

#### 06 - Convolutional Neural Networks

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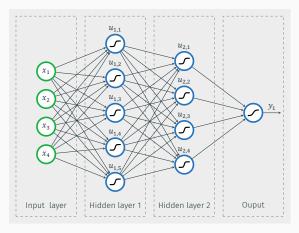
Convolutional Neural Networks, or convnets, are a type of neural net especially used for processing image data.

They are inspired by the organisation of the visual cortex and mathematically based on a well understood signal processing tool: image filtering by convolution.

Convnets gained popularity with LeNet-5, a pioneering 7-level convolutional network by LeCun et al. (1998) that was successfully applied on the MNIST dataset.

# **Convolution Filters**

Recall that in dense layers, every unit in the layer is connected to every unit in the adjacent layers:



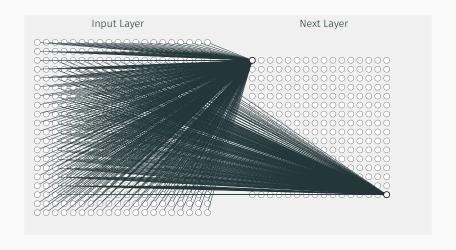
When the input is an image (as in the MNIST dataset), each pixel in the input image corresponds to a unit in the input layer. For an input image of dimension width by height pixels and 3 colour channels, the input layer will contain width height x3 input units.

If the next layer is of the same size, then we have up to  $(width \times height \times 3)^2$  weights to train, which can become very large very quickly.

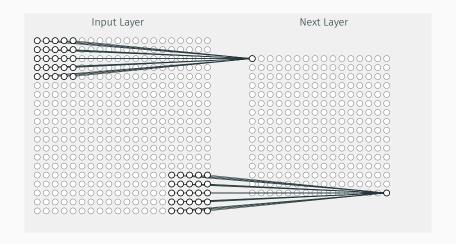
In a fully connected approach, we don't take advantage of the spatial structure of an image.

For instance, we know that pixel values are usually more related to their neighbours than to far away locations. We need to take advantage of this.

This is what is done in convolutional neural networks.



The input layer is made of a grid of the image pixels. In a fully connected layer architecture, pixels in the next layer are connected to all of the pixels in the input layer.



In convolutional layers, the units in the next layer are only connected to their neighbours in the input layer. In this case the neighbourhood is defined as a  $5 \times 5$  window.

Moreover the weights are **shared** across all the pixels.

So, in convnets, the weights are associated to the relative positions of the neighbours and shared across all pixel locations. Let us see how they are defined.

Denote the units of a layer as  $u_{i,j,k,n}$ , where n refers to the layer, i,j to the coordinates of the pixel and k to the channel of consideration.

The logit for that neuron is defined as the result of a convolution filter:

$$\operatorname{logit}_{i,j,k,n} = w_{0,k,n} + \sum_{a=-h_1}^{h_1} \sum_{b=-h_2}^{h_2} \sum_{c=1}^{h_3} w_{a,b,c,k,n} u_{a+i,b+j,c,n-1}$$

where  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  correspond to half of the dimensions of the neighbourhood window and h3 is the number of channels of the input image for that layer.

After activation f, the output of the neuron is simply:

$$u_{i,j,k,n} = f\left(\operatorname{logit}_{i,j,k,n}\right)$$

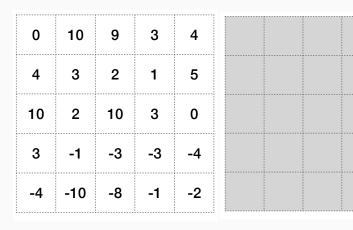
#### Example

Consider the case of a grayscale image (1 channel) where the convolution is defined as:

$$\operatorname{logit}_{i,j,n} = u_{i+1,j,n-1} + u_{i-1,j,n-1} + u_{i,j+1,n-1} + u_{i,j-1,n-1} - 4u_{i,j,n-1}$$

The weights can be arranged as a weight **mask** (also called **kernel**):

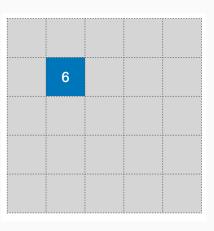
	0	1	0
W:	1	-4	1
	0	1	0



pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution

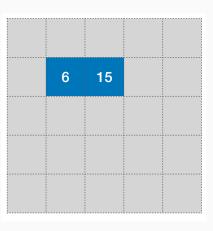
0x 0	1x 10	0x 9	3	4
1x 4	-4x 3	1x 2	1	5
0x 10	1x 2	<sup>0x</sup> 10 3		0
3	-1	-3	-3	-4
-4	-10	-8	-1	-2



pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution

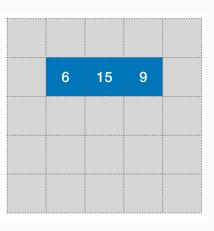
	10	1x 9	0x 3	4
	1x 3	-4x 2	1x 1	5
10	<sup>0x</sup> 2	1x 10	0x 3	0
3	-1	-3	-3	-4
-4	-10	-8	-1	-2



pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution

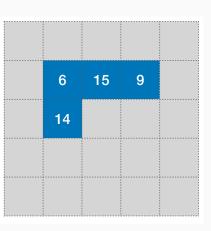
0	10	0x 9	1x 3	0x 4
4	3	1x 2	-4x 1	1x 5
10	2	<sup>0x</sup> 10	1x 3	0x 0
3	-1	-3	-3	-4
-4	-10	-8	-1	-2



pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution

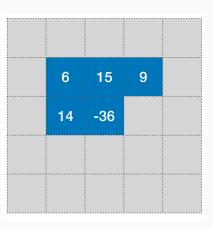
0	10	9	3	4
0x 4	1x 3	0x 2	1	5
1x 10	-4x 2	1x 10	3	0
0x 3	1x -1	0x -3	-3	-4
-4	-10	-8	-1	-2



pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution

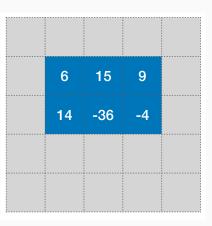
0	10	9	3	4
4	0x 3	1x 2	0x 1	5
10	1x 2	-4x 10	1x 3	0
3	0× -1	1x -3	0x -3	-4
-4	-10	-8	-1	-2



pixel values in previous layer

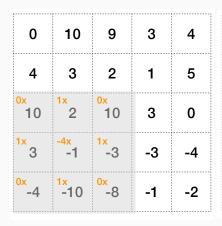
logits after convolution

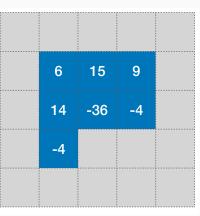
0	10	9	3	4	
4	3	0x 2	1x 1	0x 5	
10	2	1x 10	-4x 3	1x 0	
3	-1	0x -3	1x -3	0x -4	
-4	-10	-8	-1	-2	



pixel values in previous layer

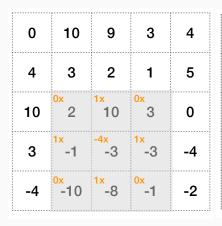
logits after convolution

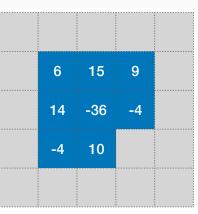




pixel values in previous layer

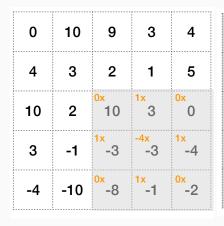
logits after convolution

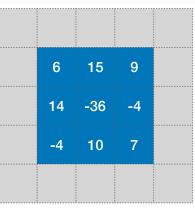




pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution





pixel values in previous layer

logits after convolution

## **Padding**

At the picture boundaries, not all neighbours are defined (see figure in next slide).

In Keras two **padding** strategies are possible:

padding='same' means that the values outside of image domain are extrapolated to zero.

padding='valid' means that we don't compute the pixels that need neighbours outside of the image domain. This means that the picture is slightly cropped.

## **Padding**

0x ?	1x ?	0x ?	?	?	?	?
1x ?	-4x 0	1x 10	9	3	4	?
0x <b>?</b>	1x 4	0x 3	2	1	5	?
?	10	2	10	3	0	?
?	3	-1	-3	-3	-4	?
?	-4	-10	-8	-1	-2	?

?	?	?	?	?
?	6	15	9	?
?	14	-36	-4	?
?	-4	10	7	?
?	?	?	?	?

input layer. Pixels outside the image domain are marked with '?'.

after 3×3 convolution. Boundary pixels require out of domain neighbours.

Each convolutional layer defines a number of convolution filters and the output of a layer is thus a new image, where each channel is the result of a convolution filter followed by activation.

#### Example

On next slide is a colour picture of size 443×592×3 (width=443, height=592, number of channels=3).

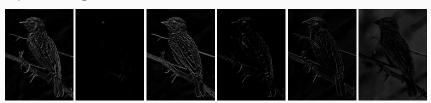
The convolutional layer used has a kernel of size 5×5, and produces 6 different filters. The padding strategy is set to 'valid' thus we loose 2 pixels on each side. The output of the convolutional layer is a picture of size 439×588×6.

In Keras, this would be defined as follows:

This convolution layer is defined by  $3 \times 6 \times 5 \times 5 = 450$  weights. This is only a fraction of what would be required in a dense layer.



output filtered images:



# Reducing the picture size

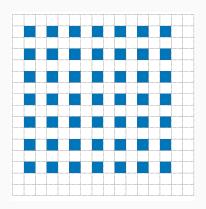
If convolution filters offer a way of reducing the number of weights in the network, the number of units still remains high.

For instance, applying Conv2D(16, (5,5)) to an input image of size 2000 ×2000 ×3 only requires  $5\times5\times3\times16 = 1200$  weights to train, but still produces  $2000\times2000\times16 = 64$  million units.

In this section, we'll see how **stride** and **pooling** can be used to down-sample the images and thus reduce the number of units.

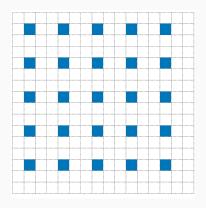
In image processing, the **stride** is the distance that separates each processed pixel. A stride of 1 means that all pixels are processed and kept. A stride of 2 means that only every second pixel in both x and y directions are kept.

```
x = Input(shape=(16, 16, 1))
x = Conv2D(1, [3, 3], padding='valid', stride=2)(x)
```



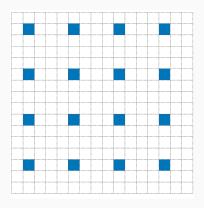
Example for a stride of 2. Previous layer is  $16 \times 16$ . Convolution mask is  $3 \times 3$ . Convolution is not computed on all pixels, only a fourth of the valid pixels are evaluated and kept (marked in blue). Output is of size  $7 \times 7$ .

```
x = Input(shape=(16, 16, 1))
x = Conv2D(1, [3, 3], padding='valid', stride=3)(x)
```



stride of 3. Only 1 in 9 pixels are evaluated and kept.

```
x = Input(shape=(16, 16, 1))
x = Conv2D(1, [3, 3], padding='valid', stride=4)(x)
```



stride of 4. Only 1 in 16 pixels are evaluated and kept.

## **Max Pooling**

Whereas stride is set on the convolution layer itself, **Pooling** is a separate node that is appended after the conv layer. The Pooling layer operates a sub-sampling of the picture.

Different sub-sampling strategies are possible: average pooling, max pooling, stochastic pooling.

## **Max Pooling**

MaxPooling2D(pool\_size(2, 2))

The maximum of each block is kept.

0	<u>10</u>	<u>9</u>	3	10	9
4	3	2	1	10	9
<u>10</u>	2	<u>10</u>	3	40	10
3	-1	-3	-3	10	10

## **Average Pooling**

AveragePooling2D(pool\_size(2, 2))

The average of each block is kept.

0	10	9	3	4.25	3.75
4	3	2	1	4.25	3.75
10	2	10	3	0.5	4 75
3	-1	-3	-3	3.5	1.75

## **Stochastic Pooling**

A random sample of each block is kept.

0	10	9	3	3	2
4	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	1	S	2
10	2	10	<u>3</u>		
3	<u>-1</u>	-3	-3	-1	3

### Example

The following keras code:

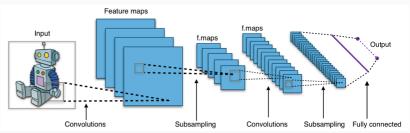
means that we transform the original image of size 32×32×3 into a new image of size 32×32×16. Each of the 16 output image channels are obtained through their own 5×5×3 convolution filter.

Then maxpooling reduces the image size to 16×16×16.

# Architecture Design

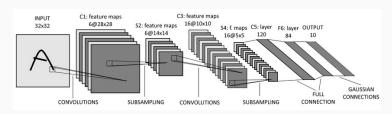
A typical convnet architecture for classification is based on interleaving convolution layers with pooling layers. Conv layers usually have a small kernel size (eg. 5×5 or 3×3). As you go deeper, the picture becomes smaller in resolution but also contains more channels.

At some point the picture is so small (eg. 7 ×7), that it doesn't make sense to call it a picture. You can then connect it to fully connected layers and terminate by a last softmax layer for classification:



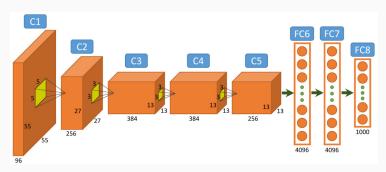
The idea is that we start from a few low level features (eg. image edges) and as we go deeper, we built more and more features that are increasingly more complex.

The following slides show some of the landmark networks.



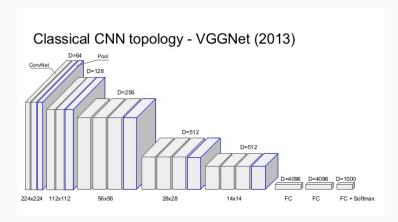
LeNet-5 (LeCun, 1998). The network pioneered the use of convolutional layers in neural nets.

LeCun, Y., Bottou, L., Bengio, Y., and Haffner, P. (1998). Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition.



AlexNet (Alex Krizhevsky et al., 2012). This is the winning entry of the ILSVRC-2012 competition for object recognition. This is the network that started the deep learning revolution.

Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, Geoffrey E Hinton (2012) Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks.



VGG (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2013). This is a popular 16-layer network used by the VGG team in the ILSVRC-2014 competition for object recognition.

K. Simonyan, A. Zisserman

Very Deep Convolutional Networks for Large-Scale Image Recognition

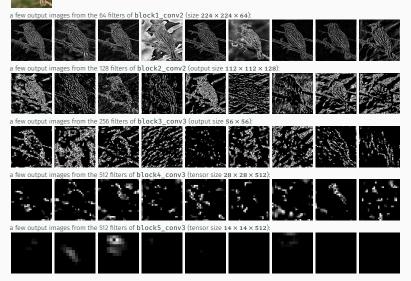


#### Keras code for the VGG16 network

```
# Block 1
   x = Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block1 conv1')(img input)
   x = Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block1 conv2')(x)
   x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), strides=(2, 2), name='block1 pool')(x)
   # Block 2
   x = Conv2D(128, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block2_conv1')(x)
   x = Conv2D(128, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block2 conv2')(x)
   x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), strides=(2, 2), name='block2 pool')(x)
   # Block 3
  x = Conv2D(256, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block3 conv1')(x)
   x = Conv2D(256. (3. 3). activation='relu'. padding='same'. name='block3 conv2')(x)
   x = Conv2D(256, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block3 conv3')(x)
   x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), strides=(2, 2), name='block3 pool')(x)
   # Block 4
   x = Conv2D(512, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block4 conv1')(x)
  x = Conv2D(512, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block4 conv2')(x)
  x = Conv2D(512, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block4 conv3')(x)
  x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), strides=(2, 2), name='block4 pool')(x)
  # Block 5
20 x = Conv2D(512, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same', name='block5 conv1')(x)
21 x = Conv2D(512. (3. 3). activation='relu'. padding='same'. name='block5 conv2')(x)
x = Conv2D(512. (3. 3). activation='relu'. padding='same'. name='block5 conv3')(x)
  x = MaxPooling2D((2, 2), strides=(2, 2), name='block5_pool')(x)
24 # Classification block
25 x = Flatten (name='flatten')(x)
26 x = Dense(4096, activation='relu', name='fc1')(x)
27 x = Dense(4096, activation='relu', name='fc2')(x)
28 x = Dense(classes, activation='softmax', name='predictions')(x)
```

original input image (tensor size 224 × 224 × 3, image has been resized to match that dimension):





## visualisation

Understanding each of the inner operations of a trained network is still an open problem.

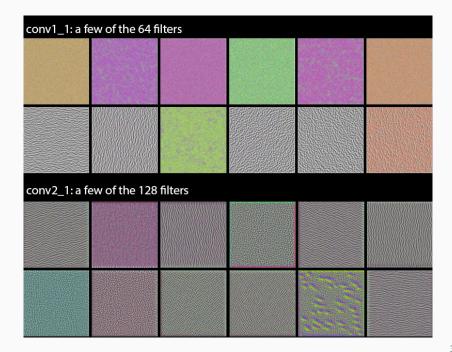
Thankfully Convolutional Neural Nets focus on images and a few visualisation techniques have been proposed recently.

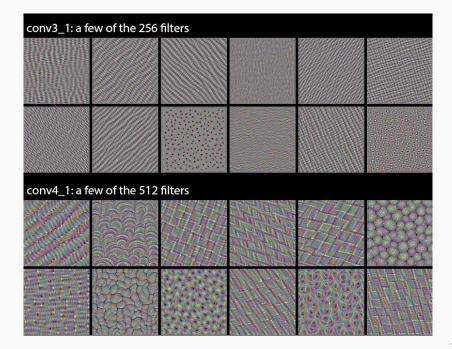
One technique (see link below) is to find an input image that maximises the activation for that specific filter. Recall that the output of ReLU and sigmoid is always positive and that a positive activation means that the filter has detected something. Thus finding the image that maximises the response from that filter will give us a good indication about the nature of that filter.

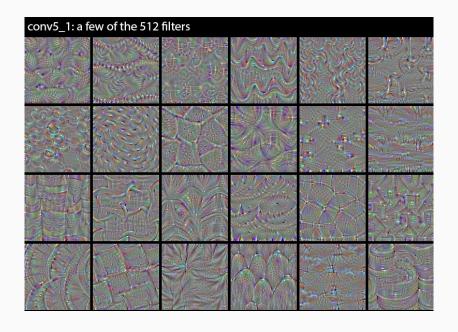
### The optimisation proceeds as follows:

- 1. Define the loss function as the mean value of the activation for that filter.
- 2. Use backpropagation to compute the gradient of the loss function w.r.t. the input image.
- 3. Update the input image using a gradient *ascent* approach, so as to *maximise* the loss function. Goto 2.

A few examples of optimised input images for VGG16 are presented in the next slides.







### Take Away

Convolutional Neural Nets offer a very effective simplification over Dense Nets when dealing with images. By interleaving pooling and convolutional layers, we can reduce both the number of weights and the number of units.

The successes in Convnet applications (eg. image classification) were key to start the deep learning/AI revolution.

The mathematics behind convolutional filters were nothing new and have long been understood. What convnets have brought, is a framework to systematically train optimal filters and combine them to produce powerful high level visual features.

### **Useful Resources**

- [1] Deep Learning (MIT press) from Ian Goodfellow et al. chapters 9 https://www.deeplearningbook.org
- [2] Brandon Rohrer YT channel https://youtu.be/ILsA4nyG7I0
- [5] Stanford CS class CS231n http://cs231n.github.io
- [7] Michael Nielsen's webpage http://neuralnetworksanddeeplearning.com/