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2 **REVIEW**

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THE NEURAL BASIS OF IMAGE SEGMENTATION IN THE PRIMATE BRAIN

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- Abstract—Image segmentation is a fundamental aspect of vision and a critical part of scene understanding. Our visual system rapidly and effortlessly segments scenes into component objects but the underlying neural basis is unknown. We studied single neurons in area V4 while monkeys discriminated partially occluded shapes. We found that many neurons tuned to boundary curvature maintained their shape selectivity over a large range of occlusion levels as compared to neurons that are not tuned to boundary curvature. This lends support to the hypothesis that segmentation in the face of occlusion may be solved by contour grouping. This article is part of a Special Issue entitled: Choice

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Key words: object recognition, shape representation, $Q^3\ \mbox{monkey},\ \mbox{ventral pathway}.$

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INTRODUCTION

The visual world that reaches our eyes is encoded as local contrast values in the activity patterns of retinal ganglion cells. This representation is isomorphic to the visual stimulus and continuous in that there are no

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Abbreviations: RF, receptive field; ROC, receiver operating Q2 characteristic.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2014.09.051 0306-4522/© 2014 Published by Elsevier Ltd. on behalf of IBRO. demarcations for where one object ends and another 27 begins. We nevertheless perceive the world not as a 28 uniform pixelated representation, but as a meaningful 29 arrangement of objects and regions. This is achieved by 30 a process called image segmentation which takes as its 31 input the continuous retinal representation and parses it 32 into components that ultimately underlie the percept that 33 is the brain's best guess for the current state of the 34 outside world. Image segmentation facilitates scene 35 understanding and makes our interactions with the world 36 around us more effective. It has been shown to improve 37 stimulus discrimination (Croner and Albright, 1999) and 38 provides structure for deploying visual attention (Qiu 39 et al., 2007). While we understand a great deal about 40 how isolated stimuli are encoded in various stages of 41 the visual processing hierarchy, very little is known about 42 how, where, and when images are parsed into compo-43 nents. How scenes are segmented is one of the most 44 important unanswered questions in vision and discovering 45 the underlying principles will constitute a major advance in 46 the field and could lead to better artificial vision systems. 47 Furthermore, while it is universally accepted that feed-48 back and recurrent processes contribute to complex brain 49 function, the underlying mechanisms and circuitry in the 50 visual cortex are largely unknown. In fact, there are 51 essentially no examples of neurophysiological manipula-52 tions that can be used to control cortical feedback with 53 the precision with which feedforward signals, driven from 54 sensory input, can be manipulated and used to modulate 55 neuronal responses. Because image segmentation is 56 thought to engage feedback and recurrent processes 57 (Kosai et al., 2014), it provides a relatively untapped 58 opportunity to understand and manipulate cortical feed-59 back, possibly by changing stimulus and task conditions. 60 This could have major implications for a deeper under-61 standing of cortical processing in general. 62

The approach

Segmentation is computationally challenging-even the 64 most cutting edge machine vision systems are unable to 65 replicate the segmentation abilities of the human visual 66 system. To understand the neural basis of segmentation, 67 it would be tempting to try to decode the visual cortical 68 representations of a wide-variety of stimuli with extensive 69 clutter and occlusions, stimulus characteristics that make 70 segmentation a hard problem. But currently, this turns 71 out to be an impractical strategy because the space of 72

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73 complex images is too large, the time available to record any given neuron in the lab is limited to brief periods due 74 to experimental constraints, and neuronal responses of 75 most visual cortical neurons are nonlinear functions of 76 visual stimuli, and we do not have a good understanding 77 78 of the underlying nonlinearities or the bases of representation. These constraints make it extremely 79 80 difficult, if not impossible, to analytically evaluate the neuronal dynamics associated with segmentation on the 81 basis of responses to an arbitrary set of stimuli. A more 82 fruitful approach, in our experience, has been one of 83 targeted hypothesis testing: we identify plausible 84 hypotheses based on shape theory and human 85 86 psychophysical literature and then focus on designing well-balanced, customized stimuli that can directly 87 88 address those hypotheses. In this case, the stimulus design targets a localized region of shape space relevant 89 to the hypotheses being tested and facilitates systematic 90 and controlled tests that can reveal the underlying 91 92 nonlinearities and representational bases. Below, we review our recent experiments (Kosai et al., 2014) to test 93 one longstanding psychophysical hypothesis that image 94 segmentation and subsequent recognition of partially 95 96 occluded objects are achieved by contour grouping 97 (Wertheimer, 1938).

98 Contour-based segmentation and primate V4

Gestalt psychologists have hypothesized that visual 99 scenes are perceptually grouped into objects and that 100 the component objects are detected and recognized by 101 102 first grouping contours based on principles of similarity, 103 proximity, continuity, common fate, symmetry, convexity, etc. (Wertheimer, 1938, see Wagemans et al., 2012, for 104 review). This strategy of applying Gestalt principles to 105 contours has been a popular tool for segmentation in 106 computer vision (Leung and Malik, 1998). This stands in 107 contrast to region-based segmentation, where the image 108 is partitioned into pixel sets with coherent image proper-109 ties such as brightness, color and texture (Leung and 110 111 Malik, 1998)—an approach more commonly used in traditional computer vision algorithms. Depending on the spe-112 cific task design, psychophysical studies lend support to 113 contour-based strategies (Jolicoeur et al., 1986; Ben-Av 114 et al., 1992; Houtkamp et al., 2003), region-based strate-115 116 gies (Fine et al., 2003) or a combination (Mumford et al., 117 1987).

118 One possible locus for contour-based segmentation in 119 the primate brain is area V4, an intermediate stage in the ventral (i.e., form processing) pathway, where many 120 neurons encode shape in terms of their boundary 121 characteristics (Pasupathy and Connor, 2001). For exam-122 ple, a V4 neuron may respond strongly to shapes that 123 include a sharp convexity to the lower right and weakly 124 to shapes that do not (Fig. 1). A second neuron may 125 respond preferentially to a set of shapes that include a 126 concavity to the left. We have shown that a population of 127 such neurons can provide a complete and accurate repre-128 sentation of two-dimensional shapes on the basis of their 129 boundary characteristics (Pasupathy and Connor, 2002). 130 These curvature-tuned neurons would be an ideal neural 131 substrate for contour-based segmentation; but, because 132 most shape tuning characterizations are conducted with 133 isolated stimuli, we do not know whether or how these 134 neurons contribute to segmentation. We therefore studied 135 the responses of curvature-tuned V4 neurons as animals 136 discriminated partially occluded shapes to determine 137 how they might contribute to the segmentation of occluded 138 objects. 139

Non-human primate model

To understand the neural basis of image segmentation, 141 we conducted single unit studies in macaque monkeys 142 as they performed a shape discrimination task. Our 143 choice of animal model is informed by several factors. 144 First, macague monkeys are highly visual animals. Their 145 lives in their natural habitat suggest high visual acuity 146 and hand-eye coordination. Their visual system is 147 comparable to that of humans in terms of visual acuity 148 (Cavonius and Robbins, 1973) and in the manner in which 149 they explore their environment. Monkeys and humans can 150 easily discriminate complex images and objects that are 151 only 2° in diameter at central fixation (e.g., Asaad et al., 152 1998). Monkeys are very similar to humans in their explo-153 ration of high-interest targets in scenes (Berg et al., 154 2009). Voluntary eye movements are qualitatively similar 155 in humans and monkeys (Fuchs, 1967); monkeys like 156 humans, have coordinated eye movements important for 157 maintaining stereopsis (Schor and Tyler, 1981). Several 158 behavioral studies in monkeys suggest that they segment 159 visual scenes into objects and regions the way humans do 160 (Munakata et al., 2001). Theories of segmentation, based 161 on human psychophysics are consistent with neurophysi-162 ological studies in monkeys. Specifically, shape theory 163 and human psychophysics suggest that T-junctions are 164 highly informative about occlusion and that segmentation 165 of occluded objects may originate at T-junctions 166



Fig. 1. Responses of a V4 neuron tuned to boundary curvature. Shape preference was characterized using a set of 43 shapes (columns) presented at 8 rotations (rows) in a passive fixation task. Some shapes (1, 36 and 43) were shown at fewer rotations due to rotational symmetry. The background intensity of each icon depicts the average response to that shape. Responses were strongest for shapes containing a sharp convexity to the lower right. Shapes highlighted by red (preferred) and blue (non-preferred) squares were chosen as the discrimination stimuli for the behavioral task (see Fig. 4). Previously published in Kosai et al. (2014).

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