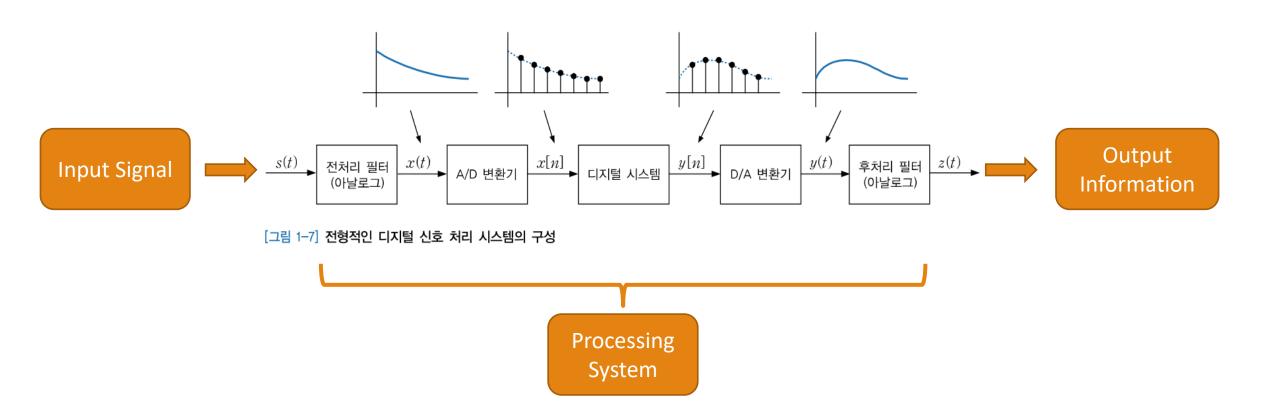
딥러닝을 활용한 **디지털 영상** 처리

Digital Image Processing via Deep Learning

Lecture 1 – Introduction to Image Processing and Classification

Thinking back to Signal Processing



How humans see the World

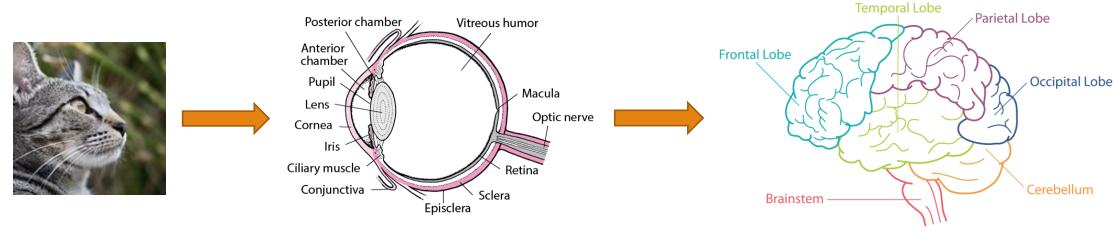
We observe the world via our eyes mostly.

Our eyes process the image as a signal and send it to our brain.

(Similar to pre-processing of a signal)

The brain receives the signal and determines what we are seeing.





Treat Image as a Signal

The computer treats image/images from a video as a matrix filled in with numbers representing grayscale intensity and RGB colour information

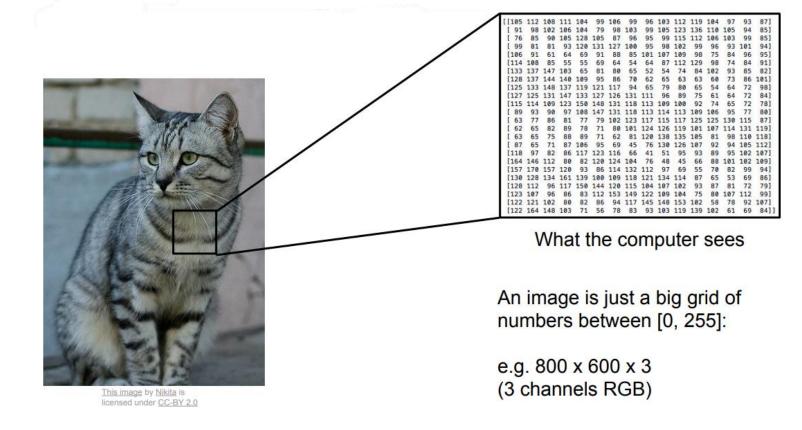
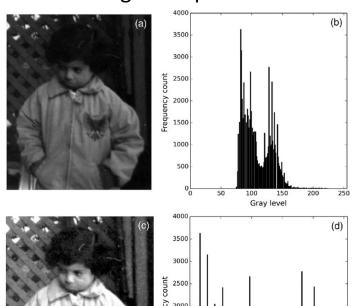


Image Processing Techniques

Histogram Equalization



Edge Detection

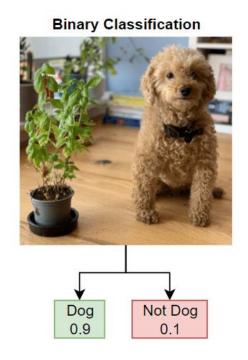


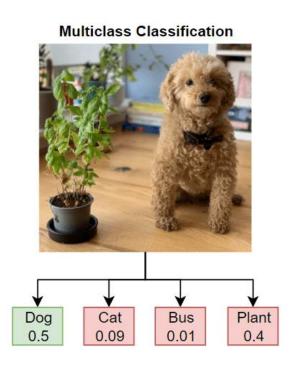


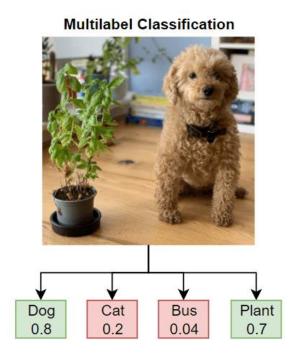
Feature point extraction



Knowing what is in the image / what the image indicates is a major challenge in computer vision





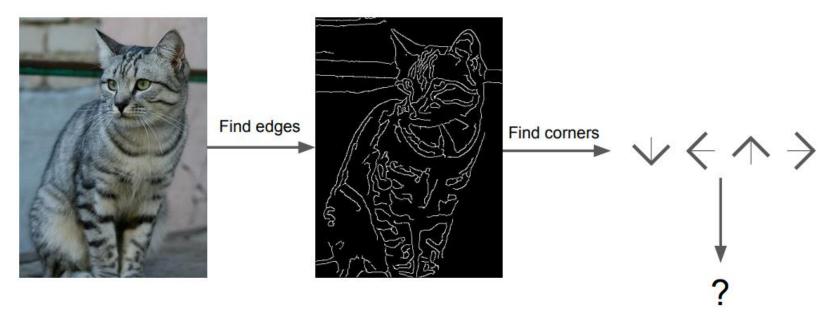


```
def classify_image(image):
                                    # Some magic here?
                                    return class_label
Input Image to be classified
                                                                                 Output label
                                                                                     Cat
                                               Magic Box
```

How can we set up the magic box?

Attempt 1: Find edges of the image and use feature extractor to identify shapes

Drawback: Extremely complex algorithms and set of rules are different for all features.



Attempt 2: Data Driven Approach

10 classes50,000 training images10,000 testing images



Test images and nearest neighbors

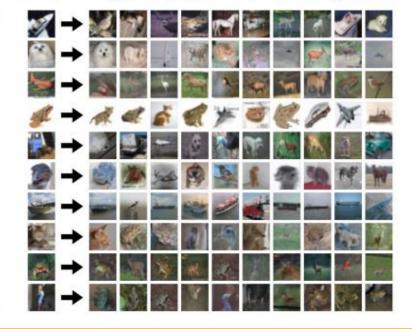


Image Classification: K Nearest Neighbor

K Nearest Neighbor (KNN):

- For training, simply memorise all training data.
- For testing, for each test image, find the closest train image and predict the label of the nearest image

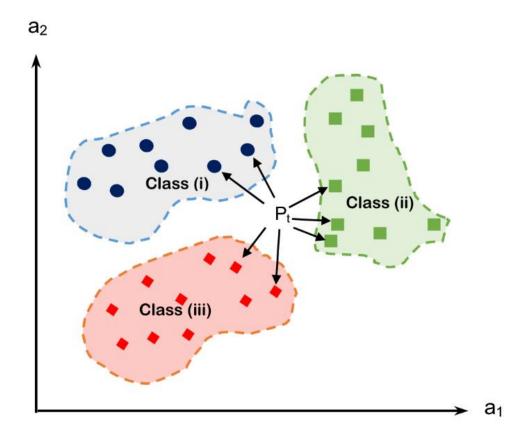


Image Classification: K Nearest Neighbor

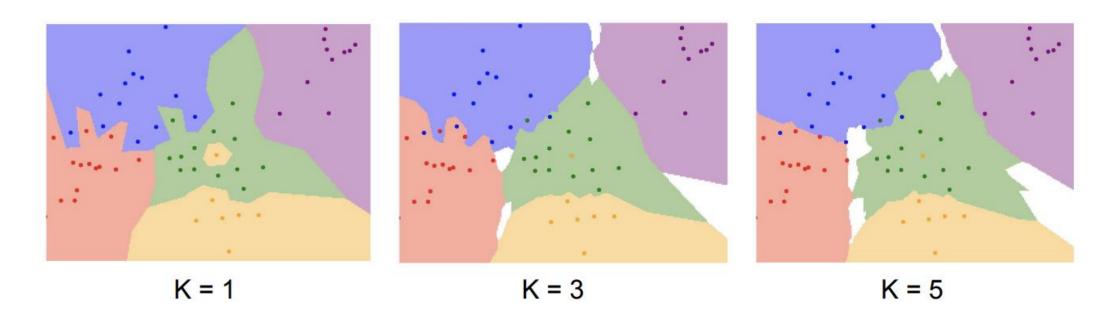
L1 Distance: $d_{L1}(I_1, I_2) = \sum_i |I_1^i - I_2^i|$

L2 Distance: $d_{L2}(I_1, I_2) = \sqrt{\sum_i (I_1^i - I_2^i)^2}$, where I_n is a set of images and i indicates for a class.

	test i	mage			tr	ainin	g imag	ge	I pixe	el-wise	absolu	te value	e differe	ences
56	32	10	18		10	20	24	17		46	12	14	1	
90	23	128	133		8	10	89	100		82	13	39	33	add
24	26	178	200	-	12	16	178	170	=	12	10	0	30	-
2	0	255	220		4	32	233	112		2	32	22	108	

Image Classification: K Nearest Neighbor

KNN takes the majority votes from K nearest points



Try yourself: http://vision.stanford.edu/teaching/cs231n-demos/knn/

Setting Hyperparameters

What is the best K?
What is the best distance metric to use?

These are hyperparameters: choice about the algorithm that we set rather than learn.

The hyperparameters are very problem-dependent. Must try them all out and see what works the best.

Given a Dataset, we usually leave a portion out for testing. In addition, we can leave a validation set for selecting appropriate hyperparameters.

Your Dataset					
train	test				
train	test				

Setting Hyperparameters

Cross-Validation: Split the data into folds, try each fold as validation, and average the results.

It is useful for small datasets, but not frequently used in Deep Learning

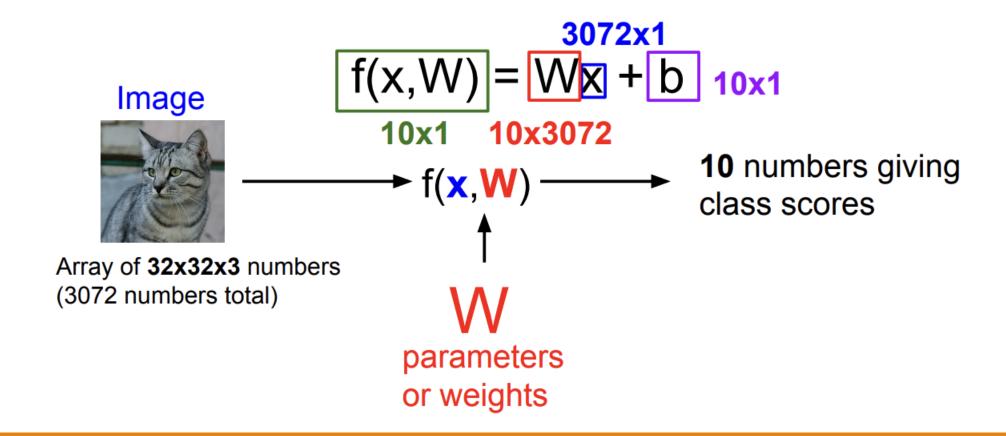
fold 1	fold 2	fold 3 fold 4		fold 5	test
fold 1	fold 2	fold 3	fold 4	fold 5	test
fold 1	fold 2	fold 3	fold 4	fold 5	test

The idea of KNN is good but KNN is actually never used in image classification.

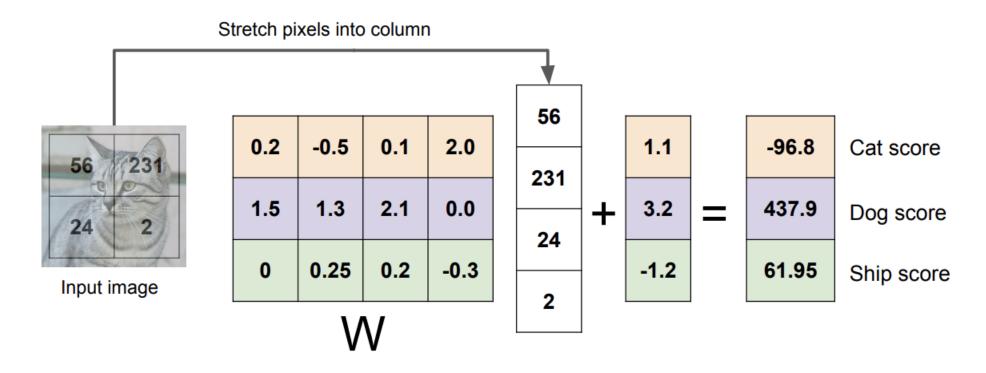
- Very slow at test time: We want an algorithm that may be slow during training but fast during testing.
 KNN is fast during training since it simply memorises data but slow during testing due to distance computation.
- The Distance metrics on pixels are not informative

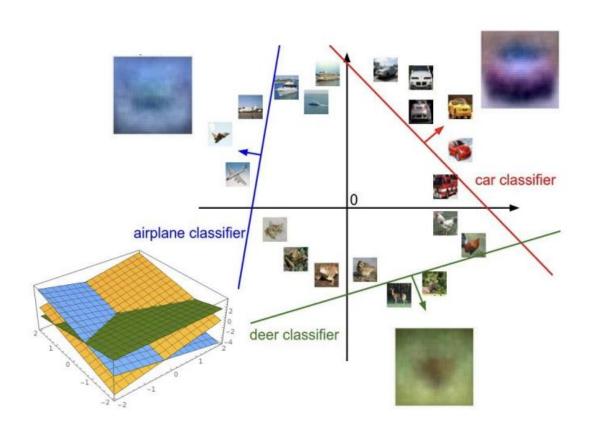


(all 3 images have same L2 distance to the one on the left)



Example with an image with 4 pixels and 3 classes (cat / dog / ship)





$$f(x,W) = Wx + b$$



Array of **32x32x3** numbers (3072 numbers total)







Example
Scores for 3
images



airplane	-3.45	-0.51
automobile	-8.87	6.04
bird	0.09	5.31
cat	2.9	-4.22
deer	4.48	-4.19
dog	8.02	3.58
frog	3.78	4.49
horse	1.06	-4.37
ship	-0.36	-2.09
truck	-0.72	-2.93

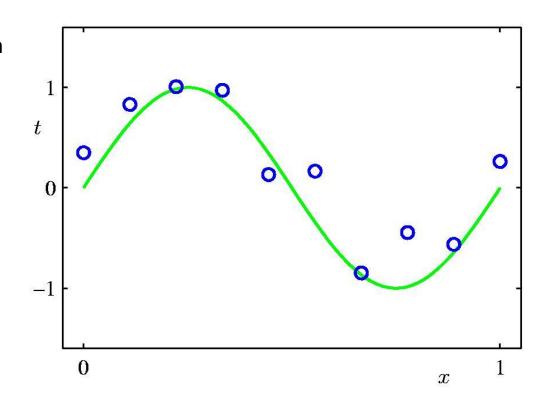
-0.51	3.42
6.04	4.64
5.31	2.65
-4.22	5.1
-4.19	2.64
3.58	5.55
4.49	-4.34
-4.37	-1.5
-2.09	-4.79
-2.93	6.14

Green Curve: function used to generate data $\sin(2\pi x)$ Blue Points: Dataset generated via the green curve with some noise

Goal: Predict a function that fits the blue points well and represents the green curve as closely as possible, assuming we do not know the green curve.

A Polynomial function is common to start with:

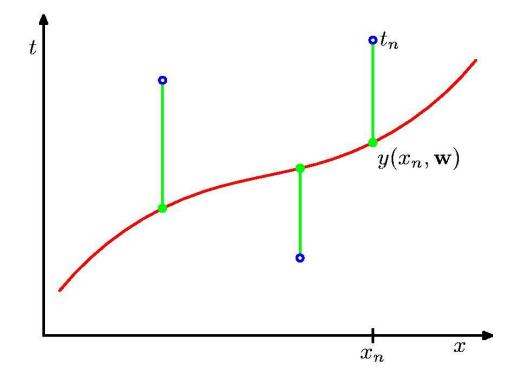
$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + ... + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^{M} w_j x^j$$



We measure and error, the difference between the data value (blue point) and the prediction, y

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2$$

Our objective is to find the weights, **w**, that minimises the error.

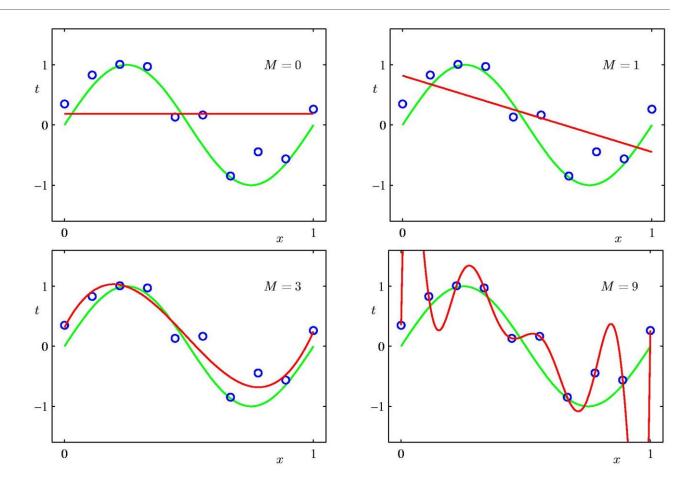


The results differ by the value of M chosen, which is the order of the polynomial

Which one seems to fit best?

M = 0 & M = 1 is known as underfitting. It hardly represents the pattern of data.

M = 9 is known as **overfitting**. The error is 0 but cannot predict the value outside the training set.



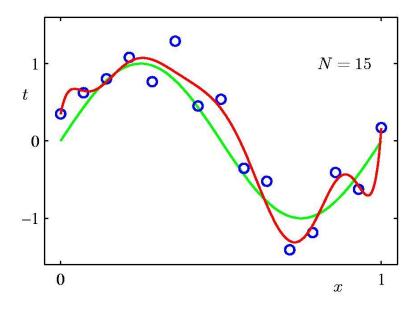
Overfitting occurs when the order of the polynomial high compared to the number of training data.

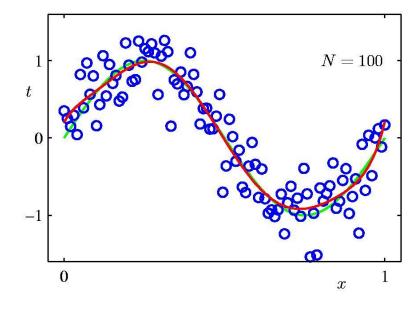
1	Training Test
$E_{ m RMS}$	
E	
0	0 3 _M 6 9

	M=0	M = 1	M = 3	M = 9
$\overline{w_0^{\star}}$	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
w_1^\star		-1.27	7.99	232.37
w_2^\star			-25.43	-5321.83
w_3^{\star}			17.37	48568.31
w_4^\star				-231639.30
w_5^{\star}				640042.26
w_6^\star				-1061800.52
w_7^\star				1042400.18
w_8^{\star}				-557682.99
w_9^{\star}				125201.43

For higher order polynomials, the weights seem to have large absolute values.

Solution to Overfitting 1: Increase the number of training dataset





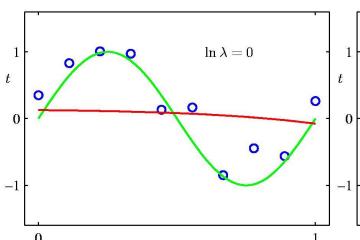
Solution to Overfitting 2: Penalize for large coefficient values

Rewrite the error function including the regularization term

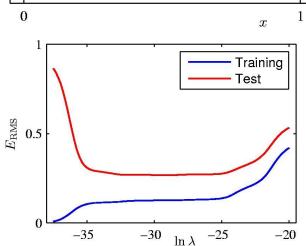
This is called the ridge regression

$$\widetilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\mathbf{w}||^2$$

 $\lambda = 0$ (ln(λ) = $-\infty$)corresponds to no regularization.



	. 0		œ
	$\ln \lambda = -\infty$	$\ln \lambda = -18$	$\ln \lambda = 0^x$
w_0^{\star}	0.35	0.35	0.13
w_1^{\star}	232.37	4.74	-0.05
w_2^{\star}	-5321.83	-0.77	-0.06
w_3^{\star}	48568.31	-31.97	-0.05
w_4^{\star}	-231639.30	-3.89	-0.03
w_5^{\star}	640042.26	55.28	-0.02
w_6^{\star}	-1061800.52	41.32	-0.01
w_7^{\star}	1042400.18	-45.95	-0.00
w_8^{\star}	-557682.99	-91.53	0.00
w_9^{\star}	125201.43	72.68	0.01



 $\ln \lambda = -18$

How do we find the optimal weights?

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + \dots + w_M x^M = \sum_{j=0}^M w_j x^j$$
The complexity of this computation is $O(n^3)$

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n \right\}^2$$

$$\mathbf{w} = argmin_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{n=1}^N \{ y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n \}^2 = argmin_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t})^T (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t})$$

$$\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x})^{-1} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$$

As the size of the dataset increase, weights become extremely difficult to find. We must seek more convenient methods to find the weights

Towards Deep Learning

Can Linear Classifier classify all the images? How about non-linear relationships?

How can we find appropriate weights not by heavy computation?

Deep Learning methods remedy (partially in some sense) these shortcomings.

Next Lecture

Perceptron and Introduction to Deep Learning

