

Computer Vision and Object Recognition



Prof. Daniel Huttenlocher

Cornell University
Faculty of Computing and Information Science

Computer Vision

- Extraction of scene content from images and video
- Traditional applications in robotics and control
 - E.g., driver safety
- More recently in film and television
 - E.g., ad insertion
- Digital images now being used in many fields



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Computer Vision Research Areas

- Commonly broken down according to degree of abstraction from image
 - Low-level: mapping from pixels to pixels
 - Edge detection, feature detection, stereopsis, optical flow
 - Mid-level: mapping from pixels to regions
 - Segmentation, recovering 3d structure from motion
 - High-level: mapping from pixels and regions to abstract categories
 - Recognition, classification, localization

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Today's Overview

- Focus on some mid- and high-level vision problems and techniques
- Illustrate some computer vision algorithms and applications
- Segmentation and recognition because of potential utility for analyzing images gathered in the laboratory or the field
 - Cover basic techniques rather than particular applications

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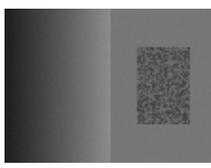
Image Segmentation

- Find regions of image that are “coherent”
- “Dual” of edge detection
 - Regions vs. boundaries
- Related to clustering problems
 - Early work in image processing and clustering
- Many approaches
 - Graph-based
 - Cuts, spanning trees, MRF methods
 - Feature space clustering
 - Mean shift

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A Motivating Example

- Image segmentation plays a powerful role in human visual perception
 - Independent of particular objects or recognition



This image has three perceptually distinct regions

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Graph Based Formulation

- $G=(V,E)$ with vertices corresponding to pixels and edges connecting neighboring pixels



4-connected or 8-connected

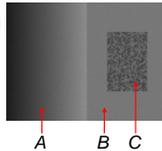
- Weight of edge is magnitude of intensity difference between connected pixels
- A *segmentation*, S , is a partition of V such that each $C \in S$ is connected

Important Characteristics

- Efficiency
 - Run in time essentially linear in the number of image pixels
 - With low constant factors
 - E.g., compared to edge detection
- Understandable output
 - Way to describe what algorithm does
 - E.g., Canny edge operator and step edge plus noise
- Not purely local
 - Perceptually important

Motivating Example

- Purely local criteria are inadequate
 - Difference along border between A and B is less than differences within C
- Criteria based on piecewise constant regions are inadequate
 - Will arbitrarily split A into subparts



MST Based Approaches

- Graph-based representation
 - Nodes corresponding to pixels, edge weights are intensity difference between connected pixels
- Compute minimum spanning tree (MST)
 - Cheapest way to connect all pixels into single component or “region”
- Selection criterion
 - Remove certain MST edges to form components
 - Fixed threshold
 - Threshold based on neighborhood
 - How to find neighborhood

Component Measure

- Don't consider just local edge weights in constructing MST
 - Consider properties of two components being merged when adding an edge
- Kruskal's MST algorithm adds edges from lowest to highest weight
 - Only if edges connect distinct components
- Apply criterion based on components to further filter added edges
 - Form of criterion limited by considering edges weight ordered

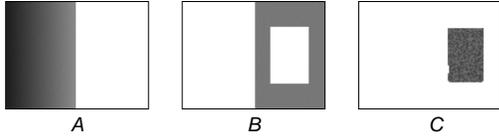
Measuring Component Difference

- Let *internal difference* of a component be maximum edge weight in its MST

$$Int(C) = \max_{e \in MST(C,E)} w(e)$$
 - Smallest weight such that all pixels of C are connected by edges of at most that weight
- Let *difference* between two components be minimum edge weight connecting them

$$Dif(C_1, C_2) = \min_{v_i \in C_1, v_j \in C_2} w((v_i, v_j))$$
 - Note: infinite if there is no such edge

Regions Found by this Approach



- Three main regions plus a few small ones
- Why the algorithm stops growing these
 - Weight of edges between A and B large wrt max weight MST edges of A and of B
 - Weight of edges between B and C large wrt max weight MST edge of B (but not of C)

Closely Related Problems Hard

- What appears to be a slight change
 - Make Dif be quantile instead of min
 - k -th $v_i \in C_1, v_j \in C_2 w((v_i, v_j))$
 - Desirable for addressing "cheap path" problem of merging based on one low cost edge
- Makes problem NP hard
 - Reduction from min ratio cut
 - Ratio of "capacity" to "demand" between nodes
- Other methods that we will see are also NP hard and approximated in various ways

Some Example Segmentations



Simple Object Examples



Monochrome Example

- Components locally connected (grid graph)
 - Sometimes not desirable



Beyond Grid Graphs

- Image segmentation methods using affinity (or cost) matrices
 - For each pair of vertices v_i, v_j an associated weight w_{ij}
 - Affinity if larger when vertices more related
 - Cost if larger when vertices less related
 - Matrix $W = [w_{ij}]$ of affinities or costs
 - W is large, avoid constructing explicitly
 - For images affinities tend to be near zero except for pixels that are nearby
 - E.g., decrease exponentially with distance
 - W is sparse

Cut Based Techniques

- For costs, natural to consider minimum cost cuts
 - Removing edges with smallest total cost, that cut graph in two parts
 - Graph only has non-infinite-weight edges
- For segmentation, recursively cut resulting components
 - Question of when to stop
- Problem is that cuts tend to split off small components

Normalized Cuts

- A number of normalization criteria have been proposed

- One that is commonly used

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

- Where $cut(A,B)$ is standard definition

$$\sum_{i \in A, j \in B} w_{ij}$$

- And $assoc(A,V) = \sum_j \sum_{i \in A} w_{ij}$

Computing Normalized Cuts

- Has been shown this is equivalent to an integer programming problem, minimize

$$\frac{y^T (D-W)y}{y^T D y}$$

- Subject to the constraint that $y_i \in \{1, b\}$ and $y^T D 1 = 0$

- Where 1 vector of all 1's

- W is the affinity matrix

- D is the degree matrix (diagonal)

$$D(i,i) = \sum_j w_{ij}$$

Approximating Normalized Cuts

- Integer programming problem NP hard
 - Instead simply solve continuous (real-valued) version – relaxation method

- This corresponds to finding second smallest eigenvector of

$$(D-W)y_i = \lambda_i D y_i$$

- Widely used method

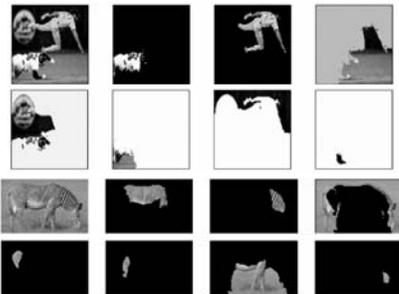
- Works well in practice

- Large eigenvector problem, but sparse matrices

- Often resolution reduce images, e.g, 100x100

- But no longer clearly related to cut problem

Normalized Cut Examples



Spectral Methods

- Eigenvectors of affinity and normalized affinity matrices

- Widely used outside computer vision for graph-based clustering

- Link structure of web pages, citation structure of scientific papers

- Often directed rather than undirected graphs

Segmentation

- Many other methods
 - Graph-based techniques such as the ones illustrated here have been most widely used and successful
 - Techniques based on Markov Random Field (MRF) models have underlying statistical model
 - Relatively widespread use for medical image segmentation problems
 - Perhaps most widely used non-graph-based method is simple local iterative update procedure called Mean Shift

Some Segmentation References

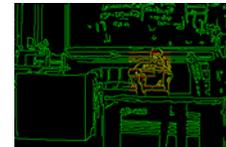
- J. Shi and J. Malik, "Normalized Cuts and Image Segmentation," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 22, no. 8, pp. 888-905, 2000.
- P. Felzenszwalb and D. Huttenlocher, "Efficient Graph Based Image Segmentation," *International Journal of Computer Vision*, vol. 59, no. 2, pp. 167-181, 2004.
- D. Comaniciu and P. Meer, "Mean shift: a robust approach toward feature space analysis," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 603-619, 2002.

Recognition

- Specific objects
 - Much of the history of object recognition has been focused on recognizing specific objects in images
 - E.g., a particular building, painting, etc.
- Generic categories
 - More recently focus has been on generic categories of objects rather than specific individuals
 - E.g., faces, cars, motorbikes, etc.

Recognizing Specific Objects

- Approaches tend to be based on geometric properties of the objects
 - Comparing edge maps: Hausdorff matching
 - Comparing sparse features extracted from images: SIFT-based matching



Hausdorff Distance

- Classical definition
 - Directed distance (not symmetric)
 - $h(A,B) = \max_{a \in A} \min_{b \in B} \|a-b\|$
 - Distance (symmetry)
 - $H(A,B) = \max(h(A,B), h(B,A))$
- Minimization term is simply a distance transform of B
 - $h(A,B) = \max_{a \in A} D_B(a)$
 - Maximize over selected values of DT
- Not robust, single "bad match" dominates

Distance Transform Definition

- Set of points, P, some distance $\|\cdot\|$

$$D_P(x) = \min_{y \in P} \|x - y\|$$
 - For each location x distance to nearest y in P
 - Think of as cones rooted at each point of P
- Commonly computed on a grid Γ using

$$D_P(x) = \min_{y \in \Gamma} (\|x - y\| + 1_P(y))$$
 - Where $1_P(y) = 0$ when $y \in P$, ∞ otherwise

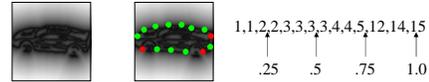


Hausdorff Matching

- Best match
 - Minimum fractional Hausdorff distance over given space of transformations
- Good matches
 - Above some fraction (rank) and/or below some distance
- Each point in (quantized) transformation space defines a distance
 - Search over transformation space
 - Efficient branch-and-bound “pruning” to skip transformations that cannot be good

Hausdorff Matching

- Partial (or fractional) Hausdorff distance to address robustness to outliers
 - Rank rather than maximum
 - $h_k(A,B) = k\text{th}_{a \in A} \min_{b \in B} \|a-b\| = k\text{th}_{a \in A} D_B(a)$
 - K-th largest value of D_B at locations given by A
 - Often specify as fraction f rather than rank
 - 0.5, median of distances; 0.75, 75th percentile

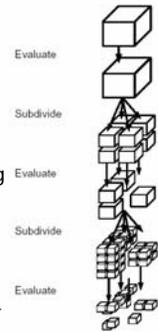


Fast Hausdorff Search

- Branch and bound hierarchical search of transformation space
- Consider 2D transformation space of translation in x and y
 - (Fractional) Hausdorff distance cannot change faster than linearly with translation
 - Similar constraints for other transformations
 - Quad-tree decomposition, compute distance for transform at center of each cell
 - If larger than cell half-width, rule out cell
 - Otherwise subdivide cell and consider children

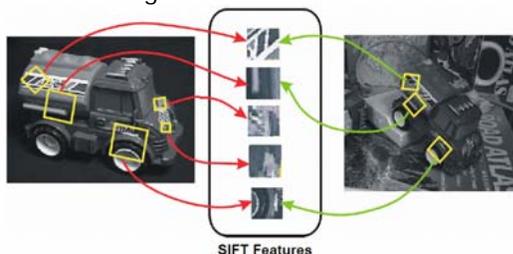
Branch and Bound Illustration

- Guaranteed (or admissible) search heuristic
 - Bound on how good answer could be in unexplored region
 - Cannot miss an answer
 - In worst case won't rule anything out
- In practice rule out vast majority of transformations
 - Can use even simpler tests than computing distance at cell center



SIFT Feature Matching

- Sparse local features, invariant to changes in the image



Object Category Recognition

- Generic classes rather than specific objects
 - Visual – e.g., bike
 -
 - Functional – e.g., chair
 -
 - Abstract – e.g., vehicle
 -

Recognition Cues

- Appearance
 - Patterns of intensity or color, e.g., tiger fur
 - Sometimes measured locally, sometimes over entire object
- Geometry
 - Spatial configuration of parts or local features
 - E.g., face has eyes above nose above mouth
- Early approaches relied on geometry (1960-80) later ones on appearance (1985-95), more recently using both

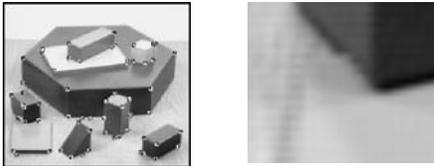
Using Appearance and Geometry

- Constellations of parts [FPZ03]
 - Detect affine-invariant features
 - E.g., corners without preserving angle
 - Use Gaussian spatial model of how feature locations vary within category ($n \times n$ covariance)
 - Match the detected features to spatial model



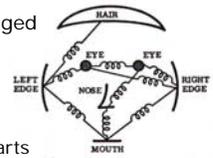
Problems With Feature Detection

- Local decisions about presence or absence of features are difficult and error prone
 - E.g., often hard to determine whether a corner is present without more context



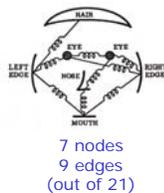
Spatial Models Without Feature Detection

- Pictorial structures [FE73]
 - Model consists of parts arranged in deformable configuration
 - Match cost function for each part
 - Deformation cost function for each connected pair of parts
- Intuitively natural notion of parts connected by springs
 - “Wiggle around until fits” – no feature detection
 - Abandoned due to computational difficulty



Formal Definition of Model

- Object modeled by graph, $M=(V,E)$
 - Parts $V=(v_1, \dots, v_m)$
 - Spatial relations $E=\{e_{ij}\}$
 - Gaussian on relative locations for pair of parts i,j
- Spatial prior $P_M(L)$ on configurations of parts
 - $L=(\ell_1, \dots, \ell_m)$
 - Where ℓ_i over discrete configuration space
 - E.g., translation, rotation, scale

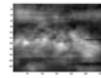


Single Overall Estimation Problem

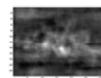
- Likelihood of image given parts at specific configuration
 - E.g., under translation
- Degree to which configuration fits prior spatial model
- No error-prone local feature detection step
- Tractability depends on graph structure
 - E.g., for trees



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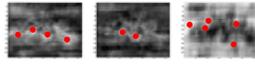
$P_M(I|\ell_1)$



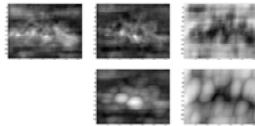
$P_M(I|\ell_2)$

Single Estimation vs. Feature Detection

- Feature based
 - Local feature detection (threshold likelihood)
 - “Matching” techniques that handle missing and extra features
- Single estimation
 - Determine feature responses (likelihood)
 - Dynamic programming techniques to combine with spatial model (prior)



Detected Locations of Individual Features



Transform Feature Maps Using Spatial Model

Graphical Models

- Probabilistic model
 - Collection of random variables with explicit dependencies between certain pairs
- Undirected edges – dependencies not causality
 - Markov random field (MRF)
- Reachability corresponds to (conditional) independence
 - E.g., case of star graph



Tree Structured Models

- Kinematic structure of animate objects
 - Skeleton forms tree
 - Parts as nodes, joints as edges
- 2D image of joint
 - Spatial configuration for pair of parts
 - Relative orientation, position and scale (foreshortening)



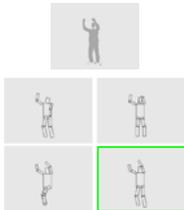
Best Match (MAP Estimate)

- All possible spatial configurations “considered” – most eliminated implicitly
 - Dynamic programming for efficiency
- Example using simple binary silhouette for appearance
 - Model error, min cost match not always “best”



Sampling (Total Evidence)

- Compute (factored) posterior distribution
- Efficiently generate sample configurations
 - Sample recursively from a “root part”



Used by best 2D human pose detection techniques, e.g. [RFZ05]

Single Estimation Approach

- Single estimation more accurate (and faster) than using feature detection
 - Optimization approach [CFH05,FPZ05] for star or k-fan vs. feature detection for full joint Gaussian [FPZ03]
 - 6 parts under translation, Caltech-4 dataset
 - Single class, equal ROC error

	Airplane	Motorbike	Faces	Cars
Feat. Det. [FPZ03]	90.2%	92.5%	96.4%	90.3%
Est-Star [FPZ05]	93.6%	97.3%	90.3%	87.7%
Est-Fan [CFH05]	93.3%	97.0%	98.2%	92.2%

Learning the Models

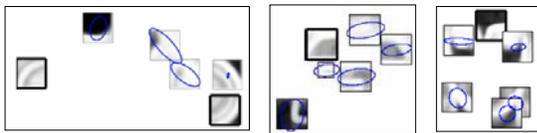
- [FPZ05] uses feature detection to learn models under weakly supervised regime
 - Know only which training images contain instances of the class, no location information
- [CFH05] does not use feature detection but requires extensive supervision
 - Know locations of all the parts in all the positive training images
- Investigate weak supervision but without relying on feature detection

Weakly Supervised Learning

- Consider large number of initial patch models to generate possible parts
- Generate all pairwise models formed by two initial patches – compute likelihoods
- Consider all sets of reference parts for fixed k
- Greedily add parts based on likelihood to produce initial model
- EM-style hill climbing to improve model

Example Learned Models

- Six part models, weak supervision
 - Black borders illustrate reference parts
 - Ellipses illustrate spatial uncertainty with respect to reference parts



Motorbike 2-fan

Car (rear) 1-fan

Face 1-fan

Detection Examples



Some Recognition References

- D.P. Huttenlocher, G.A. Klanderman, W.A. Rucklidge, "Comparing Images Using the Hausdorff Distance," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 15, no. 9, pp. 850-863, 1993.
- D.G. Lowe, "Object recognition from local scale-invariant features," *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 1150-1157, 1999.
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