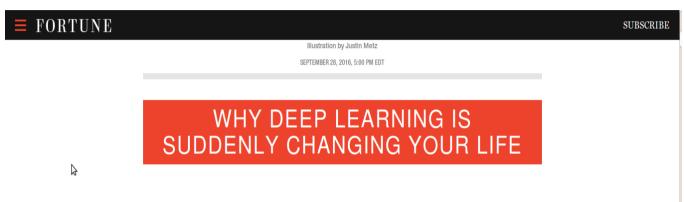


Outline

- Introduction to Deep Learning
- Brief history of Neural Networks
- Deep Learning
 - Recent technical advances
 - Models: Autoencoders, CNN, RNN
- Open problems
- Deep Learning Hands-on

The AI Revolution



Decades-old discoveries are now and will soon transfo

Over the past four years, readers have doubt a wide range of everyday technologies.

Most obviously, the speech-recognition func



A survival guide for the coming Al revolution

By Natalie Rens, Juxi Leitner

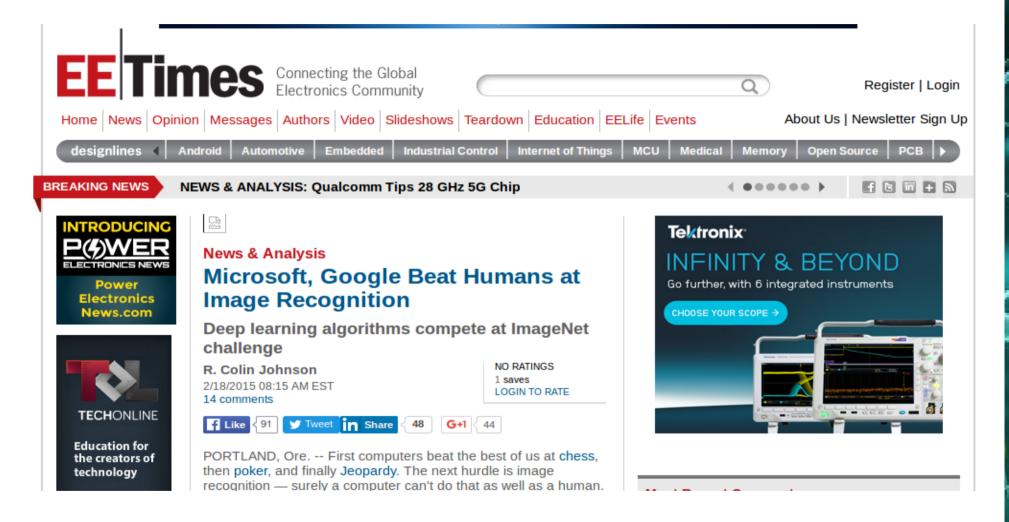
Mar 03, 2017

This article first appeared on The Conversation.

If the popular media isto be believed, artificial intelligence is coming to steal your job and threaten life as we know it. If we do not prepare now, we may face a future where AI runs free and dominates humans in society.

The AI revolution is indeed underway. To ensure you are prepared to make it through the

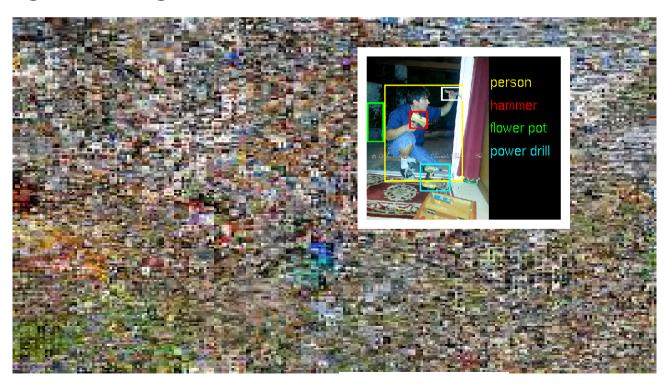
Computer Vision



Computer Vision

• Amazing progresses in the last few years with Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs).

1.4M images, 1K categories



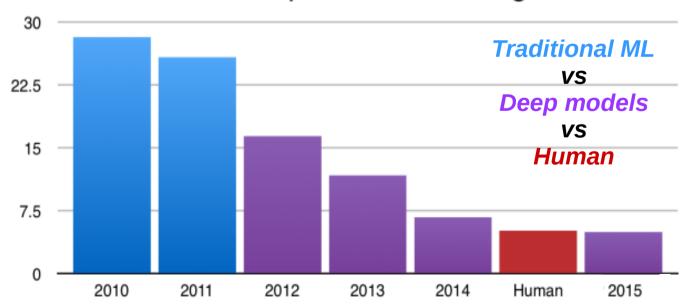
(2009)

Computer Vision

 Amazing progresses in the last few years with Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs).

ImageNet Large-Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC)

ILSVRC top-5 error on ImageNet



Speech Processing

• Machine translation.

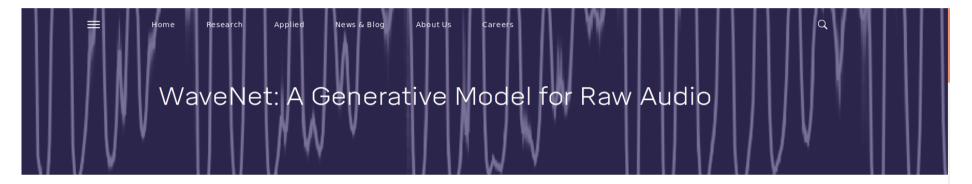
Rick Rashid in **Tianjin, China**, October, 25, 2012



A voice recognition program translated a speech given by Richard F. Rashid, Microsoft's top scientist, into Mandarin Chinese.

Speech Processing

Text To Speech WaveNet.



This post presents **WaveNet**, a deep generative model of raw audio waveforms. We show that WaveNets are able to generate speech which mimics any human voice and which sounds more natural than the best existing Text-to-Speech systems, reducing the gap with human performance by over 50%.

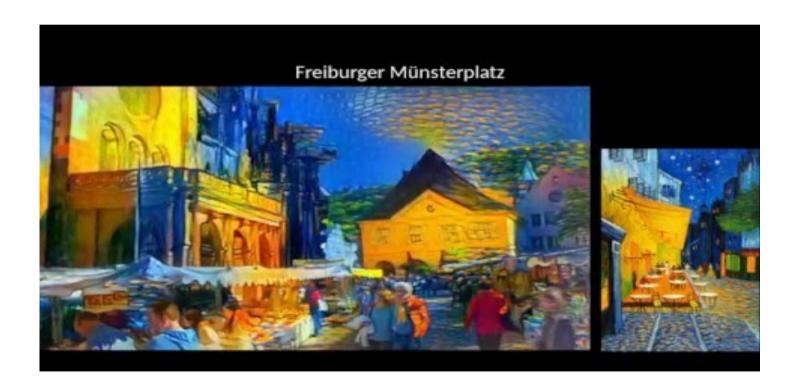
We also demonstrate that the same network can be used to synthesize other audio signals such as music, and present some striking samples of automatically generated piano pieces.

Talking Machines

Allowing people to converse with machines is a long-standing dream of human-computer interaction. The ability of computers to understand natural speech has been revolutionised in the last few years by the application of deep neural networks (e.g., **Google Voice Search**). However, generating speech with computers — a process usually referred to as **speech synthesis** or text-to-speech (TTS) — is still largely based on so-called **concatenative TTS**, where a very large database of short speech fragments are recorded from a single speaker and then recombined to form complete utterances. This makes it difficult to modify the voice (for example switching to a different speaker, or altering the emphasis or emotion of their speech) without recording a whole

Creativity

• Style Transfer.



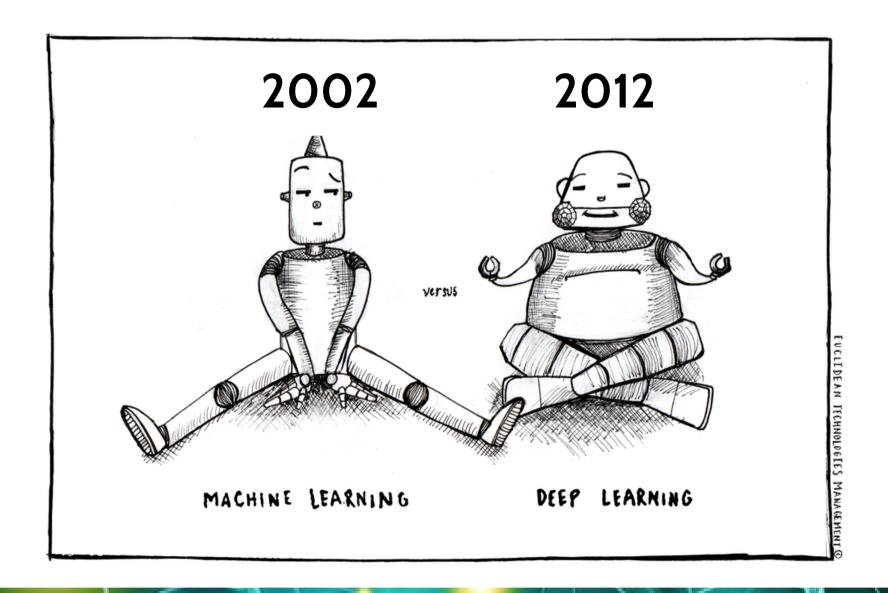
[Ruder et al.]

Creativity

• Generate Donald Trump's Twitter eruptions.



Machine Learning vs Deep Learning



Deep Learning

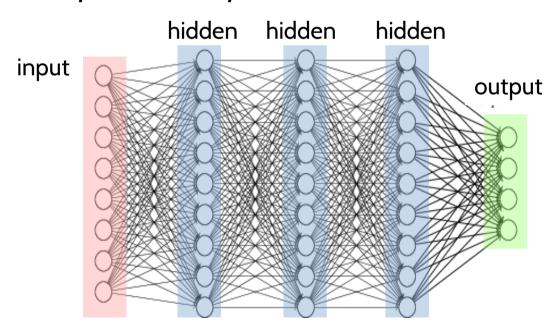
What is deep learning?

• Why is it generally better than traditional ML methods on image, speech and certain other types of data?

Deep Learning

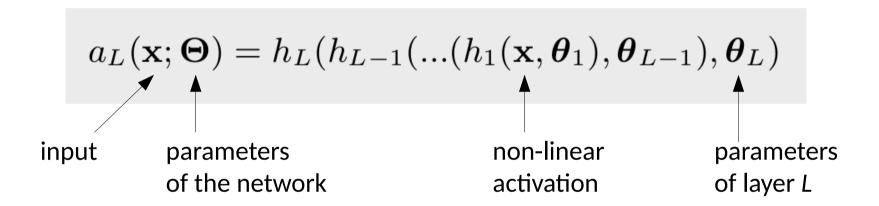
What is deep learning?

Deep Learning means using a **neural network** with **several layers of nodes** between input and output



More formally

• A family of **parametric** models which learn **non-linear hierarchical** representations:



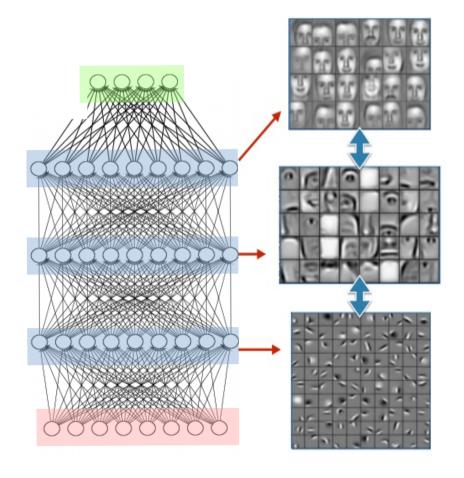
... and informally

" If you torture data long enough, it will confess to anything you'd like." R.H. Coase, British economist

Deep Learning

• Why is it generally better than other ML methods on image, speech and certain other types of data?

The series of layers between input and output compute relevant features automatically in a series of stages, just as our brains seem to.



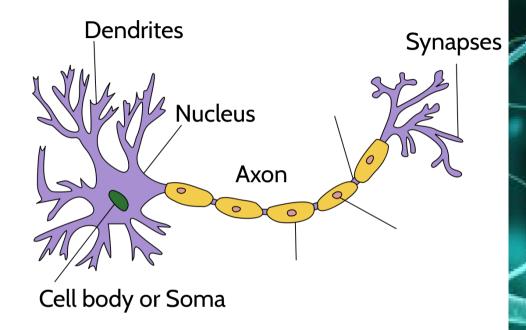
Deep Learning

...but neural networks have been around for 25 years... So, what is new?



Biological neuron

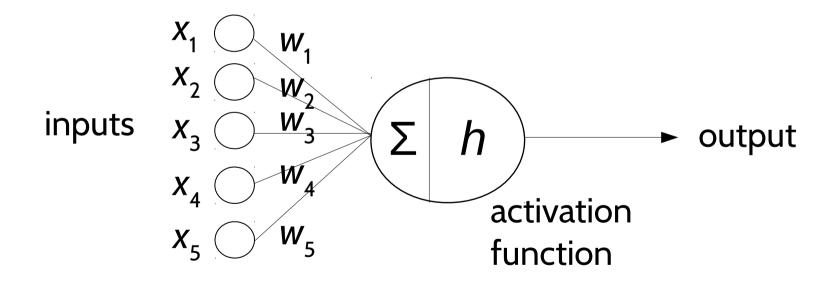
- A neuron has
 - Branching input (dendrites)
 - Branching output (the axon)



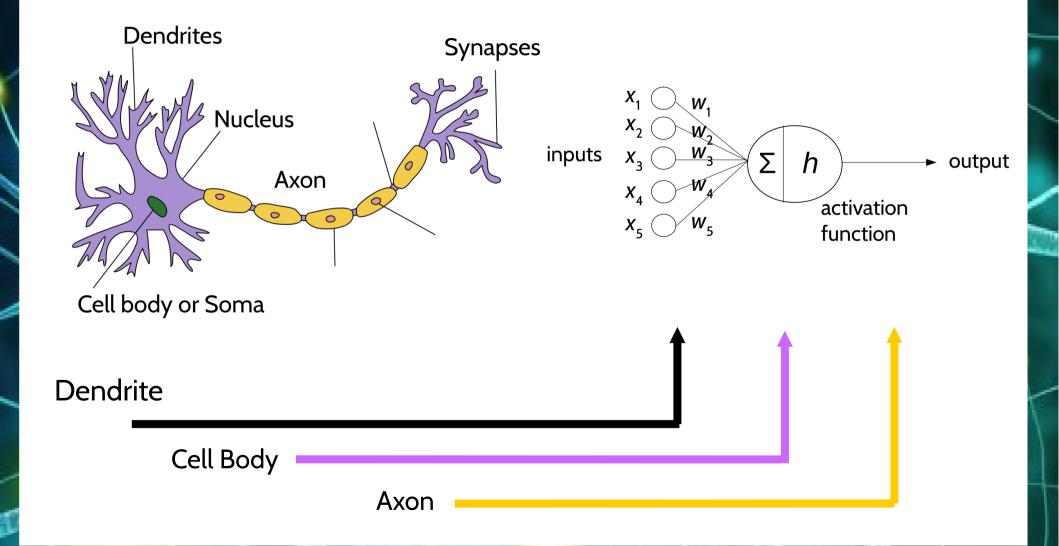
- Information moves from the dendrites to the axon via the cell body
- Axon connects to dendrites via synapses
 - Synapses vary in strength
 - Synapses may be excitatory or inhibitory

Perceptron

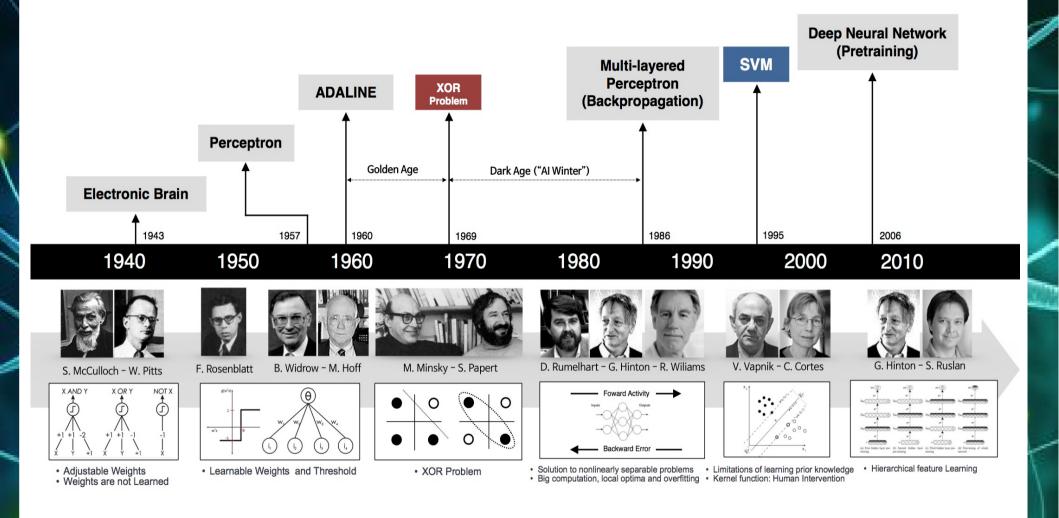
An Artificial Neuron (Perceptron) is a non-linear parameterized function with restricted output range



Biological neuron and Perceptron

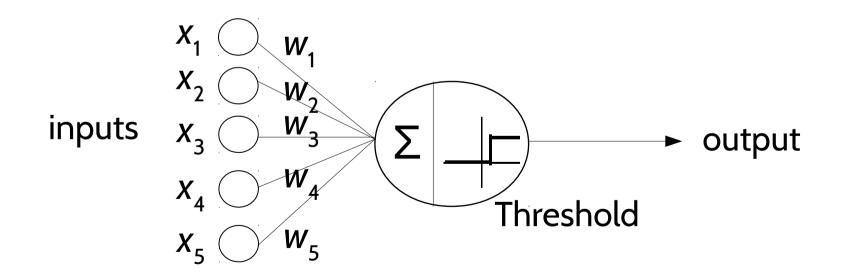


Brief History of Neural Networks



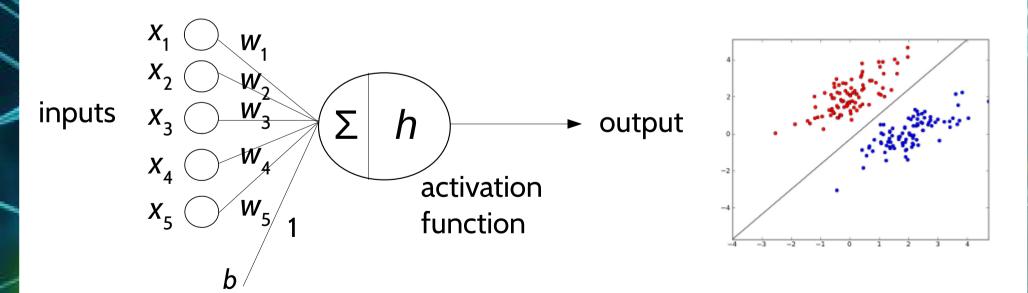
1943 - McCulloch & Pitts Model

- Early model of artificial neuron
- Generates a binary output
- The weights values are fixed

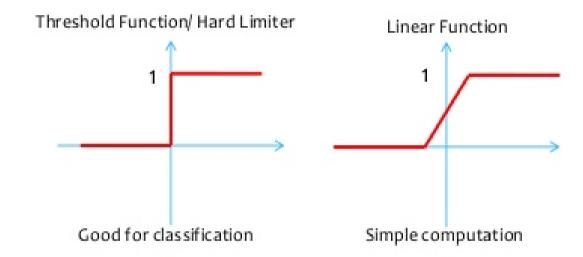


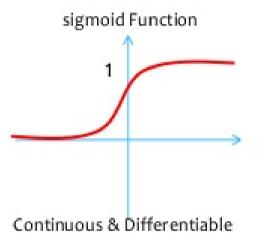
1958 - Perceptron by Rosemblatt

- Perceptron as a machine for linear classification
- Main idea: Learn the weigths and consider bias.
 - One weight per input
 - Multiply weights with respective inputs and add bias
 - If result larger than threshold return 1, otherwise O



Activation functions





$$a = \sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

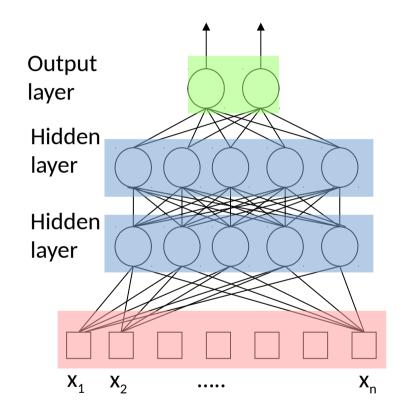
First Al winter

- The exclusive or (XOR) cannot be solved by perceptrons
- Neural models cannot be applied to complex tasks



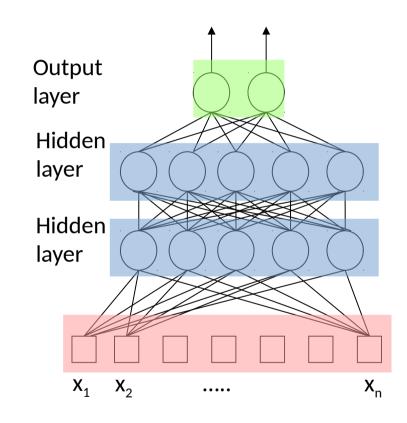
First Al winter

- But, can XOR be solved by neural networks?
 - Multi-layer perceptrons (MLP) can solve XOR
 - Few years later Minsky built such MLP



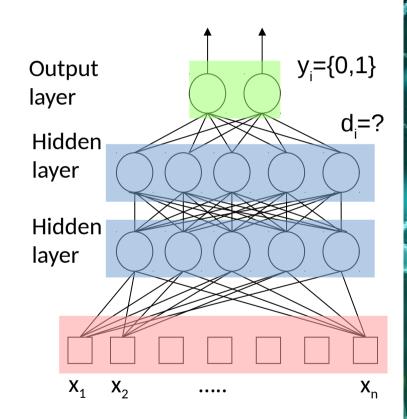
Multi-layer feed forward Neural Network

- Main idea:
 - Densely connect artificial neurons to realize compositions of nonlinear functions
- The information is propagated from the inputs to the outputs
 - Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)
- Tasks: Classification, Regression
- The input data are n dimensional, usually the feature vectors



First Al winter

- How to train a MLP?
 - Rosenblatt's algorithm not applicable, as it expects to know the desired target.
 - For hidden layers we cannot know the desired target

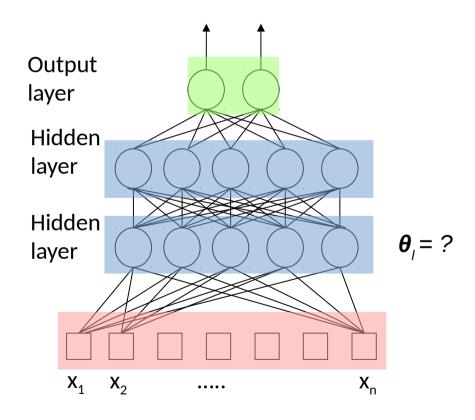


- Backpropagation revitalize the field
- Learning MLP for complicated functions can be solved
- Efficient algorithm which processes "large" training sets
- Allowed for complicated neural network architectures
- Today backpropagation is still at the core of neural network training

Werbos (1974). Beyond Regression: New Tools for Prediction and Analysis in the Behavioral Sciences. Ph.D. Thesis, Harvard University.

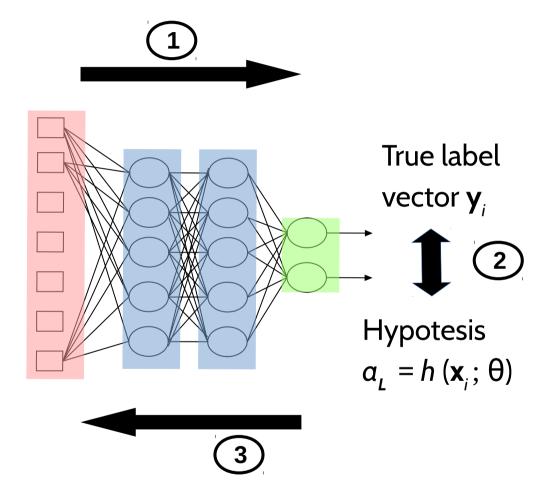
Rumelhart, Hintont, Williams (1986). Learning representations by back-propagating errors. Nature

Learning is the process of modifying the weights of each layer θ_i in order to produce a network that performs some function:



- Preliminary steps:
 - Collect/acquire a training set {X, Y}
 - Define model and initialize randomly weights.
- Given the training set find the weights:

$$\mathbf{\Theta}^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{\Theta}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i} \ell(y_i, a_L(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{\Theta}))$$



- 1) Forward propagation: sum inputs, produce activations, feed-forward
- 2) Error estimation.
- 3) Back propagate the error signal and used it to update weights

Randomly initialize the initial weights

While error is too large

- (1) For <u>each training sample</u> (presented in random order)
 - Apply the inputs to the network
 - Calculate the output for every neuron from the input layer, through the hidden layers, to the output layer
- (2) Calculate the error at the outputs
- (3) Use the output error to compute error signals for previous layers
 Use the error signals to compute weight adjustments
 Apply the weight adjustments

Periodically evaluate the network performance

• Optimization with gradient descent:

$$\mathbf{\Theta}^{t+1} = \mathbf{\Theta}^t - \eta_t \nabla_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}$$

- The most important component is how to compute the gradient
- The backward computations of network return the gradient

Forward

$$a_l = h_l(x_l)$$
 and $x_{l+1} = a_l$

Backward

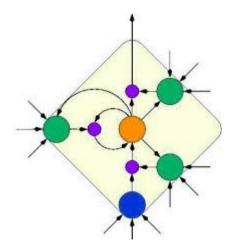
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a_l} = \left(\frac{\partial a_{l+1}}{\partial x_{l+1}}\right)^T \cdot \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a_{l+1}} \longrightarrow \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta_l} = \frac{\partial a_l}{\partial \theta_l} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a_l}\right)^T$$

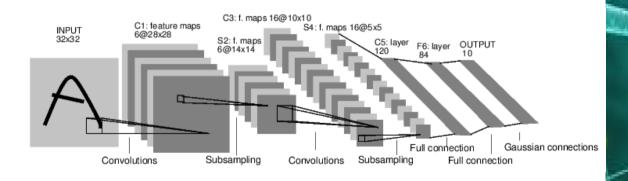
Recursive rule: Previous layer

Current layer

1990s - CNN and LSTM

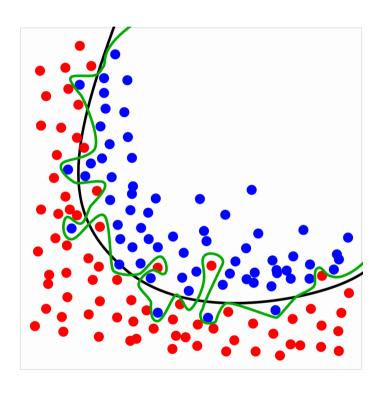
- Important advances in the field:
 - Backpropagation
 - Recurrent Long-Short Term Memory Networks (Schmidhuber, 1997)
 - Convolutional Neural Networks: OCR solved before 2000s (LeNet, 1998).





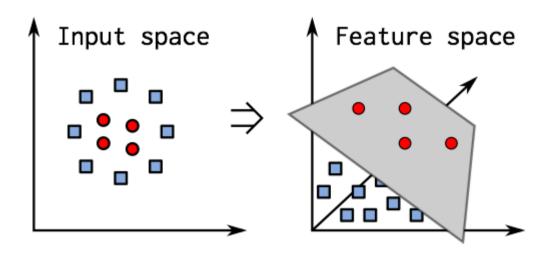
Second Al winter

- NN cannot exploit many layers
 - Overfitting
 - Vanishing gradient (with NN training you need to multiply several small numbers → they become smaller and smaller)
- Lack of processing power (no GPUs)
- Lack of data (no large annotated datasets)

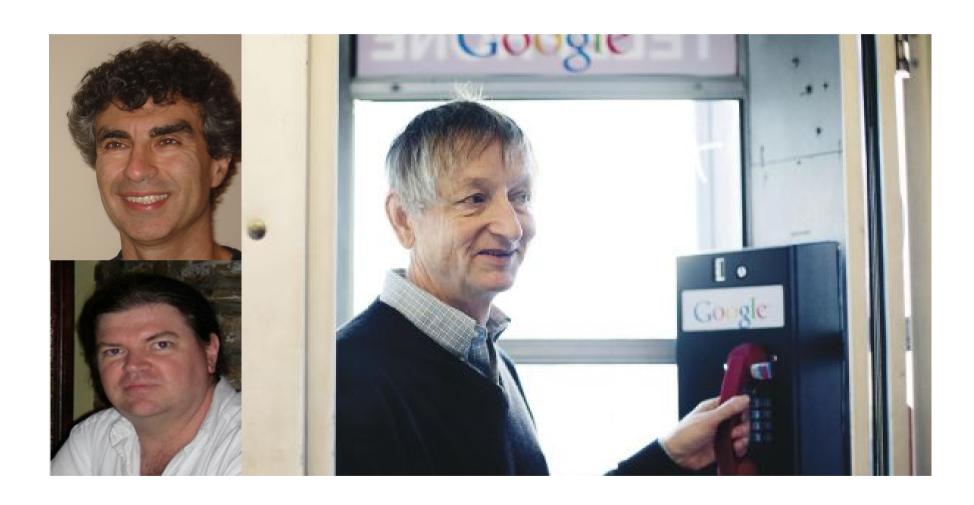


Second Al winter

- Kernel Machines (e.g. SVMs) suddenly become very popular
 - Similar accuracies than NN in the same tasks
 - Much fewer heuristics and parameters
 - Nice proofs on generalization

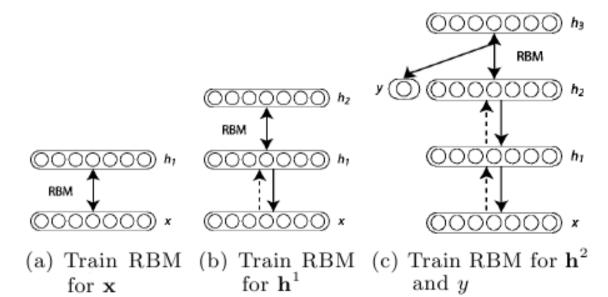


The believers



2006 - Learning deep belief nets

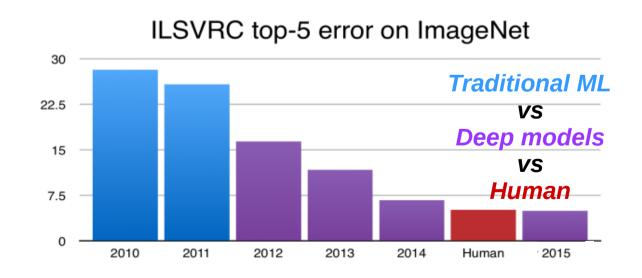
- Clever way of initializing network weights:
 - Train each layer one by one with unsupervised training (using contrastive divergence)
 - Much better than random values
- Fine-tune weigths with a round of supervised learning just as is normal for neural nets
- State of the art performance on MNIST dataset



[Hinton et al.]

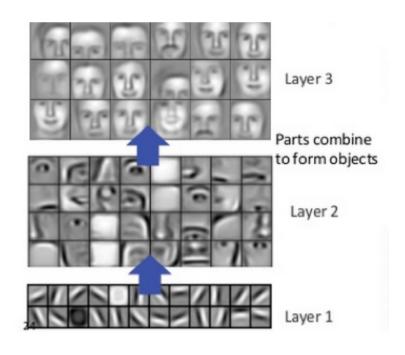
2012 - AlexNet

- Hinton's group implemented a CNN similar to LeNet [LeCun1998] but...
 - Trained on Imagenet with two GPUs
 - With some technical improvements (ReLU, dropout, data augmentation)



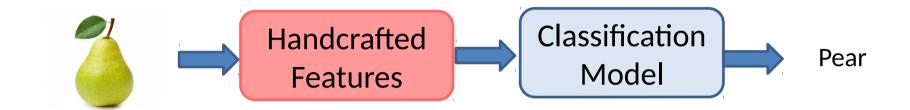
Why so powerful?

- Build an improved feature space
 - First layer learns first order features (e.g. edges...)
 - Subsequent layers learns higher order features (combinations of first layer features, combinations of edges, etc.)
 - Final layer of transformed features are fed into supervised layer(s)

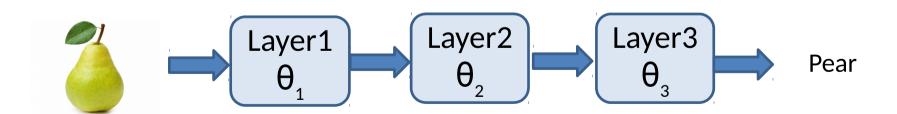


Learning hierarchical representations

• Traditional framework



Deep Learning

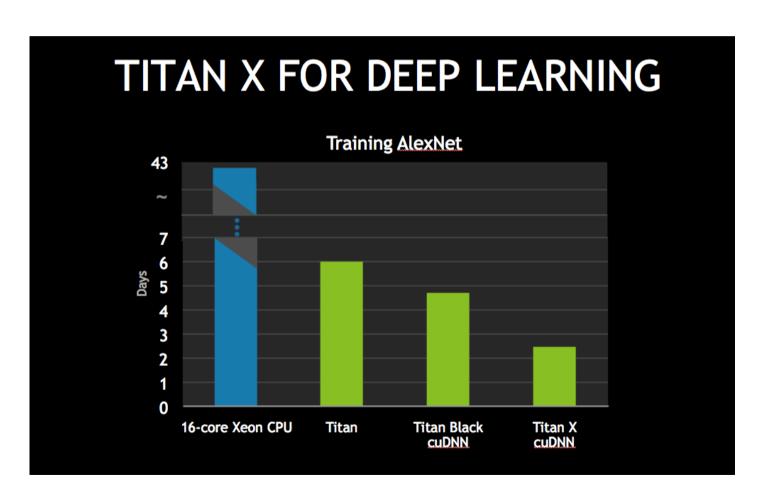


Why Deep Learning now?

- Three main factors:
 - Better hardware
 - Big data
 - Technical advances:
 - Layer-wise pretraining
 - Optimization (e.g. Adam, batch normalization)
 - Regularization (e.g. dropout)

• • • •

GPUs



Big Data

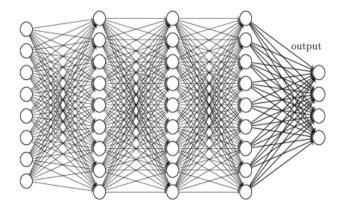
• Large fully annotated datasets



Advances with Deep Learning

- Better:
 - Activation functions (RELU)
 - Training schemes
 - Weights initialization
 - Address overfitting (dropout)
 - Normalization between layers
 - Residual deep learning

•

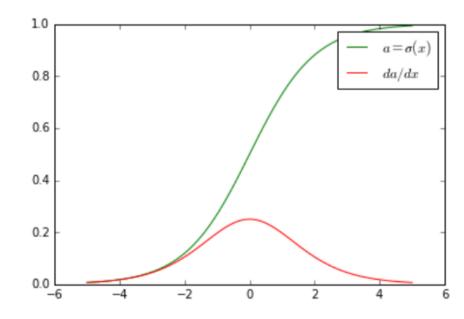


Sigmoid activations

- Positive facts:
 - Output can be interpreted as probability
 - Output bounded in [0,1]
- Negative facts
 - Always multiply with <1, gradients can be small

• The gradients at the tails is flat to 0, almost no weights

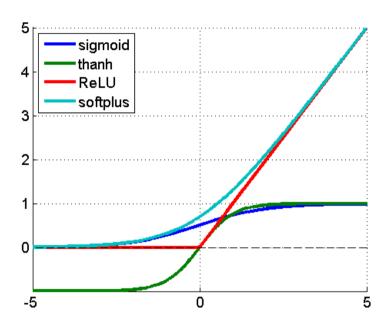
updates



Rectified Linear Units

$$f(x) = \max(0, x)$$

 More efficient gradient propagation: (derivative is O or constant)



- More efficient computation: (only comparison, addition and multiplication).
- Sparse activation: e.g. in a randomly initialized networks, only about 50% of hidden units are activated (having a non-zero output)
- Lots of variations have been proposed recently.

Losses

- Sum-squared error (L2) loss gradient seeks the maximum likelihood hypothesis under the assumption that the training data can be modeled by Normally distributed noise added to the target function value.
- Fine for regression but less natural for classification.
- For classification problems it is advantageous and increasingly popular to use the softmax activation function, just at the output layer, with the cross-entropy loss function.

Softmax and Cross Entropy

 Softmax: softens 1 of k targets to mimic a probability vector for each output.

$$softmax(x_k) = \frac{e^{x_k}}{\sum_j e^{x_j}}$$

Softmax and Cross Entropy

 Cross entropy loss: most popular classification losses for classifiers that output probabilities:

$$\ell(y, a) = -\sum_{k} y^{k} \log a^{k}$$

- Generalization of logistic regression for more than two outputs.
- These new loss and activation functions helps avoid gradient saturation.

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

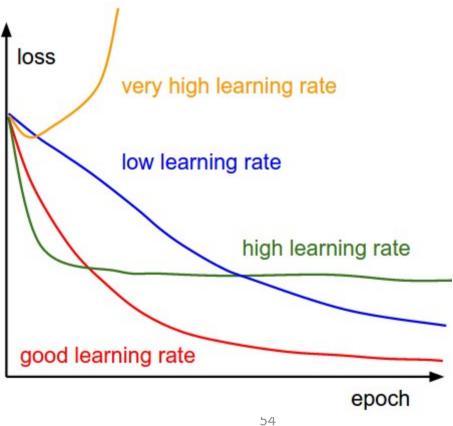
Use mini-batch sampled in the dataset for gradient estimate.

$$\mathbf{\Theta}^{t+1} = \mathbf{\Theta}^t - \frac{\eta_t}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}} \nabla_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}_i$$

- Sometimes helps to escape from local minima
- Noisy gradients act as regularization
- Also suitable for datasets that change over time
- Variance of gradients increases when batch size decreases
- Not clear how many sample per batch

Learning rate

• Great impact on learning performance



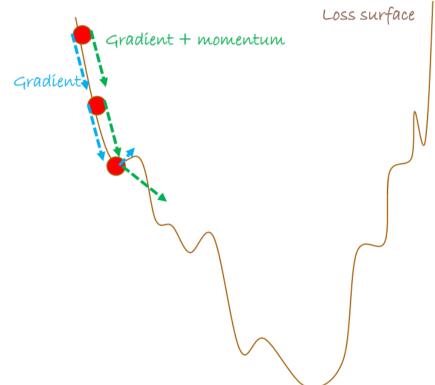
Momentum

Gradient updates with momentum

$$\hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}^{t} = \gamma \mathbf{\Theta}^{t} + \frac{\eta_{t}}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}} \nabla_{\mathbf{\Theta}} \mathcal{L}_{i}$$

$$\mathbf{\Theta}^{t+1} = \mathbf{\Theta}^{t} - \hat{\mathbf{\Theta}}^{t}$$

- Prevent gradient switching all the time
- Faster and more robust convergence



Adaptive Learning

- Popular schemes
 - **Nesterov Momentum** Calculate point you would go to if using normal momentum. Then, compute gradient at that point. Do normal update using *that* gradient and momentum.
 - Rprop Resilient BP, if gradient sign inverts, decrease its individual learning rates, else increase it.
 - Adagrad Scale learning rates inversely proportional to sqrt(sum(historical values)), such that learning rates with smaller derivatives are decreased less
 - RMSprop Adagrad but uses exponentially weighted moving average, older updates basically forgotten
 - Adam (Adaptive moments): Momentum terms on both gradient and squared gradient (1st and 2nd moments) update based on both

Data augmentation

• Simple preprocessing makes the difference (e.g. image flipping, scaling)











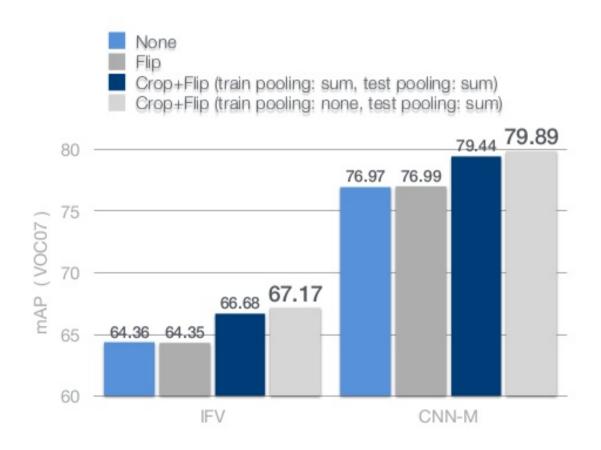






Data augmentation

 Simple preprocessing makes the difference (e.g. image flipping, scaling)



Weights initialization

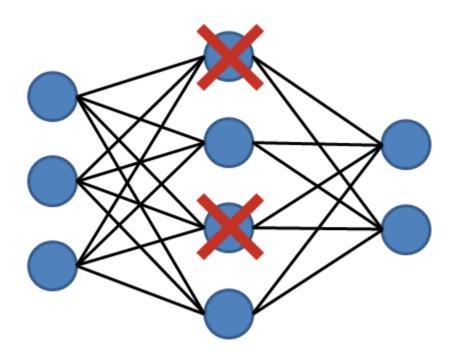
- Initialization depends on chosen non-linearities and data normalization
- Initial weights are important to find a good balance among layers and which learns well across all layers.
- Common is to select initial weights from a uniform distribution between:

[-c/root(node fan-in), c/root(node fan-in)] (c = 1 Xavier, c = 2 He)

- Can do Gaussian distribution with above as variances
- Lots of other variations and current work

Regularization - Dropout

- For each instance drop a node (hidden or input) and its connections with probability p and train
- Final net just has all averaged weights (actually scaled by 1-p)
- As if ensembling 2ⁿ different network substructures



Batch Normalization

- To maintain learning balance renormalize activations at each layer
- Obtain zero-mean and unit variance inputs: re-normalize the activation/net values at each input dimension k at each layer

$$\widehat{x}^{(k)} = \frac{x^{(k)} - E[x^{(k)}]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[x^{(k)}]}}$$

 Want mean and variance of that activation for the entire data set. Approximate the empirical mean and variance over a minibatch of instances and then normalize the activation.

Batch Normalization

• Then scale and shift the normalized activation with two learnable weights per input, γ and β , to attain the final batch normalization for that activation:

$$y^{(k)} = \gamma^{(k)} \widehat{x}^{(k)} + \beta^{(k)}$$

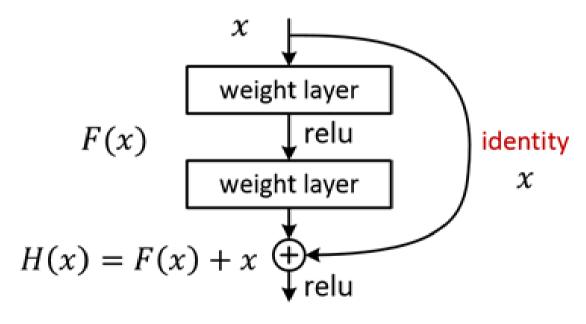
- BN advantages:
 - Allows larger learning rates
 - Improves gradient flow
 - Reduces dependence on initialization

Deep Residual Learning

- Residual Nets
- 2015 ILSVRC winner
- A CNN with hundreds of layers
- Uses Batch Normalization extensively
- Learns the residual mapping with respect to the identity
- Simple concept which tends to make the function to be learned simpler across depth

Deep Residual Learning

- F is a residual mapping of the desired function H with respect to identity
- If the optimal mapping close to identity, small fluctuations.



Deep Residual Learning

Very simple design but deep

plain net

7x7 conv, 64, /2 7x7 conv, 64, /2 3x3 conv, 64 3x3 conv, 64 3x3 conv, 64 3x3 conv. 64 3x3 conv, 64 3x3 conv, 64 ResNet 3x3 conv. 64 3x3 conv. 64 3x3 conv, 64 3x3 conv. 64 3x3 conv, 64 3x3 conv. 64 3x3 conv, 128, /2 3x3 conv, 128, /2 3x3 conv, 128 3x3 conv, 256 3x3 conv, 512, /2 3x3 conv, 512, /2 3x3 conv, 512 avg pool avg pool fc 1000

-)

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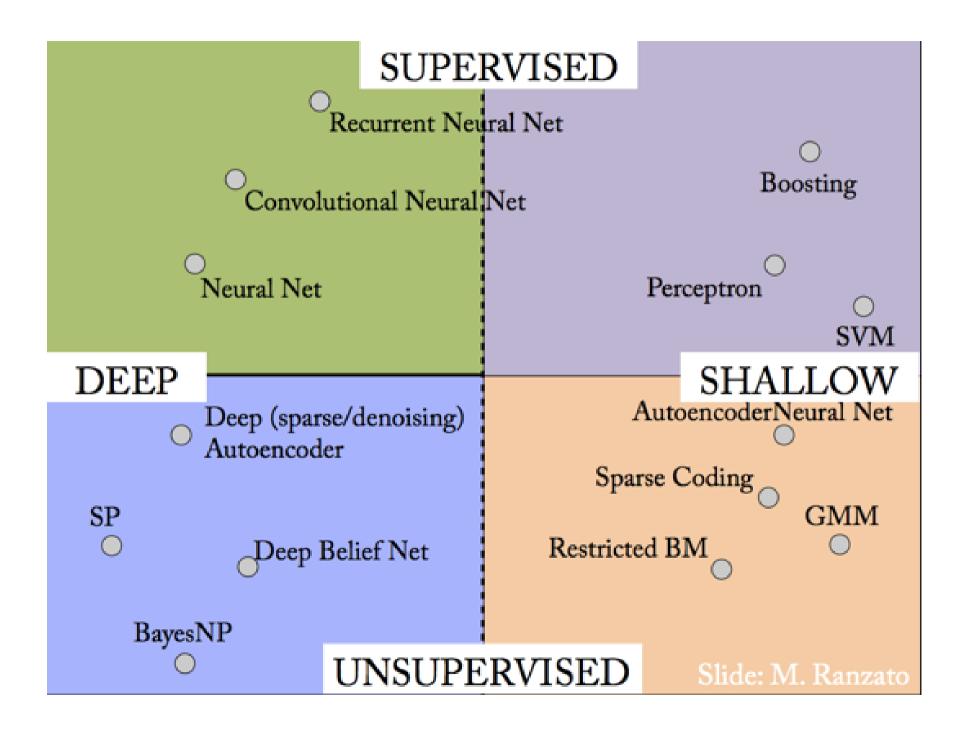
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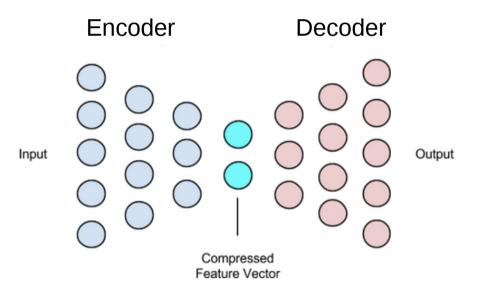
Deep Learning Models



Deep Learning Models

Deep Belief Networks and **Autoencoders**:

unsupervised learning, employs layer-wise training to initialize each layer and capture multiple levels of representation simultaneously.



Hinton, G. E, Osindero, S., and Teh, Y. W. (2006). A fast learning algorithm for deep belief nets. Neural Computation, 18:1527-1554.

Bengio, Y., Lamblin, P., Popovici, P., Larochelle, H. (2007). Greedy Layer-Wise Training of Deep Networks, Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 19

Autoencoders

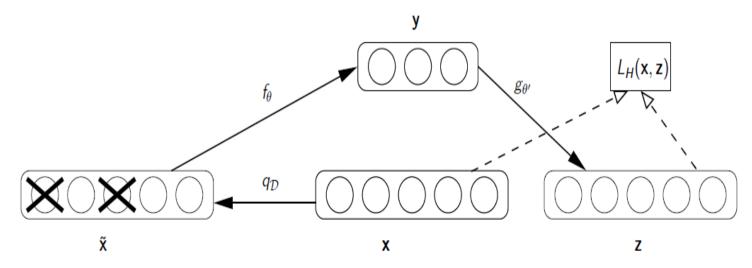
- The *auto encoder* idea is motivated by the concept of a good representation.
 - For example, for a classifier, a good representation can be defined as one that will yield a better performing classifier.
- An encoder is a deterministic mapping f that transforms an input vector x into hidden representation y
 - Parameters in f: weight matrix W and bias b (an offset vector)
- A decoder maps back the hidden representation y to the reconstructed input z via g.
- **Auto encoding:** compare the reconstructed input **z** to the original input **x** and try to minimize the reconstruction error.

Denoising Autoencoders

- Vincent et al. (2010), "a good representation is one that can be obtained robustly from a corrupted input and that will be useful for recovering the corresponding clean input."
 - The higher level representations are relatively stable and robust to input corruption.
- In denoising auto encoders, the partially *corrupted* output is cleaned (de-noised).

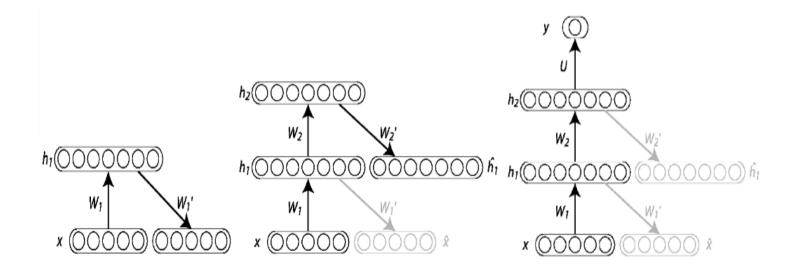
Denoising Autoencoders

- Clean input is partially corrupted through a stochastic mapping.
- 2. The corrupted input passes through a basic auto encoder and is mapped to a hidden representation.
- 3. From this hidden representation, we can reconstruct z.
- Minimize the reconstruction error (cross-entropy or squared error loss.



Stacked Denoising Autoencoders

- Deep architecture: auto encoders stack one on top of another.
- Once the encoding function of the first DAE is learned and used to reconstruct the corrupted input, we can train the second level.
- Once the SDAE is trained, its output can be used as the input to a supervised learning algorithm such as support vector machine classifier or a multi-class logistic regression.



Structured Data

- Some applications naturally deal with an input space which is locally structured spatial or temporal
- Images, language, etc. vs arbitrary input features
- Deep Learning extremely powerful in this case.

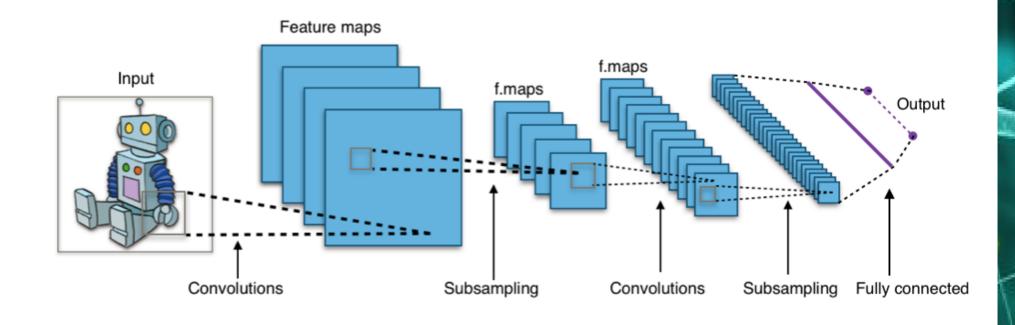


Tomorrow, and tomorrow; creeps in this petty pace from day to day, until the last syllable of recorded time. And all our yesterdays have lighted fools the way to dusty

Deep Learning Models

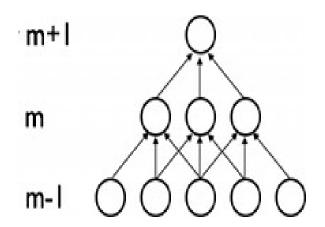
Convolutional Neural Networks:

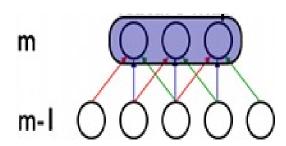
organizes neurons based on animal's visual cortex system, which allows for learning patterns at both local level and global level.



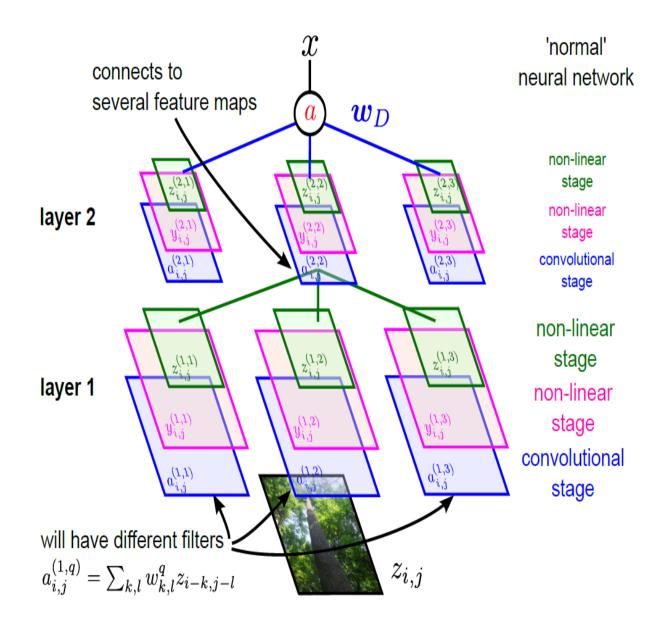
Y. LeCun, L. Bottou, Y. Bengio and P. Haffner: Gradient-Based Learning Applied to Document Recognition, Proceedings of the IEEE, 86(11):2278-2324, November 1998

- CNN: a multi-layer neural network:
 - With Local connectivity:
 - Neurons in a layer are only connected to a small region of the layer before it
 - **Sharing** weight parameters across spatial positions:
 - Learning shift-invariant filter kernels
 - Reducing the number of parameters





CNN Architecture



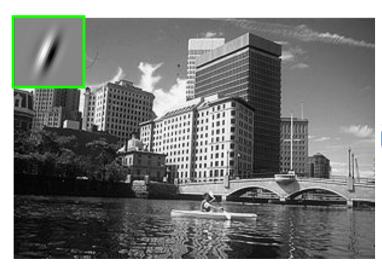
Input Image Convolution (Learned)

Nonlinearity Spatial pooling

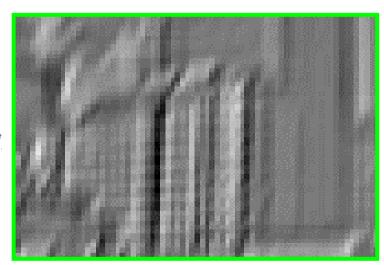
Normalize

Feature maps

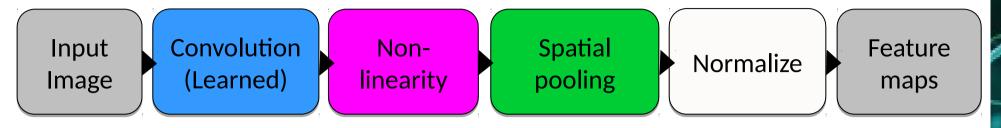




Input



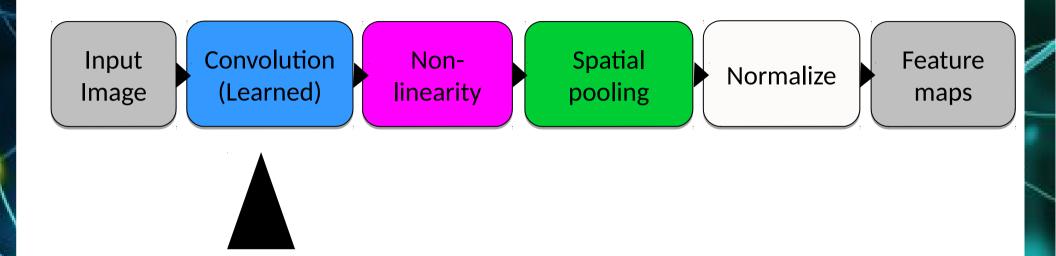
Feature Activation Map



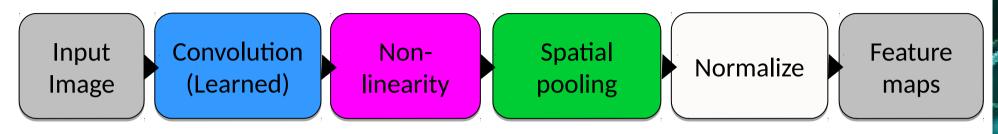


$$a_{i,j} = \sum_{k,l} w_{k,l} z_{i-k,j-l}$$
 Shared weights

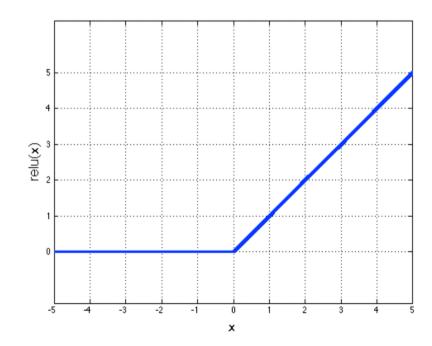
Each image sub-region yields a feature map, representing its feature.



Convolutional filters are learned in a supervised manner by back-propagating classification error

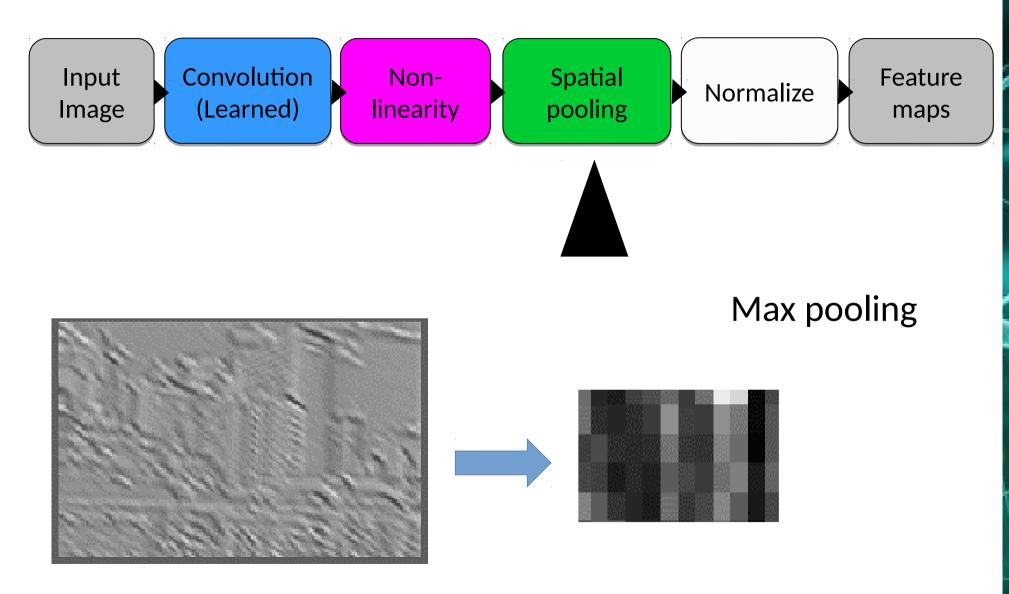




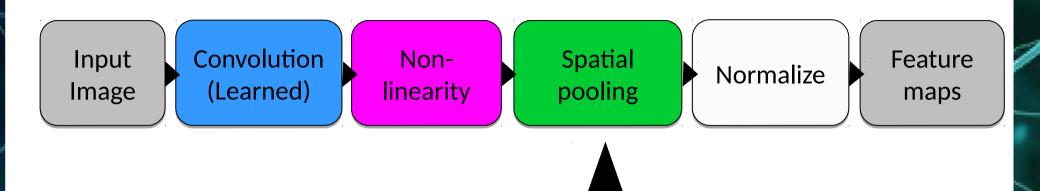


$$y_{i,j} = f(a_{i,j})$$

Non-linearity: e.g. Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

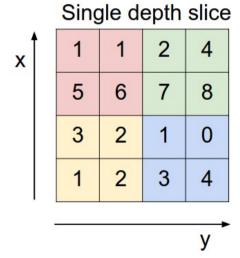


A non-linear down-sampling, to provide translation invariance



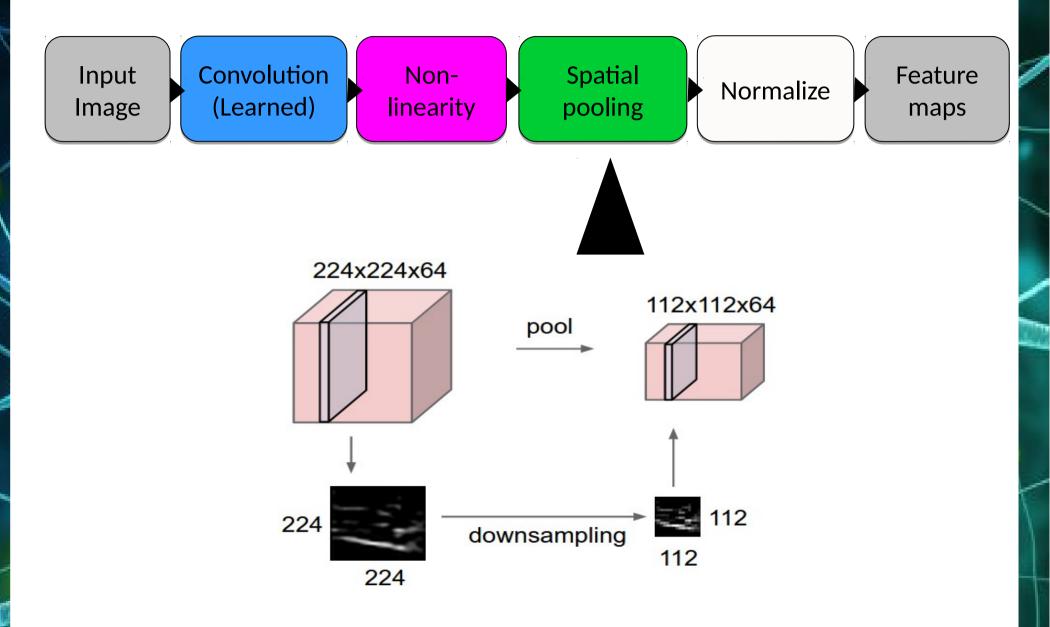
$$x_{i,j} = \max_{|k| < \tau, |l| < \tau} y_{i-k,j-l}$$

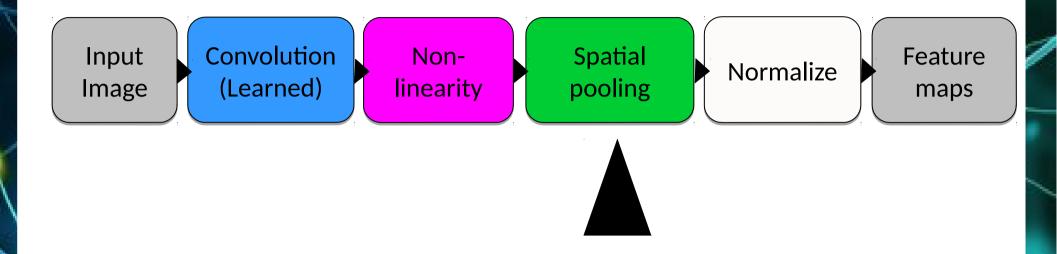
mean or subsample also used



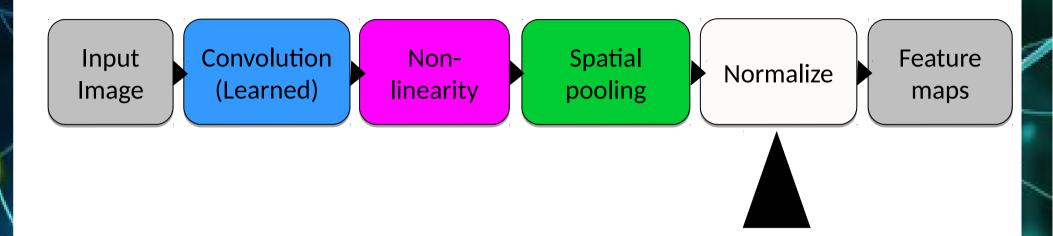
max pool with 2x2 filters and stride 2

6	8
3	4





• By progressively reducing the spatial size of the representation we reduce the amount of parameters and computation in the network, and also control overfitting.



Deep Learning Models

Recurrent Neural Networks:

connections between units form a directed cycle. This creates an internal state of the network which allows it to exhibit dynamic temporal behavior.

Hochreiter, S, Schmidhuber (1997) Long Short-Term Memory, Neural Computation, 9(8):1735–1780, 1997

RNNs for sequences

Standard Neural Networks (and also CNN):

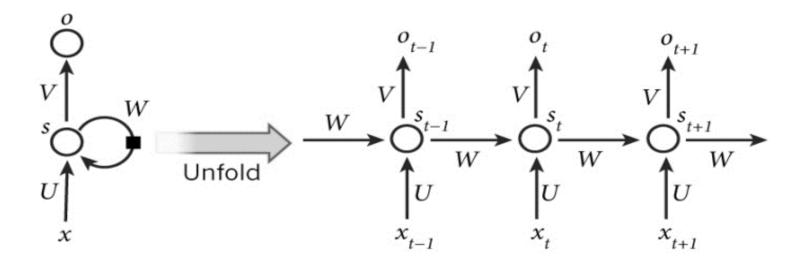
- Only accepted a fixed-size vector/matrix as input (e.g., an image) and produce a fixed-size vector as output (e.g., probabilities of different classes).
- These models use a fixed amount of computational steps (e.g. the number of layers in the model).

Recurrent Neural Networks are unique as they allow us to operate over sequences of vectors.

Sequences in the input, the output, or in the most general case both.

Recurrent Neural Networks

 An unrolled RNN (in time) can be considered as a deep neural network with indefinitely many layers:



Recurrent Neural Networks

$$s_{t} = f(Ux_{t} + Ws_{t-1})$$

$$y = g(Vs_{t})$$

$$v \downarrow_{s}$$

 X_t : input at time

 S_t : hidden state at time (memory of the network).

f: is an activation function (e.g., sigmoid, ReLU).

U, V, W: network parameters (unlike a feedforward neural network, an RNN shares the same parameters across all time steps).

g: activation function for the output layer (typically a softmax function).

y: the output of the network at time

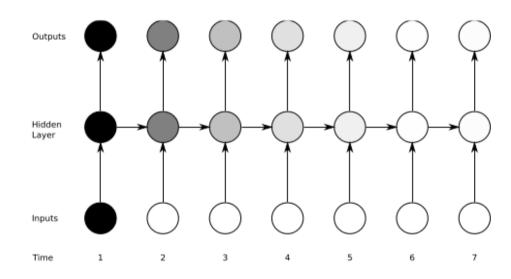
Back Propagation Through Time

- The backpropagation algorithm can be extended to BPTT by unfolding RNN in time and stacking identical copies of the RNN.
- As the parameters that are supposed to be learned (*U*, *V* and *W*) are *shared* by all time steps in the network, the gradient at each output depends, not only on the calculations of the current time step, but also the previous time steps.
- A common choice for the loss function is the cross-entropy loss.

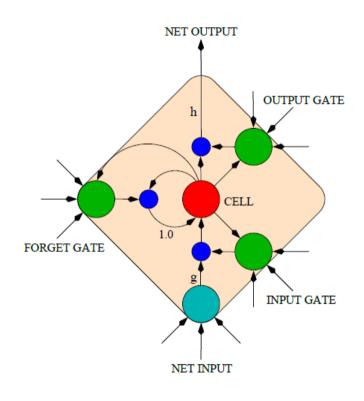
Vanishing gradient

- Definition: The influence of a given input on the hidden layer, and therefore on the network output, either decays or grows exponentially as it propagates through an RNN.
- In practice, the range of contextual information that standard RNNs can access are limited to approximately 10 time steps between the relevant input and target events.

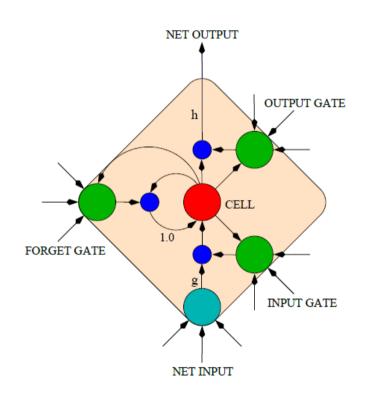
Solution: LSTM networks.



- An LSTM is a special kind of RNN architecture, capable of learning long-term dependencies.
- An LSTM can learn to bridge time intervals in excess of 1000 steps.
- This is achieved by multiplicative gate units that learn to open and close access to the constant error flow.

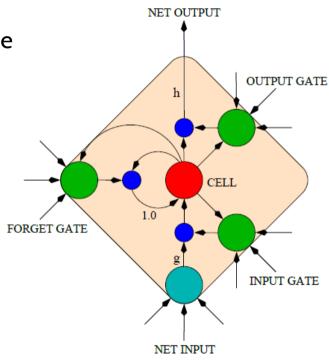


- LSTM networks introduce a new structure called a *memory cell*.
- Each memory cell contains four main elements:
 - Input gate
 - Forget gate
 - Output gate
 - Neuron with a self-recurrent
- These gates allow the cells to keep and access information over long periods of time.



LSTM Memory Cell

- *i*: input gate, how much of the new information will be let through the memory cell.
- **f**: forget gate, responsible for information should be thrown away from memory cell.
- o : output gate, how much of the information will be passed to expose to the next time step.
- g: self-recurrent which is equal to standard RNN
- c_t : internal memory of the memory cell
- s_t : hidden state
- y: final output



- i: input gate, how much of the new information will be let through the memory cell.
- f: forget gate, responsible for information should be thrown away from memory cell.
- o : output gate, how much of the information will be passed to expose to the next time step.
- g: self-recurrent which is equal to standard RNN
- c_{t} : internal memory of the memory cell
- s,: hidden state
- y: final output

•
$$i = \sigma(x_t U^i + s_{t-1} W^i)$$

•
$$f = \sigma(x_t U^f + s_{t-1} W^f)$$

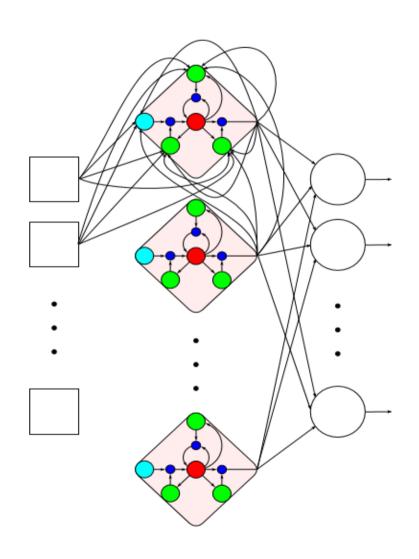
•
$$o = \sigma(x_t U^o + s_{t-1} W^o)$$

•
$$g = \tanh(x_t U^g + s_{t-1} W^g)$$

•
$$c_t = c_{t-1} \circ f + g \circ i$$

•
$$s_t = \tanh(c_t) \circ o$$

•
$$y = softmax(Vs_t)$$





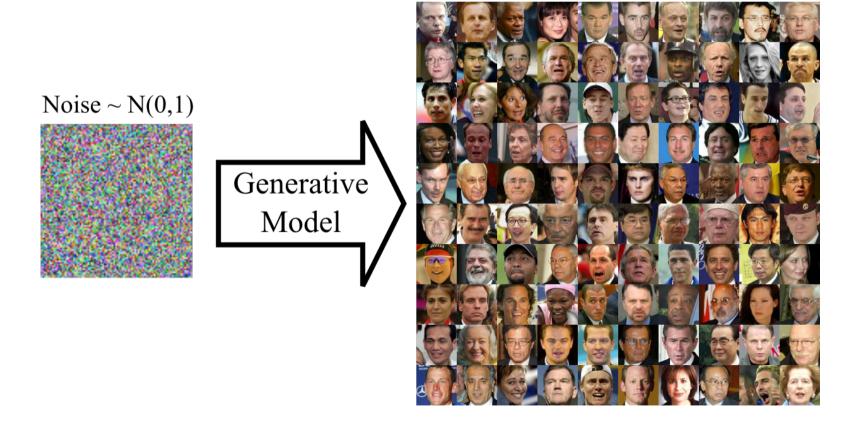
The future of Deep Learning

New models



Deep Generative Models

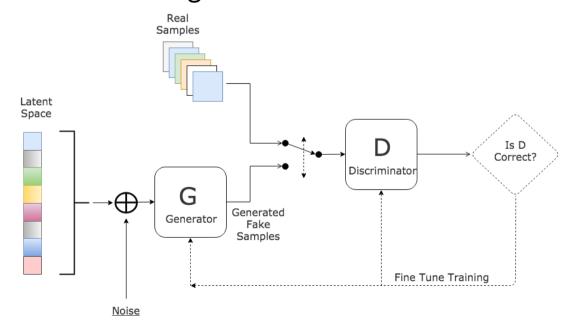
• Lots of research on generative models to create probabilistic models of training data with ability to generate new images, sentences, etc.



Deep Generative Models

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)

- Generator net produces samples x close to training samples
- Discriminator net (adversary) must differentiate between samples from the generative net and the training set
- Use error feedback to improve task of both nets, until discriminator can no longer distinguish, then can discard discriminator net – increasingly difficult for humans to distinguish



Why it works?

The Unreasonable Effectiveness of Learning Deep Features



1st layer filters

image patches that strongly activate 1st layer filters

[Zeiler-Fergus]

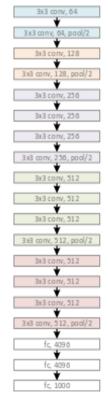
Scale: larger and larger nets...

ResNet, 152 layers (ILSVRC 2015)

AlexNet, 8 layers (ILSVRC 2012



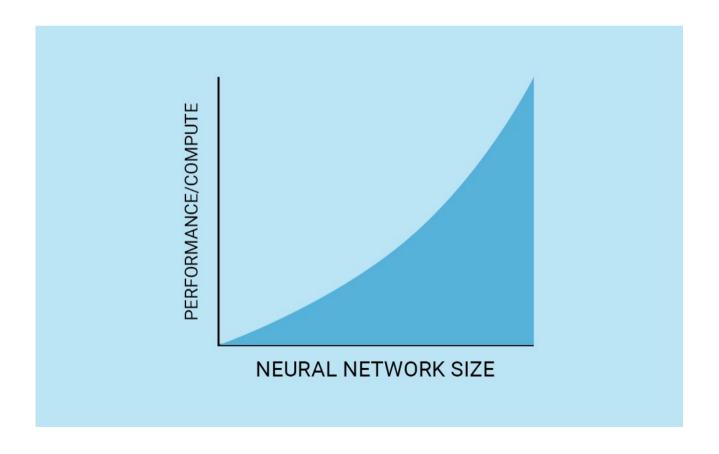
VGG, 19 layers (ILSVRC 2014)



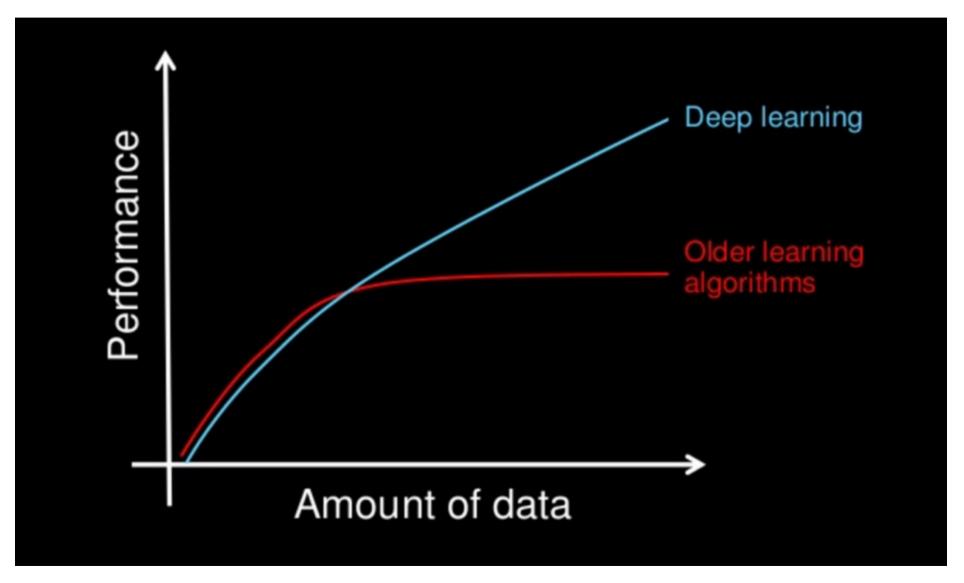
GoogleNet, 22 layers (ILSVRC 2014)



Scale: how to stop this???



Deep Learning & Data

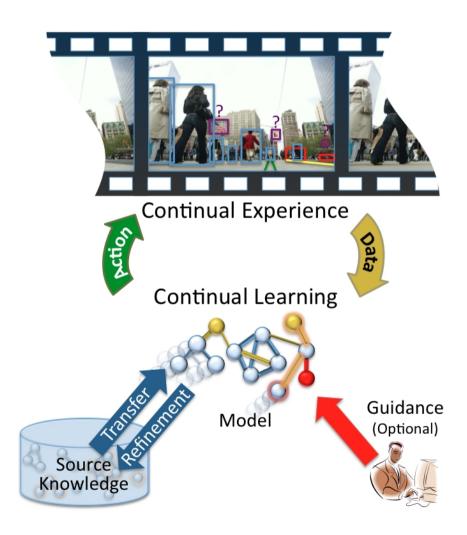


https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/how-artificial-intelligence-revolutionizing-finance-del-toro-barba

Unsupervised Learning



Life-long Learning



[Eaton]

Summary

- Impressive results
- Works well in structured/Markovian spaces CNNs, etc.
- Much recent excitement, still much to be discovered
- More work needed to understand how and why deep learning works so well – How deep should we go?
- Potential for significant improvements