



## **Square Jigsaw Puzzle Solver Literature Review**

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- “Jigsaw Puzzle Problem”
  - **Problem Statement:** Reconstruct an image from a set of image patches
  - **Problem Complexity:** NP-Complete (via the set partition problem) when pairwise affinity of pieces is unreliable [1]
- **Problem Formulation:** Set of square, non-overlapping patches
  - This specific type of puzzle is known as “*jig swap*” [7] or “*Type 1*” puzzles [19]
  - *Type 2 Puzzles:* Allow/disallow patch rotation [19]
- **A Key Difference with Standard Jigsaw Puzzle Solving:** The source image you are trying to reconstruct is unknown.

# Square Jigsaw Puzzle Example



- Source image (left) is divided into 81 (9x9) uniform, square patches (center). The goal is to organize the patches to reconstruct the source image (right).

- Possible and existing applications of the jigsaw puzzle problem include:
  - **Computer Forensics:** Reconstructing deleted JPEG, block-based images [2]
  - **Document Investigation:** Reconstruct shredded documents [3]
  - **Bioinformatics:** DNA/RNA modelling and reconstruction [4]
  - **Archeology:** Reconstruction of damaged relics [5]
  - **Audio Processing:** Voice descrambling [6]

[9] proposes a list of additional variants to the jigsaw puzzle problem including:

- Missing piece(s)
- Extra piece(s)
- Unknown piece orientation (type 2 puzzle)
- Three dimensional puzzles
- Unknown puzzle dimension

- **Definition:** Quantifies the similarity/compatibility between two patches.
- Between two pieces  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ , there are 4 pairwise affinity values when rotation is not allowed and 16 when rotation is allowed.
- Metrics of particular interest in the literature are divided into two categories.
  - Boundary/Edge Based:
    - Normalized and Unnormalized Dissimilarity-based Compatibility
    - Prediction-based Compatibility
  - Statistical based using the entire patch and its statistical properties [14]

- Proposed in Cho *et. al.* [7]
- Uses the LAB (lightness, and a/b color opponent dimensions), which is three (3) dimensions.
- Given two patches  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  that are size  $K$  pixels by  $K$  pixels, then left-right ( $LR$ ) dissimilarity (where  $x_j$  is to the right of  $x_i$ ) is:

$$D_{LR}(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^3 (x_i(l, K, d) - x_j(l, 1, d))^2$$

Where  $x_m(r, c, d)$  is value for the pixel in row  $r$  and column  $c$  of patch  $x_m$  at dimension  $d$ .

- **Disadvantage of this Approach:**
  - Severely penalizes boundary differences between patches which *do* occur in actual images [10].
  - It is common that actual image does **not** the minimum dissimilarity. Hence, this “*better than perfect score*” where the solved solution has a lower score than the original is a type of overfitting [9].

- Proposed by Pomeranz *et. al.* in [10]. *Generalizes* the dissimilarity metric from [7] with the  $L_p$  norm.

$$D_{p,q}(x_i, x_j) = \left( \sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^3 |x_i(l, K, d) - x_j(l, 1, d)|^p \right)^{\frac{q}{p}}$$

Hence, [7]'s metric is essentially the  $(L_2)^2$  norm.

- While  $q$  has no effect on the patch pairwise classification accuracy, [10] observed it had an effect on their solver's performance



- The dissimilarity based approach measured the difference between two pieces.
  - Prediction based attempts to predict the boundary pixel value of the neighboring patch.
- **First-Order Example:**
  - Use the last two pixels of each patch to predict the neighboring piece's value.
  - Gradient between two right edge pixels for patch  $x_i$  in row  $l$  for dimension  $d$ :

$$x_i(l, K, d) - x_i(l, K - 1, d)$$

- Gradient between two left edge pixels for patch  $x_j$  row  $l$  for dimension  $d$ :

$$x_j(l, 1, d) - x_i(l, 2, d)$$

- The two pixel gradient can be combined with the dissimilarity-based compatibility as shown below for patch  $x_i$ 's right edge:

$$(x_i(l, K, d) - x_j(l, 1, d)) + (x_i(l, K, d) - x_i(l, K - 1, d))$$

which is equivalent to:

$$(2 * x_i(l, K, d) - x_i(l, K - 1, d)) - x_j(l, 1, d)$$

- If the  $(L_p)^q$  dissimilarity is used, the entire prediction based compatibility for the left-right boundary of  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  is:

$$\sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^3 \left( |(2 * x_i(l, K, d) - x_i(l, K - 1, d)) - x_j(l, 1, d)|^p + \left| (2 * x_j(l, 1, d) - x_j(l, 2, d)) - x_i(l, K, d) \right|^p \right)^{\frac{q}{p}}$$

- Advantage of this Approach:** Incorporates a predictor of the pairwise change which may help detect expected pixel pairwise differences.

- Pomeranz *et. al.* in [10] compared the accuracy of the three compatibility metrics on 20 images in a test dataset.
- Using the  $(L_p)^q$  norm resulted in a 7% to 10% improvement in selecting the correct neighbor.
- The impact of using the prediction-technique varied from no change up to a 3% improvement.

Puzzle Size	Dissimilarity-Based	$(L_{3/10})^{1/16}$	Prediction-Based
432 Patches	78%	86%	86%
540 Patches	76%	85%	88%
805 Patches	74%	84%	86%

**Comparison of Pairwise Similarity Metric Accuracy**

- The previous definitions of pairwise affinity have been symmetrically similar such that:

$$D(p_i, p_j, right) = D(p_j, p_i, left)$$

- [20] proposes using an asymmetric dissimilarity such that equality in the above equation does not hold.
- One sided,  $L_1$  version of Pomeranz *et. al.*'s prediction based distance as shown below:

$$D(x_i, x_j, right) = \sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{d=1}^3 \|(2 * x_i(l, K, d) - x_i(l, K - 1, d)) - x_j(l, 1, d)\|$$

- Three times faster due to the elimination of the exponent (80% of runtime is in distance calculations)
  - Additional speedup can be gained if when the asymmetric dissimilarity is sufficiently large (i.e. no chance of a pairing), the calculation is stopped and the distance set to infinity.
- Number of correct “best buddies” increased
- Number of incorrect decreased
- Using the benchmark in [17], the number of correctly solved puzzles increased from 25 to 37.

- **Summary:** Evaluate the performance of a jigsaw puzzle solver against the original (correct) image.
- Cho *et. al.* proposed three performance metrics:
  - *Direct Comparison Method:* Most naïve approach. The ratio of the number of patches in their correct locations versus the total number of patches.
    - *Disadvantage:* Susceptible to shifts
  - *Neighbor Comparison Method:* For each patch, calculate the fraction of the four neighbors that are correct. The total accuracy is the average neighbor accuracy of all patches.

**Definition:** Two patches are *best buddies* if they are more similar to each other on their respective sides than they are to any other pieces [10].

Hence, two patches,  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ , are said to be “best buddies” for a spatial relationship  $R$ . if and only if, two conditions hold:

$$\forall x_k \in \{Patches\}, C(x_i, x_j, R_1) \geq C(x_i, x_k, R_1)$$

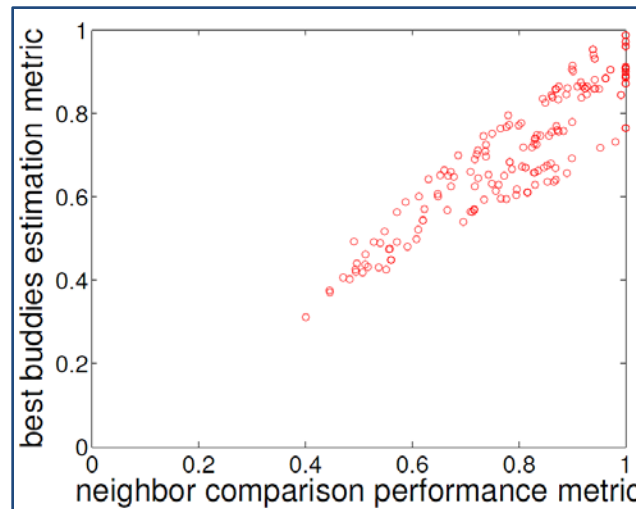
$$\forall x_k \in \{Patches\}, C(x_j, x_i, R_2) \geq C(x_j, x_k, R_2)$$

Where:

- $C(x_i, x_j, R_1)$  – Compatibility between patches  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  on side  $R_i$  of  $x_i$
- $\{Patches\}$  – Set of all patches in the puzzle
- $R_1$  – One of the four sides (e.g. top, bottom, left, right) of  $x_i$  where  $x_j$  will be placed assuming no rotation.
- $R_2$  - Given  $x_i$  and  $R_1$ , this represents the complementary side of  $x_j$ . For example if  $R_1$  is “left”, then  $R_2$  would be “right”

# “Best Buddies” Estimation Metric

- **Definition:** Ratio of the number of neighbors who are said to be “best buddies” to the total number of neighbors [10].
- Correlation between the “Best Buddies” Estimation Metric and Cho *et. al.*’s two performance metrics:
  - *Direct Comparison Metric:* Little to no correlation since direct comparison method is not based on pairwise accuracy.
  - *Neighbor Comparison Metric:* Stronger correlation Graph below is for 20 images tested 10 times each (for 200 total points)



Scatterplot of “Best Buddy” Metric  
versus Neighbor Comparison Metric



- Dynamic Programming and the “Hungarian” Procedure [13]
- Patch Transform using a Low Resolution “Solution Image” [8]
- “Dense and Noisy” or “Sparse and Accurate” with Loopy Belief Propagation [7]
- Particle Filter-Based Solver [11]
- Greedy Algorithm [10]
- Genetic Algorithm [9]
- **Variations of the Problem**
  - Unknown orientation (i.e. rotation) and puzzle dimensions [12]

- Introduced by Cho *et. al.* in [8]
- **Overview of the Patch Transform:** Segment a source image into a set of non-overlapping “patches” and rearrange these patches and reorganize the image in the “patch” domain.
  - *Intended Usage:* Image editing
- **“Inverse” Patch Transform:** Reconstruct an image from a set of patches. This requires two components:
  - A patch compatibility function
  - An algorithm that places all patches
- Uses a provided low resolution image as part of the patch placement algorithm.

- Use a Markov Random Field (MRF) to enforce three rules:
  - Adjacent pieces should fit plausibly together
  - A patch should “*never*” (or in the loosened case “*seldomly*”) be reused.
  - User constraints (e.g. board size) on patch placement.
- Consider each possible patch location as a node in the MRF. The key notation definitions:
  - $x_i$  – Undetermined state for the node  $i^{th}$  in the MRF.
  - $\psi_{i,j}(k, l)$  – Compatibility between patches  $k$  and  $l$  at adjacent MRF locations  $i$  and  $j$
  - $X$  – Vector of  $N$  determined patch indices,  $x_i$
  - $Y$  – Low resolution version of the original image.

For a given patch assignment  $X$ , the probability of that assignment is defined as:

$$P(X) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_i \phi_i(x_i) \prod_{j \in \zeta(i)} (\psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) * E(x))$$

- $i : i^{th}$  node in the MRF/board
- $N$  : Number of nodes in the MRF/board.
- $\phi_i(x_i)$ : User constraints (e.g. board size)
- $\psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j)$ : Patch to patch compatibility
- $\zeta(i)$  : Markov blanket of node  $i$
- $E(X)$  : Exclusion term that discourages patches being used more than once.
- $Z$  : Normalization term to ensure  $\int P(X) dX = 1$

- Maximizes the preceding probability function using loopy belief propagation.
- Susceptible to local maxima so random restarts may be performed.
- **Question:** What if I do not have access to a low resolution version of the original image? Can I make one or use a substitute?

- Proposed by Cho *et. al.* in [7] in 2010.
- **Review:** In Cho *et. al.*’s work in [8], they assumed access to a correct, low resolution version of the original image.
  - In many real world applications, such a low resolution image is not available.
- **Solution:** Estimate a low resolution image from a “bag of patches.” The simplified procedure is:
  - Creating a histogram of the bag of patches
  - “Estimate” a low resolution version by comparing the histogram to a set of  $K$  centroids with predefined low resolution images.

# “Dense and Noisy” Clustering and Histogram Generation

- **Training Set:** 8.5M patches from 15,000 images.
  - *Patch Size:* 7px by 7px by 3 (LAB) for 147 total, original dimensions. This dimensionality is reduced via PCA.
- **Clustering the Patches**
  - *Step #1:* Cluster each image's patches into  $L$  (e.g. 20) centroids.
  - *Step #2:* Re-cluster  $L$  centroids from all images into  $N$  (e.g. 200) centroids.
- **Creating the Histogram:** For a given image, assign each patch to its closest centroid.

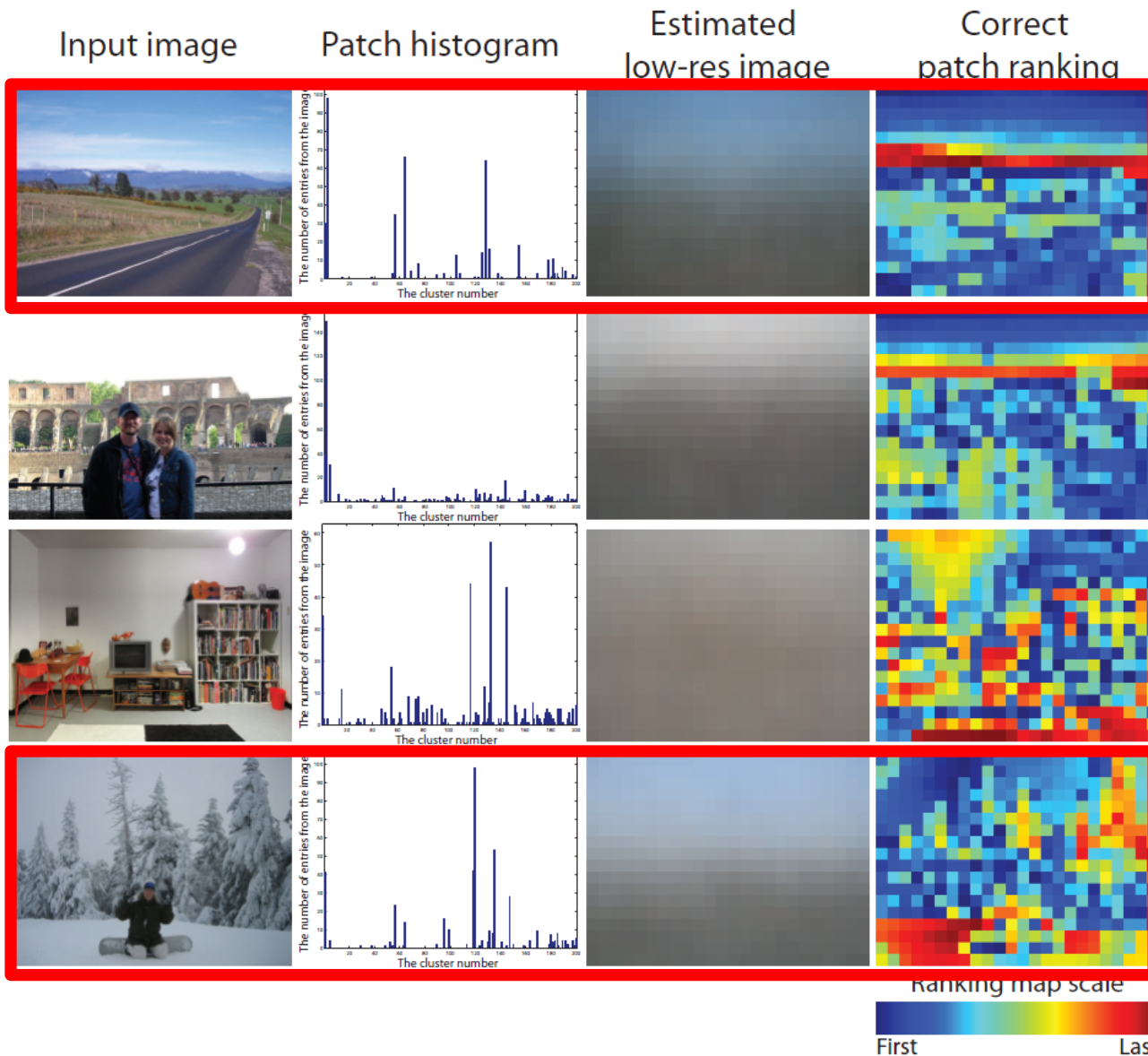
- **Theoretical Motivation:** Different colors are more likely to be at different places in an image.
  - *Example:* Blue (sky) is more likely to be towards the top of the image while brown (soil) tends to be in the image foreground.
- **Mapping Bins to the Image:** Use the training set to generate probability density maps for each histogram bin.
- **Using the Histogram to Create the Low Resolution Image:** Use a trained, linear regression function to map a bag of pieces histogram to the training images (i.e. use prior knowledge).



# “Dense and Noisy” Results

- **Summary:** Patch histogram can “coarsely predict” a low resolution of the original image.
  - *Possible Explanation:* There is enough “structural regularity” in images that a bag of patches proves spatial information.
- **Patch Rank Map:** For each pixel in the low resolution images, patches are ranked from least likely to most likely to reside in that location.
  - *Ideal Case:* The set of patches that map to the low resolution will have the best rank (i.e. 1)
  - *Worst Case:* The matching set of patches will have rank  $N$ , where  $N$  is the number of patches in the image.

# "Dense and Noisy" End to End Example



**Best Results**

**Worst Results**  
Confused  
snow for sky

# “Sparse and Accurate”

- Proposed by Cho *et. al.* in [7]
- **Common Human Approach to Solving Puzzles: “Outside-in”**
  - Find the puzzle’s four corner pieces.
  - Build from the corner pieces until all four sections converge.
- “Sparse and accurate” is based off the “outside-in” technique.
  - **Definition on an “Anchor Patch”:** A puzzle patch that is placed in its correct location and orientation.
  - **Summary of the Approach:** Place a set of  $N$  anchor patches and then solve the puzzle.
- Two most important criteria of anchor patches
  - Quantity
  - Uniform Spatial Distribution

- Proposed by Pomeranz *et. al.* in [10] in 2011.
- **Goal:** Provide a computational framework for handling square jigsaw puzzles in reasonable time that does not rely on any prior knowledge or human intervention.
- Solver divides the puzzle reconstruction into three subproblems:
  - *Placement*: Given a single patch or partially-placed set of patches, place the remaining patches.
  - *Segmentation*: Given a fully-placed board, segment the board into subcomponents that are *believed* to be placed correctly.
  - *Shifting*: Given a set of trusted segments, relocate entire segments and individual patches to improve solution quality.

- Given a partially assembled board (either a single patches or set of patches), continue applying the greedy choice until all patches are placed.
- **Overview of the Greedy Choice:**
  - Board dimensions are known in advance and fixed
  - Board locations with a higher number of occupied neighbors are preferred as the choice of the next piece is more informed.
  - Patch selection criteria:
    - *Primary Criteria*: Prefer a “best buddy” first.
    - *Secondary Criteria*: If no or multiple patches satisfy the primary criteria, select the patch with the highest compatibility score.
- **Question:** Why is a placer not enough?
- **Answer:** It works solely on local information. To get the best results, we must also look at the entire global solution.

- **Definition of “Segments”:** Areas of the puzzle that are (or “are believed to be”) assembled correctly.
- **Procedure:** Using random seeds and a segmentation predicate based on the “best buddies” metric, grow the segments via “region growing segmentation algorithm” described in [15].
- **Accuracy of the Segmenter:** 99.7%

- **Step #1:** Select a single puzzle patch as the seed to placement phase.
- **Step #2:** Perform the placement phase around the seed.
- **Step #3:** Use the segmenter to partition the board.
- **Step #4:** Calculate the “best buddies” ratio. If you are at a local maximum, stop.
- **Step #5:** Select the largest segment from step #3 and use it as the seed of the placement phase. Return to step #2.
  - Performing this step is similar to shifting the largest segment.

- Proposed by Sholomon *et. al.* in 2013 [9].
  - A genetic algorithm puzzle solver was first proposed in [16] in 2002.
- **Genetic Algorithm Review**
  - Based off the biological theory of natural selection.
  - Divided into a series of stages
    - Random generation of initial population
    - Successor selection
    - Reproduction
    - Mutation
  - Requires a “fitness function” that measures solution quality.



- **Puzzle Type:** 1 (patches have known orientation)
- **Chromosome (Solution) Representation:**  $N$  by  $M$  matrix where each cell represents one patch in the puzzle.
- **Population Size:** 1,000
- **Number of Generations:** 100
- **Number of Restarts:** 10
- **Successor Selection Algorithm:** Roulette Wheel
- **Elitism:** Always pass *four* best solutions to the next generation
- **Culling:** None
- **Mutation Rate:** 5%
- **Fitness Function:** Sum of the  $L_2$  of all pieces in the puzzle
- **Color Space:** LAB

- Takes two “*highly fit*” parents and returns one child.
  - Non-trivial as the crossover must ensure there are no duplicate/missing patches in the solution.
- Correctly assembled segments may be at incorrect absolute locations. Hence, the crossover must allow for “*position independence*”, which is the ability to shift segments.
- **Sholomon *et. al.*’s Approach:** Kernel-growing.

- Start with a single puzzle patch that is “floating” in the board such that the puzzle can grow in any direction.
  - Boundary size (i.e. length by width) is fixed and known.
- **Patch Placement Algorithm:** When deciding on the next patch to place, the algorithm iterates through up to three phases.
  - *Phase #1:* In an available boundary location, place the piece where both parents agree on the neighbor.
  - *Phase #2:* Place a “best buddy” that *exists in one of the parents*.
  - *Phase #3:* Select a location randomly and pick the piece with the best pairwise affinity.
  - If in any phase there is a tie, the tie is broken randomly.
  - After a piece is placed, the placement algorithm returns to phase #1 for the next piece.
  - Once a piece is placed, it can never be reused.

- Mutations in genetic algorithms are used to improve the quality of the final solution via increased population diversity.
- **Sholomon's Mutation Strategy:** During the first and third phase of placement, place a piece at random with some low probability (e.g. 5%)

# A Possible Benchmark

- Sholomon *et. al.* provide three large puzzle datasets as well as their results for comparative benchmarking [17].
  - *Dataset Puzzle Sizes:* 5,015, 10,375, and 22,834
- Unfortunately the website seems to no longer exist. I will separately send an email to the authors about why the removed the content.
- Used as a benchmark in [20].

- **Problem Statement:** There is no uniform technique for grading the final output of a square jigsaw puzzle solver.
- **Two Divergent Approaches:**
  - *Performance Metrics:* Use the original image to grade solution quality.
    - Direct Comparison [7]
    - Neighbor Comparison [7]
  - *Estimation Metrics:* Evaluates the quality of a solution without reference to the original image [10].
    - “Best Buddies” Ratio

To improve execution time, Sholomon *et. al.* precompute and store all pairwise dissimilarity values.

# of Pieces	Sholomon <i>et. al.</i>	Pomeranz <i>et. al.</i>
432	48.3s	1.2min
540	64.1s	1.9min
805	116.2s	5.1min
2,360	17.60min	N/A
3,300	30.24min	N/A
5,015	61.06min	N/A
10,375	3.21hr	N/A
22,834	13.19hr	N/A

Comparison of the Algorithm Execution Time  
for Sholomon *et. al.* and Pomeranz *et. al.*

- Proposed by Paikin and Tal in [20].
- Inspired by Pomeranz *et. al.*'s greedy algorithm [10] with **three additional requirements**:
  - *New Requirement #1*: A modified compatibility function
  - *New Requirement #2*: Superior initial seed selection.
  - *New Requirement #3*: Rather than making the “best”/ “closest matching” selection at each round, make the selection with the lowest chance of erring regardless of location.
    - This makes their algorithm deterministic eliminating the need for restarts.
- **Accuracy**: 97.7% on dataset in [17]



Paikan's & Tal's jigsaw puzzle problem definition is the most difficult presented to date. It is described below:

- Size of the puzzle is unknown and may be different
- Orientation of the patches is unknown
- Patches may missing
- Input may contain pieces from multiple puzzles

# Comparison of Patch Sizes

Reference	Patch Size
Cho <i>et. al.</i> (2010)	7px by 7px
Pomeranz <i>et. al.</i> (2010)	28px by 28px
Sholomon <i>et. al.</i> (2013)	28px by 28px
Wu (SJSU Thesis) [20]	25px by 25px

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