Deep Ordinal Hashing With Spatial Attention

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Abstract—Hashing has attracted increasing research attention in recent years due to its high efficiency of computation and storage in image retrieval. Recent works have demonstrated the superiority of simultaneous feature representations and hash functions learning with deep neural networks. However, most existing deep hashing methods directly learn the hash functions by encoding the global semantic information, while ignoring the local spatial information of images. The loss of local spatial structure makes the performance bottleneck of hash functions, therefore limiting its application for accurate similarity retrieval. In this paper, we propose a novel deep ordinal hashing (DOH) method, which learns ordinal representations to generate ranking-based hash code by leveraging the ranking structure of feature space from both local and global views. In particular, to effectively build the ranking structure, we propose to learn the rank correlation space by exploiting the local spatial information from fully convolutional network and the global semantic information from the convolutional neural network simultaneously. More specifically, an effective spatial attention model is designed to capture the local spatial information by selectively learning well-specified locations closely related to target objects. In such hashing framework, the local spatial and global semantic nature of images is captured in an end-to-end ranking-to-hashing manner. Experimental results conducted on three widely used datasets demonstrate that the proposed DOH method significantly outperforms the state-of-the-art hashing methods.

Index Terms—Hashing, image retrieval, ranking structure, fully convolutional network, convolutional neural network, local spatial, global semantic information.

I. INTRODUCTION

RECENTLY, large-scale image retrieval has gained wide attention in the field of computer vision due to the rapid advancement of information techniques. With the explosive growth of multimedia data including images and videos, hashing has received a great deal of attention in large-scale visual retrieval for its capability in storage and computation efficiency [1]–[5]. Hashing is to construct a set of hash functions by projecting the high dimensional data in the visual space into compact binary codes in the Hamming space. Due to the amazing performance of deep features in computer vision tasks, such as image classification [6]–[8], image captioning [9]–[11] and image retrieval [12]–[14], many deep hashing methods have been proposed to learn feature representations and hash functions simultaneously [15], [16].

As the outputs of the fully-connected layer of CNN have much richer semantic information than hand-crafted features [6], [7], most deep hashing methods directly use the outputs of the fully-connected layer to approximate binary hash codes [15], [17]. Unfortunately, it may be unsuitable to directly utilize the feature representation from the fully-connected layer due to the spatial information loss [18], which may lead to the suboptimal hash codes. Besides, recent works on image localization [19], [20] and object detection [21], [22] have shown the importance of the inherent spatial information from 2-dimensional feature maps of the convolutional layer. Therefore, it is necessary and suitable to explore the local spatial information in the deep hashing framework. By exploring the local spatial and global semantic information simultaneously, the resultant hash codes can preserve the similarities well, as shown in Figure 1. On the other hand, as we all know, the binary quantization functions $sign(\cdot)$ and $threshold(\cdot)$ are sensitive to the perturbations in numeric values caused by noise and variations [23]. Meanwhile, the ranking-based function that encodes the relative ordering correlation benefits from excellent properties of rank correlation measures such as scale-invariance, numeric stability, and high nonlinearity [3], [23]–[25]. Thus, we propose...
to jointly explore the inherent spatial structure and global semantic information to learn the rank correlation space under the deep hashing framework.

In this work, we propose a novel hashing method to explore the global semantic information, the local spatial information and the relative ordering correlation based on the deep learning framework. Here we introduce the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) [6], [7] to learn much richer global semantic information than hand-crafted features from images. To explore the local spatial information, an effective spatial attention model is designed to selectively learn well-specified locations closely related to target objects (i.e., aubergine dotted box in Figure 1). To effectively build the ranking structure, the rank correlation space is learned by exploring the local spatial and global semantic information simultaneously. By incorporating the above terms into one unified framework, we propose a novel Deep Ordinal Hashing (DOH) method, as illustrated in Figure 2. Our network architecture contains three major components: (a) the feature representation learning which jointly learns the localized spatial and global semantic information from FCN and CNN networks, where GAP indicates the global average pooling layer for FCN, (b) a subnetwork to learn the local and global-aware representations \( \{d_1, \ldots, d^K\} \), where \( \{l_1, \ldots, l^K\} \) defines the local-aware representations of the FCN network, \( \{g_1, \ldots, g^K\} \) defines the global-aware representations of the CNN network, \( R \) defines the length of the K-ary hash code, and \( \odot \) denotes element-wise Hadamard product. In order to capture the local discriminativity, the spatial attention map \( \pi \) and the channel-wise representation \( z \) of \( \text{conv7} \) layer are both leveraged to learn the local-aware representation \( \{l_1, \ldots, l^K\} \). Additionally, the feature representation \( v \) of \( fc8 \) layer is used to generate the global-aware representation \( \{g_1, \ldots, g^K\} \). (c) the ordinal representation learning to approximate the vectorized representation of ranking-based hash functions which are used to generate the hash codes.

- First, we propose a unified framework to learn hash functions by exploring the rank correlation space from both local and global views. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt that learns a group of ranking-based hash functions by jointly exploiting the local information obtained from the spatial attention model and the global semantic structure for image retrieval.
- Second, we design a subnetwork to effectively build the rank structure by jointly exploring the local spatial information from FCN and the global semantic information from CNN.
- Third, we develop an effective spatial attention model to capture the local discriminativity by learning well-specified locations closely related to target objects.
- Finally, we extensively evaluate the proposed method on three widely-used image retrieval benchmarks. The experimental results show that the proposed method significantly outperforms the state-of-the-arts, which demonstrates the superiority and effectiveness of the proposed method.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we briefly review the related works. The proposed method is introduced in Section III. We present the optimization algorithm in Section IV. The extensive experiments and discussions of the experimental results are provided in Section V. Finally, we conclude this work in Section VI.

II. RELATED WORK

A. Attention-Aware Methods

Recently, the attention mechanism has been widely studied in image/video captioning [10], [26], [27], localization [18], [28], [29] and object detection [30], [31] and so on. The attention models selectively learn the salient region of the images for a particular visual task. Xu et al. [32] propose the attention model to learn the attention locations for image captioning. Specifically, two different strategies are introduced for the attention model including the "hard" stochastic attention and "soft" deterministic attention. The stochastic attention model decides the attention locations using the "hard" pooling, while the deterministic attention model learns a soft annotation vector by averaging the feature vectors with the attention weights. Spatial Memory Network [33] is proposed to adopt the stacked recurrent neural networks with the spatial attention for Visual Question Answering.
Luong et al. [34] propose the “global” and “local” attention models for Neural Machine Translation, in which the global model selects all source words and the local model only selects a subset of source words. Yang et al. [35] adopt a multi-layer stacked attention networks for image question answering. Comparative Attention Network [36] uses the soft attention model to choose the discriminative parts of the person images for person re-identification. Chen et al. [9] integrate the channel and spatial-wise attention models in a convolutional neural network for image captioning. Although the attention models have been successfully used for a wide range of visual tasks, it is still not fully exploited for image retrieval.

B. Hash Learning

In this paper, we mainly focus on data-dependent hashing methods that learn hash functions by preserving the data structure. In general, data-dependent hashing methods can be grouped into unsupervised and supervised ones. Unsupervised hashing methods usually learn hash functions by exploiting the intrinsic data structure embedded in the original space. For example, Iterative Quantization (ITQ) [4] attempts to generate zero-centered binary codes by maximizing the variance of each binary bit as well as minimizing the quantization error. Representative methods include Spectral Hashing (SH) [37], Self-Taught Hashing (STH) [38], Anchor Graph Hashing (AGH) [39], Neighborhood Discriminant Hashing (NDH) [40], etc. For supervised methods, the supervised information is incorporated to learn compact binary codes. Existing works have indicated that leveraging the supervised information can produce high-quality hash codes. Supervised Hashing with Kernels (KSH) [41] employs the kernel-based function as the hash function. Supervised Discrete Hashing (DSH) [42] and Fast Hashing (FastH) [43] generate binary hash codes by directly solving the binary programming problem. Other notable methods include Binary Reconstructive Embedding (BRE) [44], Minimal Loss Hashing (MLH) [45], Asymmetry in Binary Hashing [46], Label Preserving Multimedia Hashing (LPMH) [47], etc.

Although the aforementioned hashing methods achieve desirable performance, they usually generate suboptimal hash codes due to independently learning feature representations and hash functions. Motivated by the great success of deep learning in computer vision tasks, deep hashing frameworks are starting to receive broad attention recently. Different from conventional hashing methods, deep hashing methods [48]–[51] generate hash codes in such a way that feature representations are optimized during the hash function learning process. The works in [16] and [48] are the earliest attempt in jointly learning feature representations and hash functions. Lu et al. [52] construct multiple hierarchical non-linear transformations using a deep network with stacked fully-connected layers to learn binary hash codes. Deep Supervised Hashing (DSH) [12] tries to preserve the similarities and minimize the binarization loss simultaneously. Supervised Semantics-preserving Deep Hashing (SSDH) [53] constructs a latent hash layer to generate hash codes by directly minimizing the classification error on the outputs of the hash layer.

However, most existing deep hashing methods adopt binary quantization functions, which are known to be sensitive with prevalent noises and variations. In comparison, the ranking-based hash function encodes the relative ordering of the projected feature space to generate hash codes. Therefore, it benefits from excellent properties of ordinal measures in scale-invariant, numerically stable, and highly nonlinear [23]. Typical methods contain Min-wise Hash [3], Winner-Take-All Hash [24], Linear Subspace Ranking Hashing [25] and Deep Semantic-Preserving Ordinal Hashing (DSPOH) [54]. By ranking the ordering of feature dimensions represented by the hand-crafted descriptors, these ranking-based hashing methods are inadequate to learn optimal hash functions. Apart from this, the linear transformation of the feature space is insufficient to capture the complex semantic structure of the images, which limits the retrieval performance.

In this work, we employ Convolutional Neural Network and Fully Convolutional Network with the spatial attention model for hash learning. Specifically, we integrate the local spatial attention information and global semantic information to learn the ranking-based hash functions. To our best knowledge, this work is the first attempt to learn ranking-based hash functions with the deep neural networks by exploiting the local information obtained from the spatial attention model and the global semantic information simultaneously.

III. DEEP ORDINAL HASHING

In this section, we introduce the proposed deep hashing framework in detail. The entire framework is illustrated in Figure 2. The proposed method first adopts the spatial attention model to generate the spatial attention map for the input image by using the FCN network. Then the spatial attention map and deep representations of the deep networks are exploited to generate the local and global-aware representations, which are further used to learn the ranking-based hash function. Finally, the ordinal representation are introduced to approximate the vectorized representation of the ranking-based hash function.

A. Problem Definition

Suppose \( I = \{q_n\}_{n=1}^{N} \) be a set of \( N \) images, and \( T = \{t_n\}_{n=1}^{N} \) be a set of their corresponding binary label vectors, where \( t_n \in \{0, 1\}^C \) and \( C \) defines the total number of the categories. The non-zero entry in \( t_n \) indicates that the \( n^{th} \) image belongs to the corresponding class. Let \( S = \{s_{ij}\} \in \{0, 1\}^{N \times N} \) be the similarity matrix, where \( s_{ij} = 1 \) if the image pair \((q_i, q_j)\) share at least one common class, otherwise \( s_{ij} = 0 \). Our goal is to learn a set of mappings \( \mathcal{F} = \{f^r(\cdot)\}_{r=1}^{K} : q \rightarrow b \) which maps the image \( q \) into a \( R \)-bit hash code \( b \). Specifically, the hash function \( f^r(\cdot) \) is used to generate a \( K \)-ary hash bit \( b_r \) by encoding the ranking structure of a \( K \)-dimensional feature space, where \( b_r \) is the \( r^{th} \) bit of \( b \).

Table I summarizes the definition of the notations used in this work.

B. Network Architecture

The proposed method is a two-stream network where the FCN model aims to capture the local information using
the spatial attention model while the CNN model explores
the global semantic information. We adopt the widely-used
Alexnet [6] as our basic network which includes five con-
volutional layers from conv1 to conv5, two fully-connected
layers from fc6 to fc7 and a task-specific fully-connected
classification layer (i.e., fc-c). However, we make some
small modification to Alexnet. For CNN network, we add a
fully-connected layer (i.e., fc8) followed by fc-c to learn
the global visual descriptors by encoding the global semantic
information. Additionally, for FCN network, we replace fc6
and fc7 by two convolutional layers (i.e., conv6 and conv7)
followed by the fc-c layer, where conv7 is followed with a
global average pooling layer (i.e., pool7). Similar with the
CNN network, the conv7 layer aims to learn the local visual
descriptors by encoding the local spatial information.

The detailed configurations of the FCN and CNN net-
works are described in Table II. For the convolutional layers
(e.g. conv1 to conv7), “Filter” represents the number and
the receptive filter size of the convolutional kernels as “number  
size × size”, “Pad” specifies the number of the pixels to add
to the input, “Stride” specifies the intervals at which to apply
the filter to the input, “Pool” specifies the down-sampling
operation, “LRN” denotes the Local Response Normalization.
For the fully-connected layer, “number” denotes the number
of the outputs of this layer. Besides, “ReLU” denotes the
Rectified Linear Unit activation function. “Dropout” specifies
whether the layer is regularized by dropout operation. More
specifically, except for the conv7 layer adopting the global
average pooling (GAP), the remaining “Pool” adopts the max
pooling strategy.

Additionally, DOH constructs hash layers (i.e., fc-h) to
learn the ranking-based hash functions. Specifically, we set
the number of the outputs as $k \times R$ for fc-h layer where $k$
is the dimension of the feature space and $R$ is the length of
K-ary hash code. Different from the binary quantization hashing
methods, the proposed DOH generates K-ary hash code.

For fair comparison, we set $R = N_c / \log_2 K$ when comparing
with other binary quantization hashing methods, where $N_c$
is the length of the binary hash code.

### C. Spatial Attention Model

Generally, the target objects are located in different spatial
locations of images, as shown in Figure 1. For example,
when we use the query to search for relevant images in the database, those spatial locations closely related to the target objects are more useful for accurate matching. Instead of considering each spatial location equally, we expect to detect those discriminative spatial locations that are highly related to the objects and give larger response values to them. Consequently, we introduce a spatial attention model, which aims to generate object-specific spatial attention maps. Figure 3 illustrates the generation of the spatial attention map. We also visualize the spatial attention maps of some examples in Figure 8.

Following the work in [18], we employ Fully Convolutional Network with the global average pooling to generate the attention locations of the images. Specifically, we perform the global average pooling on the conv7 layer and feed the outputs into the fully-connected classification layer (i.e., fc7). The outputs of the global average pooling can be regarded as the spatial average of feature maps of the conv7 layer. Those spatial average values are used to generate the probabilistic outputs of the fc7 layer. In this section, we introduce an intuitive way to produce the spatial attention map by projecting the weight matrix of the fc7 layer on the feature maps of the conv7 layer.

Let \( z_{xy} \) define the channel-wise representation at the spatial location \((x, y)\) of the conv7 layer of FCN network, which can be computed as

\[
z_{xy} = \psi_{\mathcal{F}}(q; \Omega_{\mathcal{F}}),
\]

where \( z_{xy} \in \mathbb{R}^M \) with \( M \) being the number of the feature maps, \( x \in \{1, \cdots, X\} \), \( y \in \{1, \cdots, Y\} \), \( X \) and \( Y \) are the width and height of feature maps, \( q \) represents the input image, \( \psi_{\mathcal{F}} \) defines the non-linear projection function for the FCN network and \( \Omega_{\mathcal{F}} = \{W_{\mathcal{F}}^c, \mathbf{c}_{\mathcal{F}}^{D_{\mathcal{F}}}\}_{c=1}^{C} \) defines a set of non-linear projection parameters with \( D_{\mathcal{F}} \) being the depth of the FCN network.

Consider the weight matrix \( W \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times C} \) performs a mapping of the spatial average values to the semantic class labels. In particular, we define the object-specific local response at the spatial location \((x, y)\) as \( \mu_{xy}^c \), which can be obtained by

\[
\mu_{xy}^c = \max(\mathbf{w}_c^T z_{xy}, 0), \quad \text{for} \ c = 1, \cdots, C,
\]

where \( \mathbf{w}_c \) is the \( c^{th} \) column of \( W \). Obviously, \( \mu_{xy}^c \) indicates the importance at the spatial location \((x, y)\) that the input image \( q \) is classified to the \( c^{th} \) class. As each spatial location \((x, y)\) corresponds to different local patch in the original image, the local response \( \mu_{xy}^c \) indicates the relative similarity of the local image patch to the \( c^{th} \) class.

Essentially, we can obtain the local discriminative information at different spatial locations for a particular class. The bigger value of \( \mu_{xy}^c \) indicates that the image patch at the spatial location \((x, y)\) is more relative to the \( c^{th} \) class. Inversely, the smaller value of \( \mu_{xy}^c \) less relative to the \( c^{th} \) class. By integrating \( \mu_{xy}^c \) together, we can define the spatial attention map \( \pi \) to identify all the object-specific image patches. Specifically, the local response at \((x, y)\), denoted as \( \pi_{xy} \), is defined as follows

\[
\pi_{xy} = \sum_{c=1}^{C} p_c \frac{\mu_{xy}^c}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} p_c},
\]

where \( p_c \) is the \( c^{th} \) probabilistic output of the classification (i.e., fc7) layer of the FCN network.

D. Local and Global-Aware Representations

In order to jointly capture the local spatial and global semantic information to learn ranking-based hash functions, we require the ordinal representations which are used to approximate vectorized representations of the hash functions to be local and global aware. As shown in Figure 2, DOH jointly encodes the feature representations of the conv7 layer and spatial attention map to generate the local-aware representations which explicitly exploits the local spatial structure of images. In addition, DOH learns global-aware representations by encoding the global semantic information from the feature representations of the fc8 layer. Let \( \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^K \) be the local-aware and global-aware representations respectively. To jointly preserve both of local and global information, we further integrate them to define the confident score \( d_k \) as follow

\[
d_k = l_k g_k, \quad \text{for} \ k = 1, \cdots, K,
\]
where $l_k$ and $g_k$ are the $k^{th}$ dimension of $l$ and $g$ respectively. By connecting $d_k$ together, we can define $d = [d_1, \ldots, d_K] \in \mathbb{R}^K$ as the local and global-aware representations.

1) Local-Aware Representations: The spatial attention map demonstrates the local discriminative in identifying partial image regions that are highly related to target objects. When searching relevant images in the database, those discriminative spatial locations are crucial important for accurate matching. We argue for learning above local spatial structure for ordinal representations by jointly encoding the discriminative spatial attention map and convolutional feature maps of the convolutional layers. First, we define the transformation matrix and the bias vector as follow, respectively, which are used to project $x_k$ into local-aware representations $l$. For each latent pattern $w_k$,\footnote{As $w_k$ and $w_g$ are unlabeled, we consider them as latent.} we define $o_{xy}^k$ as the spatial confident score over the occurrence of $w_{sk}$ at the spatial location $(x, y)$, which is given by,

$$o_{xy}^k = w_{sk}^T z_{xy} + c_{sk},$$

where $w_{sk}$ is the $k^{th}$ column of $W_s$, $c_{sk}$ is the $k^{th}$ element of $c_s$.

To model the local spatial structure, we employ the softmax function to calculate the probability that the latent pattern $w_k$ appears at the location $(x, y)$ as follow

$$p_{xy}^k = \frac{\exp(o_{xy}^k)}{\sum_{x', y'} \exp(o_{x'y'}^k)}.$$ 

Furthermore, we leverage spatial attention map to estimate the local awareness $l_k$ carried by the latent pattern $w_{sk}$ for identifying object-specific local regions. In particular, we define $l_k$ as follow

$$l_k = \sum_{x, y} p_{xy}^k.$$ 

By concatenating $l_k$ together, we can obtain the local-aware representations as $l = [l_1, \ldots, l_K]$.

2) Global-Aware Representations: In addition to exploiting the local spatial structure, the ordinal representation is still expected to preserve the global semantic information from the visual descriptors of the FCN layer. First, we define the feature representation extracted from the $fc8$ layer of CNN network as $v$, computed by

$$v = \psi_C(q; \Omega_C),$$

where $v \in \mathbb{R}^M$, $\psi_C$ defines the non-linear projection function for the CNN network and $\Omega_C = \{W^d_c, c^T_c\}_{d=1}^{D_C}$ defines a set of non-linear projection parameters with $D_C$ being the depth of the CNN network. Let $W_g = [w_{g1}, \ldots, w_{gK}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times K}$ be the transformation matrix and the bias vector, which project the feature representation of CNN network into global-aware representations. Similarly, we define the global awareness $g_k$ as follow,

$$g_k = w_{gk}^T v + c_{gk},$$

where $w_{gk}$ is the $k^{th}$ column of $W_g$ and $c_{gk}$ is the $k^{th}$ element of $c_g$. Intuitively, the global awareness $g_k$ carried by the latent pattern $w_{gk}$ measures the relative similarity to the image from the global perspective. By concatenating $g_k$ together, we can obtain the global-aware representations as $g = [g_1, \ldots, g_K]$.

### E. Ranking-Based Hash Functions

The proposed DOH method targets to learn ranking-based hash functions by encoding the local spatial and global semantic information from deep networks. In this work, we develop intuitive ranking-based hash functions by encoding the comparative ordering of the local and global-aware representations. Figure 4 shows an example of a 4-dimensional feature space which is encoded to generate one hash bit. DOH firstly generates the representation $d$ from the local-aware representation $l$ and the global-aware representation $g$. After that, a permutation on $d$ is performed in descending order. The dimension (i.e., $d_k$ in Figure 4) which takes the maximum value will win the comparison and its index will be used as the hash code (i.e., 4). In the following, we give the mathematical formulations of ranking-based hashing functions in detail.

For $r = 1, \ldots, R$, let $l'$ and $g'$ define the local-aware and global-aware representations for the $r^{th}$ slice of the hash layer for the FCN and CNN network respectively. Then, we can define $d_r' = [d_{r1}', \ldots, d_{rK}']$ as the local and global-aware representation for learning the $r^{th}$ hash bit, which can be calculated as

$$d_r' = l' \odot g'$$

where $\odot$ denotes element-wise Hadamard product. Specifically, we define $f^r(\cdot)$ as the ranking-based hash function for generating the $r^{th}$ hash bit, which can be calculated as

$$f^r(z, v; W_\zeta', c_\zeta', W_\psi', c_\psi') = \arg \max_\theta \theta^T d_r'$$

s.t. $\theta \in \{0, 1\}^K, \theta^T 1 = 1$, (11)
Algorithm 1 Deep Ordinal Hashing

Input: The input image \( q \), code length \( R \), network parameter sets \( \Omega_{\mathcal{F}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{F}} = \{ \mathbf{W}_{\mathcal{F}}, \mathbf{c}_{\mathcal{F}} \}_{r=1}^{R} \), \( \Omega_{\mathcal{C}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{C}} = \{ \mathbf{W}_{\mathcal{C}}, \mathbf{c}_{\mathcal{C}} \}_{r=1}^{R} \).

Output: Hash code \( \mathbf{b} = [b_1, \ldots, b_r, \ldots, b_R] \).

1. Compute \( \mathbf{z}_{xy} = \psi_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{q}_r) \) and \( \mathbf{v} = \psi_{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{q}_c) \) by forward propagation.

2. Calculate the spatial attention map \( \pi \) according to Eq. (3).
3. for \( r = 1, \ldots, R \) do
   1. Calculate the local and global-aware representation \( \mathbf{d}^r = [d_{r1}, \ldots, d_{rK}] \) according to Eq. (10).
   2. \( b_r = k \leftarrow \arg \max_{1 \leq k \leq K} d_{rk}^r \).
end for

where \( \mathbf{W}_r = [\mathbf{w}_{r1}, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_{rK}] \) and \( \mathbf{c}_r = [\mathbf{c}_{r1}, \ldots, \mathbf{c}_{rK}] \) define the transformation matrix and the bias vector for the \( r \)-th slice of the hash layer of FCN network, \( \mathbf{W}_g = [\mathbf{w}_{g1}, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_{gK}] \) and \( \mathbf{c}_g = [\mathbf{c}_{g1}, \ldots, \mathbf{c}_{gK}] \) define the transformation matrix and the bias vector for the \( r \)-th slice of the hash layer of CNN network. \( \mathbf{1} \) is a vector with each element being 1. Meanwhile, the constraints in Eq. (11) act as an 1-of-\( K \) indicator of the rank ordering of the input representation \( \mathbf{d}^r \). Algorithm 1 summarizes the entire DOH hashing procedure to produce a code sequence \( \mathbf{b} \).

It is worth to note that the \( \arg \max \) term in Eq. (11) is non-convex and highly discontinuous, thus making it hard to optimize. To make it tractable, the softmax function is employed to approximate the vectorized representation of the hash function defined in Eq. (10). Therefore, we reformulated Eq. (11) and define the ordinal representation \( \mathbf{h}' \) as follow

\[
\mathbf{h}'(z, \mathbf{v}; \mathbf{W}_r, \mathbf{c}_r, \mathbf{W}_g, \mathbf{c}_g) = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{d}'),
\]

where \( \mathbf{h}' = [h_1', \ldots, h_K'] \) is the probabilistic approximation of the vectorized representation of the hash function \( f'() \). In fact, the entry \( h_k' \) of \( \mathbf{h}' \) represents the probability that the \( k \)-th dimension takes the maximum value in \( \mathbf{d}^r \). Specifically, the probability \( h_k' \) can be calculated as

\[
h_k' = \frac{\exp(d_{rk}^r)}{\sum_{k'=1}^{K} \exp(d_{rk}^r)}, \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, \ldots, K,
\]

where \( h_k' \) can be interpreted as the probability that both of the latent patterns \( w_{rk} \) and \( w_{p}^{c} \) contain the most discriminative information.

Suppose an image pair \( (q_i, q_j) \) with their corresponding similarity label \( s_{ij} \in \{0,1\} \) is given, we try to learn a set of hash functions which makes the hash codes of the similar pairs close but dissimilar pairs apart. Let \( \mathbf{b}(i) \) and \( \mathbf{b}(j) \) be the code sequence for the image \( q_i \) and \( q_j \) respectively. Formally, \( \epsilon_{ij} \) is defined to measure the similarity of \( \mathbf{b}(i) \) and \( \mathbf{b}(j) \) as follow

\[
\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^{R} \frac{\varphi_{ij}^r}{\sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{k=1}^{K} h_k^r} = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^{R} \varphi_{ij}^r,
\]

where

\[
\varphi_{ij}^r \equiv \mathbb{P}(b_r(i) = b_r(j) | \mathbf{W}_s, \mathbf{c}_s, \mathbf{W}_g, \mathbf{c}_g) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbb{P}(b_r(i) = k | \mathbf{W}_s, \mathbf{c}_s, \mathbf{W}_g, \mathbf{c}_g) \mathbb{P}(b_r(j) = k | \mathbf{W}_s, \mathbf{c}_s, \mathbf{W}_g, \mathbf{c}_g) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} h_k^r(i) h_k^r(j) = (\mathbf{h}'(i))^T \mathbf{h}'(j).
\]

In Eq. (15), \( b_r(i) \) and \( b_r(j) \) are the \( r \)-th bit of \( \mathbf{b}(i) \) and \( \mathbf{b}(j) \) respectively. \( \mathbf{h}'(i) \) and \( \mathbf{h}'(j) \) are the ordinal representation for generating the \( r \)-th hash bit for the image \( q_i \) and \( q_j \) respectively. Besides, \( \varphi_{ij}^r \) calculates the probability that the \( k \)-th dimension of the feature space is selected as the winner for generating the \( r \)-th hash bit of both \( \mathbf{b}(i) \) and \( \mathbf{b}(j) \).

Actually, the larger value of \( \epsilon_{ij} \) indicates that the code sequence \( \mathbf{b}(i) \) and \( \mathbf{b}(j) \) are more similar with each other. But conversely, the smaller value of \( \epsilon_{ij} \) indicates less similar of two code sequence. That is, if \( s_{ij} = 1 \), \( \epsilon_{ij} \) should be pushed towards 1, otherwise \( \epsilon_{ij} \) should be pushed to 0. Intuitively, our goal is to maximize \( \epsilon_{ij} \) when \( s_{ij} = 1 \) and minimize \( \epsilon_{ij} \) when \( s_{ij} = 0 \). This inspires us to employ the Euclidian loss function to define the following objective function

\[
\ell_{ij}(q_i, q_j, s_{ij}) = \frac{1}{2} (\epsilon_{ij} - s_{ij})^2.
\]

Let \( \Gamma = \{(q_i, q_j, s_{ij})\}_{i,j=1}^{N_p} \) be the training set. We define the overall loss function over the training set \( \Gamma \) as follow

\[
\mathcal{L}(\Gamma; \Omega_{\mathcal{F}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{F}}, \Omega_{\mathcal{C}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{C}}) = \frac{1}{N_p} \sum_{s_{ij} \in \mathcal{S}} \ell_{ij}(q_i, q_j, s_{ij}),
\]

where \( \Phi_{\mathcal{F}} = \{ \mathbf{W}_s, \mathbf{c}_s \}_{r=1}^{R} \) and \( \Phi_{\mathcal{C}} = \{ \mathbf{W}_g, \mathbf{c}_g \}_{r=1}^{R} \) denotes all \( R \) transformation matrices and bias vectors for the hash layer of the FCN and CNN network respectively. Finally, the proposed framework can be formulated as

\[
\min_{\Omega_{\mathcal{F}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{F}}, \Omega_{\mathcal{C}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{C}}} \mathcal{L}(\Gamma; \Omega_{\mathcal{F}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{F}}, \Omega_{\mathcal{C}}, \Phi_{\mathcal{C}}).
\]

IV. Optimization

The proposed DOH algorithm involves four sets of variables, such as the parameter sets \( \Omega_{\mathcal{F}} \) and \( \Phi_{\mathcal{F}} \) for the FCN network and the parameter sets \( \Omega_{\mathcal{C}} \) and \( \Phi_{\mathcal{C}} \) for the CNN network. As it is non-convex to simultaneously learn \( \Omega_{*} \) and \( \Phi_{*} \), to make it tractable, we adopt an alternating optimization approach to update one variable by fixing the rest variables, where * is a placeholder for \( \mathcal{F} \) and \( \mathcal{C} \). The proposed optimization algorithm is summarized in Algorithm 2. In the following, we discuss the derivatives of \( \mathcal{L} \) in detail.
Algorithm 2 The Learning Algorithm for DOH

Input: Training set \( \Gamma \).
Output: Network parameter sets \( \Omega_F, \Phi_F, \Omega_C, \Phi_C \).

Initialization
Initialize Network parameter sets \( \Omega_F, \Phi_F, \Omega_C, \Phi_C \), iteration number \( N_{iter} \) and mini-batch size \( N_{batch} \).
repeat:
for \( s_{iter} = 1, \cdots, N_{iter} \) do
Randomly select \( N_{batch} \) image pairs from \( \Gamma \).
for \( r = 1, \cdots, R \) do
For each selected image pair, compute \( h' \) by forward propagation according to Eq. (13).
Calculate the derivatives \( \frac{\partial L}{\partial W_s^{r_i}}, \frac{\partial L}{\partial c_s^{r_i}} \) and \( \frac{\partial L}{\partial c_s^{r_i}} \) according to Eq. (20), (21), (22), (23), (24), (25), (26), (27).
Update the parameters \( W_s^{r_i}, c_s^{r_i}, W_g^{r_i}, c_g^{r_i} \) using the BP algorithm.
end for
Update parameter sets \( \Omega_F \) and \( \Omega_C \) for the FCN and CNN network, respectively.
end for
until a fixed number of iteration.

Update \( \Phi_F \). We first solve \( \Phi_F \) with the parameter sets \( \Phi_C, \Omega_C \) and \( \Omega_F \) fixed. As \( W_s^{r_i} \) and \( c_s^{r_i} \) are independent on \( \{W_s^{r_i}, c_s^{r_i}\}_{r \neq r_i} \), we can optimize \( \Phi_F \) by decomposing it to \( R \) independent subproblems, where each subproblem can be formulated as the following optimization problem:

\[
\min_{W_s^{r_i}, c_s^{r_i}} L(\Gamma; \Omega_F, \Phi_F, \Omega_C, \Phi_C). \tag{19}
\]

The optimization problem in Eq. (19) can be efficient solved by using the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with the back-propagation (BP) algorithm. The gradient of the objective function in Eq. (19) w.r.t. \( W_s^{r_i} \) and \( c_s^{r_i} \) can be computed as follow

\[
\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} = \frac{1}{N_p} \sum_{s_{ij} \in S} \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}}, \tag{20}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial L}{\partial c_s^{r_i}} = \frac{1}{N_p} \sum_{s_{ij} \in S} \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial c_s^{r_i}}. \tag{21}
\]

Specifically, the gradient \( \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} \) in Eq. (20) can be calculated by using the chain rule of the derivatives on \( \ell_{ij} \) in Eq. (16), which can be calculated as follow

\[
\frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} = (e_{ij} - s_{ij}) \frac{\partial e_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}}, \tag{22}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial e_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial \phi_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}}, \tag{23}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \phi_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} = (h'(i) \odot h'(j) - (h'(i))^T h'(j) h'(i)) \frac{\partial d'(i)}{\partial W_s^{r_i}}
+ (h'(j) \odot h'(i) - (h'(j))^T h'(i) h'(j)) \frac{\partial d'(j)}{\partial W_s^{r_i}}, \tag{24}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial d'(i)}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} = [\frac{\partial d'_s}{\partial w'_{s1}}, \cdots, \frac{\partial d'_s}{\partial w'_{sk}}, \cdots, \frac{\partial d'_s}{\partial w'_{sk}}], \tag{25}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial d'_s}{\partial w'_{sk}} = l_s^k g'_s [z_{xy}^T - \sum_{x'y' \neq x'} \delta_{xy'}^k z_{x'y'}^T], \tag{26}
\]

where \( l_s^k \) and \( g'_s \) denotes the \( k^{th} \) entry of \( Y' \) and \( g' \) respectively and \( \delta_{xy'}^k \) can be calculate by Eq. (6). As the gradient \( \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial c_s^{r_i}} \) is similar with \( \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial W_s^{r_i}} \), we do not elaborate on its solution here.

Update \( \Phi_C \). Actually, the solution of \( \Phi_C \) is similar with that of \( \Phi_F \) except for the terms in Eq. (26). Therefore, we only calculate the derivatives of \( \frac{\partial \ell_{ij}}{\partial w_g^{s_k}} \) as follow

\[
\frac{\partial d'_s}{\partial w_g^{s_k}} = l_s^k v^T, \tag{27}
\]

where \( l_s^k \) is the \( k^{th} \) entry of \( Y' \).

Update \( \Omega_s \). The parameters \( W_s^{d} \) and \( c_s^{d} \) can be automatically updated by applying SGD with BP algorithm in Caffe [55].

V. EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we conduct extensive experiments to verify the effectiveness of DOH on three widely-used image retrieval datasets including MIRFlickr25k [56], CIFAR-10 [57] and NUS-WIDE [58].

A. Datasets

MIRFlickr25k\(^2\) contains 25,000 images collected from Flickr website. In this dataset, each image is annotated with one or more of the 24 semantic labels. We randomly select 908 images from this dataset as queries and the rest are used to form the database, from which we randomly sample 5000 images to form the training set.

CIFAR-10\(^3\) includes 60,000 real-world tiny images belonging to 10 classes, where each category has 6,000 images. We randomly select 100 images per class as the queries, 500 images per class as the training set and the rest forms the database.

NUS-WIDE\(^4\) consists of 269,648 images crawled from Flickr website, where each image is associated with one or more of the 81 semantic concepts (labels). For this dataset, we manually select 195,834 images belonging to the top 21 most-frequent concepts. We randomly select 100 images per class as the queries and the rest images form the database, from which we select 500 images per class as the training set.

B. Baselines and Evaluation Metrics

We have compared the proposed DOH method with several state-of-the-art image hashing methods, including seven non-deep hashing methods (i.e., LSH [11], WTA [24], ITQ [4], KSH [41], SDH [42], FastH [43] and LSRH [25]) and three deep hashing methods (i.e., DNNH [48], DSH [12] and

\(^2\)http://press.liacs.nl/mirflickr/
\(^3\)http://www.cs.toronto.edu/kriz/cifar.html
\(^4\)http://lms.comp.nus.edu.sg/research/NUS-WIDE.htm
TABLE III
MAP RESULTS OF ALL METHODS WITH RESPECT TO DIFFERENT CODE LENGTHS ON THE THREE DATASETS

| Method   | MIRFLICKR25K | CIFAR-10 | NUS-WIDE |
|----------|--------------|----------|----------|
|          | 8 bits  | 16 bits | 24 bits | 32 bits | 8 bits | 16 bits | 24 bits | 32 bits | 8 bits | 16 bits | 24 bits | 32 bits |
| LSH      | 0.5721   | 0.5845  | 0.5826  | 0.5863  | 0.1087  | 0.1137  | 0.1172  | 0.1331  | 0.3845  | 0.4047  | 0.4090  | 0.4092  |
| WTA      | 0.5682   | 0.5766  | 0.5812  | 0.5873  | 0.1996  | 0.2388  | 0.2868  | 0.2989  | 0.3852  | 0.3953  | 0.4031  | 0.4251  |
| ITQ      | 0.6448   | 0.6472  | 0.6515  | 0.6517  | 0.1767  | 0.1839  | 0.1858  | 0.1902  | 0.4725  | 0.4835  | 0.4880  | 0.4943  |
| KSH      | 0.6843   | 0.6968  | 0.7001  | 0.7035  | 0.3096  | 0.3599  | 0.3766  | 0.3892  | 0.4985  | 0.5084  | 0.5160  | 0.5236  |
| SDH      | 0.7268   | 0.7292  | 0.7347  | 0.7416  | 0.3371  | 0.4797  | 0.5142  | 0.5200  | 0.5221  | 0.5394  | 0.5415  | 0.5488  |
| FastH    | 0.7453   | 0.7748  | 0.7909  | 0.7970  | 0.4253  | 0.4909  | 0.5151  | 0.5395  | 0.5339  | 0.5570  | 0.5732  | 0.5822  |
| LSRH     | 0.7422   | 0.7808  | 0.7846  | 0.7950  | 0.3197  | 0.4497  | 0.4708  | 0.4870  | 0.5431  | 0.5680  | 0.5760  | 0.5862  |
| DNNH     | 0.7498   | 0.7622  | 0.7745  | 0.7670  | 0.5083  | 0.5959  | 0.6329  | 0.6358  | 0.6427  | 0.6598  | 0.6747  | 0.6784  |
| DSH      | 0.7127   | 0.7291  | 0.7304  | 0.7353  | 0.7470  | 0.7623  | 0.7773  | 0.8019  | 0.6160  | 0.6370  | 0.6397  | 0.6384  |
| SSDH     | 0.7666   | 0.7761  | 0.7931  | 0.7958  | 0.7638  | 0.7735  | 0.8037  | 0.8132  | 0.6408  | 0.6691  | 0.6811  | 0.6812  |
| DOH      | 0.8607   | 0.8739  | 0.8838  | 0.8863  | 0.8624  | 0.8666  | 0.8732  | 0.8702  | 0.7551  | 0.7883  | 0.7916  | 0.7997  |

SSDH [53]). We have briefly introduced those hashing methods in Section II. For non-deep methods, we extract the 4096-dimensional feature of \( fc7 \) layer using the Alexnet network. For all deep methods, we adopt the same network (i.e., Alexnet) for fair comparison. Except for DNNH, the source codes of the baselines are kindly provided by their authors. Specifically, we implement DNNH method with the open-source Caffe [55] framework. The parameters for all the compared methods are selected by their default ones.

C. Experimental Settings

We implement the proposed DOH method with the open-source Caffe [55] framework on a NVIDIA K20 GPU server. We initialize the network with “Xavier” initialization except for these layers including \( conv1 \) to \( conv5 \) and \( fc6 \) to \( fc7 \) that are copied from Alexnet. As the remaining layers are trained from scratch, we set the learning rates as 100 times bigger than that of other layers for \( fc-h \), as well as 10 times bigger for \( conv6, conv7, fc8 \) and \( fc-c \). Our network is trained by using the mini-batch stochastic gradient descent with the learning rate setting as \( 10^{-5} \). In all experiments, we fix the size of the min-batch as 64. As DOH involves one hyper-parameter, the dimension \( K \) of the feature space, we use linear search in \( \{2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5\} \) to select \( K \). Specifically, we set \( K \) as \( 2^2 \) for MIRFlickr25K and CIFAR-10 datasets, and \( 2^3 \) for NUS-WIDE dataset respectively.

D. Experimental Results

1) Comparison With the Baselines: We report mAP values for DOH and all the compared baselines in Table III. We can observe that DOH significantly outperforms all the compared baselines on different datasets with respect to different code lengths. In fact, compared to the best non-deep method (FastHash), DOH gains average performance improvements of 10.03%, 37.56% and 22.13% for mAP values on MIRFlickr25K, CIFAR-10 and NUS-WIDE datasets respectively. Furthermore, compared to SSDH, the best deep hashing method, DOH can still achieve average performance improvements of 9.42%, 7.85% and 11.48% in terms of mAP values on the three datasets respectively. Such significantly improvements demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed method.

In addition to mAP values, we also report the performance of P@5000 in terms of different code lengths and the precision curves of the 16-bit hash code with respect to different numbers of top returned samples in Figure 7, respectively. When we compare DOH with FastH for the retrieval performance in terms of P@5000, the average performance gap between them are 13.24%, 37.58% and 22.03% on the three datasets respectively. Similar, compared to SSDH, DOH gains 9.30%, 7.87% and 11.37% performance improvements in average for P@5000 values on three datasets respectively. From Figure 7, we can observe that DOH also consistently outperforms all the compared methods on different datasets.

We plot the Precision-Recall (PR) curves of 16-bit hash code on three different datasets in Figure 6. Specifically, the PR
Fig. 6. Precision-recall curves with respect to 16-bit hash code for different methods on the three datasets. (a) MIRFlickr25k (b) CIFAR-10 (c) NUS-WIDE.

Fig. 7. Precision curves of 16-bit hash code with respect to different numbers of top returned samples on the three datasets. (a) MIRFlickr25k (b) CIFAR-10 (c) NUS-WIDE.

TABLE IV

| Method   | MIRFLICKR25K                  | CIFAR-10                  | NUS-WIDE                  |
|----------|------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
|          | 8 bits 16 bits 24 bits 32 bits | 8 bits 16 bits 24 bits 32 bits | 8 bits 16 bits 24 bits 32 bits |
| DOH-F    | 0.7980 0.8325 0.8337 0.8353    | 0.8190 0.8267 0.8364 0.8353 | 0.7014 0.7289 0.7350 0.7401 |
| DOH-C    | 0.8195 0.8627 0.8735 0.8763    | 0.8452 0.8565 0.8661 0.8669 | 0.7382 0.7701 0.7793 0.7870 |
| DOH      | 0.8607 0.8739 0.8838 0.8863    | 0.8624 0.8686 0.8732 0.8702 | 0.7551 0.7883 0.7916 0.7997 |

curve indicates the overall performance, and the larger value of the area under the PR curve reflects better performance. As can be seen in Figure 6, DOH can achieve superior performance compared with the baselines on all the datasets. More specifically, DOH can yield higher precision at the lower recall points, which is satisfying for practical image retrieval system.

Overall, observed from the experimental results, DOH substantially outperforms all the compared baselines on different datasets in terms of mAP, P@5000 and PR curves. Such significant improvements verify the superiority of the proposed hashing method. We highlight three advantages of DOH in the following. First, DOH can preserve the local discriminativity learned by the spatial attention model with FCN to achieve effective image matching, while the other deep baselines only exploit the global semantic information with CNN. Second, the ranking-based hash functions learned with the deep neural networks can produce discriminative hash codes by exploiting the relative ranking structure of the feature space. Finally, by jointly encoding the local spatial and global semantic information, DOH can capture useful ranking correlation structure to better preserve the similarities.

2) Comparison With Two Variants: In the proposed deep network, we construct a subnetwork followed after both of FCN and CNN to learn the unified ordinal representations $h$ which are utilized to approximate the vectorized representation of ranking-based hash functions. A possible alternative to this subnetwork is that two independent fully-connected layers are used to learn different ordinal representations for FCN and CNN respectively. Therefore, the ordinal representation learned in this manner can only gain the knowledge from either the local spatial information or the global semantic information. Specifically, we investigate two variants of DOH: (1) **DOH-F**, variant only using the FCN network to learn the ordinal representation that is local-aware; (2) **DOH-C**, variant only using the CNN network to learn the ordinal representation that is global-aware.

The retrieval performance in terms of mAP is illustrated in Table IV. We find that, by exploiting the local spatial and global semantic information simultaneously, DOH can
TABLE V
P@5000 RESULTS OF DOH AND ITS VARIANTS WITH RESPECT TO DIFFERENT CODE LENGTHS ON THE THREE DATASETS

| Method | MIRFLICKR25K | CIFAR-10 | NUS-WIDE |
|--------|--------------|----------|----------|
|        | 8 bits   | 16 bits  | 24 bits  | 32 bits  | 8 bits   | 16 bits  | 24 bits  | 32 bits  | 8 bits   | 16 bits  | 24 bits  | 32 bits  |
| DOH-F  | 0.8188   | 0.8474   | 0.8540   | 0.8585   | 0.7861   | 0.7821   | 0.7925   | 0.7888   | 0.7909   | 0.8173   | 0.8220   | 0.8251   |
| DOH-C  | 0.8401   | 0.8735   | 0.8816   | 0.8820   | 0.8117   | 0.8215   | 0.8259   | 0.8276   | 0.8200   | 0.8343   | 0.8433   | 0.8464   |
| DOH    | 0.8738   | 0.8852   | 0.8943   | 0.8959   | 0.8322   | 0.8355   | 0.8367   | 0.8325   | 0.8434   | 0.8625   | 0.8641   | 0.8649   |

Fig. 8. Some visual examples of spatial attention maps for (a) MIRFlickr25k, (b) CIFAR-10 and (c) NUS-WIDE datasets respectively. The first line shows the original images. The middle line shows the spatial attention maps. And the combination of the original image and spatial attention map is shown in the bottom.

consistently outperform the two variants on the three datasets. For example, compared to DOH-F, DOH can gain average performance improvements of 5.05%, 3.93% and 5.73% on MIRFlickr25K, CIFAR-10 and NUS-WIDE, respectively. Compared to DOH-C, the average performance gap is 1.77%, 0.95% and 1.50% on the three datasets.

In addition to mAP, the performance of P@5000 is shown in Table V. Overall, the proposed method substantially outperforms the two variants. In detail, compared to DOH-F, DOH achieves the average performance improvements of 4.26%, 4.69% and 4.49% for the three datasets. Similarly, compared to DOH-C, DOH gains the average performance improvements of 1.80%, 1.26% and 2.22% on MIRFlickr25K, CIFAR-10 and NUS-WIDE, respectively.

Another interesting finding is that the retrieval performance of DOH and its two variants in terms of mAP and P@5000 substantially outperforms SSDH, the best deep hashing method that adopts the binary quantization function. Actually, DOH and its two variants are similar in the sense that they all involve to exploit rank correlation spaces with
obtained using Hamming ranking are shown. The red rectangles indicate the wrong retrieval results.

The code length of all the methods is set as 32 bits and the top 20 results obtained using Hamming ranking are shown. The red rectangles indicate the wrong retrieval results.

depth networks. Therefore, the ranking structure leveraged by the proposed hashing method is useful to generate discriminative hash code for yielding superior retrieval performance.

Some visual examples of spatial attention maps are shown in Figure 8. Observed from Figure 8, the proposed spatial attention model can learn the discriminative local regions from the original images, which demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed spatial attention maps. We also show some retrieval results of the top 20 returned samples in terms of Hamming ranking on the NUS-WIDE and CIFAR-10 datasets in Figure 9. We can observe that DOH and its two variants can achieve much better retrieval results than the deep baselines, which indicates the effectiveness of exploiting the ranking structure with the deep network. Specifically, we note that DOH can yield better retrieval results than DOH-F and DOH-C on NUS-WIDE dataset. This indicates that the ranking-based hash function learned by jointly exploiting the local spatial and global semantic information can better preserve the similarity of the image pair.

3) Effect of Parameter: The proposed DOH involves one parameter, the dimension $K$ of the feature space. In order to verify the sensitivity, we conduct experiments to analyze the influence on different datasets by using linear search in $\{2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5\}$. Specifically, we set the code length as 60 as it is the least common multiplier of $\log_2 K$. The retrieval performance in terms of mAP and P@5000 are shown in Figure 10. For MIRFlickr25k dataset, there is very small performance influence under different settings of $K$. However on CIFAR-10 and NUS-WIDE, the performance slightly decreases when setting $K$ as 2. As illustrated in Figure 10, we can set $K$ as 4 for MIRFlickr25k and CIFAR-10, and $K$ as 8 for NUS-WIDE, respectively.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this work, we propose a novel deep hashing method (DOH) to learn the ranking-based hash functions by exploiting the rank correlation space from both the local and global views. Specifically, a two-stream network is designed to learn the unified ordinal representation for approximating the vectorized representation of ranking-based hashing functions by exploiting the local spatial information from the FCN network and the global semantic information from the CNN network simultaneously. More specifically, for the FCN network, an effective spatial attention model is proposed to capture the local discriminativity by learning well-specified
locations closely related to target objects. By jointly leveraging such local information learned with the spatial attention model and the global semantic information, DOH can lean using such local information learned with the spatial attention.

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