### Neural Networks for Data Science Applications Master's Degree in Data Science

## Lecture 6: Convolutional neural networks

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Introduction

Why fully-connected layers are not enough

# An **image** is a 3-dimensional tensor $X_{(h,w,c)}$ , where:

- ▶ *h* is the **height** of the image (e.g., 512 pixels).
- ▶ *w* is the **width** of the image (e.g., 1024 pixels).
- c is the number of channels (e.g., 3 channels for a RGB image, 1 channel for a greyscale image).

The first two dimensions have a precise *grid* ordering, while the channels do not have a precise ordering (i.e., we can switch RGB to GBR or BRG with no information loss).

A simple way to process an image is to **vectorize** it by stacking all its values:

 $\mathbf{x}_{(hwc)} = \operatorname{vect}(X) \, .$ 

Once this is done, we can apply what we know, e.g., a fully-connected layer:

$$\mathbf{h} = \phi(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}) \,. \tag{1}$$

Can you see what is wrong with this approach?

#### Vectorization of an image



#### Where has the image gone?

Vectorized form:

3072 elements



Original image: 32 x 32 x 3





We have lost all the spatial information after the first operation, i.e., we cannot compose the previous block multiple times. A simple way to solve this would be:

$$H = \text{unvect}(\phi(\mathbf{W} \cdot \text{vect}(X))) \tag{2}$$

However, we still need a *huge* number of parameters: for example, for a  $1024 \times 1024$  RGB image we need  $\approx 3M$  parameters for a logistic regression!

Next, we show how we can properly incorporate this information, to define a layer targeted for image-like data.

#### An example to keep in mind

As a running example to visualize what follows, consider a 1D sequence (think of this as "4 pixels with a single channel"):

$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$$

In this case, we do not need any reshaping operations, and the previous layer (with c' = 1) can be written as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \\ h_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W_{11} & W_{12} & W_{13} & W_{14} \\ W_{21} & W_{22} & W_{23} & W_{24} \\ W_{31} & W_{32} & W_{33} & W_{34} \\ W_{41} & W_{42} & W_{43} & W_{44} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Convolutional neural networks

**Convolutional layers** 

We want a layer of the form:

 $H_{(h,w,c')} = f(X),$ 

with the following properties:

- the output tensor must exploit the 'spatial information' contained in the image;
- ► It must be efficient (with a small number of parameters);
- ► It must be *composable* and *differentiable*, i.e., we want to do:

$$\mathsf{Y} = (f_1 \circ \ldots \circ f_2 \circ f_1)(\mathsf{X})$$

We can define many distances between two pixels i, j and i', j', e.g.:

$$d(i, j, i', j') = \max\{|i - i'|, |j - j'|\}$$
.

Fix an odd number s = 2k + 1. A **patch** is a sub-image centered at (i, j), containing all pixels (i', j') under distance k:

$$P_{i,j,k} = [X]_{i-k:i+k,j-k:j+k,:}$$
(3)  
(s,s,c)

We can think of a patch as a small slice of the original tensor:



#### The size of the patch will be called the **filter size** or **kernel size**.

An image layer is **local** if  $[H]_{ij}$  only depends on  $P_{i,j,k}$  for some k.

We can achieve this by restricting the linear operation to the single patch:

Flattened patch (of shape  $s^2c'c$ )

$$H_{ij} = \phi \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{W}_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{vect}(P_k(i,j)) \end{array} \right)$$
Position-dependent weight matrix

where we have a separate weight matrix  $W_{i,j}$  for each location. These are called **locally-connected** layers.

Considering our toy example, assuming for example k = 1 (hence s = 3) we can write the resulting operation as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \\ h_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W_{12} & W_{13} & 0 & 0 \\ W_{21} & W_{22} & W_{23} & 0 \\ 0 & W_{31} & W_{32} & W_{33} \\ 0 & 0 & W_{41} & W_{42} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

The operation is not defined for  $x_1$  and  $x_4$ . Instead of shortening the output, we can add 0 on the border whenever necessary:

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \\ h_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W_{11} & W_{12} & W_{13} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & W_{21} & W_{22} & W_{23} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & W_{31} & W_{32} & W_{33} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & W_{41} & W_{42} & W_{43} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is called **zero padding**.

#### Image padding



original image

The previous layer keeps the spatial information, but it is definitely not efficient: in total, it requires  $o \cdot ssc \cdot h \cdot w$  parameters.

Fortunately, there is another nice property we can exploit.

An image layer is **translational equivariant** if  $P_{i,j,k} = P_{i',j',k}$  implies  $[H]_{i,j} = [H]_{i',j'}$ .

Informally, we want to recognize something *irrespective* of where it appears in the image, i.e., if something moves (the patch) we want the output feature to move 'with it'. We can achieve translational equivariance easily by *sharing* the same weights across all locations, i.e.,  $W_{i,j} = W$ :

$$[H]_{i,j} = \phi(\mathbf{W} \cdot \text{vect}(P_{i,j,k})), \qquad (4)$$

The resulting layer is called a **convolutional layer**. It has all the properties we were looking for, including efficiency (we have only  $c' \cdot ssc$  parameters).

Remember that in general we always consider a version with bias:

$$[H]_{i,j} = \phi(\mathbf{W} \cdot \text{vect}(P_{i,j,k}) + \underset{(c')}{\mathbf{b}}).$$
(5)

The final convolutional layer in our toy example is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \\ h_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W_2 & W_3 & 0 & 0 \\ W_1 & W_2 & W_3 & 0 \\ 0 & W_1 & W_2 & W_3 \\ 0 & 0 & W_1 & W_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6)

where we now have only three weights  $\mathbf{W} = [W_1, W_2, W_3]^{\top}$ . Note the special (**Toeplitz**) structure of the matrix – the convolutional layer remains a linear transformation.

An equivalent way to define convolution is to consider a 4-dimensional weight tensor W, with a scalar function to convert between offsets: (s,s,c,c')

$$t(i) = i - k - 1$$
 (7)

We now rewrite the output of the layer with explicit summations across the axes:

$$H_{ijz} = \sum_{i'=1}^{2k+1} \sum_{j'=1}^{2k+1} \sum_{d=1}^{c} [W]_{i',j',z,d} [X]_{i'+t(i),j'+t(j),d}$$
(8)

In signal processing terminology, this is a filtering operation exploiting a **finite impulse response** filter.

- ▶ s = 2k + 1 is called the **kernel size** or **filter size**. It is a hyper-parameter of the layer, together with the number c' of output channels.
- In accordance with signal processing, the elements of the matrix W (or the equivalent tensor W) are called filters.
- A single slice [H]:,,,a is called an activation map. Sometimes, we distinguish between pre-activation (before φ) and post-activation.

#### Filter operation 1/3



**Figure 1:** Start from the first patch, filling the first element of the activation map.

#### Filter operation 2/3



**Figure 2:** The window is moved one pixel, and we compute a different activation.

#### Filter operation 3/3



The previous operation is shown for a single filter. Stacking many filters together gives us the complete **convolutional layer**.



Suppose we stack several convolutional layers:

 $H = (f_3 \circ f_2 \circ f_1)(X)$ 

The **receptive field** of  $[H]_{i,j}$  is the subset of X that contributed to its computation.

For one layer, the receptive field is just  $P_{i,j,k}$ . For two layers, however (with the same kernel size), it becomes  $P_{i,j,2k}$ . This justifies our choice of locality: even if a *single* layer is highly localized, *many* layers can still process the entire image at once, since the receptive field increases linearly.

Most frameworks, including TensorFlow, provide a primitive with an efficient low-level implementation:

```
1 # Image (with mini-batch dimension)
2 X = tf.random.normal((1, 64, 64, 3))
4 # Filters (filter size = 5, output filters = 100)
5 W = tf.random.normal((5, 5, 3, 100))
6
7 # Convolution
8 H = tf.nn.conv2d(X, W, 1, 'SAME')
9 print(H.shape) # (1, 64, 64, 100)
```

https://www.tensorflow.org/api\_docs/python/tf/nn/conv2d.

## Convolutional neural networks

Defining the network

We can define a convolutional block by interleaving convolutional layers with activation functions:

$$H = (\phi \circ \text{Conv} \circ \ldots \circ \phi \circ \text{Conv})(X)$$

Convolutional blocks can modify the number of channels, but they keep the spatial resolution (h, w) constant. We might want to reduce the resolution in-between blocks, to make the networks faster and more efficient.

This is also justified from a signal processing perspective, where **multi-resolution** filter banks are common.

In a convolution with **stride**, we compute only 1 every *s* elements of the output tensor *H*, where *s* is the stride parameter.

For example, for s = 2, we have:

$$[H]_{i,j} = \phi(\mathbf{W} \cdot \operatorname{vect}(P_{2i-1,2j-1,k})),$$
  
(h/2,w/2,c')

The **tf.nn.conv2d** function we saw before requires, in fact, a stride parameter.

#### Convolution with a larger stride



Figure 4: Left figure has stride = 1, right figure has stride = 2. Image source is http://cs231n.github.io/convolutional-networks/. Alternatively, a **max-pooling** (or an **average-pooling**) layer can be used. It computes the maximum (or the average) from small blocks of the input tensor.

Differently from convolutional layers, it is common to consider even-dimensional blocks (2x2, 4x4, ...). It acts on each channel separately.

#### Visualization of max-pooling



**Figure 5:** Visualization of max-pooling on a  $4 \times 4$  image with windows of size  $2 \times 2$ . Note that the maximum operation can be replaced with any differentiable aggregation (e.g., average).

#### A standard CNN for classification is then composed by:

- Interleaving convolutional and pooling layers;
- Flattening (or global pooling);
- ► A classification block.

Note: with global pooling, the final layer is roughly **invariant** to a translation, despite each convolutional layer being equivariant.

More recent CNNs add many variations on this basic architecture. How to choose the sequence of layers and their hyper-parameters is still an open *model selection* research issue.

(convolutional or pooling layers)	$(f_l \circ \ldots \circ f_2 \circ f_1)(X)$	Н =	Block 1:
(flattening)	vect(H)	$\overset{(h',w',c')}{h} =$	Block 2a:
(global pooling)	$\frac{1}{h'w'}\sum_{i,j} [H]_{i,j}$	(h'w'c') <b>h</b> =	Block 2b:
(e.g., logistic regression)	softmax(g(h))	$\mathbf{y} =$	Block 3:

#### Example of a simple CNN specification



**Figure 6:** Note how multiple down-sampling layers are required to make the final classification dimensionality manageable.

#### Designing in blocks



**Figure 7:** When CNNs tends to become deep, it is simpler to reason in repeating *blocks* made of multiple components. This is easy using the layering abstraction.

## Convolutional neural networks

Other notable types of convolutions

- One important type of convolutional layer is a 1x1 layer, i.e., a layer with a kernel size of 1 (k = 0), also called a **pointwise convolution**.
- This can be understood as a pixel-wise operation, which is applied independently at every pixel, with no contribution from the neighbours.
- It is especially important when we desire to simply modify the number of channels.

An orthogonal idea is to apply a convolution to each channel *independently*, by combining only information across the spatial dimensions.

The result is a **depth-wise** (separable) convolution:

$$H_{ijc} = \sum_{i'=1}^{2k+1} \sum_{j'=1}^{2k+1} W_{i',j',c} X_{i'+t(i),j'+t(j),c}$$

This idea can also be extended to **group** convolution. A depthwise convolution followed by a pointwise convolution is called a **depthwise-separable convolution** and it is extremely common for modeling efficient architectures.

