

Deep Learning

Lecture 5: Convolutional networks

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Today

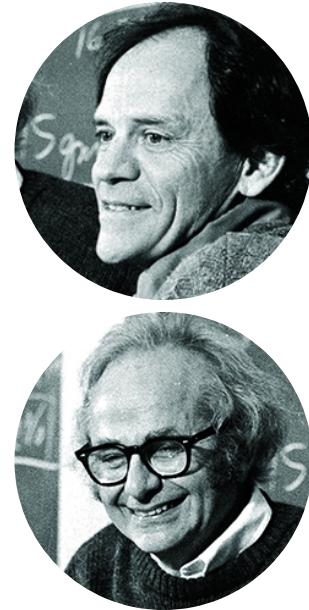
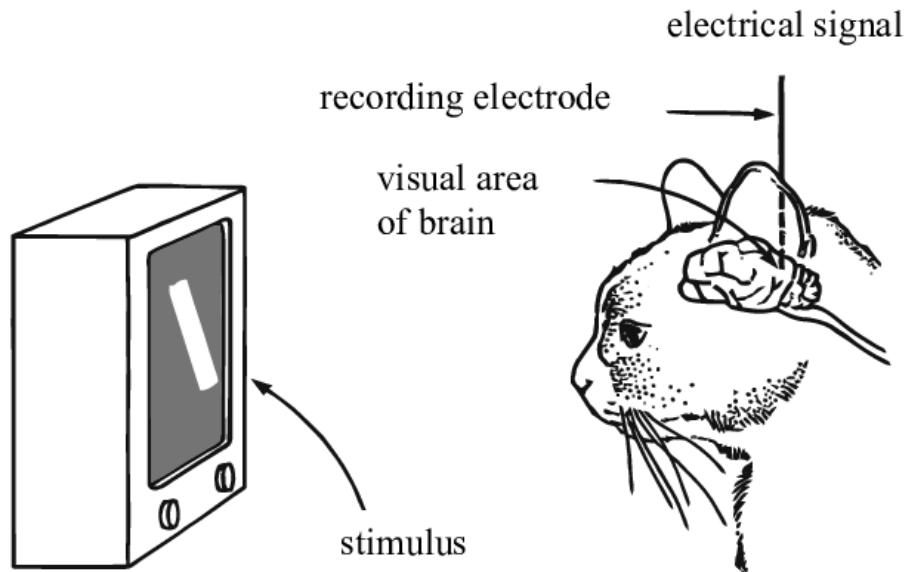
How to make neural networks see?

- Machines that see
- Convolutions
- Pooling
- Convolutional networks
- Under the hood

Machines that see

Visual perception

In 1959-1962, David Hubel and Torsten Wiesel discover the neural basis of **visual perception**. They are awarded the Nobel Prize of Medicine in 1981 for their discovery.





Hubel and Wiesel Cat Experiment



Later bekijk...



Delen



Hubel and Wiesel



Hubel & Wiesel 1: Intro



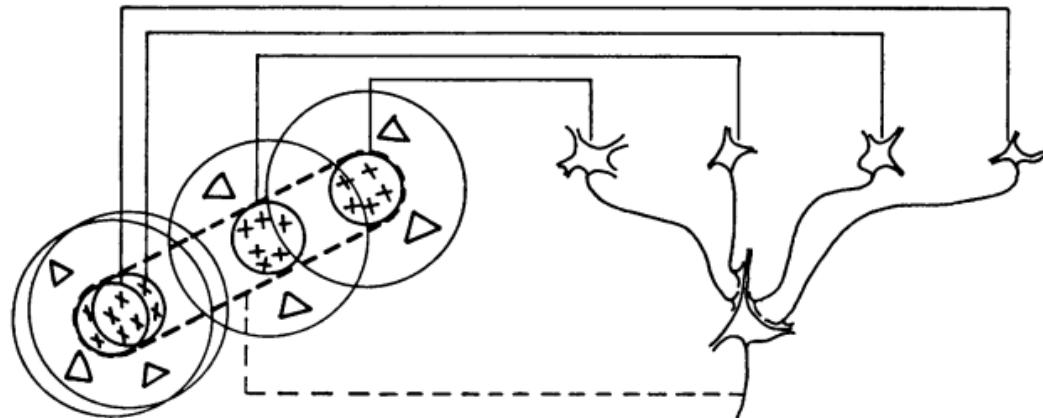
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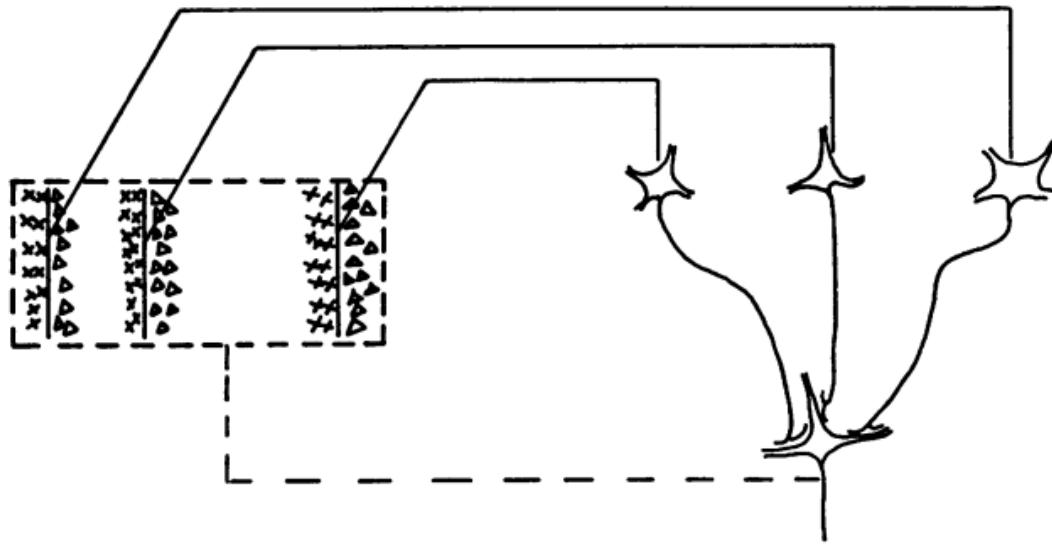
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Hubel and Wiesel



Text-fig. 19. Possible scheme for explaining the organization of simple receptive fields. A large number of lateral geniculate cells, of which four are illustrated in the upper right in the figure, have receptive fields with 'on' centres arranged along a straight line on the retina. All of these project upon a single cortical cell, and the synapses are supposed to be excitatory. The receptive field of the cortical cell will then have an elongated 'on' centre indicated by the interrupted lines in the receptive-field diagram to the left of the figure.



Text-fig. 20. Possible scheme for explaining the organization of complex receptive fields. A number of cells with simple fields, of which three are shown schematically, are imagined to project to a single cortical cell of higher order. Each projecting neurone has a receptive field arranged as shown to the left: an excitatory region to the left and an inhibitory region to the right of a vertical straight-line boundary. The boundaries of the fields are staggered within an area outlined by the interrupted lines. Any vertical-edge stimulus falling across this rectangle, regardless of its position, will excite some simple-field cells, leading to excitation of the higher-order cell.

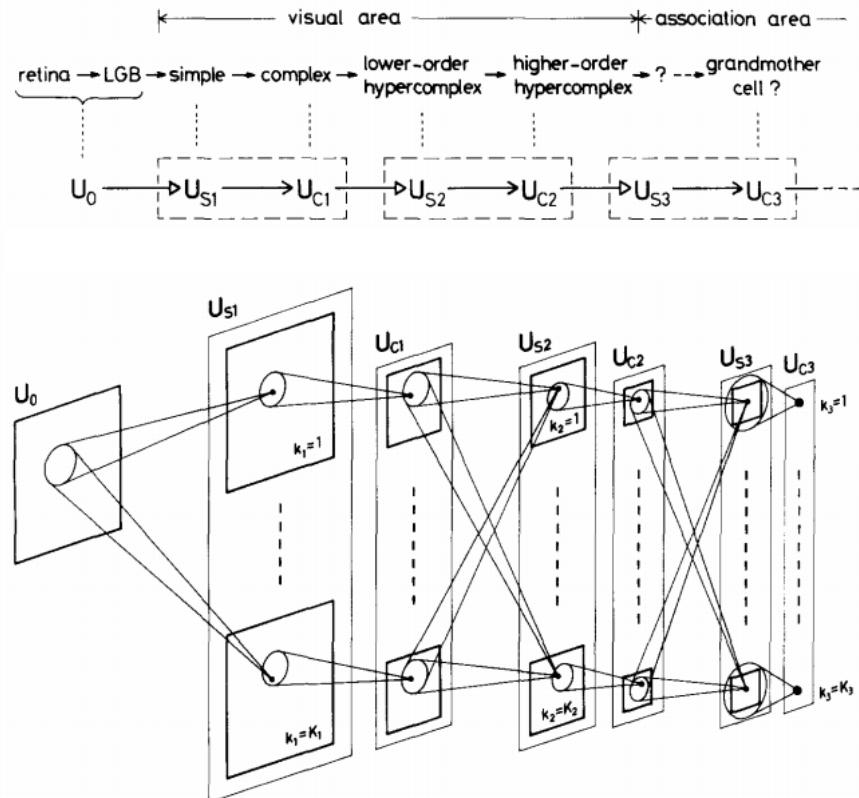
Inductive biases

Can we equip neural networks with **inductive biases** tailored for vision?

- Locality
- Invariance to translation
- Hierarchical compositionality

Neocognitron

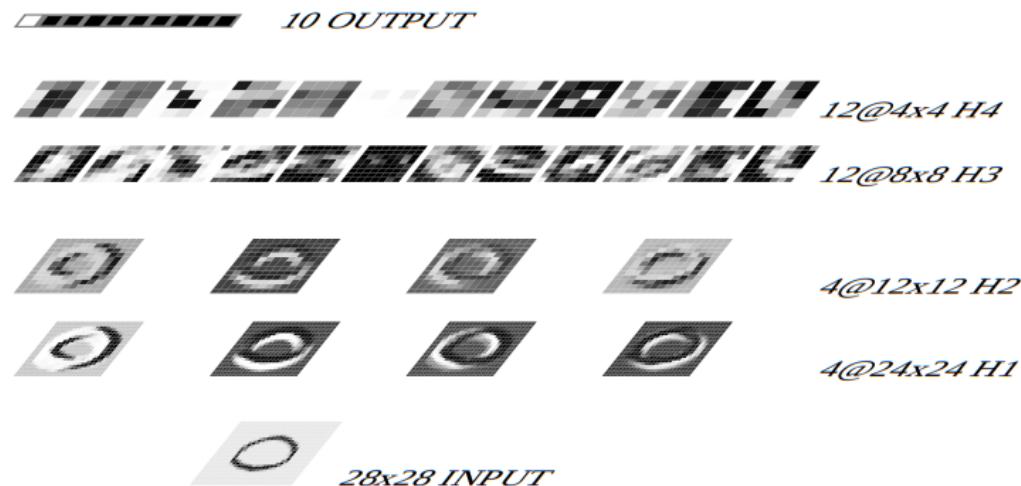
In 1980, Fukushima proposes a direct neural network implementation of the hierarchy model of the visual nervous system of Hubel and Wiesel.



- Built upon **convolutions** and enables the composition of a **feature hierarchy**.
- Biologically-inspired training algorithm, which proves to be largely **inefficient**.

Convolutional networks

In 1990, LeCun trains a convolutional network by backpropagation. He advocates for end-to-end feature learning in image classification.





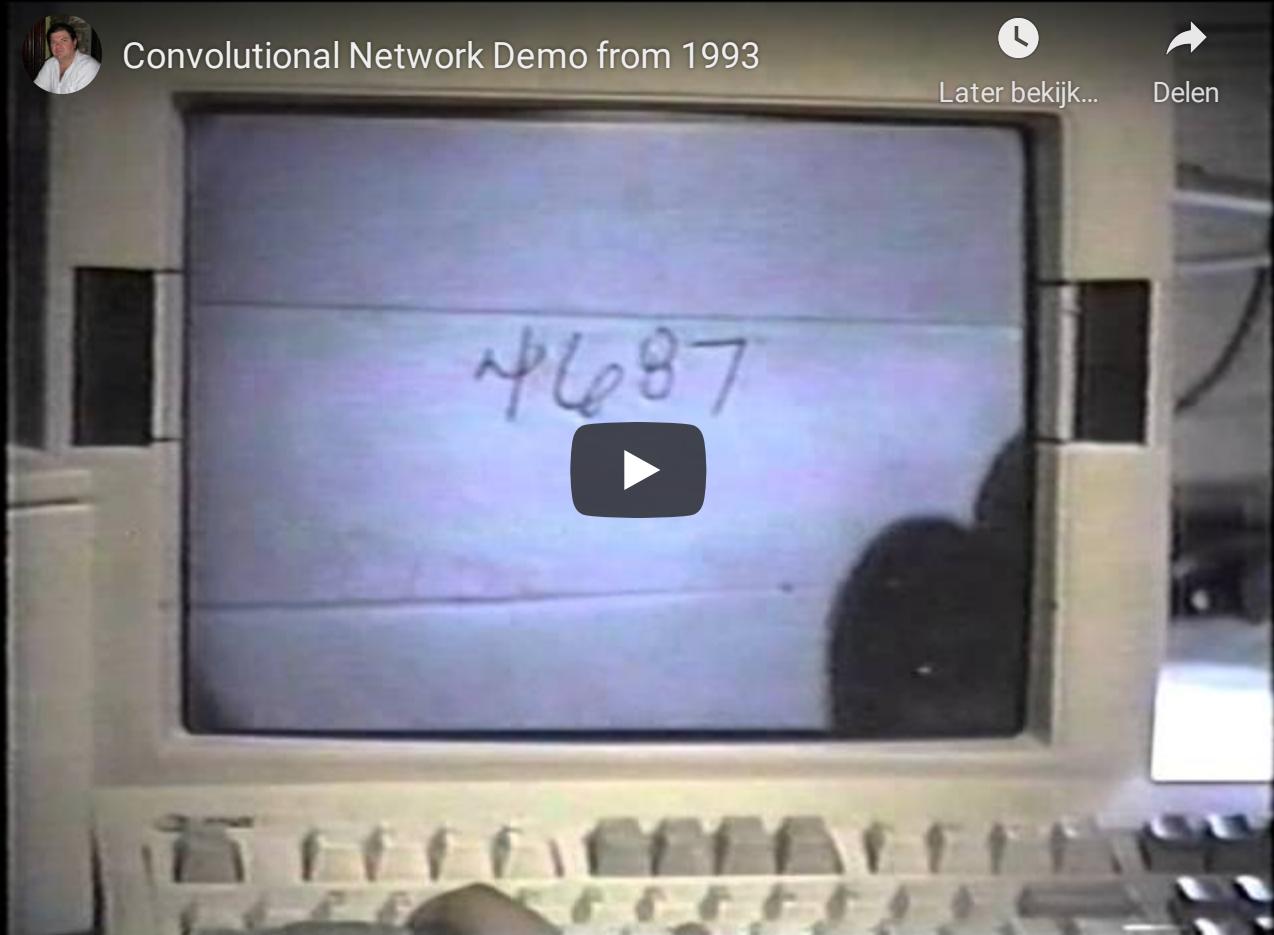
Convolutional Network Demo from 1993



Later bekijk...

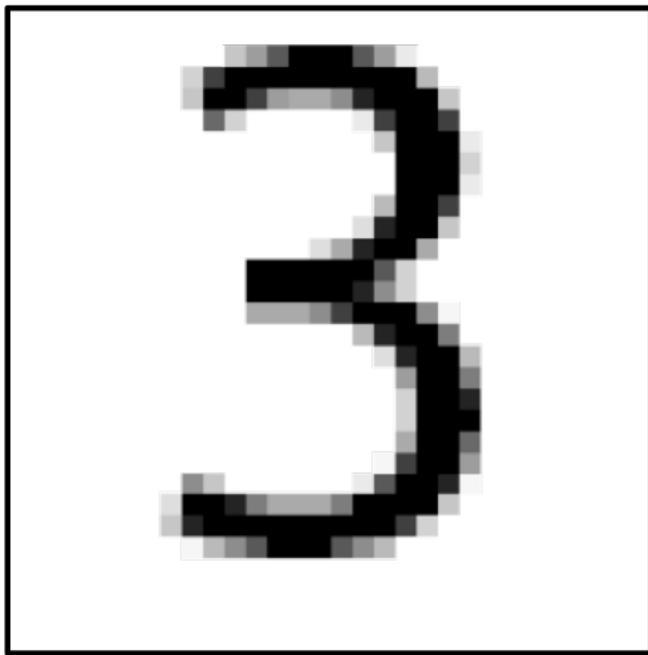


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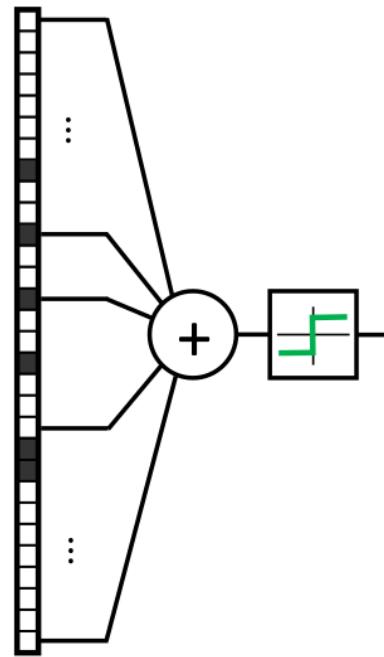


LeNet-1 (LeCun et al, 1993)

Convolutions

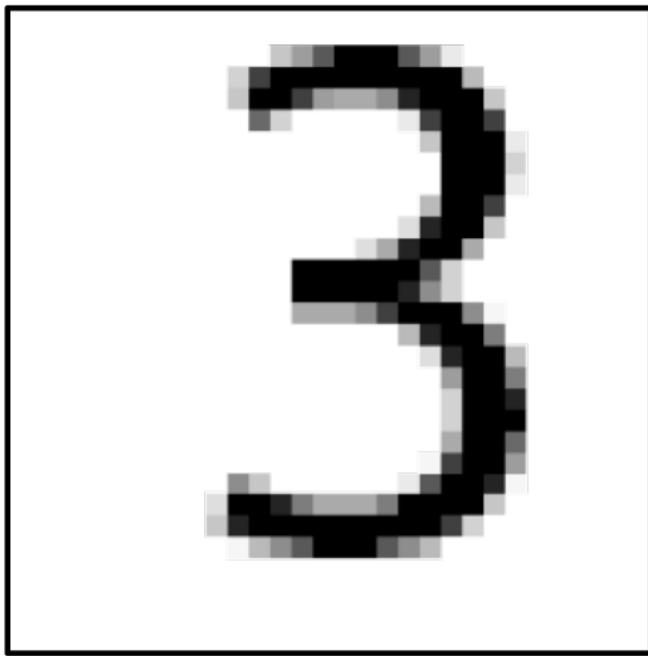


input image

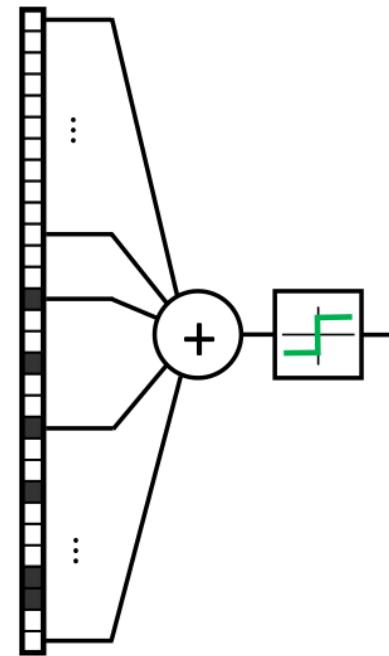


**input
vector**

If they were handled as normal "unstructured" vectors, high-dimensional signals such as sound samples or images would require models of intractable size.



input image

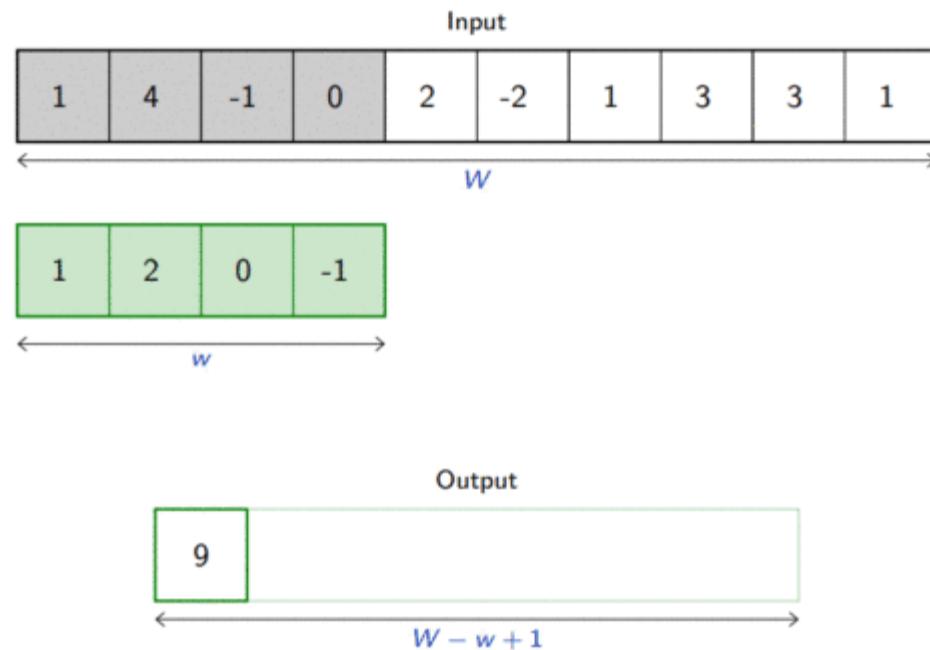


input
vector

Large signals have some "invariance in translation". A representation meaningful at a certain location **should be used everywhere**.

Convolutions

A convolution layer embodies this idea. It applies the same linear transformation locally everywhere while preserving the signal structure.



1D convolution

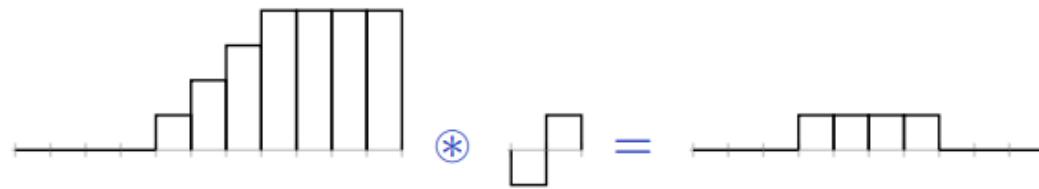
For one-dimensional tensors, given an input vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^W$ and a convolutional kernel $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^w$, the discrete convolution $\mathbf{x} \circledast \mathbf{u}$ is a vector of size $W - w + 1$ such that

$$(\mathbf{x} \circledast \mathbf{u})[i] = \sum_{m=0}^{w-1} x_{m+i} u_m.$$

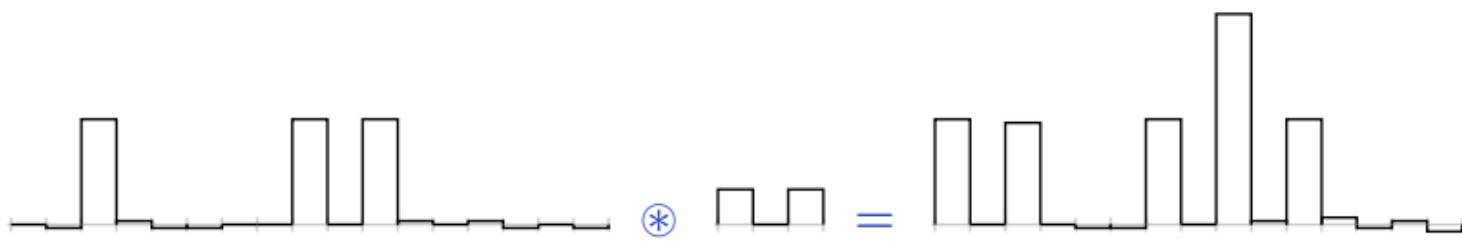
Technically, \circledast denotes the cross-correlation operator. However, most machine learning libraries call it convolution.

Convolutions can implement differential operators:

$$(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 4, 4, 4) * (-1, 1) = (0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0)$$



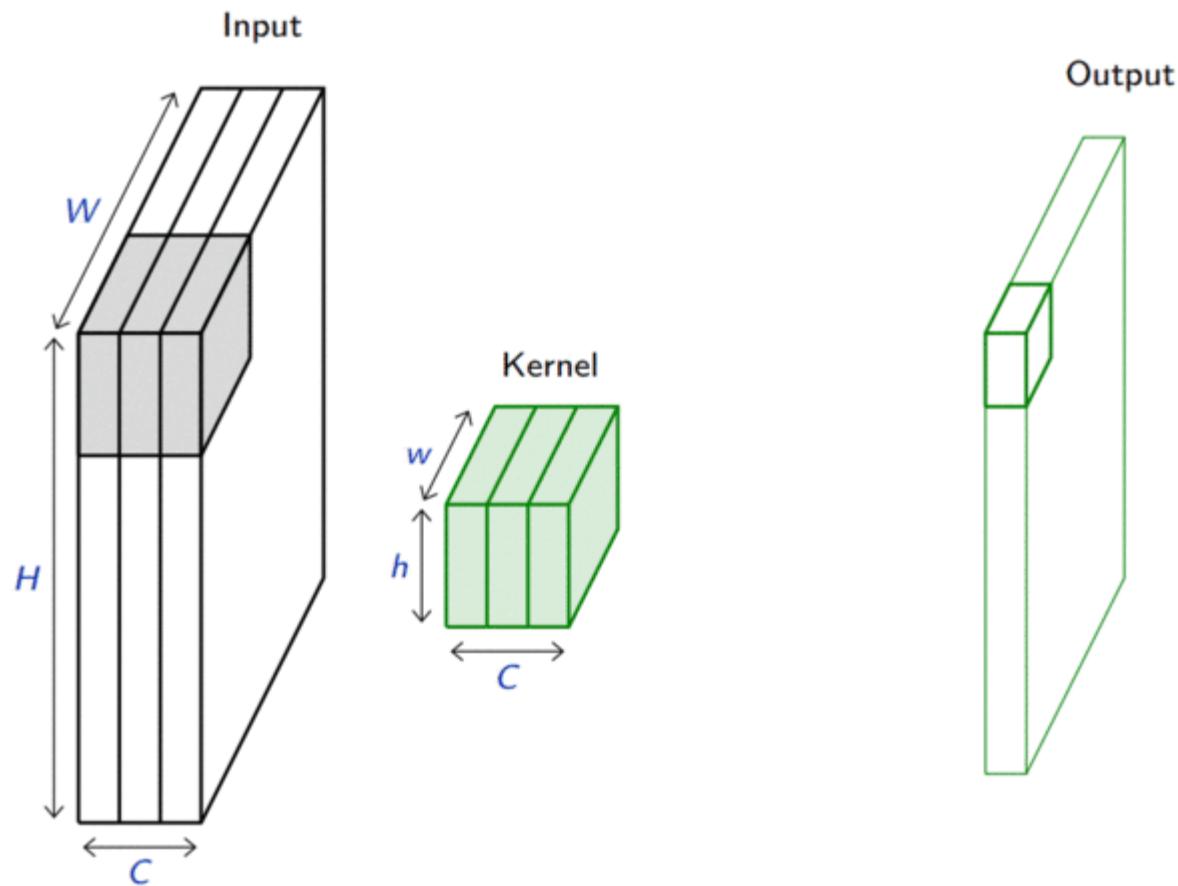
or crude template matchers:



n-D convolution

Convolutions generalize to multi-dimensional tensors:

- In its most usual form, a convolution takes as input a 3D tensor $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H \times W}$, called the **input feature map**.
- A kernel $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times h \times w}$ slides across the input feature map, along its height and width. The size $h \times w$ is the size of the **receptive field**.
- At each location, the element-wise product between the kernel and the input elements it overlaps is computed and the results are summed up.



- The final output \mathbf{o} is a 2D tensor of size $(H - h + 1) \times (W - w + 1)$ called the **output feature map** and such that:

$$\mathbf{o}_{j,i} = \mathbf{b}_{j,i} + \sum_{c=0}^{C-1} (\mathbf{x}_c \circledast \mathbf{u}_c)[j, i] = \mathbf{b}_{j,i} + \sum_{c=0}^{C-1} \sum_{n=0}^{h-1} \sum_{m=0}^{w-1} \mathbf{x}_{c,n+j,m+i} \mathbf{u}_{c,n,m}$$

where \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{b} are shared parameters to learn.

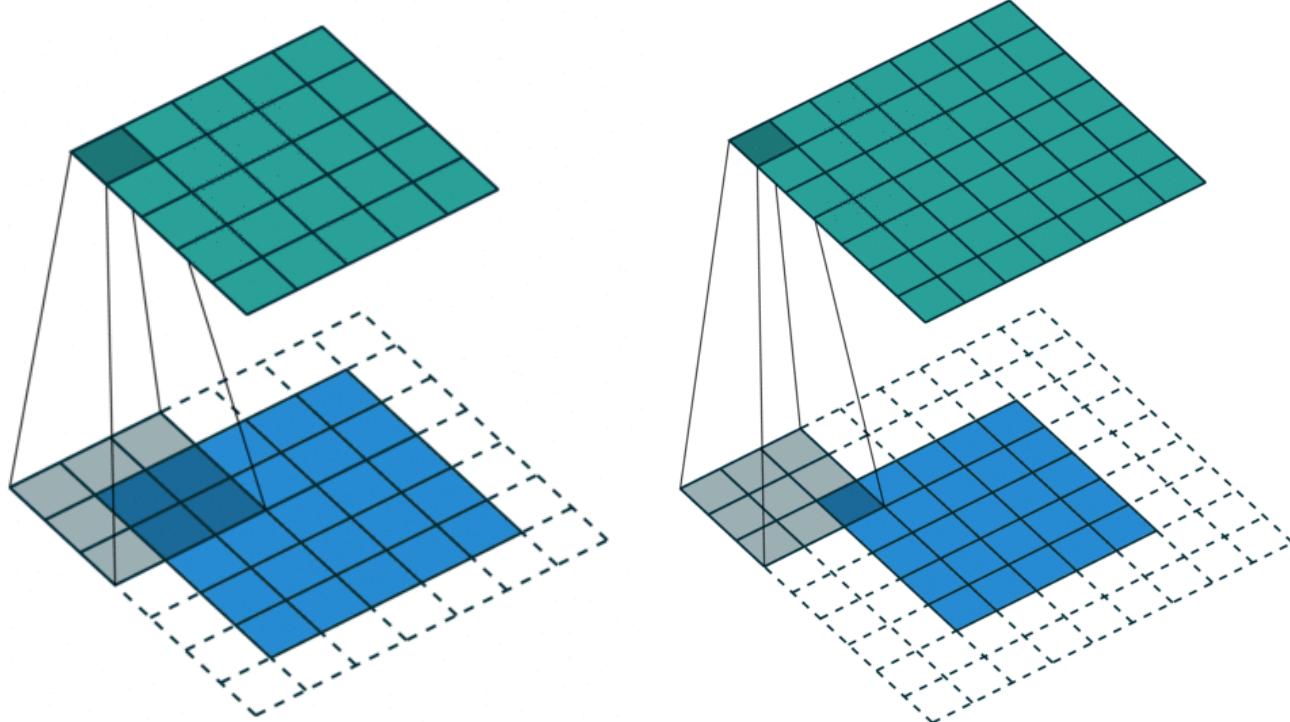
- D convolutions can be applied in the same way to produce a $D \times (H - h + 1) \times (W - w + 1)$ feature map, where D is the depth.
- Swiping across channels with a 3D convolution usually makes no sense, unless the channel index has some metric meaning.

Convolutions have three additional parameters:

- The padding specifies the size of a zeroed frame added around the input.
- The stride specifies a step size when moving the kernel across the signal.
- The dilation modulates the expansion of the filter without adding weights.

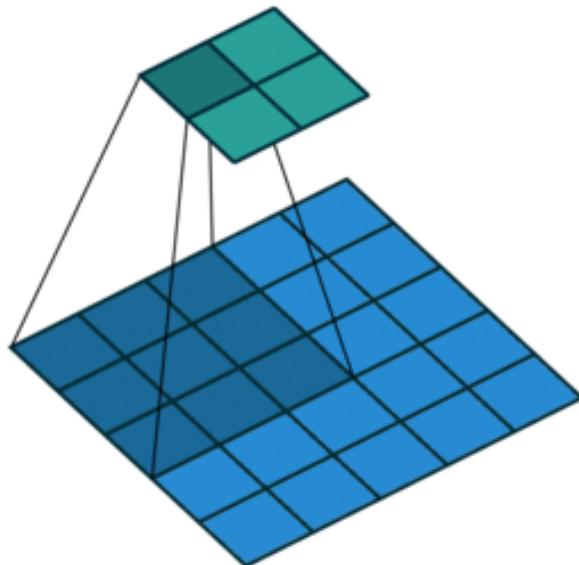
Padding

Padding is useful to control the spatial dimension of the feature map, for example to keep it constant across layers.



Strides

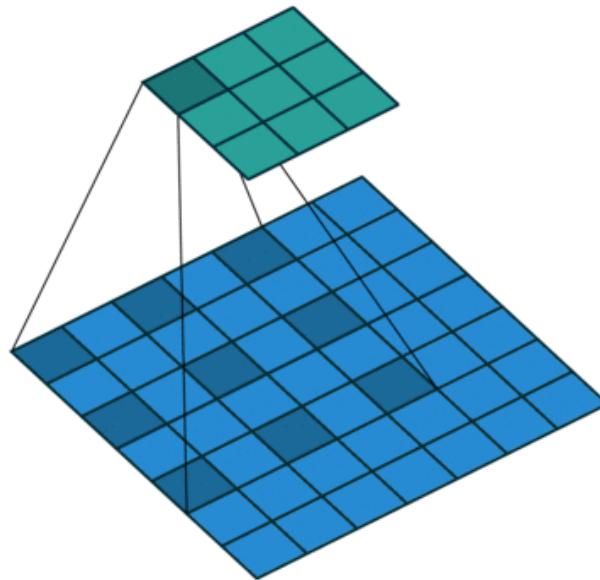
Stride is useful to reduce the spatial dimension of the feature map by a constant factor.



Dilation

The dilation modulates the expansion of the kernel support by adding rows and columns of zeros between coefficients.

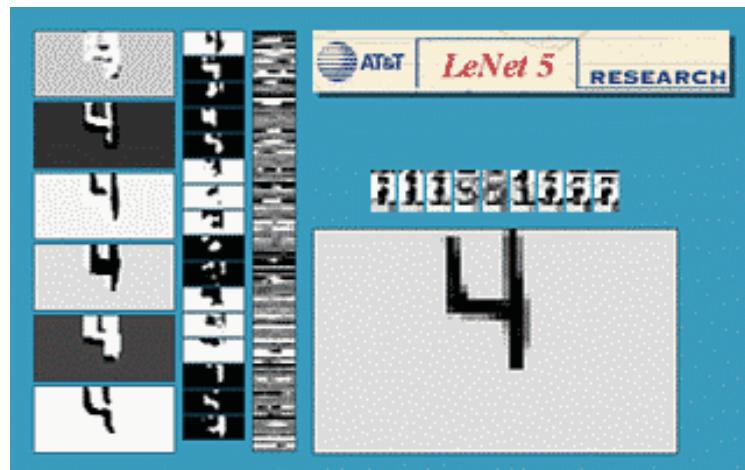
Having a dilation coefficient greater than one increases the units receptive field size without increasing the number of parameters.



Equivariance

A function f is **equivariant** to g if $f(g(\mathbf{x})) = g(f(\mathbf{x}))$.

- Parameter sharing used in a convolutional layer causes the layer to be equivariant to translation.
- That is, if g is any function that translates the input, the convolution function is equivariant to g .



If an object moves in the input image, its representation will move the same amount in the output.

- Equivariance is useful when we know some local function is useful everywhere (e.g., edge detectors).
- Convolution is not equivariant to other operations such as change in scale or rotation.

Convolutions as matrix multiplications

As a guiding example, let us consider the convolution of single-channel tensors $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$ and $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$:

$$\mathbf{x} * \mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5 & 8 & 7 \\ 1 & 8 & 8 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 & 4 \\ 6 & 5 & 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 122 & 148 \\ 126 & 134 \end{pmatrix}$$

The convolution operation can be equivalently re-expressed as a single matrix multiplication:

- the convolutional kernel \mathbf{u} is rearranged as a **sparse Toeplitz circulant matrix**, called the convolution matrix:

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- the input \mathbf{x} is flattened row by row, from top to bottom:

$$v(\mathbf{x}) = (4 \quad 5 \quad 8 \quad 7 \quad 1 \quad 8 \quad 8 \quad 8 \quad 3 \quad 6 \quad 6 \quad 4 \quad 6 \quad 5 \quad 7 \quad 8)^T$$

Then,

$$\mathbf{U}v(\mathbf{x}) = (122 \quad 148 \quad 126 \quad 134)^T$$

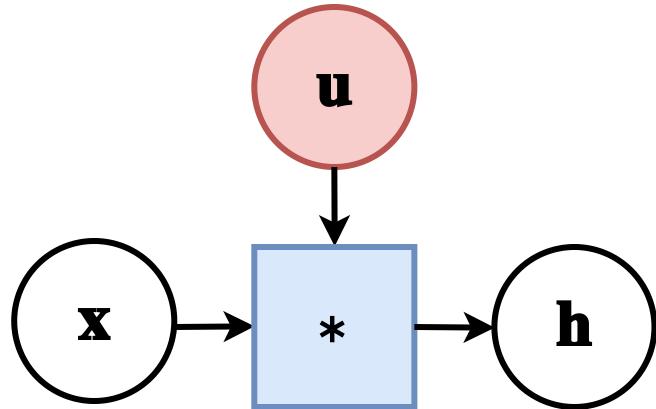
which we can reshape to a 2×2 matrix to obtain $\mathbf{x} \circledast \mathbf{u}$.

The same procedure generalizes to $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$ and convolutional kernel $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w}$, such that:

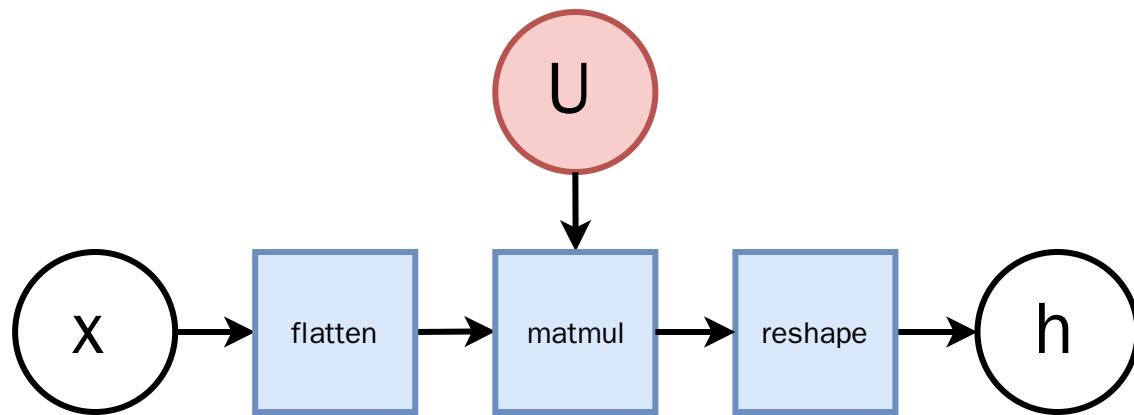
- the convolutional kernel is rearranged as a sparse Toeplitz circulant matrix \mathbf{U} of shape $(H - h + 1)(W - w + 1) \times HW$ where
 - each row i identifies an element of the output feature map,
 - each column j identifies an element of the input feature map,
 - the value $\mathbf{U}_{i,j}$ corresponds to the kernel value the element j is multiplied with in output i ;
- the input \mathbf{x} is flattened into a column vector $v(\mathbf{x})$ of shape $HW \times 1$;
- the output feature map $\mathbf{x} \circledast \mathbf{u}$ is obtained by reshaping the $(H - h + 1)(W - w + 1) \times 1$ column vector $\mathbf{U}v(\mathbf{x})$ as a $(H - h + 1) \times (W - w + 1)$ matrix.

Therefore, a convolutional layer is a special case of a fully connected layer:

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{x} \circledast \mathbf{u} \Leftrightarrow v(\mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{U}v(\mathbf{x}) \Leftrightarrow v(\mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{W}^T v(\mathbf{x})$$



\Leftrightarrow



Pooling

When the input volume is large, **pooling layers** can be used to reduce the input dimension while preserving its global structure, in a way similar to a down-scaling operation.

Pooling

Consider a pooling area of size $h \times w$ and a 3D input tensor $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times (rh) \times (sw)}$.

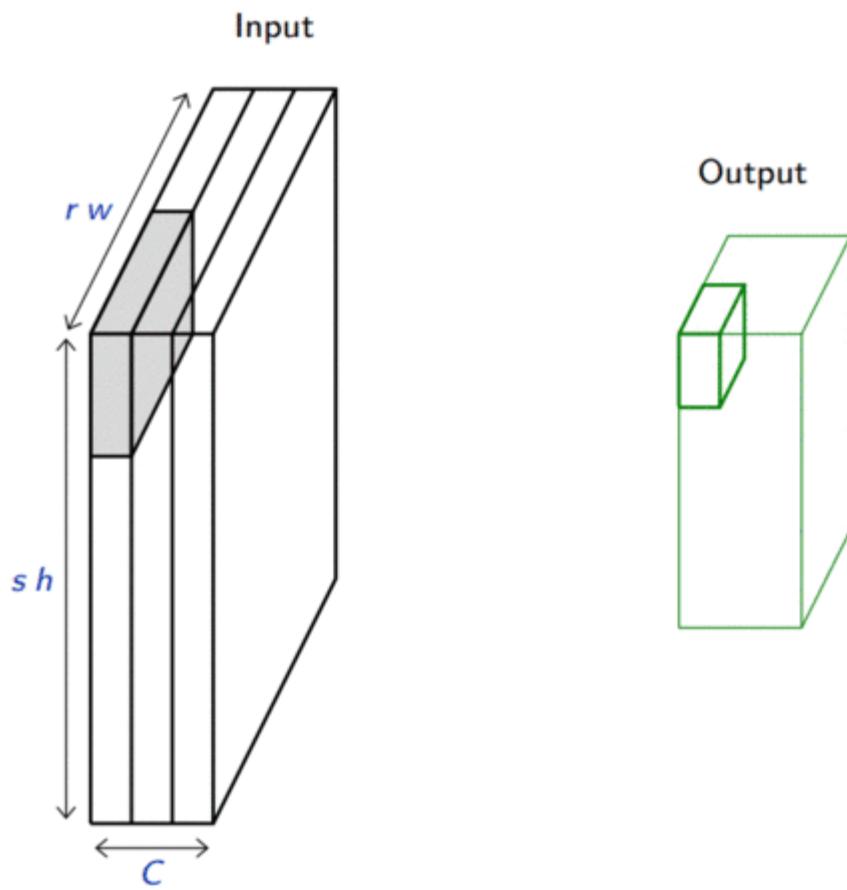
- Max-pooling produces a tensor $\mathbf{o} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times r \times s}$ such that

$$\mathbf{o}_{c,j,i} = \max_{n < h, m < w} \mathbf{x}_{c,rj+n,si+m}.$$

- Average pooling produces a tensor $\mathbf{o} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times r \times s}$ such that

$$\mathbf{o}_{c,j,i} = \frac{1}{hw} \sum_{n=0}^{h-1} \sum_{m=0}^{w-1} \mathbf{x}_{c,rj+n,si+m}.$$

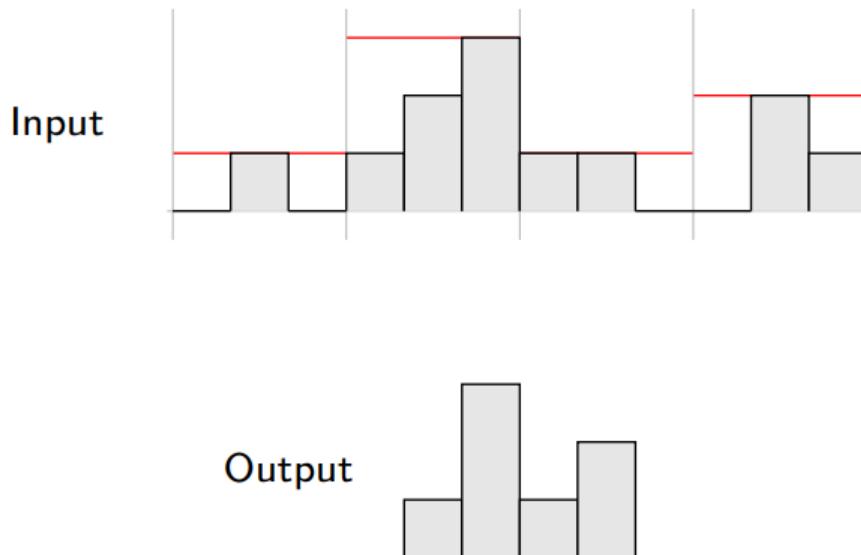
Pooling is very similar in its formulation to convolution.



Invariance

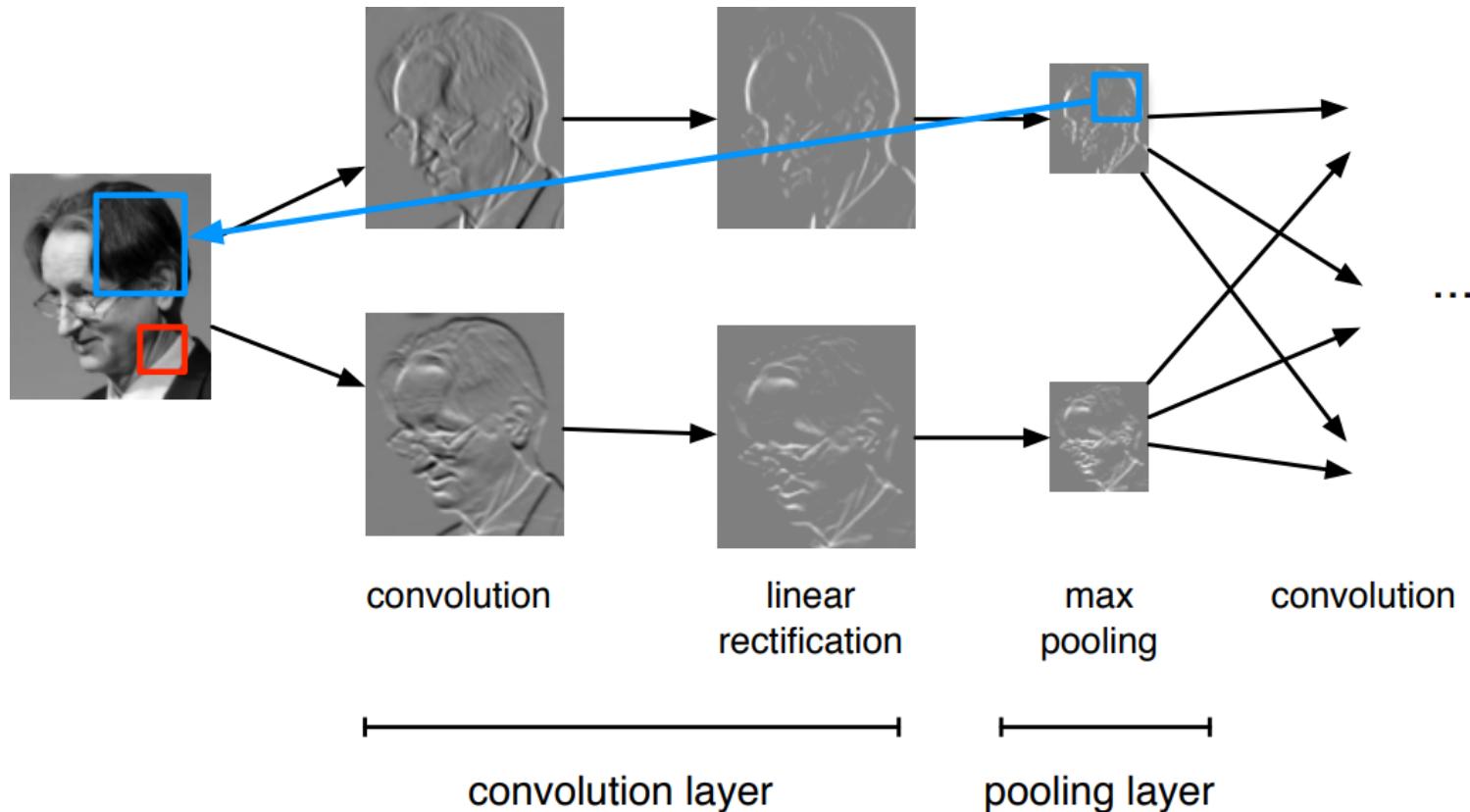
A function f is **invariant** to g if $f(g(\mathbf{x})) = f(\mathbf{x})$.

- Pooling layers provide invariance to any permutation inside one cell.
- It results in (pseudo-)invariance to local translations.
- This helpful if we care more about the presence of a pattern rather than its exact position.



Convolutional networks

A **convolutional network** is generically defined as a composition of convolutional layers (**CONV**), pooling layers (**POOL**), linear rectifiers (**RELU**) and fully connected layers (**FC**).



The most common convolutional network architecture follows the pattern:

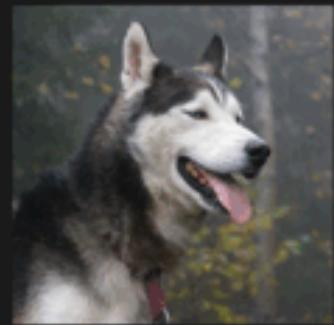
INPUT → [[CONV → RELU]* N → POOL?] * M → [FC → RELU]* K → FC

where:

- * indicates repetition;
- POOL? indicates an optional pooling layer;
- $N \geq 0$ (and usually $N \leq 3$), $M \geq 0$, $K \geq 0$ (and usually $K < 3$);
- the last fully connected layer holds the output (e.g., the class scores).

Some common architectures for convolutional networks following this pattern include:

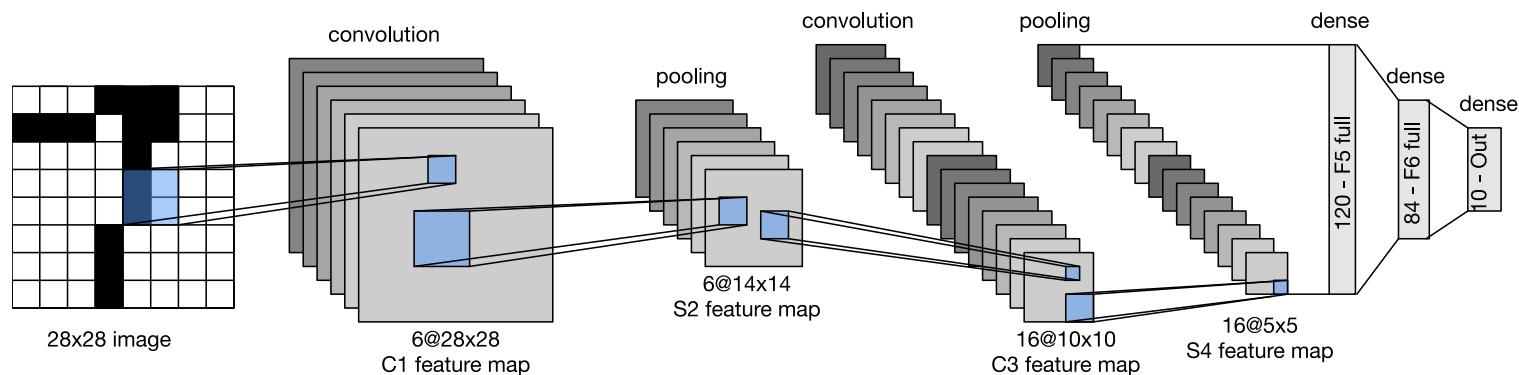
- INPUT → FC, which implements a linear classifier ($N = M = K = 0$).
- INPUT → [FC → RELU] $*K$ → FC, which implements a K -layer MLP.
- INPUT → CONV → RELU → FC.
- INPUT → [CONV → RELU → POOL] $*2$ → FC → RELU → FC.
- INPUT → [[CONV → RELU] $*2$ → POOL] $*3$ → [FC → RELU] $*2$ → FC.



(demo)

LeNet-5 (LeCun et al, 1998)

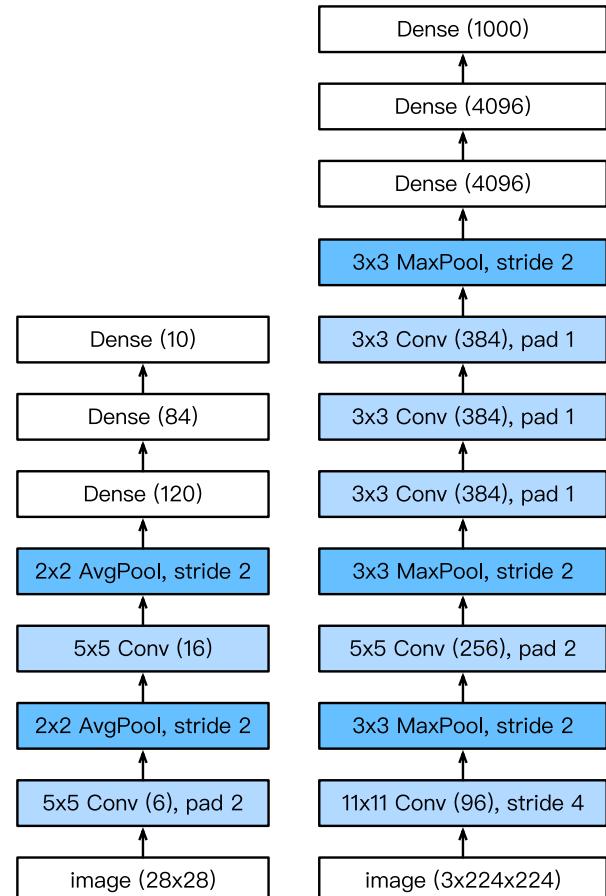
Composition of two **CONV + POOL** layers, followed by a block of fully-connected layers.



AlexNet (Krizhevsky et al, 2012)

Composition of a 8-layer convolutional neural network with a 3-layer MLP.

The original implementation was made of two parts such that it could fit within two GPUs.

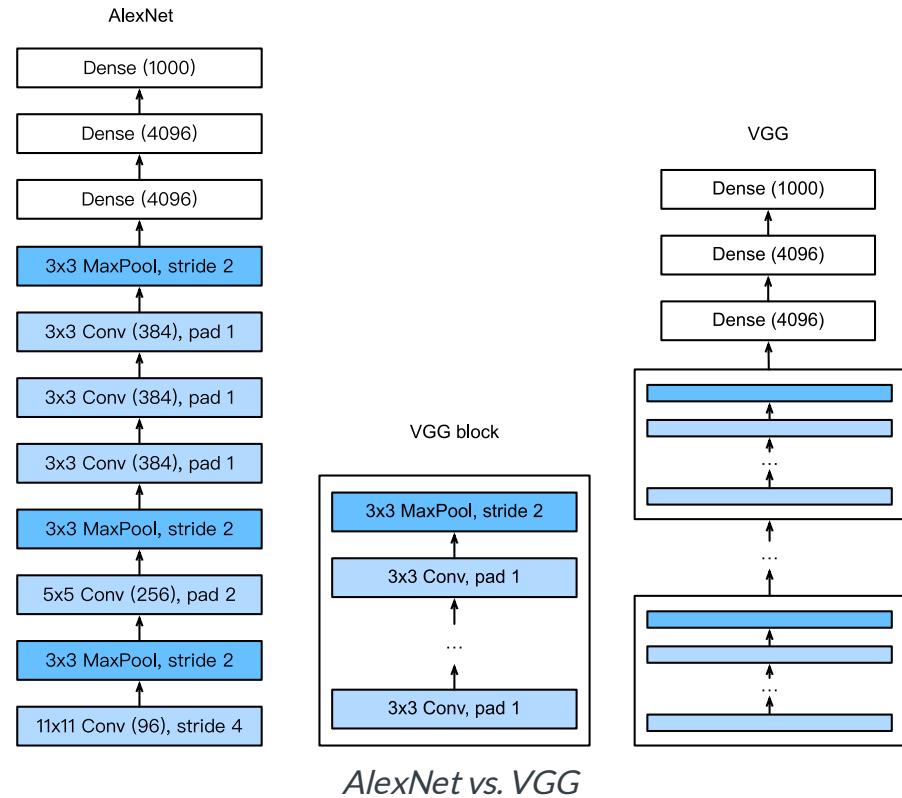


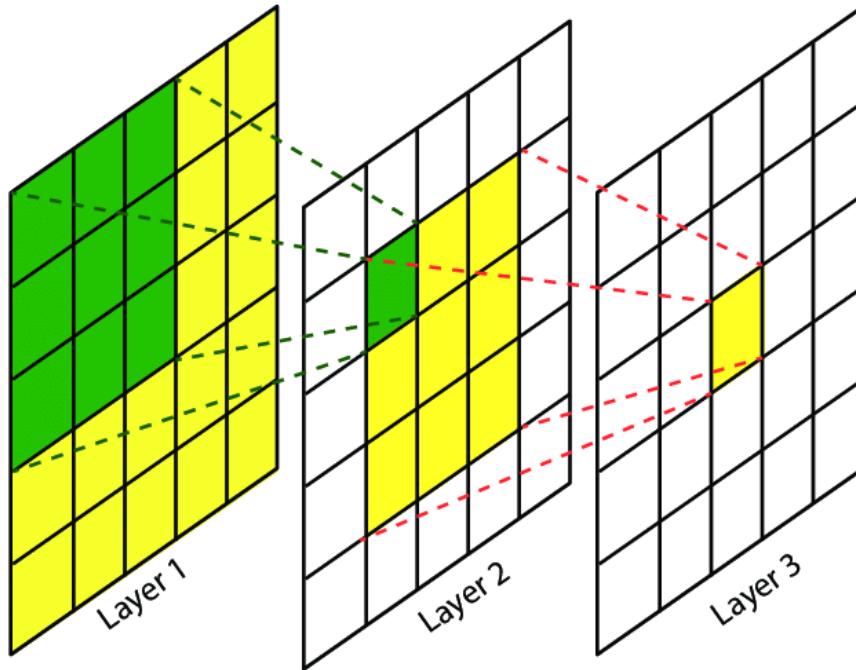
LeNet vs. AlexNet

VGG (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014)

Composition of 5 VGG blocks consisting of **CONV + POOL** layers, followed by a block of fully connected layers.

The network depth increased up to 19 layers, while the kernel sizes reduced to 3.





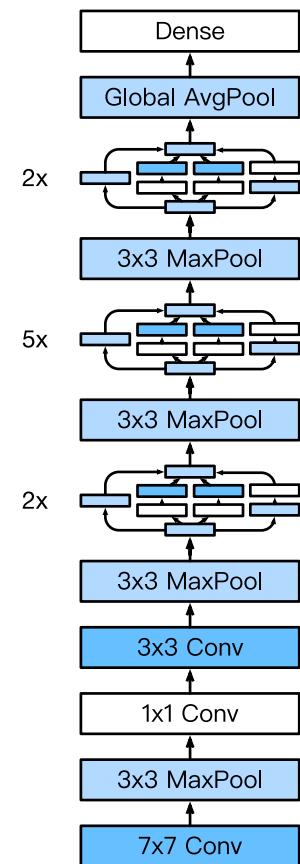
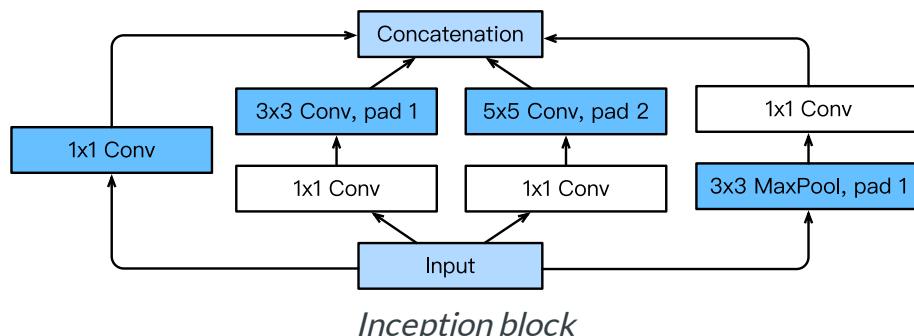
The **effective receptive field** is the part of the visual input that affects a given unit indirectly through previous convolutional layers. It grows linearly with depth.

E.g., a stack of two 3×3 kernels of stride 1 has the same effective receptive field as a single 5×5 kernel, but fewer parameters.

GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al, 2014)

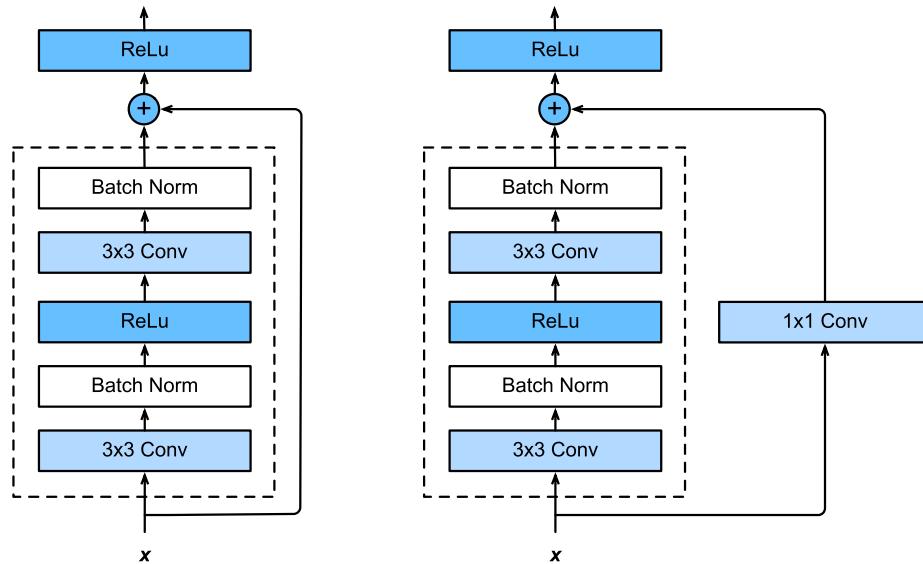
Composition of two **CONV + POOL** layers, a stack of 9 inception blocks, and a global average pooling layer.

Each inception block is itself defined as a convolutional network with 4 parallel paths.

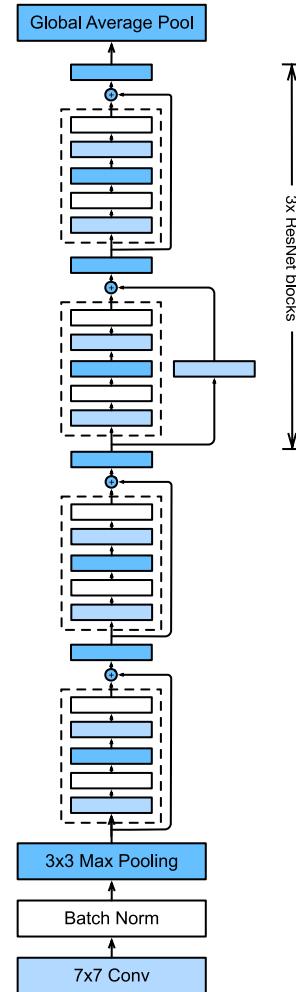


ResNet (He et al, 2015)

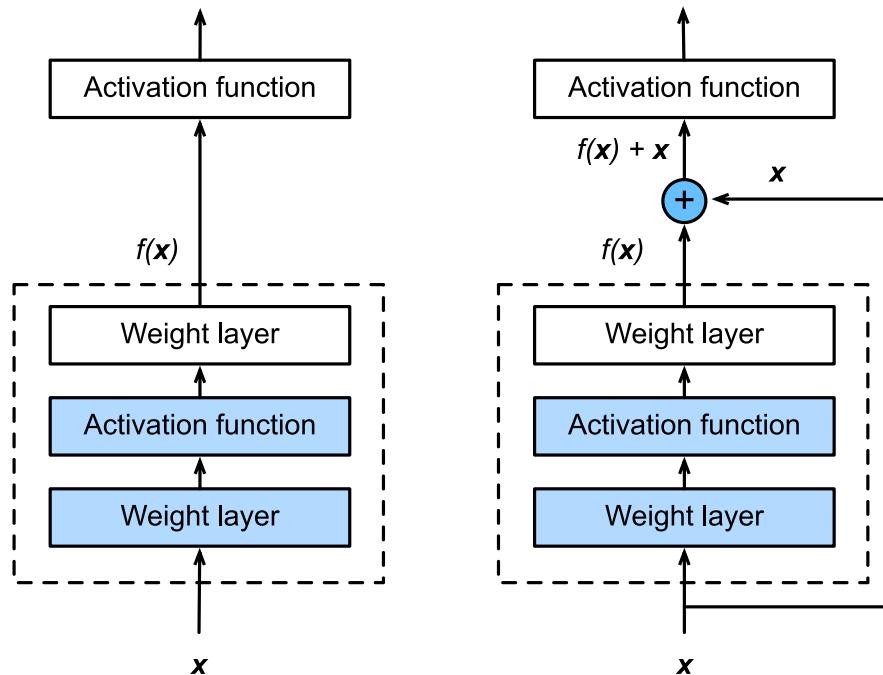
Composition of first layers similar to GoogLeNet, a stack of 4 residual blocks, and a global average pooling layer. Extensions consider more residual blocks, up to a total of 152 layers (ResNet-152).



Regular ResNet block vs. ResNet block with 1×1 convolution.



Training networks of this depth is made possible because of the **skip connections** in the residual blocks. They allow the gradients to shortcut the layers and pass through without vanishing.



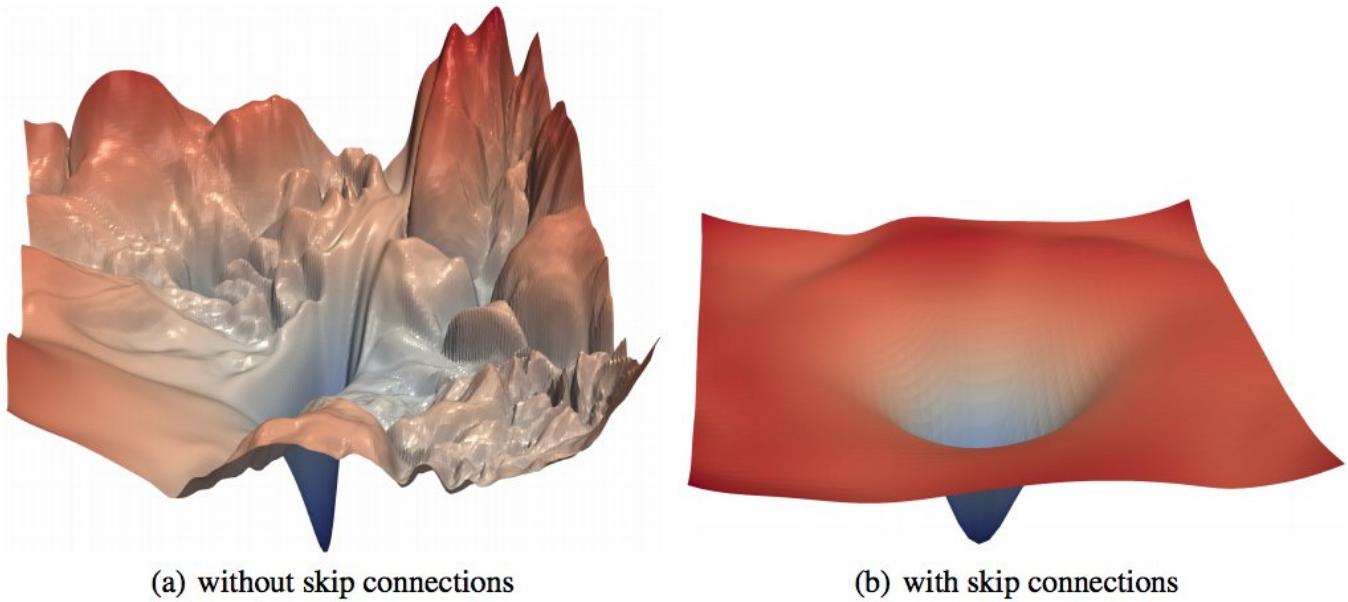
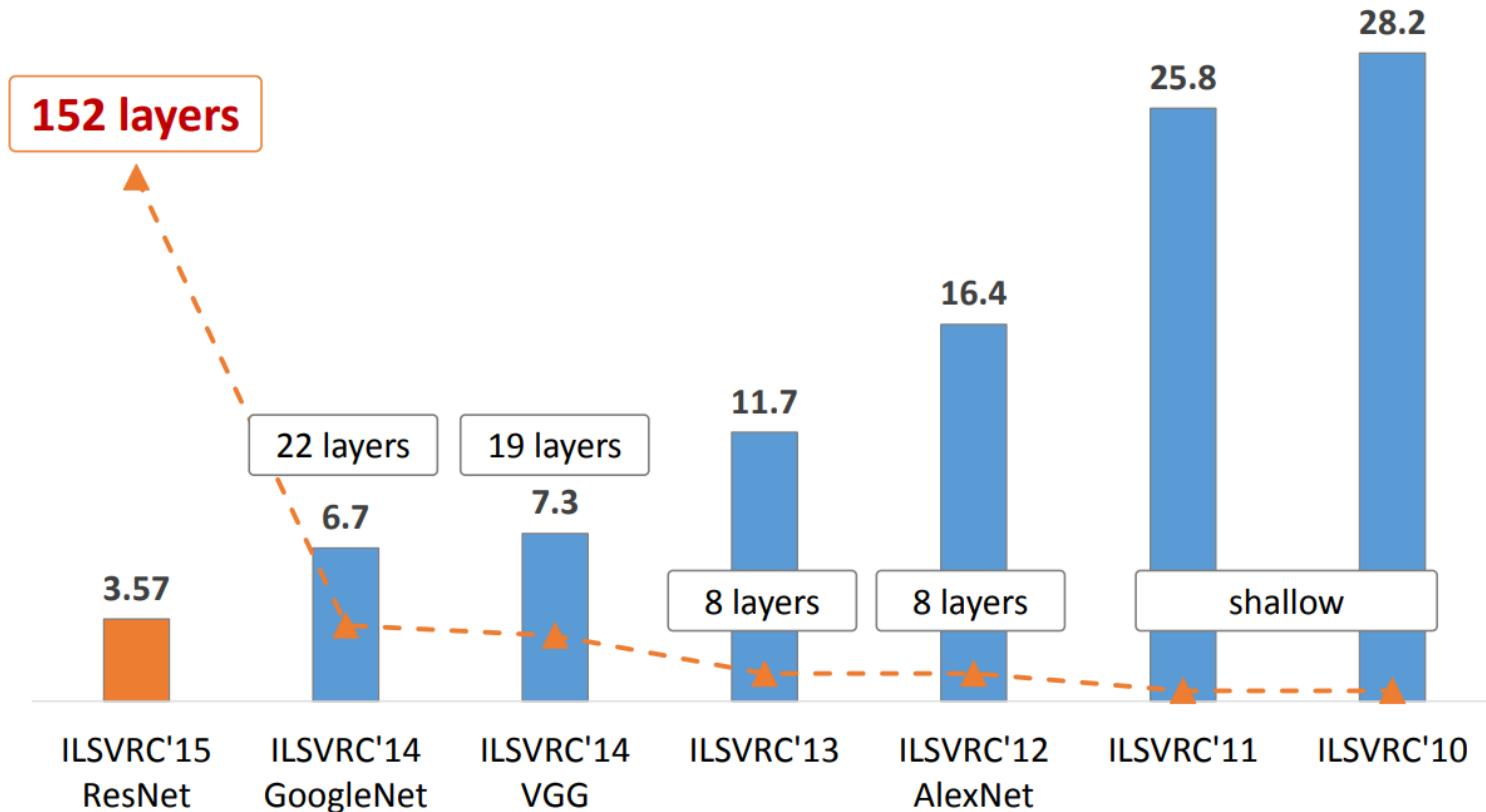


Figure 1: The loss surfaces of ResNet-56 with/without skip connections. The vertical axis is logarithmic to show dynamic range. The proposed filter normalization scheme is used to enable comparisons of sharpness/flatness between the two figures.

The benefits of depth



Under the hood

Understanding what is happening in deep neural networks after training is complex and the tools we have are limited.

In the case of convolutional neural networks, we can look at:

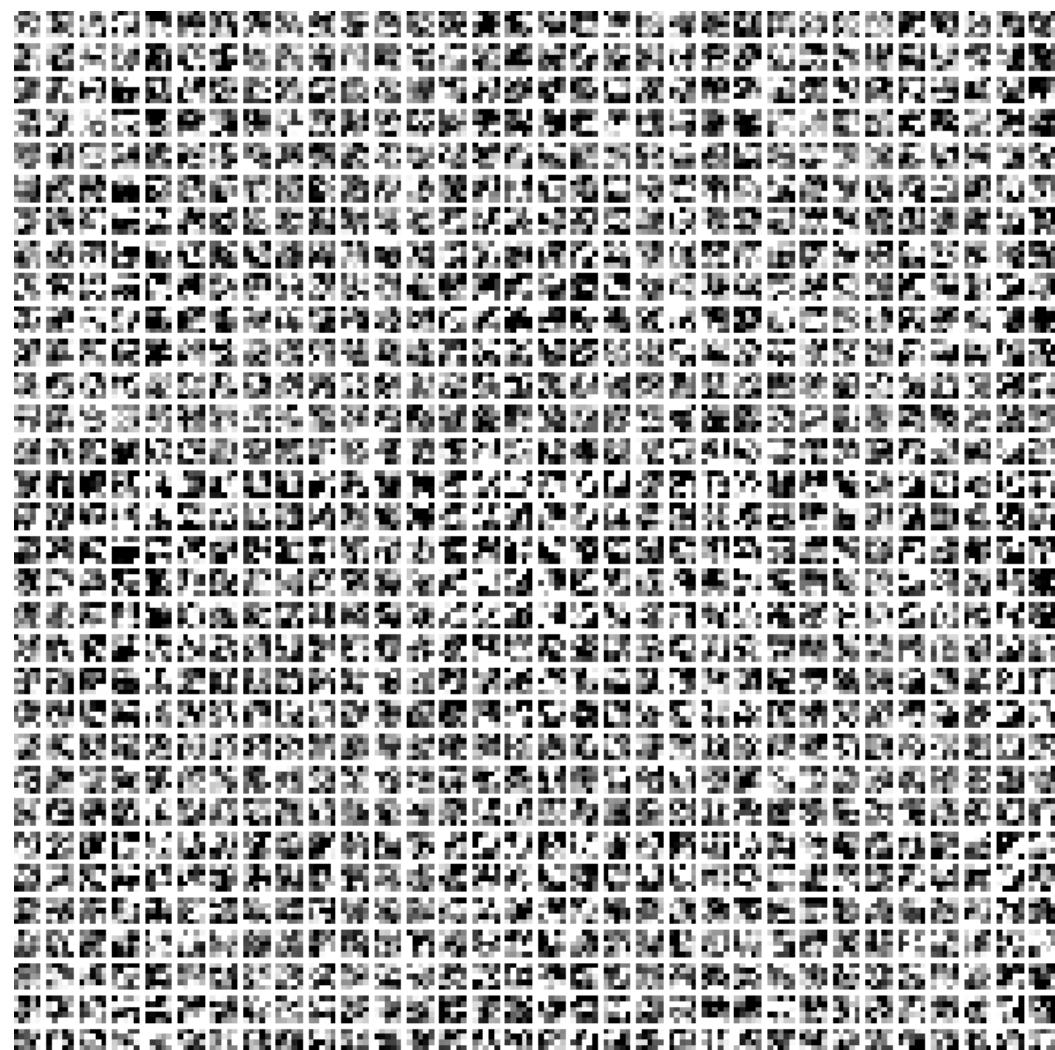
- the network's kernels as images
- internal activations on a single sample as images
- distributions of activations on a population of samples
- derivatives of the response with respect to the input
- maximum-response synthetic samples

Looking at filters

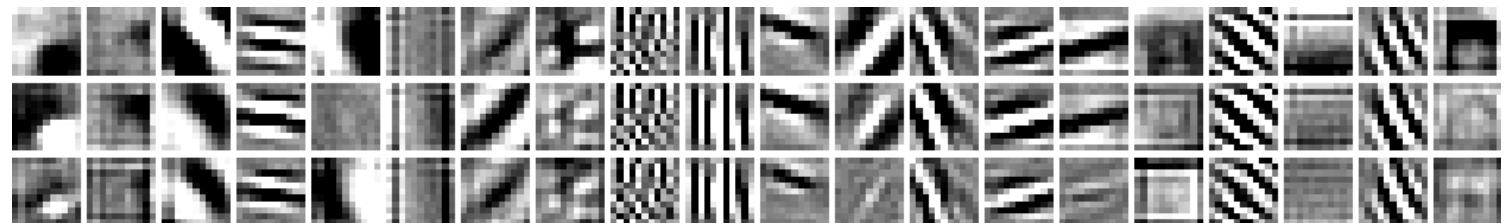
LeNet's first convolutional layer, all filters.



LeNet's second convolutional layer, first 32 filters.



AlexNet's first convolutional layer, first 20 filters.

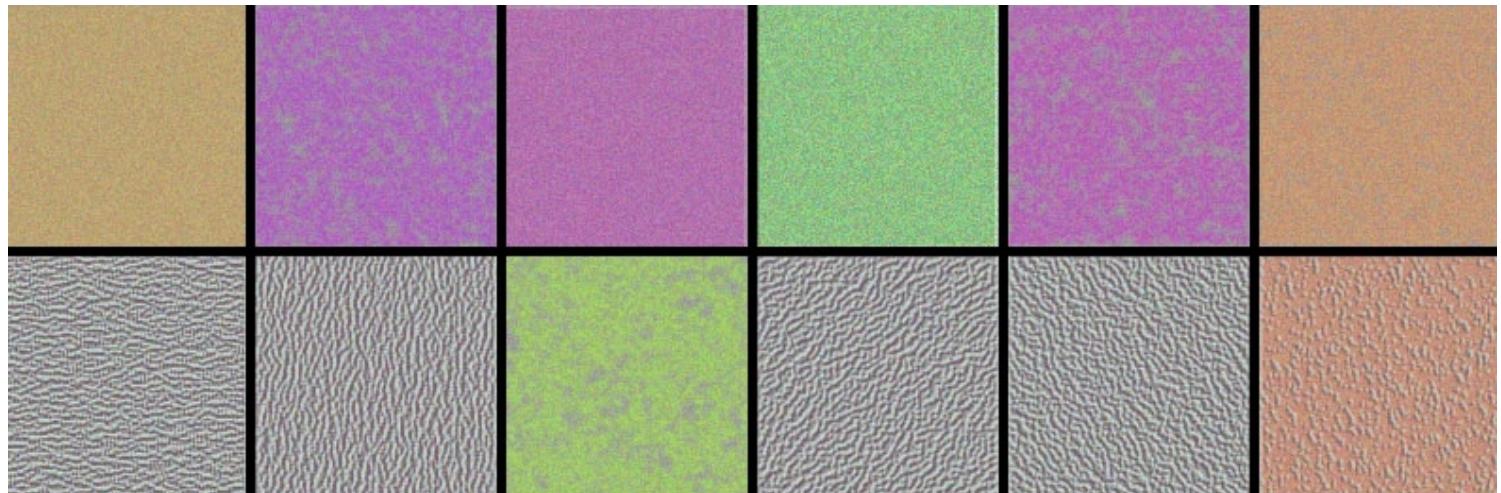


Maximum response samples

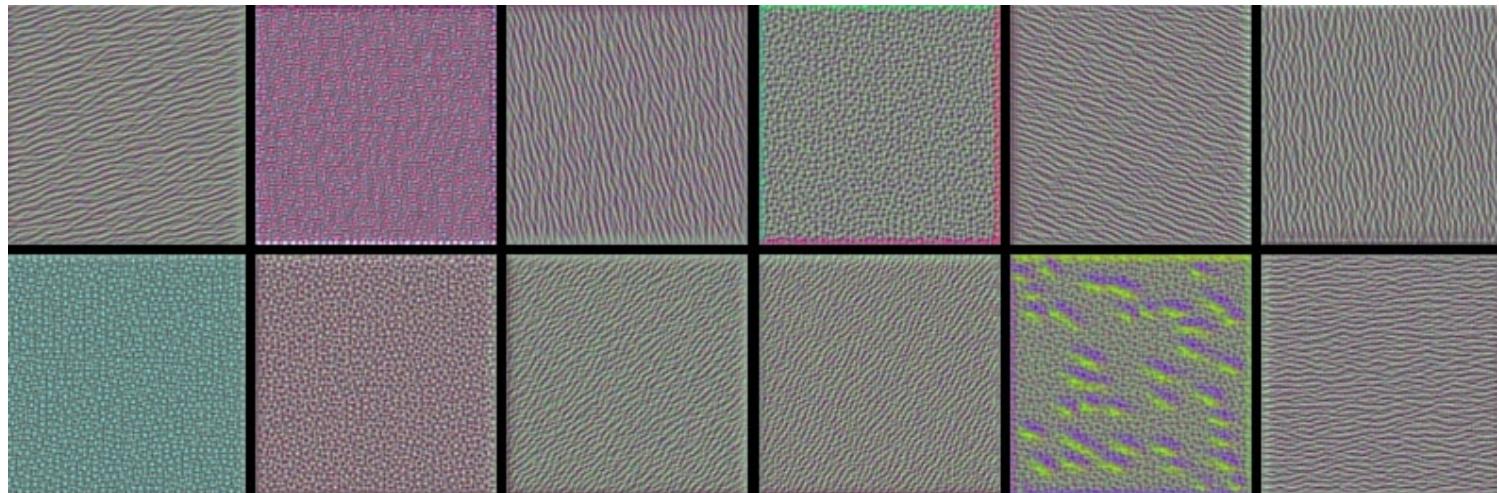
Convolutional networks can be inspected by looking for synthetic input images \mathbf{x} that maximize the activation $\mathbf{h}_{\ell,d}(\mathbf{x})$ of a chosen convolutional kernel \mathbf{u} at layer ℓ and index d in the layer filter bank.

These samples can be found by gradient ascent on the input space:

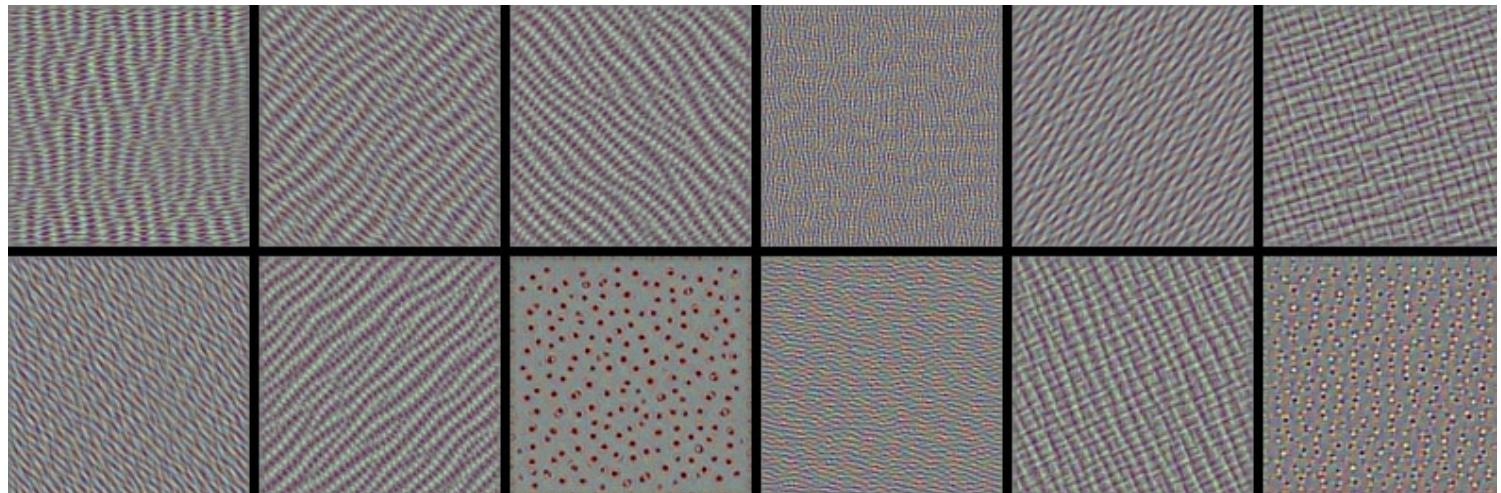
$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{\ell,d}(\mathbf{x}) &= \|\mathbf{h}_{\ell,d}(\mathbf{x})\|_2 \\ \mathbf{x}_0 &\sim U[0, 1]^{C \times H \times W} \\ \mathbf{x}_{t+1} &= \mathbf{x}_t + \gamma \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{L}_{\ell,d}(\mathbf{x}_t)\end{aligned}$$



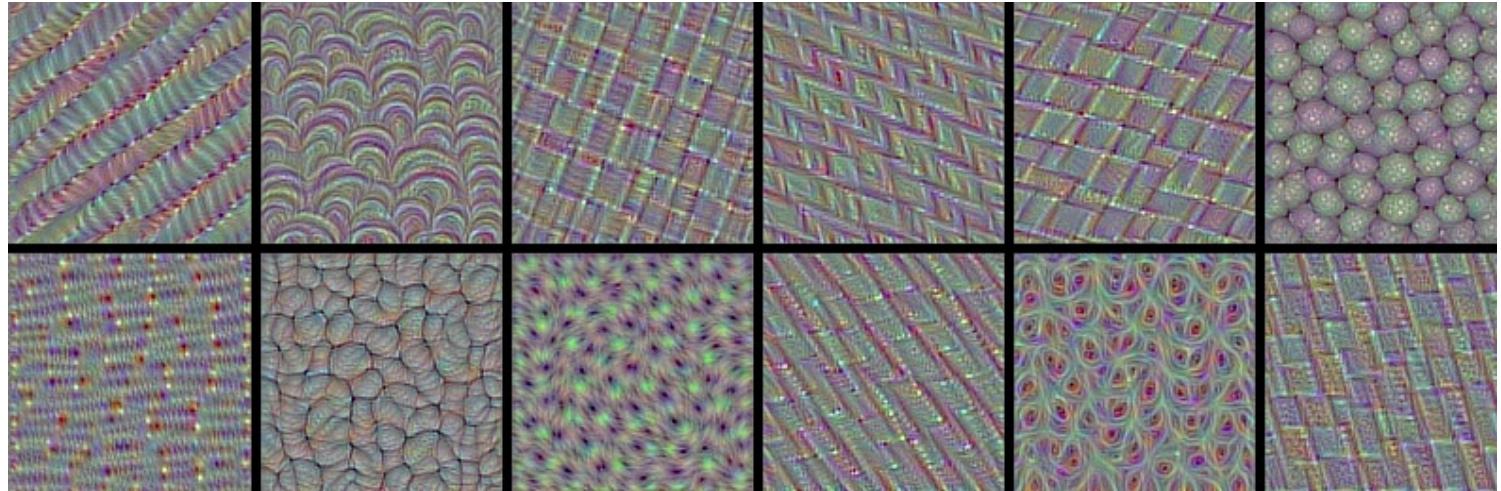
VGG-16, convolutional layer 1-1, a few of the 64 filters



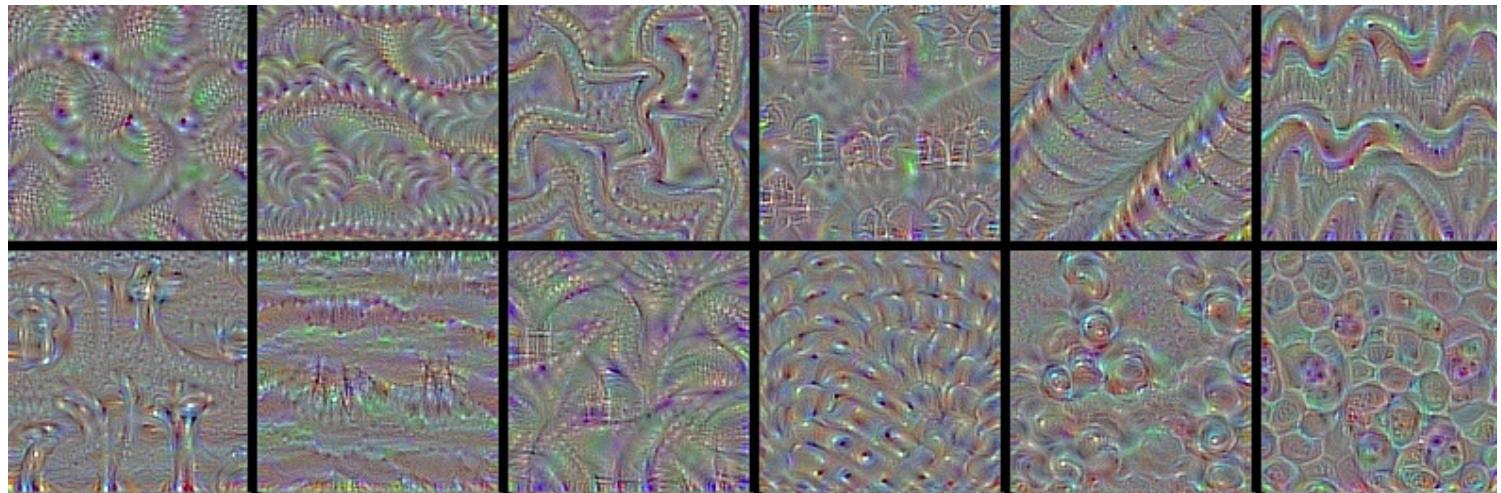
VGG-16, convolutional layer 2-1, a few of the 128 filters



VGG-16, convolutional layer 3-1, a few of the 256 filters



VGG-16, convolutional layer 4-1, a few of the 512 filters

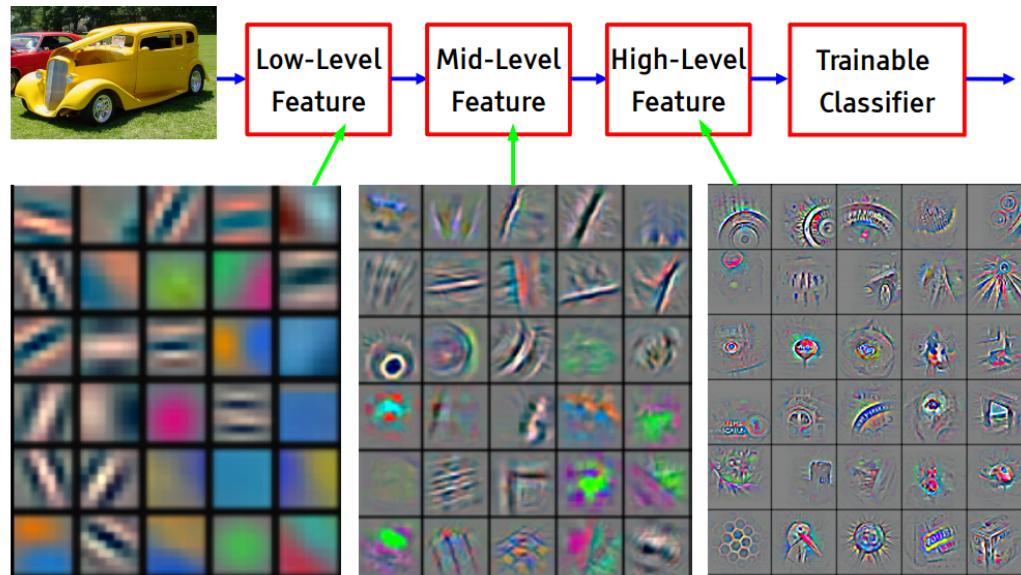


VGG-16, convolutional layer 5-1, a few of the 512 filters

Some observations:

- The first layers appear to encode direction and color.
- The direction and color filters get combined into grid and spot textures.
- These textures gradually get combined into increasingly complex patterns.

The network appears to learn a **hierarchical composition of patterns**.

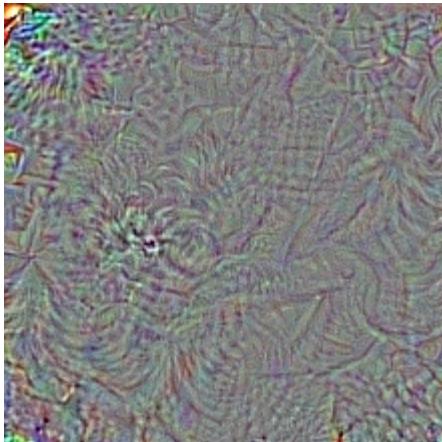


Feature visualization of convolutional net trained on ImageNet from [Zeiler & Fergus 2013]

What if we build images that maximize the activation of a chosen class output?

What if we build images that maximize the activation of a chosen class output?

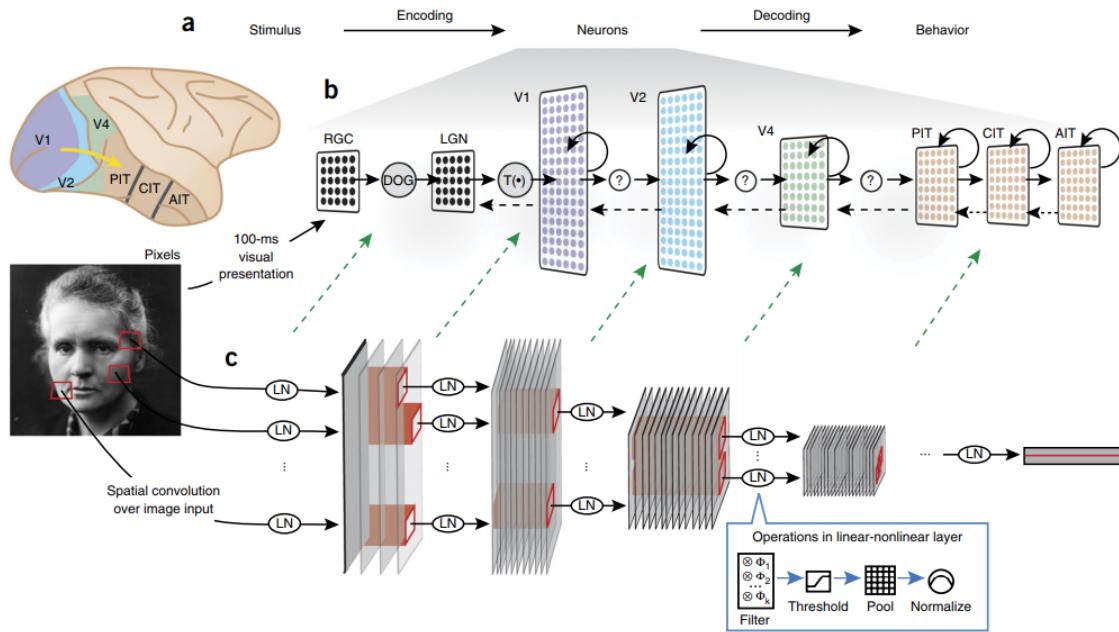
The left image is predicted **with 99.9% confidence** as a magpie!





Deep Dream. Start from an image \mathbf{x}_t , offset by a random jitter, enhance some layer activation at multiple scales, zoom in, repeat on the produced image \mathbf{x}_{t+1} .

Biological plausibility



"Deep hierarchical neural networks are beginning to transform neuroscientists' ability to produce quantitatively accurate computational models of the sensory systems, especially in higher cortical areas where neural response properties had previously been enigmatic."

The end.

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