

# **Digit Recognition**

We'll consider a simple digit recognition problem

```
0000000000000
3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3
448444444444444
555555555555555
6666666666666666
```

- Given an image representing a digit, we need to recognition the represented number
- This is an important building block for most OCR systems

## The Dataset

## We will use the classic MNIST Digit Recognition Dataset dataset

The dataset contains hand-written digits

- The original data was obtain from US Census Bureau and high-schools students
- $\blacksquare$  Each digit is represented as a  $28 \times 28$  greyscale image

```
In [22]: from keras.datasets import mnist
# load the data, shuffled and split between train and test sets
(x_train, y_train), (x_test, y_test) = mnist.load_data()
```

The MNIST data is now stored in pairs of numpy arrays.

- The x\_train and x\_test arrays contain the greyscale value of each pixel
- The y\_train and y\_test arrays contain the class (digit) as an integer

# **Image Data**

#### Let's inspect the output

```
In [23]: print(f'Shape of y_train: {y_train.shape}')
    print(f'Shape of y_test: {y_test.shape}')
    n_tr = y_train.shape[0]
    n_ts = y_test.shape[0]

Shape of y_train: (60000,)
    Shape of y_test: (10000,)
```

- There are 60,000 training examples
- ...And 10,000 test examples

### The target arrays are one-dimensional

Let's check a sample:

```
In [24]: y_train
```

# **Image Data**

### Let's inspect the input

```
In [25]: print(f'Shape of x_train: {x_train.shape}')
    print(f'Shape of x_test: {x_test.shape}')
    x_h = x_train.shape[1]
    x_w = x_train.shape[2]

Shape of x_train: (60000, 28, 28)
    Shape of x_test: (10000, 28, 28)
```

■ The dataset input consists of 28x28 matrices

```
In [26]: print(f'Minimum: {x_train.min()} (train), {x_train.min()} (test)')
    print(f'Maximum: {x_train.max()} (train), {x_train.max()} (test)')

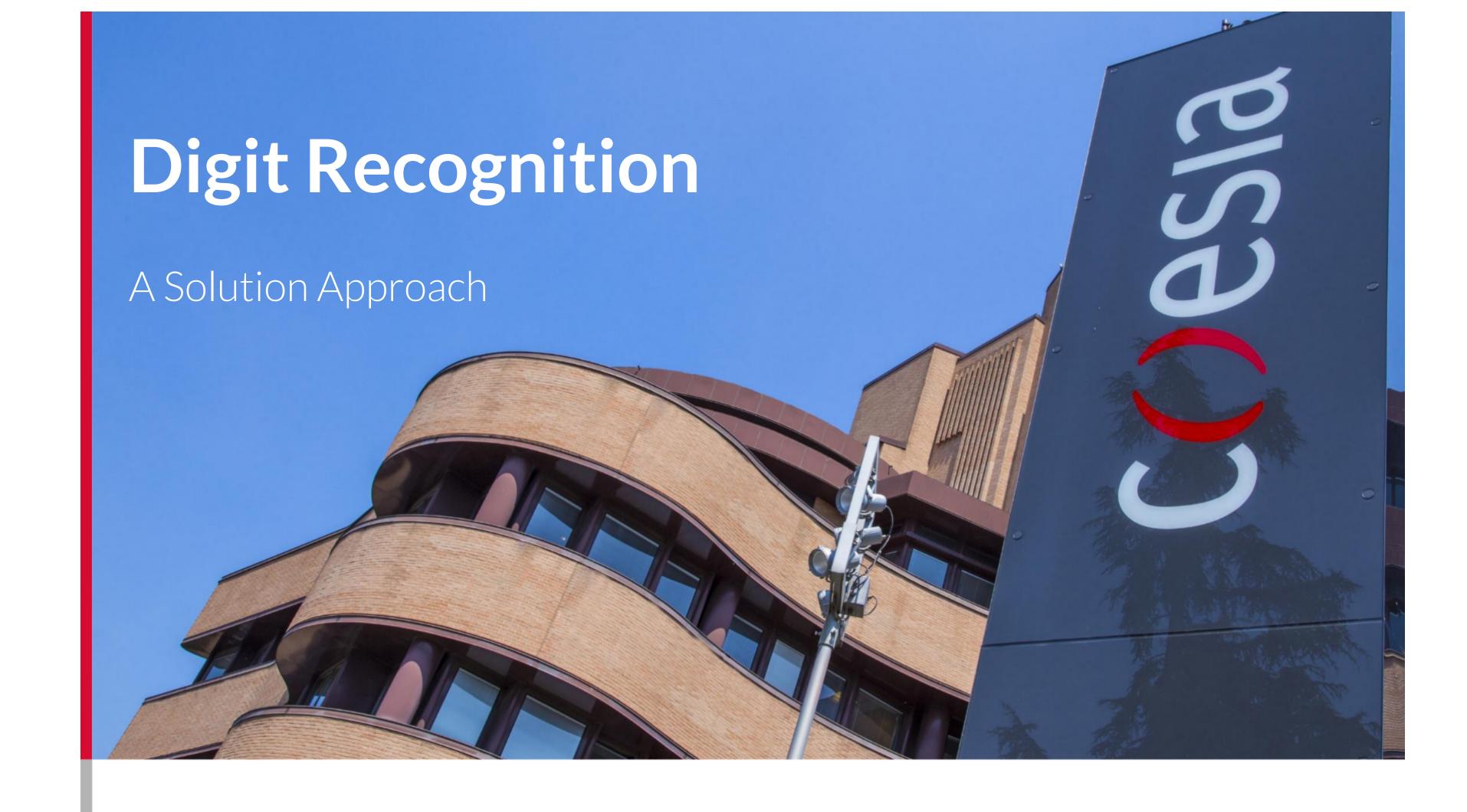
Minimum: 0 (train), 0 (test)
    Maximum: 255 (train), 255 (test)
```

■ The content of the matrix cells ranges from 0 to 255

# **Image Data**

### Let's see some sample images

```
In [27]: m, n = 2, 6
         plt.figure(figsize=figsize)
         for i in range(m):
              for j in range(n):
                  plt.subplot(m, n, i*n + j + 1)
                  plt.imshow(x_train[i*n + j], cmap='Greys')
         plt.show()
           10
           20
                                                   20 -
                                          10 20
           10 -
                        10
                                                                              10
           20
                                          10 20
```



# **Problem Model**

#### This is a standard classification problem

...But it still best modeled in a probabilistic fashion

- lacktriangle We can view the image as a random (vector) variable X
- lacksquare ...And the class a second random variable Y, with values in  $\{c_1,c_2,\dots c_n\}$

This the case for multiple reasons (e.g. labeling errors or ambiguous interpretation)

The two variables are correlated, which is captured via their joint distribution

$$X, Y \sim P(X, Y)$$

...But in practice, we are assuming  $\boldsymbol{X}$  is observed, so we care about the conditional distribution:

$$P(Y \mid X)$$

## **Problem Model**

## We will approximate the $P(Y \mid X)$ via a parameterized function $\hat{f}(y, x; \theta)$

...Which we can train via Maximum Likelihood Estimation

■ Given a training dataset  $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$ , we solve:

$$\underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} [[y_i = c_j]] \hat{f}(c_j, x; \theta)$$

- lacksquare Where  $[\![y_i=c_j]\!]=1$  iff  $y_i=c_j$
- lacksquare ...And  $\hat{f}(c_j,x; heta)$  is the estimate probability of value  $c_j$

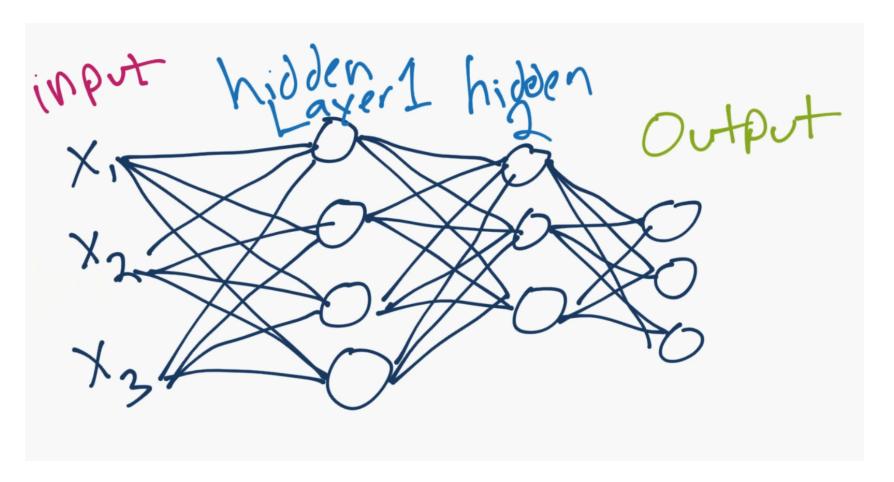
### From the probability estimator, we can obtain a classifier

- lacksquare We simply look for the value (i.e. the class) in  $\{c_1, \ldots c_n\}$
- ...That is associated to the largest probability

## **Neural Network Classifiers**

#### We will rely on a Neural Network for our approximate model

NNs that are used for classification have a typical structure



- Their output layer has one neuron for each possible class
- ...And it uses a <u>softmax</u> activation function to ensure the output sum up to 1

By doing this, the output can be interpreted a discrete probability distribution

# Preprocessing

#### Before we can start training we need to do some preprocessing

We will apply a min-max encoding to the input

■ ...Since there is clear minimum and maximum for each pixel

```
In [28]: x_train_norm = x_train / 255.0
x_test_norm = x_test / 255.0
```

We will adopt a one-hot encoding for the output

■ ...Since we will need to build a network with one neuron per class

# **Adding Channel Information**

## When working with image data, one extra step is needed

...Since images are not necessarily greyscale!

- Greyscale images can be represented as matrices
- ...But color images have a value of red, green, and blue for each pixel!

For this reason, an image is best described by a tensor not a matrix

#### Even if we have a single channel, it will be best to convert each input to a tensor

```
In [31]: x_train_c = x_train_norm.reshape(-1, x_h, x_w, 1)
    x_test_c = x_test_norm.reshape(-1, x_h, x_w, 1)
    input_shape = (x_h, x_w, 1)
    output_shape = (10,)
    print(f'New shape of the training set: {x_train_c.shape}')
New shape of the training set: (60000, 28, 28, 1)
```

# Training a Baseline Model

#### As a baseline, we will build an MLP model

We will have a look at the code, without going much into detail

```
def build_mlp(input_shape, output_shape, hidden, rate=0.05):
    mdl = keras.Sequential()
    mdl.add(keras.Input(shape=input_shape))
    mdl.add(keras.layers.Flatten())
    for k, h in enumerate(hidden):
        mdl.add(Dense(h, activation='relu'))
        mdl.add(keras.layers.Dropout(rate))
    mdl.add(Dense(output_shape[0], activation='softmax'))
    return mdl
```

...Even if a classical MLP is not designed to handle images

■ For this reason we'll start with a special Flatten layer

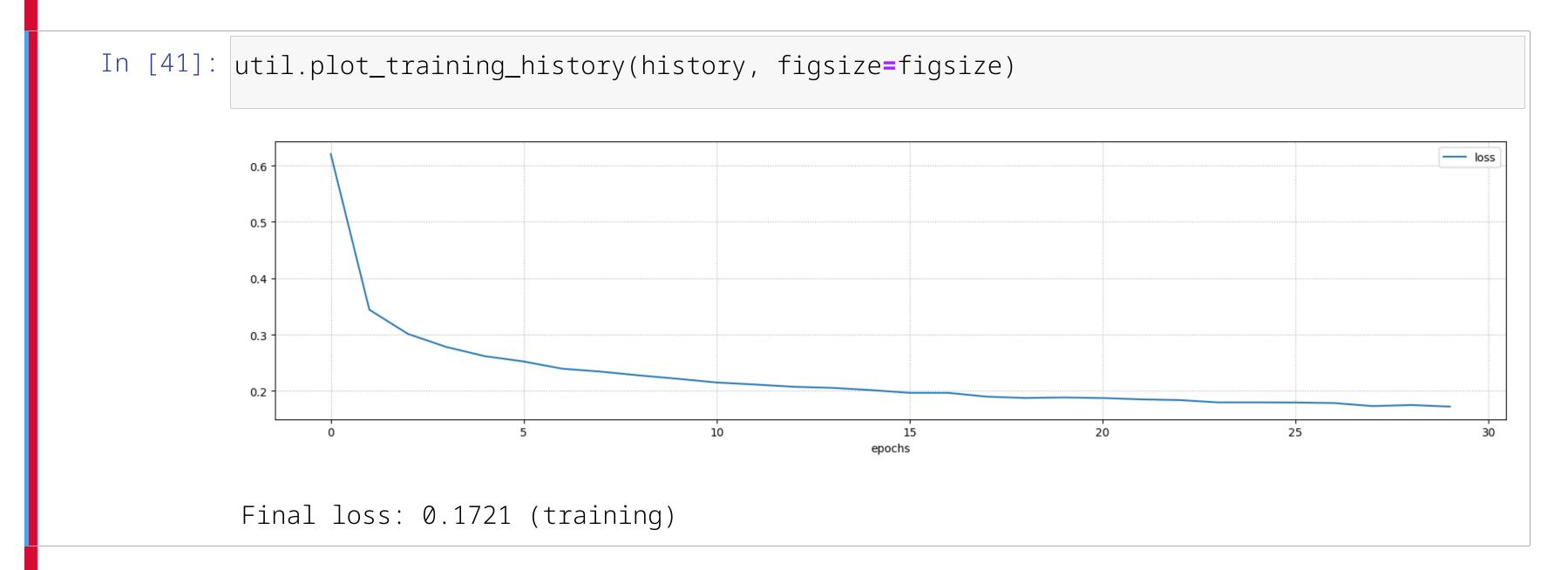
# Training a Baseline Model

We can now train a 2-layer network as a baseline

```
In [40]: |nn1 = util.build_mlp(input_shape, output_shape, hidden=[16, 16])
  history = util.train_nn(nn1, x_train_c, y_train_cat, batch_size=32, epochs=30, verbose
  Epoch 1/30
  Epoch 2/30
  Epoch 3/30
  Epoch 4/30
  Epoch 5/30
  Epoch 6/30
  Epoch 7/30
  Epoch 8/30
  Epoch 9/30
```

# Training a Baseline Model

### Let's inspect the training curve



There's still something to go before convergence, but we'll stop here

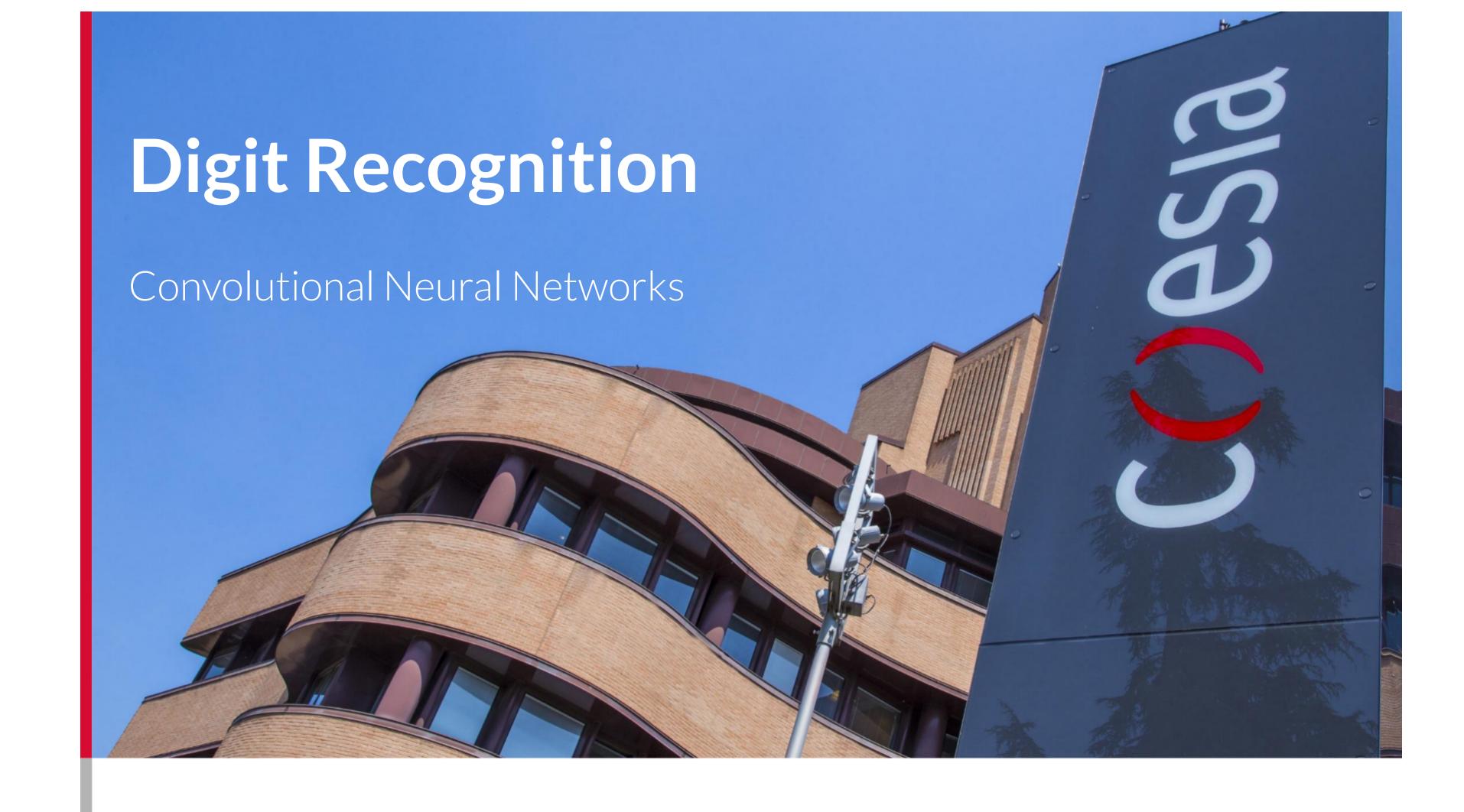
## **Evaluation**

#### Now we can compute the model accuracy

We are doing already pretty well!

### What can we do to improve the results?

Beyond "stacking more layers" the answer is not clear



# **Exploiting Structural Information**

#### DNs are very flexible learning models

- ...Since we can choose both how many layer to use
- ...And how big they should be

#### However, it's difficult to develop an intuition of which options work

- This is due to the poor interpretability of DNs
- ...To the point that a <u>fully fledged research field</u> focuses on automatic tuning

### There is one type of choice that is intuitive and has a big impact

...This concerns the idea of exploiting structural information

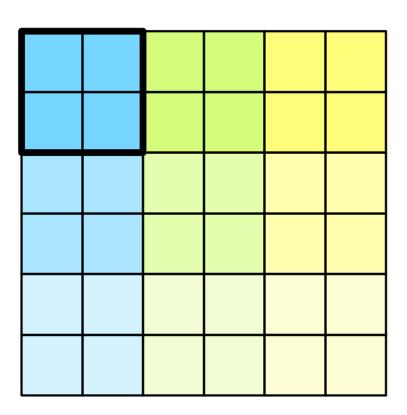
- For example, nearby pixels in an image may be semantically linked
- ...And the same goes for nearby points in time
- ...Or nearby words in a sentence

# **Convolutional Layers**

### This idea is at the basis of convolutional layers

A 2D convolution layer...

- $\blacksquare$  Starts from an input tensor with shape (m, n, c)
- ...And slides a linear  $n_f$ ,  $m_f$  filter (or kernel) on top of the image, with a certain step size (stride)



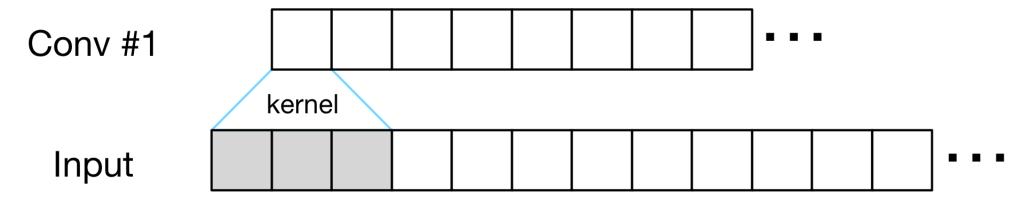
- lacktriangle You can think of that as moving an  $n_f, m_f$  mask across an image
- The figure shows a 2x2 convolution with stride 2

# **Convolutional Layers**

### Each application of the kernel...

- Computes a dot product (involving all channels) to obtain a scalar
- ...The optionally applies an activation function

Here we see the effect along 1 dimension:



### Therefore, by applying a 2D convolution to an input tensor

...We get a slightly smaller output tensor (like smaller image)

■ Every kernel we apply builds a new "channel" in the output

# **Convolutional Layers**

### Convolutional layers have some interesting properties

Their weights are associated only to the filter

- So, all applications of the filter/kernel use the same weights
- ...And the number weights does not depend on the input size

This allows a huge reduction in terms of number of weights

### Of course the model will be less expressive

...But still capable of laerning useful relations!

- Intuitively, filters will learn to recognize local features
- Earlier convolutions will focus on fine-grain details
- ...While later convolution will aggregate them

#### This property allows CNN to work very well on image data

## **CNNs** in Keras

#### We'll glance again at the code to build a Convolutional NN (in Tensorflow/Keras)

```
def build_cnn(input_shape, output_shape, hidden, convs, rate=0.05):
    mdl = keras.Sequential()
    mdl.add(keras.Input(shape=input_shape))
    for nf in convs:
        mdl.add(Conv2D(nf, kernel_size=(3,3), activation='relu'))
    mdl.add(keras.layers.Flatten())
    for h in hidden:
        mdl.add(Dense(h, activation='relu'))
        mdl.add(keras.layers.Dropout(rate))
    mdl.add(Dense(output_shape[0], activation='softmax'))
    return mdl
```

- We start by building the convolutions layer
- ...Then we add some fully connected layers
- ...And we finish with an output layer using a softmax activation

# **Training a CNN**

### CNNs can be trained as usual, but the process is much slower

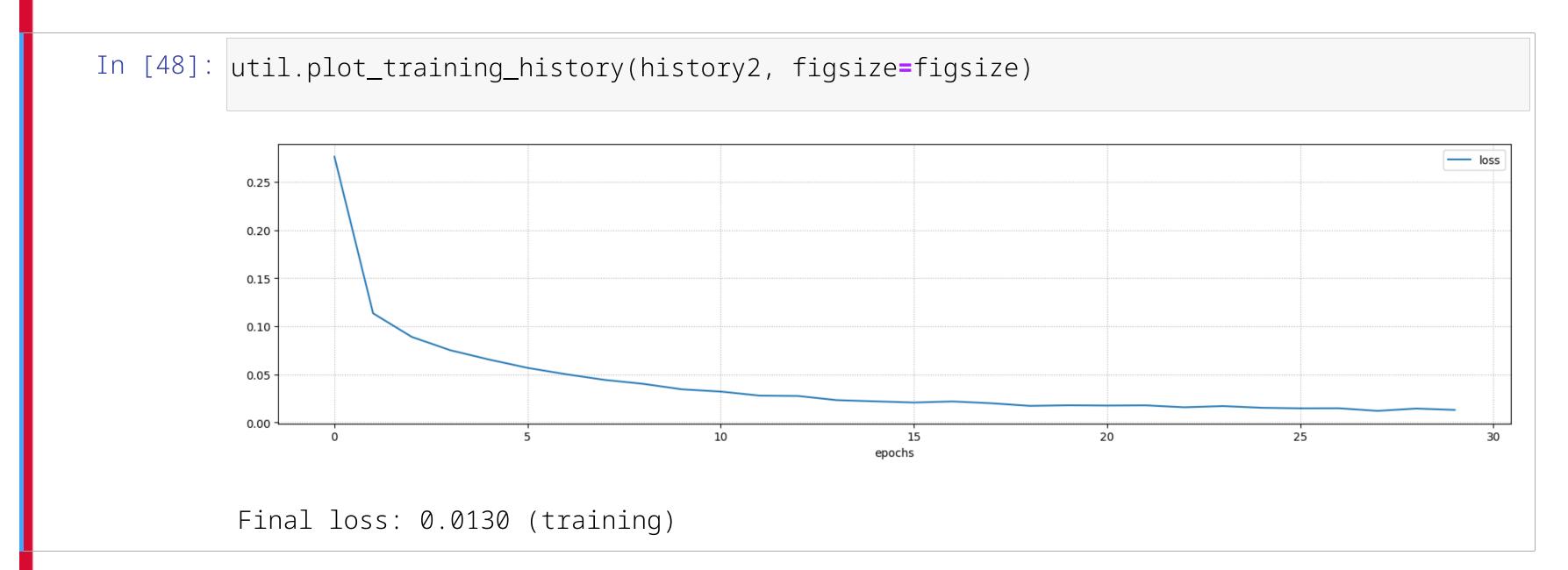
...Since even with few weights, we still need to do a lot of computations

Using GPUs can considerably accelerate this step

```
In [46]: cnn1 = util.build_cnn(input_shape, output_shape, hidden=[16], convs=[16])
  history2 = util.train_nn(cnn1, x_train_c, y_train_cat, batch_size=32, epochs=30, verbound
   Epoch 1/30
   Epoch 2/30
   Epoch 3/30
   Epoch 4/30
   Epoch 5/30
   Epoch 6/30
   Epoch 7/30
```

# Training a CNN

### Let's check the training curve



Again, there is still some way to go, but we'll stop here for a fair comparison

# **Quality Evaluation**

```
In [49]: cnn1_p_tr = cnn1.predict(x_train_c, verbose=0).argmax(axis=1)
    cnn1_p_ts = cnn1.predict(x_test_c, verbose=0).argmax(axis=1)

cnn1_acc_tr = accuracy_score(y_train, cnn1_p_tr)
    cnn1_acc_ts = accuracy_score(y_test, cnn1_p_ts)

print(f'Shallow network accuracy: {nn1_acc_tr:.3f} (train), {nn1_acc_ts:.3f} (test)')
    print(f'Convolutional network accuracy: {cnn1_acc_tr:.3f} (train), {cnn1_acc_ts:.3f} (

    Shallow network accuracy: 0.968 (train), 0.952 (test)
    Convolutional network accuracy: 0.999 (train), 0.980 (test)
```

#### The results are much better!

- Even if the CNN has much fewer weights than the fully connected one
- ...And the same number of hidden layers

### Exploiting structural information is a powerful idea in DL