

# Filters as pattern detectors

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Some slides adapted from  
Svetlana Lazebnik, who adapted from [Alyosha Efros](#), [Derek Hoiem](#)

# Filters are dot products

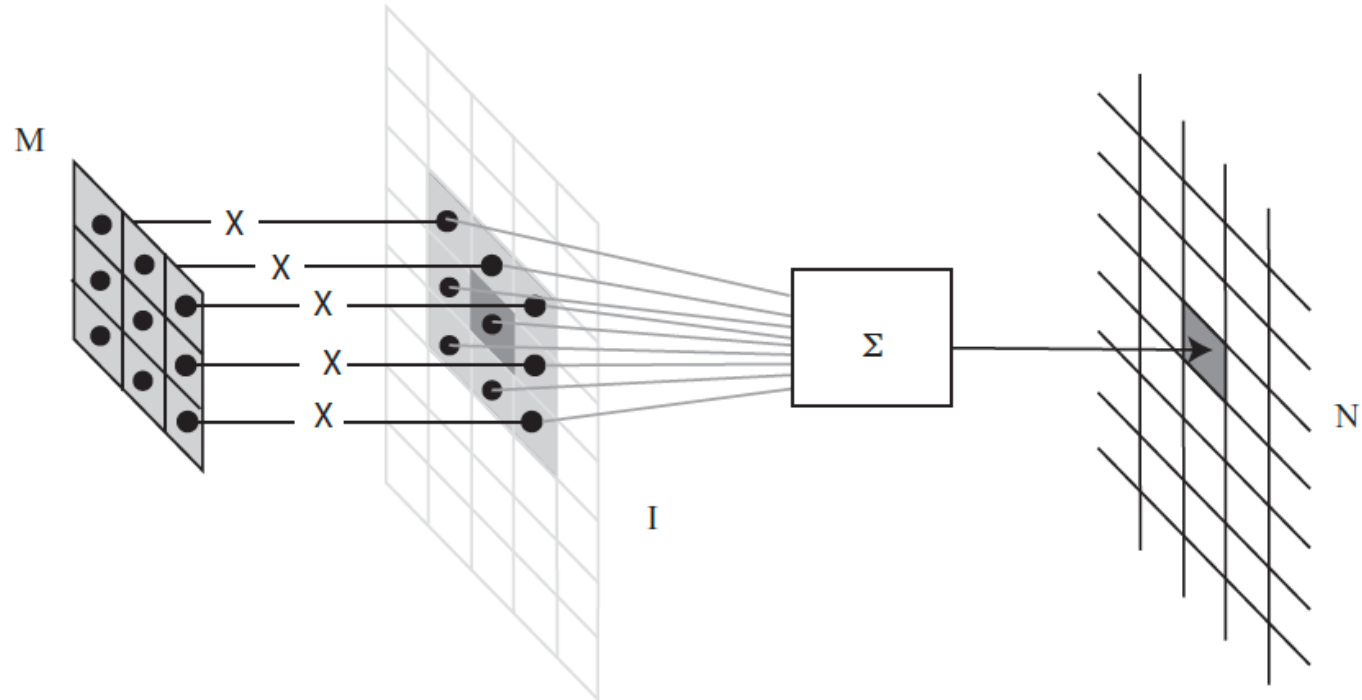


FIGURE 3.1: To compute the value of  $N$  at some location, you shift a copy of  $M$  (the flipped version of  $\mathcal{W}$ ) to lie over that location in  $\mathcal{I}$ ; you multiply together the non-zero elements of  $M$  and  $\mathcal{I}$  that lie on top of one another; and you sum the results.

# Filters as pattern detectors

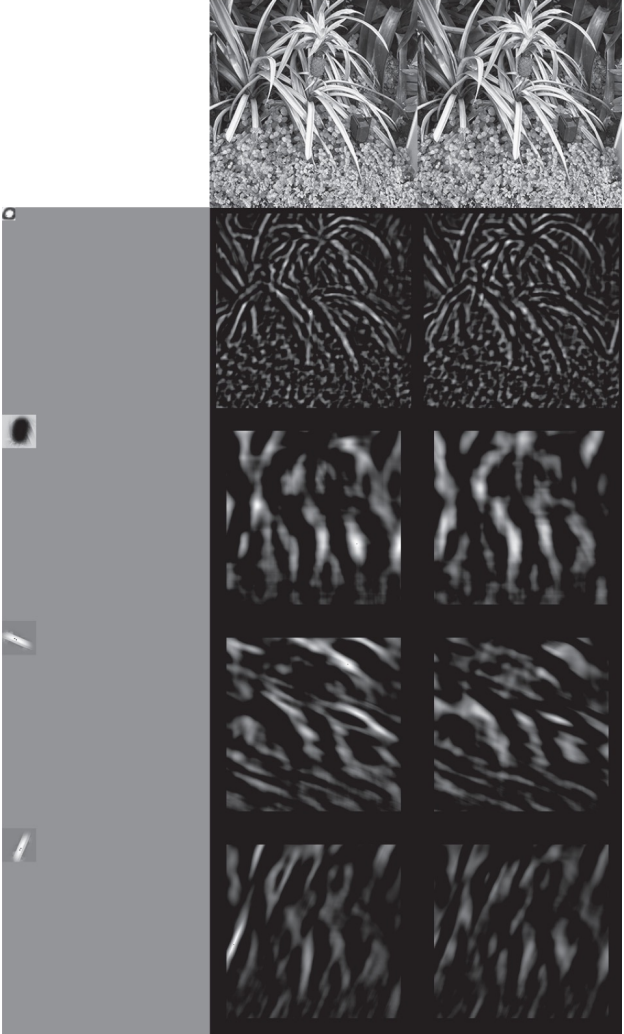
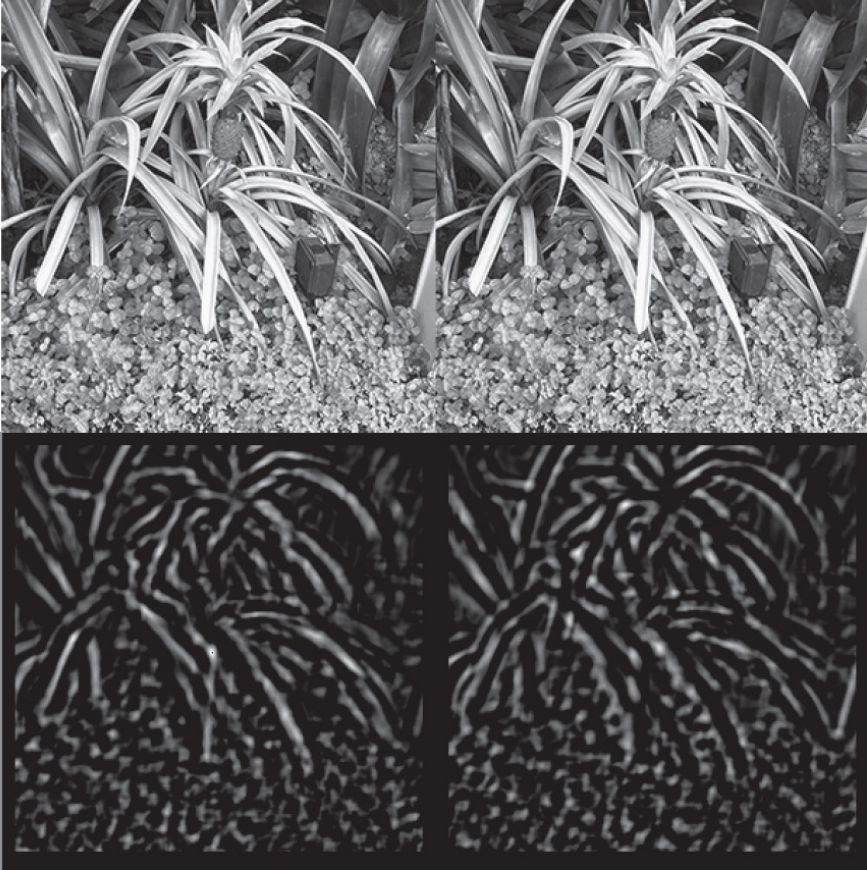
## 6.1.1 Pattern Detection by Convolution

The properties of a dot product explain why a convolution is interesting: it can be used as a very simple pattern detector. Recall that if  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are unit vectors, then  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$  is maximized when  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$  and minimized when  $\mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{v}$ . Interpreting  $\mathbf{u}$  as a vector of kernel weights and  $\mathbf{v}$  as a vector of image values suggests the rough rule of thumb: filters respond most strongly to image patterns that look like the filter kernel.

The mean of  $\mathbf{v}$  presents an issue. Write  $\mathbf{1}$  for a vector of ones. Then  $\mathbf{u}^T(\mathbf{v} + c\mathbf{1}) = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} + c\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{1}$ , so you can increase or decrease the response of the filter by adding a constant to the image window *unless*  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{1} = 0$ . This suggests that the best pattern detection is obtained by using a filter with zero mean. If  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{1} = 0$ , the magnitude of  $\mathbf{u}$  just changes the scale of the response to the filter. The local maxima (or minima) of the response are what is important – these signal where a pattern is present – and so the magnitude of  $\mathbf{u}$  doesn't really matter.

**Useful Fact:** *A zero-mean filter is a pattern detector that responds positively to image patches that look like it, and negatively to patches that look like it with a contrast reversal*

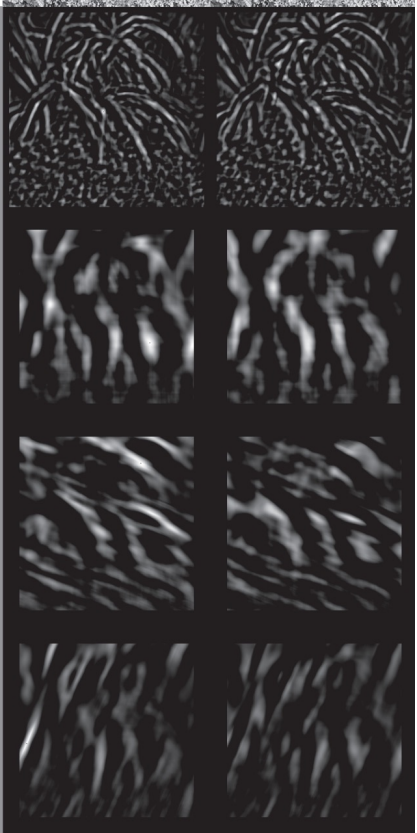
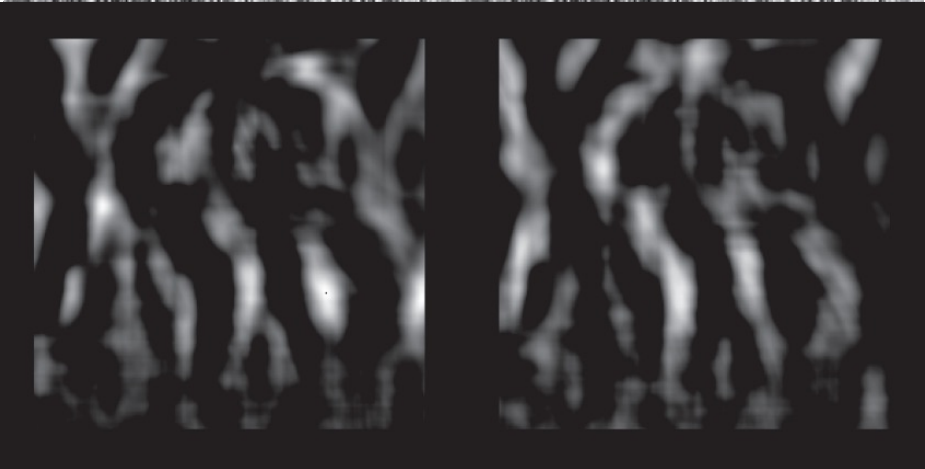
# Filters detect patterns



Positive      Negative

Convolution

# Filters detect patterns



Positive Negative

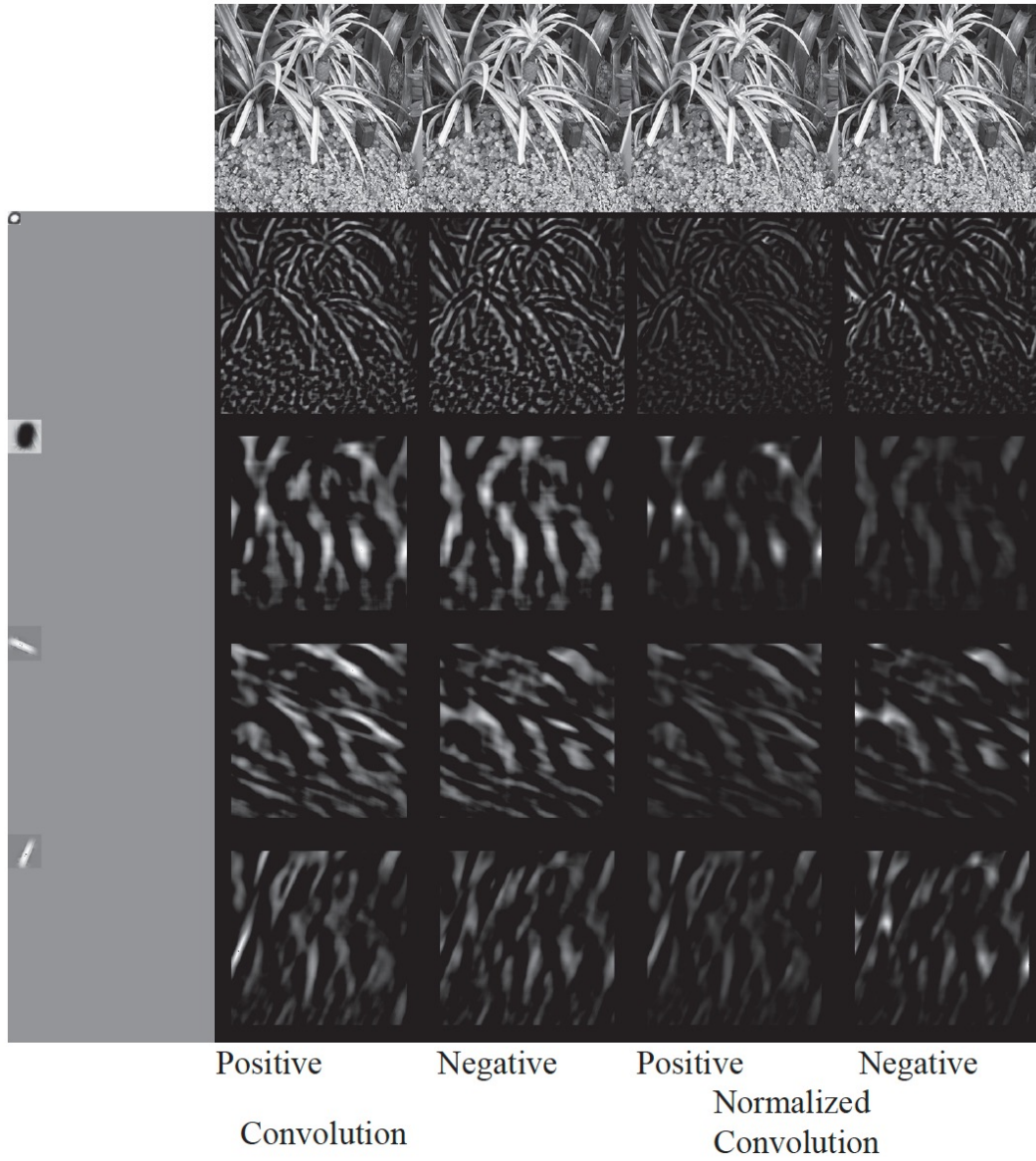
Convolution

# Normalized convolution

If the mean of the kernel is zero, scaling the image will scale the value of the convolution. If you test the convolution value against a threshold to find a pattern, you will find more instances when the image gets brighter, and fewer when it gets darker, which is usually inconvenient. One strategy to build a somewhat better pattern detector is to normalize the result of the convolution to obtain a value that is unaffected by scaling the image. For example, smooth the image with a Gaussian to obtain  $\mathcal{G}$ , then form

$$\mathcal{C}_{ij} = \frac{\mathcal{N}_{ij}}{\mathcal{G}_{ij} + \epsilon}$$

(remember,  $\mathcal{N}_{ij}$  was obtained by convolving the image with some zero-mean kernel). Here  $\mathcal{G}$  is an estimate of how bright the image is. Most images have all positive pixels (a zero pixel value is usually a sign of camera problems) so using  $\epsilon$  to avoid dividing by zero isn't essential. But note that  $\epsilon > 0$  causes the score to saturate if the image is very dark. This makes sense because a group of very dark pixels is more likely to have a pattern present through thermal noise. The process that produces  $\mathcal{C}$  is known as *normalized convolution*, and produces an improvement in the detector.



# ReLUs

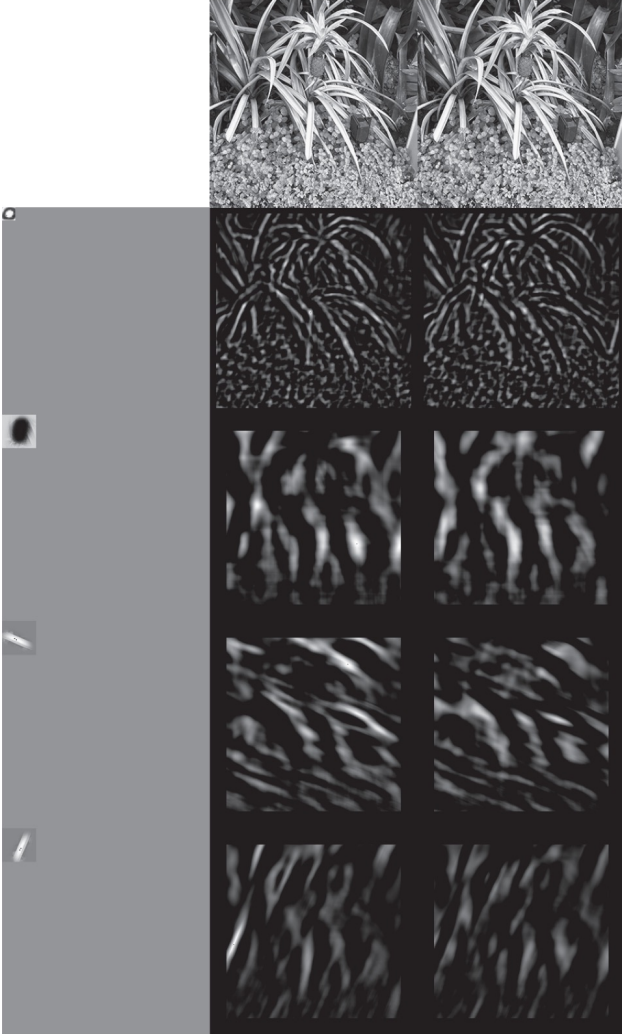
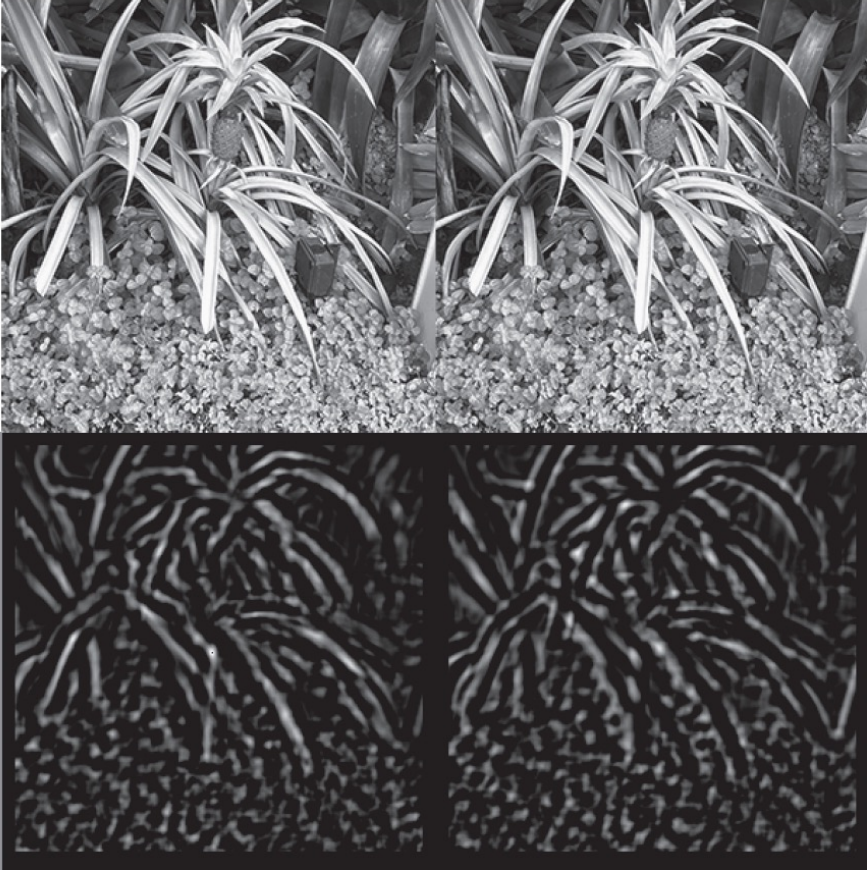
Write  $\mathcal{W}$  for a kernel representing some pattern you wish to find. Assume that  $\mathcal{W}$  has zero mean, so that the filter gives zero response to a constant image. Notice that  $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{W} * \mathcal{I}$  is strongly positive at locations where  $\mathcal{I}$  looks like  $\mathcal{W}$ , and strongly negative when  $\mathcal{I}$  looks like a contrast reversed (so dark goes to light and light goes to dark) version of  $\mathcal{W}$ . Usually, you would want to distinguish between (say) a light dot on a dark background and a dark dot on a light background. Write

$$\mathbf{relu}(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(often called a *Rectified Linear Unit* or more usually *ReLU*). Then  $\mathbf{relu}(\mathcal{W} * \mathcal{I})$  is a measure of how well  $\mathcal{W}$  matches  $\mathcal{I}$  at each pixel, and  $\mathbf{relu}(-\mathcal{W} * \mathcal{I})$  is a measure of how well  $\mathcal{W}$  matches a contrast reversed  $\mathcal{I}$  at each pixel. The ReLU will appear again.



# Filters detect patterns



Positive      Negative

Convolution

# Multi-channel convolution

The description of convolution anticipates monochrome images, and Figure 4.3 shows filters applied to a monochrome image. Color images are naturally 3D objects with two spatial dimensions (up-down, left-right) and a third dimension that chooses a slice or *channel* ( $R$ ,  $G$  or  $B$  for a color image). Color images are sometimes called *multi-channel images*. Multi-channel images offer a natural for representations of image patterns, too — two dimensions that tell you where the pattern is and one that tells you what it is. For example, the results in Figure 4.3 can be interpreted as a block consisting of eight channels (four patterns, original contrast and contrast reversed). Each slice is the response of a pattern detector *for a fixed pattern*, where there is one response for each spatial location in the block, and so are often called *feature maps* (it is entirely fair, but not usual, to think of an RGB image as a rather uninteresting feature map).

# Multi-channel Convolution

For a color image  $\mathcal{I}$ , write  $\mathcal{I}_{k,ij}$  for the  $k$ 'th color channel at the  $i, j$ 'th location, and  $\mathcal{K}$  for a color kernel – one that has three channels. Then interpret  $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{I} * \mathcal{K}$  as

$$\mathcal{N}_{ij} = \sum_{kuv} \mathcal{I}_{k,i-u,j-v} \mathcal{K}_{kuv}$$

which is an image with a single channel. This  $\mathcal{N}$  is a single channel image that encodes the response to a single pattern detector. Much more interesting is an encoding of responses to multiple pattern detectors, and for that you must use multiple kernels (often known as a *filter bank*). Write  $\mathcal{K}^{(l)}$  for the  $l$ 'th kernel, and obtain a feature map

$$\mathcal{N}_{l,ij} = \sum_{kuv} \mathcal{I}_{k,i-u,j-v} \mathcal{K}_{kuv}^{(l)}.$$

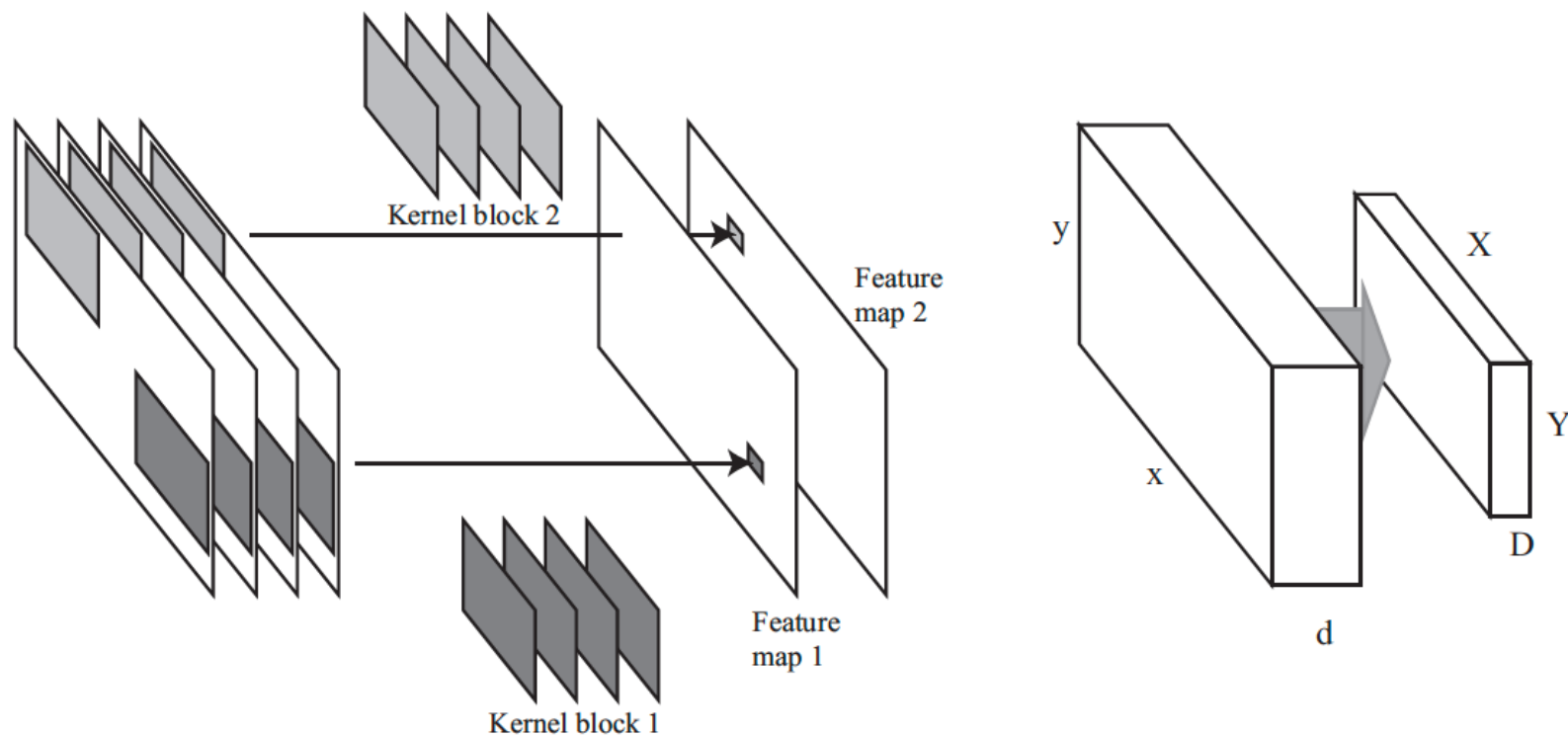
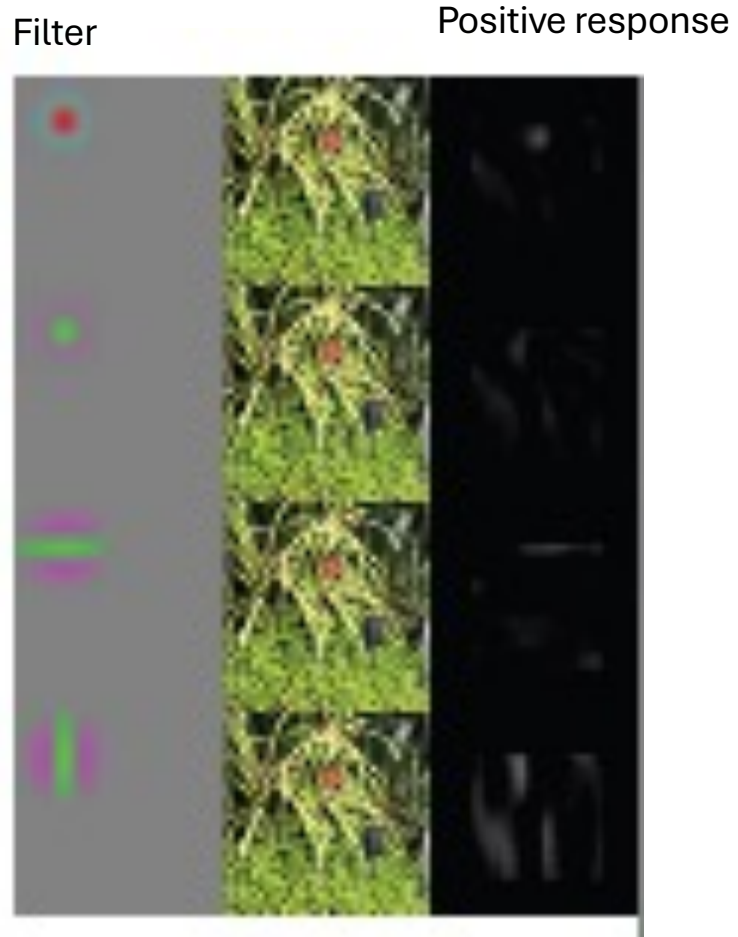
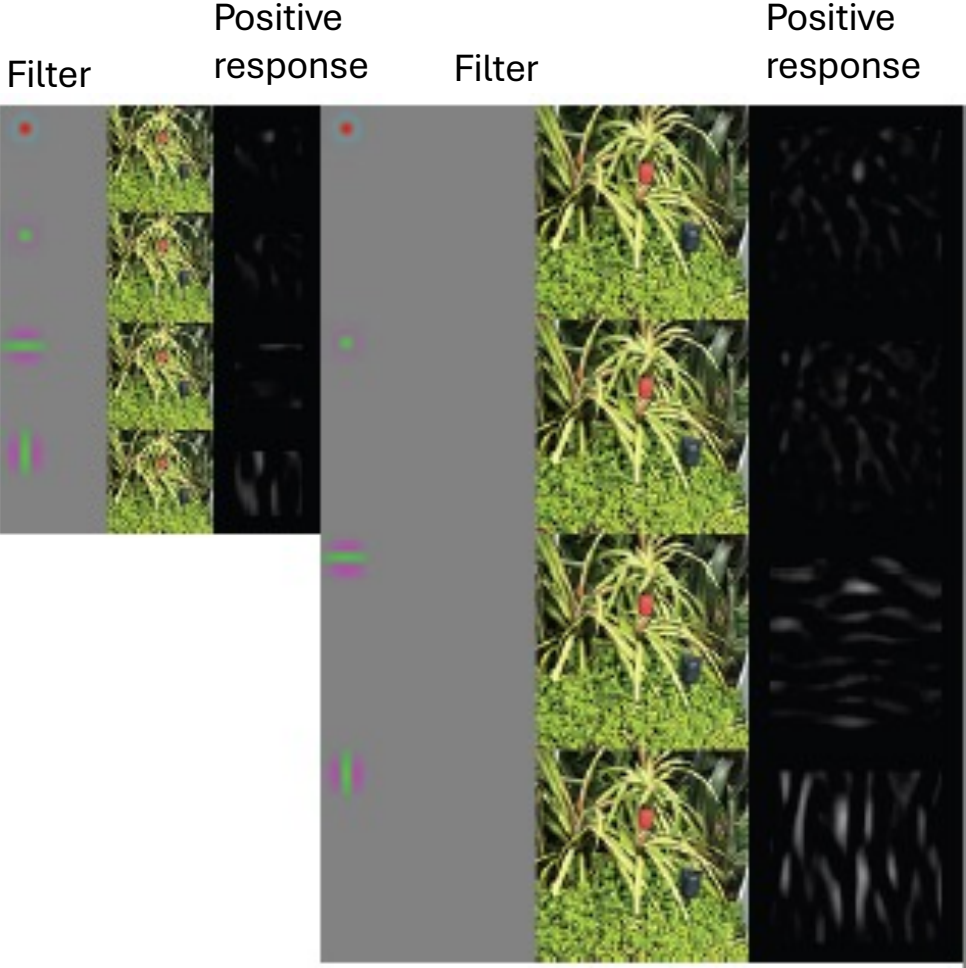


FIGURE 4.4: *On the left, two kernels (now 3D, as in the text) applied to a set of feature maps produce one new feature map per kernel, using the procedure of the text (the bias term isn't shown). Abstract this as a process that takes an  $x \times y \times d$  block to an  $X \times Y \times D$  block (as on the right).*

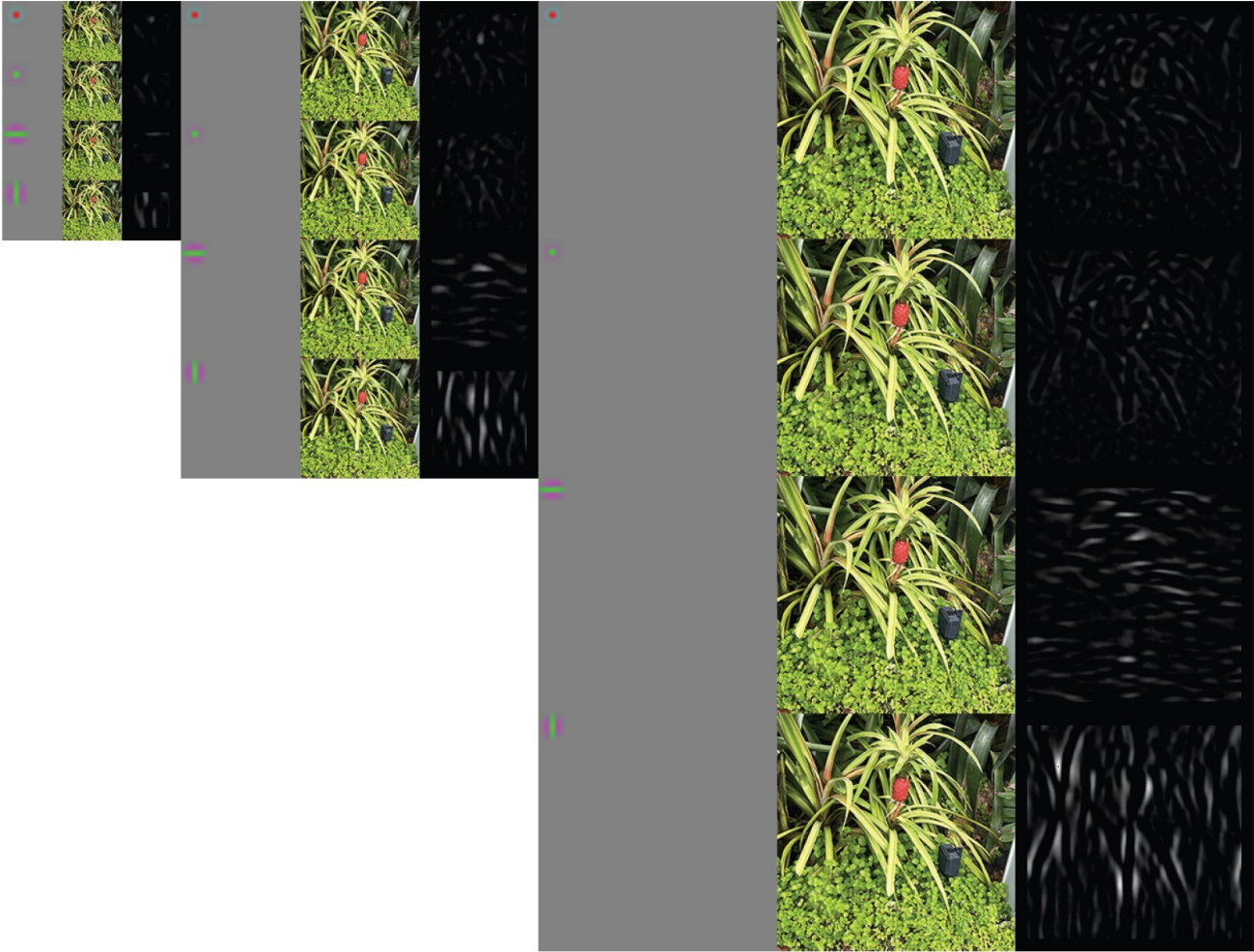
# Representing Images with Filter Banks



# Representing Images with Filter Banks



# Representing Images with Filter Banks



# But which filters should I use?

- Up till about 2012:
  - choose some, mostly spots and bars
- After 2012:
  - lots; choose ones that work well in your application using an optimization procedure



# Think about this...

- 6.2. Why is a non zero-mean filter a poor choice of pattern detector?
- 6.3. Why is a normalized convolution useful?
- 6.4. Why is a normalized convolution useful?
- 6.5. Why does “subtracting a small constant from the response before applying the ReLU” help suppress small responses to a pattern detector?
- 6.6. Why does “subtracting a small constant from the response before applying the ReLU” (Section 6.1.3) help suppress small responses to a pattern detector?
- 6.7. Is normalized convolution linear in the convolution kernel?
- 6.8. Is normalized convolution linear in the image?
- 6.9. Is multichannel convolution linear in the convolution kernel?
- 6.10. Is multichannel convolution linear in the image?
- 6.11. Can you normalize multichannel convolution?
- 6.12. Can you construct a zero-mean kernel for multichannel convolution?