

# Convolutional neural networks

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# Contents

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Application of fully connected NNs to image classification
- 3 From fully-connected layers to convolutional layers
- 4 Building convolutional networks
- 5 Some classical architectures
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# A picture is worth a thousand words

## Definition

- Classically, an image is a matrix of values belonging to  $[0, \dots, 255]$  (grey level images) or to  $[0, \dots, 255]^3$  (color images).
- More generally, an image is a  $q$ -dimensional array of values belonging to  $R^d$ .

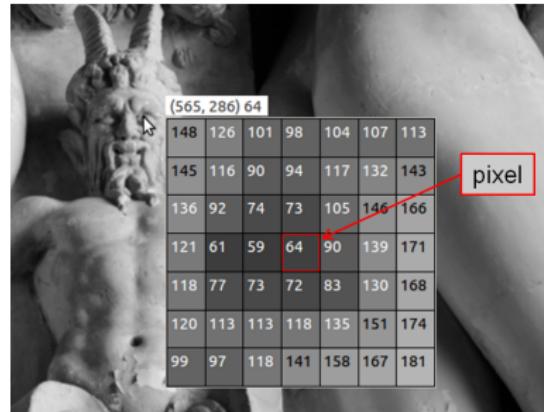


Grey level values around the left eye of the faun

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## Examples

- Grey level 2D images: infrared, microscopy, topography
- Colour images: camera photos
- Grey level 3D images: computed tomography scan
- Colour image sequences: video, motion pictures
- $d > 3$ : multi-spectral imaging

# What is special about images?



- Local structure
- Spatial redundancy
- Scale redundancy  
[Glasner et al., 2009]

# Extracting semantic information from an image



- Where is the phone?  
(localization task)
- How many mugs are there?  
(quantification task)
- Is there a window in the room?
- At what time of the day was the photograph taken?

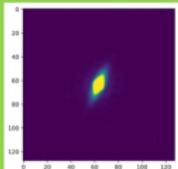
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Designing computer vision systems that are able to extract semantic information from an image is a difficult task.

# Image analysis applications

image → valeur	image → image (segmentation)
 → oiseau	 → Base COCO
 → 50,2	 → Dong et al., ECCV 2014



# Image analysis applications

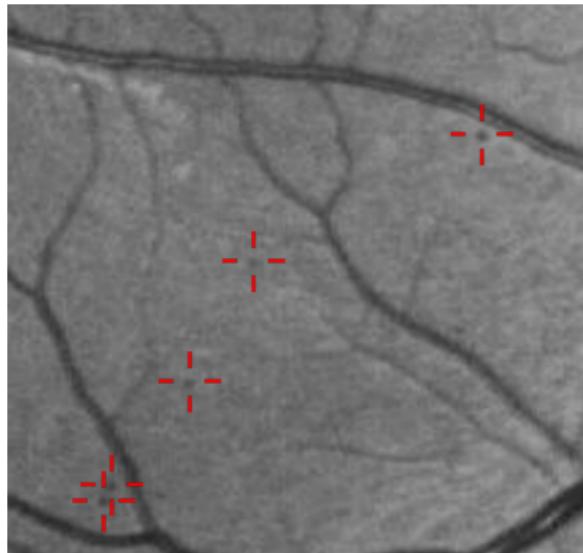
- classification
- quantification
- object localization
- segmentation
- transformation (filtering, in-painting, editing, colorization...)
- image caption generation
- 2D to 3D (stereo matching, 3D reconstruction, ...)
- motion estimation
- style transfer
- compression
- anomalous image detection
- image generation
- etc.

## Classical image processing approach

- Build a geometrical model for the objects of interest
- Implement this model using image processing operators

# Classical image processing approach

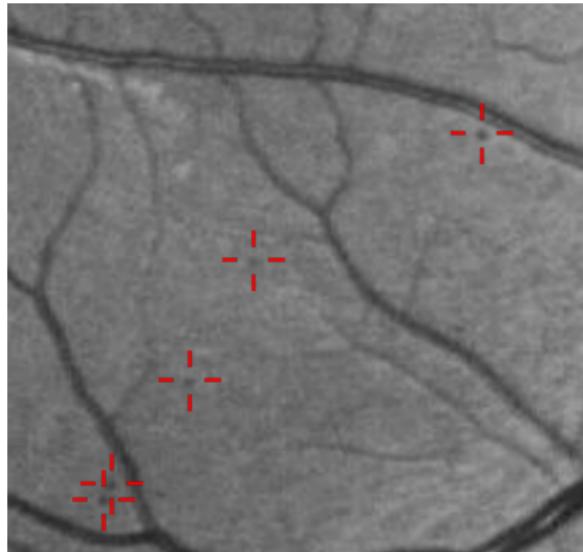
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Detail of eye fundus image with microaneurysms to be detected

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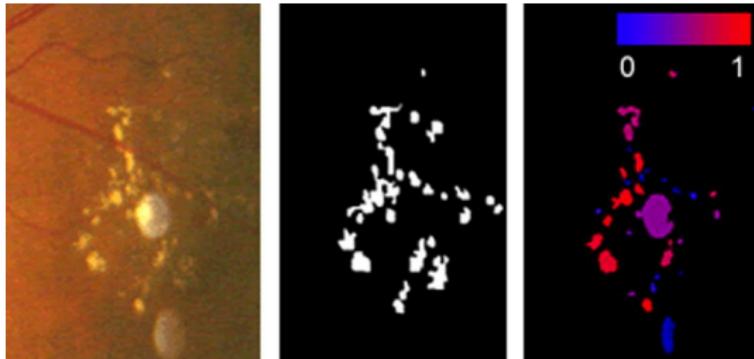
- ⊕ This approach works when the objects are not too complex.
- ⊖ If objects are difficult to model, machine learning methods can bring a solution.

## Classical machine learning approach

- Compute features from the image
- Apply machine learning to those features

# Classical machine learning approach

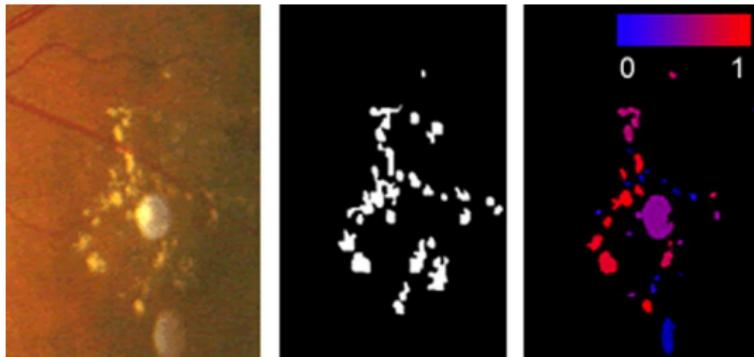
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Exudates segmentation: original image, ground-truth and candidates with associated probabilities obtained with machine learning

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Exudates segmentation: original image, ground-truth and candidates with associated probabilities obtained with machine learning

- ⊕ Works well with the right features
- ⊖ An expert is required to define those features - and this can be a long process
- ⊖ Annotated data is required

## Deep learning approach

- Directly take as input the image pixels
  - The network is supposed to build its own features
- 
- ⊕ Good (impressive!) results
  - ⊖ A large amount of annotated data is required
  - ⊖ Extensive computing resources needed

# The role of annotated image databases

Image databases including *annotations* (typically some kind of high level information) are essential to the development of *supervised* machine learning methods for image analysis.

## Annotations

- Image class
- Measure(s) obtained from the image
- Position of objects within the image
- Segmentation

## MNIST database [Lecun et al., 1998]

- The Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology (MNIST) database contains 60 000 training images of hand-written digits, and 10, 000 test images.
- Image size:  $28 \times 28$
- It has been used since 1998
- Human performance on a similar database (NIST) is reported to be around 1.5% error [Simard et al., 1993]
- Best methods, based on convolutional neural networks, give around 0.21% test error.

# MNIST database



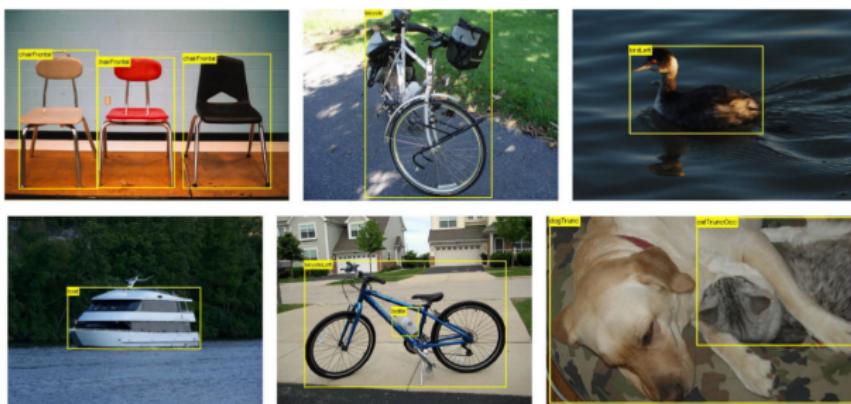
Credits: Images from MNIST assembled  
by Josef Stepan (licensed under CC  
BY-SA 4.0)

# Pascal VOC project [Everingham et al., 2010, Everingham et al., 2014]

This project organized a challenge from 2005 to 2012, divided into several tasks, including an image classification task.

## Pascal VOC image classification task (2012)

Train/val: 11 540 images where the presence of 20 categories of objects was annotated. The test dataset is unknown and tests are run online (still available).



Credits: From [Everingham et al., 2014]

# ImageNet project [Russakovsky et al., 2015]

Between 2010 and 2017 ImageNet organized an annual challenge: The ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC). It represented a breakthrough in the design of image analysis challenges by its size.

## Image classification task (since 2012)

- Training: 1 281 167; validation: 50 000; test: 100 000.
- 1 000 classes (90 dog breeds!).

# ImageNet projet



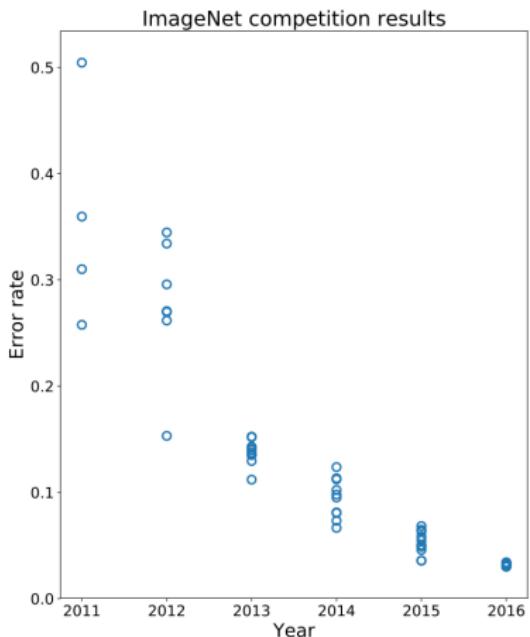
Examples from the *acoustic guitar* class

# Deep learning achievements

## ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC)

2012: *AlexNet*

[Krizhevsky et al., 2012] won this challenge by a large margin



## Deep learning achievements (cont.)

- 2011: first super-human performance, IJCNN 2011 traffic sign recognition contest [Cireşan et al., 2011]



- 2012: visual object detection (Mitosis detection in breast cancer histology [Cireşan et al., 2013])
- 2012: segmentation competition (neuronal membranes in electron microscopy images [Ciresan et al., 2012])

## Deep learning achievements (cont.)

- 2016: AlphaGo beats Lee Sedol, one of the best go players, in a 5-game match



# Convolutional neural networks in deep learning

- They are pivotal to many of the successes achieved by neural networks these recent years
- They are interesting for dealing with regular structured data, such as images (or board games!)

## Acronyms

*CNN* and *ConvNet*

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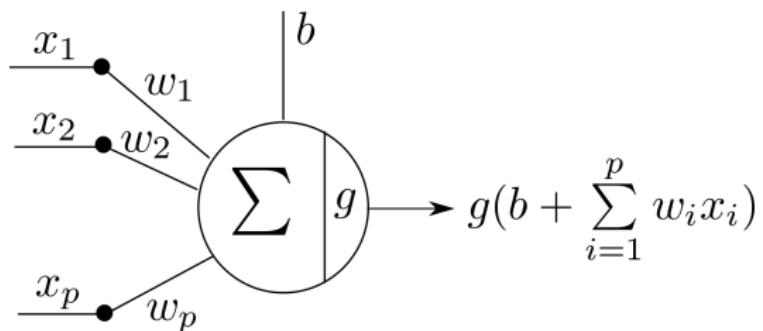
*CNN* and *ConvNet*

Our first task: image classification!

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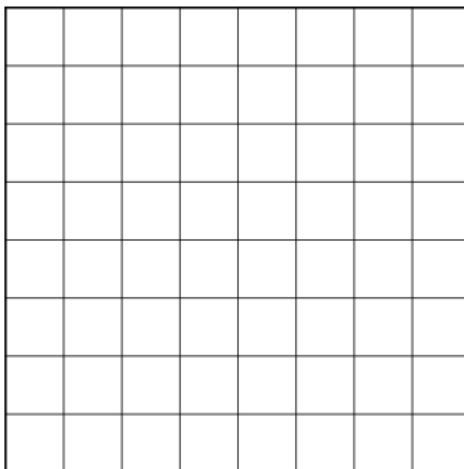
## Reminder: Artificial neuron



- $b, w_1, \dots, w_n$  are the neuron parameters, to be learnt
- $g$  is the activation or transfer function

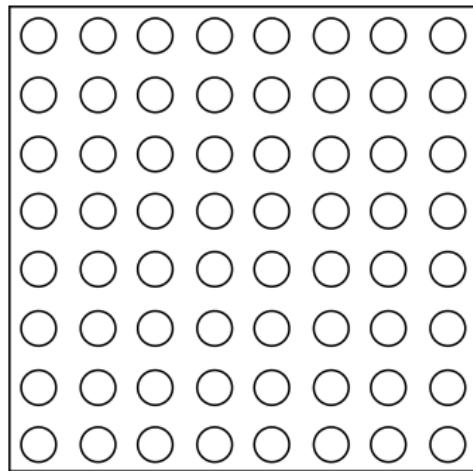
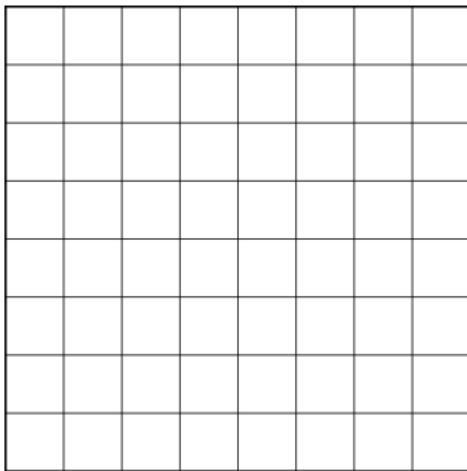
## Input image, input neurons

In the scalar case (single-valued images), each input pixel is considered as an input neuron.



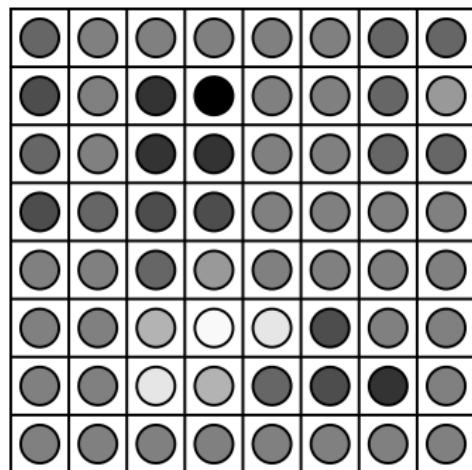
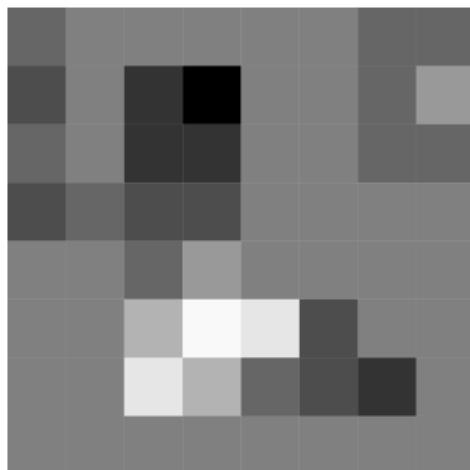
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## Image classification problem

Classification problem:

- Input: image
- Output: class  $y$  chosen from a set of labels:  
 $\{label_1, label_2, \dots, label_q\}$

## Class coding

If there are  $q$  possible classes, then a class will be coded as a vector  $\mathbf{y}$  of length  $q$ . If its class is  $r$  then for  $0 \leq i < q$ :

$$\mathbf{y}[i] = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = r \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

### Example with 4 classes

- Label 0  $\mapsto [1, 0, 0, 0]$
- Label 1  $\mapsto [0, 1, 0, 0]$
- Label 2  $\mapsto [0, 0, 1, 0]$
- Label 3  $\mapsto [0, 0, 0, 1]$

This is called **one-hot encoding**. The resulting vector is a one-hot vector.

## Why is one-hot encoding used, instead of integers?

- Label 0  $\mapsto$  [1, 0, 0, 0]
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- Using integers to represent the labels would bring an **inductive bias** into the model: there will be an explicit order between the labels.
- Using one-hot encoding, we make the labels permutation invariant

## Activations

Different activations (typically ReLU) can be used in the intermediate layers.

Concerning the last layer: Given that the aim is a vector containing zeros except for a one, two designs are commonly used:

- Use a sigmoid as last activation
- Last layer: a softmax operator

# Softmax operator

## Definition

The softmax operator  $\sigma : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is given by:

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \forall k \in \{1, \dots, d\} : \quad \sigma(\mathbf{x})_k = \frac{e^{\mathbf{x}_k}}{\sum_{i=1}^d e^{\mathbf{x}_i}}$$

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## Some properties

- $0 < \sigma(\mathbf{x})_k < 1$
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## Example

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 10.1 \\ 0 \\ -4.3 \\ 1.33 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma(\mathbf{x}) \approx \begin{pmatrix} 0.9998 \\ 0.000041 \\ 0.00000056 \\ 0.00016 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Loss function for classification: cross-entropy

The preferred loss function for classification is cross-entropy:

For  $\mathbf{y}$  in  $\{0, 1\}^d$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  in  $]0, 1[^d$ :

$$H(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = - \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbf{y}_i \log(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i)$$

Reminder – hat notation:  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is used for a prediction that is supposed to be close to  $\mathbf{y}$ .

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Remarks:

- Here  $\mathbf{y}$  is a one-hot vector:  $\mathbf{y}_i = 1$  for  $i = r$  and  $\mathbf{y}_i = 0$  otherwise. Therefore the cross-entropy will “push”  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_r$  towards 1. Why will the other elements of  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  be pushed towards 0?

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Because  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is typically computed by a softmax.

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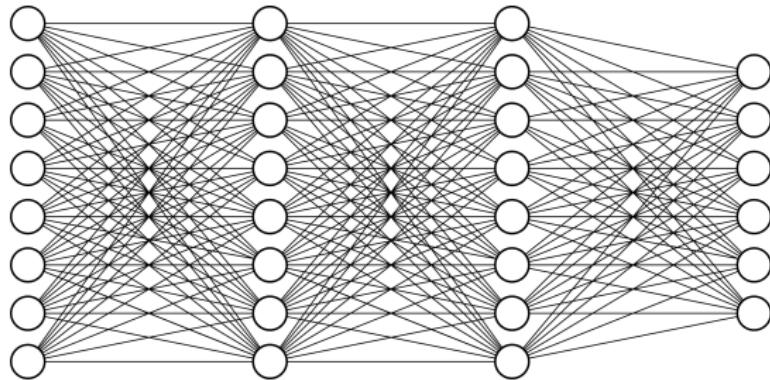
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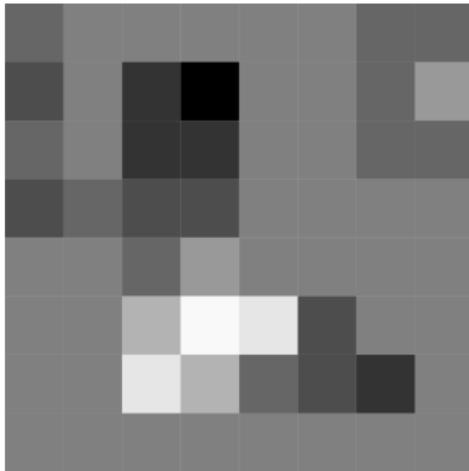
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- The binary cross-entropy we previously saw is a particular case of cross-entropy.

How are we going to apply our NN to an image?





What approach would you suggest to apply our fully connected NN to an image?

- 1/ Integrate along the horizontal or vertical axis, in order to get rid of a dimension
- 2/ Apply the network to each row or column separately
- 3/ Transform the image into a vector, by rearranging the pixels

# Image classification with a fully-connected NN

## Input

The input image, containing  $p$  pixels, is transformed into a vector of length  $p$ .

## Output

For  $q$  classes, the output will be a vector of length  $q$ .

# Image classification with a fully-connected NN

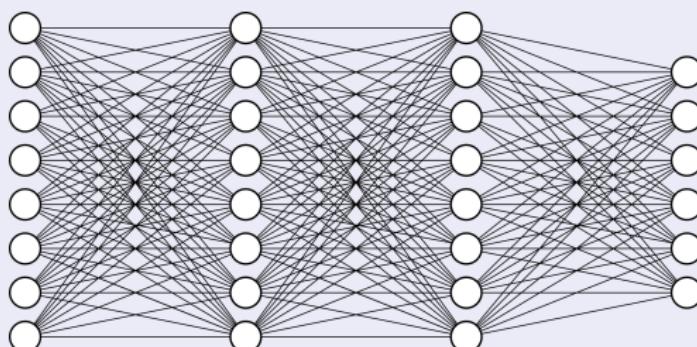
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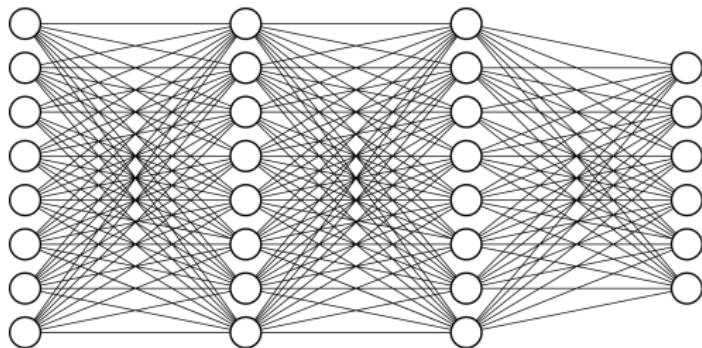
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Example: image of size  $4 \times 2$ , 6 possible classes

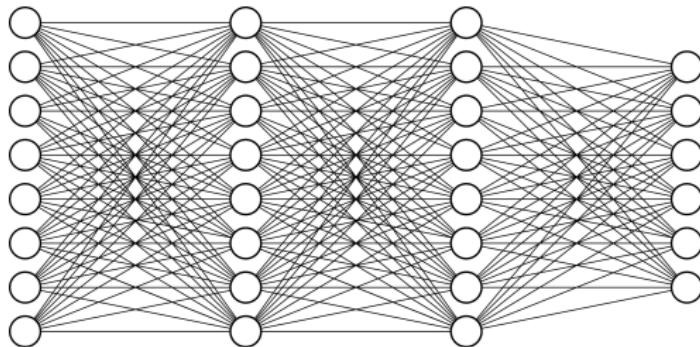


## Image classification using a fully-connected NN



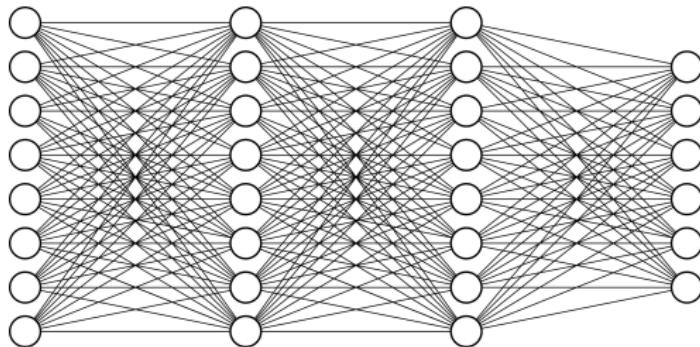
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## Image classification using a fully-connected NN



- A small image easily contains 100 000 pixels
- The number of parameters between two layers of that size is  $10^5 \times (10^5 + 1)!$

## Image classification using a fully-connected NN



- A small image easily contains 100 000 pixels
- The number of parameters between two layers of that size is  $10^5 \times (10^5 + 1)!$
- This approach is only possible for very small images

# Conclusion on fully-connected networks for image classification

Fully-connected layers scale badly to large size images.

Today:

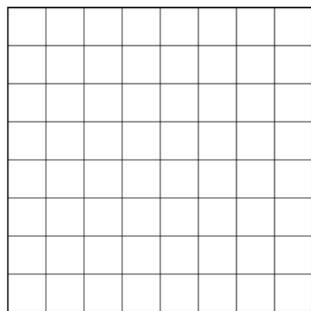
- NN solely composed of fully-connected layers are almost never used for image analysis (however, **transformers** [Dosovitskiy et al., 2021] have brought new ways to use fully-connected layers).
- Fully-connected layers are mainly used in the middle (auto-encoders) or at the end (classification) of the pipeline.

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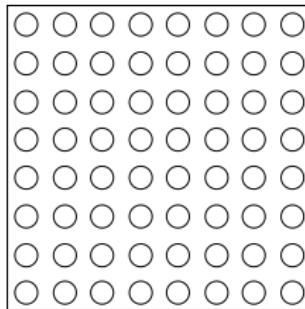
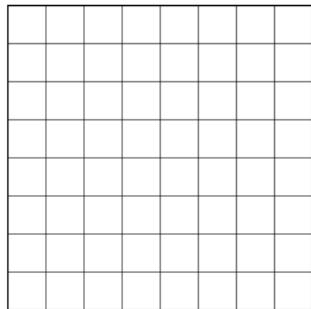
## Layers representation

- For illustration purposes, in the following slides images and layers will be displayed as rows of neurons – as sections of 2D arrays.
- Only some connections between neurons are represented. Each such connection is associated to a weight. The biases are not represented, to avoid clutter.



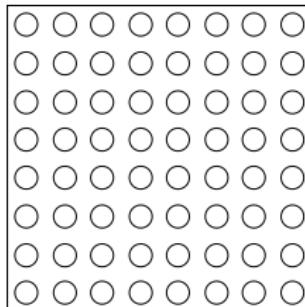
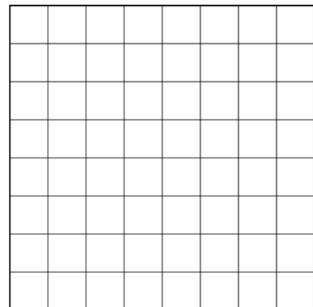
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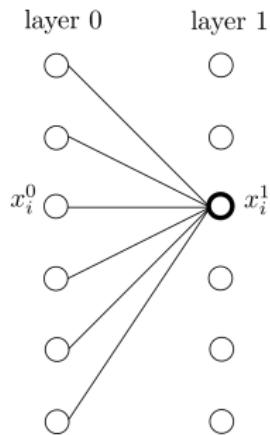


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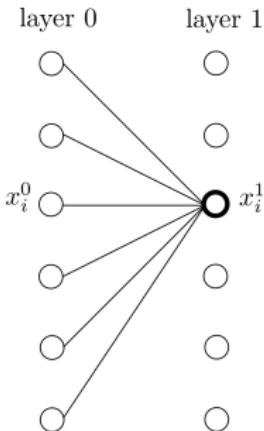


# Towards convolutional layers

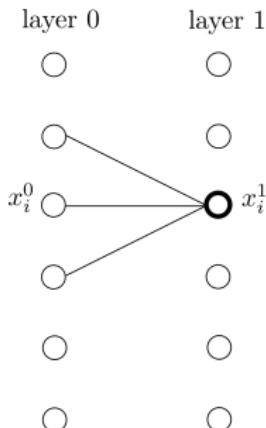


Fully connected layer:  
 $n \times n$  weights and  $n$  bias:  
 $n(n + 1)$  parameters

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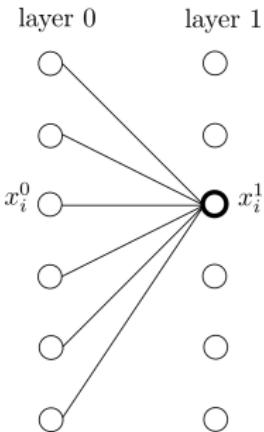


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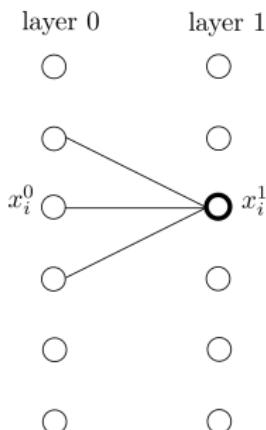


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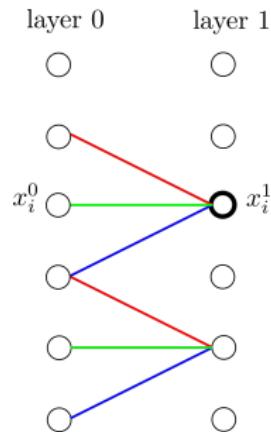
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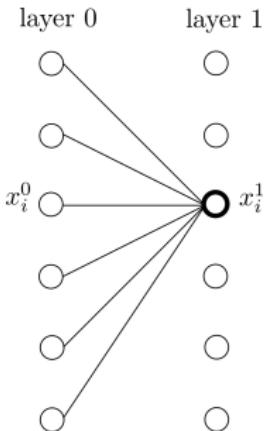


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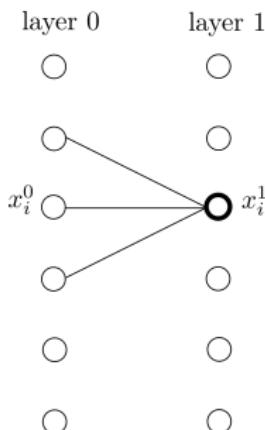


Weight replication:  $s + 1$  parameters.  
Convolutional layer.

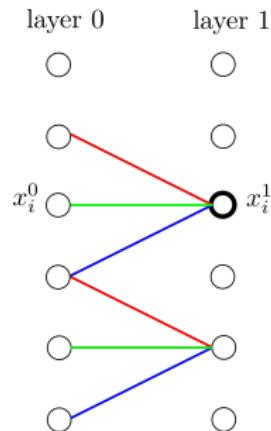
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 $n \times n$  weights and  $n$  bias:  
 $n(n + 1)$  parameters



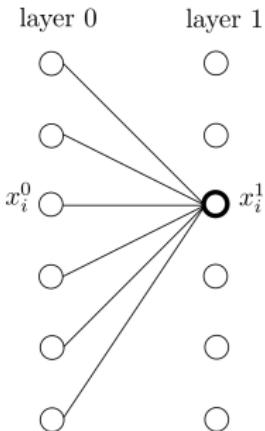
Locally conn. layer:  
 $n(s + 1)$  parameters



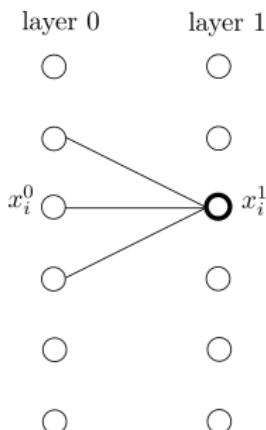
Weight replication:  $s + 1$  parameters.  
Convolutional layer.

Here,  $s$  corresponds to the size of the receptive field of a neuron. It is therefore equal to:

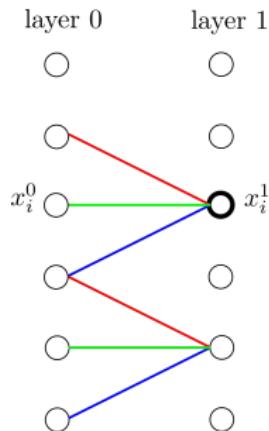
# Towards convolutional layers



Fully connected layer:  
 $n \times n$  weights and  $n$  bias:  
 $n(n + 1)$  parameters



Locally conn. layer:  
 $n(s + 1)$  parameters



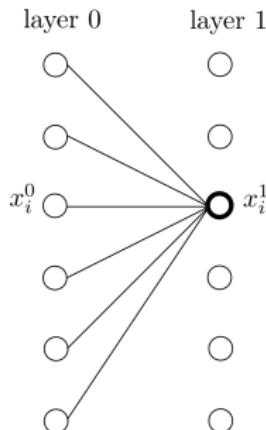
Weight replication:  $s + 1$  parameters.  
Convolutional layer.

Here,  $s$  corresponds to the size of the receptive field of a neuron. It is therefore equal to:

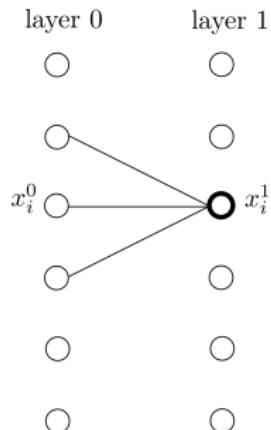
- 1/ 3
- 2/ 4
- 3/ 9
- 4/ 10

# Convolutional layers: some figures

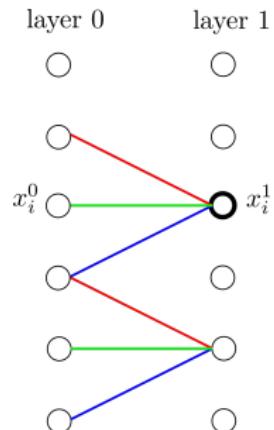
- $3 \times 3$  convolutions:  $s = 9$
- Toy image:  $n = 28 \times 28 = 784$
- Typical image:  $n = 1000 \times 1000 = 10^6$



Fully connected layer:  
 $n(n + 1)$  parameters  
 $\approx 6 \cdot 10^5$   
 $\approx 10^{12}$



Locally conn. layer:  
 $n(s + 1)$  parameters  
7840  
 $10^7$



Weight replication:  $s + 1$  parameters.  
10  
10

## Convolutional layers are fully connected layers

Convolutional layers are fully connected layers such that:

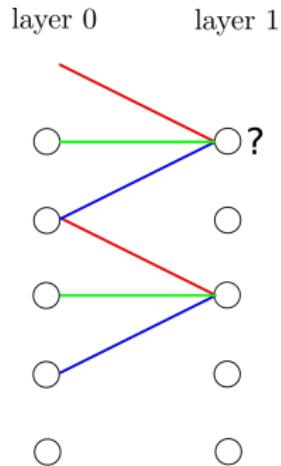
- the weights of all non-local connections are set to zero
- the weights are shared among all the neurons of the same channel

These limitations correspond to two inductive biases:

- local structure and
- translation invariance

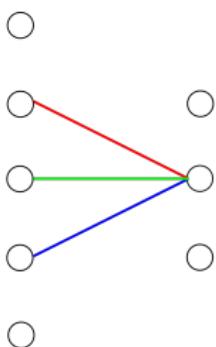
They make the network much more manageable (memory, optimization). Is the loss in generality important?

## Dealing with borders



## First solution: keep only well defined outputs

layer 0              layer 1



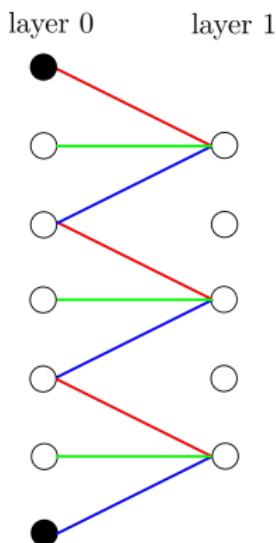
- Pros:

- border effect disappears

- Cons:

- Lack of flexibility
- With deep networks, the field can become very small, or disappear

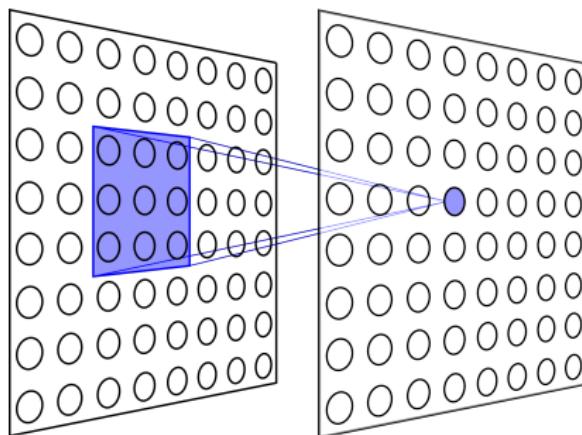
## Second solution: zero padding



- Pros:
  - More flexible architecture
- Cons:
  - Border effect still present

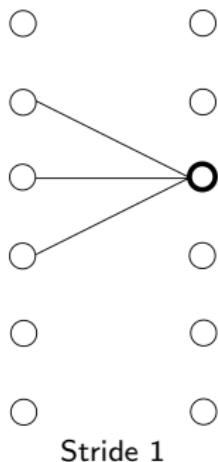
## Convolutional layer illustration in 2D

- Illustration of a convolution of size  $3 \times 3$



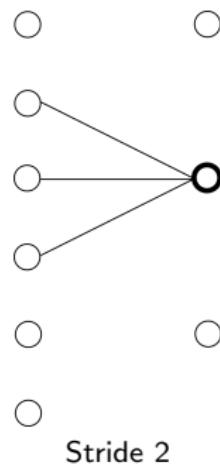
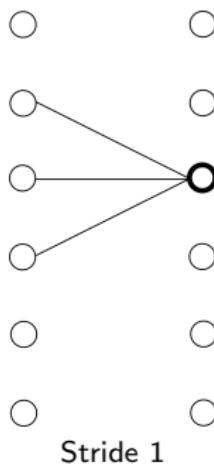
## Stride

A convolutional layer can at the same time downsample the image by applying a sampling step, or *stride*.



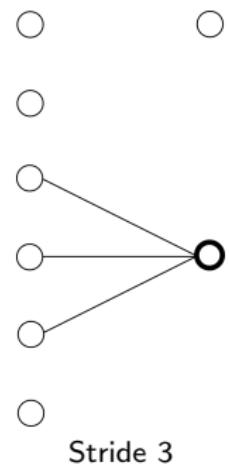
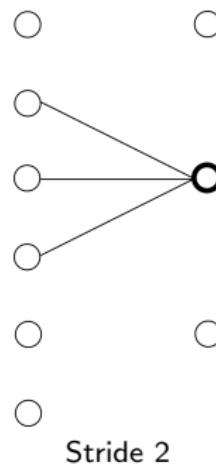
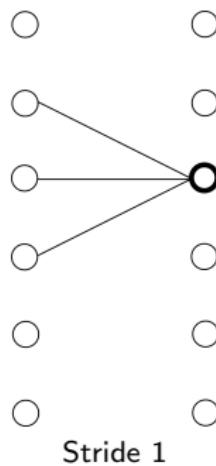
## Stride

A convolutional layer can at the same time downsample the image by applying a sampling step, or *stride*.



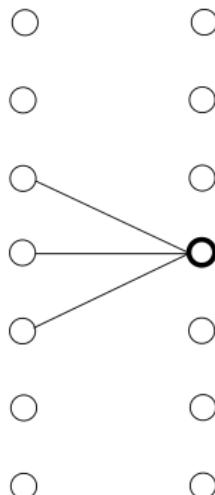
# Stride

A convolutional layer can at the same time downsample the image by applying a sampling step, or *stride*.



## Dilated convolutions

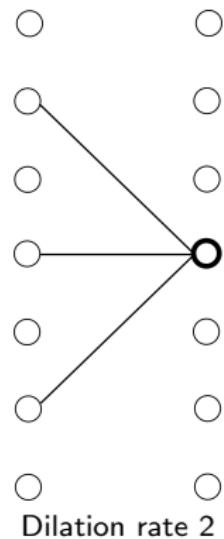
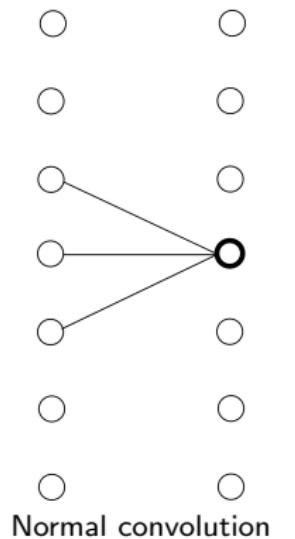
Dilated convolutions are used to increase the size of the receptive field of the network.



Normal convolution

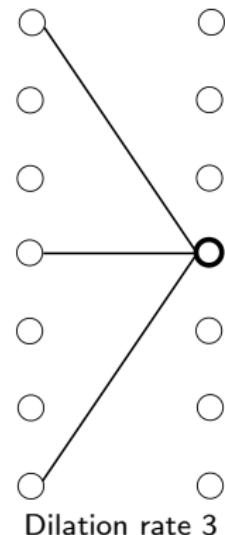
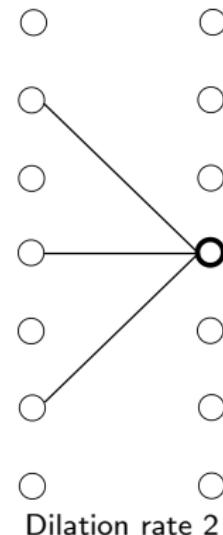
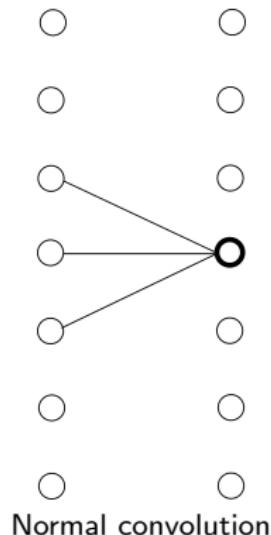
## Dilated convolutions

Dilated convolutions are used to increase the size of the receptive field of the network.

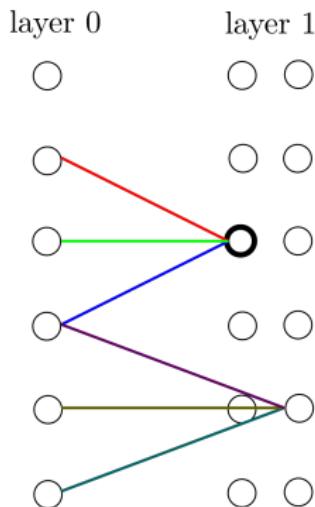


## Dilated convolutions

Dilated convolutions are used to increase the size of the receptive field of the network.



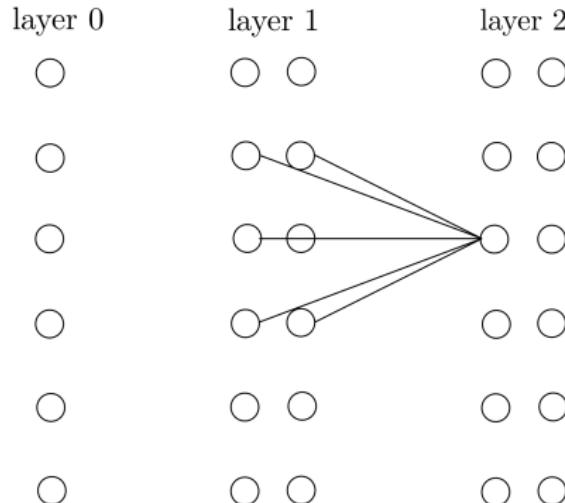
## Several filters in the same convolutional layer



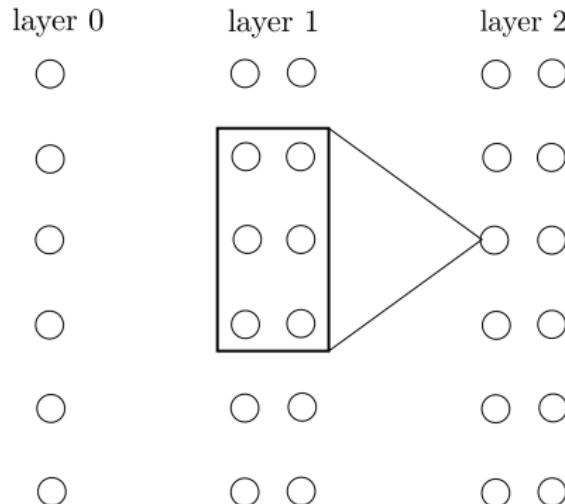
### Note on vocabulary

The filters are also called  
**channels** or **feature maps**.

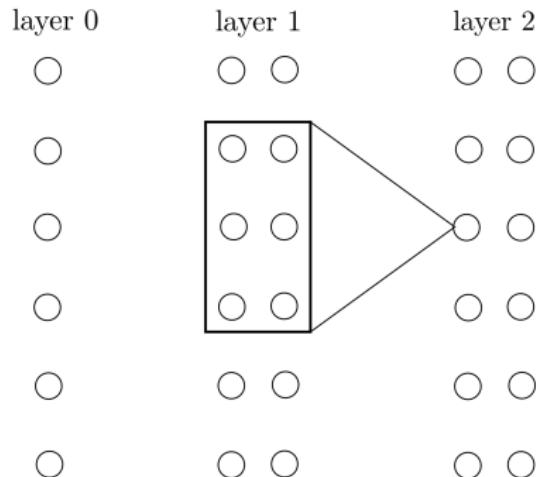
## Several filters in the same convolutional layer



## Several filters in the same convolutional layer



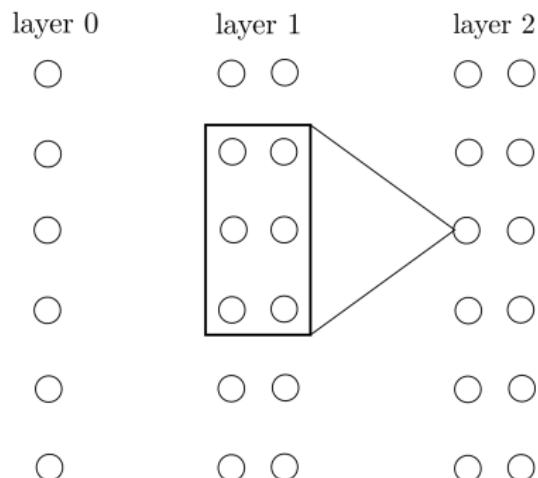
## Consequences on the parameter number



How many parameters do we have in layer 1?

- 1/  $c_1 \times (s + 1)$
- 2/  $c_1 \times s$
- 3/  $(c_1 + 1) \times s$

## Consequences on the parameter number

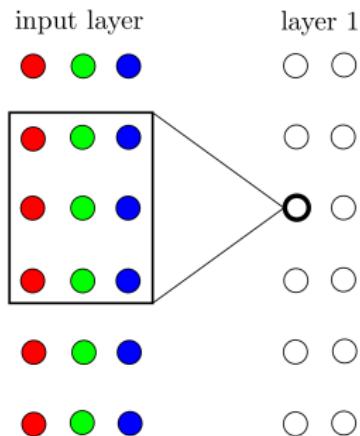


How many parameters do we have in layer 2?

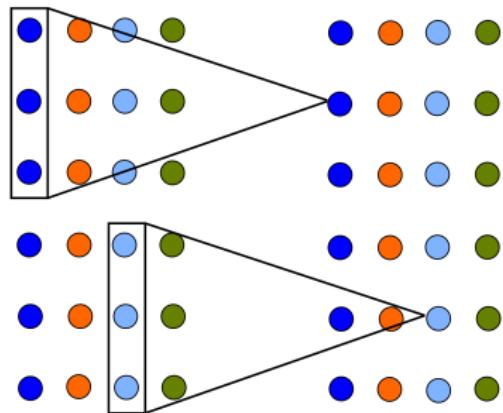
- 1/  $c_2 \times c_1 \times s$
- 2/  $c_2 \times (c_1 \times s + 1)$
- 3/  $(c_2 + 1) \times (c_1 \times s + 1)$

## Multi-valued images

An input image with  $p$  channels (for instance a colour image with 3 channels) can be represented by an input layer with  $p$  channels/filters.



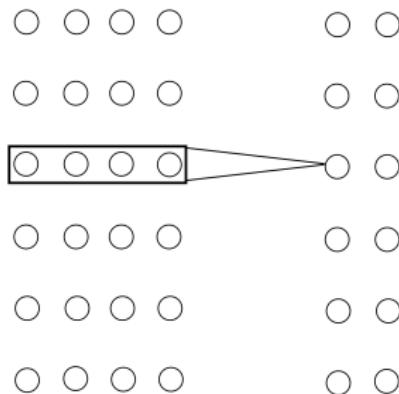
## Depth-wise convolution



- The previous layer must contain the same number of filters
- The number of parameters is drastically reduced
- These layers are interesting when combined with  $1 \times 1$  convolutions...

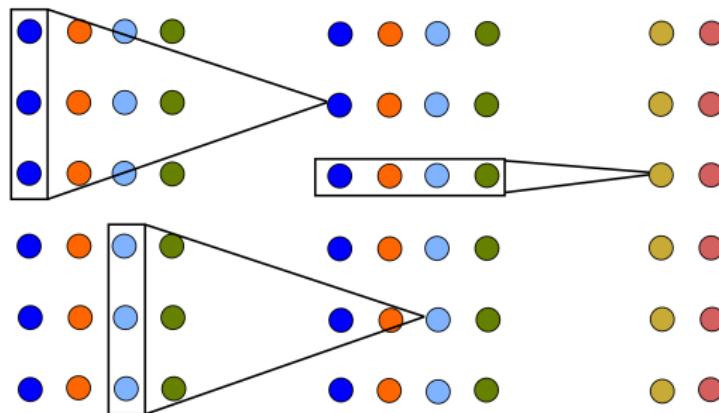
## Dimension reduction

$1 \times 1$  convolutions are used to reduce the number of filters - this is called by some authors *dimension reduction*.



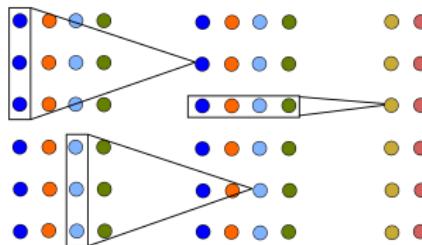
## Decomposed convolution

The combination of depth-wise with  $1 \times 1$  convolutions gives decomposed convolutions.



They are somehow a factorization of classical convolutions. Thus they allow reducing the number of parameters.

# Decomposed convolution - number of parameters



The input layer holds  $c_1$  channels, and the output layer  $c_2$ . The size of the receptive field is  $s$ .

How many parameters does the corresponding decomposed convolution layer contain?

- ①  $c_1 \times (s + 1) + c_2 \times (c_1 + 1)$
- ②  $c_1 \times s + c_2 \times c_1$
- ③  $(c_1 + 1) \times s + (c_2 + 1) \times c_1$

How many parameters would the corresponding convolutional layer contain?

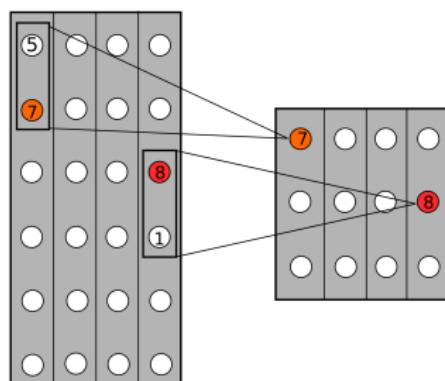
- ①  $c_1 \times s \times c_2$
- ②  $(c_1 \times s + 1) \times (c_2 + 1)$
- ③  $(c_1 \times s + 1) \times c_2$

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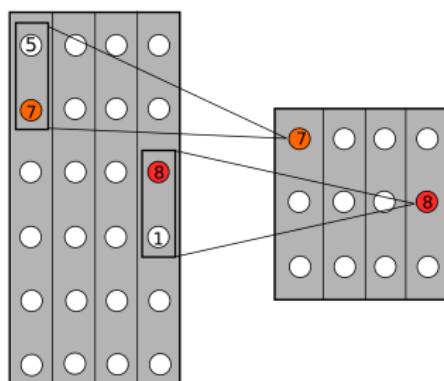
## Max pooling

- Convolutional networks often contain subsampling steps. A common way of doing this today is by using *max pooling* layers with stride 2.
- Sampling is only applied along the spatial dimensions, not along the dimension of the filters.



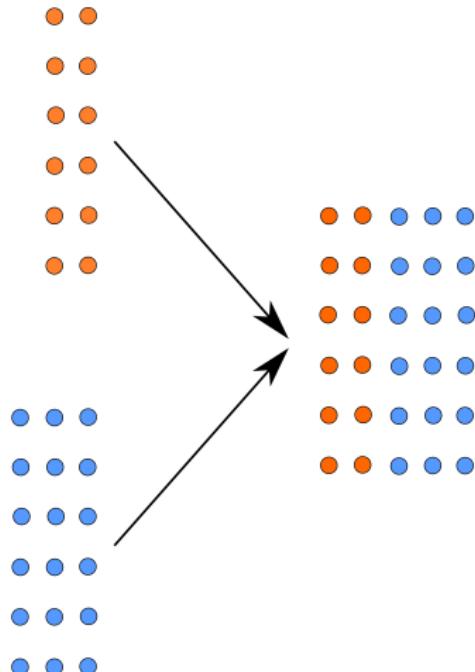
## Max pooling

- Convolutional networks often contain subsampling steps. A common way of doing this today is by using *max pooling* layers with stride 2.
- Sampling is only applied along the spatial dimensions, not along the dimension of the filters.

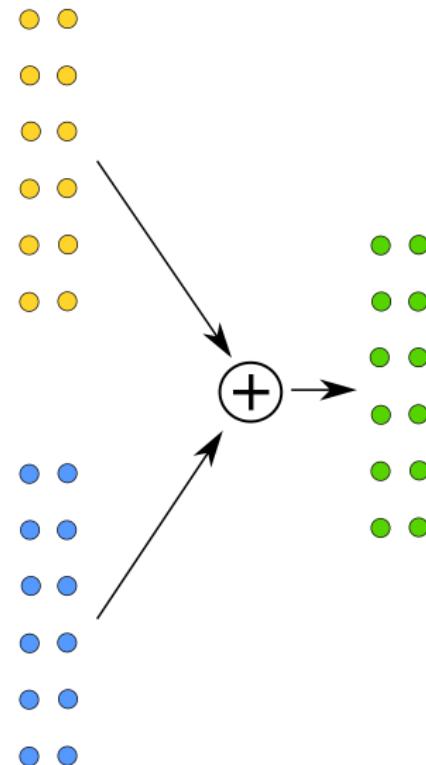


Note however a current trend that consists in using convolutional layers with a stride of 2

## Branch merging: concatenation



## Branch merging: addition



## Flatten

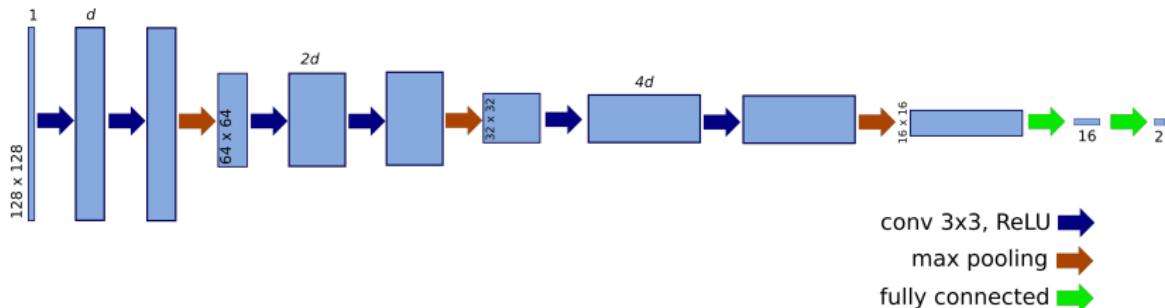
- Transforms an array into a vector
- Loss of local structure
- This is typically done to transition between a convolutional layer and a fully-connected one.

## Main components of a convolutional neural network

Many successful architectures, especially for image classification, follow the same pattern:

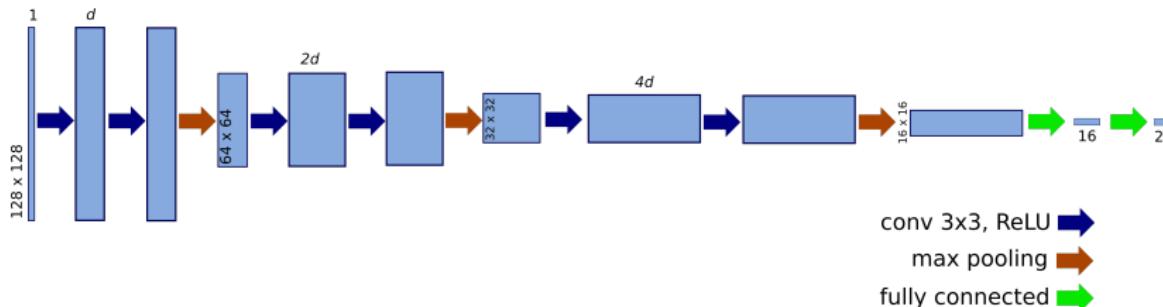
- ➊ Several iterations of: One or several convolutional layers, with increasing depth, followed by max pooling
- ➋ A few fully connected layers

# 2D representations



Credits: NN is work of Robin Alais et al.  
Fundus image by Mikael Häggström, used  
with permission (CC0).

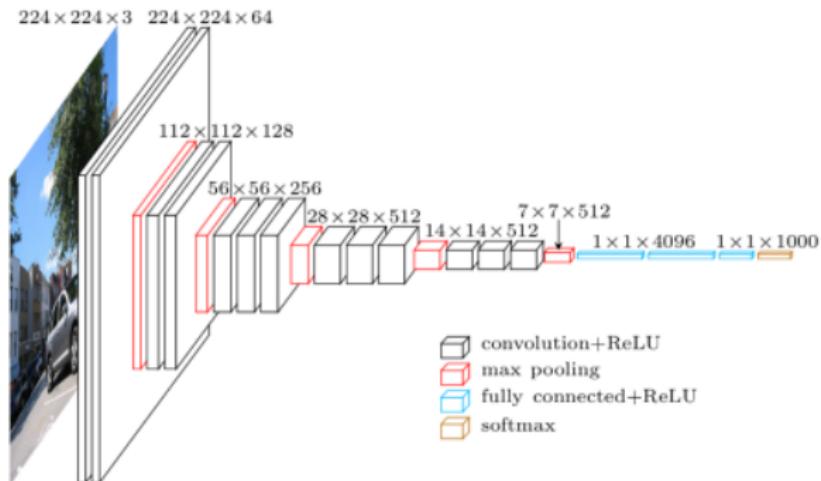
## 2D representations



This NN was used to estimate the position of the center of the macula on fundus images.

Credits: NN is work of Robin Alais et al.  
Fundus image by Mikael Häggström, used with permission (CC0).

# 3D representations



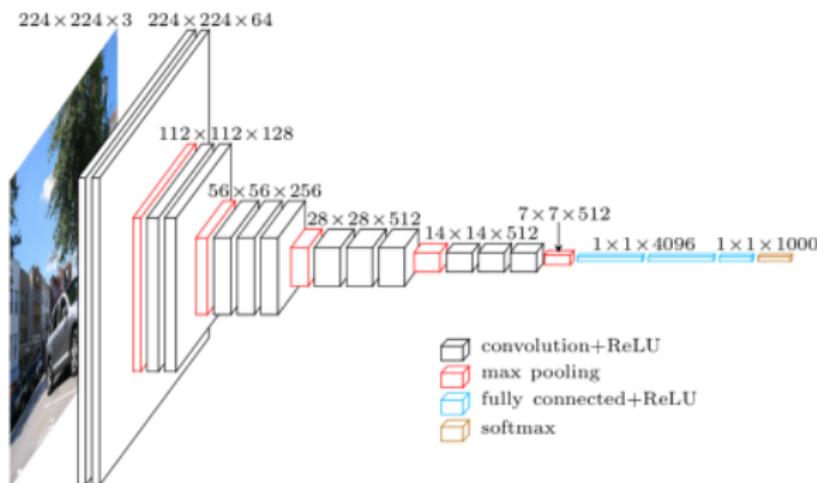
Credits: VGG16 (From  
<https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~frossard/post/>)

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# VGGnet (Visual Geometry Group Net)

- Proposed by K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman from the University of Oxford [Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014]
- Runner-up in the ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Competition (ILSVRC) in 2014.
- Number of parameters (VGG16): 138 million.

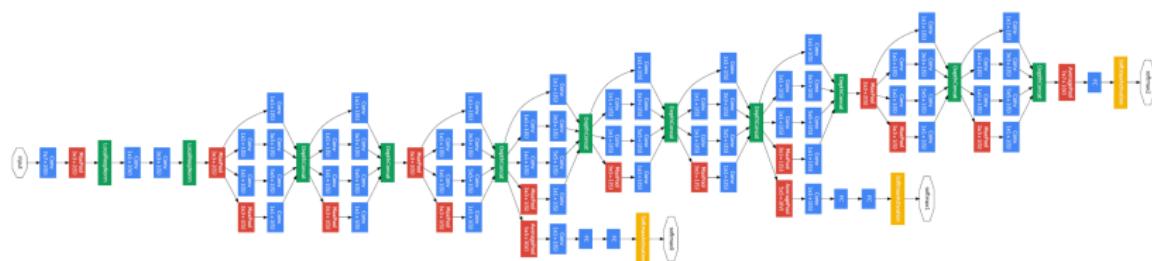


Credits: VGG16 (From  
<https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~frossard/post/>)

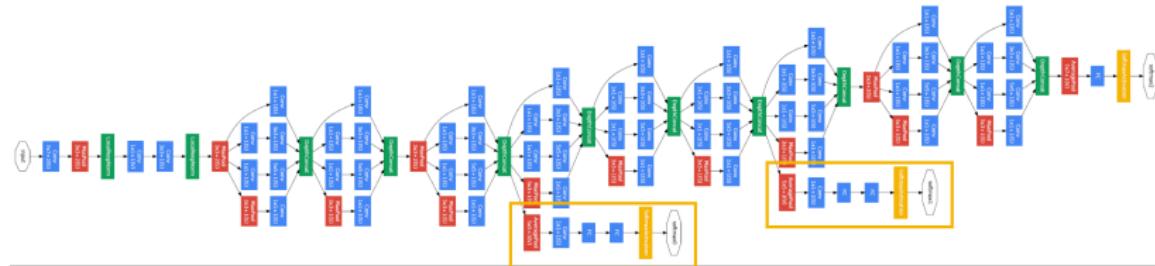
# GoogLeNet

This is an architecture based on Inception v1 principles.

- Winner of the ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Competition (ILSVRC) in 2014.
- Number of parameters: *only* 5 million.

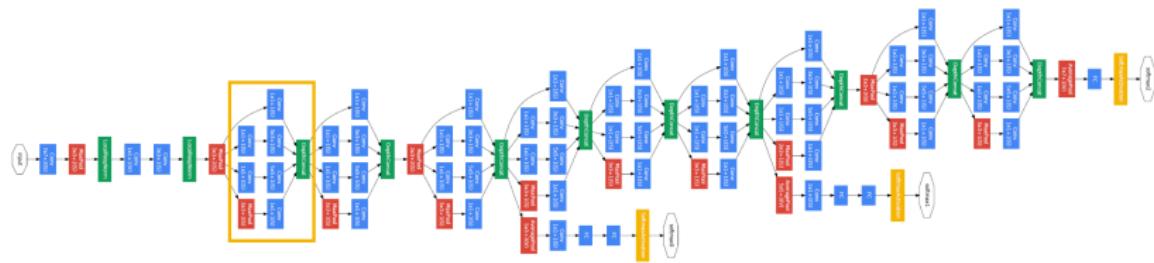


# GoogLeNet review



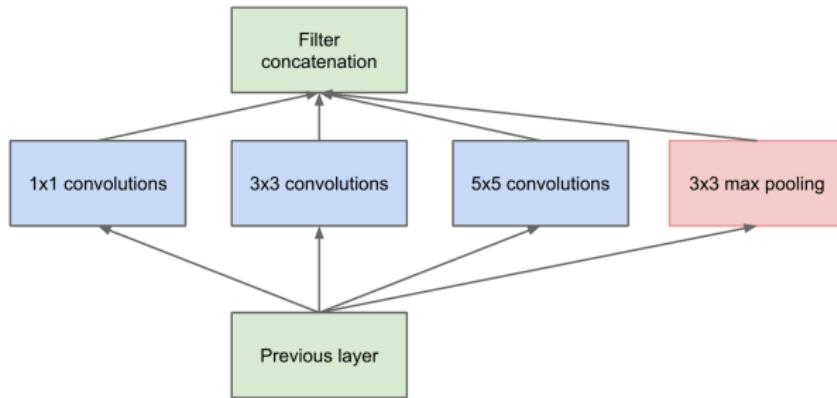
- Two extra outputs are added
- They are added to the final output with a 0.3 weight
- They help propagate gradient through the low levels of the network

# GoogLeNet review

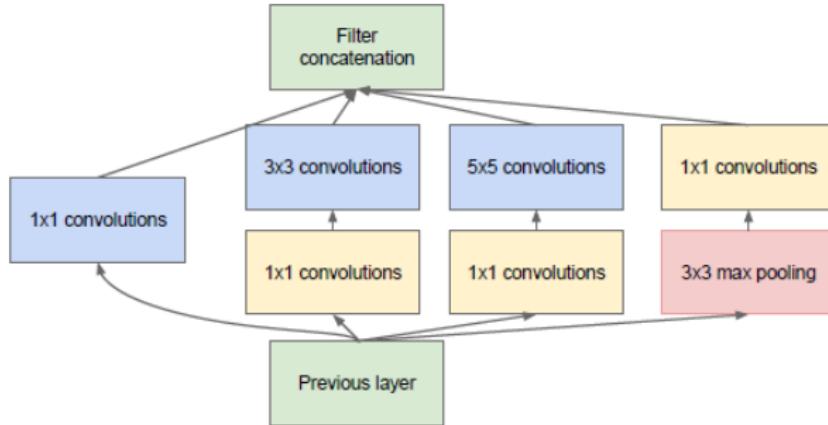


- 9 inception modules

## Inception module: “naive version”

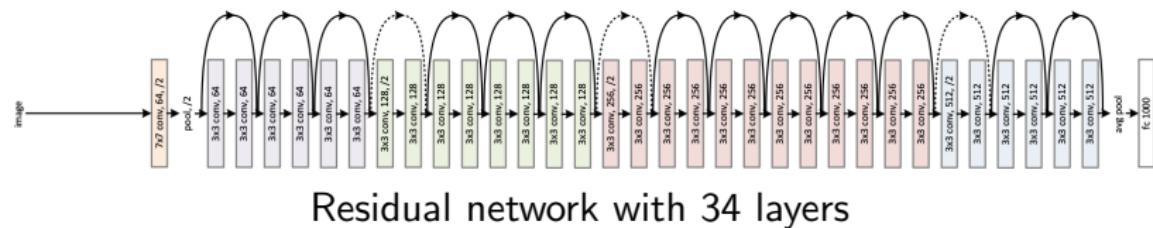


# Inception module



- $1 \times 1$  convolutions are used to keep the number of parameters low.

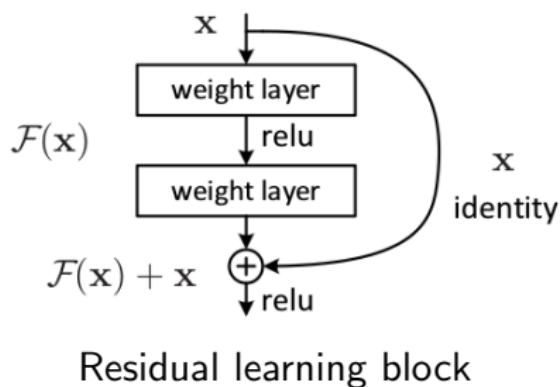
# ResNet



- Winner of the ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Competition (ILSVRC) in 2015.
- The authors tested up to 1202 layers. They reported no training difficulties, but overfitting [He et al., 2015]

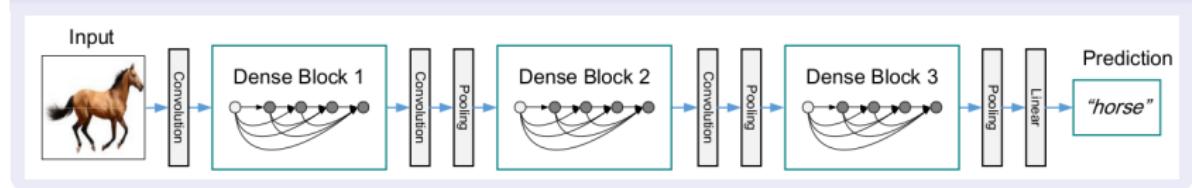
## ResNet module

- Skip connections help backpropagation

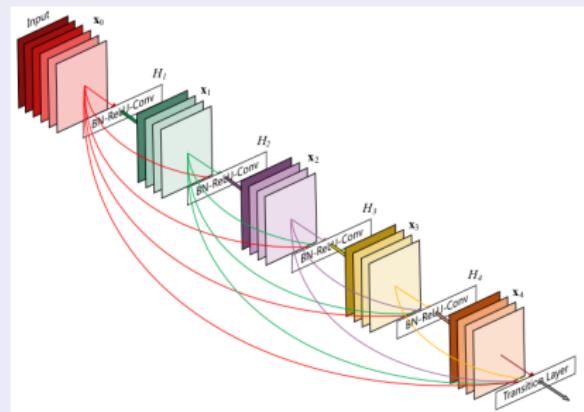


# DenseNet[Huang et al., 2018]

## Architecture

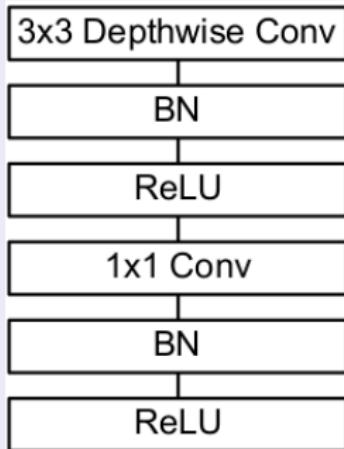


## Dense block



# MobileNet [Howard et al., 2017]

Depth-wise separable convolution



Number of parameters: 4 million.

## Architecture

Type / Stride	Filter Shape	Input Size
Conv / s2	$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 32$	$224 \times 224 \times 3$
Conv dw / s1	$3 \times 3 \times 32$ dw	$112 \times 112 \times 32$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 32 \times 64$	$112 \times 112 \times 32$
Conv dw / s2	$3 \times 3 \times 64$ dw	$112 \times 112 \times 64$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 64 \times 128$	$56 \times 56 \times 64$
Conv dw / s1	$3 \times 3 \times 128$ dw	$56 \times 56 \times 128$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 128 \times 128$	$56 \times 56 \times 128$
Conv dw / s2	$3 \times 3 \times 128$ dw	$56 \times 56 \times 128$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 128 \times 256$	$28 \times 28 \times 128$
Conv dw / s1	$3 \times 3 \times 256$ dw	$28 \times 28 \times 256$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 256 \times 256$	$28 \times 28 \times 256$
Conv dw / s2	$3 \times 3 \times 256$ dw	$28 \times 28 \times 256$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 256 \times 512$	$14 \times 14 \times 256$
5× Conv dw / s1	$3 \times 3 \times 512$ dw	$14 \times 14 \times 512$
5× Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 512 \times 512$	$14 \times 14 \times 512$
Conv dw / s2	$3 \times 3 \times 512$ dw	$14 \times 14 \times 512$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 512 \times 1024$	$7 \times 7 \times 512$
Conv dw / s2	$3 \times 3 \times 1024$ dw	$7 \times 7 \times 1024$
Conv / s1	$1 \times 1 \times 1024 \times 1024$	$7 \times 7 \times 1024$
Avg Pool / s1	Pool $7 \times 7$	$7 \times 7 \times 1024$
FC / s1	$1024 \times 1000$	$1 \times 1 \times 1024$
Softmax / s1	Classifier	$1 \times 1 \times 1000$

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## A revolution in image analysis

- Deep learning has brought an undeniable break-through in image analysis (as in other fields)
- A significant part of research efforts in image analysis today is based on deep learning
- Its applications are ubiquitous
- Not only we can improve on existing tasks, but we can also treat some problems in a completely different way (for example, image generation).

## Limitations

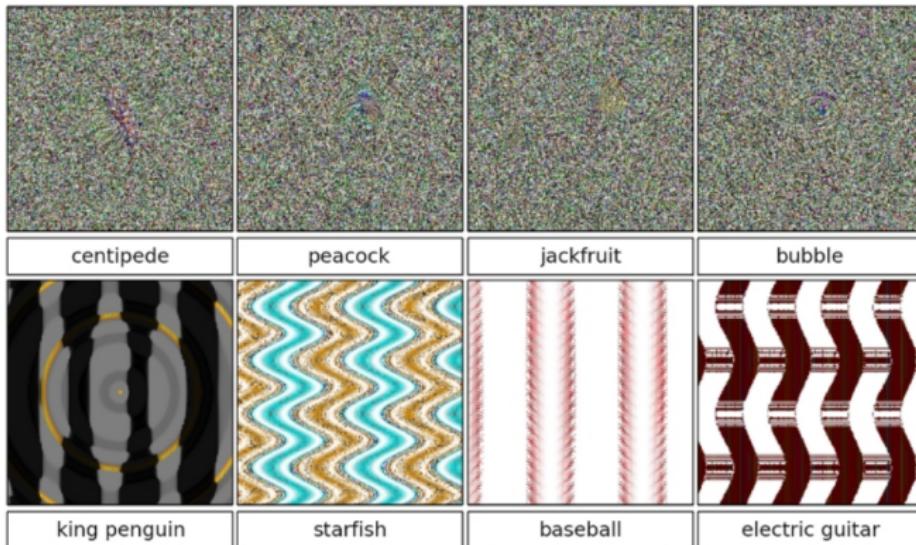
For a deep-learning solution to work, you need:

- Enough annotated data
- A lot of fiddling (different architectures; hyper-parameters; optimization)
- Expensive, energy hungry, computing resources

Moreover, these models lack interpretability.

# ConvNets can be fooled

Deep learning can produce astonishing results  
[Nguyen et al., 2015]...



## Some deep learning libraries

Deep learning is a very competitive domain, where code sharing is very common. Main libraries:

- Tensorflow (with its `keras` interface), by Google (Apache licence)
- PyTorch (Facebook - BSD licence)

# References I

- [Ciresan et al., 2012] Ciresan, D., Giusti, A., Gambardella, L. M., and Schmidhuber, J. (2012). Deep Neural Networks Segment Neuronal Membranes in Electron Microscopy Images. In Pereira, F., Burges, C. J. C., Bottou, L., and Weinberger, K. Q., editors, *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 25*, pages 2843–2851. Curran Associates, Inc.
- [Cireşan et al., 2011] Cireşan, D., Meier, U., Masci, J., and Schmidhuber, J. (2011). A committee of neural networks for traffic sign classification. In *Neural Networks (IJCNN), The 2011 International Joint Conference on*, pages 1918–1921. IEEE.
- [Cireşan et al., 2013] Cireşan, D. C., Giusti, A., Gambardella, L. M., and Schmidhuber, J. (2013). Mitosis Detection in Breast Cancer Histology Images with Deep Neural Networks. In *Medical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention – MICCAI 2013*, pages 411–418. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- [Dosovitskiy et al., 2021] Dosovitskiy, A., Beyer, L., Kolesnikov, A., Weissenborn, D., Zhai, X., Unterthiner, T., Dehghani, M., Minderer, M., Heigold, G., Gelly, S., Uszkoreit, J., and Houlsby, N. (2021). An Image is Worth 16x16 Words: Transformers for Image Recognition at Scale. In *arXiv:2010.11929 [cs]*. arXiv: 2010.11929.

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