



Stepwise Refinement Short Hashing for Image Retrieval

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ABSTRACT

Due to significant advantages in terms of storage cost and query speed, hashing learning has attracted much attention for image retrieval. Existing hashing methods often acquiescently use long hash codes to guarantee performance, which greatly limits flexibility and scalability. Nevertheless, short hash codes are more suitable for devices with limited computing resources. When these methods use extremely short hash codes, it is difficult to meet the actual performance demand due to the information loss caused by the avalanche of dimension truncation. To address this issue, we propose a novel stepwise refinement short hashing (SRSH) for image retrieval that extracts critical features from high-dimensional image data to learn high-quality hash codes. Specifically, we propose a three-step coupled refinement strategy to relax a single hash function into three more flexible mapping matrices, such that the hash function can have more flexible to approximate precise hash codes and alleviate the information loss. Then, we adopt pairwise similarity preserving to promote coarse and fine hash codes to inherit intrinsic semantic structure from original data. Extensive experiments demonstrate the superior performance of SRSH on four image datasets.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Information systems → Retrieval models and ranking;

KEYWORDS

Image retrieval, Stepwise Refinement, Learning to hash

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1 INTRODUCTION

With the growing amount of high-dimensional data, image retrieval [7, 13, 47] has been widely used in the practical application of large-scale data analysis. Due to significant advantages in terms of storage cost and query speed, image hashing [6, 7, 48] is currently a hot issue in the field of image retrieval. The goal of learning to hash [30, 34] is to embed raw images and semantic intrinsic associations into a string of compact hash codes by adopting the hash function. The similarities between hash codes can be calculated through Hamming distance which greatly accelerates computation speed and reduces space complexity. Therefore, learning to hash is widely used in large-scale image retrieval [8], cross-modal retrieval [17, 18, 24, 43], image classification [35, 36, 41], multi-view learning [2–4, 40], and so on [10–12].

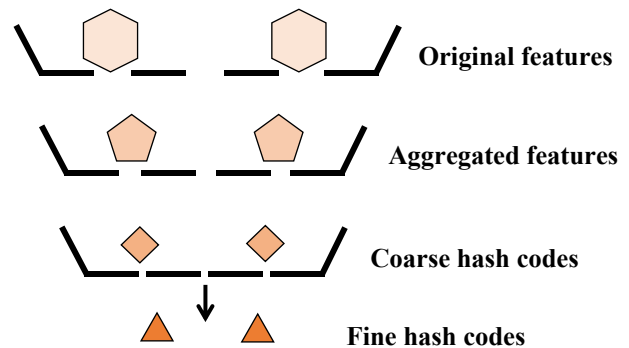


Figure 1: Illustration of the proposed SRSH. Similar to a sieving process physically comparing the size of particles with the aperture of a sieve, we design a three-step coupled refinement strategy with constraints to shrink the discrete solution space from loose to strict. Therefore, we can learn a richer set of hash functions to enhance discrimination.

Learning to hash requires that the learned hash codes should be as compact and short as possible. In practice, existing hashing methods [26, 31, 38] usually learn default long hash codes (*i.e.*, 64 or 128 bits) to represent image data. The computational complexity of the hashing model is usually approximately equal to $O(ln)$ or $O(l^2n)$ (where l is hash length and n is the number of training data). When facing with large-scale image data, the long hash codes is bound to cause large computational consumption, which greatly

limit flexibility and scalability. Contrarily, short hash codes are more suitable for devices with limited computing resources and have more fast training and query speed. For the training images from c categories, the length of hash codes should be no less than $\log_2 c$, otherwise the hash length will not be able to distinguish all categories of samples. Therefore, we define the short-length l as an integer slightly larger than $\log_2 c$. For example, if a dataset has 10 categories, the short-length of hash codes is 4 bits. However, when the length of hash code is extremely short, the retrieval performance will degrade dramatically due to the large information loss. Therefore, how to mitigate the large amount of information loss caused by short hash codes is a great challenge.

To overcome the above drawbacks, we propose a novel **stepwise refinement short hashing (SRSH)** framework that is tailored for learning high-quality short hash codes. As shown in Fig 1, our proposed SRSH is the process of gradually reducing the range of solution sets. That is, SRSH can progressively refine the original features and endow more freedom for hash function so that it can fit and address the problem of large information loss well as much as possible. Specifically, different from the traditional single hash strategy, SRSH refines features step by step via a three-step coupled strategy with constraints from loose to strict, thereby learning fine hash codes to mitigate large information loss caused by dimensional avalanches. In summary, the main contributions of our proposed method are summarized as follows:

- We propose a novel stepwise refinement short hashing (SRSH). For the first time, we propose a three-step coupled refinement strategy, which can shrink the discrete solution space and is more likely to identify stronger features by learning a richer set of projections.
- We propose to relax a single hash mapping matrix into three more flexible mapping matrices, which can make the hash function to have more flexible to fit short hash codes and alleviate the information loss.
- A plentiful experiments on four widely used large-scale datasets, *i.e.*, CIFAR-10, MNSIT, NUS-WIDE, and Caltech-256, demonstrate that SRSH outperforms the state-of-the-arts with different hash lengths, especially, short-length.

2 RELATED WORK

During past years, image hashing mainly has two branches, *i.e.*, unsupervised hashing [17, 33] and supervised hashing [15, 16]. Since unsupervised hashing [32] usually does not require intensive data annotation, this is more attractive in practice. For example, unsupervised contrastive cross-modal hashing [17] proposes a robust contrastive learning method to overcome the false-negative pair problem, thereby improving the quality of hash codes for unsupervised cross-modal retrieval. However, thanks to the strong supervision ability of label information, supervised hashing has made tremendous progress. For example, supervised discrete hashing (SDH) [31] adopts linear classifier to guide the generation of hash codes. To speed up the algorithm and improve the retrieval performance, fast supervised discrete hashing (FSDH) [9] transforms labels into hash codes and fast scalable supervised hashing (FSSH) [25] utilizes a pre-computed intermediate term to avoid the use of large $n \times n$ similarity matrices. Nevertheless, the static

predefined similarity matrix could not accurately describe the true similarity of images. Supervised adaptive similarity matrix hashing (SASH) [34] is proposed that dynamically learns the adaptive similarity matrix to guide the generation of hash codes. To excavate the intrinsic latent features and the underlying topological structure, ordinal-preserving latent graph hashing (OLGH) [45] utilizes the latent representation to preserve the high-order topological structure. And probability ordinal-preserving semantic hashing (POSH) [46] proposes a novel ordinal-preserving hashing concept based on the non-parametric Bayesian theory to further explore triplet-level ordinal structure. Moreover, to overcome the problem of conceptual drift in non-stationary environments, deep incremental hashing (DIH) [37] is proposed that captures high-level descriptive features from images to learn discriminative binary codes.

Though existing hashing methods [39] can achieve efficient retrieval and storage, they mainly have two limitations: (1) When hash codes are long, it will inevitably lead to higher computational complexity. (2) When hash codes is extremely short, the performance is fairly poor and difficult to meet the demand. Therefore, how to learn high-quality short hash codes for scalable image retrieval is a great challenge [29]. To meet the performance and storage requirements in practical applications, supervised short length hashing (SSLH) [23] proposes a mutual reconstruction strategy to reduce the loss of semantic information, and a robust estimator term to enhance the robustness of short hash codes. Reinforced short length hashing (RSLH) [22] unifies mutual regression, semantic pairwise similarity, and a relaxed strategy for learning high-quality short hash codes. However, these two short hashing methods are not flexible and scaleable for large-scale image retrieval due to discrete cyclic coordinate descent (DCC) optimization. We also note that the existing hashing prototype directly learns a single-layer hash function to generate compact low-dimensionality hash codes from high-dimensional image data. This sudden dimensionality avalanche inevitably results in massive discriminative information loss, especially, the extremely low length of hash codes. In addition, some researchers propose strongly constrained discrete hashing (SCDH) [5], *i.e.*, using two extra strong hash constraints (bit balance and de-correlation constraints) on hash codes instead of a simple binary discretization constraint can encourage the generation of compact high-quality binary codes as much as possible to achieve better retrieval accuracy. However, hash codes learned from feature data is difficult to inherit these two strong constraint properties in one step due to this strict hash constraint problem. Overall, for short hashing practical applications, the problem of information loss is very serious due to the uncontrolled environment of image collection and the avalanche of dimension truncation.

3 PROPOSED METHOD

3.1 Notation

For image retrieval task, $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$ is denoted as training set with n images, where d is the feature dimension of each instance. The corresponding ground-truth class label matrix is represented as $L = [l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times n}$, where c is the number of classes. $Y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$ is denoted as query set with m images. Hashing learning methods aim to learn hash codes $B = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n] \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}$ in Hamming space to preserve

the intrinsic similarities from the original feature space. Follow the existing hashing methods, we suppose all image instances to be zero centered, *i.e.*, $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i = 0$. To capture the non-linear underlying structure from the image instances, we adopt a popular kernelization operation [20] (such as RBF kernel mapping). In particular, we randomly choose k points as anchors (*i.e.*, \mathbf{a}_j) from the training images. The d -dimension feature of each image can be denoted as a kernel feature as

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = [\exp(\frac{\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{a}_1\|_2^2}{-2\sigma^2}), \dots, \exp(\frac{\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{a}_k\|_2^2}{-2\sigma^2})]^\top \quad (1)$$

where $\sigma = \frac{1}{nk} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^k \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{a}_j\|_2$ is the kernel width. For the sake of convenience, we use \mathbf{H}_0 to represent $\phi(X)$.

3.2 Formulation

The existing hashing methods project high-dimensional data into low-dimensional hash codes by a single-layer hash function, which could result in a large volume of the kernel discriminative information loss and the representation error. Particularly, when the length of hash codes is extremely short, the retrieval accuracy of existing methods will degrade dramatically due to the information loss caused by the avalanche of dimension truncation. To address the limitation, we propose a three-step coupled strategy with constraints from loose to strict to refine features and enhance the representation capability.

Aggregation feature: A single-layer hashing function can directly map high-dimensional image features with size $\mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$ into low-dimensional hash codes with size $\mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$. To alleviate the large loss of discriminative information caused by dimensionality avalanche, we learn the transition subspace to aggregate discriminative features. The motivation for introducing the transitional transformation space is that learning the hash function for three relatively simple tasks is more flexible than learning a hash projection matrix for a complex task. We thus use the first-layer hash function $\mathbf{W}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times k}$ to learn aggregated features \mathbf{H}_1 as follows

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}_1, \mathbf{H}_1} \|\mathbf{H}_1 - \mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{H}_0\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{W}_1\|_F^2 \quad (2)$$

where λ is a regularization parameter.

Coarse hash codes: To further learn a set of discrete hash codes, we use the second-layer hash function to transform the aggregated discriminative information extracted in the first layer into coarse hash codes, meanwhile preserving the intrinsic similarities in the original space. Therefore, we enforce the discrete binary constraint to learn coarse hash codes. The quality of generated fine hash codes in the third layer can be improved. Formally, coarse hash codes \mathbf{H}_2 can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\mathbf{W}_2, \mathbf{H}_2} \|\mathbf{H}_2 - \mathbf{W}_2 \mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{H}_0\|_F^2 + \lambda (\|\mathbf{W}_1\|_F^2 + \|\mathbf{W}_2\|_F^2) \\ & \Rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{W}_2, \mathbf{H}_2} \|\mathbf{H}_2 - \mathbf{W}_2 \mathbf{H}_1\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{W}_2\|_F^2 \\ & \text{s.t. } \mathbf{H}_2 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where λ is a regularization parameter and \mathbf{W}_2 is the second-layer hash function.

Fine hash codes: To unleash the full potential of hash codes and improve representation abilities, we impose bit de-correlation $\mathbf{H}_3^\top \mathbf{H}_3 = n\mathbf{I}$ and bit balance $\mathbf{1}\mathbf{H}_3 = \mathbf{0}$ [5] to obtain more efficient

fine hash codes. We utilize structure consistency mapping \mathbf{W}_3 as the third-layer hash function. It can integrate the information of the previous two layers and effectively capture the resemblance among these two hash codes to output more compact fine hash codes \mathbf{H}_3 . For the value of structure consistency, it should not be the identity matrix at least. The structure consistency mapping should take some of the responsibility, such that hash codes from the same classes can be kept close together. The final fine hash codes can update as follows

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\mathbf{W}_3, \mathbf{H}_3} \|\mathbf{H}_3 - \mathbf{W}_3 \mathbf{W}_2 \mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{H}_0\|_F^2 \\ & + \lambda (\|\mathbf{W}_1\|_F^2 + \|\mathbf{W}_2\|_F^2 + \|\mathbf{W}_3\|_F^2) \\ & \Rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{W}_3, \mathbf{H}_3} \|\mathbf{H}_3 - \mathbf{W}_3 \mathbf{H}_2\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{W}_3\|_F^2 \\ & \text{s.t. } \mathbf{H}_3 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \mathbf{1}\mathbf{H}_3 = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{H}_3^\top \mathbf{H}_3 = n\mathbf{I} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

We consider the three-layer hash mapping to be equally important. Therefore, we can obtain the following problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\mathbf{W}_i, \mathbf{H}_i} \sum_{i=1}^3 \|\mathbf{H}_i - \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{H}_{i-1}\|_F^2 + \lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^3 \|\mathbf{W}_i\|_F^2 \right) \\ & \text{s.t. } \mathbf{H}_2 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \mathbf{H}_3 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \\ & \mathbf{1}\mathbf{H}_3 = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{H}_3^\top \mathbf{H}_3 = n\mathbf{I} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Similarity preserving: To reduce semantic information loss, it is expected to deliver rich feature and semantic information to enhance discriminative hash code learning. If two images ($\mathbf{H}_{0i}, \mathbf{H}_{0j}$) are similar in the feature space, they should have similar hash codes ($\mathbf{H}_{3i}, \mathbf{H}_{3j}$) in Hamming space, and vice versa. We use cosine similarity s_{ij} to measure the semantic similarity between sample pairs $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$, *i.e.*, $s_{ij} = \cos(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_j)$. The semantic similarities can be transformed as $\min \sum_{i,j=1}^n \left(\mathbf{h}_i^\top \mathbf{h}_j / l - s_{ij} \right)^2$, due to $\|\mathbf{h}_i\| = \sqrt{l}$. Hence, to embed the semantic information into coarse and fine hash codes as much as possible, we adopt the inner product between coarse and fine hash codes to preserve similarity:

$$\min_{\mathbf{H}_2, \mathbf{H}_3} \|\mathbf{H}_2^\top \mathbf{H}_3 - l\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{L}\|_F^2 \quad (6)$$

We can observe that this way can avoid using a large $n \times n$ pairwise similarity matrix. Obviously, space complexity and computational cost can be reduced during optimization.

Overall SRSR model: Based on the above insights, the proposed SRSR refines the original features hierarchically to reduce the information loss of short hash codes, and then further inherits the intrinsic similarity information to obtain high discriminant fine hash codes. Afterward, SRSR can be formulated as

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\mathbf{W}_i, \mathbf{H}_i} \sum_{i=1}^3 \|\mathbf{H}_i - \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{H}_{i-1}\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^3 \|\mathbf{W}_i\|_F^2 \\ & + \alpha \|\mathbf{H}_2^\top \mathbf{H}_3 - l\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{L}\|_F^2 \\ & \text{s.t. } \mathbf{H}_2 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \mathbf{H}_3 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \\ & \mathbf{1}\mathbf{H}_3 = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{H}_3^\top \mathbf{H}_3 = n\mathbf{I} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

In summary, SRSR adopts a three-step coupled refinement strategy with constraints to shrink the discrete solution space from loose to strict and learns a richer set of hash functions to enhance

discrimination ability of short-length hash codes. Specifically, we aggregate beneficial feature information in the first-layer transition subspace and refine coarse hash codes in the second-layer Hamming space. Finally, we learn fine hash codes with strong hash constraints, such that the learned fine hash codes can not only capture the low-level feature distributions but also be correlated with high-level semantics.

3.3 Optimization

In this subsection, we represent how the challenging discrete optimization problems of our SRSH are effectively solved. From the objective function, it can be observed each sub-problem is convex. The overall objective function (7) can be optimized by the iterative optimization strategy. Specifically, we update each variable to be solved while fixing the others and iterate this process until convergence.

► **Step-1 update $\{W_i\}_{i=1}^3$ -subproblem:**

Fixing other variables variables, $\{W_i\}_{i=1}^3$ -subproblem of (7) can be rewritten as

$$\min_{W_i} \|H_i - W_i H_{i-1}\|_F^2 + \lambda \|W_i\|_2^2 \quad (8)$$

Let its derivative with respect to W_i to zero, the closed form solution of W_i for problem (8) is

$$W_i = (H_i H_{i-1}^\top)(H_{i-1} H_{i-1}^\top + \lambda I)^{-1} \quad (9)$$

► **Step-2 update H_1 -subproblem:**

Fixing other variables variables $\{W_i\}_{i=1}^3$ and $\{H_i\}_{i=2}^3$, H_1 -subproblem of (9) with respect to H_1 can reduce to the following formulation

$$\min_{H_1} \sum_{i=1}^2 \|H_i - W_i H_{i-1}\|_F^2 \quad (10)$$

Taking the partial derivative of Eq. (10) with respect to H_1 and setting it to zero, the closed form solution can be obtained as follows

$$H_1 = (W_2^\top W_2 + I)^{-1} (W_1 H_0 + W_2^\top H_2) \quad (11)$$

► **Step-3 update H_2 -subproblem:**

Fixing other variables variables $\{W_i\}_{i=1}^3$ and H_i ($i=1, 3$), H_2 -subproblem can further reduce to the following formulation

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{H_2} \sum_{i=2}^3 \|H_i - W_i H_{i-1}\|_F^2 + \alpha \|H_2^\top H_3 - l L^\top L\|_F^2 \\ \text{s.t. } H_2 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Setting the derivative of Eq. (12) with respect to H_2 to zero, and we can obtain

$$H_2 = \text{sign}(W_2 H_1 + W_3^\top H_3 + \alpha l H_3 L^\top L) \quad (13)$$

► **Step-4 update H_3 -subproblem:**

Fixing other variables variables $\{W_i\}_{i=1}^3$ and $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^2$, H_3 -subproblem of (7) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{H_3} \sum_{i=2}^3 \|H_i - W_i H_{i-1}\|_F^2 + \alpha \|H_2^\top H_3 - l L^\top L\|_F^2 \\ \text{s.t. } H_3 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \mathbf{1} H_3 = \mathbf{0}, H_3 H_3^\top = nI \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

With simple matrix manipulation, Eq.(18) can be transformed as

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{H_3} H_3 (W_3^\top H_2 + \alpha l H_2 L^\top L)^\top \\ \text{s.t. } H_3 \in \{-1, 1\}^{l \times n}, \mathbf{1} H_3 = \mathbf{0}, H_3^\top H_3 = nI \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Let $E = (W_3^\top H_2 + \alpha l H_2 L^\top L)^\top$. Thereupon, to better solve the closed-form solution, we drop out the discrete constraint and obtain the following the formula.

$$\max_{H_3} H_3 E \quad \text{s.t. } \mathbf{1} H_3 = \mathbf{0}, H_3^\top H_3 = nI \quad (16)$$

Its the closed-form solution is

$$H_3 = \sqrt{n} [U, \tilde{U}] [V, \tilde{V}]^\top \quad (17)$$

Here, $U = [U_1, U_2, \dots, U_j]$ and $V = [V_1, V_2, \dots, V_j]$ are calculated by the SVD of JE , where $J = I_n - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^\top$, *i.e.*,

$$JE = U \Sigma U^\top = \sum_{i=1}^{\hat{l}} \sigma_i u_i v_i^\top \quad (18)$$

where eigenvalues is ordered by $0 \geq \sigma_1 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_{\hat{l}}$. \tilde{U} and \tilde{V} can be obtained by the Gram-Schmidt process. Note that \tilde{U} and \tilde{D} will be empty if $\hat{l} = l$.

Algorithm 1 Stepwise Refinement Short Hashing

Require: Training set X with label matrix L , query set Y , hash length l , and the number of anchors k

- 1: Parameter: α and λ ;
- 2: Initialize: W_i and H_i ;
- 3: Obtain kernel features H_0 by kernel trick;
- 4: **repeat**
- 5: Update W_i via (9);
- 6: Update H_1 via (11);
- 7: Update H_2 via (13);
- 8: Update H_3 via (15);
- 9: **until** Satisfy the stop criteria;

Ensure: Hash function W_i and hash codes H_i .

3.4 Computational Complexity

The computational complexity of our SRSH is built on top of six optimizing sub-problems. Since SRSH has fast convergence property, the number of iteration t is small. Hence, we only concern the complexity of each iteration. Here, the feature dimension is k , the number of classes is c , and l is hash length. For the W_1 -subproblem, the main complexity is $O(nlk + nk^2 + l^3)$. For the W_2 -subproblem, the complexity is $O(2nl^2 + l^3)$. For the W_3 -subproblem, the main complexity is $O(2nl^2 + l^3)$. For the H_1 -subproblem, the complexity is $O(2l^3 + nlk + nl^2)$. For the H_2 -subproblem, the complexity is $O(2cln + nl^2)$. For the H_3 -subproblem, the main complexity is the SVD of a $l \times n$ matrix, whose complexity is $O(l^2 n)$. In practice, $k \ll n$ and c and l are small. Hence, the computation complexity is linear to n , and SRSH is indeed highly efficient for large-scale data.

3.5 Convergence Analysis

For the convergence analysis, the six subproblems corresponding to all variables are convex with respect to one variable and have a closed-form optimal solution. We can easily know the whole objective function is monotonously decreasing for each iteration. In addition, the objective function has a lower bound of zero. According to the bounded monotone convergence theorem, SRSFH can converge to at least one local minimum.

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 Datasets

We perform experiments on four large-scale datasets, *i.e.*, CIFAR-10 [27], MNIST [42], NUS-WIDE [1], and Caltech-256 [46].

CIFAR-10 consists of 60000 images from 10 classes collected from 80 million tiny images. Each class has 6000 images. We employ a 512-dimension GIST feature vector to represent each image, which is extracted from the original color image with the size of 32×32 . For CIFAR-10, we randomly select 1000 images used for retrieval and the rest of 59000 images as the training set. **MNIST** is composed of 70000 handwritten digits images from 10 classes (*i.e.*, from 0 to 9). In our experiments, we crop and normalize each image to 28×28 , and then employ a 784-dimensional feature vector to represent each image. For MNIST, we randomly choose 1000 images as the query set and the rest of 69000 images as the training set. **NUS-WIDE** is collected from a real-world large-scale multi-label image dataset Flickr, which contains 269648 images with 81 ground-truth labels. Following the setting in [31], we choose the 21 most frequent labels with 195834 images to evaluate the effect. In our experiments, we use a 500-dimensional bag-of-words feature vector to represent each image. For NUS-WIDE, we randomly sample 2100 images as the query set, and the remained images as the training set. In this multi-label dataset, if two images share at least one common label, they are semantically similar, and vice versa. **Caltech-256** [45] contains 29780 samples from 256 classes. Each category has at least 80 images. We extract the 1024-dimensional deep features by using CNN pre-trained on ImageNet, which are obtained from the last fully-connected layer of the neural network. In our experiments, we randomly select 1000 images as the query set and the rest as the training set.

4.2 Experimental Setting

To demonstrate the effectiveness, we compare our method SRSFH with some representative hashing methods, including FSDH [9], FSSH [25], SSLH [23], RSLH [22], SCDH [5], POPSH [46], OLGH [45], SASH [34], and LBSE [21]. Since SRSFH is a shallow method, we do not compare them with deep hashing methods. Since SSLH, RSLH, and SASH have high space complexity, we randomly sample 2000 images as training sets on the CIFAR-10 and MNIST datasets, and sample 10500 images on the NUS-WIDE dataset. For fairness, we use the public codes with default parameters provided by the respective authors. In the experiments, the length l of short hash codes is a little bigger than $\log_2 c$, which are 3.32, 3.32, 4.39, and 8 on the CIFAR-10, MNIST, NUS-WIDE, and Caltech256, respectively. Hence, we set short-length as 4, 4, 5, and 8 bits. The maximum bit length is set to 64. All experiments are performed on our windows

PC with an Intel Core i9 (3.2GHz) CPU and 64GB RAM. For our SRSFH, we set anchors as $k = 1500$. According parameter sensitivity analysis, on four datasets, we set α and λ as $\{10^{-2}, 10^{-5}\}$, $\{10^{-2}, 10^{-4}\}$, $\{10^2, 10^{-4}\}$, and $\{10^{-1}, 1\}$, respectively.

4.3 Evaluation Protocols

We use four widely used evaluation protocols [19], *i.e.*, mean average precision (mAP) [14], Precision@topN [44], NDCG@100, and precision-recall curves [28]. mAP is the mean of the overall average precision values. Precision@topN represents precision of the top N retrieved samples returned to the users. NDCG@100 represents normalized discounted cumulative gain at rank 100. For these evaluation protocols, a larger value means better retrieval performance.

4.4 The mAP Results

We report the mAP results with different bits on four benchmark datasets in the left side of tables 1 to 4, respectively. According to these experimental results, SRSFH outperforms all compared methods in most cases, which show its effectiveness. Due to the three-step coupled refinement strategy, for short-length codes, we obtain absolute boosts of 5.53%, 1.89%, 3.14%, and 2.48% on four datasets, respectively. It indicates that the proposed SRSFH has a distinct advantage for short-length hash codes. We can observe that the mAP is increased and the improvement of mAP reduces, with the increase in length of hash codes. For large class image data, all methods require longer hash codes to achieve satisfactory performance. Moreover, since the state-of-the-art short-length hashing methods (*i.e.*, SSLH, RSLH, and SASH) use the pairwise similarity matrix to preserve semantics, these methods can result in high space complexity and insufficient memory. We thus randomly sample some images for training instead of using the entire training set. Clearly, they cannot achieve satisfactory performance.

4.5 The Precision@TopN Results

The Precision@TopN results of all compared methods on four datasets are summarized in the middle side of tables 1 to 4, respectively. the proposed SRSFH achieves the highest precision results in terms of Precision@5000 on the first three datasets and Precision@50 on the last one. It indicates SRSFH can extract critical features from high-dimensional image data to learn high-quality short-length hash codes, thereby improving retrieval performance. Specifically, compared to the state-of-the-art hashing methods, for short-length hash codes, we obtain the boosts of 5.05%, 2.24%, 0.75%, and 4.23% on all datasets, respectively. As the increase in length of hash codes, Precision@TopN is also increased. From these results, it can demonstrate that our SRSFH can achieve very delightful retrieval performance, when we use short-length hash codes.

4.6 The NDCG@100 Results

The NDCG@100 results of all compared methods on four datasets are summarized in the right side of tables 1 to 4, respectively. We can see that there is a trend towards better NDCG@100 results for all comparison methods, as the bit length increases. It indicates that long-length hash codes can provide more discriminative information. For short-length hash codes, our SRSFH method can obtain

Table 1: The retrieval performance results (%) with different bits on the CIFAR-10 dataset. The best values are shown in bold.

| Method | mAP | | | | | Precision@5000 | | | | | NDCG@100 | | | | |
|------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 |
| SDH [31] | 25.11 | 31.45 | 38.24 | 42.22 | 45.23 | 29.37 | 39.36 | 46.60 | 49.92 | 52.29 | 31.34 | 42.02 | 49.30 | 51.49 | 53.52 |
| FSDH [9] | 26.50 | 33.95 | 37.82 | 42.40 | 46.22 | 31.58 | 40.74 | 45.21 | 49.75 | 53.16 | 31.90 | 42.70 | 46.71 | 51.85 | 53.91 |
| FSSH [25] | 22.25 | 37.49 | 60.21 | 65.85 | 67.03 | 19.52 | 33.98 | 53.32 | 59.63 | 60.03 | 19.73 | 34.19 | 53.12 | 59.68 | 60.01 |
| SSLH [23] | 20.52 | 26.68 | 33.60 | 37.86 | 39.98 | 22.29 | 33.48 | 44.49 | 47.97 | 49.48 | 23.06 | 33.62 | 44.31 | 47.97 | 49.76 |
| RSLH [22] | 27.48 | 30.64 | 28.81 | 44.92 | 46.47 | 21.34 | 21.80 | 39.88 | 32.06 | 34.86 | 26.99 | 30.34 | 39.85 | 44.79 | 46.63 |
| SCDH [5] | 55.12 | 62.53 | 65.54 | 68.41 | 69.17 | 49.76 | 57.93 | 59.53 | 61.36 | 62.13 | 49.78 | 57.97 | 59.57 | 61.33 | 62.40 |
| POPSH [46] | 34.80 | 60.75 | 64.33 | 67.94 | 69.14 | 33.21 | 55.66 | 59.71 | 63.29 | 63.77 | 33.39 | 55.95 | 60.61 | 63.29 | 63.85 |
| OLGH [45] | 47.46 | 61.22 | 66.40 | 68.31 | 64.22 | 42.92 | 56.15 | 60.44 | 63.56 | 62.11 | 42.84 | 56.12 | 60.50 | 63.80 | 63.16 |
| SASH [34] | 15.87 | 16.89 | 21.36 | 24.42 | 27.11 | 18.20 | 21.56 | 28.25 | 34.14 | 39.46 | 17.99 | 21.36 | 27.74 | 33.46 | 38.76 |
| LBSE[21] | 51.23 | 61.50 | 68.07 | 69.49 | 71.09 | 46.23 | 55.73 | 62.52 | 62.29 | 64.07 | 46.43 | 55.77 | 62.54 | 62.97 | 64.21 |
| Our SRSRSH | 60.65 | 64.93 | 68.11 | 73.24 | 73.47 | 54.81 | 60.05 | 64.04 | 66.88 | 66.80 | 54.90 | 59.95 | 64.39 | 66.87 | 66.78 |

Table 2: The retrieval performance results (%) with different bits on the MNIST dataset. The best values are shown in bold.

| Method | mAP | | | | | Precision@5000 | | | | | NDCG@100 | | | | |
|------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 |
| SDH [31] | 51.98 | 79.17 | 90.62 | 92.91 | 93.24 | 53.74 | 53.74 | 92.15 | 93.76 | 93.59 | 54.30 | 81.10 | 91.52 | 92.71 | 93.05 |
| FSDH [9] | 69.18 | 89.91 | 91.38 | 93.57 | 93.99 | 71.78 | 71.78 | 92.99 | 93.02 | 93.55 | 71.77 | 90.60 | 92.63 | 93.40 | 93.85 |
| FSSH [25] | 37.33 | 37.64 | 94.57 | 94.59 | 95.17 | 36.94 | 36.94 | 93.57 | 93.43 | 94.13 | 36.67 | 36.87 | 93.56 | 93.48 | 91.15 |
| SSLH [23] | 37.33 | 37.64 | 94.57 | 94.59 | 95.17 | 36.94 | 36.94 | 93.57 | 93.43 | 94.13 | 36.67 | 36.87 | 93.56 | 93.48 | 91.15 |
| RSLH [22] | 72.26 | 66.86 | 89.31 | 92.46 | 93.66 | 67.71 | 67.71 | 91.88 | 90.42 | 92.31 | 71.65 | 86.51 | 91.84 | 92.34 | 93.71 |
| SCDH [5] | 82.91 | 91.57 | 87.42 | 91.68 | 91.30 | 81.67 | 81.67 | 85.40 | 90.18 | 90.00 | 81.55 | 90.29 | 85.40 | 90.12 | 90.00 |
| POPSH [46] | 79.99 | 92.88 | 95.02 | 96.03 | 96.26 | 79.80 | 79.80 | 94.21 | 95.04 | 95.36 | 79.57 | 93.24 | 94.30 | 95.08 | 95.33 |
| OLGH [45] | 73.57 | 91.29 | 95.00 | 95.85 | 95.82 | 72.73 | 72.73 | 94.19 | 94.92 | 95.07 | 72.68 | 90.27 | 94.21 | 94.94 | 95.23 |
| SASH [34] | 41.11 | 79.17 | 85.80 | 87.48 | 89.23 | 44.62 | 85.40 | 88.98 | 90.12 | 91.73 | 44.15 | 84.96 | 89.00 | 90.32 | 91.46 |
| LBSE[21] | 67.78 | 94.73 | 95.78 | 96.22 | 96.52 | 67.03 | 93.85 | 94.92 | 95.46 | 95.64 | 67.07 | 93.90 | 94.91 | 95.47 | 95.62 |
| Our SRSRSH | 84.80 | 96.06 | 96.01 | 97.00 | 96.92 | 83.91 | 95.36 | 95.50 | 96.20 | 96.00 | 83.87 | 95.36 | 95.48 | 96.20 | 96.00 |

Table 3: The retrieval performance results (%) with different bits on the NUS-WIDE dataset. The best values are shown in bold.

| Method | mAP | | | | | Precision@5000 | | | | | NDCG@100 | | | | |
|------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 5 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 5 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 | 5 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 |
| SDH [31] | 30.45 | 30.52 | 30.45 | 31.42 | 31.42 | 31.68 | 31.68 | 31.63 | 34.25 | 34.25 | 27.73 | 27.73 | 27.82 | 28.45 | 28.45 |
| FSDH [9] | 31.45 | 31.44 | 31.44 | 31.45 | 31.45 | 36.35 | 36.35 | 31.64 | 36.35 | 36.36 | 27.79 | 27.73 | 27.72 | 27.73 | 27.95 |
| FSSH [25] | 48.65 | 49.14 | 58.35 | 60.06 | 61.11 | 48.96 | 52.29 | 60.53 | 62.34 | 64.34 | 38.70 | 42.89 | 47.43 | 51.70 | 52.80 |
| SSLH [23] | 38.84 | 40.66 | 41.93 | 42.23 | 43.32 | 44.74 | 46.12 | 47.76 | 48.18 | 49.19 | 34.44 | 35.10 | 36.51 | 37.14 | 38.29 |
| RSLH [22] | 38.78 | 43.17 | 41.23 | 48.47 | 49.51 | 34.49 | 38.26 | 46.42 | 42.49 | 41.74 | 29.39 | 32.51 | 35.22 | 36.86 | 37.87 |
| SCDH [5] | 46.05 | 46.38 | 45.32 | 47.04 | 47.75 | 42.23 | 42.02 | 39.71 | 41.34 | 41.12 | 32.81 | 33.07 | 31.97 | 33.48 | 33.49 |
| POPSH [46] | 51.91 | 54.95 | 57.46 | 60.80 | 61.14 | 52.42 | 42.37 | 61.81 | 48.02 | 65.12 | 39.05 | 42.37 | 45.81 | 48.02 | 50.19 |
| OLGH [45] | 48.50 | 49.47 | 53.64 | 56.80 | 55.67 | 42.14 | 41.83 | 47.54 | 52.47 | 50.16 | 35.76 | 35.30 | 38.60 | 35.18 | 36.72 |
| SASH [34] | 34.13 | 34.70 | 33.52 | 36.09 | 38.86 | 37.04 | 37.80 | 37.34 | 42.06 | 45.21 | 28.20 | 28.84 | 28.51 | 31.86 | 34.47 |
| LBSE[21] | 54.81 | 56.56 | 60.97 | 62.29 | 64.16 | 53.90 | 57.38 | 62.58 | 65.72 | 68.02 | 36.99 | 41.11 | 45.11 | 47.01 | 47.89 |
| Our SRSRSH | 57.95 | 60.91 | 62.73 | 64.84 | 64.02 | 54.65 | 58.75 | 62.02 | 66.92 | 68.65 | 40.52 | 45.78 | 46.98 | 45.25 | 46.96 |

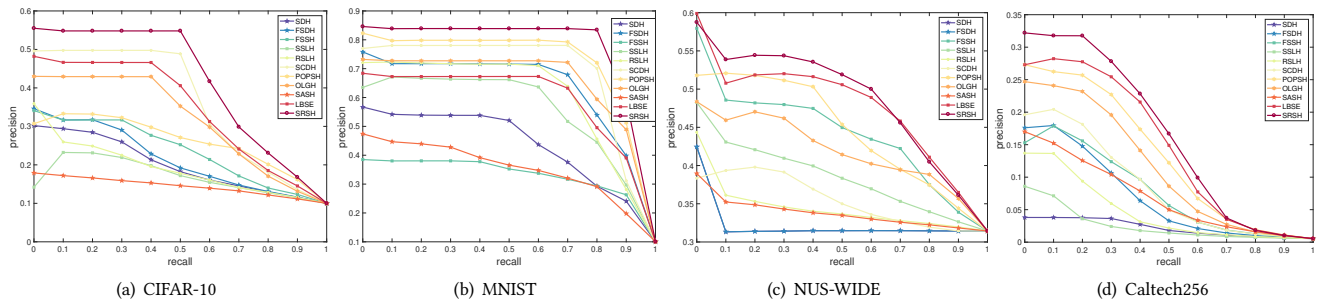
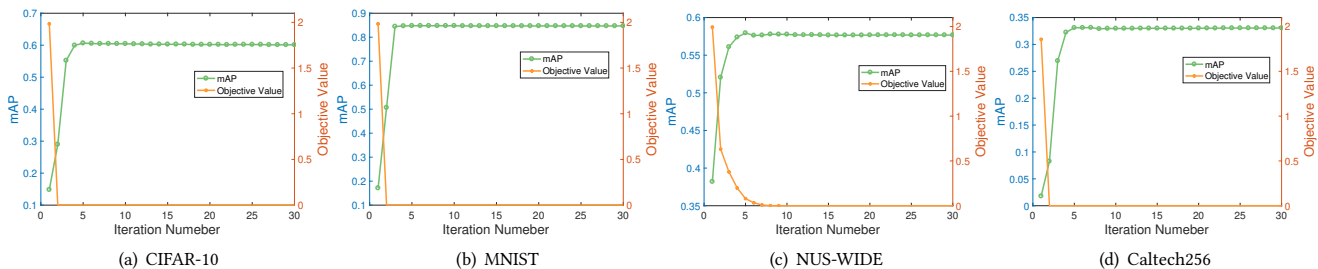
more improvement compared with these baselines. Specifically, since SRSRSH benefits from the three-step coupled refinement strategy to mitigate of information loss, we can get the performance improvement of 5.12%, 2.32%, 1.47%, and 3.30% on all datasets, respectively. When the number of samples is large (such as the NUS-WIDE), the data becomes more complex. Hence, image retrieval becomes more challenging.

4.7 Precision-Recall

Precision-Recall curves for short-length hash codes are plotted in Fig.2. According these experimental results, we can observe that the performance of SRSRSH over the best competitor are significant. These results show that our SRSRSH can extract critical features from high-dimensional image data to mitigate information loss. Hence,

Table 4: The retrieval performance results (%) with different bits on the Caltech-256 dataset. The best values are shown in bold.

| Method | mAP | | | | | Precision@50 | | | | | NDCG@100 | | | | |
|------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 8 | 16 | 32 | 48 | 64 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 48 | 64 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 48 | 64 |
| SDH [31] | 3.53 | 29.21 | 35.91 | 41.00 | 44.76 | 3.54 | 39.90 | 49.31 | 54.67 | 58.44 | 3.64 | 34.48 | 42.31 | 47.31 | 51.04 |
| FSDH [9] | 14.93 | 29.14 | 39.60 | 44.69 | 47.58 | 18.72 | 40.10 | 53.48 | 58.38 | 61.02 | 18.90 | 35.05 | 46.13 | 50.89 | 53.70 |
| FSSH [25] | 19.69 | 40.53 | 52.96 | 58.58 | 63.09 | 18.74 | 38.37 | 50.51 | 56.01 | 60.20 | 18.63 | 38.61 | 50.72 | 56.20 | 60.41 |
| SSLH [23] | 7.25 | 9.29 | 9.73 | 10.25 | 12.90 | 7.87 | 10.56 | 11.32 | 12.68 | 15.69 | 7.87 | 10.59 | 11.15 | 12.02 | 15.03 |
| RSLH [22] | 14.25 | 20.89 | 43.44 | 50.33 | 53.26 | 10.94 | 30.69 | 30.25 | 35.32 | 38.33 | 14.20 | 26.34 | 36.76 | 42.39 | 45.42 |
| SCDH [5] | 25.92 | 36.88 | 55.65 | 60.93 | 63.55 | 24.54 | 34.72 | 53.44 | 58.28 | 60.96 | 24.62 | 34.75 | 53.54 | 58.48 | 61.13 |
| POPSH [46] | 27.86 | 51.86 | 62.25 | 68.67 | 69.80 | 26.24 | 49.80 | 59.91 | 66.17 | 66.70 | 26.67 | 50.06 | 60.04 | 66.27 | 66.89 |
| OLGH [45] | 25.69 | 47.77 | 60.12 | 62.67 | 62.00 | 24.09 | 45.80 | 58.58 | 62.19 | 62.87 | 24.53 | 45.99 | 58.21 | 61.37 | 61.22 |
| SASH [34] | 12.52 | 21.31 | 26.60 | 31.38 | 33.79 | 15.05 | 27.72 | 35.25 | 41.62 | 44.63 | 14.72 | 25.54 | 31.40 | 36.51 | 39.34 |
| LBSE[21] | 30.97 | 52.88 | 65.27 | 70.67 | 71.99 | 29.72 | 50.90 | 63.31 | 68.47 | 69.40 | 29.16 | 51.96 | 63.48 | 68.66 | 69.63 |
| Our SRSH | 33.45 | 54.35 | 66.52 | 71.42 | 73.20 | 32.05 | 52.63 | 64.39 | 69.41 | 71.00 | 32.46 | 52.81 | 64.65 | 69.52 | 71.18 |

**Figure 2: The precision–recall curves of all methods for short-length hash codes on the four datasets****Figure 3: Convergence curves and mAP curves of SRSH with short-length hash codes on four datasets.**

the proposed SRSH can obtain the better performance under short-length hash codes. Generally, according to precision-recall curves, the effectiveness of SRSH is further demonstrated, which is consistent with other three evaluation protocols.

4.8 Training Time

The time cost of image hashing main depends on the training step. On the NUS-WIDE, we record the training time of these baselines with different hash lengths in table 5. From the results, the proposed SRSH obtains acceptable training time that is scalable for large-scale data. Especially, for short-length hash codes, SRSH gets the second lowest training time. With the hash length increases, the training time also grows. Clearly, short-length hash codes can reduce more

time cost. For short hashing methods (*i.e.*, SSLH and RSLH), they need more training time due to learning hash codes bit by bit, and greatly improves dramatically as the length of bits increases. Since the similarity preserving hashing methods consume more training time to make similarity approximation, SCDH and SASH need more training time. Therefore, the training time further demonstrates the effectiveness of SRSH. In additional, SRSH also has very competitive retrieval performance. Clearly, SRSH enjoys more potential to handle large-scale image retrieval tasks in practical application.

4.9 Convergence Experiments

To show the convergence property of our SRSH, we draw the convergence curves and mAP curves with short-length hash codes

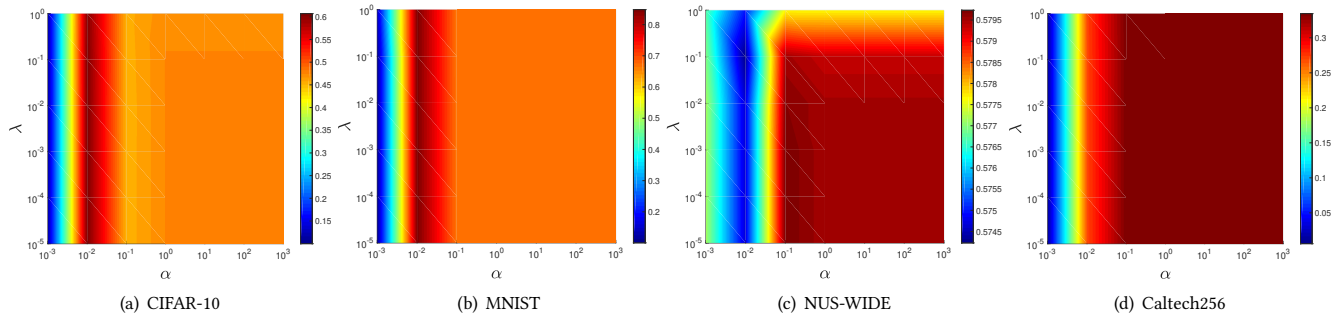


Figure 4: The sensitivities of hyper-parameters on mAP results with short-length hash codes on four datasets.

Table 5: The training time (seconds) with different bits on the NUS-WIDE dataset.

| Method | 5 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 |
|------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| SDH [31] | 15.35 | 16.76 | 22.46 | 46.91 | 142.05 |
| FSDH [9] | 14.59 | 14.78 | 15.08 | 16.21 | 18.35 |
| FSSH [25] | 8.52 | 8.61 | 8.72 | 9.17 | 9.89 |
| SSLH [23] | 10.03 | 13.85 | 39.04 | 87.79 | 262.82 |
| RSLH [22] | 108.23 | 126.69 | 160.34 | 164.12 | 233.57 |
| SCDH [5] | 19.87 | 20.34 | 22.67 | 26.77 | 79.24 |
| POPSH [46] | 2.51 | 2.72 | 2.78 | 2.86 | 5.97 |
| OLGH [45] | 6.76 | 7.42 | 7.54 | 8.16 | 9.62 |
| SASH [34] | 3469.75 | 3558.76 | 4501.92 | 6699.52 | 7724.92 |
| LBSE[21] | 24.1 | 25.97 | 16.7 | 20.24 | 24.75 |
| Our SRSH | 6.96 | 6.99 | 7.47 | 14.4 | 47.45 |

Table 6: Ablation results (mAP: %) on the CIFAR-10.

| Methods | 4 | 8 | 16 | 32 | 64 |
|---------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| SRSH-1 | 60.65 | 64.93 | 68.11 | 72.94 | 72.31 |
| SRSH-2 | 45.36 | 63.19 | 69.39 | 70.82 | 72.67 |
| SRSH-3 | 50.34 | 63.78 | 45.56 | 25.05 | 18.11 |
| SRSH-4 | 28.72 | 31.98 | 41.12 | 45.23 | 46.84 |
| SRSH | 60.65 | 64.93 | 68.11 | 73.24 | 73.47 |

on the four datasets. As shown in Fig.3, the objective values are monotonically reduced close to a fixed value after a few iterations (about five iterations). Moreover, we can find that the mAP curves gradually increase until the mAP results become stable. Hence, we can set the number of iterations as five.

4.10 Parameter Sensitivity Analysis

Our SRSH involves two trade-off parameters to be set properly, *i.e.*, α and λ . To observe the stability, we perform grid search experiments with different parameter settings to obtain the optimum performance for short-length hash codes. Specifically, we first vary parameter α in $[10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, \dots, 10^3]$ and λ in $[10^{-5}, 10^{-4}, \dots, 1]$, respectively. As shown in Fig.4, we can observe our SRSH works well within a wide range of α and λ . Hence, the results indicate our SRSH is insensitive to the two trade-off parameters.

4.11 Ablation Analysis

We perform ablation analysis on the CIFAR-10 to show the effect of the three-step coupled refinement strategy. Our method has four variations, *i.e.*, SRSH-1, SRSH-2, SRSH-3, and SRSH-4. Thereinto, SRSH-1 preserves three-layer hash function and removes the regularization term about the hash function. SRSH-2 and SRSH-3 preserves two-layer hash function. They remove the third and second level hash function, respectively. SRSH-4 represents the model with only single hash function. The mAP scores of SRSH and its variations are shown in table 6. We can see that SRSH obtains the best mAP with different lengths of hash codes, especially, the short-length hash codes. In general, the results shows the three-step coupled strategy with constraints from loose to strict can stepwise learn fine hash codes to mitigate large information loss caused by dimensional avalanches.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a novel stepwise refinement short hashing (SRSH) for image retrieval, which can refine critical features from high-dimensional image data to learn discriminative short-length hash codes. For the first time, in order to alleviate the information loss caused by the avalanche of dimension truncation, we propose a three-step coupled refinement strategy to identify stronger features by learning a richer set of projections and shrink the discrete solution space to obtain coarse and fine hash codes. To inherit intrinsic semantic structure, we further preserve the similarity of original space between coarse and fine hash codes. Comprehensive experimental results on four large-scale datasets demonstrate the effectiveness, superiority, and efficiency of our SRSH.

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