COM YIER REUUGNITTON OF THREE-DTMENSIONAL OBJECTS
In a VISUA SCENE
by

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# COMPUIER RECOCNITION OF THRES-DDIEASIORAL ORJECTS 

IN A VISUAL SCEETE
by


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## ABSTRACT

Methods are presented (1) to partition or decompose a visual scene into the bodien forming it; (2) to position these bodies in three-dimensional apace, by combining two acenes that make a stereoscopic pair; (3) to find the regions or zones of a visual scene that belong to its background; (4) to earry out the isolation of objecta in ( 1 ) when the input has inaccuracien. Running couputer programs inplement the methods, and many exarples illustrate their behavior. The input is a two-dimensional line-drawing of the scene, assumed to contain three-dimensional bodies possessing flat faces (polyhedra); some of them may be partially oceluded. Suggentions are made for extending the work to curved objecta. Some comparisona are made with husan visual perception.

The main conclusion is that it is possible to separate a picture or scene into the constituent objects exclusively on the basis of monocular geometric properties (on the basis of pure form); in fact, successful methods are shown.

Thesis Supervisor: Marvin L. Minsky. Title: Professor of Electrical kggineering.

I sincerely appreciate the constant guidance and encouragement of Professors Marvin L. Minsky (thesis supervisor) and Seymour A. Papert. The pertinent criticism of Professor Joseph C. R. Licklider is gratefully appreciated.

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To the reader: Comments, corrections and criticisms are encouraged, and should be sent to the author to the address below.

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545 Technology Square
Cambridge, Mass., USA., December 30, 1968.
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```
ASSMMPTON
BOX ?
```



```
Gi,MBAT \becauseT ``
K3 % % TORM,
THR:` ;
Var in.60
```


if the machine is asked to separate the bodies, it must say
(BODIES ARE AS FOLLOWS : ( 189 ( 8 7) ( $\begin{aligned} & 3 \\ & 5\end{aligned}$ 6) ( 10 15)
(4 13 14) )
If asked to report the triangular priame, it should anawer
(10 15 IS A TRIANGULAR PRISM)
= This thesis discusses the problems involved in this task. What should be done when the information is noisy, some lines are misaing, etc?

How can the computer eeparate the background from the objects forming the scene?
How should shadows be handled?
How can stereoscopic vision be used?
What about ambiguities and optical illusions?
$=$ This thesis also discusses some related aspects of human visual perception
mon Key words and phrases related to this study are as follow:

| artificial intelligence body | pattern matching pattern reeognition |
| :---: | :---: |
| bảckgröund | photograply |
| background discrimination | photo-interpratation |
| classification of images | pleture |
| COMVIERT | picture abatraction |
| gernetics | picture proceosins |
| feature recognition | pleture tramermations |
| geometric objects | pictorial etructures |
| geometric processing | polyhedra |
| graphic processing | recognition |
| graphical communication | robot |
| graphical data | cene |
| heuristic procedures | acene analysis |
| heuristic programing | colids |
| identification | tereoscopic |
| image | symbol manipulation |
| intelligence | three-dimantonal |
| line drawing | three-dimmoticomal acenes |
| LISP | threa-dimensfonal solids |
| list procesining | two-dimenelonal patterns |
| machine aided cognition | Fision |
| machine perception | Visual |
| mechanization of vieual | Vituml information processing |
| perception | Visual object recognition |
| object identification | visual perception |
| optical | vieunl seenas. |

$=$ Computer Review (A. C. M.) index numbers: C.R. 3.61, 3.63, 4.22, 5.20.

Why this work was chosen as a thesis topic
The present work was carried out using the facilities of the Artificial Intelligence Group of Project MAC, at M. I. T. Currently, the main goal of the Artificial Intelligence Group (AI group) is <<to extend the way computers can interact with the real world: specifically to develop better sensory and motor equipment, and programs to control them.> \{Minsky, Status Report II\}. From such efforts, a robot or mechanical manipulator has been constructed, consisting of a PDP-6 computer, an image dissector camera mechanical arm and hand (see pictures).


IMAGE DISSECTOR CAMERA
<These "eyes and hands" are eventually to be able to do reasonably intelligent things but first, of course, it is difficult enough to get them to do things that are easy for people to do.> \{Ibid.\}

An image dissector silently watches a triangular prism in the vision labo ratory of the A.I. Group.


The work was naturally divided into visual information processing (computer vision) and manipulation and control of the arm-hand. Thus, when $I$ came as a graduate student from the Politécnico de Mexico to M. I. T. (Sept. 65) and became associated with the AI Group, I found a great interest there in graphical communication with computers. Moreover, it was felt that symbol manipulation techniques would be relevant to this area. I was fortunate enough to have had some contact with the LISP language in some of its implementations: MB - LISP \{McIntosh 1963\} * and Hawkinson-Yates- LISP \{Hawkinson 64\}* at the Centro Nacional de Cálculo of the Politécnico; in fact, I became interested in the area because I felt that it would be possible to handle two-dimensional structures much in the same fashion as one handles lists (that is, one-dimensional structures or strings of symbols) in a pattern-driven language, such as CONVERT \{1965\}, recently finished at that time.

The area also offered a good opportunity to understand and evaluate several techniques, computers, equipment, etc. Consequently I decided to work in it.
(*)
The parentheses $\}$ always indicate a reference to the bibliography at the end of this thesis, where the complete title, date, etc., of the paper can be found.

This section presents a general view of the problems in the thesis and their solutions; if you are short of time,
(1) Read the abstract and this aection.
(2) Choose some scenes from section 'Analysis of many scenes', and observe how the computer perceives them.
(3) Look through the table of contents, select additional topics.

Scene Analysis
Scene analysis is the result of interaction between optical data coming from the Eye, and knowledge about the visual world stored in the programs. In all that follows, the optical data entering through the Eye is reduced to a line drawing; this pass is called pre-processing, and it will be only briefly sketched here.

After preprocessing, such a
line drawing is analyzed in order to discover and recognize given objects in it. The process is called recognition.

The stylized presentation that follows is only an example; in particular, scene aniybis does not need to follow the sequence pre-processing $\rightarrow$ recognition. See 'Division of work in Computer viaion' in page 60.

This thesis is concerned
with recognition.
We now give a simplified exposition of both processes. Recognition will be discussed abundantly in the remainder of this thesis, aince it is the main topic; resders who wish for more information on preprocessing or other approaches should consult the references, for instance [my MS Thesis\} and [A C Shaw FJCC 68\}. See also page 60.



Each inhomogeneous square $I$ is divided in four $\boxminus$, ignoring again the homogeneous sub-squares.


The process is repeated a few times more.


The squares are now reduced to lines and vertices.

The resulting analysis gives us the first chance to start working abstractly now, instead of continuing in "picture-point space." Preprocessing is finished.


## Recognition

This and the next page describe proposed, but still unfinished, parts of the system.

What follows is merely a brief summary of the processes in recognition. A more systematic presentation and classification of processes in recognition is found in 'Division of work in Computer Vision', on page 60.

A program would check in the original scene, on both sides of each line, for continuation across the line, of textures, local cracks, etc. On these and other grounds, shadows would be picked up and erased:


A line-proponer program studies the abstract or "symbolic" scene and, using some heuristics and genersl principles, proposes places where it is quite probable that a line is missing:


These places are searched by a line-verifying program, which is an specially sensitive test that uses fine measurements from the original scene, and often it will pick up a boundary that was missed in the less-intelligent homogeneity phase. Here it can be practical to apply a very strict and sensitive test, because the program knows very accurately where the line should be, if it really exists at all. For example, even if the two faces have almost equal illum mination the Eye can pick up a thin, faint highlight from the edge of the cube. It would have been hopelessly expensive to look for such detailed phenomena over the whole picture at the start.

At this stage our program SEE (page 58) comes
into action. This program treats different kinds of local
configurations as providing different degrees of evidence
for 'linking' the faces. This evidence is obtained mainly
at vertices, and at boundaries between regions.
A vertex is in general a point of intersection of
two or more boundaries of regions. These regions might or
might not be faces of a single body. SEE examines the
configuration of lines meeting at the vertex to obtain
evidence relevant to whether the regions involved belong
to some object.
For instance, in the vertex configurations "ARROW" and
"FORK"(a complete classification of vertices can be found
below in table 'VERTICES'),

"FORK"

"ARROW"
the "fork" suggests linking face $a$ to face $b, b$ to $c$, $c$ to $a$. The "ARROW" links a with b. A "leg" (which depends on nearly parallel lines) would add a weak link, in addition to the ordinary

'LEG'
(Weak link shown dotted)


Matching T's. (two strong links)
(or strong) link placed by its 'arrow'; a "T" looks for a matching "T", and if found, two strong links are placed as shown. Also, a "T" counts against (inhibiting, that is) linking a with $c$, or b with c.


These links, for our example, are

and may be represented as

[weak links are dotted]
indicating two groups of linked faces, that is, two bodies:
$\left.\begin{array}{llllll}\text { (BODY } & 1 . & \text { IS } & 1 & 2 & 4) \\ \text { (BODY } & \text { 2. } & \text { IS } & 3 & 5 & 6\end{array}\right)$

If in addition we give at this point to the computer the definition or concept of a 'triangular prism', through an abstract model of it \{my MS Thesis\}, we can get
(1 24 IS A TRIANGULAR-PRISM)
(3 56 IS A CUBE)

Recognition has finished.

## Analysis of several examples

A larger variety of kinds of evidence is used in more complicated scenes, making the program more intelligent in its answers:
(1) The links themselves are inhibited by conditions or configurations at the neighbor vertices and faces; for instance, in the case of a "FORK", the (strong) links indicated below are inhibited:

(2) The links to the background are ignored [complete descriptions of conditions for producing and cancelling links are to be found in section 'SEE, a program that finds bodies in a scene'].
(3) A hierarchical scheme is used that first finds subsets of faces that are very tightly linked (e. g., by two or more links).

These "nuclei" then compete for more loosely linked faces (faces linked through one weak link and one atrong link or one face completely unlinked, except by one strong link $-O$ ). By not considering a single link, weak or atrong, as enough evidence for assigning two faces as part of the same object, this algorithm requires two "mistakes" (that is, two careless placements of links between regions that should not be considered as forming the same body) to make an identification error.

The bodies of the following scenes are found by SEE whthout difficulty.


Note that of the strong links available to the "FORX" marked with an arrow, two were prohibited or inhibited and only one is produced by SER.


In the following figure, the "FORK" of the big object is missing.


## Statement of Rules We will re-state the rules under (3) of page 22.

 Region (definition). Surface bounded by simply closed curves. We will consfder the outer background (:16 in fig 'L10', page 59)* to be also a region.Nucleus (definition). A nucleus (of a body) is a set of regions. Linked nuclei (definition). Two nuclei $A$ and $B$ are linked if regions $a$ and $b$ are linked where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

First rule: If two nuclei are linked by two or more strong links, they are merged finto a larger nucleus.

For instanc, regions :8 and :11 are put together, because there

exist two strong links among then, to form the nucleus :8-11.
Maximal nuclei: Starting from nuclei containing individual regions, we let tho nuclei grow and merge under the first rule, until no new nuclei can be formed. When this is the case, the scene has been partitioned into several "maximal" nuclei; between any two of these there is at most one strong link.

For instance, regions : 8 and :11 are put together by the First rule; now we see that region $: 4$ has two links with nucleus :8-11, and therefore the new nucleus :8-11-14 is formed. This last is a maximal nucleus.

*For the moment, ignore the colons (:) in front of numbers. The name of a region is a number preceded by a colon, such as: 16 .

The First rule is applied again and again, until all nuclei are maximal nuclei; then the following rule is applied:

Second Rule: If nuclei $A$ and $B$ are joined by a strong and a weak link they are merged into a new nucleus.


The Third rule if applied after the Second rule. Third Rule: If nucleus $A$ consists of a ingle region, has one link with nucleus $B$ and no links with any other nucleus, $A$ and $B$ are merged.

(10 11) does not foin the bigger nucleus because ( 10 11) does not consist of a single region. Below, 9 does not join (78) or (4 5) because 9 has two links:


The Third rule tends to avoid proposing bodies consisting of a single region.

The next example shown how three "false" links failed to lead SEE into error:


Here three links were erroneously placed bit SEE did not get confused by them.

In complicated scenes, coincidences cause two objects to line up. As a result, vertices of different objects are merged, two objectively different lines appear as one and so on. The next example illustrates these phenomena and shows how SEB copes with the problem.


SEE transforms the above scene as follows:



As we see, the nuclei are going to be correctly formed, and SEE will also analyze this scene correctly.

The bodies do not need to be rectangular, prismatic, convex. They only need to be rectilinear. As we will see later, even curved objects may be identified, under certain restrictions (cf. Table 'ASSUMPTIONS').


Figure 'BRIDGE'

All the bodies in "BRIDGE" are adequately found. A new heuristic is used here:

three parallel lines comprising regions that are not background, and having the background as a neighbor, and a ' $T$ ' in the center IIne, originate a strong link, as shown above.

The following locally ambiguous scene is correctly parsed by our program:


If we add another block to the right, the program makes a mistake and fails to see one of the inner cubes:


Figure 'MOMO' also gets decomposed accurately:


Figure 'MOMO'

The local links allow correct identification of the following body:


If the lateral faces do not have parallel edges, a mistake occurs (conservative behavior, page 2/2):


At left, the above mistake is not produced because vertex $A$ Inks : 2 and : 8 , by the new heuristic introduced in 'BRIDGE'.

## Conclusion

The performance of this program showe that it is possible to separate a scene into the objects foming it, without needing to know the objects in detail; SEE does not need to know the 'definitions' or descriptions of a pyramid, or a pentagonal prism, in order to isolate these objects in a scene containing them, even in the case where they are partially occluded.

The program will be fully analyzed in the following pages.

The problem of taking a two-dimensional image (or several such images), and constructing from it a three-dimensional interpretation, involves many operations that have never been studied, to say nothing of being realized on a computer. We will list some of these here; a more complete list is found in my M.S. Thesis \{MAC TR 37\}; some have been side-stepped or ignored by the present recognition system; the problems which we did solve are discussed in the text.

Among the facilities that must be available are:
a) Spatial frame-of-reference: setting up a model of the relation between the ege(s) and the general framework of the physical task, 1. e., where are the background, the "table" or working surface, and the mechanical hand(s)?
b) Finding visual objects, and localizing them in space with respect to the eye-table-background-hand model.
c) Recognizing or describing the objects seen, regardless of their position, accounting for partly-hidden objects, recognizing objects already "known" by descriptions in memory and representing the three-dimensional form of new objects.
d) Building an internal "structural model" of what has been seen, for the purpose of task-goal analysis.

Among the important factors are the effects of:

1. Both the camera's focus and its depth-of-focus.
2. Illumination of the objects. Light affects the appearance of objects in obvious and subtle ways -- in scenes with multiple objects and lights we get complicated shadows, which have to be detected or rejected. The boundary between two faces may disappear if they get equal illumination from a diffuse light source.
3. Perspective and distance effects. Even for geometric objects with flat surfaces, the two-dimensional projection of their surface

[^0]features can take many forms, and the system has to be able to deal with all of them. It works both ways, of course: once identified, the appearance can give valuable information about the object's orientation, size, and even (under some conditions) its absolute spatial locations \{Roberts 1963\}.
4. Accidental vs. essential visual features. Two objects of the same shape and location can have very different visualpresentations because of their surface textures and markings. We need to distinguish these two-dimensional "decorations" from real threedimensional spatial features.

## Other projects

Here are the main robot groups at a panel discussion.
1968 fall joint computer conference DECEMBER 9-10-11
san francisco civic center
Panel Members
MR. L. CHAITIN
Artificial Intelligence Group
Stanford Research Institute
ROBOT STUDIES AT STANFORD RESEARCH INSTITUTE

PROF. J. A. FELDMAN
Computer Science Department
Stanford University
THE ROBOT PROJECT
AT STANFORD UNIVERSITY
DR. T. SHERIDAN
Dept. of Mechanical Engineering
MIT
HUMAN CONTROL OF REMOTE COMPUTER MANIPULATORS
MR. R. J. LEE
Air force Avionics Lab
Wright-Patterson AFB
GENERAL PURPOSE MAN-LIKE ROBOTS
PROF. S. PAPERT
Artificial Intelligence Project
MIT, Project MAC
THE MIT HAND-EYE PROJECT
MR. L. SUTRO
Dept. Aeronautics and Astronautics
MIT
ROBOT DEVELOPMENT AT THE
MIT INSTRUMENTATION LABORATORY

## Previous work by the author

## CONVERT

A programming longuage is described which is applicable to problems conveniently described by transformation rules. By this is meant that patterns may be prescribed, each being associated with a skeleton, so that a series of such pairs may be, searched until a pattern is found which matches an expression to be transformed. The conditions for a match are governed by a code which also ailows subexpressions to be identified and eventually substituted into the corresponding skeleton. The primitive patterns and primitive skeletons are described, as well as the principles which allow their elaboration into more complicated patterns and skeletons. The advantages of the language are that it allows one to apply transformation rules to lists and arrays as easily as strings, that both patterms and skeletons may be defined recursively, and that as a consequence programs may be stated quite concisely.

## Abstract of Convert paper in Coman. A.C.M.

Because it is easy to write and modify a program in Convert, the language has been extensely used to quickly test 'good' and "great" Ideas, new algorithms, etc. It is embedded in the LISP of the PDP-6 computer (A.I. Group), in the IBM-7094 (Project MAC-MIT); in the CDC-3600 (Uppsala University, Sweden), in the SDS-940 (Univ. of California, Berkeley). A paper in the
A. C. M. and \{MAC M 305\} describe the language; examples of simple programs written in Convert are in \{MAC M 346\}; a book article \{Patterns and Skeletons in Gonvert\} is oriented toward the Lisp consumers. For our Spanish readers, two Bachelor's Theses \{Gumán 1965\} \{Segovia 1967\} deacribe the language and processors, and give examples.

SCENE ANALYSIS
(1) Polybrick \{MAC M 308\} \{Hawaii 69\} is a Convert program that works on a scene or picture, expreased as a line drawing, and finds parallelepipeds in it.
(2) We would like to be able to specify in some suitable notation models of the classes of objects we are interested in (such as 'cube', 'triangular prism', 'chair'), and make a program look for all instances of any given model in a given scene or figure. Two argunents would have to be supplied to our program: the model of the object we are interested in, and the scene that we want to analyze. Programs to do this are described in \{AFCRL-67-0133\} and [MAC M 342\}. In these early programe, partially occluded objects get incorrectly identified. These programs are also written in Convert, and work by transforming or compiling the model, witten in a picture description language, into a Convert pattern, which searches the acene for instances of the model.
(3) A Master's Thesis \{MAC TR 37\} diecusses many ways to identify objects of known forms. Different kinds of models and their properties are analyzed.
(4) It is important to be able to find the bodies that form a scene, without knowing their exact description or model. SEs is a program that works on a scene presumably composed of three-dimensional rectilinear objects, and analyzes the scene into composition of three-dimensional objects. Partially occluded objectis are usually properly handled. This program was discussed in \{MAC M 357\}, \{Guzmán FJCC 68\} and \{Pisa 68\}, and this thesis discusses a later version.
(5) The present thesis goes beyond these topics to discuss also handing of stereo information (two view, left and right; of the same scene), improvements to deal with noisy (inperfect) input, figure-background discrimination, and a few other subjects.

Canaday

Rudd H. Canaday in 1962 analysed scenes composed of two-dimensionsl overlapping objects, "atraightsided pieces of cardboard." His programbreaks theimage into its component parts (the pieoes of cardboard), desoribes each one, givee the dopth of each part in the image (ar ace0), and atates which partic cover which.

## Roberts

The problem of machine recognition of pictorial data has long been a challenging goal, but has seldom been attempted with anything more complex than alphabetic characters. Many people have felt that research on character recognition would be a first step, leading the way to a more general pattern recognition system. However, the multitudinous attempts at character recognition, including my own, have not led very far. The reason, I feel, is that the study of abstract, two-dimensional forms leads us away from, not toward, the techniques necessary for the recognition of threedimensional objects. The perception of solid objects is a process which can be based on the properties of three-dimensional transformations and the laws of nature. By carefully utilizing these properties, a procedure has been developed which not only identifies objects; but also determines their orientation and position in space.

Three main processes have been developed and programed in this report. The input process produces a line drawing from a photograph. Then the three-dimensional construction program produces a three-dimensional object list from the line drawing. When this is completed, the three-dimensional display program can produce a two-dimensional projection of the objects from any point of view. Of these processes, the input program is the most restrictive, whereas the two-dimensional to three-dimensional and three-dimensional to two-dimensional programs are capable of handling almost any array of planar-surfaced objects. [from Roberts \}
Roberts in 1963 described programs that (1) convert a picture (a scene) into a line drawing and (2) produce a three-dimensional description of the objects shown in the drawing in terms of models and their transformations. The main restriction on the lines is that they should be a perspective projection of the surface boundaries of a set of three-dimensional objects with planar surfaces. He relies on perspective and numerical computations, while SEE uses a heuristic and symbolic (i.e., non-numerical ) approach. Also, SEE does not need models to isolate bodies. Roberts' work is probably the most important and closest to ours.

## Mechanical Manipulator Groups

Actually, several research groups (at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, ${ }^{10}$ at Stanford University, ${ }^{11}$ at Stanford Research Institute ${ }^{\text {la }}$ ) work actively towards the realization of a mechanical manipulator, i.e., an intelligent automata who could visually perceive and successfully interact with its enviornment, under the control of a computer. Naturally, the mechanization of visual perception forms part of their research, and important work begins to emerge from them in this srea.

In this section definitions of a body or object will be proposed. The criterion is that they agree in general with the comon use of the word 'body', while at the same time they should lead themselves to implementation into a computer program.

Introduction

Our ultimate interest is to examine a two-dimensional scene (a picture, line drawing, or painting), presumably a representation (projection, photograph) of a three-dimensional scene (a subset of the "universe" or "real world") and to find in it objects or bodies contained in the real scene. More specifically, the aim is to find the two-dimensional representations (projections, photographs) of the different three-dimensional bodies present in the acene.

The phrase "two-dimensional representation of a threedimensional body" will be shortened to "two-dimensional body" or even to "body", when no confusion arises.

That is, we have to analyze a two-dimensional scene into collections of two-dimensional entities (surfaces, regions, lines), each of which makes "three-dimensional sense" as a two-dimensional projection of a three-dimensional body.

The problem is inherently ambiguous
A scene can be considered as a set of surfaces (facea or regions), a body belonging to that scene is then an "appropiate" subset of chis collection. Therefore, the problem of finding bodies in a scenf is equivalent to the problem of partitioning the set into appropiate subsets, each one of them representing or forming a body (scone "CHIRCH").

The problem is inherently ambiguous, since different collections of three-dimensional bodies can produce the same 2 -din ucene, therefore a given scene can be partitioned in many ways into bodies.

It is desired to make a "natural" partition or decomposition of the scene, natural in the sense that will agree with human opinion.*

To define a threedimensional body is no problem [a philosopher may disagree, perhaps in singular cases]:


Figure ${ }^{\text {'CEUURCH' }}$
Set of eight elements. Adequate subsets (bodies) are [2 4],
[13 35678 1. In a more complicated example, people may differ in their parsing of scenes.
Three-dimensional body (definition):
A connected volume limited by a
continuous, two-sided surface conposed of portions of planes.
Restriction: The above definition covers only polyhedral bodies, that is, those having flat faces.
Restriction: No holes.
No-restriction: Bodies do not need to be convex.
Roughly speaking, a three-dimensional body is something that does not fall apart into pieces when lifted [this may be used as an operational definition of a body, given a mechanical manpulator to make the nacessary tests].

Given a three-dimensional body, we generate a two-dimensional body by taking a picture of it, as follows.

Two-dimentional body (definition). Figure formed by the projection of a three-dimenaional body. Cenegills, the projec. tions is isometric or permpective.
Thus, this is a view in two dimewions of a kelid body, from some particula $r$ point of view.

Unfortuntely, a twomimenitonal body could ome in this wey from any of several different 3-dim bodies or, that is worse, two 3-dire bodies together can give rise to a single 2-dim body. For inatanes, in fig. /BEMI", *Without such a requirement, the problem has a trivial solution (see Metatheorem in page 39).


Figure 'BRMT'
Two blocks, or a bent brick.
this two-dimenional body could be generated bya "beat brick" or by two blecke affaentito ewch other. We are daning with one three-
 2-din extify (nmely, the ofding of figure 'berr') is the ame, and

 which could be the reptewentetion of 305 thlifuritidi bodies, or the picture of a sculpture (one bedy) in Relefnlity


Such colorful contradictions point towards the need to lay down a more careful definition of our task. For instance, no one would think that figure 'CUBE'


Fig. 'C U BE' No one would think...
contains three bodies. Nevertheless (see fig. 'PARALLELEPIPED' in next page), that could be the case.

These two extremes are to be avoided by an appropiate definition of a body and the correpponding computer program.

Legal scene
That 2-dim scene in which each line is boundary of some region.


See also comments to scene R3, and 'ILlegals Sqenes' (page 217), in section 'On noisy input'.

Metatheorem
"Any legal scene can always be the projection of one or more three-dimensional objects."

To prove it, it suffices to note that each legal scene is composed of regions , and each of them could be interpreted as the basis of a pyramid, all the faces meeting at the cuspid occluded by the basis.

Therefore, each legal scene can be obtained by projecting or photographing ait adequate arrangement of asch pyramids.

We can always construct a legal scene by photographing (or projecting) suitable 3-dim polyhedra.



Figure 'PARALLELEPIPE D'
An improbable decomposition of acene.

Trivial partition By $_{n}^{\text {the }}$ use of the metatheorem, we can always find a decomposition of a visual scene into three-dimenaional bodieg; we call this answer "trivial". Humans do not split scenes this way. Our program should not, either.

But the metatheorem points out that "imposisible acenes" are never found among the legal scenes (see aection 'On Optical Illusions'); these always have at least one interpiretation. [end of "rivivel pertition"].

We are trying to give criteria for proposing bodies that will suit our ends, which are to define a "reasonable" or "standard" body. This will permit us to judge the performance of a program designed to find objects in a scene.

Several criteria are possible:

1. Roberts \{1963\} suggests: given several models of three-dimensional bodies, use some numerical techniques, such as least squares fitting, to find which model fits best through suitable transformation, and accept this match if the error is toleram bly amall. Complicated compositions of elementary bodies are considered.
2. Ledley [1962] would propose: in terms of suitbble primitive components (arcs, legs, etc.), make a syntactical analysis of the scene, with the help of a grammar, in such way that the models of the object you want to identify are formed recursively from these primitive components and (perhaps) other bodies. Narasimhen \{1962\} and Kirsch \{1964\} would agree on this Iinguistical approach. A. C. Shaw \{Ph. D. Thesis\} assents.
3. Guman \{1967〕 suggests: prepare models which specify a fixed topology but where other relations (length of sides, parallelism of two lines, equality of angles) are specified through the use of open variables ( DAR variables, in CONVERT). Evans \{1968\} would agree with that.

These approaches require the existence of a model wich describes the object to be identified; the model specifies a particular 3-dim object (or a class of them). These approaches are answering more than what
was asked; they tell not only "yes, it is a body"; but also "it is a pyramid". The current question is more general. It is desired to know if something is a body, any body, even one which has not been seen before.

If it were possible to implement a program to answer that question, then that would be working definition of a body. SEF is a program which comes close to this goal, so that it could be pragmetically atated:

2-dim body "a la SRE" (definition). A body is oach set of regions. racognised by the progsen SEX as such.

This definition allows the followng Criticism: A perfect way to hunt lions is to capture any entity $E$, and to call that lion, by definition.
That is, although this definition is precise, SEE may make decisions "contrary to common sense"; also, for purposes of judging the behavior of the program, this definition is useless, since SEE will be perfect 100 per cent of the time, irreapective of its answers.

We are, finally, tempted to conclude that "compon sanse", or better, "human common aenee" plays a role in the definition of body, since what we are trying to characterise is ulual hody; normil body, compon body, etc. But even people my differ in thetr paraings of scenes. We could, of course, give a seme (buch as ' $\mathrm{MOMO}^{\prime}$ ' in page 77) to 100 subjects, ask them to identify the different bodies in it, and come up with some sort of 'average' or 'general consensus':

2-dim body (atatietical and human-behavioral definition). Each one of the subsets into which a scene is partitioned by many subjecte. It is understood that, in this apirit, the human objects should be motivated to satisfy a

Sipolicity criterion: Of the several "reasomable" interpretations (decompoaitions) of a scene, the one which contains the smaller number of bodies is preferable.

That is, an explanation or decomposition is simpler (and preferable) if it can be done with fewer parts.

Simplicity ia not to be achieved at any coat, since the paraing of the scene has to produce 'plausible' bodies, aince "simplicity" could be alway achieved if each acene is raported as aingle, gigantic body, obtained perhaps from more familiar ones throagh liberal use of adhesives (cf. also Sibelius' Monument).

The chief choices are surely:
$=$ To chooge a paraing, or
$=$ To list many (perhaps rank-ordered) in case of ambiguity.
If we select the first alternative, further choices are
$=$ to have a natural parsing (human).
$=$ to have a canonical parsing, in the sence of minimizing some variable (the minimization of the number of bodies leads us to Sibelius' Monument, its maximisation to the Trivial Solution of the matatheoren [page 4!1).

Other kinds of 2-din date
We have been discussing identification of 3-dim bodies (through their 2-dim projections) in a 2-dim seene, purely on the basic of geometric regions, Many other kinde of information could be used, such as texture, color, and shadows.

> Nevertheless, it if interesing to see how far the identification of bodies can go if only geometric properties are used.

Conclusion
Finding bodies in a 2-dim scene is a task not yery precisely defined, because of the mimiguities inherent in any projection process. On these grounds, the concept of 'body' is beat described through familiarity, human opinion and consenaus. We are forced to this because any scene could be partitioned in several way (cf. fig. 'PARALLELEPIPED') only some of which may be considered plausible ar 'sensible' (natural, common, standard) partitions in regard to the bodies forming it.

Synopsis
Here a scene is considered as formed by several regions; bodies are adequate collections of regions. The problem of identifying bodies is restated as the problem of finding whether two regions belong or do not belong to the same body. This question is answered by examining the vertices of the acene.

It is shown that a single vertex never conveys conclusive evidence, so that at least a pair of vertices is required to isolate a body; familiar and unfamiliar configurations of objects help to understand how the vertices are to be used in this task.

Vertices are the important feature
All faces of polyhedra are bounded by edgea.
All edgen terminate in vertices.
$=$ This thesis deals with the analysis of visual scenes composed mainly by three-dimensional planar objecta

$=$ These are limited by flat surfaces

$=$ All these bodies share as a common feature the edge: place where two planes [faces] meet (but see page 57).
$=$ Wherever several edges or faces meet, a vertex appears. This is also a common feature for all the bodies.


A body is formed by vertices with edges connecting some of these. When a 3-dim body is projected into 2-dim body, its 3-diz vertices (which we will call genuine 3 edim vertices) are trangiformed into genuine 2-dim vertices, known as images of the 3-dim vertices, as figure 'GENUINE' (in next page) indicates.

That is, a gemuine 2-dim vertex has come from genuine 3-dim vertex. Some 2-dim "false" vertices appear too; they do not come


## Figure 'GENUINE'

A genuine vertex (such as $G_{1}{ }^{\prime}$ ) is one whose counterimage ( $G_{1}$ in this case) belongs $t_{0}$ some body; false vertex *uch as $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ ', is airtual intersection, and generally has no counterimage in the 3 -dim world. See $\ddagger 1 g$. 'NODES'.
from genuine 3-dim vertices, but rather from the partial occlusion of parts of opaque bodies [transparent objects give rise to different kind of falae vertices; Gurmán [MS Theais\} deala with them by using transparent models, and a mode of operation of $T D$, the recognizer, that re-interprets or ignores certain types of vertices. [AFCRL-67-0133]]. False vertices do not belong to any object.

## Genuine and false vertices

categories "genuine" and "false"will allow isolation of objects in a picture; in fig. 'GENJINF', elimination of verticen $F_{1}$, $F_{2}$ ', and $F_{3}$ ' divides the genuine nodes of the network (see fig. 'NODES') into two non-connected components, $\Delta$ and $\square$, correctly separating the two bodies.


Figure 'NODES'
False vextices arise from the intersection of two projected edges, one of wich is typically occluded in part by a face bordered by the other. Elimination
 the network in two separate componente, wich are the bodies sought for.

This suggests the following
2-dim body (firet approx, to definition). Set of regione poscensing only genuine vertices, and separated from other bodies by false vertices.

In this way, the problem of identifying bodies is equivalent to the problem of identifying genuine vertices, segregating the false ones. by several problems:
$=$ The distribution and position of bodies may be such that false vertices look like genuine vertices (fig, 'CAUTION').


That vertex looks genuine, but is false.

Global information (analysis of more than one vertex) is needed in general to distingaish them. In other words, although false vertices are those which separate two bodies, and 2-dim genuine vertices originate from 3-dim genuine vertices, to segregate them requires more than the simple analysis of their shape.
$=$ Some genuine vertices look 1ike false vertices.

$=$ Genuine vertices of a body may not be present in the scene, or may be supplanted by false vertices.

$=$ A single body may have totally disconnected sections (portions).

$=$ Continuation is not clear; some doubts arise if the object in the foreground covers one or two bodies (fig. 'CONTINUATION'); the simplicity criterion prefers the single body interpretation.


Fig. 'cominuation'
Continuation is not clear.

In brief, difficulties are of two kinds:

- Genuine and false vertices can not be distinguished locally (see Theorem below).
$=$ Even when they are completely classified, problem of


The solution of these problems will have to make use of more global information.

## Classification of Vertices

The table 'VERTICES' in next page classflies vertices according to their form, number of lines and angles among the lines. It contains the most common types; vertices having more edge could have been included.

Let us consider one of these types, ARROW. Three regions called 1,2 , and 3 , form it. The standard, most common ARROW configuration is a body with faces 1 and 2 seen againat son se other object 3. We indicate
 this by [ (1 2) (3) ]. However all other configurations are possible:



Thus, for an ARROW, all the groupings of its faces are posaible; any procedure that, by looking at an Arrow tries to decide how its faces are grouped into bodies, will always make mistakes.

The generalization of the above analyais to all other types of vertices proves the following
"Theorem". There does not exist a set of local decision procedures [ $\mu_{i}$ ], each one looking or getting information from one vertex and establishing b-equivalences among some of their faces (two faces and $b$ are $b$-equivalent, indicated $a=b$, if the $\mu_{i}$ decides that they belong to the same body; this is an equivalence relation), using information only from that vertex (it does not look at the other vertices or at the values of the $\mu^{\prime} s$ at the other vertices), which will partition all scenes correctly.

That is, the following mehine will not work for all ecenes:


A atronger assertion is that, in view of inherent ambiguity, there is not even any global procedure!


All the different groupinge of regions of vertex into bodies are possible; this is illustrated by the following complete set of scenes, each one of them showing a different partitioning of a type of vertex. These exmples are useful also in giving an idea of unusual, as well as familiar scenes; we will have later occasion to use them, when searching for heuristics to form bodies.

## Generation of partitions




```
    Partitions of a set of
elements
    elements \(>\)
        compo ( (1 2 ( 3 4) )
                        ((1) (2) (3) (4))
                ( (1 2) (3) (4))
                \(((1) 3)(2)(4))\)
                ( \((14)(2)(3))\)
                ((1) (2 3) (4))
                ( \(\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)(4)\)
                ( \((14)(23)\) )
                ( (1) (24) (3))
                ( \(\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2\end{array}\right)(3)\)
                ((1 3) (2 4) )
                ((1) (2) (3 4))
                ( \((12)(34 ;)\)
            \(\left.13 \begin{array}{llll}12 & \left(\begin{array}{llll}1 & 3 & 4\end{array}\right) & (2)\end{array}\right)\)
            \(15 \quad\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array} 4\right)\) )
            15
        \(\uparrow\)
                            Figures in the next fow pages are
numbered according to the numbers
in the leftmost column in these
tables.
```







## Suggestion

As an alternate approach, one could try to use the faces as a basis for identification. For instance, use two scenes (left image, right image) or pictures, localize a shaxp feature in one of them (vertex, crack in the face, peculiar texture, etc.) and by correlation or some other method, find it also in the other picture. Having found a few points in both images in this manner, determine the plane of the face, in 3-dim space. When several faces are thus identified, we can compute, if desired, their intersection and obtain the edges (1ines). It will generally suffice to ignore the edges and rely on the faces. Since it is reasonable to expect considerable difficulty in finding lines and in differentiating lines caused by edges from those caused by shadows, an approach which avoids the lines altogether looks promising. But in this case, in addition to requiring two images, several correlations are needed (if we choose this method), a generally time-consuming and error-prone task.

Synopsis

How SEE works.

Algorithms and heuristics are presented, implemented in a program, that analyze a scene into a composition of three-dimensional objects. Only the two-dimensional representation of the threedimensional scene is available as input, and is deacribed by a collection of surfaces, lines and vertices.

SER looks for three-dimensional objects in two-dimensional scenes. The program does not require a pre-conceived idea of the form of the objects which could appear in the scenes. It is only anaumed that they will be solid objecte formed by plane surfaces. Thus, SEE can not find "pentagonal prisms" or "houses" in a scene, since it does not know what a "pentagonal prism" is; but it will ueully isolate the pentagonal prime (or any other regular or irregular solid) in a ccene, even if some of them are partially occluded, without having a description of auch objects. It does this by paying attention to configuration of surfaces and lines which would sake plausible three-dimensional solids, and in this way 'bodies' are identified.

The analysis that SEE makes of the different scenes generally agrees with human opinion, although in some ambiguous cases they tend to be conservative. The most interesting thing about the program is how well it deals with ocelusions. Many examples in the next section 'Analysis of many acenes' illustrate the features and peculiarities of the program, and also illustrate the effects of inaccuracies introduced in the data.

## LIO


figune milos

A scene analysed by SER.

Here is a program that locates objects in an optical image of a scene most likely composed by three-dimensional solids, perhaps occluding one to another, so that some of them may not be totally visible. We use a line drawing as our representation of the acene.

The analysis of scene Ll0 (see figure 'L10' in next page) by our program, named SEE, produces

```
(BODY 1. IS 85 :1 84 &12)
(BOUY 2. IS :6 :15 &7 811 814)
{aODY 3. IS :8 :9 :10 83)
(800Y 4. is s2 :13)
```

Division of work in computer vision

In trying to construct a program for seeing, several approaches are possible; most of them require some of the following set of modular programs or subroutines.

Pre-processing. Converts the image from a 2 -dim array of intensities to a symbolic representation or 'internal format' (page 66), in terms of vertices and lines connecting them.

Homogeneity predicates. They decide if areas of the picture are inhomogeneous, and hence require further analysis (page 16). Color predicates. Boundaries of different color suggest lines. Line finder. Locates lines of points having certain property (such as being inhomogeneous, or having a large light intensity gradient).

Vertex finder. Concurrent lines are merged, or a vertex is created at their meeting point.

Consolidator. Eliminates the false lines and finds more lines, incrementing in this way as much as possible the reliability of the system.

Illumination program. Discovers where the main light sources are. Shadows program. Detects shadows so as to eliminate them.

Missing lines program. General shape considerations suggest places where faint lines can remain undetected.

Body recognition. Partitions the scene into appropiate subsets, each one being a body or object. Thus, SEE is a body-recognition program. Object identification. These objects are compared against abstract descriptions (models) of cubes, pyramids, etc., so thet a classification is done, and a name is attached to each one. In the process, certain parameters may acquire values: the height of the pyramid is observed.

Positioning. Having analyzed the scene, the relevant objects are positioned in three-dimensional space, and additional relations among them are discovered (support, obstruction, etc.). Enough information is obtained to allow the mechanical arm to manipulate the objects and achieve its goals.

Stereo. More than one view are analyzed (page 233) and from them, 3-dim spatial positions are found.
Focussing. The computer, by adjusting the focus of its lens, acquires knowledge of how far the objects are.

Feedback among these parts is more necessary as the complexity of the scene and of the desired goals increases.

Recognizer. The task of body recognition and body identification was formerly accomplished by a single program (for instance, DT or TD [my MS Thesis\}) that compares the symbolic description of the scene against the symbolic or abstract description of the model of the desired object, in a kind of two-dimensional matching, to isolate instances of that object in the scene.

Technical descriptions of SEE

1. Annotated listings. Above all, the primary source of information is the listing of the programs, that appears complete in this thesis. They are written in Lisp. Ef, despite my efforts, some of my explanations are not clear, consult it: it is annotated. The programs themselves,
examples, test data, results, instructions, etc., are in the DECmagnetic tape "GUZMAN F" at Project MAC (AI group). Instructions are given in page 78.
2. This section of the thesis contains a description and discussion of the different algorithms and procedures used.
3. Published_papers that cover part of the material at somewhat less depth, and therefore are more readable, are also available [FJCC 68] \{Pisa 68\}. Except that they contain some examples not included here, they contain no other information not covered here.
4. An internal report \{MAC M 357\} described an earlier version of SEE.

```
Eventually, several preprocessors will be able to receive data through an input camera and reduce it to the "internal format" of a scene, in the form required by SEE. For testing purposes, the scenes are entered by hand in a simplified format, called 'input format', to be described now. A11 the scenes analyzed by SEE have been written in input format.
Example. R3 . The input format of scene R3 is (DEFPROP R3 (X87) BACKGROUND)
INOT ISETO RJ IUUOTE 1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \% \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & 4.3 & 4.5 & (x87 & \% 6 & \(x 84\) & XC & \(x=1\) & XBI & & & & \\
\hline XB & 4.0 & 5.7 & (x: 7 & \%A & X: 1 & XD & & & & & & \\
\hline \% 6 & 4.8 & 8.5 & (x:4 & XF & \(x: 2\) & KD & \% 21 & \%A) & & & & \\
\hline XU & 4.5 & 9.15 & \(1 \times 27\) & X8 & \(x 81\) & \% & \% 22 & XE) & & & & \\
\hline \%E & 5.65 & 9.25 & (x:7 & \% 1 & \% 82 & XF & & & & & & \\
\hline KF & 5.85 & 8.6 & (x8) & XE \(x\) & \(x 82 \times\) & XC & X 84 & XG) & & & & \\
\hline \(\times 6\) & 6.6 & 5.2 & (2:87 & XF \(\boldsymbol{x}\) & \(x=4 x\) & XA) & & & R3 & IN & INPUT & FORMAT \\
\hline XH & 6.9 & 15.4 & (x:7 & \(X L_{L} X\) & \(x 83 \mathrm{x}\) & XK & \(x=5\) & XII & & & & \\
\hline \(x 1\) & 8.5 & 16.0 & (x, 27 & XH & \% 85 x & ※J) & & & & & & \\
\hline \%J & 11.8 & 12.6 & (\%:7 & x1 \(x\) & x 25 \% & \%K & X 26 & XN) & & & & \\
\hline \% & 10.0 & 11.9 & 1486 & xJ \(x\) & \(x: 5\) \% & \% H & \(x \pm 3\) & XM) & & & & \\
\hline XL & 7.1 & 13.2 & (\%:7 & KM X & X \(23 \times\) & (H) & & & & & & \\
\hline \(\boldsymbol{*} M\) & 10.0 & 0.7 & \((x: 7 x\) & XN \% & \(\chi 86\) & \%K & \(x \geq 3\) & XL) & & & & \\
\hline XN & 11.65 & 10.3 & ( \(x=7\) ) & XJ \(x\) & \(x^{2} 6\) x & X M ) & & & & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
The first line declares :7 to be the background.* We have to tell SEE which regions belong to the background. If this informatior is missing, a program is called that will compute the regions that belong to the background (see section 'Background discrimination by computer') prior to other calculations.
After that, the lines associate with each vertex its 2-dim coordinates and a list (which will later be called 'KIND'), in counterclockwise order, of regions and vertices radiating from that vertex.
The function PREPARA (see listing) converts the scene as just given to the "internal format" form which SEE expects. It does this by putting many properties in the property lists of the atoms representing vertices and regions (property lists in Lisp get explained in next page).
```

*For the moment, ignore the \% signs. They are used to distinguish right from left scenes.

Property lists in Lisp * Each atomic expression in Lisp has a property list, which is a place where facts can be stored.

If it is desired to represent the fact that John is a 69 years old male, has a wife called Jacqueline, and a height of value 1.77 m , we could proceed in Lisp as follows:
(1) We will agree that the atom 'JOHN' will represent our man.
(2) In the property list of 'JOHN' we will store several properties or indicators and their values, using the function PUTPROP, that stores information in the property list; thus
(Putprop (quote John) (quote Jacqueline) (quote Wife))
will add, under the indicator or property 'Wife', the value
'Jacqueline':

(3) Hence, the representation of our facts in Lisp is

(4) In fact, the property list of 'JORET', which is the CDR of 'JOHN' in Lisp 1.6 [MAC M 313], is
(SER MALE AGE 69.0 WIFE JACQUELINE HEIGFT ( 1.77 m ) ...)
(5) If later we want to know the age of John, we will ask
(Get (quote John) (quote Age))
and the value will be 69.0

[^1]

R 3 IN INTERNAL FORMAT

The program assumes the scene in a special symbolic format, which basically, is an arrangement of relations between vertices and regions, which are represented by atoms having adequate properties in their property-lists.

A scene has a name which identifies it; this name is an atom whose property list contains the properties 'REGIONS', 'VERTICES', and 'BACKGROUND'. For example, the scene R3 (see figure R3) has the name 'R3'. In the property list of R3 we find (see also table"R3 $\mathbb{N}$ INTERNAL FORMAT"

REGIONS $\quad(X: 6$ x:5 $x: 3$ x:2 $x: 1$ x: $4: 71$ Unordered list of regions composing the scene R3. Order is immaterial.

Unordered list of vertices composing the scene R3.

BACKGROUND
(x:7)
Unordered list of regions composing the background of scene R3.

Region A region corresponds to a surface limited by simple closed curves. Regions are represented by atoms that start with a colon (:). For instance, in R3, the surface delimited by the vertices $K$ J N M is a region, called $: 6$, but DEFGAC is not.

Each region has as name an atom which possess additional properties describing different attibutes of the region in question. These are 'NEIGHBORS', 'KVERTICES', and 'FOOP'. For example, the region in scene R3 formed by the lines DE, EF, FC, CD has ':2' as its name. In the property list of :2 we find:

NEIGHBORS (x:4 x:7x:7x:1)
Counterclockwise ordered list of all regions which are neighbors to :2. For each region, this list is unique up to cyclic permutation.

Counterclockwise ordered list of all vertices which belong to region :2. This list is unique up to cyclic permutation.

FUOP

Each sublist is a counterclockwise ordered list of alternating neighbors and kvertices of $: 2$. Each sublist is unique up to cyclic permutation, and indicates a simple boundary.

Each sublist of the FOOP property of a region is formed by a man who walks on its boundary always having this region to his left, and takes note of the regions to his right and of the vertices which he finds in his way.

As other example, in the property list of :7 we find:

x:1 x: 11
KVERTICES (XN XM XL XH XI XS KE KF XG KA XB XD)
FOOP $\quad\left(1 x^{26} x N x: 6 x M x: 3 x L x: 3 x H x: 5 x 1 x: 5\right.$


Vertex
A vertex is the point where two or more lines of the scene meet; for instance, $A, G$, and $K$ are vertices of the scene R3. Each vertex has as name an atom which possess additional properties des* cribing different attributes of the vertex in question. These are 'XCOR', 'YCOR', 'NVERTICES', 'NREGIONS', 'KIND', 'TYPE', and 'NEXTE'. For example, vertex $J$ (see scene $R 3$ ) has in its property list:

| XCOR | 11.799999 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| YCOR | 12.600000 |  |
| NVERTICES | $(K 1 K K$ KN) |  |

Counterclockwise ordered list of vertices to which $J$ is connected. Unique up to cyclic permutation.

NREGIONS (X:7 $x: 5 \times 86$ )
Counterclockwise ordered 1ist of regions to which $J$ is connected. Unique up to cyclic permutation.

KIND (X:7 XI x:5 XK X: $\quad$ XN)
Counterclockwise ordered list of alternating nregions and nvertices of J. This list is unique up to cyclic permutation.

List of two elements; the first is an atom indicating the type-name of J ; the second is the datum of J . To be explained in next section.
(NEXTE)
Vertex $J$ does not have the indicator NEXTE in its property list.

The KIND property of a vertex is formed by a man who stands at. the vertex and, while rotating counterclockwise, takes note of the regions and vertices which he sees. NREGIONS and NVERTICES are then easily derived from KIND, by taking its odd positioned elements, and its even positioned elements, respectively.

NEXTE is a property that appears in certain vertices (none in scene R3); it will be explained in next section.

The property TYPE is also put by the function PREPARA; it classifies each vertex into one of several types, as described in table 'VERTICES' (next page).

'L'.- Vertex where two lines meet.

'K'.- Two of the limes are collinear, and the other two fall on the same side of such lines.


[^2]
'FORK'.- Three lines forming angles smaller than 180 degrees.

' $X$ '.- Two of the lines are collinear, and the other two fall on opposite sides of such lines.


TABLE 'VERTICES'
Claseification of rectilinear vertices.

The disposition, slope and number of lines which form a vertex are used to classified it, task performed by the function
(TYPEGENERATOR L) by storing in its property list its corresponding type.

The TYPE of a vertex is always a list of two elements; the first is the type-name: one of 'L', 'FORK', 'ARROW', 'T', 'K', 'X', 'PEAK', 'MULTI'; the second element is the datum, which generally is a list, whose form varies with the type-name and contains information in a determined order about the vertex in question (see table 'VERTICES').

Vertices where two lines meet.
L. - A vertex formed by only two lines is always classified as of type 'L'. Two angles exist at it, one bigger and other smaller than $180^{\circ}$. The datum is a list of the form
$\left(E_{1} E_{2}\right)$, where $E_{1}$ is the region which contains the angle smaller than $180^{\circ}$.
$E_{2}$ is the region which contains the angle greater than $180^{\circ}$.

For instance, in scene R3 (see fig. 'R3').
G has in its property list:


TYPE (L (\%:4 \%:7))
The vertices of type $L$ present in R3
are $B, E, G, I, L, N$.

Vertices where three lines meet.

FORK. - Three lines meeting at a point and forming angles smaller than $180^{\circ}$ form a FORK.

Its datum is the vertex itself at which the fork occurs. For instance, vertex $K$ has in its property list

TYPE
(FORK \%K)
The vertices of type FORK present in R3 are $C, K$.


ARROW. - Three lines meeting at a point, with one of the angles bigger than $180^{\circ}$.
The datum of an ARROW is a list like
$\left(E_{1} E_{2} \quad E_{3} E_{4} E_{5} E_{6} E_{7}\right)$ where
$E_{1}$ is the vertex at the 'tail',
$E_{2}$ is the vertex at the center.
$E_{3}$ is the vertex at the left of $E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$
$E_{4}$ is the vertex at the right.
$E_{5}$ is the region at the left.

$E_{6}$ is the region at the right.
$\mathrm{E}_{7}$ is the region which contains the angle bigger than $180^{\circ}$.
For instance, vertex $H$ has in its property list
TYPE (ARROW (\%K \%H \%L \%I \%:3 \%:5 \%:7)) --fig R3
The vertices of type ARROW present in R3 are A, D, H, J, M.
T. - Three concurrent lines, of which two are collinear.

The datum for a $T$ is a list of the form ( $\left.E_{1} E_{2} \quad E_{3} \quad E_{4} \quad E_{5} \quad E_{6} \quad E_{7}\right)$, where $E_{1}$ is the vertex at the 'tail' of the $T$.
$E_{2}$ is the central vertex.
$E_{3}$ is a vertex such that $E_{1} E_{2} E_{3}$ is an angle between 90 and 180 degrees.
$E_{4}$ is a vertex such that $E_{1} E_{2} E_{4}$ is an angle smaller than 90 degrees. That is, $\mathrm{E}_{3} \mathrm{E}_{2} \mathrm{E}_{4}$ are collinear.
$E_{5}$ is the region which contains the angle between 90 and 180 degrees.

$E_{6}$ is the region which contains the angle smaller than 90 degrees.
$E_{7}$ is the "central "region (where the $180^{\circ}$ angle is).
For instance, vertex $F$ (fig. R3) has in its property list
TYPE (T (\%C \%F \%G \%E \%:2 \%: $4 \%: 7$ ))
The vertices of type $T$ present in R3 are $F$ only.
See also "Matching T's or Nextes"below.
Vertices where four lines meet.
K. - When two of the lines are collinear, and the other two fall in the same side of such lines, The datum is a list of the form $\left(E_{1} E_{2} \quad E_{3} \quad E_{4} E_{5} \quad E_{6} \quad E_{7} \quad E_{8}\right)$ where
$E_{1}$ is the central region.
$E_{2}$ is the region having the $180^{\circ}$ angle.
$\mathrm{E}_{3}$ is the collinear vertex which falls to the left of $E_{1} E_{2}$.
$E_{4}$ is the region to the left of $E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$
$E_{5}$ is the vertex to the left of $E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$
$E_{6}$ is the collinear vertex which falls to the right.
$E_{7}$ is the region to the right of $E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$.
$E_{8}$ is the other vertex to the right (of $E_{1}$ ).


R3 contains no vertices of type $K$. PA of figure BRIDGE is of type ' $K$ '.
X. - When two of the lines are collinear, and the other two fall in opposite sides of such lines. The datum is a list of the form $\left(E_{1} E_{2} E_{3} E_{4} E_{5} E_{6}\right)$, where
$E_{1}$ is one of the collinear vertices.
$E_{2}$ is the region to the left of $E_{1} C$,
where $C$ is the vertex at the center.
$E_{3}$ is the region to the right of $E_{1} C$,
$E_{4}$ is the other collinear vertex.
$E_{5}$ is the region to the left of $E_{4} C$.
$E_{6}$ is the region to the right of $E_{4} C$.


For instance, we find in the property list of $F$ (figure BRIDGE):

TYPE (X ( $2 \mathrm{~A}: 26: 22 \mathrm{G}: 21: 30$ ) )
The vertices of type $X$ present in BRIDGE are $F$, only.
The datum for an $X$ may also be in the form $\left(E_{4} E_{5} E_{6} \quad E_{1} E_{2} E_{3}\right)$. Vertices of four lines which are not of type $K$ or $X$ are either of type PEAK or MULTI.

Other types of vertices.
PEAK. - Formed by four or more lines, when there is an angle bigger than $180^{\circ}$.

PEAK



MULTI. - Vertices formed by four or more lines, and not falling in any of the preceding types, belong to the type MULTI. R3 contains no PEAKS or MULTIS.

The datum for vertices of type PEAK is of the form ( $E_{1} E_{2} E_{3}$ ), where $E_{2}$ is the region that contains the angle bigger than 180 degrees;
$E_{1}$ is the vertex before $E_{2}$, and $E_{3}$ is after (in the $\ddagger$ sense).
The datum for vertices of type MULTI is of the form $E_{1}$, where $E_{1}$ is the vertex itself.

NEXTEs or Matching T's. Two T's which are collinear and facing each other (see figure) are called "matching $T$ 's, and each one is the "nexte" of the other. The indicator 'NEXTE"is placed in such vertices.

If the region $E_{7}$ of a $T$ (see figure) is the background, that $T$ can not be a matching $T$.


In the figure, $\mathrm{E}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ are matching $\mathrm{T}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}$ because $\mathrm{E}_{1}-\mathrm{E}_{2}$ is colinear with $\mathrm{F}_{2}-\mathrm{F}_{1}$. It is not required of $\mathrm{E}_{3}-\mathrm{E}_{4}$ to be parallel. to $F_{3}-F_{4}$. If several pairs of $T^{\prime}$ 's are possible, the closest is chosen:


P-Q are matching T's, and not $P$ - R.

The matching T's will get involved in the determination of places where a body is occluded by another object and later emerges visible again.


For two $T^{\prime} s$ to be NEXTEs or matching $T$ 's, it is required that neither $E_{7}$ nor $F_{7}$ be background. The requar rement ehould be extended to all regions between $E_{7}$ and $F_{7}$, since a line can not 80 "under" the background region:

: m

$A$ and $B$ can mot be NEXTEs, since $: 11$ is the quckground.
Two tratght lipes Luays intersect (poimbily at
 is to write function (subrautines) that find oft if two serients of line intersect, ot if one segment intareects with a line.





LINES AND SEGEENTS
In the plane, two straight lines always meet. Two segments, or a line and a segmént, may or may not meet. (a sugment is a finite portion of a line).



FIGURE 'MOMO'

We now describe SEE, and how it achieves its goals, by discussing the procedures, heuristics, etc., employed and the way they work. We begin with several examples.

Example A. Scene 'TOWER'. This scene (see figure 'TOWER') is analyzed by SEE, with the following results:

```
RESULTS
```

(BuUY 1. 1S :2 :3:1)
( Bu 认 y 2. 1 S : 15 55 84)
(BOUY 3. 15823 :17)
(BuLY 4. 15 :6:7:8) Results for scene TOWER
(oulur 5. is :10:11:91
(süy 6. 1 S : 13 : 14 : 12 )
(sucy 7. Is ald :22)
(BuUY 8. 15 :20:19:21)

Example B. Scene 'МОМО'. Details of the program's operation are given. (skip to next page, if you wish).

| 4 2 SL SEE 19 | Go to DDT and load file SEE 1 (in tape GUZMAN F), a binary dump of the program SEE. |
| :---: | :---: |
| \$G | Start. |
| (UREAD MOMO S1 3) TQ | Read the file MOMO S1 (in tape GUZMAN C) from tape drive 3. |
| (PREPARA MOMO) | Convert MOMO from its Input Format form to Internal Format, the proper form that SEE expects. |
| (SEE (QUOTE MOMO)) | Call SEE to work on MOMO. |

Results appear in next page.
Notes: 1 Z (control $Z$ ) is keyed by striking the $Z$ key while holding down simultaneously the CONTROL key. (Mêmos 161,67, nt $)$
$P$ denotes carriage return.
\$ denotes the character "alt. mode". (See also instructions inlisting)

```
SEE 58 ANALYZES MOMO
EVIDENCE
LOCALEVIDENCE
TRIANG
GLOBAL
((NIL) ((838) 60044 G0043 60041 60040) (1:19) 60046 60045 60etc.
LOCAL
(LOCAL ASSUMES (:17) (89) SAME BODY)
(LOCAL ASSUMES (:9 827) (818) SAME BODY)
LOCAL
((NIL) (NIL) ((80)) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) ((838:37 :39) G0043 etc.
LOCAL
((1:3 :2 :1) G0081 60029 G0030 G0028) ((:32 :33:27:26) Goetc.
LOCAL
SMB
RESULTS
(BODY 1. 15 83 :2 :1)
(BODY 2. 18 832 833 827 826)
(BODY 3. 18 828 831)
(BODY 4. 18 820 834 810 830 1291 RESULTS FOR MOMO
(BODY 5. 18 836 8351
(BODY 6. IS :24 :5 821 :4)
(BODY 7. 15 825 $23 $22)
(BODY 8. 1$ si4 il3 815)
(BOLY 9. 1s &10 $16 $11 812)
(800Y 10. 15 si7 818 801
(800Y 11. IS 87 86)
(BODY 12. 18 :38 :37 839)
NIL
```

```
        Most of the scenes contain several "nasty" coincidences: a vertex of
        an object lies precisely on the edge of another object; two nearly
        parallel lines are merged into a single one, etc.e This has been
        done on purpose, since a non-sophisticated pre-processor will tend to
        make this kind of error,
        Example C. R3. Analysis by SEE gives
(BODY 1. IS X:2 x:1 x:4)
(80DY 2. IS X:6 X:5 X:3) RESULTS FOR 'R3'
The % sigm indicates the dextral scenes (cf. page233). The signs
may be ignored.
```


## The Parts of SEE

The program is straightforward; it does not call
itself recuraively; it does not do "pattern matching"; it does not do tree search. It is formed by several main parts, sequentially execu ted. They are

LINKS FORMATION. An analysis is made of vertices, regions and associated information, in search of clues that indicate that two regions form part of the same body. If evidence exists that two regions in fact belong to the same body, they are linked or marked with a "gensym" (both receive the same new label).* There are two kinds of links, called strong (global) or weak (local).

Some features of the scene will weakly suggest that a group of regions should be considered together, as part of the same body. This part of the program is that which produces the 'local' links or evidences.

NUCLEI CONSOLIDATION. The 'strong' links gathered so far are analyzed; regions are grouped into "nuclei" of bodies, which grow until some conditions fail to be satisfied (a detailed explanation follows later).

Weak evidence is taken into account for deciding which of the unsatisfactory global links should be considered satisfactory, and the corresponding nuclei of bodies are then joined to form a single and bigger nucleus.

BODY RETOUCHING. If a single region does not belong to a larger nucleus, but is linked by one strong evidence to another region, it is incorporated into the nucleus of that other region. If necessary, more nuclei consolidation could be done after this step.

A last attempt is done to associate the remaining single regions to other bodies.

The regions belonging to the background are screened out, and the results are printed.

* In LISP, a "gensym"(generated symbol) is a new Atomic symbol, previously unused.


## Auxiliary Routines

Three functions are used constantly，and will be described now．

＂Through a chain of T＇s．＂Allows properties or configu－ rations to extend along straight lines；for fristance，the property《＇$A$＇has as neighbor an $L$ 》 $A$ can be extended so as to say 《throughtes，＇A＇has as neighbor an L．${ }^{\prime}$ ．

schematically represented as Strict definition．is defined as one of
（1）（meaning the two vertices in both sides of $-\{ \}$ are in fact the same）．
（2）

（3）

（4）


GOODI If a vertex $\nabla$ is considered a＂good T＂，（GOO DIV）is TRUE；
false otherwise．


As we see, this function tries to distinguish between $T^{\prime} s$ originated by aclusion, such as 0 , and $T^{\prime}$ s originated by accident (A).


NOSABO
"Not same body." Acts as a link inhibitor.
If consulted, (NOSABO .. V ..) will inhibit, in the following conditions, the link that vertex $V$ may have created:
(1)

inhibited link (prohibited, ignored, forbidden, not

(3)

(4)

(5)


Nosabo tries to find conditions indicating that two regions should not be considered as part of the same body; hence, if consulted, Nosabo may forbid a link among them. Some heuristics place links without asking Nosabo's approval and Nosabo can not "eras el link placed without its authorization.

If none of conditions (I) to (5) is met, Noasbo will be False, indicating no inhibition was found, and it ia up to the program that asked Nosabo's opinion to lay or fail to lay the link in question.

We proceed now to explain in considerable detail each of the parts of SEE. This will help the reader to understand the behavior of the program, its strengths and deficiencies.

LINK FORMATION

Several subroutines are devoted to creating weak and strong links. See also Listing.

CLEAN
Removes several unwanted properties.

EVERTICES Each vertex is considered under the following rules:
L.- No evidence is created directly by this type of vertex.

Nevertheless, the "L" is used in many combinations with other vertices to account for evidence. As we saw, Nosabo uses L's. "Legs" will use them, too.

FORK.- $==$ No link iscreated if any of the three regions is background (but see below). Example (unless otherwise indicated, all examples are from figure 'BRIDGE' page 94): Vertex J does not generate links.
$=$ Otherwise, three links are created as shown, except that each one may be inhibited by Nosabo. Example. Vertex JB only produces link :5-:8. Link :5-: 9 is inhibited because $S$ is a ' $T$ '; Nosabo also forbids link :8-:9 because $K B$ is an 'arrow'. This last rule is the most powerful of the heuristics.

$=$ Two links arecreated as shown, without asking Nosabo, if the fork is connected to the central line of an arrow. (No link js put here
Example: In fig. R19, PA generates links :29-:17 and :35-: 17 .
This Last heuristic is of help where there are concave objects (Fig. R19).

| PEAR.- | Link are established between contiguous regions, except those to the region containing the angle bigger than $180^{\circ}$. These links are subject to Nasabo inhibition. <br> Example, In fig. 'CORN', JJ generates links :8-:9 and :9-:10. <br> Of certain use, specially with pyramids and "pointy" objects. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | No Link. <br> The reason 1s: <br> (1) if the vertex is "genuine" (cf. page 44), |




The heuristics described will sometimes produce a "wrong linkage," linking two regions that do not belong to the ame body. These mistakes are not likely to confuge SBE, since the handing of these iinks (and all of SEE, in general) ie done undex the atmuption or knowledge that the information is noley and somewhat unreliable.

Strong links are shown dotted; weak linke are not shown.

(A)

(B)

(C)


(E)

(F)




The links could be represented as


Figure 'TRIAL - LINKS'
Strong (solid) and weak (broken lines)
links of figure 'TRIAL'.

SEE prints these links in the following way: (cf. also p. 110):

(NIL) ( (: 11) G0014 60013 G0011 G0010) (
(:12) G0015 G0014 60013 60012) (1:13) 60 $021)((: 9) 60022 G 0021600206001960017$ G0016) (1:10) 60015 60012 60011 60010) (1:3) G0034 G0025 60e24) (1:4) GU033 600 32 G0026 64025 G0023) (1:6) 5903150030 G0029 G0027) ((1:5) G0026 Gu023 G0022 600 $18600171(1: 7)$ (GuJ3j 60032 6001960018 Strong Links of 'TRIAL' G0016) (1:8) 60334 6(1324 60020) (1:2) G0 035 G0031 G0029 G0028) (1:14)) (1:1) G00 35 60030 60028 G002711

Weak links of scene 'TRIAL' are

```
((:2:1) (:0:2) (:6 :1) (:4:5) (:9:5)
    (:13 :9) (:3 :8) (:9:8) (:4:7) (:9:7
) (:12:10) (:11 :12))
    CThere is a weak link between :12 and il0
```

The next step is to gather all this evidence and to form tentative hypotheses of objects as assemblages of faces with many links among them.

NUCLEI CONSOLIDATION

All the links to the background are deleted, since it can not be part of any body.

Strong and weak links exist among the different regions of a scene. They are consolidated in that order by two subroutines, Global and Local.

GLOBAL
Groups of faces with an abundance of strong links among them are first found; these "nuclei" will later compete for other faces more loosely linked.

Definition: a nucleus (of a body) is either a region or a set of regions that has been formed by the following rule.

Rule: If two nuclei are connected by two or more strong links, they are merged into a larger nucleus.

More detailed rules appear in page 25 , in section 'Simplified view of Scene Analysis'.

For instance, in the figure below, regions :1 and :2 are put


Two links between two nuclei merge them.
together, because there exist two links among them, to form nucleus :1-2. Now we see that region $: 3$ has two links with this nucleus :1-2, and therefore the new nucleus :1-2-3 is formed.

We let the nuclei grow and merge under the former rule, until no new nuclei can be formed.

When this is the case, the scene has been partitioned into several "maximal" nuclei; between any two of these there is at most one link. For example, figure 'TRIAL-LINKS' will be transformed into figure 'TRIAL-NUCLEI'.


Figure 'TRIAL - NUCLEI'
Maximal nuclei of scene TRIAL.

LOCAL
If some strong link joining two "maximal" nuclei is also reinforced by a weak link, these nuclei are merged.

The weak links of figure TRIAL are shown as dotted lines in figure 'TRIAL-LINKS' (page 90); they transform figure 'TRIAL-NUCLEI' into figure 'TRIAL-FINAL'.


Figure 'TRIAL - FINAL'
Nuclei of scene TRIAL after merging suggested by local links.

BODY RETOUCHING

Additional heuristics assign unsatisfactory faces to existing nuclei, or isolate them. SINGLEBODY and SMB are used for this task. by a single region is considered enough evidence to merge the nuclei in question if there is no other link emanating from the single region. A message is printed indicating these merges.

Such rules produce no change in fig. 'TRIAL-FINAL', and therefore its nuclei will be reported as bodies.

A more complex example shows the retouching operation. Figure 'BRIDGE' undergoes these transformations:



FIGURE 'LINKS-BRIDGE'

$\Gamma$


We see that in figure 'NEW-NUCLEI-BRIDGE', nucleus :16 is merged by SINGLEBODY with nucleus :18-19 (see figure 'FINAL-BRIDGE'). Nucleus :28-29 is not joined with :26-22-23 or with :24-25-27-12-21-9. Even if nucleus :28-29 were composed by a single region, still will not be merged, since two links emerge from it: two nuclei claim its possession.

This rule joins single regions having only one possible "owner" nucleus.

SMB
Two systems of links are used by SEE. One consists of weak and strong links, produced by examining each vertex, and culminates forming nuclei under GLOBAL, LOCAL, etc.

The second system constitutes a different network of links; SMB works in the second system. It is motivated by the desire to collect evidence not directly available through the vertices. It gathers evidence from the lines or boundaries separating two regions, in an effort to answer the question: Are two given neighboring regions part of the same object, or are not they? That is, are two contiguous regions "good neighbors" ("good'pals")? If they are, a special link, s-link, is placed, eventually forming a network independent of weak and strong links, that will collapse, in a somewhat peculiar way. Thus, a great amount of unnecessary duplication could be possible in the information carried by both systems of links. To reduce it, the s-links are designed to complement and extend, rather than to re-do, the agglutination produced by weak+strong links. They (the s-links) will, therefore, mainly study single faces not satisfactorily accounted for.

SMB uses the predicate (GOODPAL R S), which acquires the value $T$ (true) if $R$ and $S$ are two contiguous "good neighbors" regions. To satisfy this, their common boundary must not be empty, and must lack L's, FORKs, ARROWs, K's, X's, PEARs, MULTIs. In addition:
$\frac{\mathrm{R}}{\mathrm{S}} \mathrm{S}=\mathrm{Not}$ good: $($ GOODPAL R S$)=\mathrm{F}$

$=0$. K. otherwise: (GOODPAL RS) $=\mathrm{T}$.
In particular,

is O. K. if (NOSABO R S) $=$ F.

SMB analyzes the nuclei formed under weak+strong links that, after SINGLEBODY actuation, still remain formed by a single face or region. The steps are:

1. A network of $s-l i n k s$ is formed by putting a $s \cdot l i n k$ between regions forming a nucleus all by themselves, and their goodpal neighbors.
2. If exactly one nucleus is s-linked to one of those regions (that is to say, if such single-region single -nucleus has precisely one good-pal), the region gets absorbed by the nucleus; otherwise the region is reported as a body in itself (consisting of a single region)


Note that
a. The $s$-links are not used to form nuclei as the weaktstrong links were; they only help certain isolated faces to join bigger structures.
b. Two slinks between two regions have the effect of one.

Example. In figure 'HARD', regions :6 and :7 get joined by SKB.


```
SEE 58 ANALYZES HARD
EVIDENCE
LOCALEVIDENCE
TRIANG
global
((NIL) ((834)) ((86)) ((836)) ((824) 60020 60025 60023 60etc.
0044 60043 G00421 (1817) 60047 60046 60045 60044) ((87))etc..
0041600391 ((821) 6005060040 600396002960028 60027) (...
003860036 60019) (1826) 6005460053 60037 60036) ((827)....
    6005560023 60020 60015) (1832) 60057 60056 60034 60033)
8 60048) (184) 6005860048) ((810) 6005960032 60031) ((8
119) 60064 60063 60062 60061) (1820) 60064 600626006060.
830) 60056 60035 60033 60016) ((815) 60066) ((116)60066)
((NIL) ((:34)) ((:8)) ((836)) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) ((:`
0196005360036600546003860037 G0019). (NIL) (1824 822
004060039 600296002060027 60024 6002260055 600236002
) (NIL) ((85 84) 60048 60058 60048) (NIL) ((813 817814) (
218 519 :201 60060 60064 60063 60061 60064 6006260060660
82 &31 8301 60033 60057 60034 6005660035 60033 600&61 (
LOCAL
(LOGAL ASSUMES (811) (812) SAME GODY)
(LOCAL ASSUMES (815) (816) SAME BODY)
((NIL) ((834)) ((86)) ((836)) (NIL) (NIL) ((87)) (NIL) (N`
019) (1824 822 83 823 821 828 829) G0020 60026 60025 60044
005560023 60020 60015) ({81:2%:33) 60052 60051:60017 601
4360047 60046 60044 50047 6004560043 60042) (NIL) ((218
    $10 88) 60032 60032 60065 60059 60031 60030) (1832 831 8;
)(NIL)((835)) ((812 811) 60067) (NIL))
LOCAL
((1812 811) 60067) ((816 815) G0066) (1832 831.830) 60033
6006560059 60031 60030) ((818 219 820) 60060 6006460063
660044 60047 60045 60043 60042) (185 :4) 60048 60058 6004
3 221 828 82916002060026 60025 6004960041 6002160050 (
15) (1825 826 827)6001060053 60036 60054 6003860037601
LOCAL
SMB
(SMB ASSUMES 87 86 SAME BODY)
RESULTS
(BODY 1. IS 812 811)
(BODY 2. IS 816 :15)
(80DY 3. IS :32 231 & 30)
(BODY 4. 1S 89 810 88)
(BODY 5. IS 818 $19 $20) RESULTS FOR HARD
(BODY 6. JS 813 817 814)
1BODY 7. IS 25 341
(BODY 8. IS 82 82 833)
(BODY 9. IS :24 :22 & :23 821 :28 829)
(BODY 10. IS 825 826 827)
IBODY 14. IS 87 861
NIL
```

RESULTS. After having screened out the regions that belong to the background, the nuclei are printed as "bodies".

In this process, the links which may be joining some of the nuclei are ignored: RESULTS considers the links of figure 'FINAL-BRIDGE', for instance, as non-existent. These links are the result of imperfections in the heuristics, mistakes in the placement of links, and may point out different parsings. An improvement to SEE will be to try to "explain" these residual links.

Summary SEE uses a variety of kinds of evidence to link together regions of a scene. The links in SEE are supposed to be general enough to make SEE an object-analysis system. Each link is a plece of evidence that suggests that two or more regions come from the same object, and regions that get tied together by enough evidence are considered as "nuclei" of possible objects.

Examples and discussion are in next section.

Until we have an adequate analytic theory, the behavior of a heuristic program is best understood with examples. There are several ways to go about this:

Simple In order to learn what a program does, simple examples, each one illustrating a single feature or group of features, are very appropiate.

Favorable A shiny impression of a set of routines is obtained by presenting 'favorable' cases, designed to enhance the characteristics of the program in front of the unsophisticated observer.

Of course, of all possible inputs, there is a subset that will produce outputs very pleasant in terms of speed, easiness of programming, generality, accuracy, or whathever other feature that system advertises. This subset tends to get the highlights in the descriptions.

Nasty
Examples in which the program does particularly poorly are useful, if well chosen, to illustrate the weak points and pitfalls of the techniques used, the restrictions and constraints in the input, etc. They may point out improvements or extensions.

Silly Examples having very weak connection with the purpose or intention of the routines or algorithms discussed serve no useful end, except perhaps to point out that the maker of such examples did not understand the issues. For instance, one could take a box full of pins, drop them on the table, take their picture and ask SEE to work on it.

A collection of simple, favorable, and nasty examples follows. They are not in that order.

A discussion is found at the end of this section.Finding the background Examples where the background is not knownin advance and has to be deduced are given in the section 'BackgroundDiscrimination by Computer'.

LIST OF SCENES ANALYZED BY SEE IN THIS SECTION

| Name. | Comments. Scene (figure). Computer Results. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R17 | 107 | 108 | 109 |
| L3 | 110 | 111 | 112 |
| R3 | 113 | 114 | 115 |
| SPREAD | 116 | 117 | 118 |
| STACK | 119 | 120 | 122 |
| STACK* | 119 | 121 | 122 |
| L10 | 123 | 124 | 125 |
| R10 | 126 | 127 | 128 |
| TOWER | 129 | 130 | 131 |
| REWOT | 132 | 133 | 134 |
| WRIST* | 135 | 136 | 137 |
| 12 | 138 | 141 | 142 |
| R2 | 138 | 139 | 140 |
| L19 | 143 | 144 | 145 |
| R19 | 146 | 147 | 148 |
| CORN | 149 | 150 | 151 |
| L9 | 152 | 153 | 154, |
| R9 | 156 | 158 | 157 |
| R9T | 156 | 159 | 160 |
| TRIAL | 161 | 162 | 163 |
| ARCH | 164 | 165 | 166 |
| HARD | 167 | 168 | 169 |
| I4 | 170 | 171 | 172 |
| R4 | 173 | 174 | 175 |
| MOMO | 176 | 177 | 178 |
| BRIDEE | 179 | 180 | 181 | position of one or two vertices may alter the analysis made by SEE, by changing radically the slope-direction of a small segment (such as KL and GH, figure 'RI7'), killing several T-joints and separating regions :1-2 from :5-6.

Small errors in the coordinates of vertices $K, L, G, H$, and few others will drastically change the slope of segments of short length. This will transform $G$ and $K$ to be Arrows or Porks, so that $G$ and $K$ will no longer be matching T's (cf. also 'Conservatism and Tolerance' page 173). As a consequence, body :2-1 will be disconnected from body :5-6. This annoying problem is not difficult to correct, at preproces sor level, since there is good information about the slope of the (long) line BN : the slope of KL has to agree with the slope of BR, giving a good estimate of its true shape. The SUGGESTION rule seems to be that these short segments should be "re-oriented" if necessary, to agree with the longer ones, which are more reliable. Deeper analysis is found in section 'On Noisy Input'.

The preprocessor should consider the hypothesis
SUGGESTION that BKLN are colinear -- or SEE should propose it for confirmation (see 'Division of Work in Computer Vision', p. 60 ).

The \% signs In the printouts of some scenes, such as R17 (see 'RESULIS FOR R17' in page 109), a \& sign appears as part of the name of every region and vertex; that is, bi3 instead of $: 3$. This will be the case in all scenes having names starting with the letter $R$, differentiating the "right regions" from the "left regions". This will become clear in the section 'Stereo Perception', page 233; until then, disregard the \%'s.


FIGURE 'R 17 '
The three prisms were correctly found. There are several "nasty" coincidences in this scene, simulating the data that a not-too-satisfactory preprocessor will tend to provide.
SE ANALYZES R17



Scene L3
Without difficulty, two bodies are found. Each region contains four strong links relating it with other regions (see 'RESULTS FOR L3'). LOCAL is not needed to form nuclei; neither SINGLEEBODY or SMB.

Explanation of the printout produced by the program In page 112 , a printout of the results appears. The format is the same for every scene. It starts by saying

SEE 56 ANALYZES LU
which identifies the name of the program (SEE), its number (version number 58), and the scene to be analyzed (L3).

EVIDENCE
Localevidence
TRIANG
GLOBAL
The different sections of the program print their name, when they are entered.

We then come to a list containing regions (such as :6) and 'gensyme'
(such as G0009):
(NIL) ((86) 60009600076000560004$)(185) 6001060008$ $60007600041(184) 60010600096000860005)(181) 60015$ $600136001260011)((82) 60016600146001360011)$ (183) 60016600156001460012$)((87) 11$

This list contains the nuclei and the links (strong links); the first nucleus that we see is ( $(16) 60009600076000560004$ ), meaning that from nucleus (or region) 66 emanate four links, namely 60009 , G0007, G0005 and G0004. We can represent this graphically:


The total representation of the above list is thus


We then see "LOCAL" (when this function is entered, it prints its name), then the list of nuclei again, this time shrunk somewhat by LOCAL; finally, we see "RESULTS", and then 2 bodies, followed by NIL, meaning the end of the program. (See page 112).


Two bodies aregoum is the scene by ourutrograndie. na
 background.

```
SEE 5a ANALYZES LJ
EVIDENCE
LOCALEVIDENCE
TRJANE
TRJANG
```



```
012600111 (1E21 60016 c0014 G0013 600111) (113) 60015 60015 60014
((NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (186 25 (4) 60005 60000 6000760004 60010 60000060000 60005) (NIL) (NIL) ((11 82 &3) 60012 60014 600(
(1NNL'(N/L) (NLL) (186 25 (4) 600056000
LOCAL
(INIL) (NIL) ((86 s5 :4) 60005 60000 60007 60004 60010 60009 60000 60005) (NIL) ((1) 82 13) 60012 60014 60013 60011 6001
8G0015 60014 600121 (18711)
11(11 s2 :3) 60012 60014 60013 60011 60016 60015 60014 00012) (186 55 14) 60005 60000 60007 60004 60010 60000960000 6000
11%
LOCA
LME
mESULTS
GRODY 1. 18 :1 12 83)
(80DY 2. Is 86 85 34)
NIL

Scene R3 Two bodies are found in this scene. Vertex \(F\) is
clasaified as of type ' \(T\) ', hence only one link there exists between :2 and :4.

All scenes have regions, vertices and lines (edges) joining vertices and separating regions. We generally omit the names of the vertices from the drawing (figure 'R3'); we are also omiting the coordinate axes.

Since each region has an inside and an outside, the following
are invalid or illegal configurations in a scene:


A line ending nowhere: illegal.


Our scenes should be such that, to disconnect a separate component of the graph into two components, we have to remove (delete) at least two edges. The graph above is "illegal" as input to our program, since the criterion is not met: removing edge \(E\) will disconnect the graph (cf. page 39 ).

Incidentally, some optical
illusions are "recognized" or rejec ted because they come from illegal scenes of the type just described (cf. section 'Optical Illusions').
See 'Illegal scenes', page 217, in section 'On noisy input.'

SEE 50 ANALYZES RJ
EVIDENCE
ocalevidence
LRLANG
GLOBAL





s(z:2
Ocal


Scene SPREAD
Body :41-42 was found; also :8-18-19. In the first case, there was one strong link between \(: 41\) and \(: 42\), because of the heuristic (g) of table 'GLOBAL EVIDENCE' (page 87), and SINGLEBODY completed the object. In the second case, heurlstic (g) could not be applied, and SMB had to join :19 with :18.

Bodies :29-30-31-32 and :25-26-27-28 are adequately found. Also the bad1y occluded long body \(: 10-9-11-12-3\) is found.

Body :21-6-25-20 is found as one body. An older version of SEE \{Guzmán FJCC 68\} used to report two: \(16-21\) and \(: 5-20\). The change is as follows: one link is pleced between :6 and :5 because of the matching \(T^{\prime} s\), the other link is a weak one placed because :5 and 120 form a LEG; a weak link is also piaced between :6 and :5.
:24 gets reported isolated, instead of together with :22-23, because no Leg is seen; but see comment (page 30) in section 'Simplified View of Scene Analysis'.

SEE tries to find a "minimal" answer; minimal in the sense that it will try to explain the scene with the minimum possible number of bodies (cf. section 'The Concept of a Body'). That is the reason which joined : 41 and \(: 42\) in one body, instead of two, which is another possible correct answer. That is also true of : 19-18-8, interpreted as one parallelepiped with a vertical face (:19) and an horizontal face (:18-8).

The background of SPREAD is also computed (see page 226 of section 'Background Discrimination by Computer').

\section*{SPREAD}


FIGURE 'S PREAD'

Bodies :10-9-11-12-3 and :6-21-5-20 are properly found. Also is correctly identified the body \(: 19-18-8\), which is a parallelepiped with a vertical face (:19) and an horizontal face (:8-18).


These scenes show that in many instances one could drastically alter the position of vertex, without modifying the output of SEE (compare figure 'STACK' with 'STACK'').

Other examples would show that the vertices of type ' \(I\) ' can be arbitrarily displaced, so long as their type remains ' \(L\) ' and other vertices do not change type, without detrimental effect. This displacement may possibly affect some heuristics that use concepts of parallelism or colinearity, but not the rules that use the shape or type of a vertex (cf. table \({ }^{1}\) VERTICES', page 69) for placing and inhibiting links. Read 'Misplaced vertices' in page \(2 \|\), in section 'On noisy input.'


FIGURE 'S TACK'
Every body is correctly identified. Compare with scene STACK*. This pair of drawings illustrate the fact that it is often ppssible to disturb the coordinates (the position) of a vertex, without introducing errors in the recognition.

\section*{8TACK *}

figure 'S TACK*'
Every body is correctly found. Compare with scene STACK.


1BODY 5. IS :13 :14 is)
growy 6. 152208191
Nil
```

Scene Ll0
problem, since there are plenty of visible vertices
(figure 'L10'), and SEE makes good use of them.
SINGLBBODY is necessary to join regions :13 and
:2.
The bodies of a scene do not need to be
prismatic in shape, nor convex. Their vertices could
have errors in their two-dimensional position. Table
'ASSUMPTIONS' (page 255) specifies the suppositions that
our program obeys.

```



FIGURE 'L 1 0'
Singlebody had to join :2 with : 13 .
All four bodies were happily identified.
SEE Se MALHESA LIO
EVIDEMCE
triang
ciogat
cit

\(\stackrel{3}{3}\)

The scene is a good example of a "noisy" scene, in which edges that should be straight look crooked. This is because the coordinates of each vertex are "imprecise"; the vertices have some error in their coordinates. Other scenes also show this tendency; they accurately represent the data analyzed by SEE (the scenes in their final form were drawn by program, then inked manually), and should not be considered as "sloppy drawing jobs".

SEE has several ways to cope with these imperfections:
(1) tolerant definitions of parallelism and colinearity.
(2) insensitivity of heuristics to displacements of the vertex. For instance, vertex \(V\) will inhibit the link that \(Z\) proposes, either when \(\nabla\) is of type 'Arrow' or when it is of type 'T' (but not when 'Fork'):

(3) Large variations in the coordinates of a vertex are possible before that vertex changes type. Vertex of type 'T' are an exception, changing into a Fork or an Arrow by amall displacement.




Nevertheless, it is possible to "straighten" these vertices, by following the suggestion in the comments to scene R17.

The section 'On Noisy Input' deals with these matters.


FIGURE 'R 1 0'
The scene contains "nofay" vertices; hence, some edges look bent. S环 has resourees to coge with these problems.

Figures LIO and 210 form a sereo pmir. In tigure 'LIO - R10' in page 247 , informetiot from both teenes is combined to find the position of thete object in three-dimenional space. See section Stereo Periception'.

B
SEE SE ANALYZES RIO
EVIDENCE
triang


There are several "false" vertices, formed by coindicences of edges and "genuine" vertices: the vertex common to :9, 11, 12 and 13 ; the one common to \(: 2,4,5,6\). They do not cause problem, because (1) in the case of the vertex common to \(: 9,11,12\) and 13 , it is of type 'MULTI', and no link is laid.
(2) In the case of the vertex shared by regions \(: 2,4,5\), and 6 , it is an " X " that will establish one link between : 4 and :5 (which is correct), and another between \(: 2\) and \(: 6\) (which will do no harm, since we need two "wrong" or misplaced links to cause a recognition mistake).

Compare with acene 'REWOT'.

TOWER


FIGURE 'T O W ER'
A "wrong" 1lnk is placed between : 2 and :6, without serious consequences. Results for this scene are in "RESULTS FOR TOWER'.

\section*{global}



 (816)
i) (131) 6004960040600306003711


 6 60024) (NIL) \(11815858416001560014600486004560015600131(N L L 1(1824) 11132838116004660037600476003860049\) 60040600396003711
local


 01560013 ) (18241) (182 13:1) 60046600376004760038600496004060039600371\()\)
LOCAL
\((11823381) 6004660037600476003660049600406003960037)(181585 \mathrm{B4} 5001560014600486004560025600131\) (182381

 \(1960016600226002060014600171)\)
LOCA
SMB
1BODY 1. . IS 82 as 31
1800Y 2. is is :15 if


180DY 5. 18 :10 311891
(800Y 6. 18 183 1148121
(800Y 7. is is is 22)
(800Y 6. Is 520819 121)
Nil

Scene REWOT
This scene (see figure 'REWOT') is the same as the scene TOWER (see figure 'TOWRR'), but upside down. The program obtains identical results for both scenes (see 'Results for Tower' and 'Results for Rewot'), because SER does not use information about a body supporting or leaning on another body. For instance, it was not assumed that body \(11-2-3\) is partially supporting (in figure 'TOWER') body :4-5-15; clearly this assumption fails in case of figure 'REWOT'. But since the assumption is not followed, the program succeeds in both cases (gives same results).

See table 'ASSUMPTIONS' (page 255) for suppositions that the program makes or presumptions that it does not need.

The regions :16 and :24 had to be marked as part of the background, following standard practice (cf. 'Input Format').


FIGURE 'REWOT'
This scene is the same as the scene TOWER, but with \(Y\) replaced by 100. - Y, and \(X\) replaced by 100 . - \(X\) it is upside down. SEE still finds eight bodies.

SEE 58 ANALYZES REWOT
EVIDENCE
LOGALEVIDENCE
TRIANG
global
(INIL) ((220) 60134 c0133 60132 60131) (1819) 60137 60135601346 0131) (1821) 60137601356013360132\()(1816) 60136601361\) (1822) 60138 60136) ( (1823) 6014160139) (1810) 60156 60144 60143601401 ((811) 60156 60143 60142) ((113) 60157 60147 60145) ((814) 60158 60157 G0147 60146) ((86) 60101 G0159 60151 60150 60148) ((12) 601 \(6260161601556015360152)((812) 601586014660145)((87) 60151\) \(6014960148)(18916014460142601401\) ( (20) 60159 60150 60149) ( (85) G0160 60129 60128) ((1816)) (is17) 60141 60139) (1815) 60163 60130 c0129) ((84) 60163 60160 60130 60128) ((83) 60164 60162 601 54 60153) ( (1824) ( (81) 60264c0155 60154 60152))
((NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (1820 il9 821) 60132601356013460131601376 0135 G0133 60132) (NIL) (18.10 822) 60136 60138 60136) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) (IBI3 114 B12) 6014560157601476 0150 G0146 G0143) (NIL) (1810 111 i9) 6014060156 G0143 60144 601 4260140 ) ( \((268788) 601616015060151601486015960150601491\) (NIL) ((816) ((823 817) 60139 60141 60139) (NIL) ((815 85 84) 60 \(1306012960163601606013060128)(N 1 H)(18241)(1828381) 6016\) 16015260162601536016460155 60154 601521)
LOCAL
( (NIL) (NIL) (1820 819 :21) 6013200135601346013160137601356 0133 60132) ((1818 822) 60136 6013860136) (NIL) (NIL) (NIL) ( 1813 \(8148121601456015760147601586014660145)(181081189) 6014\) 06015660143601446014260140 ) (18687 18) 60161 6015060151 60 \(148601596015060149)\left(\right.\) (2 \(\left.\left._{6} 16\right) 1(1823817) 601396014160139\right)(181\) 5 \$5 84) 6013060129601636016060130601201 (1824) (182 83 11) 60161601526016260153601646015560154 6085211
LOCAL
(1(22 \(83: 116016160152601626015360164601556015460152)\) (18 \(1585241601306012960163601606013060226)((823217) 601396\) 0141601391 ( 186878160161601506015160148601596015060149 ) ( 1810 111 89) 6014060156601436014460142601401 (1813 114 12 2) 6014560157601476015860146601451 (1818 2221601366013860 (30) (1820 219 :21) 60132601356013460131601376013560133 G01 3211
LOCAL
SMB
RESULTS
(800Y 1. 16828381 )
(BODY 2. 18 : 158584 )
(BODY 3. 18823817 )
(800Y 4. \(1 \mathrm{~S}: 8 \mathrm{sy} \mathrm{8}\) ) RESULTS FOR REWOT
(800Y5. \(18: 1081189\) )
(BODY 6. is 813 ilisiz)
isody 7. IS 818 22.
(800Y 8 . is 820 19 121)
NIL a link between \(: 23\) and \(: 4\), and another between \(: 30\) and \(: 4 . \quad\) CC does not inhibit the link between \(: 17\) and \(: 19\) ordered by the Arrow NA, because NOSABO was never called, since the first rule of 'ARROW' (page 84 ) was applied.

The only mistake was that objects :9-7-6 and :10-5 should be fused and reported as only one. There is a link between :9 and \(: 10\) put by heuristic (g) of table 'GLOBAL EVIDENCE'. It is not enough. There is also a weak link between 'Triangles' \(: 5\) and \(: 6\). OB is not a 'Leg', so there is no weak link between : 10 and 85 . The fituation is as follows (see chains of links in 'RESULTS POR WRIST*; how to read these chains is explained in page 110 , 'Explanation of the printout produced by the program'):

:10 and :5 will get joined later by SIMGLEBODY.


Almost the same thing occurs with :1-2-22-21, but in this case vertex A produces one strong link between 22 and 21 , and vertex \(R\), by heuristic (g) of table 'Global Evidence', also links 22 with 21. This is enough.



FIGURE 'WRIST*'
Instead of one, two bodies were found in :9-7-6 and :10-5 Insufficiency of links was the offending reason. A11 other objects were correctly found.


These scenes form a stereographic pair: two pictures taken from the same scene from slightly different locations, mantaining parallel the optical axes of the cameras, and the same magnification. A program, not yet completed, is designed with the following ideas: Left and right pictures are independently processed by SEE; L2 and R2 in this example. The answers are

ANALYSIS OF L2
(BODY 1. IS :2:4)
(BODY 2. IS :1 :5:3)

ANALYSIS OF R2
(BODY 1. IS \%:1 \%:2 \%:4)
(BODY 2. IS \%:3 \%:6 \%:5)

The question is now: Is body :2-:4 the same body as \%:1-\%:2-\%:4, or is it \%:3-\%:6-\%:5 ? It is required, after decomposition of the scene into bodies; to match the left bodies with the right bodies. If this is accomplished, one could then locate the figure in three dimensional space, from the two-dimensional coordinates of the figure in the left and right scenes.

In this way it will be known where these objects are located in the "real world".

This "matching" mentioned above is complicated as follows:
= \(=\) It is possible that the number of objects observed in one view is different from the number in the other.
\(=\quad\) On a given object, it is possible that SEE will make a mistake in the left view, but not in the right view; as a consequence, two bodies on the left have to be matched with one on the right. If the two axes of the camera are on an horizontal plane, a vertex in the left scene and its corresponding vertex in the right scene (if visible) will have the same \(y\)-coordinate, such as \(H\) in \(L 2\) and \%I in R2. Other known relations exist, derived from the relative position of the axes of the camera, magnification, etc. See section 'Stereo Perception'.


FIGURE "R 2"
Two bricks are found.
\(R 2\) SEE 5E ANALYZES
EVIDENCE
LOCALEVIDENCE
TRIANE
GLOBAL
(INIL)


(ACAL 20260012600156001460011600166001560013600121 ( \(1 \times 13 \times 16 \times 854000460009600056001060000600076000\)

\(x 241\)
\(\times 851\)
No
ジ
\(\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}\)
LTS
\(Y\)
1
1.
2. OCA

\section*{RESULTS FOR R2}
1800Y 2.
N 16

L 2


FIGURE 'L 2'
Even if (possibly) a face of object :4-2 is missing, in this case SEE makes the correct identification. Section 'On Noisy Input' deals with imperfect information.




Scene L19 The small triangle :15 just could not get joined with the remainder of the body :16-20-19, and two objects were found. There is a weak link between : 15 and \(: 19\), but it did not help since there is no link between \(: 15\) and \(: 16\). What happens is that regions \(: 1,: 15,: 13\) and \(: 22\) all meet forming a vertex of type MULTI; this vertex should (in some future version of SEE) be split into two, sin ce both :1 and :37 are the background- The rule for this splitting seems to be

:11 was joined with : 4 , but isolated from :12-27-5. There are no T-joints between these two nuclei that could give 'hints' (1.e., links) for their unification.

The two large concave objects were properly isolated.
Compare with RI9 and WRIST*.
See 'Merged vertices', page 221 in section 'On noisy input.'


FIGURE 'L 1 9'
It was easy to find :6-7-8-9, the hexagonal prism. : 15 was reported as a single object: a mistake. The two big concave objects were appropiately identified.



 \((131\)










Scene R19 As in L19, here the triangle :27 is detached from :5-32-33, two bodies being reported. There is no strong link between \(: 27\) and :33. There is a weak link between :27 and :5, because both are 'triangles' facing each other, but that is not enough. A weak link is never enough.

All other bodies are properly found, fncluding :10-16-2-3.
Vertex RA, of course, contributes with no links. The situation could change if we discover that RA is a false vertex, SUGGESTION that is, one composed by the merge of two genuine ones. There is enough enformation, I think, since 834 and 337 are beckgound, and this will suggest a way to "divide" vertex RA into two simpler ones. This idea of dividing vertices of type MULTI into simpler ones should be applied with caution, since there will be genuine vertex of type MULTI (which should not be split). The main use of this technique will be for helping single regions to join some other body, a task performed now, not too satisfactorially, by SMB.

Compare with L19 and WRIST*. See 'merged vertices', page 221.


FIGuRe ' 19 '
827 wat expntated stop, \(33-37-5\) ate acher objecte were correctiy foutha.
SEE 56 ANALTZES R19




Scene CORN The pyramid : 8-9-10 was easily identified because a vertex of type PEAK produces many links. In the bottom, bodies :1-2-3-4 and :12-13-11 were separated, because the fork between :4 and :12 has the background as a region, and did not contribute with any links. Certainly, this is a pssible interpretation. Another interpretation is to regard the object :1-2-3-4-11-12-13 as a prism with the shape of a "C".

SINGLEBODY was needed to join \(: 4\) with \(: 2-3-1\), the only link being placed by heuristic (g) of table 'GLOBAL EVIDENCE.'

The program knows that :22 is the background.
If we could see the hidden vertex KK (if it indeed exists), two links would be put and we will have had one body:


see so analyzes corn
EVIDENCE
LOCALEVIDENCE
TRIANG







 021600201 l1s2211 (112 1311160027.6004060016600156004960010600176001011


 600276002660024600276002511
LOCAL



\footnotetext{
Scene L9
Here the tolerances SINTO and COLTO that allow for
"sloppy parallelism" have made T's out of NA and PA. Therefore,
these vertices do not contribute any links for :1. Moreover, the
"T" PA inhibits the link suggested by \(Q A\) between : 11 and \(: 8\).
That being all, \(: 1\) gets reported as a single body (see next page).
By decreasing the tolerances, correct identification is possible
(see the correct identification in page \(155^{\circ}\) ).
See 'Tolerances in collinearity and parallelism', page 215 .
}



FIGURE 'L 9''
Four bodies are identified. Body :1-8-9-7-5-6 gives some problems.
 \(36002260020600171(1818160030600206042360022600216001860018600151(1815) 600316002960016600141\) (1814)6002 \(7600131(124) 60031600306002960020)(1211) 6003560033600326002760025)(1810) 600366003560034600331(12121600\) 36600346003260026 G0025) (1816) 60024) (180) \(60039600361(115) 6004460043600406003960038600371(1891600446004\) 260037 60012) (if7) 600436004260040 (1817) 60045 60041) (isj) 60045 60041 60024) (is2111)
 512820110 : 416002960014600196002060017600236002260021600186001660015600316003060029600281 (NIL) (NIL)
 716004360030600386004460037600126004360042600401 (NIL) (1817613) 60041 60045 60041 60024) (1821111
 60014600196002060917600236002260021600186001660015600316003060029600281 (N/L) 16111 \$10 812160032600276
 \(004360042600401(1817\) 213) 60041600456004160024\()(1321)\)

\section*{OCAL}
(LOCAL ASSUMES (83) (Ex4) SAME BODY)

 \(456004160024)(18211)\)
 0156002960014600196002060017600236002260021600186001660015600316003060029600281 (is14 331112103121600 \(266001360027600356003360036600346003260026600251(1816) 600241(1817813) 60041600456004160024)(1821111\) LOCAL
(SINELEBODY ASSUMES \(1: 17\) E131 18161 SAME RODY)
 \(2660025)(18198158212031824160015600296001460019600206001760023600226002160018600106001560031600306\) \(0029600201(196: 520: 788160039600366004460037600436004260040600121\) (181111)
LOCAL
SMB
(THE FIRST 1. BODIES ARE (III))

(BODY 3. is sid 83.311810 i22)
(BODY \& : is \(119815: 28120\) il8 841
(BODY 5. is 16 25 19 if 18 )
NIL
Smaller values for SInco and
produce correct answers for \(L\),
compare with previous page.

I














 LOCAL


Scenes R9 and R9T Four bodies are found inR9, five in R9T, The difference is that \(Y\) and JA (see figure at bottom of this page) are not 'matching T's"in R9T. The strong links among :12, :3, :10, and :16 are:


LINKS FOR R 9


LINKS FOR R 9 T

In R9, the two strong links (G0030 and GOO21) between : 12 and :10 were put by the matching T's Z-EA and Y-JA; of the two strong links between :10 and :16, one was because DA is an arrow; the other, because EA is a " T " for which heuristic (g) of table 'GLOBAL EVIDENCE' applies.

But in scene R9T, not having \(Y\) and JA as matching \(T^{\prime} s\), a link between :10 and :12 dis appears; and also nuclei :16 and :10 can not be linked by heuristic (g) of table 'GLOBAL EVIDENCE'. SEE decides to report two bodies there: : 3-12 and :16-10 instead of one as in scene R9.


These scenes show that the analyses can be quite sensitive to the "right" definition of parallelism and colinearity.

\section*{SEE 38 ANALYZES Rg}

Evidence
cocaleyjeence
triang


 \(6003560033)(1 \times 16) 6003860037)(1 \times 118) 60037)(1 \times 15) 6003560034) 1(x 111) 6004460042600416003916(x 21) 6004360042\) \(60038)(1 \times 812) 600456003060021)((x 33) 60046600291(1 \times 12) 6004660044600436004060039)(1 \times 84) 600466004160040)(1\) Ki2111)
 \(60014600126002060023600226002760026600256003260024600176(1013)(N 1 L)(N 1 L)(1 \times 26) 60038600371\) (18218)60037) \((1219 x: 14 x 25) 60030600336003560034)(N I L)(N I L)(N L L)(1 \times 210 x 210 x 212 x: 3) 600316002860030600216004560029)(1)\)

LOCAL

 6002260027600266002560032600246001760013 ) (NJL) (1xid Xill \(\times 12 \times 24 \times 8616004260044600436003060046600416004\)
 2160045600291 (NIL) ( 6 (X21) 11
LoCAL


 0016600106001560014600126002060023500226002760026600256003260024600176001311
local
SME
RESULTS
(BoDY 1. is xilo x:16 xil2 x:3)
feogy 2. is \(x: 9 x: 14 \quad x: 51\)
(eooy 3. is xis xisi x:2 x\&4 x: \(x \times 28\) )
RESULTS FOR R

NBL

\section*{月 8}


FIGURE 'R 9'
The four bodies were found.
SINGLEBODIES was needed to join :18
with :6-11-1-4-2.


FIGURE \({ }^{\prime}\) R 9 T'
SINGLEBODIES Joins \(: 18\) with the other portion of that body; Lecal is needed to join \(: 6\) to that portion, and 316 with : 10 .
Neverthelese, since \(: 12\) and \(: 10\) were not found to be the same face, body: :16-10 is found, and Body :12-3.
SEE 58 ANALYZES R9T
TRJANG
GLOBAL






 06360042600386004560040600396003760036
\(44600291(1 x 33) 6004460028)(N 1 L)(1 \times 21)\)


 LOCAL
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { SMB } \\
\text { SMB } \\
\text { SH }
\end{array} \\
& \text { (SME ASSUMES X:S Xid2 SAME BOJY) } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { RESULT } \\
\text { reODY } \\
\text { BOOUY }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
\]
Scene TRIAL This scene has been analyzed in great detail in thesection that describes the program SEE. Its links are found ingraphic form in figure 'TRIAL - LINKS', or in written form (lists)in "RESULTS FOR TRIAL".LOCAL had to join : 13 with the remainder of that body
thial


\section*{SEE SE}

LOCALEVIDENCE
TRJANG
GLOBAL
((N1L) (1811) 60014 60013 60011 60010) (1:12) 60015 6001460013600121 (1813)60021) ((89)6002260021600206001960017 -00161 ( (810) \(60015 G 00126901160010)(18316003460025600241(1841600336003260025600256002 J)(180) 6003160030\)
 \(035 G 00316002960028)\) (1:14)) (181) 6003b 60030 60620 60v27)



local



 31600296003560030600206002711

C0u11 6001 6001460013600156001260011600101

OCAL
SME
RESULTS
(30मY 1. is 16 : 22 :1)
Boby 2. Is :11 :12:
ruour 3. is za is is ifis \(18: 813\) )
WIL displayed in 'RESULTS FOR ARCH'. This is an scene composed of many degenerate views of objects. It is an ambiguous scene (see section on Optical Illusions), in that several good interpretations are possible.

The program reports :7 and :17 as one body, which could be plau sible. :16, :9 and :10 get reported as independent objects. In the scene from where this picture or line drawing was taken, :7, :17 and : 16 were the vertical face of an object. : 10 was the vertical face of another, : 9 being its horizontal (top) face. In cases like this, in order to choose the "right" one of several possible interpretations, more information has to be supplied to the program, such as lighting, textures, color, etc.

No link was put by \(A\) between : 3 and \(: 29\), or by UB between :5 and :19, because D and W are GOODTs. In one case, \(G\) provides with more links and causes :3-8-29-31 to be reported as one body, which is correct; in the other case, \(Q\) can not supply any links, and that body is split in two: :5-4 and :19-18. This is a mistake of GOODT, who accepts \(W\) as a genuine \(T\). If this were not the case, the arrow UB would establish a link between :5 and :19, avoiding the mistake. GOODT could stand some improvement.

The body : 22-23 was identified correctly.


Ambiguous scene that could be correctly interpreted in several different manners. :7-17 was reported as a single body (see table 'RESULTS FOR ARCH'), and also :9.

The body :5-4-19-18 was split in two: :5-4 and :19-18, but not :3-8-29-31, which was counted as one body.

SEE 58 ANALYZES ARCH
EviUENCE
localevidence
TRIANG
cloyal
\((1 N / 6)(183) 60022)(18816002560023600221(1831) 60029600256002460023)(1(44) 60032)(1826) 60038600376003560034\)



 (NIL) (183) 60022 (NIL) (NIL) (I24) 600321 (NIL) (NIL) (826 124 25)
\(((823, G 0040)(1217) 60033)(N I L)(N / L)(1111))(1836) /(1813812425) 6003760039600356003460039600386003760030)\)



LOCAL
(LOCAL ASSUMES (8io) (:10) SAME BODY)
(LUCAL ASSUMES (83) 1:8 1J1 329) SAME bJUY)
 \(00396003460037600361(1823) 600401(1817) 600331(N 1 L 11(8111) 111301 / 11813812814160042600106004460042600466\)
 C0053 GOU51 GOU28 G0026) (NIL) (I35) (NILI)
LOCAL
(SINGLEEUUY A5SUMES (:2J) 1822) SAME GUUY)
(SINGLEGOLY ASSUMES \((8: 77187\) ) SAME GODY)
(SINGLEJOLY SSUMES (E4) (15) SAME BOUY)
 NIL) \(11533: 34.23216003060050600476004960448600301(1810) 1(18151)(1816) 1(1891)(1813812814) 600426004660044\)
 LOCAL
SME
RESULTS

coour 10. is \(82: 18: 30\) )
(equy 11.15816 is 191
suour 12. Is :3s 334 2321
tyodr 13. is \(813: 12: 14\)
laopy 14. is 817 :71

(sour 17 . is is is

NiL

Scene HARD
This scene consists of objects of the same shape, namely triangular prisms. All are correctly identified, including the long and twice occluded :3-21-22-23-24-28-29. :1-2-33 was also found. LOGAL had to be used to join \(: 15\) with \(: 16\), and also \(: 11\) with \(: 12\).

In an older version of the program, 77 was identified as a single body, and :6 as another, because they have no visible "useful" vertices to place links \{Guqmán PISA 68\}. NOW SEE joins ;6and :7, because both are "GOODPALs". See "Operation of the Program; SMB" (page 99).

These scenes are sometime obtained from a picture, so that they are the result of a perspective transformation. Some other scenes are drawn more or less in an orthogonal or isometric projection. SEE does not depend heavily in the type of projection; there are only a few heuristics that use notions of parallelism.

\section*{HARD}


FIGURE 'HARD'
All the bodies were correctly found.
The most difficult was :6-7, since SMB
had to join both regions, which do not have "useful" visible vertices.
```

SEE 58 ANALYZES HARD
EVIDENCE
OCALEVIDENCE
TRlaNG

```

```

0044 60043 G0042) ((1,17) 60047 c0046 60045 60044) (1871) (1822) 60049 60041 60040 60029 60026 60025) (183) 60050 60049 6
0041600391 (1821) 60050 60040 60039 60020 60028 60027) (181) 60052 60051) ((82) 60052 60051 60018 600171 (1825) 60053 6
0035 60036 600191 (1126) 60054 60053 60037 60036) (1827) 60054 60034 60037 600191 (1228) 60055 60024 60022 60015) ((129)

```


```

19) 60064 60003 -0062 60061) (1820) 60064 60062 60060 60014) ((80)60065 60032 60030) (f88) 60065 60059 60031 60030) (1
```




```

\prime(NIL) (185 44) G0048 60058 60048) (N1L) (1413 817 1141.G004N 60047 G0046 60044 60047 60045 60043 60042) (N1L) (NIL) (1

```

```

cocal
LOCAL ASSUMES (811) (E12) SMME BODY)
HOCAL ASSUMES (EIS) (\#16) SAME BODY)

```



```

4J 60047 50046 60044 60047 60045 60043 60042) (N1L) (1818 119 5201 60060 60064 60000360061 60064 60062 60080 60014) (120

```


```

LOCML

```




```

15; (1125 126 127) 60019 60053 60036 60054 60036 60037 60019) (1571) (126)|)
cecal
gmeac
\&SME AssunEs i7 16 gAME EODY,
menty
ceogr 1. 16 812 811
tmogr 2. is is lisi
yeor 3. is 132 831 8301
(80gY 4. is ig sio 80)
coody 5. Is ile :10 :20)
Mooor 6- is is isel
lsogr 7. is is sat
(800Y B. IE IL s2 ह33)
(000Y 9: 18 s24 822 53. 123 121 828 820)
(EODY 10. 13.125 \$26 1271
NIL

```
```

Scene L4 The body :10-9 was reported isolated from :13-2-3,
due to insufficiency of links. See comments to figure R17, also.
The algorithm that localizes matching T's could stand improvement.
It sometimes produces "bad links" such as between :4 and :13, and
between :6 and :3, because it found two T's that looked like they
were matching (this mistake diu not happen, actually, because vertex
R is not a T, but a fork!), EA and R in this case. The suggestion
in page 173 will lessen, but not suppress, these "mistakes".

```


\section*{SEE 58 ANALYZES LS}

\section*{EVIDENCE}
localevidence
TRIANG
 \(2600196001760012)(189) 60023)(11716002560024600156001460011)(186) 600276002660024600226001960018600166\)
 003060028 c00101 (isial))
 0226001760012600156001460011600266002460022600196001060016600156002760026 -0025) (iP10) E0023) (NIL) (NIL 1684 \(25861600286003260031600296003260030600286002011(814111\)

\section*{LOCAL}
(LOCAL ASSUMES \((19)\) ( 210 ) SAME BODY)
 \(260015600146001160026600246002260019600186001660015600276002660025)(N 14)(N 1 L)(184151666002860032600\) 3160029600326003060028 60010) ((114))
LOCAL
(SINGLE日ODY ASSUMES \(\{: 13\) :3। (i2) SAME BODY)



LOGAL
LOGB
RESULTS
(BODY 1. \(15: 158181\)
l日ODY 2. is 11212 if 18 ill
1800Y 3. is 110301
(800Y 4. 13 :13 23 zi
NIG

Scene R4 The table 'RESULTS FOR R4' shows what happens when the tolerances are too large. Five bodies are found. Vertex B is considered to be a " T ", and inhibits the links suggested by the Arrows \(R\) and \(A\). As a result, \(: 1\) gets cut off :7-9-5-10.

The way : 2 gets isolated is as follows: \(T\) and \(A A\) claim to be matching T's, the 11 nk suggested by \(U\) is inhibited by \(Z\) (a Corner), and \(: 2\) gets disconnected from :3-4.

The correct solution is obtained after reducing the values of COLTO and SINTO to 0.05 and 0.005 (see listings; COLTO decides if two lines are collinear, SINTO if they are parallel), respectively. The results appear also in 'RESULTS FOR R4', and we can see now that only three bodies (the correct ones) are identified.

Suggestion Lines like the one below should be SUGGESTION "straightened" either by SEE or (better) by the preprocessor; for example, BKLN and DGHO in figure R17. See section 'On Noisy Input'.


Conservatism and Tolerance More strict tolerances do not make the program more conservative in all cases: the link in (a) fails to be placed if the program has too loose (large) tolerances, because A will be transformed into a "T" (it will be considered to be a "T"), losing the link; the link in (b) fails to be laid if the tolerances are too strict, because the T -joints will not be collinear.


In (a), links disappear if tolerances are too big; in (b), if they are too small. In both cases, conservative behavior (cf. page 212) appears.


FIGunR : 9 吾 \(4^{\prime}\)
 certain paxamatera. These sceaes are "noley in the went chat the coordinates of the vartices dapart troin eheir finai" position by as meh in ont tilifpeter, or about \(1 \%\) of the teotal size of the liage, faich is boft one decimeter. This ertwit not large
 direction of shortimeguents.




)
淮it

\section*{ที you sunnsax}








Scene MOMO The long body :29-30-34-20-19 gets identified as follows: 129 and \(: 30\) get two links, and \(: 30\) with : 19 also, so we have the nucleus :29-30-19. Two links (because of matching T's) join :34 with 120, to form nucleus :34-20. Regions : 30 and \(: 34\) receive a strong link, by heuristic (g) of table 'GLOwAL EVIDENSCE', and :19 with :20 by the same reason. That completes the body.

The fork that is common to :12, 13 and 14 puts a link between : 12 and : 13, but it is not enough to cause mis-recognition. A link is put by that same Fork between \(: 13\) and \(: 14\), as it should be, but the link between : 12 and : 14 is inhibited by MOSABO.

There is a program that finds regions of a scene belonging to the background, when not indicated as such in the input. For MOMO, the results of this program appear in page 231.

\section*{MOMO}


FIGURE 'MOMO'
All bodies are correctly identified.
SEE se amalyzes momo
EVIJENCE









RESULTS FOR MOMO


Region :10 gets a strong and a weak link with \(: 4\), and that is enough to join them. The same is true for :7.

The links of scene BRIDGE (see 'RESULTS FOR BRIDGE') are discussed and displayed in pages 95-98, figures 'LINKS-BRIDGE' (page 95), 'NUCLEI-BRIDGE' (page 96 ), 'NEW-NUCLEI-BRIDGE' (page 97), and 'FINALBRIDGE' (page 98).

Because RA and \(S A\) are matching \(T\) 's, two wrong links are placed: one between :22 and :28, and the other between : 21 and :29. This is not enough to cause an error, because we need two mistakes (two reinforcing each other), two wrong strong links, to fool the program. But that could happen.

It is interesting to note the way in which the long "horizontal table" 125-24-21-27-9-12 was put together. To this effect, see figures 'LINKS-BRIDGE' and 'NUCLEI-BRIDGE'.

Vertex JB produces only one link between \(: 5\) and \(: 8\). Vertex \(K B\) in hibits the link (through NOSABO) between ; 8 and :9, and the link between \(: 5\) and \(: 9\) gets inhibited by \(S\), because it is a \(T\) (cf. NOSABO, page 82).

The concave object :7-6-5-4-8-10-11 gets properly identified. We may say that, in general, the more "crooked" or complicated an object is, the easier will be for SEE to isolate it, because there will be many vertices contributing with valuable links.

No mistake was made by SEE on BRIDGE; its eight bodies were com rrectly identified (see 'RESULTS FOR BRIDGE', page 18/).

The background of 'BRIDGE' was also correctly isolated; see that in page 230, section 'On background discrimination by computer'.


FIGURE 'BRIDGE'
SEE SE ANALYZES ERIDGE EVIDENCE
LOCALEVIDENGE
TRIANE
Thiang
ClOgal

 1) 6005160030 ( \(80029600141(1822) 60952600346003360031)(1526) 60053600526003460321(1823) 600536003360032)(1)\)


 0037460026 6003s 11

\section*{(LOCAL Assumes (810) (119) same HODY)}






 LOCAL

\section*{DISCUSSION}

We have described a program that analyzes a three-dimensional scene (presented in the form of a line drawing) and splits it into "objects" on the basis of pure form. If we consider a soane as a set of regions (surfaces), then SEE partitions the set into appropriate subsets, each subset forming a three-dimensional body or object.

The performance of SEE shows to us thet it is possible to separate a scene into the objects forming it, without noeding to know in detail these objecta; SEE does not need to know the 'definitions' or descriptions of a pyramid, or a pentagonal prism, in order to isolate theme objects in a scene containing them, even in the case where they are partially occluded.

The basic idea behind SEE is to make global use of information collected loeally at each vertex: this information is noisy and SEE has ways to combine many different kinds of unreliable evidence to make fairly reliable global judgments.

The essentials are:
(1) Reprosentation as vertices (with coordinates), lines and regions
(2) Typen of vertices.
(3) Concepts of links (strong and weak), nuclei and rules for forming them.

The current veraion of SEE is rentricted to scenes presented in aymbolic form.
Since SEE requires two strong evidencen to join two nuclei, it appears that ite judgmente will lie in the 'safe' side, that is, SEE will almost never join two rogions that belong to differeat bodies. From the analyuis of scenes shown above, its errors are almost always of the same type: regions that should be joined are left separated. We could say that SEE behaves "conservatively," especially in the presence of ambiguitios.

Divisions of the evidence into two types, strong and weak, resulta in a good compromise. The weak evidence is considered to favor linking the regione, but this evidence is used only to reinforce evidence from more reliable alues. Indeed, the weak links that give extra weight to nearly parallel lines are a concestion to ob-ject-reoognition, in the sense of letting the analysis aystem exploit the fact that reotangular objects are common enough in the real world to warrant special attention.

Most of the ideas in SEE will work on curves too.

How to extend SEE to work with objects possessing curved surfaces.

Introduction and Summary
Most of the heuristics that establish links at each vertex are unconcerned if the edges are curved or straight; a few heuristics get affected: those that use the concepts of collinearity and parallelism.

Thus, it is necessary to redefine and broaden these concepts.
1. A slight generalization is obtained if each segment is represented as having two slopes (initial and final). The functions PARALIEL and COLIEEAR of SEE are already modified for this (cf. listings).


SEEX does not care if the line joining two vertices is a straight or curved line. The information about the segment \(A-B\) that is relevant to SEE is:
(a) There is a line between vertex \(A\) and vertex \(B\).
(b) The coordinates of \(A\) and \(B\).
(c) The segment \(A-B\) separates region 11 from \(: 2\).
2. Attempts to take limited account of the shape of the segment carry us to
(a) gently bent segments (definition) are those with bounded slope [Bounded curvature will lead to another definition].

A quasi-rectilinear object has faces, vertices and gently bent edges or segments; it is expected that SER will work well for them. We should try some scenes. SUGGESTION

a, b: gently bent segments. c: non-gently bent segment. A gently bent segment has a slope that at any point of the segment does not differ more than epsilon from the mean slope of the segment. All slopes fall in an interval around the mean slope. Gently bent segments form quasi-rectilinear objects.


Quasi-rectilinear objects. It is expected that SEE will work well for them.
(b) partition of a non-gently bent segment into several gently
bent. Many of the bodies have vertices and curved edges, but the bodies are not quasi-rectilinear (a plece of chewed gum, leaves of a tree). By breaking the edges into gently bent sub-segments, they become quasi-rectilinear bodies. The breaks will occur in points where the curvature is large. There has to be devised away to break a segment in a unique manner. To avoid breaking a body into two by the introduction of these artificial vertices, we propose to introduce also artificial links between regions, to account for the artificial vertex.


The non-gently bent segment \(a b\) gets broken into gently bent segments ak, kl, lm, mb, by the artificial introduction of "new" vertices \(k, 1, m\).

Here, the introduction of additional vertices has to be accompanied by 'artificial' or reinforcing links, to preserve the individua-
 1ity of the body (of the owner of such vertices).
3. More complete consideration of the shape of the segments is obtained as follows:
(a) For parallelism, by requiring that two segments be parallel only if one is a translation of the other. Generally, this is a comparison that takes a time proportional to the length of the segment. Chain encoding \{Freeman\} \{Conrad\} is suggested.
(b) For colinearity, by discovering properties or features that "carry through" or are common. Among these are:
1. Mathematical "regularity" of the segments. Both segments are described by the same or similar polynomials, etc.
2. Heuristic properties: there must exist properties which will select with high probability the "right" continuation.
3. Outside of the set of geometric properties, we have color, texture, etc.
a



The same line dissappears at \(b\) and appears at \(c\), making \(b\) and \(c\) "matching Ts", but to discover this fact it is necessary to have a concept of "good continuation" or "good contour \({ }^{\prime \prime}\).

Alternatively, we may forget these properties here and include
them into models of our curved objects, but then we are forced to make searchs in our scene like those made by DI or TD \{my M.S. Thesis\}.


Fig. 'S U I TCASES'
Heuristic properties of segments (yet to be determined) could select a "correct" match for endings \(a, b, \ldots, k, 1\).
4. Bodies with no edges and vertices are in principle easily identified by SEE. See fig. 'FRUIT'.


The bodies have no curved edges, and no vertices. The entire surface is smooth; no sharp edges or pointy corners. Examples: an inflated balloon, a frankfurt, a face, a cloud.

It is doubtful that we could do something here with SEE. We could try to postulate "artificial"vertices, using stereo perhaps, at the points where the 3 -dim curvature is lerge, and then postulate lines between such vertices. This looke bad.

Or we could reason as follows: since these objects do not have vertices or edges, then the only vertices apparing in the scene must separate two bodies. They will be mainly T -joints. (cf also page 46)

In principle, separation into bodies looks promising, but recognition (the answer to "what is the narae of this object?") seems difficult. Nevertheless, it is not clear that with such a simple set of heuristics we could work successfully with objects as complicated as a human face, a blob of falling water, an amoeba, the surface of the sea (?).

At some point, we have to know what we want
As the complezity
increases, the concept of "body" depends leas and less in geometrical
properties (disposition of edges, vertices, ....) and more and more
on purpose (In a skeleton an object? Or perhaps the femur bone alone?
The answer varies with our intention - with the context).
Thus, models are necessary gain.
See also 'Do not use over-specialized assumptions. . .', page 252.

This appendix may be omitted in a first reading.
Requirements for the preprocessor
to SER has to find only:
to preprocessor that feeds data
1. The Iines of the scene.
2. The vertices.
3. The local slopes at each vertex.
4. See also comments to figure R17.
5. Illegal scenes (page \(2(7)\) should be detected by the preprocessor.

How bad will curved objects be
In objects
where the curves edges are gently bent, SEE will work fairly well. The more an edge departs from its rectilinear equivalent, the worse SER will work; T-joints will be difficult to find, a FORK may transform into a 'T', etc. (I an talking about the current SEE, described in the Ifstings).


Additional information could be used So far, we are trying to identify objects on the basis of form alone, i. e., geometrical considerations. This is asking a machine to do more than a human being does. Ambiguous line drawings, such as ARCH, become inambiguous when we introduce shading, lighting, texture, color, etc. All of these properties could be used by SEE. In fact, consider how easy it would be to identify bodies if each one of them is of different color (and we could sense that fact).

Psychological evidence Knowledge of the algorithms used by human beings for shape continuation (page 188 ) is relevant. Wë quote from Krech and Crutchfield \{1958\}:

Grouping by Good Form. Other things being equal, stimuli that form a good figure will bave a tendency to be grouped. This is a very general formulation intended to cmbrace a number of more specific variants of the theme, traditionally classified as follows.
1. Good continuation. The tendency for elements to go with others in such a way as to permit the continuation of a line, or a curve, or a movement, in the direction that has already been established (see Fig. 37c).
2. Symmetry. The favoring of that grouping which will lead to symmetrical or balanced wholes as against asymmetrical ones.
3. Closure. The grouping of elements in
such a way as to make for a more closed or more complete whole figure.
4. Common fate. The favoring of the grouping of those elements that move or change in a common direction, as distinguished from those having other directions of movement or change in the field.

It seems plausible to consider that the percepts resulting from all of the above determinants would be such as to meet the criterion of a good figure, that is, one that tends to be more continuous, more symmetrical, more closed, more unified.
Now the reader will see that a difficulty with this general proposition regarding grouping centers on the crucial phrase "good figure." How can we know which


c

FIG. 37. Examples of grouping. In \(a\), the dots are perceived in vertical columns, owing to their greater spatial proximity in the vertical than in the horizontal direction. In \(b\), with proximity equal, the rows are perceived as horizontal, owing to grouping by similarity. In \(c\), the principle of good continuation results in
seeing the upper figure as made up of the two parts shown to the left below, even though logically it might just as well be composed of the two parts shown to the right below, or indeed of any number of other combinations of two or more parts. (Adapred from Wertheimer, 1923.)

Box 21
How to Meacure "Goodines"

Attneave has made an ingenious experimertal attack on the problem of measuring the "goodness" of a figure. The mbject is given a sheot of graph paper composed of 4,000 tiny squares ( 50 nows by 80 columas). Hie task is to guers whether the color of each succemive square is black, white, or geny. The experimenter has in mind whar the compleced figare will look like (fig. a).


Whanoct knowing whet the completed figure will be, the subject searts by guessing the square is the lower left corner. When he has correctiy identified the color, he moves on to greas the nexr square to the righte. He contimpes this process to the end of the row and chea scarrs on the left and of the nemer row above. In this minner he secounively sperses exch of the 4000 squares.

On the average, Attreave's subjects made only 15 to 20 wrong genatig for the entire figure. How was this pamithe? The answer is that the figure was deliburately dexigned so that koowledge of purte of the figure wes suricimet to entble the equbject to make fainty vild predictions about the remainder of the figure. This was accomplished by making the white tuares contiguous with one suother, and similarly the black and the gray equares, Moreover, the con-
tours separating the white, black, and gray areas are simple and regular. Where the figure expers it tepors in a regular way. And it has symmetry; after exploning one side, it is esery to prediot the otier side. Thus, the onbject having diecovered that the first few squaree are white continues to guess white, and he is eofreter natil he hirs the gray contour at the poch colaman. After one or two errors, he then comainaes to guess gray. On the next row sbove, he tends to repeat the pattern of the first.
All thase fectors of compectness, symmetry, good contimuntion, etc., are spects of what is inglied by a "geod afgare" Thus an objective messure of the "Groodness" of a figure is deth which the subject can predict ifs rotal form from minimal information about a part.
Other figures and be stiminely tested. For exmaple, figare would preve to be a less "good" figre beanace the mamber of errors in gocming would be largens.
Atruenve's particular method will not, of coverse, spply to tille thats of fyures or all kinds of parceppinal orgeniterioos. But it doer demponante thet thent te ways in whith "geodueti" cea be objactively determined.


Anpievt F. 1954 somo ufiermational appects of vinal Prevition. Faychol. Ruv., if, \(113-93\).
configuration of stimuli in "botter" than another?
To excupe from this dificulty, we need to have independent cricoria of what is a good figure. Some approach can be made to this; for instance, in the case of "symmetry" there are objective rules we can apply to determine the relative symmetry of various figures. The same is true of simple cases of "closure." (See Box 21 for a relevant experiment.)

But we are far from being able to state such erieeria when we deal with the highly complex configurations of our normal petcepeual experience. Part of the difficulty stems from the fact of individual differences among percoivers. One man's mess may be another man's order. And this may reflect the important role of learning and past experience in the genesis of "good figure."



Given the nature of SEE, we will restrict the meaning of 'optical illusion \({ }^{\text {l }}\) to illusions formed by eolide, that is, ambiguities or inconsistencies when we (or the progran SEE) try to find 3-dim bodies in a scene; thus, the Miller-Lyer illusion ("A" in the topmost figure) is not considered.

\section*{Three kinds of illusions}

According to this, we mey elementarily
classify the "scenes that are unlikely zooscur" (that is, those that are not "standard" or "normal") in throtypes:
\(=\) Possible but no "good" interpretation.
= Ambiguoua -- several good interpreticions.
\(=\) Imposstbles without interpretation.
Like POLYBRICK \{Gument, SER is not eopecificuliy designed to handle optical illusiont. It mas primerity deeigned to analyze "real world" scenes; hence, an input scene that produces an illusion (in a human) is not likely to occur as input to SEE. Nevertheless, in the same way that we may overtest a program for square roots by asking for the square root of 'APPLE', \(\sqrt{\omega}\), we may test SEE with some ambiguous scenes. Let us see what happens.






ACTUAL IMPOSSIBLE TRIANGLE was constructed by the author and his colleagues. The only requirement is that it be viewed with one cye (or photographed) from exactly the right position. The top photograph shows that two arms do not actually meet. When viewed in a certain way (bottom), they seem to come together and the illusion is complete.
(From Gregory) .

One of the strong rules used by humans is that objects whose pictures show straight lines have indeed straight edges; another strong rule is to assume the corners to be like the corners of a cube (faces meeting at right angles) ( 8 . Under these rules, the above triangle does not make sense and people will classify it as an "impossible" object ('VARIANT"will be an "impossible" object; Penrose's Triangle will be " 3 sticks forming an impossible configuration or acene; "mounted in a funny way"; can not be seen as representing a single object lying in space). For instance, Gregory \{Scientific American] tries to explain that the triangle has a real 3-dim object as originator, by constructing a body consiating of three rectangular parallelepipeds ("bricks") joined at right angles, and then taking a picture from a special direction, so that the free ende and \(b\) seem to touch:



Fig. 'VARIANT'

These rules (faces meet at right angles; straight lines mean straight edges) are deeply ingrained into people, but nature does not need to follow them always. The Penrose Triangle can be obtained by photographing a 3-dim triangle with curved edges and skewed corners, where each side touches the other two.

SEE finds three objects in figure 'Penrose Triangle.' Other examples follow.


Figure 'BLACR'
People assume that faces meet at right angles, and this object violates that rule, making it
"impossible" or odd-looking.

It is possible to construct object 'BLACK' with planar faces. See figure 'TEST OBJECTS' page 209. SEE finds one body in 'BLACK'.

The object at right looks impossible if we assume all faces to be flat. If face aeb is curved, object is plausible \(R\) is its reflection on mirror \(M\), and \(Q\) a smoother version of R. \(Q\) looks "normal"; by deforming \(Q\) we could obtain \(R\).

Unlike humans, SEE does not
 hold these "very common rules" as inviolable; SEE does not have any special problems with these "strange but true" objects.


A misleading suggestion of superiority should not be concluded from these rare cases; in other situations SEE makes mistakes that a human being does not (see figure 'SPREAD').


Of course, SEE holds its own rules (for example, those of table 'Global Evidence') as inviolable; hence, given a "rare enough scene" it will make mistakes (cf. assertion in page 51 , after the Theorem). This is a similarity of behavior, I think, between people and SEE -- each one follows rather rigidly a small set of rules.
(see also conclusion at end of section).
Besides, often humans will see the 'impossible' object as an object, doing SEE's job just as well.


The "always descending staircase." \{Gregory, in \{Foss\}] The caption is wrong, this object could be constructed in real world, If some surfaces are curved and/or the faces at the corners do not meet at right angles. Example of an object 'possible but without 'good' interpretation." See also Metatheorem on page 39. Again, the "impossibility' or oddness of 'STAIRCASE' comes from assuming the rules 'straight lines in the drawing correspond to straight edges in 3-dim' and 'faces meet at right angles, like corners of a cube' inviolable.

AMBIGUOUS - TWO GOOD INTERPRETATIONS
These are scenes that can be interpreted in several correct (non-paradoxical) manners, which are also "sensible" (as opposed to the Trivial Solution of page 41). For instance, an scene like

that can be interpreted as

(A)
or as


SEE will generally give one of the possible answers, although not necessarily the one preferred by humans. In this example, SEE chose (B).

The following scene, locally ambiguous, is correctly parsed by our program.


Sometimes, the conservatism of SEE and its partial insufficiency to make very global judgements will leave a body unconnected; for instance, the three faces of one cube below will be reported each one as a separate object, due to insufficient 1inks.


IMPOSSIBLE: WITHOUT INTERPRETATION
Images that can not be product of photographing (projecting) a 3-dim scene. These objects do not have physical existence.

This scene is without interpretation, meaning no 3-dim scene (with 3-dim bodies) could have produced it.


In figures like the above one, men are unaware of the extension of the background, and makes sense even if \(B\) is background. SEE is unable to make this mistake, and its analysis of the scene will reflect the fact: the preprocessor will complain that one region, the background, is neighbor of itself. See comments to scene R3, page 113.

Of course, in these cases there is no answer to the question "which are the bodies in the scene?" Whatever answer SEE (or anybody else) gives, it is wrong.

Nevertheless, according to our meta-theorem (page 39), there is an extremely easy way to discover and reject these imposible scenes: all of them are necessarily illegal scenes (q.v., page 217). And we know how to detect illpgal scenes. SEE (or its preprocessor, rather) already does that.

SEE detects all impossible scenes, by refusing the data as an illegal scene.

Some scenes get classified by our metatheorem as 'possible but not "good" interpretation", and likewise by SEE, which does not refuse to analyze any legal scene.

Nevertheless, a person will stubbornly classify them as 'oddlooking' or 'not making sense' or 'impossible', even if we teach him the solution obtained by SEE (figures 'Penrose Triangle', 'Black', 'Staircase', 'CONTRADICTORY').


Figure 'CONTRADICTORY'
One object is found by SEE: (:1 :2 :3:4). As such (since it is a legal scene), SEE clasisifies it as "possible but not "good" interpretation'. A person will claseify it as "not making 3-dim sense": a human optical illusion. Is it possible to reconcile these views?

Of course, the metatheorem (page 39 ) insures that there is at least one solution, so SEE's intexpretation is "right" (it has chosen one correct answer, generally not the trivial solution given by the metatheorem), and the mortal is wrong. Also, the theorem of page 50 insures that any gystem (human or computer) that uses too "local" rules (see fig. 'MACHINE') will make at least one mistake, no matter what rules he (or it) uses. fellow subject, because SEE has classified the scene as 'possible but no "good"interpretation' and our man has said 'contradictory as a threedimensional scene'. Let us call these human optical illusions (such as 'Contradictory', 'Staircase', etc.) by the name h-optical illusions.

What to do in these disagreements? Who is right?
SEE is right Above comments seem to indicate that the electronic data-processor is correct. The human has used excesively "local" rules. That being the case, we can teach and train (if avoiding future errors is desirable) our subjects to "understand", racionalize and make sense out of these \(h\)-optical illusions. Indeed, that is what is tried in figures 'Black', 'Penrose Triangle', etc. Different people may show different degrees of (Hoptical) illusion before training and after training (see Box). This training is possible (see Box).

In other words, if SEE is right, the computer scientist has nothing to do, it is all up to the psychologists and educators.

Man is right We may hold the view that the human answer is still preferable. Then, to our rellef, man is right and SEE is wrong. It is necessary (perhaps) to modify and correct SEE, so as to emulate personal behavior. * We suggest a way to do this.

A program to discover h-optical illusions It is possible to enable SEE to detect these \(h\)-optical illusions, so that it will claseify the legal scenes into "possible" or "h-optical illusions."

SUGGESTION
As the problem of discriminating between background
and objects (see section 'On background discrimination by Computer'), this is an interesting project from the "psychological" point of view but, as in the background case, it is not essential at the moment for our vision-robot work.

\footnotetext{
* Strictly, there is a third possibility: both are wrong.
}

\section*{B OX}

There is generally a wealth of available information-though none entirely reliable-for settling the size and distance of external objects, with sufficient precision for normal use. As is well known, the visual system makes use of a host of 'depth cues', such as gradual loss of detailed texture with increasing distance, haziness due to the atmosphere and nearer objects partly hiding those more distant. These cues were discussed in the nineteenth century by the great von Helmholtz (1925), who fully realised their importance, and they have been the subject of many investigations since, especially by J. J. Gibson (1950). Whatever the richness of depth cues, however, the visual input is always ambiguous. Though the brain makes the best bet on the evidence-it may always be wrong.
The kind of mistakes which occur when the bet is on the favourite though the favourite is not placed, is shown most dramatically by the demonstrations of Adelbert Ames (1946). The most impressive demonstration is given simply with a room which is non-rectangular, but so shaped that it gives the same retinal image as a rectangular room to an eye placed in a certain position. Now clearly this room, though queer shaped, must appear the same as a normal rectangular room, for it gives the same image to the cye. But consider what happens when objects are placed inside the Ames room. The further wall recedes at one side, so that an object or person standing in one corner is actually at a different distance than is a second object placed at the other far corner. These objects (or people) appear, however, to be at the same distance-and they are seen the wrong size. This is clear evidence that we assume rooms to be rectangular (because they usually are) and we interpret the size of objects according to their distance as given by this assumption. When the assumption is wrong we see wrongly. What Ames did was to rig the odds, and then we make the wrong decision on size and distance. A child may appear larger than a man. We may know this is absurd and yet continue to see a bizarre world. The retinal image is all right, but the odds have produced the wrong internal file cards and then the human seeing machine is upset, and gives a wrong answer.
It is interesting that the Ames room is seen correctly by peoples, such as the Zulus, brought up in a 'circular culture' of beehive huts where there are few reliable perspective features, such as rectangular corners and parallel lines, in their visual environment. To the Zulus, the odds are not rigged by the Ames room-to them this is not misleading perspective. They are not subject to this illusion, but accept the room as the shape it is, and see the objects in it correctly in distance and size. This is a matter of very real importance. It shows that when we are transferred to an alien or bizarre environment, where our filing cards are inappropriate, we interpret the images in the eyes according to principles found reliable in the previous, familiar world-but now they may systematically mislead and then perception goes wrong. Space travellers beware! \{Gregory, in \{Collins and Michie]\}

A possible way to attack the problem is
(1) To identify each link with whoever proposed it.
(2) To set up systems of simultaneous "symbolic" equations.
(3) To solve them by limination.

We elaborate:
(1) Mark each link with the name of the heuristic that produces it. After obtaining the 'maximal' nuclei by GLOBAL and LOCAL, seve ral links are left (for example, three in fig. 'FINAL-BRIDGE') and ignored by the current SEE. Instead, one could see what kind of links they are, and one has in this way more information about the type of contradictions in the scene.
(2) Introduce a 'conditional' link: regions :1 and :2 belong to the same body if region :3 does not. An OR link is now possible by use of the conditional, since \(a \Rightarrow b \cdot \equiv \cdot b V \rightarrow a\).
(2.3) Introduce a 'NOT' link: \(: 3 \neq: 5\), regions \(: 3\) and \(: 5\) do not belong to the same body.
(2.6) As in ordinary algebraic equations, a system of \(n\) simultaneous equations means that all of them must be satisfied;
the "AND" of all must be true. Thus, AND is implicit in our notation. So far, we have OR, AND, NOT, IMPLIES (conditional): we have more than necessary.

At the end, we have a system of simultaneous equations like these, where \(: 1=: 2\) means both belong to same body; this is an equivalence relation so \(I\) use the \(=\) sign:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
: 1=: 2 & \text { OR } & : 3=: 5 \\
: 3 \neq: 2 & \Rightarrow & : 1=: 4 \tag{E}
\end{array}
\]

We now procede to "solve" these equations. Three things could happen:
\(=\) Exactly one solution is found. This is the normal case, and that solution tells what the bodies are. Familiar, "clear", possible scenes will fall in this case.
\(=\) More than one solution is found consistent with our equations.

All are reported. This is the case "Ambiguous -- several good interpretations."
\(=\) No solution is found. This is a genuine hoptical illusion, corresponding to a contradiction in the equations. For instance, in fig. 'CONTRADICTORY', equations set by the T-joints between \(\mathbf{~} 2\) and :3 would be inconsistent with those set by the Arrows and Forks.

How to solve the equations ( \(E\) ) by the solution to ( \(E\) ) we mean a division of
the scene (:1, :2, ..., :n) by means of a partition of the form
( \(: 1=: 5=: 7=: 6\) ) ,
(:3 = :2),
(:4)
which is consistent with (E).
In the current SEE,
(a) The equations are only equalities: \(: 1=: 2\).

Also, equations of the type : \(1 \neq: 2\) are taken into account by inhibitory mechanisms, such as NOSABO. No conditional links exist.
(b) Since all equations are of the type \(: 2=: 3\), the solution is obtained by applying transitivity, that is, \(1=2\)
\(2=3 \Rightarrow(1=2=3)\)
parentheses
indicate nuclei.


Except that we require two antecedents for application of transitivity (two strong links):
\(1=2\)
\(2=1\)
\(1=3\)\(\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} & (1=2) \\ & 1=3\end{aligned} \Rightarrow \quad(1=2=3)\)
\(2=3 \quad 2=3\)
\(\overbrace{2}^{1} \rightarrow{ }_{2}^{3} \rightarrow\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2 \\ 3\end{array}\right.\)

An exhaustive search (which successively tests each possible partition) of the solution to (E) is impractical except in very small scenes, and heuristic methods are needed.

I suggest to start from the equalities such as \(1=2\)
\(2=3\)
and to form nuclei \({ }^{\text {as }}\) with the current \(\operatorname{SEE}\), except that at each step we check to see if our current nuclei satisfy all of (E); for disjunctive equations such as " \(4=5\) OR \(6 \neq 7\) OR \(4=6\) " we try each branch of the \(O R\) in turn, rejecting those who conduce to no solution (this may be pretty combinatorial, too).

Perhaps it is possible to use more Logic here -- some sort of theorem proving.

Conclusions and conjectures
The similarities between SEE and people
(see also 'Human perception vs. computer perception, page 254) stem from the fact that, like SEE, people seem to use only a small number of rules (although not necessarily those used by SEE), which work in almost all cases, but when these rules conduct to an ambiguity or inconsistency ("conflicts"), there is reticence to abandon them, and mistakes or impossibilities are produced.

It is possible that, like SEE, people use primarily local clues, and with less frequency more global information to disambiguate interpretations. I think that, in the presence of objects (in 2-dim line drawings, such as 'MOMO', for instance) not seen before, humans follow general rules not unlike those used by SEE to distinguish or decompose a scene into bodies. Rules that apply to all polyhedra have to be invoked, since in presence of previously unseen objects, humans can not use a model of the object.

The more familiar an object is (or if we have reason to suspect it or expect it), the faster we abandon the general rules and propose its model as a possible explanatinn of part of an scene; we then jump to a model matching routine ( \(\mathrm{a}_{1} 1 \mathrm{a}\) DT \{MAC TR 37 ) that tries to fit the model to part of the scene (to a semi-isolated body); general rules a la SEE prevent us from overflowing with our model into other bodies, and help us to deal with partially occluded bodies.
```

The performance of our programs is analyzed when the data has imperfections consisting of (1) misplaced vertices, (2) missing edges, (3) spurious extra lines, (4) missing faces, (5) two vertices merged.
The section 'Analysis of Many Scenes' contains results of SEE when applied to imperfect scenes.

```

Summary It is easy to predict the operation of SEE when the twodimensional data supplied is clean, in the sense of being an accurate representation of the three-dimensional scene.

In practice, of course, errors will occur in the data and it becomes important to know how sensitive our program is to them.

SEE has some serendipity. Many of the imperfections in the data do not cause mistakes in the linking procedure, or the link misplacements are not enough to cause erroneous identification. But mistakes are made.

Here is how different types of imperfections are handled:

\footnotetext{
\(==\) The assignment of types to vertices is highly insensitive to errors in the position of each vertex, except T'S that become Forks of Arrows. Two cures to the exceptions were found, only the first of which is implemented:
(1) Allow tolerances in concepts of parallelism and colinearity.
(2) Allow a long but slightly twisted rectilinear segment to be "straightened", as indicated in comments on scene R17.
\(==\) Missing edges are subdivided in three classes (discussed below); two of them produce recoverable or detectable errors (hence, susceptible of correction or prevention). It will be difficult to detect if a segment of the third class is missing; these will produce recognition mistakes.
\(==\) Additional lines, like the ones caused by edges of shadows, are not easily detected as spurious or superfluous. Their presence mainly produces a diminution in the number of useful links, thus somecimes causing too conservative behavior -- i.e., proposition of too many bodies.
\(=\) Whole faces may be missing. Ordinarily (see scenes L2, L9T).
}
the remaining part of the body gets correctly identified.

Obtaining the data

The scenes analyzed by our program in this thesis were obtained by one of two methods:

\section*{By free drawing \\ A line drawing representing three-dimensional objects} was made; the coordinates of each vertex were accurately measured (or computed) and the information was put in the 'Input Pormat' form previously described. Also the regions belonging to the background were indicated as such.

These scenes have memonic names such as TRIAL, BRIDGE, etc. What kind of projection did you use? Were these isometric drawinge? Since no assumption is made on the rectilinear objects being drawn, the drawings are not isometric, or perspective, or ... projections. They could be any of them. It is not assumed that "we are dealing with prisms, with faces of a body meeting at right anglea (like the corners of a cube), "Or with convex objects. Neither the drawings nor the program make any assumption of this type. If the reader wishes to adopt the assumption apecified above in quotation marks, then the drawings will correspond to orthogonal projections of three-dimensional scenes.

No support hypothesis is needed: if necessary, the objects could be floating in transparent fluid having their same density.

By censtruction
Arbitrary but not too complicated objects were cut from pine wood, with flat surfaces, and painted black. Their edges were painted white. By placing them on a black table (see first few pictures of this thesis) in different positions and combinations, three-dimensional scenes were created (see figure 'TEST OBJECTS'). Pictures were taken with high contrast film slightly under-exposed so as to render black everything but the lines. Diffuse illumination eliminated shadows [Great help was received in the pictorial task


from Messrs. William H. Henneman, Devendra D. Mehta and David Waltz, and is here acknowledged]. The photographs were taken with a depression angle from \(45^{\circ}\) to \(90^{\circ}\) (that is, looking down), 50 mm focal length lens, 35 mm camera (standard equipment).

The size of the prints is approx. \(8 \frac{1}{2}\) by 11 inches ( 21.5 by 28 cm ). If some lines were not clear, they were retouched with white ink. If some lines were missing, they were mor added.

The pictures have names like L 2 or R3, a letter and a digit. Most of them are atereographic pairs, taken with both cameras having parallel optical axes, and the sensitive film on the aame plane. SEE only analyzes one scene at the time, so the left picture is not consulted when SEB analyzes the right picture, and viceversa.

A transparent millimetric mesh is laid on top of the prints, and the coordinates are read by eye and put by hand in the 'Input Format' form. The thickness of each line is about 1 (see figure 'TRST OBJECIS'); typically, the size of a scene is 10 or 15 cm a minimum error of \(\ddagger 1\) per cent in the coordinates of a vertex is already present. The slopes and directions of short segments auffer, naturally, much greater errors. Also, if two vertices are too close together (about two millimeters) they are merged and codified as one. We are simulating the kind of mistakes that are likely to occur.

Also, some bias is introduced, no doubt), by the human operators. [By reading the coordinates in most of the scenes, immense help was given by Miss Cornelia A. Sullivan and Mr. Devendra D. Mehta; the author acknowledges it.]

Irrespective of the generation method, the scenes that appear in this thesis were drawn in their final form by the PDP-6 computer through a Galcomp plotter, and then inked and finished by hand. Thus, it is possible to perceive in many of them the imperfections of the data that SEE had to analyze.

\section*{MISPLACED VERTICES}

The coordinates of a vertex may contain a small error or 'noise'. How does this affect the type of a vertex? Does the type change?
L.


Not affected

FORK.

ARROW


Not affected
K.

 Transforms into MULTI.
X.

\(\longrightarrow\)
 Transforms into MULTI.
T. Transforms into ARROW


 Transforms into FORK.

PEAK.
 Not affected. MULII.
 Not affected.

Many types are unaffected. Type K vertices transform into MULTI, but since \(\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}\) are seldom used by SEE, this is no big loss.

X's transform into MULTIs, and we lose two links here, which makes SEE to behave more conservatively. Also GOODF gets affected (though not much).

The serious change are the \(\mathrm{T}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}\) that get transformed into ARROWs or FORKs, when these T's are matching T's. Because they are used for linking otherwise disconnected pieces of a body, their loss generally implies the partition of a body into two. See figure 'DISCONNECTED'.

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 'DISCONNECTED'
The T's under discussion are marked by small circles ( © ). In (a), the miclassification of these T's into Arrows or Forks does not break the occluded body, who retains its unity thanks to il. In (b), the same mis-classification does break the occluded body, reporting two objects instead of one, a possible but less desirable answer. If the T's are not matching \(T\) 's, as in (c), their mis-classification does not matter.

The loss of matching T's makes the program to be more conservefive in some cases. In some
sense (see 'Desirability Criterion') this is tolera bile.

What other perils does the misclassification of the T's bring? We should worry if, due to errors caulsed by T's, the occluded body joins the occluding one.

\section*{DESIRABILITY CRITERION.}
(1) We would like a SEE that never makes mistakes. Sincethis is not possible, then
(2) We would like it to make mistakes of only one kind, either join: two bodies that should be left separated (intrepid, cavalier behavior), or leave unattached two nuclei that should be reported as a single object (conservative behavior).
(3) Among the two, we prefer a conservafive SEE, because its errors will be easier to correct (cf. Stereo Perception).


The T's should not originate the reporting of \(: 1-2-3\) as part of one body

Each T, when perturbed, will go to one of these states: (N) normal, unperturbed; (L) "left", \(E_{2}\) moves towards \(E_{1}\), \(E_{1} \quad / E_{2}\) becoming
a FORK, or (R) "right", when \(E_{2}\) moves away
from \(E_{1}\), \(E_{1} / E_{2}\) becoming an Arrow.
For three \(T^{\prime}\) 's of an occluded body, \(3^{3}=27\) states are possible. They are shown in next page, in table 'THREE Ts'.

How many of these 27 states will produce
mis-links joining 1 with 3 or 2 with 3 or 1 with 4 or 2 with 4 (none of the four regions is necessarily background) ?

None .


The reason is that (see description of NOSABO) a \(T\) or an Arrow or an L inhibit the link shown below,

so that (a) An arrow in position (I) [or (III)] suggests linking 1 with 4. This link is inhibited by the \(L\) at IV [or VI]. Example: Figure R L L in Table 'THREE Ts'. (page 214).
(b) A Fork in position (I) [or (III)] suggests
(i) linking 1 with 3 . Inhibited because of the \(T\) or arrow in vertex II.
(ii) linking 1 with 4. Inhibited because of the \(L\) in \(I V\).
(iii) linking 4 with 3. Depends on outside considerations. Discussed below.

Example: L R L.
(c) An Arrow in position (II) suggests linking 1 with 2.

Inhibited or allowed according to vertex V. Example: RRL.
(d) A Fork in position (II) suggests
(i) linking 1 with 3 . Link inhibited by the \(T\) or arrow of \(I\).
(ii) linking 2 with 3. Inhibited by the \(T\) or arrow in III.
(iii) linking 1 with 2 . Inhibited or allowed according to vertex \(V\).
Example: R L N.
Thus, no link is possible, even under these "noisy" circumstances, between 1 and 3 or 2 and 3 or 1 and 4 or 2 with 4. That is, the 27 cases of table 'THREE Ts' are treated correctly.


A possibility of bad linking exists between 4 and 3 in this case, if two \(T^{1 s}\) convert into forks and "help each other":
```

Two links originate the joining of 4 and 3.

```


Rather than get involved in this sub-problem, we will point out two solutions to the misplaced vertices: (1) by allowing some tolerance in 'parallel' and 'collinear'; (2) by 'straightening out' crooked or twisted segments. We explain.

Equal within epsilon (definition) \(a\) is equal within epsilon to \(b\), written \(a \stackrel{\epsilon}{=} b\), iff \(|a-b|<|\epsilon|\). Generally, \(\epsilon>0\).

\section*{Tolerances in collinearity and parallelism}

Two lines are parallel if the sine of the angle formed by them is smaller than SINTO. (sine \(\stackrel{\text { sinmo }}{=} 0\) ) Currently, SINTO \(=0.15\)

Lines \(a b\) and \(b c\) are colinear if

length \(a b+\) length \(b c \stackrel{\text { colto }}{=}\) length ac. Currently, colro \(=0.05\)
We have implemented these definitions. Better definitions exist. These definitions allow most small inaccuracies in the coordinates of vertices to pass unnoticed. Although they are giving reasonable service, they are only temporary, since by relaxing too much the criterion for parallelism and collinearity, strange things could happen (fig. 'CROSSED').


A too lenient definition of parallel and collinear could give the following matching T's: a to d, b to \(f\), c to e.

See also on section 'Analysis of many scenes' comments to L9 and R9T. (pages 152, 156).

\section*{Straightening twisted segments}

The definitive cure is simple:
reassign the slope of bc tc be that of \(a d\), if bc is small, ad large

and the angles at \(b\) and \(c\) are close to \(180^{\circ}\). See also comments to figure R17. This has not been implemented. In this way, all cases of table 'THREE Ts' will be solved. See also comments to scene R4.

Probably the preprocessor will automatically take care of this rectification, since it may prefer to give a long segment ad instead of three almost collinear shorter segments ab, bc, cd.

Since the straightening of a segment replaces some known vertices (which we suppose inaccurate) by other idealized vertices, we may be introducing uncertainty, in the form of non verified hypotheses, to our data. The object in the scene could really be "crooked"or twisted.


Fig. 'TWISTED'
The object to the left is really bent as shown. If we idealize it as in the right, we are falsi fying the information about it.

By replacing it by an idealized version, we may be creating problems for its identification, when we want to assign a name to it. But notice that the 'unbent' version or idealization is handier for SEE.

If the information is very bad
Throw it away and read the scene again. A simile indicates that the issue becomes one of allocation of resources: if you receive a written message containing a few wrong characters and missing words, you may use your brains and time
to deduce the omitted portions (by employing the redundancy, for instance). If the dispatch is very garbled, you might as well request a new one.

Summary It is known how to handle small inaccuracies in the position of the vertices.

\section*{MISSING EDGES}

From time to time, an edge will fail to show up in the scene, and the questions are (1) how much harm will be produced, and (2) how can we detect and correct the anomaly. An example appears in page 141.
Illegal Scenes Lines that end abruptly produce illegal inputs, suggesting that segments are missing.

(a)


Fig. 'IlLEGAL'
(b)

In (a), a vertex has one edge. In (b), the network can be separated by erasing just one edge. Both are illegal scenes, indicating missing or extra lines.

Also (Figure 'Illegal', (b)) a region can not be a neighbor of itself -- another irregularity that points to deficient data. Cf. comments to scene R3. (page (13).

These constraints can be nicely exploited by a preprocessor.

Line proposer and line verifier suggests places where a line can be missing; a line verifier is essentially a precise line finder that searches a line in only a small portion of the scene, as told by the line proposer.

In the body of this section we will develop several heuristics for use in a line proposer. The verifier is not discussed.

Blum's line proposer
An algorithm has been designed by Manuel Blum \{1968\}, that will detect many places where 1 ines are possibly missing. It suspects concave regions. An angle bigger than \(180^{\circ}\) originates a search for the omittedine in directions parallel to the neighbor


Figure 'BLUM'
Region 82 is suspected to contain undetected lines, because it is concave. Vertex \(v\) is chosen because its internal angle is bigger than 180 degrees. From it, Blum's proposer will suggest to the line verifier to look for lines in directions VA' \(^{\prime}\) and \(V^{\prime}\) (broken lines), parallel to the neighbor edges A and B. It also searches (dotted lines) along the continuation to lines \(C\) and \(D\).
edges (fig. 'BLUM'). It also originates searches along its own edges. In other conditions, a vertical line is searched.

No harm is done by a bad proposer. Only some time is wasted.

Internal edges If a missing line 's totally internal to a body, and is not detected by the line proposer, its absence will at most cause conservative tehavior in SER. In some cases their absence does not confuse SEE (figure 'MISSING').

The majority of internal edges cause concave regions to appear (fig. 'BLIM'). They will be detected by a line proposer.


Fig. 'M I S S ING'
Cases where the disappearance of an internal line (dotted) does not separate the body. In (a), the object separates into two.
This case is recognized by Blum's heuristics. Else, SEE could check for this configuration as a special case.

External edges Edges that separate two bodies are called external.
If undetected, their disappearance will cause 'intrepid' errors by SEE, which are undesirable (see 'Desirability criterion' in page 212). Two cases result: (1) Only part of the edge disappears; there is possibility of correction. (2) The whole edge is both external and missing (and the scene is still 'legal'): a mistake will occur, See figure 'External Edges'.

Case (1) Only part of an external edge disappears. It can be detected because
(a) a concave region is generated, and
(b) the region has internal angles big ger than \(180^{\circ}\) where a line "goes through": \(a b\) is colinear with cd.



A segment separating two bodies may disappear. (1) If that segment is part of a larger segment, it is possible to sense and correct the anomaly. (2) If a whole external edge is missing, its absence remains undetected, inducing a mistake in SEE. In (i) an external edge disappears, and creates an illegal figure.

Case (2) The complete edge is missing. Then (b) of case 1 fails, and detection is difficult.

SPURIOUS EXTRA LINES

They are lines that "should not be there", such as those caused by edges of shadows.


Each body becomes two; each one is recognized independently by SEE. Four bodies are found.

Shadows of rectilinear objects travel in planes that (in theory) part an object in two (or more) : the illuminated part, and the dark one. Each is a separate object by itself, according to our definition (see 'Several definitions of a body'), since they have plane boundaries. SEE should recognize them.

In practice, we have not tried our program with scenes having lines produced by shadows. A conservative behavior, like in figure 'LIGET AND SHADOW', is expected.

Some shadows gradually diffuse; multiple lights cause multiple shadows. These problems may have to be solved by assuming or computing the direction or position of the light sources.

MRREED VERTICES

Two vertices fused in one will produce diminution in the number of useful links they report, since the resulting vertex will be of type MULTI. Thus, conservative behavior is expected from SEB in these cases (see Fig. L19, LI7T, R17, L4, etc. The program does well in them, when not too many coincidences are present).

It is possible to analyze the vertices of type SUGGESTION mulif and try to decompose them in simpler types (compare figure R19 with WRIST*). Read comments to R19 and L19.

CONCLUSION

On scenes obtained from "real world" data, inaccuracies are expected, and it is required of SEE to work well despite them. Currently, the behavior of the program in these cases is not discouraging, but is not extremely satisfactory, either. The additional work needed depends heavily on obtaining genuine test data, instead of the faked data used in the experiments described.

\section*{BACKGROUND DISCRIMINATION BY COMPUTER}

A program determines the regions that belong to the background of a given scene; that is, the regions that are mot members of any of the bodies. Examples are given.

Need
The program SEE requires to know which regions of the scene belong to the background (cf. 'SEE, a program that finds bodies in a scene'). At present, this information is supplied by the user, as described in sections 'Internal format' (page 66) and 'Input Format' (page 63) of a scene.

In the current vision experiments, it is not difficult to determine the regions that form the background, since they are always black and homogeneous (see first few pictures in this thesis). But in more realistic scenes, there will be a great demand for a background finding program.

> Therefore, it is interesting to try to develop a program to separate the "ground" in the back from the objects in the "foreground", having a limited information consisting of the scene as described in section 'Internal Format', namely, vertices and edges.
> That is, we will use in this task only "geometric" properties.

Such program has been written, and works automatically under the command of PREPARA, the function that converts a scene from its 'Input Format' to its 'Internal Format'. When the regions forming the background are not supplied, PREPARA activates our program, named BACKGROUND, and these regions are searched for; otherwise, SEE is supplied with the background regions as declared in 'Input Format'.

Example. Scene 'HARD'. The results obtained are
```

(SUSPICICUS ARE NIL)
THE BACKGROUND OF HARD IS
(:34:36:35)
1:34:36:35)

```


Three regions are found to be part of the background: :34, :36, and \(: 35\). That is correct.

We now proceed to describe the subroutines that make such identification possible.

Suspicious
In a first pass, we collect the regions that "may be" background, and call them "suspicious regions". Regions that are not suspicious are LIMPIO (clean).

Ideally, if a region \(: R\) contains L's, FORRs, ARROWs or T's in the position below, it is not a part of the background.

(I)

(II)

(IIュ)

(Iv)
FIGURE 'BACKGROUND'

In an idealized situation, \(: R\) can not be part of the background: it is clean, or free of suspiciousness. iR will be called 'LMPIO' (clean).
(I) means that the background [alnost] never is the internal part of an ' \(L\) ' (the region containing the angle smaller than 180 degrees).
(II) means that the background does not contain FORKs.
(III) means that the background is not in the "inside" of an ARROW (the background is not a 'proper"arrow').
(IV) means that the background can not be the flat region of a 'T'; this in turn means that a body can not disappear under the back ground and then reappear at some other point:


We reinterpretie rules (I)-(IV) as follows:
(I) A region "inside" an L is LMMPIO (clean).
(II) A region containing a fork is LIMPIO.
(III) A region "inside" an arrow is LIMPIO.
(IV) A region "on the flat side" of a \(T\) is LMMPIO.

Clean Vertex (definition). A vertex is clean with respect to a region if it indicates, through rules I-IV, that such region is LIMPIO. For instance, \(K\) is clean for \(: 1\) and for \(: 2\), since (III) indicates that \(i \mathcal{I}\) and \(: 2\) are LIMPIO. \(K\) is not clean for 13 .


These heuristics are not 100 per cent infallible; also, in a moderately complicated scene, coincidences of vertices are bound to occur, originating violations to I-IV. For instance, in figure CORN (page 150), vertex UU is a Fork belonging to the background, in contradiction with (II).

For completeness, we present a violation to each one of rules I-IV:
(I)

: 1


FIGURE 'VIOLATIONS'
:l is the background. In all four cases, vertex \(\nabla\) violates rule specified at the bottom of figure. They are rare cases. The situation indicates that rules I-IV provide noisy information, which has to be dealt with carefully. That is what is done.

The vertices of each region are analyzed under rules (I)-(IV). To allow for coincidences of vertices and rare cases (like those in figure 'VIOLATIONS'), it is permitted for a suspicious region to have a small number of clean vertices.

The number of clean vertices is compared with a quantity that is a small fraction of \(L\) (the number of vertices on the boundary); currently, that fraction is \(\mathrm{L} / 9\).
\(=\) If the number of clean vertices, that is, vertices satisfying I-IV is bigger than L/9, we call that region LIMPIO ("clean"). In addition, (a) If \(L\) is large (bigger than 25, currently), that region is BIGFACE, such as \(: 21\) of scene L19 (page 144);
(b) Otherwise, it is only LIMPIO (normal case).
\(==\) If it is not bigger than \(L / 9\), then it is SUSPICIOUS. Also,
(a) If \(L\) is large (bigger than 25), the region is BACKGROUND,
(b) Otherwise is only SUSPICIOUS (normal case).

That is, a region LIMPIO has to have at least
\(1+\) [one vertex of each nine]
"clean" vertices.
Example. Region \(\mathbf{t}^{3}\) has four 'clean' vertices (four vertices indicate that 3 is LIMPIO) --- It can not be SUSPICIOUS.

(This scene is correctly analyzed by SEE) All the three vertices of :1 are not clean; il will become Suspicious (a candidate for background). Five of the seven vertices of :2 are clean, so :2 is LIMPIO. Note that vertex \(C^{\prime}\) is clean for \(\mathbf{s} 2\) and not clean for 11.

For example, when we apply the function SUSPICIOUS (see Iistings) to every region of scene SPREAD, the suspicious regions turn out to be:
\begin{tabular}{llllllllll} 
Suspicious only: & \(: 35\) & \(: 18\) & \(: 34\) & \(: 2\) & \(: 3\) & 12 & \(: 11\) & \(: 33\) & \(: 37\) \\
& 147 & \(: 48\) & \(: 46\)
\end{tabular}

Background: :48.

Sumary By analysis of its vertices, each region is either LIMPIO or SUSPICIOUS. The suspicious regions with more than 25 vertices are classified right away as BACKCROUND: a suspicious region with many edges is probably background.

The selection is done entirely using "local" properties: a region is classified according to information supplied exclusively by its own vertices.


FIGURE 'S PREAD'
Each regien io elaseificisen Enrion, SUSPICIOUS or BACKERODAD.

More global indications Our go' 1 ta to tecide which of the guapi-

- Since two background regions can not be coatiguote t the background can not be neighbor of itelin), ntipteldín regione thit are contiguous with the background are cledned and put in the LIMPIO status.

In our example, 848 is background and therefore its sugpicious neighbor :18 gets cleaned ana becomes LITIO.
\(=\) Links are established through the matehing T's. We call them b-links.

Ideally, a suspicious regionllipked to mnipio region gets cleaned, a sumpicious regionbilnked to the bekgroupd gets converted to background too.


Idealizing, suspicious region :1 becomes LIMPIO, and suspicious region 2 becomes background. A more complicated procedure is actually used.

In practice, we allow for small errors as follows:
For each suspicious region, we notice if it is b•linked to background (BA), suspicious (SO), or Limpio (LI).
\(B A==\) If it istlinked to background regions, we change it to Background, except if it has a background as neighbor, in which case we do nothing and continue.
() SO LI If notblinked to background, butblinked both to Suspicious and Limpio regions,
(1) If LI < SO, continue, do nothing.
(2) If \(L I \geqslant S O\), classify this region as limpio (LI is the number of LIMPIO regions b-Iinked to the current region under conaideration).
() SO () If blinked only to suspicious, continue, do nothing.
() () LI Iftinked only to Limpio, change it to Limpio. Note: Sometimes I write Limpio, sometimes LIMPIO, they mean the same.
() () () If notblinked, continue, do nothing.

We keep applying these rules until no change is observed. In this way, we have eliminated several suspicious regions.

In SPREAD, the suspicious regions were \(35,18,34,2,3\), \(12,11,33,37,47,48,46.548\) is known to be the background (that was done in page 226 ), so it is no longer suspicious. : 18 is a neighbor of the background (:48), and got cleaned in the page before this one.
:11 is binked with the LIMPIO :9 and with the suapicious :3. Therefore, \(: 11\) changes to LIMPIO.
:3 is \(\operatorname{lilinked}\) with the Limpio :11, so the suspicious :3 becomes Limpio.
:12 1s blinked to the Limpio :10, and gets cleaned.

146 is \(b \cdot l i n k e d\) to the background \(: 48\), and gets made background, since \(: 46\) is not, at this moment, a neighbor of background.
:34 isblinked to the background \(: 48\), and gets made background, since : 34 is not a neighbor of background.
:37 is blinked to the LIMPIO region \(: 4\), and transforms into LMPIO.
: 35 is blinked to the region \(: 34\), which is background, so that the suspicious region :35 becomes background instead rtis alised

12 is a suspicious region blinked to the reginn \(; 35\), which is part of the background. According to our rules, \(: 2\) becomes part of the background. : 2 is also b.hiked to the background :48.

At the end, only regions : 33 and \(: 47\) remain suspicious:
(SUSPICIOUS ARE (:33 47))
\(=\) We collect all these 'stubborn' suspicious regions and label them background, except those which are neighbors of background. A better procedure may be to make the exception in

SUGGESTION those regions that are neighbors of suspicious regions. That is, two neighboring suspicious regions prevent each other from becoming background. I have not explored this possibility.

In the example SPREAD, \(: 33\) and \(: 47\) are made background.
\(=\) If no region is background at this point, make ane of the "bigfaces" background. There is room here for improvement.
\(=\) If no background yet, make background the region with most vertices. This is not yet implemented.

In our example, the (final) background regions are:
\(: 33: 47: 35: 34: 2: 48: 46 . \quad\) BACKGROUND OF 'SPREAD'.
```

Other examples of background finding.
Scene CORN
L-Evs
Fuju
SLUとロごごくAlur
Mrr=ogiveralum
MHTES
Nご洔

```

```

(0U521C10LO 4%z NLL)

```

```

(:22)

```


Scene BRIDGE
```

(:50 1S \&(GFAOF)
(SUSPICIOUS aRE NIL)

```

```

(:30)
1:30)

```

Scene MOMO One mistake（：31）is produced here．
LLEシム
Fuur
Stur゙ateralur
frategeverabur
Males
NEA18

（owarlblous are（：31））
IME FAGKGrJuvE CE ，Mijul IS
（：6：31：00）

figure－＇MOMO．＇

The problem is ambiguous Like in the case of body isolation (section 'The Concept of a Body'), the problem of determining the regions that belong to the background of a scene (regions that belong to no body) is ambiguous; many solutions are possible, as long as no two background regions are contiguous.

Among the multitude of solutions there exists a preferred one, which is "the"standard (common, familiar) interpretation chosen by people.

Our program tries to choose also, among the many solutions, the standard one.

Sumary A lenient algorithm finds regions (by analyzing the types of their vertices, and their neighborhood relations) that may possibly be background, and labels them "SUSPICIOUS". With the idea of re-classifying the suspicious regions as 'LIMPIO' (clean, no background) or 'BACKGROUND', a system of b-links is introduced. These \(b-1 i n k s\) provide more global information about the acene.

Members of the suspicious set are assigned to one of the other two sets (limpio abayromed, while the algorithm tries to minimize the b-links between Background and Limpio regions.

Conclusion
Fair results are obtained with the algorithm just
described. Sometimes, regions are obtained as Background that are genuine components of a body ("Limpio") and vice versa.

Refinements are needed, but since in our present vision experiments the background is a homogeneous black area (see first few pictures of this thesis), no emphasis is shown right now.

Summary So far we have discussed the identification of objects in a scene and ignored the problem of locating them in a three-dimensional space.

There are several ways to achieve this. We will discuss here one of them: the use of more than one view of the same scene.

A natural first step is to establish the correspondence between points in the two views; that is, given a point in one scene (left), to find the corresponding point in the other scene (right). Theorems \(\mathrm{S}-1\) below and \(\mathrm{S}-2\) on page 234 express criteria for this "stereo matching".

SEE can independently decompose the left and right scene into the bodies forming them,leaving as a problem to determine which of the objects in the right scene

If both cameras are identical, their optical axes parallel and the films or sensitive surfaces or retinas lie in the same plane,
then a simple necessary condition for two image points, one in each retina, to have come from the same 3-dim point, is that both image points (left and right) have the same \(y\)-coor dinate,
measured in the direction perpendicular to the line joining the optical centers. corresponds to an object
in the left scene. This can be done because each object will appear in both views with the same maximum height and minimum height (highest and lowest values of the y-coordinate of points belonging to that object); comparisons are easily made by replacing the objects by "intervals" consisting of these two numbers.

Further disambiguation can be achieved by the use of the function (WHERE \(X_{L} Y_{L} X_{R} Y_{R}\) ), which determines the ( \(x, y, z\) ) 3-dim position of a point of which its two 2-dim locations \(\left(X_{L}, Y_{L}\right)\) and \(\left(X_{R}, Y_{R}\right)\) are known. \{Griffith, AI Memo 143\}.


Figure 'POINTS'
Given two images of the same scene, before we can proceed to situate it in 3-dim space, it is necessary to know which points of the left scene correspond to points of the right scene: we have to discover the genuine pairs in it, a small subset of the cartesian product \((a, b, c, d) \times(e, f, g, h)\). It is desirable to have an algorithm that avoids an exhaustive search on this product.

Genuine Pair (definition). A pair of point: ( \(P_{L}, P_{R}\) ) produced by a real 3-dim point of the scene in consideration.

Theorem \(\mathrm{S}-2\) below gives conditions that a genuine pair must meet. A particularization will produce theorem \(\mathrm{S}-1\) above.

THEOREM S-2 The left image \(P_{L}\) and the right image \(P_{R}\) of point \(P\) have associated with them a variable, computable from \(\left(X_{L}, Y_{L}\right)\) or from \(\left(X_{R}, Y_{R}\right)\), that will acquire the same value on \(P_{L}\) and on \(P_{R}\). It is invariant under change of scene.

For the case where the optical axes are parallel, this variable is simply the \(y\)-coordinate ( \(Y_{L}=Y_{R}\) ) or height of the image.

For the case where the optical axes meet, this variable is \(\gamma\), an angle that plane \(P_{L}-C_{L}-P_{-} C_{R}-P_{R}\) makes with \(\Gamma\), the plane containing the optical axes.

Any monotonic function of \(\gamma\) will be just as good. (cf. figure 'GENUINE PAIRS').

From the theorem, the algorithm (referred to in fig. 'POINTS') that we may use to establish correspondence between points in the two views is:

Compare only points with the same \(\gamma\)
(or the same y-coordinate).
Points with different \(\gamma\) can not
come from a genuine pair.

For each body, the knowledge of the 3-dim location of few of its vertices will be sufficient to position that body in real space, achieving in this way the goal of this section.

See Digression 1 in section 'The concept of a body', for a
different approach.


Figure \({ }^{\prime} \gamma-P A R A M E T R I Z A T I O N '\)
From geometrical considerations and the coordinates of a point \(P_{L}\) in \(L\), it is possible to attach to the line \(A-P_{L}\) an angle \(\gamma\). Similarly, an angle is obtained for lines of \(R\). It can now be said that a genuine pair ( \(P_{L}, P_{R}\) ) must have the same \(\gamma^{\prime}\) s for \(P_{L}\) and \(P_{R}\).
\(\gamma\) is a physical quantity, namely the angle that the plane passing by the image \(P_{L}\) and the optical centers \(C_{L}\) and \(C_{R}\) makes with the "horizontal" plane \(\Gamma\). ( \(\Gamma\) contains the optical axes). Clearly, for \(P_{L}\) and \(P_{R}\) to be produced by a point \(P\) in 3-dim space, the \(\gamma\) of \(P_{L}\) must be equal to the \(\gamma\) of \(P_{R}\). This is a necessary condition that is easy to check.

A real point \(P\) of the scene produces a left image \(P_{L}\) (which has a certain value of \(\gamma\) ) and a right image \(P_{R}\) with the same value of \(\gamma\) (figure ' \(\gamma\)-PARAMETRIZATION').

Thus, given a point in one scene, we have to search for its genuine pairs in the other scene among the points with its same \(\gamma\). They will be found along an straight line through \(A\) or \(B\).

Parametrization of the scene is possible not only by using \(\gamma\); a monotonic function of \(\gamma\) will do.

For computational efficiency, it may be advisable to store the points of the scenes into arrays according to the value of their \(\gamma^{\prime} s\).


The function LINE maps points of Linto lines of R.
An image point \(P_{1}\) may have come from different 3 -dim points \(P, P^{\prime}, P^{\prime \prime} \ldots\) all of them situ ted in the line of sight of \(P_{L}\). The right images of \(P, P^{\prime}, P^{\prime \prime}, \ldots\) all fall in straight line, which is the intersection of the shaded plane [called plane \(P_{L}-C_{L}-P-C_{R}-\mathcal{P}_{R}\) in fig. 'Genuine Pairs'] and the right retina.

When the optical axes are parallel In this case, points \(A\) and \(B\) on IIne \(C_{L}-C_{R}\) (fig. 'Genuine Pairs') travel to infinity, and lines \(P_{L}{ }^{-A}\) and \(P_{R}-B\) become horizontal (parallel to \(C_{L}-C_{R}\) ). The situation looks like


A genuine pair ( \(P_{L}, P_{R}\) ) will
have the same \(y\)-coordinate for both of its elements ( 10.0 in this case).

So that, given a left image point \(R_{L}\), we have to search only among the points of \(R\) with its same height, to find" "the" \(P_{R}\) that will make a genuine pair ( \(\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{L}}, \mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{E}}\) ).

But several genuine pairs may be found. Because on each horizontal line on \(R\), many points may lie.

USE OF SEE IN STEREO PERCEPTION

We can use the invariance of the variable described in Theorem S-2 to locate objects in three dimensional space, from a pair of stereo views (we will suppose parallel axes; other case is similarly treated) as follows:
(1) Make an analysis of the left scene with SBE, identifying the bodies.
(2) Id. for right scene.
(3) Reduce each body to an interval formed by two numbers, its maximum and minimum height, specifying "closed" if the absolute extremal of the body is known, "open" if not.

In this way we reduce each acene to a set of intervals (see figure 'INTERVALS').




Each body is reduced to an interval.
(4) Use these intervals to select which left body will go with what right body. The answer is simple (because it is unique) even in moderately crowded scenes.

It is simple to take into account the fact that an open end of an interval indicates that the interval can extend further at such end.

\section*{Sources of difficulties are:}
(a) Two bodies have the same interval, meaning they have identical maximum heights and minimum heights. This is possible.


Quite easy: reduce some faces to intervals and compare them.
(b) A body is seen in left scene but not in right scene (figures L12, R12).
(c) SEE partitions one body in two in one scene, but not in the other.

> The "open" and "close" indications will help here.

Also, remember that we are using, when comparing these intervals, just a very small part of the total information concerning each body. When the selection is narrowed down to two or three candidates ["left-body 1 is either right-body 2 or right-body 5 "], one can use
(1) the WHERE function of Griffith (op cit),
(2) as in (a) above, the intervals for each face of the objects, so as to chose as "genuine pair" those two objects with more agreement in the intervals of their faces:
(3) perhaps a face of unusual shape is enough for discrimination, if it appears both in left and right scenes, or the number of vertices below the center of gravity, or ...

\begin{abstract}
summary
In summary, I should like to point out that, while much has been stated within the somewhat constricting framework of this article, much remains to be stated. Certain, but not all, important classes of presentations have been treated, and there remain horizons as yet unexplored. Conceivably, the author will attempt, ex nihilo nihil fit, to establish a more general perspective in the course of a subsequent article. (D.M. Jomas, Dothmation Noo \&S).
\end{abstract}

Also, the reader is referred to other articles on the same topic.



Scene L10 \(\rightarrow\) R10 SKE analyzes independently (pages 125 and 128 ) the left and right scenes, obtaining the following bodies:
```

(GODY 1. IS :5 8: 84 :12) LEFF SGENE (LIO)
(8OUY 2. 1S 86 815 \&7 811.814)
(800Y 3. 1S :8 89 :10 831
(guor 4. 1s :2 :13)
(BOUY 1. IS x\&3 %85 x86 x:14)
RIGHI SGENE (R10) (BODY 2. IS X:13 x:1 X:11 %:8 x:15)
(BODY 3. IS X88 x\&2 x:10)
(BODY 4. IS X24 x27 x212)

```

For each of the eight bodies, we compute its minimum height and its maximum height, obtaining the following intervala:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline L10 & R10 \\
\hline \(: 5\) : \(1: 4: 12 \rightarrow[66,105)\) & [67,154] \(x=3\) \%:5 \%:6 \%: 14 \\
\hline \(: 6: 15: 7: 11: 14 \rightarrow[79,120]\) & [78,119] x: 13 \% 21 \% 111 \%:9 \%: 15 \\
\hline \(: 8: 9: 10: 3 \rightarrow[68,152]\) & \([65,103) \sim 488 \times 82 \chi \% 10\) \\
\hline :2 :13 \(\longrightarrow[21,82)\) & \([22,82) \leftarrow x=4 \times 87 \times 212\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These intervals are compared (left with right), trying to find pairs with discrepancies between their values tolerably small [if the interval has an open end, differences can be largerl. For 'LiO - R10', these are
\[
\begin{aligned}
{[66,105) } & =[65,103) \\
{[79,120] } & =[78,119] \\
{[68,152] } & =[67,154] \\
{[21,82) } & =[22,82)
\end{aligned}
\]
that corresponds to the following identification of bodies:
```

    :5 :1 :4:12 corresponds to %:8 %:2 %:10
    :6 : 15 :7 : \& : 14 corresponds to %:13 %:1 %:11 %:9 % \& 15
:8 :9 : 10 : 3 corresponds to %:3 %:5 %:6 %:14
:2 :13 corresponds to %:4 %:7 %:12

```

Once these correspondences between objects in the two images are found, the function (WHERR ...) \{Griffith\} will position these bodies in three-dimensional space, achieving our goal.


When I started to work on these problems, the idea was to describe an object by using a model, and with this model in memory, to search the scene looking for sub-parts of it that would fit the description.

This work ended (as far as this thesis is concerned) with a program that finds bodies without having a model of them.

But that is good.

We did not know at the beginning that this could be done.

\section*{LOOKING AHEAD}
a. Suggestions for further work
b. Comments
c. Recommendations

A11 these matters are normally encountered at the end of the work
f. Evaluation
g. Extensions and Implications

I can only partially lump all these important matters in one final section; many times \(I\) cite them in context, that is, next to the figure or subject that evokes them, or with which they are most closely related. As a result, they are spread through the body of this dissertation.

Also,
(1) The box SUGGESTION appears through this thesis near a
partially unsolved or partially formulated problem, and/or its partially outlined or partially new solution.
(2) In page 256 there is a list of such suggestion boxes.
(3) The remaining portion of this section and, in general, the sections close to the end of this work, abound in statements of type (a.) through (g.).
(4) I have tried to start each section with a brief, and end it with a summary or cunclusion.
(5) The section 'Introduction' (page 10) specifies the problems treated in this thesis, and the section 'Preliminary view of Scene Analysis' (page 14) produces a general view of available methods. may develop a notation that will look like
(WHEN A (Y A) (B :1 C :3 D :2)
D ( \(\mathrm{K}(\mathrm{A} F \ldots\) ) \()(\mathrm{A}: 3 \mathrm{E}: 4 \mathrm{~F}\) :2)
THEN
PUT LINK KIND \(3 \quad: 3\)
HO LITK :1 :2 )
"When \(A\) is a vertex of type ' \(Y\) ', and
\(D\) is a vertex of type ' \(K\) ', and
\(A\) and \(D\) are joined as specified,
put a link of kind 3 between region \(; 3\) and 84 , and
do not put a link between :2 and :1,"

The general notation is
(WHEAT \(\mathbf{P} \quad \mathbf{E} \quad \mathbf{E}^{\prime}\) )
"when predicate \(P\) is satisfied, evaluate expression \(E\) (execute E ), otherwise execute \(\mathrm{E}^{\prime}\) (which may be missing)".

In this notation, the predicate \(P\) corresponds to a geometric pattern or configuration, and the expressions \(E\) and \(E^{\prime}\) to the estam blishment or removal of links.

In SEIE, this part is handled by LISP functions (hand-coded), one for each particular heuristic. The suggestion is to develop this general notation, and an interpreter for it. This will speed up programming and checking, but will slow down the execution to some extent.

Use
The main use of the new notation or language is for trying new heuristics. Actually, it is not difficult to hand-code the new heuristic in LISP (see function EVBRTICES in listings), because everything reduces to calls to NOSABO, THROUGHIES, GEV, SUME, etc. I was thinking that a simple MACRO of Lisp could transform from notation (WHER P E E') to LISP functional calls.

Since what the notation or language is really doing is expressing as a linear string a two-dimensional configuration \(\mathcal{X}\), a more ambitious project would be to use the light pen and draw this configuration, and then have our interpreter or compiler produce the LISP program. This may look a little like AMBIT-G \{Christensen\}.

Problem. SEE has separated a scene into bodies. What are they? Is there a pyramid among them? Where are the parallelepipeds?

To answer this, information can be supplied to the program, in the form of a symbolic description or model of the object we are trying to find. A model is an idealized account of a class of objects, all receiving the same name, like "triangular pyramid" or "house". Models may have parameters that acquire values after a given instance of the model has been found in a scene. Examples are "height" or "length of bottom side".

Some programs that follow the above procedure to name objects in a scene are described and discussed in a Master's Thesis \{Guzmán\}. There are difficult problems to be solved if we are to make the system able to recognize occluded objects in many situations.

One could, of course, bypass SEE and look for particular objects, as it is done by Polybrick \{Hawaii 69\}, a program that finds parallelepipeds.
trying to solve a problem, people will apply quite different methods. They may also suppose quite different assumptions, some of which may not hold. Due to particular experience, environment, preferences, etc., some subjects may be using over-specialized assumptions, instead of requesting more data, more information to solve the problem. We may bias our views and risk arriving at conclusions (of the "common sense" type) which are valid only on restricted segments of populations, or in particular conditions or situations.

Holes. For instance, if most of the readers of this thesis [technical specialists, who have learned to read, are interested in graphical processing and computers, etc; who may not be considered a representative cross-section of Homo Sapiens] perceive "objects" a, b and \(c\) of' figure 'HOLES' as holes \{Winston\}, we may be tempted to conclude that this is a general property, and rush to write a


Fig. 'HOLES'
The idea that objects \(a, b, c\) have to be interpreted by all men, and hence by a program, as holes in the larger box, is dangerous. \{cf. AI Memo 163\}
subroutine to find such orifices. Perhaps other sectors of our population would simply say, with respect to \(a, b, c\), of figure 'HOLES' that "there is not enough information to make a decision" (see also section 'On optical illusions'). Or they may come with
different answers, using their set of assumptions which may be different from ours, since their experience is different too. The Ames' Room (see Box, page 201) and Gregory (see Box) warn us of this.

Other example of over-specialization
For people familiar with
Descriptive Geometry, it is easy to see that figure 'DESCRIPTIVE' (I) shows a straight line in the first octant. For them, indeed, it is easy to visualize this line in three dimensions and have a fairly good idea of its position and orientation in space, just from figure (I).

Other persons would need a more conventional figure, such as figure 'DESCRIPTIVE' (II), to viaualize the same line, to get the same idea.

What happened was that the first group of persons were using especialized knowledge, their mind were trained, figure (I) was familiar to them, etc.

(I)


Conclusion Before looking for heuristics and shortcuts, before making assumptions, deductions, etc., let us be sure that there is enough data to solve our problem. line-drawing of a three-dimensional scene, the problem of finding bodies in it is inherently ambiguous: many 3-dim scenes can generate the same \(2-\) dim scene.

Multiple solutions are possible. More over, the metatheorem of page 39 guarantees that a solution always exists, and provides ways to construct it. We call this solution "trivial"; in effect it is trivial to write a computer program that will invariably find it.

From the multitude of possible solutions, human beings select one, which is * different from the trivial, and call it "normal" or "common" or "standard" or "reasonable" interpretation of the scene.

Our program SEE also selects one of the many solutions. How does its selection compare with the human choice?
\(=\). When the scene is "clear", in the sense of evoking human unanimity, SEE will* also select that same answer. Example: Figure 'TOWER'.
\(=\) As the scene or drawing gets complicated or ambiguous, mortal behavior deteriorates; opinions split, optical illusions may emerge
(indicating contradictory evidence perceived), several plausible answers are emitted.

The answer of SEE in these cases wil1 * be found among the humanly plausible selections. In some cases, it may not agree with the majority.
\(=\) Finally, people make mistakes. They will see an object that is not there, or will fail to see an object, or classify it as "impossible".

But SEE also errs. It sometimes succeeds where people fail, more often it is the other way around.

\footnotetext{
In an overwhelming majority of cases.
}

TABLE "ASSUMPTIONS"

\section*{ASSUMPTIONS MADE BY THE PROGRAM}

These assumptions have to be obeyed for SEE to give good results:
\(=\) The objects are three-dimensional solids formed by planes (1). No needles or cardboards allowed.
\(=\) They produce a two-dimensional image or projection where all lines are straight \({ }^{\text {(2) }}\).
= Faces have no drawings, marks, labels, etc., imprinted on.
\(=\) Objects do not have holes in them.

1 See section 'On optical illusions' for conditions for partial lifting of this assumption.

2 See section 'On curved objects' for conditions for partial lifting of this assumption.

\section*{ASSUMPTIONS HOT MADE DY THE PROERAM}

These assumptions are not necessary for the correct functioning of SEE; it will work well with or without them.
\(=\) Only prisms are allowed.
me The scene is a parallel projection, or isometric drawing.
\(=\) The objects are convex.
\(=\) The model or description of the object has to be known to SER.
= The objects have to appear unoccluded or unobstructed in the view.
\(=\) = The objects have "weight" in the vertical direction and will fall if not supported.
= The background is known in advance (See 'On background discrimination by computer').

I repeat, these assumptions are NOT obeyed by our program.

\section*{LIST OF SUGGESTIONS}

PAGE

75
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\footnotetext{
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NOTES: Reports with AD numbers (such as AD-652-017, page 286) can also be obtained as follows:
Government contractors may obtain copies of this report from the Defense Documentation Center, Document Service Center, Cameron Station, Alexandria, Virginia 22314 . Orders will be expedited from DDC if placed by your librarian, or some other person authorized to request documents.
Other U.S. citizens and organizations may obtain copies of this report from the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information (CFSTI), Sills Building, 5285 Port Royal Road, Springfield, Virginia 22151.
Comm.ACM = Communications of the Association for Computing Machinery.
Proc. FJCC \(=\) Proceedings of the Fall Joint Computer Conference
Proc. SJCC \(=\) Id. Spring. (Spartan Books, or Thompson Books, Co. Washington, D. C.)

You do not have to know these things in order to use SEE (reading 'How to use the program' in page 78 is enough) or to understand what it does (it is explained in 'SEF, program that finds bodies in a scene', page 58); these things are put here merely for completeness and to make easier the understanding of the inner workinge of SEE.

A listing is a formal description
however. A listing of the programs is formal deacription, an algorithm, an exact statement in a formal language of what we may have been describing, perhaps inaccurately, in a natural language (English). It becomes the starting point of serious discussions. The reader who is skeptical at some point, or did not understand some English statesent, can always clarify his doubts in the listing. To be understandable; the listing has to have annotations, coments.

A mathematician is not forced to explain his work always in natural language, but rather he is allowed to employ abstract notations, symbolisms, formalifations of his thoughte (indeed, it is preferable this way). A programmer should not hide hia listinge (he should not be forced to re*state his algorithms in natural language exclusively \(\{\) 681) and force his readers to use the ambiguous channels of his natural language communication.

And this brings another point. Not only a programmer should not hide the listing (unless there aren buga or incomplete subroutines), but he should not hide the programe (unless they are banal); by this I mean honest and reasonable efforts should be made to facilitate fu ture potential users the access to these prograna. Include:

\section*{= Documentation}
= Listings, tape or card deck nemes, etc.
\(=\) Test data
= Printout of an interaction with such test data, including loading, compilation, execution, results.
\(=\) Time spent (by machine and by man).
See also R. Kain's letter \{C. Acm March 67\}.


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Adolfo Guzmán Arenas was born in Ixtaltepec, Oax., México on July 22, 1943. He entered the Escuela Superior de Ingenieria Mecánica y Eléctrica (ESTME) of the Ingtituto Politécnico Nacional in 1961 and, after defending the thesis "CONVERT - Design of a language for symbolic manipulation of data and of its corresponding processor", received from them the degree "Commanications and Electronics Engineer' in 1965. During all his stay in the ESIME, he was receiving a scholarship from the Politécnico. He is a Registered Engineer (I. C. E.), according to Mexican law .

During 1964 (his last year in college) he held a part time programing job at the Computing Center of the Politécnico; he was sent to University of Florida (Gainesville), Stanford University (Cal.) and System Development Co. (Cal.) to learn different computing systems and languages. The first half of 1965 wase epent at the Physica Department of the Centro de Investigación y Estudios Avanzados of the Politécnico, as a "technical assistant."

For his graduate studies, Adolfo Gumin entered the Electrical Engineering Department of the Massachuaetts Inatitute of Technology in September 1965, becoming also a member (research aseistant) of the Project MAC staff, a computer-oriented inter-departmental laboratory, and became associated with the Artificial Intelligence Group of M. I. T.

After completing a thesis "Some Aspects of Pattern Recognition by Computer" he was awarded the degree of Master of Science in Electrical Engineering in 1967.

He has accepted a position as an Asiatant Professor in the Department of Electrical Engineering at M.I.T. beginning February 1969. Within his research interests are computer applications and problem solving, man-mehine interaction, heuristic prograning and graphical information processing, the latter being the subjects of his doctoral dissertation.

He is a member of the Association for Computing Machinery and the Inatitute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers.
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\footnotetext{
* Published
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[^0]:    * Adapted from Status Report II \{Minsky 67\}. See also Project MAC Progress Report $\{1967,1968\}$.

[^1]:    * This paragraph, which can be skipped if it is known what a property list is, W11 make the next section clearer.

[^2]:    'PEAK'.- Formed by four or more lines, when there is an angle bigger than $180^{\circ}$.

