Lecture Session Week – 2

Computer Vision Winter Semester 20/21 Goethe University

Acknowledgement: Some images are from various sources: UCF, Stanford cs231n, etc.

Today's class

Image histogram

Image classification: o data-driven approach o K-nn

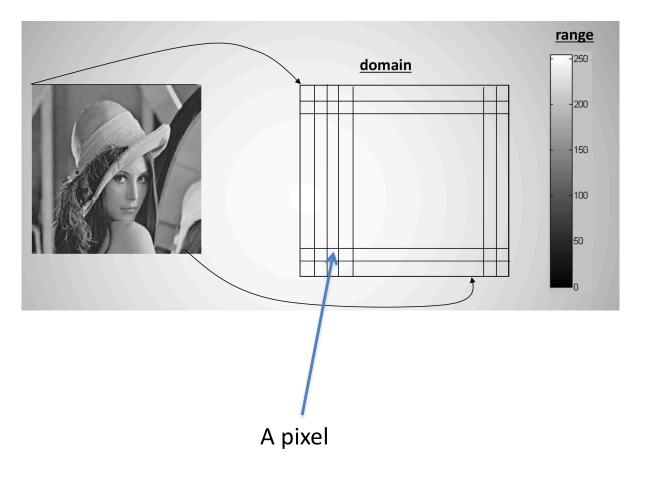
Image is an array of numbers

-Grayscale image

-2D array of numbers (pixels) / matrix

-Number indicates the intensity: [0,255] for 8bit representation

-Image resolution / number of pixel in an image: 100x100, 1920x1080, etc.



0: black, 255: white

Image Histogram

- Histogram
 - X-axis: bins of possible values
 - Y-axis: frequency of a value (number of samples)
- Normalize Y-axis => probability mass function (the probability of a pixel value in the image)
- Area = total number of pixels

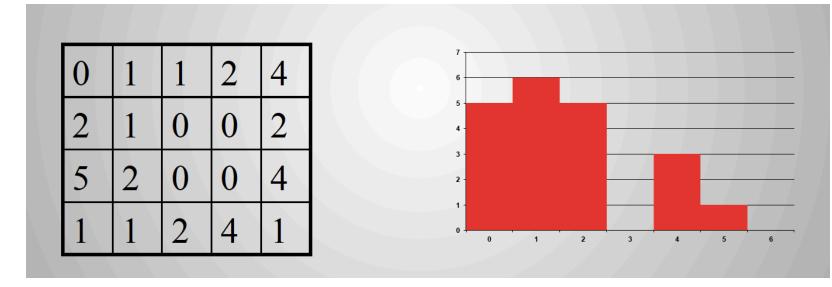
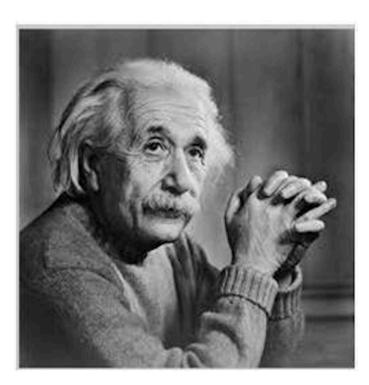
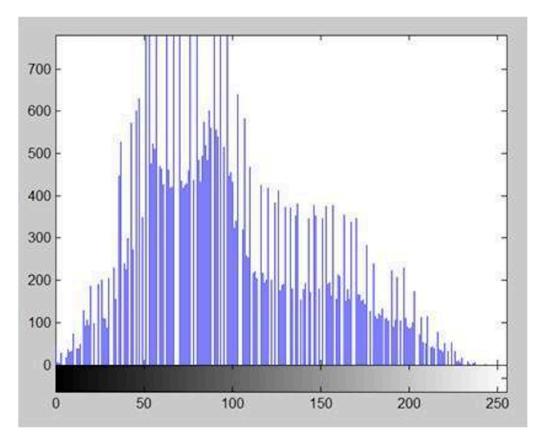


Image (In general, data)

Image Histogram

- Image Histogram
- X-axis: pixel values, i.e. 0 to 255
- Y-axis: number of pixels with a certain pixel value





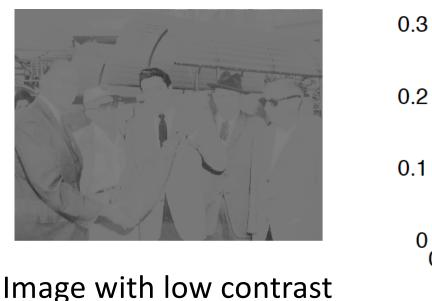
- To increase the contrast of an image
 - Over or under-exposed photographs
 - Medical imaging: x-ray images, etc.
- Distribute intensities more evenly over the range: spread out the most frequent intensity values

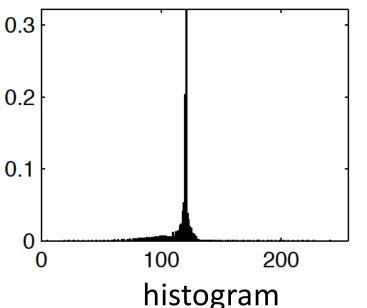


Image with low contrast

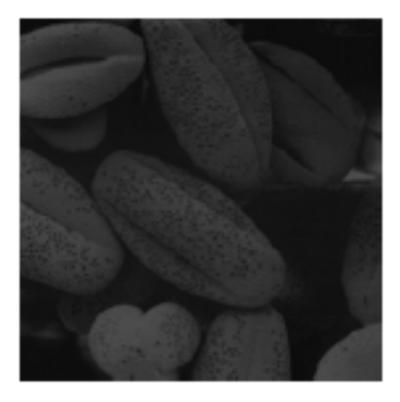
QUESTIONS: What would be the histogram? Why?

- To increase the contrast of an image
 - Over or under-exposed photographs
 - Medical imaging: x-ray images, etc.
- Distribute intensities more evenly over the range: spread out the most frequent intensity values

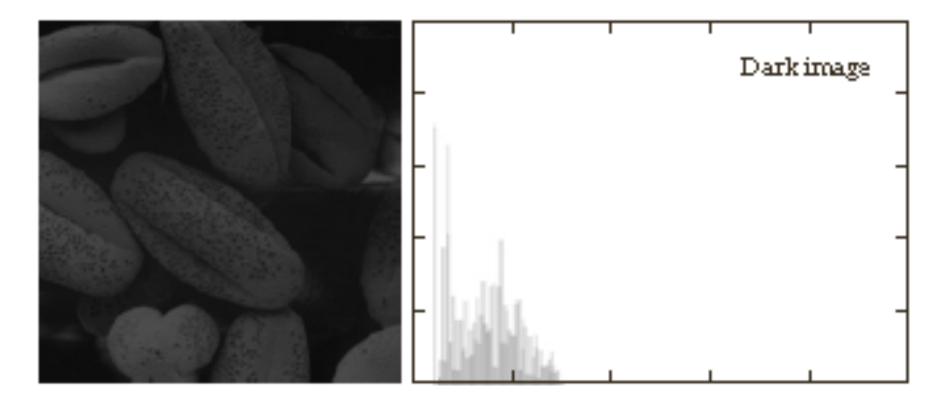




• Histogram of a dark image



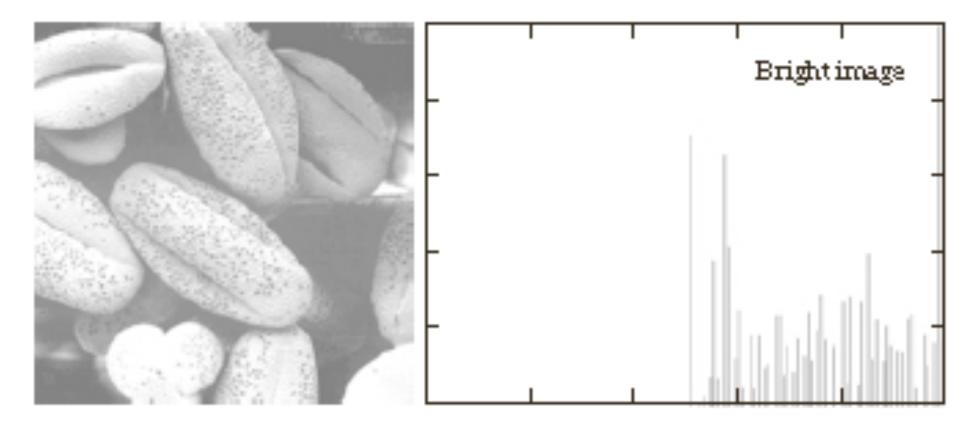
• Histogram of a dark image



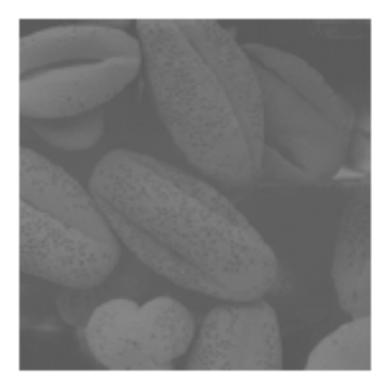
• Histogram of a bright image



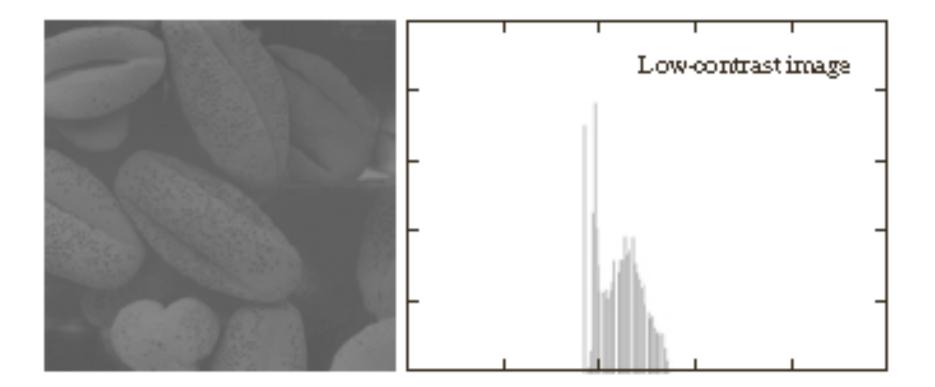
• Histogram of a bright image



• Histogram of a low-contrast image



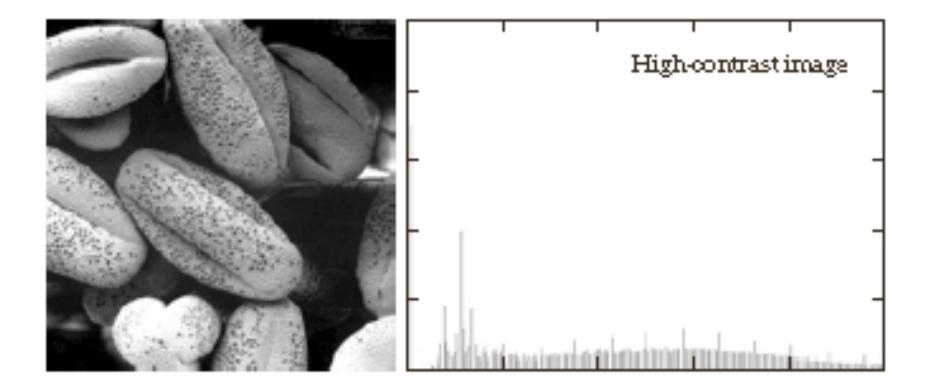
• Histogram of a low-contrast image



• Histogram of a high-contrast image



• Histogram of a high-contrast image



Cumulative distribution / density function (cdf)

• The cdf of a random variable X is given by

$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$$

• If X is a continuous random variable, cdf is given by:

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(w) dw$$

• $f_X(x)$ is the probability density function, pdf

Cumulative distribution / density function (cdf)

• f_x(x) is the probability density function, pdf

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \, dx = 1 \qquad \qquad f(x) \ge 0 \,, \forall x$$

- A probability density is not the same as a probability
- The probability of a specific value as an outcome of continuous experiment is (generally) zero.
- To get meaningful numbers you must specify a range

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b f(q) \, dq = F(b) - F(a)$$

• If X is a discrete r.v., cdf is given by

$$F_X(k) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^k p_i$$

(p_i is the probability mass of X at i)

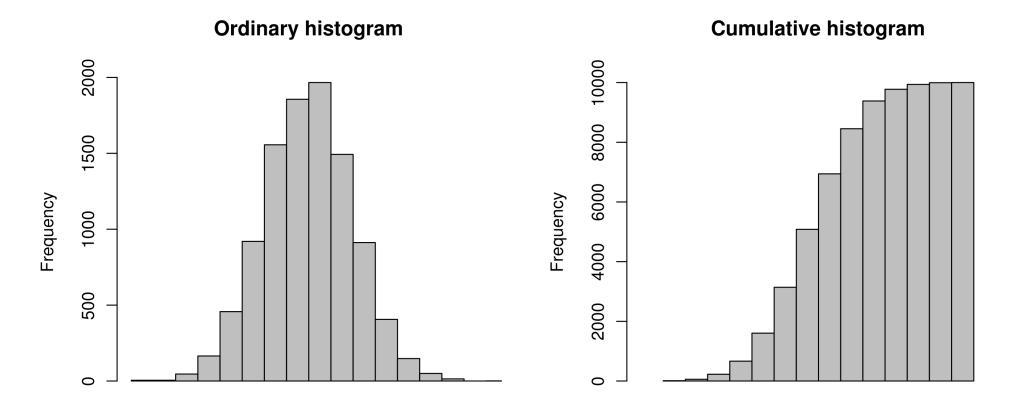
Properties:

X is the random variable - > what does the R.V, represents here?

k is a value of the random variable

F(-inf) = 0

$$F(inf) = 1$$

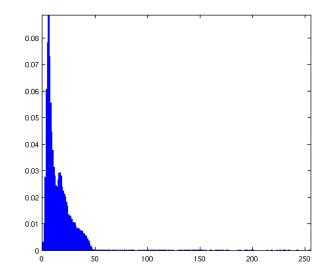


10,000 pixels (cartoon example)

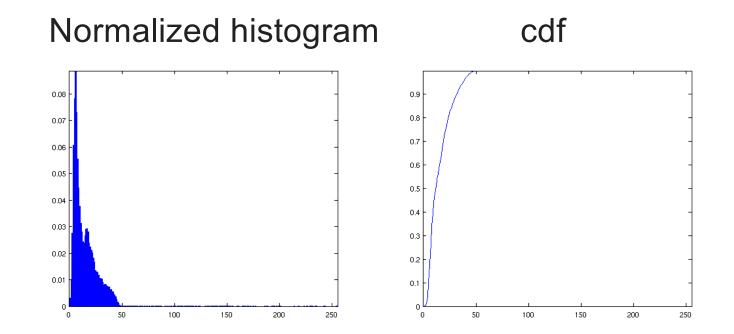
cdf needs to be normalized

Input Image

Normalized histogram

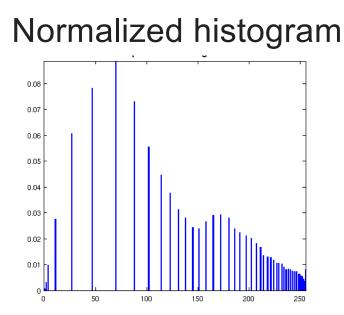


Shape of the cumulative distribution function ?

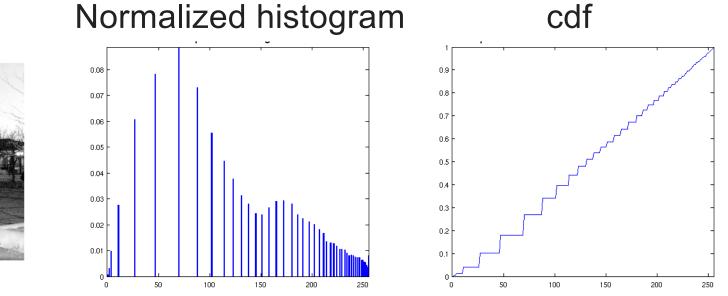




Output Image

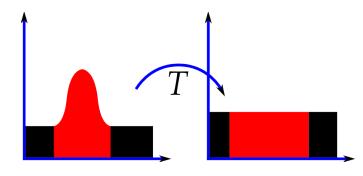


Shape of the cumulative distribution function ?

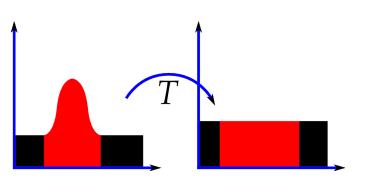




- We can transform image values to improve the contrast
- Want histogram of the image to be flat
- This will make full use of the entire display range
- This is called histogram equalization



- Apply a transformation T to distribute intensities evenly over the range -> increase contrast
- A mapping of pixel value
- Note area (num. of pixels) in the histogram remains the same after transformation







- A mapping of pixel value
- For a pixel with intensity k, transform it using:
- (L = number of level = $\frac{256}{k}$

$$T(k) = \text{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{n} p_i) = \text{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$$

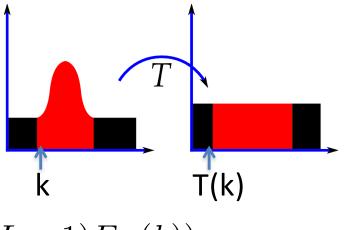




T(k)

A pixel with value k A pixel with value T(k) 26

- A mapping of pixel value
- For a pixel with intensity k, transform it using (L = number of level = 256)



$$T(k) = \text{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{N} p_i) = \text{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$$

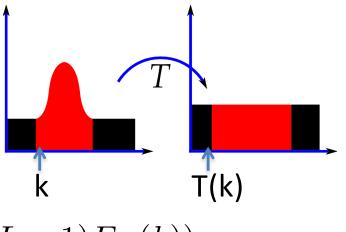
k

- Algorithm:
 - 1. Compute cdf at k [*]
 - 2. Multiply by L-1, then floor(.)
 - 3. The result is the new intensity value

[*] normalize cdf to [0,1] by: $\frac{acc_k - acc_{min}}{acc_{max} - acc_{min}}$

acc_{max}: ?

- A mapping of pixel value
- For a pixel with intensity k, transform it using (L = number of level = 256)



$$T(k) = \text{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{n} p_i) = \text{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$$

k

- Algorithm:
 - 1. Compute cdf at k [*]
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[*] normalize cdf to [0,1] by: $\frac{acc_k - acc_{min}}{acc_{max} - acc_{min}}$

acc_{max}: Number of pixels

Where does the formula come from?

$$T(k) = \text{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{k} p_i) = \text{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$$

- We want a transformation T(k) that will give an output image whose histogram is flat.
- The transformation should be a monotonically increasing function – this prevents artifacts created by reversals of intensity.

Where does the formula come from?

- The motivation for this transformation comes from thinking of the intensities of pixels before and after equalization as continuous random variables X, Y on [0, L – 1].
- Y defined by:

$$Y = T(X) = (L-1) \int_0^x f_X(x) dx$$

Where does the formula come from?

$$Y = T(X) = (L-1) \int_0^x f_X(x) dx$$

- $f_X(x)$ is the probability density function of the original pixel values.
- T is the cumulative distributive function of X multiplied by (L – 1).
- Assume for simplicity that T is differentiable and invertible. It can then be shown that Y defined by T(X) is uniformly distributed on [0, L – 1], namely that $f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{L-1}$

Summary of justification:

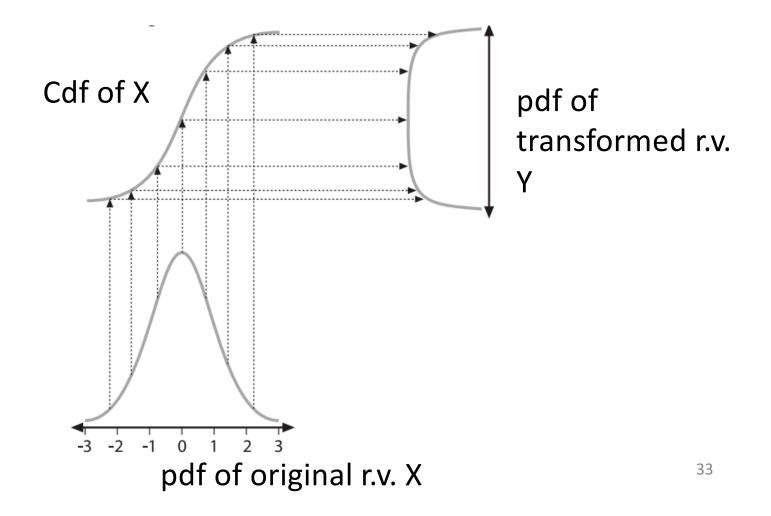
- Discrete case: $T(k) = \operatorname{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{k} p_i) = \operatorname{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$
- Continuous case: T(.) transforms a continuous r.v.
 X ~ f_x(x) into Y ~ f_y(y), so that f_y(y) = U[0,L-1]

 $Y = T(X) = (L-1)F_X(X)$

 Note that for any X ~ f_x(x), Y is U[0,1] when the transformation is the cdf of X

 $Y = F_X(X)$

Cdf: transform a r.v. to a uniform one, ~U[0,1]



• Exercise

$$T(k) = \text{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{k} p_i) = \text{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$$

Input:					
[[1	3	1 3	3]		
[2	3 1	.0 2	11]		
[11	10	2	3]		
[1	2	3	3]]		

Input:					
[[52	52	53	72]		
[72	72	53	53]		
[88]	72	52	52]		
[88]	88	53	53]]		

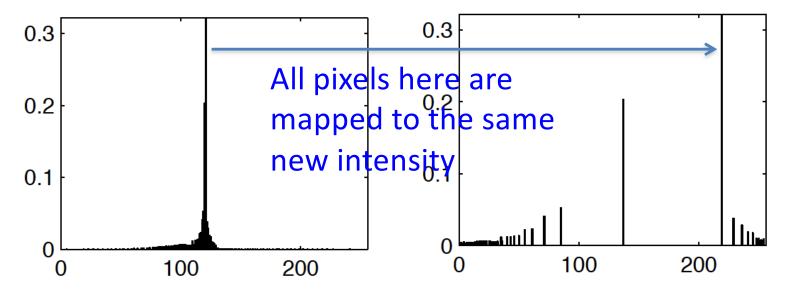
Output: [[0 176 0 176] [58 176 215 255] [255 215 58 176] [0 58 176 176]]

Output:

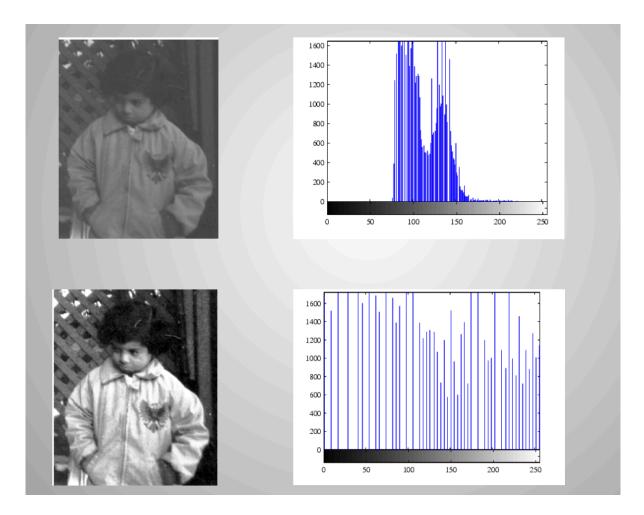
• An example





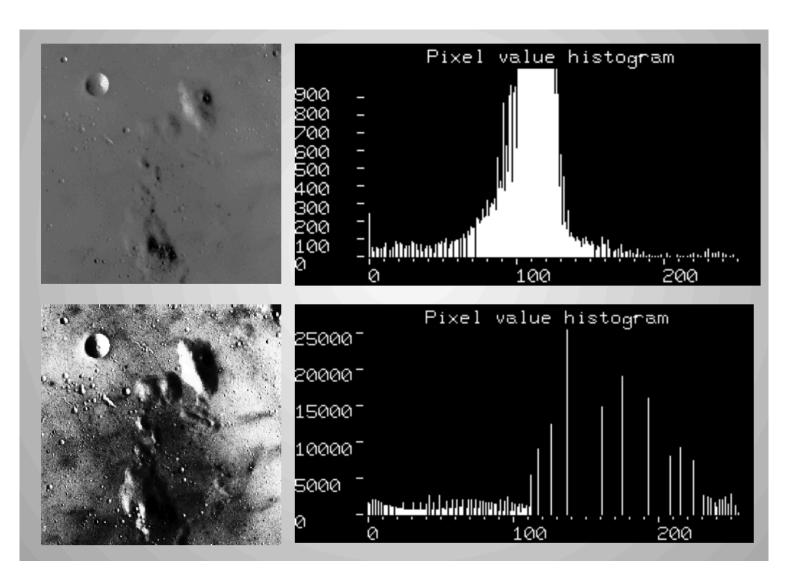


• An example



Histogram equalization

• An example



Histogram equalization

• Exercise solution:

$$T(k) = \text{floor}((L-1)\sum_{i=0}^{k} p_i) = \text{floor}((L-1)F_X(k))$$

Input: [[1 3 1 3] [2 3 10 11] [11 10 2 3] [1 2 3 3]]

Output: [[0 176 0 176] [58 176 215 255] [255 215 58 176] [0 58 176 176]] Input: [[52 52 53 72] [72 72 53 53] [88 72 52 52] [88 88 53 53]]

Output: [[0 0 106 191] [191 191 106 106] [255 191 0 0] [255 255 106 106]]

Image classification, data-driven approach, knn

Image classification/ object recognition

Which object is in the image?

What is in the image?

Where is the object in the image?

. . .

Which pixels belong to the object in the image?





Given an input image, the algorithm produces one image label from a fixed set of classes (categories)



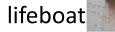
{fish, soccer ball, dog, boat}

- Image recognition (many classes)
 - 1000 categories in IMAGENET Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC): zebra, speedboat, lifeboat, ...
 - 10,000+ categories in IMAGENET



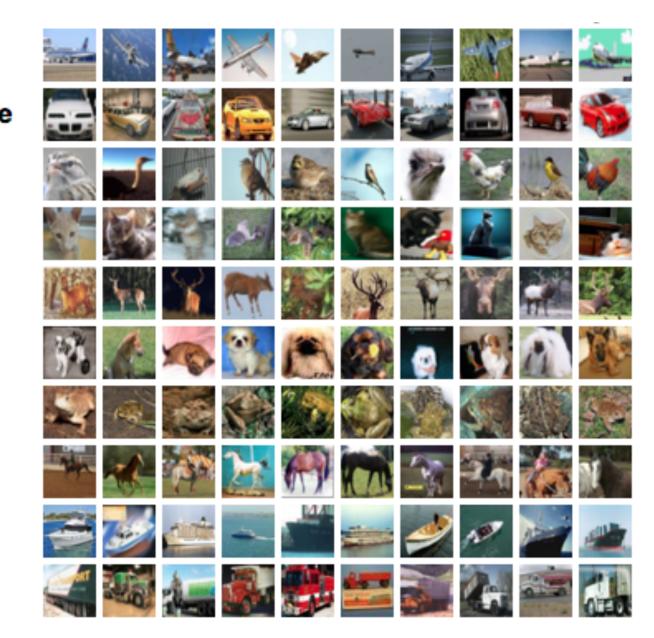








CIFAR-10 airplane automobile bird cat deer dog frog horse ship truck



- Top-n accuracy
- The algorithm outputs k confidence for each of the k classes

Test image:



Algorithm outputs: {cat, dog, house, mouse} = {0.1, 0.2, 0.0, 0.7}

Top-1 class: {mouse}

Top-2 class: {mouse, dog}

Incorrect for **top-1** accuracy, correct for **top-2** accuracy (ground truth is contained in the top-2 class)

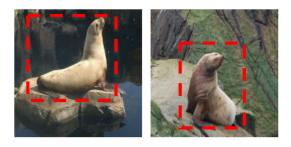
• ILSVRC: Top-1, Top-5 accuracy

Number of correct / Number of test image

Image classification is fundamental to many computer vision tasks

• Object localization

- For a given image, the algorithm produces a class label and a bounding box
- Evaluation: label that best matches the ground truth label for the image, and bounding box that overlaps with the ground truth
- Error: if predicted label does not match the ground truth, or the predicted bounding box has less than 50% overlap



sea lion

Image classification is fundamental to many computer vision tasks

- Object detection
- Given an image, an algorithm produces a set of annotations (ci,si,bi): class label ci, bounding box bi and confidence score si
- Penalize: objects in the image not annotated by algorithm, more than 1 annotations for the same object in the image

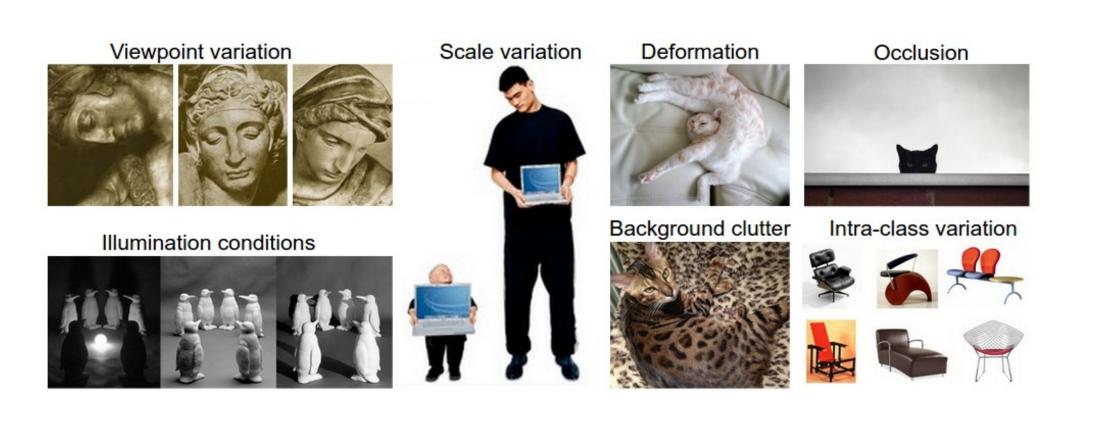


- apple
- table
- bowl
- plate rack
- lamp
- chair

200 categories in ILSVRC2017

- Challenges
 - Primitive data: Computer sees a 3d array of intensity values
 - Different variation for a certain class
 - Viewpoint variation
 - Scale variation
 - Deformation
 - Occlusion
 - Background clutter
 - Intra-class variation

Challenges: Sources of Image Variation



Challenges

Background clutter



Deformation of non-rigid object





Position

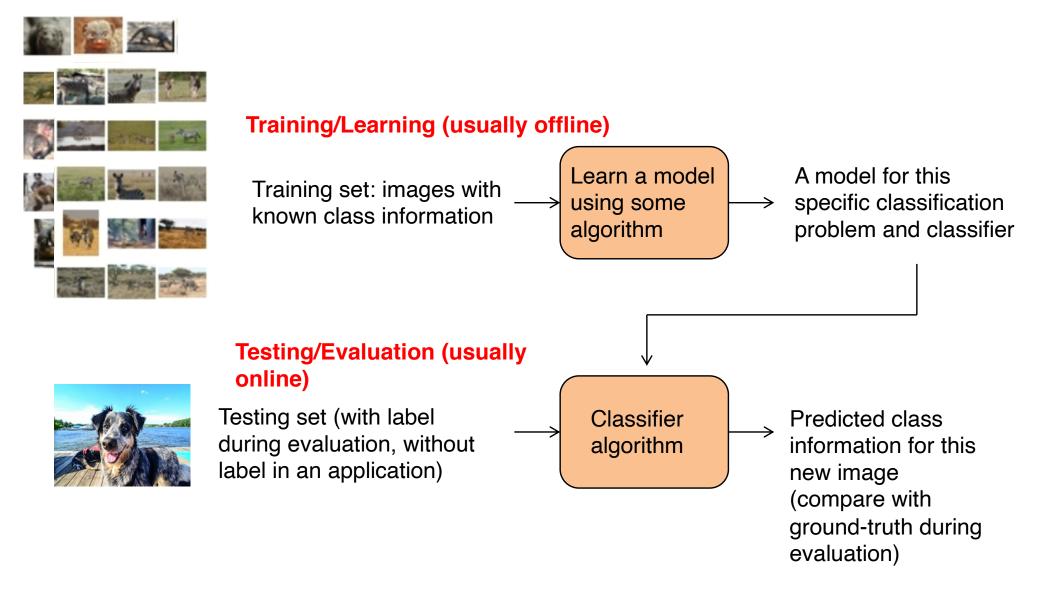


Data driven approach

- Provide the computer with many examples of each class: training data
- Learn the visual appearance of each class:
 learning algorithm
- ILSVRC: 1.2 million images of 1000 categories
 - About 1k images per category



Data driven approach



Learning from examples

We want the algorithms to **learn** to do object recognition given examples of object categories

Training phase: examples images are shown to the algorithm

Testing phase: labelling of images <u>never shown before</u>

There are different modalities of supervision (fully supervised, unsupervised, semi-supervised, etc.)

Nearest Neighbor Classifier

• Given a test image, compare to every one of the training images

 Use the label of the 'closest training image' as the predicted label

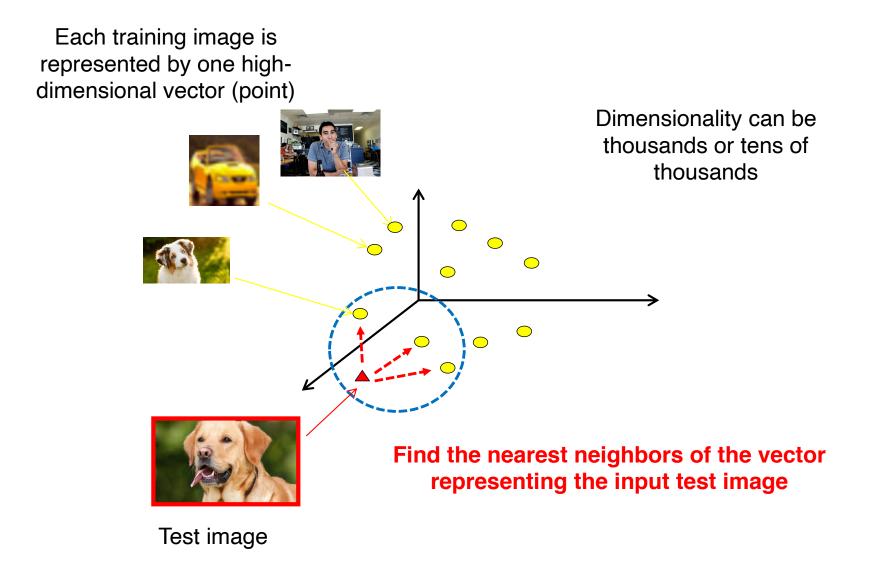
Nearest Neighbor Classifier

• Consider an image as a vector (data point) in a very high dimensional vector space

 512x512x3 => a data point in the 786432-dim vector space

• Find the nearest neighbors of the vector representing the input test image

Nearest Neighbor Classifier



Distance

• L2 distance (Euclidean distance)

$$d_2(I_1, I_2) = \sqrt{\sum_p \left(I_1^p - I_2^p\right)^2}$$

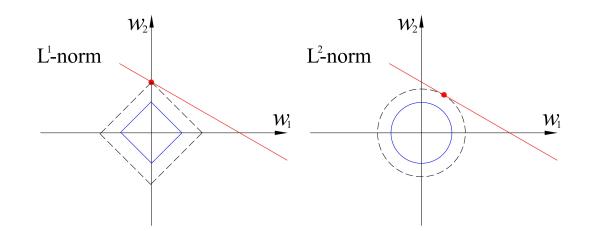
- L1 distance (Manhattan distance)
 - Sum of abs difference

$$d_1(I_1, I_2) = \sum_p |I_1^p - I_2^p|$$



Distance

- L1/L2 circle / ball
- A circle is a set of points with a fixed distance from a point (center)



L1 is more 'restricted', sensitive to rotation of coord system L2 emphasizes dimensions with large differences

k-Nearest Neighbor Classifier (k-NN)

• Find the k closest images (nearest neighbors)

Use them to vote on the label of the test image

k-Nearest Neighbor Classifier (k-NN)

• How to determine k?

 k is a hyperparameter: related to the design of the machine learning algorithm

• Another hyperparameter: L1 norm or L2 norm

Validation set for hyperparameter tuning

- Use test set to tune the hyperparameter
- Not appropriate, as your model will *overfit* to the test data
- Poor generalization, significant degradation during deployment / testing for other datasets

Training

Test

Validation set for hyperparameter tuning

- Partition the training set into a training set and a validation set
- Use validation set to tune the hyperparameter
- Use test set to evaluate the performance

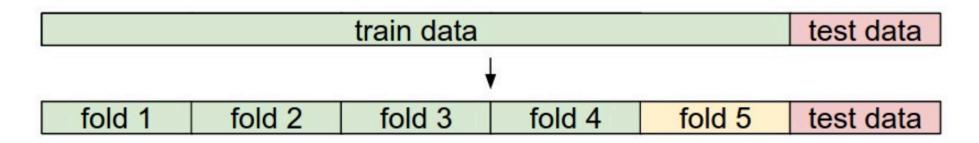


Training

Validation Test

Cross validation

- If the training dataset is small, can use cross validation
- 5-fold cross validation
 - For a given k (a certain setting of hyperparameters)
 - Divide the training dataset into 5 equal folds
 - Use 4 folds for training, 1 for validation
 - Repeat using another fold as the validation set
 - Average the performance



Issues of k-NN

- Memory expensive: need to remember all training data
- Computationally expensive during testing
 - Need to compare all training data
 - Not practical in an application







Position shift



Intensity shift

Issues of k-NN

- Memory expensive: need to remember all training data
- Computationally expensive during testing
 - Need to compare all training data
 - Not practical in an application
- Approximate nearest neighbor (ANN) algorithms accelerate the search of the nearest neighbor
- Using image intensity value for distance comparison is not robust
 - Small position or intensity shift can result in large distance



Original



Position shift



Intensity shift

Today's class

Image histogram

Image classification: o data-driven approach o K-nn

Next week's class

Image classification: Linear classifier Gradient descent