# Real Time Pattern Detection 

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## Pattern Detection

A given pattern is sought in an image.

- The pattern may appear at any location in the image.
- The pattern may be subject to any transformation (within a given transformation group).



## Example

## Face detection in images



## Why is it Expensive?

The search in Spatial Domain

Searching for faces in a $1000 \times 1000$ image, is applied 1e6 times, for each pixel location.


A very expensive search problem

## Why is it difficult? The Search in Transformation Domain

- A pattern under transformations draws a very complex manifold in "pattern space":

$\in \mathfrak{R}^{k \times k}$
- In a very high dimensional space.
- Non convex.
- Non regular (two similarly perceived patterns may be distant in pattern space).



A rotation manifold of a pattern drawn in "pattern-space" The manifold was projected into its three most significant components.

## Suggested Approach

Reduce complexity of search using 2 complementary processes:

1. Reduce search in Transformation Domain.
2. Reduce search in Spatial Domain.

Both processes are based on a Rejection Scheme.


## Efficient Search in the Transformation Domain



## Transformation Manifold

A pattern P can be represented as a point in $\Re^{\mathfrak{k} k}$
$\mathrm{T}(\alpha) \mathrm{P}$ is a transformation $\mathrm{T}(\alpha)$ applied to pattern $\mathbf{P}$.
$\mathrm{T}(\alpha) \mathrm{P}$ for all $\alpha$ forms an orbit in $\mathfrak{R}^{k \times k}$


## Fast Search in Group Orbit

- Assume $\mathrm{d}(\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{P})$ is a distance metric.
- We would like to find

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta(Q, P)=\min _{\alpha} d(Q, \\
& T(\alpha) P)
\end{aligned}
$$



## Fast Search in Group Orbit (Cont.)

- In the general case $\Delta(\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{P})$ is not a metric.

- Observation: if $d(Q, P)=d(T(\alpha) Q, T(\alpha) P)$
$\Delta(\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{P})$ is a metric


## Fast Search in Group Orbit (Cont.)

The metric property of $\Delta(\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{P})$ implies triangular inequality on the distances.


## Orbit Decomposition

- In practice $\mathrm{T}(\alpha)$ is sampled into $\mathrm{T}(\varepsilon \mathrm{i})=\mathrm{T}_{\varepsilon}(\mathrm{i}), \mathrm{i}=1,2, \ldots$
- We can divide $\mathrm{T}_{\varepsilon}(\mathrm{i}) \mathrm{P}$ into two sub-orbits:

$$
\mathrm{T}_{2 \varepsilon}(\mathrm{i}) \mathrm{P} \text { and } \mathrm{T}_{2 \varepsilon}(\mathrm{i}) \mathrm{P}^{\prime} \text { where } \mathrm{P}^{\prime}=\mathrm{T}_{\varepsilon}(1) \mathrm{P}
$$



## Orbit Decomposition (Cont.)



## Orbit Decomposition (Cont.)



Since $\Delta_{2 \varepsilon}$ is a metric and $\Delta_{2 \varepsilon}\left(\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{P}{ }^{\prime}\right)$ can be calculated in advance we may save calculations using the triangle inequality constraint.

## Orbit Decomposition (Cont.)

- The sub-group subdivision can be applied recursively.



## Fast Search - Example



| - | - |
| :---: | :---: |
| File Edit Tools Window Help |  |




| FIFIND THE FACE |
| :--- |
| File Edit Tools Window Help |



| - IFIND THE FACE | - $\square^{\text {a }}$ \| |
| :---: | :---: |
| File Edit Tools Window Help |  |







## Fast Search in Group Orbit: Conclusions

- Observation 1: Orbit distance is a metric when the point distance is transformation invariant.
- Observation 2: Fast search in orbit distance space can be applied using recursive orbit decomposition.
- Distant patterns are rejected fast.
- Important: Can be applied to any metric distance d(Q,P).


## Efficient Search in the Spatial Domain



## The Euclidean Distance



## Complexity (2D case)

|  | Average \# <br> Operations per <br> Pixel | Space | Integer <br> Arithm. | Run Time for <br> 1Kx1K Image <br> $32 x 32$ pattern <br> PIII, 1.8 Ghz |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Naive | $+: 2 k^{2}$ <br> $*:$$k^{2}$ | $n^{2}$ | Yes | 5.14 seconds |
| Fourier | $+: 36 \log n$ |  |  |  |
| $*: 24 \log n$ | $n^{2}$ | No | 4.3 seconds |  |

## Norm Distance in Sub-space

- Representing an image window and the pattern as vectors in $R^{k x k}$.

$$
d_{E}(p, q)=\|p-q\|^{2}=>
$$

- If $p$ and $\|_{\mid}^{2}$ were projected onto a kernel $u$, it follows from the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$
d_{E}(p, q) \geq|u|^{-2} d_{E}\left(p^{\top} u, q^{\top} u\right)
$$



## Distance Measure in Sub-space (Cont.)

- If $q$ and $p$ were projected onto a set of kernels $[U]$ :


It can be shown that:

$$
d_{E}(p, q) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{r} \frac{1}{S_{k}^{2}} d_{E}\left(p^{T} u_{k}, q^{T} u_{k}\right)
$$

## How can we Expedite the Distance Calculations?

Two necessary requirements:

1. Choose projecting kernels [U] having high probability to be parallel to the vector $p-q$.
2. Choose projecting kernels that are fast to apply.


## Projecting Kernels: Walsh-Hadamard

Following the above requirement we use the kxk

## Walsh-Hadamard kernels

- Each window in a natural image is closely spanned by the first few kernel vectors.
- Can be applied very fast in a recursive manner.


## The Walsh-Hadamard Kernels:



## Walsh-Hadamard v.s. Standard Basis:



The lower bound for distance value in \% v.s. number of Walsh-Hadamard projections,
Averaged over 100 pattern-image pairs of size 256x256 .

The lower bound for distance value in \% v.s. number of standard basis projections, Averaged over 100 pattern-image pairs of size $256 \times 256$.

## The Walsh-Hadamard Tree (1D case)



## The Walsh-Hadamard Tree - Example



## Properties:

- Descending from a node to its child requires one addition operation per pixel (convolution).
- A projection of the entire image onto one kernel is performed in a top-down traversal.

A projection of a particular window in the image onto one kernel is performed in a bottom-up traversal.

- All operations are performed in integers.



## Complexity (1D):

- Projecting all windows in the image onto a single kernel requires $\log k$ additions per pixel.
- Projecting all windows in the image onto $l<k$ kernels requires $m$ additions per pixel, where $m$ is the number of nodes preceding the $l$ leaf.
- Projecting all windows in the image onto $k$ kernels requires $2 k$ additions per pixel.
- Projecting a single window onto a single kernel requires k-1 additions.



## Walsh-Hadamard Tree (2D):

- For the 2D case, the projection is performed in a similar manner where the tree depth is $2 \log k$

The complexity is calculated accordingly.


Construction tree for $2 \times 2$ basis

## Pattern Matching algorithm

- Iteratively apply Walsh-Hadamard kernels to each window $w_{i}$ in the image.
- At each iteration and for each $w_{i}$ calculate a lowerbound $L b_{i}$ for $\left|p-w_{i}\right|^{2}$.
- If the lower-bound $L b_{i}$ is greater than a pre-defined threshold, reject the window $w_{i}$ and ignore it in further projections.


## Pattern Matching algorithm - Complexity

All windows are projected onto the first kernel :
2logk ops/pixel
Only a few windows are further projected using ~2k operations per active window :

$$
\varepsilon \text { ops/pixel }
$$

## Total : <br> $2 \log k+\varepsilon$ ops/pixel

## Example:



Sought Pattern

Initial Image: 65536 candidates


After the $1^{\text {st }}$ projection: 563 candidates


After the $2^{\text {nd }}$ projection: 16 candidates


## After the $3^{\text {rd }}$ projection: 1 candidate



Percentage of windows remaining following each projection, averaged over 100 pattern-image pairs.

Image size $=256 \times 256$, pattern size $=16 \times 16$.


Accumulated number of additions after each projection averaged over 100 pattern-image pairs. Image size $=256 \times 256$, pattern size $=16 \times 16$.

Average Number of operations per pixel: 8.0154

## Example with Noise




Number of projections required to find all patterns, as a function of noise level. (Threshold is set to minimum).


Percentage of windows remaining following each projection, at various noise levels.

Image size $=256 \times 256$, pattern size $=16 \times 16$.

## DC-invariant Pattern Matching



Detected patterns.


## 0

## 

Five projections are required to find all 10 patterns (Threshold is set to minimum).

## Complexity (2D case)

|  | Average \# <br> Operations per <br> Pixel | Space | Integer <br> Arithm. | Run Time for <br> 1Kx1K Image <br> $32 x 32$ pattern <br> PIII, 1.8 Ghz |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Naive | $+: 2 k^{2}$ <br> $*: k^{2}$ | $n^{2}$ | Yes | 4.86 seconds |
| Fourier | $+: 36 \log n$ <br> $*: 24 \log n$ | $n^{2}$ | No | 3.5 seconds |
| New | $+: 2 \log k+\varepsilon$ | $n^{2} \log k$ | Yes | 78 msec |

## Advantages:

- Walsh-Hadamard per window can be applied very fast.
- Projections are performed with additions/subtractions only (no multiplications).
- Integer operations (3 times faster for additions).
- Fast rejection of windows.
- Possible to perform pattern matching at video rate.
- Extensions:
- DC invariant pattern matching.
- Other norms.
- Multi size pattern matching.


## Limitations:

- $2 \mathrm{n}^{2} \log \mathrm{k}$ memory size.
- Pattern size must be $2^{\mathrm{m}}$.
- Limited to normed distance metrics.


## Conclusion

Pattern Detection using 2 complementary processes: 1. Reduce search in Transformation Domain.
2. Reduce search in Spatial Domain.

Processes are based on rejection schemes, and are restricted to a specific domain.

The two processes can be combined into a single, highly efficient, search process.
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