

Efficient Multi-Tenant Inference on Video using Microclassifiers

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1 INTRODUCTION

This paper addresses a growing challenge in processing video: The scaling challenge presented by the combination of an increasing number of video sources (cameras) and an increasing number of heavy-weight DNN-based applications (which we term “queries”) to be run on each source. As a running example, we draw from an environmental and traffic monitoring deployment at CMU, one feed from which is depicted at right. This feed supports applications such as car and pedestrian counting, open parking spot detection, train detection (in support of an environmental monitoring research project attempting to determine locomotive emissions), and observing if building lights are left on. These cameras are deployed using a mix of the high-speed campus network, and a lower-speed/higher-cost cable modem deployment on power poles in the area.

Cost constraints motivate us to be parsimonious with bandwidth on the wide-area deployment (and planned future wirelessly-connected nodes), and, in general, of our CPU/GPU processing budgets. The high cost of truck rolls to install and upgrade nodes motivates us to put multiple state-of-the-art 4K vision cameras on the nodes to flexibly support future applications, but we lack the bandwidth to backhaul the full feeds. At the same time, both current and future applications may wish to run one or more state-of-the-art DNNs to perform image classification [6, 17], object detection [7, 13, 14], and video understanding [3, 19].

In this paper, we assume that cameras are fixed (e.g., traffic monitoring). Most applications are interested in possibly-overlapping *subsequences* of frames (e.g., frames containing cars, or trains, or with people moving), and can express a notion of that importance using a *query*. Frames that match a query are sent back to the datacenter for further processing. Each application defines its own queries and submits them to the edge node. Our system is responsible for efficiently executing a multitude of queries at the edge node with low false positives (to avoid wasting resources) and low false negatives (to preserve application fidelity).

While an abstract query could be a black-box DNN that takes a frame as input and outputs a binary forward/discard decision, such an approach scales poorly as the number of queries executed on each stream grows. Instead, we develop an idea called *microclassifiers*, which are small classifiers taking as input a subset of the activations of a known, standard convolutional neural network (such as MobileNet [5]). Each query is represented using a unique microclassifier, which specifies both its own internal DNN structure, as well as identifying which (small) subset of the reference CNN activations it accepts as input. Microclassifiers enable an edge node to serve tens of queries or more with high accuracy by amortizing the cost of the CNN activations, adding only a small cost per query.

Dataset. We evaluate the microclassifier approach on a novel dataset containing 83.5 hours of footage from a camera overlooking train tracks, sampled at 1fps, for a total of 290,758 frames, as shown



Figure 1: Regions A and B, corresponding to the *Train* and *Car* datasets respectively.

in Figure 1. We use the first 100,000 frames as a training set and the remainder as the test set. We created two sets of labeled data by annotating frames in which (a) a train appears in Region A (the *Train* dataset); and (b) a car appears in Region B (the *Car* dataset). There are 2,777 frames that contain images of 21 different trains, and 16,070 frames that contain images of 1296 different vehicles. Our goal is for this dataset to be a simple yet representative example of a typical traffic monitoring workload.

2 SCALABLE VIDEO QUERIES AT THE EDGE

Transfer Learning Doesn’t Work Well. In our preliminary evaluations, traditional transfer learning—fine-tuning the last n layers of a CNN—yielded poor results [Table 2]. There are two contributing factors. First, the frames (and by extension, the features) from a fixed-view camera are generally quite similar, which makes it easy for a fine-tuned MobileNet to overfit (as evidenced by fast training convergence and poor test results). Second, because many events in this setting occur in a spatially constrained part of the frame, globally pooled features have weak discriminative ability. Cropping the image to cover only the spatially relevant portion is not scalable nor sufficiently general because cropping (a) cannot handle non-rectangular inputs, (b) distorts non-square inputs, and (c) requires the network to be run separately for each image crop.

Use Shared CNN Feature Maps Instead. CNNs trained on image classification tasks produce nonlinear hierarchical features that offer a trade-off between spatial localization and semantic information. Selective processing of these features has been used successfully in tasks such as object region proposals, segmentation, and tracking [2, 4, 10, 14], as well as video action classification [16]. Our approach uses a single pretrained CNN that runs on every frame in a multi-task fashion. We allow all of our query models

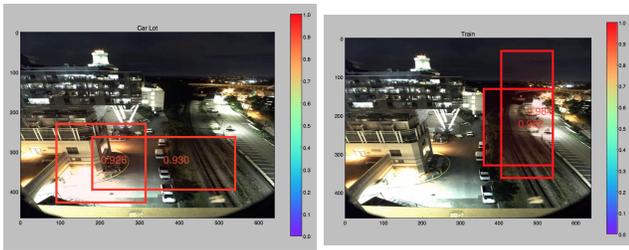


Figure 2: *Car* and *Train* feature crops with highest ROC AUC scores overlaid on the original image.

(described below) to share the entire CNN feature hierarchy. Doing so gives each model flexibility to choose its degree of spatial localization and enables a single resource-constrained edge node to run more application queries.

For our experiments, we use feature maps from MobileNet-224 [5] trained on ImageNet [15]. MobileNet layers are referred using the layer names of the Caffe port [11]. While MobileNet features were sufficient for the tasks that we investigated, we plan to consider training a CNN on multiple tasks to obtain feature maps that generalize better across many domains.

Input Selection Beats Microclassifier Structure. Our results show that the flexibility for a microclassifier to draw from arbitrary activations from the reference CNN is more important to their accuracy than the exact structure of the microclassifier. Table 3 shows that both SVMs, KNN, and simple multilayer perceptrons (MLP)s perform well when using a well-chosen feature map from one internal layer of MobileNets. Both the linear SVM and MLP are comparatively cheap to execute (about 10K multiply-adds dot product for the SVM, and the MLP requiring about 2M multiply/adds).

In contrast, the choice of reference network activations (feature sets) has a much larger effect. Table 1 shows the effect of using different layers and crops of layers from MobileNet as input to the microclassifier.

As shown above, basic transfer learning (which uses the last pooling layer as its feature set) performs particularly poorly. Choosing the best random crops of conv6/sep and conv5_6/sep (the last and second-to-last feature maps) yielded better results but was not significantly better than using a cropped image’s pool6 features. We obtained much better FP and FN rates using the best crops of an earlier layer of the network (conv4_2/sep) [Figure 2].

As expected, the best performing crops came from regions that overlapped with the event regions. These results are somewhat intuitive for the spatially-segregated tasks we evaluated, but the order of magnitude of the improvement was large, and, we believe, particularly applicable for the monitoring applications we consider.

Automated Feature Search. Given that a key feature of microclassifiers is their flexibility to draw from internal activations in a reference CNN, how can we “train” a microclassifier such that it does so effectively?

As a proof-of-concept, we implemented a search procedure that randomly samples and evaluates crops of a given feature map as a first step towards a more general automated solution. (Random search is competitive baseline for hyperparameter optimization [1].) Our procedure first samples (in normalized coordinates between 0 and 1) the center of the crop box from a truncated Gaussian

Task	Features	Accuracy (%)	FP (%)	FN (%)
car	pool6	66.41	34.36	21.42
car	pool6 (cropped image)	74.42	26.64	8.72
car	conv4_2/sep (2:6, 7:12)	85.37	14.73	13.04
train	pool6	98.04	1.26	65.27
train	pool6 (cropped image)	97.75	2.06	19.57
train	conv4_2/sep (9:10, 4:12)	98.84	1.07	9.47

Table 1: A comparison of 2-layer MLP microclassifier accuracy across different feature sets. Feature map crop notation is given by (x_start:x_end, y_start:y_end), end coordinates are inclusive.

Setup	Iterations	Accuracy (%)	FP (%)	FN (%)
From scratch	100	51.56	51.05	44.98
Fine tune last 2 layers	100	74.23	25.52	48.89
Fine tune last layer	100	84.37	14.53	57.25

Table 2: Transfer learning results using MobileNet-224 on the *Train* dataset. On all three setups, the training loss had already converged after 100 training iterations.

Classifier	Accuracy (%)	FP (%)	FN (%)
Linear SVM (C=1e-3)	99.76	0.009	21.49
Linear SVM (C=1)	97.47	2.448	10.00
Linear SVM (C=1 cost class balance=0.1:1)	98.20	1.715	9.47
KNN (k=10, >= 2 positive examples)	99.50	0.104	36.38
2-layer MLP (200 hidden units, ReLU activation)	99.75	0.141	10.48

Table 3: Microclassifier architecture accuracies on the *Train* dataset using the optimal feature crop as input.

with mean 0.5, standard deviation 0.2, and range [0.1, 0.9]. The box dimensions are then (independently) sampled from a second truncated Gaussian with mean 0, standard deviation 0.2, and range [0.1, 0.5] (out of range box coordinates are clipped to the edges of the image). This results in crops of intermediate size that tend towards the center.

While this basic search shows that the general technique is feasible, we plan several improvements upon this basic procedure: First, rather than flattening the input features and thus discarding its spatial relationships, can we pass them directly into CNN microclassifiers with learned attention mechanisms [18] that can use those relationships? In addition, because the events we are interested in generally consist of a short, contiguous collection of frames, we may also consider creating microclassifiers that operate across multiple frames, and capture interesting video segments rather than just individual frames.

Second, we plan to broaden the scope of the feature search to cover non-contiguous parts of the feature map and to pull from multiple layers simultaneously. We would also like to explore better feature selection strategies. Some mechanisms for accomplishing the former include introducing regularization that encourages block-sparsity [8, 12] or devising an evolutionary procedure that effectively searches the feature space. Another way of exploring the feature space could involve asking the user to specify the regions of interest in the image and then using the network’s receptive field [9] to create a sampling distribution.

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