Image Classification

Computer Vision – Lecture 06

Further Reading

- Slides from <u>A Zisserman and A Vedaldi</u>
- Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, C Bishop
- Deep Learning, Goodfellow, Bengio, Courville

So far

- We know a/one way to compare images:
 - Compute a BoW descriptor for each image.
 - This allows finding similar images: compute descriptor similarities
- Does this tell us if the image contains a cat?
- How do we know if the image contains a cat?

Image Embeddings

- Formally, we define a feature extractor ϕ : $\mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ for images.
- ϕ maps images to d-dimensional descriptor vectors.
- A good ϕ maps similar images close-by in the feature space, while different image have large distances.
- BoW is an image embedding.
- Allows retrieval and many other applications.

Supervised Learning Summary

Dataset $D = \{(x_i, y_i) | 1 \le i \le N\}$ Inputs x_i Outputs y_i Training/Validation/Testing $D = D_T \cup D_V \cup D_*$

Learn f(x) = y by minimizing $\sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in D_T} \mathcal{L}(f(x_i), y_i)$

Hoping to generalise: $\sum_{(x_i,y_i)\in D_*} \mathcal{L}(f(x_i), y_i)$

Supervised Learning - Data

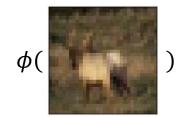
CIFAR-10 dataset (Alex Krizhevsky, 2009)

- 60000 32x32 colour images
- 10 classes
- 6000 images per class
- 50000 training images
- 10000 test images



Image Embeddings





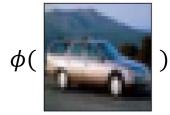


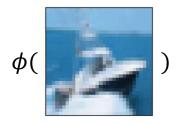














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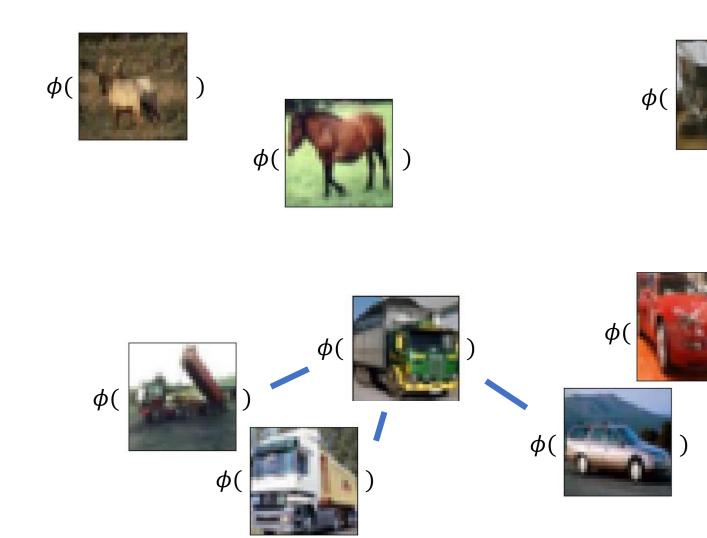
Nearest Neighbour Classification

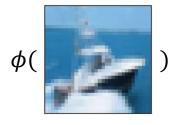
- Embed a new sample with ϕ .
- Look up nearest neighbours in the embedding space.
- Predicted class is the majority vote of the neighbourhood.
- Can also return class distribution.



Image Embeddings



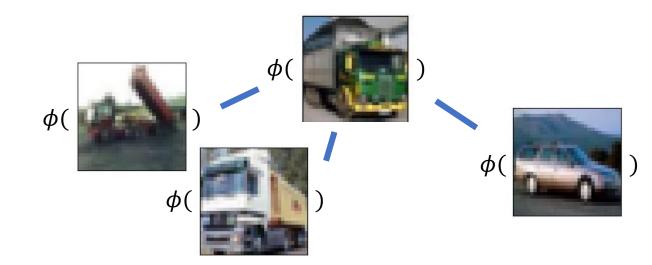






Nearest Neighbour Classification

- 3-NN Classification:
- $p(I, \text{truck}) = \frac{2}{3}$
- $p(I, \operatorname{car}) = \frac{1}{3}$
- p(I, other classes) = 0



Nearest Neighbour Classification

Algorithm

Training:

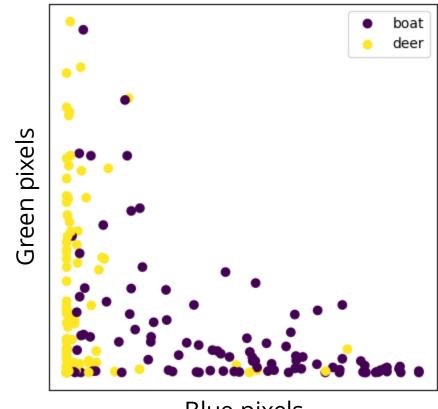
- Precompute the feature embedding of all training samples.
- Optional: use a fast NNlookup data structure (e.g. kd-trees).

Testing:

- Compute the embedding for the new image.
- Look up k-NN and compute class histogram.

Embedding Function Example

- We count the number of blue and green pixels.
- ϕ : $\mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is easy to visualise.
- We classify boats vs deer.
- How do we measure the quality of a classifier?



Blue pixels

Accuracy

We compute the number of samples the classifier *f* predicts correctly.

Acc(f) =
$$\frac{1}{|D_*|} \sum_{x,y \in D_*} [y = f(x)]$$

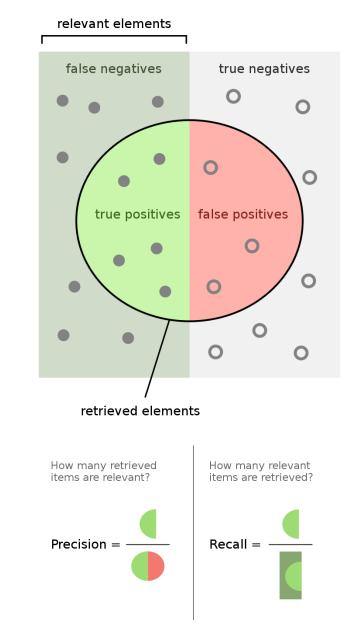
When the classifier predicts probabilities, we can also compute the expected accuracy:

$$\operatorname{EAcc}(f) = \frac{1}{|D_*|} \sum_{x, y \in D_*} f_y(x)$$

Where $f_y(x)$ is the predicted probability for class y.

Precision and Recall

- Accuracy can be misleading when the label distribution is skewed.
- In a dataset where 90% of samples are of class 0, you can obtain 90% accuracy by always predicting 0.
- Precision: TP/(TP+FP)
- Recall: TP/(TP+FN)



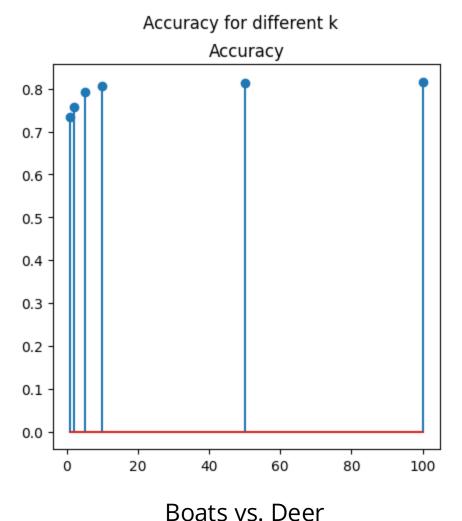
14 Image source

k-NN Classification

As k increases:

- Classification boundary becomes smoother.
- Might improve or worsen performance.

Choose optimal *k* on the validation set!



k-NN Summary

- *k* -NN is simple but effective.
- Applies to multi-class classification.
- Decision surfaces are non-linear.
- Quality of predictions automatically improves with more "training" data.
- Only a single parameter, k; easily tuned by cross-validation.
- Often used as a baseline classifier.

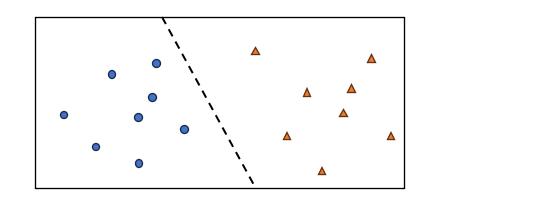
Image Classification in 2 Steps

- 1. Compute image embeddings.
- 2. Learn a classifier on the training set.

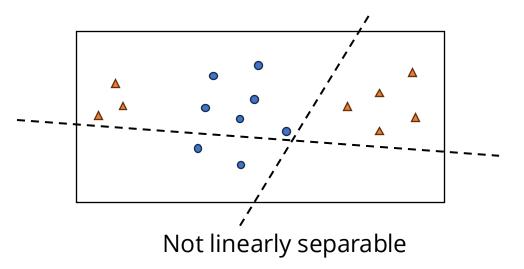
Two directions for improvements:

- Find a better embedding function.
- Find a better classifier.

Linear Separability



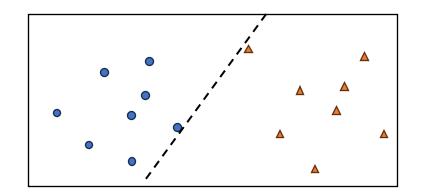
Linearly separable

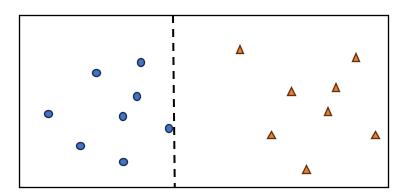


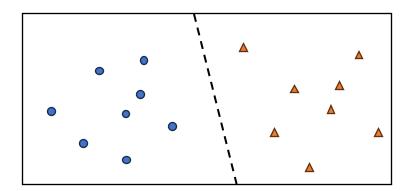
Decision Boundaries

• Even if our data is linearly separable, we might have many choices to place the decision boundary.

Intuitions



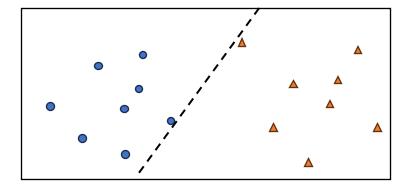


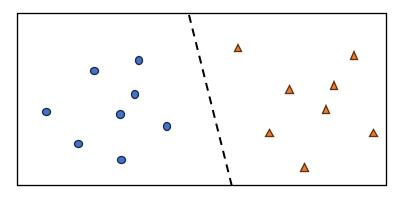


good boundary – but why?

Maximum Margin

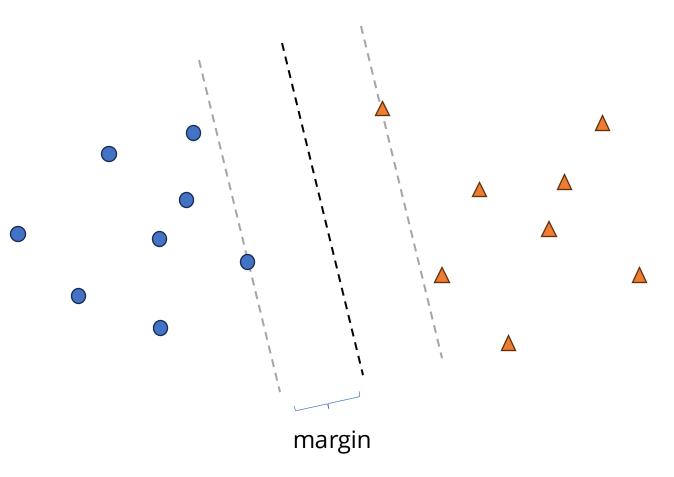
- If we assume some noise, tight boundaries can easily lead to miss-classifications.
- Both classifiers on the right have 100% accuracy.
- Maximum margin idea: place the decision boundary as far away from the samples as possible.





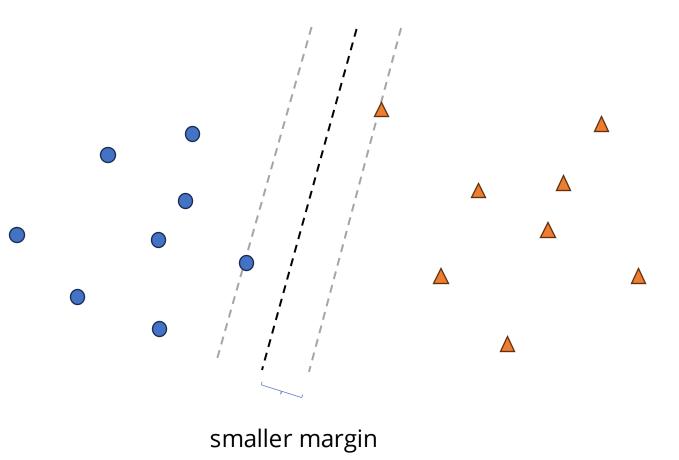
Maximum Margin

- Data points become support vectors for the decision boundary margins.
- We want to maximise the margin.



Maximum Margin

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Linear Support Vector Machine

Decision boundary: $w^T x + b = 0$ Binary classification dataset: $(x_i, y_i), \quad 1 \leq i \leq n,$ $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$

Margi

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Two objectives:

- Classification accuracy
- Maximising margins

• Linear classifier: $f(x) = w^T x + b$

Linear Support Vector Machine

Classification criterion:

$$\sum_{i} y_i f(x_i) = \sum_{i} y_i (x_i^T w + b) \ge 1$$

This means that y_i and $f(x_i)$ should have the same sign (=class) and $|f(x_i)| \ge 1$ pushes points beyond the margin.

Margin maximisation:

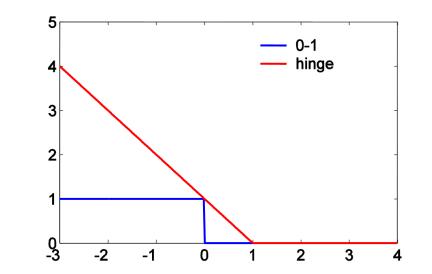
$\min \|w\|^2$

Quadratic optimization problem with linear constraints. In general: there is a unique solution.

Training SVMs

Constraint: Maximum margin:

$$\sum_{i} y_i (x_i^T w + b) \ge 1$$
$$\min \|w\|^2$$



Training loss:
$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i} \max(0, 1 - y_i(x_i^T w + b)) + \lambda ||w||^2$$

Hinge-loss

Hinge loss: gradient of -1 until constraint is fulfilled.

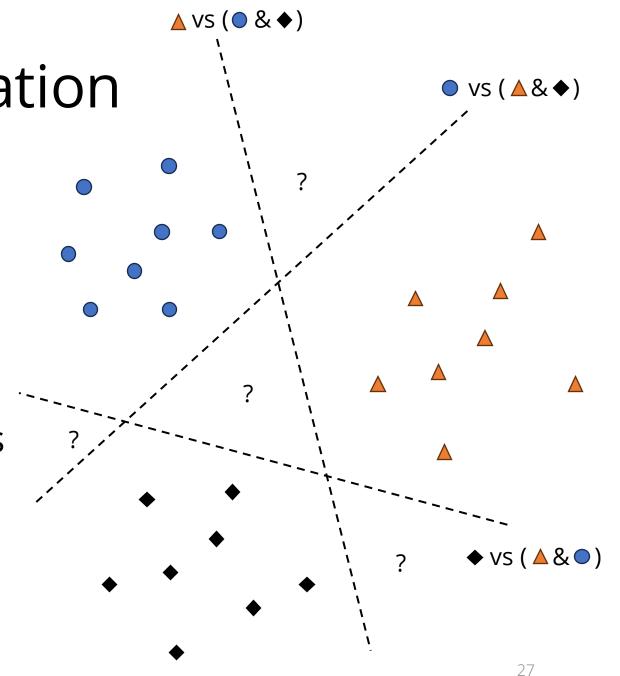
SVM Summary

- SVMs are good linear classifiers: maximum margin decision boundaries.
- Performance depends on the linear separability of the samples, thus on the image embedding function!
- Kernel SVM: non-linear decision boundaries.
- Intuition: learn a non-linear mapping to a space where classes are linearly separable together with the SVM

Multi-Class Classification

- Setting: K > 2 classes.
- Idea: train *K* classifiers $f_k(x)$, each is a binary 1-vs-all classifier.
- Classification: choose the class with the highest score

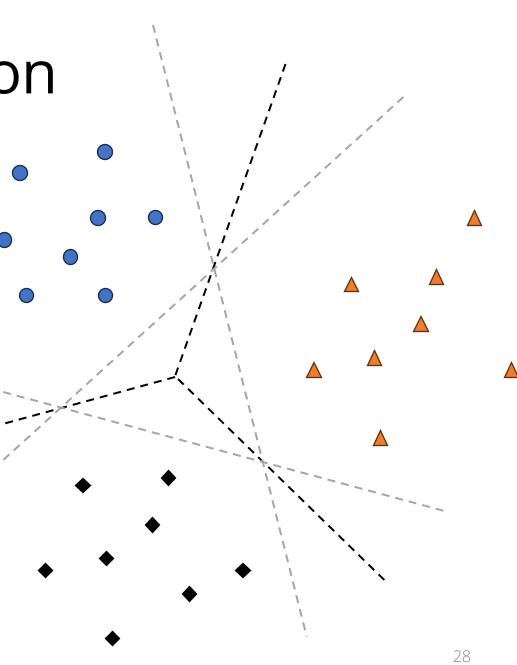
 $\operatorname*{argmax}_{k} f_{k}(x)$



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 $\operatorname*{argmax}_{k} f_{k}(x)$



Multi-Class Classification

Linear classifiers

$$f_k(x) = w_k^T x + b$$

Vector form:

$$f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} w_1^T \\ \vdots \\ w_K^T \end{pmatrix} x + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_K \end{pmatrix} = Wx + B = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_K(x) \end{pmatrix} = \widehat{Y}$$

How to we turn the class scores \hat{Y} into a single class prediction?

The soft-max Function

 $\underset{k}{\operatorname{argmax}} \hat{Y}_k \text{ is not differentiable.}$

Idea: convert \hat{Y} into a probability distribution. All elements in (0, 1) and sum to 1.

$$\operatorname{softmax}_{k}(\widehat{Y}) = \frac{\exp \widehat{Y}_{k}}{\sum_{j} \exp \widehat{Y}_{j}}$$

The soft-max Function

$$\operatorname{softmax}_{k}(\widehat{Y}) = \frac{\exp \widehat{Y}_{k}}{\sum_{j} \exp \widehat{Y}_{j}}$$

- Result sums to 1.
- All values between 0 and 1.
- Works for any input in \mathbb{R}^{K} (positive and negative).
- If one $\hat{Y}_i \gg \hat{Y}_j$ than all others, softmax "selects" this element: softmax_i(\hat{Y}) \approx 1 and softmax_j(\hat{Y}) \approx 0.

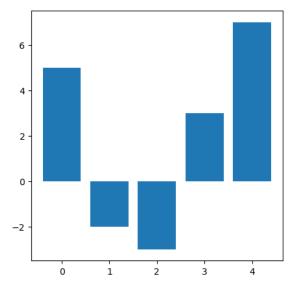
Temperature

Often a temperature parameter τ is added to the softmax function

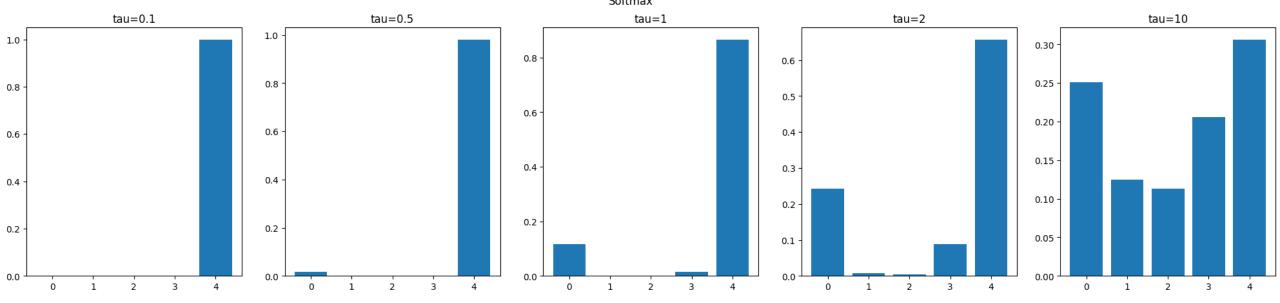
softmax_k(
$$\hat{Y}, \tau$$
) = $\frac{\exp{\frac{Y_k}{\tau}}}{\sum_j \exp{\frac{\hat{Y}_j}{\tau}}}$ = softmax_k($\frac{\hat{Y}}{\tau}$)

- Regulates the sharpness of the output distribution.
- Keeps relative ordering: $\operatorname{softmax}_{i}(\hat{Y}, \tau_{1}) < \operatorname{softmax}_{j}(\hat{Y}, \tau_{1}) \Rightarrow \operatorname{softmax}_{i}(\hat{Y}, \tau_{2}) < \operatorname{softmax}_{j}(\hat{Y}, \tau_{2})$
- As $\tau \to \infty$ softmax becomes a uniform distribution
- As $\tau \rightarrow 0$ softmax becomes argmax (in a vector representation).

Temperature



Softmax



The temperature controls the *entropy* of the resulting probability distribution.

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Input

Cross-entropy loss

Soft-max classifier for *K* classes C_k : $p(C_k|x) = \operatorname{softmax}_k f(x) = \frac{\exp f_k(x)}{\sum_j \exp f_j(x)}$

Loss function:

- Idea: maximise the probability of the ground-truth class.
- Minimise cross-entropy between ground-truth probability distribution (one-hot) and the predicted distribution.

$$-\sum_{j}^{n} p_{GT}(C_j, x) \log(p(C_k|x))$$

Cross-entropy loss

$$-\sum_{k}^{K} p_{GT}(C_k, x) \log(p(C_k|x))$$

Since all $p_{GT}(C_k|x)$ are zero, except the target class C_{GT} , i.e. $p_{GT}(C_{GT}, x) = 1$, this simplifies to

$$-\log(p(C_{GT}|x)) = -\log\frac{\exp f_{GT}(x)}{\sum_{j} \exp f_{j}(x)} = -f_{GT}(x) + \log\sum_{j} \exp(f_{j}(x))$$

$$p_{GT}(C_{GT}|x) = 1$$

$$p_{GT}(C_{k}|x) = 0$$

$$k \neq GT$$
predicted distribution
$$p_{GT}(C_{k}|x) = 0$$

$$p_{GT}(C_{k}|x) = 0$$

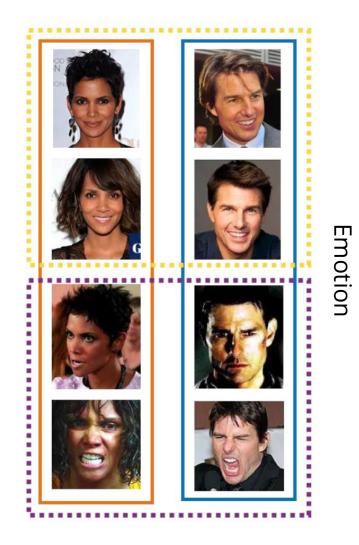
$$p_{GT}(C_{k}|x) = 0$$

Cross-entropy loss

- The cross-entropy soft-max loss is differentiable.
- It is often used to train classification methods.
- There are some tricks to make it numerically stable.

Multi-Label Classification

- Multi-Class: each image has exactly one class of which there are many.
- Multi-Label: each image can have multiple classes.
- Classes might or might not be exclusive.



Identity

Image Classification in 2 Steps

- 1. Compute image embeddings.
- 2. Learn a classifier on the training set.

Many different approaches: Image embeddings: FFT, BoW, HOG, Fisher Vectors, etc... Classifiers: Linear Regression, SVMs, Kernel SVM, Random Forest, etc...

Deep Learning:

combine both steps and learn them simultaneously!

ImageNet Classification Challenge

