# CSCE 633 Homework 5

#### Designing and disseminating ML for a real-world problem

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# a.(1 point) Image pre-processing.

The images that are provided in the data are of different sizes. Crop the images to a square shape (i.e., image length equals image width) and resize the cropped image into a fixed size.

We read the images and the label CSV and ensure that the images are stored in the same order as the CSV. Our preprocessing pipeline is as follows: read file as grayscale, center crop, resize to 200x200, morph holes closed (dilation followed by erosion), and finally sharpening the image.

```
from google.colab.patches import cv2_imshow
def center crop(img):
  # Crop the image to a square based on its smaller dimension
  # Params: image file
  # Returns: square image file
  height, width = img.shape[0], img.shape[1]
  mid_h = height//2
  mid_w = width//2
  s = height//2 if height < width else width//2 # half of the size of the smaller dimension
  return img[mid_h-s:mid_h+s,mid_w-s:mid_w+s]
def preprocess(img):
  return sharpen(morph_close(img))
def morph close(img):
  kernel = np.ones((3,3),np.uint8)
  return cv2.morphologyEx(img, cv2.MORPH_CLOSE, kernel)
def sharpen(img):
  # Note: the 5 was determined empirically. Making it a 2 or 10 turned the image black
  kernel = np.array([[0, -1, 0],
 return cv2.filter2D(src=img,ddepth=-1,kernel=kernel)
# Part (a) - Data Preprocessing
#THIS IS THE TARGET WIDHT/HEIGHT AFTER RESIZING
tgt_w = 200
# We crop the images to be a square, and resize them to a target width/height
# Test images are stored in imgs test, and train in imgs test as numpy arrays
imgs_train = [cv2.resize(center_crop(cv2.imread(train_data_path+'/'+i,cv2.IMREAD_GRAYSCALE)),(tgt_h,tgt_w)) for i in tqdm(os.listdir(train_data_path))]
imgs_test = [cv2.resize(center_crop(cv2.imread(test_data_path+'/'+i,cv2.IMREAD_GRAYSCALE)),(tgt_h,tgt_w)) for i in tqdm(os.listdir(test_data_path))]
# Sort the image files by filename
imgs_train_filenames = os.listdir(train_data_path)
imgs\_train\_sync = sorted(zip(imgs\_train\_filenames, imgs\_train), \; key=lambda \; x: x[0])
imgs_train = [x[1] for x in imgs_train_sync]
# Sort the labels by filename
lbls train = pd.read csv(train labels)
lbls_filenames = lbls_train["filename"].values
lbls_train = lbls_train["covid(label)"].values
lbls_sync = sorted(zip(lbls_filenames, lbls_train), key=lambda x:x[0])
lbls\_train = np.asarray([x[1] for x in lbls\_sync])
# Further preprocess the images
imgs_train = [preprocess(img) for img in imgs_train]
imgs_test = [preprocess(img) for img in imgs_test]
```

Figure 1. Image Preprocessing Code.

## (b.i) (2 points) Visual feature extraction.

Extract image features, which will be used to predict the COVID-19 diagnosis. Please describe the features and provide a brief justification on how these features might work well for the outcome of interest.

Healthy lungs will appear dark and clear in x-rays. Abnormalities in the lungs will show up white and can have clump-like, spotty, or vein-y appearances. Other body parts such as bones, the heart, and the intestines will also appear white in the x-ray. As such, we need to extract features that can recognize what a healthy x-ray looks like and detect any abnormalities without getting false positives on other body parts.

We used standard computer vision feature extraction methods to understand the content of the image, e.g., the location of the various body parts and edges present in the image. These features include: Histogram of Gradients, Gabor Filter, Canny Edge Detection, Laplace Filter, Merijering Filter, Hessian Filter, and Sobel Filter (Vertical and Horizontal). Knowing that symptoms of COVID appear white and healthy lungs appear black, we also engineered some simple features to detect light and dark patches of pixels. Additionally, we included the demographic features supplied with the labels, encoding the qualitative data as one-hot vectors.

The computer vision features produce 200x200 matrices (the size of our input images) which results in too many features to create a generalizable model. To address this, we train a PCA dimensionality reduction model for each type of feature to compress the features into a more reasonable number. We tested different values for the number of components, i.e., 5, 10, and 20, and settled on 20.

To generate all of the features, we developed a modular feature generator that produces a dataframe of features. Each of the feature functions and the class code are included in Figures 2-11.

Figure 2. Canny Edge Detection.

```
def calculate gabor(img,
                    theta = np.pi/2,
                    k \text{ size} = (8,8),
                    sigma = 10.0,
                    gamma = 4,
                    psi = 0.5):
    # Applies Gabor to an image
    # Params:
    # Req: img - the preprocessed image (2D)
   # Opt: theta, k_size, sigma, gamma, psi
    # Returns: image with gabor applied to it
  g_kernel = cv2.getGaborKernel(k_size, 1, theta, sigma, gamma, psi, ktype=cv2.CV_32F)
  filtered img = cv2.filter2D(img, cv2.CV 8UC3, g kernel)
  return filtered_img.flatten(), filtered_img
def calculate gabor15(img):
  return calculate_gabor(img,theta=np.pi/8)
def calculate gabor45(img):
 return calculate_gabor(img,theta=np.pi/4)
def calculate gabor75(img):
  return calculate gabor(img, theta=3*np.pi/8)
def calculate_gabor90(img):
  return calculate_gabor(img,theta=np.pi/2)
def calculate gabor105(img):
  return calculate gabor(img, theta=5*np.pi/8)
def calculate gabor135(img):
  return calculate_gabor(img,theta=3*np.pi/4)
def calculate gabor165(img):
  return calculate_gabor(img,theta=7*np.pi/8)
def calculate gabor180(img):
 return calculate gabor(img,theta=2*np.pi)
```

Figure 3. Gabor Filter.

```
def calculate hog(img, _orientation=8, _pixels per cell=16, _cells_per_block=3,multi=False):
    # Calculuates HoG features for img
    # Params:
    # Req: img - the preprocessed image (2D)
    # Opt: _orientation, _pixels_per_cell, _cells_per_block
   # Returns: feature vector (1D), gradient image (2D)
   X, hog_img = hog(img,
                    orientations = orientation,
                    pixels per cell=( pixels per cell, pixels per cell),
                    cells per block=( cells per block, cells per block),
                    feature vector=True,
                    visualize=True,
                    multichannel=multi)
    hog_img *= 255.0/np.max(hog_img)
    return X, hog_img
def calculate hog16(img):
 return calculate_hog(img,_pixels_per_cell=16)
def calculate hog8(img):
 return calculate_hog(img,_pixels_per_cell=8)
def calculate hog4(img):
return calculate_hog(img,_pixels_per_cell=4)
```

Figure 4. Histogram of Gradients.

```
# Filter Functions - Stub functions call calculate filter
def calculate_filter(img, func):
 # Processes the image using the filter passed in func
 # Params: img - the preprocessed image (2D)
 # Returns: feature vector (1D), edge map (2D)
 edges = func(img)
 edges *= 255.0/np.max(edges)
 return edges.flatten(), edges
def calculate hessian(img):
 return calculate filter(img, hessian)
def calculate meijering(img):
 return calculate_filter(img, meijering)
def calculate laplace(img):
 return calculate filter(img,laplace)
def calculate sobelh(img):
 return calculate_filter(img, sobel_h)
def calculate_sobelv(img):
 return calculate_filter(img,sobel_v)
```

Figure 5. Filter Features Including Hessian, Laplace, Meijering, and Sobel.

```
# Feature Engineering - Context from Filters
white threshold = 220
dark threshold = 50
def canny white(img):
 # Returns the percentage of the image is white after applying canny filter
 _, _img = calculate_canny(img)
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(_img >= white_threshold, 1, 0))/_img.size])
def laplace_white(img):
 # Returns the percentage of the image is white after applying laplace filter
 _, _img = calculate_laplace(img)
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(_img >= white_threshold, 1, 0))/_img.size])
def hog white(img):
 # Returns the percentage of the image is white after applying HoG filter
 , img = calculate hog(img)
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(_img >= white_threshold, 1, 0))/_img.size])
def hessian white(img):
 _, _img = calculate_hessian(img)
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(_img >= white_threshold, 1, 0))/_img.size])
def meijering white(img):
 _, _img = calculate_meijering(img)
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(_img >= white_threshold, 1, 0))/_img.size])
def blobdog(img):
 return np.array([blob_dog(img).shape[0]],ndmin=1)
def blobdoh(img):
 return np.array([blob doh(img).shape[0]],ndmin=1)
def bloblog(img):
 return np.array([blob_log(img).shape[0]],ndmin=1)
```

Figure 6. Domain-Specific Features (Pt. 1). These features further quantify how many edges and blobs the other computer vision features detected.

```
def raw white(img):
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(img >= white threshold, 1, 0))/img.size])
def raw dark(img):
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(img <= 100, 1, 0))/img.size])
def raw black(img):
 return np.asarray([np.sum(np.where(img <= 50, 1, 0))/img.size])
def raw mean(img):
 return np.asarray([np.mean(img)])
def center mean(img):
  img = img[img.shape[0]//4:3*img.shape[0]//4,:img.shape[1]//4:3*img.shape[1]//4]
 return np.asarray([np.mean( img)])
def left mean(img):
 _img = img[:img.shape[0]//2,:]
 return np.asarray([np.mean(_img)])
def right mean(img):
 _img = img[img.shape[0]//2:,:]
 return np.asarray([np.mean( img)])
def left_first_quartile(img):
 img = img[:img.shape[0]//2,:]
  return np.asarray([np.quantile(_img,0.25)])
def right_first_quartile(img):
 img = img[img.shape[0]//2:,:]
 return np.asarray([np.quantile(_img,0.25)])
def left third quartile(img):
 _img = img[:img.shape[0]//2,:]
 return np.asarray([np.quantile(_img,0.75)])
def right third quartile(img):
  _img = img[img.shape[0]//2:,:]
 return np.asarray([np.quantile(_img,0.75)])
def light count(img):
 # How many window x window squares have a mean value above the white threshold?
 num = 0
 window = 3
 for i in range(window//2,img.shape[0]-window//2):
   for j in range(window//2,img.shape[1]-window//2):
      subset = img[i-window//2:i+window//2+1,j-window//2:j+window//2+1]
      if np.mean(subset) >= white threshold:
        num += 1
  return np.asarray([num])
def dark count(img):
 # How many window x window squares have a mean value below the dark threshold?
 window = 3
 for i in range(window//2,img.shape[0]-window//2):
   for j in range(window//2,img.shape[1]-window//2):
      subset = img[i-window//2:i+window//2+1,j-window//2:j+window//2+1]
      if np.mean(subset) <= dark_threshold:
        num += 1
  return np.asarray([num])
```

Figure 7. Domain-Specific Features (Pt. 2). These features include statistical analysis of the light and dark pixels present in the images.

```
# Special: context-based feature engineering stuff
def generate special df(self, imgs,
               filter funcs=[blobdog, blobdoh, bloblog,
                          canny white, laplace white],
               ):
 # Feature engineered features
 # Params:
                  array of images (images are 3D)
 # imgs -
 # filter_funcs - 1D feature generator
 # train -
                 bool for whether generating features for train or test (for PCA)):
 dfs = []
 for func in tqdm(filter funcs):
   features = np.concatenate([func(cv2.split(img)[0]) for img in imgs], axis=0)
   df = pd.DataFrame.from_dict({func.__name__:features})
   dfs.append(df)
 df = pd.concat(dfs,axis=1)
 return df
```

Figure 8. Feature Generator Function for Domain-Specific Features.

```
# PCA: dimensionality reduction of calculate_features
def calculate PCA(self, imgs, func, train=False):
 # Calculates features specified in params
 # imgs - all preprocessed images (images are 3D)
 # func - filter func to calculate PCA for
 # train - bool for whether to call fit_tranform or just transform
 # Returns: feature vector (1D)
 features = np.concatenate([func(cv2.split(img)[0])[0].reshape(1, -1) \ for \ img \ in \ imgs], axis=0)
   pca = PCA(n_components=self.pca_components)
   components = pca.fit_transform(features)
   self.pca_objects[func.__name__] = pca
   components = self.pca_objects[func.__name__].transform(features)
 return components
def generate PCA df(self, imgs,
                  filter_funcs=[calculate_hog, calculate_gabor, calculate_canny,
                              calculate_hessian, calculate_meijering, calculate_laplace],
                 train=False):
 # Top level feature generation that calls the feature generator for each image and stores them in DataFrame w/ labels
 # Params:
                    array of images (images are 3D)
 # filter_funcs - "raw" feature generators (produce 2D matrices the same size as input image)
                   bool for whether generating features for train or test (for PCA)):
 # train -
 dfs = []
 for f in tqdm(filter_funcs):
   components = self.calculate_PCA(imgs,f,train)
   \label{eq:df} \texttt{df = pd.DataFrame.from\_records(components, columns=[f.\_name\_.split("\_")[1]+" \ PCA \ "+str(i) \ for \ i \ in \ range(self.pca\_components)])}
   dfs.append(df)
 df = pd.concat(dfs,axis=1)
 return df
```

Figure 9. Feature Generator Function for Computer Vision Features.

```
filter funcs = [calculate hog16, calculate hog8, calculate hog4,
                calculate canny,
                calculate gabor15, calculate gabor45, calculate gabor75, calculate gabor90,
                calculate_hessian, calculate_meijering, calculate_laplace,
                calculate sobelh, calculate sobelv]
special_funcs = [blobdog, blobdoh, bloblog,
                 canny white, laplace white, hog white, meijering white, hessian white,
                 raw_white, raw_dark, raw_black,
                 raw mean, center mean, left mean, right mean,
                 left first quartile, right first quartile,
                 left_third_quartile, right_third_quartile,
                 light_count, dark_count
******************************
FG = FeatureGenerator(pca components=20)
special_df = FG.generate_special_df(imgs=imgs_train,
                                   filter funcs=special funcs)
pca df = FG.generate PCA df(imgs=imgs train,
                              filter_funcs=filter_funcs,
                              train=True)
```

Figure 10. Feature Generator Instantiation.

```
train_df = pd.concat([pca_df, special_df],axis=1)
scaler = MinMaxScaler()
train_df = normalize_features(train_df, scaler, train=True)
external_features = pd.read_csv(train_labels)
gender = []
age = []
location = []
for 1bl in 1bls filenames:
   image_info_row = external_features[external_features["filename"]==lbl].iloc[0]
   gender.append(image_info_row["gender"])
   age.append(image_info_row["age"])
   location.append(image_info_row["location"])
train_df["gender"] = gender
train_df["gender"]=train_df["gender"].fillna(train_df['gender'].value_counts().index[0])
train_df["age"] = age
train df["age"]=train df["age"].fillna(train df['age'].mean())
train df["location"]=location
train_df["location"]=train_df["location"].fillna("Null Island")
train_df = pd.get_dummies(train_df, prefix=['gender', 'location'], columns=['gender', 'location'])
```

Figure 11. Concatenating Feature DataFrames and Adding Demographic Features.

# (b.ii) (2 points) Feature exploration.

Provide visualizations of the features with respect to the outcome (e.g., overlaying histograms, scatter plots), and quantify associations between the features and the outcome. metric that indicates associations between features and categorical outcome.

We explored conditional entropy,  $\chi^2$ , mutual information between each feature and the outcome, correlation with the outcome, and the Fisher Score to determine which features provided the most information about the outcome.

We find that most features will share a similar range between the two classes. This pattern makes sense when you consider that all of the images are of x-rays and will only have relatively minor variations between positive and negative samples. As we generate 354 features, we will list the top-5 features from each metric and the corresponding histograms for the top feature for each metric (see Table 1). "Location Melbourne, Australia" is not included in the histograms because it's a binary feature. In Figure 12, we show the conditional entropies of each feature to the outcome. Most features provide a significant amount of information about the outcome as evidenced by the number of features with 0 entropy.

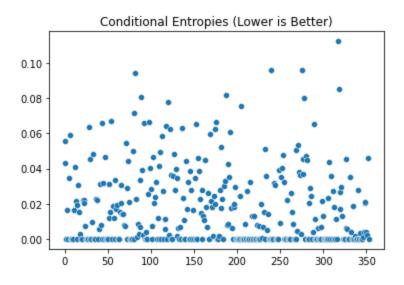


Figure 12. Conditional Entropy of the Generated Features to the Outcomes.

**Table 1. Top 5 Features Per Metric** 

Rank	X <sup>2</sup>	Correlation	Mutual Information	Fisher Score
1	Age	Location Melbourne, Australia	Sobel_V PCA 12	Meijering PCA 7
2	Location Melbourne, Australia	HoG (16,16) PCA 3	Sobel_V PCA 0	HoG (8,8) PCA 3
3	Location Italy	Location Italy	Location Doha, Qatar	Location Hospital Universitario Doctor Peset, Valencia, Spain
4	Location Milan, Italy	HoG (4,4) PCA 1	Gabor (θ=15) PCA 2	HoG (16,16) PCA 1
5	Location Edinburgh, United Kingdom	Gabor (θ=75) PCA 3	HoG (4,4) PCA 11	Gabor (θ=75) PCA 4

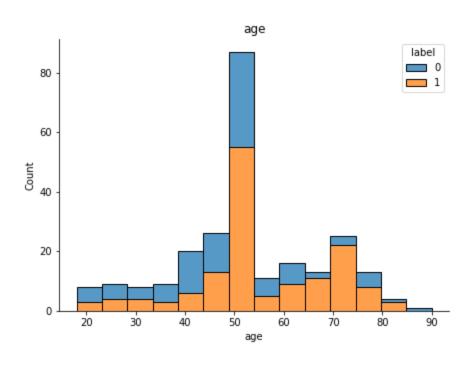


Figure 13. Histogram for the Age Demographic Feature

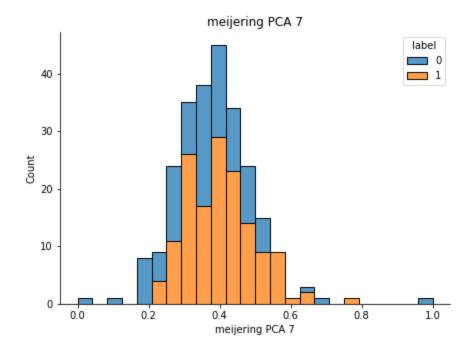


Figure 14. Histogram for the 7th PCA Feature for Meijering Filter

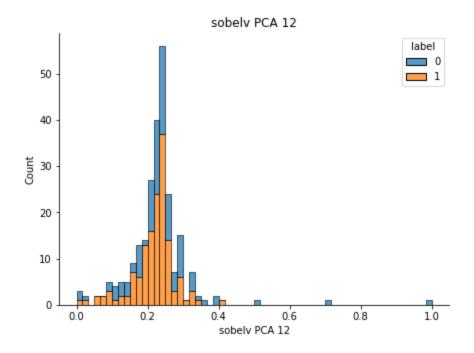


Figure 15. Histogram for the 12th PCA Feature for the Vertical Sobel Filter

# (b.iii) (2 points) Feature selection.

Using the features that you have designed, explore two different feature selection methods of your choice. One method should be part of the **Filter** category and the other should be part of the **Wrapper** category. Using a simple classifier (e.g., SVM, logistic regression), plot the classification performance using a 5-fold cross-validation on the training data against the number of features for both feature selection methods. Compare and contrast between the two (e.g., in terms of performance and computation time).

For the Filter methods, we explored the four metrics detailed in Table 1 with three classifiers, Logistic Regression, SVM, and Decision Tree. For the Wrapper method, we explored sklearn's Recursive Feature Elimination with Cross Validation (RFECV) with an SVM as the base classifier. The filter methods use greedy selection, choosing the features with the best scores for the current metric in steps of 5. The RFECV uses a step of 1.

Depending on the classifier used in the Filter methods, exploring all of the subsets took between 49s and 1 minute and 41s. The highest accuracy was 86.4% from Logistic Regression. The Wrapper method took 8s and got 98.8% accuracy. As such, the Wrapper method outperformed the Filter methods with respect to both time and performance.

The inner performance of the feature selection methods are given in Figures 16-19.

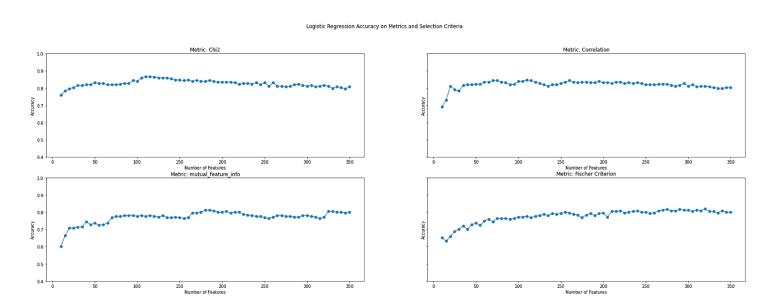


Figure 16. Logistic Regression Filter Method.

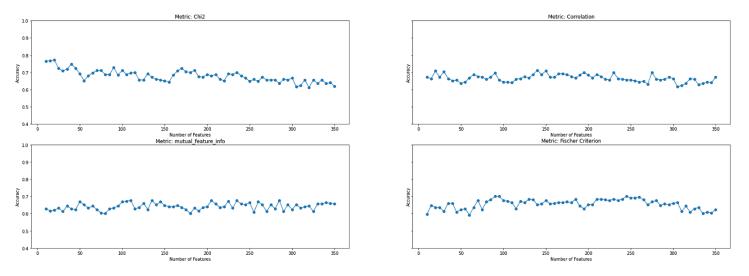


Figure 17. Decision Tree Filter Method.

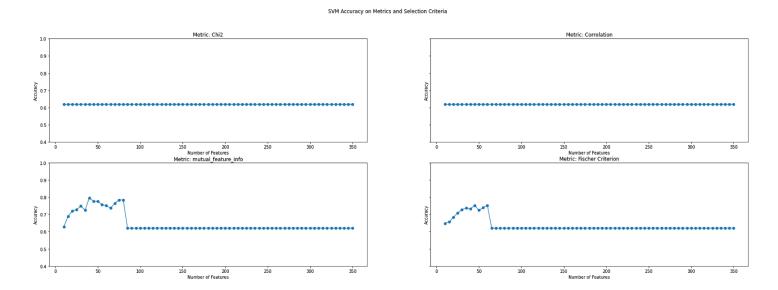


Figure 18. SVM Filter Method.

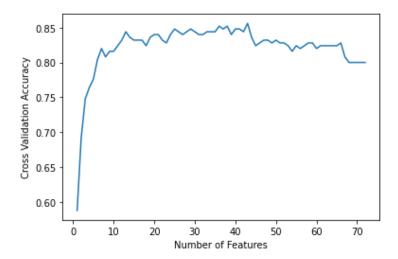


Figure 19. RFECV Feature Selection with SVM as Base Classifier

# (b.iv) (1 point) Ensemble learning.

Using the features that you have designed, employ the Adaboost method to estimate the COVID-19 diagnosis. Report results using a 5-fold cross validation on the training data. Compare the result from Adaboost with the ones from feature selection.

To explore the data using ensemble learning, we used the AdaBoost function pre-defined in the sklearn.ensemble library. We used sklearn's GridSearchCV to find the best values for two parameters, the learning rate and number of estimators, through a 5-fold cross validation hyperparameter tuning. After the best hyperparameters were found, we evaluated the AdaBoost model with no feature selection, the best Filter feature set, and the best Wrapper feature set. These results are given in Table 2.

```
#5-fold CV using best estimators
def cv5(clf, X, y):
  # Runs the classifier with 5-fold stratified CV and prints the average accuracy and confusion matrix
  # Params:
  # clf - sklearn classifier constructor
  # X - 2D feature matrix (get from DataFrame using .values)
  # y - 1D label vector
  y_true = [] # keep track of the true labels
  y pred = [] # keep track of the predictions
  skf = SKFold(n_splits=5)
  for train_index, test_index in tqdm(skf.split(X,y)):
    clf.fit(X[train_index],y[train_index])
    preds = clf.predict(X[test_index])
   acc += metrics.accuracy_score(y_true=y[test_index],y_pred=preds)
   y_true.extend(y[test_index])
   y_pred.extend(preds)
  print("Average Accuracy =",acc/5)
  print(metrics.confusion_matrix(y_true=y_true,y_pred=y_pred))
```

Figure 20. Our Cross-Fold Validation Function

```
# Run GridSearchCV on AdaBoost
param_grid = [{'n_estimators': [50,100,200], 'learning_rate':[0.01,0.1,1, 0.05]}]
gb = GridSearchCV(AdaBoostClassifier(), param_grid=param_grid, cv=5, n_jobs=-1, scoring='accuracy')
gb.fit(train_df[selected_feats],lbls_train)

print("Best Hyperparameters: {}".format(gb.best_params_))
print("Best score on the training set is {}".format(gb.best_score_))
model = gb.best_estimator_

cv5(model, train_df[all_features].values, lbls_train, None, False)
cv5(model, train_df[selected_feats].values, lbls_train, None, False)
cv5(model, train_df[selected_feats2].values, lbls_train, None, False)
```

Figure 21. Finding the Ideal Hyperparameters for AdaBoost and running the resulting best model with the different feature selection options

In general, AdaBooost performed worse than the models we have previously tested. The accuracy regardless of feature selection method was much lower than basic Logistic Regression with selected features. However, within the three tested options tested, the most accurate AdaBoost model version used the Wrapper (RFECV) feature set which had also had the highest performance during the feature selection phase.

**Table 2. Ensemble Learning Results** 

Model	Feature Selection	Accuracy
	None	74%
AdaBoost	Filter (Log. Reg.)	74.4%
	Wrapper (RFECV)	78%

# (c) (2 points) Improving performance:

Use any type of machine learning algorithm or feature design to improve the performance of your system. Describe your proposed approach and report the performance using a 5-fold cross-validation on the training data.

We tested various combinations of the two feature selection methods and different models we developed (see above for details) to find the model-feature combination with the best performance. We looked at three models, Random Forests, Linear SVM, and a Multi-Layer Perceptron. Each of these models uses the sklearn implementation. We looked at the each model's performance with no feature selection (all 354 features-both extracted and provided), the features selected through a filter using the  $\chi^2$  criterion judged on Logistic Regression and features selected through an RFECV Wrapper.

**Table 3. Ensemble Learning Results** 

Model	Feature Selection	Accuracy	
	None	70.8%	
Random Forest (# trees = 100)	Filter (Log. Reg.)	73.6%	
	Wrapper (RFECV)	73.6%	
	None	82.8%	
Linear SVM	Filter (Log. Reg.)	87.7%	
	Wrapper (RFECV)	95.6%	
	None	83.6%	
Multilayer Perceptron (1 hidden layer, 200 nodes)	Filter (Log. Reg.)	82%	
	Wrapper (RFECV)	90.4%	

# (d) (2 Bonus points)

Select the **two** models that you believe that work best and are the most generalizable. Apply these models on the testing data. Provide the decisions in a csv file that includes three columns (in the provided order): test filename, model 1 decision, model 2 decision. The three teams that achieve the best performance will get 2 bonus points. Note: Please do not provide more than two models.

While our model in Table 3 achieved high accuracy on the training set, the feature set has room for improvement with respect to generalizability. Some of our engineered features could cause the data to overfit, e.g., the location where the x-ray was taken.

**Model 1**: Linear SVM with only computer vision features (i.e., no engineered features or demographic information). This model had an accuracy of 76% on the training set with 65 features selected by a filter method.

**Model 2**: Linear SVM with computer vision features with lower dimensionality PCA (pca\_components=10) and a reduced subset of our engineered features that were more likely to generalize. This model achieved 79.2% accuracy on the training set with 46 features selected by RFECV.

Our predictions are given in the file **test\_predictions.csv** (attached). The columns are:

- filename the name of the image in the test set
- predict1 negative/positive prediction (0/1) for Model 1
- predict2 negative/positive prediction (0/1) for Model 2

# (e) (2 points + 1 Bonus point) Elevator pitch video.

Prepare a 45 sec video to describe your work and results. In your elevator pitch, you have to attract the interest of your audience, so that they want to listen to more details on your presentation. You can use any type of visuals that you would like. Please upload your video on any type of social media (e.g., YouTube, TikTok) and provide the url in your final report. You will be also sending us the url of the video before the day that you are presenting in class, so that we can show it everyone! We will send you a reminder regarding this. Note: The elevator pitch will be presented in beginning of the class on 11/20 and 11/23. The best videos, as voted by the rest of the class, will get 1 bonus point. Note: You can use a private link if you would like.

Our video is available on YouTube at : https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NXduXrBpuEI

### (f) (2 points) E-poster.

Create an e-poster presentation of your work. The e-poster will give the main gist of your work, including the problem statement, your methodology, and the main results from your experiments. Add visuals to your poster so that people understand the main concepts. Do not make your e-poster too crowded, since you want other people to be able to see through the screen projection. You can find here the link to prepare your poster presentation https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1RwJbhkCA58&feature=youtu.be. Note: Each team will be assigned to a Zoom link. Zoom links will be available to everyone in the class. The teams that are not presenting in the current day will log in to discuss your e-poster presentation. All members of the team need to be present during the presentation.

Our poster is included in this report in Figure 22 and attached as its own file, Team10\_Poster.pdf.

#### [1] Chandra, T. B., Verma, K., Singh, B. K., Jain, D., & Netam, S. S. (2021). Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) detection in Chest X-Ray images using majority voting based classifier ensemble. Expert systems with applications, 165, 113909. [3] Mayo Clinic. Chest X-ray. Last accessed Nov. 21, 2020. Available: https://www.mayoclinic.org/lests-procedures/chest-x-rays/multimedia/chest-x-rays/img-20 006967. w/ Feature Selection w/ Feature Selection [2] Parekh, M., Donuru, A., Balasubramanya, R., & Kapur, S., (2020). Review of the Chest CT Differential Diagnosis of Ground-Glass Opacities in the COVID Era. Radiology, 297(3), E289–E302. https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.2020202504 0.816 0.776 0.948 0.956 0.800 0.828 0.956 Sanjeevani Choudhery, Samantha Ray, Sournav Bhattacharya, Rohan Singh Wilkho, and Mounika Kunduru 5-Fold Cross Validation Accuracy w/o Feature Selection w/o Feature Selection 0.744 0.736 Best Performing Model: SVM 0.824 0.708 0.688 0.820 Standard Computer Vision Standard Computer Vision Standard Computer Vision (hidden layer size = 200) Multilayer Perceptron Demographic Features Random Forest (n\_estimators = 100) (n estimators = 200) Level-Up Lungs: Identifying COVID-19 Infected Lungs Using Machine Learning Domain-Knowledge Domain-Knowledge (kernel = linear) Features Only Feature Subset AdaBoost Features Features Features Features Model SVM References Feature Selection RFECV with SVC linear kernel Accuracy: 0.98 with 79 selected features using SVC Time: < 1 minute total with</li> 8 Wrapper Method PCA · ·> GPU acceleration Selecting the Best Features And all the other features generated C. Gabor chi-squared, mutual information Metrics Tested: correlation with with the target variable, 0.70 0.85 0.80 0.75 0.65 090 Accuracy: 86% with ~200 features based on Chi-Square Time: ~ 3 minutes to run each gain, and Fisher's criterion. Filter Method metrics with 5-Fold CV Important Feature Categories Selected Percentages Light/Dark Patch B. Hessian Blob Count -Difference of E. Laplace Gaussian Pixel Value Location Hessian Laplace Counts Canny Gabor Sobel • HoG A. Canny D. HoG Motivation: Given lung X-rays and patient demographics (gender, location and age), we can predict with 95.6% accuracy in 5-fold cross validation whether the patient has COVID-19. Note: These are inferences made by computer science students, not medical professionals Domain-Knowledge Features Edge Detection Ratio Pixel Value Statistics (Mean, 1st and 3rd Quartile, through with clear lungs. Healthy Patient X-Ray [1] samos puno Blob Counts Light/Dark Patch Counts Light/Dark Percentage) Dense matter shows up as white in x-rays, i.e., bones, certain organs such as the heart, and abnormalities in the lungs. Dark backgr Preprocessing: Dilate, Erode, and Sharpen These preprocessing steps standardize the inputs and make important features clearer Making it Black and White Edge Detection: Canny, Hessian, Meijering, Laplace, Sobel (Horizontal and Vertical) Histogram of Gradients (HoG) Gabor Filter with various values for theta Standard Computer Vision **Processing Pipeline** COVID-19 Patient X-Ray [1] lungs makes X-ray "blurry". White dense residue in Original Image Cropped and Resized to 200x200 Is It COVID-19? Features

Figure 22. Team 10's Poster.

# (g) (1 point) Reporting other teams' work.

During the day that your team is not presenting, your will go around the posters of the teams that are presenting and report the main findings of the other teams. In the final report, provide a brief description of the work and main results from 8 other teams.

We attended the poster sessions of the 10 teams presenting on Friday. Our notes are compiled in Table 4.

**Table 4. Even Number Teams' Posters** 

	Table 4. Even Number Teams Posters						
Team #	Best Model	Accuracy	Technique Notes				
1	ResNet-18	72%	Used HoG, Gabor, Horizontal/Vertical Edge Detection, Pixel Value, Mean Pixel Value				
3	Linear SVM	92.5%	Feature selection: RFECV. They explored several ML models and used standard computer vision features, e.g., HoG				
5	VGG19	~85%	Pipeline: Preprocess images, VGG19 feature extraction, then Logistic Regression				
7	SVM	82.04%	SVM Feature Extraction, VGG16 features extraction with ImageNet pretraining, followed by their own final classifier trained using 200 epochs				
9	CNN	71.2%	They used HoG, ORB, SIFT, and SURF features. Their poster didn't contain a lot of detail.				
11	SVM	82.4%	Features: HoG. Feature Selection: Fischer Score. Then they passed these features into an RFECV SVM.				
13	Random Forest	77.5%	They preprocessed their images to 128x128 and used HoG features. They tried transfer learning with VGG16, but Random Forest with a Wrapper feature selection method.				
15	CNN	91.6%	Features: Grayscale, Mean Pixel, Horizontal/Vertical Edge Detection, HoG. Feature Dimensionality Reduction: PCA. They tried AdaBoost and CNN				
17	CNN	85%	Features: Gabor, HoG, Horizontal/Vertical Edge Detection. Feature Selection: SVM Wrapper				
19	Pretrained DenseNet on ChexNet	77%	Features: Gabor, HoG, Sobel Edge Detection, Prewitt Edge Detection. The main models they tested are AdaBoost and CNN				