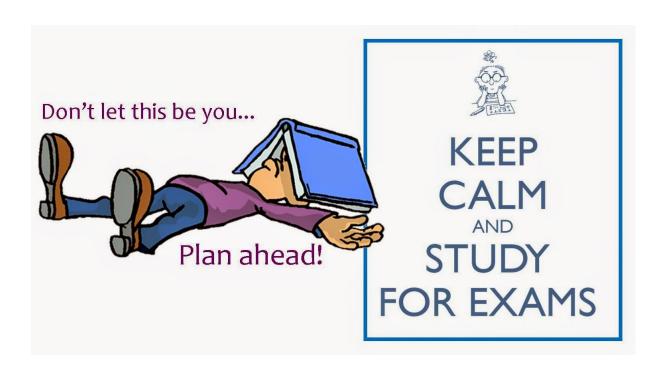


CPSC 425: Computer Vision



Lecture 24: Review

Final Exam Details

2.5 hours

Closed book, no calculators

Equations will be given

Format similar to midterm exam

- Part A: Multiple-part true/false
- Part B: Short answer

No coding questions

How to study?

- Look at the Lectures Notes and Assignment and think critically if you <u>truly</u> understand the material
- Look at each algorithm, concept,
 - what are properties of the algorithm / concept?
 - what does each step do?
 - is this step important? can you imagine doing it another way?
 - what are parameters? what would be the effect of changing those?



Course Review: Cameras and Lenses

Pinhole camera

Projections (and projection equations)

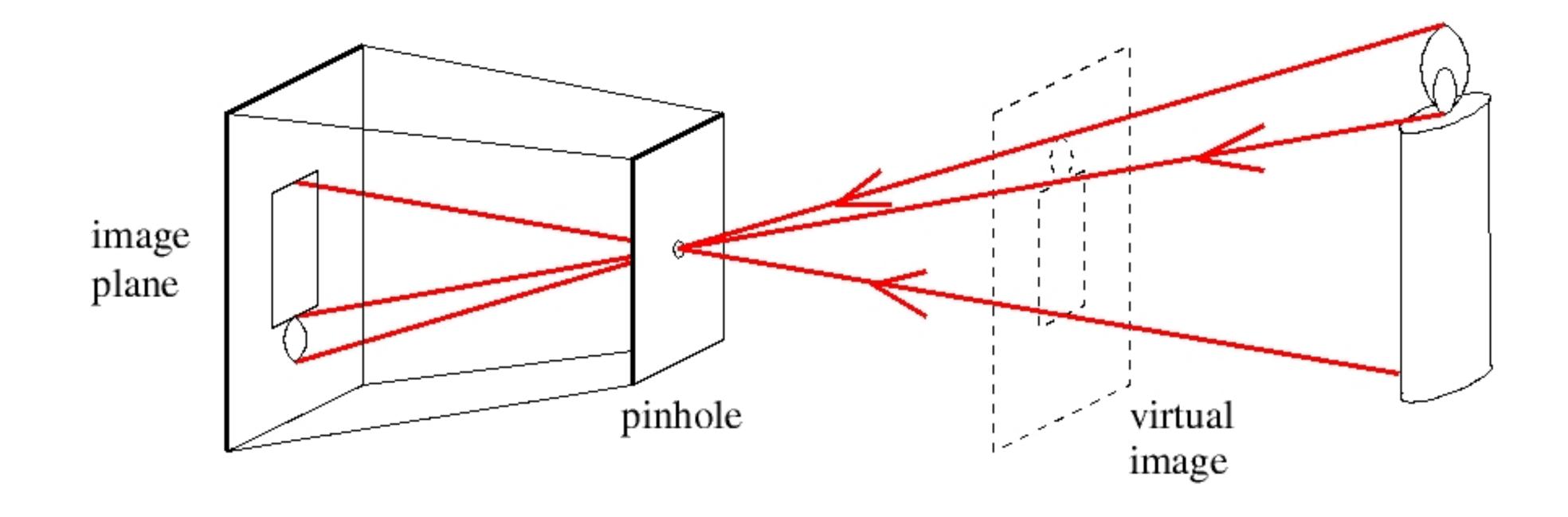
- perspective, weak perspective, orthographic

Lenses

Human eye

Pinhole Camera

A pinhole camera is a box with a small hall (aperture) in it



Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 1.2

Summary of Projection Equations

3D object point
$$P=\left[\begin{array}{c} x\\y\\z\end{array}\right]$$
 projects to 2D image point $P'=\left[\begin{array}{c} x'\\y'\end{array}\right]$ where

Orthographic
$$x' = x$$

 $y' = y$

Why Not a Pinhole Camera?

- If pinhole is **too big** then many directions are averaged, blurring the image
- If pinhole is **too small** then diffraction becomes a factor, also blurring the image
- Generally, pinhole cameras are **dark**, because only a very small set of rays from a particular scene point hits the image plane
- Pinhole cameras are **slow**, because only a very small amount of light from a particular scene point hits the image plane per unit time

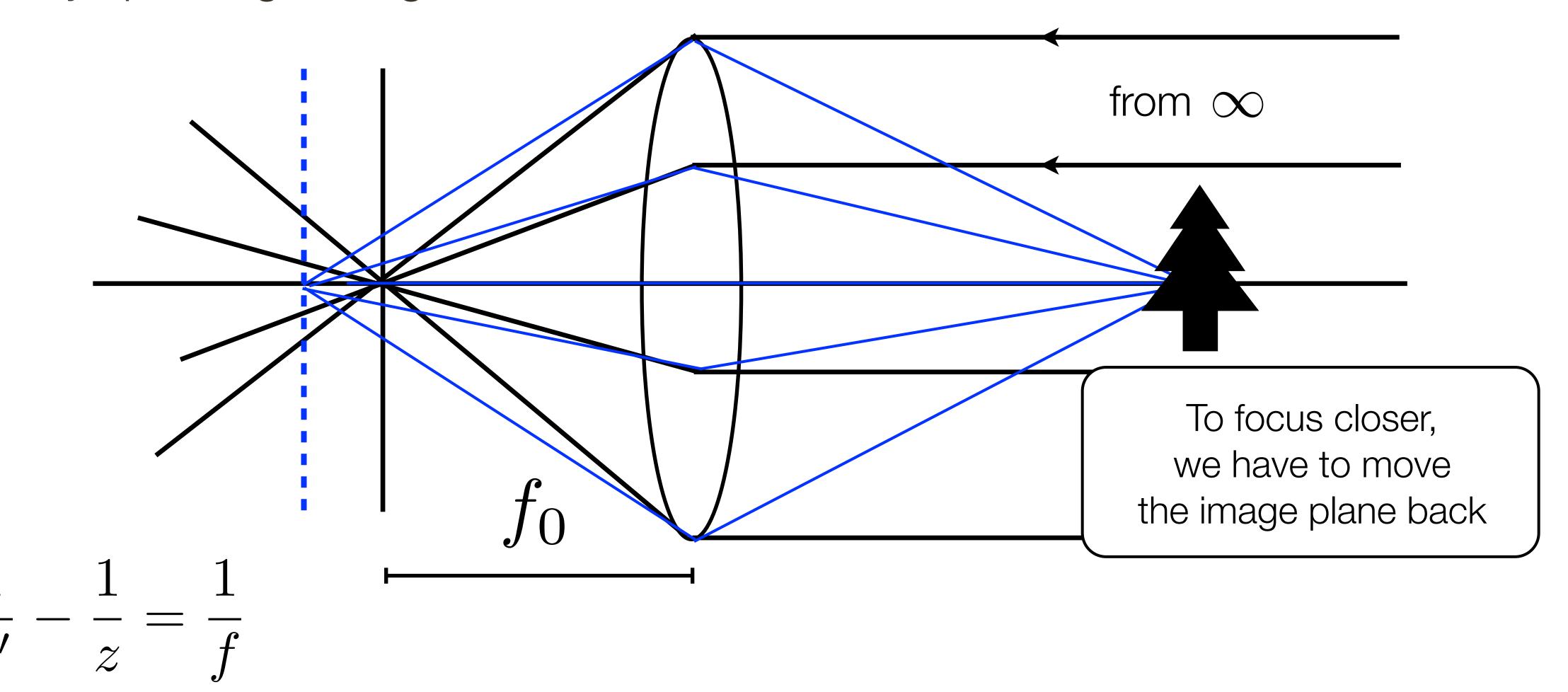


Image Credit: Credit: E. Hecht. "Optics," Addison-Wesley, 1987

Lens Basics

A lens focuses parallel rays (from points at infinity) at focal length of the lens

Rays passing through the center of the lens are not bent



Course Review: Filters

Correlation and convolution

Box, pillbox, Gaussian filters

Separability

Non-linear filters: median, bilateral

Template matching

Linear Filters: Correlation vs. Convolution

Definition: Correlation

$$I'(X,Y) = \sum_{j=-k}^{k} \sum_{i=-k}^{k} F(i,j)I(X+i,Y+j)$$

Definition: Convolution

$$I'(X,Y) = \sum_{j=-k}^{k} \sum_{i=-k}^{k} F(i,j)I(X-i,Y-j)$$

Filter (rotated by 180)

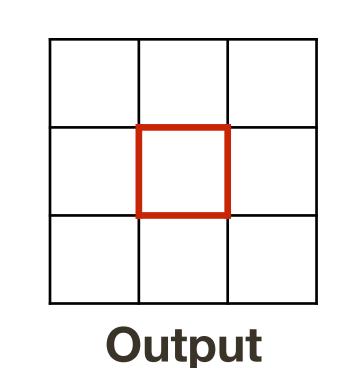
ļ	Ч	б
Ì	Ф	р
Э	q	ខ

а	b	С
d	Φ	f
g	h	i

Filter

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

Image



= 9a + 8b + 7c+ 6d + 5e + 4f+ 3g + 2h + 1i

Separability: Box Filter Example

Standard (3x3)

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

I(X,Y)

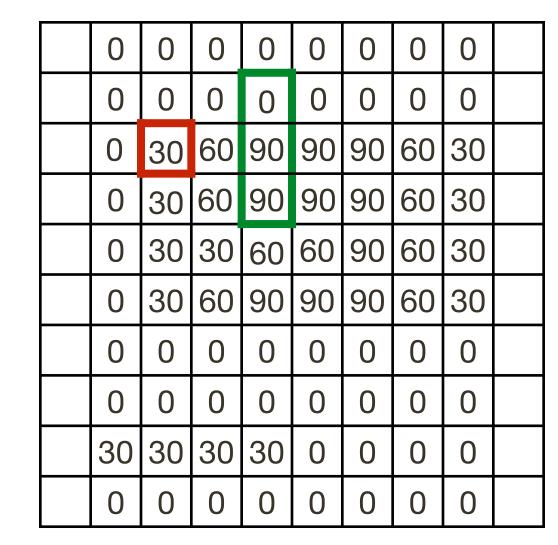
_	F	(X)	ζ	Y) = F(X)F(Y)
	filte	er		
	1	1	1	
$\frac{1}{9}$	1	1	1	
0	1	1	1	

	0	10	20	30	30	30	20	10	
	0	20	40	60	60	60	40	20	
	0	30	50	80	80	90	60	30	
	0	30	50	80	80	90	60	30	
	0	20	30	50	50	60	40	20	
	0	10	20	30	30	30	20	10	
	10	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	10	30	10	10	0	0	0	0	

image

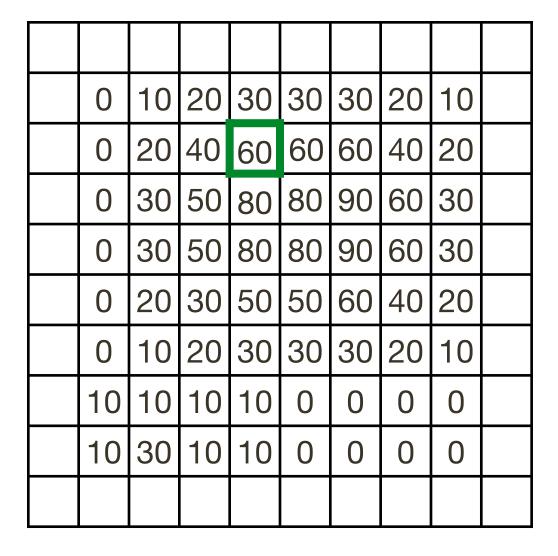
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	0	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	90	90	90	90	90	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	90	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

filter



F(Y)filter

I'(X,Y)



Efficient Implementation: Separability

Naive implementation of 2D Gaussian:

At each pixel, (X, Y), there are $m \times m$ multiplications There are $n \times n$ pixels in (X, Y)

Total:

 $m^2 \times n^2$ multiplications

Separable 2D Gaussian:

At each pixel, (X,Y), there are 2m multiplications There are $n\times n$ pixels in (X,Y)

Total:

 $2m \times n^2$ multiplications

Speeding Up Convolution (The Convolution Theorem)

General implementation of convolution:

At each pixel, (X,Y), there are $m \times m$ multiplications

There are

 $n \times n$ pixels in (X, Y)

Total:

 $m^2 \times n^2$ multiplications

Convolution if FFT space:

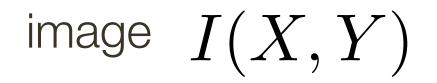
Cost of FFT/IFFT for image: $O(n^2 \log n)$

Cost of FFT/IFFT for filter: $\mathcal{O}(m^2 \log m)$

Cost of convolution: $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$

Note: not a function of filter size !!!

Bilateral Filter



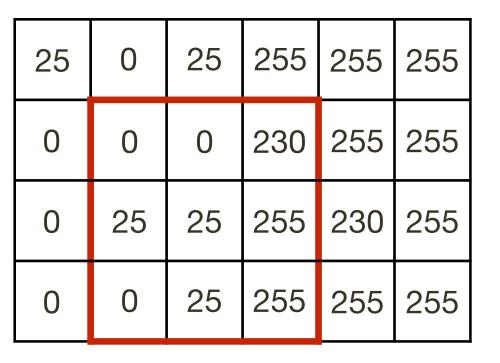
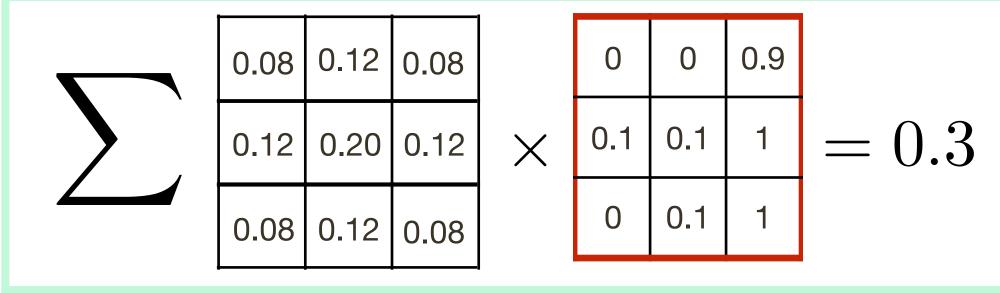


image I(X,Y)

0.1	0	0.1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0.9	1	1
0	0.1	0.1	1	0.9	1
0	0	0.1	1	1	1

Domain Kernel

$$\sigma_d = 0.45$$



Gaussian Filter (only)

Range Kernel

$$\sigma_r = 0.45$$

0.98	0.98	0.2
1	1	0.1
0.98	1	0.1



0.08	0.12	0.02	
0.12	0.20	0.01	
80.0	0.12	0.01	

(this is different for each locations in the image)

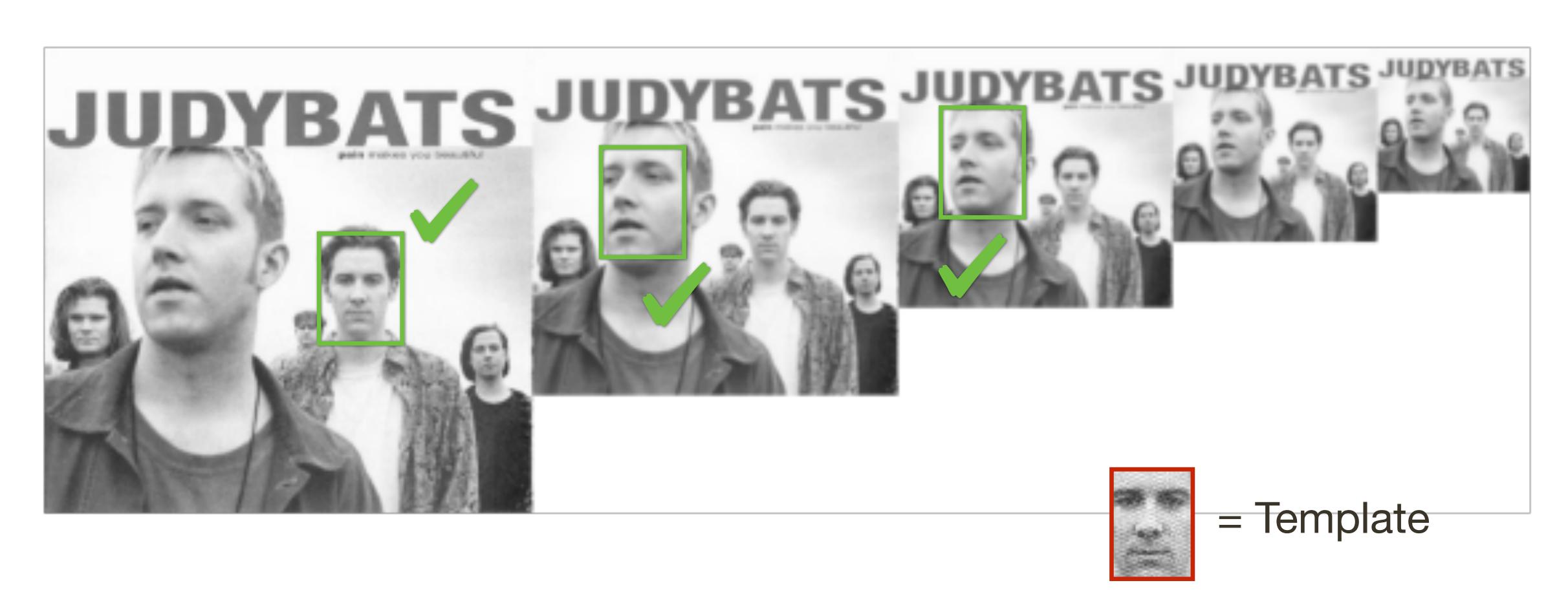
Range * Domain Kernel

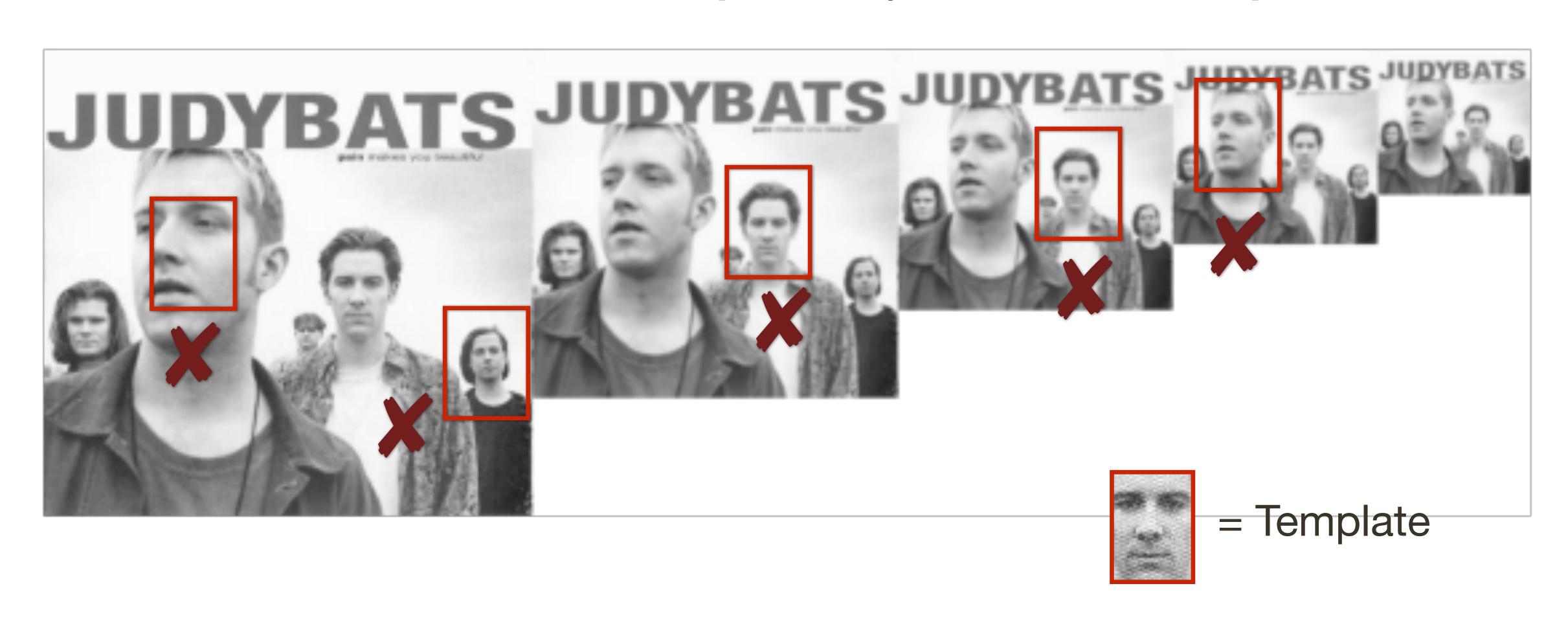
Bilateral Filter











Course Review: Edge and Corners

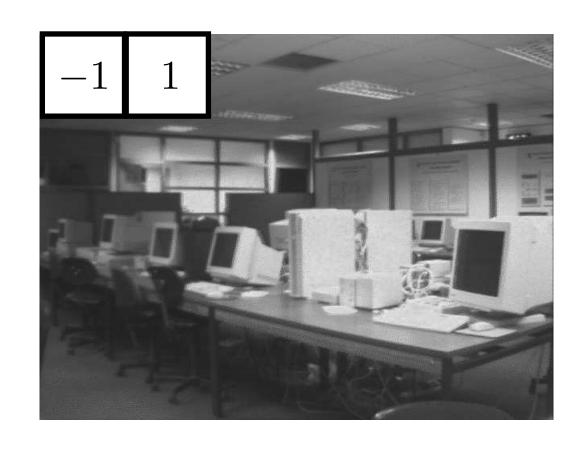
Estimating the image gradient

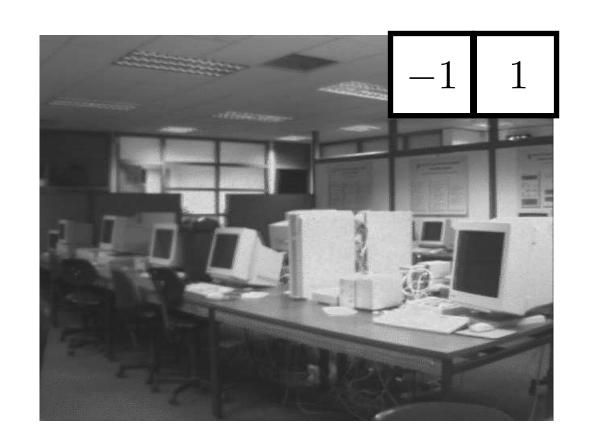
Canny edge detection

Marr/Hildreth edge detection

Boundary detection

Harris corner detection





"forward difference" implemented as

correlation

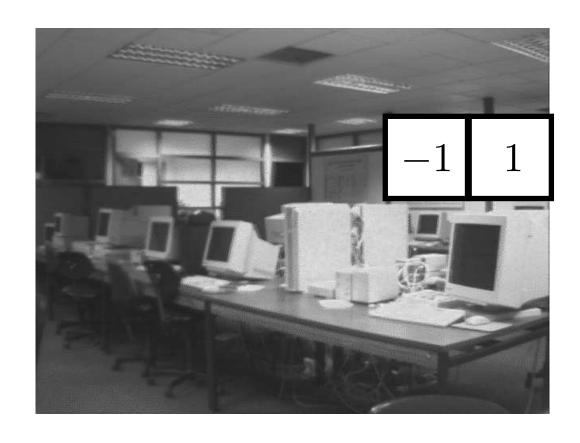
-1 1

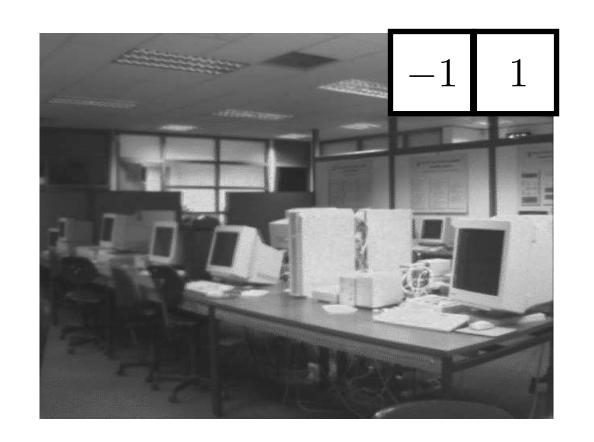
from **left**

"backward difference" implemented as

correlation

-1 1





"forward difference" implemented as

correlation

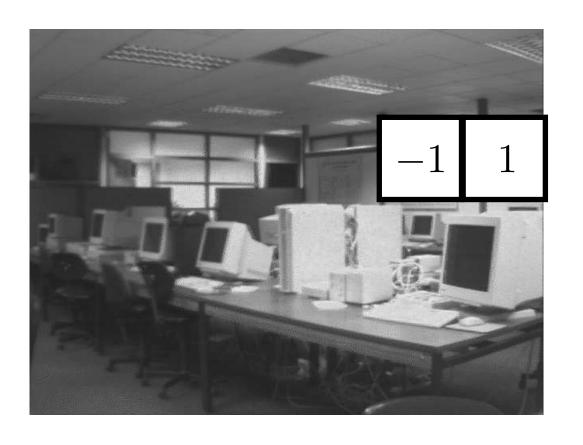
-1 1

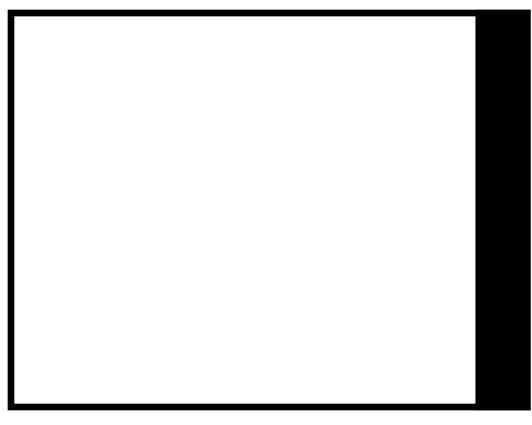
from **left**

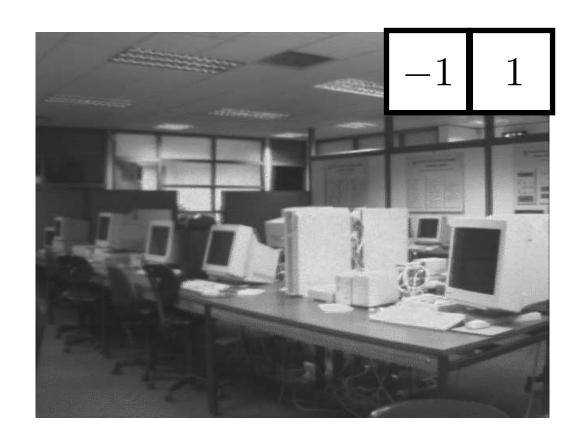
"backward difference" implemented as

correlation

-1 1







"forward difference" implemented as

correlation

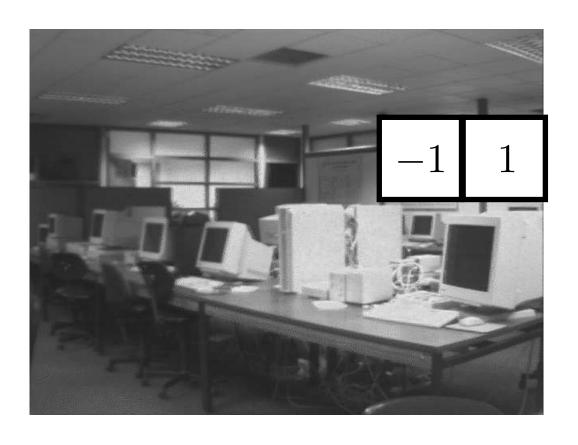
-1 1

from **left**

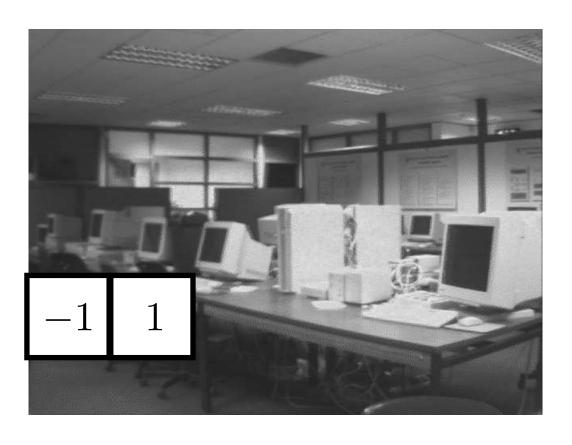
"backward difference" implemented as

correlation

-1 1







"forward difference" implemented as

correlation

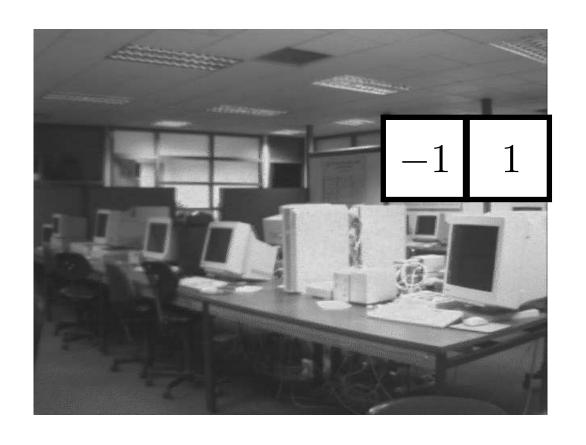
 -1
 1

from **left**

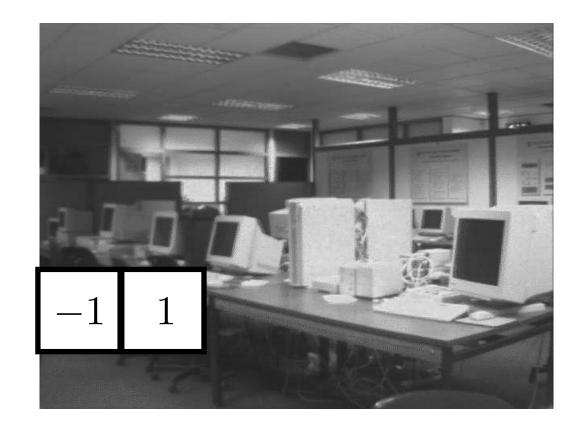
"backward difference" implemented as

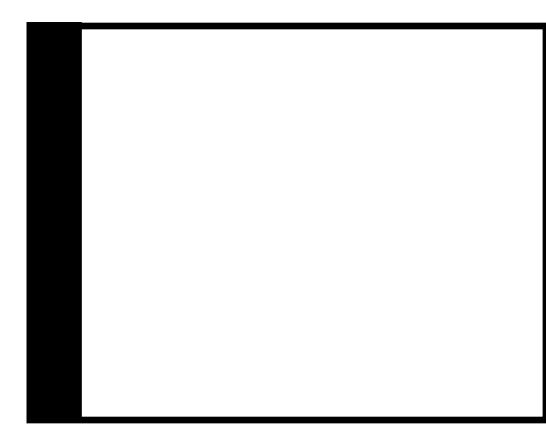
correlation

-1 1









"forward difference" implemented as

correlation

-1 1

from **left**

"backward difference" implemented as

correlation

-1 1

A Sort Exercise: Derivative in X Direction

Use the "first forward difference" to compute the image derivatives in X and Y directions.

(Compute two arrays, one of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ values and one of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ values.)

1	1	0.6	0.3	O	O
1	1	0.6	0.3	O	O
0	O	0	O	O	O
0	O	0	O	O	O

0	-0.4	-0.3	-0.3	O	
0	-0.4	-0.3	-0.3	0	
0	0	0	0	0	
0	0	0	0	0	

A Sort Exercise: Derivative in Y Direction

Use the "first forward difference" to compute the image derivatives in X and Y directions.

(Compute two arrays, one of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ values and one of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ values.)

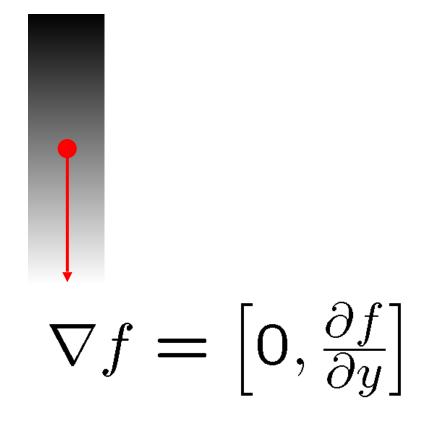
1	1	0.6	0.3	O	O
1	1	0.6	0.3	O	O
O	O	0	O	O	O
O	O	0	O	O	O

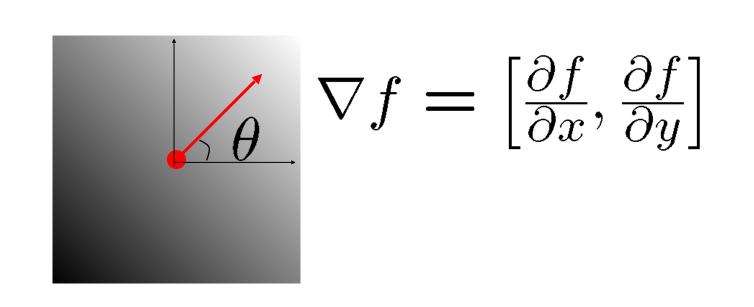
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0.6	0.3	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0

Image Gradient

The gradient of an image:
$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right]$$

$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, 0\right]$$





The gradient points in the direction of most rapid increase of intensity:

The gradient direction is given by:

(how is this related to the direction of the edge?)

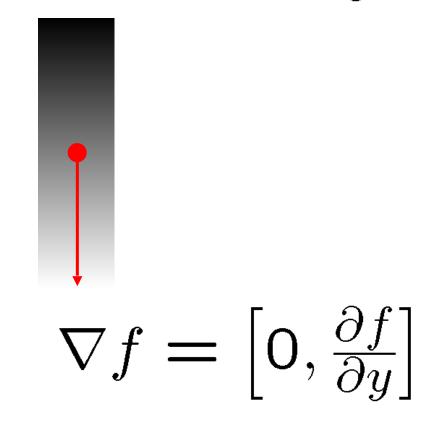
The edge strength is given by the gradient magnitude:

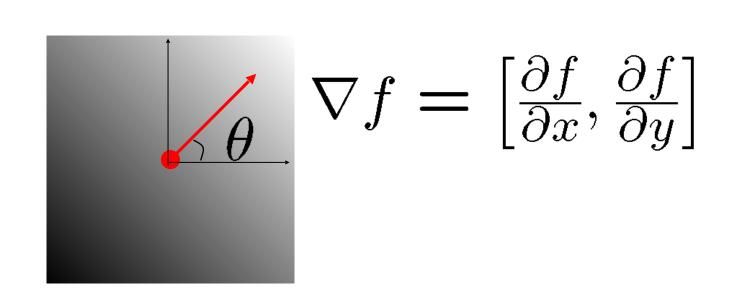
Image Gradient

The gradient of an image: $\nabla f = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|$

$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$$

$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, 0\right]$$





The gradient points in the direction of most rapid increase of intensity:

The gradient direction is given by: $\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} / \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$

(how is this related to the direction of the edge?)

The edge strength is given by the **gradient magnitude**: $\|\nabla f\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}\right)^2}$

Marr / Hildreth Laplacian of Gaussian

A "zero crossings of a second derivative operator" approach

Steps:

- 1. Gaussian for smoothing
- 2. Laplacian (∇^2) for differentiation where

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

3. Locate zero-crossings in the Laplacian of the Gaussian ($abla^2G$) where

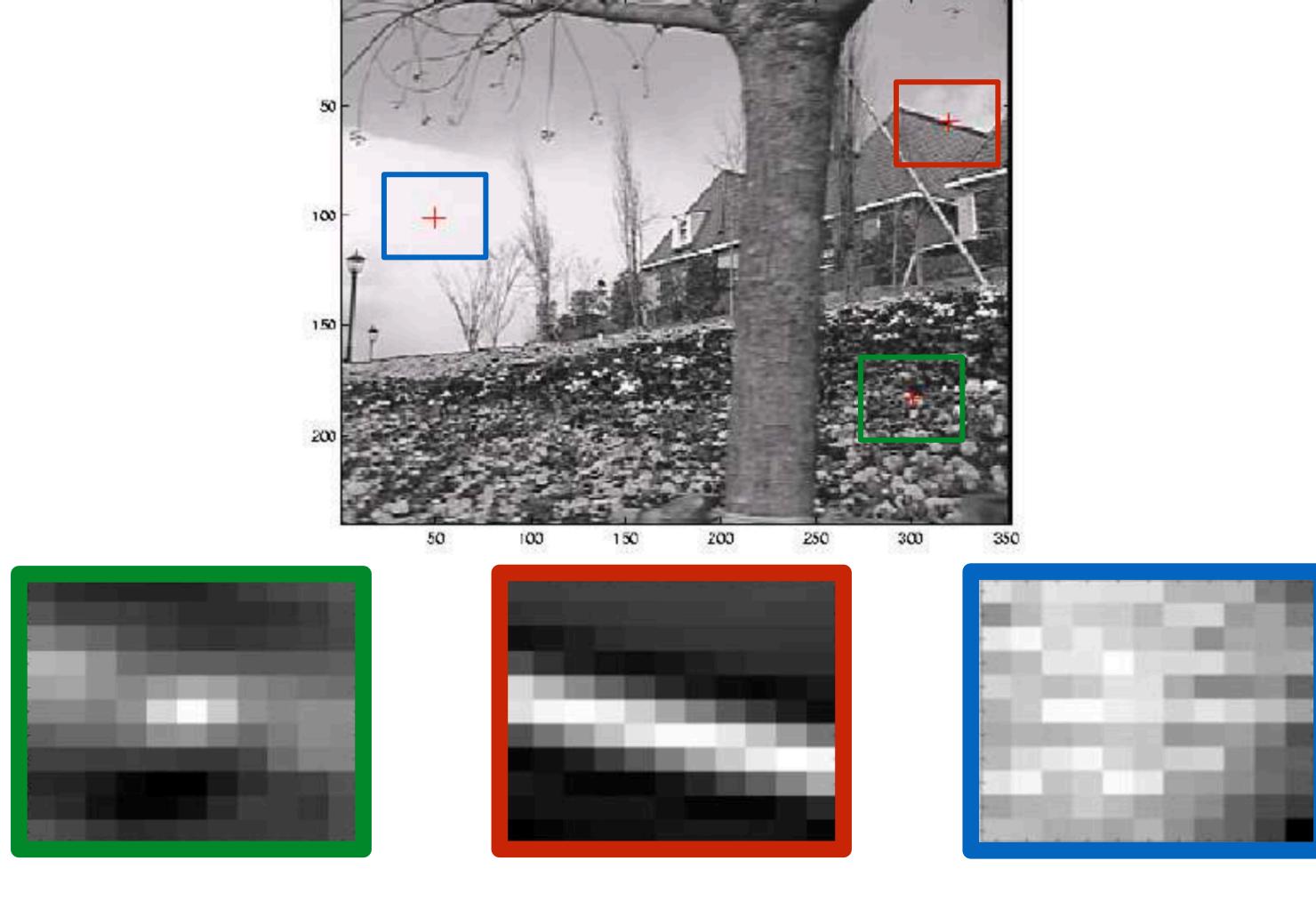
$$\nabla^{2}G(x,y) = \frac{-1}{2\pi\sigma^{4}} \left[2 - \frac{x^{2} + y^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \right] \exp^{-\frac{x^{2} + y^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}}$$

Canny Edge Detector

Steps:

- 1. Apply directional derivatives of Gaussian
- 2. Compute gradient magnitude and gradient direction
- 3. Non-maximum suppression
 - thin multi-pixel wide "ridges" down to single pixel width
- 4. Linking and thresholding
 - Low, high edge-strength thresholds
 - Accept all edges over low threshold that are connected to edge over high threshold

Autocorrelation



Szeliski, Figure 4.5

Harris Corner Detection Review

- Filter image with Gaussian
- Compute magnitude of the x and y gradients at each pixel
- Construct C in a window around each pixel
 - Harris uses a Gaussian window
- Solve for product of the λ 's

Harris & Stephens (1988)

$$\det(C) - \kappa \operatorname{trace}^2(C)$$

- If λ 's both are big (product reaches local maximum above threshold) then we have a corner
 - Harris also checks that ratio of λs is not too high

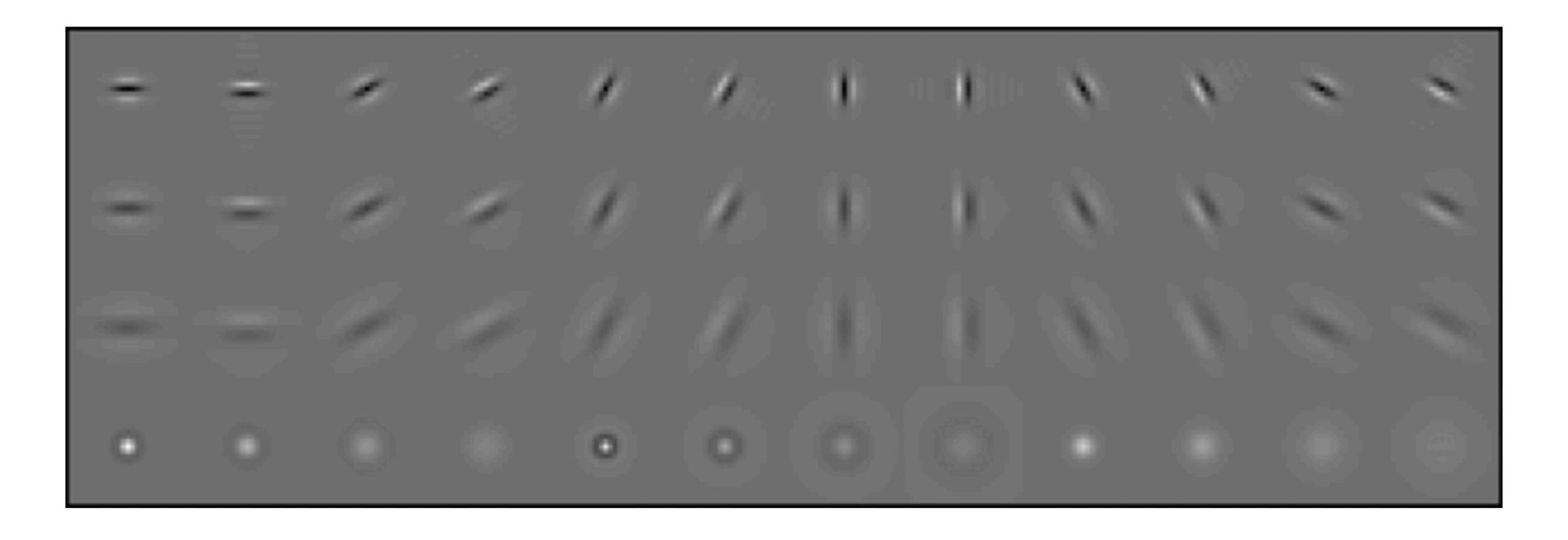
Course Review: Texture

Texture representation

Laplacian pyramid, oriented pyramid

Texture synthesis (Efros and Leung paper)

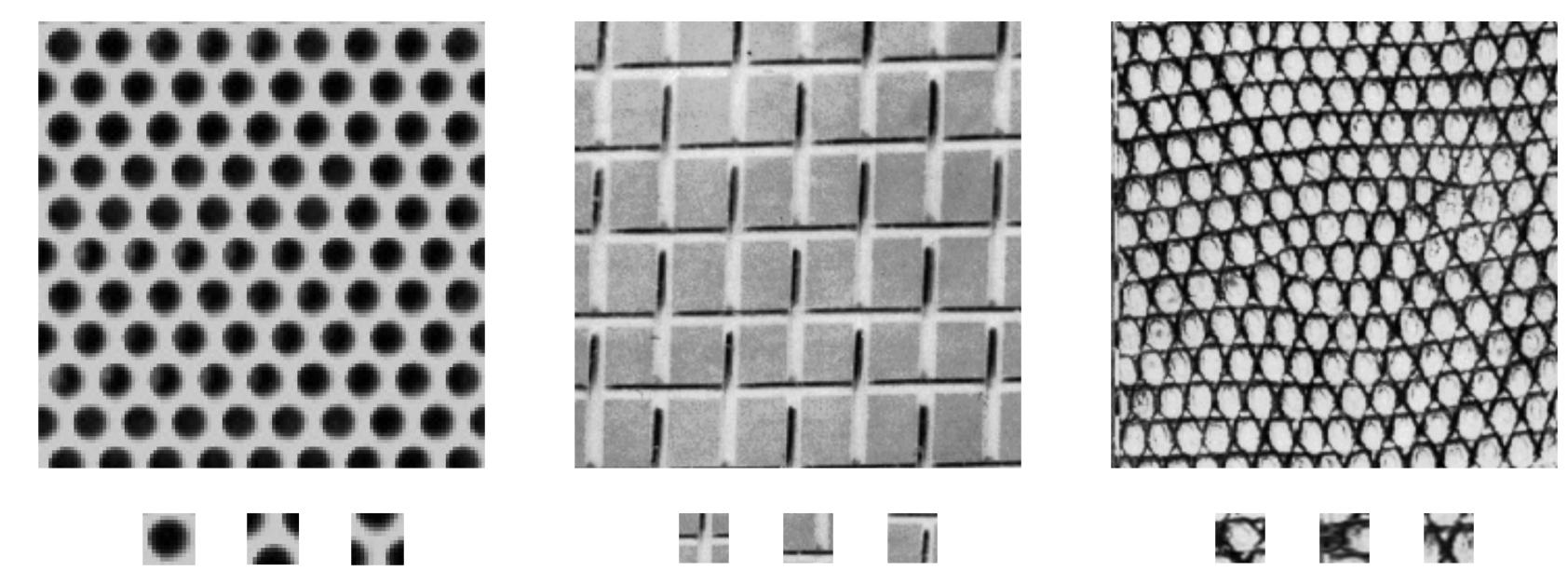
Texture Representation



Result: 48-channel "image"

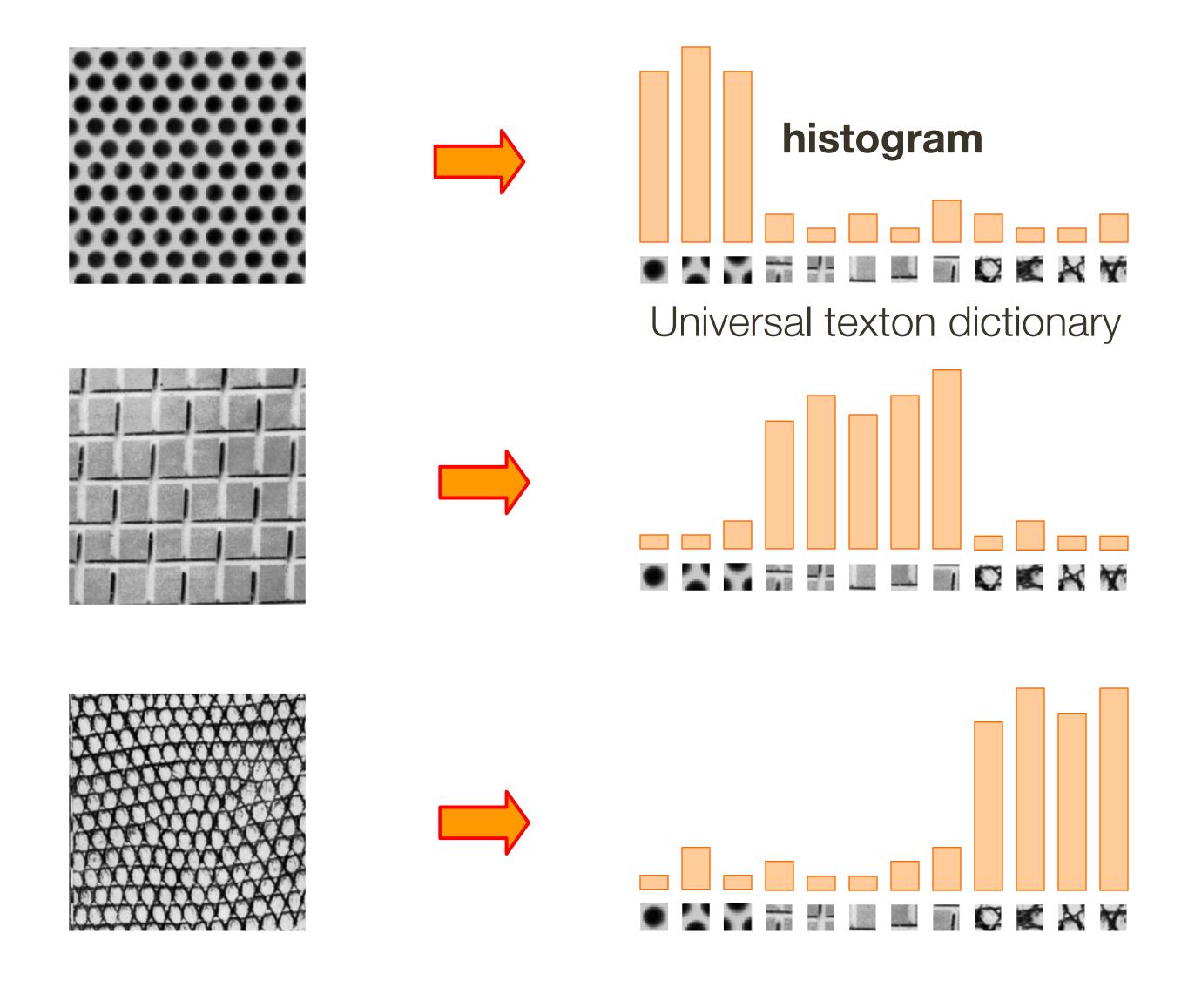
Texture representation and recognition

- Texture is characterized by the repetition of basic elements or textons
- For stochastic textures, it is the **identity of the textons**, not their spatial arrangement, that matters

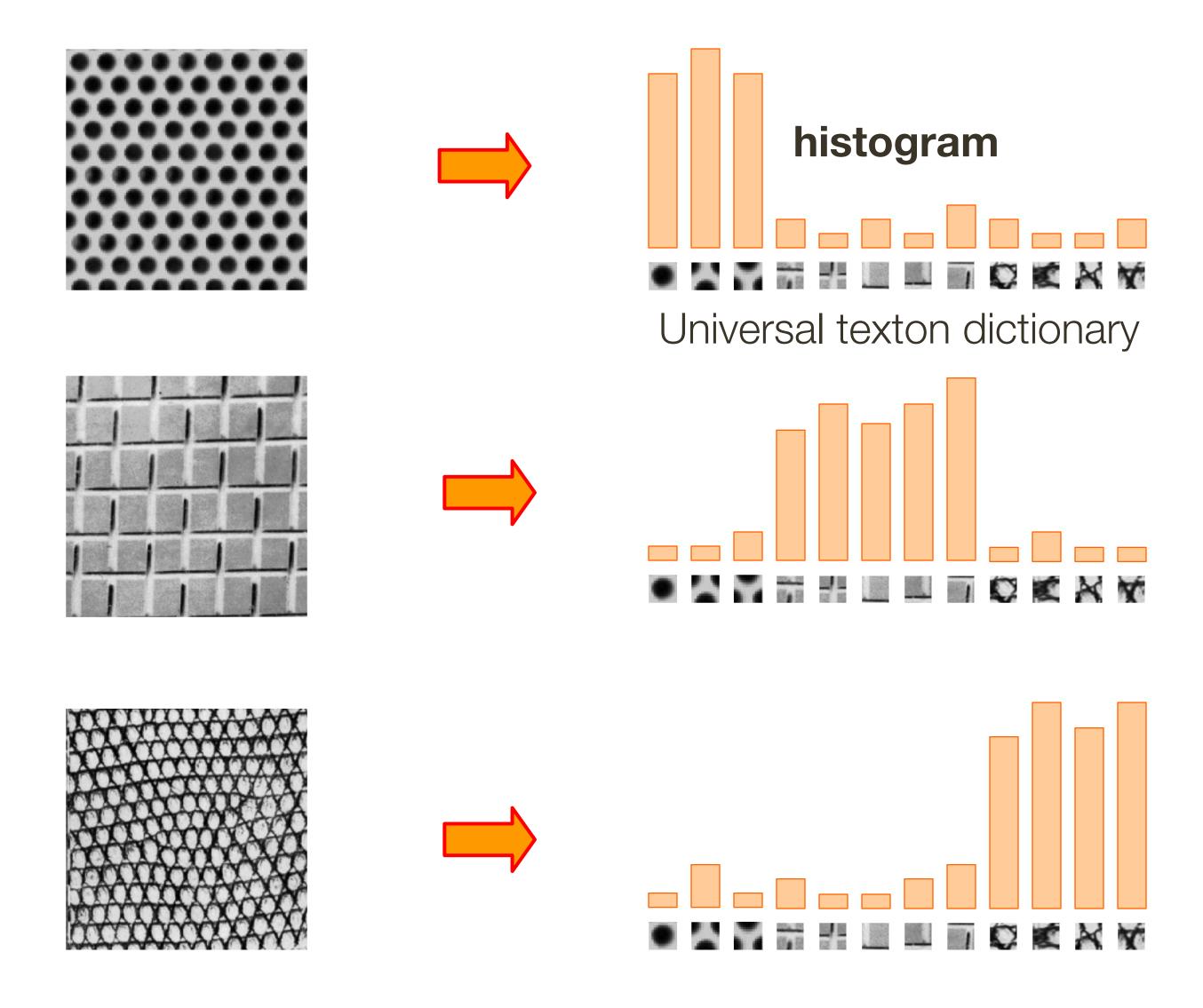


Julesz, 1981; Cula & Dana, 2001; Leung & Malik 2001; Mori, Belongie & Malik, 2001; Schmid 2001; Varma & Zisserman, 2002, 2003; Lazebnik, Schmid & Ponce, 2003

Texture representation and recognition



Texture representation and recognition



Julesz, 1981; Cula & Dana, 2001; Leung & Malik 2001; Mori, Belongie & Malik, 2001; Schmid 2001; Varma & Zisserman, 2002, 2003; Lazebnik, Schmid & Ponce, 2003

Course Review: Local Invariant Features

Keypoint detection using Difference of Gaussian pyramid

Keypoint orientation assignment

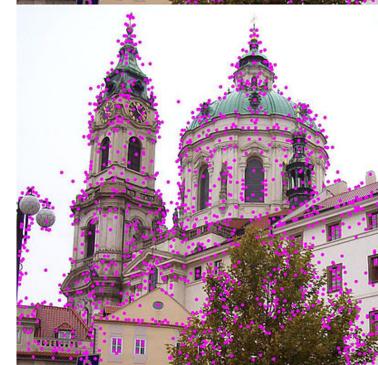
Keypoint descriptor

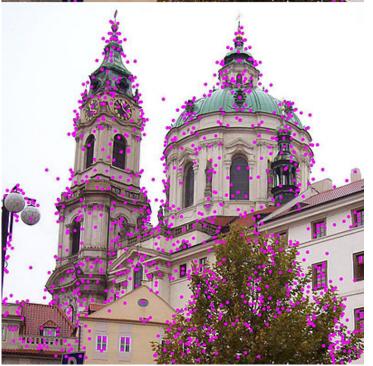
Matching with nearest and second-nearest neighbors

SIFT and object recognition

Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT)



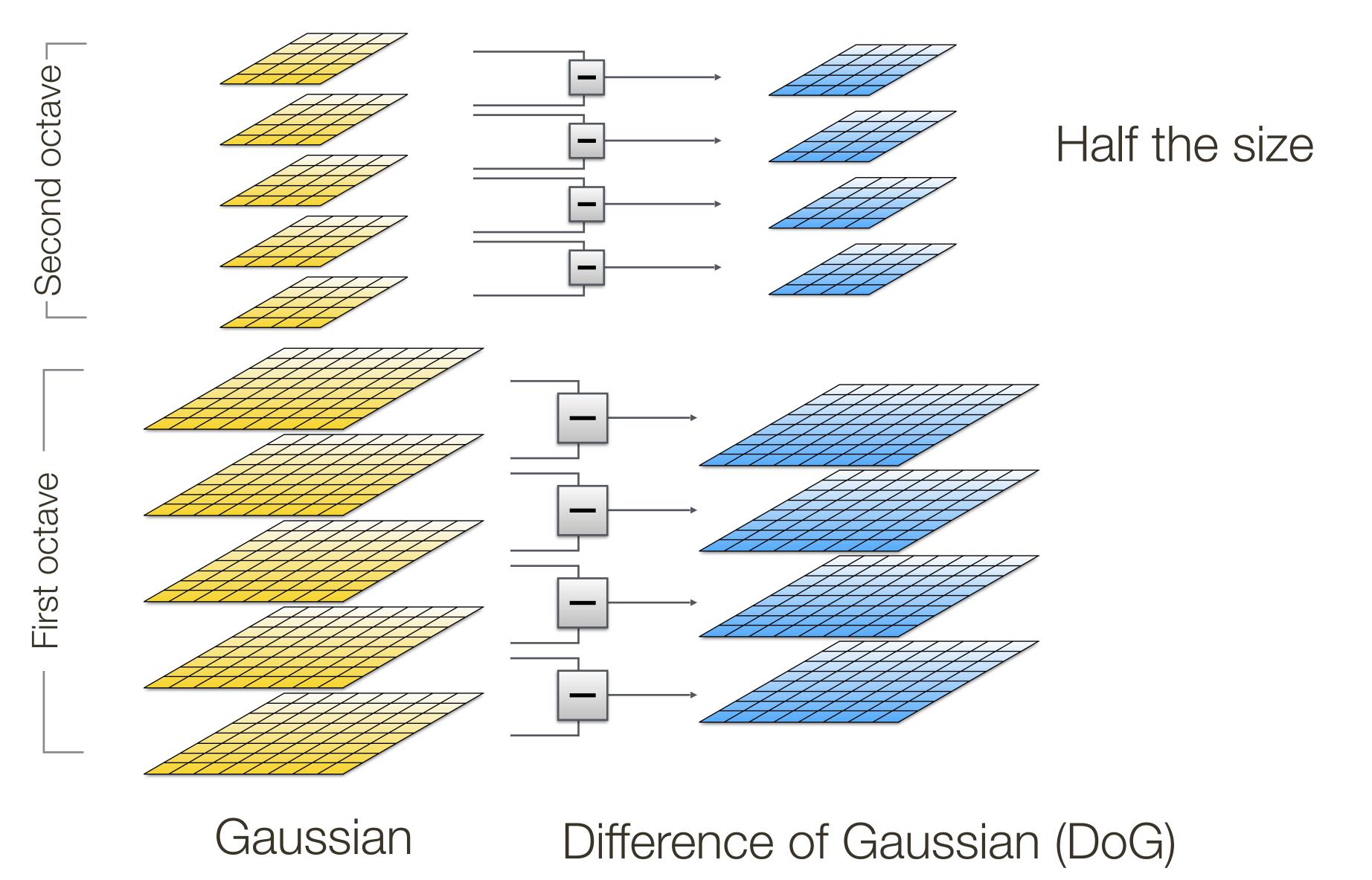




SIFT describes both a detector and descriptor

- 1. Multi-scale extrema detection
- 2. Keypoint localization
- 3. Orientation assignment
- 4. Keypoint descriptor

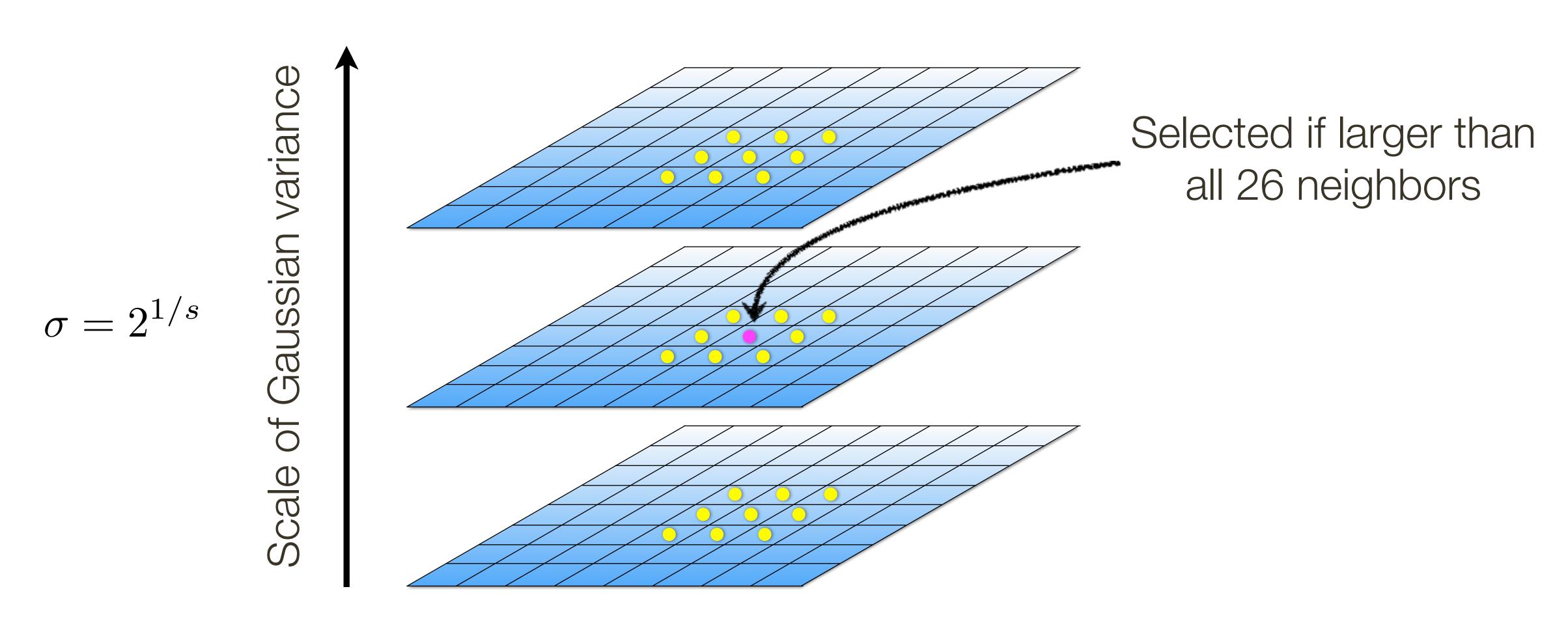
1. Multi-scale Extrema Detection



Slide Credit: Ioannis (Yannis) Gkioulekas (CMU)

1. Multi-scale Extrema Detection

Detect maxima and minima of Difference of Gaussian in scale space



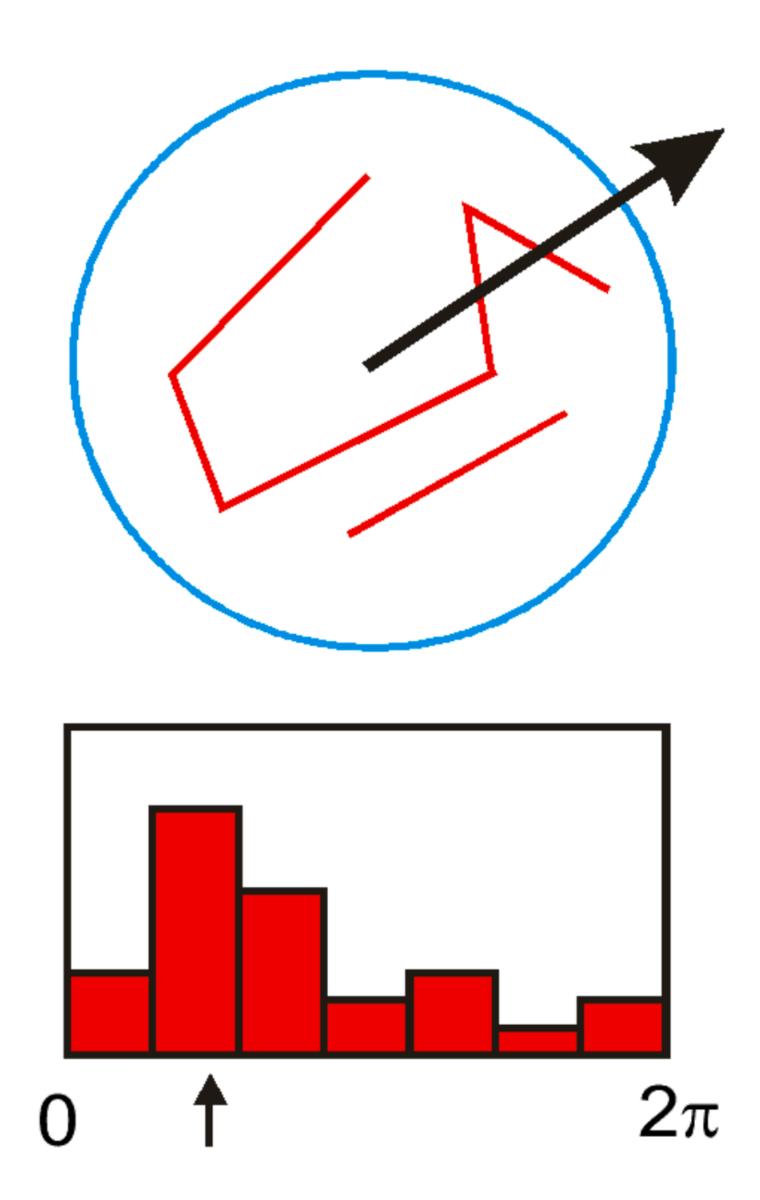
Difference of Gaussian (DoG)

2. Keypoint Localization

- After keypoints are detected, we remove those that have low contrast or are poorly localized along an edge
- Lowe suggests computing the ratio of the eigenvalues of ${\bf C}$ (recall Harris corners) and checking if it is greater than a threshold

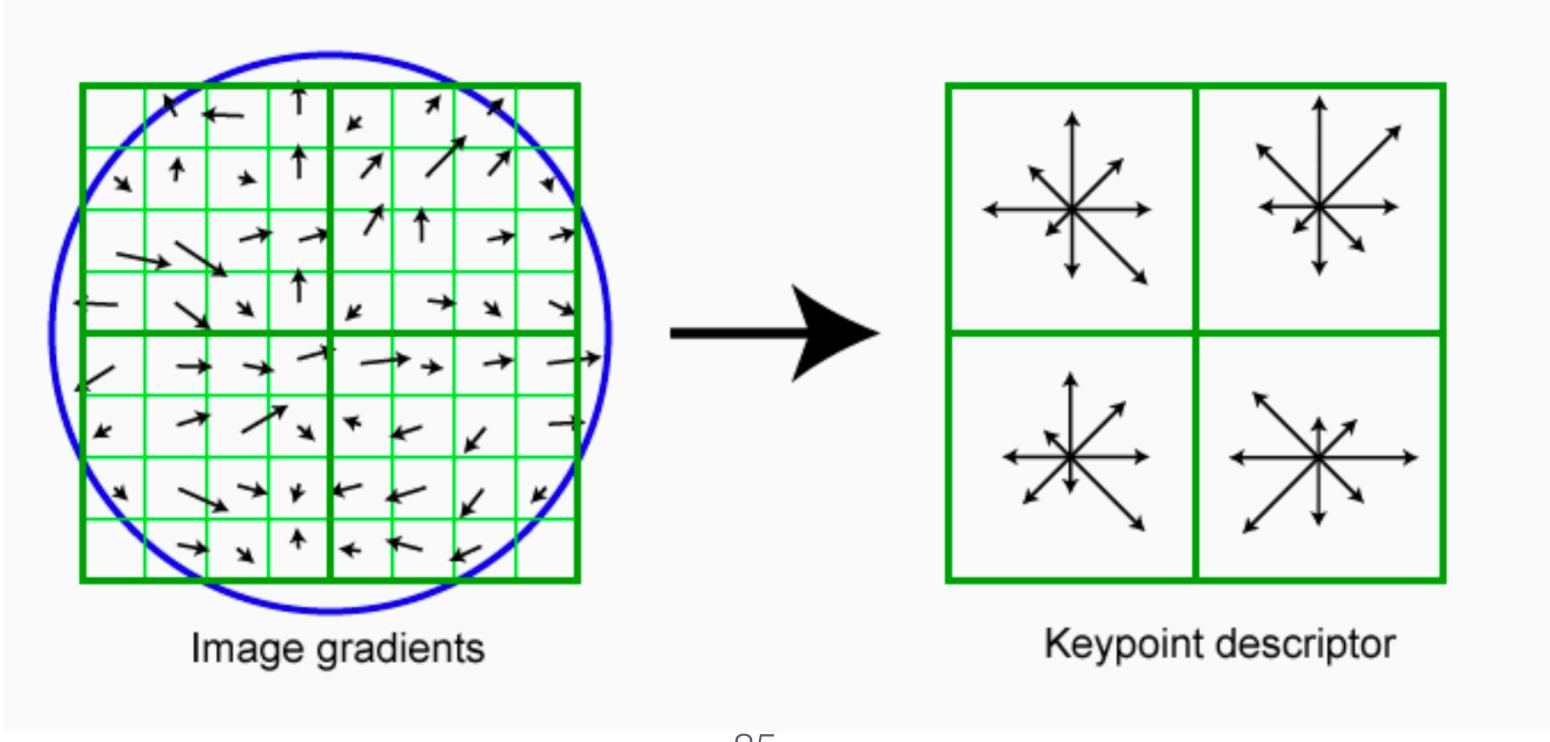
3. Orientation Assignment

- Create **histogram** of local gradient directions computed at selected scale
- Assign canonical orientation at peak of smoothed histogram
- Each key specifies stable 2D
 coordinates (x , y , scale, orientation)



4. SIFT Descriptor

- Thresholded image gradients are sampled over 16×16 array of locations in scale space (weighted by a Gaussian with sigma half the size of the window)
- Create array of orientation histograms
- 8 orientations \times 4 \times 4 histogram array



Alternatives to SIFT

- Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HoG) more detailed, higher dimensional
- SURF faster, lower dimensional

Course Review: Fitting Data to a Model

RANSAC

Hough transform

RANSAC (RANdom SAmple Consensus)

- 1. Randomly choose minimal subset of data points necessary to fit model (a **sample**)
- 2. Points within some distance threshold, t, of model are a **consensus set**. Size of consensus set is model's **support**
- 3. Repeat for N samples; model with biggest support is most robust fit
 - Points within distance t of best model are inliers
 - Fit final model to all inliers

RANSAC: How many samples?

Let ω be the fraction of inliers (i.e., points on line)

Let n be the number of points needed to define hypothesis (n=2 for a line in the plane)

Suppose k samples are chosen

The probability that a single sample of n points is correct (all inliers) is

$$\omega^n$$

The probability that all k samples fail is

$$(1-\omega^n)^k$$

Choose k large enough (to keep this below a target failure rate)

RANSAC: k Samples Chosen (p = 0.99)

Sample size	Proportion of outliers						
n	5%	10%	20%	25%	30%	40%	50%
2	2	3	5	6	7	11	17
3	3	4	7	9	11	19	35
4	3	5	9	13	17	34	72
5	4	6	12	17	26	57	146
6	4	7	16	24	37	97	293
7	4	8	20	33	54	163	588
5 6 7 8	5	9	26	44	78	272	1177

Figure Credit: Hartley & Zisserman

Discussion of RANSAC

Advantages:

- General method suited for a wide range of model fitting problems
- Easy to implement and easy to calculate its failure rate

Disadvantages:

- Only handles a moderate percentage of outliers without cost blowing up
- Many real problems have high rate of outliers (but sometimes selective choice of random subsets can help)

The Hough transform can handle high percentage of outliers

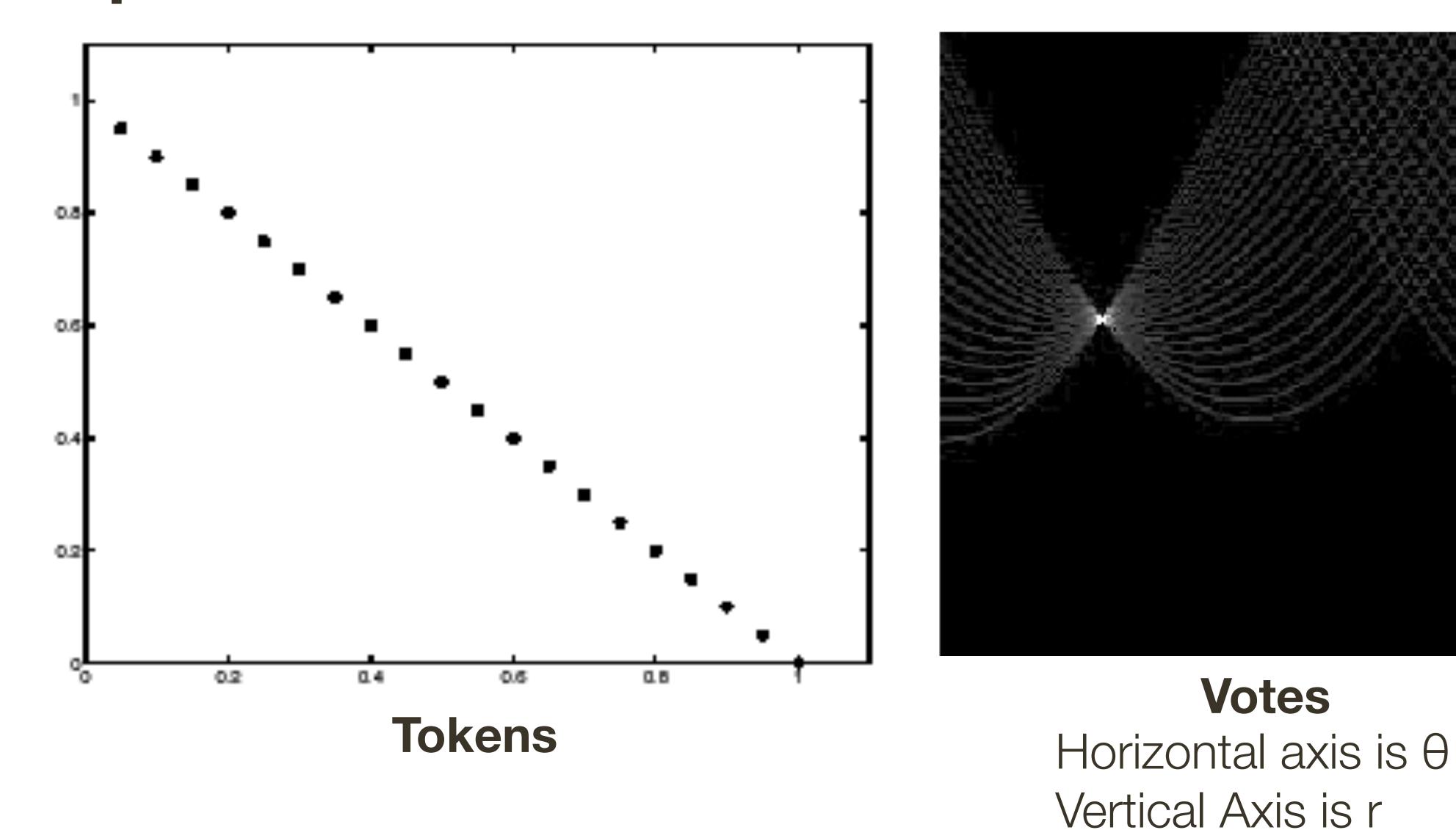
Hough Transform

Idea of Hough transform:

- For each token vote for all models to which the token could belong
- Return models that get many votes

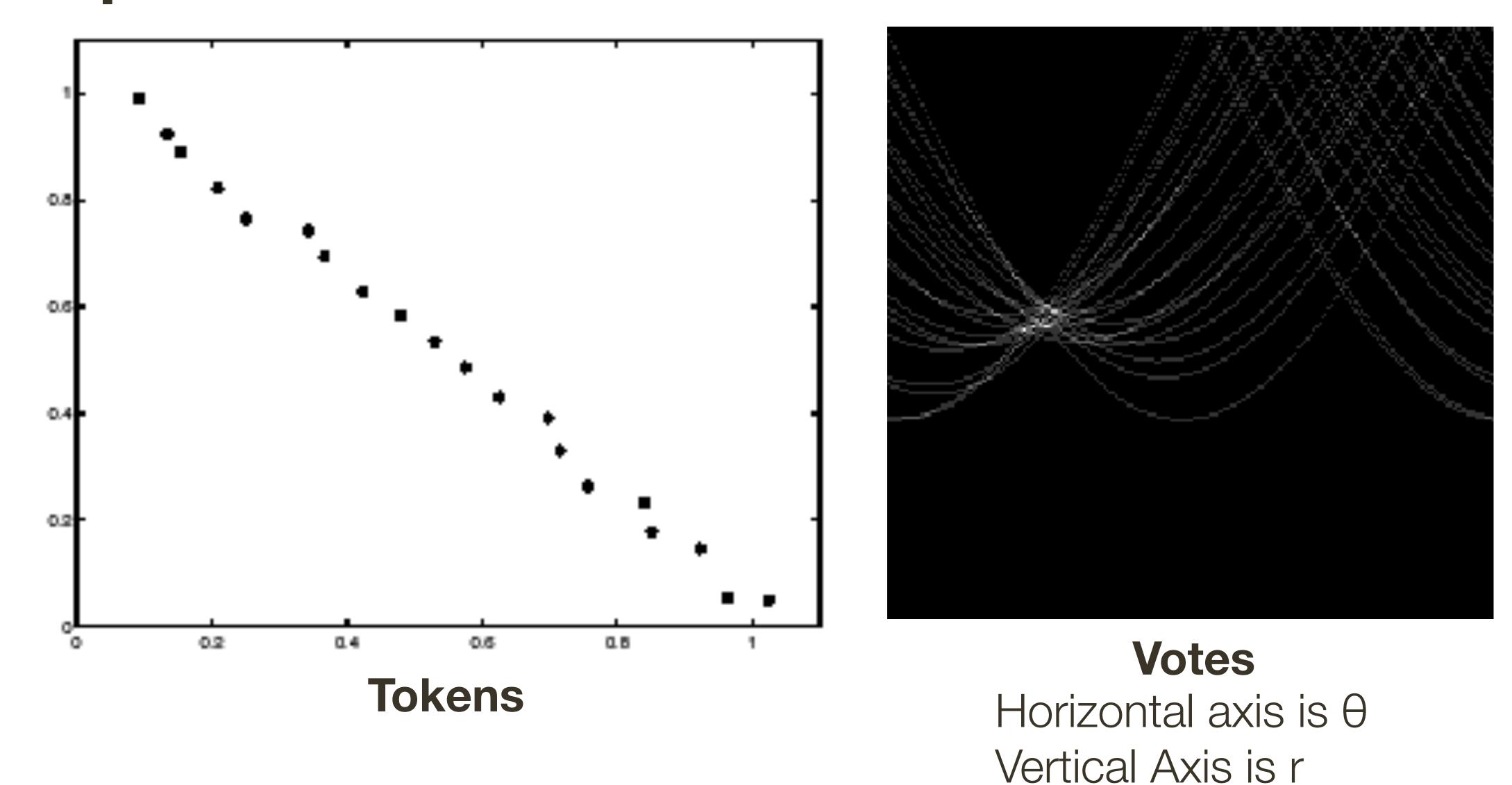
Example: For each point, vote for all lines that could pass through it; the true lines will pass through many points and so receive many votes

Example: Clean Data



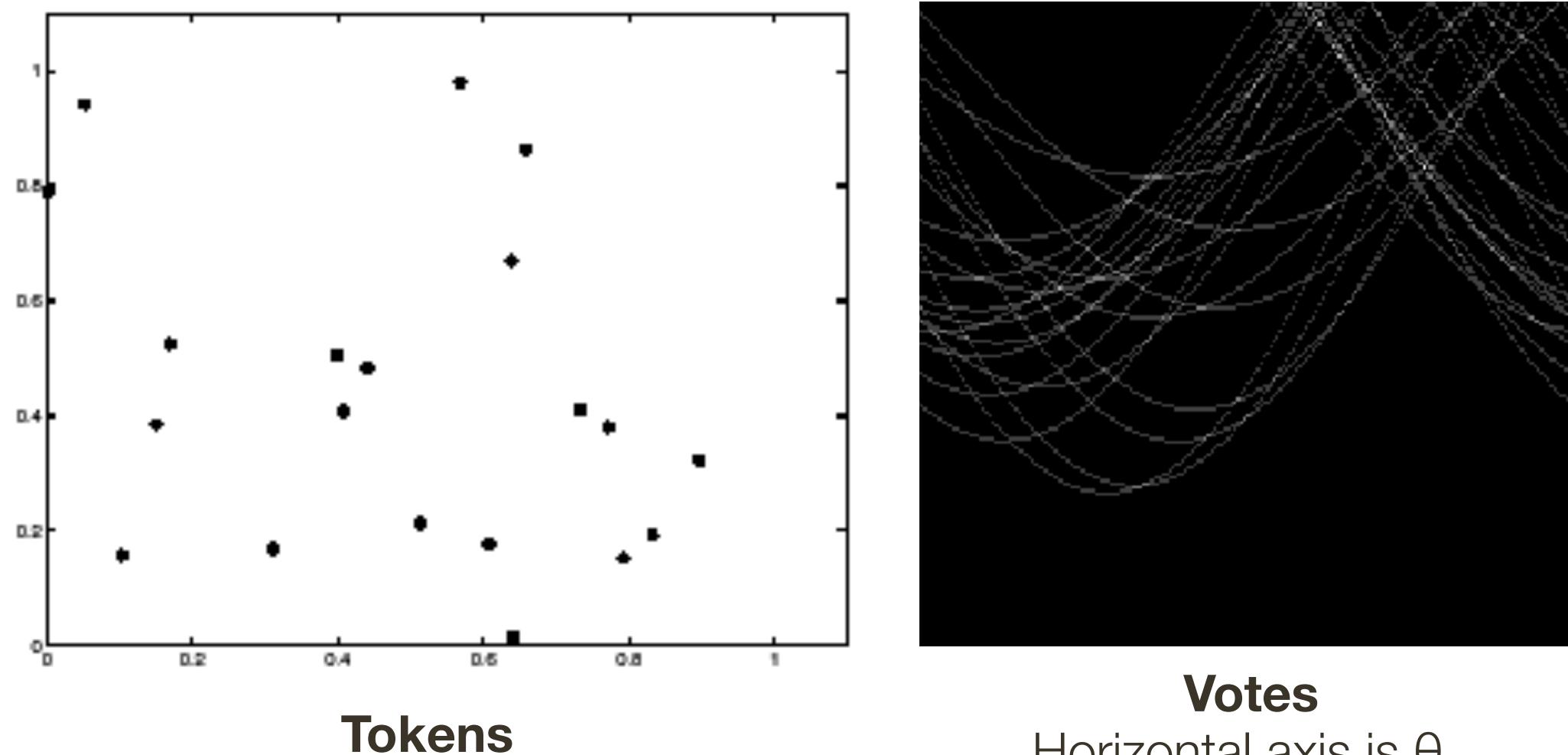
Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 10.1 (Top)

Example: Some Noise



Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 10.1 (Bottom)

Example: Too Much Noise



Horizontal axis is θ Vertical Axis is r

Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 10.2

Course Review: Stereo

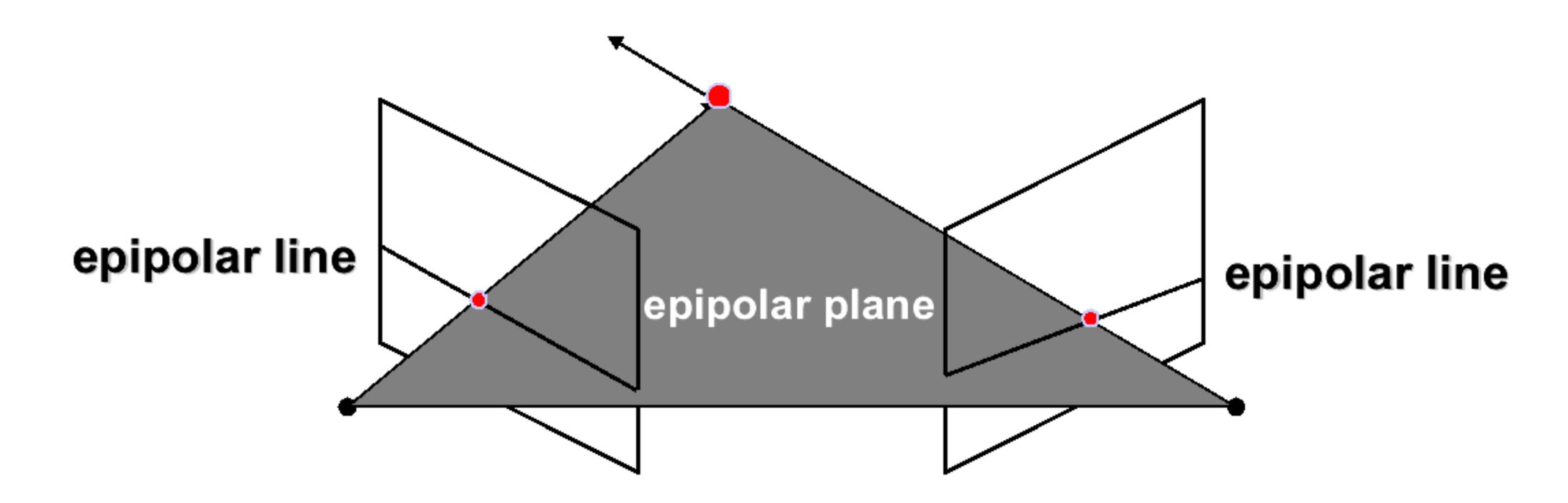
Epipolar constraint

Rectified images

Computing correspondences

Ordering constraint

The Epipolar Constraint



Matching points lie along corresponding epipolar lines Reduces correspondence problem to 1D search along conjugate epipolar lines Greatly reduces cost and ambiguity of matching

Slide credit: Steve Seitz

Simplest Case: Rectified Images

Image planes of cameras are parallel

Focal **points** are at same height

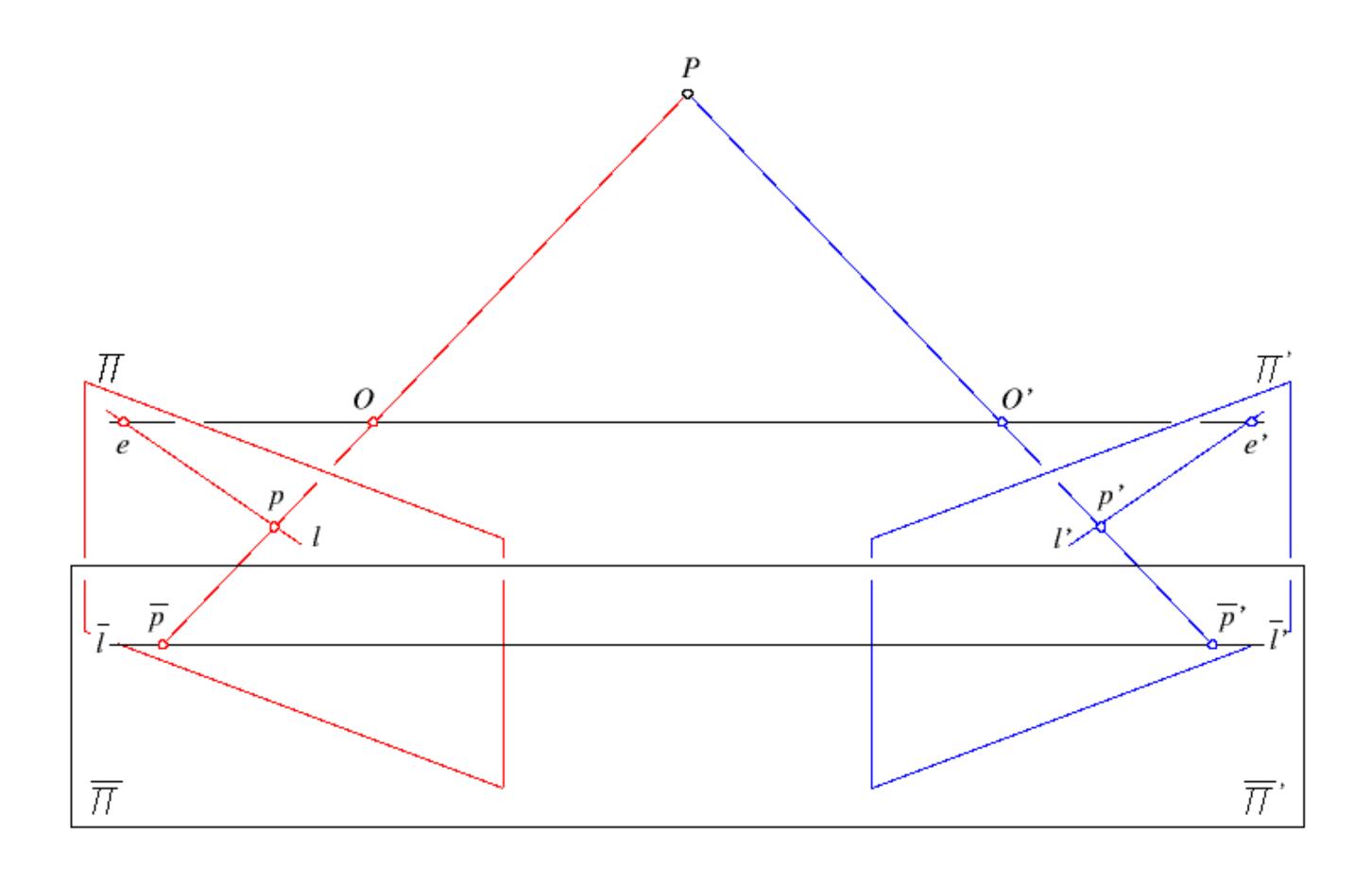
Focal lengths same

Then, epipolar lines fall along the horizontal scan lines of the images

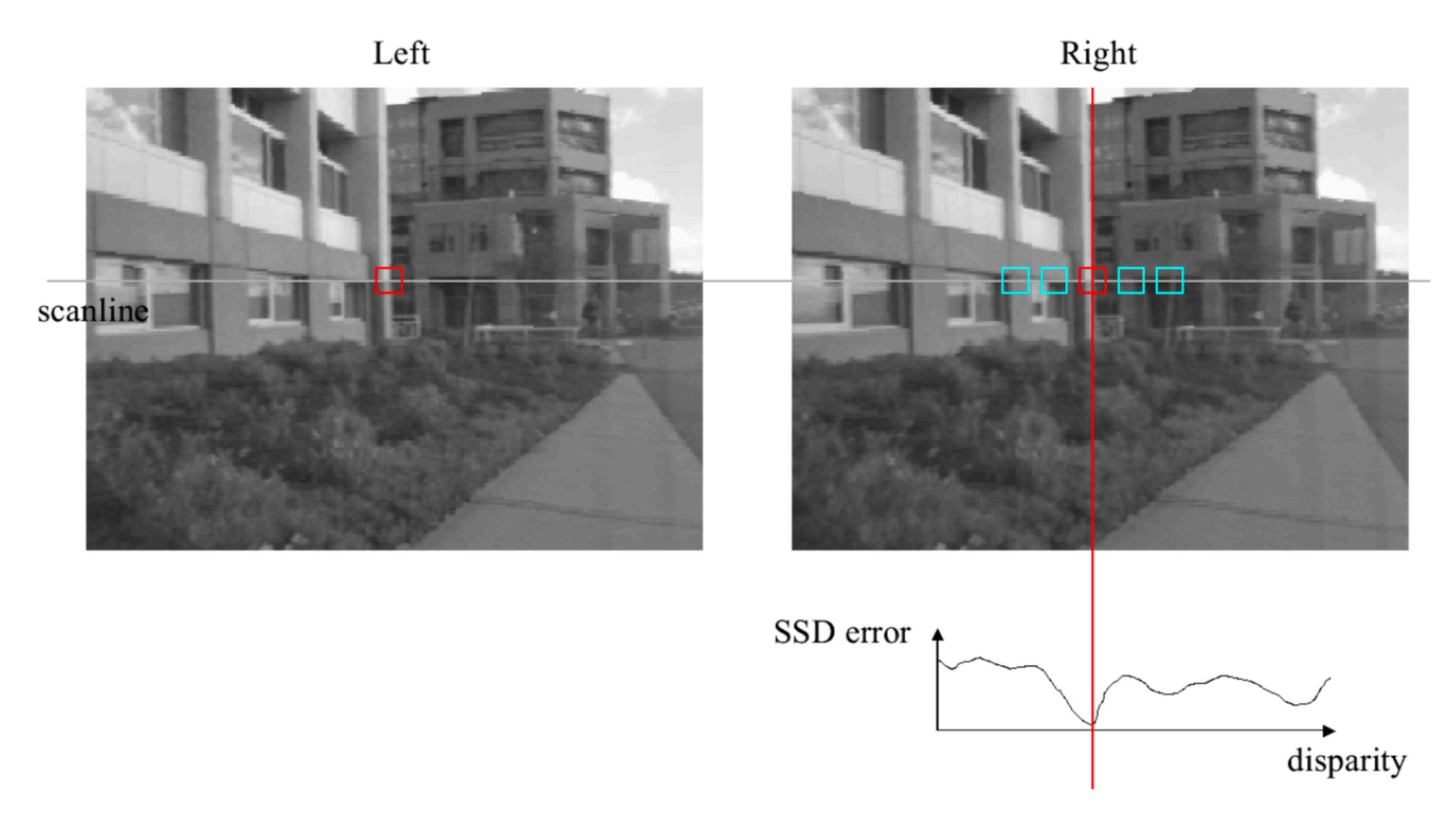
We assume images have been **rectified** so that epipolar lines correspond to scan lines

- Simplifies algorithms
- Improves efficiency

Rectified Stereo Pair

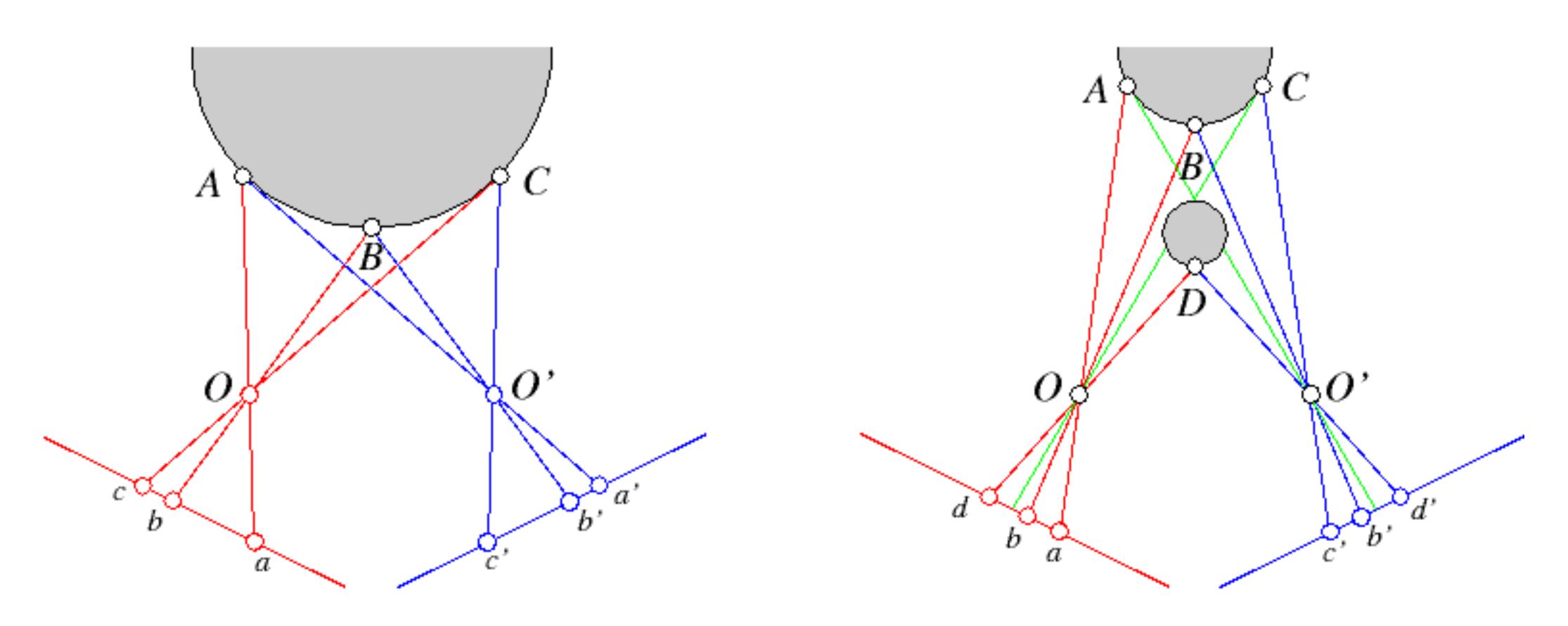


Method: Correlation



Ordering Constraints

Ordering constraint ...

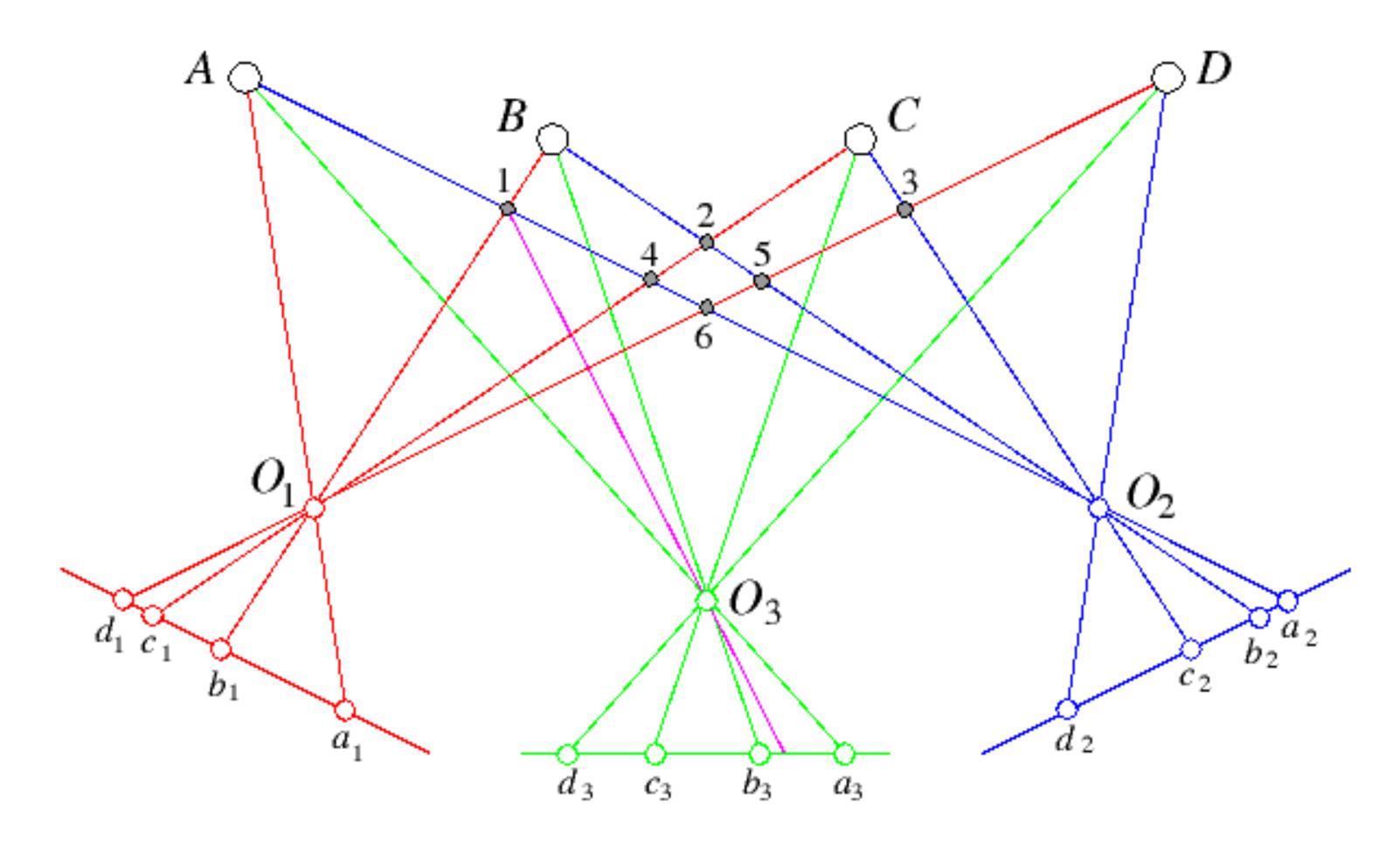


.... and a failure case

Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 7.13

Idea: Use More Cameras

Adding a third camera reduces ambiguity in stereo matching



Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 7.17

Sample Question

True or false: The ordering constraint always holds in stereo vision.

Course Review: Motion and Optical Flow

Motion (geometric), optical flow (radiometric)

Optical flow constraint equation

Lucas-Kanade method

Optical Flow Constraint Equation

Consider image intensity also to be a function of time, t. We write I(x, y, t)

Applying the chain rule for differentiation, we obtain

$$\frac{dI(x,y,t)}{dt} = I_x \frac{dx}{dt} + I_y \frac{dy}{dt} + I_t$$

where subscripts denote partial differentiation

Define $u=\frac{dx}{dt}$ and $v=\frac{dy}{dt}$. Then [u,v] is the 2-D motion and the space of all

such u and v is the 2-D velocity space

Suppose $\frac{dI(x,y,t)}{dt}=0$. Then we obtain the (classic) optical flow constraint equation $I_x u + I_y v + I_t = 0$

How do we compute ...

$$I_x u + I_y v + I_t = 0$$

$$I_x = \frac{\partial I}{\partial x} \quad I_y = \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}$$

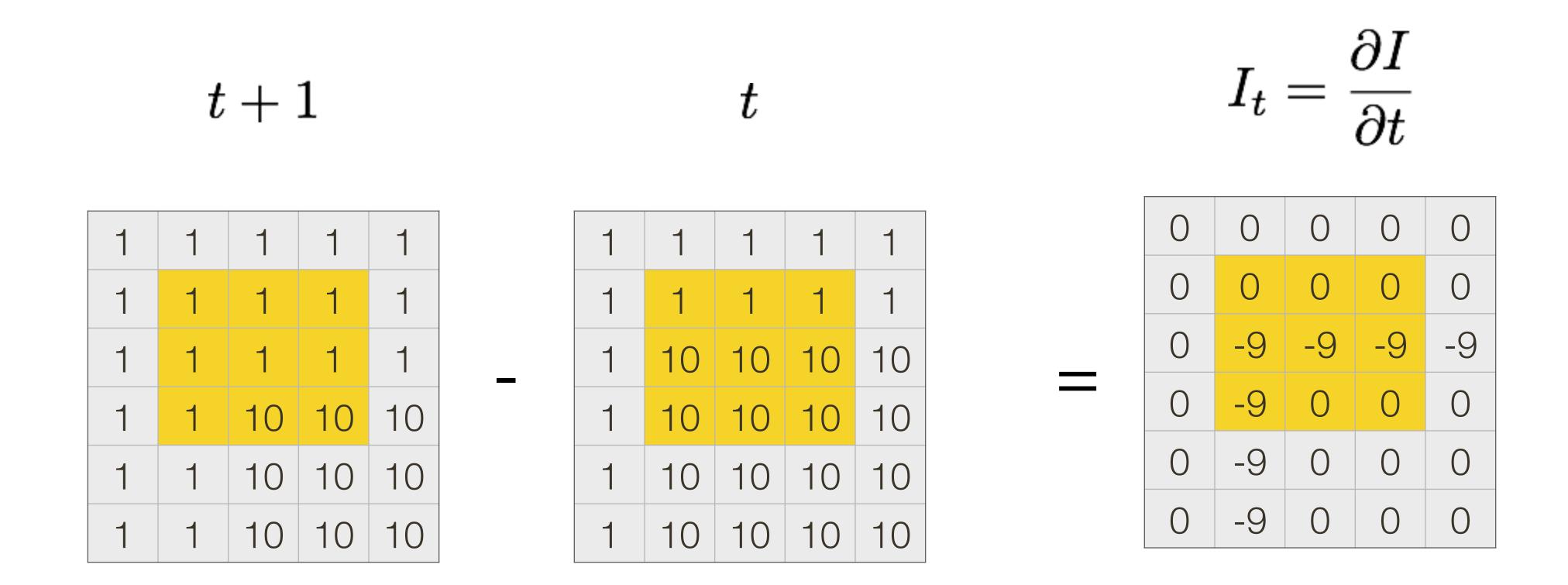
spatial derivative

Forward difference Sobel filter Scharr filter $I_t = \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}$

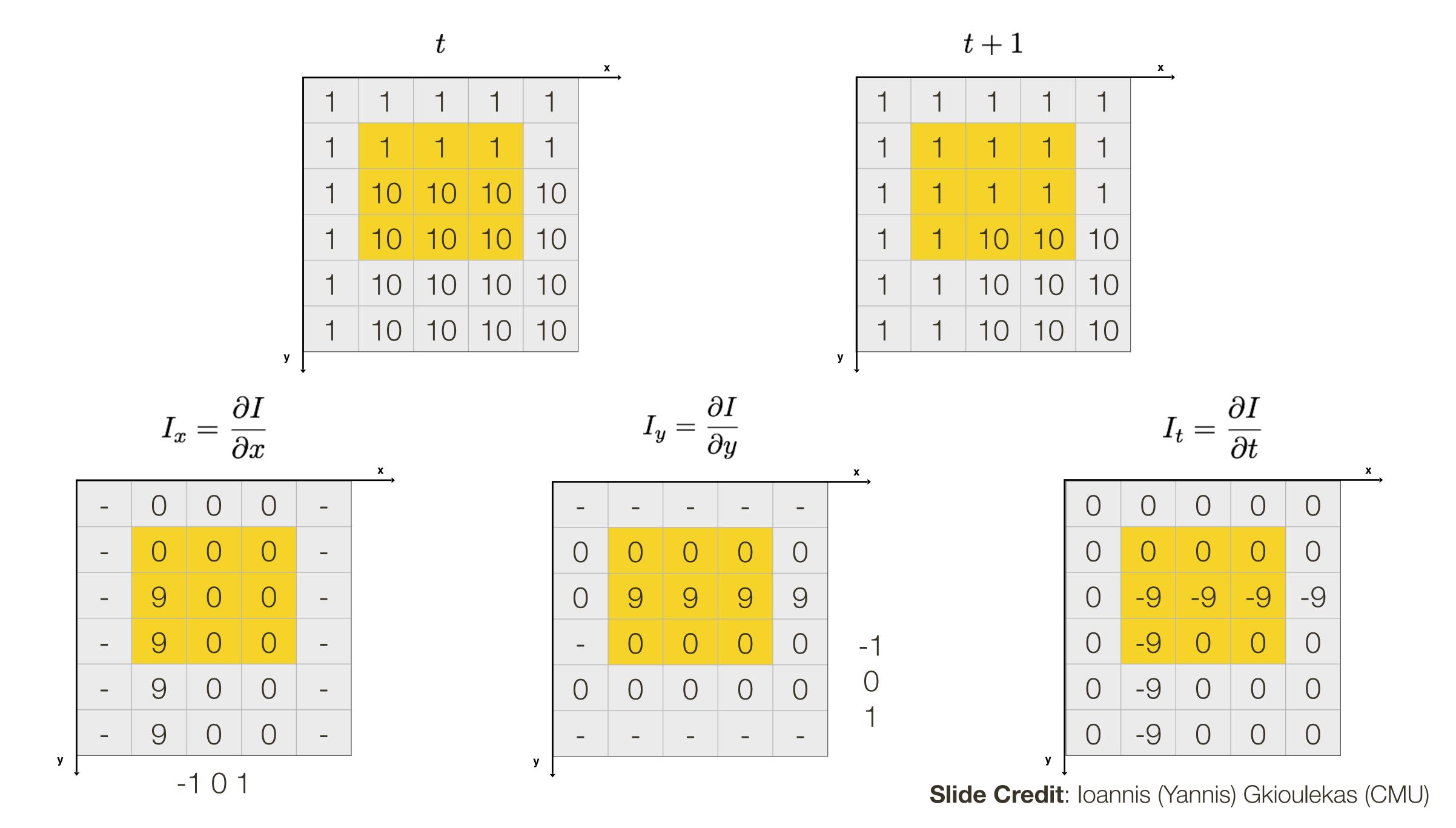
temporal derivative

Frame differencing

Frame Differencing: Example



(example of a forward temporal difference)



How do we compute ...

$$I_x u + I_y v + I_t = 0$$

$$I_x = rac{\partial I}{\partial x} \ I_y = rac{\partial I}{\partial y}$$

spatial derivative

$$u=rac{dx}{dt} \quad v=rac{dy}{dt}$$
 optical flow

How do you compute this?

$$I_t = \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}$$

temporal derivative

Frame differencing

Forward difference Sobel filter Scharr filter

. . .

Lucas-Kanade Summary

A dense method to compute motion, [u, v] at every location in an image

Key Assumptions:

- **1.** Motion is slow enough and smooth enough that differential methods apply (i.e., that the partial derivatives, I_x , I_y , I_t , are well-defined)
- 2. The optical flow constraint equation holds (i.e., $\frac{dI(x,y,t)}{dt} = 0$)
- **3**. A window size is chosen so that motion, [u, v], is constant in the window
- **4.** A window size is chosen so that the rank of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ is 2 for the window

Sample Question

Describe two examples of imaging situations where motion and optical flow do not coincide.

Course Review: Clustering

K-means clustering

K-Means Clustering

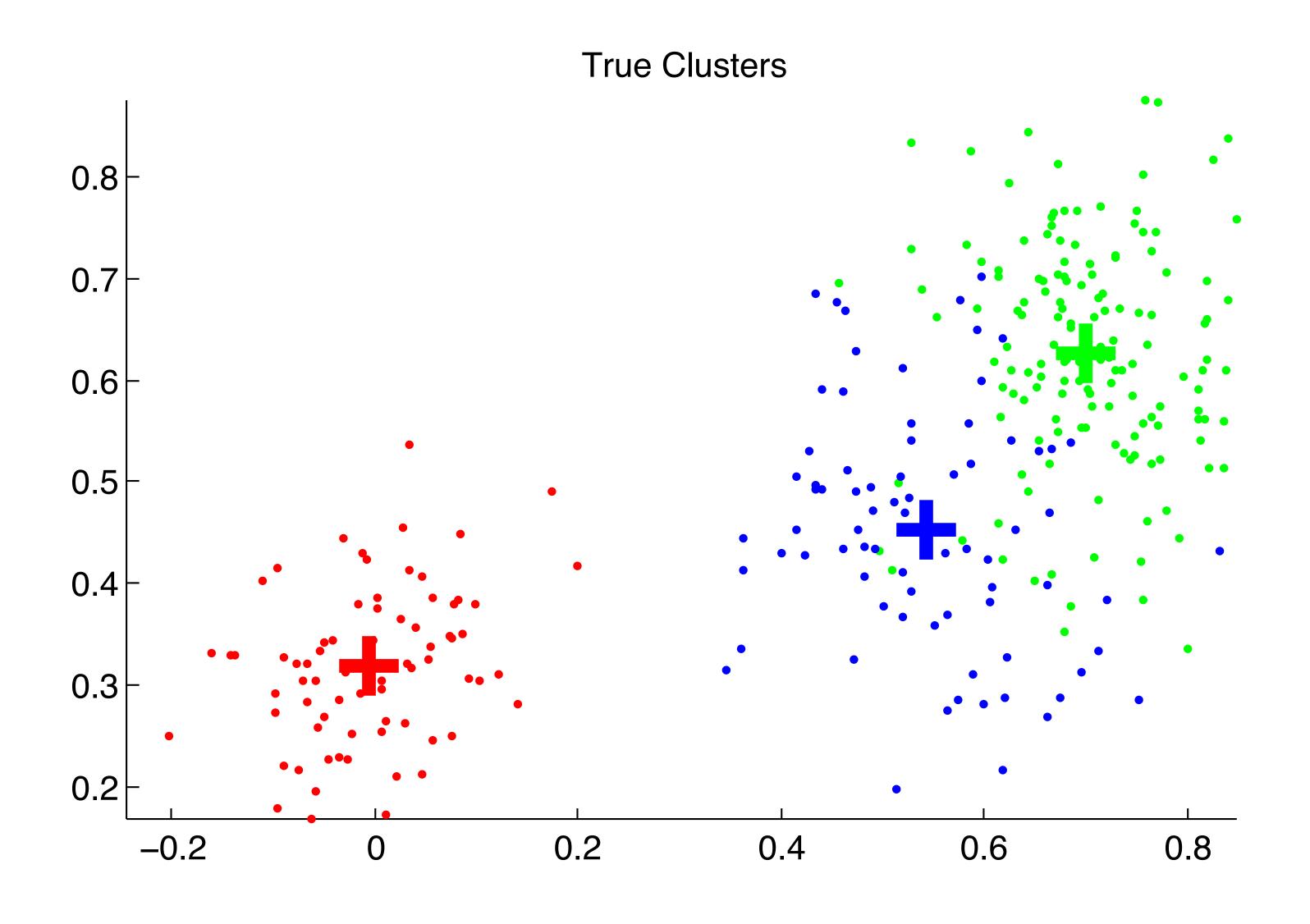
K-means clustering alternates between two steps:

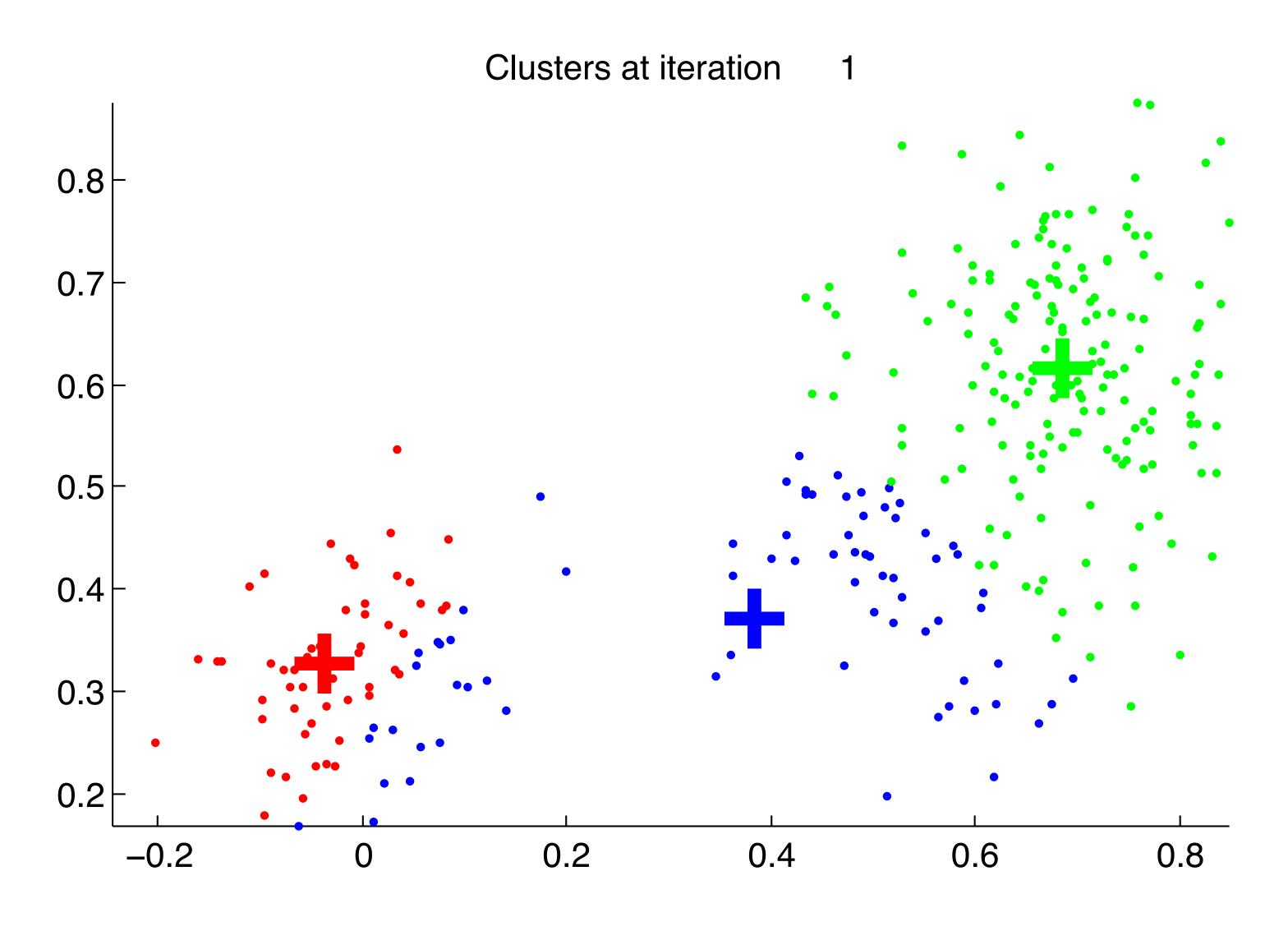
- 1. Assume the cluster centers are known (fixed). Assign each point to the closest cluster center.
- 2. Assume the assignment of points to clusters is known (fixed). Compute the best center for each cluster, as the mean of the points assigned to the cluster.

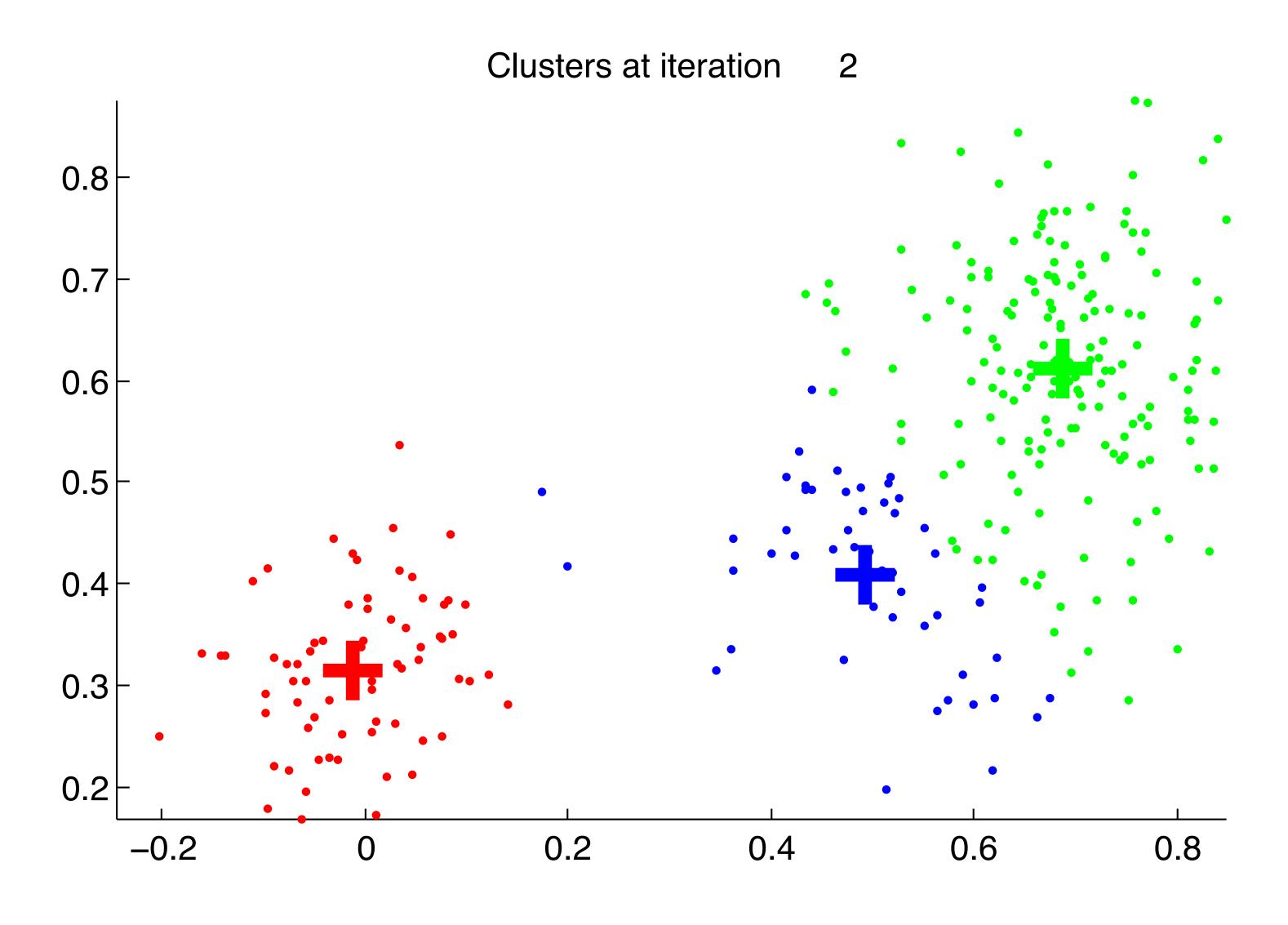
The algorithm is initialized by choosing K random cluster centers

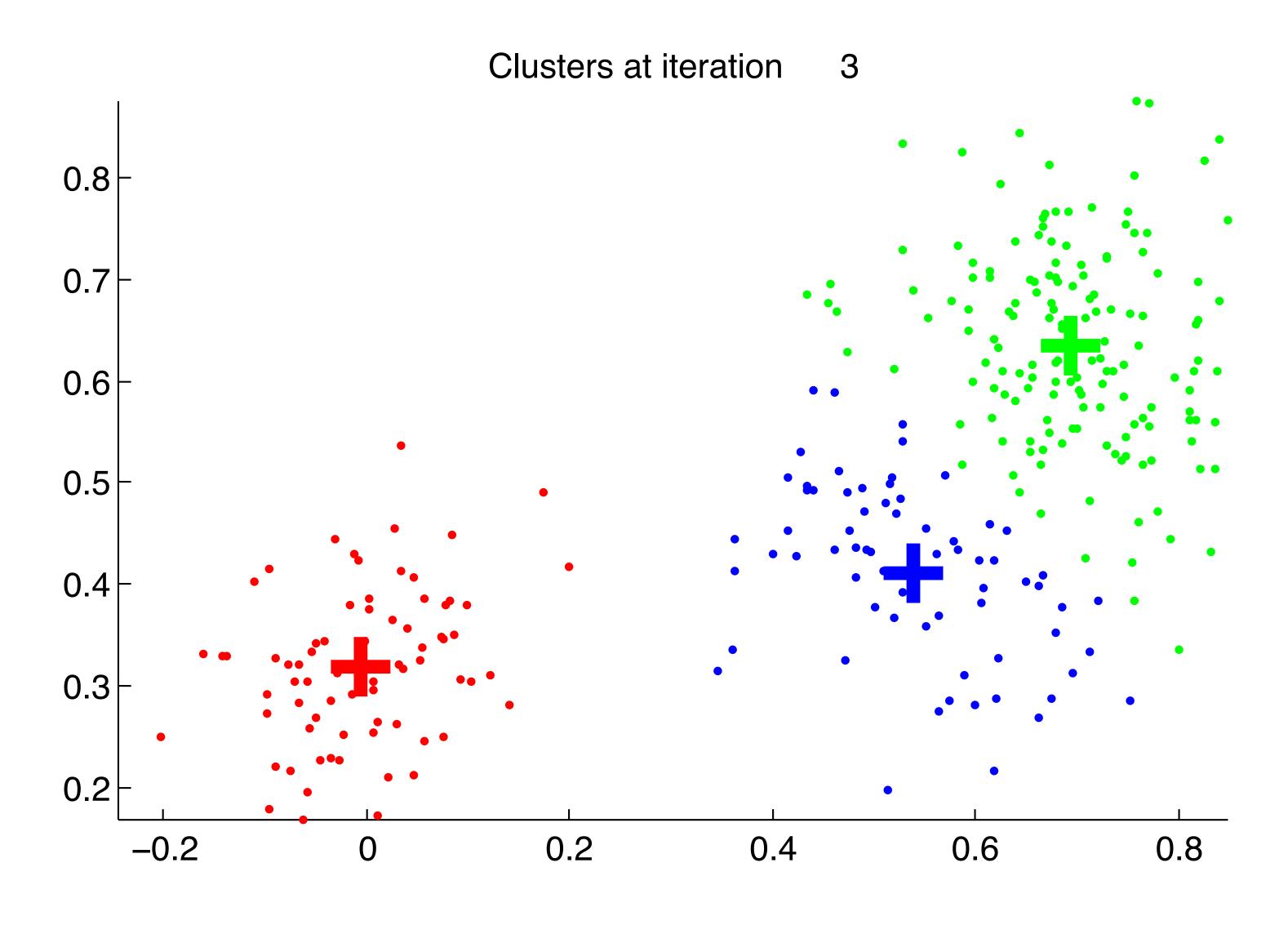
K-means converges to a local minimum of the objective function

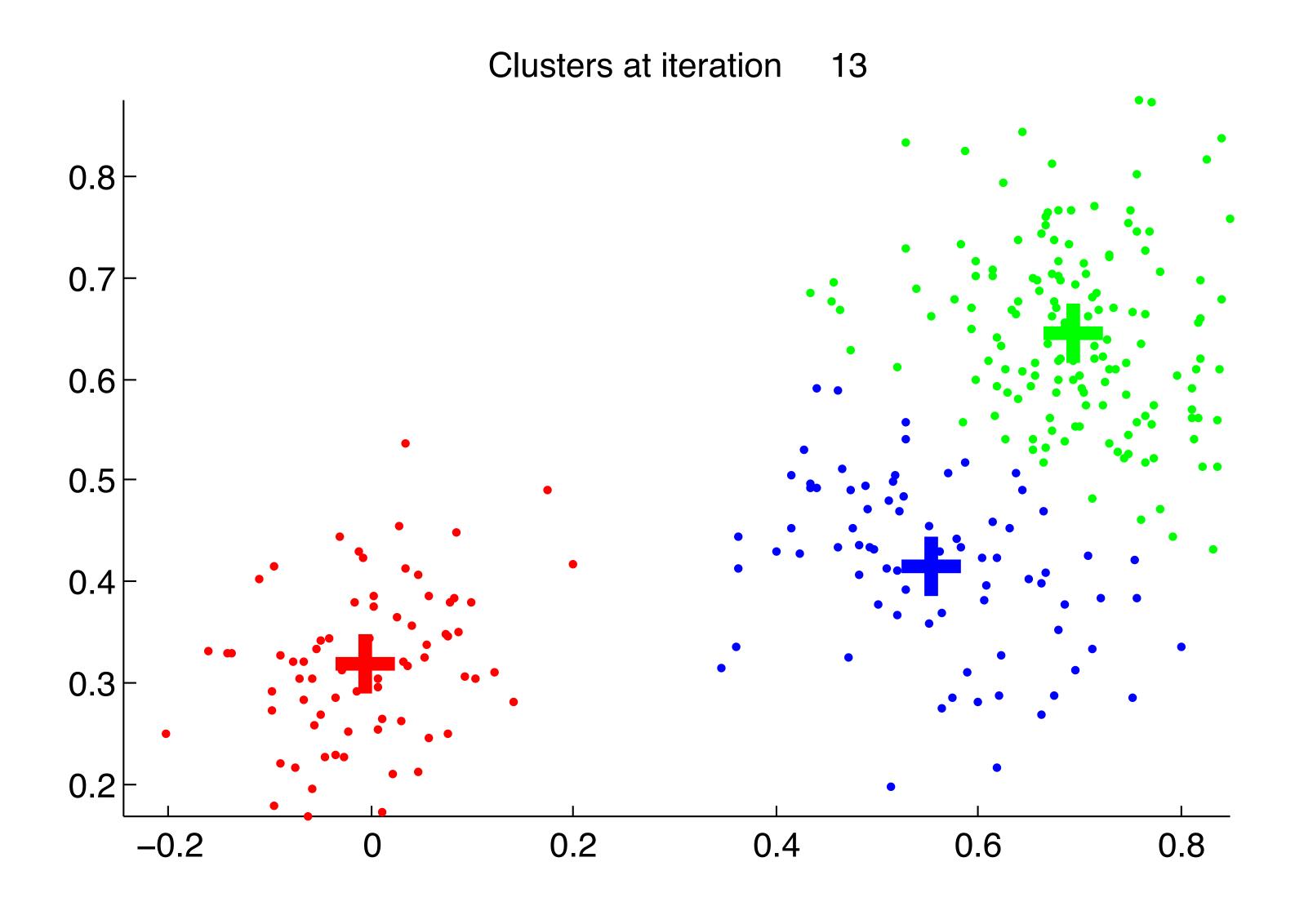
Results are initialization dependent











Course Review: Classification

Bayes' risk, loss functions

Underfitting, overfitting

Cross-validation

Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve

Parametric vs. non-parametric classifiers

- K-nearest neighbour
- Bayes' classifier
- Support vector machines
- Decision trees

Course Review: Image Classification

Visual words, codebooks

Bag of words representation

Spatial pyramid

VLAD

Dictionary Learning:

Learn Visual Words using clustering

Encode:

build Bags-of-Words (BOW) vectors for each image

Classify:

Train data using BOWs

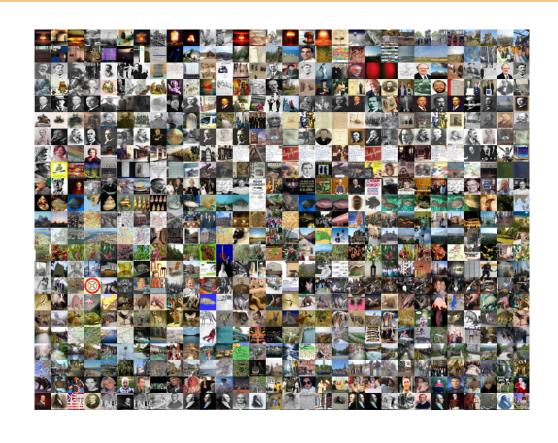
Input: large collection of images (they don't even need to be training images)

→

Dictionary Learning:

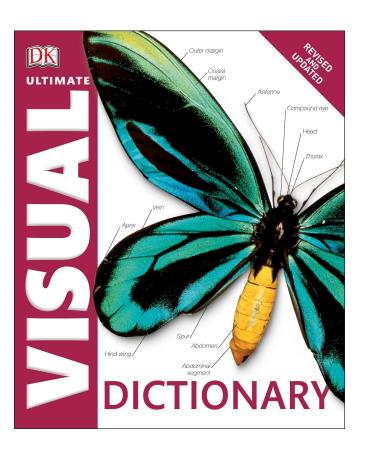
Learn Visual Words using clustering





Encode:

build Bags-of-Words (BOW) vectors for each image



Classify:

Train data using BOWs

Input: large collection of images (they don't even need to be training images)

Dictionary Learning:

Learn Visual Words using clustering

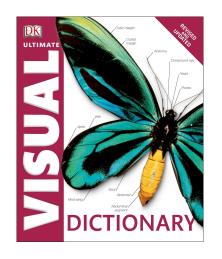
Output: dictionary of visual words

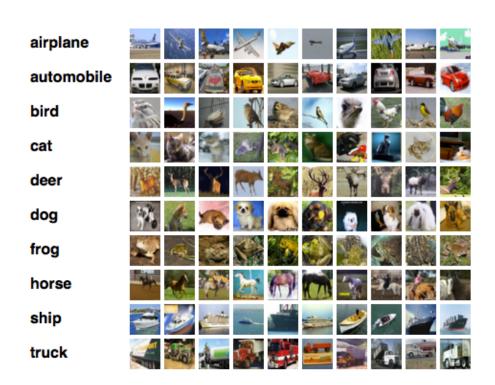
Input: training images, dictionary

Encode:

→ build Bags-of-Words (BOW) vectors →

for each image

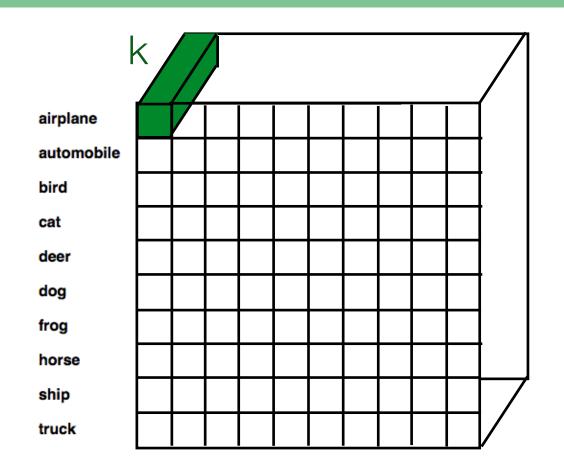




Classify:

Train data using BOWs

Output: histogram representation for each training image



Input: large collection of images (they don't even need to be training images)

Learn Visual Words using clustering

Encode:

Output: dictionary of visual words

Input: training images, dictionary → build Bags-of-Words (BOW) vectors → for each image

Output: histogram representation for each training image

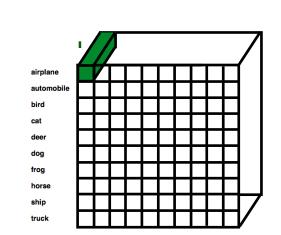
Input: histogram representation for each training image + labels

Classify:

Train data using BOWs

Output: page 1.00 page 1.0

Output: parameters if the classifier



Slide Credit: Ioannis (Yannis) Gkioulekas (CMU)

Input: large collection of images (they don't even need to be training images)

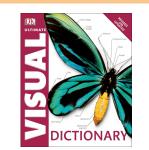
Dictionary Learning:

Learn Visual Words using clustering



Input: test image, dictionary

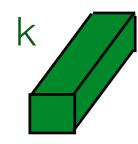




Encode:

→ build Bags-of-Words (BOW) vectors → for each image

Output: histogram representation for test image



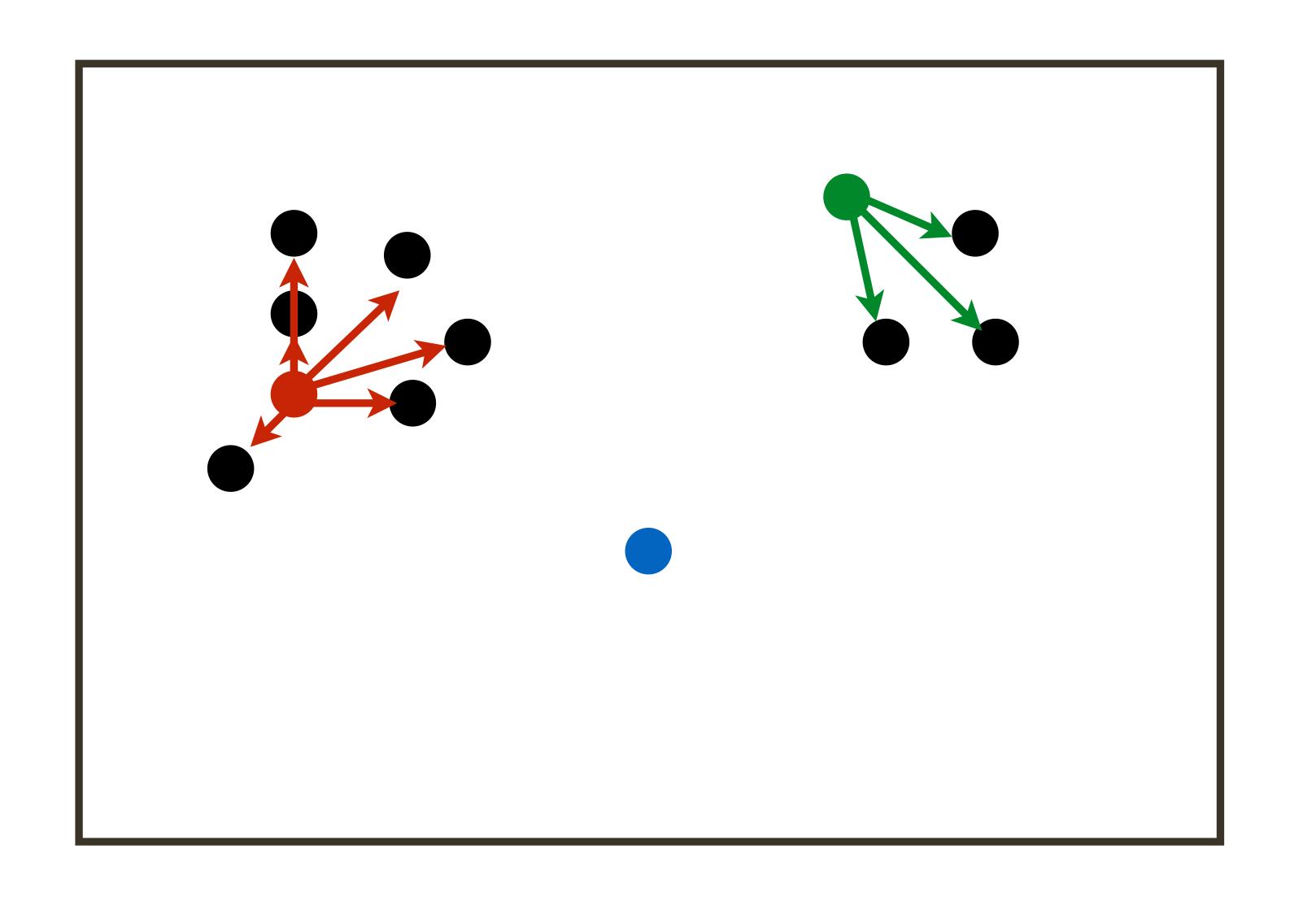
Classify:

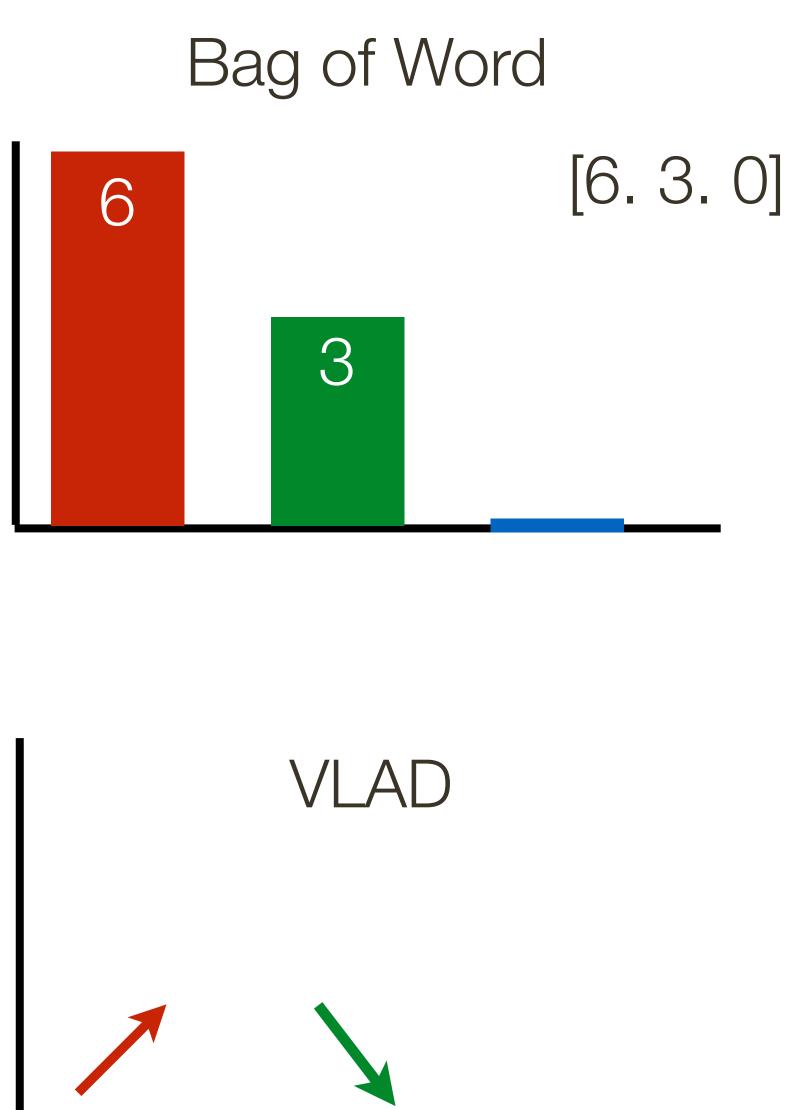
Test data using BOWs

Dictionary Learning: Input: large collection of images Output: dictionary of visual words Learn Visual Words using clustering (they don't even need to be training images) Encode: Output: histogram representation → build Bags-of-Words (BOW) vectors → Input: test image, dictionary for test image for each image Classify: **Input**: histogram representation for Output: prediction for test image test image, trained classifier Test data using BOWs airplane

Slide Credit: Ioannis (Yannis) Gkioulekas (CMU)

Example: VLAD





Sample Question

How do we construct a codebook (vocabulary) of local descriptors, say SIFT?

Course Review: Object Detection

Sliding window

Viola-Jones face detection

Object proposals

Sliding Window

Train an image classifier as described previously. 'Slide' a fixed-sized detection window across the image and evaluate the classifier on each window.



Image credit: KITTI Vision Benchmark

This is a search over location

- We have to search over scale as well
- We may also have to search over aspect ratios

Example: Face Detection

- 1. Select best filter/threshold combination
 - a. Normalize the weights $w_{t,i} \leftarrow \frac{w_{t,i}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{t,j}}$

$$w_{t,i} \leftarrow \frac{w_{t,i}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{t,j}}$$

$$h_j(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f_j(x) > \theta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

b. For each feature,
$$j$$

$$\varepsilon_j = \sum_i w_i \left| h_j(x_i) - y_i \right|$$

- c. Choose the classifier, h_t with the lowest error ε
- 2. Re-weight examples

$$w_{t+1,i} = w_{t,i} \beta_t^{1-|h_t(x_i)-y_i|} \beta_t = \frac{1}{1}$$

$$\beta_t = \frac{\varepsilon_t}{1 - \varepsilon_t}$$

Example: Face Detection

Viola & Jones algorithm

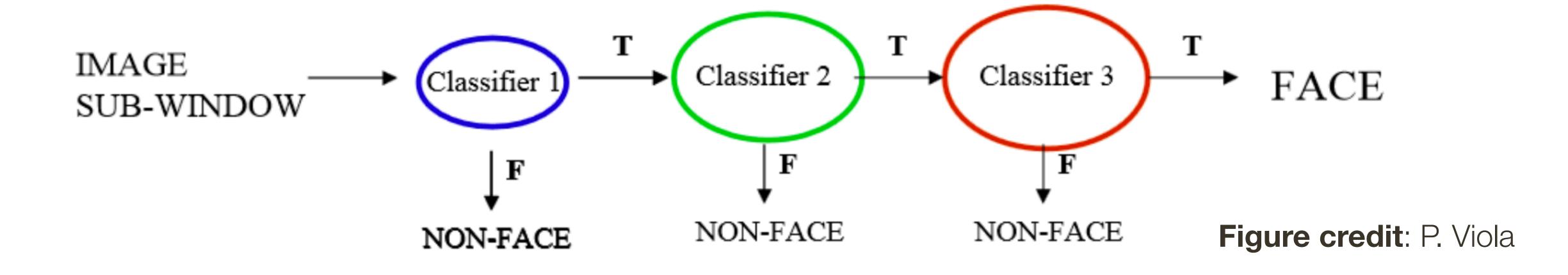
3. The final strong classifier is

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x) \ge \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \alpha_t = \log \frac{1}{\beta_t}$$

$$\alpha_t = \log \frac{1}{\beta_t}$$

The final strong classifier is a weighted linear combination of the T weak classifiers where the weights are inversely proportional to the training errors

Cascading Classifiers



To make detection **faster**, features can be reordered by increasing complexity of evaluation and the thresholds adjusted so that the early (simpler) tests have few or no false negatives

Any window that is rejected by early tests can be discarded quickly without computing the other features

This is referred to as a **cascade** architecture

Object Proposals

First introduced by Alexe et al., who asked 'what is an object?' and defined an 'objectness' score based on several visual cues

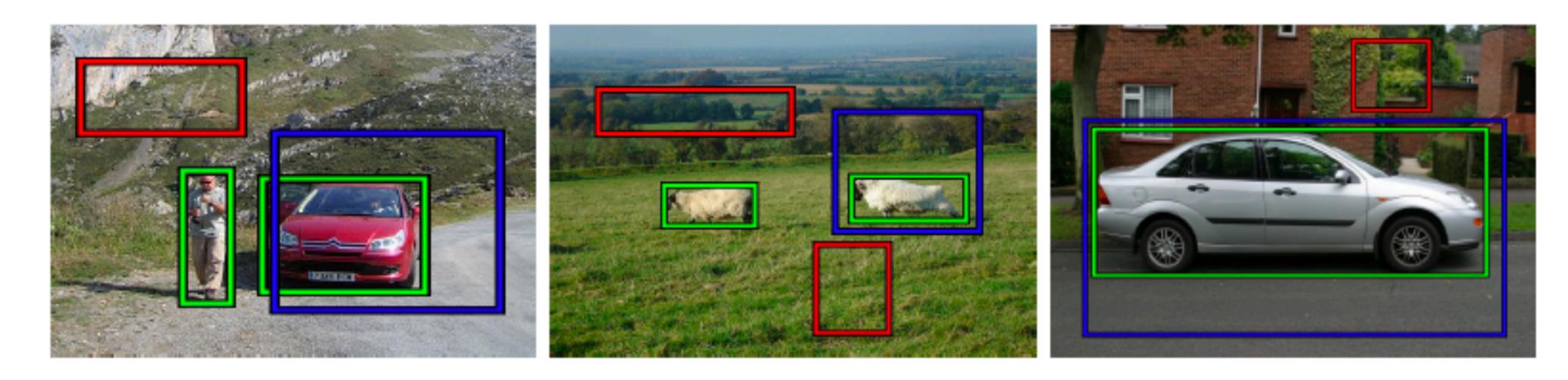


Figure credit: Alexe et al., 2012

Course Review: Convolutional Neural Networks

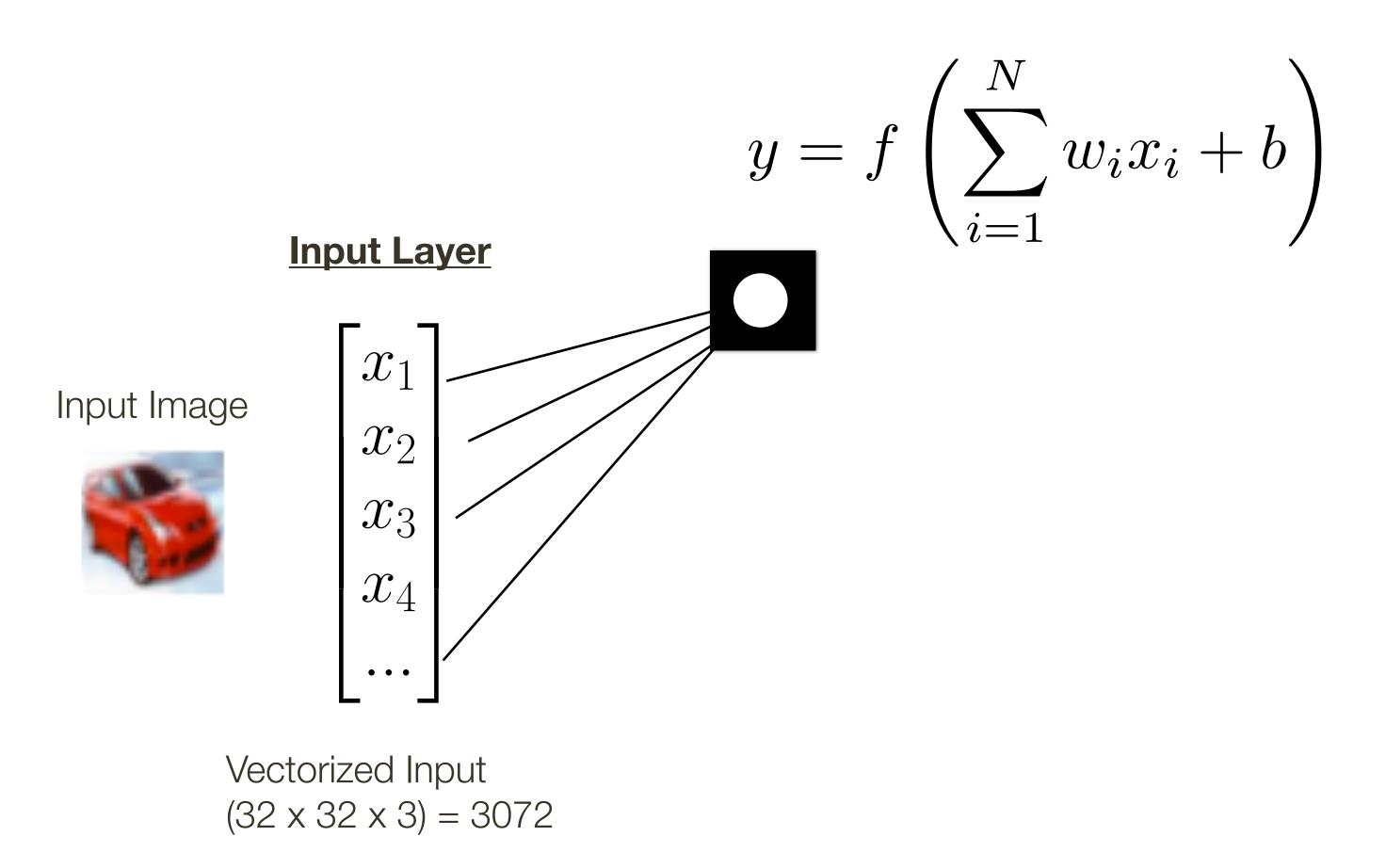
Neuron, activation function

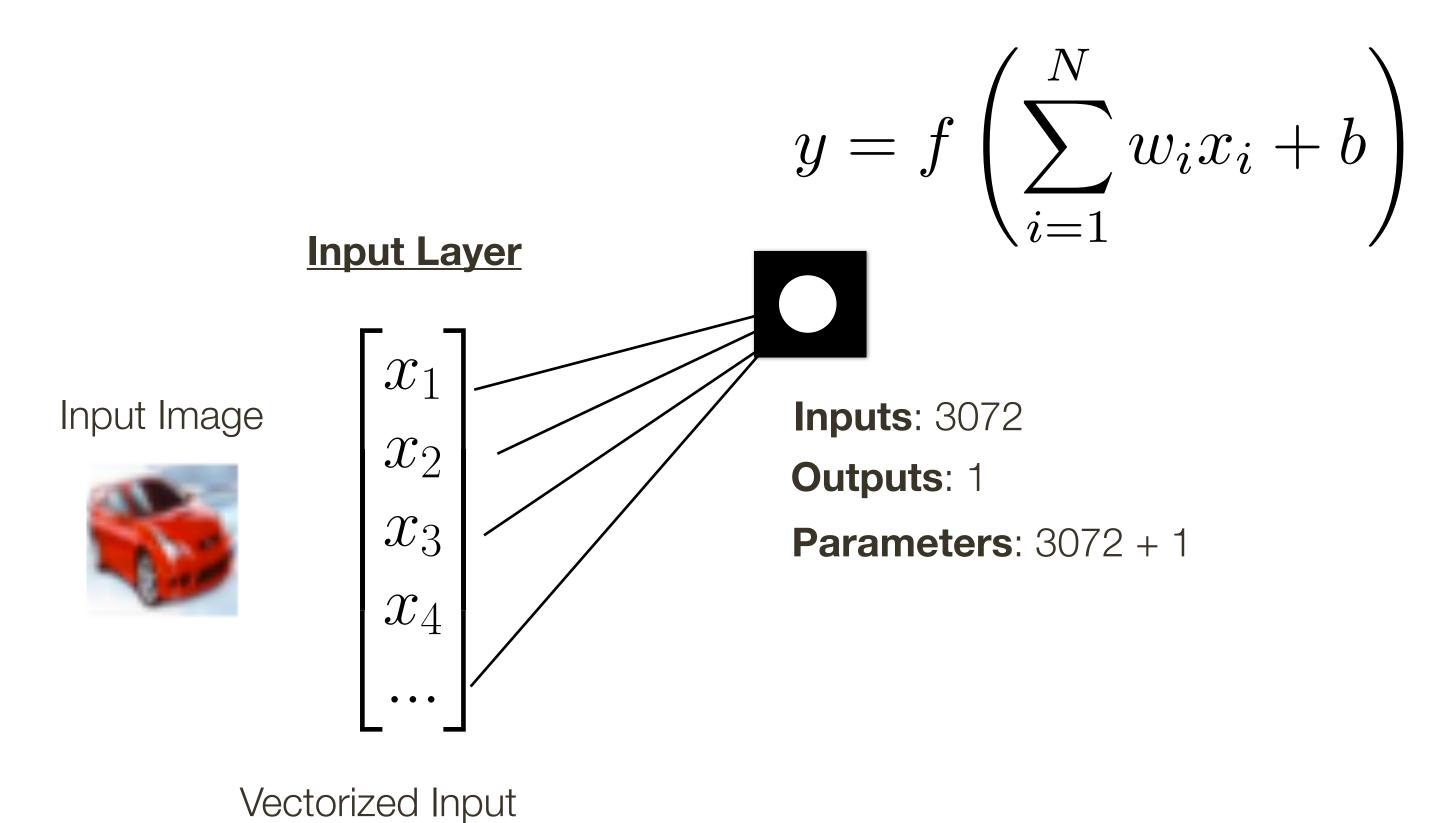
Backpropagation (you only need to know properties)

Convolutional neural network architecture

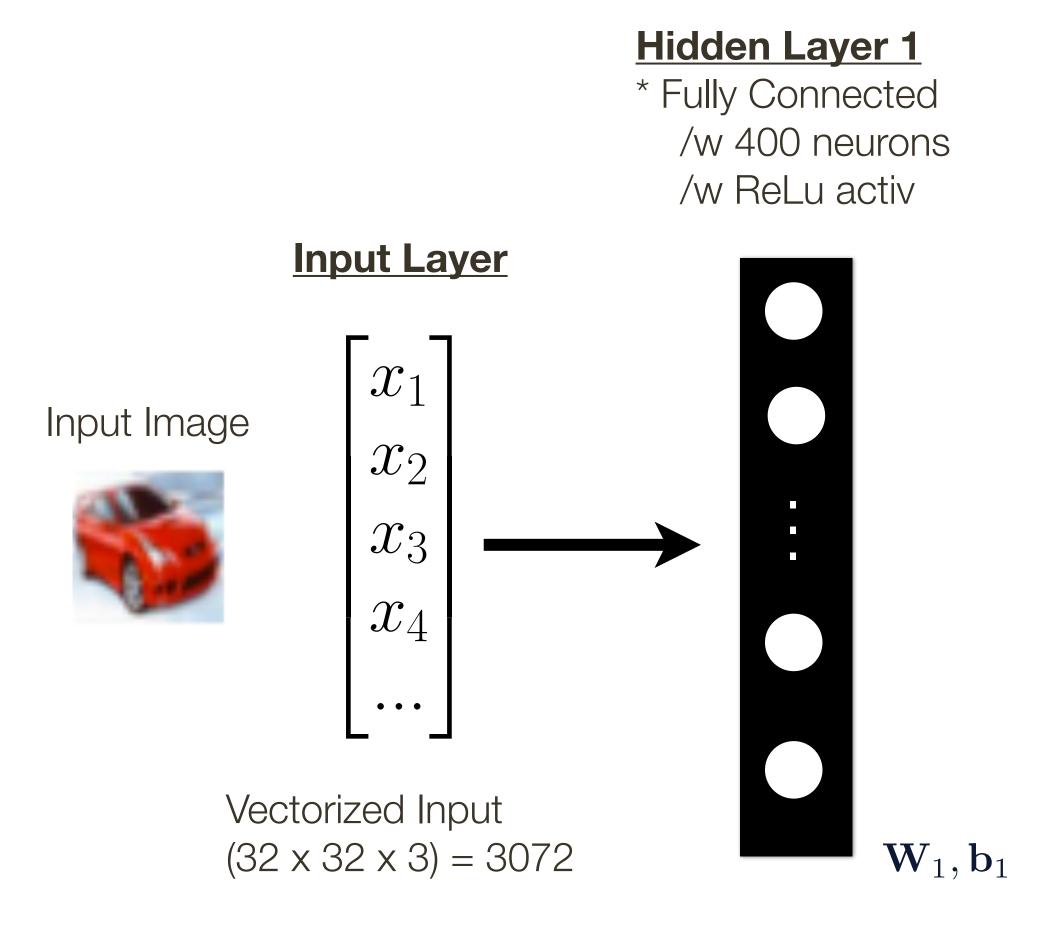
Convolutional neural network layers

R-CNN

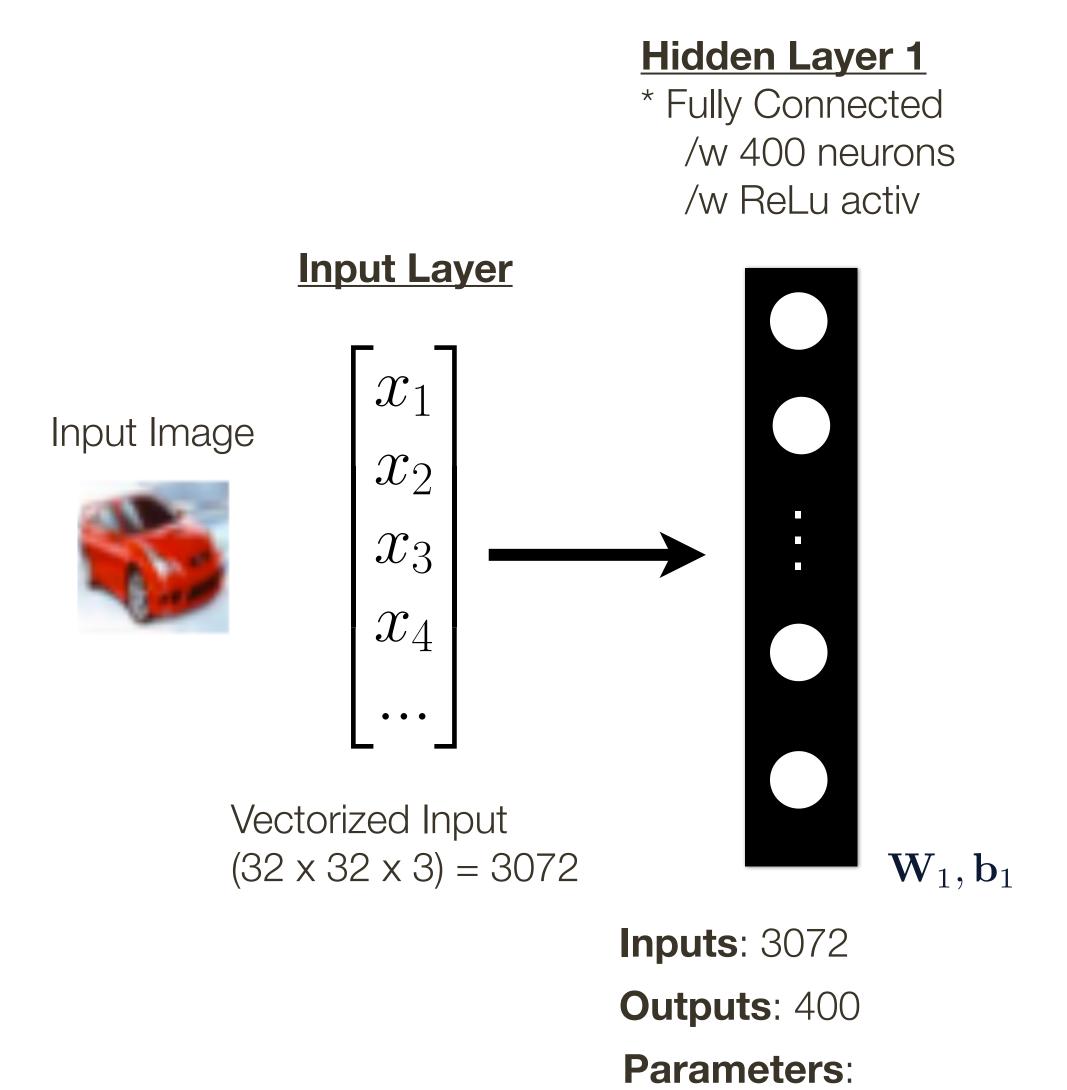


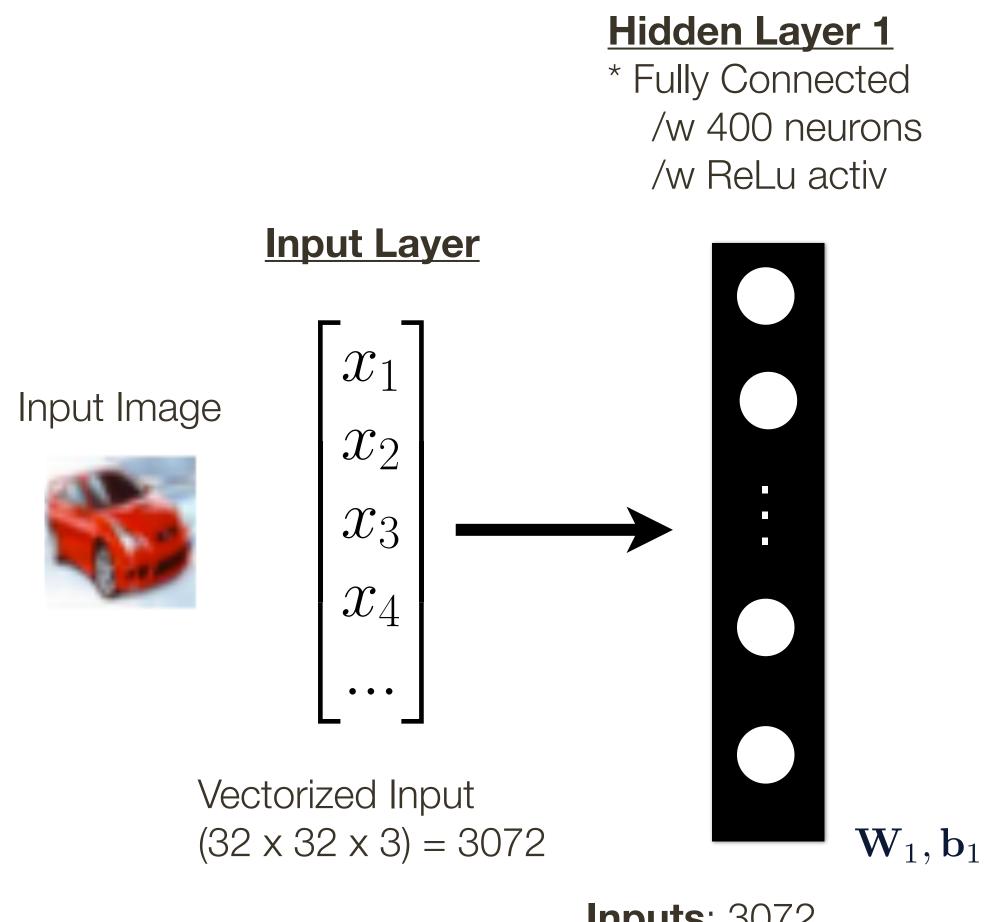


 $(32 \times 32 \times 3) = 3072$



 $3072 \times 400 + 400$





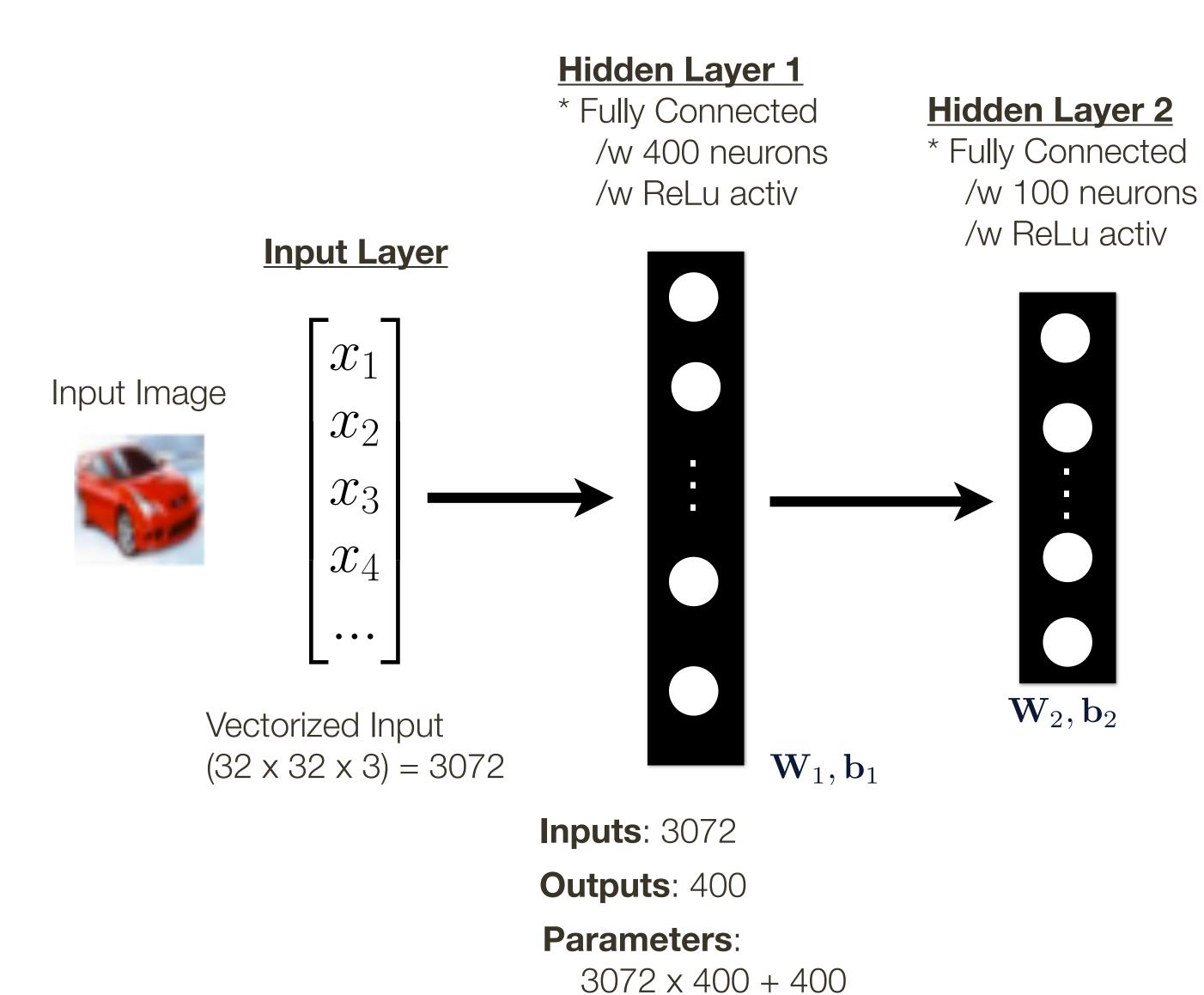
Note: All neurons within a layer can be computed in parallel, making computations very efficient (especially on GPUs!, which are designed for parallelism)

Inputs: 3072

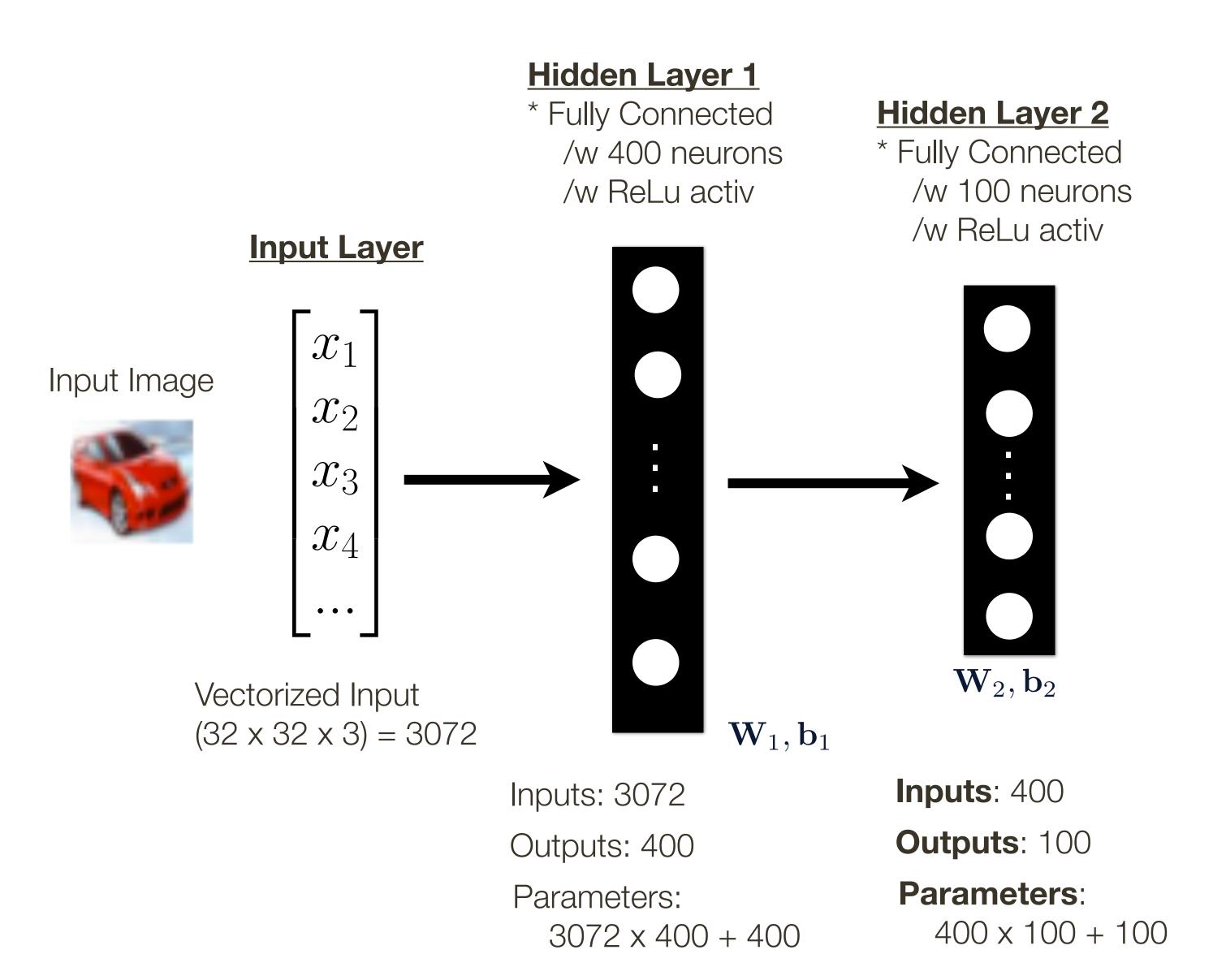
Outputs: 400

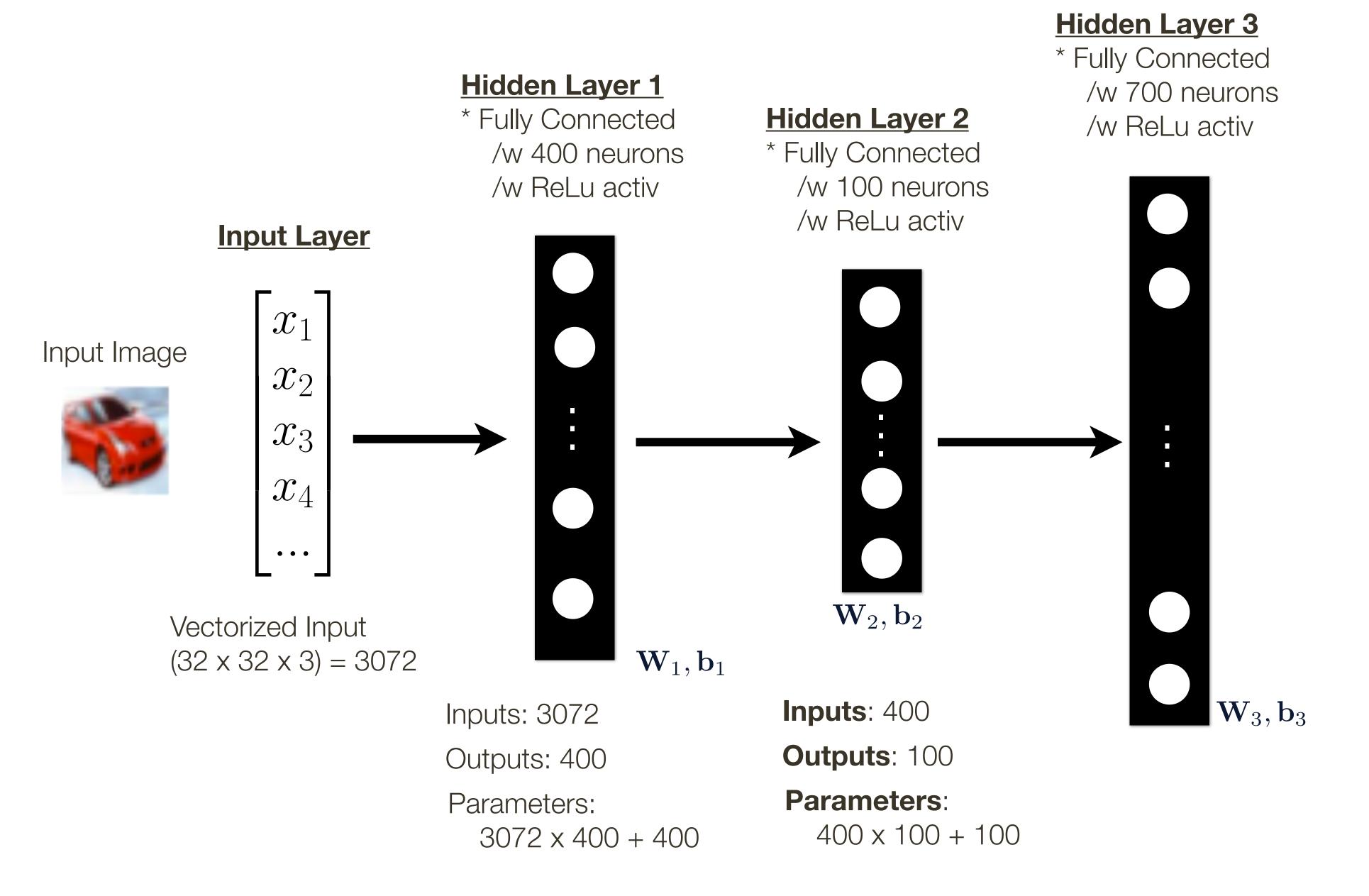
Parameters:

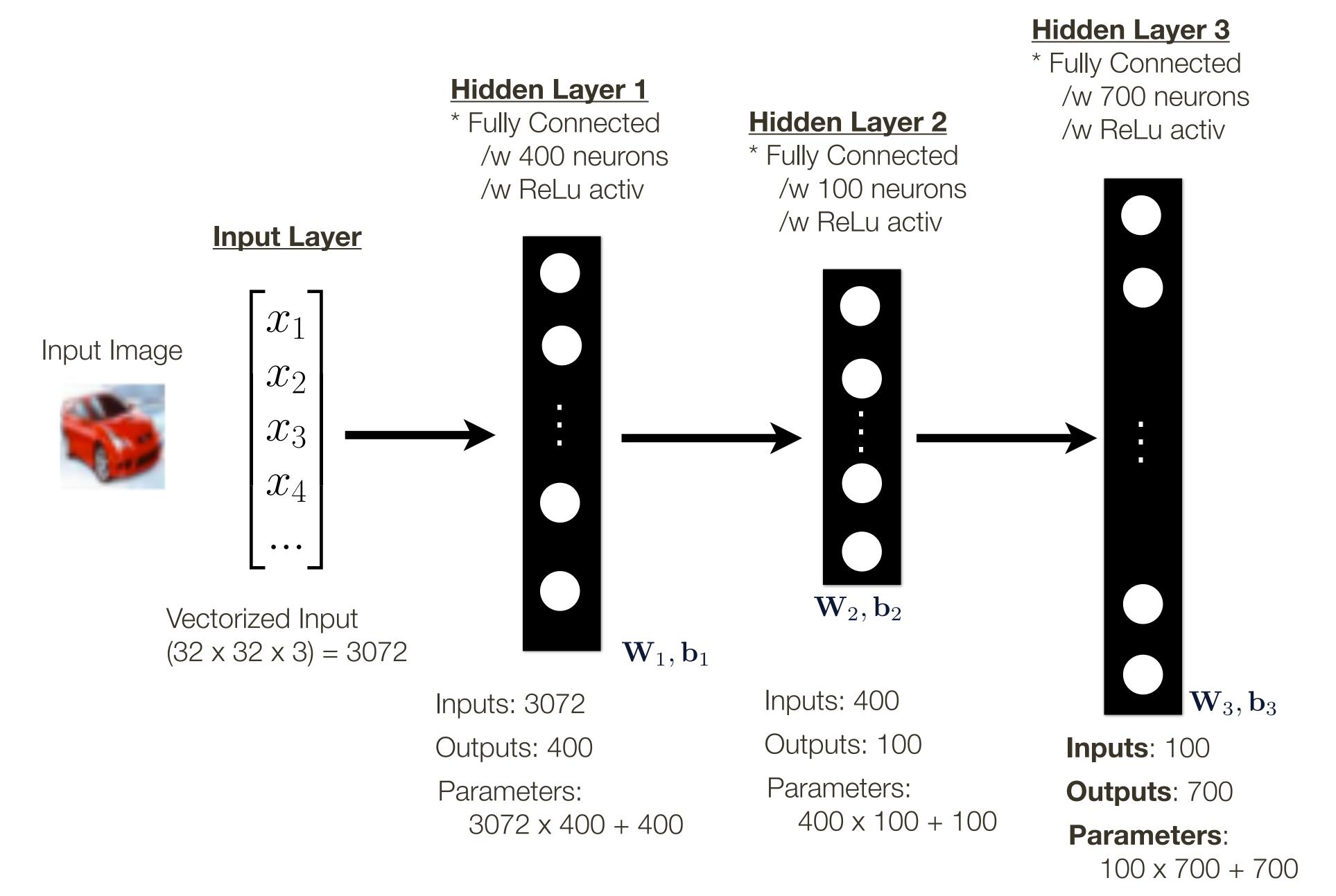
 $3072 \times 400 + 400$

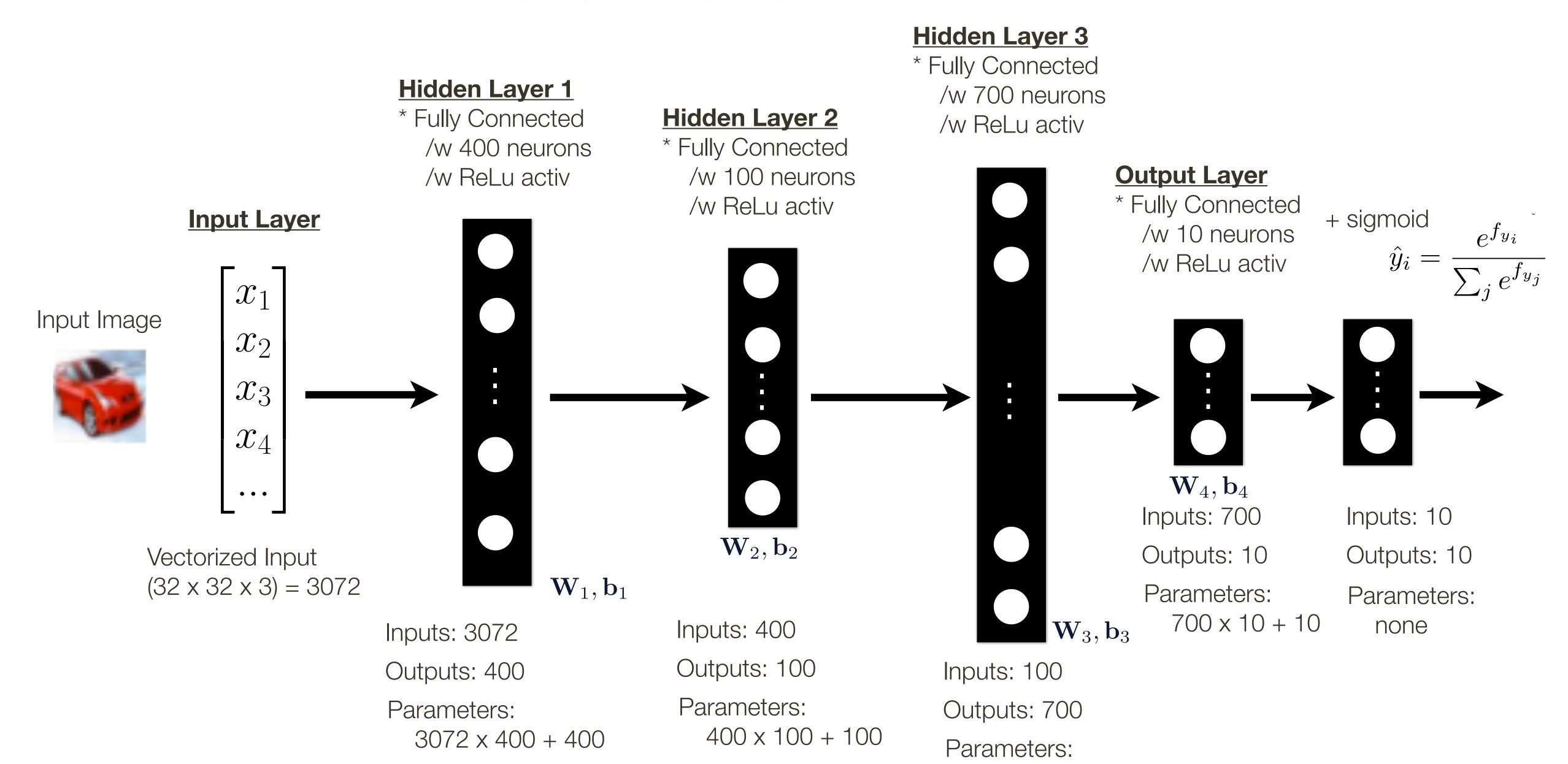


Note: Across layers computations are sequential



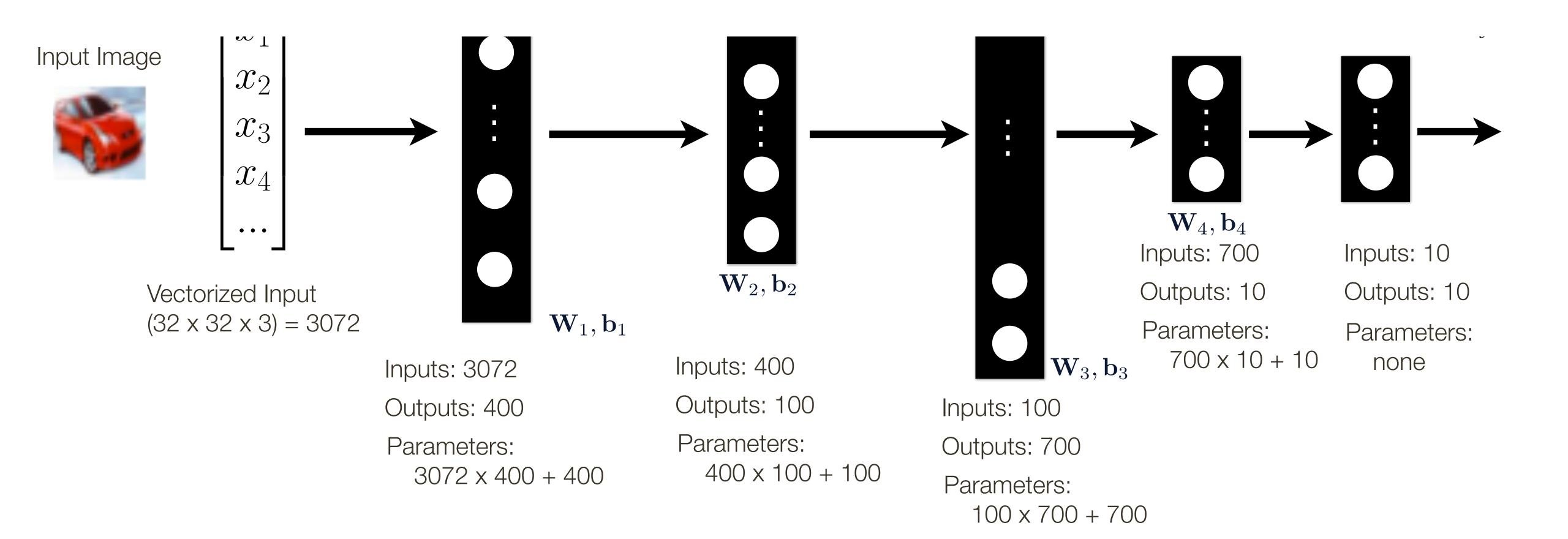


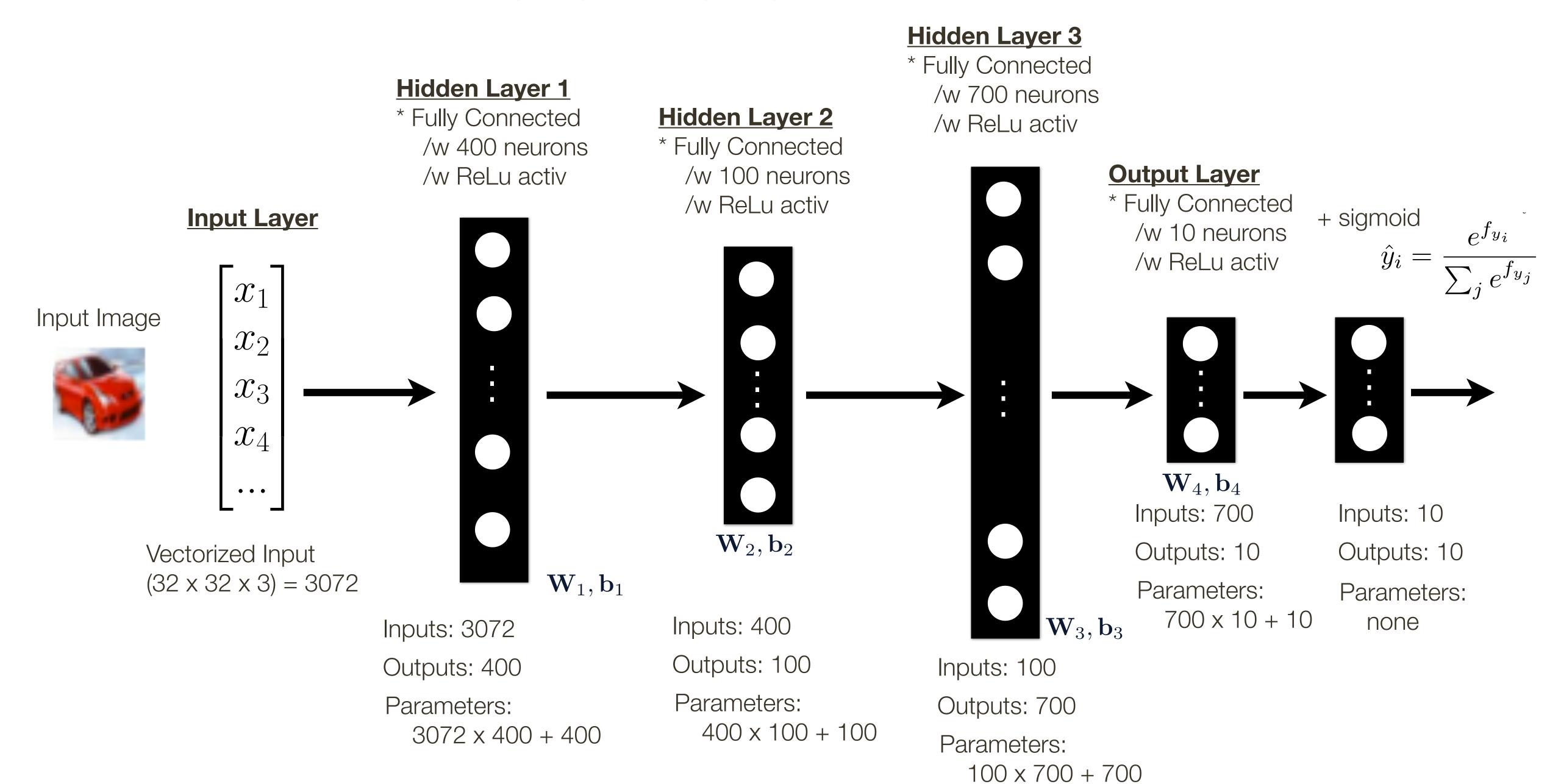


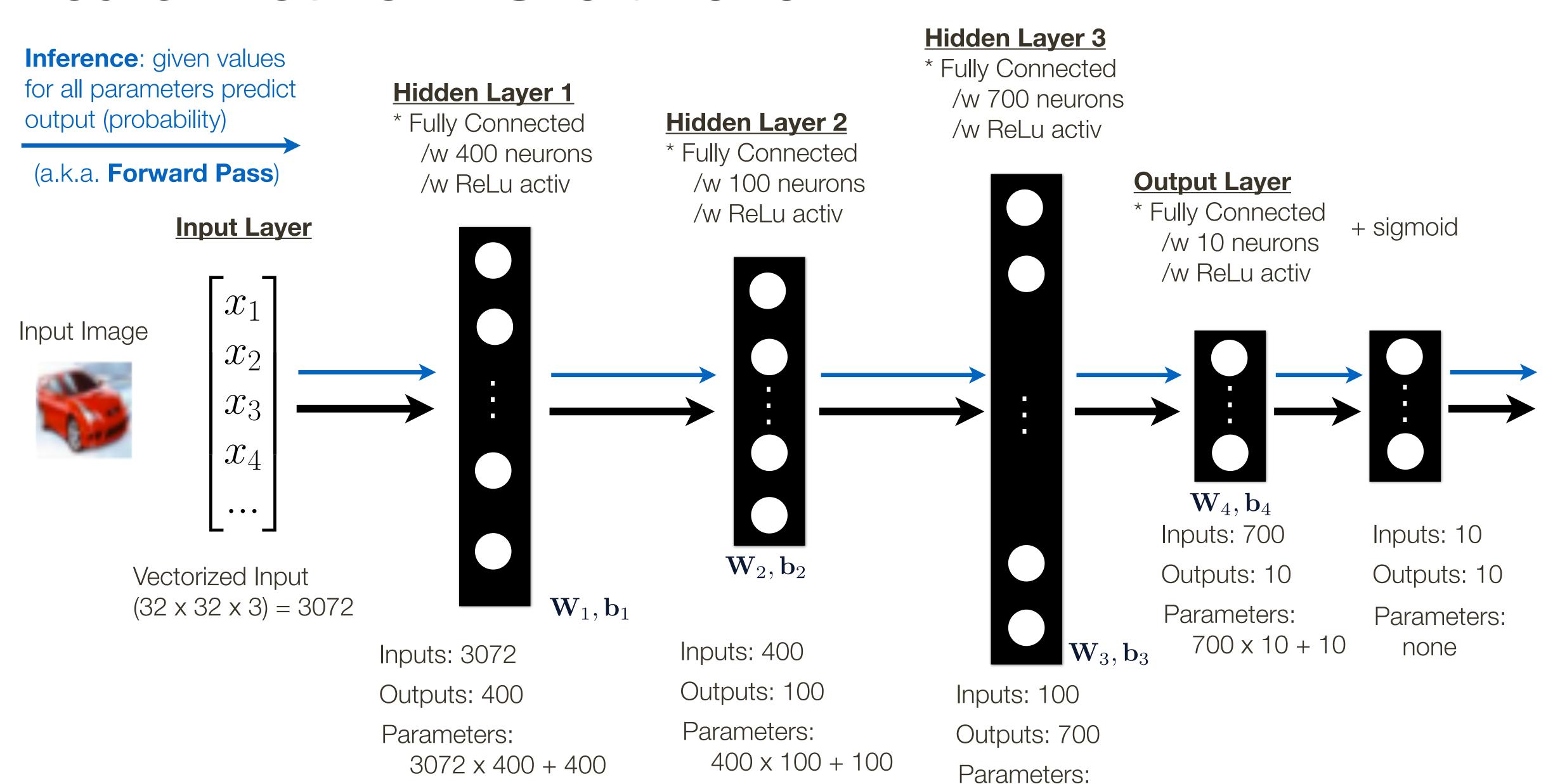


 $100 \times 700 + 700$

This simple neural network has nearly 1.35 million parameters

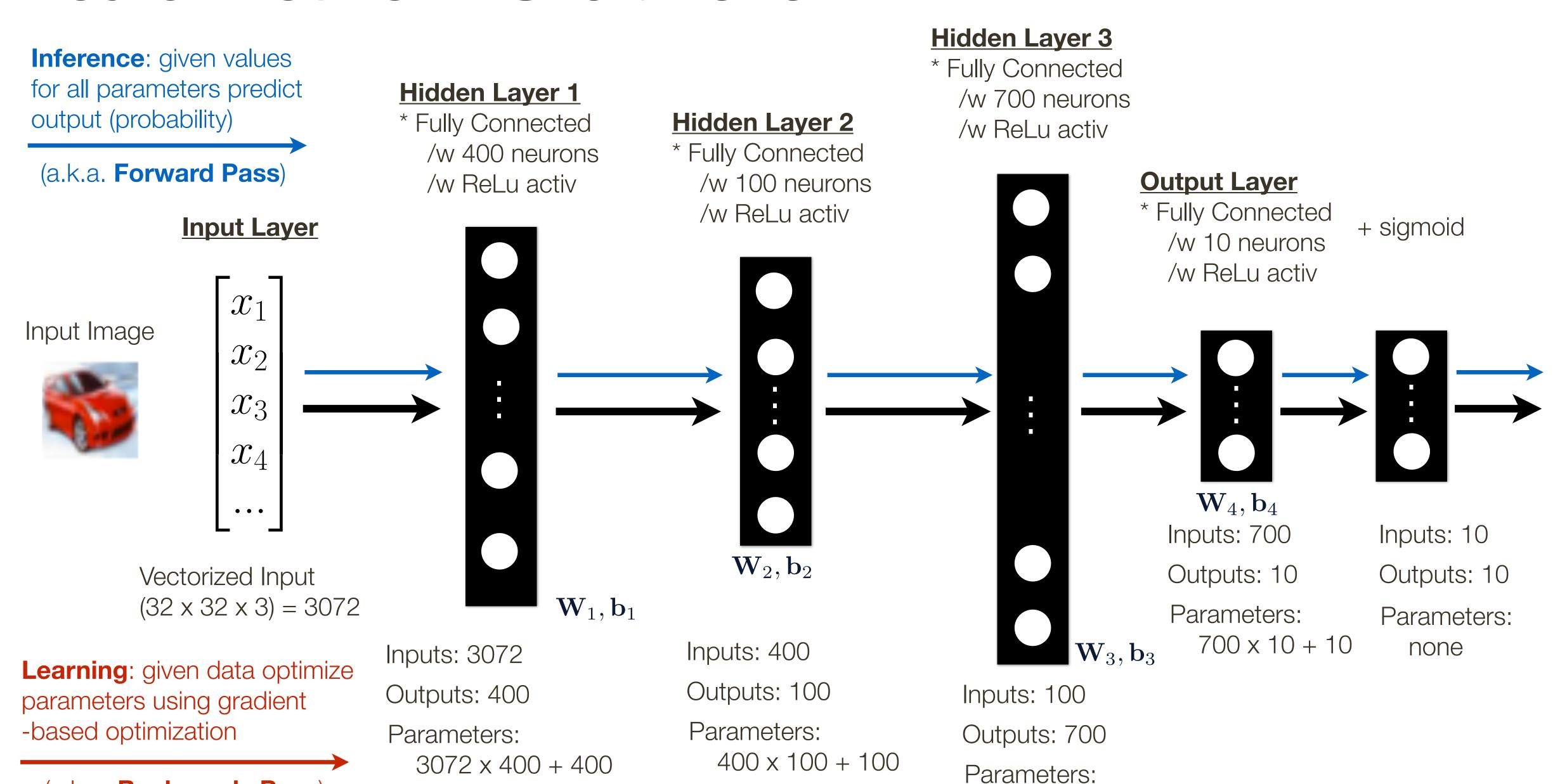




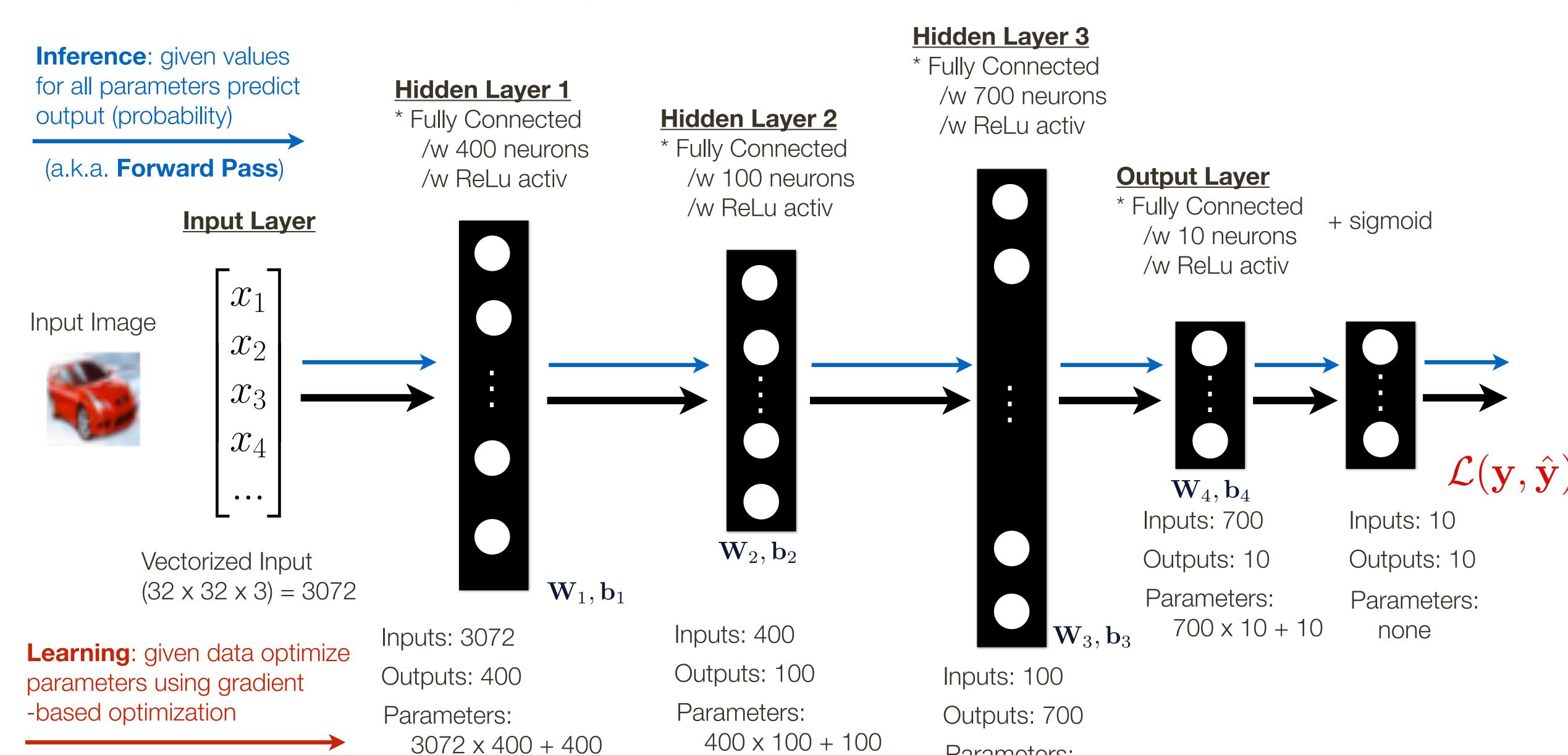


 $100 \times 700 + 700$

(a.k.a. **Backwards Pass**)

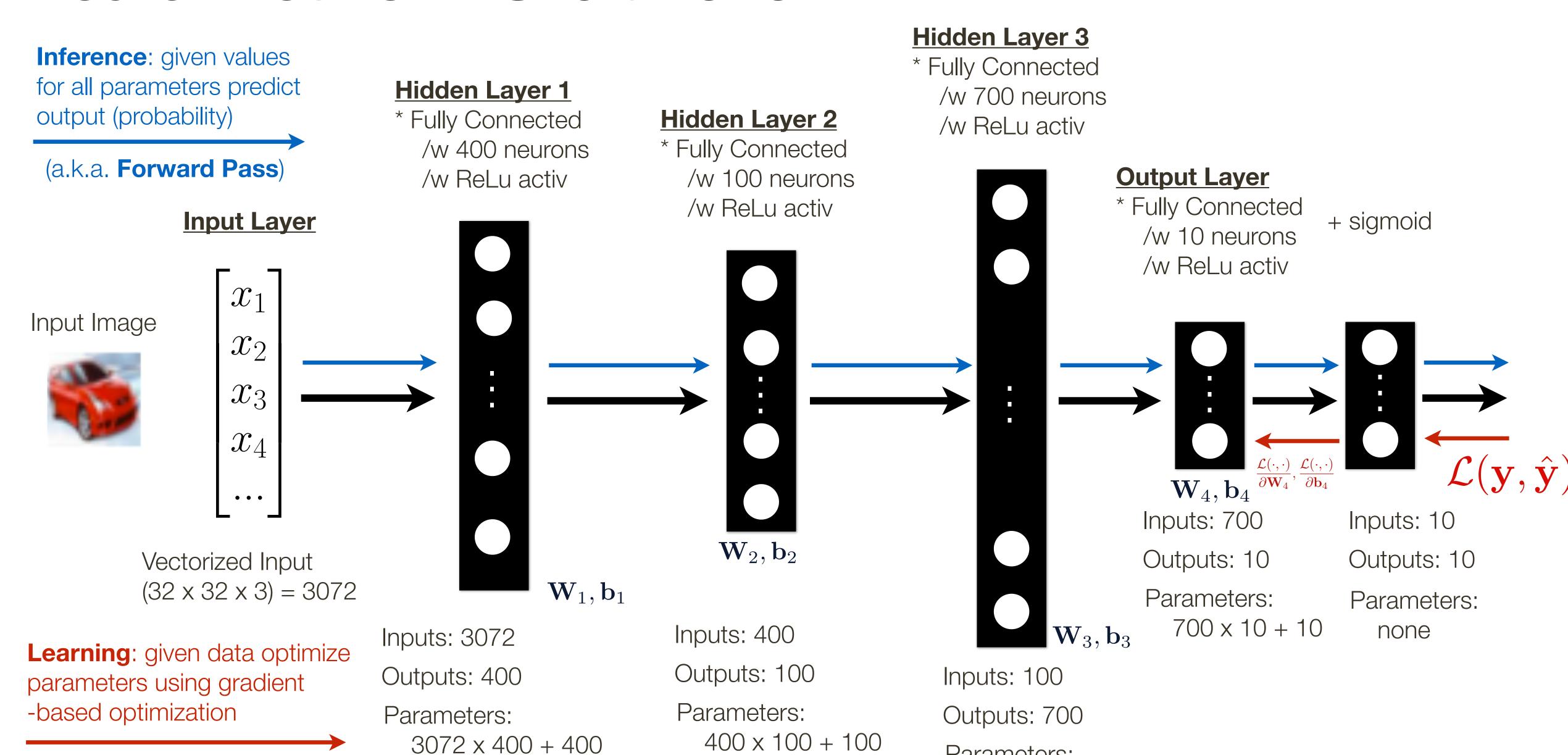


 $100 \times 700 + 700$



Parameters:

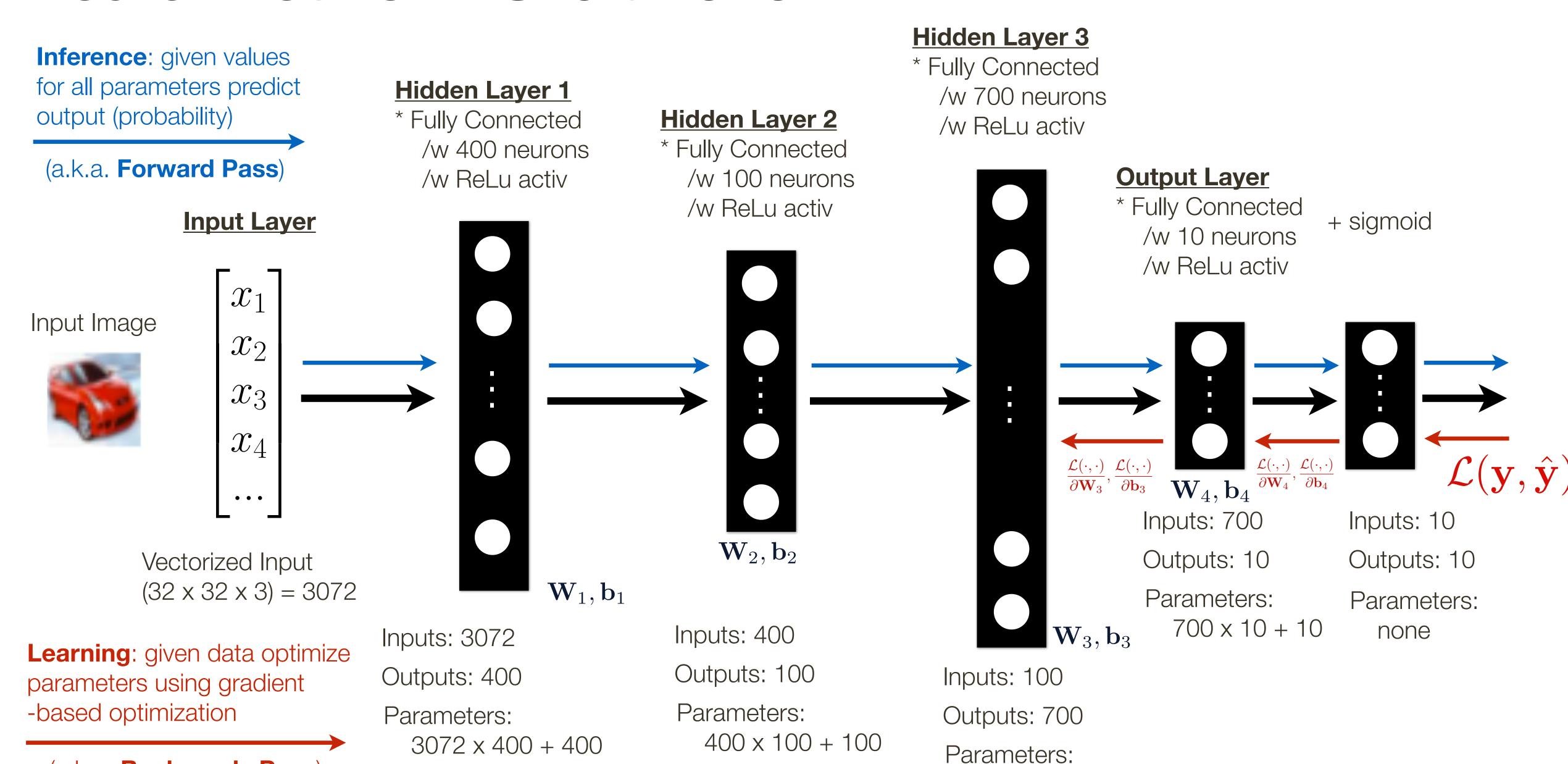
 $100 \times 700 + 700$



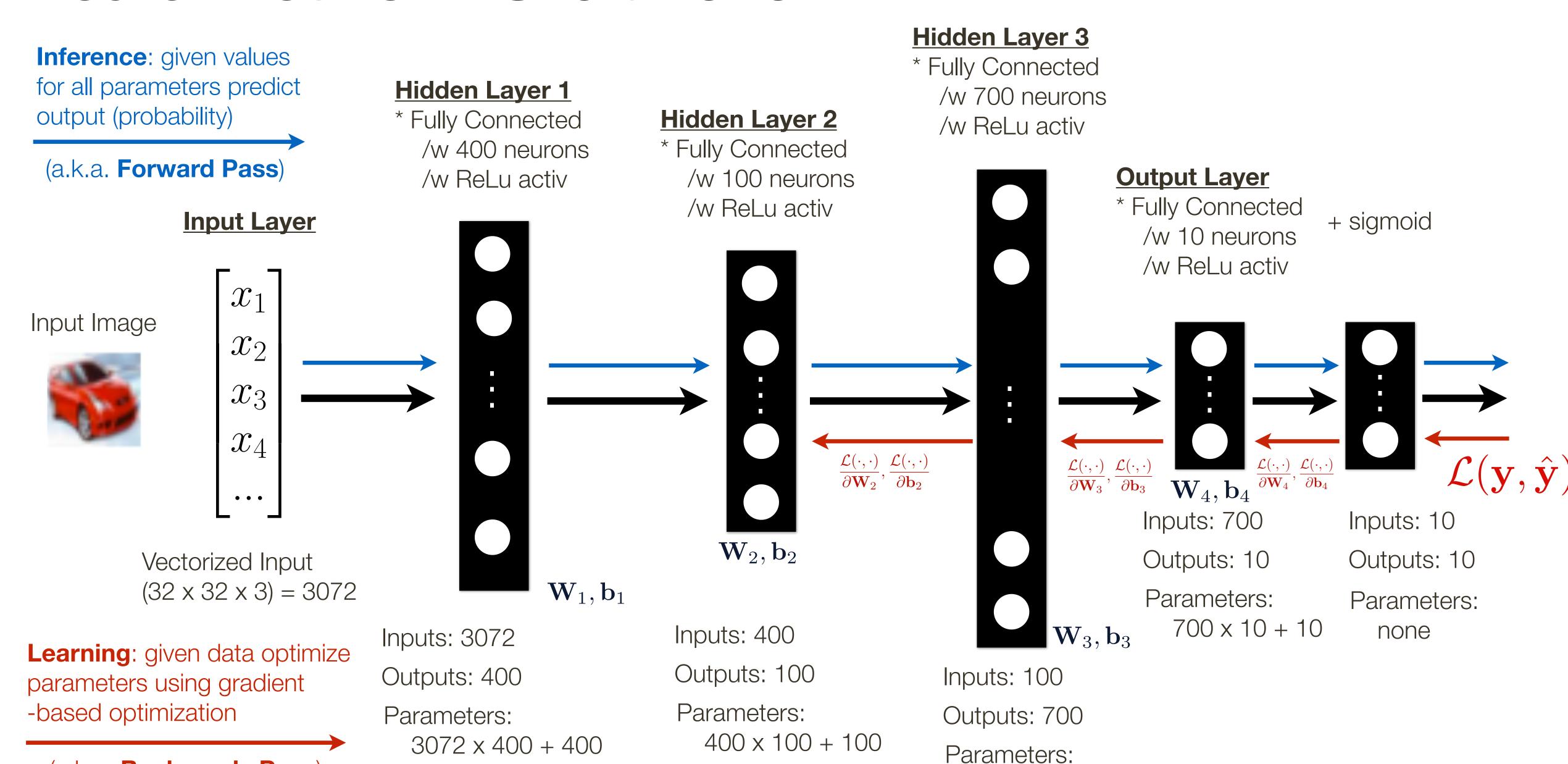
Parameters:

 $100 \times 700 + 700$

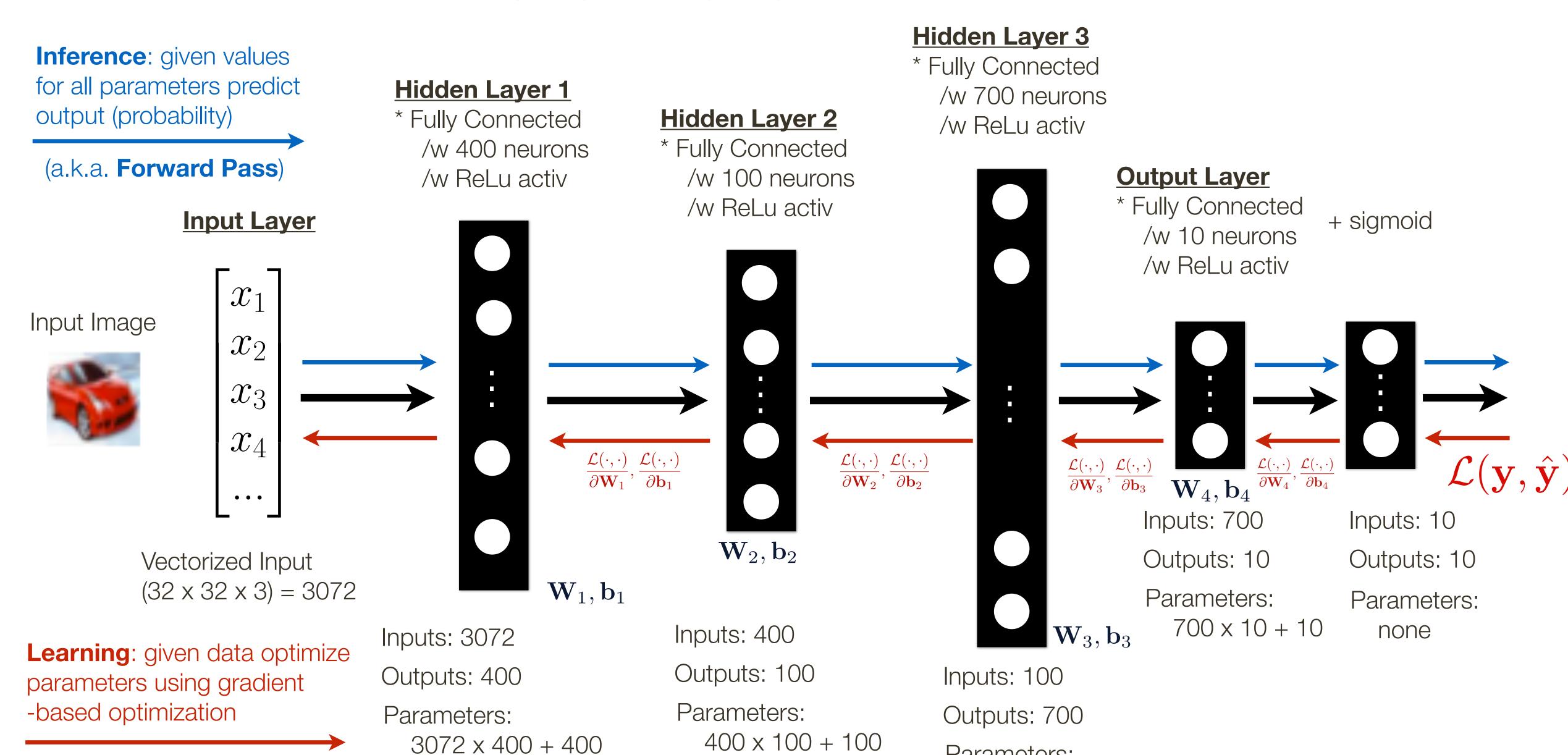
(a.k.a. **Backwards Pass**)



 $100 \times 700 + 700$

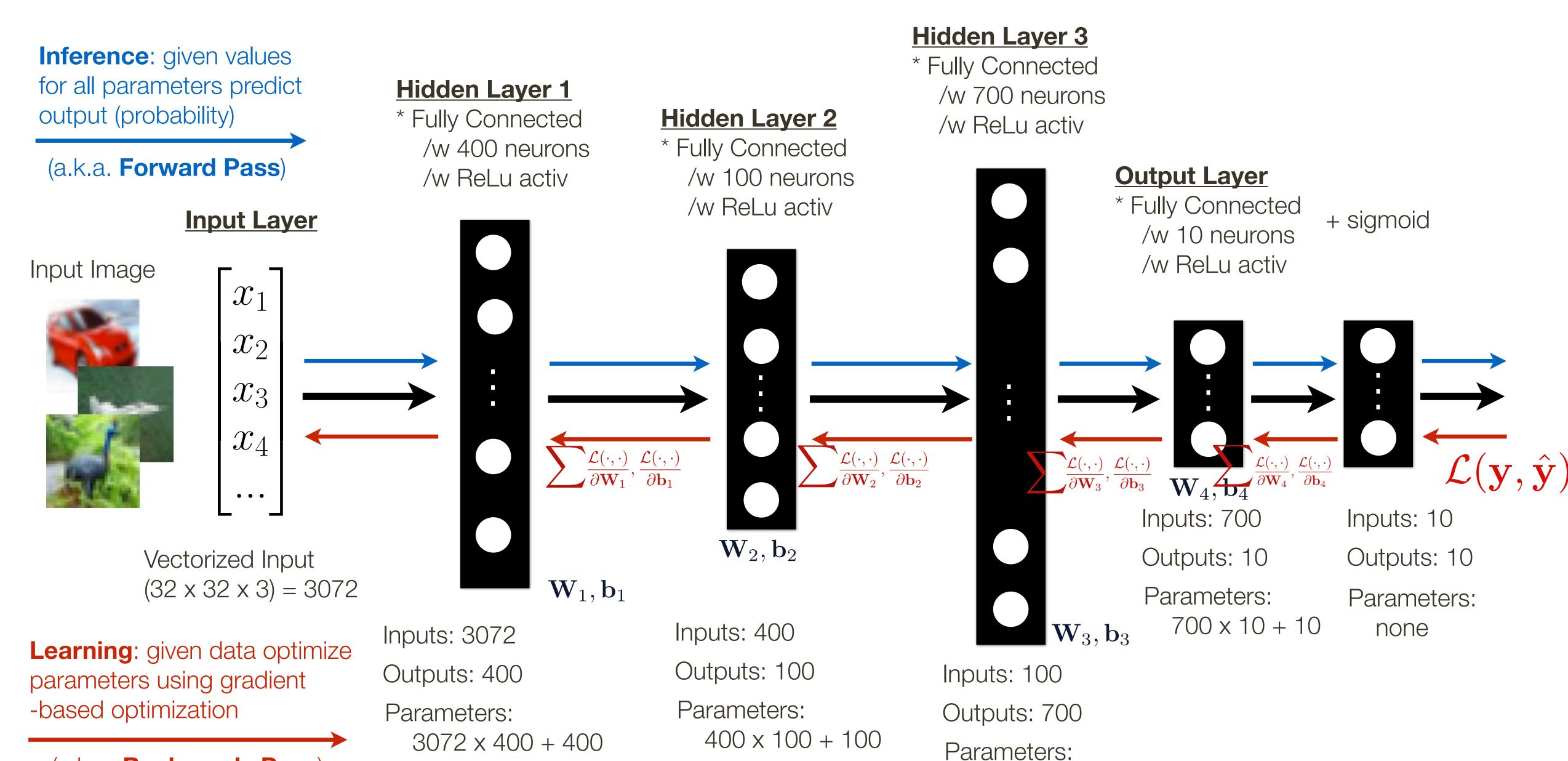


 $100 \times 700 + 700$



Parameters:

 $100 \times 700 + 700$



 $100 \times 700 + 700$

Parameters:

 $3072 \times 400 + 400$

Hidden Layer 3 Inference: given values * Fully Connected for all parameters predict **Hidden Layer 1** /w 700 neurons output (probability) * Fully Connected Hidden Layer 2 /w ReLu activ * Fully Connected /w 400 neurons (a.k.a. **Forward Pass**) **Output Layer** /w 100 neurons /w ReLu activ * Fully Connected /w ReLu activ Input Layer + sigmoid /w 10 neurons /w ReLu activ Input Image x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 $\mathbf{W}_4, \mathbf{b}_4$ • • • Inputs: 700 Inputs: 10 $\mathbf{W}_2, \mathbf{b}_2$ Outputs: 10 Outputs: 10 Vectorized Input $(32 \times 32 \times 3) = 3072$ $\mathbf{W}_1, \mathbf{b}_1$ Parameters: Parameters: $700 \times 10 + 10$ none Inputs: 400 $\mathbf{W}_3, \mathbf{b}_3$ Inputs: 3072 Learning: given data optimize Outputs: 100 Outputs: 400 Inputs: 100 parameters using gradient -based optimization Parameters:

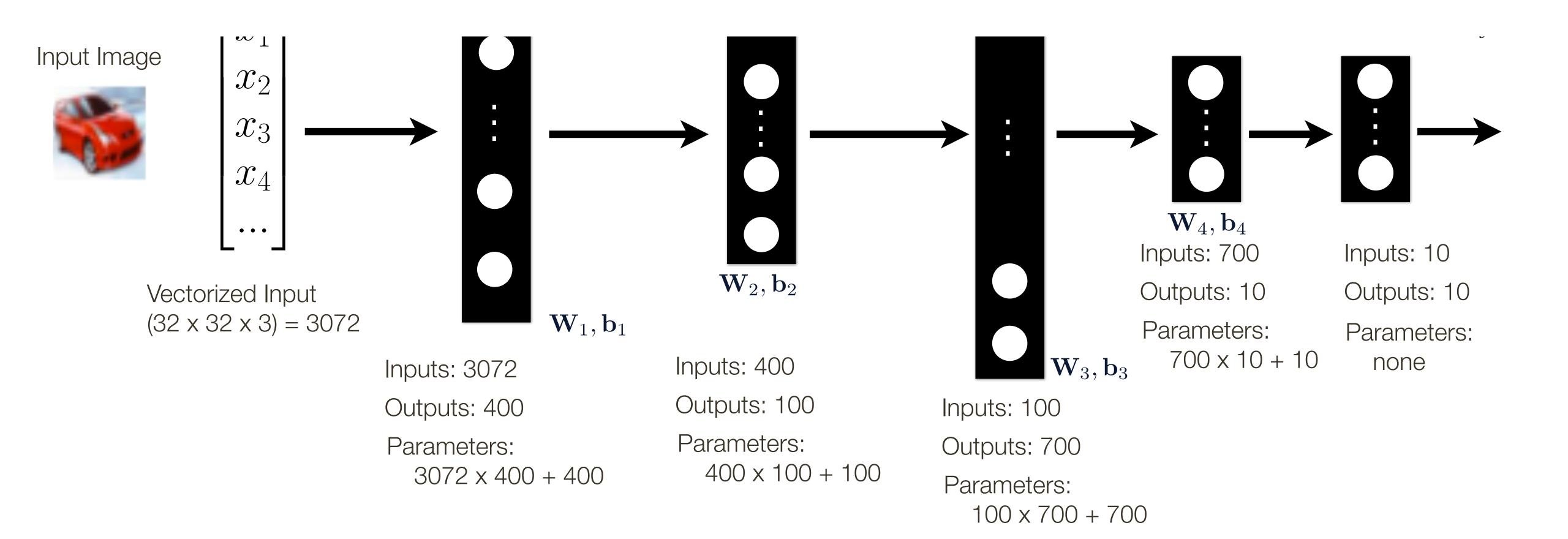
 $400 \times 100 + 100$

Outputs: 700

Parameters:

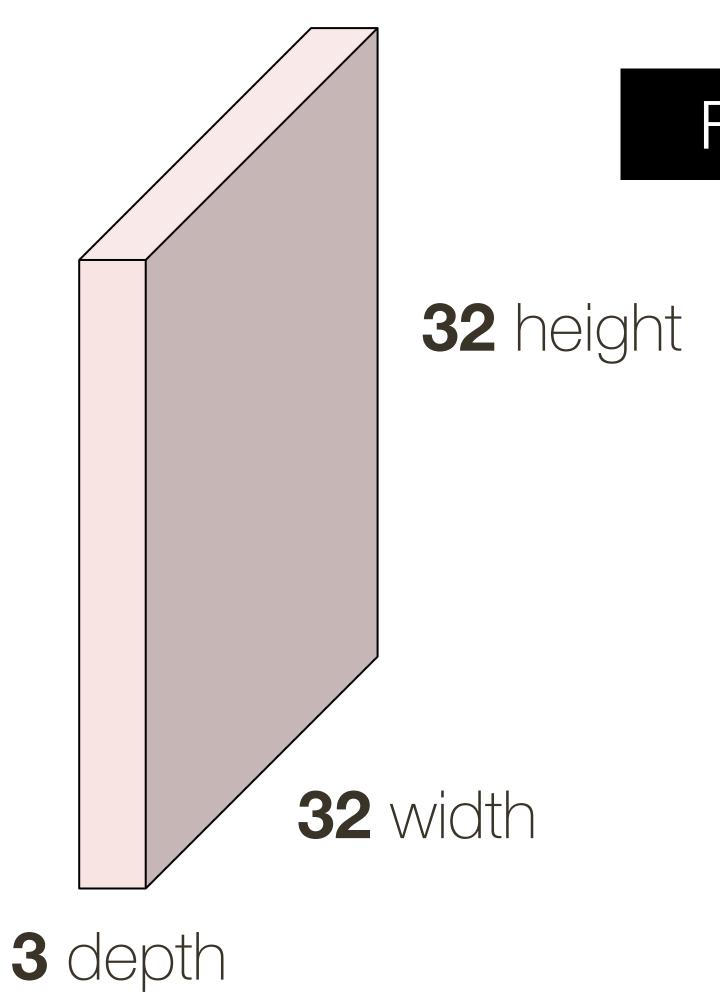
 $100 \times 700 + 700$

This simple neural network has nearly 1.35 million parameters

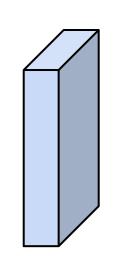


Convolutional Layer





Filters always extend the full depth of the input volume

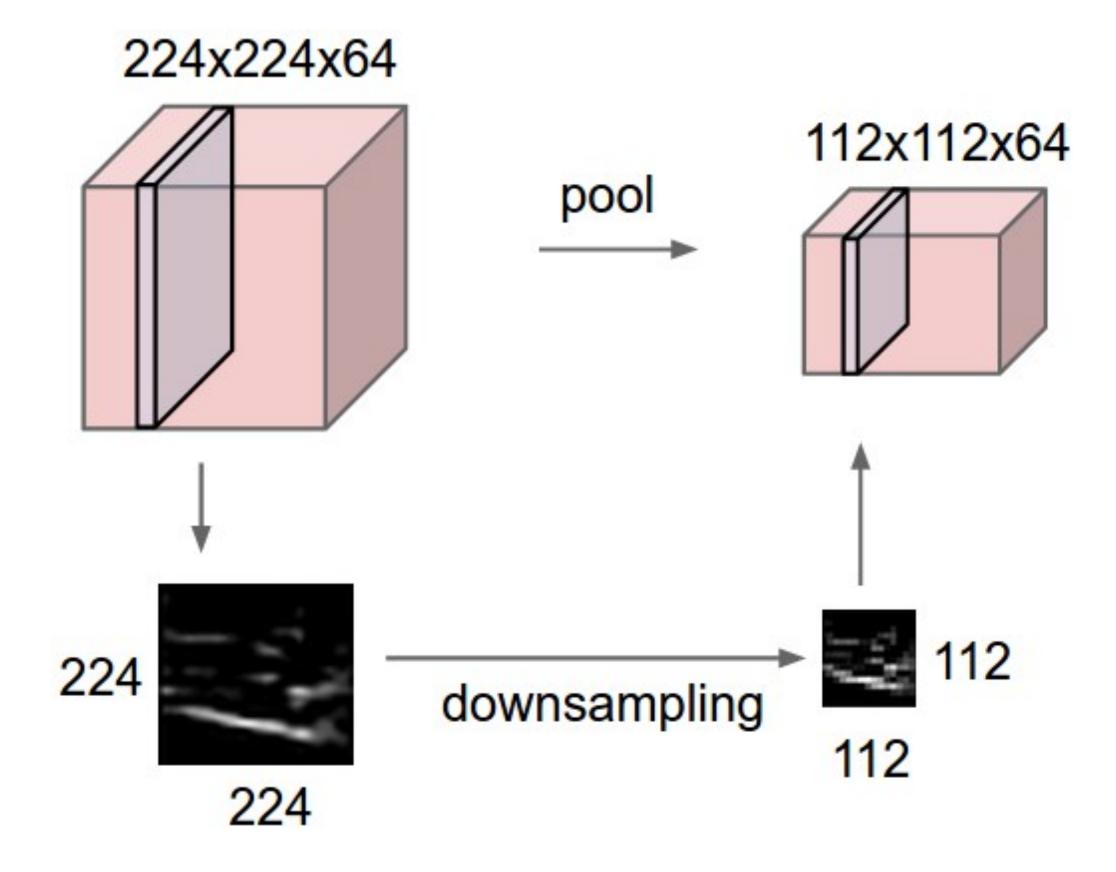


Convolve the filter with the image (i.e., "slide over the image spatially, computing dot products"

^{*} slide from Fei-Dei Li, Justin Johnson, Serena Yeung, cs231n Stanford

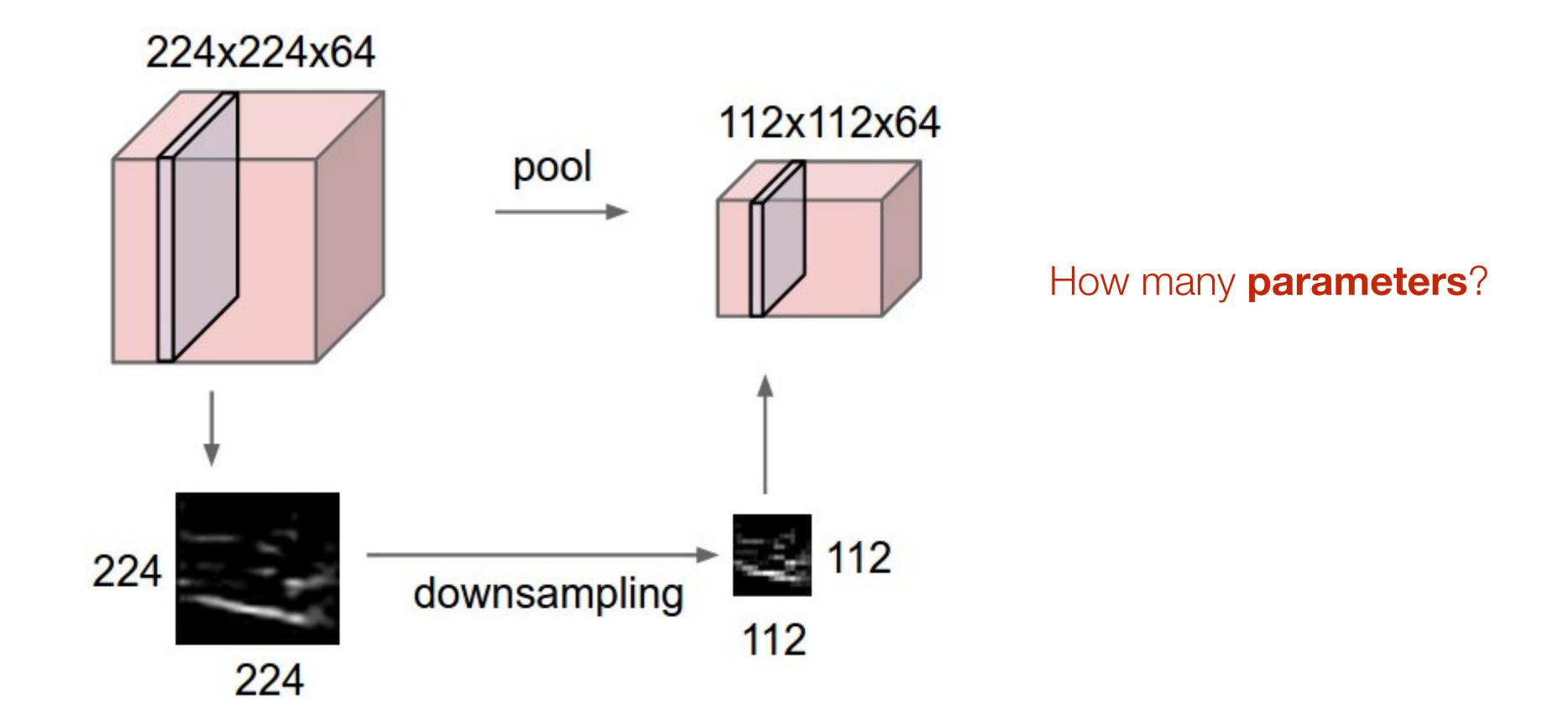
Pooling Layer

- Makes representation smaller, more manageable and spatially invariant
- Operates over each activation map independently



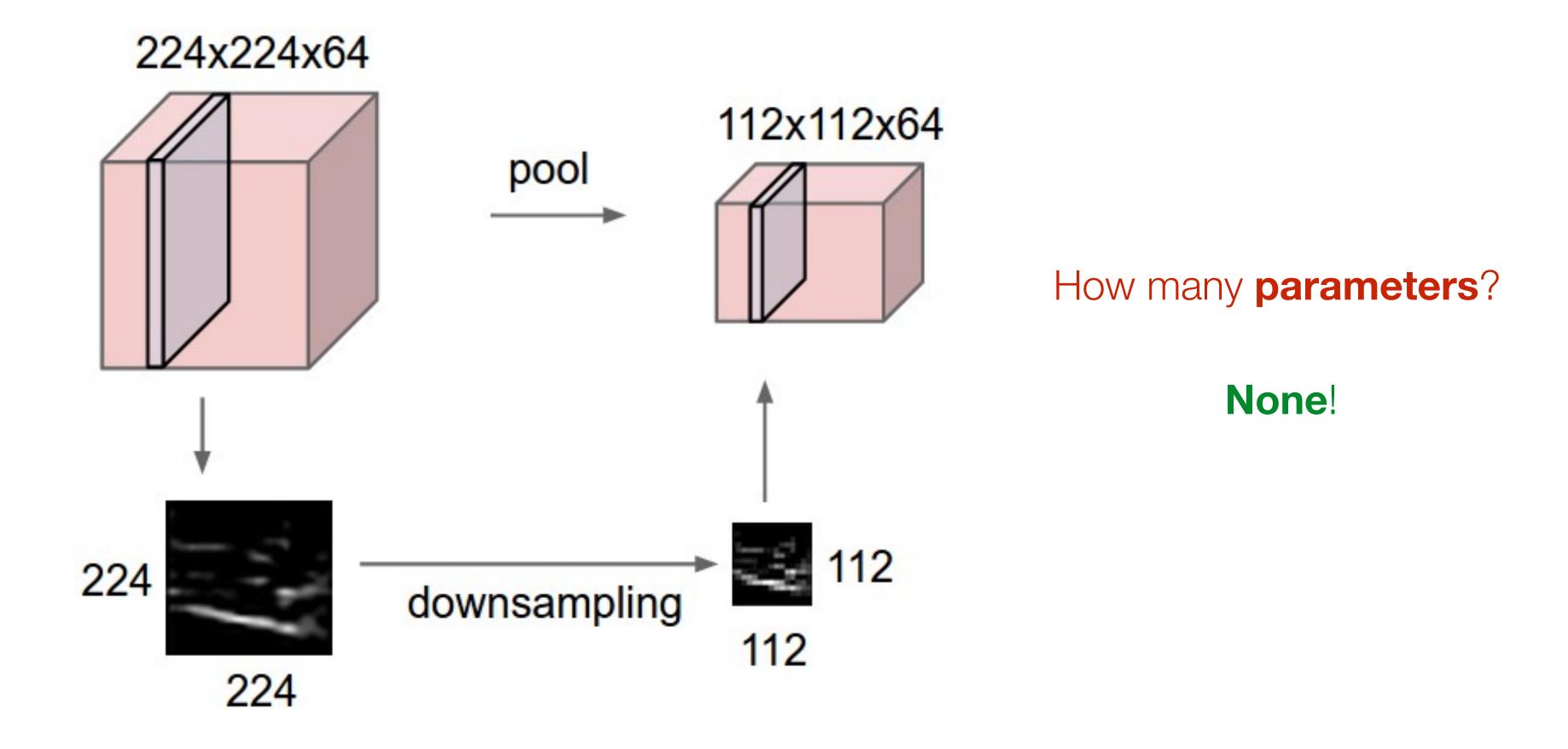
Pooling Layer

- Makes representation smaller, more manageable and spatially invariant
- Operates over each activation map independently

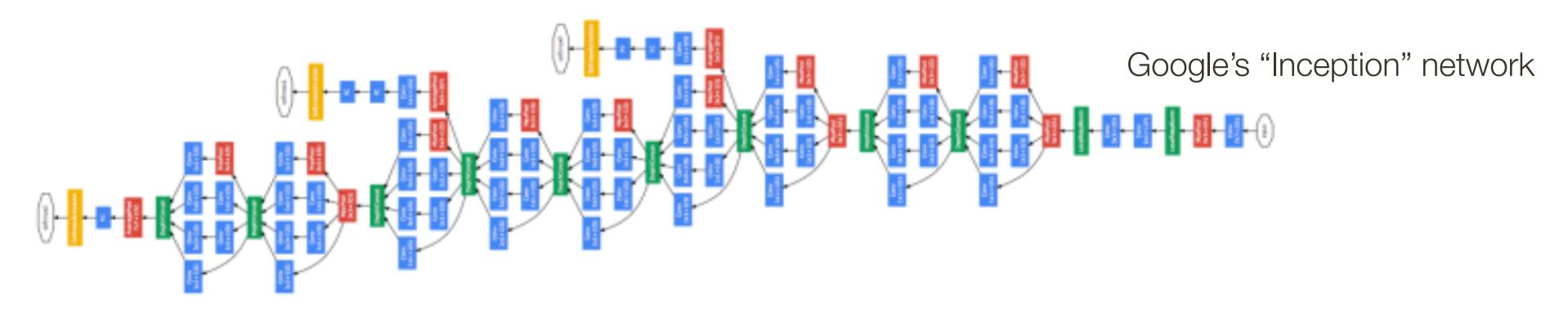


Pooling Layer

- Makes representation smaller, more manageable and spatially invariant
- Operates over each activation map independently



Deep Learning Terminology



• Network structure: number and types of layers, forms of activation functions, dimensionality of each layer and connections (defines computational graph)

generally kept fixed, requires some knowledge of the problem and NN to sensibly set

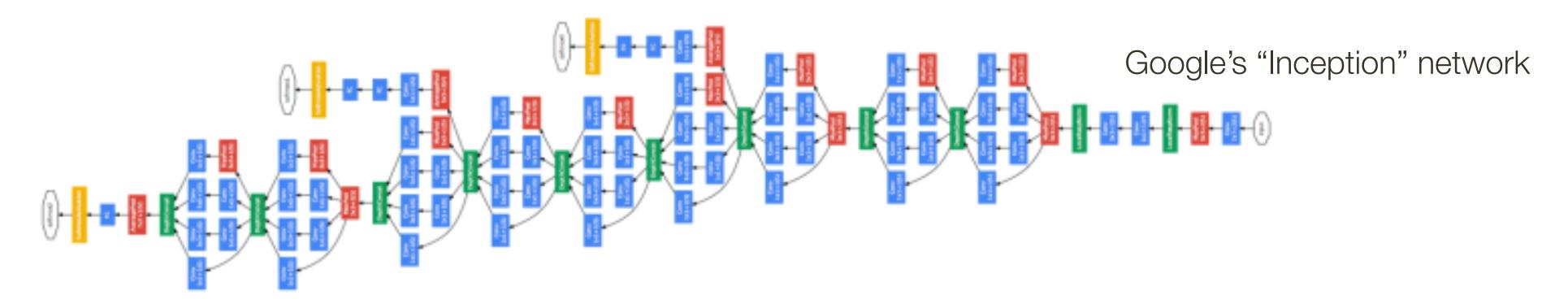
deeper = better

• Loss function: objective function being optimized (softmax, cross entropy, etc.)

requires knowledge of the nature of the problem

- Parameters: trainable parameters of the network, including weights/biases of linear/fc layers, parameters of the activation functions, etc. optimized using SGD or variants
- Hyper-parameters: parameters, including for optimization, that are not optimized directly as part of training (e.g., learning rate, batch size, drop-out rate)

Deep Learning Terminology



• **Network structure:** number and types of layers, forms of activation functions, dimensionality of each layer and connections (defines computational graph)

generally kept fixed, requires some knowledge of the problem and NN to sensibly set

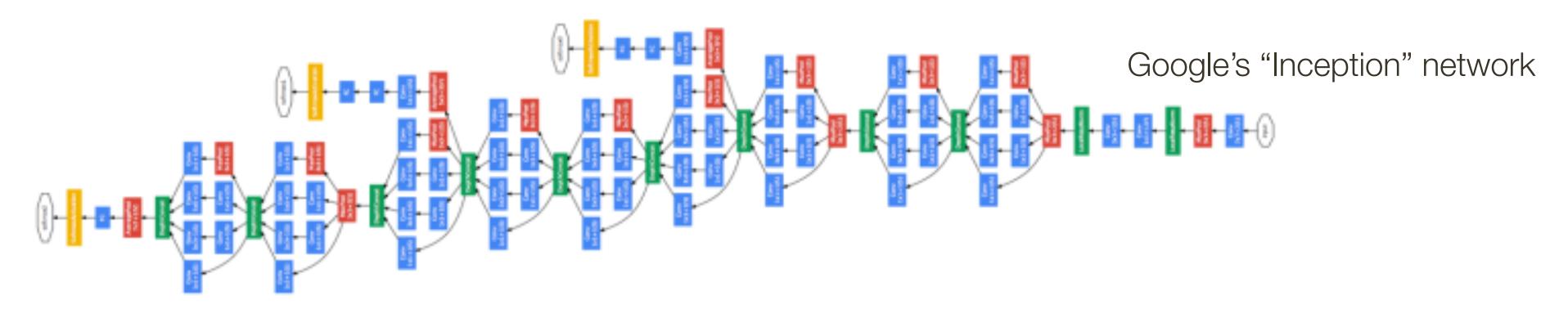
deeper = better

• Loss function: objective function being optimized (softmax, cross entropy, etc.)

requires knowledge of the nature of the problem

- **Parameters:** trainable parameters of the network, including weights/biases of linear/fc layers, parameters of the activation functions, *etc.* optimized using SGD or variants
- Hyper-parameters: parameters, including for optimization, that are not optimized directly as part of training (e.g., learning rate, batch size, drop-out rate) grid search

Deep Learning Terminology



• **Network structure:** number and types of layers, forms of activation functions, dimensionality of each layer and connections (defines computational graph)

generally kept fixed, requires some knowledge of the problem and NN to sensibly set

deeper = better

• Loss function: objective function being optimized (softmax, cross entropy, etc.)

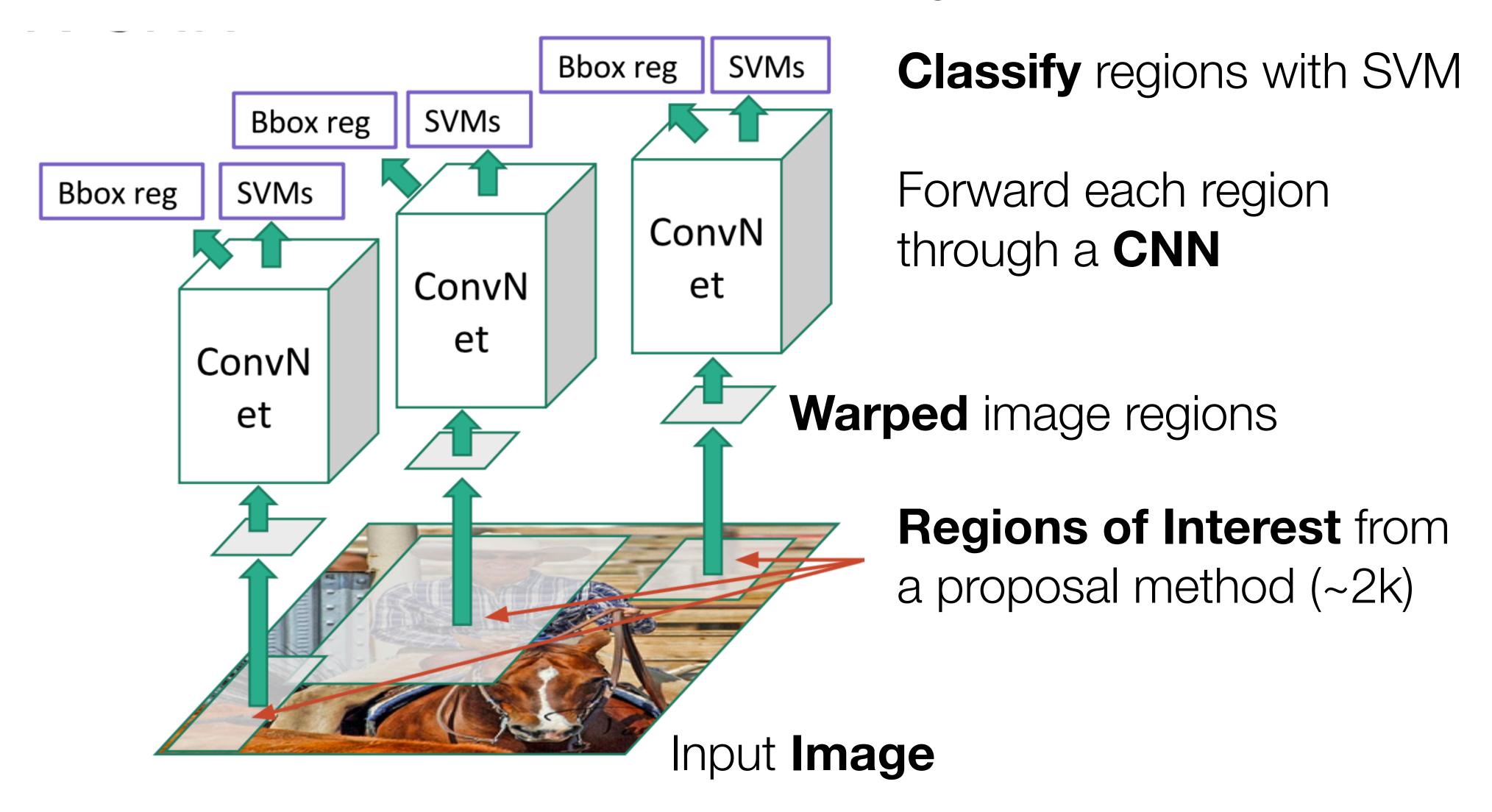
requires knowledge of the nature of the problem

Specification of neural architecture will define a computational graph.

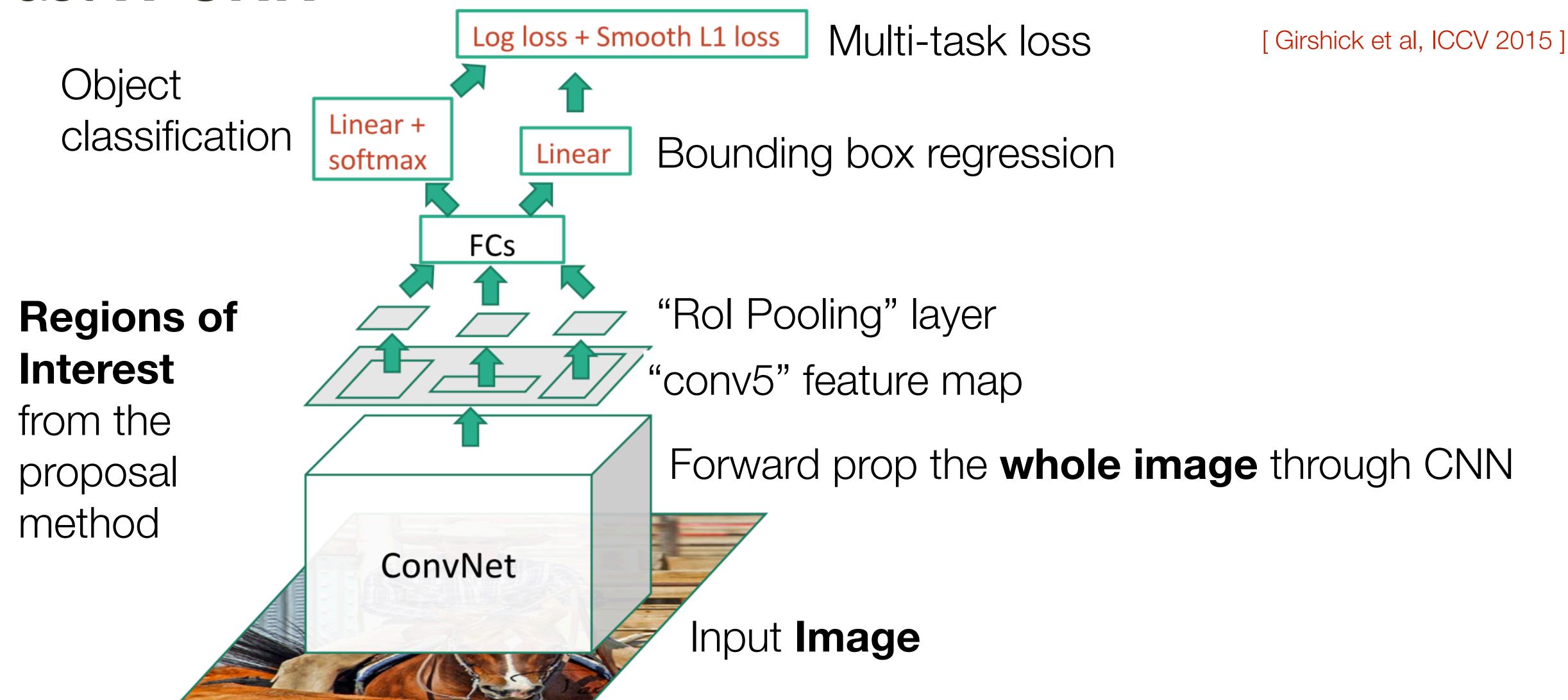
R-CNN

Linear Regression for bounding box offsets

[Girshick et al, CVPR 2014]



Fast R-CNN



Course Review: Colour

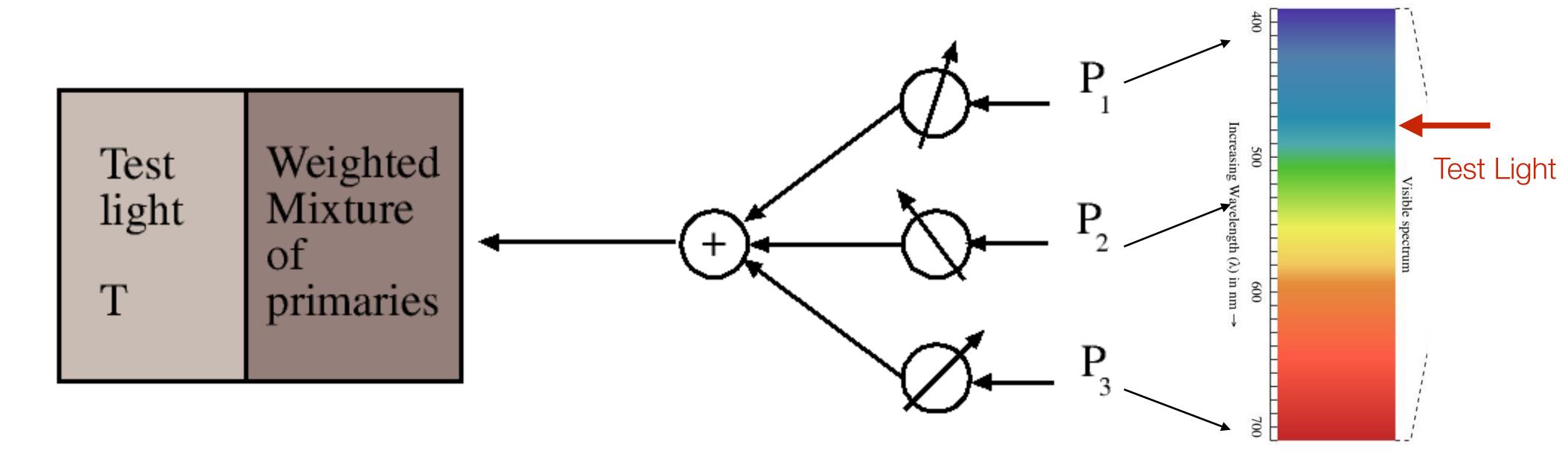
Human colour perception

RGB and CIE XYZ colour spaces

Uniform colour space

HSV colour space

Color Matching Experiments

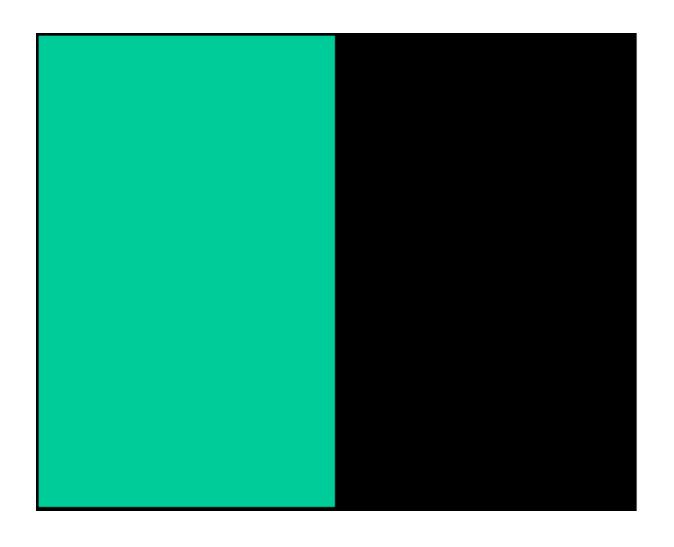


Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 3.2

Show a split field to subjects. One side shows the light whose colour one wants to match. The other a weighted mixture of three primaries (fixed lights)

$$T = w_1 P_1 + w_2 P_2 + w_3 P_3$$

Example 1: Color Matching Experiment



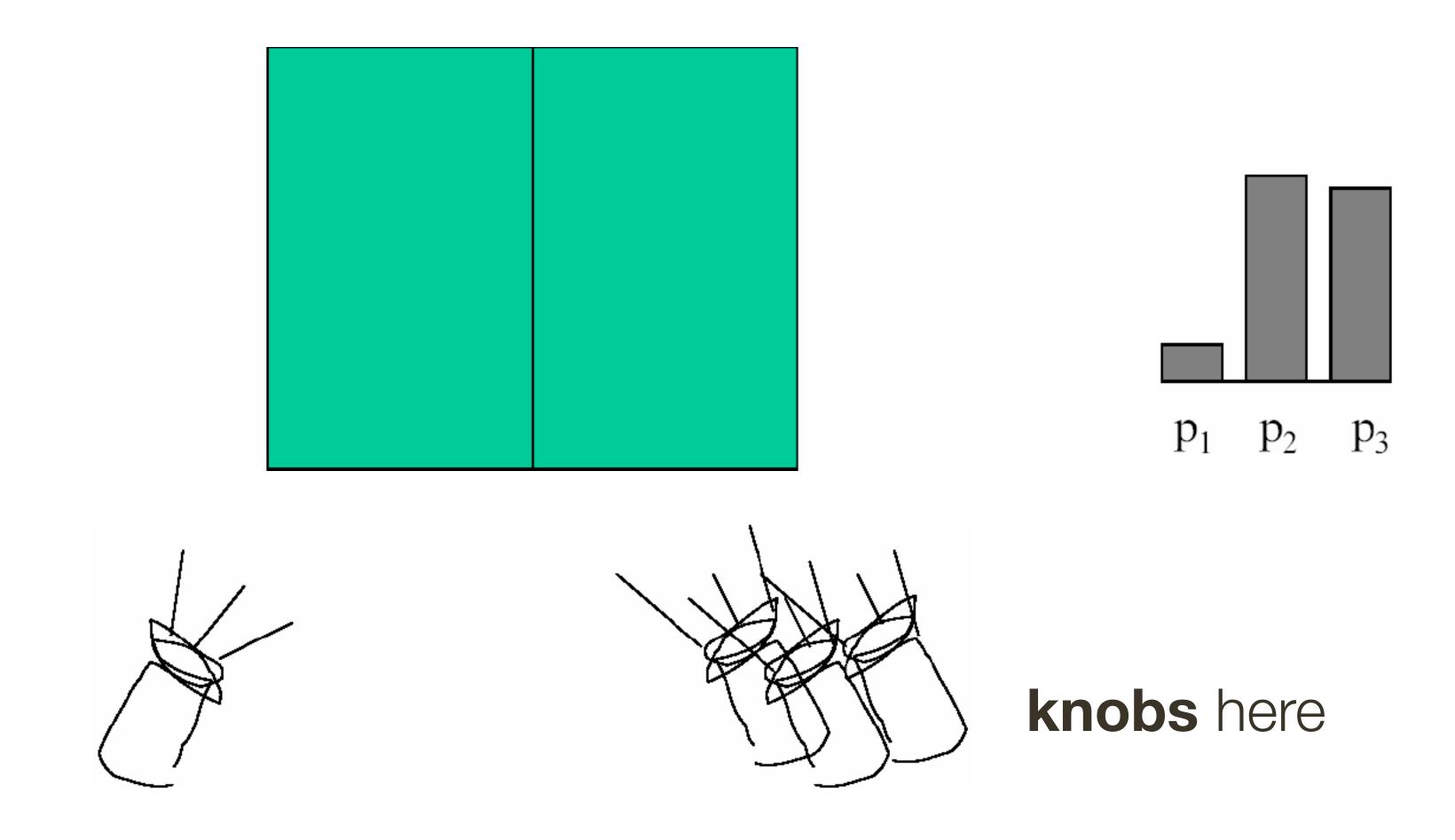




knobs here

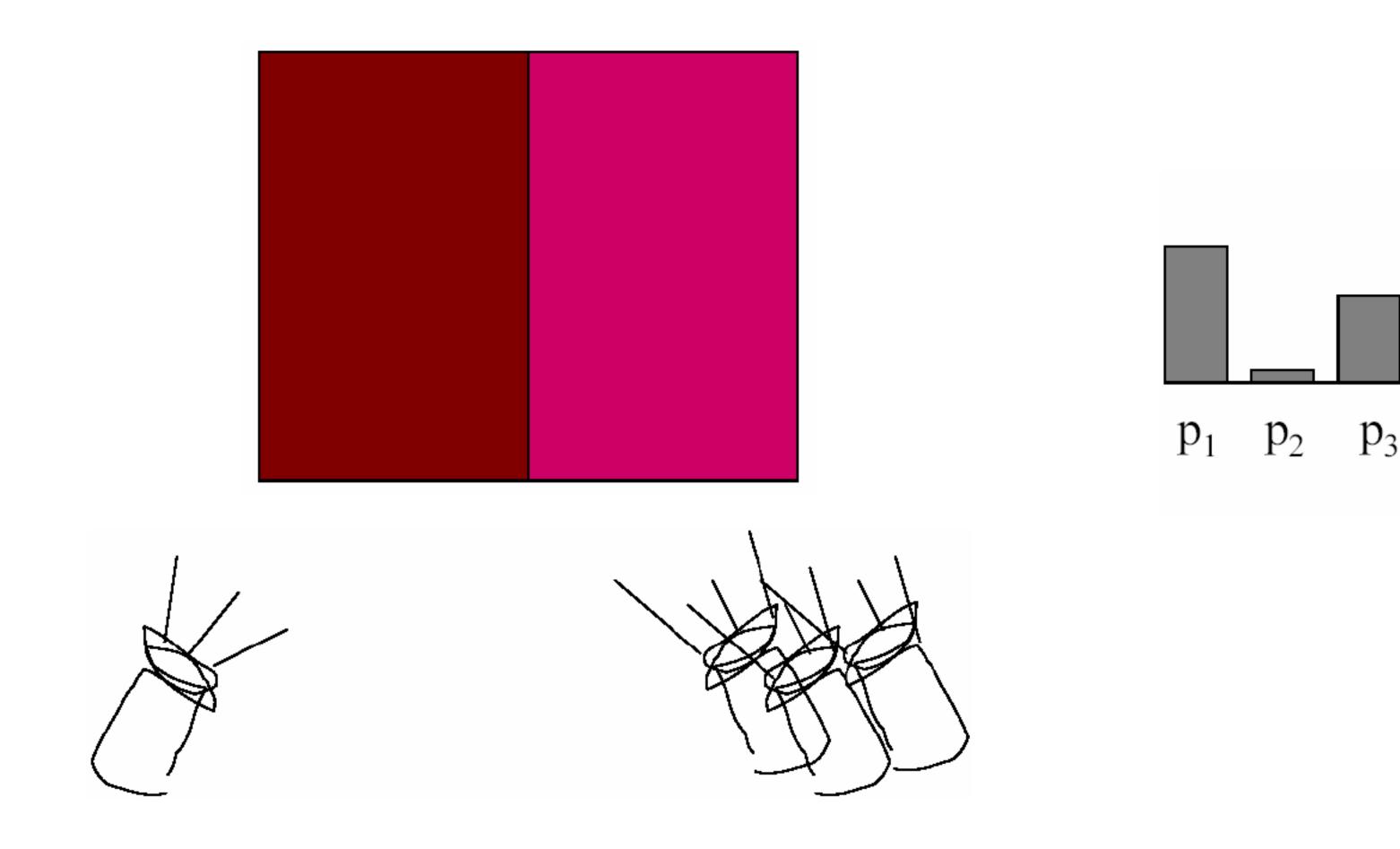
Example Credit: Bill Freeman

Example 1: Color Matching Experiment



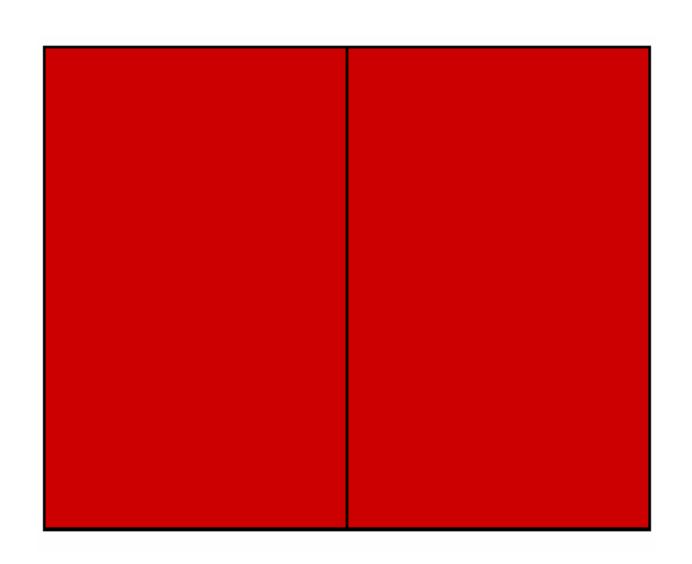
Example Credit: Bill Freeman

Example 2: Color Matching Experiment

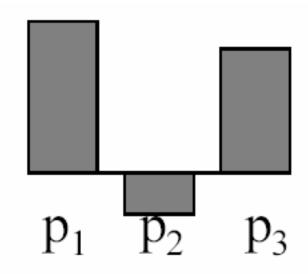


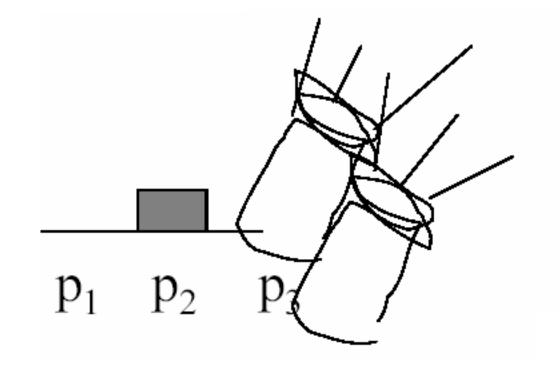
Example 2: Color Matching Experiment

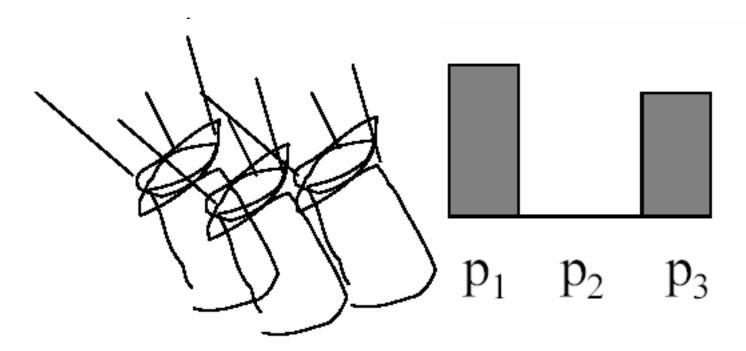
We say a "negative" amount of P_2 was needed to make a match , because we added it to the test color side



The primary color amount needed to match:

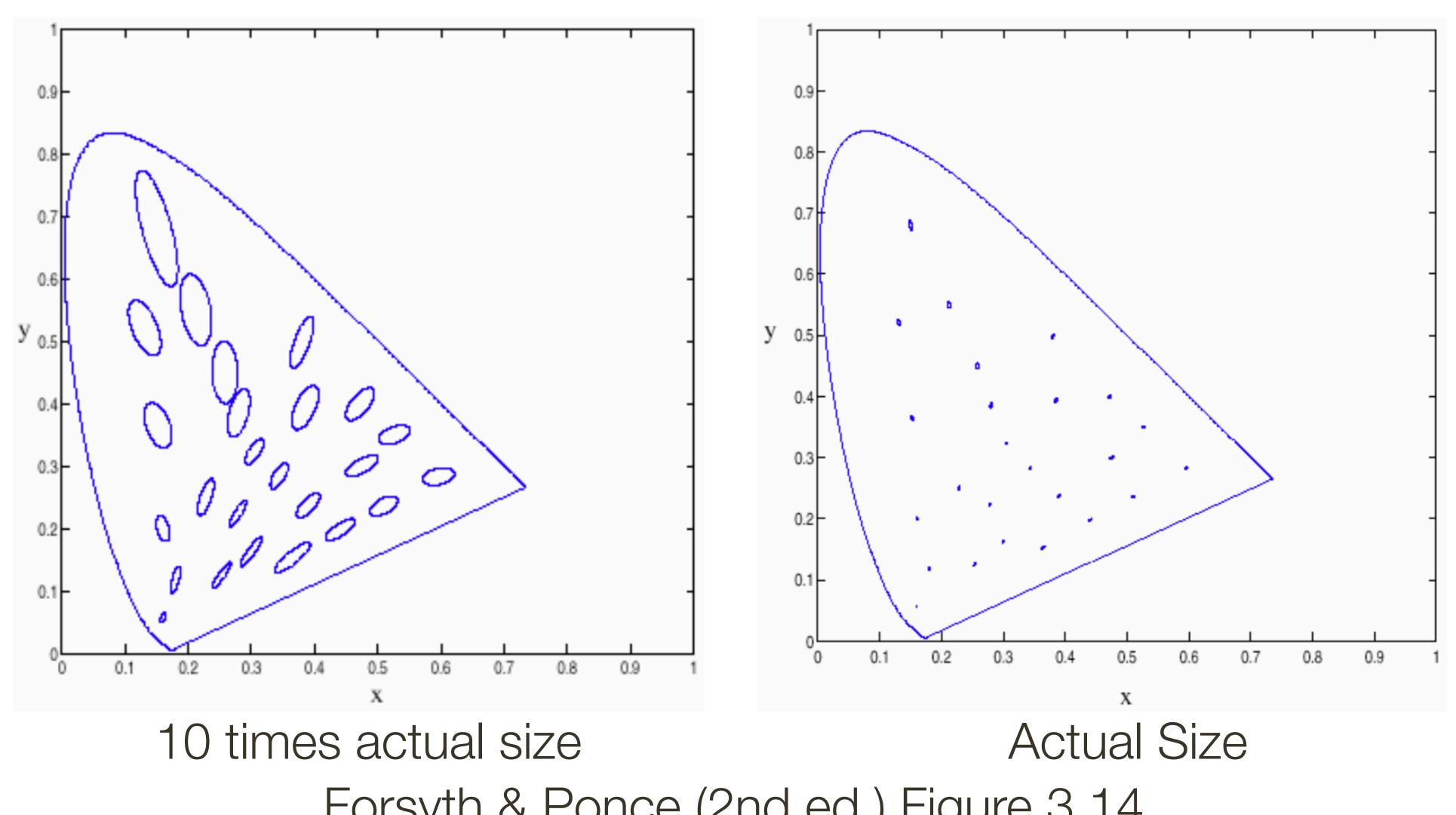






Uniform Colour Spaces

McAdam Ellipses: Each ellipse shows colours perceived to be the same



Forsyth & Ponce (2nd ed.) Figure 3.14

Uniform Colour Spaces

McAdam ellipses demonstrate that differences in x, y are a poor guide to differences in perceived colour

A uniform colour space is one in which differences in coordinates are a good guide to differences in perceived colour

- example: CIE LAB

Hope you enjoyed the course!