ENTROPY-BASED SALIENCY COMPUTATION IN LOG-POLAR IMAGES

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Abstract: Visual saliency provides a filtering mechanism to focus on a set of interesting areas in the scene, but these mechanisms often overload the computational resources of many computer vision tasks. In order to reduce such an overload and improve the computational performance, we propose to exploit the advantages of log-polar vision to detect salient regions with economy of computational resources and quite stable results. Particularly, in this paper we study the application of the entropy-based saliency to log-polar images. Some interesting considerations are presented in reference to the concept of “scale” and the effects of space-variant sampling on scale selection. We also propose a necessary border extension to detect objects present in peripheral areas. The original entropy-based saliency algorithm can be used in log-polar images, but the results show that our adaptations allow to detect with more precision log-polar salient forms because they consider the information redundancy of space-variant sampling. Compared with cartesian, log-polar salient results allow a significant saving of computational resources.

1 INTRODUCTION

Log-polar vision (Bolduc and Levine, 1998) is one kind of foveal images which has become popular in the last years due to its advantages in active vision tasks such as target tracking (Traver and Pla, 2005) or vergence control (Manzotti et al., 2001), to name but a few. However, other important visual tasks have not received the same attention from the research community. In particular, in this paper we focus on the problem of visual saliency (Itti, 2003) as framework to a saliency-based interest points detection (Kadir and Brady, 2001) on log-polar images.

To cope with the huge amount of visual data in the scene, visual search processes provide a filtering mechanism so that only perceptually salien spatial locations or objects will be selected for further processing. These mechanisms are of key importance for agents (either natural or artificial) to interact efficiently with the environment.

There are at least three reasons suggesting the relevance of dealing with visual search on log-polar images: (1) both, visual search and log-polar imaging, are (related) problems of practical interest in computer and robot vision; (2) both have important biological foundations in the human visual system (Itti, 2003; Schwartz, 1977); and (3) some interplay can be expected between the two problems when they are considered simultaneously. In spite of this interest, there are a very few works addressing the problem of saliency computation on log-polar images. One example is (Orabona et al., 2005), where the popular computational visual search model (Itti and Koch, 2000) is applied to log-polar images.

In contrast, our work explores the entropy, a concept based on information theory, as a means of computing visual saliency in log-polar images. This makes sense because entropy is a measure of randomness and this, in turn, can be related to saliency, since randomness is akin to “rarity”, and information become salient when it is “rare”, i.e., different to information in some local neighbourhood. Our approach studies the application of the proposal of (Kadir and Brady, 2001) to log-polar images. The behaviour of this method is compared using computational perfor-
formance under both image formats (cartesian and log-polar). One of the most interesting considerations refers to the concept of “scale”. Visual information can be salient at some particular scale. However, while in cartesian images, scale has a global meaning, it varies across a log-polar image. This new concept of scale and its effect on saliency computation is also studied in this paper.

This paper is organized as follows. First, an overview of the entropy-based saliency computation is given in Sect. 2. Sect. 3 describes some necessary adaptations of the approach to log-polar images. Then, experimental work is described in Sect. 4. Finally, in Sect. 5 we emphasize the main conclusions and mention ideas of further work.

2 ENTROPY-BASED SALIENCY COMPUTATION

Saliency is a measure of the object distinctiveness among its neighbours and it can be quantified in several ways (Itti, 2003; Kadir and Brady, 2001). The maximum local entropy is a measure that allows to compute the saliency value. Particularly we explore here the Scale Saliency (Kadir and Brady, 2001), a detection method using the local entropy to report salient regions.

2.1 Local Entropy Computation

The local entropy computation algorithm, or Scale Saliency (Kadir and Brady, 2001) estimates salient points showing unpredictable characteristics simultaneously in the space-scale of the point. The local complexity or unpredictability in the space of the point is measure by Shannon Entropy of local image attributes. This metric depends on the Probability Density Function (PDF) taken the grey level of the image as the local descriptor. Although we only use the grey level of image, other local image descriptors, such as color, orientation or edge information could also be employed.

On the other hand, to measure the scale unpredictability, the local PDF is estimated at multiples scales and the extremes in the entropy are used as a base for scale selection. In this way, the statistics of the local descriptor over a range of scales around the peaks are used to estimate the inter-scale unpredictability.

Scale Saliency measures the entropy for each pixel location over a range of scales, choosing those scales at which the entropy is maximum. Then for such maximum scales, the entropy value is weighted by the metric of inter-scale unpredictability. The algorithm yields a three-dimensional vector with the spatial location (two dimensions) and scale for each salient value.

2.2 Clustering using Local Probability Density

The Scale Saliency algorithm mentioned above reports a too great number of salient points, many of which are neighbours and salient at a similar scale. Therefore, a clustering procedure is needed to represent all these points more efficiently and less redundant. However, since neither the number of salient points nor the number of clusters are known a priori, the clustering algorithm used in (Kadir and Brady, 2001) seems not adequate. In contrast, we use an alternative clustering approach (Pascual et al., 2006), only requiring a radius $r$ to define the density function from which data points are grouped. For the user point of view, this radius is easier to set than the number of clusters (how $r$ is set will be explained in Sect. 4). The input data to the clustering algorithm are three-dimension vectors: the two spatial dimensions and the scale of the detected salient points.

3 DEALING WITH SPACE-VARIANT SAMPLING

Log-polar images can be obtained by different techniques (Traver and Pla, 2003). In this work we use a software-based transformation (Bolduc and Levine, 1998) by resampling a cartesian image using the space-variant log-polar grid. This grid consists of $R$ concentric rings whose size grow exponentially from the center (fixation point) to periphery, and of $S$ uniformly spaced angular sectors. To refer to discrete positions in a log-polar image, it is used the notation $(u, v)$, where $0 \leq u < R$ and $0 \leq v < S$.

The loss of information content imposed by the foveation process represents a problem to extract the features from space-variant representations. In this context, the scale is not a global concept but it takes a local meaning, which calls for some adaptations of the scale selection of the original algorithm. On the other hand, the Scale Saliency does not analyse image borders, thus the salient regions associated with peripheral information are difficult to detect. The following subsections address both issues.
3.1 Adaptive Scale Selection

Due to the space-variant nature to the log-polar geometry, receptive fields (RF) cover different surfaces of an imaged scene, depending on the eccentricity of their location. RFs closer to the center become much smaller than the cartesian pixels, in this case cartesian pixels are considered oversampled. However, the peripheral RFs have many associated cartesian pixels, which they are undersampled. These sampling effects (oversampling and undersampling) influence on the object information content in log-polar images. Figure 1 shows these sampling effects on a black square at different eccentricities.

![Figure 1: Effects of the space-variant sampling: synthetic cartesian image (left) mapped to log-polar coordinates (center) and mapped back to cartesian coordinates (right).](image)

Notice that the closer to the center the object location is, the more redundant the object information content. As the object location comes closer to the periphery, object information redundancy is considerably reduced. These variations of the information content can be measured by quantifying the RF’s size (Traver and Pla, 2003). The RF’s area in the ring \( u \) is denoted by \( \sigma(u) \).

In Figure 1 note that object’s scale decreases proportionally to object’s eccentricity. For that reason, scale selection on log-polar image needs to consider the size of RFs considered by space-variant sampling in each location. We propose to use a dynamic expression to scale selection, which we have called adaptive scale and it is expressed as:

\[
s_l(u, s_c) = s_c / \sigma(u),
\]

where \( s_l \) is the log-polar scale corresponding to the scale \( s_c \in [s_{\text{min}}, s_{\text{max}}] \) in the Cartesian space.

3.2 Border Extension

Objects present in peripheral areas are difficult to detect because (i) the loss of information is stronger there, and (ii) the borders of an image are not analysed by Scale Saliency (Kadir and Brady, 2001). However there may be interesting peripheral regions that may result in salient regions if the borders of log-polar image are analyzed with an adaptive scale. To make this analysis possible, we propose to consider the information related to peripheral areas. In order to deal with this border information, we suggest to duplicate the last \( s_l(R, s_{\text{max}}) \) rings starting from the last ring \( R \) (Figure 2).

On the other hand, to make easy the access to the data in the multiscale analysis, the first and last sectors of the polar disposition are attached to both ends of the angular axis \( v \), as shown in Figure 2. Notice that this extension is only necessary to deal with the angular discontinuity.

Figure 3(a) shows a synthetic cartesian image with a same object of different sizes located at different positions on the log-polar image. Figure 3(b) shows the results of the salient regions detected without any adaptation. Figure 3(c-e) shows salient regions by using either (or both) of these adaptations.

![Figure 3: Example of peripheral salient regions detected on log-polar image: (a) synthetic cartesian image (256 × 256) with different sizes and positions of an object; detection results (b) without any adaptations, (c) with adaptive scale but without border extension, (d) with border extension but without adaptive scale, and (e) with both adaptations. The log-polar image (64 × 128) was computed from (a).](image)

Notice that, without border extension, the salient regions located in last rings are missed (Figure 3(c)). Without adaptive scale, object-like regions are splitted (Figure 3(d)). Best results are obtained when both adaptations are combined; the objects present on the image borders are detected even when the object’s size is very small (Figure 3(e)).

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we present and discuss the experimental results of the entropy-based regions detec-
tion on log-polar images combining it with adaptive scale selection and of border extension on this kind of foveal images. In spite of the difficulties brought by log-polar sampling, salient regions detected with log-polar images approximately match those found with cartesian images. We experimented the effects of changes in log-polar image size/resolution and in object’s size on the reported salient regions. We also analyse some examples of salient results on images affected by geometric transformations.

The resulting salient regions were obtained by combining the entropy-based detection and density-based clustering (Sect. 2) with our proposed adaptations (Sect. 3). The range $[s_{\text{min}}, s_{\text{max}}]$ of cartesian scales was set to $[5, 25]$ and the range of log-polar scales was set to $[s_l(u, 1), s_l(u, S/10)]$ where $s_c \in [1, \lfloor S/10 \rfloor]$. The input data to the clustering are the scale and the cartesian or polar coordinates, depending if the detection was made on Cartesian or log-polar space. The data points were normalized by considering the range of values in each case (the size of image for the coordinates and the range of scales for the scale).

Regarding $r$, the parameter of the clustering algorithm (Sect. 2.2), it was heuristically set as a function of the average cartesian scale $s_M$ of the detected salient points that is known in both cases. In cartesian case, $r = s_M$ but, in the log-polar case, $r$ is also considered as a function of the eccentricity of the salient points and it is dynamically computed for each point $(u, v)$ to cluster as $r(u) = s_M/\sigma(u)$.

In order to validate our proposed adaptations, we selected images from different test sets from the public Caltech repository database\footnote{\url{http://www.robots.ox.ac.uk/~vgg/}}. The behaviour of this method was compared on both image formats (cartesian and log-polar) by using the computational performance as criteria. Figure 4 shows the average ratios of running times with log-polar images compared with their corresponding cartesian results for 21 images. Notice that, the horizontal axis shows log-polar image sizes of $32 \times 64$, $64 \times 128$ and $96 \times 192$, corresponding to 3%, 13% and 28% of cartesian size ($256 \times 256$). The original algorithm takes about 24 minutes on cartesian images but reductions as big as 3%-10% are possible with log-polar images. Running times are still too large (about 1-3 minutes) in log-polar images, however, these represent very significant speed-ups, considering how costly the original algorithm is (Mikolajczyk et al., 2005). Further improvements are possible by introducing optimizations, such as (Suau and Escolano, 2007), which would make real-time and frame-rate processing possible.

Figure 5 shows some examples of salient regions results with different experimented log-polar sizes. The results show that, while cartesian and log-polar salient regions are not directly comparable, some
salient areas are detected in both cases (Figure 5) with a significant speed-up (Figure 4). Results are not exactly the same with different log-polar image sizes, but some distinctive features are selected independently of the log-polar image size (e.g., eyes and nose in Figure 5(c)).

To study the effect of geometric transformations on the repeatability of the salient results in log-polar images, experiments were performed with scalings and translations. Figure 6, shows salient regions with gradual scale changes (10% per step up to 140%) and gradual translations shifts (20 pixels along x-axis per step up to 80). In Figure 6 an example of a face on a cluttered background is shown. Notice that even when the variation of information is more accentuated (closer to peripheral zones), some salient regions are preserved. The manually highlighted salient regions were some of the regions that persist in spite of the gradual transformations.

The original Scale Saliency method on cartesian images is robust to similarity transformations, but these transformations become complex warping in the log-polar case. However, despite these unfavorable conditions, our proposal exhibits quite stable results for translations and scale changes. In log-polar images, rotations are not a big problem considering the rotational invariant property around the center of fixation. At uncentered rotations, the information of image experiments a local content variation keeping the region shape but turning it somehow different. This difference is due to the fact that the same information is redistributed and thus the information redundancy is changed too. In all cases, however, the rotated region shows similar entropy values, which points to the validity of our approach.

With respect to cartesian results, log-polar results tend to detect bigger regions. Depending on the image content, these bigger regions might have some meaning (e.g., areas around the face) and this suggests its use in some applications, such as the classification of regions in facial features (Shao and Brady, 2006). The observations above also point to the potential interest of using log-polar images in applications demanding real-time performance: results resemble those obtained with cartesian images, with a significantly reduced computational cost.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

In order to obtain entropy-based salient regions on log-polar images, we have proposed modifications in the scale selection of the Scale Saliency method (Kadir and Brady, 2001) to adapt this to space-variant sampling of log-polar images. We used a dynamic expression to an adaptive scale selection, considering the size of receptive fields in each location. We have also presented an extension of the log-polar image border that guarantees to detect peripheral saliency. Results show that Scale Saliency with our adaptations, detects with more precision log-polar salient forms than without these adaptations. The salient results show some independence of their positions, including those located in peripheral zones (last rings), which are difficult to detect using only the Scale Saliency. Compared with cartesian salient results, log-polar salient results allow a drastic saving of computational resources (Figure 4).

The economy of computational resources of the log-polar images and the nice results of saliency detection suggest that this kind of images can be used in some applications. On the one hand, this saliency can be used for interest point detectors (Mikolajczyk et al., 2005) and their applications. However, further
work is required to have invariance properties to image transformations (in particular to translations) and achieve a high repeatability. On the other hand, a similar framework can probably be applied for saliency computation for visual attention (Itti and Koch, 2000; Itti, 2003) if the local image descriptor is enriched to include other visual features (e.g., color, orientation, or edges).

REFERENCES


