

Fundamentals of Data Science

Fundamentals of Data Science
Prof. Fabio Galasso



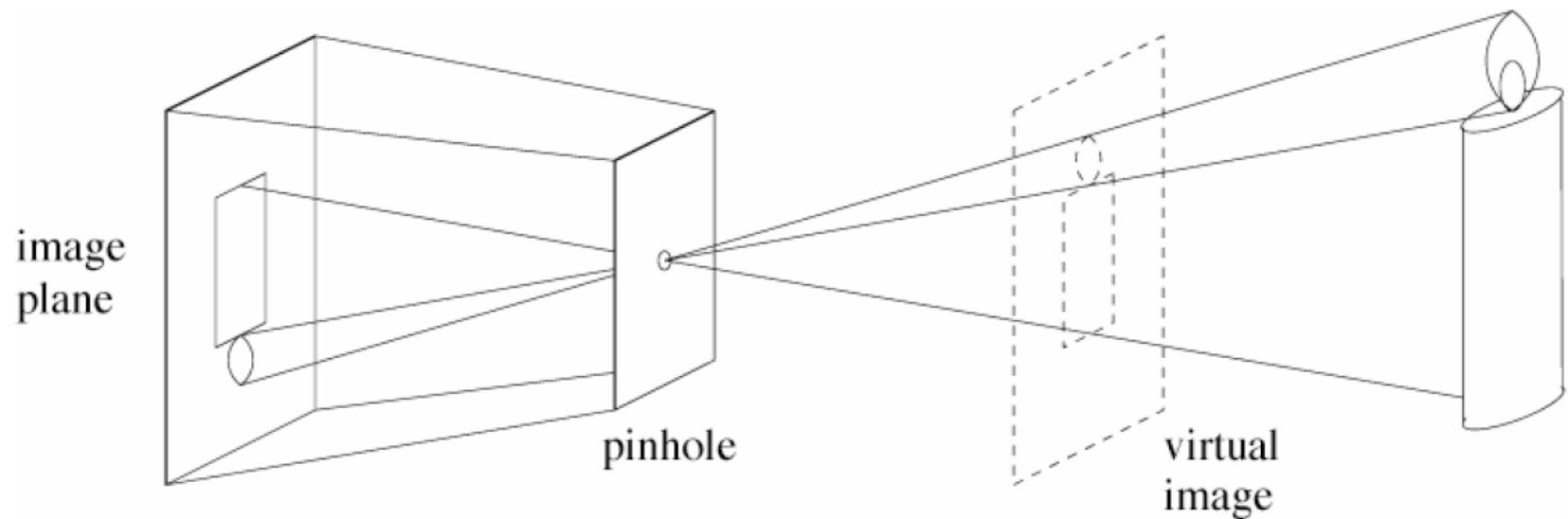
Basic Concepts and Terminology for Image Processing and Computer Vision

Including 2 case studies:

- Recovery of 3D structure
- Object Recognition

Pinhole Camera (Model)

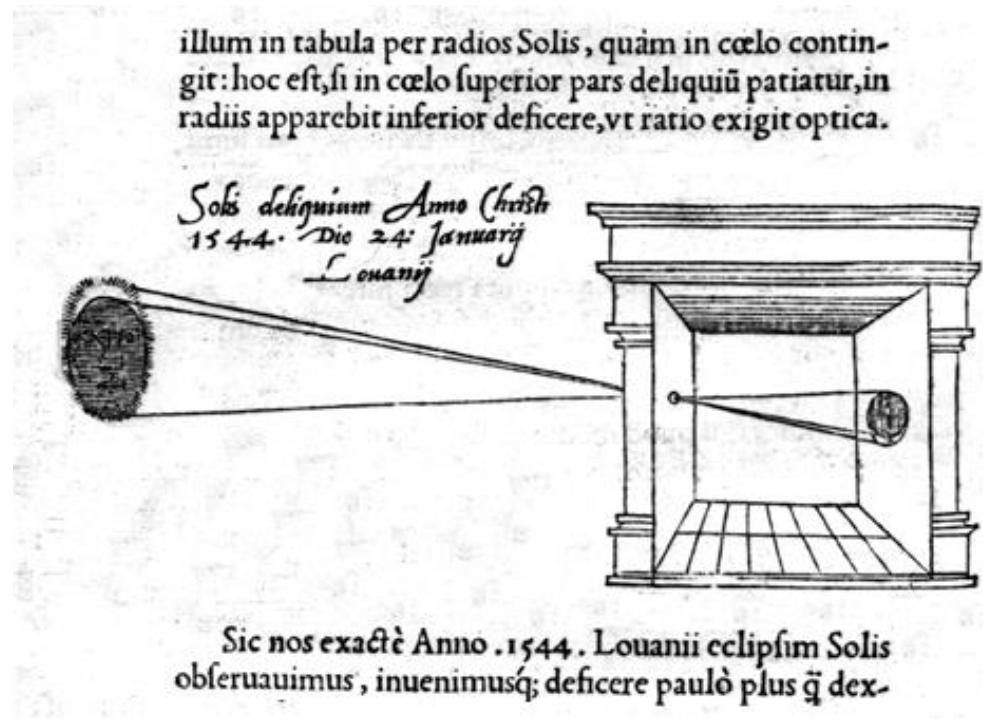
- (simple) standard and abstract model today
 - ▶ box with a small hole in it



Camera Obscura

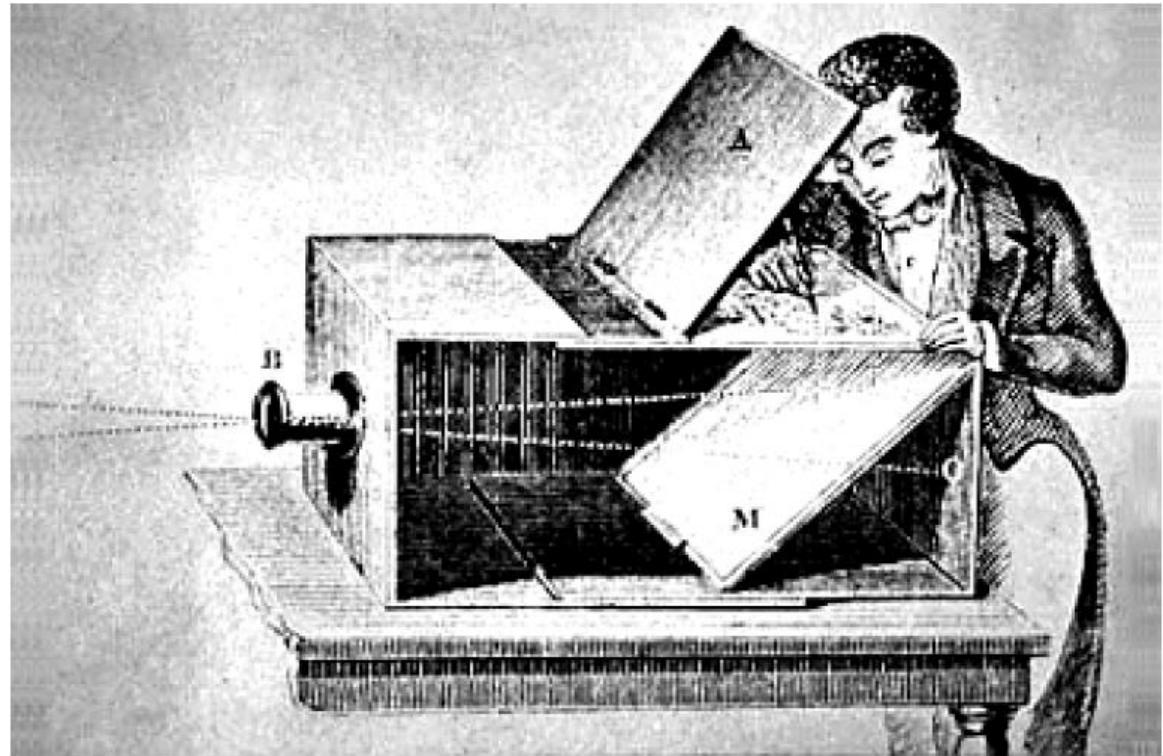
- around 1519, Leonardo da Vinci (1452 - 1519)
 - ▶ http://www.acmi.net.au/AIC/CAMERA_OBSCURA.html

“when images of illuminated objects ... penetrate through a small hole into a very dark room ... you will see [on the opposite wall] these objects in their proper form and color, reduced in size ... in a reversed position owing to the intersection of the rays”



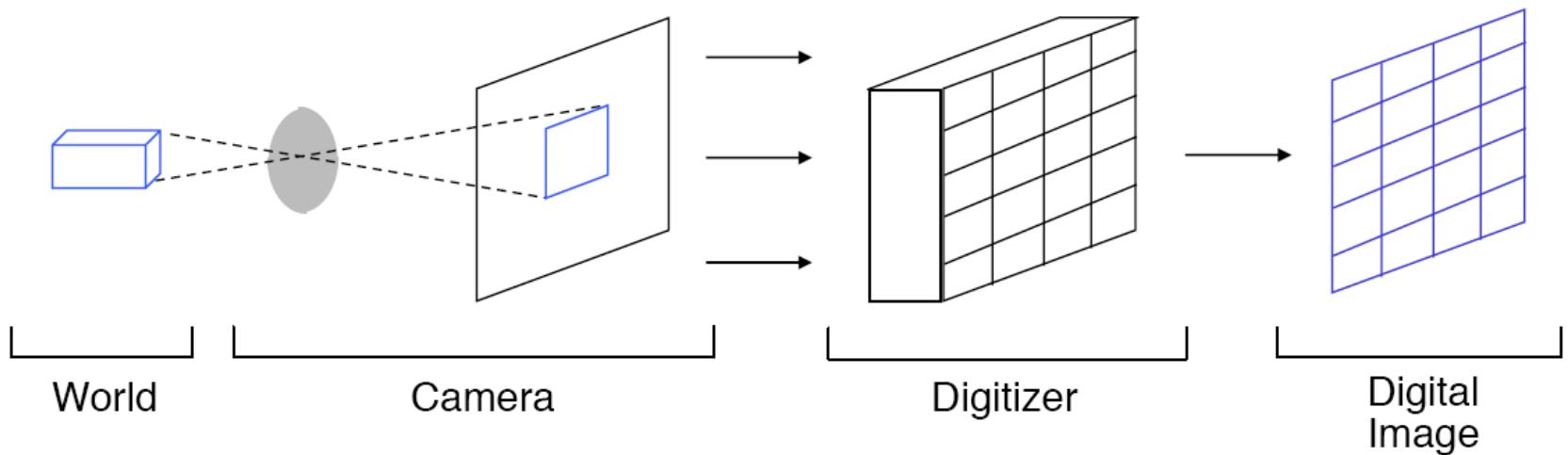
Principle of pinhole....

- ...used by artists
 - ▶ (e.g. Vermeer
17th century,
dutch)
- and scientists



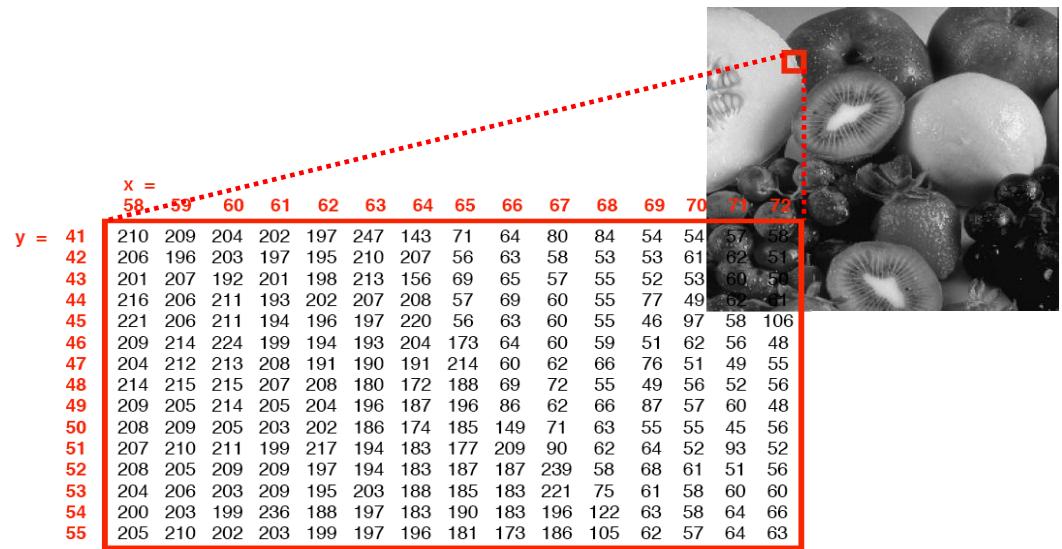
Digital Images

- Imaging Process:
 - ▶ (pinhole) camera model
 - ▶ digitizer to obtain digital image



(Grayscale) Image

- ‘Goals’ of Computer Vision
 - ▶ how can we recognize fruits from an array of (gray-scale) numbers?
 - ▶ how can we perceive depth from an array of (gray-scale) numbers?
 - ▶ ...
- computer vision =
the problem of
‘inverse graphics’ ... ?
- ‘Goals’ of Graphics
 - ▶ how can we generate an array of (gray-scale) numbers that looks like fruits?
 - ▶ how can we generate an array of (gray-scale) numbers so that the human observer perceives depth?
 - ▶ ...



1. Case Study: Human & Art - Recovery of 3D Structure



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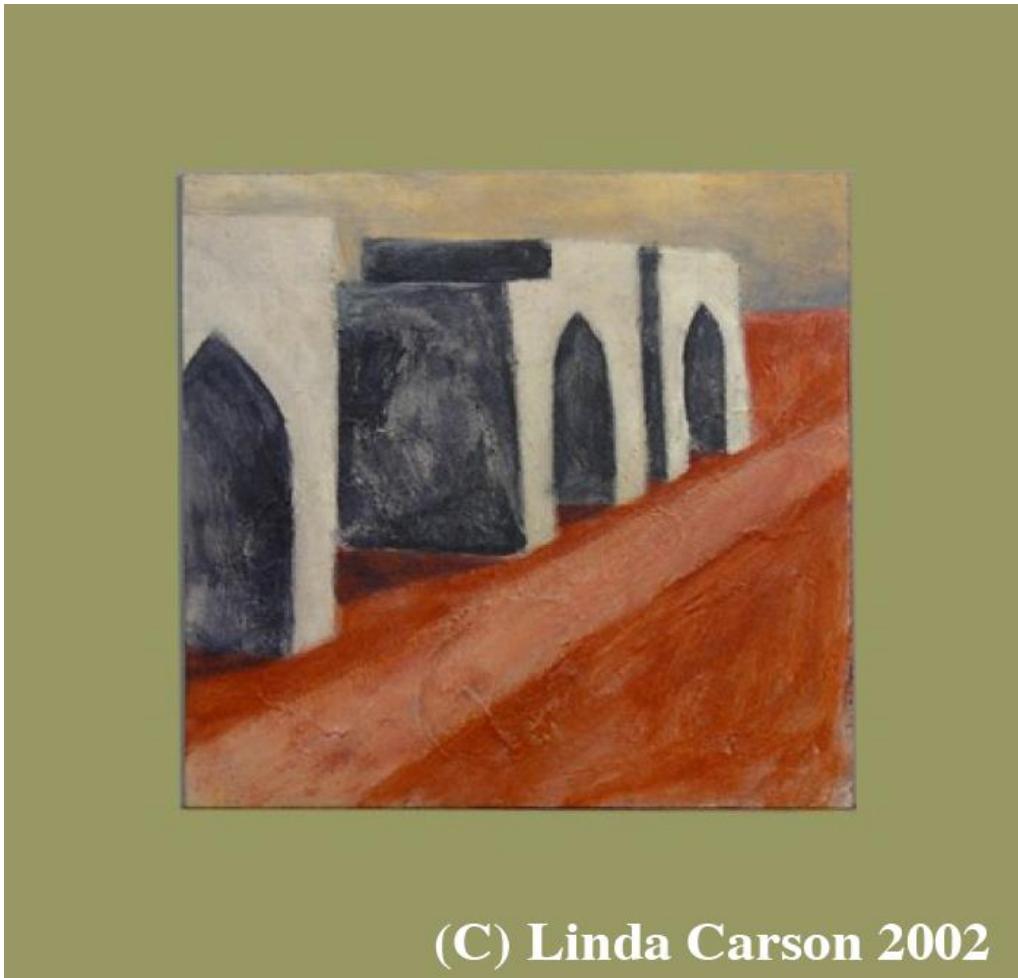
Vincent van Gogh *Interior of a Restaurant at Arles* 1888

1. Case Study: Human & Art - Recovery of 3D Structure



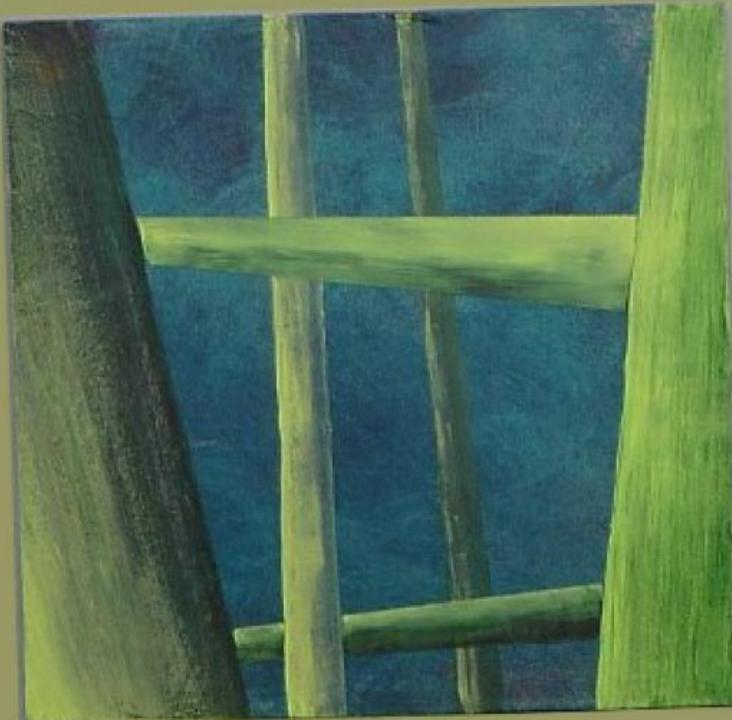
Vincent van Gogh *Snowy Landscape with Arles in the Background* 1888

1. Case Study: Human & Art - Recovery of 3D Structure



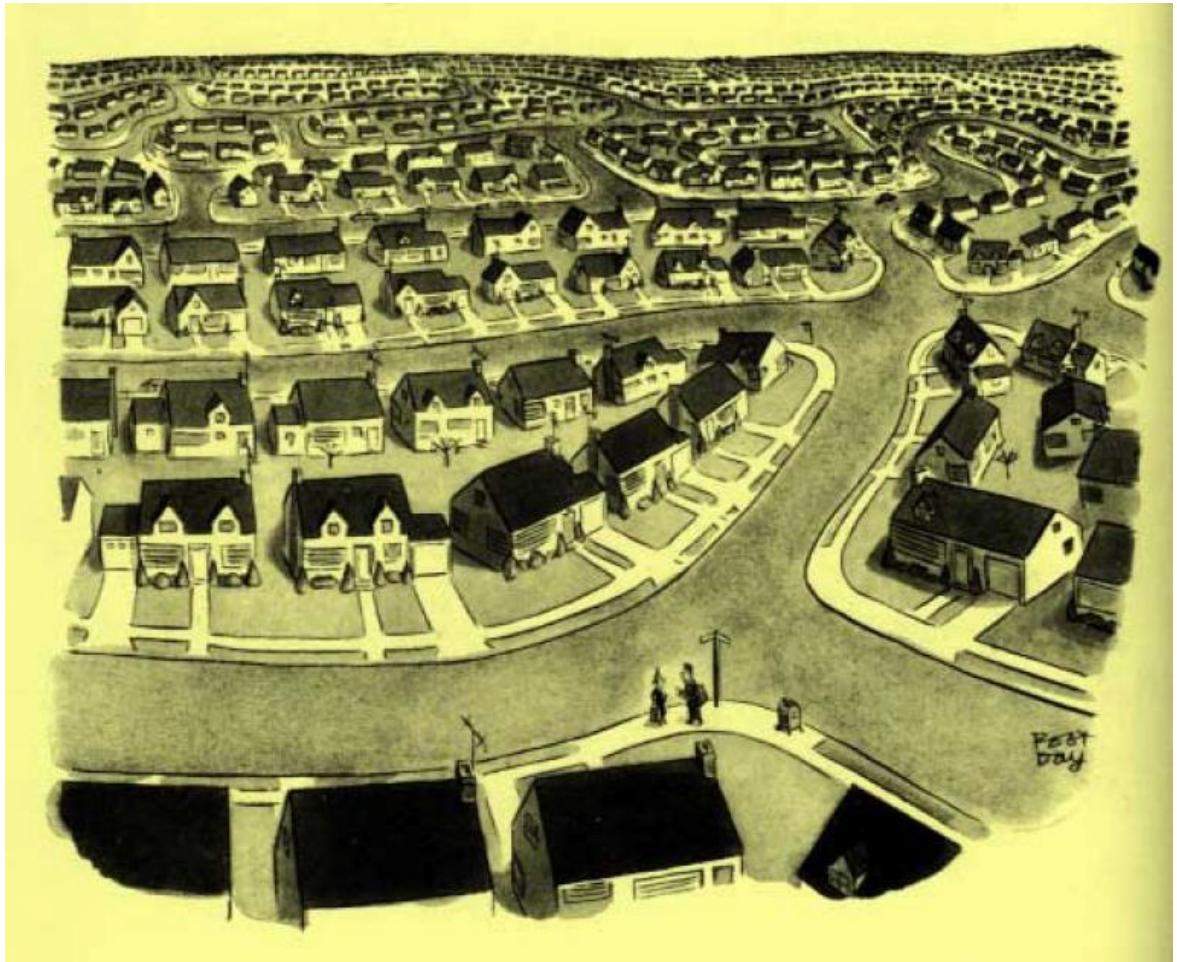
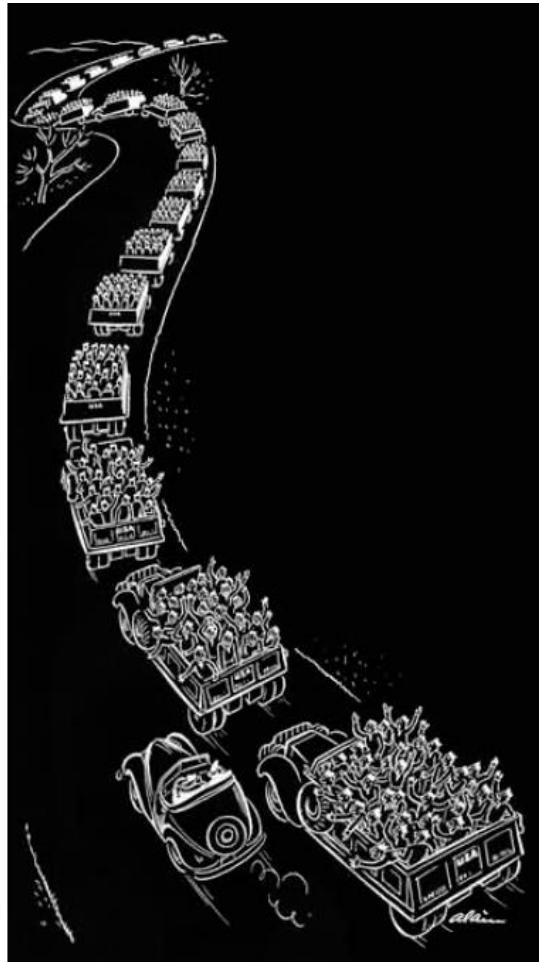
(C) Linda Carson 2002

1. Case Study: Human & Art - Recovery of 3D Structure



(C) Linda Carson 2002

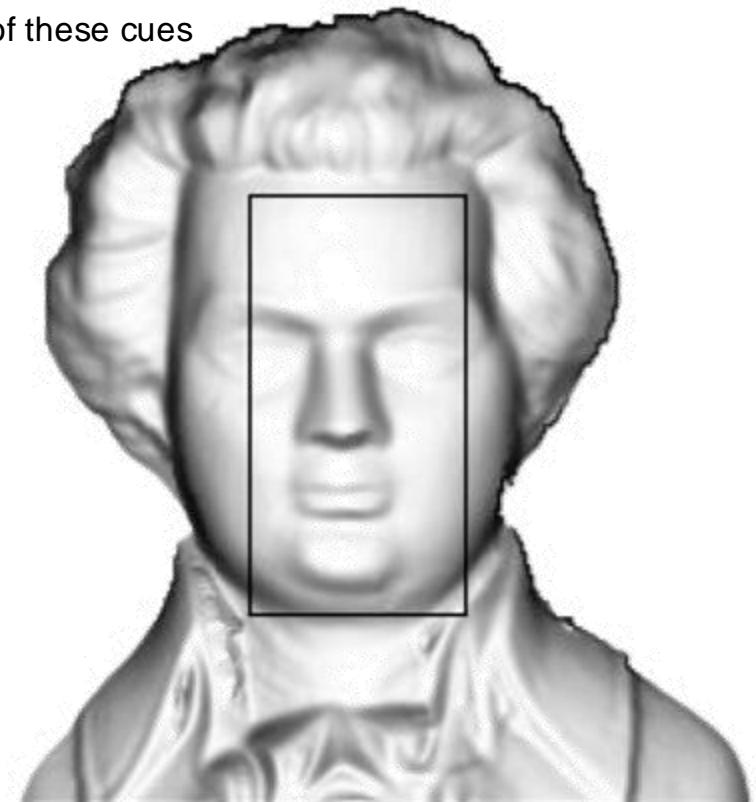
1. Case Study: Human & Art - Recovery of 3D Structure



1. Case Study

Computer Vision - Recovery of 3D Structure

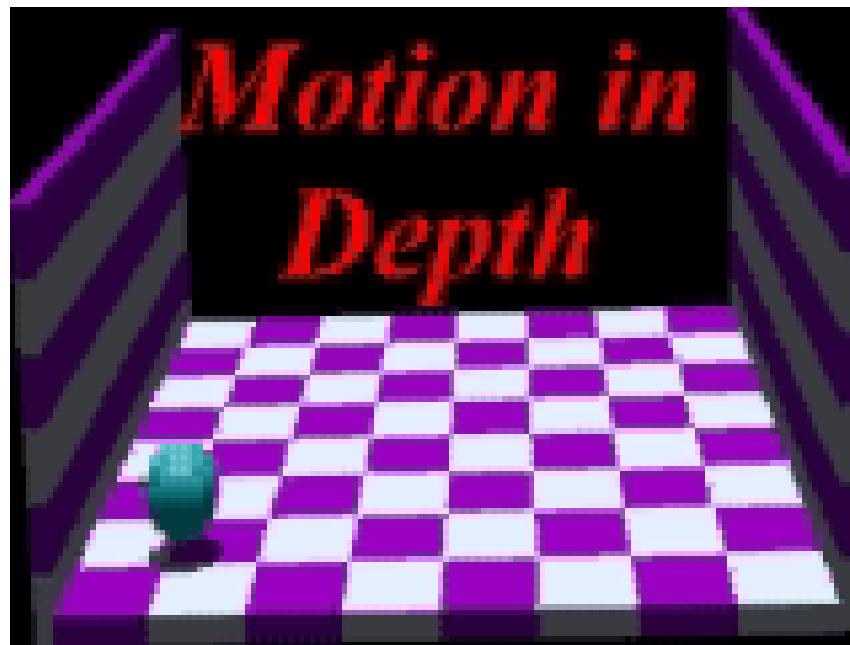
- take all the cues of artists and ‘turn them around’
 - exploit these cues to **infer** the structure of the world
 - need **mathematical** and **computational models** of these cues
- sometimes called ‘**inverse graphics**’



<http://www.vrvis.at/ar2/adm/shading/>

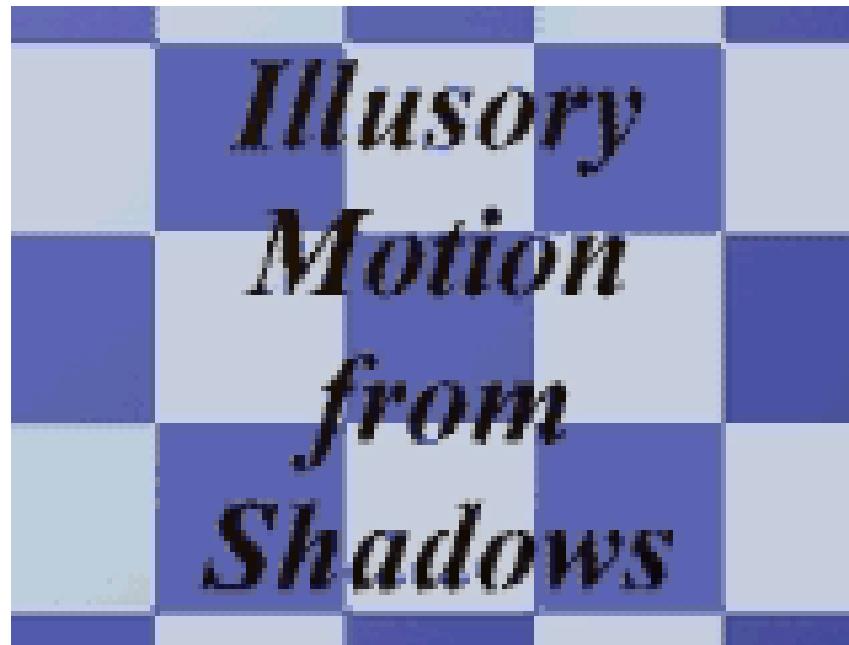
A ‘trompe l’oeil’

- depth-perception
 - movement of ball stays the same
 - location/trace of shadow changes

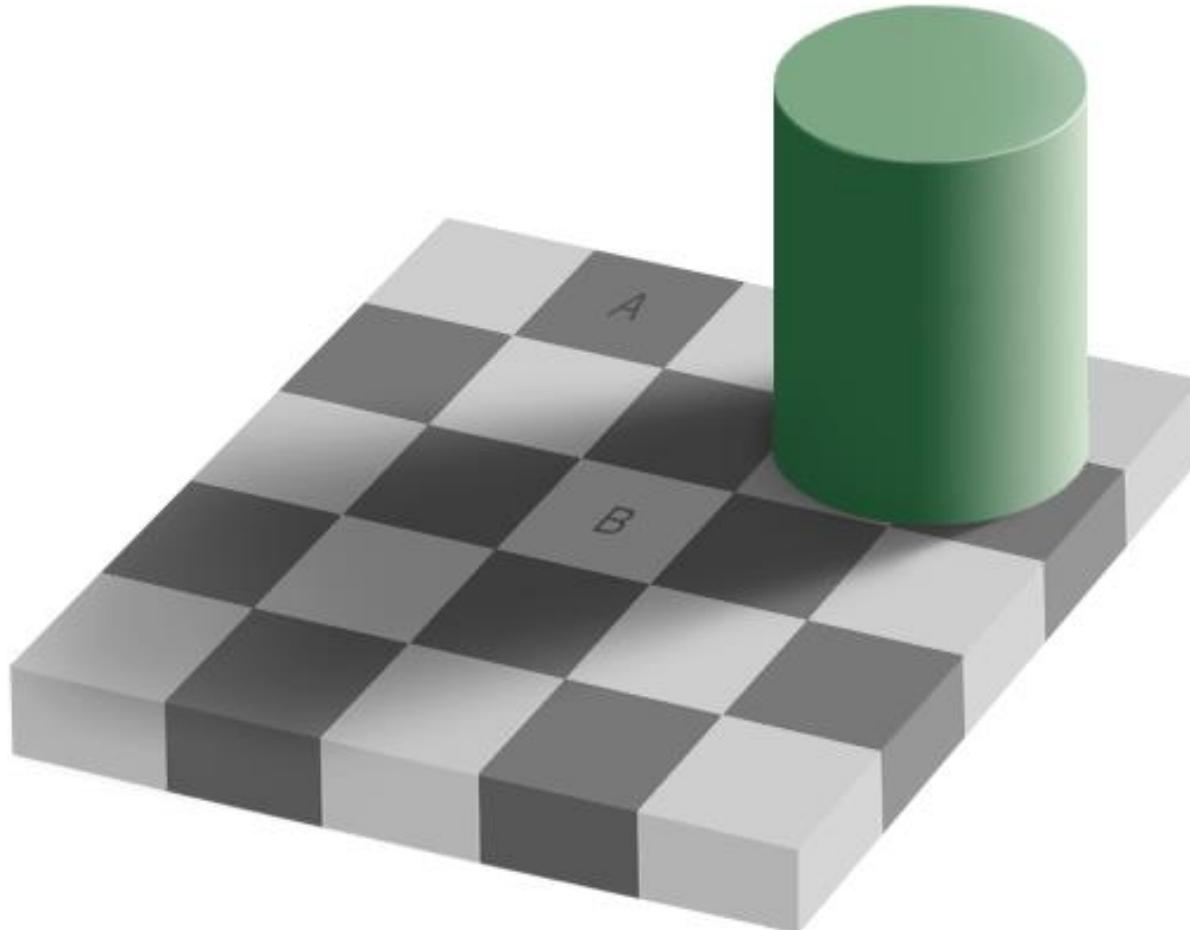


Another ‘trompe l’oeil’

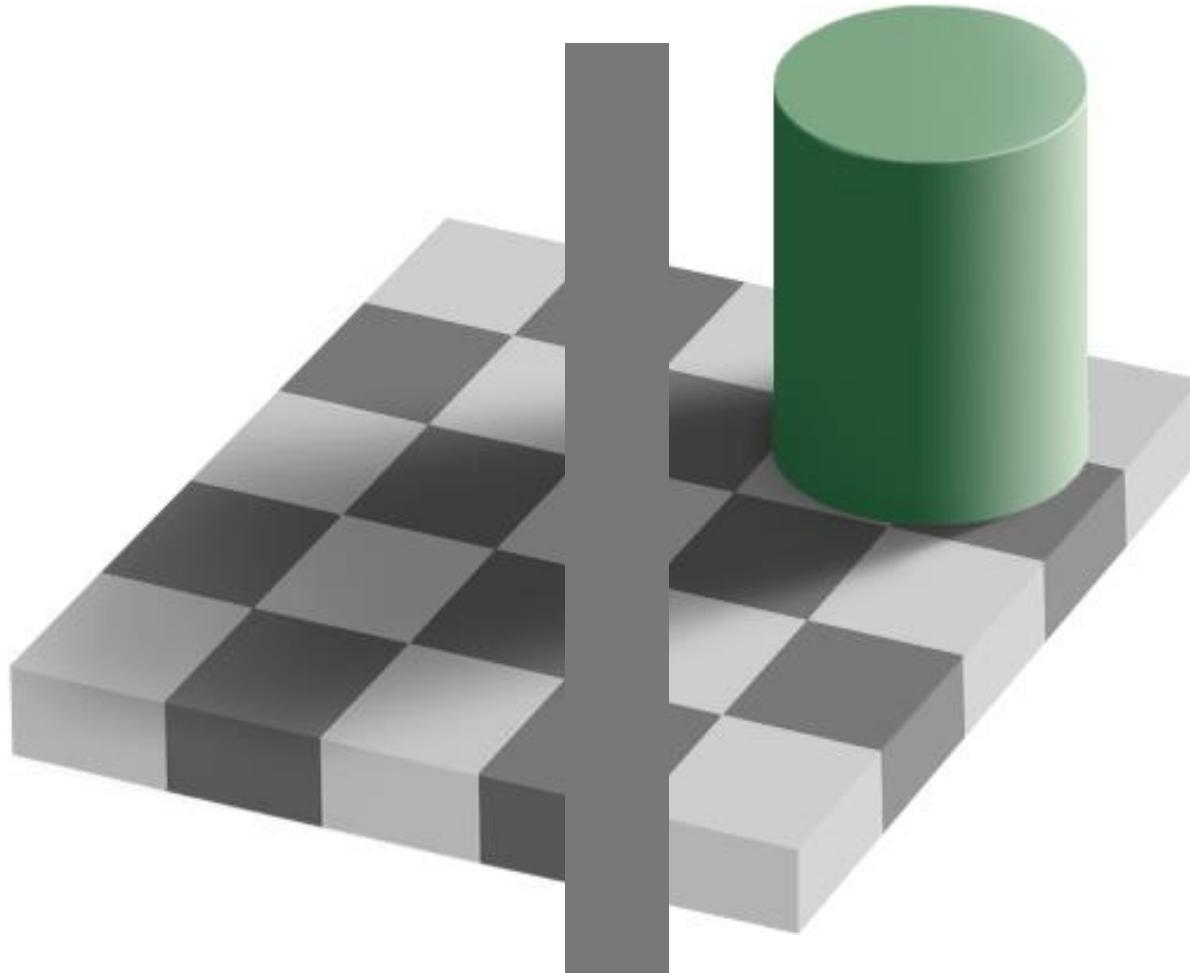
- illusory motion
 - ▶ only shadows changes
 - ▶ square is stationary



Color & Shading

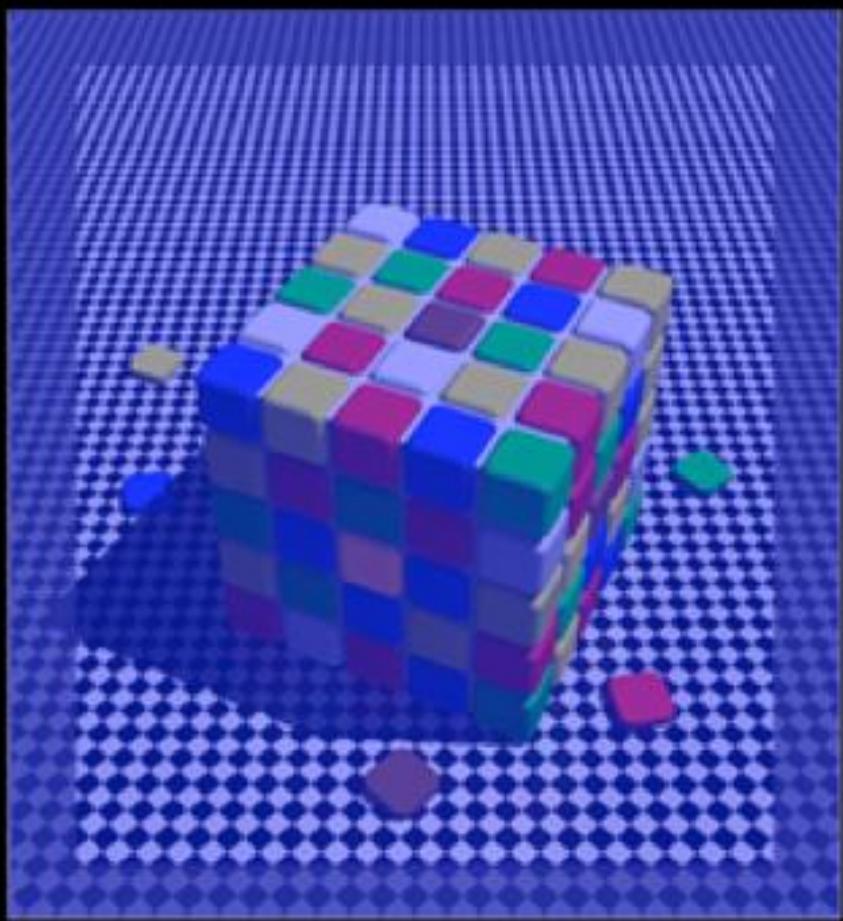
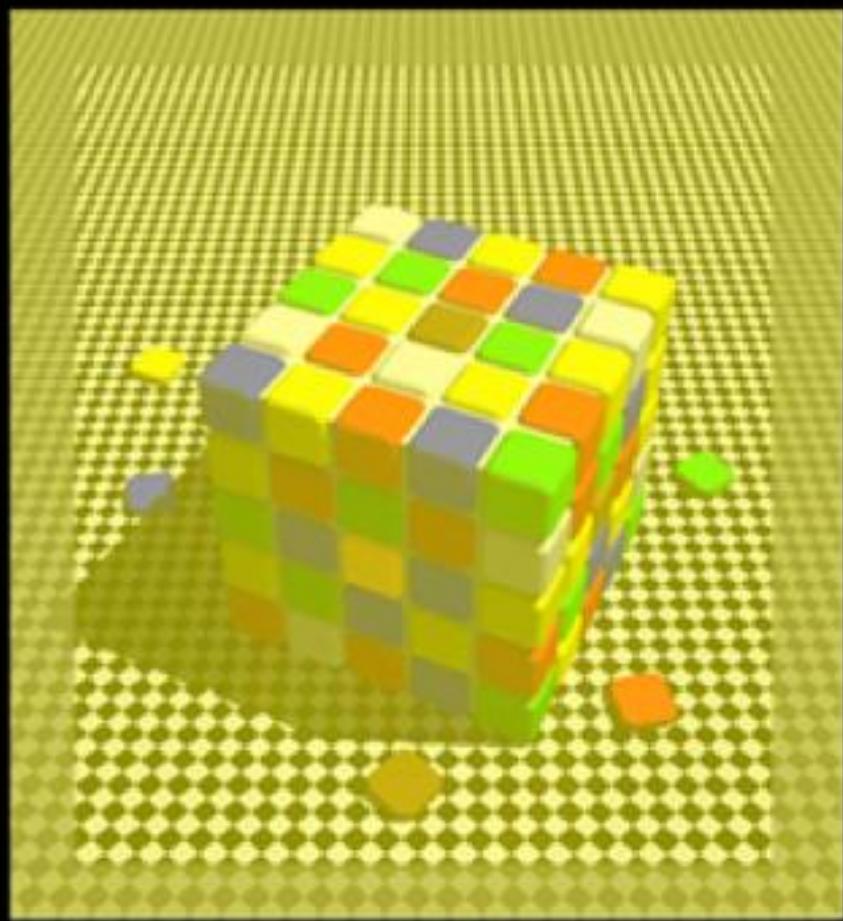


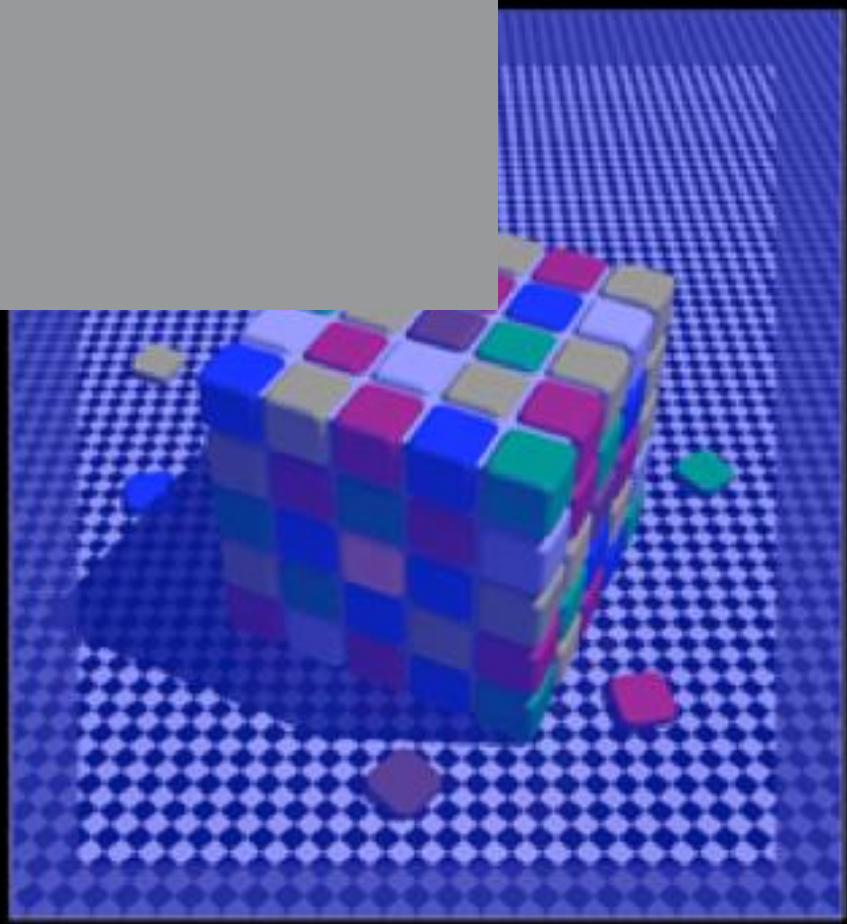
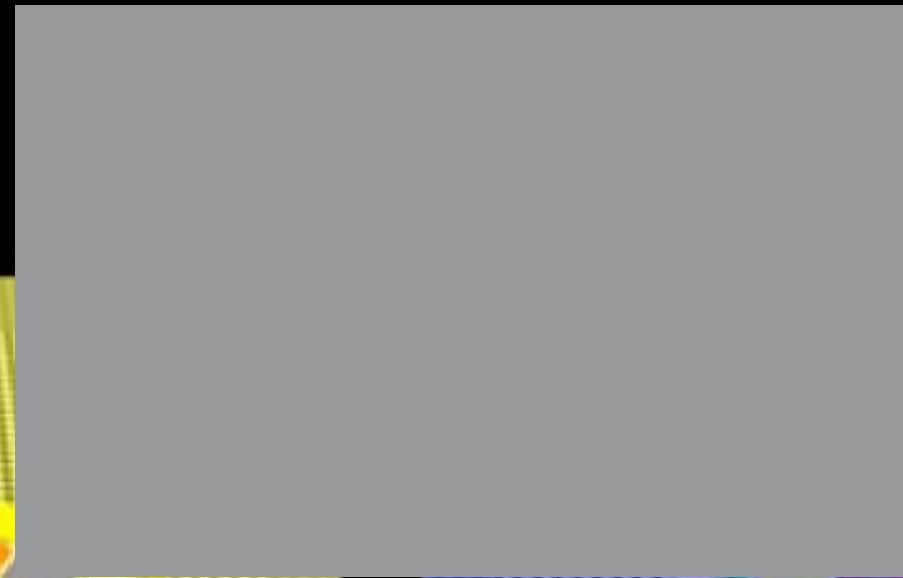
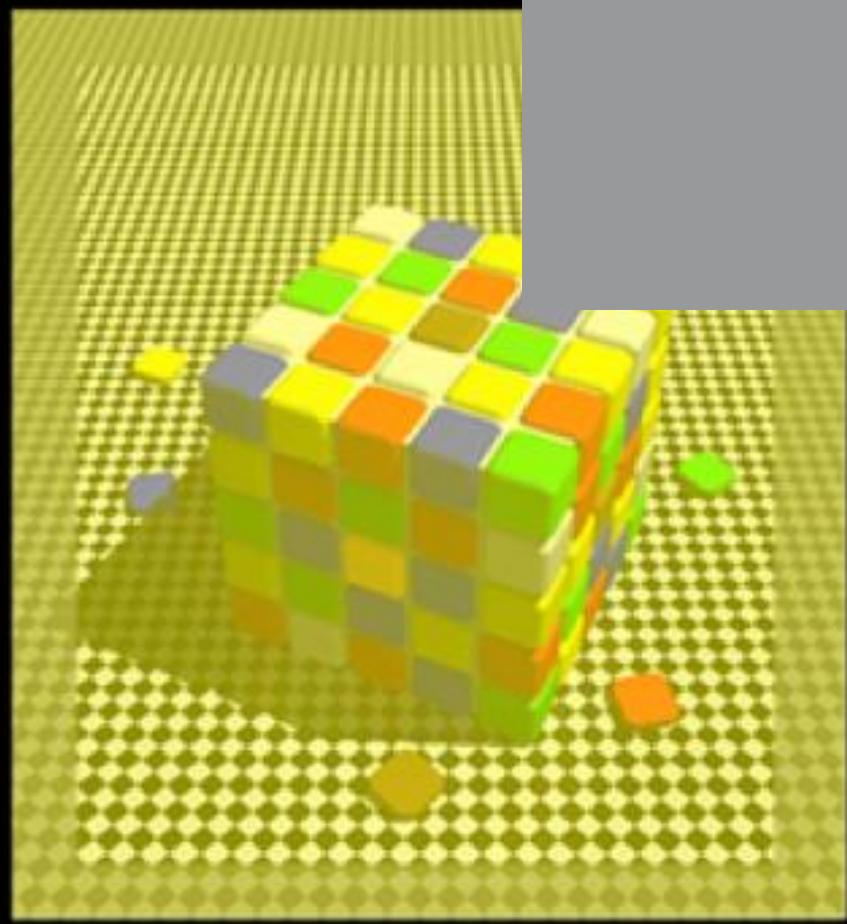
Color & Shading

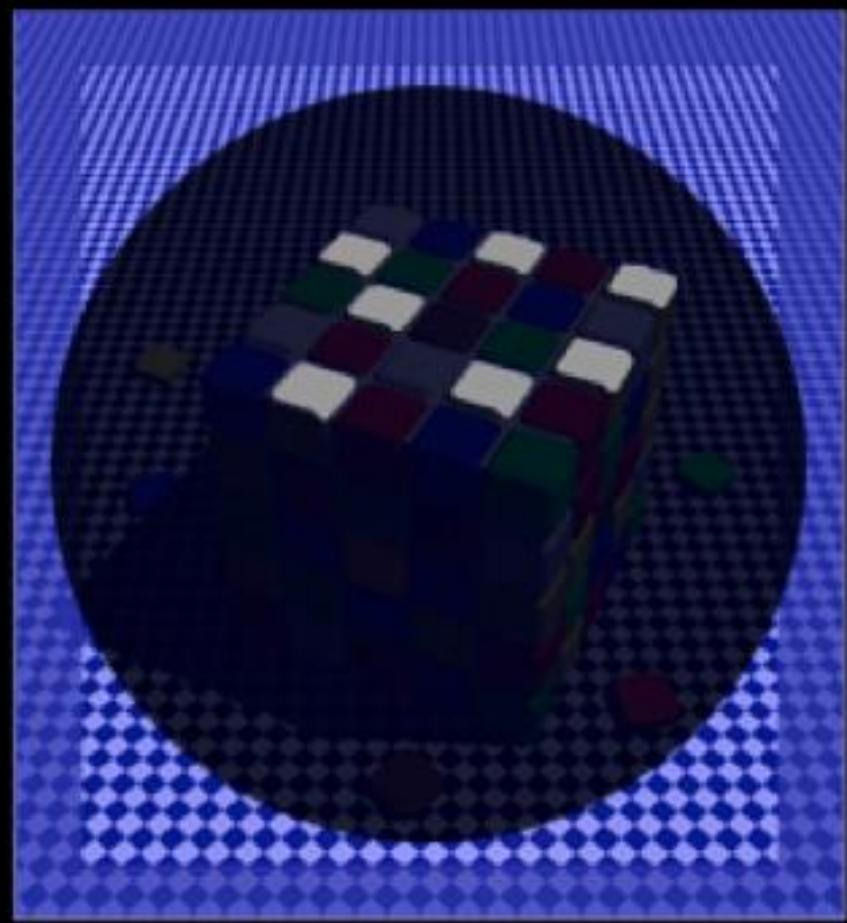
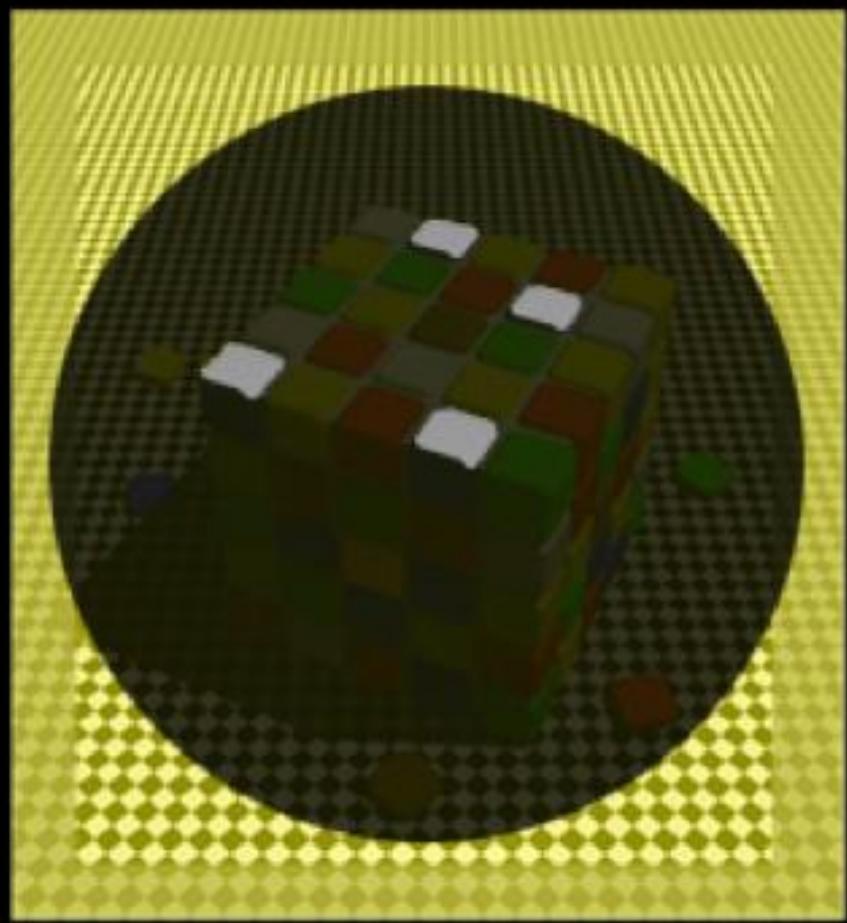












Do you still believe what you see?

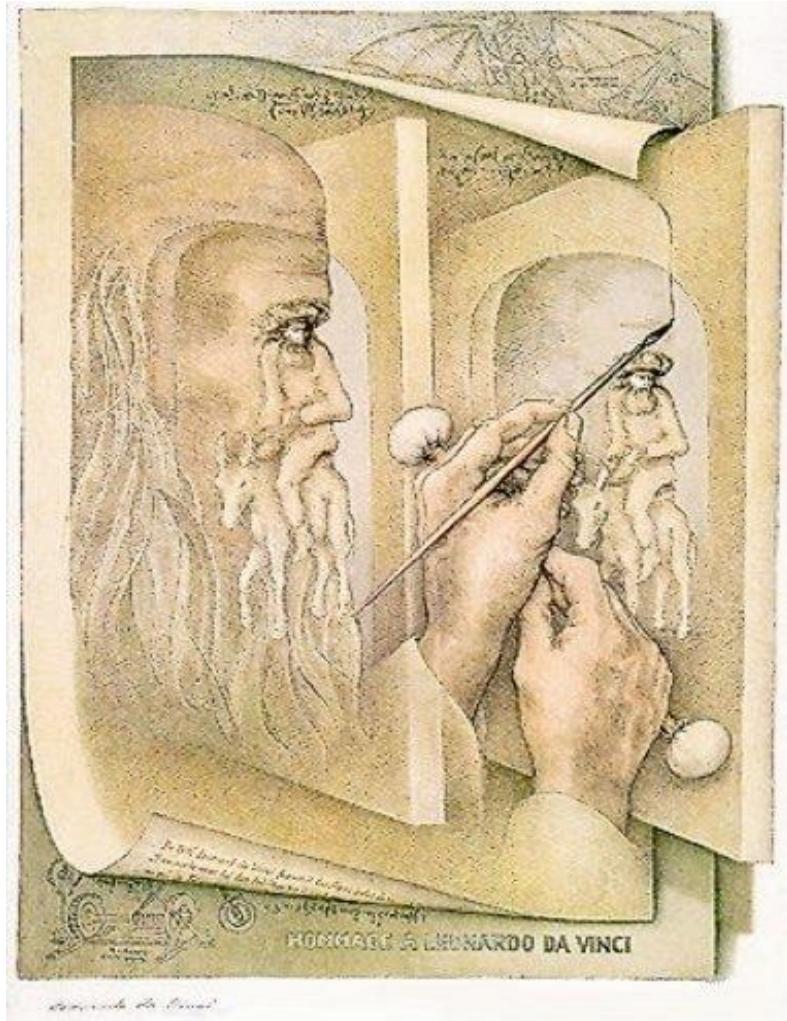
- Experiment
 - ▶ carefully point flash light into your eye from one corner
 - ▶ don't hurt yourself!
- Observation
 - ▶ you'll see your own blood vessels
 - ▶ they are actually in front of the retina
 - ▶ we've adapted to their usual shadow

2. Case Study: Computer Vision & Object Recognition

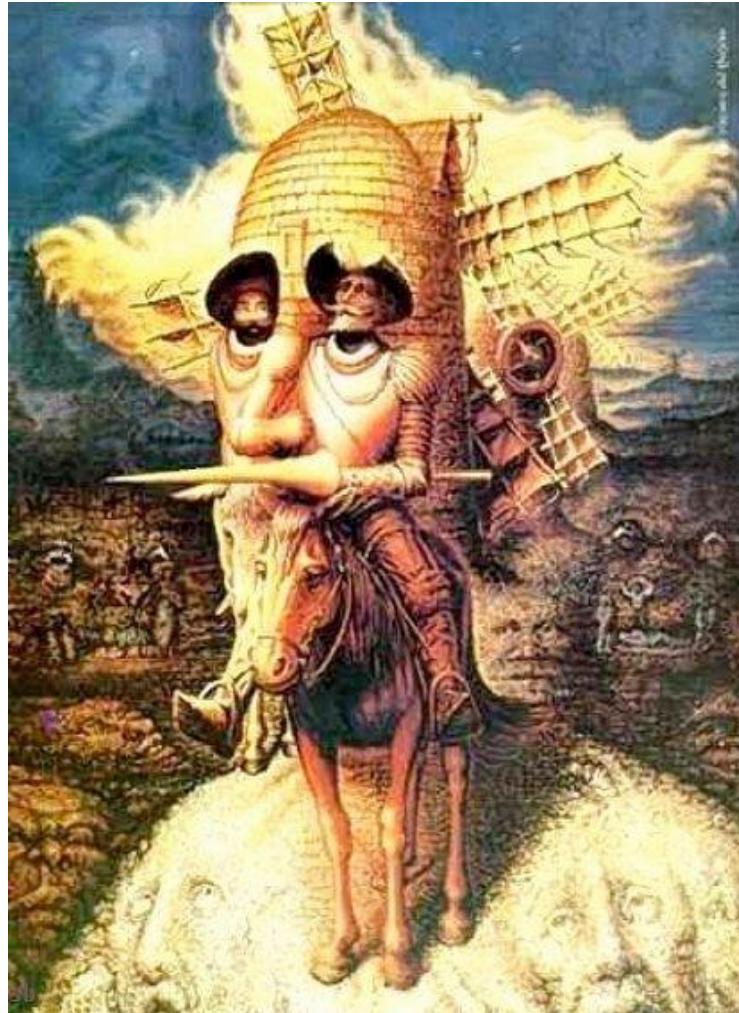
- is it more than inverse graphics?
- how do you recognize
 - the banana?
 - the glass?
 - the towel?
- how can we make computers to do this?
- ill posed problem:
 - missing data
 - ambiguities
 - multiple possible explanations



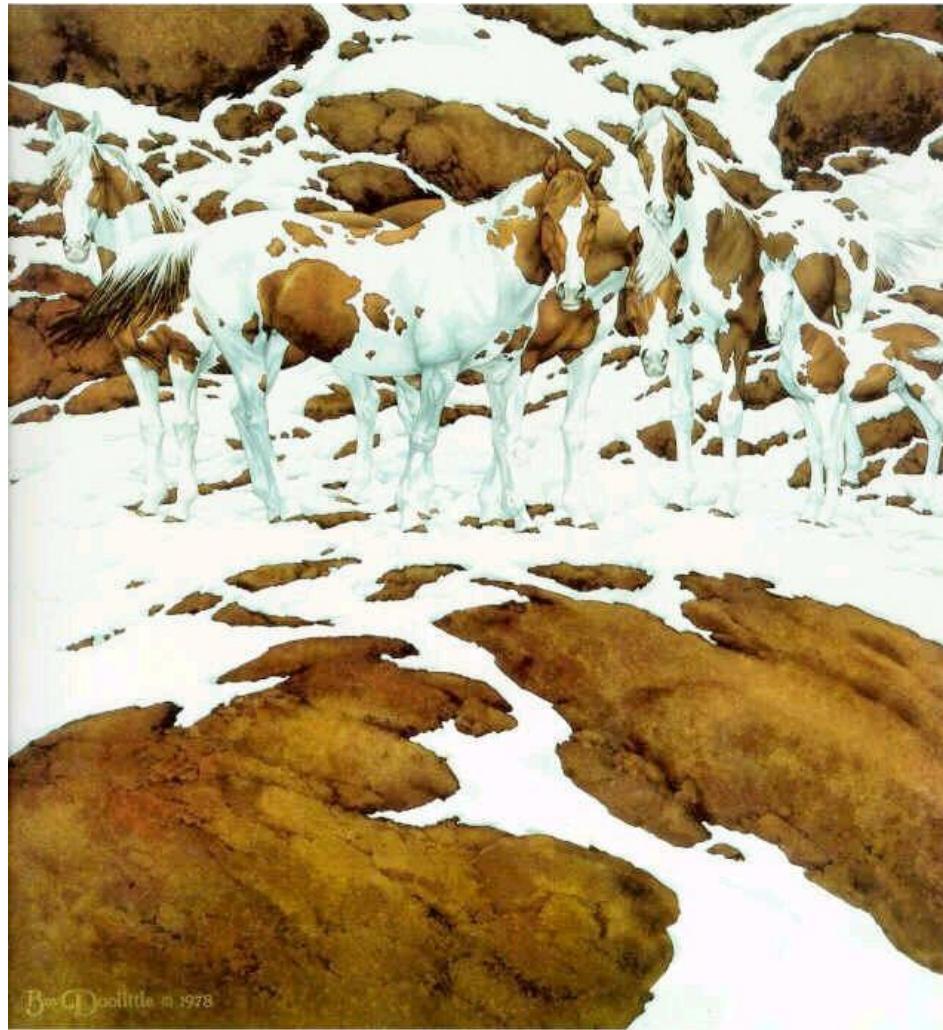
Complexity of Recognition



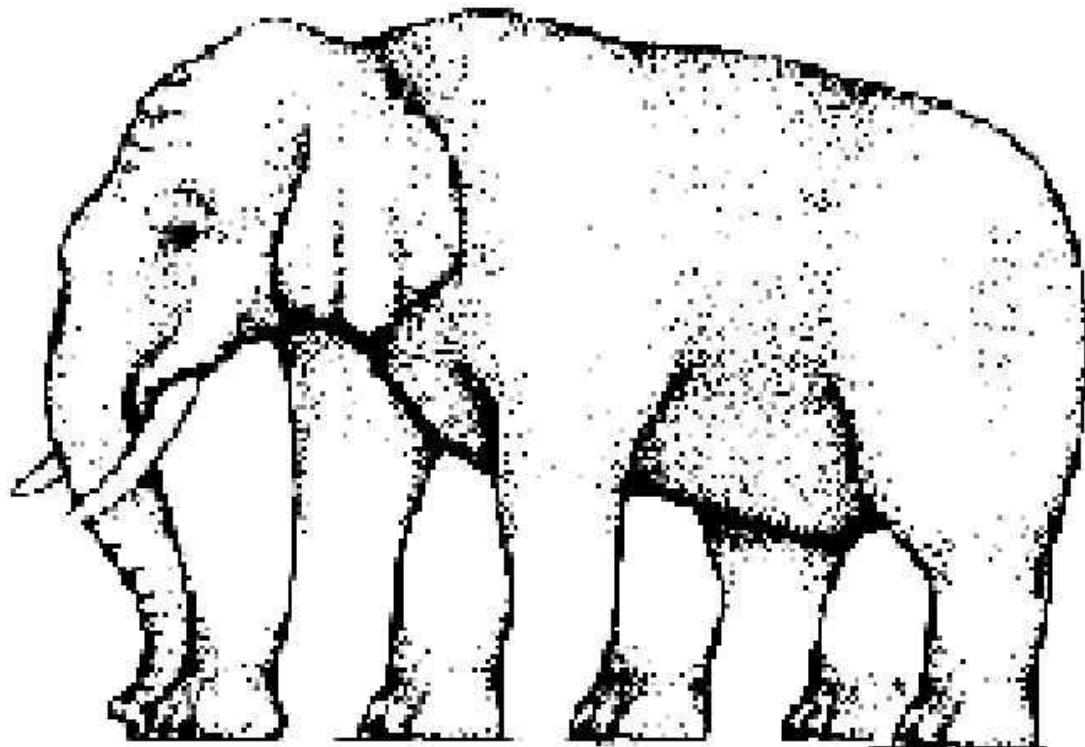
Complexity of Recognition



Complexity of Recognition



Complexity of Recognition



Recognition: the Role of Context

- Antonio Torralba

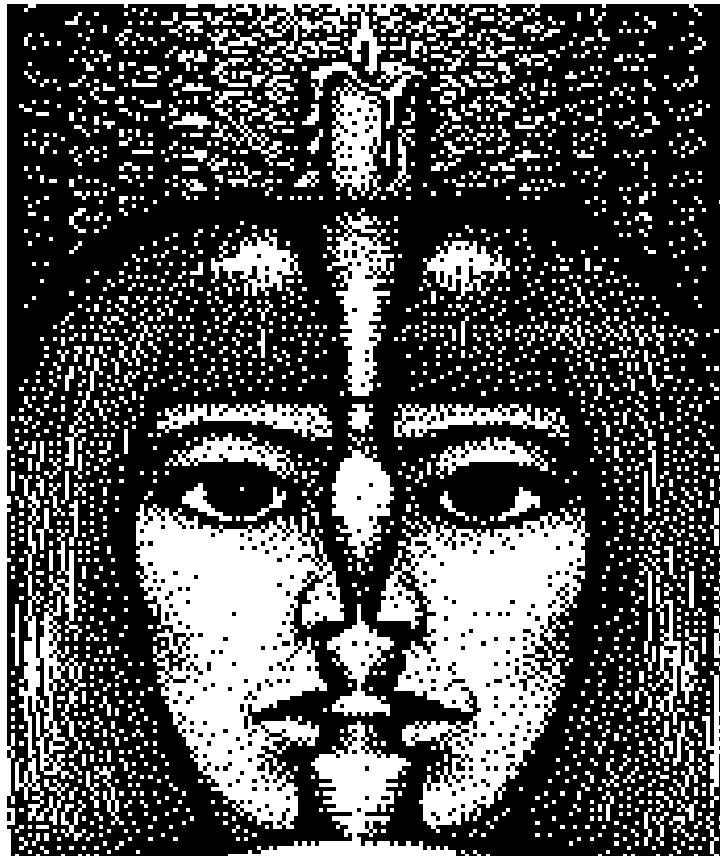


Recognition: the role of Prior Expectation

- Giuseppe Arcimboldo

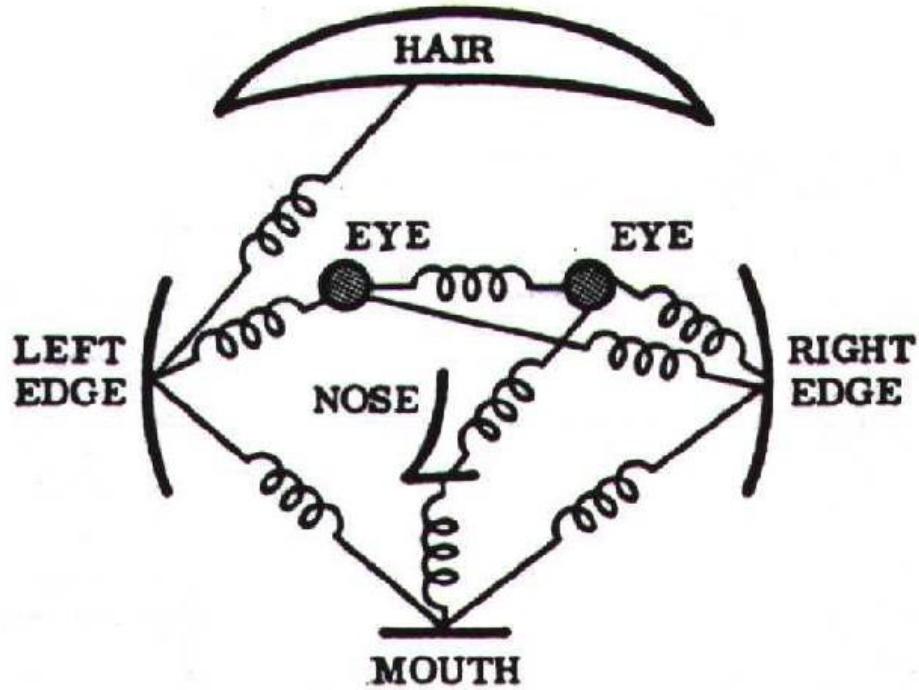


One or Two Faces ?



Class of Models: Pictorial Structure

- Fischler & Elschlager 1973
- Model has two components
 - ▶ parts
(2D image fragments)
 - ▶ structure
(configuration of parts)



Deformations



A



B



C



D

Clutter



Example



Recognition, Localization, and Segmentation

- a few terms
- ... let's briefly define what we mean by that

Object Recognition

- Different Types of Recognition Problems:
 - ▶ Object **Identification**
 - recognize your apple, your cup, your dog
 - ▶ Object **Classification**
 - recognize any apple, any cup, any dog
 - also called:
generic object recognition,
object categorization, ...
 - typical definition: 'basic level category'
- Recognition and
 - ▶ **Segmentation**: separate pixels belonging to the foreground (object) and the background
 - ▶ **Localization/Detection**: position of the object in the scene, pose estimate (orientation, size/scale, 3D position)

Object Recognition

- Different Types of Recognition Problems:

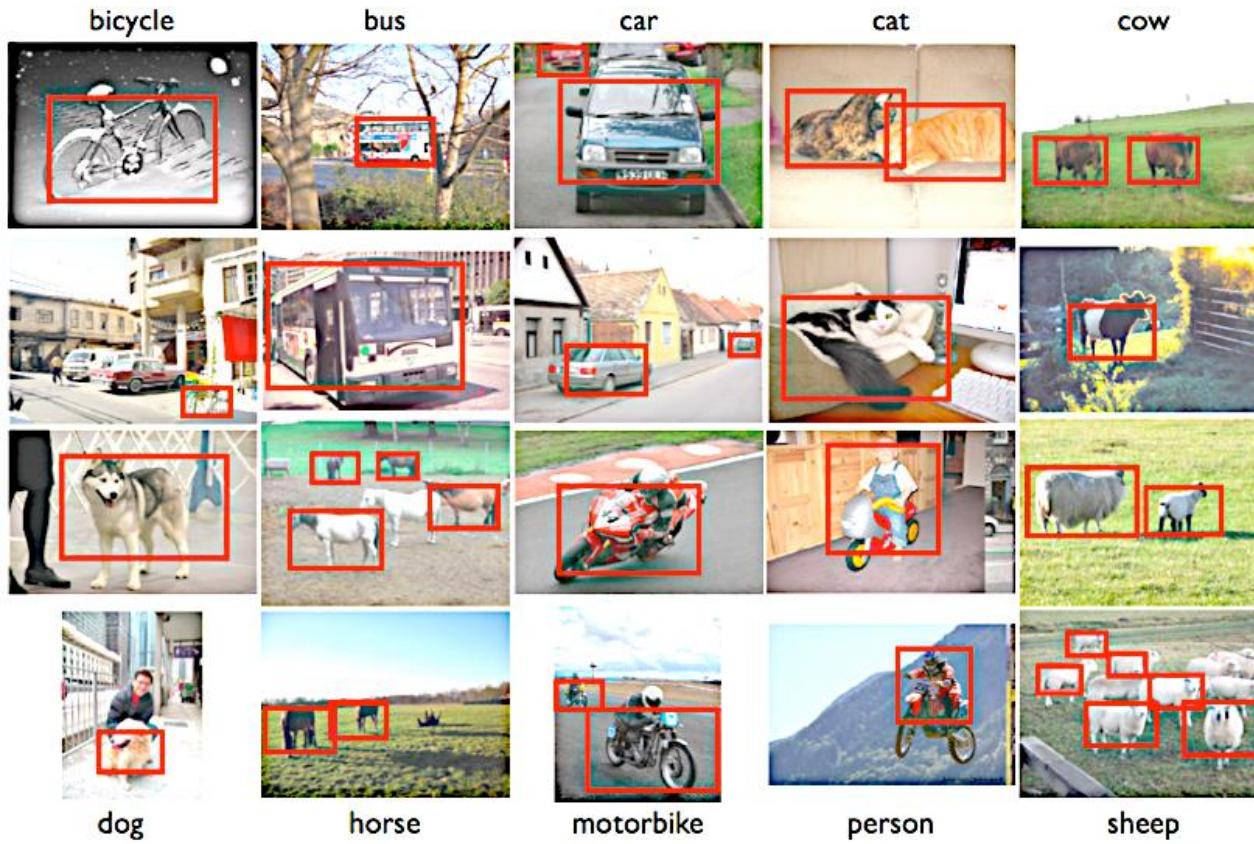
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Which Level is right for Object Classes?

- Basic-Level Categories
 - ▶ the highest level at which category members have **similar perceived shape**
 - ▶ the highest level at which a **single mental image** can reflect the entire category
 - ▶ the highest level at which a person uses similar **motor actions** to interact with category members
 - ▶ the level at which human subjects are usually **fastest** at identifying category members
 - ▶ the first level named and understood by **children**
 - ▶ (while the definition of basic-level categories depends on culture there exist a remarkable consistency across cultures...)
- Most recent work in object recognition has focused on this problem
 - ▶ Most mature algorithms are in this field

Detection & Recognition of Visual Categories



- Challenges:
- multi-scale
 - multi-view
 - multi-class
 - varying illumination
 - occlusion
 - cluttered background
 - articulation
 - high intraclass variance
 - low interclass variance

Challenges of Visual Categorization

- low inter-class variation



- large intra-class variation

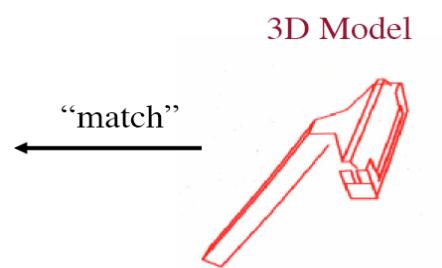
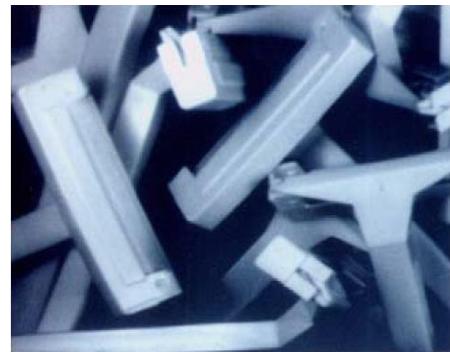
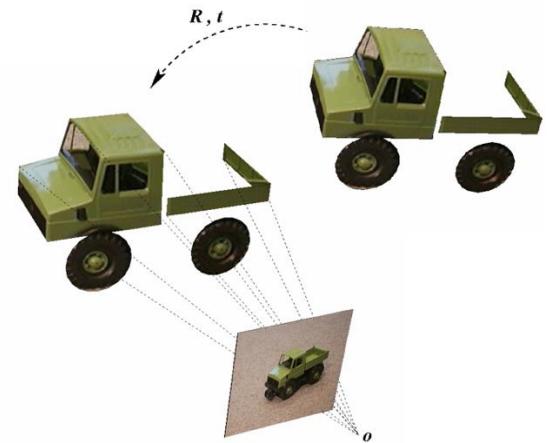
More than Object Recognition

- Recognition and
 - ▶ **Segmentation**: separate pixels belonging to the foreground (object) and the background



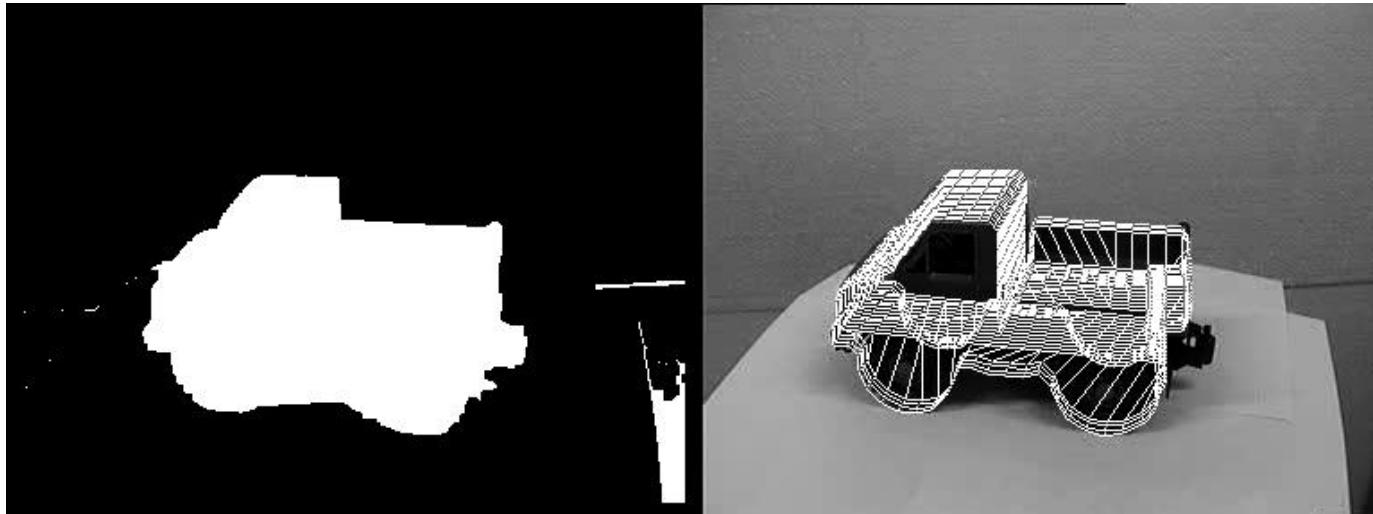
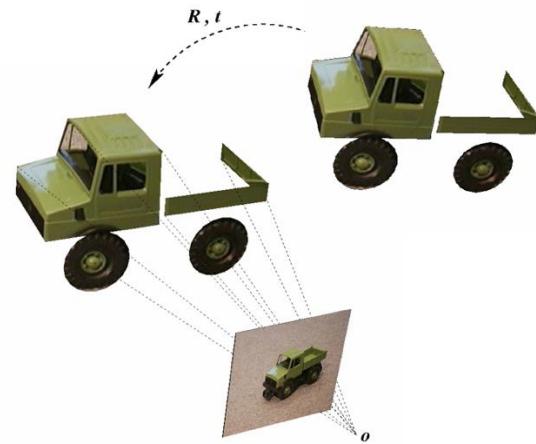
More than Object Recognition

- Recognition and
 - ▶ **Localization**: to position the object in the scene, estimate the object's pose (orientation, size/scale, 3D position)
 - ▶ Example from David Lowe:



Parameters: 3D position
and orientation

Localization: Example Video 1



Localization: Example Video 2



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Basics of Digital Image Filtering

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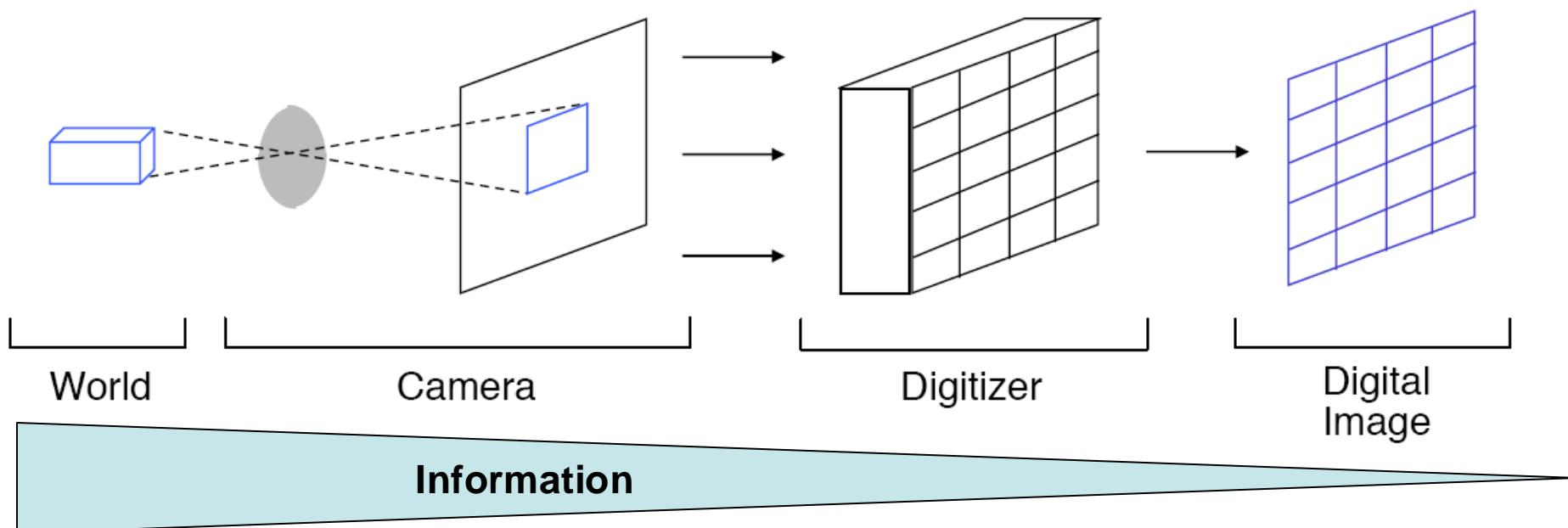
- Linear Filtering
 - Gaussian Filtering
- Multi Scale Image Representation
 - Gaussian Pyramid
- Edge Detection
 - ‘Recognition using Line Drawings’
 - Image derivatives (1st and 2nd order)
- Object Instance Identification using Color Histograms
- Performance evaluation

Basics of Digital Image Filtering

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 - Gaussian Filtering
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Computer Vision and its Components

- computer vision: ‘reverse’ the imaging process
 - **2D (2-dimensional) digital image processing**
 - ‘pattern recognition’ / 3D image analysis
 - image understanding



Digital Image Processing

- Image Filtering
 - take some local image patch (e.g. 3x3 block)
 - image filtering: apply some function to local image patch

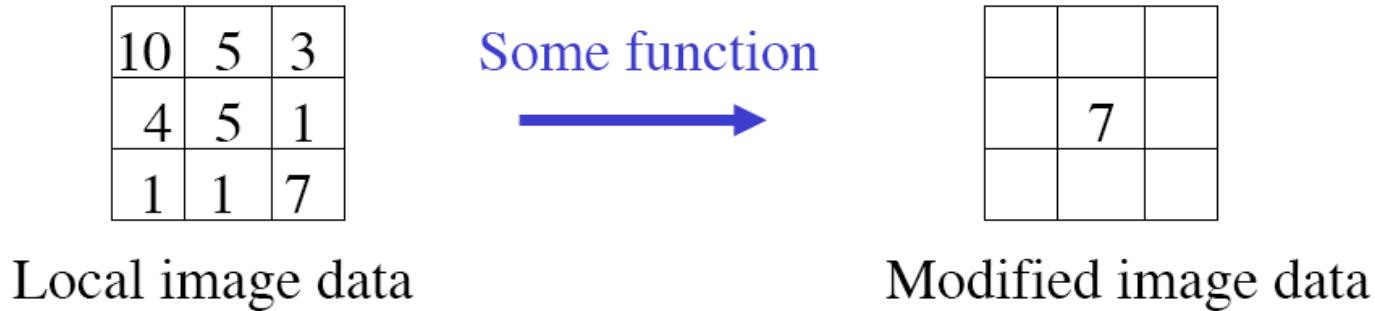


Image Filtering

- Some Examples:
 - ▶ what assumptions are you making to infer the center value?

3	3	3
3	?	3
3	3	3

A 3x3 grid of numbers. The top row and bottom row both contain three '3's. The middle row has a question mark in the center position. A red arrow points from the rightmost '3' in the bottom row to the rightmost '3' in the middle row, with the number '3' written next to it, indicating a stride of 2.

3	4	3
2	?	5
5	4	2

A 3x3 grid of numbers. The top row contains '3', '4', and '3'. The middle row contains '2', a question mark, and '5'. The bottom row contains '5', '4', and '2'. A red arrow points from the rightmost '5' in the middle row to the rightmost '5' in the bottom row, with the text '3 or 4' written next to it, indicating a stride of 2.

Image Filtering: 2D Signals and Convolution

- Image Filtering
 - ▶ to reduce noise,
 - ▶ to fill-in missing values/information
 - ▶ to extract image features (e.g. edges/corners), etc.
 - Simplest case:
 - ▶ linear filtering: replace each pixel by a linear combination of its neighbors
 - 2D convolution (discrete):
$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_{k,l} I[m - k, n - l]g[k, l]$$
 - ▶ discrete Image: $I[m, n]$
 - ▶ filter ‘kernel’: $g[k, l]$
 - ▶ ‘filtered’ image: $f[m, n]$
- can be expressed as matrix multiplication!
- | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|--|----|--|--|--|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------|--|----|---|---|----|---|---|----|---|---|
| $f[m, n]$ | $I[k, l]$ | \otimes | $g[k, l]$ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <table border="1"><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td>18</td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table> | | | | | 18 | | | | | <table border="1"><tr><td>8</td><td>5</td><td>2</td></tr><tr><td>7</td><td>5</td><td>3</td></tr><tr><td>9</td><td>4</td><td>1</td></tr></table> | 8 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 5 | 3 | 9 | 4 | 1 | \otimes | <table border="1"><tr><td>-1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr><tr><td>-1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr><tr><td>-1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr></table> | -1 | 0 | 1 | -1 | 0 | 1 | -1 | 0 | 1 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 18 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | 5 | 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | 5 | 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | 4 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| -1 | 0 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| -1 | 0 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| -1 | 0 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

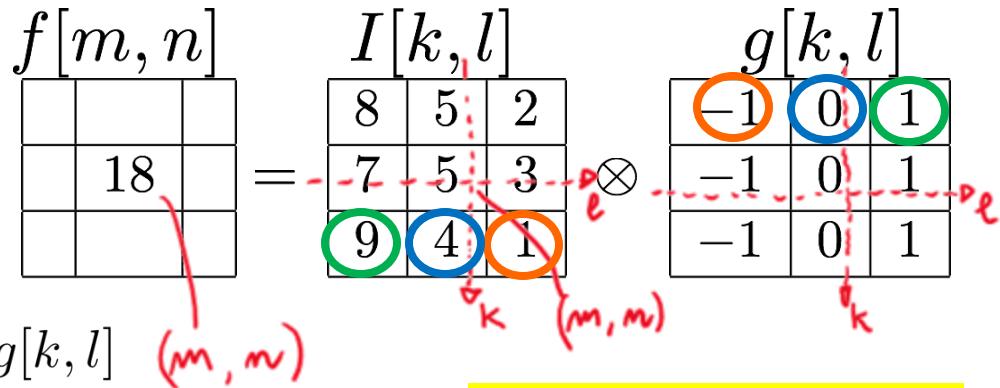
Image Filtering: 2D Signals and Convolution

- 2D convolution (discrete): $f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_{k,l} I[m - k, n - l]g[k, l]$

- discrete Image: $I[m,n]$
- filter ‘kernel’: $g[k,l]$
- ‘filtered’ image: $f[m,n]$

$$= \sum_{\begin{array}{l} -1 < k < +1 \\ -1 < l < +1 \end{array}}$$

$$= I[m + 1, n + 1]g[-1, -1] + I[m + 1, n]g[-1, 0] + I[m + 1, n - 1]g[-1, +1] + \dots$$



- mirror the filter (k and l)
- swipe it across the image
- multiply and sum

$$(k = -1, l = -1)$$

$$(k = -1, l = 0)$$

$$(k = -1, l = +1)$$

Image Filtering: 2D Signals and Convolution

- 2D convolution (discrete): $f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_{k,l} I[m - k, n - l]g[k, l]$
 - discrete Image: $I[m, n]$
 - filter ‘kernel’: $g[k, l]$
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- $f[m, n]$ $I[k, l]$ $g[k, l]$
- | | | |
|--|----|--|
| | | |
| | 18 | |
| | | |
- $=$
- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 8 | 5 | 2 |
| 7 | 5 | 3 |
| 9 | 4 | 1 |
- \otimes
- | | | |
|----|---|---|
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 |

- special case:
 - convolution (discrete) of a 2D-image with a 1D-filter

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$

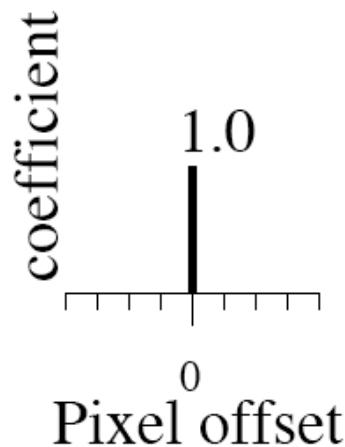
$g[k]$
-1
0
1

Linear Filtering (warm-up slide)

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$



original



= ?

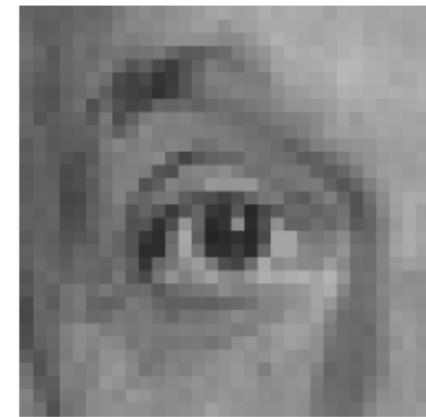
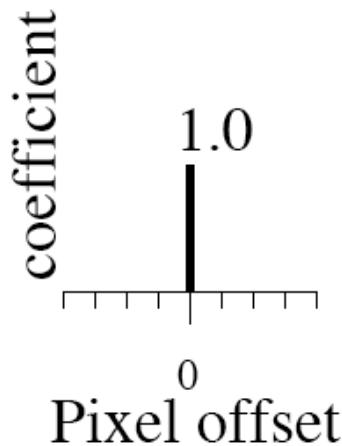
$$I \otimes g = f$$

Linear Filtering (warm-up slide)

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$



original

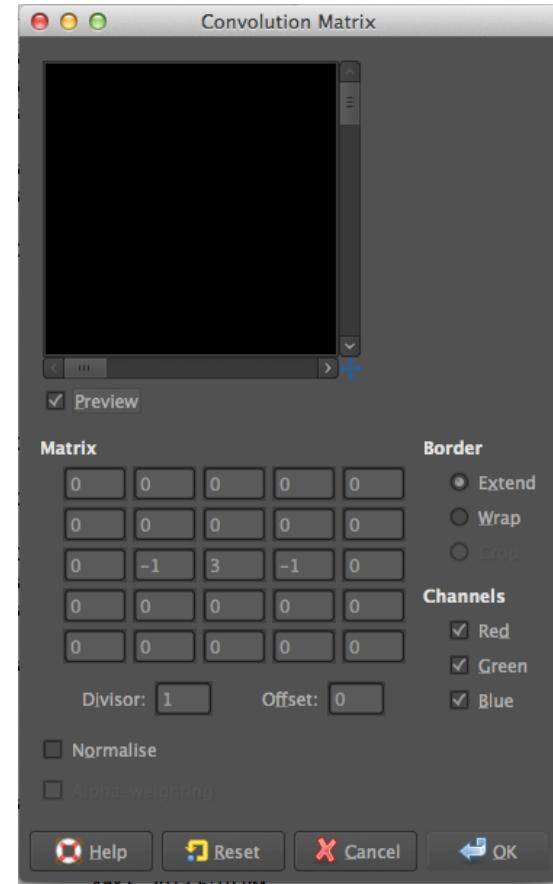


Filtered
(no change)

$$I \otimes g = f$$

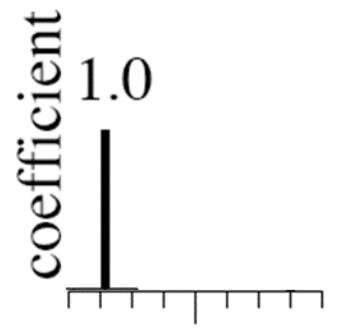
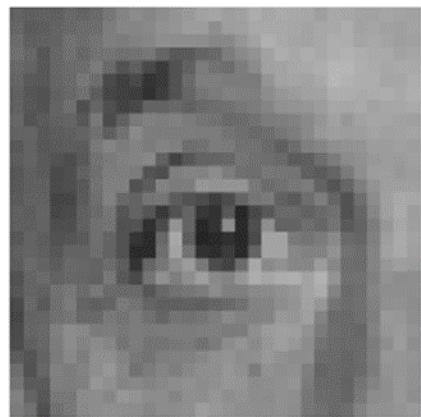
Try it out in GIMP

- You can try out linear filter kernels in the free image manipulation tool GIMP
 - available at gimp.org
- open image
- from the menu pick:
 - ▶ Filters
 - Generic
 - Convolution Matrix ...
- enter filter kernel in “Matrix”
- press “ok” to apply



Linear Filtering

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$



?

original

I

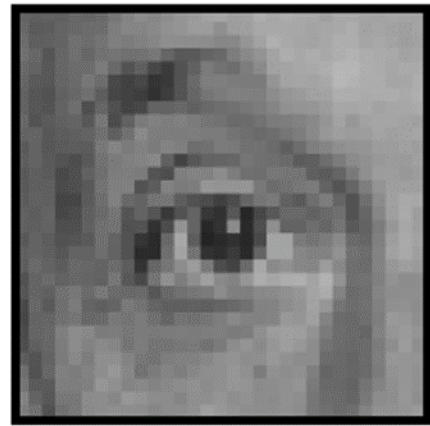
\otimes

g

$= f$

Linear Filtering

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum I[m - k, n]g[k]$$

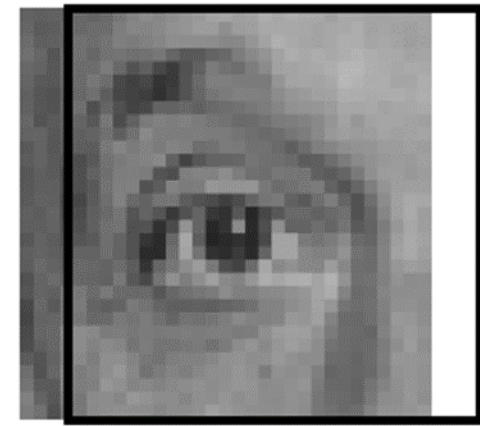


original

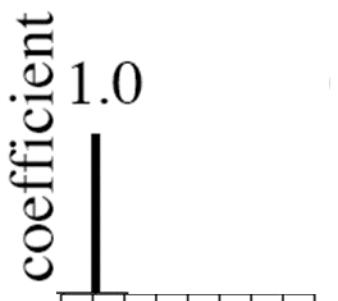
I

\otimes

0
Pixel offset

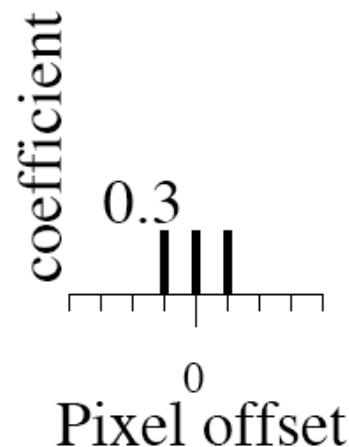


shifted
 $= f$



Linear Filtering

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$



?

original

$$I \otimes g = f$$

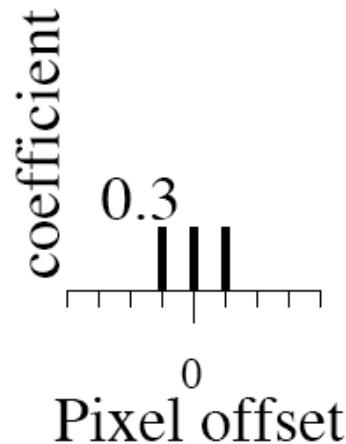
Blurring

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$



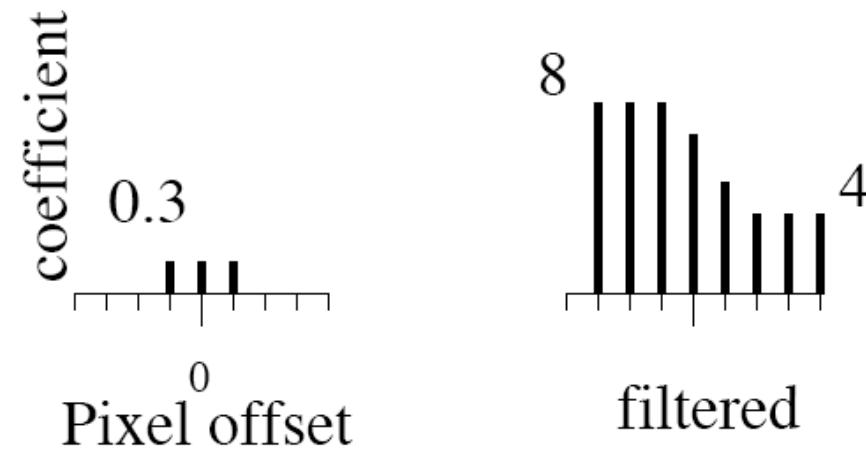
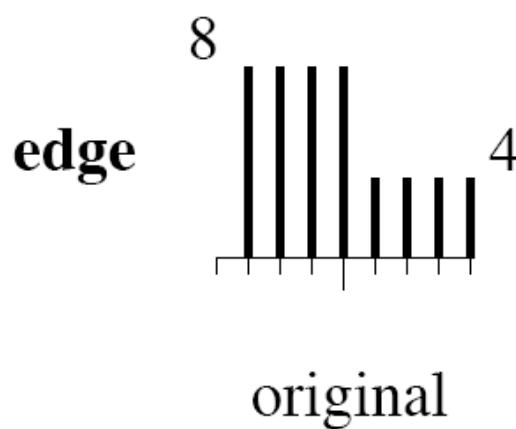
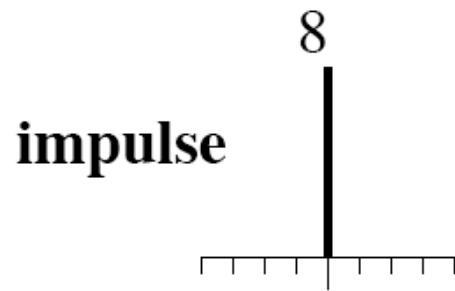
original

$$I \otimes g$$



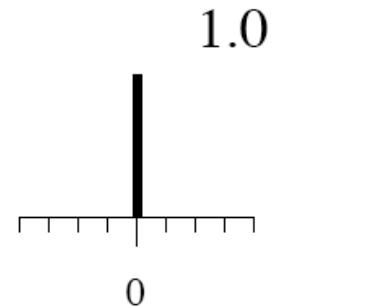
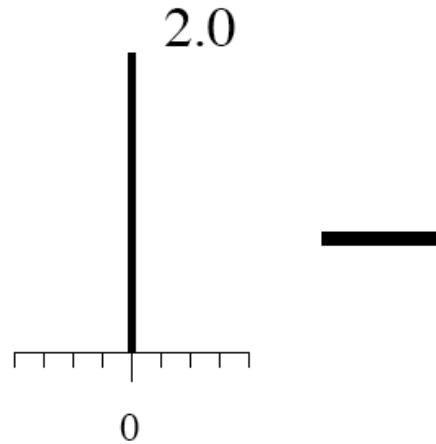
Blurred (filter applied in both dimensions).

Blurring Examples



Linear Filtering (warm-up slide)

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g_1 - I \otimes g_2 = I \otimes (g_1 - g_2)$$



?

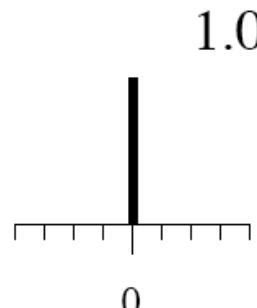
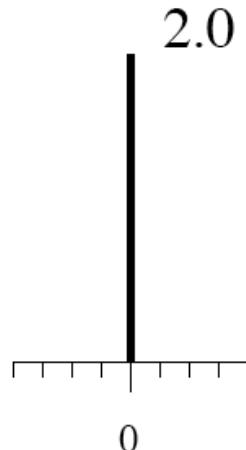
original

Linear Filtering (warm-up slide)

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g_1 - I \otimes g_2 = I \otimes (g_1 - g_2)$$



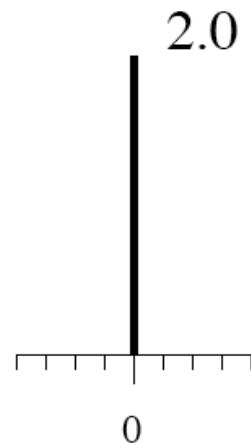
original



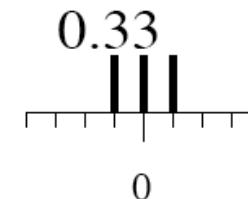
Filtered
(no change)

Linear Filtering

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g_1 - I \otimes g_2 = I \otimes (g_1 - g_2)$$



—



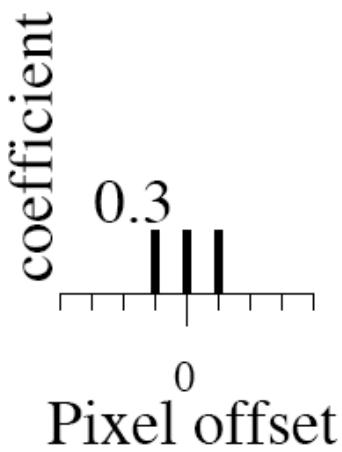
?

original

(remember blurring)



original

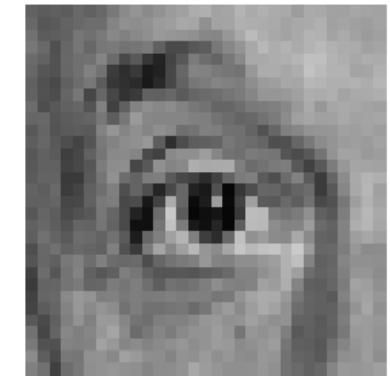
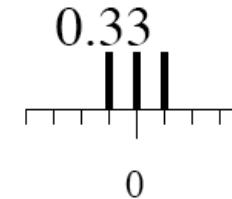
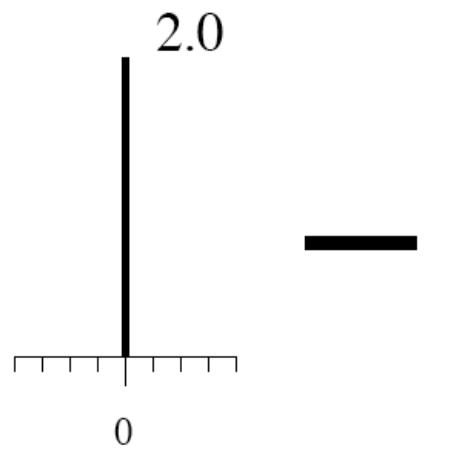


Blurred (filter applied in both dimensions).

Sharpening

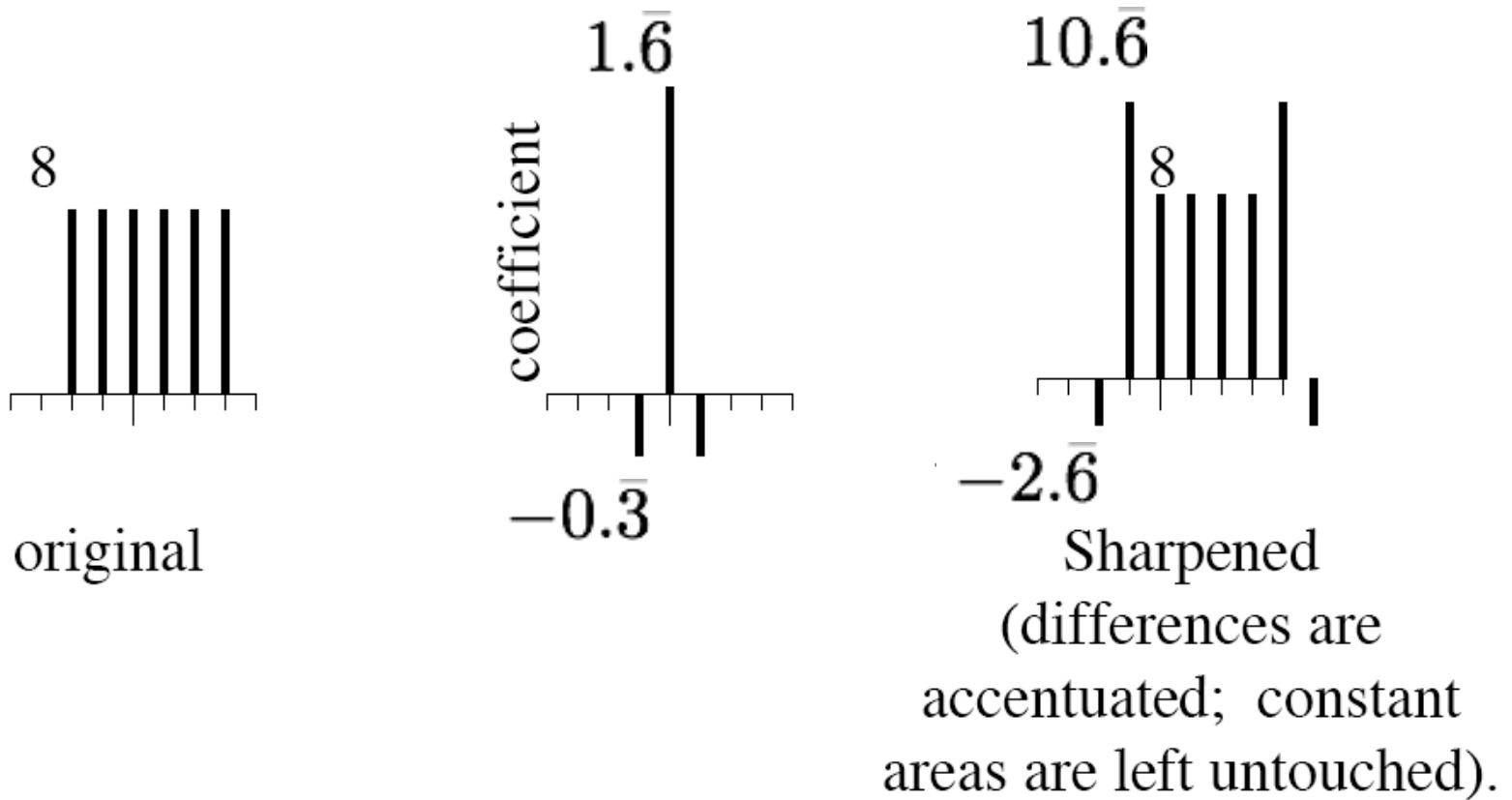


original

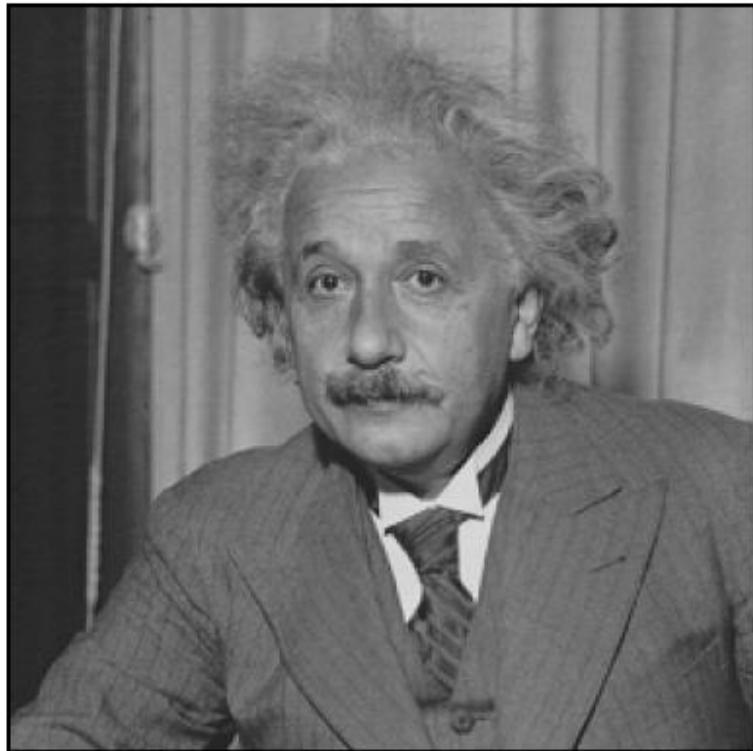


Sharpened
original

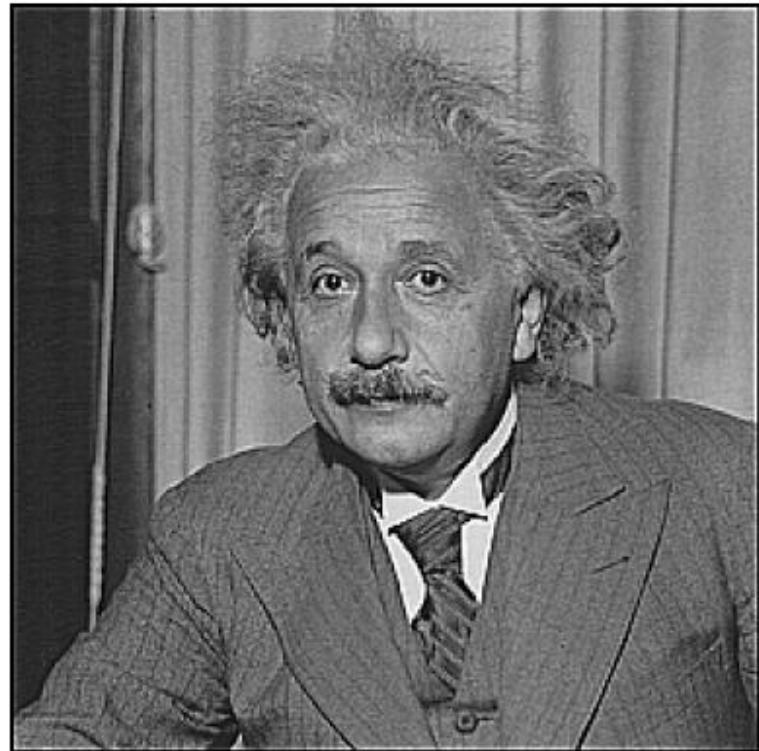
Sharpening Example



Sharpening



before



after

Image Filtering

Interim summary

- Images may need low-level adjustment such as filtering, in order to enhance image quality (e.g. denoising) or extract useful information (e.g. edges)
- Filtering for enhancement → improve contrast
- Filtering for smoothing → removes noise
- Filtering for template matching → detect known patterns

Image Filtering: 2D Signals and Convolution

- 2D convolution (discrete): $f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_{k,l} I[m - k, n - l]g[k, l]$

► discrete Image: $I[m, n]$

► filter ‘kernel’: $g[k, l]$

► ‘filtered’ image: $f[m, n]$

$$f[m, n] = I[m, n] \otimes g[m, n]$$

	18	

$$= \begin{matrix} 8 & 5 & 2 \\ 7 & 5 & 3 \\ 9 & 4 & 1 \end{matrix} \otimes \begin{matrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

- special case:

► convolution (discrete) of a 2D-image with a 1D-filter

$$f[m, n] = I \otimes g = \sum_k I[m - k, n]g[k]$$

$$g[k]$$

-1
0
1

Linear Systems

- Basic Properties:
 - ▶ homogeneity $T[a X] = a T[X]$
 - ▶ additivity $T[X_1 + X_2] = T[X_1] + T[X_2]$
 - ▶ superposition $T[aX_1 + bX_2] = a T[X_1] + b T[X_2]$
 - ▶ linear systems \Leftrightarrow superposition
- examples:
 - ▶ matrix operations (additions, multiplication)
 - ▶ convolutions

Filtering to Reduce Noise

- “Noise” is what we’re not interested in
 - ▶ low-level noise: light fluctuations, sensor noise, quantization effects, finite precision, ...
 - ▶ complex noise (not today): shadows, extraneous objects.
- Assumption:
 - ▶ the pixel’s neighborhood contains information about its intensity

The diagram illustrates a filtering process. On the left, there is a 3x3 input grid containing the following values:

2	3	3
3	20	2
3	2	3

An arrow points from this input grid to a 3x3 output grid, which contains the following values:

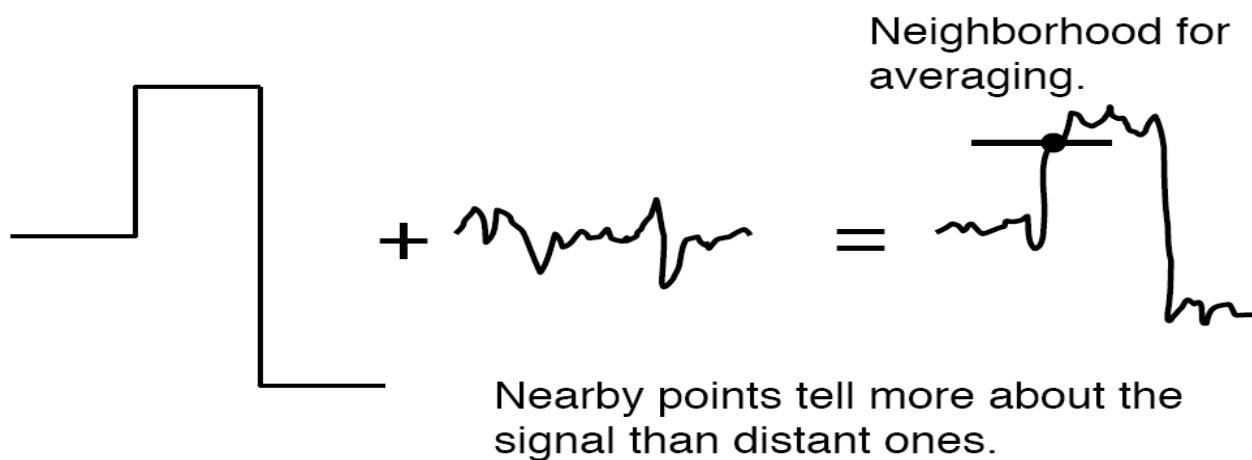
2	3	3
3	3	2
3	2	3

This visualizes how a central pixel (20) is being smoothed or reduced by its neighbors (2, 3, 3, 2, 3) to produce a lower value (3) in the output grid.

Model: Additive Noise

- Image I = Signal S + Noise N :

$$S + N = I$$



Model: Additive Noise

- Image $I = \text{Signal } S + \text{Noise } N$
 - i.e. noise does not depend on the signal
- we consider:
 - I_i : intensity of i 'th pixel
 - $I_i = s_i + n_i$ with $E(n_i) = 0$
 - s_i deterministic
 - n_i, n_j independent for $i \neq j$
 - n_i, n_j i.i.d. (independent, identically distributed)
- therefore:
 - intuition: averaging noise reduces its effect
 - better: smoothing as inference about the signal

Average Filter

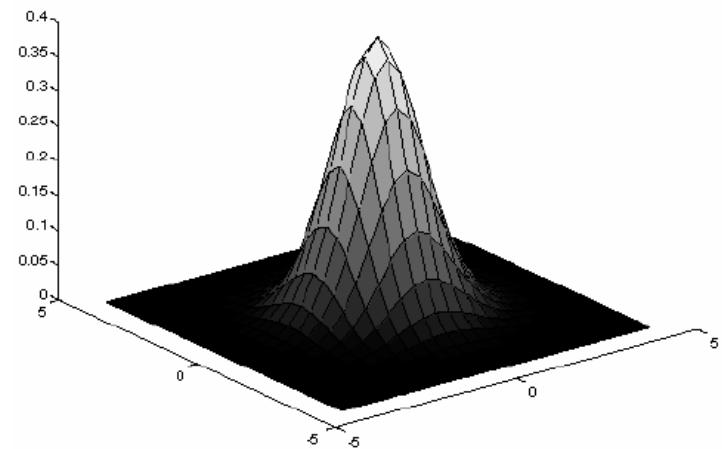
- Average Filter
 - replaces each pixel with an average of its neighborhood
 - Mask with positive entries that sum to 1
- if all weights are equal, it is called a BOX filter

$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{1}{9}$



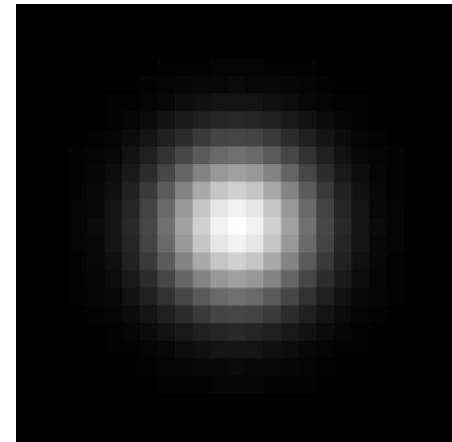
Gaussian Averaging (An Isotropic Gaussian)

- Rotationally symmetric
- Weights nearby pixels more than distant ones
 - this makes sense as ‘probabilistic’ inference



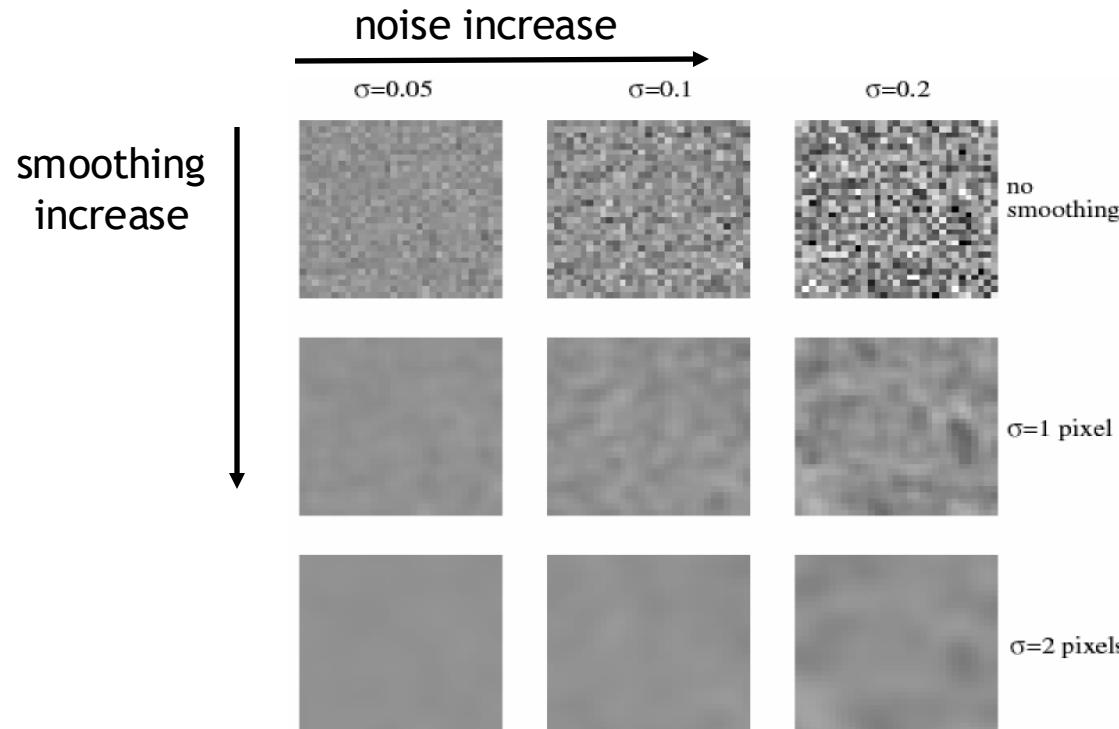
- the pictures show a smoothing kernel proportional to

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$



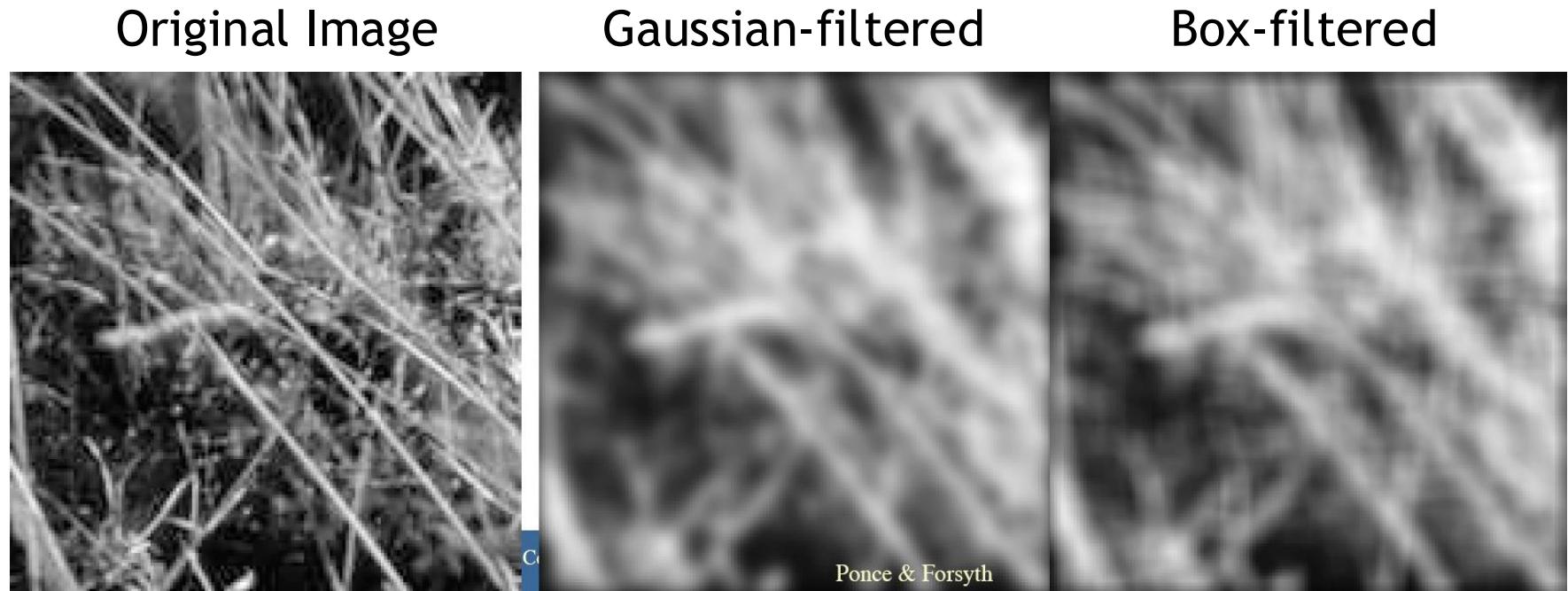
Smoothing with a Gaussian

- Effects of smoothing:
 - ▶ each column shows realizations of an image of Gaussian noise
 - ▶ each row shows smoothing with Gaussians of different width



Smoothing with a Gaussian

- Example:



Efficient Implementation

- Both, the BOX filter and the Gaussian filter are separable:
 - ▶ first convolve each row with a 1D filter
 - ▶ then convolve each column with a 1D filter

$$(f_x \otimes f_y) \otimes I = f_x \otimes (f_y \otimes I)$$

- ▶ remember:
 - convolution is linear - associative and commutative
- Example: separable BOX filter

$$f_x \otimes f_y = f_x \otimes \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{array} \right) \otimes \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{array} \right)$$

Example: Separable Gaussian

- Gaussian in x-direction

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- Gaussian in y-direction

$$g(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- Gaussian in both directions

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Separable Gaussian

- Gaussian separability:
 - ▶ an n dimensional Gaussian convolution is equivalent to n 1-D Gaussian convolutions

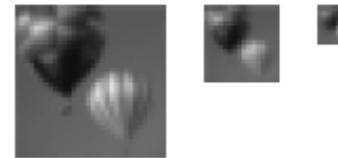
$$\begin{aligned} h(i, j) &= f(i, j) * g(i, j) = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^n g(k, l) f(i - k, j - l) = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{l=1}^n e^{-\frac{(k^2+l^2)}{2\sigma^2}} f(i - k, j - l) = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m e^{-\frac{k^2}{2\sigma^2}} \left[\underbrace{\sum_{l=1}^n e^{-\frac{l^2}{2\sigma^2}} f(i - k, j - l)}_{h'} \right] = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m e^{-\frac{k^2}{2\sigma^2}} h'(i - k, j) \end{aligned}$$

1-D Gaussian horizontally

1-D Gaussian vertically

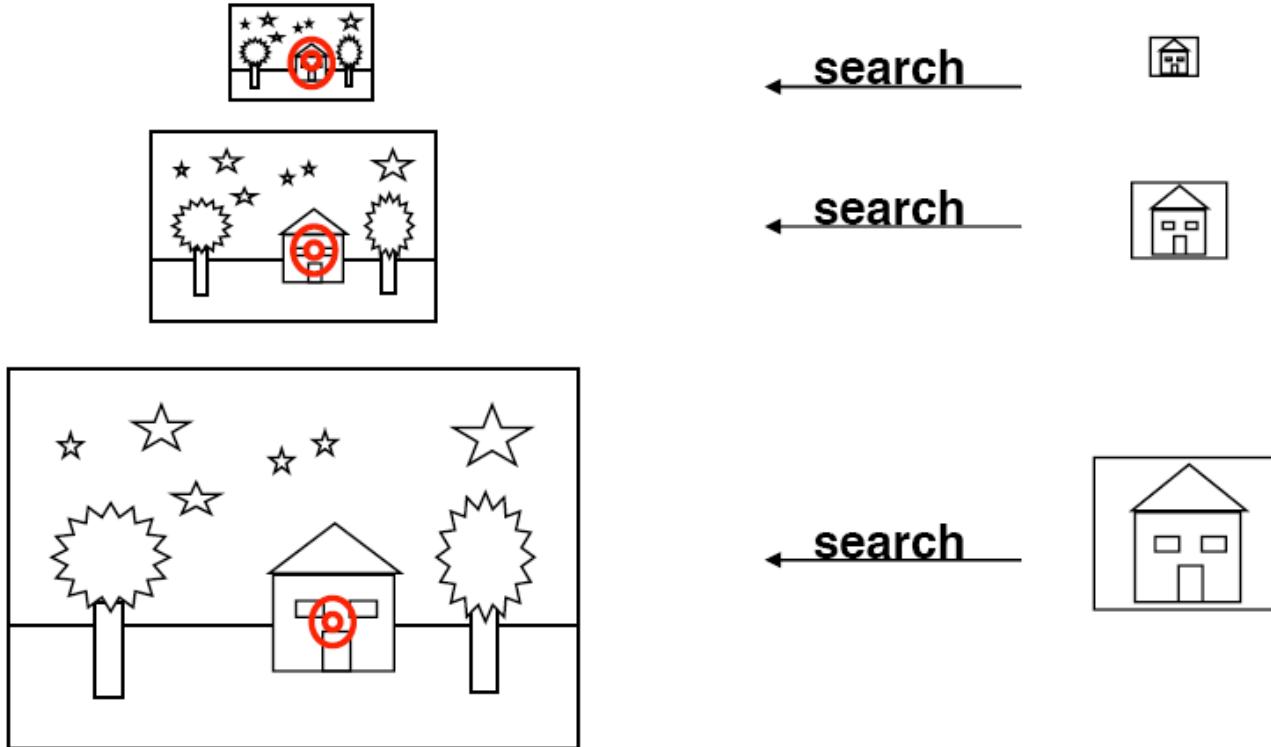
Multi-Scale Image Representation

- Gaussian Pyramids
- Example of a Gaussian Pyramid



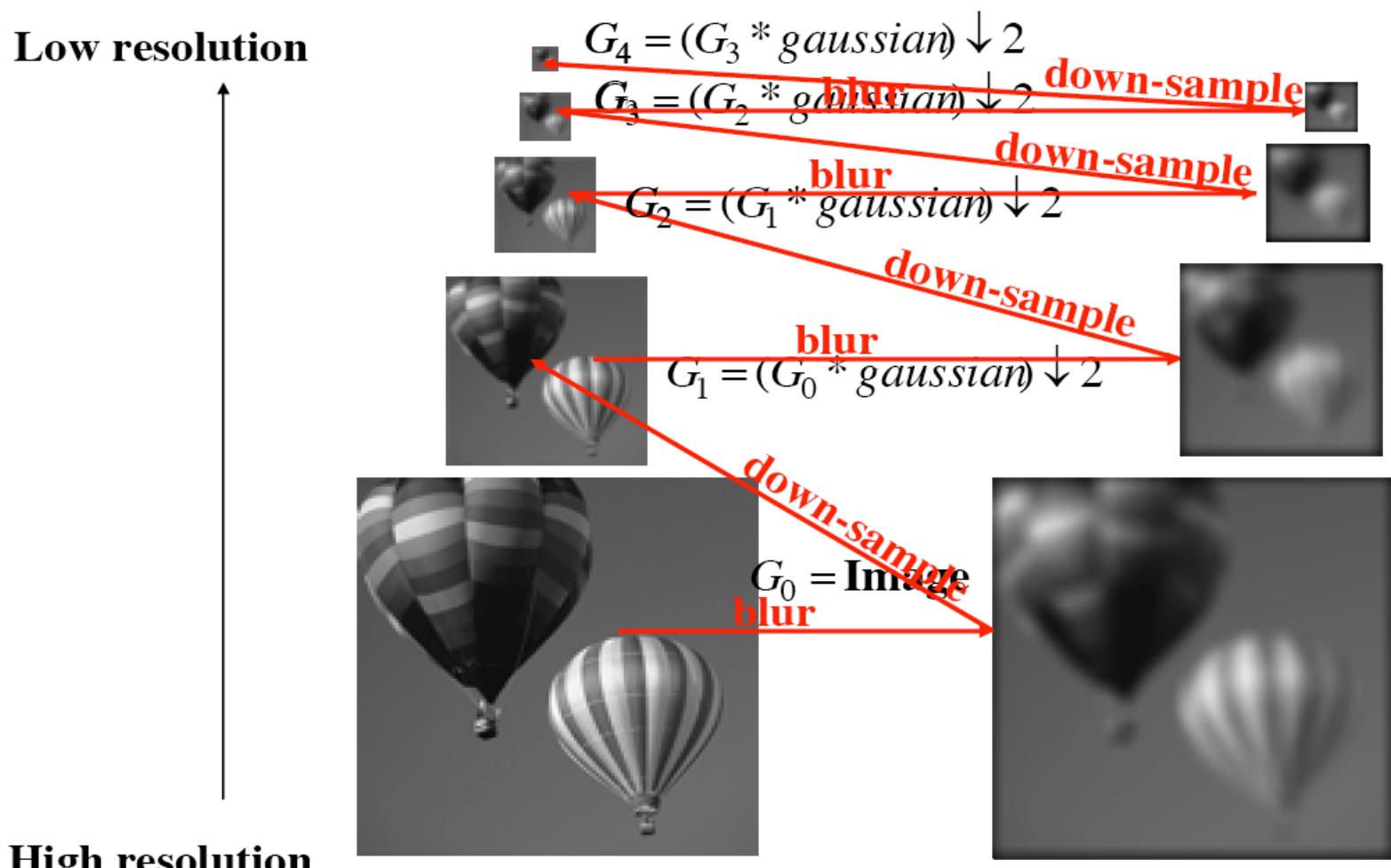
High resolution → **Low resolution**

Motivation: Search across Scales

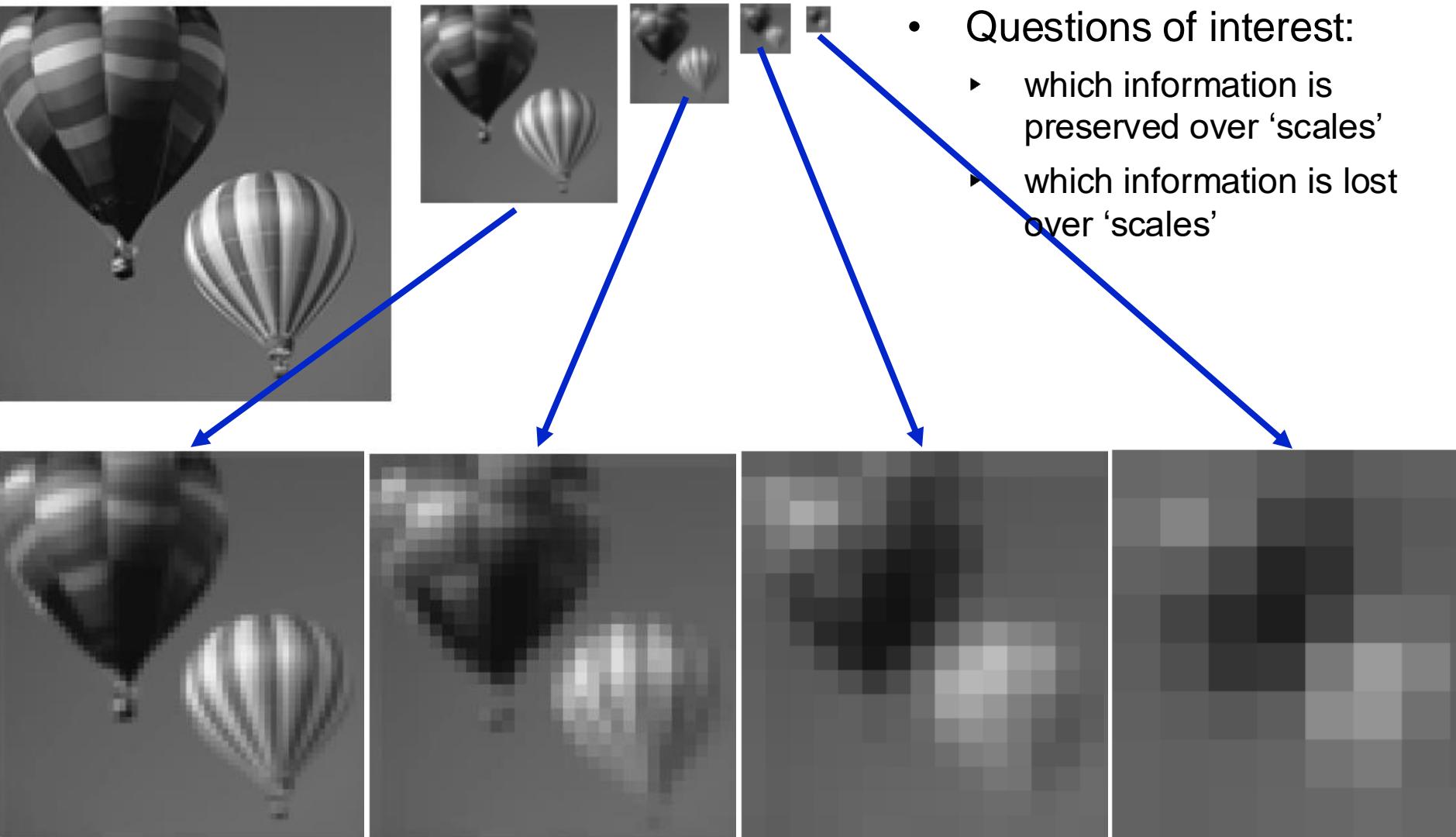


Irani & Basri

Computation of Gaussian Pyramid

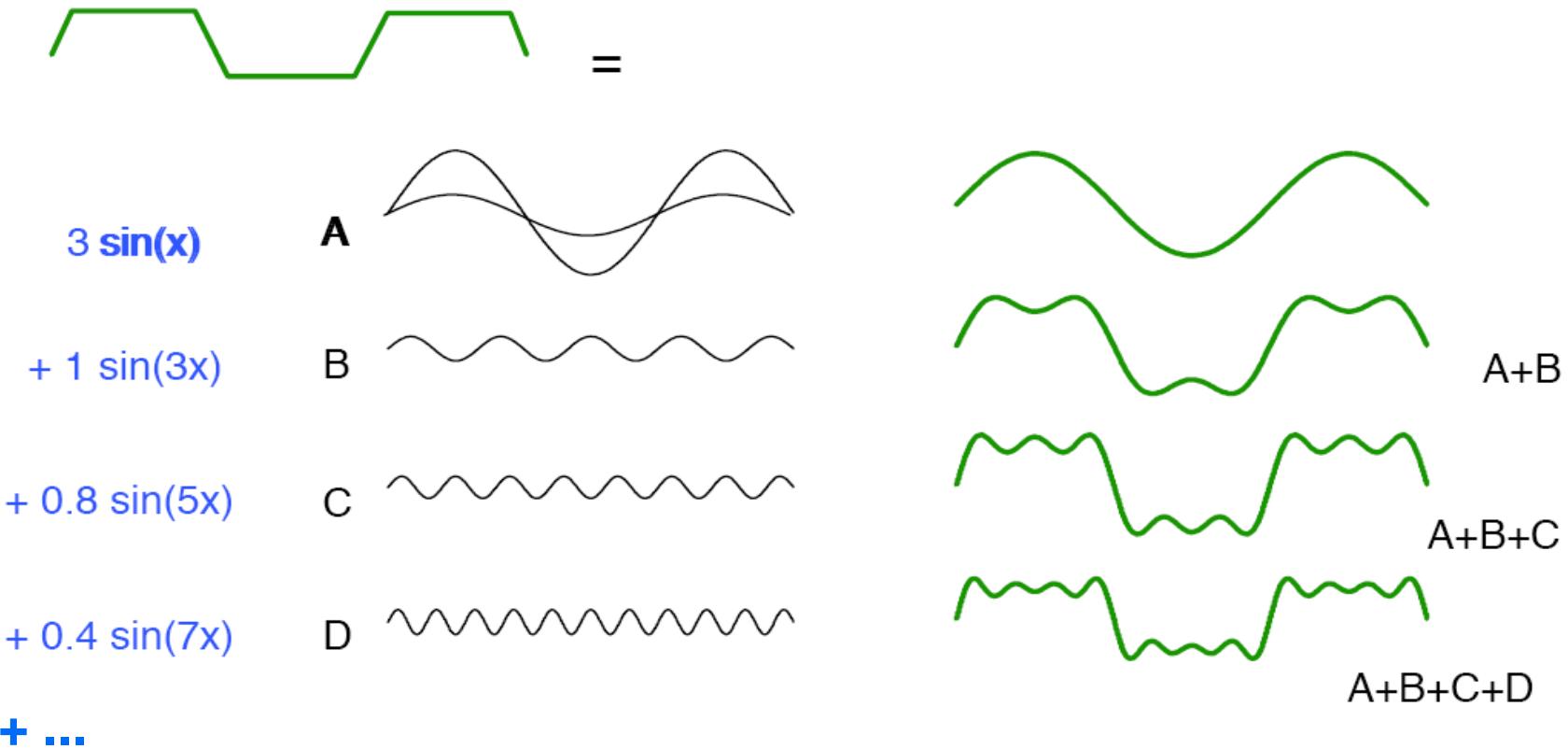


Gaussian Pyramid



Fourier Transform in Pictures

- a *very* little introduction on Fourier transforms to talk about spatial frequencies...



Subsampling without Average Filtering

- Subsampling without average filtering leads to aliasing

Original image

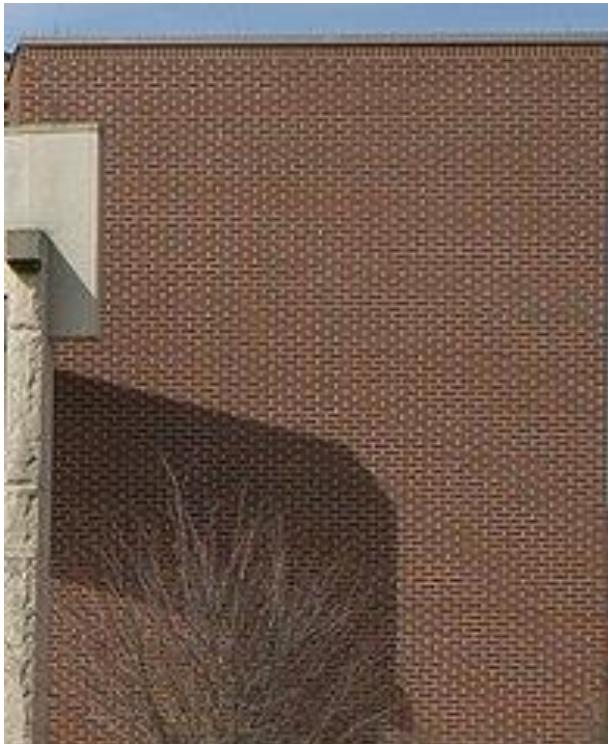


Image with spatial aliasing



image source: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aliasing>

Another Example



512

256

128

64

32

16

8

- a bar
 - ▶ in the big images is a hair (on the zebra's nose)
 - ▶ in smaller images, a stripe
 - ▶ in the smallest image, the animal's nose



Basics of Digital Image Filtering

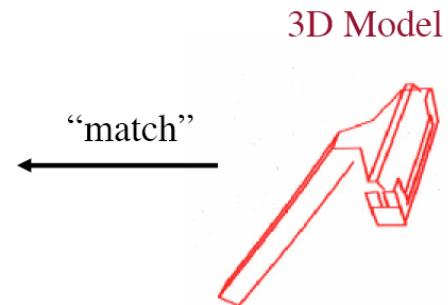
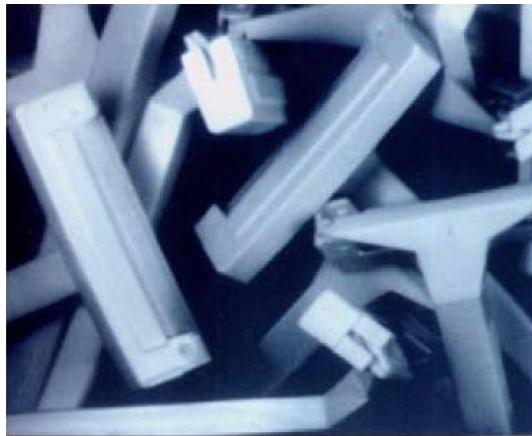
- Linear Filtering
 - Gaussian Filtering
- Multi Scale Image Representation
 - Gaussian Pyramid
- Edge Detection
 - ‘Recognition using Line Drawings’
 - Image derivatives (1st and 2nd order)
- Object Instance Identification using Color Histograms
- Performance evaluation

Line Drawings: Good Starting Point for Recognition?



Example of Recognition & Localization

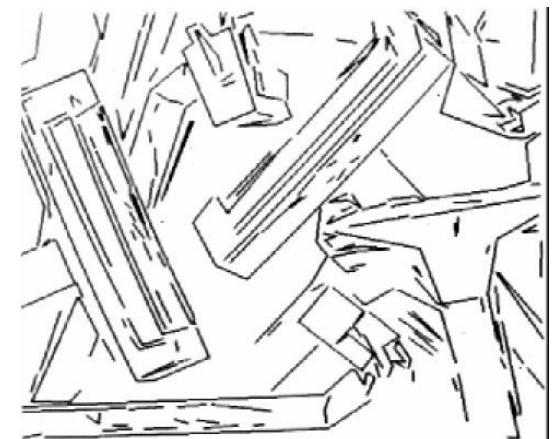
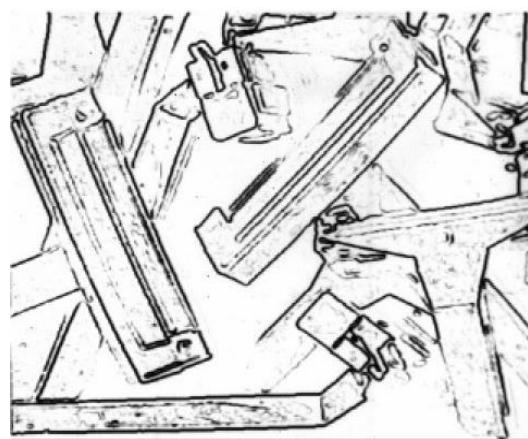
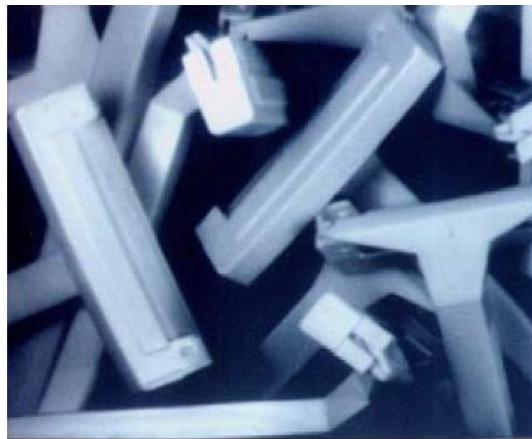
- David Lowe



Parameters: 3D position
and orientation

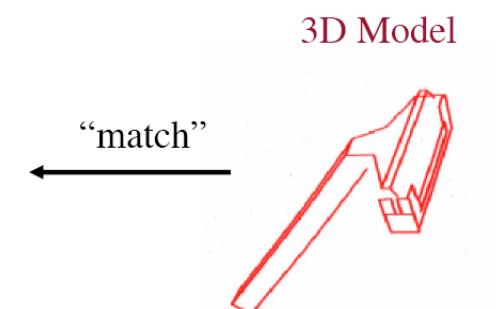
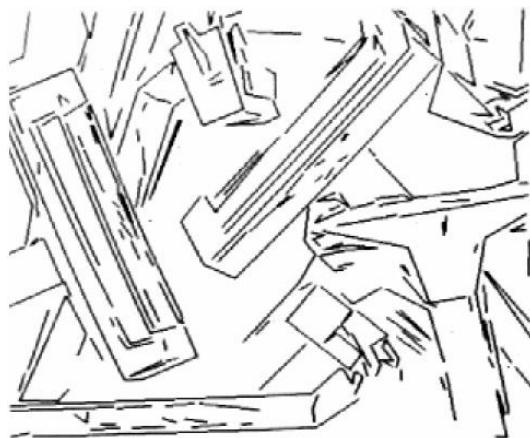
Example of Recognition & Localization

- David Lowe
 - ▶ 1. ‘filter’ image to **find brightness changes**
 - ▶ 2. **‘fit’ lines** to the raw measurements



Example of Recognition & Localization

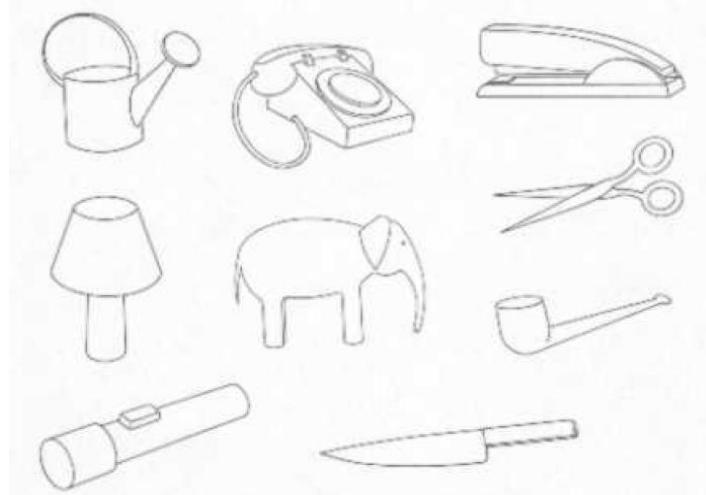
- David Lowe
 - 3. ‘project’ model into the image and ‘match’ to lines
(solving for 3D pose)



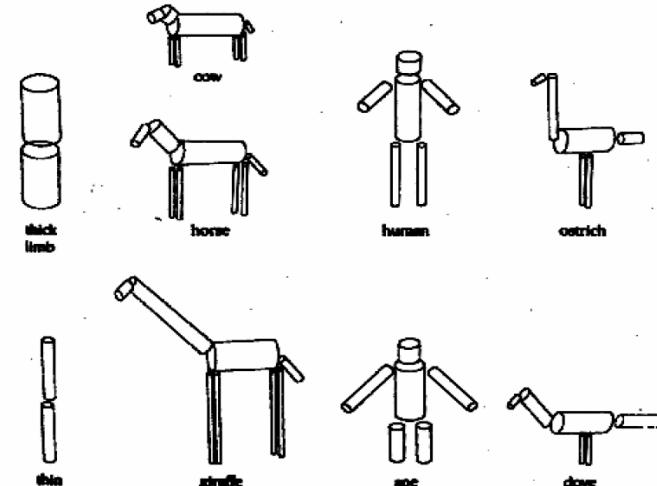
Parameters: 3D position
and orientation

Class of Models

- Common Idea & Approach (in the 1980's)
 - ▶ matching of models (wire-frame/geons/generalized cylinders...) to edges and lines



Biederman's Geons

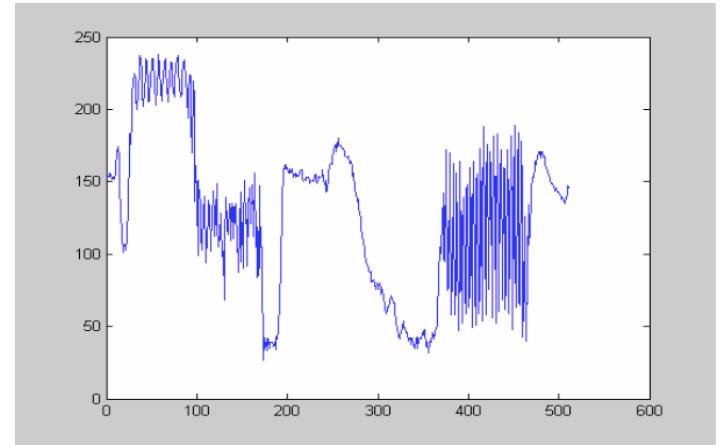
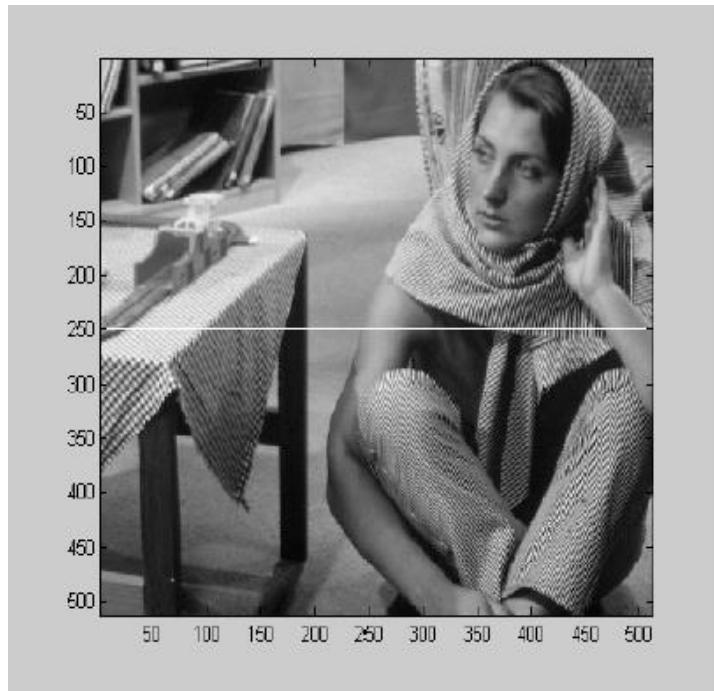


Marr & Nishihara

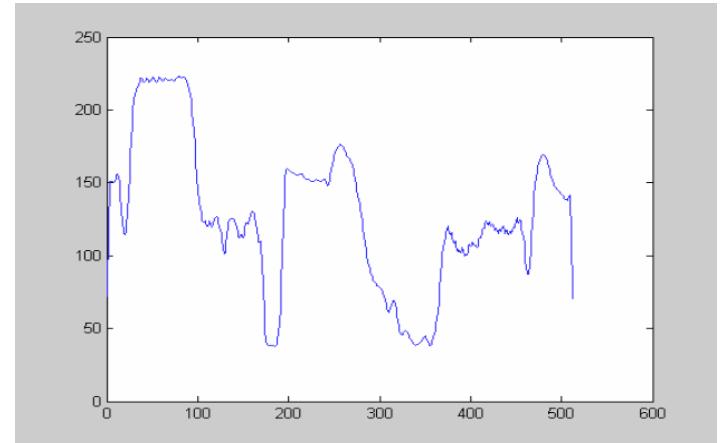
- so the 'only' remaining problem to solve is:
 - ▶ **reliably extract lines & edges** that can be matched to these models...

Actual 1D profile

- Barbara Image:
 - ▶ entire image
 - ▶ line 250

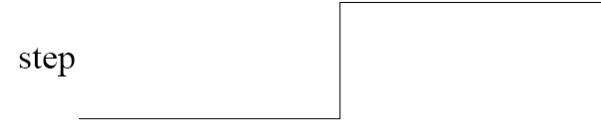


- ▶ line 250 smoothed with a Gaussian

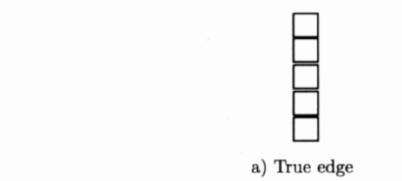


What are ‘edges’ (1D)

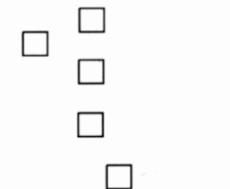
- Idealized Edge Types:



- Goals of Edge Detection:
 - good detection**: filter responds to edge, not to noise
 - good localization**: detected edge near true edge
 - single response**: one per edge



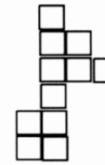
a) True edge



d) Poor robustness to noise



b) Poor localization

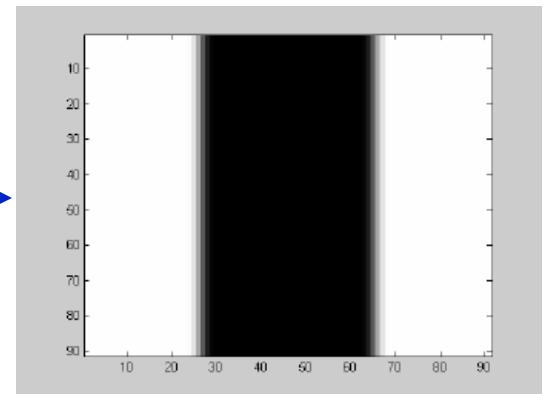
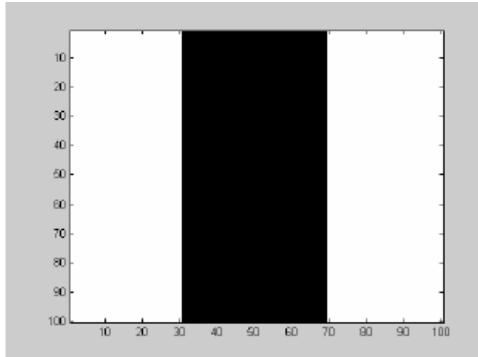


c) Too many responses

Edges

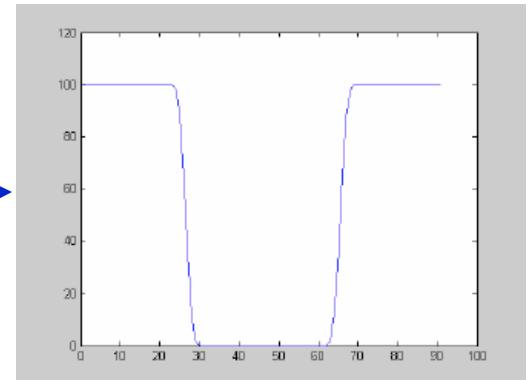
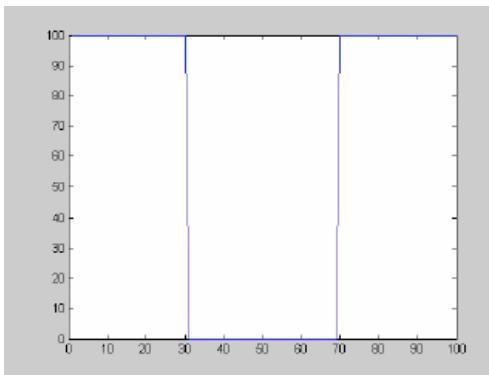
- Edges:
 - ▶ correspond to fast changes
 - ▶ where the magnitude of the derivative is large

“image” of 2 step-edges

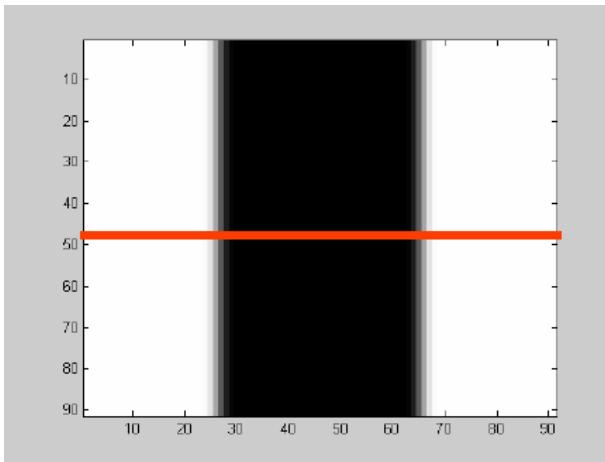


smoothing

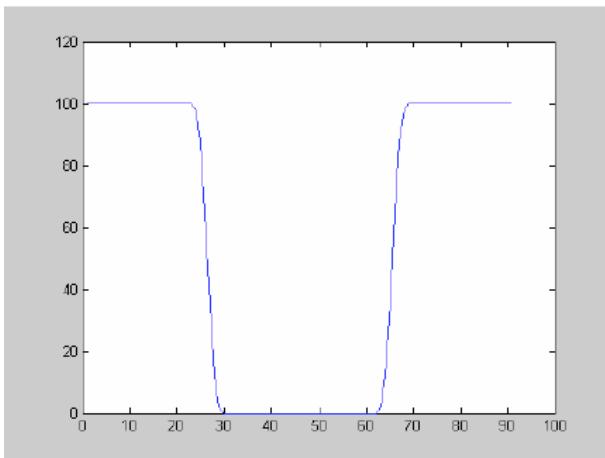
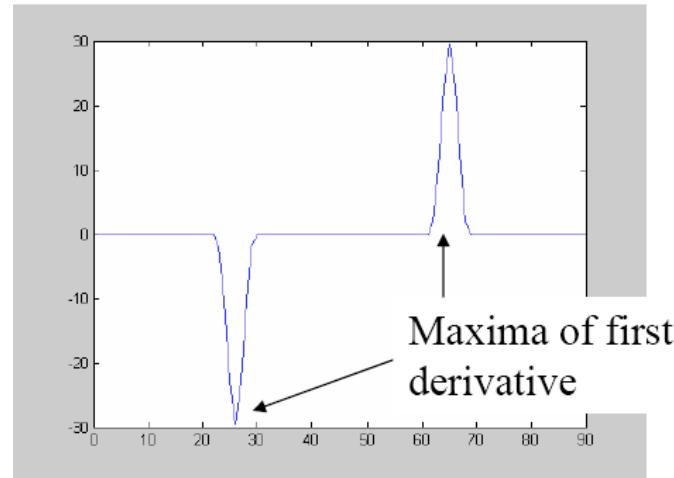
single line of
“image”



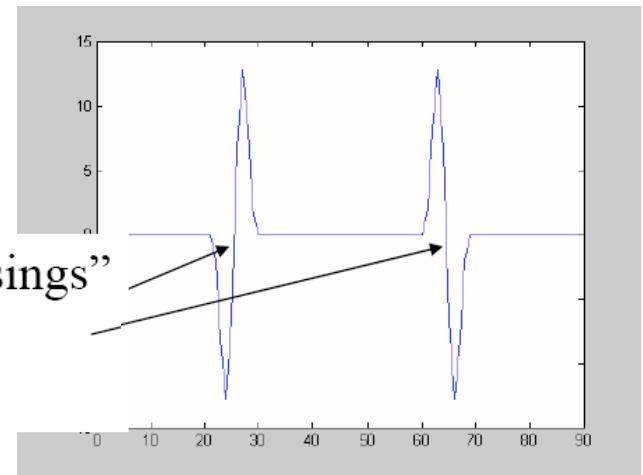
Edges & Derivatives...



1st derivative



2nd derivative



Compute Derivatives

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{h} \approx f(x + 1) - f(x)$$

- we can implement this as a linear filter:
 - ▶ direct:

-1	1
----	---

- ▶ or symmetric:

-1	0	1
----	---	---

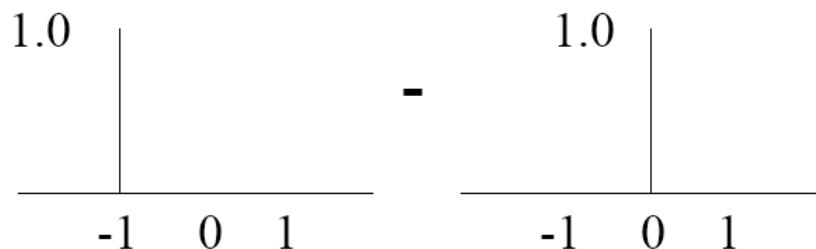
Compute Derivatives

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- we can implement this as a linear filter:

- ▶ direct:

-1	1
----	---



- ▶ or symmetric:

-1	0	1
----	---	---

Edge-Detection

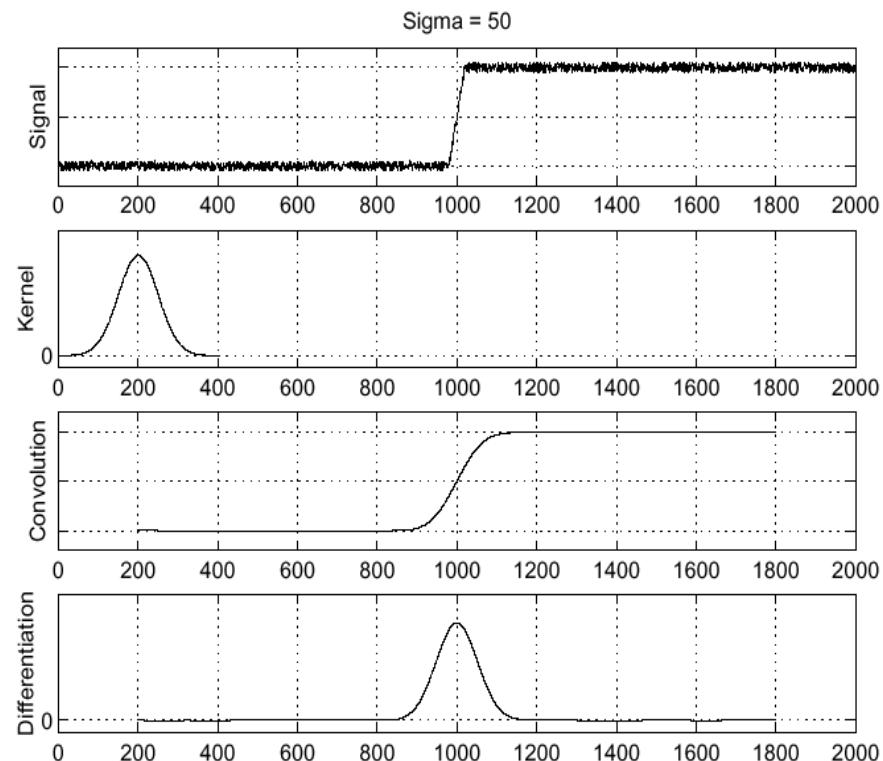
- based on 1st derivative:
 - ▶ smooth with Gaussian
 - ▶ calculate derivative
 - ▶ finds its maxima

f

g

$g \otimes f$

$\frac{d}{dx}(g \otimes f)$



Edge-Detection

- Simplification:

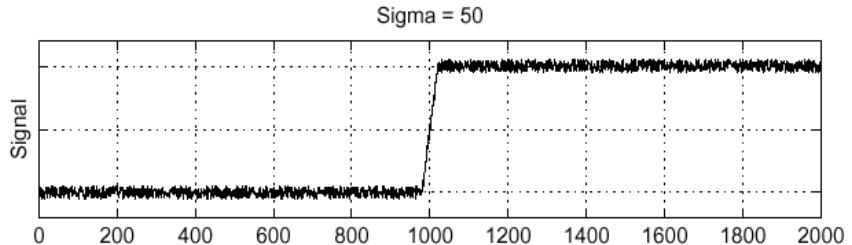
- remember:

- derivative as well as convolution are linear operations

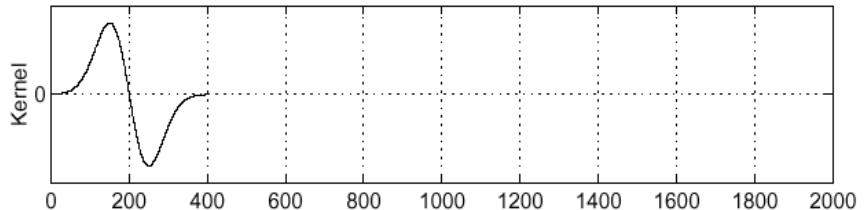
- saves one operation

$$\frac{d}{dx}(g \otimes f) = \left(\frac{d}{dx}g \right) \otimes f$$

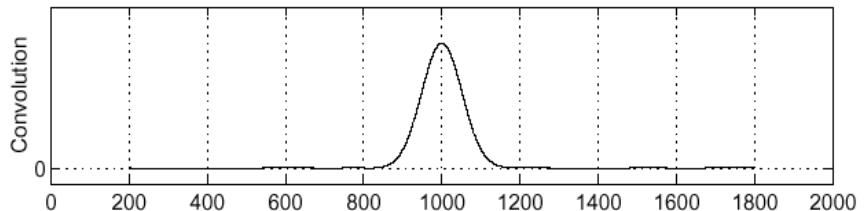
f



$$\frac{d}{dx}g$$



$$\left(\frac{d}{dx}g \right) \otimes f$$

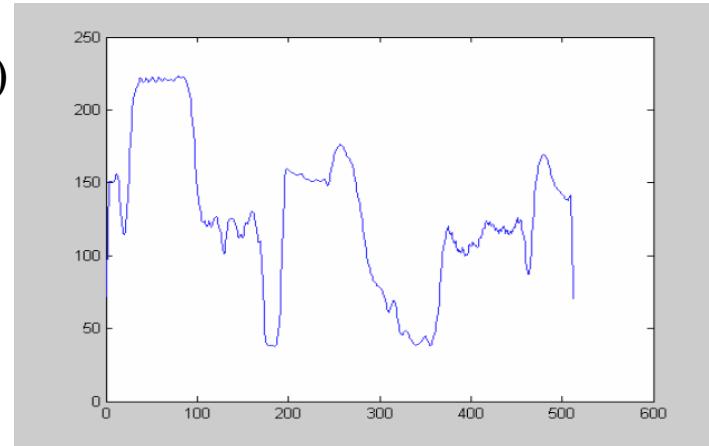


1D Barbara signal

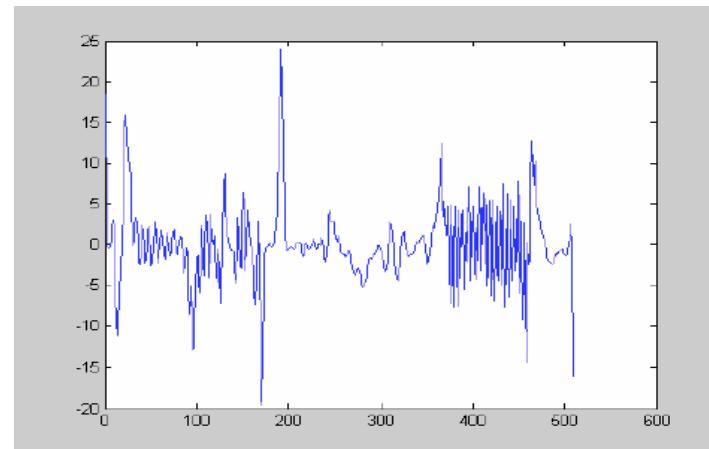
- Barbara Image:
 - ▶ entire image



- ▶ line 250
(smoothed)



- ▶ 1st derivative

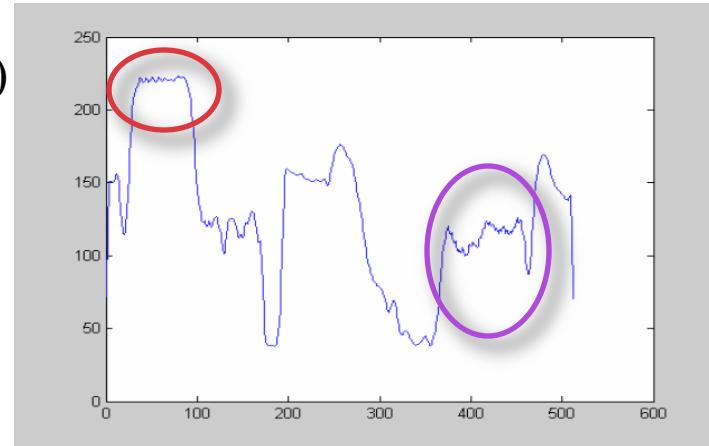


1D Barbara signal: note the amplification of small variations

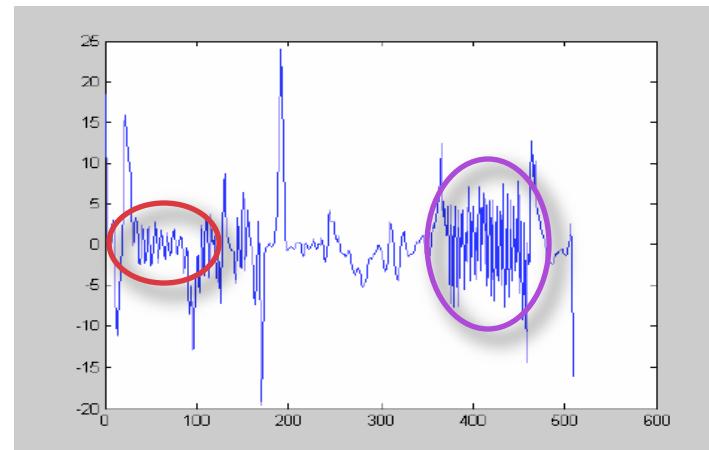
- Barbara Image:
 - ▶ entire image



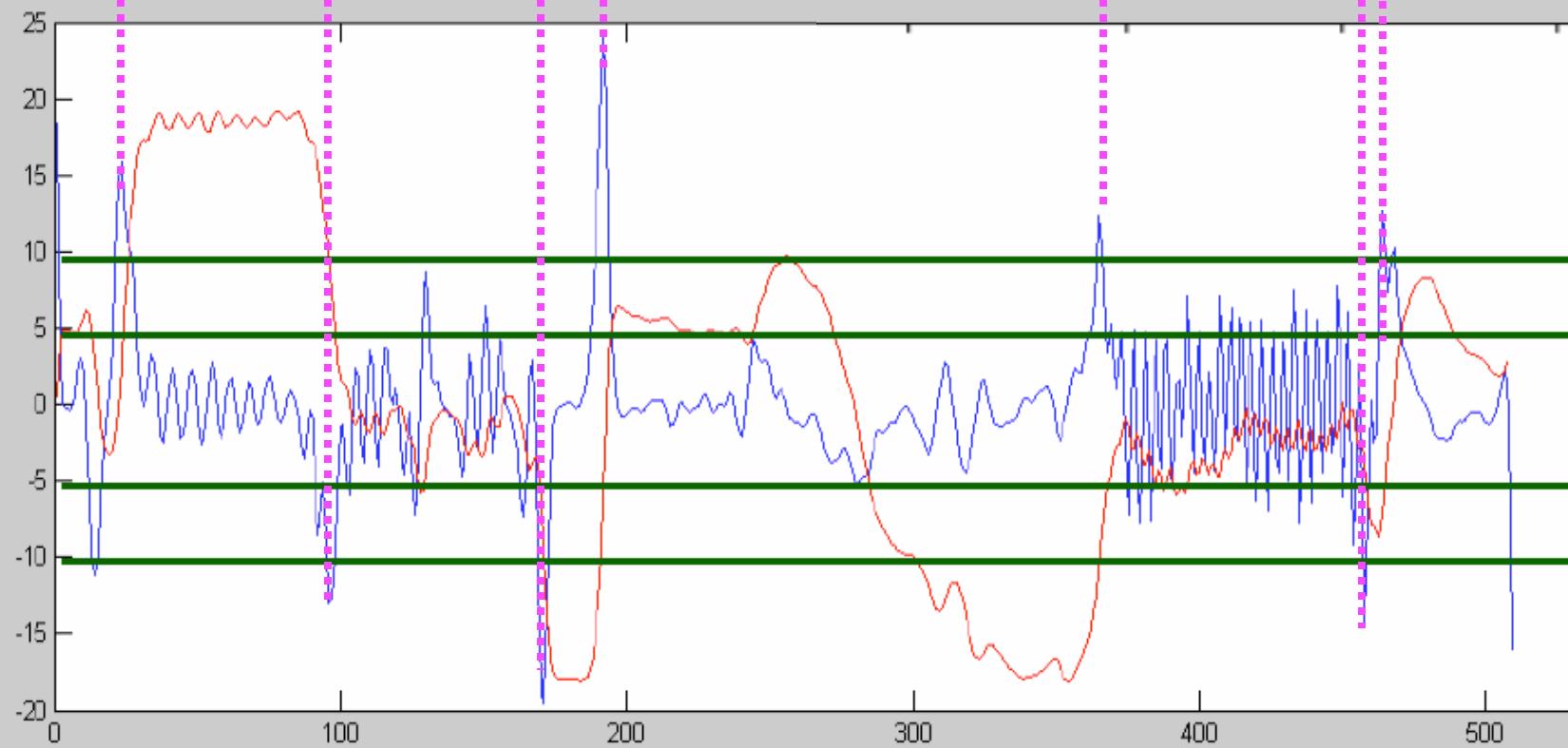
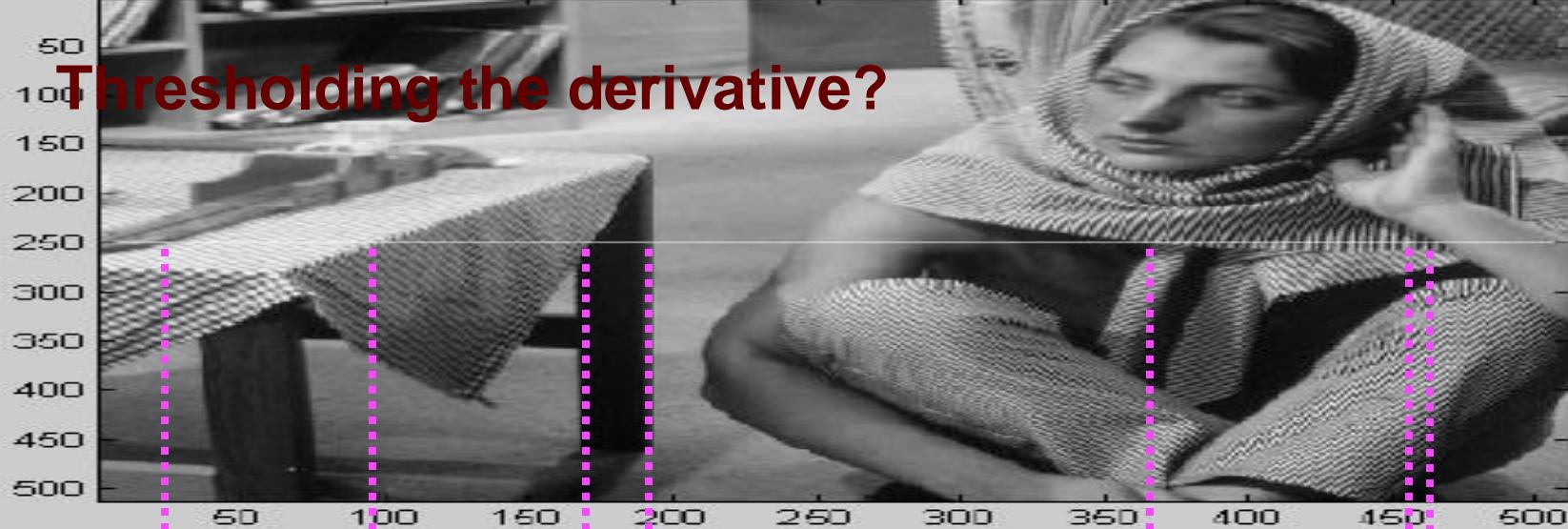
- ▶ line 250
(smoothed)



- ▶ 1st derivative

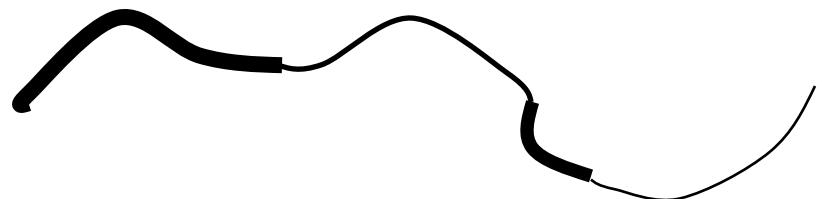


Thresholding the derivative?



Implementing 1D edge detection

- algorithmically:
 - ▶ find peak in the 1st derivative
 - ▶ but
 - should be a local maxima
 - should be ‘sufficiently’ large
 - ▶ hysteresis: use 2 thresholds
 - high threshold to start edge curve (maximum value of gradient should be sufficiently large)
 - low threshold to continue them (in order to bridge “gaps” with lower magnitude)
 - (really only makes sense in 2D...)



Extension to 2D Edge Detection: Partial Derivatives

- partial derivatives

- ▶ in x direction:

$$\frac{d}{dx} I(x, y) = I_x \approx I \otimes D_x$$

- ▶ in y direction:

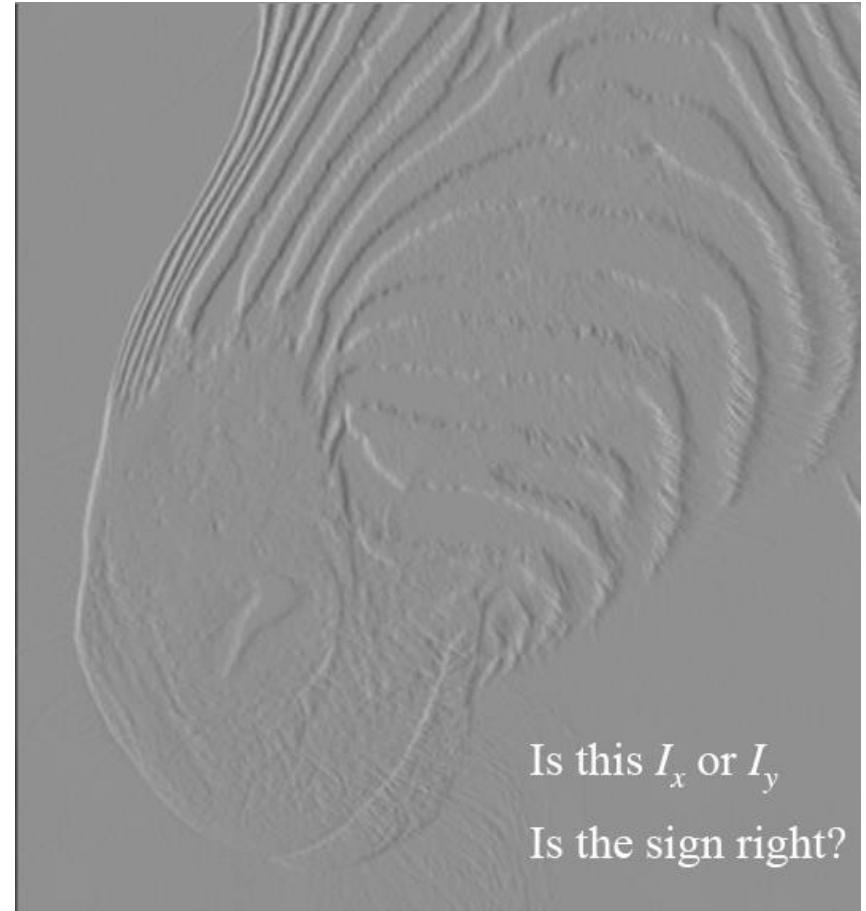
$$\frac{d}{dy} I(x, y) = I_y \approx I \otimes D_y$$

- ▶ often approximated with simple filters (finite differences):

$$D_x = \frac{1}{3} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$D_y = \frac{1}{3} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1 & -1 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Finite Differences

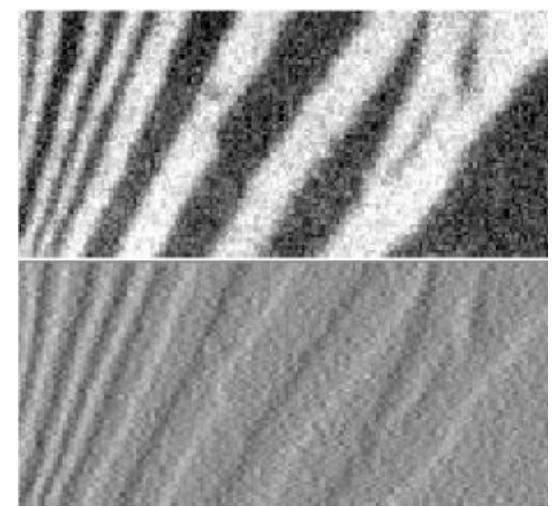
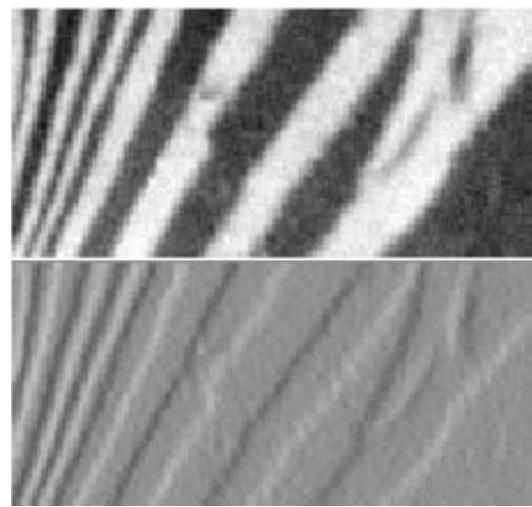
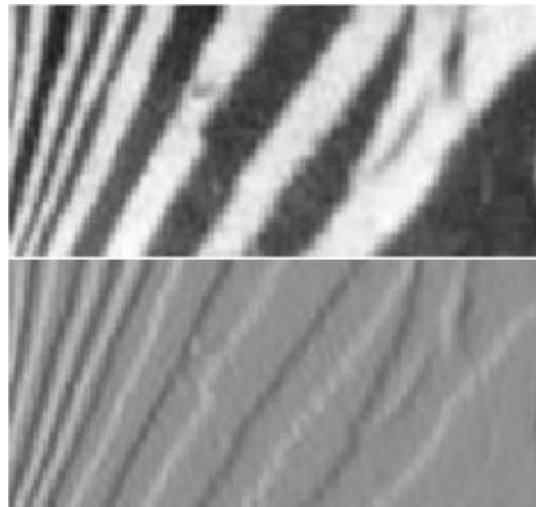


Is this I_x or I_y

Is the sign right?

Finite Differences responding to noise

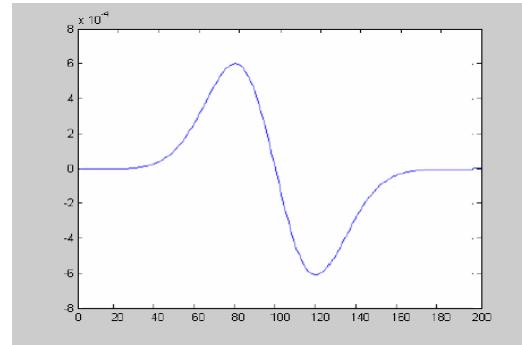
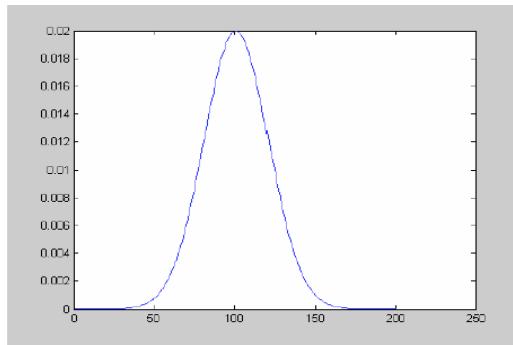
- increasing noise level (from left to right)
 - ▶ noise: zero mean additive Gaussian noise



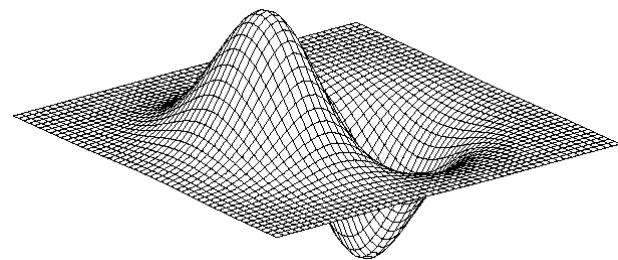
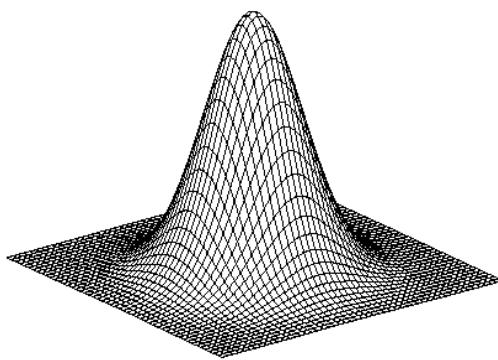
Again: Derivatives and Smoothing

- derivative in x-direction: $D_x \otimes (G \otimes I) = (D_x \otimes G) \otimes I$

- in 1D:



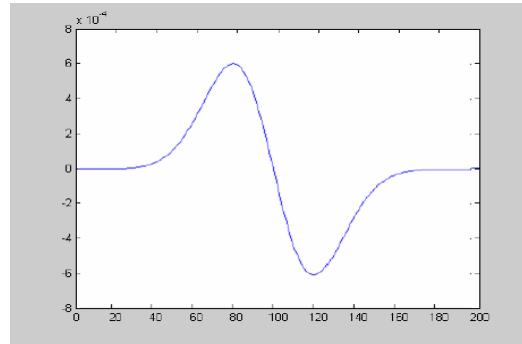
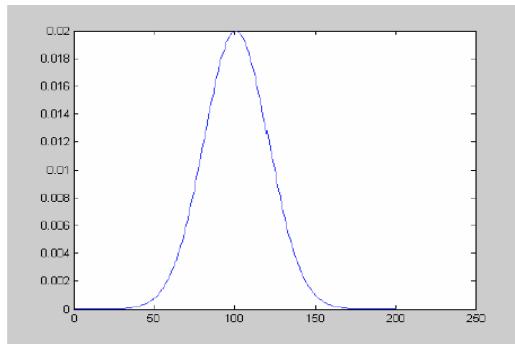
- in 2D:



Again: Derivatives and Smoothing

- derivative in x-direction: $D_x \otimes (G \otimes I) = (D_x \otimes G) \otimes I$

- in 1D:



- in 2D:

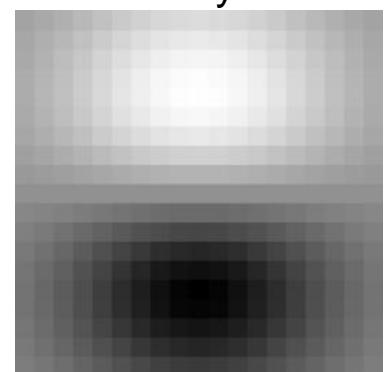
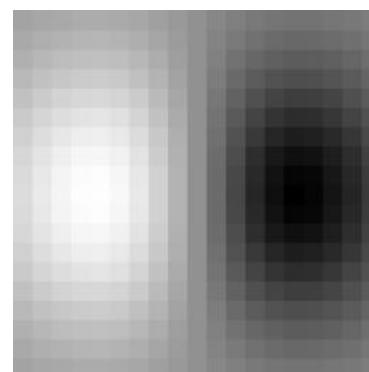
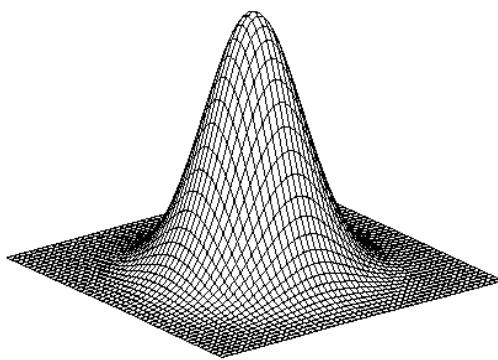
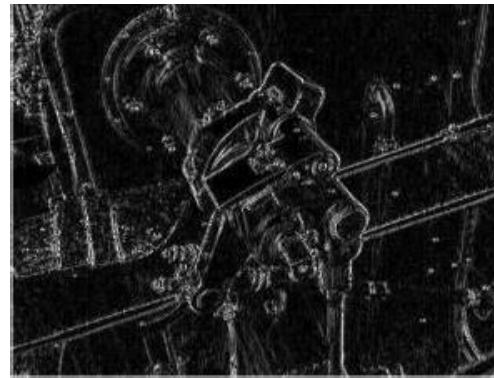
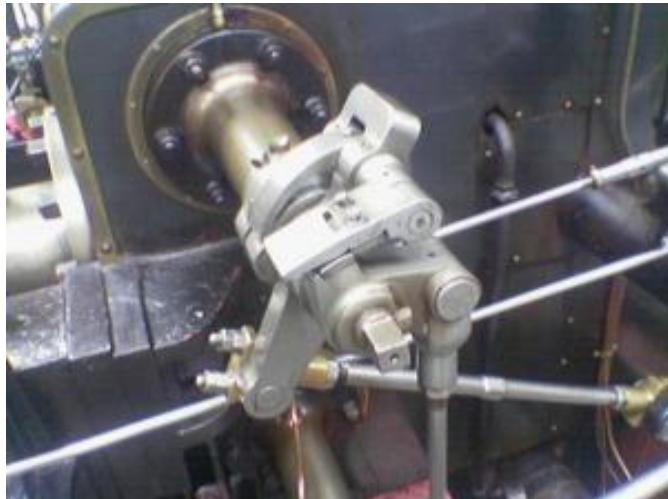
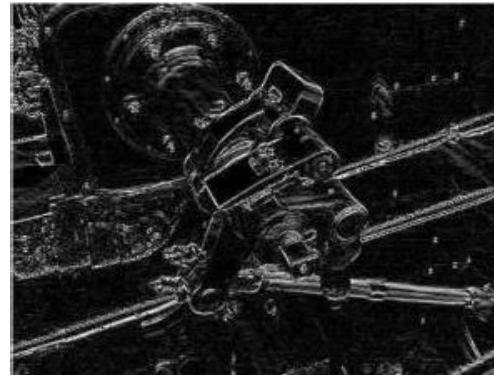


Image Filtering

- Edge detection using derivative of Gaussian filter:

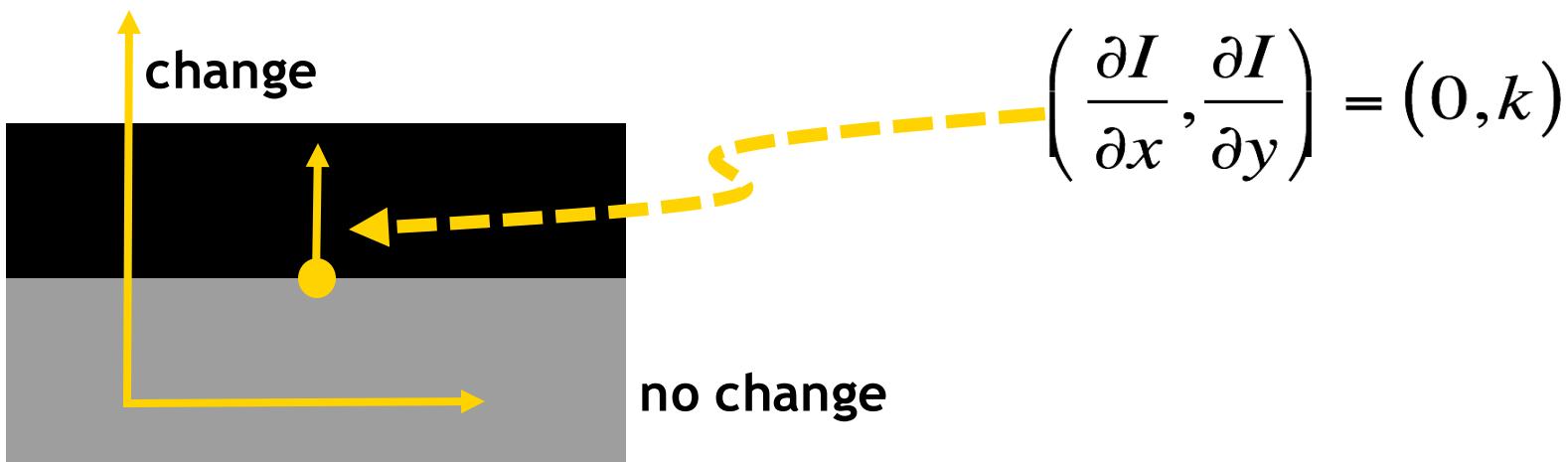
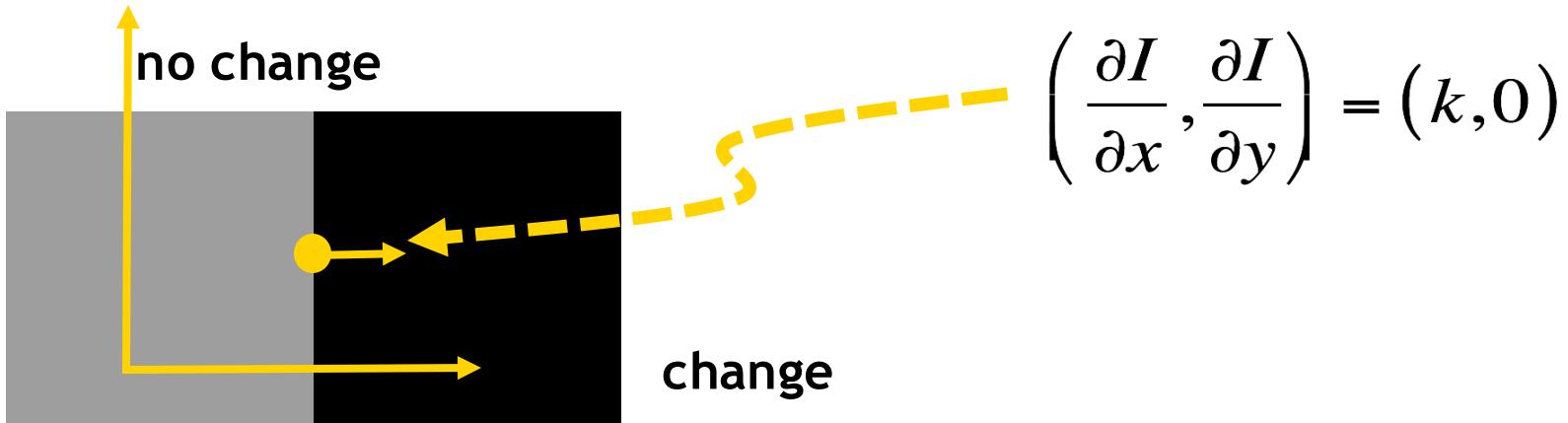


Edges along the x axis

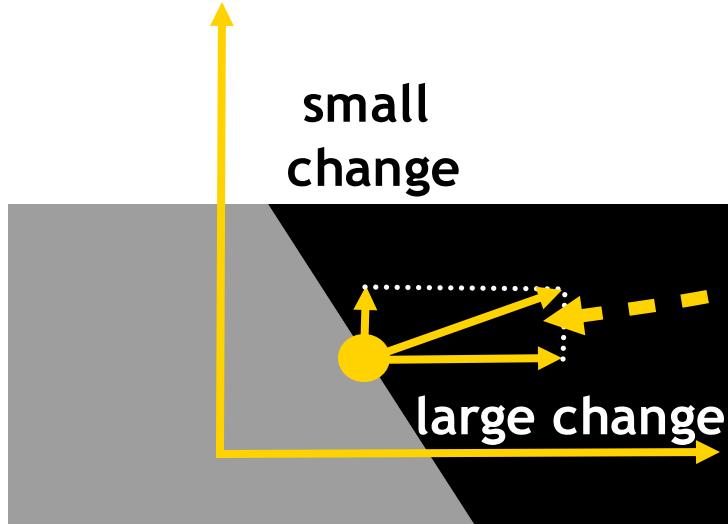


Edges along the y axis

What is the gradient ?



What is the gradient ?



$$\left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right) = (k_x, k_y)$$

- gradient direction is perpendicular to edge
- gradient magnitude measures edge strength

2D Edge Detection

- calculate derivative
 - ▶ use the **magnitude** of the gradient
 - ▶ the gradient is:

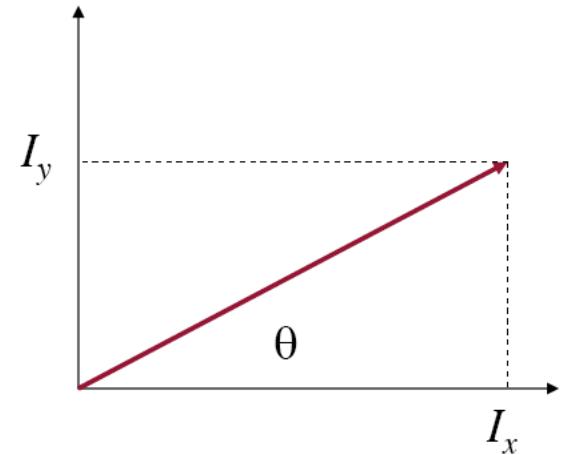
$$\nabla I = (I_x, I_y) = \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right)$$

- ▶ the magnitude of the gradient is:

$$\|\nabla I\| = \sqrt{I_x^2 + I_y^2}$$

- ▶ the direction of the gradient is:

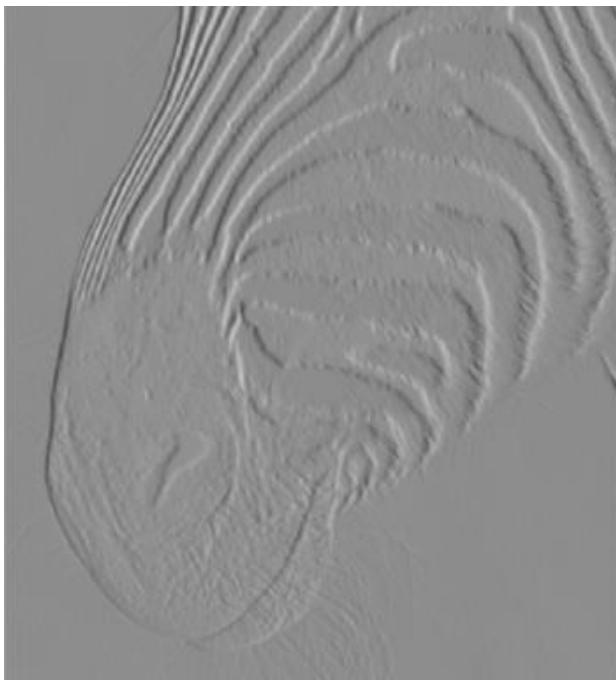
$$\theta = \arctan(I_y, I_x)$$



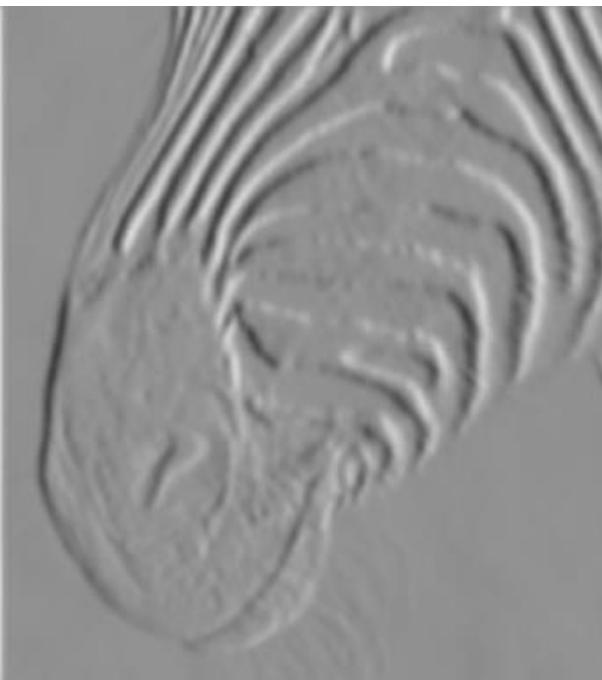
2D Edge Detection

- the scale of the smoothing filter affects derivative estimates, and also the semantics of the edges recovered
 - note: strong edges persist across scales

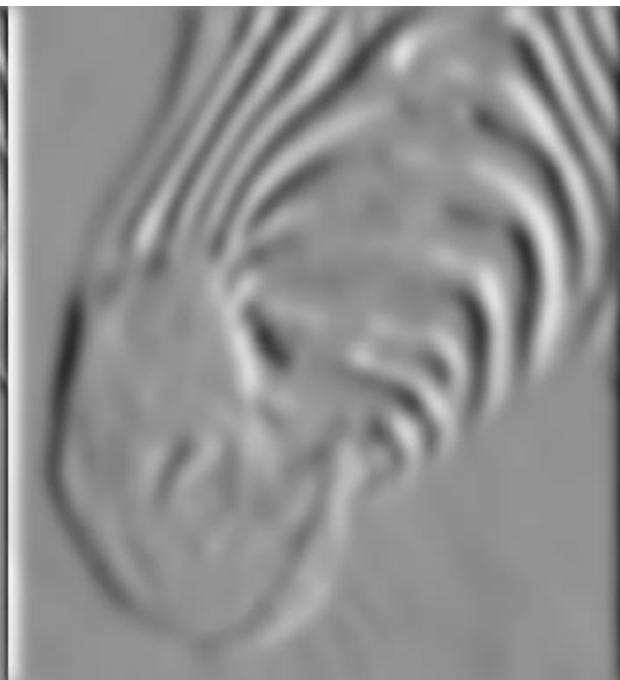
1 pixel



3 pixels



7 pixels



2D Edge Detection

- there are 3 major issues:
 - ▶ the gradient magnitude at different scales is different; which to choose?
 - ▶ the gradient magnitude is large along a thick trail; how to identify the significant points?
 - ▶ how to link the relevant points up into curves?



'Optimal' Edge Detection: Canny

- Assume:
 - linear filtering
 - additive i.i.d. Gaussian noise
- Edge Detection should have:
 - **good detection**: filter response to edge, not noise
 - **good localization**: detected edge near true edge
 - **single response**: one per edge
- then: optimal detector is approximately derivative of Gaussian
- detection/localization tradeoff:
 - more smoothing improves detection
 - and hurts localization

The Canny edge detector

original image (Lena)



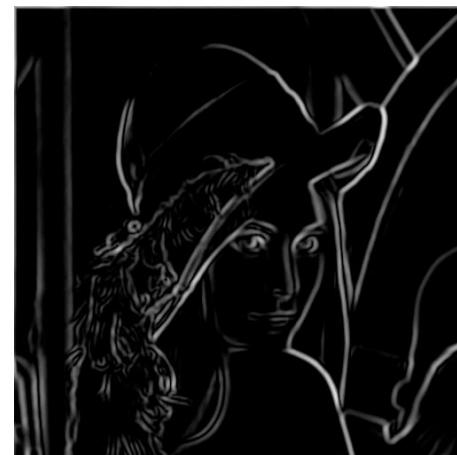
norm
(=magnitude) of
the gradient



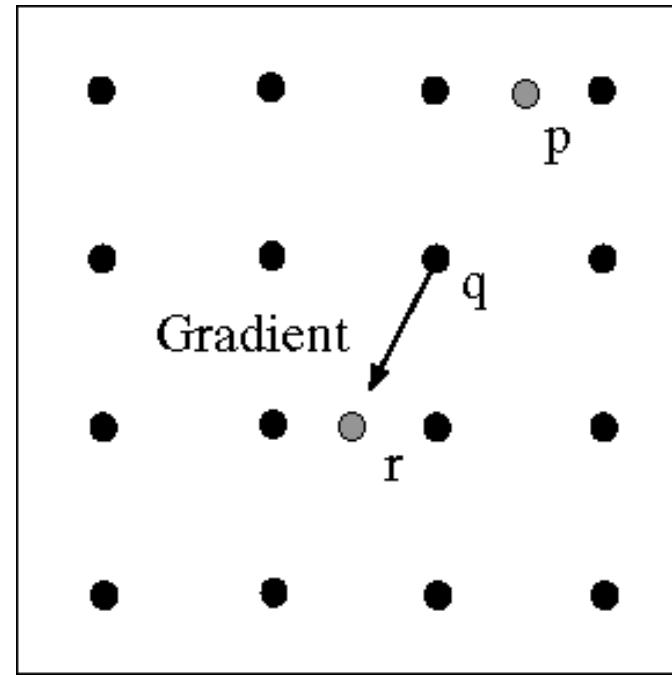
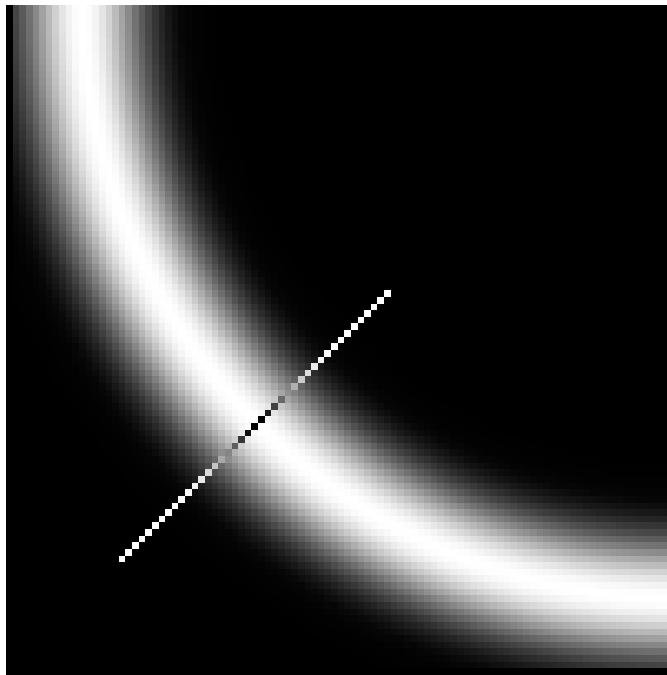
thinning
(non-maximum
suppression)



thresholding

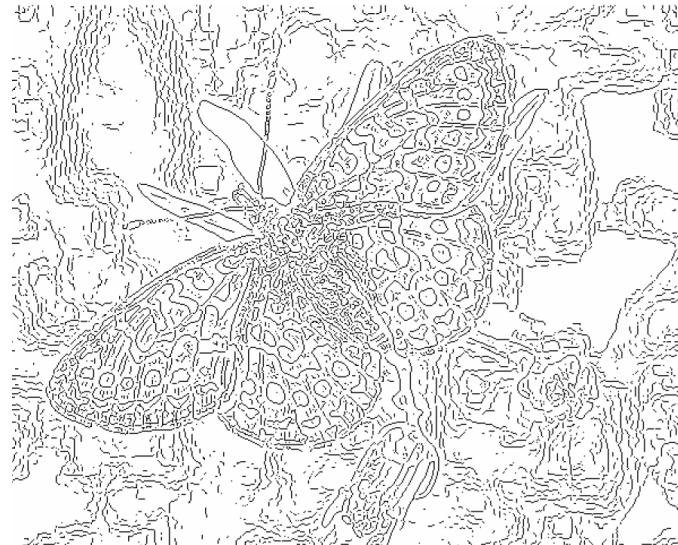


Non-maximum suppression



- Check if pixel is local maximum along gradient direction
 - choose the largest gradient magnitude along the gradient direction
 - requires checking interpolated pixels p and r

Butterfly Example (Ponce & Forsyth)



fine
scale
high
threshold



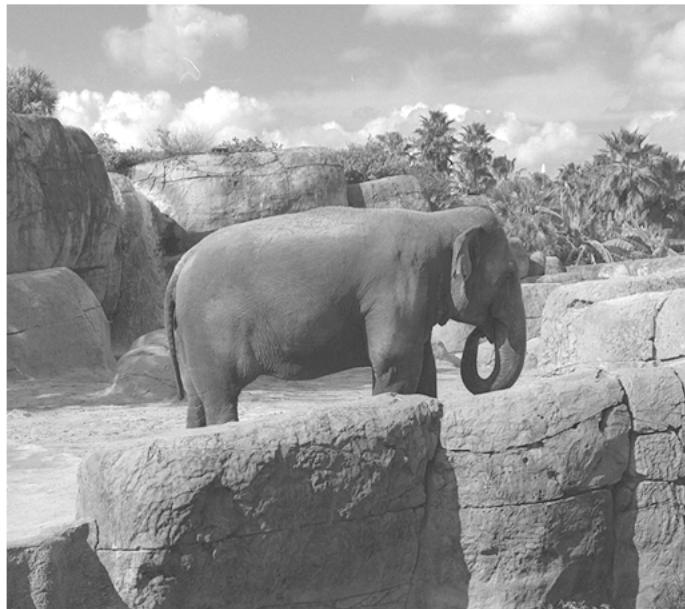
coarse
scale
low
threshold



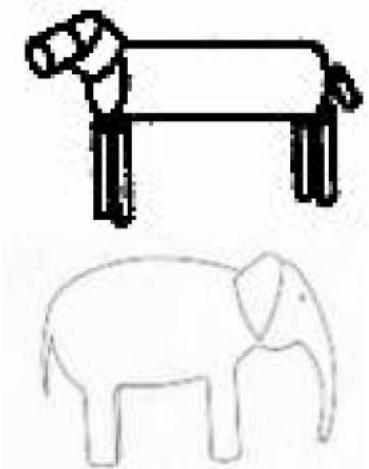
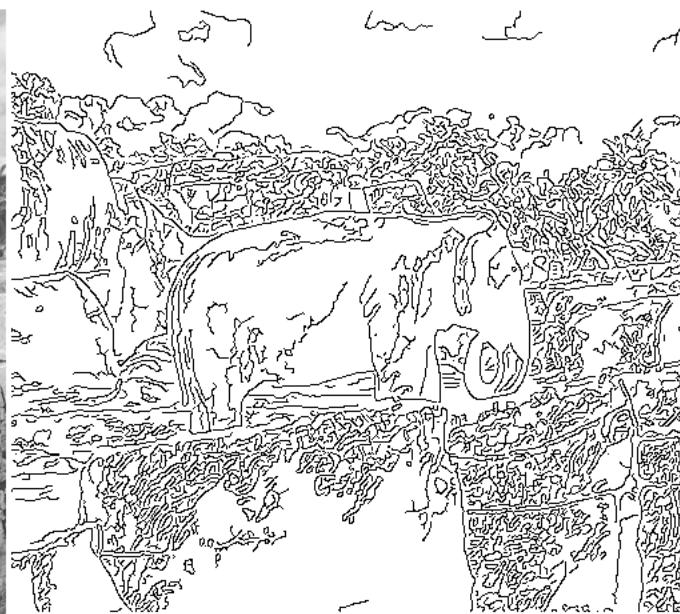
coarse
scale,
high
threshold

line drawing vs. edge detection





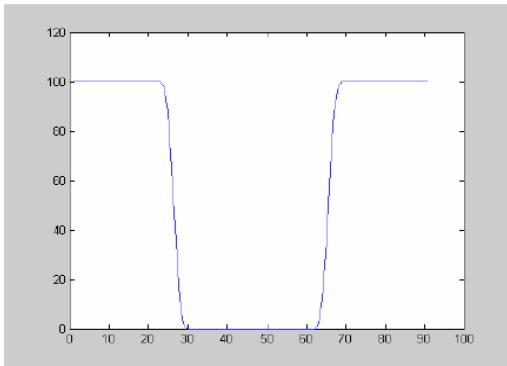
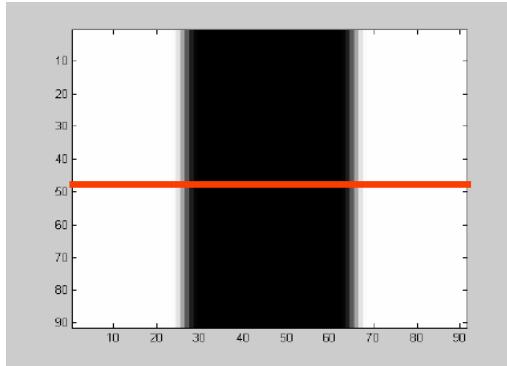
University of South Florida



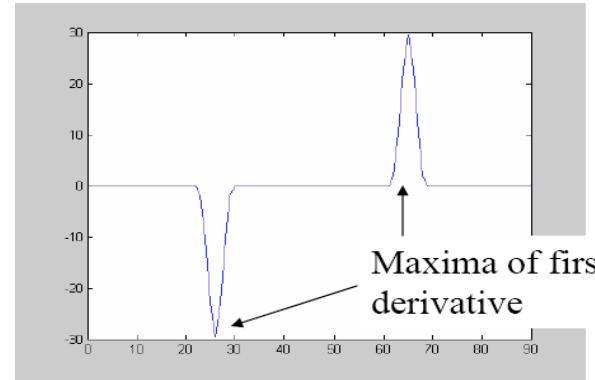
Match “model” to measurements?

Edges & Derivatives...

- recall:
 - the zero-crossings of the second derivative tell us the location of edges

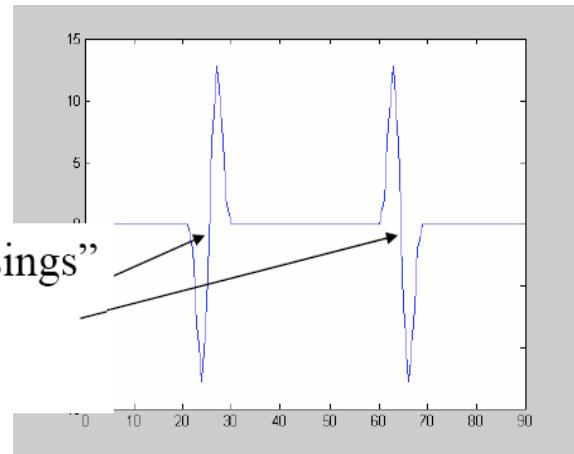


1st derivative



2nd derivative

“zero crossings”
of second
derivative



Compute 2nd order derivatives

- 1st derivative:

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{h} \approx f(x + 1) - f(x)$$

- 2nd derivative:

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} f(x + h) - \frac{d}{dx} f(x)}{h} \approx \frac{d}{dx} f(x + 1) - \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$

- mask for $\approx f(x + 2) - 2f(x + 1) + f(x)$

- 1st derivative: 2nd derivative:

-1	1
----	---

1	-2	1
---	----	---

The Laplacian

- The Laplacian:

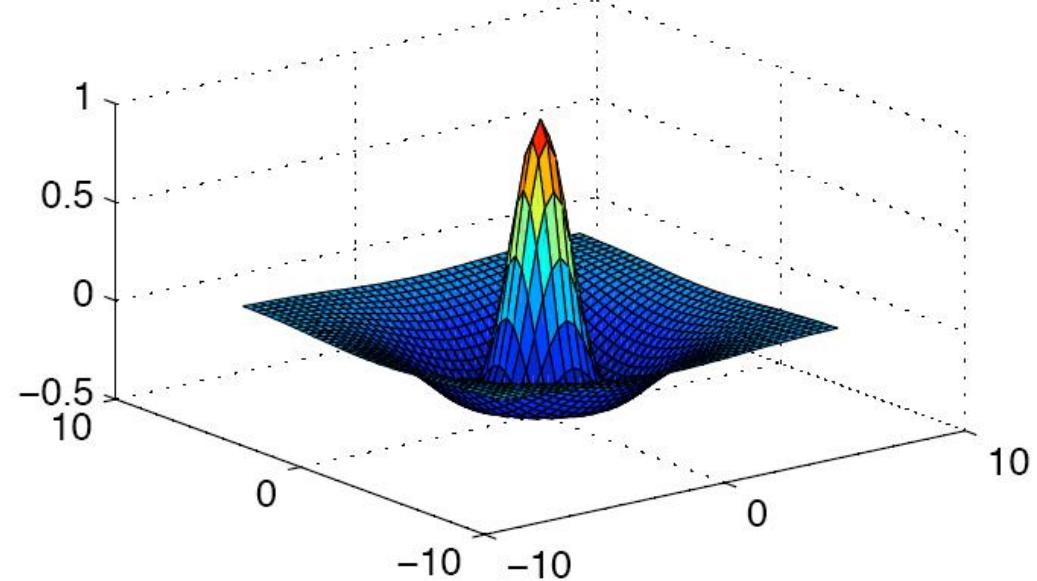
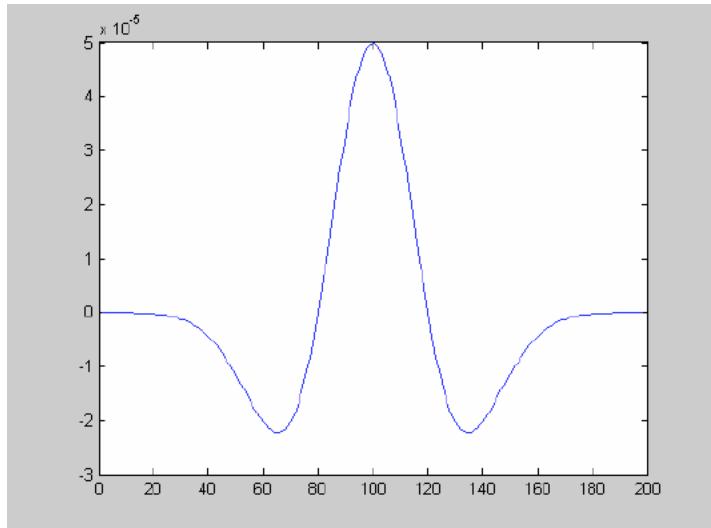
$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

- ▶ just another linear filter:

$$\nabla^2 (G \otimes f) = \nabla^2 G \otimes f$$

Second Derivative of Gaussian

- in 1D:
- in 2D ('mexican hat'):



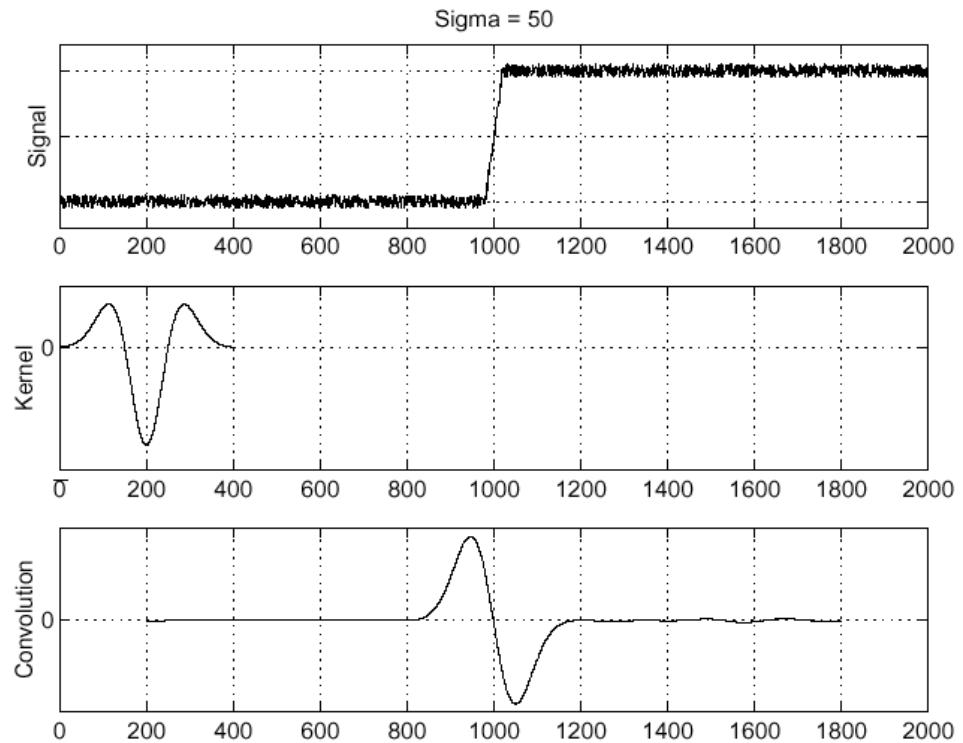
1D edge detection

- using Laplacian

Laplacian of Gaussian operator

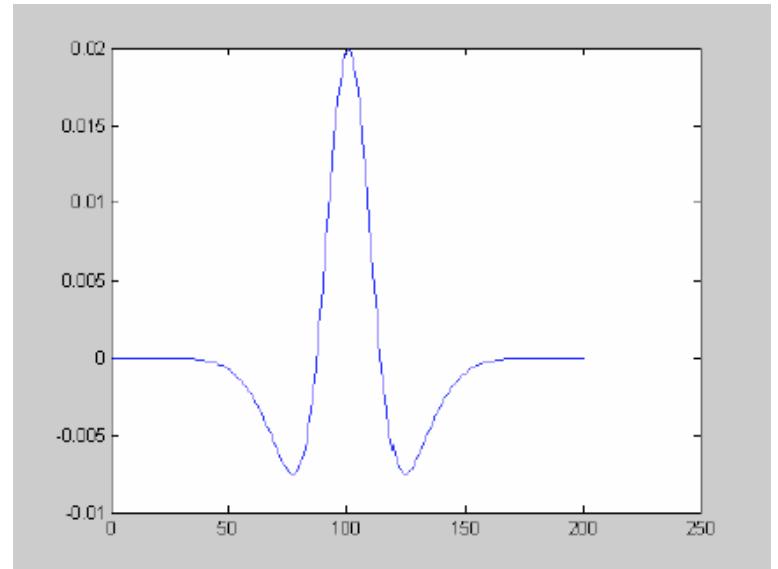
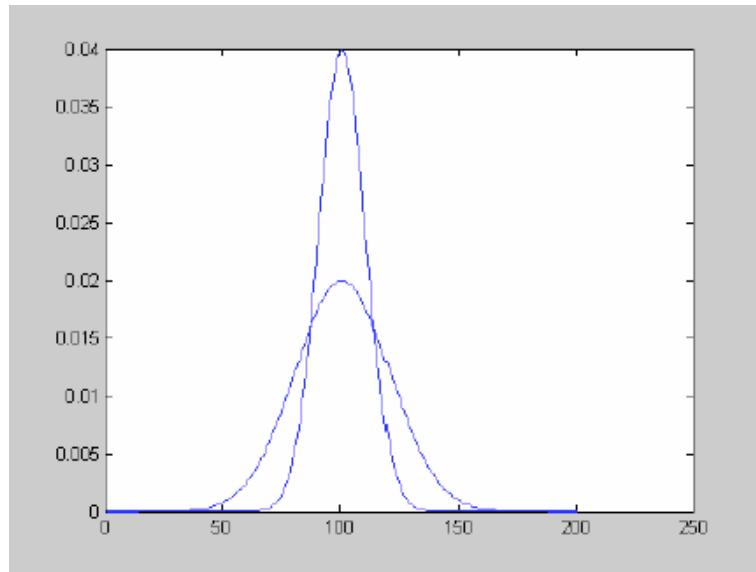
$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} g$$

$$\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2} g \right) \otimes f$$



Approximating the Laplacian

- Difference of Gaussians (DoG) at different scales:



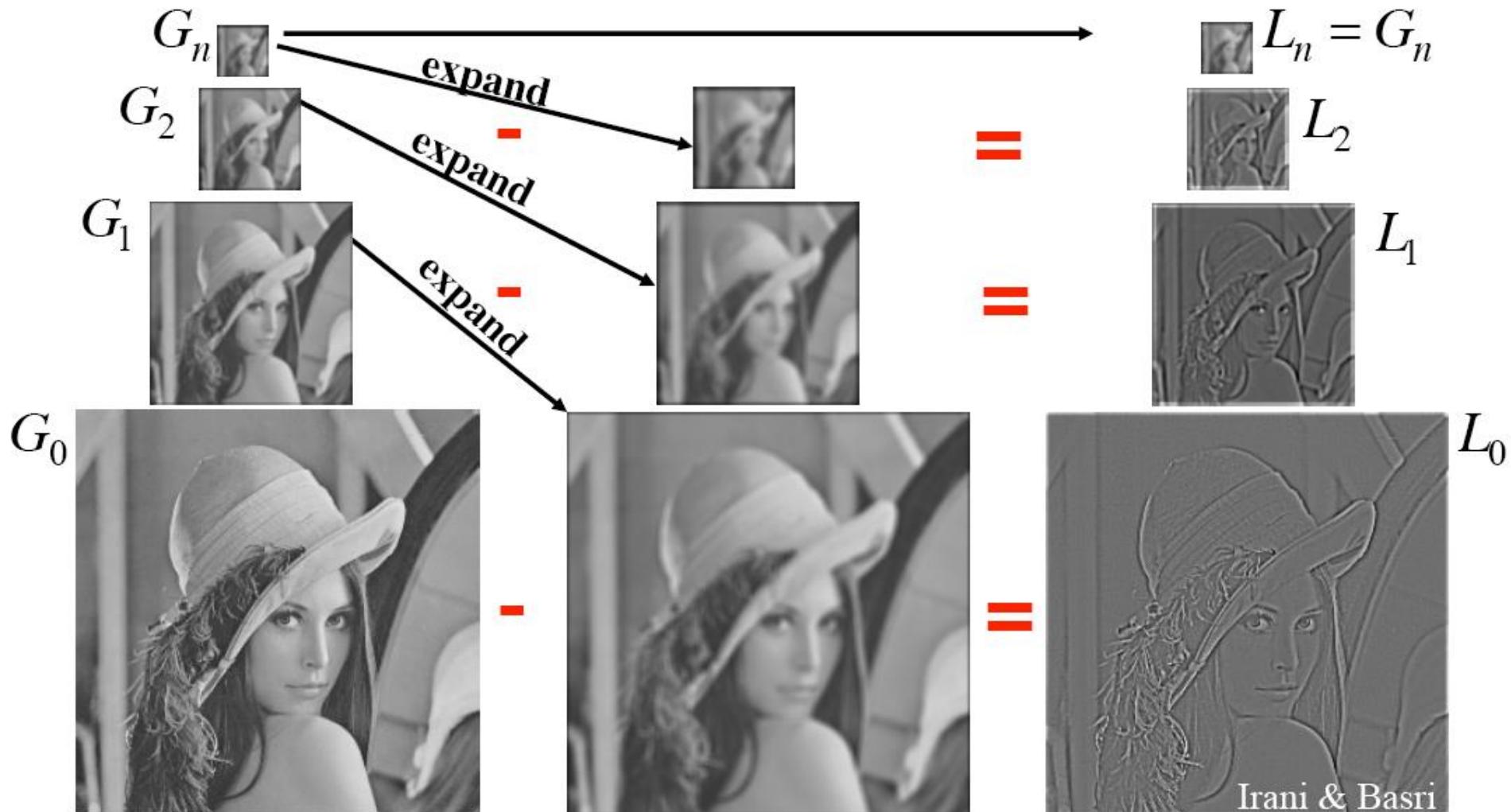
The Laplacian Pyramid

$$L_i = G_i - \text{expand}(G_{i+1})$$

Gaussian Pyramid

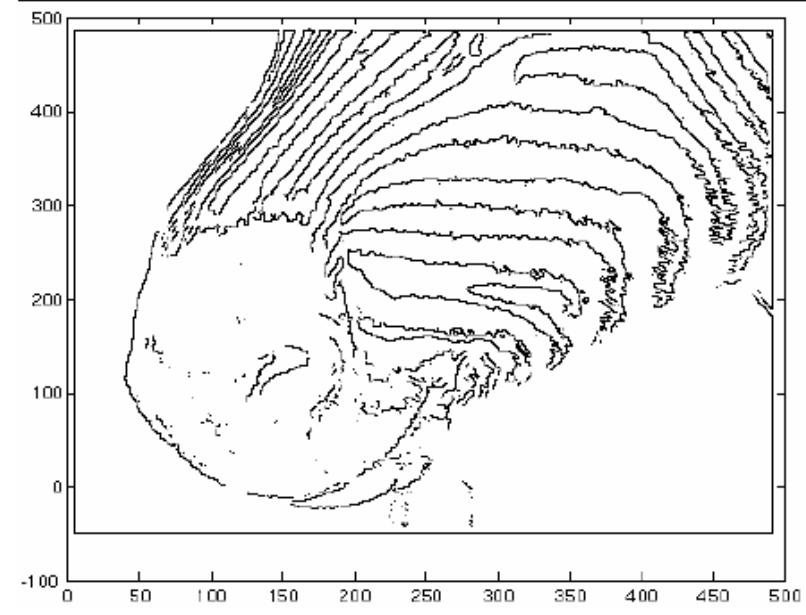
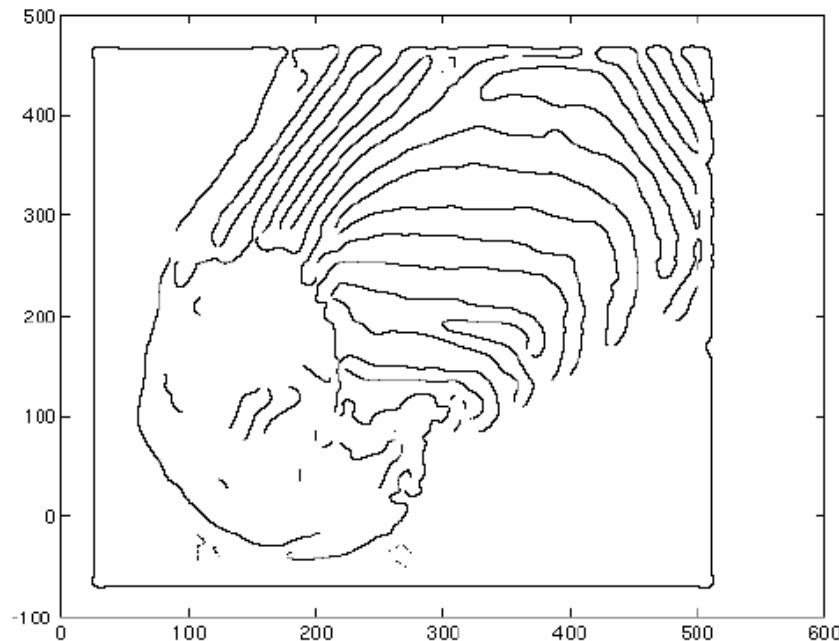
$$G_i = L_i + \text{expand}(G_{i+1})$$

Laplacian Pyramid



Edge Detection with Laplacian

- $\sigma = 4$
- $\sigma = 2$



Basics of Digital Image Filtering

- Linear Filtering
 - Gaussian Filtering
- Multi Scale Image Representation
 - Gaussian Pyramid
- Edge Detection
 - ‘Recognition using Line Drawings’
 - Image derivatives (1st and 2nd order)
- Object Instance Identification using Color Histograms
- Performance evaluation

Object Instance Identification using Color Histograms

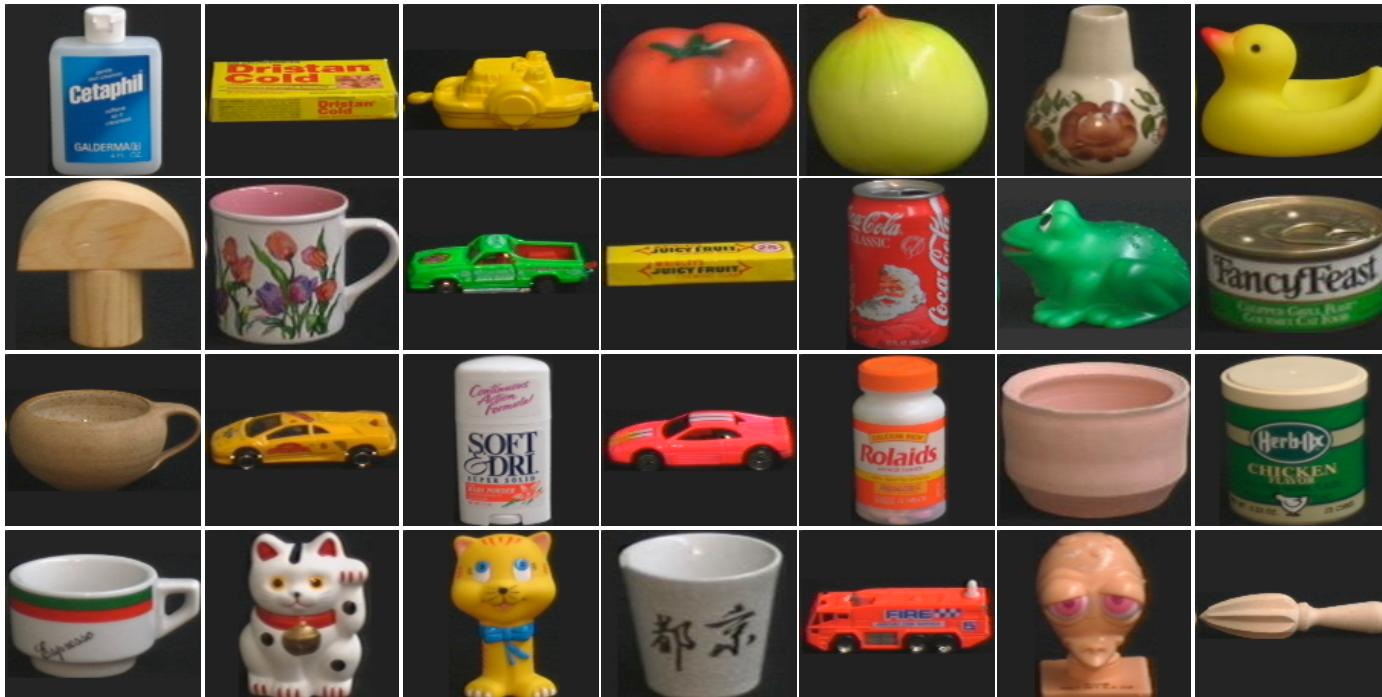
Object Recognition (reminder)

- Different Types of Recognition Problems:
 - ▶ Object **Identification**
 - recognize your apple, your cup, your dog
 - sometimes called: “instance recognition”
 - ▶ Object **Classification**
 - recognize any apple, any cup, any dog
 - also called:
generic object recognition,
object categorization, ...
 - typical definition:
‘basic level category’



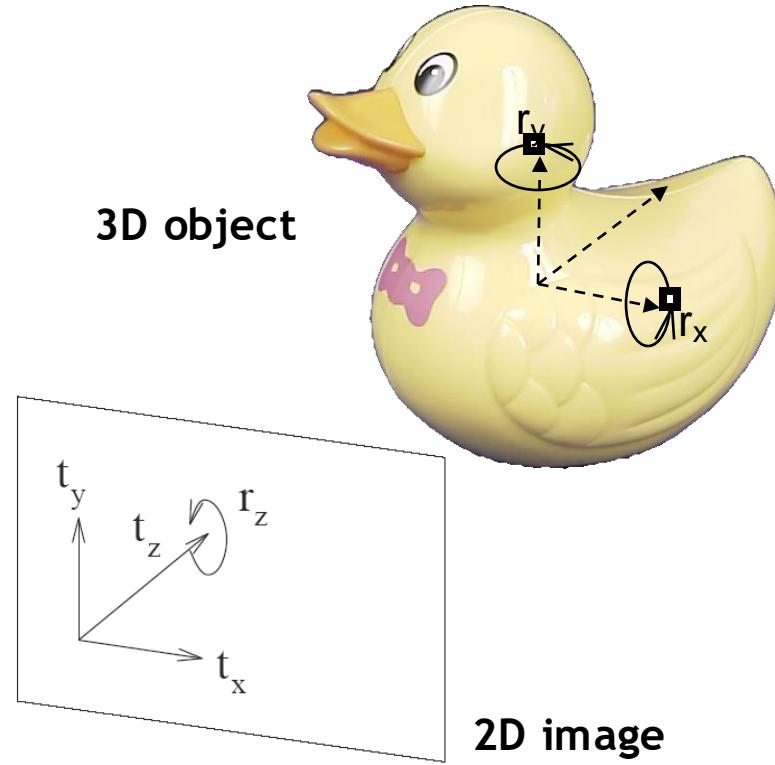
Object Identification

- Example Database for Object Identification:
 - COIL-100 - Columbia Object Image Library
 - contains 100 different objects, some form the same object class (e.g. cars,cups)



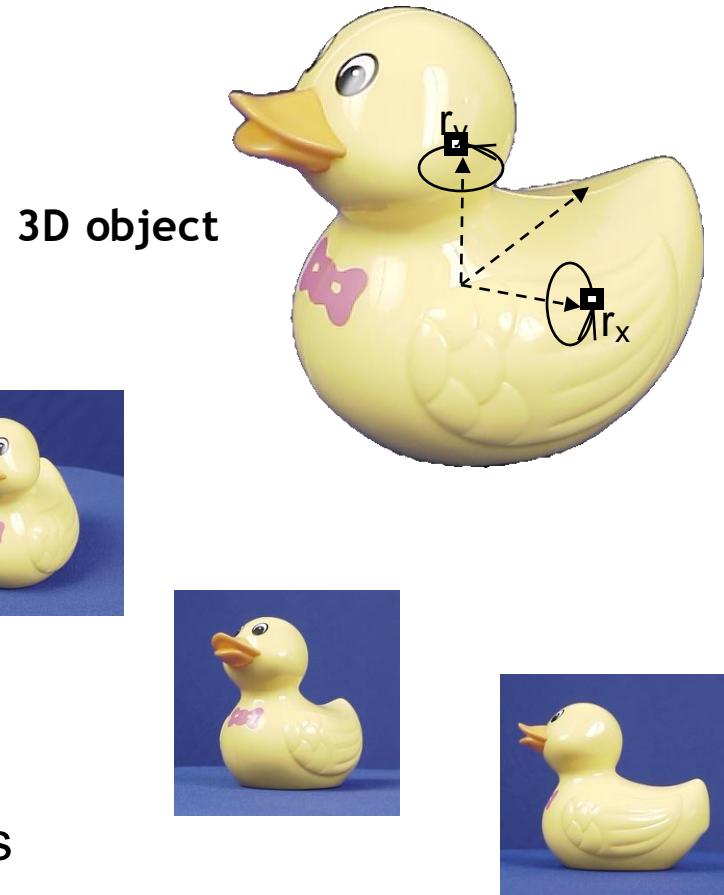
Challenges = Modes of Variation

- Viewpoint changes
 - ▶ Translation
 - ▶ Image-plane rotation
 - ▶ Scale changes
 - ▶ Out-of-plane rotation
- Illumination
- Clutter
- Occlusion
- Noise



Appearance-Based Identification / Recognition

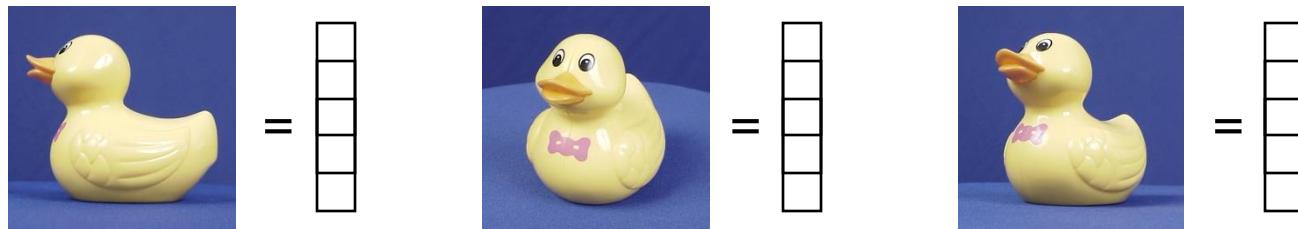
- Basic assumption
 - ▶ Objects can be represented by a collection of images (“appearances”).
 - ▶ For recognition, it is sufficient to just compare the 2D appearances.
 - ▶ No 3D model is needed.



- ⇒ Fundamental paradigm shift in the 90's

Global Representation

- Idea
 - ▶ Represent each view (of an object) by a global descriptor.



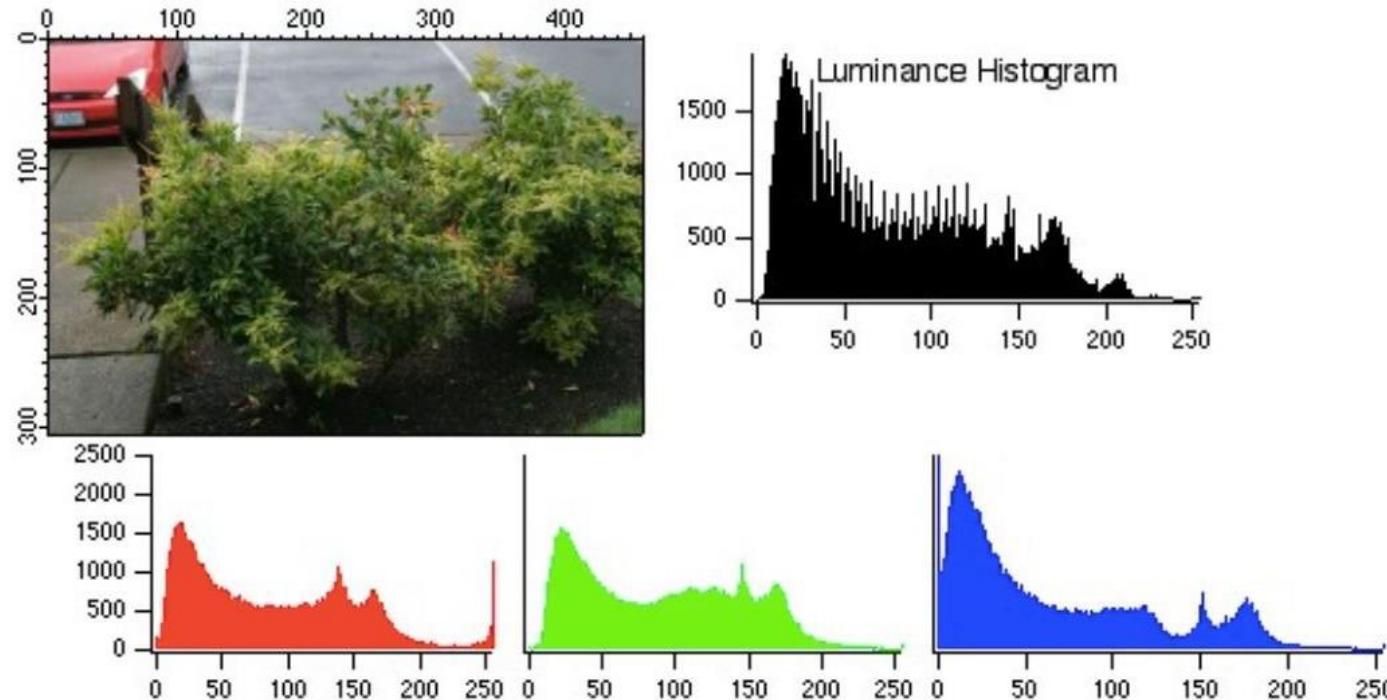
- ▶ For recognizing objects, just match the (global) descriptors.
- ▶ Modes of variation can be taken care of by:
 - built into the descriptor
 - e.g. a descriptor can be made invariant to image-plane rotations, translation
 - incorporate in the training data or the recognition process.
 - e.g. viewpoint changes, scale changes, out-of-plane rotation
 - robustness of descriptor or recognition process (descriptor matching)
 - e.g. illumination, noise, clutter, partial occlusion

Case Study: Use Color for Recognition

- Color:
 - ▶ Color stays constant under geometric transformations
 - ▶ Local feature
 - Color is defined for each pixel
 - Robust to partial occlusion
- Idea
 - ▶ Directly use object colors for identification / recognition
 - ▶ Better: use statistics of object colors

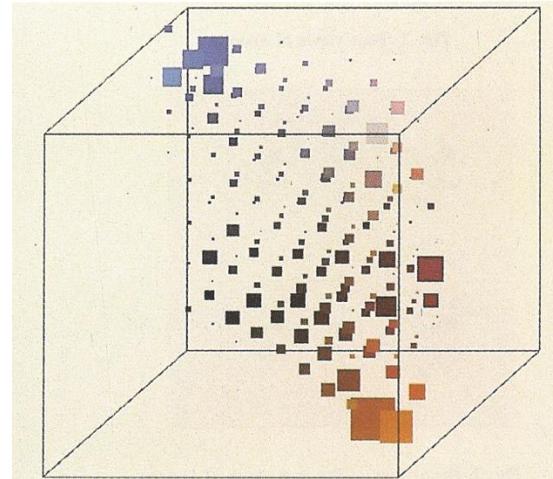
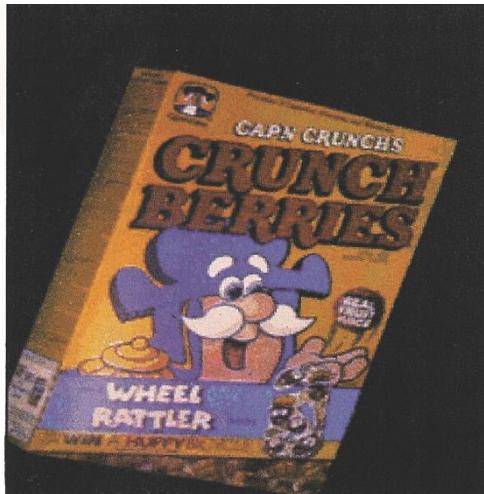
Color Histograms

- Color statistics
 - ▶ Given: R,G,B for each pixel
 - ▶ Compute 1D histograms for the R, G and B, as well as for the luminance
 - E.g. $\text{Hist}(R) = \#(\text{pixels with color } R)$



3D (Joint) Color Histograms

- Color statistics
 - ▶ Given: tri-stimulus R,G,B for each pixel
 - ▶ Compute 3D histogram
 - $H(R,G,B) = \#(\text{pixels with color } (R,G,B))$

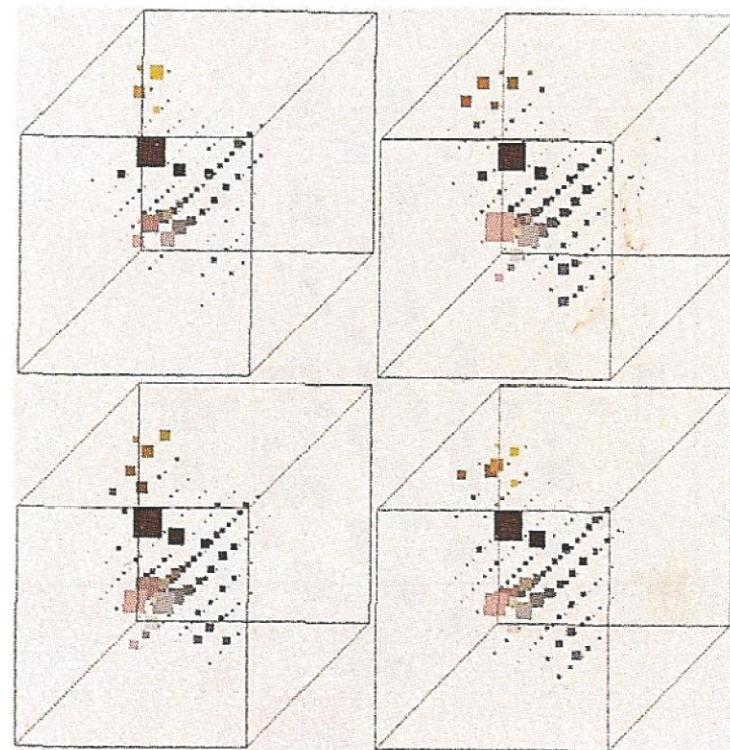
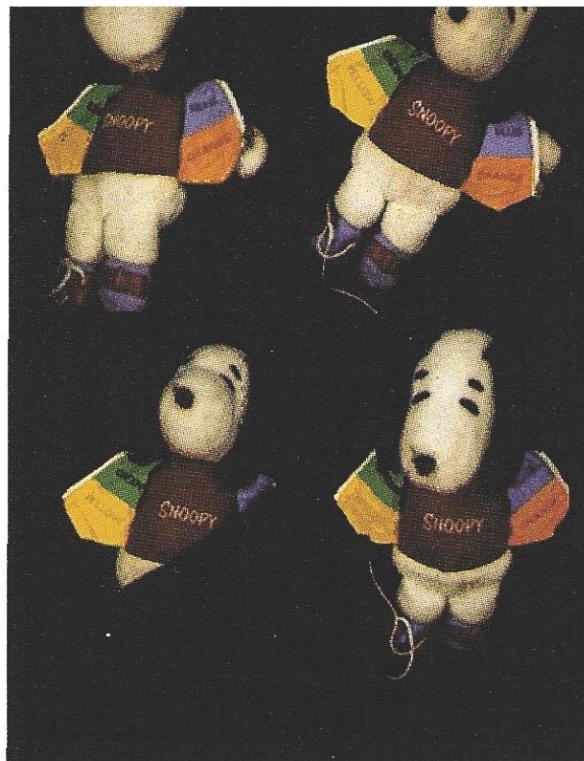


[Swain & Ballard, 1991]

- Embed the image into a "more meaningful" space endowed with some notion of "closeness"

Color Histograms

- Robust representation
 - ▶ presence of occlusion, rotation



[Swain & Ballard, 1991]

Color

- One component of the 3D color space is intensity
 - ▶ If a color vector is multiplied by a scalar, the intensity changes, but not the color itself.
 - ▶ This means colors can be normalized by the intensity.
 - Intensity is given by: $I = R + G + B$:
 - ▶ „Chromatic representation“

$$r = \frac{R}{R + G + B}$$

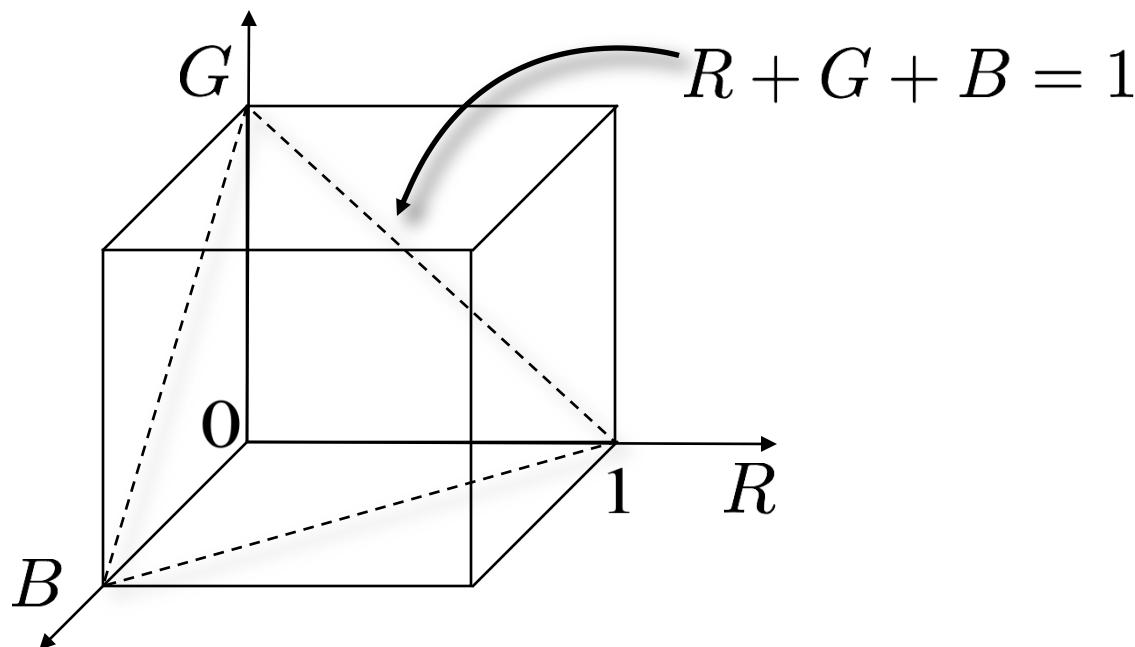
$$g = \frac{G}{R + G + B}$$

$$b = \frac{B}{R + G + B}$$

Color

- Observation:
 - ▶ Since $r + g + b = 1$, only 2 parameters are necessary
 - ▶ E.g. one can use r and g
 - ▶ and obtains $b = 1 - r - g$

$$\begin{aligned}r + g + b &= 1 \\ \Rightarrow b &= 1 - r - g\end{aligned}$$

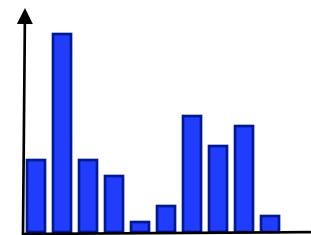
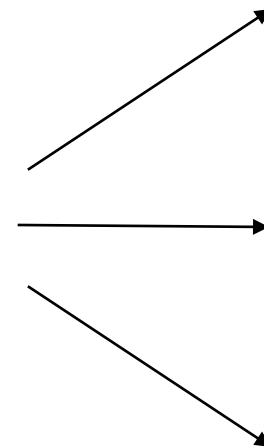
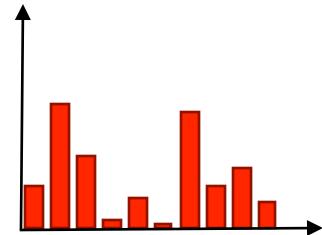


Recognition using Histograms

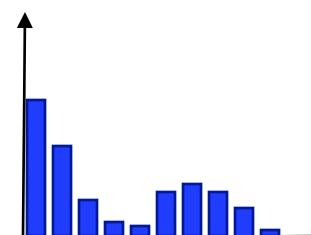
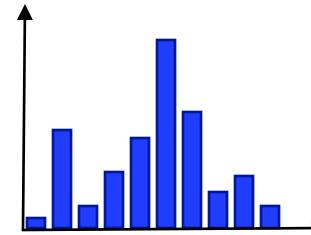
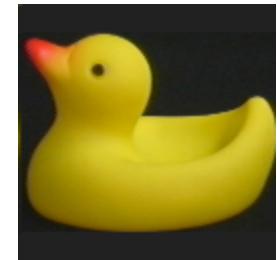
- Histogram comparison
 - Database of known objects
 - Test image of unknown object



test image

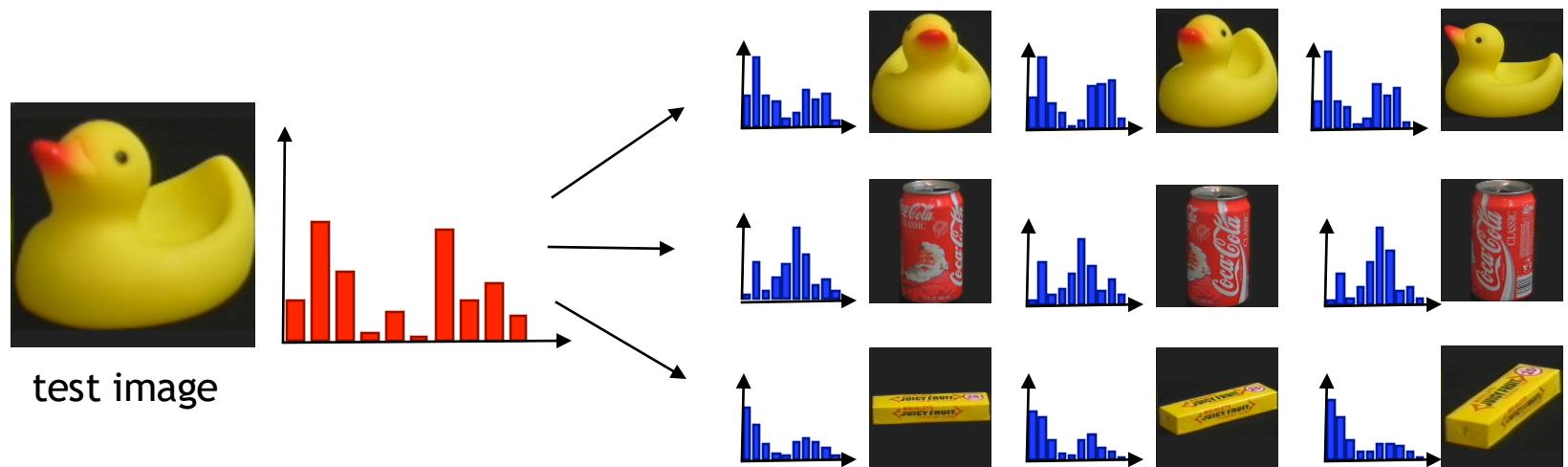


known objects



Recognition using Histograms

- Database with multiple training views per object



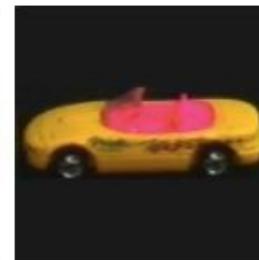
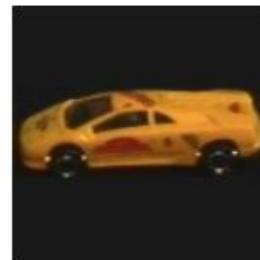
Recognition using Histograms

- Retrieved object instances given the query-image color histogram

Query



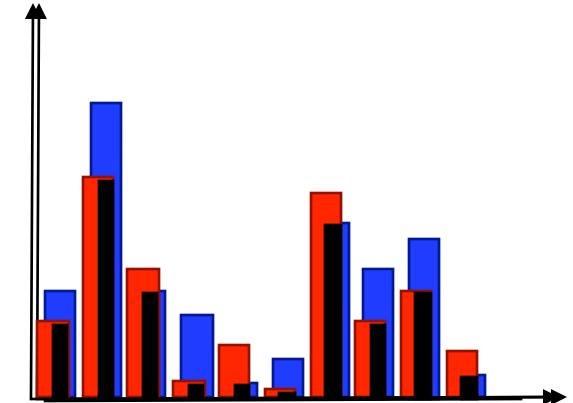
Retrieved objects



Histogram Comparison

- Comparison measures
 - ▶ Intersection

$$\cap(Q, V) = \sum_i \min(q_i, v_i)$$



Histogram Comparison

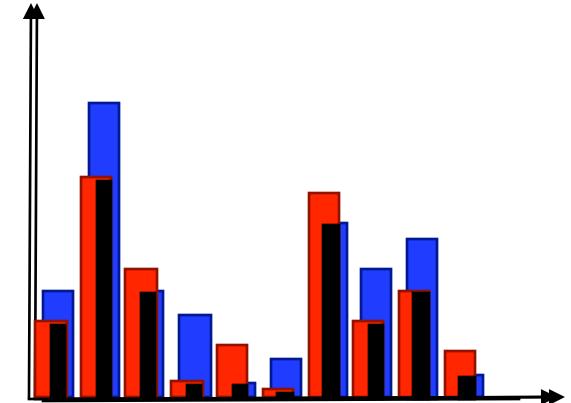
- Comparison measures

- Intersection

$$\cap(Q, V) = \sum_i \min(q_i, v_i)$$

- Motivation

- Measures the common part of both histograms
 - Range: [0,1]
 - For unnormalized histograms, use the following formula

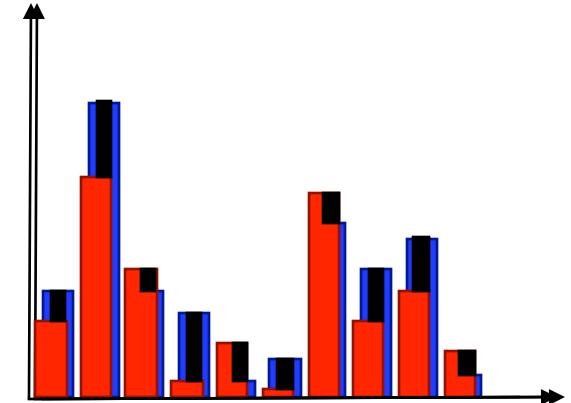


$$\cap(Q, V) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sum_i \min(q_i, v_i)}{\sum_i q_i} + \frac{\sum_i \min(q_i, v_i)}{\sum_i v_i} \right)$$

Histogram Comparison

- Comparison Measures
 - ▶ Euclidean Distance

$$d(Q, V) = \sum_i (q_i - v_i)^2$$

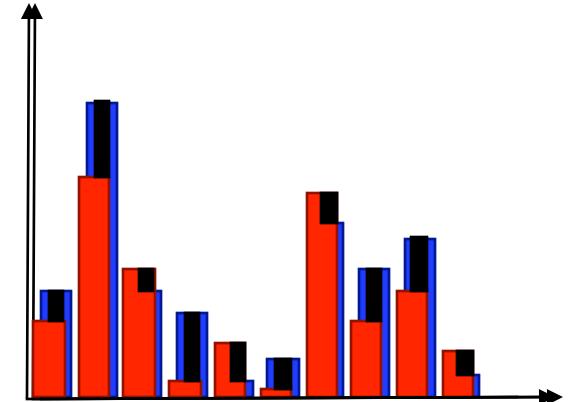


Histogram Comparison

- Comparison Measures

- ▶ Euclidean Distance

$$d(Q, V) = \sum_i (q_i - v_i)^2$$



- Motivation

- ▶ Focuses on the differences between the histograms
 - ▶ Range: $[0, \infty]$
 - ▶ All cells are weighted equally.
 - ▶ Not very discriminant

Histogram Comparison

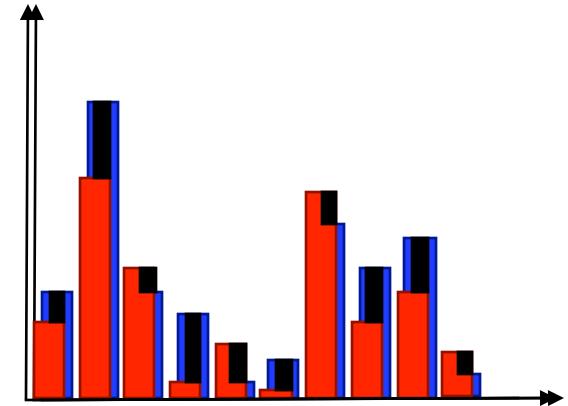
- Comparison Measures

- ▶ Chi-square

$$\chi^2(Q, V) = \sum_i \frac{(q_i - v_i)^2}{q_i + v_i}$$

- Motivation

- ▶ Statistical background:
 - Test if two distributions are different
 - Possible to compute a significance score
 - ▶ Range: $[0, \infty]$
 - ▶ Cells are not weighted equally!
 - therefore more discriminant
 - may have problems with outliers (therefore assume that each cell contains at least a minimum of samples)



Histogram Comparison

- Which measure is best?
 - ▶ Depends on the application...
 - ▶ Both Intersection and χ^2 give good performance.
 - Intersection is a bit more robust.
 - χ^2 is a bit more discriminative.
 - Euclidean distance is not robust enough.
 - ▶ There exist many other measures
 - e.g. statistical tests: Kolmogorov-Smirnov
 - e.g. information theoretic: Kullback-Leibler divergence, Jeffrey divergence, ...

Recognition using Histograms

- Simple algorithm
 1. Build a set of histograms $H = \{M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots\}$ for each known object
 - more exactly, for each view of each object
 2. Build a histogram T for the test image.
 3. Compare T to each $M_k \in H$
 - using a suitable comparison measure
 4. Select the object with the best matching score
 - or reject the test image if no object is similar enough (distance above a threshold t)

“Nearest-Neighbor” strategy

Color Histograms

- Recognition (here object identification)
 - Works surprisingly well
 - In the first paper (1991), 66 objects could be recognized almost without errors



[Swain & Ballard, 1991]

Discussion: Color Histograms

- Advantages
 - ▶ Invariant to object translations
 - ▶ Invariant to image rotations
 - ▶ Slowly changing for out-of-plane rotations
 - ▶ No perfect segmentation necessary
 - ▶ Histograms change gradually when part of the object is occluded
 - ▶ Possible to recognize deformable objects
 - e.g. pullover
- Problems
 - ▶ The pixel colors change with the illumination
("color constancy problem")
 - Intensity
 - Spectral composition (illumination color)
 - ▶ Not all objects can be identified by their color distribution.

Basics of Digital Image Filtering

- Linear Filtering
 - Gaussian Filtering
- Multi Scale Image Representation
 - Gaussian Pyramid
- Edge Detection
 - ‘Recognition using Line Drawings’
 - Image derivatives (1st and 2nd order)
- Object Instance Identification using Color Histograms
- Performance evaluation

Performance evaluation



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Performance Evaluation

- How can we say if method A is better than method B for the same task?
 1. Compare a single number - e.g. accuracy (recognition rate), top-k accuracy
 2. Compare curves - e.g. precision-recall curve, ROC curve

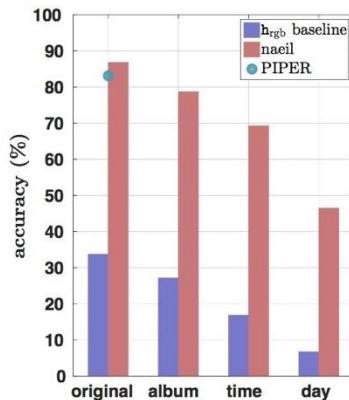
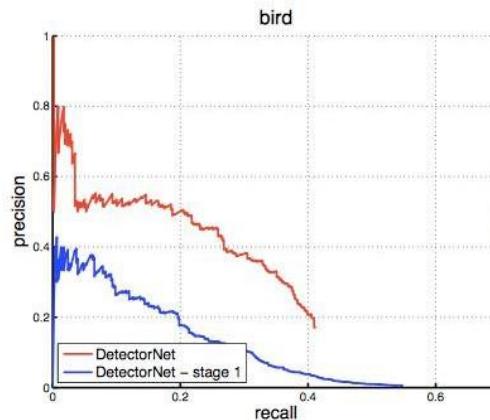
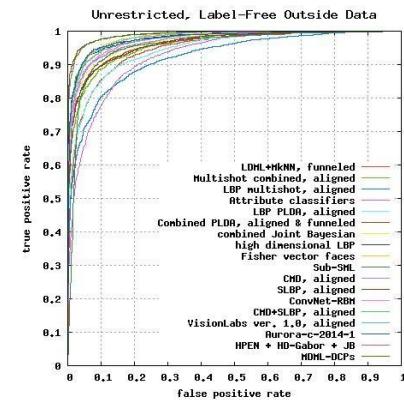


Figure 4. Recognition accuracy across different experimental setups on the test data.

Accuracy
(Oh, ICCV'15)



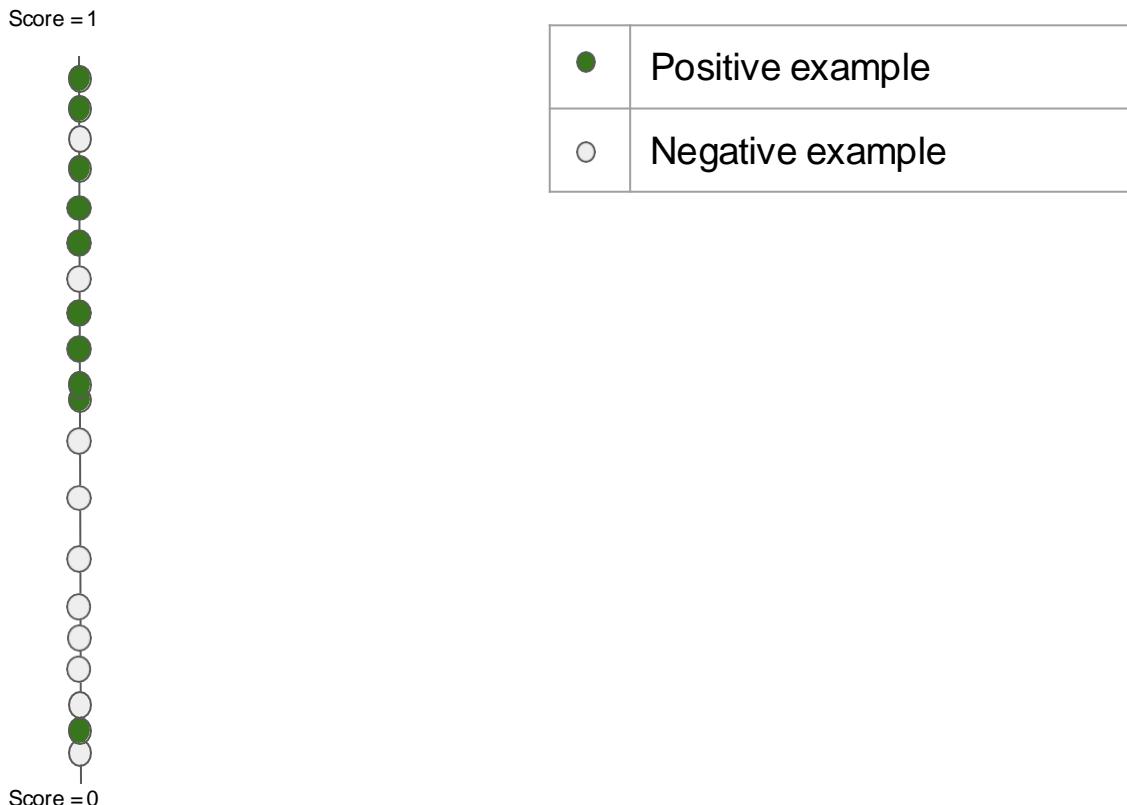
Precision-Recall
(Szegedy, NIPS'13)



ROC
(LFW Face verification)

Score-based evaluation

- The recognition algorithm identifies (classifies) the *query* object as matching the *training* image if their *similarity* is above a threshold t



Threshold -> Classifier -> Point Metrics

- The recognition algorithm identifies (classifies) the *query* object as matching the *training* image if their *similarity* is above a threshold t



Point metrics: Confusion Matrix

- The recognition algorithm identifies (classifies) the *query* object as matching the *training* image if their *similarity* is above a threshold t

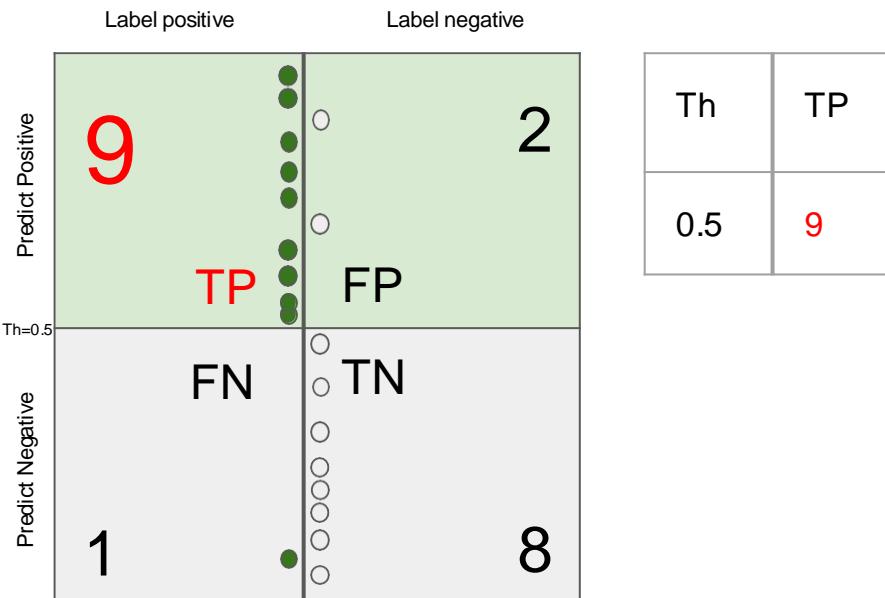


Th
0.5

Properties:

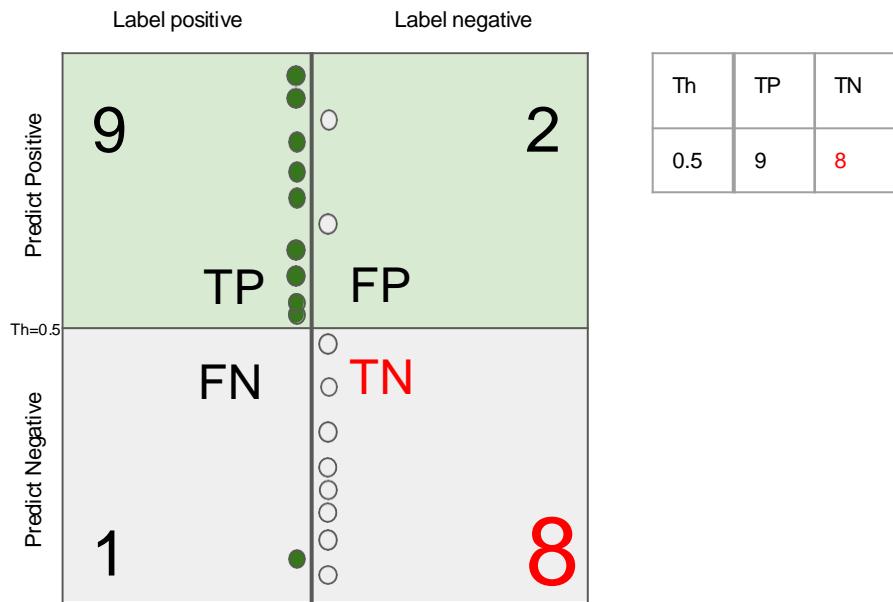
- Quality of model & threshold decide how columns are split into rows.
- We want diagonals to be “heavy”, off diagonals to be “light”.

Point metrics: True Positives



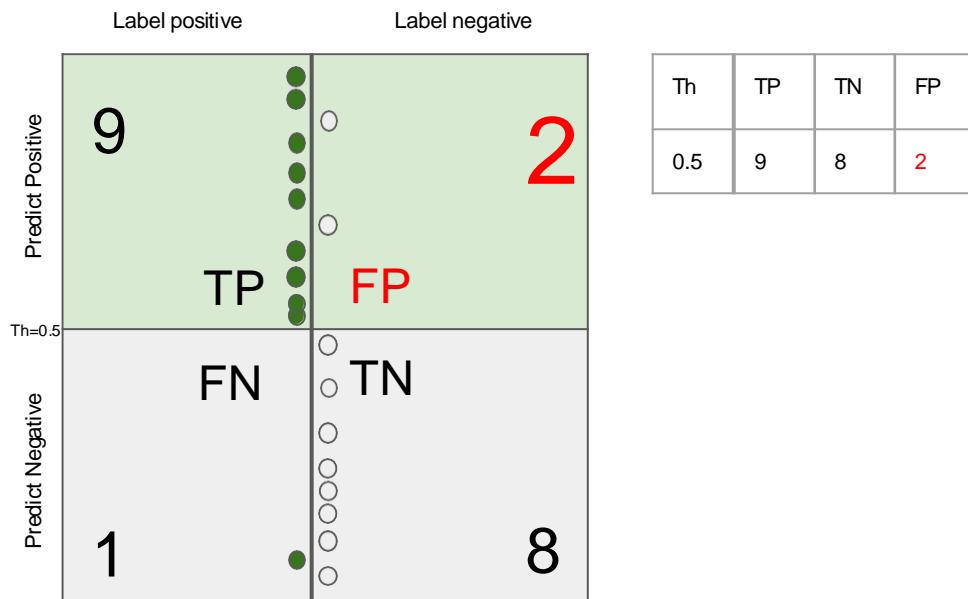
Th	TP
0.5	9

Point metrics: True Negatives

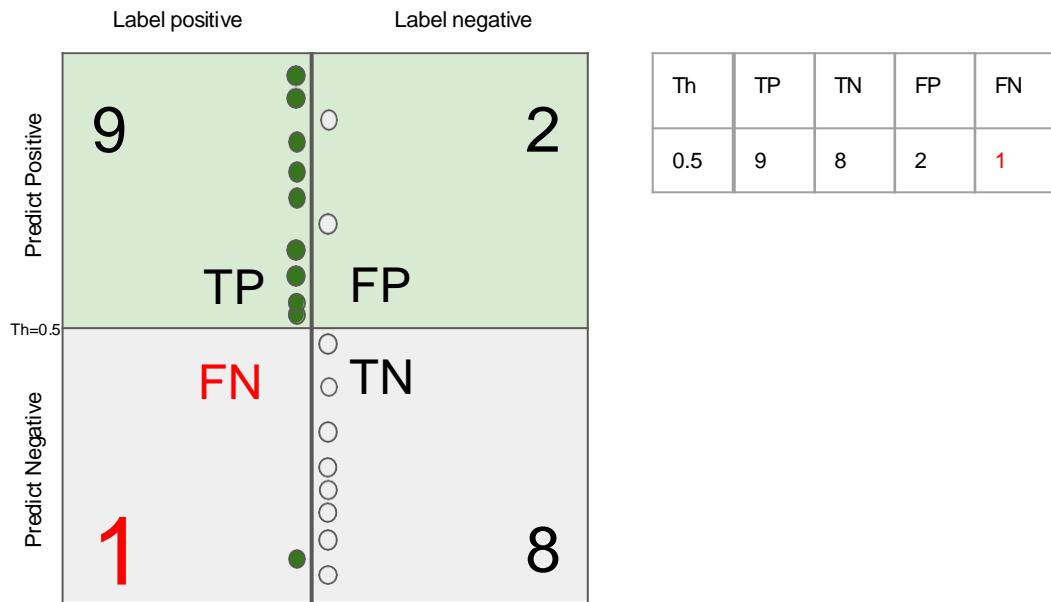


Th	TP	TN
0.5	9	8

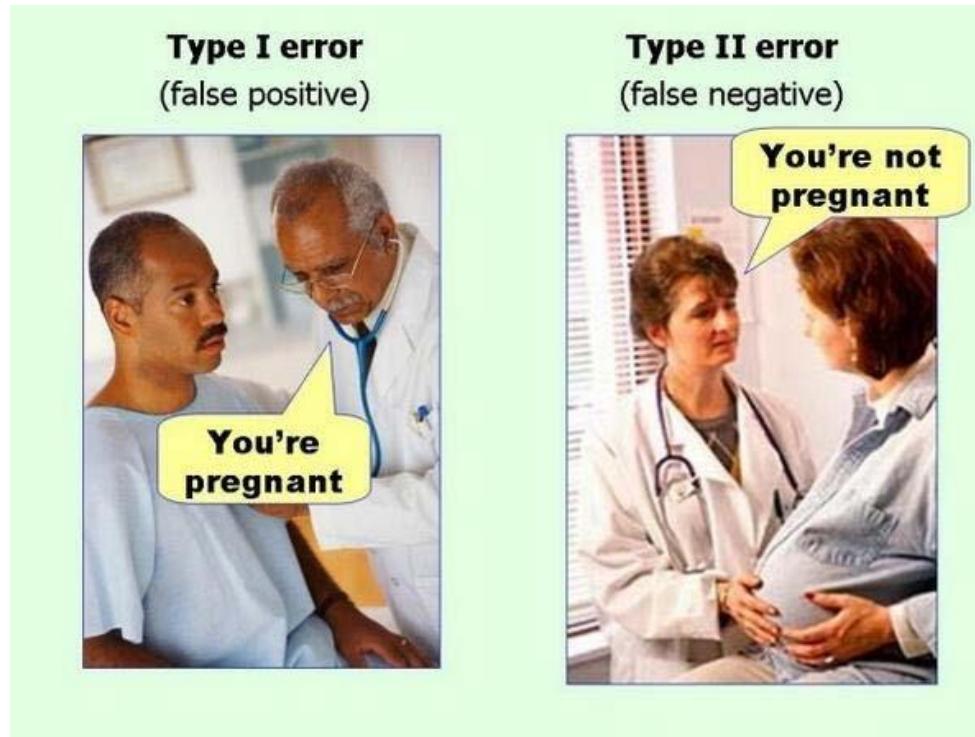
Point metrics: False Positives



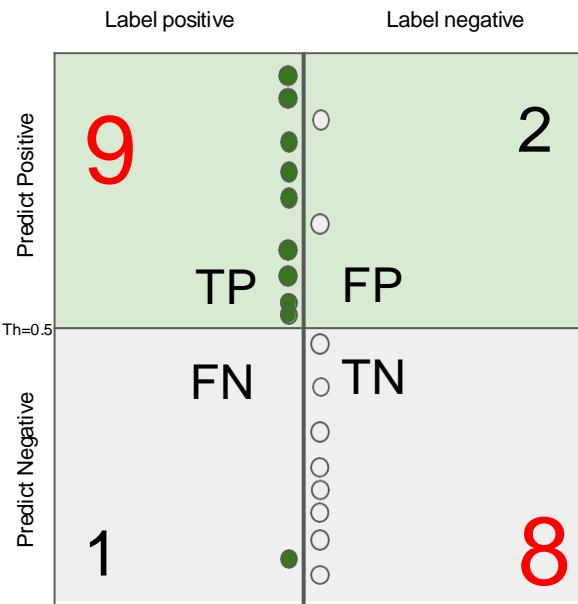
Point metrics: False Negatives



FP and FN also called Type-1 and Type-2 errors



Point metrics: Accuracy

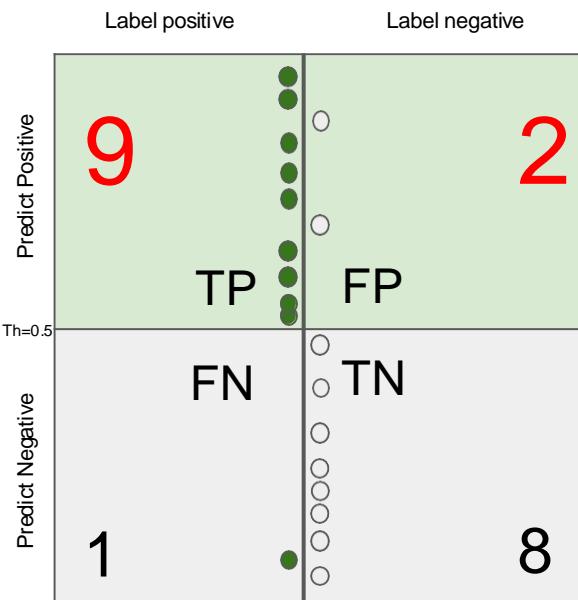


Th	TP	TN	FP	FN	Acc
0.5	9	8	2	1	.85

$$\text{Overall accuracy} = (\text{TN} + \text{TP})/\text{N}$$

Equivalent to 0-1 Loss!

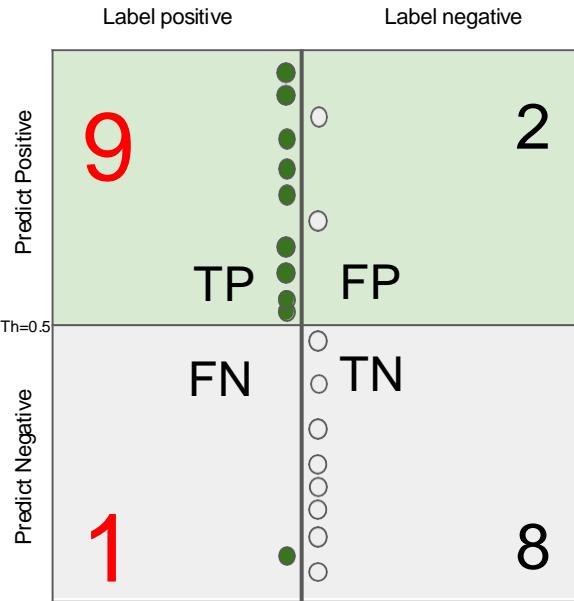
Point metrics: Precision



Th	TP	TN	FP	FN	Acc	Pr
0.5	9	8	2	1	.85	.81

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}$$

Point metrics: Positive Recall, True Positive Rate, Sensitivity



Th	TP	TN	FP	FN	Acc	Pr	Recall
0.5	9	8	2	1	.85	.81	.9

$$\text{Recall} = \text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}} = \text{Sensitivity}$$

Trivial 100% recall = pull everybody above the threshold.

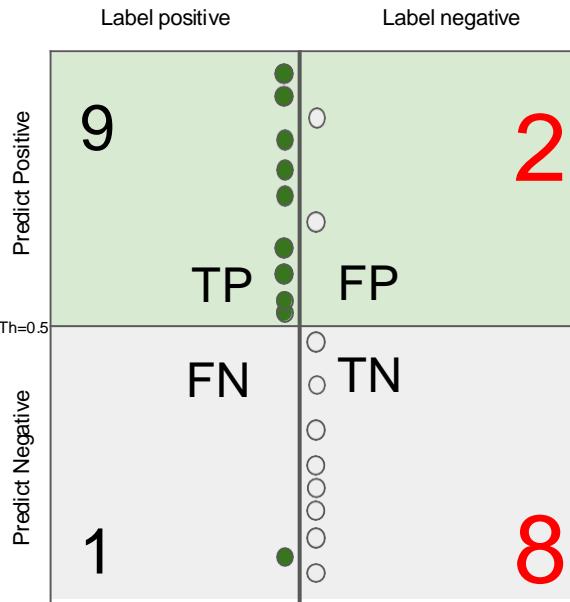
Trivial 100% precision = push everybody below the threshold except 1 green on top.

(Hopefully no gray above it!)

Striving for good precision with 100% recall =
pulling up the lowest green as high as possible in the ranking.

Striving for good recall with 100% precision =
pushing down the top gray as low as possible in the ranking.

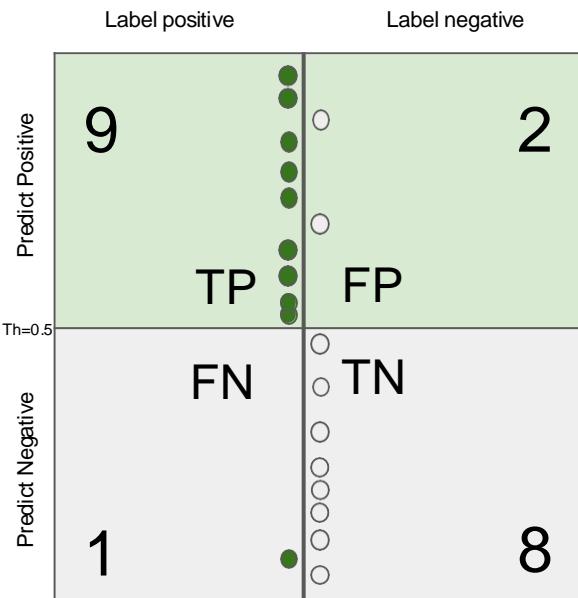
Point metrics: Negative Recall, False Positive Rate, Specificity



Th	TP	TN	FP	FN	Acc	Pr	Recall	Spec
0.5	9	8	2	1	.85	.81	.9	0.8

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}} = 1 - \text{Specificity}$$

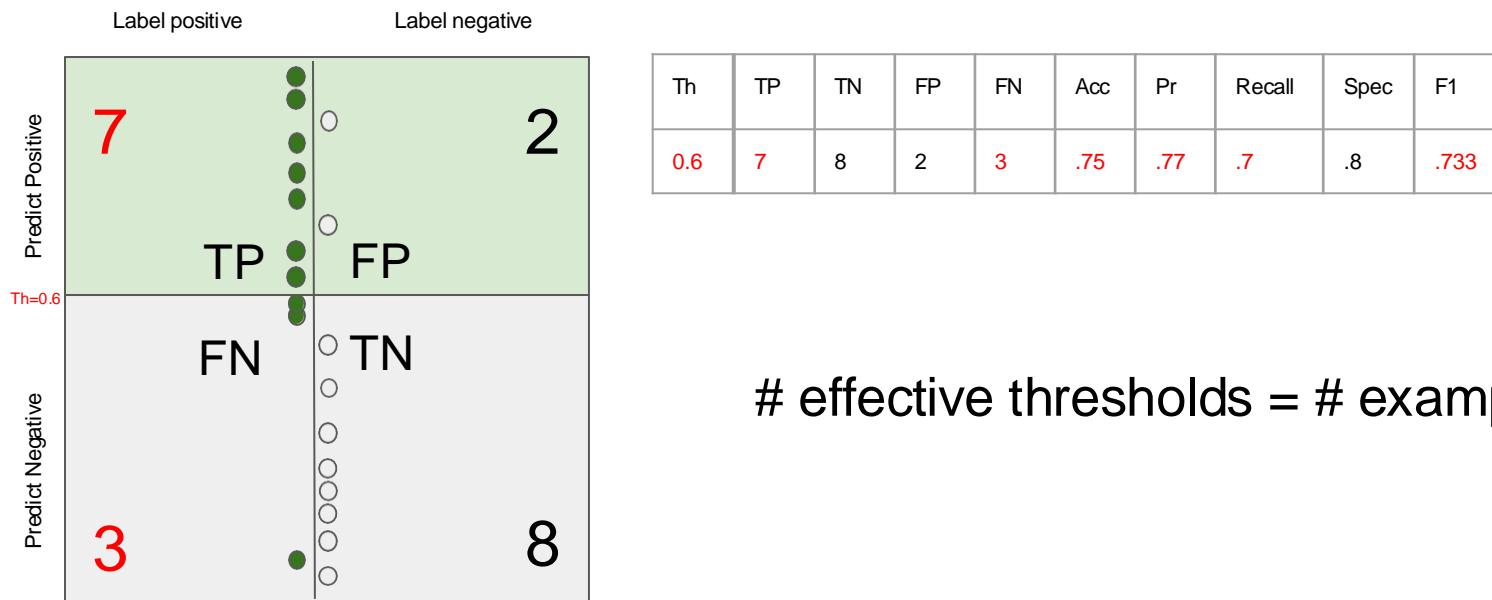
Point metrics: F1-score



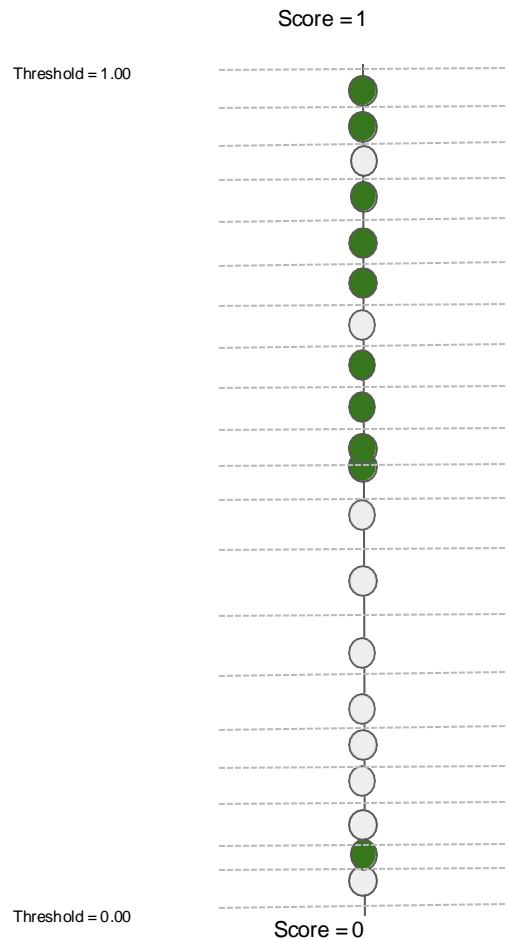
Th	TP	TN	FP	FN	Acc	Pr	Recall	Spec	F1
0.5	9	8	2	1	.85	.81	.9	.8	.857

$$F_1 = \left(\frac{2}{\text{recall}^{-1} + \text{precision}^{-1}} \right) = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{precision} \cdot \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}}$$

Point metrics: Changing threshold



Threshold Scanning



Threshold	TP	TN	FP	FN	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	Specificity	F1
1.00	0	10	0	10	0.50	1	0	1	0
0.95	1	10	0	9	0.55	1	0.1	1	0.182
0.90	2	10	0	8	0.60	1	0.2	1	0.333
0.85	2	9	1	8	0.55	0.667	0.2	0.9	0.308
0.80	3	9	1	7	0.60	0.750	0.3	0.9	0.429
0.75	4	9	1	6	0.65	0.800	0.4	0.9	0.533
0.70	5	9	1	5	0.70	0.833	0.5	0.9	0.625
0.65	5	8	2	5	0.65	0.714	0.5	0.8	0.588
0.60	6	8	2	4	0.70	0.750	0.6	0.8	0.667
0.55	7	8	2	3	0.75	0.778	0.7	0.8	0.737
0.50	8	8	2	2	0.80	0.800	0.8	0.8	0.800
0.45	9	8	2	1	0.85	0.818	0.9	0.8	0.857
0.40	9	7	3	1	0.80	0.750	0.9	0.7	0.818
0.35	9	6	4	1	0.75	0.692	0.9	0.6	0.783
0.30	9	5	5	1	0.70	0.643	0.9	0.5	0.750
0.25	9	4	6	1	0.65	0.600	0.9	0.4	0.720
0.20	9	3	7	1	0.60	0.562	0.9	0.3	0.692
0.15	9	2	8	1	0.55	0.529	0.9	0.2	0.667
0.10	9	1	9	1	0.50	0.500	0.9	0.1	0.643
0.05	10	1	9	0	0.55	0.526	1	0.1	0.690
0.00	10	0	10	0	0.50	0.500	1	0	0.667

Recap

- The recognition algorithm identifies (classifies) the *query* object as matching the *training* image if their *similarity* is above a threshold t
- Compare actual outcomes to predicted outcomes using a *confusion matrix (classification matrix)*

	Predicted = 0	Predicted = 1
Actual = 0	True Negatives (TN)	False Positives (FP)
Actual = 1	False Negatives (FN)	True Positives (TP)

N = number of observations

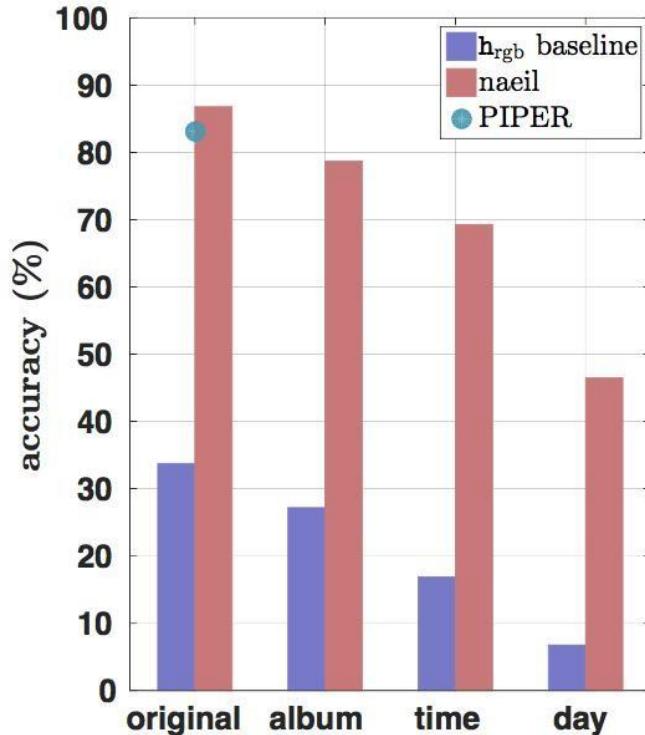
$$\text{Overall accuracy} = (\text{TN} + \text{TP})/\text{N} \quad \text{Overall error rate} = (\text{FP} + \text{FN})/\text{N}$$

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}} = 1 - \text{Specificity}$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}$$

$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}} = \text{Sensitivity} = \text{Recall}$$

Performance Evaluation (Overall) Accuracy



$\frac{\text{\#Correct Predictions}}{\text{\#Total Examples}}$

Figure 4. Recognition accuracy across different experimental setups on the test data.
Oh, ICCV'15

Threshold Value

- The recognition algorithm identifies (classifies) the *query* object as matching the *training* image if their *similarity* is above a threshold t
- The lower the t the more query images are classified as matching
 - More TP but also more FP
- The higher the t the less query images are classified as matching
 - More TN but also more FN
- What value should we pick for t ?

Receiver Operator Characteristic (ROC)

- True positive rate (TPR)

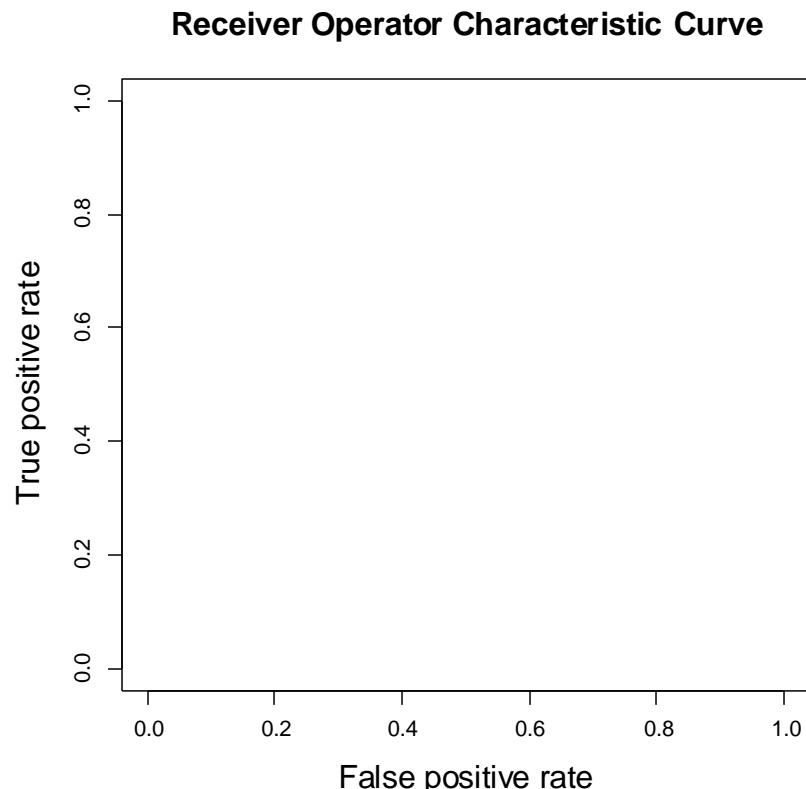
- the larger the TPR
the larger the recall
of actual true matches
(lower threshold t)

$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

- False positive rate (FPR)

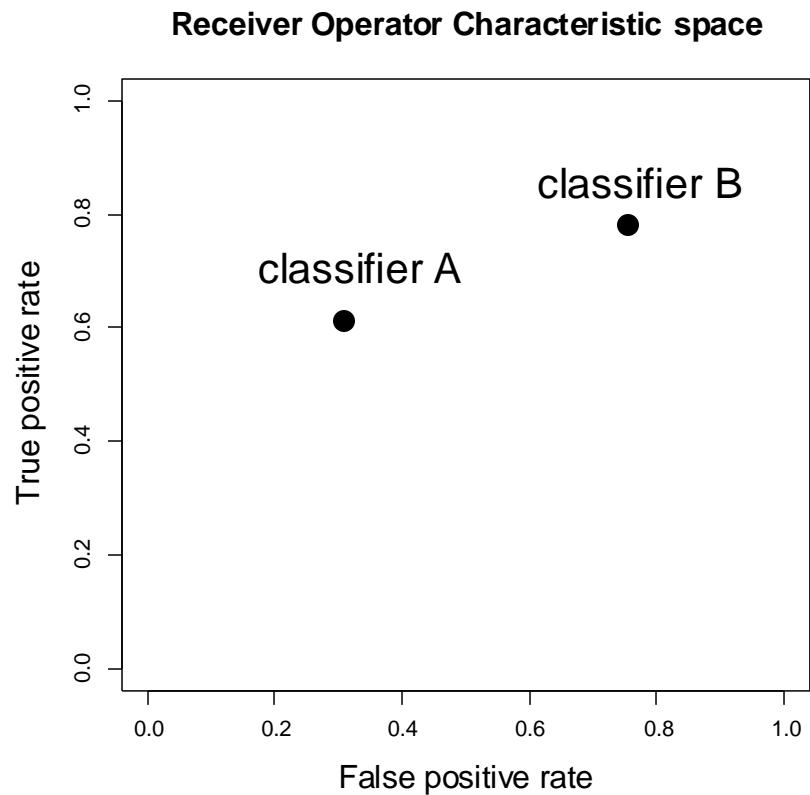
- The larger the FPR
the larger number
of false alarms
(lower threshold t)

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}}$$



Receiver Operator Characteristic (ROC) space

- True positive rate (TPR)
 - the larger the TPR
the larger the recall
of actual true matches
- False positive rate (FPR)
 - The larger the FPR
the larger number
of false alarms



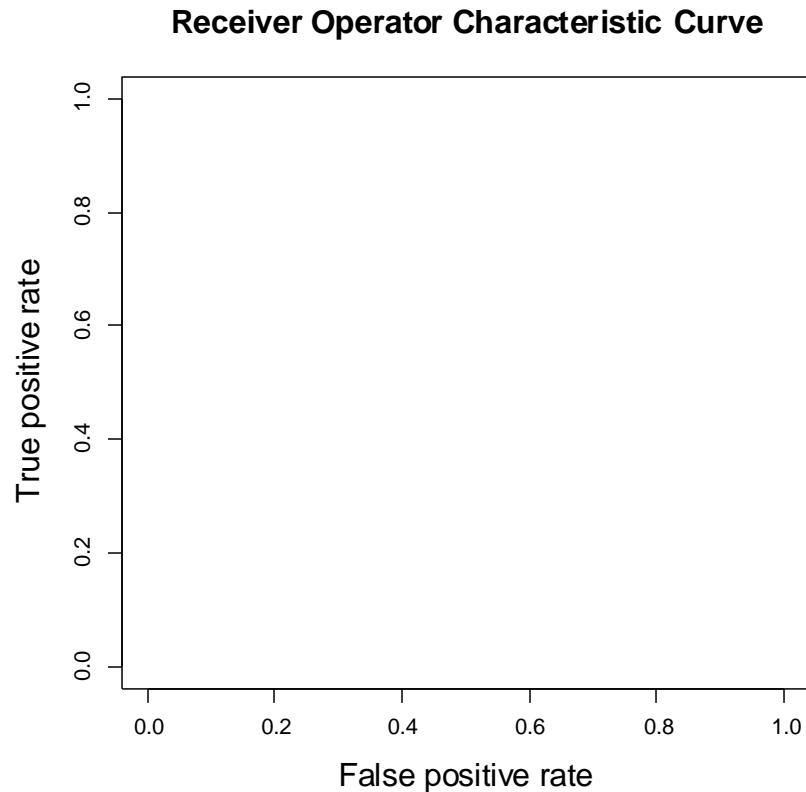
Selecting a Threshold using ROC

- Capture all thresholds simultaneously
- Low threshold t
 - Large TPR
 - Large FPR

$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

- High threshold t
 - Small TPR
 - Small FPR

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}}$$

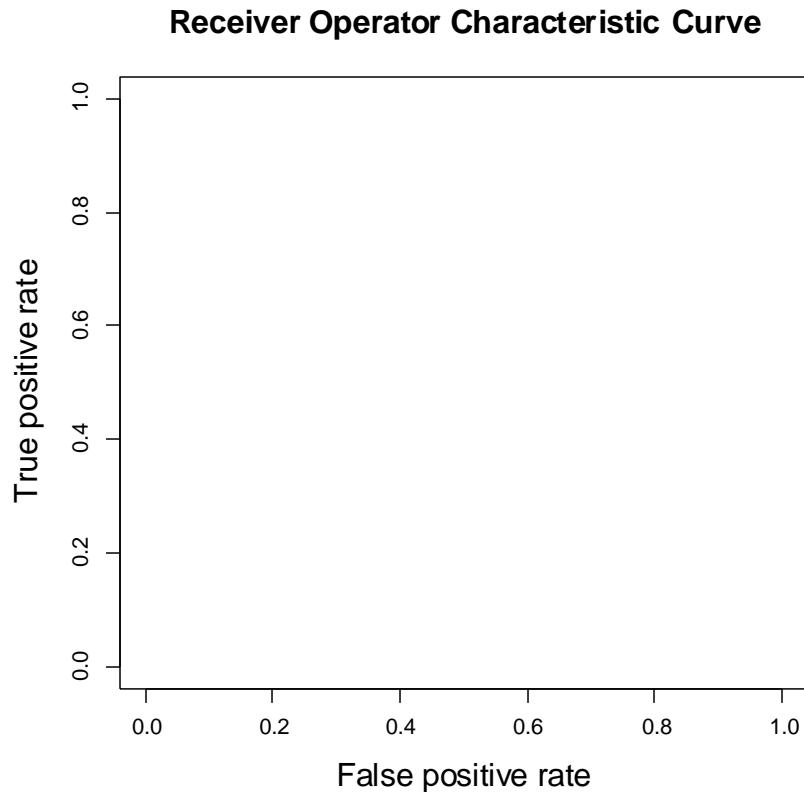


Selecting a Threshold using ROC

- Choose **best threshold t** for the **best trade off**
 - cost of failing to identify an object
 - cost of raising the false alarms

$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}}$$

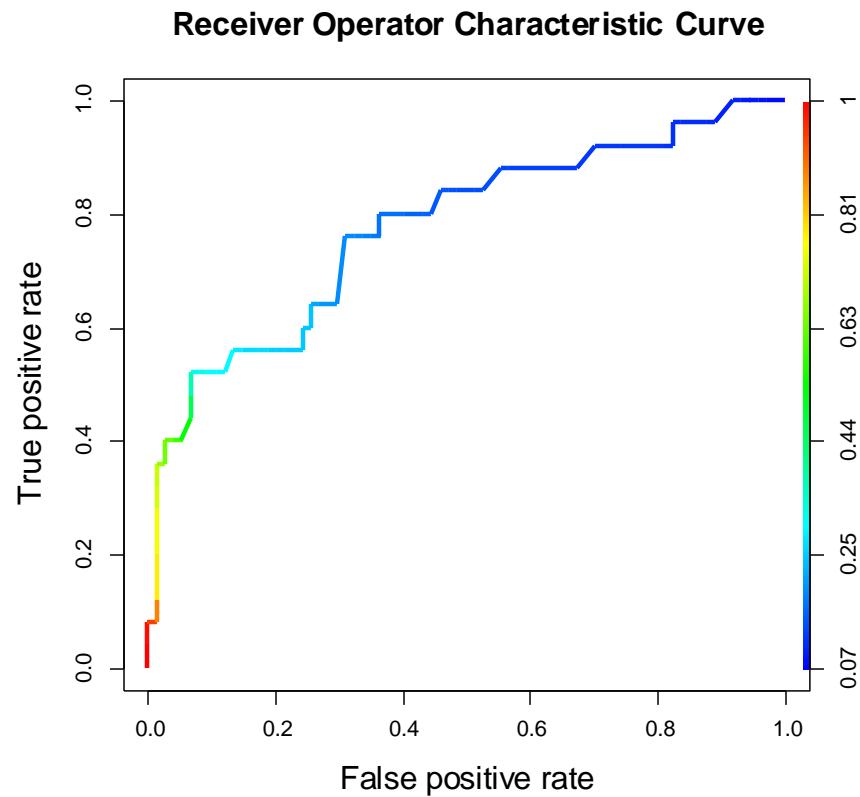


Selecting a Threshold using ROC

- Choose **best threshold t** for the **best trade off**
 - cost of failing to identify an object
 - cost of raising the false alarms

$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}}$$

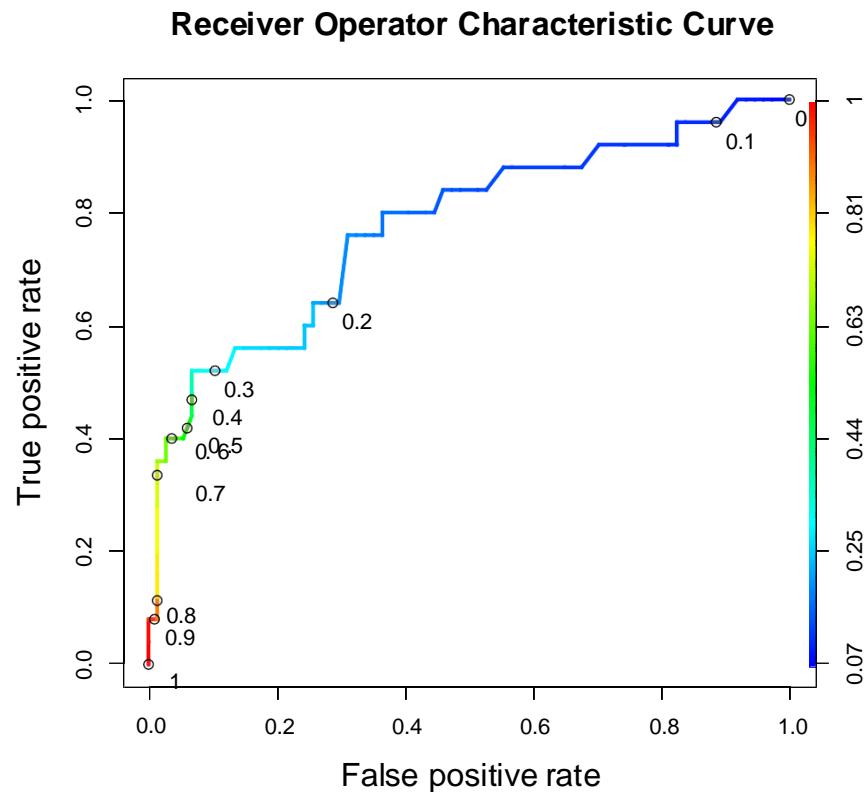


Selecting a Threshold using ROC

- Choose best threshold t for the best trade off
 - cost of failing to identify an object
 - cost of raising the false alarms

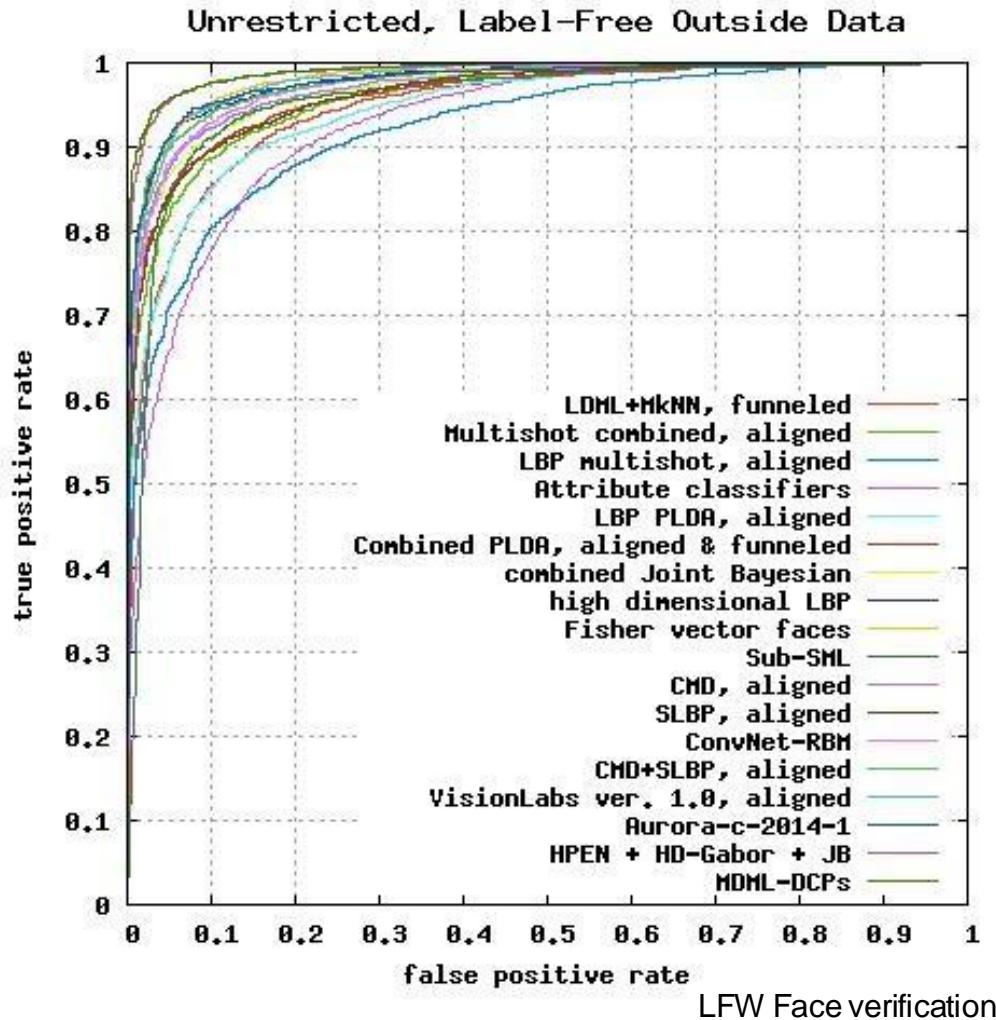
$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}}$$



Performance Evaluation

ROC curve

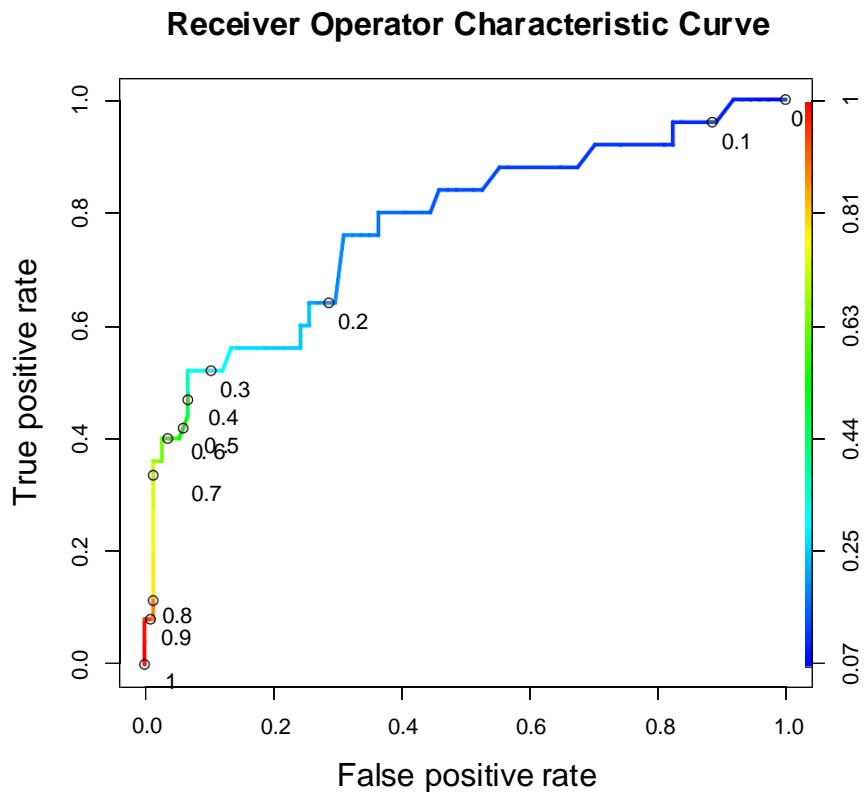


$$TPR = \frac{TP}{P} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{N} = \frac{FP}{TN + FP}$$

Performance across thresholds

- The area under the ROC curve (AUROC)
- Interpretation
 - Given a random positive and negative, proportion of the time you guess which is which correctly
- Less affected by sample balance than accuracy

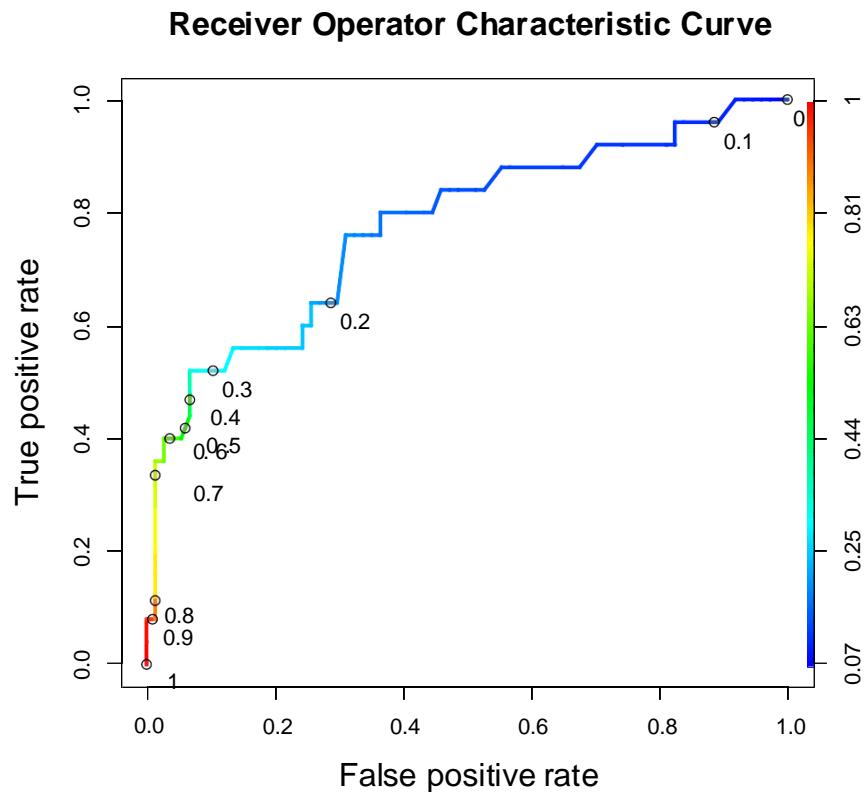


Area Under the ROC Curve (AUROC)

- What is a good AUROC?
 - Maximum of 1
(perfect prediction)
 - Minimum of 0.5
(just guessing)

$$\text{True positive rate} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

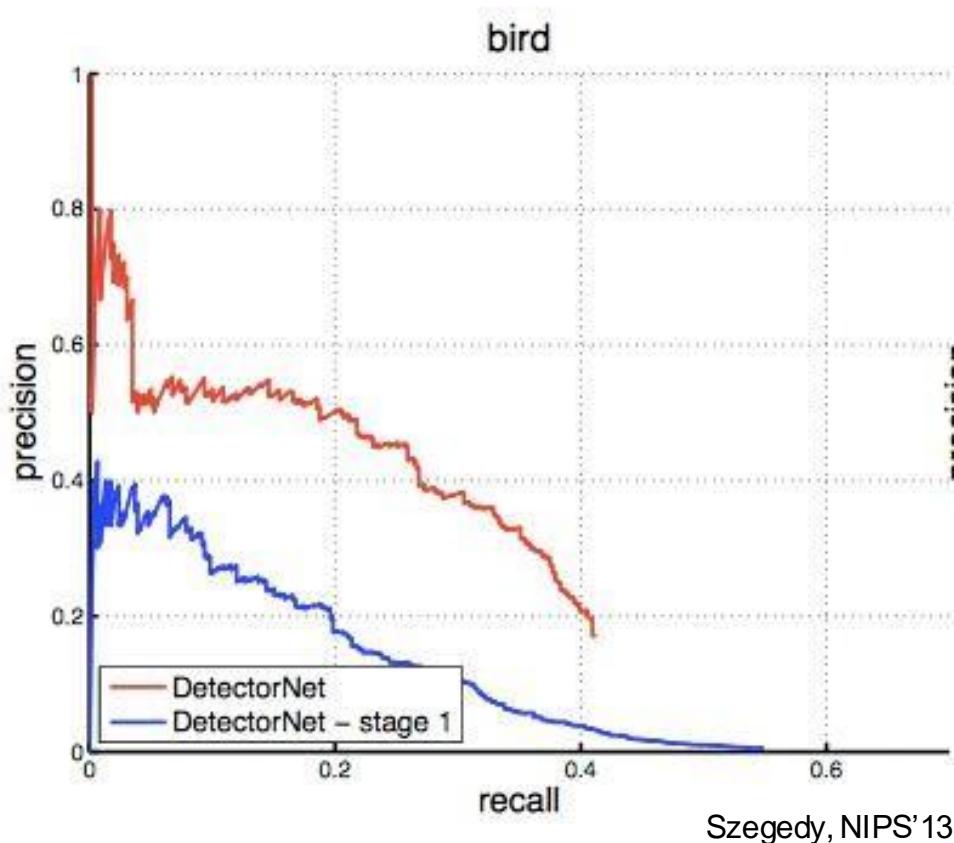
$$\text{False positive rate} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{TN} + \text{FP}}$$



Performance Evaluation

Precision-recall curve

- Preferred for detection, where TN's are otherwise undefined



$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}}$$

Confidence



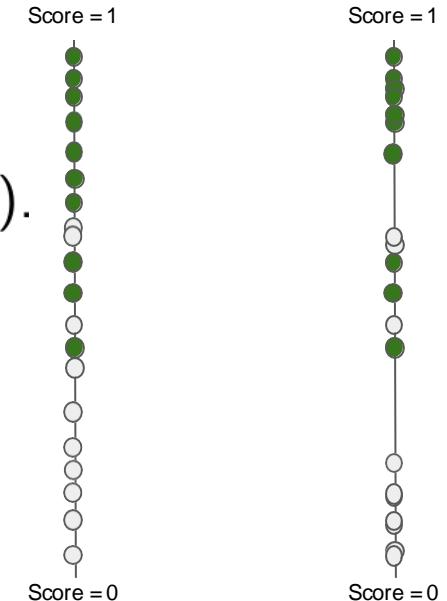
Two models scoring the same data set. Is one of them better than the other?

Log-Loss and Brier Score

- Same ranking, and therefore the same AUROC, AUPRC, accuracy!

$$\text{Log Loss} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N -y_i \log \hat{y}_i - (1 - y_i) \log (1 - \hat{y}_i).$$

- Rewards confident correct answers, heavily penalizes confident wrong answers.
- One perfectly confident wrong prediction is fatal.
-> **Well-calibrated** model
 - **Proper** scoring rule: Minimized at $\hat{y} = y$



$$\text{Brier Score} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2$$

Thank you

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