

Differential invariant signatures (after Olver) for images

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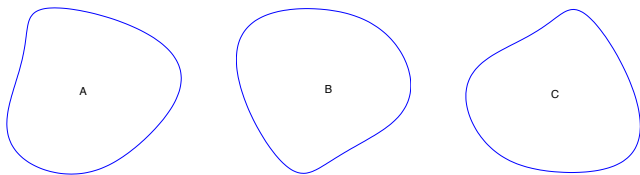
Geometric Numerical Integration

Oberwolfach

22 March 2016

Comparing planar objects

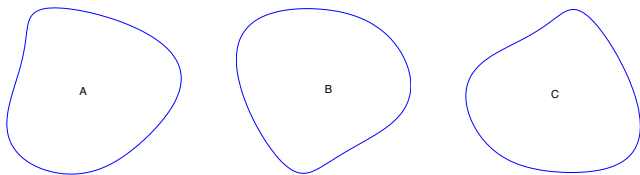
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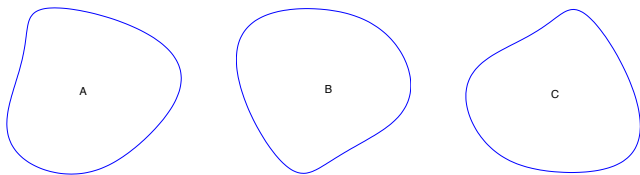


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Q. Which pair of shapes are closest modulo rotations?

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A and C are identical modulo rotations.

B is about 1% different in the L^2 norm.

Comparing planar objects

Given a set of planar objects, we may want to compare them modulo a transformation group G .

Two main approaches:

- ① *Registration*: For each pair a, b of objects,

$$\min_{g \in G} \|g \cdot a - b\|$$

- ② *Invariants*: Use a G -invariant representation of the objects:
 a and b have the same internal representation iff $b = g \cdot a$

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- ② *Invariants*: Use a G -invariant representation of the objects:
 a and b have the same internal representation iff $b = g \cdot a$
 - *Partial invariants*: Use I where $I(a) = I(g \cdot a)$ for all $g \in G$.
Example: length of a curve under Euclidean group.

The setting

- ① The *objects* may be of various kinds:
 - ① Shapes: unparameterized planar curves
 - ② Images: $f: [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, k = number of color channels in the image

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- ② Many groups may arise:
 - ① $E(2)$, $SE(2)$, $Sim(2)$ (Euclidean groups)
 - ② $A(2)$ and $SA(2)$ (affine groups)
 - ③ $PSL(3, \mathbb{R})$ (projective group)
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- ③ Applications:
 - ① object recognition
 - ② pattern matching
 - ③ feature detection, tracking, shape analysis, tomography, ...

Examples of Möbius shapes in nature

From S V Petukhov's *Non-Euclidean geometries and algorithms of living bodies*, 1989:

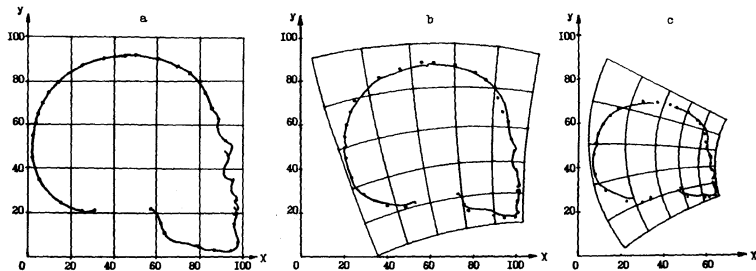


Fig. 22. Möbius transformations in the modeling of ontogenetic transformations of the human skull. Profiles of the skulls of an adult (a), a 5-year-old (b) and a newborn (c), taken from Ref. [32].

Growth of a human skull

- ① Part I: Differential signatures of images
(Stephen Marsland, Richard Brown)
- ② Part II: Currents and finite elements as a tool for shape space
(Marsland, Klas Modin, Olivier Verdier)

Invariants in mathematics

There is a vast literature on invariants in mathematics. . .

- ① There is an algorithm (the **moving frame method**) to construct a minimal set of invariants for specific group actions.
- ② There is **classical invariant theory**, which e.g. seeks a *First Fundamental Theorem* for each group action, i.e., the set of all invariants of a given type (e.g. polynomial).

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- 3 Hardly any such FFTs are known.
- 4 An FFT does not guarantee that the invariants distinguish the group orbits.
- 5 The definition of an invariant only says $I(x) = I(g \cdot x)$. It says nothing about $I(x) - I(y)$ when x and y are in different orbits.

Invariants in computer science

There is vast literature on invariants in computer science.

An invariant should offer:

- 1 fast computation
- 2 good discrimination (A, B far apart iff their invariants are far apart)
- 3 completeness (A, B have same invariants iff they are the same)
- 4 stability (invariants nearby implies A, B nearby)
- 5 robustness (if B is a noisy A, their invariants should be nearby)

Peter Olver's main example

$G = SE(2)$ acts on curves $\phi: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ by $g \cdot \phi = g \circ \phi$.

The set

$$\{(\kappa(t), \kappa_s(t)) : t \in [0, 1]\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$

is a differential invariant signature for Euclidean curves.

It is also invariant under parameterizations, i.e.

$$\psi \cdot \phi := \phi \circ \psi, \quad \psi \in \text{Diff}(S^1).$$

Research goal:

Systematically construct differential invariant signatures for k -colour planar images

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$$

with respect to the action of a planar group G , where

$$g \cdot f := f \circ g^{-1}.$$

Example: $G = E(2)$

For 1-colour images $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the set

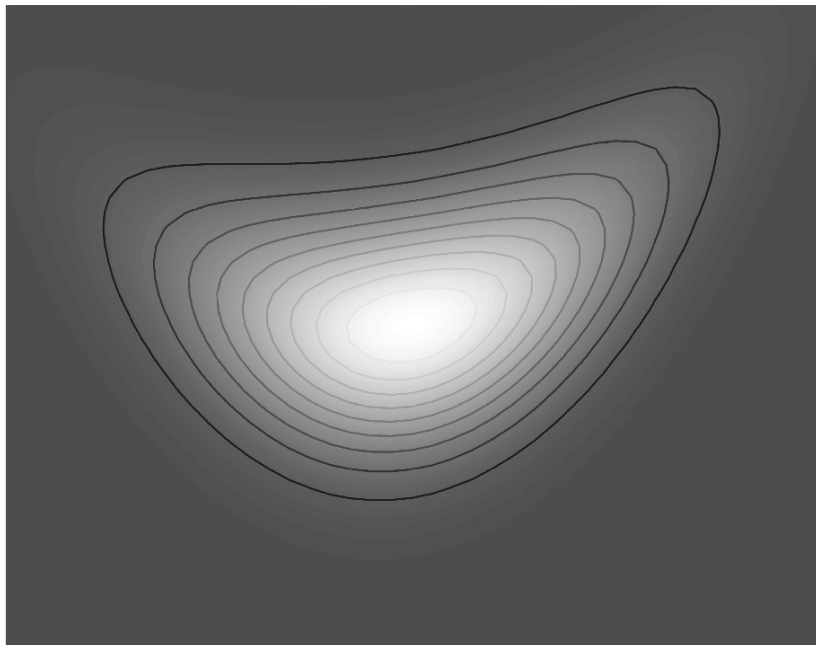
$$\{(f, \|\nabla f\|^2, \nabla^2 f)(x, y): (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$$

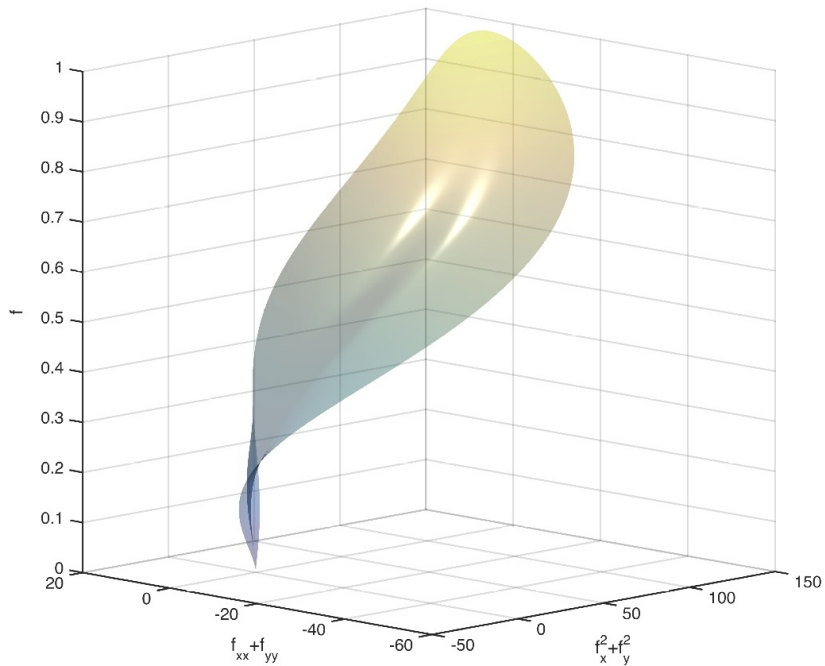
is a differential invariant.

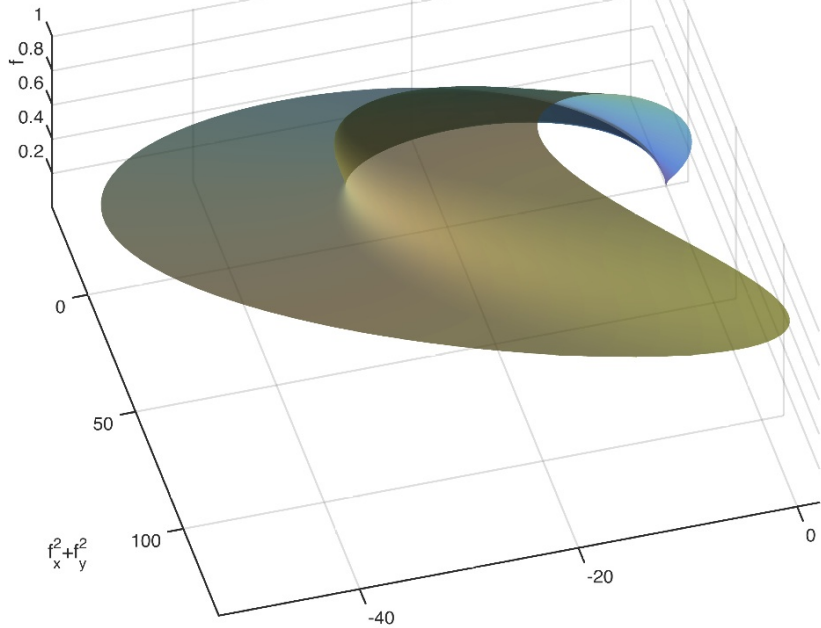
It is an immersed 2-dimensional submanifold of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Where does this come from?

$$f = \exp(-4x^2 - 8(y - 0.2x - 0.8x^2)^2)$$







Example: $G = E(2)$

① Moving frame method:

- First prolong the group action $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$ to get

$$f \mapsto f, \quad f_i \mapsto A_{ij}f_j, \quad f_{ij} \mapsto A_{ij}A_{kl}f_{jl}, \dots$$

- Then step-by-step solve for the group parameters to put $(f, f_i, \dots)$ in a reference configuration; once all parameters are determined, the remaining coordinates of $(f, f_i, \dots)$ are invariant.

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② Classical invariant theory: The *invariant tensor theorem* for $O(n)$: invariants are

$$f, \quad f_i f_i, \quad f_{ii}, \quad f_{ij} f_i f_j, \quad f_{ij} f_{ij}, \quad f_{ijk} f_{ijk}, \dots$$

How many invariants do we need?

Is this invariant complete?

- ❶ Fails to detect singular parts, e.g. $f(R) = \text{const.}$, $R \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, because all sub-parts of R are locally equivalent under $E(2)$.

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- ❸ The signature $(f, f_i f_i, f_{ii}, f_{ij} f_i f_j) \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ locally determines f up to $E(2)$.

Another example: $SA(2)$

- Here the action is $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$, $\det A = 1$.
- The prolonged action is $f \mapsto f$, $f_i \mapsto A_{ij}f_j$, $f_{ij} \mapsto A_{ik}A_{il}f_{kl}, \dots$
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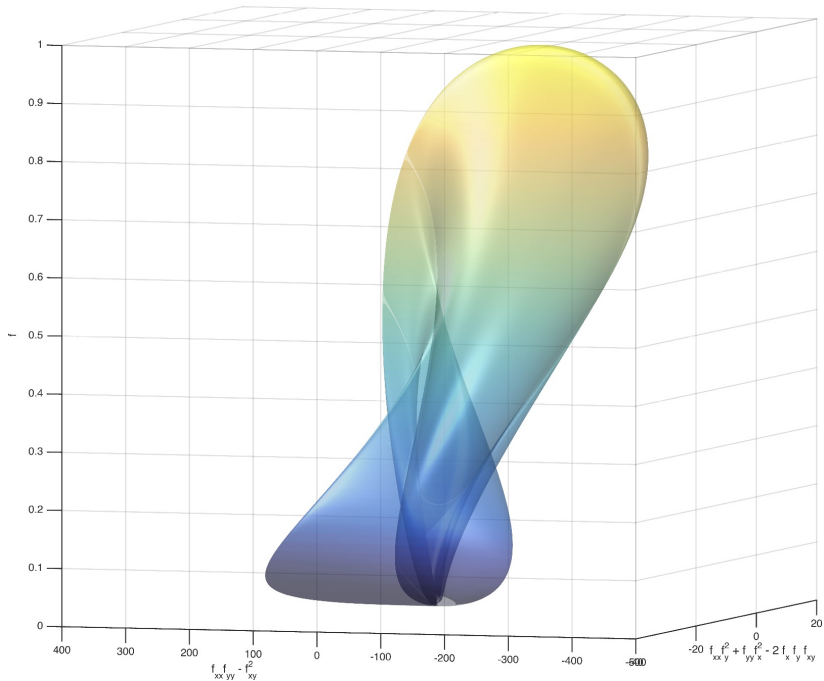
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- This is the same as the simultaneous action of $SL(2)$ on linear forms, binary forms, ternary forms, etc., studied in classical invariant theory.
- Up to ternary: Alexander Bessel, 1869:
 - There are no invariants of 1st order
 - There are two invariants of 2nd order, the cubic ones are

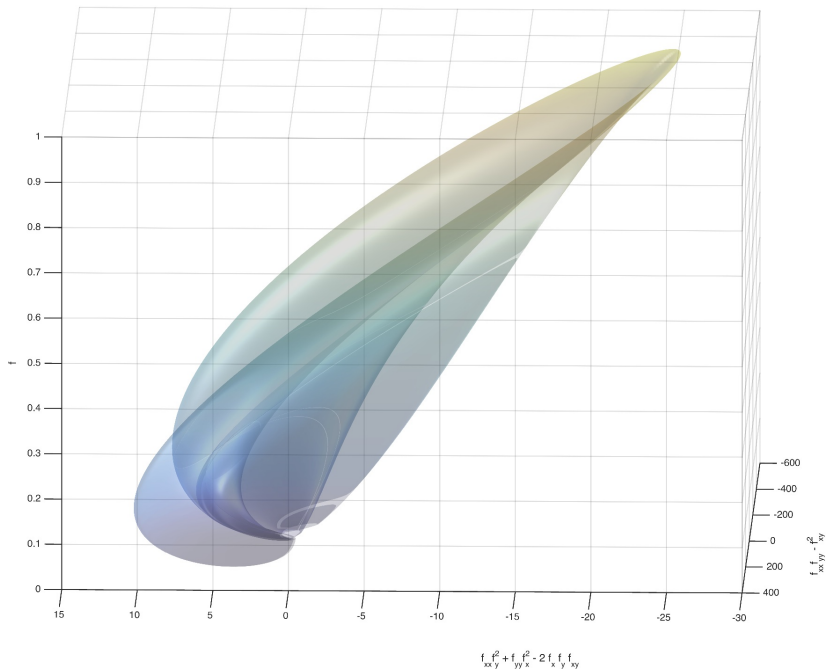
$$\det f_{ij}, \quad f_{yy}f_x^2 + f_{xx}f_y^2 - 2f_{xy}f_xf_y.$$

- There are 15 independent polynomial invariants of 3rd order,

$$f_yf_{yy}f_{xxx} - 2f_yf_{xy}f_{xxy} - f_xf_{yy}f_{xxy} + f_yf_{xx}f_{xyy} + 2f_xf_{xy}f_{xyy} - f_xf_{xx}f_{yyy}$$

$$f_{yy}f_{xxy}^2 + f_{xx}f_{xyy}^2 + f_{xy}f_{xxx}f_{yyy} - f_{yy}f_{xxx}f_{xyy} - f_{xy}f_{xxy}f_{xyy} - f_{xx}f_{xxy}f_{yyy}$$





Images with more than 1 colour

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- But these are **also** invariant under the bigger group $\text{Diff}_{\text{vol}}(\mathbb{R}^2)$, so they can never be a complete invariant for $SA(2)$ – a **hidden symmetry**
- Thus the number of derivatives becomes an important quantity attached to each case.

derivatives needed for each group on k -colour images

		$k = 1$	$k = 2$	$k = 3$
special Euclidean	$SE(2)$	2	1	1
Euclidean	$E(2)$	2	1	1
similarity	$Sim(2)$	2	1	1
special affine	$SA(2)$	2	2	2
affine	$A(2)$	3	2	2
Möbius	$PSL(2, \mathbb{C})$	3	3	3
projective	$PSL(3, \mathbb{R})$	3	2	2
volume preserving	$Diff_{vol}$	—	1	1
conformal	$Diff_{con}$	3	1	1
all diffeos	$Diff$	—	—	0

Part II: Currents as a tool for shape space

Shape space is a space of the form

$$\text{Imm}(M, N)/\text{Diff}(M)$$

which is the image of the smooth immersions of M into N , forgetting the parameterization.

We will consider the images of oriented smooth planar curves,

$$\text{Imm}(S^1, \mathbb{R}^2)/\text{Diff}^+(S^1).$$

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- Explicitly,

$$(1 - \nabla^2)\beta = \frac{\phi'(t)}{\|\phi'(t)\|} \delta_{\phi(S^1)}.$$

Currents: discrete side

Setup: $\phi: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, $[\phi](\alpha) = \int_{\phi(S^1)} \alpha$. Need:

- ① A space V of finite elements on S^1 ;
- ② A space W of finite elements on $\mathbb{R}^2$;
- ③ A quadrature approximation of $[\phi]|_W$; and
- ④ The dual norm restricted to W^* .

This setup yields a powerful, flexible, and robust way to work with shapes.

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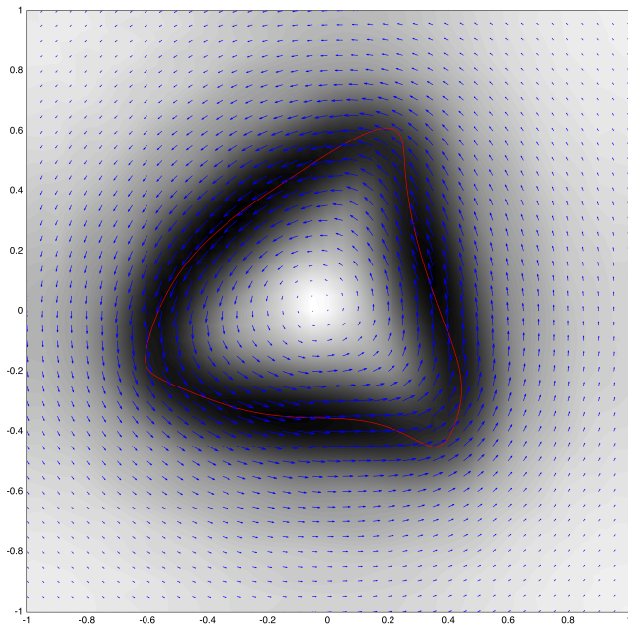
Specifically, we compute

$$G_{ij} = (w_i, w_j)_{H^1}$$

and solve

$$G_{ij}\beta_j = [\phi](w_i).$$

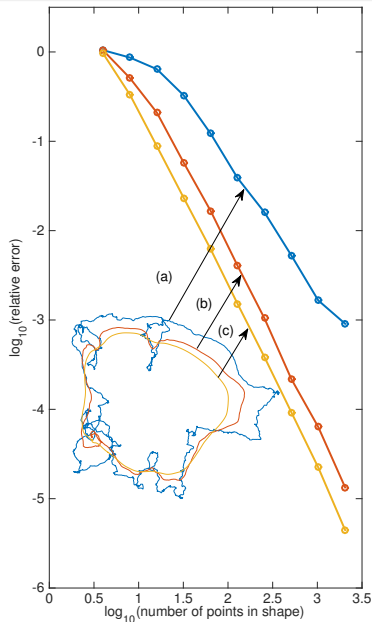
A shape and its representer



How accurate is it?

- The currents determine the shape very accurately: the error is $\mathcal{O}(h^5)$ for discontinuous quadratic elements.
- The induced metric is not very accurate, because the representers are only in H^1 ; errors are $\mathcal{O}(h)$.

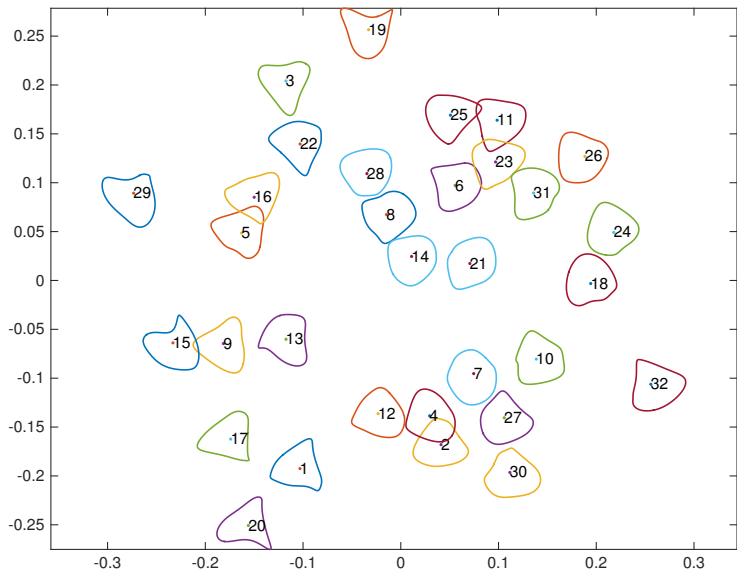
Quadrature error on nonsmooth shapes



Shape

- (a) is in C^0 ,
- (b) is in $C^{1-\epsilon}$,
- (c) is in $C^{2-\epsilon}$.

32 random shapes compared using finite element currents



Thank you for your attention!