

# Semantic Image Classification with Hierarchical Feature Subset Selection

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## ABSTRACT

High-dimensional visual features for image content characterization enables effective image classification. However, training accurate image classifiers in high-dimensional feature space suffers from the problem of curse of dimensionality and thus requires a large number of labeled images. To achieve accurate classifier training in high-dimensional feature space, we propose a hierarchical feature subset selection algorithm for semantic image classification, where the feature subset selection procedure is seamlessly integrated with the underlying classifier training procedure in a single algorithm. First, our hierarchical feature subset selection framework partitions the high-dimensional feature space into multiple homogeneous feature subspaces and forms a two-level feature hierarchy. Second, weak image classifiers are trained for each homogeneous feature subspace at the lower level of the feature hierarchy, where the traditional feature subset selection techniques such as principal component analysis (PCA) can be used for dimension reduction. Finally, these weak classifiers are boosted to determine an optimal image classifier and the higher-level feature subset selection is realized by selecting the most effective weak classifiers and their corresponding homogeneous feature subsets. Our experiments on a specific domain of natural images have obtained very positive results.

## Categories and Subject Descriptors

I.4.7 [Image Processing and Computer Vision]: Feature Measurement— *feature representation*; I.5 [Artificial Intelligence]: Learning— *concept learning*

## General Terms

Algorithms, Experimentation

## Keywords

Feature selection, classifier training, semantic image classification

## 1. INTRODUCTION

As high-resolution digital cameras become more affordable and widespread, personal collections of digital images are growing exponentially. Thus, semantic image classification becomes increasingly important and necessary to support automatic image annotation and semantic image retrieval via keywords [22, 20, 25, 10, 34, 1]. However, the performance of image classifiers largely depends on two inter-related issues: (1) The quality of features [19] that are used for image content representation; (2) The effectiveness of classifier training algorithm.

Many image classification systems have been proposed in the literatures [27, 32, 2, 29, 26, 19], and they can be generally classified into two categories based on the underlying framework for image content representation [4, 35, 28, 18]: (a) The first category segments the image into some meaningful components and uses them as semantic elements to characterize image content [3, 21]. For example, Carson *et al.* proposed a blob-based image representation which calculates image similarities based on the visual similarities of the image blobs [8]. (b) The second category takes an image as a whole visual appearance and characterize image contents by using image-based global visual features [11, 23]. A well-known example is the system developed by Torralba and Oliva which uses discriminant structural templates to represent the global visual properties of natural scene images [31].

Despite the different natures of the underlying image content representation framework, most existing semantic image classification techniques rely on high-dimensional visual features. Ideally, using more visual features can enhance the classifier's ability in identifying different semantic image concepts and thus result in higher classification accuracy. However, learning the image classifier in such high-dimensional feature space requires a large number of labeled samples that generally increases exponentially as the feature dimension increases [17]. Thus, automatically selecting the low-dimensional feature subset with high discrimination power and training the image classifier in such relatively low-dimensional feature subset are one promising solution to address the problem of the *curse of dimensionality*.

To select the optimal feature subset for classifier training, many algorithms have been proposed which can be generally classified into two categories: *filter* and *wrapper*. A *filter* algorithm separates the procedures for feature subset selection and classifier training by merely calculating the ranking information for each feature dimension based on its correlation score with the prediction variable. A *wrapper* algo-

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MIR'05, November 10–11, 2005, Singapore.

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rithm wraps the feature subset selection procedure with classifier training. The major advantage of the filter algorithm is its computational efficiency, but its performance highly depends on the definition of the “correlation” between the visual feature and the predication variable. The major advantage of the wrapper algorithm is its lower generalization error, but it is very time-consuming for high-dimensional feature space. However, both the filter algorithm and the wrapper algorithm ignore the commonly-existing heterogeneous nature of high-dimensional visual features.

One solution to the problem is to partition the heterogeneous feature space into a set of homogeneous feature subspaces and perform classifier training on each homogeneous feature subspace independently. This, in a result, can reduce the classifier training problem in high-dimensional feature space into many less complex subproblems, and solves it via divide-and-conquer. The benefit of this approach is to train a set of weak classifiers at lower dimensional feature space, which requires smaller number of training samples and the fusion of these weak classifiers can boost the classifier’s performance significantly [16].

Based on this understanding, we propose a hierarchical feature subset selection framework by seamlessly integrating the procedures for feature subset selection and classifier training in a single algorithm. This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces feature extraction procedure for image content representation; Section 3 presents the algorithm for classifier training and feature subset selection; Section 4 and 5 gives our extensive experimental results in a specific domain of natural images; Section 6 concludes this paper.

## 2. FEATURE EXTRACTION

There are two widely accepted approaches for image content representation and feature extraction: (a) Homogeneous image regions [24, 27, 9]; (b) whole images without segmentation. We use image blobs to support semantic image classification at a finer level of detail [13].

To detect the image blobs automatically, we first use image segmentation technique developed by Deng and Manjunath [12]. The neighboring homogeneous image regions with similar colors or textures are then merged as semantic-sensitive image blobs for image content representation. After the image blobs are available, we extract 83-dimensional visual features for image content representation. These 83-dimensional visual features include 7-dimensional R,G,B average colors and their variance, 7-dimensional L,U,V average colors and their variance, 62-dimensional texture feature from Gabor filter bank and 7-dimensional Tamura texture.

To achieve more effective image classification, it is important to understand that different visual features play different roles on characterizing the different semantic image concept. Thus, it is important to develop effective algorithm for selecting the suitable feature subsets for different semantic image concepts. This 83-dimensional feature space is *heterogeneous* because it is a direct composition of multiple *homogeneous* color and texture feature subspaces. Specifically, the full 83-dimensional feature space can be partitioned such that each of these homogeneous subspaces represents a unique physical meaning and maintains certain degree of independence.

In our current experiments, we partition the 83-dimensional feature space into 9 homogeneous feature subspaces as fol-



**Figure 1: Multi-level annotation of scene “beach”, which contains salient objects “tree”, “sky”, “sea water” and “sand field”**

lows: 3-dimensional R,G,B average color; 4-dimensional R,G,B color variance; 3-dimensional L,U,V average color; 4-dimensional L,U,V color variance; 2-dimensional average & standard deviation of Gabor filter bank channel energy; 30-dimensional Gabor average channel energy; 30-dimensional Gabor channel energy deviation; 2-dimensional Coarse & Contrast Tamura texture feature and 5-dimensional angle histogram derived from Tamura texture.

## 3. FEATURE SELECTION

We first train a set of weak classifiers independently for these 9 homogeneous feature subspaces. These weak classifiers are then combined to boost an ensemble classifier for semantic image classification. We use support vector machine as weak classifier because of its high strength shown in various classification experiments [33, 30]. For weak classifier combination, there are two well-known methods, i.e., Adaboost proposed by Freund and Schapire [14] and Bagging proposed by Breiman [6]. While experiments show that Adaboost sometimes outperforms Bagging, the latter is better understood theoretically and an improved bagging method called Random Forest [7] has been proposed. Another advantage of the bagging algorithm is that we can train these weak classifiers in a parallel fashion because of their independence. Thus we use bagging as our scheme for weak classifier combination.

With the hierarchy of feature space defined at the previous section, we can perform feature selection at two different levels independently. At the lower level of each homogeneous feature subset (intra-homogeneous level), we view each individual feature dimension as a selection unit, thus any traditional filter or wrapper feature selection method can be applied within each homogeneous feature subspace. At the higher level of full heterogeneous feature space (inter-homogeneous level), we treat each homogeneous feature subspace as an individual unit, and measure its *goodness* by using out-of-bag estimation [5] of the performance of the corresponding weak classifier ensemble grown in that homogeneous feature subspace. We formally describe this joint feature/classifier selection algorithm as follows:

Consider a multi-class classification problem with a training set  $T$  that consists of independent draws from an unknown distribution  $P(Y, \mathbf{X})$ , where  $Y$  is a discrete decision number and  $\mathbf{X}$  a multivariate feature vector. Let the train-

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**Algorithm 1** *Goodness* estimation for homogeneous subspace

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1. **Input:**  $T = \{(y_n, x_n) \mid n = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ , homogeneous subspaces  $S_j$  and integer  $Iter_{max}$
2. [optional] Run feature selection for each homogeneous subspace and project it by  $S_j = P^{S_j}(S_j)$
3. For  $i = 1, 2 \dots Iter_{max}$ 
  - (a) For  $j = 1, 2 \dots k_{homo}$ 
    - i. Draw a random bootstrap  $T_{i,j}$  from  $T$
    - ii. Project  $T_{i,j}$  on homogeneous subspace  $S_j$  and form bootstrap  $T_{i,j}^{S_j}$
    - iii. Fit weak classifier  $Q^b(x^{S_j}, T_{i,j}^{S_j})$
    - iv. Run down out-of-bag samples  $\overline{T_{i,j}^{S_j}}$  on  $Q^b(x^{S_j}, T_{i,j}^{S_j})$  for error estimation
4. Compute for each training sample  $(y_n, x_n)$  the loss function  $L_{S_j}(x_n, y_n)$  as the 0-1 loss on bagging ensemble whose weak classifiers are trained on homogeneous subspace  $S_j$ , over which sample  $(y_n, x_n)$  is out-of-bag
5. **Output** the *goodness* of homogeneous subspace as

$$G(S_j) = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_{S_j}(x_n, y_n)$$


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ing sample be  $T = \{(y_n, x_n) \mid n = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ , where  $y_n \in \{1, 2, \dots, M\}$  and  $x_n \in R^K$ . A classifier can be trained by a learning algorithm  $A_Q$  on sample set  $T$  to form an predictor  $Q(x, T)$ .

In addition, we assume that  $R^K$  is a heterogeneous feature space that can be decomposed into  $k_{homo}$  separate homogeneous subspaces. Let  $d_i$  be the dimensionality of the  $i^{th}$  homogeneous subspace  $S_i$ , and the following dimensionality relationship holds  $K = d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_{k_{homo}}$ .

The proposed feature selection algorithm is composed of two major steps. First in algorithm 1, the *goodness* of each individual homogeneous feature subspace is evaluated by the out-of-bag [5] estimations of the generalization error of the bagging ensemble grown on the homogeneous feature subspace. This unbiased estimation guides the subsequent search at the higher level of the feature hierarchy. Then in algorithm 2, the goodness measurements are input to rank each homogeneous feature subspace for forward selection and the best feature subspace is proposed by picking the combination of the homogeneous feature subsets that yields the lowest prediction error estimated by the bagging ensemble trained on the combined homogeneous feature subspaces. This is feature selection at inter-homogeneous level of the feature hierarchy, i.e., selecting the homogeneous feature subspaces which are most effective for semantic image classification.

There is an optional step 2 in algorithm 1 that does feature selection  $P^{S_j}(S_j)$  for each homogeneous feature subspace  $S_j$ , i.e., selecting the optimal feature dimensions for each homogeneous feature subspace at the intra-homogeneous level of the feature hierarchy.

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**Algorithm 2** Joint feature/classifier selection

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1. **Input:** homogeneous subspaces  $S_j$  and their goodness measurement  $G(S_j)$  obtained from algorithm 1
2. Sort  $S_j$  according to  $G(S_j)$  in descending order and push them into a FIFO queue  $Queue_s$ .
3. Initialize current proposed subspace as  $S_{propose} = \phi$
4. For  $i = 1, 2 \dots k_{homo}$ 
  - (a) draw the first homogeneous subspace from  $Queue_s$  as  $S_i^{Q_s}$
  - (b) join this reduced subspace set  $S_i^{Q_s}$  with the current proposal by  $S_{propose} = S_{propose} \cup S_i^{Q_s}$
  - (c) Compute for each training sample  $(y_n, x_n)$  the loss function  $L_{S_{propose}}(x_n, y_n)$  as the 0-1 loss on bagging ensemble whose weak classifiers are trained on homogeneous subspaces that are contained in  $S_{propose}$ , over which sample  $(y_n, x_n)$  is out-of-bag
  - (d) Calculate the *goodness* of the proposed subspace

$$G(S_{propose}) = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_{S_{propose}}(x_n, y_n)$$

5. **Output** the optimal subspace

$$S_{propose}^{best} = \arg \max_{S_{propose}} G(S_{propose})$$


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The feature selection processes at these two levels are relatively independent, and we can performance feature selection at the inter-homogeneous level with or without feature selection at the intra-homogeneous level.

It's worth noting that after algorithm 1 is run on a given classification problem and the result output into algorithm 2, there is on need to grow a new bagging ensemble from the scratch again (i.e., re-sampling bootstraps from the dataset and fit weak classifiers) to estimate the goodness of the proposed feature space done in step 4c. Instead, the estimation can be directly derived from the calculations of the bagging ensemble that's already built in algorithm 1. In other words, the feature/classifier selection process is totally embedded into the classifier training process, and these two processes are integrated together to optimize one single goal, i.e., to maximize the generalization accuracy of the final ensemble classifier.

In current implementation, linear-kernel is chosen for Support Vector Machine to learn weak classifier  $Q^b(x^S, T^S)$  because of its high strength without the computation-costly model selection which is normally required for other kernels like polynomial (order of polynomial,  $n$ ) and RBF (shape of Gaussian,  $\sigma$ ). Penalty parameter  $C$  is set to 1 for all SVM formulation. Principle Component Analysis is used to learn the projection  $P^{S_j}(S_j)$  for each homogeneous subspace  $S_j$ .  $Iter_{max}$  is set to be 50 as the number of iterations through all homogeneous feature subspace in bagging process in order to be large enough for the algorithm to converge on our dataset.



Figure 2: Example image for salient objects: “tree”, “yellow flower”, “purple flower”, “grass”, “red flower” that jointly annotates the scene *garden*

Table 1: sample numbers for all 19 salient object classes

sand field	yellow flower	grass	sea water
289	352	766	1689
sky	snow	rock	red flower
2385	386	1057	527
purple flower	brown horse	tree	sail cloth
459	516	1017	975
building	leaf	cloud	ship
1079	253	361	471
battle plane	elephant	remnant	
371	477	837	

## 4. SEMANTIC IMAGE CLASSIFICATION

In our experiments, we use natural image data for *object class* recognition [13].  $M=19$  labeled object classes are used in the experiment. Because of the binary nature of the SVM classifier, we decompose the multi-class problem into a set of one-against-one binary problems as the test-bed of our proposed algorithm because (a) it separates the effect of multi-class decision process from that of binary classification over which feature selection is performed; (b) it avoids the fine-tuning of the “cost-sensitive” parameters for highly skewed problems like one-against-all; (c) as can be seen from the sample numbers for each object class at Table 1, the ratio of opposite class sample sizes vary from 1:1 to 1:10, which provides us a large spectrum of problems that skewed differently. All of these purposefully serve for better analysis of the feature selection algorithm as compared to using only one single multi-class problem. Examples for these object classes are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

Finally, it’s worth noting that even though we run our experiments on binary problems, the proposed joint feature/classifier selection algorithm supports multi-class problem at the algorithmic level. This can be done by substitution of the binary weak classifier with a multi-class weak classifier such as C4.5 tree or multi-class SVM.

## 5. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

We setup three sets of experiments that run on every binary problem and compare their classification performances.

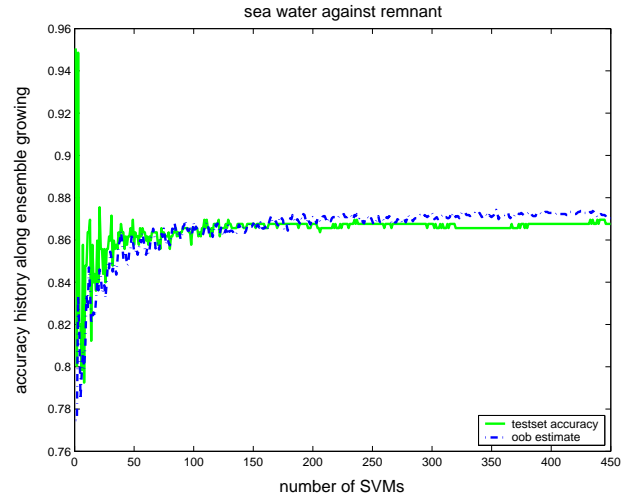


Figure 3: Accuracy estimations during the bagging process on all homogeneous subspaces for the problem “sea water vs. remnant”. (Totally 83 dimensions)

The first experiment, which serves as baseline, is growing traditional bagging ensemble classifier whose weak classifiers are trained on homogeneous subspaces without any feature selection. The second experiment trains bagging ensemble classifier with feature selection at inter-homogeneous level to show the sole effect of higher level feature/classifier selection. Finally, bagging ensemble is trained with feature selection at both inter-homogeneous level and intra-homogeneous level to display the joint effect of the 2-level hierarchical feature selection.

### 5.1 Baseline performance

To estimate the baseline performance of ensemble classifier for each binary problem, we randomly split the dataset into 80% for training and 20% for testing by stratified sampling. Then we grow a bagging ensemble without any feature selection on the training set. Note that 50 iterations over 9 homogeneous subspaces results in totally 450 weak SVMs to form an ensemble. The ensemble is then tested on the test set. Both the test-set accuracy and out-of-bag estimation are recorded to approximate the generalization performance of the combined classifier. In our experiments, these two estimations are correlated strongly, a result that confirms the observations in [5]. We use out-of-bag estimation throughout our experiments for performance comparison, because it has a lower variance compared to that of a static test-set.

Overall, this baseline ensemble method yields a mean accuracy 87.07% with 7.28% standard deviation across all binary problems with the range as [67.64%, 99.44%]. (Due to the length of the paper, we are not able to show the performances for all binary problems so we summarize these results with their mean and standard deviation.)

Figure 3 shows the out-of-bag accuracy estimation (blue line) and test-set accuracy (green line) history along the growth of the ensemble for the “sea water vs. remnant” problem. As we can see from the figure, the bagging process is very “rugged” before the point where 150 weak classifiers are trained and combined. Performance fluctuation

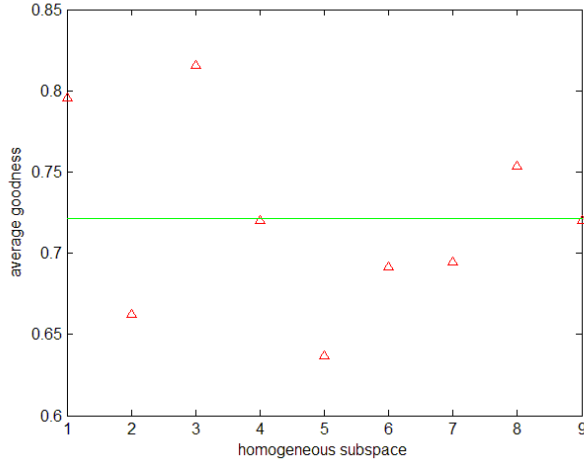


Figure 4: *goodness* of every homogeneous subspace, averaged over all binary problems.

can be observed almost whenever a new weak SVM is added into the ensemble classifier. This is a strong indication for the performance discrepancy among weak classifiers that are trained on different homogeneous subspaces: a tension between differently behaved weak classifiers. It’s our goal to remove the *bad* classifiers/subspaces out of the ensemble.

After all, the ensemble’s performance is boosted along the bagging process in our example in spite of the local fluctuation. After 150 SVMs are trained and combined, the ensemble’s performance starts to converge to 87.03% accuracy.

## 5.2 Goodness of homogeneous subspaces and inter-homogeneous selection

Growing an bagging ensemble has one important by-product, i.e., an out-of-bag estimation of the error rate for the bagging ensemble of marginal SVMs trained on a specific homogeneous subspace (Note the difference to the out-of-bag estimation for the entire ensemble trained on all homogeneous subspaces). We use these unbiased estimations to measure the *goodness* of each homogeneous subspace as defined in algorithm 1, which later will be used by our greedy algorithm to search for the best combination of homogeneous subspaces.

The goodness measurement of homogeneous subspaces is problem dependent. However it’s interesting that we average these goodness measurements across all binary problems to get a general idea about which homogeneous subspace works well with binary semantic image classification problems of this kind. After normalization, we compare the general goodness for each homogeneous subspace in Figure 4. (The green line is the average goodness for all homogeneous subspaces.)

There are strong patterns indicated in Figure 4: R,G,B average color subspace (homogeneous subspace #1) and L,U,V average color subspace (homogeneous subspace #3), both 3 dimensional and color features, stand out to be most discriminative features; while average/standard deviation of Gabor filter bank energy (homogeneous subspace #5), a 2-dimensional texture features, is the least discriminative among all. This phenomena suggests the general impor-

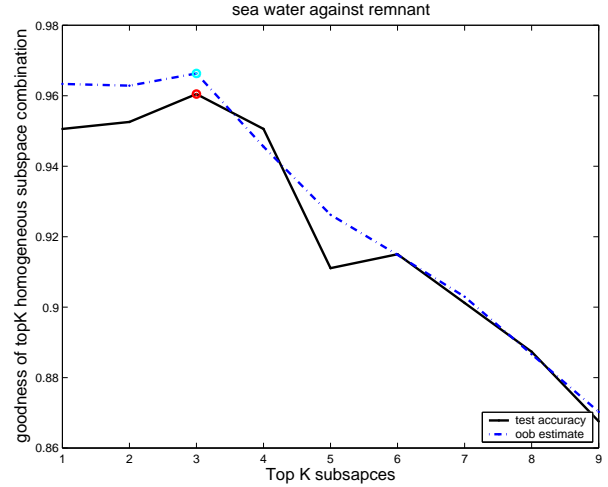


Figure 5: selection process of the best homogeneous subspace combination for the problem “sea water vs. remnant”.

tance of color information in classification tasks that deal with natural color images [12].

Using the output of the goodness measurement of each homogeneous subspace, we can generalize the idea of wrapper method. Subspaces are ranked by their goodness which drives forward selection of the best combination of these subspaces, which we refer to as the “bestK” subspace.

In our experiment, we obtain an average bestK value for all binary problems as 3.18 (# of homogeneous subspaces) which translates into an average saving of 58.73 dimensions across all binary problems, i.e., 70.75% dimension-wise reduction from the original 83.

The forward selection process at the inter-homogeneous level is shown in Figure 5 for the example problem “sea water vs. remnant”, in which blue line represents the average out-of-bag estimation of the classification accuracy and green line represents the test-set classification accuracy history. Note that the out-of-bag estimation are used to decide the bestK value for best homogeneous subspaces combination, while the test-set is blind to the training process and only used to check the performance of out-of-bag estimation. These two measurements correlate to each other strongly and the maximum of out-of-bag estimation nicely pick ups the best test-set accuracy. ( These two optimal points are shown in magenta circle and red circle respectively.)

## 5.3 Ensemble performance with inter-homogeneous feature selection

After we have selected the bestK number of homogeneous subspaces for each binary problem, we want to compare its performance to the baseline. We adopt the same methodology specified in section 5.1 to evaluate the bagging ensemble performance for each binary problem.

In our experiment, with inter-homogeneous feature selection, an average 93.37% classification accuracy is recorded with standard deviation 6.2% across all classification problems – an average 7.24% boost in performance in compare to the baseline. Considering the low value of K and the corresponding feature dimension reduction, inter-homogeneous



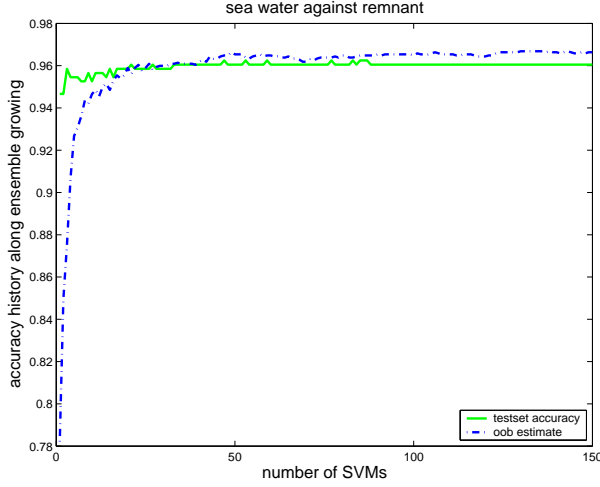


Figure 6: Accuracy estimation during the bagging process on bestK homogeneous subspaces for the problem “sea water vs. remnant”. Total 11 dimensions.

Table 2: average dimensions for each homogeneous subspace before/after PCA reduction (  $\rho/\bar{\rho}$  )

subspace name	RGB avg	RGB var	LUV avg
$\rho$	3	4	3
$\bar{\rho}$	2.08	1.44	2.74
subspace name	LUV var	Gabor	chan energy
$\rho$	4	2	30
$\bar{\rho}$	2.76	2	9.66
subspace name	chan std	Tamura	angle hist
$\rho$	30	2	5
$\bar{\rho}$	12.41	2	4.23

feature selection significantly increases performance in both classification accuracy and feature reduction.

We show the bagging process for the example problem “sea water vs. remnant” in Figure 6 to compare with that in Figure 3 to show the effect of reducing the number of homogeneous spaces from the original 9 to now 3, which are average L,U,V color (3-dimensional), average R,G,B color (3-dimensional) and angle histogram texture (5-dimensional) respectively. In order words, feature selection at the inter-homogeneous level reduces the original 83 dimensions to now 11 dimensions for this binary classification problem. We can see that the bagging process after removing the inferior homogeneous subspaces is much smoother than it is before, and the accuracy rate boosts much faster and quickly converges to about 96.63% accuracy – an 11% increase from that of Fig 3, according to out-of-bag estimation.

#### 5.4 Ensemble performance with both inter-homogeneous and intra-homogeneous feature selection

All the previous discussions focus on the selection of homogeneous subspaces. It would also be beneficial to combine this technique with traditional feature selection meth-

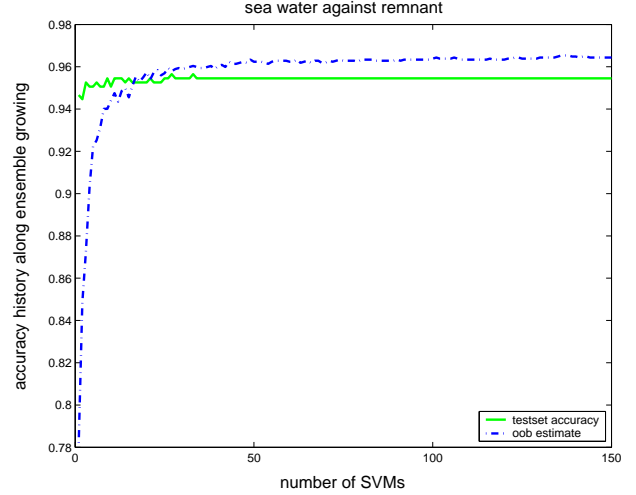


Figure 7: Accuracy estimation during the bagging process on bestK PCA-reduced homogeneous subspaces for the problem “sea water vs. remnant”. Total 9 dimensions.

ods that are ideal within each homogeneous subspace. These techniques include the classical algorithms such as Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and Fisher’s correlation score or more recent methods like Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE) [15] and random permutation mechanism proposed in Random Forest [7]. We choose PCA in our experiment because of its low computational complexity.

For each problem, we run PCA algorithm on every homogeneous subspaces and retain only 95% of the variance. Table 2 lists the average dimensions before and after PCA feature reduction across all binary problems for each homogeneous subspace.

After combining PCA feature reduction at intra-homogeneous level with the inter-homogeneous subspace selection at higher level in our experiment, the average dimensionality reduces further down to 12.98 across all problems from the previous average 24.27 dimensions obtained by using merely inter-homogeneous subspace selection – a 46.6% more saving on dimensionality.

For classification accuracy, we record a mean performance 92.57% with standard deviation 6.61% across all problems. This phenomena suggests that by incorporating the intra-homogeneous feature selection into inter-homogeneous subspace selection, we can further compress the dimensionality of the feature space while maintaining a comparable level of classification accuracy.

We show the bagging process for the example problem “sea water vs. remnant” in Figure 7 to compare with Figure 6. The smoothness of the bagging process in Figure 7 is similar to Figure 6 (i.e. inter-homogeneous subspace selection only) and the generalization accuracy remains very close to each other – about 96%. But PCA further reduces dimensions from 11 dimensions to 9 dimensions on this binary problem. They are average L,U,V color (3-dimensional, same as before PCA), average R,G,B color (2 dimensional, reduced after PCA ) and angle histogram texture (4 dimensional, reduced after PCA ).

**Table 3: Comparison of performances under different training sample size**

Training set	100 samples	50 samples	20 samples
one-shot SVM	90.88±6.94	88.83±7.71	84.38±9.13
full ensemble	89.05±6.48	88.03±7.15	85.51±8.24
bestK ensemble	91.54±7.09	90.65±7.89	86.90±9.75

## 5.5 Performance comparison with one-shot SVM

After we compare the performance of bagging ensembles before and after our proposed hierarchical feature selection, we would also like to compare their performances against a non-ensemble method that trains directly on the heterogeneous full feature space, because our major motivation for building bagging-ensemble classifier instead of a single strong classifier such as one-shot SVM (single SVM trained in the full feature space), is that weak classifiers need much less samples for robust classifier training. This phenomena should be evident under small training set condition.

We set up three experiments with different training sample sizes to empirically verify this principle: (a) 100 samples (50 positive and 50 negative) randomly sampled from the entire dataset set; (b) 50 samples (25 positive and 25 negative) randomly sampled from the entire dataset set; (c) 20 samples (10 positive and 10 negative) randomly sampled from the entire dataset set. In any case, test set is formed by randomly sampling from the rest of the dataset with its size as the same as the corresponding training set. Then we compare the performances of three classifiers: (a) one-shot SVM; (b) bagging-ensemble without any feature selection; (c) bagging-ensemble with inter-homogeneous subspace selection.

All these sampling-training-testing experiments are repeated 5 times, and their average test-set accuracy are recorded. The average performances for these three classifiers over all binary classification problems are summarized in Table 3. It can be observed that while all three classifiers show a generally monotonic degradation of performance as the training sample size decreases, one-shot SVM classifier degrades faster than ensemble classifiers. This is because the small-size datasets are not enough for training robust one-shot SVM in full-dimensional feature space but relatively sufficient for robust weak classifier training and combination. The feature selection algorithm shows consistent superiority on classification accuracy regardless of training sample size.

## 6. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

With this large-scale experiment on semantic image classification problem, we show the effectiveness of the proposed joint feature selection and classifier training algorithm via partitioning heterogeneous feature space into multiple homogeneous subspace. The higher level feature selection algorithm reduces the feature space drastically by removing inferior homogeneous subspaces at the same time it boosts the ensemble classifier’s performance. Applying PCA feature reduction algorithm at the lower level to each homogeneous subspace further reduces the overall feature space while maintaining the ensemble classifier’s accuracy. In situations when training samples are rare, our proposed al-

gorithm not only selects a good feature subspace, but also forms an ensemble classifier that outperforms the strong one-shot SVM that is trained on the full feature space.

A direct implication from this observation is that: when training samples are sufficient for training a strong classifier in the full feature space, high-strength classifier such as one-shot SVM is preferred; but when training samples are not enough, bagging weak classifiers on homogeneous subspaces can be more beneficial. In any situation, the proposed hierarchical feature selection algorithm is effective in boosting the classification performance of the bagging-ensemble and reducing its dimensionality.

Although bagging method is used as the integration scheme for weak classifiers, more sophisticated method like Adaboosting can also be adopted for joint feature/classifier selection. As ongoing theoretical research sheds more light on the mechanism of Arcing algorithm, it’s attractive to use these more powerful integration techniques to achieve better feature selection and more accurate ensemble classifiers.

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