

UNIVERSITY OF ZAGREB
FACULTY ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING AND COMPUTING

MASTER THESIS nu. 1382

Image Based Phylogenetic Classification

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Zagreb, lipanj 2017.

Umjesto ove stranice umetnite izvornik Vašeg rada.

Da bi ste uklonili ovu stranicu obrišite naredbu \izvornik.

Thank you...

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1. Introduction

Since the dawn of time, people have tried to explain their surroundings. Life is all around us in many forms, and as such people have tried to categorize it by keen observation, both through its visual and genetic features. Today, it is organised into a taxonomic hierarchy of eight major taxonomic ranks. The number of known species on Earth is in the millions and climbing every year. Great numbers of species make it difficult to classify them only based on images and often requires domain knowledge. Therefore, an algorithm with the capability to classify species on the field or from an image using only the image itself could provide great benefits for field researches.

Machine learning allows computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed (Samuel). It, together with an increase in available quality data (CIFAR, Imagenet, Kaggle) has yielded great results in the area of deep learning - a class of machine learning algorithms. Deep learning algorithm's accuracy scales with the amount of data used by the algorithm, that together with the improvements in hardware - mainly general purpose graphic units (GPUs) - has yielded significant performance gains in the last couple of years. One of the most rapidly advancing field of deep learning is image recognition (Krizhevsky et al.; Simonyan i Zisserman; Szegedy et al.; He et al., a) with new neural network architectures being developed almost at a yearly basis. The performance of deep neural networks on image recognition has achieved results previously thought impossible.

In this thesis I propose a solution for a scalable classification of species from images, based on convolution neural networks and recent modern deep learning techniques.

2. Research context

To fully understand the depth of the image recognition using deep learning, we need a better understand of the underlying algorithms and methods in machine learning, as well as fundamental terms and concepts. In the next section, an introduction of basic terms is given, followed by a detailed explanation of fundamental machine learning algorithms.

2.1. Definitions and notation

2.1.1. Image representation

Matrix is a rectangular array of numbers. It is used because some numbers are naturally represented as matrices. Matrix A with m rows and n columns often written as $m \times n$ has $m * n$ elements and is denoted as $A_{m,n}$. Elements are denoted as $a_{i,j}$ where i and j correspond to the row and column number respectively, as shown in 2.1.

$$A_{m,n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \cdots & a_{1,n} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \cdots & a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m,1} & a_{m,2} & \cdots & a_{m,n} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

Each image is represented as a 3 dimensional matrix. One pixel in the image represent a single element in the matrix and as images have multiple channels (RGB) each channel is a 2 dimensional matrix. Image I denoted as $I_{k,m,n}$ where $k \in [0, 2]$ represent the channel - red, green or blue - and $m, n \in [0, 255]$ represent the pixel intensities in a particular channel as 2 dimensional matrices. Figure 2.1 shows a representation of an image as a 3 dimensional matrix where each pixel is denote as $I_{k,m,n}$.

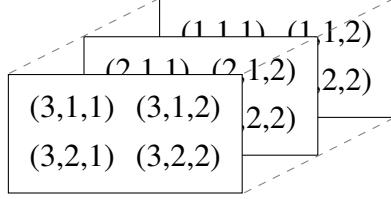


Figure 2.1: RGB image with 4 pixels represented as a 3 dimensional matrix

2.1.2. Gradient

A gradient is a generalization of the derivative in multi-variable space and as such it is represented as a vector. Like the derivative, it represents the slope of the tangent of the graph of the function. Therefore, it points in the direction of the greatest rate of increase of the function. Gradients are widely used in optimization theory as they allow the parameters to shift in a direction which will minimize or maximize a given function. In machine learning the function we want to minimize will be the loss function, which we will define in further chapters in more detail. Gradient of f is denoted as ∇f , where every component of ∇f is a partial derivative of f , denoted as $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \vec{e}$. Notice that gradient components are vectors denoted as \vec{e} . Every vector is written with an horizontal arrow above the letter - \vec{a} . The gradient for a n dimensional space is defined in 2.2.

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \vec{e}_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \vec{e}_n \quad (2.2)$$

2.1.3. Activation functions

Machine learning models use nonlinear functions to gain more capacity - expressiveness . The most popular nonlinear functions are *sigmoid*, *tanh*, *relu*. All nonlinear functions have to have easy to compute gradients, as they are computed on parameters in order to reduce loss as explained above.

$$\text{sigmoid}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \quad (2.3)$$

$$\tanh(x) = \frac{1 - e^{-2x}}{1 + e^{-2}} \quad (2.4)$$

$$\text{relu}(x) = \max(0, x) \quad (2.5)$$

The order of nonlinear functions is given in order of their discoveries. Today *relu* is used the most, since it solves the problem of vanishing gradients for very deep neural networks, this does not apply to all network types. Recurrent neural networks (RNN)

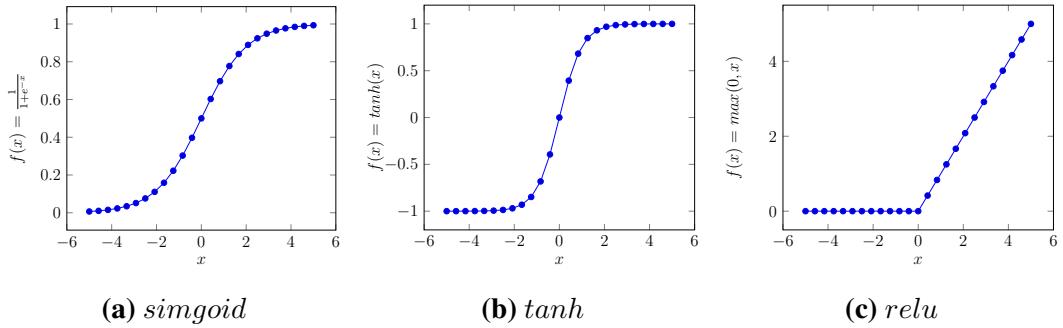


Figure 2.2: Nonlinear activation functions

are a class of neural networks that often use \tanh as it is better suited for the particular recurrent architecture.

2.1.4. Metrics

In order to compare different models a set of metrics is employed. Accuracy which gives the accuracy of a model, it is often used on balance datasets (2.6). The problem with unbalanced datasets can be easily explained with a short example. Image having 2 classes $K = \{\text{dog, cat}\}$ and there are a total of 100 images in the dataset, of which only 2 are dogs. The model if optimized for accuracy might say the whole dataset is cats which will yield an accuracy of 98%. To solve the previous problem, additional metrics were introduced for the task of classification; precision (2.7), recall (2.8) and F1 score (2.9). Precision - positive predictive value - is defined as a fraction of retrieved instances that are relevant. Recall - sensitivity - is a fraction of relevant instances that are retrieved. In order to represent the performance of a model as a single variable F1 score was introduced, it represents a harmonic mean of recall and precision.

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{tp + tn}{tp + tn + fp + fn} \quad (2.6)$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{tp}{tp + fp} \quad (2.7)$$

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{tp}{tp + fn} \quad (2.8)$$

$$F1score = 2 * \frac{\text{precision} * \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}} \quad (2.9)$$

Classification results are often represented as a confusion matrix, also known as an error matrix. It is a performance visualisation of a classification model - classifier.

Table 2.1: Confusion matrix

	predicton positive	prediction negative
actual positive	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
actual negative	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

To build the classification matrix, conditions of the experiment must be labelled as positive and negative. Using the cats and dogs example from before and marking the cats and a positive and dogs as a negative class. Doing so creates a 2×2 matrix of actual and predicted values as shown in table 2.1.

2.1.5. Data

The input data of the machine learning algorithm is labelled as D , and it consists of X and y_t , where X is one input data point (an image in our case) and y_t is the true label of the picture - species' name. Written formally the whole input dataset is represented as $D = \{X^i, y^i\}_{i=1}^N$, where i is the i -th data point and N in the number of data points. Prediction of the algorithm is labelled as y_p .

The input data set is usually split into two datasets called the *training* a *test* dataset. The training dataset is used to optimize them models parameters while the test data is used to evaluate the model's performance. Sometimes the training dataset is split further into training and *validation* where the validation dataset is used to tune the models *hyperparameters*. Hyperparameters are parameters that do not belong to the model but non the less effect the model's performance. Depth of the neural network is a hyperparameter and will be discussed in later chapters in more detail.

2.2. Machine learning

As said in the Introduction chapter, machine learning allows computers the ability to learn. Giving data to a machine learning algorithm - model - allows it to find patterns within the dataset. The function that maps the input X to y_p is called a *hypothesis* and is denoted as h (2.10). The hypothesis $h(X; \vec{\theta})$ is parametrized with $\vec{\theta}$ - model's parameters.

$$h(X; \vec{\theta}) : X \rightarrow y \quad (2.10)$$

The model is defined as a set of hypotheses H , $h \in H$. Machine learning is the

search of the best hypothesis h from the hypothesis space H - typical optimization problem. The algorithm tries to minimize the empirical error function $E(h|D)$ - loss function. The error indicates the accuracy of the hypothesis and is called empirical because it is computed on D . Therefore, every machine learning algorithm is defined with the model (2.11), error function (2.12) and the optimization method (2.13).

$$H = \{h(X; \vec{\theta})\}_{\theta} \quad (2.11)$$

$$E(h|D) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I\{h(X^i) \neq y^i\} \quad (2.12)$$

$$\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} E(\theta|D) \quad (2.13)$$

Machine learning algorithms are divided into groups depending on the task, the groups are classification and regression. Each can be represented as a result of $h(X; \vec{\theta})$. Classification hypothesis takes the input X and returns a class k , example of this method would be image classification. Regression hypothesis takes the input X and returns a number, for example predicting house prices.

$$\text{Regression} \equiv h(X; \vec{\theta}) : X \rightarrow y, y \in \mathbb{R} \quad (2.14)$$

$$\text{Classification} \equiv h(X; \vec{\theta}) : X \rightarrow y, y \in K = \{k_0, \dots, k_n\} \quad (2.15)$$

In this chapter we mentioned that machine learning algorithms are trained by minimizing the empirical loss, and in the subsection 2.1.5 we mentioned the idea of having a training and test set. The goal of the machine learning model is to have good generalization - the ability to perform well on never before seen data X . The training set X_{train} is used by the optimization algorithm to tune the model's parameters, while the test set X_{test} is used to evaluate the generalization performance of the model. If the optimization algorithm does not know when to stop it can learn the whole training set and be able to predict every value, this is called overfitting and it is to be avoided. When the model overfits, it learns to predict based on the data points in X_{train} instead of learning the underlying patterns in X_{train} , which in turn leads to poor generalization performance. This is commonly seen in models with high capacity. On the other hand, if the model has low capacity, it will under-perform - work below its potential. That is referred to as underfitting. The goal is to find the optimal spot of the model's performance - between underfitting and overfitting. This behavior can be seen in figure 2.3.

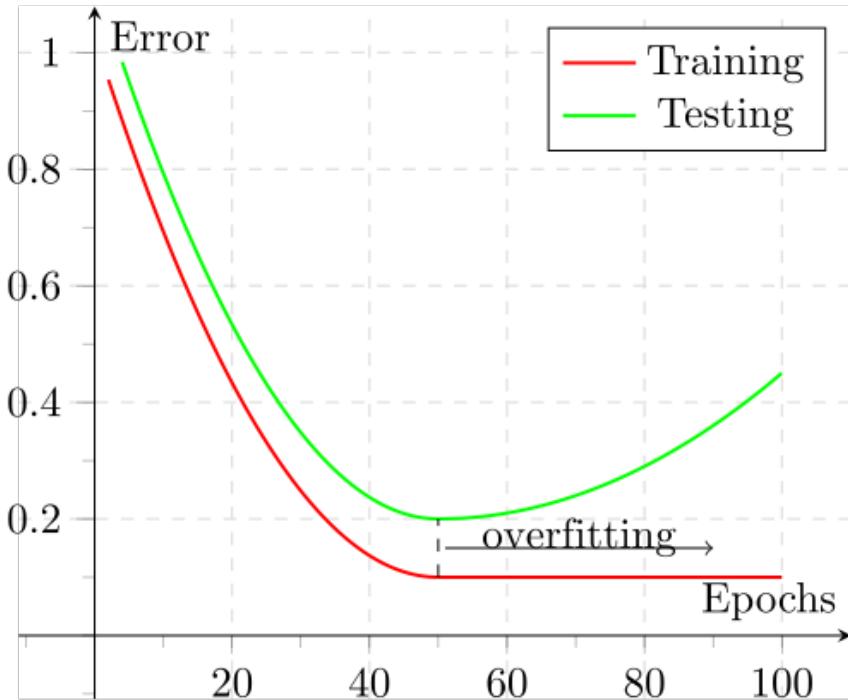


Figure 2.3: Performance of a model with time using training and test set

The x-axis shows the number of training epochs - each epoch increases the capacity of the model. We see that the training error E_{train} is falling asymptotically towards zero while the generalization performance starts to fall certain a point (50 epochs). The ideal situation for the model is to stop the training when the model starts to overfit, which is not that easy as we will see in the future chapters.

One way to combat overfitting is by early stopping during training. Another, more popular way is to use regularization. Regularization is a technique for increasing the generalization performance of the model. There is a broad set of regularization techniques used in machine learning models. Some of the most popular for artificial neural networks are called dropout (Srivastava et al.) and data augmentation, both of which will be explained in more detail in future chapters (subsections 2.3.2 and 2.3.3). Regularization techniques usually add additional components to the loss function in order to prevent the model from learning to map X_{train} to y_{train} directly.

2.2.1. Supervised and unsupervised learning

For the model to be trained it needs data D which is defined as $\{X^i, y^i\}_{i=1}^N$. Unfortunately, y is not always available. In such cases, the model can still use only X to infer and that is called unsupervised learning. When the model uses both the data

points X and labels y it is called supervised learning. Classification and regression are both cases of supervised learning. Cluster analysis or more commonly called clustering is a type of unsupervised learning. In clustering the model tries to group a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group are more similar based on a certain metric. The groups are called clusters. Some algorithms need the number of clusters to be predefined, while others discern it by themselves. As the topic of this thesis is classification, in following chapters supervised learning methods will be explained in more detail.

2.2.2. Artificial neural network (ANN)

One of the most interesting models in machine learning, with a diverse set of variations are artificial neural network (ANN). The computational model based on mathematics for neural networks was first introduced in 1943 by Warren McCulloch and Walter Pitts (McCulloch i Pitts) called threshold logic. Later on in 1951 a influential paper was published by S. C. Kleene on linking neural networks to finite state automata (Kleene). Artificial neural networks are based on a large collection of small computational units called neurons (figure 2.5). The architecture was inspired by axons (2.4) from our biological brains. The idea is that even though a single neuron does not have the capacity to express complicated levels of abstractions - neurons together can. Neurons are connect in order to transfer signals. If a neuron receives a strong enough signal it becomes activated and propagates the received signal toward his output. Just propagating the signal would not be of benefits, as the single would not transform while passing through the network, therefore non linear activation functions, as explained in subsection 2.1.3, are added to each output of a neuron.

One of the most popular ANN architectures are feed-forward networks (FFN), sometimes also referred to as fully-connected or dense. They are called feed-forward because the data X enters at one side of the network (the input layer) and exits at the other end (output layer). Neurons are grouped into layers, and layers make an artificial neural network. The first layer is called an input layer, the last layer is called the output layer and everything in between are called hidden layers. The network is called fully-connected because each neuron in the hidden and output layers are connected with every neuron of the previous layer as seen in figure 2.6. Each neuron consists of connections, bias and activation function. Each connection has a weight that singles the importance of the connection to the neuron. To get the net output of the neuron we multiple the input vector \vec{x} with the weight vector \vec{w} . As the bias (commonly denoted

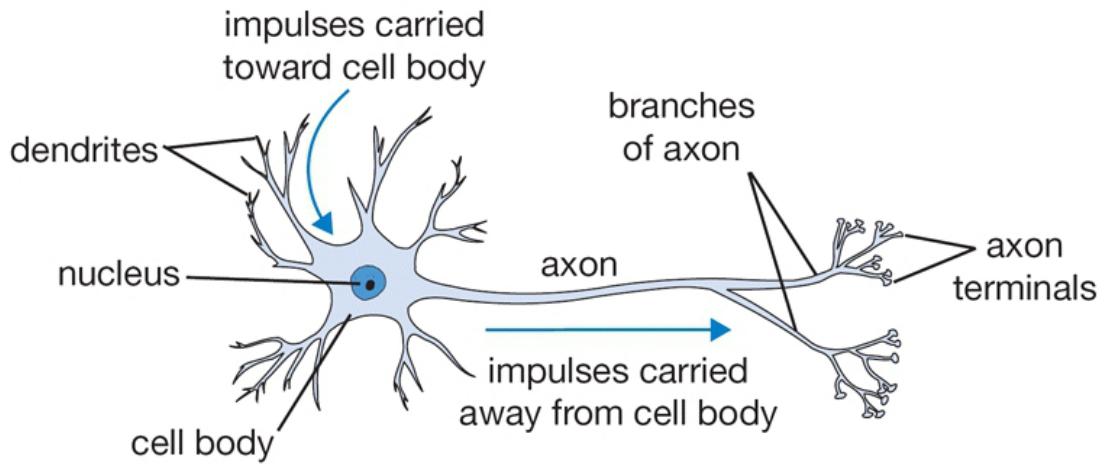


Figure 2.4: Neuron cell in a biological brain.

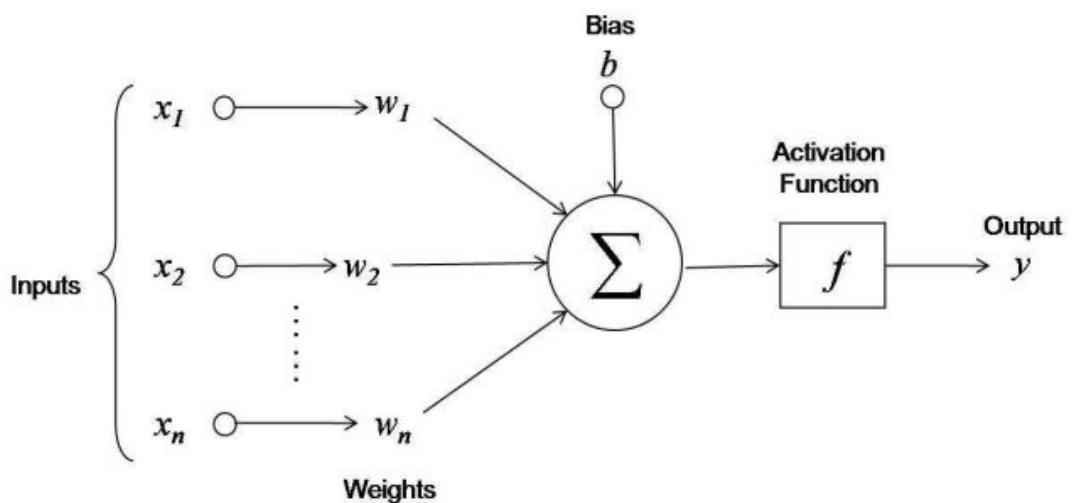


Figure 2.5: Artificial neuron cell.

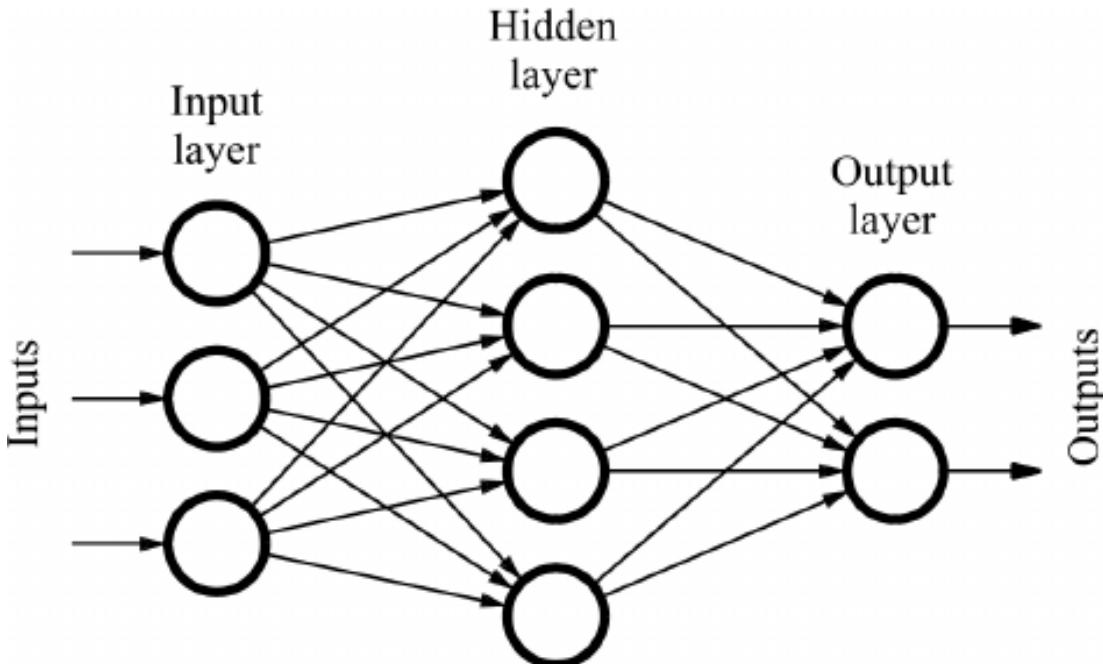


Figure 2.6: Feed-forward neural network

with w_0 or b), does not have an input of its own, we assigned x_0 to 1 so we can to a vector multiplication (2.16). To get the final output y of the neuron, the activation function f is applied to the *net* output, as shown in 2.17). computational model of the artificial neuron can bee seen in the figure 2.5.

$$net = 1 * w_0 + w_1 * x_1 + \dots + w_n * x_n = \vec{x} * \vec{w} \quad (2.16)$$

$$y = f(net) = f(\vec{x} * \vec{w}) \quad (2.17)$$

Artificial neuron networks have the ability to adjust their capacity to the task. Adjusting the number of neurons in a single layer, the number of hidden layers or the type of activation function used in each neuron affects the capacity of the ANN. Such flexibility also leads to a broad number of architectures, and there is no clear way to determine which one suits best. It is often left to the user to test a broad variety of architectures. Looking at the figure 2.6 we can see that the number of neurons in the input layer matches the input size, this is true also for the output layer. Therefore, when designing an ANN the size of input and output layers are determined by the task and the number of hidden layers by the user.

2.3. Deep learning

Deep learning is a class - subset - of machine learning algorithms. Even though, deep learning may be connect to using "deep" neural networks - neural networks with many layers - it was created as a subset of machine learning that promised the automation of feature extraction task by using unsupervised learning. Unsupervised feature extraction and feature representation is done through a cascade of many nonlinear layers, each of which contains artificial neurons.

Visual recognition is one of the fields that is most affected by improvements in deep learning. It's difficult and time consuming to build hand crafted features for each visual recognition problem. Deep learning allows the user to use raw images without any preprocessing - making it applicable with ease to almost any task.

Deep learning algorithms consist of enormous numbers of artificial neurons (hundreds of millions), therefore training them is computational expensive. Recent breakthroughs in deep learning were driven by advances in hardware - graphics processing unit (GPUs). GPUs are made of a lot of processor unites, making them ideal for highly concurrent tasks. Neural networks are easily trained concurrently because of their composite structure and a special training algorithm called stochastic backpropagation (discussed in detail in subsection 2.3.4), commonly referred to as backprop.

2.3.1. Convolutional neural Network (CNN / ConvNet)

Convolutional neural network is a type of feed-forward network that was inspired by the organization of animal's visual cortex. They are used in recommender systems, natural language processing and image recognition. The architecture was inspired by the works of Hubel and Wiesel in 1950s and 60s (Hubel i Wiesel), their work showed that animal's visual cortex contains neurons that individually responds to small regions in the visual field. Their experiments showed that neighbourhood neurons had similar receptive fields.

The necognitron was introduced in 1980s by Kunihiko Fukushima (Fukushima i Miyake; Fukushima) and served as an inspiration for today's modern convolutional neural network architecture. The necognitron is a hierarchical multilayered artificial neuron network. It was used for handwritten character recognition, which belongs in the domain of image recognition.

Today's modern convolutional neural network architectures, such as: AlexNet, VGG, Inception and ResNet (Krizhevsky et al.; Simonyan i Zisserman; Szegedy et al.;

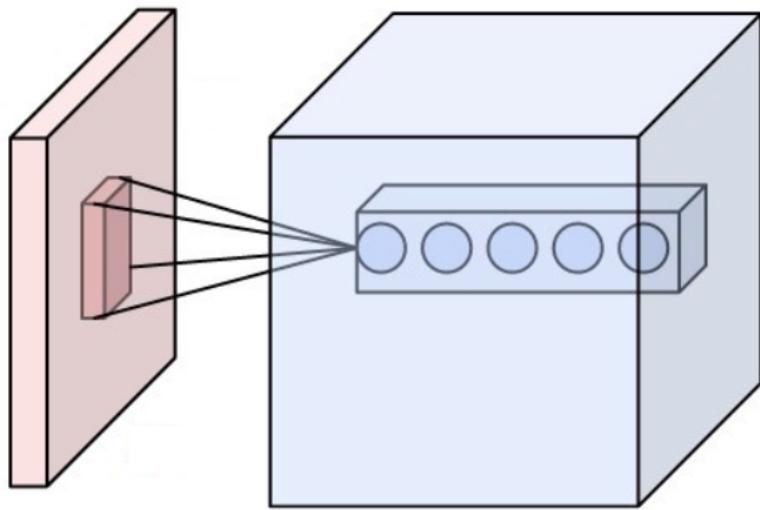


Figure 2.7: 3D structure of a convolutional filter (on the left painted in pink is the input and the blue rectangle with circle is a filter)

He et al., a) are made mostly of convolution and pooling layers. These architecture have an enormous number of parameters and are trained on powerful GPUs or clusters of servers over a period of days, sometimes even weeks.

The convolution layer is a building block of modern CNNs. The layer's parameters consist of a set of kernels (filters). Each filter has a small receptive field, but extends through the whole depth of the input. During the forward pass of the input through the network, each filter is convolved across the width and height of the input volume. Each time the filter moves to neighbourhood pixels it creates an output pixel (shown in figures 2.7 and 2.8). Each convolutional layer consists of multiple filters, each specialized (because of training) to detect different features in the input. Filters will detect diagonal edges, top edges, corners, etc. Each filter will use the features of the previous layer to create more abstract features. For example, a filter in the first layer might capture edges, while filters in deeper layers may use the edge filters to create corner and circle detectors (shown in detail in figure 2.9) (Simonyan i Zisserman).

The second core layer of almost every modern CNN is the pooling layer. It, in contrast to the convolution layer, does not have any parameters. Pooling layer takes the input and reduces its dimension. CNNs use max pooling, which maps the input into a reduced output by taking only the max values in the mapping (showed in figure 2.10). Use of pooling layer is a heated topic in today's CNN architectures, unfortunately hardware can't keep up with the depth of the modern architectures without the use of pooling layers.

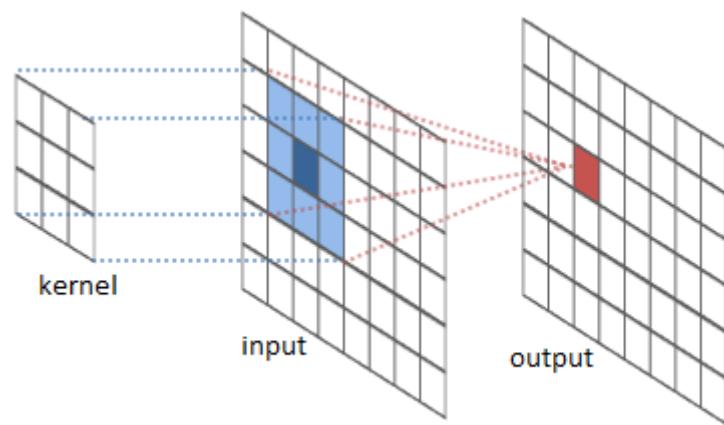


Figure 2.8: A 3x3 kernel (filter) convolving and input to generate an output

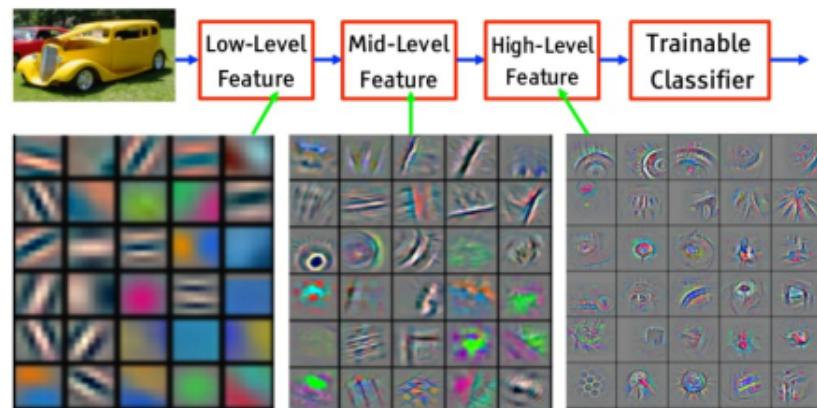


Figure 2.9: Representation of filters through the CNN

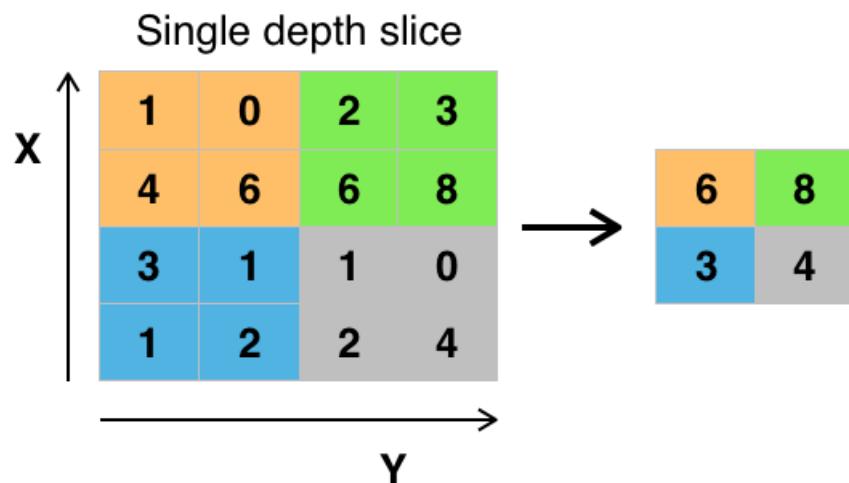


Figure 2.10: Max pooling a 4x4 input to 2x2

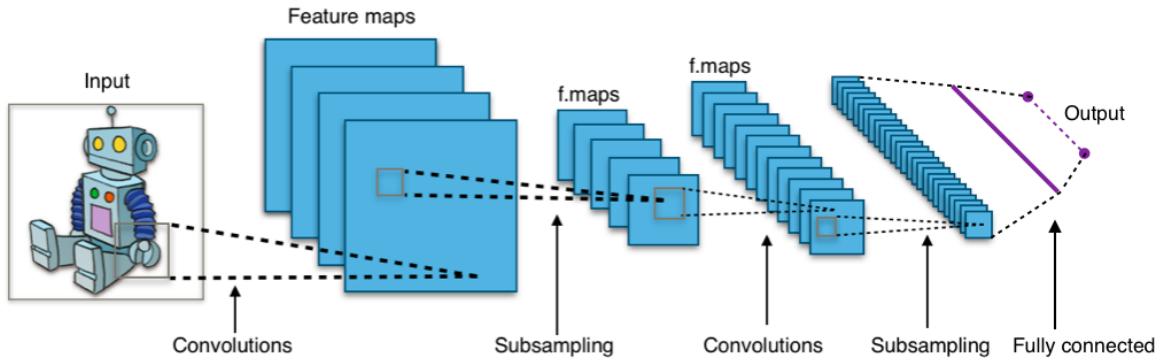


Figure 2.11: Typical modern CNN

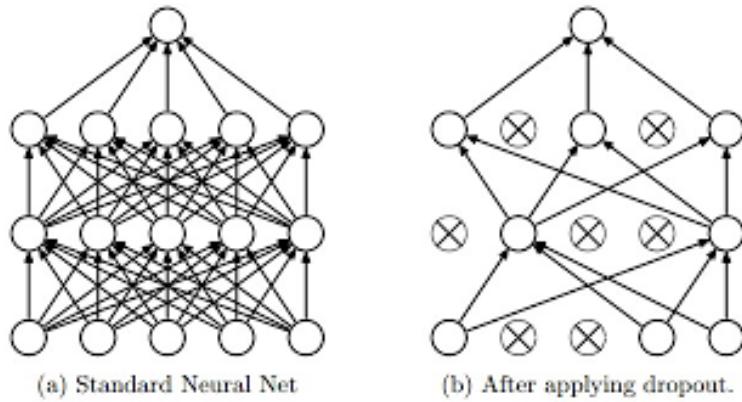


Figure 2.12: An example of the dropout technique

The typical structure in a CNN network will be a couple of convolution layers followed by a max pool layer. The most common dimension of convolution filters is 3x3, made popular by the huge success of VGG (Simonyan i Zisserman). The typical CNN is shown in figure 2.11.

2.3.2. Dropout

One of the most important techniques in machine learning is regularization (subsection 2.2). The modern approach to regularization is called dropout and was introduced in 2014 (Srivastava et al.). Dropout "drops" (removes) a percent of neurons on every forward pass (figure 2.12). The network cannot count that the same neurons will always be active and, as a result it increases the robustness of the model together with its generalization performance. As in every forward pass, the network has a different set of neurons, this technique can be seen as using multiple variations of the same network on the same problem.

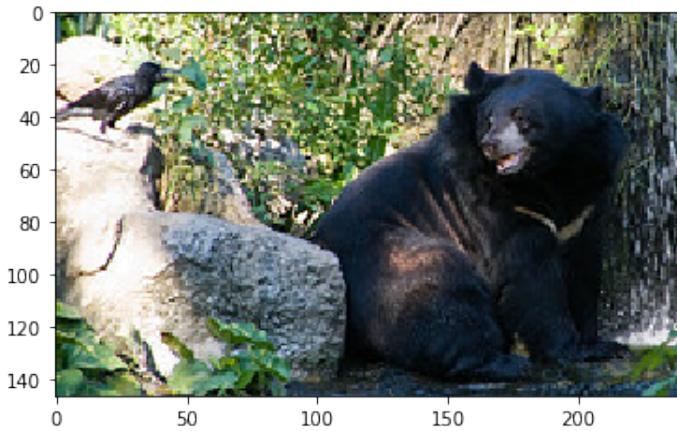


Figure 2.13: An example of the original image $224 \times 224 \times 3$ in X_{train}

2.3.3. Data augmentation

Another popular regularization technique is called data augmentation. The model usually trains in tens or even hundreds of epochs - a signal epoch is when the training algorithm uses every data point in X_{train} (one pass over X_{train}). Reusing the same data points can lead to overfitting. To prevent that we can augment X_{train} on every epoch. This approach is commonly called data jittering. Usually the data is augmented with rotation, mirroring, cropping, blurring (all these effects can be seen in figures 2.13 and 2.14). Both, dropout and data augmentation is used in almost every state-of-the-art CNN model today. There are some exceptions due to a new technique called batch normalization (Ioffe i Szegedy).

2.3.4. Backpropagation

To be able to train the convolution neural network on huge datasets, we need an algorithm that allows us to train the model with a subset of X_{train} . Fitting the whole X_{train} in the GPU memory is not possible for datasets of serious size. Also, the algorithm should be highly concurrent in order to use the structure of neural network to its advantage. The backward propagation of errors or more commonly called backpropagation (backprop) used together with gradient descent is the most popular method for training most neural networks.

Gradient descent

Gradient descent is an iterative optimization algorithm. It uses the gradient 2.1.2 of a function find a point on a domain that minimises or maximises the function's value.

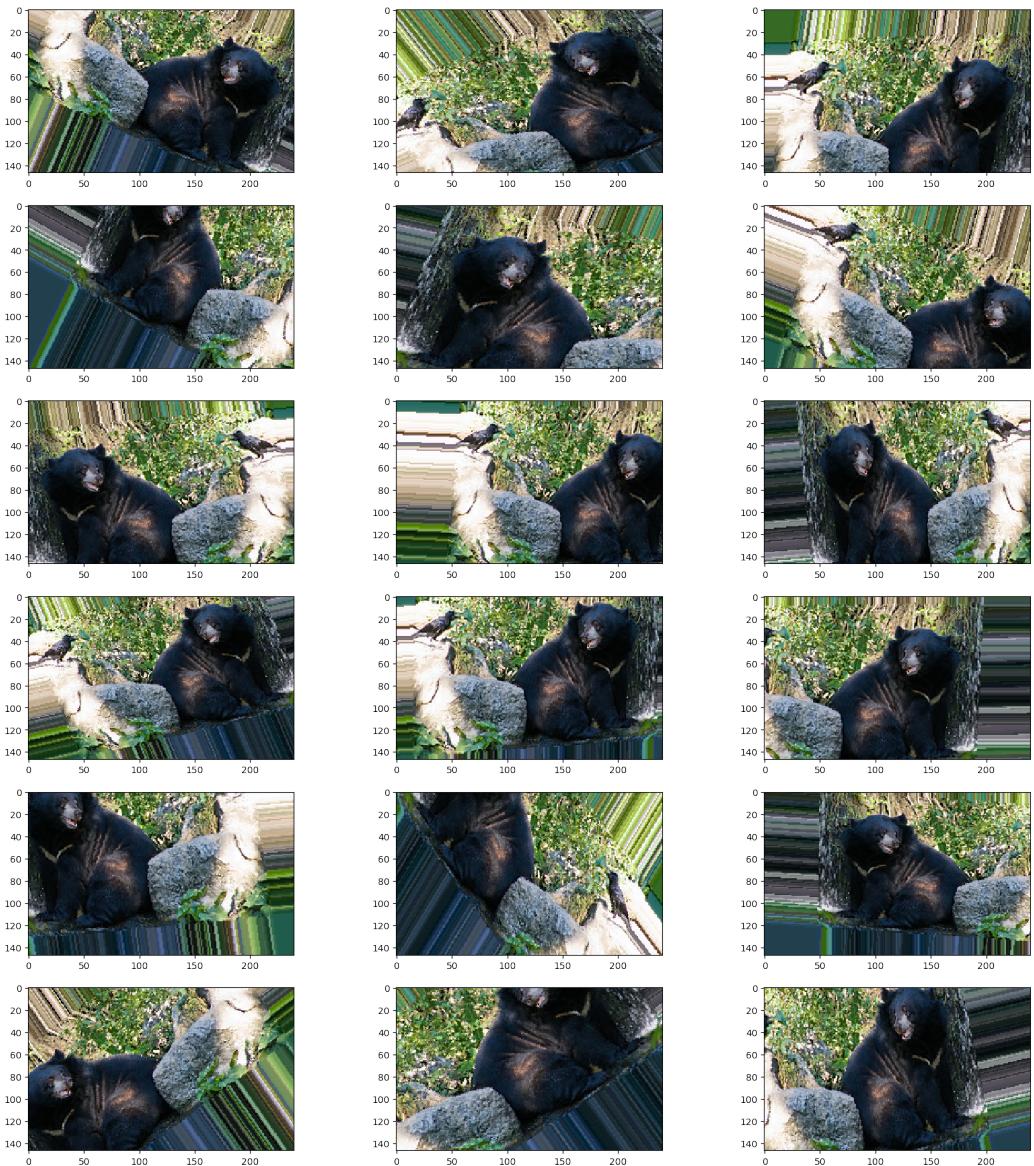


Figure 2.14: Example of data augmented images based on the original image 2.13

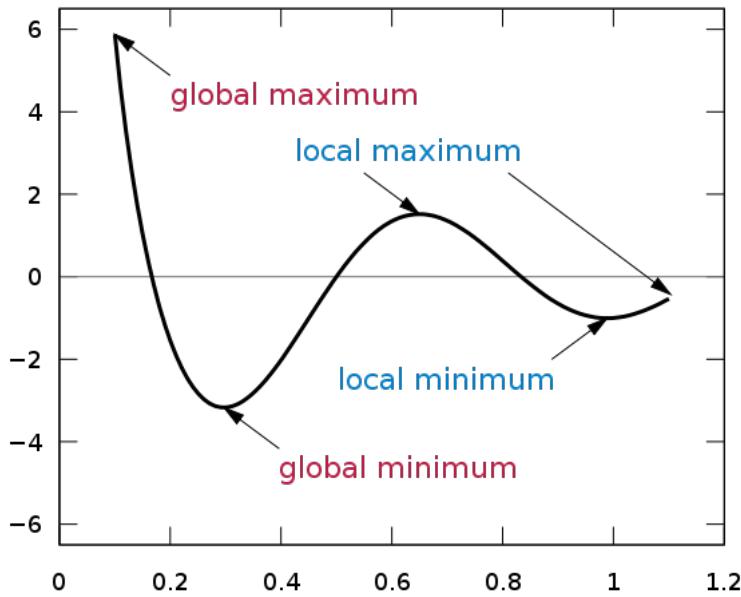


Figure 2.15: An example of local and global maxima and minima in a function

Gradient descent does not guarantee to find the global maxima or minima (figure 2.16). There have been several variations of the gradient descent algorithm that deal with the algorithm being stuck in local maxima, the most famous and most widely used at this moment is Adam (Kingma i Ba).

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \eta * \nabla f(x_n) \quad (2.18)$$

Gradient descent uses the gradient to move in a way that minimises or maximises the given function (2.18). The amount that is used to move the data point - called the step (η) - is crucial for the convergence of the algorithm. If the step is too big the algorithm might diverge, while if the step is too small the algorithm might take too long to converge. Gradient descent, like many other optimization algorithms needs to have its parameters properly tuned.

Stochastic gradient descent

The main disadvantage of the gradient descent (2.18) is the need to calculate the gradient on all the dataset for the update state. The gradient has to be calculate on the whole X_{train} . A huge improvement on the basic gradient descent is a the stochastic gradient descent. It updates the gradient by sampling the dataset in a minibatch, usually the size 64, 128 or 256 data points (depending on GPU memory limitations). After every epoch the the whole training dataset X_{train} is shuffled so that different

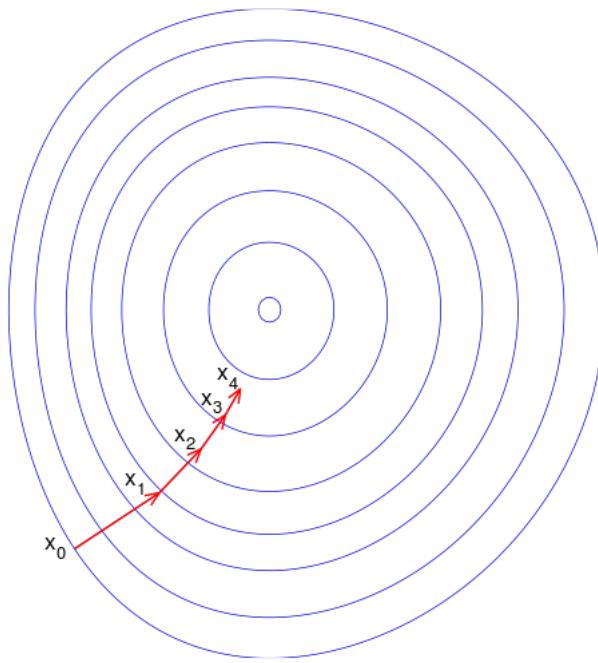


Figure 2.16: An example of gradient descent converging to global minima in a 2D space (2 variable function)

minibatches will be sampled. The rule of thumb is if you can increase the size of minibatch - do it. The more data points are in the minibatch, the more precise is the gradient approximation, also the model trains faster.

Optimization target

The goal of the gradient descent algorithm is to minimise or maximise a function. In deep learning, when training the model, we want to minimise the loss function $E(h|D)$ by computing its gradient. In classification (2.15) the goal is to predict for the predicted class y_p to match the true class y_t . Neural networks for classification usually have a softmax layer as their last layer. Softmax (2.19) is a normalization exponential function, which transforms neural network's outputs to probabilities for every class. The sum of the softmax values for all classes is equal to 1.

$$\text{softmax}(\vec{z})_j = \frac{e^{z_j}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^z_k} \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, K \quad (2.19)$$

For the task of classification, the softmax function is the final layer - the output. Using this information allows us to compute the loss function. The loss of a soft-

max function is called cross-entropy loss and is computed with negative log likelihood (2.20).

$$L(y_t, y_p) = - \sum_{d=1}^D \sum_{k=1}^K y_t^i * \log(y_p^i) \quad (2.20)$$

To use the cross-entropy loss in the backpropagation we have to calculate its gradient. The gradient for cross-entropy loss is shown in 2.21).

$$\nabla L = \vec{y_t} - \vec{y_p} \quad (2.21)$$

2.3.5. Vanishing gradient

One of the problems in using backpropagation is the propagation of loss gradients in the neural networks. As the neural network is composed of smaller units called neurons, its output is also a function composed of linear combinations and non-linear activation functions of previous layers. The backpropagation algorithm calculates the gradient losses from the output to the front layers of the neural network - hence the name backpropagation. The deeper the network, the more information is lost due to gradient decay - low gradient values. The vanished gradient means that the network is not efficiently training and leads to poor performance. One way to combat that is to use special activation functions (Clevert et al.; Xu et al.; He et al., b) or special architectures (He et al., a).

2.3.6. Batch normalization

Normalizing input data before it enters the machine learning algorithm usually increases the performance of the algorithm. It is easier for the model to learn that all of its inputs will be in a certain range. Input normalization in neural networks will not yield significant performance improvements because the input for images are normalized by nature in the range of 1 to 255 RGB (2.1.5). The second problem is the modularity of neural networks. Each layer feeds its outputs into the inputs of the next layer - making any input normalization futile. To combat this a new solution in a form of normalization layer has been introduced in 2015 called batch normalization (Ioffe i Szegedy). It normalizes the data for the whole batch that is used in the forward pass of the backpropagation algorithm (2.3.4). As the authors have showed, using batch normalization improves generalization, in some cases removes the need for dropout

(2.3.2) and makes the neural network more robust to initial hyperparameter initialization.

3. Model

To make a scalable species classifier that works with specific hardware requirements I had to make a classifier that yields the best performance and could be trained on a GPU with 2GB of VRAM in a reasonable time frame. In this chapter I introduce my solution based on the convolution neural network architecture ResNet (He et al., a).

3.1. Implementation

There are a plethora of computational frameworks to choose to create a deep learning model; TensorFlow, Caffe2, pyTorch, Keras, Theano, CNTK and many more. I have chosen Keras as it has a high level API for creating neural networks and provides pretrained models (more on this later) which was crucial to train a high accuracy model on a weak GPU. Keras allows the user to choose a backend deep learning framework, at the time of writing this thesis there were two options - TensorFlow and Theano. I chose TensorFlow as it is newer and has gained a lot of popularity in the past couple of months.

3.1.1. Keras

Keras provides a high level of abstraction when creating neural networks, giving the user a framework for rapid iteration and development. A simple example of the high level API is given below. Using Keras we can create a two layered feed-forward neural network in just a couple of lines of code. The "create_model" function returns a model with two layers the first layer has 32 neurons, the second (also the last) has 10 - this means the classifier has 10 classes. The last layer uses the softmax activation function (2.19) to get class probabilities. The model also defines the type of gradient descent algorithm (2.18) - RMSProp, and the loss function categorical crossentropy (2.20). The "train_model" function takes the created model and trains it in 10 epochs

with a minibatch size of 32 (2.3.4).

```
from keras.layers import Dense

def get_data():
    ...
    return X_train, y_train

def create_model():
    model = Sequential()
    model.add(Dense(32, input_shape=(500,)))
    model.add(Dense(10, activation='softmax'))

    model.compile(optimizer='rmsprop',
                  loss='categorical_crossentropy',
                  metrics=['accuracy'])

    return model

def train_model(model, X_train, y_train):
    model.fit(X_train, y_train,
              batch_size=32, epochs=10)

X_train, y_train = get_data()
model = create_model()
train_model(model, X_train, y_train)
```

Listing 3.1: Keras high level API example

TensorFlow is the backend engine of Keras, and it, same as Keras, allows the user to write computational graphs in Python. Python is a high level language that is easy and fast to write. The ease of use of Python comes at the cost of performance, usually Python programs are an order of magnitude slower than programs written in Rust, C++ or Java. All computational graph frameworks mentioned above work blazingly fast, yet they use (mostly) Python to define the computational graph (neural network). The key to fast performance for these frameworks is that they are written and run in C++, but they offer a high-level API in Python. For this to work the API usually has a "compile" function that builds the graph and the "train" or "fit" function which starts the process of training the neural network.

Table 3.1: CNN architecture performance comparison on ImageNet dataset

Network	Top-1 error	Top-5 error
ResNet-18	30.24	10.92
ResNet-34	26.70	8.58
ResNet-50	23.85	7.13
ResNet-101	22.63	6.44
ResNet-152	21.69	5.94
Inception v3	22.55	6.44
AlexNet	43.45	20.91
VGG-11	30.98	11.37
VGG-13	30.07	10.75
VGG-16	28.41	9.62
VGG-19	27.62	9.12
SqueezeNet 1.0	41.90	19.58
SqueezeNet 1.1	41.81	19.38
Densenet-121	25.35	7.83
Densenet-169	24.00	7.00
Densenet-201	22.80	6.43
Densenet-161	22.35	6.20

3.1.2. Architecture

There are a lot high performance CNN architectures (He et al., a; Simonyan i Zisserman; Szegedy et al.), they offer different performance levels with varying parameter sizes, as shown in 3.1. To classify species on a 2GB GPU I needed a powerful yet small neural network. ResNet is perfect for the task as it gives competitive performance per parameter ratio, especially the ResNet-50 - which I used with minor modifications.

ResNet's performance comes from a unique way in which it builds layers. ResNet is short from residual neural network, residual is the input of a layer that is being summed to the layers output, giving input information a path for input to circumvent the layer's transformation. This method allows for very deep neural networks to converge when trained. The residual can pass one layer or more, the architecture in the paper uses two convolution layers between each residual (figures 3.1 and 3.2).

Figure 3.2 shows a direct comparison between VGG and ResNet architectures, and one of the main benefits of using ResNet on a lower memory GPU is the lack of fully-connected (dense) layers at the end of the network. The fully-connected layers contain

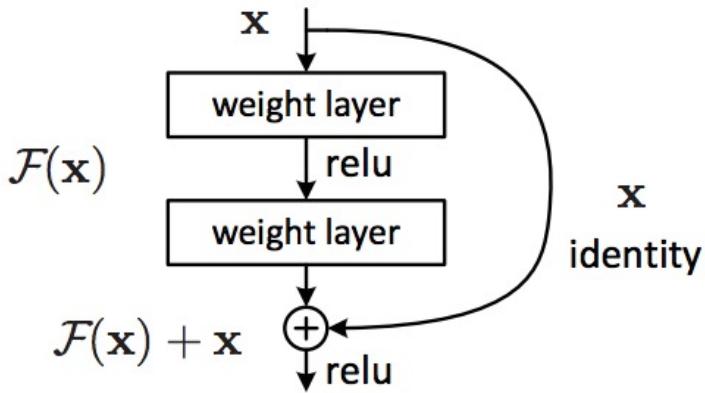


Figure 3.1: The residual layer (module) - the core building block of the ResNet

the most parameters, and removing them increases the number of convolution layers while lowering the number of parameters.

3.1.3. Pretrained parameters

As seen in figure 2.9, each convolution layer learns a specific level of abstraction. Those abstractions are general building blocks of images (boxes, circles, edges, etc.). This implies that if you train a CNN on one set of images, the parameters in the front convolution layers can be reused on a different task. Using this, higher accuracy can be achieved when working on small datasets. This is called pretraining or fine-tuning the model.

One of the biggest labeled image databases is ImageNet and is the go to dataset for image classification research. Almost every modern CNN architecture was evaluated and trained on it. Downloading the parameters from those trained neural networks and initialising the model with them gives us state of the art performance even on small datasets. The only needed step is to fine-tune the network by training it on our dataset after it was initialised with the pretrained values.

Below is the Keras code for creating a pretrained model from the ImageNet dataset. First we load the pretrained model without the top layer (the top layer is not important as it is a fully-connected layer which was built for 1000 classes, we only need the convolution layers). The second step is to create a small feed-forward network and append it to the end of the network. Set the pretrained convolution layers to not train and compile to model. The final softmax layer has 15 neurons as the model was tested on a dataset of 15 classes that is 2GB in size. The model was trained with backpropagation

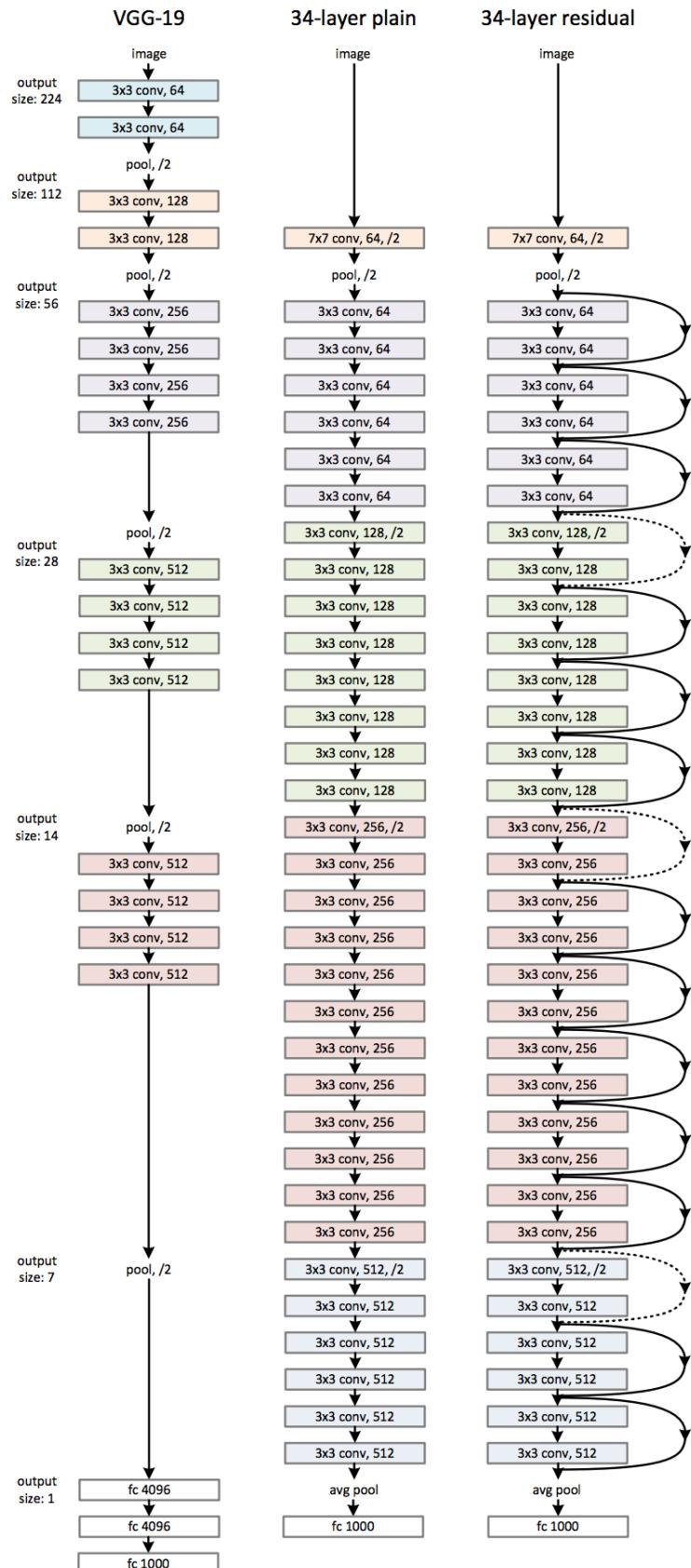


Figure 3.2: A comparison of two popular CNN architectures - ResNet and VGG

using the Adam optimizer (Kingma i Ba).

```
from keras.applications import ResNet50

IMG_DIM = 224
INPUT_TENSOR = Input(shape=(IMG_DIM, IMG_DIM, 3))

base_model = ResNet50(input_tensor=INPUT_TENSOR, include_top=False)

top_model = Sequential()
top_model.add(Flatten(input_shape=base_model.output_shape[1:]))

top_model.add(Dense(32))
top_model.add(BatchNormalization())
top_model.add(Activation('relu'))

top_model.add(Dense(64))
top_model.add(BatchNormalization())
top_model.add(Activation('relu'))

top_model.add(Dense(15, activation='softmax'))


model = Model(input= base_model.input, output= top_model(
    base_model.output))

for layer in model.layers[:-8]:
    layer.trainable = False

model.compile(loss='categorical_crossentropy',
              optimizer='adam',
              metrics=['accuracy'])
```

Listing 3.2: Creating a custom pretrained ResNet on the ImageNet dataset

3.1.4. Improving generalization

To improve the generalization of the model, batch normalization was added after every fully-connected layer in the network. Also, the input images were augmented (2.3.3). The X_{test} had its images only rescaled, while X_{train} and $X_{validation}$ were more

aggressively augmented (random zoom, horizontal flip, rescale and sheered), this is show in detail in the figure 2.14.

```
batch_size = 16

train_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(
    rescale=1./255,
    shear_range=0.2,
    zoom_range=0.2,
    horizontal_flip=True)

test_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(rescale=1./255)

train_generator = train_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    '../input/train',
    target_size=(150, 150),
    batch_size=batch_size,
    class_mode='categorical')

validation_generator = test_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    '../input/validation',
    target_size=(150, 150),
    batch_size=batch_size,
    class_mode='categorical')
```

Listing 3.3: Data augmentation of the input dataset (images)

4. Data

Many would argue that the data is the most important part of the machine learning system. If the training data does not represent the real world input of the system in the production the machine learning algorithm is good as useless. Furthermore, the quantity of data is crucial for deep learning algorithms. Compared to traditional machine learning algorithms, deep learning algorithms gain more performance scale from the dataset size. Therefore, data collection for this problem is a crucial step in the machine learning pipeline and impacts the whole solution.

4.1. ImageNet

One of the largest labeled image datasets freely opened to the public is ImageNet. It contains more than 14 million images, detailed statistics of the dataset can be found in table 4.1. TO train the model for species recognition I have used a subset of ImageNet. Using every class that represents a species in ImageNet is not doable on a single 2GB GPU, therefore I have manually picked 15 classes which represent the whole problem. The idea is to have some species that are similar to others, for example multiple species of ladybugs while still having a wide variate of species that represent the diverse form of life (typical example of an image from the ImageNet dataset can be seen in figure 4.1).

4.1.1. Dataset

As mentioned in the previous section, the dataset - X - consists of 15 species of images from the ImageNet dataset. Each species has a different number of samples, the distribution of X_{train} can be seen in detail in figure 4.2. We can see that some classes (Mexican bean beetle and Black-footed albatross) have below average number of images, this will yield a lower classification performance for these classes. Also, we can expect the classifier to work best for the classes with above average number of

Table 4.1: ImageNet statistics

High level category	synset (subcategories)	Avg images per synset	Total images
amphibian	94	591	56K
animal	3822	732	2799K
appliance	51	1164	59K
bird	856	949	812K
covering	946	819	774K
device	2385	675	1610K
fabric	262	690	181K
fish	566	494	280K
flower	462	735	339K
food	1495	670	1001K
fruit	309	607	188K
fungus	303	453	137K
furniture	187	1043	195K
geological formation	151	838	127K
invertebrate	728	573	417K
mammal	1138	821	934K
musical instrument	157	891	140K
plant	1666	600	999K
reptile	268	707	190K
sport	166	1207	200K
structure	1239	763	946K
tool	316	551	174K
tree	993	568	564K
utensil	86	912	78K
vegetable	176	764	135K
vehicle	481	778	374K
person	2035	468	952K



Figure 4.1: Typical ImageNet image, class herbivore

Table 4.2: Dataset statistics

Size [GB]	1.6
Class number	15
Type	RGB Images
Train size	14929
Validation size	1649

images like the Ice bear species. A deeper analysis on classification performance for certain classes will be shown in further sections.

The convolution network expects a fixed size input, therefore every image in the dataset - X - has to be scaled to a fixed size. Lowering the dimensions of the input image will result in a performance decrease. Therefore, after experimenting with the hyperparameter I have picked $224 * 224$ image dimensions in order to have the optimal classification and speed performance.

4.1.2. Preprocessing

Preprocessing of data is an essential part of the machine learning pipeline. As stated in the previous section 4.1.1, every image has to be a fixed size in order to be able to serve as an input into the deep learning model. The fixed size that ended up working best with the pretrained ResNet was $224 * 224$. When scaling images to a fixed size sometimes because of the aspect ratio of the image we need to fill a part of the image with a constant pixel value. Examples of fixed size images that use gray filling is shown in figure 4.3.

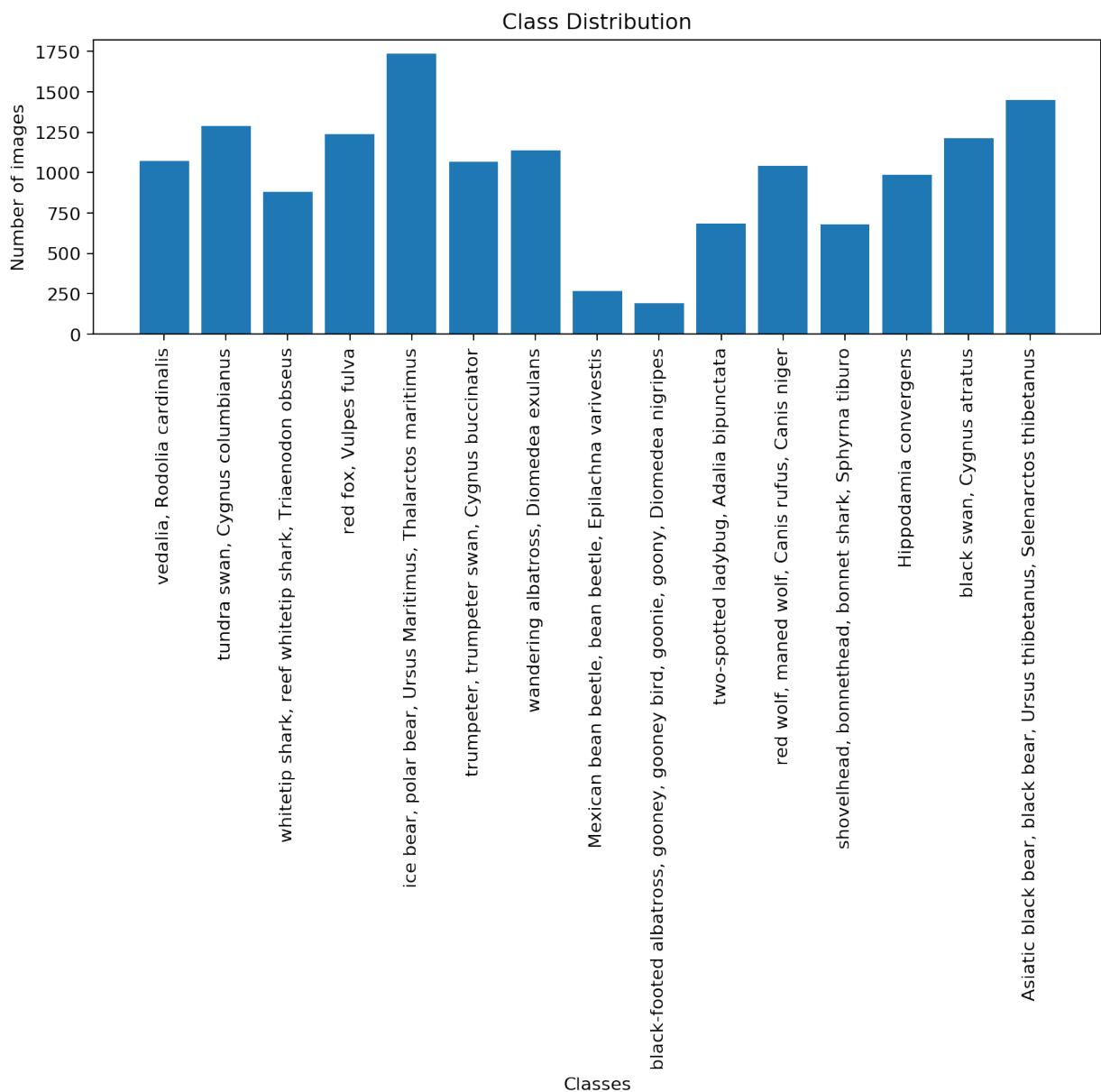


Figure 4.2: Class distribution of training data

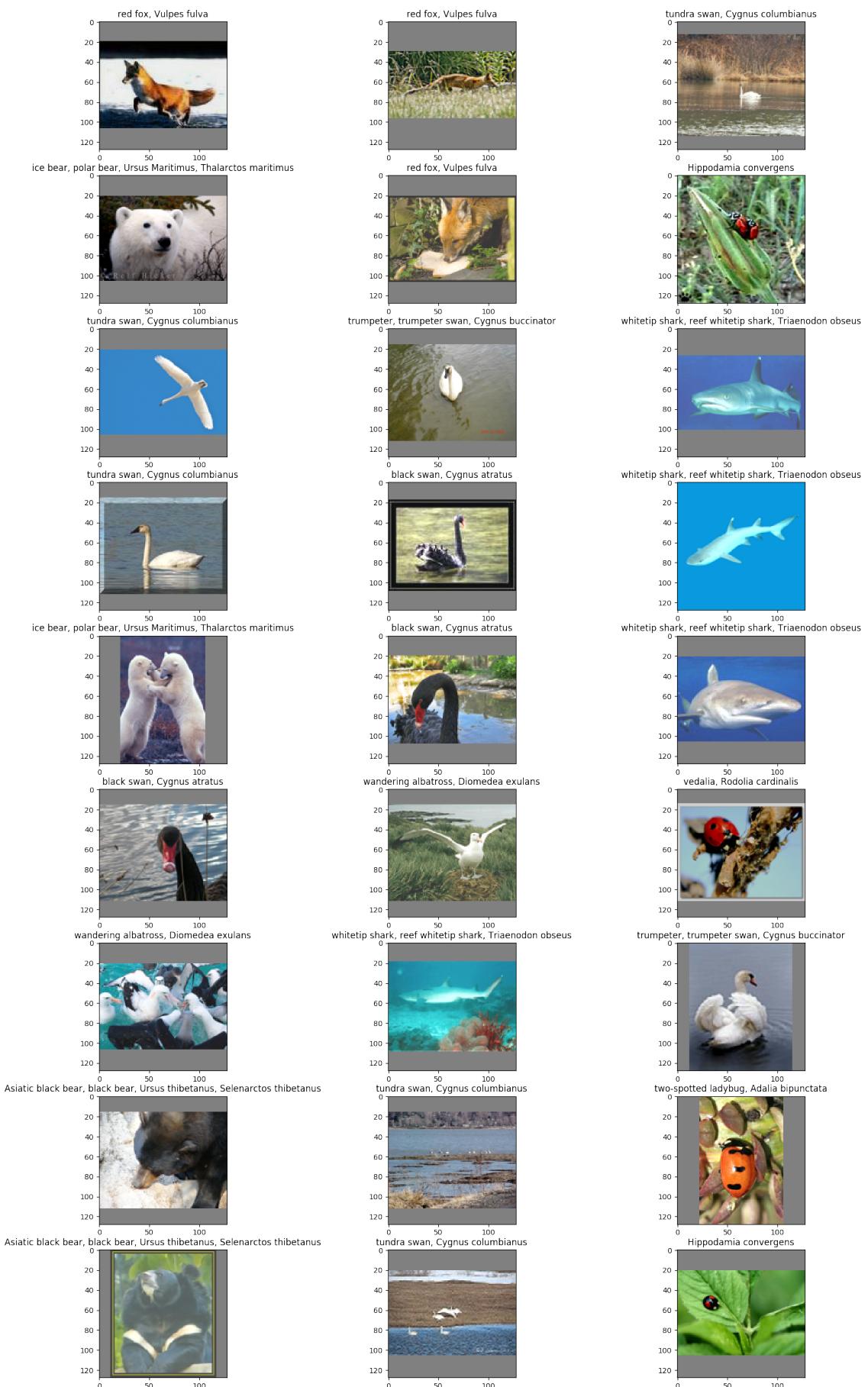


Figure 4.3: Image preprocessing

Also, another important part of the preprocessing is the generation of the validation dataset. For the validation to be efficient the validation dataset has to represent the training dataset. Keeping that in mind, I have created the validation set - $X_{validation}$ - by taking 10% of images from each class.

5. Results

5.1. Hardware and software

Graphs graphs graphs...

6. Conclusion

Zaključak.

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Image Based Phylogenetic Classification

Sažetak

Sažetak na hrvatskom jeziku.

Ključne riječi: Ključne riječi, odvojene zarezima.

Title

Abstract

Abstract.

Keywords: Keywords.