

lecture 4: matching and indexing

deep learning for vision

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outline

bag of words

codebooks

beyond codebooks

pyramid matching

nearest neighbor search

discussion

bag of words

image matching

- so far, we have a representation that is very robust in matching different views of the same object or scene—same **instance**—to be used e.g. for **retrieval**
- the same representation can be used in matching views of different instances of the same category—same **class**—to be used e.g. for **classification** or **detection**
- main differences

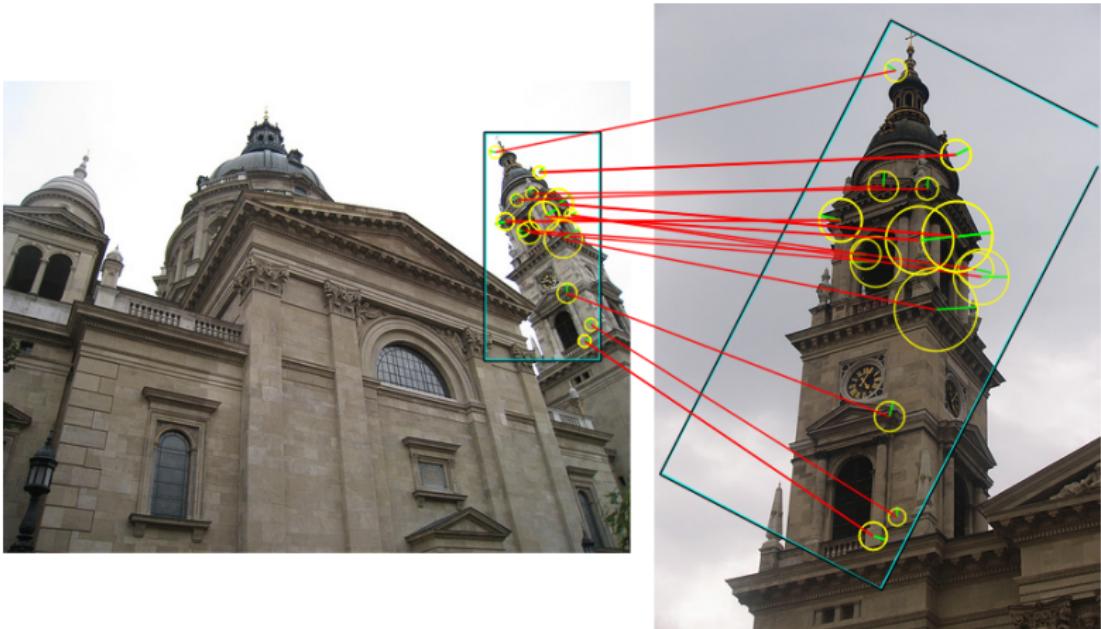
	instance	class
features	sparse	dense
descriptors		same
vocabulary	fine	coarse
geometry	rigid	flexible

image matching

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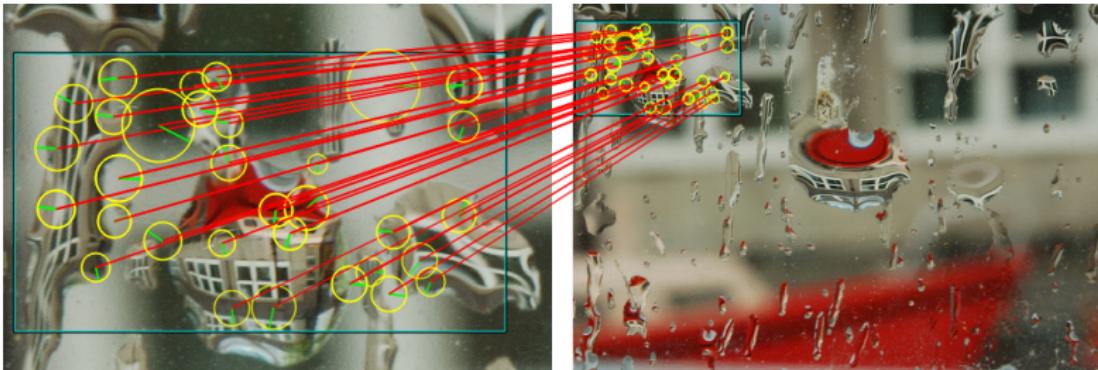
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spatial matching—same instance



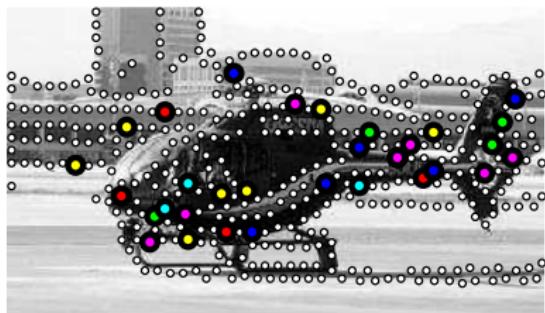
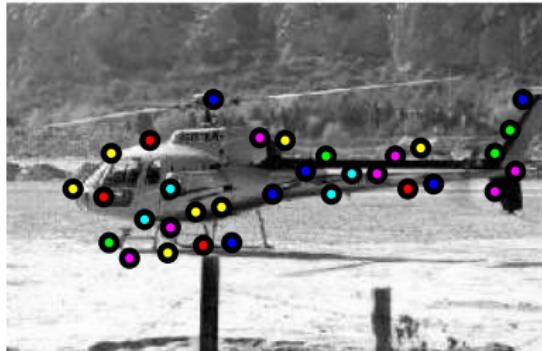
- now robust to scale, viewpoint, occlusion, clutter, lighting
- and very fast

spatial matching—same instance



- now robust to scale, viewpoint, occlusion, clutter, lighting
- and very fast

spatial matching—same class



- solve for feature correspondence, flexible transformation and outliers on all possible **correspondence pairs** by joint optimization
- very expensive

spatial matching—same class



- solve for feature correspondence, flexible transformation and outliers on all possible **correspondence pairs** by joint optimization
- very expensive and error prone

geometry

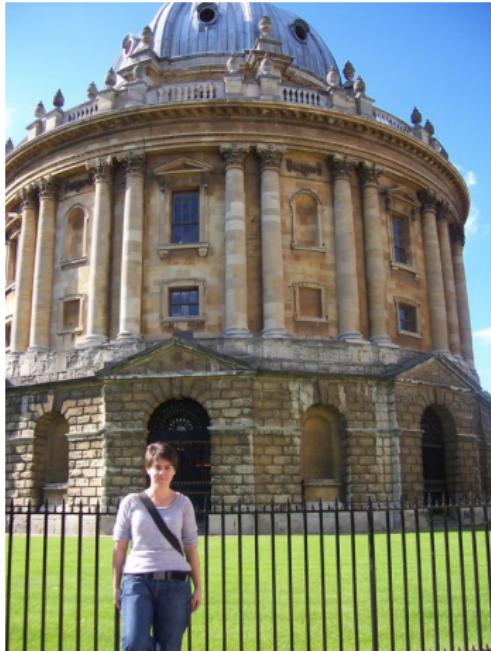
- spatial matching on **same instance** is robust, but expensive
- we can
 - encode position, e.g. with dense features; easier to match, but we loose invariance
 - discard geometry altogether and use a global representation; even easier, we maintain invariance, but loose discriminative power
 - discard geometry as a first step, then bring it back
 - make it more efficient?
- rigid transformations won't work for **classification**, and matching is even more expensive
 - make it more flexible?
 - make it more efficient?
 - maintain invariance?

geometry

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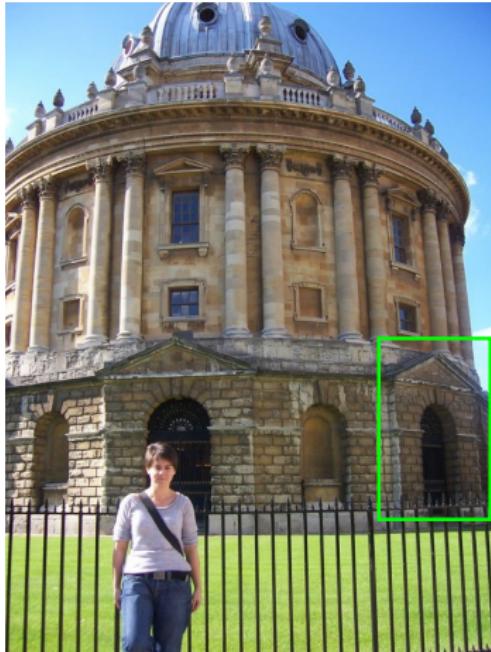
matching discriminative local features

[Lowe, ICCV 1999]

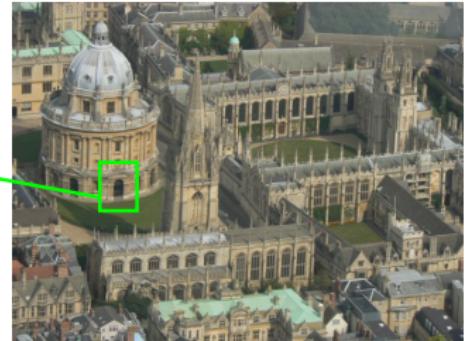


matching discriminative local features

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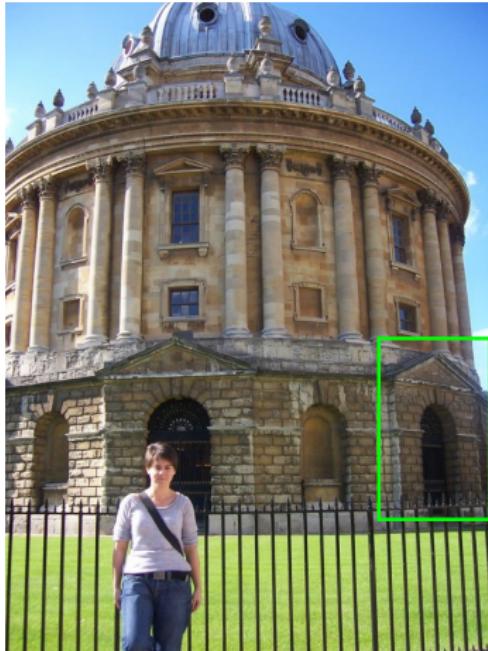


features

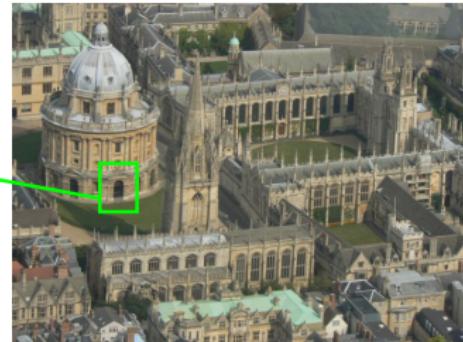
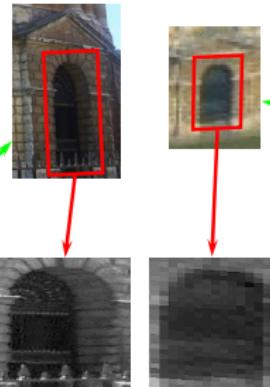


matching discriminative local features

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features



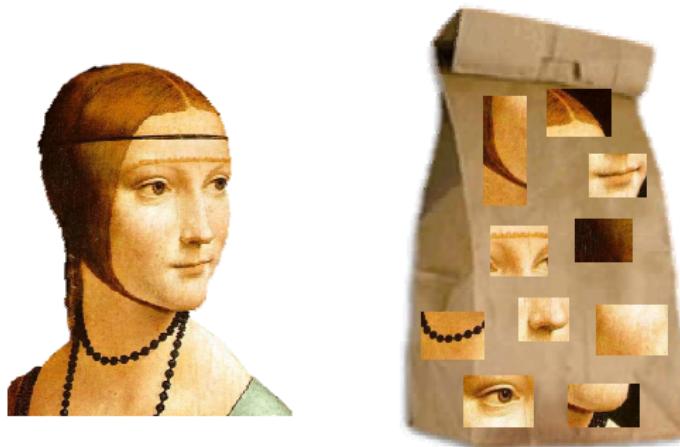
normalized features

appearance

- matching appearance via descriptors should be easier than geometry
- but
 - if we have positions e.g. with dense features, we know what to match (but we lose invariance)
 - otherwise, we need to find correspondences (expensive)
 - we can apply some **pooling** in image space or in descriptor space; more efficient; it may help or not
 - **global** pooling is the most efficient (but is not as discriminative)
 - local descriptors take up a lot of space; with pooling or not, we can **compress** them

forget about geometry: bag-of-words

[Sivic and Zisserman 2003]



- in fact, discarding geometry (**bag**) is one thing and quantizing descriptors (**words**) is another

vector quantization → visual words



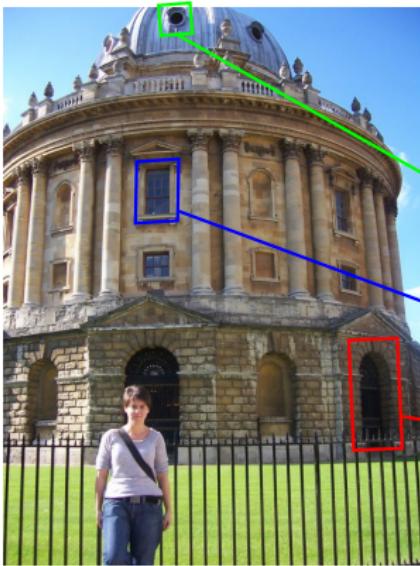
query



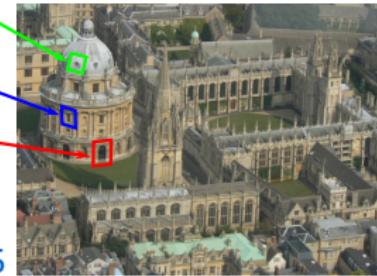
15

- query vs. dataset image

vector quantization → visual words



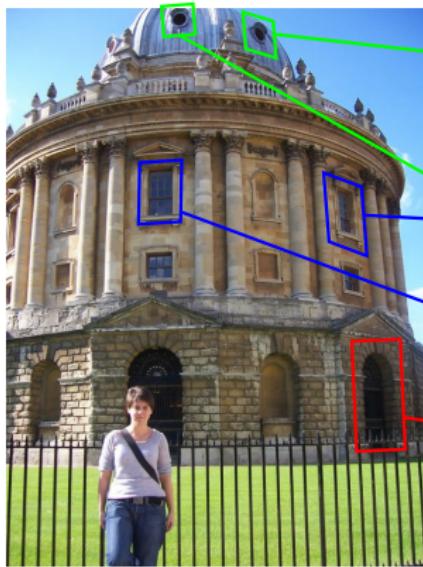
query



15

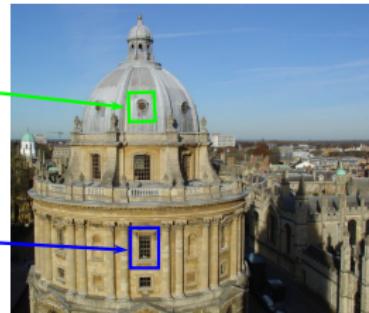
- pairwise descriptor matching

vector quantization → visual words

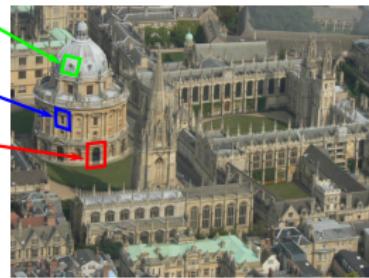


query

19

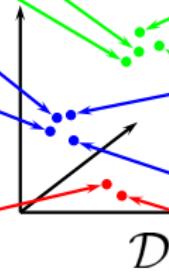
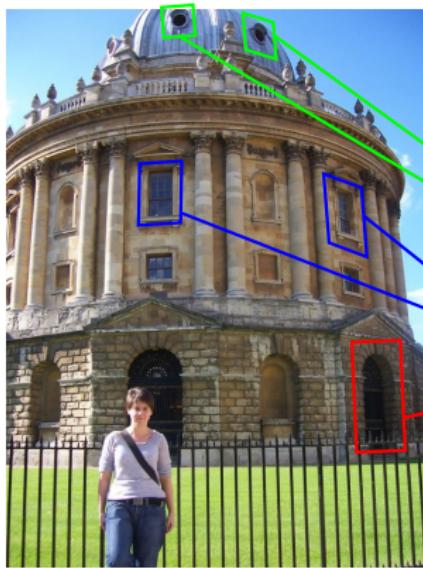


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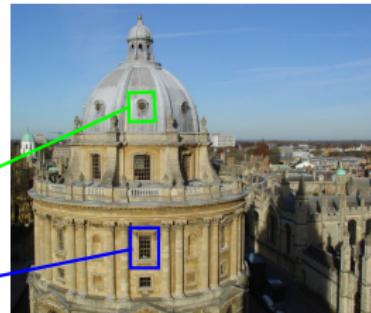


- pairwise descriptor matching for **every** dataset image

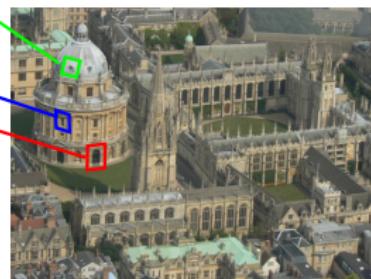
vector quantization → visual words



19

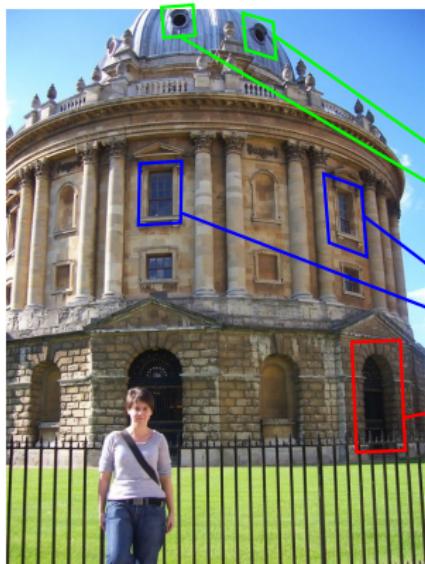


15

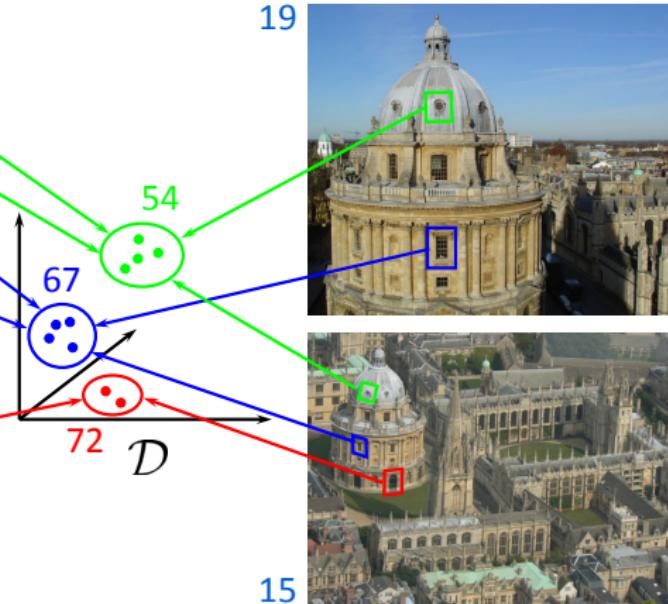


- similar descriptors should all be nearby in the descriptor space

vector quantization → visual words

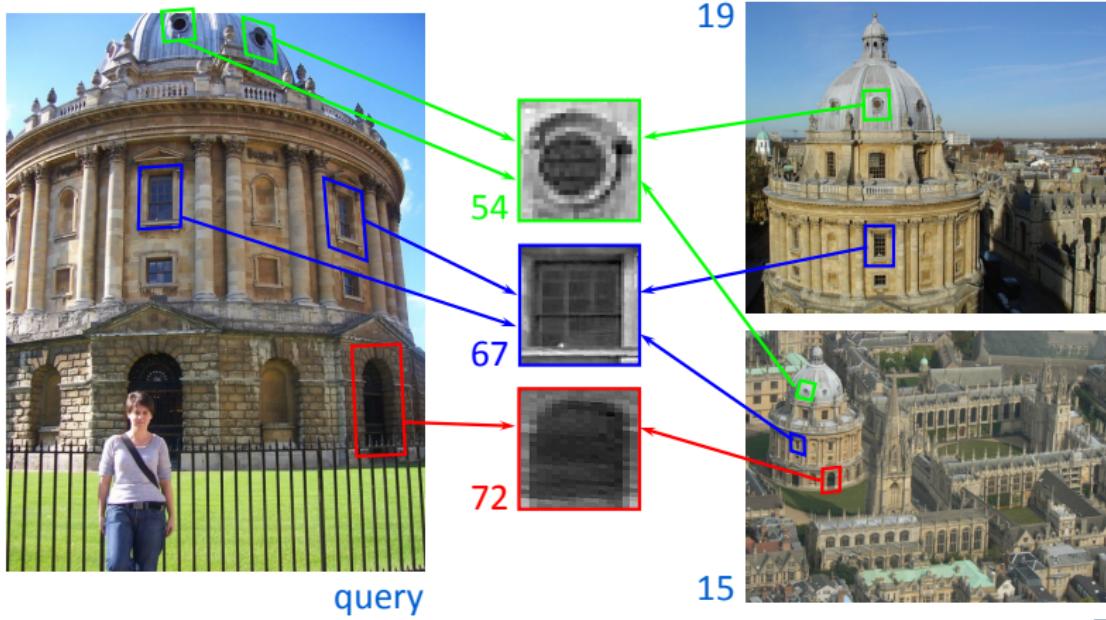


query



- let's quantize them into visual words

vector quantization → visual words



- now visual words act as a proxy; no pairwise matching needed

bag-of-words and “cosine” similarity

- each image is represented by a single vector $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, where k is the size of the codebook
- each element $z_i = w_i n_i$ where w_i fixed weight per visual word and n_i the number of occurrences of this word in the image
- this vector then typically normalized, e.g. $\|\mathbf{z}\|_1 = 1$ or $\|\mathbf{z}\|_2 = 1$
- given two images represented by \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y} , similarity is measured by dot product

$$s(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y}) = s_{\text{BoW}}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

- with ℓ_2 normalization, this is equivalent to measuring Euclidean distance $\|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{y}\|$ because $\|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = 2(1 - \mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{y})$

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bag-of-words for retrieval

- given a set of n images represented by matrix $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ (each image as a column) and query image \mathbf{q} , we need a vector of similarities

$$\mathbf{s} = S_{\text{BoW}}(Z, \mathbf{q}) := Z^\top \mathbf{q}$$

and then sort \mathbf{s} by descending order

- when $k \gg m$, where p is the number of features per image on average, Z and \mathbf{q} are sparse
- rather than whether a word is contained in an image, ask which images contain a given word

bag-of-words for retrieval

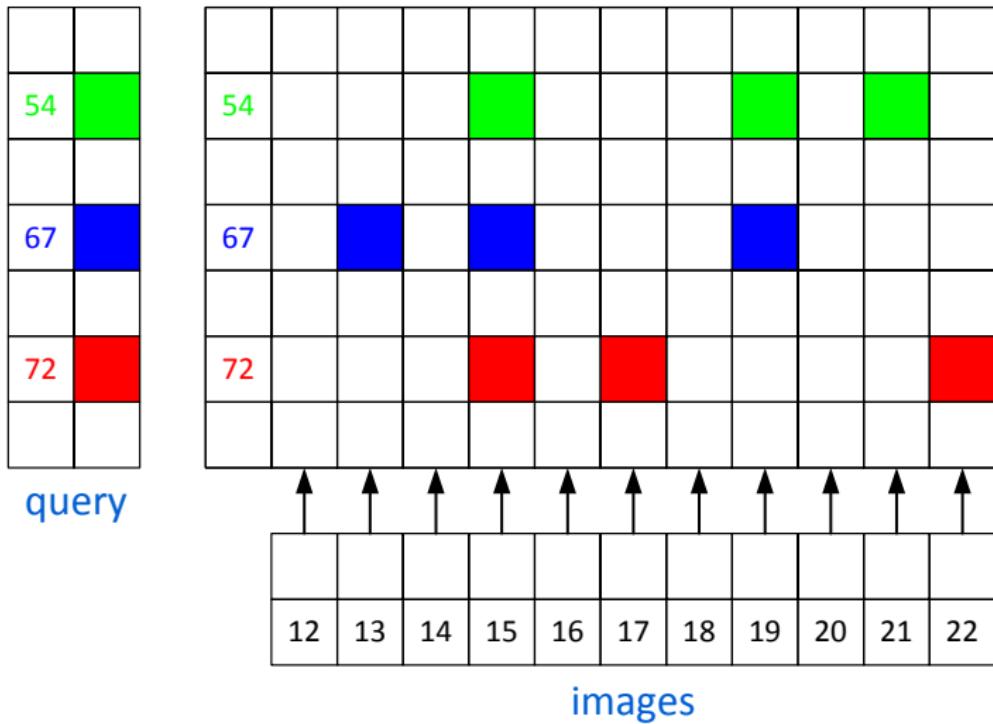
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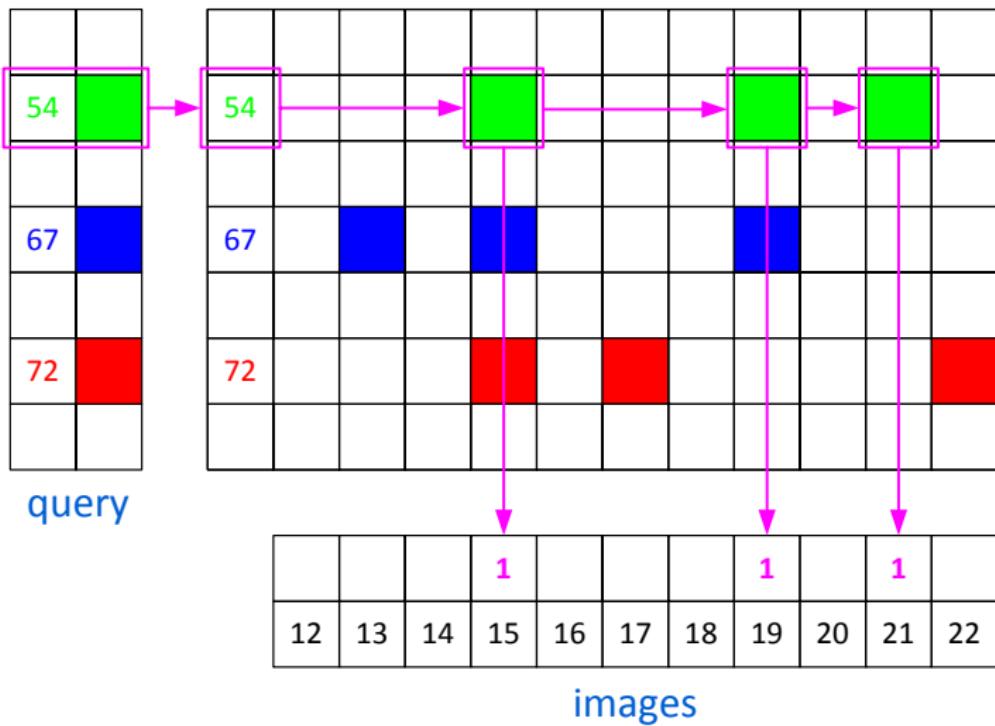
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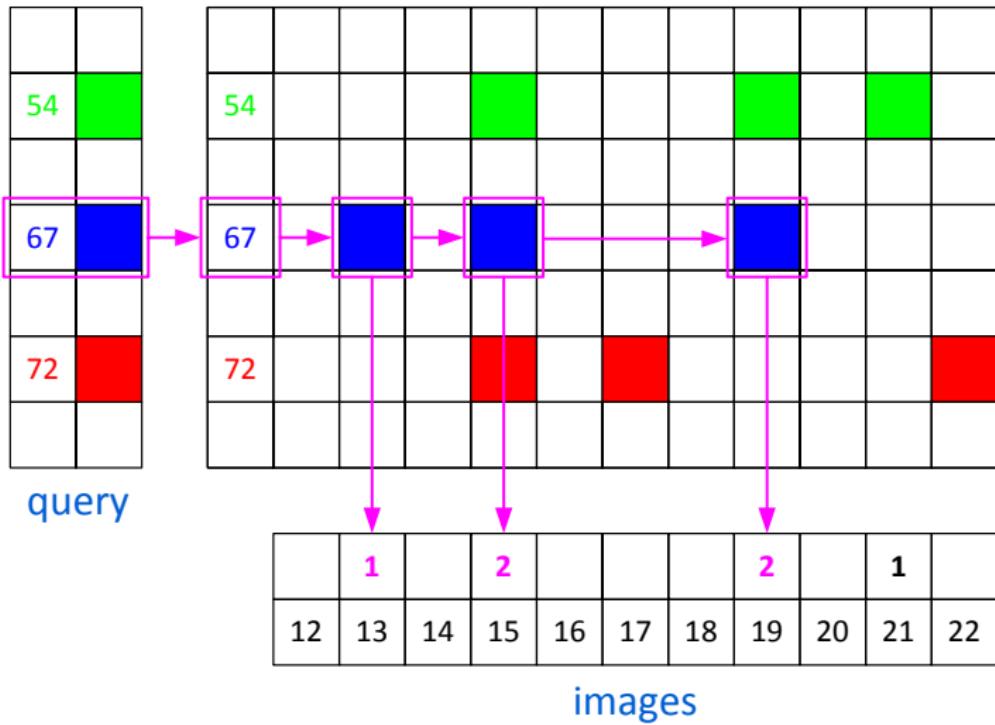
inverted file indexing



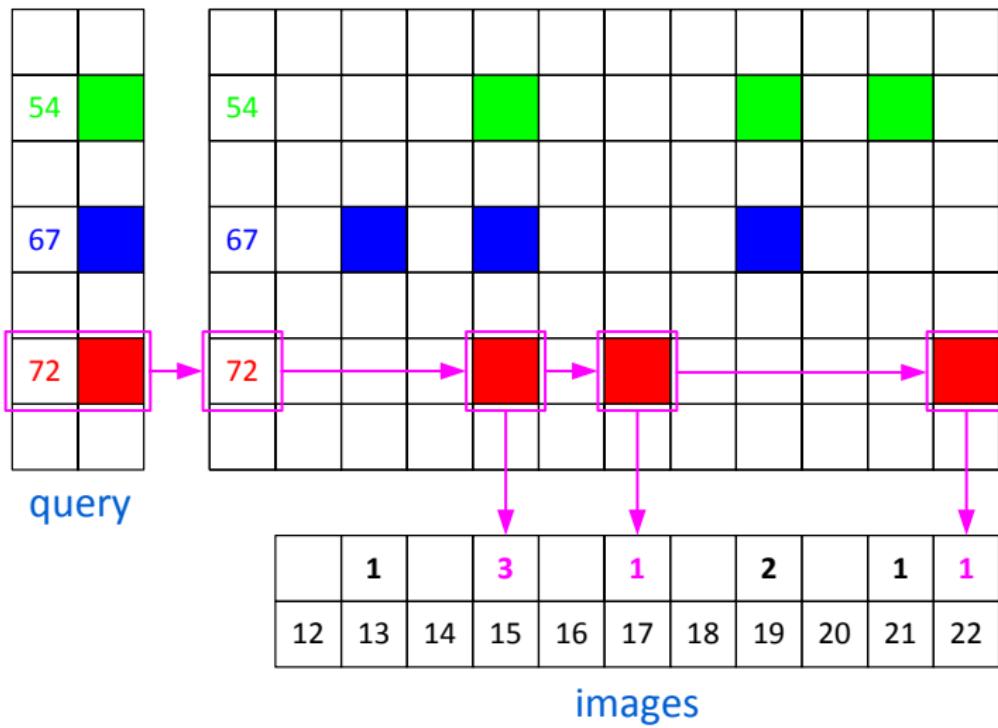
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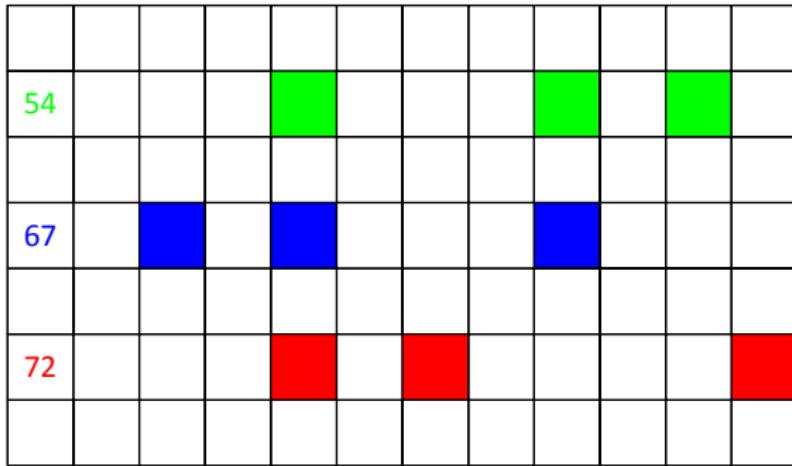
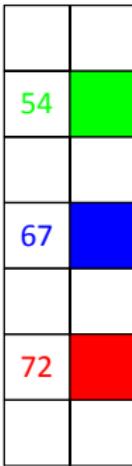
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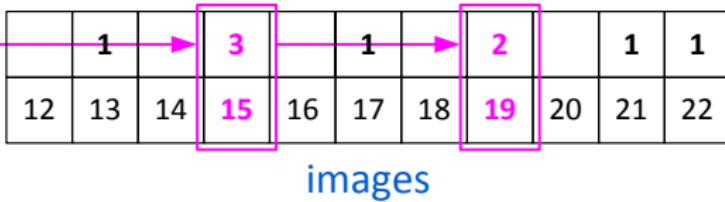


inverted file indexing



query

ranked shortlist



back to geometry: re-ranking

- dot product similarity is fast but quantized descriptors are not discriminative enough; performs poorly in the presence of distractors
- perform spatial matching only on **top-ranking** images, and re-ranking according to a score based on geometry, e.g. number of inliers
- but to save space, **descriptors are not available**: tentative correspondences are based on visual words, and there are too many (too many features are in correspondence if they are assigned to the same visual word)

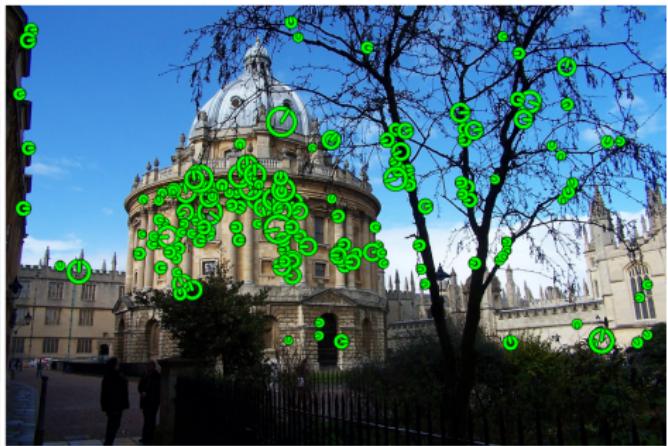
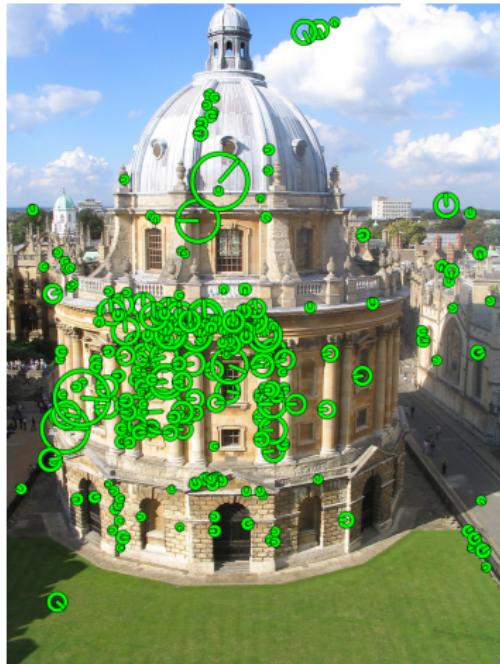
back to geometry: re-ranking



original images

Fischler and Bolles. CACM 1981. Random Sample Consensus: A Paradigm for Model Fitting With Applications to Image Analysis and Automated Cartography.

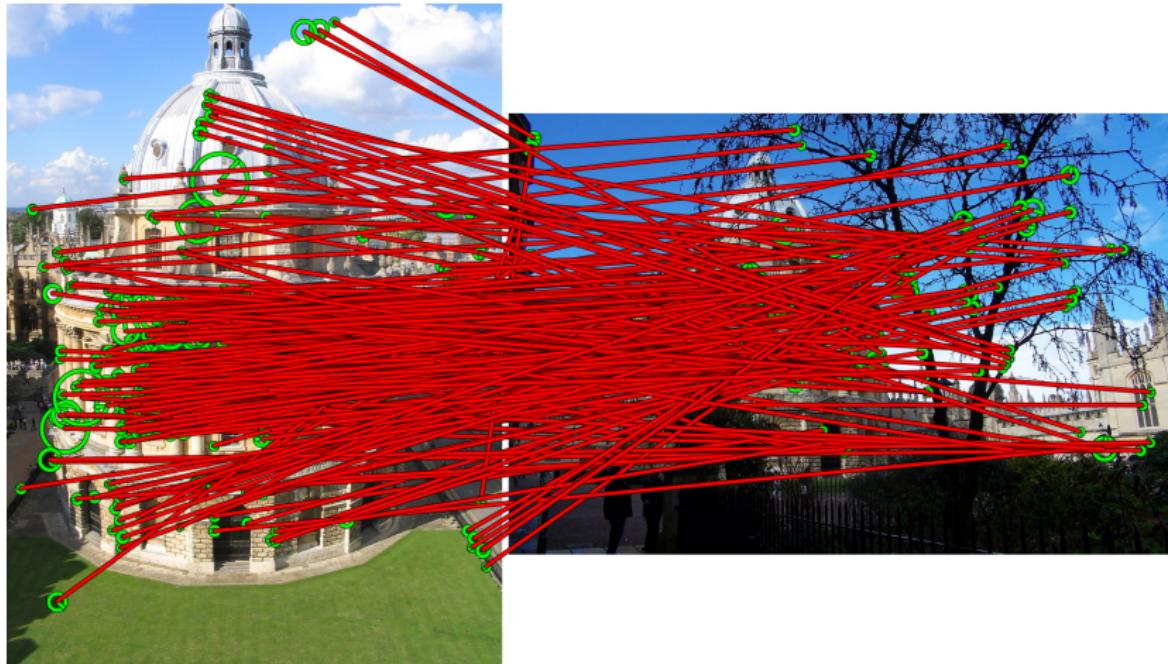
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local features

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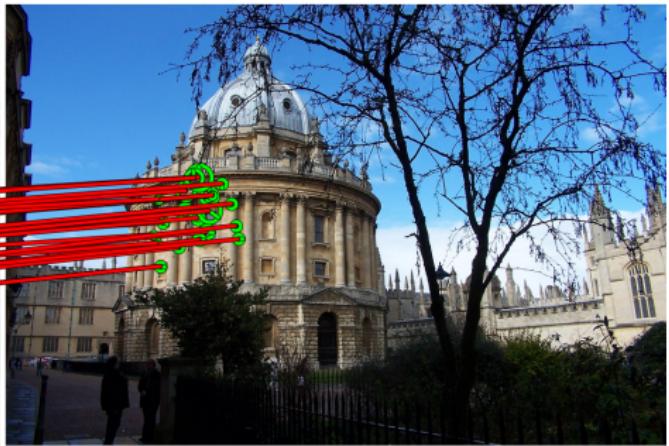
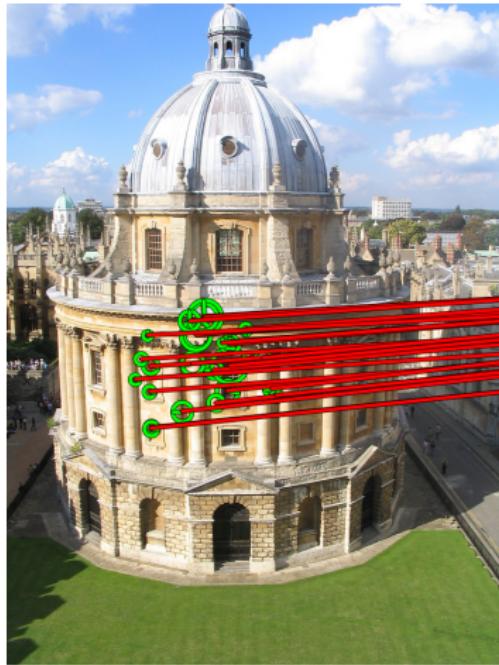
back to geometry: re-ranking



tentative correspondences: too many

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back to geometry: re-ranking



inliers: now more expensive to find

bag of words for classification

- each image represented by $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$; each element z_i the number of occurrences of visual word c_i in the image
- Naïve Bayes: chose maximum posterior probability of class C given image \mathbf{z} assuming features are independent → linear classifier with parameters estimated by visual word statistics on training set
- support vector machine (SVM): images \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y} compared by kernel function $\kappa(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y})$; if $\kappa(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{z}^\top \mathbf{y}$, this is again a linear classifier and is a standard choice at large scale

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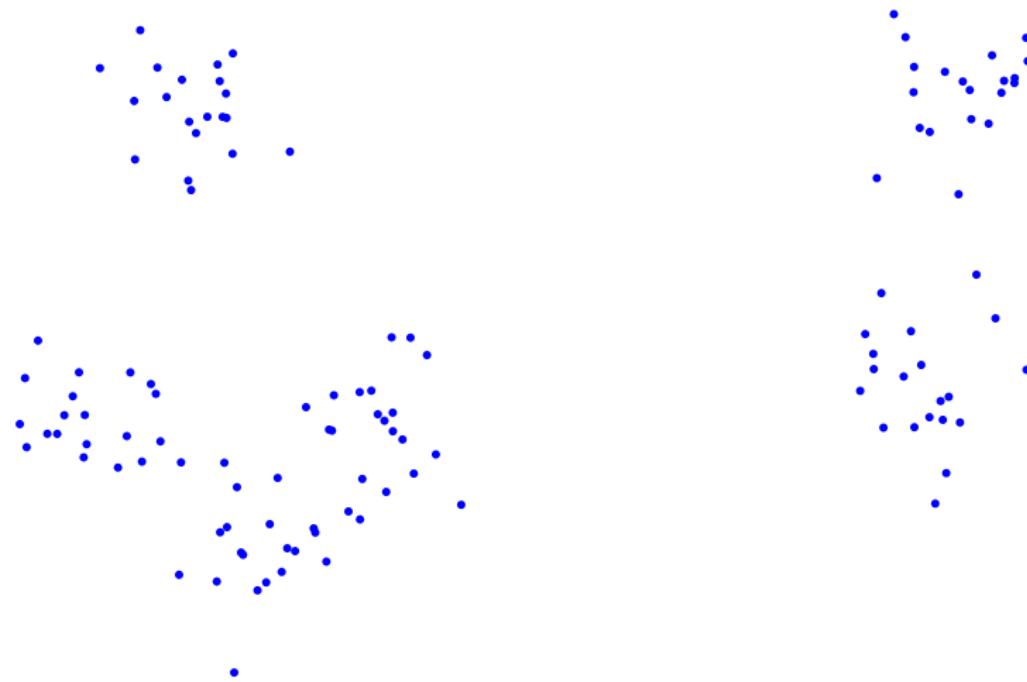
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codebooks

vector quantization: *k*-means clustering

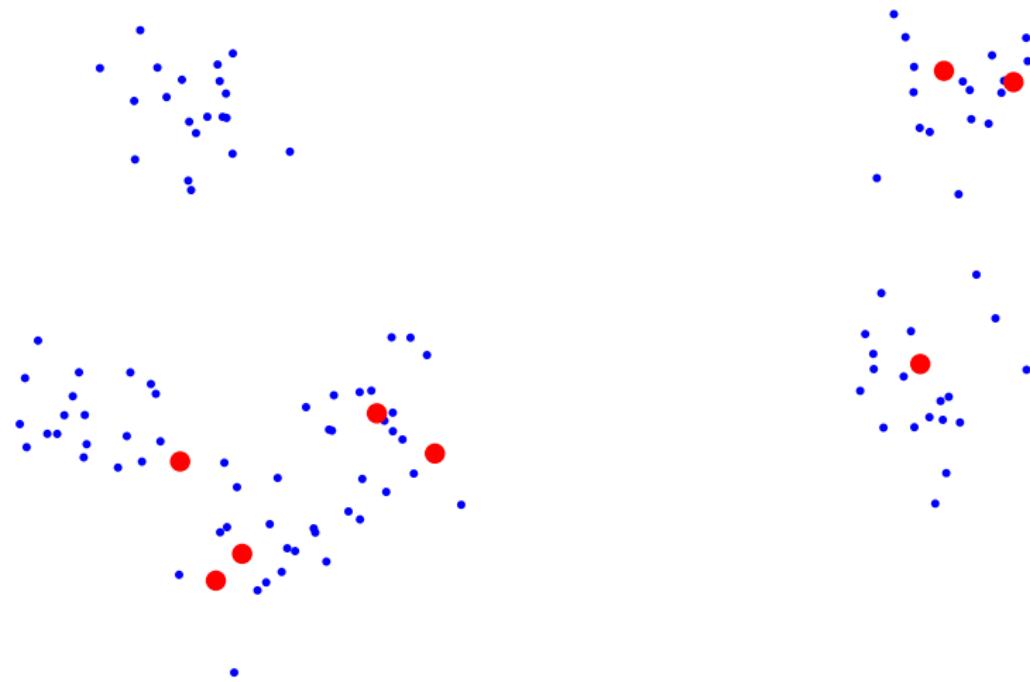
[MacQueen 1967]



dataset

vector quantization: k -means clustering

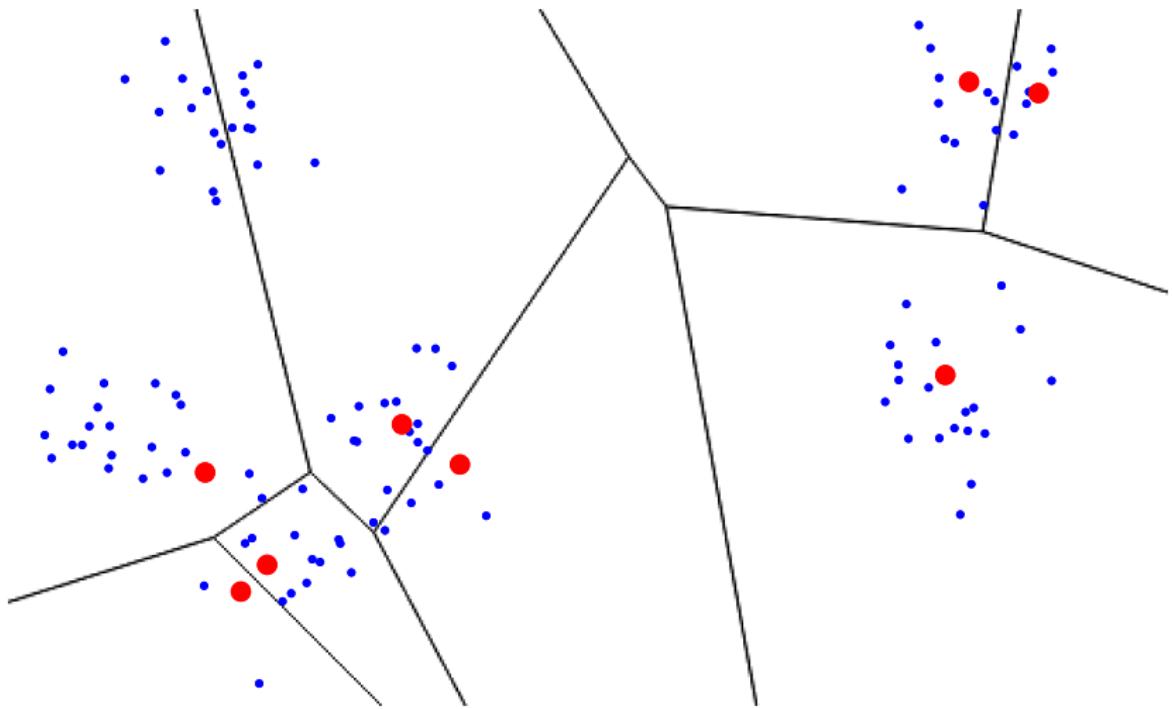
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initial centroids

vector quantization: *k*-means clustering

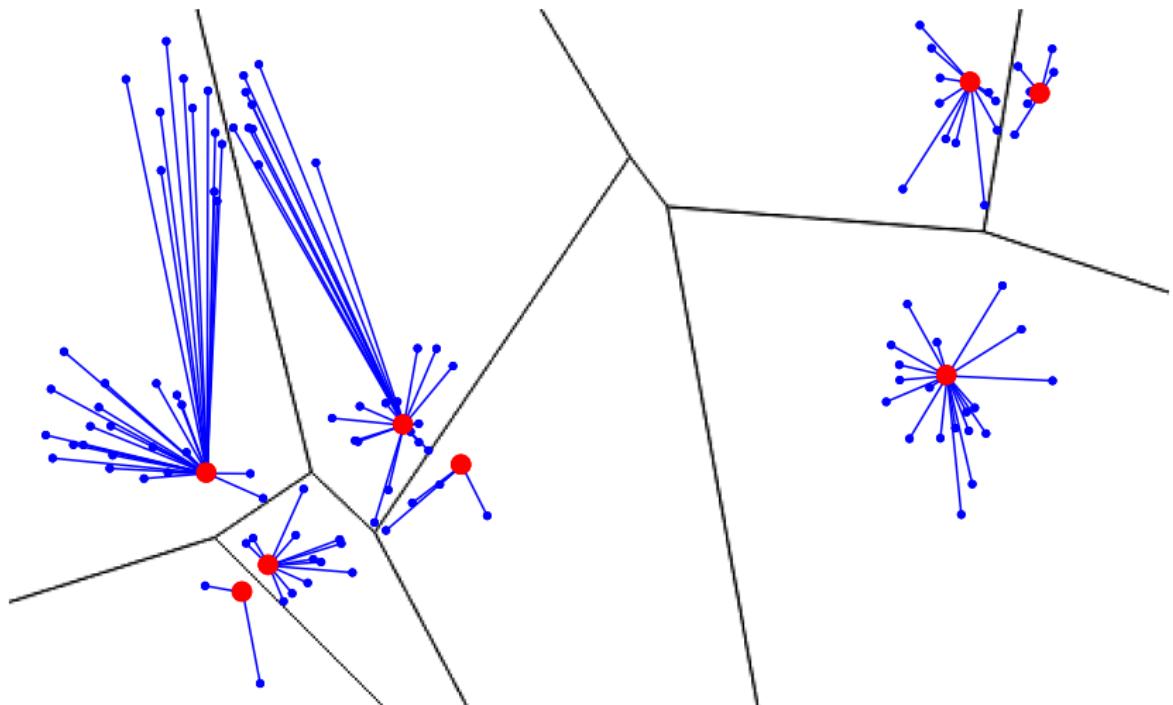
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Voronoi cells

vector quantization: k -means clustering

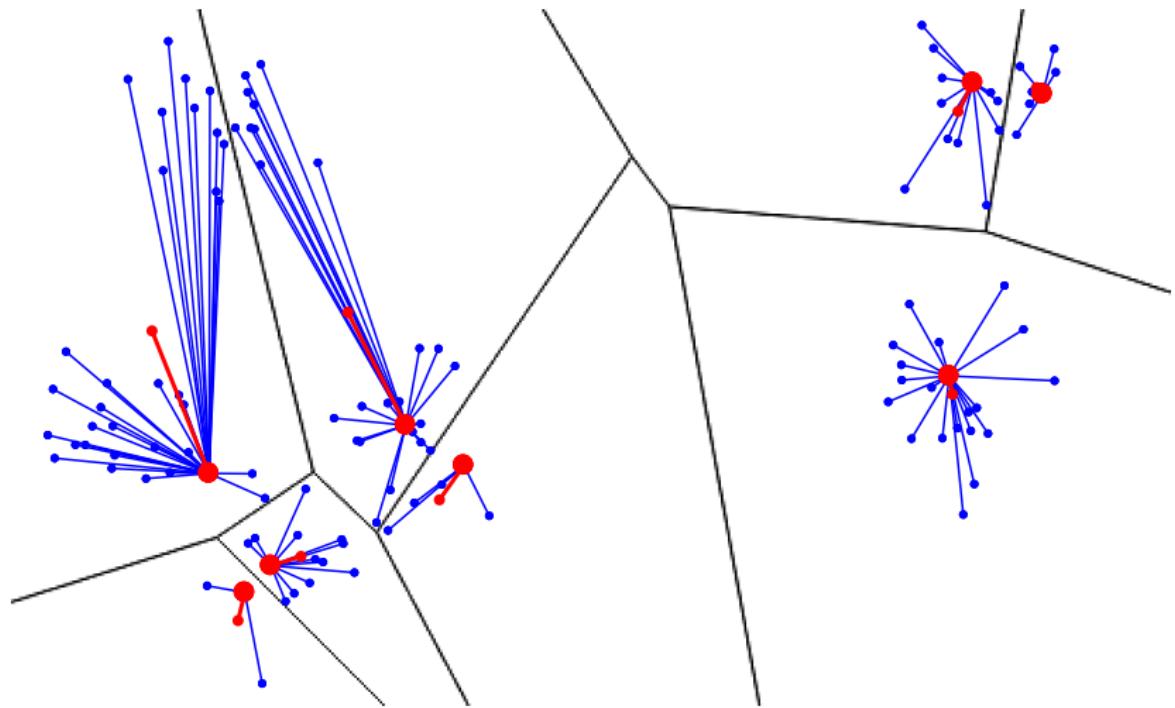
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points assigned to nearest centroids

vector quantization: k -means clustering

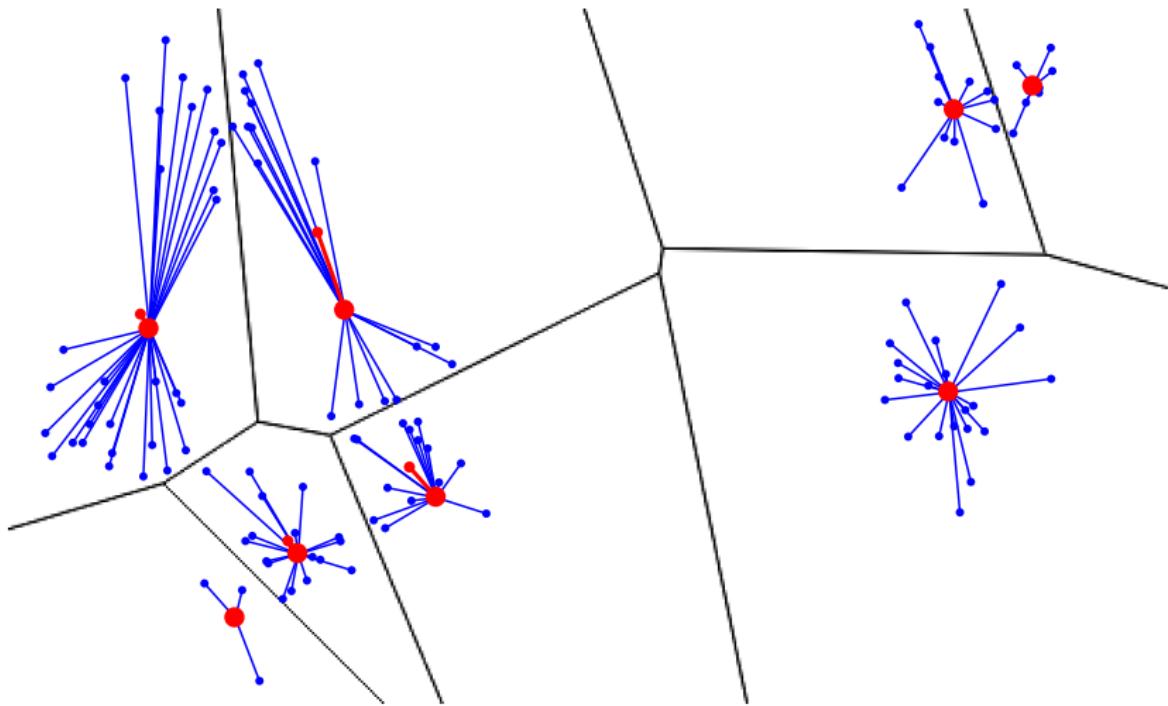
[MacQueen 1967]



centroids move to mean per cell

vector quantization: k -means clustering

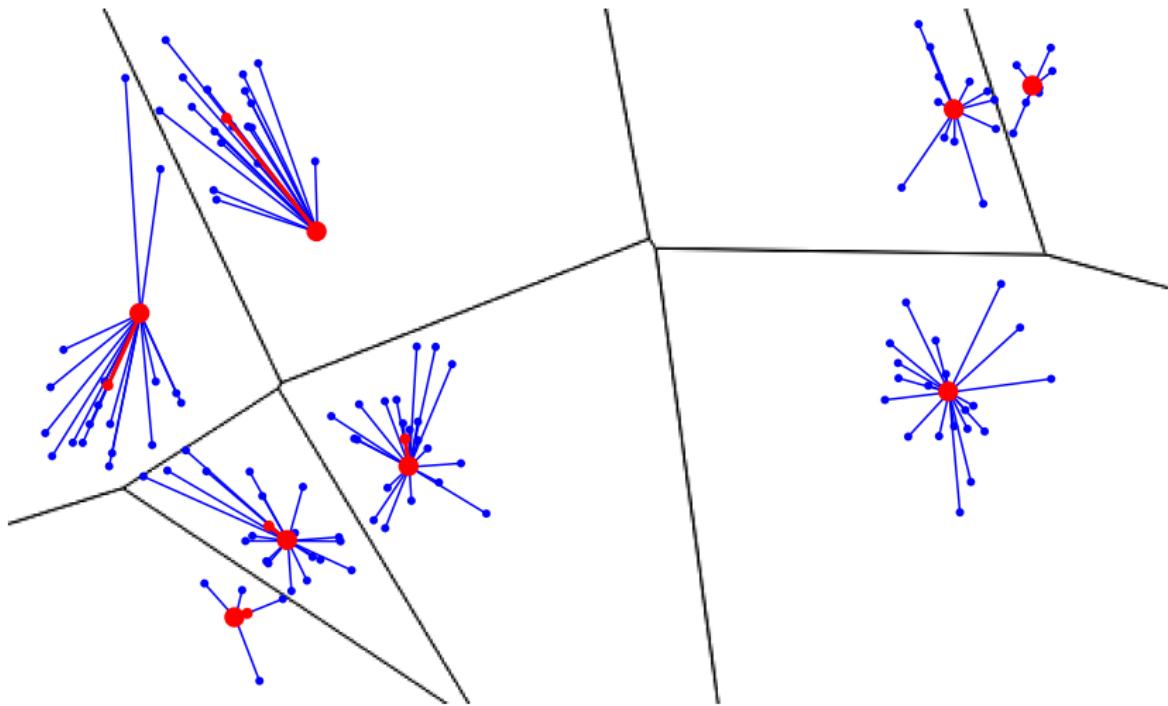
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iterate until convergence

vector quantization: k -means clustering

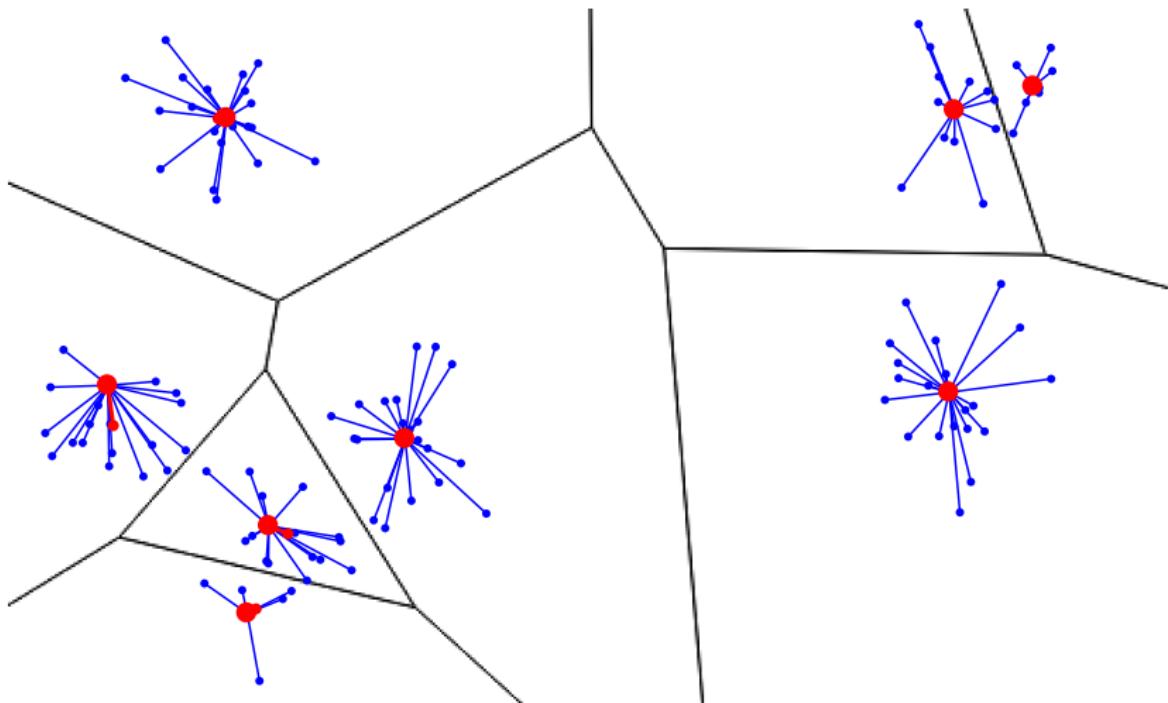
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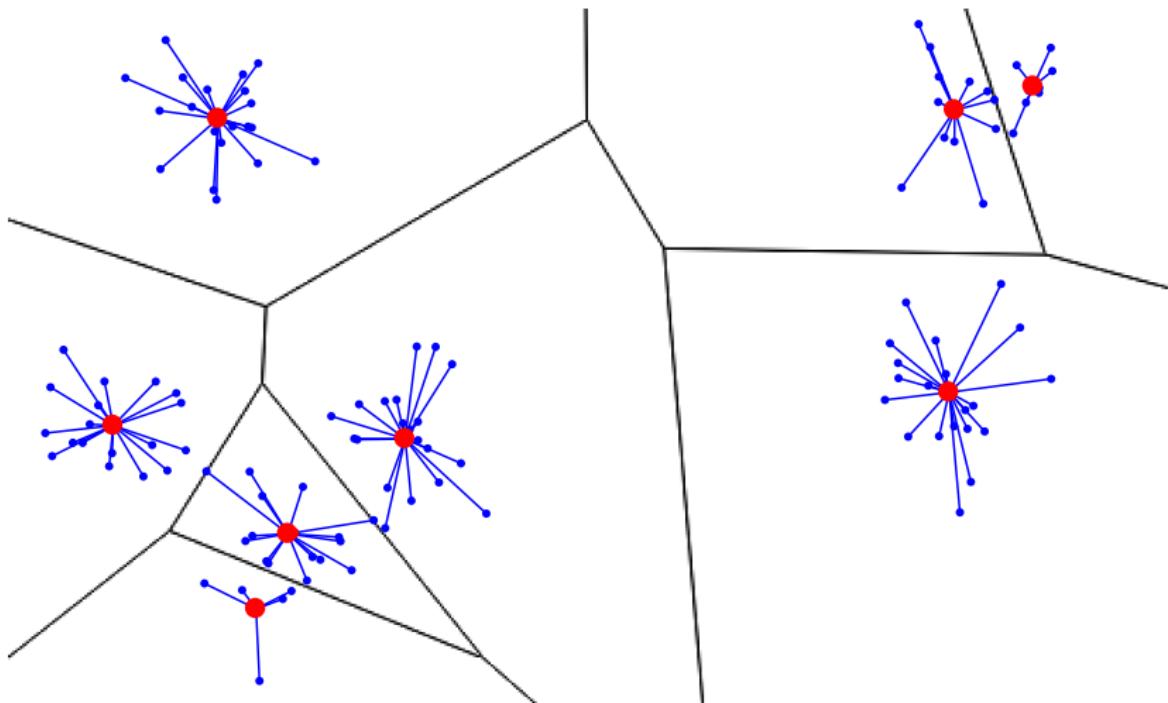
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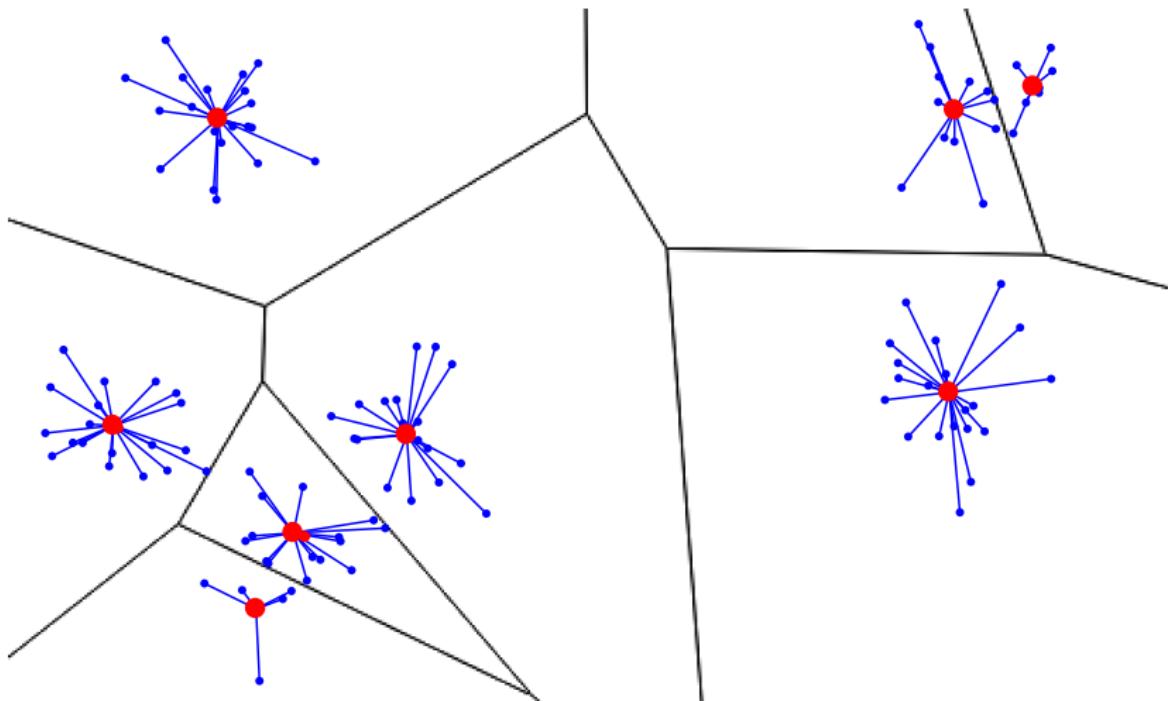
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vector quantization: k -means clustering

[MacQueen 1967]



iterate until convergence

vector quantization: *k*-means clustering

- objective: given dataset $X \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, find codebook $C \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, with $|C| = k$, and quantizer function $q : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow C$, minimizing distortion

$$E(C, q) := \sum_{x \in X} \|x - q(x)\|^2$$

- regardless of C , q should map vector x to its nearest centroid

$$q(x) = \arg \min_{c \in C} \|x - c\|$$

- algorithm: at each iteration, given the set $X_c = \{x \in X : q(x) = c\}$ of points assigned to centroid c , (assignment step), c moves to their mean (update step)

$$c \leftarrow \frac{1}{|X_c|} \sum_{x \in X_c} x$$

vector quantization: *k*-means clustering

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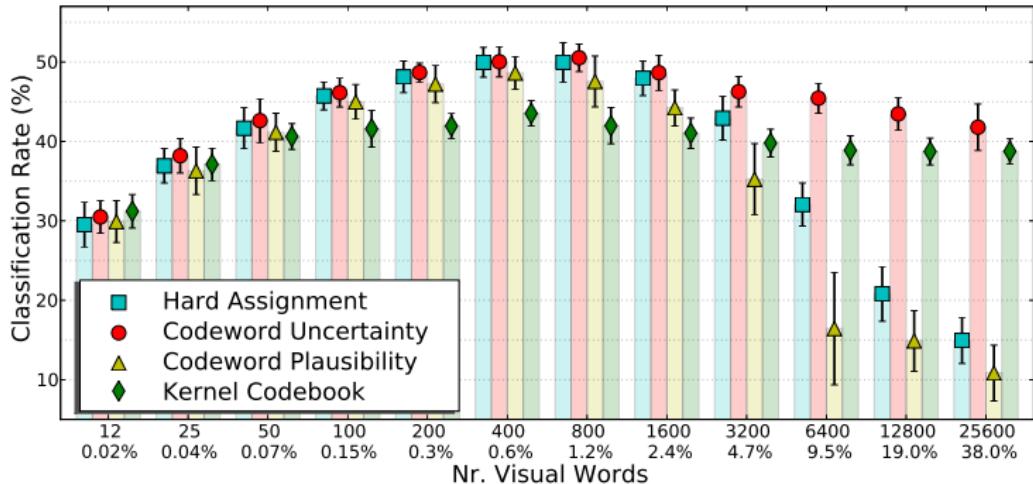
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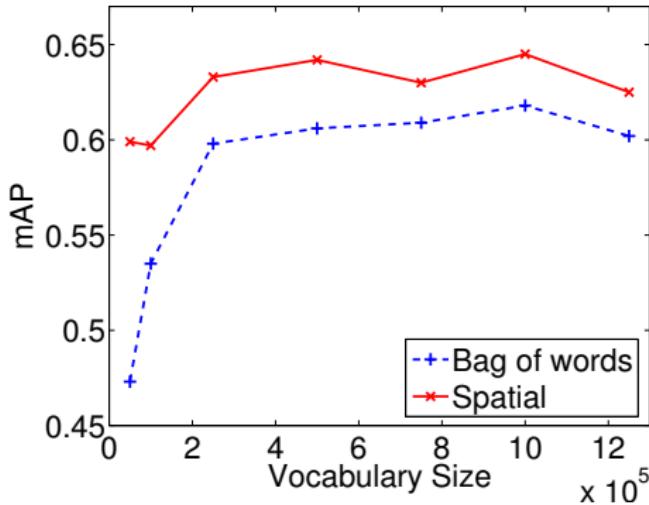
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codebook size



- classification: **thousands**
- depends on a lot of factors e.g. the number of features in the image representation and size and variability of the dataset

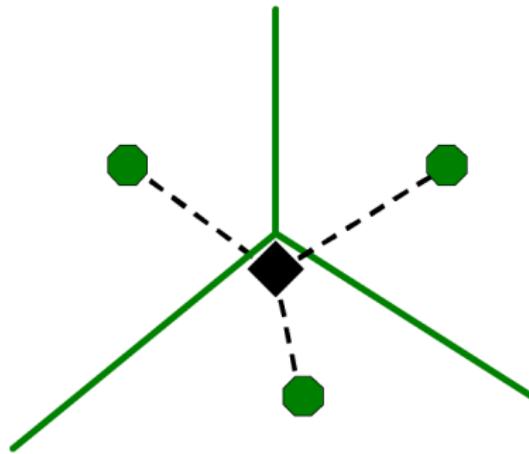
codebook size



- instance retrieval: millions
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hierarchical k -means (HKM)

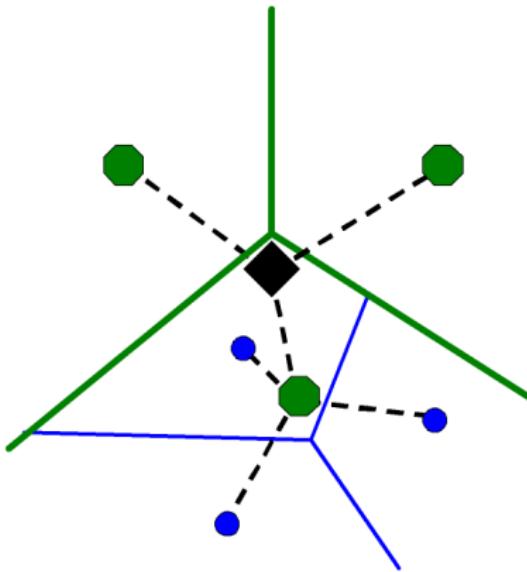
[Fukunaga and Narendra 1975]



- partition data into b clusters using k -means

hierarchical k -means (HKM)

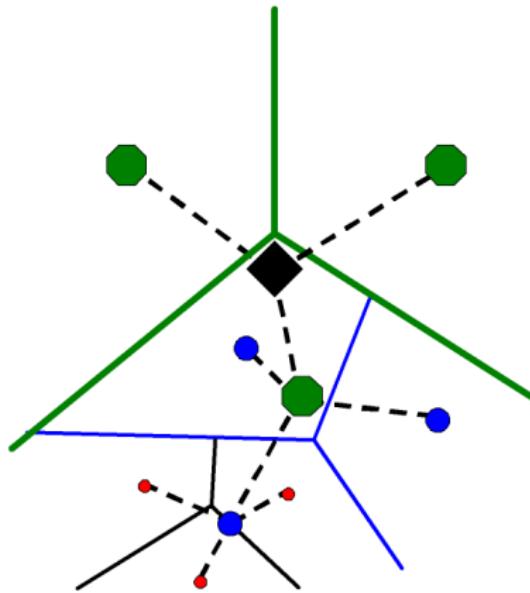
[Fukunaga and Narendra 1975]



- within each cluster, partition data into b clusters

hierarchical k -means (HKM)

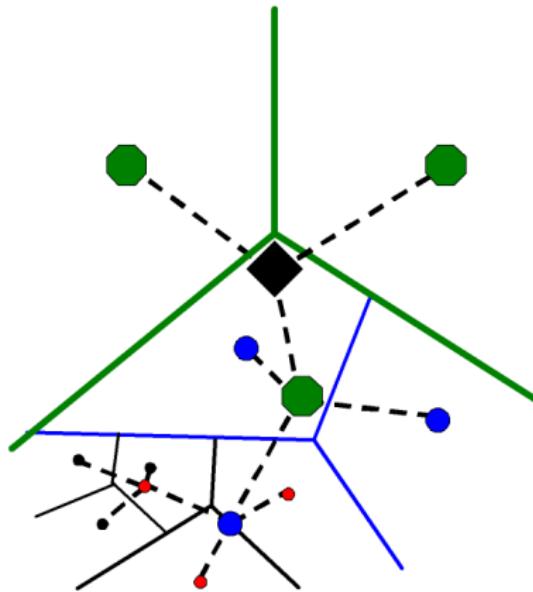
[Fukunaga and Narendra 1975]



- and repeat; b is called the **branching factor**

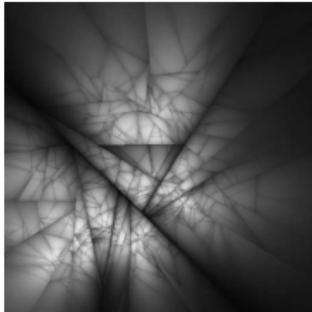
hierarchical k -means (HKM)

[Fukunaga and Narendra 1975]

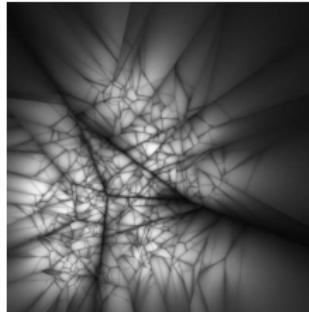


- at ℓ levels, there are b^ℓ total clusters

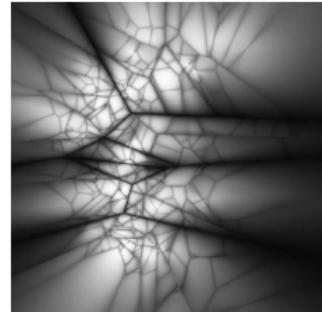
hierarchical k -means



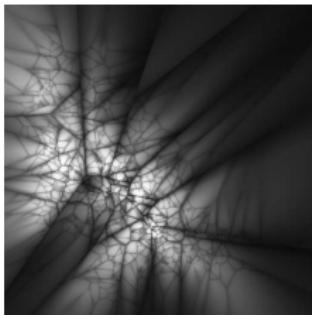
$b = 2$



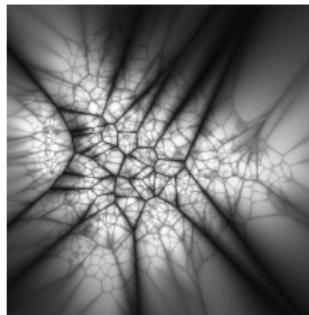
$b = 4$



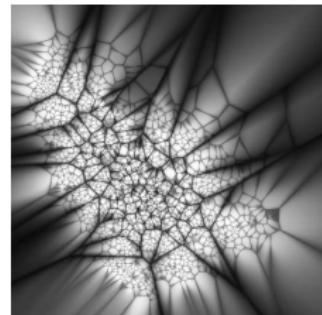
$b = 8$



$b = 16$



$b = 32$

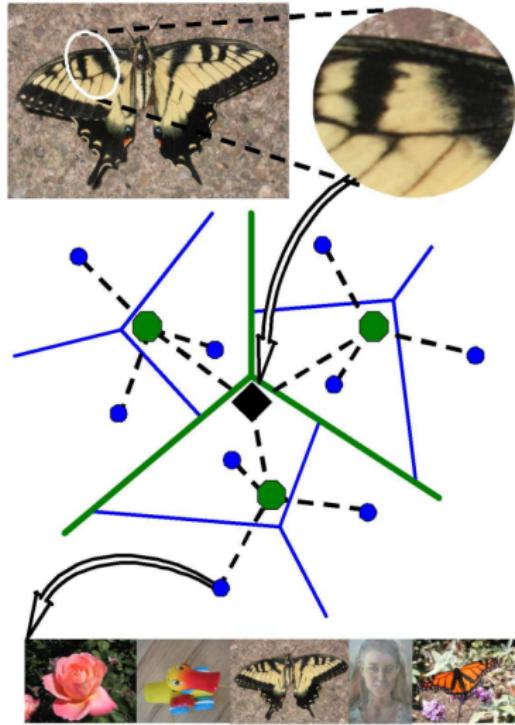


$b = 128$

- intensity: ratio of first to second neighbor distance

vocabulary tree

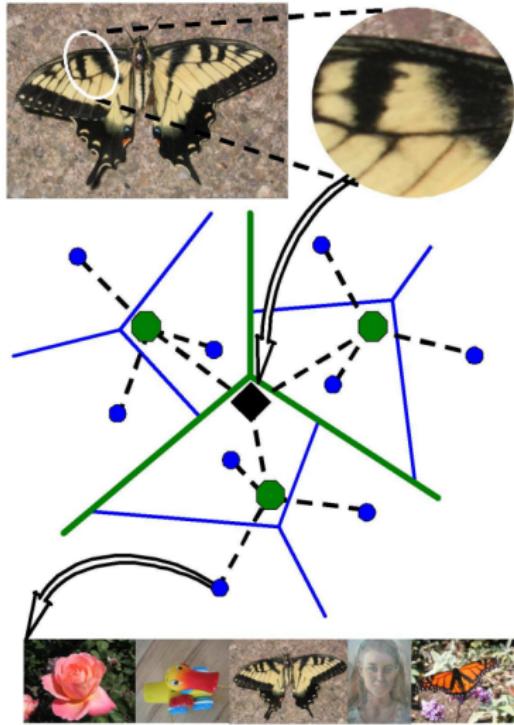
[Nister and Stewenius. CVPR 2006]



- apply k -means hierarchically and build a fine partition tree
 - descriptors descend from root to leaves by finding nearest node at each level
 - image represented by $x_i = w_i n_i$ as in BoW, but now there is one element per node including internal nodes
 - dataset searched by inverted files at leaves

vocabulary tree

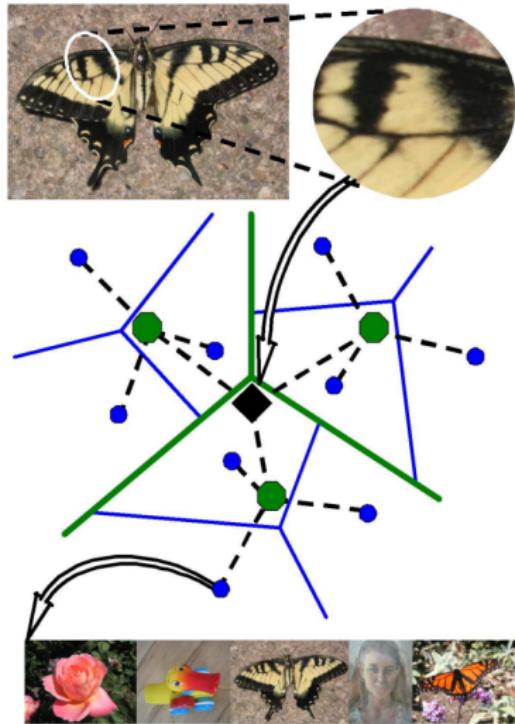
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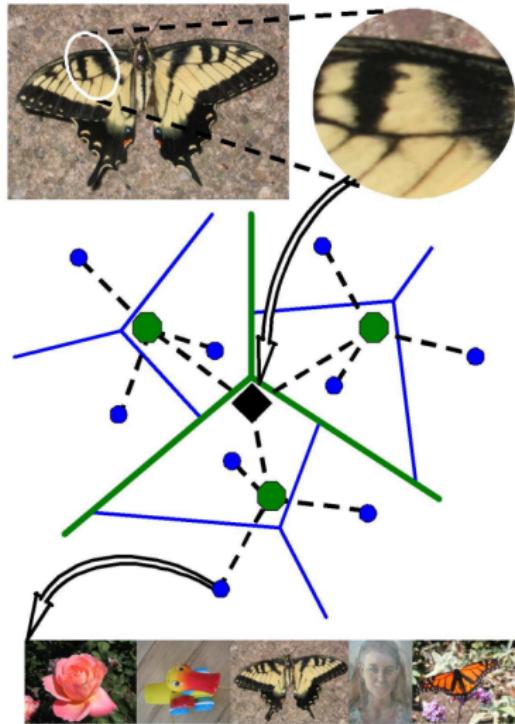


however:

- no principled way of defining w_i across levels
- distortion minimized only locally; points get assigned to leaves that are not globally nearest

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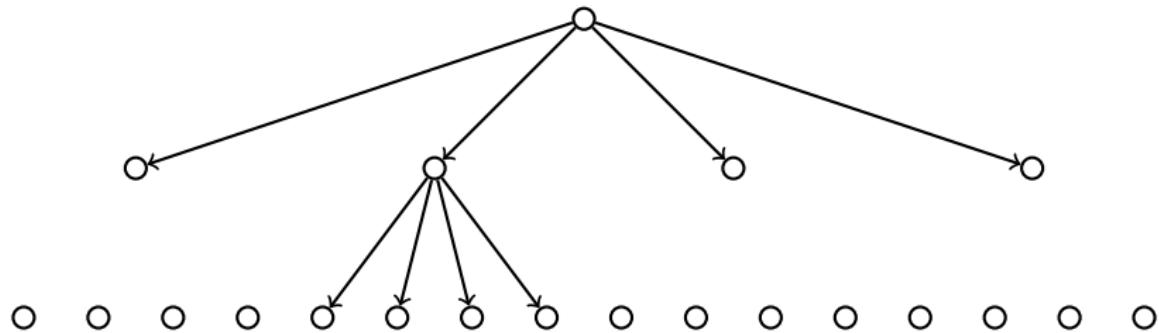


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approximate k -means (AKM)

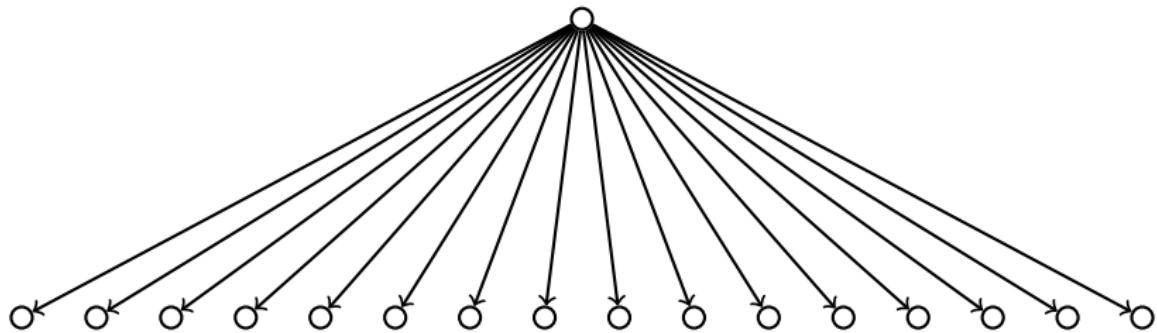
[Philbin et al. 2007]



- with branching factor $b = 10$ and $\ell = 6$ levels, HKM yields $k = 10^6$ visual words; complexity is $O(nbl)$
- search through multiple randomized trees (comparison to HKM in color)

approximate k -means (AKM)

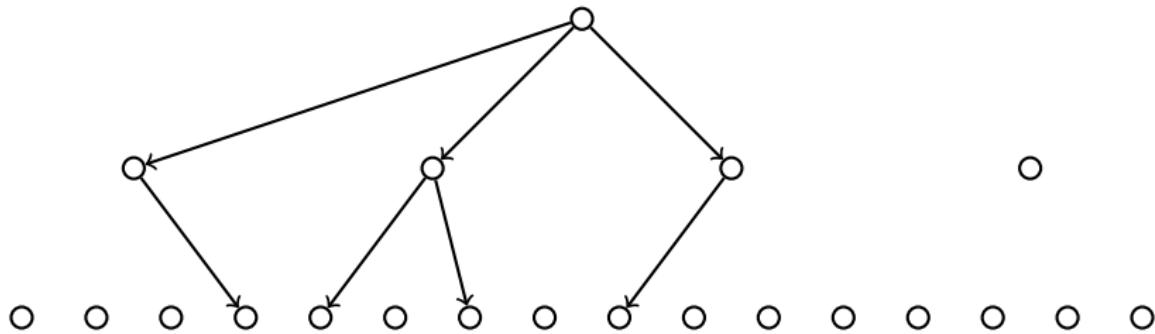
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- flat k -means with e.g. $n = 10^7$ points and $k = 10^6$ centroids is prohibitive; complexity is $O(nk)$, because each assignment is $O(k)$
- search through multiple randomized trees (comparison to HKM in color)

approximate k -means (AKM)

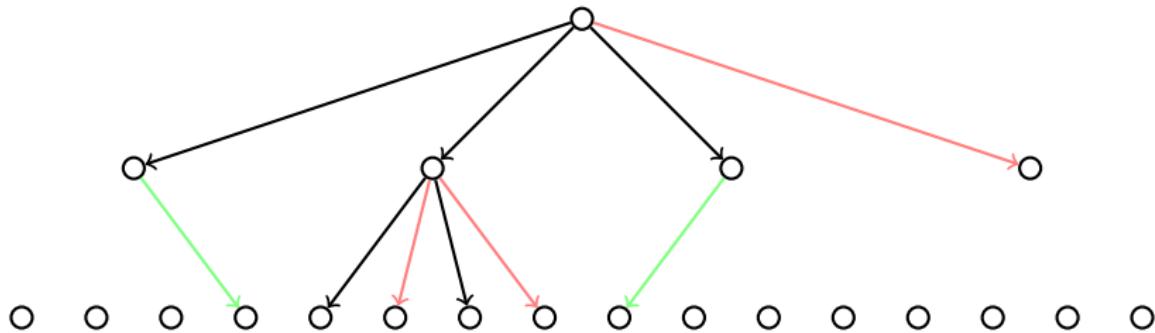
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- **approximate nearest neighbor search** to find the nearest centroid: each assignment is now $O(\log k)$, and complexity drops to $O(n \log k)$
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approximate k -means (AKM)

- if the sole purpose of the hierarchy is to **accelerate assignment**, both at learning and at search, it is better to use a flat vocabulary combined with a more principled nearest neighbor search method
- however, with appropriate **node weighting**, a hierarchical structure can help (see pyramid matching later on)

pipeline, again

- given **codebook** $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$
- given image with descriptors $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ at positions $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ into $\mathbf{a}_i \in \mathbb{R}^k$
- encode each descriptor x_i into $\mathbf{a}_i \in \mathbb{R}^k$

$$\mathbf{a}_i := F(x_i; C) := (f(x_i, c_1; C), \dots, f(x_i, c_k; C))$$

- pool each spatial region $R_j, j = 1, \dots, m$ into $\mathbf{z}^j \in \mathbb{R}^k$

$$\mathbf{z}^j := g(\{\mathbf{a}_i : y_i \in R_j\})$$

- concatenate into $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{km}$

$$\mathbf{z} := (\mathbf{z}^1; \dots; \mathbf{z}^m)$$

- global pooling is just $m = 1$

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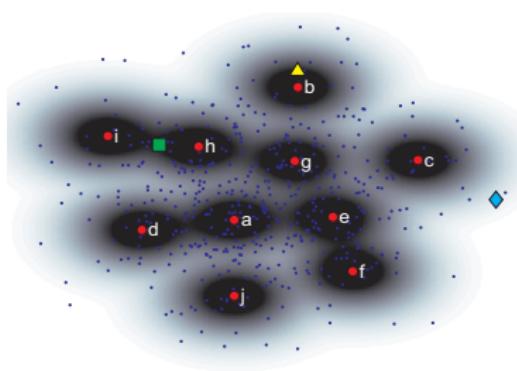
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soft assignment

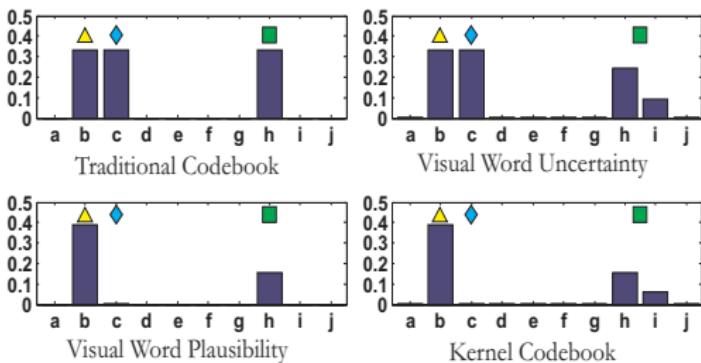
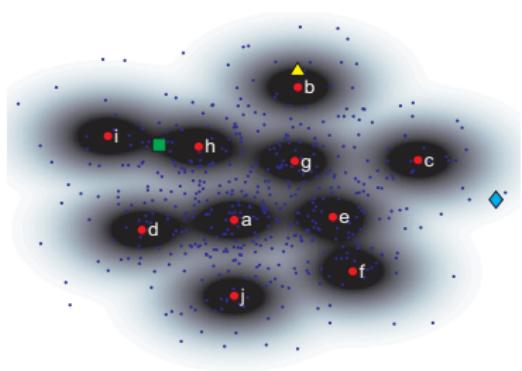
[van Gemert et al. 2008]



- ▲: ok; ■: ambiguous; ◆: not represented
- left: assigned to nearest neighbor; right: to all visual words with different weights
- top: total weight normalized to one; bottom: depends on distance

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soft assignment

- r -nearest neighbors of x in C : $\text{NN}_C^r(x)$
- kernel function

$$h(x) = h_G(x; \sigma) := \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})(x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{\|x\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- encoding descriptor x into visual word c

$f(x, c; C)$	visual word	
	nearest	all
fixed weight	$\mathbb{1}[c \in \text{NN}_C^1(x)]$ “BoW”	$\frac{h(x-c)}{\sum_j h(x-c_j)}$ “uncertainty”
variable weight	$\mathbb{1}[c \in \text{NN}_C^1(x)]h(x - c)$ “plausibility”	$h(x - c)$ “kernel”

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soft assignment

- on classification: best model is “uncertainty”

$$f(x, c; C) = \frac{h(x - c)}{\sum_j h(x - c_j)}$$

- it is better to contribute to visual words even if all are far away
- we shall see this is the softmax of negative distances $-\|x - c\|^2$
- it is also the responsibility of visual word c for descriptor x in a Gaussian mixture model with C as components

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soft assignment

[Liu et al. 2011]

- on classification: it turns out, it is better to limit contributions to r nearest neighbors

$$f(x, c; C) = \mathbb{1}[c \in \text{NN}_C^r(x)] \frac{h(x - c)}{\sum_j h(x - c_j)}$$

- this is attributed to respecting the manifold structure of the data, and it superior to more expensive sparse coding that have been proposed in the meantime

soft assignment

[Philbin et al. 2008]

- on retrieval: “kernel” is followed on r nearest neighbors

$$f(x, c; C) = \mathbb{1}[c \in \text{NN}_C^r(x)] h(x - c)$$

- it is better to discard descriptors if they are not well represented
- r should be small: this applies to dataset images and increases the required index space and query time (including spatial matching) by r

soft assignment

[Philbin et al. 2008]

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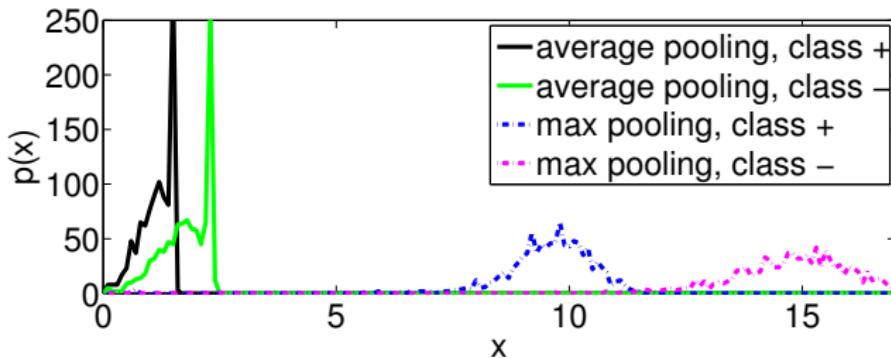
multiple assignment

[Jégou et al. 2010]

- on retrieval: same as before, but now applies only to query images
- $f(x, c; C)$ further limited to visual words at distance $\leq \alpha d_1$ from x , where d_1 is the distance of $\text{NN}_C^1(x)$
- index space maintained as in standard hard assignment, but query time is still increased by r

max pooling vs. average pooling

[Boureau et al. 2010]



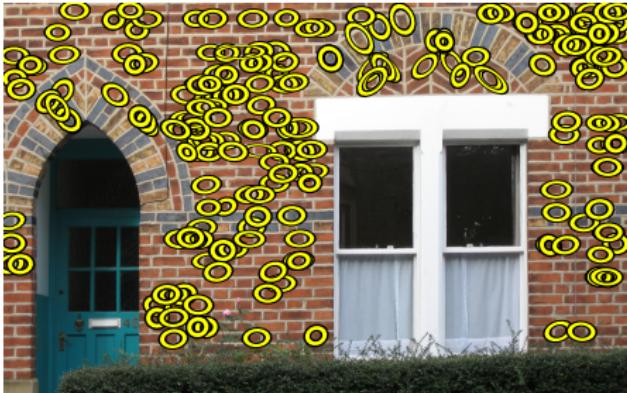
- on classification: max-pooling superior to average pooling

$$g_{\max}(A) = \left(\max_{\mathbf{a} \in A} a_1, \dots, \max_{\mathbf{a} \in A} a_k \right) \quad g_{\text{avg}}(A) = \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{\mathbf{a} \in A} \mathbf{a}$$

- with max-pooling, SVM with linear and nonlinear kernel perform nearly the same

burstiness

[Jégou et al. 2009]

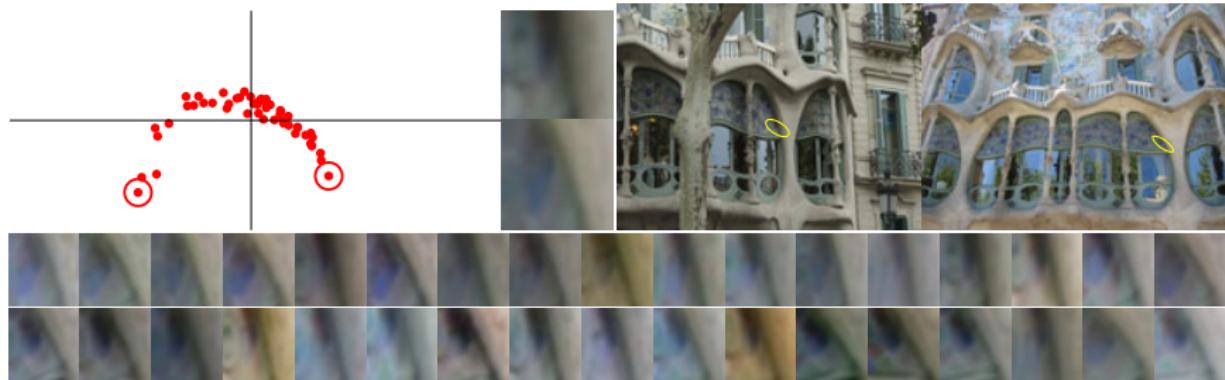


- **burstiness:** descriptors appear more frequently than a statistically independent model predicts; it hurts performance because bursty features dominate the image similarity
- **on retrieval:** the situation is more complex here; max-pooling would be like keeping only one representative per cell, average pooling like keeping all, but none is the best choice

beyond codebooks

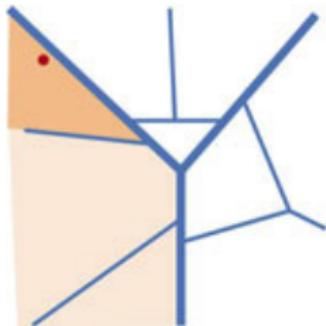
learning cell shapes

[Mikulik et al. 2010]

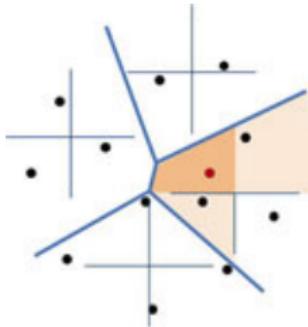


- **on retrieval:** matched across images in an entire dataset, features are connected into **feature tracks**
- feature tracks have curved shape in descriptor space, contrary to the Gaussian assumption—an example of **manifold structure**
- even if such structure cannot be captured by k -means, cells can still be connected via feature tracks → vocabulary of **16M words**

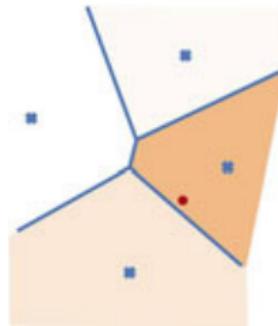
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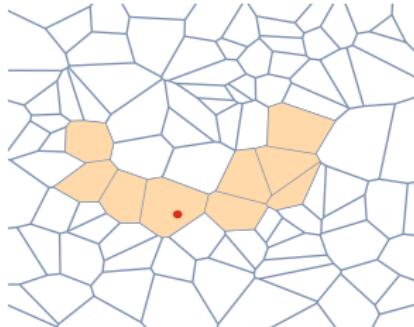
HKM



Hamming



soft assignment



learned

descriptor matching

- **on retrieval:** given two images with descriptors $X, Y \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, and recalling $X_c = \{x \in X : q(x) = c\}$, bag-of-words similarity on C is

$$\begin{aligned}s_{\text{BoW}}(X, Y) &\propto \sum_{c \in C} w_c |X_c| |Y_c| \\&= \sum_{c \in C} w_c \sum_{x \in X_c} \sum_{y \in Y_c} 1\end{aligned}$$

- if descriptors are available in some form (**more space**), it is better to use a more general function of the form

$$K(X, Y) := \gamma(X)\gamma(Y) \sum_{c \in C} w_c M(X_c, Y_c)$$

where M is a **within-cell** matching function and $\gamma(X)$ serves for normalization

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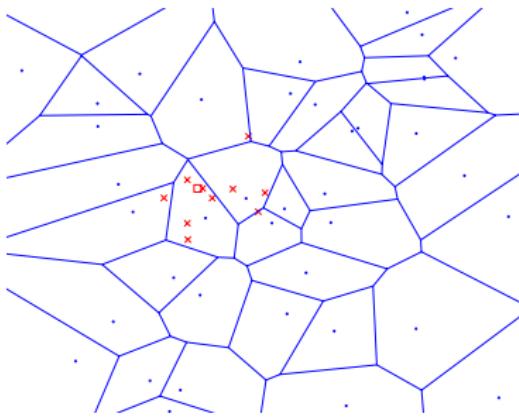
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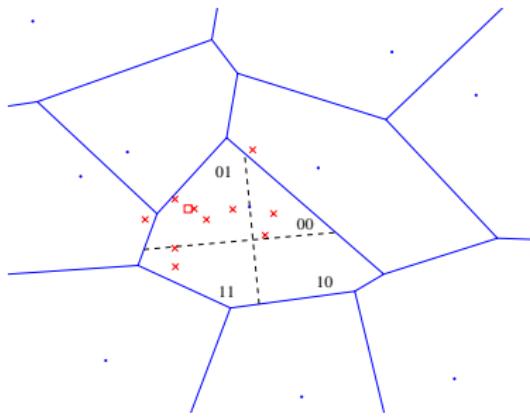
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Hamming embedding (HE)

[Jégou et al. 2008]



fine vocabulary



Hamming embedding

- each descriptor x is **binarized** into $b(x) \in \{0, 1\}^d$
- pairs within cells are kept only if **Hamming distance** is at most τ

$$M_{\text{HE}}(X_c, Y_c) := \sum_{x \in X_c} \sum_{y \in Y_c} \mathbb{1}[d_{\text{H}}(b(x), b(y)) \leq \tau]$$

aggregated selective match kernel (ASMK)

[Tolias et al. 2013]

- borrow from HE the idea that descriptor pairs are **selected** by a nonlinear function

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$$M_{\text{VLAD}}(X_c, Y_c) := V(X_c)^\top V(Y_c) = \sum_{x \in X_c} \sum_{y \in Y_c} r(x)^\top r(y)$$

- combine pooling **within** cells with selectivity **between** cells

$$M_{\text{ASMK}}(X_c, Y_c) := \sigma_\alpha(\hat{V}(X_c)^\top \hat{V}(Y_c))$$

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aggregated selective match kernel (ASMK)



- apart from saving space, pooling and normalizing per cell helps fight burstiness
- still, unlike VLAD, due to the nonlinearity we cannot have a low dimensional embedding

efficient match kernels (EMK)

[Bo and Sminchisescu. NIPS 2009]

- on classification: given two images with descriptors $X, Y \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, bag-of-words similarity on C is

$$s_{\text{BoW}}(X, Y) \propto \sum_{c \in C} |X_c| |Y_c| = \sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} \mathbb{1}[q(x) = q(y)]$$

- use a continuous function $\kappa(x, y)$ instead, with no codebook

$$K(X, Y) := \gamma(X) \gamma(Y) \sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} \kappa(x, y)$$

- derive an approximate finite-dimensional feature map ϕ such that $\kappa(x, y) = \phi(x)^\top \phi(y)$, and

$$K(X, Y) = \left(\gamma(X) \sum_{x \in X} \phi(x) \right) \left(\gamma(Y) \sum_{y \in Y} \phi(y) \right) = \Phi(X)^\top \Phi(Y)$$

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efficient match kernels (EMK)

- given a function $K(X, Y)$ on sets X, Y in the form of a pairwise sum of **nonlinear** functions $\kappa(x, y)$ of the elements $x \in X, y \in Y$, we can decompose it into an inner product of $\Phi(X), \Phi(Y)$
- this can be done by
 - **encoding** $x \mapsto \phi(x)$
 - **pooling** $X \mapsto \Phi(X) = \gamma(X) \sum_{x \in X} \phi(x)$
- this is always possible for **positive-definite** functions κ but ϕ may be infinite-dimensional; in nonlinear SVM, it is only implicit through κ
- here, we are interested in an **explicit, low-dimensional** feature map ϕ , which can be designed or learned

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efficient match kernels (EMK)

- given a function $K(X, Y)$ on sets X, Y in the form of a pairwise sum of **nonlinear** functions $\kappa(x, y)$ of the elements $x \in X, y \in Y$, we can decompose it into an inner product of $\Phi(X), \Phi(Y)$
- this can be done by
 - **encoding** $x \mapsto \phi(x)$
 - **pooling** $X \mapsto \Phi(X) = \gamma(X) \sum_{x \in X} \phi(x)$
- this is always possible for **positive-definite** functions κ but ϕ may be infinite-dimensional; in nonlinear SVM, it is only implicit through κ
- here, we are interested in an **explicit, low-dimensional** feature map ϕ , which can be designed or learned

pyramid matching

histogram intersection

[Swain and Ballard 1991]

- the sum $\sum_{x \in X_c} \sum_{y \in Y_c} 1$ appearing in $s_{\text{BoW}}(X, Y)$ implies an **all-all** matching; it is often preferable to have an **one-one** matching instead



- given two histograms x, y of b bins, their **histogram intersection** is

$$\kappa_{\text{HI}}(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^b \min(x_i, y_i)$$

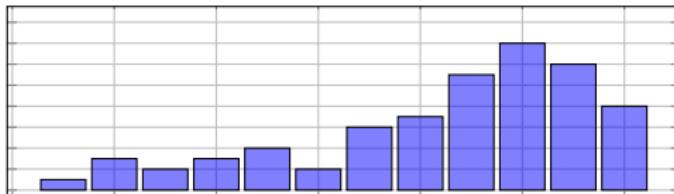
- this is related to ℓ_1 distance by

$$\|x - y\|_1 = \|x\|_1 + \|y\|_1 - 2\kappa_{\text{HI}}(x, y)$$

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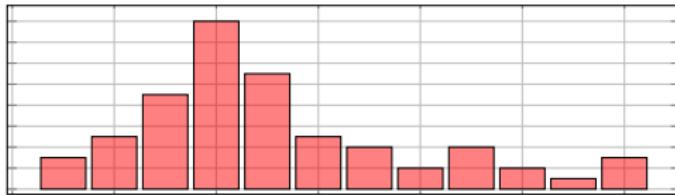
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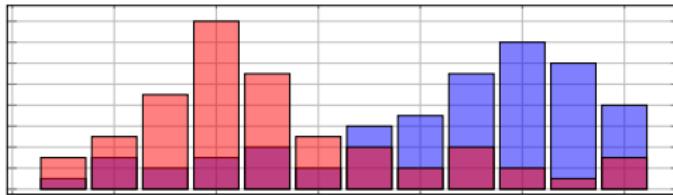
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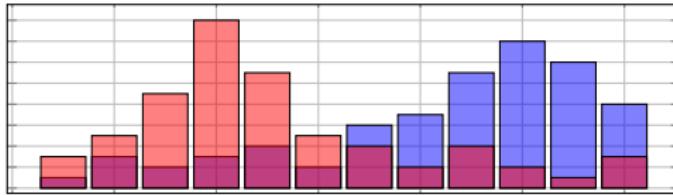
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pyramid match kernel (PMK)

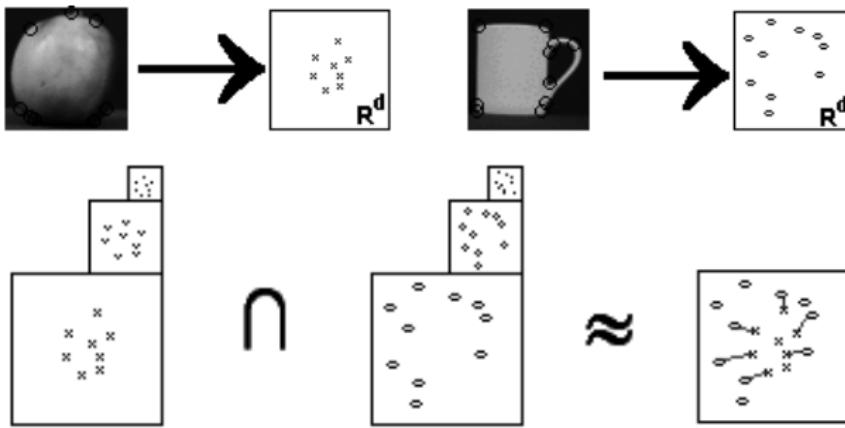
[Grauman and Darrell 2005]



- given the descriptors of two images as point sets X, Y in \mathbb{R}^d
- a weighted sum of histogram intersections at different levels approximates their optimal pairwise matching

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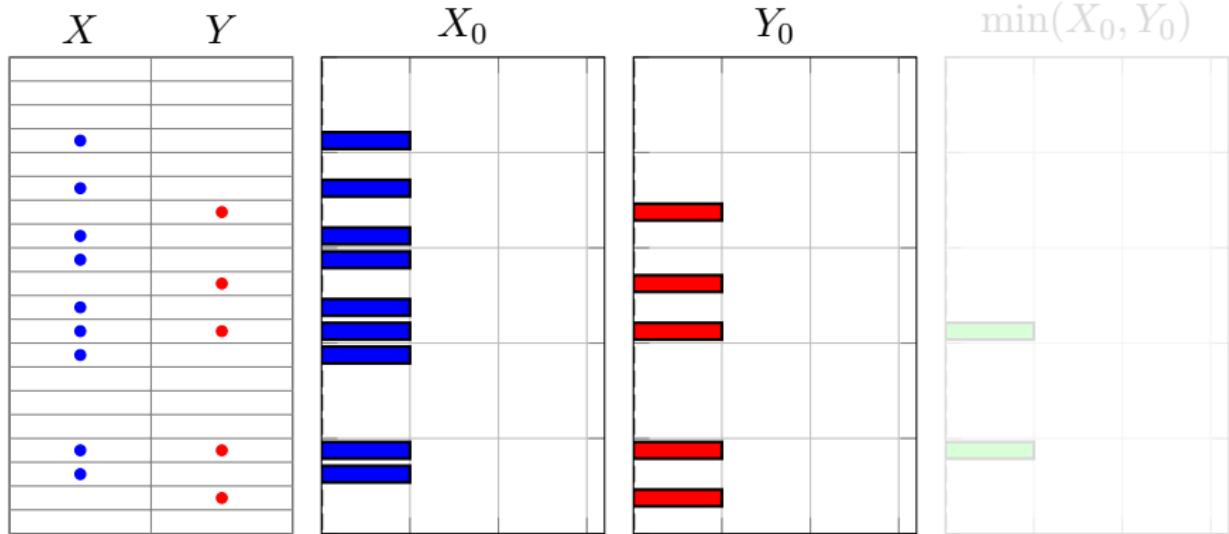
pyramid match kernel (PMK)



- 1d point sets X, Y on grid of size 1



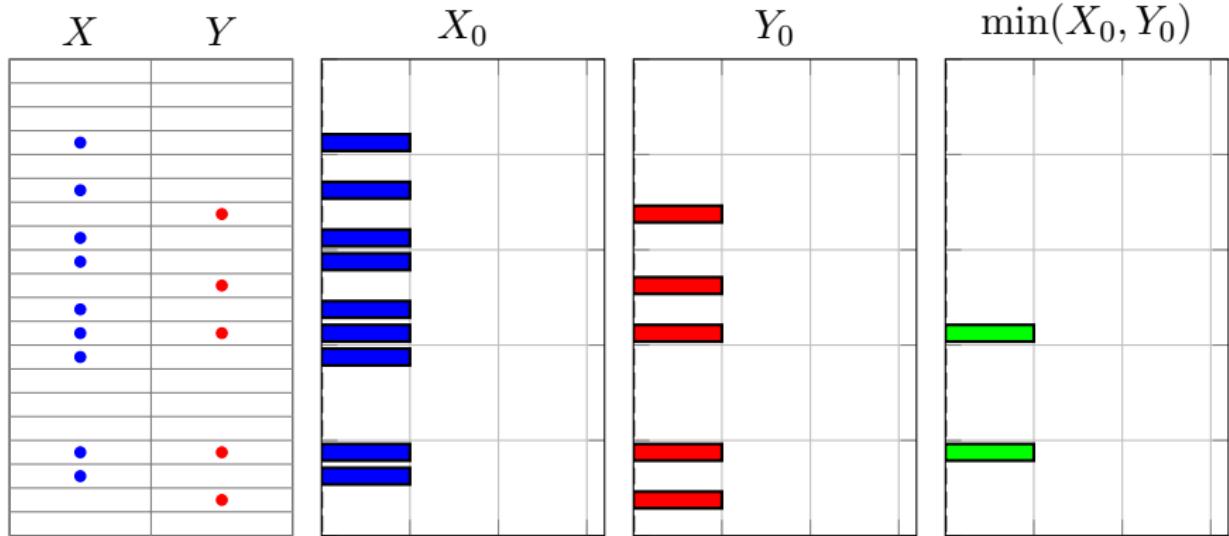
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- 1d point sets X, Y on grid of size 1 - level 0 histograms



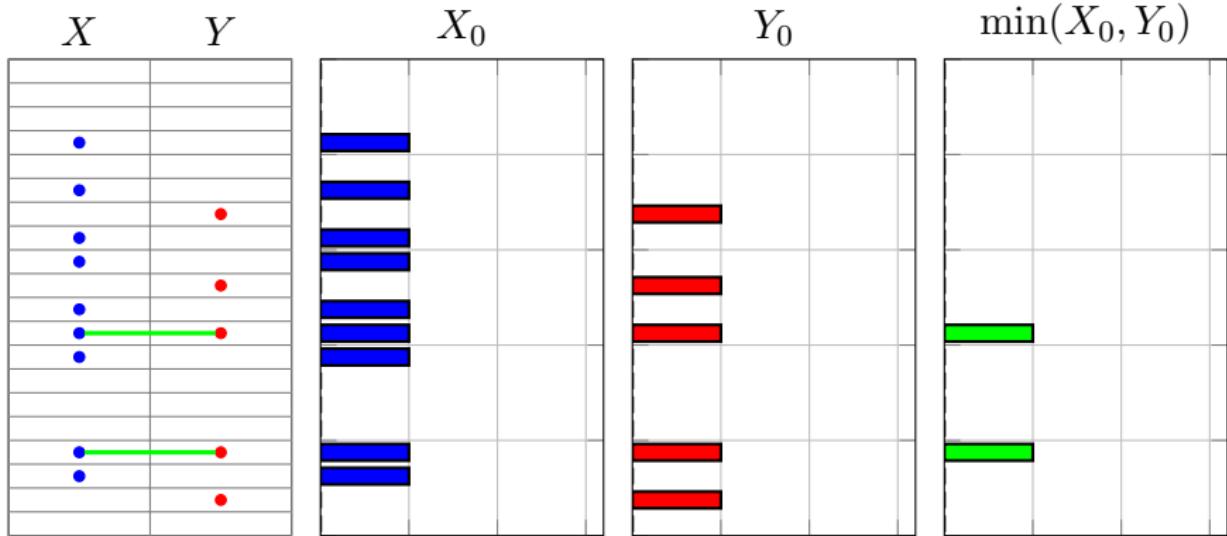
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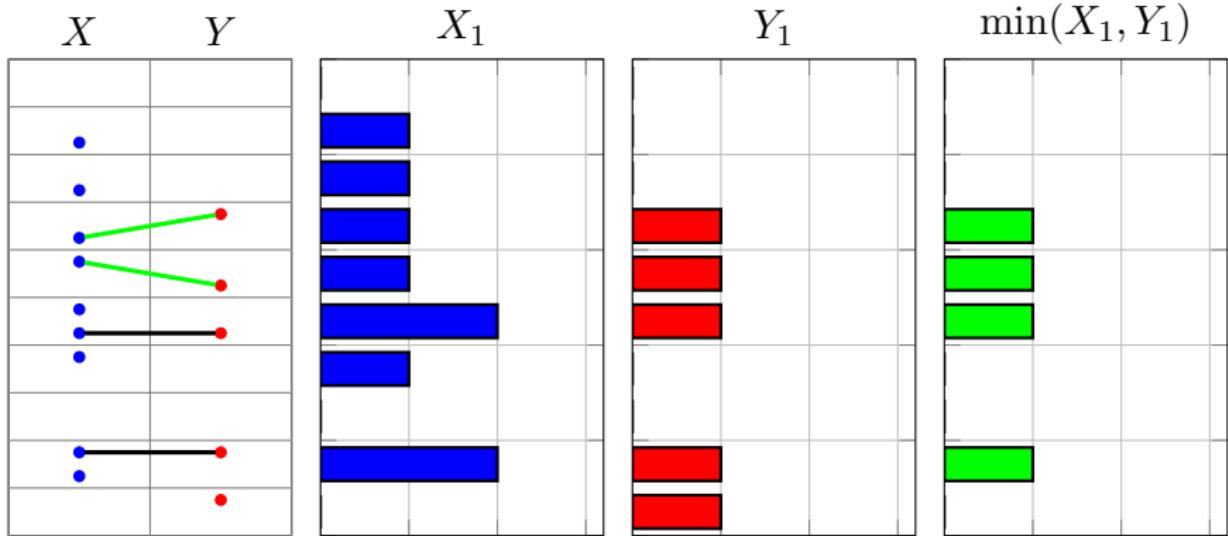


pyramid match kernel (PMK)



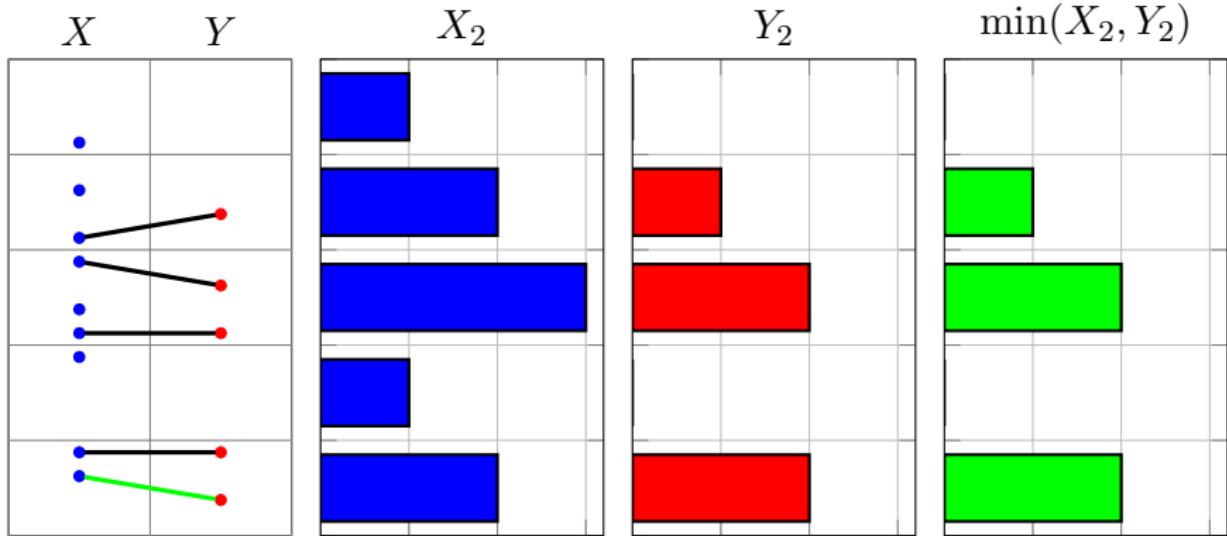
- 1d point sets X, Y on grid of size 1 - level 0 histograms - intersection
 - (2 matches weighted by 1)
 - total score 2×1

pyramid match kernel (PMK)



- 1d point sets X, Y on grid of size 2 - level 1 histograms - intersection
- $(2 \text{ matches weighted by } 1) + (2 \text{ weighted by } \frac{1}{2})$
- total score $2 \times 1 + 2 \times \frac{1}{2}$

pyramid match kernel (PMK)



- 1d point sets X, Y on grid of size 4 - level 2 histograms - intersection
- $(2 \text{ matches weighted by } 1) + (2 \text{ weighted by } \frac{1}{2}) + (1 \text{ weighted by } \frac{1}{4})$
- total score $2 \times 1 + 2 \times \frac{1}{2} + 1 \times \frac{1}{4}$

pyramid match kernel (PMK)

- given a set $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, where distances of elements range in $[1, D]$
- let X_i be a histogram of X in \mathbb{R}^d on a regular grid of side length 2^i
- i ranges from -1 , where each bin has at most one element, to $L = \lceil \log_2 D \rceil$, where X is contained in a single bin
- given two images with descriptors $X, Y \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, their **pyramid match** is

$$\begin{aligned} K_{\Delta}(X, Y) &= \gamma(X)\gamma(Y) \sum_{i=0}^L \frac{1}{2^i} (\kappa_{\text{HI}}(X_i, Y_i) - \kappa_{\text{HI}}(X_{i-1}, Y_{i-1})) \\ &= \gamma(X)\gamma(Y) \left(\frac{1}{2^L} \kappa_{\text{HI}}(X_L, Y_L) + \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} \frac{1}{2^{i+1}} \kappa_{\text{HI}}(X_i, Y_i) \right) \end{aligned}$$

where $\gamma(X)$ serves for normalization

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PMK as an embedding

[Indyk and Thaper 2003]

- there is an explicit embedding for κ_{HI} , therefore also for κ_{Δ}
- if $|X| \leq |Y|$ and $\pi : X \rightarrow Y$ is one-to-one, then $K_{\Delta}(X, Y)$ approximates the optimal pairwise matching

$$\max_{\pi} \sum_{x \in X} \|x - \pi(x)\|_1^{-1}$$

- this was first shown on the earth mover's distance

$$\min_{\pi} \sum_{x \in X} \|x - \pi(x)\|_1$$

- but PMK is a similarity measure; it allows partial matching and does not penalize clutter, except for the normalization

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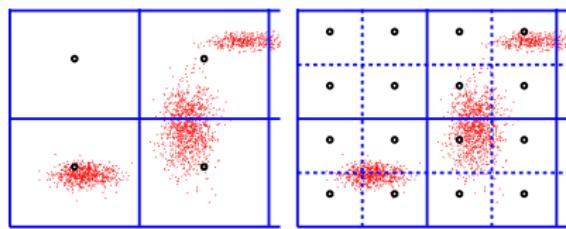
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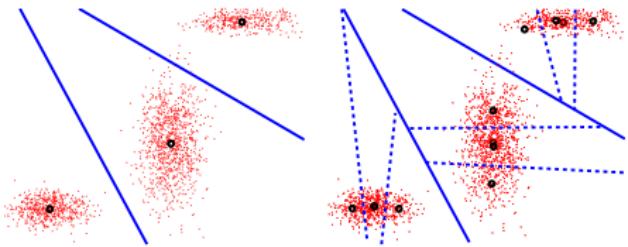
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PMK and vocabulary tree

[Grauman and Darrell 2007]



uniform bins

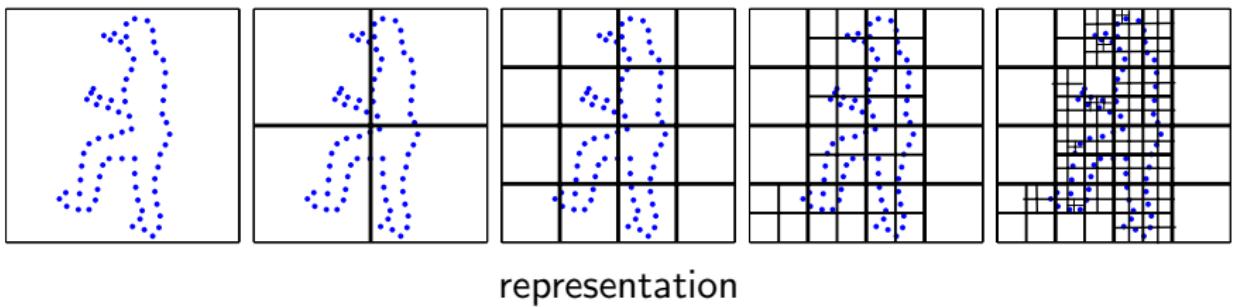
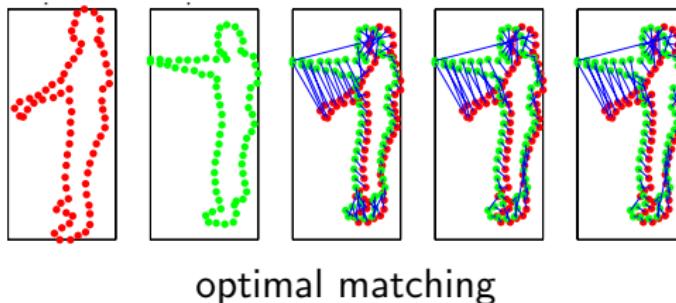


vocabulary-guided bins

- replace regular grid with hierarchical vocabulary cells
- compared to vocabulary tree, there is a principle in assigning cell weights
- still, its approximation quality suffers at high dimensions

PMK and spatial matching

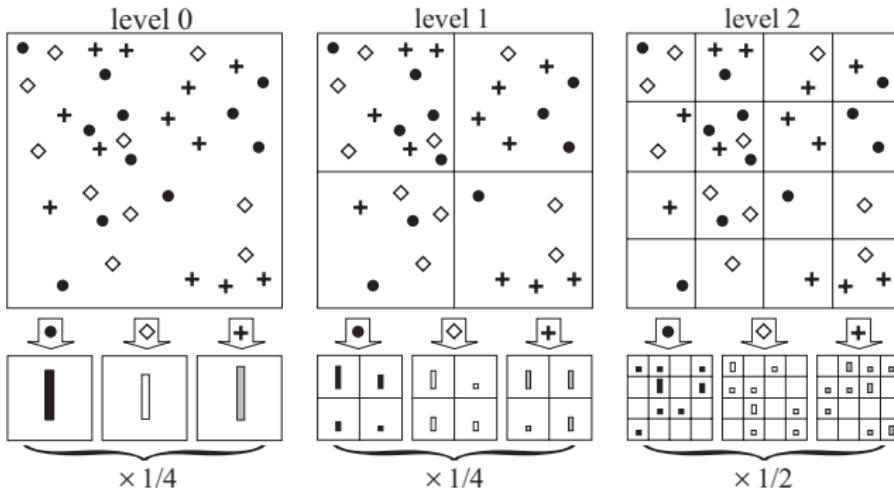
[Grauman and Darrell 2004]



- same idea, applied to image 2d coordinate space for spatial matching
- matching cost is only based on point coordinates; no appearance

spatial pyramid matching (SPM)

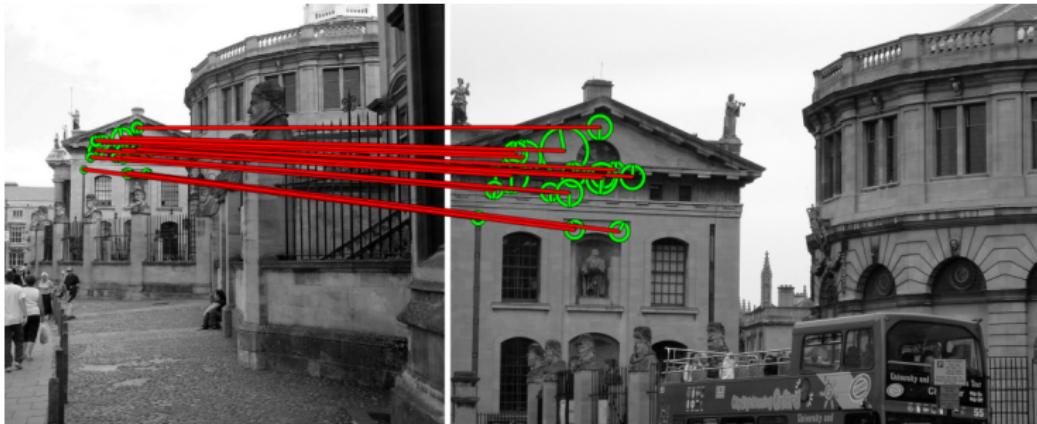
[Lazebnik et al. 2006]



- coupled with BoW, it is a set of joint appearance-geometry histograms
 - robust to deformation but not invariant to transformations; applied to global scene classification

Hough pyramid matching (HPM)

[Tolias and Avrithis 2011]

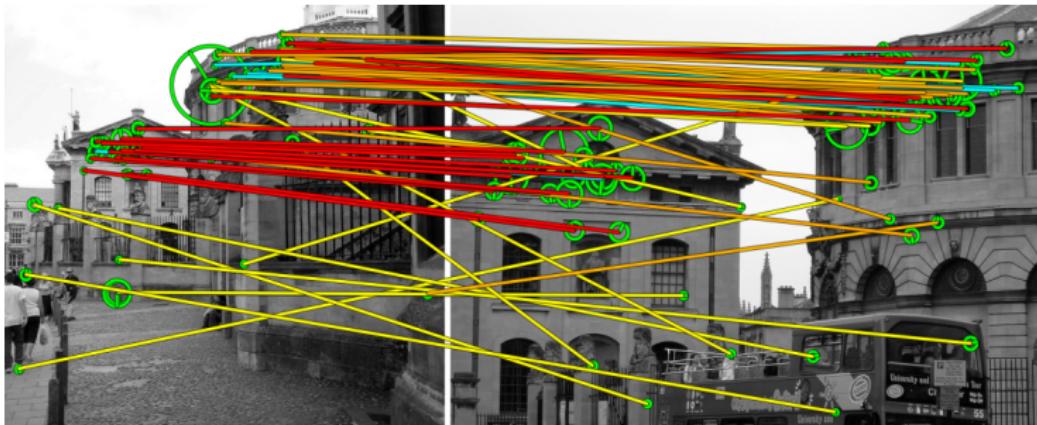


fast spatial matching

- work with a single set of correspondences instead of two sets of features
- determine a transformation hypothesis by a pair of features and then use histograms to collect votes in the transformation space

Hough pyramid matching (HPM)

[Tolias and Avrithis 2011]

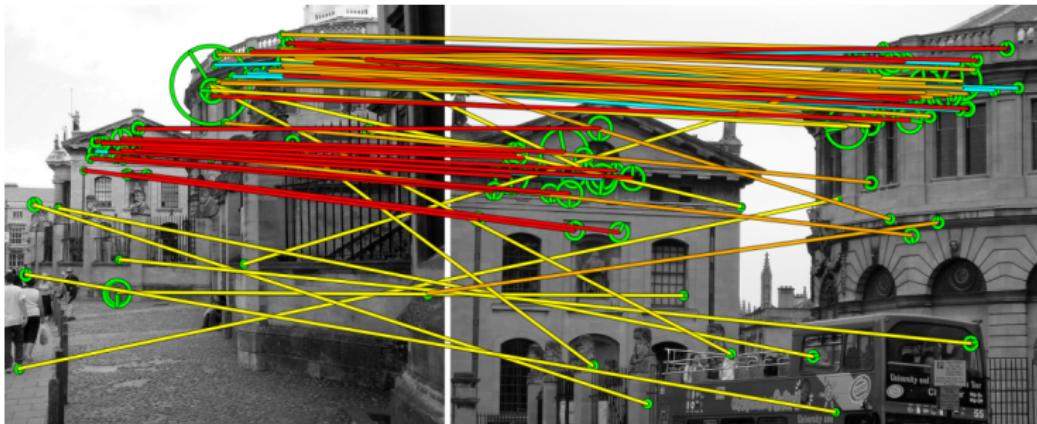


Hough pyramid matching

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Hough pyramid matching

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- determine a transformation hypothesis by a pair of features and then use histograms to collect votes in the transformation space

Hough pyramid matching (HPM)

- a **local feature** p in image P has position $\mathbf{t}(p)$, scale $s(p)$ and orientation $\theta(p)$ given by matrix $R(p) \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$

$$F(p) = \begin{pmatrix} s(p)R(p) & \mathbf{t}(p) \\ \mathbf{0}^\top & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- a **correspondence** $c = (p, q)$ is a pair of features $p \in P, q \in Q$ of two images P, Q and determines relative similarity transformation from p to q

$$F(c) = F(q)F(p)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} s(c)R(c) & \mathbf{t}(c) \\ \mathbf{0}^\top & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

with translation $\mathbf{t}(c) = \mathbf{t}(q) - s(c)R(c)\mathbf{t}(p)$, relative scale $s(c) = s(q)/s(p)$ and rotation $R(c) = R(q)R(p)^{-1}$ or
 $\theta(c) = \theta(q) - \theta(p)$

Hough pyramid matching (HPM)

- the 4-dof relative transformation represented by 4d vector

$$f(c) = (\mathbf{t}(c), s(c), \theta(c))$$

- mode seeking: we are looking for regions where density is maximized in the transformation space
 - a correspondence c contributes to a similarity score according to weight $w(c)$, based e.g. on visual word
 - to enforce one-to-one mapping, two correspondences $c = (p, q)$, $c' = (p', q')$ are conflicting if $p = p'$ or $q = q'$

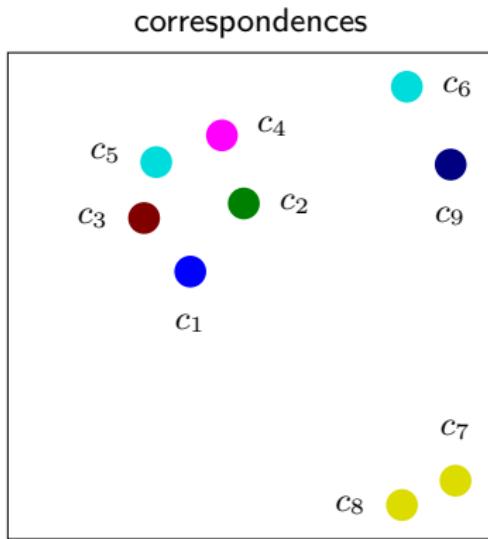
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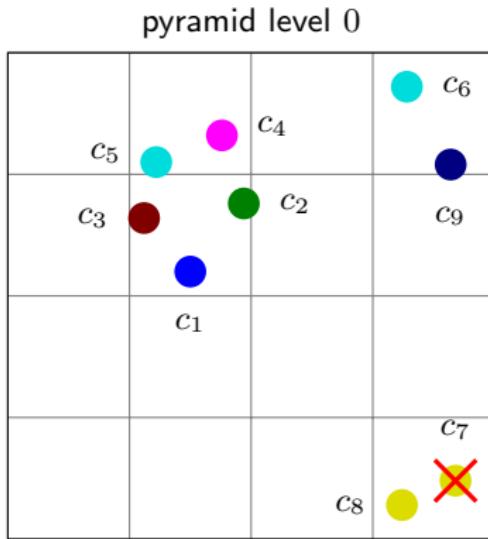
Hough pyramid matching (HPM)



	<i>p</i>	<i>q</i>	similarity score
c_1			$(2 + \frac{1}{2}2 + \frac{1}{4}2)w(c_1)$
c_2			$(2 + \frac{1}{2}2 + \frac{1}{4}2)w(c_2)$
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c_5			$(1 + \frac{1}{2}3 + \frac{1}{4}2)w(c_5)$
c_6			0
c_7			0
c_8			$\frac{1}{4}6w(c_8)$
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- conflicting correspondences in the same bin b are erased
- in a bin b with $|h(b)|$ correspondences, each groups with $g(b) = [|h(b)| - 1]_+$ others
- level 0 weight 1

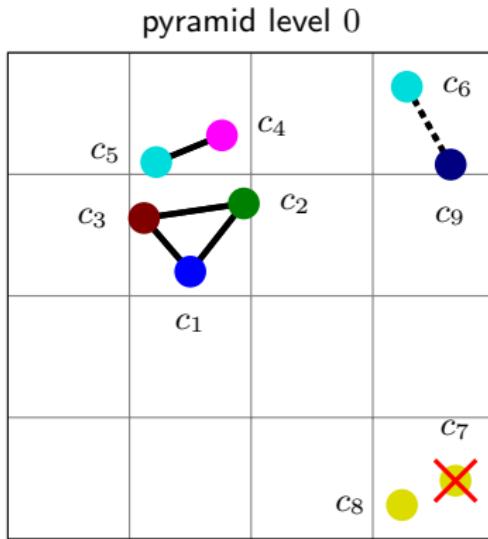
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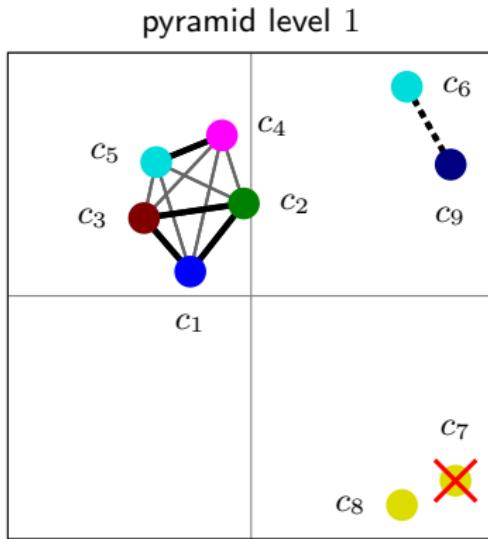
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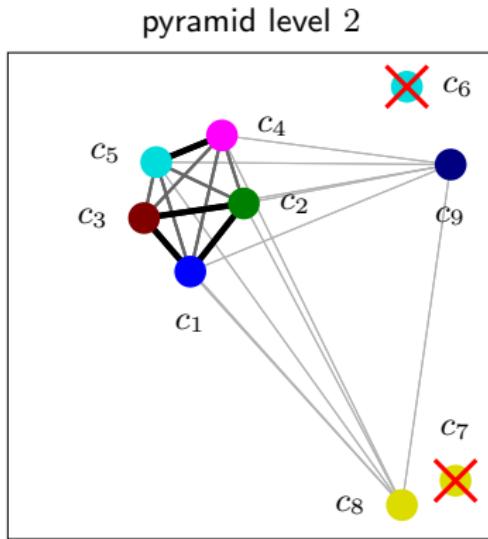
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- level 1 weight $\frac{1}{2}$

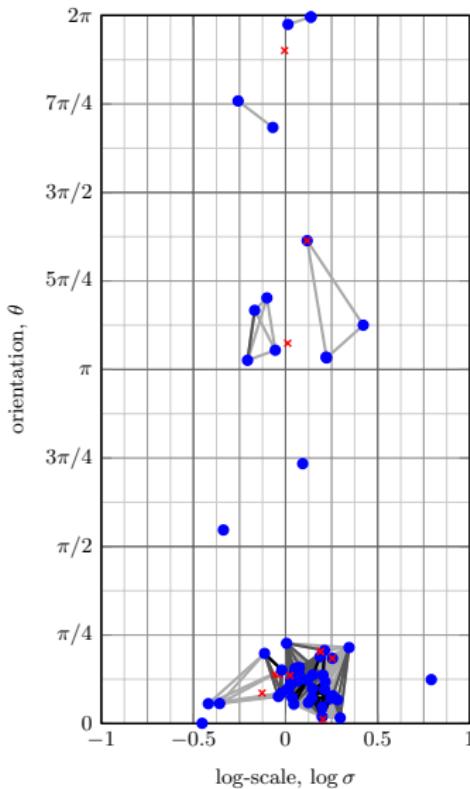
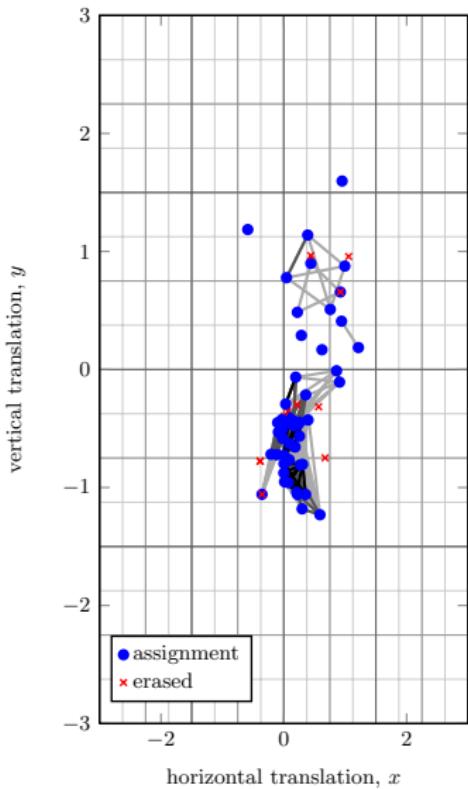
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- level 2 weight $\frac{1}{4}$

Hough pyramid matching (HPM)



Hough pyramid matching (HPM)

- linear in the number of correspondences; no need to count inliers
- robust to deformations and multiple matching surfaces, invariant to transformations
- only applies to same instance matching

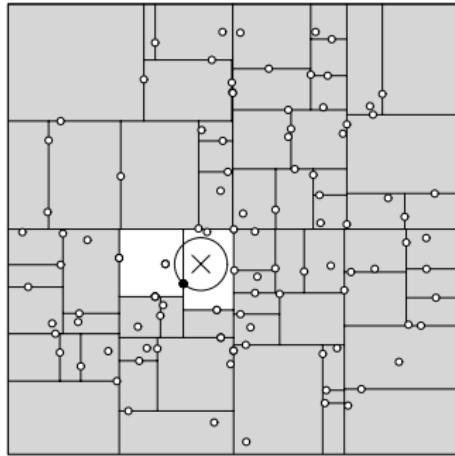
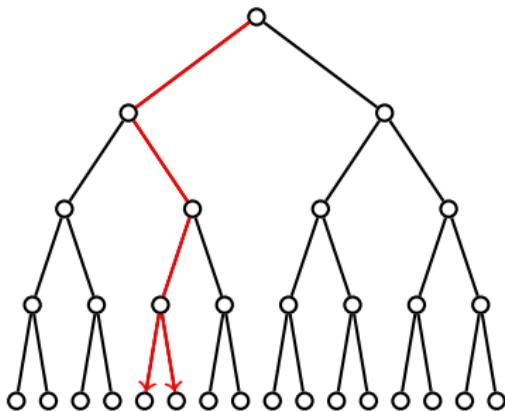
nearest neighbor search

nearest neighbor search

- given query point y , find its nearest neighbor with respect to Euclidean distance within data set X in a d -dimensional space
- **image retrieval**: same problem; one or multiple queries depending on global or local representation
- **image classification**: nearest neighbor or naïve Bayes nearest neighbor classifier, again depending on representation

k-d tree

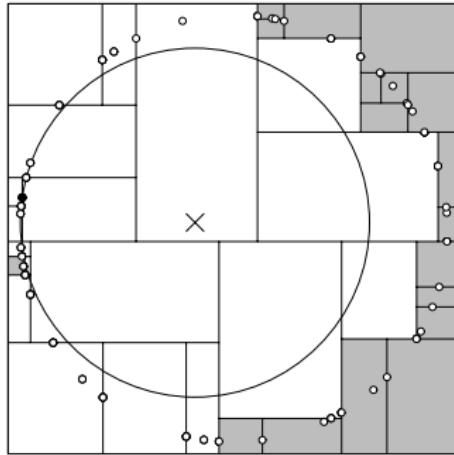
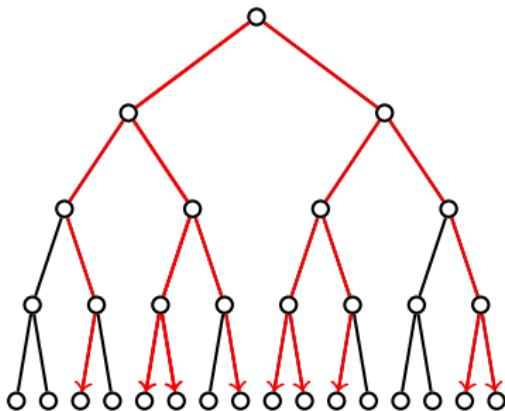
[Bentley 1975]



- **index**: recursively split at medoid on some dimension, make balanced binary tree
- **search**: descend recursively from root, choosing child according to splitting dimension and value
- backtracking becomes exhaustive at high dimensions

k-d tree

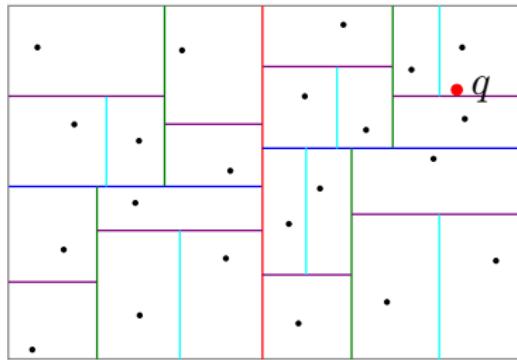
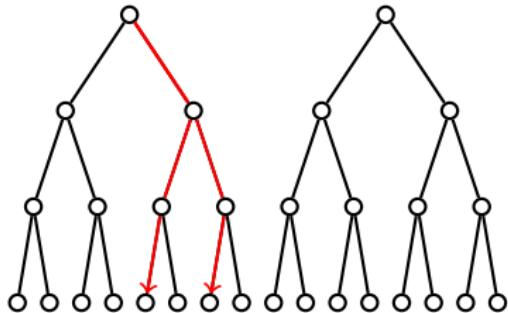
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randomized k-d trees

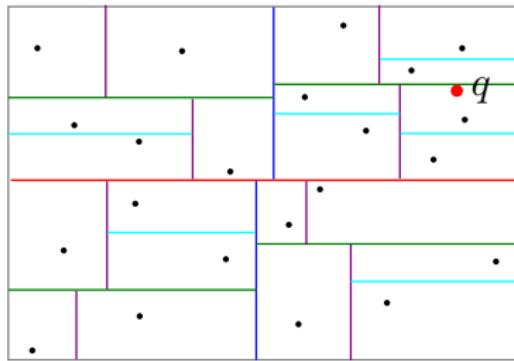
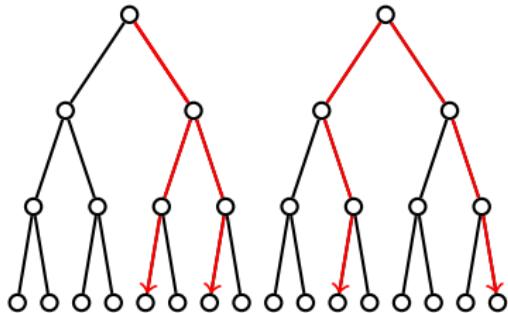
[Silpa-Anan and Hartley 1975]



- **index**: same as before, but now multiple randomized trees
- **search**: descend trees in parallel according to shared priority queue
- still, points are stored, distances are exact

randomized k-d trees

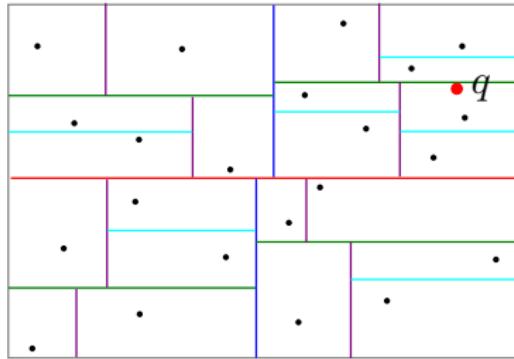
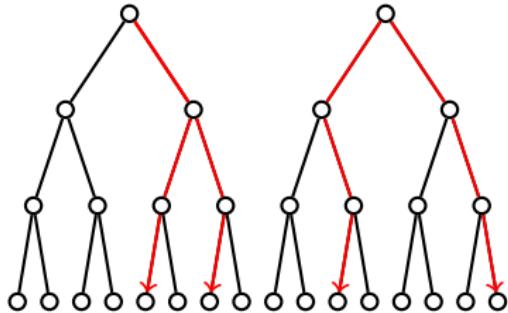
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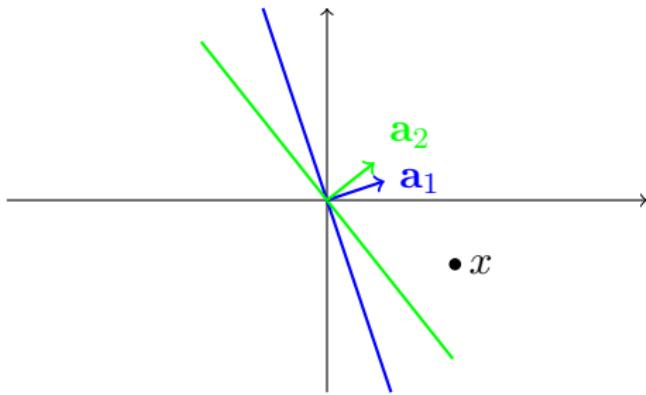
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locality sensitive hashing

[Charikar 2002]



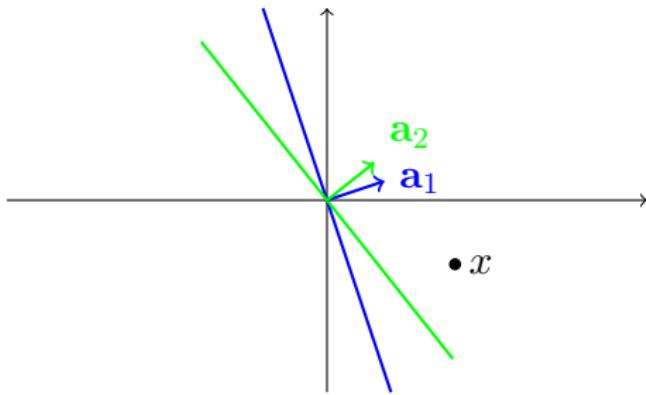
- **index:** choose $\mathbf{a}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$; encode each data point $x \in X$ by **binary code** $h(x) := (h_{\mathbf{a}_1}(x), \dots, h_{\mathbf{a}_k}(x)) \in \{-1, 1\}^d$ with **hash function**

$$h_{\mathbf{a}}(x) = \text{sgn}(\mathbf{a}^\top x)$$

- **search:** encode query y as $h(y)$ and search by **Hamming distance**
- not adapted to data distribution

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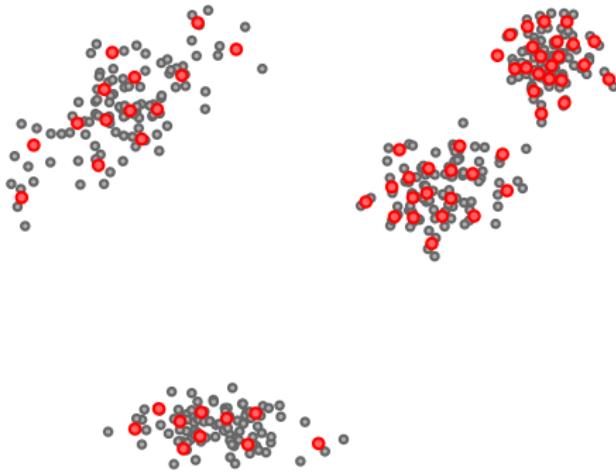
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vector quantization (VQ)

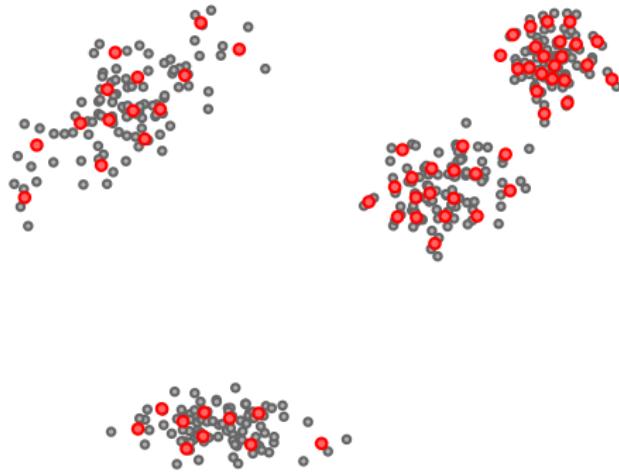
[Gray 1984]



- **index:** cluster X into codebook $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$; quantize each $x \in X$ to $q(x) = \min_{c \in C} \|x - c\|^2$ and encode it by $\log k$ bits
- **search:** pre-compute distances $\|y - c\|^2$ for $c \in C$ and approximate distances $\|y - x\|^2$ by $\|y - q(x)\|^2$ where $q(x) \in C$
- small distortion \rightarrow large k , too large to store, too slow to search

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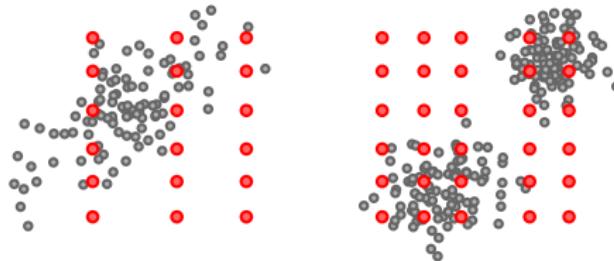
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product quantization (PQ)

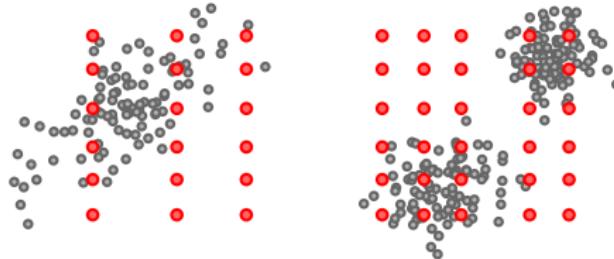
[Jégou et al. 2011]



- **index:** decompose vectors as $x = (x^1, \dots, x^m)$, cluster X into codebook $C = C^1 \times \dots \times C^m$ with k cells each and $|C| = k^m$
- **search:** pre-compute distances $\|y^j - c\|^2$ for $c \in C^j$ and approximate $\|y - x\|^2$ by $\|y - q(x)\|^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m \|y^j - q^j(x^j)\|^2$ where $q^j(x^j) \in C^j$
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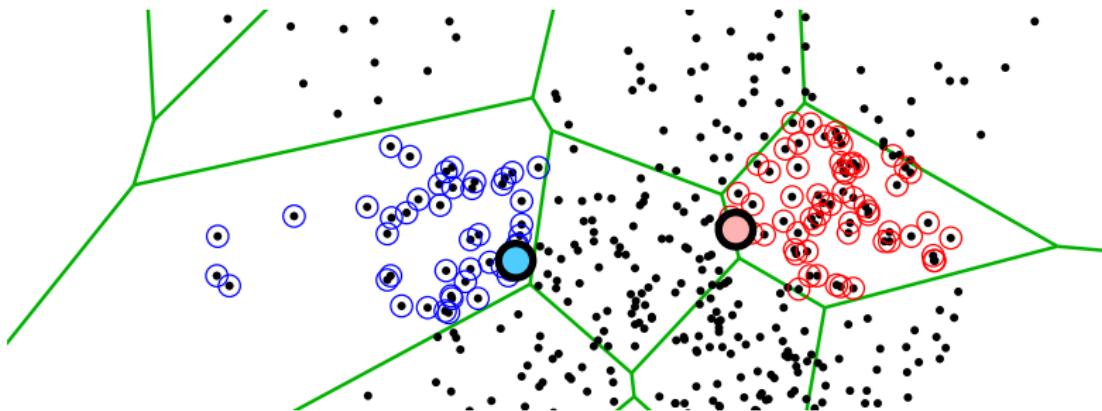
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inverted index

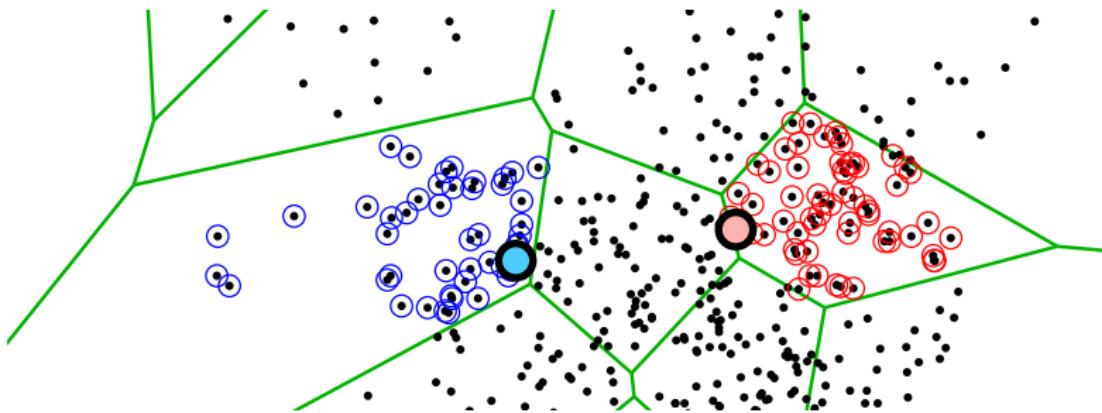
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- **index:** train a coarse quantizer Q of k cells; quantize each $x \in X$ to $Q(x)$, compute **residual** $r(x) = x - Q(x)$ and encode residuals by a product quantizer q
- **search:** quantize query y to a fixed number of nearest cells; exhaustively search by PQ only within those cells
- a lot of points in the coarse cells are too far away from query

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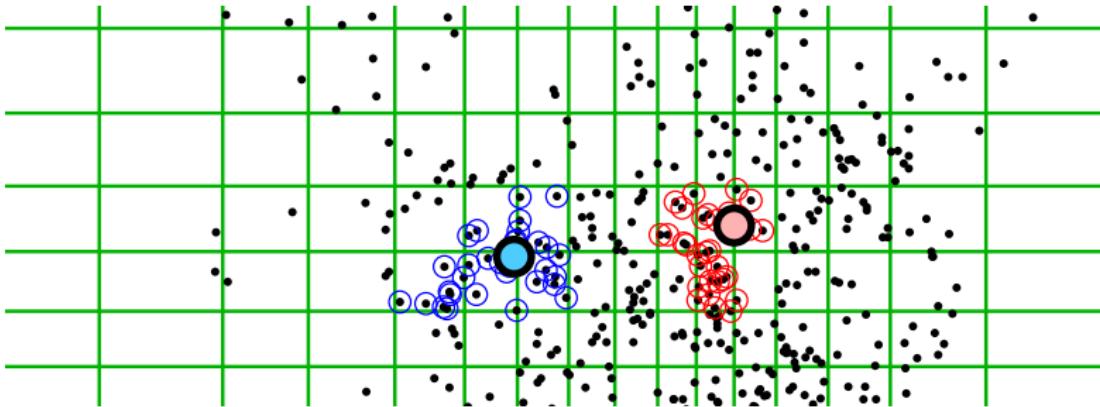
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inverted multi-index

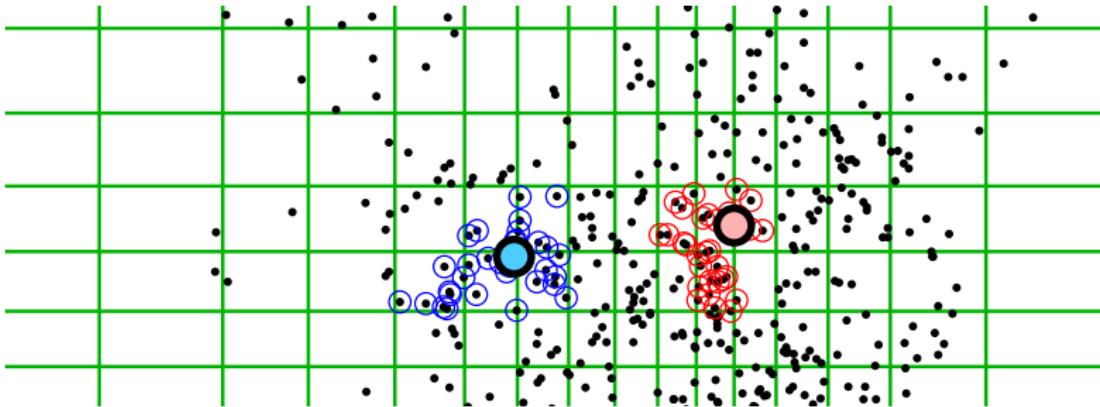
[Babenko and Lempitsky 2012]



- **index:** decompose vectors as $x = (x^1, x^2)$; train two coarse quantizers Q^1, Q^2 of k cells each, quantize each $x \in X$ to $Q^1(x^1), Q^2(x^2)$ and encode residuals by product quantizers q^1, q^2
- **search:** visit cells $(c^1, c^2) \in C^1 \times C^2$ in ascending order of distance to y by **multi-sequence** algorithm
- two coarse quantizers induce a **finer** partition than one

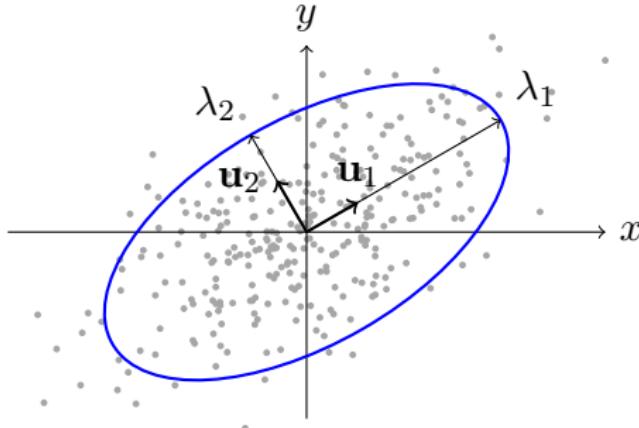
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principal component analysis (PCA)



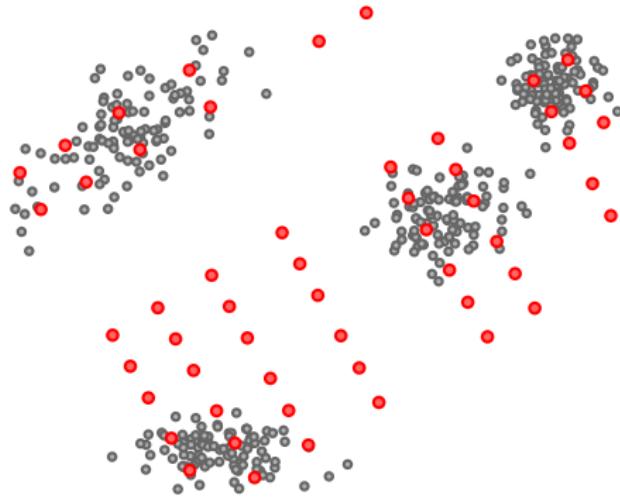
- given data $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$, compute empirical mean $\bar{\mathbf{x}} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i$ and covariance matrix

$$S := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^\top$$

- then diagonalize S by $S = U \Lambda U^\top$ where $U = (\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2)$ and $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$

optimized product quantization (OPQ)

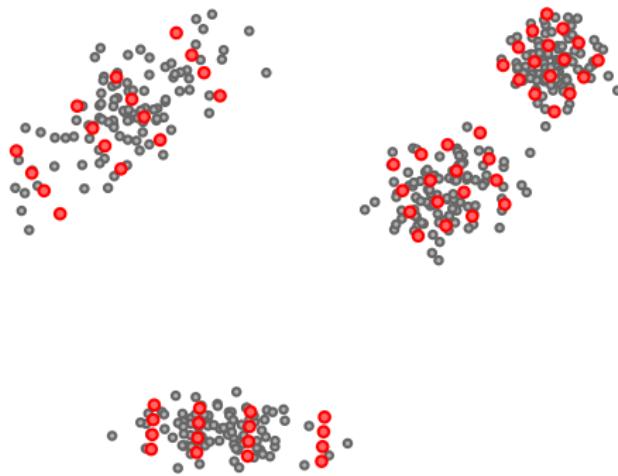
[Ge et al. 2013]



- no correlation: PCA-align by diagonalizing $\text{cov}(X)$ as $U\Lambda U^\top$
- balanced variance: permute eigenvalues Λ by π such that the product $\prod_i \lambda_i$ is constant in each subspace; $R \leftarrow UP_\pi^\top$
- find codebook \hat{C} by PQ on rotated data $\hat{X} = RX$

locally optimized product quantization (LOPQ)

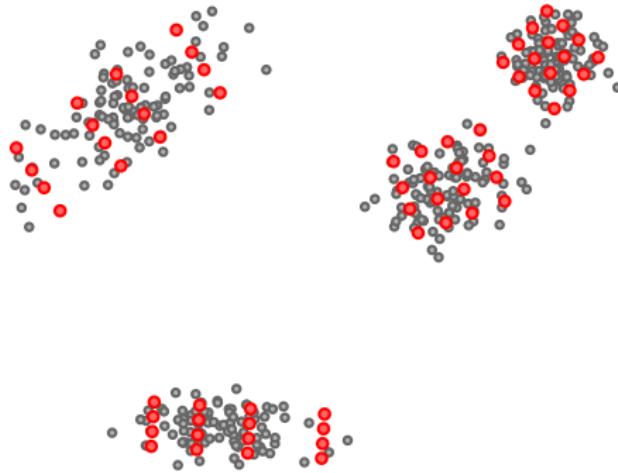
[Kalantidis and Avrithis 2014]



- same as PQ with inverted index (or multi-index), but residuals are encoded by OPQ
- better on multimodal data: residual distributions closer to Gaussian assumption

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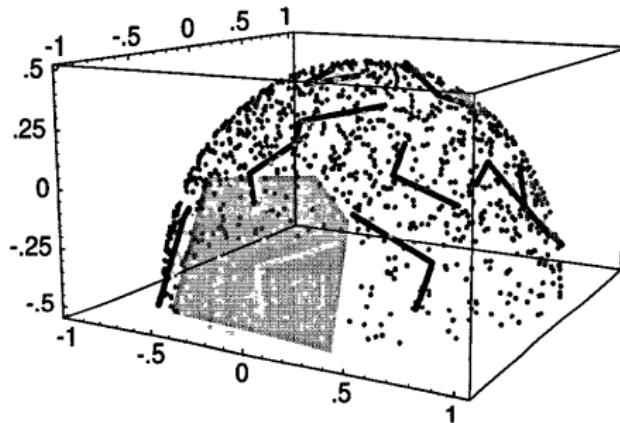
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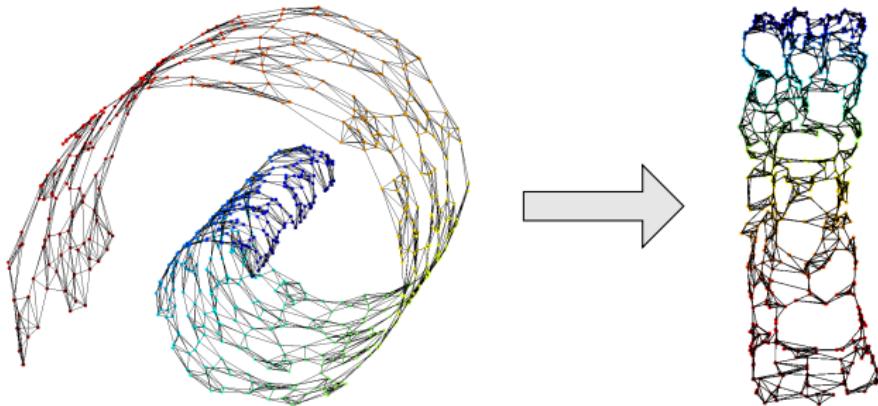
local principal component analysis

[Kambhatla & Leen 1997]



- cluster data, then apply PCA per cell
- captures the support of data distribution
 - multimodal (e.g. mixture) distributions
 - distributions on nonlinear manifolds

manifold learning



- e.g. Isomap: apply PCA to the geodesic (graph) distance matrix
- e.g. kernel PCA: apply PCA to the Gram matrix of a nonlinear kernel
- other topology-preserving methods are only focusing on distances to nearest neighbors
- many classic methods use eigenvalue decomposition and most do not learn an explicit mapping from the input to the embedding space

summary

- bag of words: treating geometry separately from appearance, and quantizing descriptors
- BoW for instance and class recognition: what is common, what is different
- k -means, HKM, vocabulary tree, AKM, soft/multiple assignment, max pooling, burstiness
- beyond BoW—matching between sets of features/descriptors that cannot be expressed as dot product: HE, VLAD, ASMK
- design or learn embeddings: EMK, PMK, SPM, HPM
- a sum of similarities is better than a sum of distances
- nearest neighbor search: inverted index, multi-index, trees, forests, hashing, compression
- PCA and beyond: we should learn the manifold

discussion

representation

- convolution is linear + translation invariant (or equivariant) and is the **only** function having these properties
- Gabor filters or histograms of gradient orientations are more or less the same thing and are just the **first layer** of extracting a representation
- they record responses at every possible position, **scale and orientation**, resulting in a 4-dimensional representation; rotation and change of scale in the image behave like translation in the representation space
- convolution means that for every pixel we are looking at some **spatial neighborhood** (in the image domain), but the image has only **one channel** (grayscale)
- histograms can be expressed as two stages of **encoding + pooling**; then we can generalize these operations for the next layers

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codebooks

- so, for the **second layer** we still have histograms of some kind but now they are over vectors (the filter responses of the first stage) rather than scalars (orientation and scale)
- to make a histogram we need a finite set of such vectors, and this we obtain through **vector quantization** (or sampling) of the layer one responses of a given dataset
- so, the concept that such representations are “**hand-crafted**” is incorrect; codebooks are learned from data in an unsupervised fashion
- codebook size, parameters in the encoding and pooling stages *etc.* are just **hyperparameters** that will we learn through **cross-validation**
- in contrast to layer one, there is **no spatial neighborhood** here (with the exception of HMAX) but there is **depth**, i.e. a number of channels corresponding to the dimensions of these vectors; we will combine both, resulting in 3-dimensional filter kernels

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local features

- depending on the task (e.g. stereopsis, motion estimation, instance recognition compared to class recognition), not all spatial regions are equally important
- classification works best with dense features, but still, through encoding, the responses to most “visual words” are zero; so there some **sparsity** in the representation, at least before pooling
- in order to make change of scale really behave like translation in the representation space, we also need **scale normalization** and a **logarithm**
- operators that detect local features can be expressed as convolution followed by some kind of competition, but they can require **more than one layers** with **nonlinearities** in between; we will follow this idea for more complex patterns
- when it comes a sparse set of local features, matching becomes easier to formulate compared to e.g. continuous distributions

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matching

- descriptors are really meant to be used for matching one image to another (e.g. for instance recognition) or one image to a pattern (for classification)
- we want to learn a descriptor such that dot product will be good enough for matching
- we can start by thinking about pairwise matching between two sets of descriptors and come up with (design or learn) a representation, maybe at a higher dimension, such that dot product will be approximating this pairwise matching process
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