# Fast 3D Convolution algorithms summary

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#### **Fast 3D Convolution algorithms**

- 3D linear and cyclic convolutions
- Fast 3D convolutions by using FFTs
- Block-based methods
- Optimal Winograd 3D convolutions



#### Introduction



- Convolution plays a very important role in image/video processing and analysis, machine learning etc.
- Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) are based on the convolution (they form the first layers).
- Computationally expensive,  $O(N^6)$  in 3D.
- There is a need for efficient convolution algorithms.





# **3D Signals and Systems**

- A 3D *signal* is a mapping of the form:  $f_a: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$
- The discrete version is:

$$f\colon \mathbb{Z}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$$

- For example:
  - Digital video signal:  $f(n_1, n_2, n_3) = f_a(n_1 \Delta x, n_2 \Delta y, n_3 \Delta t)$
  - 3D volumetric image:  $f(n_1, n_2, n_3) = f_a(n_1 \Delta x, n_2 \Delta y, n_3 \Delta z)$
  - $\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z$  are spatial sampling intervals and  $\Delta t$  is the temporal sampling interval.





#### **3D Signals and Systems**





Spatiotemporal video signal

2D slice of a 3D MRI image [WIK-MRI]





For a 3D LSI system with impulse response h, the input x and output y are related by the **3D** linear convolution:

$$y(n_1, n_2, n_3) = x(n_1, n_2, n_3) * * * h(n_1, n_2, n_3)$$

 $=\sum_{k_1=-\infty}^{\infty}\sum_{k_2=-\infty}^{\infty}\sum_{k_3=-\infty}^{\infty}\sum_{k_3=-\infty}^{\infty}x(k_1,k_2,k_3)h(n_1-k_1,n_2-k_2,n_3-k_3)$ 

It is commutative: x \* \* \* h = h \* \* \* x.





If the system's impulse response *h* is of finite size  $N_{h_1} \times N_{h_2} \times N_{h_3}$ , the system is called *Finite Impulse Response* (FIR) system and is described by:

$$y(n_1, n_2, n_3) = x(n_1, n_2, n_3) * * * h(n_1, n_2, n_3)$$

$$= \sum_{k_1=0}^{N_{h_1}-1} \sum_{k_2=0}^{N_{h_2}-1} \sum_{k_3=0}^{N_{h_3}-1} h(k_1, k_2, k_3) x(n_1 - k_1, n_2 - k_2, n_3 - k_3)$$





If the input signal  $x(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  is also finite,  $N_{x_1} \times N_{x_2} \times N_{x_3}$ , the resulting output signal y = x \* h has size:

 $(N_{x_1}+N_{h_1}-1) \times (N_{x_2}+N_{h_2}-1) \times (N_{x_3}+N_{h_3}-1).$ 



# **VML**

#### **3D Linear Convolution**



Example of 1D linear convolution: The signals x(n) and h(n) of finite size  $N_x = 3$  and  $N_h = 2$  respectively, and the output signal y(n) is of size  $N_x + N_h - 1 = 4$ .







An illustration of 3D convolution with a kernel of size  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  (from [DON2020]).







2D convolution vs 3D convolution (from [TRA2015]).



#### **3D Cyclic Convolution**



The **3D** cyclic convolution is defined as:

 $y(n_1, n_2, n_3) = x(n_1, n_2, n_3) \circledast \circledast h(n_1, n_2, n_3)$ 

$$= \sum_{k_1=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{k_2=0}^{N_2-1} \sum_{k_3=0}^{N_3-1} x(k_1, k_2, k_3) h\left( (n_1 - k_1)_{N_1}, (n_2 - k_2)_{N_2}, (n_3 - k_3)_{N_3} \right)$$

where  $(n)_N$  denotes  $n \mod N$  and is the *cyclic shift*. We use the symbol  $\circledast$  to distinguish it from the linear convolution.



#### **3D Cyclic Convolution**



- 3D linear convolution can be embedded in 3D cyclic convolution by zero-padding the  $x(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  and  $h(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  in each dimension (see picture on next slide).
- Performing cyclic convolution on these padded signals is equivalent to performing linear convolution on the original signals.
  - Cyclic convolutions are useful because they can be computed using DFT (via FFT algorithms) and other fast algorithms such as Winograd convolution algorithms.





# **3D Cyclic Convolution**



Example of 1D cyclic convolution which is equivalent to linear convolution. The original signals x(n) and h(n) are of size  $N_x = 3$  and  $N_h = 2$  respectively. By zero-padding them to the same size  $N_x + N_h - 1 = 4$ , the resulting output signal y(n) (of size 4) is the same as y(n) obtained from linear convolution of the original signals.

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#### **3D Z-transform**



• The **3D Z**-transform of a  $N_1 \times N_2 \times N_3$  signal x is defined as:

$$X(z_1, z_2, z_3) = \sum_{n_1=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{n_2=0}^{N_2-1} \sum_{n_3=0}^{N_3-1} x(n_1, n_2, n_3) z_1^{-n_1} z_2^{-n_2} z_3^{-n_3}$$

where  $z_1, z_2, z_3$  are complex variables.

It can be considered as a polynomial of three variables  $z_1, z_2, z_3$ , by multiplying it by the monomial  $z_1^{N_1-1} z_2^{N_2-1} z_3^{N_3-1}$ .



#### **3D Z-transform**



- An important property is that the 3D linear convolution is equivalent to the polynomial products in the z-domain:
   y(n<sub>1</sub>, n<sub>2</sub>, n<sub>3</sub>) = x(n<sub>1</sub>, n<sub>2</sub>, n<sub>3</sub>) \*\*\* h(n<sub>1</sub>, n<sub>2</sub>, n<sub>3</sub>)
   ↔ Y(z<sub>1</sub>, z<sub>2</sub>, z<sub>3</sub>) = X(z<sub>1</sub>, z<sub>2</sub>, z<sub>3</sub>)H(z<sub>1</sub>, z<sub>2</sub>, z<sub>3</sub>)
- Similarly for the 3D cyclic convolution:  $y(n_1, n_2, n_3) = x(n_1, n_2, n_3) \circledast \circledast h(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  $\leftrightarrow Y(z_1, z_2, z_3) = X(z_1, z_2, z_3) H(z_1, z_2, z_3) \mod (z_1^{N_1} - 1), (z_2^{N_2} - 1), (z_3^{N_3} - 1)$





#### **3D Discrete Fourier Transform**

The **3D Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)** of a 3D  $N_1 \times N_2 \times N_3$  signal *x* is defined as:

$$X(k_1, k_2, k_3) = \sum_{n_1=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{n_2=0}^{N_2-1} \sum_{n_3=0}^{N_3-1} x(n_1, n_2, n_3) W_{N_1}^{n_1 k_1} W_{N_2}^{n_2 k_2} W_{N_3}^{n_3 k_3}$$
  
where  $W_{N_i} \equiv e^{-j2\pi/N_i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , are  $N_i$ -th primitive roots of unity.



# **3D Discrete Fourier Transform**

• The *convolution theorem* states that the cyclic convolution in  $\mathbb{Z}^3$  is equivalent to the multiplication in the DFT domain:  $y(n_1, n_2, n_3) = x(n_1, n_2, n_3) \circledast \circledast h(n_1, n_2, n_3)$ 

 $\leftrightarrow Y(k_1, k_2, k_3) = X(k_1, k_2, k_3) H(k_1, k_2, k_3)$ 

Thus, the 3D cyclic convolution can be computed by DFT:







Decomposition of 3D FFT into 1D FFTs (from [HEI2005]).





- There are many variants of 1D FFT algorithms. The best known is the Cooley-Tuckey *radix-2 decimation in time* (DIT) FFT algorithm.
- It uses the "divide and conquer" approach by recursively breaking down the 1D DFT of any composite size  $N = N_1N_2$  into  $N_1$  smaller DFTs of sizes  $N_2$ .







Data flow diagram of 1D radix-2 FFT algorithm for N=8.

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The number of additions and multiplications required for computing the 3D FFT by using 1D radix-2 FFTs is [PIT2000]:

 $A = N_1 N_2 N_3 \log_2(N_1 N_2 N_3)$ 

$$M = \frac{N_1 N_2 N_3}{2} \log_2(N_1 N_2 N_3)$$

This is much better as compared to  $(N_1N_2N_3)^2$  multiplications required for the direct computation of 3D DFT.



#### **Block convolutions**



- Computation of convolution by DFT methods (using FFT algorithms) for signals of large sizes can be very memory consuming.
- To overcome this problem, block methods can be used.
- Limiting the size of blocks limits the amount of storage required while maintaining the efficiency of the procedure [DUD1984].
- There are two block-based methods: overlap-add and overlap-save.





#### **Overlap-add method**



Overlap-add method for convolution in 1D. The input signal x(n) is partitioned into three blocks  $x_1(n)$ ,  $x_2(n)$  and  $x_3(n)$ , each of length *B*. The impulse response h(n) is of length  $N_h$  and the output blocks  $y_i(n) = (x_i * h)(n)$ , i = 1, 2, 3, are of length  $B + N_h - 1$  each. There are  $N_h - 1$  overlapping points between output blocks  $y_i(n)$  and  $y_{i+1}(n)$ . The output signal y(n) is formed by adding all the overlapping output blocks  $y_i(n)$ .

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#### **Overlap-save method**



- The overlap-save method is an alternative block method.
- The 3D output is partitioned into  $B_1 \times B_2 \times B_3$  non-overlapping blocks:

$$y(n_1, n_2, n_3) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sum_{k} y_{ijk}(n_1, n_2, n_3)$$

• The corresponding 3D input section  $x_{ijk}(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  of size  $B_1 \times B_2 \times B_3$  is extended to  $x'_{ijk}(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  of size  $(B_1 + N_{h_1} - 1) \times (B_2 + N_{h_2} - 1) \times (B_3 + N_{h_3} - 1)$ .



#### **Overlap-save method**



- The 3D cyclic convolution  $y'_{ijk} = x'_{ijk} \circledast \circledast h$  can be efficiently computed by FFT of size  $(B_1+N_{h_1}-1) \times (B_2+N_{h_2}-1) \times (B_3+N_{h_3}-1)$ .
- Each of the resulting blocks y'<sub>ijk</sub> will contain a sub-block of size B<sub>1</sub> × B<sub>2</sub> × B<sub>3</sub> which is identical to the desired linear convolution y<sub>ijk</sub> = x<sub>ijk</sub> \*\*\* h (which are added to form y).
  In both block methods the choice of block size affects the amount of storage needed and the amount of computations.





#### Winograd convolution algorithm

- We saw that the 3D cyclic convolution can be efficiently computed by 1D FFTs.
- When the length of the convolution kernel is small, the best convolution algorithms, as measured by the number of required multiplications, are the Winograd convolution algorithms [BLA2010].
- The Winograd convolution algorithms are based on the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) for polynomials.





For simplicity, we first present the 1D Winograd convolution algorithm and later extend it to 3D.

The 1D cyclic convolution of length *N* can be expressed in terms of polynomials in z-domain as:

 $Y(z) = X(z)H(z) \mod z^N - 1$ 





• The Winograd convolution algorithm can be expressed compactly in the following matrix notation (bilinear form):  $y = C(Ax \otimes Bh)$ 

where  $\odot$  denotes element-wise product.

 Matrices A and B typically have elements -1,0,1. Therefore products Ax and Bh represent additions instead of multiplications.





- The Winograd convolution can be extended to three dimensions [PIT1987].
- The 3D cyclic convolution can be expressed as:

 $Y(z_1, z_2, z_3) = X(z_1, z_2, z_3) H(z_1, z_2, z_3) \mod P_1(z_1), P_2(z_2), P_3(z_3),$ 

where  $P_i(z_i) = (z_i^{N_i} - 1), i = 1, 2, 3.$ Each  $P_i(z_i)$  can be factorized into  $v_i$  cyclotomic polynomials:  $P_i(z_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{v_i} p_{ij_i}(z_i), \quad \deg\{p_{ij_i}\} = N_{ij_i}, i = 1, 2, 3$ 





• The number of multiplications of this 3D algorithm is:  $(2N_1 - v_1)(2N_2 - v_2)(2N_3 - v_3)$ ,

i.e., the computational complexity is of order  $O(N^3)$ .

However, this is not the minimal computational complexity, because there can exist further factorizations such as each  $p_{1j_1}(z_1)$  over  $Q[z_2]/p_{2j_2}(z_2)$  or  $Q[z_3]/p_{3j_3}(z_3)$  etc.





It can be shown that the optimal algorithm for 3D cyclic convolution exists and requires the following minimum number of multiplications [PIT1987]:

$$M = \sum_{j_1=1}^{\nu_1} \sum_{j_2=1}^{\nu_2} \sum_{j_3=1}^{\nu_3} M_{j_1 j_2 j_3}$$

where

$$M_{j_1 j_2 j_3} = \min \{ (2N_{1j_1} - 1)(2N_{2j_2} - k_{2j_2})(2N_{3j_3} - k_{3j_3}), \\ (2N_{2j_2} - 1)(2N_{1j_1} - k_{1j_1})(2N_{3j_3} - k_{3j_3}), \\ (2N_{3j_3} - 1)(2N_{1j_1} - k_{1j_1})(2N_{2j_2} - k_{2j_2}) \}$$





• Such optimal algorithms can be expressed in the matrix form that we saw for 1D Winograd convolution:  $y = RB^{T}(Ax \otimes C^{T}Rh)$ 

which then can be computed by using linear algebra libraries such as BLAS and cuBLAS.

However, finding the matrices A, B, C can be a tedious task and has to be done by hand for a desired convolution size.







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#### Thank you very much for your attention!

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