Collaborators

List your collaborators here: Steven Man

Initialization

Run the following code to import the modules you'll need. After your finish the assignment, remember to run all cells and save the note book to your local machine as a PDF for gradescope submission.

```
In [ ]: import math
        import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        import numpy as np
        import os
        import platform
        import random
        from random import randrange
        import time
        import torch
        import torchvision
        from torch.utils.data import Dataset, DataLoader
        from PIL import Image
        import torchvision.transforms as transforms
        import glob
        from skimage.util import montage
        np.random.seed(0)
```

1. Setup dataset

In this section we will download the dataset, unzip it and setup the paths to load images from.

This dataset is a tiny subset of ImageNet, a popular dataset for image classification.

This tiny dataset has **9538 training** images and **3856 test** images spanning **10 classes** {*fish*, *English-springer*, *cassette-player*, *chain-saw*, *church*, *French-horn*, *garbage-truck*, *gas-pump*, *golf-ball*, *parachute*} stored in the following directory structure:

```
dataset
---train
---class1
---class2
...
---test
---class1
```

---class2

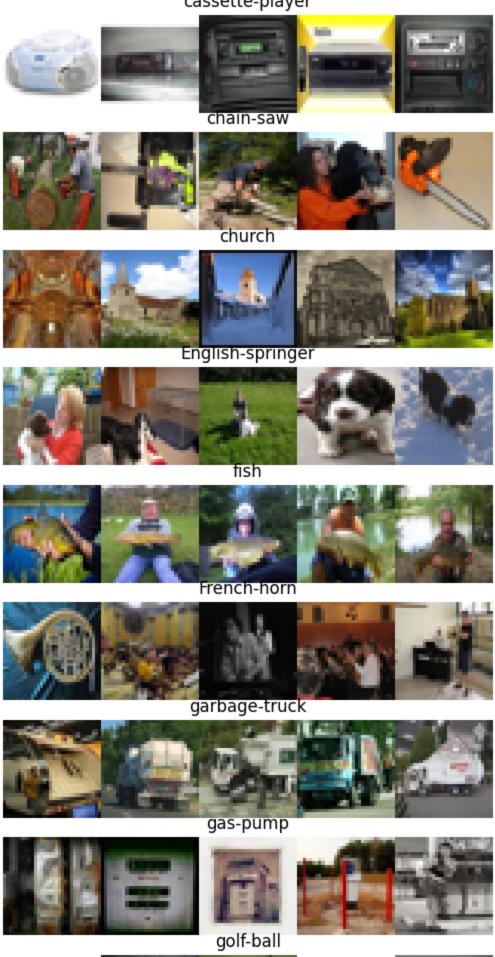
The data has been cleaned and we have provided dataloading functions below so you can directly use the dataset.

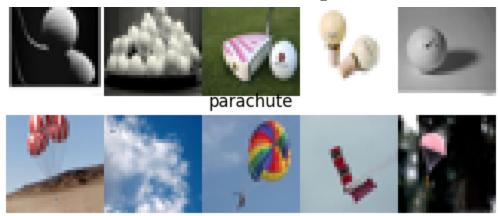
```
In [ ]:
In [ ]: if not os.path.exists('imagenette'):
          #!wget "https://drive.google.com/uc?export=download&id=1t3XtxcpVwZnKhsM95Q89MxYNLX5m
           !wget -r https://www.cs.cmu.edu/~deva/data/imagenette.zip -O imagenette.zip
           !unzip -qq "imagenette.zip"
In [ ]: train_data_path = 'imagenette/train'
        test data path = 'imagenette/test'
        train_image_paths = [] #to store image paths in list
        test_image_paths = []
        classes
        #Get all the paths from train data path and append image paths and class to to respect
        for data_path in glob.glob(train_data_path + '/*'):
            classes.append(data path.split('/')[-1])
            train_image_paths.append(glob.glob(data_path + '/*'))
        for data_path in glob.glob(test_data_path + '/*'):
            test_image_paths.append(glob.glob(data_path + '/*'))
        train_image_paths = list(sum(train_image_paths,[]))
        random.shuffle(train_image_paths)
        test_image_paths = list(sum(test_image_paths,[]))
        random.shuffle(test_image_paths)
        idx_to_class = {i:j for i, j in enumerate(classes)}
        class_to_idx = {value:key for key,value in idx_to_class.items()}
In [ ]: def LoadData(img_paths,img_size,class_to_idx):
          n = len(img paths)
          Images = np.zeros((n,img_size,img_size,3),dtype='uint8')
          Labels = np.zeros(n)
          for i in range(n):
            path = img_paths[i]
            Images[i,:,:,:] = np.asarray(Image.open(path).resize((img_size,img_size)));
            Labels[i] = class_to_idx[path.split('/')[-2]]
          return Images, Labels
        # Load images as size 32x32; you can try with img_size = 64 to check if it improves th
        img size = 32
        Train_Images, Train_Labels = LoadData(train_image_paths, img_size, class_to_idx)
        Test_Images, Test_Labels = LoadData( test_image_paths, img_size, class_to_idx)
In [ ]: # Visualize the first 5 images of the 10 classes
        plt.figure(figsize=(15,15))
        for i in range(10):
          plt.subplot(10,1,i+1)
```

```
ind = np.nonzero(Train_Labels == i)[0]
plt.imshow(montage(Train_Images[ind[:5],:],grid_shape=(1,5),channel_axis=3))
plt.axis('off');
plt.title(idx_to_class[i])
```

HOG_release 2/1/24, 12:20 AM

cassette-player





Debug Flag

Set the debug flag to true when testing. Setting the debug flag to true will let the dataloader use only 20% of the training dataset, which makes everything run faster. This will make testing the code easier.

Once you finish the coding part please make sure to change the flag to False and rerun all the cells. This will make the colab ready for submission.

```
In [ ]: DEBUG = False
         # Take a smaller subset of the training set for efficient execution of kNN
         # We also create a small validation set
         if DEBUG:
           num_train = 1900
           num_test = 700
         else:
           num train = 9000
           num\_test = 3856
         X_train = Train_Images[:num_train].reshape(num_train,-1).astype('float64')
         y_train = Train_Labels[:num_train]
         X_test = Test_Images[:num_test].reshape(num_test,-1).astype('float64')
         y_test = Test_Labels[:num_test]
         print('Train data shape: ' , X_train.shape)
         print('Train labels shape: ', y_train.shape)
         print('Test data shape: ' , X_test.shape)
print('Test labels shape: ' , y_test.shape)
         Train data shape: (9000, 3072)
         Train labels shape: (9000,)
         Test data shape: (3856, 3072)
         Test labels shape: (3856,)
```

Problem 3.1

(a) Define the KNearestNeighbor class

```
In [ ]:
        from collections import Counter
        class KNearestNeighbor(object):
          """ a kNN classifier with L2 distance """
          def __init__(self):
            pass
          def train(self, X, y):
            Train the classifier. For k-nearest neighbors this is just
            memorizing the training data.
            Inputs:
             - X: A numpy array of shape (num_train, D) containing the training data
              consisting of num train samples each of dimension D.
            - y: A numpy array of shape (N,) containing the training labels, where
                 y[i] is the label for X[i].
            self.X train = X
            self.y_train = y
          def predict(self, X, k=1, num_loops=0):
            Predict labels for test data using this classifier.
            Inputs:
             - X: A numpy array of shape (num_test, D) containing test data consisting
                  of num_test samples each of dimension D.
             - k: The number of nearest neighbors that vote for the predicted labels.
            - num loops: Determines which implementation to use to compute distances
              between training points and testing points.
             - y: A numpy array of shape (num_test,) containing predicted labels for the
              test data, where y[i] is the predicted label for the test point X[i].
            if num_loops == 0:
              dists = self.compute_distances_no_loops(X)
            elif num loops == 1:
              dists = self.compute_distances_one_loop(X)
            elif num_loops == 2:
              dists = self.compute_distances_two_loops(X)
              raise ValueError('Invalid value %d for num loops' % num loops)
             return self.predict labels(dists, k=k)
          def compute_distances_two_loops(self, X):
            Compute the 12 distance between each test point in X and each training point
            in self.X_train using a nested loop over both the training data and the
            test data.
            Inputs:
             - X: A numpy array of shape (num test, D) containing test data.
             - dists: A numpy array of shape (num_test, num_train) where dists[i, j]
              is the Euclidean distance between the ith test point and the jth training
              point.
            num_test = X.shape[0]
            num_train = self.X_train.shape[0]
             dists = np.zeros((num test, num train))
```

```
for i in range(num_test):
   for j in range(num_train):
      # ===== your code here! =====
      # TODO:
      # Compute the L2 distance between the ith test image and the jth
      # training image, and store the result in dists[i, j].
      # ==== end of code ====
      dists[i, j] = np.linalg.norm(self.X_train[j] - X[i])
 return dists
def compute_distances_one_loop(self, X):
 Compute the 12 distance between each test point in X and each training point
 in self.X_train using a single loop over the test data.
  Input / Output: Same as compute_distances_two_loops
 num_test = X.shape[0]
 num_train = self.X_train.shape[0]
 dists = np.zeros((num_test, num_train))
 for i in range(num_test):
   # ===== your code here! =====
   # TODO:
   # Compute the l2 distance between the ith test point and all training
   # points, and store the result in dists[i, :].
   # ==== end of code ====
   dists[i, :] = np.linalg.norm(self.X_train - X[i], axis=1)
  return dists
def compute_distances_no_loops(self, X):
 Compute the 12 distance between each test point in X and each training point
 in self.X_train using no explicit loops.
  Input / Output: Same as compute_distances_two_loops
 num_test = X.shape[0]
 num_train = self.X_train.shape[0]
 dists = np.zeros((num_test, num_train))
 # ===== your code here! =====
 # Compute the L2 distance between all test points and all training
 # points without using any explicit loops, and store the result in
 # dists.
 # You should implement this function using only basic array operations;
 # in particular you should not use functions from scipy.
 # HINT: ||x - y||^2 = ||x||^2 + ||y||^2 - 2x y^T
 # ==== end of code ====
```

```
dists = np.sqrt((X**2).sum(axis=1, keepdims=True) + (self.X_train**2).sum(axis=1)
  return dists
def predict_labels(self, dists, k=1):
 Given a matrix of distances between test points and training points,
 predict a label for each test point.
  Inputs:
  - dists: A numpy array of shape (num_test, num_train) where dists[i, j]
    gives the distance betwen the ith test point and the jth training point.
 Returns:
  - y: A numpy array of shape (num_test,) containing predicted labels for the
   test data, where y[i] is the predicted label for the test point X[i].
  - knn_idxs: List of arrays, containing Indexes of the k nearest neighbors
    for the test data. So, for num_tests, it will be a list of length
    num_tests with each element of the list, an array of size 'k'. This will
   be used for visualization purposes later.
 num test = dists.shape[0]
 y_pred = np.zeros(num_test)
 knn_idxs = []
 for i in range(num_test):
   # A list of length k storing the labels of the k nearest neighbors to
   # the ith test point.
   closest_y = []
    # ===== your code here! =====
   # TODO:
   # Use the distance matrix to find the k nearest neighbors of the ith
   # testing element, and use self.y_train to find the labels of these
   # neighbors. Store these labels in closest y.
    # Also, don't forget to apprpriately store indices knn idxs list.
    # Hint: Look up the function numpy.argsort.
   top_k_indx = np.argsort(dists[i])[:k]
    closest_y = self.y_train[top_k_indx]
    knn_idxs.append(top_k_indx)
    # ==== end of code ====
   # Now that you have found the labels of the k nearest neighbors, the code
    # below finds the most common label in the list closest y of labels.
    # and stores this label in y_pred[i]. We break ties by choosing the
    # smaller label.
   vote = Counter(closest_y)
    count = vote.most_common()
   y_pred[i] = count[0][0]
  return y pred, knn idxs
```

(b) Check L2 distance implementation

Now, let's do some checks to see if you have implemented the functions correctly. We will first calculate distances using *compute_distance_two_loops* and check accuracy for k=1 and k=3.

Then, we will compare the *compute_distance_one_loop* and *compute_distance_no_loop* with *compute_distance_two_loops* to ensure all results are consistent.

Initialize the KNN Classifier

```
In [ ]: classifier = KNearestNeighbor()
    classifier.train(X_train,y_train)
```

Compute the distance between the training and test set. This might take some time to run since we are running the two loops function which is not efficient.

6 to 8 mins for full dataset | 2 to 3 mins for debug dataset

```
In [ ]: dists_two = classifier.compute_distances_two_loops(X_test)
```

Now, let's do some checks to see if you have implemented the functions correctly. We will first calculate the distances using compute_distance_two_loops function and check the accuracies for k=1 and k=3. Then, we will compare the compute_distance_one_loop and compute_distance_no_loop functions with it to check their correctness.

Predict labels and check accuracy for k = 1. You should expect to see approximately 28% accuracy for full dataset.

(Accuracy below 24% on full dataset (Debug = False) will not be given full grades)

```
In [ ]: y_test_pred, k_idxs = classifier.predict_labels(dists_two, k=1)
# Compute and print the fraction of correctly predicted examples
num_correct = np.sum(y_test_pred == y_test)
accuracy = float(num_correct) / num_test
print('Got %d / %d correct => accuracy: %f' % (num_correct, num_test, accuracy))
Got 1087 / 3856 correct => accuracy: 0.281898
```

Now lets check the one loop implementation. This should also take some time to run.

4 to 6 mins for full dataset | 1 to 2 mins for debug dataset

Note: This function can possibly take a little more time that two loop implementaion because of some quirks in python, numpy and cpu processing. It is fine as long as the final output shows no difference below.

```
In []: # Implement the function compute_distances_one_loop in KNearestNeighbor class
# and run the code below:
dists_one = classifier.compute_distances_one_loop(X_test)

# To ensure that our vectorized implementation is correct, we make sure that it
# agrees with the naive implementation. There are many ways to decide whether
# two matrices are similar; one of the simplest is the Frobenius norm. In case
# you haven't seen it before, the Frobenius norm of two matrices is the square
# root of the squared sum of differences of all elements; in other words, reshape
# the matrices into vectors and compute the Euclidean distance between them.

difference = np.linalg.norm(dists_two - dists_one, ord='fro')
print('Difference was: %f' % (difference, ))
```

```
if difference < 0.001:
    print('Good! The distance matrices are the same')
else:
    print('Uh-oh! The distance matrices are different')</pre>
```

Difference was: 0.000000

Good! The distance matrices are the same

Now lets check the vectorized implementation. This should take less than 30 secs to run for full dataset.

```
In [ ]: # Now implement the fully vectorized version inside compute_distances_no_loops
# and run the code
dists_no = classifier.compute_distances_no_loops(X_test)
# check that the dist ance matrix agrees with the one we computed before:
difference = np.linalg.norm(dists_two - dists_no, ord='fro')
print('Difference was: %f' % (difference, ))
if difference < 0.001:
    print('Good! The distance matrices are the same')
else:
    print('Uh-oh! The distance matrices are different')</pre>
```

Difference was: 0.000000

Good! The distance matrices are the same

Let's compare how fast the implementations are You should see significantly faster performance with the fully vectorized implementation

```
In []: def time_function(f, *args):
    """
    Call a function f with args and return the time (in seconds) that it took to executive
    import time
    tic = time.time()
    f(*args)
    toc = time.time()
    return toc - tic

two_loop_time = time_function(classifier.compute_distances_two_loops,X_test)
    print('Two loop version took %f seconds' % two_loop_time)

one_loop_time = time_function(classifier.compute_distances_one_loop,X_test)
    print('One loop version took %f seconds' % one_loop_time)

no_loop_time = time_function(classifier.compute_distances_no_loops,X_test)
    print('No loop version took %f seconds' % no_loop_time)

# you should see significantly faster performance with the fully vectorized implementary
```

Two loop version took 161.313806 seconds One loop version took 376.566163 seconds No loop version took 0.975026 seconds

From this point on, we will use the efficient no loop implementation

The given accuracy of 29% is much better than chance accuracy of

==== your answer here! =====

10%.

==== end of your answer =====

Though the no-loop impermentation is far faster, there maybe situations where one_loop or two_loop implementations are useful, such as [HINT: Imagine really large training set and or testset]

==== your answer here! =====

If the data set is large, looping might allow for better memory allocation, as there can be memory constraints. If we do an iterative approach, then we are able to divide the task.

==== end of your answer =====

```
In []: y_test_pred, k_idxs = classifier.predict_labels(dists_no, k=3)
# Compute and print the fraction of correctly predicted examples
num_correct = np.sum(y_test_pred == y_test)
accuracy = float(num_correct) / num_test
print('Got %d / %d correct => accuracy: %f' % (num_correct, num_test, accuracy))
Got 1129 / 3856 correct => accuracy: 0.292790
```

Visualize KNN results

Let's visualize the K nearest images for some randomly selected examples from the test set using the k_idxs list you returned in predict_labels.

Here the leftmost column is the input image from the test set and rest of the columns are the K nearest neighbors from the training set

```
In []:
    def visualize_knn(classifier,X_test,N=5, K=7):
        # This visualization routine makes use of GLOBAL Train_Images and Test_Images variab
        # to visualize the K nearest neighbors of the first N Test Images

        dist = classifier.compute_distances_no_loops(X_test[:N,:])
        _, k_idxs = classifier.predict_labels(dist,k=K)
        k_idxs = np.vstack(k_idxs)
        testim = montage(Test_Images[:N,:],grid_shape=(N,1),channel_axis=3)
        trainim = montage(Train_Images[k_idxs.ravel(),:],grid_shape=(N,K),channel_axis=3)
        plt.imshow(np.concatenate((testim,trainim),axis=1))
        plt.axis('off');
        plt.title('Test [leftmost column], K_neighbors [right columns]');
```

visualize_knn(classifier,X_test)

Test [leftmost column], K_neighbors [right columns]



Normalizing image descriptors:

Let us try normalizing each image here by subtracting by its mean and scaling to have unit norm.

```
In []: # Normalize each image descriptor to have zero-mean and unit-length

mean_train=X_train.mean(axis=0)

std_train=X_train.std(axis=0)

#X_train_norm = X_train

#X_test_norm = X_test

X_train_norm=(X_train-mean_train)/std_train

X_test_norm = (X_test - mean_train) / std_train

# ===== your code here! =====

# Normalize each image descriptor to have zero-mean and unit-length

# If X is the descriptor vector for a given image, then sum_i X[i] = 0 and sum_i X[i]*

# ==== end of code =====

print('Train data shape: ', X_train_norm.shape)

print('Test data shape: ', X_test_norm.shape)

Train data shape: (9000, 3072)
```

We calculate the accuracies again using k = 1 and k = 3 and see that the accuracies are much better compared to those we obtained without any preprocessing on the images!

Test data shape: (3856, 3072)

```
In [ ]: classifier = KNearestNeighbor()
    classifier.train(X_train_norm,y_train)

# Classify using the efficient no_loops implementation
    dists = classifier.compute_distances_no_loops(X_test_norm)
    y_test_pred, k_labels = classifier.predict_labels(dists, k=3)

# Compute and print the fraction of correctly predicted examples
    num_correct = np.sum(y_test_pred == y_test)
    accuracy = float(num_correct) / num_test
    print('Got %d / %d correct => accuracy: %f' % (num_correct, num_test, accuracy))
```

Got 1101 / 3856 correct => accuracy: 0.285529

Written question: Normalization produces image descriptors that have unit length. Prove that minimizing the euclidean distance of such descriptors is equivalent to maximizing the cosine similarity. Here is an example of latex in markdown that might be helpful:

$$\left|\left|x-y
ight|
ight|^2=x^Tx-2x^Ty+y^Ty$$

==== your answer here! ===== The cosine similarity, where ||X|| and ||Y|| are unit vectors, is

$$\text{cosine} \backslash \text{_similarity}(X,Y) = \frac{X^TY}{||X|| \cdot ||Y||}$$

and, if ||X|| = ||Y| = 1. Therefore

$$cosine \subseteq similarity(X, Y) = X^T Y$$

Therefore, the euclidian distance is 2-2 x^Ty =2-2*CosineSimilarity. Since one is the negative of the other, if you maximize one, the other is minimized.

```
==== end of your answer =====
```

bold text## KNN with HOG The previous parts all directly used raw pixels from input images to compute distances with k-NN. In this part, we will first use the Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) as features for each image. We will use these features with our kNN implementation to find the nearest neighbours. Please read the descriptions and fill in the functions below.

```
You may wish to use numpy.take_along_axis()
          # ===== your code here! =====
          # TODO:
          # Compute the gradients along the rows and columns as two arrays.
          # Compute the magnitude as the square root of the sum of the squares of both grsadie
          # Compute the angles as the inverse tangent of the gradients along the rows and
          # the gradients along the columns, and map them to the range [0, 180 deg]
          # ==== end of code ====
          dx_{filter} = np.array([[-1, 0, 1]])
          dy_filter = np.transpose(dx_filter)
          if len(image.shape) == 2:
            x_grad = signal.convolve2d(image, dx_filter, mode='same')
            y_grad = signal.convolve2d(image, dx_filter, mode='same')
            magnitudes = np.sqrt(x_grad**2 + y_grad**2)
            # arctan is [-pi, pi], so we add pi to make it [0, 2pi] and map to [0, 180]
            angles = np.rad2deg(np.arctan2(y_grad, x_grad) + np.pi) % 180
          else:
            grad_x_array = np.zeros(image.shape)
            grad_y_array = np.zeros(image.shape)
            for i in range(3):
              grad_y_array[:,:,i] = signal.convolve2d(image[:,:,i], dx_filter, mode='same')
              grad_x_array[:,:,i] = signal.convolve2d(image[:,:,i], dy_filter, mode='same')
            magnitudes_color = np.sqrt(grad_x_array**2 + grad_y_array**2)
            magnitudes color max = np.argmax(magnitudes color, axis=2)
            magnitudes = np.take_along_axis(magnitudes_color, magnitudes_color_max[:,:,None],
            angles_multi = (np.arctan2(grad_y_array, grad_x_array) + np.pi) * 90/np.pi
            angles = np.take_along_axis(angles_multi, magnitudes_color_max[:,:,None], axis=2)[
          # ==== end of code ====
          return magnitudes, angles
In [ ]: def bin_gradient(angles, magnitudes, n_orient, pixels_per_cell):
```

```
In []: def bin_gradient(angles, magnitudes, n_orient, pixels_per_cell):
    """
    Given the gradient orientations and magnitudes of an image, creates
    a histogram of orientations weighted by gradient magnitudes
    Inputs:
        - angles: A numpy array of shape (32, 32) where angles[i,j]
            is the angle of the gradient at the (i,j) pixel in the input image.
        - magnitudes: A numpy array of shape (32, 32) where magnitudes[i,j]
            is the magnitude of the gradient at the (i,j) pixel in the input image.
        - n_orient: An int representing the number of orientations to bin in histogram
        - pixels_per_cell: An int representing the number of rows/columns of pixels
        in each spatial cell
    Returns:
        - oriented_histogram: A numpy array of shape (32/4=8, 32/4=8,9)
            for pixels_per_cell=4 and n_orient=9
        """
```

```
n_y, n_x = angles.shape
  oriented_histogram = np.zeros((int(n_y//pixels_per_cell),int(n_x//pixels_per_cell)
# ===== your code here! =====
# TODO:
# Iterate through each pixel in every cell
# Find the index to the bin in histogram for that pixel's orientation
# Add the weighted magnitude to the corresponding bins in the histogram
# ==== end of code ====
 bin width = 180 / n orient
 for i in range(angles.shape[0]):
      for j in range(angles.shape[1]):
          hist_x = int(i // pixels_per_cell)
          hist_y = int(j // pixels_per_cell)
          hist_z = int(angles[i,j] // bin_width)
          # if angle is 180, index will be out of bounds, so we subtract 1
          if hist_z == n_orient: hist_z -= 1
          oriented_histogram[hist_x, hist_y, hist_z] += magnitudes[i,j]
  return oriented_histogram
```

NOTE: Once we create a histogram based on the gradient of the image we need to normalize it. Gradients of an image are sensitive to overall lighting. If you make the image darker by dividing all pixel values by 2, the gradient magnitude will change by half, and therefore the histogram values will change by half.

Ideally, we want our image features to be independent of lighting variations. In other words, we would like to "normalize" the histogram so they are not affected by lighting variations.

We have provided the normalization code below.

```
In [ ]: def block_normalize(oriented_histogram, cells_per_block, clip = True, epsilon=1e-5):
          Normalizes the histogram in blocks of size cells_per_block.
          Inputs:
           - oriented_histogram: A numpy array of shape (num_cell_rows, num_cell_cols, num_orie
             representing the histogram of oriented gradients of the input image.
          - cells_per_block: An int representing the number of rows/columns of cells that
             should together be normalized in the same block (you can assume )
           - clip: If true, this clips the normalized descriptor of each block to ensure that \eta
             renormalizes to ensure the clipped descriptor is unit-norm), just as SIFT does
           - epsilon: A float indicating the small amount added to the denominator when
             normalizing to avoid dividing by zero.
           normalized_blocks: A numpy array of shape (num_cell_rows-cells_per_block+1, num_cell_rows-cells_per_block+1
               cells_per_block,cells_per_block,num_orient) where normalized_blocks[i,j] is a no
          n_blocks_y = oriented_histogram.shape[0]-cells_per_block+1
          n_blocks_x = oriented_histogram.shape[1]-cells_per_block+1
          normalized_blocks = np.zeros((n_blocks_y,n_blocks_x,cells_per_block,cells_per_block,
          # ===== your code here! =====
          # TODO:
          # While there are many ways to compute the descriptor, we suggest iterating through
           # and second dimension (n_blocks_x) of normalized blocks and compute the [4 4 9] "S1
```

```
# (assuming cells_per_block = 4 and n_orient = 9).

# ==== end of code ====
for i in range(n_blocks_y):
    for j in range(n_blocks_x):
        block = oriented_histogram[i:i+cells_per_block,j:j+cells_per_block]
        normalized_blocks[i,j] = block / np.sqrt(np.sum(block**2) + epsilon**2)
        if clip:
            normalized_blocks[i,j] = np.clip(normalized_blocks[i,j],0,.2)
            normalized_blocks[i,j] = normalized_blocks[i,j] / np.sqrt(np.sum(normalized_blocks[i,j])
        return normalized_blocks
```

After implementing your HOG functions, please run the cells below to test the results. You should expect to get an accuracy slightly higher than that with unnormalized raw pixels.

```
In [ ]: def compute_hog(image,n_orient=9,pixels_per_cell=4,cells_per_block=4):
          Builds a Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) weighted by gradient magnitudes
          from an input image
          Inputs:
          - image: A numpy array of shape (32, 32) containing one grayscaled image.
           - histogram: A 1D numpy array that represents the HOG descriptor for the image.
          assert(image.dtype == 'float64')
          # Read in image and convert to grayscale
          # if len(image.shape) > 2:
          # image = np.mean(image,2)
          # Compute gradient
          magnitudes, angles = compute gradient(image)
          # Bin gradients into cells
          oriented_histogram = bin_gradient(angles, magnitudes, n_orient, pixels_per_cell)
          # Block normalize the cells
          normalized_blocks = block_normalize(oriented_histogram, cells_per_block)
          # Return flattened descriptor (without making an additional copy)
          return normalized_blocks.ravel()
```

```
In []: # Check out HOG descriptor for a single image
    #image = X_train[0].mean(2) # Initially, build representation for grayscale image
    image = X_train[0].reshape(img_size,img_size,3)
    plt.figure(figsize=(14,8))
    plt.subplot(1,3,1)
    plt.imshow(image.astype('uint8'));
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.title('Input Image')

pixels_per_cell=4
    cells_per_block=4
    n_orient=9
    angle_step = 180 // n_orient

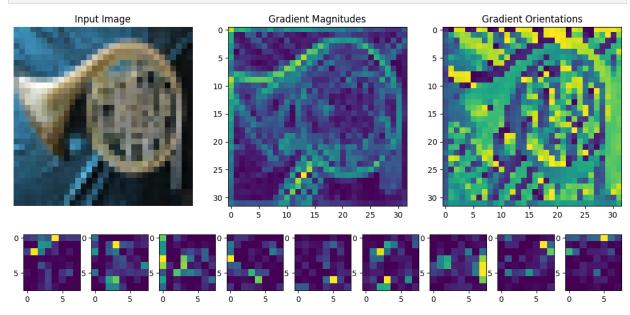
# Step 1: compute gradients
    magnitudes, angles = compute_gradient(image)
```

```
plt.subplot(1,3,2)
plt.imshow(magnitudes)
plt.title('Gradient Magnitudes')

plt.subplot(1,3,3)
plt.imshow(angles)
plt.title('Gradient Orientations')

# Step 2: Bin gradients into cells
oriented_histogram = bin_gradient(angles, magnitudes, n_orient, pixels_per_cell)
plt.figure(figsize=(14,8))
#plt.suptitle('Oriented Histograms')
for i in range(n_orient):
    plt.subplot(1,n_orient,i+1)
    plt.imshow(oriented_histogram[:,:,i])

# Step 3: Block normalize the cells
normalized_blocks = block_normalize(oriented_histogram, cells_per_block)
```

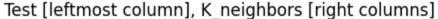


This part will take some time to run for the full dataset. Approx 1 to 2mins.

Got 1798 / 3856 correct => accuracy: 0.466286

You can also visualize the K nearest images for some randomly selected examples from the test set using the k_idxs list you returned in predict_labels trained with HOG descriptors.

In []: visualize_knn(classifier,X_test_hog)





Extra credit 1: parameter tweaking

Add in descriptions of your optimal parameter settings and the resulting performance, compared to your default parameter settings and your default performance

Extra credit 2: low-rank descriptors

```
In [ ]: # ===== your code here! =====

# ==== end of code =====
```

Reducing dimensionality from 3600 to 400 Got 247 / 700 correct => accuracy: 0.352857

