



http://vision.cs.hacettepe.edu.tr

Visual saliency

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Where do we look on these images?



The squares shows where 15 observers looked in eye tracking experiments



Slide credit: T. Judd 2

What is attention?





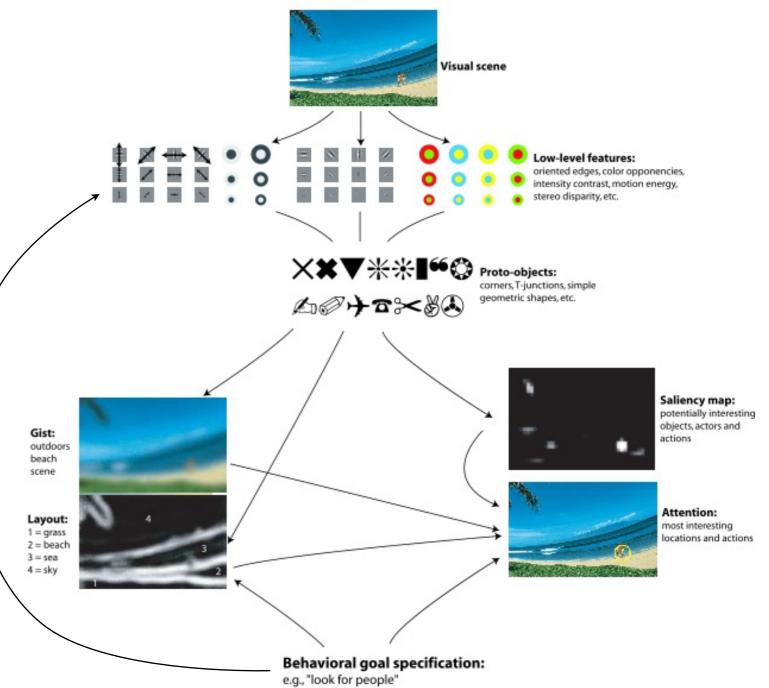
Why do perceptual systems need attention?

- Limited resources
 - Our visual system processes an enormous amount of data coming from the retina. ~10⁸ bits/sec [Itti, 2000]
- Warning
 - noticing predators, sudden motion, etc.
- Exploration
 - ➡ finding preys, locating objects, etc.



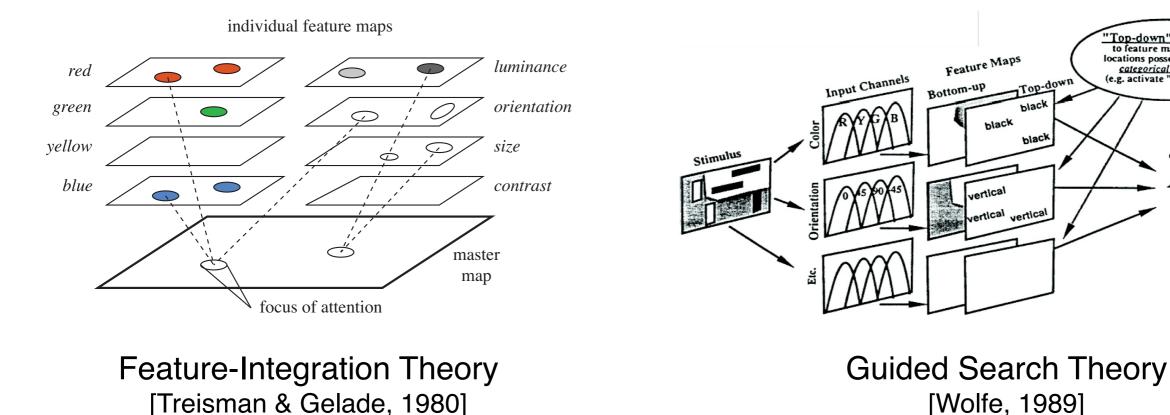
Attentional mechanisms

- Attention is a complex set of interrelated processes:
 - selection of information (bottom-up)
 - integration of that information with existing knowledge (top-/ down)
 - Bottom-up
 - very rapid, primitive, task-independent
 - Top-down
 - slower, under cognitive control, task-dependent





Theories of visual attention



[Treisman & Gelade, 1980]

- processing occurs in parallel • and focused attention occurs in serial
- visual search relies on a combination of bottom-up and topdown activity

Top-down" commands to feature maps activate

locations possessing specific

Activation Map

categorical attributes

(e.g. activate "black" lines



Task-based visual attention



"They did not expect him" by Repin

 Yarbus (1967) was the first to show that <u>task influences</u> eye fixation locations.

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Task-based visual attention





Free examination.



Estimate material circumstances of the family



Give the ages of the people.



Surmise what the family had been doing before the arrival of the unexpected visitor.

Remember the clothes worn by the people. 5



Remember positions of people and objects in the room.

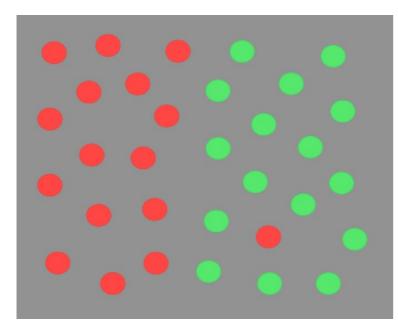


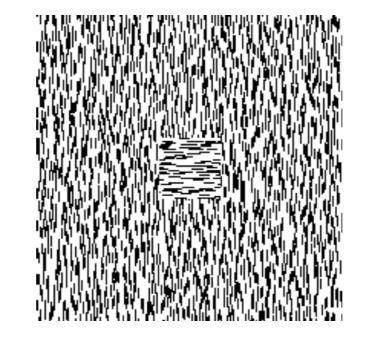
Estimate how long the visitor had been away from the family. 3 min. recordings of the same subject

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Visual saliency

- "Saliency at a given location is determined primarily by how different this location is from its surround in color, orientation, motion, depth, etc." [Koch & Ullman, 1985]
- "Visual salience (or visual saliency) is the distinct subjective perceptual quality which makes some items in the world stand out from their neighbors and immediately grab our attention." [Itti, 2007]







Beyond biology: Applications in Computer Vision

- Most computer vision algorithms have relied on brute-force (e.g. sliding window) strategies.
- Attentional mechanisms provide a relatively free and fast mechanism to select a few candidates while eliminating background clutter.
- To list a few of possible applications
 - Scene classification [Siagian & Itti, 2007]
 - → Object recognition [Gao et al., 2009; Rutishauser et al., 2004]
 - → object tracking [Butko et al., 2008]
 - ➡ robotics [Frintrop et al., 2006; Siagian & Itti, 2007]
 - Content-based image resizing [Achanta & Susstrunk, 2009; Avidan & Shamir, 2007]

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Computational models of visual saliency

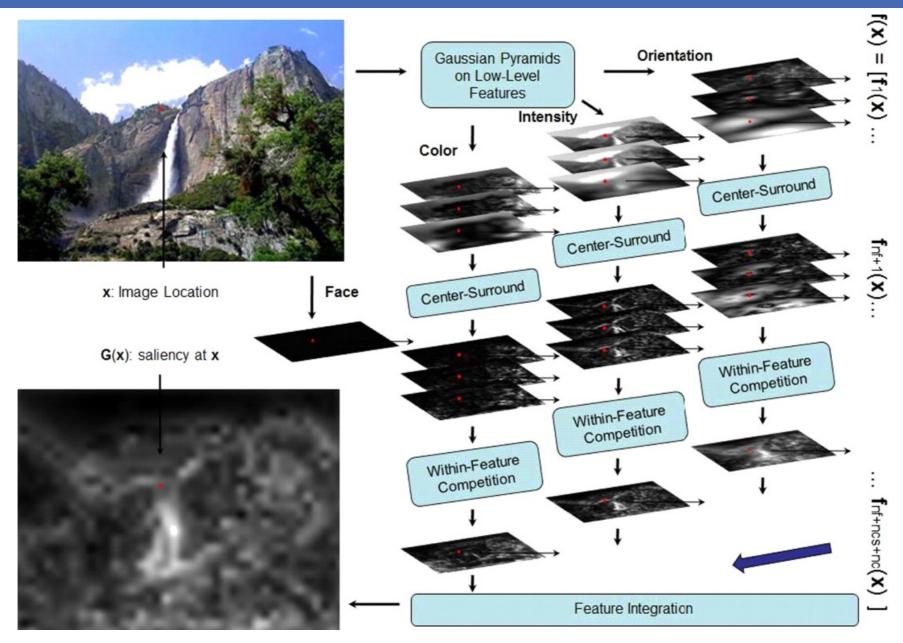
Can machines predict where humans look at a given image?



- [Itti & Koch, 1998]
 - One of the first computational models of visual attention to predict where people look
 - A bottom-up model
 - An implementation of Koch & Ullman, 1985
 - It employs a multi-scale center-surround mechanism which imitates the workings of the retinal receptive field.

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Bottom-up models of visual saliency



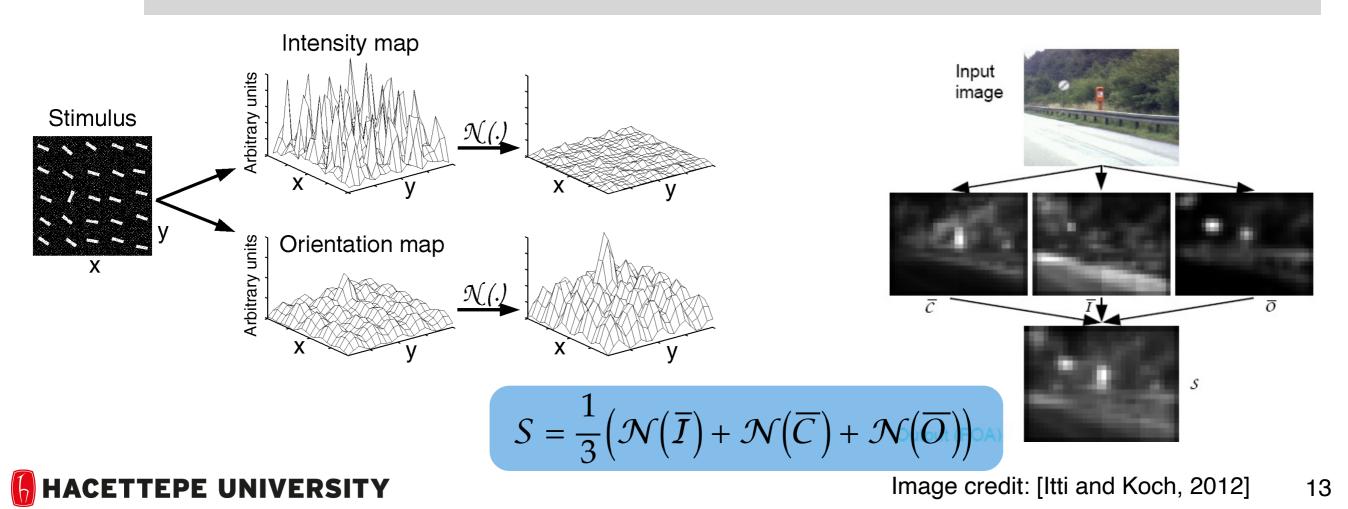
The common basic structure is:

- (i) Extract visual features,
- (ii) Compute a saliency map for each feature channel
- (iii) Compute a final saliency map by combining individual saliency maps

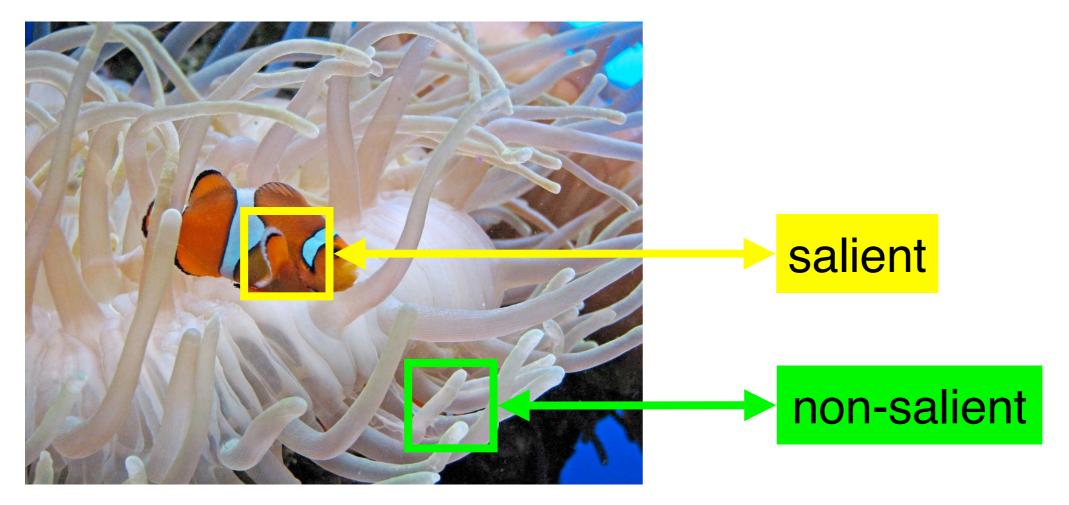
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Feature integration step

- The most troublesome step
 - typically carried out by taking weighted average (linear summation).
 - But how different feature dimensions contribute to the overall saliency is still an open question! [Callaghan, 1989, 1990; Eckstein et al., 2000; Rosenholtz, 1999, 2001; Rosenholtz et al., 2004]

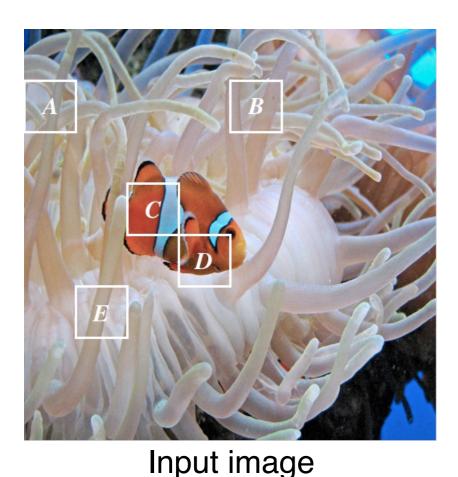


- a patch-based formulation
 - patches with <u>rare appearance characteristics</u> are considered as salient.





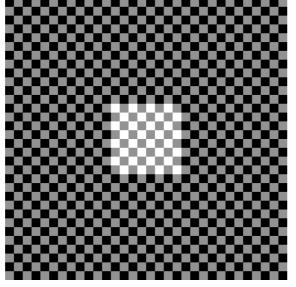
- The region covariance descriptor [Tuzel et al., 2006]
 - captures local image structures better than standard linear filters.
 - naturally provides nonlinear integration of different features by modeling their correlations.



 $\mathbf{C}_{R} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{f}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) (\mathbf{f}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T}$ $\{\mathbf{f}_{i}\}_{i = 1...n} : d\text{-dimensional feature points inside R}$ $\begin{bmatrix} L(x,y) \ a(x,y) \ b(x,y) \ \left| \frac{\partial I(x,y)}{\partial x} \right| \ \left| \frac{\partial I(x,y)}{\partial y} \right| \ x \ y \end{bmatrix}^{T}$ A = B = C = D = EExtracted region covariance descriptors

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Sometimes covariances may not be enough



Covariances alone can not explain changes in the means!

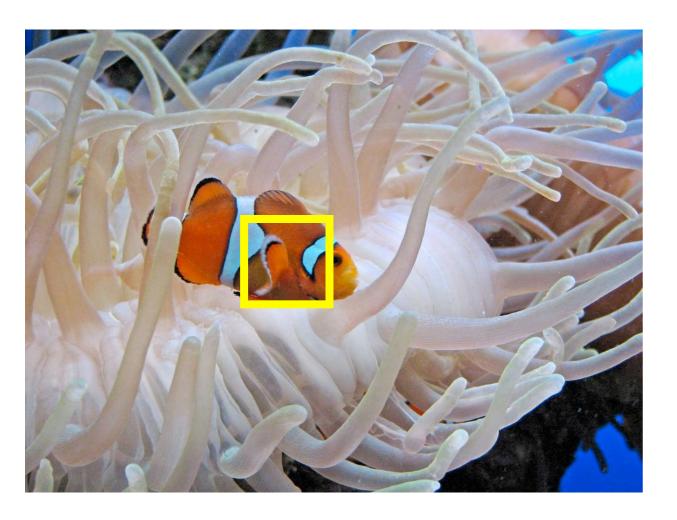
- We additionally incorporate first-order statistics
 - Sigmapoints [Hong et al., 2009; Julier & Uhlmann, 1996]

 $\mathbf{s}_{i} = \begin{cases} \alpha \sqrt{d} \mathbf{L}_{i} & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq d \\ -\alpha \sqrt{d} \mathbf{L}_{i} & \text{if } d+1 \leq i \leq 2d \end{cases} \quad \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^{T} \text{ Cholesky decomposition}$

→ Final representation: $\Psi(\mathbf{C}) = (\mu, \mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_d, \mathbf{s}_{d+1}, \dots, \mathbf{s}_{2d})^T$

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 Visual dissimilarity between two patches R₁ and R₂ can be computed by using the following metrics:



For covariance descriptor:

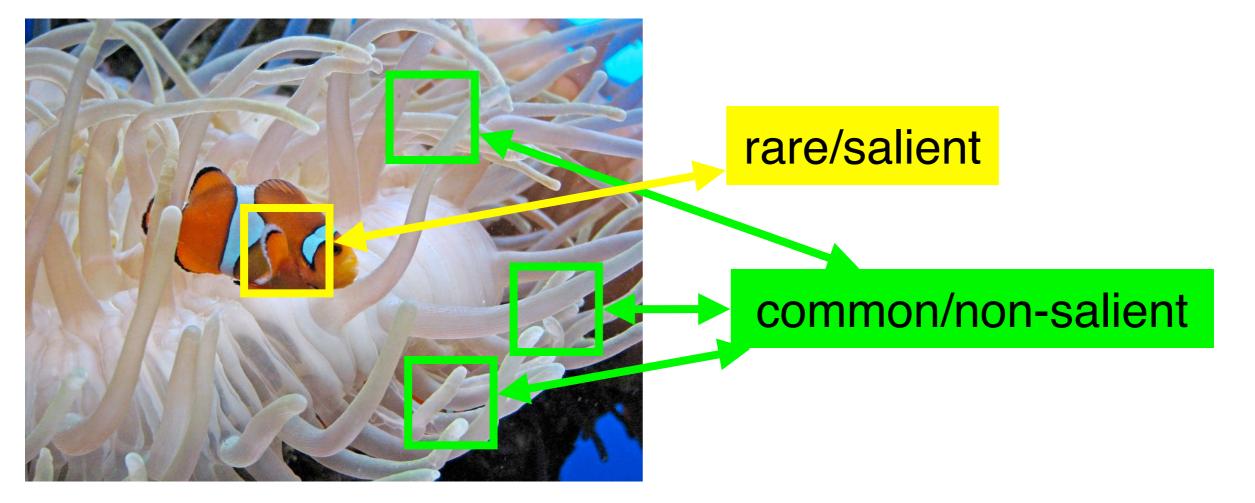
$$\rho(\mathbf{C}_1, \mathbf{C}_2) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n ln^2 \lambda_i(\mathbf{C}_1, \mathbf{C}_2)}$$

[Föerstner & Moonen, 1999]

For sigma points descriptor: $||\Psi(\mathbf{C}_i) - \Psi(\mathbf{C}_j)||$

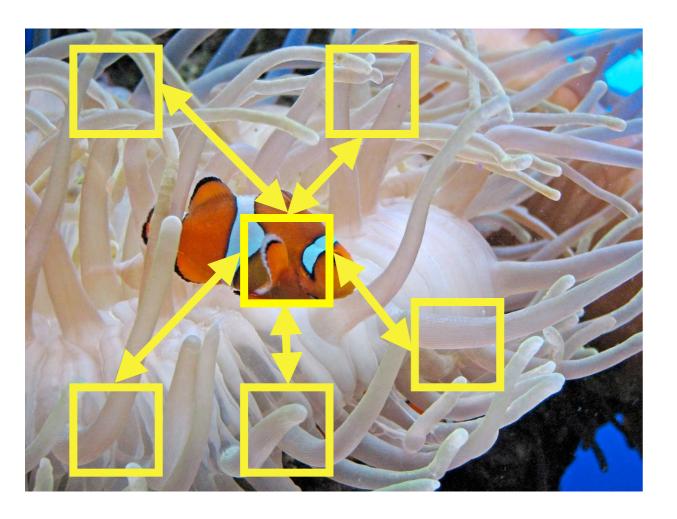


- If the patch is highly dissimilar to the patches surrounding it — rare/salient
- Otherwise common/non-salient





 The saliency of *R_i* is defined as the weighted average of the dissimilarities between *R_i* to the <u>m most similar</u> regions around it.



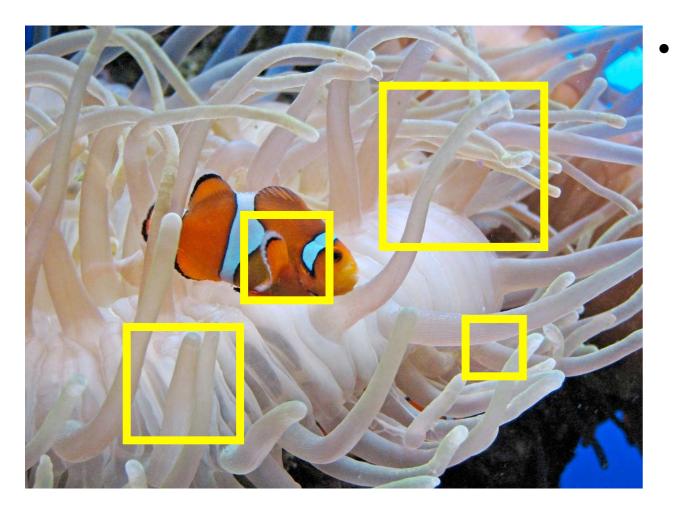
$$S(R_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m d(R_i, R_j)$$

Addel 1
$$d(R_i, R_j) = \frac{\rho(\mathbf{C}_i, \mathbf{C}_j)}{1 + ||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j||}$$

Model 2 $d'(R_i, R_j) = \frac{||\Psi(\mathbf{C}_i) - \Psi(\mathbf{C}_j)||}{1 + ||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j||}$

weighting covariance distances by inverse spatial distance decreases the influence of visually similar nearby regions

- In an image, salient parts can and do appear over a wide range of scales.
- Saliency detection should be carried out simultaneously at multiple scales.



Employ a fusion strategy to combine single-scale maps to come up with one final saliency map:

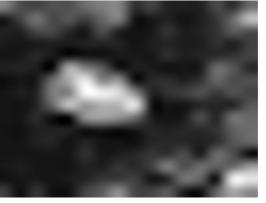
$$S(x) = G_{\sigma}(x) * \prod_{k \in K} \hat{S}^k(x)$$

Spatial coincidence assumption: An image part is treated as salient if it is salient at all scales.





scale 1



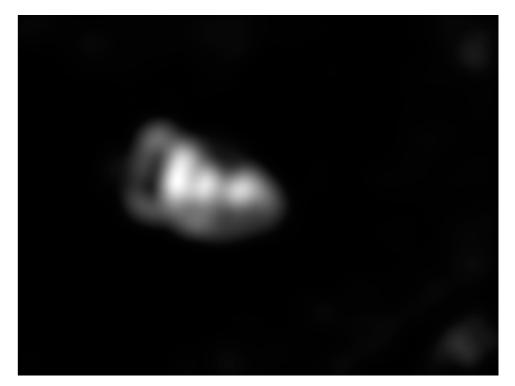
scale 3

scale 5

input image

Saliency analysis at 5 different scales.

$$S(x) = G_{\sigma}(x) * \prod_{k \in K} \hat{S}^k(x)$$



final saliency map

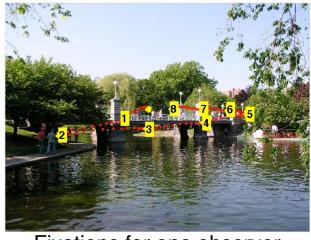


Benchmark Data Sets

- Benchmark image data sets with eye fixation data (free-viewing)
 - → Toronto data set [Bruce & Tsotsos, 2006]
 - → MIT 1003 data set [Judd et al., 2009]
 - → MIT 300 data set [Judd et al., 2012]



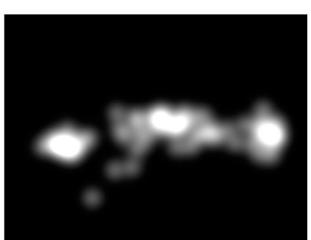
[Photo Credit: Jason Dorfman CSAIL website]



Fixations for one observer



Fixations from 15 observers



Fixation map Image credits: T. Judd 22

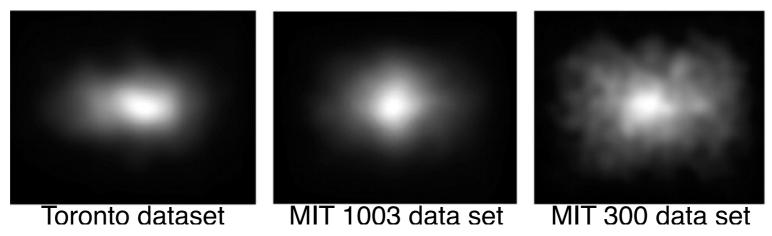
eye tracking experiments



Center bias

• Experiments show that there is a tendency in humans to look towards the image center.

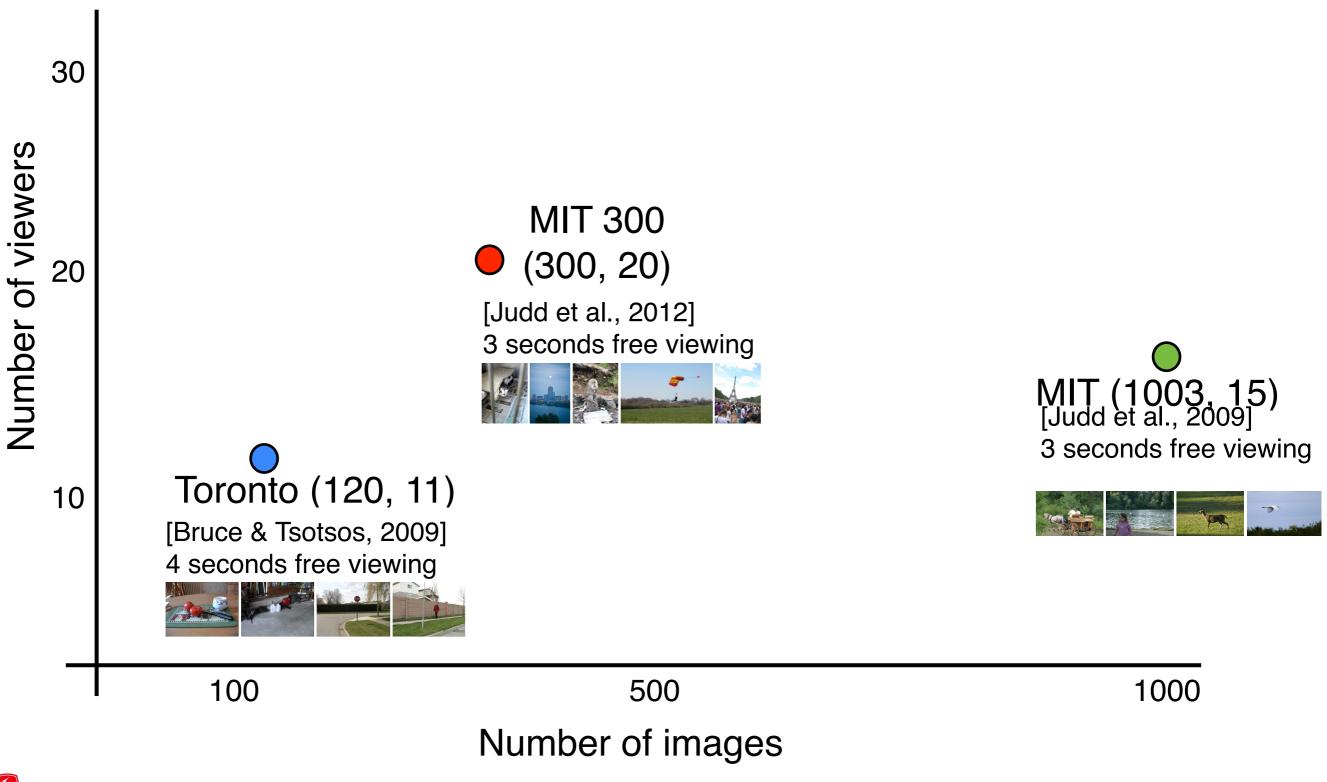
fixation maps averaged over all images



- Why it exists?
 - photographer bias
 - viewing strategy
 - motor bias



Summary of data sets



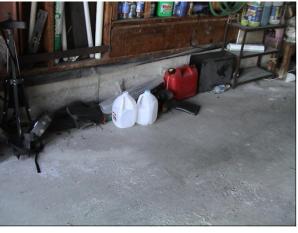
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Slide credit: T. Judd 24

Sample images



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Toronto data set

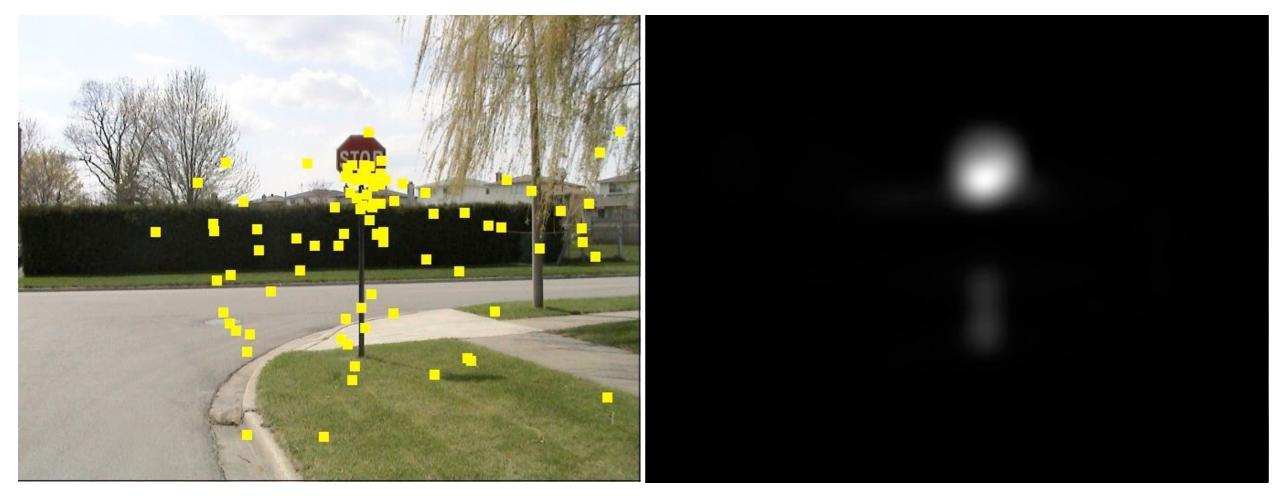


MIT 1003 data set



MIT 300 data set

Toronto - qualitative results



Eye fixations



Toronto - qualitative results

Eye fixations

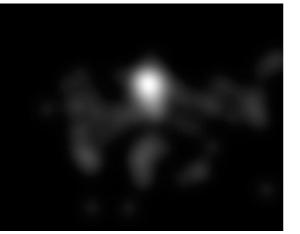
[Harel et al., 2007]



[Seo & Milanfar, 2009]



Human



[Hou & Zhang, 2007]



[Goferman et al., 2010]



[Itti et al., 1998]



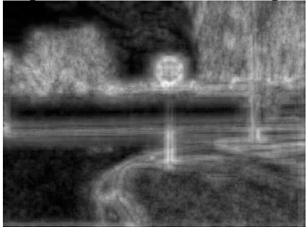
[Zhang et al., 2008]



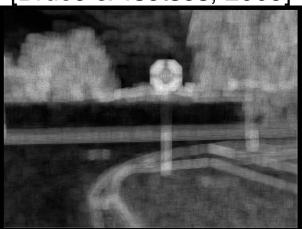
Proposed Model 1



[Torralba et al., 2006]



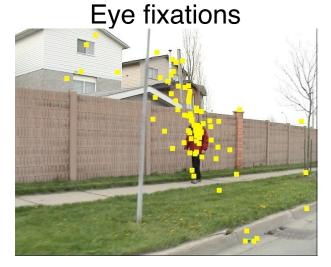
[Bruce & Tsotsos, 2009]



Proposed Model 2



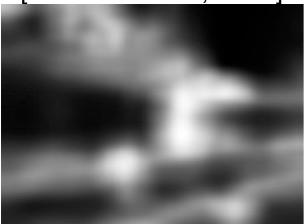
Toronto - qualitative results



[Harel et al., 2007]



[Seo & Milanfar, 2009]



Human

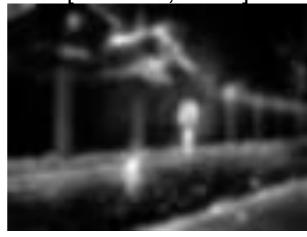
[Hou & Zhang, 2007]



[Goferman et al., 2010]



[Itti et al., 1998]



[Zhang et al., 2008]



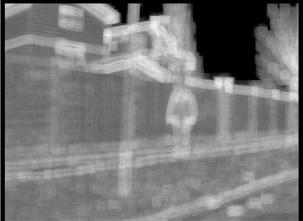
Proposed Model 1



[Torralba et al., 2006]



[Bruce & Tsotsos, 2009]



Proposed Model 2



MIT 1003 - qualitative results

Eye fixations



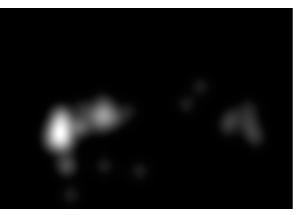
[Harel et al., 2007]



[Seo & Milanfar, 2009]



Human



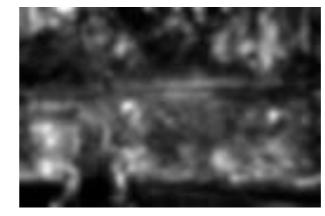
[Hou & Zhang, 2007]



[Goferman et al., 2010]



[Itti et al., 1998]



[Zhang et al., 2008]



[Torralba et al., 2006]



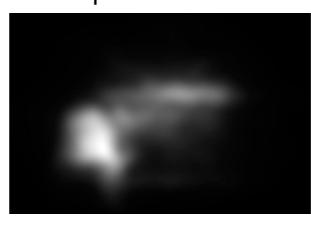
[Bruce & Tsotsos, 2009]



Proposed Model 2



Proposed Model 1

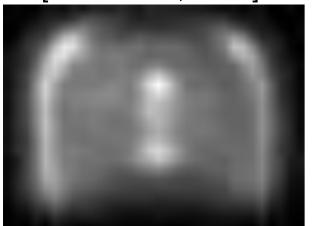


MIT 1003 - qualitative results

Eye fixations



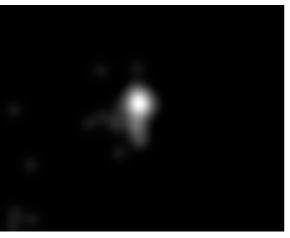
[Harel et al., 2007]



[Seo & Milanfar, 2009]



Human



[Hou & Zhang, 2007]



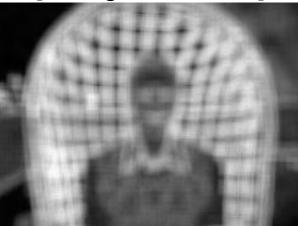
[Goferman et al., 2010]



[Itti et al., 1998]



[Zhang et al., 2008]



Proposed Model 1



[Torralba et al., 2006]



[Bruce & Tsotsos, 2009]



Proposed Model 2



Toronto - quantitative results

	AUC		NSS		EMD		Similarity	
	Without CB	With CB						
ltti et al. (1998)	0.771	0.825	1.137	1.264	2.906	2.002	0.397	0.521
Harel et al. (2007)	0.829	0.835	1.533	1.533	2.014	1.886	0.519	0.556
Torralba et al. (2006)	0.710	0.832	0.805	1.185	3.467	1.868	0.330	0.528
Hou & Zhang (2007)	0.736	0.835	0.964	1.271	3.791	1.959	0.360	0.550
Zhang et al. (2008)	0.718	0.832	0.884	1.194	3.954	1.968	0.347	0.541
Bruce & Tsotsos (2009)	0.728	0.835	0.896	1.165	3.127	1.809	0.351	0.535
Seo & Milanfar (2009)	0.766	0.845	1.100	1.320	3.222	1.759	0.415	0.579
Goferman et al. (2010)	0.784	0.841	1.272	1.370	3.520	1.819	0.431	0.574
Our approach with								
Covariances only	0.767	0.834	1.184	1.342	3.142	1.931	0.408	0.546
Covariances + means	0.765	0.834	1.198	1.396	3.398	1.896	0.402	0.548
Covariances + center	0.840	0.840	1.753	1.753	1.901	1.901	0.561	0.561
Covariances + means + center	0.851	0.851	1.891	1.898	1.728	1.728	0.581	0.581
Center	_	0.803	_	0.969	_	2.401	_	0.478
Chance	0.505	0.803	-0.001	0.969	5.159	2.339	0.187	0.479

MIT 1003 - quantitative results

	AUC		NSS		Similarity	
	Without CB	With CB	Without CB	With CB	Without CB	With CB
ltti et al. (1998)	0.741	0.827	0.921	1.170	0.273	0.402
Harel et al. (2007)	0.791	0.829	1.150	1.182	0.319	0.415
Torralba et al. (2006)	0.700	0.832	0.771	1.156	0.244	0.412
Hou & Zhang (2007)	0.713	0.833	0.855	1.200	0.264	0.421
Zhang et al. (2008)	0.703	0.834	0.829	1.177	0.261	0.418
Bruce & Tsotsos (2009)	0.709	0.835	0.813	1.148	0.254	0.415
Seo & Milanfar (2009)	0.712	0.836	0.826	1.171	0.263	0.424
Goferman et al. (2010)	0.758	0.840	1.053	1.241	0.297	0.431
Our approach with						
Covariances only	0.715	0.826	0.862	1.169	0.261	0.410
Covariances + means	0.740	0.832	0.940	1.240	0.287	0.417
Covariances + center	0.833	0.833	1.468	1.486	0.417	0.418
Covariances + means + center	0.843	0.843	1.488	1.543	0.428	0.432
Center	_	0.810	_	1.004	_	0.379
Chance	0.500	0.810	-0.000	1.004	0.131	0.383

MIT 300 - quantitative results

	AUC		EMD		Similarity	
	Without CB	With CB	Without CB	With CB	Without CB	With CB
ltti et al. (1998)	0.750	0.806	4.560	3.394	0.405	0.493
Harel et al. (2007)	0.801	0.813	3.574	3.315	0.472	0.501
Torralba et al. (2006)	0.684	0.806	4.715	3.036	0.343	0.488
Hou & Zhang (2007)	0.682	0.804	5.368	3.200	0.319	0.487
Zhang et al. (2008)	0.672	0.799	5.088	3.296	0.340	0.473
Bruce & Tsotsos (2009)	0.751	0.820	4.236	3.085	0.390	0.507
Goferman et al. (2010)	0.742	0.815	4.900	3.219	0.390	0.509
Our approach with						
Covariances + center	0.800	0.800	3.422	3.422	0.487	0.487
Covariances + means + center	0.806	0.811	3.109	3.109	0.502	0.503
Center	_	0.783	_	3.719	_	0.451
Chance	0.503	0.783	6.352	3.506	0.327	0.482
Judd et al. (2009)	0.811	0.813	3.130	3.130	0.506	0.511

Beyond saliency - feature selection



Aesthetic class prediction, Wong and Low, ICIP 2009



Scene recognition, Fornoni and Caputo, BMVC 2012

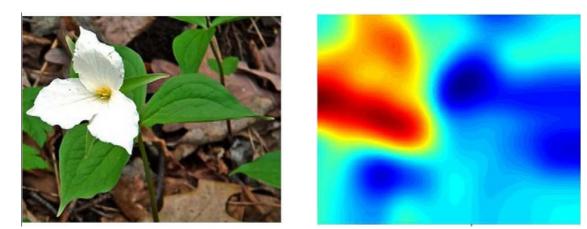
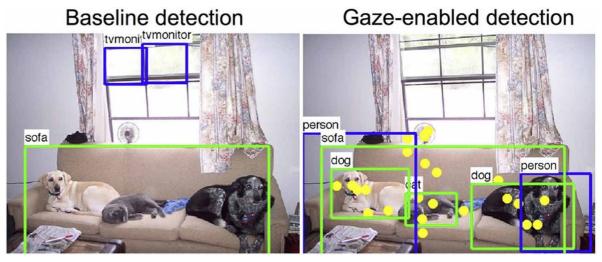


Image classification, de Campos et al., CVIU 2012

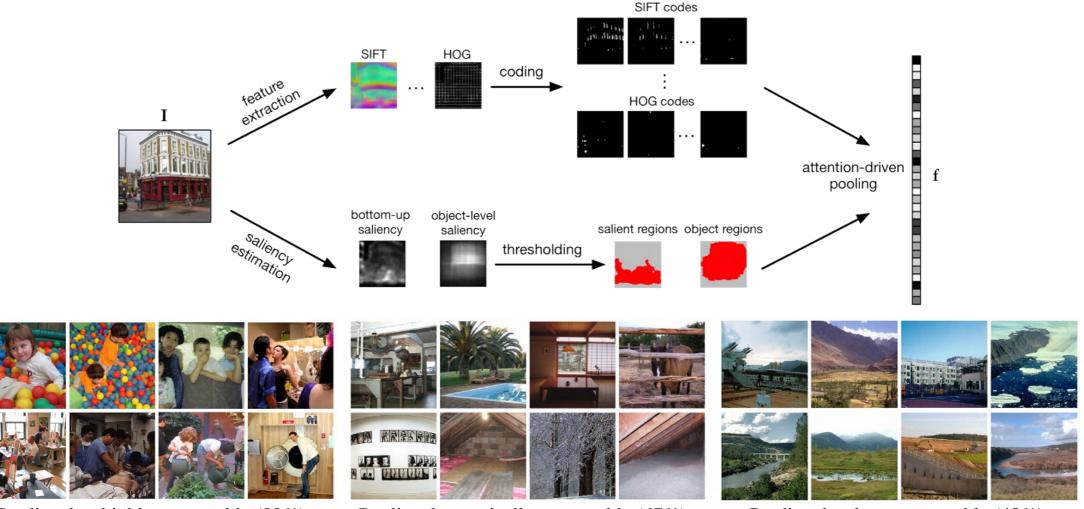


Object detection, Yun et al., CVPR 2013



Beyond saliency - feature selection

- Relationship between image memorability and attention
 - B. Celikkale, A. Erdem and E. Erdem, *Predicting Memorability of Images Using Attention-driven Spatial Pooling and Image Semantics*, Image and Vision Computing, 42, pp. 35-46, October 2015 (Editor's choice article)



Predicted as highly memorable (89%)

Predicted as typically memorable (67%)

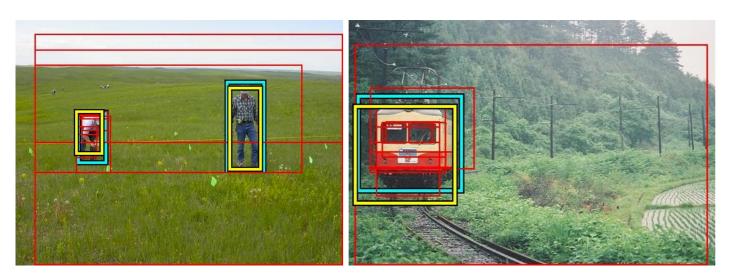
Predicted as least memorable (48%)

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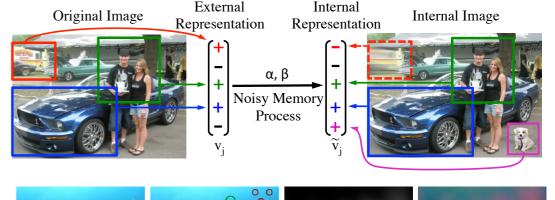
Beyond saliency - as a feature

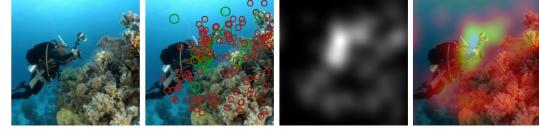


Learning saliency, Judd et al., ICCV 2009, Borji, CVPR 2012



Generic objectness, Alexe et al., CVPR 2010





Memorability prediction, Khosla et al., NIPS 2012 Mancas and le Meur, ICIP 2013

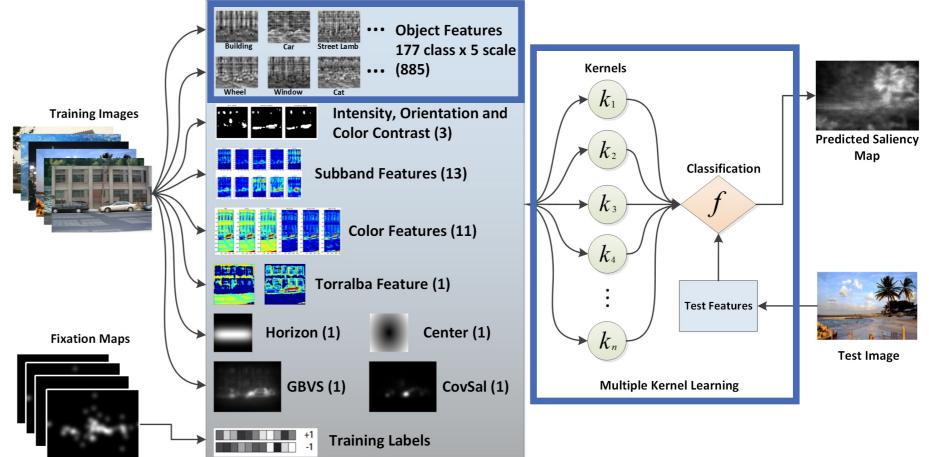


Beyond saliency - as a feature

• Learning visual saliency

Y. Kavak, E. Erdem and A. Erdem, *Visual saliency estimation by integrating features using multiple kernel learning,* 6th International Symposium on Attention in Cognitive Systems (ISACS 2013), Beijing, China, August 2013.

• Automatically choose features relevant to visual saliency by learning specific feature weights and normalization schemes in the integration step.



Problems with saliency models?

- Important information may not be visually salient (e.g., stop sign in a cluttered scene)
- Salient information may not be important
- Can not account for many fixations when there is a task



Original image

Bottom-up saliency

Task-driven fixations Hayhoe and Ballard, 2009

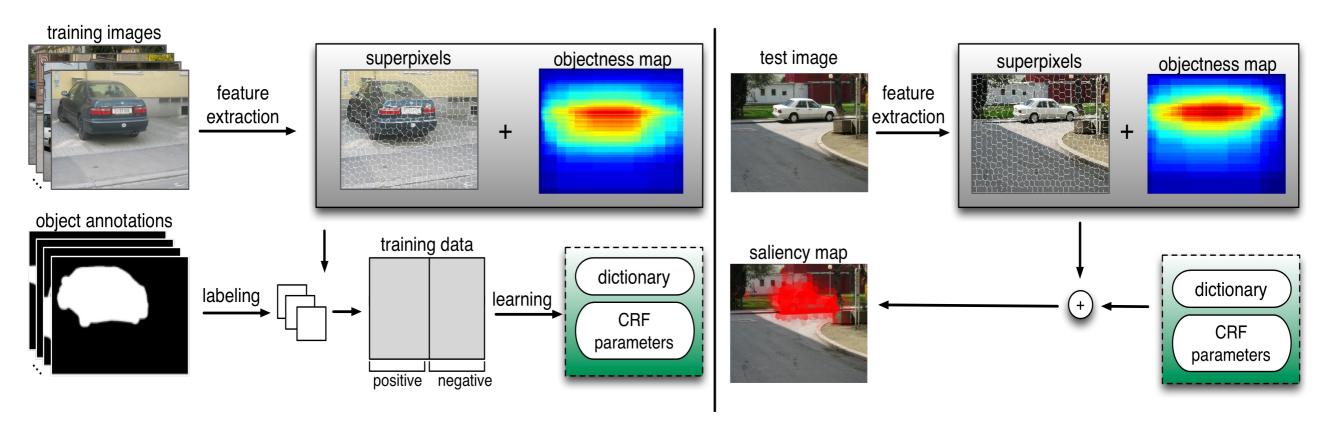


Top-down saliency estimation

- A. Kocak, K. Cizmeciler, A. Erdem and E. Erdem, Top down saliency estimation via superpixel based discriminative dictionaries, BMVC 2014
- A superpixel-based top-down saliency model via joint discriminative dictionary and CRF learning
- **Task:** Task-driven such as detecting an object instance from a certain category



Top-down saliency estimation



Training:

(1) Segment the images into superpixels and represent them with the sigma points descriptor.

- (2) Extract the objectness maps.
- (3) Jointly learn the dictionary and the CRF parameters for each object

category. KOCAK ET AL.: TOP DOWN SALIENCY ESTIMATION

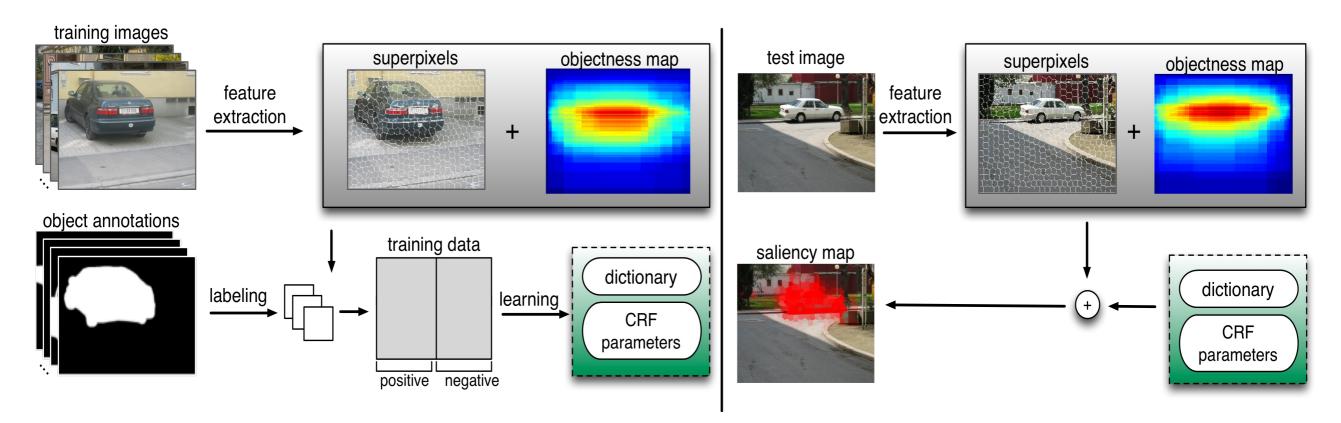
5

a superpixel is computed as a 7×7 matrix. As illustrated in Fig. 3, superpixels with similar texture and local structures are described by similar covariance matrices.

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Covariance matrices do not live on an Euclidean

Top-down saliency estimation



Testing:

(1) Segment the images into superpixels and represent them with the sigma points descriptor.

(2) Compute the sparse codes of superpixels with dictionaries learned from data.

(3) Estimated the object resumapency estimation

5

(4) Use the CRF model to infer the saliency scores ig. 3, superpixels with similar texture and local structures are described by similar covariance matrices.

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Covariance matrices do not live on an Euclidean

The media vector of the features
$$\mu$$
 and the elements visual characteristics are represented
the media vector of the features μ and the elements visual characteristics are represented
by similar covariance descriptors.
(4)
3.2 CRF and Dictionary Learning for Saliency Estimation
We approach top-lewin saliency estimation as an image labeling problem in which a higher
superpixels and ledges descriptings the cornections be connections and reacting the maximum pospering $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$
to $X_{i=1}^n \{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ given the set of superpixels $X = \{X_i\}_{i=1}^n$
log $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \theta) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{D}, \theta) + \sum_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) + \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) + \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta), \theta) = \int_{i \neq i \in \mathcal{V}} \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta)$

Dictionary potential. The unary potentials ψ_i in our model depend on latent sparse variables defined over a trained discriminative dictionary **D**. We use these sparse variables to learn a $\psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{D}, \phi) = \overline{\psi_i} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{$

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we approach top-down saliency estimation as an image labeling problem in which a higher
saliency score is assigned to superpixels corresponding to target objects. We construct a difference
model with nodes
$$V$$
 representing the superpixels and edges \mathcal{E} describing the connectform
among them. The saliency map is determined by finding the maximum posterior $P(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{X})$ of
 $\mathbf{Y} = \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ given the set of superpixels $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$
 $\sum_{i=1}^n \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ given the set of superpixels $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$
 $\log P(\mathbf{Y}|_{\mathcal{Y}_i} \otimes \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{D}, \theta) + \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_i(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i; \theta) + \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_i($

• Edge potential tial. The unary potentials ψ_i in our model depend on latent sparse variables $\psi_i(y_i, \overset{\text{defined over a trained distriminative dictionary } \mathbf{D}$. We use these sparse variables to learn a $\phi_{i,j}(y_i, y_j, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j; \theta) = \rho \left(1 - \delta(y_i - y_j)\right)^{\text{nat}}$ (6) $\alpha_i(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{D}) = \arg \min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{D}\alpha\|^2 + \lambda \|\alpha\|_1$



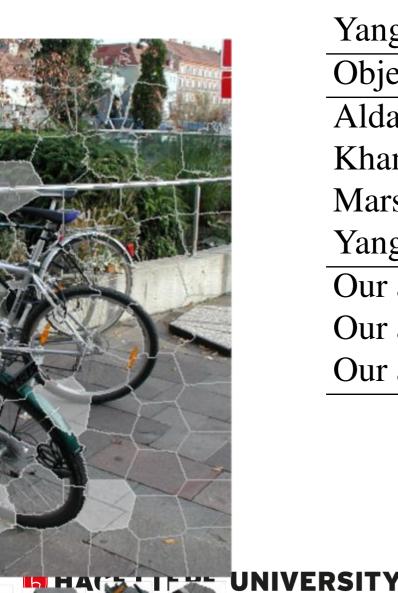
P

Quantitative analysis

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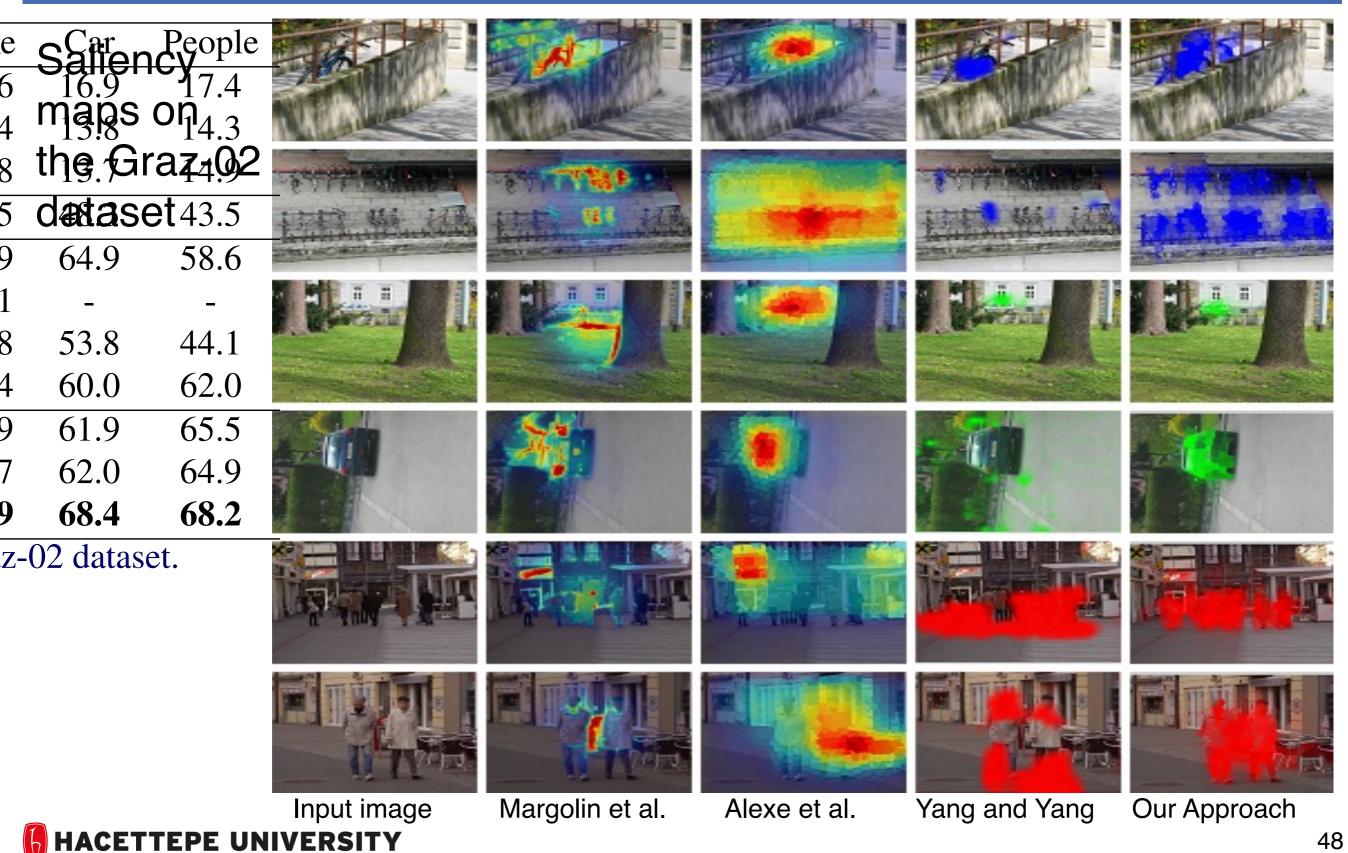
els with similar





	Bike	Car	People
Margolin et al. (2013)	25.6	16.9	17.4
Perazzi et al. (2012)	11.4	13.8	14.3
Yang and Zhang (2013)	14.8	13.7	14.9
Objectness (Alexe et al., 2010)	53.5	48.3	43.5
Aldavert et al. (2010)	71.9	64.9	58.6
Khan and Tappen (2013)	72.1	-	-
Marszalek and Schmid (2012)	61.8	53.8	44.1
Yang and Yang (2012)	62.4	60.0	62.0
Our approach (setting 1)	71.9	61.9	65.5
Our approach (setting 2)	71.7	62.0	64.9
Our approach (setting 3)	73.9	68.4	68.2

Qualitative analysis



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Main insights from natural tasks

- Vision is **active** not <u>passive</u>.
 - Specific information is usually acquired at the fixation point.
 - Information is acquired "just-in-time".
- Fixations patterns reflect learning at several levels:
 - what objects are relevant
 - where information is located
 - order of sub-tasks/properties of world.
- Fixations tightly linked to actions.



Developments in eye tracking

<u>Head free:</u>

- Head mounted IR video-based systems
- Remote systems with head tracking!
- Scene camera

Eye tracking camera





GoPro

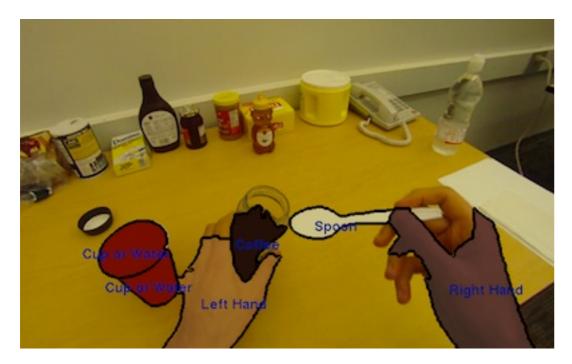
Google Glass



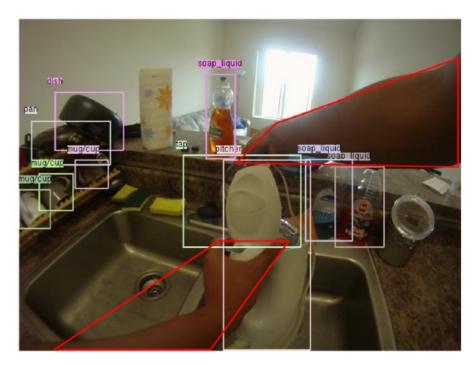
Looxcie



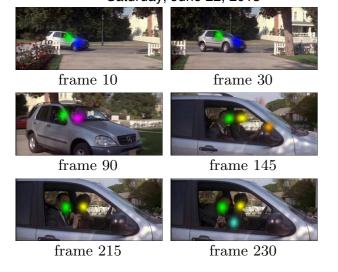
Ego Centric Vision a.k.a First person vision

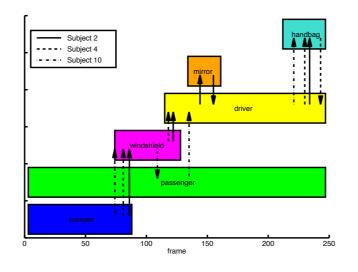


Fathi et al., CVPR 2011

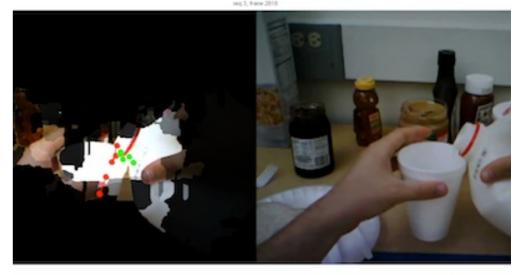


Pirsiavash and Ramanan, CVPR 2012





Mathe and Sminchisescu, ECCV 2012

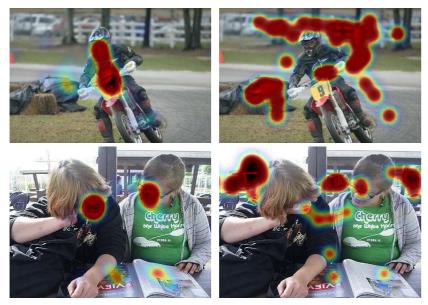


Fathi et al., ECCV 2012





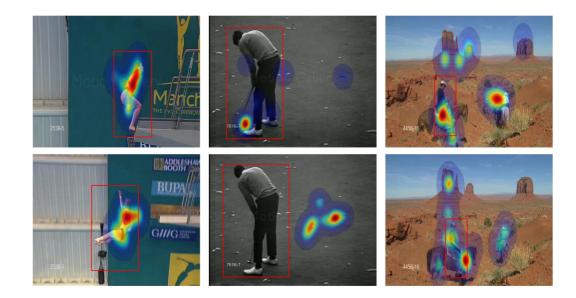
Ego Centric Vision a.k.a First person vision



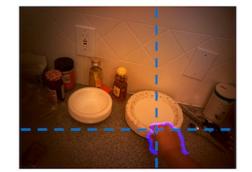
Mathe and Sminchisescu, NIPS 2013



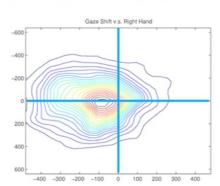
Fathi and Rehg, CVPR 2013

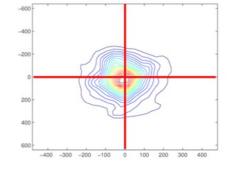


Shapovalova et al., NIPS 2013









Gaze Shift v.s. Both Hand

Li et al., ICCV 2013



New Trends in Saliency Prediction

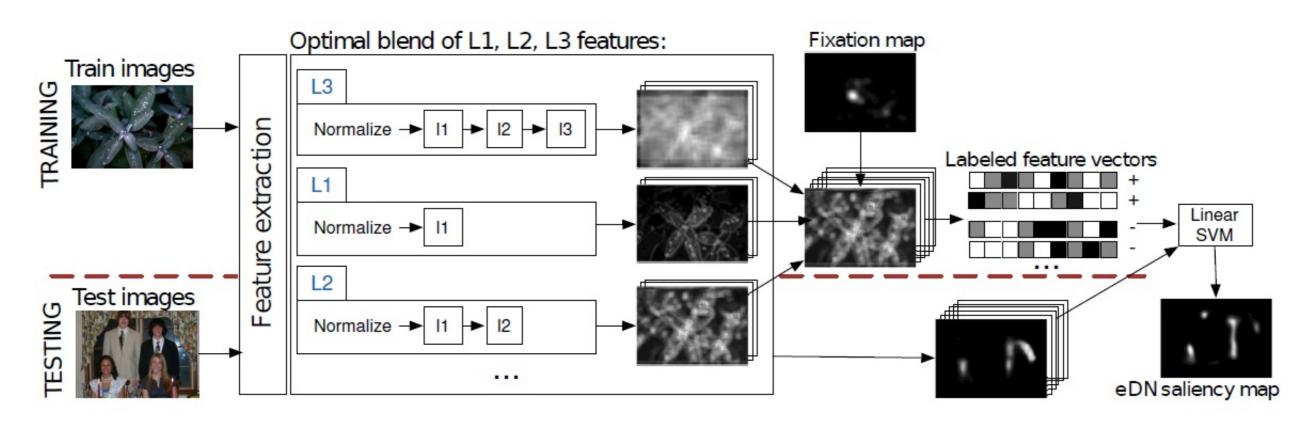
- Hierarchical processing is ubiquitous in low-level human vision.
- Deep unsupervised models have been present for over a decade.
- Nowadays, go deep and use supervision!
- Mimic human visual system and learn a saliency model in an end-to-end manner.

Deep supervised models

- Typically, superior performance to unsupervised models
- Large-scale proxy datasets have enabled effective supervised learning
- Key considerations:
 - Network architecture
 - Incorporation of prior cues
 - Supervision mechanism
 - Loss function

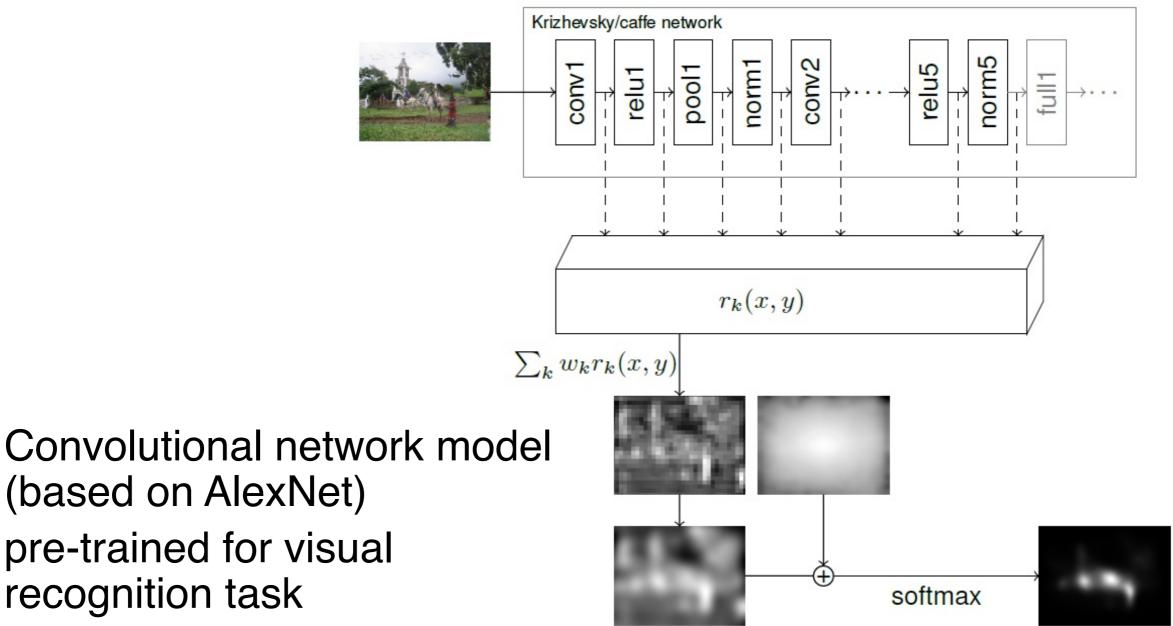


eDN Model (Vig et al., 2014)



- 1-3 layer networks
- Up to 43 hyper-parameters
- Linear patch classifier is learned
- fixated and non-fixated regions used to supervise training
- Small-scale dataset used for training
- Filters are drawn randomly

Deep Gaze (Kummerer et al., 2015)

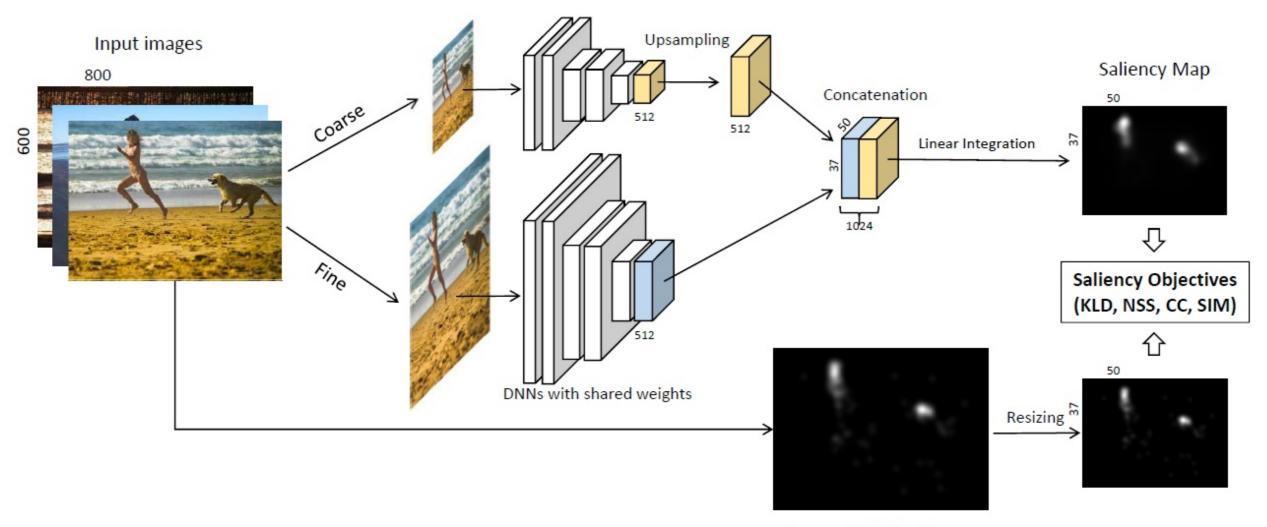


Incorporation of centre-bias prior

(based on AlexNet)

recognition task

SALICON Model (Huang et al., 2015)

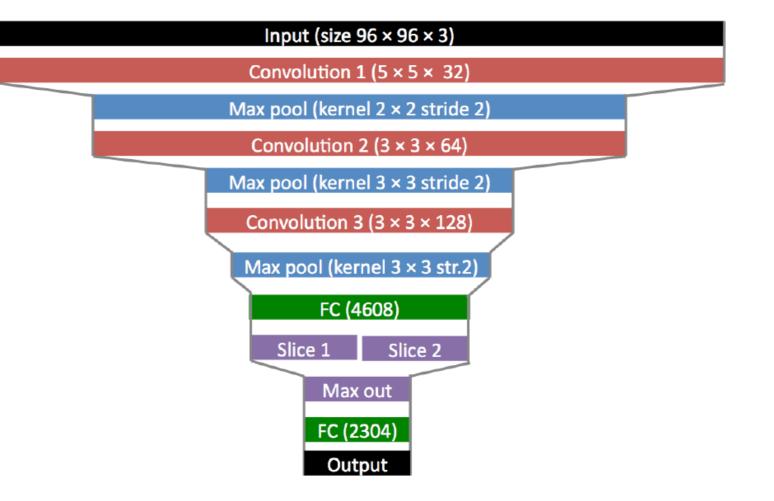


Human Fixation Maps

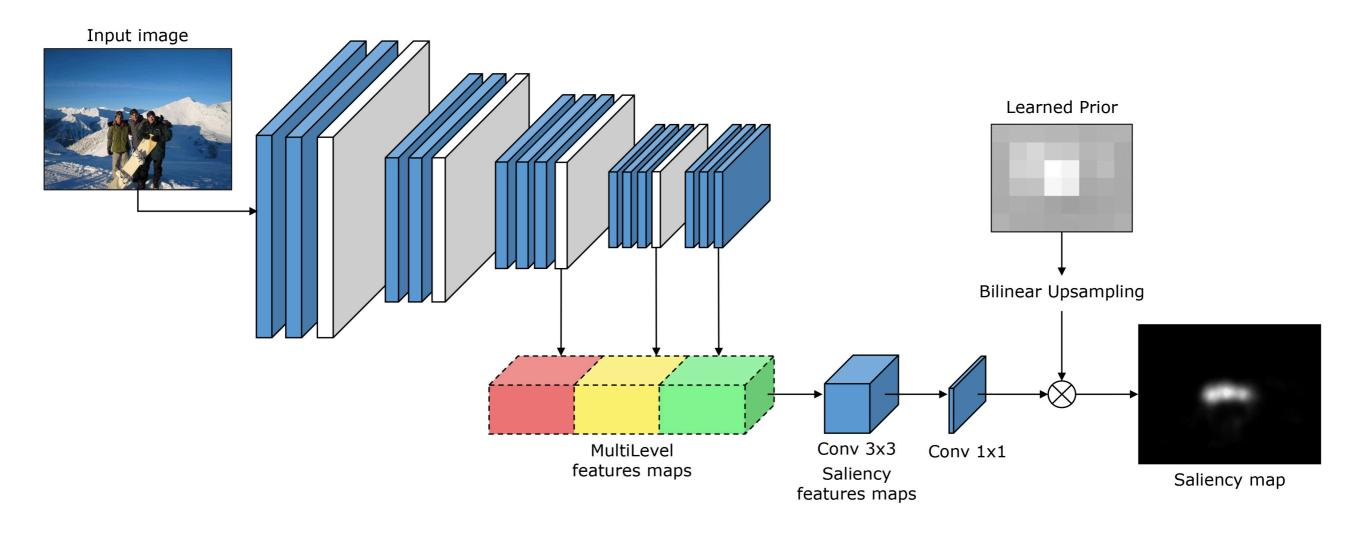
- Domain adaptation to saliency works
- Adding multi-scale information helps

DeepSal Model (Pan et al., 2016)

- New large-scale datasets with proxy eye-fixation data
- Training all features of larger networks
- Still small-scale compared to networks designed for semantics prediction

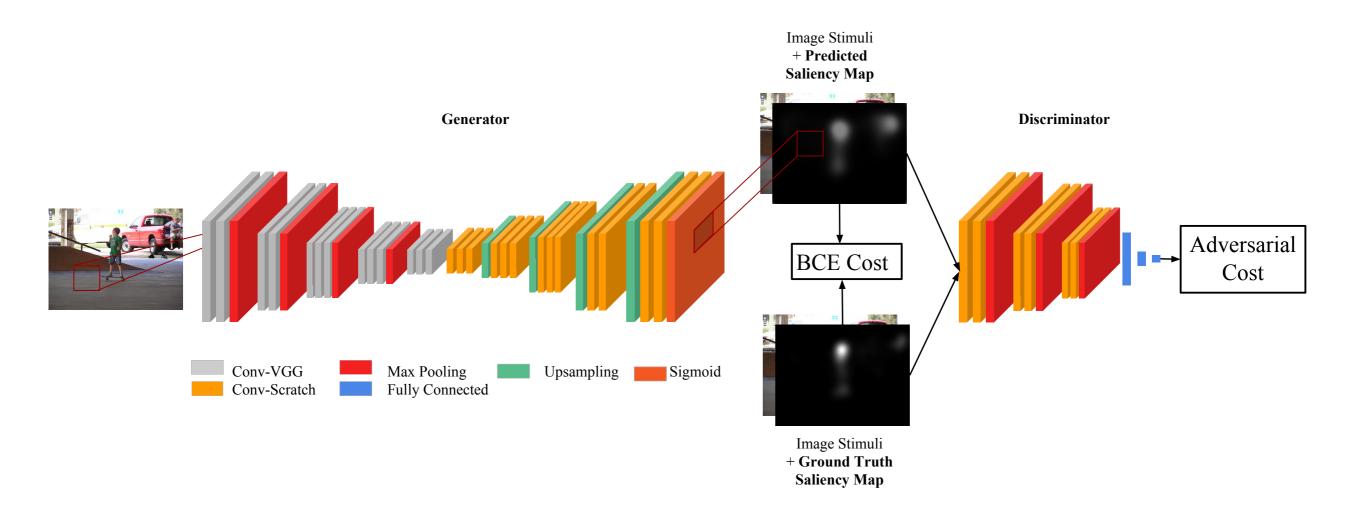


ML-Net Model (Cornia et al., 2016)



- Saliency map priors
- Multiple resolutions

SalGAN (Pan et al., 2017)



Adversarial loss to impose prior information

Predicting Dynamic Saliency

- Predict where humans look at in a dynamic stimuli
- A less studied, more challenging problem
- Needs processing both spatial and temporal information



- What deep learning offers?

Spatio-Temporal Saliency Networks

- Process spatial and temporal streams separately (up to a point)
- Integrate these streams before extracting final saliency maps
- Spatial stream encodes the appearance information and involves RGB frames
- Temporal stream represents the motion information and includes optical flow images
- Mimic the dorsal (where) and the ventral (what) pathways in the human vision system



spatial stream



temporal stream

Andrej Karpathy, George Toderici, Sanketh Shetty, Thomas Leung, Rahul Sukthankar, Li Fei-Fei. Large-scale video classification with convolutional neural networks. CVPR 2014. K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman. Two-stream convolutional networks for action recognition in videos. NeurIPS 2014.

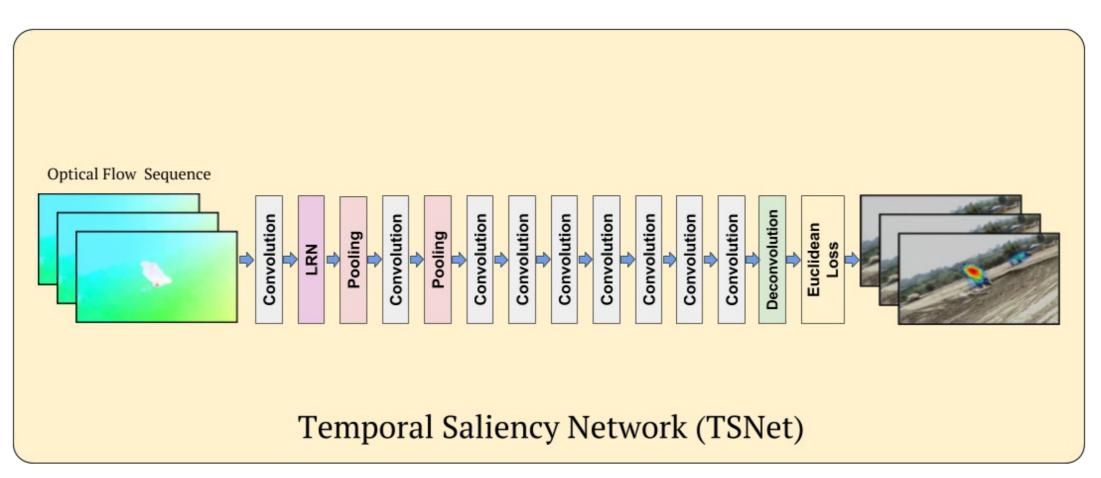
- Two-stream CNNs for saliency prediction from videos
 - One of the first deep models for dynamic saliency prediction
- Element-wise and convolutional fusion strategies to integrate spatial and temporal information.
- Experiments on
 - DIEM (Mital et al., 2011) : 84 videos, fixations from 50 subjects
 - UCF-Sports (Mathe and Sminchisescu, 2015) : 150 videos, fixations from 16 subjects

Cagdas Bak, Aysun Kocak, Erkut Erdem, Aykut Erdem. Spatio-Temporal Saliency Networks for Dynamic Saliency Prediction. IEEE Transactions on Multimedia, Vol. 20, Issue 7, pp. 1688-1698, July 2018.

- Two base network models
- 9 convolution + 1 deconvolution layers
- 25.8M parameters
- Spatial stream

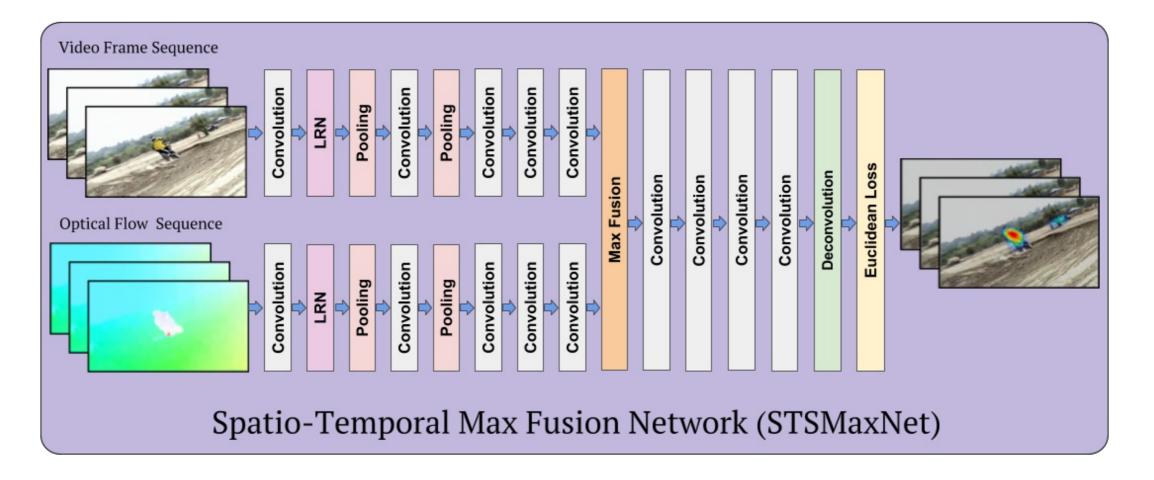
And	
Spatial Saliency Network (SSNet)	

- Two base network models
- 9 convolution + 1 deconvolution layers
- 25.8M parameters
- Temporal stream

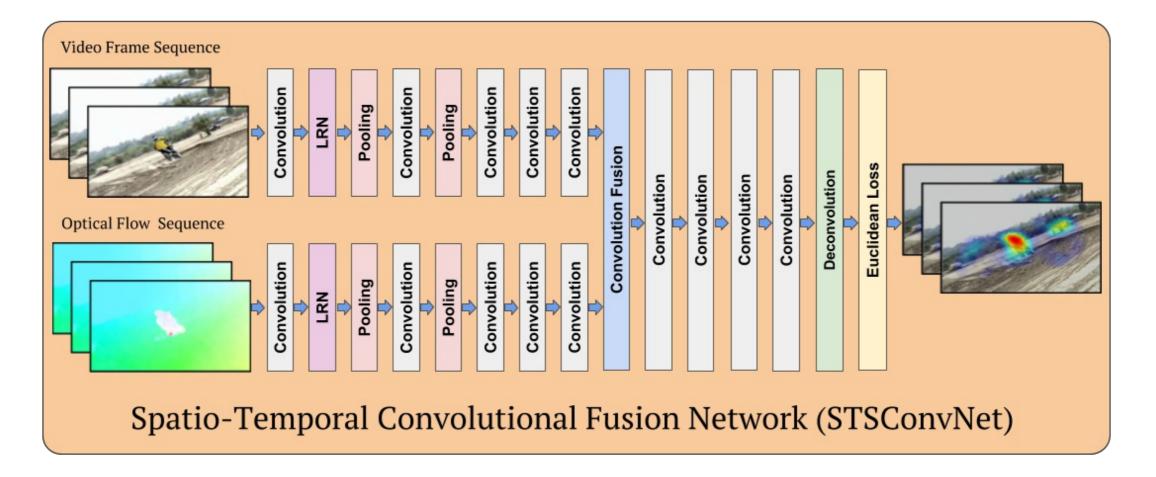




- STSMaxNet
- Element-wise max fusion
- 34.7M parameters



- STSConvNet
- Convolution fusion
- 51.6M parameters





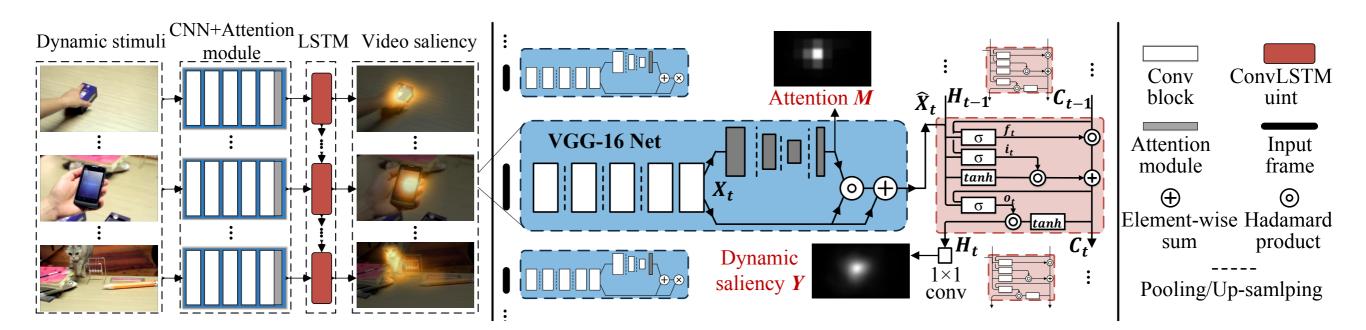






ACLNet (Wang et al., 2018)

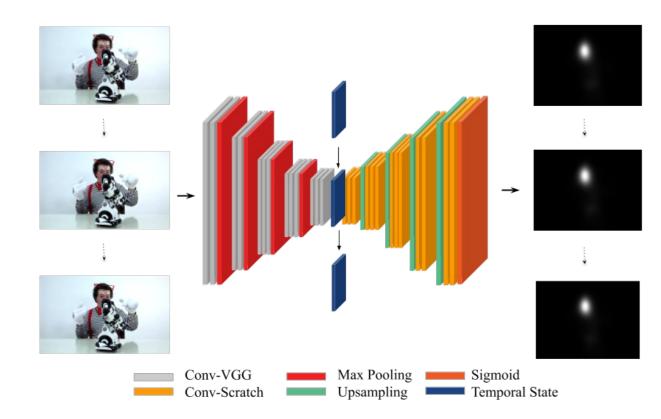
- A CNN-LSTM network architecture with an attention mechanism
- Attention mechanism explicitly encodes static saliency information
- LSTM focuses on learning more flexible temporal saliency representation across successive frames.
- Attention and LSTM modules are trained in an iterative manner

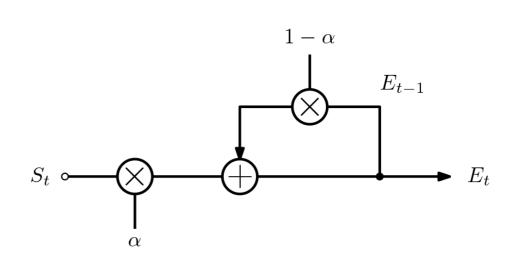




SalEMA (Linardos et al., 2019)

- an encoder-decoder architecture motivated by SALGAN
- an additional recurrent structure using exponential moving average (EMA)
- convolutional state from the previous frame affects the current prediction

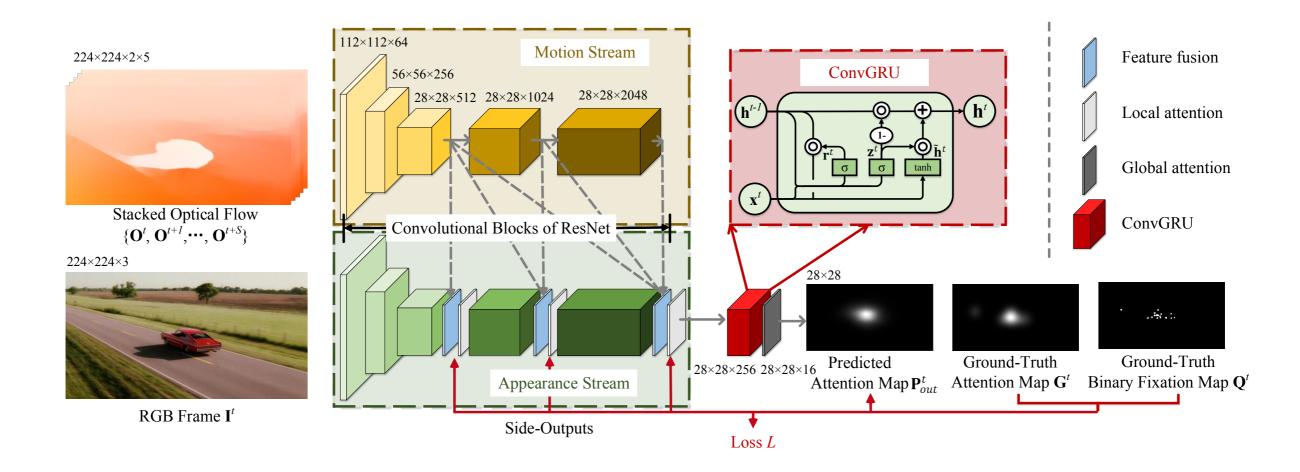






STRA-Net (Lai et al., 2019)

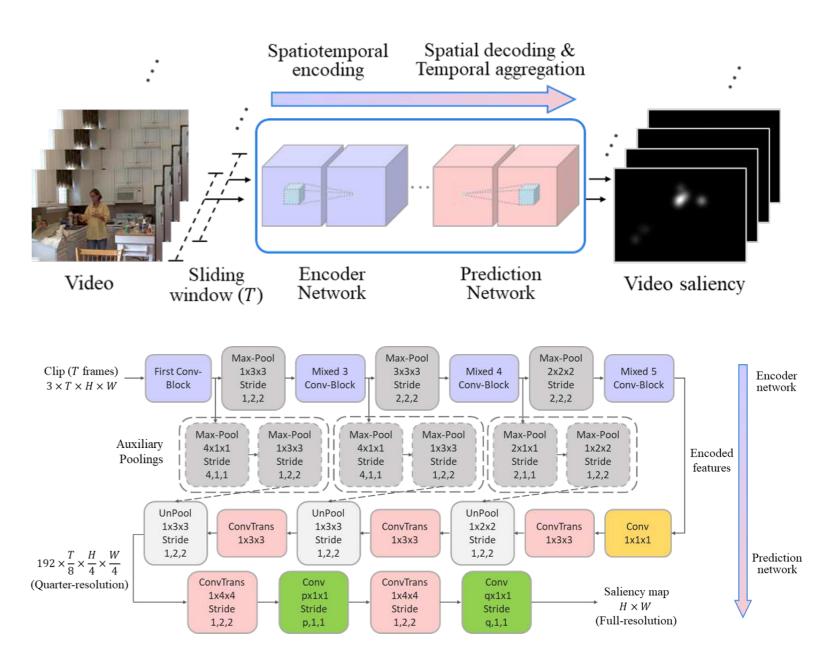
- a two-stream spatiotemporal network with dense residual cross connections and a composite attention module
- enhances spatiotemporal saliency representation with multiscale information





TASED-Net (Min and Corso, 2019)

- a 3D fully-convolutional encoder-decoder network architecture
- spatially upsample the encoded features while aggregating all the temporal information



DEPARTMEN STORE : , WALDO-WATCHERS! V SOME TRULY TERRIFIC HTS TODAY - SOMEONE RNING TROUSERS WITH IRON; A LONG THIN MAN TH A LONG THIN TIE; GLOVE ATTACKING A MAN. IEW! INCREDIBLE!

TO:

NOW

WALDO-WATCHERS

OVER THE MOON,

THE WILD WEST,

Thanks for your attention!

