CNN Architectures

Computer Vision Winter Semester 20/21 Goethe University

Acknowledgement: Some images are from various sources: UCF, Stanford cs231n, etc.

What we did last week



Convolutional Neural Networks

Today's class

CNN architectures: LeNet AlexNet GoogleLeNet (Inception) ResNet



CNN – inspired by neuroscience

Simplified neuroscience: a neuron computes a dot product between its inputs and the synaptic weights



F. Rosenblatt 1957



Types of Nonlinearities



Step functionLinear Rectifier (ReLu)Sigmoid $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 : x < 0 \\ 1 : x \ge 0 \end{cases}$ $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 : x < 0 \\ x : x \ge 0 \end{cases}$ $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$



Given training samples $\{\mathbf{x}_i, y_i\}_{\forall i}$

- **X**_{*i*} -> input of example *i*,
- *y_i* -> groundtruth target of example *i*

Initialization:

Initialize the weights W to 0 or small random numbers.



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Iterate:

For each training sample **X**_{*i*}:

1.Calculate the output value: $out = sgn(\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i w_i)$ 2.Update the weights. $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \eta \mathbf{x_i}(y_i - out)$

In case of linear separable data, the learning converges in a bounded number of iterations.



Hubel and Wiesel





(Hubel & Wiesel 1959)

Simple and Complex Cells

➤Tuning operation (Gaussian-like, AND-like) $y = e^{-|x-w|^2}$ or $y \sim \frac{x \cdot w}{|x|}$ >Simple units

Max-like operation (OR-like)
 y = max {x1, x2,...}
 Complex units

Simple and Complex Cells



The visual ventral stream





The ventral stream hierarchy: V1, V2, V4, IT

A gradual increase in the receptive field size, in the complexity of the preferred stimulus, in tolerance to position and scale changes

Kobatake & Tanaka, 1994

HMAX



Riesenhuber & Poggio 1999, 2000; Serre Kouh Cadieu Knoblich Kreiman & Poggio 2005; Serre Oliva Poggio 2007



Invariance



Serre, T., and Riesenhuber, M. (2004)

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)



Convolutional assumption

CNN

• 3D volumes of neurons



Input: width x height x numChannel

Output: 1 x 1 x numClass

- Stack of
 - Convolutional layer
 - Fully connected layer
 - Pooling layer

CNN

• One example



Input:

width x height x numChannel

Output: 1 x 1 x numClass

- Stack of
 - Convolutional layer
 - Fully connected layer
 - Pooling layer

CNN Architecture

• LeNet for character recognition



-Average pooling

- -Sigmoid or tanh nonlinearity
- -Trained on MNIST digit dataset (60K training examples)

Y. LeCun, L. Bottou, Y. Bengio, and P. Haffner, Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition, Proc. IEEE 86(11): 2278–2324, 1998

CNN Architecture

• AlexNet for image recognition



- -8 layers, 650K neurons, 60M parameters
- -Max pooling, ReLU nonlinearity
- -1.2M training images of 1000 classes

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CNN Architecture



- Filter size: hyperparameter
- What is the right filter size?
- Inception module
 - Use filters of different size in the same layer
 - Concatenate all the filter results as output
 - Use 1x1 convolution to reduce complexity
 - Increase width and depth of the network
 - All convolutions use ReLU, including 1x1 convolution for reduction / projection

• Inception module, naïve version



Computation expensive: 28x28x192 input, need 5x5x192 filtering

 1x1 convolution for dimensionality reduction: reduce number of channels



HxWxC1

(stride = 1)

[Lin et al.; 2014]

-With C2 filters (1x1xC1 each), output HxWxC2; usually C2 < C1 -Followed by non-linear as in ordinary convolution

• 1x1 convolution for dimensionality reduction:



• Inception module with dimensionality reduction



• Inception module with dimensionality reduction:



GoogLeNet

Auxiliary networks:

added during training to avoid vanishing gradients. During training, their loss gets added to the total loss of the network with a discount weight (auxiliary classifiers were weighted by 0.3). At inference time, these auxiliary networks are discarded.

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Pooling

Softmax

Concat/Normalize

Total: 27 layers (dropout, softmax not count)

type	patch size/ stride	output size	depth	#1×1	#3×3 reduce	#3×3	#5×5 reduce	#5×5	pool proj	params	ops	Ν
convolution	7×7/2	112×112×64	1							2.7K	34M	fil
max pool	3×3/2	$56 \times 56 \times 64$	0									re
convolution	3×3/1	56×56×192	2		64	192				112K	360M	h
max pool	3×3/2	28×28×192	0		K							
inception (3a)		28×28×256	2	64	96	128	16 <	(32)	32	159K	128M	
inception (3b)		28×28×480	2	128	128	192	32	96	64	380K	304M	
max pool	$3 \times 3/2$	$14 \times 14 \times 480$	0									N
inception (4a)		$14 \times 14 \times 512$	2	192	96	208	16	48	64	364K	73M	£:1
inception (4b)		$14 \times 14 \times 512$	2	160	112	224	24	64	64	437K	88M	
inception (4c)		$14 \times 14 \times 512$	2	128	128	256	24	64	64	463K	100M	pc
inception (4d)		$14 \times 14 \times 528$	2	112	144	288	32	64	64	580K	119M]
inception (4e)		$14 \times 14 \times 832$	2	256	160	320	32	128	128	840K	170M	1
max pool	$3 \times 3/2$	7×7×832	0]
inception (5a)		7×7×832	2	256	160	320	32	128	128	1072K	54M]
inception (5b)		$7 \times 7 \times 1024$	2	384	192	384	48	128	128	1388K	71M	
avg pool	7×7/1	$1 \times 1 \times 1024$	0					X]
dropout (40%)		$1 \times 1 \times 1024$	0									
linear		1×1×1000	1							1000K	1 M	
softmax		$1 \times 1 \times 1000$	0							Vumbe	er of	5x5

Number of 1x1 filters in the reduction layer before 3x3 or 5x5 convolution

Number of 1x1 filters after max pooling

Table 1: GoogLeNet incarnation of the Inception architecture.

filters

- Challenges of going deeper
 - Vanishing gradient: gradient is backpropagated to earlier layers, repeated multiplication may make the gradient very small
 - Overfitting: good in training, bad in testing
 - Difficult to learn an identity mapping in a deep architecture

Training error (left) and test error (right) on CIFAR-10 with 20-layer and 56-layer "plain" networks. The deeper network has higher training error, and thus test error



- Challenges of going deeper
 - Vanishing gradient: gradient is backpropagated to earlier layers, repeated multiplication may make the gradient very small
 - Overfitting: good in training, bad in testing
 - Difficult to learn an identity mapping in a deep architecture



Adding an identity mapping layer would have no worse performance -> difficulty in learning an identity mapping results in poorer performance when going deeper

- Deep residual learning
 - Learn the residual mapping instead of the entire mapping

Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, Jian Sun, Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition, CVPR 2016 $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x})$



$$\mathcal{F} = W_2 \sigma(W_1 \mathbf{x})$$
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, \{W_i\}) + \mathbf{x}$$

Element-wise addition, channel by channel

- Deep residual learning
 - Learn the residual mapping instead of the entire mapping



Optimal mapping is close to an identity mapping, residual learning is a construction to ease the learning

- Deep residual learning
 - Learn the residual mapping instead of the entire mapping



Want ΔX to be small, so that the output feature maps would not cause dramatic change (degrade) in performance

- Incremental approach to build complex DNN
- Need W \approx 1, i.e., identity mapping
- But hard to learn with data-driven approach
- An issue with optimization (non-convex, high dimensional loss function)

All zero in other slices

- Deep residual learning
 - Learn the residual mapping instead of the entire mapping



Want ΔX to be small, so that the output feature maps would not cause dramatic change (degrade) in performance

- With skip connection, need W ≈ 0
- Easy to learn with regularization on W

"We hypothesize that it is easier to optimize the residual mapping than to optimize the original, unreferenced mapping. To the extreme, if an identity mapping were optimal, it would be easier to push the residual to zero than to fit an identity mapping by a stack of nonlinear layers."

• Another reasoning: Ensembles of networks

-Residue networks can be viewed as a collection of many paths, instead of a single ultra-deep network



Andreas Veit, Michael Wilber, Serge Belongie, "Residual Networks Behave Like Ensembles of Relatively Shallow Networks," NIPS 2016

• Another reasoning: Ensembles of networks



(a) Deleting f_2 from unraveled view

These paths do not strongly depend on each other, even thought they are trained jointly
Exhibit ensemble-like behavior: overall performance correlates smoothly with the number of valid paths

$$-f_1$$
 f_2 f_3

(b) Ordinary feedforward network

Figure 2: Deleting a layer in residual networks at test time (a) is equivalent to zeroing half of the paths. In ordinary feed-forward networks (b) such as VGG or AlexNet, deleting individual layers alters the only viable path from input to output.

Andreas Veit, Michael Wilber, Serge Belongie, "Residual Networks Behave Like Ensembles of Relatively Shallow Networks," NIPS 2016

• Another reasoning: Ensembles of networks



Figure 3: Deleting individual layers from VGG and a residual network on CIFAR-10. VGG performance drops to random chance when any one of its layers is deleted, but deleting individual modules from residual networks has a minimal impact on performance. Removing downsampling modules has a slightly higher impact.

Andreas Veit, Michael Wilber, Serge Belongie, "Residual Networks Behave Like Ensembles of Relatively Shallow Networks," NIPS 2016

These paths do not strongly depend on each other, even they are trained jointly
Exhibit ensemble-like behavior: overall performance correlates smoothly with the number of valid paths

• Another reasoning: Ensembles of networks



Figure 5: (a) Error increases smoothly when randomly deleting several modules from a residual network. (b) Error also increases smoothly when re-ordering a residual network by shuffling building blocks. The degree of reordering is measured by the Kendall Tau correlation coefficient. These results are similar to what one would expect from ensembles.

Andreas Veit, Michael Wilber, Serge Belongie, "Residual Networks Behave Like Ensembles of Relatively Shallow Networks," NIPS 2016

• Another reasoning: Ensembles of networks



Figure 6: How much gradient do the paths of different lengths contribute in a residual network? To find out, we first show the distribution of all possible path lengths (a). This follows a Binomial distribution. Second, we record how much gradient is induced on the first layer of the network through paths of varying length (b), which appears to decay roughly exponentially with the number of modules the gradient passes through. Finally, we can multiply these two functions (c) to show how much gradient comes from all paths of a certain length. Though there are many paths of medium length, paths longer than ~ 20 modules are generally too long to contribute noticeable gradient during training. This suggests that the effective paths in residual networks are relatively shallow.

Andreas Veit, Michael Wilber, Serge Belongie, "Residual Networks Behave Like Ensembles of Relatively Shallow Networks," NIPS 2016

• Resnet: stack of deep residual learning modules



Today's class





Learn W using loss function L(W)

• Determine W with the min loss function

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} L_i + \lambda R(W)$$

N training samples



Learn W using loss function L(W)

• Determine W with the min loss function

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} L_i + \lambda R(W)$$
 N trai



- Start from a random W, iteratively improve W (reduce L(W)): Gradient descent
- Note: $L(W) = L(W; (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ...(x_i, y_i)...(x_N, y_N))$

Learn W by gradient descent

Update W by W+ΔW, using the gradient

 $L(W) = L(w_1, w_2, ... w_l...)$ $W' = W - \gamma \nabla L$ Gradient descent



$$w_l' = w_l - \gamma \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_l}$$

Learn W by gradient descent

Update W by W+ΔW, using the gradient

 $L(W) = L(w_1, w_2, ... w_l...)$ $W' = W - \gamma \nabla L$ Gradient descent



Learn W by gradient descent

• Update W by W+ Δ W, using the gradient

$$w_l' = w_l - \gamma \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_l}$$

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} L_i + \lambda R(W)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_l} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{\partial L_i}{\partial w_l} + \lambda \frac{\partial R(W)}{\partial w_l}$$

- Sum gradients for all (partial) training samples for one w_l
- Make one update of W once we have **all the gradients**

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• Example



• Example



Approach 1: compute $L(W^{(l)})$, then differentiate

• Example



Approach 1: compute $L(W^{(l)})$, then differentiate

-Tedious task, e.g. for deep NN -Not flexible; if some layer changes (Sigmoid -> ReLU), need to re-derive again

• Example



Approach 2: back propagation
-Assume we have $\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l)}}$ $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W^{(l)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l)}} \frac{\partial h^{(l)}}{\partial W^{(l)}}$ $\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l-1)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l)}} \frac{\partial h^{(l)}}{\partial h^{(l-1)}}$ For grad descentFor back prop53

Back prop



For back prop

For grad descent

Back prop: fully connected



Back prop: max pooling



If x is max, y=x, dy/dx = 1 If x is not max, y and x are independent, dy/dx=0

$$\frac{\partial h^{(l)}}{\partial h_i^{(l-1)}} = \mathbf{I}(h_i^{(l-1)} \text{ is max}) \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial h_i^{(l-1)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l)}} \mathbf{I}(h_i^{(l-1)} \text{ is max})$$

I(c) = 1 if c is true, 0 otherwise

Only 1 branch has gradient, and gradient goes to the max input branch

Back prop: max pooling



If x is max, y=x, dy/dx = 1 If x is not max, y and x are independent, dy/dx=0

$$\frac{\partial h^{(l)}}{\partial h_i^{(l-1)}} = \mathbf{I}(h_i^{(l-1)} \text{ is max}) \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial h_i^{(l-1)}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l)}} \mathbf{I}(h_i^{(l-1)} \text{ is max})$$

I(c) = 1 if c is true, 0 otherwise

Only 1 branch has gradient, and gradient goes to the max input branch

Back prop: ReLU



$$h_i^{(l)} = \max(0, h_i^{(l-1)})$$
 $\frac{\partial h_i^{(l)}}{\partial h_i^{(l-1)}} = \mathbf{I}(h_i^{(l-1)} > 0)$

I(c) = 1 if c is true, 0 otherwise

Gate: gradient can or cannot pass through

Back prop: ReLU



Gate: gradient can or cannot pass through

Back prop: Sigmoid



$$h_i^{(l)} = \sigma(h_i^{(l-1)}) \qquad \frac{\partial h_i^{(l)}}{\partial h_i^{(l-1)}} = \sigma(h_i^{(l-1)})(1 - \sigma(h_i^{(l-1)}))$$

Back prop: Softmax



Back prop: Cross entropy loss

Kx1

 $\begin{array}{c} h^{(l)} \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \\ \hline \\ \\ \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Cross} \\ \mathsf{entropy} \\ \mathsf{loss} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{L} \\ \end{bmatrix}$

The y-th class is the groundtruth

$$L = -\log(h_y^{(l)})$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{(l)}} = [0, 0, ..., \frac{-1}{h_y^{(l)}}, ..., 0]$$

Back prop starts from the loss function

Back prop: Exercise





Today's class

CNN architectures: LeNet AlexNet GoogleLeNet (Inception) ResNet



Next week's class

Presentation of project idea and preliminary results by the teams (8 and 10 Nov)