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INTRODUCTION TO COMPUTER VISION

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Recognition so far

Category:

- Is this a bedroom?
- What class of scene is this?
- Holistic features/quantization

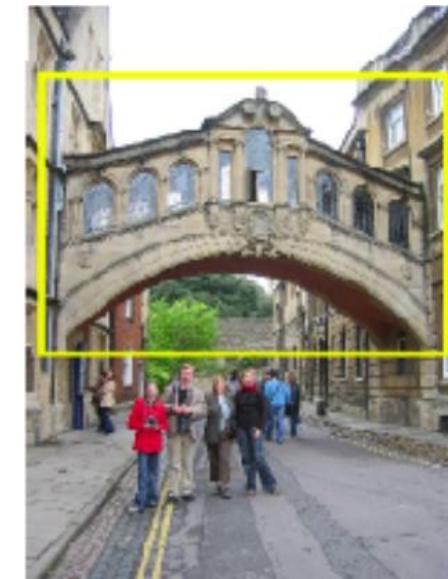


Instance:

- Find this specific famous building.
- Find this person.
- Local features/precise correspondence
- Often within a database of images



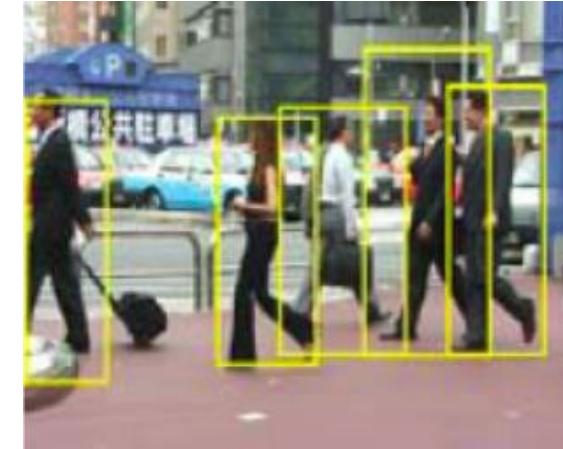
“Image classification is not real computer vision... so don’t be too obsessed with that”



Recognition so far

Object (category) detection:

- Find all the people
- Find all the faces
- Often within a single image
- Often ‘sliding window’



Scenes have “stuff” – distribution of materials and surfaces with arbitrary shape.

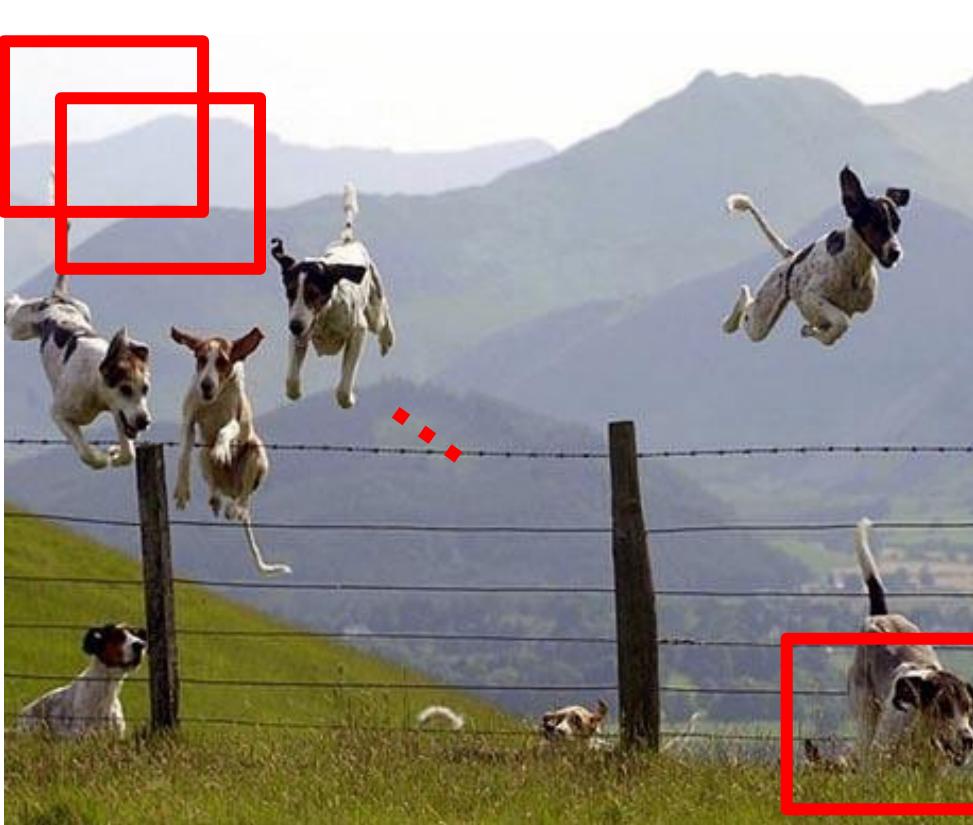
- Bag of Words ok!

Objects are “things” with shape, boundaries.

- Bag of Words less ok as spatial layout is lost!

Object Category Detection

- Focus on object search: “Where is it?”
- Build templates that quickly differentiate object patch from background patch

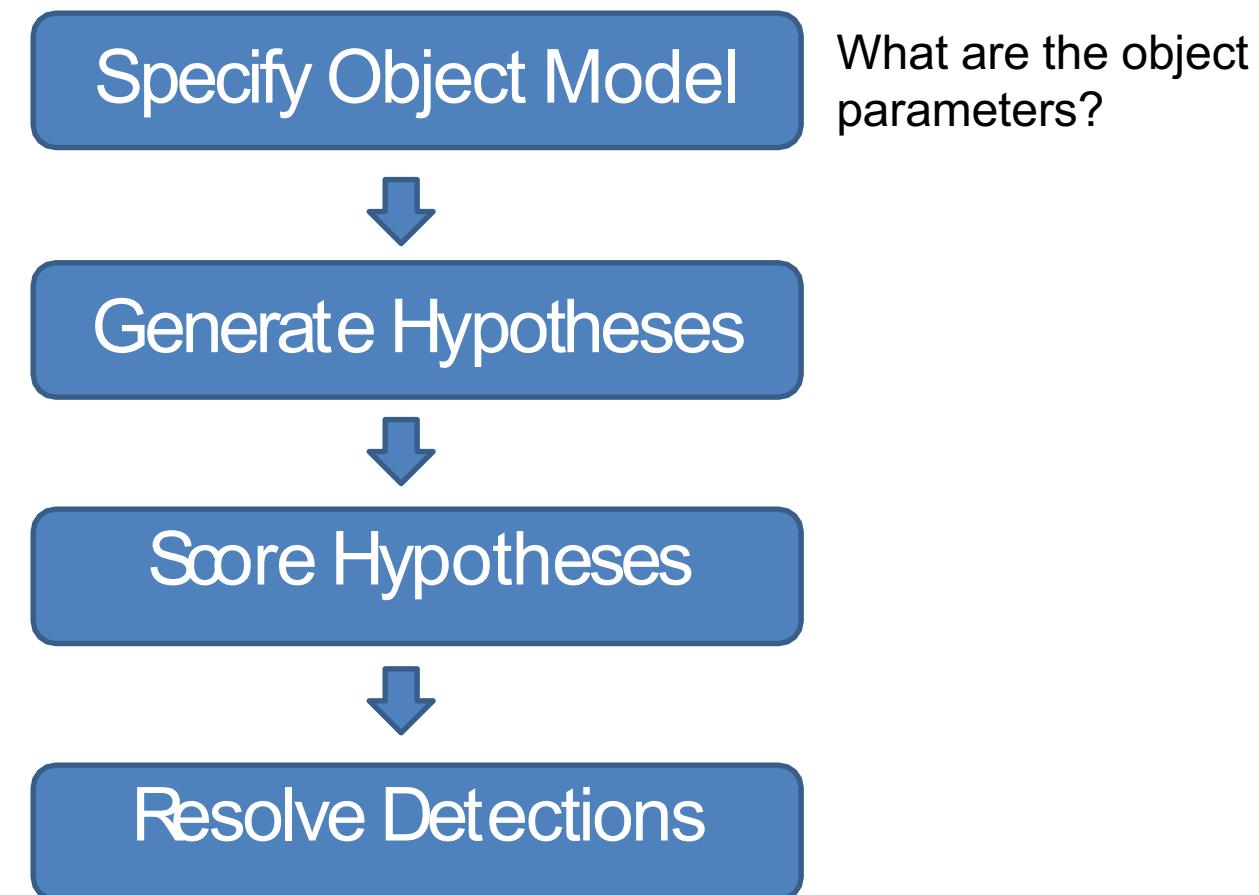


**Object or
Non-Object?**

Object Detection Design challenges

- How to efficiently search for likely objects
 - Even simple models require searching hundreds of thousands of positions and scales.
- Feature design and scoring
 - How should appearance be modeled?
 - What features correspond to the object?
- How to deal with different viewpoints?
 - Often train different models for a few different viewpoints

General Process of Object Detection



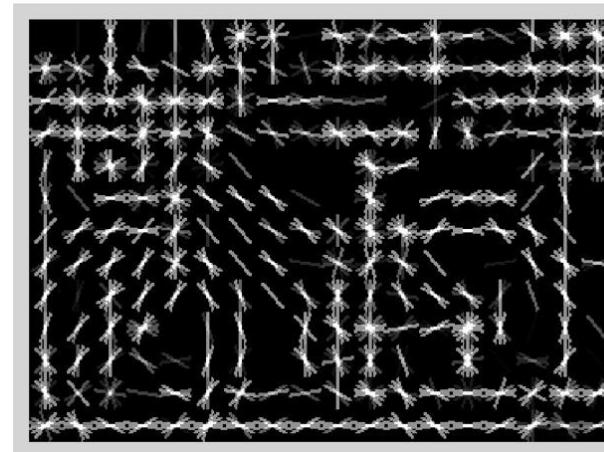
Specifying an object model

1. Statistical Template in Bounding Box

- Object is some (x,y,w,h) in image
- Features defined wrt bounding box coordinates



Image

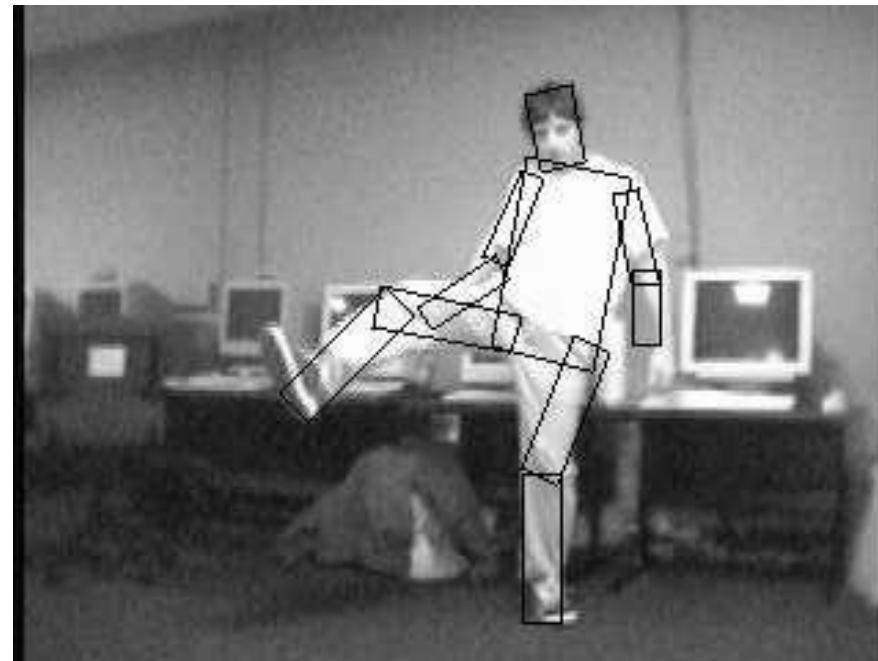
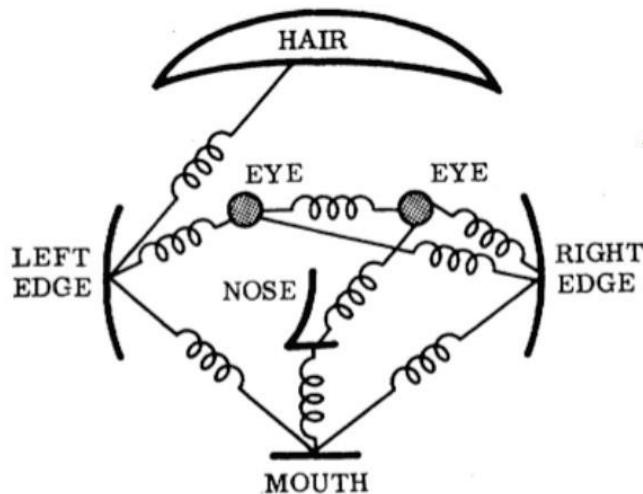


Template Visualization

Specifying an object model

2. Articulated parts model

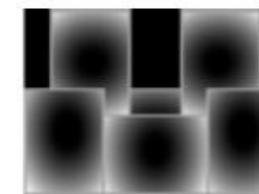
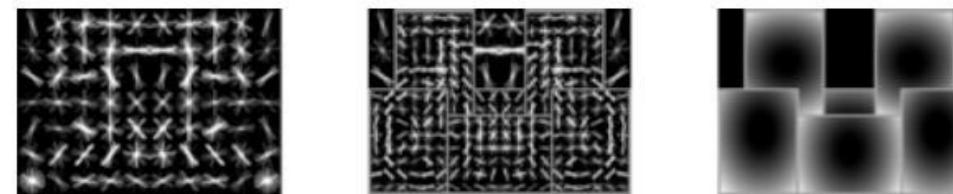
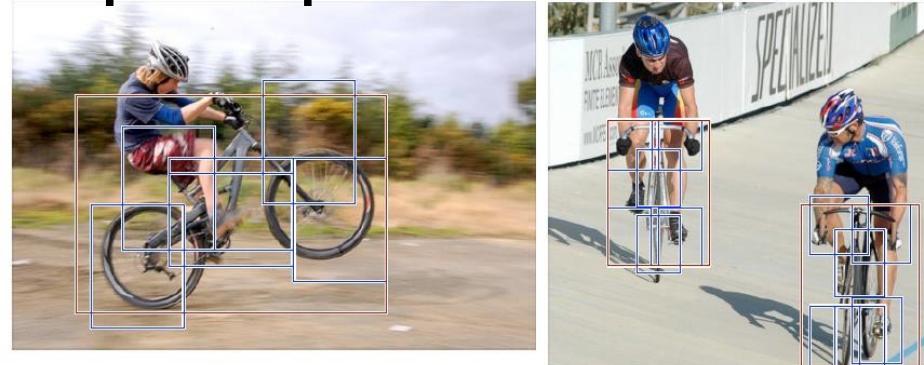
- Object is configuration of parts
- Each part is detectable



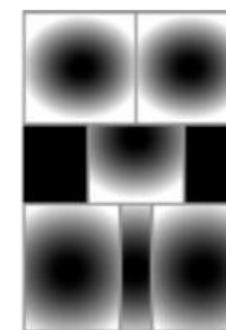
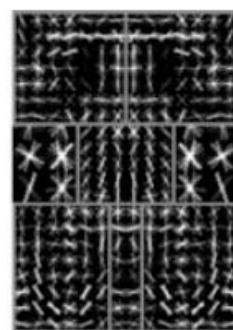
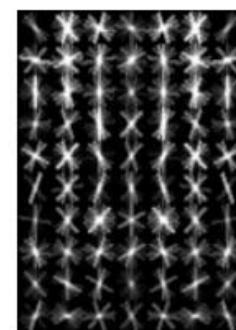
Specifying an object model

3. Hybrid template/parts model

Detections



Template Visualization



root filters
coarse resolution

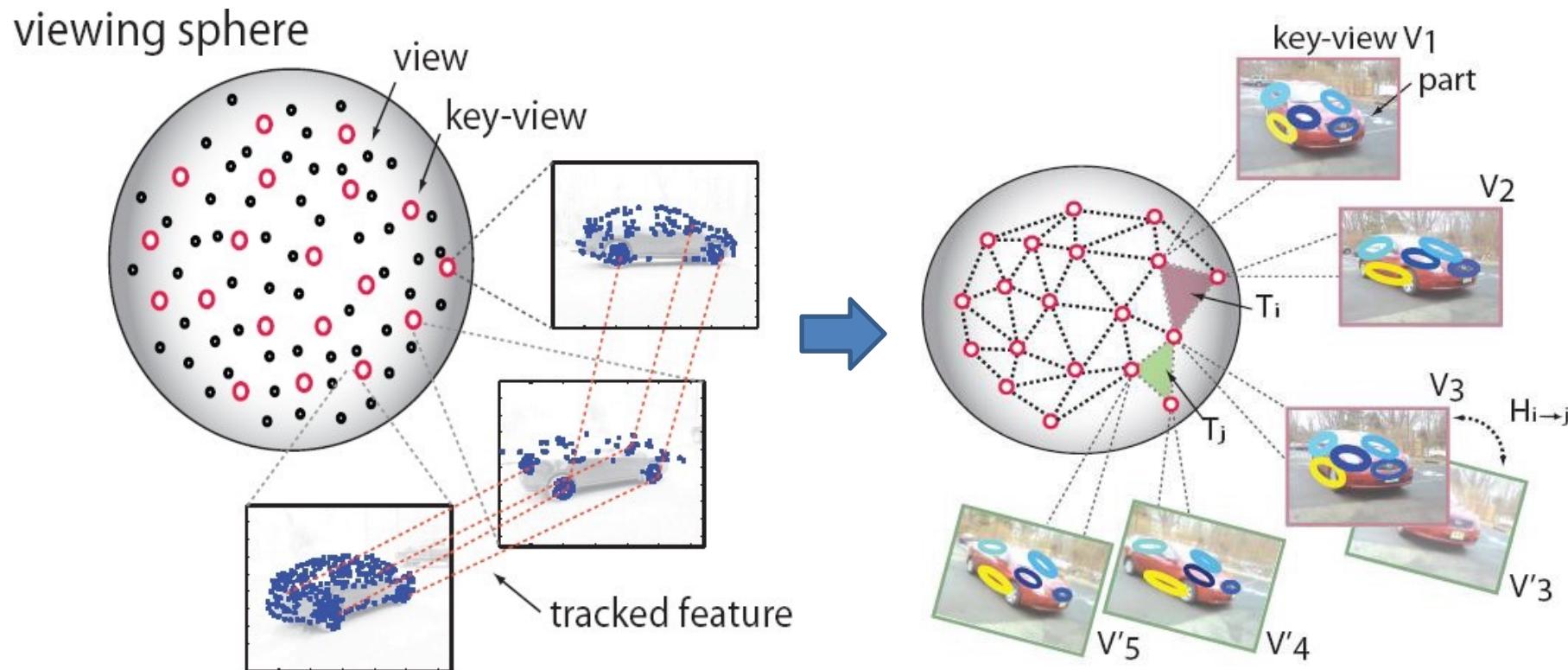
part filters
finer resolution

deformation
models

Specifying an object model

4. 3D-ish model

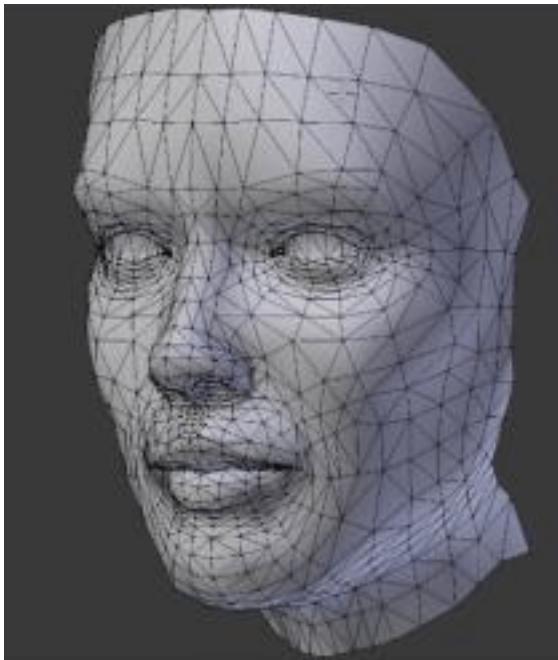
- Object is collection of 3D planar patches under affine transformation



Specifying an object model

5. Deformable 3D model

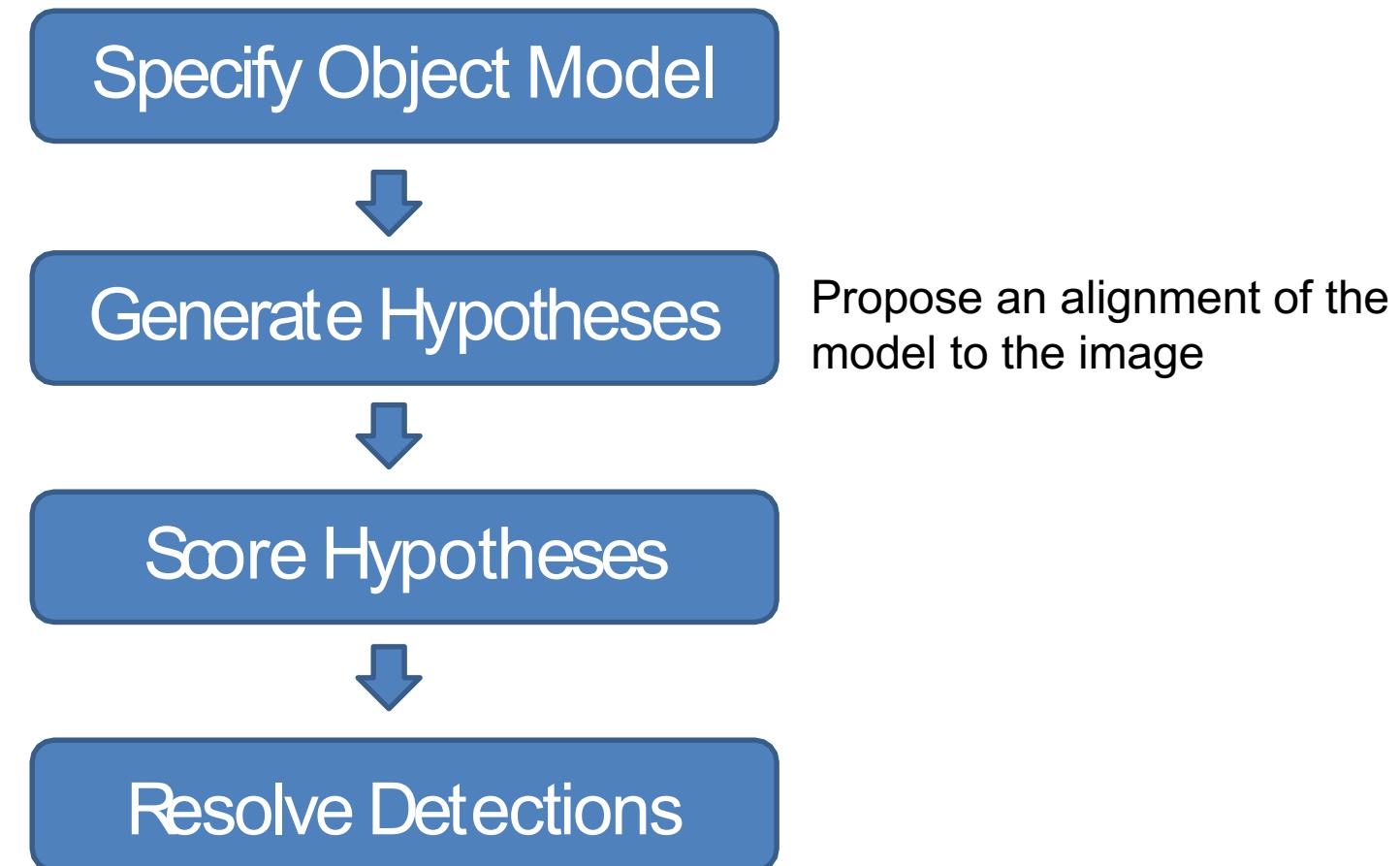
- Object is a parameterized space of shape/pose/deformation of class of 3D object



Why not just pick the most complex model?

- Inference is harder
 - More parameters
 - Harder to ‘fit’ (infer / optimize fit)
 - Longer computation
 - Need more in-domain prior knowledge
- “**Bounding Box**” is still practically the most popular

General Process of Object Detection



Generating hypotheses

1. 2D template model / sliding window
 - Test patch at each location and scale



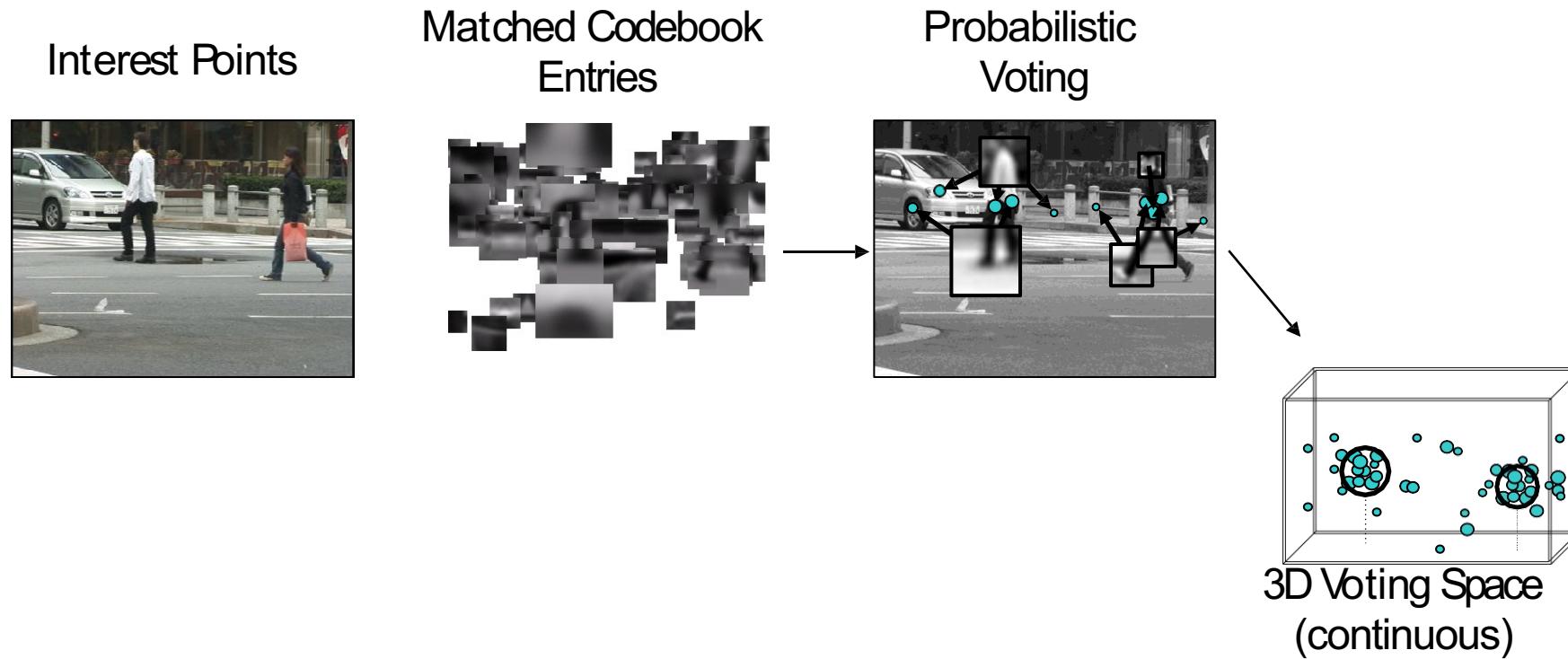
Note – Template did not change size

Each window is separately classified

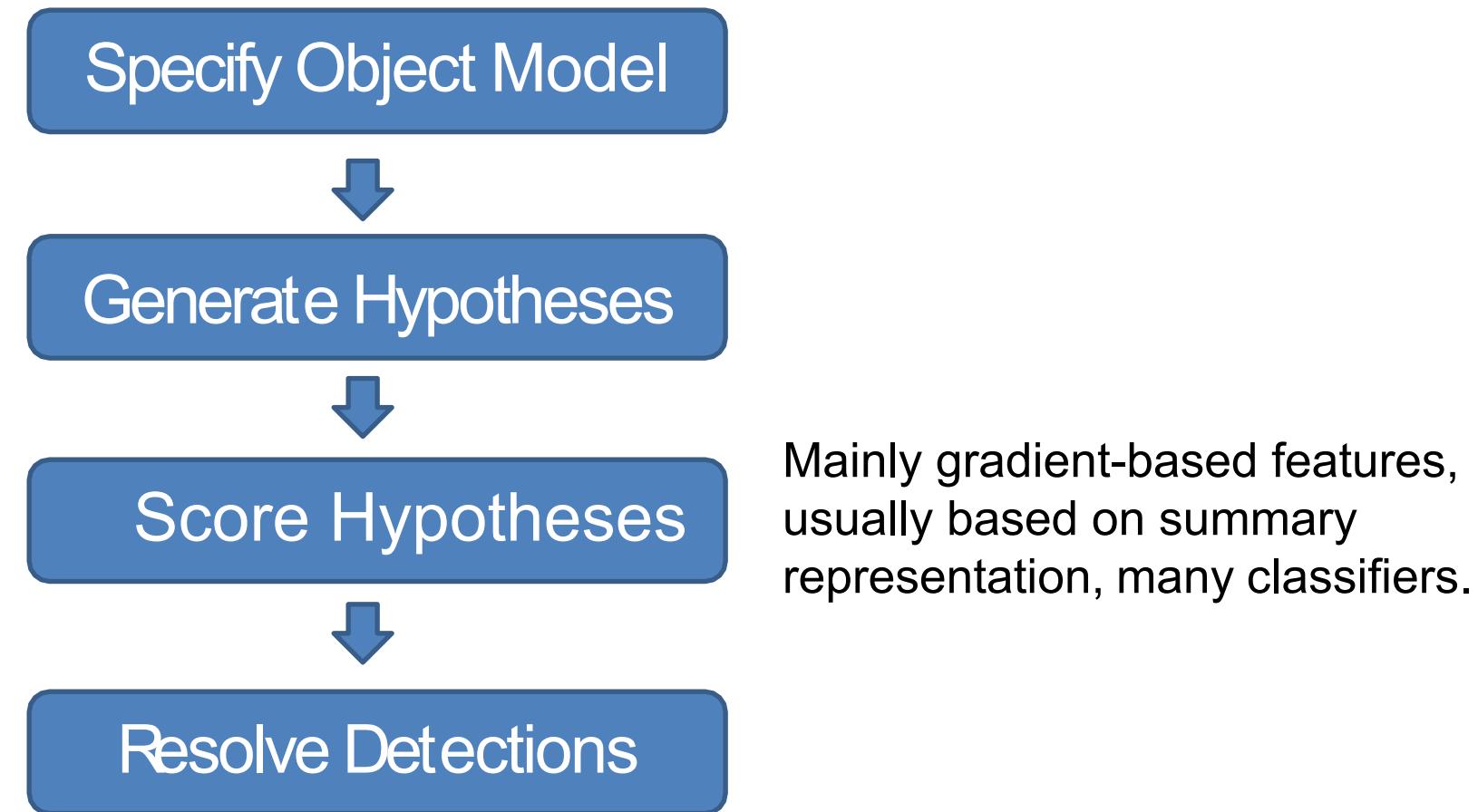


Generating hypotheses

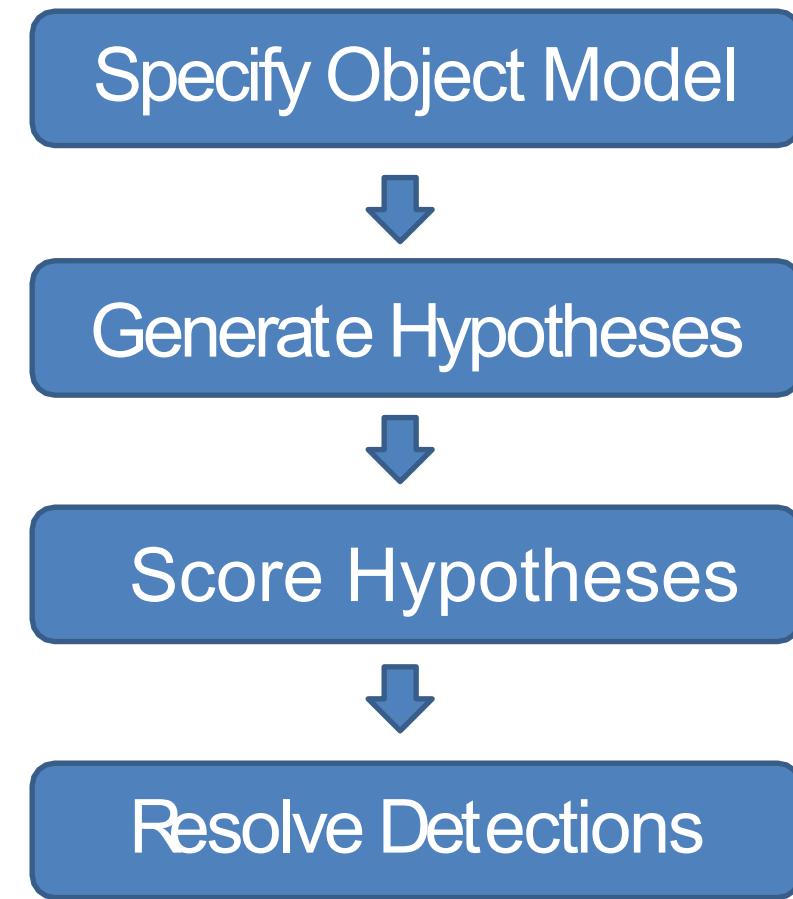
2. Voting from patches/keypoints



General Process of Object Detection



General Process of Object Detection



“Globally” rescore each proposed object based on whole set, to resolve conflicts (non-max suppression, context-reasoning...)

Influential Works in Object Detection

- Sung-Poggio (1994, 1998) : ~2000 citations
 - Basic idea of statistical template detection, bootstrapping to get “face-like” negative examples, multiple whole-face prototypes (in 1994)
- Rowley-Baluja-Kanade (1996-1998) : ~3600
 - “Parts” at fixed position, non-maxima suppression, simple cascade, rotation, pretty good accuracy, fast
- Schneiderman-Kanade (1998-2000,2004) : ~1700
 - Careful feature engineering, excellent results, cascade
- Viola-Jones (2001, 2004) : ~13,000
 - Haar-like features, Adaboost as feature selection, hyper-cascade, very fast
- Dalal-Triggs (2005) : ~16,000 citations
 - Careful feature engineering, excellent results, HOG feature, online code
- Felzenszwalb-McAllester-Ramanan (2008): ~4,600 citations
 - Template/parts-based blend
- Girshick et al. (2013): ~2000 citations
 - R-CNN / Fast R-CNN / Faster R-CNN. Deep learned models on object proposals.

Evaluating a detector



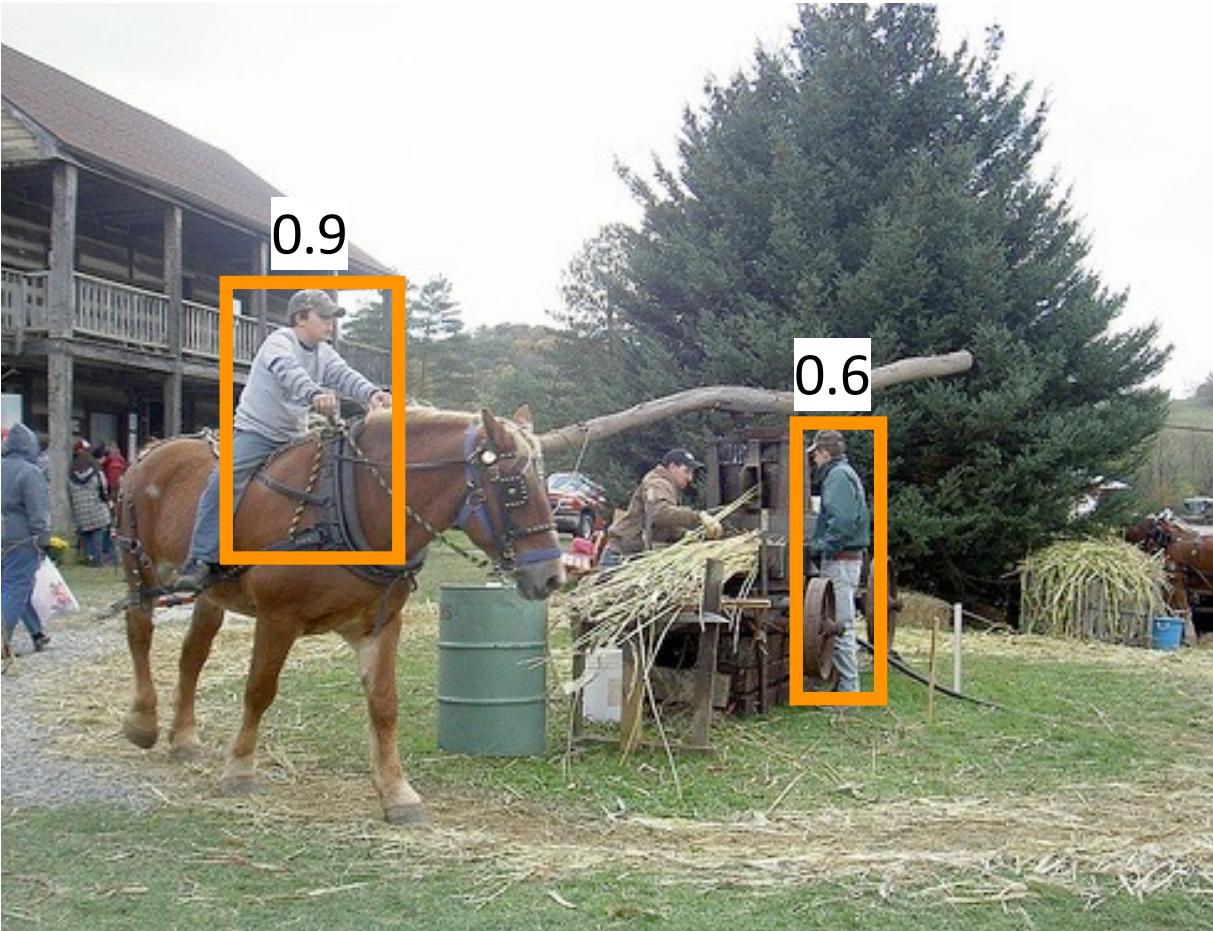
Test image (previously unseen)

First detection ...



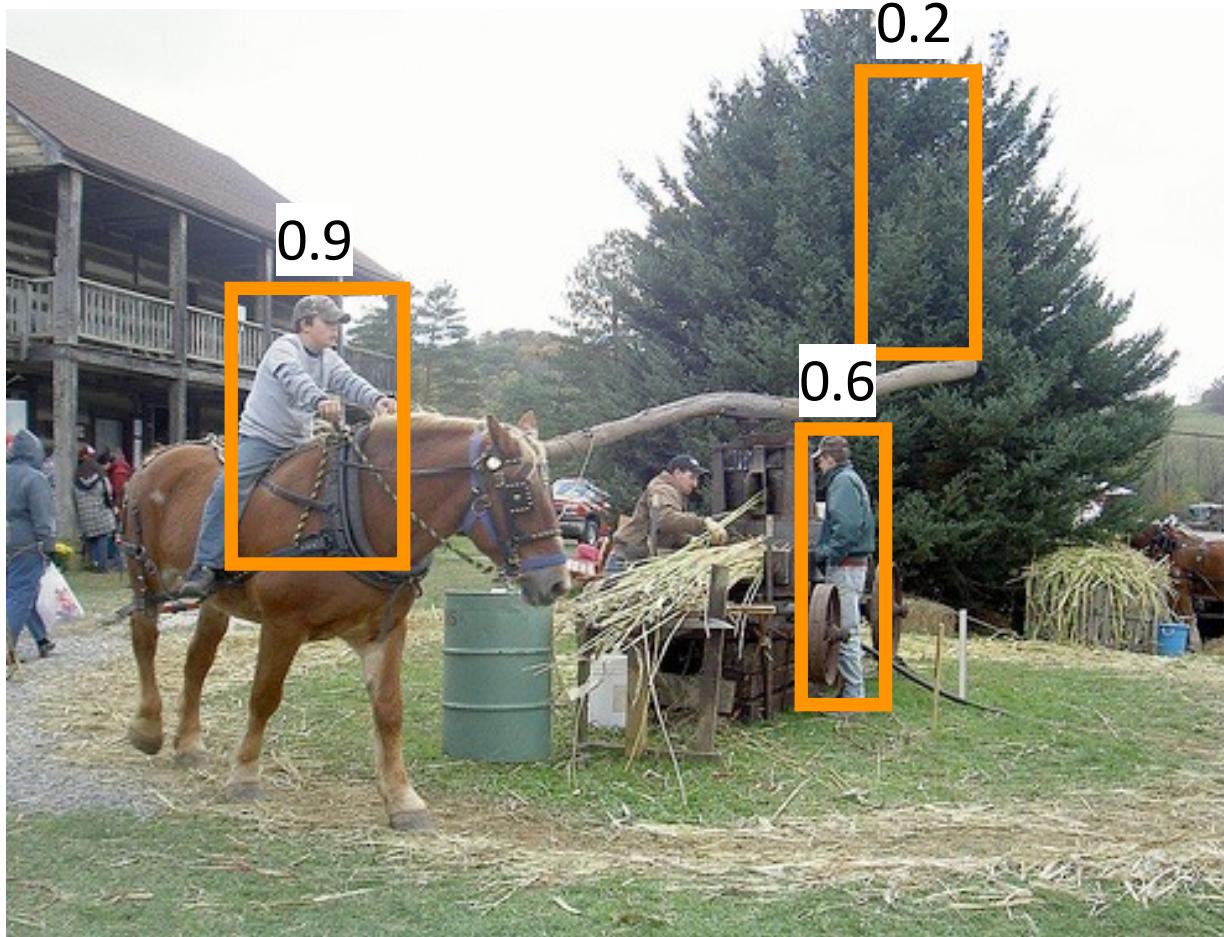
‘person’ detector predictions

Second detection ...



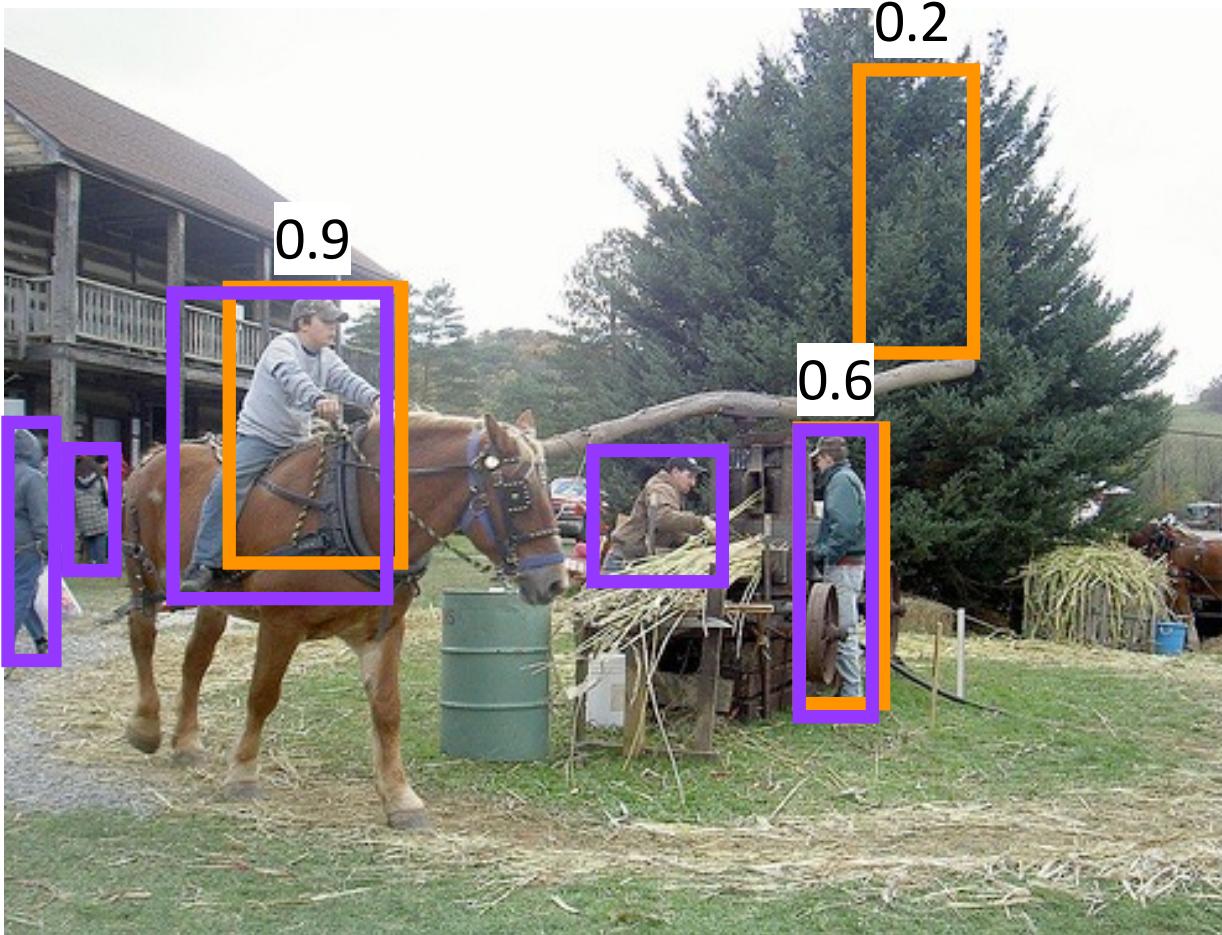
‘person’ detector predictions

Third detection ...



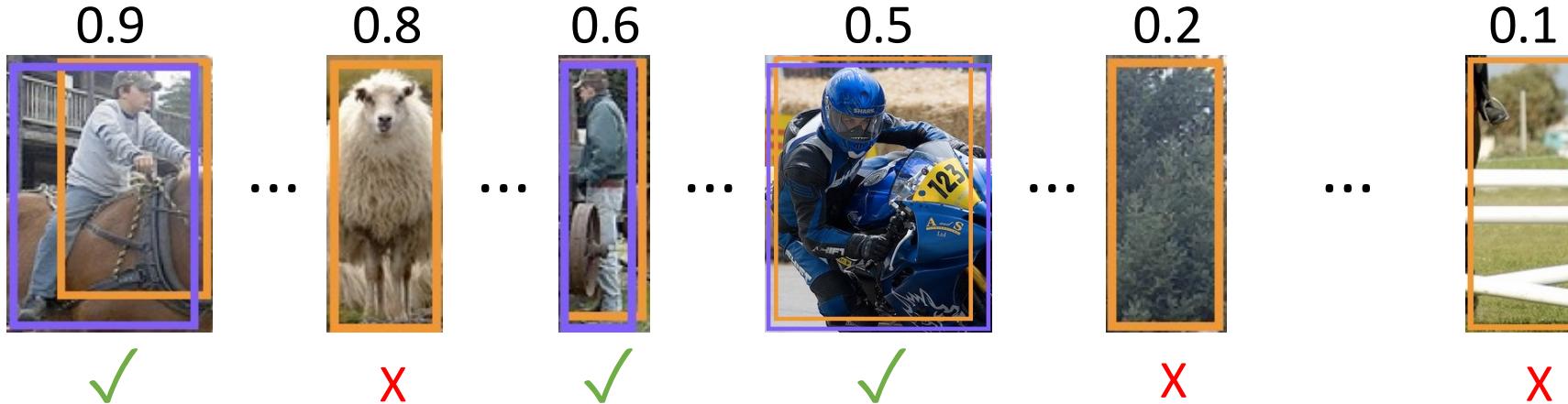
‘person’ detector predictions

Compare to ground truth



- ‘person’ detector predictions
- ground truth ‘person’ boxes

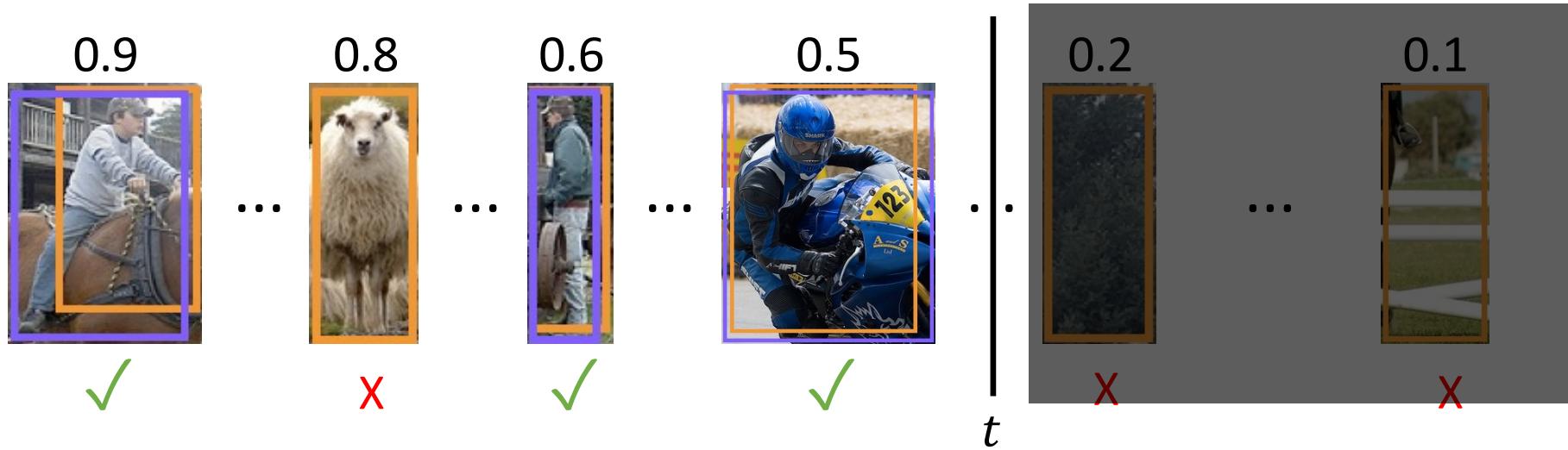
Sort by confidence



true
positive
(high overlap)

false
positive
(no overlap,
low overlap, or
duplicate)

Evaluation metric

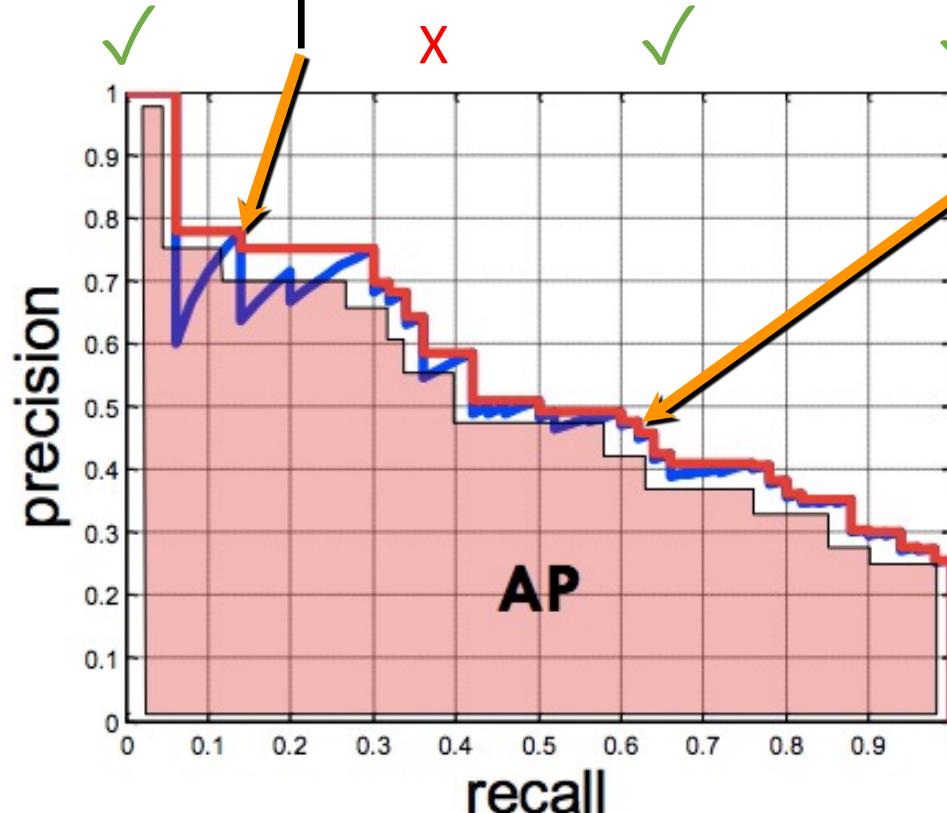


$$precision@t = \frac{\#true\ positives@t}{\#true\ positives@t + \#false\ positives@t}$$

$\frac{\checkmark}{\checkmark + \times}$

$$recall@t = \frac{\#true\ positives@t}{\#ground\ truth\ objects}$$

Evaluation metric



Average Precision (AP)

0% is worst

100% is best

mean AP over classes (mAP)

Dalal-Triggs Object Detector

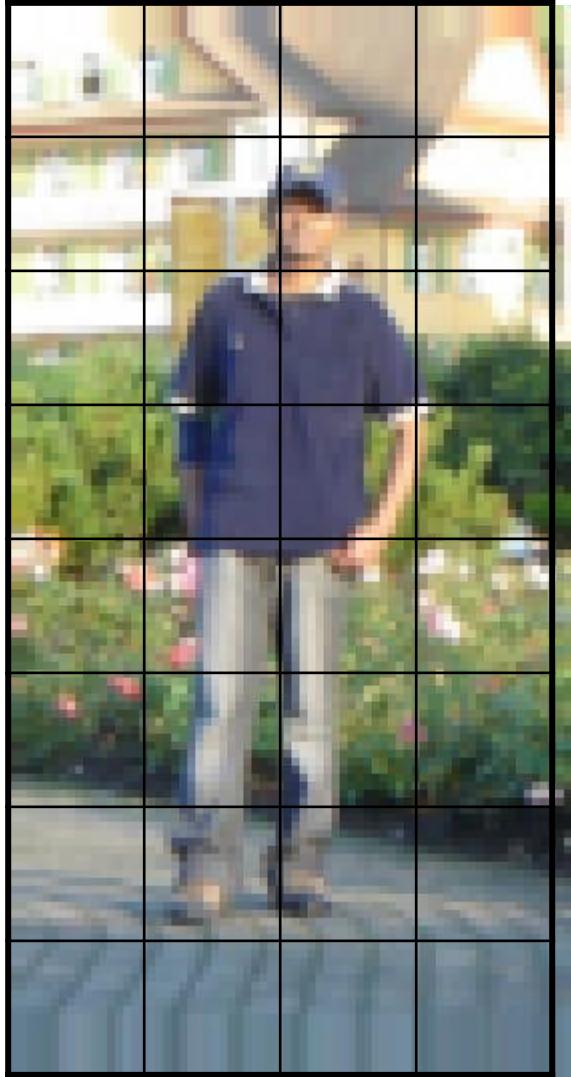


- Histograms of Oriented Gradients for Human Detection, [Navneet Dalal](#), [Bill Triggs](#), International Conference on Computer Vision & Pattern Recognition - June 2005
- <http://lear.inrialpes.fr/pubs/2005/DT05/>

Example: Dalal-Triggs pedestrian detection

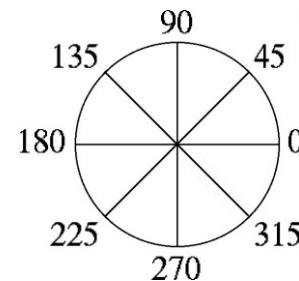


1. Extract fixed-sized (64x128 pixel) **window** at each position and scale
2. Compute **HOG** (histogram of oriented gradient) features within each window
3. Score the window with a **linear SVM classifier**
4. Perform **non-maxima suppression** to remove overlapping or conflicting detections with lower scores

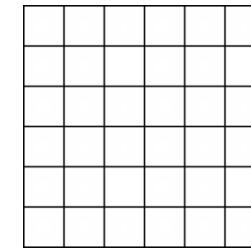


Histogram of Oriented Gradients

Orientation by bins



Histograms over
 $k \times k$ pixel cells



– Votes weighted by magnitude

Dalal-Triggs uses a template with a **rigid form**

- Human bodies are boxed shaped
- That's why Dalal-Triggs is best known for pedestrian detection

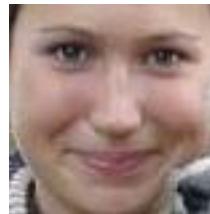
But...is there a way to learn the spatial layout more **fluidly**?

- Might help us capture more appearance variation...
- What about faster, too? Since many positions might be “filtered”

Face detection and recognition



Detection



Recognition

“Sally”

Challenges of Face Detection

Sliding window = tens of thousands of location/scale evaluations, especially since faces are small

- One megapixel image has $\sim 10^6$ pixels
- ...and a comparable number of candidate face locations

Faces are also rare: 0–10 per image

- For computational efficiency, spend as little time as possible on non-face windows.
- For 1M pix, to avoid having a false positive in every image, our false positive rate must be less than 10^{-6}

The Viola/Jones Face Detector

A seminal approach to real-time object detection

Training is slow, but detection is very fast

Key ideas:

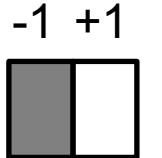
1. *Integral images* for fast feature evaluation
2. *Boosting* for feature selection
3. *Attentional cascade* for fast non-face window rejection

[P. Viola and M. Jones. Rapid object detection using a boosted cascade of simple features. CVPR 2001.](#)

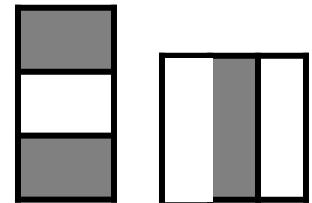
P. Viola and M. Jones. [Robust real-time face detection.](#) IJCV 57(2), 2004.

“Haar-like features”

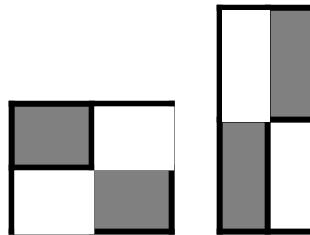
- Binary-valued filters, computing differences of sums of intensity between two regions
- Computed at different positions and scales within sliding window
- Very fast to compute (thanks to a clever implementation trick called “integral image”)



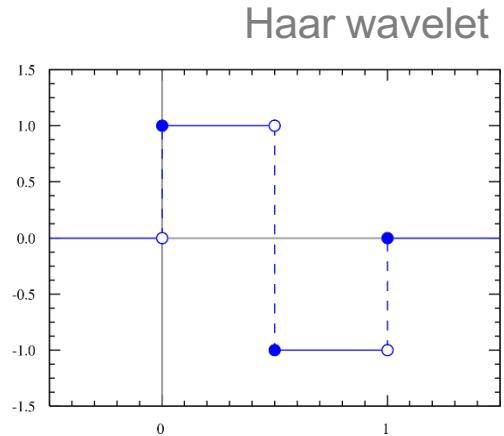
Two-rectangle features



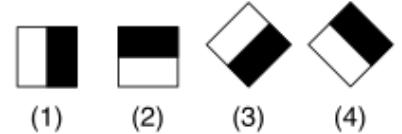
Three-rectangle features



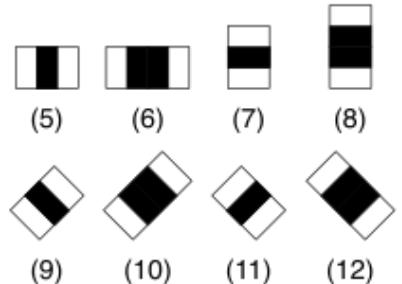
Etc.



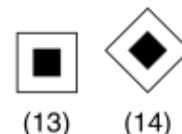
Edge features



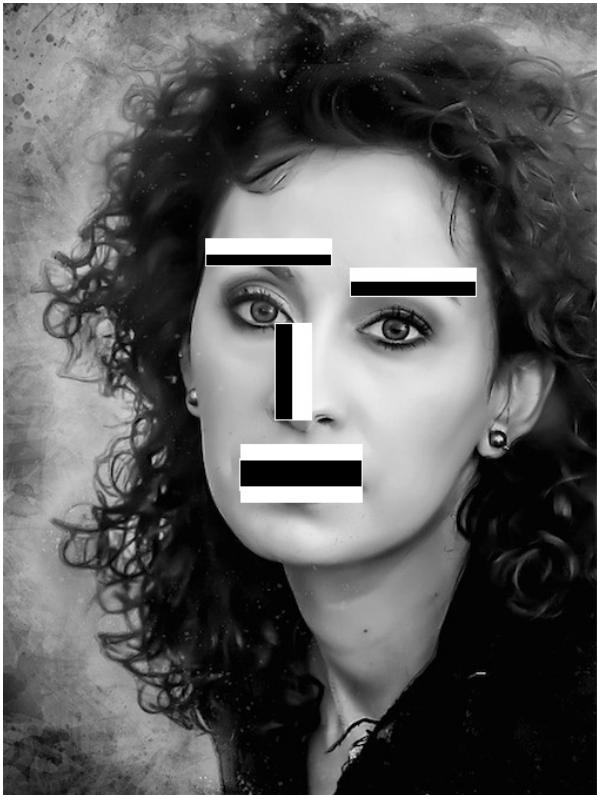
Line features



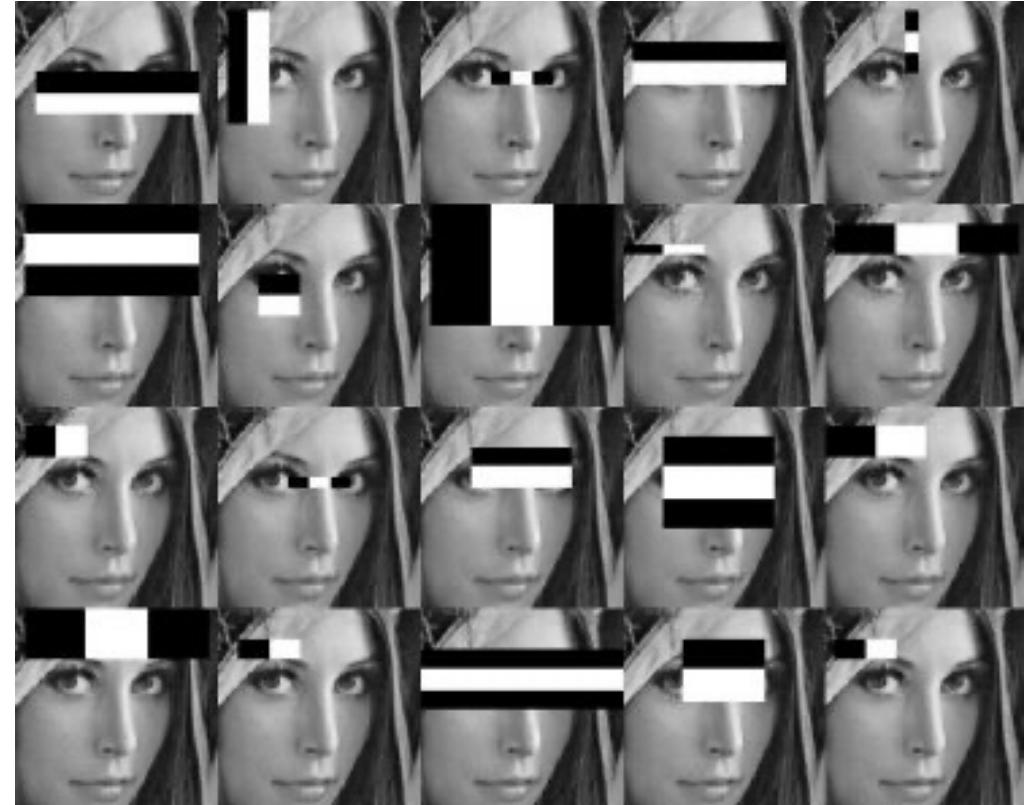
Center-surround features



Why “Haar-like features”?



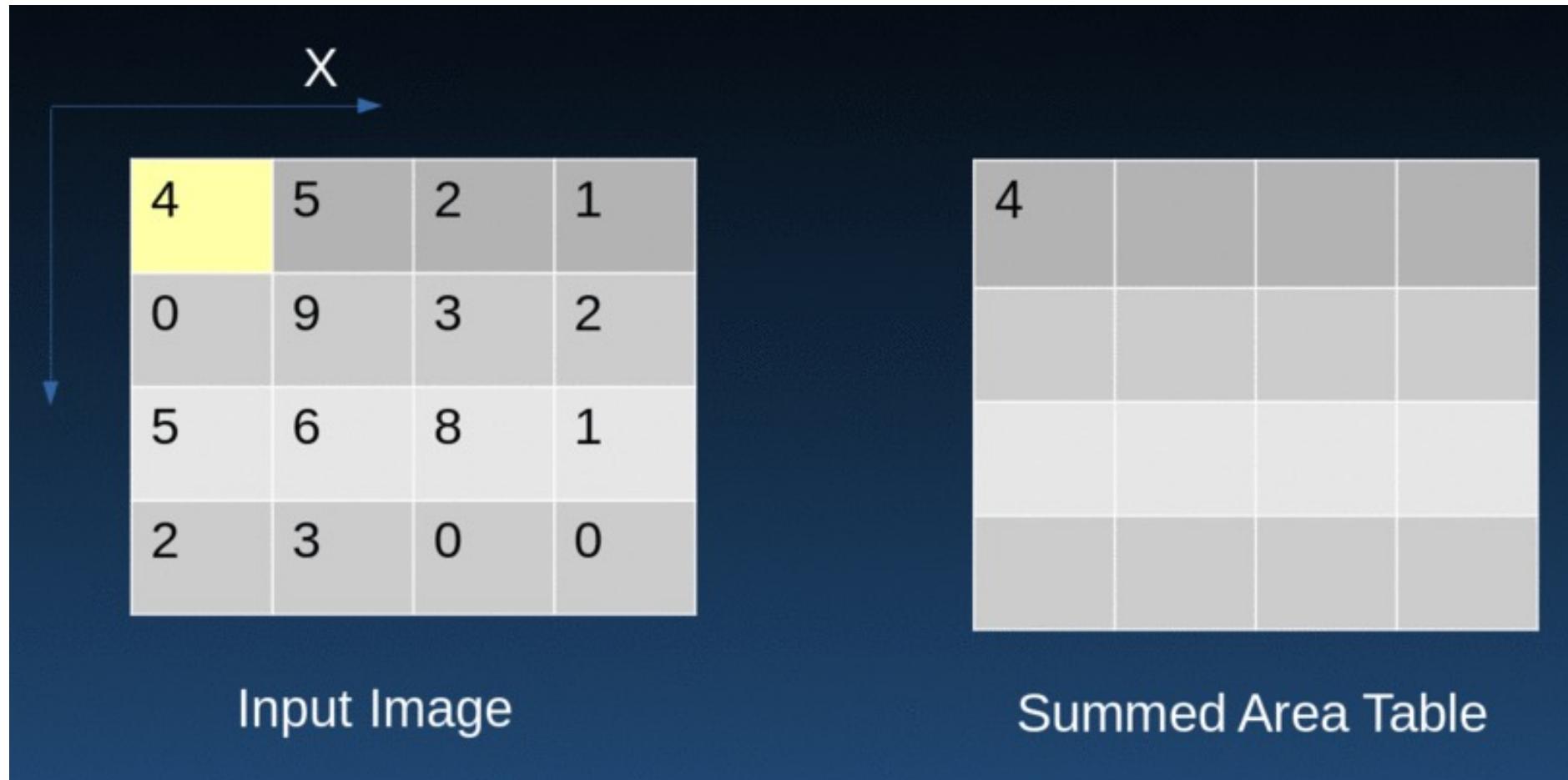
Example: Two “eyebrow” filters, one “nose” filter, and one “mouth” filter



Harr features are **NOT ROBUST**, but **CHEAP** to compute

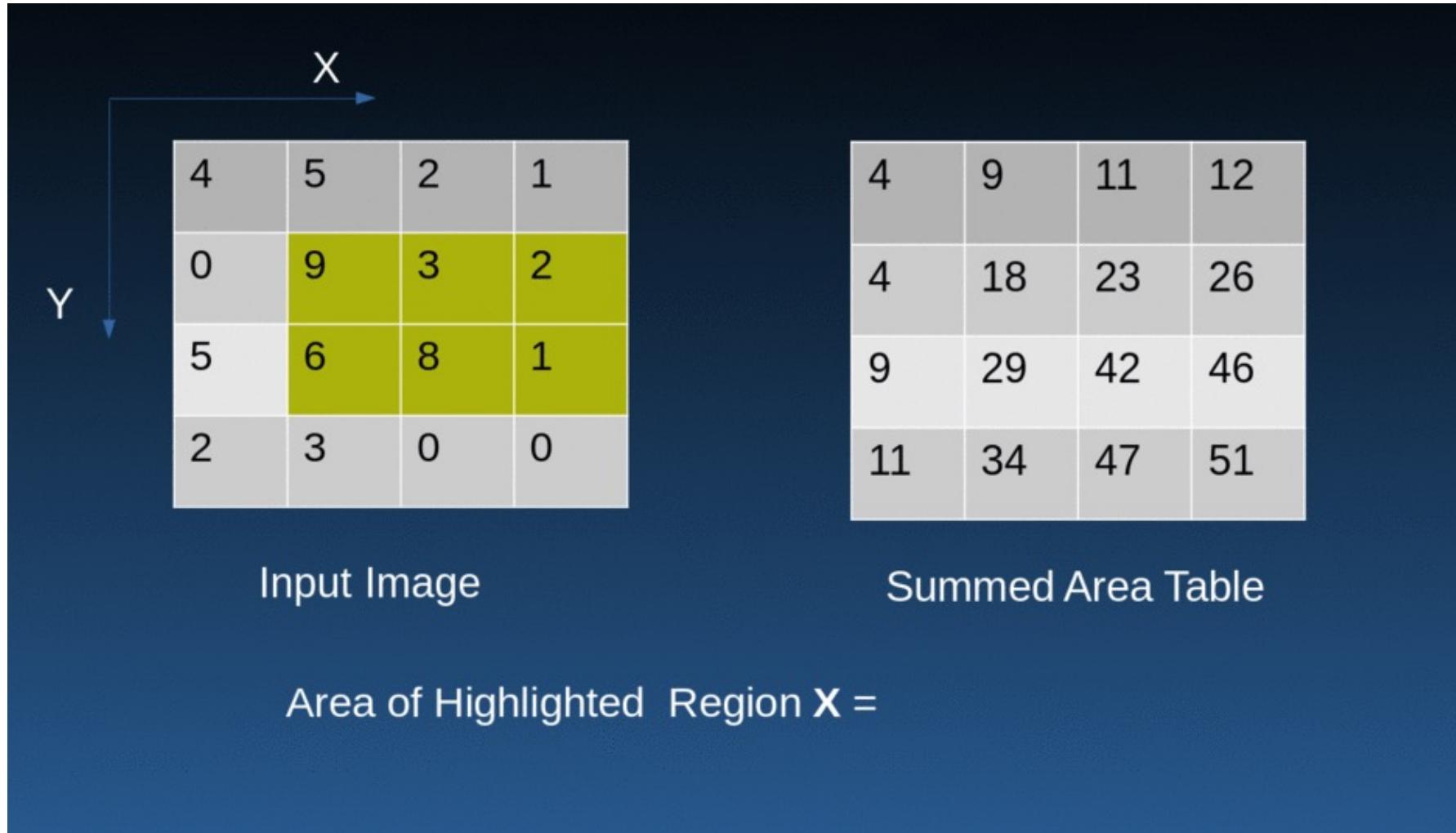
- For example, with a human face, it is a common observation that among all faces **the region of the eyes is darker than the region of the cheeks**.
- Therefore, a common Haar feature for face detection is **a set of two adjacent rectangles that lie above the eye and the cheek region**. The position of these rectangles is defined relative to a face bounding box

How to Speedup “Haar-like features”? **Integral Image**



O(N) complexity
to build the
integral image, N
= pixel number

How to Speedup “Haar-like features”? **Integral Image**



O(1) complexity
to compute the
partial region
sum, **regardless**
of region size!

But these features are rubbish...!

Yes, individually they are ‘weak classifiers’

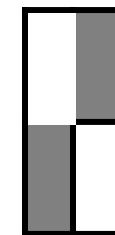
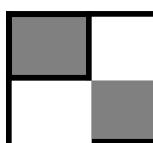
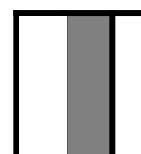
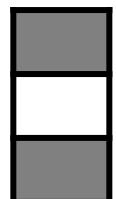
*Jargon: ‘feature’ and ‘classifier’ are used interchangeably here.
Also with ‘learner’, ‘filter’.*

But, what if we combine *thousands* of them...

-1 +1



Two-rectangle features

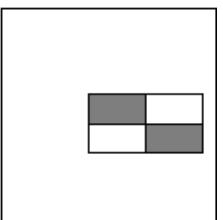
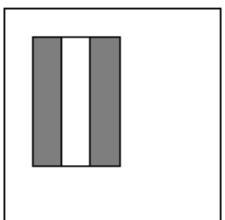
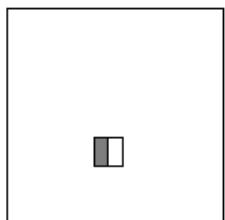
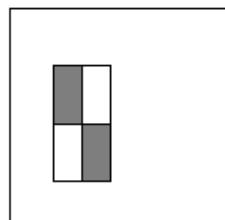
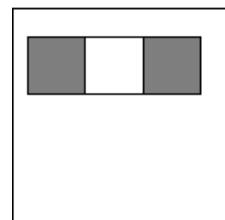
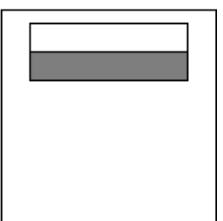
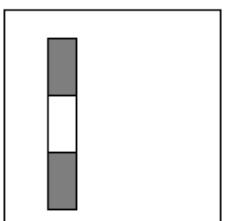
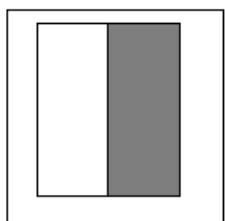
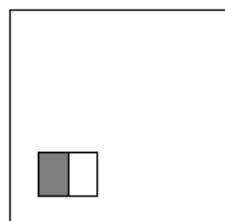
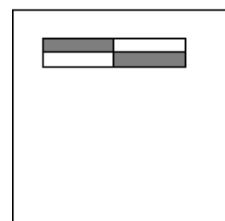
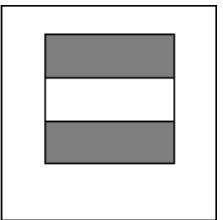
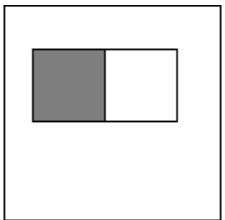
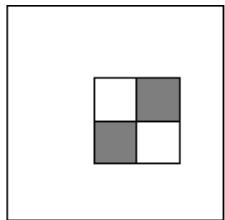
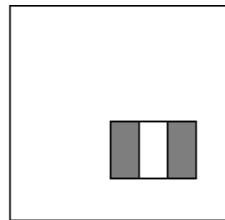
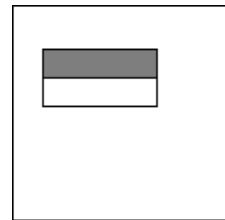


Three-rectangle features

Etc.

How many features are there?

For a 24x24 detection region, the number of possible rectangle features is ~160,000!



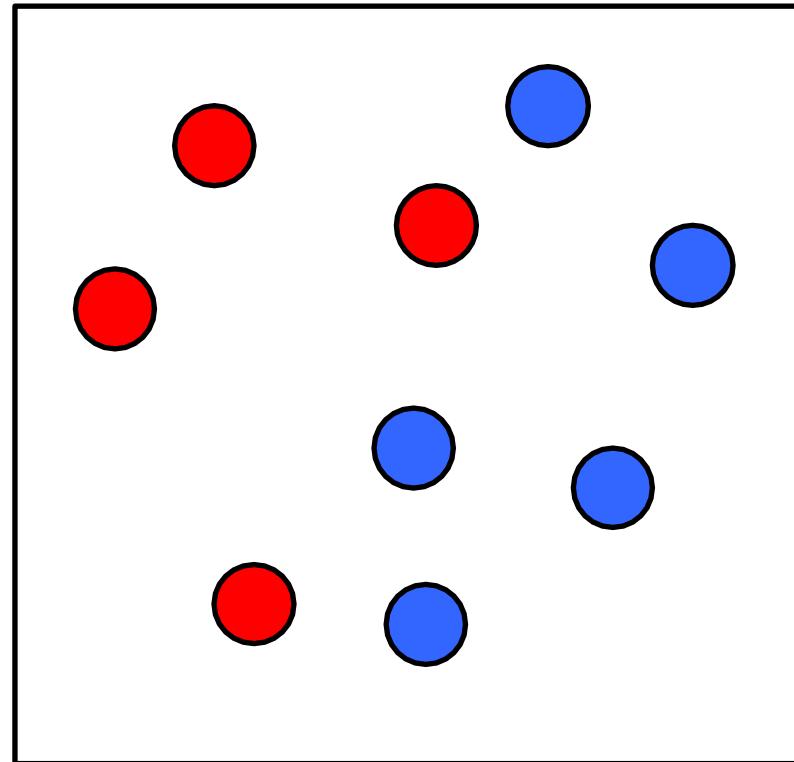
How many features are there?

- For a 24x24 detection region, the number of possible rectangle features is \sim 160,000!
- At test time, it is impractical to evaluate the entire feature set.
- Can we learn a ‘strong classifier’ using just a small subset of all possible features?

Boosting for feature selection

Initially, weight each training example equally.

Weight = size of point



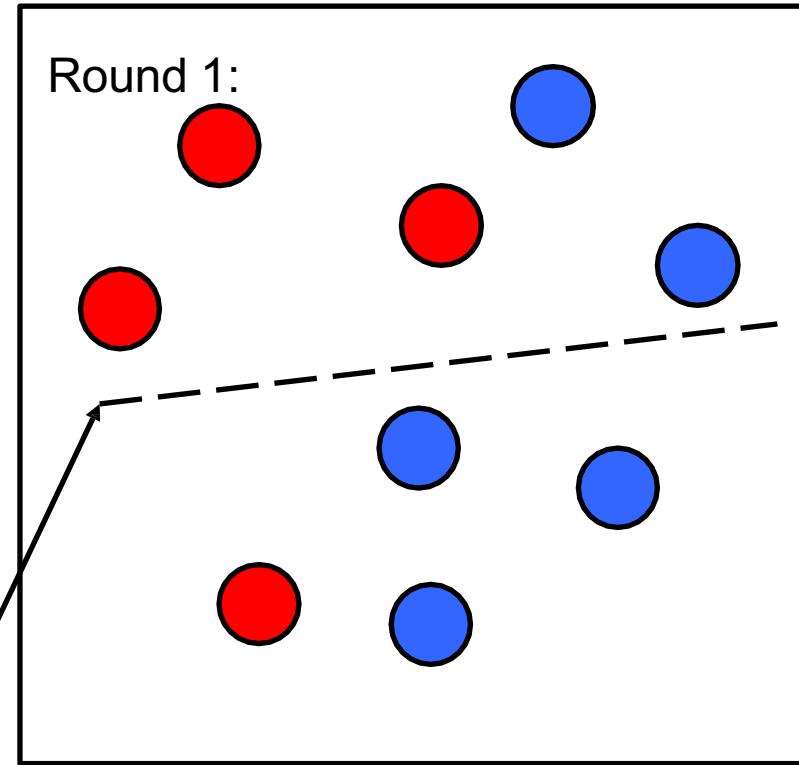
Boosting for feature selection

In each boosting round:

Find the weak classifier that achieves the lowest *weighted* training error.

Raise the weights of training examples misclassified by current weak classifier.

**Weak
Classifier 1**



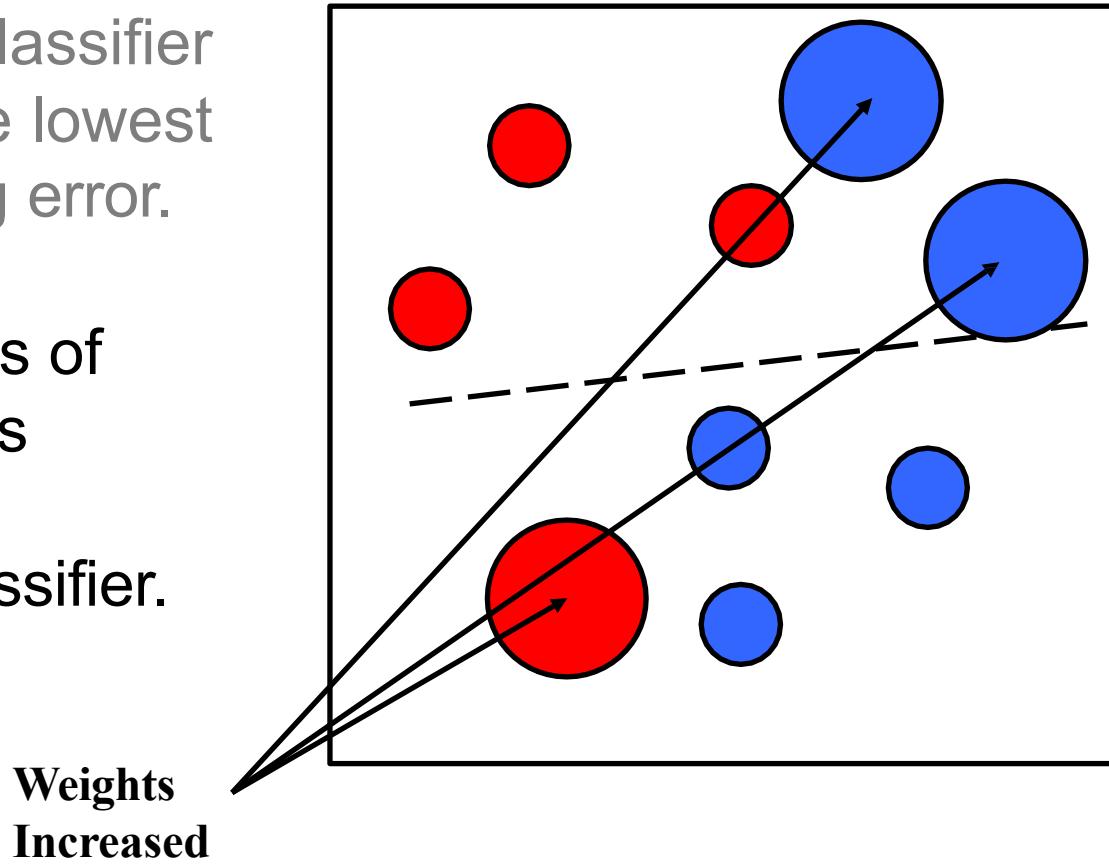
Boosting illustration

In each boosting round:

Find the weak classifier
that achieves the lowest
weighted training error.

Raise the weights of
training examples
misclassified by
current weak classifier.

Round 1:



Boosting illustration

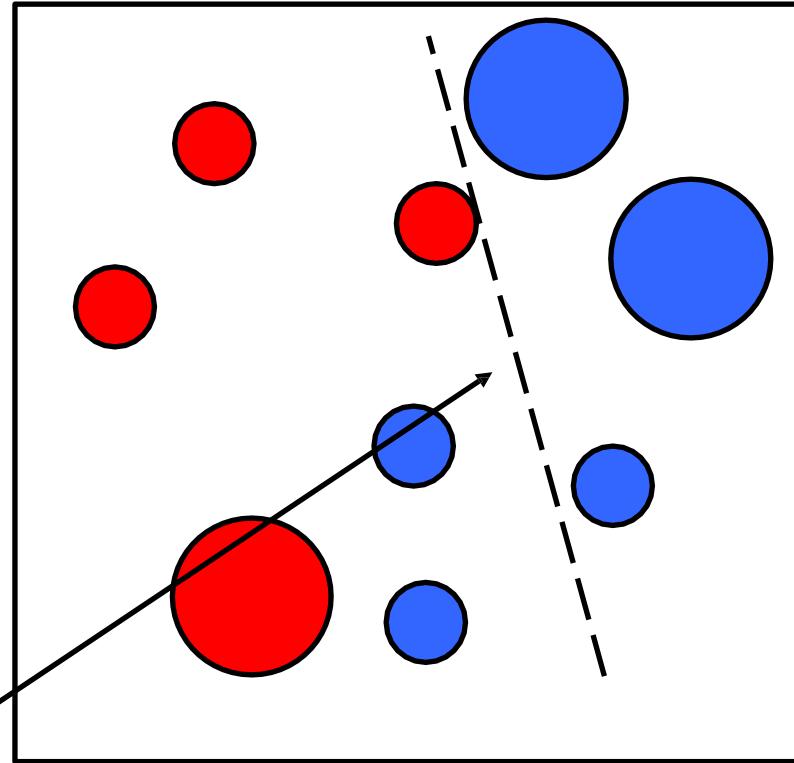
In each boosting round:

Find the weak classifier that achieves the lowest *weighted* training error.

Raise the weights of training examples misclassified by current weak classifier.

Weak
Classifier 2

Round 2:



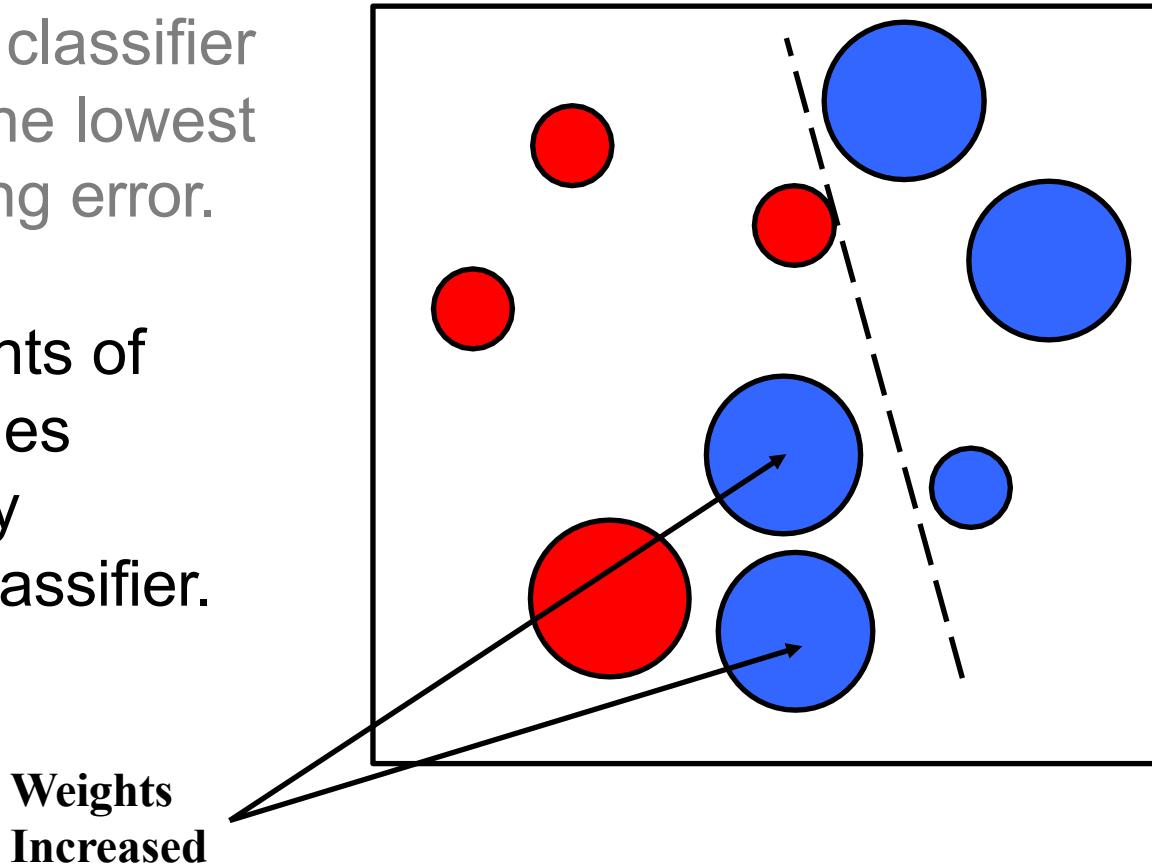
Boosting illustration

In each boosting round:

Find the weak classifier
that achieves the lowest
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Round 2:



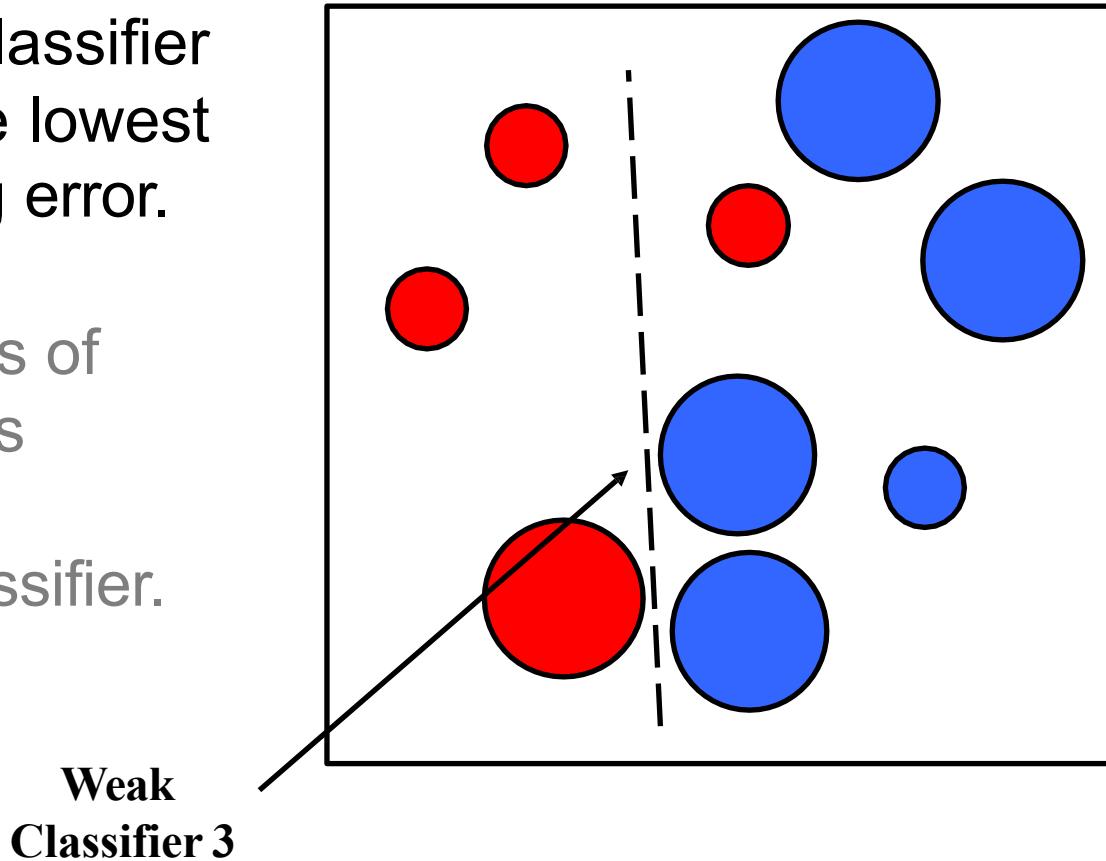
Boosting illustration

In each boosting round:

Find the weak classifier that achieves the lowest *weighted* training error.

Raise the weights of training examples misclassified by current weak classifier.

Round 3:

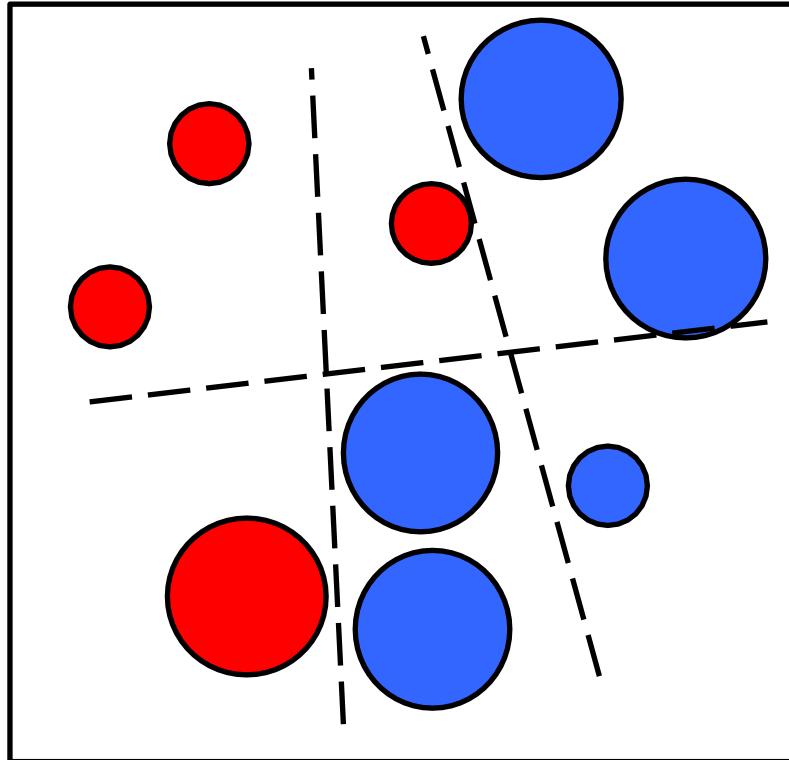


Boosting illustration

Compute final classifier as linear combination of all weak classifier.

Weight of each classifier is directly proportional to its accuracy.

Round 3:



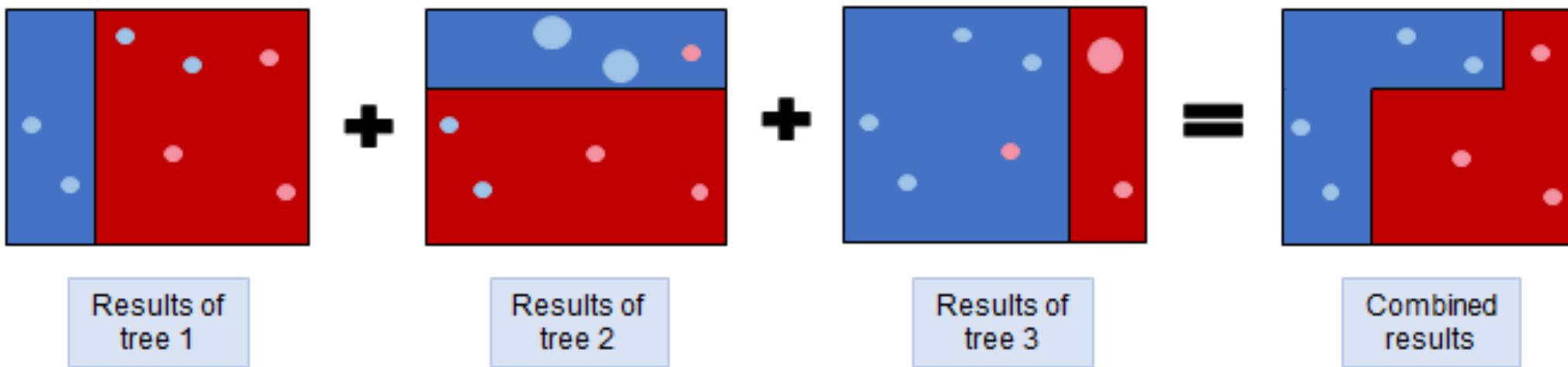
Exact formulas for re-weighting and combining weak learners depend on the boosting scheme (e.g., AdaBoost).

Y. Freund and R. Schapire, [A short introduction to boosting](#),
Journal of Japanese Society for Artificial Intelligence, 14(5):771-780, September, 1999.

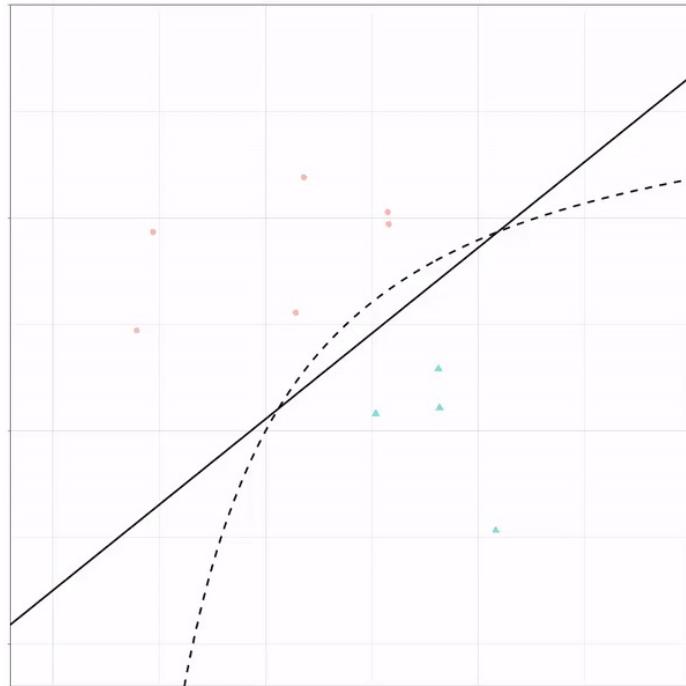
Boosting illustration: Overall Workflow

AdaBoost:

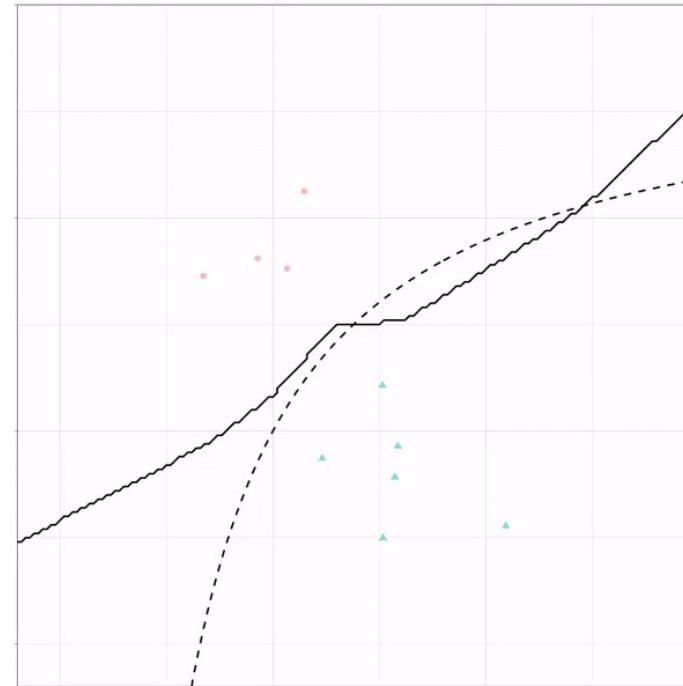
- Combining **weak learners** (decision trees)
- Assigning **weights** to **incorrect values**
- **Sequential tree growing** considering past mistakes



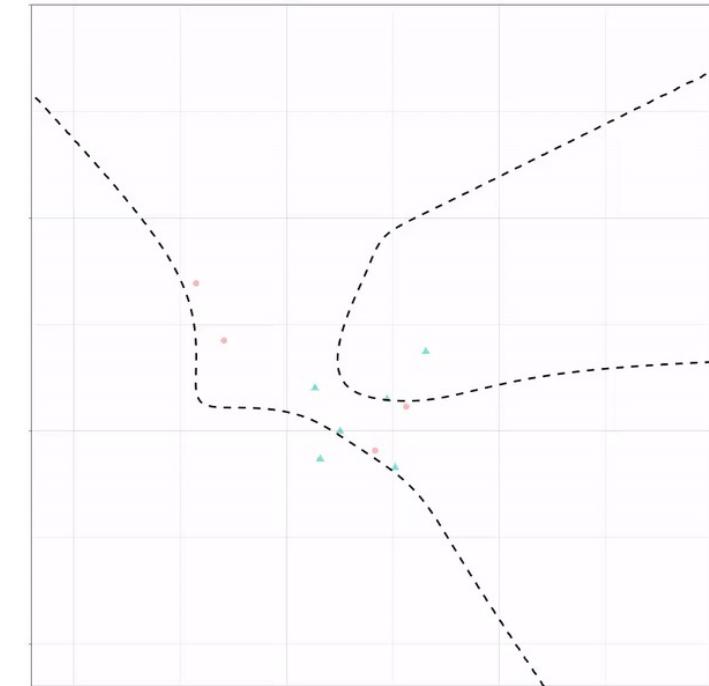
Boosting illustration: Decision Boundary Visualization



Logistic Classifier



K-NN Classifier



Boosting
(here we used [gradient boosting](#))

Harr feature selection with boosting

- Create a large pool of features (160K)
- Select discriminative features that work well together

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{j=1}^M \alpha_j h_j(\mathbf{x}) \right)$$

Final strong learner
window
Weak learner
Learner weight

– “Weak learner” = feature + threshold + ‘polarity’

$$h_j(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} -s_j & \text{if } f_j < \theta_j \\ s_j & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

value of rectangle feature
threshold

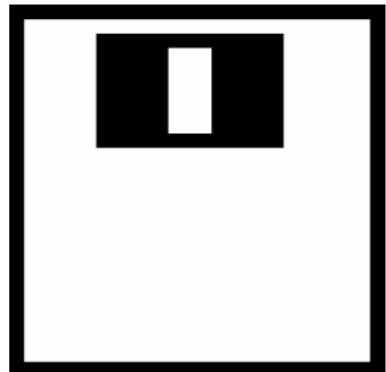
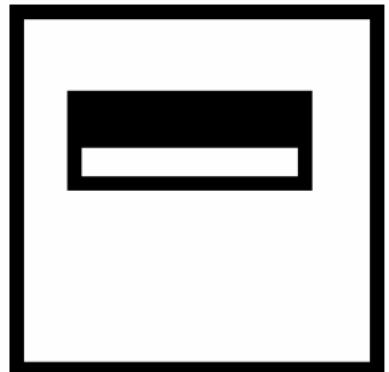
‘polarity’ = black or white region flip $\rightarrow s_j \in \pm 1$

– Train & choose weak learner that minimizes error on the weighted training set, then reweight

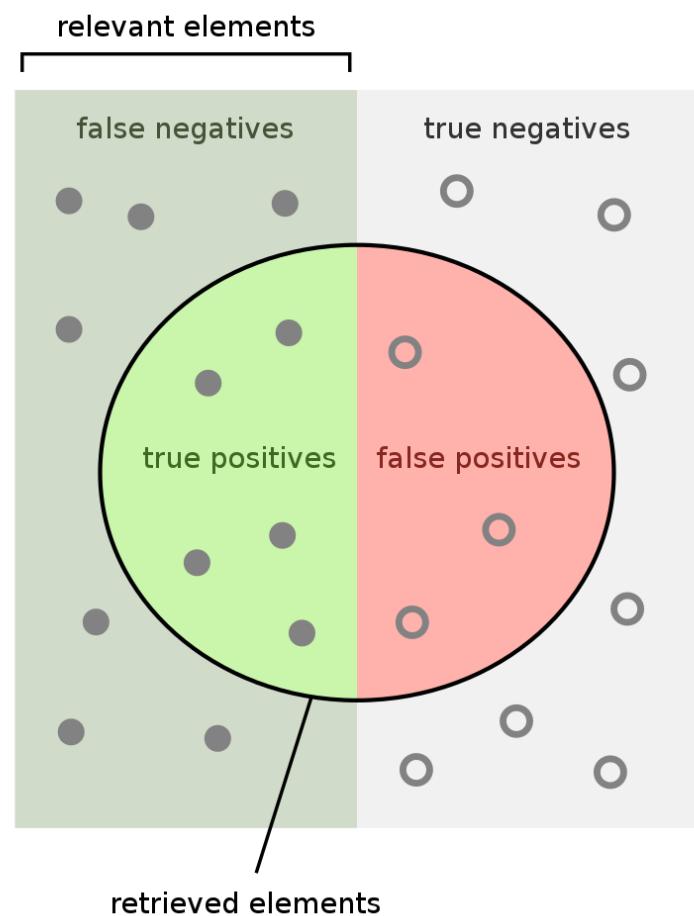


Boosting for face detection

- First two features selected by boosting:



This feature combination can already yield 100% recall and 50% false positive rate!



How many retrieved items are relevant?

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{green}}{\text{green} + \text{red}}$$

How many relevant items are retrieved?

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{green}}{\text{green} + \text{black}}$$



Edge Features

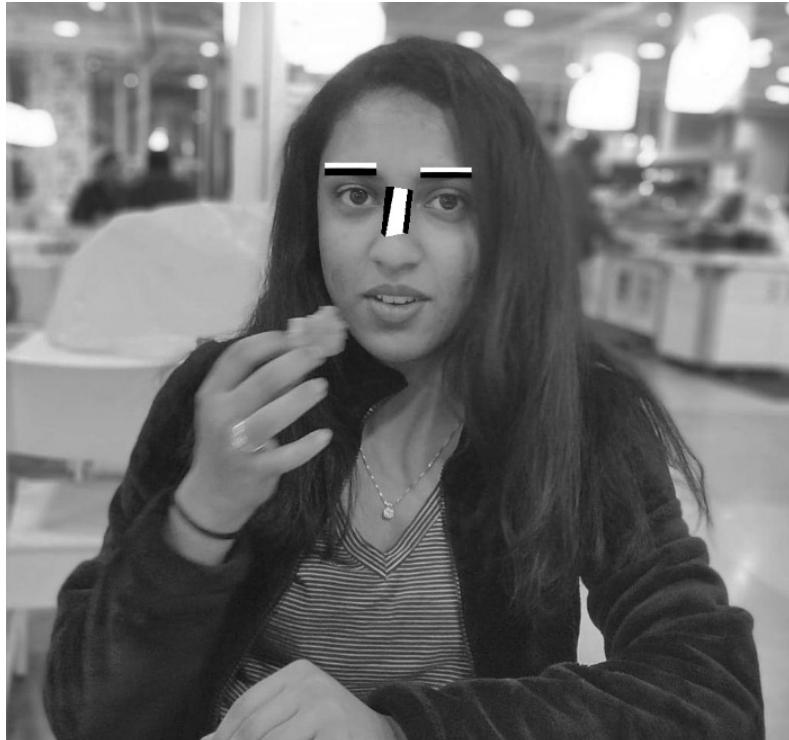


Line Features



Four-rectangle Features

Important Features for Face Detection



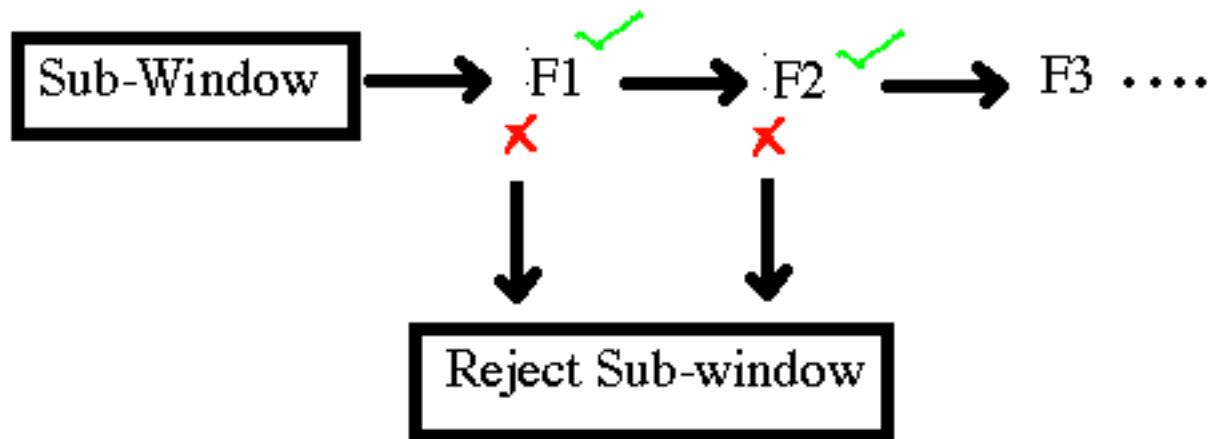
$$F(x) = \alpha_1 f_1(x) + \alpha_2 f_2(x) + \alpha_3 f_3(x) + \dots$$



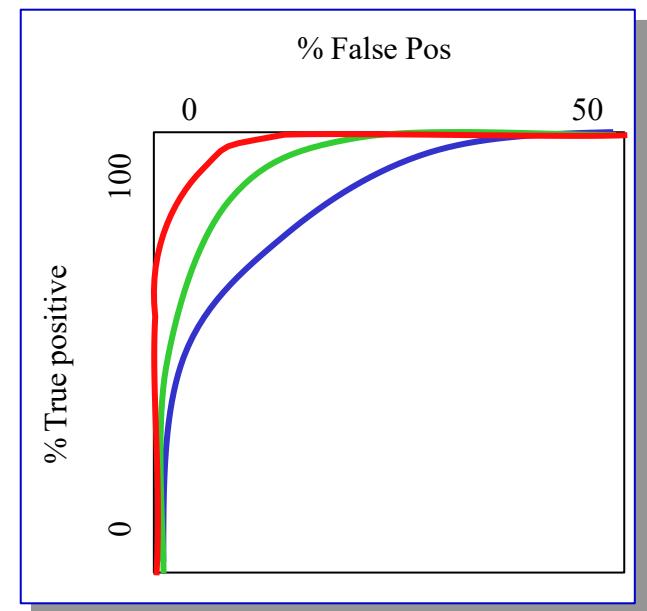
3. Attentional cascade

- Chain classifiers that are progressively more complex
- Minimize *false positive rates* at each stage, not absolute error

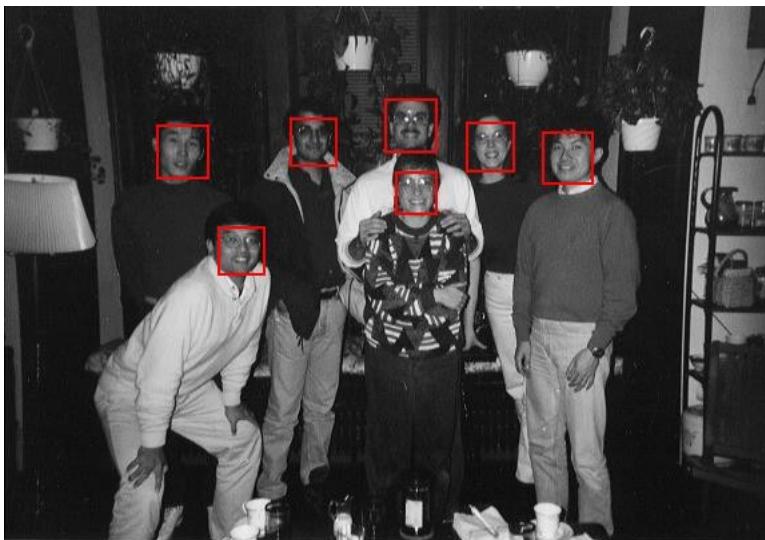
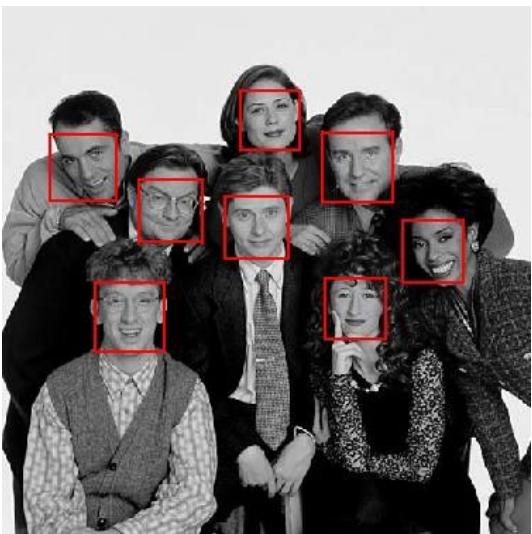
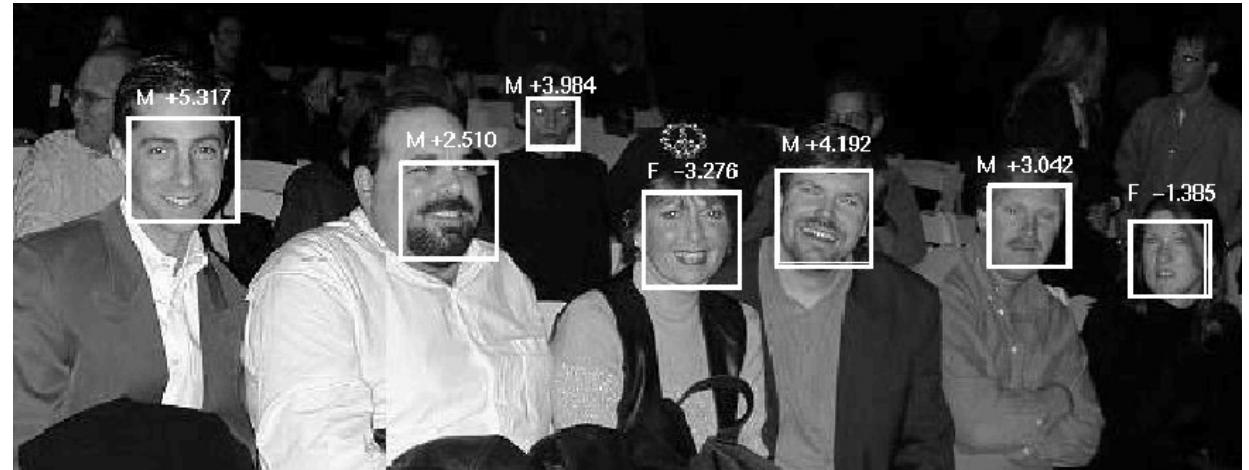
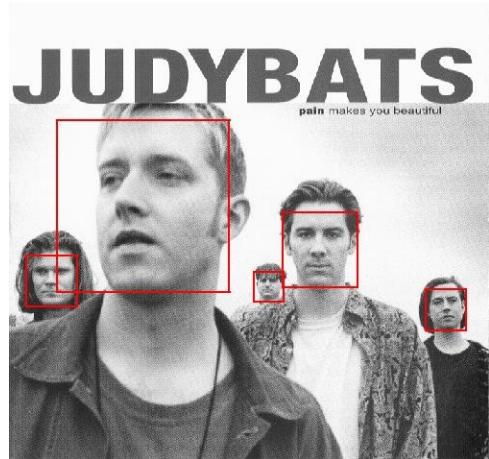
$$F(x) = a_1f_1(x) + a_2f_2(x) + a_3f_3(x) \dots$$



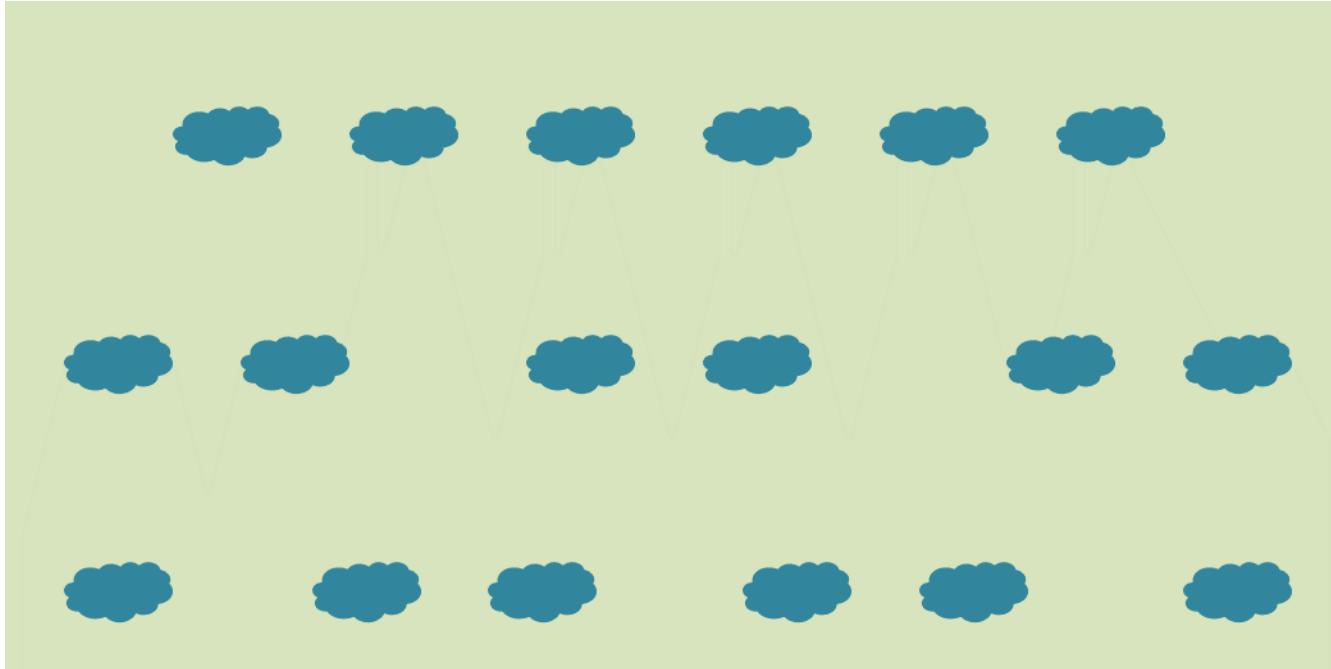
Receiver operating characteristic



Viola/Jones detector is very powerful

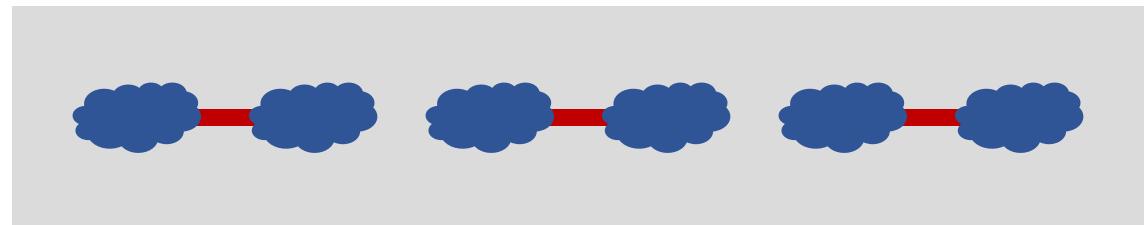
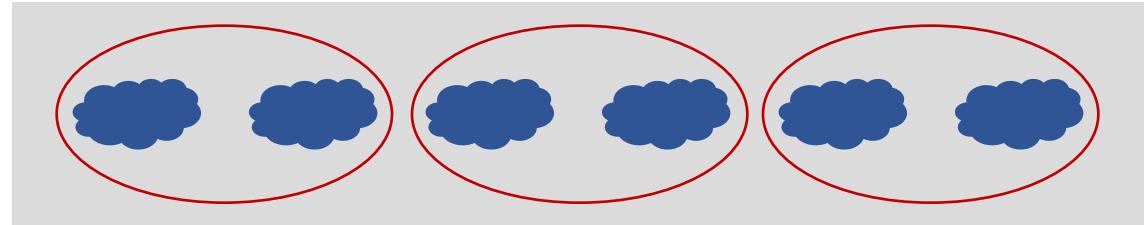


Question: what makes an object “segmentable”?



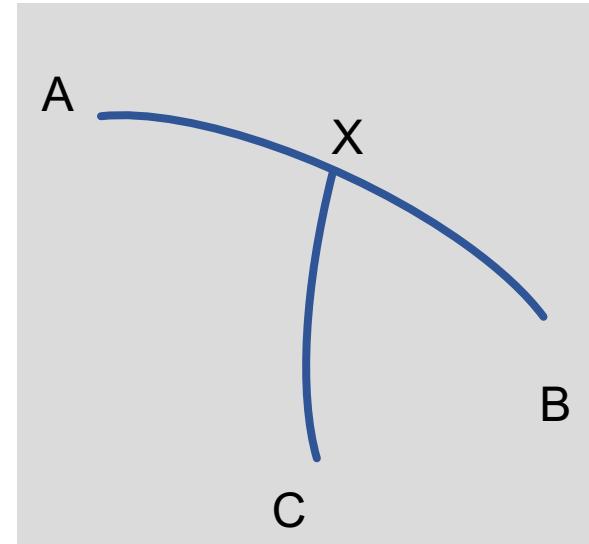
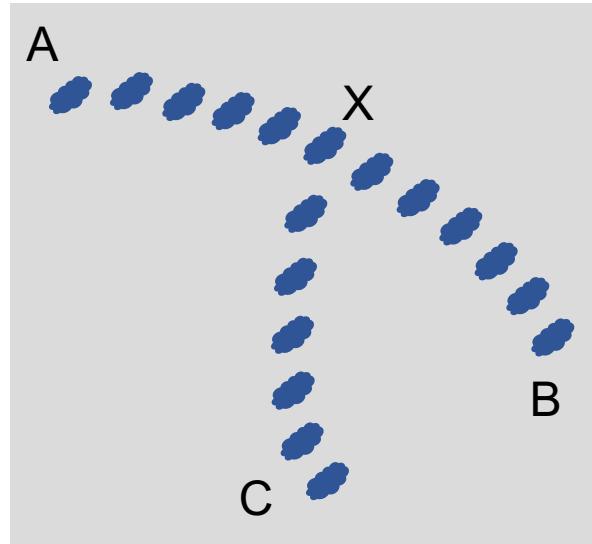
Objects with similar motion or change in appearance are grouped together

Common Region/Connectivity



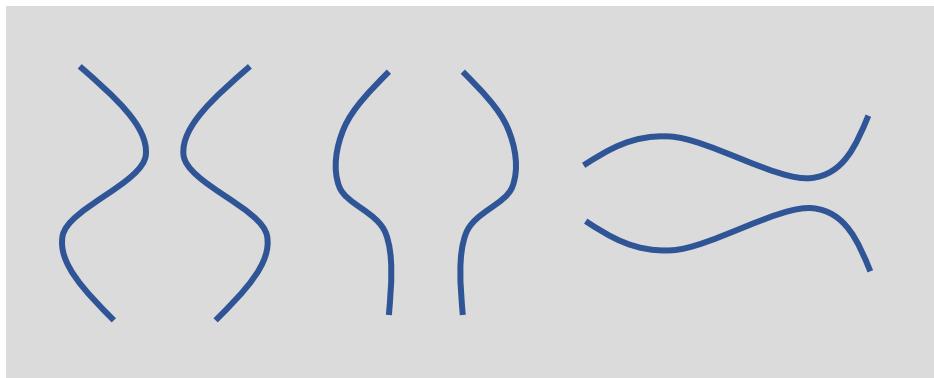
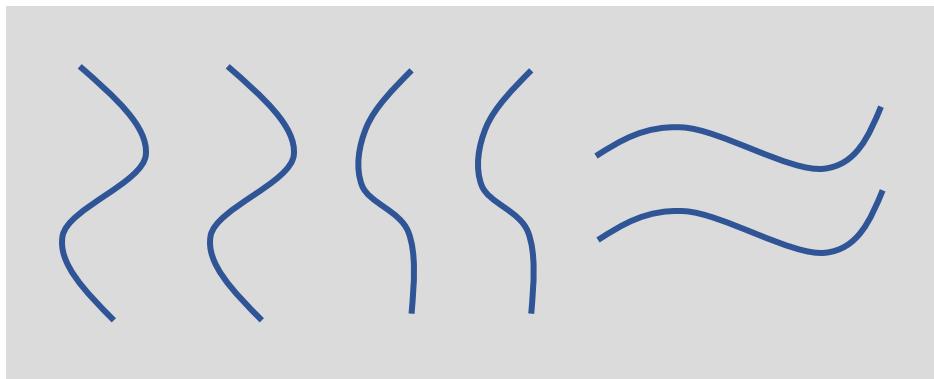
Connected objects are grouped together

Continuity Principle

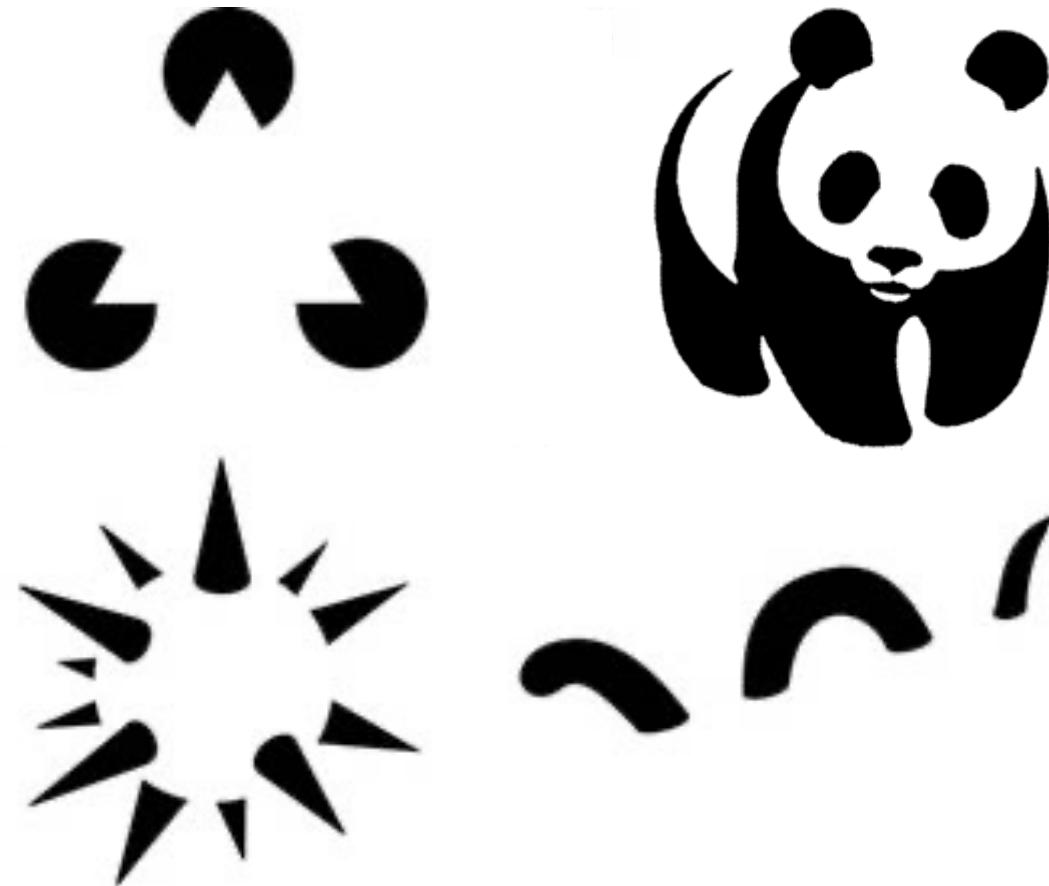


Features on a continuous curve are grouped together

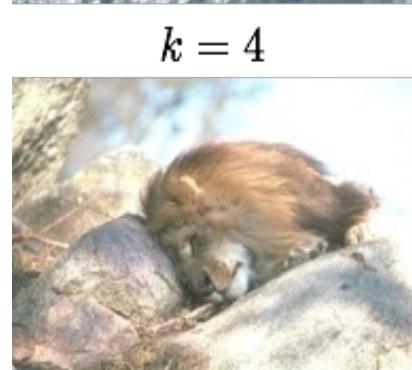
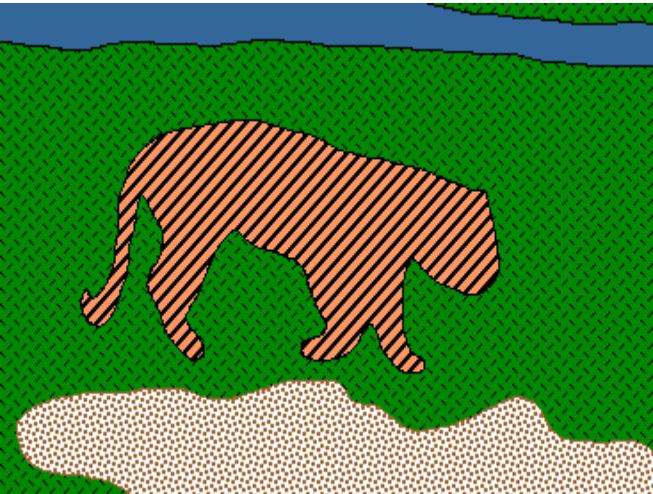
Symmetry Principle



Completion

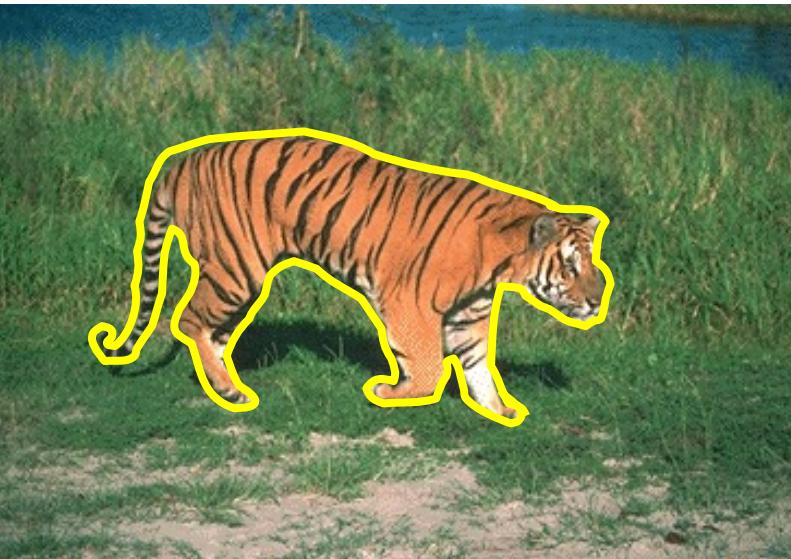


Illusory or subjective contours are perceived



$k = 4$

$nc = .0017$



$k = 5$

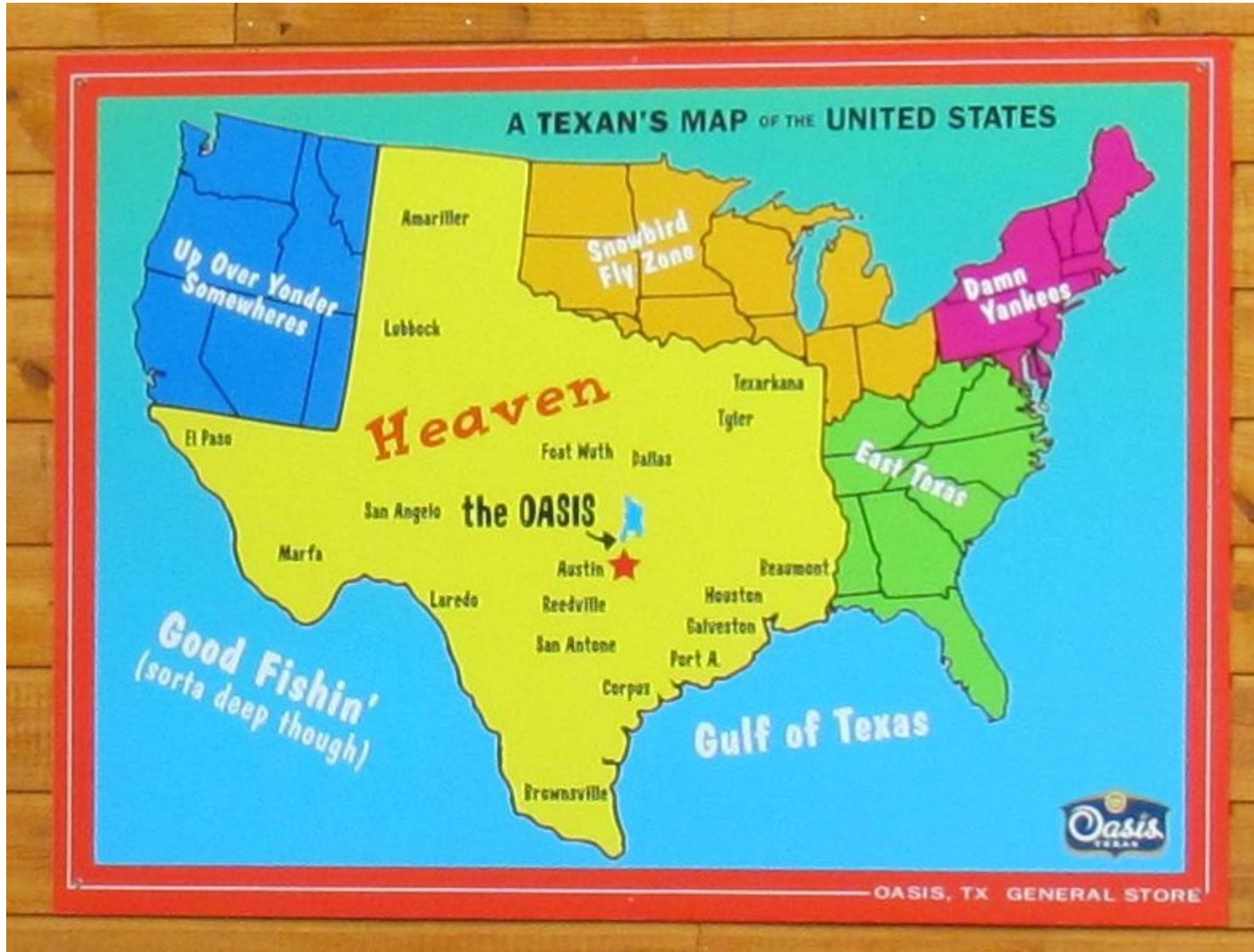
$nc = .0060$

$k = 11$

Segmentation
may never
have “ground
truth”...

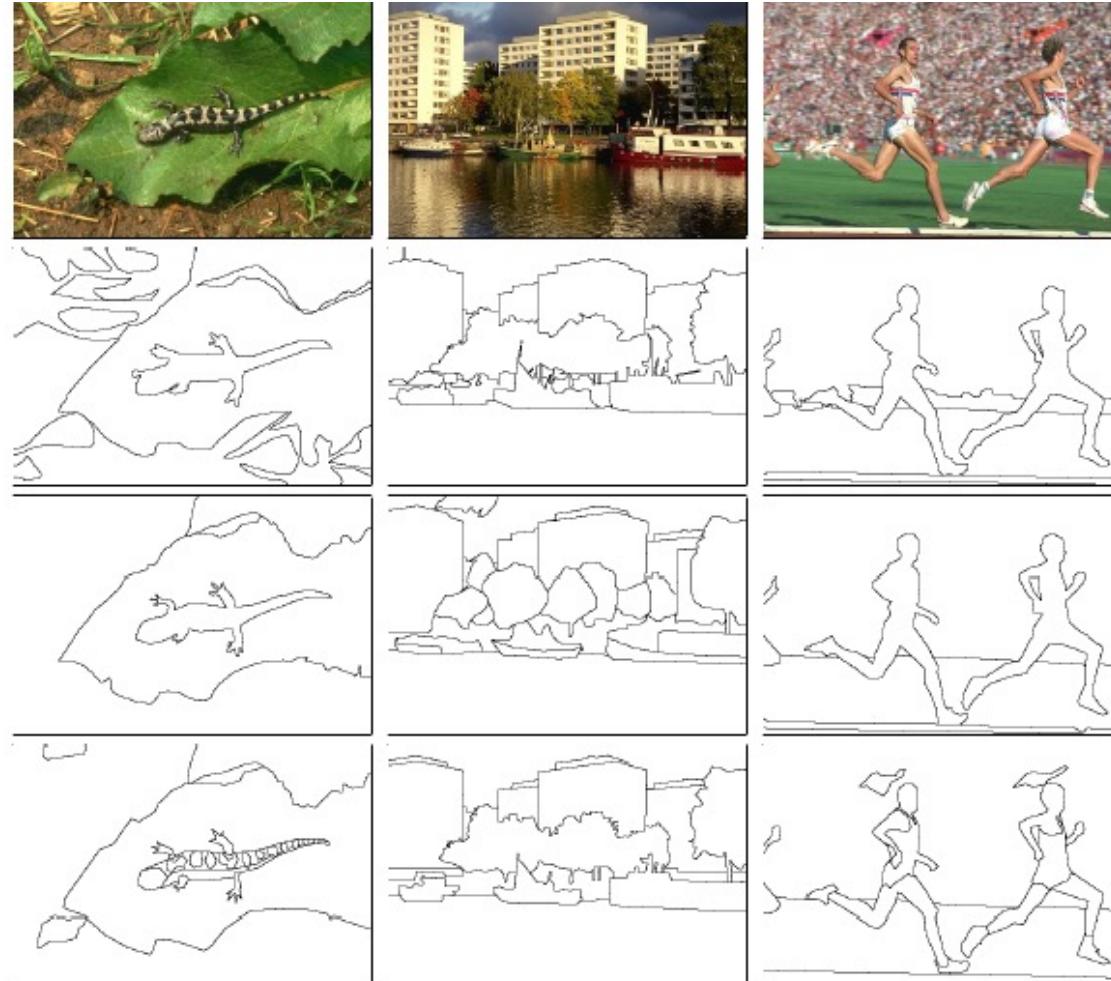


Segmentation
may never
have “ground
truth”...



What is a “good” segmentation??

- No objective definition of segmentation!
- Compare to human “ground truth”



• <http://www.eecs.berkeley.edu/Research/Projects/CS/vision/grouping/resources.html>

Evaluation: Intersection-over-Union (IoU) with ground truth



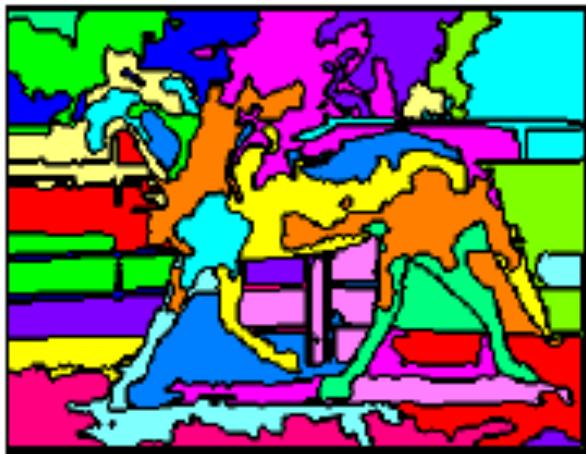
.825

$$OS(S, G) = \frac{|S \cap G|}{|S \cup G|}$$

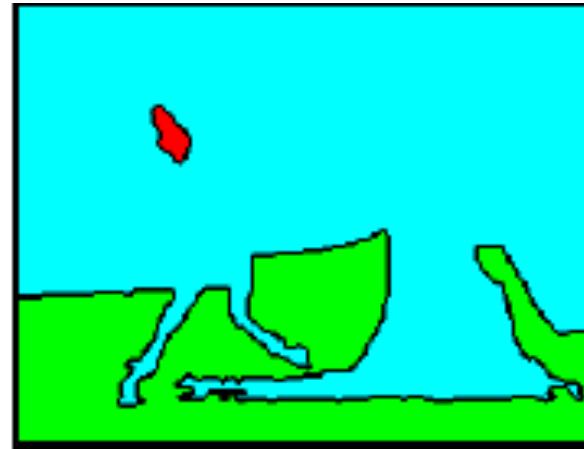


.892

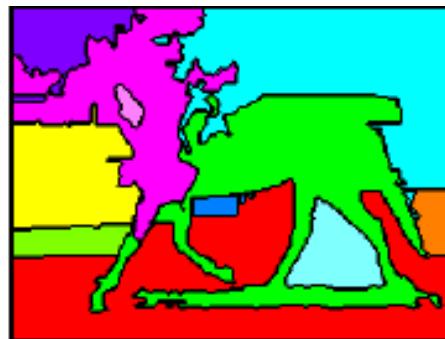
Types of segmentations



Oversegmentation



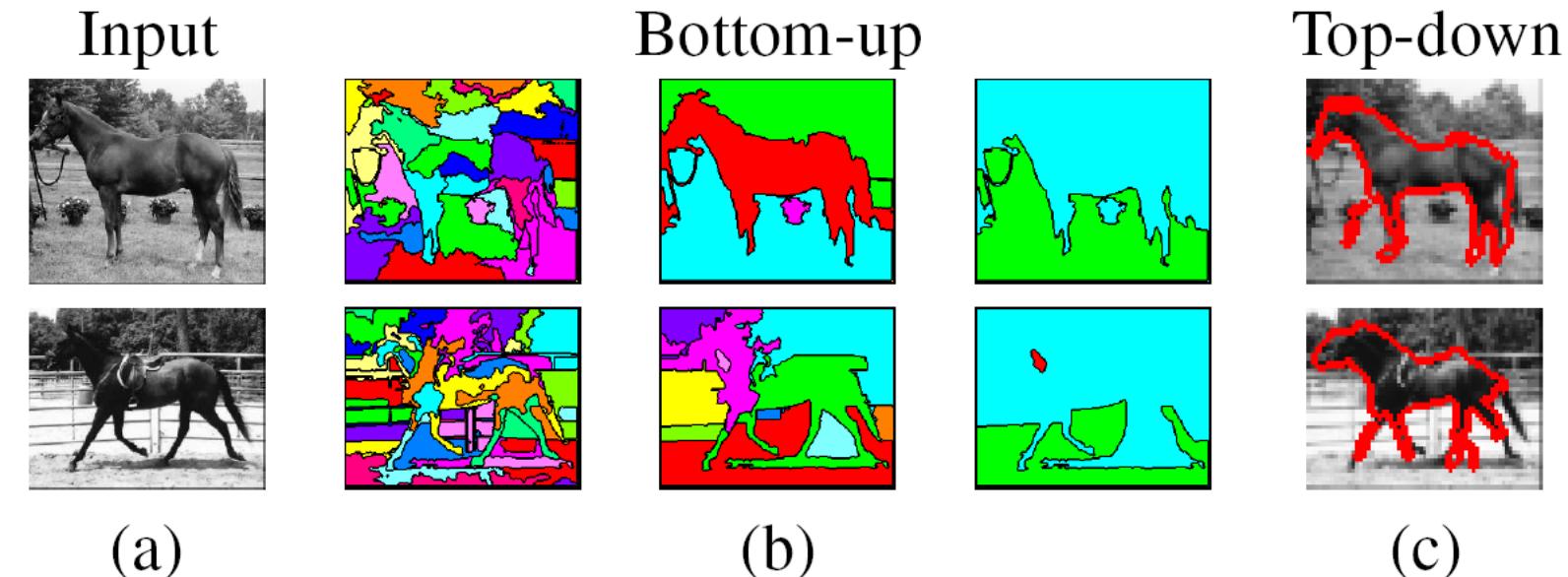
Undersegmentation



Multiple Segmentations

Major ideas for segmentation

- Bottom-up: group tokens with similar features
- Top-down: group tokens that likely belong to the same object

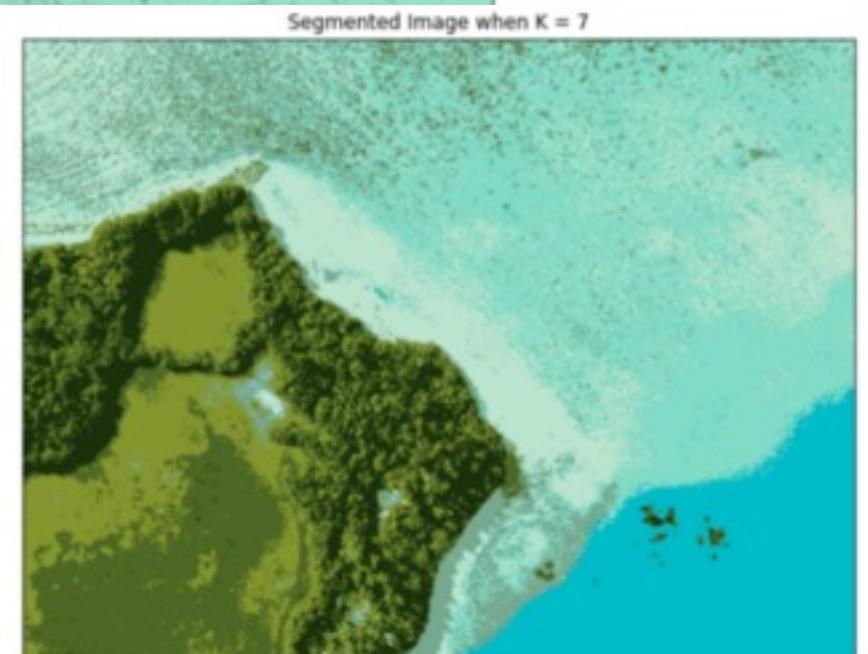
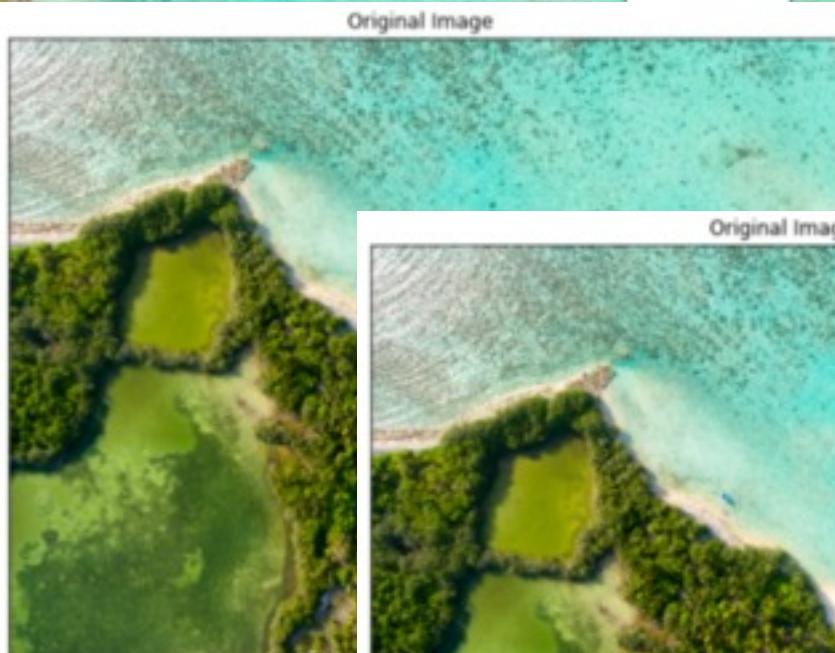


[Levin and Weiss 2006]

Main approaches

- Spectral techniques
- Segmentation as boundary detection
- **Clustering and mean shift**
- **Graph-based techniques**
- Deep learning techniques

K-means can be “okay” image segmentation

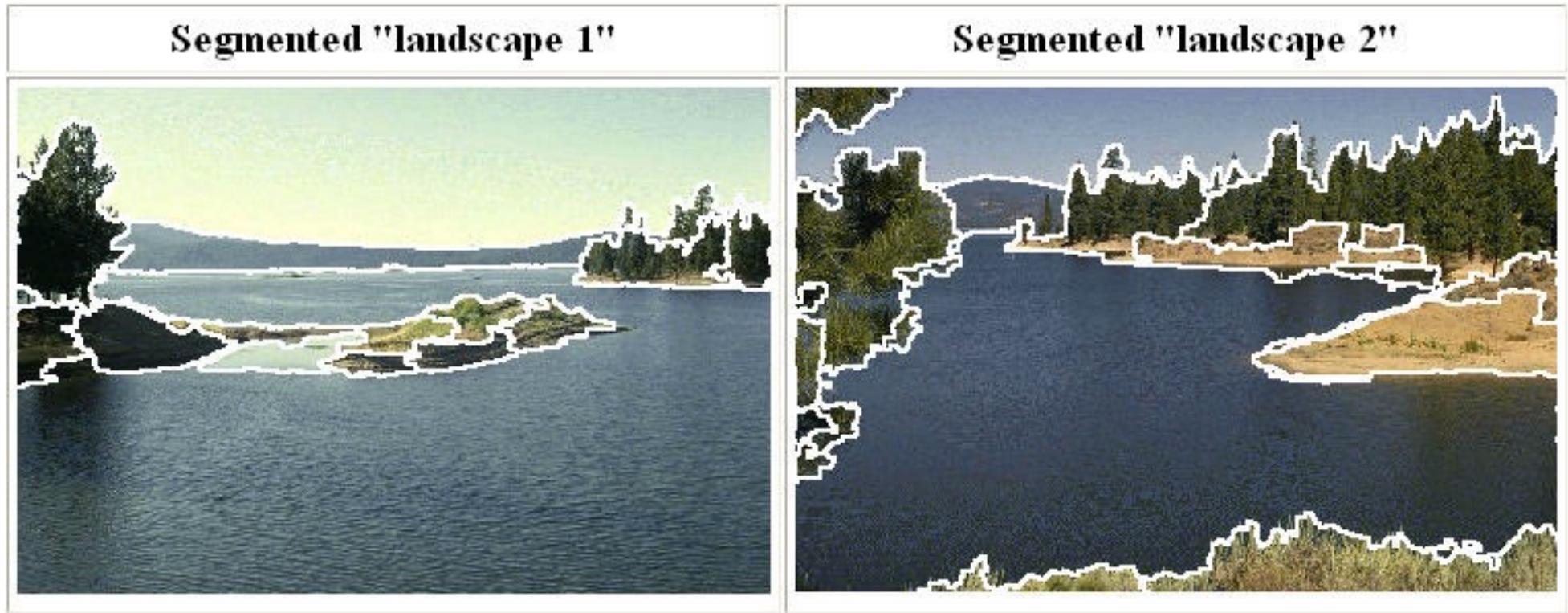


*Rarely
directly
used...*

Mean shift segmentation

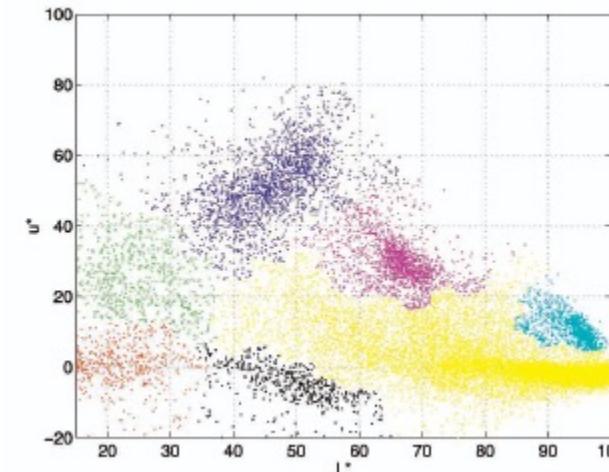
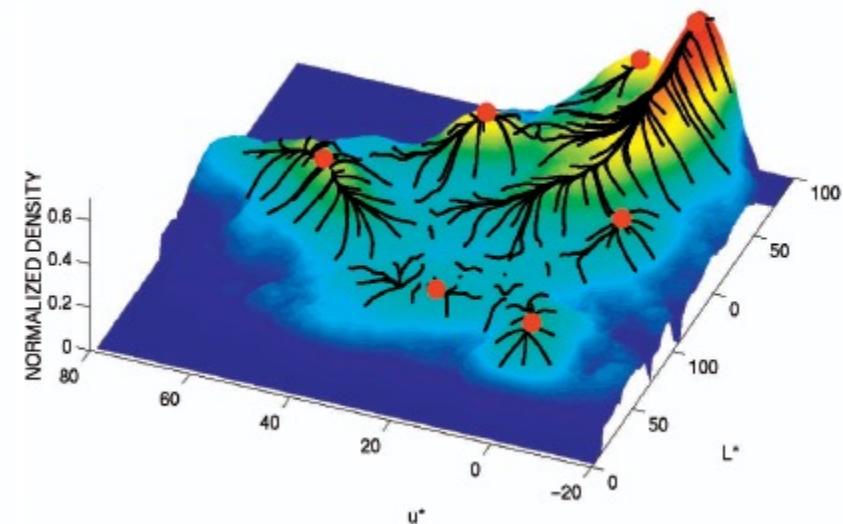
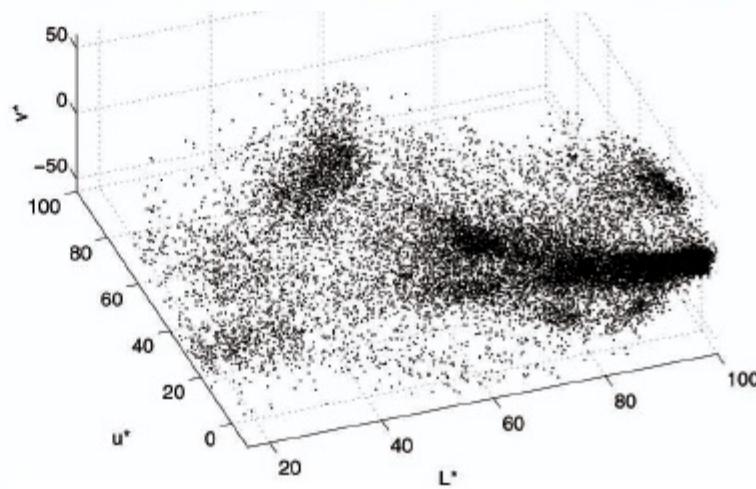
D. Comaniciu and P. Meer, Mean Shift: A Robust Approach toward Feature Space Analysis, PAMI 2002.

- Versatile technique for clustering-based segmentation!
- non-parametric algorithm that clusters data iteratively by finding the densest regions (clusters) in a feature space

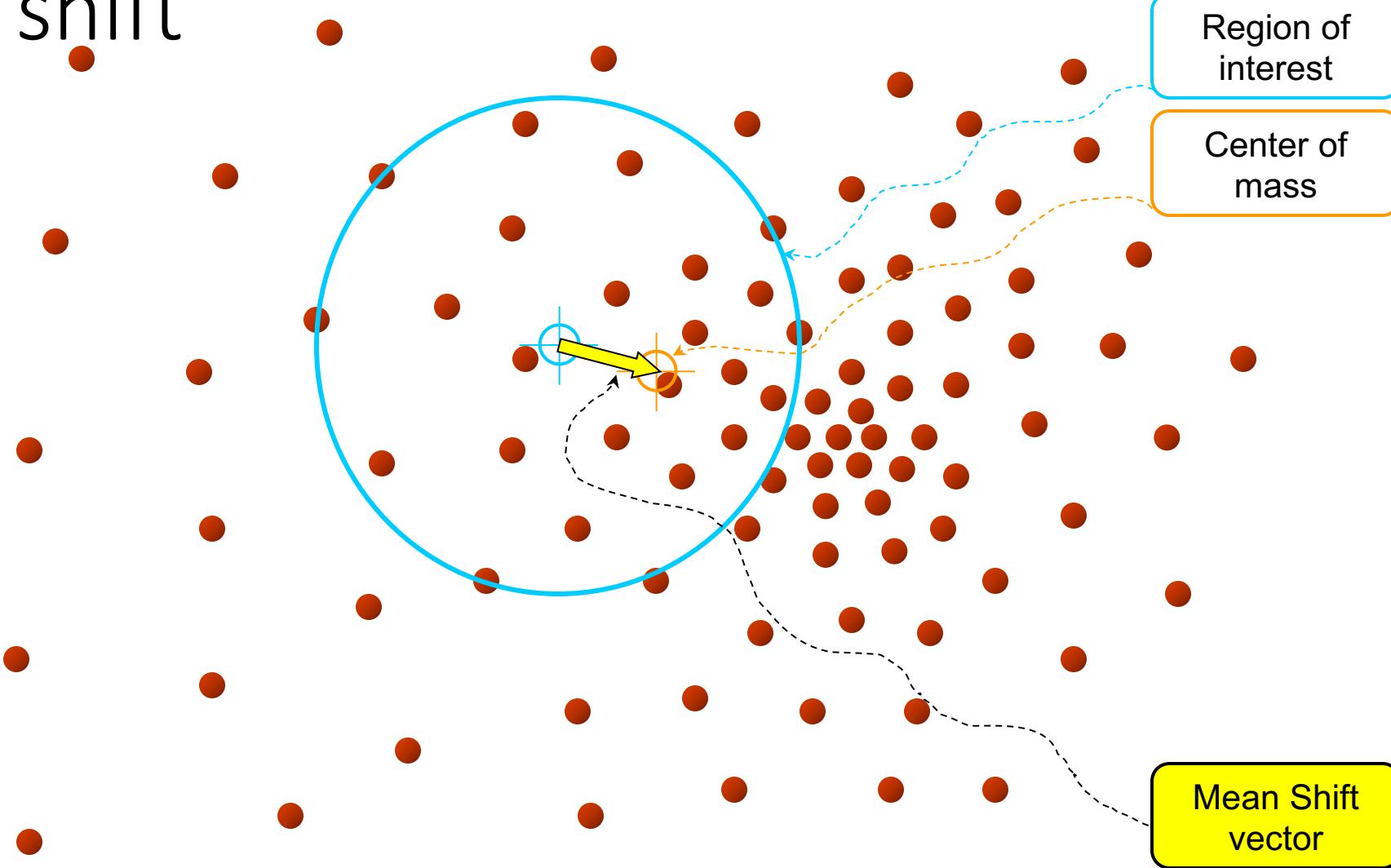


Mean shift algorithm

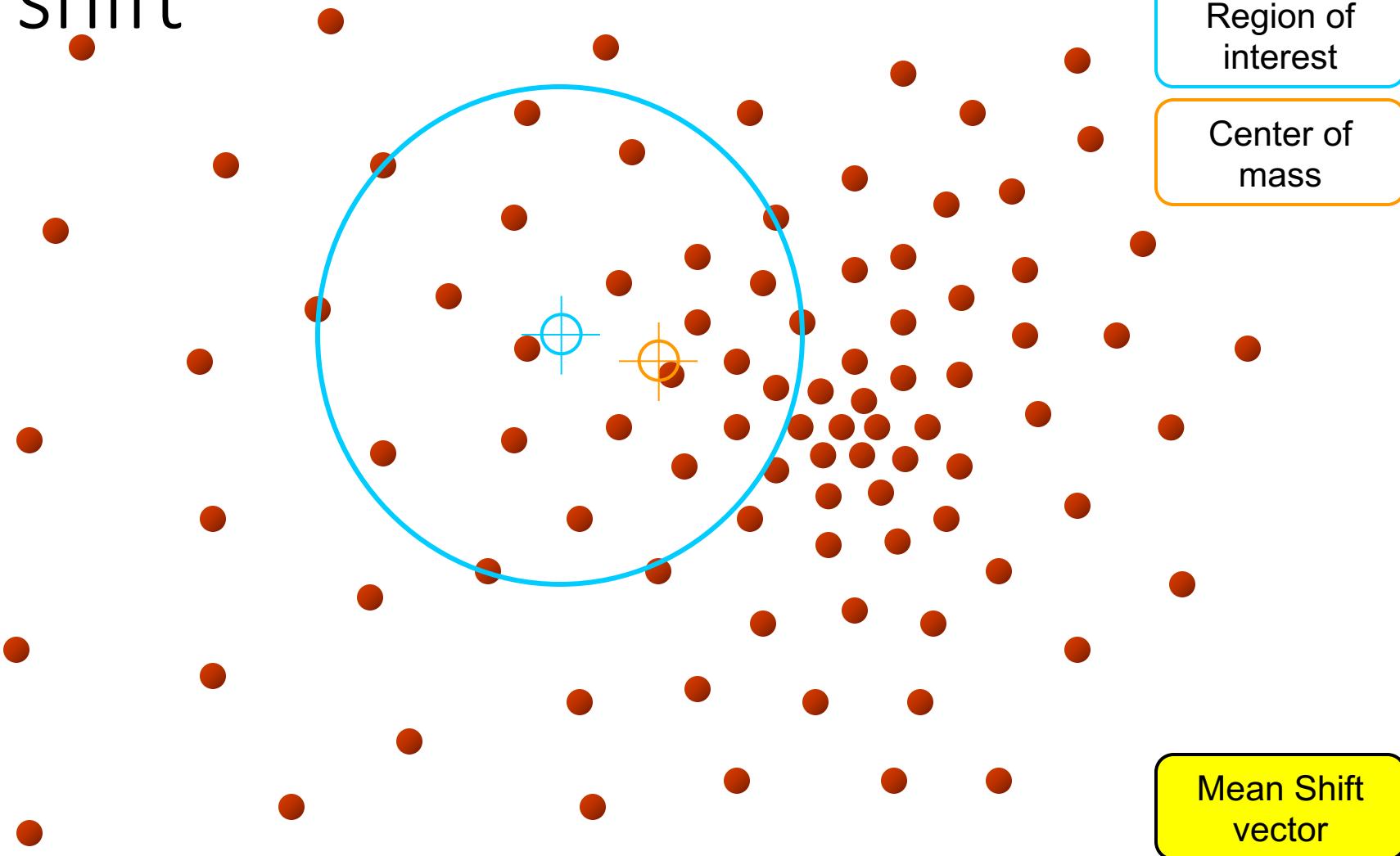
- Try to find *modes* of this non-parametric density



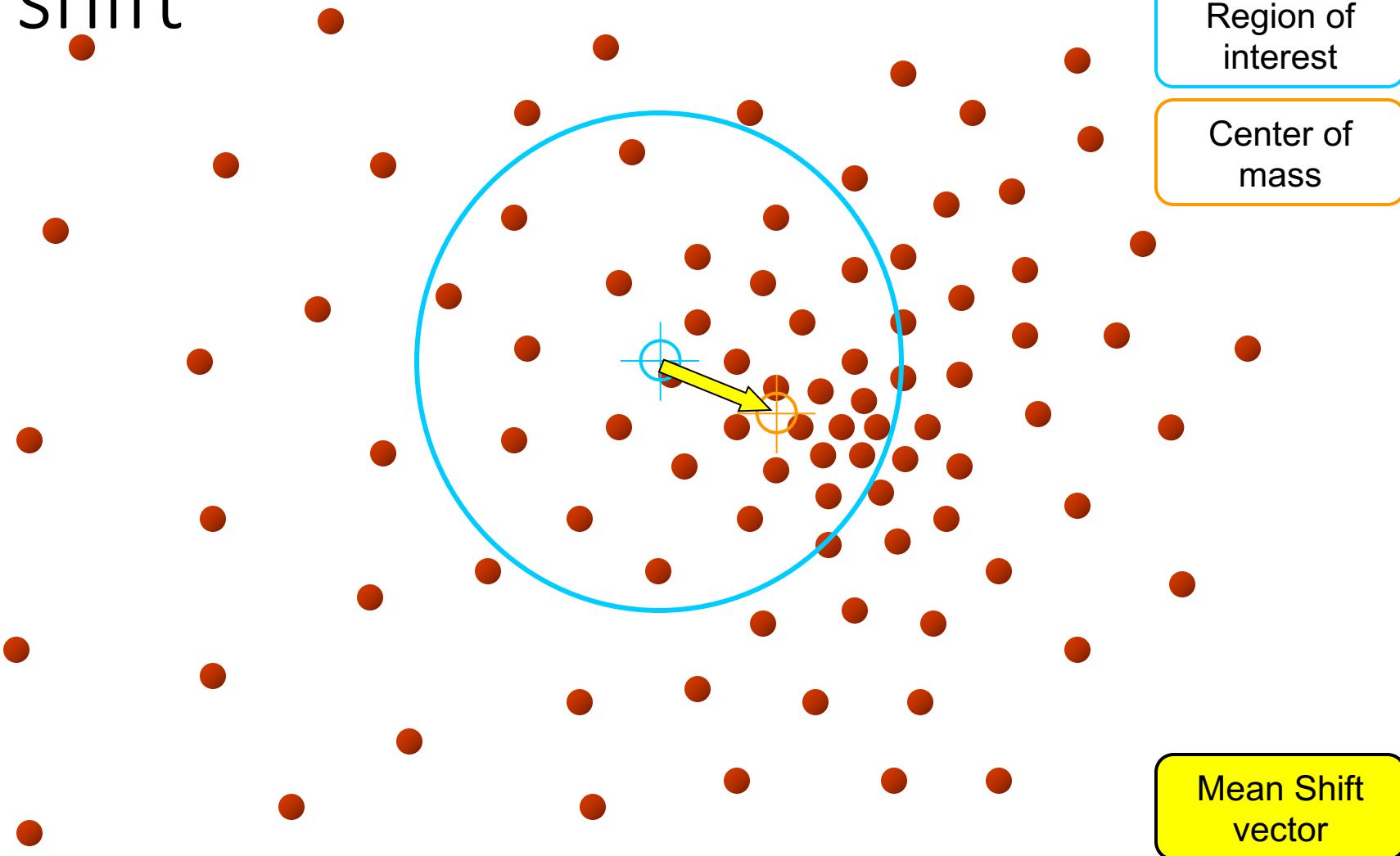
Mean shift



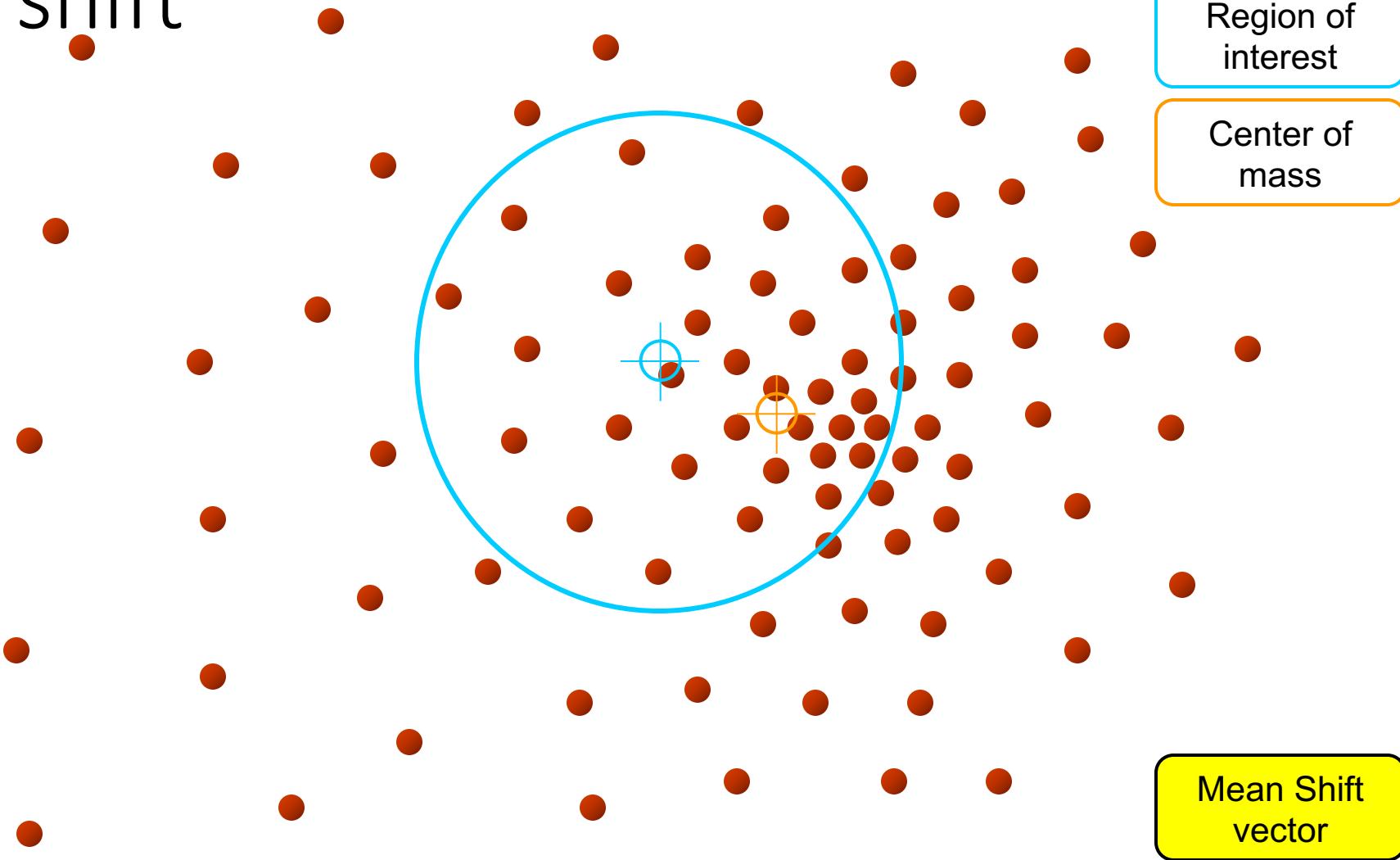
Mean shift



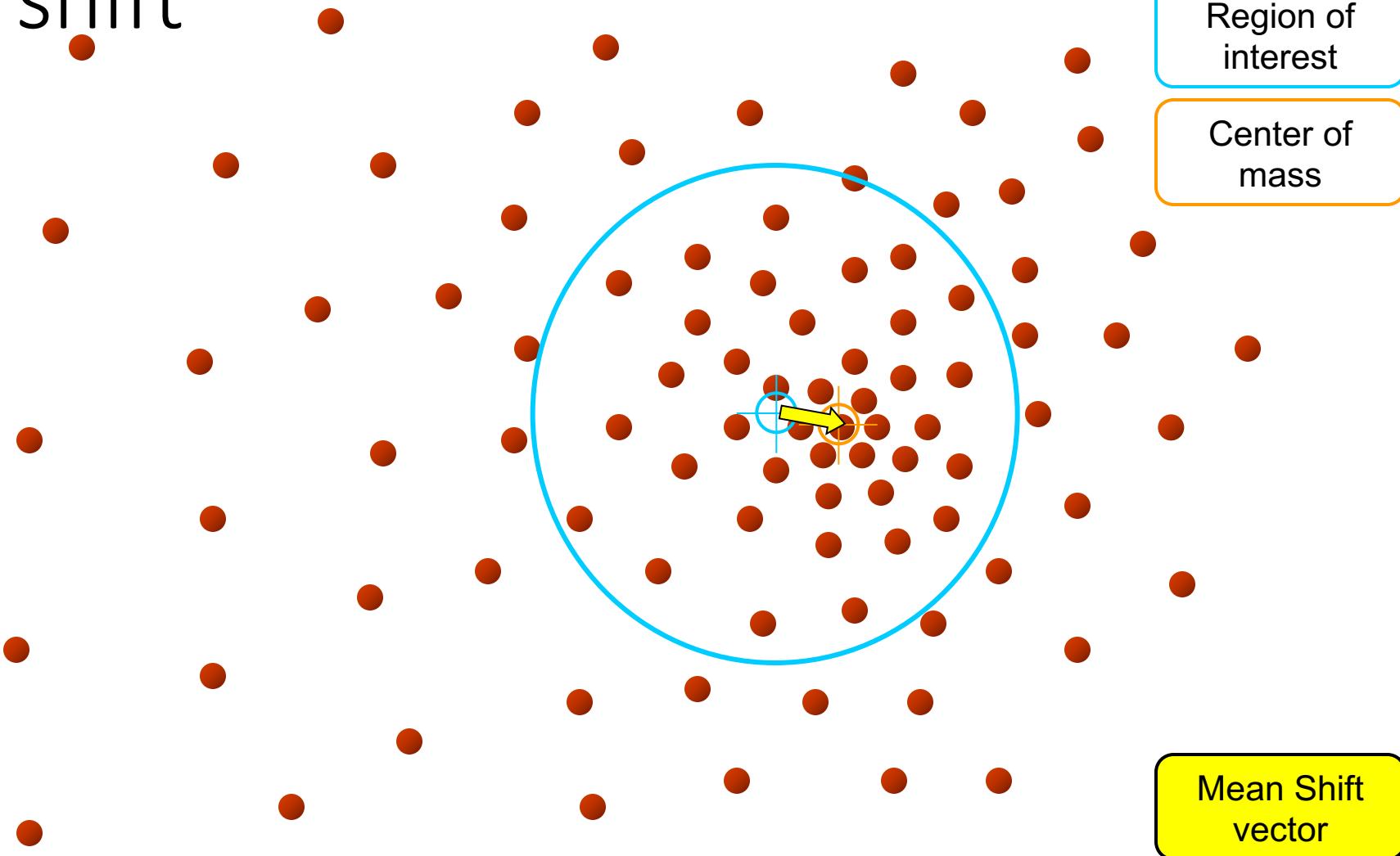
Mean shift



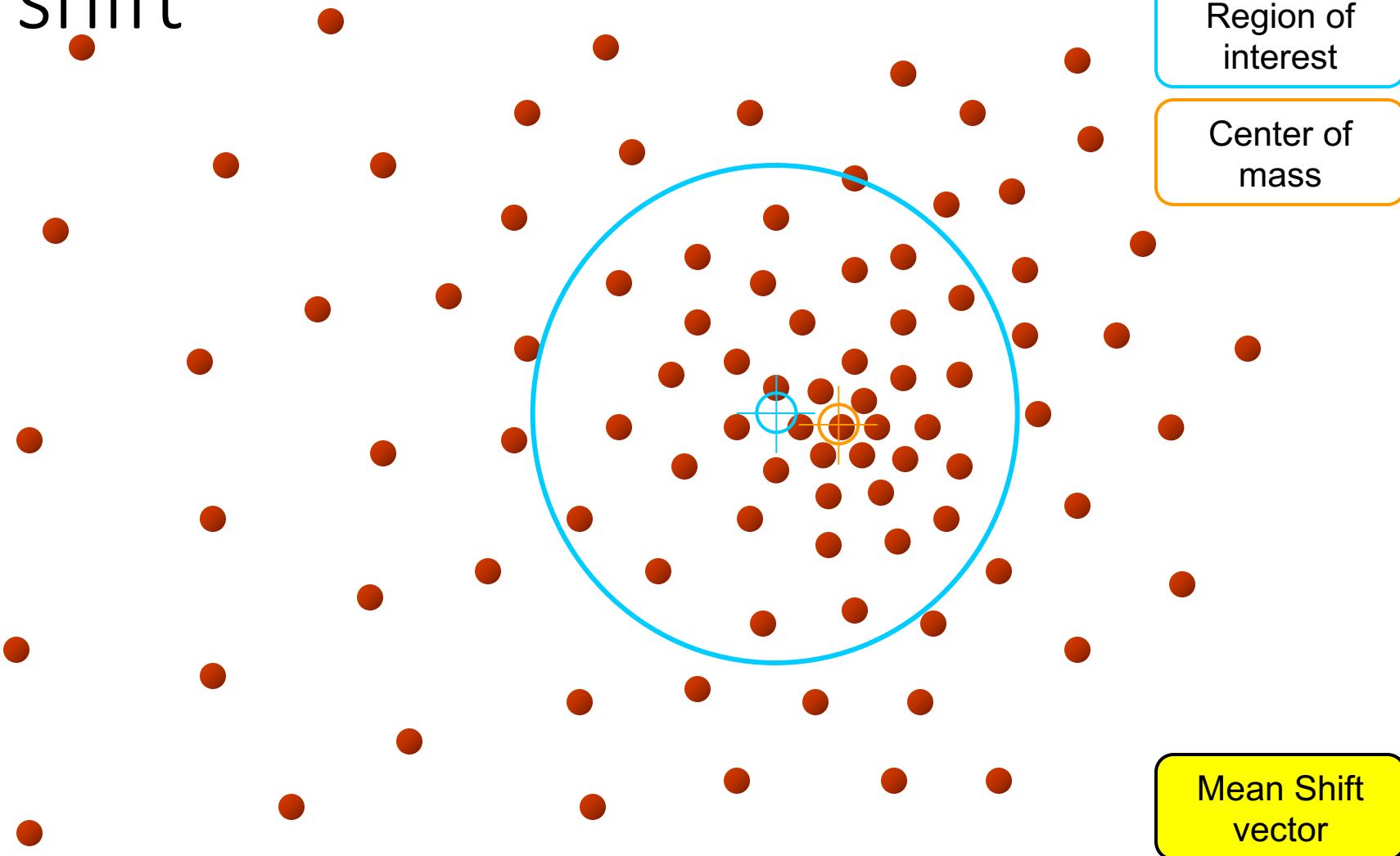
Mean shift



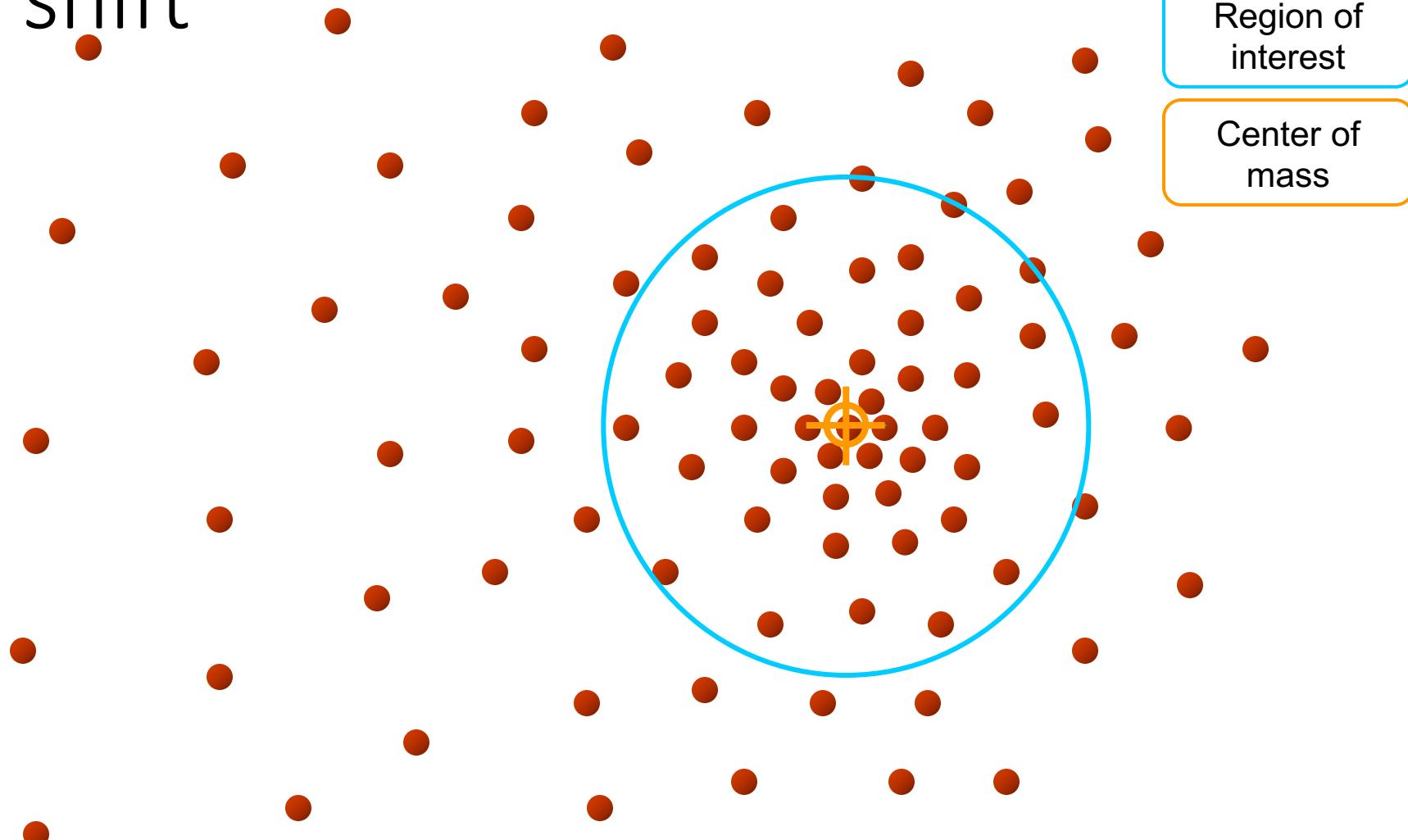
Mean shift



Mean shift



Mean shift

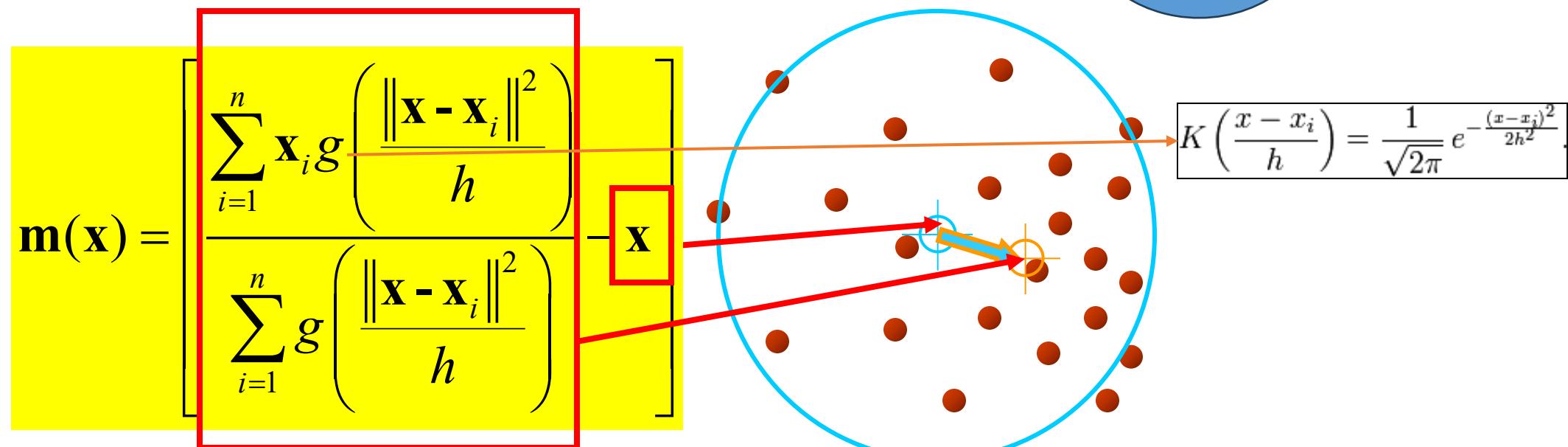


Computing the Mean Shift

Simple Mean Shift procedure:

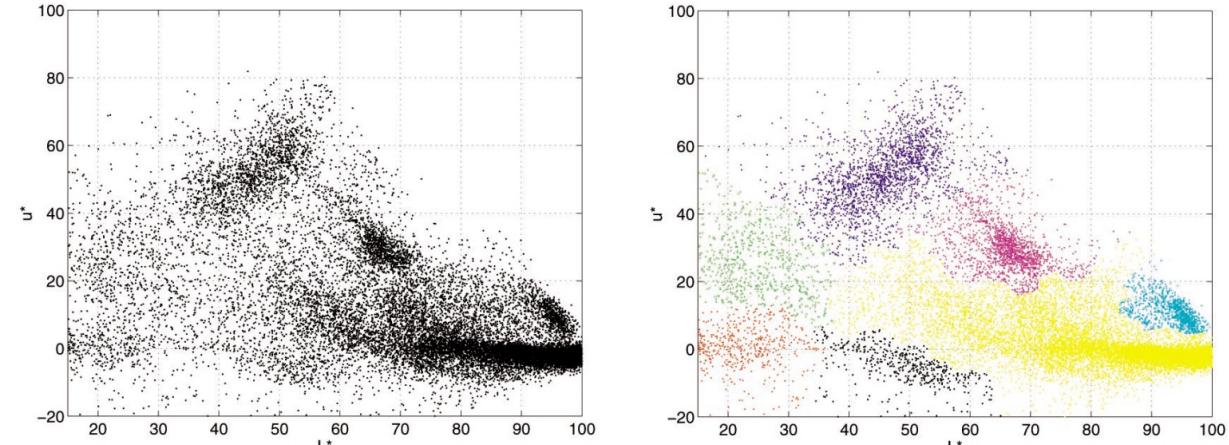
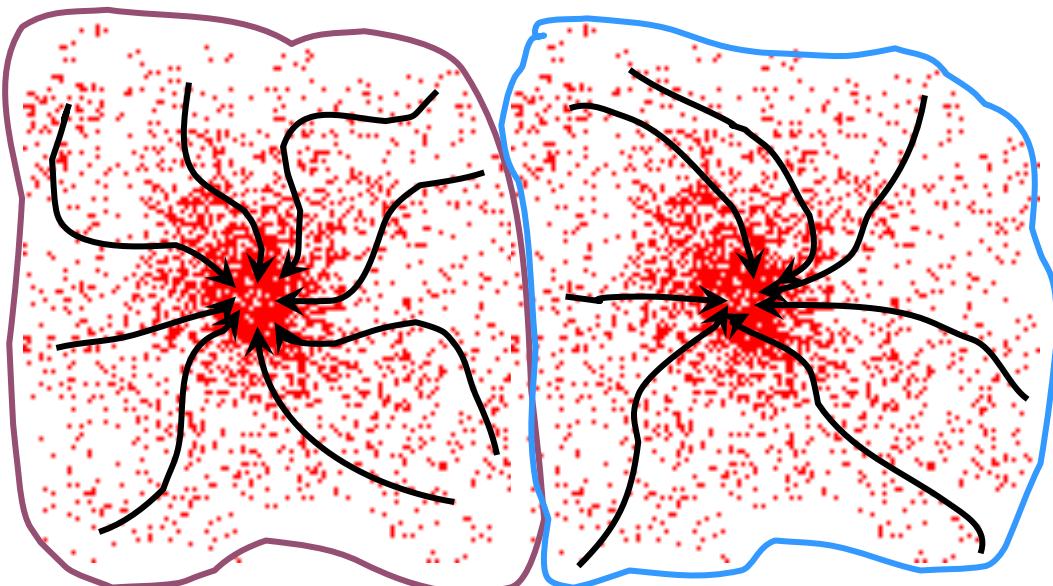
- Compute mean shift vector
- Translate the Kernel window by $\mathbf{m}(\mathbf{x})$
- **g is called a “kernel function”**

Key Difference with K-means: the “mean” is not simple averaging, but a “weighted average” counting in the **point distribution** (a special case of [Kernel Density Estimation](#))



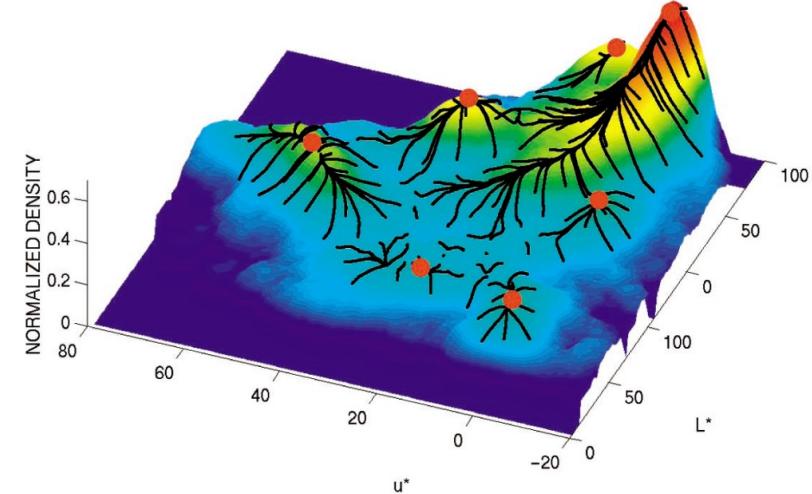
Solution Stability: Attraction basin

- **Attraction basin:** the region for which all trajectories lead to the same mode
- **Cluster:** all data points in the attraction basin of a mode



(a)

(b)



Summary of Mean Shift

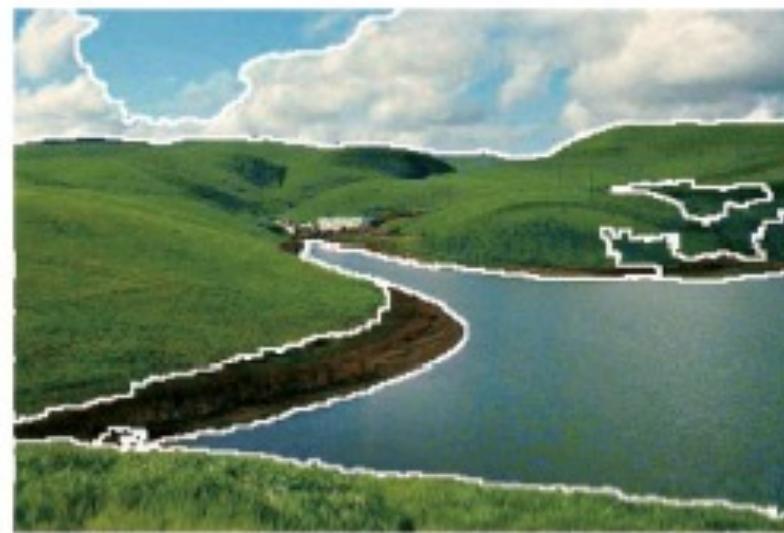
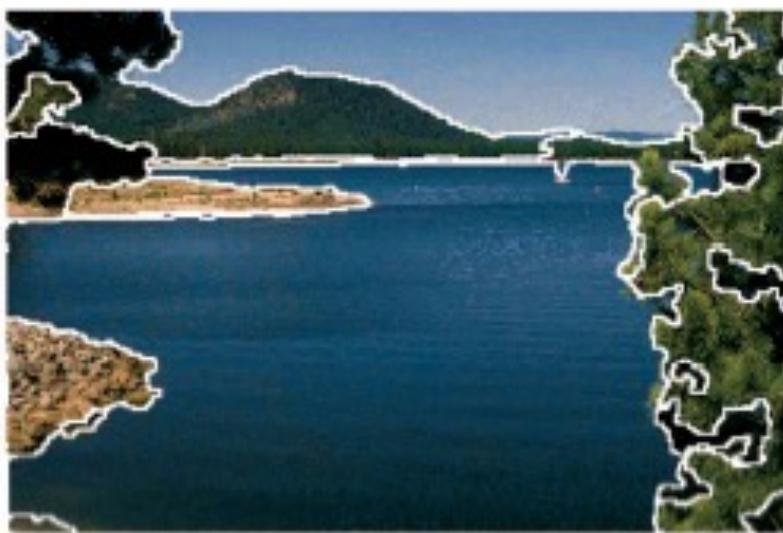
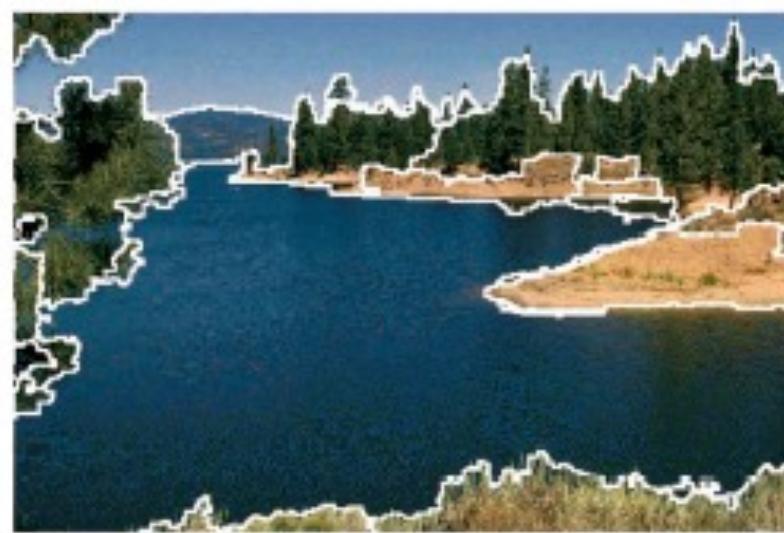
- The mean shift algorithm seeks *density modes* of the given set of points
- **We don't have to specify cluster number K**
- ... but instead, have to pick the “*kernel function*” and its *hyperparameter*

Using MeanShift for image segmentation:

- Compute features for each pixel (color, gradients, texture, etc)
- Set kernel size for features K_f and position K_s
- Initialize windows at individual pixel locations
- Perform mean shift for each window until convergence
- **Merge windows** that are within width of K_f and K_s

Mean shift segmentation results



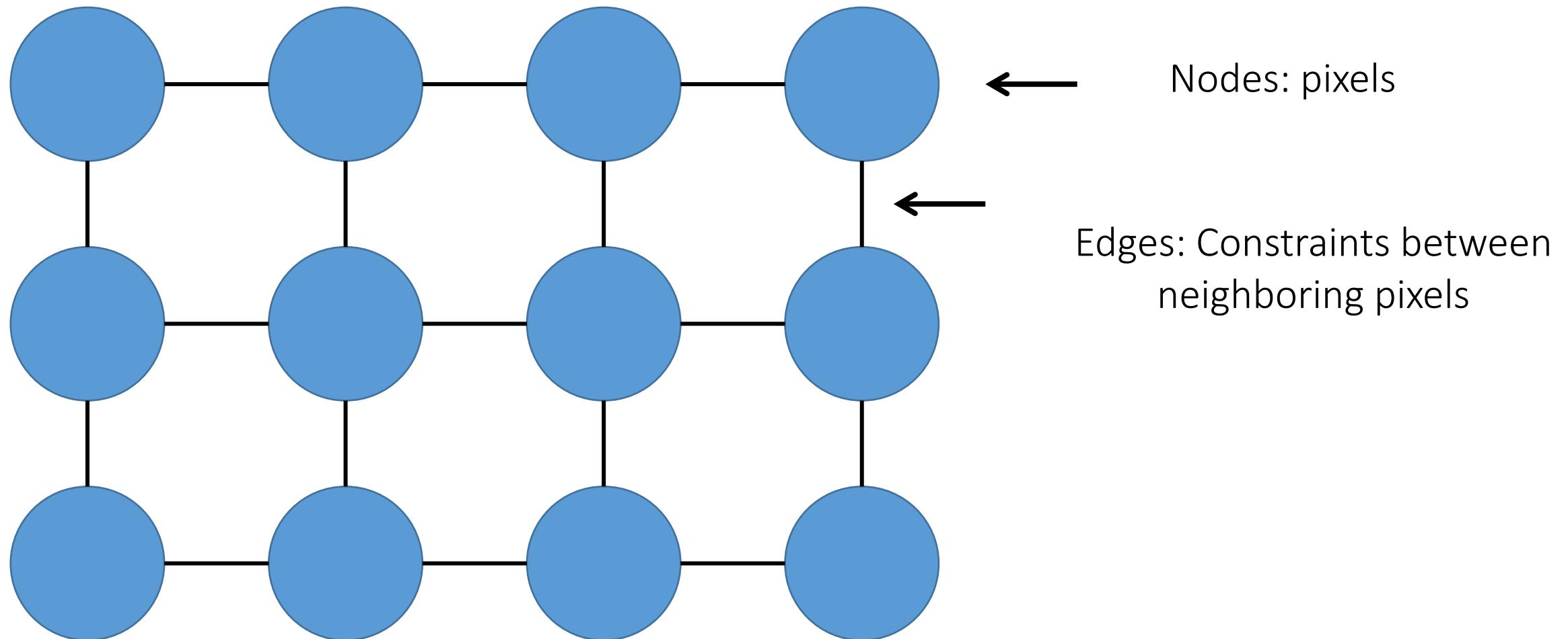


<http://www.caip.rutgers.edu/~comanici/MSPAMI/msPamiResults.html>

Mean shift pros and cons

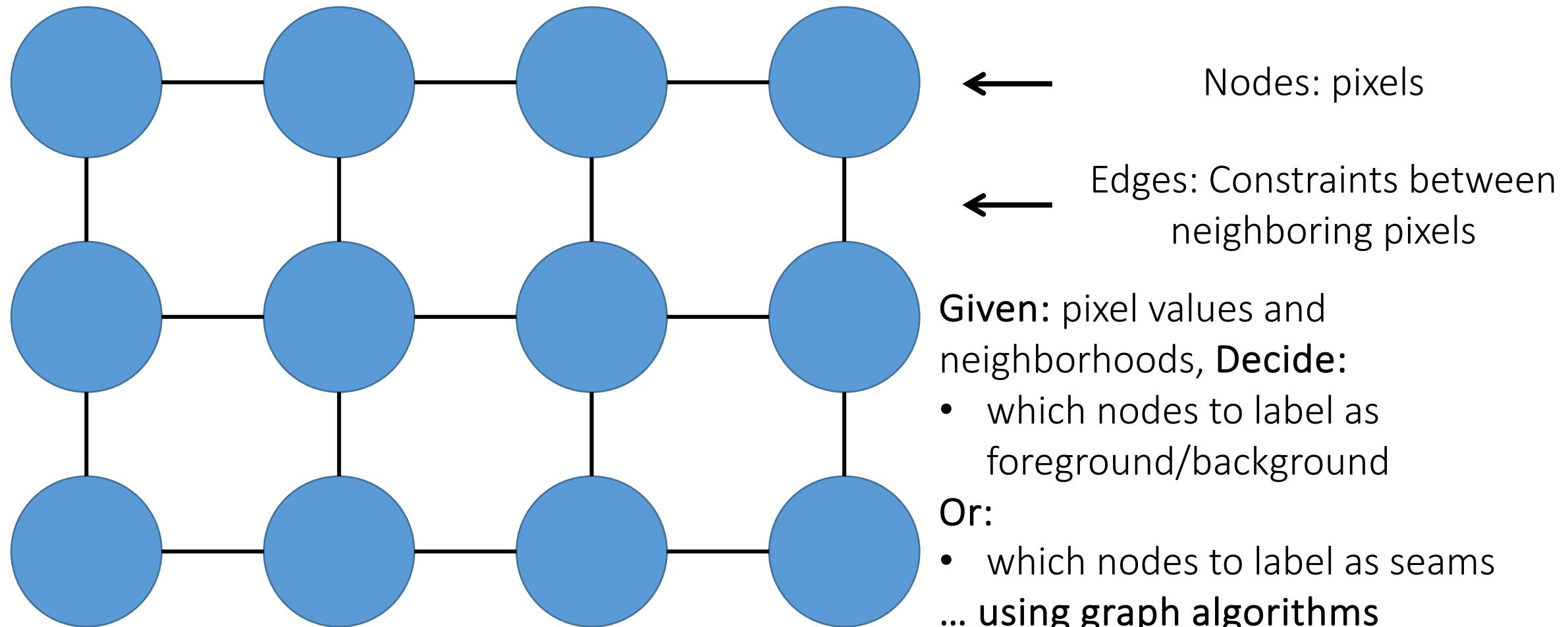
- Pros
 - Good general-practice segmentation
 - Flexible in number and shape of regions, no need to pre-choose region number K
 - Robust to outliers
- Cons
 - Have to choose kernel size in advance
 - Not suitable for high-dimensional features
 - Much slower than k-means (due to computing kernels)
- When to use it
 - Oversegmentation
 - Multiple segmentations
 - Tracking, clustering, filtering applications

New Idea: Images can be viewed as graphs



Graph-view of segmentation problem

Segmentation is node-labeling



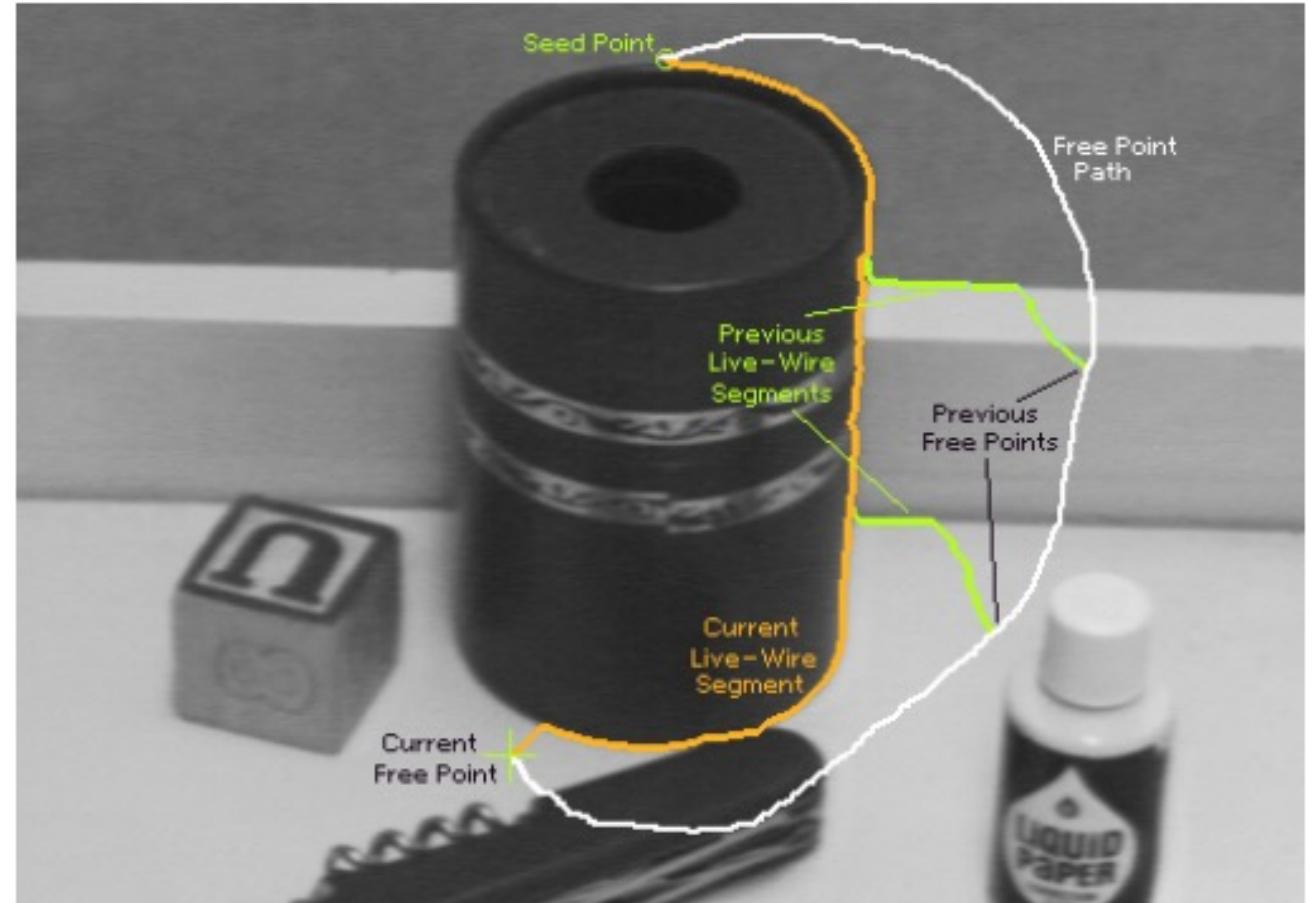
Intelligent scissors

Problem statement:

Given two seed points, find a good boundary connecting them

Challenges:

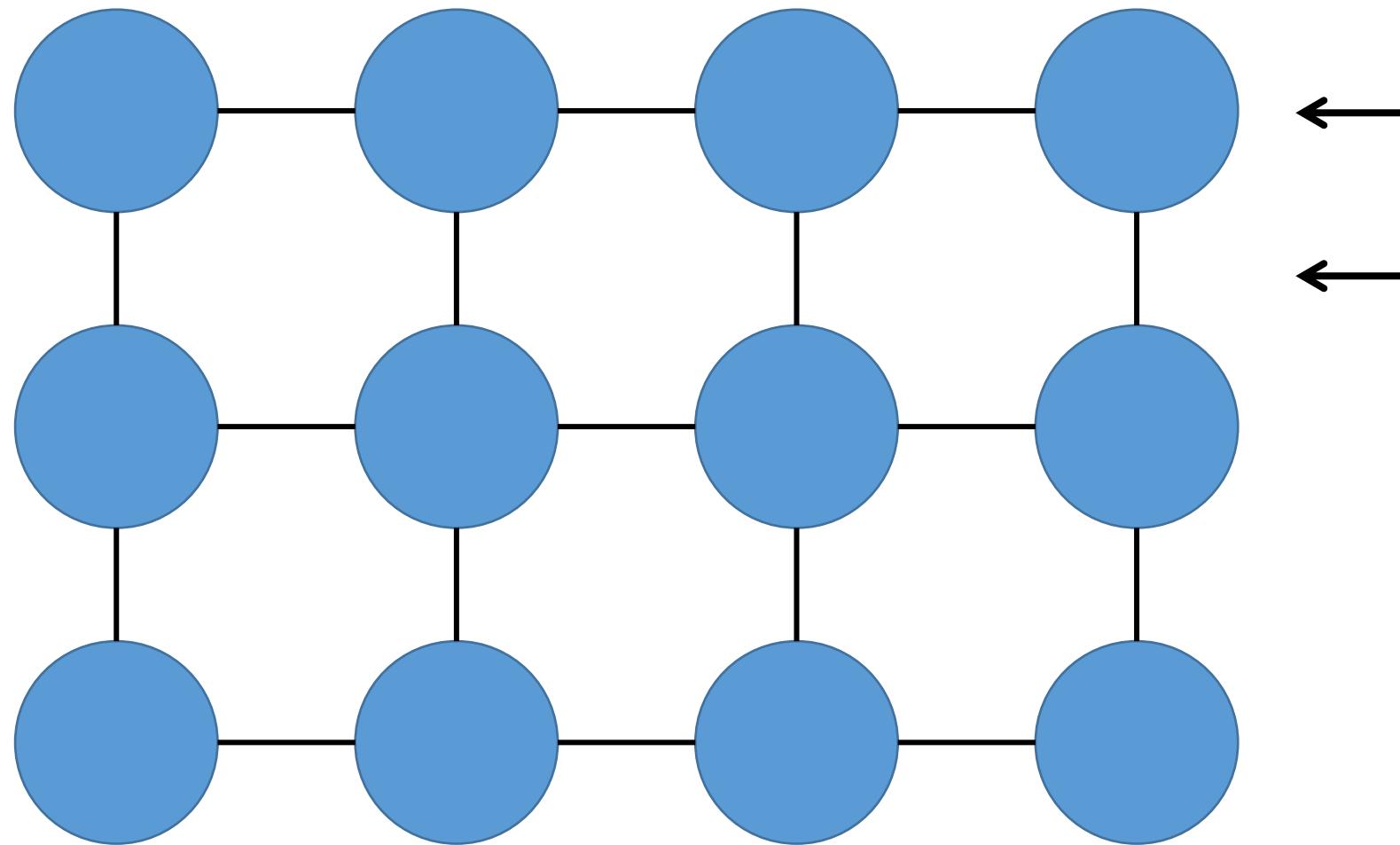
- Make this real-time for interaction
- Define what makes a good boundary



Mortenson and Barrett (SIGGRAPH 1995)
(you can tell it's old from the paper's low quality teaser figure)

Graph-view of this problem

Images can be viewed as graphs

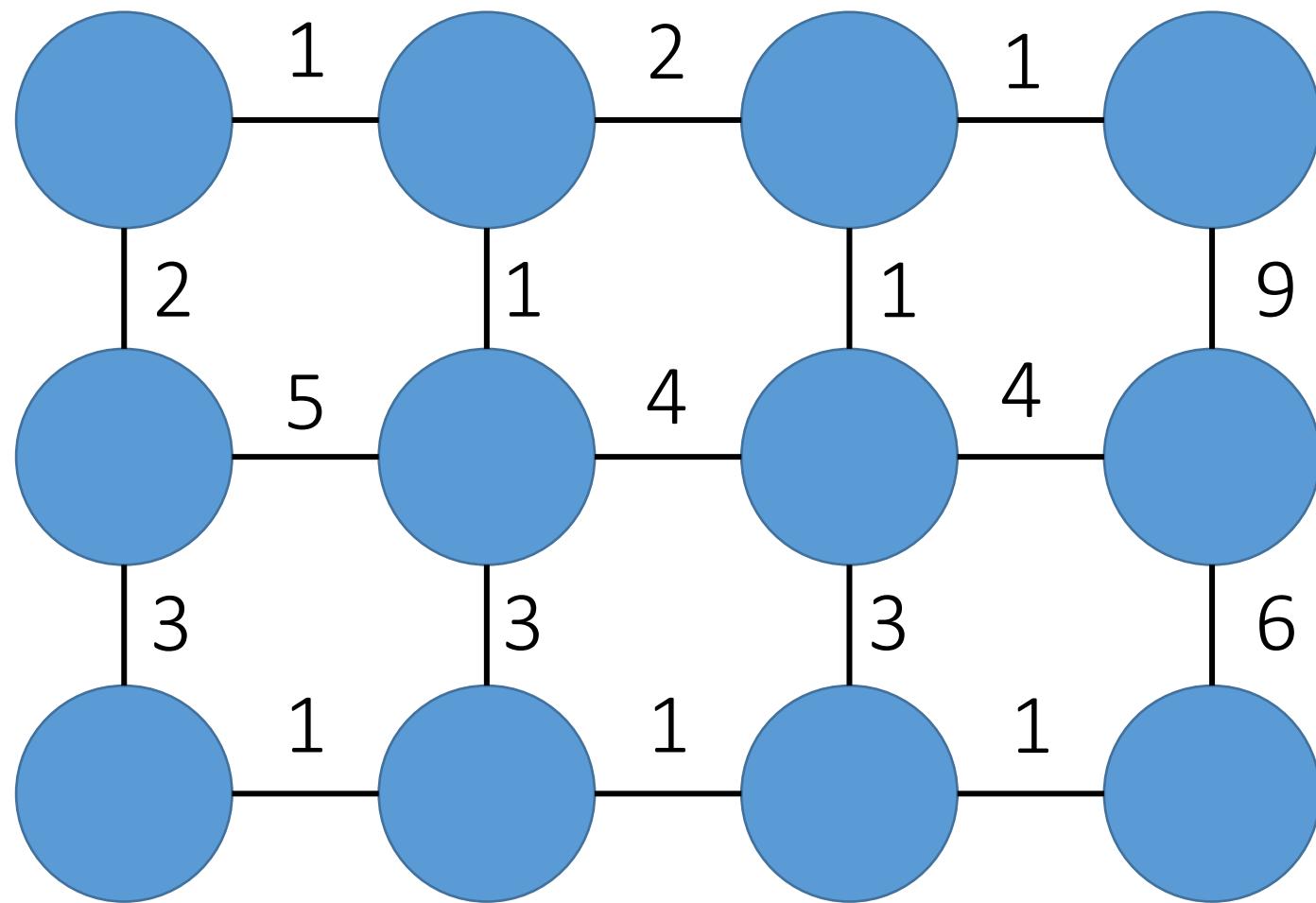


Nodes: pixels

Edges: Constraints between
neighboring pixels

Graph-view of this problem

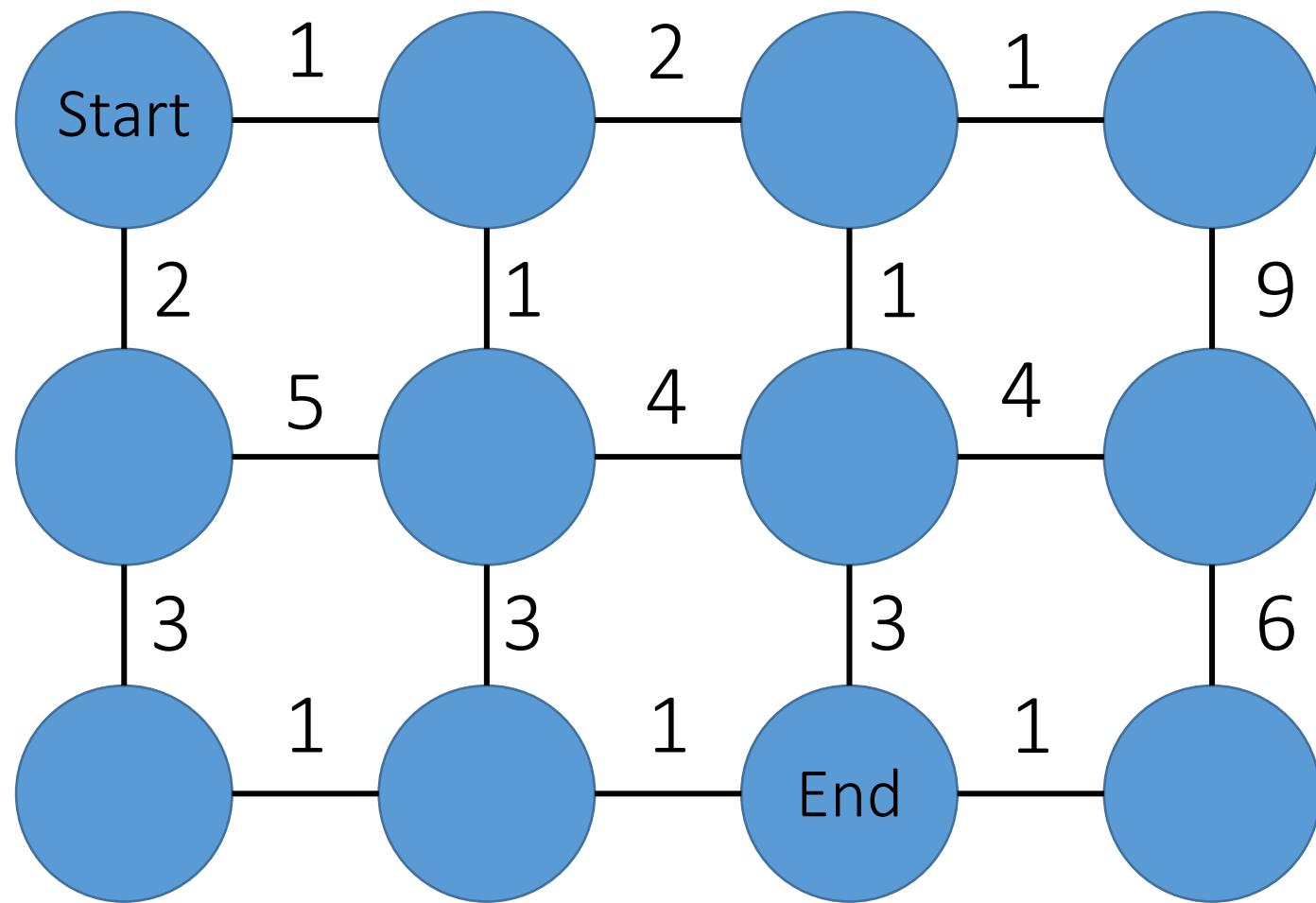
Graph-view of intelligent scissors:



1. Assign weights (costs) to edges

Graph-view of this problem

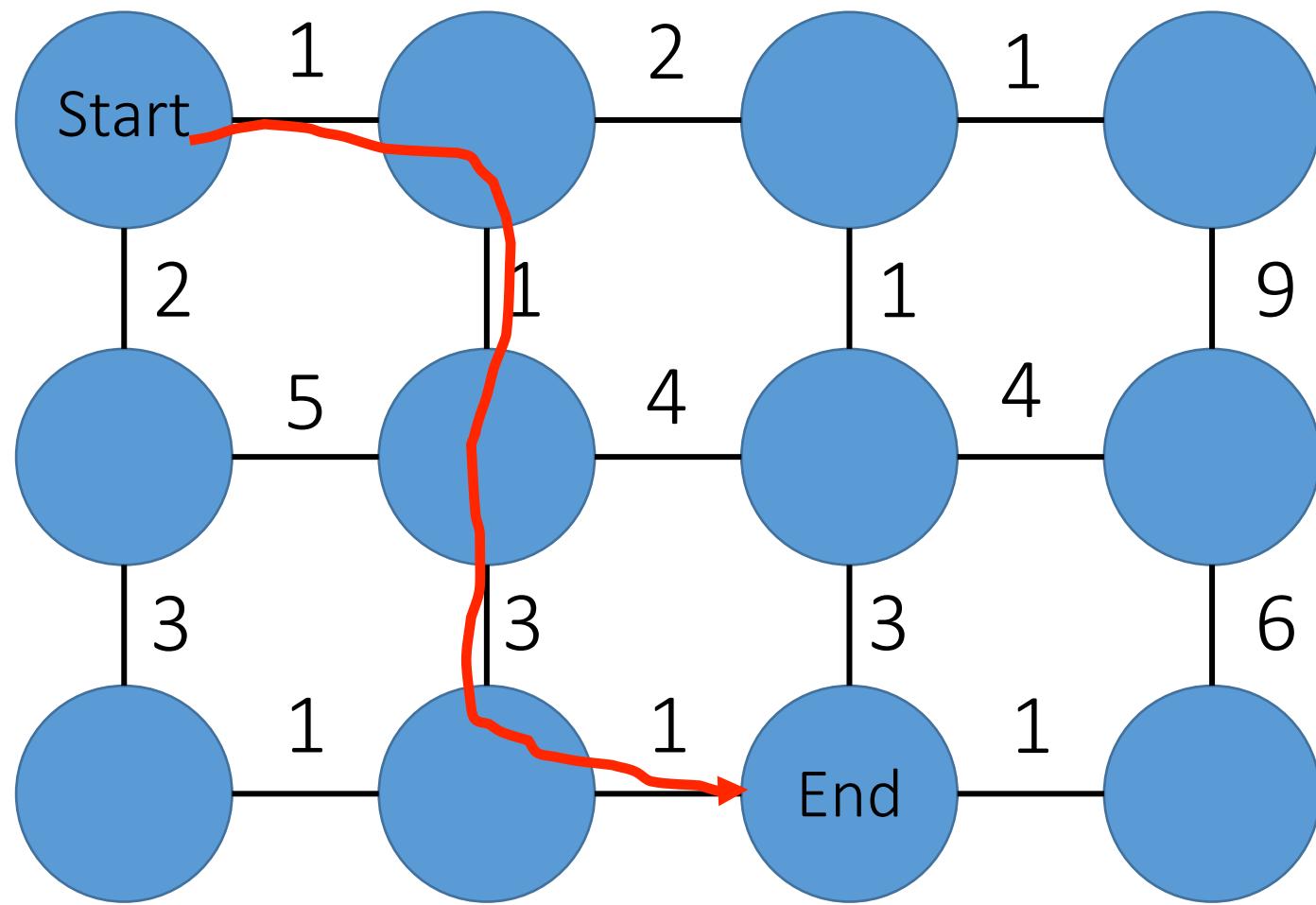
Graph-view of intelligent scissors:



1. Assign weights (costs) to edges
2. Select the seed nodes

Graph-view of this problem

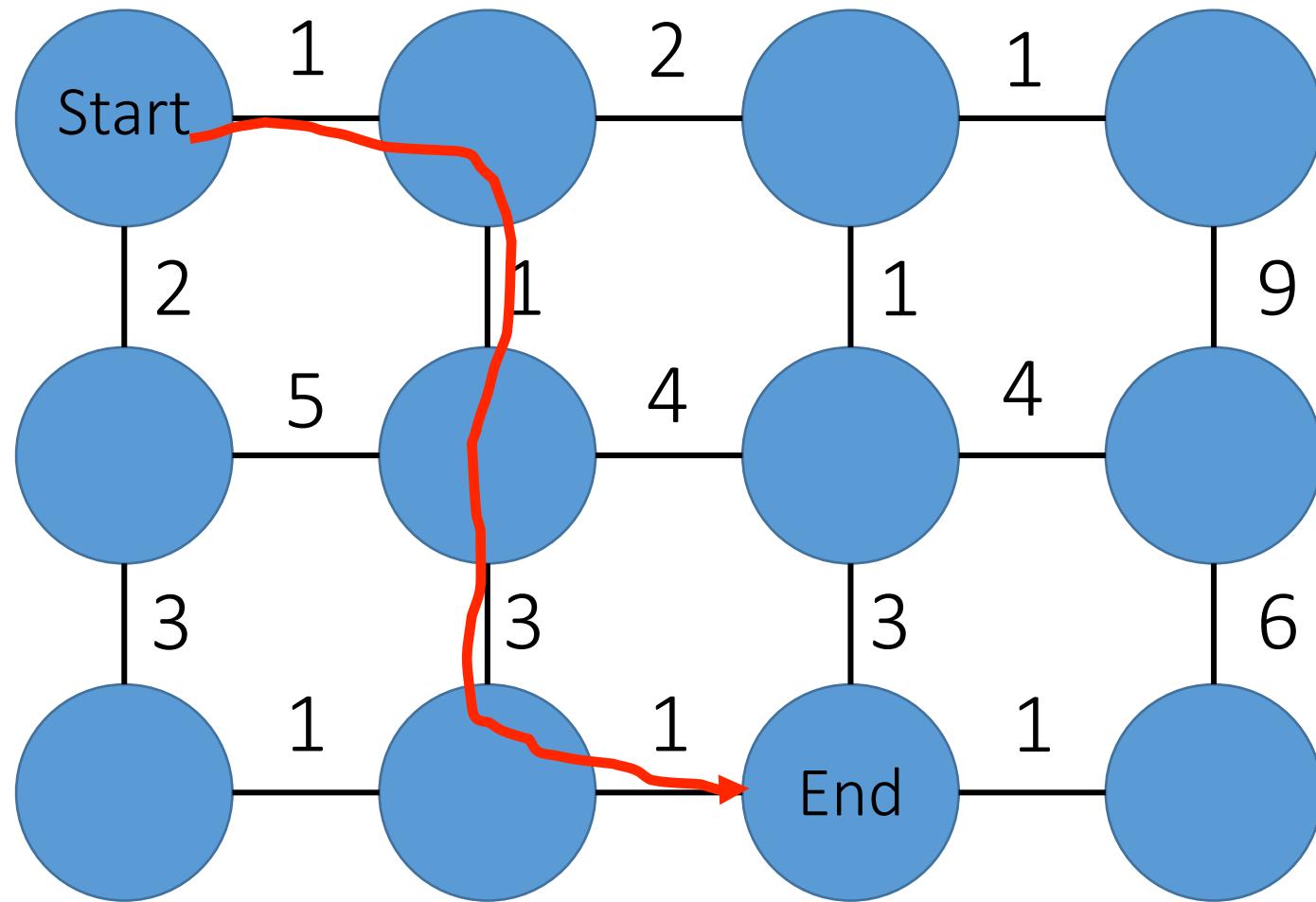
Graph-view of intelligent scissors:



1. Assign weights (costs) to edges
2. Select the seed nodes
3. Find shortest path between them

Graph-view of this problem

Graph-view of intelligent scissors:

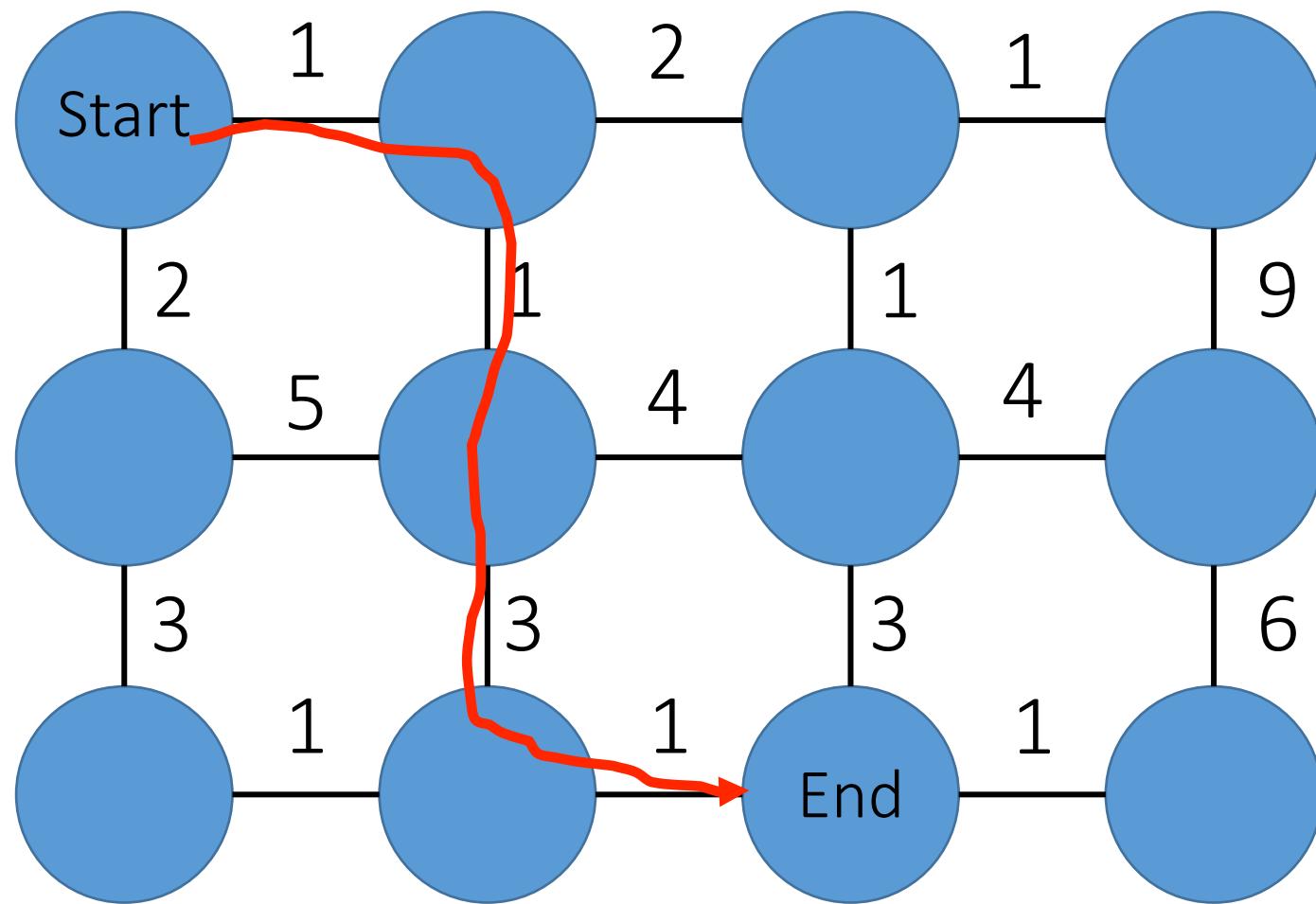


1. Assign weights (costs) to edges
2. Select the seed nodes
3. Find shortest path between them

What algorithm can we use to find the shortest path?

Graph-view of this problem

Graph-view of intelligent scissors:



1. Assign weights (costs) to edges
2. Select the seed nodes
3. Find shortest path between them

What algorithm can we use to find the shortest path?

- Dijkstra's algorithm (dynamic programming)

Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm

Initialize, given seed s (pixel ID) :

- $\text{cost}(s) = 0$ % total cost from seed to this point
- $\text{cost}(!s) = \text{big}$
- $\mathbf{A} = \{\text{all pixels}\}$ % set to be expanded
- $\mathbf{prev}(s) = \text{undefined}$ % pointer to pixel that leads to $q=s$

Precompute $\text{cost}_2(q, r)$ % cost between q to neighboring pixel r

Loop while \mathbf{A} is not empty

1. $q = \text{pixel in } \mathbf{A} \text{ with lowest cost}$

2. Remove q from \mathbf{A}

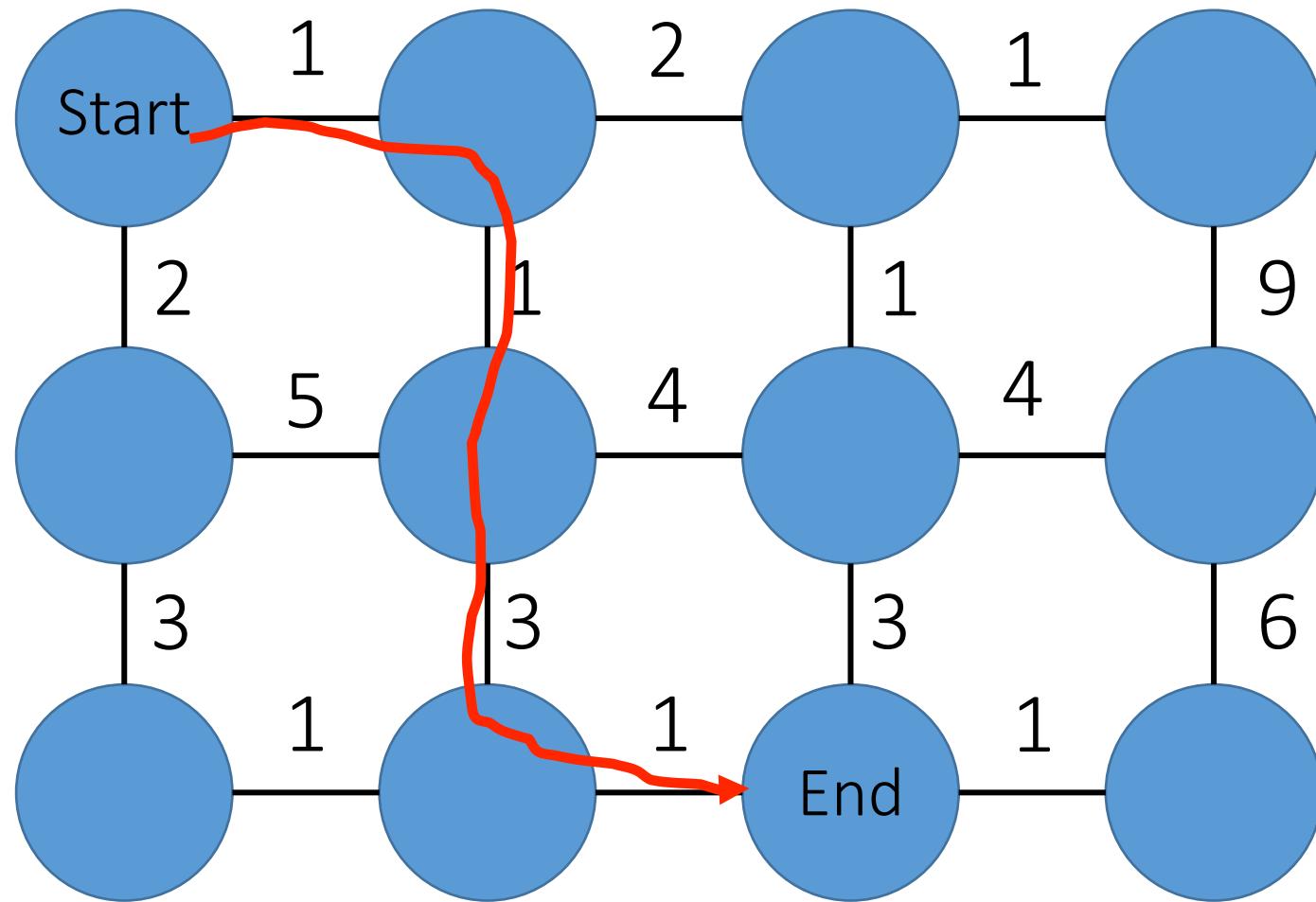
3. For each pixel r in neighborhood of q that is in \mathbf{A}

a) $\text{cost_tmp} = \text{cost}(q) + \text{cost}_2(q, r)$ %this updates the costs

b) if ($\text{cost_tmp} < \text{cost}(r)$)
i. $\text{cost}(r) = \text{cost_tmp}$
ii. $\mathbf{prev}(r) = q$

Graph-view of this problem

Graph-view of intelligent scissors:



1. Assign weights (costs) to edges
2. Select the seed nodes
3. Find shortest path between them

What algorithm can we use to find the shortest path?

- Dijkstra's algorithm (dynamic programming)

How should we select the edge weights to get good boundaries?

Selecting edge weights

Define boundary cost between neighboring pixels:

1. Lower if an image edge is present (e.g., as found by Sobel filtering).
2. Lower if the gradient magnitude at that point is strong.
3. Lower if gradient is similar in boundary direction.



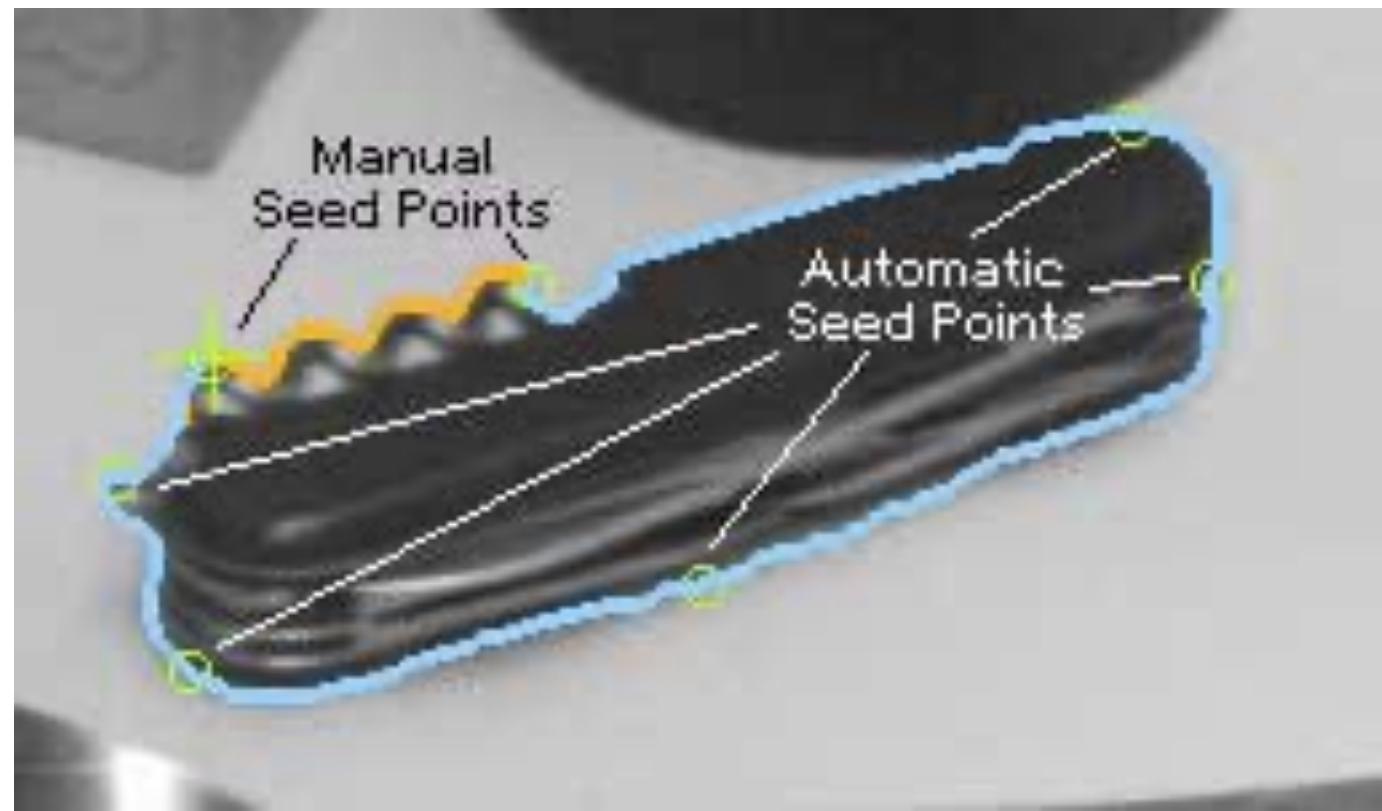
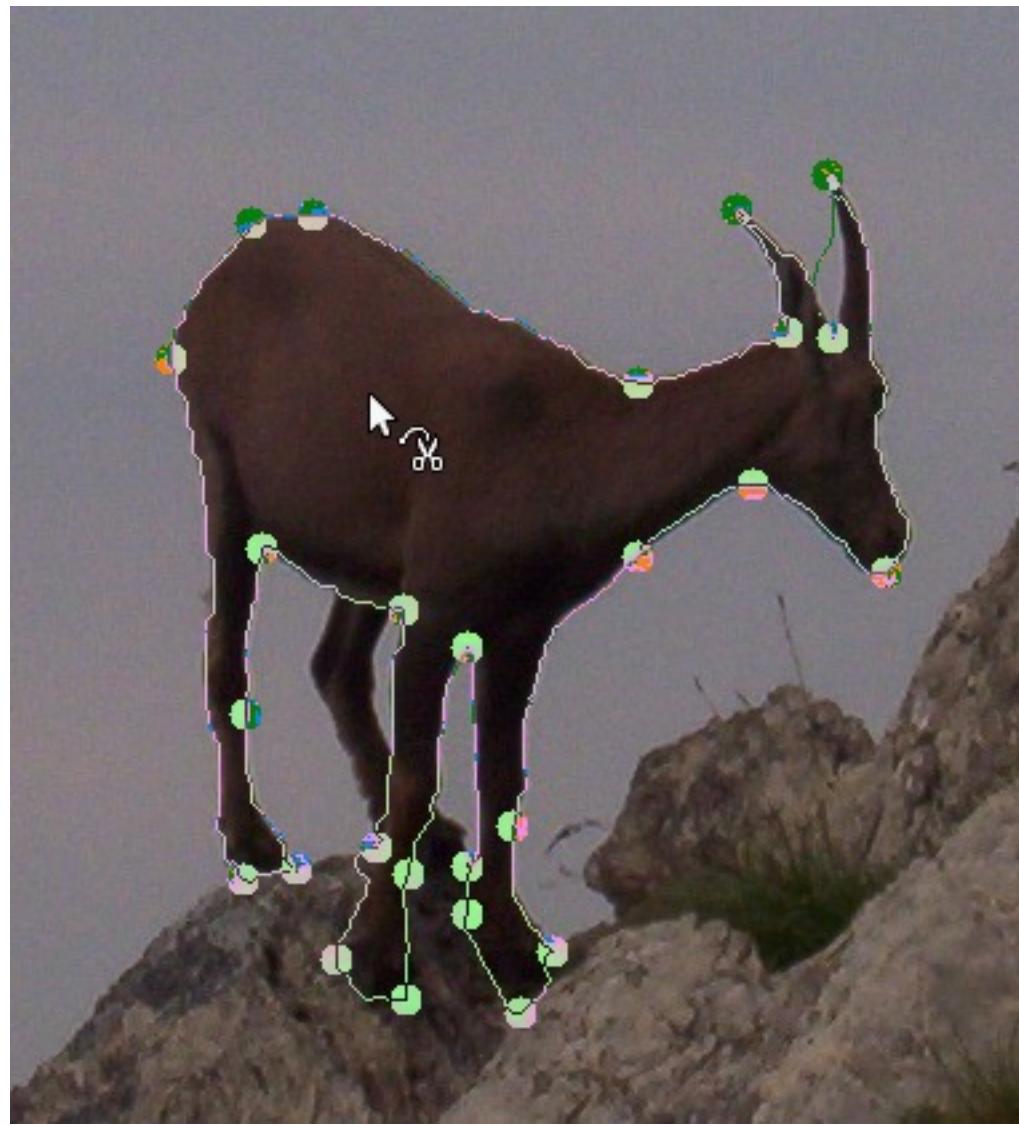
Selecting edge weights

Gradient magnitude



Edge image

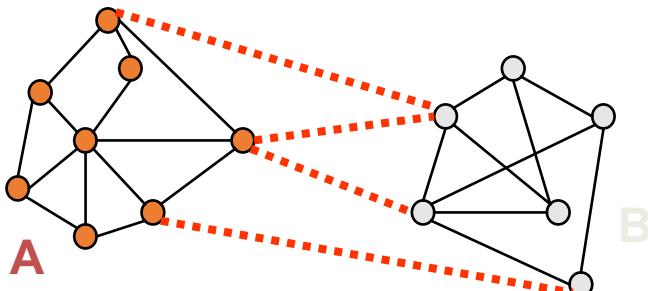
Pixel-wise cost



More Advanced Graph-based Segmentations...



Normalized Cut (CVPR 1997, TPAMI 2000)



- a cut penalizes large segments
- fix by normalizing for size of segments

$$Ncut(A, B) = \frac{cut(A, B)}{volume(A)} + \frac{cut(A, B)}{volume(B)}$$

- $volume(A)$ = sum of costs of all edges that touch A



Source: Seitz



The University of Texas at Austin
**Electrical and Computer
Engineering**
Cockrell School of Engineering