
Intermediate Domain Alignment and Morphology Analogy for Patent-Product Image Retrieval

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Abstract

Recent advances in artificial intelligence have significantly impacted image retrieval tasks, yet Patent-Product Image Retrieval (PPIR) has received limited attention. PPIR, which retrieves patent images based on product images to identify potential infringements, presents unique challenges: (1) both product and patent images often contain numerous categories of artificial objects, but models pre-trained on standard datasets exhibit limited discriminative power to recognize some of those unseen objects; and (2) the significant domain gap between binary patent line drawings and colorful RGB product images further complicates similarity comparisons for product-patent pairs. To address these challenges, we formulate it as an open-set image retrieval task and introduce a comprehensive Patent-Product Image Retrieval Dataset (PPIRD) including a test set with 439 product-patent pairs, a retrieval pool of 727,921 patents, and an unlabeled pre-training set of 3,799,695 images. We further propose a novel Intermediate Domain Alignment and Morphology Analogy (IDAMA) strategy. IDAMA maps both image types to an intermediate sketch domain using edge detection to minimize the domain discrepancy, and employs a Morphology Analogy Filter to select discriminative patent images based on visual features via analogical reasoning. Extensive experiments on PPIRD demonstrate that IDAMA significantly outperforms baseline methods (+7.58 mAR) and offers valuable insights into domain mapping and representation learning for PPIR. (The PPIRD dataset is available at: <https://loslorien.github.io/idama-project/>)

1 Introduction

Patent systems play a critical role in protecting intellectual property and fostering innovation. The rapid advancement of artificial intelligence (AI) has revolutionized numerous domains, including patent retrieval [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]. Specifically, in the NLP area, significant progress has been made in both patent-patent retrieval [1, 2] and patent-product retrieval [3, 4], leveraging textual descriptions to identify similarities and potential infringements. In contrast, the CV community has primarily focused on patent-patent retrieval [5], leaving Patent-Product Image Retrieval (PPIR) unexplored. Considering the increasing complexity of e-commerce platforms (a product may have an incomplete, confusing name or descriptions, but its images are always clear) and the critical need to detect patent infringements efficiently, there is an urgent demand for research on PPIR.

PPIR faces two primary challenges: 1) product and patent images often contain numerous categories (more than 250,000) of artificial objects, such as mechanical parts or electronic devices, but most

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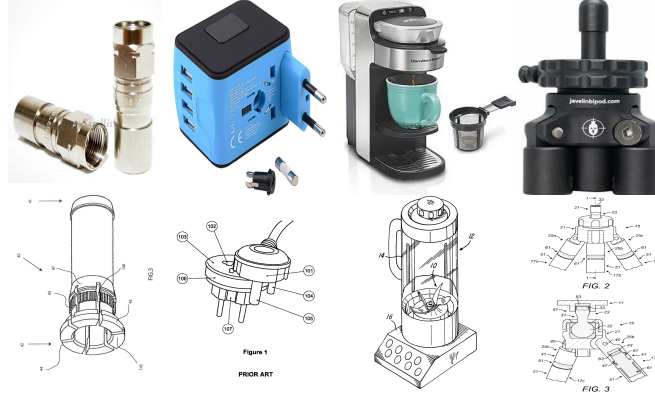


Figure 1: **Characteristics of Patent-Product Image Retrieval (PPIR) task:** (Upper: Product Images, Lower: Patent Images) 1) PPIR task has large-scale artificial categories, which are significantly different from those in general vision datasets; 2) Patent binary line-drawings images and Product colorful RGB images have huge domain gap, casting negative effect for PPIR tasks.

of these categories are distinct from those in general pre-training datasets like ImageNet [6]. 2) There is a significant domain gap between patent images (typically binary line drawings) and product images (typically colorful RGB images). This domain discrepancy further exacerbates the difficulty of accurate retrieval. (See Fig. 1 for details.)

Due to the unique characteristics of PPIR, existing general image retrieval methods [7] exhibit suboptimal performance for two reasons: 1) General image retrieval approaches often struggle to discriminate a large number of unseen artificial-category objects, which makes it challenging to grasp distinctive visual features of patents/products for accurate retrieval; 2) The domain gap causes distribution shift for specific categories, which further aggravate the retrieval performance, especially for some similar artificial objects.

We formulate PPIR as an open-set image retrieval task to simulate real-world scenarios. Moreover, to address the lack of suitable data for PPIR, we introduce the Patent-Product Image Retrieval Dataset (PPIRD), a large-scale dataset designed to facilitate research in this area. PPIRD comprises two components: (1) a testing set containing 439 product-patent pairs alongside a retrieval pool of 727,921 patent images and (2) an unlabeled pre-training set with 3,799,695 product/patent images. We offer highly detailed product descriptions for each product and the corresponding potential patent infringement pair to verify potential patent-patent infringement. (The extremely detailed information required and the difficulties of ascertaining potential patent-patent infringement both limit the scale of the infringed product-patent pair.)

Furthermore, we propose an extremely simple but effective Intermediate Domain Alignment and Morphology Analogy (IDAMA) strategy for PPIR. IDAMA contains an Intermediate Domain Mapping (IDM) strategy and a Morphology Analogy Filter (MAF) strategy: 1) IDM aligns binary line drawing patent images and colorful RGB product images by mapping them into an intermediate sketch domain using an edge detector. We provide a theoretical analysis to prove that this alignment effectively mitigates the domain discrepancy, enabling more accurate retrieval. 2) MAF leverages a cognitive principle of morphology analogy. An unknown object can be described by analogy to a known object—by using high classification confidence (regardless of the label) to select a discriminative image for artificial patent images for retrieval similarity comparison. By selecting discriminative images for unseen artificial patents, MAF can grasp distinctive visual features of the patents for PPIR.

Experiments on PPIRD demonstrate that IDAMA achieves significant improvements over baseline methods (+7.58 mAR), proving the effectiveness of IDM and MAF in addressing the unique challenges of PPIR. Furthermore, we systematically compare various domain alignment and representation learning methods on PPIRD, providing insights into their strengths and limitations in coping with unseen artificial objects in cross-domain scenarios. These findings offer valuable guidance for future research in PPIR and related areas.

In summary, this work makes three key contributions:

1. We formulate PPIR as an open-set image retrieval task and introduce PPIRD, a large-scale dataset for Patent-Product Image Retrieval;
2. We propose IDAMA, a novel strategy that combines intermediate domain alignment and morphology analogy to address challenges of PPIR; We further provide theoretical analysis to demonstrate the advances of intermediate domain alignment via compressive sensing.
3. We comprehensively evaluate domain alignment and representation learning methods, providing insights for efficient cross-domain learning.

2 Related Works

2.1 Image-based Patent/Sketch Datasets and Benchmarks

The availability of large-scale, well-structured datasets is essential for advancing AI research in patent analysis. [8] presented *PatentMatch*, a dataset specifically created for matching patent claims with prior art, facilitating studies in patent infringement detection and novelty assessment. For image-focused research, [5] developed *DeepPatent*, a large-scale benchmarking corpus aimed at patent drawing recognition and retrieval. [9] extended this work with *DeepPatent2*, focusing on technical drawing understanding. [10] introduced the Harvard USPTO Patent Dataset, a comprehensive corpus of patent applications designed to support diverse AI research tasks. However, the research on image-based patent retrieval mainly focuses on image retrieval between patents and solving patent infringement problems. Product infringement detection and corresponding patent-product image retrieval (PPIR) are under-explored. This paper introduces a large-scale patent-product image retrieval dataset to satisfy the requirements.

On the other hand, Im4Sketch [11] proposes a large-scale natural RGB/sketch image retrieval dataset together with a method to address the RGB-sketch retrieval challenges. However, the images of Im4Sketch dataset are collected from ImageNet-1K [6] and adopt the closed-set image retrieval formulation, which exists two main differences from PPIR task: 1) PPIR contains large-scale artificial categories that do not exist in ImageNet-1K. 2) The huge amounts of artificial categories and the continuously appearing products make PPIR not suitable to be formulated as a closed-set image retrieval task.

2.2 Patent Retrieval in NLP areas

The analysis and retrieval of patents have been pivotal research areas in the application of artificial intelligence (AI) across multiple domains, including classification and retrieval [12, 13]. Accurate patent classification is critical for efficiently organizing and accessing patent information. Several studies have explored AI-driven methods to automate patent classification, with notable contributions from [14, 15, 16, 17]. These works investigate using machine learning models to handle the complexity of patent data. For example, [18] examined the potential of AI in solving the patent classification problem, analyzing various machine learning models and their effectiveness in handling the diverse and intricate nature of patent data.

In patent retrieval, AI techniques have been widely used to enhance the accuracy and efficiency of retrieving relevant patents. Traditional text-based methods have seen significant advancements by applying deep learning models. [1] proposed an advanced patent prior art search method using deep learning, which relies on semantic embeddings to capture the contextual meaning of patent documents, offering improvements over keyword-based retrieval systems. Similarly, [19] integrated text embeddings with knowledge graph embeddings to further refine patent retrieval, highlighting the importance of external knowledge sources in improving search performance. More recently, [20] explored the use of large language models (LLMs) [21, 22] for patent retrieval, demonstrating their potential to improve retrieval accuracy. To satisfy the real-world requirements of product infringement detection, [23, 14, 15, 16, 17, 10] propose and explore patent-product retrieval. Patent-product retrieval is formulated as an unsupervised retrieval task to satisfy the continuously emerging new products.

In summary, the formulation of patent retrieval in NLP areas has developed from classification or supervised retrieval to open-set unsupervised retrieval using a retrieval pool. Considering that open-set unsupervised retrieval from a retrieval pool is closer to real-world scenarios, which can

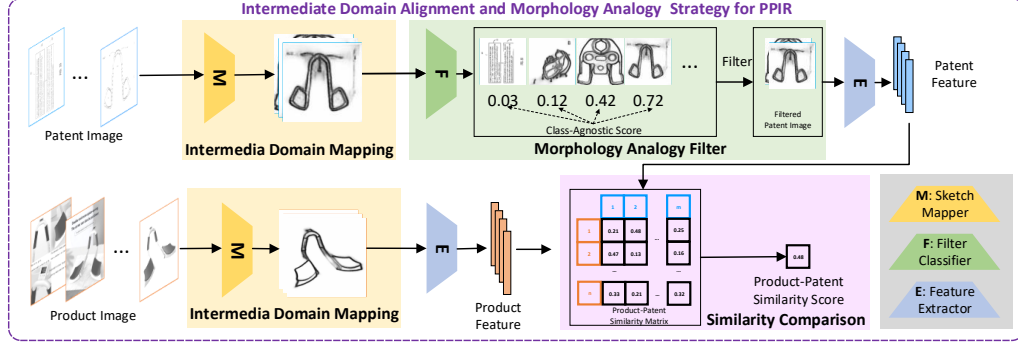


Figure 2: **Pipeline of IDAMA:** IDAMA consists of Intermediate Domain Mapping and Morphology Analogy Filter methods. The pipeline of IDAMA is as follows: 1) Using IDM to align product/patent images by mapping them into intermediate sketch domains; 2) Using MAF to filter discriminative mapped patent images; 3) Comparing product-patent similarity by obtaining product-patent similarity score from product-patent similarity matrix between filtered patent images and mapped product images for infringement detection.

address the issue of conducting infringement detection for continuously emerging products, the proposed PPIR tasks also adopt such formulations to satisfy real-world requirements.

2.3 Patent Retrieval with Images

Patent images often include technical drawings and diagrams, and image retrieval in this domain has emerged as an important area of study. [3] focused on improving the quality of convolutional neural network (CNN) [24] training datasets for patent image retrieval, emphasizing the importance of dataset quality in model performance. Building on this, [4] introduced methods using cross-entropy-based metric learning to enhance the accuracy of patent image retrieval systems. In another study, [2] proposed transformer-based deep metric learning for patent image retrieval, showcasing the effectiveness of transformer architectures in this domain. Some works achieve pure patent retrieval by transferring the binary line-draw patent images [25, 26, 27] into sketches to enhance performance.

However, the huge domain gap between patent binary line-drawing images and product colorful RGB images makes it extremely challenging for unsupervised open-set PPIR compared to patent retrieval tasks. Although there are some works that aims to address the domain gap [28, 29, 30, 31, 32], especially in cross-domain image retrieval [33, 34]. However, these methods usually focus on close-set with options rather than the challenging open-world setting. Therefore, this paper proposes domain mapping methods to bridge the domain gaps between patent and product through an intermediate domain to alleviate the challenges.

3 Methodology

The Intermediate Domain Alignment and Morphology Analogy (IDAMA) strategy for PPIR consists of Intermediate Domain Mapping (IDM) (Sec. 3.1) and Morphology Analogy Filter (MAF) (Sec. 3.2). We also prove a brief for IDM’s effectiveness (Sec. 3.3). The pipeline of IDAMA is demonstrated in Fig. 2: 1) Using IDM to align product/patent images by mapping them into intermediate sketch domains; 2) Using MAF to filter discriminative mapped patent images; 3) Comparing product-patent similarity by obtaining product-patent similarity score from product-patent similarity matrix between filtered patent images and mapped product images for infringement detection.

3.1 Intermediate Domain Mapping

The PPIR faces a primary challenge: the domain gap [35, 36, 37] between product and patent images. Specifically, product images are RGB images containing rich color, texture, and other information [38], while patent images are binary line drawings that abstractly represent products [39, 40]. Resolving the domain gaps between product and patent images thus becomes our primary task.

To address the challenge, we propose the Intermediate Domain Mapping (IDM) (See Fig. 2 for details) to align binary drawings, patent images, and colorful RGB product images by mapping both of them to the intermediate sketch domain.

Specifically, we denote a sketch mapper as $M_{\text{sketch}}(\cdot)$ [41], which can map both product images I_r and patent images I_p to the intermediate sketch domain. In the PPIR process, IDM for PPIR first maps raw product images I_r and patent images I_p to the intermediate sketch domain and obtains mapped sketch images I'_r and I'_p , which can be expressed as:

$$I'_r = M_{\text{sketch}}(I_r), \quad (1)$$

$$I'_p = M_{\text{sketch}}(I_p). \quad (2)$$

With the above-defined sketch-based intermediate domain mapping method, we can mitigate the domain gap between patents and products. Analysis in Fig. 4 further confirms the effectiveness of our process.

3.2 Morphology Analogy Filter

PPIRD needs to handle a large number of unseen man-made objects. Because general pretraining datasets contain limited man-made categories, extracting features with backbones pre-trained on these datasets is less discriminative for efficient product-patent retrieval.

To overcome the challenge, we observe how human beings grasp the distinct visual feature of an unseen object: human beings analogize the morphological feature of the unseen object to some familiar objects [42]. By doing this, even those who do not see the object can recognize the object through the morphology analogy. Inspired by this cognitive principle, we propose a Morphology Analogy Filter (MAF) for filtering patent images before mapping to the edge domain.

Specifically, given a Filter F (a classification network) and mapped patent images I_p , MAF first obtain the classification vector c_p by

$$c_p = F(I_p) \quad (3)$$

Then, MAF obtains discriminative patents I_{pd} image using the max classification scores regardless of the label itself (class-agnostic scores), which can be expressed as:

$$I_{pd} = \text{argwhere}(\text{argmax}(c_{p_j}) > \tau_{maf}) \quad (4)$$

where c_{p_j} is the classification score in c_p and τ_{maf} is the MAF threshold. If all the image classification scores are less than τ_{maf} , we preserve the image of max c_{p_j} for the patent.

We only conduct MAF for patent images as follows: The motivation of PPIR is to discover whether a product infringes any patent. Each image contains valuable visual features. It'd be better to follow the 'Better to have more than to miss out' philosophy for products. Because morphology similarity may indicate potential infringement for patent images, it'd be better to follow the rule 'Better to have less than to have something of poor quality' to select distance visual features of patents to avoid the negative influence. Therefore, we only conduct MAF for patent images.

Similarity Comparison: Then, a feature extractor $E(\cdot)$ are adopted to extract feature f_r and f_p from I_r and I_{pd} :

$$f'_r = E(\cdot)(I_r) \quad (5)$$

$$f'_p = E(\cdot)(I_{pd}) \quad (6)$$

After obtaining the intermediate sketch-domain feature f'_r and f'_p , PPIRD calculates the cosine similarity score for them to conduct PPIR:

$$s'_{r,p} = \text{sim}(f'_r, f'_p) \quad (7)$$

where $\text{sim}(\cdot)$ denotes the cosine similarity function.

For PPIR tasks, each patent p and product r may contain more than one image, which can be expressed as $r = \{I_{p1}, I_{p2}, \dots\}$ and $p = \{I_{r1}, I_{r2}, \dots\}$. IDM uses a maximum of image-level similarity scores (formulating product-patent similarity matrix) in the intermediate domain as product-patent similarity score $s_{p,r}$:

$$s_{p,r} = \max(s'_{r1,p1}, s'_{r1,p2}, \dots, s'_{r2,p2}, \dots) \quad (8)$$

IDM for PPIR compares each product r with all the patents in the retrieval pools, denoted as $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$, obtains their similarity score set, denoted as $S_r = \{s_{p_1, r}, s_{p_2, r}, \dots\}$, and then sort S_r for patent-product retrieval.

3.3 Understanding Intermediate Domain Mapping via Compressive Sensing

Preliminaries. Let $I \in \mathbb{R}^n$ denote a vectorised image that can be decomposed as

$$I = s + \eta, \quad (9)$$

where s encodes the geometrical structure (edges, contours) while the term η contains texture, colour and background clutter. The mapper M used in intermediate domain mapping (IDM) has a linear front-end $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $m \ll n$, whose entries are i.i.d. $\mathcal{N}(0, 1/m)$ random variables. Such a matrix acts as a Johnson–Lindenstrauss embedding and, with overwhelming probability, satisfies the Restricted Isometry Property (RIP) required by compressed-sensing theory [43, 44, 45, 46, 47].

Model assumptions. 1) s is k -sparse in a known orthonormal basis Ψ ; 2) the embedding dimension obeys $m \geq Ck \log(n/k)$ for a universal constant $C > 0$; 3) the backbone network E is L -Lipschitz, i.e. $\|E(x) - E(y)\|_2 \leq L\|x - y\|_2$ for all x, y (see, e.g., [48, 49]).

Definition 1 (Restricted Isometry Property [50]). *A matrix $\mathbf{A}$ satisfies $\text{RIP}(2k, \delta)$ if, for every $2k$ -sparse vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,*

$$(1 - \delta) \|x\|_2^2 \leq \|\mathbf{A}x\|_2^2 \leq (1 + \delta) \|x\|_2^2. \quad (10)$$

Claim 2 (Distance preservation). *Consider a patent-product pair (I_p, I_{pr}) whose structural components s_p, s_{pr} satisfy $\|s_p - s_{pr}\|_2 \leq \varepsilon$. If $\mathbf{A}$ fulfils $\text{RIP}(2k, \delta)$, then*

$$\|\mathbf{A}s_p - \mathbf{A}s_{pr}\|_2 \leq (1 + \delta) \varepsilon. \quad (11)$$

Theorem 1 (IDM feature-space contraction). *Under Assumptions 1–3 and Definition 1, the feature distance of the mapped images satisfies*

$$\|\tilde{z}_p - \tilde{z}_{pr}\|_2 \leq L((1 + \delta)\varepsilon + \frac{m}{n}(\|\eta_p\|_2 + \|\eta_{pr}\|_2)), \quad (12)$$

where $\tilde{z}_p = E(\mathbf{A}I_p)$ and $\tilde{z}_{pr} = E(\mathbf{A}I_{pr})$.

Remark 3. *Because $m \ll n$, the nuisance term is suppressed by the factor m/n , whereas the structural term is almost isometrically preserved by RIP. Consequently, with high probability, $\|\tilde{z}_p - \tilde{z}_{pr}\|_2 \ll \|z_p - z_{pr}\|_2$, which explains the empirical robustness of Intermediate Domain Mapping.*

The proofs of Claim 2 and Theorem 1 are deferred to Appendix A.

4 Experiments

4.1 PPIRD: A Patent-Product Image Retrieval Dataset

Retrieving patents for infringing products is complex and time-consuming, heavily relying on patent experts to search massive patent databases to identify potential infringing patents [13]. This reliance makes it challenging to obtain a large-scale paired dataset of product-patent images to train models in a supervised manner. To address the challenge, we propose PPIRD, consisting of PPIRD-testing and PPIRD-unlabeled, and formulates it as a retrieval task. To the best of knowledge, we provide the first benchmark for image-based patent-product retrieval at near million data level.

PPIRD-testing set: The PPIRD-testing set contains 439 product-patent pairs and a retrieval pool of 727,921 patent images. Experts annotate and validate the product-patent infringement pairs (Expert can refer the detailed descriptions of 439 products for more accurate validation). For the infringing patents, we use Google Patents to search 9,999 patents for each product (using their name as a keyword) and download their patent images to formulate a retrieval pool. We formulate PPIRD-testing as product-patent-level retrieval rather than image-level retrieval like DeepPatent [5] to simulate real-world scenarios better.

The formulation of PPIRD-testing is as follows: let the product dataset be D_r and the patent dataset be D_p . For a product x_i from the product dataset D_r , we aim to find its corresponding patent y_j in

Table 1: **Quantitative Results of IDAMA:** 1) IDAMA can bring significant performance enhancement compared with baseline methods, and both IDM and MAF can contribute to the improvement. 2) Comparison between DeepPatent [5] and MAF (‘IDM+DeepPatent’ and ‘IDAMA’) proves the intuitive idea of MAF can bring more performance enhancement even without extra pre-training. 3) Comparison between UCDIR [33] and UCDIR+IDM/IDAMA also demonstrates that our method can consistently boosts the performance. 4) Contrastive Learning (‘IBOT’) may be more suitable for PPIR in intermediate sketch domain.

Method	Backbone	Pre-train	mAR	R@100	R@500	R@1000	R@2000
Product-Patent	ResNet-18	Supervised	13.50	1.59	11.62	14.12	26.65
IDM	ResNet-18	Supervised	21.70	3.42	14.12	26.20	43.05
IDM+DeepPatent	ResNet-18	Supervised	21.98	3.19	13.90	25.74	45.10
IDAMA	ResNet-18	Supervised	22.84	4.10	15.03	26.42	45.79
Product-Patent	ResNet-50	Supervised	<u>18.05</u>	2.73	13.90	19.82	35.76
UCDIR	ResNet-50	UCDIR	18.64	2.87	14.03	20.17	35.81
UCDIR+IDM	ResNet-50	UCDIR	24.94	4.96	18.13	28.42	46.91
UCDIR+IDAMA	ResNet-50	UCDIR	25.36	5.31	18.47	28.97	47.28
IDM	ResNet-50	Supervised	25.06	5.24	18.45	28.93	47.61
IDM+DeepPatent	ResNet-50	Supervised	25.12	5.47	18.68	28.25	48.06
IDAMA	ResNet-50	Supervised	<u>25.63 (+7.58)</u>	5.47	19.13	29.84	48.06
IDAMA	Swin-B	Supervised	26.20	6.38	19.36	29.84	49.20
IDAMA	ViT-B	Supervised	26.43	6.83	20.05	30.30	48.52
IDAMA	Swin-L	Supervised	28.02	7.52	22.32	33.94	48.29
IDM	ViT-L	Supervised	26.99	6.83	22.55	31.44	47.15
IDAMA	ViT-L	Supervised	28.30	7.97	23.23	33.48	48.52
IDAMA	ViT-L	MAE [52]	23.35	5.24	17.31	28.02	42.82
IDAMA	ViT-L	IBOT [53]	31.61	9.34	28.02	36.21	52.85

the patent dataset D_p . We represent the labels as the correspondence between infringing products and patent images, forming a set $R = \{(x_i, y_{ij}) \mid i = 1, \dots, I = 439\}$. This work collected 439 product-patent image pairs to evaluate product-patent retrieval.

Evaluation metrics: Given the unsupervised formulation of PPIR tasks, we assess the retrieval performance by calculating the cosine similarity between patent and product image features. In PPIR tasks, one product or patent may contain more than one image, and choose to use the average similarity of all the product-image and patent-image pairs of the product or patent to denote the retrieval similarity in this pair. Moreover, PPIR contains 1-to-N situations, indicating that one product may infringe several patents, and we regard retrieving at least one patent as a successful retrieval.

We sort the patents in the retrieval pool according to their similarity scores and two metrics to systemically evaluate PPIR performance [51]: the mean Average Recall (mAR) and top-k recall at specific thresholds ($k = 100, 500, 1000, 2000$) (R@K) for each patent-product pair. mAR calculates the average recall rate of different top-k thresholds. AR considers the PPIR performance of different thresholds and can reflect the overall PPIR performance among other difficulties. Considering the 1-to-N matching situations, we use recall metric for evaluation. The R@K can demonstrate the model discrimination capability in specific scenarios.

4.2 Pre-training in Intermediate Domain

The capability of feature extractor $E_{(\cdot)}(\cdot)$ can seriously influence PPIR performance. Therefore, pre-training in the intermediate sketch-image domain may contribute to enhancing the representation and discrimination capability of the model, obtaining $E_{\text{sketch}}(\cdot)$ and improving PPIR performance. In this section, We compare the performance between supervised and unsupervised methods for feature learning in the intermediate domain. In this section, all the images, including images of both PPIRD-unlabeled $\mathcal{D}_{\text{unlabeled}}$ and ImageNet $\mathcal{D}_{\text{ImageNet}}$, are mapped to the intermediate domain using $M_{\text{sketch}}(\cdot)$ to extract sketch images for pre-training:

$$I'_{pre} = M_{\text{sketch}}(I_{pre}), \quad \forall I_{pre} \in \mathcal{D}_{\text{unlabeled}}, \mathcal{D}_{\text{ImageNet}}, \quad (13)$$

where I'_{pre} and I_{pre} denote the images of intermediate and raw domains, respectively.

Unsupervised Pre-training: Unsupervised pre-training has played a significant role in computer vision recently [54, 53, 55, 56, 57, 58, 52], enabling efficient visual representation encoders without

Table 2: **Quantitative Results of different domain mapping methods:** Compared with other mapping methods, IDM (‘Product(Edge)-Patent(Edge)’) is the more suitable mapping method for PPIRD and can bring more performance enhancement.

Method	mAR	R@100	R@500	R@1000	R@2000
Product-Patent	18.05	2.73	13.90	19.82	35.76
Product-Patent (Colorized by [27])	20.44	3.19	15.49	23.01	40.09
Product (Binary Line)-Patent	22.67	3.64	17.77	25.51	43.74
Product (Edge)-Patent	23.80	4.33	18.45	27.33	45.10
Product (Edge)-Patent (Edge)	25.63	5.47	19.13	29.84	48.06

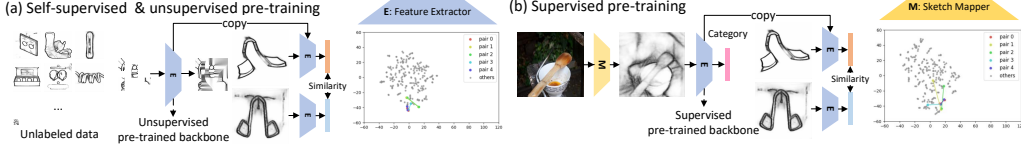


Figure 3: Comparison between self-/unsupervised pretraining and supervised pretraining strategies. **Subplot (a):** self-/unsupervised contrastive learning method ‘IBOT’ pre-trained on PPIRD-unlabeled, **Subplot (b):** Supervised pretraining on ImageNet1k-Edge. Matched product-patent image pairs are depicted using the same color. The visualization demonstrates that the unsupervised pretraining method effectively brings matched pairs closer in the feature space, enhancing their alignment.

the need for labeled training data. We utilize unsupervised pre-training methods of both Masked Image Modeling (MAE [52]) and Contrastive Learning (IBOT [53]) to obtain feature encoders for the intermediate domain by minimizing the unsupervised loss function $\mathcal{L}_{\text{unsup}}$:

$$\min_E \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}_{\text{unsup}}(E(I'_{pre})), \quad (14)$$

where $E(\cdot)$ is the feature extractor and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{unsup}}$ is the unsupervised loss function specific to the pre-training method used. Images of PPIRD-unlabeled $D_{\text{unlabeled}}$ are used for unsupervised pre-training.

Supervised Pre-training: According to the conclusion of [59], supervised pre-training may be more suitable for learning representative and distinguishable features in the intermediate sketch-image domain due to the sparsity of this domain. Specifically, *Masked Image Modeling* or *Contrastive learning* may be challenging to reconstruct those large blank areas or discriminate blank areas from others, hindering the model’s ability to learn representative and distinguishable feature representations. Considering this possibility, we conduct a simple yet effective supervised pre-training method by mapping the images in ImageNet and using the mapped well-annotated data for backbone pre-training. Based on these mapped sketch images, we train a classifier to obtain feature extractor $E(\cdot)$ using the original labels of these images. The training objective is to minimize the cross-entropy loss:

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_i y_i \log \hat{y}_i, \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{y}_i = \text{softmax}(F(I_{\text{sketch},i})), \quad (15)$$

where y_i is the ground truth label, and I'_{sketch} is the sketch images. The advantage of this approach is that our sketch feature extractor has an explicit learning objective and does not rely on negative samples in contrastive learning or masks in self-supervised learning. This endows feature extractor with excellent discriminative ability. More implemental details are provided in Sec. B.

4.3 Main Results

We compare IDAMA with raw ResNet [60] (denoted as ‘Product-Patent’) and the current SOTA patent retrieval method DeepPatent [5]. For a fair comparison, we add IDM before DeepPatent [5] since it is designed for patent image retrieval. Tab. 1 demonstrates the quantitative results on PPIRD. As is shown, IDAMA can bring significant performance enhancement compared with baseline methods, and both IDM and MAF can contribute to the improvement.

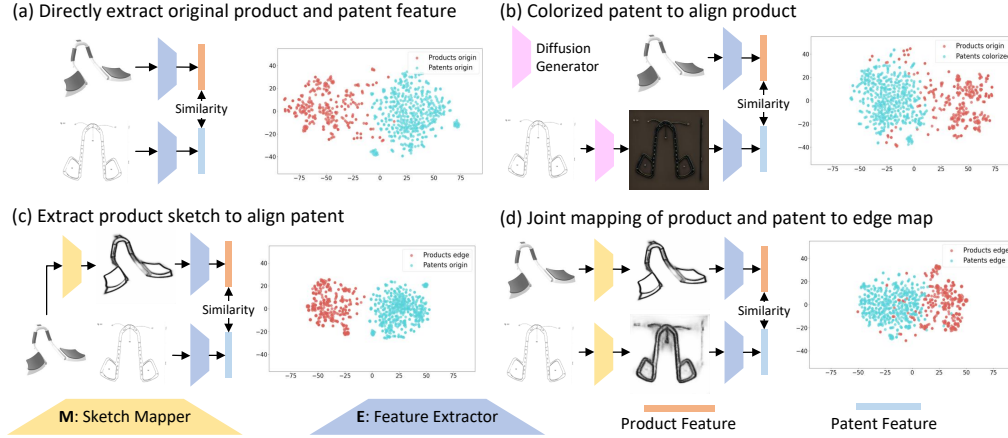


Figure 4: t-SNE results for different domain mapping methods: (a) *Product-Patent*: Directly extract original product and patent feature; (b) *Product-Patent (Colorized)*: Colorized patent to align product; (c) *Product (Binary Line)-Patent*: Extract product edge to align patent; (d) *IDM*: Extract both product images and patent images to sketch images. In each subplot, closer interleaving of the two colored points indicates a greater reduction in the domain gap, indicating better patent/product image alignment. IDM can best achieve the goal.

Comparison with DeepPatent: The comparison with DeepPatent [5] proves that PPIR (product-patent level retrieval) is quite different from Patent Image Retrieval (image level retrieval) tasks. PPIR is more challenging because the product and the patent are not the same object. When comparing DeepPatent with MAF (‘IDM+DeepPatent’ and ‘IDAMA’ in Tab. 1), though the idea of MAF is more intuitive and even without requiring extra pre-training, it brings more performance enhancement, indicating the importance of integrating human beings’ philosophy for challenging tasks.

Comparison of Different Pre-training methods: When comparing with different types of pre-training methods, the contrastive learning methods (‘IBOT’ in Tab. 1) may be the most suitable pre-training methods for PPIR tasks. We can notice that Masked Image Modeling methods (‘MAE’ in Tab. 1) perform worse than supervised learning, indicating these methods may not be suitable for such sketch domain lack of texture or color information. Fig. 3 reaches similar conclusion.

4.4 Comparison with Other Domain Mapping Approach

We compare IDM with some naive domain mapping approaches for PPIR:

Mapping colorful RGB product images into binary line drawings through Edge Detection (denoted as ‘Product(Binary Line)-Patent’): We employ an Edge Detection Mapper $M_{\text{edge}}(\cdot)$ to extract edge from product images I_r , converting them into line drawings $I_{re} = M_{\text{edge}}(I_r)$. The advantage of this method is its computational efficiency and ease of implementation. However, the accuracy of the edge feature extraction algorithm is heavily dependent on it. Under varying lighting and texture conditions, the extracted edge maps from product images may exhibit discontinuities, affecting the performance of PPIR. Additionally, the feature extractor demonstrates in-robustness in extracting features from binary line-drawing images.

Converting patent images into RGB colorful images through diffusion (denoted as ‘Product-Patent (Colorized)’): Recently, generative models [61, 62, 63] have gained increasing attention, with many models capable of efficiently generating RGB images based on line drawings [25, 26, 27]. We utilize a generative model $M_{\text{colorize}}(\cdot)$ [25] to transform patent images into pseudo-product images, $I_{pg} = M_{\text{colorize}}(I_p)$. The advantage of this method is that the generated images are in RGB format, allowing direct use of feature encoders pre-trained on natural images for feature extraction. However, challenges include the high computational cost of generative models and the lack of specific domain knowledge, which leads to the color distribution and texture of generated images may differ substantially from natural images.

We conduct extensive evaluations of the above three approaches using ResNet-50 [60], pre-trained on ImageNet-1K [6] (or ImageNet-1K-Edge), for feature extraction. According to the t-SNE [64] results in Fig. 4, IDM (denoted as ‘Product (Edge)-Patent (Edge)’, mapping patent images and product images into the intermediate sketch domain) is the best method to align patent/product images and alleviate the negative effects of domain gaps. Tab. 2 reaches a similar conclusion. We also conduct experiments by only mapping product images to directly sketch and compare their similarity with patent images. Experiment result ‘Product (Edge)-Patent’ in Tab. 2 proves the domain matching method is suboptimal for the tasks, indicating a domain gap between sketch and binary line drawings.

5 Conclusion

In summary, we formulate Patent-Product Image Retrieval (PPIR) as an open-set image retrieval task and propose a large-scale Patent-Product Image Retrieval Dataset (PPIRD) comprising (1) a testing set with 439 product-patent pairs (annotated and validated by experts with detailed descriptions) and a retrieval pool of 727,921 patents, and (2) an unlabeled pre-training set with 3,799,695 product/patent images. We propose a novel Intermediate Domain Alignment and Morphology Analogy (IDAMA) strategy tailored for PPIR. IDAMA contains an Intermediate Domain Mapping method to align binary line drawing patent images and colorful RGB product images by mapping them into an intermediate sketch domain using an edge detector to effectively mitigate the domain discrepancy and a Morphology Analogy Filter to select discriminative patent images containing distinctive visual feature of patents for efficient similarity comparison (inspired the cognitive principle—an unknown object can be described by analogy to a known object (patent image with high classification score regardless of label)). Extensive experiments on PPIRD demonstrate that the intermediate domain is more suitable for aligning patent/product images and improving performance.

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A Proofs for Section 3.3

A.1 Proof of Claim 2

Let $x := s_p - s_{pr}$. By assumption, x is $2k$ -sparse and $\|x\|_2 \leq \varepsilon$. Because $\mathbf{A}$ satisfies $\text{RIP}(2k, \delta)$,

$$\|\mathbf{A}x\|_2 \leq \sqrt{1 + \delta} \|x\|_2 \leq (1 + \delta) \varepsilon. \quad (16)$$

Since $\mathbf{A}$ is linear, $\mathbf{A}x = \mathbf{A}s_p - \mathbf{A}s_{pr}$, which concludes the proof. $\square$

A.2 Proof of Theorem 1

Decompose each image as $I = s + \eta$ and observe

$$\mathbf{A}I_p - \mathbf{A}I_{pr} = (\mathbf{A}s_p - \mathbf{A}s_{pr}) + (\mathbf{A}\eta_p - \mathbf{A}\eta_{pr}). \quad (17)$$

Applying the backbone E and using its L -Lipschitz continuity [48],

$$\begin{aligned} \|\tilde{z}_p - \tilde{z}_{pr}\|_2 &= \|E(\mathbf{A}I_p) - E(\mathbf{A}I_{pr})\|_2 \\ &\leq L \|\mathbf{A}I_p - \mathbf{A}I_{pr}\|_2 \\ &\leq L(\|\mathbf{A}s_p - \mathbf{A}s_{pr}\|_2 + \|\mathbf{A}\eta_p\|_2 + \|\mathbf{A}\eta_{pr}\|_2). \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The first term is bounded by Claim 2. For the nuisance terms we appeal to the concentration of the χ^2 distribution of Gaussian projections [46, Thm. 7.5]: for any fixed vector η and all $t \in (0, 1)$,

$$\Pr\left(\left|\|\mathbf{A}\eta\|_2^2 - \frac{m}{n}\|\eta\|_2^2\right| \geq t \frac{m}{n}\|\eta\|_2^2\right) \leq 2 \exp(-ct^2m), \quad (19)$$

where $c > 0$ is an absolute constant. Selecting $t = \frac{1}{2}$ and using $\sqrt{a \pm b} \leq \sqrt{a} \pm b/(2\sqrt{a})$ gives, with probability at least $1 - 2e^{-cm/4}$,

$$\|\mathbf{A}\eta\|_2 \leq \frac{m}{n}\|\eta\|_2. \quad (20)$$

Applying this bound to both η_p and η_{pr} and combining all inequalities establishes the asserted result. $\square$

B Implemental Details

The τ_{maf} is set to 0.4. We directly use the Supervised Pre-trained ResNet-50 on ImageNet-1K as the Morphology Analogy Filter. For all the supervised pre-training models (including ResNet [60], SwinTransformer [65], and ViT [66]), the pre-training dataset is ImageNet-1K-Edge (Edge is extracted using [25]) the optimizer is AdamW, the learning rate is set to 0.002, the beta of the optimizer is set to (0.9, 0.95), and the weight decay is set to 0.001. We train all the models for 100 epochs. For all the self-supervised/unsupervised pretraining, the pre-training dataset is PPIR-unlabeled-Edge (Edge is extracted using [25]), the batch size is 256, the optimizer is AdamW, the learning rate is 0.002. We pre-train all the models for 100 epochs. The batch size is set from 256 to 1024, with more details are available in the supplementary material.

C Appendix on Training Details

Table 3: Hyper-parameters for supervised training. Values separated by “/” correspond to the successive model sizes listed in the **Model** row.

Hyper-parameter	ResNet	Swin	ViT
Model	ResNet-18 / 50 / 101	Swin-T / S / B	ViT-B-16 / L-16
Dataset	ImageNet1K-edge	ImageNet1K-edge	ImageNet1K-edge
Batch size	4096 / 2048 / 1024	2048 / 1024 / 512	512 / 256
Optimizer	AdamW	AdamW	AdamW
Learning rate	0.002	0.002	0.002
β (AdamW)	(0.9, 0.95)	(0.9, 0.95)	(0.9, 0.95)
Epochs	100	100	100
Weight decay	0.001	0.001	0.001
Training time (h)	5.3 / 9.5 / 18.7	7.9 / 15.7 / 21.6	19.8 / 34.7

Table 4: Hyper-parameters for self-supervised learning.

Hyper-parameter	iBOT	MAE
Method	iBOT	MAE
Model	ViT-L-16	ViT-L-16
Dataset	PPIR-unlabeled	PPIR-unlabeled
Batch size	256	256
Optimizer	AdamW	AdamW
Learning rate	0.002	0.002
β (AdamW)	(0.9, 0.95)	(0.9, 0.95)
Epochs	100	100
Training time (h)	97.4	95.3

D Visualization Results

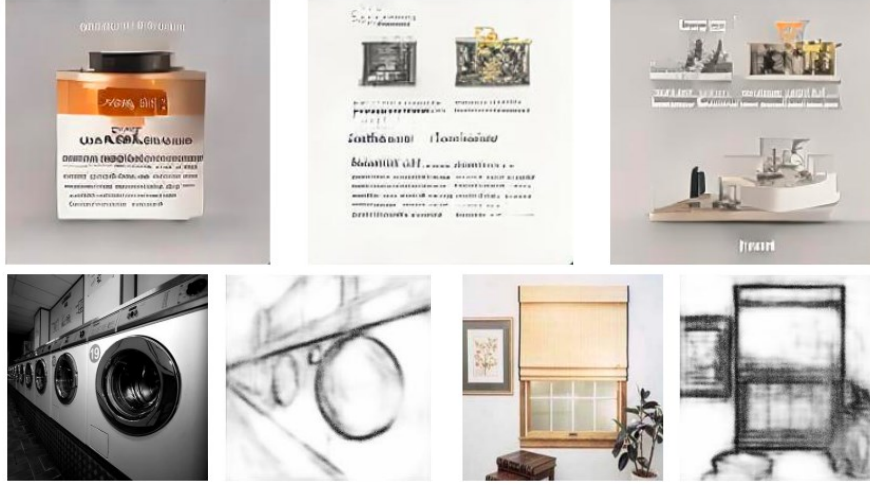


Figure 5: **Upper:** Diffusion generated colorful patent images
Lower: Sketches extracted from raw images

E Broader impact, Advantages, and Limitations

Broader Impact. Our work lowers the barrier for large-scale, automated monitoring of potential design infringements, thereby helping both innovators and regulators to protect intellectual property more efficiently and at earlier stages of the product life-cycle. The publicly released PPIRD dataset also creates a new benchmark that can stimulate research on cross-domain retrieval, representation learning under distribution shifts, and open-set recognition. Nevertheless, any technology that simplifies infringement search can also be misused: malicious actors might automate “design-around” strategies or target small businesses with aggressive litigation. We therefore encourage downstream users to combine PPIR systems with human expert review, publish detailed audit logs, and follow responsible-AI frameworks to mitigate unintended consequences.

Advantages. (1) **Comprehensive benchmark.** PPIRD is, to our knowledge, the largest and most realistic testbed for patent-product image retrieval, containing nearly one million patent drawings and millions of unlabeled images for pre-training. (2) **Effective domain bridging.** The proposed IDAMA pipeline explicitly maps both binary line drawings and RGB product photos into an intermediate sketch space, reducing domain discrepancy without requiring paired supervision. (3) **Open-set readiness.** By framing PPIR as an open-set problem and adding a morphology-analogy filter, our method retains high recall on novel object categories that are unseen during conventional pre-training. (4) **Plug-and-play.** IDAMA is architecture-agnostic; it can be integrated into existing CNN or vision-transformer backbones with minimal code changes and no task-specific annotations.

Limitations. The morphology-analogy filter relies on hand-crafted similarity thresholds; tuning them across industries or jurisdictions may require domain expertise. In addition, our dataset—while large—covers only 439 manually verified product-patent pairs, limiting fine-grained evaluation of failure modes such as functional equivalence or partial design overlap.