

Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning

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Convolutional Neural Networks

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Notation

x_d	A feature. An observed or measured value.
\vec{X}	A vector of D features.
D	The number of dimensions for the vector \vec{X}
$\{\vec{x}_m\} \{y_m\}$	Training samples for learning.
M	The number of training samples.
$a_j^{(l)}$	the activation output of the j^{th} neuron of the l^{th} layer.
$w_{ij}^{(l)}$	the weight from unit i of layer $l-1$ to the unit j of layer l .
b_j^l	bias for unit j of layer l .
η	A learning rate. Typically very small (0.01). Can be variable.
L	The number of layers in the network.
$\delta_m^{\text{out}} = (a_m^{(L)} - y_m)$	Output Error of the network for the m^{th} training sample
$\delta_{j,m}^{(l)}$	Error for the j^{th} neuron of layer l , for the m^{th} training sample.
$\Delta w_{ij,m}^{(l)} = a_i^{(l-1)} \delta_{j,m}^{(l)}$	Update for weight from unit i of layer $l-1$ to the unit j of layer l .
$\Delta b_{j,m}^{(l)} = \delta_{j,m}^{(l)}$	Update for bias for unit j of layer l .

Introduction

Key Equations

Feed Forward from Layer i to j:
$$a_j^{(l)} = f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N^{(l-1)}} w_{ij}^{(l)} a_i^{(l-1)} + b_j^{(l)}\right)$$

Feed Forward from Layer j to k:
$$a_k^{(l+1)} = f\left(\sum_{j=1}^{N^{(l)}} w_{jk}^{(l+1)} a_j^{(l)} + b_k^{(l+1)}\right)$$

Back Propagation from Layer j to i:
$$\delta_{i,m}^{(l-1)} = \frac{\partial f(z_i^{(l-1)})}{\partial z_i^{(l-1)}} \sum_{j=1}^{N^{(l)}} w_{ij}^{(l)} \delta_{j,m}^{(l)}$$

Back Propagation from Layer k to j:
$$\delta_{j,m}^{(l)} = \frac{\partial f(z_j^{(l)})}{\partial z_j^{(l)}} \sum_{k=1}^{N^{(l+1)}} w_{jk}^{(l+1)} \delta_{k,m}^{(l+1)}$$

Weight and Bias Corrections for layer j:
$$\Delta w_{ij,m}^{(l)} = a_i^{(l-1)} \delta_{j,m}^{(l)}$$
$$\Delta b_{j,m}^{(l)} = \delta_{j,m}^{(l)}$$

Network Update Formulas:
$$w_{ij}^{(l)} \leftarrow w_{ij}^{(l)} - \eta \cdot \Delta w_{ij,m}^{(l)}$$
$$b_j^{(l)} \leftarrow b_j^{(l)} - \eta \cdot \Delta b_{j,m}^{(l)}$$

Convolutional Neural Networks.

Convolutional Neural Networks take inspiration from the Receptive Field model of biological vision systems proposed by Hubel and Weisel in 1968 to explain the organization of the visual cortex.

Fully connected Networks.

A fully connected network is a network where each unit at level $l+1$ receives activations from all units at level l .

If there are $N^{(l)}$ units at level l and $N^{(l+1)}$ units are level $l+1$ then a fully connected network requires learning $N^{(l)} \cdot N^{(l+1)}$ parameters for level l . While this may be tractable for small examples, it quickly becomes excessive for practical problems, as found in computer vision or speech recognition.

For example, a typical image may have $1024 \times 2048 = 2^{21}$ pixels. If we assume, say a $512 \times 512 = 2^{18}$ hidden units we have 2^{39} parameters to learn for a single class of image pattern. Clearly this is not practical (and, in any case unnecessary)

A common solution is to perform learning using a limited size window, and to use all possible windows as training data. This leads to a technique where we fix a window size at $N \times N$ input units and use all possible, overlapping, windows of size $N \times N$ from our training data to train the network.

We then use the same learned weights with every hidden cell. The resulting operation is equivalent to a “convolution” of the learned weights with the input signal and the learned weights are referred to as “receptive fields” in the neural network literature.

Local and Stationary Signals

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are used to interpret image and speech signals because both images and speech signals have two interesting theoretical properties: They are local and stationary.

1) Local. Local means that (most of) the required information can be found within a limited sized neighborhood of the signal. In fact, image information tends to be multi-scale, but this can be easily accommodated by projecting the image onto a multi-scale pyramid. Such a representation is “local” at multiple scales, with low-resolution scales providing context for higher resolution. This can be referred to as “multi-local”.

2) Stationary. A stationary signal is a random (unknown) signal whose joint probability density function does not change when shifted in time (speech) or space (image). Image and Speech signals tend to have stationary statistics. Thus the same processing can be applied to every possible (overlapping) window.

There are exceptions to both rules, but these can be handled with established techniques.

What Window Size?

What window size should be used for a feature in a Convolutional Neural Network? This tends to depend on depth of the layer. Signal processing analysis can be used that the initial layer should not be smaller than 7 by 7. The early impressive results in category learning were obtained with a convolutions of size of 11 x 11 in the initial layers. Surprisingly, after the first layers, many layers of smaller windows will often outperform a few layers of larger windows, for the same training data. It is common for authors to use 3x3 or 5x5. However, there is no clear theory to explain this phenomena or predict window size as a function of number of layers. Most researchers simply set up a python script to test a range of sizes and layers and experimentally discover which works best for a given data set.

Convolutional Neural Network for images

The Convolution Equation.

For a digital signal, $s(n)$, the equation for convolution of a digital filter, $g(n)$ composed of N coefficients is:

$$(s * g)(n) = \sum_{m=1}^N g(m)s(n-m)$$

For image processing, the signal and filter are generally 2D: $s(x,y)$ and $g(x,y)$. where $s(x,y)$ is the image and $g(x,y)$ is a filter (or receptive field) of size $W \times H$. The formula for 2D convolution is

$$(s * g)(x,y) = \sum_{v=1}^H \sum_{u=1}^W g(u,v)s(x-u,y-v)$$

In the vision literature this is often written: $s(x,y) * g(x,y)$

Note that a 2D convolution can easily be re-expressed as a 1D convolution by mapping successive rows of $g(x,y)$ into 1 long column, $g(n)$ with: $n = (y-1)H + x$

Convolutional Neural Networks

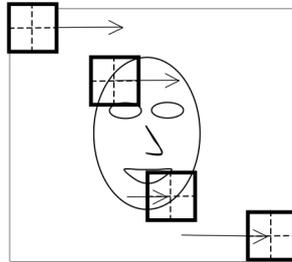
Classically, receptive fields for image descriptors were designed as filters using mathematical principals (or intuition). Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) propose an alternative in which labeled training data is used to automatically learn receptive fields for image descriptors. In the case of domain specific problems where large amounts of labeled training data are available, CNN's almost always outperform recognition systems using hand-crafted descriptors.

At each layer of the network, a CNN describes neighborhood around each pixel as a vector of K features, computing by as a product with K receptive fields. The number of descriptors, K , is referred to as the "Depth" of the layer (number of channels or number of features at each sample). For example, an RGB image is said to have a depth of 3. The 2D array of descriptors is sometimes called a feature "map".

Each descriptor is computed as a weighted sum of the pixels within an $N \times N$ window followed by a non-linear activation function.

Let $P(x,y)$ be a color image with C columns and R rows $\vec{P}(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{pmatrix}(x,y)$

The first layer of the CNN will describe the image using a scanning-window technique, extracting an $N \times N$ window for each pixel.



$$X_{x,y}(u, v) = P(x-u, y-v)$$

(assume pixels outside the image return as a zero). The use of $x-u$ and $y-v$ is rather than $x+u$ and $y+v$ is purely to assure equivalence with the classical signal processing operation of “convolution” in which the filter is “flipped” around x,y . In reality most implementations extract the window with $x+u$ and $y+v$. Technically, in signal processing, this would be called a “cross correlation”. However, “Cross-Correlational Neural Network” does not as sophisticated.

For each $N \times N$ window, the CNN will compute the product with a vector of K image descriptors, $W_k(u,v)$ with a bias b_k .

$$z_k = \sum_{u,v} W_k(u,v)X_{x,y}(u,v) + b_k = \sum_{u,v} W_k(u,v)P(x-u, y-v) + b_k$$

The weighted sum is then processed with a non-linear activation function, $f()$, typically a sigmoid or a tanh, although in many modern networks this is a relu.

$$a_k = f(z_k) = f\left(\sum_{u,v} W_k(u,v)X_{x,y}(u,v) + b_k\right)$$

Because a vector of activations $\vec{a}_k = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_K \end{pmatrix}$ is computed for each image position, this

should properly be written as

$$a_k(x,y) = f(z_k) = f\left(\sum_{u,v} W_k(u,v)X_{x,y}(u,v) + b_k\right)$$

The result is a “feature map” of k features at each position $a_k(x,y)$, with k values at each image position (x,y) .

The receptive fields, $W_k(u,v)$ can be learned using back-propagation, from a training set where each window is labeled with a target class, using an “indicator” image $y(x,y)$. For multiple target classes, the indicator image can be represented as a vector image, $\bar{y}(x,y)$. More classically, $y(x,y)$ is a binary image with 1 at each location that contains the target class and 0 elsewhere.

Hyperparameters

CNNs are typically configured with a number of “hyper-parameters”:

Depth: This is the number D of descriptors for each position in the feature map. For a color image, depth at level 0 would be $D=3$. If described with 32 image descriptors, the depth would be $D=32$ at level 1.

Stride: Stride is the step size, S , between window positions. By default it generally 1, but for larger windows, it is possible define larger step sizes.

Spatial Extent: This is the size of the filter, $N \times N$.

Zero-Padding: Size of region at the border of the feature map that is filled with zeros in order to preserve the image size (typically N).

Pooling

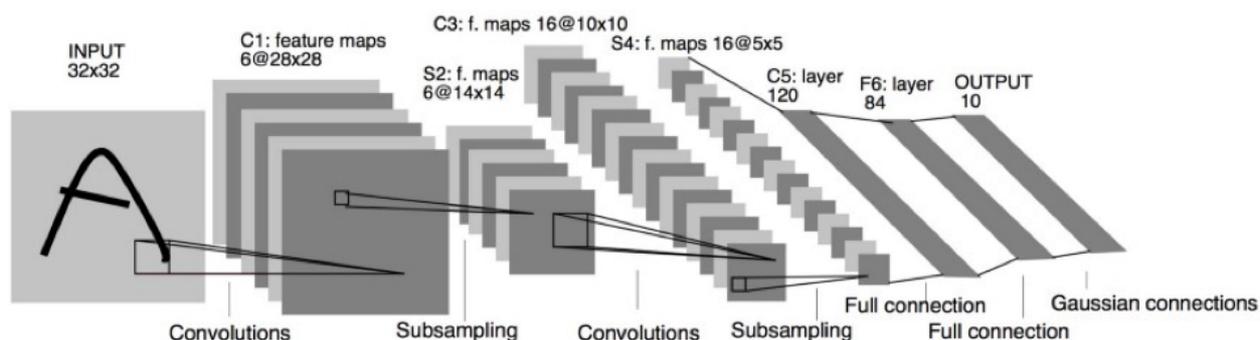
Pooling is a form of down-sampling that partitions the image into non-overlapping regions and computes a representative value for each region. The feature map is partitioned into small non-overlapping rectangles, typically of size 2×2 or 4×4 , and a single value is determined for each rectangle. The most common pooling operators are average and max. Median is also sometimes used. The earliest architectures used average, creating a form of multi-resolution pyramid. Max pooling was soon shown to work better.

Classic Neural Network Architectures

Neural network architectures continues to be a very popular area of research with innovations published nearly every month. Very often, researchers will run a script to automatically compare results for variations in hyperparameters for a benchmark data set. The winning set of hyperparameters (number of layers, depth etc) define a new architecture ! Here are some of the earliest and best known architectures.

LeNet5

One of the very deep learning architectures to outperform classical machine learning was LeNet5. Towards the end of the first wave of popularity of Neural Networks in the late 80s, several researchers began experimenting with networks composed of more than 3 layers. From 1988, Yann LeCunn began experimenting with a series of such architectures, referred to as LeNet, for the task of recognizing handwritten characters.



The LeNet5 architecture (1994)

In 1994 Yann LeCunn showed that LeNet5 provided the best performance for written character recognition. Because processing power, memory and training data were very limited at that time, many of the innovations in LeNet concerned methods to reduce parameters and computing without degrading performance.

Many of the insights of LeNet continued to be relevant as more training data, and additional computing power enabled larger and deeper networks, because they allowed more effective performance for a given amount of training data and parameters.

Recall that, generally, the amount of training required for a network depends on the number of parameters to be trained. In addition, for a given network, performance

increases with additional training. Thus any technique that gives equivalent performance with fewer parameters will scale to larger networks.

LeNet5 is composed of multiple repetitions of 3 operations: Convolution, Pooling, Non-linearity. Convolution windows were relatively large (11x11). Pooling was spatial averaging over 2x2 windows. Sigmoids were used for non-linearities

Despite the experimental success, LeCun found it very difficult to publish his results in the computer vision and machine learning literatures, which were more concerned with multi-camera geometry and Bayesian approaches to recognition. The situation began to change around 2010, driven by the availability of GPUs, and planetary scale data (continued exponential growth of the World Wide Web). In addition computer vision and machine learning were increasingly organized around open competitions for Performance Evaluation on benchmark data sets.

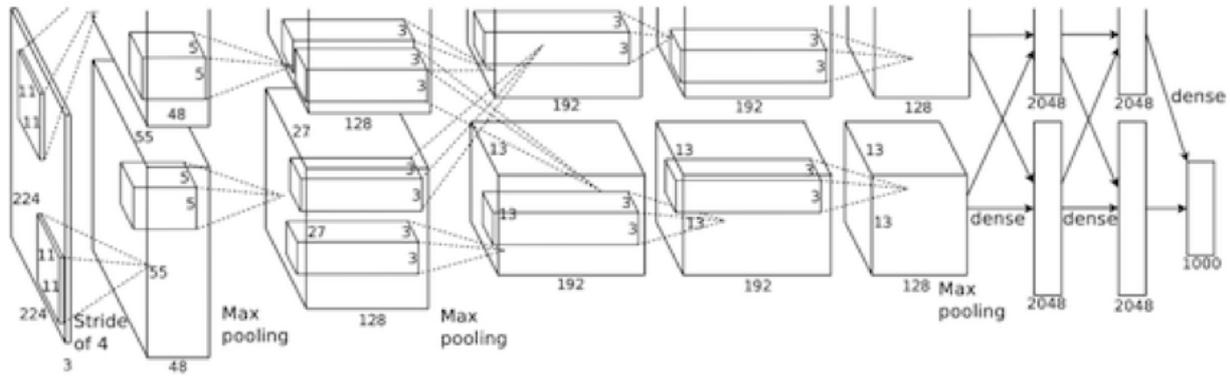
AlexNet

A classic, hard challenge at the time was the ImageNet competition. ImageNet is a large visual database designed for use in visual object recognition software research. The database was presented for the first time as a poster at the 2009 CVPR by researchers from Princeton University. Since 2010, the ImageNet project runs an annual software contest, the ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC), where software programs compete to correctly classify and detect objects and scenes.

ImageNet crowdsources its annotation process. Currently more than 14 million images have been hand-annotated by the project to indicate what objects are pictured and in at least one million of the images, bounding boxes are also provided. Image-level annotations indicate the presence or absence of an object class in an image. Object-level annotations provide a bounding box around the (visible part of the) indicated object.

Initial champions were statistical recognition techniques using techniques such as SIFT and HoG. However, in 2012, Alex Krizhevsky won the competition by dramatically large margins, using a technique named AlexNet.

AlexNet, is a deeper and larger variation of LeNet5.



AlexNet Architecture (2010)

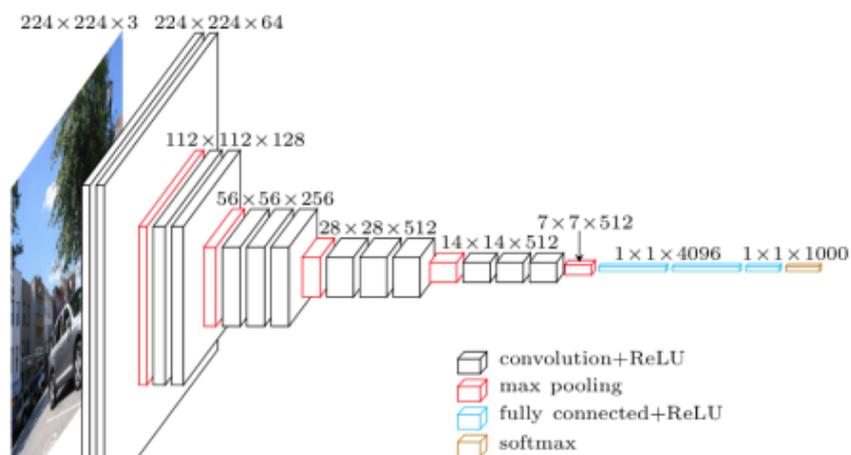
Innovations in AlexNET include:

1. The use of relu instead of sigmoid or tanh. Relus provided a 6 times speed up with the same accuracy, allowing more training.
2. A technique called “dropout” in which randomly chosen units are temporarily removed during learning. This regularizes the network preventing over-fitting to training data.
3. Overlap pooling, in which pooling is performed on overlapping windows.

The architecture is composed of 5 convolutional layers followed by 3 fully connected layers. Relu is used after each convolution and in each fully connected layer. The input image size of 224 x 224 is dictated by the number of layers in the architecture. Larger images are generally texture mapped to this size.

A good implementation can be found in PyTorch. The network has 62.3 million parameters, and needs 1.1 billion computations in a forward pass. The convolution layers account for 6% of all the parameters, and consume 95% of the computation. The network is commonly trained in 90 epochs, with a learning rate 0.01, momentum 0.9 and weight decay 0.0005. The learning rate is divided by 10 once the accuracy reaches a plateau.

VGG - Visual Geometry Group



The VGG Architecture (2014)

In 2014, Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman of the Visual Geometry Group at the Univ of Oxford demonstrated a series of networks referred to as VGG. An important innovation was the use of very many small (3x3) convolutional receptive fields. The also introduced the idea of a 1x1 convolutional filter.

For a layer with a depth of D receptive fields, a 1x1 convolution performs a weighted sum of the D features, followed by non-linear activation. The weights can be learned with back-propagation.

A stack of convolutional layers is followed by three Fully-Connected layers: the first two have 4096 channels each, the third performs classification and thus contains one channel for each class (1000 channels for ILSVRC). The final layer is the soft-max layer. The configuration of the fully connected layers is the same in all networks. All layers use Relu activation.