Multimedia Indexing and Retrieval

Deep Learning for multimedia indexing and retrieval

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Outline

- Introduction
- Machine learning
- Loss function
- Formal neuron
- Single layer perceptron
- Multilayer perceptron
- Reminders about differential calculus
- Back-propagation
- Learning rate
- Mini-batches
- Convolutional layers
- Pooling, softmax ...



ImageNet Classification 2012 Results

Krizhevsky et al. – **16.4% error** (top-5) Next best (Pyr. FV on dense SIFT) – **26.2% error**



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ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC)

- 1000 visual "fine grain" categories / labels (exclusive)
- 150,000 test images (hidden "ground truth")
- 50,000 validation images
- 1,200,000 training images
- Each training, validation or test image falls within exactly one of the 1000 categories
- Task: for each image in the test set, rank the categories from most probable to least probable
- Metric: top-5 error rate: percentage of images for which the actual category is not in the five first ranked categories
- Held from 2010 to 2015, frozen since 2012

ImageNet Classification 2013 Results

http://www.image-net.org/challenges/LSVRC/2013/results.php Demo: http://www.clarifai.com/



Going deeper and deeper



For comparison, human performance is 5.1% (Russakovsky et al.)

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Deep Convolutional Neural Networks

- Decades of algorithmic improvements in neural networks (Stochastic Gradient Descent, initialization, momentum ...)
- Very large amounts of properly annotated data (ImageNet)
- Huge computing power (Teraflops × weeks): GPU!
- Convolutional networks
- Deep networks (>> 3 layers)
- ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit) activation functions
- Batch normalization
- Drop Out
- ...

Deep Learning is (now) EASY

- Maths: linear algebra and differential calculus (training only)
 - Y = A.X + B (with tensor extension)
 - $f(x + h) = f(x) + f'(x) \cdot h + o(h)$ (with multidimensional variables)
 - $(g \circ f)'(x) = (g' \circ f)(x) f'(x)$ (recursively applied)
- Tools: amazingly integrated, effective and easy to use packages
 - Mostly python interface
 - Autograd packages: only need to care of the linear algebra part
- Get started with:
 - 3-hour course
 - 1-hour PyTorch tutorial (familiarity with python assumed)

Supervised learning

- A machine learning technique for creating a function from training data.
- The training data consist of pairs of input objects (typically vectors) and desired outputs.
- The output of the function can be a continuous value (regression) or a class label (classification) of the input object.
- The task of the supervised learner is to predict the value of the function for any valid input object after having seen a number of training examples (i.e. pairs of input and target output).
- To achieve this, the learner has to generalize from the presented data to unseen situations in a "reasonable" way.
- The parallel task in human and animal psychology is often referred to as concept learning (in the case of classification).

2023-2024

• Most commonly, supervised learning generates a global model that helps mapping input objects to desired outputs.

Learning a target function

• Target function: $f: X \to Y$

$$x \to y = f(x)$$

- -x: input object, e.g., color image
- -y: desired output, e.g., class label or image tag
- X: set of valid input objects
- Y: set of possible output values



Set of possible color images:

$$X = \bigcup_{(w,h)\in\mathbb{N}^{*2}} [0,1]^{w\times h\times 3}$$

Set of possible image tags:

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Learning a target function

• Target function: $f: X \to Y$

 $x \to y = f(x)$

- -x: input object, e.g., color image
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- -X: set of valid input objects
- Y: set of possible output values



Set of possible color images:

$$X = \bigcup_{(w,h)\in\mathbb{N}^{*2}} [0,1]^{w\times h\times 3}$$

Set of possible tag scores:

$$Y = \mathbb{R}^{|\{\text{``cat",``dog"} ... \}|} = \mathbb{R}^{c}$$

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Learning a target function

• Target function: $f: X \to Y$

 $x \rightarrow y = f(x)$

- -x: input object, e.g., image descriptor
- -y: desired output, e.g., class label or image tag
- -X: set of valid input objects
- Y : set of possible output values



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Set of possible image descriptors:

 $X = \mathbb{R}^d$ (or subset of it)

Set of possible tag scores:

 $Y = \mathbb{R}^{c}$

D is a predefined and fixed function $\begin{bmatrix} 0,1 \end{bmatrix}^{w \times h \times 3}$ to \mathbb{R}^d from $(w,h) \in \mathbb{N}^{*2}$ 2023-2024

Learning from training data

- Training data: $S = (x_i, y_i)_{(1 \le i \le I)}$ - *I*: number of training samples
- Learning algorithm: $L: (X \times Y)^* \to Y^X$ $S \to f = L(S)$

$$((X \times Y)^* = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (X \times Y)^n)$$

 Y^X : set of all applications (maps) from X to Y

• Regression or classification system: y = f(x) = [L(S)](x) = g(S, x)

Supervised learning

• Target function: $f: X \to Y$

 $x \to y = f(x)$

- -x: input object (typically vector)
- -y: desired output (continuous value or class label)
- X: set of valid input objects
- Y: set of possible output values
- Training data: $S = (x_i, y_i)_{(1 \le i \le I)}$
 - *I* : number of training samples
- Learning algorithm: $L : (X \times Y)^* \to Y^X$ $S \to f = L(S)$
- Regression or classification system:

y = f(x) = [L(S)](x) = g(S, x)

Two types of functions

- Target function: $f: X \rightarrow Y$ $x \rightarrow y = f(x)$
 - maps input objects to desired outputs
 - often determined by a set of parameters
 - the function or its parameter are learnt from a training set
- Learning algorithm: $L: (X \times Y)^* \to Y^X$ $S \to f = L(S)$
 - maps training sets to target functions
 - often controlled by a set of hyper-parameters
 - hyper-parameters may be tuned on a validation set

Parametric supervised learning

- Parameterized function: $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to Y^X$ $\theta \to f_{\theta}$
- *f* is a "meta" function or a family of function
- Target function: $f_{\theta} : X \rightarrow Y$ $x \rightarrow y = f_{\theta}(x)$

X: set of valid input objects (
$$\mathbb{R}^d$$
)

- Y: set of possible output values (\mathbb{R}^c)
- Training data: $S = (x_i, y_i)_{(1 \le i \le I)}$ - *I*: number of training samples
- Learning algorithm: $L_f : (X \times Y)^* \to \mathbb{R}^m$ (learns θ from S) $S \to \theta = L_f(S)$
- Regression or classification system: $y = f_{\theta}(x) = f(\theta, x)$

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Single-label loss function

- Quantifies the cost of classification error or the "empirical risk"
- Example (Mean Square Error): $E_S(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=1} (f(x_i) y_i)^2$
- If *f* depends on a parameter vector θ (*L* learns θ): $E_{S}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{i=l} (f(\theta, x_{i}) - y_{i})^{2}$
- For a linear SVM with soft margin, $\theta = (w, b)$: $E_{S}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{i=I} \max(0, 1 - y_{i}(w^{T}x_{i} + b))$
- The learning algorithm aims at minimizing the empirical risk: $\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} E_S(\theta)$

Multi-label loss function

- Predict *P* labels for each data sample *x*
- *P* decision functions : $f = (f_p)_{(1 \le p \le P)}$
- Example with *f* depending on a parameter vector: $E_{S}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{i=I} \sum_{p=1}^{p=P} (f_{p}(\theta, x_{i}) - y_{ip})^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{i=I} (f(\theta, x_{i}) - y_{i})^{2}$ (same as single label case with Euclidean distance between vectors of predictions and vectors of labels)
- $\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} E_S(\theta)$
- The f_p functions may take any real value

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Formal neural or unit (two sub-units)



linear and vector part

$$y = \sum_{j} w_{j} x_{j} = w.x$$

linear combination

x : column vector *w* : row vector

non-linear and scalar part

$$z = \sigma(y+b) = \frac{1}{1+e^{y+b}}$$

sigmoid function

y, b, z : scalars

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Formal neural or unit (two sub-units)





linear and vector part

non-linear and scalar part

$$y = \sum_{j} w_j x_j = w.x$$

 $z = \sigma(y)$

 $z=\sigma(y+b)=\frac{1}{1+e^{y+b}}$

linear combination

sigmoid function

Globally equivalent to a linear SVM followed by a Platt normalization or to a logistic regression

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Neural layer (all to all, two sub-layers)



$$y_i = \sum_j w_{ij} x_j$$

 $z_i = \sigma(y_i + b_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{y_i + b_i}}$

matrix-vector multiplication

$$Y = W.X$$

per component operation $z = \sigma(Y + B)$

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Multilayer perceptron (all to all)



Multilayer perceptron (all to all)



 $Y_{1} = W_{1} \cdot X_{0} = F_{1}(W_{1}, X_{0}) \qquad X_{1} = \sigma(Y_{1} + B_{1}) = G_{1}(B_{1}, Y_{1})$ $Y_{2} = W_{2} \cdot X_{1} = F_{2}(W_{2}, X_{1}) \qquad X_{2} = \sigma(Y_{2} + B_{2}) = G_{2}(B_{2}, Y_{2})$ $Y_{3} = W_{3} \cdot X_{3} = F_{3}(W_{3}, X_{2}) \qquad X_{3} = \sigma(Y_{3} + B_{3}) = G_{3}(B_{3}, Y_{3})$ $O = X_{3} = G_{3} \left(B_{3}, F_{3} \left(W_{3}, G_{2} \left(B_{2}, F_{2} \left(W_{2}, G_{1} \left(B_{1}, F_{1} (W_{1}, X_{0} = I \right) \right) \right) \right) \right) \right)$

Denoting F(W) so that F(W, X) = (F(W))(X):

 $O = (G_3(B_3) \circ F_3(W_3) \circ G_2(B_2) \circ F_2(W_2) \circ G_1(B_1) \circ F_1(W_1))(I)$

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Composition of simple functions

Splitting units and layers, renaming and renumbering:



 $O = \left(F_6(W_6) \ o \ F_5(W_5) \ o \ F_4(W_4) \ o \ F_3(W_3) \ o \ F_2(W_2) \ o \ F_1(W_1)\right)(I) = \left(o_{n=1}^{n=6} \ F_n(W_n)\right)(I)$

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Composition of simple functions



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Composition of simple functions



- Model parameters: $\theta = (a_0, a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 ...)$
- Empirical risk on training data: $E(\theta) = \sum_{i} (y_i f_{\theta}(x_i))^2$
- Find the optimal function by gradient descent on $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Any function can do: sigmoids, gaussians, sin/cos ...
- ReLU is simpler and converges faster
- More layers: more complex functions with less parameters

Feed Forward Network

- Global network definition: O = F(W, I) $(I \equiv x \ O \equiv y \ F \equiv f \ W \equiv \theta$ relative to previous notations)
- Layer values: $(X_0, X_1 \dots X_N)$ with $X_0 = I$ and $X_N = O$ (X_n are vectors)
- Global vector of all unit parameters:
 W = (W₁, W₂ ... W_N)
 (weights by layer are concatenated, W_n can matrices or vectors or any parameter structure, and even possibly empty)
- Feed forward: $X_{n+1} = F_{n+1}(W_{n+1}, X_n)$
- Possibly "joins" and "forks" (but no cycles)

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Classical Image classification



Plus: multiple features, early or late fusion, re-scoring ...

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Classical Image classification



Still classical since 3-layer MLPs are at least 30 years old

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Deep "end-to-end" Image classification



- Fuzzy boundary between feature extraction and classification even if there is a transition between convolutional and fully connected layers
- End-to-end learning: features (descriptors) themselves are learned (by gradient descent) too, not engineered
- Possible only via the use of convolutional layers

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Convolutional layers (2D grid case)

- Alternative to the "all to all" (vector to vector) connections
- Preserves the 2D image topology via "feature maps"
- X_n are 3D data ("tensors") instead of vectors
- 2 of the dimensions are aligned with the image grid
- The third dimension is a set of values associated to a grid location (gathered in a vector per location but without associated topology)
- Each component in the third dimension correspond to a "map" aligned with the image grid
- Each data tensor is a "stack" of features maps
- Translation-invariant (relatively to the grid) processing

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3D tensor data (2D grid case)



Input image data is a special case with 3 feature maps corresponding to the RGB planes and sometimes 4 or even more for RGB-D or for hyper-spectral (satellite) image data.

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Convolutional layers (2D grid case)



- Each map point is connected to all maps points of a fixed size neighborhood in the previous layer
- Weights between maps are shared so that they are invariant by translation in the image plane

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Convolutional layers (2D grid case)

- Combination of:
 - -convolutions within the image plane
 - "all to all" within the map dimension
- Separable or non-separable combinations
- Resolution changes across layers: stride and pooling
- Examples: LeNet (1998) and AlexNet (2012)

Classical image convolution (2D to 2D)

- Classical image convolution (2D to 2D): $O(i,j) = (K * I)(i,j) = \sum_{(m,n)} K(m,n)I(i-m,j-n)$
- Convolutional layer (3D to 3D):
- *m* and *n* : within a window around the current location, corresponding to the filter size
- K(m, n) : convolution kernel
- Example: (circular) Gabor filter:

$$K(m,n) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \cdot e^{-\frac{m^2 + n^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{2\pi i \frac{m \cdot \cos \theta + n \cdot \sin \theta}{\lambda}}$$
Classical image convolution (2D to 2D)



3x3 convolution, no stride, half padding

Animation from https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv arithmetic/

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Classical image convolution (2D to 2D)



3×3 convolution, no stride, no padding Animation from https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv arithmetic/

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Classical image convolution (2D to 2D)



3×3 convolution, no stride, full padding

Animation from https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv_arithmetic/

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Set of image convolutions (2D to 3D)

- Set of image convolution (2D to 3D): $O(l, i, j) = (K(l) * I)(i, j) = \sum_{(m,n)} K(l, m, n)I(i - m, j - n)$
- *l* : index of the convolution map
- Example: Set of (circular) Gabor filters:

$$K(l,m,n) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_l^2} \cdot e^{-\frac{m^2+n^2}{2\sigma_l^2}} \cdot e^{2\pi i \frac{m \cdot \cos \theta_l + n \cdot \sin \theta_l}{\lambda_l}}$$

 $(\sigma_l, \lambda_l, \theta_l)_{(1 \le l \le L)}$: set of (circular) Gabor filter parameters practical filter size: $\pm 4\lambda_l$

Example Gabor Filter Kernels

Example of (elliptic) filters with 8 orientations and 4 scales



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Convolutional layers

- Set of image convolution (2D to 3D): $O(l, i, j) = (K(l) * I)(i, j) = \sum_{(m,n)} K(l, m, n)I(i - m, j - n)$
- Convolutional layer: multiple maps (planes) both in input and output (3D to 3D, plus bias):

$$O(l, i, j) = B(l) + \sum_{(k,m,n)} K(k, l, m, n) I(k, i - m, j - n)$$

- *k* and *l*: indices of the feature maps in the input and output layers
- *m* and *n*: within a window around the current location, corresponding to the feature size

Convolutional layers

 Convolutional layer: multiple maps (planes) both in input and output (3D to 3D, plus bias):

$$O(l, i, j) = B(l) + \sum_{(k,m,n)} K(k, l, m, n) I(k, i - m, j - n)$$

- Operation relative to (m, n) : convolution
- Operation relative to (*k*, *l*) : matrix multiplication plus bias (equals affine transform)
- Combination of:
 - Convolution within the image plane, image topology
 - Classical all to all "perpendicularly" to the image plane, no topology
- If image size and filter size = 1: fully connected "all to all"

Convolutional layers (3D to 3D)



2(input)×3×3×3(output) convolution, no stride, no padding Illustration from https://arxiv.org/abs/1603.07285

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Convolutional layers

- The convolution layer kernel is: (D + 2)-dimensional for *D*-dimensional input data, e.g. D = 2 for still images, D = 3 for video segments or scanner images.
- For color images, the RGB (or YUV or HSV ...) planes directly enter the first layer as a 3D volume of size width × height × 3
- There is one unit (neuron) per "pixel" in the output *D*-dimensional topology and per output feature map
- Unit set: set of units associated to a *D*-dimensional grid location, one unit per output feature map, one set per grid location
- There is a single translation-invariant (*D* + 2)-dimensional kernel per layer for mapping input pixel vectors to output pixel vectors at all *D*-dimensional grid locations

Resolution changes and side effects

- Side (border) effect:
 - crop the output "image" relative to the input one and/or
 - pad the image if the filter expand outside
- Resolution change (generally reduction):
 - Stride: subsample, e.g. compute only one out of N, and/or
 - Pool: compute all and apply an associative operator to compute a single value for the low resolution location from the high resolution ones, e.g.:

O(k, i, j) = op(I(k, 2i, 2j), I(k, 2i + 1, 2j), I(k, 2i, 2j + 1), I(k, 2i + 1, 2j + 1))

- Common pooling operators: maximum or average
- Pooling correspond to a separate back-propagation module (as for the linear and non-linear parts of a layer)

Pytorch tutorial network (LeNet)



(Grayscale image)

Pytorch tutorial network

class Net(nn.Module):

```
def __init__(self):
    super(Net, self). init ()
    # 1 input image channel, 6 output channels, 5x5 square convolution
    # kernel
    self.conv1 = nn.Conv2d(1, 6, 5)
    self.conv2 = nn.Conv2d(6, 16, 5)
    # an affine operation: y = Wx + b
    self.fc1 = nn.Linear(16 * 5 * 5, 120)
    self.fc2 = nn.Linear(120, 84)
    self.fc3 = nn.Linear(84, 10)
def forward(self, x):
    # Max pooling over a (2, 2) window
    x = F.max pool2d(F.relu(self.conv1(x)), (2, 2))
    # If the size is a square you can only specify a single number
    x = F.max_pool2d(F.relu(self.conv2(x)), 2)
    x = x.view(-1, self.num flat features(x))
    x = F.relu(self.fc1(x))
    x = F.relu(self.fc2(x))
    x = self.fc3(x)
    return x
```

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Pytorch tutorial network (color image)

```
class Net(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self):
        super(Net, self).__init__()
        self.conv1 = nn.Conv2d(3, 6, 5)
        self.pool = nn.MaxPool2d(2, 2)
        self.conv2 = nn.Conv2d(6, 16, 5)
        self.fc1 = nn.Linear(16 * 5 * 5, 120)
        self.fc2 = nn.Linear(120, 84)
        self.fc3 = nn.Linear(84, 10)
```

def forward(self, x):
 x = self.pool(F.relu(self.conv1(x)))
 x = self.pool(F.relu(self.conv2(x)))
 x = x.view(-1, 16 * 5 * 5)
 x = F.relu(self.fc1(x))
 x = F.relu(self.fc2(x))
 x = self.fc3(x)
 return x

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Learning Algorithm

- Training set: $S = (I_i, O_i)_{(1 \le i \le I)}$ input-output samples
- $X_{i,0} = I_i$ and $X_{i,n+1} = F_{n+1}(W_{n+1}, X_{i,n})$
- Note: regarding this notation the vector-matrix multiplication counts as one layer and the element-wise non-linearity counts as another one (not mandatory but greatly simplifies the layer modules' implementation)
- Error (empirical risk) on the training set: $E_{S}(W) = \sum_{i} (F(W, I_{i}) - O_{i})^{2} = \sum_{i} (X_{i,N} - O_{i})^{2}$
- Minimization on W of $E_S(W)$ by gradient descent

Gradient descent



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Error back-propagation

- Minimization of $E_S(W)$ by gradient descent:
 - The gradient indicate an ascending direction: move in the opposite
 - Randomly initialize W(0)

- Iterate
$$W(t+1) = W(t) - \eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial W}(W(t))$$
 $\eta = f(t) \text{ or } \left(\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial W^2}(W(t))\right)$

$$-\frac{\partial E}{\partial W} = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_1}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial W_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial W_N}\right) \qquad (W = (W_1, W_2, \dots, W_N))$$

- Back-propagation: $\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_n}$ is computed by backward recurrence from

 $\frac{\partial F_n}{\partial W_n}$ and $\frac{\partial F_n}{\partial X_{n-1}}$ applying iteratively $(g \circ f)' = (g' \circ f) \cdot f'$

- Two derivatives, relative to weight and to data to be considered

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 $\sqrt{-1}$

Stochastic gradient descent and batch processing

- $E_S(W) = \sum_i (F(W, I_i) O_i)^2 = \sum_i E_i(W)$
- $W(t+1) = W(t) \eta(t) \frac{\partial E}{\partial W}(t) = W(t) \sum_{i} \eta(t) \frac{\partial E_{i}}{\partial W}(t)$
- Global update (epoch): sum of per sample updates
- Classical GD: update W globally after all I samples have been processed (1 ≤ i ≤ I)
- Stochastic GD: update W after each processed sample
 → immediate effect, faster convergence
- Batch: update W after a given number (typically between 32 and 256) of processed samples → parallelism

Learning rate evolution

•
$$W(t+1) = W(t) - \eta(t) \frac{\partial E}{\partial W} (W(t))$$

- Large learning rate: instability
- Small learning rate: slow convergence
- Variable learning rate: learning rate decay policy
- Most often: step strategy: iterate "constant during a number of epochs, then divide by a given factor"
- Possibly different learning rates for different layers or for different types of parameters, generally with common evolution

Error back-propagation (adapted from Yann LeCun)



Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ $E = C(X_N, 0)$

We need gradients with respect to X_n . For *N*:

 $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_N} = \frac{\partial C(X_N, O)}{\partial X_N}$

Then backward recurrence:

| ∂E | ∂E | $\partial F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| $\overline{\partial X_{n-1}}$ | $\overline{\partial X_n}$ | ∂X_{n-1} |

Gradients with respect to W_n . For $1 \le n \le N$:

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

Error back-propagation 0: Prediction mode

Forward pass

Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$



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Error back-propagation 1: loss function



Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$

Loss function (for one sample): $E = C(X_N, 0)$ E(W, I, 0) = C(F(W, I), 0)

Sum over the whole training set or over a batch of samples:

$$E(W) = \sum_{i} E(W, I_i, O_i)$$

Same W, different (I_i, O_i)

Update:

$$W = W - \eta \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial W}$$

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Error back-propagation 2: Data backward pass



Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ $E = C(X_N, O)$

We need gradients with respect to X_n . For *N*:

 $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_N} = \frac{\partial C(X_N, O)}{\partial X_N}$

Then backward recurrence:

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

Error back-propagation 3: Parameter backward pass



Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ $E = C(X_N, 0)$

We need gradients with respect to X_n . For *N*:

 $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_N} = \frac{\partial C(X_N, O)}{\partial X_N}$

Then backward recurrence:

| ∂E | ∂E | $\partial F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| $\overline{\partial X_{n-1}}$ | $\overline{\partial X_n}$ | ∂X_{n-1} |

Gradients with respect to W_n . For $1 \le n \le N$:

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

Error back-propagation 4: Accumulate and update



Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ $E = C(X_N, 0)$

Gradients with respect to W_n . For $1 \le n \le N$:

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

Accumulate gradients and update parameters. For $1 \le n \le N$:

$$W_n = W_n - \eta \sum_i \frac{\partial E}{\partial W_n} (W, I_i, O_i)$$

Usually on batches

Error back-propagation: simplified notations



Forward pass, for $1 \le n \le N$: $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ $E = C(X_N, 0)$

We need gradients with respect to X_n . For *N*:

 $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_N} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial X_N}$

Then backward recurrence:

 $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{n-1}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_n} \frac{\partial X_n}{\partial X_{n-1}}$

Gradients with respect to W_n . For $1 \le n \le N$:

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_n} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_n} \frac{\partial X_n}{\partial W_n}$$

Layer module (adapted from Yann LeCun)



Notes: $X_{in} \equiv X_{n-1}$, $X_{out} \equiv X_n$, $W \equiv W_n$ and $F \equiv F_n$ for $1 \le n \le N$

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Layer module (adapted from Yann LeCun)



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Layer module (adapted from Yann LeCun)

Gradient back-propagation rule:

The gradient relative to the input (either *W* or *X*_{in}) is equal to the gradient relative to the output (*X*_{out}) times the Jacobian of the transfer function (respectively $\frac{\partial X_{out}}{\partial W}$ or $\frac{\partial X_{out}}{\partial X_{in}}$, left vector multiplication)

$$\frac{\partial F(W, X_{in})}{\partial X_{in}} \equiv \frac{\partial X_{out}}{\partial X_{in}} \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{in}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{out}} \frac{\partial X_{out}}{\partial X_{in}}$$
$$\frac{\partial F(W, X_{in})}{\partial W} \equiv \frac{\partial X_{out}}{\partial W} \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial E}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{out}} \frac{\partial X_{out}}{\partial W}$$

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Autograd variable (PyTorch)



data : X (may be X_{in} , W or X_{out}) grad : $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X}$ E : where backward() was called from grad_fn : F | X = F(...) : "None" for W or for inputs

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Autograd Variable and function



Input may be multiple (*Xin*, *W*) Autograd does not care about input types

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Autograd variable (PyTorch)



 F_n contains boththe data forward function $X_n = F(W_n, X_{n-1})$ and the gradient backwardfunction(s) $\frac{\partial E}{\partial X_{n-1}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_n} \cdot \frac{\partial F(W, X_{n-1})}{\partial X_{n-1}}$ $\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_n} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial X_n} \cdot \frac{\partial F(W_n, X_{n-1})}{\partial W_n}$

 X_0 is an input, not produced by any function: grad_fn = Null for X_0

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Autograd variable (PyTorch)



C contains both the data forward function

$E = C(X_N, O)$

and the gradient backward function(s)

| ∂E | ∂E | $\partial C(X_N, O)$ |
|---------------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| ∂X_N | ∂E | ∂X_N |
| ∂E | ðЕ | $\partial C(X_N, O)$ |
| $\overline{\partial O}$ – | ∂E | <u> </u> |



Define $X_n = F_n(W_n, X_{n-1})$ for $1 \le n \le N$ (or arbitrary network) End with $E = C(X_N, O)$ Execute a forward pass for a training sample (I, O)Call E.backward() (backward pass from *E* with $\partial E / \partial E = 1$) Get all $\partial E / \partial W_n$ (and $\partial E / \partial X_n$) for that training sample

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Linear module (adapted from Yann LeCun)



Note: X_{in} and X_{out} are regular (column) vectors and W is a matrix while $\partial E / \partial X_{in}$ and $\partial E / \partial X_{out}$ are transpose (row) vectors, this is because $dE = (\partial E / \partial X) dX$. $\partial E / \partial W$ is a transposed matrix which is the *outer* product of the regular and transpose vectors X_{in} and $\partial E / \partial X_{out}$.

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Pointwise module (adapted from Yann LeCun)



Notes: *B* is a bias vector on the input. X_{in} , X_{out} and *B* are regular (column) vectors all of the same size while $\partial E / \partial X_{in}$ and $\partial E / \partial X_{out}$ and $\partial E / \partial B$ are transpose vectors also of the same size. *f* is a scalar function applied pointwise on $X_{in} + B$. *f'* is the derivative of *f* and is also applied pointwise. The multiplication by $(f'(X_{in} + B))^T$ is also performed pointwise (Hadamard product denoted "o" here).

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Non-linear functions

- Sigmoid: $z = \frac{1}{1+e^{y}}$
- Hyperbolic tangent: $z = \tanh y$
- Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU): z = max(0, y)
- Programmable ReLU (PReLU) : $z = \max(\alpha y, y)$ with α learned (i.e. $\alpha \subset W$)

- Appropriate non-linear functions lead to better performance and/or faster convergence
- Avoid vanishing / exploding gradients

. . .
Neural Networks in practice

- Good news is that <a href="https://www.automatically.aut
- You only have to define the forward network sequence
- You still have to select various hyper-parameters and to organize:
 - iterations
 - batch processing
 - learning rate schedule
 - possibly data augmentation

Momentum

- Optimization and regularization technique
- One-level update rule:

- Gradient modifies position: $W(t + 1) = W(t) - \eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial W}(t)$

• Two-level update rule:

- Gradient modifies velocity: $V(t + 1) = \beta V(t) + \frac{\partial E}{\partial W}(t)$

- Velocity modifies position: $W(t + 1) = W(t) - \eta V(t)$

- β is chosen slightly smaller than 1: small corrections
- Implement "inertia": more stable trajectories
- Allows crossing of saddle points
- Faster training, better performance

Weight decay

- Regularization technique
- Add a penalty term to the Empirical Risk function

•
$$E(W) \to E(W) + \frac{\lambda}{2}W^2$$

•
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W}(t) \rightarrow \frac{\partial E}{\partial W}(t) + \lambda W(t)$$

- λ chosen as a small value, typical 10^{-4}
- Avoid divergence of parameter values

Dropout

- Regularization technique
- During training, at each epoch, neutralize a given (typically 0.2 to 0.5) proportion *p* of randomly selected connections
- Compensation with a multiplicative 1/(1-p) factor for the remaining connections
- All connections active during evaluation
- Avoid concentration of activations on particular connections
- More robust operation, faster training, better performance
- Counts as a function (forward and backward parts)
- Different modes for training and evaluation

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Batch Normalization

- Stabilization technique
- Necessary for training very deep networks
- Maintain the dynamic range of the incoming data in a stable region, preventing it from diverging across numerous layers

$$y = rac{x - \mathrm{E}[x]}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}[x] + \epsilon}} * \gamma + eta$$

- γ and β are learnable parameters
- ϵ is for avoiding division by 0 for constant data

Batch Normalization

$$y = rac{x - \mathrm{E}[x]}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}[x] + \epsilon}} * \gamma + eta$$

- No need for bias in the preceding layer (ignored)
- Running estimates during training used during evaluation
- Counts as a function (forward and backward parts)
- Different modes for training and evaluation
- Faster training, better performance

Softmax

 Normalization of output as probabilities (positive values summing to 1) for the multiclass problem (i.e. target categories are mutually exclusive)

•
$$z_i = \frac{e^{y_i}}{\sum_j e^{y_j}}$$

- Not suited for the multi-label case (i.e. target categories are not mutually exclusive)
- Associated loss function is cross-entropy

Cross-entropy loss (multi-class)

- p_i : probability vector for class i
- l_i : truth value for class *i* ("one hot encoding")
- $L = \sum_i -(l_i \log p_i)$
- For exclusive classes, l_i is equal to 1 only for the right class i_0 and to 0 otherwise:
- $L = -\log p_{i_0}$ (log 1 = 0 and log 0 = $-\infty$)
- Forces p_{i_0} to be close to 1, very high loss value if p_{i_0} is close to $0 \rightarrow$ faster convergence
- Other p_i indirectly forced to be close to 0 because the p_i s sums to 1
- With softmax: forces y_{i_0} to be greater than the other y_i s

Cross-entropy loss (multi-label)

- Non-exclusive categories are called labels and are seen as independent, each with two-classes
- p_i : probability vector for label *i*
- l_i : truth value for label *i* (either 0 or 1)
- Sigmoid "normalization": $p_i = \frac{1}{1+e^{-y_i}}$ and $1 p_i = \frac{1}{1+e^{y_i}}$

•
$$L = \sum_{i} -(l_i \log p_i + (1 - l_i) \log(1 - p_i))$$

- Same formula as for multi-class with a two-class problem for each label
- Sum of CE Losses per label
- Note: works also if l_i has non-binary values (probabilities of the true distribution)

AlexNet (ImageNet Challenge 2012)

[Krizhevsky et al., 2012]

- 7 hidden layers, 650K units, 60M parameters (W)
- GPU implementation (50× speed-up over CPU)
- Trained on two GTX580-3GB GPUs for a week



A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. Hinton, ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks, NIPS 2012

AlexNet "conv5" example



- Number of units ("neurons") in a layer (= size of the output tensor): output image width (13) × output image height (13) × number of output planes (256) = 43,264
- Number of weights in a layer (= number of weights in a layer): number of input planes (384) × number of output planes (256) × filter width (3) × filter height (3) = 884,736 (884,992 including biases)
- Number of connections: number of grid locations × number of weights in a unit set (excluding biases) = 149,520,384

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Yann LeCun recommendations

- Use ReLU non-linearities (tanh and logistic are falling out of favor)
- Use cross-entropy loss for classification
- Use Stochastic Gradient Descent on minibatches
- Shuffle the training samples
- Normalize the input variables (zero mean, unit variance)
- Schedule to decrease the learning rate
- Use a bit of L1 or L2 regularization on the weights (or a combination)
 But it's best to turn it on after a couple of epochs
- Use "dropout" for regularization
 - Hinton et al 2012 <u>http://arxiv.org/abs/1207.0580</u>
- Lots more in [LeCun et al. "Efficient Backprop" 1998]
- Lots, lots more in "Neural Networks, Tricks of the Trade" (2012 edition) edited by G. Montavon, G. B. Orr, and K-R Müller (Springer)

Recent trends

- VGG and GoogLeNet (16-19 and 22 layers)
- Residual networks (152 layers with "shortcuts")
- Stochastic depth networks (up to 1202 layers)
- Dense Networks
- Weakly supervised / unsupervised learning
- Generative adversarial networks
- Segmentation networks
- Multimodal embeddings

GoogLeNet (very deep)



Christian Szegedy et al.: Going Deeper with Convolutions, CVPR 2014.

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GoogLeNet (very deep)



(a) Inception module, naïve version

(b) Inception module with dimension reductions



Reminder: 1x1 convolutions actually implements an all-to-all between the input and output maps (pixel-wise all-to-all)

Christian Szegedy et al.: Going Deeper with Convolutions, CVPR 2014.

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VGG Network (very deep)



Simonyan and Zisserman, Andrew: Very Deep Convolutional Networks for Large-Scale Image Recognition, CVPR 2014.

Residual networks (ultra deep)



Ultra deep network with "shortcuts"

He, Zhang, Ren and Sun: Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition, CVPR 2015

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Stochastic depth networks (extremely deep)



ResNet with stochastic depth "Dropout at the layer level"

Huang et al.: Deep Networks with Stochastic Depth, CVPR 2016

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Dense networks



Huang et al.: Densely Connected Convolutional Networks, CVPR 2016

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Dense networks



A deep DenseNet with three dense blocks The layers between blocks are transition layers that change the resolution via convolution and pooling

Huang et al.: Densely Connected Convolutional Networks, CVPR 2016

Weakly / unsupervised learning

- Gather millions (from 1 to 100) of images from the web
- Two main strategies:
 - Query an image search engine (e.g. Google) with either target tags or descriptions \rightarrow we can choose the categories
 - Download images with associated descriptions from a social network (e.g. Flickr) and extract/select tags from the description
 → we have to do with the available categories
- Filter the results (may use cross-validation predictions)
- Train from noisy data and compensate the loss due to noise with a gain from quantity
- Work on the quality of the category-image association
- Use classifiers or features for transfer learning

Weakly / unsupervised learning

- Webly Supervised Learning of Convolutional Networks Xinlei Chen and Abhinav Gupta arXiv:1505.01554, May 2015
- Effective training of convolutional networks using noisy Web images Phong D. Vo, Alexandru Ginsca, Hervé Le Borgne, Adrian Popescu CBMI, June 2015
- Learning from Massive Noisy Labeled Data for Image Classification Tong Xiao, Tian Xia, Yi Yang, Chang Huang, and Xiaogang Wang CVPR, June 2015
- Harnessing Noisy Web Images for Deep Representation Phong D. Vo, Alexandru Ginsca, Hervé Le Borgne, Adrian Popescu arXiv:1512.04785, July 2016
- Learning Visual Features from Large Weakly Supervised Data Armand Joulin, Laurens van der Maaten, Allan Jabri, and Nicolas Vasilache ECCV, Sep. 2016

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Engineered versus learned descriptors

- Classical "classification pipeline"
 - Extraction(s) [aggregation] optimization(s) classifier(s) – one or more levels of fusion – re-scoring (non exhaustive example)
 - Most of the stages are explicitly engineered: the form of descriptors or processing steps has been thought and designed by a skilled engineer or researcher
 - Lots of experience and acquired expertise by thousands of smart people over tens of years
 - Learning concerns only the classifier(s) stages and a few hyper-parameters controlling the other ones
 - Almost everything has been tried
 - The more you incorporate, the more you get (at a cost)

Engineered versus learned descriptors

- Deep learning pipeline: MLP with about 8 layers
 - Advances in computing power (Tflops): large networks possible
 - Algorithmic advance: combination of convolutional layers for the lower stages with all-to-all layers; the topology of the image is preserved in the lower layers with weights shared between the units within a layer
 - Algorithmic advances: NN researchers finally find out how to have back-propagation working for MLP with more than three layers
 - Image pixels are entered *directly* into the first layer
 - The first (resp. intermediate, last) layers practically compute lowlevel (resp. intermediate level, semantic) descriptors
 - Everything is made using a unique and homogeneous architecture
 - A single network can be used for detecting many target concepts
 - All the level are jointly optimized at once
 - Requires huge amounts of training data

Transfer Learning

- Train a multi-class classifier on large annotated data collection, e.g. ImageNet
- Extract hidden layers (or final) layers, typically close to the end as they contain very general and highly semantic information, e.g. FC6 (4096), FC7 (4096) and/or FC8 (1000) in an AlexNet
- Use them as descriptors for completely different tasks, either in classification or in retrieval
- PCA-based dimensionality reduction works very well, producing both very compact (few hundreds components "only") and very effective descriptors

Deep Learning and IAR

- Indexing for key-word-based search
 - Get an estimate of presence probability for an as large as possible set of concepts / categories
 - Map any query to a subset of them
 - Score the multimedia samples according to the presence probabilities of the selected ones
- Query by example or instance search
 - Use last layers values (output or last but one or last but two) as semantic feature vectors (descriptors) for the query and the candidate
 - Classical QBE with Euclidean distance or scalar product
 - Possibility to do even better by "metric learning"

Metric learning with Siamese Networks

- Two-branch Siamese network: find representations that produces small distances between "similar" element and large distances between "dissimilar" elements: enter matching or non-matching pairs
- Three-branch Siamese network: find representations that produces *smaller* distances between "similar" element than between "dissimilar" elements: enter (query, positive, negative) *triplets*
- Triplet loss (Gordo et al. 2016): $L(I_q, I^+, I^-) = \frac{1}{2} \max(0, m + ||q - d^+||^2 - ||q - d^-||^2)$
- The choice of the I_q, I⁺ and I⁻ samples is important: use neither too easy nor too difficult ones

Metric learning with Siamese Networks



- Shared weights between branches learned or fine-tuned using triplets
- A single branch (without loss) extracts representations
- Region of interest (ROI) pooling is also used (implicit learning of where the targets of interest might be)

Feed-forward network on a sequence



Independent predictions: no history Training on samples Only two linear layers here: not deep (usually more)

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Simple recurrent network (Elman)



$$h_t = \sigma(W_h x_t + U_h h_{t-1} + b_h)$$

$$y_t = \sigma(W_y h_t + b_y)$$

Sequence (past) history is represented in the hidden states Training on sequences (unfolded loop) Back-propagation through many hidden states: deep

Simple recurrent network (Jordan)



$$h_t = \sigma(W_h x_t + U_h y_{t-1} + b_h)$$

$$y_t = \sigma(W_y h_t + b_y)$$

Sequence (past) history is represented in the hidden states Training on sequences (unfolded loop) Back-propagation through many hidden states: deep

Folded (usual) representations



Recurrent neural networks

- Perform sequence-to-sequence transformations
- Learns patterns in sequences
- Used in speech and in natural language processing
- Used in video processing (action recognition)
- Simple RNNs have limitations (unstable gradients)
- Variants with "memory cells":
 - Long Short-Term Memory (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997)
 - Gated Recurrent Units (Cho et al., 2014) (simplified LSTM)
 - Avoid exploding or vanishing gradients on long sequences
 - Can "count"

Word embeddings

 Map words in a D-dimensional space with semantic distances and relations roughly preserved



From Mikolov, 2013 (Word2Vec)

Figure 2: Two-dimensional PCA projection of the 1000-dimensional Skip-gram vectors of countries and their capital cities. The figure illustrates ability of the model to automatically organize concepts and learn implicitly the relationships between them, as during the training we did not provide any supervised information about what a capital city means.

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Word2Vec (Mikolov et al., 2013)

- Words are represented by "1-hot encoding"
- Encoder-decoder architectures
 - Encoder: V dims to D dims linear map(s)
 - Decoder: D dims to V dims linear map(s)
 - V: vocabulary size, D: embedding size
- Two variants:
 - CBOW: predict single words from their neighbors
 - Skip-gram: predict neighbors from single words (better)
- The intermediate representation is the embedding
- Unsupervised learning: from huge amounts of raw data
- Learning by gradient descent

Word2Vec skip grams



1 encoding matrix
 4 decoding matrices

All source and target vectors are 1-hot encoded