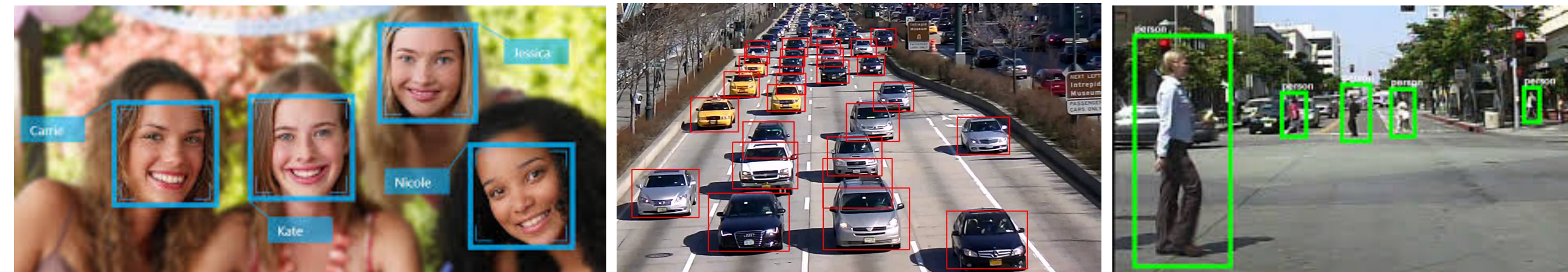




CPSC 425: Computer Vision



Lecture 20: Image Classification (part 4)

Menu for Today (March 24, 2020)

Topics:

- Decision Tree
- Boosting

Readings:

- **Today's** Lecture: Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) 16.1.3, 16.1.4, 16.1.9
- **Next** Lecture: Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) 17.1–17.2

Reminders:

- **Assignment 5** is due Tuesday, March 31st
- Midterm **review**
- **Final** structure / grading announced

Lecture 19: Re-cap — Decision Tree

A **decision tree** is a simple non-linear parametric classifier

Consists of a tree in which each internal node is associated with a feature test

A data point starts at the root and recursively proceeds to the child node determined by the feature test, until it reaches a leaf node

The leaf node stores a class label or a probability distribution over class labels

Lecture 19: Re-cap — Decision Tree

Learning a decision tree from a training set involves selecting an efficient sequence of feature tests

Example: Waiting for a restaurant table

Example	Attributes										Target
	<i>Alt</i>	<i>Bar</i>	<i>Fri</i>	<i>Hun</i>	<i>Pat</i>	<i>Price</i>	<i>Rain</i>	<i>Res</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Est</i>	<i>WillWait</i>
X_1	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>0–10</i>	<i>T</i>
X_2	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>30–60</i>	<i>F</i>
X_3	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>0–10</i>	<i>T</i>
X_4	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>10–30</i>	<i>T</i>
X_5	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>>60</i>	<i>F</i>
X_6	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>0–10</i>	<i>T</i>
X_7	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>0–10</i>	<i>F</i>
X_8	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>\$\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>0–10</i>	<i>T</i>
X_9	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>>60</i>	<i>F</i>
X_{10}	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$\$\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>10–30</i>	<i>F</i>
X_{11}	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Thai</i>	<i>0–10</i>	<i>F</i>
X_{12}	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Full</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Burger</i>	<i>30–60</i>	<i>T</i>

Lecture 19: Re-cap — Decision Tree

The **entropy** of a set S of data samples is defined as

$$H(S) = - \sum_{c \in C} p(c) \log(p(c))$$

where C is the set of classes represented in S , and $p(c)$ is the empirical distribution of class c in S

Entropy is highest when data samples are spread equally across all classes, and zero when all data samples are from the same class.

Lecture 19: Re-cap — Decision Tree

In general we try to select the feature test that maximizes the **information gain**:

$$I = H(S) - \sum_{i \in \{children\}} \frac{|S^i|}{|S|} H(S^i)$$

In the previous example, the information gains of the two candidate tests are:

$$I_{Patrons} = 0.541 \qquad I_{Type} = 0$$

So we choose the 'Patrons' test.

Lecture 19: Re-cap — Decision Tree

Following this construction procedure we obtain the final decision tree:

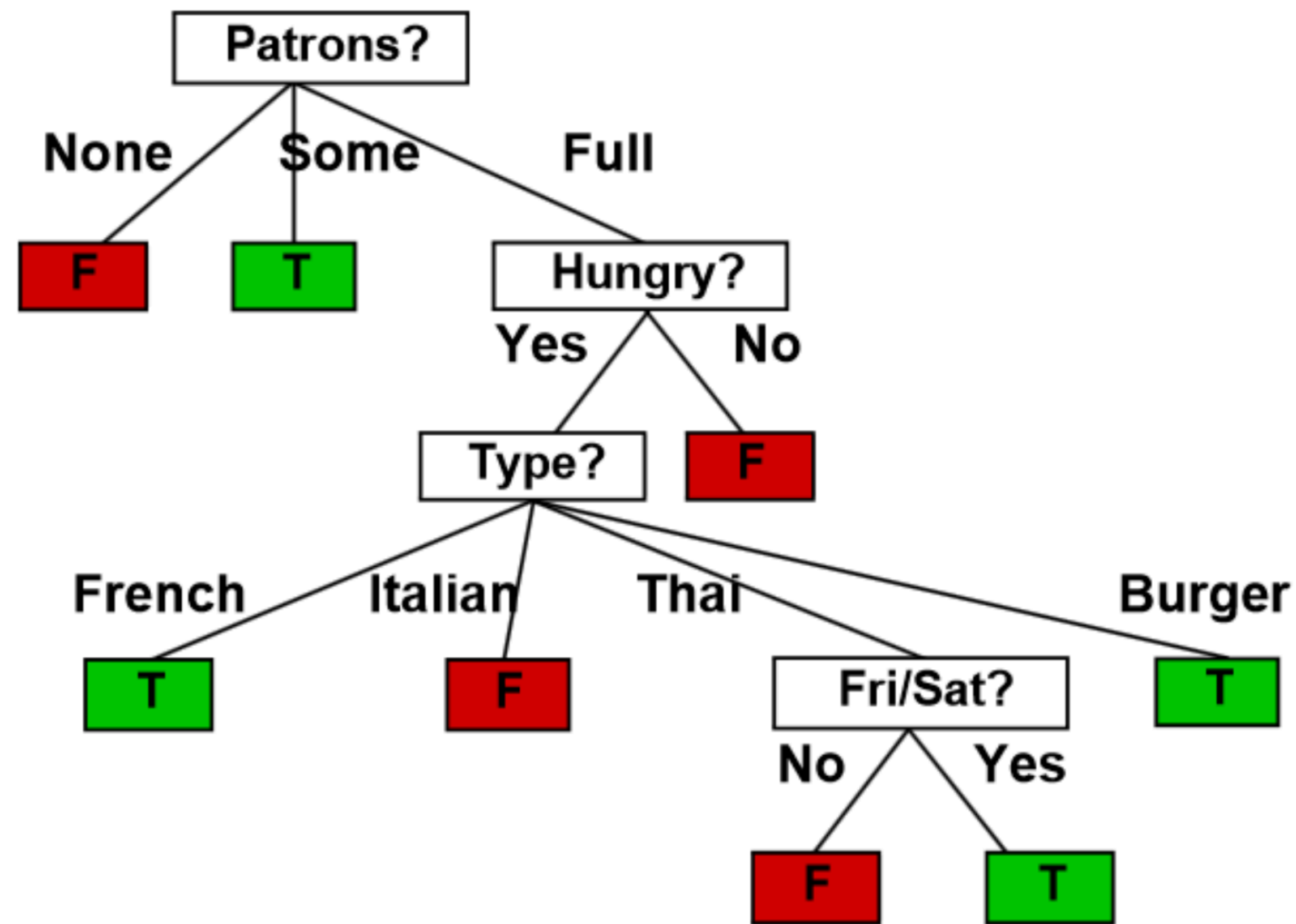


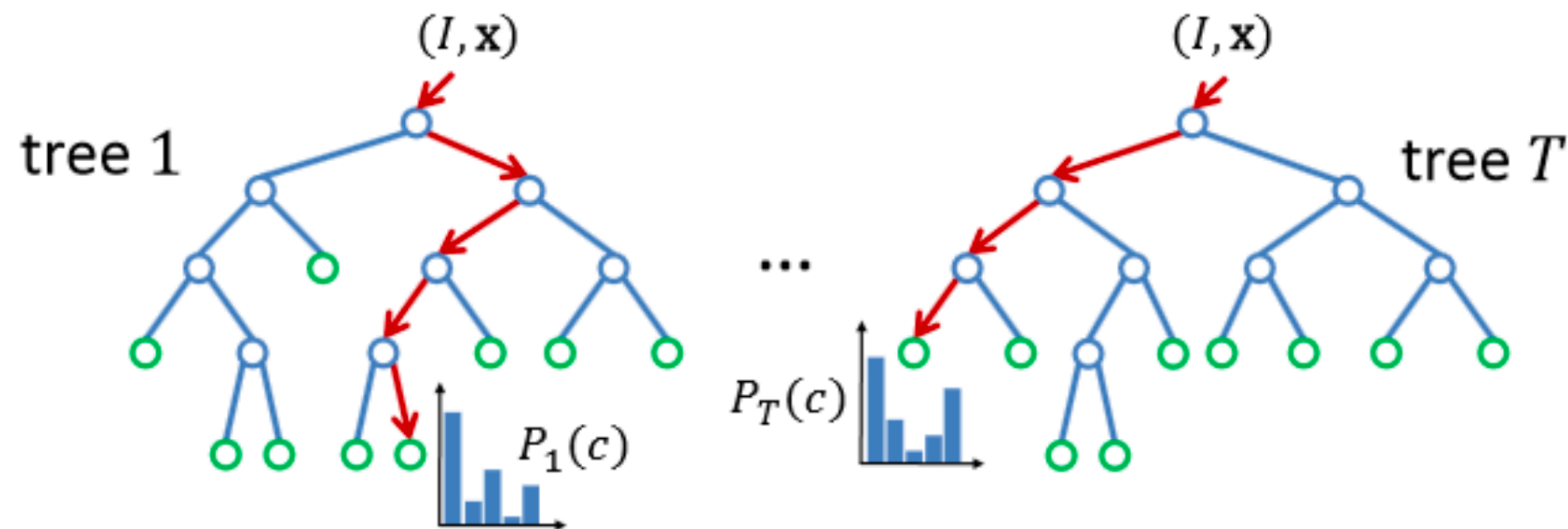
Figure credit: Russell and Norvig (3rd ed.)

Decision Tree

A **random forest** is an ensemble of decision trees.

Randomness is incorporated via training set sampling and/or generation of the candidate binary tests

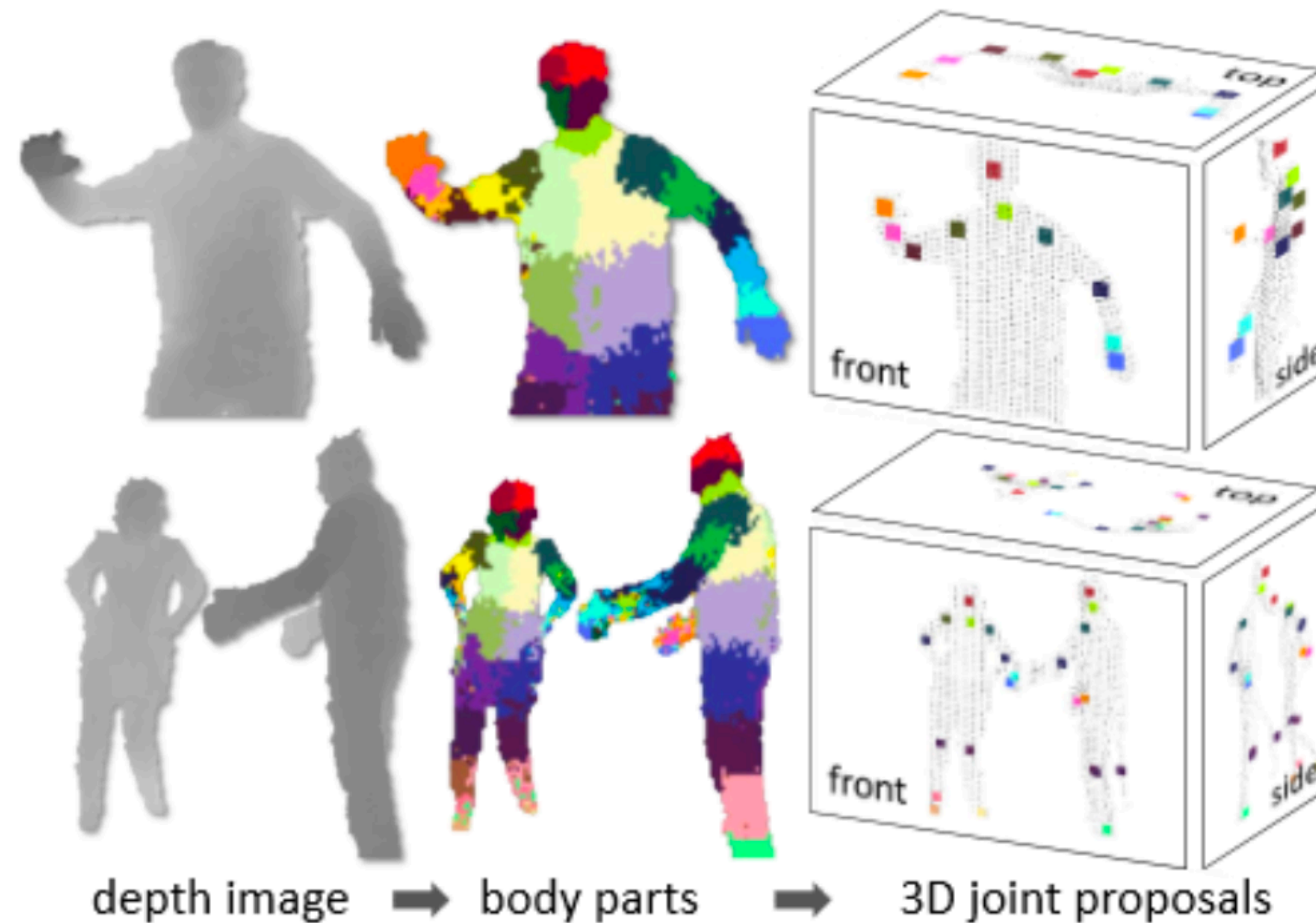
The prediction of the random forest is obtained by averaging over all decision trees.



Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 14.19. Original credit: J. Shotton et al., 2011

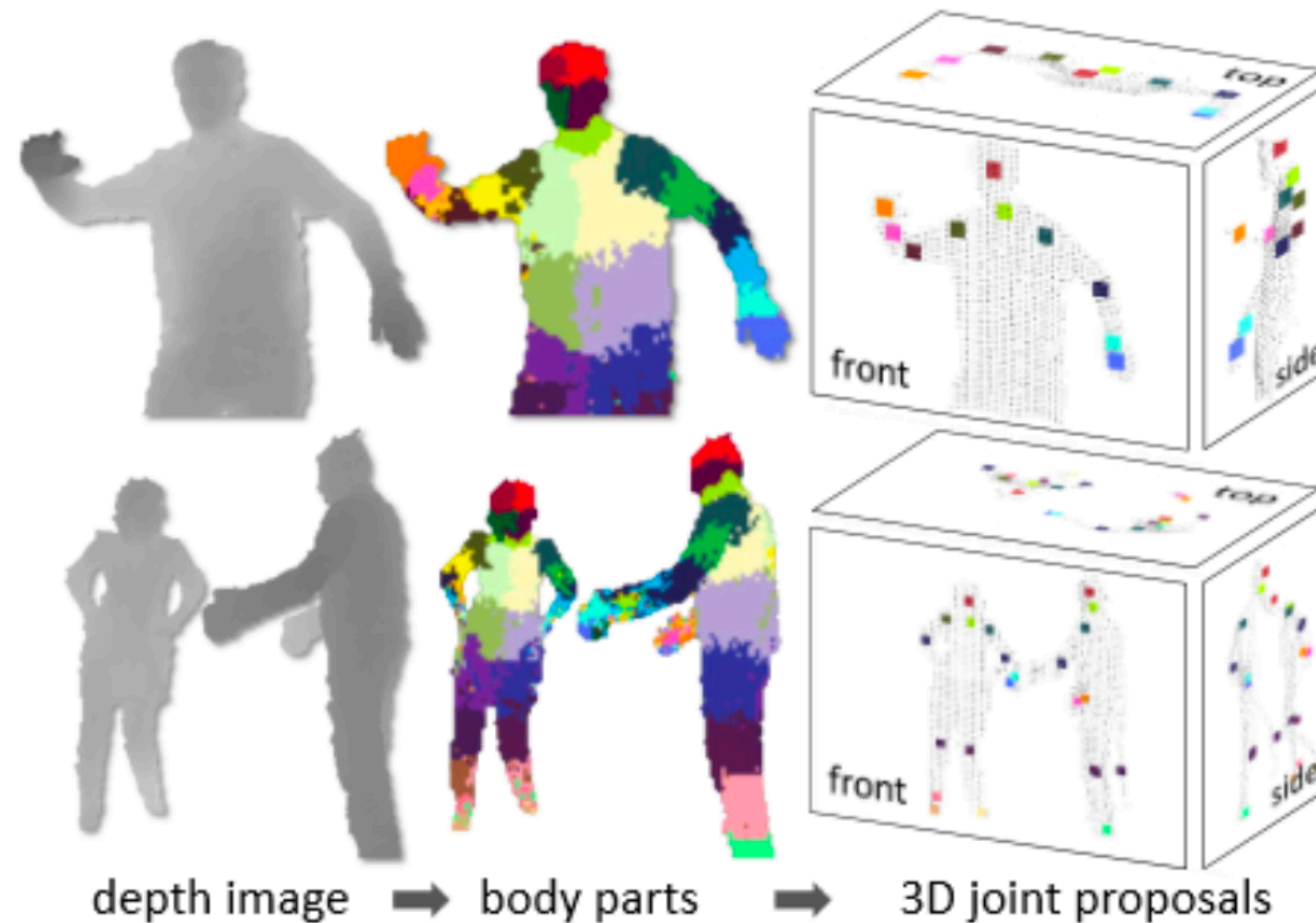
Example 1: Kinect

Kinect allows users of Microsoft's Xbox 360 console to interact with games using natural body motions instead of a traditional handheld controller. The pose (joint positions) of the user is predicted using a random forest trained on depth features.



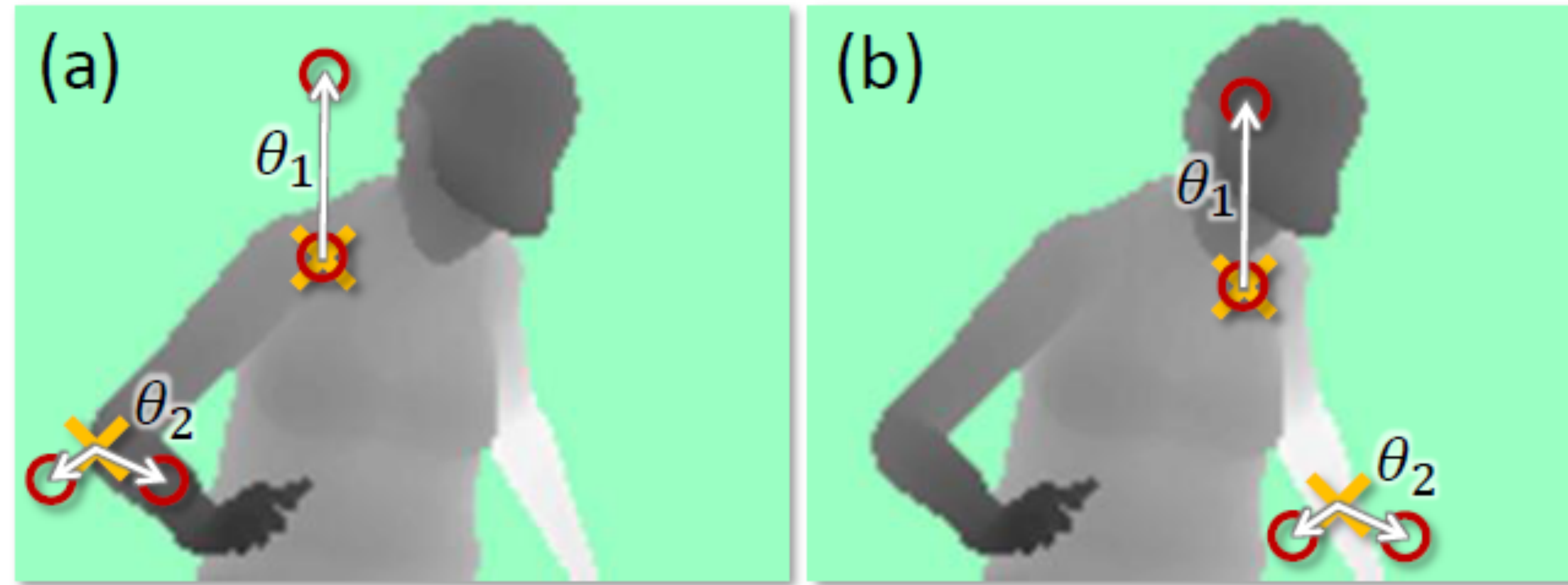
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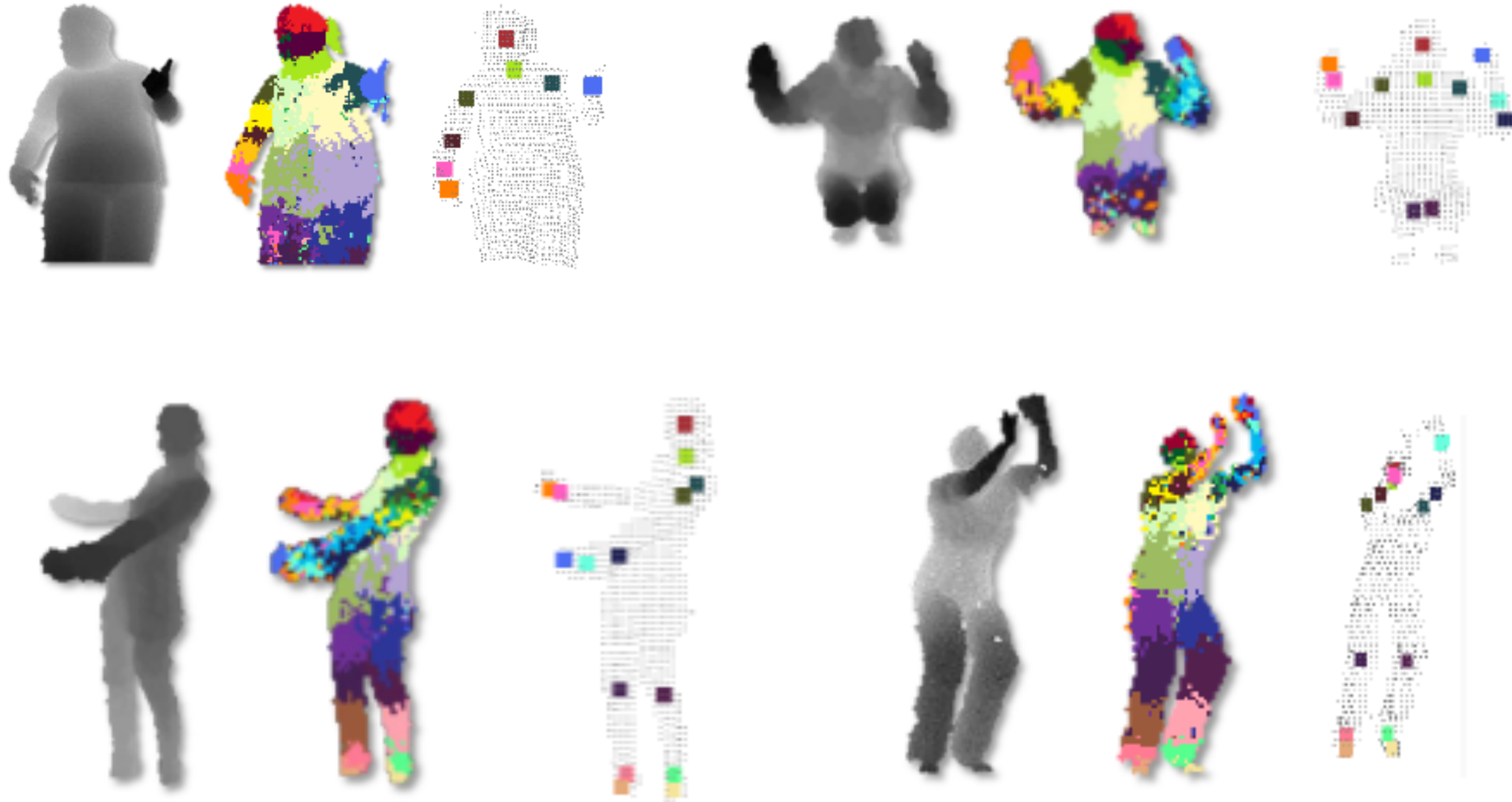
Jamie Shotton

Example 1: Kinect



$$f_{\theta}(I, \mathbf{x}) = d_I \left(\mathbf{x} + \frac{\mathbf{u}}{d_I(\mathbf{x})} \right) - d_I \left(\mathbf{x} + \frac{\mathbf{v}}{d_I(\mathbf{x})} \right)$$

Example 1: Kinect



Combining **Classifiers**

One common strategy to obtain a better classifier is to combine multiple classifiers.

A simple approach is to train an ensemble of independent classifiers, and average their predictions.

Boosting is another approach.

- Train an ensemble of classifiers sequentially.
- Bias subsequent classifiers to correctly predict training examples that previous classifiers got wrong.
- The final boosted classifier is a weighted combination of the individual classifiers.

Combining Classifiers: **Boosting**

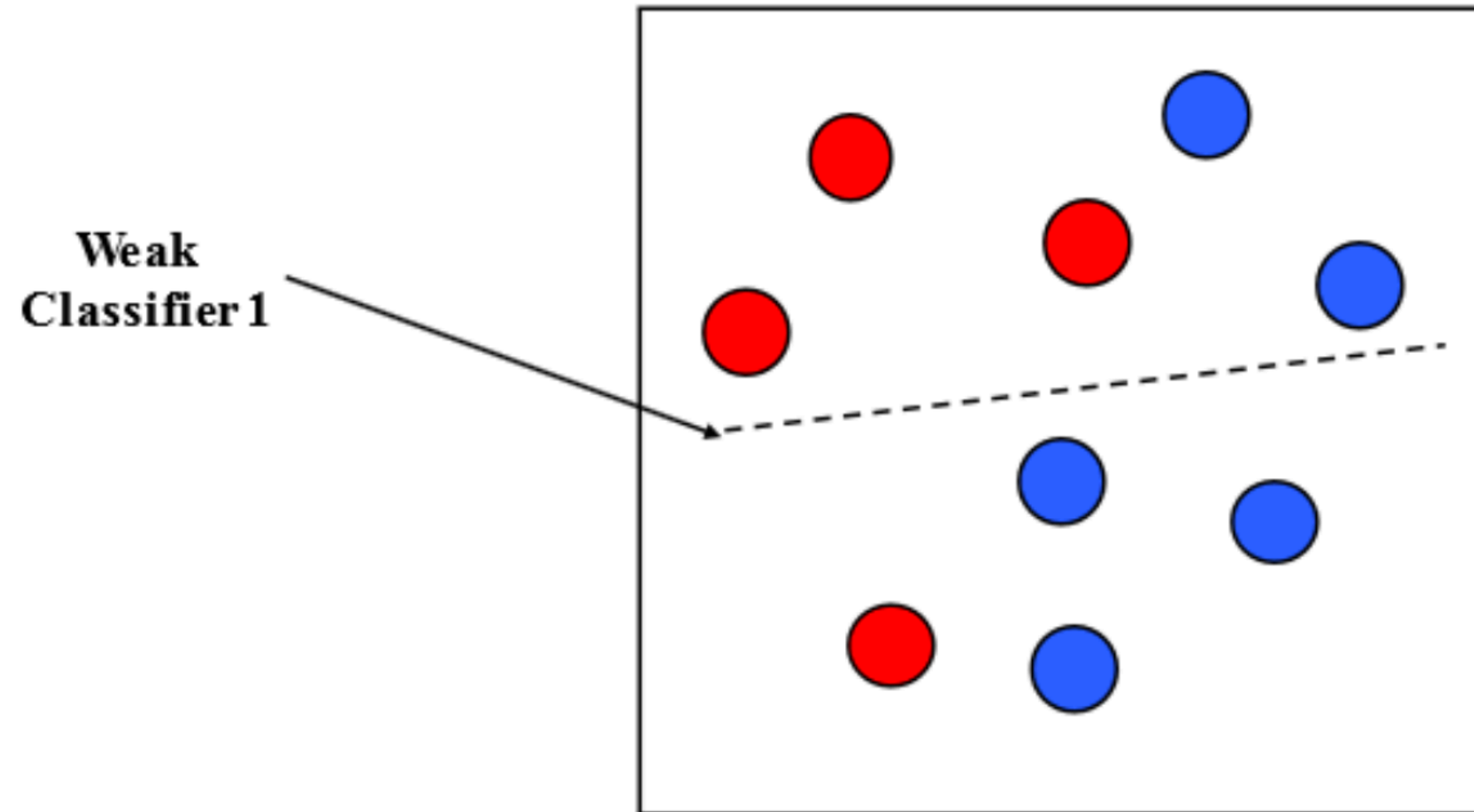


Figure credit: Paul Viola

Combining Classifiers: **Boosting**

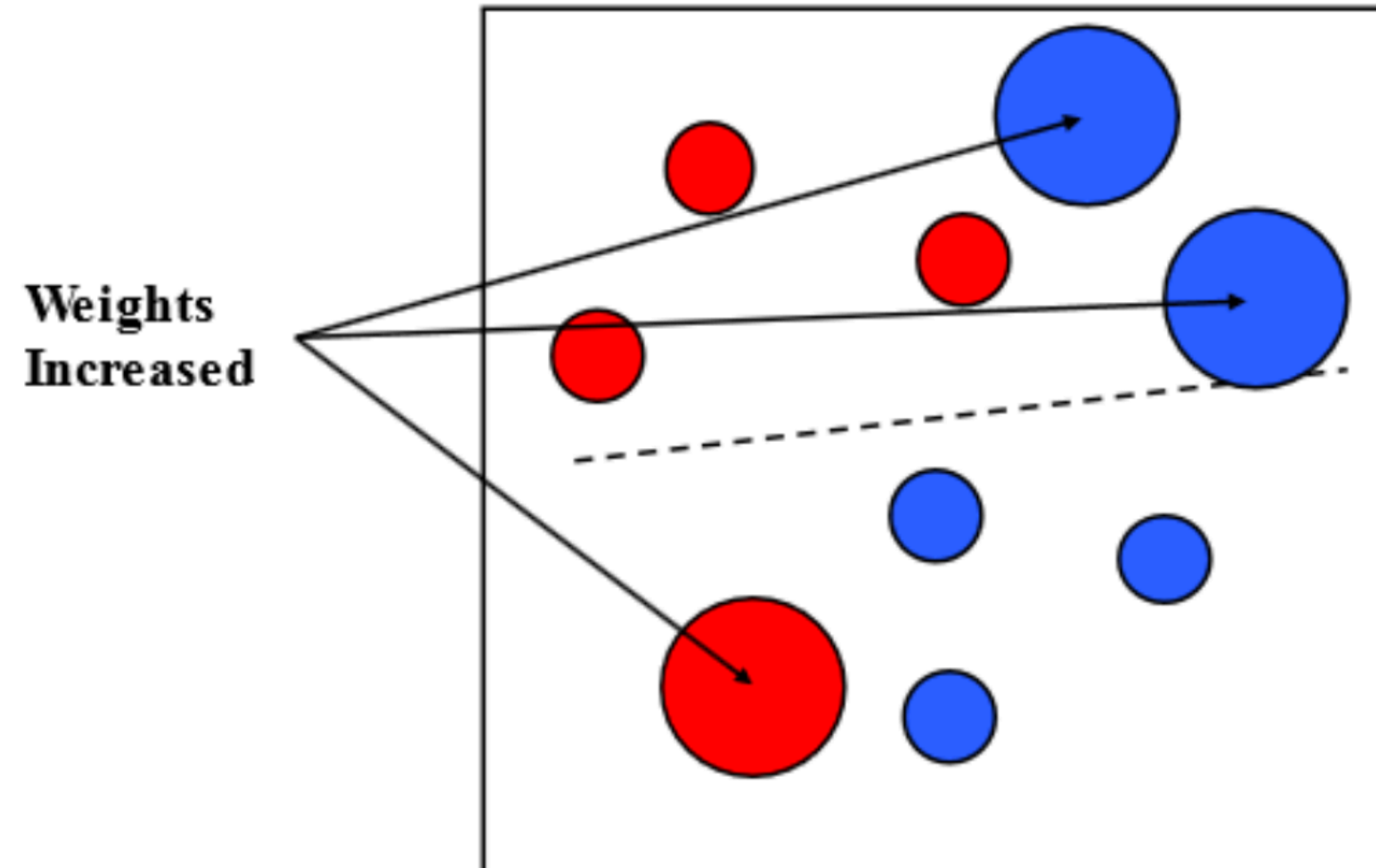


Figure credit: Paul Viola

Combining Classifiers: **Boosting**

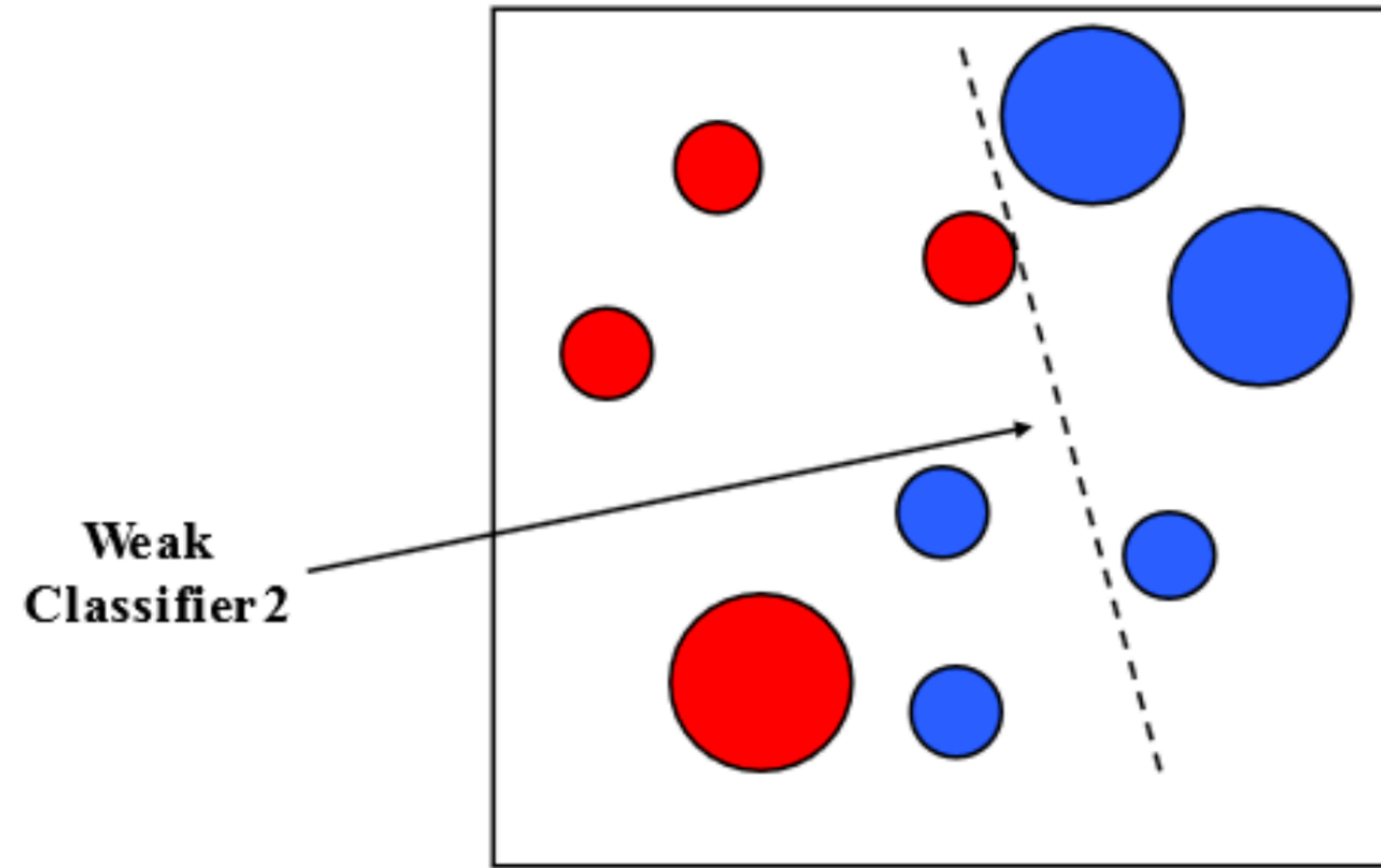


Figure credit: Paul Viola

Combining Classifiers: **Boosting**

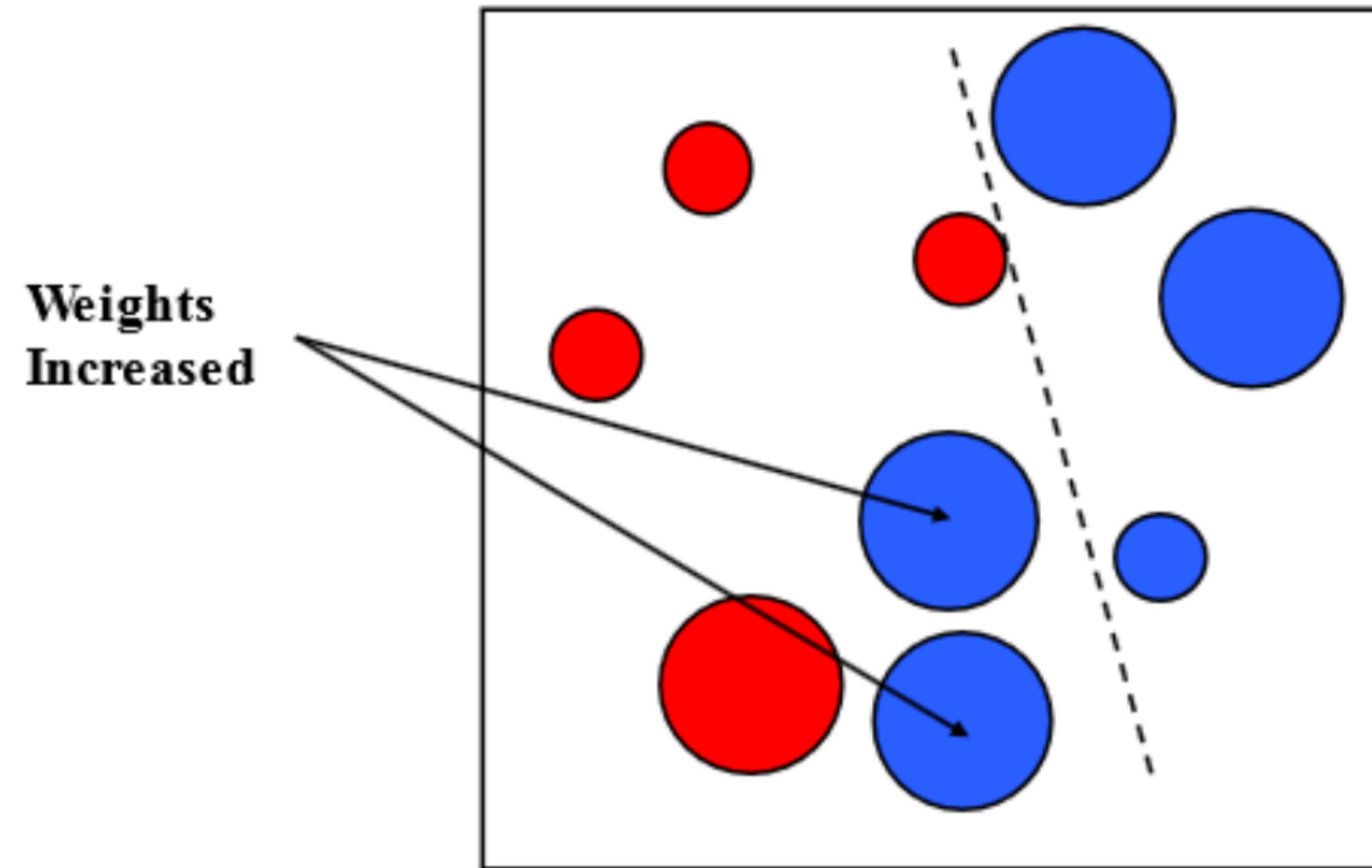


Figure credit: Paul Viola

Combining Classifiers: **Boosting**

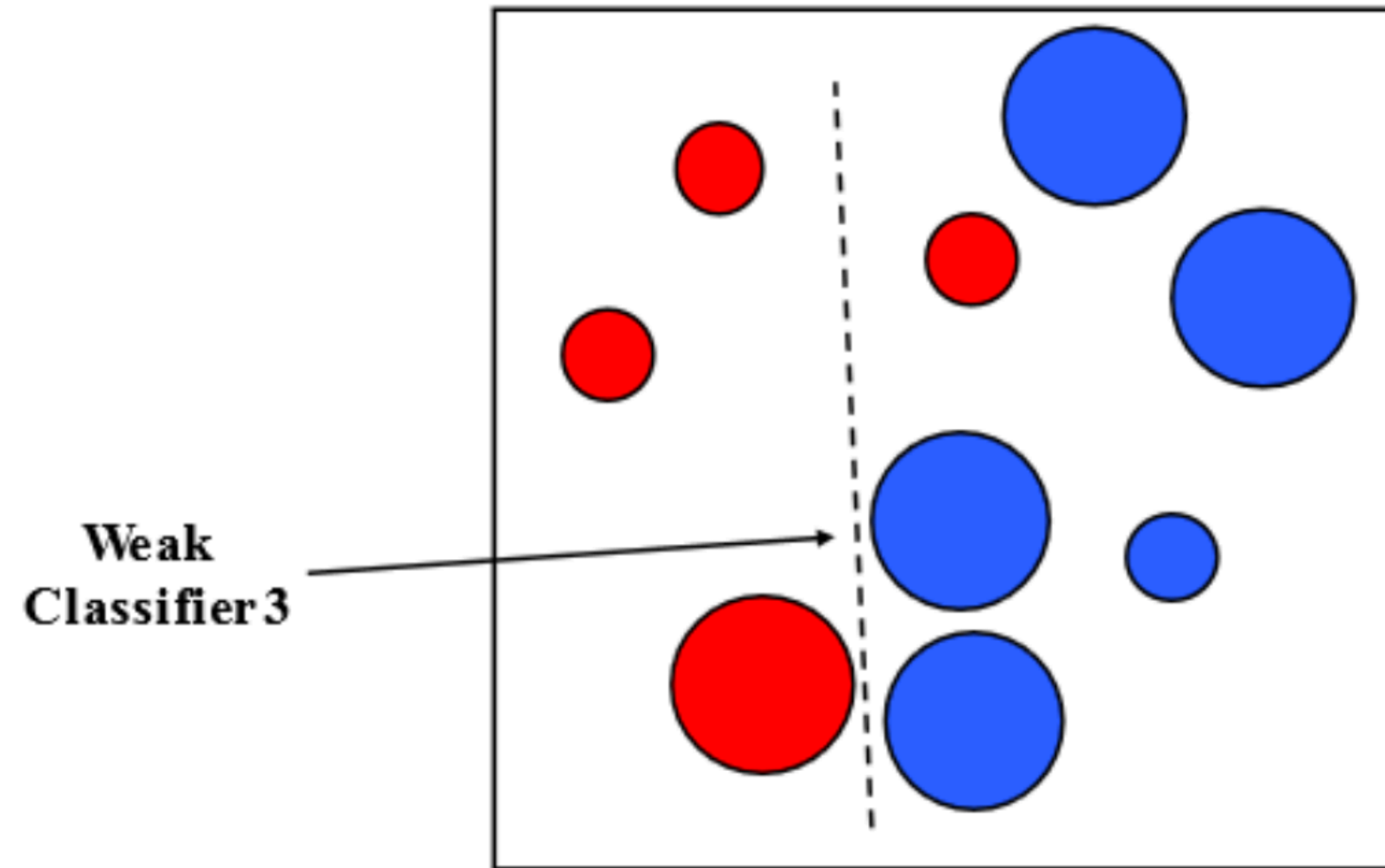


Figure credit: Paul Viola

Combining Classifiers: **Boosting**

**Final classifier is
a combination of weak
classifiers**

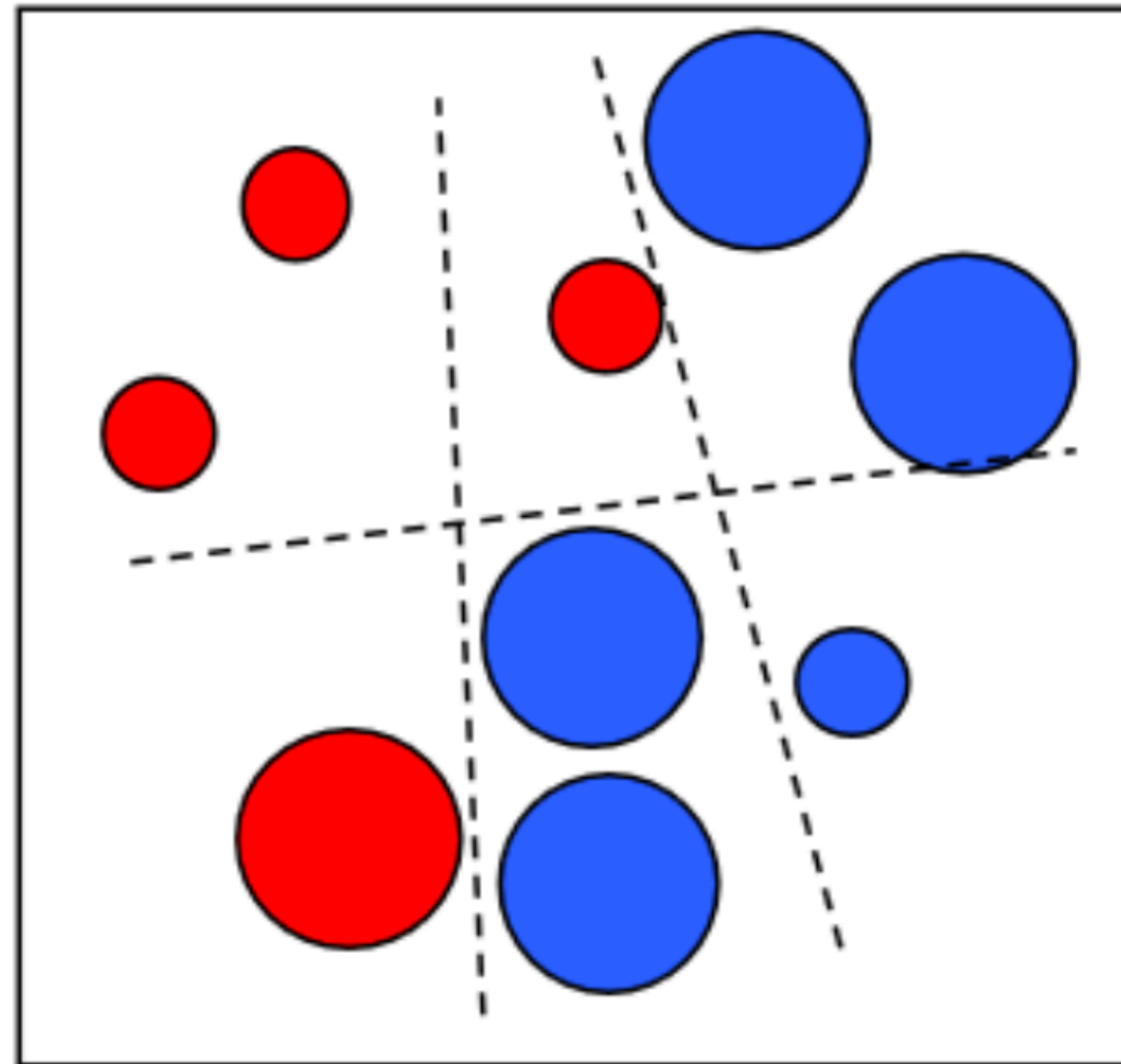


Figure credit: Paul Viola

Summary

A **decision tree** passes a data point through a sequence of feature tests. A random forest is an ensemble of decision trees.

Factors that make image classification hard

— intra-class variation, viewpoint, illumination, clutter, occlusion...

A codebook of **visual words** contains representative local patch descriptors
— can be constructed by clustering local descriptors (e.g. SIFT) in training images

The **bag of words** model accumulates a histogram of occurrences of each visual word

The **spatial pyramid** partitions the image and counts visual words within each grid box; this is repeated at multiple levels