

**Sugar Cane Grading from photo using machine learning
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I have read this report and approve its content.

Abstract (English)

This project will work in co-operation with staff from Mitrphol Sugar Company to create a software test bed for improving sugarcane quality control over a large area. The test bed will be able to analyze the sugar cane health from photos of cane fields. The project will use machine learning techniques to train the software to discriminate photos based on cane quality. The test bed will first extract the sugar cane crucial features from mobile phone photos. This test bed will then classify the cane photos into different health categories based on extracted features using supervised machine learning. The results obtained from this project will be useful for developing a real world system to allow individual farmers to send photos of their fields, which can be analyzed and classified to get more detailed information about cane health over a wide area. This project is thus important because it will help sugar companies gain better information with a lower surveying cost.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Problem Statement and Approach

Sugarcane is an important crop in Thailand. In order to forecast sugarcane yield, sugar companies need detailed information on the cane conditions in different fields. Features such as color and size of the leaves are some indicators of cane conditions (cane health).

A field's condition, such as soil properties, seed quality or irrigation system, has some important consequences for those features. However, not every field is identical. Thus, the features and the resulting cane quality vary from one field to another. This will cause a problem in collecting data; there are too many fields and it is too complicated and time consuming for sugar companies to do exhaustive surveys to get the information that they need.

To address to this problem, this project will work in co-operation with staff from Mitrphol Sugar Company to create a software test bed for improving cane quality control over a large area. The test bed will be able to analyze the sugar cane health from photos of the fields taken from ground level. The project will use machine learning to train the software to discriminate photos based on cane quality. The results obtained from this project will be useful for developing a real world system to allow individual farmers to send photos of their fields to Mitrphol which can be analyzed and classified to get more detailed information about cane health over a wide area. This project is thus important because it will help sugar companies gain better information with a lower surveying cost.

This is a research - real world stakeholder project.

1.2 Objectives

The goal of this project is to develop a software test bed for experimenting with images of sugar cane using supervised machine learning technique. The test bed will first extract the sugar cane crucial features from photos. This test bed will then classify the cane photos into different health categories based on extracted features using supervised machine learning.

1.3 Scope

This project does not attempt to deliver a final system, but rather a software testbed. The testbed is intended to experiment with images of sugarcane with different machine learning models and conclude which model can achieve the best result.

Deliverables for Term 1

- ✓ Experimental data set
- ✓ Experimental design
- ✓ Decision on what learning framework(s) to use, with justification
- ✓ Some prototype using the selected framework

Deliverables for Term 2

- ✓ Complete experimental design of the test bed
- ✓ Software test bed with desired results
- ✓ Results and data analysis

1.4 Tasks and Schedule

1.4.1 Task breakdown

1. Analyze and determine the requirements of the project
2. Plan the project schedule
3. Work on introduction chapter of the report (chapter 1)
4. Research emphasizing on the following topics:
 - i. Work by other researchers on discriminating between similar images using machine learning
 - ii. Machine learning methods for image classification and the available libraries
 - iii. Basic image processing concepts
5. Create the project proposal and get feedback
6. Test prototypes for various learning frameworks and make a decision on which learning framework to use
7. Collect and create dataset
8. Study and understand the dataset
9. Create experimental design
10. Complete progress report for the first semester
11. Work on theory and background chapter of the report (chapter 2)
12. Work on methodology chapter of the report (chapter 3)
13. Prepare for presentation for the first semester
14. Write software to standardize and augment images
15. Write scripts to control the experiments
16. Test the system and fix bugs
17. Train and test the system with different parameters
18. Analyze the results
19. Complete final report for the second semester (Result + conclusions, chapter 4 and 5)
20. Create poster and prepare for presentation for the second semester

1.4.2 Draft Schedule

Step	Operation	Project Duration																																	
		2016												2017																					
		August				September				October				November				December				January				February				March				April	
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4		
1	Analyze and determine the requirements of the project	1	2																																
2	Plan the project schedule		1	2																															
3	Work on Introduction chapter of the report		1	2																															
4	Research emphasizing on the following topics:		1	2	3	4																													
	1) Work by other researchers on discriminating between similar images using machine learning		1	2	3	4																													
	2) ML method for image classification especially CNN and the available libraries					1																													
	3) Basic image processing concept					1																													
5	Create the project proposal and get feedbacks					1	2																												
6	Test prototypes for various learning frameworks and make a decision on which learning framework to use									1	2	3	4																						
7	Collect and create dataset									1	2																								
8	Study and understand the dataset									1	2																								
9	Create experimental design									1	2																								
10	Complete progress report for the first semester									1	2	3	4																						

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Chapter 2

Background, Theory and Related Research

2.1 Digital Image Processing Concepts

2.1.1 Digital Image Representation

Pixels are basic elements of an image. Each pixel depicts a light intensity value, which is represented as a number. Digital image is a collection of pixels. There are two types of digital image: grey scale image and color image. Grey scale image is defined by a matrix of pixels, whereas color image is usually defined by a cube made of three matrixes of pixels.

The density of pixels in an image is called **resolution**. If we have an image of a particular scene, the level of detail will be controlled by the number of pixels. The more pixels that we keep to describe an image, the more detailed the image.

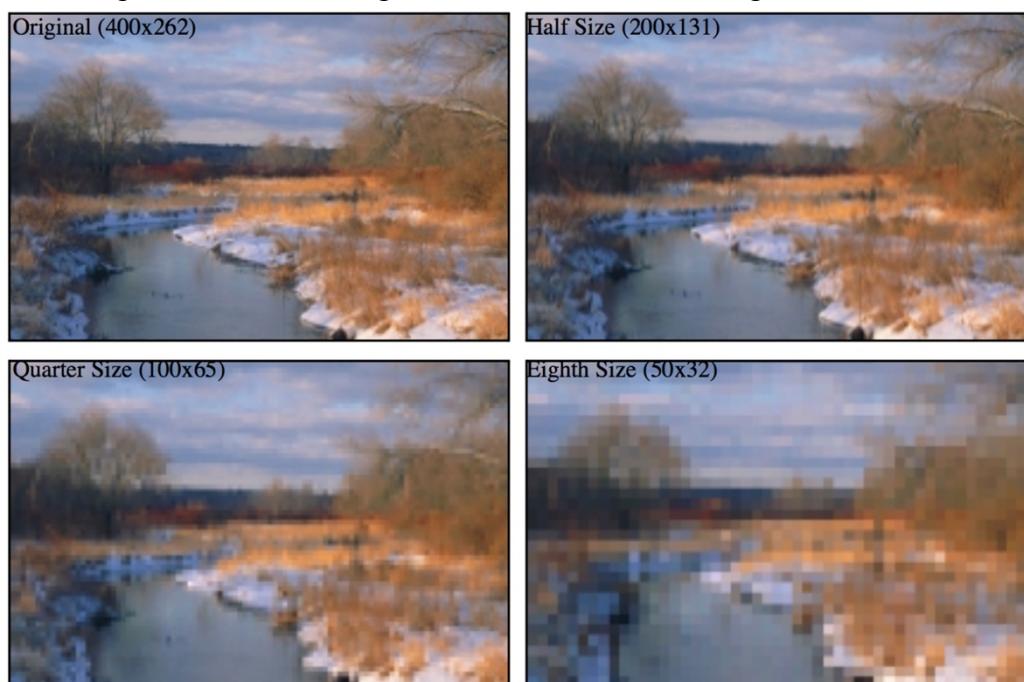


Figure 2.1-1 What happens as we reduce the resolution of an image while keeping its size the same. [9]

A monochrome image can be described in terms of a two-dimensional light intensity function $f(x,y)$, where the amplitude of $f(x,y)$ is the intensity (brightness) of the image at position (x,y) . The intensity of a monochrome image lies in the range

$$L_{min} < f(x,y) < L_{max}$$

Equation 2.1-1

where the interval $[L_{min}, L_{max}]$ is called the grey scale. There are two common grey scale storage methods: 8-bit storage and 1-bit storage.

The most common storage method is 8-bit storage. It can represent up to 2^8 colours for each pixel. The grey scale interval is $[0,255]$, with 0 being black and 255 being white.

The less common storage method is 1-bit storage. There are two grey levels, with 0 being black and 1 being white. Images represented by this method are also called binary images.



Figure 2.1-2 Level grey scale. [9]

A colored image can be represented using multi-channel color models. The most widely used model is the RGB. Colored images are made up of three primary color components: red, green and blue (RGB). These three primary components together create a three-dimensional color space with red defining one axis, green defining the second, and blue defining the third. Every existing color is described as a mixture of red, green, and blue light and located somewhere within the color space.

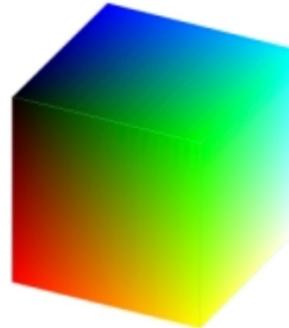


Figure 2.1-3 Color space. [9]

Using RGB model, a colored image can be described using a three-channel intensity function

$$I_{RGB}(x, y) = (F_R(x, y), F_G(x, y), F_B(x, y))$$

Equation 2.1-2

where $F_R(x, y)$ is the intensity at position (x,y) in the red channel, $F_G(x, y)$ is the intensity at position (x,y) in the green channel, and $F_B(x, y)$ is the intensity at position (x,y) in the blue channel. Each channel usually uses an 8-bit storage, so together the three channels can describe up to 2^8 colours. Thus, computers commonly use a 24-bit storage to describe the intensity at position (x,y), which can describe up to 2^{24} colours.

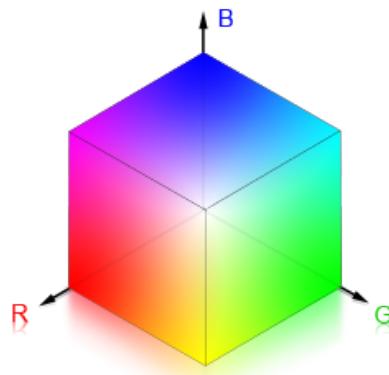


Figure 2.1-4 Color intensity where B stands for blue, R stands for red and G stands for green [11]

2.1.2 Image Processing Operations

Image operations are calculations applied to each pixel (x,y) of an input image f to transform the input image $f(x, y)$ into an output image $g(x, y)$. Different operation types are applied to an image depending on what kind of results we want to achieve. In this section, we will focus on discussing three types of image operations: resampling, cropping and histogram modifications.

Resampling is a technique used to generate a new image with a different resolution. Increasing the number of pixels is called **upsampling** and decreasing the number of pixels is called **downsampling**. Upsampling can sharpen the original image whereas downsampling softens or blurs the original image. There are several different resampling techniques. The main concept of those techniques is to interpolate the value of a new pixel from the existing pixels of the original image. Nearest neighbor resampling is the simplest method. The value of each pixel in the output image is the value of its nearest neighbor in the original image.

Cropping refers to the removal of the regions in the image. A new pair of (x,y) coordinates is required to define diagonally opposite corners of the cropped image. The resulting image is a smaller image that contains useful data for further studies.

Histogram is the frequency distribution of pixel values. Histograms are frequently visualized as graphs. For example, the histogram below shows the frequency of pixel values of a grey scale image, where the x axis indicates the range of the pixel values and y axis indicates the frequency with which each value appears in the entire image.

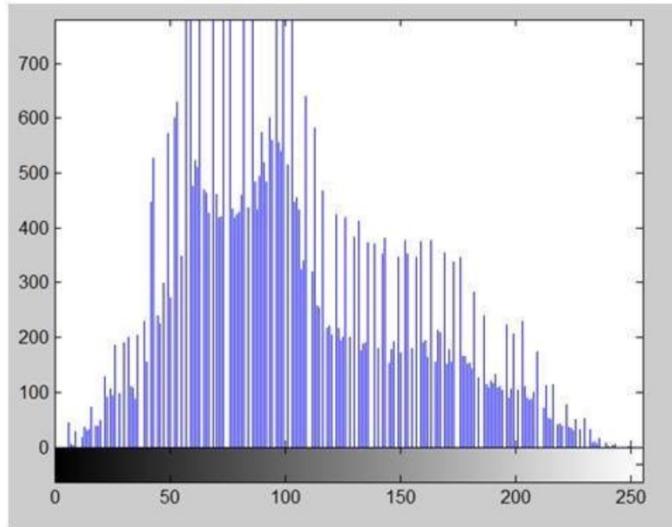


Figure 2.1-5 An image histogram[14]

There are various operations to modify an image's histogram. In this section we will focus on discussing about histogram sliding and histogram stretching.

Histogram sliding is a method used to change image brightness. To increase the brightness, we shift an image's histogram to the right by adding a constant value to every pixel of an image. In contrast, to decrease the brightness, we shift an image's histogram to the left by subtracting a constant value from every pixel of an image. This does not change the shape of the distribution at all, just the location within the grey scale range.

Histogram stretching is a method used to increase the contrast. Contrast is the difference between the maximum and the minimum intensity values of an image. There are several ways to do histogram stretching. We will illustrate how histogram stretching works by demonstrating one of them through the following formula:

$$g(x, y) = \frac{f(x, y) - f_{min}}{f_{max} - f_{min}} 2^{bpp}$$

Equation 2.1-3

where $f(x, y)$ is the pixel intensity of the original image, f_{min} is the minimum pixel intensity, f_{max} is the maximum pixel intensity and bpp is the bit per pixel. The purpose of this formula is to 'spread' the image's old intensity values over a larger range. By doing so, we increase the difference between the maximum and the minimum intensity values of an image and hence increase the contrast.

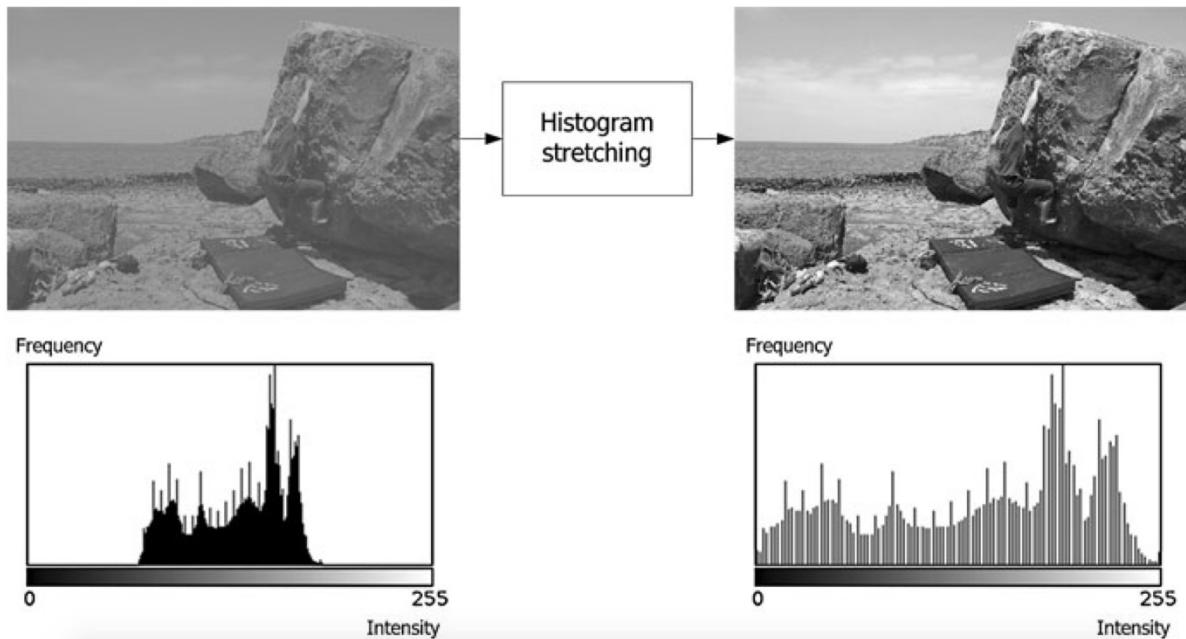


Figure 2.1-6 An illustration of histogram stretching

Figure 2.1-6 shows an illustration of histogram stretching. The original image and its histogram are on the left. The image whose contrast is increased by histogram stretching and its histogram are on the right.

2.2 Image Convolution

2.2.1 Concepts and Mathematics

Convolution is an image transformation technique using neighborhood (or area-based) operators. The objective of image convolution is to process an input image in order to enhance some important features that are suitable for a specific application. Convolution has two main approaches: spatial-domain approach and frequency-domain approach. Spatial-domain and frequency-domain approach can both be described in terms of convolutional function:

$$g(x,y) = h(x,y)*f(x,y)$$

Equation 2.2-1

given $f(x,y)$ is the input image, $h(x,y)$ is a small pattern called the **kernel** and $g(x,y)$ is the output image.

In spatial-domain, we look at the value of each pixel varies with respect to scene whereas in frequency-domain, we look at the rate at which the pixel values change in spatial-domain. Thus, in frequency-domain approach, we will have to convert the pixel values into frequency-domain before applying convolution, then convert the result back into spatial-domain. We will mainly discuss about spatial-domain procedure in this section.

The procedure for convolution in spatial-domain is as follows: A **filter** (sometimes can be referred to as a **mask**, a **kernel** or a **window**) is slid around the input image. The filter is a smaller matrix of values called **coefficients**. Each time the filter is placed at a new position, every pixel of the input image contained within the filter is multiplied by the corresponding filter coefficient, and then the resulting products are summed together. The result from each multiplication and summation becomes the value of the next pixel of the output image. The described procedure is repeated this until all values of the output image have been calculated.

2.2.2 Examples – Sobel, Blurring

Below we will give two simple examples to illustrate the application of convolutional filtering.

The first application is to highlight edges in an image. Some well-known edge enhancement filters are Prewitt operator, Sobel operator, Robinson compass masks, Krisch compass Masks and Laplacian operator. The decision on which filter to use depends on our desired results. Here we will describe the use of Sobel edge detection. A Sobel filter is used to calculate edges in both horizontal and vertical direction.

The vertical mask of Sobel operator is as follows:

-1	0	1
-2	0	2
-1	0	1

Table 2.2-1 Vertical Mask of Sobel operator

The pixels at the corresponding position to the area declared by this filter of the input image are respectively multiply by -1,0,1,-2,0,2,-1,0 and 1. The results of these nine multiplications are then summed. The filter is then moved to the next position in the image. This process is repeated until all values of the image has been calculated.

The horizontal Mask of Sobel operator is as follows:

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

Table 2.2-2 Horizontal Mask of Sobel operator

Similarly, the pixels at the corresponding position to the area declared by this filter of the input image are respectively multiply by -1,-2,-1,0,0,0,1,2 and 1. The results of these nine multiplications are then summed. The filter is then moved to the next position in the image. The horizontal and vertical output images are kept separately. This process is repeated until all values of the image has been calculated.

This filter gives more weight to the pixel values around the edge region. It thus increases the edge intensities. As a result, the output image edges become enhanced comparatively to the original image.

The second application is to blur an image. There are three common type of filters that are used to perform blurring: mean filter, weighted average filter and Gaussian filter. We are going to discuss about mean filter. In a mean filter, there are an odd number of filter elements, all of which are the same and which sum to one. For example, a 3x3 mean filter can be declared as followed:

1/9	1/9	1/9
1/9	1/9	1/9
1/9	1/9	1/9

Table 2.2-3 3x3 Mean filter

The pixels at the corresponding position of the input image to the area covered by this filter are multiplied by 1/9. The results of these nine multiplications are then summed to become the output pixel value at the center position. This process is repeated until all values of the image has been calculated.

This operation can be used to suppress noise data that may be present in a digital image as a result of poor sampling system or transmitting channel such as isolated bright pixels.

2.3 Machine learning

2.3.1 Core concepts of machine learning

Machine learning studies computers' abilities to automatically recognize patterns and generate intelligent conclusions from the given data. It is generally divided into two learning types: supervised and unsupervised.

Supervised learning (SVM) is equivalent to data classification. Computers learn patterns from the labeled examples then use them to make intelligent classification on the unknown data.

Unsupervised learning (USVM) is equivalent to clustering. Initially, there is no label associated with the data. Computers try to divide the dataset into clusters to discover classes based on pre-existing structure within the data. USVM cannot narrate semantic meaning of the clusters in their learnt models.

Data classification consists of a learning step and a classification step. In the learning phrase, computers build a classification model by studying the **training set** made up of pre-labeled tuples. A tuple X describes a set of features. Each tuple is represented by a vector of n -dimension $X = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ where x_i is a value for one feature dimension, and categorized with a class label attribute x_c . The class label attribute has a discrete value that indicates to which class tuple X belongs.

In the classification phrase, the learned model is used for predicting the class label for new data. To evaluate this model, a **testing set** is used. Each testing set is also made up of pre-labeled tuples. Testing data sets are usually independent of training sets.

When the resulting model is tailored to fit one specific sample rather than reflecting the overall population, we have an **overfitting** problem. There are various methods to reduce overfitting. One is to put some random noise in the data. Another is to stop training before 100% accuracy is achieved.

2.3.2 Training and testing strategies

The given dataset must be divided into training and testing sets. There are various strategies for doing this, including the three following methods:

Hold out: The given data set is randomly divided into two independent sets: training set and testing set. Usually two-thirds of the data are in the training set and one-third of the data is in the testing set.

k-fold cross-validation: The data set is divided into k subsets, and the holdout method is repeated k times. Each time, one of the k subsets is used as the test set and the other $k-1$ subsets are put together to form a training set. Then the average error across all k trials is computed. The advantage of this method is that it matters less how the data gets divided.

Bootstrap: A common bootstrap method is the .632 bootstrap. Given a dataset of d tuples, this dataset will be sampled d times with replacement. Each time a tuple is selected, it is added back into the data pool. Thus it may be selected again. The data that do not make it into the training set will eventually be added into the testing set. The training set and the testing set are not independent because the same tuple can be included in both the training and the testing sets. In .632 bootstrap, 63.2% of the dataset will end up in the bootstrap sample, and the 36.8% that did not make it to the bootstrap sample will together form the test set. Bootstrapping is especially useful when we want to replicate the distributional properties of a random variable in the real world since in the real world, it is not always the case that a tuple only appears once.

2.3.3 Model evaluation

Confusion matrix is often used to measure the performance of a classifier. A confusion matrix is represented by a table of size $j \times j$, where j is the number of output classes. A table entry a_{ij} is in row i^{th} and column j^{th} and indicates the number of tuples that are actually in

class i but were classified by the classifier to be in class j.

For calculating convention, for every output class j, we will categorize the tuples classified by the classifier into four groups, as suggested by Jiawei et al. [8]

True positive (TP): For each given class j, tuples that are pre-labeled as class j and correctly recognized by the classifier to be in class j are true positive. TP represents the number of true positive tuples.

True negative (TN): For each given class j, tuples that are pre-labeled as class i and correctly recognized by the classifier to be in class i are true negative. TN represents the number of true negative tuples.

False positive (FP): For each given class j, tuples that are pre-labeled as class i and mistakenly recognized by the classifier to be in class j are false positive. FP represents the number of false positive tuples.

False negative (FN): For each given class j, tuples that are pre-labeled as class j and mistakenly recognized by the classifier to be in any class other than j are false negative. FN represents the number of false negative tuples.

Table 2.3-1 and 2.3-2 shows two examples of TP, TN, FP, FN for class 0 and class 1 respectively.

Actual class	Predicted class				
	0	1	2	...	j
0	TP	FN	FN	FN	FN
1	FP	TN	FN	FN	FN
2	FP	FN	TN	FN	FN
...	FP	FN	FN	TN	FN
j	FP	FN	FN	FN	TN

Table 2.3-1 Confusion matrix for class 0

Actual class	Predicted class				
	0	1	2	...	j
0	TN	FP	FN	FN	FN
1	FN	TP	FN	FN	FN
2	FN	FP	TN	FN	FN
...	FN	FP	FN	TN	FN
j	FN	FP	FN	FN	TN

Table 2.3-2 Confusion matrix for class 1

By dividing classified tuples into these four groups, we can now evaluate our classifiers. The classifier accuracy or recognition rate on the given test set is calculated as follow:

$$\text{accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N}$$

Equation 2.3-1

where

$$P = TP + FP$$

Equation 2.3-2

and

$$N = TN + FN$$

Equation 2.3-3

Similarly, the classifier error rate or misclassification rate is:

$$\text{Error rate} = 1 - \text{accuracy} = \frac{FP + FN}{P + N}$$

Equation 2.3-4

2.4 Multilayer feed-forward neural networks (MFNN)

2.4.1 Overviews

MFNN is a classic machine learning algorithm that simulates the way human brain works. MFNN is very useful for studying large datasets due to its ability to tolerate noisy data as well as to learn patterns without prior knowledge. It is especially efficient for real world data, where we do not know much about the relationships between attributes and classes. Generally, MFNN requires a large amount of input data in order to well perform.

Each MFNN consists of an input layer, one more hidden layers and an output layer. Layers are connected in acyclic graph. Each layer is made up of computational elements called **neurons**. Neurons between two adjacent layers are pairwise connected, but neurons within one layer share no connection. No direct connection exists between input and output layer.

Inputs are fed into the neurons making up the input layer. The outputs produced by this layer are weighted and passed simultaneously to the first hidden layer. This hidden layer outputs are again weighted and sent to an another hidden layer and so on. It is arbitrary how many hidden layers there should be. The weighted outputs of the last hidden layer are sent to the output layer, where the prediction for the given tuples will be produced.

Neurons in the input layer are **input units**. Neurons in the hidden layers and the output layers are called **neurodes** or sometimes referred to as **output units**. The number of output units are not necessarily equal number of input units. There can be more or less number of hidden units than number of input or output units. Each output unit applies a nonlinear (activation) function to its input. The *activation function* will be described in section 2.5.6.

In a traditional MFNN, all neurons in layer j are connected to each neuron in layer k , for all layers. Thus we say that the NN is fully connected, as shown in figure 2.4-1.

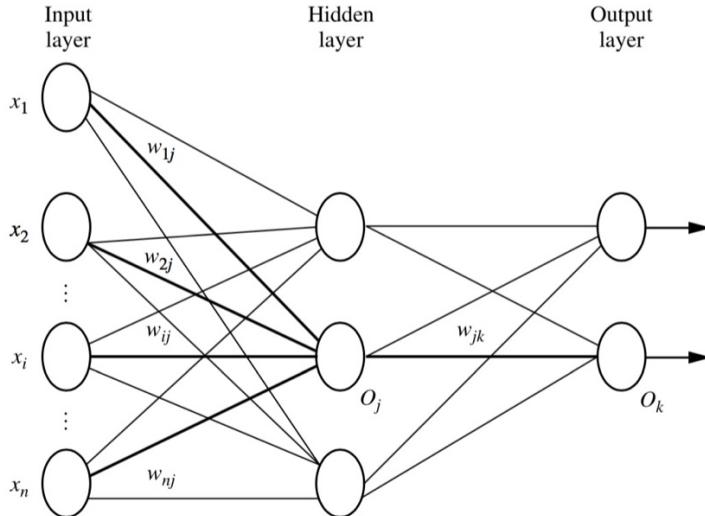


Figure 2.4-1 Fully connected layers. [8]

2.4.2 Back propagation

Back propagation is the learning algorithm of neural networks. It propagates the total error at the output layer in the backward direction. During that procedure, it updates the weights on each connection based on calculations using this error so that in the end the error will be reduced.

The true output of any neuron k is calculated as follows. Each connection from neuron j at layer (l-1) to neuron k at layer l is associated with a weight. The output from neuron j is multiplied by the weight between the connection between j and k, summed across all connections entering neuron k. The result is summed with the bias of neuron k layer l. The weight increases the effect of the connection to a neuron whereas bias raises the importance of all connections to one neuron:

$$a_k^l = f\left(\sum_{j=1}^m w_{jk} a_j^{l-1} + b_k^l\right)$$

Equation 2.4-1

Where f is the neural activation function, a_k^l is true output of neuron k at layer l, a_j^{l-1} is true output of neuron j at layer (l-1), w_{jk} is the weight of the connection between node j and k, b_k^l is the bias of node k.

Total error is the summation of error at each output neuron. The error at each neuron is a function of difference between the actual value of that neuron pre-labeled in the training set and the value predicted by the neural networks. It can be represented in the following equation:

$$E = f(y_{o_N}^o - a_{o_N}^o)$$

Equation 2.4-2 [19]

where $y_{o_N}^o$ is the actual label of a tuple, $a_{o_N}^o$ is the label of that tuple predicted by the neural networks and f is any *loss function*. According to many papers and articles

[1,2,3,4,5,6,19,20], the loss function used to calculate total error in neural networks is mean squared error, whereas in convolutional neural networks it is cross-entropy error.

2.1.1.1 Weight updating

First, we want to update the current weight w_{ij}^l at each connection between neuron i and neuron j in the networks by an amount of Δw_{ij}^l in order to reduce this error:

$$w_{ij}^l(\text{new}) = w_{ij}^l(\text{old}) \pm \eta \Delta w_{ij}^l$$

Equation 2.4-3 [19]

where η is the *learning rate*, w_{ij}^l (old) is the current weight between neuron i and neuron j at layer l, w_{ij}^l (new) is the updated weight between neuron i and neuron j at layer l and Δw_{ij}^l is the amount of weight to be updated at layer l in order to reduce the total error. The larger the learning rate, the faster the networks will learn. Typically, η is set to 0.5 to avoid premature convergence.

The amount of weight to be updated at each connection is the rate at which the total error changes with respect to the change of weight of each connection. This rate can be calculated by taking the derivative of the total error with respect to weight. However, we have not yet known the output of this derivative, therefore, we need to take a step further by applying the chain rule in order to calculate the derivative value from something that we can possibly know:

$$\Delta w_{ij}^l = \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}^l} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l} * \frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial w_{ij}^l}$$

Equation 2.4-4 [19]

where Δw_{ij}^l is the amount of weight to adjust between neuron j and neuron i at layer l, a_j^l is the *true output* of neuron j at layer l, z_j^l is the *net output* of neuron j at layer l, w_{ij}^l is the current weight between neuron j and neuron i at layer l. The net output of a neuron is the output before applying activation function. The real output a neuron is the output after applying activation function.

We can now calculate the value of Δw_{ij}^l by calculating the right hand side of equation 2.4-4 separately in two parts, $\frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial w_{ij}^l}$ and $\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l}$ as follows:

The value of $\frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial w_{ij}^l}$ can be calculated by taking the derivative of the net output of neuron j at layer l with respect to the the current weight between neuron j and neuron i at layer l. Since the net output of neuron j at layer l is

$$z_j^l = \sum_{i=1}^m w_{ij} a_i^{l-1} + b_j^l$$

Equation 2.4-5

which is equation 2.4-1 before applying activation function, the result from this derivative is a_i^{l-1} , which is the sum of true output of all neuron i at layer (l-1) that are connected with neuron j at layer l.

We will denote $\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l}$ as $\delta_{z_j}^l$. It is in fact $\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j^l}$ which is the rate at which the total error changes with respect to the change of net output of neuron j at layer l. The value of $\delta_{z_j}^l$ cannot be calculated directly. Further chain rule needs to be applied to this term:

$$\delta_{z_j}^l = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_i^{l+1}} * \frac{\partial z_i^{l+1}}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l}$$

Equation 2.4-6 [19]

where a_j^l is the true output of neuron j at layer l, z_j^l is the net output of neuron j at layer l and z_i^{l+1} is the net output of neuron j at layer (l+1).

To calculate the terms $\frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l}$, we will need to understand about the activation function. This will be explained in section 2.5.6. The activation function of each neuron j is a function of net output at neuron j. Therefore, the derivative of true output with respect to net output can be calculated directly.

The term $\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_i^{l+1}} * \frac{\partial z_i^{l+1}}{\partial a_j^l}$ is in fact the summarization of the multiplication between the rate at which the total error changes with respect to the change of net output of each neuron i at layer (l+1) that are connected to neuron j at layer l and the weight between neuron j and neuron i.

Therefore, $\delta_{z_j}^l$ can be written as:

$$\delta_{z_j}^l = \left(\sum_{i=0}^m \delta_{z_i}^{l+1} * w_{ji}^{l+1} \right) * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l}$$

Equation 2.4-7

where $\delta_{z_j}^l$ is the rate at which the total error changes with respect to the change of net output of neuron j at layer l, m is the total number of neurons at layer (l+1) that are connected to neuron j at layer l, $\delta_{z_i}^{l+1}$ is the rate at which the total error changes with respect to the change of net output of neuron i at layer (l+1), w_{ji}^{l+1} is the weight between neuron j and neuron i at layer (l+1), a_j^l is the true output of neuron j at layer l and z_j^l is the net output of neuron j at layer l.

The rate at the outer most layer (the output layer) can be calculated directly because the total error is a function of true output of all neurons at output layer.

2.1.1.2 Bias updating

Next, we want to update the current bias b_j^l at each neuron j in the networks by an amount of Δb_j^l in order to reduce the total error E:

$$b_j^l(\text{new}) = b_j^l(\text{old}) \pm \eta \Delta b_j^l$$

Equation 2.4-4

Similar to the case of weight updating, the amount of bias to be updated at each connection is the rate at which the total error changes with respect to the change of bias of each neuron j. This rate can be calculated by taking the derivative of the total error with respect to bias. However, we have not yet known the output of this derivative, therefore, we need to take a step further by applying the chain rule in order to calculate the derivative value from something that we can possibly know:

$$\Delta b_j^l = \frac{\partial E}{\partial b_j^l} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l} * \frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial b_j^l}$$

Equation 2.4-4 [19]

The value of $\frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial b_j^l}$ can be calculated by taking the derivative of the net output with respect to the current bias of neuron j at layer l. According to equation 2.4-5, the result from this derivative is 1.

We will denote $\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^l} * \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l}$ as $\delta_{z_j^l}$. Details on how to calculate $\delta_{z_j^l}$ has been discussed in

Section 2.4.3.1.

2.4.3.1 Conclusion

The above equations show that the networks can back-propagate the error rate from the outer most layer (output layer) to the inner most layer (input layer). At the same time, it uses that error rate to update weight at each connection in the networks in order to reduce the total error.

2.5 Convolutional neural networks (CNN)

2.5.3 Overviews

CNN is a “state-of-the-art technique for image recognition” [5]. It is a multilayer neural network (as illustrated in figure 2.5-1). It consists of one or more convolutional layers, followed by pooling layers (sometimes called subsampling layers), ReLU layers, and one or more fully connected layers. Convolutional layers are used for extracting important features from the input images. The features learnt by a convolutional layer are often summarized by a pooling layer. A ReLU layer eliminates negative outputs produced by the pooling layer preceding it. The learnt features are eventually passed into fully connected layers, where each input image is mapped with a suitable output class.

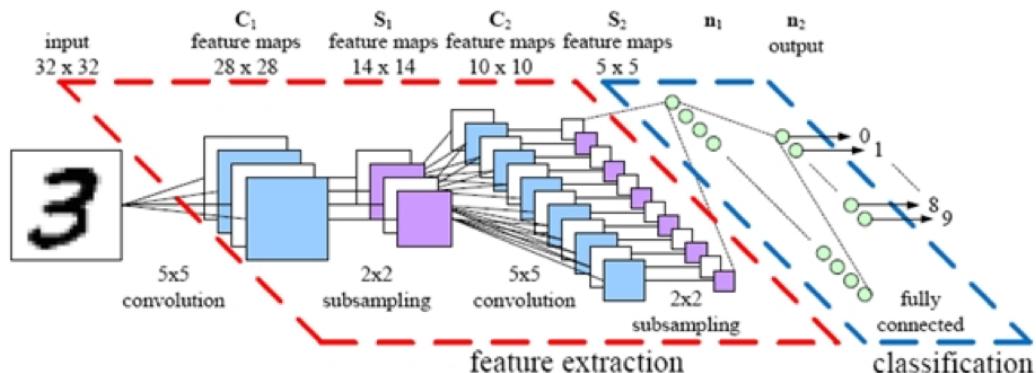


Figure 2.5-1 A convolutional neural networks. [16]

The networks build a sufficient model for the input dataset by imposing a set of forward and back propagations. At each iteration, the CNN model tries to reduce the number of wrong predictions by updating the weights that are associated with the location of the errors. The updating process iterates until all the weights in the network converge.

2.5.4 Convolutional layer

Convolutional layer extracts the important features of images via image convolution. Four parameters are required in convolutional layer: the number of filters K, receptive field size F, the stride S and the amount of zero padding P. This layer accepts input of volume size $[Width_{in}][Height_{in}][Dimension_{in}]$ and produces an output of volume size $[(Width_{in} - F + 2P)/S + 1][(Height_{in} - F + 2P)/S + 1][K]$.

2.5.4.1 Local receptive field

Think of the input image as a square of $n \times n$ neurons. The value of each neuron is the corresponding pixel intensity of the input image. We will map a localized region of the input neurons to a neuron in the hidden layer. These localized regions of input neuron are called local receptive fields. The size of a local receptive field is equal to the size of a kernel. More about kernel will be discussed in section 2.5.2.2.

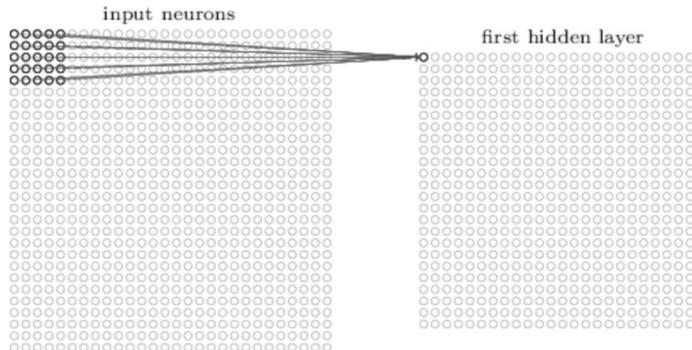


Figure 2.5-2 Local receptive fields [7]

2.5.4.2 Filter (Kernel)

Each mapping from input layer to a hidden neuron at the hidden layer next to it learns a weight $w_{a,b}^l$ and each corresponding hidden neuron learns a bias $b_{x,y}^l$. This weight and bias together make up a kernel (sometimes called a filter). In an $F \times F$ filter, each of the F positions holds a weight which is a real value. The bias applies to the filter as a whole. As discussed in section 2.7, the filter is moved around the input image and the output pixel is calculated using the convolution operation. The output at position x^{th}, y^{th} is a convolutional function between an input neuron at position $(x - a, y - b)^{th}$'s value and its weight:

$$a_{x,y}^l = \sigma \left(\sum_k \sum_k w_{a,b}^l a_{x-a,y-b}^{l-1} + b_{x,y}^l \right)$$

Equation 2.5-1

where σ is neural *activation function*, $a_{x,y}^l$ is the true output value at position (x,y) at layer l , $a_{x-a,y-b}^{l-1}$ is the input pixel value at position $(x-a, y-b)$ at layer $(l-1)$, (a,b) is position of a pixel in the kernel, $b_{x,y}^l$ is the the bias, $w_{a,b}^l$ the weight of the connection at the a^{th} row and the b^{th} column of the kernel and k is the size of the kernel. More about the activation function will be described in section 2.5.6.

2.5.4.3 Feature map and stride

The combination of outputs generated by a hidden layer is called a **feature map**. To calculate the value of the next pixel in the feature map, we will move our kernel k pixels sequentially along width and height. In this case we say a stride length of k is being used. Then we re-apply the convolution function discussed above, until we run out of input neurons.

Figure 2.5-3 shows an example of the convolutional process using two $3 \times 3 \times 3$ convolutional kernels with stride 2. The first pixel of the first output volume is calculated as follows. The first channel of filter W_0 is convolved with the first 3×3 receptive field of the first input channel. The second channel of filter W_0 is convolved with the second 3×3 receptive field of the second input channel. The third channel of filter W_0 is convolved with the first 3×3 receptive field of the third input channel. Corresponding pixel values in the results from these three convolutions are then summed together. Then the bias b_0 of filter W_0 is added to each output pixel value. The next pixels of first output volume are calculated

similarly with one variation: the aforementioned receptive field is slid to the right or down by 2 pixels each time.

Likewise, the pixels of second output volume are calculated with the same fashion but the filter W_0 is replaced by filter W_1 .

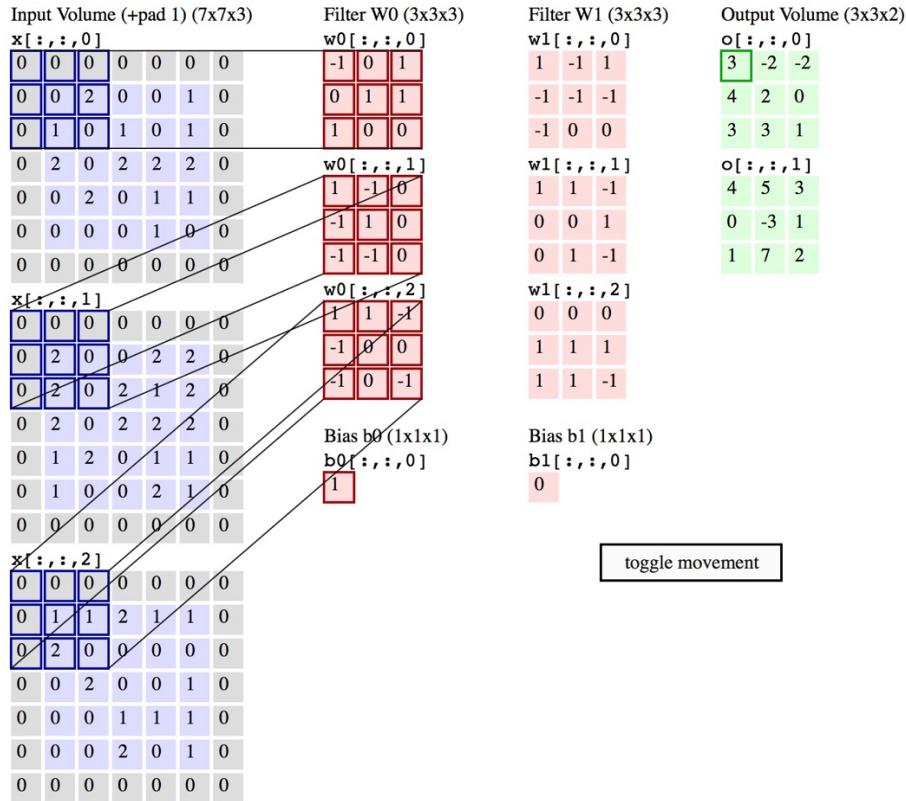


Figure 2.5-3 Convolutional process - An input image of size $7 \times 7 \times 3$ is filtered by 2 convolutional kernels which create 2 feature maps. [12]

Each feature map can detect one feature at different locations of the same input image. To detect many features from one input image, we need several feature maps. To generate several feature maps, we will need several kernels. A complete convolutional layer consists of several different feature maps.

2.5.4.4 The use of zero-padding

Zero padding is a simple method of padding the borders of the input image in order to control the size of the output image. Padding allows convolution to be performed on pixels at the edges of the input, which otherwise would not have complete receptive fields. Specifically, the relationship among padding size P , input height/length W , output height/length O and filter size K can be described as follow:

$$O = \frac{W - K + 2P}{2} + 1$$

Equation 2.5-2

2.5.5 Pooling layer

A convolutional layer is usually followed by a pooling layer. The function of the pooling layer is to simplify every feature map in the previous layer at every depth slice. Thus it reduces the amount of parameters and computation in the network. As a result, it will reduce overfitting. Recall that overfitting happens when the model is tailored to fit the random noise in one specific sample. By reducing the amount and improving the quality of the data

presented to the networks, overfitting can be reduced. A successful pooling layer should be able to preserve critical information while being “invariant to troublesome deformations” [9].

Pooling layer requires two parameters: filter size F and stride S. It accepts input with volume size $[Width_{in}][Height_{in}][Dimension_{in}]$ and produces an output of volume size $[(Width_{in} - F)/S + 1][(Height_{in} - F)/S + 1][Dimension_{in}]$.

There are several widely used pooling techniques. The most well-known one is **max pooling**. In max pooling, we want to know the max value of the pixels in a particular receptive field. This can be described as:

$$a_{x,y}^l = \max_{0 \leq p,q \leq k} \{a_{x+p,y+q}^{l-1}\}$$

Equation 2.5-3

where $a_{x,y}^l$ is the output value of pooling layer l at position (x,y), $a_{x+i,y+j}^{l-1}$ is the true output value of convolutional layer (l-1) at position $(x + i, y + j)$ with (i,j) is position of a pixel in the filter.

Figure 2.5-4 shows an example of max pooling operation on three 4×4 slices. Each slice is filtered by a 2×2 kernel with stride 2 which results in four pooling feature maps, each of size 2×2 . The first pixel of an output volume is the maximum value of the pixels in the first 2×2 receptive field of the corresponding input volume. The next pixels of that output volume are calculated similarly with one variation: the aforementioned receptive field is slid to the right or to the bottom by 2 pixels each time.

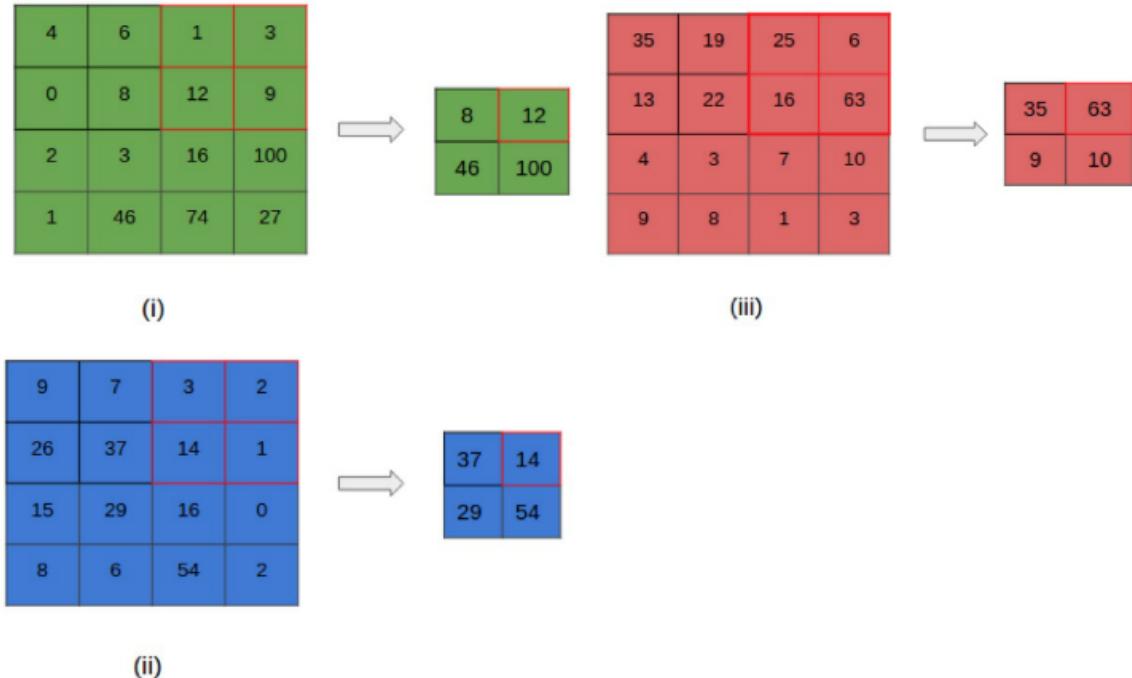


Figure 2.5-4 A max pooling layer [12]

Other popular pooling techniques are l_2 pooling and subsampling. Details about l_2 pooling can be found in Bruna et al. paper [21]. Details about subsampling can be found in Dominik et al. paper [18].

A filter size of 2×2 and a stride of length 2 are often applied with these pooling techniques. According to some research [4,9], there is no best pooling technique. We may need to try applying several pooling techniques to our problem to see which one yields the best result.

2.5.6 ReLU non-linearity

Rectified Linear Unit is a modern way to represent an output f as a function of input x . It computes the function:

$$f(x) = \max(0, x)$$

Equation 2.5-4

which means the output is 0 when the input is less than 0.

ReLU has two advantages over \tanh function which was traditionally used in MFNN as an output function. Deep learning neural networks with ReLU was found to train significantly faster than networks with tanh unit. This is because saturating nonlinearities are generally slower than non-saturating nonlinearities in terms of training time with gradient descent. Secondly, while tanh function involves expensive computational operations, ReLU can be implemented easily by thresholding a matrix of activations at zero. A convolutional layer is often followed by ReLU.

2.5.7 Fully connected layer

The output from the last pooling layer is flattened into 1-D vectors before it is sent to a set of fully connected layers. Fully connected layers are originated from multi-layers feed forward neural networks. Details on MFNN have been presented in section 2.4.

2.5.8 Softmax regression function

Softmax regression is a generalized logistic regression model which is used to turn a single neuron into a linear classifier so that the neuron can handle multiple classes. The CNN maps each tuple a_i^0 in the input layer to all neurons in the output layer and assign each output neuron to a probability a_i^l . The probability a_i^l is the true output of each neuron k at the output layer given the input tuple a_i^0 , where each output neuron represents a class k . a_i^l gives the probability that tuple a_i^0 belongs to a class k ,

The softmax regression function maps an input to an output in a range between 0 and 1, and all calculated probabilities of different classes must sum to 1. The true output a_i^l for each neuron k in the output layer can be computed by applying softmax regression function to the net output of every neuron k . Recall that the net output of a neuron is the output before applying softmax function and the real output a neuron is the output after applying softmax function.

For each output neuron, we perform the following calculation:

$$a_i^l = P(y_i^l = j | a_i^0) = \frac{e^{(\sum_{i=1}^m w_{ij} a_i^{l-1} + b_j^l)}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{(\sum_{i=1}^m w_{ik} a_i^{l-1} + b_k^l)}} = \frac{e^{z_j^l}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{z_k^l}}$$

Equation 2.5-5

where y_i^l represents an output neuron j where $j \in K$, z_j^l is net output of neuron j , z_k^l is net output of each neuron k , where $k = 1, \dots, K$ and K is the number of classes in output layer.

2.6 Learning in a Convolutional neural networks

2.6.3 Back propagation core concepts

Back propagation is an iterative process to adjust the learnt weight and bias by comparing the network's prediction with the tuple's known target value. It takes place after each training example is presented to the network. The aim is to minimize the error between the network's prediction and the known target value. The target value can either be a known class label or a continuous value. The weight and bias modification process is done in a backward direction, from softmax through fully connected, pooling and ReLU layers to the convolutional layer. The forward and backward process is repeated until a predefined

termination condition occurs. The steps are as follows:

1. Initialize all weights and bias in the network with some small random values and choose a learning rate.
2. For each input tuple, propagate the inputs forward the networks using our initialized weights and bias until we reach the output layer.
3. Calculate error rate and consequently update the weight at each layer.
4. Repeat step 2 and 3 until when one of the following conditions is reached:
 - All Δw in the previous epoch are below some pre-specified threshold
 - A pre-specified number of epochs has reached
 - The percentage of misclassified tuples in the previous run is lower than some predefined threshold

2.6.4 Back propagation at the Softmax

Details about how to calculate E_{total} are presented in Section 2.4.2.

We will look at how the networks adjust its weight using E_{total} by looking at E_{total} effect on each layer.

2.6.5 Back propagation in the Fully connected layer (Neural networks)

Details about this can be found in Section 2.4.2.

2.6.6 Back propagation in the ReLU layer

The output a_j^l for each neuron can be written as

$$a_j^l = \max(0, a_i^{l-1})$$

Equation 2.6-1

where a_i^{l-1} is the real output value of neuron i of ReLU layer (l-1).

Equation 2.6-11 shows that there is no weight associated with this layer. Thus this layer has no effect on the total error and the error rate at this layer is equal to the error rate at the fully connected layer.

2.6.7 Back propagation in the pooling layer

The output a_j^l for each neuron can be represented by

$$a_{x,y}^l = \max_{0 \leq p,q \leq k} (a_{x+p,y+q}^{l-1})$$

as suggested by equation 2.5-5. Similar to ReLU layer, the above equation shows that there is no weight associated with the pooling layer. Therefore, pooling layer has no effect on the total error. The error rate at this layer is also equal to the error rate at fully connected layer.

2.6.8 Back propagation in the convolutional layer

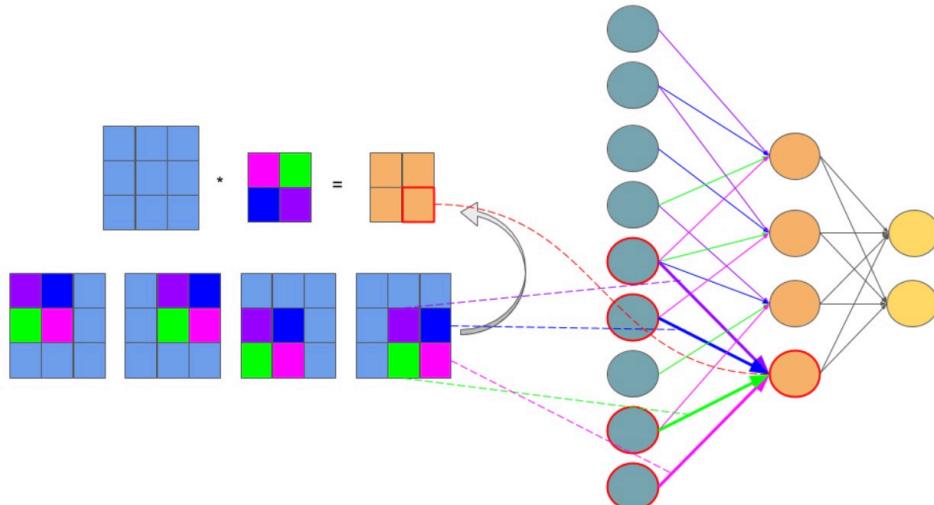


Figure 2.6-1 Feedforward in CNN is identical with convolution operation. [15]

Figure 2.6-1 illustrates that a feedforward in CNN is equivalent to the convolution operation. If we can somehow ‘open’ every component of a CNN in a 1-D vector, each pixel in the input image of a CNN will become a neuron in the input layer of a MFNN. Each pixel in a kernel of the CNN will become a weight of a connection between a neuron in the input layer and a neuron in the layer ahead of it, which can be a hidden layer or an output layer. Each pixel in the output image produced by convolving the input image and a kernel in CNN will become a neuron in the hidden/output layer of a MFNN. And the bias of a kernel will become the bias of every neuron in the same hidden/output layer. The problem has now become similar to the case of MFNN. The error rate from the outer most layer (output layer) is back-propagated to the inner most layer (input layer). At the same time, the network uses that error rate to update weights at each connection in the networks in order to reduce the total error.

2.6.9 What does a CNN learn?

This section briefly discusses about the final CNN and how it represents learning. A CNN represents its learning as adapted filters at convolutional layers and weights at fully connected layers. Each filter at convolutional layer can detect a feature at different locations of the same input image. By learning a variety of selective filters, the networks improve its ability to detect robust features. Vice versa, examining learnt kernels can help us understand what kind of features are being extracted. Examining the kernels also helps us debug the problems with our model (for instance: Are the kernels informative enough?) and improve our results accordingly. Learning at fully connected layers on the other hand is represented with adapted weights at each connection. Those weights are the networks’ reference when mapping features representing each object with the output class.

2.7 Data Augmentation

2.7.3 Concept

Artificially enlarging the dataset with label-preserving transformations is the simplest and best known strategy to reduce overfitting on image data. To each randomly chosen sample image, we will apply *n random transformations*. Each of these random transformations is a combination of several elementary forms of transformation, which we will describe shortly. The benefit of using transformations that require little computation is that we will not have to store the pre-processed image on the disk. Image transformation contains two major

approaches: point operators (sometimes called 1-to-1 pixel transforms) and neighborhood (or area-based) operators. In point operators, each output pixel value is strictly a function of the corresponding input pixel value. Brightness and contrast adjustments are two examples of such transformation. Techniques like convolution, which we have discussed in part 2.2, are not 1-to-1 transforms.

2.7.4 Methods

2.7.4.1 Brightness adjustment

We add or subtract a constant amount of light to all input pixel in order to change an image brightness, as suggested in the following function:

$$g(i,j) = f(i,j) + \beta$$

Equation 2.7-1

where $f(i,j)$ is the pixel located in the i -th row and j -th column of the input image, $g(i,j)$ is the pixel located in the i -th row and j -th column of the output image and β is a bias parameter which is used to control the image brightness.

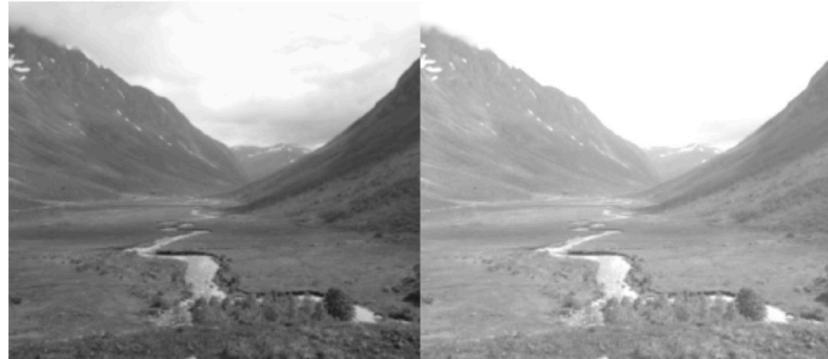


Figure 2.7-1 Brightness adjustment. [14]

2.7.4.2 Contrast adjustment

Contrast is the difference between the maximum and the minimum pixel intensity of an image. To change the contrast of an image, we change the range of the luminance value presented in the input pixels. It is mathematically suggested by the following function:

$$g(i,j) = \alpha f(i,j)$$

Equation 2.7-2

where $f(i,j)$ is the pixel located in the i -th row and j -th column of the input image, $g(i,j)$ is the pixel located in the i -th row and j -th column of the output image and α is a weight parameter which is used to control the image contrast. See the discussion of histogram adjustment in Section 2.1.2 for more information.



Figure 2.7-2 Contrast adjustment. [14]

We can combine the brightness and contrast control in a single operation. It is mathematically represented as:

$$g(i,j) = \alpha f(i,j) + \beta$$

Equation 2.7-3

2.7.4.3 Scaling

The purpose of scaling is to generate a new image with different resolution. Details can be found in upsampling and downsampling methods in section 2.1.2.

2.7.4.4 Summary

Artificially enlarging the dataset using the combination of these three forms of image transformation in image pre-processing has two extra benefits. Firstly, it allows the network to “look at” the seed image at different perspectives. Secondly, it allows the CNN model to work properly, because CNN requires a large set of training data. Notice that data augmentation is different from *image pre-processing*. Image pre-processing processes the images so that they all meet some pre-defined standards whereas data augmentation artificially enlarges the dataset by applying random transformations to each pre-processed image.

2.8 Model combination

Combination of models is a very effective way to reduce testing errors. At the same time, it significantly increases the number of networks parameters and thus computers processing speed. Dropout is a very efficient method for simulating model combination. Dropout sets the output of each hidden layer of a network to zero with the probability of 0.5. Propagation and back propagation processes will not consider the ‘dropout neurons’ into their calculations. The described process is repeated several times. At each time, a different set of outputs from hidden layers are set to zero. The network’s prediction of a tuple is remains the same regarding the change of the dropout neurons. By performing these presented steps, dropout can simulate the combination of several neural networks.

When dropout is used, it will take more time for a neuron to learn more robust features in order to make predictions, since it can no longer rely on the existence of other neurons. Therefore, it will take more time for the network to converge.

2.9 GPU Concepts

The enormous amount of input data required by deep learning may considerably increase

computation time. This problem can be overcome by spreading and training the networks across processing units. There are two types of processing units: central processing unit (CPU) and graphics processing unit (GPUs).

In comparison to CPU, GPUs are far more powerful and efficient in parallel computing. They can be used to train far larger training sets in considerably less time. Current GPUs support cross-GPU parallelization that allows GPUs to read and write into one another's memory directly. Even though each GPU has limited memory, which may restrict the size of networks to be trained using one, a GPU can still distribute the network's size across multiple units.

Recent deep learning toolkits are mostly developed based on CUDA GPU-support library. This library only supports NVIDIA GPU card with *compute capability* ≥ 3.0 . Compute capacity is a number that defines general specifications and available features of a GPU card. Details about general specifications and available features associated with each compute capacity value can be found in CUDA toolkit documentation [24]

2.10 CNN Software Frameworks

Table 2.10-1 [21,22,23] shows a comparison among different currently popular frameworks. All of the frameworks in the table support parallelism through GPU mode using CUDA library. They also have an ability to produce a series of matrix operations (computation graph) on which automatic differentiation can be performed. With automatic differentiation, one does not have to hand-code a new variation of back propagation each time a new arrangement of the CNN is made.

Framework	Base language	API	Single GPU execution speed	Ready-to-use low-level operators for writing new models	GPU memory for training large models	Ease to use
Tensorflow	Python and C++	- Python and C/C++ - Mathematical operations are supported with numpy	Slower than other frameworks	Fairly good	Not so good	- Sample code and tutorials available
Caffe	C++, Python	C++, command line, Python, MATLAB	Slower than other frameworks	Fairly good	Better than Torch	- Sample code and to tutorials are somewhat confusing because different versions are developed by different people - Code might not need to be written to train models
Theano	Python	- Python - Mathematical operations are supported with numpy	Faster than Caffe and Tensorflow	Many basic operations	Great	- Sample code and tutorials available - Error messages are difficult to understand, therefore can be unhelpful
MXNET	C++, Python, Julia, Matlab, R, Scala	C++, Python, Julia, Matlab, JavaScript, R, Scala	Faster than Caffe and Tensorflow	Very few	Excellent	- Sample code and to tutorials are somewhat confusing because different versions are developed by different people
Torch	Lua	Lua	Faster than Caffe and Tensorflow	Many basic operations	Fair	- Easy to set up - Error messages are helpful

Table 0-1 Comparison among different frameworks

Each framework, however, has some tradeoffs that we will have to consider before making a decision on which one to use. Theano supports the *numpy* library for mathematical operations, provides considerably fast single GPU speed, great GPU memory support for training large models and many basic operations. However, its error messages are difficult to understand. MXNET is the best in terms of GPU memory. However, it reportedly has confusing tutorials and a poor set of ready-to-use low-level operators. Torch has the best ease of use, many basic operations and compromising GPU speed and memory, but it uses the less well-known Lua programming language as its API. Caffe and Tensorflow are the most widely used frameworks recently. Caffe allows us to train models with little modification to its existing models. Nevertheless, it has supposedly confusing tutorials, slower GPU speed than other frameworks and it does not have *numpy* support for mathematical operations. Tensorflow does not have very good GPU memory and GPU speed but it has a fairly good set of ready-to-use low-level operators and sample tutorials. For this project, we consider experimenting Caffe and Tensorflow as they have a balanced compromise among different aspects and appear to be adopted by most developers.

2.11 Related research

2.11.3 Research using CNN to classify images

CNN has proved to be very efficient in object recognition. A. Krizhevsky et al. (2012) successfully modeled a deep CNN “to classify the 1.2 million high-resolution images in the ImageNet [...] into the 1000 different classes” with “top-1 and top-5 error rates of 37.5% and 17.0%”. The networks contained five convolutional layers, three max pooling layers, three fully connected layers and a 1000-way softmax. Data augmentation, overlap pooling and dropout were used to reduce data overfitting. To improve the processing speed, the networks were split into different parts, which were trained on multiple GPUs [1].

Hokuto et al. (2014) developed a food detection and recognition deep CNN trained from 20,000 samples of food items. The networks consisted of two convolutional layers, one ReLU layer and was able to detect up to 93.8% and recognize up to 72.39% of testing food items [5].

2.11.4 Variations in algorithms in CNN used for classifying fine-grained objects

Krizhevsky et al. (2012) has taken a step further to the traditional pooling. Suppose a pooling layer consists of a grid of pooling units, each summarizes a neighborhood of size $z \times z$ and stride s . Traditionally, we set $z = s$, where we obtained non overlap pooling. Now we will set $s < z$ to obtain overlap pooling. A. Krizhevsky et al. has pointed out this is a more effective pooling technique as it reduces the top-1 error rate by 0.4% and top-5 error rate by 0.3% [1].

Jonathan et al. (2014) exploited deep CNN in fine-grained object recognition. The objective was to identify different car models. The networks were built by adapting the model from A. Krizhevsky et al. with little variation. A deep CNN model consists of two convolutional layers, three fully connected layers and a softmax loss were used to extract useful features from the seed image. The seed image then is used to retrieved its nearest neighbors (those that has the same pose with it). Only parts with highest energy detected from this seed image and its neighbors are chosen because they are likely to be important when describing the seed image. Learnt features obtained earlier from CNN are then pooled in the regions of each selected part. Those regions are said to describe critical parts for the class where seed image belongs. This networks were able to categorize testing data with accuracy up to 73.9%. However, the described technique is only useful for recognizing pictures with the same pose [4].

Aäron et al (2015) attempted to build a CNN to classify grayscale 30000 images of plankton into one of 121 classes. Input images were preprocessed in by downsampling. 300 CNN models were trained and several of them were combined to improve the final accuracy. A significant variation made when training the model was to exploit the viewpoints in pooling. One example of the models that works well consisted of 10 convolutional layers, 4 pooling layers and 3 fully connected layers. Models were trained on the NVIDIA GPUs using various overfitting-reducing techniques: data argumentation, ReLU, dropout and overlap pooling. The best models had an accuracy of 82% on the testing set and top 5% accuracy of 98% [3].

Sander et al. (2015) built a deep CNN to measure approximately 900,000 galaxy morphology by exploiting viewpoints in pooling. After preprocessing and data augmentation, viewpoints are extracted by applying the combination of flipping, rotating, cropping to the input image. Every viewpoint is then presented to the same convolutional architecture in a separated path. The resulting feature maps from each viewpoint are first concatenated in to a single vector, then processed by a set of fully connected layer to obtain predictions. The benefit of exploiting viewpoints in pooling is that it allows the network to “look at” the image at different angles. The model was claimed to “reproduce their consensus with near-perfect accuracy ($> 99\%$) for most questions” in Galaxy Challenge Contest 2015. Techniques discussed in A. Krizhesy et al. were also applied to reduce data overfitting [2].

Chapter 3

Design and Methodology

In this section, we will describe our approach to developing a valid model for sugarcane grading using ground-level images. We will first discuss the experimental set up. We will then discuss the successive processing steps used to obtain a set of predictive probabilities for each input image. The successive steps consist of the following: data preprocessing, data argumentation, viewpoint extraction, convolutional neural network experimental design and model evaluation, as shown in figure 3-1.

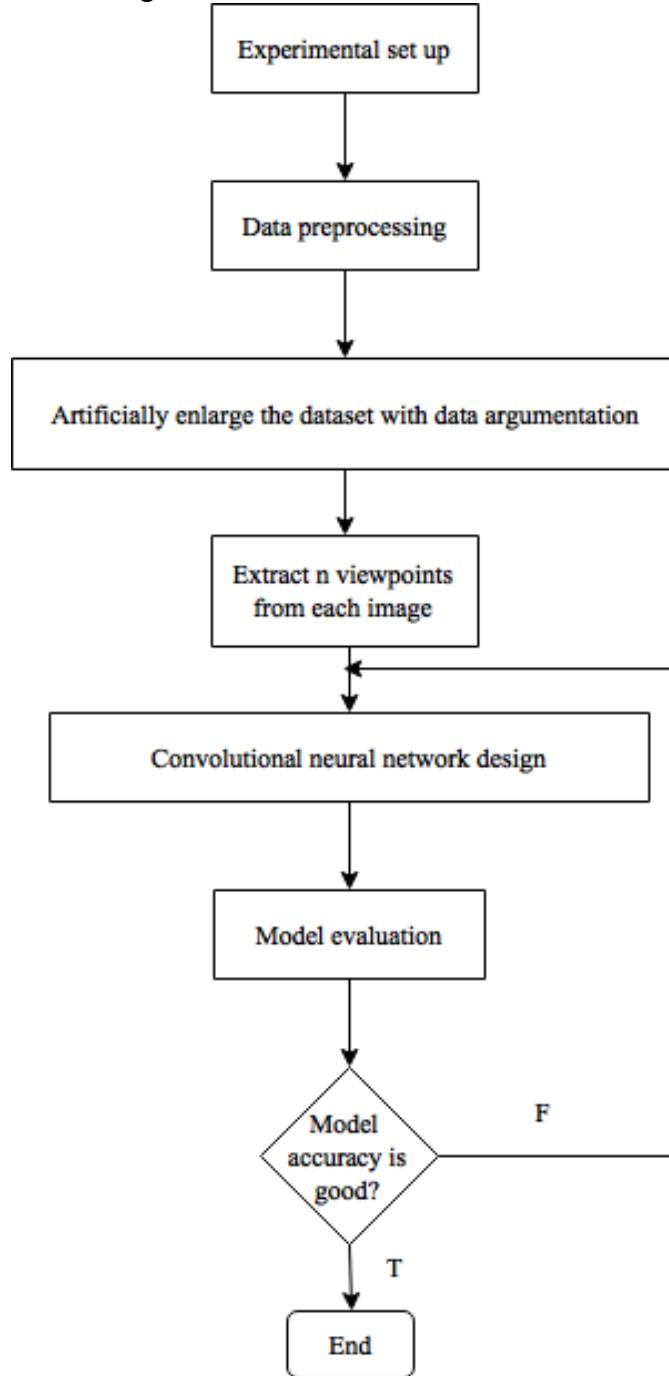


Figure 3-0-1 Flowchart with the major stages of the work

3.1 Experimental set up

3.1.1 Gathering data

The dataset consists of sugarcane field images taken from ground level and is provided by Mitrphol company. As suggested by other research, a minimum amount of 1000 pre-labeled samples in the dataset is required in order to train the convolutional neural networks. We have been provided with approximately 1700 pre-labeled image examples, which are divided into 4 growing seasons of sugarcane. We will use them to develop some simple models so as to evaluate the use of different frameworks.

3.1.2 Plan on experimenting different frameworks

As mentioned in Section 2.10, we consider experimenting Caffe and Tensorflow as they have a balanced compromise among different aspects and appear to be adopted by most developers. In this section, we will discuss our plan to study the use of the two aforementioned frameworks. Then we will evaluate the usability of each framework based on the following criteria:

The ease of the framework installation: We can evaluate the ease of installation by answering the following questions. Is the documentation for installing the framework easy to follow? Does the framework require many other toolkits to be installed together with it? And if yes, is the installation of the supporting toolkits are complicated?

The ease of following the framework documentation: The documentation must provide instructions that are easy to follow. It must also contain understandable explanations of all operations that the framework provides.

The ease of constructing the network: A good framework should provide a good set of ready-to-use low-level operators for writing new models. It should also allow us to modify the networks' structure easily.

Performance: A good framework must support parallelism through GPU mode, which will allow us to train the networks with a reasonable amount of time.

The availability and accessibility of sample code and tutorials: Sample code and tutorials are important for us to understand how the framework works. If there are too little sample code and tutorials available, we might have difficulty in learning and modifying code in the framework.

The ease of understanding error messages from the framework: Error messages have to be helpful and easy to understand.

3.1.2.1 Tensorflow

3.1.2.1.1 Installation

Before installing Tensorflow, we will need to set up a few things. First, we will need to install Python. Details on how to install Python can be found in Python documentation [28]. Next, we will need to download and install CUDA toolkit in order to use Tensorflow CUDA version. Details can be found in CUDA installation documentation [29]. Finally, we can install Tensorflow on the machine. Different ways of installing Tensorflow is supported. In our case, we will try to install it via one of the installation pipes called Virtualenv with GPU enabled mode [26], because it allows us to install TensorFlow in its own directory without affecting any existing Python programs on our machine.

3.1.2.1.2 Testing plan

In order to evaluate this framework, we plan to refine the code from Tensorflow documentation on ‘how to recognize hand-written digits from digital images in the MNIST data-set’ to build a simple model that suits our problem. The code refinement are as follows. First, the example code attempted to read images and labels of binary format, which is not our case. We will need to read all images in the dataset and associate each with a label. Details on how we did this will be explained in Section 3.2.

We will reuse the next parts of the example code, with some modifications to fit the refinement we made at the beginning. Each time the system read an image, it will perform on this image a set of random transformations to create n new distorted images. The distorted images will inherit their labels from the original image. The original image and the distorted images will then be stored in a batch together with their labels. There is a finite number of batches, each of which stores a finite number of training images. The CNN is initialized with random weights and bias. At each iteration, a new batch is selected.

However, at this point, we want to try extracting a set of viewpoints from each image in the batch and present each view point to the same convolutional architecture in a separate path, as suggested by Sander et al. (2015) [2]. Since the example code did not attempt do this, we need to modify it to fit our case. For each image in the selected batch, we will extract a set of viewpoints and put them in an another, separate batch. We will then present this new batch to the same convolutional architecture, but we will concatenate the results from the last ReLU layers of all convolutional architecture before sending them to the fully connected layers, where each input image is mapped with a suitable output class. Finally, Tensorflow provides a back-propagation method that allows all initial weights and bias in the networks to be updated so as to minimize the error rate within a single call.

We will assess the usability of the framework using the criteria specified earlier in this section based on how much trouble we will encounter during the experiment.

3.1.2.2 Caffe

3.1.2.2.1 Installation

Before installing Caffe, we will first need to install its dependencies. Caffe has some compulsory dependencies as follows. CUDA library is required to support GPU mode. BLAS library is required to support vector computation. Since Caffe base language is C++, Boost package is also required to support its C++ library. And Python is required to support its interface.

Besides these compulsory dependencies, Caffe has some optional dependencies. Caffe optional dependencies are OpenCV for image processing and cuDNN for GPU acceleration.

We will then install Caffe according to instructions on Caffe documentation [27].

3.1.2.2.2 Testing plan

In order to evaluate this framework, we plan to modify the imagenet tutorial in Caffe documentation to make the model trained on our sugarcane image.

The first step is to split our image dataset into two parts, one of which is the training set, the other is the testing set. There are three splitting strategies as described in Section 2.3.2. We will try the ‘hold out’ strategy because it is the simplest and most widely used.

After having the training and testing data all set, we will then refine the sample code so that it is able to read all images in each dataset and associate them with a label. To do this, we will have to create a text file for each dataset. Each line in the text file is a directory to an image in the dataset and is followed by its label, as described in Section 3.2.

The next step is to inform the *create_imagenet.sh* file about the directory to the new dataset. To do this we will need to modify all arguments in that file that refers to one of the following: the training set directory, the testing set directory, the training set text file or the testing set text file. When we run the *create_imagenet.sh* file, it will generate a training *leveldb* and testing *leveldb* directories. Caffe will work with these *leveldb* directories instead.

We will then need to inform *make_imagenet_mean.sh* about our new *leveldb* directories. The file *make_imagenet_mean.sh* when being compile will create a file name *imagenet_mean.binaryproto*. Caffe uses this file to subtract the image mean value from each image in order to normalize our inputs. This step is probably irrelevant to our problem since we want to mimic the photos taken in different conditions with different mobile phones. Therefore, we may want to find a way to set the image mean value to zero.

The final step is to notify each of these following files: *solver.prototxt*, *train_val.prototxt* and *deploy.prototxt* on the newly created *leveldb* directories and *imagenet_mean.binaryproto*.

The file *solver.prototxt* keeps information about how we will use our dataset to train and test the CNN. One example is the number of iteration for the propagation and back-propagation cycle. The *train_val.prototxt* is where data argumentation is performed. The file *deploy.prototxt* defines the network structure. This is where the organisation of convolutional, pooling, ReLU and fully connected layers are defined. We plan to play around with this file in order to see how easily can we modify the networks structure using this framework.

We will assess the usability of the framework using the criteria specified earlier in this section based on how much trouble we will encounter during the experiment. Then we will conclude which framework is better for our experiment.

3.1.3 Computer resources

We need a powerful GPU card that supports CUDA library to train the CNN. CUDA library documentation recommends any NVIDIA GPU card with compute capacity greater than 2, but the most powerful are some models of the NVIDIA Tesla and any model of the NVIDIA Geforce Titan [24]. For our main experiments, we plan to use the KMUTT Innosoft high performance computing service to train our CNN [25]. The Innosoft server hosts a NVIDIA Tesla K10 card. This card has a compute capacity of 3.0 and is thus suitable for the experiment.

Tensorflow provides *tf.device* method and Caffe provides *caffe.set_device(gpu_id)* method. Both of these methods allow us to specify the remote GPU server that we would like to train our networks on.

3.2 Data preprocessing

First, we will make sure that every image is associated with a label and all labels can be automatically interpreted by our system. In the example dataset we have, images are stored in the local machine and each of them is labeled by its name. We can handle this example dataset as follows. We will first label each file with a number in the range [0,2] according to its name, with 0 being **poor**, 1 being **medium** and 2 being **good**. We will then keep all information of the images in the dataset in a text file, where each line is a directory to an image followed by its label. Our networks can look at this file in order to locate each image and identify its label. Finally, if we look into the output layer of the CNN, we will see this layer contains three output neurons, each represents a class. Our final step is thus to encode decimal labels into binary labels where each digit of a binary label represents a class value. For the complete dataset, images could be split into different folders and labeled by folder names. In this case we will read each folder name and impose the label to all images contained within each folder. The dataset could be hosted by a remote server, in which case the approach is the same with one variation: all directories are directories of files and images on the server.

Next, we will need to standardize each experimental image before sending them to the input layer of the CNN. Having all images standardized allows us to process them more easily. We will standardize the images by cropping each experimental image into a standardized square shape. Resizing images speeds up the training process with little or no effect on the accuracy [2]. Both Tensorflow and Caffe provide functions to perform these operations easily.

3.3 Data argumentation

To expand the training set size, we will need to artificially increase the number of the training samples. Each training sample is randomly distorted into n forms. The steps are

shown in figure 3.3-1. However, in order to mimic the photos taken in different conditions with different mobile phones, they cannot be extremely distorted.

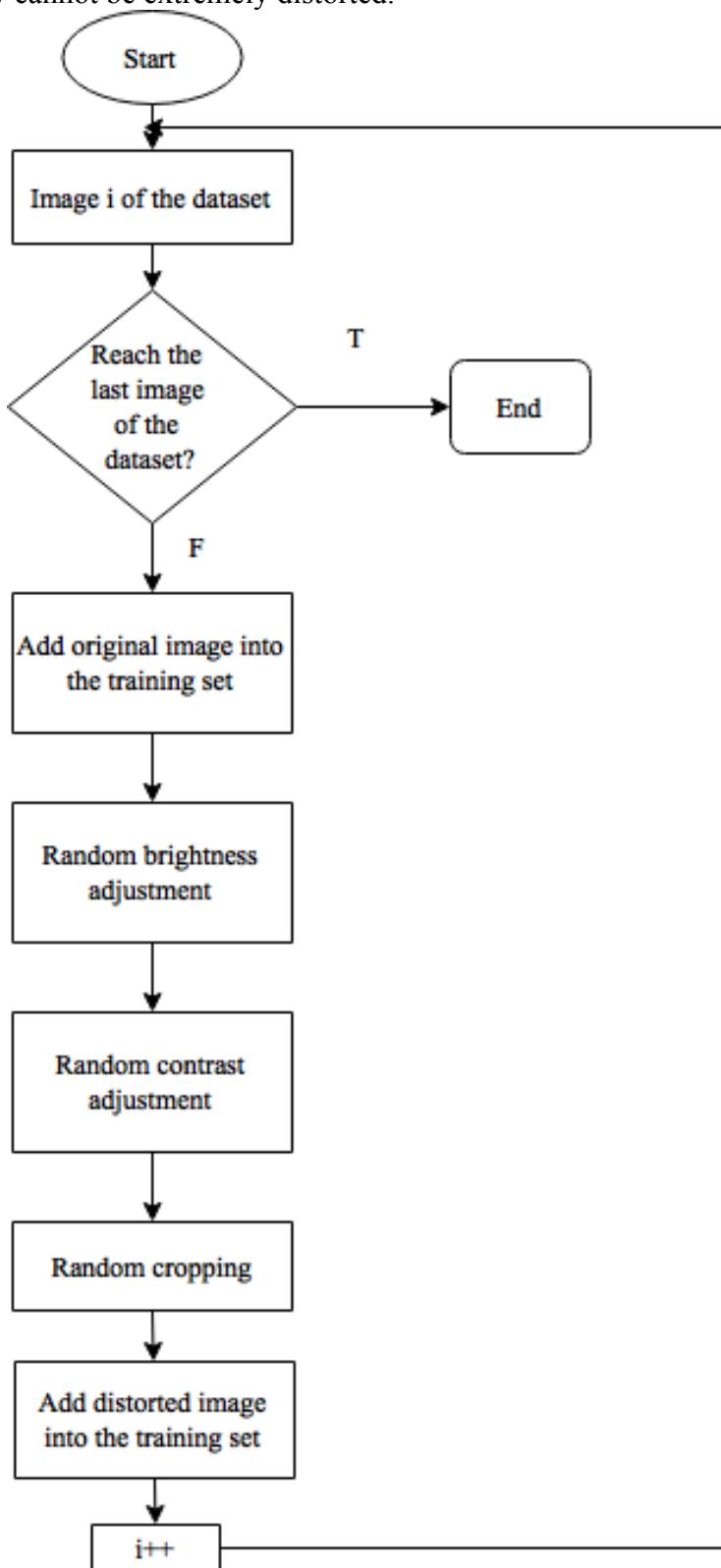


Figure 3.3-1 Data argumentation steps

Each distortion method is a combination of the several elementary forms of transformations. Details about the mechanics behind each form of transformation were discussed in Section 2.10.

3.3.1.1 Brightness and contrast adjustment

We plan to test the brightness and contrast adjustment operations with different input value and print out the resulting image. By doing this, we can look for the range in which the resulting image is most appropriate to human eyes. That is, when the brightness and the contrast of an image are neither too high nor too low. We will then able to choose a random value within this range and use it on different input images.

3.3.1.2 Cropping

We will randomly crop an area in the central region of an image for two reasons. Randomly cropping mimics photos of the same object taken by different people, while cropping an area in the central region retains the important information from an image. We plan to crop out from 20-40% and retain from 60-80% the area in the central region of an image.

Tensorflow provides operations that allow us to transform an image within a single call without writing extra code. The operations that we plan to use are:

- `tf.image.adjust_brightness(image, delta)` for adjusting an image brightness
- `tf.image.adjust_contrast(image, delta)` for adjusting an image contrast
- `tf.image.central_crop(image, central_fraction)` for cropping an image
- Details on how to use these operations can be found on Tensorflow documentations [26].

Caffe provides the `transform_param`, where we can set a value of the `contrast_adjustment`, `brightness_adjustment` and `crop` variables to make it do the same job. However, depending on which Caffe version is used, we may have to add some C++ code to the `transform_param` function in order to specify the exact job for each operation.

3.4 Viewpoints extraction

After artificially enlarge the dataset with data argumentation, we will extract n different viewpoints by cropping, adjusting the brightness and contrast of each input image in the new dataset, as shown in in figure 3.4-1.

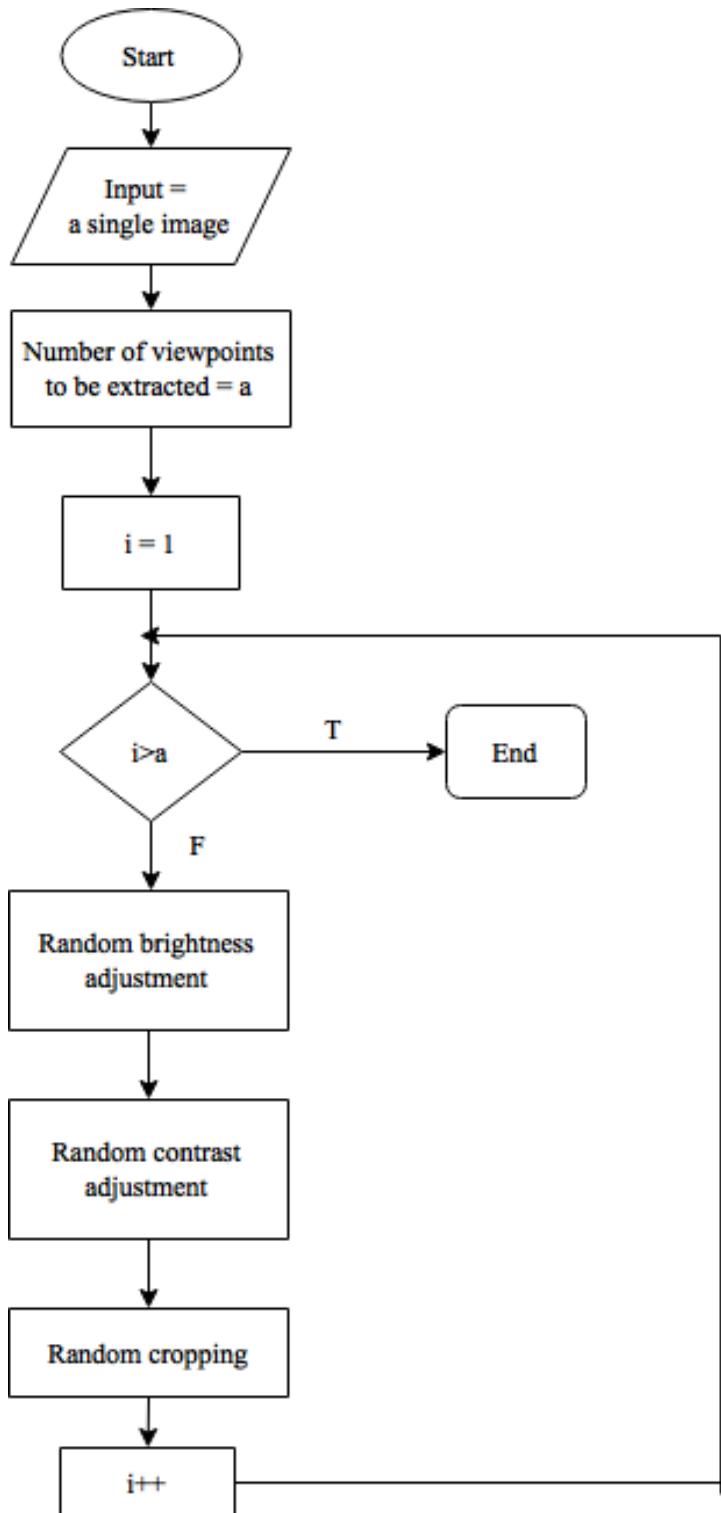


Figure 3.4-1 Viewpoints extraction steps

Every viewpoint from the same image is then presented to the same convolutional architecture in a separate path. The resulting feature maps from each viewpoint are first concatenated into a single vector, then processed by a set of fully connected layers to obtain predictions. An overview of the aforementioned steps is shown in figure 3.4-2.

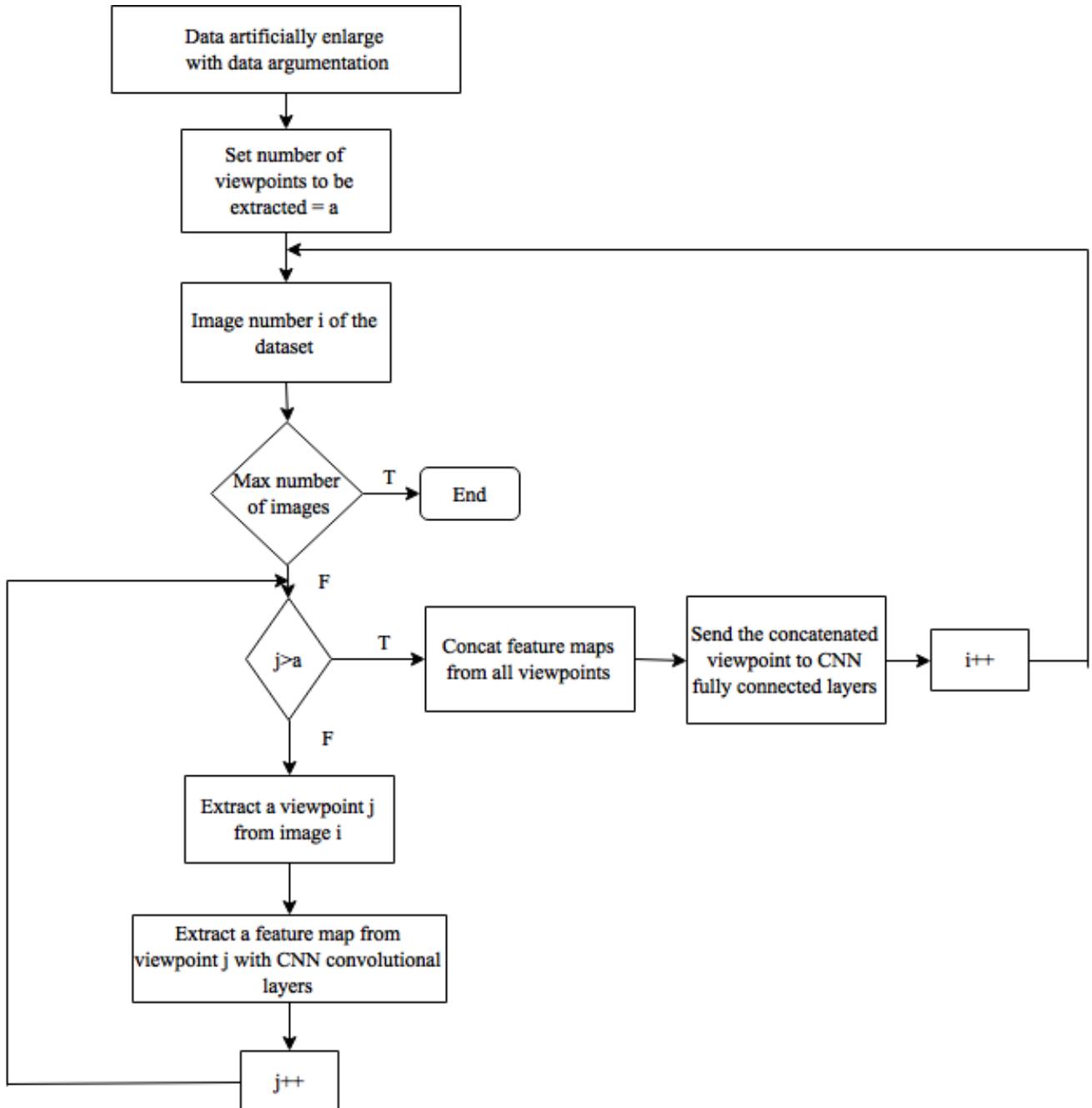


Figure 3.4-2 Flowchart describing the use of viewpoint extraction in constructing a CNN

By theory, viewpoints extraction allows the CNN to ‘look at’ each input image at different perspectives. Thus, exploiting viewpoints extraction in constructing a model should improve its accuracy. To test this theory, we will build our models both with and without viewpoints. We will also try to increase n in order to see whether it will increase the accuracy.

3.5 Experimental designs

3.5.1.1 Strategy for organizing training and testing set

Before building any model, we will need to divide the given dataset into training and testing sets. We will use the ‘hold out’ strategy because it is the most popular and easy to implement. We will follow the traditional 2/3 to 1/3 proportion for training versus testing data.

3.5.1.2 Data segregation strategy

It is uncertain whether models trained with datasets segregated by different growing seasons will have better accuracy than a single model trained with the entire dataset. We will begin by building one model for the entire dataset. However, if we have a big enough amount of data on each growing seasons and if time allows, we will also try to develop a model for each season.

3.5.1.3 Network architecture

After choosing an appropriate framework, we will begin to experiment different CNN architectures. We will start with the CNN architecture suggested by the classic article by Krizhevsky et al. (2012). It consists of 8 trainable layers. There are 5 convolutional layers, all of them have square filters with size 11,5,3,3,3 respectively. The first, second and fifth convolutional layers are followed by an overlap 3 by 3 max pooling layer with stride 2. The feature maps from the last max pooling layer are then processed by three fully connected layers. The results from the final fully connected layer are fed to a softmax function, which will produce a prediction over the three classes. [1]

Next, we will modify this architecture by adjusting different levels of independent variables and see whether any of these adjustments will help increase the accuracy.

The simplest adjustment is the size of input images. Krizhevsky et al. (2012) uses square input images of size 224. Larger input images would cost the CNN more training time. In our case, we would like to know the input images size that generates the best accuracy with an optimal amount of time.

The size of the filters and the use of overlap pooling are probably the two least time consuming adjustment because they do not considerably expand the size of a model. However, previous experiments have shown that it is not always the case that they will affect the accuracy. In this experiment, we will first test whether the use of overlap pooling will increase the accuracy. We will then adjust each filter size up to 2 by 2 pixels difference from the original to test whether they have some significant effects to the accuracy.

According to Aaron et al. (2015), viewpoint extraction would increase the accuracy. Nevertheless, viewpoints extraction increases the number of input images and the number of convolutional layers, max pooling layers and ReLU layers by n times, where n is the number of viewpoints extracted [2]. We would like to experiment with viewpoint extraction on our problem to see whether it will improve the prediction capability of a model. We will start by extracting two view points and gradually increase it according to the available time. Because viewpoint extraction is extremely costly to do, we will only continue using it if we see a significant improvement on the accuracy.

Increasing the number of layers of each type would potentially increase the accuracy. However, it will take more time to train a CNN with more layers. We will gradually increase the number of convolutional layers according to the time we have. Since it costs us less time train a network with fewer layers, we would also like to decrease the number of layers of each type and see if it will improve or at least not reduce the accuracy.

Table 3.5-1 summaries the potential testing values for different factors in our experiment. We will then adjust the experiment in the direction where we see improvement on the accuracy.

Input image size	Convolutional layer	Max pooling layer	Viewpoints extraction
224	Number of layers = 5 Sizes = 11,5,3,3,3	Size = 3 x 3 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 5 th convolutional layer	No
224	Number of layers = 5 Sizes = 11,5,3,3,3	Size = 2 x 2 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 5 th convolutional layer	No
224	Number of layers = 5 Sizes = 11,5,3,3,3	Size = 3 x 3 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 5 th convolutional layer	Extract 2 viewpoints
224	Number of layers = 5 Sizes = 11,5,3,3,3	Size = 3 x 3 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 5 th convolutional layer	Extract 3 viewpoints
224	Number of layers = 4 Sizes = 11,5,3,3	Size = 3 x 3 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 4 th convolutional layer	No
224	Number of layers = 6 Sizes = 11,5,3,3,3,3	Size = 3 x 3 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 6 convolutional layer	No
500	Number of layers = 5 Sizes = 11,5,3,3,3	Size = 3 x 3 Stride = 2 Follow the 1 st , 2 nd and 5 th convolutional layer	No

Table 3.5-1 A summary of testing values for different factors

3.5.1.4 Results evaluation

In order to evaluate the results, we will calculate the accuracy and the error rate of each model. We will compare the predictions made by a model with the original label of each input image. The accuracy is the percentage of correct prediction over the total number of input images. The error rate is the one minus the accuracy.

For debugging purpose, we will print out both the input label and the label predicted by a model for each input images. An input label and a predicted label at any corresponding position will refer to the same input image.

Below is an example of the actual labels for a batch of three images.

```
[0 0 1
 1 0 0
 0 1 0]
```

Each line contains labelling information for one image. Each digit in a line represents one class. The first digit represents class ‘poor’, the second represents class ‘medium’ and the last represents class ‘good’. When the digit is ‘1’, the class that it refers to is *on*, otherwise it is *off*. Hence in the example above, the first image is good quality, the second is poor quality and the third is medium.

The predicted labels are represented in the same fashion with that of the actual labels. Let's suppose that our model predicts the labels for the same batch of images as follows:

[0 0 1
0 1 0
0 0 1]

We can interpret from the data in the above example the following. The actual label for the first image in the batch is ‘good’ and it is also correctly classified by the model as ‘good’. The actual label for the second image in the batch is ‘poor’ but it is misclassified by the model as ‘medium’. And the actual label for the last image in the batch is ‘medium’ but it is misclassified by the model as ‘good’.

Chapter 4

Results and Discussion

4.1 Frameworks

4.1.1 Tensorflow

We were able to install CPU mode Tensorflow with the commands shown in figure 4.1-1:

```
sudo chown -R $USER /usr/local/lib/python2.7/
pip uninstall protobuf
pip uninstall tensorflow
brew uninstall protobuf
export
TF_BINARY_URL=https://storage.googleapis.com/tensorflow/mac/tensorflow
-0.9.0-py2-none-any.whl
```

Figure 4.1-1 Commands for installing Tensorflow in MacOS

Tensorflow, in general, has a good documentation that is well organized and easy to understand. The installation steps are neat. Tutorial and sample codes are widely available on the Internet. Data argumentation can be performed very easily with Tensorflow. The biggest disadvantage of Tensorflow would be its compute time. When computing with one CPU, it took many hours longer for Tensorflow to process the same size training data set with the same number of iterations as Torch.

4.1.2 Caffe

Caffe has many dependency packages, including *CUDA*, *Blas*, *Boost*, *OpenCV*, *cuDNN*, *snappy*, *leveldb*, *gflags*, *glog*, *szip*, *lmdb*. There was no single command to install Caffe. We had to install each package individually. Because the packages were installed separately, some were located at unexpected places in the computer. This led to the failure of the Caffe *make* command since it could not locate some of the required libraries that existed somewhere in the code.

The versions of some packages were not compatible with that of another. In our case, CUDA 8.0 was not supported by Xcode 8 so we had to downgrade it to Xcode 7. Caffe documentation did not provide these information, we had to look for it in CUDA documentation.

The installation pipe was broken. We had to modify some codes according to the instructions in their documentation in order to be able to execute it.

The documentation was not very useful and hard to understand. We followed what it said but we could not find out how to install Caffe.

4.1.3 Torch

Since we could not install Caffe, we decided to try an another framework which is also popular – Torch. We decided to try Torch because it is used by the Facebook people. We were able to install CPU mode Torch with the commands shown in figure 4.1-2:

```

git clone https://github.com/torch/distro.git ~/torch --recursive
cd ~/torch; bash install-deps;
/install.sh
echo ". /Users/phuongpham/torch/install/bin/torch-activate" >
~/.profile
source ~/.profile

```

Figure 4.1-2 Commands for installing Torch in MacOS

The installation of Torch is very simple. The compute time is very fast compared to Tensorflow and the error messages are overall useful. It is also very easy to change the values of different parameters in a Torch model. Torch requires us to write less code to achieve the same thing we want to do in comparison with Tensorflow.

The biggest weakness of Torch is that it uses Lua as an API language. This is a not very popular programming language. Therefore, the learning curve is low as it is very hard to find example codes and tutorials from the Internet. However, this framework is still worth considering because we are not required to write a lot of lua code.

4.1.4 Some conclusions

With Tensorflow, we got the accuracies varied a lot with different runs (from 0.25 to 70%). We suspect is because the number of images we currently have are too little for deep learning algorithms, since the model we tried was claimed to perform well on the Galaxy dataset [2].

We have not made a decision on which framework to use. Torch is probably a good framework since it is very easy to install and use. The only problem with Torch is we have not figured out how to perform data augmentation with it. Tensorflow is also easy to install but less easy to modify the parameters. Plus, it takes Tensorflow longer to process our images. Finally, Caffe theoretically is an ideal choose because it is a specialized framework for CNN. However, we had a lot of trouble when we tried to install it on MacOS. Since the HPC server is Linux-based, we plan to give Caffe another try. If we still cannot install Caffe on the server, we will consider using Torch.

4.2 Preliminary results

We did not have the authorization to access to the KMUTT Innosoft high performance computing service until October 27th 2016. In the meantime, we had done some experiments with some frameworks on CPU mode on MacOS in order to evaluate their usability.

4.2.1 The example dataset

We did not receive the full dataset until November 9th 2016. Therefore, all of the experiments for evaluating the frameworks were conducted with the example dataset which we had got earlier. It consists of 31 ground level images of types png and jpg. They are segregated by the sugarcane age into four categories: 1-3 months, 4-6 months, 7-9 months and 10-12 months. Each category contains sample sugarcane images of different qualities: poor, medium and good. Each image is labeled according to the quality of the field which it shows.



Figure 4.2-1 From left to right: Images of poor , medium and good sugarcane from 1-3 months.



Figure 4.2-2 From left to right: Images of poor , medium and good sugarcane from 4-6 months.



Figure 4.2-3 From left to right: Images of poor , medium and good sugarcane from 7-9 months.



Figure 4.2-4 From left to right: Images of poor , medium and good sugarcane from 10-12 months.

We have tried to rebuild the model proposed by S. Dieleman et al. [2] for our example dataset using each framework. The summary of this model is as shown in table 4.1-1:

Type	# features	filter size	Non-linearity	Max pooling
------	------------	-------------	---------------	-------------

Convolutional	32	6 x 6	ReLU	Yes
Convolutional	64	5 x 5	ReLU	No
Convolutional	128	3 x 3	ReLU	Yes
Convolutional	128	3 x 3	ReLU	Yes
Fully connected	2048	-	Maxout	-
Fully connected	2048	-	Maxout	-
Fully connected	3	-	Maxout	-

Table 4.2-1 The summary of the model we are going to use to test the frameworks

A network for each framework was built as follows. First, a batch of n images was randomly picked from the training set. Next, we set the network to iterate 5 times on each batch. Each iteration consisted of n cycles of propagation and back-propagation operating on n images in the batch. At every cycle, the weights were adapted in order to reduce the error rate of the networks. Below are the screenshots of the results for the experiment with Torch and Tensorflow.

For the experiment with Torch, we tried to print out the improvement of the training error, as shown in figure 4.1-5. The training error is the summation of error at each output neuron. The error at each neuron is a function of difference between the actual value of that neuron pre-labeled in the training set and the value predicted by the neural networks. Thus the larger the error, the poorer the model performs. Details about training error can be found in Section 2.4.2.

```
# StochasticGradient: training
# current error = 1.0940228035297
# current error = 1.0927206600653
# current error = 1.0914983894763
# current error = 1.090334648861
# current error = 1.0891952305181
# StochasticGradient: you have reached the maximum number of iterations
# training error = 1.0891952305181
```

Figure 4.2-5 Improvement of the error rate with Torch

Next, we tried to observe how the model uses the trained model to make predictions on the testing dataset. The real labels of the testing dataset are shown in figure 4.1-6. Label 1 represents good quality, label 2 represents medium quality and label 3 represent poor quality.

=====TESTSET=====				
image	1	label	1	- good
image	2	label	1	- good
image	3	label	1	- good
image	4	label	1	- good
image	5	label	1	- good
image	6	label	1	- good
image	7	label	1	- good
image	8	label	2	- medium
image	9	label	2	- medium
image	10	label	3	- bad
image	11	label	3	- bad
image	12	label	3	- bad

Figure 4.2-6 True labels for the images in testing set

The prediction made by the model is shown in figure 4.1-7. There are 12 images in the testing set. For each image, we printed out the prediction made by the model for each class. The image belonged to the class which raised the highest value. It took about 40 seconds to train a model with 24 images using Torch.

1	labels	good	-0.00021398761314717	7	labels	good	-0.0025443737717497
	labels	medium	0.008211521802788		labels	medium	0.0074294459114476
	labels	bad	-0.0086658229564656		labels	bad	-0.0067647445697144
2	labels	good	0.0022934795800538	8	labels	good	0.00036068540250998
	labels	medium	0.0081648297388732		labels	medium	0.0075078535722521
	labels	bad	-0.0095301874156718		labels	bad	-0.0078686853041565
3	labels	good	0.0022811226848531	9	labels	good	6.083414597371e-05
	labels	medium	0.008644667874253		labels	medium	0.0078139059479933
	labels	bad	-0.0098279362374528		labels	bad	-0.0078075138673717
4	labels	good	0.0019677975627495	10	labels	good	0.00051837037811793
	labels	medium	0.0081596846664619		labels	medium	0.0072780908183028
	labels	bad	-0.0094185414792694		labels	bad	-0.0077960089479477
5	labels	good	0.0016628820442759	11	labels	good	-0.0004188124820297
	labels	medium	0.0077519025267162		labels	medium	0.0075642269470611
	labels	bad	-0.0091785197793586		labels	bad	-0.0076559181639273
6	labels	good	0.002005672673868	12	labels	good	0.0021683408270065
	labels	medium	0.0084634043863459		labels	medium	0.0085255278799085
	labels	bad	-0.0095155720893275		labels	bad	-0.0097021379810969

Figure 4.2-7 Prediction made to the testing set by the trained model

It is obvious that the predictions are not at all adequate. However, the training used only a handful of images.

For the experiment with Tensorflow, we tried to print out the *training accuracy* for each iteration, as shown in figure 4.1-8. The training accuracy is the percentage of the number of correctly classified images over the total number of images in each training batch. It took Tensorflow 7 minutes to train a model with 24 images.

```

training accuracy: 0.25
training accuracy: 0.45
training accuracy: 0.4
training accuracy: 0.45
training accuracy: 0.25

```

Figure 4.2-8 Testing accuracies with tensorflow

We got some errors when trying to use the trained model on the test dataset and have not yet been able to fix it.

4.3 Experimental results

4.3.1 Input images investigation

To understand the effect that input image can have on the accuracy, we processed different sets of input images applying the same convolutional neural networks (CNN). Table 4.3-1 shows the configuration of the CNN we used in this experiment (Lenet).

Layer name	Description
Conv 1	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 1	Used
Pool 1	Kernel size: 2x2
Conv 2	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 2	Used
Pool 2	Kernel size: 2x2
FC 1	120 neurons
FC 2	84 neurons
FC 3	3 output classes

Table 4.3-2 Lenet

Table 4.3-2 summaries the variations of image preprocessing techniques we used to create different sets of input images and their corresponding accuracies. The changed values are highlighted in red.

No	Input size	Image preprocessing			i	CPU/GPU	Learning rate	%TP Good	%TP Avg	%TP Poor	Train time (min)	Accuracy
		Class Good	Class Medium	Class Poor								
1	32x32	Original	Original	Original	5	CPU	0.001	38.00	13.10	0	25	51.11
2	32x32	Original	Original	Original	5	GPU	0.001	38.00	13.10	0	0.2	51.11
3	32x32	Original	Original	Original + Center & Bottom left & Bottom right crop, each with size 200x200	10	GPU	0.001	34.44	2.05	17.17	0.33	53.67
4	32x32	Original	Original	Original + Center & Bottom left & Bottom right crop, each with size 200x200	10	GPU	0.005	9.61	28.61	16.63	0.46	54.85
5	32x32	Center crop with size 200x200	Center crop with size 200x200	Original + Center & Bottom left & Bottom right crop, each with size 200x200	10	GPU	0.005	35.74	6.80	7.12	0.46	49.67
6	32x32	Original	Center crop with size 200x200	Original + Center & Bottom left & Bottom right crop, each with size 200x200	10	GPU	0.005	39.84	31.53	7.66	0.46	79.04
7	32x32	Original	Original	N/A	10	GPU	0.005	37.51	20.31	N/A	0.68	57.82
8	32x32	Original	Center crop with size 128x128	N/A	10	GPU	0.005	52.18	45.13	N/A	0.68	97.32
9	32x32	Original	Center crop with size 200x200	Original + Center & Bottom left & Bottom right crop, each with size 200x200	1000	GPU	0.0015	37.25	29.26	10.36	32	76.88
10	128x128	Original	Center crop with size 128x128	Original + Center & Bottom left & Bottom right crop, each with size 128x128	10	GPU	0.005	39.84	30.34	8.63	2.5	78.83

Table 4.3-3 The summary of the image preprocessing variations

4.3.1.1 Input image organization and the learning rate

We started by training the CNN with the raw images resized into 32x32 with learning rate equals to 0.001 using both the CPU and the GPU (experiment 1 and 2). It took the CPU 20 minutes to finish the execution, while it took the GPU only roughly 2.5 seconds to complete the same task. The resulting accuracy was 51.11% with 38.00% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 13.10% in class “medium” and 0% in class “poor”. The result indicated that the networks were able to tell the difference between the first two classes, but it was not able to distinguish the third one from the rest. This suggested that the amount of images from class ‘bad’ was probably too small and not proportionally equal to the other two, and therefore should be increased somehow.

We then artificially increased the number of images in the class “poor” by cropping 3 extra pieces out of each original image in this category (experiment 3). The cropped positions of these pieces are respectively the center, the bottom left and the bottom right of the original image, each of size 200x200. We trained the networks with this new data set using the same specifications from experiment 1. The resulting accuracy was 53.67% with 34.44% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 2.05% in class “medium” and 17.17% in class “poor”.

In experiment 4, we tried to increase the learning rate to 0.005. The resulting accuracy was then 54.85% with 9.61% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 28.61% in class “medium” and 16.63% in class “poor”.

We tried to improve the result from experiment 4 further by improving the quality of the input images in the “good” and “medium” category. Specifically, we cropped 200x200 pixels at the center of each image in these category and used them as the input images to train the CNN 1. The resulting accuracy went down to 49.67% with 35.74% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 6.80% in class “medium” and 7.12% in class “poor”.

We observed from experiment 5 that the %TP of class “good” and “poor” were high, whereas class “medium” was low. Therefore, in experiment 6, we tried to emphasize the learning of the networks on the class “medium”: we slightly modify the input sets from experiment 5 by replacing the cropped images in class “good” by the raw image. The resulting accuracy went up to 79.04% with 39.84% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 31.53% in class “medium” and 7.66% in class “poor”.

We also conducted two extra experiments where we removed class “poor” from the input dataset. In the first experiment (experiment 7), we trained the networks using the raw image from both class “good” and class “medium”, all of which were resized to 32x32. The decreased to 57.82% with 37.51% of the true positives resides in class “good” and 20.31% in class “medium”. In the second experiment (experiment 8), we trained the networks using the raw image from class “good” and the 200x200 pixels cropped images from class “medium”, all of which were resized to 32x32. The resulting accuracy increased significantly to 97.32% with 52.18% of the true positives resides in class “good” and 45.13% in class “medium”.

4.3.1.2 The number of iterations

In experiment 9, we decreased the learning rate to 0.0015 and increased the number of iterations to 1000 (the lower the learning rate, the more iterations the CNN takes to learn). The resulting accuracy was 76.88% with 37.25% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 29.26% in class “medium” and 10.36% in class “poor”.

4.3.1.3 Input image size

In experiment 10, we increased the size of the input images to 128x128. The resulting accuracy decreases to 78.83% with 39.84% of the true positives resides in class in class “good”, 30.34% in class “medium” and 8.63% in class “poor”.

4.3.1.4 Some conclusions

Our experiments show that the input image quality can have a direct effect to the accuracy. Cropping out the unusual information from the input image will likely improve the

prediction quality, but not always. For example, in experiment 5, by cropping out some information in the images from class “good”, we in fact made the accuracy decrease. In order to obtain a good result, different data augmentation techniques should be applied on different classes depending on their characteristics and their behaviors on the past trainings. The best network performance in classifying sugarcane images into the three classes was **79.04%** with Lenet (as described in table 4.3-3) applying on a size 32x32 input set. This set composes of raw images in class “good”, images cropped at the center into 200x200 pixels in class “medium” and artificially enlarged set of images in class “poor” (as described in Section 4.3.1.1). The best network performance in classifying sugarcane images into two classes including “good” and “medium” was **97.32%** with Lenet (as described in table 4.3-4) applying on a size 32x32 input set. In this set, all images in class “medium” were cropped at the center into 128x128 pixels and all images in class “poor” were entirely removed.

The experiments also show that choosing the correct learning rate is important. A networks with low learning rate takes longer time to train than one with high learning rate.

Next, the experiment suggests that increasing the number of iterations does not always improve the accuracy. From experiment 1 to 2, we increased the number of iterations by 10, and this improved the accuracy. However, from experiment 6 to 9, we increased the the number of iterations further by 990, and it actually made the accuracy decrease. This could be an over-fitting problem.

Finally, as illustrated by experiment 6 and 8, the input size does not have a significant effect to the accuracy. Therefore, it is better to use input images with smaller size since they take less training time.

4.4 Networks configuration

To understand the effect that networks configuration can have on the accuracy, we experimented the preprocessed dataset from either experiment 6 or 8 with various modifications of the Lenet (table 4.3-3). The models were training using the number of iterations equals to 20. The modifications of the networks were obtained by varying the convolutional layers, the pooling layers, the fully connected layers and the use of dropout as shown in table 4.4-1. Details of the modifications will be discussed in Section 4.4.1, 4.4.2 and 4.4.3.

No	Dataset	Network component from exp.	Old value	New value	Learning rate	New %TP Good	New %TP Avg	New %TP Poor	Time (min)	New accuracy
11	8	#Conv layers	2, each of kernel size = 5x5	4, each of kernel size = 5x5	0.0015	40.49	30.45	5.61	5	76.56
12	8	Kernel size of conv layer	5x5	13x13	0.0015	37.04	33.15	6.69	7	76.88
13	6	Kernel size of conv layer	5x5	3x3	0.0015	39.84	30.77	7.45	0.88	78.07
14	6	Pooling technique	Max pooling, follow conv1&conv2	N/A	0.0015	39.09	31.74	4.10	0.56	74.94
15	6	Pooling technique	Max pooling, follow conv1&conv2	Overlap max pooling, follow conv1&conv2	0.0015	38.98	26.78	11.55	0.85	77.32
16	6	Kernel size of pool layer	2x2 (max pooling)	3x3 (max pooling)	0.0015	34.23	33.58	3.67	1.53	71.49
17	6	#FC layer	3	5	0.0015	36.39	31.74	9.50	2.01	77.64
18	6	#neuron at FC layers	FC1 = 120; FC2 = 84; FC3 = 3	FC1 = 2084; FC2 = 2084; FC3 = 3	0.0015	38.12	29.37	10.36	1.08	77.86
19	6	Dropout	N/A	Drop out prob. = 0.05 Used at ReLU 2	0.005	38.98	33.04	8.20	0.78	80.12

Table 4.4-1 Modifications of network configuration

4.4.1 Convolutional layer

4.4.1.1 The number of convolutional layers

In experiment 11, we added 2 more convolutional layers, each with kernel size equals to 5x5, as shown in table 4.4-2. The resulting accuracy went down to 76.56% with 40.49% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 30.45% in class “medium” and 5.61% in class “poor”.

Layer name	Description
Conv 1	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 1	Used
Pool 1	Kernel size: 2x2
Conv 2	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 2	Used
Pool 2	Kernel size: 2x2
Conv 3	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 3	Used
Pool 3	Kernel size: 2x2
Conv 4	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 4	Used
Pool 4	Kernel size: 2x2
FC 1	120 neurons
FC 2	84 neurons
FC 3	3 output classes

Table 4.4-2 CNN 10

4.4.1.2 Kernel size

In experiment 12, we increased the kernel size at the convolutional layers to 13x13. The resulting accuracy was 76.88% with 37.04% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 33.15% in class “medium” and 6.69% in class “poor”.

In experiment 13, we decreased the kernel size at the convolutional layers to 3x3. The resulting accuracy was 78.07% with 39.84% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 30.77% in class “medium” and 7.45% in class “poor”.

The training time was 7 when the kernel size equals to 13 and went down to 0.88 when the kernel size was 3.

4.4.2 Pooling layer

4.4.2.1 The use of max pooling

Next, we tried to remove the pooling layers from the CNN (experiment 14). Unfortunately, the resulting accuracy further decreased to 74.94% with 39.09% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 31.74% in class “medium” and 4.10% in class “poor”. Then, we replaced max pooling with overlap max pooling (experiment 15). The accuracy in this experiment was 77.32% with 38.98% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 26.78% in class “medium” and 11.55% in class “poor”.

4.4.2.2 Kernel size

In experiment 16, we modified the kernel size at each pooling layer to 3x3. The increment of the kernel size at pooling layers actually made the resulting accuracy decreased significantly to 71.49% with 34.23% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 33.58% in class “medium” and 3.67% in class “poor”.

4.4.3 Fully connected layer

4.4.3.1 The number of fully connected layer

Next, we increased the number of fully connected layers to 5. Details of the new CNN is shown in table 4.4-3. With this configuration, the accuracy was 77.64% with 36.39% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 31.74% in class “medium” and 9.50% in class “poor”.

Layer name	Description
Conv 1	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 1	Used
Pool 1	Kernel size: 2x2
Conv 2	Kernel size: 5x5
ReLU 2	Used
Pool 2	Kernel size: 2x2
FC 1	2048 neurons
FC 2	2048 neurons
FC 3	120 neurons
FC 4	84 neurons
FC 5	3 neurons

Table 4.4-3 CNN 16

4.4.3.2 The number of neurons

We also tried to increase the number of neurons in each fully connected layer to 2048. The accuracy was 77.86% with 38.12% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 29.37% in class “medium” and 10.36% in class “poor”

4.4.4 Dropout

In the last experiment, we trained our networks with dropout on layer 2 with probability equals to 5%. With this setup, the resulting accuracy went up to 80.12% with 39.95% of the true positives resides in class “good”, 29.48% in class “medium” and 8.42% in class “poor”. This is also the best accuracy we obtained in this research.

4.4.5 Some conclusions

Our experiments have shown the impacts of different network components to the accuracy. From experiments 11, 12 and 13, we can conclude that the kernel size and the number of convolutional layers has little effect in predicting this kind of data. Experiment 14 and 16 showed that the use of max pooling with kernel size equals to 2x2 can significantly improve the accuracy. Our experiments also showed that the use of overlap pooling only has little effect in predicting sugarcane labels. Next, experiment 17 and 18 suggested that the changes at the FCC layer also only slightly affect the accuracy. Finally, from experiment 19, we found that implementing our networks with dropout can slightly improve the accuracy. The best network performance in classifying sugarcane images into the three classes was **80.12%** with Lenet-with-dropout applying on the same data used in experiment 6.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.1 Comments on the project

We had two responses from our advisor and committee during the proposal defense as follows. First, it was recommended we should “consider the effects of age or stage of sugar cane and quality of picture taken at different time and with different devices” (Aj. Suthathip). The matter of the quality of picture taken at different time and with different devices has been targeted at with data argumentation and viewpoints extraction, as discussed in Section 2.7, 3.3. and 3.4. For the matter of the effects of age or stage of sugar cane, it was uncertain whether this would affect the predicting quality of the CNN. Since one of the key success factors of the CNN is the amount of data and since we only have 1700 samples for all growing seasons, we would like to try training the networks with the whole dataset without segregating by seasons first. If the predicting quality is low, we will then try training the networks with the sugarcane images at the most mature stage to see whether there are some improvements. The reason we want use the sugarcane images at the most mature stage is because we think they have gained enough distinguish shape and color to support the feature extraction step. Second was a comment from Aj. Sally: “Overall a really excellent job. I think you really impressed the committee with your knowledge. Your slides had some problems with readability, maybe because you were using a different OS than the one you used to create them. Also, your voice was very loud. Maybe you were nervous!”. We will notice about the issue of the readability of our slides and the loudness of the voice in our next presentation.

We had a response from Aj. Sally in the term 1 proposal defense as follow:
“Good presentation. I thought the animations highlighting different steps in order to clarify the calculations for the convolutional and fully connected layers were very effective.
Some suggestions for you:

1. Do not read your slides. Look at the audience.
2. Spend a bit of time linking specific slides back to the problem. When you are buried deep in the explanation of how CNN works, it is sometimes hard to remember the higher level goals. This is something you can do as you present. It is not needed on the slides.
3. Slow down your speaking a bit. You were speaking very fast, maybe because you were nervous. You should practice your presentation several times so that you feel more relaxed and confident.”

We would like to thank Aj. Sally for the comments. In response to comment 1 and 3, we will do more practices on our presentation in order to make it more professional and comprehensible. In response to comment 2, we will do as suggested for our next presentation slides.

5.2 Our conclusion

One thing that we did differently from other researches is the application of different data augmentation techniques on different classes depending on their characteristics and their behaviors on the past trainings. Opposed to the other researches, we found that good data preprocessing techniques are more important than network configurations in improving networks predicting capability.

Our results show that convolutional neural networks is a promising technique for sugarcane health classification. Our best network performance in classifying sugarcane

images into the three classes was 80.12% and in classifying sugarcane images into two classes “good” and “medium” was 97.32%.

The biggest challenge for this project are the small and imbalanced dataset, and the high level of similarities among images from different classes. We have only 2281 images in the dataset, where the number of images in class “poor” were only 160. The images between two adjacent classes are quite similar.

Even though we were able to generate a CNN to classifying sugarcane images into the three classes “good”, “medium” and “poor” with a relatively high overall accuracy, the accuracy on the class “poor” is still pretty low. Ultimately, we would like to improve this accuracy. We would also like to create a server capable of storing updated images from farmers and classifying them automatically.

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Appendix A

An example of how raw files are read

```
train_size      254
test_size       127
254
i      1
file    /home/superuser/project/Picture/Early/Good/PIC495.jpg
index_train    1
1
index_train    2
i      2
file    /home/superuser/project/Picture/Early/Good/SDC18491.JPG
index_train    2
1
index_train    3
i      3
file    /home/superuser/project/Picture/Early/Good/SDC18493.JPG
index_train    3
1
index_train    4
i      4
file    /home/superuser/project/Picture/Early/Good/SDC18770.JPG
index_train    4
1
index_train    5
```

Appendix B

An example of the training error at each iteration

```
superuser@gpu-01:~/project$ th train_model.lua
[# StochasticGradient: training
[# current error = 0.94254717141568
# current error = 0.71775029911966
# current error = 0.68249600359974
# current error = 0.64541472571663
# current error = 0.60844299107968
# current error = 0.58514107133489
# current error = 0.56726838021286
# current error = 0.5528999486564
# current error = 0.53946196306122
# current error = 0.53033418560002
# current error = 0.51986101949481
# current error = 0.50872071936654
# current error = 0.49788620939836
# current error = 0.48988714020864
# current error = 0.47858621065683
# current error = 0.4690087201742
# current error = 0.45733326511274
# current error = 0.45265183276175
# current error = 0.44189780327569
# current error = 0.43105293115196
# StochasticGradient: you have reached the maximum number of iterations
# training error = 0.43105293115196
```

Appendix C

An example of how the result is saved (extracted from file results.txt)

```
learning rate: 0.005
number of iiterations: 20
image number    1
labels  good    2.4315121173859
labels  medium   -2.8473653793335
labels  bad     0.95042943954468
image number    2
labels  good    2.9748983383179
labels  medium   -2.4407548904419
labels  bad     -0.14547914266586
image number    3
labels  good    -0.79168504476547
labels  medium   1.8492548465729
labels  bad     -1.6062943935394
image number    4
labels  good    3.125519990921
labels  medium   -2.1363162994385
labels  bad     -0.62866818904877
image number    5
labels  good    3.4835374355316
labels  medium   -3.0744075775146
labels  bad     0.033833026885986
image number   920
labels  good    -6.4722604751587
labels  medium   2.5942873954773
labels  bad     4.3955535888672
image number   921
labels  good    -3.0730593204498
labels  medium   1.4692821502686
labels  bad     2.0561344623566
image number   922
labels  good    -2.2090272903442
labels  medium   2.1136105060577
labels  bad     -0.32834109663963
image number   923
labels  good    -3.4774668216705
labels  medium   2.2462406158447
labels  bad     1.0469454526901
image number   924
labels  good    -2.1671099662781
labels  medium   1.4252961874008
labels  bad     0.70018041133881
image number   925
labels  good    -3.6592762470245
labels  medium   1.3722836971283
labels  bad     2.6589827537537
image number   926
labels  good    -3.280620098114
labels  medium   1.8290886878967
labels  bad     1.6472265720367
correct labels predicted: 742  percentage of correct labels predicted: 80.129589632829%
goodt38.984881209503%
mediumt33.04535637149%
badt8.207343412527%
```