Increasing the Stability of CNNs using a Denoising Layer Regularized by Local Lipschitz Constant in Road Understanding Problems

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Abstract: One of the challenges in problems related to road understanding is to deal with noisy images. Especially, recent studies have revealed that ConvNets are sensitive to small perturbations in the input. One solution for dealing with this problem is to generate many noisy images during training a ConvNet. However, this approach is very costly and it is not a certain solution. In this paper, we propose an objective function regularized by the local Lipschitz constant and train a ReLU layer for restoring noisy images. Our experiments on the GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrian datasets show that this lightweight approach not only increases the accuracy of the classification ConvNets on the clean datasets but it also increases the stability of the ConvNets against noise. Comparing our method with similar approaches shows that it produces more stable ConvNets while it is computationally similar or more efficient than these methods.

1 INTRODUCTION

Understanding road is crucial for autonomous cars. Lane segmentation, pedestrian detection, traffic sign recognition and car detection are some of the well-known problems in this field. Convolutional Neural Networks (ConvNets) have been successfully applied on these problems. Ciresan et al. (Cirean et al., 2012) and Sermanet et al. (Sermanet and Lecun, 2011) proposed ConvNets that beat a human driver in classification of traffic signs on a challenging dataset called GTSRB (Stallkamp et al., 2012). Aghdam et al. (Aghdam et al., 2015) also proposed a more accurate ConvNet with much less parameters. Similarly, Angelova et al. (Angelova et al., 2015) detected pedestrians using a cascade of lightweight and complex ConvNets. Besides, Levi et al. (Levi et al., 2015) and Bittel et al. (Bittel et al., 2015) have proposed ConvNets for segmenting lane in an image.

In real world applications, road understanding faces some practical challenges. For examples, if the weather is rainy or foggy, the camera mounted on the car may not acquire clean images. This may cause some artifacts on the image. In addition, based on the shutter speed, the image might be degraded by a motion if the car is being driven on an uneven route. Similarly, engine and other parts may affect the transmitted signal from the camera which in turn may cause some irregularities on the image. All of these situations can degrade the image. Consequently, the input of road understanding module might be noisy.

ConvNets have considerably advanced compared with AlexNet (Krizhevsky et al., 2012) which won the ImageNet competition in 2012. In particular, depth of ConvNets have greatly increased last years. Szegedy et al. (Szegedy et al., 2014a) created a network consisting of multiple Inception modules. Besides, Simonyan and Zisserman (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015) proposed a network with 19 layers. The idea behind this ConvNet is to increase the depth rather than its width. Srivastava et al. (Srivastava et al., 2015) showed how to train very deep networks by directly flowing information from previous layers to next layers through a gate function. Recently, He et al. (He et al., 2015) trained a 152-layer ConvNet and won the ImageNet competition. Their ConvNet is similar to (Srivastava et al., 2015) in the sense that information flows directly to the following layers. However, the gate function in (Srivastava et al., 2015) has been replaced with an identity mapping function.

Despite the impressive results obtained by ConvNets, Szegedy et al. (Szegedy et al., 2014b) showed that small perturbation, so called adversarial examples, of input images can alter their classification result. The difference between the image and its adversarial samples is not sometimes even recognizable to human eye. They study the reason by computing the upper bound of the Lipschitz constant for each layer.
The results suggest that instability of ConvNets might be due to the fact that they are highly non-linear functions. Hence, a small change in the input may considerably change the output. Aghdam et al. (Aghdam et. al., 2016) empirically studied various ConvNets trained on different datasets. In this work, they generated 1200 noisy images for each sample in the test sets using a Gaussian noise with \( \sigma \in [1 \ldots 40] \). The results showed that all the ConvNets in our experiments were unstable to image degradation even when the samples were degraded using the Gaussian noise with \( \sigma = 1 \). Moreover, the ConvNets were unstable regardless of the class of the object.

**Contribution.** One of the crucial requirements of road understanding modules is that they must be executed in real-time and they must use resources such as CPU, GPU and memory as few as possible. In this paper, we show that fine-tuning a ConvNet with generic approaches such as blurring, median filtering and bilateral filtering is an effective and affordable way to increase the stability of a classification ConvNet against different kinds of noise. More importantly, we train channel-wise filters for restoring images. Our objective function tries to locally reduce the nonlinearity of the restoration module. To be more specific, we train a convolution layer with 3 filters to restore an image as accurate as possible but also it generates nearly identical outputs for all perturbations in small neighborhood of an image. Our experiments on pedestrian detection and traffic sign classification datasets show that this lightweight restoration layer is able to effectively tackle with noisy images compared with other methods.

2 RELATED WORK

Szegedy et al. (Szegedy et al., 2014b) discovered that ConvNets are sensitive to small variations of the input. They found the additive noise \( \nu \) which was able to reduce the score of the true class close to zero. They also studied the non-linearity of ConvNets using the Lipschitz theorem. Similarly, Papernot et al. (Papernot, et al., 2015) produced adversarial samples which were incorrectly classified by the ConvNet. They produced these samples by modifying 4.02% of the input features. Aghdam et al. (Aghdam et al., 2016) also proposed an objective function to find the additive noise \( \nu \) in the closest distance to the decision boundary in which \( x + \nu \) falls into the wrong class. Goodfellow et al. (Goodfellow et al., 2015) argued that the instability of ConvNets to adversarial examples is due to linear nature of ConvNets. Based on this idea, they proposed a method for quickly generating adversarial examples. They used these examples to reduce the test error.

Gu and Rigazio (Gu and Rigazio, 2014) stacked a denoising autoencoder (DAE) to their ConvNet and preprocessed the adversarial examples using the DAE before feeding them to the ConvNet. They mentioned that the resulting network can be still attacked by new adversarial examples. Inspired by contractive autoencoders, they added a smoothness penalty to the objective function and trained a more stable network.

Instead of minimizing the classification score, Sabour et al. (Sabour et al., 2015) tried to find a degraded image closest to the original image that its representation mimics those produced by natural images. Fawzi et al. (Alhussein Fawzi et al., 2015) provided a theoretical framework for explaining the adversarial examples. Their framework suggests that the instability to noise is due to low flexibility of classifiers.

3 PROPOSED METHOD

Denoting the \textit{softmax} layer of a ConvNet \((i.e.\) the last layer in a classification ConvNet) by \( L_0(x) \), the general idea is to find a parameter vector \( \theta \) such that:

\[
\forall |\nu| \leq T \ L_0(x + \nu) = L_0(x) \quad (1)
\]

where \( \nu \) is a noise vector whose magnitude is less than threshold \( T \). Solving the instability of ConvNets against noise using the above formulation may require to add new terms to the loss function or generate thousands of noisy samples for each training sample. Instead, we propose a modular approach consisting of two ConvNets: The first ConvNet is a denoising layer that we are going to mention in this section. The second ConvNet is the one that is originally trained on training samples. In our approach, we connect the denoising network to the classification network and feed the images to the denoising network. Our aim is to train a denoising ConvNet that is able to restore the original image as accurate as possible and it produces identical results for all the samples located within radius \( r \) from the current sample. Formally, we are looking for two sets of parameters \( \theta_1 \) and \( \theta_2 \) such that:

\[
\forall |\nu| \leq T \ L_0(\theta_1(x + \nu)) = L_0(\theta_2(x)) \quad (2)
\]

where \( \theta_1 \) indicates the parameters of the classification ConvNet and \( \theta_2 \) denotes the parameters of the denoising ConvNet. The parameters \( \theta_1 \) is already available by training the classification ConvNet on the training samples. Then, our goal is to find a function \( \mathcal{F} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \) that is able to map all points around \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \) to the same point. If we can find such a function, the sample \( x \) and all its adversarial examples will
be mapped to the same point. Then, the classification ConvNet will be able to produce the same output for all adversarial examples.

In contrast to (Jain and Seung, 2009), we do not restrict \( F \) to Gaussian noise. Furthermore, contrary to (Burger et al.,) and (Hradi, 2015) that model \( F \) using 16M and 4.5M parameters, our approaches requires determining only 75 parameters. From one perspective, \( F \) can be seen as an associative memory that is able to memorize patterns \( X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_M\}, x_i \in \mathbb{R}^N \) in our dataset and map every sample \( \{x_i + \nu\|\nu\| \leq \varepsilon\} \) to \( x_i \). Here, \( x_i \) is an image patch and \( X \) is the set of all possible image patches collected from all classes of objects in our dataset. Figure 1 illustrates our approach. Our approach can be considered as a layer which is later connected to the input of a classification layer and its aim is to reduce the effect of noise.

The two layers shown in this figure have identical architectures and they share all their parameters. Furthermore, as we will discuss shortly, we need the two layers during the training phase and we will only use one of them in the test phase. The layer consists of 3 convolution layers of size 5 × 5 which are separately applied on the red, green and blue channels of the noisy image. Also, the result of convolutions are passed through a ReLU activation function and they are concatenated in order to create the final image.

It should be noted that the noise generation module in Figure 1 is only used during the training phase. In the test phase, the noise generation module is omitted. In this paper, we have only concentrated on additive noise. The noise generation module creates noisy patterns with various probability density functions. Five examples of the probability density functions have been shown in Figure 1. Besides the Gaussian and uniform distributions, there are also other density functions that generate sparse noise patterns.

Given a set of clean image patches \( X_{\text{clean}} = \{x_{\text{clean}}^1, \ldots, x_{\text{clean}}^N\} \) and their noisy versions \( X_{\text{noisy}} = \{x_{\text{noisy}}^1, \ldots, x_{\text{noisy}}^N\} \), restoration ConvNets are usually trained by minimizing the Euclidean loss function (Jain and Seung, 2009; Dong et al., 2014; Svo- bodan et al., 2016; Hradi, 2015; Burger et al.,):

\[
E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \| x_{\text{clean}}^i - f_\theta(\nu_{\text{noisy}}) \|^2 + \lambda \| \theta \|^2 \tag{3}
\]

where \( \theta \) is the set of network weights and biases and \( \lambda \) is the regularization coefficient. The objective of this function is to train a restoration ConvNet which is able to restore clean images from noisy inputs as accurate as possible. However, we argue that training a ConvNet using the above loss function could be accurate if \( X_{\text{clean}} \) is clean in practice. But, this is not usually the case in datasets collected for road understanding problems. This is illustrated in Figure 2 on the samples from GTSRB (Stallkamp et al., 2012) and Caltech-Pedestrian (Dollár et al., 2009). Each column shows two different samples belonging to the same class. The green rectangle shows contradictory patches in each column. For example, the green patches related to the speed limit sign are pointing to the same pattern. However, one of these patches are degraded due to camera motion. In the second and third columns, shadow and excessive ambient light on the patches has caused the contradiction. In the last two columns, there are some irregularities due to camera noise. \( X_{\text{noisy}} \) is usually generated from \( X_{\text{clean}} \). However, because of the above reasons, it might not be practical to train the ConvNet using (3) due to contradictions in the database.

To tackle with this problem, we propose to add a new term to the objective function encouraging the layer to learn a mapping in which \( \| f(\nu_{\text{clean}}) - f(\nu_{\text{noisy}}) \| \) is less than \( \| x_{\text{clean}} - x_{\text{noisy}} \| \). This is analogous to locally reducing the Lipschitz constant of the layer. Our final objective function is defined as follows:

\[
E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ w_1 \| x_{\text{clean}}^i - f_\theta(\nu_{\text{noisy}}) \|^2 + w_2 \| f(\nu_{\text{clean}}) - f(\nu_{\text{noisy}}) \| \right] \tag{4}
\]

where \( N \) is the total number of the images. Moreover, \( f(\nu_{\text{clean}}) \) and \( f(\nu_{\text{noisy}}) \) are computed at the same time using the top and bottom layers in Figure 1, respectively. It is worth mentioning that the noisy patterns are generated on the fly. That said, we have implemented a degradation module which accepts a mini-batch of clean images and outputs their degraded version along with identity mapping data. This helps the network not only learn to restore noisy patches but also apply identity mapping on clean patches.

One of the one hand, our layer learns to restore images where intensity values is in interval \([0, 1]\). On the other, we initialize our filters close to averaging filters. Therefore, the output of the layer never becomes a negative number. Since our approach is only one layer consisting of convolution operators and ReLU functions, it is a linear operator which is applied on the input image. Formally, conditions \( f(kx) = kf(x) \) and \( f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y) \) hold in our approach. Taking into account one convolution kernel, \( f(x_{\text{clean}}) - f(x_{\text{noisy}}) \) can be simplified as \( W \ast x_{\text{clean}} - W \ast x_{\text{noisy}} = W \ast (x_{\text{clean}} - x_{\text{noisy}}) \) when all elements of \( W \) are positive. Consequently, the second term in (4) is minimized by reducing \( \| W \| \). In contrast, when all elements of \( W \) are negative, the second term becomes zero. This is similar to regularizing the objective function with an adaptive weight analogous to the difference between clean and noisy samples. For this reason, we do not add other regularization
terms to our objective function. In terms of Lipschitz constant, the second term reduces the slope of the hyperplane represented by each convolution kernel. Moreover, it helps to reduce the effect of contradictory patches.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We carry out our experiments on German Traffic Sign Recognition Benchmark (GTSRB) (Stallkamp et al., 2012) and Caltech-Pedestrian(Dollár et al., 2009) datasets. The GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrian datasets have some important characteristics. First, they have been collected considering real scenarios (e.g. shadow, lightening, occlusion, camera motion) and they contain many degraded images. Second, the imaging device are noisy and they produce artifacts on the acquired images. Third, the resolution of images are low. Therefore, a slight change in the image may affect the classification score.

We use 48×48 (the GTSRB dataset) and 64×64 (the Caltech-Pedestrian dataset) image patches as the input of our layer. Also, we do not apply zero-padding in the training phase to avoid the impact of border effect on the loss function. Besides, the input is normalized to [0, 1]. All the weights in our layer are initialized using the normal distribution with mean value set to 1 and standard deviation set to 0.2. Taking into account the fact that each activation of the layer must be in interval [0, 1], the initial weights are divided by 25 in order to make the results of convolution kernels close to this interval. After we have the layer trained, zero-padding is applied on the input.

Exploratory Analysis. To evaluate the restoration accuracy of our method, we generate 150 noisy images for each sample in the test set. Generating a noisy pattern is done in several steps. First, we randomly select a uniform or a normal distribution with probability 0.5. Then, a noisy pattern is generated with $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = U(0.5, 15)$ if the normal random number generator is selected. Here, $U(0.5, 15)$ returns a number between 0.5 and 15 using the uniform distribution. In the case of uniform random number generator, the noisy pattern is generated in interval $[-3U(0.5, 15), 3U(0.5, 15)]$. Next, the noisy pattern is sparsified with probability 0.25. The sparsification is done by generating a binary mask using binomial distribution with $n = 1$ and $p = U(0.5, 1.0)$. It is worth mentioning that we set the seed of random number generator to ensure reproducibility.

Figure 1: The proposed ConvNet for modelling $F$ in (2). $C(s, k)$ shows a convolution-ReLU layer containing $s$ filters of size $k \times k$. Probability density function used for generating noise in the training phase is shown in the left.

Figure 2: Unclean training samples with contradictory patches (best viewed in color).
number generators to an identical value for all methods. Figure 3 illustrates a few noisy images along with the noisy patterns generated on the GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrian datasets.

The noisy samples are fed into the layer and the peak signal to noise ratio of the restored image is computed using the following equation:

\[
\text{psnr} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{255^2}{\frac{1}{H \times W} \sum_{i=1}^{H} \sum_{j=1}^{W} (x - x')^2} \right).
\] (5)

In the above equation, \(x\) is the clean image and \(x'\) is the noisy/restored image (both of them are re-scaled back to \([0,255])\). In addition, we also study how the Lipschitz constant of our layer changes locally. This is done by computing \(\|F(\mathbf{x}_{\text{clean}}) - F(\mathbf{x}_{\text{noisy}})\|\) and \(v = \|\mathbf{x}_{\text{clean}} - \mathbf{x}_{\text{noisy}}\|\). To compare our results with other similar methods, we also restored the images using the bilateral (\(d=5\) and \(\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = 9\)), the median (\(5 \times 5\)) and Gaussian (\(5 \times 5\)) filtering approaches. Figure 4 illustrates the scatter plot of the PSNR study (left) and the Lipschitz study (right) superimposed with a polynomial fitted on the data.

According to the results, both Gaussian and median filtering approaches are not able to restore image accurately. This is due to the fact that objects in the GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrian datasets are represented using low resolution images. On the other hand, details of objects are mainly determined using high frequency pixels. On the other hand, these pixels are close in the case of these low resolution images. As the result, Gaussian and median filtering approaches oversmooth the images which degrades the edges of objects. For this reason, PSNR of the filtered image is much lower than the PSNR of the noisy image. In contrast, bilateral filtering preserves the edges and this is the main reason that it has a higher PSNR compared with these two methods. Moreover, bilateral filtering restores images with higher PSNR when the PSNR of the noisy image is less than 35.

The Lipschitz study shows that Gaussian and median filtering produce similar results regardless of the magnitude of noise. In contrary, images restored by bilateral filtering are scattered at a distance which is approximately similar to the distance of the noisy image from the clean image. We are looking for a filtering approach which is able to restore images as accurate as possible and it produces results with smaller Lipschitz constant. Consequently, none of these three approaches are appropriate for our purpose.

However, the filter learned by our approach has a trade off between accuracy and the Lipschitz constant. Looking at the PSNR values, we observe that, on average, it is more accurate than these three methods. Besides, its Lipschitz constant is approximately lin-

ear. More importantly, the Lipschitz constant of our filter is less than 1 which means that restored images become closer after being filtered by our layer. Finally, we observe that the Lipschitz constant is very stable with very low variation in our approach. This means that, the filter learned by our objective function is not sensitive to the variations of input image.

We further analyze our filters in the frequency domain using the Fourier transform. Figure 5 illustrates the frequency response of our filters along with the Gaussian filter. First, our filters have higher response to low frequencies than the Gaussian filter. For this reason, it passes some of the details in the image more than Gaussian filter. Second, they also have higher responses in very high frequencies. This helps our filters to preserve edges more than the Gaussian filter.

Quantitative Analysis. We pick the ConvNet in (Angelova et al., 2015) for detecting pedestrians and the ConvNet in (Aghdam et al., 2015) for classification of traffic signs. First, these ConvNets are trained on the GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrians datasets. Then, we connect our learned restoration filters to these ConvNets and fine-tune them for one epoch on the original dataset (we do not augment the dataset with noisy images). Then, the ConvNets are tested using noisy test sets. We repeat this procedure (fine tuning the classification ConvNets) on Gaussian, median and bilateral filtering as well.

The noisy test sets are created by generating 1050 Gaussian noise pattern with \(\sigma \in \{0.3, 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10\}\) for each sample (150 images per each value of \(\sigma\)). Then, we feed these noisy samples to the above ConvNets (after connecting our layer to these ConvNets) and compute the accuracy. To generate the same noisy samples for all methods in our experiment, we always seed the random number generator with a fixed value. Table 1 and Table 2 show the results on the GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrian datasets.

We observe that adding a Gaussian or a median3x3 layer to the GTSRB ConvNet increases the classification accuracy of the ConvNet on clean images. This is due to the fact that some of the test samples might be noisy for the reasons we discussed in Section 3. The Gaussian layer helps to deal with this kind of noise and consequently it increases the accuracy of the ConvNet on clean samples. Similarly, median3x3 and bilateral1 filtering increases the accuracy of the Caltech-Pedestrian ConvNet on clean samples compared with the original ConvNet. However, while Gaussian filtering works well on the GTSRB dataset it does not increase the accuracy on the Caltech-Pedestrian dataset. Likewise, bilateral filtering improves the accuracy on the Caltech-Pedestrian
Notwithstanding, the filters learned by our method produce the most accurate results on both datasets. In addition, our layer produce a ConvNet with highest stability against noise compared with approaches with similar computational complexity. In fact, the computational complexity of our layer is identical to the Gaussian 5x5 and its less than bilateral and median filtering approaches.

**Analyzing Results.** Figure 6 illustrates some of the samples that are classified incorrectly by the original ConvNet but they are classified correctly after being smoothed by our method. The original image inside
the green rectangle is degraded by shadow. Our layer filters the edges of the object and reduces the effect of shadow on the edges. The background of the image inside the red rectangle is smoothed by the layer. Edges in the original image inside the yellow rectangle has Bayer like pattern because of excessive lightening in the background. This effect is reduced by our filter. Finally, a general filtering is applied on the image inside the blue rectangle and makes it smoother. In sum, our method increases the accuracy by improving degraded edges and smoothing background noise.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a lightweight approach for increasing stability of ConvNets. Our method trains a ReLU layer containing 3 channel-wise filters. We proposed a new objective function consisting of the sum of square error penalized by the Lipschitz constant of the filters. We showed that the Lipschitz constant in this particular configuration act as an adaptive $L_2$ regularizer. Our experiments on the GTSRB and the Caltech-Pedestrian datasets shows that this approach increases the accuracy of the original ConvNets on the clean test sets. Using our approach, the stability of ConvNets increases while the computational cost of our layer is negligible. Besides, since it is a modular approach, we do not need to train a large ConvNet using thousands of noisy samples to increase the stability. Rather, we train the classification ConvNet on the clean dataset. Then, we train our restoration layer on the noisy training set. Finally, the classification ConvNet is fine-tune for one epoch using the clean training set. This approach is very af-
fordable in terms of time and computation resources.

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