eISSN: 3087-4262

Volume. 02, Issue. 03, pp. 01-07, March 2025



# BRIDGING DEEP LEARNING AND ADAPTIVE SYSTEMS: A PERFORMANCE STUDY ON CIFAR-10 IMAGE CLASSIFICATION

### Dr. Hannah Brown

School of Computing and Information Systems, University of Melbourne, Australia

### Ahmed Al-Farsi

College of Information Technology, Sultan Qaboos University, Oman

Article received: 27/01/2025, Article Accepted: 19/02/2025, Article Published: 08/03/2025

**DOI:** https://doi.org/10.55640/ijidml-v02i03-01

© 2025 Authors retain the copyright of their manuscripts, and all Open Access articles are disseminated under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 (CC-BY), which licenses unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided that the original work is appropriately cited.

### **ABSTRACT**

Image classification is a fundamental task in computer vision, with applications spanning from medical diagnostics to autonomous driving. This study presents a comparative analysis of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and a representative adaptive system approach, specifically K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), for image classification on the CIFAR-10 dataset. CNNs, known for their hierarchical feature learning capabilities, have revolutionized the field, while adaptive systems like KNN represent a class of algorithms that dynamically adjust their decision boundaries based on data relationships. The CIFAR-10 dataset, comprising 60,000 32x32 color images across 10 classes, serves as the benchmark [1]. Our methodology involves training a custom CNN architecture and applying KNN, with careful consideration of preprocessing and hyperparameter tuning for both models. Performance is evaluated using accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score. Experimental results indicate that CNNs significantly outperform the KNN approach on this dataset, demonstrating their superior ability to extract and learn complex, invariant features from raw image data. This research highlights the inherent strengths of deep learning architectures in handling the intricacies of visual data while also providing insights into the characteristics where simpler adaptive systems might fall short or excel.

## **KEYWORDS**

Deep learning, Adaptive systems, Image classification, CIFAR-10, Convolutional neural networks, Model performance, Machine learning, Dynamic architectures, Computer vision, Neural network optimization.

### INTRODUCTION

The rapid advancement of artificial intelligence (AI) has profoundly impacted various scientific and engineering disciplines, none more so than computer vision. A core challenge in computer vision is image classification, which involves assigning a label to an image based on its content. This task is crucial for applications ranging from facial recognition and object detection to medical image analysis and autonomous navigation systems [9, 14, 23]. The complexity of real-world images, characterized by variations in pose, lighting, scale, and background clutter, necessitates robust and intelligent classification methodologies [22].

Historically, image classification relied on handcrafted features combined with traditional machine learning algorithms. However, the advent of deep learning, particularly Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), marked a paradigm shift [2]. CNNs have demonstrated unprecedented performance in various visual recognition tasks due to their unique ability to automatically learn hierarchical features directly from raw pixel data, negating the need for manual feature engineering [4, 7, 8]. This data-driven approach, inspired by the structure of the human visual cortex, enables CNNs to capture intricate patterns and representations across different levels of abstraction within an image [17]. Notable breakthroughs, such as the AlexNet model's performance on ImageNet, solidified CNNs' position as the state-ofthe-art in image classification [2, 7, 8]. Subsequent advancements in CNN architectures, including the introduction of regularization techniques like dropout

[11], have further enhanced their generalization capabilities and robustness.

Concurrently, other methodologies, broadly termed "adaptive systems" in this context, have long been employed in pattern recognition and machine learning. These systems, often inspired by principles of control theory and biological adaptation, focus on dynamic adjustment and feedback mechanisms to classify data. Unlike the end-to-end, feed-forward learning typical of many deep CNNs, some adaptive systems might involve explicit feature spaces and decision rules that adapt based on local data distributions or predefined metrics. For instance, methods like K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) adaptively classify new data points based on their proximity to existing labeled examples, representing a localized form of adaptation in decision-making [20]. While not explicitly "cybernetic" in the classical sense, these approaches embody principles of self-organization and responsive decision-making that align with the broader concept of adaptive systems, distinguishing them from the highly structured, deep hierarchies of CNNs.

The CIFAR-10 dataset is a widely recognized benchmark for evaluating image classification algorithms [1]. It consists of 60,000 tiny (32×32) color images categorized into 10 distinct classes (e.g., airplane, automobile, bird, cat, dog, deer, frog, horse, ship, truck). Its relatively small image size yet diverse content makes it an ideal dataset for evaluating the efficacy of various machine learning models, especially deep learning architectures [5, 19]. The dataset's characteristics present a significant challenge for traditional methods while serving as a proving ground for the feature learning capabilities of CNNs.

This study aims to conduct a comparative investigation into the performance of Convolutional Neural Networks and a representative adaptive system approach, K-Nearest Neighbors, for image classification on the CIFAR-10 dataset. By systematically evaluating both methodologies under controlled conditions, we seek to quantify their respective strengths and weaknesses, offering insights into their suitability for real-world image recognition tasks. The subsequent sections detail the dataset, the specific architectural choices and experimental setups for both approaches, the empirical results obtained, and a discussion of their implications, leading to a conclusive summary of our findings.

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1. Dataset

The CIFAR-10 dataset was utilized for this comparative study [1]. It consists of 60,000 32×32 color images, with 6,000 images per class across 10 distinct classes: airplane, automobile, bird, cat, deer, dog, frog, horse, ship, and truck. The dataset is divided into 50,000

training images and 10,000 test images. All images are in the RGB color format. The relatively low resolution of the images, combined with the inter-class similarities (e.g., distinguishing between a cat and a dog), presents a non-trivial challenge for classification algorithms.

Prior to model training and evaluation, the following preprocessing steps were applied to the dataset:

Pixel Normalization: Image pixel values, originally in the range [0, 255], were scaled to the range [0, 1] by dividing each pixel value by 255. This normalization step is crucial for optimizing the performance of neural networks, as it helps in faster convergence during training.

Data Augmentation (for CNN only): To enhance the generalization capability of the CNN model and reduce overfitting, standard data augmentation techniques were applied to the training set. These included random horizontal flips and random shifts of image pixels. This process artificially expands the training dataset, exposing the model to a wider variety of image orientations and positions [11, 18].

## 2.2. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) Approach

The CNN architecture employed in this study was designed to be representative of typical deep learning models used for image classification, balancing complexity with computational feasibility on standard hardware. The architecture consisted of multiple convolutional layers followed by pooling layers, culminating in fully connected layers for classification. This structure is known for its effectiveness in automatically learning hierarchical feature representations from raw pixel data, from low-level features like edges and textures to high-level semantic concepts [2, 4, 7, 8].

The specific CNN architecture used is detailed below:

Input Layer: 32×32×3 (width, height, channels).

Convolutional Block 1:

Conv2D layer with 32 filters, 3×3 kernel size, 'relu' activation, 'same' padding.

Conv2D layer with 32 filters, 3×3 kernel size, 'relu' activation, 'same' padding.

MaxPooling2D layer with  $2\times2$  pool size.

Dropout layer with a rate of 0.25 [11].

Convolutional Block 2:

Conv2D layer with 64 filters, 3×3 kernel size, 'relu' activation, 'same' padding.

Conv2D layer with 64 filters, 3×3 kernel size, 'relu' activation, 'same' padding.

MaxPooling2D layer with  $2\times2$  pool size.

Dropout layer with a rate of 0.25.

Flatten Layer: Flattens the 2D feature maps into a 1D vector to be fed into the fully connected layers.

Fully Connected Block:

Dense layer with 512 units, 'relu' activation.

Dropout layer with a rate of 0.5.

Output Layer:

Dense layer with 10 units (for 10 classes), 'softmax' activation.

The model was compiled using the Adam optimizer, which is an adaptive learning rate optimization algorithm known for its efficiency and good performance in practice. The loss function used was 'categorical cross-entropy', suitable for multi-class classification problems. The model was trained for 100 epochs with a batch size of 64. Early stopping was implemented to prevent overfitting, monitoring validation loss with a patience of 10 epochs.

## 2.3. Adaptive System Approach: K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

For the "adaptive system" comparison, K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) was chosen. KNN is a non-parametric, lazy learning algorithm that classifies a new data point based on the majority class of its 'k' nearest neighbors in the feature space [20]. While not a deep learning model, KNN embodies an adaptive system principle in that its classification decision for a new input dynamically adjusts based on the local distribution of its surrounding data points in the training set. This contrasts with CNNs, which learn a fixed set of features and weights during training.

Given the raw  $32\times32\times3$  pixel input, each image was flattened into a 3072-dimensional vector ( $32\times32\times3=3072$ ). These pixel intensity values served as features for the KNN algorithm. The Euclidean distance metric was used to determine the 'nearest' neighbors.

The primary hyperparameter for KNN is 'k', the number of neighbors to consider. A critical step involved hyperparameter tuning to find the optimal 'k' value for the CIFAR-10 dataset. This was performed using a cross-validation strategy on a subset of the training data. Based on preliminary experiments, k=5 was selected as it yielded the best balance between bias and variance for this dataset.

KNN was applied directly to the flattened pixel data. No complex feature engineering or deep feature extraction was performed for KNN, allowing for a direct comparison of its inherent adaptive classification capability against the learned features of the CNN.

## 2.4. Experimental Setup

All experiments were conducted on a system equipped with an NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3070 GPU, an Intel Core i7-11700K CPU, and 32GB of RAM. The software environment included Python 3.9, TensorFlow 2.x (with Keras API), and scikit-learn. The use of GPU acceleration was critical for the efficient training of the CNN model, given its computational intensity [6]. For the KNN implementation, scikit-learn's KNeighborsClassifier was utilized. The entire process, from data loading and preprocessing to model training, evaluation, and result aggregation, was automated using custom Python scripts.

### 2.5. Evaluation Metrics

To provide a comprehensive assessment of model performance, the following metrics were used for both the CNN and KNN approaches:

Accuracy: The proportion of correctly classified images out of the total number of images. This is the most straightforward metric.

Precision (Macro-averaged): The ratio of true positive predictions to the total positive predictions for each class, averaged across all classes. This indicates the model's ability to avoid false positives.

Recall (Macro-averaged): The ratio of true positive predictions to the total actual positives for each class, averaged across all classes. This indicates the model's ability to find all relevant instances (avoid false negatives).

F1-Score (Macro-averaged): The harmonic mean of precision and recall. It provides a single score that balances both precision and recall, particularly useful when there is an uneven class distribution, though CIFAR-10 is balanced.

These metrics were calculated on the unseen 10,000 images of the test dataset to ensure an unbiased evaluation of generalization performance.

### 3. RESULTS

The comparative analysis of the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and the K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) model on the CIFAR-10 dataset yielded distinct performance profiles, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Performance Comparison of CNN and KNN on CIFAR-10 Test Dataset

Model	Accuracy	Precision (Macro-	Recall (Macro-	F1-Score
	(%)	Avg)	Avg)	(Macro-Avg)
Convolutional Neural	82.15	0.81	0.82	0.81
Network (CNN)				
K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)	33.05	0.31	0.33	0.32

As evidenced by Table 1, the Convolutional Neural Network significantly outperformed the K-Nearest Neighbors approach across all evaluated metrics. The CNN achieved an accuracy of 82.15%, indicating that it correctly classified over 82% of the images in the test set. Its macro-averaged precision, recall, and F1-score were consistently high, at 0.81, 0.82, and 0.81 respectively, demonstrating its robust performance across all 10 classes of the CIFAR-10 dataset. This performance is consistent with the state-of-the-art results typically achieved by deep learning models on this benchmark [24].

In stark contrast, the K-Nearest Neighbors model, despite careful hyperparameter tuning (k=5), achieved a substantially lower accuracy of 33.05%. The macroaveraged precision, recall, and F1-score for KNN were also considerably lower, hovering around 0.31 to 0.33. This indicates that KNN struggled significantly with the complexities of image classification on the CIFAR-10 dataset when raw pixel values were used as features.

The training process for the CNN model also provided insights into its learning dynamics. Figure 1 illustrates the training and validation accuracy and loss curves over 100 epochs.

Figure 1 shows that the CNN model's training accuracy steadily increased while the training loss decreased, indicating effective learning. The validation accuracy generally followed the training accuracy, with a slight gap emerging towards the later epochs, suggesting some degree of overfitting, although this was mitigated by dropout and early stopping. The validation loss also mirrored the training loss, showing convergence. The point where validation loss began to plateau or slightly increase was typically where early stopping would activate, ensuring the model's generalization capabilities were preserved.

The significant performance disparity highlights the inherent advantages of deep learning architectures, particularly CNNs, in tasks involving complex, high-dimensional data like images. Their ability to automatically learn features and representations directly from data proved to be a critical factor in achieving superior classification performance compared to a more

traditional adaptive system like KNN, which relies on direct similarity measures in a high-dimensional raw pixel space.

### 4. DISCUSSION

The results of this comparative study unequivocally demonstrate the superior performance of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) over the K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) approach for image classification on the CIFAR-10 dataset. The accuracy margin of over 49 percentage points in favor of the CNN underscores the transformative impact of deep learning in computer vision [2, 7, 8].

The primary reason for the CNN's exceptional performance lies in its architectural design, specifically its ability to perform automatic feature extraction and hierarchical learning [4, 15]. Unlike traditional algorithms where features are often handcrafted or manually engineered, CNNs learn to identify relevant patterns and representations directly from the raw pixel data through successive convolutional layers [17]. These layers progressively extract more abstract and semantic features, from simple edges and textures in the initial layers to complex object parts and complete object representations in deeper layers [10, 21]. This inherent capability to learn robust, invariant features—features that are stable despite variations in image translation, rotation, and scaling—is crucial for handling the diversity present in datasets like CIFAR-10 [3]. The pooling layers further contribute to this invariance by down-sampling the feature maps, making the learned features less sensitive to precise object locations [22]. Moreover, regularization techniques like dropout, applied in the CNN model, are vital for preventing coadaptation of feature detectors and improving generalization, a concept first highlighted by Hinton et al. [11].

In contrast, the K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) algorithm, while representing an adaptive system due to its localized and responsive classification based on data proximity [20], faced significant challenges when applied directly to the high-dimensional raw pixel data of CIFAR-10. Each image, when flattened, becomes a vector of 3072 dimensions. In such high-dimensional spaces, the concept of "distance" becomes less meaningful, a

phenomenon often referred to as the "curse of dimensionality." Data points, even if conceptually similar, can be numerically far apart, leading to diluted density and unreliable distance calculations. This means that even images of the same class can appear "distant" from each other in the raw pixel space due to slight variations in lighting, pose, or background, which KNN struggles to account for without sophisticated feature engineering [16]. For KNN to perform competitively in image classification, it typically requires a powerful feature extractor that can transform the raw image into a lower-dimensional, semantically rich representation, effectively overcoming the limitations of pixel-level similarity [5]. Our approach did not include such feature extraction for KNN, providing a direct comparison of its inherent classification mechanism with that of a featurelearning CNN.

The implications of these findings are substantial. For complex tasks involving visual data, deep learning architectures, particularly CNNs, are demonstrably more effective due to their end-to-end learning capabilities and ability to model intricate data distributions [12]. The computational cost and data requirements of CNNs, though significant, are often justified by their superior performance. For instance, achieving high accuracy on datasets like CIFAR-10 often requires substantial computational resources for training, as highlighted by the need for GPU acceleration in our setup [6]. The CNN's performance aligns with contemporary research showcasing the dominance of deep learning in image recognition benchmarks [24].

While KNN might be simpler to implement and interpret for low-dimensional or well-separated datasets, its scalability and performance diminish rapidly with increasing data complexity and dimensionality. The study underscores that "adaptive systems" relying purely on distance metrics in raw feature space are ill-equipped to handle the nuances of natural images without preprocessed, semantically meaningful features. Future work could explore hybrid approaches, where a pretrained CNN acts as a feature extractor, and the extracted features are then fed into adaptive systems like KNN or Support Vector Machines (SVMs). This could potentially combine the strengths of deep feature learning with the specific adaptive decision-making mechanisms of other algorithms [13]. Further research might also investigate more sophisticated cybernetic models that explicitly incorporate feedback loops and control mechanisms for learning and adaptation in a manner that complements or enhances deep learning architectures [25]. The rise of low-code and no-code platforms, as noted in recent literature, also hints at simplifying the deployment of such complex models, making deep learning more accessible [26].

## 5. CONCLUSION

This comparative study rigorously evaluated the performance of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) for image classification on the CIFAR-10 dataset. The experimental results unequivocally demonstrate that the CNN model achieved significantly higher accuracy and robust performance across all metrics (precision, recall, F1-score) compared to the KNN approach. This substantial difference in performance highlights the profound advantage of CNNs in their ability to automatically learn hierarchical, invariant features directly from raw image data, a critical capability for handling the high dimensionality and inherent variability of natural images. While KNN represents a class of adaptive systems that make localized decisions, its reliance on raw pixel similarity proved inadequate for the complex feature landscape of CIFAR-10. Our findings reinforce the current paradigm in computer vision, where deep learning architectures, particularly CNNs, are the preferred solution for advanced image recognition tasks. Future research will explore hybrid models and more sophisticated adaptive control systems integrated with deep learning to potentially harness the complementary strengths of both paradigms.

### **REFERENCES**

- [1] The CIFAR-10 dataset, https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~kriz/cifar.html
- [2] Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I. and Hinton, G. E., ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks NIPS 2012: Neural Information Processing Systems, Lake Tahoe, Nevada
- [3] Hinton, G. E., Krizhevsky, A., & Wang, S. (2011). Transforming auto-encoders. In International Conference on Artificial Neural Networks. Helsinki, Finland.
- [4] Sharma, N., Jain, V., & Mishra, A. (2018). An analysis of convolutional neural networks for image classification. In International Conference on Computational Intelligence and Data Science (ICCIDS 2018). Procedia Computer Science, 132, 377-384.
- [5] Brownlee, J. (2019). How to develop a CNN from scratch for CIFAR-10 photo classification
- [6] Yang, L., He, Z., & Fan, D. (2018). A fully on-chip binarized convolutional neural network FPGA implementation with accurate inference. In Proceedings of the International Symposium on Low Power Electronics and Design (ISLPED '18) (pp. 50-55). July, 2018. doi: 10.1145/3218603.3218615.
- [7] Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I., & Hinton, G. E. (2012). ImageNet classification with deep convolutional Neural Networks. In Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems

- (NIPS 2012), (pp. 1097-1105). Lake Tahoe, Nevada, USA.
- [8] Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I., & Hinton, G. E. (2017). ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. Communications of the ACM, 60(6), 84-90. doi: 10.1145/3065386.
- [9] Mukta Jagdish, E.R. Aruna, Gaddam Hrithik Goud, Tejashwini Gundlapally, Katteboina Sai Charan Tej, Digital Method to Talk with Machine Using Image Processing and Machine Learning Techniques, International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering and Technology (IJARET), 13(8), 2022, pp. 18-26. doi: https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/B2MXH
- [10] Fei-Fei, L., Fergus, R., & Perona, P. (2007). Learning generative visual models from few training examples: An incremental Bayesian approach tested on 101 object categories. Computer Vision and Image Understanding, 106(1), 59-70.
- [11] Hinton, G. E., Srivastava, N., Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I., & Salakhutdinov, R. (2013). Improving neural networks by preventing co-adaptation of feature detectors. In Proceedings of the 30th International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML 2013), (pp. 1-9). Atlanta, Georgia, USA
- [12] Fang, U., Li, J., Lu, X., Mian, A., & Gu, Z. (2023). Robust image clustering via context-aware contrastive graph learning. Pattern Recognition, 138, 109340. doi: 10.1016/j.patcog.2023.109340.
- [13] S. Balasubramanian, SQuAD 2.0: A Comprehensive Overview of the Dataset and Its Significance in Question Answering Research, International Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research and Development (IJAIRD), 1(1), 2023, pp. 1-14 doi: https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/ENKPH
- [14] Mukta Jagdish, E.R. Aruna, Gaddam Hrithik Goud, Tejashwini Gundlapally, Katteboina Sai Charan Tej, Digital Method to Talk with Machine Using Image Processing and Machine Learning Techniques, International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering and Technology (IJARET), 13(8), 2022, pp. 18-26. doi: https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/B2MXH
- [15] P Manjula and R Kalaivani, Processing of Medical Images from Large Datasets using Convolutional Neural Network, International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering and Technology (IJARET), 12(3), 2021, pp. 922-927 doi: https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/9SCV7
- [16] K K Ramachandran, Predicting Supermarket Sales with Big Data Analytics: A Comparative Study of Machine Learning Techniques, International Journal of Data Analytics (IJDA), 1(1), 2023, pp. 1-11 doi:

- https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/UTNMW
- [17] Mayank R. Kapadia and Chirag N. Paunwala, Multi-Channel Convolution Neural Network for Accurate CBMIR System with Reduced Semantic Gap, International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering and Technology, 12(1), 2021, pp. 159-172. doi: 10.34218/IJARET.12.1.2021.013
- [18] Buda, M., Maki, A., & Mazurowski, M. A. (2018). A systematic study of the class imbalance problem in convolutional neural networks. Neural Networks, 106, 249-259.
- [19] Adiwangsa, M. (2018). Classification of Images from the CIFAR10 Dataset: A Deep Learning Approach Using Convolutional Neural Networks. http://users.cecs.anu.edu.au/~Tom.Gedeon/conf/ABCs2 018/paper/ABCs2018\_paper\_124.pdf
- [20] Abouelnaga, Y., Girgis, M., & Elsharnoby, M. (2016). CIFAR-10: KNN-Based Ensemble of Classifiers. 2016 International Conference on Computational Science and Computational Intelligence (CSCI), 1192-1195. doi: 10.1109/CSCI.2016.0107
- [21] Majumdar, S., & Jain, I. (2016). Deep Columnar Convolutional Neural Network. International Journal of Computer Applications, 145(12), 25-32.
- [22] Lecun, Y., Huang, F. J., & Bottou, L. (2004). Learning methods for generic object recognition with invariance to pose and lighting. In Proceedings of the 2004 IEEE Computer Society Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2004. CVPR 2004 (Vol. 2, pp. II-97). IEEE.
- [23] Mukta Jagdish, E.R. Aruna, Gaddam Hrithik Goud, Tejashwini Gundlapally, Katteboina Sai Charan Tej, Digital Method to Talk with Machine Using Image Processing and Machine Learning Techniques, International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering and Technology (IJARET), 13(8), 2022, pp. 18-26. doi: https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/B2MXH
- [24] PapersWithCode. (2023). Image Classification on CIFAR-10 SOTA. Retrieved May 5, 2022, from https://paperswithcode.com/sota/image-classification-on-cifar-10
- [25] Melnik, E.V., Klimenko, A.B. (2020). A Peer-to-Peer Crowdsourcing Platform for the Labeled Datasets Forming. In: Silhavy, R. (eds) Applied Informatics and Cybernetics in Intelligent Systems. CSOC 2020. Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing, vol 1226. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-51974-2\_9
- [26] Rohit Khankhoje, "Beyond Coding: A

Comprehensive Study of Low-Code, No-Code and Traditional Automation," Journal of Artificial Intelligence & Cloud Computing, vol. 1, no. 4, pp. 1-5, 2022. DOI: 10.47363/JAICC/2022(1)148.