APL 405: Machine Learning for Mechanics

Lecture 15: Convolutional Neural Network

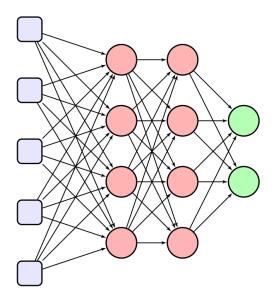
by

Rajdip Nayek

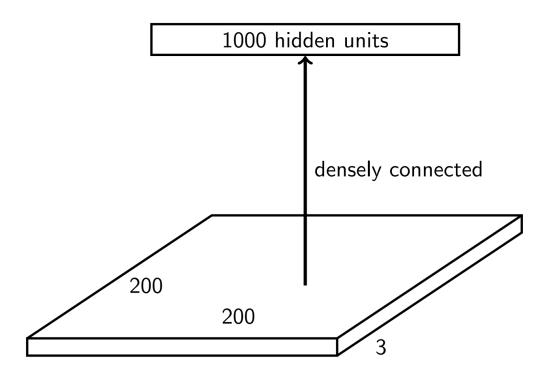
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IIT Delhi

Introduction

We looked at fully connected neural networks which has each unit of previous layer is connected to all other units of the next layer



- Drawbacks of fully connected neural nets:
 - There are a lot of connections. Ex. p units in previous layer, q units in the next layer, then pq connections
 - If we are trying to classify an image, we flatten the 2D image into vectors, which discards the spatial structure/information of the image
- When dealing with images, the nearby pixels are typically related to each other, and we want to exploit this neighbourhood (or local) information to build more efficient neural networks

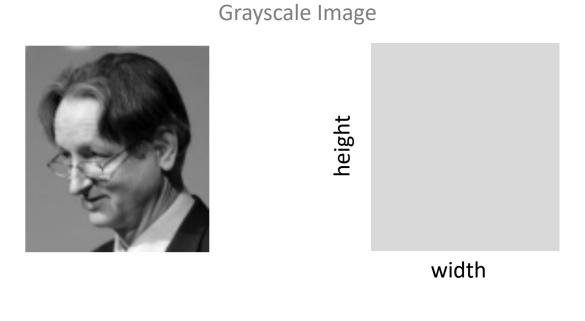


- Suppose we want to train a network (with 1000 FC hidden units) that takes a 200 × 200 colored (RGB) image as input
- What is the problem?
- Too many parameters! (Very complex, more chance of overfitting)

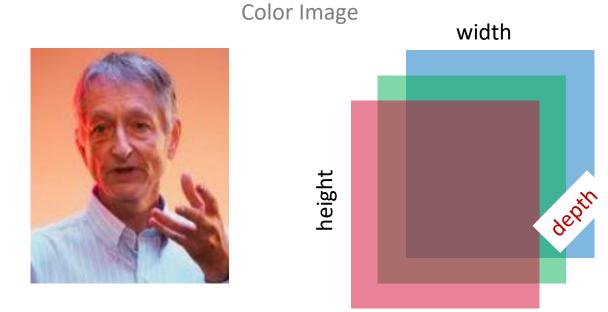
Input size =
$$200 \times 200 \times 3 = 1,20,000$$

Parameters = $1,20,000 \times 1000 = 12 \times 10^7$

Grayscale vs Colored images



- Grayscale images have a single channel (depth = 1)
- Colored images have more than one channel (depth > 1)
- Ex. RGB images has **3 channels**



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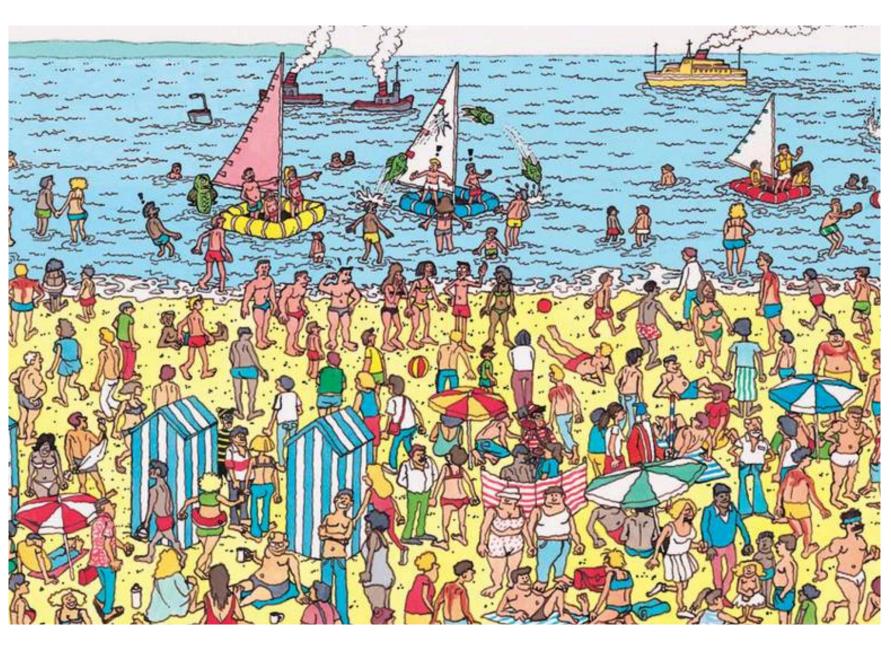
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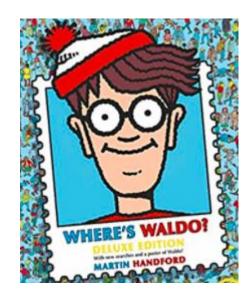


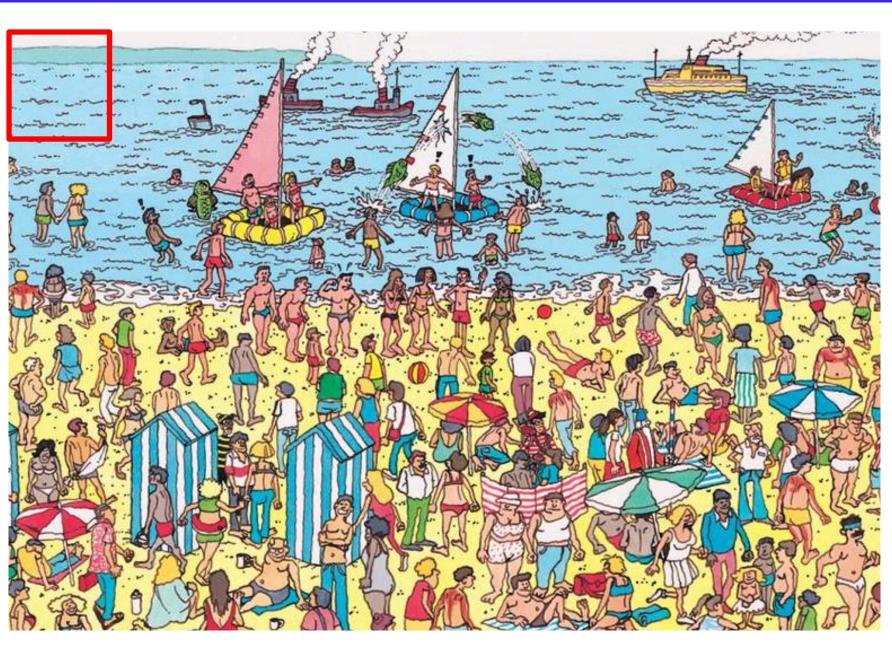


- Too translation sensitive Precise locations of objects in the image matter too much
 - If you translate the objects in the image to different locations, you may have to re-train a fully-connected MLP, else it may fail to classify the outputs correctly
- We can do much better with CNN for images

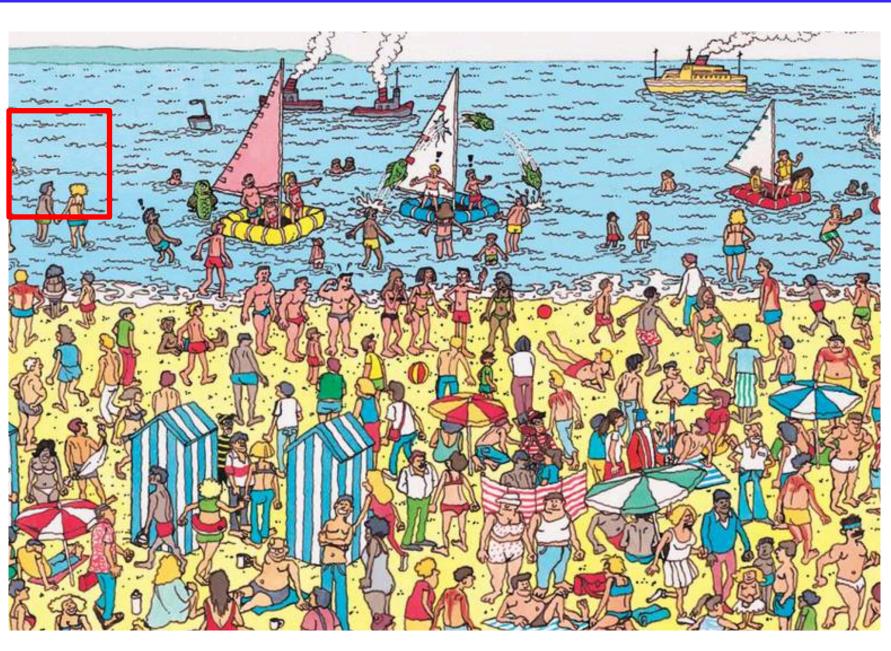


"Where's Waldo?" In the game, Waldo shows up somewhere in some unlikely location. The reader's goal is to locate him

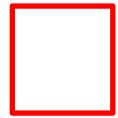


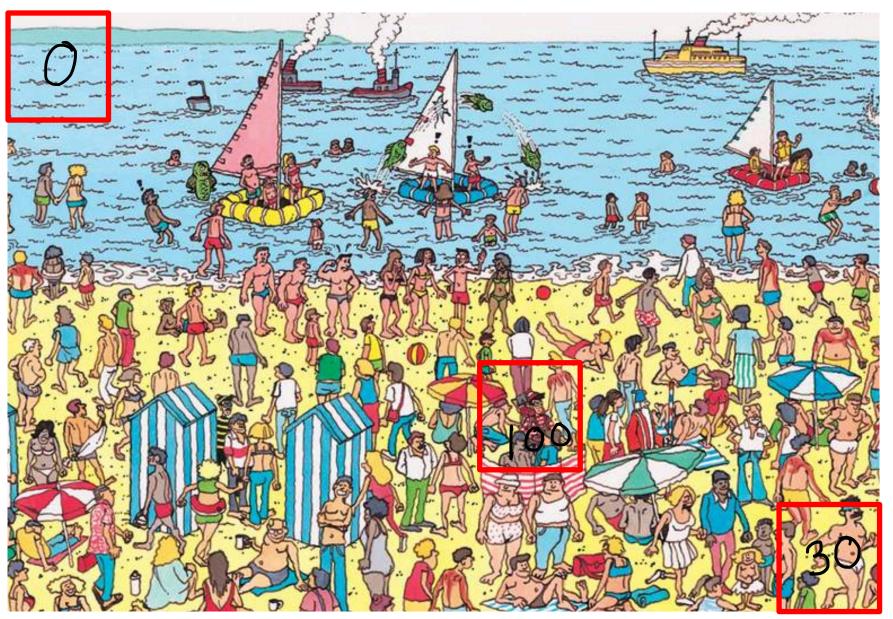


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- We could sweep the image with a Waldo detector that could assign a score to each patch, indicating how likely the patch contains Waldo

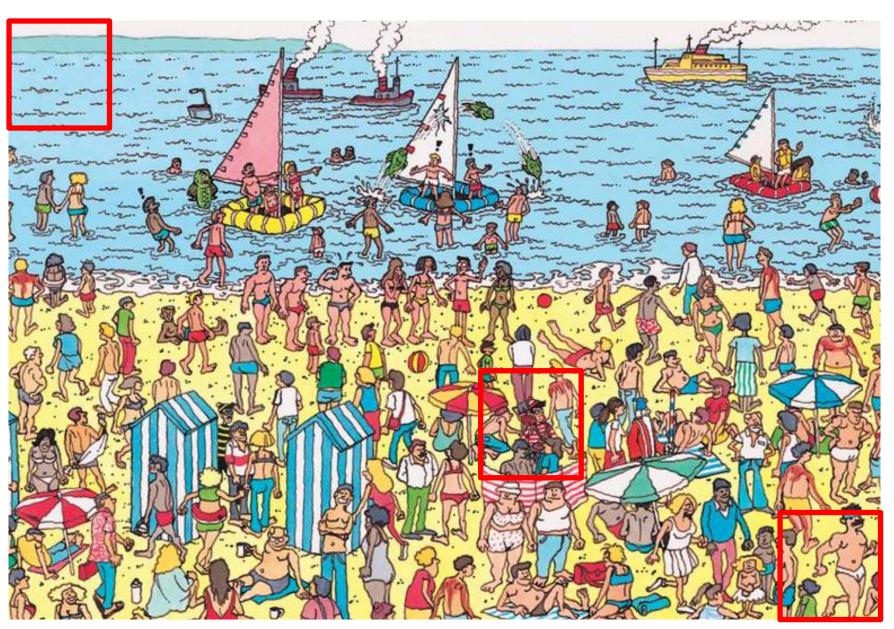


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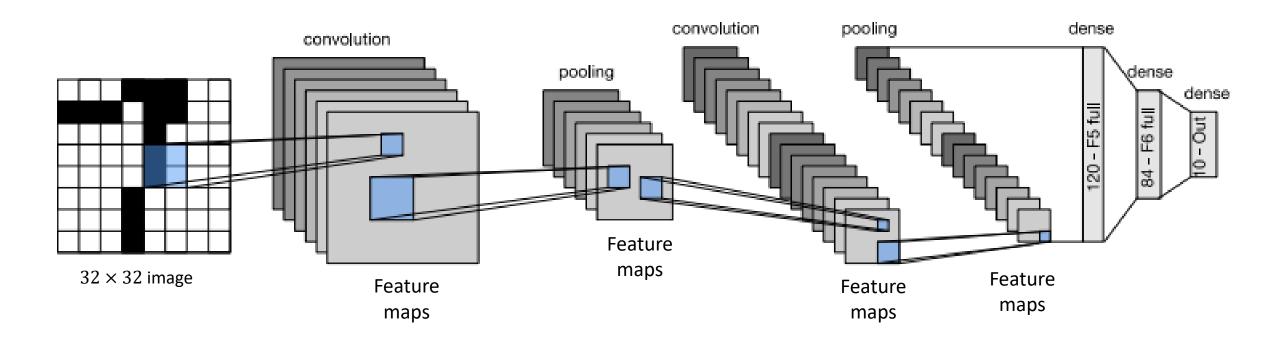




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- We could sweep the image with a Waldo detector that could assign a score to each patch, indicating how likely the patch contains Waldo
- The patch with maximum score is where Waldo should be located
- As this local patch sweeps the entire image, it does not matter where Waldo is located



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- CNNs systematize this idea of translation invariance and localised feature detection,
 via convolutions and max pooling, with much less parameters
- CNNs uses multiple kernels ("Waldo detectors") that detects different features

What is convolution?

- Convolution of two scalar-valued functions w(x) and g(x) is defined as: $s(x) = (w * g)(x) = \int w(x-a) g(a) da$
- Whenever we have discrete objects (arrays), the integral turns into a sum: $s[i] = \sum_{a} w[i-a] g[a]$

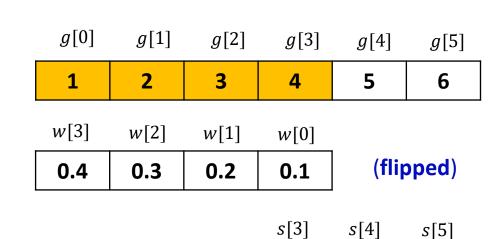
0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	=	?
w[0]	w[1]	w[2]	w[3]		g[0]	g[1]	g[2]	g[3]	g[4]	<i>g</i> [5]		

- The array g is the input
- The array w is called the filter (or kernel)

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- Flip-and-filter
 - Slide the filter over the input and compute windowed dot product



s[5]

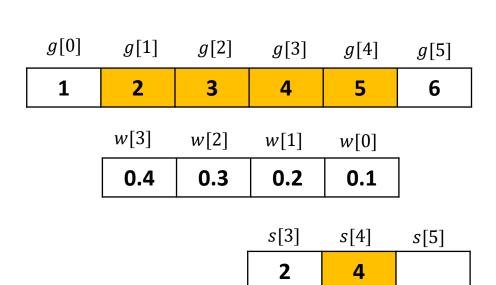
$$s[3] = w[3]g[0] + w[2]g[1] + w[1]g[2] + w[0]g[3]$$

Convolution in 1D

- Convolution of two scalar-valued functions w(x) and g(x) is defined as: $s(x) = (w * g)(x) = \int w(x-a) g(a) da$
- Whenever we have discrete objects (arrays), the integral turns into a sum: $s[i] = \sum_{a} w[i-a] g[a]$

0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	=	?
w[0]	w[1]	w[2]	w[3]		g[0]	g[1]	g[2]	<i>g</i> [3]	g[4]	<i>g</i> [5]		

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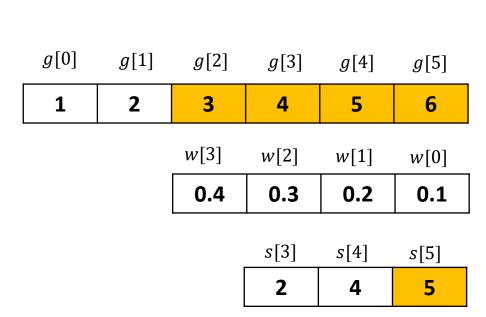


$$s[4] = w[3]g[1] + w[2]g[2] + w[1]g[3] + w[0]g[4]$$

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w[0]	w[1]	w[2]	w[3]		g[0]	g[1]	g[2]	g[3]	g[4]	<i>g</i> [5]		

- The array g is the input
- The array w is called the filter (or kernel)
- Flip-and-filter
 - Slide the filter over the input and compute windowed dot product
- Here the input (and the kernel) is 1D



$$s[5] = w[3]g[2] + w[2]g[3] + w[1]g[4] + w[0]g[5]$$

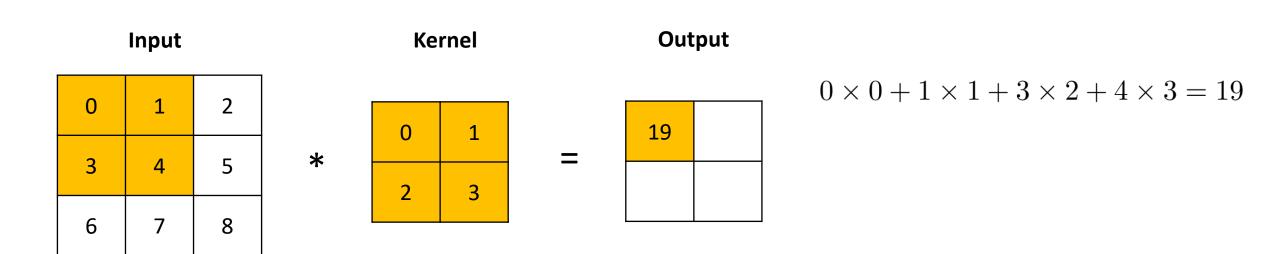
1D Convolution to 2D Convolution

- Convolution is more like doing a flipped cross-correlation operation
- The filters (or kernels) will resemble the weights in CNN (as we will see soon)
- Most machine learning libraries just implement a moving window cross-correlation (and ignore flipping) since it does not matter much whether you learn a flipped set of weights or unflipped set of weights
- How does convolution (think more like cross-correlation) look in 2D?
- Let's now consider 2D grayscale images (has depth of 1) and 2D kernels

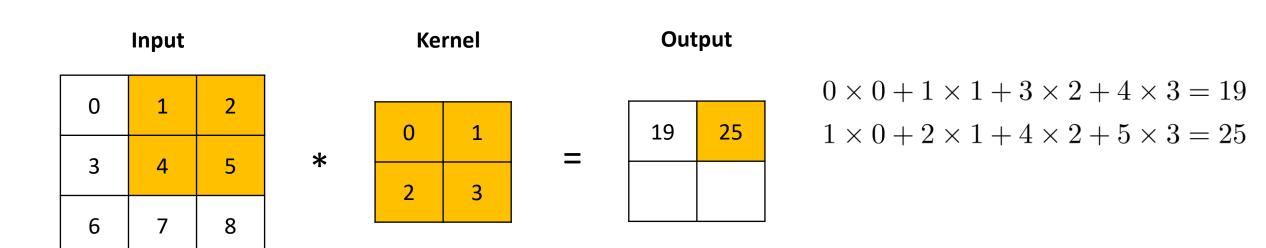
	Input	ut		Kernel					
0	1	L 2		0	1				
3	4	1 5	*			=			
		7 0		2	3				
6	7	7 8							
	3×3	3		2;	×2		2×2		

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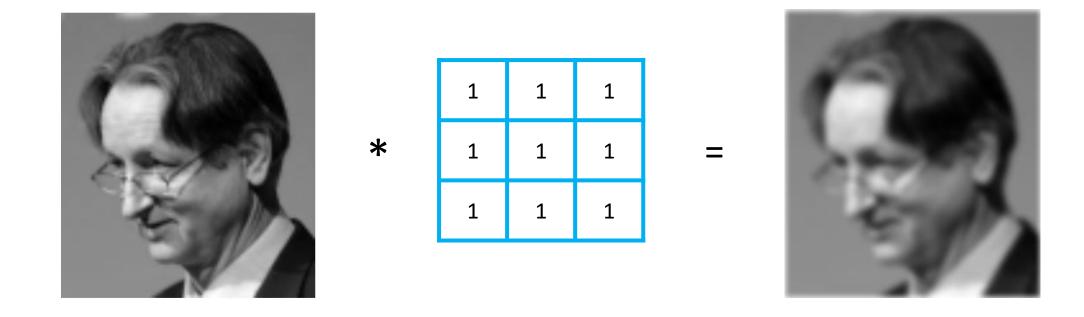
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Input				Ke	rnel		Out	put		
	0	1	2		0	1		19	25	$0 \times 0 + 1 \times 1 + 3 \times 2 + 4 \times 3 = 19$
	3	4	5	*	2	2	=	37	25	$1 \times 0 + 2 \times 1 + 4 \times 2 + 5 \times 3 = 25$ $3 \times 0 + 4 \times 1 + 6 \times 2 + 7 \times 3 = 37$
				1	Z	3		37		

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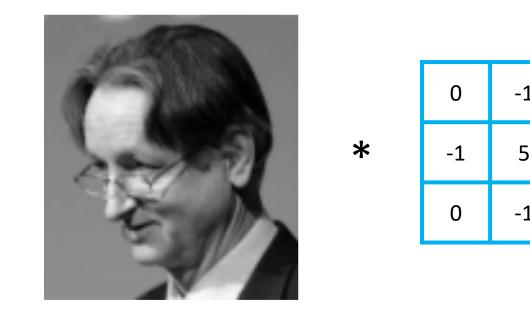
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۰	6	7	8		2	3		37	43	$4 \times 0 + 5 \times 1 + 7 \times 2 + 8 \times 3 = 43$

- Despite the simplicity of the operation, convolution can do some pretty interesting things
- Let's look at some examples of convolutions with grayscale images



Blur kernel: Takes an average of all the neigbouring pixels

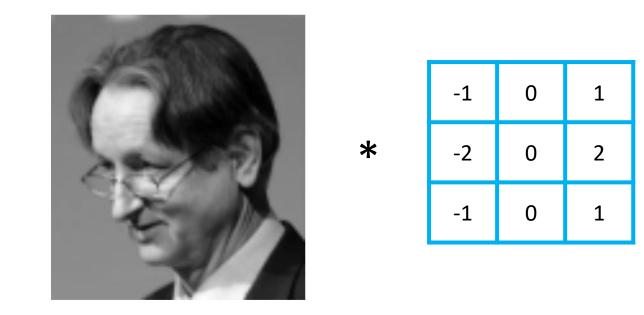
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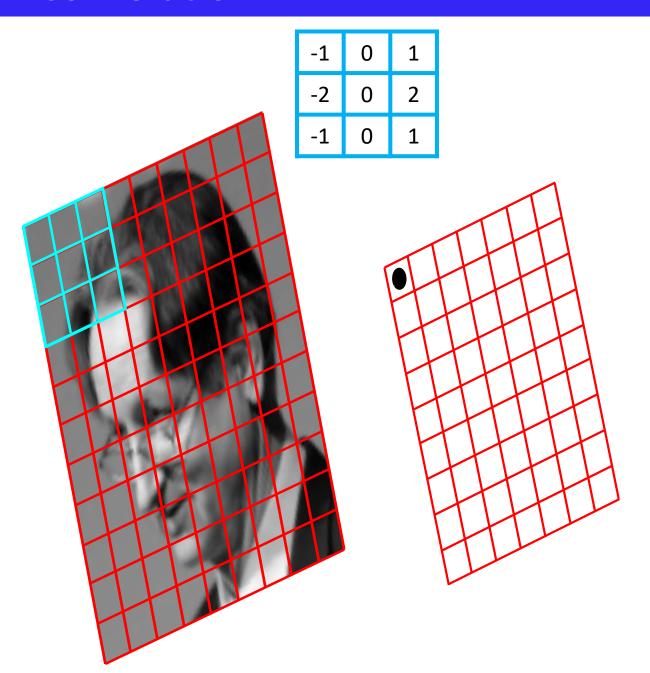
Sharpen kernel: Emphasizes differences in adjacent pixel values

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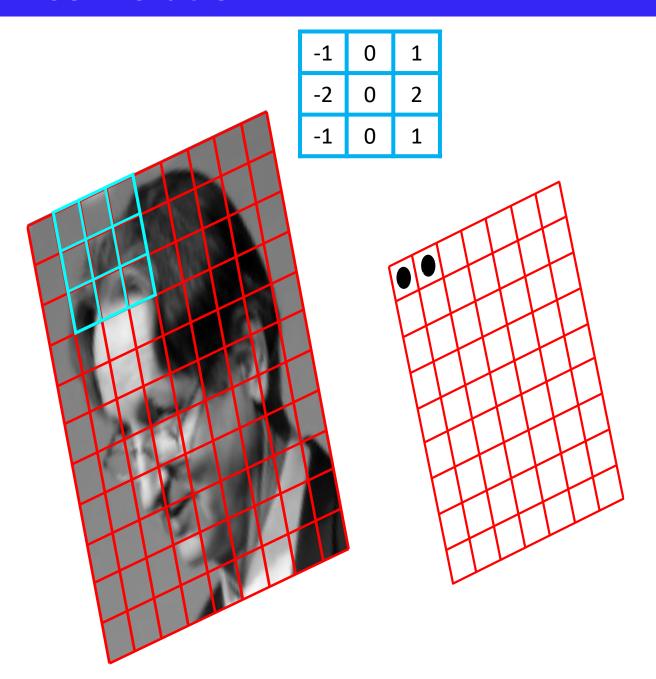




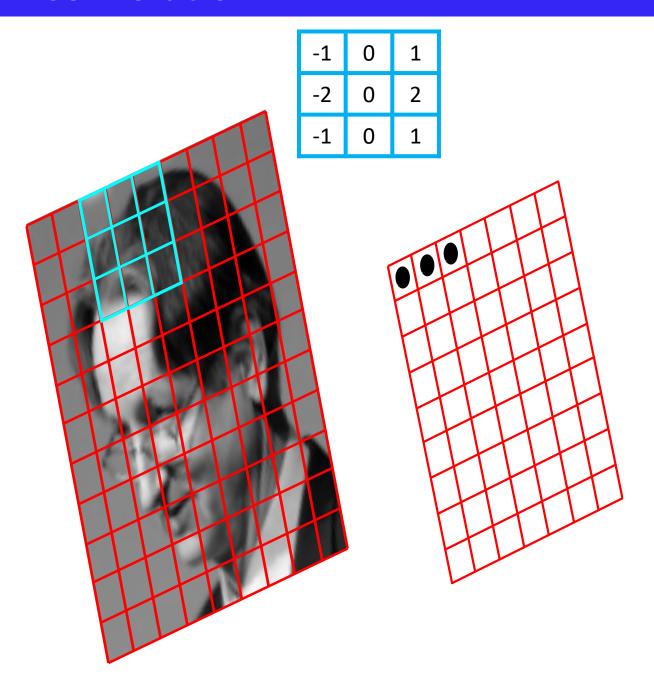
Vertical edge detector: Finds edges from darker to brighter intensities



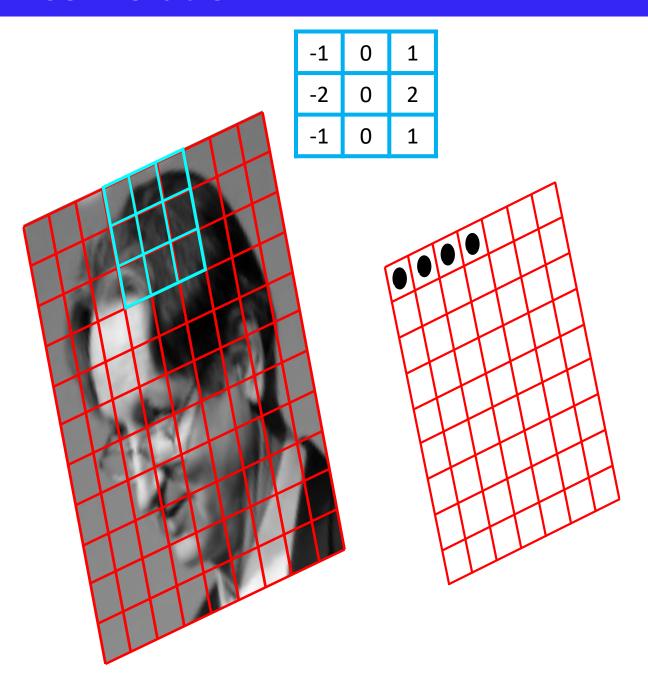
- We just slide the kernel over the input image
- Each time we slide the kernel we get one value in the output



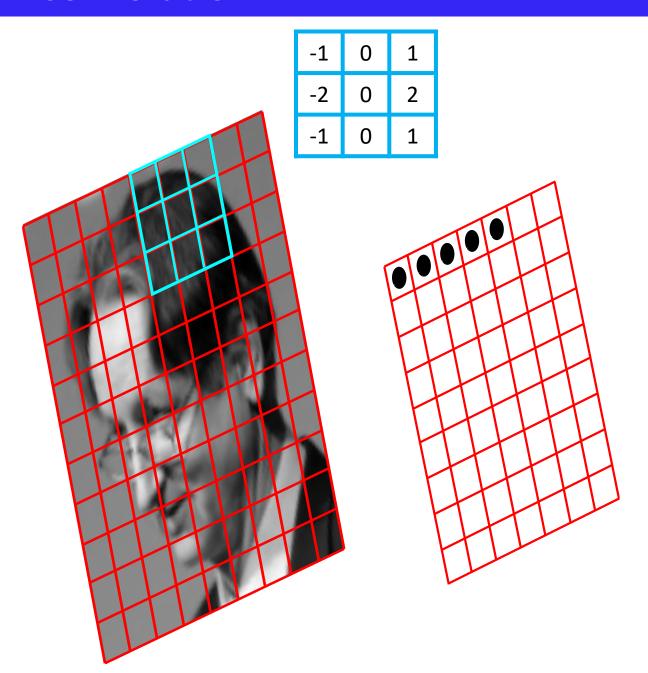
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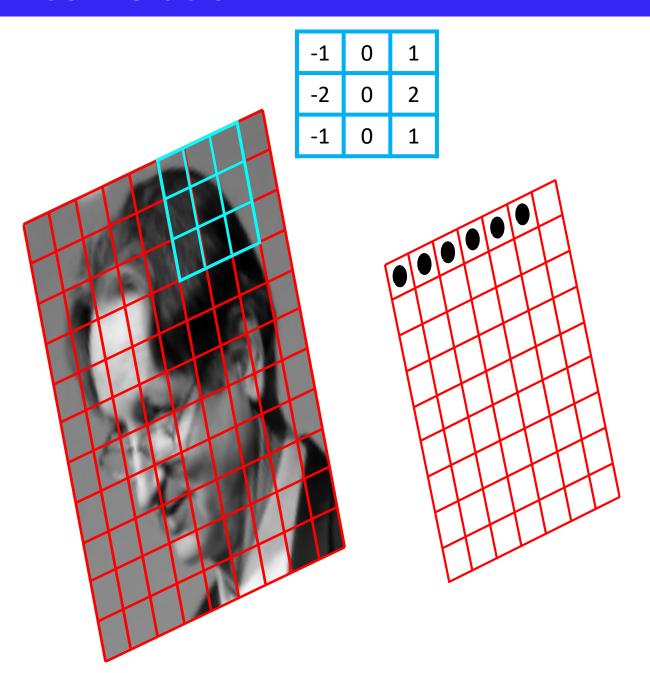
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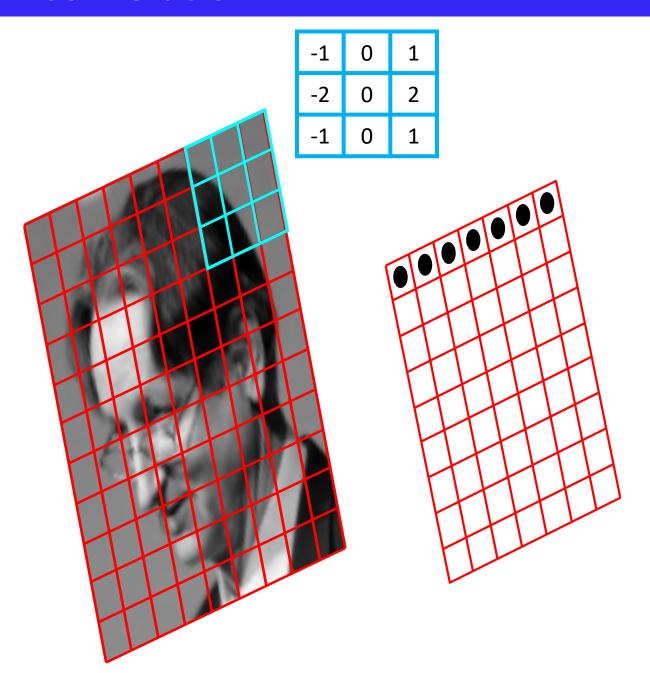
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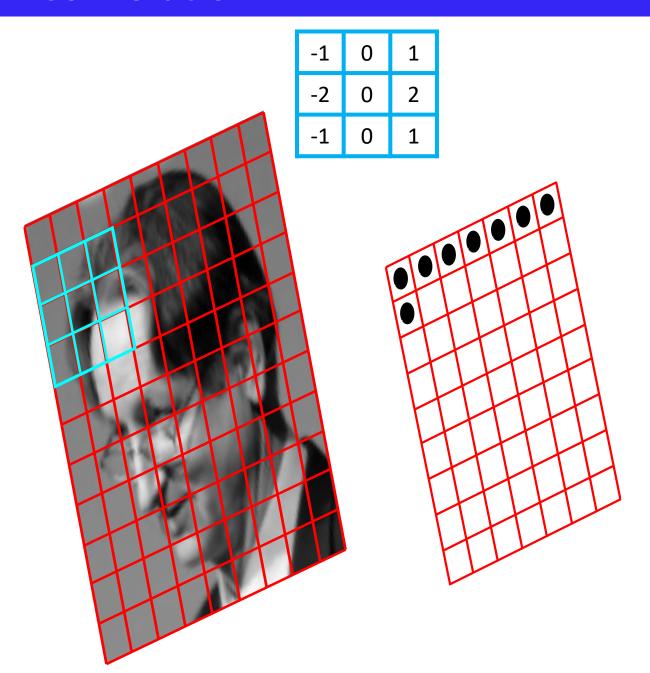
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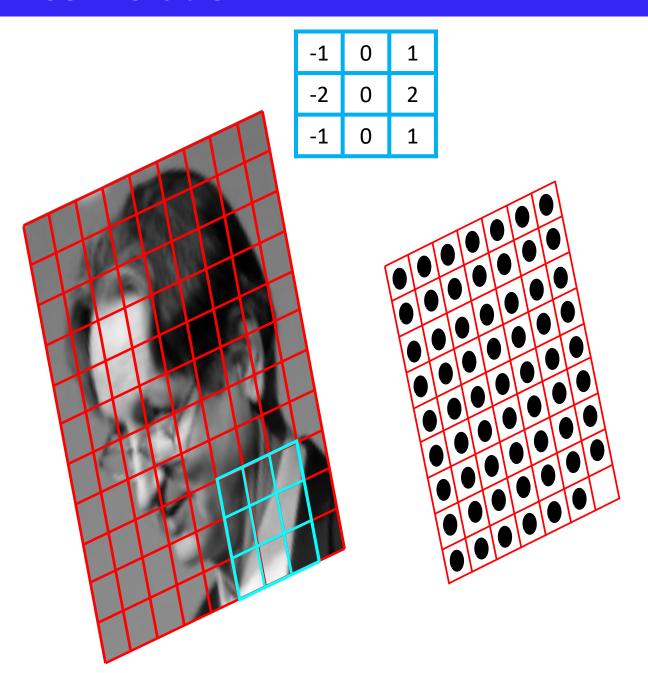
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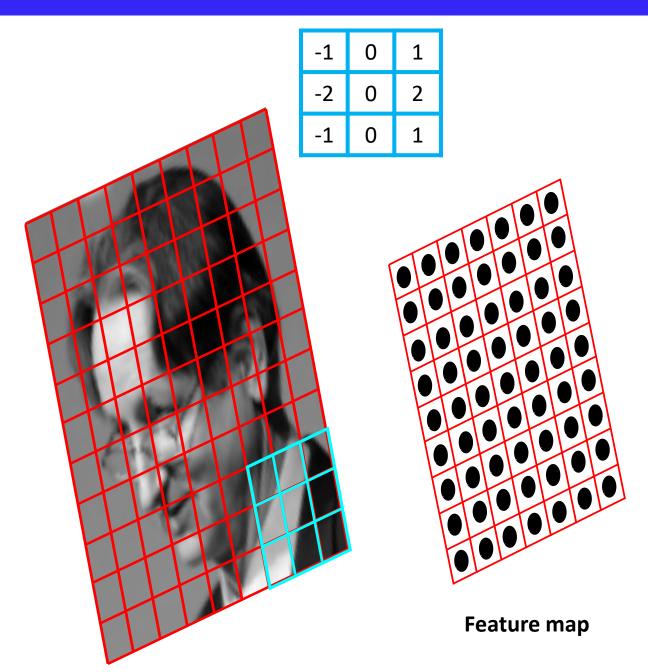
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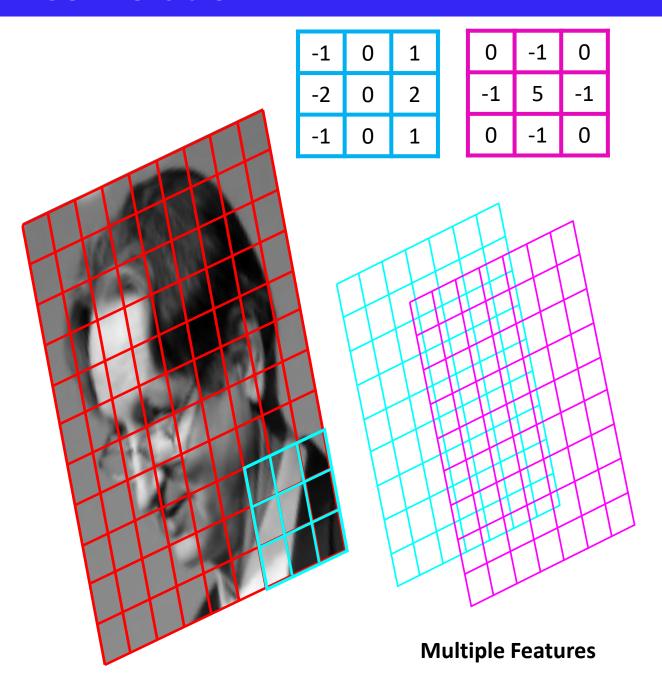
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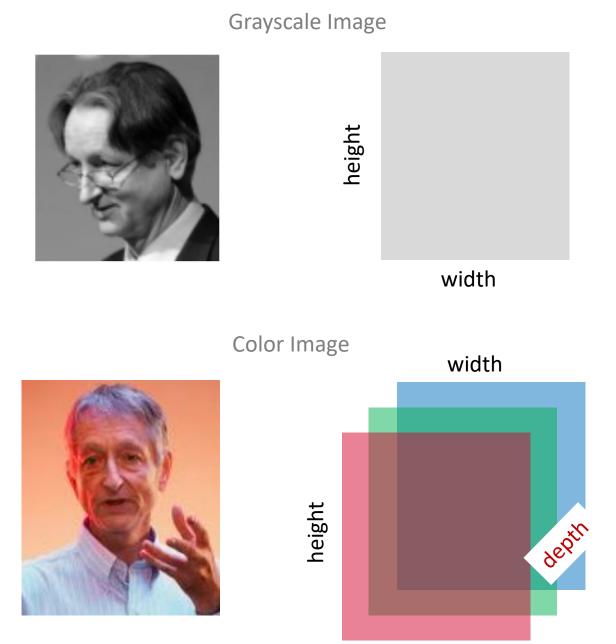


- We just slide the kernel over the input image
- Each time we slide the kernel we get one value in the output
- The resulting output is called a feature map



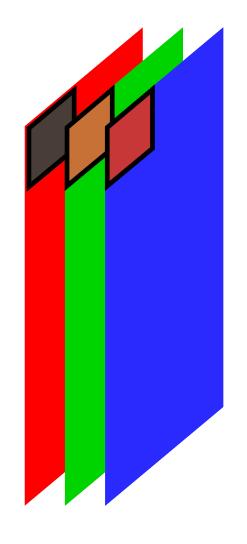
- We just slide the kernel over the input image
- Each time we slide the kernel we get one value in the output
- The resulting output is called a feature map
- We can use multiple filters to get multiple feature maps
- How convolutions will happen for colored images?

What would happen in case of colored images?



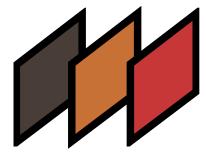
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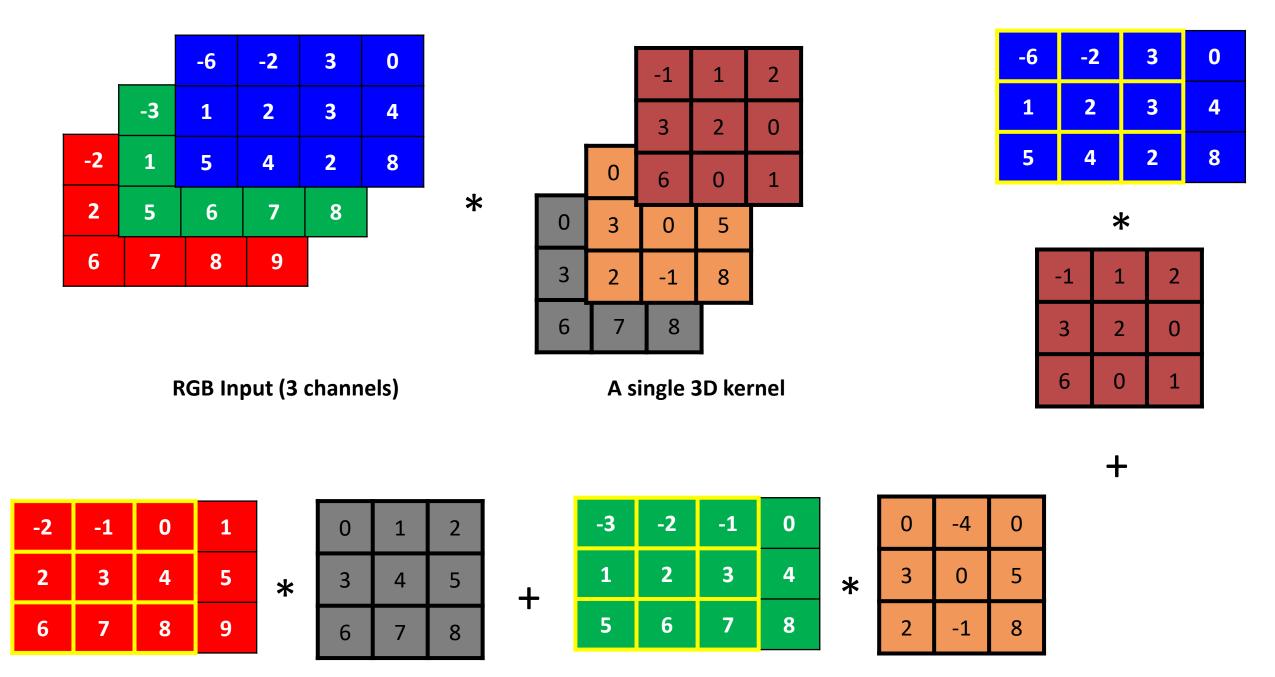
Input

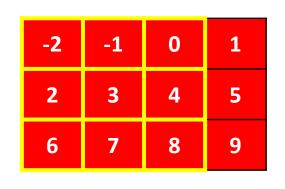
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A single 3D kernel

Let's see how the 3D convolutions happen



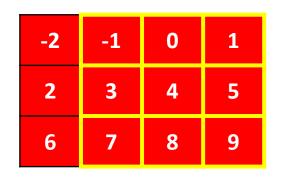


-3	-2	-1	0
1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8

-6	-2	3	0
1	2	3	4
5	4	2	8

+

	*	
0	1	2
3	4	5
6	7	8



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

-6	-2	3	0
1	2	3	4
5	4	2	8

	*	
0	1	2
3	4	5
6	7	8

$$(-1)(0) + (0)(1) + (1)(2)$$

+ $(3)(3) + (4)(4) + (5)(5)$
+ $(7)(6) + (8)(7) + (9)(8)$

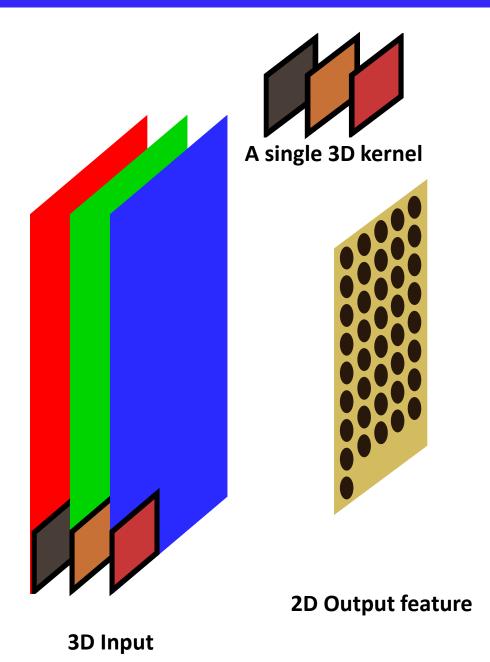
+
$$(-2)(0) + (-1)(-4) + (0)(0)$$

+ $(2)(3) + (3)(0) + (4)(5)$
+ $(6)(2) + (7)(-1) + (8)(8)$

+
$$(-2)(-1) + (3)(1) + (0)(2)$$

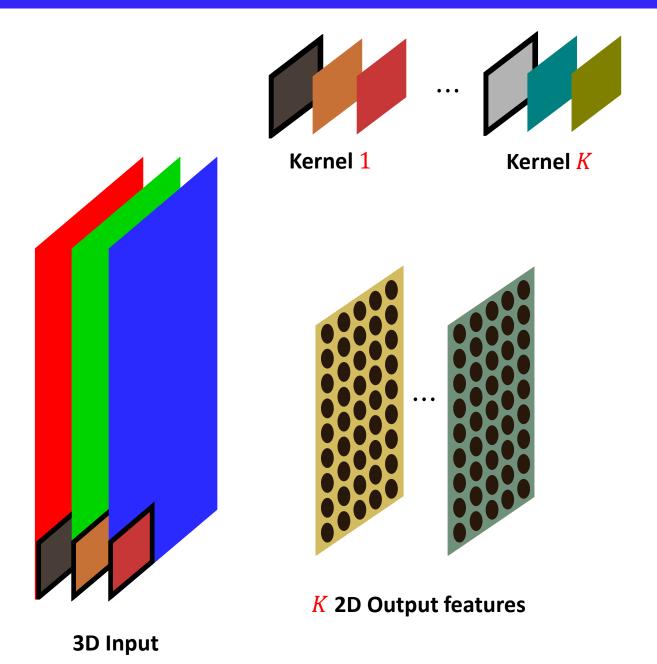
+ $(2)(3) + (3)(2) + (4)(0)$
+ $(4)(6) + (2)(0) + (8)(1)$

What would happen in case of colored images?



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- The kernel moves along the width and height (and not along the depth)
- Therefore, the feature output is 2D!

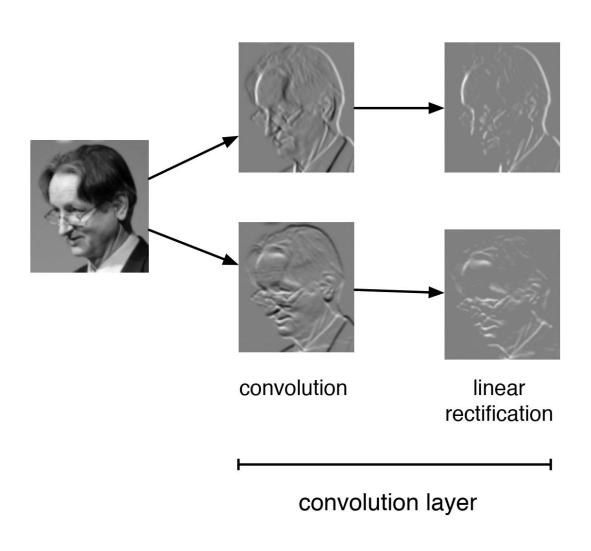
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- Once again, if we apply multiple 3D filters, we will get multiple 2D output features

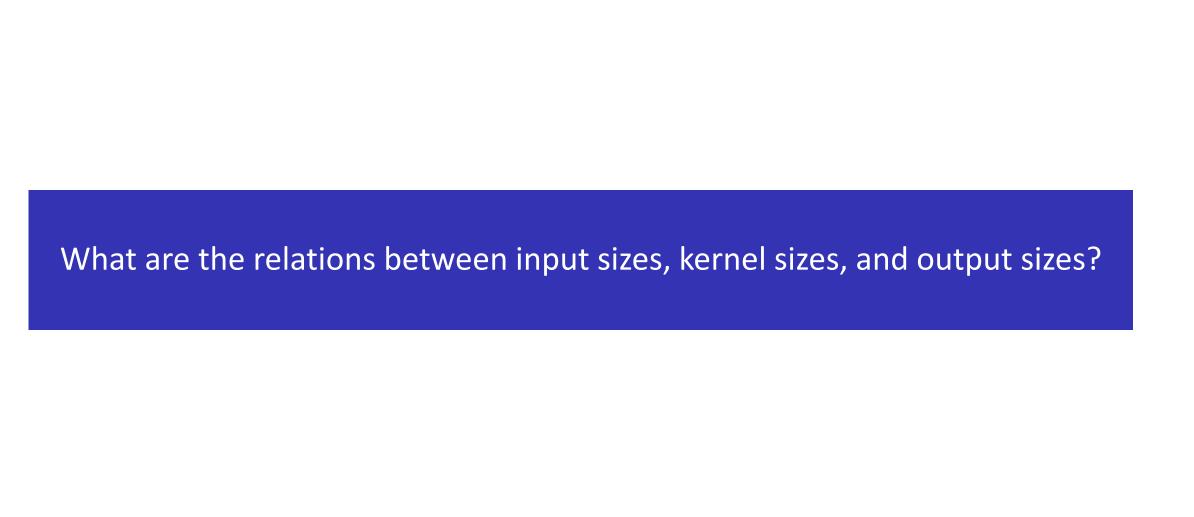
Convolution followed by linear rectification

It is common to apply a ReLU nonlinear activation on the output feature following convolution: $y = \max(z, 0)$

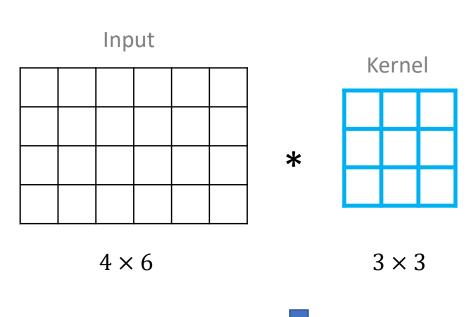


Why might we do this?

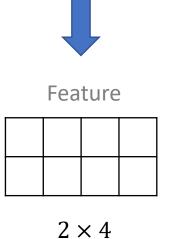
- Convolution is a linear operation. Passing the linear output through nonlinear activation leads to more powerful features
- While pooling the results, two edges in opposite directions shouldn't cancel
- It has been reported that nonlinear activations (like ReLU or ELU) when used after convolutional layers given better performance



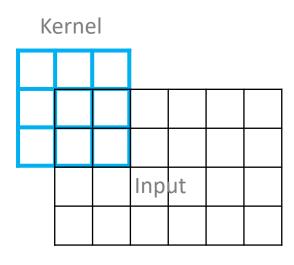
Relation between input sizes, kernel sizes, and output sizes

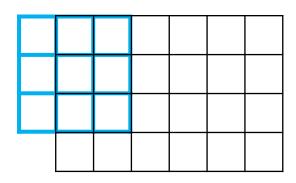


- So far we have not said anything explicit about the dimensions of the
 - Inputs
 - Kernels
 - Outputs
 - the relations between them

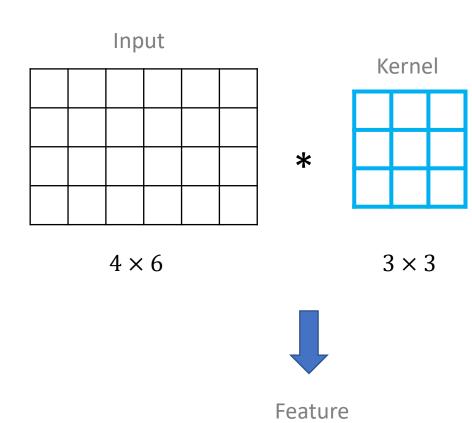


 We will see how they are related but before that we will discuss zero-padding and stride





- Note that we can't place the kernel centred at the corners or at boundaries of our image
- Thus any interesting information on the boundaries of the original image is lost

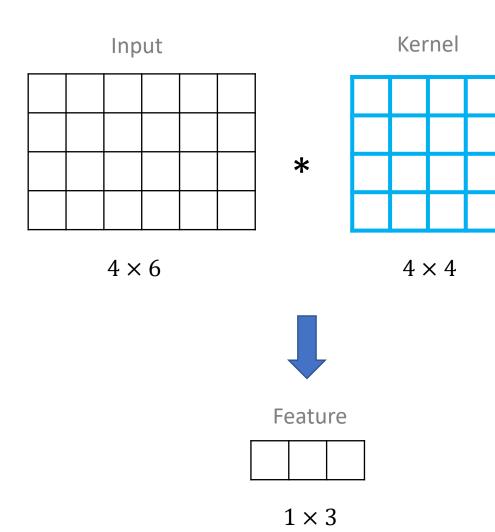


 2×4

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- Thus any interesting information on the boundaries of the original image is lost
- This loss of information results in an output feature size smaller than the input image
- If input size is $n_h \times n_w$, kernel size is $k_h \times k_w$, then output feature size $f_h \times f_w$ is related as follows:

$$f_h = n_h - k_h + 1$$

$$f_w = n_w - k_w + 1$$



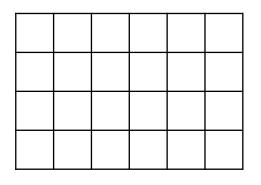
- Note that we can't place the kernel centred at the corners or at boundaries of our image
- Thus any interesting information on the boundaries of the original image is lost
- This loss of information results in an output feature size smaller than the input image
- If input size is $n_h \times n_w$, kernel size is $k_h \times k_w$, then output feature size $f_h \times f_w$ is related as follows:

$$f_h = n_h - k_h + 1$$

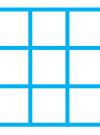
$$f_w = n_w - k_w + 1$$

 As the size of the kernel increases, this output size reduces even more

Input







$$4 \times 6$$

$$3 \times 3$$

Zero-padded Input

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0							0
0							0
0							0
0							0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$$6 \times 8$$

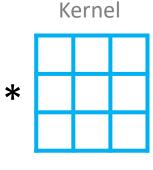
- One straightforward solution to this problem is to add zero pixels around the boundary of our input image, thus increasing the effective size of the image
- lacktriangle This means we pad zeros of width p_w on left and right, and pad zeros of height p_h on top and bottom
- The output feature shape will be $f_h \times f_w$:

$$f_h = n_h - k_h + 2p_w + 1$$

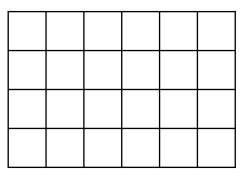
$$f_w = n_w - k_w + 2p_h + 1$$

Zero-padded Input

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0							0
0							0
0							0
0							0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0



 3×3



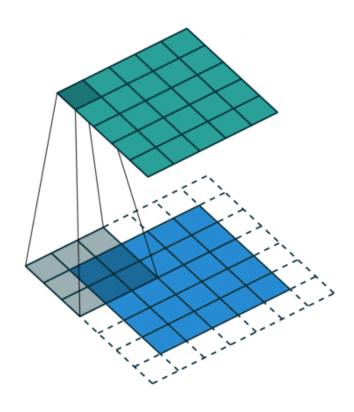
$$4 \times 6$$

- One straightforward solution to this problem is to add zero pixels around the boundary of our input image, thus increasing the effective size of the image
- lacktriangle This means we pad zeros of width p_w on left and right, and pad zeros of height p_h on top and bottom
- The output feature shape will be $f_h \times f_w$:

$$f_h = n_h - k_h + 2p_w + 1$$

$$f_w = n_w - k_w + 2p_h + 1$$

- Usual values: $p_h = \frac{k_h 1}{2}$ and $p_w = \frac{k_w 1}{2}$
- It becomes easy to work with odd-sized kernels like 3x3, 5x5, 7x7 as zero-padding will give an integer number, else ceil the value



- When computing the cross-correlation, we typically move our kernel by one interval along right and/or downwards
- Stride defines the intervals at which the kernel is applied
- By default, we slide one element at a time
- However, sometimes, either for computational efficiency or because we wish to downsample (reduce size of output), we move our window more than one element at a time, skipping the intermediate locations
- For such cases, the stride would be greater than 1

• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right\rfloor \times \left\lfloor \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right\rfloor$$

• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

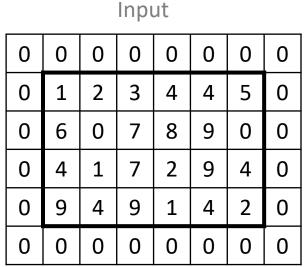
Kernel

 3×3

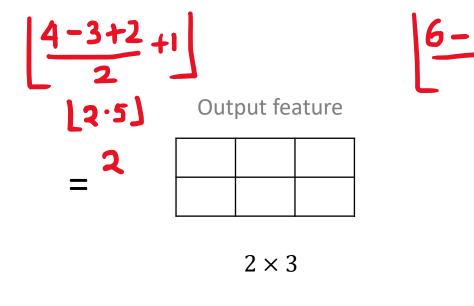
$$\left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right| \times \left| \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right|$$

■ Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. Let's consider an example with S = 2

*







• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

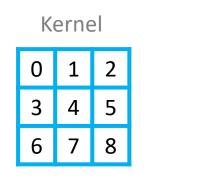
$$\left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right| \times \left| \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right|$$

■ Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. For stride S = 2, the following output is obtained

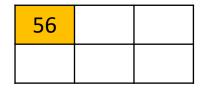
Input

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





$$3 \times 3$$



$$2 \times 3$$

• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

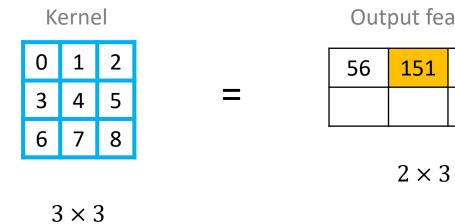
$$\left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right| \times \left| \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right|$$

• Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. For stride S = 2, the following output is obtained

Input

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





56	151	

$$2 \times 3$$

• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

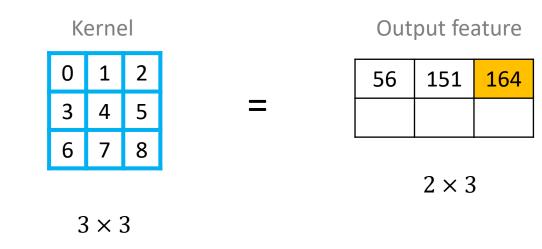
$$\left[\frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1\right] \times \left[\frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1\right]$$

■ Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. For stride S = 2, the following output is obtained

Input

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





• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

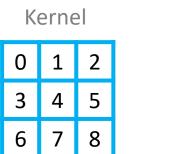
$$\left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right| \times \left| \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right|$$

■ Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. For stride S = 2, the following output is obtained

Input

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





$$3 \times 3$$

*

56	151	164
122		

$$2 \times 3$$

• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

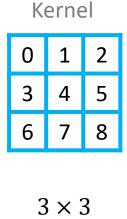
$$\left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right| \times \left| \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right|$$

■ Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. For stride S = 2, the following output is obtained

Input

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





$$3 \times 3$$

56	151	164
122	159	

$$2 \times 3$$

• When the stride along the height is s_h and the stride along the width is s_w , the output shape $f_h \times f_w$ is

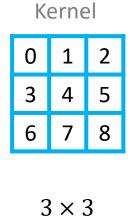
$$\left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2p_h}{s_h} + 1 \right| \times \left| \frac{n_w - k_w + 2p_w}{s_w} + 1 \right|$$

■ Typically, equal strides are taken, $s_h = s_w = S$. For stride S = 2, the following output is obtained

Input

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



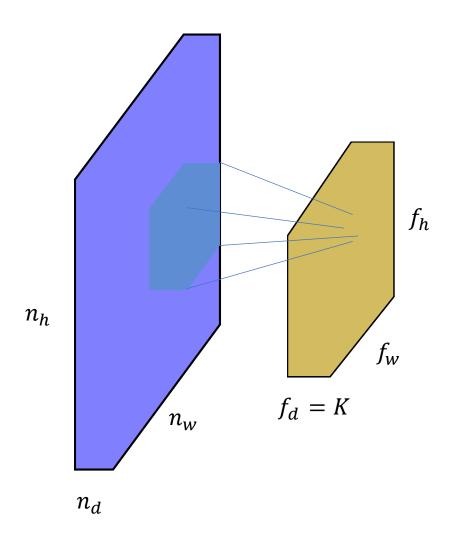


56	151	164
122	159	121

$$2 \times 3$$

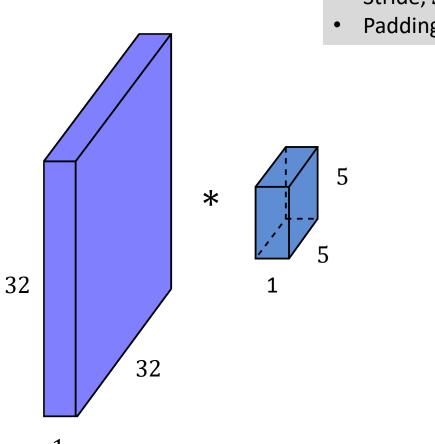
$$4 \times 6$$

Depth of the output layer



- Finally, let's come to the depth f_d of the output feature layer
- If we have multi-channel inputs, depth will be $n_d>1$
- Each 3D kernel will give us one 2D output feature
- K kernels will give us K such 2D output features
- We can think of the resulting output feature as $f_h \times f_w \times f_d$ volume
- Thus, $f_d = K$

Example for determining sizes



- Stride, S = 1
- Padding, P = 0

Output layer dimensions

 $f_h = 28$

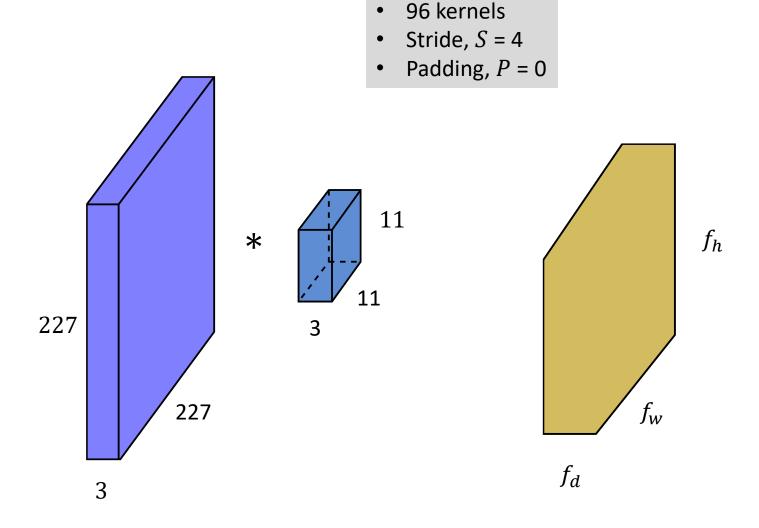
 $f_d = 6$

$$f_h = \left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2P}{S} + 1 \right|$$

$$f_w = \left[\frac{n_w - k_w + 2P}{S} + 1 \right]$$

$$f_d = K$$
 (number of kernels)

Example for determining sizes



Output layer dimensions

$$f_h = \left| \frac{n_h - k_h + 2P}{S} + 1 \right|$$

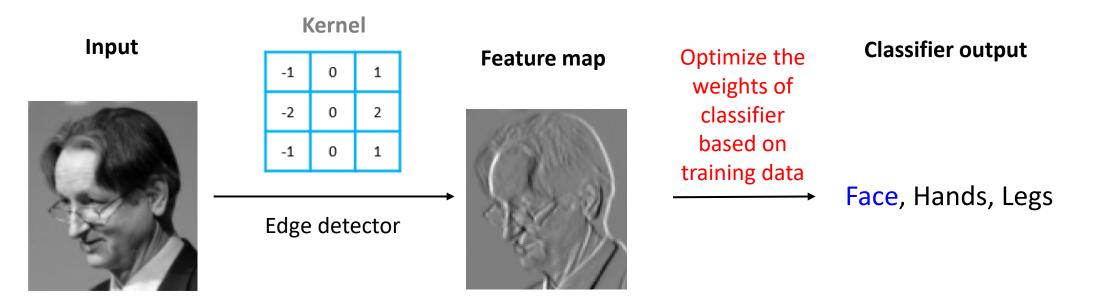
$$f_w = \left[\frac{n_w - k_w + 2P}{S} + 1 \right]$$

 $f_d = K$ (number of kernels)

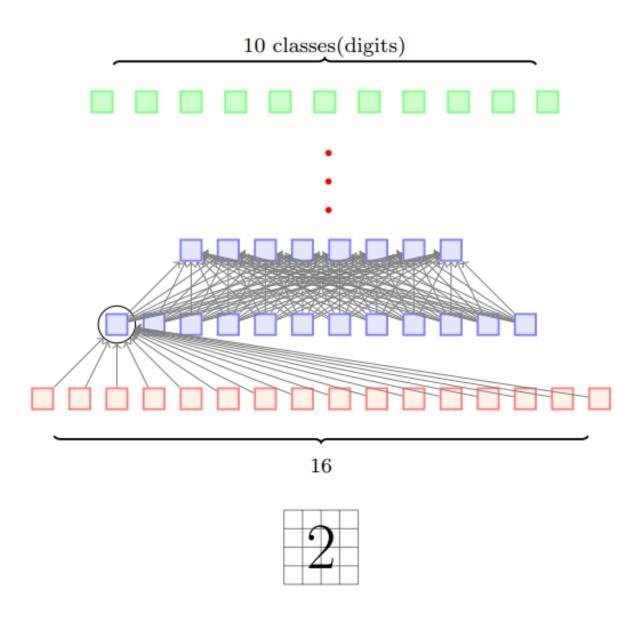
$$\begin{cases}
w = \left\lfloor \frac{227 - 11}{4} + 1 \right\rfloor \\
= \left\lfloor \frac{216}{4} + 1 \right\rfloor \\
= \left\lfloor \frac{54 + 1}{4} \right\rfloor \\
= 55$$

- What is the connection between this operation (convolution) and neural networks?
- We will try to understand this by considering the task of image classification

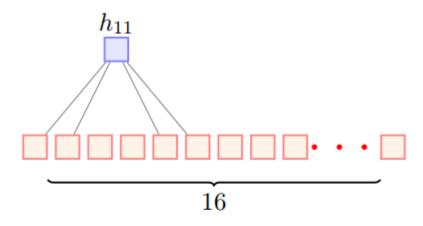
Output features for image classification

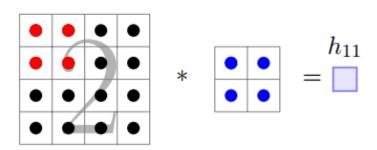


- Instead of using handcrafted kernels such as edge detectors can we learn (or optimize) meaningful kernels/filters
 in addition to learning the weights of the classifier?
- Even better, if we can learn multiple meaningful kernels/filters in addition to the weights of the classifier
- In CNN, we treat these kernels as parameters and learn them in addition to the weights of the classifier (using back propagation) in CNN
- But how is CNN different than fully-connected feedforward neural networks?

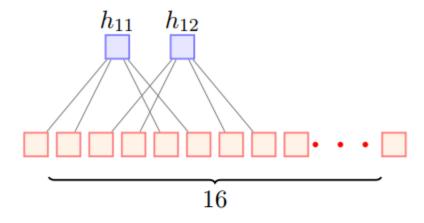


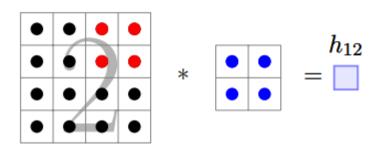
- This is what a regular fully-connected feed-forward neural network looks like
- It is **dense**, there are many connections
- For example, all the 16 input neurons are contributing to the computation of $h_{11}=h_1^{(1)}$
- Contrast this to what happens in the case of convolution



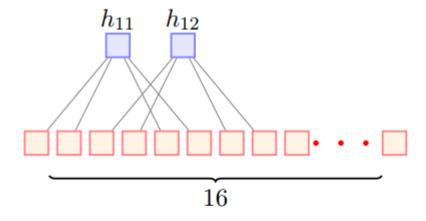


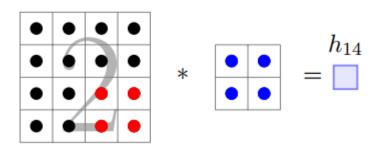
- Only a few local neurons participate in the computation of $h_{11}=h_1^{(1)}$
- For example, only pixels 1, 2, 5, 6 contribute to $h_1^{(1)}$



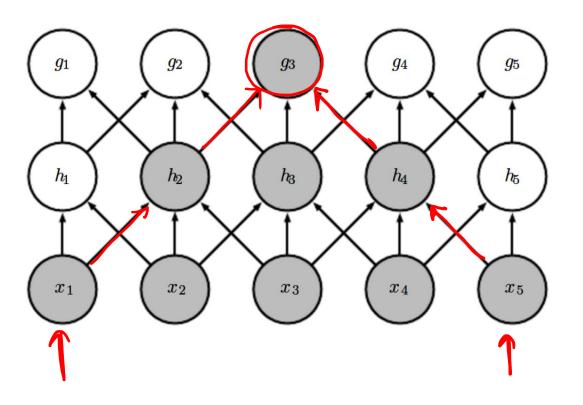


- Only a few local neurons participate in the computation of $h_{11}=h_1^{(1)}$
- For example, only pixels 1, 2, 5, 6 contribute to $h_1^{(1)}$
- For example, only pixels 3, 4, 7, 8 contribute to $h_{12} = h_2^{(1)} \label{eq:h12}$

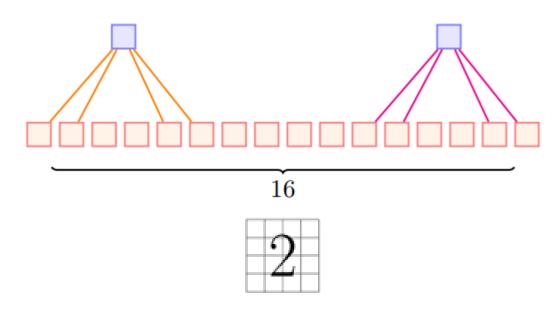


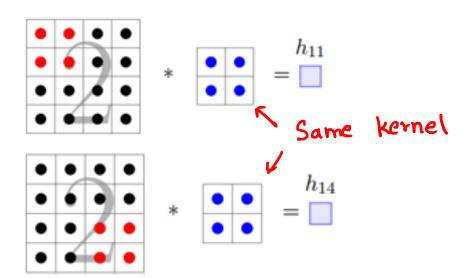


- Only a few local neurons participate in the computation of $h_{11}=h_1^{(1)}$
- For example, only pixels 1, 2, 5, 6 contribute to $h_1^{(1)}$
- The connections are much sparser
- This sparse connectivity reduces the number of parameters in the model
- But is sparse connectivity good? Aren't we losing information (by losing interactions between some input pixels)?

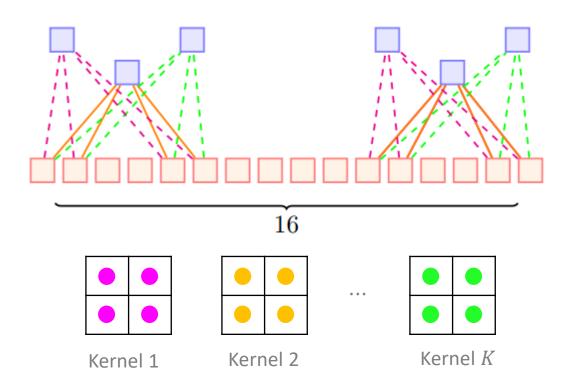


- But is sparse connectivity good? Aren't we losing information (by losing interactions between some input pixels)?
- It turns out we are not losing information/interactions
- The two highlighted neurons (x_1 and x_5) do not interact in *hidden layer* 1
- But they indirectly contribute to the computation of g_3 and hence interact indirectly





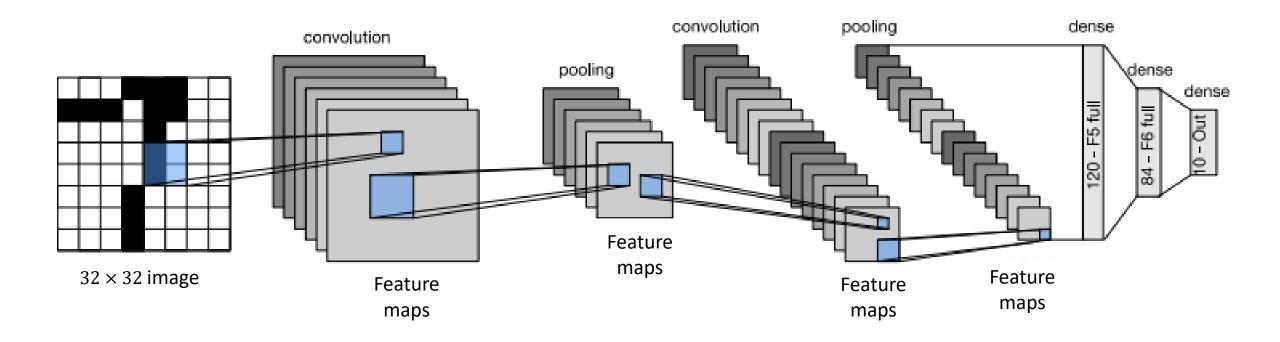
- Another characteristic of CNNs is weight sharing
- Imagine if we use an edge detection kernel
- Then the same kernel is passed over the all locations of the image to produce $h_1^{(1)}$, $h_2^{(1)}$, $h_3^{(1)}$, $h_4^{(1)}$, ...
- Since the kernel weights remain same as we sweep across all locations of the image, it is as if we share the weights across all locations of the image



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- Since the kernel weights remain same as we sweep across all locations of the image, it is as if we share the weights across all locations of the image
- Note, we can have many such kernels and each kernel will be shared by all locations in the image

- So far we have talked a lot on convolution layers
- Saw how kernels are convolved with inputs to produce features
- Understood that kernels are to be learned (or optimized), not manually set
- Let's look at CNN for a moment

Convolutional neural networks

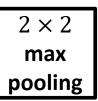


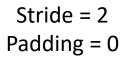
- So a CNN has alternate convolution and pooling layers
- What does a pooling layer do?

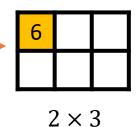


1	2	3	4	4	5
6	0	7	8	9	0
4	1	7	2	9	4
9	4	9	1	4	2

$$4 \times 6$$







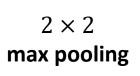
 $\max(1,2,6,0)$

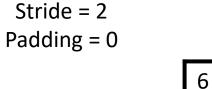
- We want to gradually reduce the spatial resolution of our hidden representations while aggregating meaningful features
- Pooling helps in reducing the spatial resolution
- Like convolutional layer, pooling operators consist of a fixed-shape window that is slid over all regions of the input according to its stride
- However unlike convolutional layer, the pooling layer contains no parameters (there is no kernel)
- Mostly, we take the maximum of the elements in the pooling window max pooling



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

$$4 \times 6$$





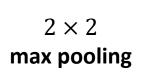
 $\max(3,4,7,8)$

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

$$4 \times 6$$



2	X	3
_		_

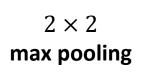
max(4,5,9,0)

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

 4×6



	6	8	9
	9		
•	2		3

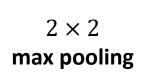
 $\max(4,1,9,4)$

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

$$4 \times 6$$



2	×	3

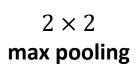
 $\max(7,2,9,1)$

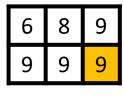
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1	2	ന	4	4	5
6	0	7	8	9	0
4	1	7	2	9	4
9	4	9	1	4	2

$$4 \times 6$$





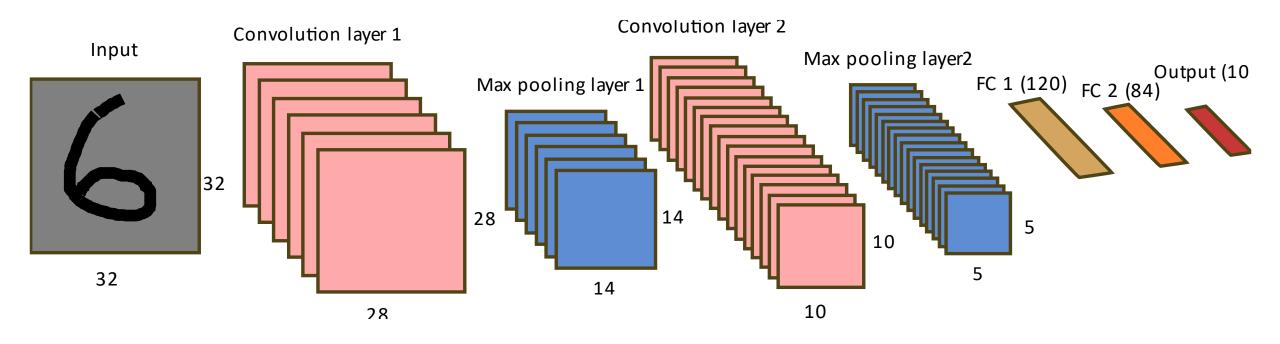
 2×3

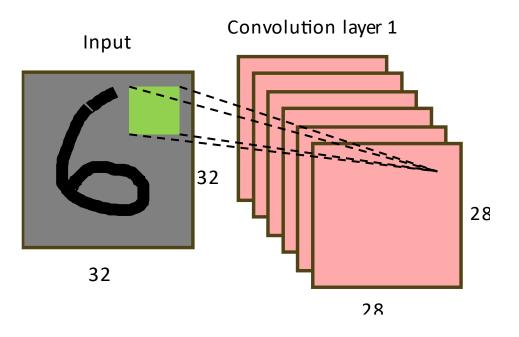
max(9,4,4,2)

- We want to gradually reduce the spatial resolution of our hidden representations while aggregating meaningful features
- Pooling helps in reducing the spatial resolution
- Like convolutional layer, pooling operators consist of a fixed-shape window that is slid over all regions of the input according to its stride
- However unlike convolutional layer, the pooling layer contains no parameters (there is no kernel)
- Mostly, we take the maximum of the elements in the pooling window — max pooling
- Max pooling gets feature representation that is somewhat invariant to translation (recall we wanted to find Waldo irrespective of its location in image)
- There is also average pooling, taking average of the elements in the window

- Now we have all the ingredients to assemble a CNN
- We will now see the first CNN LeNet (1998) by Yann LeCun for handwritten digit recognition

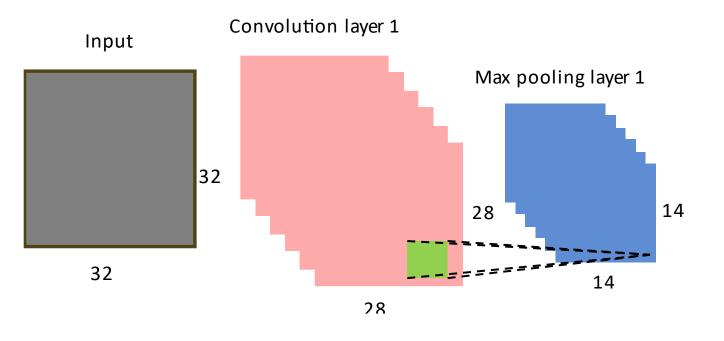
- We have a **grayscale image** of an handwritten digit of size 32 x 32 with depth = 1
- This is going to be our input to LeNet





- Stride S = 1
- Pad P=0
- Kernel \rightarrow 5 \times 5
- # kernels \rightarrow 6
- Parameters →

- We have 6 kernels
- Each kernel has 5x5 = 25 weights
- # parameters = 25x6 = 150
- Input size = 32x32 = 1024
- Output size = 28x28 = 784
- If this was a fully-connected network, you needed 1024 x 784 weights!
- For convolution layer, we have just 150 parameters
- Great reduction in # of parameters
- A sigmoid activation was applied (ReLU was not known then)



- Stride S=1
- Kernel \rightarrow 1 \times 5 \times 5 Kernel \rightarrow 2 \times 2
- # kernels \rightarrow 6
- Parameters →

- Stride S=2
- Pad P=0 Pad P=0

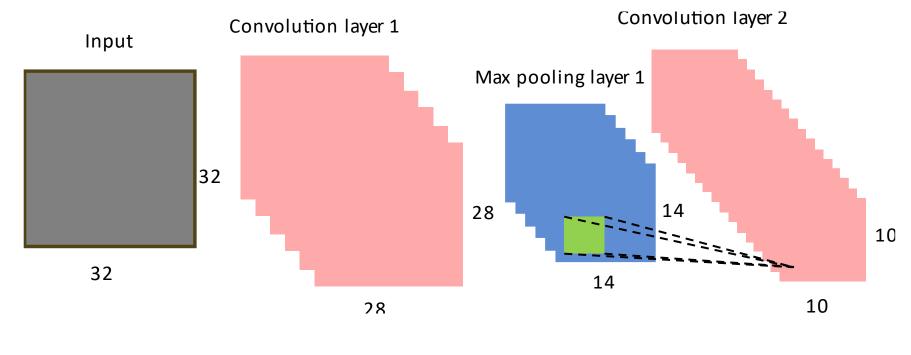
 - Parameters →

- Max pooling is a per feature map operation
- Here the kernel size is 2 x 2
- It downscales the size of feature maps

$$f_h = \left[\frac{28 - 2 + 0}{2} + 1 \right] = 14$$

$$f_w = \left| \frac{28 - 2 + 0}{2} + 1 \right| = 14$$

- The depth of max pooling layer is the same as the preceding convolution layer; here depth is 6
- There are no parameters in max pooling layers; they just take maximum of elements in a window



Feature map size

$$f_h = \left| \frac{14 - 5 + 0}{1} + 1 \right| = 10$$

$$f_w = \left| \frac{14 - 5 + 0}{1} + 1 \right| = 10$$

- Depth of kernels = 6
- Here kernel size is 5 x 5 x 6

= 2400

• Stride
$$S = 1$$

• Pad
$$P=0$$

• Kernel
$$\rightarrow$$
 5 \times 5

• # kernels
$$\rightarrow$$
 6

• Stride
$$S = 2$$

• Pad
$$P=0$$

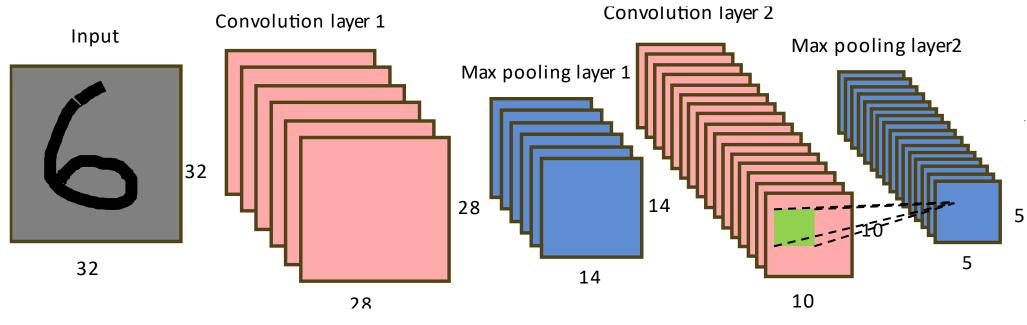
• Kernel
$$\rightarrow 2 \times 2$$

ernel
$$\rightarrow$$
 2 \times 2

• Stride
$$S = 2$$
 • Stride $S = 1$ • # parameters = $5 \times 5 \times 6 \times 16$

• Pad
$$P=0$$
 • Pad $P=0$

• Kernel
$$\rightarrow 5 \times 5 \times 6$$



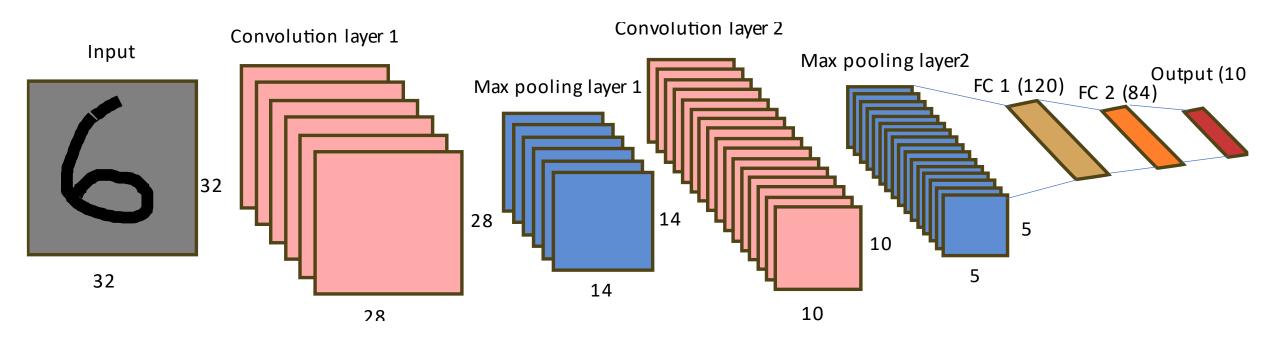
$$f_h = \left| \frac{10 - 2 + 0}{2} + 1 \right| = 5$$

$$f_w = \left| \frac{10 - 2 + 0}{2} + 1 \right| = 5$$

- Stride S=1
- Pad P = 0
- Kernel \rightarrow 5 \times 5
- # kernels \rightarrow 6
- Parameters →

- Stride S=2 Stride S=1 Stride S=2
- Pad P=0 Pad P=0 Pad P=0
 - Kernel \rightarrow 2 \times 2
 - Parameters →

- Kernel \rightarrow 5 \times 5 \times 6 Kernel \rightarrow 2 \times 2
- # kernels \rightarrow 16
- Parameters →
- Parameters $\rightarrow 0$



After max pooling layer 2, there are two fully connected hidden layers

- The features of the max pooling layer is flattened out into a vector of size 16x5x5 = 400 and fed to FC 1 layer as inputs
- FC 1 layer has 120 hidden units \rightarrow (16x5x5) x 120 = 48000 weights + 120 biases = 48120 parameters
- FC 2 layer has 84 hidden units \rightarrow 120 x 84 = 10080 weights + 84 biases = 10164 parameters
- Output layer has 10 classes \rightarrow 84 x 10 = 840 weights + 10 biases = 850 parameters
- The entire network can be trained using back propagation