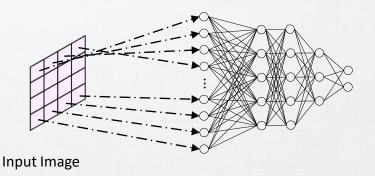
Universidade de São Paulo Escola Politécnica - Engenharia de Computação e Sistemas Digitais

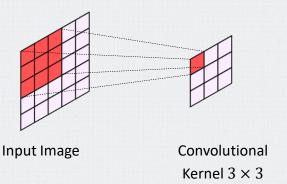
Convolutional Networks

Prof. Artur Jordão

Definition

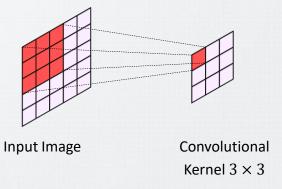
- Convolutional networks are neural networks that use convolution in place of general matrix multiplication in at least one of their layers
- These networks are a specialized kind of neural network for processing data with a known grid-like topology. For example:
 - Time-series data (1D grid taking samples at regular time intervals)
 - Image data (2D grid of pixels)





Motivation

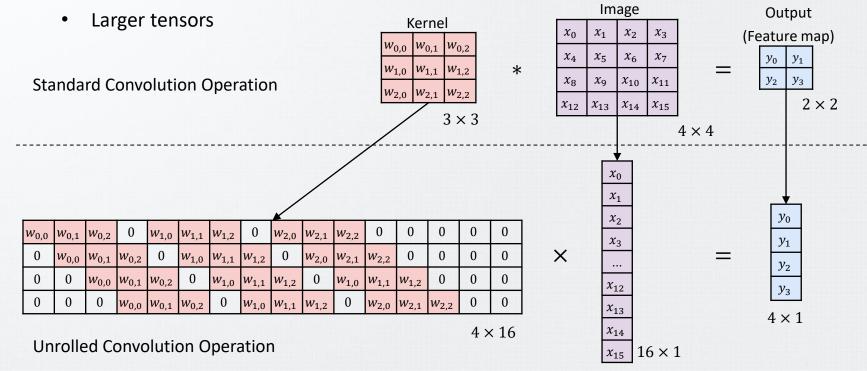
- Applying neurons directly to the image lacks the spatial location of the patterns
- Instead, we can organize neurons as elements within a window (filter/kernel)
 - Additionally, this strategy reduces the number of parameters
 - Weights are shared across "all" image locations



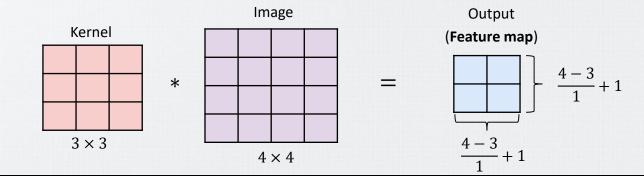
Components

- Convolutional Layers
- Downsampling Layers
 - Pooling Layers
- Classification Layers

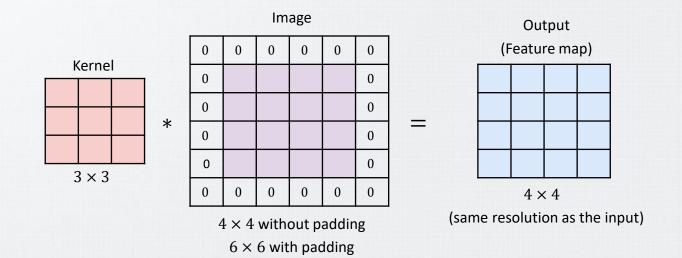
- Unrolling convolutional operation
 - Transforms the problem into a (tensor) matrix multiplication



- Define W,H as the dimensions of the input image, and w,h as the dimensions of a convolutional kernel
- The convolution operation reduces the input in terms of
 - $\frac{W-w}{s_x} + 1$, $\frac{H-h}{s_y} + 1$, where s_i is the stride
- Most convolutional architectures employ 3×3 filters and a stride $(s_x \text{ and } s_y)$ of one

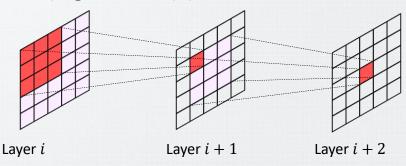


- Padding
 - It involves adding values on the input's edges to ensure that the input and output (after the convolution operation) have the same spatial dimension
- Most works employ zero-padding



Architectural Details

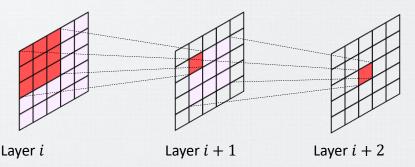
- Receptive field
 - Refers to all the elements (from all the previous layers) that may affect the calculation of x (a position in the feature map) during the forward propagation
- The local operation of the convolution kernel makes the model focus too much on local representations (e.g., texture) (Geirhos et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2023)



Geirhos et al. Imagenet-trained cnns are biased towards texture; increasing shape bias improves accuracy and robustness. International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR) 2019

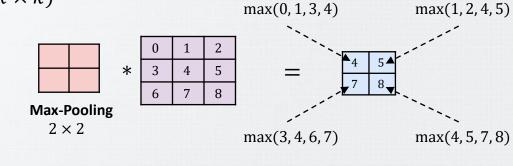
Guo et al. ALOFT: A Lightweight MLP-like Architecture with Dynamic Low-frequency Transform for Domain Generalization. Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 2023

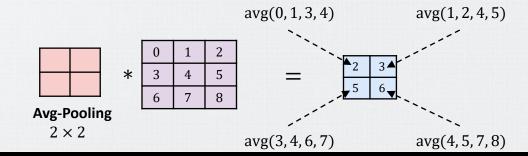
- An important role in learning new representations is to reduce the spatial dimensions of feature maps (Greff et al., 2017)
 - Downsampling the input increases the receptive field
- There are two distinct ways of achieving this reduction
 - Pooling operations
 - Convolutional layers with stride 2×2



- Pooling layers (also known as pooling operators or functions) are a fixed-shape window that slides over all regions in the input, computing a single output for each location traversed by the window
 - Pooling summarizes the responses over a whole neighborhood
- Pooling are deterministic operations
 - It contains kernel size and stride but has no (learnable) parameters
- Pooling helps the representation become approximately invariant to small translations of the input
 - Invariance to translation means that if we translate the input by a small amount, the values of most of the pooled outputs do not change

- Common pooling operations
 - Max-pooling $(k \times k)$
 - Average-pooling $(k \times k)$





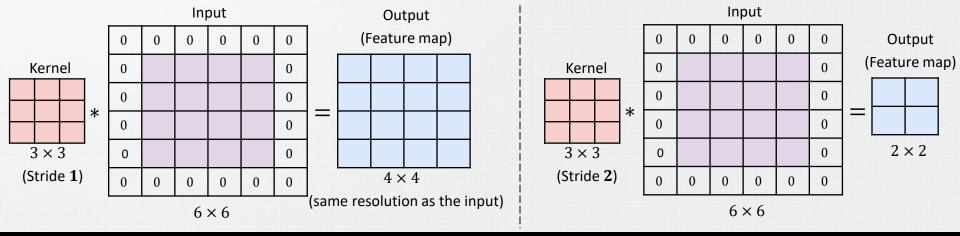
Architectural Details

- Global-pooling operations
 - Global max-pooling
 - Global average-pooling



Global Avg-Pooling

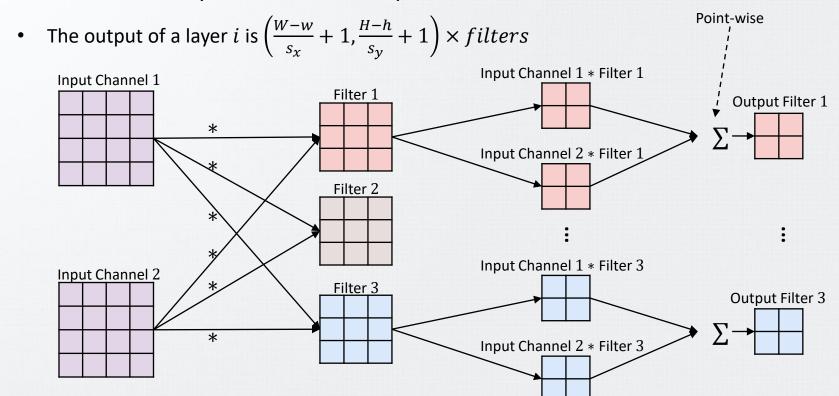
- Convolution with stride $(s_i) = 2$
 - Learnable parameters
- Remember that the output of a convolution is $\left(\frac{W-W}{s_x}+1,\frac{H-h}{s_y}+1\right)$
 - By setting the stride higher than 1, we obtain downsampled feature maps



Multiple Filters

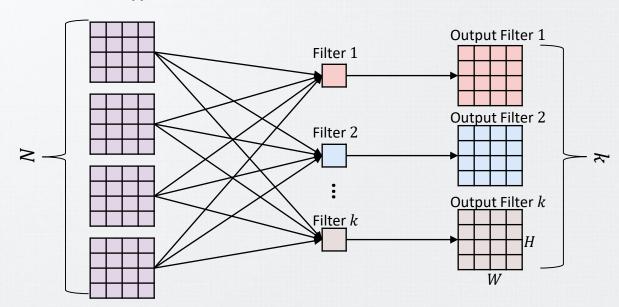
Architectural Details

Each filter from a layer i convolves all input dimensions



1×1 Convolutional Layers

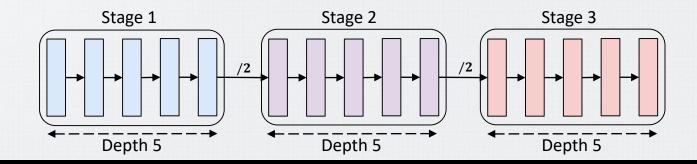
- Convolutions with kernel of size 1
 - Such configuration preserves the spatial resolution of the input
 - It projects an input of size (W, H, N) into (W, H, k), where k is the number of filters
 - Therefore, this type of convolution enables to reduce the dimension of channels



Stages

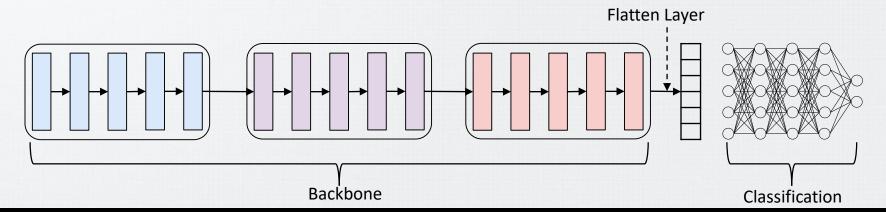
- A Stage (or module) is a group of layers that operate on representations (feature maps) at the same resolution
 - From stage i to i+1, the common strategy is to reduce the spatial resolution. For this purpose, we employ a downsampling layer (/2)
- The **depth (number of convolutional layers)** of these stages is defined either uniformly (e.g., ResNet20–110) or empirically (e.g., ResNet50–101)
 - A common practice is to double the number of filters as we decrease the resolution

Stage	Resolution	
1	32 × 32	
2	16 × 16	
3	8 × 8	



Classification Layers

- Fully connected (FC) layers
 - MLPs
- Modern architectures often incorporate global average pooling before the classification layer
 - It significantly reduces the number of parameters
 - It helps to hand inputs of varying size



Representation Learned Across Layers

Architectural Details

- Neuron representations from https://microscope.openai.com/models
 - ResNet50









Shallow Layers

Deep Layers

Popular Architectures

- VGG (Depth 16 and 19)
- ResNet (Depth 50, 101 and 152)
- MobileNet
- NASNet
- EfficientNet
- All these architectures employ 3×3 convolutional kernels

Historical Trends

Architectural Details

- CNNs have been the de-facto standard in computer vision since the AlexNet model surpassed prevailing approaches based on hand-crafted image features (Krizhevsky et al., 2012)
- Simonyan and Zisserman (2015) demonstrated that one can train state-of-the-art models using only convolutions with small 3×3 kernels
- He et al. (2016) introduced skip connections, which enable the training of ultra-deep neural networks and further improve performance
 - Since then, many advances in the field of deep learning have been made using skip connections

Krizhevsky et al. *ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks*. Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS), 2012 Simonyan and Zisserman. *Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition*. International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR), 2015

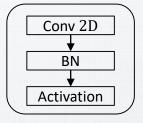
He et al. Deep residual learning for image recognition. Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 2016

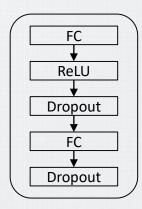
Building Blocks

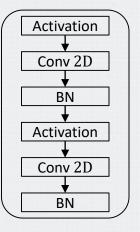
Introduction

Building Blocks

- Modern neural network architectures often adopt a modular approach
 - Design a layer (building blocks) and replicate it to build the model
- Building blocks (or modules) are combinations of different components (sets of layers)
 - The input to the ith building block is the output of the i-1th block







Scalability and Complex Architectures

Building Blocks

- Building Blocks are fundamental for designing complex architectures
 - Once created, we can repeat the building block to compose the final architecture
- We can create wider models by increasing the embedding dimension or the number of channels in each block
- We can create deeper models by stacking more layers/blocks
- Isotropic architectures
 - Each block maintains a consistent and uniform layerwise design
- Hierarchical architectures
 - Consists of stages with varying scales and embedding dimensions

Scalability and Complex Architectures

Building Blocks

Building blocks became popular after VGG and ResNet architectures

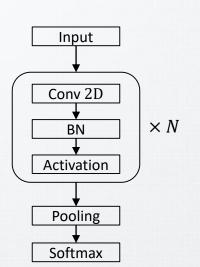
Layer Name	Output Size	18-Layer	50-Layer	152-Layer
Conv1	112 × 112	7 × 7, 64, Stride 2		
Conv2_x	56 × 56	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 1 \times 1, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 1 \times 1, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$
Conv3_x	28 × 28	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 1 \times 1, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 4$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 1 \times 1, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 8$
Conv4_x	14 × 14	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 1 \times 1, 1024 \end{bmatrix} \times 6$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1,256 \\ 3 \times 3,256 \\ 1 \times 1,1024 \end{bmatrix} \times 36$
Conv5_x	7 × 7	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 512 \\ 3 \times 3, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1,512 \\ 3 \times 3,512 \\ 1 \times 1,2048 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1,512 \\ 3 \times 3,512 \\ 1 \times 1,2048 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$
	1 × 1	Average Pooling, $1000-d$ FC, Softmax		

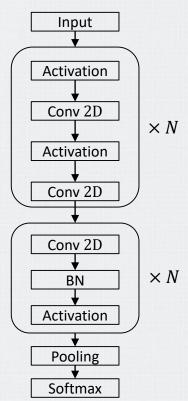
Final Architecture

Building Blocks

Building blocks facilitate the construction and representation (i.e., illustration) of

modern architectures





Residual Networks (Skip Connection)

Motivation

Residual Networks

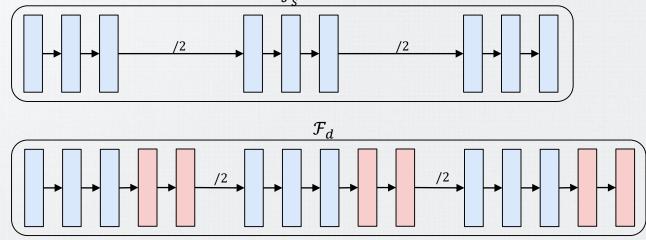
- Practical experience in deep learning suggests that deeper models can significantly improve their predictive performance
 - Unfortunately, as the network becomes deeper, training becomes harder
- The degradation problem (He et al., 2016)
 - As the network depth increases, accuracy saturates and then rapidly degrades
 - Unexpectedly, such degradation is not caused by overfitting

	Plain	Residual
18 layers	27.94	27.88
34 layers	28.54	25.03

Problem Formulation

Residual Networks

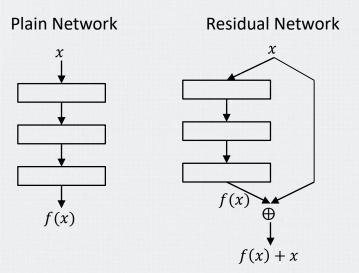
- Consider a shallow architecture \mathcal{F}_{s} and its deeper counterpart \mathcal{F}_{d}
 - \mathcal{F}_d is essentially \mathcal{F}_s with more layers (building blocks)
 - Informally: $\mathcal{F}_{S} \subset \mathcal{F}_{d}$
- The deeper model should not produce higher training error than its shallower counterpart \mathcal{F}_{2}



Overview

Residual Networks

- The idea consists of connecting layer i with a subsequent layer i + j, j > 1
 - This connection (skip-connection) is done by adding (element-wise) the feature maps of layer i and i+j
- Layers in Plain network
 - Receives x and outputs f(x)
- Layers in Residual network
 - Receives x and outputs f(x) + x



Theoretical Issues

Residual Networks

- Two groups of believers
 - Skip connections to avoid the vanishing gradient problem

• Skip connections extend beyond addressing the vanishing gradient problem (I, Prof. Artur,

belong to this category)

We argue that this optimization difficulty is unlikely to be caused by vanishing gradients. These plain networks are trained with BN [16], which ensures forward propagated signals to have non-zero variances. We also verify that the backward propagated gradients exhibit healthy norms with BN [...]

Source: He et al., 2016

[...] In this paper, we explore the interaction between depth and the loss geometry. We first establish that gradient explosion or vanishing is not responsible for the slowing down of training, as is commonly believed.

[...] The most prevalent explanation for why very deep networks are hard to train is that the gradient explodes or vanishes as the number of layers increase [5]; this explanation has been infrequently challenged [...]

[...] Firstly, there is no exponential increase or decrease in gradient norms (i.e., we would see vastly different gradient norm scales), as hypothesised in gradient explosion explanations. Secondly, residual connections do not consistently increase or decrease the gradient norms. In Figure 1, 49.4% of variables have lower gradient norm in residual networks (in comparison to a baseline of non-residual networks), making the exploding/vanishing gradient explanation untenable in this case.

Source: Ghorbani et al., 2019

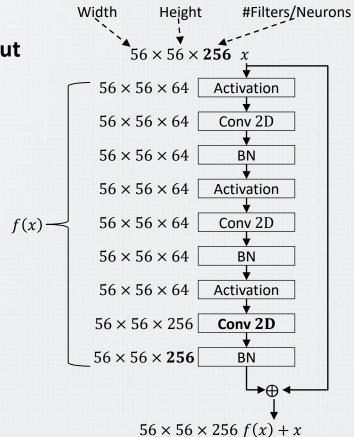
He et al. Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition. Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 2016

Ghorbani et al. The Effect of Network Depth on the Optimization Landscape. International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML), 2019

Technical Issues

Residual Networks

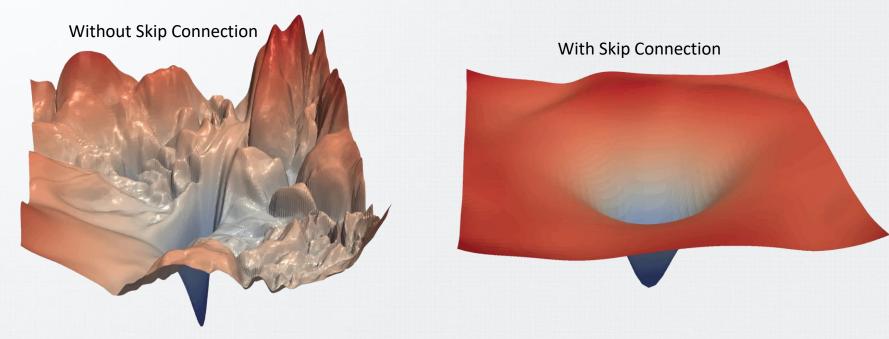
Within a building block the input and output must match



Modern Architectures

Residual Networks

 Due to the success and simplicity of residual networks, modern architectures are predominantly based on residual learning

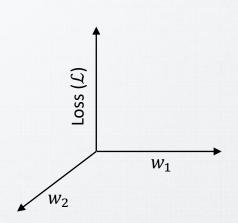


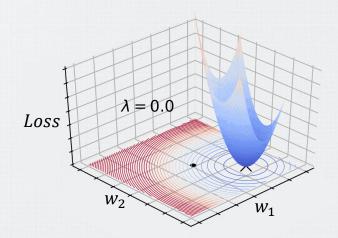
Loss LandScape

Modern Architectures

Loss LandScape

• Due to the high number of parameters (i.e., dimensions in space), visualizing the loss landscape of the parameters in overparameterized models is hard

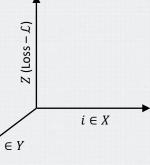




Definitions

Loss Landscape

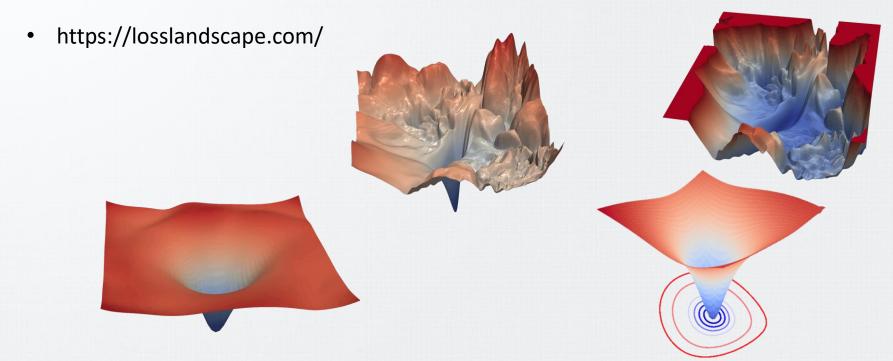
- Li et al. (2018) proposed a novel visualization scheme
 - The method samples two Gaussian random vectors (δ and β) that normalizes the filter norms in the neural network
 - Then compute the loss across different combinations of the two filter-normalized Gaussian random vectors from the minimizer
- Define $\delta \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and $\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$
- Consider a equally spaced 3D grid (X, Y, Z)
- The method by Li et al. (2018) estimates the loss landscape in terms of
 - $Z_{i,j} = \mathcal{L}(\theta^* + i * \delta + j * \beta)$



Loss Landscape

Loss Landscape

http://www.telesens.co/loss-landscape-viz/viewer.html



Li et al. Visualizing the Loss Landscape of Neural Nets. In Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS), 2018

Bibliography

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- Geirhos et al. *Imagenet-trained CNNs are Biased Towards Texture; Increasing Shape Bias Improves Accuracy and Robustness*. International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR) 2019
- Veit et al. Residual Networks Behave Like Ensembles of Relatively Shallow Networks. In Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS), 2016
- Li et al. *Visualizing the Loss Landscape of Neural Nets*. In Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS), 2018