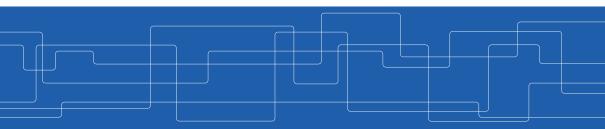


Deep Learning for Poets (Part IV)

Amir H. Payberah payberah@kth.se 20/12/2018





TensorFlow

Linear and Logistic regression

Deep Feedforward Networks

CNN, RNN, Autoencoders





Deep Feedforward Networks





CNN



Let's Start With An Example

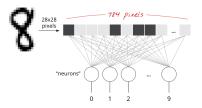


► Handwritten digits in the MNIST dataset are 28x28 pixel greyscale images.

/ | | | | | / | / | VA444444444

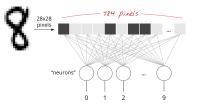


► Let's make a one-layer neural network for classifying digits.





- ► Let's make a one-layer neural network for classifying digits.
- Each neuron in a neural network:
 - Does a weighted sum of all of its inputs
 - Adds a bias
 - Feeds the result through some non-linear activation function, e.g., softmax.



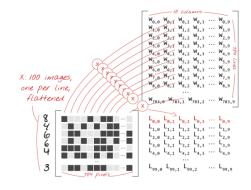




[https://github.com/GoogleCloudPlatform/tensorflow-without-a-phd]

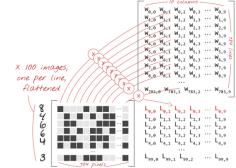


Assume we have a batch of 100 images as the input.



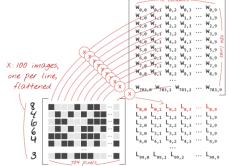


- Assume we have a batch of 100 images as the input.
- ► Using the first column of the weights matrix **W**, we compute the weighted sum of all the pixels of the first image.



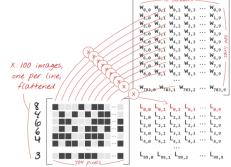


- Assume we have a batch of 100 images as the input.
- ► Using the first column of the weights matrix **W**, we compute the weighted sum of all the pixels of the first image.
 - The first neuron: $L_{0,0} = \mathtt{w}_{0,0} \mathtt{x}_0^{(1)} + \mathtt{w}_{1,0} \mathtt{x}_1^{(1)} + \dots + \mathtt{w}_{783,0} \mathtt{x}_{783}^{(1)}$



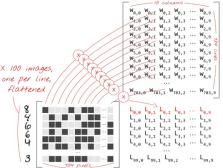


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 - The 2nd neuron until the 10th: $L_{0,1} = w_{0,1}x_0^{(1)} + w_{1,1}x_1^{(1)} + \dots + w_{783,1}x_{783}^{(1)}$ \dots $L_{0,9} = w_{0,9}x_0^{(1)} + w_{1,9}x_1^{(1)} + \dots + w_{783,9}x_{792}^{(1)}$





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 - Repeat the operation for the other 99 images, i.e., $\mathbf{x}^{(2)}\cdots\mathbf{x}^{(100)}$





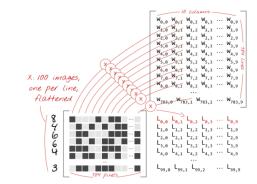
L_{i,0}

 $L_{i,1}$

 $L_{i,9}$

- Each neuron must now add its bias.
- Apply the softmax activation function for each instance x⁽ⁱ⁾.

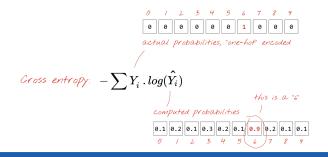
 $\blacktriangleright \ \boldsymbol{\hat{y}}_{i} = \texttt{softmax}(\boldsymbol{L}_{i} + \boldsymbol{b})$





How Good the Predictions Are?

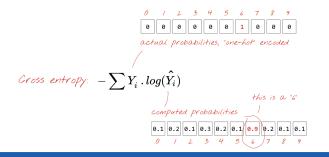
▶ Define the cost function J(W) as the cross-entropy of what the network tells us (ŷ_i) and what we know to be the truth (y_i), for each instance x⁽ⁱ⁾.





How Good the Predictions Are?

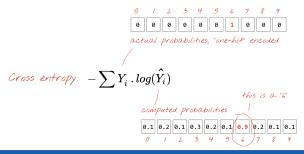
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- ► Compute the partial derivatives of the cross-entropy with respect to all the weights and all the biases, \(\nabla_W J(W)\).





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- ► Compute the partial derivatives of the cross-entropy with respect to all the weights and all the biases, \(\nabla_W J(W)\).
- Update weights and biases by a fraction of the gradient $W^{(next)} = W \eta \nabla_W J(W)$





Adding More Layers

- Add more layers to improve the accuracy.
- ► On intermediate layers we will use the the sigmoid activation function.
- ► We keep softmax as the activation function on the last layer.



[https://github.com/GoogleCloudPlatform/tensorflow-without-a-phd]



- Better activation function, e.g., using ReLU(z) = max(0, z).
- Overcome Network overfitting, e.g., using dropout.
- ▶ Network initialization. e.g., using He initialization.
- Better optimizer, e.g., using Adam optimizer.



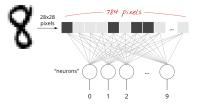


[https://github.com/GoogleCloudPlatform/tensorflow-without-a-phd]



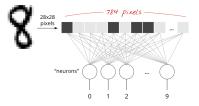
Vanilla Deep Neural Networks Challenges (1/2)

▶ Pixels of each image were flattened into a single vector (really bad idea).





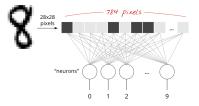
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- ► Vanilla deep neural networks do not scale.
 - In MNIST, images are black-and-white 28x28 pixel images: $28 \times 28 = 784$ weights.



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- ► Vanilla deep neural networks do not scale.
 - In MNIST, images are black-and-white 28x28 pixel images: $28 \times 28 = 784$ weights.
- Handwritten digits are made of shapes and we discarded the shape information when we flattened the pixels.



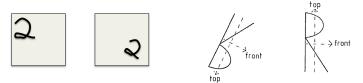
Vanilla Deep Neural Networks Challenges (2/2)

• Difficult to recognize objects.



Vanilla Deep Neural Networks Challenges (2/2)

- Difficult to recognize objects.
- Rotation
- ► Lighting: objects may look different depending on the level of external lighting.
- Deformation: objects can be deformed in a variety of non-affine ways.
- ► Scale variation: visual classes often exhibit variation in their size.
- Viewpoint invariance.





- Convolutional neural networks (CNN) can tackle the vanilla model challenges.
- ► CNN is a type of neural network that can take advantage of shape information.



Tackle the Challenges

- ► Convolutional neural networks (CNN) can tackle the vanilla model challenges.
- ► CNN is a type of neural network that can take advantage of shape information.
- ► It applies a series of filters to the raw pixel data of an image to extract and learn higher-level features, which the model can then use for classification.



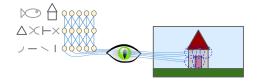
Filters and Convolution Operations





Brain Visual Cortex Inspired CNNs

- ▶ 1959, David H. Hubel and Torsten Wiesel.
- ► Many neurons in the visual cortex have a small local receptive field.

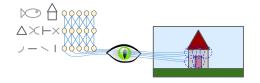






Brain Visual Cortex Inspired CNNs

- ▶ 1959, David H. Hubel and Torsten Wiesel.
- ► Many neurons in the visual cortex have a small local receptive field.
- ► They react only to visual stimuli located in a limited region of the visual field.

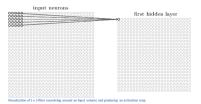






Receptive Fields and Filters

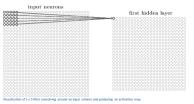
Imagine a flashlight that is shining over the top left of the image.





Receptive Fields and Filters

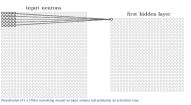
- Imagine a flashlight that is shining over the top left of the image.
- ► The region that it is shining over is called the receptive field.
- This flashlight is called a filter.





Receptive Fields and Filters

- Imagine a flashlight that is shining over the top left of the image.
- ► The region that it is shining over is called the receptive field.
- This flashlight is called a filter.
- A filter is a set of weights.
- ► A filter is a feature detector, e.g., straight edges, simple colors, and curves.





Filters Example (1/3)

0	0	0	0	0	30	0		
0	0	0	0	30	0	0		
0	0	0	30	0	0	0		
0	0	0	30	0	0	0		
0	0	0	30	0	0	0		
0	0	0	30	0	0	0		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0		

Pixel representation of filter

Visualization of a curve detector filter

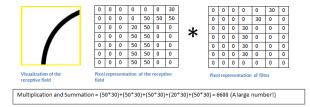


Filters Example (1/3)



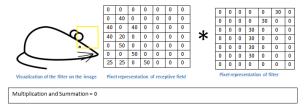


Filters Example (2/3)





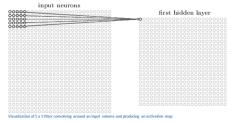
Filters Example (3/3)



[https://adeshpande3.github.io/A-Beginner's-Guide-To-Understanding-Convolutional-Neural-Networks]



- Convolution takes a filter and multiplying it over the entire area of an input image.
- Imagine this flashlight (filter) sliding across all the areas of the input image.



[https://adeshpande3.github.io/A-Beginner's-Guide-To-Understanding-Convolutional-Neural-Networks]



Convolution Operation - More Formal Definition

- Convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions x and h.
 - You can think of x as the input image, and h as a filter (kernel) on the input image.



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- For a 1D convolution we can define it as below:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{k}) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \mathbf{h}(n) \cdot \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{k}-n)$$

▶ N is the number of elements in h.



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- ▶ N is the number of elements in h.
- We are sliding the filter h over the input image x.



Convolution Operation - 1D Example (1/2)

Suppose our input 1D image is x, and filter h are as follows:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 50 & 60 & 10 & 20 & 40 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$h = 1/3 | 1/3 | 1/3$$

- Let's call the output image y.
- ▶ What is the value of y(3)?

$$y(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} h(n) \cdot x(k-n)$$



Convolution Operation - 1D Example (2/2)

• To compute y(3), we slide the filter so that it is centered around x(3).

10	50	60	10	20	30	40
0	1/3	1/3	1/3	0	0	0

$$y(3) = \frac{1}{3}50 + \frac{1}{3}60 + \frac{1}{3}10 = 40$$



Convolution Operation - 1D Example (2/2)

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10	50	60	10	20	30	40
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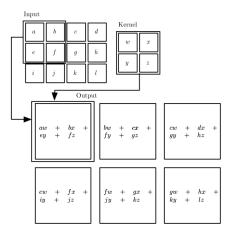
$$y(3) = \frac{1}{3}50 + \frac{1}{3}60 + \frac{1}{3}10 = 40$$

• We can compute the other values of y as well.

y =	20	40	40	30	20	30	23.333
-----	----	----	----	----	----	----	--------



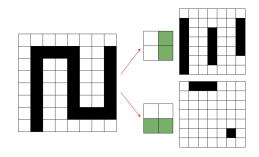
Convolution Operation - 2D Example (1/2)





Convolution Operation - 2D Example (2/2)

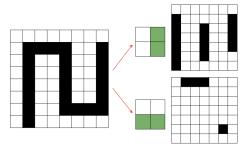
- Detect vertical and horizontal lines in an image.
- Slide the filters across the entirety of the image.





Convolution Operation - 2D Example (2/2)

- Detect vertical and horizontal lines in an image.
- Slide the filters across the entirety of the image.
- The result is our feature map: indicates where we've found the feature we're looking for in the original image.



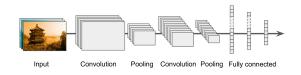


Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)



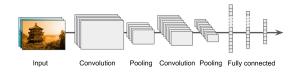


► Convolutional layers: apply a specified number of convolution filters to the image.



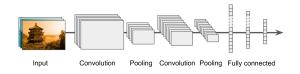


- ► Convolutional layers: apply a specified number of convolution filters to the image.
- Pooling layers: downsample the image data extracted by the convolutional layers to reduce the dimensionality of the feature map in order to decrease processing time.



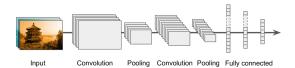


- ► Convolutional layers: apply a specified number of convolution filters to the image.
- Pooling layers: downsample the image data extracted by the convolutional layers to reduce the dimensionality of the feature map in order to decrease processing time.
- Dense layers: a fully connected layer that performs classification on the features extracted by the convolutional layers and downsampled by the pooling layers.





Convolutional Layer

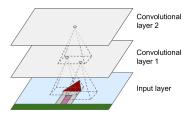






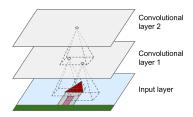
Sparse interactions

Each neuron in the convolutional layers is only connected to pixels in its receptive field (not every single pixel).



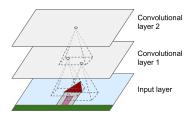


• Each neuron applies filters on its receptive field.



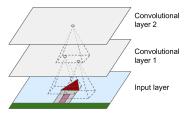


- Each neuron applies filters on its receptive field.
 - Calculates a weighted sum of the input pixels in the receptive field.



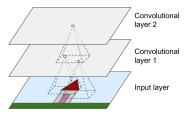


- Each neuron applies filters on its receptive field.
 - Calculates a weighted sum of the input pixels in the receptive field.
- ► Adds a bias, and feeds the result through its activation function to the next layer.



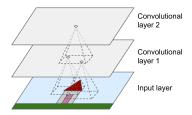


- Each neuron applies filters on its receptive field.
 - Calculates a weighted sum of the input pixels in the receptive field.
- ► Adds a bias, and feeds the result through its activation function to the next layer.
- The output of this layer is a feature map (activation map)



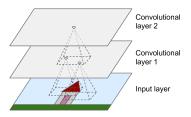


- Parameter sharing
- ► All neurons of a convolutional layer reuse the same weights.





- Parameter sharing
- ► All neurons of a convolutional layer reuse the same weights.
- They apply the same filter in different positions.
- ► Whereas in a fully-connected network, each neuron had its own set of weights.

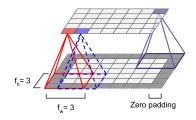




- ▶ What will happen if you apply a 5x5 filter to a 32x32 input volume?
 - The output volume would be 28x28.
 - The spatial dimensions decrease.

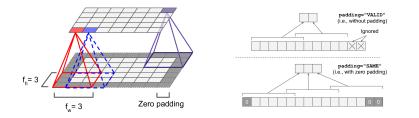


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- Zero padding: in order for a layer to have the same height and width as the previous layer, it is common to add zeros around the inputs.



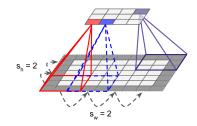


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- ► In TensorFlow, padding can be either SAME or VALID to have zero padding or not.



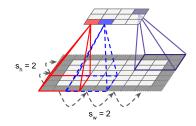


► The distance between two consecutive receptive fields is called the stride.





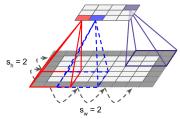
- ► The distance between two consecutive receptive fields is called the stride.
- ► The stride controls how the filter convolves around the input volume.





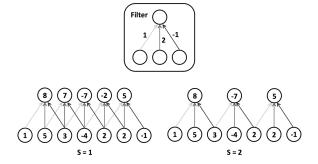
Stride (1/2)

- ► The distance between two consecutive receptive fields is called the stride.
- ► The stride controls how the filter convolves around the input volume.
- ► Assume \mathbf{s}_h and \mathbf{s}_w are the vertical and horizontal strides, then, a neuron located in row i and column j in a layer is connected to the outputs of the neurons in the previous layer located in rows $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{s}_h$ to $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{s}_h + \mathbf{f}_h 1$, and columns $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{s}_w$ to $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{s}_w + \mathbf{f}_w 1$.





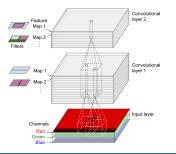
Stride (2/2)





Stacking Multiple Feature Maps

- ▶ Up to now, we represented each convolutional layer with a single feature map.
- ► Each convolutional layer can be composed of several feature maps of equal sizes.
- ► Input images are also composed of multiple sublayers: one per color channel.
- ► A convolutional layer simultaneously applies multiple filters to its inputs.

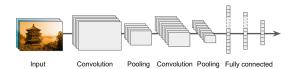




- After calculating a weighted sum of the input pixels in the receptive fields, and adding biases, each neuron feeds the result through its ReLU activation function to the next layer.
- ► The purpose of this activation function is to add non linearity to the system.



Pooling Layer

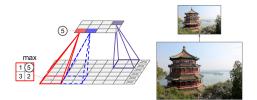






Pooling Layer (1/2)

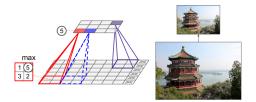
- ► After the activation functions, we can apply a pooling layer.
- ► Its goal is to subsample (shrink) the input image.





Pooling Layer (1/2)

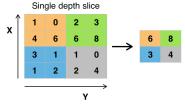
- ► After the activation functions, we can apply a pooling layer.
- ► Its goal is to subsample (shrink) the input image.
 - To reduce the computational load, the memory usage, and the number of parameters.





Pooling Layer (2/2)

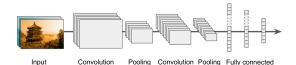
- Each neuron in a pooling layer is connected to the outputs of a receptive field in the previous layer.
- A pooling neuron has no weights.
- ► It aggregates the inputs using an aggregation function such as the max or mean.



Example of Maxpool with a 2x2 filter and a stride of 2



Fully Connected Layer





- This layer takes an input from the last convolution module, and outputs an N dimensional vector.
 - N is the number of classes that the model has to choose from.



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- ► For example, if you wanted a digit classification model, N would be 10.
- ► Each number in this N dimensional vector represents the probability of a certain class.



- We need to convert the output of the convolutional part of the CNN into a 1D feature vector.
- ► This operation is called flattening.



- We need to convert the output of the convolutional part of the CNN into a 1D feature vector.
- ► This operation is called **flattening**.
- It gets the output of the convolutional layers, flattens all its structure to create a single long feature vector to be used by the dense layer for the final classification.



Example



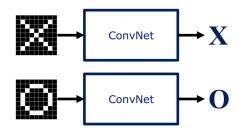


A Toy ConvNet: X's and O's









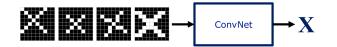


Trickier Cases

translation

scaling

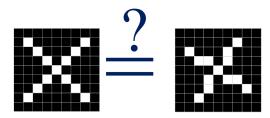
rotation



weight

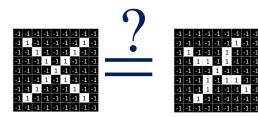


Deciding is Hard



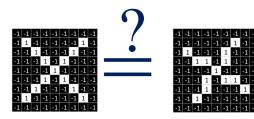


What Computers See





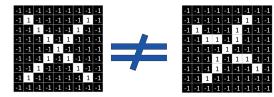
What Computers See



-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	Х	-1	-1	-1	-1	Х	Х	-1
-1	Х	Х	-1	-1	Х	Х	-1	-1
-1	-1	Х	1	-1	1	-1	-1	-1
					-1			
-1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	Х	-1	-1
-1	-1	Х	Х	-1	-1	Х	Х	-1
-1	Х	Х	-1	-1	-1	-1	Х	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1

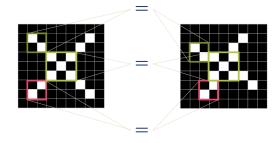


Computers are Literal

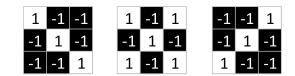




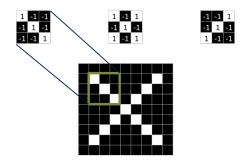
ConvNets Match Pieces of the Image



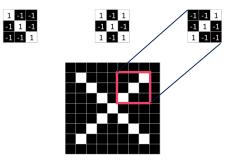








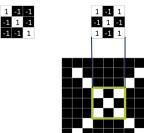






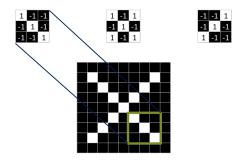


-1 1

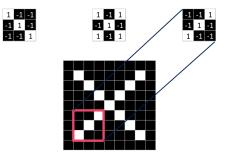


-1 -1 1 -1 1 -1 1 -1 -1

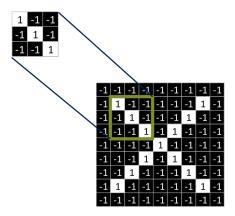




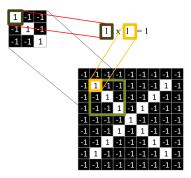






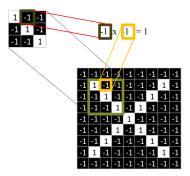






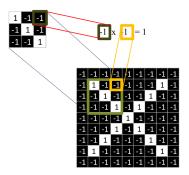






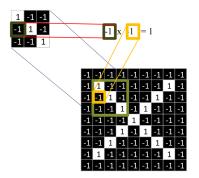






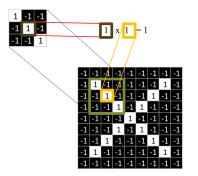






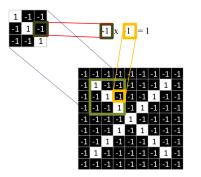






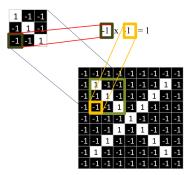








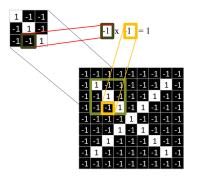






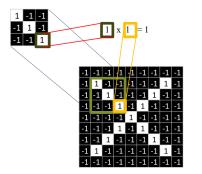






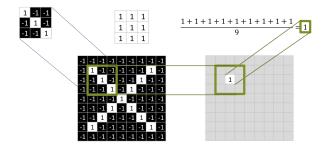




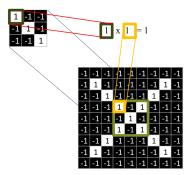






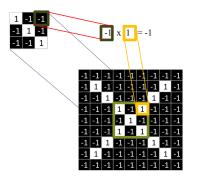






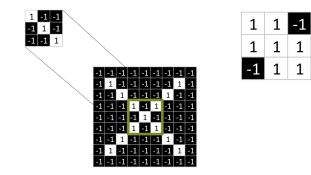




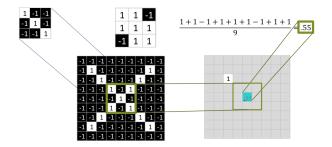






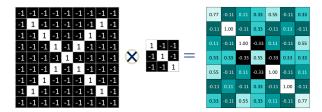






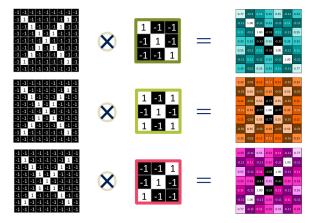


Convolution: Trying Every Possible Match



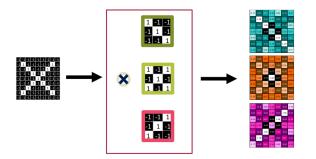


Three Filters Here, So Three Images Out

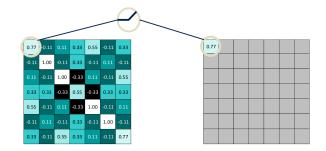




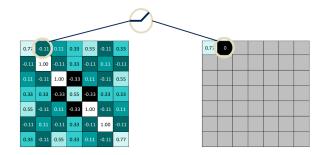
• One image becomes a stack of filtered images.





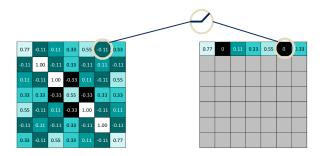




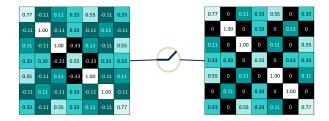






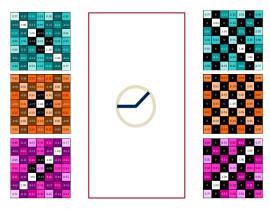




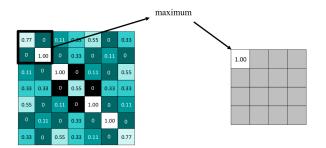




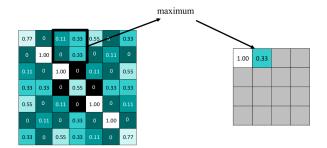
► A stack of images becomes a stack of images with no negative values.



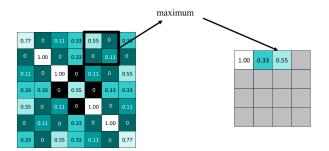




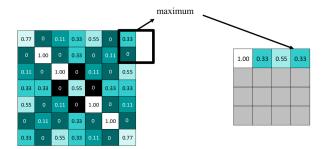




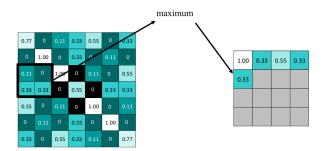
















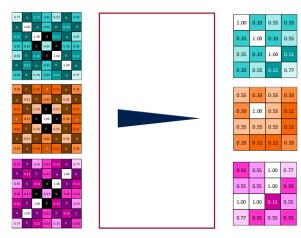
0.77	0	0.11	0.33	0.55	0	0.33
	1.00		0.33		0.11	
		1.00		0.11		0.55
0.33	0.33		0.55		0.33	0.33
0.55				1.00		
			0.33		1.00	
0.33		0.55	0.33			0.77

max pooling

1.00	0.33	0.55	0.33
0.33	1.00	0.33	0.55
0.55	0.33	1.00	0.11
0.33	0.55	0.11	0.77

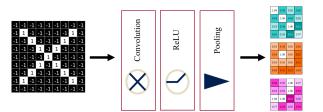


Repeat For All the Filtered Images





▶ The output of one becomes the input of the next.





Deep Stacking

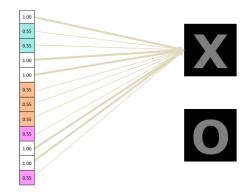




► Flattening the outputs before giving them to the fully connected layer.

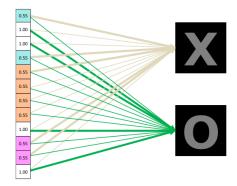




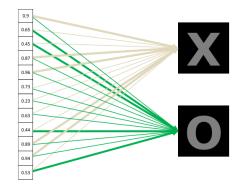




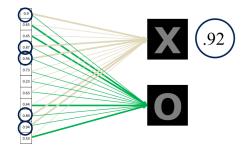






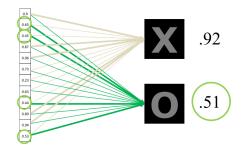




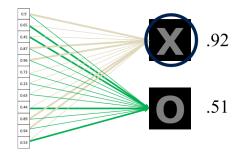




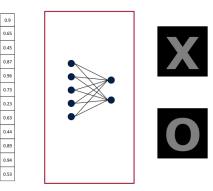




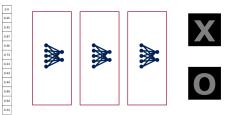














Putting It All Together











CNN in TensorFlow



► A CNN for the MNIST dataset with the following network.



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- Logits layer



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- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 28, 28, 1]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 28, 28, 32]



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- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 28, 28, 1]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 28, 28, 32]
- ▶ Padding same is added to preserve width and height.



▶ Pooling layer 1: max pooling layer with a 2x2 filter and stride of 2.



- ▶ Pooling layer 1: max pooling layer with a 2x2 filter and stride of 2.
- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 28, 28, 32]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 14, 14, 32]

pool1 = tf.layers.max_pooling2d(inputs=conv1, pool_size=[2, 2], strides=2)



• Conv. layer 2: computes 64 feature maps using a 5x5 filter.



- ► Conv. layer 2: computes 64 feature maps using a 5x5 filter.
- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 14, 14, 32]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 14, 14, 64]



- ► Conv. layer 2: computes 64 feature maps using a 5x5 filter.
- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 14, 14, 32]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 14, 14, 64]
- ▶ Padding same is added to preserve width and height.



▶ Pooling layer 2: max pooling layer with a 2x2 filter and stride of 2.



- ▶ Pooling layer 2: max pooling layer with a 2x2 filter and stride of 2.
- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 14, 14, 64]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 7, 7, 64]

pool2 = tf.layers.max_pooling2d(inputs=conv2, pool_size=[2, 2], strides=2)



• Flatten tensor into a batch of vectors.



- Flatten tensor into a batch of vectors.
 - Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 7, 7, 64]
 - Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 7 * 7 * 64]

pool2_flat = tf.reshape(pool2, [-1, 7 * 7 * 64])



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- ▶ Dense layer: densely connected layer with 1024 neurons.
 - Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 7 * 7 * 64]
 - Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 1024]

dense = tf.layers.dense(inputs=pool2_flat, units=1024, activation=tf.nn.relu)



► Add dropout operation; 0.6 probability that element will be kept

dropout = tf.layers.dropout(inputs=dense, rate=0.4)



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dropout = tf.layers.dropout(inputs=dense, rate=0.4)

Logits layer

- Input tensor shape: [batch_size, 1024]
- Output tensor shape: [batch_size, 10]

logits = tf.layers.dense(inputs=dropout, units=10)



```
# define the cost and accuracy functions
cross_entropy = tf.nn.softmax_cross_entropy_with_logits(logits=logits, labels=y_true)
cross_entropy = tf.reduce_mean(cross_entropy) * 100
# define the optimizer
1r = 0.003
optimizer = tf.train.AdamOptimizer(lr)
train_step = optimizer.minimize(cross_entropy)
# execute the model
init = tf.global_variables_initializer()
n_{epochs} = 2000
with tf.Session() as sess:
    sess.run(init)
   for i in range(n_epochs):
        batch_X, batch_y = mnist.train.next_batch(100)
        sess.run(train_step, feed_dict={X: batch_X, y_true: batch_y})
```

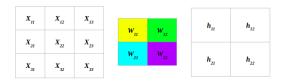


Training CNNs





► Let's see how to use backpropagation on a single convolutional layer.



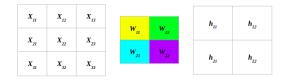


- ► Let's see how to use backpropagation on a single convolutional layer.
- Assume we have an input X of size 3x3 and a single filter W of size 2x2.



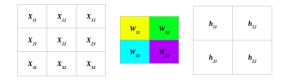


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- ► Assume we have an input X of size 3×3 and a single filter W of size 2×2.
- No padding and stride = 1.
- ▶ It generates an output H of size 2x2.

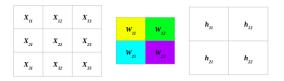




► Forward pass



► Forward pass



 $\mathtt{h_{11}} = \mathtt{W_{11}}\mathtt{X_{11}} + \mathtt{W_{12}}\mathtt{X_{12}} + \mathtt{W_{21}}\mathtt{X_{21}} + \mathtt{W_{22}}\mathtt{X_{22}}$



► Forward pass



$$\begin{split} h_{11} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{11} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{12} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{21} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{22} \\ h_{12} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{12} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{13} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{22} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{23} \end{split}$$





► Forward pass



$$\begin{split} h_{11} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{11} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{12} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{21} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{22} \\ h_{12} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{12} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{13} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{22} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{23} \\ h_{21} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{21} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{22} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{31} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{32} \end{split}$$



► Forward pass



$$\begin{split} h_{11} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{11} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{12} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{21} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{22} \\ h_{12} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{12} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{13} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{22} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{23} \\ h_{21} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{21} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{22} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{31} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{32} \\ h_{22} &= \mathtt{W}_{11}\mathtt{X}_{22} + \mathtt{W}_{12}\mathtt{X}_{23} + \mathtt{W}_{21}\mathtt{X}_{32} + \mathtt{W}_{22}\mathtt{X}_{33} \end{split}$$



- Backward pass
- E is the error: $E = E_{h_{11}} + E_{h_{12}} + E_{h_{21}} + E_{h_{22}}$

<i>x</i> ₁₁	X ₁₂	X ₁₃					
11	12	13	и	v.,	W ₁₂	h ₁₁	h ₁₂
X ₂₁	X ₂₂	X ₂₃					
			И	21	W_22	h ₂₁	h ₂₂
X ₃₁	X ₃₂	X ₃₃					22



- Backward pass
- \blacktriangleright E is the error: $E=E_{h_{11}}+E_{h_{12}}+E_{h_{21}}+E_{h_{22}}$

<i>X</i> ₁₁	X ₁₂	X ₁₃				
		В	w _{ii}	W ₁₂	h ₁₁	h ₁₂
X ₂₁	X ₂₂	X ₂₃				
X ₃₁	X ₃₂	X ₃₃	<i>W</i> ₂₁	W_22	h ₂₁	h ₂₂
A 31	A 32	A 33				

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{11}} = \frac{\partial E_{h_{11}}}{\partial h_{11}} \frac{\partial h_{11}}{\partial W_{11}} + \frac{\partial E_{h_{12}}}{\partial h_{12}} \frac{\partial h_{12}}{\partial W_{11}} + \frac{\partial E_{h_{21}}}{\partial h_{21}} \frac{\partial h_{21}}{\partial W_{11}} + \frac{\partial E_{h_{22}}}{\partial h_{22}} \frac{\partial h_{22}}{\partial W_{11}}$$



- Backward pass
- \blacktriangleright E is the error: $E=E_{h_{11}}+E_{h_{12}}+E_{h_{21}}+E_{h_{22}}$



	$\frac{\partial \mathtt{E}_{\mathtt{h}_{12}}}{\partial \mathtt{h}_{12}} \frac{\partial \mathtt{h}_{12}}{\partial \mathtt{W}_{11}} + \\$	
	$\frac{\partial E_{h_{12}}}{\partial h_{12}}\frac{\partial h_{12}}{\partial \mathtt{W}_{12}} + \\$	



- Backward pass
- \blacktriangleright E is the error: $E = E_{h_{11}} + E_{h_{12}} + E_{h_{21}} + E_{h_{22}}$

X ₁₁	x	x				
	A 12	A 13	w _µ	W_12	h ₁₁	h ₁₂
X21	X ₂₂	X23	1	12		
			W ₂₁	W ₂₂	Ь	h
X ₃₁	X ₃₂	X ₃₃			h ₂₁	n ₂₂

$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{11}} =$		$-\frac{\partial \mathtt{E}_{\mathtt{h}_{12}}}{\partial \mathtt{h}_{12}}\frac{\partial \mathtt{h}_{12}}{\partial \mathtt{W}_{11}}+$	$-rac{\partial E_{h_{21}}}{\partial h_{21}}rac{\partial h_{21}}{\partial W_{11}}+$	
$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{12}} =$	$= \frac{\partial E_{h_{11}}}{\partial h_{11}} \frac{\partial h_{11}}{\partial W_{12}} +$		$-rac{\partial E_{h_{21}}}{\partial h_{21}}rac{\partial h_{21}}{\partial W_{12}}+$	
$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{21}} =$		$\frac{\partial E_{h_{12}}}{\partial h_{12}} \frac{\partial h_{12}}{\partial W_{21}} +$	$-rac{\partial E_{h_{21}}}{\partial h_{21}}rac{\partial h_{21}}{\partial W_{21}}+$	



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X ₂₁ X ₂₂ X ₂₃ W ₁₁ W ₁₂ n ₁₁ n ₁₂	<i>x</i> ₁₁	x	X ₁₃				
X ₂₁ X ₂₂ X ₂₃	~""	12	*B	w	W	h ₁₁	h ₁₂
	X	X	X	11	12		
$W_{21} W_{22}$ h h	21	- 24	20	W ₂₁	W ₂₂		
X_{31} X_{32} X_{33} X_{21} X_{22} h_{21} h_{22}	X ₃₁	X 32	X ₃₃			n ₂₁	n ₂₂

∂E	$\frac{\partial E{h_{11}}}{\partial h_{11}}$	$\partial E_{h_{12}} \partial h_{12}$	$\partial E_{h_{21}} \partial h_{21}$	$\partial E_{h_{22}} \; \partial h_{22}$
∂W_{11}	$\partial h_{11} \ \partial W_{11}$	$\partial h_{12} \ \partial W_{11}$	$\partial h_{21} \ \partial W_{11}$	$\partial h_{22} \ \partial W_{11}$
∂e _	$\partial E_{h_{11}} \partial h_{11}$	$\partial E_{h_{12}} \partial h_{12}$	$\partial E_{h_{21}} \partial h_{21}$	$\partial \mathtt{E}_{\mathtt{h}_{22}} \; \partial \mathtt{h}_{22}$
∂W_{12}	$\partial \mathbf{h}_{11} \partial \mathbf{W}_{12}$	$\overline{\partial h_{12}} \overline{\partial W_{12}}^{\top}$	$\overline{\partial \mathbf{h}_{21}} \overline{\partial \mathbf{W}_{12}}^{\top}$	$\overline{\partial h_{22}} \overline{\partial W_{12}}$
∂E	$\partial E_{h_{11}} \partial h_{11}$	ar. ah.	AF. Ah.	$\partial E_{h_{22}} \partial h_{22}$
	$OL_{h_{11}} OL_{11}$	$\partial E_{h_{12}} \partial h_{12}$	$\partial E_{h_{21}} \partial h_{21}$	$OL_{h22} OL_{22}$
$\frac{1}{\partial W_{21}} =$	$= \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{11}}{\partial \mathbf{h}_{11}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{11}}{\partial \mathbf{W}_{21}} +$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{12}}{\partial \mathbf{h}_{12}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{12}}{\partial \mathbf{W}_{21}} +$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{h_{21}}}{\partial \mathbf{h}_{21}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{21}}{\partial \mathbf{W}_{21}} +$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{22}}{\partial \mathbf{h}_{22}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}_{22}}{\partial \mathbf{W}_{21}}$
$\frac{\partial W_{21}}{\partial W_{21}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial E} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial E}$		+		



► Update the wights W



$$\begin{split} \mathbb{W}_{11}^{(\text{next})} &= \mathbb{W}_{11} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}}{\partial \mathbb{W}_{11}} \\ \mathbb{W}_{12}^{(\text{next})} &= \mathbb{W}_{12} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}}{\partial \mathbb{W}_{12}} \\ \mathbb{W}_{21}^{(\text{next})} &= \mathbb{W}_{21} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}}{\partial \mathbb{W}_{21}} \\ \mathbb{W}_{22}^{(\text{next})} &= \mathbb{W}_{22} - \eta \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}}{\partial \mathbb{W}_{22}} \end{split}$$



RNN



Let's Start With An Example







the students opened their	Ŷ
their work their books their teachers their homework their lecturer their new lecturer	Feeling Lucky venska





Language Modeling (1/2)

Language modeling is the task of predicting what word comes next.





Language Modeling (2/2)

• More formally: given a sequence of words $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \cdots, x^{(t)}$, compute the probability distribution of the next word $x^{(t+1)}$:

$$\mathtt{p}(\mathtt{x}^{(\mathtt{t}+1)} = \mathtt{w}_{\mathtt{j}} | \mathtt{x}^{(\mathtt{t})}, \cdots \mathtt{x}^{(1)})$$





Language Modeling (2/2)

More formally: given a sequence of words x⁽¹⁾, x⁽²⁾, ..., x^(t), compute the probability distribution of the next word x^(t+1):

$$\mathtt{p}(\mathtt{x}^{(\mathtt{t}+1)} = \mathtt{w}_{\mathtt{j}} | \mathtt{x}^{(\mathtt{t})}, \cdots \mathtt{x}^{(1)})$$

• w_j is a word in vocabulary $V = \{w_1, \cdots, w_v\}$.





▶ the students opened their ____



- ▶ the students opened their ____
- ► How to learn a Language Model?



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 - 4-grams: "the students opened their"



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 - Trigrams: "the students opened", "students opened their"
 - 4-grams: "the students opened their"
- Collect statistics about how frequent different n-grams are, and use these to predict next word.

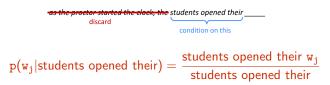


- Suppose we are learning a 4-gram Language Model.
 - $x^{(t+1)}$ depends only on the preceding 3 words $\{x^{(t)},x^{(t-1)},x^{(t-2)}\}.$

as the proctor started the clock, the students opened their	
discard	
	condition on this

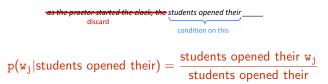


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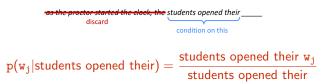


► In the corpus:

• "students opened their" occurred 1000 times



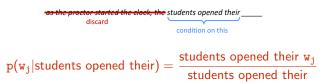
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- In the corpus:
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 - "students opened their books occurred 400 times: p(books|students opened their) = 0.4



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In the corpus:

- "students opened their" occurred 1000 times
- "students opened their books occurred 400 times: p(books|students opened their) = 0.4
- "students opened their exams occurred 100 times: $p(\mathsf{exams}|\mathsf{students}|\mathsf{opened}|\mathsf{their})=0.1$



 $p(w_j | students opened their) = \frac{students opened their w_j}{students opened their}$



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Problems with n-gram Language Models - Sparsity

$$p(w_j | students opened their) = \frac{students opened their w_j}{students opened their}$$

- ► What if "students opened their w_j" never occurred in data? Then w_j has probability 0!
- ► What if "students opened their" never occurred in data? Then we can't calculate probability for any w_j!
- Increasing n makes sparsity problems worse.
 - Typically we can't have n bigger than 5.



$$p(\texttt{w}_{j}| \texttt{students opened their}) = \frac{\texttt{students opened their }\texttt{w}_{j}}{\texttt{students opened their}}$$



Problems with n-gram Language Models - Storage

$p(\texttt{w}_{j}| \texttt{students opened their}) = \frac{\texttt{students opened their }\texttt{w}_{j}}{\texttt{students opened their}}$

- ► For "students opened their w_j", we need to store count for all possible 4-grams.
- ► The model size is in the order of O(exp(n)).
- ▶ Increasing n makes model size huge.



Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (1/3)

- Recall the Language Modeling task:
 - Input: sequence of words $\mathtt{x}^{(1)}, \mathtt{x}^{(2)}, \cdots, \mathtt{x}^{(t)}$
 - Output: probability dist of the next word $p(x^{(t+1)} = w_j | x^{(t)}, \cdots, x^{(1)})$



Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (1/3)

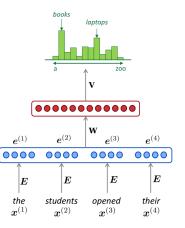
- Recall the Language Modeling task:
 - Input: sequence of words $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \cdots, x^{(t)}$
 - Output: probability dist of the next word $p(x^{(t+1)} = w_j | x^{(t)}, \cdots, x^{(1)})$
- One-Hot encoding
 - Represent a categorical variable as a binary vector.
 - All recodes are zero, except the index of the integer, which is one.
 - Each embedded word $\mathbf{e}^{(t)} = \mathbf{E}^{\intercal} \mathbf{x}^{(t)}$ is a one-hot vector of size vocabulary size.

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} \text{ students} \xrightarrow{\text{opened}} [1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \mathbf{x}^{(2)} \text{ opened} = [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \mathbf{x}^{(3)} \text{ their} = [0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \mathbf{x}^{(4)} \text{ book} = [0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \underbrace{\mathbf{e}^{(t)}} \mathbf{e}^{(t)}$$



Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (2/3)

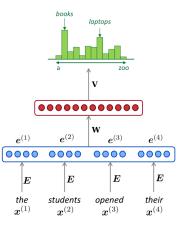
- A MLP model
 - Input: words $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, x^{(4)}$
 - Input layer: one-hot vectors $\mathbf{e}^{(1)}, \mathbf{e}^{(2)}, \mathbf{e}^{(3)}, \mathbf{e}^{(4)}$
 - Hidden layer: $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{e})$, \mathbf{f} is an activation function.
 - Output: $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \texttt{softmax}(\mathbf{v}^{\intercal}\mathbf{h})$





Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (3/3)

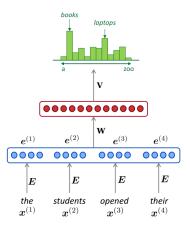
- Improvements over n-gram LM:
 - No sparsity problem
 - Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n))





Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (3/3)

- Improvements over n-gram LM:
 - No sparsity problem
 - Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n))
- Remaining problems:
 - It is fixed 4 in our example, which is small
 - We need a neural architecture that can process any length input









► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.



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 - Until here, we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other.
 - It is a bad idea for many tasks, e.g., predicting the next word in a sentence (it's better to know which words came before it).



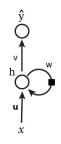
- ► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.
 - Until here, we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other.
 - It is a bad idea for many tasks, e.g., predicting the next word in a sentence (it's better to know which words came before it).
- ► They can analyze time series data and predict the future.



- ► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.
 - Until here, we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other.
 - It is a bad idea for many tasks, e.g., predicting the next word in a sentence (it's better to know which words came before it).
- ► They can analyze time series data and predict the future.
- ► They can work on sequences of arbitrary lengths, rather than on fixed-sized inputs.

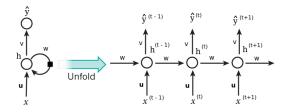


- ▶ Neurons in an RNN have connections pointing backward.
- RNNs have memory, which captures information about what has been calculated so far.





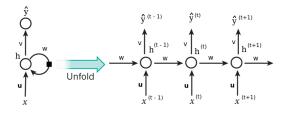
- ▶ Unfolding the network: represent a network against the time axis.
 - We write out the network for the complete sequence.





Recurrent Neural Networks (3/4)

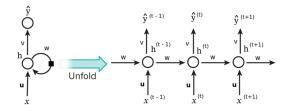
- ► Unfolding the network: represent a network against the time axis.
 - We write out the network for the complete sequence.
- ► For example, if the sequence we care about is a sentence of three words, the network would be unfolded into a 3-layer neural network.
 - One layer for each word.





Recurrent Neural Networks (4/4)

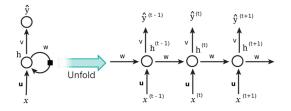
▶ $h^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$, where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.





Recurrent Neural Networks (4/4)

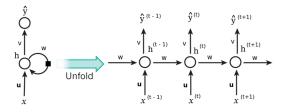
- ▶ $h^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$, where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.
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Recurrent Neural Networks (4/4)

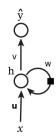
- ▶ $h^{(t)} = f(u^T x^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$, where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.
- $\hat{y}^{(t)} = g(vh^{(t)})$, where g can be the softmax function.
- $cost(y^{(t)}, \hat{y}^{(t)}) = cross_entropy(y^{(t)}, \hat{y}^{(t)}) = -\sum y^{(t)}log\hat{y}^{(t)}$
- ▶ $y^{(t)}$ is the correct word at time step t, and $\hat{y}^{(t)}$ is the prediction.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (1/4)

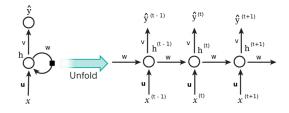
► Each recurrent neuron has three sets of weights: **u**, **w**, and **v**.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (2/4)

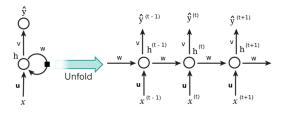
• u: the weights for the inputs $x^{(t)}$.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (2/4)

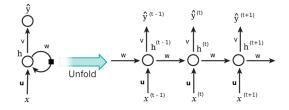
- u: the weights for the inputs $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$.
- ▶ x^(t): is the input at time step t.
- ► For example, x⁽¹⁾ could be a one-hot vector corresponding to the first word of a sentence.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (3/4)

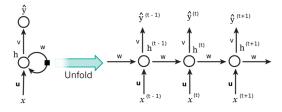
• w: the weights for the hidden state of the previous time step $h^{(t-1)}$.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (3/4)

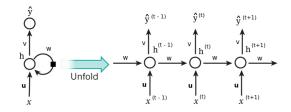
- w: the weights for the hidden state of the previous time step $h^{(t-1)}$.
- h^(t): is the hidden state (memory) at time step t.
 - $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
 - h⁽⁰⁾ is the initial hidden state.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

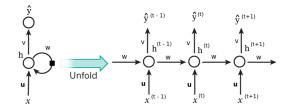
• v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step $h^{(t)}$.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

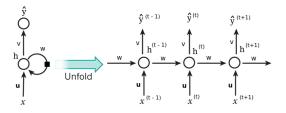
- v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step $h^{(t)}$.
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Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

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- ▶ ŷ^(t) is the output at step t.
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \operatorname{softmax}(\operatorname{vh}^{(t)})$
- ► For example, if we wanted to predict the next word in a sentence, it would be a vector of probabilities across our vocabulary.

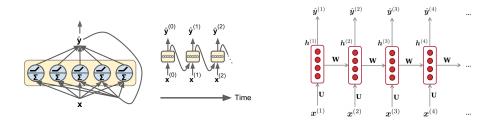




Layers of Recurrent Neurons

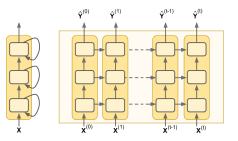
At each time step t, every neuron of a layer receives both the input vector x^(t) and the output vector from the previous time step h^(t-1).

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{h}^{(\texttt{t})} &= \texttt{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(\texttt{t})} + \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{h}^{(\texttt{t}-1)})\\ \mathbf{y}^{(\texttt{t})} &= \texttt{sigmoid}(\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{h}^{(\texttt{t})}) \end{split}$$





Stacking multiple layers of cells gives you a deep RNN.





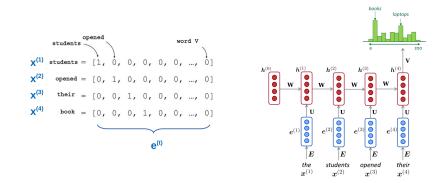
Let's Back to Language Model Example





A RNN Neural Language Model (1/2)

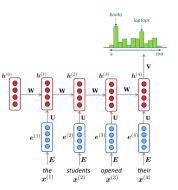
- ► The input **x** will be a sequence of words (each **x**^(t) is a single word).
- Each embedded word $\mathbf{e}^{(t)} = \mathbf{E}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{(t)}$ is a one-hot vector of size vocabulary size.





A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

- Let's recap the equations for the RNN:
 - $h^{(t)} = tanh(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{e}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$ $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = softmax(vh^{(t)})$

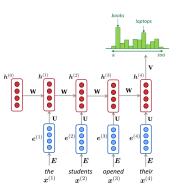




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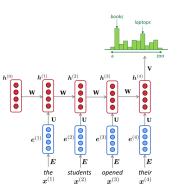
- $h^{(t)} = tanh(\mathbf{u}^{T}\mathbf{e}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \texttt{softmax}(\texttt{vh}^{(t)})$
- The output $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)}$ is a vector of vocabulary size elements.





A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

- Let's recap the equations for the RNN:
 - $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{e}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
 - $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \texttt{softmax}(\texttt{vh}^{(t)})$
- The output $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)}$ is a vector of vocabulary size elements.
- Each element of ŷ^(t) represents the probability of that word being the next word in the sentence.







HERE'S A POTATO



RNN in TensorFlow



RNN in TensorFlow (1/3)

Manul implementation of an RNN

```
# make the dataset
n_inputs = 3
n_neurons = 5
X0_batch = np.array([[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8], [9, 0, 1]]) # t = 0
X1_batch = np.array([[9, 8, 7], [0, 0, 0], [6, 5, 4], [3, 2, 1]]) # t = 1
X0 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
X1 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
```



RNN in TensorFlow (1/3)

Manul implementation of an RNN

```
# make the dataset
n_inputs = 3
n_neurons = 5
X0_batch = np.array([[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8], [9, 0, 1]]) # t = 0
X1_batch = np.array([[9, 8, 7], [0, 0, 0], [6, 5, 4], [3, 2, 1]]) # t = 1
X0 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
X1 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
```

```
# build the network
Wx = tf.Variable(tf.random_normal(shape=[n_inputs, n_neurons], dtype=tf.float32))
Wh = tf.Variable(tf.random_normal(shape=[n_neurons, n_neurons], dtype=tf.float32))
b = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([1, n_neurons], dtype=tf.float32))
```

```
h0 = tf.tanh(tf.matmul(X0, Wx) + b)
h1 = tf.tanh(tf.matmul(h0, Wh) + tf.matmul(X1, Wx) + b)
```



RNN in TensorFlow (2/3)

Use dynamic_rnn



RNN in TensorFlow (2/3)

Use dynamic_rnn

build the network basic_cell = tf.contrib.rnn.BasicRNNCell(num_units=n_neurons) outputs, states = tf.nn.dynamic_rnn(basic_cell, X, dtype=tf.float32)



RNN in TensorFlow (3/3)

Multi-layer RNN

```
layers = [tf.contrib.rnn.BasicRNNCell(num_units=n_neurons, activation=tf.nn.relu)
for layer in range(n_layers)]
```

```
multi_layer_cell = tf.contrib.rnn.MultiRNNCell(layers)
```

```
outputs, states = tf.nn.dynamic_rnn(multi_layer_cell, X, dtype=tf.float32)
```

```
states_concat = tf.concat(axis=1, values=states)
```

```
logits = tf.layers.dense(states_concat, n_outputs)
```



Training RNNs

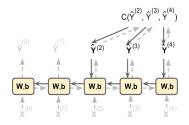


- ► To train an RNN, we should unroll it through time and then simply use regular backpropagation.
- ► This strategy is called backpropagation through time (BPTT).



Backpropagation Through Time (1/3)

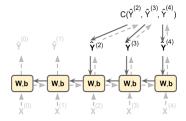
- ► To train the model using BPTT, we go through the following steps:
- ▶ 1. Forward pass through the unrolled network (represented by the dashed arrows).
- ▶ 2. The cost function is C(ŷ^{tmin}, ŷ^{tmin+1}, · · · , ŷ^{tmax}), where tmin and tmax are the first and last output time steps, not counting the ignored outputs.





Backpropagation Through Time (2/3)

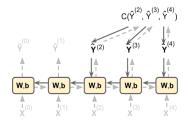
- 3. Propagate backward the gradients of that cost function through the unrolled network (represented by the solid arrows).
- ► 4. The model parameters are updated using the gradients computed during BPTT.





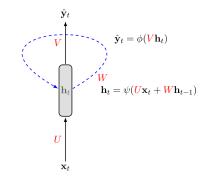
Backpropagation Through Time (3/3)

- The gradients flow backward through all the outputs used by the cost function, not just through the final output.
- ► For example, in the following figure:
 - The cost function is computed using the last three outputs, $\hat{y}^{(2)},\,\hat{y}^{(3)},$ and $\hat{y}^{(4)}.$
 - Gradients flow through these three outputs, but not through $\hat{y}^{(0)}$ and $\hat{y}^{(1)}.$





BPTT Step by Step (1/20)





BPTT Step by Step (2/20)

 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}_3 \cdots \mathbf{x}_{τ}



BPTT Step by Step (3/20)





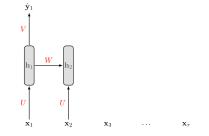
BPTT Step by Step (4/20)



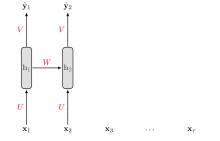




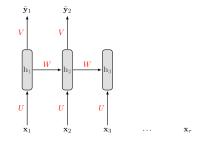
BPTT Step by Step (5/20)



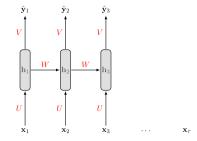




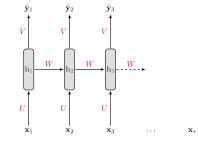




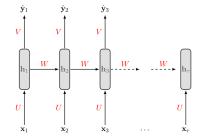




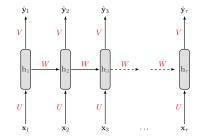




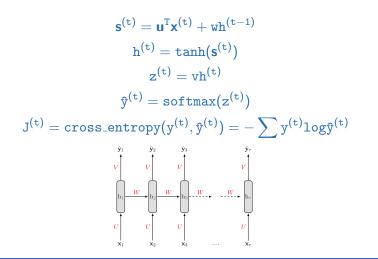




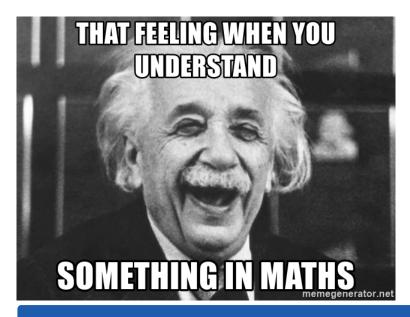








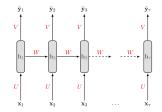






$$\mathtt{J}^{(\mathtt{t})} = \mathtt{cross_entropy}(\mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})}, \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}) = -\sum \mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})} \mathtt{log} \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}$$

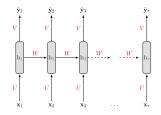
• We treat the full sequence as one training example.





$$\mathtt{J}^{(\mathtt{t})} = \mathtt{cross_entropy}(\mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})}, \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}) = -\sum \mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})} \mathtt{log} \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}$$

- We treat the full sequence as one training example.
- ► The total error E is just the sum of the errors at each time step.
- E.g., $E = J^{(1)} + J^{(2)} + \dots + J^{(t)}$





▶ J^(t) is the total cost, so we can say that a 1-unit increase in v, w or u will impact each of J⁽¹⁾, J⁽²⁾, until J^(t) individually.



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$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial v} = \sum_{t} \frac{\partial J^{(t)}}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial J^{(2)}}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial J^{(1)}}{\partial v}$$



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$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w} = \sum_{t} \frac{\partial J^{(t)}}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial w} + \frac{\partial J^{(2)}}{\partial w} + \frac{\partial J^{(1)}}{\partial w}$$



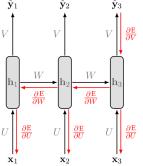
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- \blacktriangleright For example if t = 3 we have: $E=J^{(1)}+J^{(2)}+J^{(3)}$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial v} = \sum_{t} \frac{\partial J^{(t)}}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial J^{(2)}}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial J^{(1)}}{\partial v}$$
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$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial u} = \sum_{t} \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial J^{(2)}}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial J^{(1)}}{\partial u}$$



- Let's start with $\frac{\partial E}{\partial y}$.
- A change in v will only impact $J^{(3)}$ at time t = 3, because it plays no role in computing the value of anything other than $z^{(3)}$. \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_2 \hat{y}_3

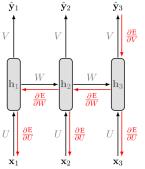
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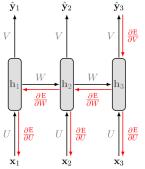
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- Let's start with $\frac{\partial E}{\partial y}$.
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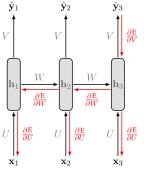
$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} &= \sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathbf{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(3)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(3)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} \end{split}$$





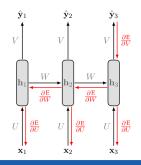
- Let's start with $\frac{\partial E}{\partial v}$.
- A change in v will only impact $J^{(3)}$ at time t = 3, because it plays no role in computing the value of anything other than $z^{(3)}$. \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_2 \hat{y}_3

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(t)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(3)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(3)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{g}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$





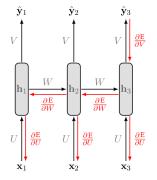
- Let's compute the derivatives of $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w}$ and $\frac{\partial J}{\partial u}$, which are computed the same.
- A change in w at t = 3 will impact our cost J in 3 separate ways:
 - 1. When computing the value of $h^{(1)}$.
 - 2. When computing the value of $h^{(2)}$, which depends on $h^{(1)}$.
 - 3. When computing the value of $h^{(3)}$, which depends on $h^{(2)}$, which depends on $h^{(1)}$.





• we compute our individual gradients as:

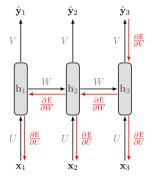
$$\sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathbf{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$





▶ we compute our individual gradients as:

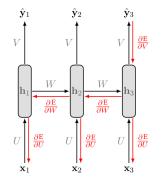
$$\begin{split} \sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathbf{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \end{split}$$





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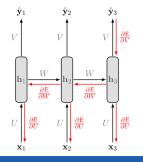
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• More generally, a change in w will impact our cost $J^{(t)}$ on t separate occasions.

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \sum_{k=1}^{t} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(\mathrm{t})}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(\mathrm{t})}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{z}}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{t})}} \left(\prod_{\mathbf{j}=\mathbf{k}+1}^{\mathsf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{j})}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{j})}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{j})}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{j}-1)}} \right) \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{k})}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{k})}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{k})}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$



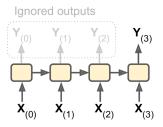


RNN Design Patterns





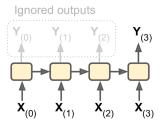
Sequence-to-vector network: takes a sequence of inputs, and ignore all outputs except for the last one.





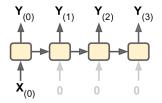
RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Vector

- Sequence-to-vector network: takes a sequence of inputs, and ignore all outputs except for the last one.
- ► E.g., you could feed the network a sequence of words corresponding to a movie review, and the network would output a sentiment score.





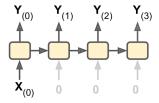
Vector-to-sequence network: takes a single input at the first time step, and let it output a sequence.





RNN Design Patterns - Vector-to-Sequence

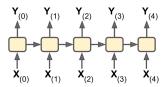
- Vector-to-sequence network: takes a single input at the first time step, and let it output a sequence.
- E.g., the input could be an image, and the output could be a caption for that image.





RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Sequence

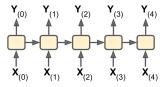
Sequence-to-sequence network: takes a sequence of inputs and produce a sequence of outputs.





RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Sequence

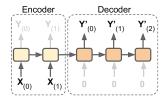
- Sequence-to-sequence network: takes a sequence of inputs and produce a sequence of outputs.
- ► Useful for predicting time series such as stock prices: you feed it the prices over the last N days, and it must output the prices shifted by one day into the future.
- ▶ Here, both input sequences and output sequences have the same length.





RNN Design Patterns - Encoder-Decoder

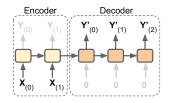
Encoder-decoder network: a sequence-to-vector network (encoder), followed by a vector-to-sequence network (decoder).





RNN Design Patterns - Encoder-Decoder

- Encoder-decoder network: a sequence-to-vector network (encoder), followed by a vector-to-sequence network (decoder).
- E.g., translating a sentence from one language to another.
- You would feed the network a sentence in one language, the encoder would convert this sentence into a single vector representation, and then the decoder would decode this vector into a sentence in another language.





LSTM





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• E.g., predicting the next word based on the previous ones.



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- ▶ But, as that gap grows, RNNs become unable to learn to connect the information.
- ► RNNs may suffer from the vanishing/exploding gradients problem.



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- ► RNNs may suffer from the vanishing/exploding gradients problem.
- ► To solve these problem, long short-term memory (LSTM) have been introduced.
- ► In LSTM, the network can learn what to store and what to throw away.



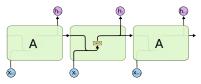
RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

▶ Without looking inside the box, the LSTM cell looks exactly like a basic cell.



RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

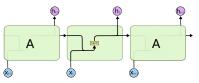
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- ► The repeating module in a standard RNN contains a single layer.



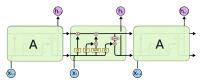


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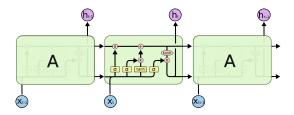


► The repeating module in an LSTM contains four interacting layers.



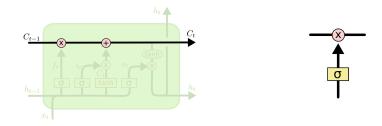


- In LSTM state is split in two vectors:
 - 1. $h^{(t)}$ (h stands for hidden): the short-term state
 - 2. $c^{(t)}$ (c stands for cell): the long-term state



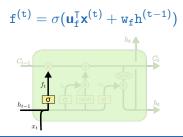


- ► The cell state (long-term state), the horizontal line on the top of the diagram.
- ▶ The LSTM can remove/add information to the cell state, regulated by three gates.
 - Forget gate, input gate and output gate



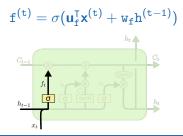


► Step one: decides what information we are going to throw away from the cell state.



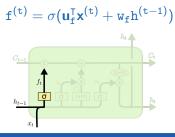


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- It looks at h^(t-1) and x^(t), and outputs a number between 0 and 1 for each number in the cell state c^(t-1).
 - 1 represents completely keep this, and 0 represents completely get rid of this.





Second step: decides what new information we are going to store in the cell state. This has two parts:

$$\mathbf{i}^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{i}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{i}}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$

$$\mathbf{\tilde{c}}^{(t)} = \tanh(\mathbf{u}_{\tilde{\mathbf{c}}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{\tilde{\mathbf{c}}}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$

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- ▶ 1. A sigmoid layer, called the input gate layer, decides which values we will update.
- 2. A tanh layer creates a vector of new candidate values that could be added to the state.

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$$h_{t}$$

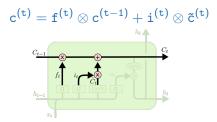
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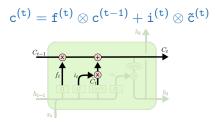


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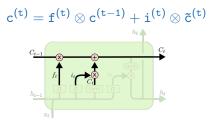


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- Then we add it $i^{(t)} \otimes \tilde{c}^{(t)}$.
- This is the new candidate values, scaled by how much we decided to update each state value.

$$c^{(t)} = f^{(t)} \otimes c^{(t-1)} + i^{(t)} \otimes \tilde{c}^{(t)}$$



• Fourth step: decides about the output.

$$\mathbf{o}^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{o}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{o}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$
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- Fourth step: decides about the output.
- First, runs a sigmoid layer that decides what parts of the cell state we are going to output.
- Then, puts the cell state through tanh and multiplies it by the output of the sigmoid gate (output gate), so that it only outputs the parts it decided to.

$$\mathbf{o}^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{o}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{o}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \mathbf{o}^{(t)} \otimes \tanh(\mathbf{c}^{(t)})$$



Multi-layer LSTM

```
lstm_cells = [tf.contrib.rnn.BasicLSTMCell(num_units=n_neurons) for layer in range(n_layers)]
multi_cell = tf.contrib.rnn.MultiRNNCell(lstm_cells)
```

```
outputs, states = tf.nn.dynamic_rnn(multi_cell, X, dtype=tf.float32)
```

```
top_layer_h_state = states[-1][1]
```

```
logits = tf.layers.dense(top_layer_h_state, n_outputs)
```



Autoencoders



Let's Start With An Example



• Which of them is easier to memorize?



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- ▶ Seq1: 40,27,25,36,81,57,10,73,19,68



- Which of them is easier to memorize?
- ▶ Seq1: 40,27,25,36,81,57,10,73,19,68
- ▶ Seq2: 50, 25, 76, 38, 19, 58, 29, 88, 44, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20



 $Seq1:40,27,25,36,81,57,10,73,19,68\\Seq2:50,25,76,38,19,58,29,88,44,22,11,34,17,52,26,13,40,20$





$Seq1:40,27,25,36,81,57,10,73,19,68\\Seq2:50,25,76,38,19,58,29,88,44,22,11,34,17,52,26,13,40,20$

• Seq1 is shorter, so it should be easier.





$Seq1:40,27,25,36,81,57,10,73,19,68\\Seq2:50,25,76,38,19,58,29,88,44,22,11,34,17,52,26,13,40,20$

- Seq1 is shorter, so it should be easier.
- But, Seq2 follows two simple rules:





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- Seq1 is shorter, so it should be easier.
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 - Even numbers are followed by their half.
 - Odd numbers are followed by their triple plus one.





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- You don't need pattern if you could quickly and easily memorize very long sequences
- But, it is hard to memorize long sequences that makes it useful to recognize patterns.





- ▶ 1970, W. Chase and H. Simon
- They observed that expert chess players were able to memorize the positions of all the pieces in a game by looking at the board for just 5 seconds.





This was only the case when the pieces were placed in realistic positions, not when the pieces were placed randomly.





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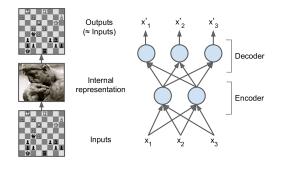


- This was only the case when the pieces were placed in realistic positions, not when the pieces were placed randomly.
- Chess experts don't have a much better memory than you and I.
- They just see chess patterns more easily due to their experience with the game.
- ▶ Patterns helps them store information efficiently.



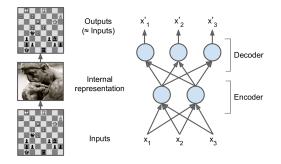


Just like the chess players in this memory experiment.



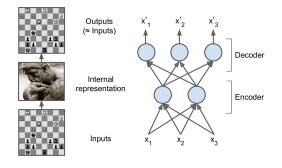


- Just like the chess players in this memory experiment.
- ► An autoencoder looks at the inputs, converts them to an efficient internal representation, and then spits out something that looks very close to the inputs.



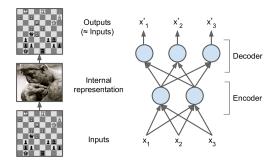


► The same architecture as a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP).



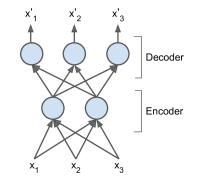


- ► The same architecture as a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP).
- Except that the number of neurons in the output layer must be equal to the number of inputs.



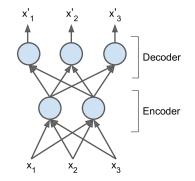


• An autoencoder is always composed of two parts.



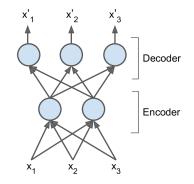


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- An encoder (recognition network), h = f(x)
 Converts the inputs to an internal representation.



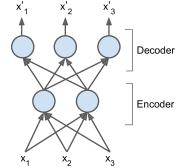


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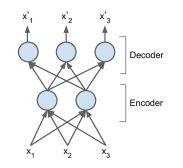


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- An encoder (recognition network), h = f(x)
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- If an autoencoder learns to set g(f(x)) = x everywhere, it is not especially useful, why?



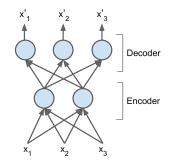


• Autoencoders are designed to be unable to learn to copy perfectly.



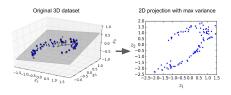


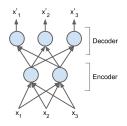
- Autoencoders are designed to be unable to learn to copy perfectly.
- The models are forced to prioritize which aspects of the input should be copied, they often learn useful properties of the data.





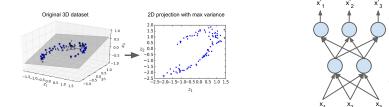
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- Dimension reduction: these codings typically have a much lower dimensionality than the input data.



Decoder

Encoder



Different Types of Autoencoders

- Stacked autoencoders
- Denoising autoencoders
- Variational autoencoders

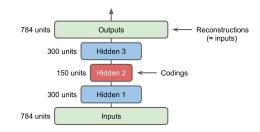


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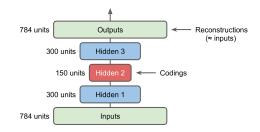


► Stacked autoencoder: autoencoders with multiple hidden layers.





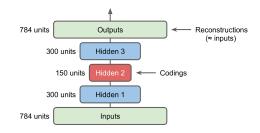
- ► Stacked autoencoder: autoencoders with multiple hidden layers.
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Stacked Autoencoders (1/3)

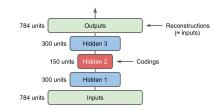
- ► Stacked autoencoder: autoencoders with multiple hidden layers.
- Adding more layers helps the autoencoder learn more complex codings.
- ► The architecture is typically symmetrical with regards to the central hidden layer.





Stacked Autoencoders (2/3)

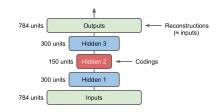
In a symmetric architecture, we can tie the weights of the decoder layers to the weights of the encoder layers.





Stacked Autoencoders (2/3)

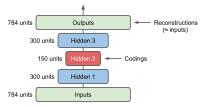
- In a symmetric architecture, we can tie the weights of the decoder layers to the weights of the encoder layers.
- ▶ In a network with N layers, the decoder layer weights can be defined as $w_{N-1+1} = w_1^T$, with $1 = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$.





Stacked Autoencoders (2/3)

- In a symmetric architecture, we can tie the weights of the decoder layers to the weights of the encoder layers.
- ▶ In a network with N layers, the decoder layer weights can be defined as $w_{N-1+1} = w_1^T$, with $1 = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$.
- This halves the number of weights in the model, speeding up training and limiting the risk of overfitting.





Stacked Autoencoders (3/3)

```
n_inputs = 28 * 28
n_hidden1 = 300
n_hidden2 = 150  # codings
n_hidden3 = n_hidden1
n_outputs = n_inputs
weights1 = tf.Variable(initializer([n_inputs, n_hidden1]), name="weights1")
weights2 = tf.Variable(initializer([n_hidden1, n_hidden2]), name="weights2")
weights3 = tf.transpose(weights2, name="weights3") # tied weights
weights4 = tf.transpose(weights1, name="weights4") # tied weights
hidden1 = tf.nn.elu(tf.matmul(X, weights1) + biases1)
hidden2 = tf.nn.elu(tf.matmul(hidden1, weights2) + biases2)
hidden3 = tf.nn.elu(tf.matmul(hidden2, weights3) + biases3)
outputs = tf.matmul(hidden3, weights4) + biases4
```

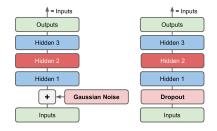


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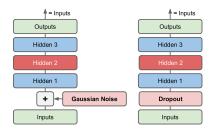
One way to force the autoencoder to learn useful features is to add noise to its inputs, training it to recover the original noise-free inputs.





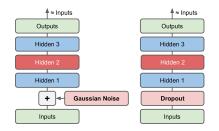
Denoising Autoencoders (1/3)

- One way to force the autoencoder to learn useful features is to add noise to its inputs, training it to recover the original noise-free inputs.
- This prevents the autoencoder from trivially copying its inputs to its outputs, so it ends up having to find patterns in the data.





The noise can be pure Gaussian noise added to the inputs, or it can be randomly switched off inputs, just like in dropout.





Denoising Autoencoders (3/3)

```
n_inputs = 28 * 28
n_hidden1 = 300
n_hidden2 = 150 # codings
n_hidden3 = n_hidden1
n_outputs = n_inputs
X = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, shape=[None, n_inputs])
X_noisy = X + noise_level * tf.random_normal(tf.shape(X))
hidden1 = tf.layers.dense(X_noisy, n_hidden1, activation=tf.nn.relu, name="hidden1")
hidden2 = tf.layers.dense(hidden1, n_hidden2, activation=tf.nn.relu, name="hidden2")
hidden3 = tf.layers.dense(hidden2, n_hidden3, activation=tf.nn.relu, name="hidden3")
outputs = tf.layers.dense(hidden3, n_outputs, name="outputs")
```



Different Types of Autoencoders

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► Variational autoencoders are probabilistic autoencoders.



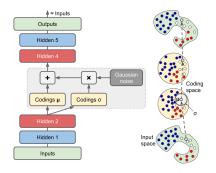
- ► Variational autoencoders are probabilistic autoencoders.
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 - As opposed to denoising autoencoders, which use randomness only during training.



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- ► Their outputs are partly determined by chance, even after training.
 - As opposed to denoising autoencoders, which use randomness only during training.
- ► They are generative autoencoders, meaning that they can generate new instances that look like they were sampled from the training set.

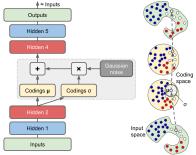


Instead of directly producing a coding for a given input, the encoder produces a mean coding μ and a standard deviation σ.



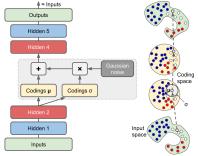


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- The actual coding is then sampled randomly from a Gaussian distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ .
- After that the decoder just decodes the sampled coding normally.





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 - Pushes the autoencoder to have codings that look as though they were sampled from a simple Gaussian distribution.
 - Using the KL divergence between the target distribution (the Gaussian distribution) and the actual distribution of the codings.
 - KL divergence measures the divergence between the two probabilities.



Summary





- ► Receptive fields and filters
- Convolution operation
- Padding and strides
- Pooling layer
- ► Flattening, dropout, dense



- ► RNN
- Unfolding the network
- ► Three weights
- Backpropagation through time
- ► RNN design patterns
- ► LSTM



Questions?