

Lecture 10: Ingredients for a convolutional neural network – Part II

Machine Learning and Imaging

BME 548L

Roarke Horstmeyer

Note: Much material borrowed from Stanford CS231n, Lectures 4 - 10

Important components of a CNN

CNN Architecture

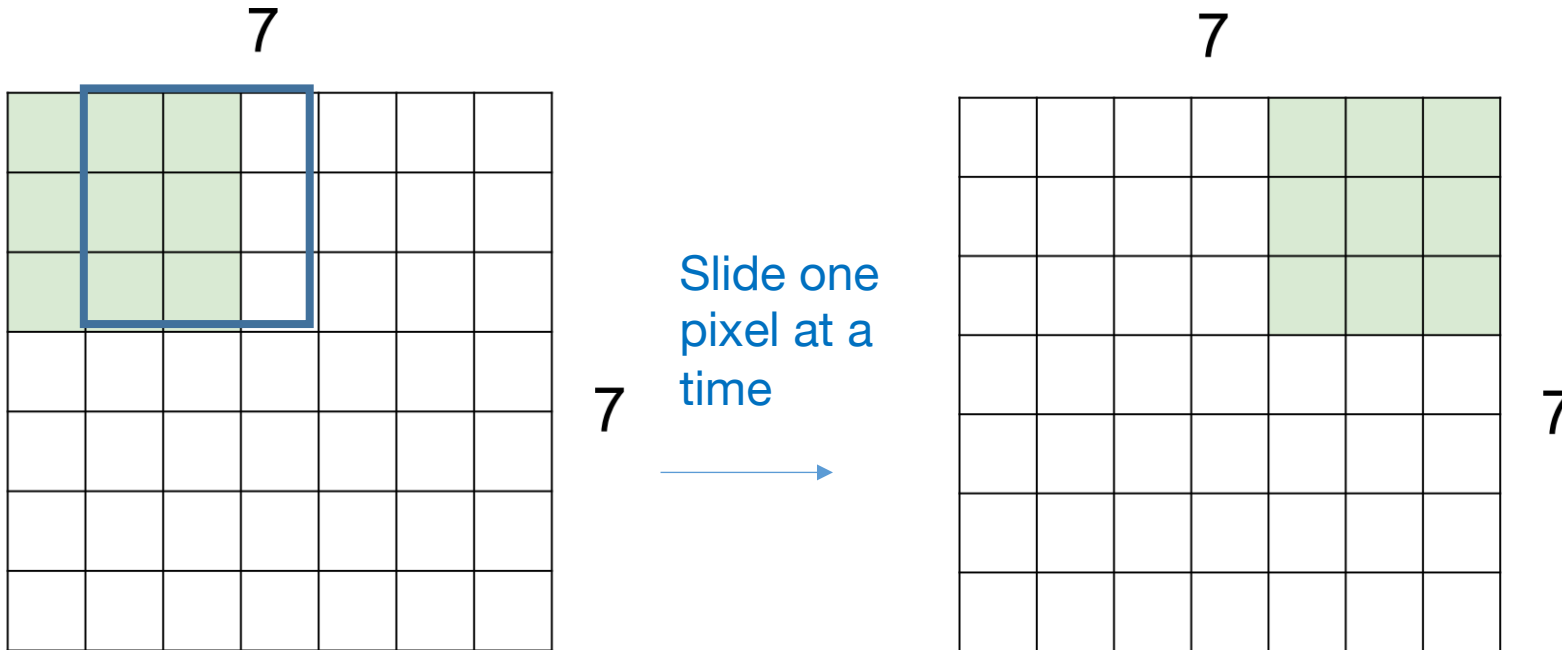
- CONV size, stride, pad, depth
- ReLU & other nonlinearities
- POOL methods
- Fully connected layers
- # of layers, dimensions per layer

Loss function & optimization

- Type of loss function
- Regularization
- Gradient descent method
- Gradient descent step size

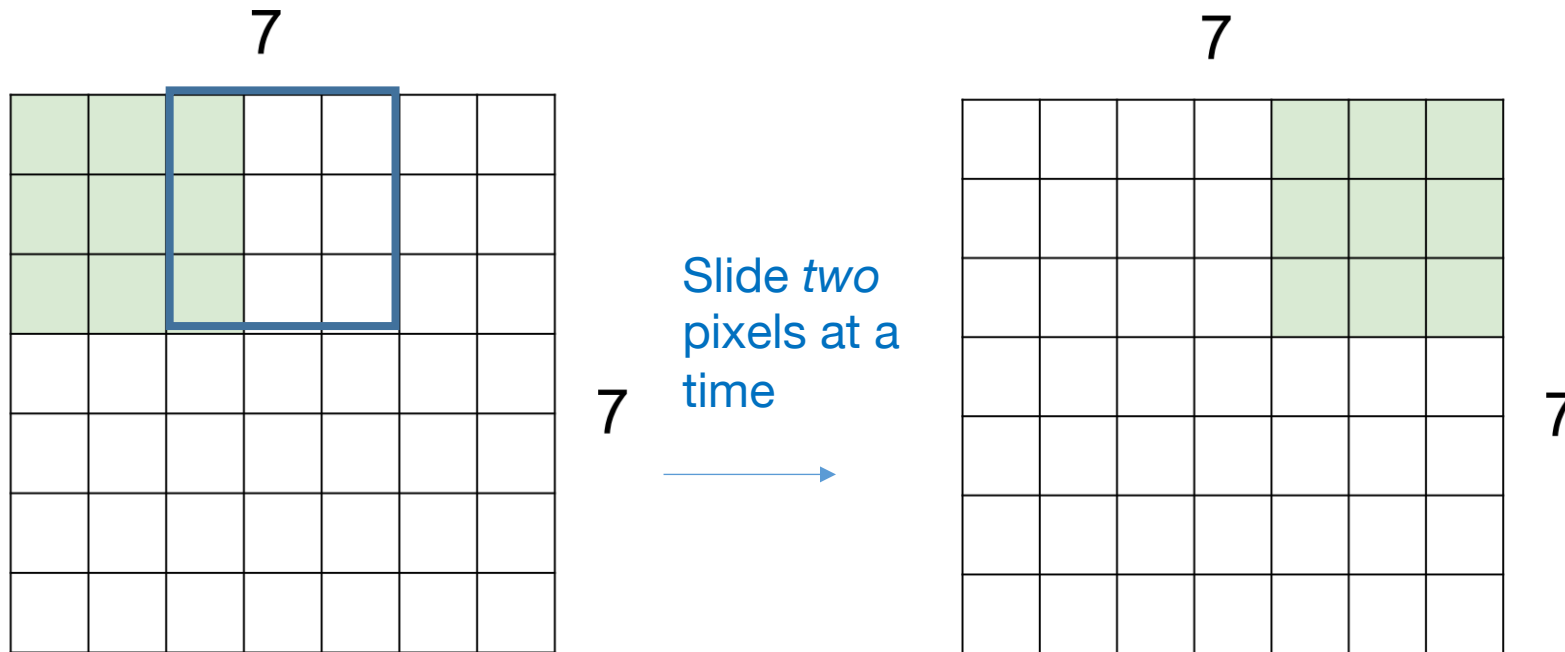
Other specifics: Pre-processing, initialization, dropout, batch normalization, batch size

Convolutions: size, stride and padding



- 7x7 input image
- 3x3 filter
- 5x5 output

Convolutions: size, stride and padding

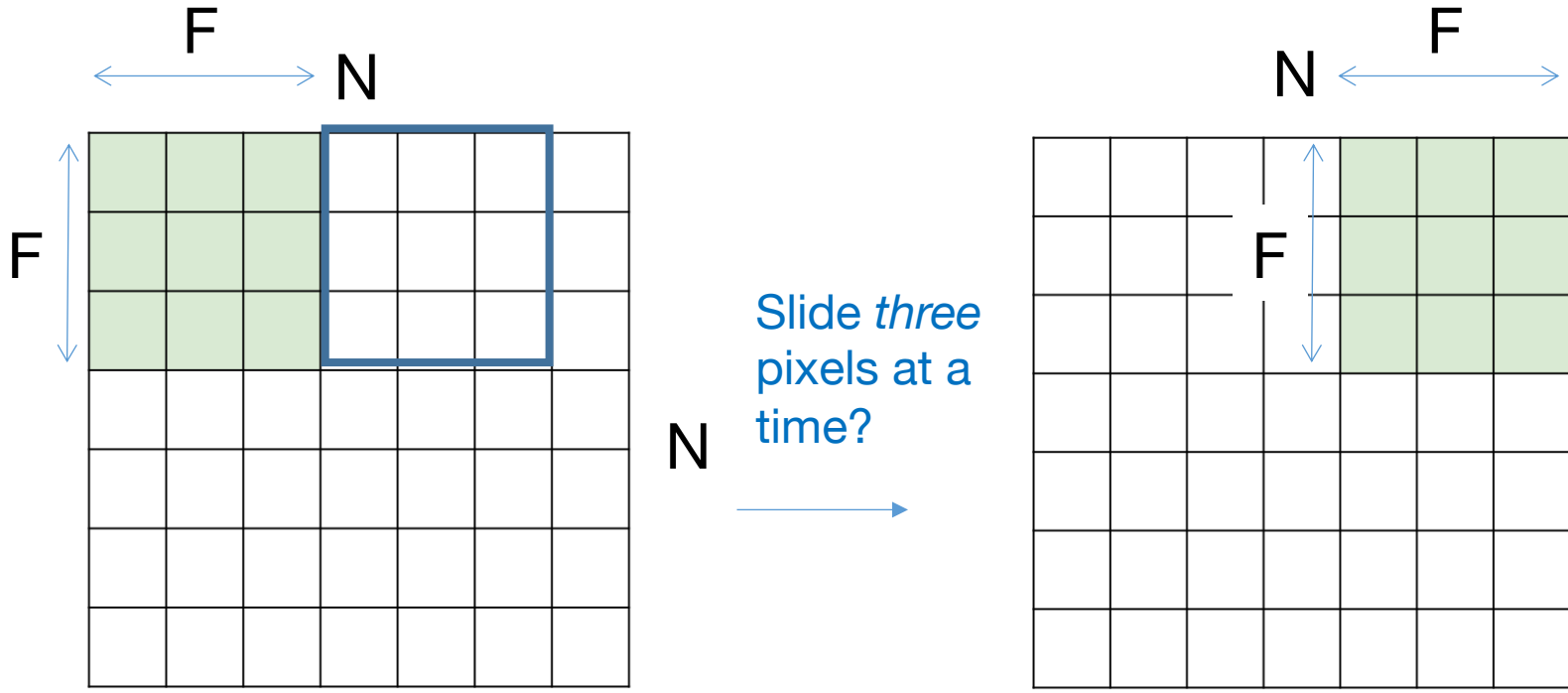


- 7x7 input image
- 3x3 filter

- 3x3 output!

This is called a “stride 2” convolution

Convolutions: size, stride and padding



This is called a “stride 3” convolution

Output matrix width W :

$$W = (N - F) / \text{stride} + 1$$

7 Example right: $N=7, F=3$

When stride = 1: $W = 5$

When stride = 2: $W = 3$

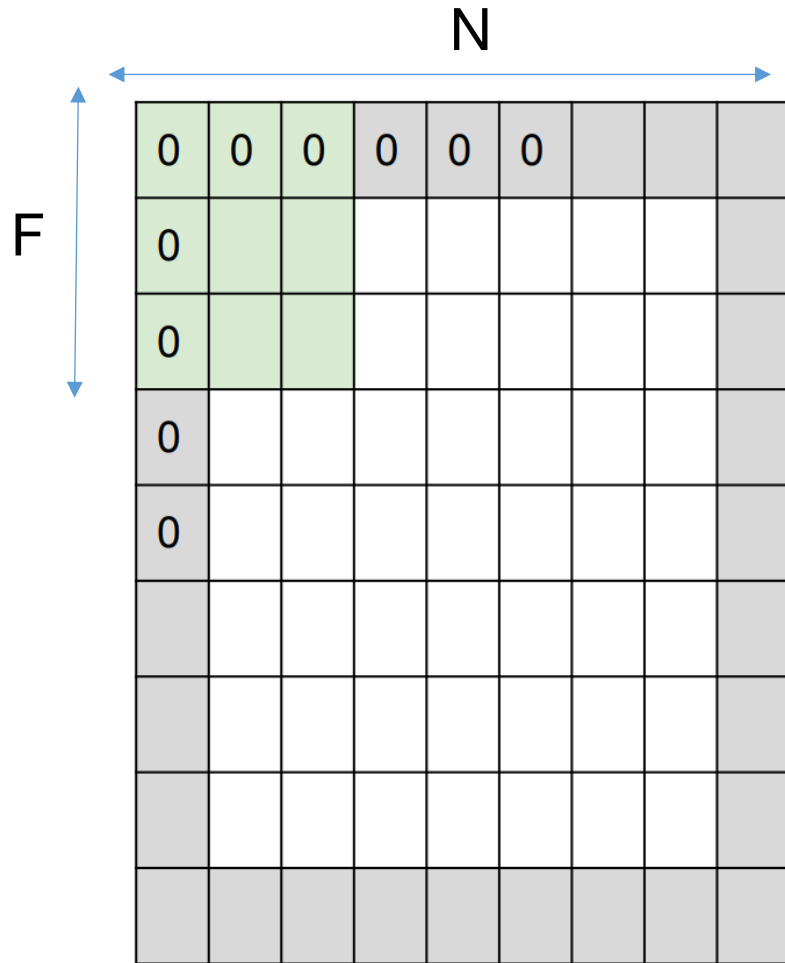
When stride = 3: $W = 2.33???$

*Need to ensure integers work out!

Convolutions: size, stride and padding

Q: What if you really, really want to use a stride = 3 with $N = 7$ and $F=3$?

Convolutions: size, stride and padding



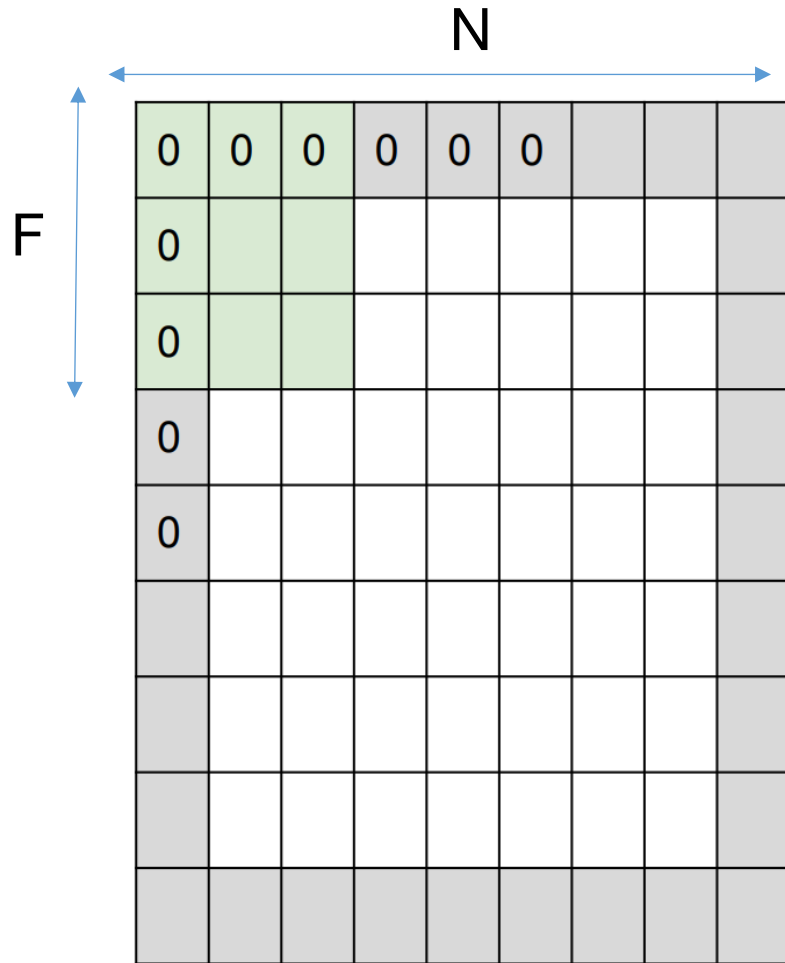
Q: What if you really, really want to use a stride = 3 with $N = 7$ and $F=3$?

A: Use *padding*

E.g., padding with 1 pixel around boarder makes $N=9$

Padding: add zeros around edge of image

Convolutions: size, stride and padding



Q: What if you really, really want to use a stride = 3 with N = 7 and F=3?

A: Use *padding*

E.g., padding with 1 pixel around boarder makes N=9

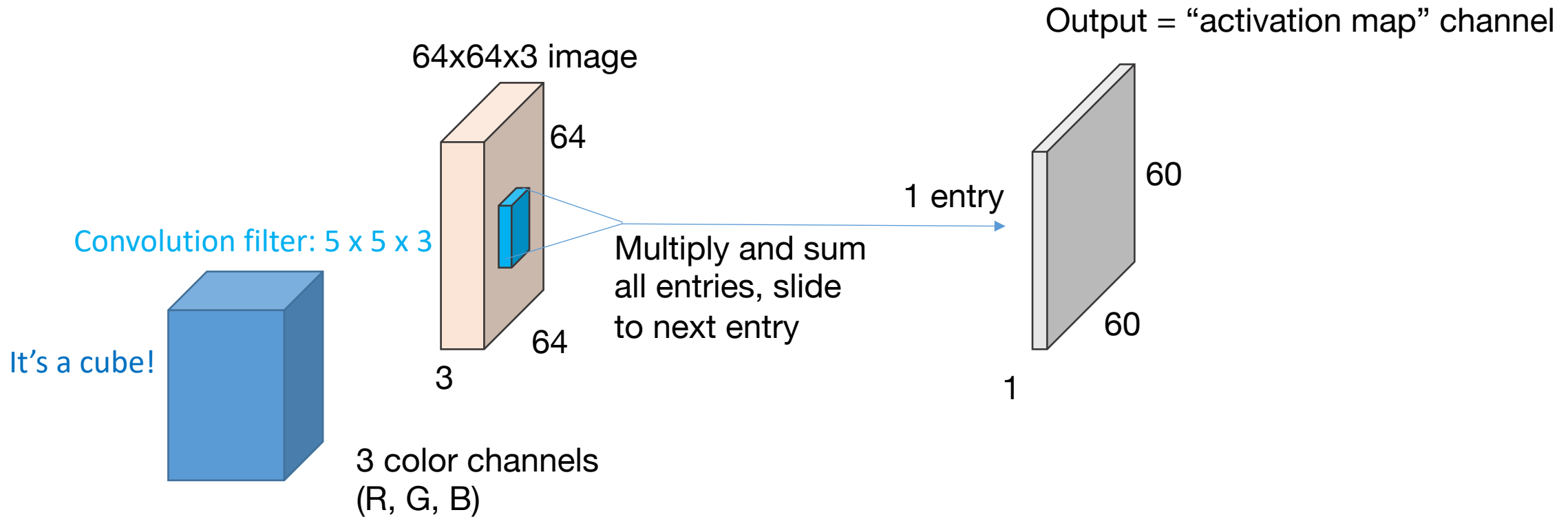
$$W = (N-F)/stride + 1$$

$$W = (9-3)/3 + 1 = 4$$

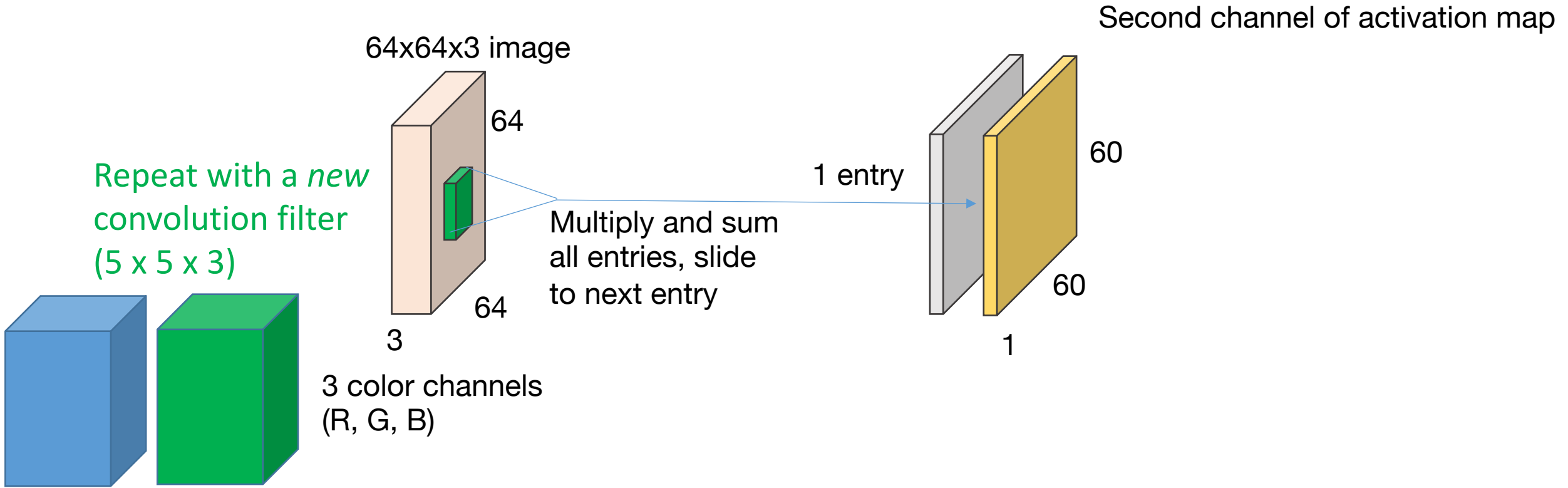
*Padding enables integer output!

Padding: add zeros around edge of image

Convolution layer: learn multiple filters

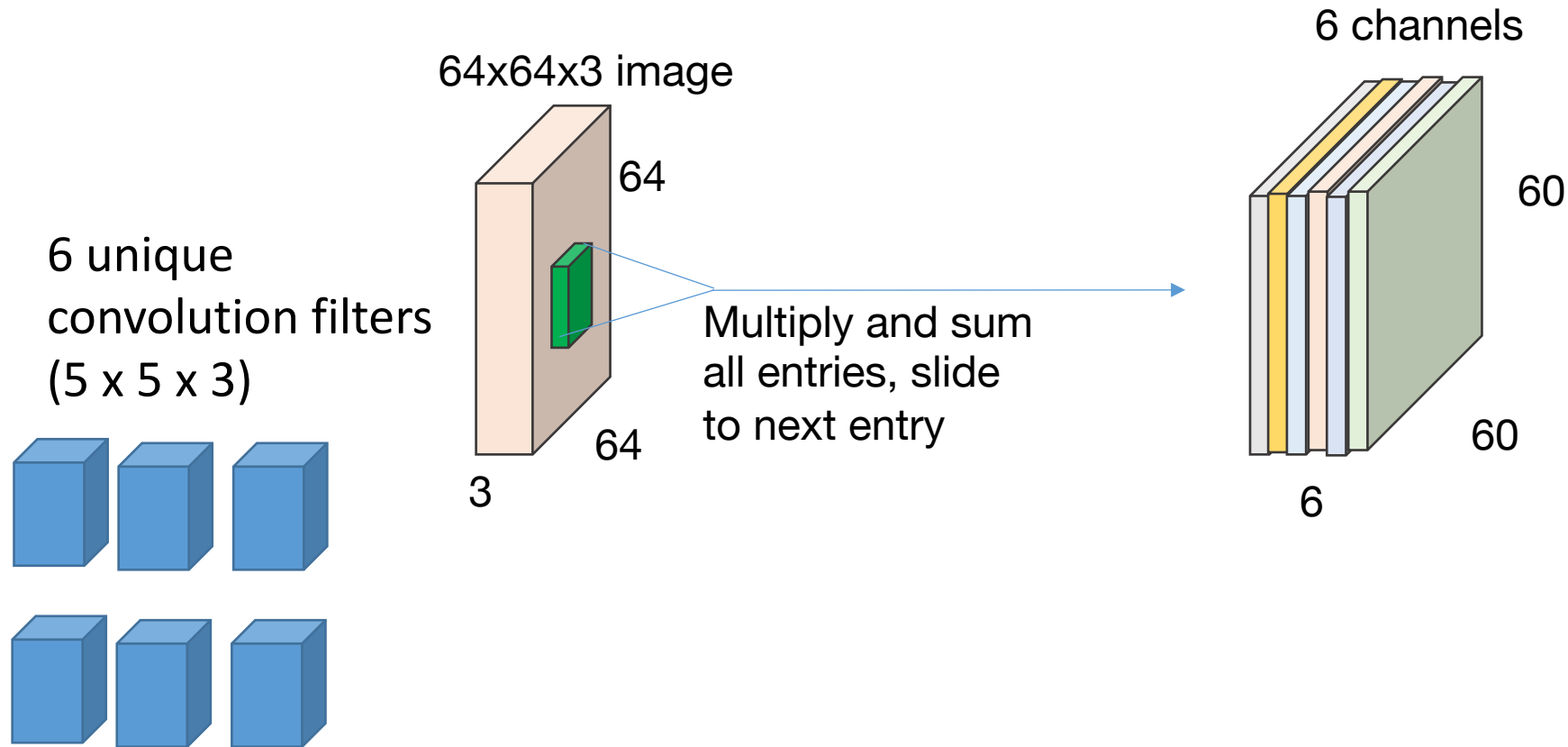


Convolution layer: learn multiple filters

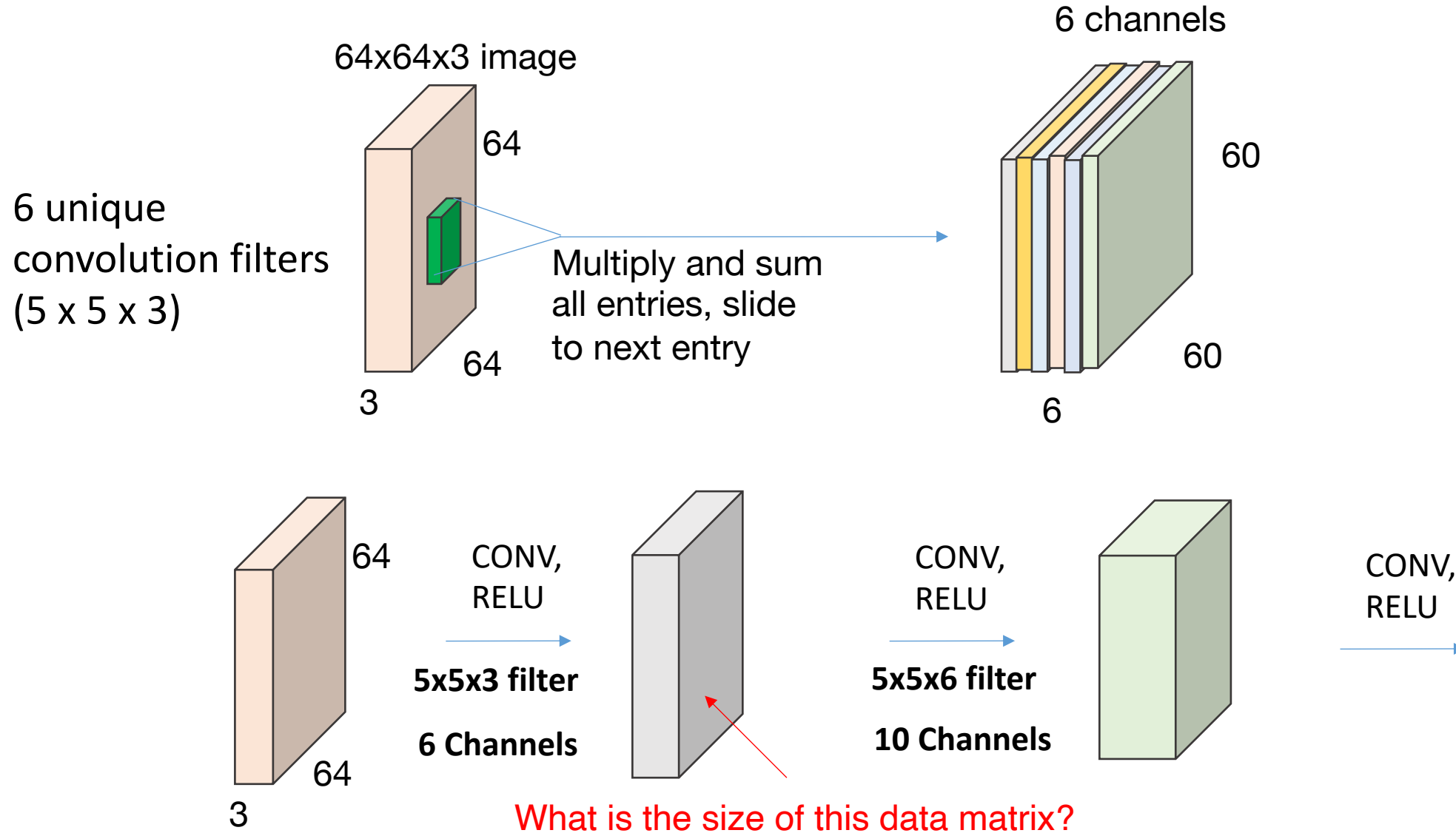


- Using more than one convolutional filter, with unknown weights that we will optimize for, creates more than one *channel*

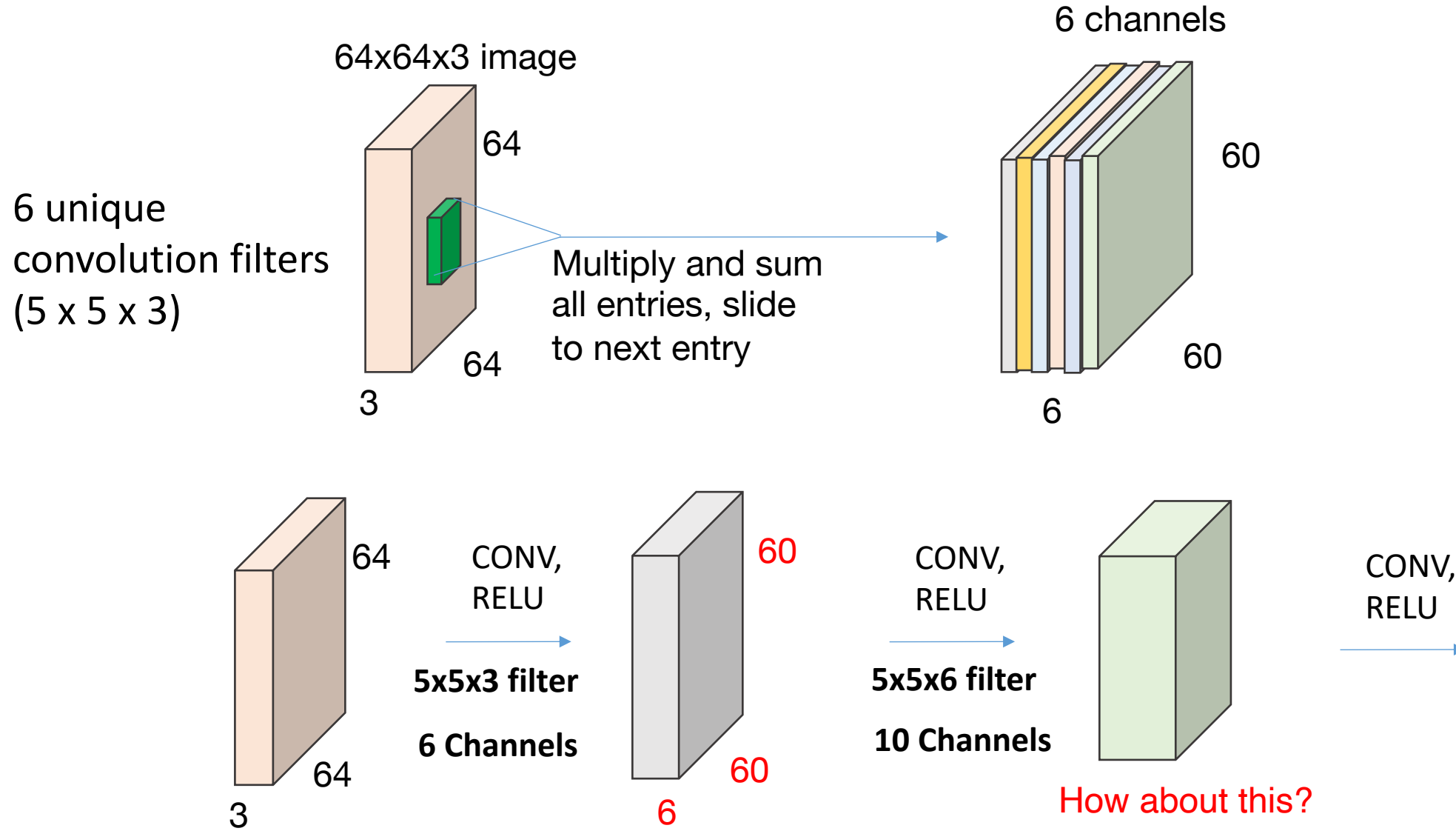
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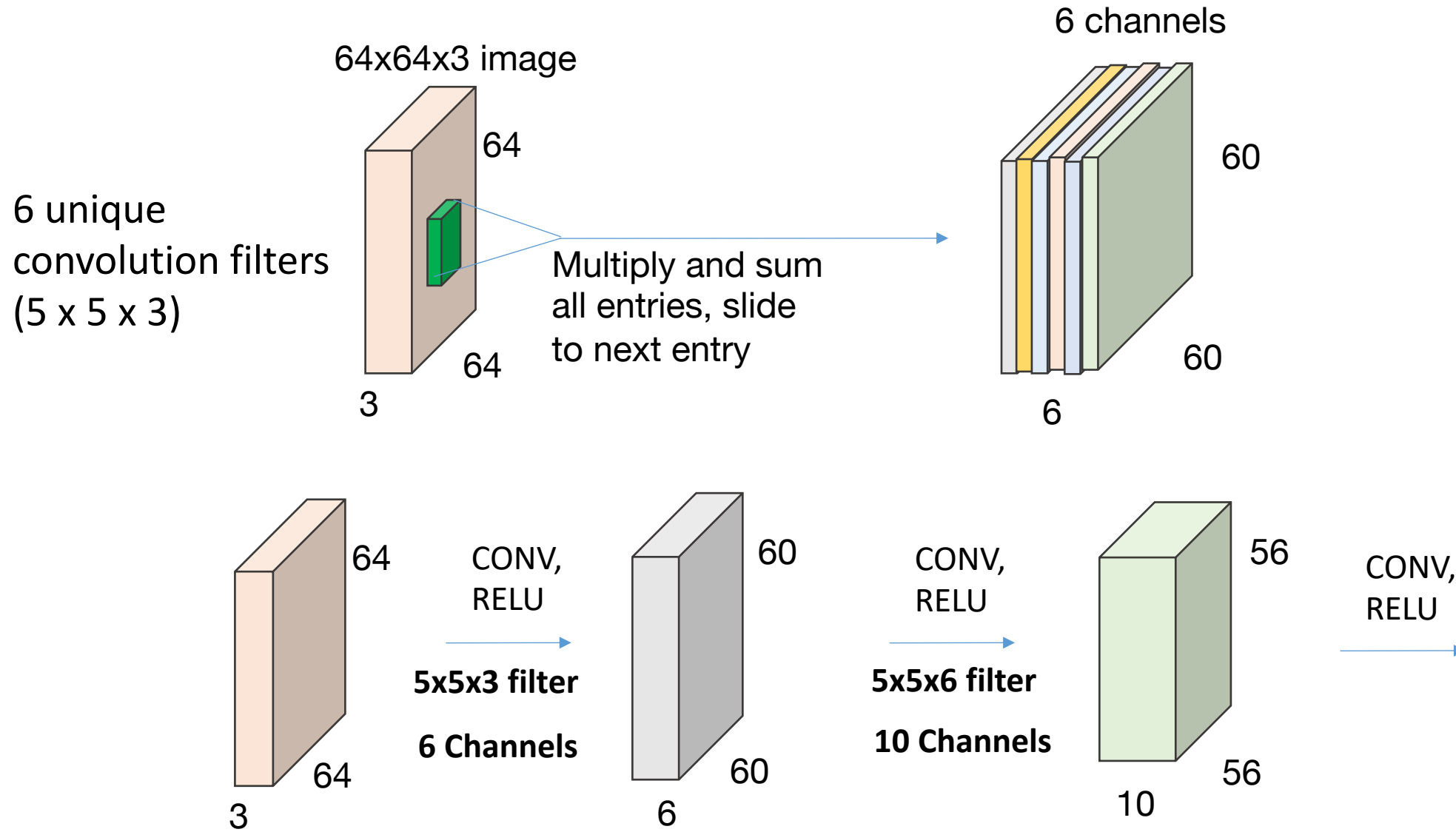
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Convolution layer: learn multiple filters

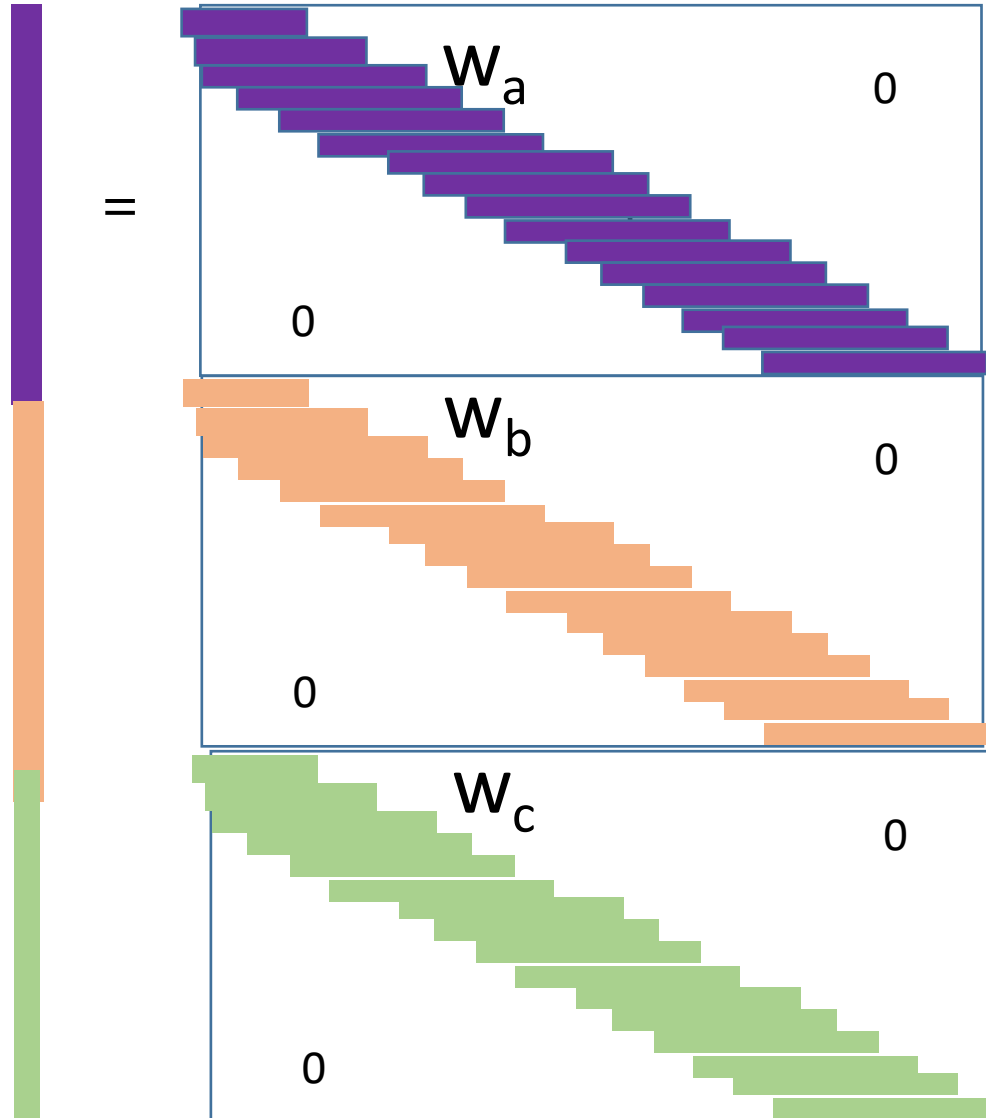


Summarize multiple filters with stacked matrices

$x_o =$ output image

Banded Toeplitz W

$x_i =$ input image

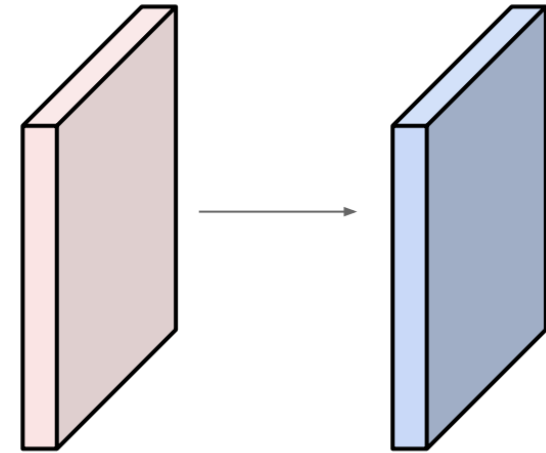


Convolution layer example mapping

Examples time:

Input volume: **32x32x3**
10 5x5x3 filters with stride 1, pad 2

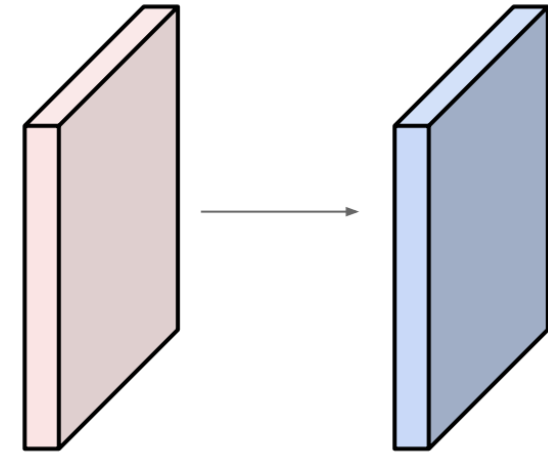
Output volume size: ?



Convolution layer example mapping

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Output volume size: ?

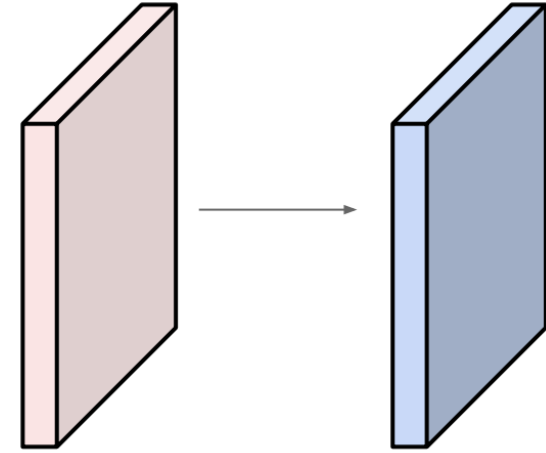
A: $(N-F)/\text{stride} + 1 = (32+4-5)/1 + 1 = 32 \times 32$ spatial extent

So, output is **32x32x10**

Convolution layer example mapping

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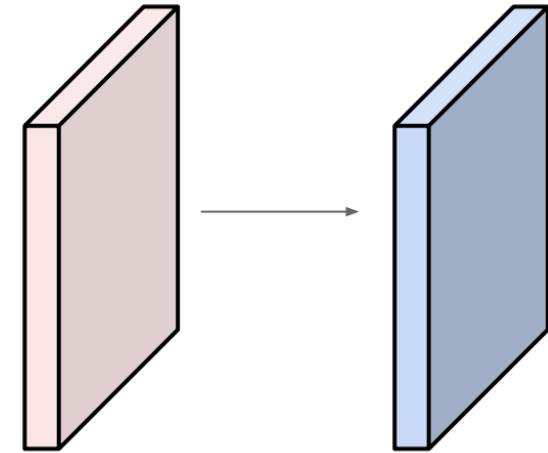


How many weights make up this transformation?

Convolution layer example mapping

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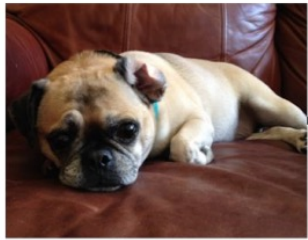
- A: Each convolution filter: 5x5x3
1 offset parameter **b** per filter (**untied** biases)
Mapping to 10 output layers = 10 filters
Total: $(5 \times 5 \times 3 + 1) \times 10 = \mathbf{760}$

What do these convolution filters look like after training?

Preview

[Zeiler and Fergus 2013]

Visualization of VGG-16 by Lane McIntosh. VGG-16 architecture from [Simonyan and Zisserman 2014].



Low-level features

Mid-level features

High-level features

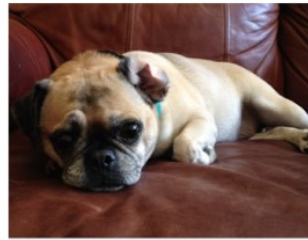
Linearly separable classifier

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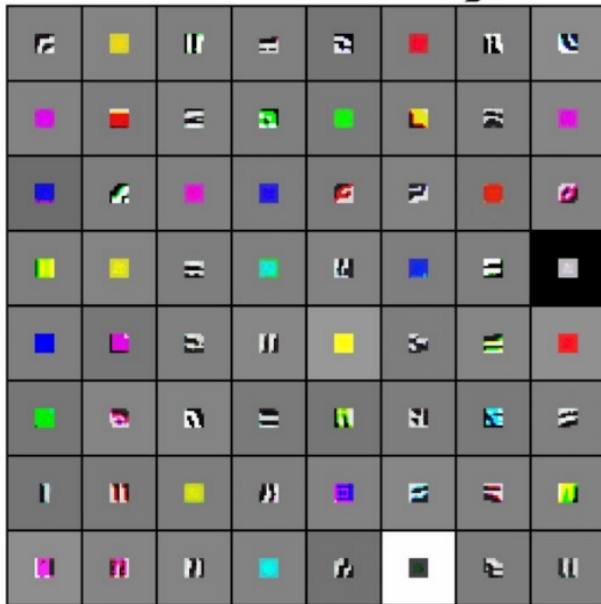


Low-level features

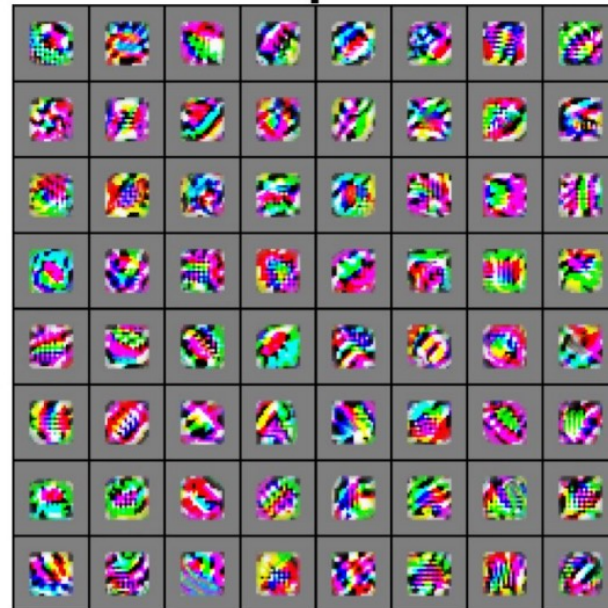
Mid-level features

High-level features

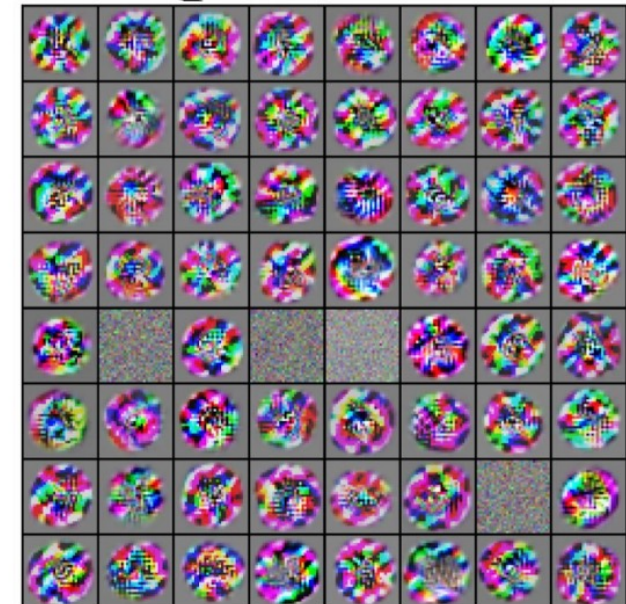
Linearly separable classifier



VGG-16 Conv1_1

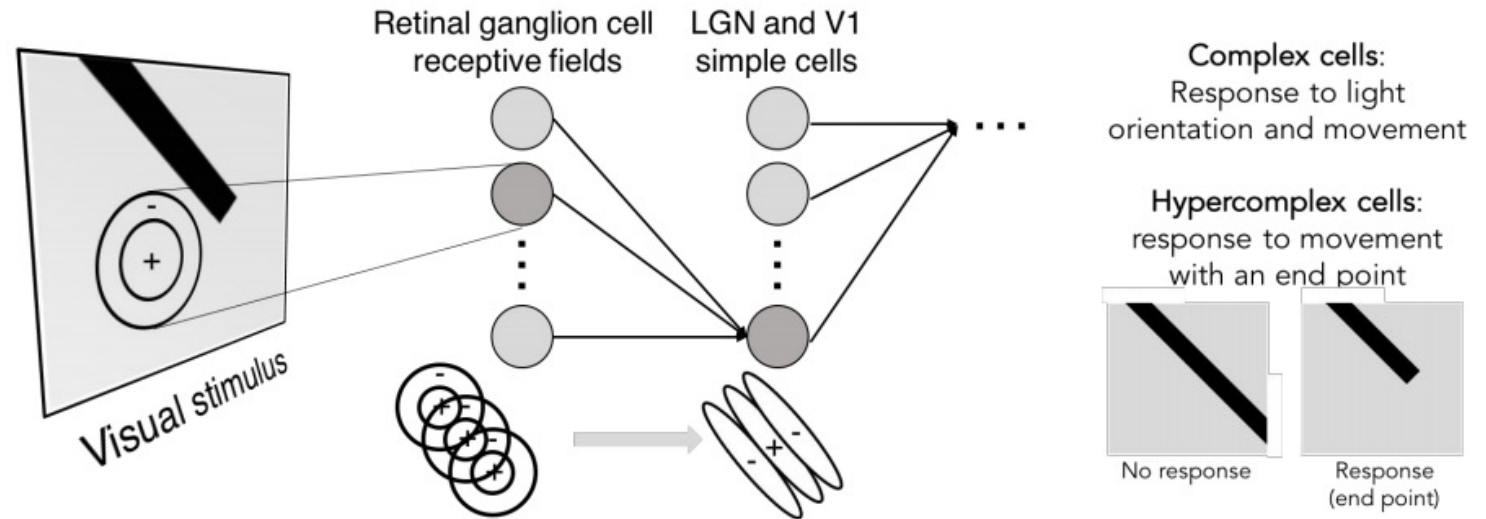
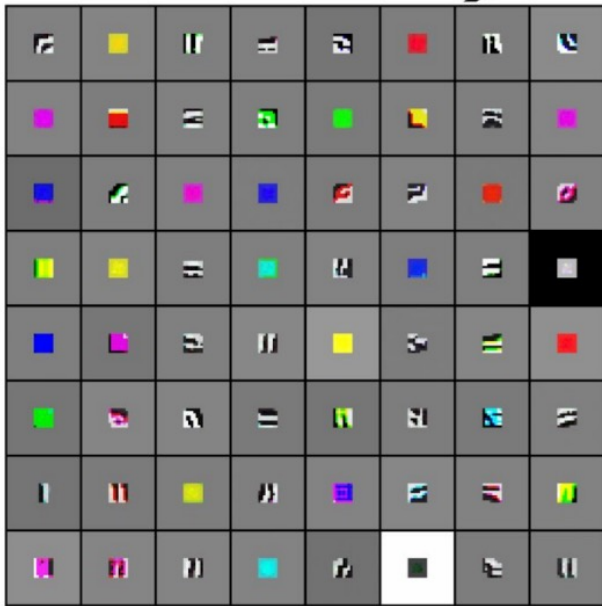


VGG-16 Conv3_2

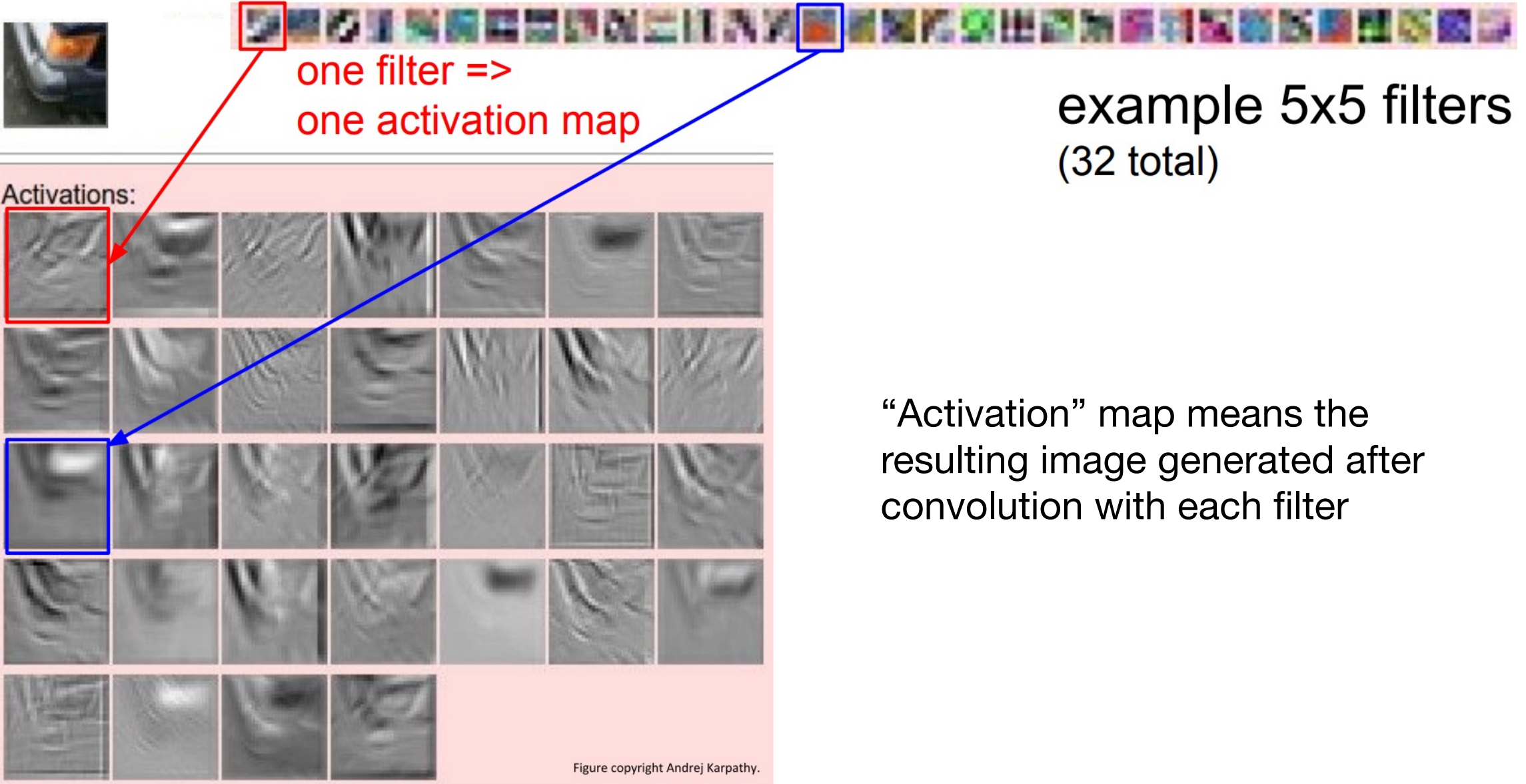


VGG-16 Conv5_3

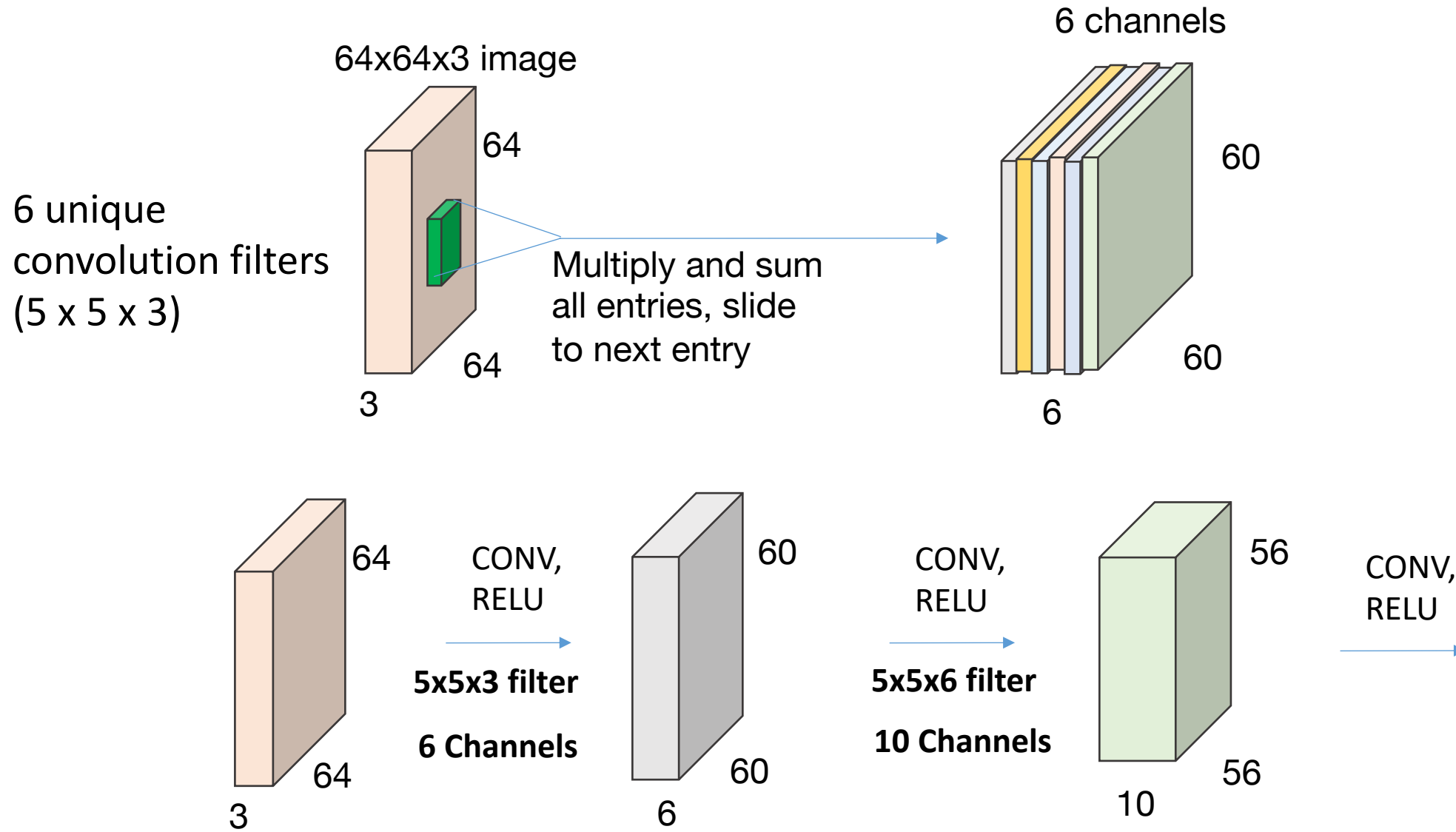
What do these convolution filters look like after training?



- "Wavy" or wavelet like features are common in first layer
- Match how neurons within our eye map image data to our brain in an effective manner



Convolution layer: learn multiple filters



Important components of a CNN

CNN Architecture

- CONV size, stride, pad, depth
- ReLU & other nonlinearities
- POOL methods
- # of layers, dimensions per layer
- Fully connected layers

Loss function & optimization

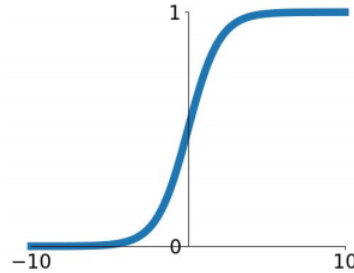
- Type of loss function
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Other specifics: Pre-processing, initialization, dropout, batch normalization, batch size

Non-linear “activation” functions

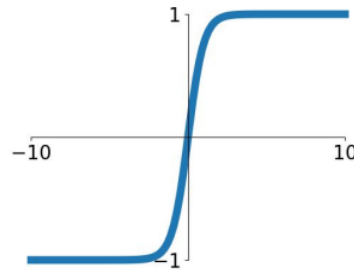
Sigmoid

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$



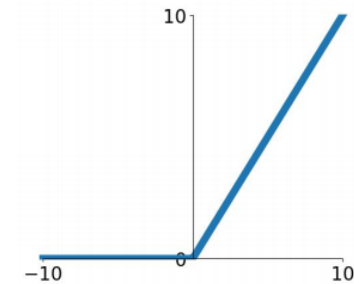
tanh

$$\tanh(x)$$



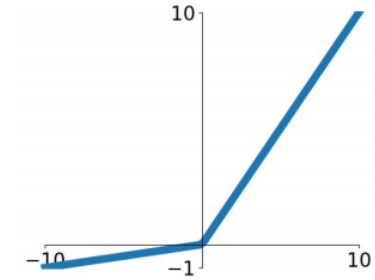
ReLU

$$\max(0, x)$$



Leaky ReLU

$$\max(0.1x, x)$$

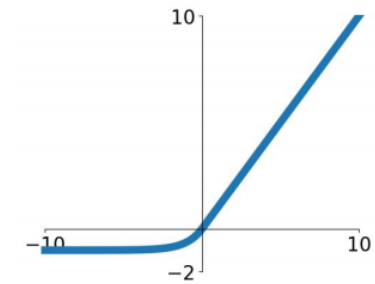


Maxout

$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

ELU

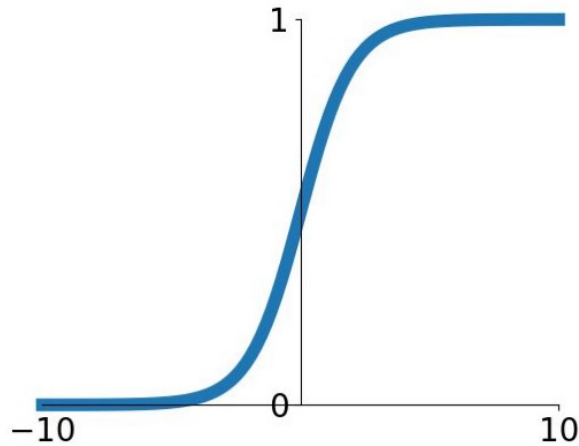
$$\begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



Non-linear “activation” functions

$$\sigma(x) = 1 / (1 + e^{-x})$$

- Squashes numbers to range [0,1]
- Historically popular since they have nice interpretation as a saturating “firing rate” of a neuron

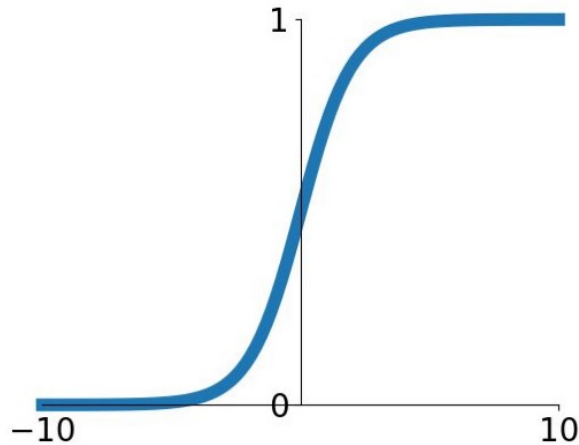


Sigmoid

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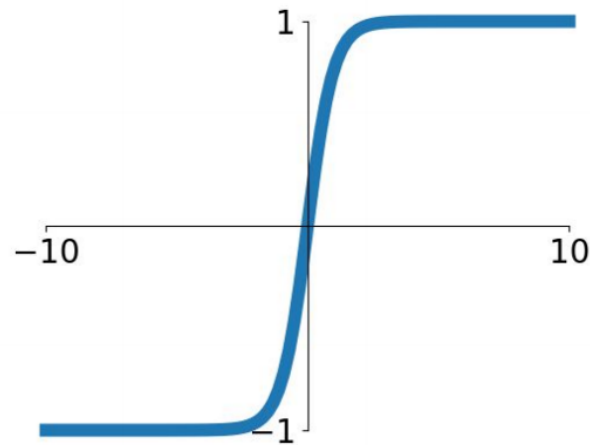


Sigmoid

3 problems:

1. Saturated neurons “kill” the gradients
2. Sigmoid outputs are not zero-centered
3. $\exp()$ is a bit compute expensive

Non-linear “activation” functions

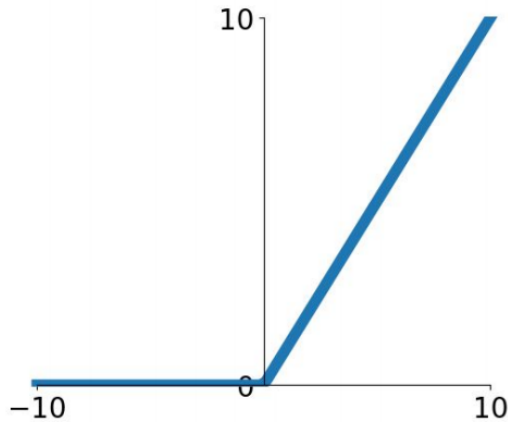


$\tanh(x)$

- Squashes numbers to range $[-1,1]$
- zero centered (nice)
- still kills gradients when saturated :(

Non-linear “activation” functions

Computes $f(x) = \max(0, x)$

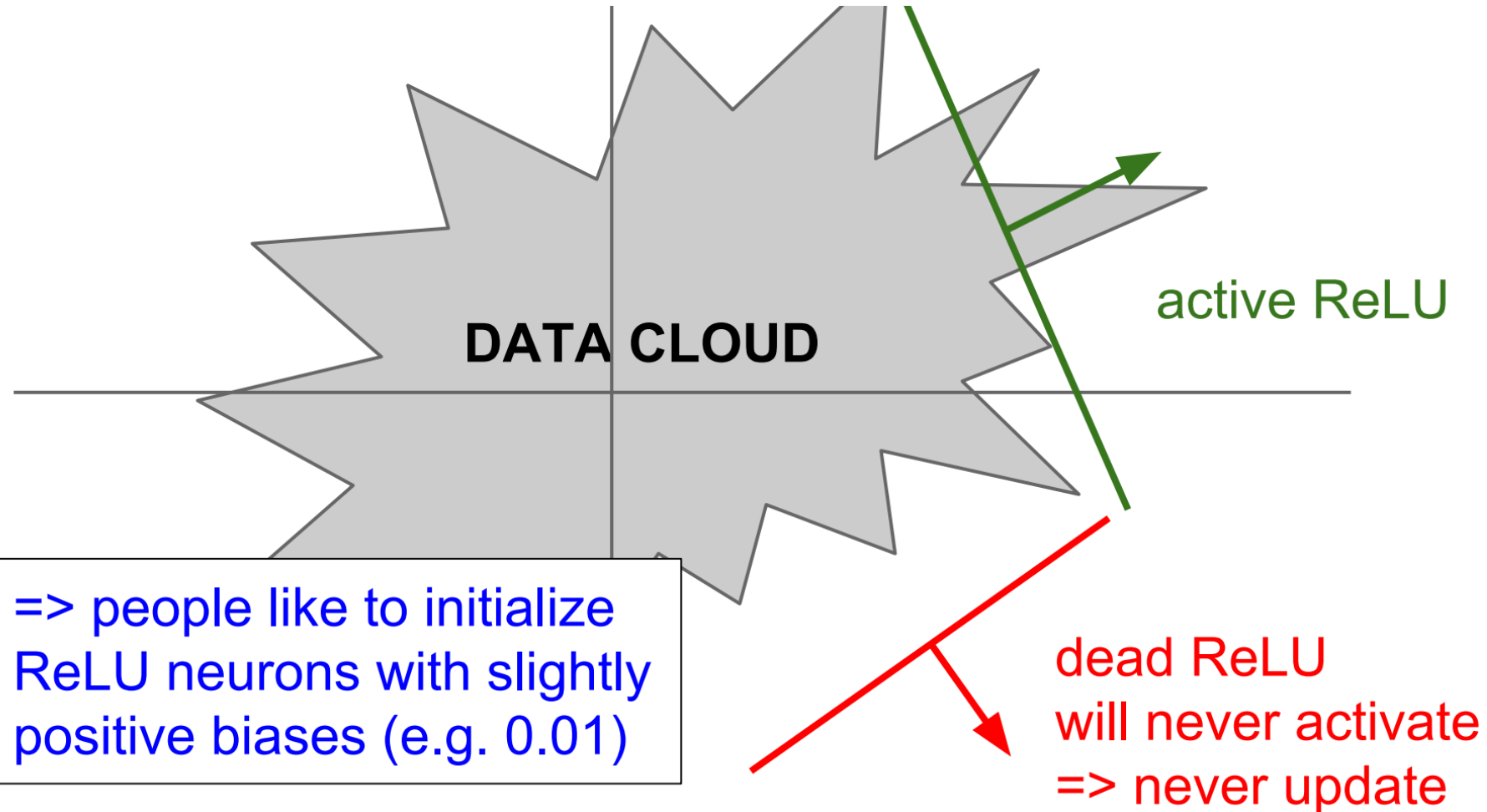


ReLU
(Rectified Linear Unit)

- Does not saturate (in +region)
- Very computationally efficient
- Converges much faster than sigmoid/tanh in practice (e.g. 6x)
- Actually more biologically plausible than sigmoid
- Not zero-centered output
- An annoyance:

hint: what is the gradient when $x < 0$?

Non-linear “activation” functions



From Stanford CS231

Important components of a CNN

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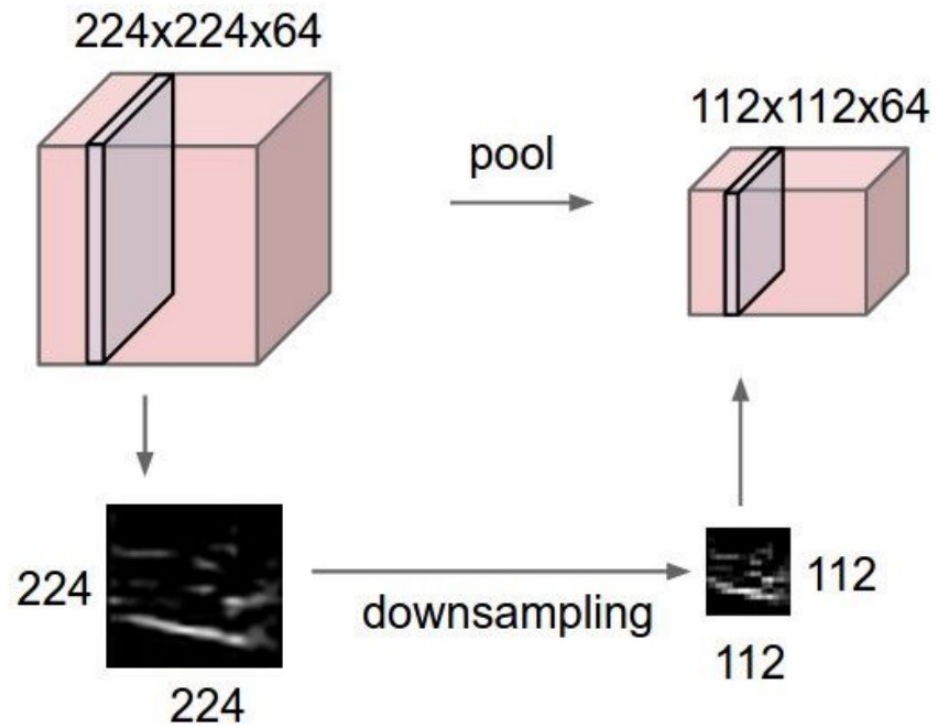
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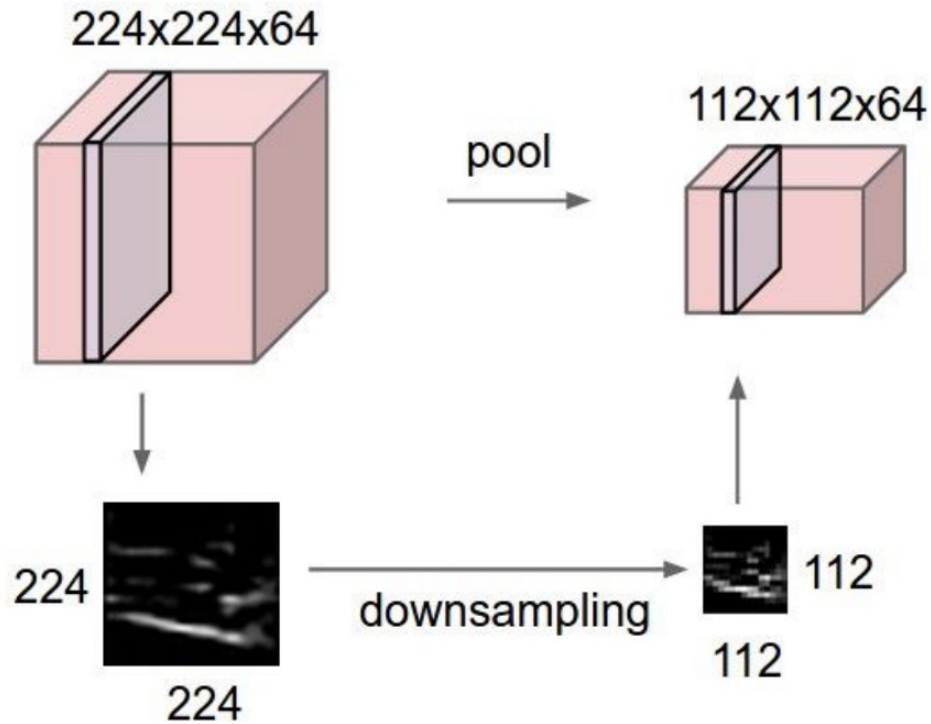
- Type of loss function
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Other specifics: Pre-processing, initialization, dropout, batch normalization, augmentation

Pooling operation – reduce the size of data cubes along space

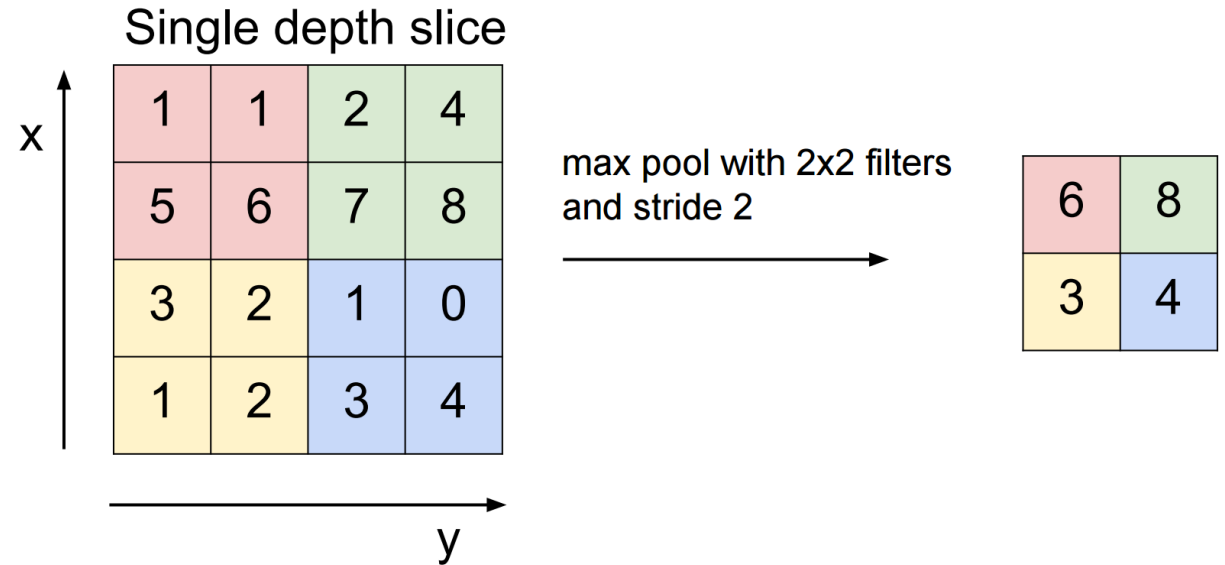


Pooling operation – reduce the size of data cubes along space



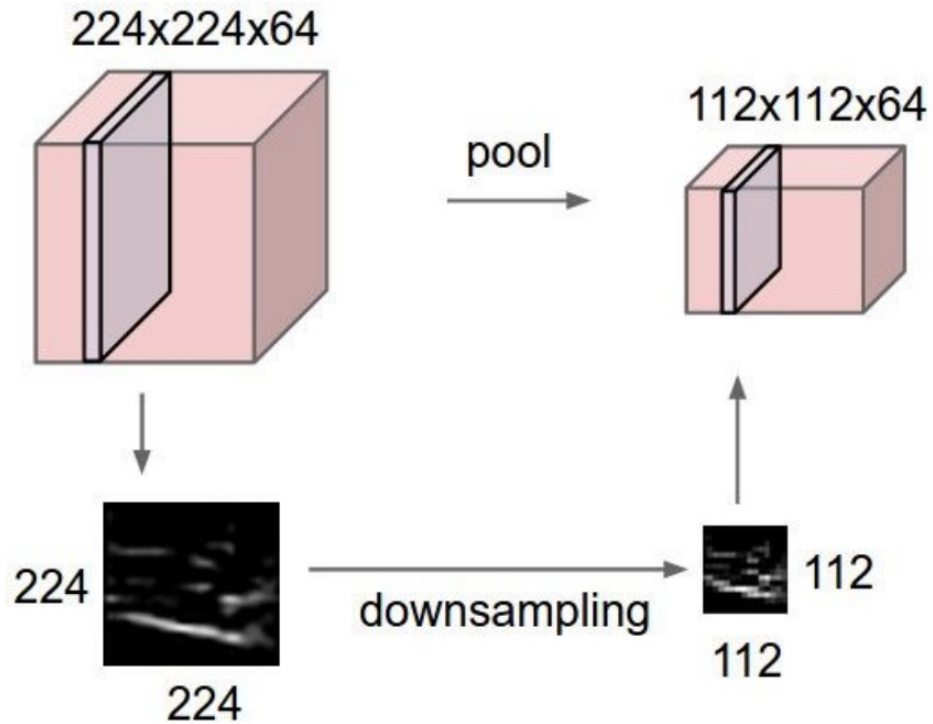
Common option #1:

MAX POOLING



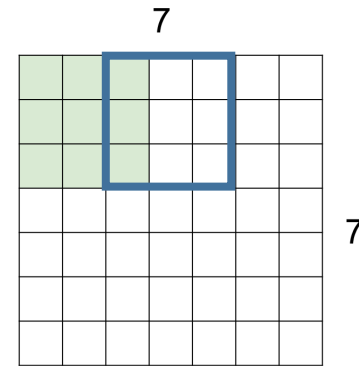
Related options: Sum pooling, mean pooling

Pooling operation – reduce the size of data cubes along space

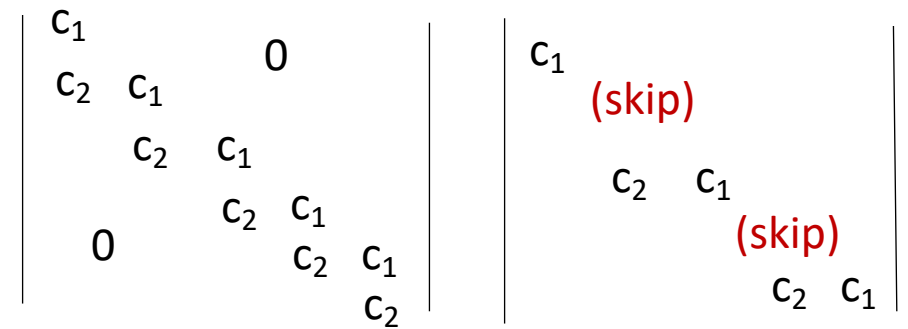


Common option #2: just use bigger strides

STRIDE = 2



7x7 input -> 3x3 output



Important components of a CNN

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Let's
view
some
code!

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Common loss functions used for CNN optimization

- Cross-entropy loss function
 - Softmax cross-entropy – use with single-entry labels
 - Weighted cross-entropy – use to bias towards true pos./false neg.
 - Sigmoid cross-entropy
 - KL Divergence
- Pseudo-Huber loss function
- L1 loss loss function
- MSE (Euclidean error, L2 loss function)
- Mixtures of the above functions

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Regularization – the basics

λ = regularization strength
(hyperparameter)

$$L(W) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(f(x_i, W), y_i)}_{\text{Data loss}} + \underbrace{\lambda R(W)}_{\text{Regularization}}$$

Data loss: Model predictions should match training data

Regularization: Prevent the model from doing *too well* on training data

Simple examples

L2 regularization: $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l W_{k,l}^2$

L1 regularization: $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l |W_{k,l}|$

Elastic net (L1 + L2): $R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l \beta W_{k,l}^2 + |W_{k,l}|$

Regularization prefers less complex models & help avoids overfitting

$$x = [1, 1, 1, 1]$$

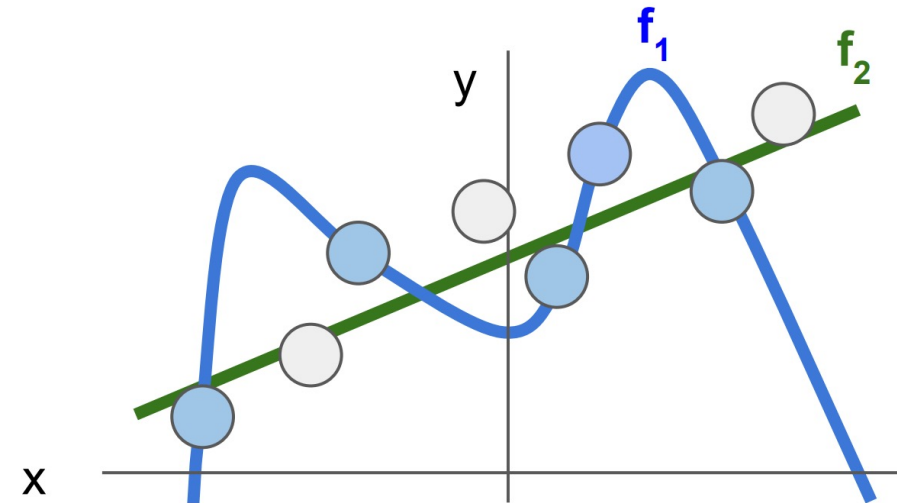
$$w_1 = [1, 0, 0, 0]$$

$$w_2 = [0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25]$$

$$w_1^T x = w_2^T x = 1$$

L2 Regularization

$$R(W) = \sum_k \sum_l W_{k,l}^2$$



Regularization pushes against fitting the data too well so we don't fit noise in the data

A two-layer neural network with regularization:

$$L(w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \ln(1 + e^{-y_i W_2 \max(W_1 x_i, 0)}) + \lambda(\|W_1\|_2 + \|W_2\|_2)$$

Q: How do we determine the best weights W_1 and W_2 to use from this model?

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A: Gradient descent!

Q: How does Tensorflow figure out the gradients for dL/dW_1 and dL/dW_2 ?

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Q: How does Tensorflow figure out the gradients for dL/dW_1 and dL/dW_2 ?

A: Chain rule! (next lecture or two)

A variety of gradient descent solvers available in Tensorflow

- Stochastic Gradient Descent (bread-and-butter, when in doubt...)
- Adam Optimizer (update learning rates with mean and variance)
- Nesterov / Momentum (add a velocity term)
- AdaGrad (Adaptive Subgradients, change learning rates)
- Proximal AdaGrad (Proximal = solve second problem to stay close)
- Ftrl Proximal (Follow-the-regularized-leader)
- AdaDelta (Adaptive learning rate)

Implementation detail #1 – method for gradient descent

```
# Vanilla Gradient Descent

while True:
    weights_grad = evaluate_gradient(loss_fun, data, weights)
    weights += - step_size * weights_grad # perform parameter update
```

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

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

$$\nabla_W L(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla_W L_i(x_i, y_i, W) + \lambda \nabla_W R(W)$$

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Full sum expensive
when N is large!

Approximate sum
using a **minibatch** of
examples
32 / 64 / 128 common

Implementation detail #1 – method for gradient descent

```
# Vanilla Minibatch Gradient Descent
```

```
while True:
```

```
    data_batch = sample_training_data(data, 256) # sample 256 examples
```

```
    weights_grad = evaluate_gradient(loss_fun, data_batch, weights)
```

```
    weights += - step_size * weights_grad # perform parameter update
```

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Question: Why does gradient descent still work with mini-batches?

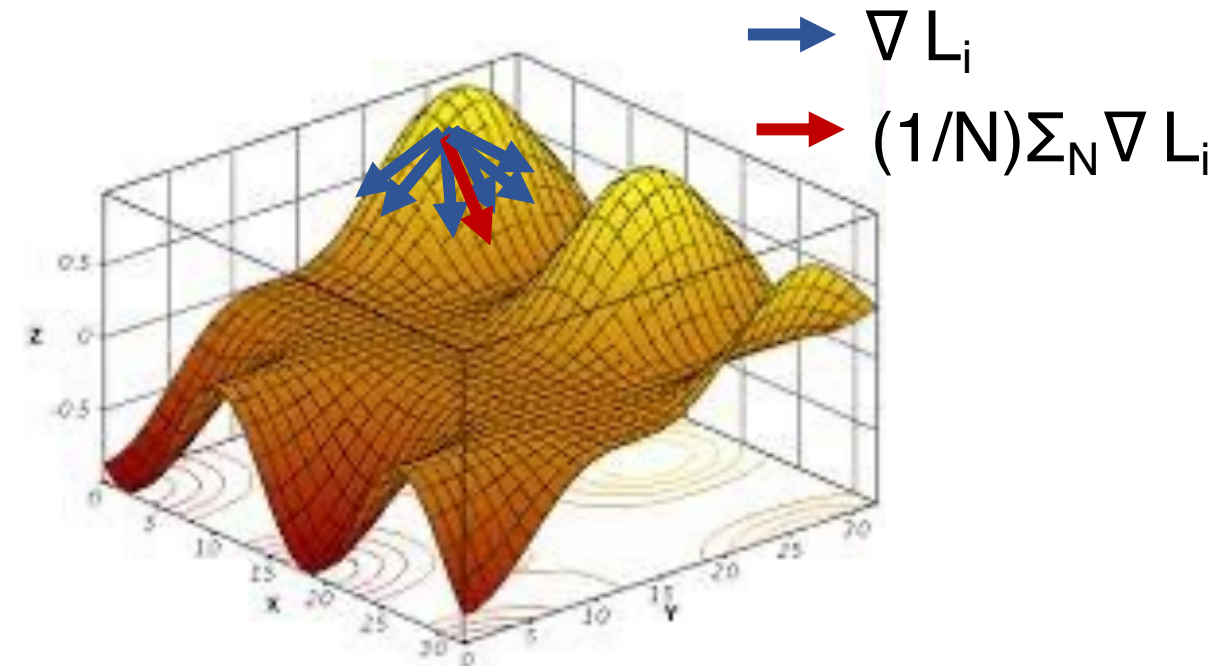
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Answer: With stochastic gradient descent, random sub-set averaging of gradients still allows one to find their way down the hill to global minimum, at least with convex and quasi-convex functions [1].

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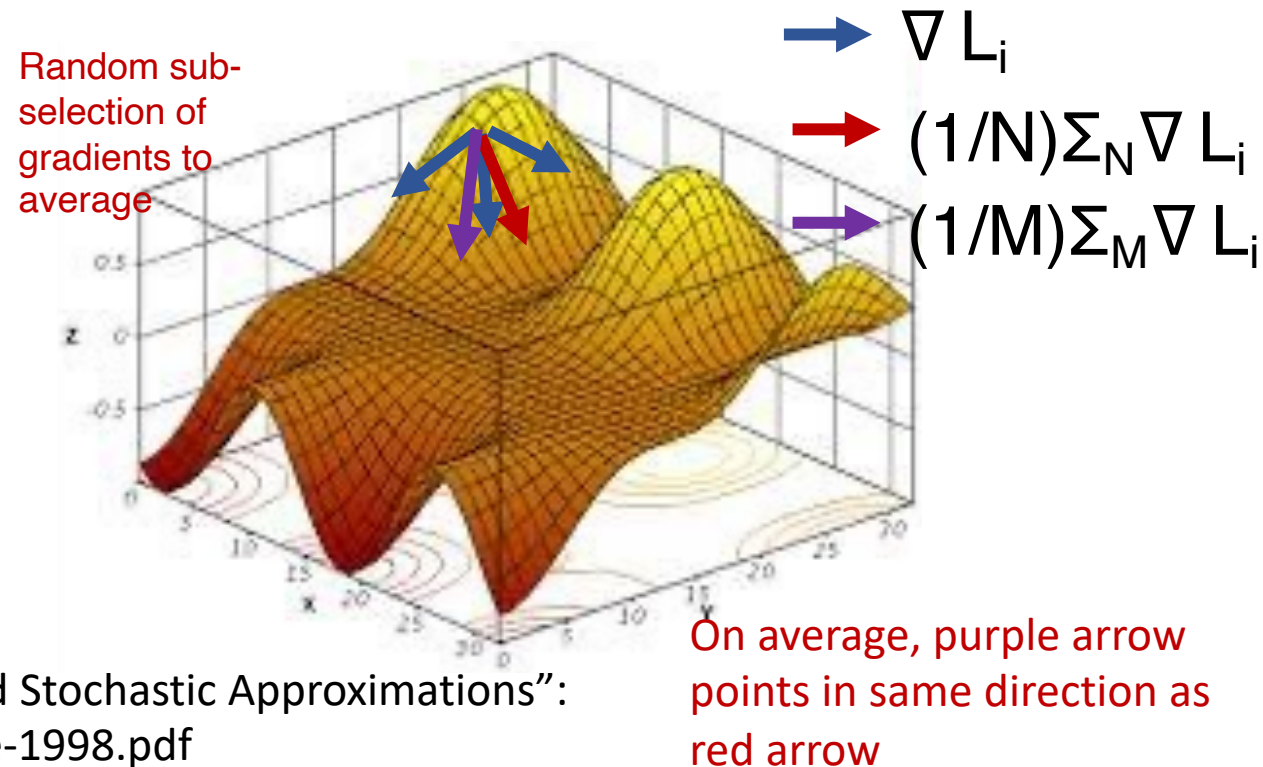
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$$L(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(x_i, y_i, W) + \lambda R(W)$$

$$\nabla_W L(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla_W L_i(x_i, y_i, W) + \lambda \nabla_W R(W)$$

[1] Bottou, Léon (1998). "Online Algorithms and Stochastic Approximations": <https://leon.bottou.org/publications/pdf/online-1998.pdf>



A variety of gradient descent solvers available in Tensorflow

- Stochastic Gradient Descent (bread-and-butter, when in doubt...)
- Adam Optimizer (update learning rates with mean and variance)
- Nesterov / Momentum (add a velocity term)
- AdaGrad (Adaptive Subgradients, change learning rates)
- Proximal AdaGrad (Proximal = solve second problem to stay close)
- Ftrl Proximal (Follow-the-regularized-leader)
- AdaDelta (Adaptive learning rate)

Next lecture: how Tensorflow actually solves gradient descent for you

Computational Graphs and the Chain Rule!

