Artificial Intelligence & Data Analysis Lecture 1: Convolutional Neural Networks



Krizhevsky et al., ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks, NeurIPS 2012



Pierre Marza



About me

Pierre Marza: PhD student at INSA Lyon Embodied AI, Visual Navigation, Deep Learning, Computer Vision, Reinforcement Learning



Teaching Agents how to Map: Spatial Reasoning for Multi-Object Navigation



Multi-Object Navigation with dynamically learned neural implicit representations





Course Overview

- 1. Convolutional Neural Networks (Lecture + practical) 2. Recurrent Neural Networks (Lecture + *optional* practical)
- 3. Reinforcement Learning 1 (Johan Peralez)
- 4. Reinforcement Learning 2 (Johan Peralez)
- 5. **Project** (15h)

Evaluation

1. Project oral/written presentation

2. Final exam (Multiple-choice questions)

Useful resources

Ian Goodfellow, Yoshua Bengio, Aaron Courville, **Deep Learning**, 2017, MIT Press (<u>https://www.deeplearningbook.org/</u>)

Pytorch Tutorials: <u>https://pytorch.org/tutorials/</u>

Christopher M. Bishop, Pattern recognition and machine learning, 2006, Springer (Machine Learning resource, not only Deep Learning)

Interesting read: Rich Sutton, The Bitter Lesson, 2019 (<u>http://www.incompleteideas.net/Incldeas/BitterLesson.html</u>)

Some of the material of this course is inspired by the lectures given by Christian Wolf (my PhD advisor) at INSA Lyon. You can find his full course here: https://chriswolfvision.github.io/www/teaching/index.html



















Extracting useful features

Image Generation



An astronaut riding a horse in photorealistic style.

(Reproduced from DALLE 2 website)



User what is the fermat's little theorem

Fermat's Little Theorem states that if p is a prime number and a is an integer not divisible by p, then $a^p a$ (a to the power p) is congruent to a modulo p. In other words, if we divide a^p by p, the remainder is always a.

For example, if p = 5 and a = 2, then $2^5 = 32$, and 32 divided by 5 has a remainder of 2. Therefore, 2^5 is congruent to 2 modulo 5, and Fermat's Little Theorem holds for this case.

Fermat's Little Theorem is often used in cryptography and other applications where it is necessary to perform modular arithmetic operations quickly and efficiently. It is also a useful tool for proving other theorems in number theory

(Reproduced from ChatGPT website)

Text Generation





Cat

Dog



Detection

Latent vector representation



learning part.

Hyperparameters:

- Type and number of layers
- Number of neurons per layer
- Activation functions, etc.



Parameters/Weights: each layer is composed of **neurons** that are parametrized by weights that we want to optimize. This is the





Input

Recap (?): The Linear Layer



 $\theta = \{W_1, W_2, W_3\}$





Input

function $(y = ax + b) \longrightarrow We$ need to add a bias term.

Recap (?): The Linear Layer



 $\theta = \{W_1, W_2, W_3\}$

But, here we can just learn a linear function (y = ax) and not an affine





Recap (?): The Linear Layer



 $\theta = \{W_1, W_2, W_3\}$

What we often do is that we **add a '1' at the end of the input**.

Recap (?): Activation Functions



To train your neural network, you need to compare its output with the groundtruth labels. This is where you need to use a loss function.

MSE = -

Recap (?): Loss Functions

Example 1: Let's consider you have *n* training samples and are solving a **regression problem**. For a given (input, ground-truth) pair (I_i, T_i) , the output of your neural network is \hat{t}_i . Then, you can use the Mean Squared Error as your loss function:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(T_i - \hat{t}_i \right)^2$$

is where you need to use a **loss function**.

Example 2: Let's consider you have *n* training samples and are solving a **classification problem** that involves M classes. For a given (input, ground-truth) pair (I_i, T_i) , the output of your neural network is \hat{t}_i . More specifically, for a given class c, $T_{i,c}$ is a binary indicator of whether class c is the correct one for sample *i*, and $\hat{t}_{i,c}$ if the predicted probability for sample *i* to belong to class *c*.

Then, you can use the **Cross-Entropy Loss** as your loss function:

 $CE = -\frac{1}{-}$

Recap (?): Loss Functions

To train your neural network, you need to **compare its output with the ground-truth labels**. This

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{c=1}^{M}T_{i,c}\log\left(\hat{t}_{i,c}\right)$$

is where you need to use a **loss function**.

Example 2: Let's consider you have *n* training samples and are solving a **classification problem** that involves M classes. For a given (input, ground-truth) pair (I_i, T_i) , the output of your neural network is \hat{t}_i . More specifically, for a given class c, $T_{i,c}$ is a binary indicator of whether class c is the correct one for sample *i*, and $\hat{t}_{i,c}$ if the predicted probability for sample *i* to belong to class *c*.

When solving a classification problem, the output of the neural network will generally be a probability distribution over possible classes.

Recap (?): Loss Functions

To train your neural network, you need to compare its output with the ground-truth labels. This

Find a dataset, i.e. pairs of (input, output) 1.



Cat









Dog



Cat



Dog



Cat





Cat



Dog









- 1. Find a dataset, i.e. pairs of (input, output)
- 2. Split your data into 3 sets: train, validation, test





Cat



Cat



Dog

- 1. Find a dataset, i.e. pairs of (input, output)
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Validation

To evaluate the choice of hyper parameters, e.g. number of layers, neurons, type of activations, loss functions... **This set is very important**: allows to evaluate the performance on data not used during training but different from the final test set (to avoid choosing hyper params that only work on this specific test set).

Test

To evaluate the final performance of you neural network (after hyper params have been chosen and weight values optimised)



- 1. Find a dataset, i.e. pairs of (input, output)
- 2. Split your data into 3 sets: train, validation, test
- 3. Build your neural network (this process is often iterative based on validation performance).
 - 1. Types of layers (linear, convolutional, recurrent, etc.)
 - 2. Activation functions
 - Number of layers, neurons, etc. 3.

- Find a dataset, i.e. pairs of (input, output)
- Split your data into 3 sets: train, validation, test 2.
- 3. Build your neural network (this process is often iterative based on validation performance).
- Train your neural network

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

<u>Epoch</u>: a full iteration over your train set.

Training batch: a set of samples from the train set.

 f_{θ} : neural network parametrised by weights θ .

 \mathscr{L} : chosen loss function (e.g. Cross-Entropy for classification problems).

Iterate over *n* epochs

Iterate over *m* training batches

Forward pass: $\hat{t}_i = f_{\theta}(I_i; \theta)$, where \hat{t}_i is the prediction from the neural network. **Error computation**: $e_i = \mathscr{L}(\hat{t}_i, T_i)$ where e_i is the error between the predictions and the ground truth. **Backward pass**: Computing gradient of e_i with respect to network weights θ , and updating θ .

Sampling training batch $\mathscr{B}_i = \{I_i, T_i\}$ from train set, where I_i and T_i are inputs and ground-truth outputs respectively.

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Useful resources about CNNs

- AlexNet paper (winner of the Imagenet competition): Krizhevsky et al. ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks, NeurIPS 2012
- Recognition, CVPR 2016
- A nice blog post from my PhD advisor (Christian Wolf) about shift equivariance: <u>https://</u> chriswolfvision.medium.com/what-is-translation-equivariance-and-why-do-we-use-convolutions-to-getit-6f18139d4c59

ResNet paper (a method that is still used a lot in Computer Vision): He et al., Deep Residual Learning for Image

How to extract a feature representation of an image?

How to extract a feature representation of an image?



How to extract a feature representation of an image?



Before Deep Learning: SIFT, HoG features, etc.

How to extract a feature representation of an image?



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Artificial Neural Network: Couldn't we use a simple Multi-Layer Perceptron?

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Answer: Maybe, but it can be hard to train... even sometimes impossible...



Multi-Layer Perceptron

 $\theta = \{W_1, W_2, W_3\}$

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Activation

Artificial Neural Network: <u>Couldn't we use a simple Multi-Layer Perceptron?</u>

Answer: Maybe, but it can be hard to train... even sometimes impossible...



 $\theta = \{W_1, W_2, W_3, W_4, W_5\}$



Issues with MLP

whether a given input pixel was close to others in the original image.

- Spatial information is lost when flattening the image. We loose information about

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- The number of parameters to learn quickly grows with the size of the input image.

If we have a **224*224*3** input image —> **150528 input values** Now let's say we want a single linear layer with 256 neurons $-> 256^{*}(150528 + 1) = 38535424 \sim 38M$ parameters for a single layer! **Bias term**

Issues with MLP

- Spatial information is lost when flattening the image. We loose information about whether a given input pixel was close to others in the original image.
- The number of parameters to learn quickly grows with the size of the input image.
- It is not translation invariant (outputs a different representation for a given input) image and its shifted version)

Inductive biases:

- The set of assumptions about the target function to approximate.
- A way to constrain the search space for suitable functions.
- Incorporates prior knowledge about the task to solve.

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- The set of assumptions about the target function to approximate.
- A way to constrain the search space for suitable functions.
- Incorporates prior knowledge about the task to solve.

There are 2 important inductive biases when dealing with images:

- Locality: pixels spatially close share information -
- Translation equivariance

An operation ϕ is known to be **shift/translation equivariant** if, given an input X and a translation operator T, we have the following:

 $\phi(T(X)) = T(\phi(X))$

Why is it interesting? If we consider shifting an image slightly, we might want the final pixel-wise representation of this image to be the same, just translated by the applied shift.

Convolutional Neural Networks — Standard Architecture

Two important operations: 1. Convolution 2. Pooling





Let's consider an input tensor with size $H \times W \times C$,

- *H* is the height (H = 5 in the example below)
- W is the width (W = 5 in the example below)

	In	pu	t te	ens	or	
(<i>H</i> =	5,	W	_	5,	C	= 3)
	4	112	34	20	5	
	55	40	1	8	27	
GB)	70	87	2	190	25	
	240	101	67	42	12	
	44	109	4	1	87	
	25	37	115	60	88	
	177	24	37	92	145	
GB)	15	50	108	124	44	
	5	71	133	74	58	
	27	39	82	118	243	
	12	250	194	145	117	
	37	26	129	107	99	
GB)	87	75	60	191	230	
	20	11	48	61	72	

87 33 71

48 100

Channel O (e.g. R in RGB)

Channel 1 (e.g. G in RGB)

Channel 2 (e.g. B in RGB)

- C is the number of channels (C = 3 in the example below as is the case for an RGB image)

Let's consider a convolution kernel with size $H \times W \times C$, - *H* is the height (H = 3 in the example below) - W is the width (W = 3 in the example below) - C is the number of channels (C = 3 in the example below to match input channels)

	Input tensor										Convolution					
(<i>H</i> =	5,	W	_	5,	C	= 3)		(<i>H</i>	=	3,	W	_	3,			
	4	112	34	20	5											
	55	40	1	8	27						3	2	4			
e.g. R in RGB)	70	87	2	190	25						0	1	8			
	240	101	67	42	12						2	7	6			
	44	109	4	1	87											
	25	37	115	60	88											
	177	24	37	92	145						5	9	8			
e.g. G in RGB)	15	50	108	124	44						3	4	1			
	5	71	133	74	58						1	2	7			
	27	39	82	118	243											
	12	250	194	145	117					_						
	37	26	129	107	99						7	2	6			
e.g. B in RGB)	87	75	60	191	230						8	9	3			
	20	11	48	61	72						4	4	5			
	87	33	71	48	100											

Channel 0 (

Channel 1 (

Channel 2 (e

kernel C = 3)











	Input tensor								
(<i>H</i> =	= 5,	W	/ =	: 5,	<u>C</u>	(H = 3) ($H = 3$)	, W	_	
	4	112	34	20	5				
	55	40	1	8	27		3	2	
Channel 0 (e.g. R in RGB)	70	87	2	190	25	*	0	1	
	245	101	67	42	12		2	7	
Horizonta	l st	rid	e =	: 1	87				
	25	37	115	60	88				
	177	24	37	92	145		5	9	
Channel 1 (e.g. G in RGB)	15	50	108	124	44	*	3	4	
	5	71	133	74	58		1	2	
	27	39	82	118	243				
	12	250	194	145	117			-	
	37	26	129	107	99		7	2	
Channel 2 (e.g. B in RGB)	87	75	60	191	230	*	8	9	
	20	11	48	61	72	Convolution	4	4	
	87	33	71	48	100	operation			



6	
3	
5	

	In	pu	t te	ens	or	Conv	olu	tio
(H =	5,	W	_	5,	C	(= 3) $(H = 3,$	W	_
	4	112	34	20	5			
	55	40	1	8	27		3	2
Channel O (e.g. R in RGB)	70	87	2	190	25	*	VOIUUIO 3 , $W =$ $\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} 5 & 9 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ 8 & 9 \\ 4 & 4 \end{vmatrix}$	
	240	101	67	42	12		2	7
	44	109	4	1	87			
	25	37	115	60	88			
	177	24	37	92	145		5	9
Channel 1 (e.g. G in RGB)	15	50	108	124	44	*	3	4
	5	71	133	74	58		1	2
	27	39	82	118	243			
	12	250	194	145	117			
	37	26	129	107	99		7	2
Channel 2 (e.g. B in RGB)	177243792145155010812444*57113374582739821182431225019414511737261291079987756019123087337148100	*	8	9				
	20	11	48	61	72	Constallerthous	4	4
	87	33	71	48	100	operation		



6	
3	
5	



	In	pu [.]	t te	ens	or	Conv	olu	tio	ľ
(<i>H</i> =	: 5,	W	/ =	: 5,	, <i>C</i>	(= 3) (H = 3),	W	/	
	4	112	34	20	5				
	55	40	1	8	27		3	2	
hannel 0 (e.g. R in RGB)	70	87	2	190	25	*	0	1	
	240	101	67	42	12		2	7	
	44	109	4	1	87		_		
		37	115	60	88				
	177	24	37	92	145		5	9	
hannel 1 (e.g. G in RGB)	15	50	108	124	44	*	3	4	
	5	71	133	74	58		1	2	
	27	39	82	118	243				
	12	250	194	145	117				-
	37	26	129	107	99		7	2	
hannel 2 (e.g. B in RGB)	87	75	60	191	230	*	8	9	
	20	11	48	61	72	Convolution	4	4	
	87	33	71	48	100	operation			





87 75 60 191 230

48

71

61

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72

100

20

87

11

33

Another hyper parameter of the convolution layer is **padding.** Sometimes you might want to **pad the input tensor with a border of zeros**, e.g. to avoid border values in the input to be less important in the final result. The width of this border is called the **padding size**.

	In	pu	t te	ens	or			
(<i>H</i> =	5,	W	_	: 5,	, <i>C</i>	= 3)		
	4	112	34	20	5			
	55	40	1	8	27			
in RGB)	70	87	2	190	25			
	240	101	67	42	12			
	44	109	4	1	87			
	25	37	115	60	88			
	177	24	37	92	145			
in RGB)	15	50	108	124	44		Padding (padding size = 1)	
	5	71	133	74	58			
	27	39	82	118	243			
	12	250	194	145	117			

Channel O (e.g. R

Channel 1 (e.g. G

Channel 2 (e.g. B in RGB)

0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	4	112	34	20	5	0
0	55	40	1	8	27	0
0	70	87	2	190	25	0
0	240	101	67	42	12	0
0	44	109	4	1	87	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	25	37	115	60	88	0
0	177	24	37	92	145	0
0	15	50	108	124	44	0
0	5	71	133	74	58	0
0	27	39	82	118	243	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	12	250	194	145	117	0
0	37	26	129	107	99	0
0	87	75	60	191	230	0
0	20	11	48	61	72	0
0	87	33	71	48	100	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0

- All weights in a convolutional kernel are learnt.
- our MLP!

- CNN is parameter efficient: weights are shared across the whole input (only sliding the kernel with fixed weights). Much better than

- All weights in a convolutional kernel are learnt.
- our MLP!
- tensor.
- kernels).

- CNN is parameter efficient: weights are shared across the whole input (only sliding the kernel with fixed weights). Much better than

- One kernel provides one scalar for each position in the output

- To increase the capacity of a convolutional layer, we learn several kernels (output channel dimension is equal to the number of





But, CNNs are not only a sequence of convolution layers! There is another operation involved: **pooling**.

- This is a **non-learned operation**, i.e. not parametrized by any learnable weight.
- weighted sum of inputs, it takes:
 - The max value (Max Pooling)
 - The min value (Min Pooling)
 - The average value (Mean Pooling)

4	112	34	20
55	40	1	8
70	87	2	190
240	101	67	42

4	112	34	20
55	40	1	8
70	87	2	190
240	101	67	42



- The pooling operation allows to **reduce the spatial resolution of a tensor**.

Sliding a kernel as for the convolution operation, but instead of computing the

Example of Max Pooling Operation with kernel size 2×2 and stride 2 (both horizontal and vertical strides):

Why do we need pooling?

- 1. Makes the network less sensitive to small shifts in the input by discarding some non-important details. Pooling provides a form of local shift invariance.
- 2. With lower resolution maps, convolution computations are faster.
- 3. Increases the size of the receptive field of each neuron.

The receptive field of a neuron is the part of the input image that brings information to the given neuron.

By applying a pooling operation, i.e. downsampling a feature map, we increase the receptive field of next neurons.



layer 1

layer 2

Convolutional Neural Networks — Standard Architectures







ResNet, 2015 **Even deeper thanks to residual connections**

Convolutional Neural Networks — Practical

Goals:

- Implementing a Convolutional Neural Network
- Understanding the involved computations 2.
- Building a full Deep Learning pipeline in PyTorch to train a model on a given dataset 3.



CIFAR-10

O PyTorch