

Machine Learning

- winter term 2016/17 -

Chapter 09: Deep Learning

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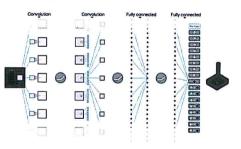
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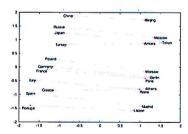
Deep Learning Applications images from [14] [16] [1] [13] [18]













In this Chapter

- Why deep learning is hard
- ► Tricks to make it work
- ► Convolutional neural networks
- State-of-the-art in Neural Networks

Outline



- 1. Why Deep Learning is Hard
- 2. Tricks to make Deep Learning Work
- 3. Convolutional Neural Networks
- 4. Deep Learning: Sample Models

Deep Learning: Characterization

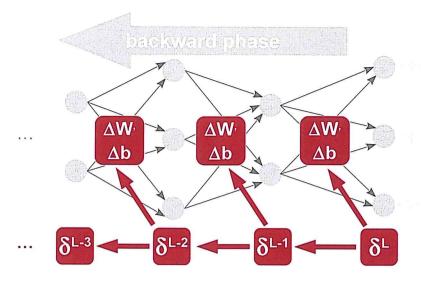


Deep Learners are models which ...

- ... consist of "many" layers of nonlinear units (=neurons) (many = at least 3?)
- ... are in contrast to "shallow" learners (e.g., logistic regression, $SVMs \rightarrow 1$ layer)
- ... learn representations of data whose abstraction increases through the layers
- ... use these representations instead of *hand-crafted features*
- ... often learn these representations in an *unsupervised* manner on large-scale datasets

Backpropagation (Reprise)





Backprop Formulas

$$oldsymbol{\delta^L} = \left(\mathbf{a}^L - \mathbf{t}
ight) \odot f'(\mathbf{z}^L) \ oldsymbol{\delta^l} = \left(W^{l+1} \cdot oldsymbol{\delta^{l+1}}
ight) \odot f'(\mathbf{z}')$$

$$\Delta w_{ij}^l = -\lambda \cdot \delta_j^l \cdot a_i^{l-1}$$

$$\Delta b_j^l = -\lambda \cdot \delta_j^l$$

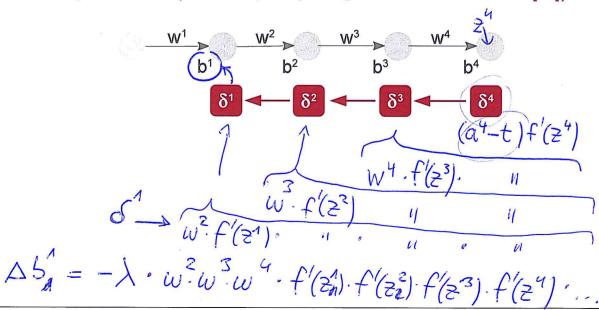
Key Problem: Unstable Gradients



"As we move from the output layer to earlier layers the gradient tends to either vanish (the vanishing gradient problem) or explode (the exploding gradient problem). Since the gradient is the signal we use to train, this causes problems."

(Nielsen, "Neural Networks and Deep Learning")

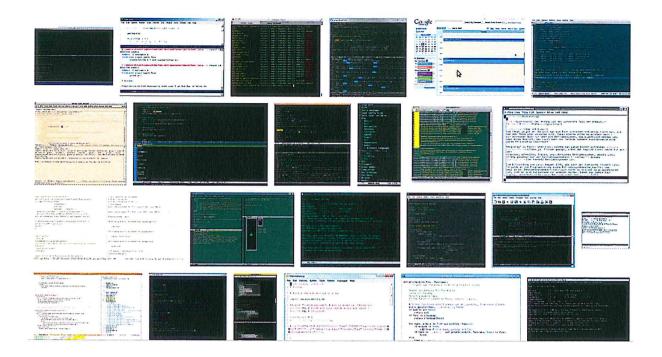
Dummy Network (1 neuron per layer, sigmoid activation f, see [15])



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Unstable Gradients: Example

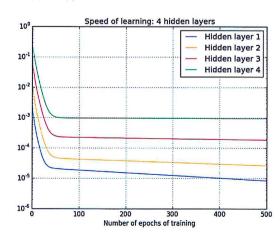




Vanishing Gradients: Example image from [15]



- ▶ a neural network trained on MNIST data (30 neurons per hidden layer, 4 hidden layers, fully connected)
- ▶ The delta-values in the different layers, $\delta^1, \delta^2, ..., \delta^L$, indicate how strong the weights change during learning.
- We measure this "speed" of learning in the different layers by $||\delta^1||, ||\delta^2||, ..., ||\delta^L||$.



► Note that the scale is logarithmic (Layer 1 learns 100× slower than Layer 4)

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Deep Learning: What to do?



Improving Optimization (= avoid unstable gradients)

- ▶ different loss function (→ cross-entropy)
- ▶ different activation function (→ RELU)
- ▶ variations to backpropagation (→ momentum, Chapter 08)
- advanced techniques

Improving Generalization (= avoid overfitting)

- ▶ regularization + dropout
- network topology (CNNs)
- more processing power (GPUs)
- larger training sets
 - ▶ Pascal VOC Challenge (2005-2012): 11K training images
 - ▶ ILSVRC (2012-...): 1,3 mio. training images

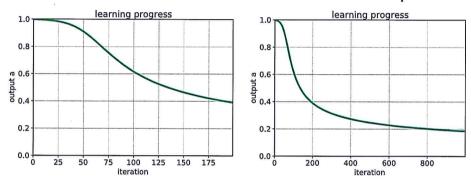
Trick 1: Cross-Entropy Cost



Example: a poorly initialized neuron (see [15])

input:
$$w=3$$
 output: target: $a=0,99$ $t=0,00$

- ▶ Our old cost function (squared error): $E = \frac{1}{2}(a-t)^2$...
- ▶ ... leads to weight updates of $\frac{\partial E}{\partial w} = (a t) \cdot f'(z)$
- ightharpoonup ... and f'(z) is very small!
- ▶ We plot the learning progress over the iterations: How fast does the neuron move towards the desired output 0?



Trick 1: Cross-Entropy Cost



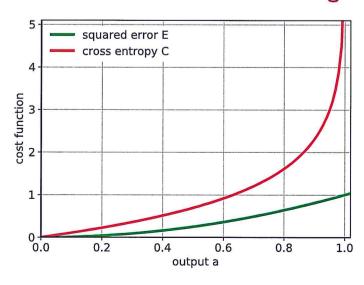
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- ▶ Idea: Our cost must compensate for small values of f'
- ▶ Use the **Cross Entropy** as cost (see Chapter 02)

$$C(\mathbf{a}^L) = -\sum_k t_k \cdot log(a_k^L) + (1 - t_k) \cdot log(1 - a_k^L)$$

$$= -log(1 - a) \quad // \text{ in our case}$$

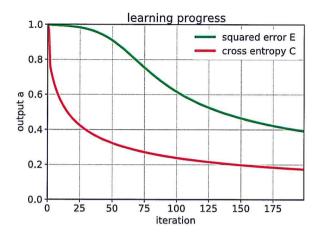
C penalizes our 'far off' neuron much stronger!

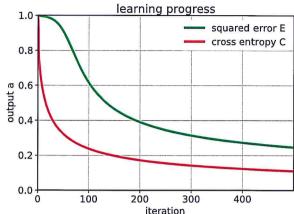


Trick 1: Cross-Entropy Cost



With cross-entropy, our neuron learns much faster!



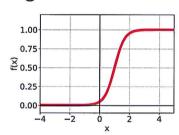


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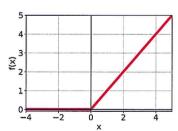
Trick 2: Rectified Linear Units (RELUs)



sigmoid activation



RELU activation



Backpropagation works with RELUs just like with sigmoids - just with a different f' term.

Sigmoid

learning slows down for small and large inputs

Rectified Linear Unit

- ▶ learning is fast for positive inputs
- ▶ the neuron stops learning entirely for negative inputs
- ▶ (much) more efficient computation

Trick 2: Rectified Linear Units (RELUs)



Practical Advice

- ► The input of RELU neurons should tend to be larger than zero
 → initialize with a slightly higher bias!
- Let $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ be the outputs of a RELU layer. If we want them to be **scaled to** [0,1] (say, in classification), we simply rescale the RELU unit's output using a so-called *softmax*

$$(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) \mapsto (\frac{e^{a_1}}{\sum_i e^{a_i}}, \frac{e^{a_2}}{\sum_i e^{a_i}}, ..., \frac{e^{a_n}}{\sum_i e^{a_i}})$$

Example

$$1, \quad 3, \quad 1, \quad 7 \mapsto 2\%, \ 11\%, \ 2\%, \ 85\%$$

 $-3, \quad 0, \ 0.5, \ -15 \mapsto 2\%, \ 37\%, \ 61\%, \ 0\%$

Remarks

- ▶ RELU activations have been vital to image recognition [10, 11]
- "We do not yet have a solid theory of how activation functions should be chosen." [15]

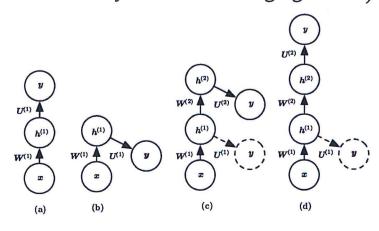
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Advanced Techniques image from [5]



More Complicated Ways to Facilitate Deep Learning

- pretraining: start training with a simple network, then add incremental layers [5]
- ► **linear (sub-)paths** through the network (prevent the gradient from dying off)
- skip connections bypassing several layers
- ▶ adding extra **copies of the output** to early layers [19] (makes the lowest layers receive a large gradient)



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Convolution for Images



We view images as **discrete 2D signals** $s : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \{1, ..., M\}$. **Filters** transform images s into other images s'. We focus on a particular kind of filter: **FIR** (**finite-impulse-response**) **filters**:

Definition (FIR Filter for Images)

Let s be a (2D) signal (i.e., an image), $M \in \mathbb{N}$, and

$$\begin{pmatrix} w_{-M,-M} & \dots & w_{-M,0} & \dots & w_{-M,M} \\ \dots & & & & & \\ w_{0,-M} & \dots & w_{0,0} & \dots & w_{0,M} \\ \dots & & & & & \\ w_{M,-M} & \dots & w_{M,0} & \dots & w_{M,M} \end{pmatrix}$$

be a filter mask. Then, an finite impulse response filter computes:

$$s'(x,y) = \sum_{u=-M}^{M} \sum_{v=-M}^{M} s(x-u, y-v) \cdot w_{u,v}$$

Convolution for Images



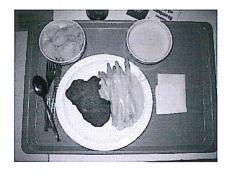
- ▶ We place the mask at every position of the image
- ► We compute the **weighted sum** of the pixel intensities, weighted by the mask's values

(x,y)				
f()	f()	f()	f()	f()
	w(1,1)	w(0,1)	w(-1,1)	
f()	f(x-1,y-1)	f(x,y-1)	f(x+1,y-1)	f()
	w(1,0)	w(0,0)	w(-1,0)	
f()	f(x-1,y)	f(x,y)	f(x+1,y)	f()
	w(1,-1)	w(0,-1)	w(-1,-1)	
f()	f(x-1,y+1)	f(x,y+1)	f(x+1,y+1)	f()
			filter	
f()	f()	f()	f()	f()

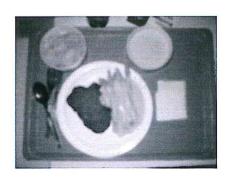
Convolution for Images: Example 1 image: Christoph Lampert



The mean filter blurs the input image



Filter T



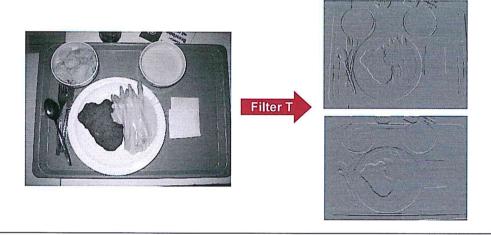
Convolution for Images: Example 2



What do these Filters do?

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

These are the **Sobel filters**: They are commonly used to compute the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial s(x,y)}{\partial x}$, $\frac{\partial s(x,y)}{\partial y}$ of an image (which indicate the **edges** of an image)



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Traditional Use of Convolution/Filters image from [4]



Key Idea: Even when images from the same class are not **globally** similar, they share certain **local characteristics**



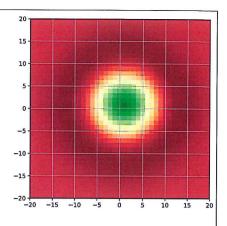
Approach: Hand-engineer Filters to detect Local Features

- ▶ robust to changes of illumination, pose, background, ...
- state-of-the-art until 2011 (and still used frequently today)
- ▶ SIFT, SURF, HoG, Canny, ORB, ...
- ► more in Chapter 03

Step 1: Local Feature Detection

Example: The DoG ("difference-of-Gaussians") filter detects **blobs** (dark regions surrounded by a bright background)



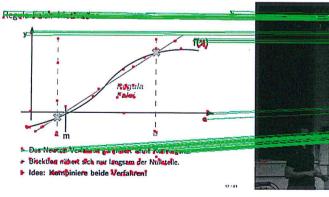


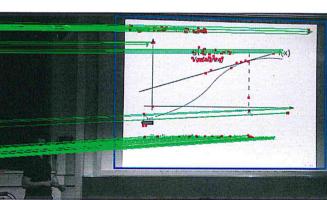
- There are other detectors for corners, edges, etc.
- ightharpoonup We usually apply filters of multiple sizes (ightharpoonup scale invariance)

Step 2: Local Feature Matching image from [7]

*

After detecting local features, we *match* them to recognize objects





Filters in Neural Networks



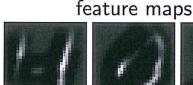
mask

input images











- By carefully designing the filter mask, we can scan the image for certain features
- ▶ Here, I designed a mask to detect the T-junction in the "4".
- ▶ The result is called a **feature map**

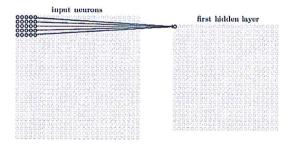
Filters in Neural Networks

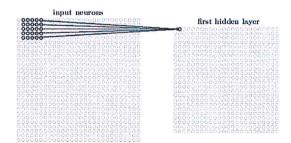
- ▶ Layer 1: run feature detectors over the image
- ▶ Layer 2: classify based on which features have been detected
- ► This way, neural networks can learn their filters by backpropagation!
- ▶ We call them convolutional neural networks (CNNs)

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Convolutional Layers images from [15]







Convolutional Layers apply Filters

- ▶ the **input neurons** are the input image's pixels
- ▶ the hidden neurons (1st layer) are the feature map's pixels
- the weights are the entries of the (say, 5×5) filter mask
- \blacktriangleright the activation of neuron (or pixel) (j, k) in the feature map is

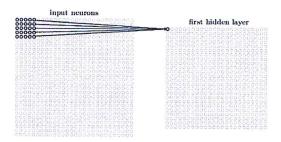
$$a_{jk} = f\left(b + \sum_{u=-2}^{2} \sum_{v=-2}^{2} w_{uv} \cdot x_{j+u,k+v}\right)$$

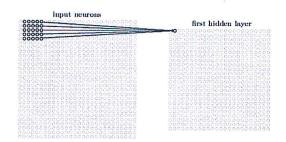
▶ short for the whole image (with the convolution operator *):

$$\mathbf{a} = f(\mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{W} * \mathbf{x}))$$

Convolutional Layers images from [15]





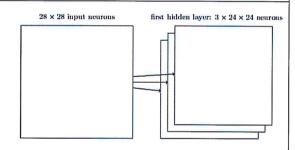


Discussion

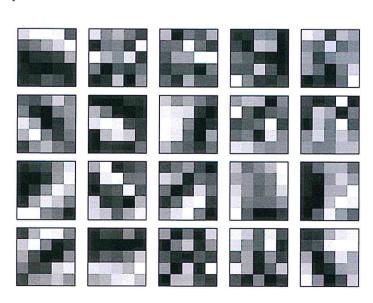
- ▶ CNNs need far less weights: With a 28×28 input image and 24×24 output map, the number of weights is:
 - ▶ fully connected layer: $28 \times 28 \times 24 \times 24 \ (+24^2) \approx 450,000$
 - **convolutional layer**: $5 \times 5 \ (+1) = 26$
- ► This is called weight sharing, and it's great: less parameters → less overfitting!
- Convolutional neurons have a limited receptive field (e.g., 5 × 5) → instead of detecting global features, convolutional neurons detect local features.

Convolutional Layers images from [15]

Because we require far less weights, we can spend them on multiple feature maps!



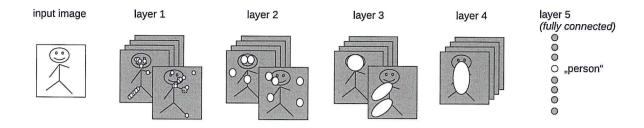
- CNNs use hundreds of filters per layer.
- ▶ Some example of feature masks learned from MNIST data



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CNNs: Layer Stacking

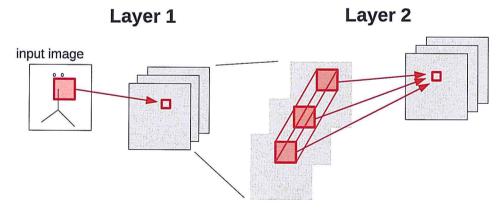




- ► A **single convolutional layer** is quite **limited**: Its receptive fields are tiny and prone to noise.
- ► Idea: Feed feature maps to a subsequent layer, which constructs more complex features (→ abstraction)
- ▶ Multiple layers: edges \rightarrow pupils \rightarrow eyes \rightarrow faces \rightarrow persons
- ▶ With increasing layers ...
 - ... the level of abstraction increases
 - ... the accuracy of localization decreases

CNNs: Layer Stacking





- ► The second layer has not <u>one</u> input image, but multiple ones (namely, the feature maps from the first layer)!
- ► A neuron n in the second layer should be allowed to combine inputs from multiple feature maps of Layer 1
- Solution: **n** can access **all feature maps** within a local area, i.e. **n**'s local receptive field has size $5 \times 5 \times 20$:

$$a_{jk}^{p+1} = f\left(b + \sum_{u=-2}^{2} \sum_{v=-2}^{2} \sum_{f=1}^{20} w_{uvf} \cdot a_{j+u,k+v,f}^{p}\right)$$

CNNs: Layer Stacking



Example

- ▶ Layer 1 takes a 28×28 input image and filters it with 20 masks of size 5×5 , obtaining 20 feature maps.
- Note: with a 5×5 convolution, the image reduces to 24×24 (the filter mask must fit image).
- ▶ We add a second convolutional layer to the CNN

Layer	dims(in)	mask	#filters	dims(out)
	28 × 28	5 × 5	20	$24 \times 24 \times 20$
2	$24 \times 24 \times 20$	$5 \times 5 \times 20$	30	$20 \times 20 \times 30$

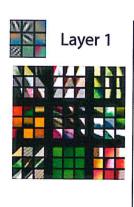
Remarks

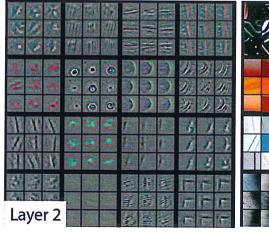
- ► Each layer's feature maps form a "3D matrix" (or tensor)
- ► This is why Google's deep learning library is called **tensorflow**.

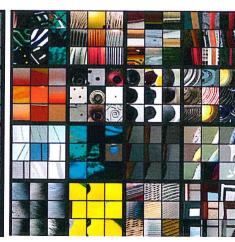
CNNs: Layer Stacking → Visualization images from [20]



- ▶ A CNN trained on 1000 object categories with 1,3 mio. images
- ▶ We **visualize** the **features** the CNN has learned, by ...
 - ▶ ... feeding the network input images
 - ... recording the strongest activation in a given layer
 - ... projecting this activation back to pixel space using deconvolution
- ▶ We start with Layers 1 and 2 ...



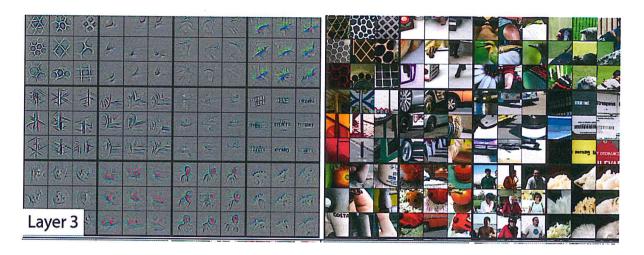




CNNs: Layer Stacking \rightarrow Visualization $_{\text{images from [20]}}$



▶ ... and continue with Layers 3 ...



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CNNs: Layer Stacking \rightarrow Visualization $_{\text{images from [20]}}$



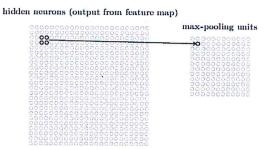
▶ ... to Layers 4 and 5.



CNNs: Pooling Layers image from [15]



- ► We introduce **pooling** layers between the convolutional layers
- ► These **scale down** the feature maps (it is enough to know <u>roughly</u> where a feature occurs).



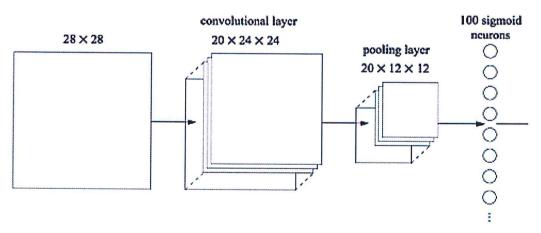
Variations of Pooling

- ► Max-Pooling: take the maximum activation of the feature detector in the receptive field.
- ▶ L2-Pooling: take the L2 norm of the activations in the receptive field

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CNNs: Minimal Architecture image from [15]





Remarks

- ► This CNN can be trained using plain backpropagation (see [9] for details)
- ▶ For **convolutional layers**, the error Δw_{uvf} is collected from all pixels in the output mask.
- ► For **pooling layers**, the error is just forwarded to the exact pixel where it came from.

Outline

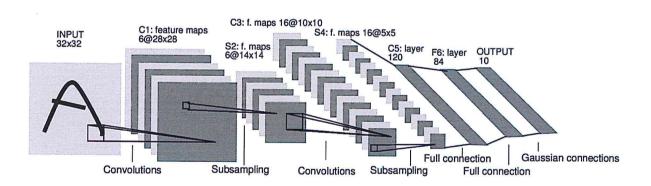


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Example (Object Recognition): LeNet image from [12]



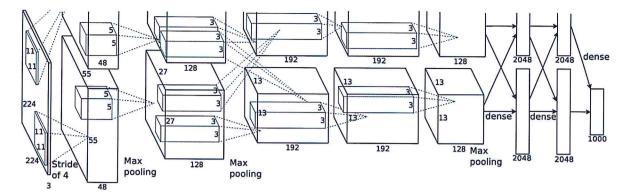
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- ▶ 341K connections but only 90K parameters (weight sharing)
- applied to handwriting recognition (Demo: http://yann.lecun.com)
- ▶ 1998 (when SVMs were the method of choice...)

Example (Object Recognition): AlexNet images from [11], [2]





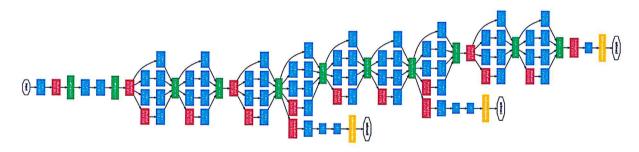
- key trigger for deep learning boom
- ► Layers: 5 × convolution, 3 FC layers, RELUs, dropout
- ► **GPU** implementation, network partitioned (did not fit 1 GPU)
- outstanding winner of ILSVRC'12 (top-5-error: 15.3%, second-best: 26.2%)

mite container ship motor scooter leopard mite container ship motor scooter leopard mite container ship motor scooter leopard plack widow lifeboat cockroach amphibian moped cheetah tick fireboat drilling platform golfcart Egyptian cat

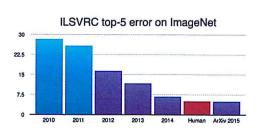
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Example (Object Recognition): GoogLeNet images from [19] [3]





- increased depth (22 layers) and width of network
- but: $12 \times \underline{\text{fewer}}$ parameters than AlexNet (1×1 convolutions)
- ► Codename: *Inception* (a network within a network)
- ▶ human-level object recognition (ILSVRC: 6.8% top-5-error)
- ▶ A. Karpathy: I sat down and went through the [...] careful annotation process myself. [...] I became very good at identifying breeds of dogs. [...] My own error in the end turned out to be 5.1%.



Transfer Learning



"Transfer learning is the improvement of learning in a new task through the transfer of knowledge from a related task that has already been learned."

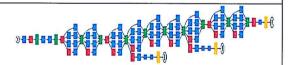
(L. Torrey, J. Shavlik)

- Deep Learning allows us to train strong, complex models on large-scale training sets
- ► Key question: Can I adapt existing models to new domains (where little training data may be available)?

Examples

- ▶ I have trained a deep network for **keyword detection** on Wikipedia. Can I apply that to my customer's E-Mails?
- Can I reuse GoogLeNet (trained on cars, cats, dogs, etc.) to identify other objects?

Transfer Learning with GoogLeNet



▶ Recall GoogLeNet's architecture: multiple convolutional layers (f_{conv}) , followed by a fully-connected layer + softmax (f_{class})

$$\mathbb{R}^{224 \times 224} \xrightarrow{f_{conv}} \mathbb{R}^{1024} \xrightarrow{f_{class}} \mathbb{R}^{1000}$$

$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x'} \mapsto \mathbf{y}$$
(input image) (bottleneck layer) (classes)

- We can think of f_{conv} as a very elaborate feature transformation: \mathbf{x}' is a 1024-dimensional feature representing the image.
- ▶ We call x' the **bottleneck layer**.
- ▶ x' is highly adapted to the classification problem GoogLeNet has been trained on: Its features are very helpful to recognize cats, dogs, cars, etc.!

Transfer Learning with GoogLeNet









Training

- ▶ We want to recognize 200 new objects (say, chairs). Of each, we have 100 training images.
- ightharpoonup We apply the **convolutional layers** f_{conv} to all images
- ▶ We cache the resulting **bottleneck vectors x**′
- ▶ We train a **new** (1-layer!) **classification layer** f'_{class} on those bottlenecks
- ▶ During training, errors are not propagated back into the convolutional layers. Only the last layer is trained.

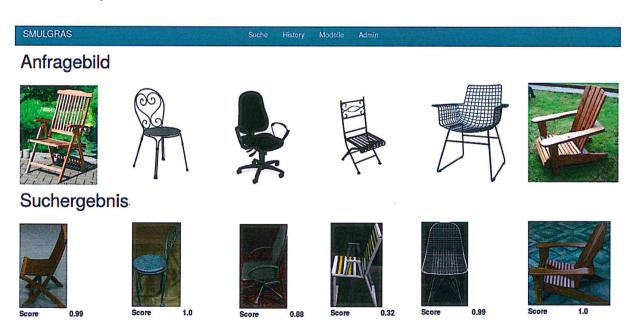
Application

- ▶ Given a new image \mathbf{x} , its classification result is $f'_{class}(f_{conv}(\mathbf{x}))$
- ► This means: We use GoogleNet and simply replace the final layer with a 'chair-specific' one!

Transfer Learning with GoogLeNet: Results¹



- ▶ transfer learning on **3D CG models** of chairs (200 views each)
- test photos of chairs similar to a 3D model



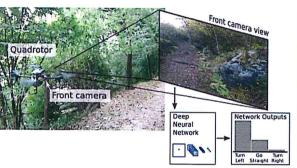
¹Nadja Kurz, "Ein CNN zur view-basierten 3D-Modell-Suche", Bachelor's Thesis, HSRM, 2016.

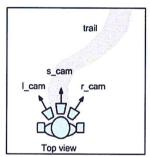
Image Classification Example: Path Following images from [8]









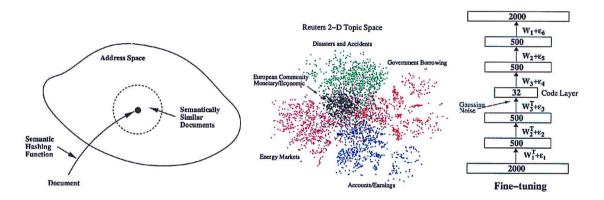




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Text Compression Example: Semantic Hashing images from [17]





- Neural networks for (text) information retrieval
- Multiple layers of Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs), trained incrementally
- ▶ Learning problem: Compress high-dimensional bag-of-words vectors to 32 bits, and reconstruct the original data
- Retrieval quality with 32-bit vectors about as good as (tf-idf) bag-of-words.

Example: Term Embeddings image: [6]

"You shall know a word by the company it keeps"

(J.R.Firth (1957))

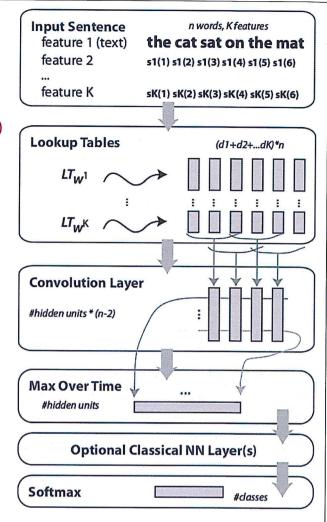
Stage 1 (Unsupervised):

Context-based **prediction** of words. Given its neighbors, predict a word (or given a word, predict its neighbors).

► Stage 1 (Supervised):

Classification of text subsequences

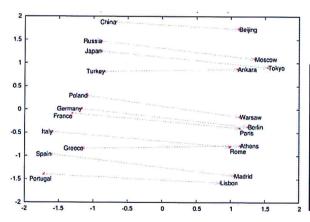
- part-of-speech tagging
 (noun vs. verb)
- named entity recognition (person vs. company)
- selantic role labeling
 (subject vs. object)
- synonym prediction

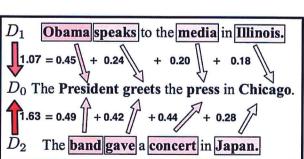


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Example: Term Embeddings image: [6]

Byproduct: Term-level Feature Vectors





- ▶ Terms t are mapped to high-dimensional feature vectors p(t)
- relations between terms become shifts in vector space

$$p(uncle'') - p(''man'') + p(''woman'') \approx p(''aunt'')$$

- works for syntactic and semantic relations
- allows smarter machine learning on texts

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