

Lecture 2 Deep Residual Neural Networks

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ResNet

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Challenges in
Training Deep
Learning Models

Deep Residual
Learning

Residual
Learning In
General

1 Challenges in Training Deep Learning Models

2 Deep Residual Learning

3 Residual Learning In General

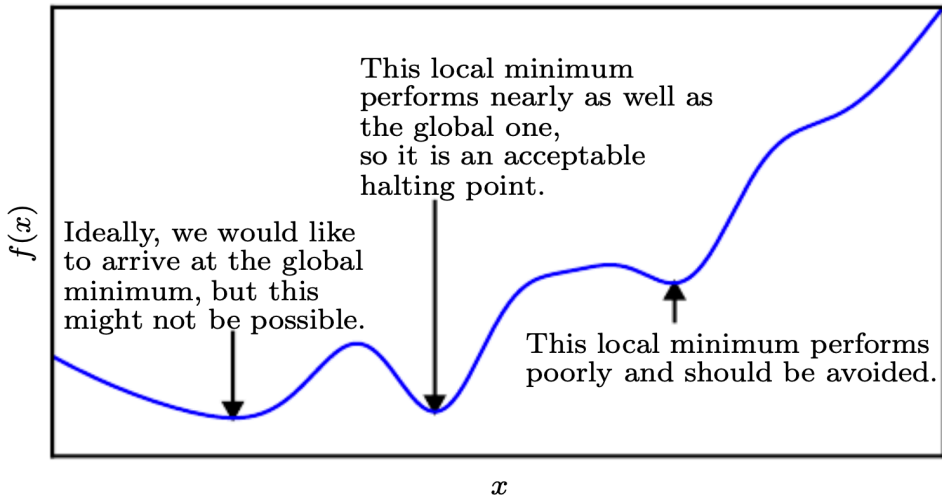
- Most deep learning algorithms involve optimization of some sort.
- Training neural network often relies on minimizing some objective (cost/loss) function $f(x)$.
- To minimize f , we would like to find the direction u in which f decreases the fastest by using the directional derivative:

$$\min_{u, \|u\|=1} \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \right|_{\alpha=0} f(x + \alpha u) = \min_{u, \|u\|=1} u^T \nabla_x f(x) = \|\nabla_x f(x)\|_2 \min_{u, \|u\|=1} \cos \theta$$

- The minimal is achieved when $\theta = \pi$, i.e. the direction $u = -\nabla_x f(x)$ is the **steepest descent** or **gradient descent**.
- Then we update the state by

$$x' = x - \epsilon \nabla_x f(x)$$

where ϵ is called *learning rate*.



There are other challenges like:

- overflow/underflow, e.g. softmax function.
- ill-conditioning: $f(x) = A^{-1}x$ where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}$, then condition number is $\max_{i,j} |\lambda_i/\lambda_j|$.
- complex landscape, e.g. plateaus, saddle points, cliffs...
- expensive gradients: large data volume.

- Learning \neq pure optimization.
- In most machine learning scenarios, we care about some performance measure P , defined with respect to test set.
- We reduce a different cost function $J(\theta)$ in the hope that doing so will improve P . This is in contrast to pure optimization with J as the goal.
- Typically, the cost function is defined as an expectation of some loss function $L(\cdot, \cdot)$, namely, **risk**,

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim p_{data}} L(f(x; \theta), y)$$

- In reality, we often minimize the an approximate version, **empirical risk**,

$$\tilde{J}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \hat{p}_{data}} L(f(x; \theta), y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(f(x^{(i)}; \theta), y^{(i)})$$

- Empirical risk minimization is prone to overfitting. In stead, we often consider a surrogate loss function, e.g. negative log-likelihood, i.e.

$$\theta_{ML} = \arg \max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p_{model}(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}; \theta)$$

- To combat the issue of expensive gradients when N is large, a small batch of data size m is (randomly) chosen to approximate the gradient in gradient descent algorithms:

$$\theta' = \theta - \frac{N\epsilon}{m} \nabla_{\theta} \log p_{model}(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}; \theta)$$

- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) and its variants are probably the most used optimization algorithms for machine learning in general and for deep learning in particular.
- In practice, it is common to decay the learning rate ϵ linearly in the minibatch gradient descent until iteration τ :

$$\epsilon_k = (1 - \alpha)\epsilon_0 + \alpha\epsilon_\tau, \quad \alpha = k/\tau.$$

such that the convergence condition, $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_k = \infty$, $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_k^2 < \infty$, is met.

Algorithm 8.1 Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) update at training iteration k

Require: Learning rate ϵ_k .

Require: Initial parameter θ

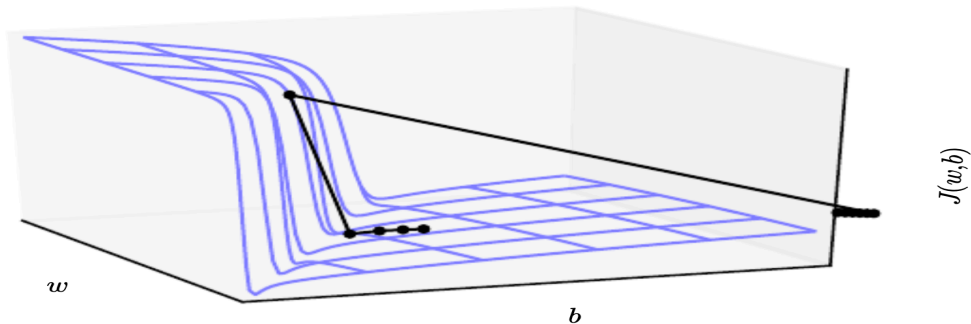
while stopping criterion not met **do**

 Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set $\{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(m)}\}$ with corresponding targets $\mathbf{y}^{(i)}$.

 Compute gradient estimate: $\hat{\mathbf{g}} \leftarrow +\frac{1}{m} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_i L(f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \theta), \mathbf{y}^{(i)})$

 Apply update: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \epsilon \hat{\mathbf{g}}$

end while



- Like general gradient descent optimization, training neural network also faces the same challenges including cliffs, or exploding gradients.
- To alleviate such issue, **gradient clipping** is adopted when the norm of gradient $\|g\| > \text{max_norm}$ for some threshold max_norm :

$$g \leftarrow g \frac{\text{max_norm}}{\|g\|}$$

- Very deep models involve the composition of several functions or layers.
- In practice, when we update all of the layers simultaneously, unexpected results can happen because many functions composed together are changed simultaneously, e.g. $\hat{y} = xw_1w_2 \cdots w_l$ where $h_i = h_{i-1}w_i$, then the gradient in back-propagation could be either too small or too large.
- To solve this issue, **batch normalization** is adopted.
- Given a minibatch of activations \mathbf{H} , we normalize \mathbf{H} and replace it with

$$\mathbf{H}' = \frac{\mathbf{H} - \mu}{\sigma}, \quad \mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i \mathbf{H}_i, \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\delta + \frac{1}{m} \sum_i (\mathbf{H} - \mu)_i^2}, \quad \delta \approx 10^{-8}$$

- At test time, μ and σ may be replaced by running averages that were collected during training time.

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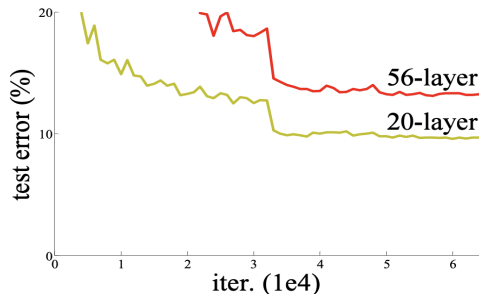
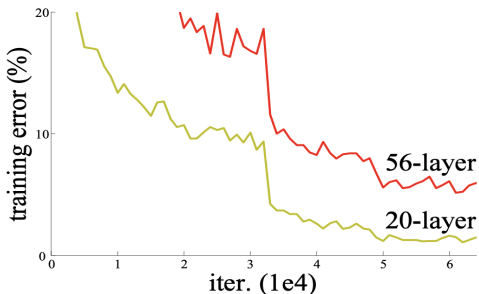
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- Even with the above remedy measures, training deep models may still suffer from the performance *degradation* issue as the model goes deeper.
- A natural question arises:

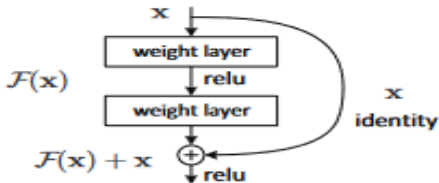
Is learning better networks as easy as stacking more layers?

- *Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition* by He et al (CVPR, 2016) provides a simple yet an effective solution.
- Instead of hoping each few stacked layers directly fit a desired underlying mapping, they let these layers fit a **residual mapping** and demonstrate that it is easier to optimize.
- It makes training very **deep** (100, 1000 layers or more) neural networks successful.
- It won the First place on ILSVRC 2015 classification task with ResNet152 and achieved 3.57% error on ImageNet test set.
- It won the First place on the task of ImageNet detection, ImageNet localization, COCO detection, and COCO segmentation in ILSVRC COCO 2015 competitions.

- Consider the desired underlying mapping $\mathcal{H}(x)$ to be fit by a few stacked layers.
- Instead of stacking deep layers to directly train $\mathcal{H}(x)$, it lets the stacked nonlinear layers fit residual mapping $\mathcal{F}(x) = \mathcal{H}(x) - x$.
- Equivalently, ResNet learns the mapping of the following form

$$\mathcal{H}(x) = \mathcal{F}(x) + x$$

- Such formulation can be realized by feedforward neural networks with "shortcut connects".



- "If the added layers can be constructed as identity mappings, a deeper model should have training error no greater than its shallower counter-part."
- "The degradation problem suggests that the solvers might have difficulties in approximating identity mappings by multiple nonlinear layers."
- Consider the building block

$$y = \mathcal{F}(x, \{W_i\}) + x$$

where $\mathcal{F}(x, \{W_i\})$ represents residual mapping, e.g. $\mathcal{F} = W_2\sigma(W_1x)$ with σ as ReLU activation, or CNN layers.

- When there is discrepancy between input and output dimensions, consider a projection matrix W_s to match the dimensions

$$y = \mathcal{F}(x, \{W_i\}) + W_s x$$

- How does the residual block $y = \mathcal{F}(x) + x$ help with the gradient?
- Consider the gradient of some loss function L in the back-propagation:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial x} + \mathbf{I} \right)$$

- Why it works?

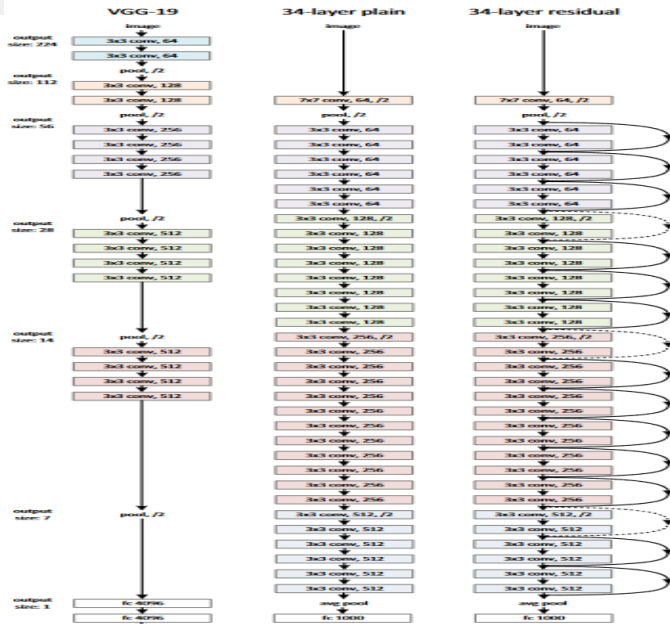
- How does the residual block $y = \mathcal{F}(x) + x$ help with the gradient?
- Consider the gradient of some loss function L in the back-propagation:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial x} + \mathbf{I} \right)$$

- Why it works?
- Even if $\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial x} \rightarrow 0$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} \rightarrow \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \mathbf{I}$!
- Gradients can flow directly backward, avoiding vanishing gradients!

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layer name	output size	18-layer	34-layer	50-layer	101-layer	152-layer
conv1	112×112	7×7, 64, stride 2				
conv2_x	56×56	3×3 max pool, stride 2				
		$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 1 \times 1, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 1 \times 1, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 64 \\ 3 \times 3, 64 \\ 1 \times 1, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$
conv3_x	28×28	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \end{bmatrix} \times 4$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 1 \times 1, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 4$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 1 \times 1, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 4$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 128 \\ 3 \times 3, 128 \\ 1 \times 1, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 8$
conv4_x	14×14	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \end{bmatrix} \times 6$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 1 \times 1, 1024 \end{bmatrix} \times 6$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 1 \times 1, 1024 \end{bmatrix} \times 23$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 256 \\ 3 \times 3, 256 \\ 1 \times 1, 1024 \end{bmatrix} \times 36$
conv5_x	7×7	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 512 \\ 3 \times 3, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 2$	$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 3, 512 \\ 3 \times 3, 512 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 512 \\ 3 \times 3, 512 \\ 1 \times 1, 2048 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 512 \\ 3 \times 3, 512 \\ 1 \times 1, 2048 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1, 512 \\ 3 \times 3, 512 \\ 1 \times 1, 2048 \end{bmatrix} \times 3$
	1×1	average pool, 1000-d fc, softmax				
FLOPs		1.8×10^9	3.6×10^9	3.8×10^9	7.6×10^9	11.3×10^9

ures for ImageNet. Building blocks are shown in brackets (see also Fig. 5), with the numbers of block

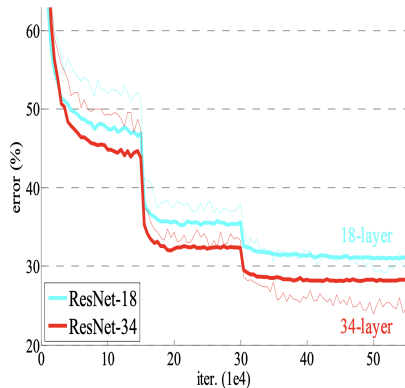
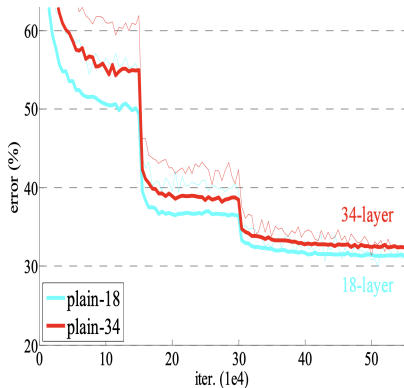


Figure 4. Training on **ImageNet**. Thin curves denote training error, and bold curves denote validation error of the center crops. Left: plain networks of 18 and 34 layers. Right: ResNets of 18 and 34 layers. In this plot, the residual networks have no extra parameter compared to their plain counterparts.

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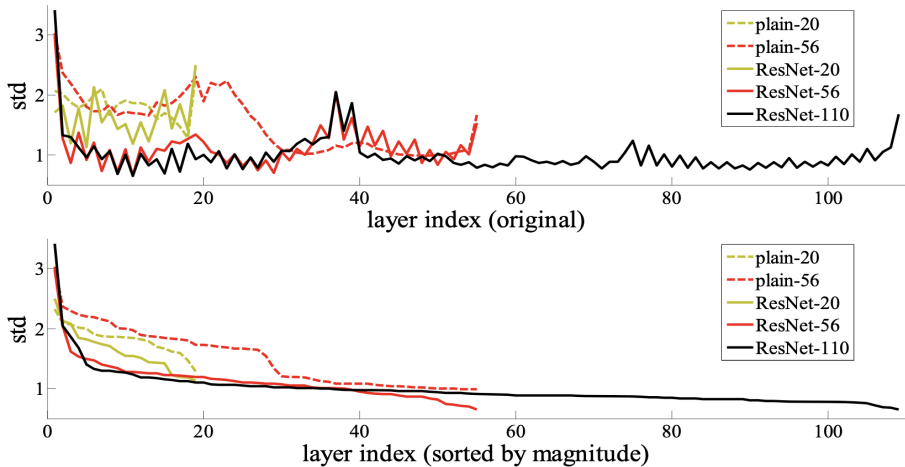
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method	top-1 err.	top-5 err.
VGG [40] (ILSVRC'14)	-	8.43 [†]
GoogLeNet [43] (ILSVRC'14)	-	7.89
VGG [40] (v5)	24.4	7.1
PReLU-net [12]	21.59	5.71
BN-inception [16]	21.99	5.81
ResNet-34 B	21.84	5.71
ResNet-34 C	21.53	5.60
ResNet-50	20.74	5.25
ResNet-101	19.87	4.60
ResNet-152	19.38	4.49

Table 4. Error rates (%) of **single-model** results on the ImageNet validation set (except [†] reported on the test set).

method	top-5 err. (test)
VGG [40] (ILSVRC'14)	7.32
GoogLeNet [43] (ILSVRC'14)	6.66
VGG [40] (v5)	6.8
PReLU-net [12]	4.94
BN-inception [16]	4.82
ResNet (ILSVRC'15)	3.57

Table 5. Error rates (%) of **ensembles**. The top-5 error is on the test set of ImageNet and reported by the test server.



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- We will build a ResNet and run it on sol.
- Check out some pre-trained ResNet
https://colab.research.google.com/github/pytorch/pytorch.github.io/blob/master/assets/hub/pytorch_vision_resnet.ipynb.
- *How Deep Are Deep Gaussian Processes?* (Dunlop et al, 2018) shows that the effectiveness of DGP diminishes as the depth increases. Could residual structure save?
- This has been explored in ICLR 2015! –
<https://openreview.net/forum?id=JWtrk7mprJ>.