TSBB15 Computer Vision

Lecture 2 Image Representations



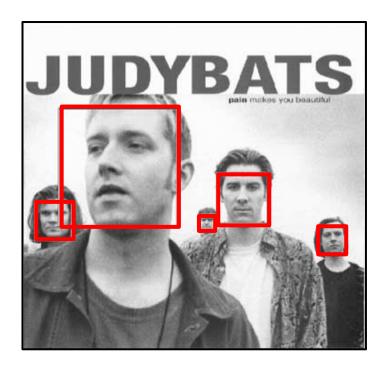
Today's topics

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



Scale spaces: motivation 1

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



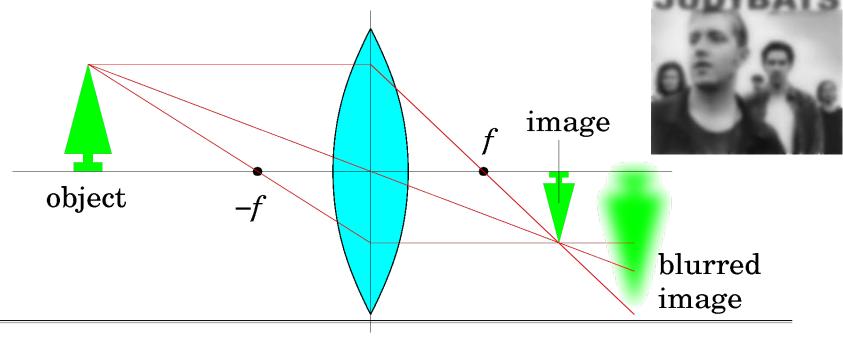
• How?

Example: face detection



Scale spaces: motivation 2

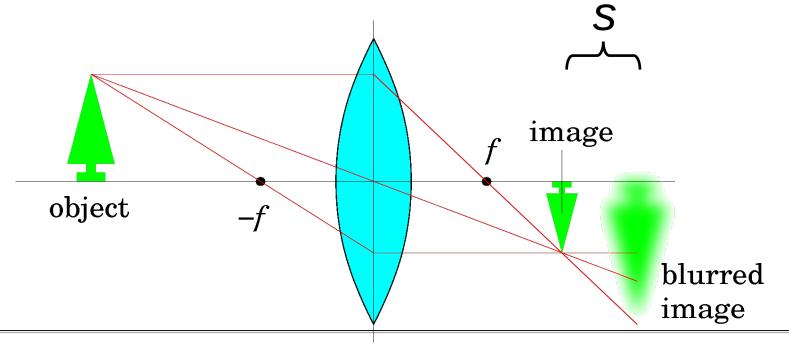
- Cameras have limited depth-of-field
- We want our algorithms to robustly deal with outof-focus blur





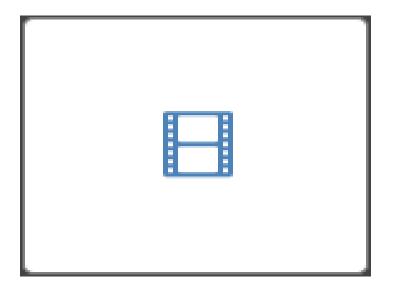
Scale spaces: motivation 2

• Image blur function: image(s)





Image(s)

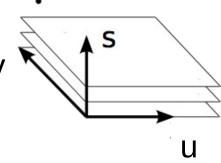




Representation: Scale Space.

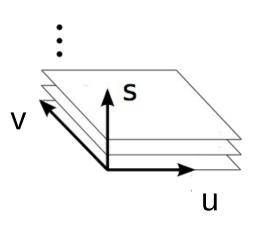
- Basic idea
 - Stack images in a 3D space
 - The third axis, *s*, is called *scale*
 - -s = 0 corresponds to the original image
 - As *s* grows, the image becomes more blurred
- Intuitively: *s*





Scale Space

- Notation:
 - original image $I_0(u,v)$
 - blurred image $I_s(u,v)$



•
$$I_s = T_s \{ I_o \}$$

• T_s : transformation that produces I_s from I_o



Scale Space Axioms

- [Iijima, 1959] specifies properties of T_s : 1.Linear
- 2.Shift-invariant
- 3.Semi-group property
- 4.Scale- and rotation-invariant
- 5. Maintain positivity

6.Separability (by later authors)

See video on ScaleSpace



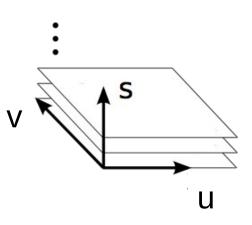
Scale Space

- A1+A2: T_s is a convolution
 - original image $I_o(u,v)$
 - blur kernel $g_s(u,v)$
 - The scale space of *I*_o is given as the convolution:

$$I_s(u,v) = (g_s * I_0)(u,v)$$

In the Fourier domain: $F{I_s} = G_s \triangleleft F{I_o}$





Gaussian Scale Space

• The remaining axioms lead to a unique formulation of *G_s* as a Gaussian function:

$$G_s(\omega_u, \omega_v) = e^{-s\frac{\omega_u^2 + \omega_v^2}{2}} \quad g_s(u, v) = \frac{1}{2\pi s}e^{-\frac{u^2 + v^2}{2s}}$$

• Separability:

$$g_s(u,v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s}} e^{-\frac{u^2}{2s}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s}} e^{-\frac{v^2}{2s}}$$



PDE formulation

• The Gaussian scale space can also be derived as the solution to the PDE:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s}I_s(u,v) = \frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 I_s(u,v)$$

boundary condition: $I_0(u, v) = I(u, v)$

- A.k.a. the **diffusion equation**
 - Compare to the *heat equation*, where $I_s(u,v)$ is the temperature at time *s* in point (u,v), given initial temperature $I_o(u,v)$



PDE formulation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s}I_s(u,v) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\partial^2 I_s}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2 I_s}{\partial v^2}\right)(u,v)$$

• The change in *I_s(u,v)* when we move only along the scale parameter *s* equals a local second order derivative of *I_s* at (*u,v*)

We will return to the PDE formulation of scale spaces in a later lecture



Implementation of the Gaussian Scale-Space

Different alternatives:

- 1. In the Fourier domain:
 - 1. 2D Fourier transform
 - 2. Multiplication with Gaussian function
 - 3. Inverse FT

2. Convolution:
$$I_s(u,v) = (g_s * I_0)(u,v)$$

3. Integrating I_s as a solution of the PDE: $I_{s+\Delta s} = I_s + \Delta s \cdot \frac{\partial I_s}{\partial s} = I_s + \Delta s \cdot \frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 I_s$

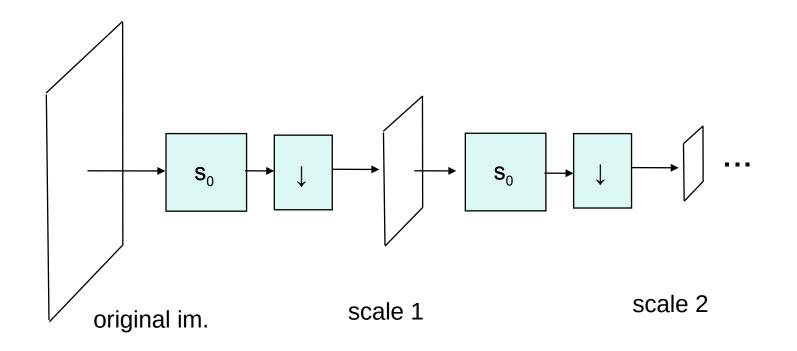


Representation: Scale Pyramid

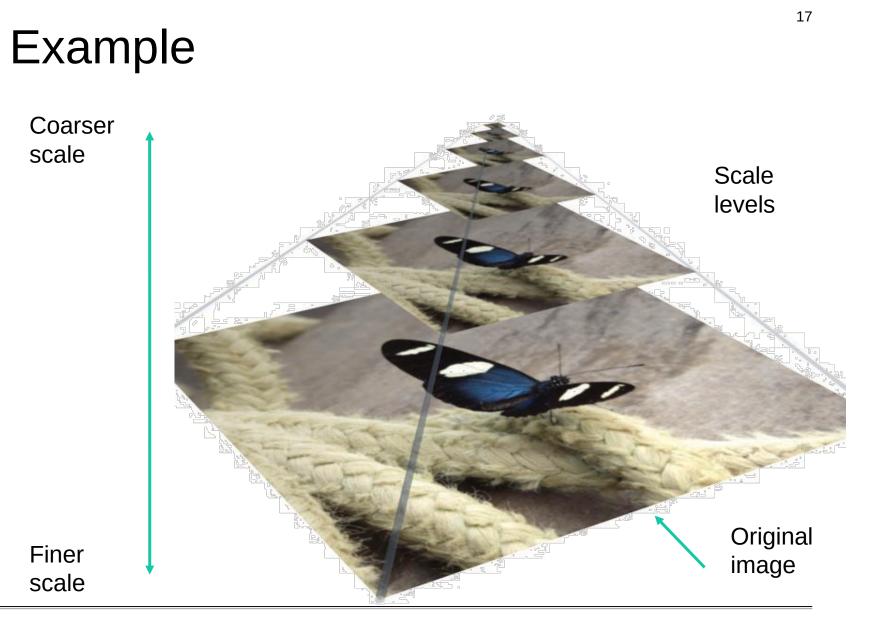
- Blurring (LP-filtering) reduces high frequencies
- At some scale s_o : frequencies over $\frac{1}{4}/2$ are sufficiently attenuated to allow down-sampling with a factor 2 without much aliasing
- At scale 2*s*_o we can down-sample the image with a factor 4, etc.



Gaussian Pyramid



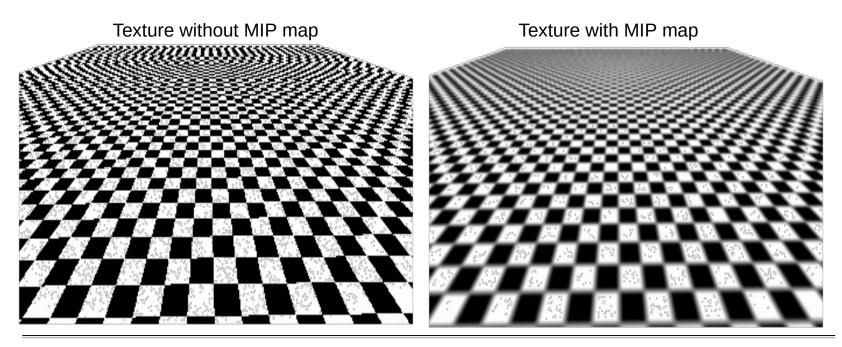






Scale Pyramid: Applications

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





Scale Pyramid: Applications

• Also very common in motion analysis

We will return to scale pyramids in later Lectures on motion analysis

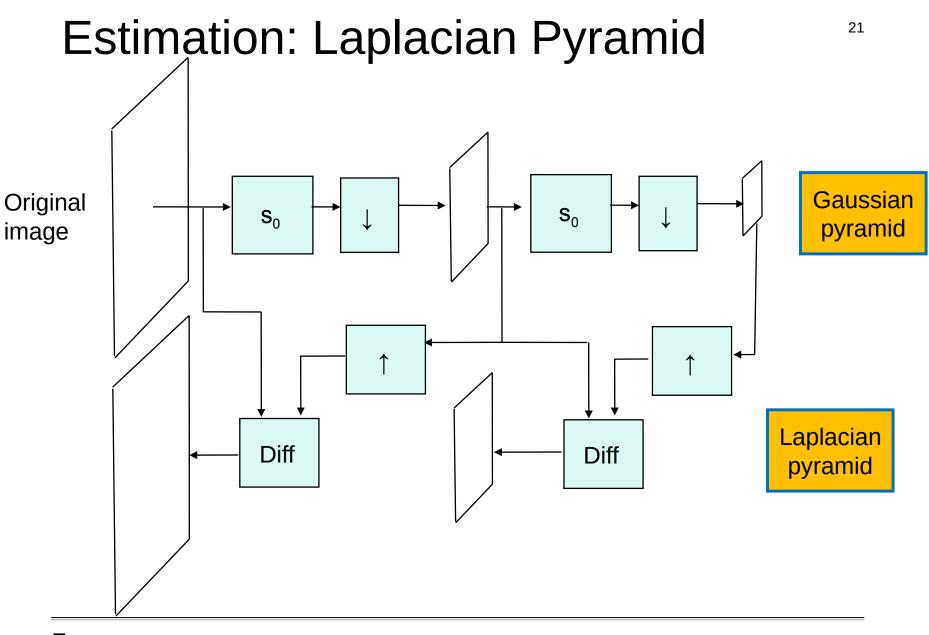
- Multi-resolution processing
 - Face detection!



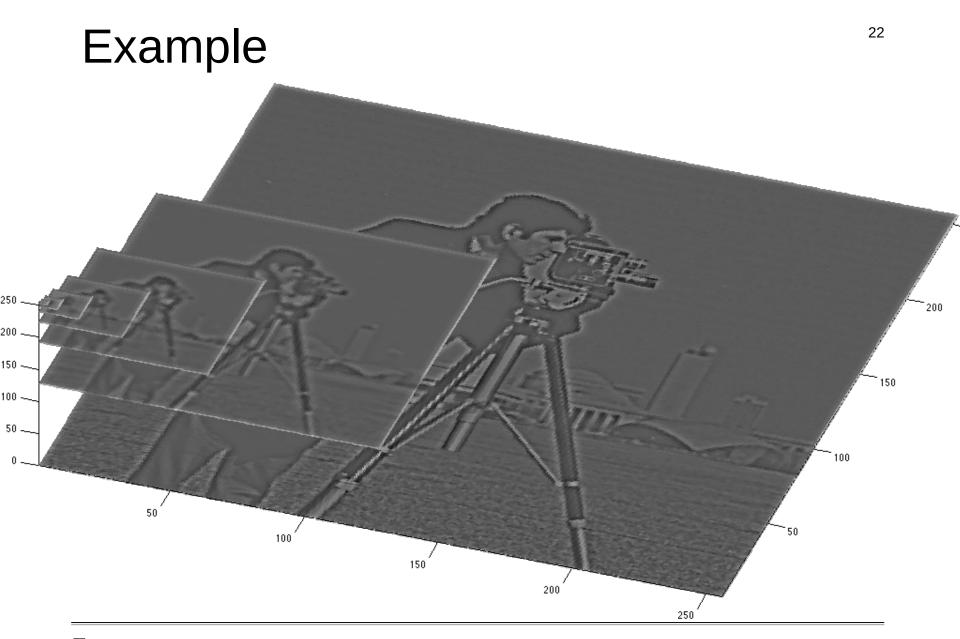
Laplacian Pyramid

- 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!
 - Or use the LP-filtered version of the finer scale!
- The Laplacian pyramid contains no information about the DC-component of the image











Completeness: Laplacian Pyramid

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



2D DWT, Example

Another similar approach to scale spaces can be based on DWT
2D



DW





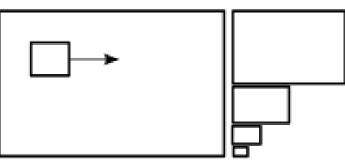
Analysis using scale hierarchies

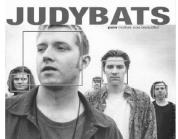
- Scale-spaces, G/L-pyramids and DWT are examples of *scale hierarchies*
- Enables analysis of image features at different resolutions
 - Example: translations over different distances.
- Same or different analysis can be applied on each scale level
- Scaling of pixel coordinates between different levels!



Multi-resolution processing

- Apply the same operation, e.g., for object detection, on all levels of a scale pyramid
 - Can be done in parallel
 - Collect all detections from all levels 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 $(1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4})^2 + ...) = \frac{4}{3}$

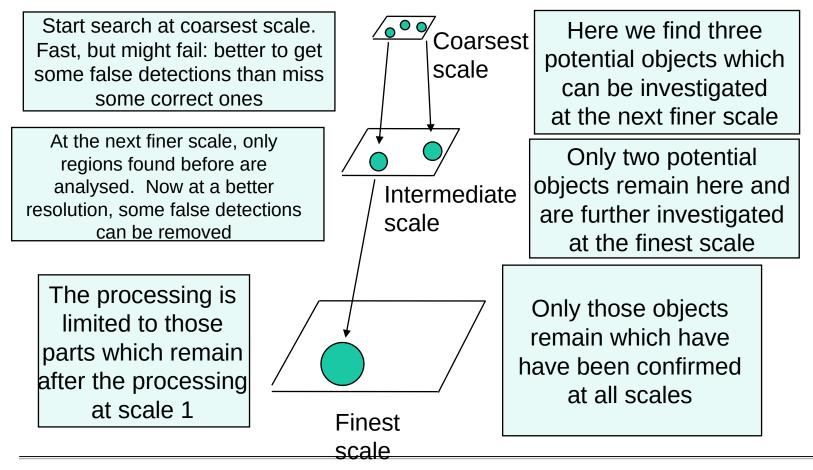




Example: face detection



Coarse-to-fine search/detection



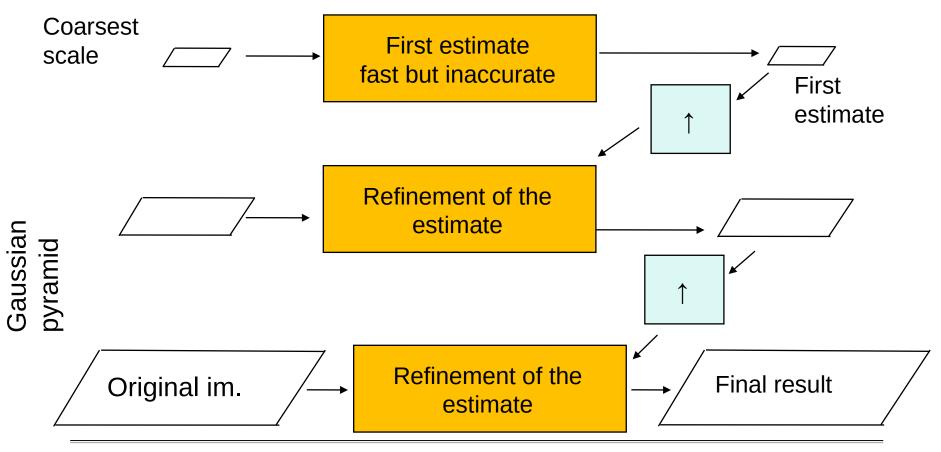


Coarse-to-fine refinement

- A 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 on estimating the refinement of the coarsest estimate by analyzing the image at the second coarsest scale.
 - 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



Coarse-to-fine refinement





Example: Depth from stereo



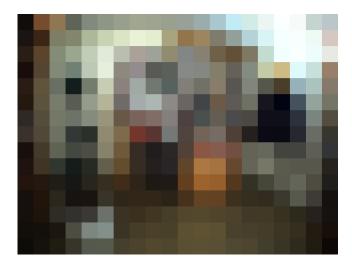


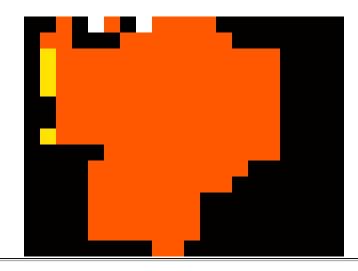
Images from Wallenberg & Forssén: Teaching Stereo Perception to YOUR Robot, BMVC 2012

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





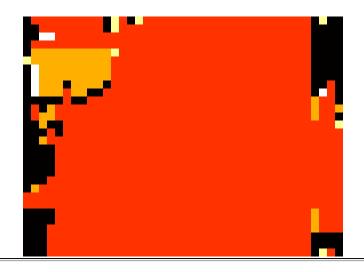




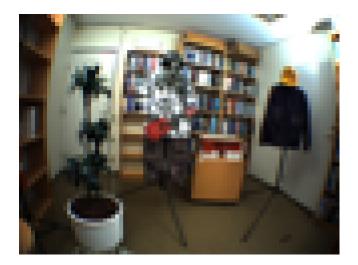




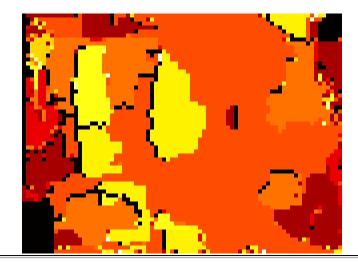








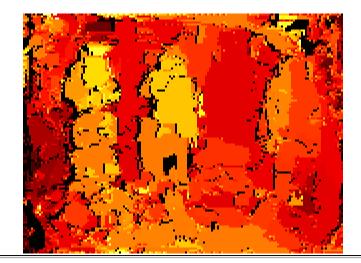








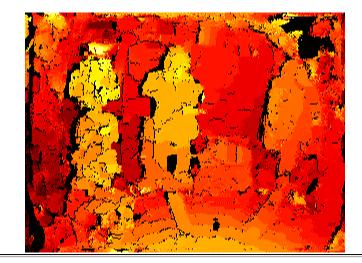








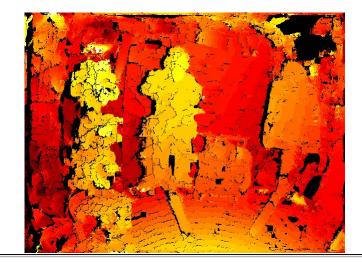














Images

- An image typically represents, at each position **p**=(*u*,*v*) 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

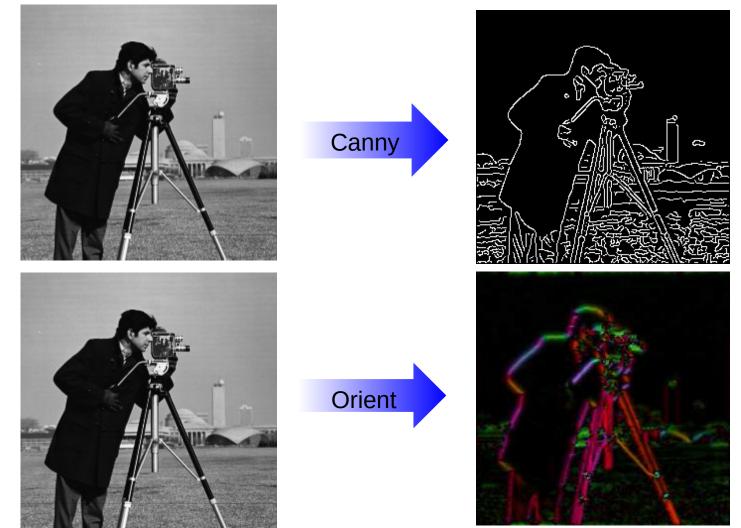


Feature image

- The value at position **p**=(*u*,*v*) 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)



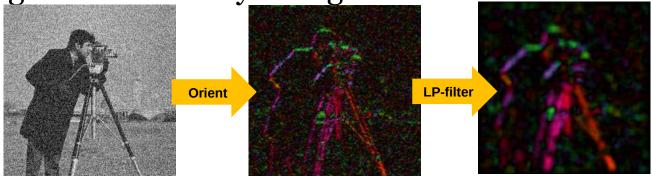
Edge representation





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





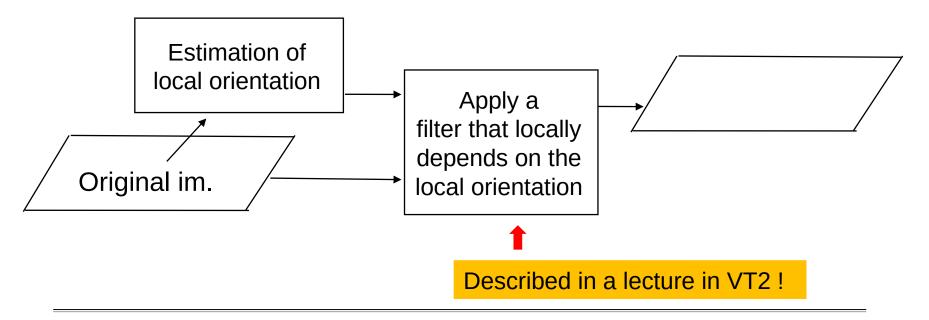
Confidence measure

- 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!

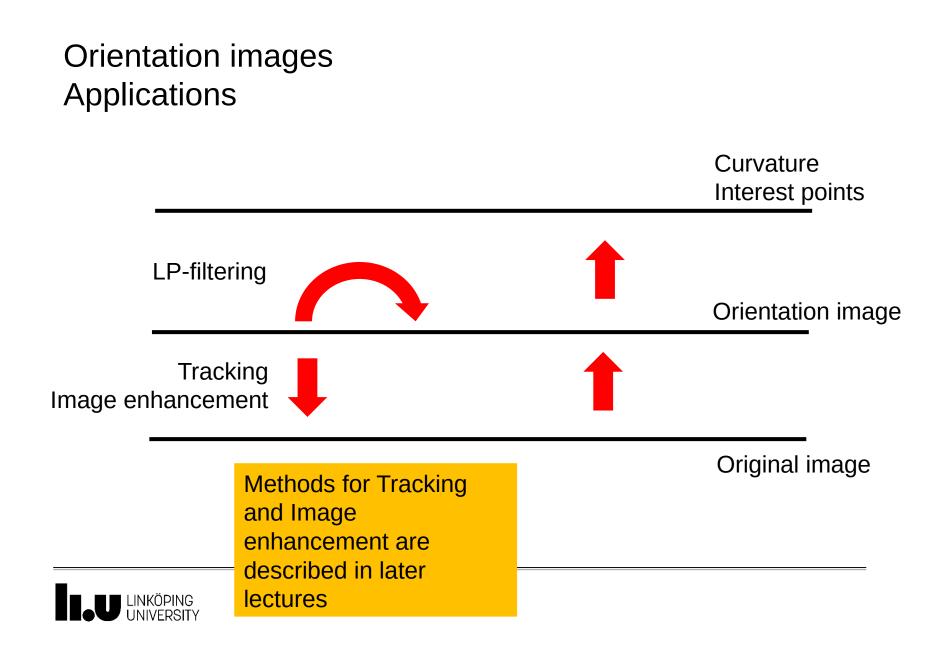


Model-Based Processing

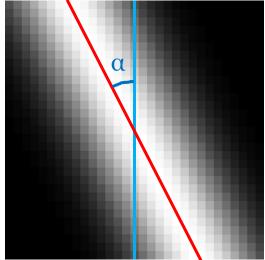
- Orientation images can be used to control the processing of an image
- Example: adaptive image enhancement







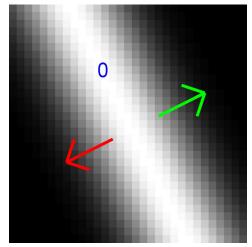
- Signal model: simple signal (i1D, lecture 1)
- In a local region of each image point:
 - measure an angle α , e.g. between the vertical axis and the lines of constant signal intensity, e.g. in the interval 0 to 180°
- Average-able?No! (why?)
- Confidence measure?
- How to extend to 3D?





Estimation of Local Orientation: Gradient

- In each point we measure the local gradient of the signal (e.g. using a Sobel-operator)
- Issues:
 - 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 measure?



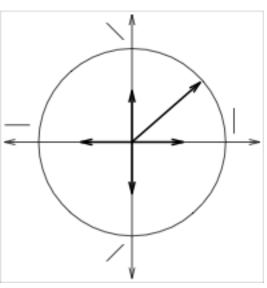


Representation of Local Orientation: Double angle vector

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

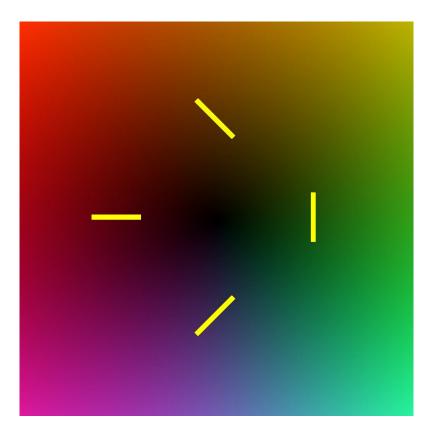


- The double-angle representations of two similar orientations are always similar (*continuity* results in *compatibility*)
- Two orientations which differ most (90°) are always represented by vectors that point in opposite directions (*complementarity*)





Colour coding of the double angle representation





- 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?



- Signal model for simple (i1D) signal at point \mathbf{p} $I(\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{x}) = g(\mathbf{x} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}), \ \hat{\mathbf{n}} = (\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha)^{\top}$
- *I* is the local signal (2 or more dimensions)
- *g* is the 1D function that defines the variations of the i1D signal
- **x** is a deviation from position **p**
- **n** is a vector that defines the orientation
- BUT: the direction (sign) of **n** is not unique



Representation of Local Orientation: Tensor

- The double-angle vector **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 • Tensor 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

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

• The tensor contains one more element than **v**



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

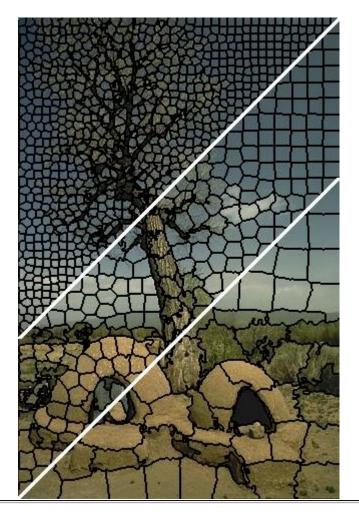


Tensor or Matrix?

- 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.
 - Note the different use in Deep Learning



Super-pixels



Examples from Achanta *et al,* (SLIC)

Showing different sizes of the clusters

Also known as: Oversegmentation



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

