Computational Vision
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Lecture 24: Object Recognition

#### Initialize

#### Spell check off

In[73]:= Off[General::spell1];

# **Outline**

### **Today**

Object recognition

Considerable accumulation of knowledge from computer science, neuroscience, and behavioral studies over the past 20 years. Object recognition in computer vision remains a top-priority project, in part fueled by practical uses for internet image searches. In neuroscience, there have been extensive studies of the role of the primate ventral visual stream in object processing, and one "end-goal" of basic or "core" recognition.

Focus on the computational problems, and consequences for models of human recognition.

Role of geometric modeling in theories of object recognition. Discussion of ideal observer analysis for 3D object recognition

# High-level vision, visual tasks

Let's set the context for object recognition and review of levels of abstraction & task-dependency

#### Intermediate-level vision

How much can vision achieve without knowledge of an object's category, using only generic object and surface properties?

Selection

Generic, global organizational processes Surface grouping, Gestalt principles Occlusion ("domain overlap") & relative depth

Cue integration Cooperative computation Attention

Intermediate-level processes could be useful for interpreting novel objects and scenes. These processes could also be useful for feature extraction to be used to store in memory, and later for testing match against stored representations. The idea is that more abstract features and relations would be more robust to image variations, of the sort discussed below.

### High-level vision

Functional tasks

Object recognition--familiar objects entry-level, subordinate-level Object-object relations Scene recognition Spatial layout Viewer-object relations Object manipulation reach & grasp Heading, time-to-contact

### Task dependency: explicit (primary) and generic (secondary, nuisance) variables

One can't think of invariance without considering what has to be discounted for a given type of task to achieve it. Consider several classes of scene causes of image pattern I.

Image = f(shape, material, articulation, viewpoint, relative position, illumination, foreground and background clutter)

Which variables are more important to estimate precisely for various tasks?

Task: Object Recognition (labelling)

I=f(shape, material, articulation, viewpoint, relative position, illumination, foreground and background clutter)

Distinguish: detection, categorization, and identification. We take a closer look below.

Task: Absolute depth (e.g. for reaching)

I=f(shape, material, articulation, viewpoint, relative position, illumination, foreground and background clutter)

Task: grasp

I=f(shape, material, articulation, viewpoint, relative position, illumination, foreground and background clutter)

Problem: all the scene variables contribute to the variations in the image

### We will mainly focus on shape-based-recognition

Shape-based object recognition:

estimate geometrical shape (primary variables) discount sources of image variation not having to do with shape (secondary variables) e.g. integrating out geometrical variables such as translation, rotation, and scale, but also photometric variables such as illumination, to estimate shape for object recognition.

We'll postpone detailed discussion of the crucial problem that variations due to background clutter, and within-category shape also need to be taken into account.

# Object recognition: computational issues

### Analysis of image variation

Which variables are important to estimate for recognition depends on the level of abstraction required.

#### Variation within subordinate-level category

What distinguishes a mallard from a wood duck? Honeycrisp from a Braeburn? Doberman from a Alsation?

Here's a mental exercise: think of all the ways the images (or "appearances") of an object, like a male mallard duck might vary. List the generative causes.

```
illumination
               level, direction, source arrangement, shadows, spectral content
       view
               scale
               translation
               2D & 3D rotation
       articulation
               non-riaid.
                       e.g. joints, hinges, facial expression, hair, cloth, wings,
       physical size
               small and big apples, shoes, dogs, ...
       background (segmentation)
               bounding contour (affected by variation in pattern of intensities over the boundary
regions)
       occlusion (segmentation)
What is left?
```

### Variation within basic-level category

What distinguishes any duck from any dog, or from a chair or an apple?

Part types and their spatial relationships is one answer. Distinct prototypes each with a space of deformations is another.

How to achieve part-relation invariance within a category? I.e. most coffee cups have a hollow cylinder and a handle. While the

shapes of parts and relative positions can vary somewhat, there is a level of invariance that constrains an instance of a cup to be labeled as a "cup".

We will look at a structural relations theory, and diagnostic "fragment" theory

### Variation across super-ordinate category

(e.g. bird, mammal, furniture, fruit) more cognitive than perceptual, non-pictorial

#### Human vision

#### Basic-level vs. subordinate-level

Is the distinction relevant to human behavior?

Behavioral experiments (Rosch et al.),

Neuropsychological (Damasio and Damasio)

temporal lobe lesions disrupt object recognition

fine-grain distinctions more easily disrupted than coarse-grain ones

e.g. Boswell patient—can't recognize faces of family, friends, unique objects, or unique places. Can assign names like face, house, car, appropriately.

Also superordinate categories: "tool"

prosopagnosics

faces vs. subordinate-level. Categorization but not identification.

neural evidence for distinction? IT hypercolumns?

#### Basic-level

Shape-particularly critical -- but qualitative, rather than metric aspects important.

E.g. geons and geon relations (Biederman).

Material, perhaps for some natural classes?

Issue of prototypes with a model for variation vs. parts.

e.g. average image face, the most familiar

visual priming methods to tease apart distinct representations

Fragment-based methods or "features of intermediate complexity": Ullman, S., Vidal-Naquet, M., & Sali, E. (2002). Learning informative features for class categorization

#### Subordinate-level

geometric variations important for subordinate--e.g. sensitivity to "configurational information" etc... material

Prototypes -> what kind of model for variation?

Problem: With only a discrete set of views, how does vision generalize to other views?

### Other factors

Computational complexity

E.g. a crumpled piece of paper -- difficult to compute and remember exact shape.

A set of diagnostic features may be more relevant.

#### Object ensemble

E.g imagine only one red thing in your world--no need to process its shape. You may get the correct basic and subordinate-level categories.

#### Context is important

Small red thing flying past the trees. High "cue validity" for male Cardinal bird

## Context can even over-ride local cues for identity

Sinha and Poggio, Nature 1996



Democrat coalition.



See too: Cox, D., Meyers, E., & Sinha, P. (2004). Contextually evoked object-specific responses in human visual cortex. Science, 304(5667), 115-117.

## Getting a good image representation

Overview of problems and intermediatel-level processes that are prerequisite for invariant object recognition?

For object recognition, the contributions due to the secondary or "generic variables", (e.g. illumination and viewpoint) need to be discounted, and object features such as shape and material need to be estimated. How?

-- Measurements of image information likely to belong to the object. This principle should constrain segmentation.

regions with similar textures, super-pixels (Shi and Malik, 200; Sharon et al., 2006) problems with: specularities, cast shadows, attached shadows (from shading). edge detection is really noisy, and ambiguous as to cause, so what are these image "features"? although noisy, are edges/groupings sufficiently reliable to determine object class?

- -- Cue integration to improve estimates of where object boundaries are located: combine stereo, motion, chromatic, luminance, etc..
- -- Incorporate intermediate-level constraints to help to find object boundaries or "silhouettes".

Gestalt principles of perceptual organization (symmetry, similarity, proximity, closure, common fate, continuity,..)

long smooth lines (David & Zucker, 1989; Shashua & Ullman, 1988; Field and Hess, 1993)

-- "cooperative computation" for object shape, reflectance and lighting.

"intrinsic images" of Barrow and Tenenbaum explaining away, e.g. for occlusion

Problem: Still no bottom-up procedure for perfect segmentation or edge-parsing. Some improvements with top-down processes in limited domains.

### Open questions regarding shape representations

Object geometry--Surfaces & shape, small scale surface structure How can we describe objects themselves in terms of their geometry? Are objects represented in terms of a view-dependent, dense local representation of shape, e.g. local surface orientation?

Or intrinsic properties, such as curvature?

Or in terms of parts? What is the relationship of parts of objects to each other? Compositional representations

Role in object recognition, e.g. structural descriptions

## To what extent can intermediate-level computations be short-circuited, if the task is narrower--e.g. category labeling with approximate localization?

We'll come back to this when we discuss neural-network inspired, feedforward models of recognition

# Storing information about an object and matching stored information to new appearances

In the next section, we take a closer look at several ways in which to store information about 3D objects in a way that is useful for recognizing novel instances or views of these previously seen objects.

Structural description: high-level features or parts plus relations. How would you describe the letters

A, A, A, and A that is independent of font? Strokes and their spatial relationships. Image-based: low-level features plus metric comparisons, transformations?

2D views?

3D object-centered?

Given a representation of the image information likely to be due to 3D object in memory, how does the brain store, then later when given another view, index and verify? Consider two extremes:

Nearest neighbor to 2D views? Transformation of 3D model to fit 2D view? Or something in between?

# Two broad classes of models for object recognition

### Image-based models

Image description S, memory model M

-Matching

Try various M's to test whether S = F(M)? Here one imagines the brain using its generative model F, to test for inputs that mat

Or one could try to anticipate all the ways in which images of M might vary, and allow for those feedforward:

> test:  $F^{-1}$  (S) = M? Here one imagines the brain has processes that could operate feedforward to get the input in the right invariant format to test against memories. Current feedforward deep convolutional networks work this way. But more on this

What are possible representations of M? And how to model F?

Image-based or "Exemplar" theories view-specific features are stored in memory

Image-based models predicts view-point dependence (e.g. Rock & DiVita (1987),

and in general,

later.

dependence on frequency of experience with particular views. Poggio & Edelman, 1990; Bülthoff & Edelman, 1992; Tarr & Bülthoff, 1995; Liu, Knill & Kersten (1995); Troje & Kersten (1999)

In neural network models, the representations are highly constrained by the assumed neural architecture. E.g. a hierarchy of spatial convolutions, with pooling and sigmoidal non-linearities.

A key issue is how efficiently can a recognition model learn new objects perhaps from only a few exposures, and recognize these objects later from completely new views or "appearances". The next class of models tries to address this issue.

### Structural description and compositional models

These models emphasize the importance of explicitly representing spatial relationships.

Hummel, J. E., & Biederman, I. (1992). Dynamic binding in a neural network for shape recognition. Psychological Review, 99(3), 480-517.

Geman, S., Potter, D. F., & Chi, Z. (2002). Composition systems. Quarterly of Applied Mathematics, 60(4), 707-736.

Structural description theories use invariants to find parts (assumption is that this is easier than for the whole object), build up description of the relations between the parts which description specifies the object. E.g. a triangle shape, the letter "A" (three parts, with two "cross relations" and one "cotermination" relation".

Could be based on 2.5 D sketch => object-centered representation that is independent of viewpoint? e.g. Marr's generalized cylinders

Some versions predict view-point independence

Biederman, 1987) extraction of invariants, "non-accidental properties", such as:

co-linearity of points or lines => colinearity in 3D cotermination of lines=>cotermination in 3D (e.g. Y and arrow vertices) skewed symmetry in 2d=>symmetry in 3D curved line in 2D =>curved line in 3D

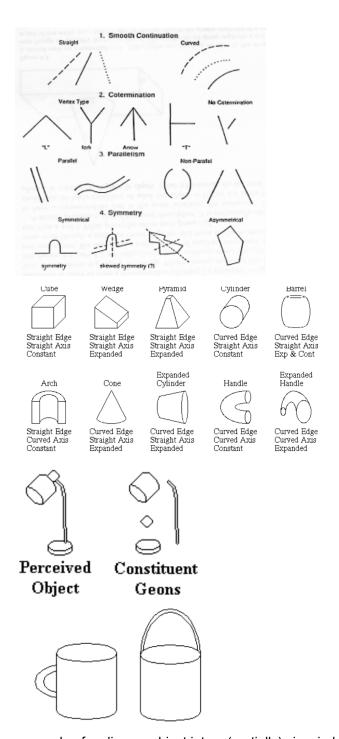
parallel curves in 2D => parallel in 3D (over small regions)

The considerations of non-accidental image properties lead to the idea of objects being represented in terms of elementary "parts" or

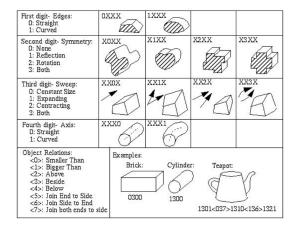
> => geons (box, cylinder, wedge, truncated cone, etc..) and a description of their spatial relationships to each other. partial independence of viewpoint

Figures below from: Biederman, I. (1987). Recognition-by-components: A theory of human image understanding.

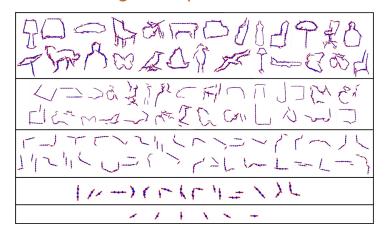
Psychological Review, 94, 115-147.



Geon theory: example of coding an object into a (partially) view-independent description



### Machine learning of compositional models



Zhu, L., Chen, Y., & Yuille, A. (2011). Recursive Compositional Models for Vision: Description and Review of Recent Work. Journal of Mathematical Imaging and Vision, 41(1-2), 122-146. http://doi.org/10.1007/s10851-011-0282-2

Kersten, D. J., & Yuille, A. L. (2013). Vision: Bayesian Inference and Beyond. In J. S. Werner & L. M. Chalupa (Eds.), The New Visual Neurosciences. MIT Press.

Psychophysics: How sophisticated are transformation processes, between image and visual memory, in human recognition?

Ideal observer analysis applied to the problem of view-dependency in 3D object recognition (Liu, Knill & Kersten, 1995; Liu & Kersten, 1998)

One can imagine two quite different ways of verifying whether an unfamiliar view of an object belongs to the object or not. One way is to simply test how close the new view is to the set of stored views, without any kind of "intelligent" combination of the stored views. Given a sufficiently good representation, a simple measure of similarity could produce good recognition performance over restricted sets of views (i.e. not too much self-occlusion).

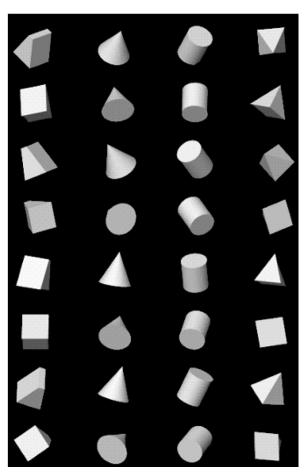
Another way is to combine the stored views in a way that reflects knowledge that they are from a 3D object, and compare the new view to the combined view. The second approach has the potential for greater accuracy than the first.

An example of the second approach would be to use the familiar views to interpolate the unfamiliar views. Given sufficient views and feature points, this latter approach has a simple mathematical realization (Ullman, 1996). An optimal verification algorithm would verify by rotating the actual 3D model of the object, projecting it to 2D and testing for an image match.

Liu et al. (1995) were able to exclude models of the first class (comparisons in 2D) and the last class (comparisions with a full 3D model) in a simple 3D classification task using ideal observer analysis. The ideal observer technique was developed in the context of our studies of quantum efficiency in early vision.

# Psychophysics: Ideal observer for the "snap shot" model of visual recognition: Discounting views

Here is an example of how to use a simple 2D image-based generative model to psychophysicall address the question of what kind of image features are most effective in solving an object recognition task given varying viewpoints and visual noise.



Eight views of four objects. (See Tjan B., Braje, W., Legge, G.E. & Kersten, D. (1995) Human efficiency

for recognizing 3-D objects in luminance noise. Vision Research, 35, 3053-3069.)

Let X = the vector describing the image data. Let  $O_i$  represent object i, where i = 1 to N. Suppose that  $O_i$  is represented in memory by M "snap shots" of each object, call them views (or templates)  $V_{ij}$ , where i = 1, M.

$$\text{In[131]:= } p \text{ } (O_{\text{i}} \text{ } | \text{ } \text{X} \text{) } = \sum_{\text{j}=1}^{M} p \text{ } (V_{\text{ij}} \text{ } | \text{ } \text{X} \text{)}$$

Set::write: Tag Times in  $p(O_i \mid X)$  is Protected  $\gg$ 

Out[131]=  $M p (V_{ij} \mid X)$ 

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{M} \frac{p(X|V_{ij})p(V_{ij})}{p(X)}$$

Given image data, Ideal observer chooses i that maximizes the posterior  $p(O_i \mid X)$ . If we assume that the p(X) is uniform, the optimal strategy is equivalent to choosing i that maximizes:

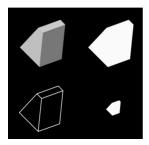
$$\text{In[132]:= } L \text{ (i) } = \sum_{j=1}^{M} p \text{ (X | } V_{ij}) \text{ } p \text{ (} V_{ij})$$

Out[132]= 
$$M~p^2~(~X~|~V_{\mbox{\scriptsize ij}})~V_{\mbox{\scriptsize ij}}$$

If we assume i.i.d additive gaussian noise (as we did for the signal-known-exactly detection ideal), then

$$\label{eq:ln[133]:= p (X | V_{ij}) = \frac{1}{\left(\sigma \sqrt{2 \pi}\right)^p} exp \left(-\frac{1}{2 \sigma^2} \|X - V_{ij}\|^2\right)}$$

where the p in the exponent is the number of pixels in the image.



Tjan et al. showed that size, spatial uncertainty and detection efficiency played large roles in accounting for human object recognition efficiency. Interestingly, highest recognition efficiencies (~7.8%) were found for small silhouettes of the objects, not for line drawings. (The small silhouettes were 0.7 deg, vs. 2.4 deg for the large silhouettes).

# Review of types of image modeling

From Lecture 7.

# Generative models for images: rationale

#### Generative vs. discriminative models

Discriminative models for inference don't explicitly model how the image results from the object description. In Bayesian terms, an algorithm is based on:

p(object | image). For example, the posterior could be constructed as a look-up table: input image, check probabilities on various object descriptions, and pick the one with the biggest posterior probability.

Generative models characterize the range of variations in the image. In Bayesian terms, algorithms explicitly model the likelihood:

 $p(object \mid image) \propto p(image \mid object) p(object)$ 

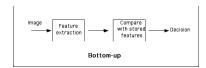
The pros for a generative are, if the visual system has built-in knowledge that can recapitulate the generative process, then recognition should be able to better generalize to novel appearances of a learned object. E.g. to deal with 3D rotations, occlusion. It can learn new objects with fewer examples.

Cons:The consensus in the field has been that modeling generative processes, especially 3D to 2D rendering, can be complex, take too much time to be practical. But see: Kulkarni, T. D., Tenenbaum, J. B., Mansinghka, V. K., & Kohli, P. (2015). Picture: A Probabilistic Programming Language for Scene Perception. Kulkarni, Tejas Dattatraya. Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE)., http://dspace.mit.edu/openaccess-disseminate/1721.1/96620

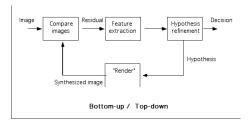
We review the types of generative models with a view to asking whether human vision can be modeled as incorporating a particular kind of generative knowledge for object recognition.

### Characterize the knowledge required for inference

Feedforward procedures:



Pattern theory perspective: "analysis by synthesis"--synthesis phase explicitly incorporates generative model



Note that a top-down generative model can be used in more than one way. The above figure shows it being used to find errors in the top-down predictions. It could also be used to find consistent features.

Generative models can make it easier to conceptualize information flow: Mapping is many-to-one. But as pointed out above, necessarily easy to compute. For example, realistic 3D graphics rendering is computationally intensive.

Two basic concepts: Photometric & geometric variation

Two more basic concepts: 3D scene-based & 2D image-based models of geometric variation

### 3D Scene-based modeling: Computer graphics models

Objects & surfaces: Shape, Articulations, Material & texture

Illumination: Points and extended, Ray-tracing, Radiosity

### Viewpoint/Camera

Projection geometry, homogeneous coordinates:

perspective, orthographic

Application to viewpoint variation: Does human vision compensate for variations using "built-in" knowledge of 3D?

# Image-based modeling

### Linear intensity-based

Basis sets:

I = m1\*I1 + m2\*I2 + m3\*I3 + ...

application: optics of the eve

application: illumination variation for fixed views of an object, useful in object

recognition

### Linear geometry-based

Affine:

rigid translations, rotations, scale and shear Application to viewpoint variation: 2D approximations to 3D variations?

## Non-linear geometry-based

Morphs

Application:within-category variation for an object, or objects

finding the "average" face

Both linear and non-linear based methods raise the general question:

Does human recognition store object prototypes together with some perhaps image-based model of possible transformations to look for

a match of incoming image data with a stored template?

# Modeling geometric variation: 3D scene-based modeling

Let's assume that the 2D spatial locations of certain features are stored for a given object. The math that describes how the 3D locations can be transformed and mapped on to the retinal coordinates has been known for many years, and is built into virtually all 3D graphics engines. The math will give us a handle on how to quantitatively think about matching image features to stored memory.

Let's look at the math. There are four basic types of transformations: rotation, scale, translation, and

projection. First rotations. Then we'll put rotations together with the other transformations using homogeneous coordinates.

### Representing Rotations

See Rotate[] and RotationMatrix[] for built-in Mathematica functions for doing rotations.

### **Euler angles**

Euler angles are a standard way of representing rotations of a rigid body.

A rotation specified by the Euler angles psi, theta, and phi can be decomposed into a sequence of three successive rotations: first by angle psi about the z axis, the second by angle theta about the x axis, and the third about the z axis (again) by angle phi. The angle theta is restricted to the range 0 to  $\pi$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} & \text{ln} [74] \coloneqq \text{RotationMatrix3D}[\psi_-, \, \theta_-, \, \phi_-] := \begin{pmatrix} \cos[\phi] \cos[\psi] - \cos[\theta] \sin[\phi] \sin[\psi] & \cos[\theta] \cos[\psi] \sin[\psi] \\ -\cos[\psi] \sin[\phi] - \cos[\theta] \cos[\phi] \sin[\psi] & \cos[\theta] \cos[\phi] \cos[\phi] \cos[\psi] \\ & \sin[\theta] \sin[\psi] & -\cos[\psi] \end{pmatrix} \\ \end{array}$$

ln[75]:= RotationMatrix3D[ $\psi$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ ] // MatrixForm

Out[75]//MatrixForm=

```
\cos\left[\phi\right]\,\cos\left[\psi\right]\,-\cos\left[\theta\right]\,\sin\left[\phi\right]\,\sin\left[\psi\right]\,\cos\left[\theta\right]\,\cos\left[\psi\right]\,\sin\left[\phi\right]\,+\cos\left[\phi\right]\,\sin\left[\psi\right]\,\sin\left[\theta\right]\,\sin\left[\phi\right]
-\cos\left[\psi\right]\,\sin\left[\phi\right]\,-\cos\left[\theta\right]\,\cos\left[\phi\right]\,\sin\left[\psi\right]\,\,\cos\left[\theta\right]\,\cos\left[\phi\right]\,\cos\left[\psi\right]\,-\sin\left[\phi\right]\,\sin\left[\psi\right]\,\,\cos\left[\phi\right]\,\sin\left[\theta\right]
                                 Sin[\theta] Sin[\psi]
                                                                                                                                              -\cos[\psi] \sin[\theta]
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      Cos[θ]
```

ln[76]:= RotationMatrix3D[ $\psi$ , 0, 0] // MatrixForm

Out[76]//MatrixForm=

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} \cos \left[ \psi \right] & \sin \left[ \psi \right] & 0 \\ -\sin \left[ \psi \right] & \cos \left[ \psi \right] & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

In[77]:= RotationMatrix3D[0, θ, 0] // MatrixForm

Out[77]//MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\left[\theta\right] & \sin\left[\theta\right] \\ 0 & -\sin\left[\theta\right] & \cos\left[\theta\right] \end{pmatrix}$$

ln[78]:= RotationMatrix3D[0, 0,  $\phi$ ] // MatrixForm

Out[78]//MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos[\phi] & \sin[\phi] & 0 \\ -\sin[\phi] & \cos[\phi] & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Homogeneous coordinates

Rotation and scaling can be done by linear matrix operations in three-space. Translation and perspective transformations do not have a three dimensional matrix representation. By going from three dimensions to four dimensional coordinates, all four of the above basic operations can be represented within the formalism of matrix multiplication.

Homogeneous coordinates are defined by: {xw, yw, zw, w}, (w not equal to 0). To get from homogeneous coordinates to three-space coordinates, {x,y,z}, divide the first three homogeneous coordinates by the fourth, {w}. For more information, see references on 3D graphics, e.g. Foley, J., van Dam, A., Feiner, S., & Hughes, J. (1990).

The rotation and translation matrices can be used to describe object or eye-point changes of position. The scaling matrix allows you to squash or expand objects in any of the three directions. Any combina-

tion of the matrices can be multiplied together or concatenated. But remember, matrices do not in general commute, so the order is important. The translation, rotation, and perspective transformation matrices can be concatenated to describe general 3-D to 2-D perspective mappings.

We will use these definitions later when we develop a theory for computing structure from motion, spatial layout and direction of heading.

```
In[79]:= XRotationMatrix[theta] := {{1, 0, 0, 0},
         {0, Cos[theta], Sin[theta], 0}, {0, -Sin[theta], Cos[theta], 0}, {0, 0, 0, 1}};
     YRotationMatrix[theta_] := {{Cos[theta], 0, -Sin[theta], 0},
         {0, 1, 0, 0}, {Sin[theta], 0, Cos[theta], 0}, {0, 0, 0, 1}};
     ZRotationMatrix[theta] := {{Cos[theta], Sin[theta], 0, 0},
         {-Sin[theta], Cos[theta], 0, 0}, {0, 0, 1, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 1}};
     ScaleMatrix[sx_{,} sy_{,} sz_{,}] := \{ \{sx, 0, 0, 0\}, \{0, sy, 0, 0\}, \{0, 0, sz, 0\}, \{0, 0, 0, 1\} \};
     TranslateMatrix[x_{,} y_{,} z_{]} := \{\{1, 0, 0, 0\}, \{0, 1, 0, 0\}, \{0, 0, 1, 0\}, \{x, y, z, 1\}\};
     ThreeDToHomogeneous[vec_] := Append[vec, 1];
     \texttt{HomogeneousToThreeD[vec_]} := \texttt{Drop} \left[ \frac{\texttt{vec}}{\texttt{vec} \llbracket 4 \rrbracket}, -1 \right];
     ZProjectMatrix[focal_] :=
        \{\{1,0,0,0\},\{0,1,0,0\},\{0,0,0,-N[\frac{1}{focal}]\},\{0,0,0,1\}\};
     ZOrthographic[vec_] := Take[vec, 2];
```

#### Translation by $\{d \, x, d \, y, d \, z\}$ can be found by applying the matrix

```
TranslateMatrix[d_x, d_y, d_z] // MatrixForm
```

 $ln[90] = \{x, y, z, 1\}$ . TranslateMatrix[ $d_x, d_y, d_z$ ] Out[90]=  $\{x + d_x, y + d_y, z + d_z, 1\}$ 

to  $\{x,y,z,1\}$ 

$$(x+d_x, y+d_y, z+d_z, 1) = (x, y, z, 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ d_x & d_y & d_z & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## The scaling matrix is:

In[91]:= ScaleMatrix[sx, sy, sz] // MatrixForm

$$\begin{pmatrix} \{0.707107, 1, 0.707107\}_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \{0.707107, 1, 0.707107\}_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \{0.707107, 1, 0.707107\}_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# There are three matrices for general rotation:

z-axis (moving the positive x-axis towards the positive y-axis)

In[92]:= **ZRotationMatrix**[θ] // MatrixForm

Out[92]//MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos[\theta] & \sin[\theta] & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin[\theta] & \cos[\theta] & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

x-axis (moving the positive y towards the positive z)

In[93]:= XRotationMatrix[θ] // MatrixForm

Out[93]//MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos[\theta] & \sin[\theta] & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin[\theta] & \cos[\theta] & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

y-axis (moving positive z towards positive x):

In[94]:= YRotationMatrix[θ] // MatrixForm

Out[94]//MatrixForm=

$$egin{pmatrix} \cos{[\Theta]} & 0 & -\sin{[\Theta]} & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ \sin{[\Theta]} & 0 & \cos{[\Theta]} & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ \end{pmatrix}$$

### Perspective

Perspective transformation is the only one that requires extracting the three-space coordinates by dividing the homogeneous coordinates by the fourth component w. The projection plane is the x-y plane, and the focal point is at z = d. Then  $\{x, y, z, 1\}$  maps onto  $\{x, y, 0, -z/d + 1\}$  by the following transformation:

In[95]:= Clear[d]

ZProjectMatrix[d] // MatrixForm

Out[96]//MatrixForm=

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{d} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

After normalization, the image coordinates {x',y',z'} are read from:

$$(x', y', z', 1) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{xd}{d-z}, \frac{yd}{d-z}, 0, 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The steps can be seen here:

```
In[97]:= Clear[x, y, z, d]
         {x, y, z, 1}.ZProjectMatrix[d]
         \{x, y, z, 1\}. ZProjectMatrix[d] /%[[4]]
         HomogeneousToThreeD[{x, y, z, 1}.ZProjectMatrix[d]]
         Simplify[ZOrthographic[HomogeneousToThreeD[{x, y, z, 1}.ZProjectMatrix[d]]]]
Out[98]= \{x, y, 0, 1 - \frac{z}{d}\}
Out[99]= \left\{ \frac{x}{1-\frac{z}{2}}, \frac{y}{1-\frac{z}{2}}, 0, 1 \right\}
Out[100]= \left\{ \frac{x}{1-\frac{z}{2}}, \frac{y}{1-\frac{z}{2}}, 0 \right\}
Out[101]= \left\{ \frac{dx}{dx}, \frac{dy}{dx} \right\}
```

The matrix for orthographic projection has d-> infinity.

```
log_{[02]} = Limit[ZOrthographic[HomogeneousToThreeD[\{x, y, z, 1\}.ZProjectMatrix[d]]], d \rightarrow \infty]
Out[102]= \{x, y\}
```

The perspective transformation is the only singular matrix in the above group. This means that, unlike the others its operation is not invertible. Given the image coordinates, the original scene points cannot be determined uniquely.

### Example: transforming, projecting a 3D object

We are going to generate a "view" of random 3D object. Imagine that you've seen this view (threeDtemplate) and stored it in memory. Later you get a view (newvertices) of either the same object or a different one, and you want to check if it is the same object as before. You need to make some kind of comparison test.

We'll keep it simple and do orthographic projection.

```
In[103]:= orthoproject[x_] := Delete[x, Table[{i, 3}, {i, 1, Length[x]}]];
```

## Define 3D target object - Wire with randomly positioned vertices

```
In[104]:= threeDtemplate = Table[{RandomReal[], RandomReal[]}, RandomReal[]}, {5}];
```

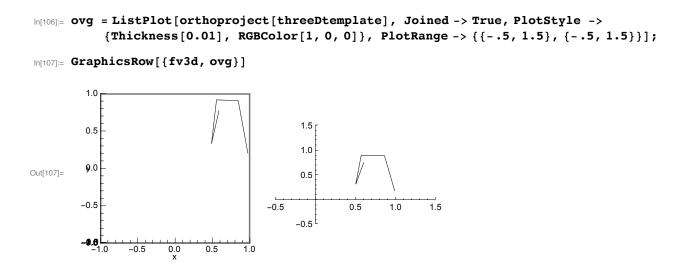
#### First view

### View from along Z-direction

```
In[105]:= lines = Partition[threeDtemplate, 2, 1];
     fv3d = Graphics3D[{Thick, Red, Line[lines]}, ViewPoint → {0, 0, 100},
        PlotRange \rightarrow {{-1, 1}, {-1, 1}}, AspectRatio \rightarrow 1, Axes \rightarrow True,
        AxesLabel → {"x", "y", "z"}, ImageSize → Small, PreserveImageOptions → True];
```

#### ListPlot view

We can also do the projection ourselves:



#### **New View**

-0.5

We pick an arbitrary view of the above object.

### Use Homogeneous coordinates

```
In[108]:= swidth = 1.0; sheight = 1.0; slength = 1.0; d = 0;
In[109]:= homovertices = Transpose[Map[ThreeDToHomogeneous, threeDtemplate]];
      newtransformMatrix = TranslateMatrix[.3, 0, 0].XRotationMatrix[N\left[\frac{\pi}{2} * .3\right]].
          YRotationMatrix \left[N\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}*.2\right]\right]. ScaleMatrix[swidth, sheight, slength];
ln[111]:= temp = N[newtransformMatrix.homovertices];
       Take a look at the new view
In[112]:= newvertices = Map[HomogeneousToThreeD, Transpose[temp]];
In[113]:= ListPlot[orthoproject[newvertices], Joined -> True,
        PlotStyle -> {Thickness[0.01], RGBColor[0, 0, 1]},
        PlotRange \rightarrow {\{-.5, 1.5\}, \{-.5, 1.5\}}, ImageSize \rightarrow Small]
            1.5
            1.0
Out[113]=
            0.5
                                 1.5
       -0.5
                    0.5
                           1.0
```

Exercise: look at new view by coding the orthographic projection yourself

# Modeling geometric variation: linear 2D image, geometrybased modeling as an approximation to 3D scene-based variation

Suppose that we encounter a new view of the 3D object, i.e. from some new arbitrary viewpoint. This new viewpoint can be modeled as a 3D rotation and translation of the object.

If we want to see if the new and old images are of the same object, we could try to rotate a 3D representation of the object. But this would require knowledge of 3D.

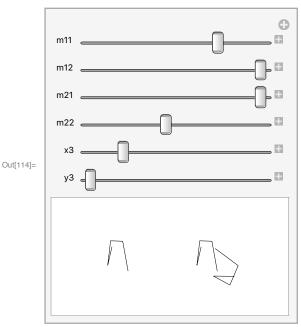
Alternatively, if one projects a rotation in 3D onto a 2D view, we can try to approximate the rotation by a 2D affine transformation. A 2D affine transformation is a simple 2D operation, perhaps it is sufficient to account for the generalization of familiar to unfamiliar views?

#### Affine transformation preserves parallel lines.

We know that rotations, scale and shear transformations will preserve parallel lines. So will translations. It is not immediately apparent, that any matrix operation is an affine transformation, although one has to remember that translations are not represented by matrix operations unless one goes to homogeneous coordinates. Lecture 7 had a simple demo of the parallel line preservation for transformations of a square.

Try to find values of a 2D matrix  $(M2=\{\{m11,m12\},\{m21,m22\}\})$  and 2D translations (x3,y3) that bring newvertices as close as possible to the threeDtemplate stored in memory.

```
In[114]:= Manipulate[
       x1 = orthoproject[threeDtemplate];
       M2 = \{\{m11, m12\}, \{m21, m22\}\};
      x2 = (M2.#1 &) /@orthoproject[newvertices];
       x2b = # + {x3, y3} & /@ x2;
     GraphicsRow[{Graphics[Line[x1], PlotRange \rightarrow {{-.5, 1.5}}, {-.5, 1.5}}],
          Graphics[{Line[x1], Line[x2b]}, PlotRange \rightarrow {{-.5, 1.5}}, {-.5, 1.5}}]},
        ImageSize → Small],
       \{\{m11, 1\}, -2, 2\}, \{\{m12, 2\}, -2, 2\}, \{\{m21, 2\}, -2, 2\},
       \{\{m22, 0\}, -2, 2\}, \{x3, -1, 1\}, \{y3, -1, 1\}]
```



# Compute closest least squares affine match with translation

```
ln[t15]:= aff = {{aa, bb}, {cc, dd}}; tra = {ff, gg};
      errorsum :=
        Apply[Plus, Flatten[(#+tra & /@ (aff.#1 &) /@orthoproject[newvertices] -
              orthoproject[threeDtemplate])^2]];
     temp = FindMinimum[errorsum, {aa, .8}, {bb, .2}, {cc, .16}, {dd, .8},
         {ff, 0.0}, {gg, 0.0}, MaxIterations -> 200];
     minvals = Take[temp, -1][[1]]; minerr = Take[temp, 1][[1]];
     naff = aff /. minvals; ntra = tra /. minvals;
     minerr
Out[120]= 0.0280355
```

-0.5

#### Check match with estimated view

```
In[121]:= estim = naff.Transpose[orthoproject[newvertices]] + ntra;
```

0.5

#### Plot first original view, new view and the affine estimate of the first from the new

```
In[122]:= evg = ListPlot[
        {orthoproject[threeDtemplate], Transpose[estim], orthoproject[newvertices]},
        Joined -> True, PlotStyle -> {{Thickness[0.002], RGBColor[1, 0, 0]},
                        {Thickness[0.005], RGBColor[0, .5, 0]},
                        {Thickness[0.005], RGBColor[0, 0, 1]}},
          PlotRange -> \{\{-.5, 1.5\}, \{-.5, 1.5\}\}
                 1.5
                 1.0
Out[122]=
                 0.5
```

Liu & Kersten (1998) compared human recognition performance with 2D affine observers. The targets were paper-clip like objects as above, except thicker with some shading. Human performance was somewhat better than the affine observer, suggesting that people can incorporate additional 3D information, perhaps from the shading/occlusion information, together with a "smarter" model.

1.5

# Appendix: Neuropsychological and neurophysiological studies

1.0

# Neuropsychological Studies

-0.5 L

Category-specific breakdowns

Inferomedial occipito-temporal region, (right hemi), fusiform and lingual gyri--> prosopagnosia. Can recognize other objects (even with comparable structural complexity), and can recognize a face as a face, and can name its parts.

...but is it a problem with individuation in a class? Evidence suggesting prosopagnosics have a problem distinguishing fruits, playing cards, autos, etc.. Bird-watcher lost ability. Farmer couldn't identify his cows. Damasio's patients could recognize horses, owls, elephants, but had problems with dollar sign, British pound sign, musical clef. --> perhaps a problem with inter-category discriminations (subordinate-level), rather than complexity per se.

Corroboration--patient with car agnosia could still identify ambulance and fire engine (distinct entry point attributes)

BUT, propospagnosia does seem sometimes to occur without any of the subordinate-level deficit. Patients impaired for living, but not non-living things.

<<20 questions and recognition>>

Summary: Two types of visual memory:

recognition that involves representing and distinguishing prototypes

<< Different protypes in different IT hypercolumns?>>

recognition that involves distinguishing deviations between members with the same prototype (inferomedial occipito-temporal)

<<pre><<pre>column?>>

Deficits in recognizing facial expressions

Dissociation between face recognition and recognizing facial expressions.

Some proso's can't recognize an individual face, but can recognize the expression.

Damasio reports bilateral amygdala lesion patient could recognize individual faces, but did not do well with expressions of happiness, surprise, fear, anger, etc.. Monkeys too (Weiskrantz, 1956)

Metamorphopsia with faces. Another patient experiences metamorphopsia with objects other than faces.

Visuomotor

DF

### **Electrophysiological Studies**

V1-> V2 -> V4 -> IT-> TEO (PIT) -> TE

not strictly serial

V2, V3, V4, corpus callosum-> IT

TE, TEO connected to thalamus, hypothalamus,...

Object information might even skip IT and go to limbic structures or striatum...

>abstract categorizations (with high cue validity) perhaps possible even with damage to TE

## Physiological properties of IT neurons

Physiological properties of IT neurons

Gross. IT as last exclusive visual area.

Posterior TEO, cells similar to V4, visuotopic, repres. contralateral vis. field, rf.s larger than V4. (small as 1.5 - 2.5 deg)

anterior TE, complex stimuli required. TE not visutopic, large ipsi, contra or bilat. rfs.

30 to 50 deg rfs.

Cells often respond more vigorously to Fovea stimulation

Shape selectivity (some in V4), lots in IT. natural objects, walsh functions, faces, hands.

Invariance? Rare to find size or position constancy--but selectivity falls off slowly over size and position.

Thus in this sense roughly 50% of cells show size and position invariance.

Cue invariant--motion, texture or luminance defined shape boundaries. BUT, contrast polarity sensitive. >>shape from shading?

Two mechanisms?

1) prototypes of objects that can be decomposed into parts.

parts important.

2) holistic, configurational. Part features not useful for discrimination, but whole is.

### Combination encoding

Tanaka & modules for similar shapes, columnar organization. \ >1300 prototype modules?? RBC?

Sufficient for representing an exemplar of a category? Or when holistic information is required? L&S suggest combination encoding not used for holistic representation. Evidence: Many celss in TE and STS code overall shape of biologically important objects--not features or parts. Novel wire objects too.

### Selectivity for biologically important stimuli

Face cells - TEa, TEm, STS, amygdala, inf. convexity of prefrontal cortex.

Some cells like features (e.g. eyes). Other like the whole face, or face-view, or even highly selective for face-gaze angle, head direction, and body posture.

Face cells, invariant over size and position, less so over orientation--upright preferred.

Face identity cells in IT,

but facial expression, gaze direction, and vantage point in STS

PET, posterior fusiform gyrus for face matching, gender disc.

mid-fusiform for unique face

IT cells for whole human body, mostly viewer centered cells. 20% holistic

### Configurational selectivity for novel objects

L et al., and L&S's work. on wires, etc. ant. medial temporal sulcus view-selective "blurred templates" enantiomorphic views undistinguished many showed broad size tuning Action-related MT -> parietal MST, FST, LIP, 7, LIP cells sensitive to grasp shape of hand

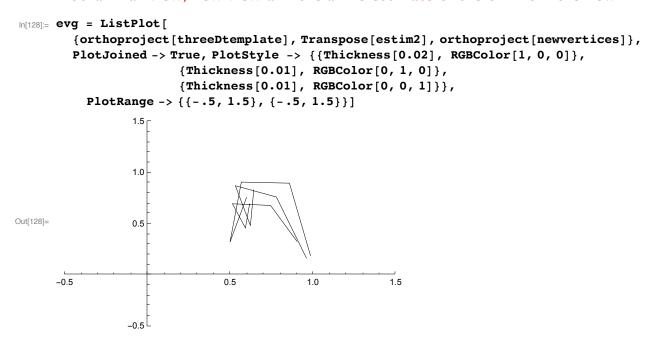
# Compute closest least squares affine match without translation

```
In[126]:= naff2 = Transpose[orthoproject[threeDtemplate]].
        PseudoInverse[Transpose[orthoproject[newvertices]]]
Out[126]= \{\{1.07289, -0.0279673\}, \{-0.371131, 1.52377\}\}
```

#### Check match with estimated view

```
ln[127]:= estim2 = naff2.Transpose[orthoproject[newvertices]];
```

### Plot familiar view, new view and the affine estimate of the old from the new



## Test set of newvertices and threeDtemplate

```
0.23981762582649485
                                              0.14312418380466885
                                                                    0.03003120544761813
                        0.2624091279705781
                                               0.4565009537332048
                                                                     0.1221875974954246
In[129]:= (*threeDtemplate=|0.019392922865028396
                                              0.016530310373452352
                                                                     0.5906147114395374
                        0.06481020981636326
                                               0.6548152420848915
                                                                      0.40459291550719
                        0.6422482206653176
                                                                    0.22053936016974654
                                               0.7719461816974882
                    0.2215818503538964
                                         0.09974436717830631` -0.09854211812818665`
                    0.26452283137288907
                                         0.3891455135818127
                                                              -0.16199300398045482
In[130]:= (*newvertices=
                    0.18952784909991596
                                         0.25183584120022917
                                                               0.45991480775746235
                    0.17676551774440416
                                         0.7093221832702079
                                                               0.026256226849368618
                    0.5640697249874365
                                                              -0.28280208011255054
                                          0.5756717475918378
```

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