

# Vision Systems

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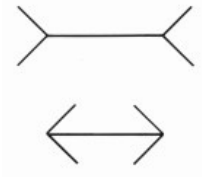
## Lecture 10

# Part 1

## Image Segmentation

# Human Vision: Gestalt and Grouping

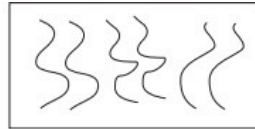
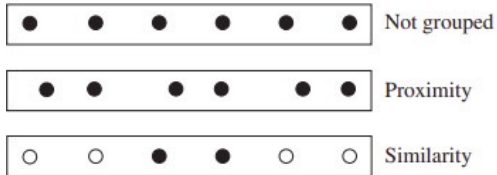
- Gestalt theory emerged in the early 20th century with the following main belief: *"The whole is greater than the sum of its parts"*
- Gestalt theory emphasized **grouping** as an important part of understanding human vision.



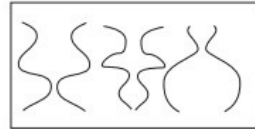
- The famous Muller-Lyer illusion above illustrates the Gestalt belief - humans tend to see things as groups and not individual components.

# Human Vision: Gestalt and Grouping

- Gestalt theory proposes various factors in images which can lead to grouping:



Parallelism



Symmetry

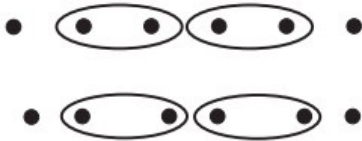
# Human Vision: Gestalt and Grouping



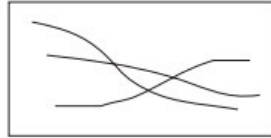
Similarity



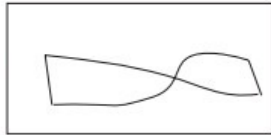
Common Fate



Common Region



Continuity



Closure

# Human Vision: Gestalt and Grouping

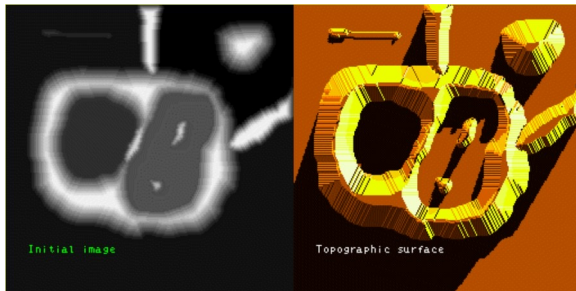
- Gestalt theory is fairly descriptive - loose set of rules to explain why some elements can be grouped together in an image
- However, rules are insufficiently defined to be directly used to form algorithmic tools for grouping objects in images

## Further Reading

Chapter 15.1, Forsyth, *Computer Vision: A Modern Approach*

# Watershed Segmentation Method

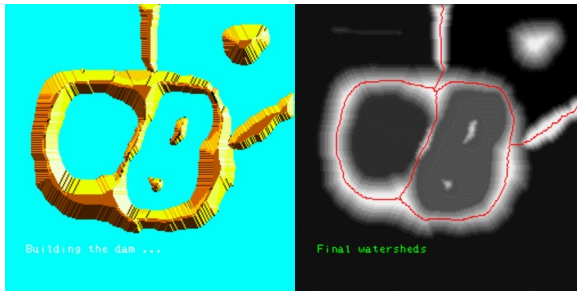
- An early method for image segmentation (1979)
- Segments an image into several "catchment basins" or "regions"
- Any grayscale image can be interpreted as a 3D topological surface



- Image can be segmented into regions where rainwater would flow into the same lake

# Watershed Segmentation Method

- Flood the landscape from local minima and prevent merging of water from different minima

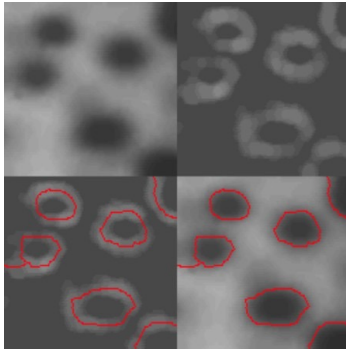


- Results in partitioning the image into **catchment basins** and **watershed lines**



# Watershed Segmentation Method

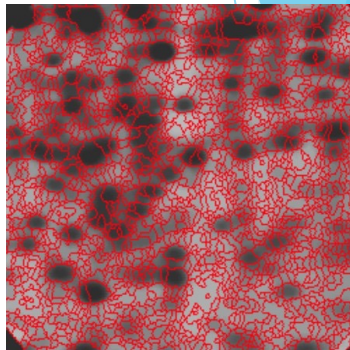
Generally applied on image gradients instead of applying directly on images



*(Top left)* Original image; *(Top right)* Gradient image; *(Bottom left)* Watersheds of gradient image; *(Bottom right)* Final segmentation output

# Watershed Segmentation Method

- In practice, often leads to over-segmentation due to noise and irregularities in image
- Hence usually used as part of an interactive system, where user marks "centers" of each component, on which flooding is done



## Further Reading

Chapter 5.2.1, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

# Categories of Methods: Region Splitting and Merging

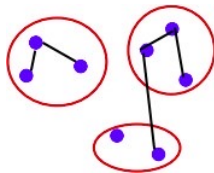
- **Region splitting methods** involve splitting the image into successfully finer regions.
  - We'll discuss one such method in the upcoming slides
- **Region merging methods** successively merge pixels into groups based on various heuristics such as color differences
  - Figure on right shows an image segmented into such *superpixels*
  - Generally used as preprocessing step to higher-level segmentation algorithms



*Image Credit: Achanta et al. SLIC Superpixels*

# Graph-based Segmentation

- Felzenszwalb and Huttenlocher (2004) proposed a graph-based segmentation algorithm which uses *relative dissimilarities* between regions to decide which ones to merge (region-merging method)
- An image = graph  $G = (V, E)$  where pixels form vertices  $V$  and edges  $E$  lie between adjacent pixels



- A pixel-to-pixel dissimilarity metric  $w(e)$  is defined where edge  $e = (v_1, v_2)$  and  $v_1, v_2$  are two pixels. This measures, for instance, intensity differences between  $N_8$  neighbors.

# Graph-based Segmentation

- For a region  $C$ , its **internal difference** is defined as the largest edge weight in the region's minimum spanning tree:

$$\text{Int}(C) = \max_{e \in \text{MST}(C)} w(e)$$

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- The **minimum internal difference** between two adjacent regions is defined as ( $\tau(C)$  is a manually chosen region penalty):

$$\text{MInt}(C_1, C_2) = \min \text{Int}(C_1) + \tau(C_1), \text{Int}(C_2) + \tau(C_2)$$

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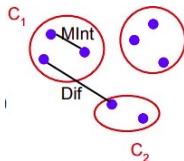
- For any two adjacent regions with at least one edge connecting their vertices, difference between these two regions = minimum weight edge connecting these two regions

$$\text{Dif}(C_1, C_2) = \min_{e=(v_1, v_2) | v_1 \in C_1, v_2 \in C_2} w(e)$$

# Graph-based Segmentation

- A predicate  $D(C_1, C_2)$  for any two regions  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  is defined as:

$$D(C_1, C_2) = \begin{cases} \text{true,} & \text{if } \text{Dif}(C_1, C_2) > \text{MInt}(C_1, C_2) \\ \text{false,} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

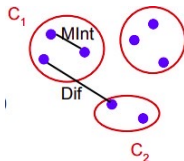




# Graph-based Segmentation

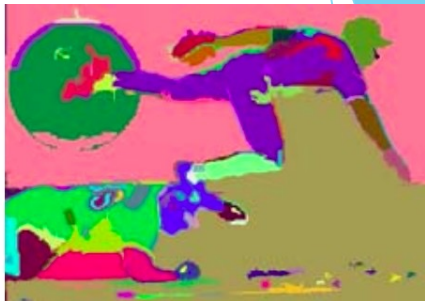
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- For any two regions, if the predicate  $D$  evaluates to **false**, regions are merged. Else, regions are considered separate.
- $\Rightarrow$  This algorithm merges any two regions whose difference is smaller than minimum internal difference of these two regions.

# Graph-based Segmentation



Graph-based merging segmentation using  $N_8$  pixel neighborhood

Further Reading

Chapter 5.2.4, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

## Probabilistic Aggregation

- Alpert *et al.* (2007) proposed a **probabilistic bottom up merging algorithm** for image segmentation based on aggregating two cues - *gray level similarity* and *texture similarity*
- Initially consider each pixel as a region, and assign a merging likelihood  $p_{ij}$  - based on intensity and texture similarities - to each pair of neighboring regions

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- ▶ Given a graph  $G^{[s-1]} = (V^{[s-1]}, E^{[s-1]})$ ,  $G^{[s]}$  is constructed by selecting subset of seed nodes  $C \subset V^{[s-1]}$ , we merge nodes/regions if they are *strongly coupled* to regions in  $C$ . Strong coupling is defined as:

$$\frac{\sum_{j \in C} p_{ij}}{\sum_{j \in V} p_{ij}} > \text{threshold} \quad (\text{usually set to } 0.2)$$

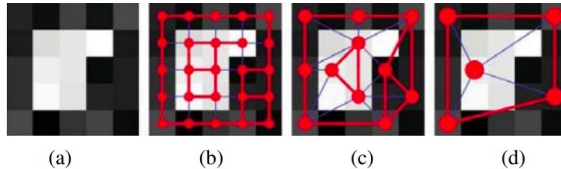
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- ▶ Once a segmentation is identified at a coarser level, assignments are propagated to their finer level "children", followed by further coarsening

# Probabilistic Aggregation



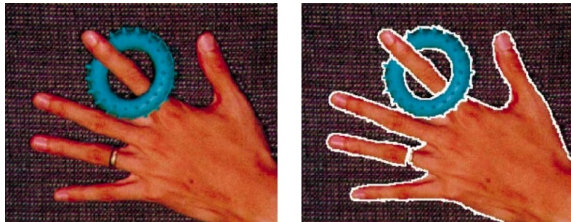
**Figure 5.15** Coarse to fine node aggregation in segmentation by weighted aggregation (SWA) (Sharon, Galun, Sharon *et al.* 2006) © 2006 Macmillan Publishers Ltd [Nature]: (a) original gray-level pixel grid; (b) inter-pixel couplings, where thicker lines indicate stronger couplings; (c) after one level of coarsening, where each original pixel is strongly coupled to one of the coarse-level nodes; (d) after two levels of coarsening.

## Further Reading

Chapter 5.2.5, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

# Mean Shift Segmentation

- A mode-finding technique based on non-parametric density estimation
- Feature vectors of each pixel in the image are assumed to be samples from an unknown probability distribution

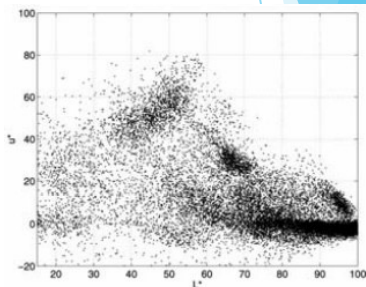


- We estimate p.d.f. using non-parametric estimation and find its *modes*.
- Image is segmented pixel-wise by considering every set of pixels which climb to the same mode as a consistent segment.

*Image Credit: Szeliski*

# Mean Shift: Example

- Consider an example image below on the left. The graph on the right shows the distribution of  $L^*u^*$  features of each pixel (in the  $L^*u^*v^*/\text{CIELUV}$  space<sup>1</sup>)



- Our aim is to obtain modes of distribution on the right, without actually explicitly computing the density function! How to do this?

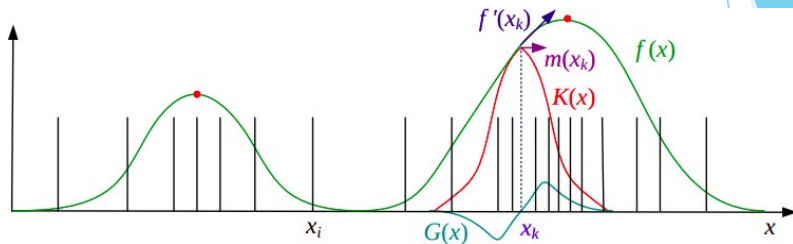
Image Credit: Comaniciu and Meer

<sup>1</sup><https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CIELUV>



# Mean Shift: Example

- 1D visualization as an example, to illustrate the mode finding approach.



- Estimate the density function by convolving the data with kernel of width  $h$ , where  $k$  is the kernel function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i k \frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|^2}{h^2}$$

## Mean Shift: Example

- To find the modes (peaks), mean shift uses a gradient ascent method with multiple restarts.
- First, we pick a guess  $\mathbf{y}_0$  for a local maximum, which can be a random input data point  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .

## Mean Shift: Example

- To find the modes (peaks), mean shift uses a gradient ascent method with multiple restarts.
- First, we pick a guess  $\mathbf{y}_0$  for a local maximum, which can be a random input data point  $\mathbf{x}_i$ .
- Then, we calculate the gradient of the density estimate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  at  $\mathbf{y}_0$  and take an ascent step in that direction.

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}) g \left( \frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|^2}{h^2} \right)$$

where  $g(\cdot) = -k'(\cdot)$ , the derivative of kernel  $k$

# Mean Shift Segmentation

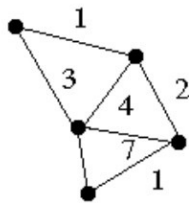
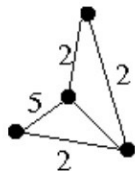
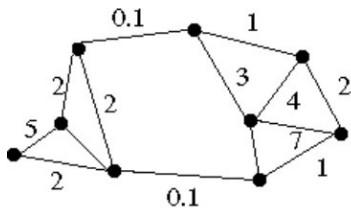
- Relies on selecting a suitable kernel width  $h$
- Above description strictly color based, however, better results can be obtained by working with feature vectors which include both color and location

## Readings

Chapter 5.3.2, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

# Normalized Cuts for Segmentation

- **Region-splitting method** where a graph representing pixels in an image is successively split into parts
- Edge weights between pixels in graph measure their similarity



- Graph split into two parts by finding and deleting a **cut-set** with minimum sum of weights i.e., a **min-cut**

# Normalized Cuts

**Min-cut** is defined as the sum of all weights being cut:

$$\text{cut}(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} w_{ij}$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  are two disjoint subsets of  $V$  (set of all vertices)

# Normalized Cuts

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$$\text{cut}(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} w_{ij}$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  are two disjoint subsets of  $V$  (set of all vertices)

- Using min-cut criterion directly can result in trivial solutions such as isolating a single pixel.
- This paved the way for the formulation of a **Normalized Cut**, defined as:

$$\text{Ncut}(A, B) = \frac{\text{cut}(A, B)}{\text{assoc}(A, V)} + \frac{\text{cut}(A, B)}{\text{assoc}(B, V)}$$

# Normalized Cuts

- We define  $\text{assoc}(A, V) = \text{assoc}(A, A) + \text{assoc}(A, B)$  as the sum of all weights associated with vertices in  $A$  where:

$$\text{assoc}(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} w_{ij}$$

- While computing an optimal normalized cut is NP-complete, there exist approximate solutions (Shi and Malik, 2000).

## Readings

Chapter 5.4, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

Shi and Malik, Normalized Cuts and Image Segmentation, IEEE TPAMI 2000.



# Normalized Cuts

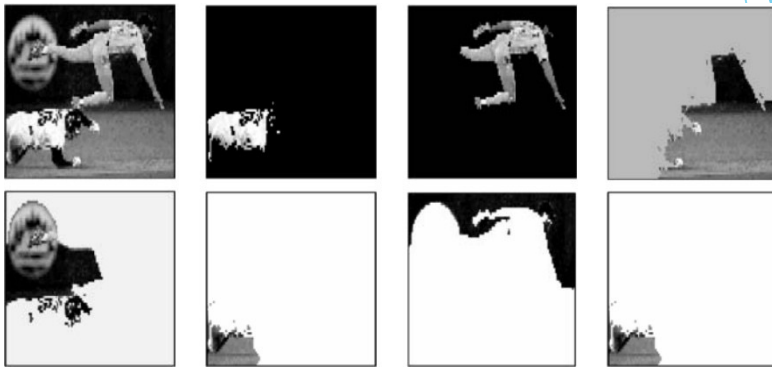


Image components returned by Normalized cuts algorithm

# Image Segmentation: Other Methods

- k-Means clustering
- Markov Random Fields and Conditional Random Fields
- Many more...

## Further Information

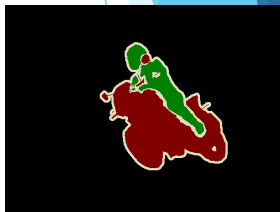
Chapter 5, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

## Do we need these?

- With the advent of deep learning based methods, do we still need these methods?

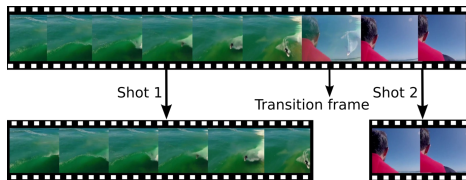
## Do we need these?

- With the advent of deep learning based methods, do we still need these methods?
- Yes, to an extent. These classical segmentation methods actually inspired early versions of deep learning based methods for object detection and semantic segmentation (we will see this later)
- First R-CNN work (object detection method) used a version of min-cut segmentation method known as CPMC (Constrained Parametric Min Cuts) to generate region proposals for foreground segments



# Beyond Images: Segmentation for Video

- **Shot boundary detection** - a key problem in video segmentation: Divide a video into collection of *shots*, each taken from a single sequence of camera



- Another interesting problem is **motion segmentation**, where the aim is to detect and isolate motion in the video. Examples: a person running, a car moving, etc.

## Further Information

Chapter 15.2, 17.1.4, Forsyth, *Computer Vision: A Modern Approach*

# Part 1 - Homework

## Readings

Chapter 5, Szeliski, *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*

Chapter 15, 17.1.4, Forsyth, *Computer Vision: A Modern Approach*

## Questions

Derive the final expression for gradient of the kernel density function used in the mean shift method

# Part 2

## Human Visual System

# Human Visual System: Visual Pathway

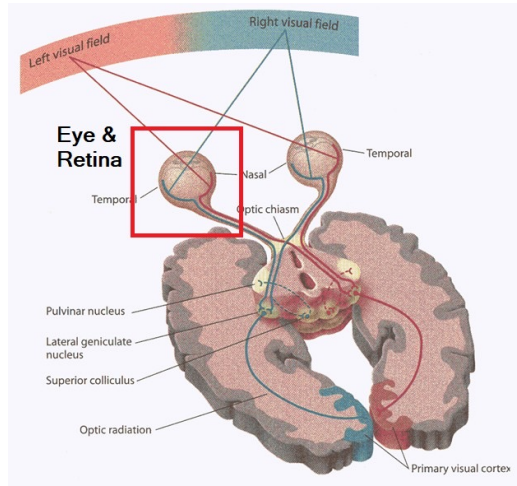


Image Source: Rafael Redondo [6]



# Light Visible to Human Eye

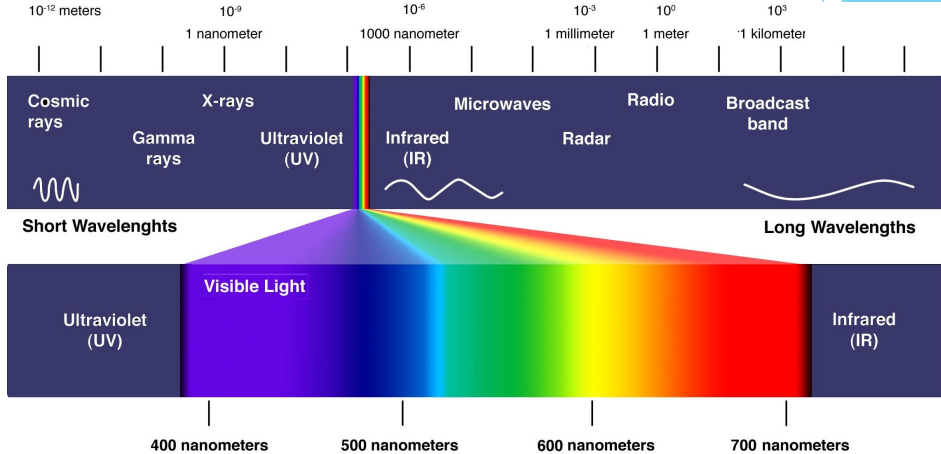
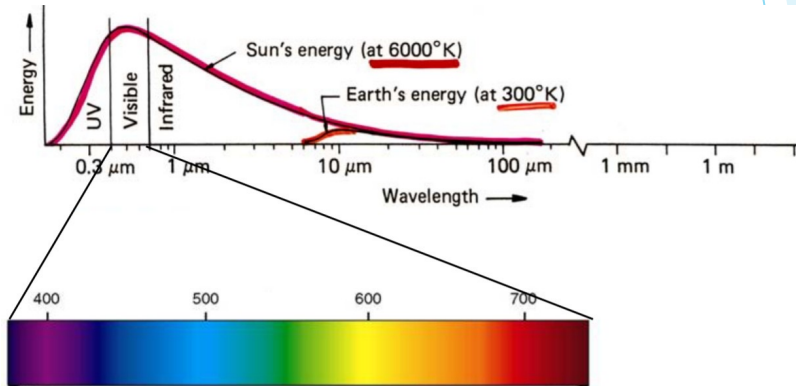


Image Source: [www.astronomersgroup.org](http://www.astronomersgroup.org)

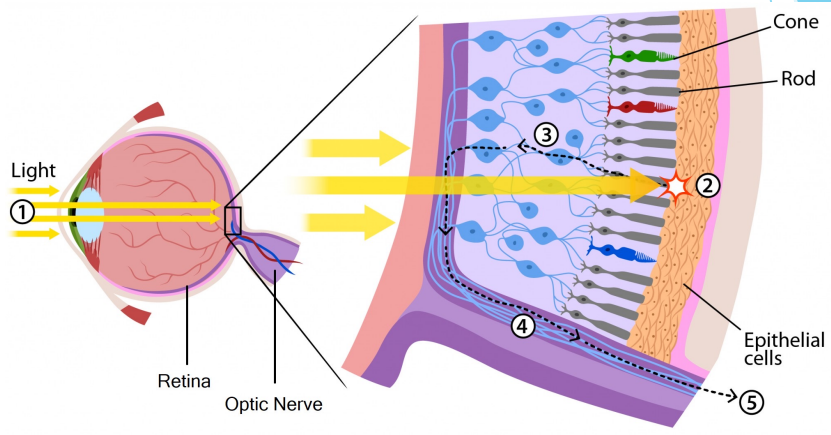
# Light Visible to Human Eye

Our vision appears to be optimized for receiving the most abundant spectral radiance our star emits



# The Retina

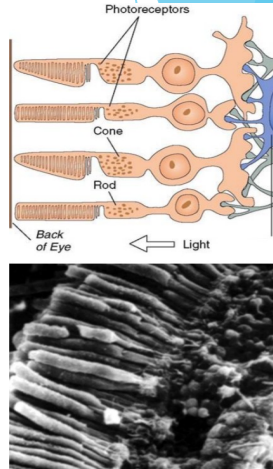
The Retina = Photoreceptors + Image Filtering



# Photoreceptors in the Retina

## Two Types:

- **Rods:** Sensitive to intensity, but not color; form blurred images
- **Cones:** Color sensitive, form sharp images, require many photons. Three types, each maximally sensitive to one of three different wavelengths.



# Coding of Light by Rods and Cones

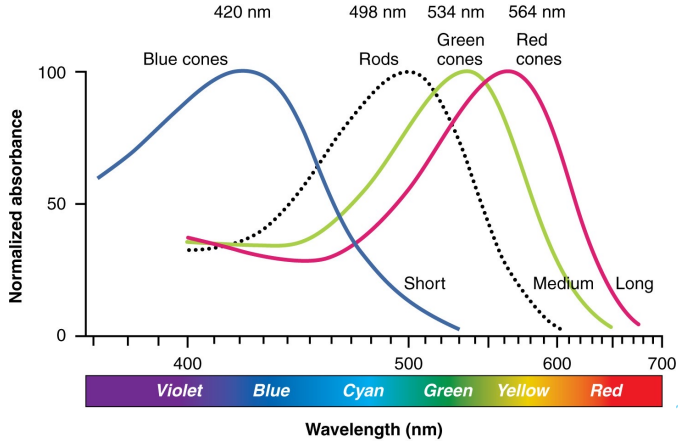
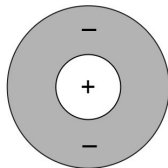


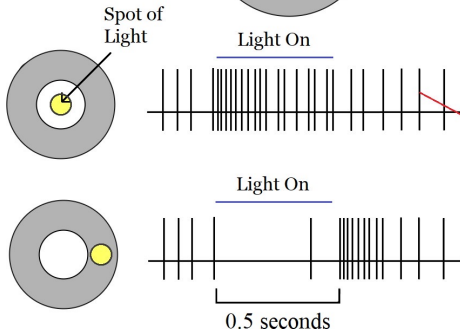
Image Source: Michael C ([StackExchange](#))

# Image Filtering in Space and Time in the Retina

On center,  
Off surround  
cell



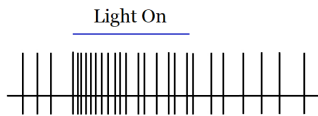
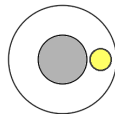
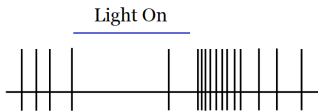
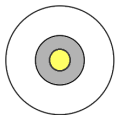
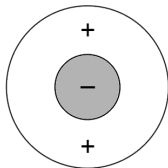
This space-time filter is also called the cell's "receptive field"



Neuron responds with electrical pulses known as Spikes or Action Potentials

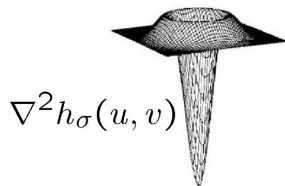
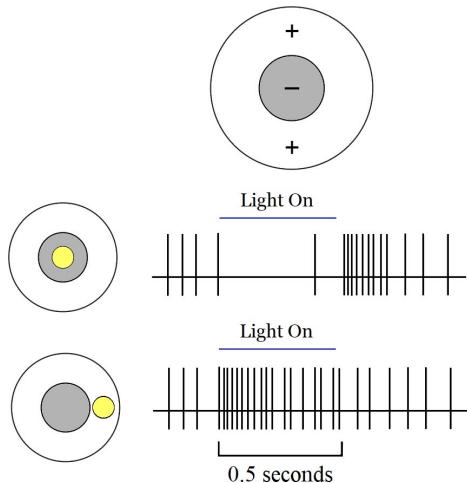
# Image Filtering in Space and Time in the Retina

Off center,  
On surround  
Cell



0.5 seconds

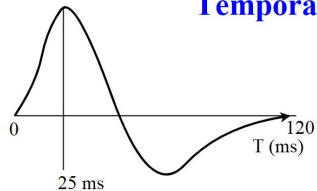
# Retina takes Spatial and Temporal Derivatives



$$\nabla^2 h_{\sigma}(u, v)$$

Laplacian of Gaussians

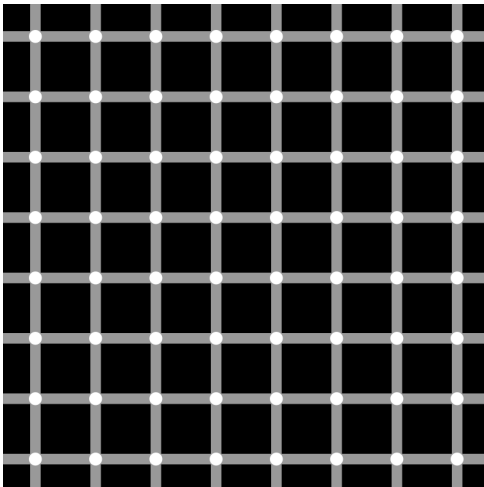
**Spatial**



**Temporal**



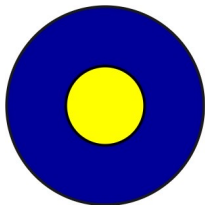
## Your Retinal Filters at Work



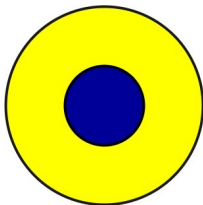
Black dots or white dots?

## Retina also takes Derivatives in Color Space

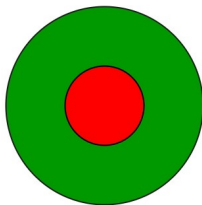
"Color-opponent" processing



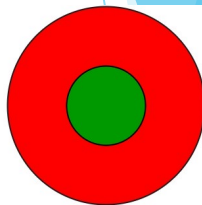
Yellow on,  
Blue off



Blue on,  
Yellow off



Red on,  
Green off



Green on  
Red off

Visual consequence: **Negative afterimage** - An image is seen after a portion of the retina is exposed to an intense visual stimulus (colors complementary to those of stimulus)

# The Visual Pathway: LGN

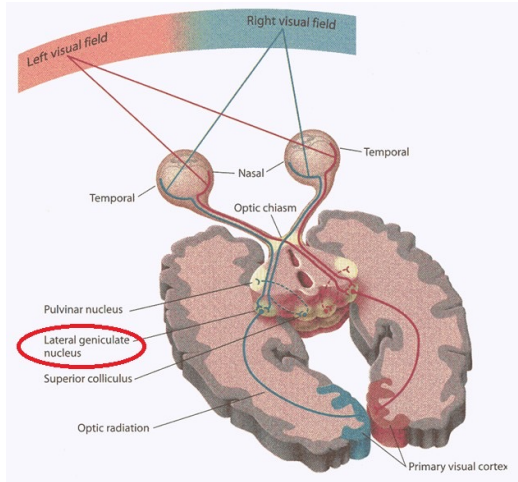


Image Source: Rafael Redondo [6]

- LGN receptive fields similar to retinal (center-surround, on-off)
- Thought to be a relay but receives massive feedback from cortex

# The Visual Pathway: V1

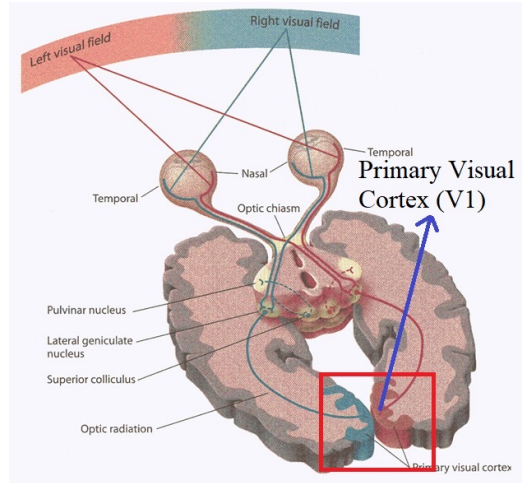
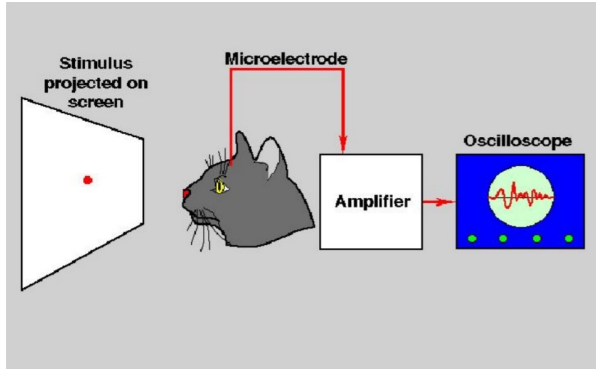


Image Source: Rafael Redondo [6]

## A Tale of Two Receptive Fields

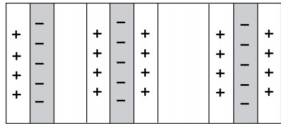
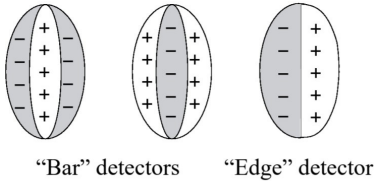
Recall: David Hubel and Torsten Wiesel were the first to characterize V1 receptive fields by recording from a cat viewing stimuli on a screen



In 1981, they received a Nobel prize in physiology and medicine for their work

# Simple and Complex Cell Receptive Fields

## Receptive fields



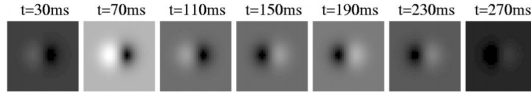
Position-invariant "bar" detector

- **Simple Cells:**  
Detect oriented bars and edges at a specific location
- **Complex Cells:**  
Sensitive to orientation but invariant to position

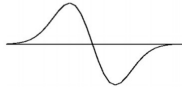
# Cortical Cells Compute Derivatives

Spatial derivative is orientation-sensitive

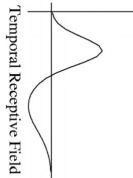
Edge-detecting simple cell response over time



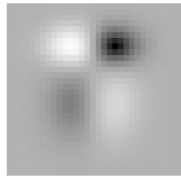
Spatial Receptive Field



**Derivative in space**



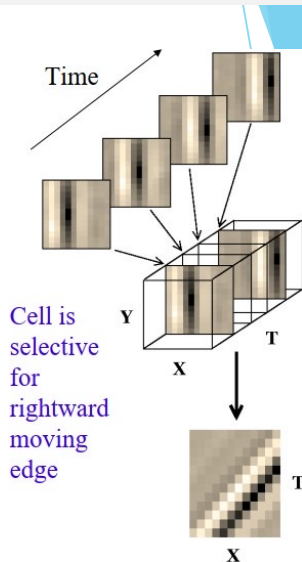
**Derivative in time**



Spatiotemporal receptive field  
(space-time filter)

# Direction Selectivity of Some Cortical Cells

Oriented derivative in X-T space!





# Oriented Filters and Natural Images

- **Goal:** Learn independent filters whose linear combination best represents natural images
- Optimal set of such filters are oriented and localized to specific regions of image

Natural Images



□ Receptive Field Size

Dark

= -

White

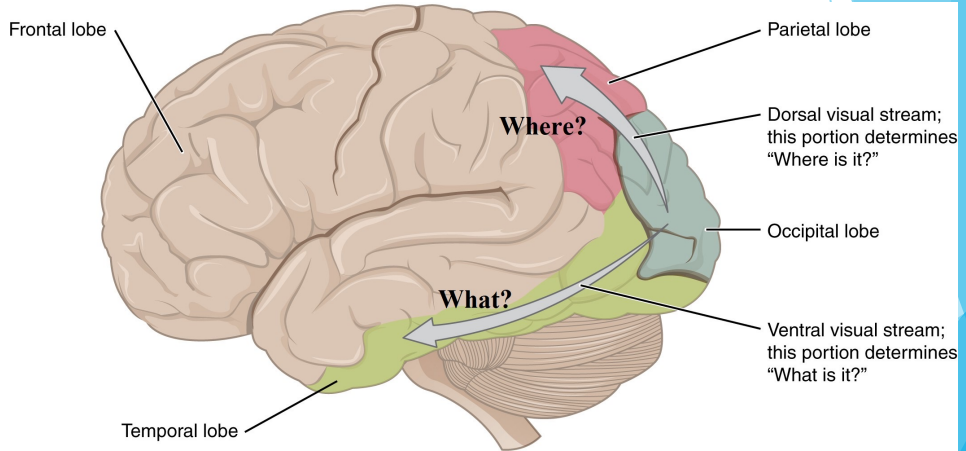
= +

Receptive Fields from Natural Images



See Olshausen and Field 1996, Rao and Ballard 1999 for more details

# Dorsal and Ventral Pathways in the Visual Cortex
























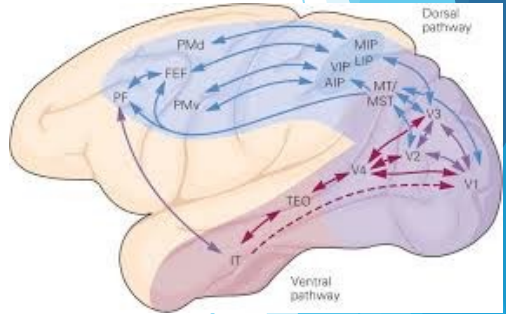
# Visual Cortex is Hierarchically Organized: "What" Pathway

**Object Pathway: V1 → V2 → V4 → TEO → TE**

Cells respond to more and more complex stimuli as we go higher up

## Example Receptive Fields

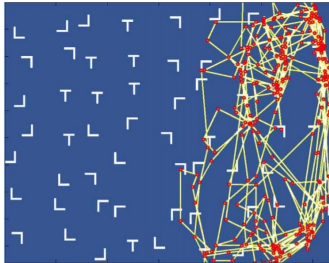
V2	V4	TEO	TE
 	      	     	     



# "Where" Pathway

**V1 → V2 → MT → MST → Posterior Parietal Cortex**

- Cells respond to more and more complex forms of motion and spatial relationships
- Damage to right parietal cortex may result in spatial hemi-neglect - patient behaves as if the left part of the visual world doesn't exist



Eye movements only to right part of the screen



Only right side of clock drawn

# The Visual Processing Hierarchy

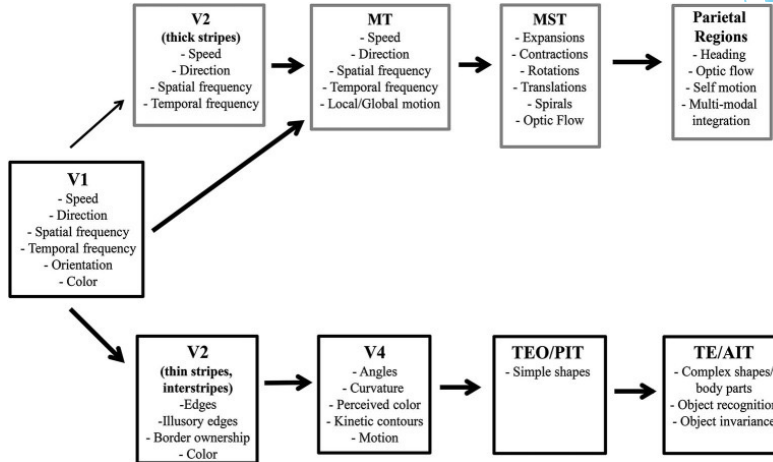


Image Source: Perry, Fallah 2014

# Readings

Summary of Human Visual System

[Lecture Notes of Majumder, UCI on Visual Perception](#)

If you'd like to know more...

[Chapter on Vision](#) by Martin A. Fischler and Oscar Firschein in [Intelligence: The Eye, the Brain, and the Compute](#)

Nobel laureate David Hubel's book: [Eye, Brain, and Vision](#)

[The Joy of Visual Perception](#) by Peter K. Kaiser (Web Book)

[Lecture 8](#) of UWash's CS455: Computer Vision (Rao, 2009)

# References



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D. Comaniciu and P. Meer. "Mean shift: a robust approach toward feature space analysis". In: *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence* 24.5 (2002), pp. 603-619.



Richard Szeliski. *Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications*. Texts in Computer Science. London: Springer-Verlag, 2011.



Radhakrishna Achanta et al. "SLIC Superpixels Compared to State-of-the-Art Superpixel Methods". In: *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence* 34 (May 2012).



David Forsyth and Jean Ponce. *Computer Vision: A Modern Approach*. 2 edition. Boston: Pearson Education India, 2015.

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- ▶ David C. Van Essen and Jack L. Gallant. “Neural mechanisms of form and motion processing in the primate visual system”. In: *Neuron* 13 (1994), pp. 1-10.
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- ▶ Rajesh Rao and Dana Ballard. “Predictive Coding in the Visual Cortex: a Functional Interpretation of Some Extra-classical Receptive-field Effects”. In: *Nature neuroscience* 2 (Feb. 1999), pp. 79-87.
- ▶ Carolyn Jeane Perry and Mazyar Fallah. “Feature integration and object representations along the dorsal stream visual hierarchy”. In: *Frontiers in computational neuroscience* 8 (2014), p. 84.
- ▶ Rafael Redondo. “New contributions on image fusion and compression based on space-frequency representations”. In: (July 2020).