

# COMPARING HUMAN AND MACHINE DETECTION THRESHOLDS

An *a contrario* model for non-accidentalness.

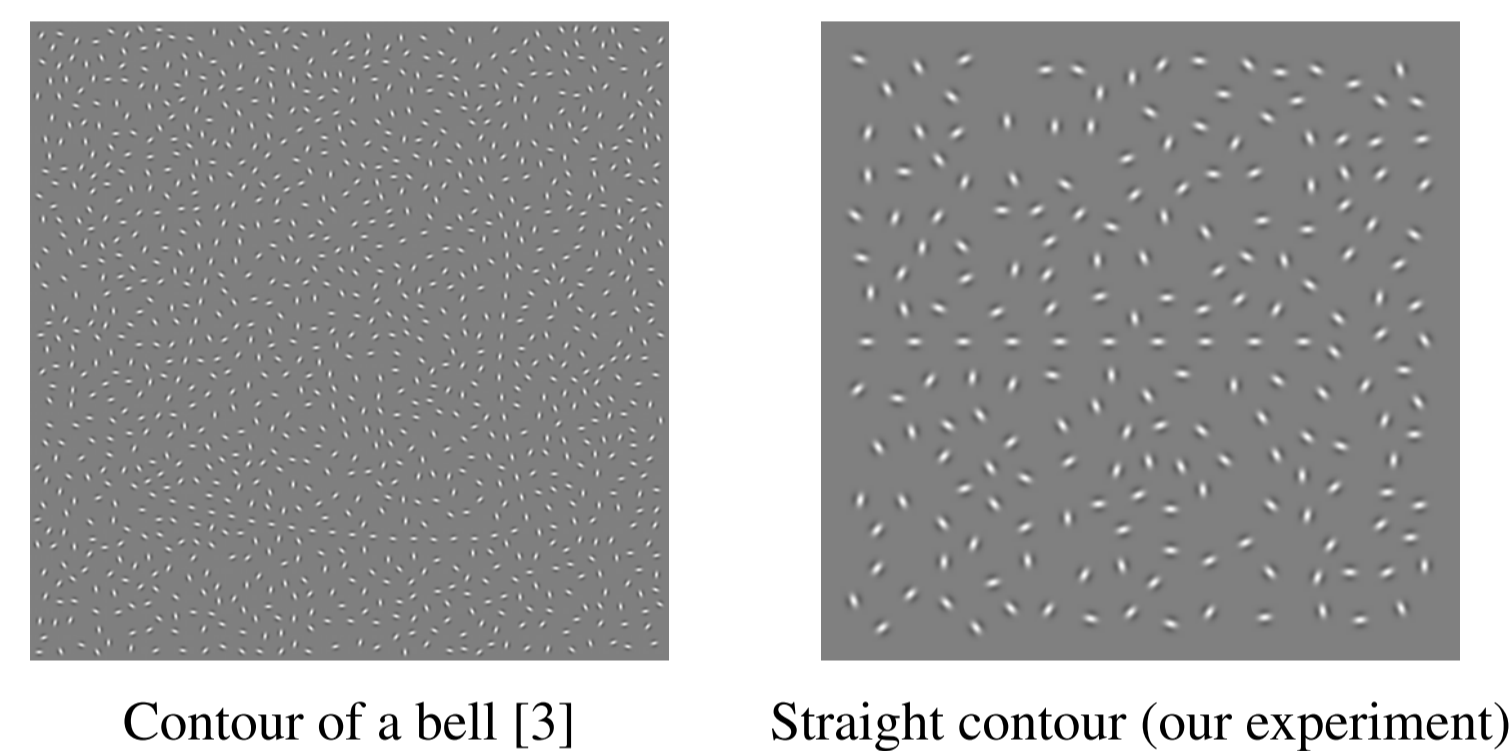
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The mathematical theory of a *contrario* detection formalizes the non-accidentalness principle [2] and attempts to predict ideal perception thresholds. Thus, it is natural to reconsider from a computational perspective, classic and new psychophysical experiments evaluating the human perception performance. To this aim, we chose the psychophysical experiments by Wagemans et al. [3] where subjects are presented with Gabor-rendered outlines of real world objects. In these experiments, orientation jitter was added to the elements with the aim of determining its effect on human object detection performance. Using the *a contrario* theory, the human detection thresholds can be compared rationally to the algorithmic ones. To allow a broader experimentation, we built an online web facility where users can perform object detection experiments, and compare their detection curves to the ones predicted analytically by the computational model.

## Background

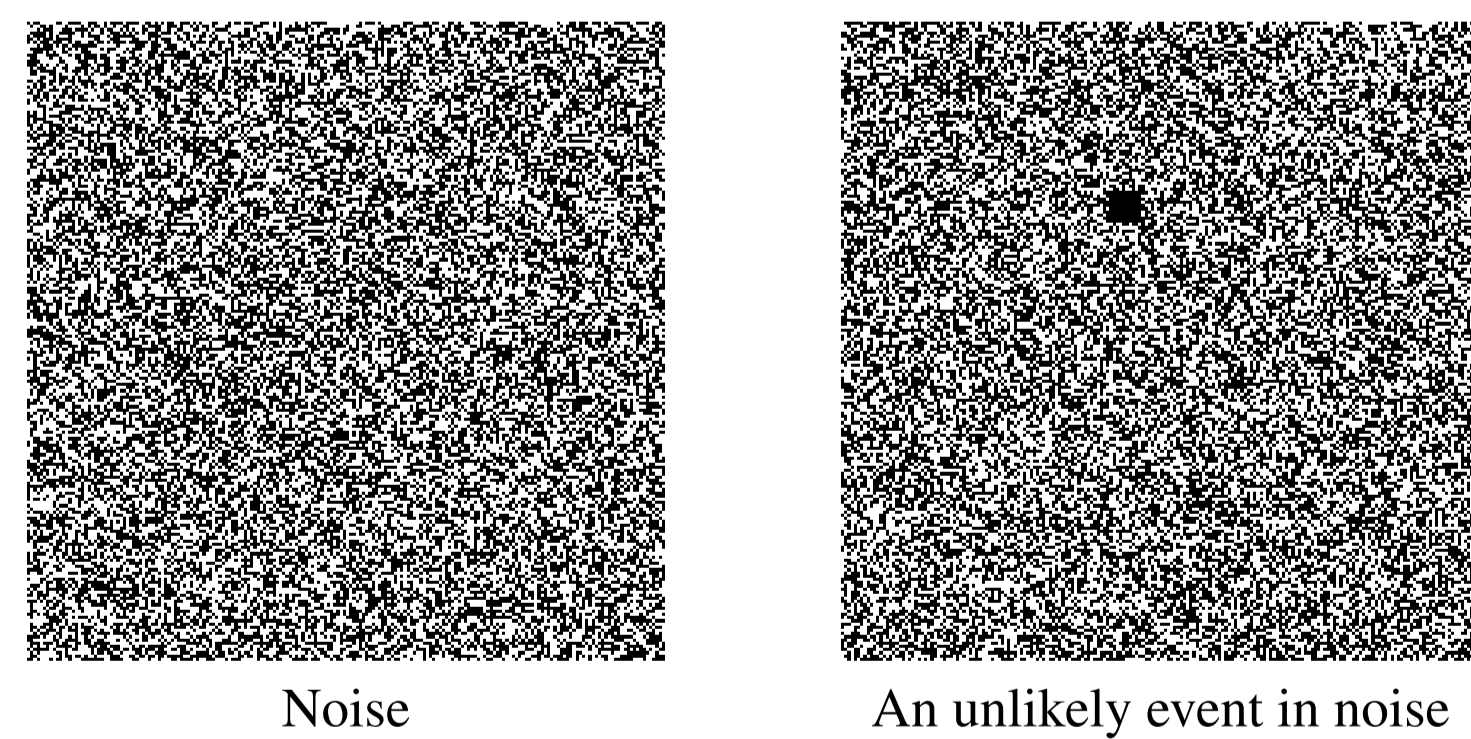
### Contours detection



From Wagemans et al's experiment [3], we kept the Gabor-rendering of shapes and their masking by adding orientation jitter on contours. In this first attempt to predict detection thresholds with a *contrario* theory, we focused on straight contours for their simplicity.

### A contrario model

The non-accidentalness principle states that, among a set of potential structures, only the configurations that would rarely appear by chance are perceptually relevant. The "*a contrario*" model translates such a principle in a mathematical language, as follows: a configuration is perceptually meaningful when its expectation in noise is less than 1. This means that in average, only one false detection would be made in a noise image. We define an upper bound of this expectation of an event in noise, and call it "Number of False Alarms", or NFA.



- $N = 200^2 = 10000$  pixels, each of colour black or white with probability  $p = \frac{1}{2}$
- The number  $N_{squares}$  of squares of all possible sizes fitting in the image, is approximately  $N^{3/2}$
- Given a  $n = q \times q$  pixels square, the probability to have at least  $k$  pixels of same color within this square is

$$\mathbb{P}_{k,n} = \mathcal{B}(k, n, p) = \sum_{i=k}^n \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i} \quad (1)$$

and its NFA, an overestimation of the expected number of such events in the image, is defined as :

$$NFA = N_{squares} \times \mathbb{P}_{k,n} \quad (2)$$

The expected number of  $n = 10 \times 10 = 100$  black pixels squares, such as the one in the above right hand image, is upper bounded by its NFA, whose value is:  $NFA = 200^3 \times 0,5^{100} < 1$ . This NFA becomes (much) greater than 1 for  $n = 4 \times 4 = 16$ . Indeed, colour squares smaller than  $4 \times 4$  pixels do occur by chance and are not conspicuous.

## Human detection

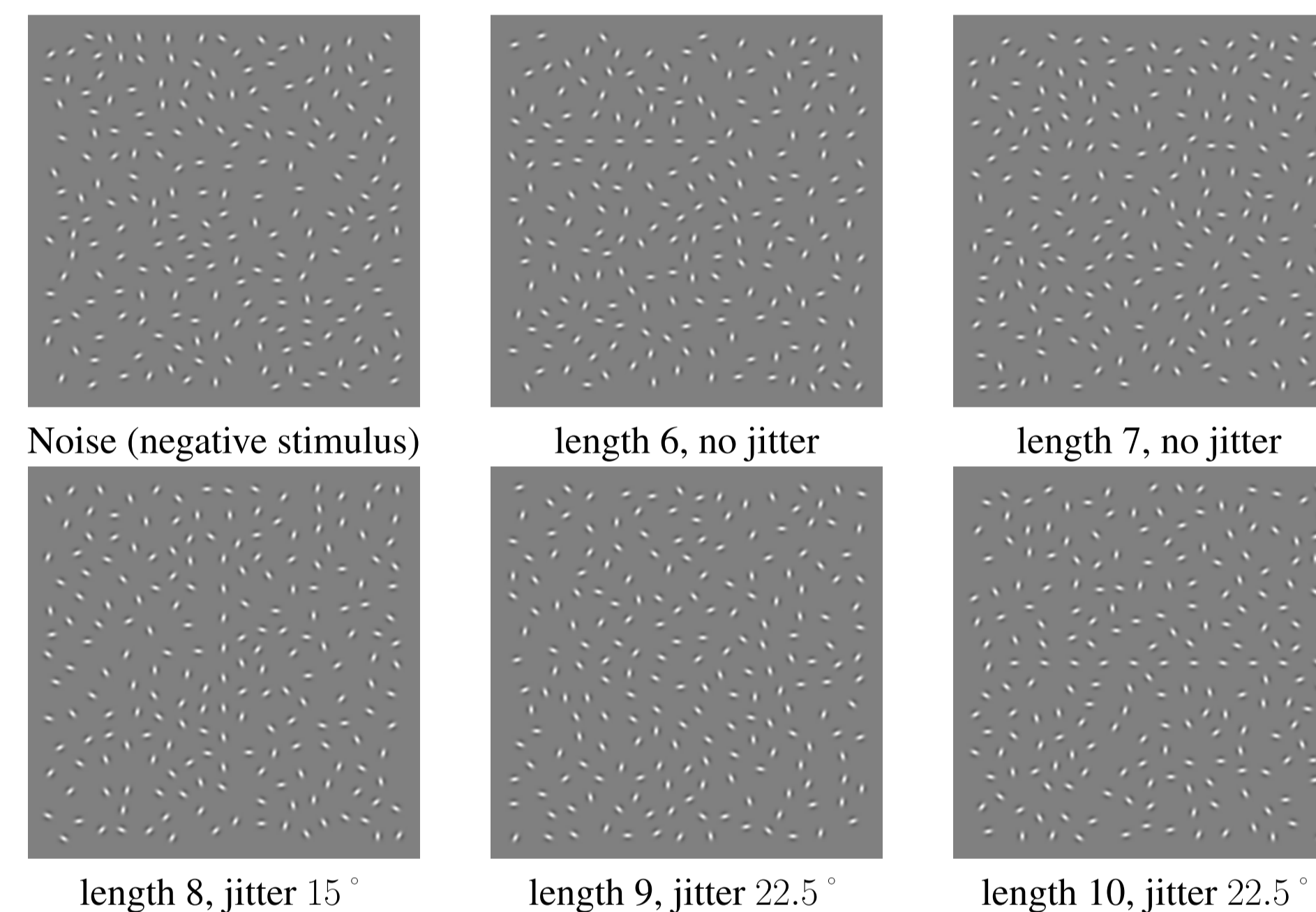
### Protocole

This experiment is accessible **on the web** at [http://bit.ly/aligned\\_gabors](http://bit.ly/aligned_gabors). During a session of the experiment the subject sees **35 images**. More precisely :

- **5 training stimuli** (the first 5 images)
- **30 images** are **randomly sampled** from the database according to the following probabilities: 25 % for negative stimuli (all elements have random orientations), 75 % for positive stimuli (some elements have constrained orientation).
- A **Yes/No question** for each stimulus: the subject has to answer whether he sees or not a straight line ; his **response time is measured** but no time limitation is imposed.

### Stimuli Database

The database is large enough to avoid repetitions (more than 14 000 images), and was generated with GERT (v1.1) [1]. Each image contains  $N = 200$  Gabor elements, not too close from each other.



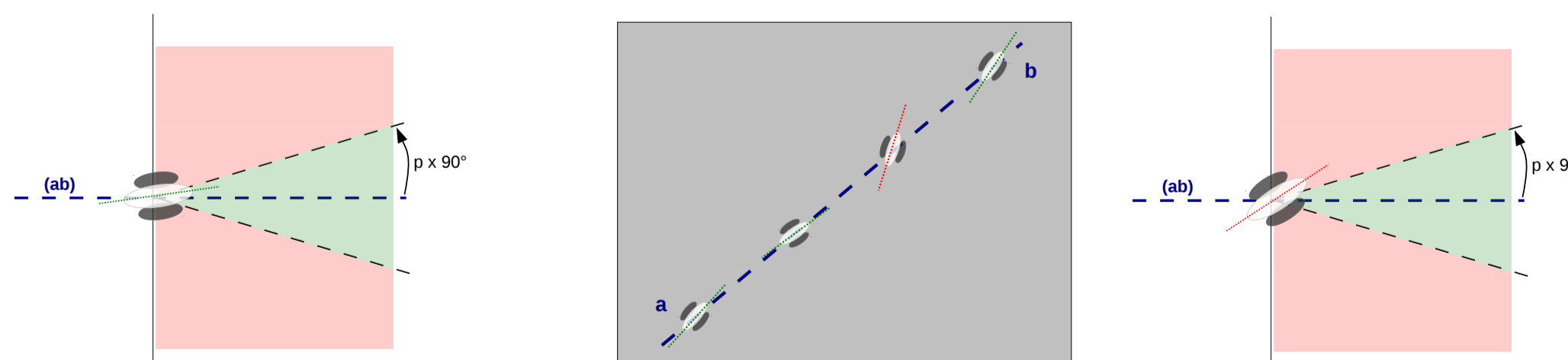
The positive stimuli (containing a straight line) vary according to :

- the straight line's length : from 3 to 10 aligned elements
- noise levels : the added orientation jitter belongs to an interval  $[-\theta, \theta]$  where  $\theta \in \{0^\circ, 15^\circ, 22.5^\circ, 30^\circ, 45^\circ, 60^\circ, 67.5^\circ, 75^\circ, 90^\circ\}$
- the position of the segment's center : 25 positions covering the image's area
- the slope of the segment, defined by the angle  $\alpha \in \{-60^\circ, -45^\circ, -30^\circ, 0^\circ, 30^\circ, 45^\circ, 60^\circ, 90^\circ\}$  with the horizontal axis.

## Machine detection

### Grouping laws

#### Orientation similarity and width constancy



3 out of 4 Gabor elements sharing orientation (ab) with precision  $p \in [0, 1]$ .

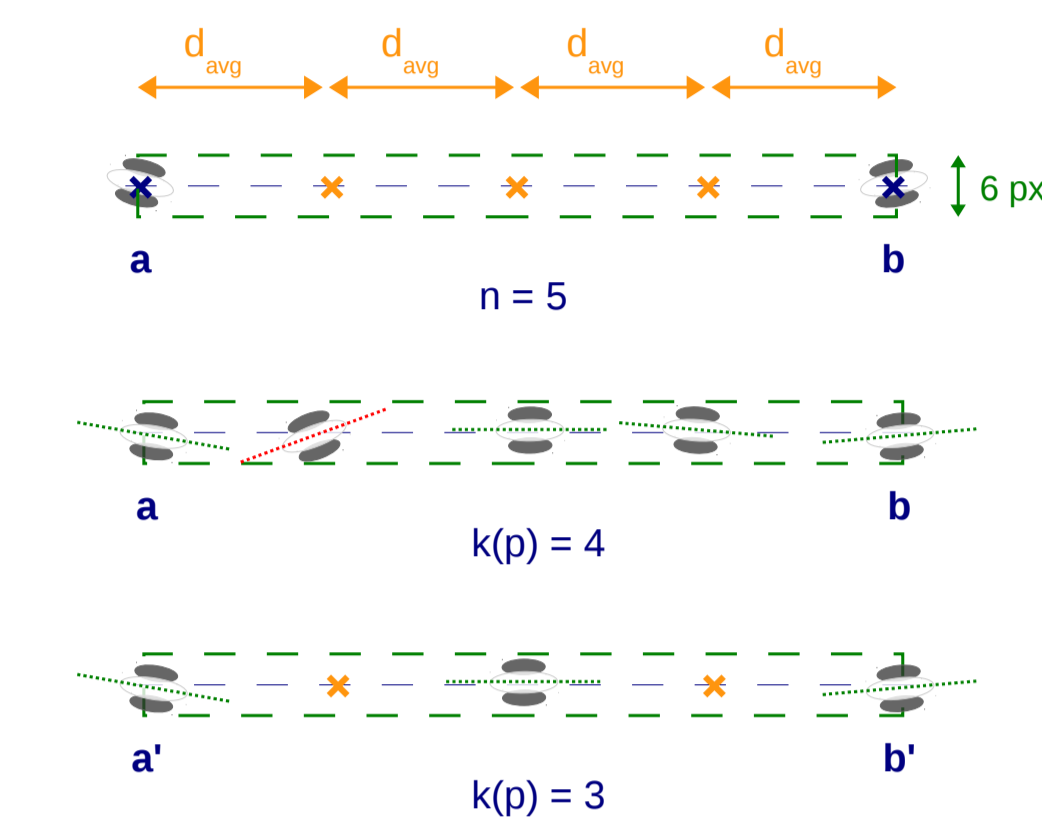


Width constancy:  $d_1 \approx d_2 \approx d_3 \approx \frac{d_{ab}}{3}$

### References

- [1] M. Demeyer and B. Machilsen. The construction of perceptual grouping displays using GERT. *Behavior Research Methods, online first*, pages 1–8, 2011.
- [2] Agnès Dsolneux, Jean-Michel Morel, and Lionel Moisan. *From Gestalt Theory to Image Analysis, a Probabilistic Approach*, 2008.
- [3] Johann Wagemans, T. Van Looy, and G. E. Nygard. The influence of orientation jitter and motion on contour saliency and object identification. *Vision Research*, 49:2475–2484, 2009.

## Algorithm



Given a pair  $\{a, b\}$  of Gabor elements, we define  $n$  as the expected number of elements in the stripe of length  $ab$  and width 6 pixels, knowing that the average distance between two neighbours is  $d_{avg}$ ; thus  $n \approx \frac{d_{ab}}{d_{avg}} + 1$ .

Then, for a precision  $p \in [0, 1]$ ,  $k(p)$  is the actual number of elements that are in the green stripe and whose orientation is parallel to  $(ab)$  with precision  $p$ . On the left hand illustrations, the one in the middle shows a "full" stripe in which one element is not parallel to  $(ab)$  with precision  $p$ ; in the third one, only 3 elements are in the stripe, all with same orientation under precision  $p$ .

The binomial tail  $\mathcal{B}(k(p), n, p) = \sum_{i=k(p)}^n \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}$  can be computed for each pair and any precision  $p$ . In the algorithm, each pair is tested with 5 precisions :  $p_1 = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $p_2 = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $p_3 = \frac{1}{6}$ ,  $p_4 = \frac{1}{8}$ ,  $p_5 = \frac{1}{10}$ .

For an image containing  $N$  Gabor elements, the total number of tests is

$$N_{tests} = \text{number of pairs} \times \text{number of tested precisions} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2} \times 5$$

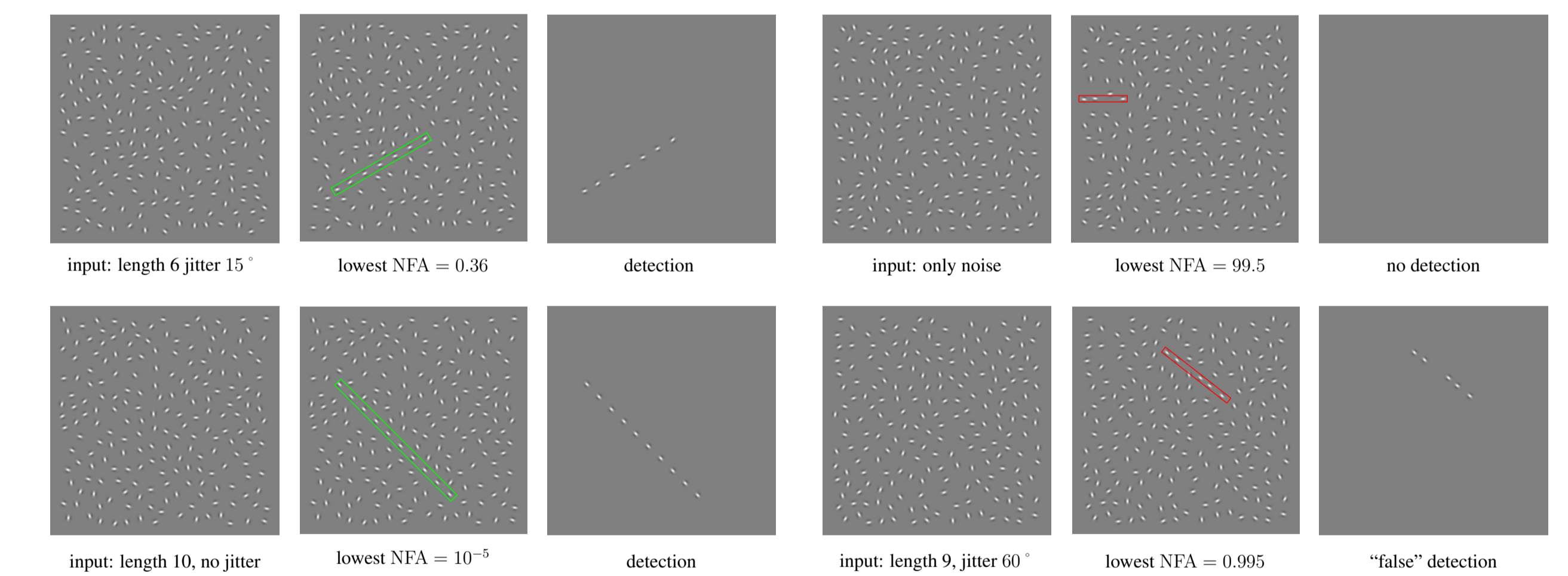
and for a given pair  $\{a, b\}$ , the significance of the corresponding straight line is given by its NFA

$$NFA(\{a, b\}) = N_{tests} \times \min_{i \in \{1, \dots, 5\}} \mathcal{B}(k(p_i), n, p_i) \quad (3)$$

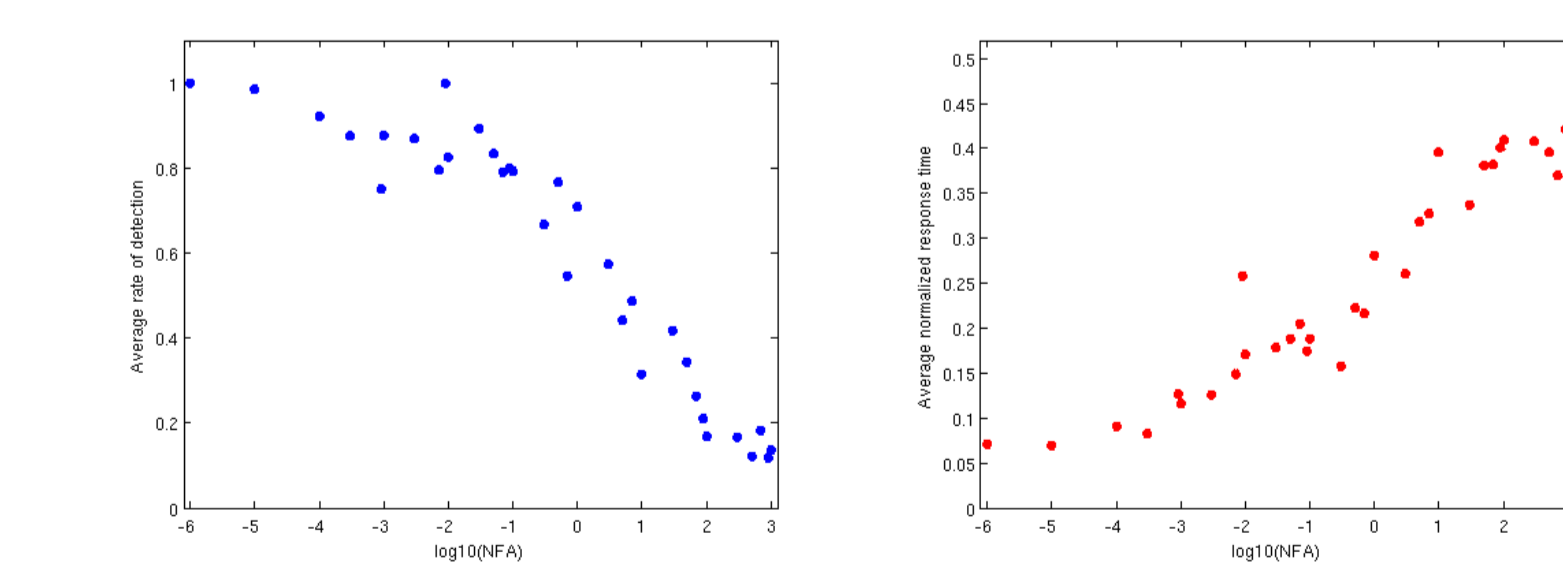
The algorithm detects the structure having the lowest NFA if it is less than 1.

## Results and discussion

### Examples of machine detection



### Human detection vs. NFA



- 277 started experiments, 229 completed : 7137 trials (5305 positives)
- The  $\log_{10}(NFA)$  line is divided into 60 bins. Every stimulus is assigned its lowest NFA. When a positive stimulus is observed during an experiment, it contributes to the detection rate and response time of the corresponding NFA bin.

• Every measured response time is normalized in  $[0, 1]$ , 0 and 1 corresponding respectively to the user's minimum and maximum response times.

According to the above results, the NFA seems to provide a sensible **measure** of the stimuli **difficulty for human detection**. By **predicting** how likely an alignment of Gabor elements is to be detected by humans, it is an **acceptable model for non-accidentalness** in our experiment.

However, this work is mainly a **starting point** for a more thorough investigation of the potential of a *contrario* formalism in detection modeling.

Future works will consist in (for example) : **1**) improving our detection algorithm, especially as far as the width constancy modelization is concerned ; **2**) running this experiment with different parameters (number of elements per image, size of the image...) to assess how general our framework can be ; **3**) setting up new experiments, such as pre-attentive ones, or with other kinds of stimuli, and run them in a more controlled context (not only on line).