Bayesian Joint Topic Modelling for Weakly Supervised Object Localisation

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Abstract

We address the problem of localisation of objects as bounding boxes in images with weak labels. This weakly supervised object localisation problem has been tackled in the past using discriminative models where each object class is localised independently from other classes. We propose a novel framework based on Bayesian joint topic modelling. Our framework has three distinctive advantages over previous works: (1) All object classes and image backgrounds are modelled jointly together in a single generative model so that “explaining away” inference can resolve ambiguity and lead to better learning and localisation. (2) The Bayesian formulation of the model enables easy integration of prior knowledge about object appearance to compensate for limited supervision. (3) Our model can be learned with a mixture of weakly labelled and unlabelled data, allowing the large volume of unlabelled images on the Internet to be exploited for learning. Extensive experiments on the challenging VOC dataset demonstrate that our approach outperforms the state-of-the-art competitors.

1. Introduction

Large scale object recognition has received increasing interest in the past five years [9, 17, 19]. Due to the prevalence of online media sharing websites such as Flickr, a lack of images for learning is no longer the barrier. A new bottleneck appears instead: the lack of annotated images, particularly strongly annotated ones. For example, for many vision tasks such as object classification [22], detection [13], and segmentation [19, 18] hundreds or even thousands of object samples must be annotated from images for each object class. This annotation includes both the presence of objects and their locations, typically in the form of bounding boxes. This is a tedious and time-consuming process that prevents tasks such as object detection from scaling to thousands of classes [16].

One approach to this problem is weakly supervised object localisation (WSOL), which simultaneously locates objects in images and learns their appearance using weak labels indicating only the presence/absence of the object of interest. The WSOL problem has been tackled using various approaches [10, 22, 27, 24, 16]. Most of them address the problem as a weakly supervised learning problem, particularly as a multi-instance learning (MIL) problem, where images are bags, and potential object locations are instances. These methods are typically discriminative in nature and attempt to localise each class of objects independently from the other classes, even when the weak labels indicate that different types of objects co-exist in the same images (see Fig. 1). However, localising objects of different classes independently rather than jointly brings about a number of limitations: (1) The knowledge that multiple objects co-exist within each image is not exploited. For instance, knowing that some images have both a horse and a person, in conjunction with a joint model for all classes, gives very discriminative information about what a horse and person looks like – the person can be “explained away” to reduce ambiguity about the horse appearance, and vice versa. Ignoring this relationship increases ambiguity for each class. (2) Although different object classes have different appearances, the background appearance is relevant to them all. When different classes are modelled independently, the background appearance must be re-learned re-
peatedly for each class, when it would be more statistically robust to share this common knowledge between classes.

Beyond joint versus independent learning there is the issue of encoding prior knowledge or top-down cues about appearance, which is very important to obtain good WSOL performance. However, the prior knowledge is typically only employed in existing approaches to provide candidate object locations, rather than as an integrated part of the model. Finally, unlabelled images contain useful information about, e.g. background appearance and the appearance of (the unlabelled) objects. Such information is useful when the weak labels are sparse to further reduce the burden for manual annotation. However, existing approaches provide no mechanism for learning from unlabelled data together with weakly labelled data for object localisation (i.e. semi-supervised learning (SSL)). This limitation is also related to the lack of joint learning, because for SSL joint learning is important to disambiguate the unlabelled images.

In this paper, a novel framework based on Bayesian latent topic models is proposed to overcome the previously mentioned limitations. In our framework, both multiple object classes and different types of backgrounds are modelled jointly in a single generative model as latent topics, in order to explicitly exploit their correlations (see Fig. 1). As bag-of-words (BoW) models, conventional latent topic models have no notion of localisation. We overcome this problem by incorporating an explicit notion of object location, alongside the ability to incorporate prior knowledge about object appearance in a fully Bayesian approach. Importantly, as a joint generative model, unlabelled data can now be easily used to compensate for sparse training annotations, simply by allowing the model to also infer both which unknown objects are present in those images and where they are.

2. Related Work

Weakly supervised object localisation Weakly supervised learning (WSL) has attracted increasing attention as the volume of data which we are interested in learning from grows much faster than available annotations. Weakly supervised object localisation (WSOL) is of particular interest due to the onerous demands of annotating object location information. Many studies have approached this task as a multi-instance learning problem. However, only relatively recently have localisation models capable of learning from challenging data such as PASCAL VOC 2007 been proposed. This is especially challenging because objects may occupy only a small proportion of an image, and multiple objects may occur in each image: corresponding to a multi-instance multi-label problem. One of the first studies to address this was which employed a conditional random field and generic prior object knowledge learned from a fully annotated dataset. Later, presented a solution exploiting latent SVMs. Recent studies have explicitly examined the role of intra- and inter-class cues, as well as transfer learning, for this task. In contrast to these studies, which are all based on discriminative models, we introduce a generative topic model based approach which retains the benefits of both intra- and inter-class cues, as well as the potential for exploiting both spatial and appearance priors. Moreover, it uniquely exploits joint multi-label learning of all object classes simultaneously, as well as enables semi-supervised learning which allows annotation requirements to be further reduced.

Topic models for image understanding Topic models were originally developed for unsupervised text analysis and have been successfully adapted to both unsupervised and supervised image understanding problems. Most studies have addressed the simpler tasks of learning classification or annotation, rather than localisation which we are interested in here. This is because conventional topic models have no explicit notion of the spatial location and extent of an object in an image; and because supervised topic models such as CorrLDA and derivatives allow much less direct supervision than we will exploit here. Most of these studies have considered smaller scale and simpler datasets than VOC 2007, which we consider here. Nevertheless topic models have good potential for this challenge because they can be modified for multi-label weakly supervised learning, and can then reason jointly about multiple objects in each image. Moreover as generative models, they can be easily applied in a semi-supervised learning context and Bayesian versions can exploit informative priors. In this paper we address the limitations of existing topic models for this task by incorporating an explicit notion of object location; and developing a Bayesian model with the ability to incorporate prior knowledge about object appearance (e.g. texture, size, spatial extent).

Other joint learning approaches An approach similar in spirit to ours in the sense of jointly learning a model for all classes is that of Cabral et al. This study formulates multi-label image classification as a matrix completion problem, which is also similar in spirit to our factoring images into a mixture of topics. However we add two key factors of (i) a stronger notion of the spatial location and extent of each object, and (ii) the ability to encode human knowledge or transferred knowledge through Bayesian priors. As a result we are able to address more challenging data than such as VOC 2007. Multi-instance multi-label (MIML) approaches provide a mechanism to jointly learn a model for all classes. However because these methods must search a discrete space (of positive instance subsets), their optimisation problem is harder. They also lack the benefit of Bayesian integration of prior knowl-
3. Methods

In this section, we introduce our new latent topic model (LTM) \( \text{LTM} \) approach to the weakly-supervised object localisation task, and the associated learning algorithms. Applied to images, conventional LTMs factor images into combinations of latent topics \( \text{LTM} \). Without supervision, these topics may or may not correspond to anything of semantic relevance to humans. To address the WSOL task, we need to learn what is unique to all images sharing a particular label (object class), explaining away other shared visual aspects (background) which are irrelevant to the annotation of interest. We will achieve this in a fully Bayesian LTM framework by applying weak supervision to partially constrained the available topics for each image.

3.1. Preprocessing and Representation

We preprocess images by extracting \( N_j \) SIFT descriptors, regularly sampled every 5 pixels, and quantising them into a \( N_\phi = 2000 \) word codebook using K-means clustering. Differently to other bag-of-words (BoW) approaches \( [20, 31] \), which then discard spatial information entirely, we use SIFT here, other BoW type features can easily be included to further increase performance.

3.2. Our Framework

Model To address the WSOL task, we will factor images into unique combinations of \( K \) shared topics. If there are \( C \) classes of objects to be localised, \( K^fg = C \) of these will represent the (foreground) classes, and \( K^bg = K - K^fg \) topics will model background data to be explained away. \( T^fg \) and \( T^bg \) index foreground and background topics respectively. Each topic will encode a distribution over the \( N_\phi \) sized appearance vocabulary, and over the spatial location of these words within each image. Formally, the generative process of our model (Fig. 2) for a corpus of images is as follows:

For each topic \( k \in 1 \ldots K \):

1. Draw an appearance distribution \( \pi_k \sim \text{Dir}(\pi_k^0) \)

For each image \( j \in 1 \ldots J \):

1. Draw foreground and background topic distribution \( \theta_j \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha_j), \alpha_j = [\alpha_j^{fg}, \alpha_j^{bg}] \)

2. For each foreground topic \( k \in T^fg \) draw a location distribution: \( \mu_{kj}, \Lambda_{kj} \sim \text{NW}(\mu_k^0, \Lambda_k^0, \beta_k^0, v_k^0) \)

3. For each observation \( i \in 1 \ldots N_j \):
   
   (a) Draw topic \( y_{ij} \sim \text{Multi}(\theta_j) \)
   
   (b) Draw visual word \( x_{ij} \sim \text{Multi}(\pi_{y_{ij}}) \)
   
   (c) Draw a location: \( l_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{y_{ij}}, \Lambda_{y_{ij}}^{-1}) \) if \( y_{ij} \in T^fg \); or \( l_{ij} \sim \text{Uniform} \) if \( y_{ij} \in T^bg \)

where Multi, Dir, \( \mathcal{N} \) and \( \text{NW} \) respectively indicate Multinomial, Dirichlet, Normal and Normal-Wishart distributions with the specified parameters. These priors are chosen because they are conjugate to the word and location distributions, and hence enable efficient inference. The joint distribution of all observed \( O = \{x_j, l_j\}_{j=1}^J \) and latent \( H = \{\{\pi_k\}_{k=1}^K, \{y_j, \mu_{kj}, \Lambda_{kj}, \theta_j\}_{j=1=1}^{K,J}\} \) variables given parameters \( \Pi = \{\{\pi_k^0, \mu_k^0, \Lambda_k^0, \beta_k^0, v_k^0\}_{k=1}^K, \{\alpha_j\}_{j=1}^J\} \) in our model is therefore:

\[
p(O, H|\Pi) = \prod_j \prod_k p(\mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}|\mu_k^0, \Lambda_k^0, \beta_k^0, v_k^0) \prod_j \prod_i p(x_{ij}|y_{ij}, \theta_j) p(y_{ij}|\theta_j) p(\pi_k|\pi_k^0) \text{. (1)}
\]

Learning Learning our model involves inferring the following quantities: the appearance of each object class, \( \pi_k, k \in T^fg \) and background textures, \( \pi_k, k \in T^bg \), the word-topic distribution (soft segmentation) of each image \( z_j \), the proportion of interest points in each
image corresponding to each class or background \( \theta_j \), and the location of each object \( \mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk} \). To learn the model and localise all the weakly annotated objects, we wish to infer the posterior \( p(H|O, \Pi) = p(\{y_j, \mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}, \theta_j\}_{j=1}^K, \{\pi_{jk}\}_j \{x_j, l_j\}_{j=1}^J | O, \Pi) \). This is directly intractable, however a variational message passing (VMP) strategy can be used to obtain a factored approximation \( q(H|O, \Pi) \) to the posterior:

\[
q(H|O, \Pi) = \prod_k q(\pi_k) \prod_j q(\theta_j) q(\mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}) \prod_l q(y_{ij}). \tag{2}
\]

The VMP solution is obtained by deriving integrals of the form \( \ln q(h) = E_{H \setminus h} [\ln p(H, O)] + K \) for each group of hidden variables \( h \), thus obtaining the updates:

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{jk} & = \alpha_{jk} + \sum_i y_{ijk}, \\
y_{ijk} & \propto \int_{\mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}} N(1_{ij} | \mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}^{-1}) q(\mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}) \\
& \cdot \exp \left( \Psi(\pi_{x_{ij}, y_{ij}}) - \Psi(\sum_{x} \pi_{x_{ij}}) + \Psi(\theta_{jy_{ijk}}) \right), \\
\pi_{vk} & = \pi_{yk}^0 + \sum_{ij} I(x_{ij} = v) y_{ijk}, \tag{3}
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \Psi \) is the digamma function, \( I \) is the indicator function which returns 1 if its argument is true, and the integral in the second line returns a student-t distribution over \( 1_{ij} \).

Within each image \( j \), standard updates apply for the Gaussian parameter posterior \( q(\mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}) \) [3], which we omit for brevity.

In conventional topic models the \( \alpha \) parameter encodes the expected proportion of words for each topic. In this study we use \( \alpha \) to encode the supervision from weak labels. In particular, we set \( \alpha_{fg} \) as a binary vector with \( \alpha_{fg} = 1 \) if class \( k \) is present in image \( j \) and \( \alpha_{fg} = 0 \) otherwise; \( \alpha_{bg} \) is always set to 1 to reflect the fact that background of different types can be shared across different images. With these partial constraints, iterating the updates in Eq. (3) has the effect of factoring images into combinations of latent topics; where \( K^{bg} \) background topics are always available to explain away backgrounds, and \( K^{fg} \) foreground topics are only available to images with annotated classes. After learning, we can also localise in held-out test data by fixing \( q(\pi_{vk}) \), and iterating the other updates for test images.

**Encoding human or transferred knowledge via Bayesian prior** An important capability of our Bayesian approach is that top-down prior knowledge from human expertise, or other transferrable cues can be encoded. A number of different types of human knowledge about objects and their relationships with backgrounds are encoded in our model. First, objects are typically compact whilst backgrounds much less so and tend to spread across the image. This knowledge is encoded via the Gaussian foreground topic spatial distribution and the uniform background topic distribution. (see 3.(c) in generative process) Second, aggregated across all images, the background is more dominant than any single object class in terms of size (hence the amount of visual words). Consequently, for each object class \( k \), we set \( \pi_{vk}^0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j, c_j = k} h(x_j) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j} h(x_j) \), where \( h(\cdot) \) indicates histogram. That is, set the appearance prior for each class to the mean of those images containing the object class minus the average over all images, which reflects consistent unique aspects of that class. This prior knowledge is essentially the fact that foreground objects stand out against background, and thus is related to the notion of saliency, not within an image, but across all images. Saliency has been exploited in previous MIL based approaches to generate the instances/candidate object locations [10] [28] [27] [24] [26]. Here in our model, it is fully integrated as Bayesian prior. Apart from these two types of human knowledge, other human or transferrable knowledge extracted from auxiliary labelled data can also be readily integrated into our model via the Bayesian priors. For example, if there is prior knowledge about the appearance of individual classes (e.g., by obtaining the opinion of a generic object detector or object saliency model [11] on images labelled with classes), then this can be encoded via the appearance prior by specifying an informative \( \pi_{yk}^0 \) to set the average statistics of the generic object bounding-boxes. In summary, our Bayesian joint topic model is flexible and versatile in allowing use of any knowledge available additional to the weak labels.

**Semi-supervised learning** Our framework can be applied in a semi-supervised context to further reduce the amount of annotation effort required. Specifically, images \( j \) with known annotations are encoded as above, while those of unknown class are simply set as \( \alpha_{fg} = 0.1 \), meaning that all topics/classes may occur, but we expect few at once within one image. Importantly, unknown images can include those from the same pool of classes but without annotation (for which the posterior \( q(\theta) \) will pick out the present classes), or those from a completely disjoint pool of classes (for which the \( q(\theta) \) will encode only background).

### 3.3. Object Localisation

There are two possible strategies to localise objects in our framework, which we will compare later. In the first strategy (Our-Gaussian), a bounding box for class \( k \) in image \( j \) can be obtained directly from the Gaussian mode of \( q(\mu_{jk}, \Lambda_{jk}) \) via aligning a window to the two standard deviation ellipse. This has the advantage of being clean and highly efficient. However, since there is only one Gaussian per class (which will grow to cover all instances of the class in an image), this is not ideal for images with more
than one object per class. In the second strategy (Our-Sampling) we draw a heat-map for class $k$ by projecting $q(z_{ijk})$ (Eq. 3) back onto the image plane, using the SIFT grid coordinates. This heat-map is analogous to those produced by many other approaches such as Hough transforms [15]. Thereafter, any strategy for heat-map based localisation may be used. We choose the non-maximum suppression (NMS) strategy of [13].

4. Experiments

After briefly introducing the evaluation datasets, we first compare our model with state-of-the-art on localising objects in weakly annotated images in Sec. 4.1. In Sec. 4.2 we demonstrate that our model is able to effectively exploit semi-supervised learning to further reduce annotation requirements. Then we give the insight into the mechanisms and novelties of our model in Sec. 4.3 by illustrating the learned internal representation and comparing against alternative learning methods. Finally in Sec. 4.4 we discuss computational efficiency.

Datasets We use the challenging PASCAL VOC 2007 dataset that has become widely used for weakly supervised annotation. A number of variants are used: VOC07-20 contains all 20 classes from VOC 2007 training set as defined in [28] and has been used in [28, 27, 26]. VOC07-6×2 contains 6 classes with Left and Right poses considered as separate classes giving 12 classes in total and has been used in [10, 24, 28, 27, 26]. The former obviously is more challenging than the latter. Note that VOC07-20 is different to the Pascal07-all defined in [10] which actually contains 14 classes as the other 6 were used as fully annotated auxiliary data. We call it VOC07-14 for evaluation against [10, 24, 26], but without using the other 6 as auxiliary data for our model.

Settings For our model, we set the foreground topic number $N_f^g$ to be equal to the number of classes, and $N_b^g = 20$ for background topics. We run Eq. (3) for 100 VMP iterations. Localisation performance is measured according to the PASCAL criterion [11]: the object is considered as correctly localised if the overlap with ground-truth is greater than 50%, and results are reported as the percentage (%) of correctly annotated images.

4.1. Comparison with State-of-the-art

State-of-the-art competitors Most if not all recent approaches that report results on at least one of the three variants of the VOC 2007 datasets are listed in Table 1. These cover a variety of approaches which use very different cues and models (see Sec. 2 for details). Their performance is compared against two variations of our models, Our-Sampling and Our-Gaussian which differ only in the final object localisation step (see Sec. 5.3). Note that a number of the state-of-the-art competitors use additional information that we do not use: Deselares et al. [10] and Shi et al. [26] take a transfer learning approach and require a fully annotated auxiliary dataset. In particular, although Shi et al. [26] evaluate all 20 classes, a randomly selected 10 are used as auxiliary data with bounding-boxes annotations. Pandey and Lazebnik [24] set aspect ratio manually and/or performs cropping on the obtained bounding-boxes.

Initial localisation Table 1 reports the initial annotation accuracy of our model compared with state-of-the-art. Our model shows superior performance on all datasets. This is because we uniquely provide a jointly-multi label model, and also can exploit prior spatial and appearance cues in an integrated Bayesian framework.

Refined by detector After the initial annotation of the weakly labelled images, a conventional strong object detector can be trained using these annotations as ground truth. The trained detector can then be used to iteratively refine the object location. We follow [24, 28] in exploiting a deformable part-based model (DPM) detector [13] for one iteration to refine the initial annotation. Table 1 shows that again our model outperforms all competitors by a clear margin for all three datasets. In particular, even after this costly refinement process, the localisation accuracy of many competitors is inferior to our model without the refinement. The results also show that the improvement brought by the refinement can be very limited or even negative for some classes when the initialisation performance is poor (see supplementary material for more detailed comparisons).

| Method | Initialisation | Refined by detector |
|--------|----------------|---------------------|
|        | $6 \times 2$  | $14 \times 20$  |
|        | $6 \times 2$  | $14 \times 20$  |
| Deselares et al. [10] | | |
| a. single cues | 35 | 21 | 40 | 24 | |
| b. all cues | 39 | 22 | 50 | 28 | |
| Pandey and Lazebnik [24] | | |
| a. before cropping | 36.7 | 20.0 | 93.3 | 29.0 | |
| b. after cropping | 43.7 | 23.0 | 61.1 | 30.5 | |
| Siva and Xiang [25] | | |
| 40 | 28.9 | 49 | 30.4 | |
| Siva et al. [27] | | |
| 37.1 | 29.0 | 46 | |
| Shi et al. [26] | | |
| 39.7 | 32.1 | |
| Zhu et al. [28] | | |
| | 13 | |
| Our-Sampling | 50.8 | 32.2 | 34.1 | 65.5 | 33.8 | 36.2 |
| Our-Gaussian | 51.5 | 30.3 | 31.2 | 66.1 | 32.5 | 33.4 |

Table 1. Comparison with state-of-the-art competitors on the three variations of the PASCAL VOC 2007 datasets. * Requires aspect ratio to be set manually. + Require 10 out of the 20 classes fully annotated with bounding-boxes and as auxilary data. 

only 5 weakly labelled images per class for the VOC07-6×2 dataset, which is significantly less than any previous method exploits. Varying the unlabelled data used, the following conditions are considered: (i) Only the 10% labelled data are included (10%L); (ii) The remaining (90%) of 6 × 2 data (10%L+90%U) are included without any annotation (so the unlabelled data contains relevant but un-differentiated classes); (iii) The remaining VOC07 training data (10%L+AllU) are included (90% of the 6×2 data and 100% of the remaining 14 classes). This is the most realistic scenario, reflecting including an easy-to-obtain pool of data containing both related and un-related images. Finally, two evaluation procedures are considered: (i) Evaluating localisation performance on the initially annotated 10% (standard WSOL task); and (ii) WSOL performance on the held out VOC07-6×2 test set. This latter procedure corresponds to an online application scenario where the localisation model is trained on one database and needs to be applied online to localise objects in incoming weakly labelled images.

![Figure 3. Unlabelled data improves foreground heat maps.](image)

From the results shown in Table 2, our model is clearly capable of exploiting unlabelled data to good effect. With only 5 images per class, as expected, poor results are obtained (comparing 10%L with 100%L). However if the remaining 90% of the data can be provided unannotated, performance is only a few percent below the fully annotated case (comparing 10%L+90%U with 100%L). More impressively, even if only a third of the provided unlabelled data is at all relevant (10%L+AllU), good performance is still obtained. This result shows that our approach has good promise for effective use in economically realistic scenarios of learning from only few weak annotations and a large volume of only partially relevant unlabelled data. This is illustrated visually in Fig. 2 where unlabelled data clearly helps to learn a better object model. Finally, the similarly good results on the held-out test set verify that our model is indeed learning a good generalisable localisation mechanism and is not merely over fitting to the training data.

### 4.3. Insights into Our Model

**Object localisation and learned foreground topics** Qualitative results are illustrated in Fig. 4, including heat maps of the object location showing what has been learned by those object (foreground) topics in our model. The predicted Gaussian object locations (green and blue) are shown along with those obtained by sampling the heat maps. These examples show that the foreground topics indeed capture what each object class looks like and can distinguish it from background and between different object classes. For instance, Fig. 4(b) and 4(c) illustrate the object of interest “explain away” other objects of no interest. A car is successfully located in Fig. 4(b) using the heat map of the car topic, while Fig. 4(c) shows that the motorbike heat map is quite accurately selective, with minimal response obtained on the other vehicular clutter. Fig. 4(d) indicates how the Gaussian can sometimes give a better bounding box. The opposite is observed in Fig. 4(e) where the single Gaussian assumption is not ideal when the foreground topic has less a compact response. Finally a failure case is shown in Fig. 4(f), where a bridge structure resembles the boat in Fig. 4(a) resulting strong response from the foreground topic, whilst the actual boat, although picked up by the learned boat topic, is small and overwhelmed by the false response.

**Learned background topics** A key ability of our framework is the explicit modelling of background non-annotated data. This allows such irrelevant pixels to be explained, reducing confusion with foreground objects and hence improving localisation accuracy. This is illustrated in Fig. 5 via plots of the background topic response (heat map). It shows that some of the background topics have clear semantic meaning, corresponding to common components such as sky, grass, road and water, despite none of these has ever been annotated. Some background components are mixed, e.g. the water topic gives strong response to both water and sky. But this is understandable because in that image, water and sky are almost visually indistinguishable.

| VOC07-6 × 2 | Data for Localisation | 10%L | Test set |
|-------------|-----------------------|------|---------|
| Data for Training | 10%L+90%U | 47.1 | 42.3 |
| 10%L | 27.1 | 28.0 |
| 10%L+90%U | 46.8 | 43.8 |
| 100%L | 50.3 | 46.2 |

Table 2. Semi-supervised learning performance of Our-Sampling.
ground objects in multi-label images, thus leading to more confusion within each image. Without spatially aware representation (NoSpatial): The Gaussian representation of appearance within each image enforces spatial compactness, and hence helps to disambiguate object appearance from background appearance. Without learning spatial extent, background patches of similar appearance to objects in the feature space cannot be properly disambiguated, leading to poorer learning and reduced localisation accuracy. Finally performance is also reduced without using topic-down appearance prior π0 (NoPriorOfapp) because the model is less likely to converge to a useful local minimal.

Alternative joint learning approaches In this experiment we compare other joint multi-instance/weakly-supervised multi-label learning methods, and show that none are effective for WSOL. One alternative joint learning approach is to cast WSOL as a MIML learning problem [35, 33, 34]. Most existing MIML work considers classification. We utilise the model in [35] and reformulate it for localisation. Specifically, we follow [10] to use the what-is-object boxes to generate bags for each image before applying MIML for localisation. Table 3 shows that the MIML method under performs, due to the harder discrete optimisation. This, together with the lack the benefit of Bayesian integration of prior knowledge in our model, explains its much poorer result. We also compare with CorrLDA, which was designed for image annotation [4]. However its performance is much weaker because it lacks an explicit spatial model and only admits indirect supervision of topics.

4.4. Computational cost

Our model is efficient both in learning and inference, with complexity $O(NMK)$ for $N$ images, $M$ observations per image, and $K$ classes. The experiments were done on a 2.6Ghz PC with a single-threaded Matlab implementation. Training on all 5,011 VOC07 images required 3 hours and a peak of 6 GB of memory to learn a joint model for 20 classes. Our Bayesian topic inference process not only enables prior knowledge to be used, but also achieves 10-fold improvements in convergence time compared to EM inference used by most conventional topic models with point-
estimated Dirichlet topics. Online inference of a new test image took about 0.5 seconds. For object localisation in training images, direct Gaussian localisation is effectively free and heat-map sampling took around 0.6 seconds per image. These statistics compare favourably to alternatives: 

[10] reports 2 hours to train 100 images; while our Matlab implementations of [27], [28] and [11] took 10, 15 and 20 hours respectively to localise objects for all 5,011 images.

5. Conclusion

We presented an effective and efficient model for weakly-supervised object localisation. Our approach surpasses the performance of all prior methods, obtaining state-of-the-art results due to three novel features: joint multi-label learning, a Bayesian formulation, and an explicit spatial model of object location. In addition the computational complexity is favourable compared to prior approaches. Uniquely with our approach, it is also possible to perform semi-supervised learning and obtain an effective localiser with only a fraction of the annotated training data required by other methods. Moreover, the unlabelled data need not even be sanitised for relevance to the target classes. In this study we only used simple top-down cues via our Bayesian priors; however this formulation has great potential to enable more scalable learning through cross-class and cross-domain transfer via priors [26, 16, 18]. These contributions bring us significantly closer to the goal of scalable learning of strong models from weakly-annotated non-purpose collected data on the Internet.

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