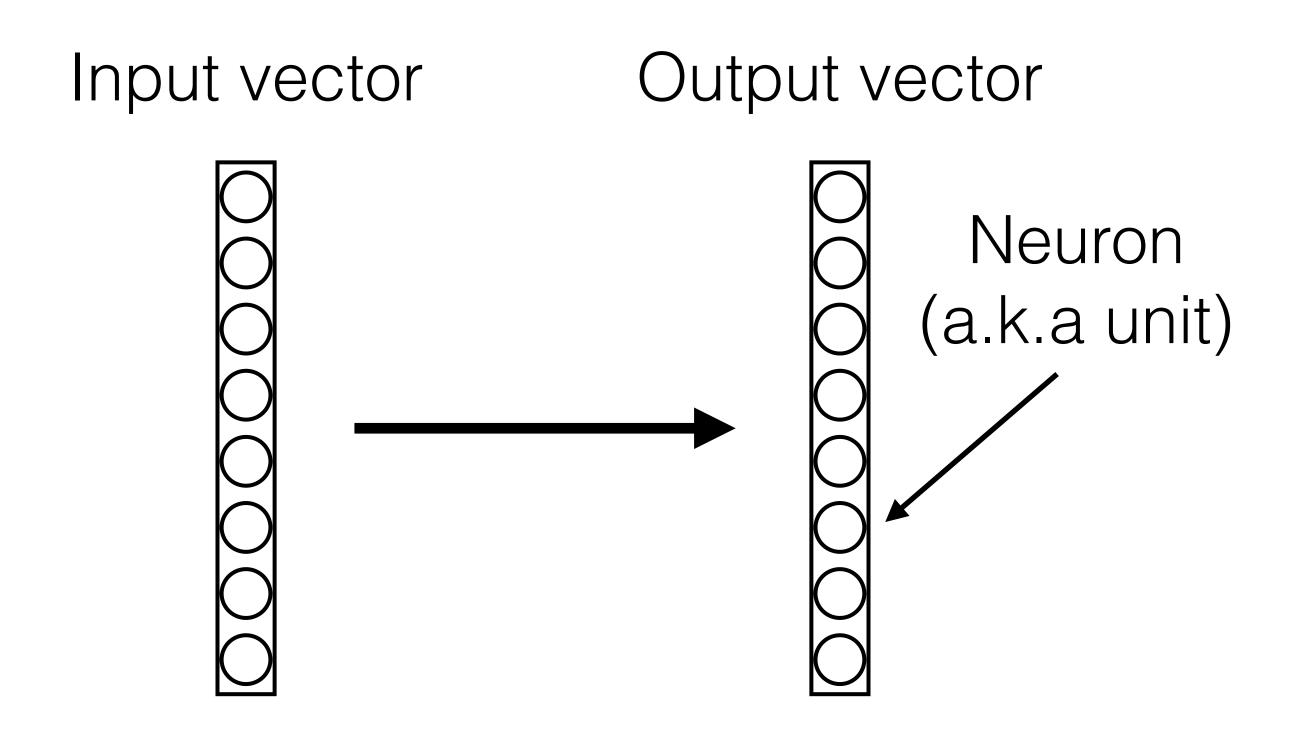


Best to treat as *inspiration*. The neural nets we'll talk about aren't very biologically plausible.

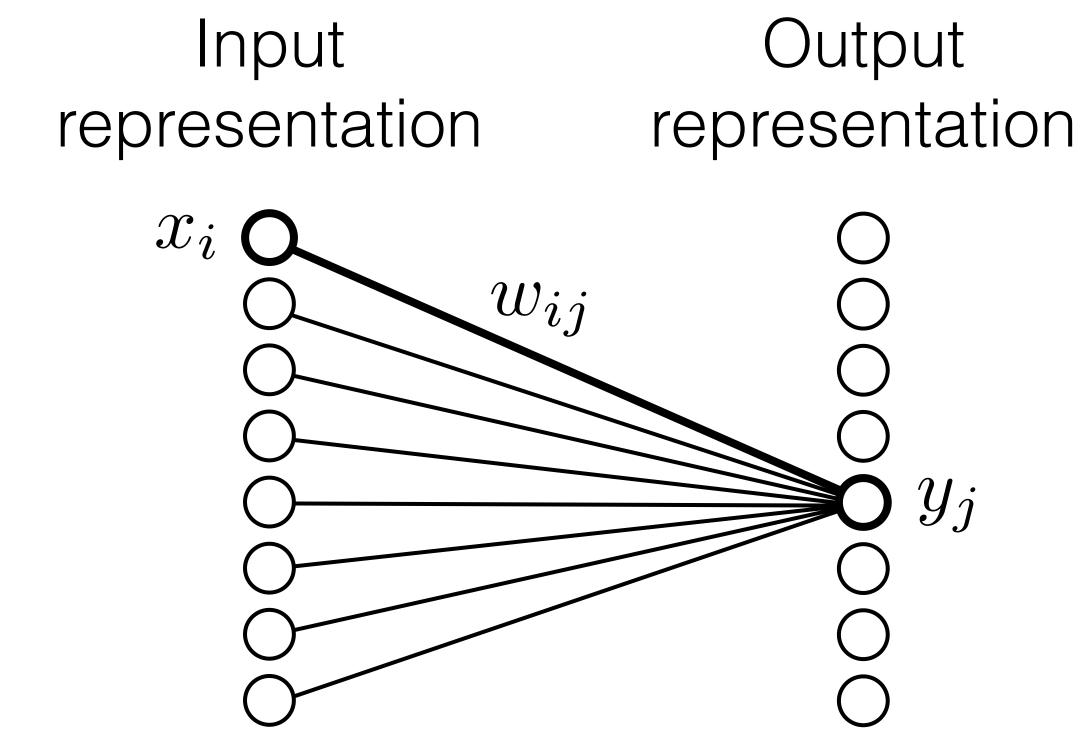
Object recognition



Neural network

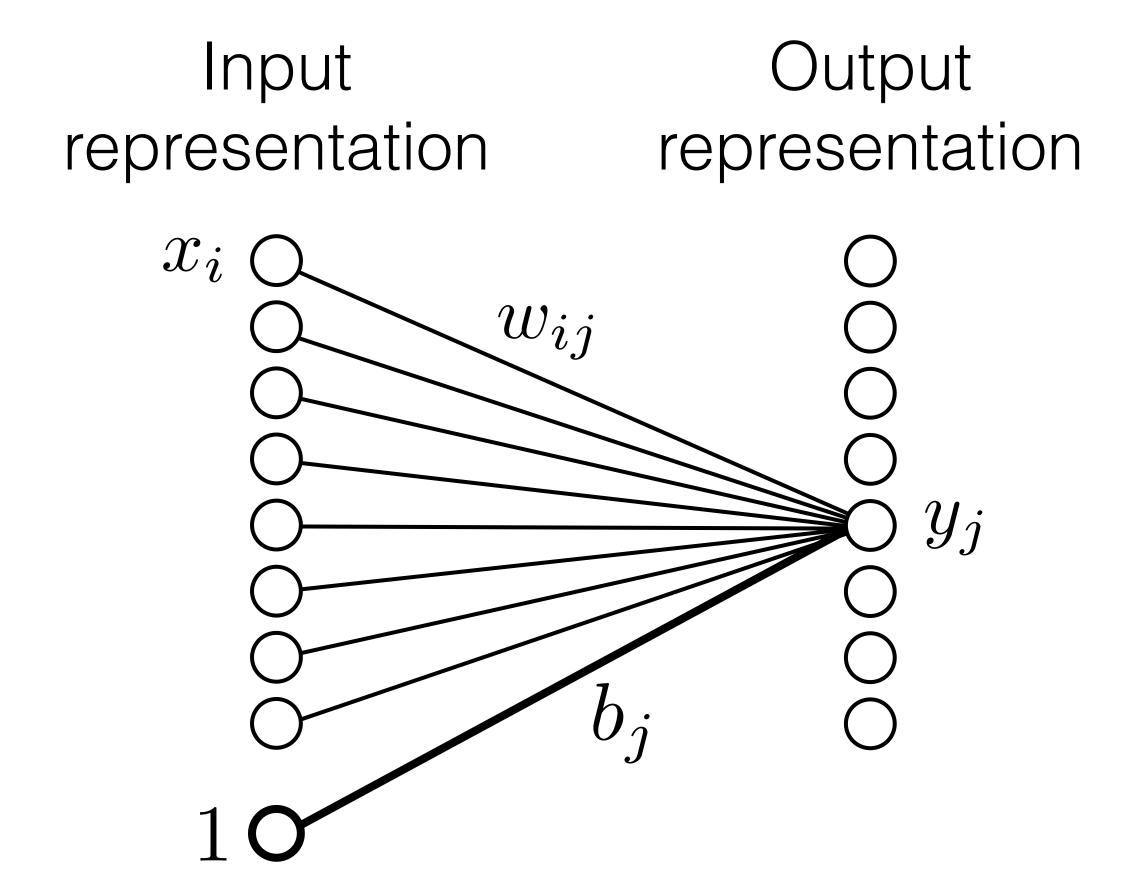


Linear layer



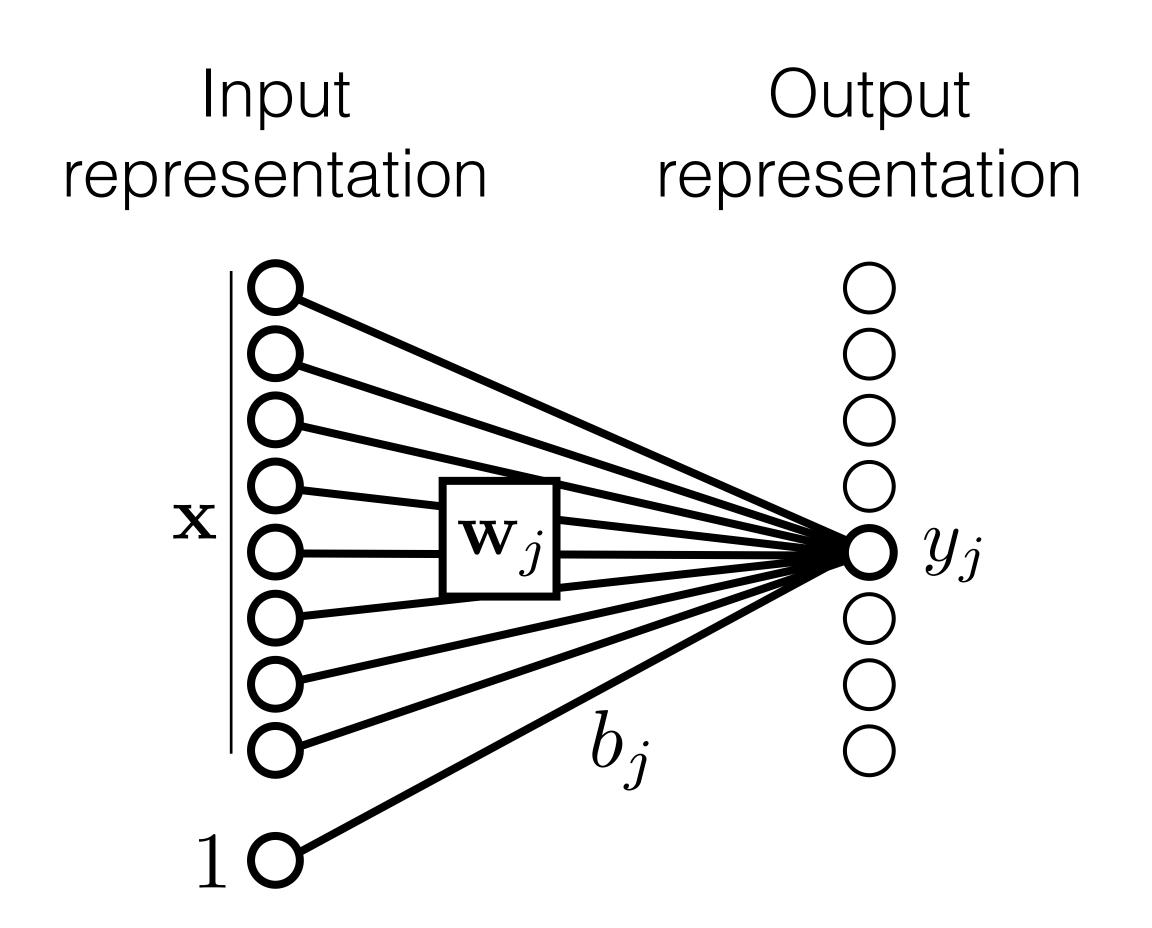
$$y_j = \sum_i w_{ij} x_i$$

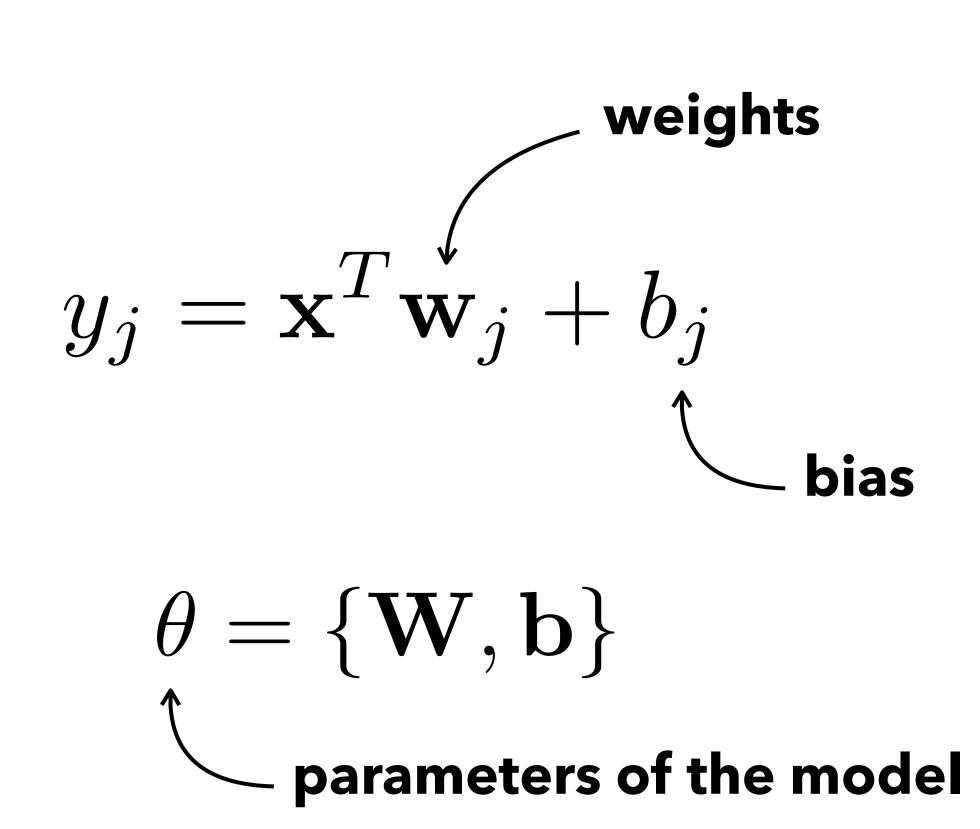
Linear layer



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

Linear layer

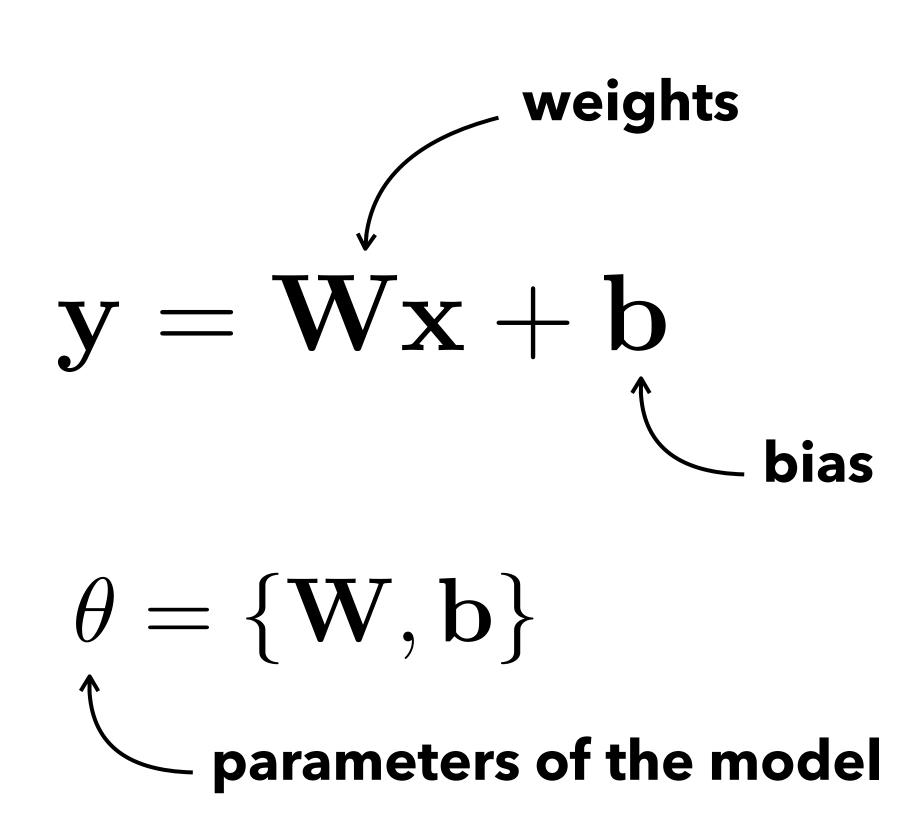




Linear layer

Output Input representation representation \mathbf{X} \mathbf{W}_{i} y_j

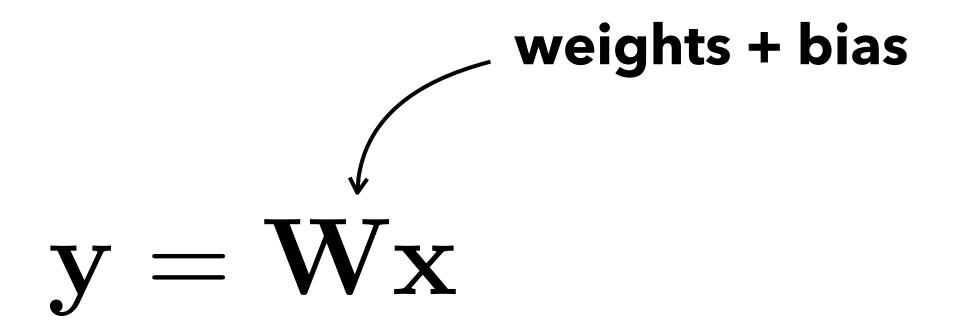
Full layer



Linear layer

Output Input representation representation \mathbf{X} \mathbf{W}_{i} y_j

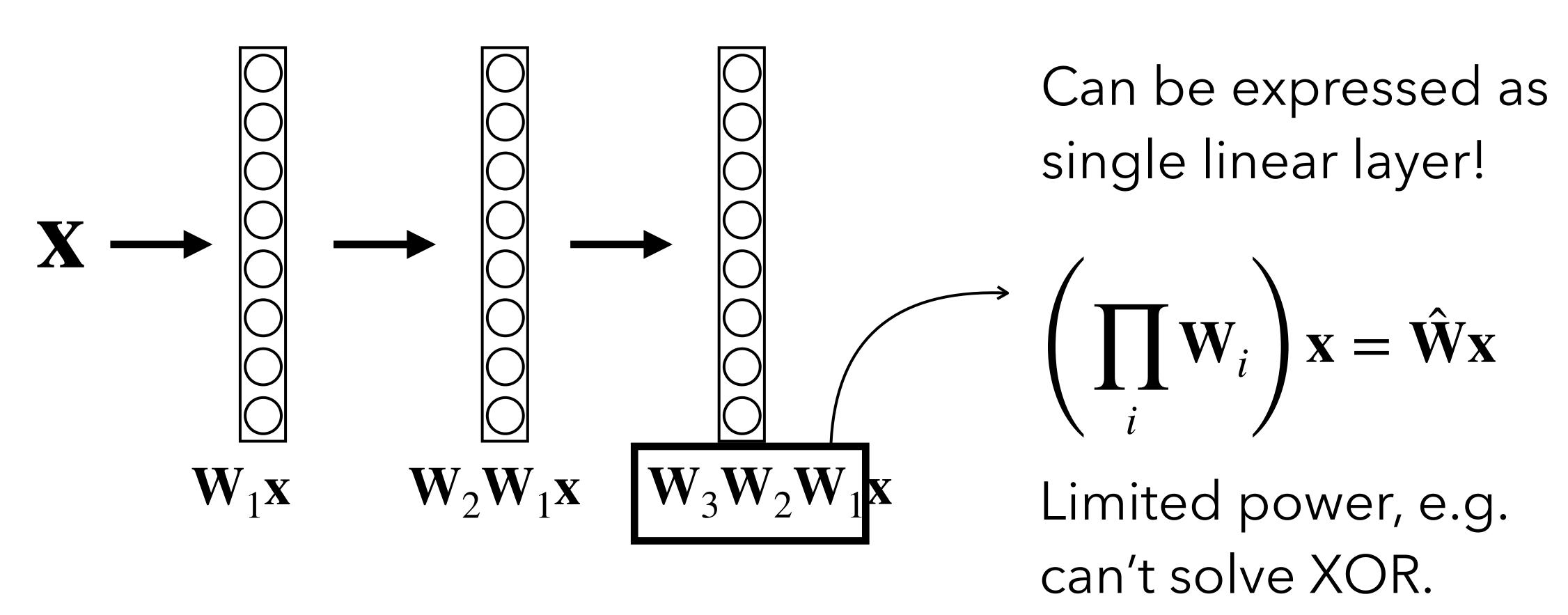
Full layer



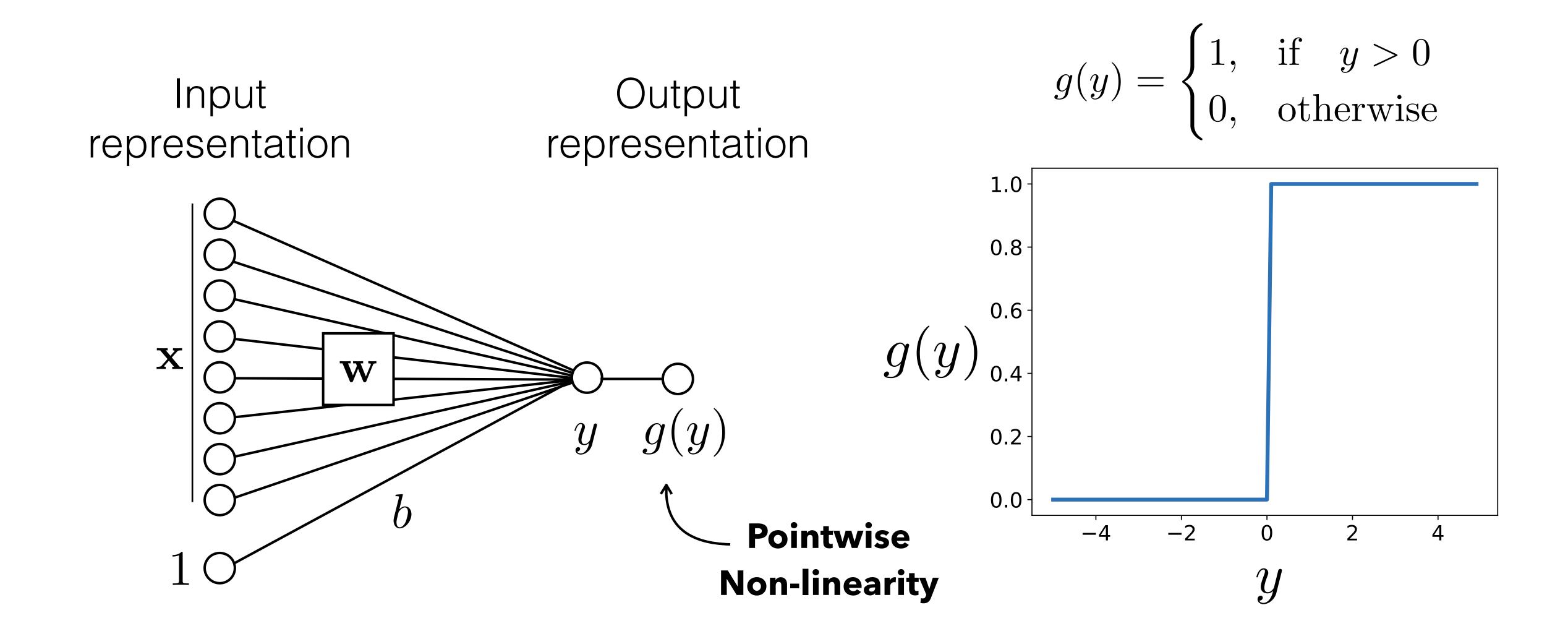
Can again simplify notation by appending a 1 to **x**

What's the problem with this idea?

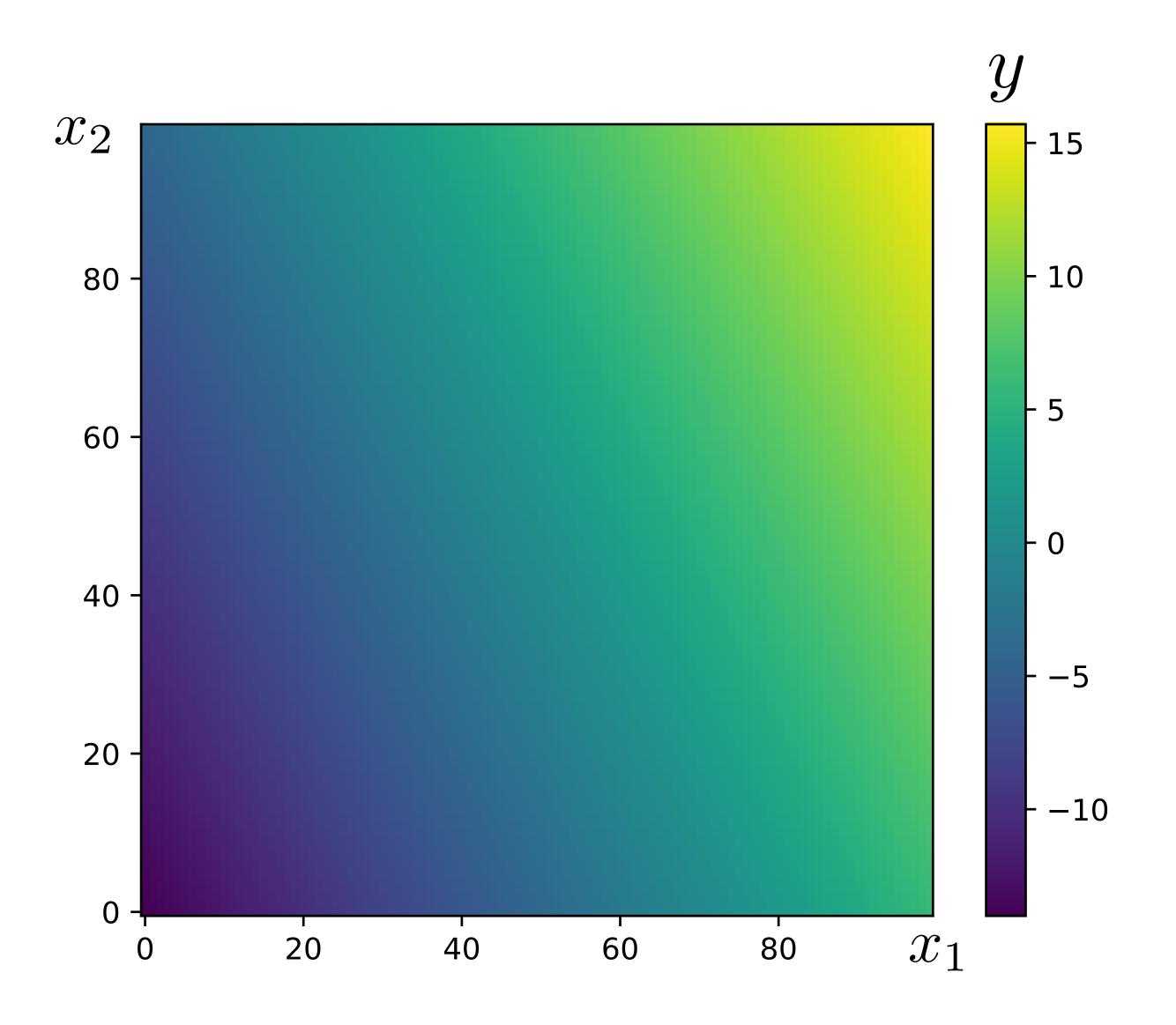
Consider stacking multiple layers:



Solution: simple nonlinearity

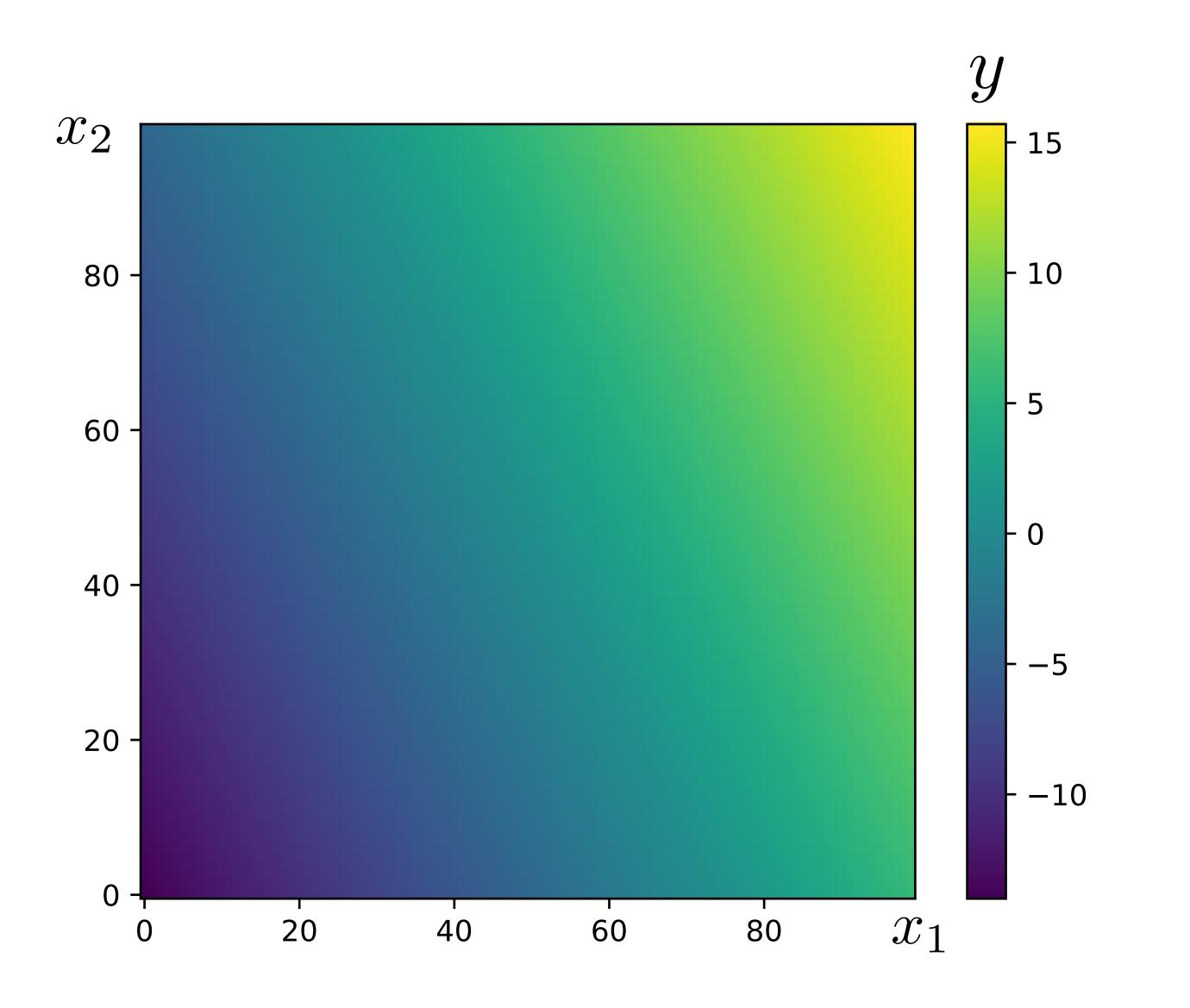


Example: linear classification with a perceptron



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

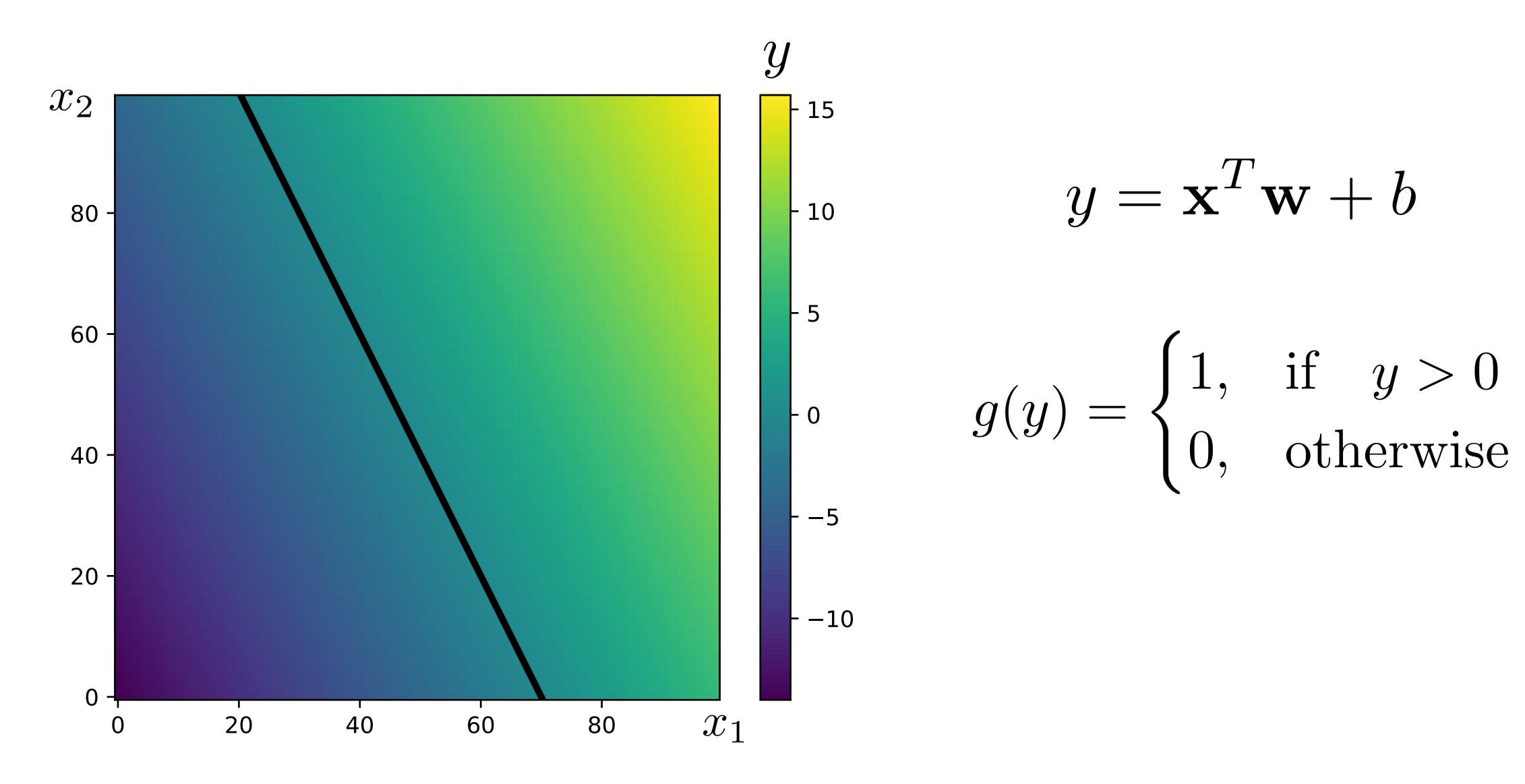
Example: linear classification with a perceptron



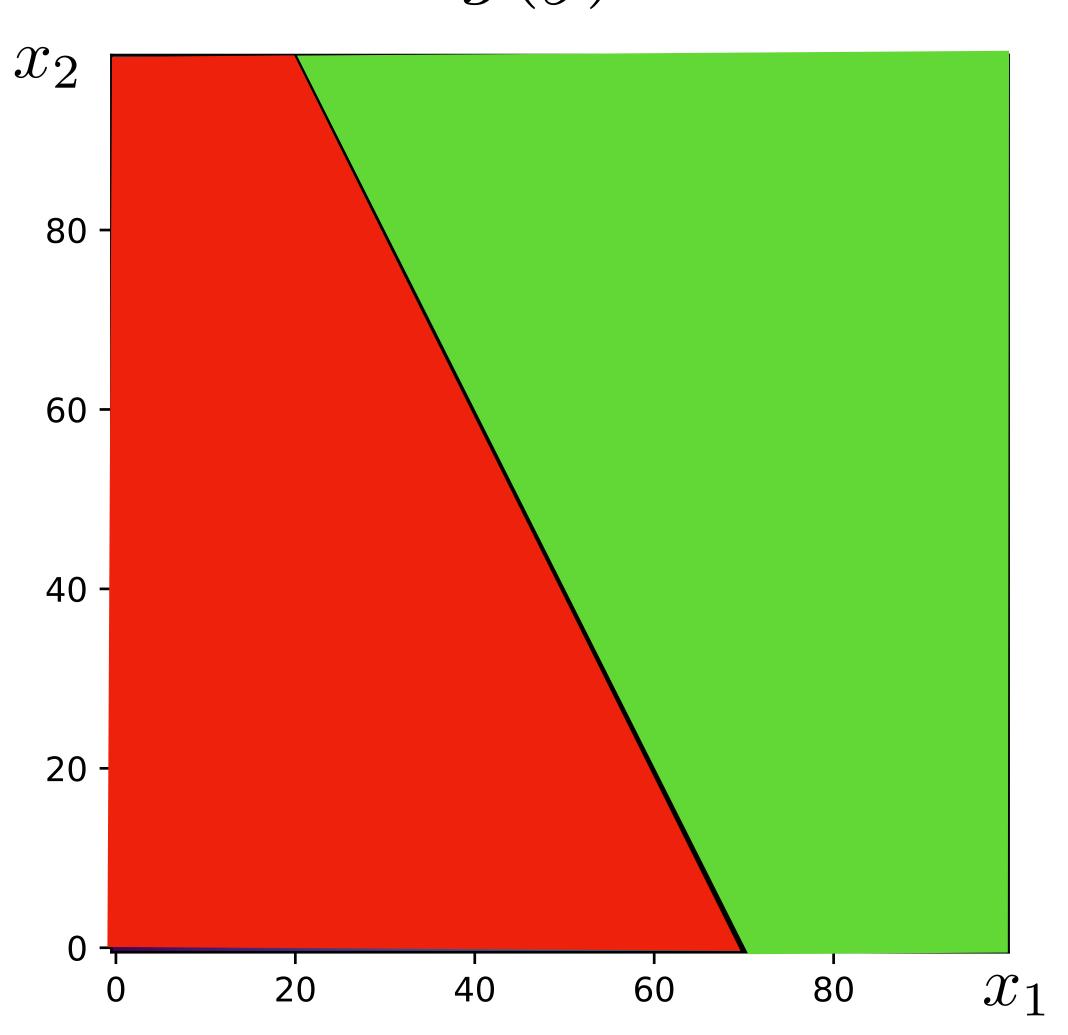
$$y = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

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

Example: linear classification with a perceptron

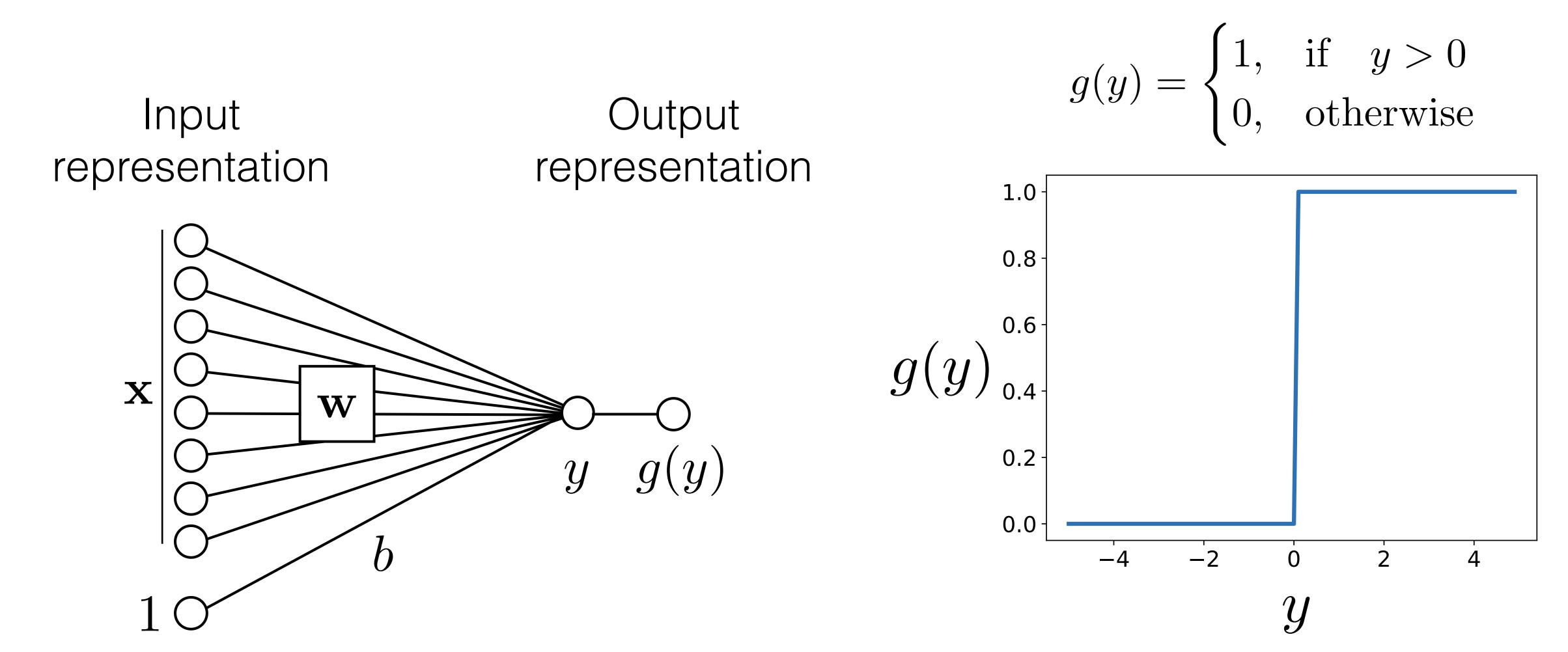


Example: linear classification with a perceptron g(y)

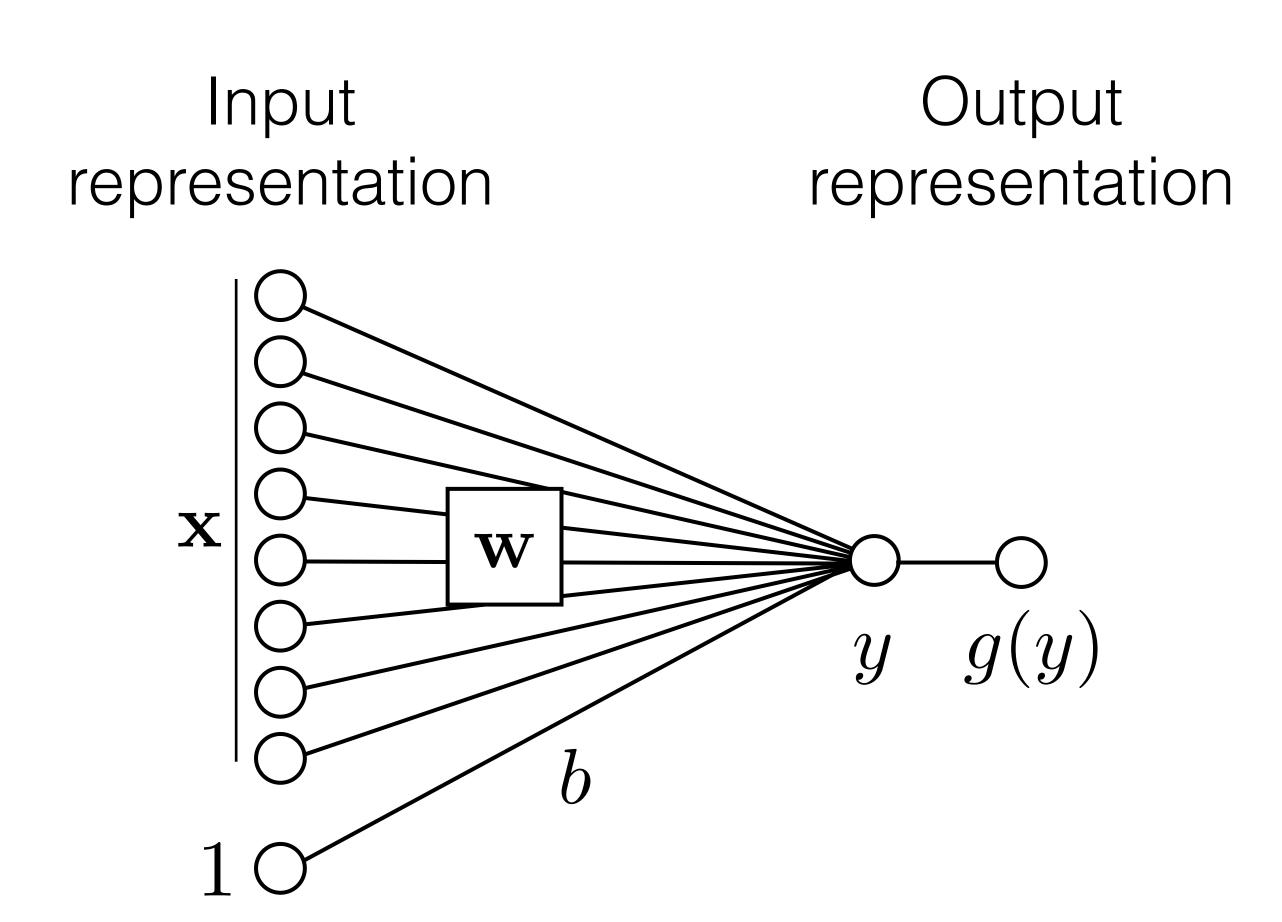


$$y = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + b$$

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



Can't use with gradient descent, $\nabla g = 0$



Sigmoid

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

$$(y) = \frac{1}{0.8}$$

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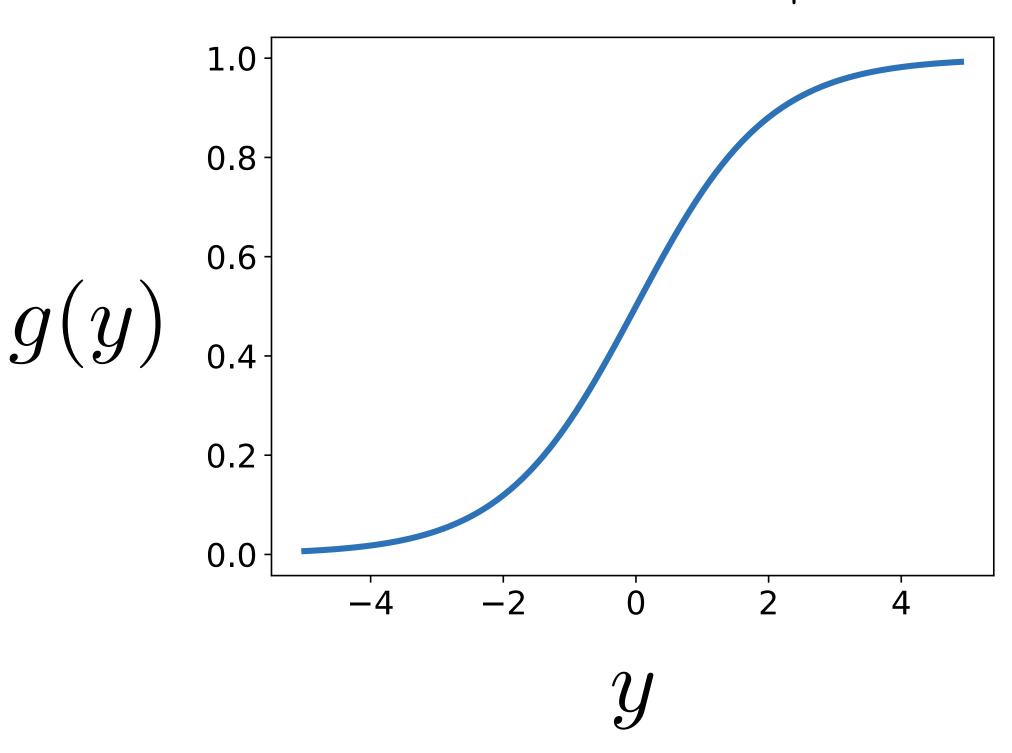
$$0.0$$

$$0$$

- Interpretation as firing rate of neuron
- Bounded between [0,1]
- Saturation for large +/- inputs
- Gradients go to zero
- Centered at 0.5. Better in practice to use: tanh(y) = 2g(y) 1

Sigmoid

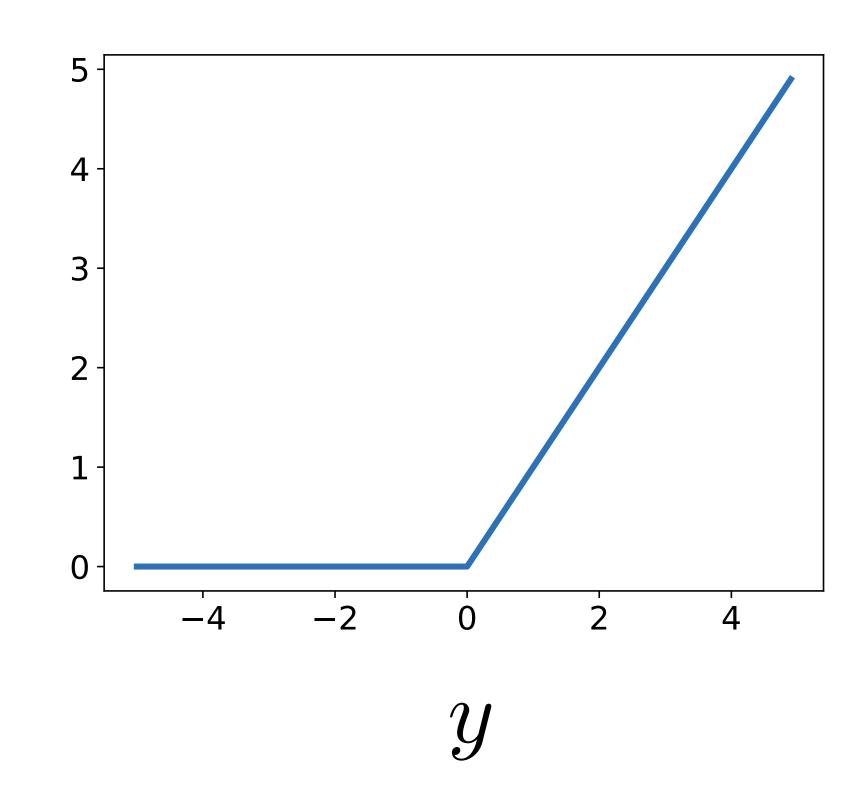
$$g(y) = \sigma(y) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y}}$$



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

Rectified linear unit (ReLU)

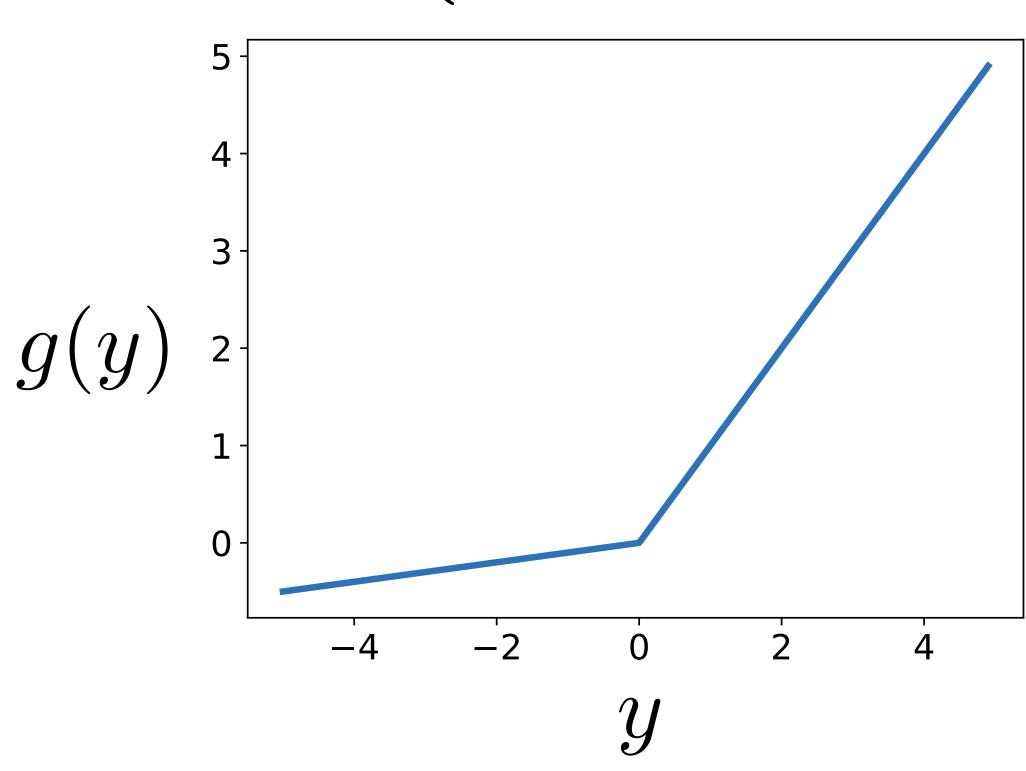
$$g(y) = \max(0, y)$$



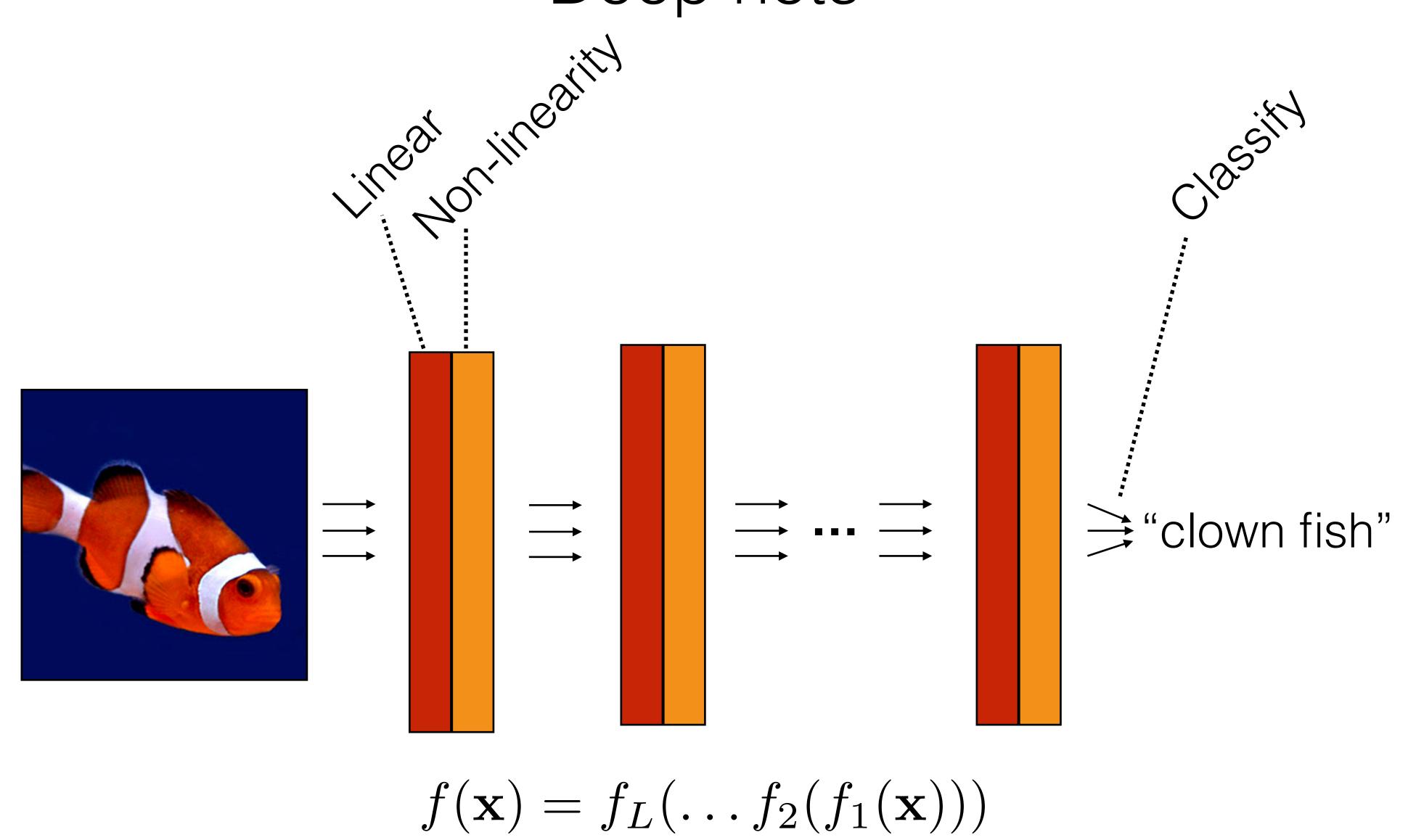
- where a is small (e.g. 0.02)
- Efficient to implement: $\frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = \begin{cases} -a, & \text{if } y < 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } y \ge 0 \end{cases}$
- Has non-zero gradients everywhere (unlike ReLU)

Leaky ReLU

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



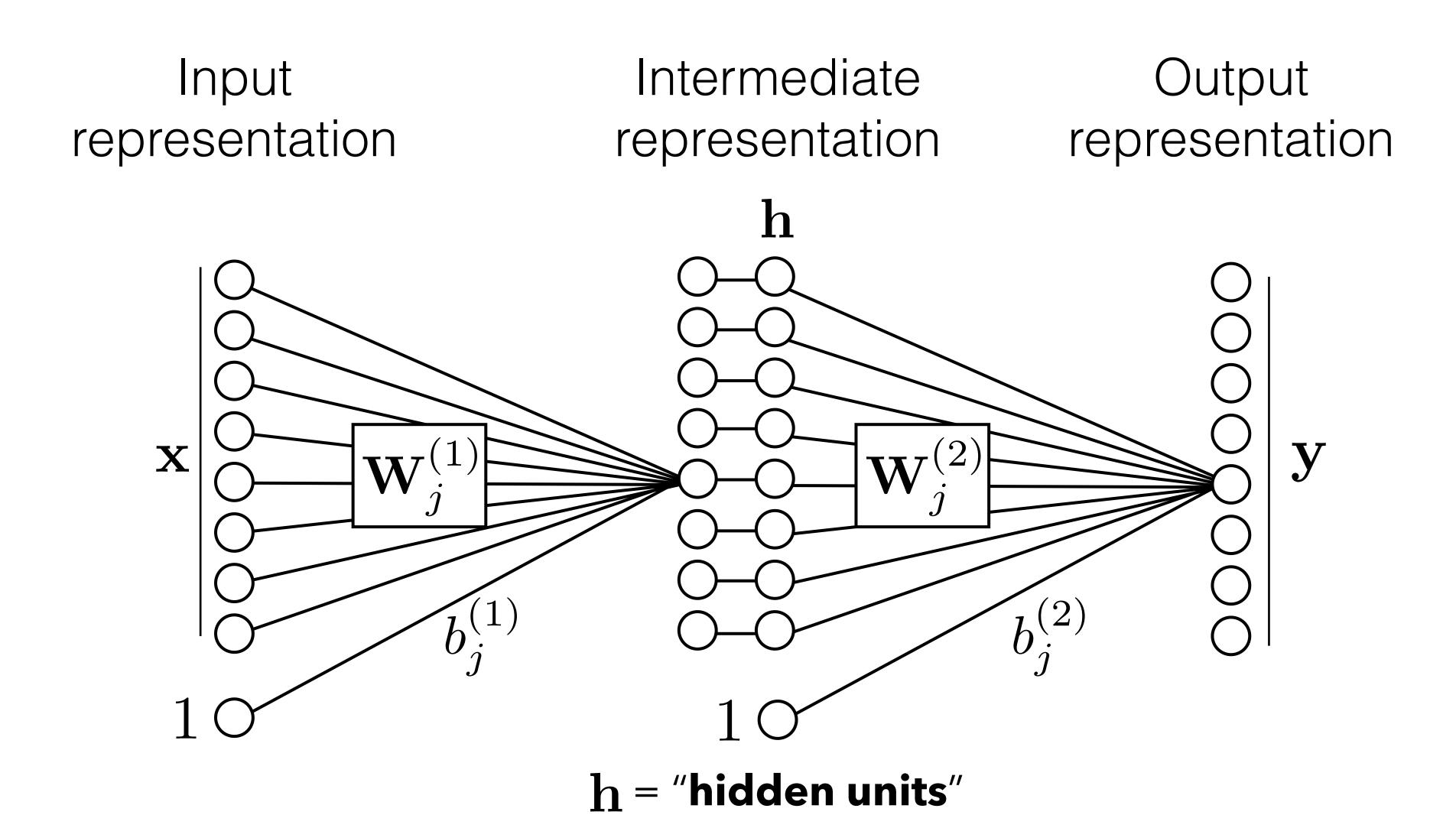
Deep nets



Computation has a simple form

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^{(n)} g(\mathbf{W}^{(n-1)} \dots g(\mathbf{W}^{(3)} g(\mathbf{W}^{(2)} (g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \mathbf{x}))))$$

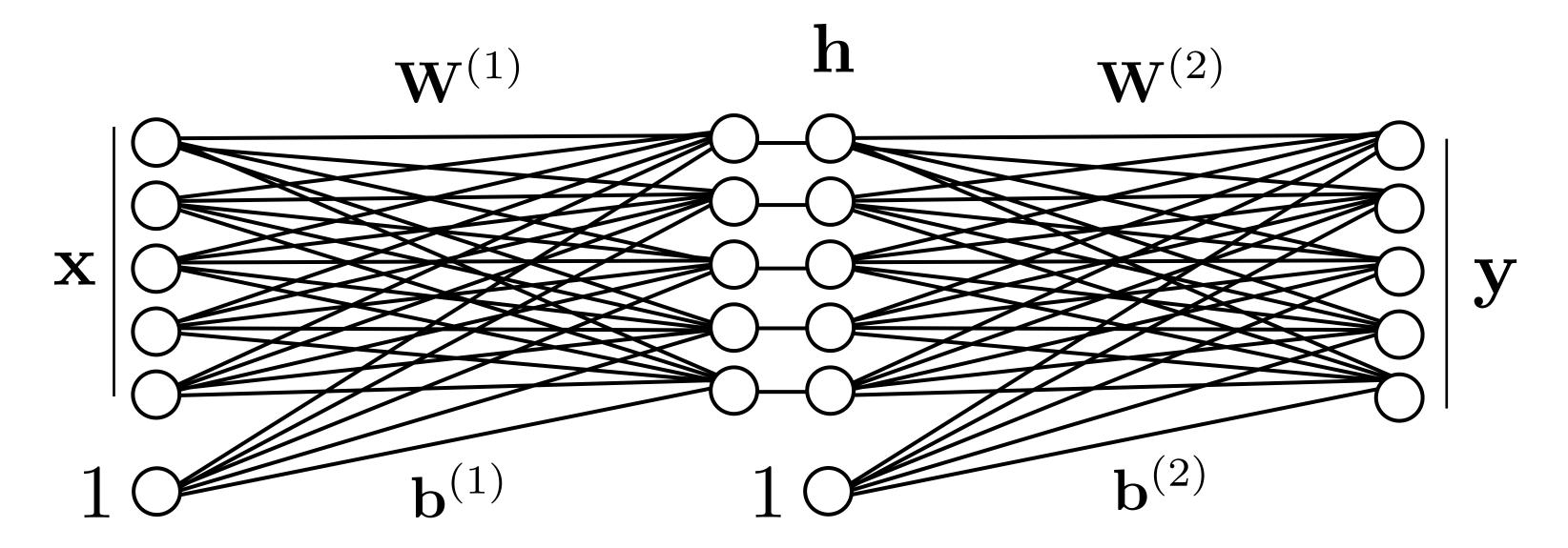
- Composition of linear functions with nonlinearities in between
- E.g. matrix multiplications with ReLU, max(0, x) afterwards
- Do a matrix multiplication, set all negative values to 0, repeat



Input representation

Intermediate representation

Output representation



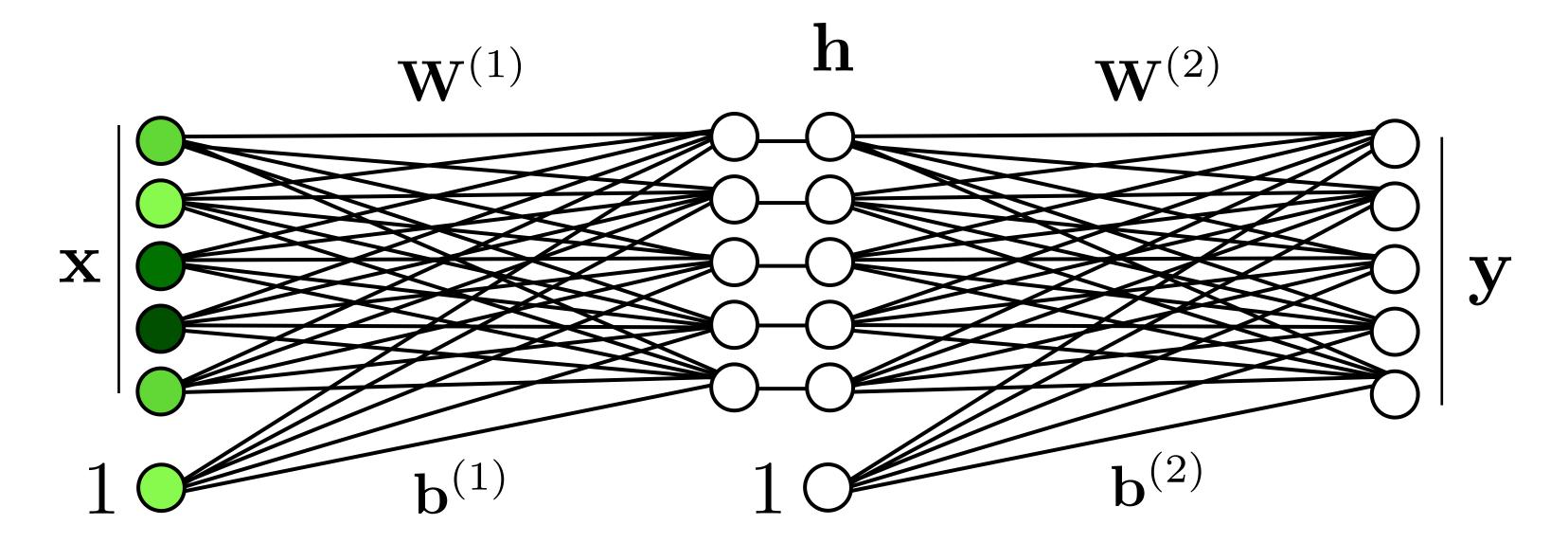
$$\mathbf{h} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$
 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$

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

Input representation

Intermediate representation

Output representation



positive

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

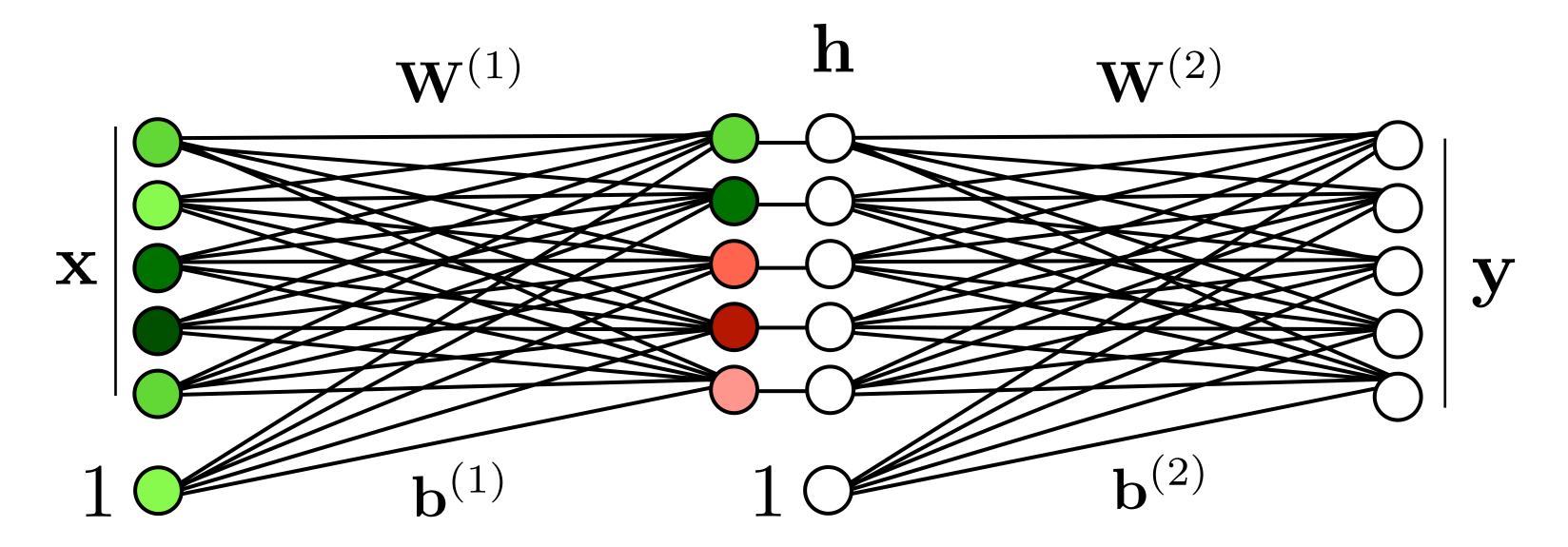
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$$

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

Input representation

Intermediate representation

Output representation



positive

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

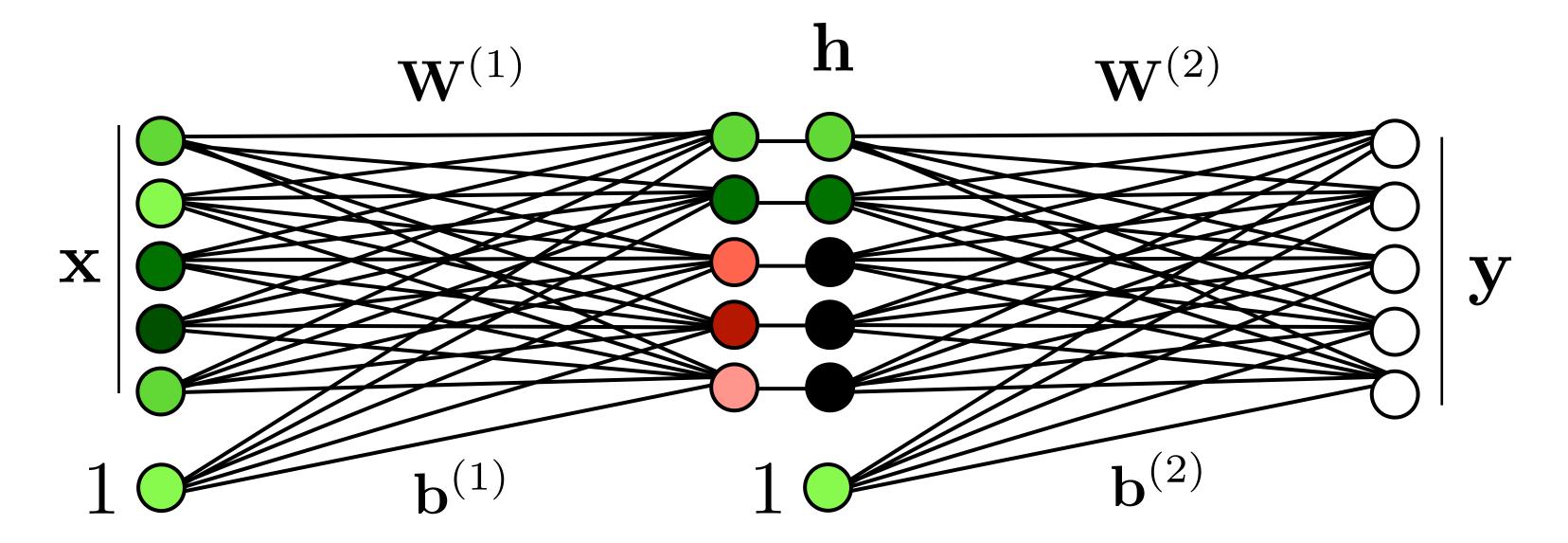
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$$

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

Input representation

Intermediate representation

Output representation



positive

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

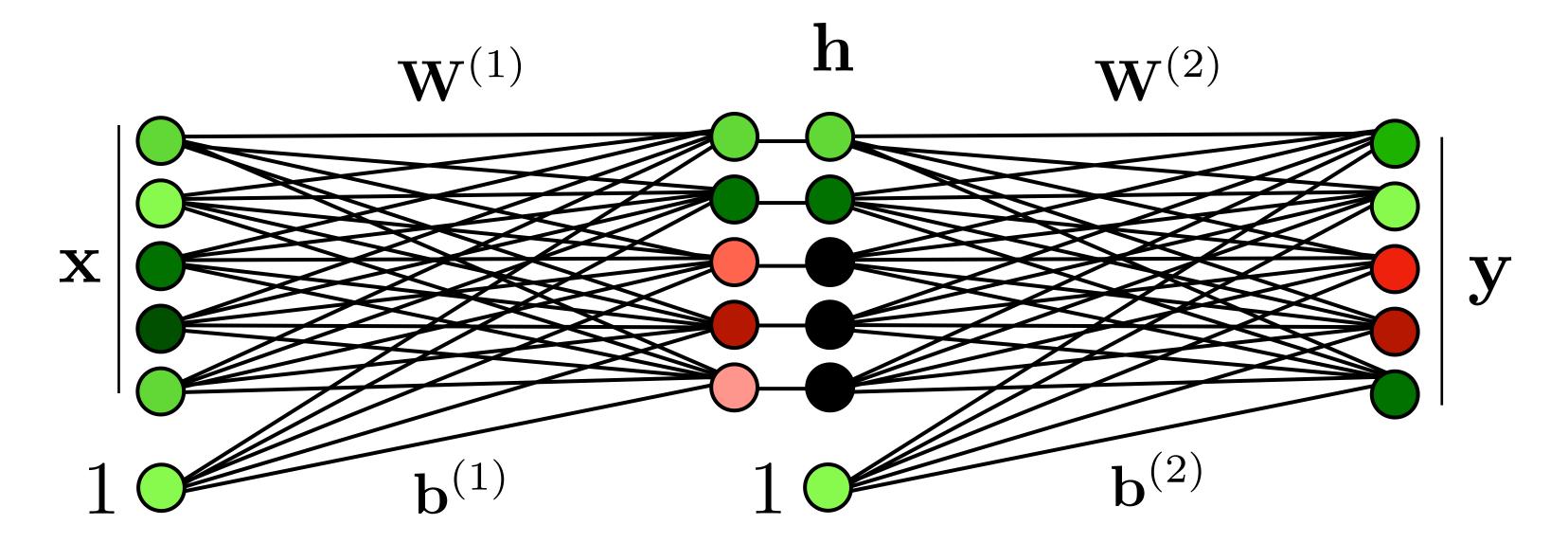
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$$

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

Input representation

Intermediate representation

Output representation



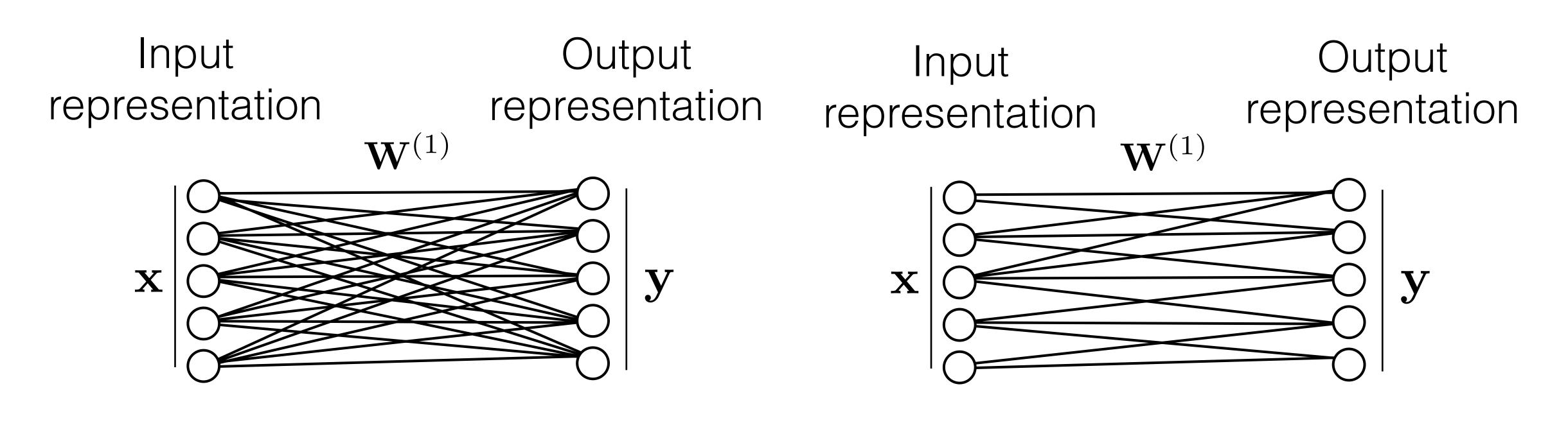
positive

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

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$$

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

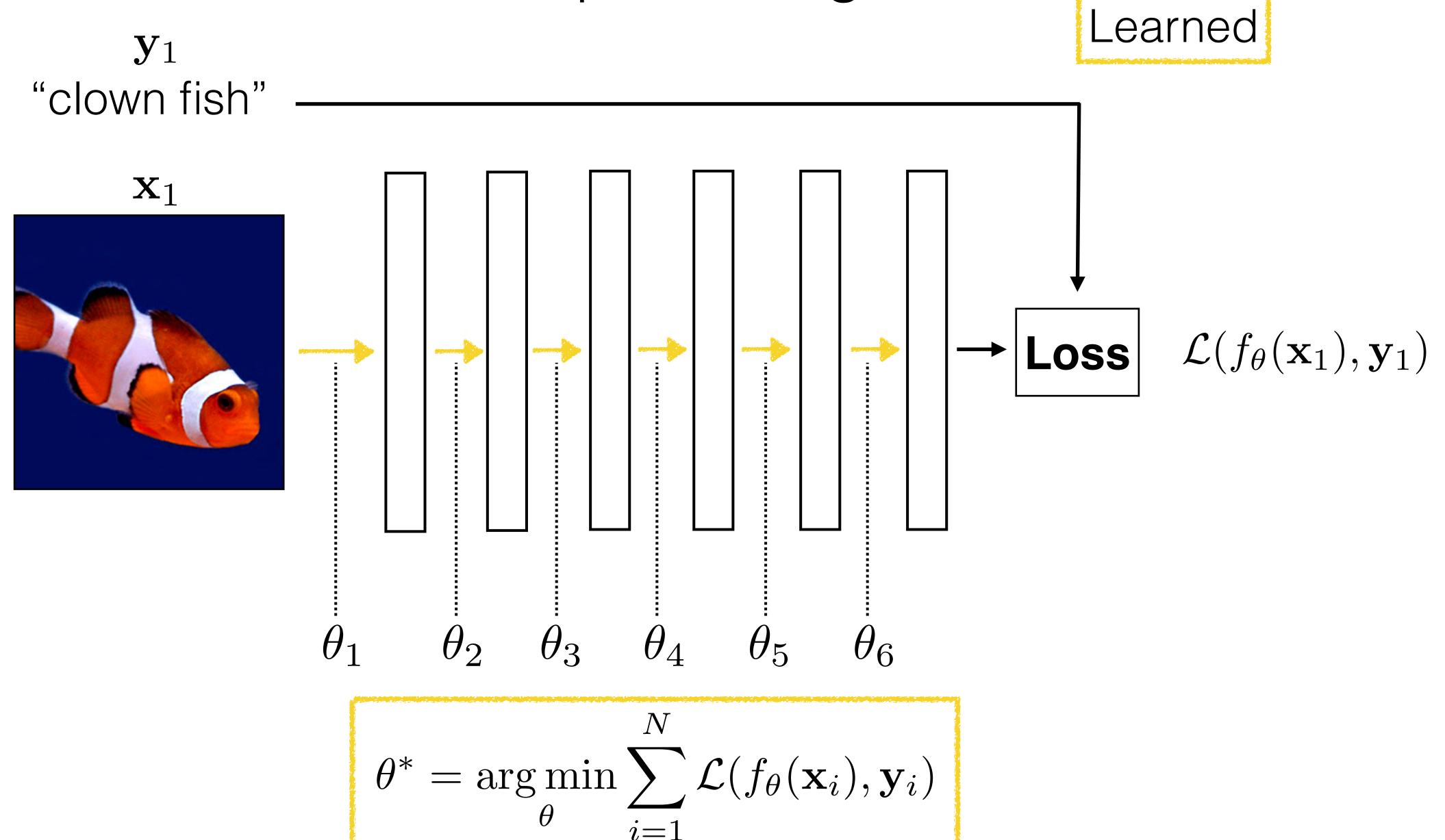
Connectivity patterns



Fully connected layer

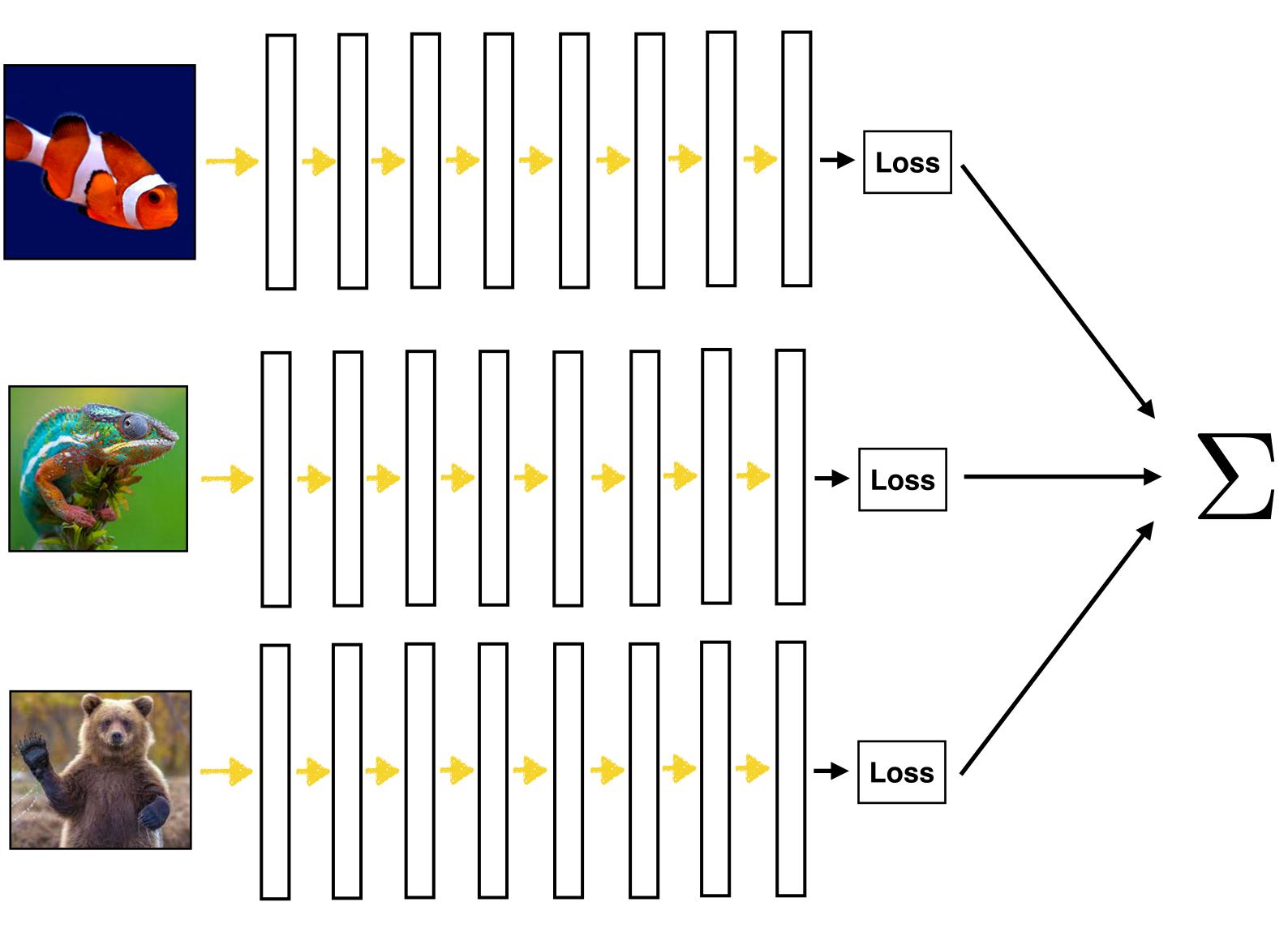
Locally connected layer (Sparse W)

Deep learning



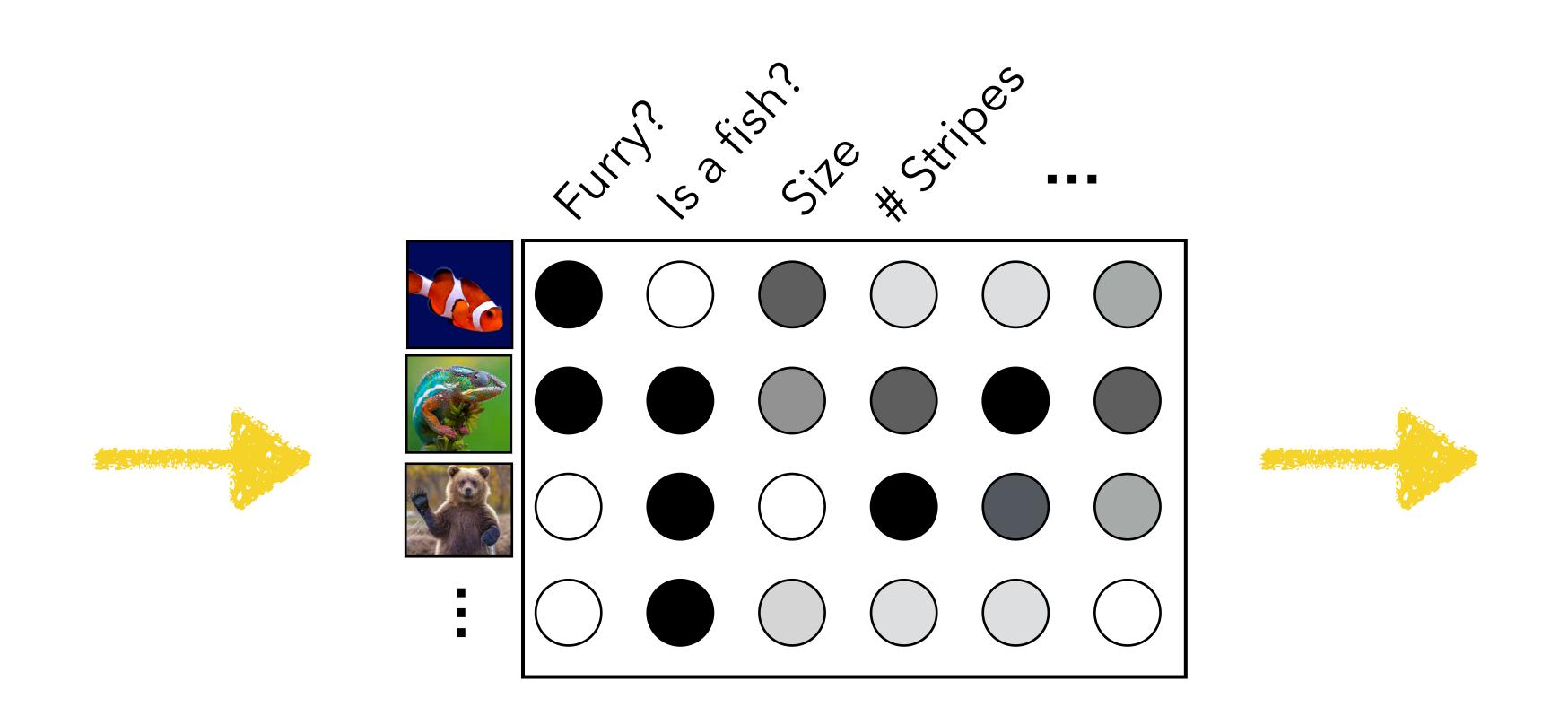
Source: Isola, Torralba, Freemai

Batch processing



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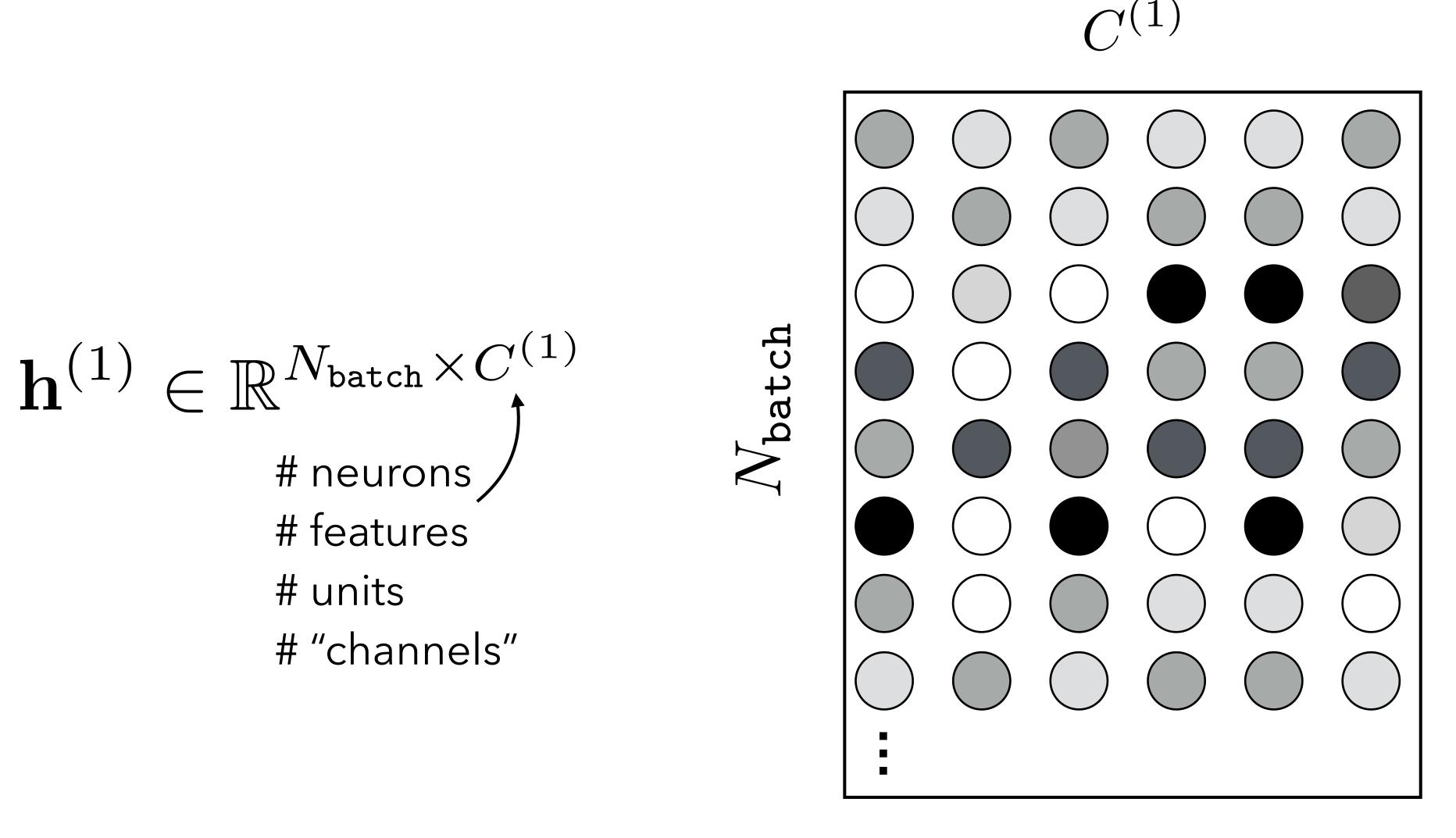
Tensors (multi-dimensional arrays)



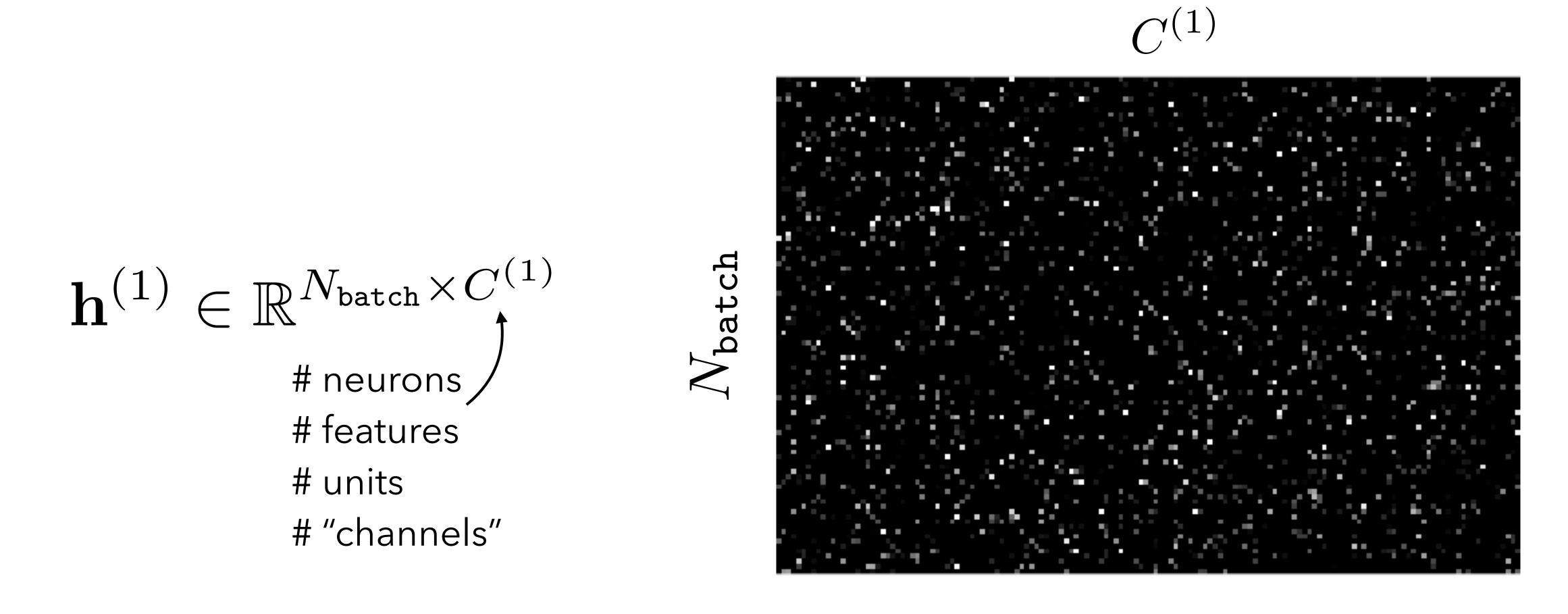
Each layer is a representation of the data

Tensors

(multi-dimensional arrays)



Tensors (multi-dimensional arrays)



Tensors

(multi-dimensional arrays)

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\mathrm{batch}} imes C^{(1)}}$$
 $\mathbf{h}^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\mathrm{batch}} imes C^{(2)}}$

Processing a layer

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{batch}} \times H^{(1)} \times W^{(1)} \times C^{(1)}}$$

$$\mathbf{h}^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{\text{batch}} \times H^{(2)} \times W^{(2)} \times C^{(2)}}$$

