



TSBB15 Computer Vision

Lecture 2
Image Representations



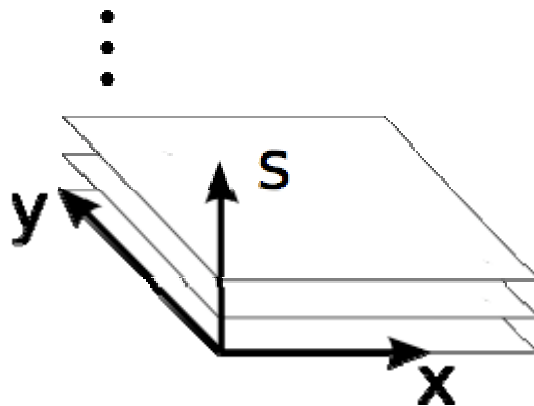
Today's topics

- Scale spaces
- Pyramids
- Hierarchical representations
- Representing uncertainty/ambiguity
 - case study: local orientation representation

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Scale Space

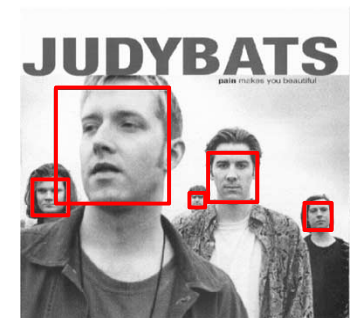


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Scale spaces: motivation 1

- Objects at different distances have different sizes in the image plane
- We want to detect them all

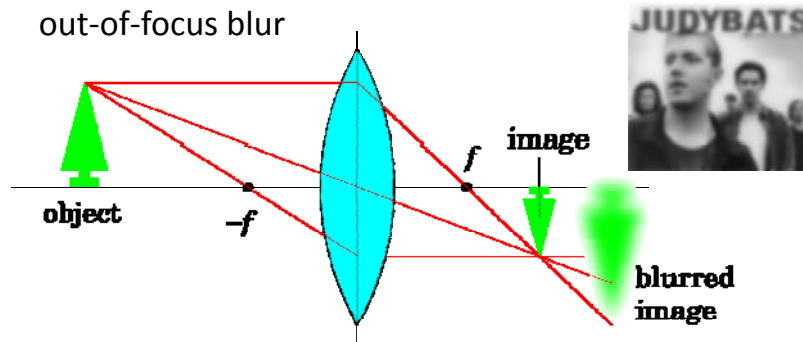


Example: face detection

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Scale spaces: motivation 2

- Cameras have limited depth-of-field
- We want our algorithms to robustly deal with out-of-focus blur

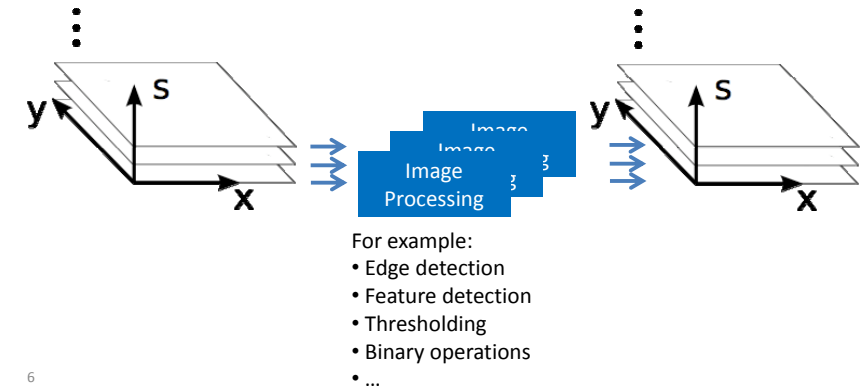


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Scale Space

Scale space generated from f_0

Processed scale space



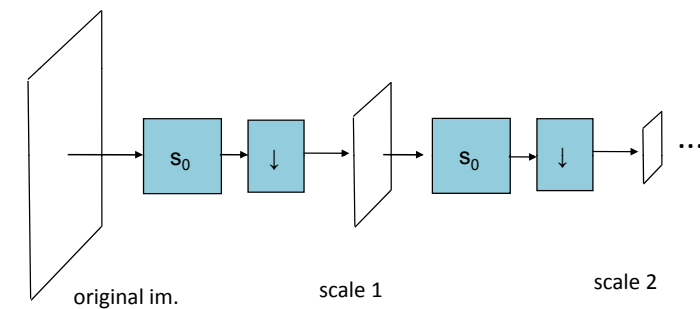
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Representation: Scale Pyramid

- Blurring (LP-filtering) reduces high frequencies
- At some scale s_0 frequencies over $\pi/2$ are sufficiently attenuated to allow down-sampling with a factor 2 without severe aliasing
- At scale $2s_0$ we can down-sample the image with a factor 4, etc.

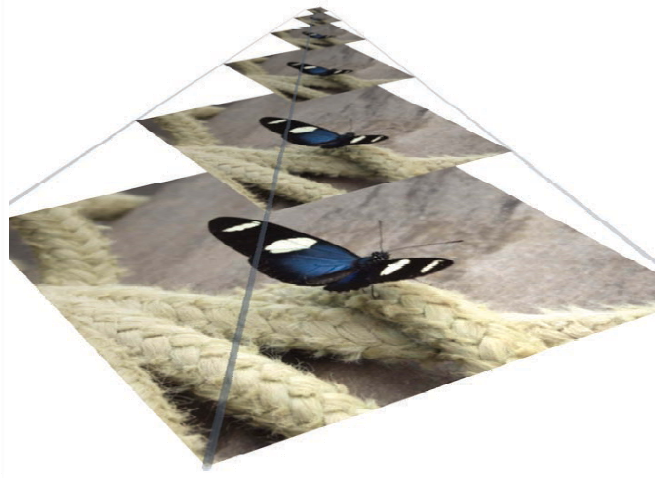
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Gaussian Pyramid



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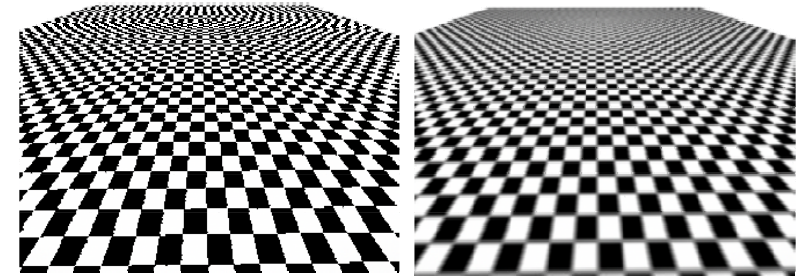
Example



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Representation: Scale Pyramid

- Used widely in Computer Graphics for texture resampling (called MIP maps)



Texture without MIP map

Texture with MIP map

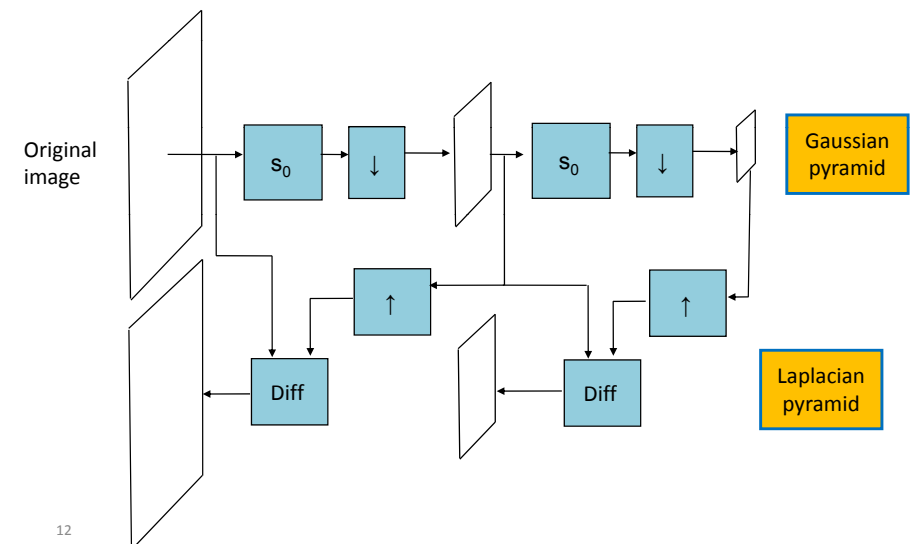
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Laplacian Pyramid

- From a Gaussian pyramid, we can compute a *Laplacian pyramid*.
- Each level (scale) in a Laplacian pyramid is given as the **difference** between two levels of a Gaussian pyramid **at the same grid size**.
 - The coarser level needs to be up-sampled!
- The Laplacian pyramid contains no information about the DC-component of the image

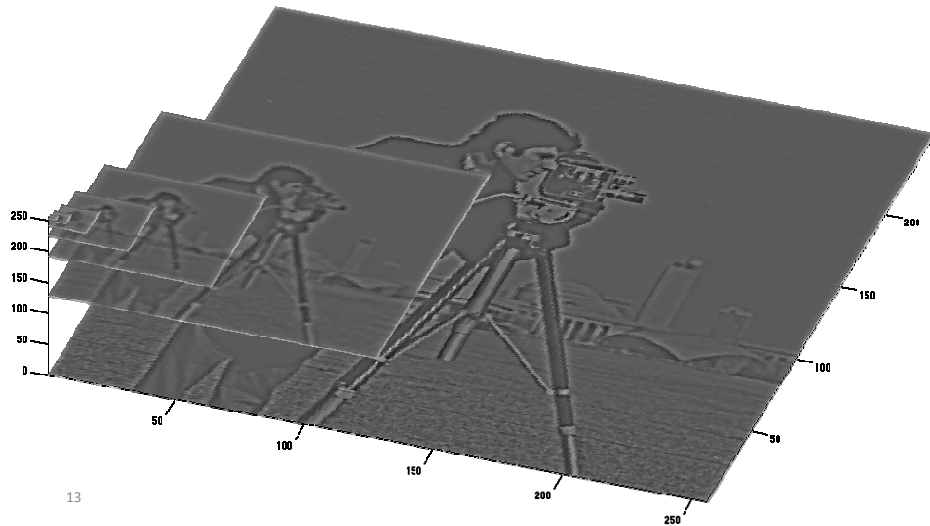
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Estimation: Laplacian Pyramid



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Example

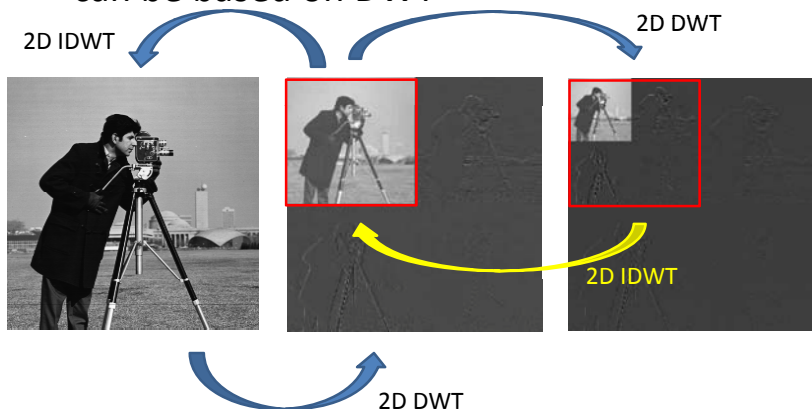


Completeness: Laplacian Pyramid

- The original image can be reconstructed from its Laplacian pyramid together with the coarsest level of its Gaussian pyramid
- How?
- Why Laplacian?

2D DWT, Example

- Another similar approach to scale spaces can be based on DWT

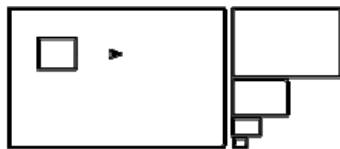


Scale hierarchies

- Scale-spaces, G/L-pyramids and DWT are examples of *scale hierarchies*
- Enable analysis of image features at different “sizes”, e.g. translations over different distances.
- The same analysis can be applied for detecting an object at any scale, but is then applied at all levels in a **scale hierarchy**
- Analysis at different levels are combined

OR-approach

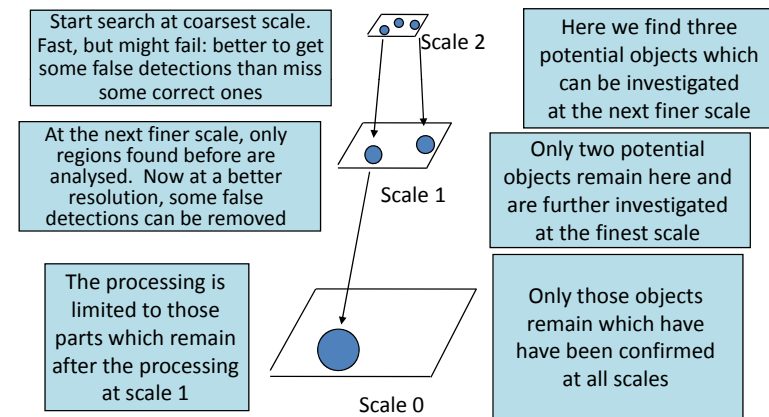
- Apply the same operation, e.g., for object detection, on all levels of a scale pyramid
 - Collect all detections as distinct objects
 - The level where a detection was made indicates the “size” of the object
- If each level is down-sampled a factor 2:
 - Time for searching over scale is bounded by a factor $(1 + \frac{1}{4} + (\frac{1}{4})^2 + \dots) = 4/3$



Example: face detection

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AND-approach: coarse-to-fine search



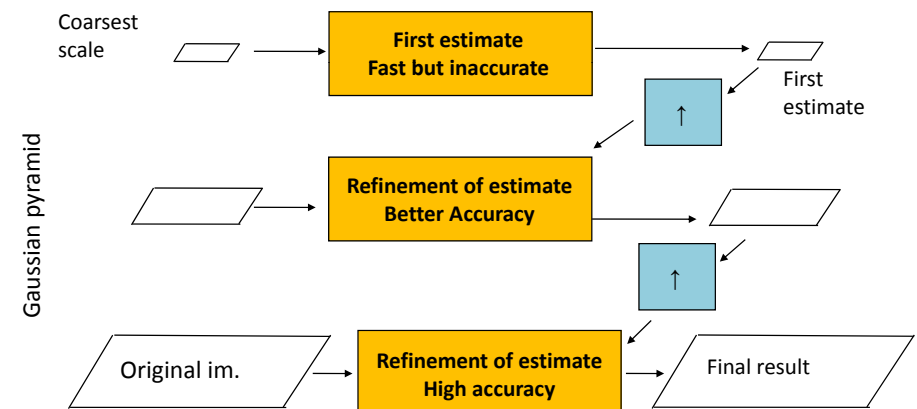
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Coarse-to-fine refinement

- A different, but similar, processing scheme is the following:
 - Estimate a local feature at the coarsest scale first
 - Little data – fast processing
 - Coarse scale – inaccurate
 - The coarse estimate of the feature is then up-sampled to the size of the second coarsest scale, where the estimate is **refined**
 - The refinement is based analyzing the image at the second coarsest scale, **given** the estimate from the coarser level.
 - The refinement estimate is then up-sampled and refined again.
 - By repeating this procedure, we obtain a very accurate estimate of the feature at the finest scale.
- Example: estimation of local velocity or disparity

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Coarse-to-fine refinement



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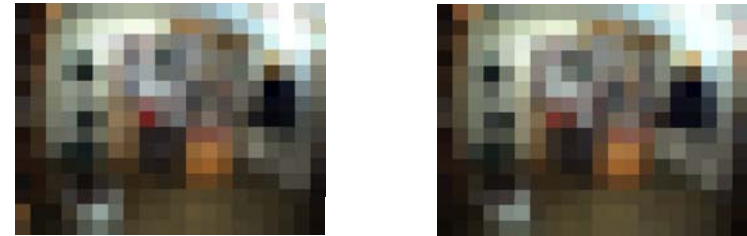
Example: Depth from stereo



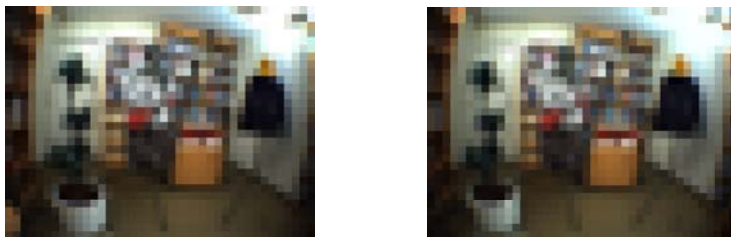
Compute a scale hierarchy.
Start estimating *disparity* at
the coarsest level, and refine

Images from Wallenberg & Fors en:
*Teaching Stereo Perception
to YQUR Robot*, BMVC 2012

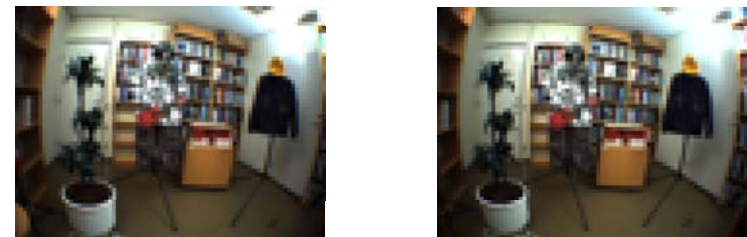
Example: C2F Stereo disparity



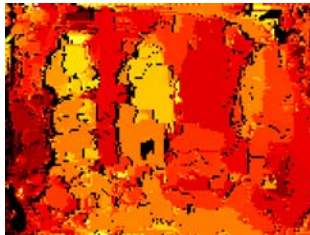
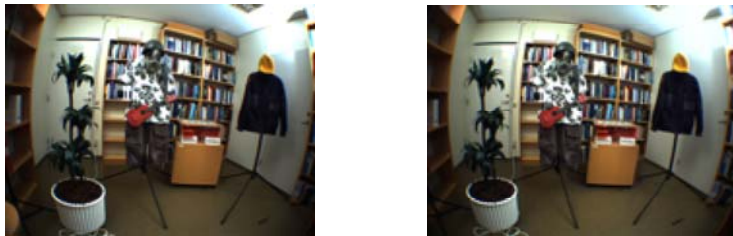
Example: C2F Stereo disparity



Example: C2F Stereo disparity

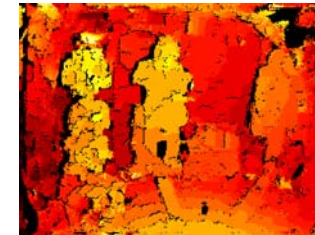
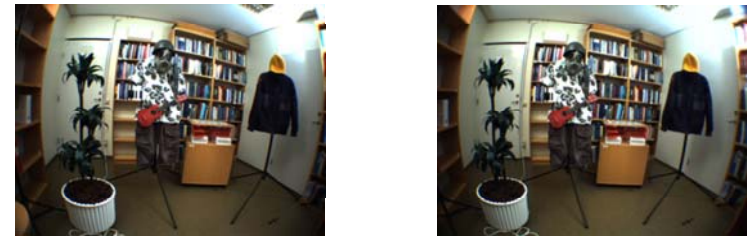


Example: C2F Stereo disparity



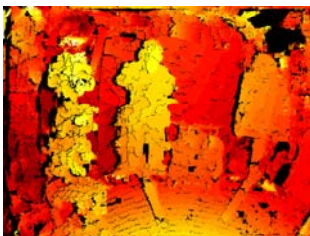
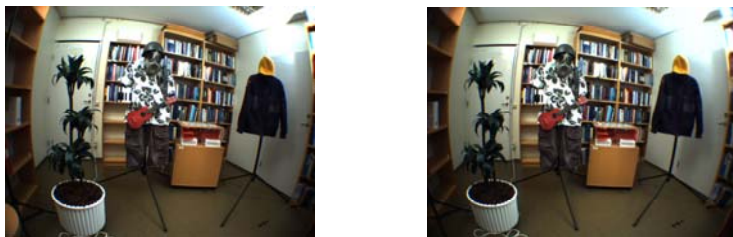
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Example: C2F Stereo disparity



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Example: C2F Stereo disparity



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Computer Vision Laboratory

Images

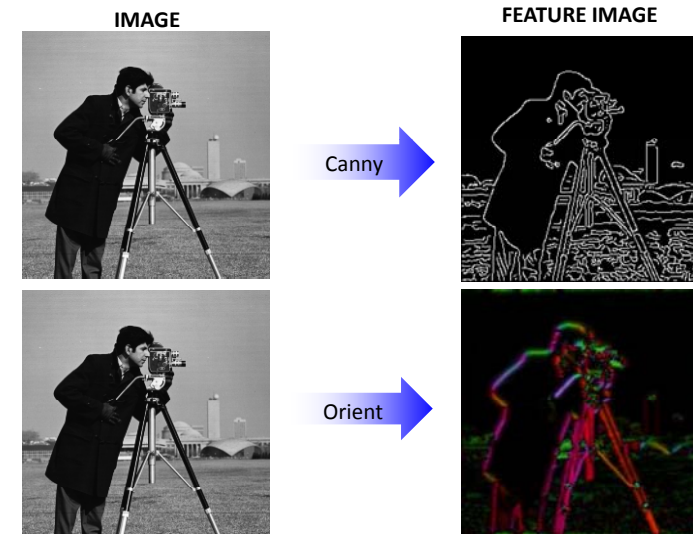
- An image typically represents, at each position (x,y) a measurement of
 - Light intensity
 - Color
 - Absorption (X-ray)
 - Reflection (Ultrasonic)
 - Hydrogen content (MRI)
- All these represent physical phenomena
- All these can be input to a scale hierarchy

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Feature image

- The value at position (x,y) can also be used to represent a **local image feature**
- May not have a direct physical interpretation
 - Local mean or variance (scalars)
 - Local edge presence (binary)
 - Local gradient (a vector)
 - Local orientation (to be discussed)
 - Local curvature (to be discussed)
 - Interest points (to be discussed)

Edge representation



Notes on Representations

- If a local feature can be assumed to be constant in a neighborhood, it is desirable that its representation can be *locally averaged*
 - The averaged representation = the feature mean
 - Noise in the signal results in noise in the estimate of the feature representation
 - By low-pass filtering the representation (local mean value), the noise is reduced
 - In general: intensity changes faster than orientation

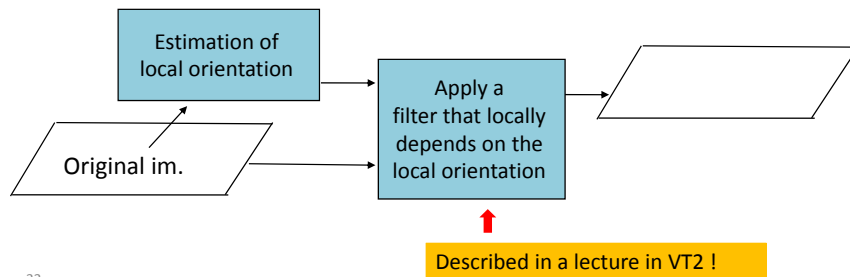


Confidence measure

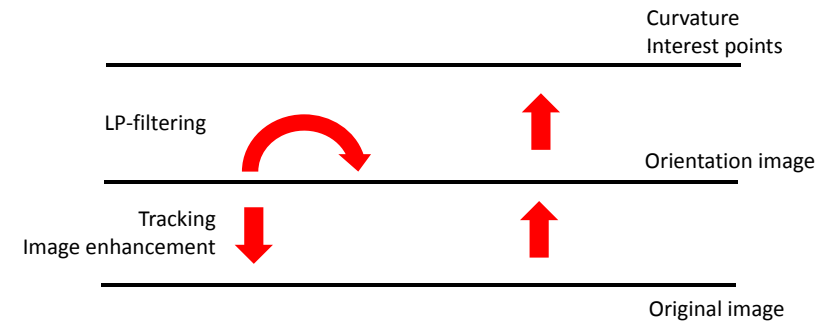
- Feature representations should contain a confidence measure (or variance estimate), separated from the feature estimate itself
 - Measures how confidence of the feature estimate
 - For example: in the range $[0, 1]$
 - Value 0: no confidence, value 1: max confidence
- The confidence can be used to weight the feature representation when estimating the mean value
 - Normalized convolution

Model-Based Processing

- Orientation images can be used to control the processing of an image
- Example: adaptive image enhancement

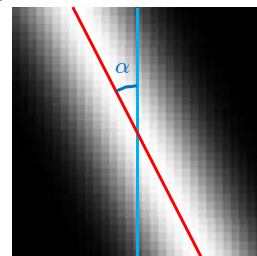


Orientation images Applications



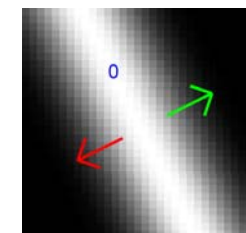
Representation of Local Orientation: Angle

- Signal model: simple signal (i1D, lecture 1)
- In a local region of each image point:
 - measure an angle α , e.g. between the vertical axis and the lines of constant signal intensity, e.g. in the interval 0 to 180°
- Average-able?
 - No! (why?)
- Confidence measure?
- How to extend to 3D?



Estimation of Local Orientation: Gradient

- In each point we measure the local gradient of the signal (e.g. using a Sobel-operator)
- For an i1D signal, the sign of the gradient depends on where we do the measurement
- The gradient might be = 0 at certain lines of the i1D signal
- Confidence?



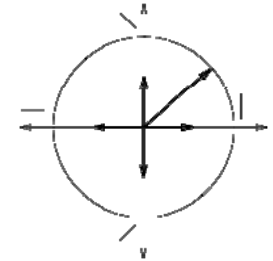
Representation of Local Orientation: Double angle vector

- Alternative: double the angle to 2α , which lies in the interval 0 to 360°
- Form a 2D vector \mathbf{v} which points with the angle 2α
- Let the norm of \mathbf{v} represent the confidence measure
- Called: *double-angle representation* of local 2D orientation

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Representation of Local Orientation

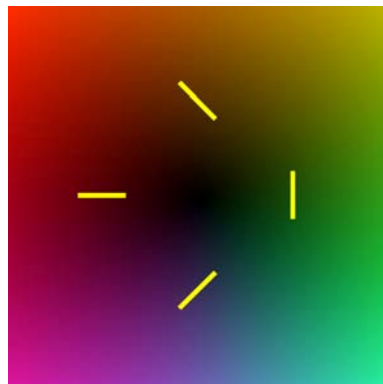
- The double-angle representations of two similar orientations are always similar (*continuity* results in *compatibility*)
- Two orientations which differ most (90°) are always represented by vectors that point in opposite directions (*complementarity*)



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Colour coding of the double angle representation



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Representation of Local Orientation

- Double-angle representations of local 2D orientations can be averaged
 - The averaged representation = the feature mean
- Averaging of vectors is automatically weighted with the confidences

In later lectures:

- How to estimate the double-angle representation from image data?
- What to do in 3D?

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Representation of Local Orientation

- Signal model for simple (i1D) signals

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x}^T \hat{\mathbf{n}}) \quad \hat{\mathbf{n}} = (\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha)^T$$

- f is the local signal (2 or more dimensions)
- g is the 1D function that defines the variations of the i1D signal
- \mathbf{n} is a vector that defines the orientation
- BUT: the direction (sign) of \mathbf{n} is not unique



Representation of Local Orientation: Tensor

- The double-angle vector \mathbf{v} becomes

$$\mathbf{v} = \lambda (\cos 2\alpha, \sin 2\alpha)^T$$

- λ is a scalar which gives the confidence
- Alternative: form a 2 x 2 symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{T} = \lambda \hat{\mathbf{n}} \hat{\mathbf{n}}^T = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

- *Tensor representation of local orientation*



Representation of Local Orientation

- Tensor components

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} \\ T_{12} & T_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \alpha & \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \\ \cos \alpha \sin \alpha & \sin^2 \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

- Vector components

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos 2\alpha \\ \sin 2\alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \alpha - \sin^2 \alpha \\ 2 \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} - T_{22} \\ 2 T_{12} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The tensor contains one more element than \mathbf{v}



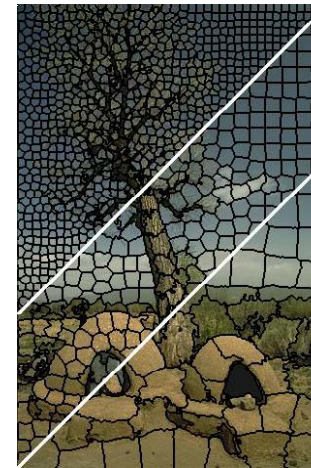
Representation of Local Orientation

- \mathbf{n} is an eigenvector of \mathbf{T} with eigenvalue λ
- \mathbf{T} (but not \mathbf{v}) can be defined for any dimension of signals (3D, 4D, ...)
- How to estimate \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{T} from signals?

Tensor or Matrix?

- In this course, the term *tensor* is used as synonym for *symmetric matrix*.
- Why tensor and not matrix?
 - A matrix is just a representation, consisting of a container with numbers in a table.
 - A tensor can be represented as a matrix but it must furthermore obey certain laws under transformations of the coordinate system.

Super-pixels



Examples from
Achanta *et al*,
(SLIC)

Showing different
sizes of the
clusters

Super-pixels

- The array/matrix representation of an image implies that, in principle, each pixel must be examined in order to extract information about the image
- An alternative to the array/matrix representation is to **cluster** neighboring pixels with similar values to *super-pixels*
 - Often with restrictions on the cluster: size, shape
- Each super-pixel is represented as the common value and a cluster of pixels
- The image is represented as the set of its super-pixels
- Normal image: approx. 1 M pixels
- Super-pixels image: approx. 1 k super-pixels

Super-pixels

Typical approach:

- Initialize a regular grid of “square” super-pixels
- Iteratively modify each super-pixel to increase homogeneity regarding its corresponding pixel values
 - Split super-pixels into smaller ones if necessary
 - Merge similar super-pixels if possible
 - Move pixels from one super-pixel to a neighboring one to improve super-pixel shape