

Course 4 (CNN)

5/4/18

Deep learning computer vision is helpful in self driving cars, better face recognition.

Applications: Image Classification, object detection, Neural style transfer (content image + style image)

Problem in CNN:

If i/p image is (1000×1000) resolution image, then i/p features = $1000 \times 1000 \times 3 = 3 \text{ million}$ i/p features. If hidden layer with 1000 units is used;
 $W^{[1]} = (1000, 3 \text{ million})$ dimensional matrix i.e. 3 billion parameters

So, many parameters lead to overfitting in absence of sufficient amount of data. Also, memory and computational requirements of 3 billion parameters is quite infeasible. We use convolu computation to solve this problem.

→ Edge detect example to understand convolve operation:

Note A gray scale image is just 2-D b/w no RGB codes. Every pixel has either a value 1 or 0 i.e. black or white. (It may be some other nos. that are shades of black and white)

The convolve operⁿ detects vertical & horizontal lines in the i/p image.

e.g.

3	0	1	2	7	4
1	5	8	9	3	1
2	7	2	5	1	3
0	1	3	1	7	8
4	2	1	6	2	8
2	4	5	2	3	9

(6x6) i/p image
(a)

→ "convolve"

0	0	-1
1	0	-1
1	0	-1

3x3 filter/kernel
(b)

-5	-4	0	8
10	-2	2	3
0	-2	-4	-7
-3	-2	-3	-16

4x4 vertical
edge output
(c)

C_{11} is computed by doing element wise multiplication of (a) and (b) and adding all the 9 terms.

(1st window)

To get C_{12} , shift window 1 step to the right

and repeat above procedure. [i.e. $(3 \times 1) + (1 \times 1) + (2 \times 1) + (0 \times 0) + (5 \times 0) + (7 \times 0) + (1 \times -1) + (8 \times -1) + (2 \times -1) = -4$]

Hence, a 6x6 matrix convolve of 3x3 matrix gives 4x4 matrix.

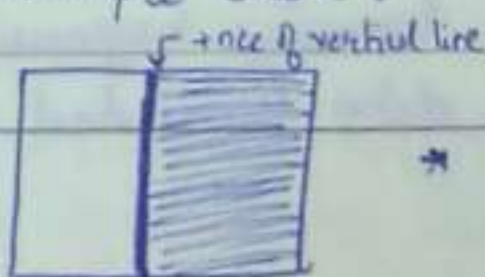
To implement the above convolve fn:

in python we have: conv-forward

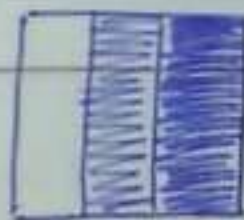
in tensorflow " " : tf.nn.conv2d

in Keras " " : Conv2D

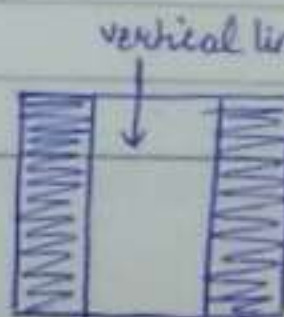
Note Above works as a vertical edge detector. This can be shown through the example below.



*



→



i.e.

10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0
10	10	10	0	0	0

1	0	-1
1	0	-1
1	0	-1

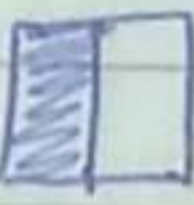
(edge detector filter)

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

(vertical edge detector)

This indicates the trace of a strong vertical line in middle of the image. The dimensions seem to be a little bit wrong coz the i/p image is just 6x6. If it was of higher dimension, better results would be obtained.

Note Here, +30 shows that there is a light to dark transition.

If  was the i/p image,

we would have got -30 showing transiⁿ from dark to light.

We can take absolute of 30 if we don't care which of the two cases it is.

Also

1	1	1
0	0	0
-1	-1	-1

Horizontal edge detector

Note

1	0	-1
2	0	-2
1	0	-1

(Sobel filter)

(another vertical edge detector giving more weightage to the central row making it more robust)

3	0	-3
10	0	-10
3	0	-3

(Scharr filter)

Note for very big images, these 9 values of the filter are learnt through back propagation and treated as parameters. They can not only be used to detect vertical & horizontal edges but edges at some angles as well like 45° or 73° or so on. This learning happens through data provided as i/p.

→ Padding: modified to convolution?

$$(n \times n) \underset{\substack{\times \\ \downarrow \\ \text{convolve}}}{(f \times f)} \rightarrow ((n-f+1) \times (n-f+1))$$

- One drawback in what we were doing is that the pixels at the corners and the edges are considered only once as only 1 filter covers it while the pixels at the center are covered by many $(f \times f)$ filters which make us to ignore a lot of info near the edge or corners.
- Other drawback is that the output obtained is a shrunk image, and so if on every hidden layer it will shrink this way, we will get an extremely compressed image as the final output.

To fix these problems, we can pad the image with an addition of border of 'p' pixel all around the image.


In case of 6×6 , $p=1$ as $(n-f+1) = 6$ i.e. same sized image as output
($8-3+1$) { $n=6+2$, bcz of padding }

Convolution $\begin{cases} \text{valid convolu}^n \text{ (no padding)} \\ \text{same convolu}^n \text{ (padding such that o/p size = i/p size)} \end{cases}$

$$\downarrow$$
$$\text{i.e. } n+2p-f+1=n \rightarrow \boxed{p = \frac{f-1}{2}}$$

{ f = filter size }

f is almost always odd in computer vision convenⁿ.

So, that p is not fractional and we have a central pixel to refer. 

→ Strided convolution:

Stride = 2 means the $f \times f$ filter that is used is hopped by 2 steps instead of 1 in the $n \times n$ input image.

$$(n \times n) \underset{\text{convolve}}{*} (f \times f) \xrightarrow[\text{Stride 's'}]{\text{Padding 'p'}} \left\lfloor \frac{n+2p-f}{s} + 1 \right\rfloor \times \left\lfloor \frac{n+2p-f}{s} + 1 \right\rfloor$$

↪ floor is taken if it is not an integer.

Note The $f \times f$ filter must lie completely inside the image while hopping over it to do the computations.

Note Cross correlation v/s convolution

What we have done till now was cross correlate. Convolve in actual involves one more step i.e. flipping of the filter matrix.

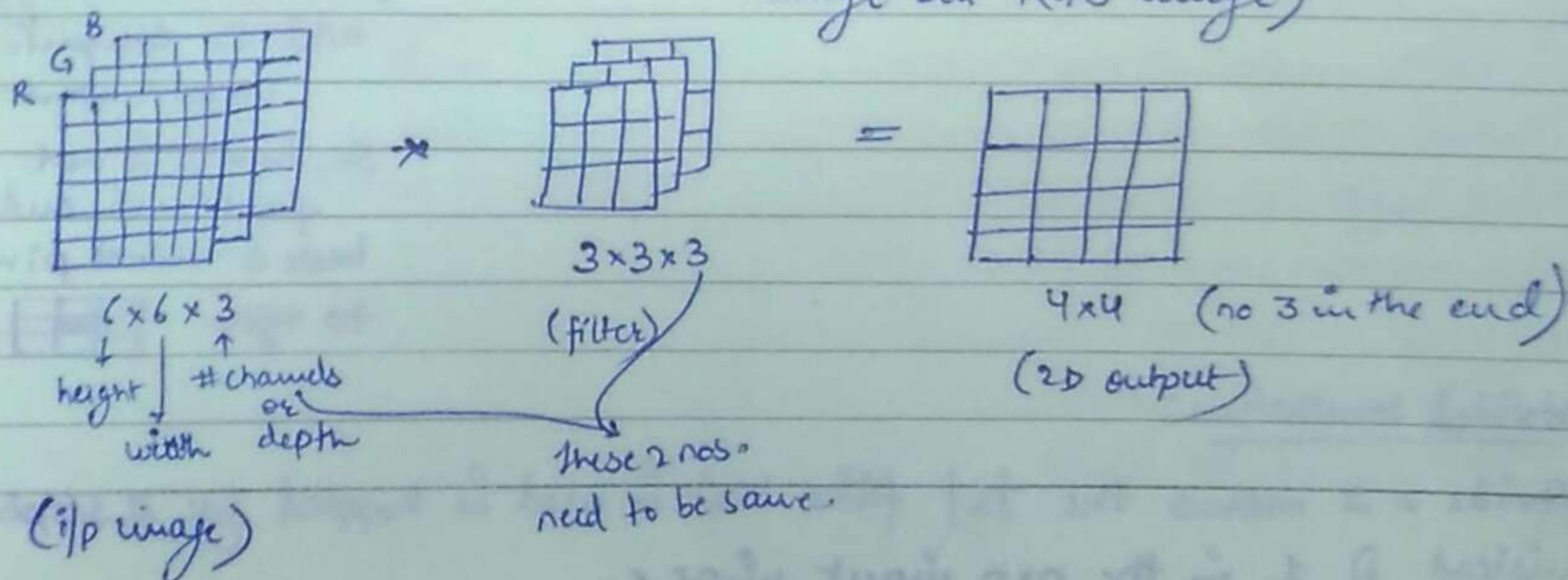
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 9 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 & 5 \\ 9 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Narrowing of filter both on vertical and horizontal axis)

The element wise product and summing is actually done after this step but generally we skip this step and call that also as convolve instead of cross correlate.

$$\Rightarrow (A * B) * C = A * (B * C) \quad \text{Associativity of convolve.}$$

→ Convolutions over volumes (to detect feature not in a grey scale image but RGB image)



This $3 \times 3 \times 3$ cube is swiped over the i/p image and three times 27 nos. are correspondingly multiplied and added to give a number of the 4×4 o/p matrix. Similar to the previous gray scale image convoluⁿ. Only difference is that it is in 3D.

To detect vertical edges only in the red channel, $3 \times 3 \times 3$ filter is like:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

R

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

G

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

B

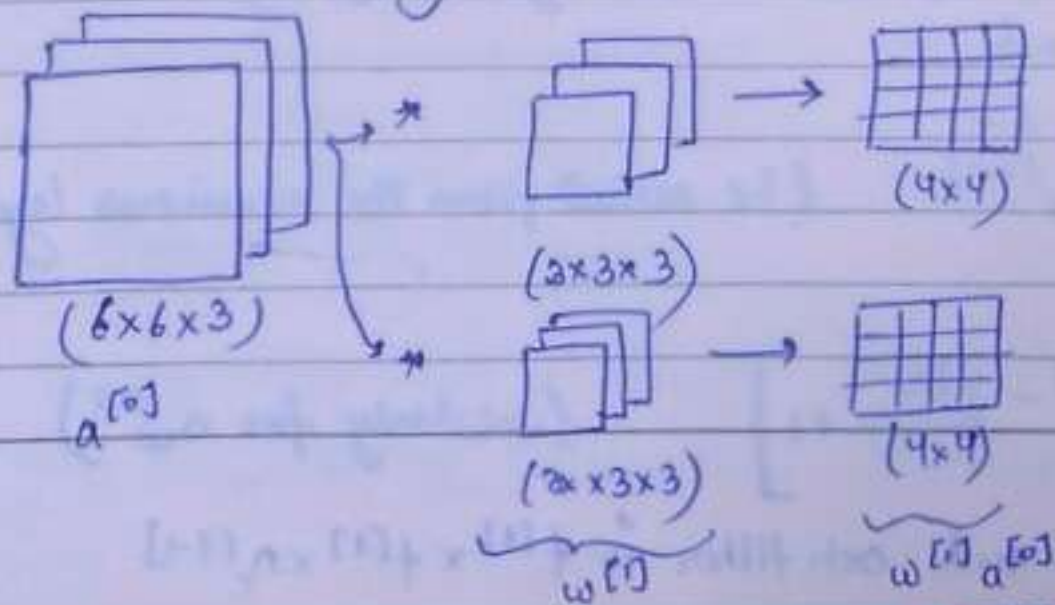
$$(n \times n \times n_c) * (f \times f \times n_c) \rightarrow (n-f+1) \times (n-f+1) \times n_c'$$

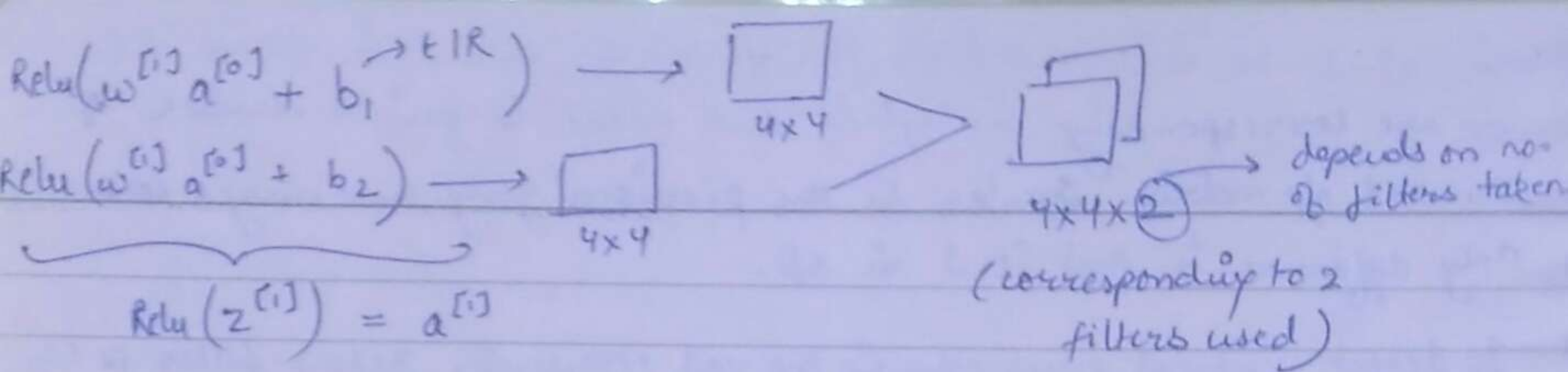
↳ no. of filters used.

Note Adv. of convoluⁿ on volume is that now we can use multiple filters thus detecting multiple features in the input image.
no. of filters used = no. of channels in o/p image.

(e.g. horizontal filter + vertical filter, then $n_c = 2$)
1st channel giving horizontal edges and 2nd channel giving vertical edges detected in the i/p image.

→ Convolution NN layer :





Hence, activaⁿ for next layer obtained.

Convolutⁿ step was basically the linear operaⁿ step i.e. $w^{[1]} X$, then bias was added giving $z^{[1]}$ and then $\sigma(z)$ gave $a^{[1]}$.

Q. calculate no. of parameters if we have 10 filters that are $3 \times 3 \times 3$ in 1 layer of a NN.

Ans $((3 \times 3 \times 3) + \underset{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{bias}}}{1}) \times 10 = 280 \text{ parameters.}$

Note No matter how big the i/p image is, no. of parameters = 280 is fixed for 10 $3 \times 3 \times 3$ filters. This property saves CNN from overfitting.
 ↳ to extract different features from images.

Notations:

$f^{[l]}$ = filter size (i.e. $f \times f$ filter used for layer l of NN)

$p^{[l]}$ = padding in layer l

$s^{[l]}$ = stride in layer l .

Input : $n_H^{[l-1]} \times n_W^{[l-1]} \times n_C^{[l-1]}$ { i.e. activaⁿ from the previous layer }

Output : $n_H^{[l]} \times n_W^{[l]} \times n_C^{[l]}$

$$n_H^{[l]} = \left[\frac{n_H^{[l-1]} + 2p^{[l]} - f^{[l]}}{s^{[l]}} + 1 \right] \quad (\text{Similarly for } n_W^{[l]})$$

$n_C^{[l]}$ = no. of filters. and each filter is $f^{[l]} \times f^{[l]} \times n_C^{[l-1]}$

$$a^{(1)} = n_H^{(1)} \times n_W^{(1)} \times n_C^{(1)}$$

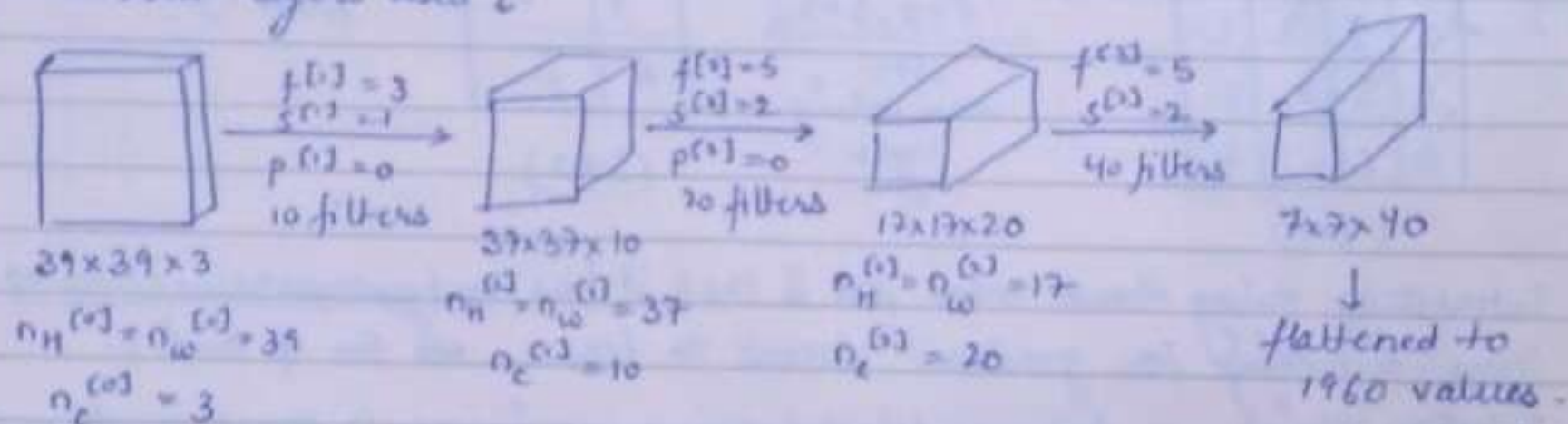
$$A^{(1)} = m \times a^{(1)} \quad \text{for } m \text{ inputs}$$

$$\text{Weights} : f^{(1)} \times f^{(1)} \times n_C^{(1-1)} \times n_C^{(1)} \quad \text{dimension of filter}$$

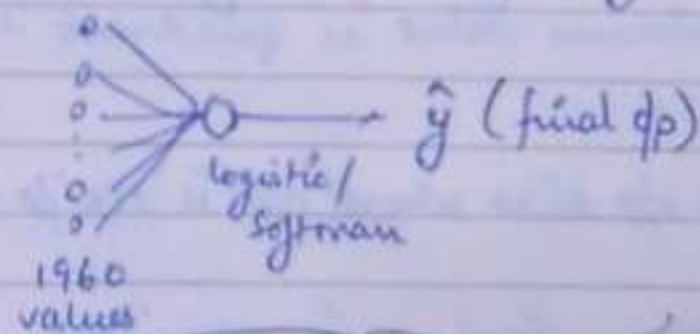
$$\text{bias} : n_C^{(1)} \rightarrow (1, 1, 1, n_C^{(1)})$$

→ Simple CNN example: (Conv Net)

3 convoluted layers used



Hence, (39x39x3) i/p image converted to (7x7x40) features for this image.



Simple regression applied to 1960 values giving features of the i/p image.

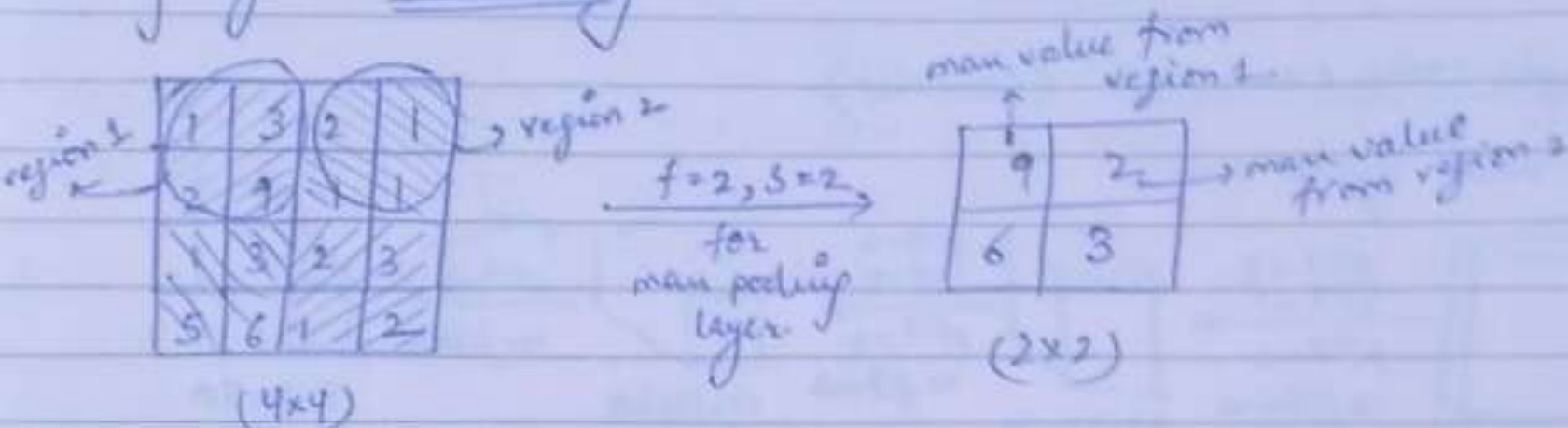
Note As we go deeper in CNN, n_H and n_W generally ↓ while n_C ↑. Main work in CNN is to decide the hyperparameters i.e. $f^{(1)}$, $s^{(1)}$, $p^{(1)}$, no. of filters.

Note Although it's possible to design a good CNN using just convolution layers but most NN architectures also have a few pooling layers and a few fully connected layers.

So, types of layers in CNN \leftarrow Convolution
 Pooling
 Fully connected.

② Pooling layer: to reduce the size of the representation, to speed up computation

Pooling layer: Max Pooling



Interesting thing about max pool is that it has no hyperparameters to learn i.e. nothing for gradient decent to learn. we fix f and s .

Intuition behind using maxpool: features detected anywhere in one of these quadrants remain preserved in the o/p of max pooling. If feature is not detected, the maximum value in quadrant itself is small.

for max pooling also, $n' = \frac{s+n+2p-f}{s}$ is the o/p size where $n \times n$ is the i/p size.

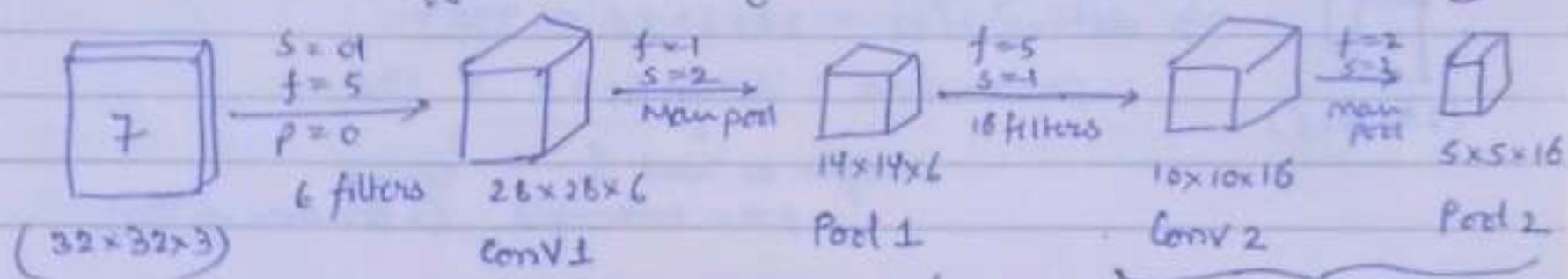
Max pooling in 3D: If $n \times n \times n_c$ is i/p then $n' \times n' \times n_c$ is o/p. The filter is applied independently to all the channels, unlike in case of 3D convol where o/p was 2D even for 3D output and 3D filter. Here, in pooling we have 3D output for 3D input & 2D filter applied to each channel independently.

Note Avg. pooling is also used but not much where avg. of quadrant is taken instead of max value.

$f=2, s=2$ are generally used to shrink the height & width to approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ in the o/p. $p=0$ generally in max pooling.
i.e. (of half size)

Hyperparameters: f, s , max/avg pooling
(binary 0 or 1)

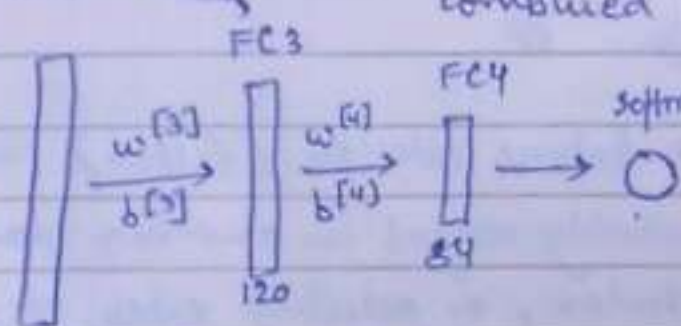
→ Complex CNN example: (inspired by LeNet-5)
we need to identify which no. from 0 to 9 is + nt in the image.



called 1 layer of the NN, though parameters hyper are taken twice, but weights & biases are considered only once during the convolve opⁿ hence it is combined called 1 layer.

layer 2 of the NN

fully connected (layer 3)



400 i.e. ($5 \times 5 \times 16$ flattened as 400 pixels)

$$w^{[3]} = (120, 400) \text{ dimensional}$$

$$b^{[3]} = (120)$$

$$w^{[4]} = (84, 120)$$

$$b^{[4]} = (84)$$

Just like the original NN that we saw before CNN

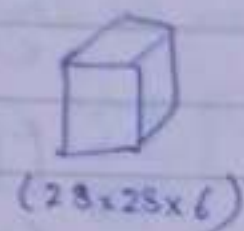
Fully connected as every i/p neuron is connected to every o/p neuron.

Common CNN pattern. (no. of layers may vary).

conv layers \rightarrow Pooling layer \rightarrow conv layers \rightarrow Pooling layer \rightarrow Fully

Connected layer \rightarrow Fully connected layer \rightarrow Softmax.

Note Activation size drops as we go deep in NN. No. of parameters is 0 for Pooling layer, too many for FC layer and relatively small for CNN as we discussed earlier. The drop in activation size should not be too quick.



$$\Rightarrow \text{activation size} = 28 \times 28 \times 6 = 4704$$

$$\text{parameters} = (5 \times 5 \times 6) + 6 = 156$$

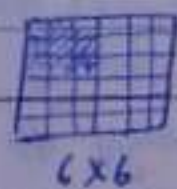
weights as used in
prev example biases
(1 for each filter)

\rightarrow Why convol over fully connected?

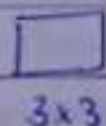
i) Less no. of parameters needed, hence less chance of overfitting.

In above e.g. conv needed 156 parameters. But if FC was used instead of conv here then $4704 \times (32 \times 32 \times 3)$ parameters i.e. 14 million parameters would be needed.

Conv uses parameter sharing bcoz. a feature detector (filter) that's useful in one part of the image is probably useful in another part of the image, like the vertical edge detector, or detecting eyes, etc as well. Also, in conv, in each layer each o/p value depends only on small no. of i/p i.e. sparse connections unlike in FC, i.e.



\times



$=$



This o/p depends only on the shaded region of the i/p. No other pixels affect this o/p.

ii) It captures the desirable property of translation invariance.
i.e. an image of a cat slightly shifted is labelled same in o/p as the image of cat in middle.

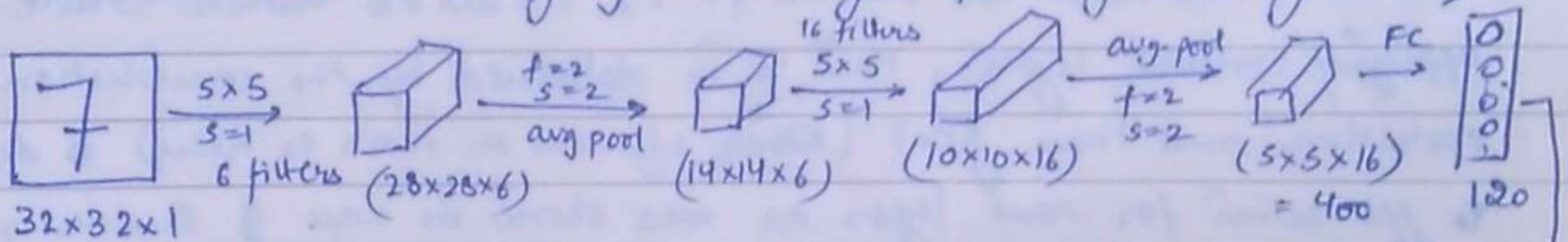
$$\text{Cost } J = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) \quad \{m = \text{no. of training examples}\}$$

Now, use gradient decent to optimize parameters to reduce J .

⇒ Some classic NN:

- LeNet-5
 - AlexNet
 - VGG Net
- } → lay the foundaⁿ for modern computer vision.
- Resnet (152 layers)
 - Inception

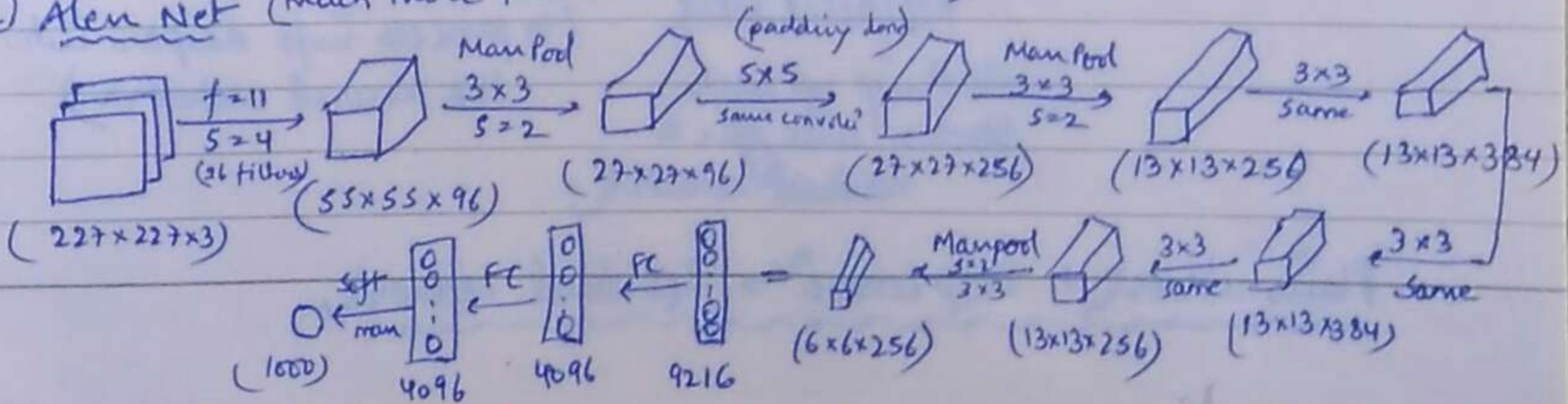
① Le Net-5 (trained on grey scale images for digit recognition).



Note A modern version of this NN
— will use a softmax layer & a
10 way classified output.

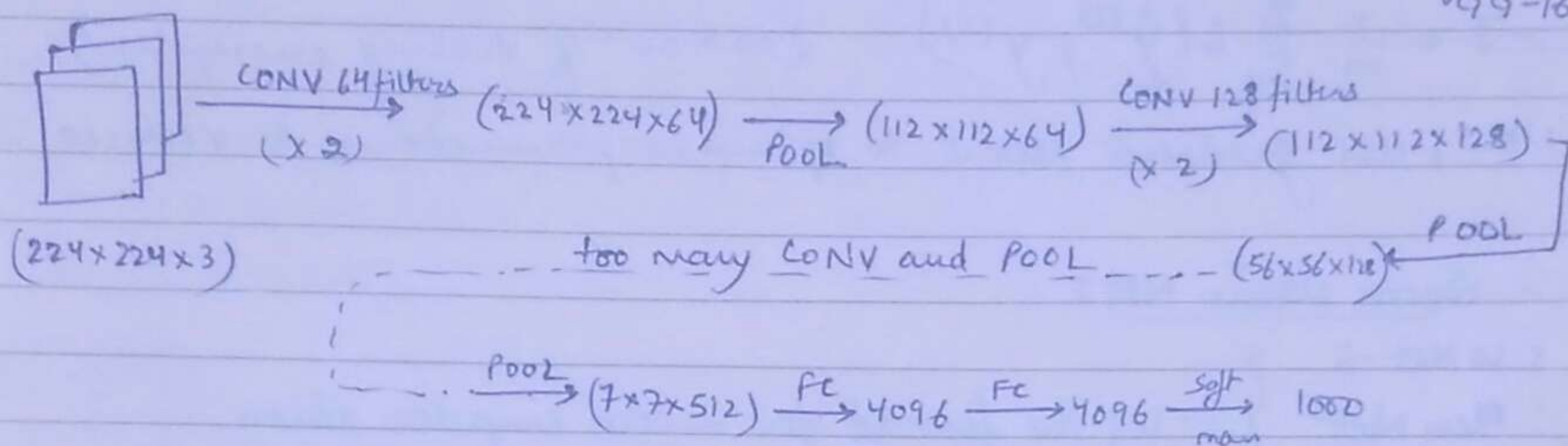
$\hat{y} \leftarrow \text{O} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} \text{O} \\ \vdots \\ \text{O} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{fc}$
 (can take 10 values from 0 to 9)
 84

(2) Allen Net (much more parameters than LeNet-5) (padding long)



VGG-16 net (simplified architecture) has around 138 million parameters and thus a pretty large network.

(16 layers having weights) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{conv} = 3 \times 3 \text{ filter, } S=1, \text{ same convolu}^n \text{ (i.e padding done)} \\ \text{maxpool} = 2 \times 2, S=2 \end{array} \right\}$ Always in this VGG-16.

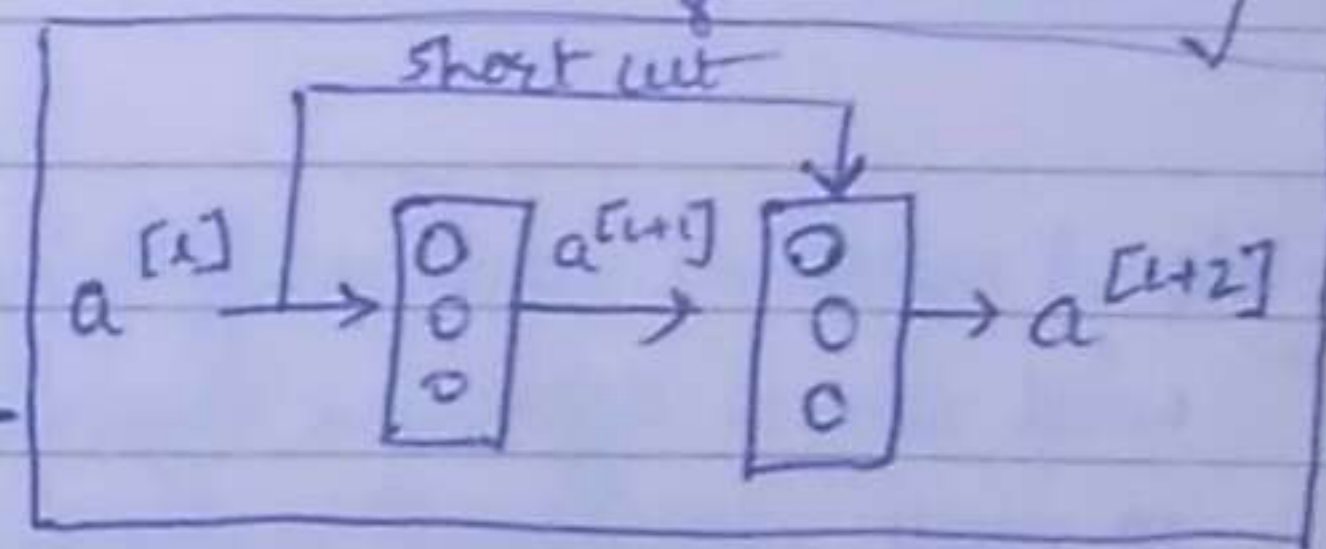


1) ResNet (enables us to train very deep NN, sometimes upto 100 layers)

Note ResNets are built out of Residual blocks.

Note In CNN, we don't use linear fn i.e $z = wx + b$ rather while applying convoluⁿ layer, this z is obtained by the convolution operation and then $g(z)$ {either sigmoid or tanh or ReLU} is done to get activaⁿ for next layer as was done in case of linearity.

In residual, $a^{[1+2]} = g(z^{[1+2]} + a^{[1]})$

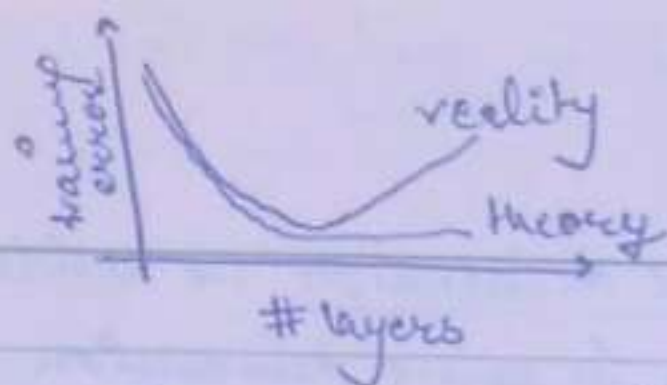


Residual block
Stacking up such blocks will give a residual network.

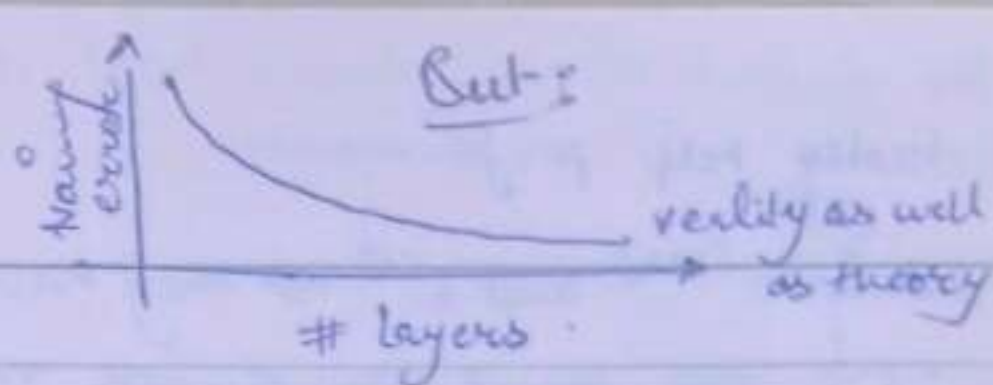
short cut \equiv skip connection (to process info deeper into the Neural Network)

Plain network + skip connecⁿ = Residual network

Note



(for Plain Network)



(Residual Network)

* { helps with the vanishing and exploding gradient problems }

→ why resnets do well?

Going much deeper in the NN might hurt the network's ability to train the network to do well on the training set but this is much less true while training a ResNet.

$$X \rightarrow \boxed{\text{Big NN}} \rightarrow a^{[L]}$$

$$X \rightarrow \boxed{\text{Big NN}} \rightarrow a^{[L]} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow a^{[L+2]}$$

$$\text{So, } a^{[L+2]} = g(z^{[L+2]} + a^{[L]}) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$= g(\underbrace{w^{[L+2]} a^{[L+1]}} + \underbrace{b^{[L+2]}} + a^{[L]})$$

L_2 regularization tends to shrink w and b with tiny layers and so at some point they might become 0 giving:

$$a^{[L+2]} = g(a^{[L]}) = a^{[L]} \quad \text{{as ReLU of +ve is no. itself.}}$$

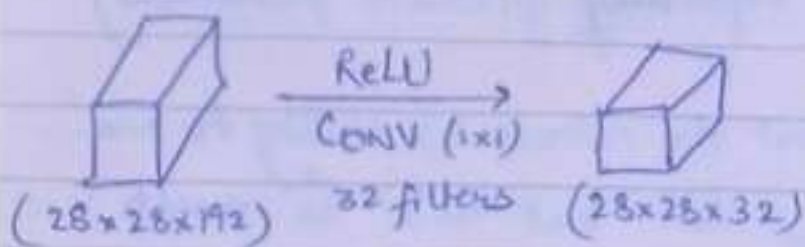
Note

Hence, it is easy for residual block to learn identity fN, giving $a^{[L+2]} = a^{[L]}$. Thus adding the residual block in middle or in the end doesn't hurt the NN performance. These skip connec' bcoz of being not in plain network, the result get worse \propto deepening of layer.

The residual network doesn't hurt performance, and can sometimes actually help performance.

Adding $z^{[l+2]}$ and $a^{[l]}$ \Rightarrow they have same dimension i.e. Residual network uses same convolution resulting in same dimension matrices.

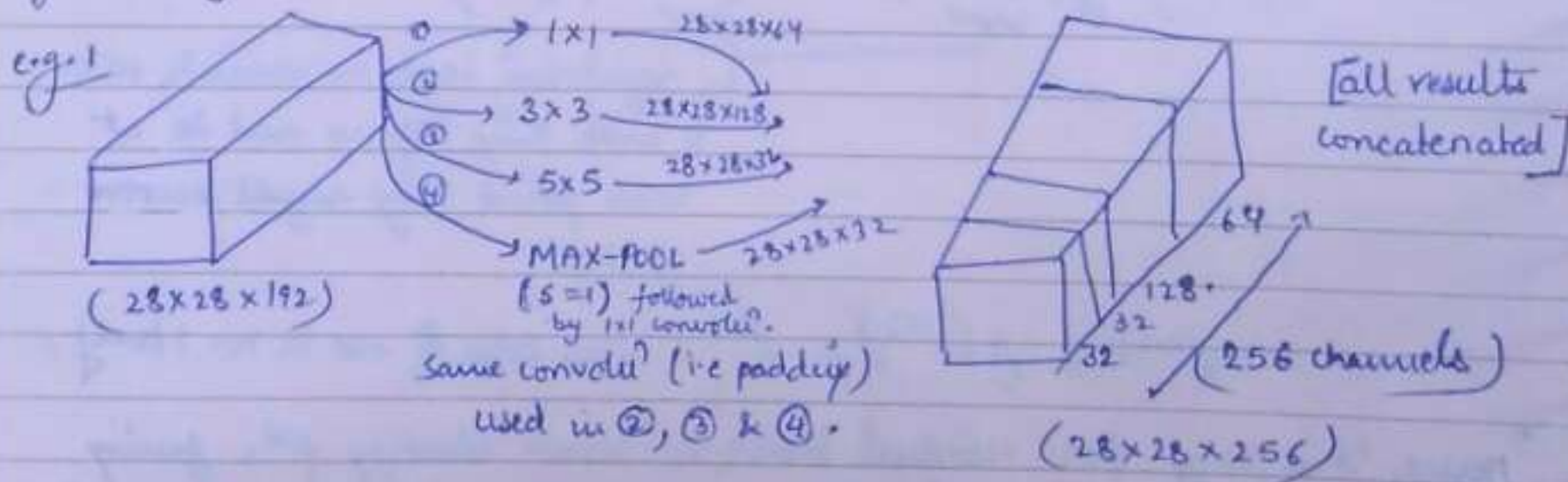
\Rightarrow 1x1 Convolutions: (also called Network in Network)



{ helps reduce no. of channels, from 192 to 32 like in this case unlike maxpool which helps reduce only n_H and n_W . }

1x1 convol helps by adding non-linearity i.e. taking ReLU of the convoluted result, it helps \uparrow , \downarrow and even keep same the n_C . This is useful in building the inception network.

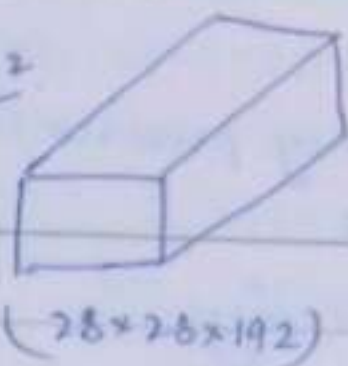
⑤ Inception network: It says why to chose if we want to use a conv layer or a pool layer and \bar{c} what parameters. It says lets try them all and let the network decide.



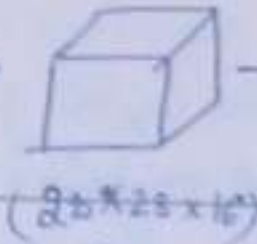
Incepⁿ network problem is computation cost.

Note This computaⁿ cost can be reduced by using 1x1 convolⁿ layer.

e.g. 2



CONV
(1x1)
16 filters



CONV
(5x5)
32 filters



↑
Shrunk intermediate
form & less no. using
1x1 convoluⁿ.

↓
Same o/p obtained as
in previous case but
with less no. of computaⁿ

Computaⁿ cost for ③ in e.g. 1 = $(5 \times 5 \times 192) \times (28 \times 28 \times 32) = 120$ million.

" " for e.g. 2 = $[(1 \times 1 \times 192) \times (28 \times 28 \times 16)] + [(5 \times 5 \times 16) \times (28 \times 28 \times 32)]$
= 12.4 million = $\frac{1}{10}$ th of above cost.

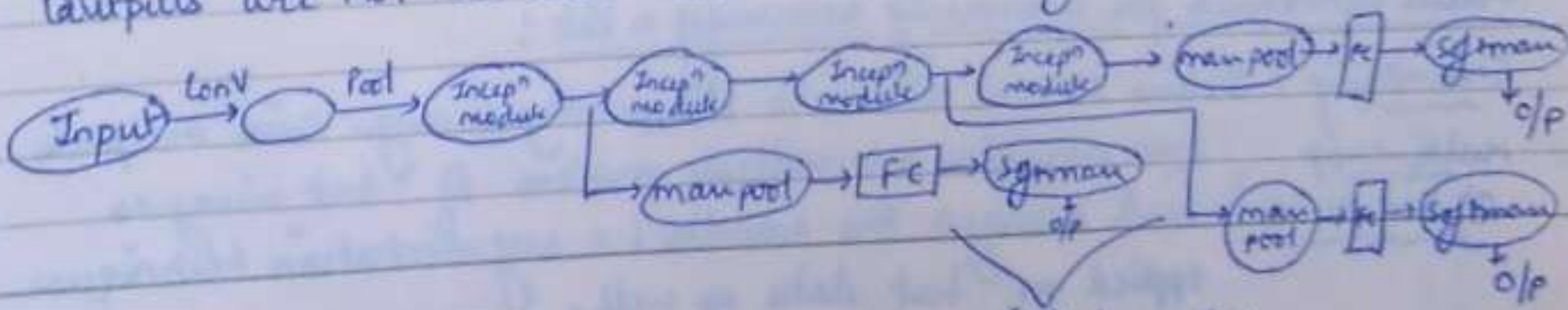


↳ bottleneck layer (intermediate layer obtained after 1x1 convoluⁿ)

↓
This shrinking down doesn't
hurt the performance much but
reduces computaⁿ cost significantly.

e.g. 1 is an inception module. Too many inception modules
used together in a network give rise to inception network.

• Note Side branches are added in between & the inception modules to
show and confirm that if output is calculated from the
intermediate modules using hidden layers + not upto it only,
Outputs are not too bad. This helps in regularizeⁿ as well.



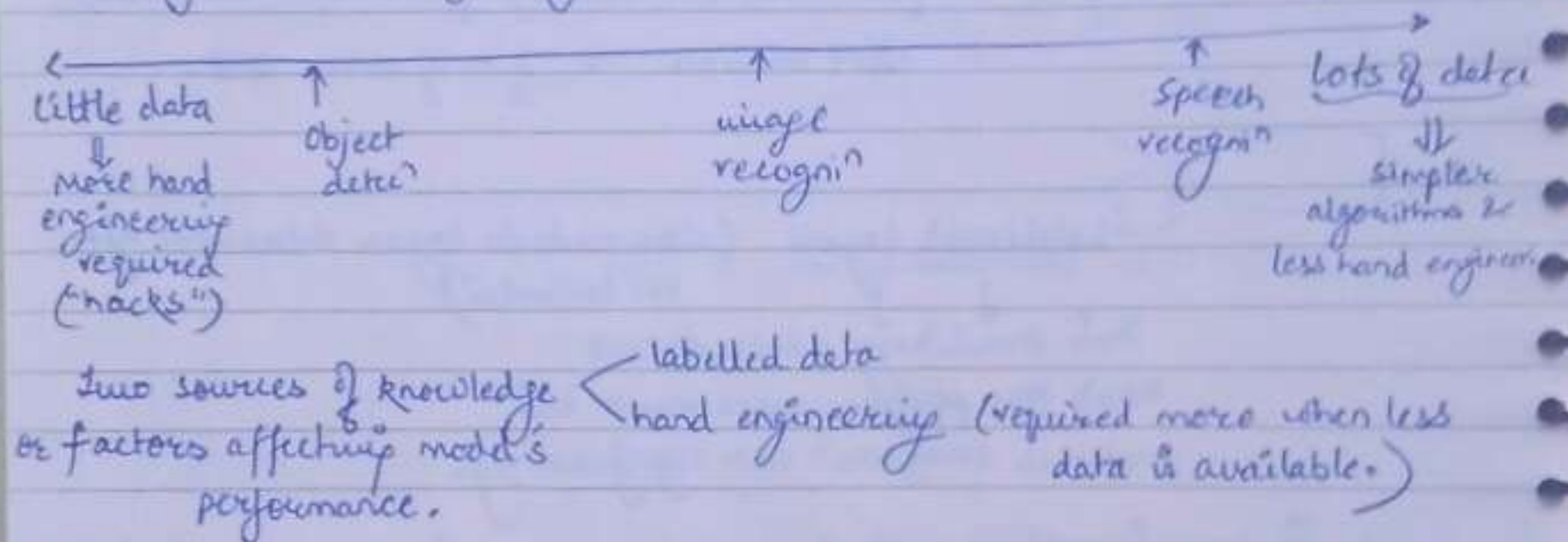
Side branches
& o/p similar to the final o/p

⇒ Data Augmentation : to ↑ the training dataset present & us. Various augmentation techniques given that they preserve the o/p as in the original image are:

make the learning also more robust to changes in the original images.

- i) Mirroring
- ii) Random cropping
- iii) Rotate
- iv) Shearing
- v) Local warping
- vi) Color shifting

* Loading data and getting trained can happen simultaneously.



Note Transfer learning helps in case of less availability of data.

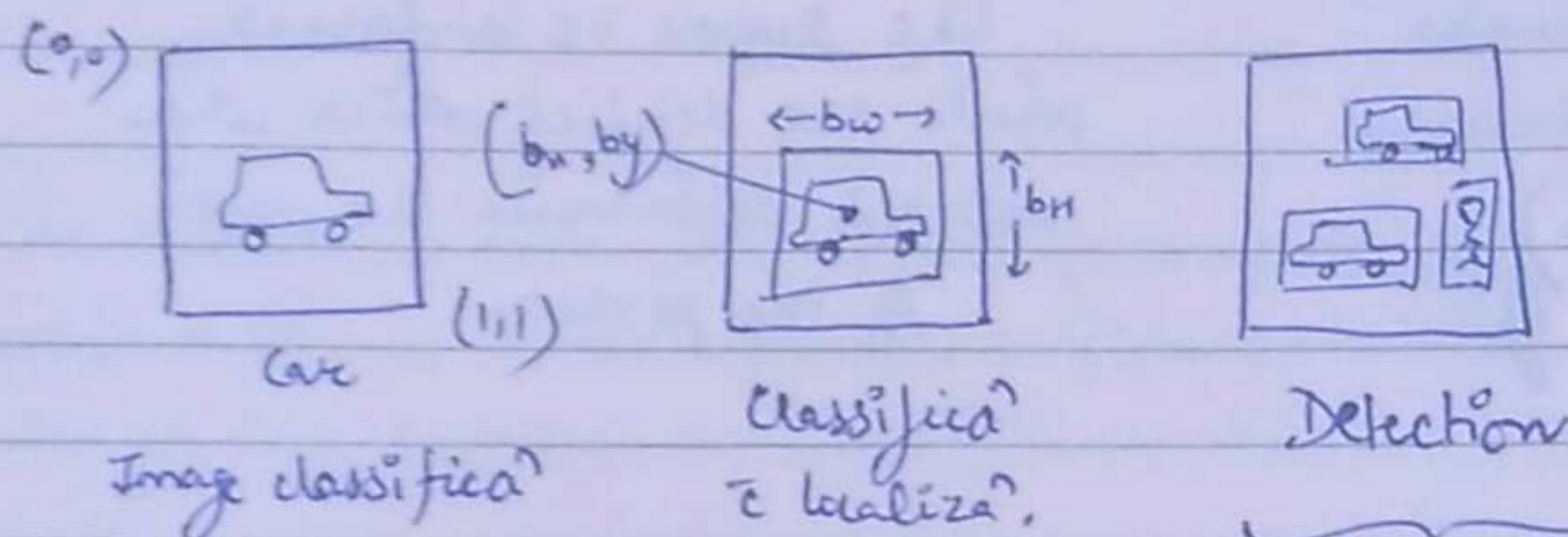
↳ using other people's trained models and training just the last few layers of their network with our data along with changing the o/p of the softmax layer.

Certain techniques for improving accuracy a bit :

- ① Ensembling : Train several networks independently & avg. their outputs.
- ② Multi-crop at test time : Run classifier on multiple versions of test images and average the results i.e. augmentation techniques applied on test data as well.

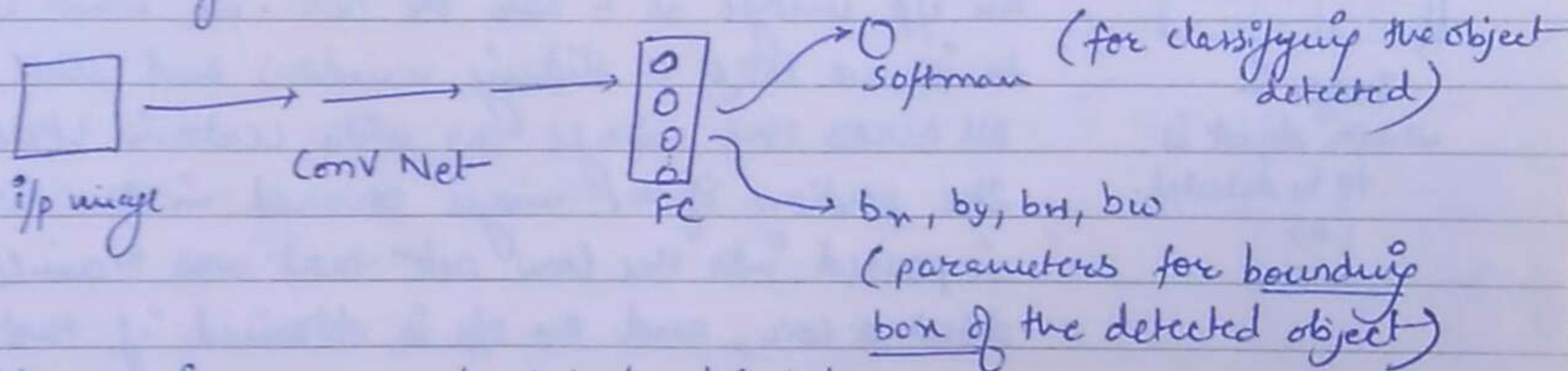
these techniques improve accuracy a little bit but use a lot of memory especially ensembling as it uses several networks. Hence, these techniques are used for winning competitions but not for product (deployment) purposes.

⇒ Localization and Detection:



usually have 1 big object in the middle that needs to be recognized & localized.

there can be multiple objects



e.g. for an image τ one object to be detected:

output label =

P_c	}	Probability that there is an object. (0 or 1)
b_n		
b_y		
b_w		
b_h	}	bounding box parameters if $P_c = 1$
c_1		
c_2		
c_3		

probability of belonging to a class of object if $P_c = 1$, provided object can be either a car, bike or cycle.

if $P_c = 0$, then rest i.e. $b_n, b_y, b_w, b_h, c_1, c_2, c_3$ are don't cares (?).



Landmark detect { helpful in detecting face emotions }.

(i.e. detect) of important points in an image, now the o/p layer will have the coordinates of these important landmarks in the image as well) along with the o/p unit telling if it's a face or not.

or in snapchat, etc, or in pose detection as well.

↓
like suppose 32 landmark points are defined which when detected determine the pose of the person.

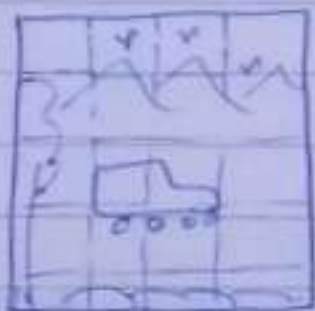


Image in which object is to be detected.
(a)

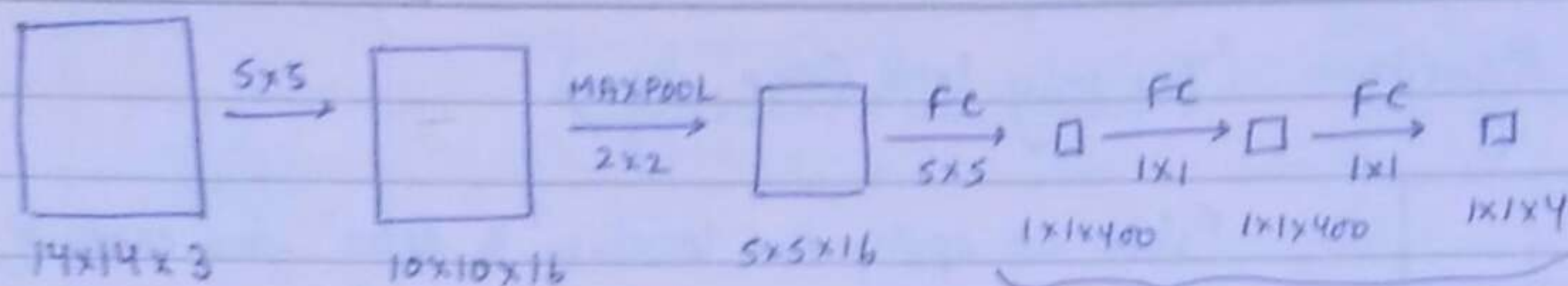
Object detect using sliding window detection.

A conv net is trained suppose for detecting if an i/p image is a car or not. so, what we do is we take a sliding window and slide it all across the image (a) with certain stride. The portion of the image covered in the window is passed into the conv net that was trained to detect a car, and an o/p is obtained if that portion of the image contained a car or not. This process is repeated with the window size in a hope that there will be some window that will bound the car + not in (a) and output 1 i.e. car + not will be obtained in the conv net on passing that window as i/p to it.

Drawback

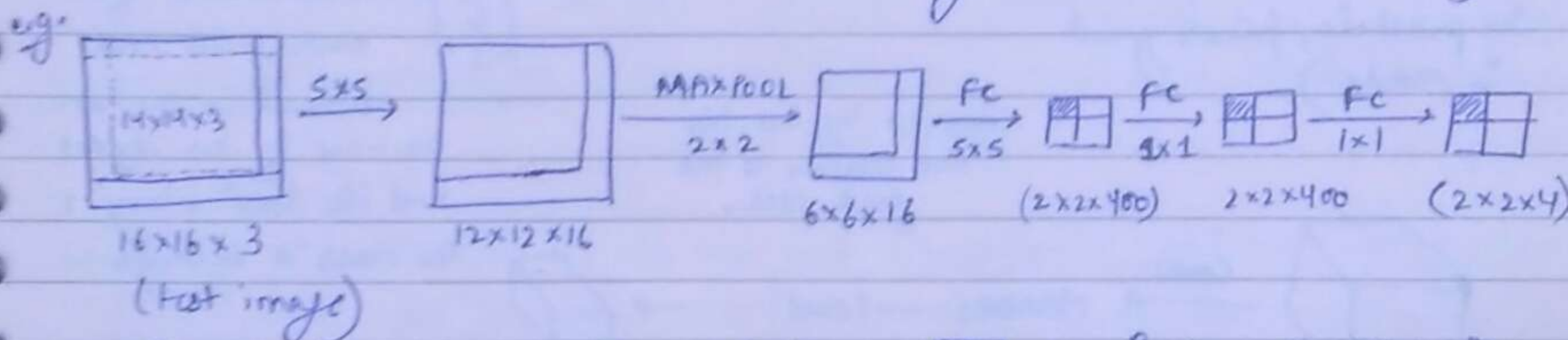
of sliding window detect : computation cost bcoz if fine strides are not used, we end up not being able to localize the objects that accurately within the image.

→ To reduce the computaⁿ cost of sliding window detecⁿ,
convolutional implementation of sliding windows is done.

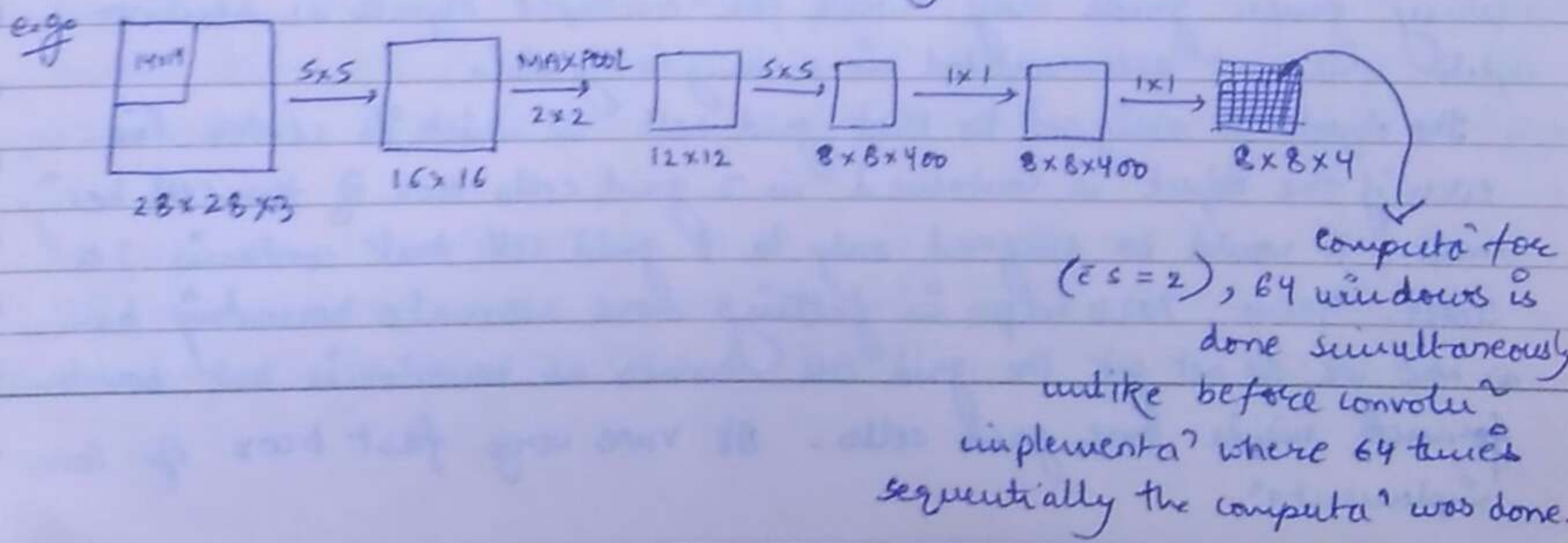


→ Convolutional implementⁿ of fully connected layer

In sliding window detecⁿ, lot of computaⁿ is repetitive, so convolutional implementaⁿ allows to share the common computaⁿ thus reducing the computaⁿ cost. e.g.

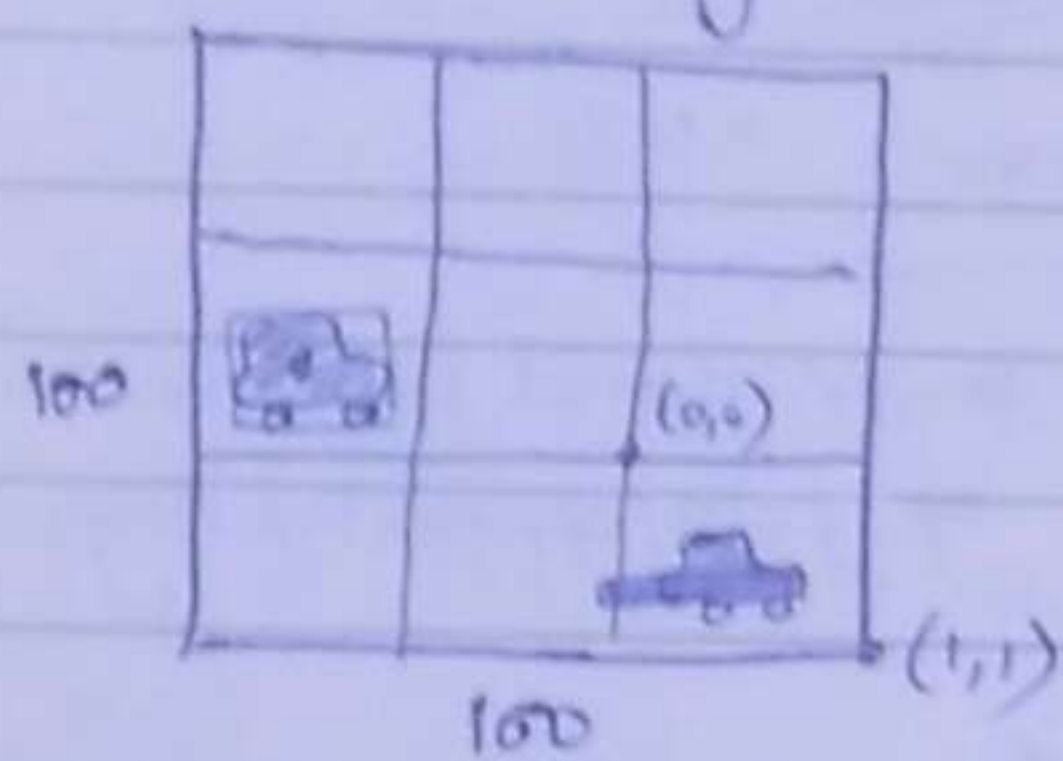


So, in the above process, the last layer $2 \times 2 \times 4$ gives the classificaⁿ result for 4 filters simultaneously which have a stride of 2. This save 4 times windows computaⁿ cost as the common computaⁿ of the 4 windows is done simultaneously.



Drawback of this implementation is that we don't get exact boundary boxes, approx. boundaries are obtained bcoz of using a fixed stride in the windows.

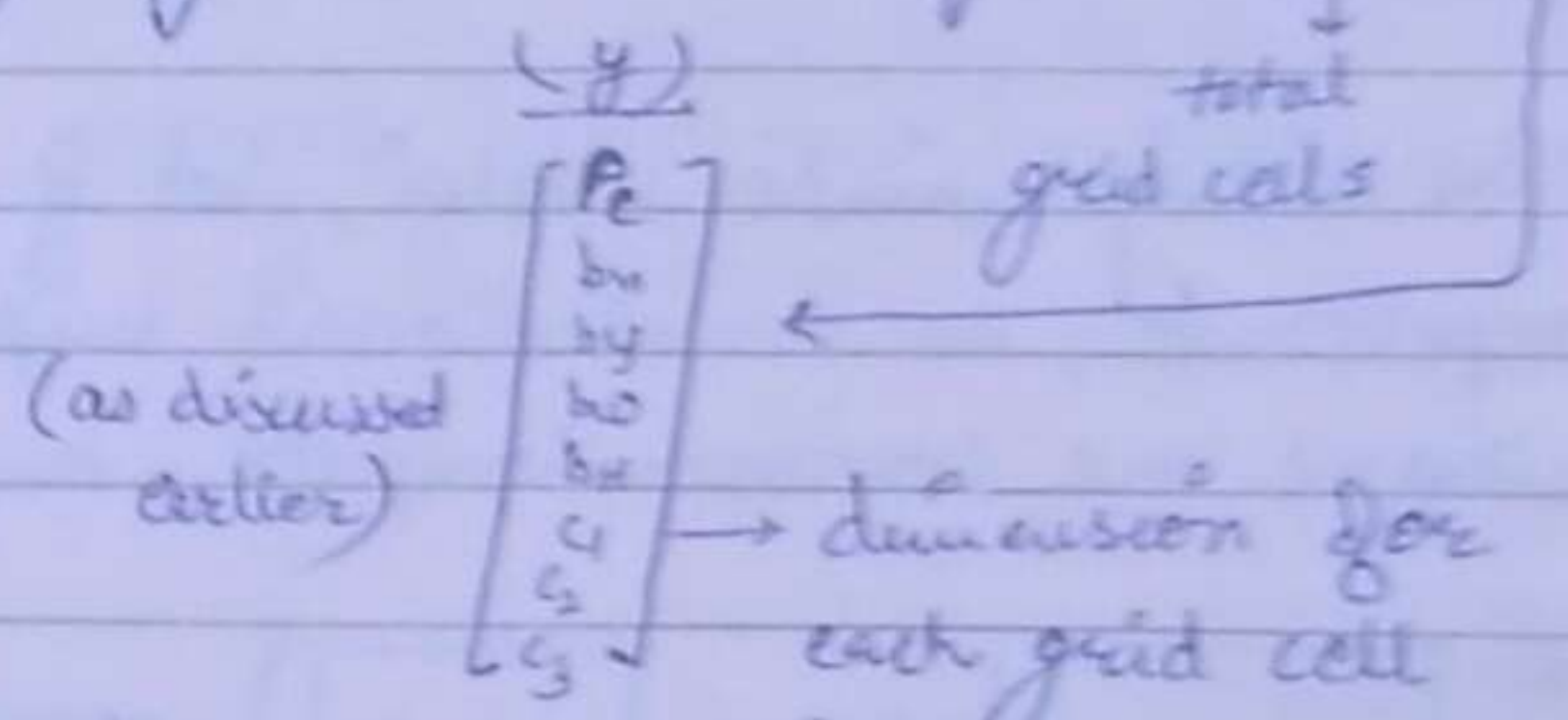
Solu: YOLO Algorithm (You only look Once Algo)



(i/p image)

(In practice, finer grid is made.)

First we apply the localizer & detector for each of the grid cell giving an output y i.e. $3 \times 3 \times 8$.



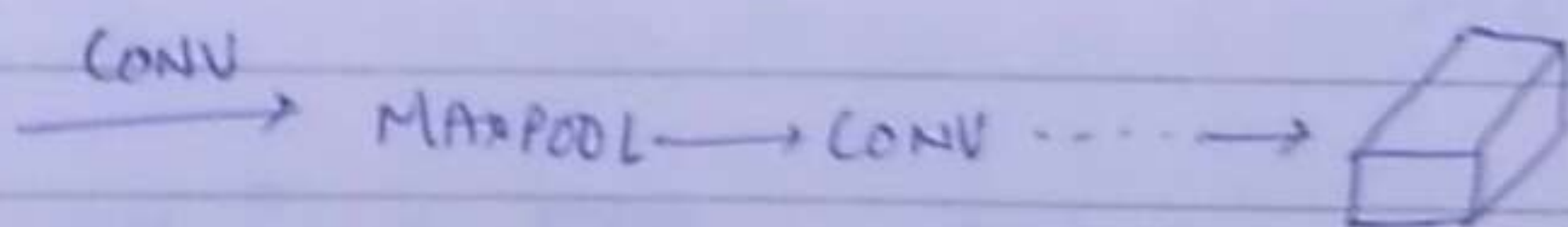
Note b_x, b_y, b_w, b_h are relative to the grid cell.

indicating the true or -ve of an object and its loc along x the class it belongs to.



$100 \times 100 \times 3$

(i/p image)



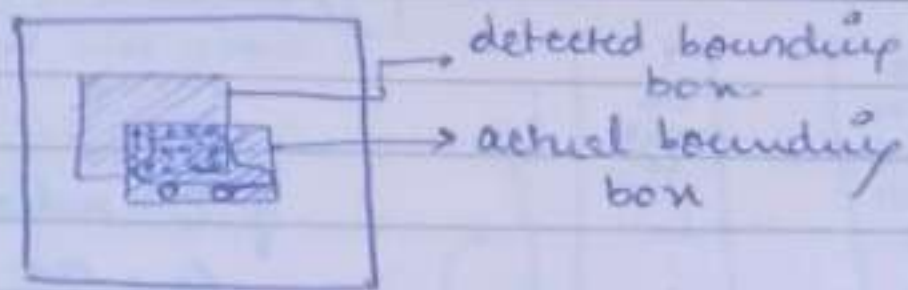
$(3 \times 3 \times 8)$

output (y)

This algo works fine as long as each grid has just one object in it. Making finer grids may work for multiple objects as now no 2 objects will get accommodated in a single grid.

Note The object is assigned to that grid cell in which its center lies. So, even if the object is contained in 2 grid cells bcoz of the cell being small, it would be assigned only to 1 grid cell that contains its center. Hence, YOLO helps in getting more accurate bounding boxes as now we do not get the grid cell boxes as boundaries but boundaries formed inside these grid cells. It runs very fast bcoz of conv implementation.

→ Intersect over union {to evaluate the object detect algorithm}
(IoU function)



3/p image.

$$IoU = \frac{\text{Size of } \boxed{\text{dotted}} \text{ (intersect area)}}{\text{Size of } \boxed{\text{solid}} \text{ (union area)}}$$

If $IoU \geq 0.5$ (o/p is correct)

More the IoU, better is the bounding box predicⁿ, i.e. the object is correctly localized if $IoU = 1$ and approx.

correct if $IoU \geq 0.5$.

→ Non-max suppression {to make sure that our algo detects each object only once.}

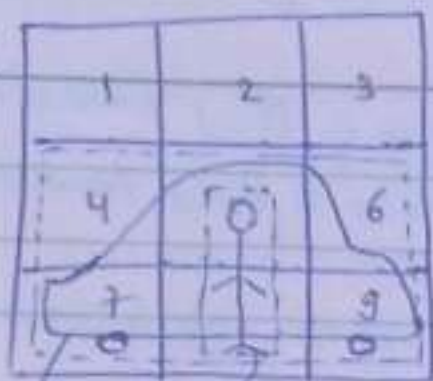


Though the car has just 1 midpoint, but we run the algo for each grid cell and becoz every cell will consider its object centre as the centre of the object, car will be detected multiple times.

Non max Suppression removes the extra detections of an object using the probability p_c . The output \hat{y} with highest p_c i.e. the max probability that it contains an object is kept and the rest of the boxes with low p_c or higher IoU with the box having higher p_c are removed. Hence the name, i.e. Suppressing the ones with non-max p_c .

To apply non-max suppression on an image with multiple class objects, the non-max suppression is run as many times as the no. of classes, i.e. individually for each class of object.

→ Anchor boxes {to enable a grid cell to detect multiple objects}



car pedestrian

(mid point of both of them lie in the same grid cell)

lets define 2 anchor boxes $\boxed{1}$, $\boxed{2}$. even more can be defined

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} p_c \\ b_n \\ b_w \\ b_h \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ p_c \\ b_n \\ b_y \\ b_h \\ b_w \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ b_n \\ b_y \\ b_h \\ b_w \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ b_n \\ b_y \\ b_h \\ b_w \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(for grid cells)

if $c_1 = \text{pedestrian}$
 $c_2 = \text{car}$

corresponds to anchor box 1.

corresponds to anchor box 2

we see that bounding box of pedestrian resembles anchor box 1 so we assign the pedestrian, $\boxed{1}$ and the bounding box of car is similarly assigned $\boxed{2}$.

So, the output comes out as $(3 \times 3 \times 16)$ for anchor box algorithm, as we have 3×3 grid cells and 2 anchor boxes and 8 outputs corresponding to each anchor box where $8 = 5 + (\# \text{ classes})$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

if the grid cell has only a car and no pedestrian and the car has bounding box similar to anchor 2.

Drawbacks: i) three objects in a grid cell but only 2 anchor boxes available.
ii) both objects resemble the same anchor box.

the above 2 condiⁿ can't be handled by the above method of anchor boxes.

Note Anchor box shapes are defined in such a way that a particular object if present in any shape can be detected by the anchor box. This helps algorithms specialize in classifying different object on basis of their shapes and sizes.

R-CNN: Regions \pm CNN that is the regions that make sense to run CNN on. Only those regions in an image which have some interesting object to be detected are selected to run CNN on or window on.

Segmentation algorithm helps finding such regions (blobs) and run CNN on just those blobs, thus reducing the computaⁿ cost significantly.

\Rightarrow Face Recognition:

Face verification: Input image, name/ID

Output whether the i/p image is that of the claimed person.

Face recognition: Input image and identify the name of the person if it exists in the database.

One shot learning: Learning from just one example to recognize the person again, this learning is generally required in face recogniⁿ systems where we have just 1 picture of our employee available to train the network. This is in contrast to our DNN which we have studied so far and which needs lot of training data to learn the features.

So, for one shot learning, we use a 'similarity function'. Neural network learns the f^w

$$d(\text{img}_1, \text{img}_2) = \text{degree of difference b/w images}$$

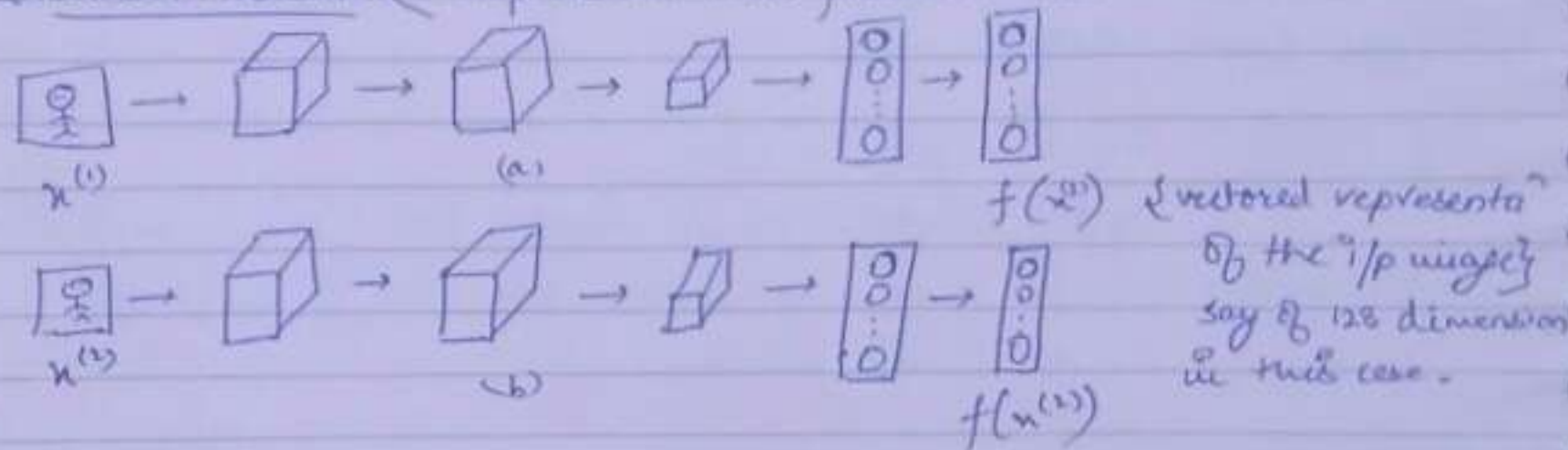
$\begin{cases} d(\text{img}_1, \text{img}_2) \leq \tau & \text{"Same person"} \\ d(\text{img}_1, \text{img}_2) > \tau & \text{"different person"} \end{cases}$ } Image verification.

τ is a hyperparameter.

for face recogniⁿ the same formula is applied with every image present in the database. If the i/p image matches some image in the database $d(\text{img}_1, \text{img}_2)$ for it is quite low.

So, if any new person joins the team, simply a new image can be added to the database and 'd' remains the same.

Siamese Network help learn this function 'd'.



$$\text{Now, } d(x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}) = \|f(x^{(1)}) - f(x^{(2)})\|_2^2$$

* Network (a) and (b) are the same with same parameters learnt such that if $x^{(i)}$ and $x^{(j)}$ are the same person, then $d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})$ is small, and " " " " " different " " " " " large.

→ Triplet loss function: This aims at tuning the network parameters such that encoding of the images of same person is close enough and encoding of images of different persons is farther enough. As, in this we deal with 3 images, it is called so.

A

P

A

N

Image of
person A

Another image
of person A

Image of
person A

Another
image but
not of person A

Now, triple fn wants : $d(A, P) \leq d(A, N)$

$$\|f(A) - f(P)\|^2 \leq \|f(A) - f(N)\|^2$$

(Modified) $\Rightarrow \|f(A) - f(P)\|^2 - \|f(A) - f(N)\|^2 + \alpha \leq 0$

↳ margin to avoid

NN from giving trivial
soln i.e. encoding all
images as zero vector or
as same vectors.

Note this α is a hyperparameter
which actually pushes AP pair
and AN pair further away from
each other.

$\therefore L(A, P, N) = \max(d(A, P) - d(A, N) + \alpha, 0)$
(loss on a single
triplet)

$J = \sum_{i=1}^m L(A^{(i)}, P^{(i)}, N^{(i)})$
Overall cost
fn for NN

{ where m is the no. of triplets
for training purpose. }

If we have 10k images of
1k people, then triplets
APN need to be formed for train
dataset.

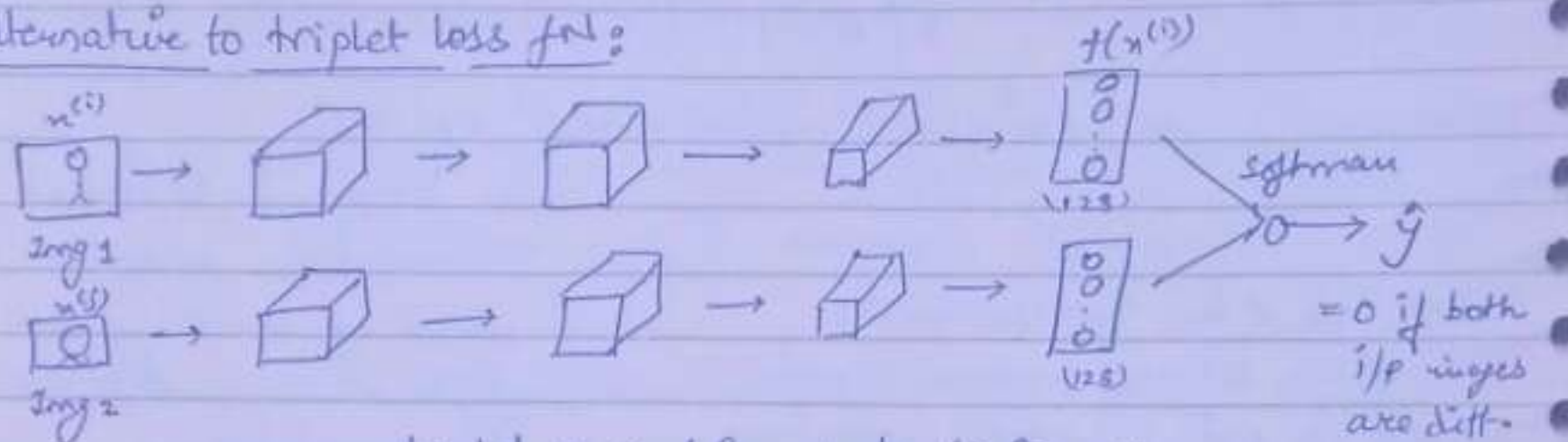
Note →

Hence, a good train data is needed to train the NN for one shot
learning. Once the hyperparameters are properly tuned to encode
an image, one shot learning is possible.

Triplets that are 'hard' to train on are chosen. Bcoz if triplets
are chosen randomly, there is higher probability of $L(A, P, N)$ to
be satisfied. Such triplets are chosen where $d(A, P) \approx d(A, N)$ so

that the network tries hard to learn the hyperparameters so as to meet the constraints i.e. $d(A, P) + \alpha \leq d(A, N)$. In case of hard triplets only the gradient descent would learn something bcoz otherwise in case of random triplets, the network would get it right everytime and hence not learn anything.

Alternative to triplet loss fnl:



treated as a binary classification problem

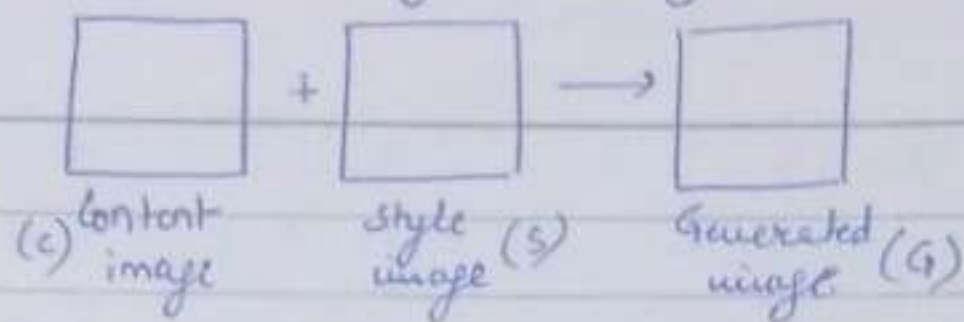
The 128 features are fed into the logistic regression unit i.e. softmax layer

$$\text{and } \hat{y} = \sigma \left(\sum_{k=1}^{128} w_k \left(\underbrace{f(x^{(1)})_k - f(x^{(2)})_k}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{there can be} \\ \text{other variations} \\ \text{to this to compute} \\ \text{the difference b/w} \\ \text{the two f's.}}} \right) + b \right)$$

parameters as used in any logistic regression.

Note ↓
So, in this approach the training set is not a triple but a pair of images where the target label is 1 if the pair has images of same person and 0 if the pair has images of diff person.

⇒ Neural Style Transfer:



Going deeper in NN, more and more complex features are detected by the hidden units. Starting with lines and edges, going to detecting shapes and so on.

- for generating a Neural style transfer image, a cost fn is defined:

$$J(G) = \lambda J_{\text{content}}(C, G) + \beta J_{\text{style}}(S, G)$$

cost fn in generating G.

measures how similar is the content of generated image to the content of the content image C.

measures how similar is the style of the image G to the style of the image S.

steps involved:

- Initialize G randomly.
- Use Gradient descent to minimize $J(G)$.

$$G = G - \frac{\partial}{\partial G} J(G)$$

Note $J_{\text{content}}(C, G) = \|a^{[L]}(C) - a^{[L]}(G)\|^2$

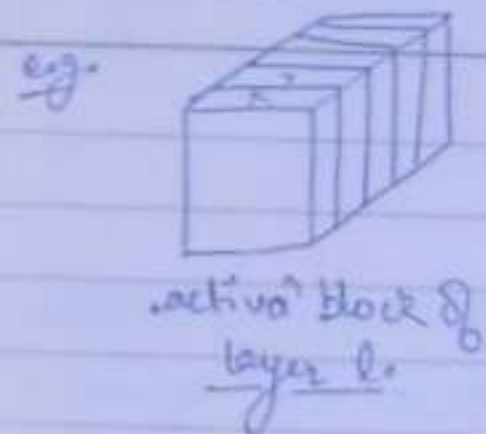
↓ ↓

activaⁿ of L^{th} hidden layer for image C. activaⁿ of L^{th} hidden layer for image G.

{ L is a middle layer not too shallow, not too deep in the Conv Net. (which is pretrained to generate features of the i/p image) }

middle layer is taken so that neither too simple nor too complex features are extracted from the image.

If layer l 's activation is used to measure "style", then style is defined as correlation between activations across channels.



If correlaⁿ b/w R and Y channel is calculated, it means calculating the probability that whatever part of the image has features detected by Y also has features which are detected by channel R . So, it is basically finding out what features tend to occur together and what features are rarely seen together in different parts of an image.

So, let $a_{i,j,k}^{[l]}$ = activation at (i,j,k) . $G^{[l]}$ is $n_c^{[l]} \times n_c^{[l]}$
 ↓
 style matrix of hidden layer l having n_c channels. to measure the correlaⁿ b/w each pair of channel.

$$G_{kk'}^{[l]} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_H^{[l]}} \sum_{j=1}^{n_W^{[l]}} a_{ijk}^{[l]} a_{ijk'}^{[l]}$$

where k and $k' \in \{1, 2, \dots, n_c\}$

calculate for every k and k' to find $G^{[l]}$ or the style matrix.

Note If the two channels k and k' are correlated $G_{kk'}$ will be large otherwise if " " " " " uncorrelated " " " small.

$$J_{\text{style}}^{[l]}(S, G) = \frac{1}{2} \| G^{[l]}(S) - G^{[l]}(G) \|^2$$

style matrix of image S . style matrix of generated image G .

$$J_{\text{style}}^{[l]}(S, G) = \sum_k \sum_{k'} (G_{kk'}^{[l]}(S) - G_{kk'}^{[l]}(G))^2$$

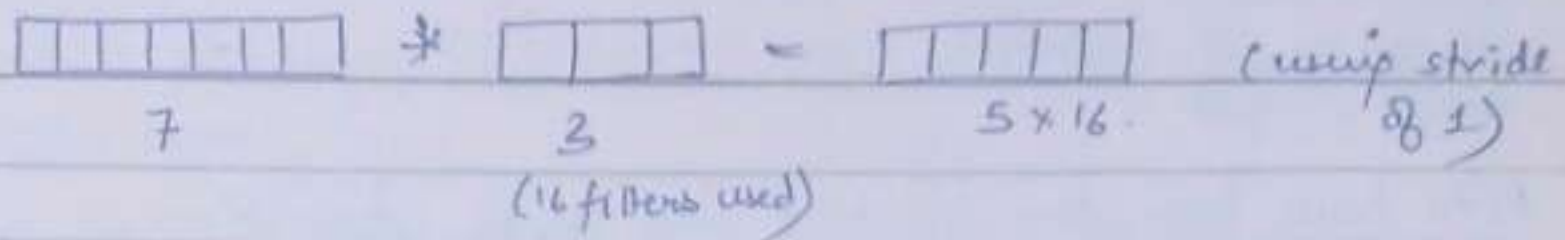
$$J_{\text{style}}(S, G) = \sum_l \lambda^{[l]} J_{\text{style}}^{[l]}(S, G)$$

(hyperparameter)

{taking into account both low level & high level feature while calculating correlations}

Note Convolution operation can be performed on 1D, 2D as well as 3D inputs.

e.g. of 1D.



e.g. of 2D.

$$(10 \times 10) \ast (5 \times 5) = (6 \times 6)$$

↓
16 filters used

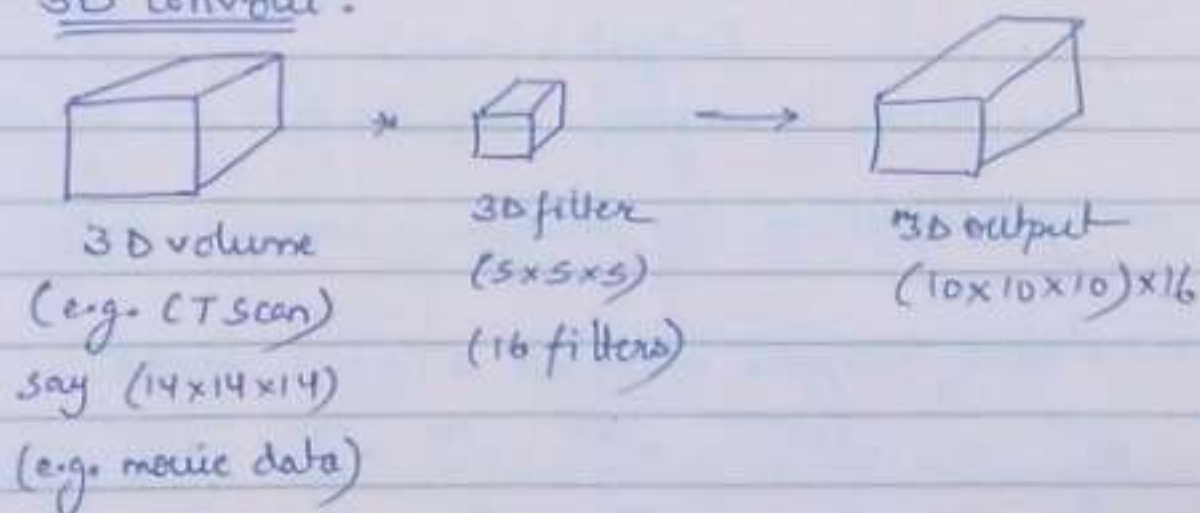
e.g. of 3D.

$$(10 \times 10 \times 16) \ast (5 \times 5 \times 16) = (6 \times 6 \times 32)$$

↓
32 such filters used.

For 1D data, recurrent NN are more used, though CNN can also be applied as seen above.

→ 3D Convolution:



{ Data can also have different no. of channels as we saw in case of 2D. In this e.g. $n_c = 1$ }

Note Activation functions:

Sigmoid	tanh	Relu
$\frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$	$2 \text{sigmoid}(2x) - 1$	$\max(0, x)$
range: (-1, 1)	range: (-1, 1)	range: (0, ∞)
Disadv: vanishing gradient decent	less vanishing GD	non-linear fn, hence no problem like linear fn.

- No vanishing gradient problem
- leaky Relu over dying Relu
- Relu is sparse i.e. not all activations are processed to describe the o/p of network, hence reducing cost, as 50% network yields 0
- bcz of property of Relu.