

---

# Paradigmatic Revolutions in Computer Vision

---

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

## Abstract

1 Kuhn's groundbreaking Structure divides scientific progress into four phases, the  
2 pre-paradigm period, normal science, scientific crisis and revolution. Most of the  
3 time a field advances incrementally, constrained and guided by a currently agreed  
4 upon paradigm following an implicit set of rules. Creative phases emerge when  
5 phenomena occur which lack satisfactory explanation within the current paradigm  
6 (the crisis) until a new one replaces it (the revolution). This model of science was  
7 mainly laid out by exemplars from natural science, while we want to show that  
8 Kuhn's work is also applicable for information sciences. We analyze the state  
9 of one field in particular, computer vision, using Kuhn's vocabulary. Following  
10 significant technology-driven advances of machine learning methods in the age of  
11 deep learning, researchers in computer vision were eager to accept the models that  
12 now dominate the state of the art. We discuss the current state of the field especially  
13 in light of the deep learning revolution and argue that current deep learning methods  
14 cannot fully constitute a paradigm for computer vision in the Kuhnian sense.

## 15 1 Introduction

16 Kuhn's seminal Structure of Scientific Revolutions (Kuhn, 1970), which he himself simply referred  
17 to as Structure, marked a shift on how science is perceived not just by the larger public sphere  
18 but by scientists themselves. From seeing science as the ethereal pursuit of knowledge and truth,  
19 undertaken by scientists who uphold themselves to strict principles, follow rational judgements and  
20 are untouched by trends or personal benefits, to a more honest and realistic description, that sees  
21 scientists as human beings in a much larger societal context and less as infallible truth-seekers. Kuhn's  
22 Structure also introduced and cemented the concept of paradigms into scientific discourse across the  
23 fields. Scientific fields and practitioners working under a paradigm, or in normal science, have a clear  
24 world-view through which they perceive their field, a set mode of operation with a number of proven  
25 models available to them and engage in puzzle-solving activities for minuscule advances.

26 The recent revolution in artificial intelligence (AI) driven by deep learning (DL) has already brought  
27 a significant number of new technologies for humankind. But DL has not only introduced self-  
28 driving cars, enabled mobile robots, advanced speech translation and recognition algorithms, it is  
29 also beginning to fundamentally change the way scientists operate. In this work we study the strong  
30 impact DL has had on the computing field of computer vision in recent years. Particularly we observe  
31 how the field is at a paradigmatic crossroads right now due to the DL revolution.

32 The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: We first briefly explain Kuhn's idea of paradigm-  
33 matic science. We then shed light on the recent revolution in AI through deep learning. We show how  
34 this impacted the computer vision field, before giving concluding remarks.

## 35 1.1 Kuhn's Structure and Paradigms

36 Kuhn's Structure (Kuhn, 1970) introduced an entirely new vocabulary to the scientific community.  
37 His concept of paradigms was especially present — it has been noted that he used paradigm in  
38 over twenty distinct ways (Masterman, 1970). He later explicitly gave two meanings, firstly as a  
39 disciplinary matrix, i.e. constellation of beliefs, values, techniques and methods shared by researchers  
40 of any given community. In the other sense as an exemplar, a scientific theory or achievement of  
41 such magnitude and generality, that models derived from it are capable of versatile puzzle solving for  
42 an extended time in the respective research field (Kuhn, 1996). Kuhn argued that science consists  
43 of 95% normal or boring science, where scientists tackle puzzles that they know have an attainable  
44 solution, can envision the solution and then set out to solve it. They work following a paradigm, the  
45 mode of operating of that field at that time. A number of distinct stages can then be observed in the  
46 cycle of the sciences according to Kuhn:

- 47 1. **Pre-Science:** There is no real consensus and (mathematical) fundamentals are often debated.  
48 Activities are diverse, a large number of theories exist, many theories are tailored to fit a  
49 certain subset of observations.
- 50 2. **Normal Science:** The most prevalent stage, a paradigm has been established, consensus  
51 reached, there is little criticism of the theory, some anomalies occur but are brushed aside as  
52 such.
- 53 3. **Crisis:** The number of anomalies can no longer be simply explained-away. The prevailing  
54 theory is under attack from all sides. It requires extraordinary science of gifted individuals,  
55 often young or from other fields, to resolve.
- 56 4. **Revolution:** A new paradigm has been shown to have merit and its slow adoption begins,  
57 but largely not because of logically sound justifications but more so psychological whims.

58 For Kuhn, a scientific field only occupies the pre-science or pre-paradigm stage once, shortly after its  
59 inception. Once a paradigm has been established, normal science takes place until there are too many  
60 inexplicable observations or anomalies for the current paradigm and the field is at the stage of crisis.  
61 Sooner or later a new paradigm is developed and the slow adoption of it begins. During and after a  
62 revolution, Kuhn realized that not everyone accepts the new paradigm immediately. In fact he dryly  
63 states that older theories or paradigms often only die with their proponents themselves. We can see  
64 that for some time in this revolution stage, the field is also marked by strong disagreements over the  
65 new theory, perhaps due to insufficient understanding, perhaps due to the new vocabulary introduced.  
66 The activity is disorganized and no consensus is reached.

67 Although Kuhn's ideas have largely stood up to the test of time so far one common criticism of  
68 Kuhn's work was his overemphasis on using examples from the natural sciences, specifically physics,  
69 as at the time of writing physics had been the leading science for a couple of centuries and Kuhn  
70 himself was a trained physicist. Unlike natural sciences where observations of the real world are still  
71 the driving factor, in computer science, the object of interest itself has been created by humans. But  
72 this also means that all problems that are to be solved were created by humans. This is surely in the  
73 spirit of Kuhn treating normal science as "puzzle-solving"—now we are even able to create our own  
74 puzzles! As such it could be argued that the entire field of computing always has to be at a stage  
75 of normal science. In practice we know that computing is a multifaceted discipline and as such is  
76 intimately linked to and partially responsibly for advances in many other engineering and scientific  
77 fields. It is then perhaps more appropriate to ask what Kuhnian stage the specific computerized field  
78 is in.

79 Analogously, we construct our main argument of this paper: Deep learning is a strong and successful  
80 mathematical and computational paradigm, capable of general function approximation and modeling  
81 of probability distributions. Nevertheless, the science of computer vision or the computational  
82 perception akin to the human mind, concerned with complex, interdisciplinary problems far beyond a  
83 single function approximation, cannot entirely rely upon DL as a paradigm and as such, given the  
84 lack of suitable alternatives, is in a state of crisis.

## 85 1.2 Deep Learning for Large-Scale Number Crunching

86 At a similar point in time as Kuhn's Structure was written, namely the 1950s and 60s, the field of  
87 cybernetics or cybernetic devices made its first steps. It promised autonomous agents and general arti-

88 ficial intelligence within just a few years but failed to deliver on this promise. It was soon afterwards  
89 downplayed as a less glamorous discipline than symbolic AI (interpretable actions based on rules and  
90 knowledge with adequate representations) that is only concerned with the study of self-organizing  
91 artificial neural networks (Cariani, 2010): algorithms modeled after our mechanical understanding  
92 of the brain. Deep neural networks, or multi-layer perceptrons (algorithms for binary classification)  
93 with more than one hidden or intermediate layer, were already shown in 1965 (Ivakhnenko & Lapa,  
94 1965) and the idea of stacking layers spatially for increased receptive fields (region in the input  
95 space affecting a feature) à la Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) at least as early as 1980  
96 (Fukushima, 1980). Nevertheless, a number of other pieces were required to arrive where we are  
97 today at the DL revolution. As time went on following the 1960s, and rule-based systems for AI were  
98 shown to be ineffective and too cumbersome (Brooks, 1996), mathematical advances for statistical  
99 data analysis continuously contributed ideas and concepts to arrive at machine learning (ML), or  
100 deep learning with deep neural network architectures, which is largely synonymous with today's AI.  
101 After two AI winters, 2012 was finally the start of the current AI spring also called deep learning  
102 revolution (Schmidhuber, 2015). Across multiple fields, namely for biology (Dahl et al., 2014),  
103 speech recognition (Dahl et al., 2012), and classification in computer vision (Krizhevsky et al., 2012)  
104 the benchmarks were broken by deep neural networks. DNNs have proven to be extremely capable of  
105 general function approximation and the idea of gradient learning on large quantities of data powered  
106 by parallel-processing hardware is now prominent in many fields of computer science, specifically  
107 data science, in natural science (Vanderplas et al., 2012), social science (Grimmer et al., 2021) and  
108 even arts (Lyon et al., 2021). Gradient based learning or converging towards some local minimum  
109 of a cost function in combination with back-propagation is currently the only possibility to make  
110 machine learning algorithms learn that is also tractable in practice although this could change in the  
111 future.

112 If one desires aforementioned exemplars to also have explanatory capabilities, that is theories that  
113 not only describe but explain the phenomena they are applied to, current learning-based methods  
114 cannot constitute a paradigm, although the emerging field of explainable AI (Samek et al., 2019)  
115 seeks to develop and study methods to make black box models interpretable to the user and advocates  
116 the use of explainable learning algorithms. In the following sections we show how gradient-based  
117 data-hungry deep learning has pushed computer vision into this limbo of relying heavily on those  
118 models yet they cannot be considered a paradigm on their own right.

## 119 **2 The State of Modern Computer Vision**

120 Visual perception enables humans to take in large amounts of information from their environment and  
121 process this information to understand their surroundings and form decisions for actions. The field  
122 of computer vision is dedicated to artificially reproducing this perception capability, a necessity for  
123 embodied AI such as mobile robots. It was originally perceived to be a simple problem but over the  
124 following decades it was realized that computational perception is a very complex field with many  
125 connections to neuropsychology, gestalt principles, optics, colour theory and other fields. Marr's 1982  
126 posthumously published book *Vision: A Computational Investigation into the Human Representation  
127 and Processing of Visual Information* (Marr, 1982) is regarded as a classic for cognitive scientists and  
128 computational visionists alike. Any theory would need to work on different levels of analysis, the  
129 computational, algorithmic and hardware implementation level independently. As mentioned in the  
130 afterword, if the book were to be rewritten today Marr would certainly dedicate a chapter to learning  
131 approaches. Marr's bold computational approach to studying vision, with his idea of using tokens  
132 or low level features such as oriented edges for what he called the primal sketch, and using these  
133 tokens for subsequent processes such as object recognition excited a number of researchers in the  
134 field. For a long time hand-crafted features were the driving force of research, that is expert-built  
135 algorithms to extract specific features such as corners and edges from images and much effort was  
136 put into designing the optimal filters. Interest only gradually shifted away, with the realization that  
137 this approach is too rigid for real world images. Let us now observe some more concrete examples  
138 how the word paradigm has appeared in CV literature up to now.

139 The seminal work of RANCSAC (random sample consensus) from 1981 promised and delivered a  
140 "paradigm for model fitting with applications to image analysis [...]" (Fischler & Bolles, 1981).  
141 It is still today used as a way to discard outliers in a set of observations to more accurately fit a  
142 parameterized mathematical model to a set of observations. In the ten years later published review

143 paper for robust regression methods in CV (Meer et al., 1991), RANSAC is also continuously referred  
144 to as a paradigm. It stands to reason, that RANSAC really is the only work in CV that could constitute  
145 a paradigm in Kuhn’s sense. At the very least as an exemplar and possible also as a disciplinary  
146 matrix.

147 Ten further years later, De La Torre & Black, 2001 argued that “the automated learning of low-  
148 dimensional linear models from training data has become a standard paradigm in CV”. It has  
149 always been noted that images are very high-dimensional objects (a FullHD image for example  
150 is just a 2D grid-based ordering of data points in  $1920 \times 1080$  or 2073600 dimensional space).  
151 Many of those dimensions strongly correlate and methods of learning low-dimensional embeddings  
152 via dimensionality reduction such as principal component analysis have proven successful. Here,  
153 paradigm is more used in the sense of a disciplinary matrix and less as an exemplar because no single  
154 work or achievement possibly encompasses the entirety of linear models.

155 In Klette & Reulke, 2005 a number of paradigm shifts are discussed for modeling 3D scenes, from  
156 the related fields of photogrammetry, remote sensing and computer vision. They use Kuhn’s original  
157 definition of paradigm from the 1962 version of Structure but quickly go on to derive their own  
158 definition as a “paradigm shift characterized by gradual transitions in a period of several years, leaving  
159 basic knowledge unchanged, but adding completely new opportunities” (Klette & Reulke, 2005).  
160 This describes an evolutionary rather than revolutionary sequence, which is different from Kuhn’s  
161 original notion. Finally, post DL revolution in the year 2015, Ros et al. propose an offline-online  
162 perception paradigm for autonomous driving. Their work, while certainly useful at the time, cannot  
163 be understood as a paradigm in either of Kuhn’s definitions.

164 So as time goes on, the rigor with which Kuhn’s concept and vocabulary is applied seems to diminish.  
165 Today, although other sensing modalities exist, images are still the main workhorse of many CV  
166 algorithms with the general motivation that lower-dimensional representations of an image still  
167 hold much information of the images content. CNNs as variants of DNNs provide such feature  
168 representations and this can be seen as a natural continuation from earlier feature engineering or  
169 learning of lower-dimensional representations. Nevertheless, we argue that deep learning models  
170 alone cannot, and more importantly should not be treated as a paradigm for CV research.

171 As mentioned earlier, DNNs have taken loose inspiration from neuroscience but our current un-  
172 derstanding of the brain is too limited to create a computational copy. Similarly in the opposite  
173 direction, CNNs have done little to explain how our brain processes percepts, because our technical  
174 representation via discrete 2D images is nowhere near how human perception, with the inclusion of  
175 memory, works. As such, since its inception there were no generally accepted theories in vision to  
176 answer most cognitive problems although the ideas of (Marr, 1982) provided some answers to very  
177 simple perception phenomena. Today there are no accepted theories either. So it seems that the ideas  
178 of deep learning are no use in helping us explain human vision from a computational point of view,  
179 the original goal of CV research.

180 One might argue that modern CV research is not concerned to explain human perception. Perhaps  
181 CV is more of an engineering field, because so many useful things are directly enabled by it, think  
182 of mobile robots, self-driving cars or motion capture systems. Perhaps gradient-based learning and  
183 CNNs can be considered a paradigm in this application-focused, pragmatic and industry-driven scope?  
184 But even here the discourse is too heated, there is too little consensus, there are too many problems  
185 pointed out by people all across the field. There is the problem of brittleness, that is CNN models  
186 can be easily tricked, the problem of data dependency which naturally means models as theories are  
187 only partially transferable to other observations, there are ecological and economical problems due to  
188 energy consumption, we are receiving diminishing returns from training very large-scale models, the  
189 number of theorists and theories (models) is seemingly similar with new architectures populating  
190 the zoo every minute, there are ethical considerations which stand in the way of adoption in many  
191 real-world cases, there is the problem of model opaqueness and finally the natural world is inherently  
192 uncertain and many of these models struggle with the high variance in real world scenes. All this  
193 means that many algorithms might perform well on laboratory test datasets, but fall short in many  
194 applications in the real world. Surely all these are symptoms a mature vision paradigm should not  
195 have. Thus, learning-based methods alone are also insufficient in creating a perception system for the  
196 real world.

197 Nevertheless, one argument can be made that DL models constitute a paradigm in CV, at least in one  
198 sense of the word. Because it has been so successful in delivering models that break many visual

199 dataset benchmarks, which is still the dominant way to mark progress in the field and thus the primary  
200 incentive for new publications, it has found widespread adoption amongst researchers and acts as a  
201 disciplinary matrix. It is now largely impossible to do computer vision research without including  
202 some concepts from DL but these neural network architectures should be seen only as tools to an  
203 end and never as the goal itself. In this way, CV research will be able to progress towards proper  
204 computational perception for intelligent systems.

205 In summary, while the application of deep neural networks for computer vision tasks has yielded sub-  
206 stantial improvements on laboratory benchmarks, this cannot realistically be considered a paradigm  
207 for computer vision especially in light of its original goals of providing computational explanations  
208 for the processes of visual perception in cognitive sciences but also for the more application oriented  
209 side of modern CV.

### 210 3 Conclusions

211 We analyzed a potential beginning paradigmatic shift in the Kuhnian sense for the computing field  
212 of computer vision induced by the deep learning revolution of the last decade. While computer  
213 vision was part of this revolution from the beginning, there are still many unresolved fundamental  
214 issues—brittleness, explainability, and generalization of the used neural networks—which we believe  
215 are necessary to be satisfactorily addressed by a mature paradigm. The question in this context  
216 is whether deep learning alone can solve the challenge of perceiving and understanding vision or  
217 whether it must be extended by further, yet to be discovered, means.

### 218 References

- 219 [1] Kuhn, T.S. (1970) *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 220 [2] Masterman, M. (1965) Criticism and the Growth of Knowledge: The Nature of a Paradigm.  
221 *Proceedings of the International Colloquium in the Philosophy of Science*, London.
- 222 [3] Kuhn, T.S. (1996) *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions (3rd edition)*. Chicago: University of  
223 Chicago Press.
- 224 [4] Cariani, P. (2010) On the Importance of Being Emergent. *Constructivist Foundations* 5(2):86-91.
- 225 [5] Ivakhnenko, A. & Lapa, V. (1965) *Cybernetic predicting devices*. New York: CCM Information  
226 Corp..
- 227 [6] Fukushima, K. (1980) Neocognitron A self-organizing neural network model for a mechanism of  
228 pattern recognition unaffected by shift in position. *Biological Cybernetics* 36(4):193-202.
- 229 [7] Brooks, F.P. (1996) The Computer Scientist as Toolsmith II. *Communications of the ACM*  
230 39(3):61-68.
- 231 [8] Schmidhuber, J. (2015) Deep learning in neural networks: An overview. *Neural Networks*  
232 61:85-117.
- 233 [9] Dahl, G.E. & Jaitly, N. & Salatkutdinov, R. (2014) Multi-task Neural Networks for QSAR  
234 Predictions. *arXiv:1406.1231*.
- 235 [10] Dahl, G.E. & Yu, D. & Deng, L. & Acero, A. (2012) Context-dependent pre-trained deep  
236 neural networks for large-vocabulary speech recognition. *IEEE Transactions on Audio, Speech and*  
237 *Language Processing* 20(1):30-42.
- 238 [11] Krizhevsky, A. & Sutskever, I. & Hinton, G.E. (2012) ImageNet Classification with Deep  
239 Convolutional Neural Networks *Communications of the ACM* 60:84-90.
- 240 [12] Vanderplas, J. & Connolly, A.J. & Ivezic, Z. & Gray, A. (2012) Introduction to astroML: Machine  
241 Learning for astrophysics. *Conference on Intelligent Data Understanding (CIDU)*, pp. 47-54.
- 242 [13] Grimmer, J. & Roberts, M.E. & Stewart, B.M. (2021) Machine Learning for Social Science: An  
243 Agnostic Approach *Annual Review of Political Science* 24:395-419.

244 [14] Lyon, A. & Campagna, F. & Clarke, L.B. & Klap, R. & Milutinovic S. & Rozynek, T. &  
245 Vogelmann, V. & Zgierska, Z. (2021) LAWKI - Alive *MU Hybrid Art House Exhibition*.

246 [15] Samek, W. & Montavon, G. & Vedaldi, A. & Hansen, L.K. & Müller, K.R. (2019) *Explainable*  
247 *AI: interpreting, explaining and visualizing deep learning*. Spring Nature.

248 [16] Marr, D. (1982) *Vision: A Computational Investigation into the Human Representation and*  
249 *Processing of Visual Information*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.

250 [17] Fischler, M.A. & Bolles, R.C. (1981) Random sample consensus: a paradigm for model  
251 fitting with applications to image analysis and automated cartography *Communications of the ACM*  
252 **24**(6):381-395.

253 [18] Meer, P. & Mintz, D. & Rosenfeld, A. & Kim, D.Y. (1991) Robust regression methods for  
254 computer vision: A review *International Journal of Computer Vision* **6**(1):59-70.

255 [19] De La Torre, F. & Black, M.J. (2001) Robust principal component analysis for computer vision  
256 *International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pp. 361-369.

257 [20] Klette, R. & Reulke, R. (2005) Modeling 3D Scenes: Paradigm Shifts in Photogrammetry,  
258 Remote Sensing and Computer Vision.

259 [21] Ros, G. & Ramos, S. & Granados, M. & Bakhtiary, A. & Vazquez, D. & Lopez, A.M. (2015)  
260 Vision-based offline-online perception paradigm for autonomous driving *Winter Conference on*  
261 *Applications of Computer Vision (WACV)*, pp. 231-238.

## 262 Checklist

- 263 1. For all authors...
- 264 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's  
265 contributions and scope? **[Yes]** We believe we have successfully made the argument,  
266 especially in section 2, why we think DL methods cannot constitute a paradigm for CV.
- 267 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? **[Yes]** We made it clear that we limit  
268 our perspective only on the subfield of CV, although an analysis for the application of  
269 Kuhn's ideas in other computing fields could also be of interest, done by researchers  
270 with expertise in those fields.
- 271 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? **[N/A]** As this is  
272 a non-technical submission not proposing any new methods, applications or models,  
273 we do not see such a discussion as necessary or applicable.
- 274 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to  
275 them? **[Yes]** Yes, we have considered both aspects, the general ethical conduct and  
276 potential negative societal impacts and found no aspects of our work that might cause  
277 harm in either sense.