Deep Learning Summer semester '24



Exkurs: Fundamentals of Convolutions

Slide credit: Slides in parts adapted from the lecture at the PRL @ FAU Erlangen-Nürnberg (K. Breininger, T. Würfl, A. Maier, V. Christlein).

Fundamentals: Convolution

General mathematical formulation (continuous, 1-D)

$$(f * g)(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(a)g(u-a)da$$

Video by 3Blue1Brown (I would not be able to explain it better): https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KuXjwB4LzSA

(wonderful channel in general)

0:00 - 14:10:

Directly relevant for us, explains 1-D and 2-D convolution



14:10 – end:

Highlights connection between convolution and multiplication in the context of Fourier transforms (Convolution theorem); while very (!) interesting since it also hints toward efficient implementations, this aspect is not immediately relevant for us

Convolution

Convolution

Convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions *f*, *g* that represents the integral over the product of *f* and a <u>shifted and reflected</u> *g*:

$$(\mathbf{f} * \mathbf{g})(\mathbf{u}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{f}(\tau) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u} - \tau) d\tau$$



Inductiveload, Public domain, via Wikimedia Commons

Convolution & Cross-Correlation

Convolution

Convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions *f*, *g* that represents the integral over the product of *f* and a <u>shifted and reflected</u> *g*:

$$(\mathbf{f} * \mathbf{g})(\mathbf{u}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{f}(\tau) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u} - \tau) d\tau$$

Cross-Correlation

Cross-correlation is a mathematical operation on two functions *f*, *g* that represents the integral over the product of *f* and a <u>shifted</u> *g*:

 $(\mathbf{f} \star \mathbf{g})(\mathbf{u}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{f}(\tau) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u} + \tau) d\tau$

 \rightarrow Cross-correlation is convolution with a flipped kernel g – and vice versa!

Discrete Convolution

Discrete Convolution

Discrete convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions f, g that represents the integral over the product of f and a shifted (and reflected) g: $(f * g)(u) = \sum_{\tau = -\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)g(u - \tau)$

- Behaviour for functions with finite support?
- \rightarrow response only in non-zero parts
- Can be extended to 2-D, 3-D, ...



Convolution in the context of convolutional layers

Discrete 2-D convolution

$$(f * g)(u, v) = \sum_{\tau = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{\rho = -\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau, \rho) \cdot g(u - \tau, v - \rho)$$

For our purposes:

f(u, v) represents the (pixel) value at position (u, v)

 \rightarrow *f* is (typically) defined by the input values, and has the size of the current feature map (MxN) for 2-D, and is zero everywhere else

g(u, v) represents the value of the filter kernel at a specific location

 $\rightarrow g$ is defined for a specific neighborhood (e.g., 3x3, 5x5 or 7x7) and zero everywhere else

 \rightarrow The values of *g* (e.g., 9 parameters for a 3x3, 25 parameters for 5x5, etc.) can be set according to prior knowledge or learned \rightarrow learnable filters

 \rightarrow The output at (f*g) at position (u,v) is a sum of the values of f weighted by

Example: Discrete convolution (without padding)



Examples: Edge Filters (Sobel Filter)



https://hubofco.de/machinelearning/2020/04/08/Egde-detection-in-open-cv/

Highlights horizontal edges

Highlights vertical edges

Deep Learning Summer semester '24



4. Convolutional Neural Networks

Slide credit: Slides in parts adapted from the lecture at the PRL @ FAU Erlangen-Nürnberg (K. Breininger, T. Würfl, A. Maier, V. Christlein).

Fahrplan

- Recap from last time: Optimization
- Convolutional neural networks
 - Convolutional layers
 - Pooling layers
- Neural Network Architectures

Note: Notation and matrix multiplication

For all cases:

•
$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

•
$$\mathbf{x}' = (x_1, ..., x_n, 1)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$$
 (Note: ' is often dropped)

• $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$

Different notations, but equivalent:

- $h(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sigma(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{b}) \rightarrow \mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$; $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- $h(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}) \rightarrow \mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}; \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- $h(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}') \rightarrow \mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (n+1)}$

Machine Learning Components

Any ML algorithm/approach has the following three components:

• Model

A set of functions among which we're looking for the "best" one H = $\{h(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{\theta})\}_{\mathbf{\theta}}$

• Objective

"Best" according to what? \rightarrow Objective J quantifies how good/bad a hypothesis h / θ is: $\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} J(h(\mathbf{x} | \theta)) \rightarrow optimization problem$

Optimization algorithm

How do we get to an optimum? How do find optimal parameters?

 \rightarrow Gradient-based optimization

Gradient Descent

Gradient Descent

Gradient descent (sometimes also called steepest descent) is an <u>iterative</u> <u>algorithm</u> for (continuous) optimization that finds a minimum of a convex (single) differentiable function.

• In each iteration GD moves the values of parameters $\theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_n\}$ in the direction **opposite** to the gradient in the current point

 $\mathbf{\Theta}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{\Theta}^{(k)} - \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{\Theta}} f(\mathbf{\Theta}^{(k)})$

- ∇_θf(θ) value of the gradient (a vector of same dimensionality as θ) of the function *f* in the point θ
- η learning rate, defines <u>by how much</u> to move the parameters in the direction opposite of the gradient

Gradient-based Optimization

- Gradient descent is guaranteed to lead to a global minimum only for convex functions*
- Objectives of DL models are never globally convex
 - No guarantee of "global" minimum
 - But we hope for a good enough "local" minimum, i.e., to find such values θ for which J is "small enough"
 - Learning rate η is essential to control how likely we "jump out" of local minima



Backpropagation

- Loss function L is a complex composition of functions, i.e., $\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{i}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} L(lay_{n}(lay_{n-1(...(}lay_{1}(x|\theta_{1})|\theta_{2})...)|\theta_{n}), y)$
- Computing the closed form of the gradients for parameters in deeper layers becomes cumbersome (& inefficient)
- Use of the "chain rule" to iteratively compute gradients through the backward pass → backpropagation

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{n-1}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \text{lay}_n} \frac{\partial \text{lay}_n}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}_{n-1}}$$

Making it work for Deep Learning

- Automatic differentiation computes the gradients "as needed" during the backward pass based on computational graph
- Backpropagation = reverse mode autodiff with a single target function
- Different variants:
 - (Batch) gradient descent (GD): full training dataset (bulky, bad hardware utilization)
 - Stochastic gradient descent (SGD): single sample (noisy, bad hardware utilization)
 - Mini-batch gradient descent (?GD): mini-batches (compromise, exploit hardware)
- Still "local optimization"
 - \rightarrow risk of overfitting
 - → regularization strategies (e.g., norms, dropout) to prevent overfitting



Fahrplan

- Recap from last time: Optimization
- Convolutional neural networks
 - Convolutional layers
 - Pooling layers
- Neural Network Architectures

Machine Learning Components – What are we looking at?

Any ML algorithm/approach has the following three components:

Model
 A set of functions among which we're looking for the "best" one
 H = {h(x|θ)}_θ

• Objective

"Best" according to what? \rightarrow Objective J quantifies how good/bad a hypothesis h / θ is: $\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} J(h(\mathbf{x} | \theta)) \rightarrow optimization problem$

Optimization algorithm

How do we get to an optimum? How do find optimal parameters?

 \rightarrow Gradient-based optimization

Machine Learning Components

Any ML algorithm/approach has the following three components:

Model
 A set of functions among which we're looking for the "best" one
 H = {h(x|θ)}_θ

 \rightarrow The set of functions we select determines . . .

- . . . which functions we can (easily*) learn
- . . . what parameters we have to learn

 \rightarrow By selecting a specific set of functions, we introduce an inductive bias

* Remember UAT: We can (in theory!) learn arbitrary functions

Motivation – What we "have learned" so far

- So far: Fully connected layers each input is connected to each node
- Very powerful: Can represent any kind of (linear) relationship between inputs
- Matrix multiplication + activation function: $z = \sigma(Wx)$



Motivation – What we "have learned" so far

- So far: Fully connected layers each input is connected to each node
- Very powerful: Can represent any kind of (linear) relationship between inputs
- Matrix multiplication + activation function: $z = \sigma(Wx)$
- Input x: Vector of features, e.g., (length, circumference, color, ...)
- BUT: A lot of machine learning deals with images / videos / sounds / text
- Assume we have:
 - An image with size 512 × 512 pixels
 - One hidden layer with 64 neurons
 - $(512^2 + 1) \cdot 64 \rightarrow \sim 16.8$ million trainable weights for a single layer!

Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, et al. "Delving Deep into Rectifiers: Surpassing Human-Level Performance on ImageNet Classification". In: CoRR abs/1502.01852 (2015). arXiv: 1502.01852.





Motivation (cont.)

- So **# parameters** is a problem. Is there something else?
- Example: Classify between cat and dog
- Pixels are **bad** features!
 - Highly correlated & redundant
 - Scale-dependent

•

...

- Intensity variations
- Pixels are a bad representation* from a machine learning point of view

* Keep this aspect in mind for lecture L7: Transformers



Motivation (cont.)

- Can we find a better representation?
- Observations:
 - We have a certain degree of the locality in an image
 - Recurrence: We can find the same "macro features" at different locations
 - Hierarchy of features:
 - edges + corners \rightarrow eyes
 - eyes + nose + ears \rightarrow face
 - face + body + legs \rightarrow animal
 - Composition matters!
- Idea: Base neural architecture on these observations
 → Inductive bias
 → Learn better representation, then electiful

 \rightarrow Learn better representation, then classify!





Convolutional Neural Networks – Inductive Bias

• Local connectivity:

Filters with small receptive field:

- Recurrence & translational equivariance: Use same filters over the whole input
- Hierarchy of filters working on different scales
- + learning = Convolutional Neural Networks



Convolutional Neural Networks - Architecture



Source: https://de.mathworks.com/discovery/convolutional-neural-network.html

Four essential building blocks:

- Convolutional layers: Feature extraction
- Activation function: Nonlinearity
- Pooling layer: Compress and aggregate information, save parameters & compute
- Last layer: Fully-connected for classification

Fahrplan

- Recap from last time: Optimization
- Convolutional neural networks
 - Convolutional layers
 - Pooling layers
- Neural Network Architectures

Recap: Convolution

Convolution

Convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions *f*, *g* that represents the integral over the product of *f* and a <u>shifted and reflected</u> *g*:

$$(\mathbf{f} * \mathbf{g})(\mathbf{u}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{f}(\tau) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u} - \tau) d\tau$$



Inductiveload, Public domain, via Wikimedia Commons

Recap: Convolution

Convolution

Convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions *f*, *g* that represents the integral over the product of *f* and a <u>shifted (and reflected)</u> *g*:

$$(f * g)(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)g(u - \tau)d\tau$$

Cross-Correlation

Cross-correlation is a mathematical operation on two functions *f*, *g* that represents the integral over the product of *f* and a <u>shifted</u> *g*:

 $(\mathbf{f} \star \mathbf{g})(\mathbf{u}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{f}(\tau) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u} + \tau) d\tau$

→ Cross-correlation is convolution with a flipped kernel g – and vice versa!
 → Doesn't matter (too much) for the implementation: weights are initialized randomly anyway

Recap: Convolution

Discrete Convolution

Discrete convolution is a mathematical operation on two functions f, g that represents the integral over the product of f and a shifted (and reflected) g: $(f * g)(u) = \sum_{\tau = -\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)g(u - \tau)$

- Behaviour for functions with finite support?
- \rightarrow response only in non-zero parts
- Can be extended to 2-D, 3-D, ...



Recap: (2-D) Convolution

- We move the filter kernel over the input (weighted sum)
- Output: Feature / activation map
- Convolutional layer typically contains multiple filter kernels with different weights:
 → multiple feature maps (channels)
 → c.f. "filter banks", e.g., Gabor filters
- Q for you:
 - What is the typical **# input channels** for natural images? What does this mean for the first layer of a convolutional network?



Convolutional Layer - Local Connectivity

- Exploit spacial structure by only connecting pixels in a neighborhood
- Can be expressed as fully connected layer: Except for local connections, each entry in W is 0
- Effective weights: Filter of size 3 × 3, 5 × 5, 7 × 7, . . .
- Features that are important at one location are likely important anywhere in the image:

 → Use the same weights all over (tied weights, or shared weights)
 - \rightarrow Translational equivarance

 \rightarrow Convolution with trainable filters



Source: https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv_arithmetic

Why do we want to learn these convolutional weights?

- Convolutional filters transform the representation of the input
 - Edge / corner detection* or "enhancement"
 - Dot detector
 - Image smoothing (low-pass filter)
 - . . .
- Concatenation of filters (with non-linearity) allows to extract complex features

We *could* select suitable, predefined filters manually (and this has been done in traditional ML, see e.g., Gabor filters),

BUT: since it is difficult to identify and describe (verbally, mathematically) what the *best* features are, we have seen that it is more efficient to *learn* filter weights (=filter parameters) directly and jointly (e.g., across network layers)





Source: https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv_arithmetic

Forward Pass: Multi-channel convolution

- Input of size X × Y × S, where S is the number of input channels
- H filters with size M × N × S

 → fully connected across channels
 → M × N describes receptive field
- Output dimensions: X × Y × H (with 'same' padding)





Padding

- Convolution reduces image size by 2 · [n/2] pixels (n: kernel size)
- Necessary to pay attention to the **borders**:
 - 'Same' padding (usually zero padding):
 → Input and output have the same size
 - 'Valid'/no padding:
 - \rightarrow The output is smaller than the input



Backward pass: Multi-channel convolution

- Convolution can be expressed as matrix multiplication with matrix W: using a Toeplitz matrix
- We can use the same formulas as for the fully connected layer!
- Backward pass can also be expressed as convolutions / cross-correlation

Interesting (in-depth) derivation:

Convolutional Neural Network from Scratch | Mathematics & Python Code https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Lakz2MoHy60

Convolutional Layers - What have we gained?

Reminder:

Fully connected layer with 64 neurons for 512² images (S = 1, e.g. grayscale): ~ 16.8 million trainable weights

For our conv layer:

- We also stack H = 64 filters to obtain a trainable filter bank
- We choose a 7x7 neighborhood / filter size
- \rightarrow (7² + 1) \cdot 64 = 3200

And we have gained more:

- Independent of image size!
- Much more training data for one weight!
So how *do* the filters look like during/after training?



Video credit: Prof. Dr.-Ing. Marc Aubreville, IMI Group, TH Ingolstadt

different datasets!

Additional variants: Strided Convolutions

- Instead of multiplying the filter at each pixel position, we can skip some positions
- Stride s describes the offset
- Reduces the size of the output by a factor of s
- Mathematically: Convolution + subsampling



Additional variants: Strided Convolutions



Source: https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv_arithmetic

Additional variants: Dilated/Atrous Convolutions

- Dilate convolution kernel: Keep # filter weights but skip certain pixels
- Goal: Wider receptive field with same # parameters/weights
- Q for you: What is the difference to subsampling?



1 × 1 Convolution Concept

- So far: H filters with neighborhood with 3 × 3, 5 × 5, . . . and 'depth' S
- Filters are fully connected in 'depth' direction
- We can decrease the neighborhood to 1×1
- And just use the fully connected property in the depth dimension





- Dimensionality reduction/expansion from S channels to H channels
- If we flatten (vectorize) the input, 1 × 1 convolutions are a fully connected layer!

1 × 1 Convolution Concept

- First described in "Network in Network" by Lin et al.
- 1 × 1 convolutions simply calculate inner products at each position
- Simple and efficient method to decrease the size of a network
- Learns dimensionality reduction, e.g., can reduce redundancy in your feature maps
- Similar idea / more flexible: N × N convolution







Min Lin, Qiang Chen, and Shuicheng Yan. "Network In Network". In: CoRR abs/1312.4400 (2013). arXiv: 1312.4400.

Further convolution strategies

- Depthwise separable convolutions
- Grouped Convolutions
- Deformable convolutions
- Sparse convolutions
- Spatially separable convolutions

Y'ALL GOT ANY MORE OF THEM



Convolutional Neural Networks - Architecture



Source: https://de.mathworks.com/discovery/convolutional-neural-network.html

Four essential building blocks:

- Convolutional layers: Feature extraction
- Activation function: Nonlinearity
- Pooling layer: Compress and aggregate information, save parameters
- Last layer: Fully-connected for classification \rightarrow maybe we can replace this?

Fahrplan

- Recap from last time: Optimization
- Convolutional neural networks
 - Convolutional layers
 - Pooling layers
- Neural Network Architectures

Idea behind Pooling Layers

- Fuses information of input across spatial locations
- Decreases number of parameters*
- Reduces computational costs and overfitting
- Assumptions / inductive bias:
 - Features are hierarchically structured
 - "Summaries" of regions are sensible
 - Translational invariance
 - Exact location of a feature is not important



* Not directly, rather for the final fully connected layer

Max Pooling – Forward Pass

- Propagate maximum value in a neighborhood to next layer
- Typical choices: 2 × 2 or 3 × 3 neighborhood
- "Stride" of pooling usually equals the neighborhood size
- Maximum propagation adds additional non-linearity



Max pooling concept. Note that usually a stride > 1 is used for pooling.

Max Pooling – Backward Pass



- Only one value contributes to error
- Error is propagated only along the path of the maximum value

Average Pooling

- Propagate average of the neighborhood
- Does not consistently perform better than max pooling, but has a dense gradient
- Backward pass: Error is shared to equal parts



Avg pooling concept. Note that usually a stride > 1 is used for pooling.

Additional Pooling Strategies

- Fractional max pooling
- L_p pooling
- Stochastic pooling
- Spacial pyramid pooling
- Generalized pooling
- •
- . . . and of course strided convolution

Convolutional Neural Networks - Architecture



Source: https://de.mathworks.com/discovery/convolutional-neural-network.html

Four essential building blocks:

- Convolutional layers: Feature extraction
- Activation function: Nonlinearity
- Pooling layer: Compress and aggregate information, save parameters
- Last layer: Fully-connected for classification

Convolutional Neural Networks - Architecture



Source: https://de.mathworks.com/discovery/convolutional-neural-network.html

Four Three essential building blocks:

- Convolutional layers: Feature extraction
- Activation function: Nonlinearity
- Pooling layer: Compress and aggregate information, save parameters
- Last layer: Fully-connected for classification \rightarrow We can replace this layer!

Replacing the Fully Connected Layer

- Conv and pooling layers generate better representation
 → better features
- Fully connected layers for classification
- Equivalently: Use flatten & 1 × 1 convolution [Lin et al.] or N × N convolution
- With global average pooling: Arbitrary input sizes possible!





Source: Li et al. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-021-11435-5

Fahrplan

- Recap from last time: Optimization
- Convolutional neural networks
 - Convolutional layers
 - Pooling layers
- Neural Network Architectures

Historical view on developments, including potentially underestimated / undercited works

- Jürgen Schmidhuber, IDSIA Switzerland
- Very interesting read, very broad, including a historical view: <u>https://people.idsia.ch/~juergen/deep-learning-history.html</u>
- On the following slides: Focus on specific, frequently used concepts, not on historical derivation & attribution



('•' Technique still used in recent architectures)

 \Rightarrow Foundation for many other architectures

LeNet-5 (1998)



Key features

- Convolution for spatial features
- (•) Subsampling using average pooling
- Non-linearity: tanh
- (•) MLP as final classifier
- Sequence: Convolution, pooling, non-linearity

Y LeCun, L Bottou, Y Bengio, et al. "Gradient-based Learning Applied to Document Recognition". In: Proceedings of the IEEE 86.11 (Nov. 1998), pp. 2278–2324. arXiv: 1102.0183.

AlexNet (2012)



Key features:

- 8 layer network
- Overlapping max pooling (stride: 2, size: 3)
- Use of GPU(s) to reduce training time
- (•) Non-linearity: ReLU

Winner of the ImageNet 2012 challenge ⇒ Breakthrough of CNNs

- (•) Combat overfitting with dropout and data augmentation
- Learning: mini-batch SGD w. momentum (0.9) + (L2) weight decay $(5 \cdot 10-5)$

Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E Hinton. "ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks". In: Advances In Neural Information Processing Systems 25. Curran Associates, Inc., 2012, pp. 1097–1105. arXiv: 1102.0183.

VGG Network (Visual Geometry Group – University of Oxford)

Key features

- (•) Small kernel sizes in each convolution (3 × 3)
- → Combination of multiple smaller kernels emulate larger receptive fields
- 16 / 19 layers, max pooling between some layers (stride: 2, size: 2)
- hard to train (in practice: pre-training with shallower networks)



Source: https://www.slideshare.net/holbertonschool/deep-learning-class-2-by-louis-monier

- ⇒ For a long time, one of the "go-to" baseline networks
 - \rightarrow still used for feature extraction / perceptual losses

Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. "Very Deep Convolutional Networks for Large-Scale Image Recognition". In: International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR). San Diego, May 2015. arXiv: 1409.1556

GoogLeNet (Inception-v1)



Key features:

- Network design with embedded hardware in mind
 - \rightarrow maximum 1.5 billion MAD (multiply-add) operations at inference time
- 22 layers + global average pooling as final layer
- (•) Auxiliary classifiers (only at training): error weighted by 0.3 added to global
- (•) No fully connected layers (except for linear layer and auxiliary networks)

(•) Inception modules

C. Szegedy, Wei Liu, Yangqing Jia, et al. "Going deeper with convolutions". In: 2015 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). June 2015, pp. 1–9.

Inception Module in GoogLeNet

- Derived from Network-in-Network concept
- Parallel filter combinations (split-transform-merge strategy)
- Idea: Network decides needed filter size by itself
- 1 × 1 filters serve as "bottleneck layer"
- Representational power of large and dense layers but with much lower computational complexity
- Later GoogLeNets feature different variants of inception modules



C. Szegedy, Wei Liu, Yangqing Jia, et al. "Going deeper with convolutions". In: 2015 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). June 2015, pp. 1–9.

Evolution of Depth



Source: image-net.org, Russakovsky et al. 2015

Deeper Networks

• Exponential feature reuse



• Increasingly abstract features



... why don't we just stack more layers?

- Problems with going deeper: Deeper models tend to have higher training & test error than shallower models
- \rightarrow Not just caused by overfitting!
- Reasons:

Vanishing gradient problem
→ Use ReLU (or successors)
→ Proper initialization



Internal co-variate shift → Batch normalization → ELU / SELU

Degradation problem: poor propagation of activations and gradients

(One) Solution: Residual Units

Idea: Simplify "identity solution"

- Non-residual nets: learn mapping F(x)
- Instead: learn residual mapping:

 $H(x) = F(x) - x \Leftrightarrow F(x) = H(x) + x$



Deep Residual Networks (ResNets)

- Seminal paper: He et al.: Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition
- General form of the I-th residual unit:

 $x_{l+1} = h(g(x_l) + H_{l+1}(x_l, W_{l+1}))$

- *h*, *g*: activation functions
- *H:* non-residual path





Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, et al. "Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition". In: 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). Las Vegas, June 2016, pp. 770–778. arXiv: 1512.03385.

Deep Residual Networks (ResNets)

- Seminal paper: He et al.: Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition
- General form of the I-th residual unit:

$$\mathbf{x}_{l+1} = h(g(\mathbf{x}_l) + H_{l+1}(\mathbf{x}_l, \mathbf{W}_{l+1}))$$

- *h*, *g*: activation functions
- *H:* non-residual path

Can also be multiple conv-layers



Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, et al. "Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition". In: 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). Las Vegas, June 2016, pp. 770–778. arXiv: 1512.03385.

Effect of residual units on training and testing



\rightarrow Training / validation error of deeper nets is now lower!

→Extremely successful model family: **ResNet18, ResNet50, ResNet152**

Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, et al. "Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition". In: 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). Las Vegas, June 2016, pp. 770–778. arXiv: 1512.03385.

The evolution of depth



Top1 vs. Operations



Source: https://towardsdatascience.com/neural-network-architectures-156e5bad51ba (visited 2017/12/01), s. also Canziani et al., 2016



Convolutional neural networks:

- Convolutional layers: Feature extraction
- Activation function: Nonlinearity
- Pooling layer: Compress and aggregate information, save parameters
- Last layer: Fully-connected for classification → We can replace this layer!

Architectures:

- 1 × 1 filters to reduce parameters and add regularization
- Inception layers allow different filter sizes in parallel
- Residual connections as seminal contributions
- Rise of deeper models (from 5 layers to more than 1000)

Further Reading

Great visualization of different convolution strategies: <u>https://github.com/vdumoulin/conv_arithmetic</u>

Vincent Dumoulin, Francesco Visin - A guide to convolution arithmetic for deep learning (BibTeX)

In-depth explanation of Gabor Filter Banks: https://uol.de/mediphysik/downloads/gabor-filter-bank-features

Interestingly, for medical imaging, early conv-layers do not converge to Gabor-like filters: Maithra Raghu, Chiyuan Zhang, Jon Kleinberg, Samy Bengio: **Transfusion: Understanding Transfer Learning for Medical Imaging** NeurIPS 2019, https://arxiv.org/abs/1902.07208

Potentially interesting: Content-Adaptive Downsampling, e.g., <u>https://ar5iv.labs.arxiv.org/html/2305.09504</u>

Interesting observations: Striding and downsampling & upsampling can lead to checkerboard artifacts: <u>https://distill.pub/2016/deconv-checkerboard</u>













Other layers use resize-convolution. Artifacts of frequency 2.



All layers use resize-convolution. No artifacts.

Deep Learning Summer semester '24



4. Convolutional Neural Networks