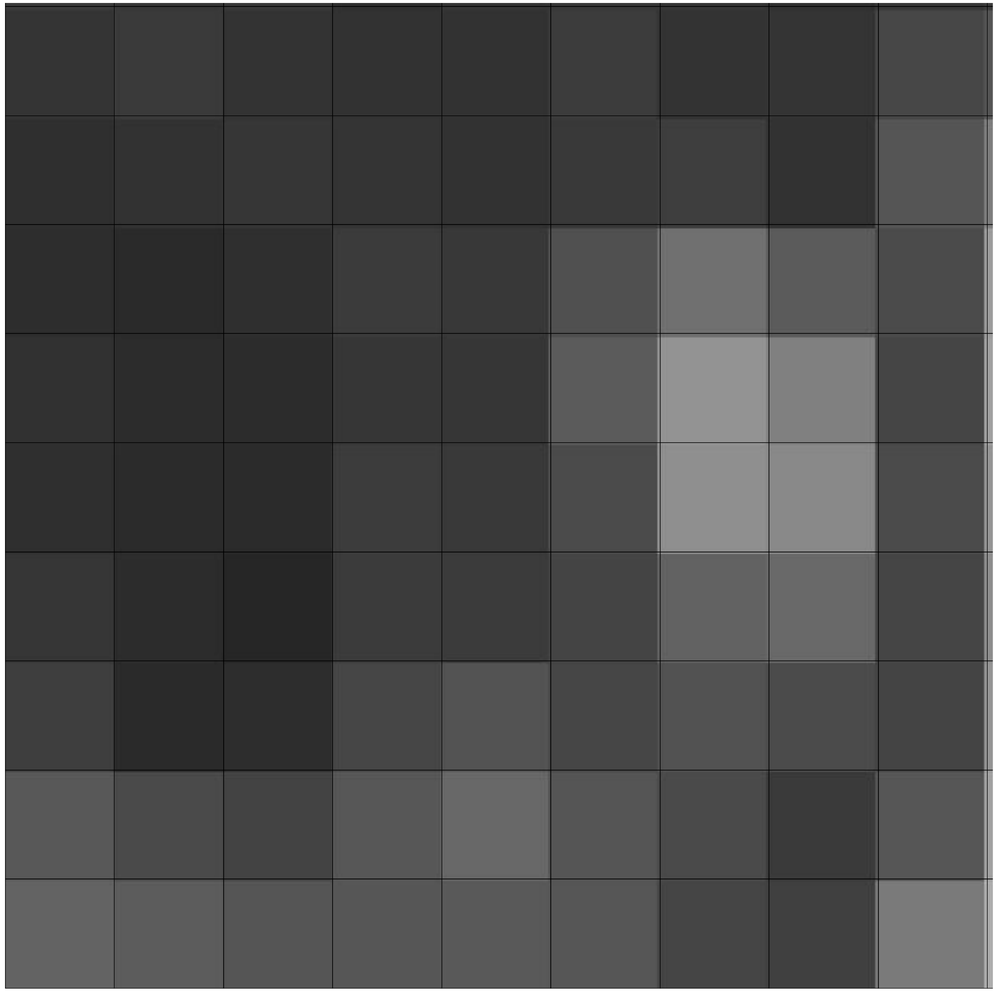
Corner Detection

Giacomo Boracchi

CVPR USI, April 7 2020

Features and Keypoints

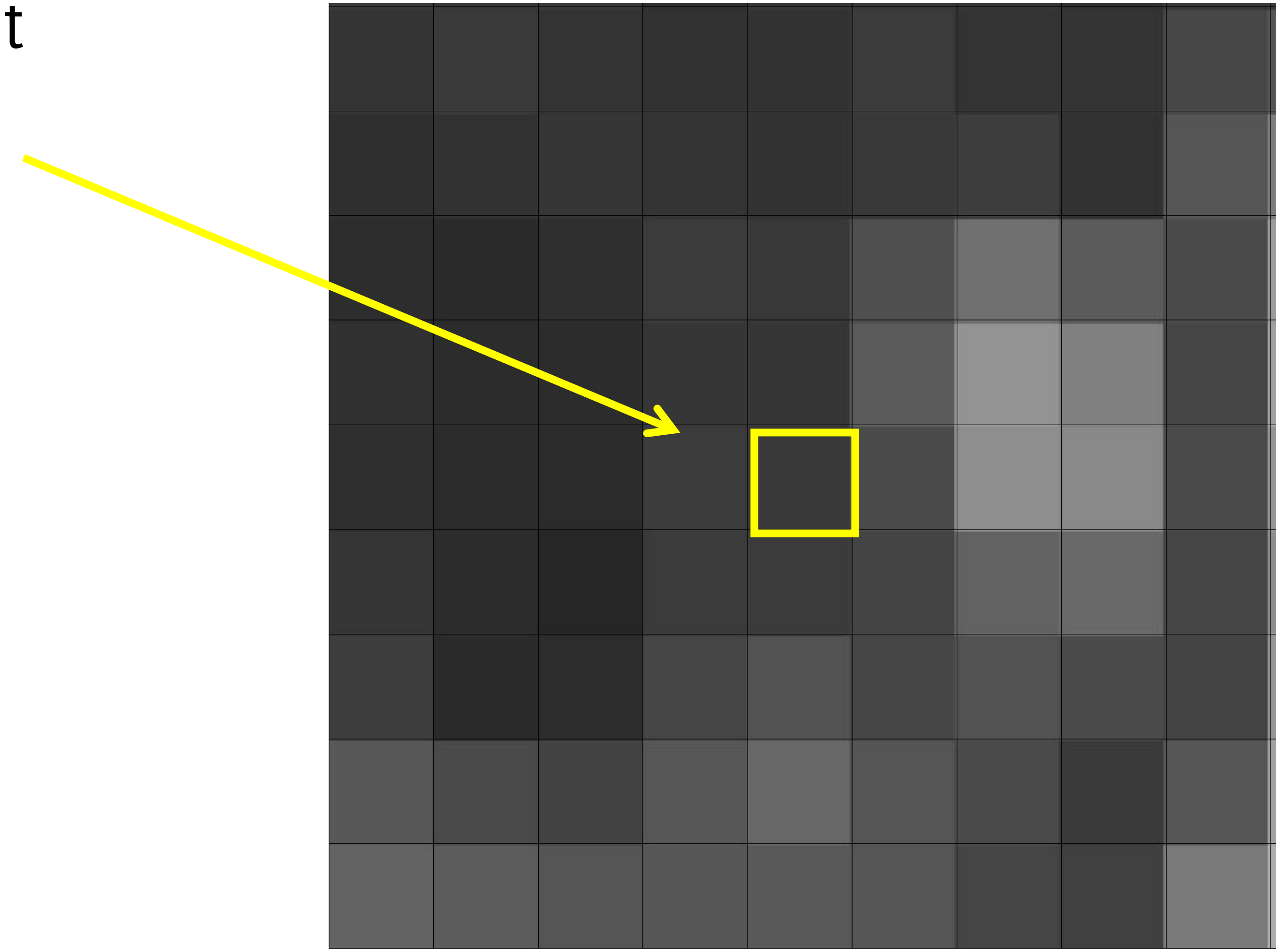
Consider an Image Patch



Features and Keypoints

Consider an Image Patch

Keypoint: The coordinates of a point where the image content is sort of relevant



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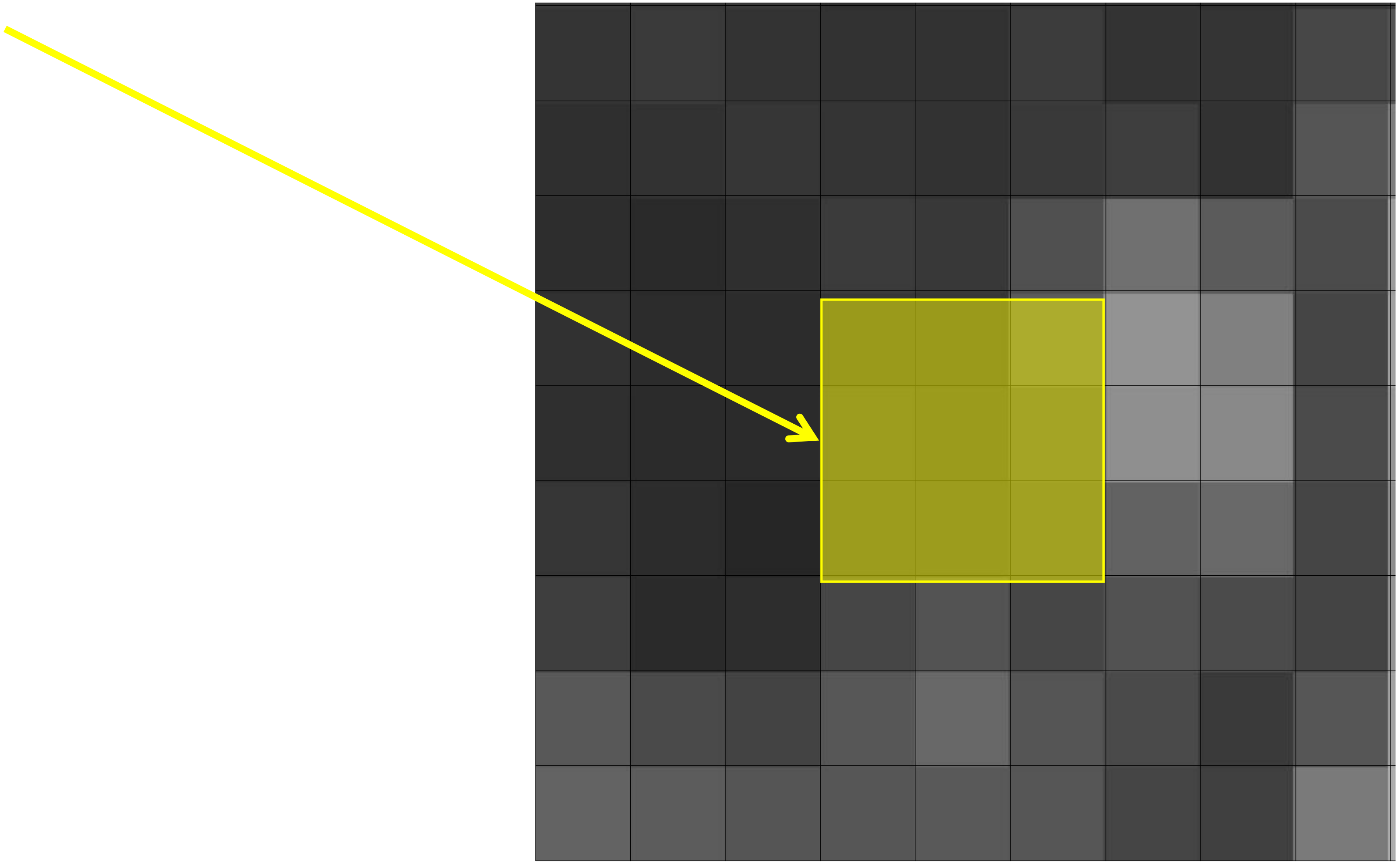
Features and Keypoints

A Feature could be

- an Keypoint neighbor

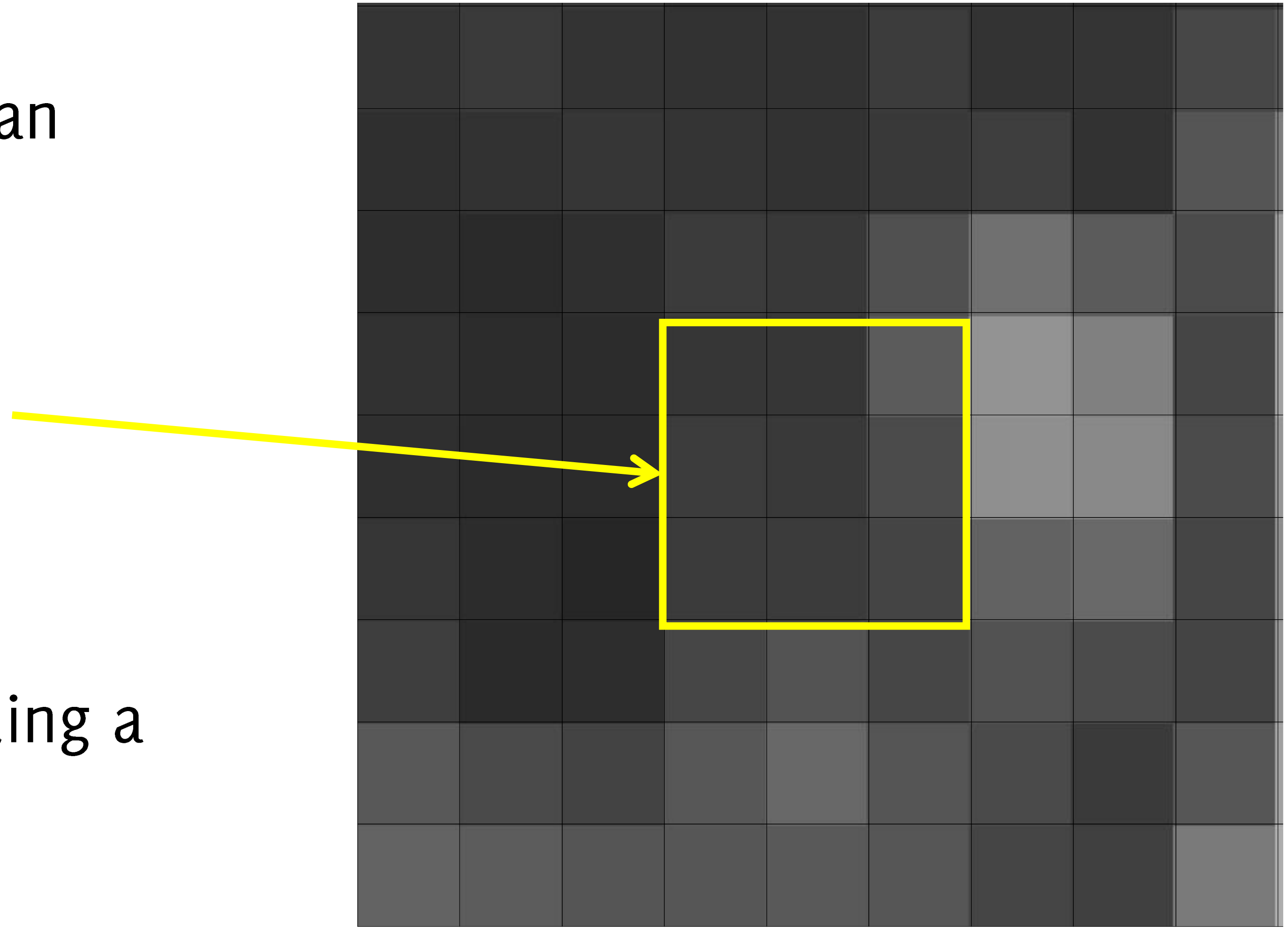


Features and Keypoints

A Feature could be

- an Keypoint neighbor
- some measures computed in an image neighbor:
    - mean
    - variance
    - principal directions
    - ...

  stacked in a vector, thus yielding a **descriptor**



Object Recognition by Computer Vision Features

Keypoint detection: identifying coordinates where the image is considered meaningful for addressing some task

Design Criteria: Keypoints have to be repeatable

Object Recognition by Computer Vision Features

Descriptor computation: compute a vector that describes the content of an image in a region around the keypoint

Design Criteria: Features have to be stable

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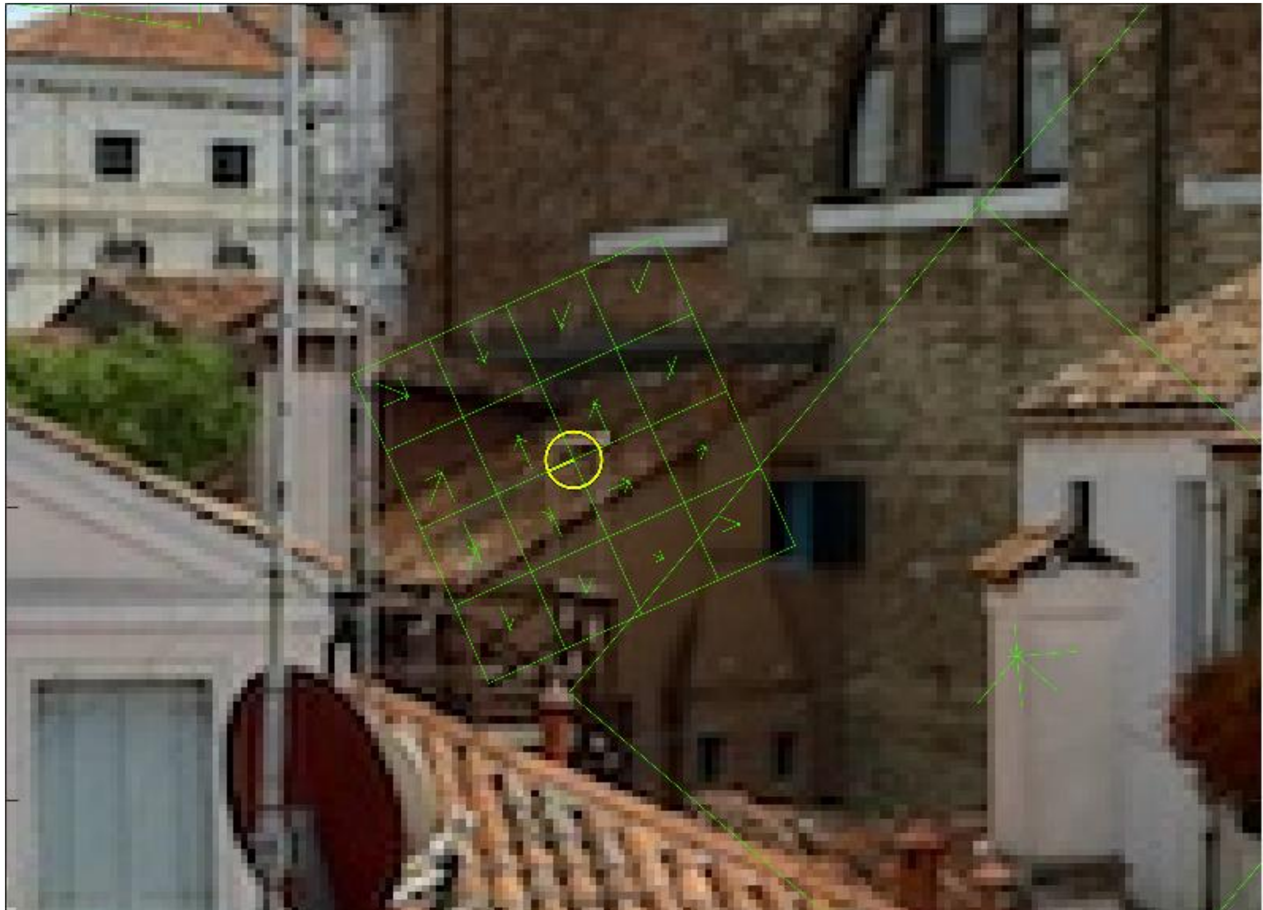
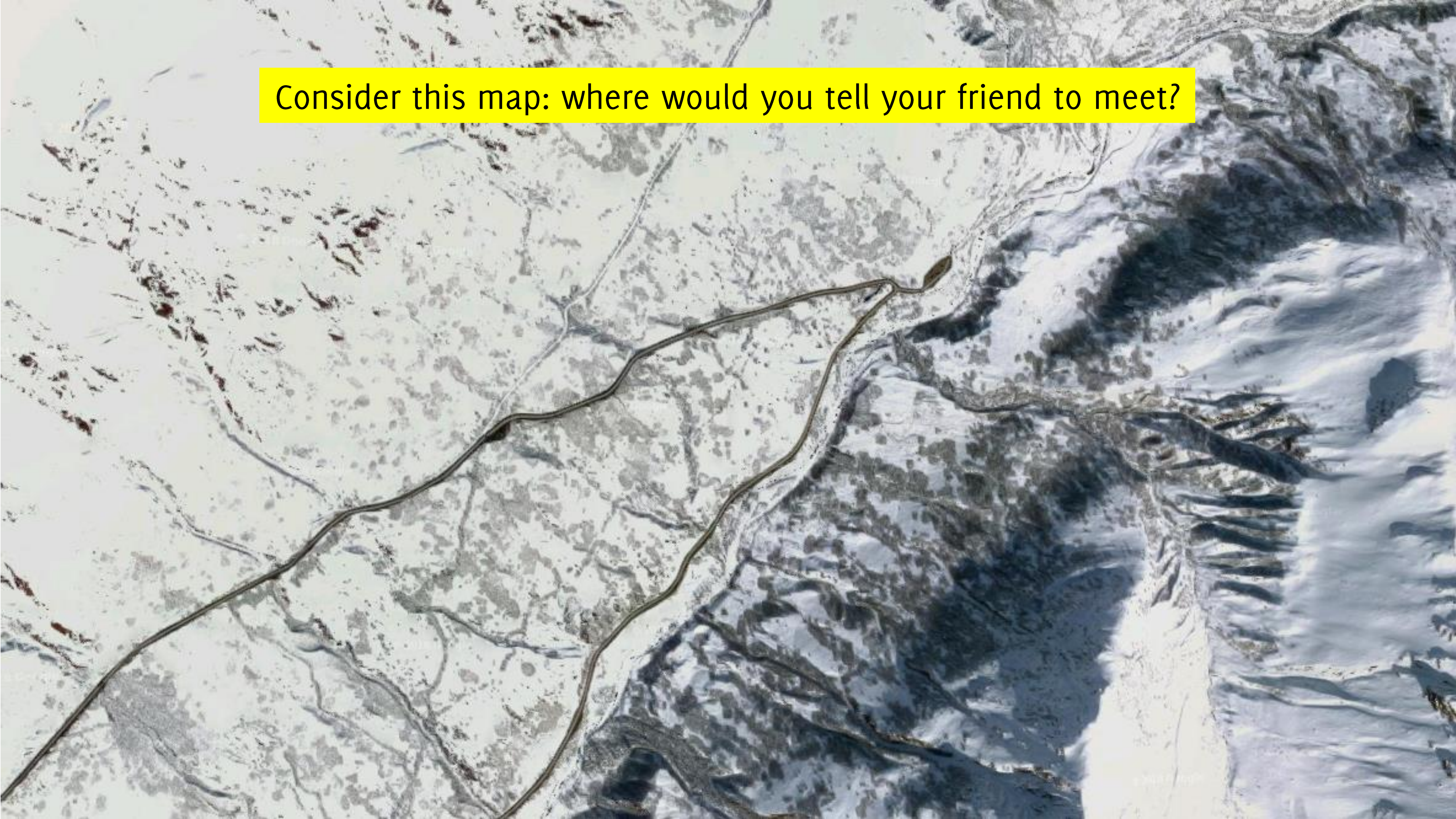
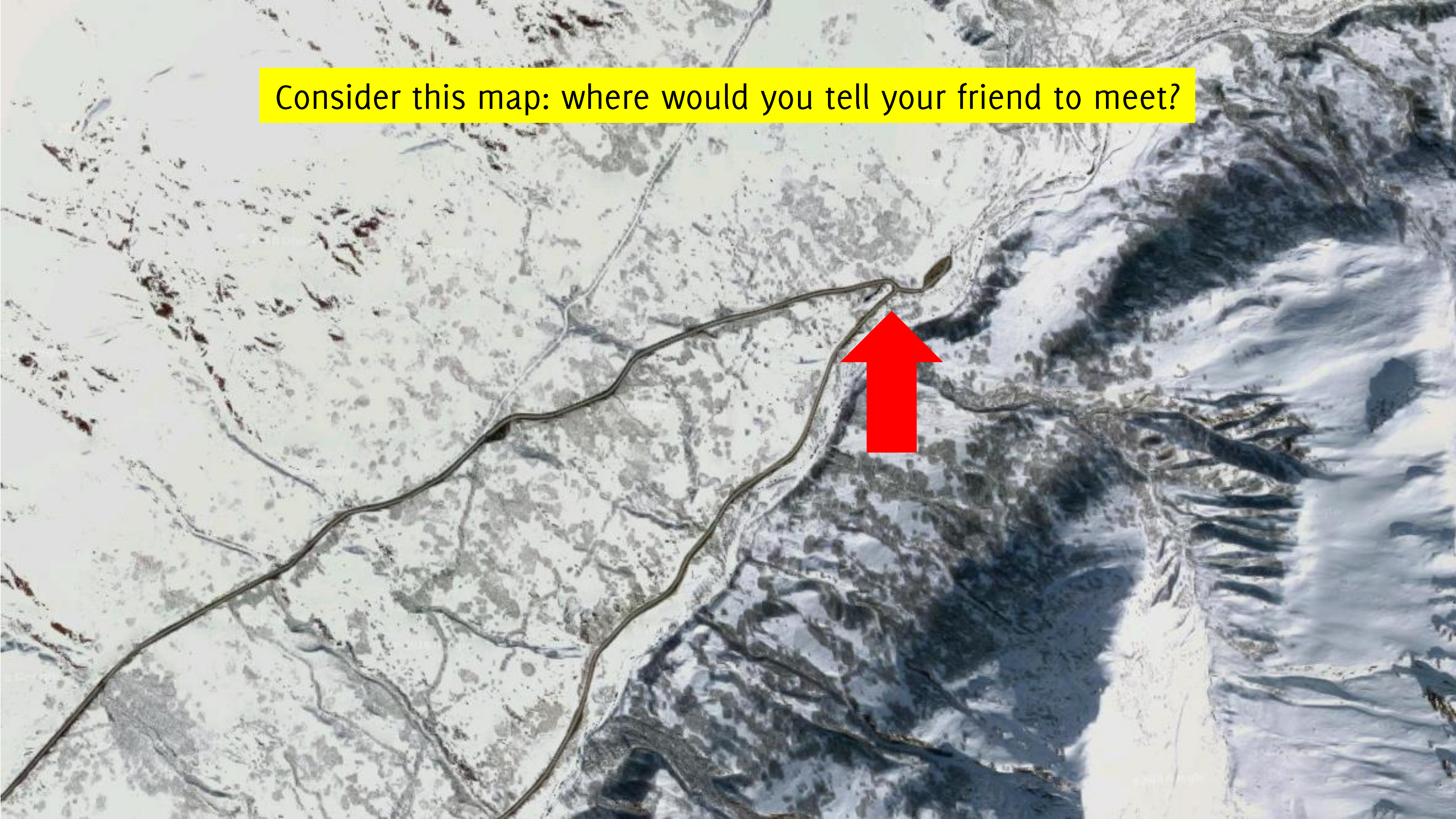


Keypoint Detection: The Rationale

The principle underpinning many corner detection algorithms


Consider this map: where would you tell your friend to meet?


Consider this map: where would you tell your friend to meet?

Keypoint Properties

Keypoints are expected to be in regions where the image is**:**

- **Well-defined**: i.e. distinctive, neighboring points should all be different.
- **Stable** across views: same scene point should be extracted when the viewpoint slightly changes

These are necessary properties to achieve **repeatable keypoints**

Image Patches at Corners are good Features

Not every image patch is suited for hosting a keypoint: some of them can be easily mismatched

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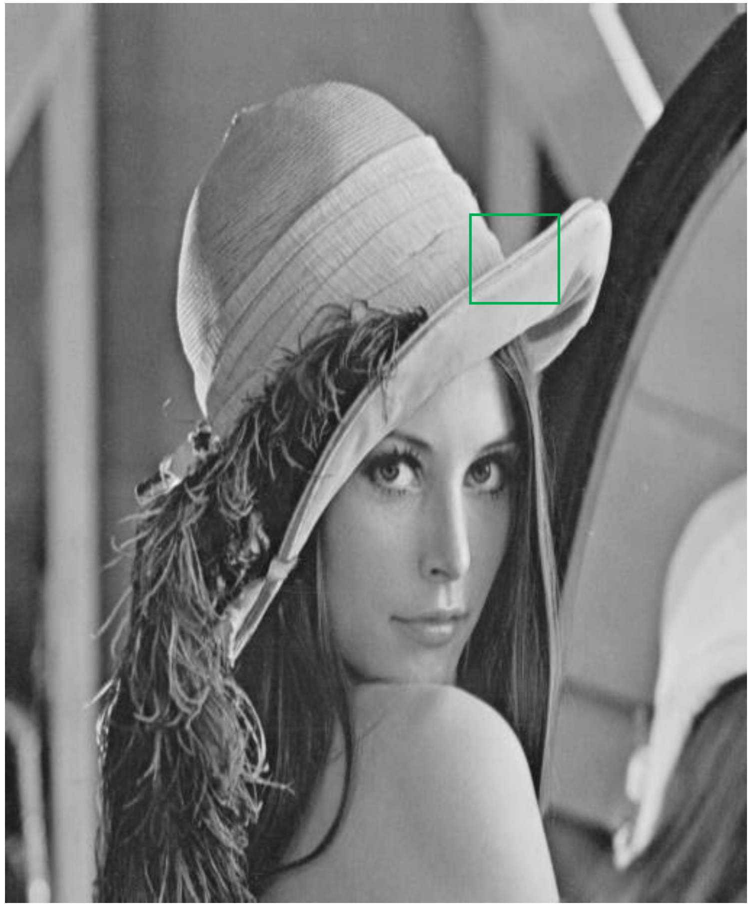


Keypoint Detection

A point is *interesting* when the image content around there is dissimilar from the neighboring ones.

- We need a **measure to assess local similarity dissimilarity** in images

The typical **figures of merit** to extract keypoints are:

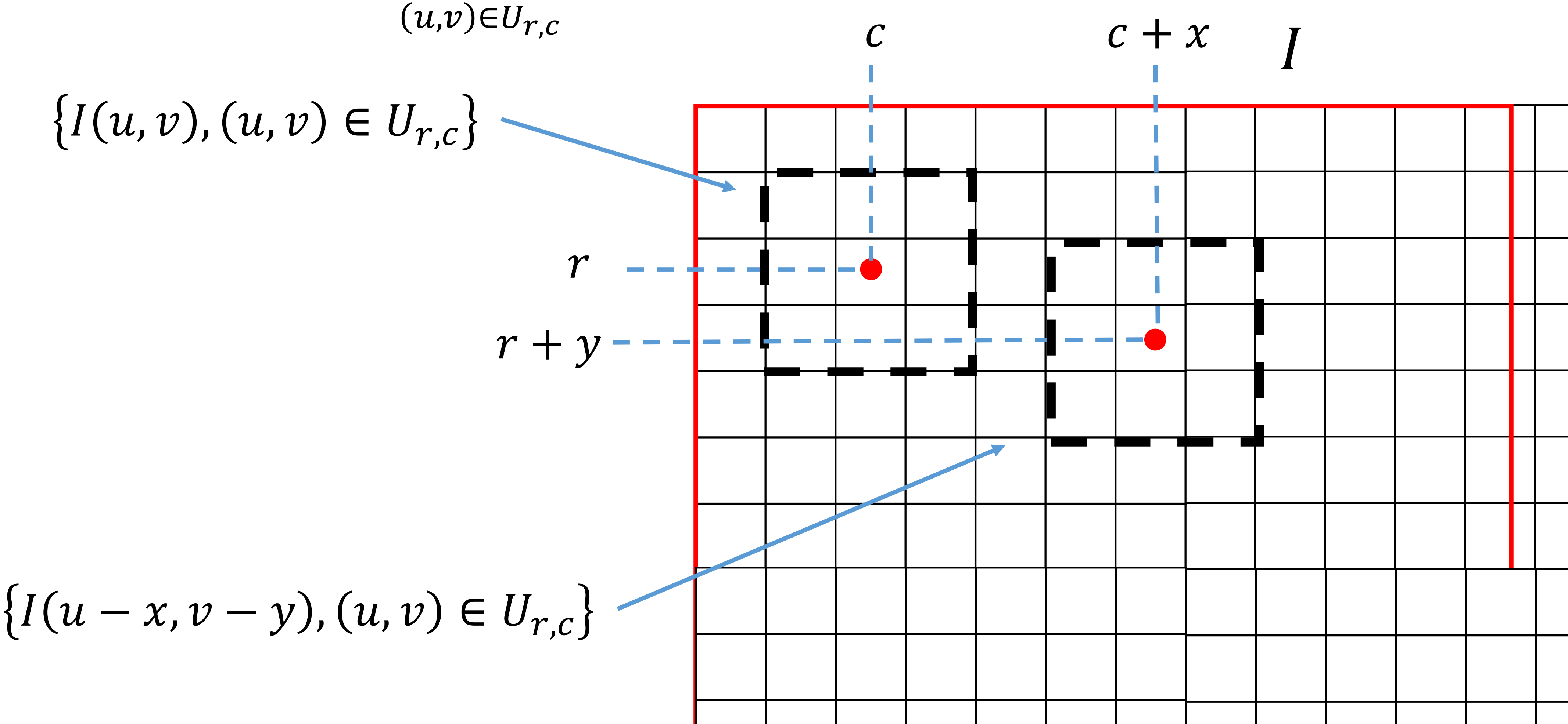
- **Gradient Based** (ex Harris, Hessian)
- Phase Based (Kovesi)
- Entropy Based (Zisserman)

and the Keypoints are located as **local maxima** of these figure of merit over the whole image.

Comparing image regions

Dissimilarity Measure: SSD, the Sum of Squared Distances

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) = \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} [I(u,v) - I(u-x, v-y)]^2$$



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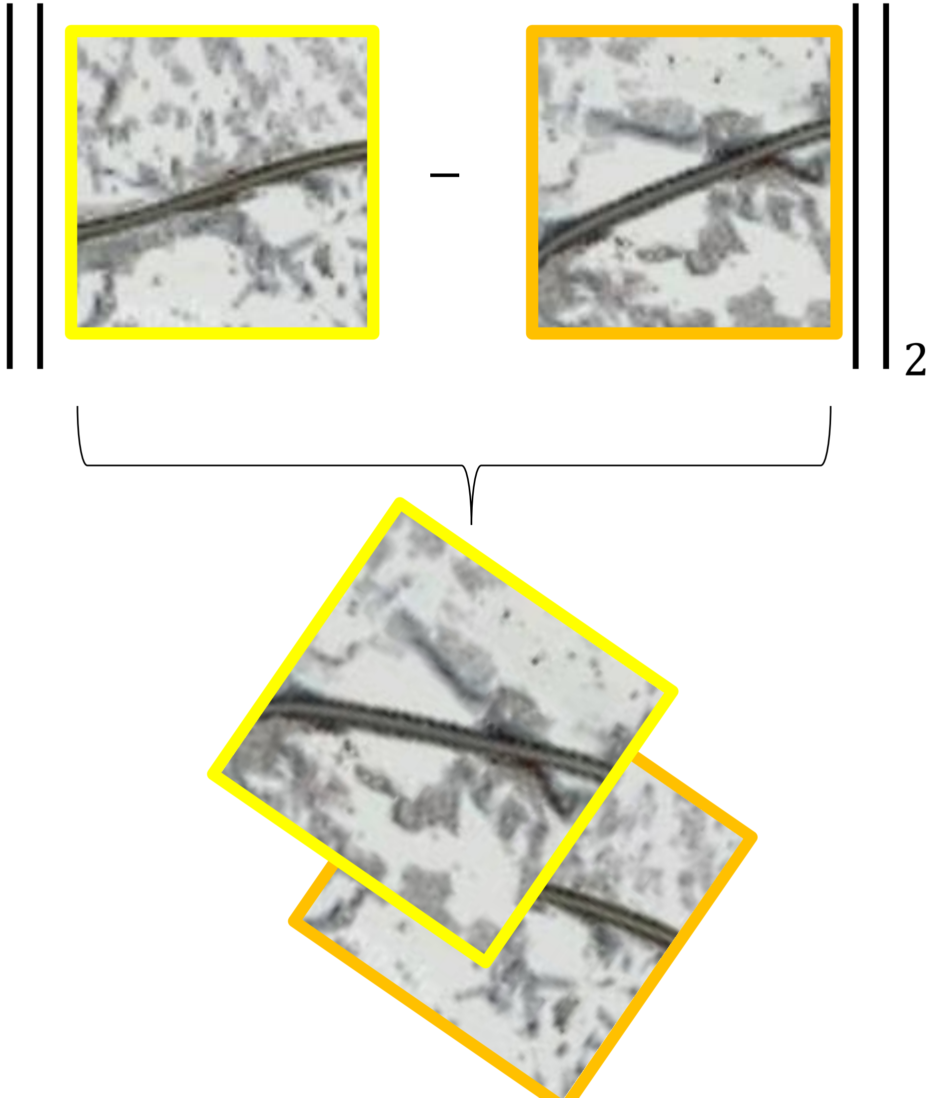
The SSD as the norm of a vector

The SSD is the ℓ^2 norm of the vector given by the difference of two image patches

$E_{x,y}(r,c) =$



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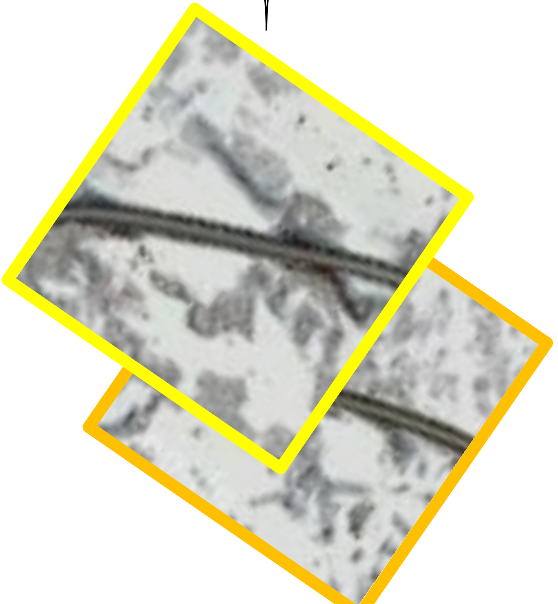
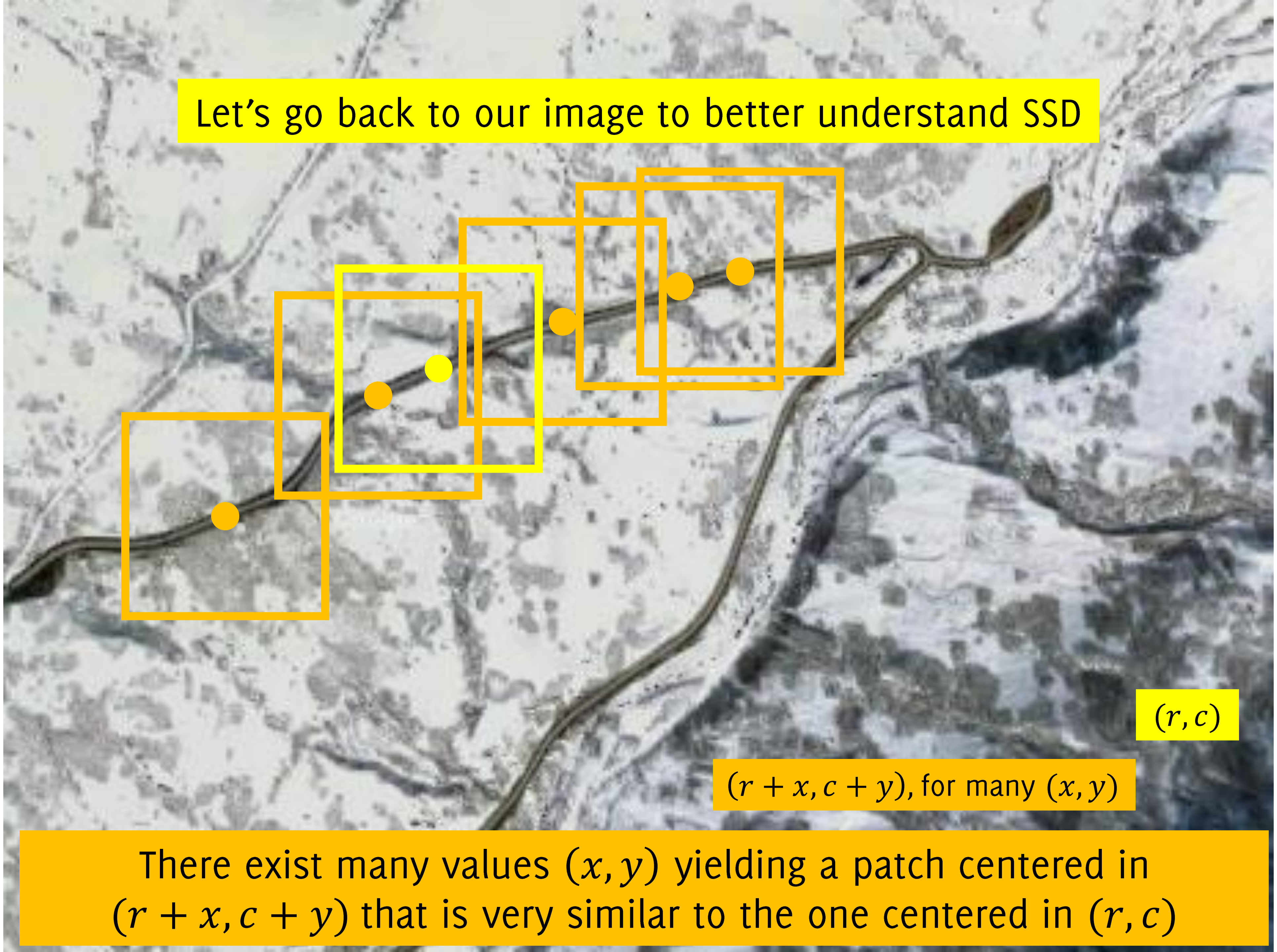
$E_{x,y}(r,c) = \Big\|$  $-$  $\Big\|_2$

The pixel-wise difference among these two patches is likely to be very close to zero





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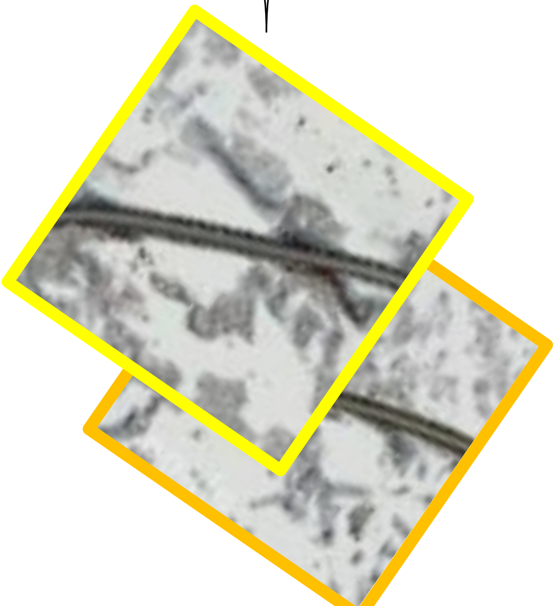
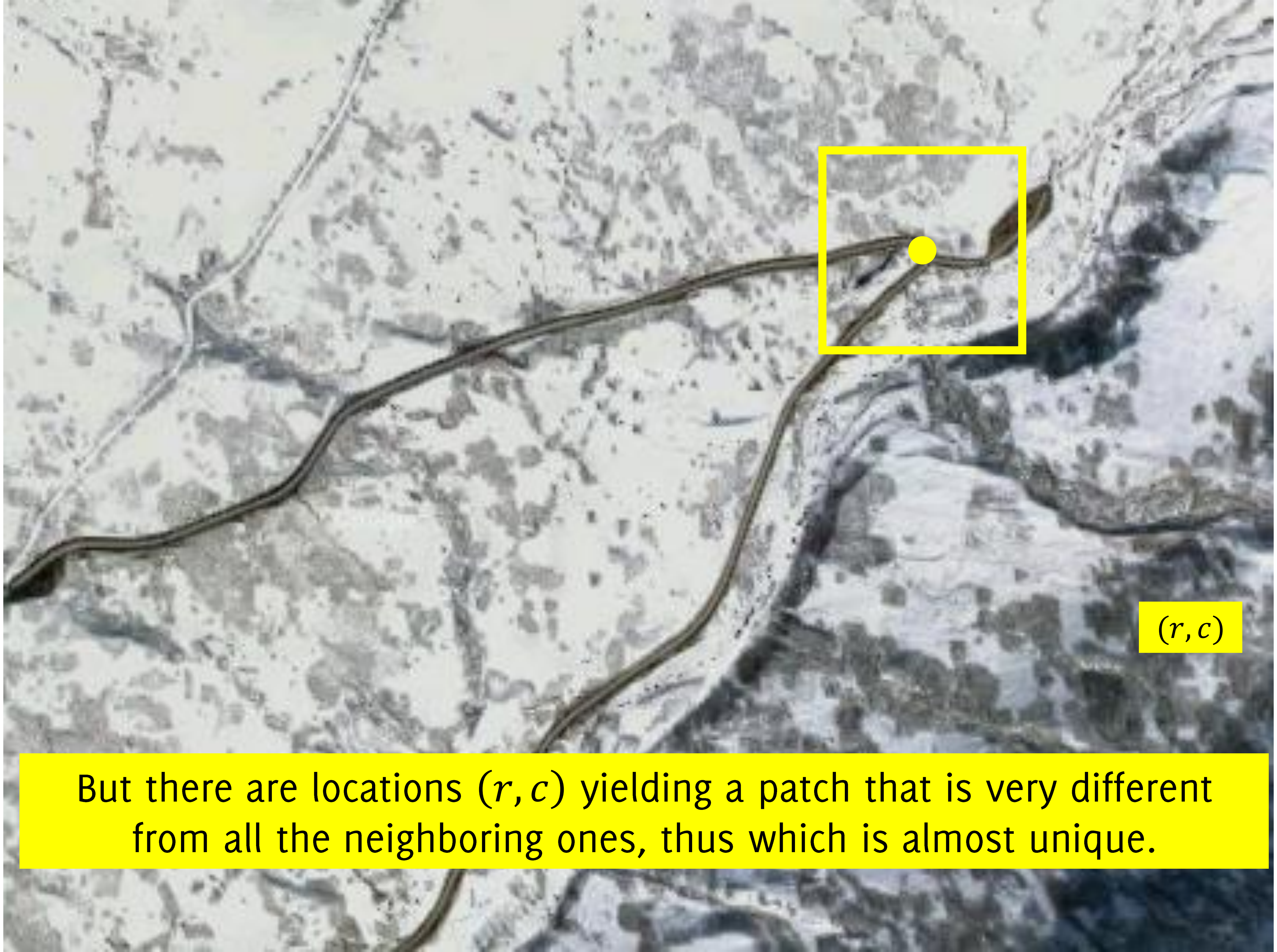
The pixel-wise difference among these two patches is likely to be very close to zero

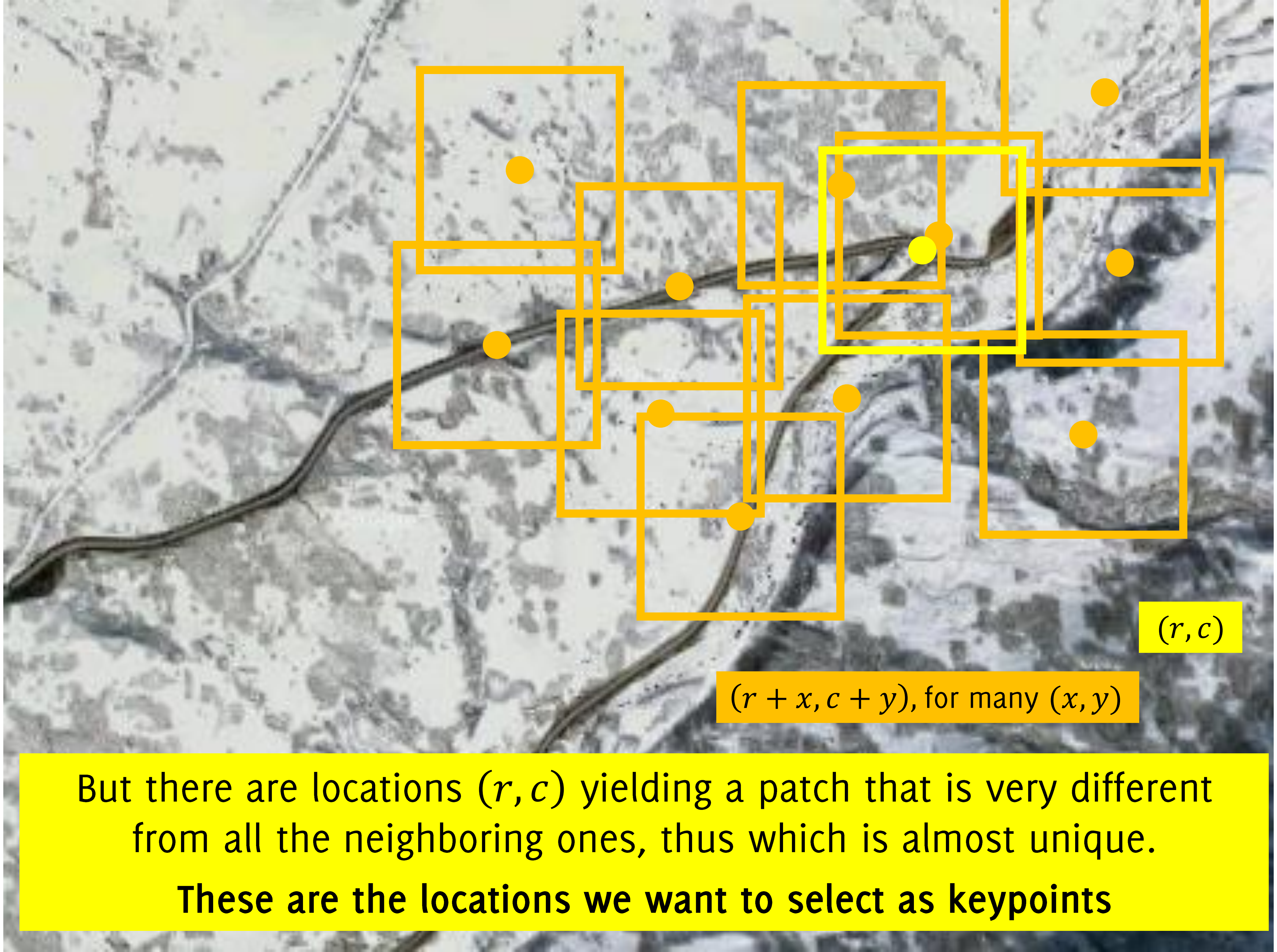
..the same holds for many orange alternatives centered in $(\boldsymbol{r}+\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{c}+\boldsymbol{y})$ along that road.

Thus, $(\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{c})$ is not a keypoint





But there are locations (r, c) yielding a patch that is very different from all the neighboring ones, thus which is almost unique.



But there are locations (r, c) yielding a patch that is very different from all the neighboring ones, thus which is almost unique.

These are the locations we want to select as keypoints

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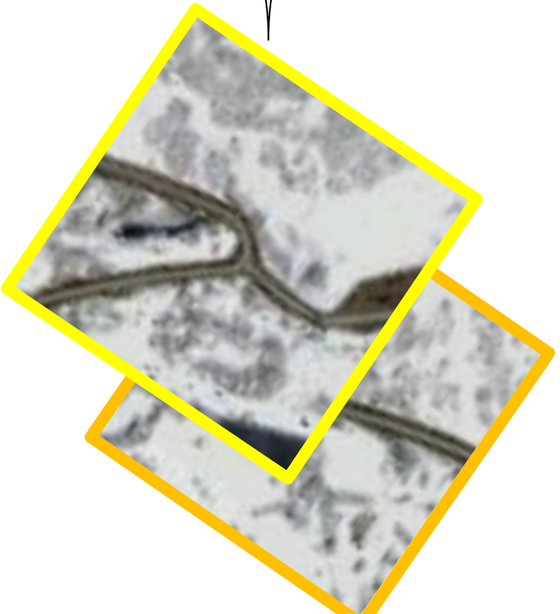
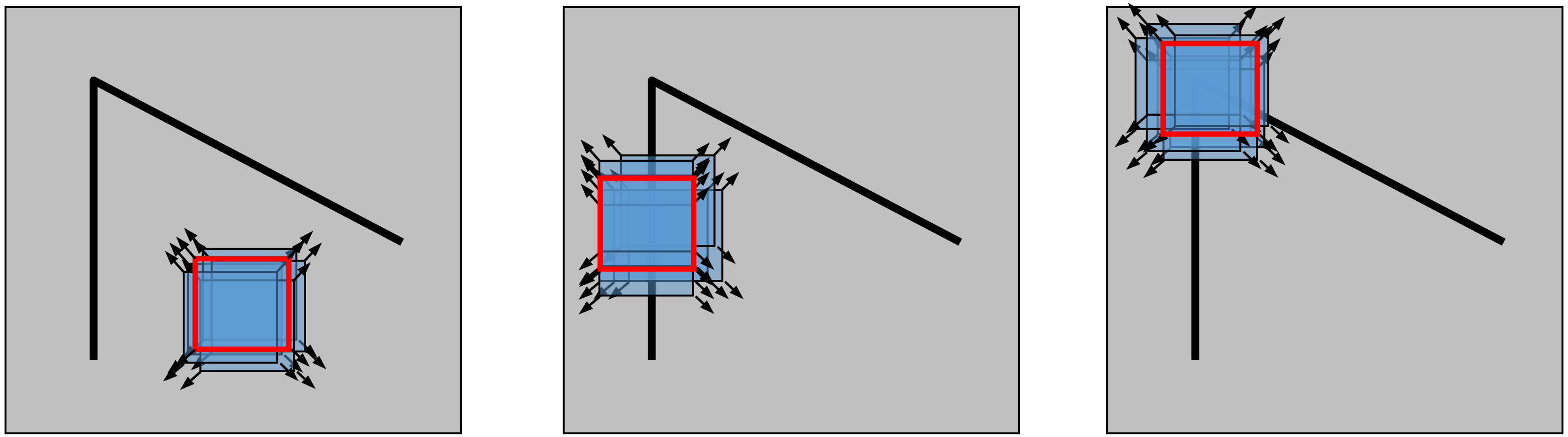


The pixel-wise difference among the yellow patch in (r,c) and any ortange alternatives in patch $(r+x, c+y)$ is likely to be large

(r,c) is then a good candidate for becoming a keypoint

The rationale behind many corner detectors

Compute the Sum of Square Distances between the image values on the green square at different position



"flat" region:
no change in
all directions

"edge":
no change along
the edge direction

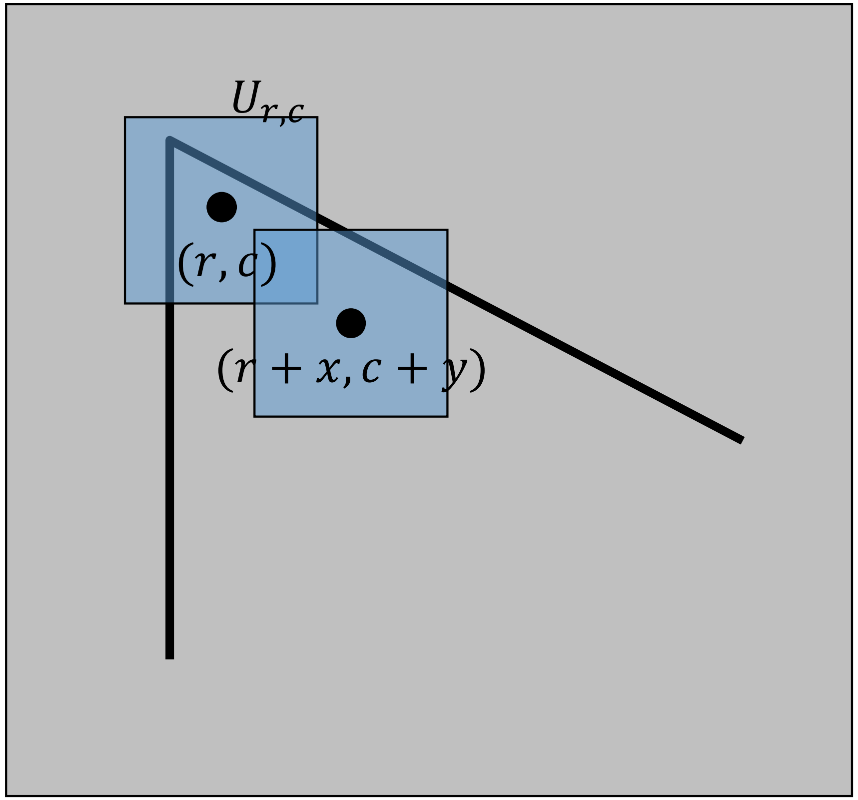
"corner":
significant change
in all directions

Keypoint Detection: Harris Corner

A meaningful example to be found in many other algorithms

Setting up the stage

- (r,c) point where to compute the output response (candidate keypoint)
- $U_{r,c}$ neighborhood identifying the blue area
- $E_{x,y}(r,c)$ difference between the green square centered in (r,c) and the square centered in $(r-x, c-y)$
- The pixels inside $U_{r,c}$ are indexed by (u,v)



Moreavec (80) – Corner Detection

Corner measure as the **SSD over a fixed set of displacements**

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) = \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v)[I(u,v) - I(u-x, v-y)]^2$$

$$(x,y) \in \{(1,0),(0,1),(-1,0),(0,-1)\}$$

$w_{r,c}$ is a window centered in (r,c), which defines each pixel neighbor $U_{r,c}$ (e.g the green square in the previous slides)

Moreavec (80) – Corner Detection

At corners values of $E_{x,y}$ **"are always big"**, even for the less significant displacements (x, y)

$$HM(r,c) = T_\gamma\left(\min_{(x,y)}\left(E_{x,y}(r,c)\right)\right)$$

where T_γ is the hard thresholding operator having threshold γ

Corner (keypoint) Detection: Look for local maxima of $HM(r,c)$, as corners maximizes this measure

Moravec Drawbacks – Solutions

The response may be **noisy**

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) = \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v)[I(u,v) - I(u-x, v-y)]^2$$

Solution: take $w_{r,c}$ as Gaussian distributed weights.

Moravec Drawbacks – Solutions

The response **is anisotropic** since only a finite set of displacements (x, y) is considered

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) = \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v)[I(u,v) - I(u-x,v-y)]^2$$

therefore, the same corner rotated may yield different responses.

Solution: Expand $I(u-x, v\ -y)$ in Taylor series

$$I(u-x,v-y) = I(u,v) + xI_x(u,v) + yI_y(u,v) + O(x^2,y^2)$$

where $I_x(\cdot) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}I(\cdot)$ and $I_y(\cdot) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}I(\cdot)$, then

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) = \sum_{u,v\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v)\left(xI_x(u,v) + yI_y(u,v) + O(x^2,y^2)\right)^2$$

Moravec Drawbacks – Solutions

We consider only the first-order terms in the Taylor expansion

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) \approx \sum_{u,v \in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v)\left(xI_x(u,v) + yI_y(u,v)\right)^2$$

Basic calculus leads to $E_{x,y}(r,c)$

$$\approx \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v)\left(x^2 I_x^2(u,v) + y^2 I_y^2(u,v) + 2xyI_x(u,v)I_y(u,v)\right)$$

$$\approx x^2 \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v) I_x^2(u,v) + y^2 \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v) I_y^2(u,v) +$$

$$+2xy \sum_{(u,v)\in U_{r,c}} w_{r,c}(u,v) I_x(u,v) I_y(u,v)$$

Moravec Drawbacks – Solutions

Which is an expression that admits the following matrix notation

$$E_{x,y}(r,c) \approx [x,y]\, M_{r,c} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$M_{r,c} = \begin{bmatrix} (I_x^2 \circledast w)(r,c) & (I_x\, I_y \circledast w)(r,c) \\ (I_x\, I_y \circledast w)(r,c) & (I_y^2 \circledast w)(r,c) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\doteq \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 \circledast w & I_x\, I_y \circledast w \\ I_x\, I_y \circledast w & I_y^2 \circledast w \end{bmatrix}(r,c)$$

Note that I_x and I_y denotes image derivatives, which can be computed with any derivative filters (Sobel, Previtt, Gaussian)

$[x, y]$ **always denotes the displacement** (very bad notation, sorry)

Moravec Drawbacks – Solutions

Thus $\boldsymbol{E_{x,y}(r,c)}$ can be computed at any pixel $(\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{c})$, w.r.t. any displacement vector $(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$

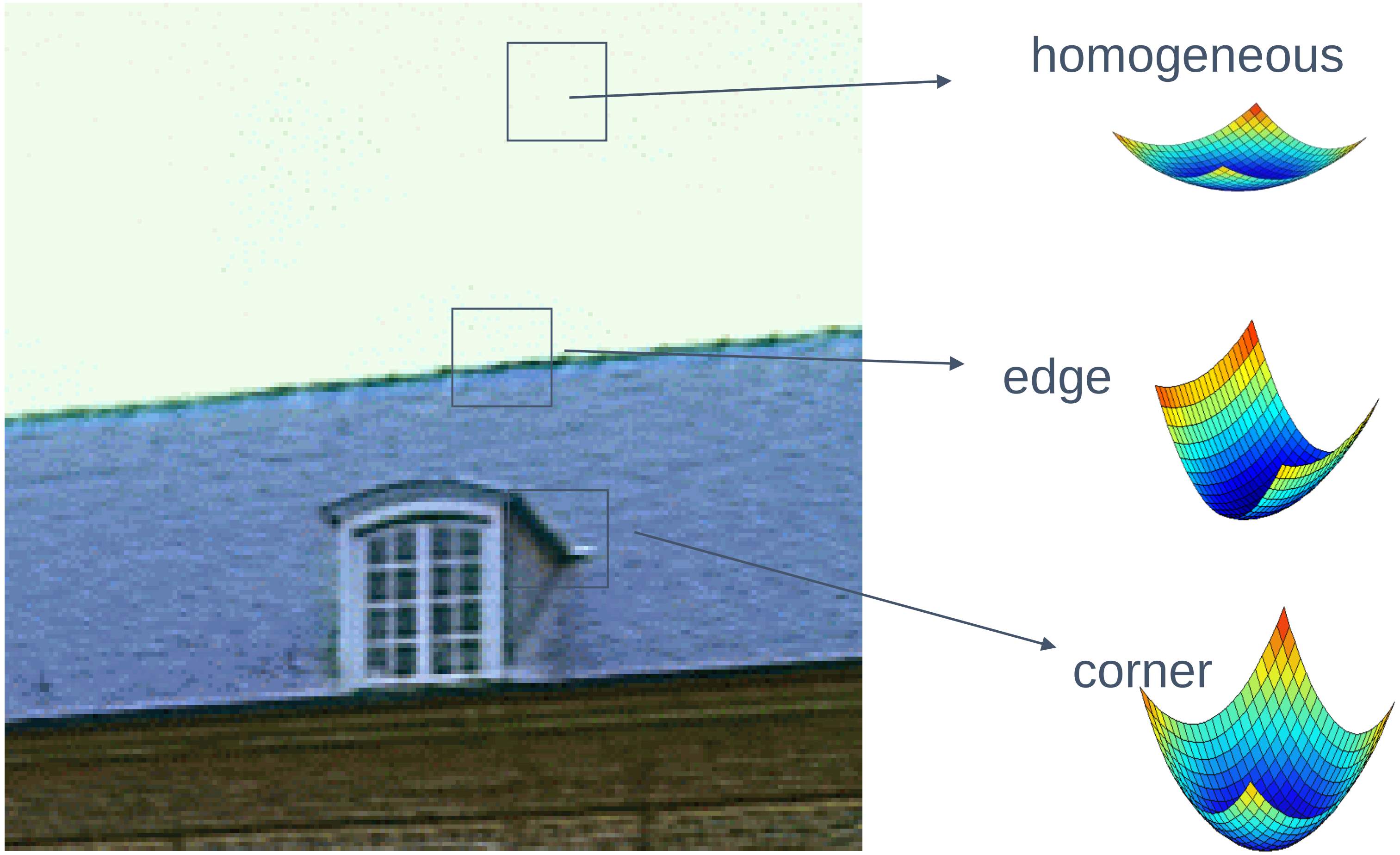
$$E_{x,y}(r,c) \approx [x,y] \begin{bmatrix} (I_x^2 \circledast w)(r,c) & \left(I_x\ I_y \circledast w\right)(r,c) \\ (I_x\ I_y \circledast w)(r,c) & \left(I_y^2 \circledast w\right)(r,c) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

The response $\boldsymbol{E_{x,y}(r,c)}$ w.r.t. any displacement (x,y) can be approximated by the quadratic expression involving the matrix $M_{r,c}$ in any pixel (r,c).

Obtaining the matrix $\boldsymbol{M_{r,c}}$ is straightforward, as it involves only computing (few) image derivatives.

Matrix M values in different image regions

"analytical behavior" of the matrix $M_{r,c}$ in different locations r, c

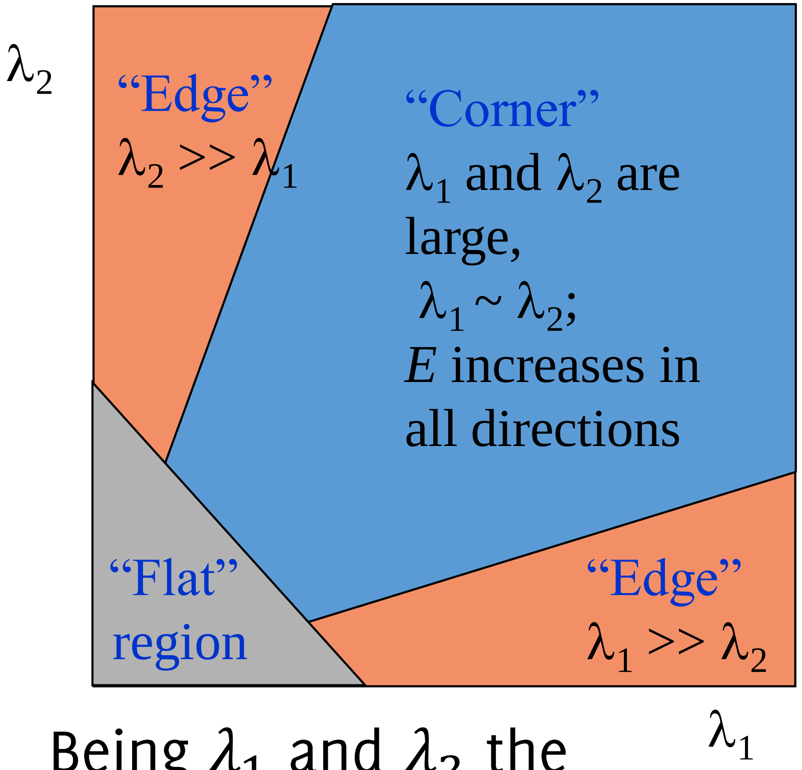


Moravec Drawbacks – Solutions

Considering the minimum of $\boldsymbol{E}$ is not a great deal, may give too **ready responses, and might require many calculations**, since many displacements (x, y) have to be considered.

Solution:

- consider the $SVD(M_{r,c})$ and **require that the minimum eigenvalue of** $M_{r,c}$ **is large at corners**
- This means that $E_{x,y}(r, c)$ exhibits a large variation w.r.t. any displacement vector (x, y)



Being λ_1 and λ_2 the eigenvalues of M

Harris – Stevens (88)

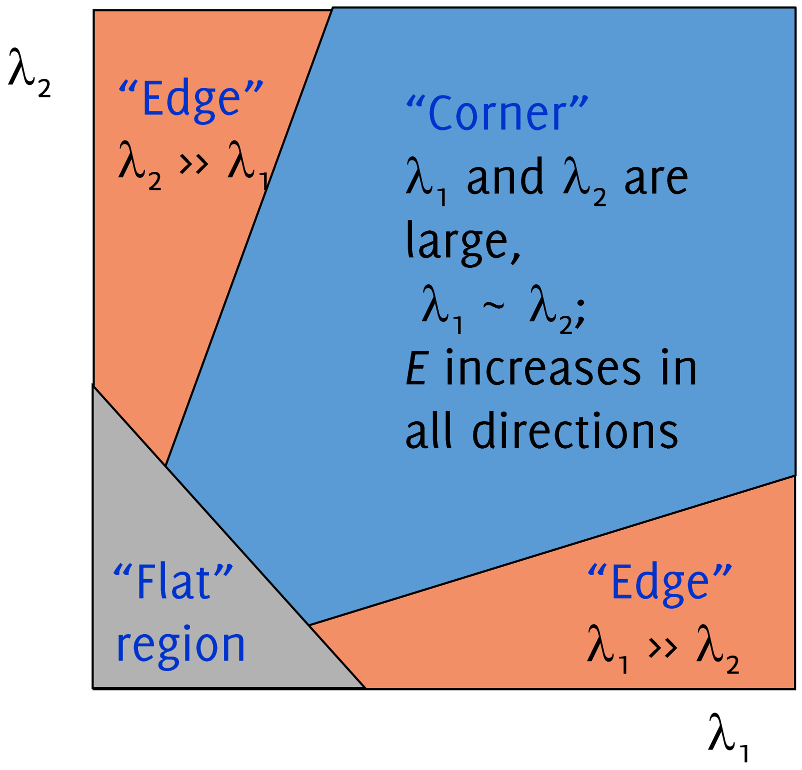
The following relation holds

$$Tr(M) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$$
$$\det(M) = \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2$$

And the function

$$\det(M) - k\,Tr(M)$$

is large when both λ_1 and λ_2 are large, where $k = 0.04$.



C. Harris and M. Stephens "A combined corner and edge detector", Proceedings of the 4th Alvey Vision Conference. 1988

Our Matrix

Thus $\boldsymbol{E_{x,y}}(\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{c})$ can be computed at any pixel $(\boldsymbol{r},\boldsymbol{c})$, w.r.t. any displacement vector $(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$ by using the following matrix

$$M_{r,c} = \begin{bmatrix} (I_x^2 \circledast w)(r,c) & \big(I_x\, I_y \circledast w\big)(r,c) \\ (I_x\, I_y \circledast w)(r,c) & \big(I_y^2 \circledast w\big)(r,c) \end{bmatrix}$$

if we define,

$$J_x^2 = I_x^2 \circledast w, \qquad J_y^2 = I_y^2 \circledast w, \qquad J_{xy} = I_x I_y \circledast w$$

the following relations hold

$$Tr\big(M_{r,c}\big) = J_x^2(r,c) + J_y^2(r,c) = \Big(\big(I_x^2 + I_y^2\big) \circledast w\Big)(r,c)$$

$$\det\big(M_{r,c}\big) = J_x^2\, J_y^2(r,c) - J_{xy}^2(r,c)$$

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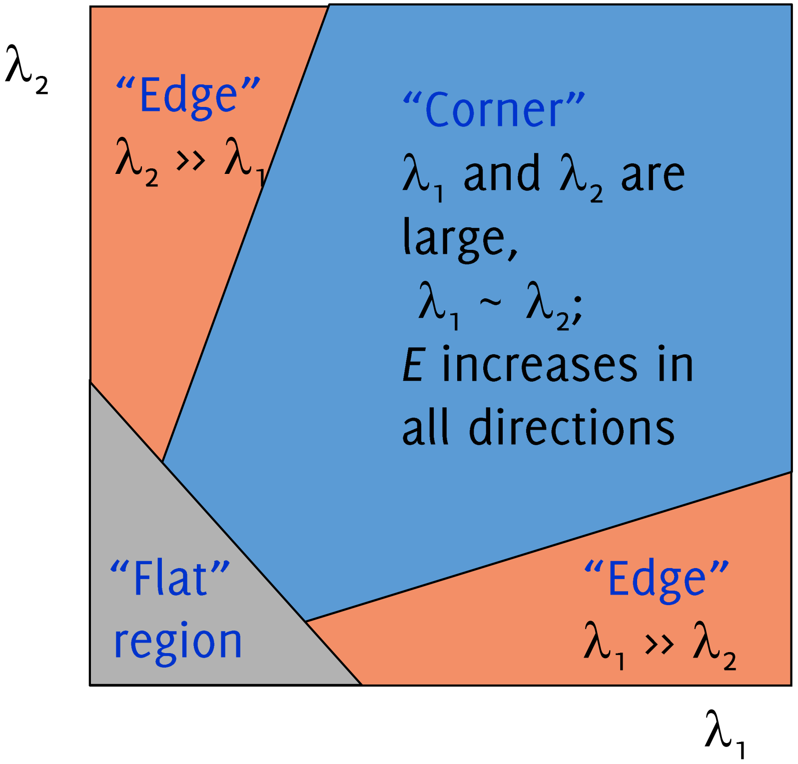
Let $J_x^2 = I_x^2 \circledast w$, $J_y^2 = I_y^2 \circledast w$

$$J_{xy} = I_x I_y \circledast w$$



It is possible to avoid computing $SVD(M)$ and the Harris measure becomes

$$CIM = \left(J_x^2 J_y^2 - J_{xy}^2\right) - k\left(J_x^2 + J_y^2\right)$$

defined as in the previous slide

Harris – Stevens (88)

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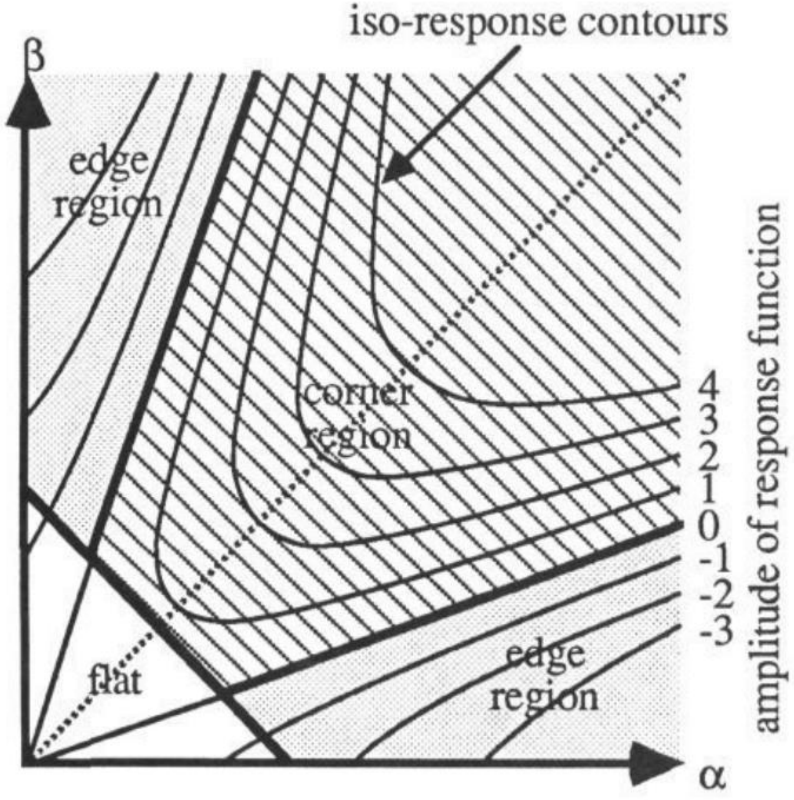


Figure from **Harris '88**

C. Harris and M. Stephens "A combined corner and edge detector", Proceedings of the 4th Alvey Vision Conference. 1988

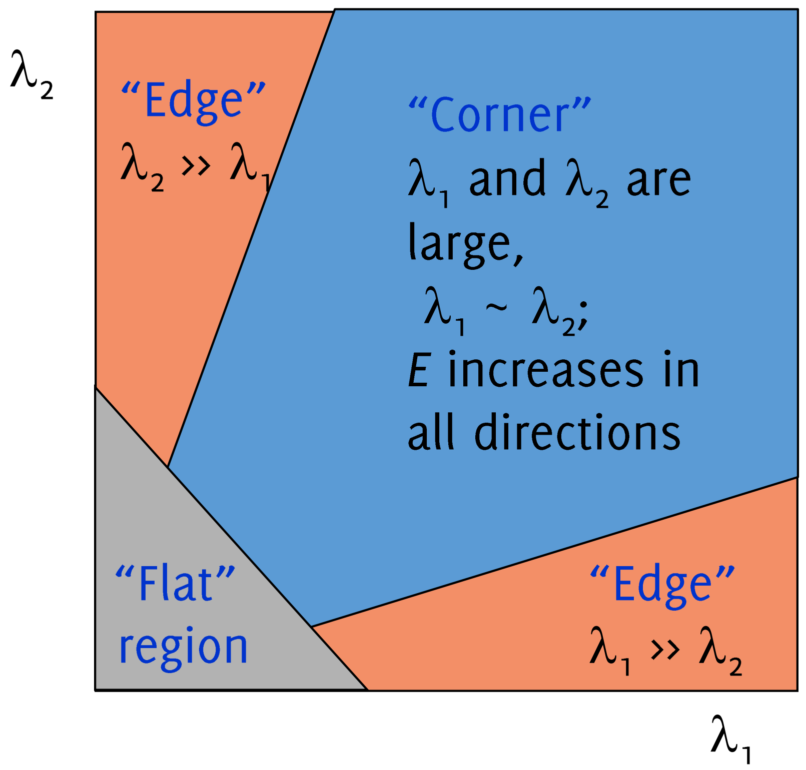
Harris – Stevens (88)

Alternatively, Noble's variant which does not involve k:

$$CM = \frac{\det(M)}{Tr(M) + \epsilon}$$

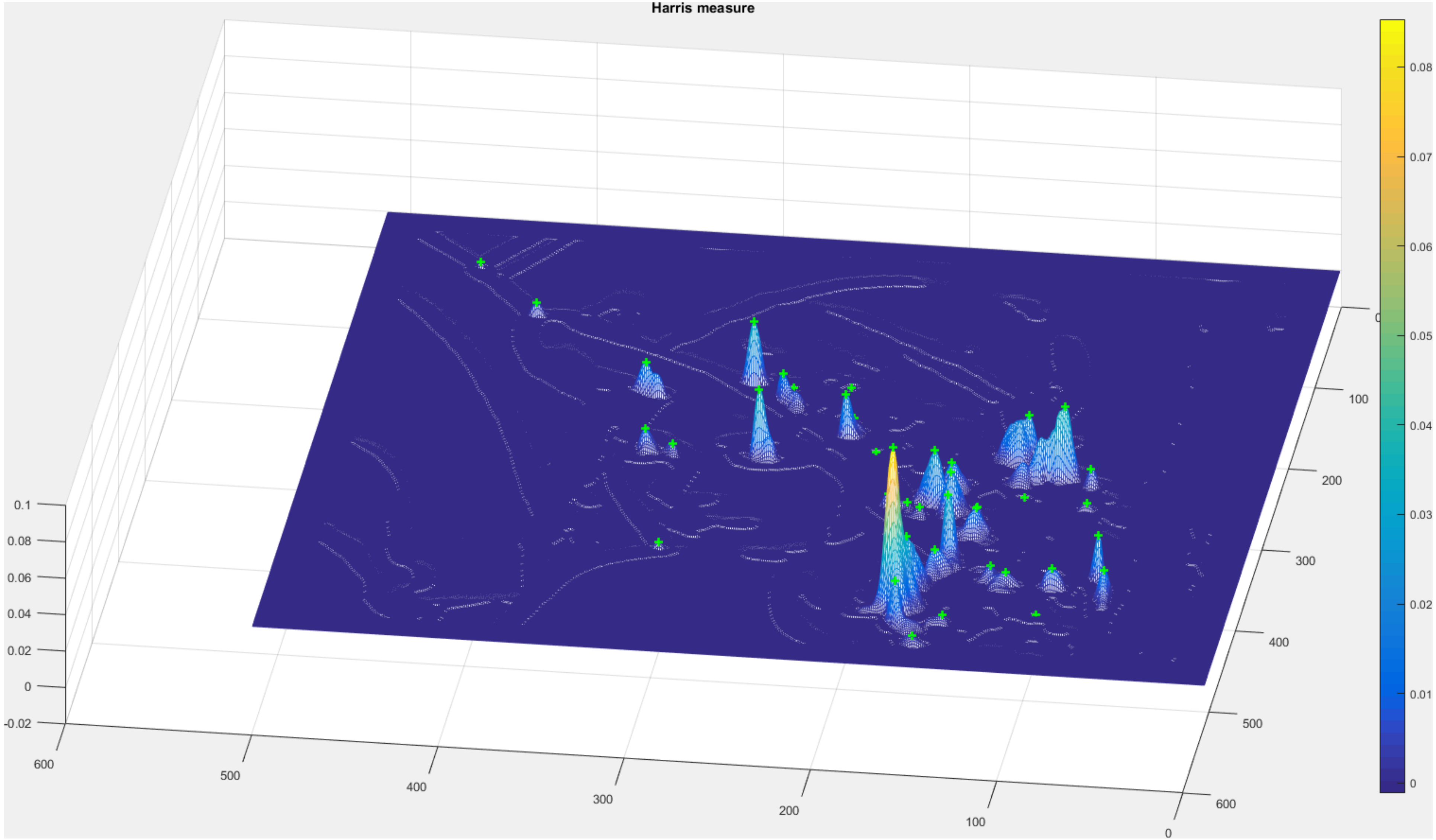
That can thus be computed from the image derivatives as:

$$CM = \frac{(J_x^2 J_y^2 - J_{xy}^2)}{J_x^2 + J_y^2 + \epsilon}$$



Alison Noble, "Descriptions of Image Surfaces", PhD thesis, Department of Engineering Science, Oxford University 1989, p45.

Extract Local Maxima of Harris Corner Measure



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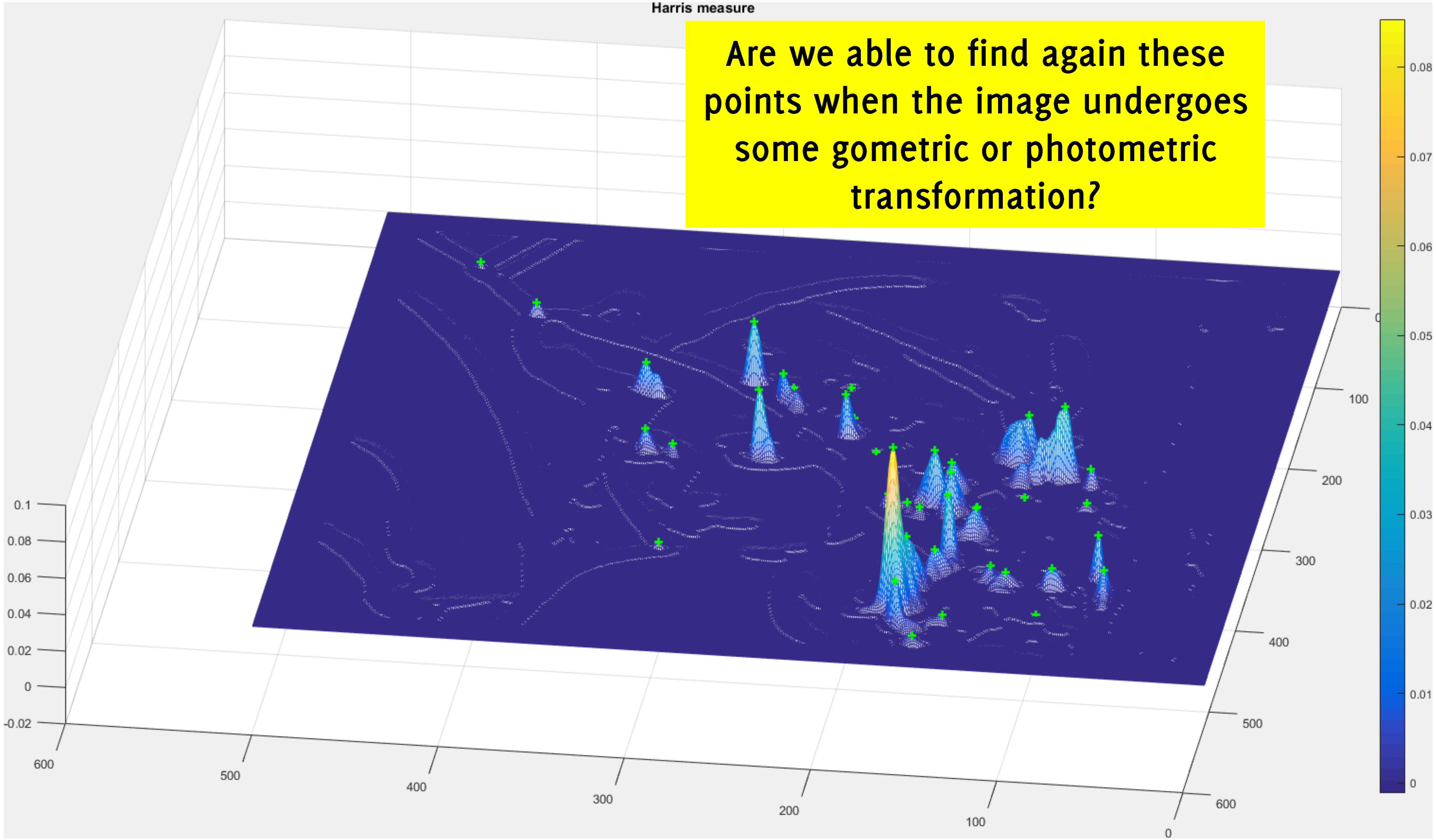


Image Features

Giacomo Boracchi

CVPR USI, April 7 2020

Scale-Invariant Feature Transform

SIFT Scale Invariant Feature Transform [Lowe 2004]

Histograms of Oriented Gradients (HOG)

HOG: a Family of **Image Features that are built upon orientation** of **image gradients** around selected **keypoints**

SIFT [Lowe 2004] is a prominent example of HOG features. SIFT features are invariant to:

- image scale
- Image rotation,

The cost of extracting SIFT is minimized by a **cascade approach**, in which the more expensive operations are applied only at locations that pass an initial test.

Scale Invariant Feature Transform

SIFT that are shown to provide **robust matching** across a

- substantial range of affine distortions,
- change in 3D viewpoint,
- addition of noise,
- change in illumination

The **SIFT descriptors** are highly distinctive, relatively easy to extract and allow for correct object identification with low probability of mismatch.

Scale invariance is provided by an ad-hoc keypoint extraction algorithm

[Lowe 2004] Lowe "Distinctive Image Features from Scale-Invariant Keypoints" IJCV 2004

SIFT outline

SIFT generates **large numbers of features that densely cover the image** over the full range of scales and locations.

It is composed of the following steps

- **Scale-space extrema detection**
- **Keypoint localization**
- **Orientation assignment**
- **Keypoint descriptor**

Scale-space extrema detection

SIFT Scale Invariant Feature Transform [Lowe 2004]

SIFT outline

Scale-space extrema detection: search over all the scales and image locations for potential interest points that are invariant to scale and orientation.

Keypoint localization: At each candidate location, a detailed model is fit to determine location and scale

Orientation assignment: One or more orientations are assigned to each keypoint location based on local image gradient directions.

Keypoint descriptor: The local image gradients are measured at the selected scale in the region around each keypoint

SIFT generates large numbers of features that densely cover the image over the full range of scales and locations

Detection of scale-space extrema

Keypoint detection is the first stage of a **cascade approach**

The goal is to identify **locations and scales** that can be **repeatably assigned under differing views** of the same object.

How: search for **stable keypoints** across all possible scales of the image, i.e., in the **scale space**

Image Pyramid

Unfortunately, **only a single** image from a single **scale is available**. How to extract information from “all possible scales”?

By **generating an image pyramid**: Build different representations of the original image at different resolutions/zoom levels, by convolution

- The highest resolution corresponds to the original image I
- **Lower resolutions are synthetically generated** through blurring by **convolution and resampling**

An image pyramid is obtained by **convolving the image $\boldsymbol{I}$ with several Gaussian kernels** G_σ having standard deviation σ.
We define the layers of such pyramid as:

$$L(x, y, \sigma) = (G_\sigma \circledast I)(x, y)$$

An Image Pyramid

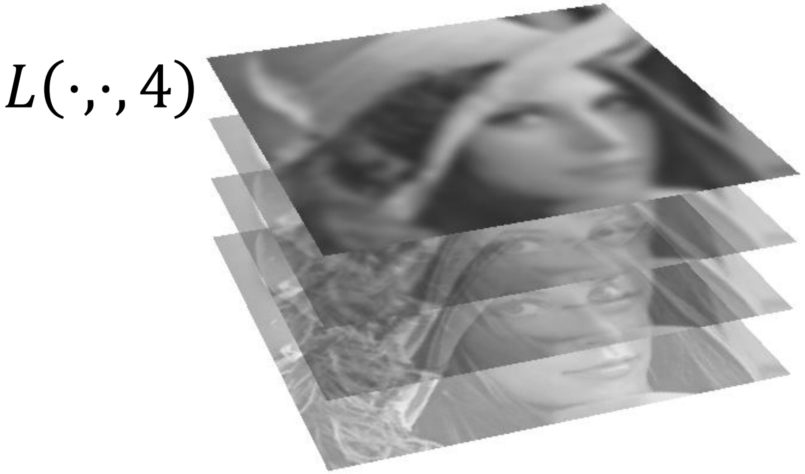
$L(\cdot,\cdot,1)$

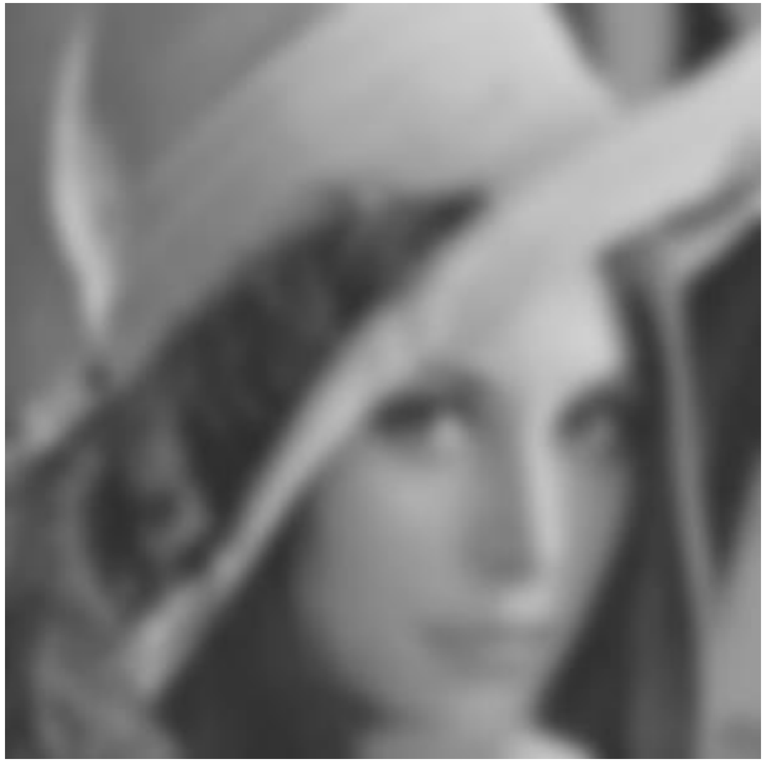
An Image Pyramid

An Image Pyramid

$L(\cdot,\cdot,3)$

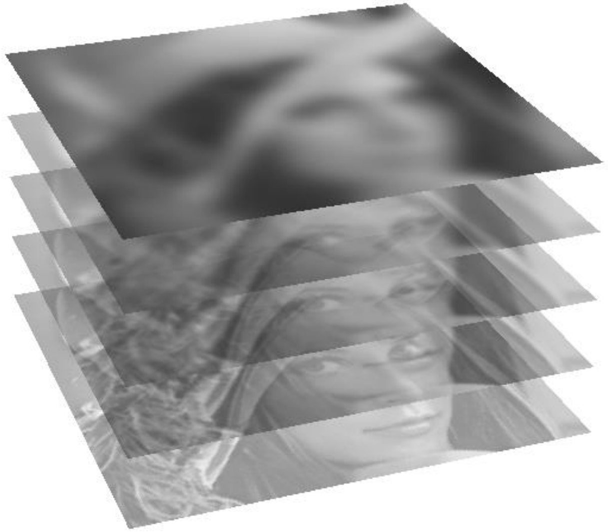
An Image Pyramid





An Image Pyramid

$L(\cdot,\cdot,5)$



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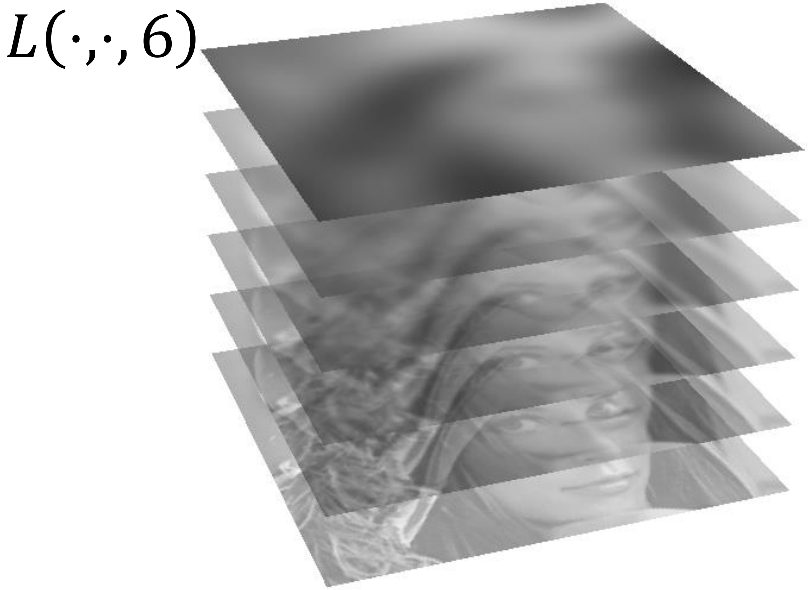
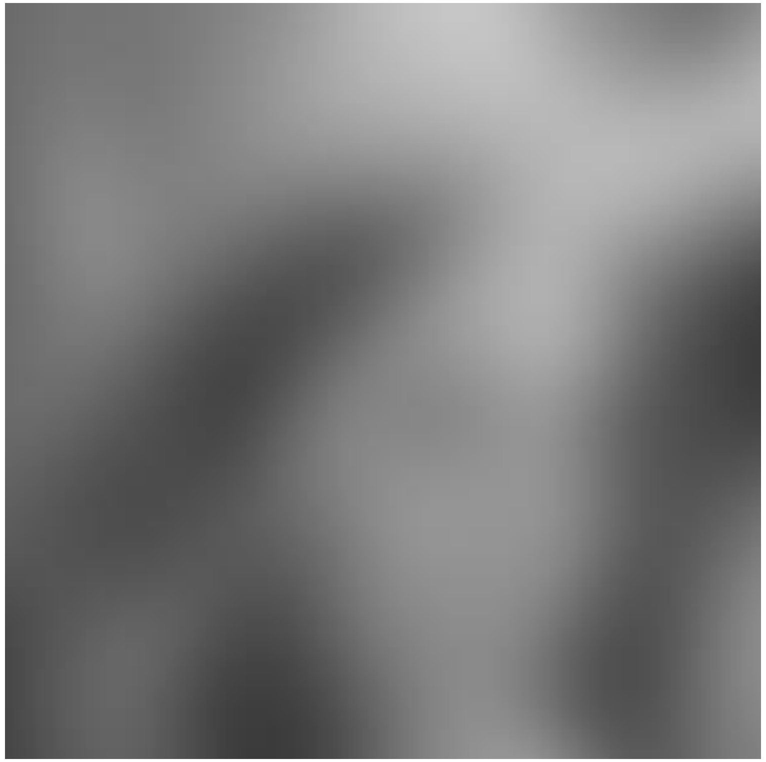
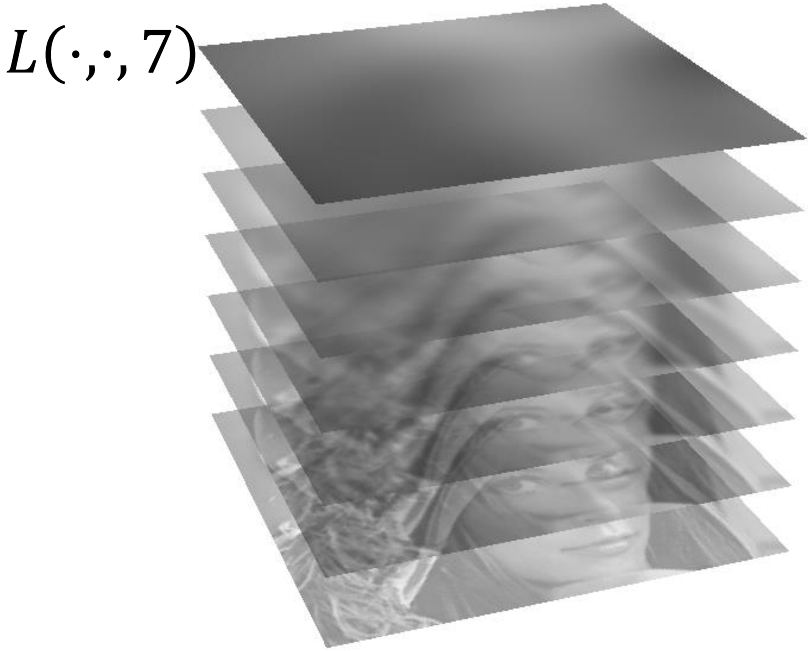
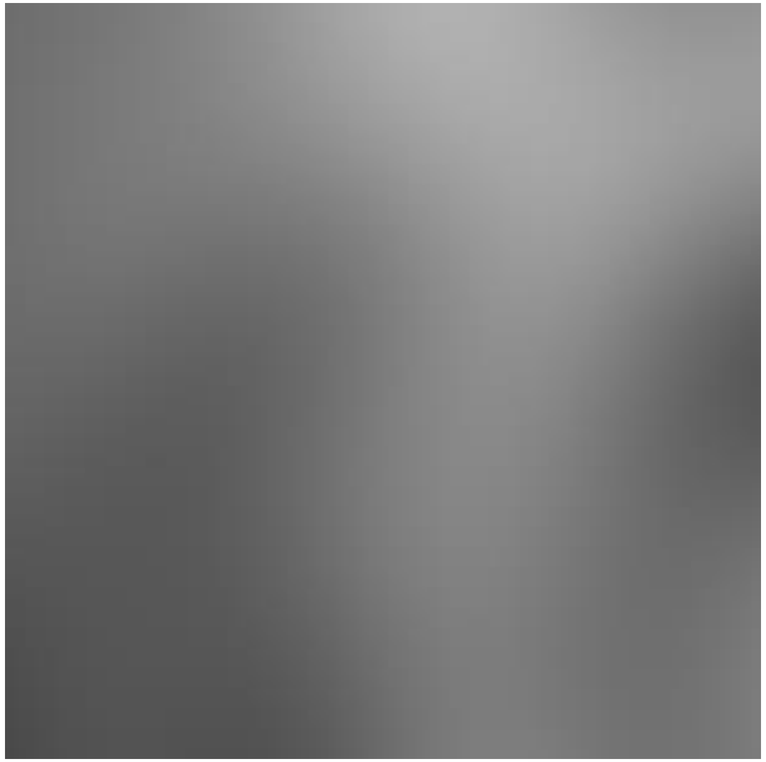




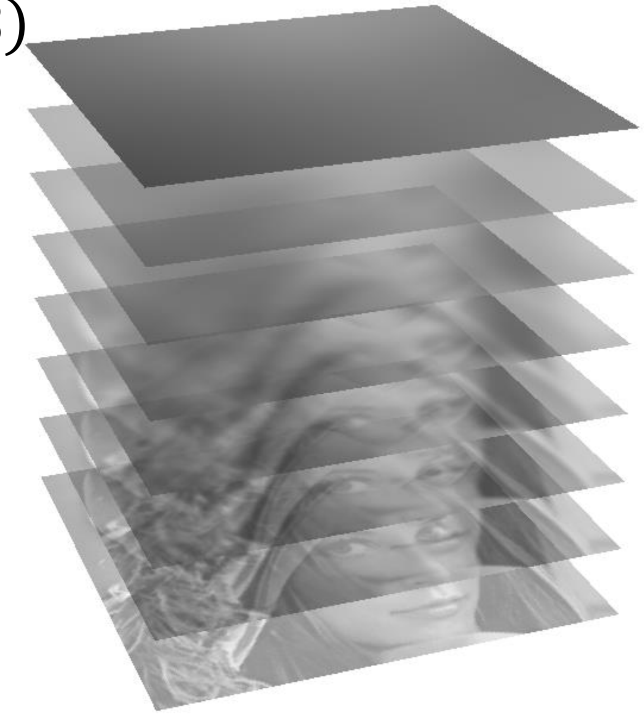
An Image Pyramid

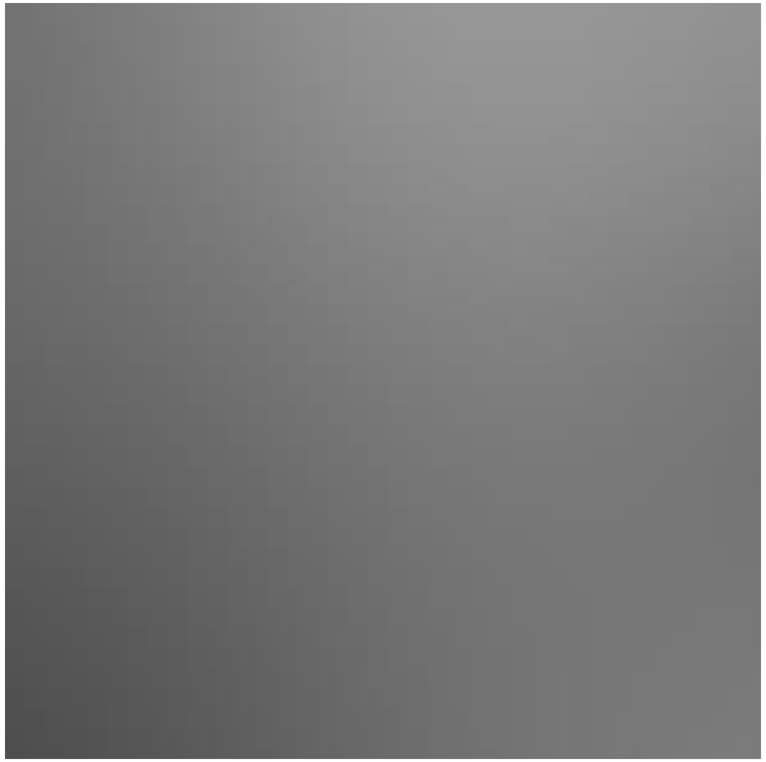




An Image Pyramid

$L(\cdot,\cdot,8)$





Keypoint Localization in the Scale Space

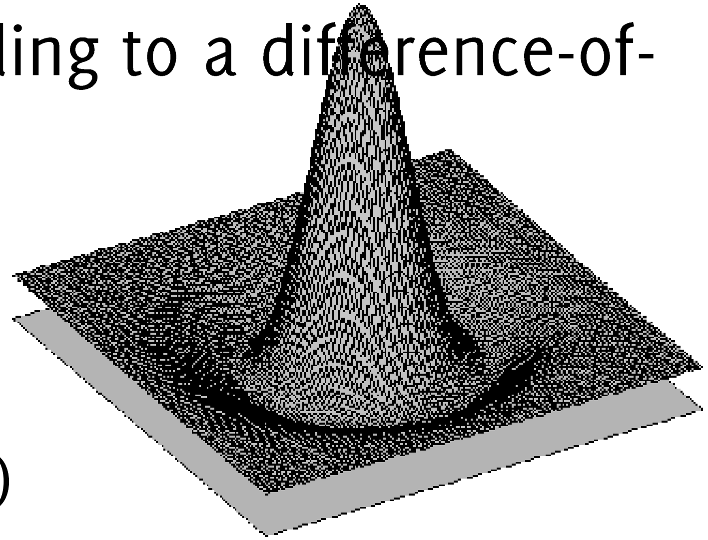
Keypoints are detected as **the local maxima in the difference** between two adjacent **representations in the scale space**

$$D(x, y, \sigma) = L(x, y, k\sigma) - L(x, y, \sigma)$$

That, thanks to convolution properties we have that:

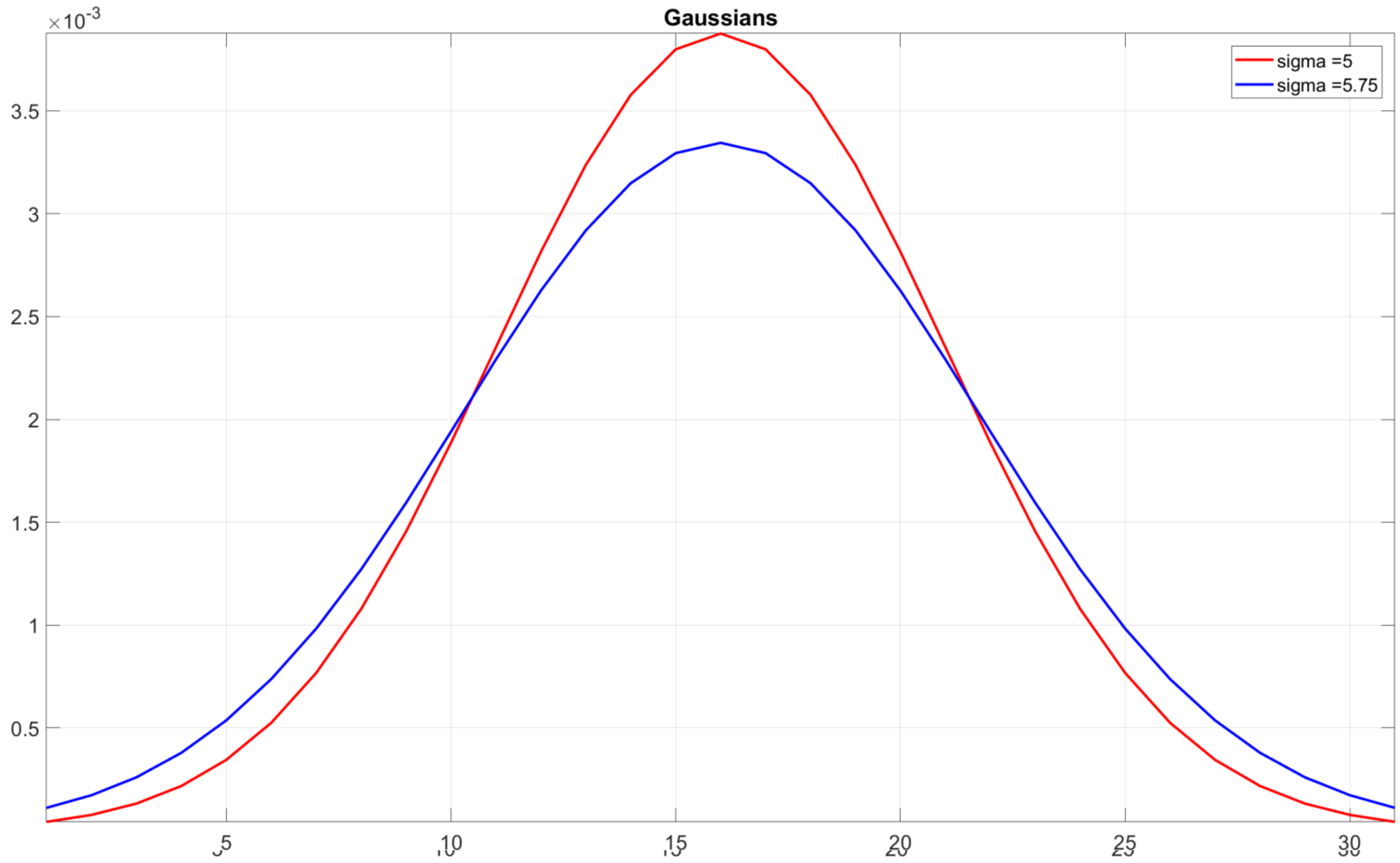
$$D(x, y, \sigma) = ((G_{k\sigma} - G_{\sigma}) \circledast I)(x, y)$$

What about $(G_{k\sigma} - G_{\sigma})$? It is the filter corresponding to a difference-of-Gaussians: it acts as a “blob” detector

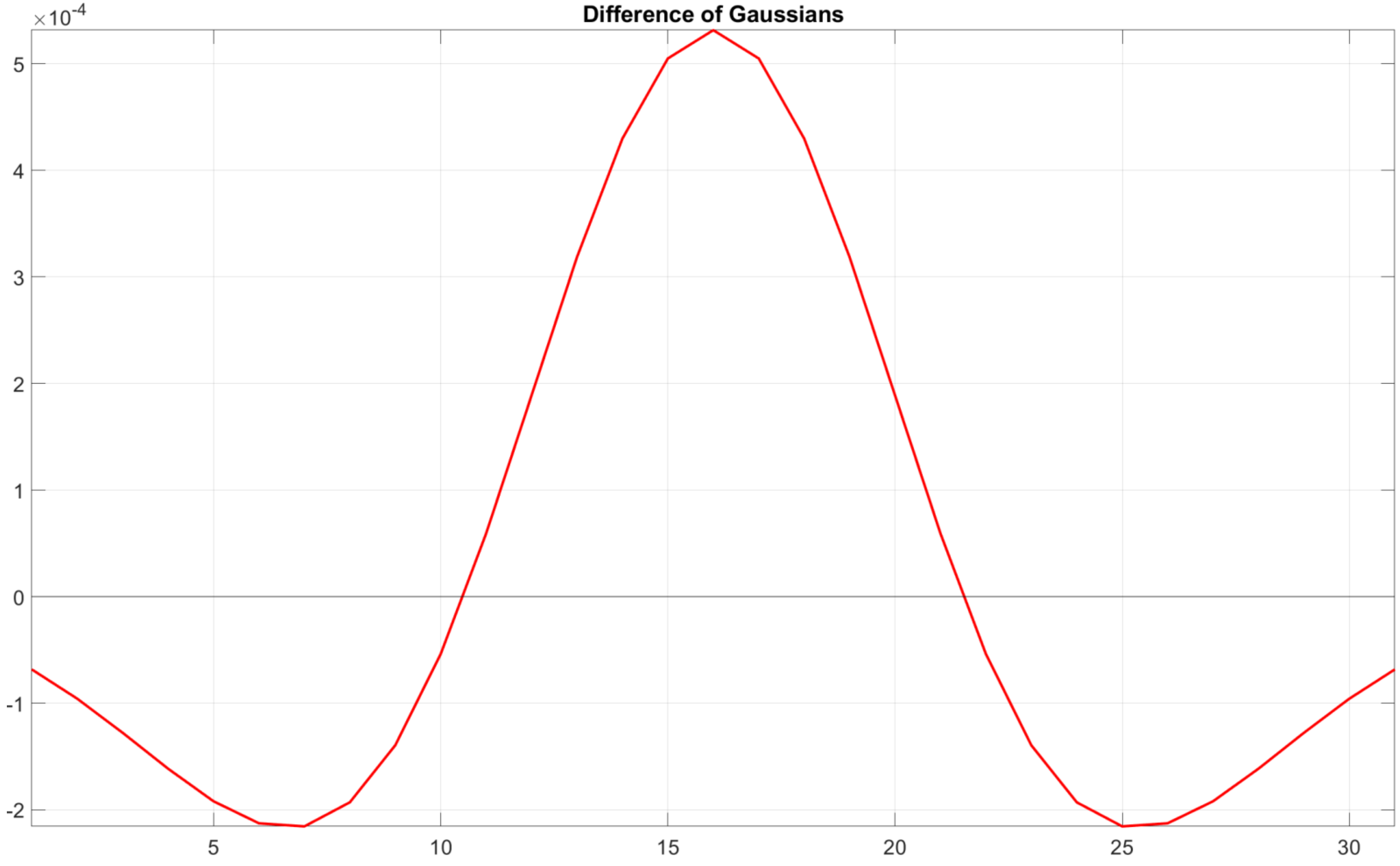


$(G_{k\sigma} - G_{\sigma})$

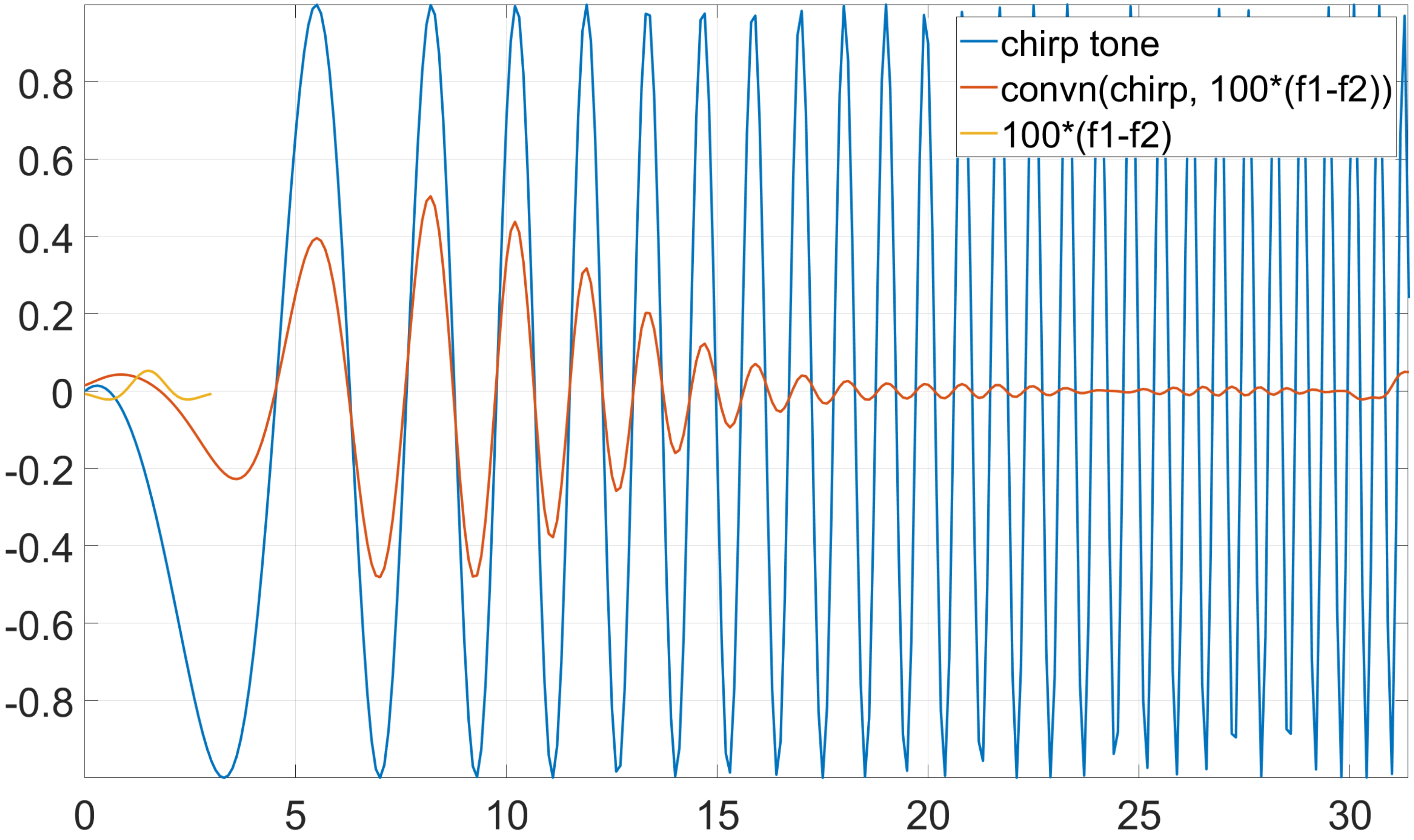
Let’s look at a 1d-example



Let’s look at a 1d-example

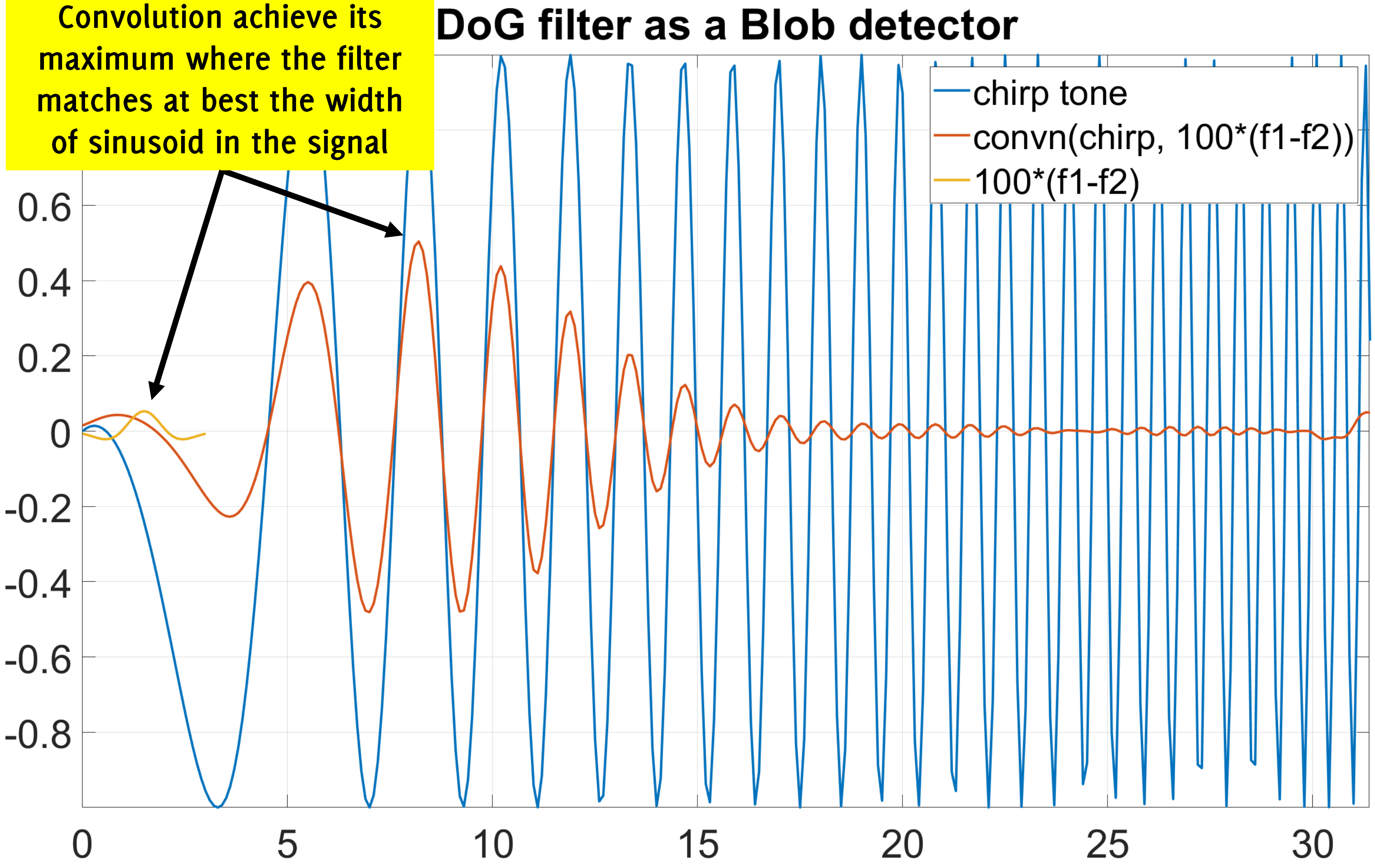


DoG filter as a Blob detector



Giacomo Boracchi

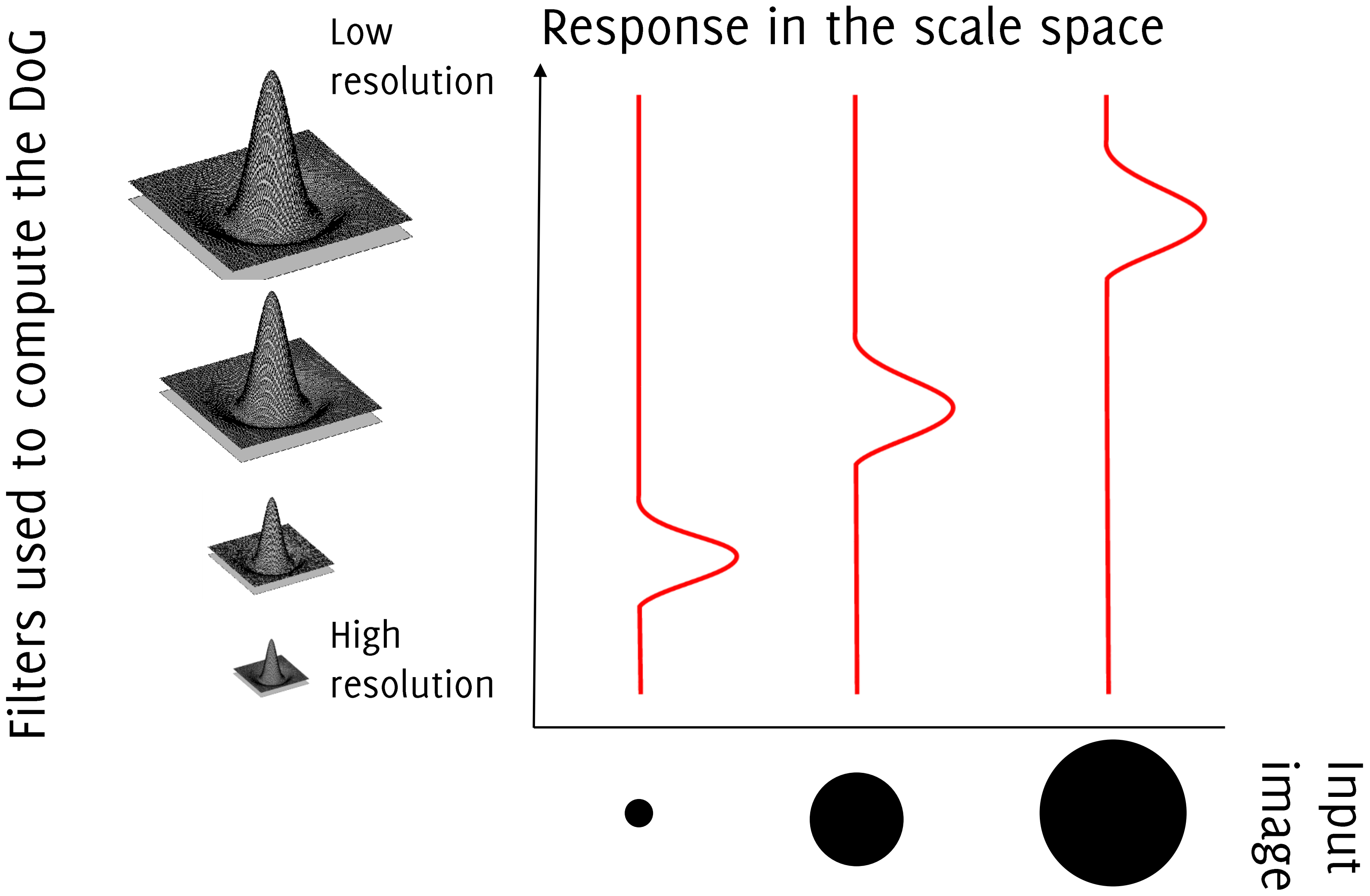
Convolution achieve its maximum where the filter matches at best the width of sinusoid in the signal



Giacomo Boracchi

Difference-of-Gaussian

Responses w.r.t. to the DoG filter



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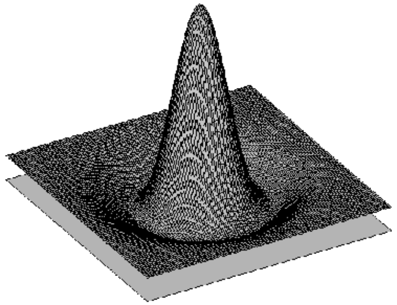
Difference-of-Gaussian (DoG)



$L(x, y, \sigma)$ $-$ $L(x, y, k\sigma)$ $=$ $D(x, y, \sigma)$

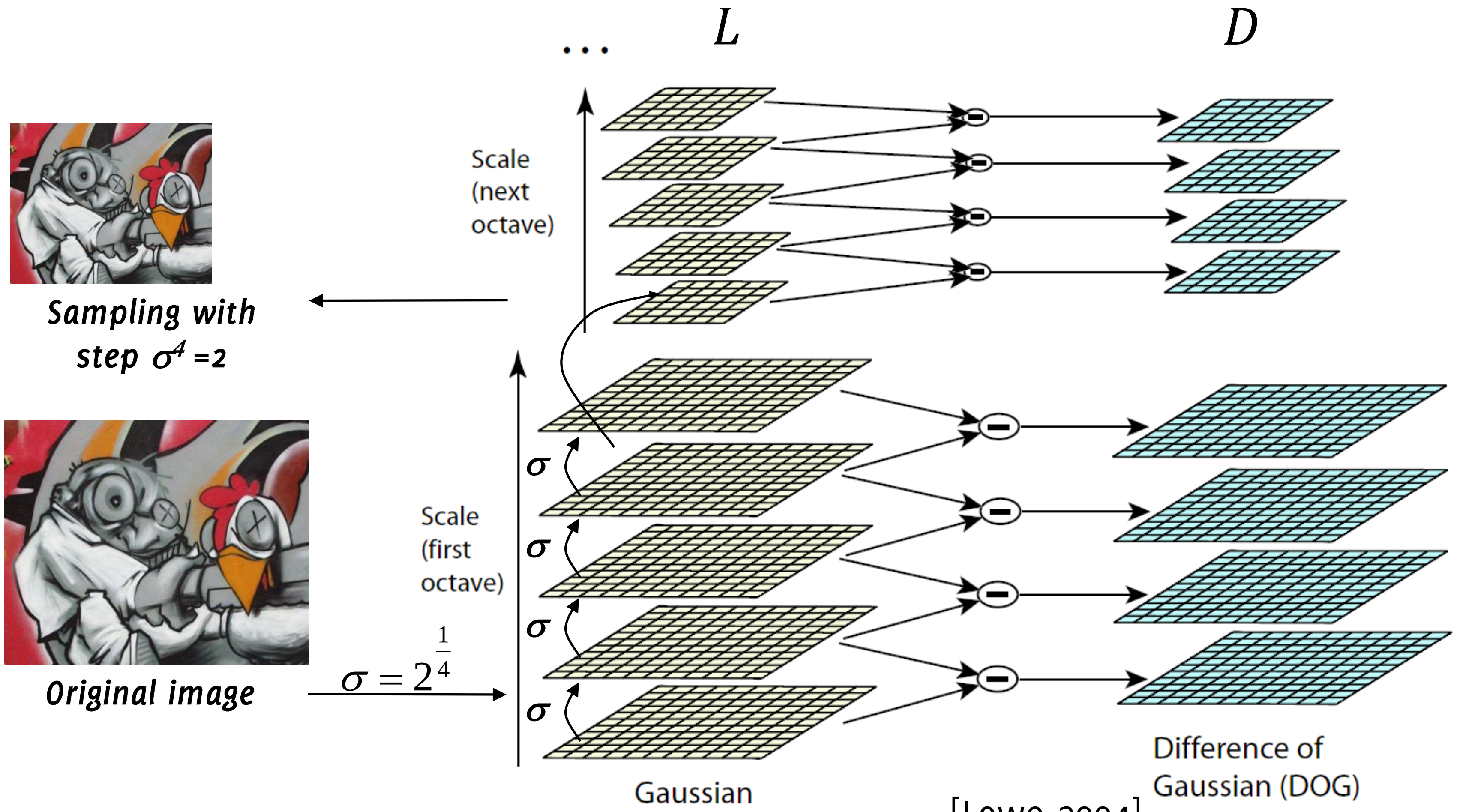
-

=

K. Grauman, B. Leibe

DoG – Efficient Computation

Computation in Gaussian scale pyramid



[Lowe 2004]

Advantages of the Difference of Gaussian

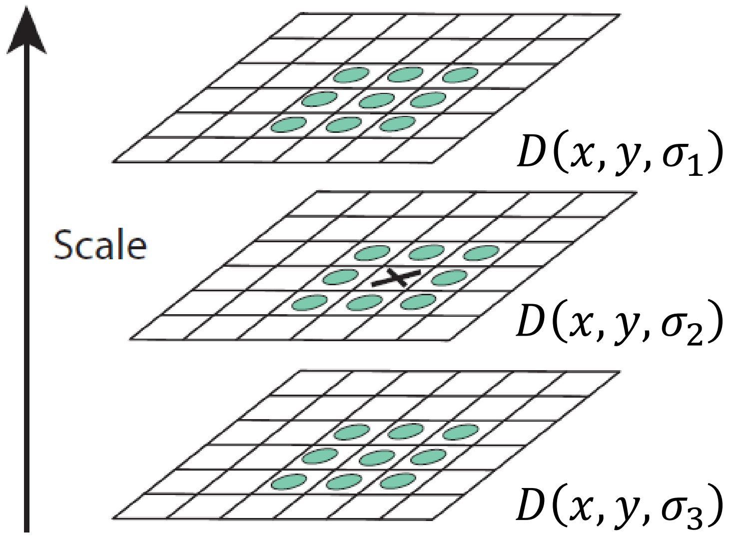
Why the Difference of Gaussian?

- **It is very efficient** to compute since the smoothed images need to be computed for the descriptors
- The **DoG approximates the scale-normalized Laplacian** of **Gaussian** [see Lowe 2004], whose local maxima and minima have been shown (experimentally) to provide the most stable image features.

Local Extrema Detection

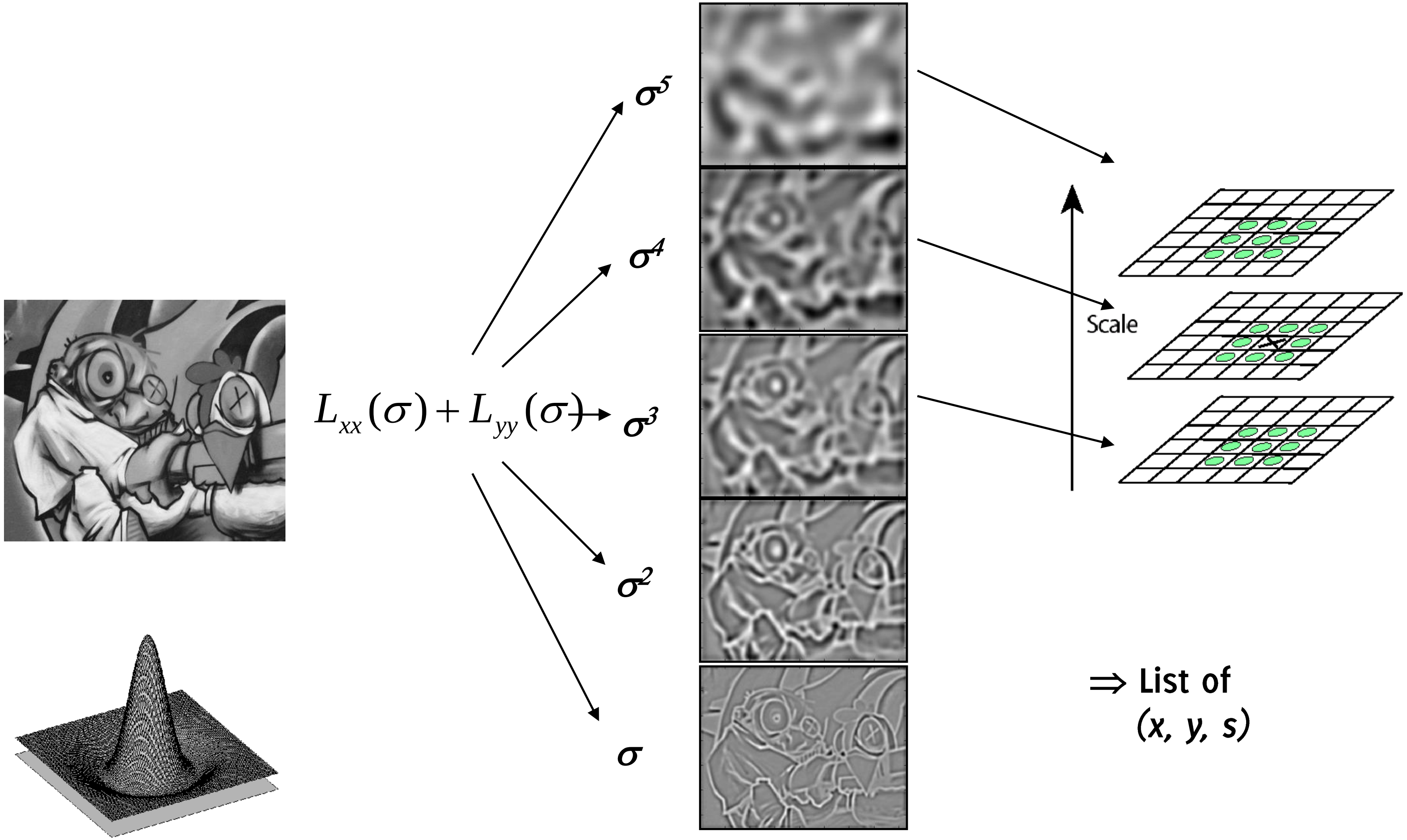
Local maxima and minima are found by comparing the values of adjacent DoG of the scale space

- Each point is compared to its 8 neighbors in the current DoG and 9 neighbors in the scale above and below
- It is selected only if it is larger/smaller than all of these



[Lowe 2004]

Local maxima in position-scale space of DoG



$\Rightarrow$ **List of *(x, y, s)***

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Keypoint localization

SIFT Scale Invariant Feature Transform [Lowe 2004]

SIFT outline

Scale-space extrema detection: search over all the scales and image locations for potential interest points that are invariant to scale and orientation.

Keypoint localization: At each candidate location, a detailed model is fit to determine location and scale

Orientation assignment: One or more orientations are assigned to each keypoint location based on local image gradient directions.

Keypoint descriptor: The local image gradients are measured at the selected scale in the region around each keypoint

SIFT generates large numbers of features that densely cover the image over the full range of scales and locations

The Issue

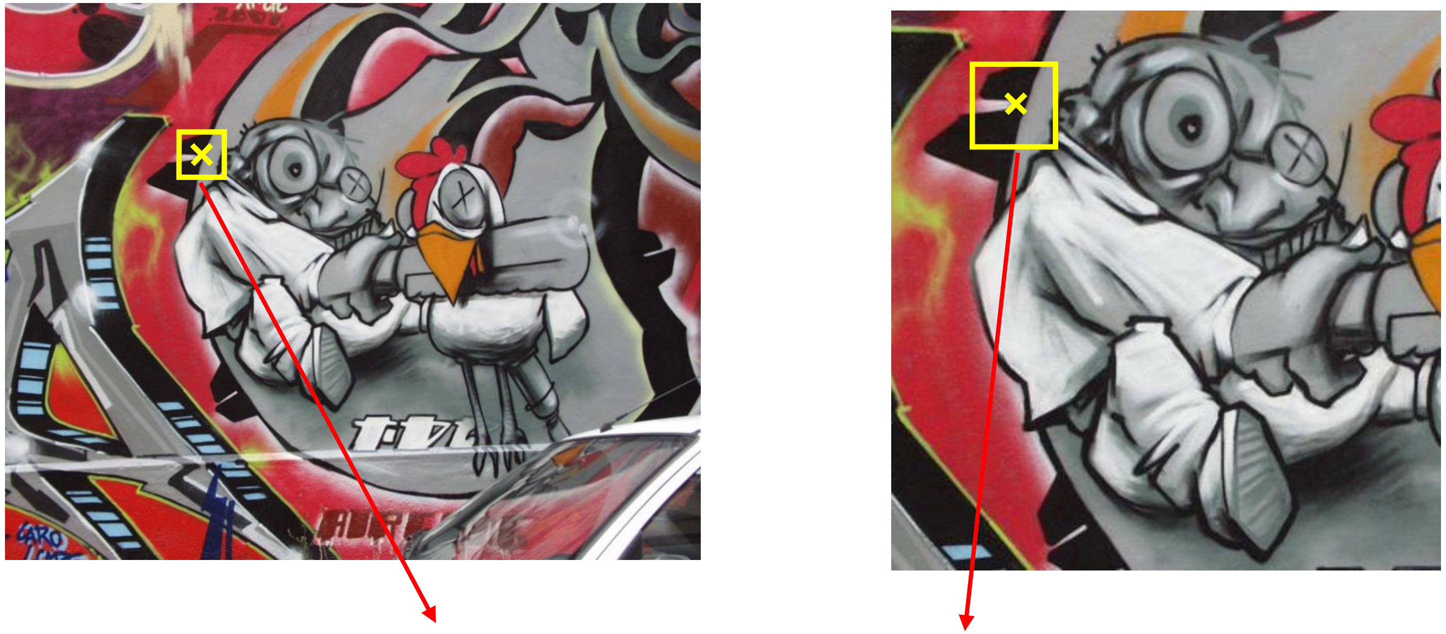
It is necessary to analyze the nearby data of each candidate keypoint to estimate its:

- location,
- scale,
- ratio of principal curvatures of the image

These information are associated to each keypoint and are used for:

- building the descriptor
- rejecting many keypoints that have low contrast or are poorly localized along an edge.

The issue



$$D(x, y, \sigma_1) = D(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{\sigma})$$

To build meaningful feature descriptors, we need to know to associate each keypoint to its intrinsic scale (Pyramid layer).

The descriptor will be built at the keypoint refence scale to become scale invariant

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The issue

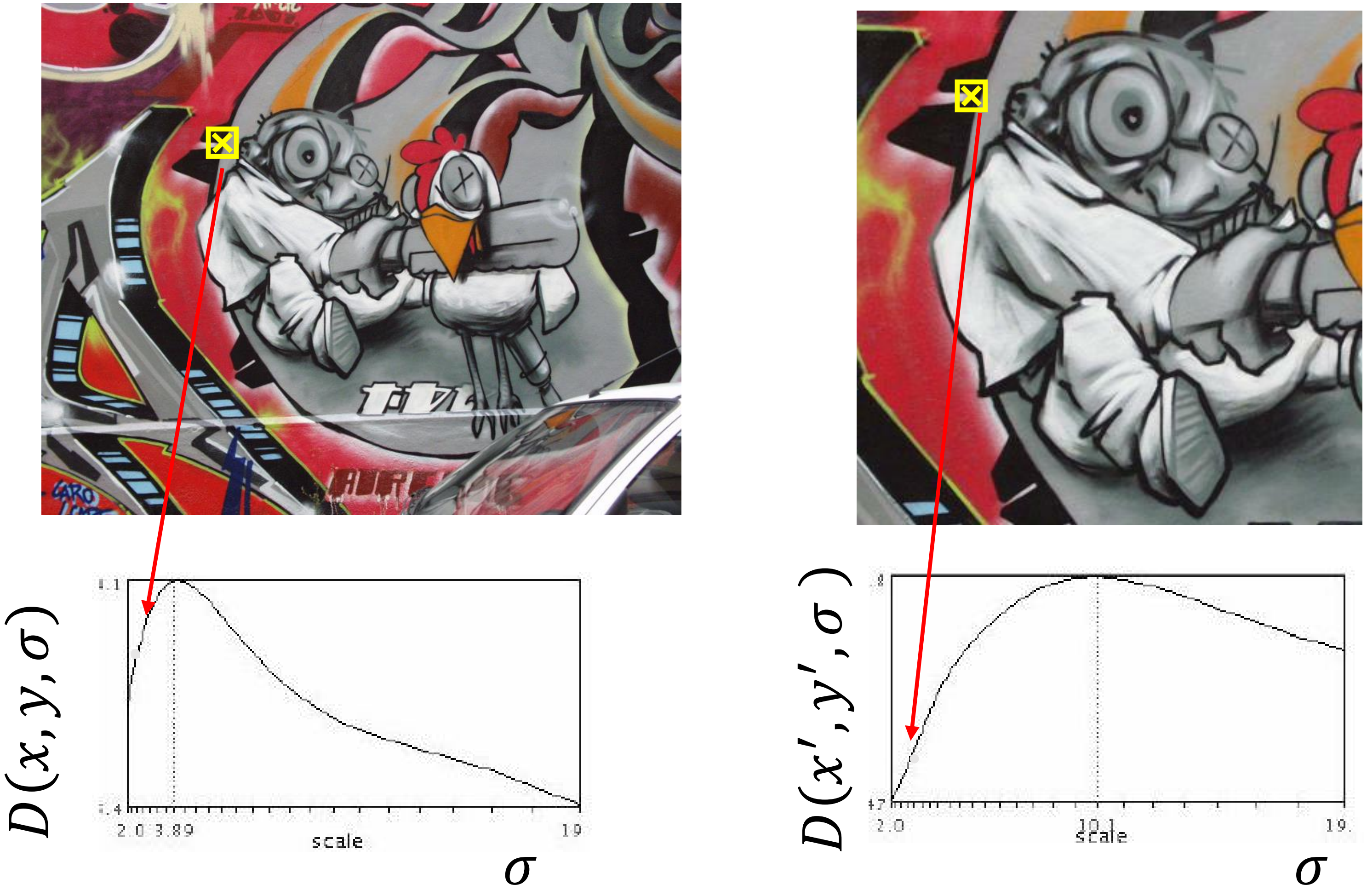
$$D(x, y, \sigma_1) = D(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{\sigma})$$

The intrinsic scale of a keypoint can be identified as a local maxima in the scale space

K. Grauman, B. Leibe

Automatic Scale Selection

Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



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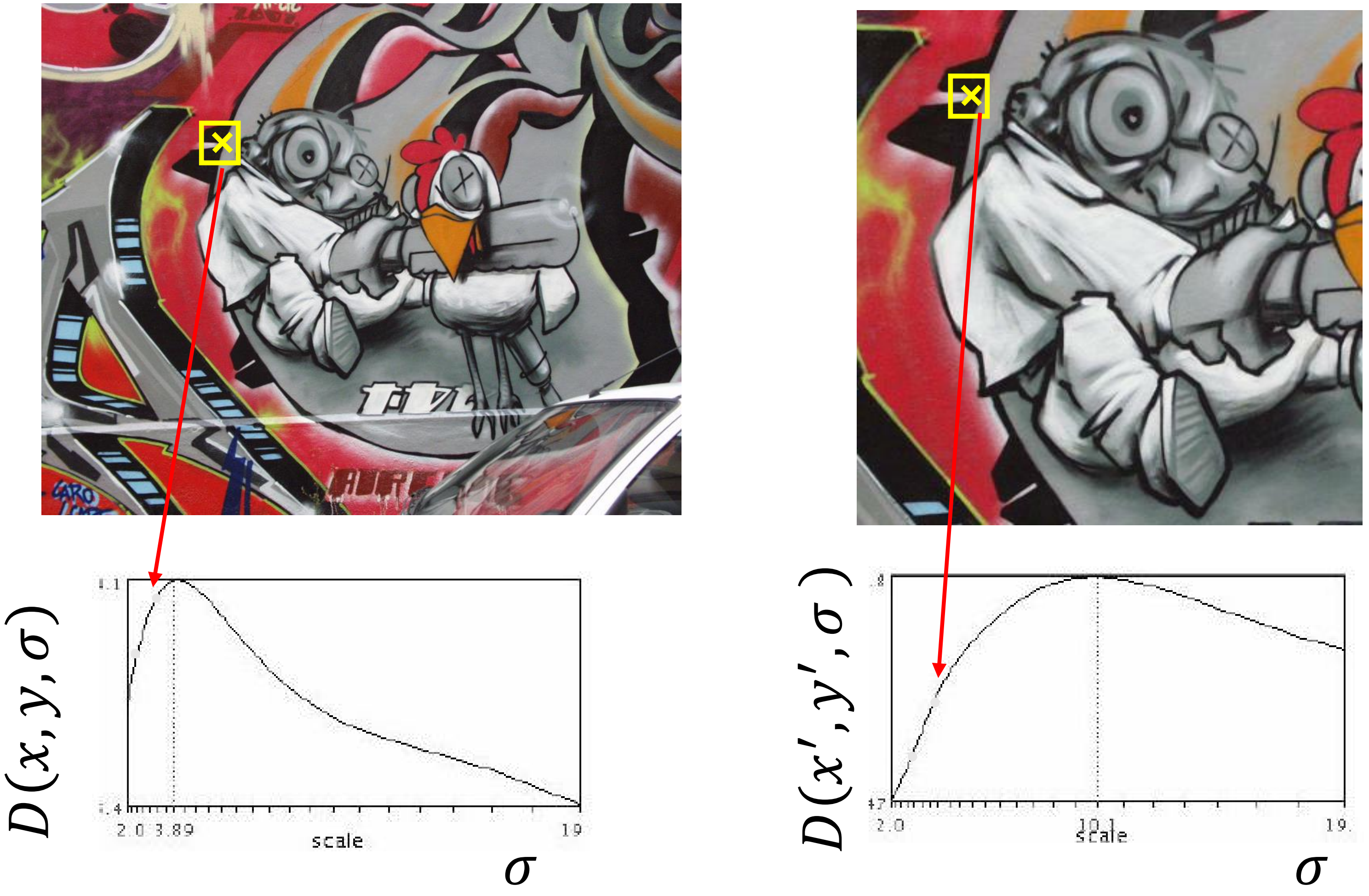
Automatic Scale Selection

Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



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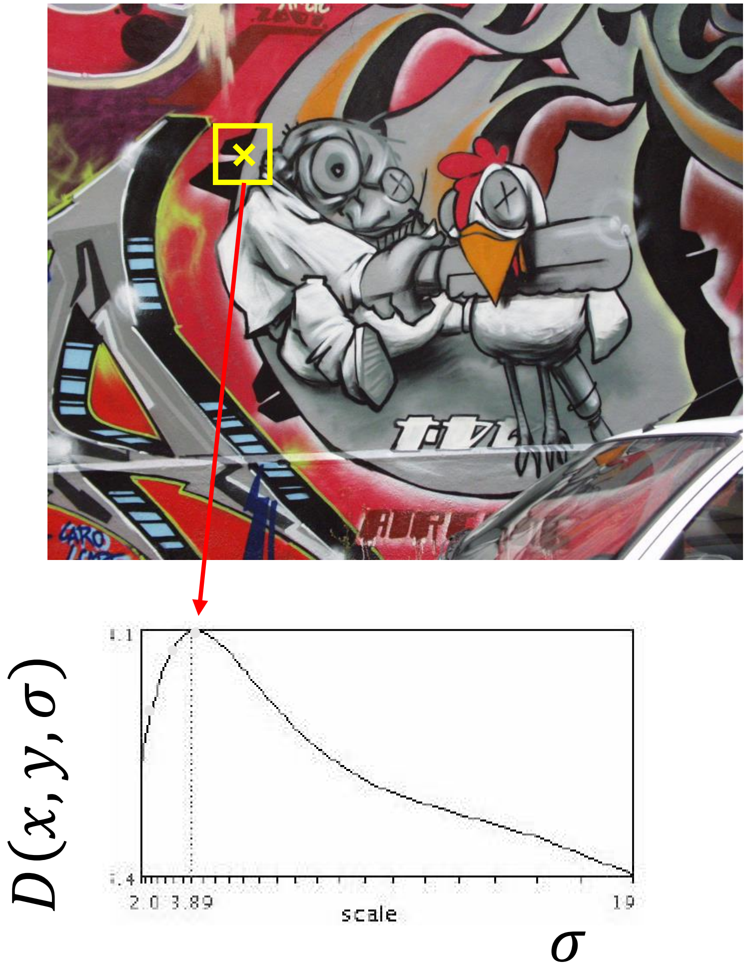
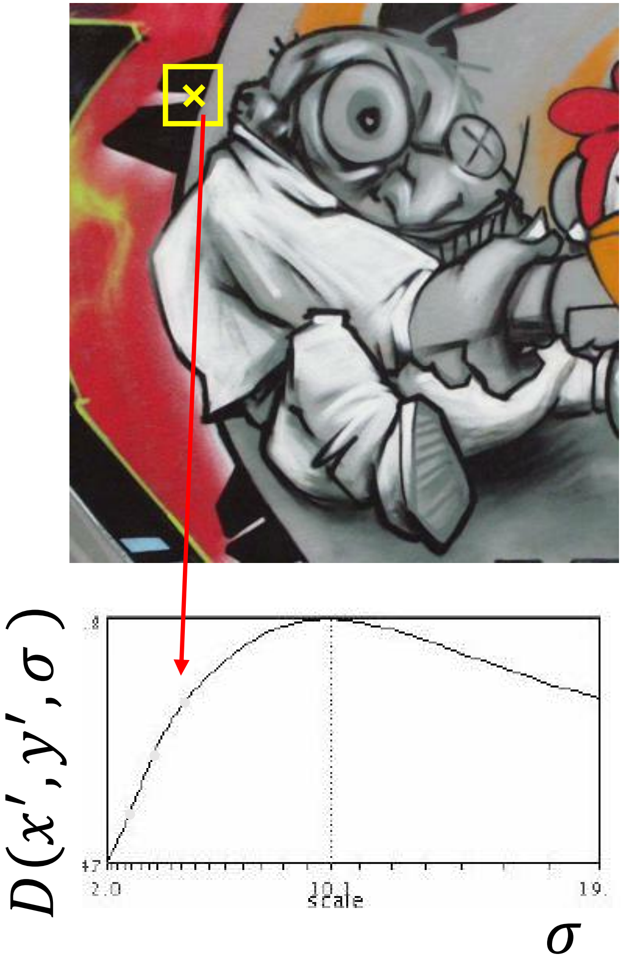
Automatic Scale Selection

Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)





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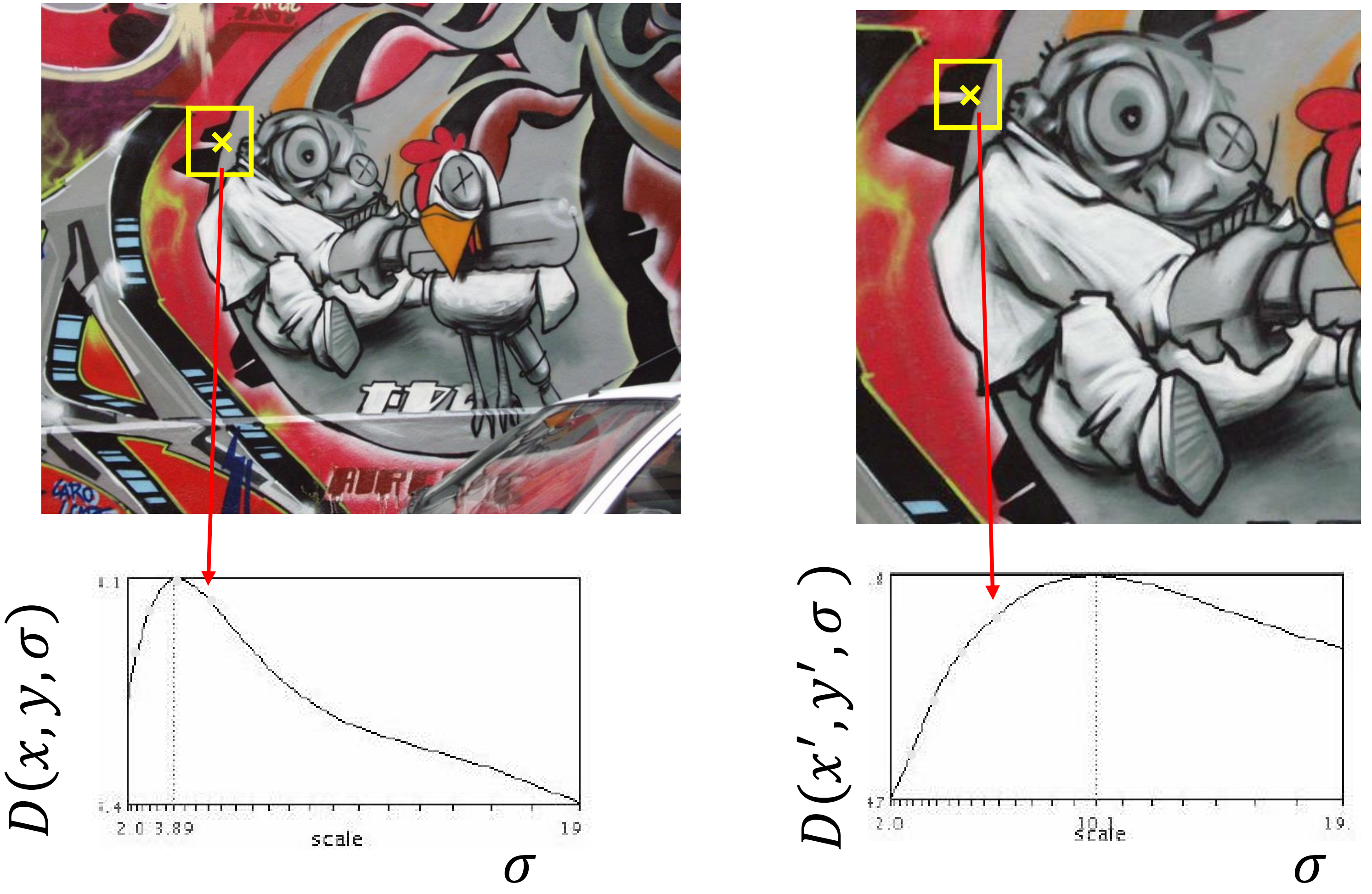
Automatic Scale Selection

Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



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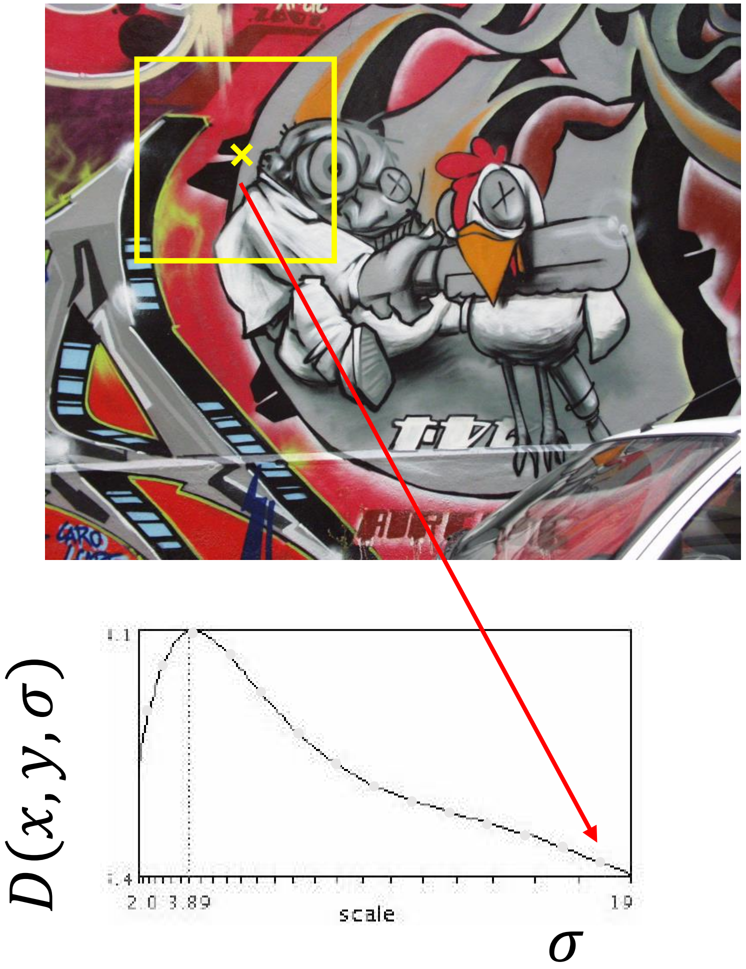
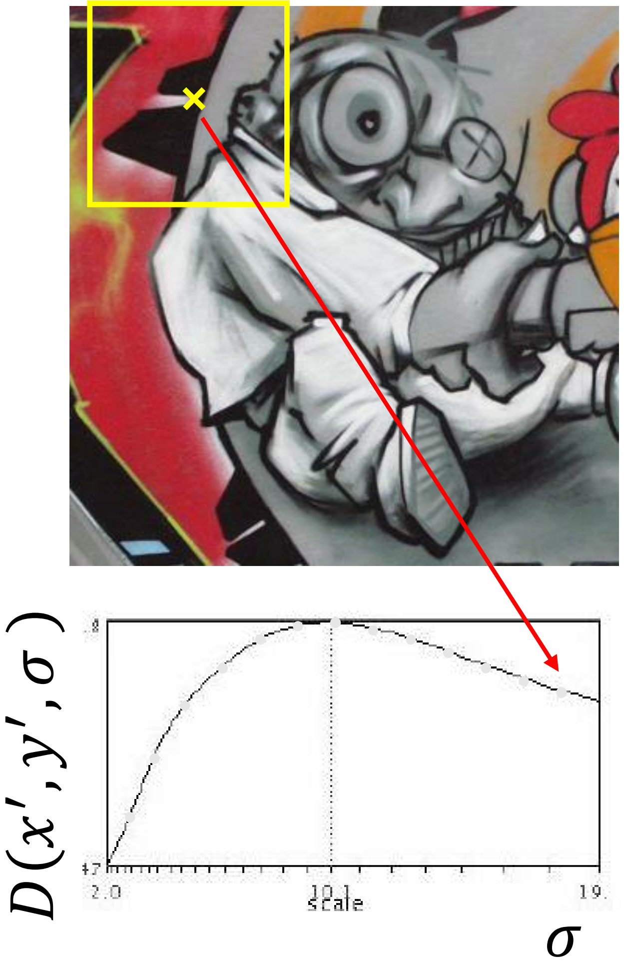
Automatic Scale Selection

Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)





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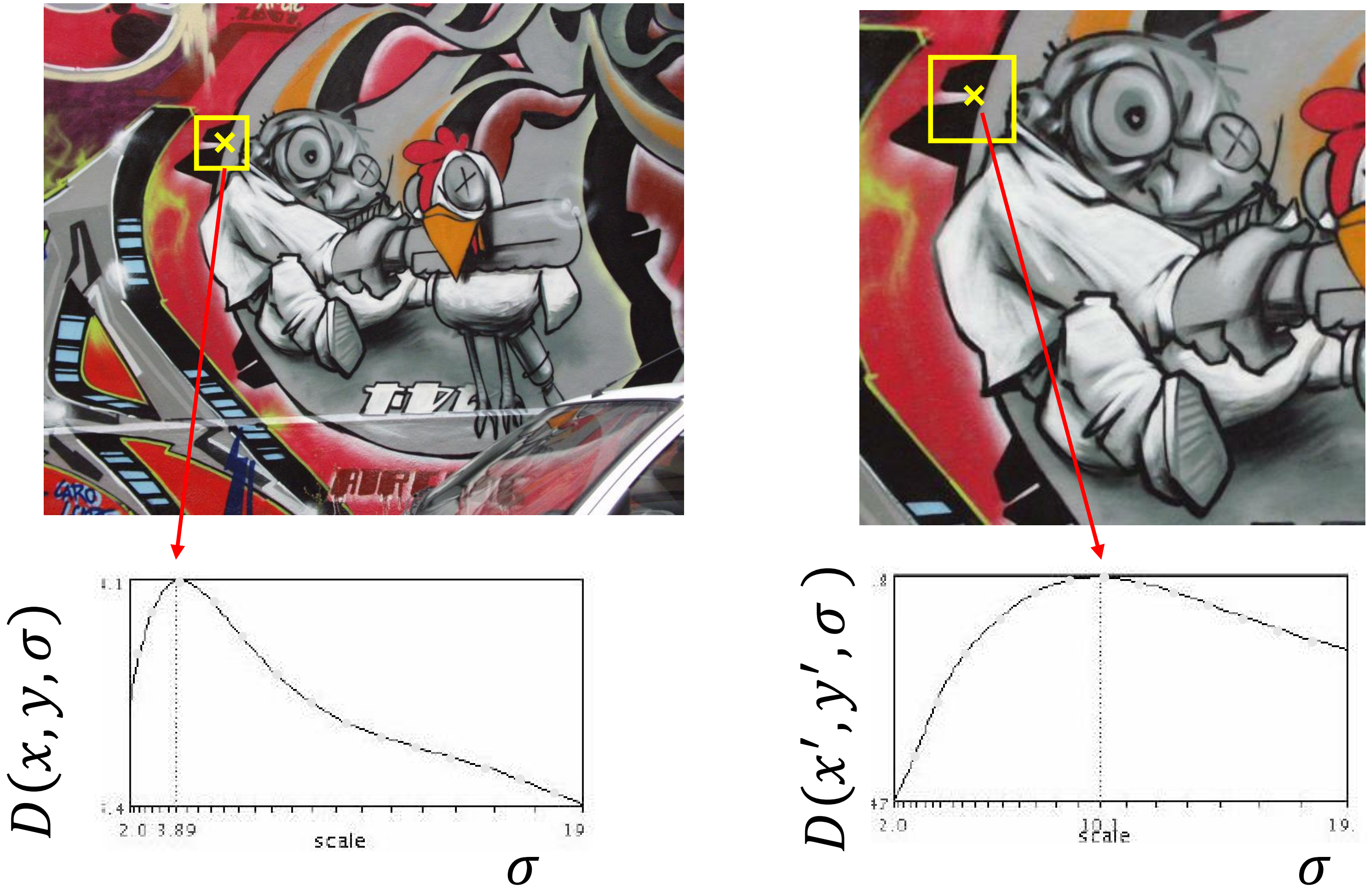
Automatic Scale Selection

Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



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Scale Invariance

- To each keypoint (r, c) we associate the scale $\hat{\sigma}$ of the scale-space corresponding to the local maxima
- The descriptor is computed from the image in the selected scale $L(\cdot,\cdot,\hat{\sigma})$
- **This provides scale-invariance** to the SIFT descriptor

SIFT Keypoint Detector: Lowe ('99)

In particular the following operations are performed:

- Fitting a **3D quadratic function in $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}$** to **interpolate the location of the maximum in the scale-space**. This associates to each extrema the 3D-fitted location $(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{\sigma})$
- **Remove low-contrast features** by thresholding $D(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{\sigma})$, e.g.,

$$|D(\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{\sigma})| < 0.3$$

- **Remove edges responses**, preserving only pixels where D has two large eigenvalues of the Hessian Matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} D_{xx} & D_{xy} \\ D_{xy} & D_{yy} \end{bmatrix}$$

It is possible to **follow an approach similar to Harris detector** to avoid computing the SVD.

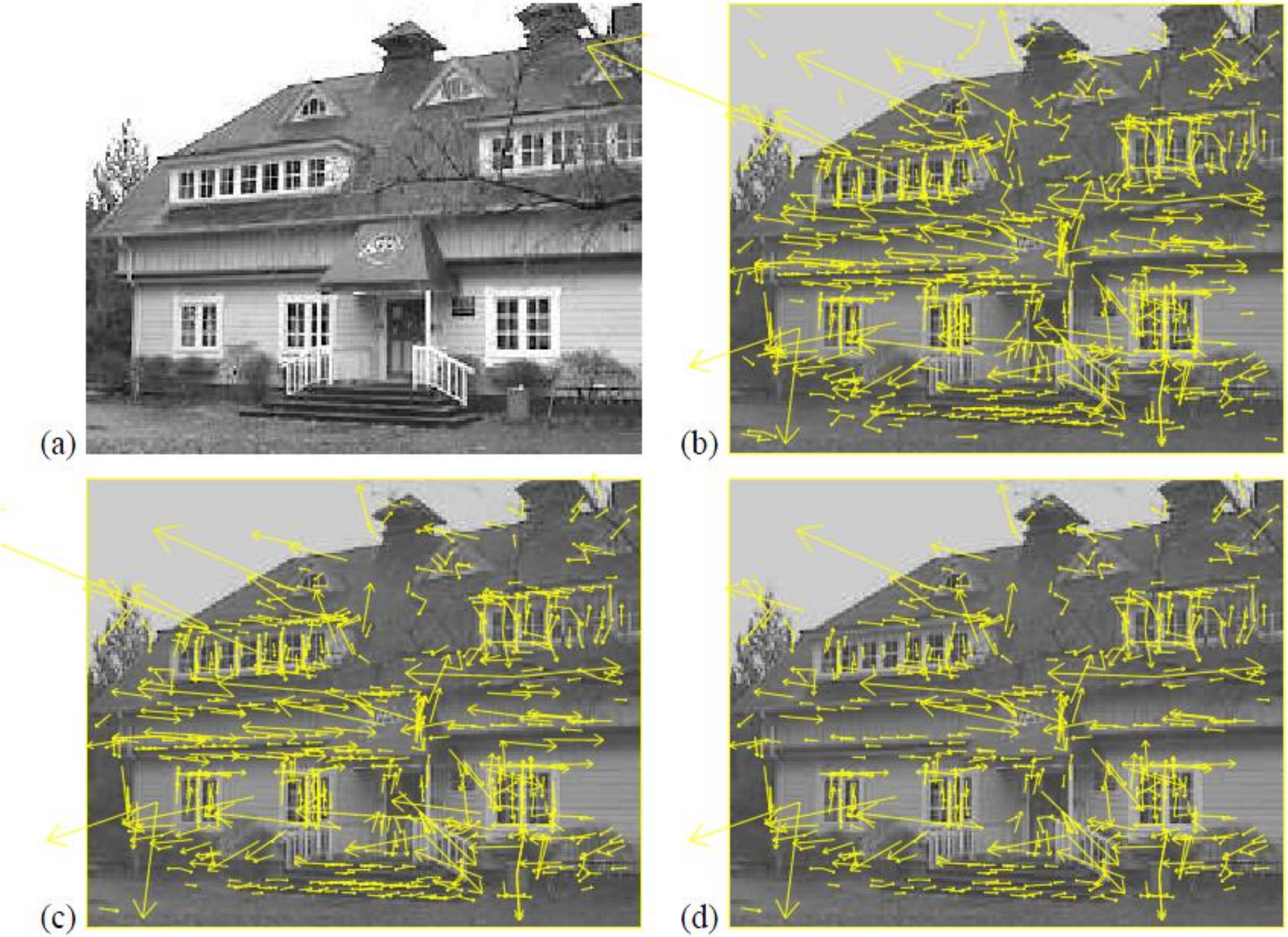


Figure 5: This figure shows the stages of keypoint selection. (a) The 233x189 pixel original image. (b) The initial 832 keypoints locations at maxima and minima of the difference-of-Gaussian function. Keypoints are displayed as vectors indicating scale, orientation, and location. (c) After applying a threshold on minimum contrast, 729 keypoints remain. (d) The final 536 keypoints that remain following an additional threshold on ratio of principal curvatures.

Figure from [Lowe 2004]

Scale Invariance

The features are built from the same pyramid used to locate the scale-invariant keypoints

The scale associated to each keypoint (r, c) determines the Gaussian smoothed image, $L(\cdot,\cdot,\sigma)$, that is used to build the descriptor at (r, c)

Thus, each keypoint is associated to a scale of the scale-space

Scale-invariance to the SIFT descriptor is achieved by the scale-invariance property of the keypoint

Orientation Assignment

SIFT Scale Invariant Feature Transform [Lowe 2004]

SIFT outline

Scale-space extrema detection: search over all the scales and image locations for potential interest points that are invariant to scale and orientation.

Keypoint localization: At each candidate location, a detailed model is fit to determine location and scale

Orientation assignment: One or more orientations are assigned to each keypoint location based on local image gradient directions.

Keypoint descriptor: The local image gradients are measured at the selected scale in the region around each keypoint

SIFT generates large numbers of features that densely cover the image over the full range of scales and locations

Rotation Invariance: The Basic Idea

Assigning a **principal orientation** for **each keypoint**

Each descriptor can be represented **relative to this orientation**

This yields **invariance** with respect to image **rotations**

How to Assign an Orientation to Each Keypoint?

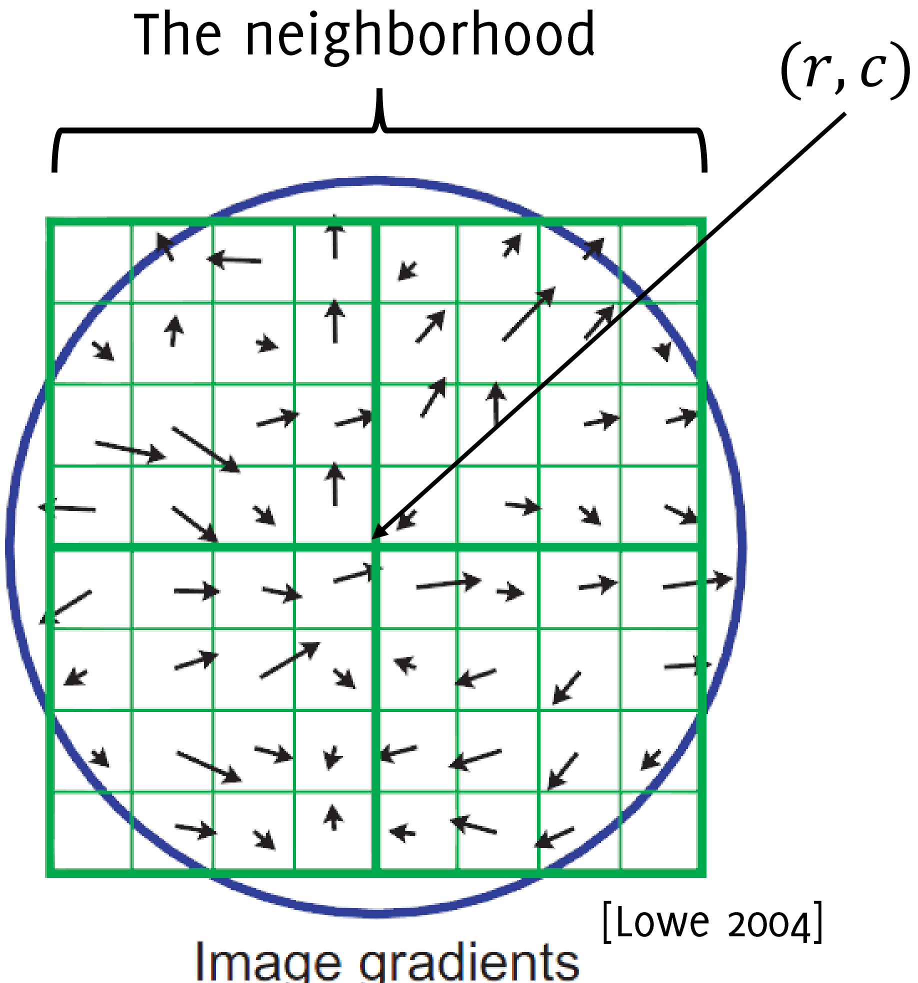
Goal: compute the **principal orientation** in a neighborhood of the keypoint (r, c) in $L(\cdot, \cdot, \hat{\sigma})$ (at the selected scale)

1. For (x, y) in a 16 x 16 neighborhood of (r, c) compute:
   - $\theta(x, y)$ the orientation of the gradient
   - $m(x, y)$ the magnitude of the gradient
2. Compute an histogram of the orientations over 36 bins, each bin covering 10 degrees.
3. Weight each orientation by:
   - the gradient magnitude
   - a Gaussian weight to give more relevance to estimates that are close to (r, c)

The idea: peaks in the orientation histogram correspond to dominant directions of local gradients

Local Descriptors: Image Gradients

The idea: peaks in the orientation histogram correspond to dominant directions of local gradients



[Lowe 2004]

Local Descriptors: the Orientation Histogram

Weight each orientation according to:

- the gradient magnitude (orientation at pixels in high-contrast regions are more relevant)
- the distance from the keypoint location. This weight is assigned by a Gaussian function having standard deviation $1.5\,\hat{\sigma}$, where $\hat{\sigma}$ is the keypoint selected scale

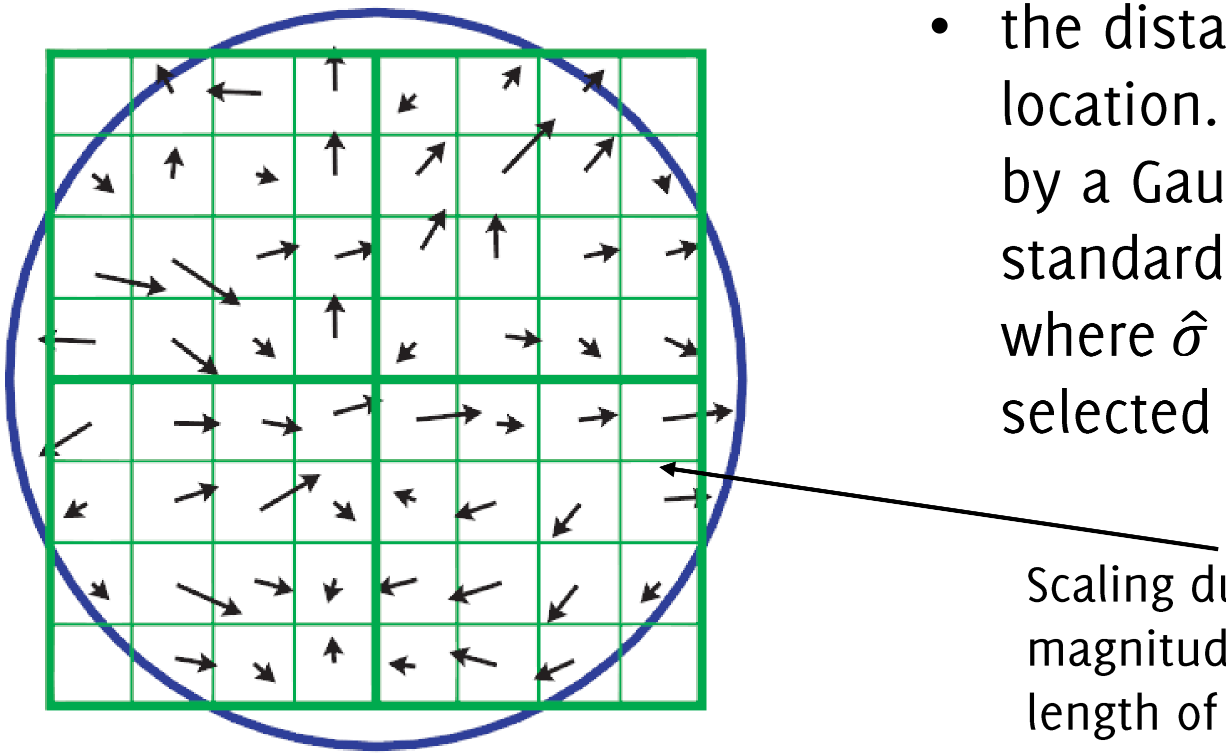


Image gradients

Scaling due to the gradient magnitude is indicated by the length of the arrow. Gaussian weights are indicated by the circle.

Local Descriptors: Orientation assignment

The **highest peak** in the histogram is detected

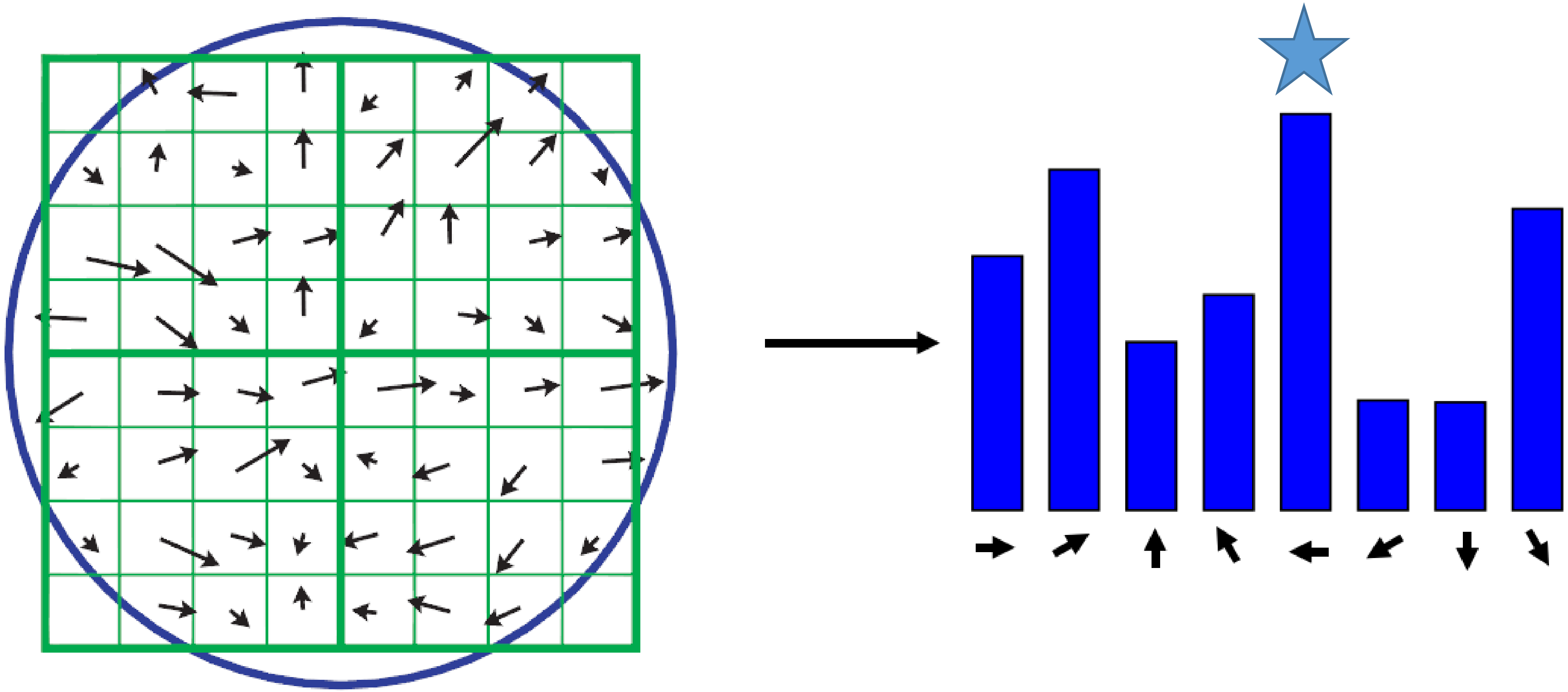


Image gradients

Local Descriptors: Orientation assignment

The **highest peak** in the histogram is detected, and then any other local peak that is within 80% of the highest peak is used to also create a keypoint with that orientation

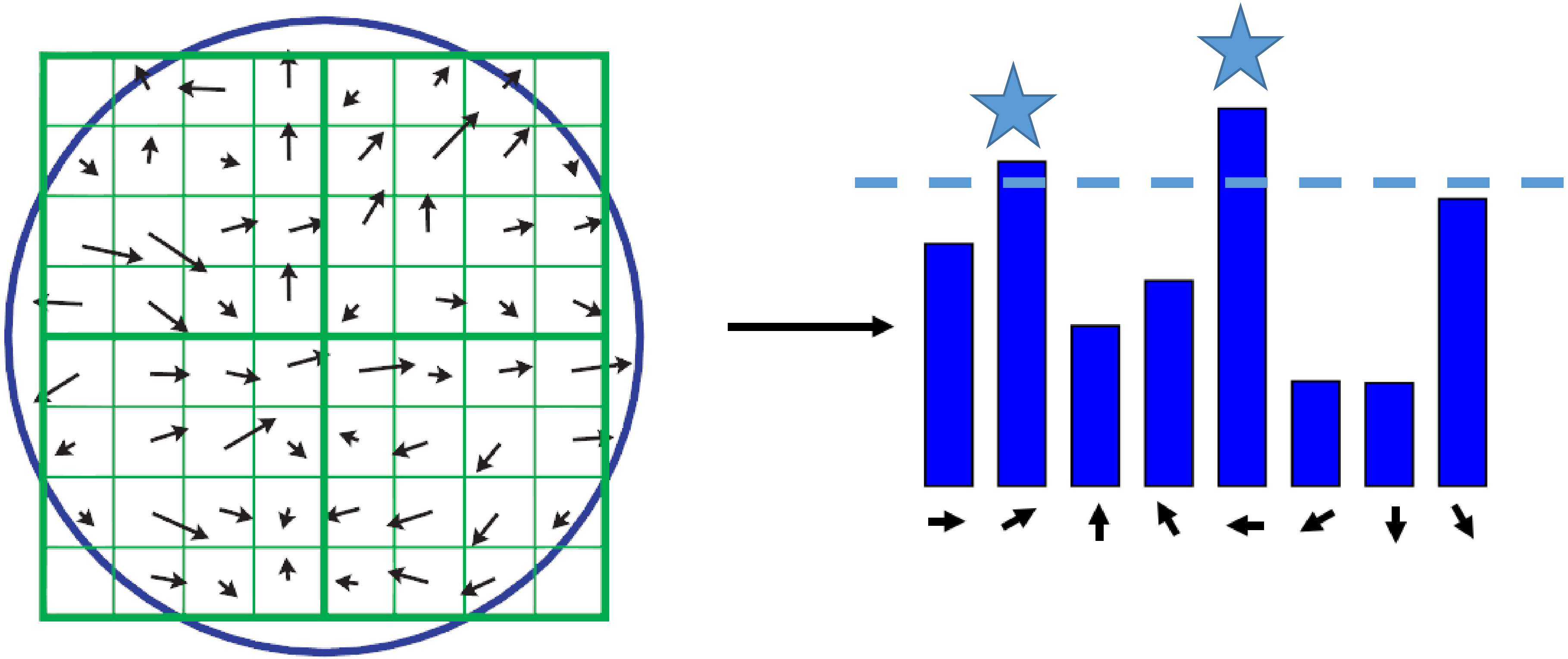


Image gradients

Local Descriptors: Orientation assignment

A parabola is fit to the 3 histogram values closest to each peak to interpolate the peak position for better accuracy.

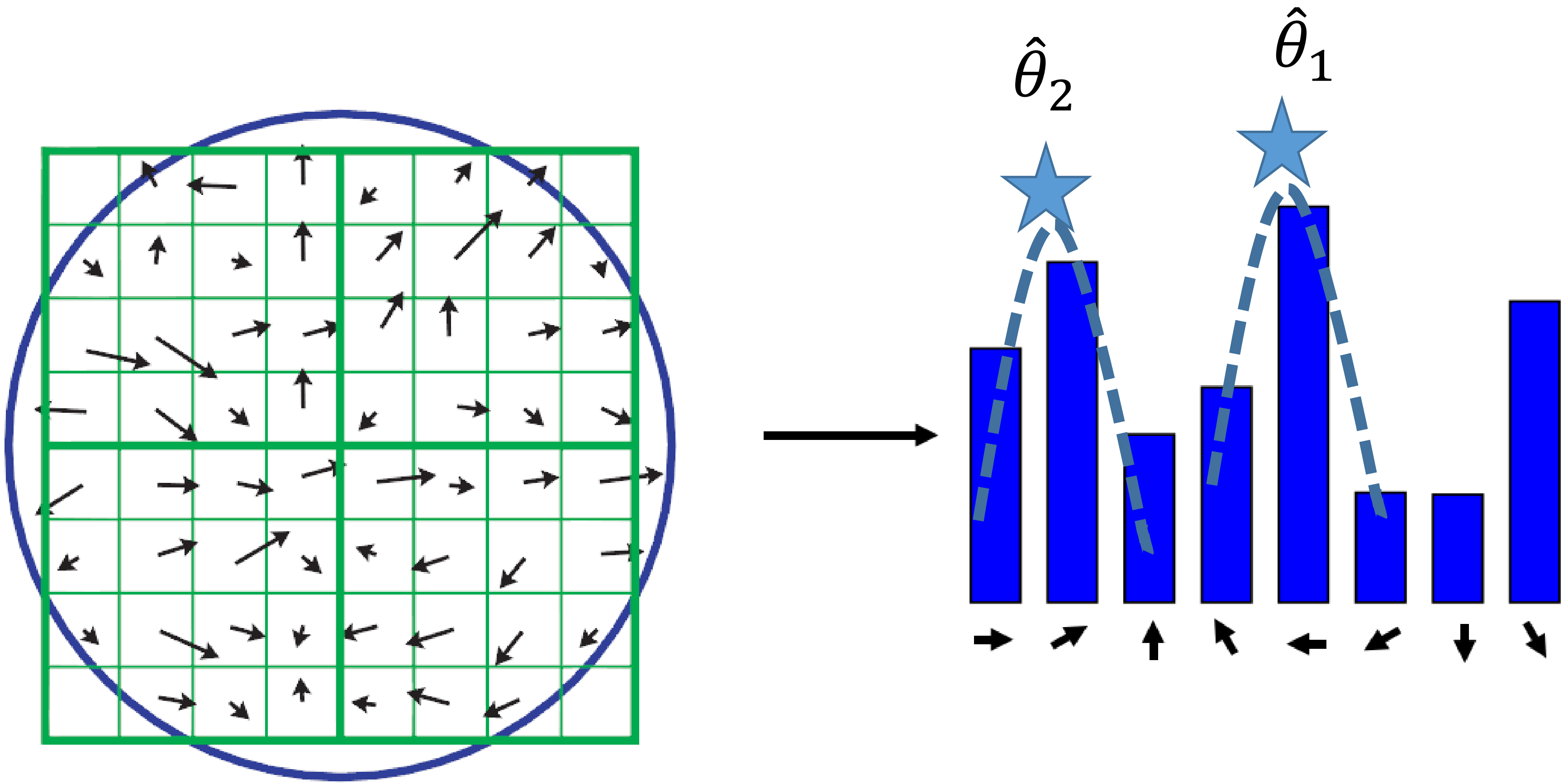
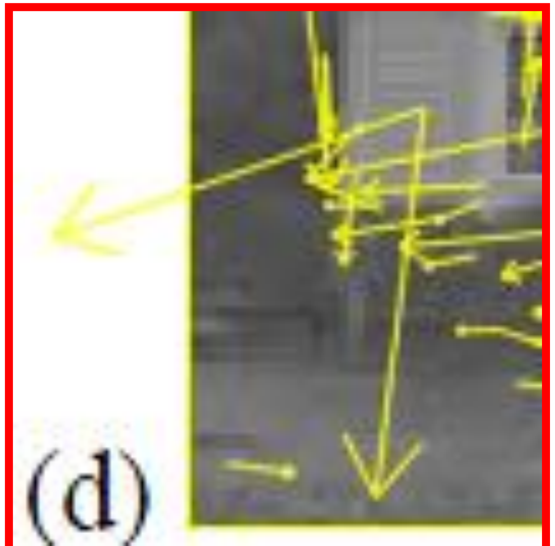


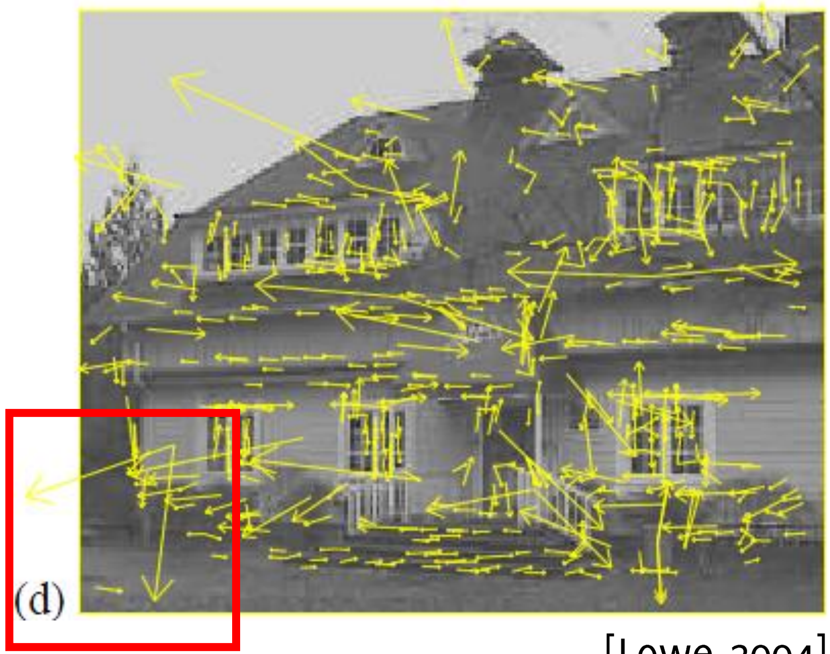
Image gradients

Local Descriptors: Orientation assignment

Thus, at few locations (about 15% in the experiments in [Lowe 2004]) multiple keypoints might be created at the same location and scale but different orientations

These contribute significantly to the stability of matching.





[Lowe 2004]

Giacomo Boracchi

Keypoint descriptor

SIFT Scale Invariant Feature Transform [Lowe 2004]

SIFT outline

Scale-space extrema detection: search over all the scales and image locations for potential interest points that are invariant to scale and orientation.

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Keypoint descriptor: The local image gradients are measured at the selected scale in the region around each keypoint

SIFT generates large numbers of features that densely cover the image over the full range of scales and locations

The Descriptor [Lowe 2004]

The **previous operations** have **assigned** an

- image location $\hat{x}, \hat{y}$
- scale $\hat{\sigma}$
- orientation $\hat{\theta}$ (and possibly more orientations)

to each keypoint.

Descriptors are built on images transformed w.r.t. the assigned location, orientation, and scale: this assignment **provides invariance with respect to these transformations**.

The **SIFT descriptor** is then extracted from local image region around each keypoint to be **highly distinctive** and **invariant** as much as possible to **other photometric and geometric transformations**, such as change in **illumination** or 3D **viewpoint changes**.

The SIFT Descriptor

SIFT descriptors are built from the image gradients.

Preprocessing:

- the image **gradient magnitudes and orientations** are sampled around $\hat{x}, \hat{y}$, **from the layer $\hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}$ of the pyramid** (i.e. using the selected scale).
- the gradient orientations **are rotated relative to $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$** (i.e., the keypoint orientation).

Local Descriptors: SIFT Descriptor

As for orientation assignment, **the gradient orientation are weighted w.r.t. the magnitude and the distance** from the center (this guarantees robustness to small changes in the position of the window)

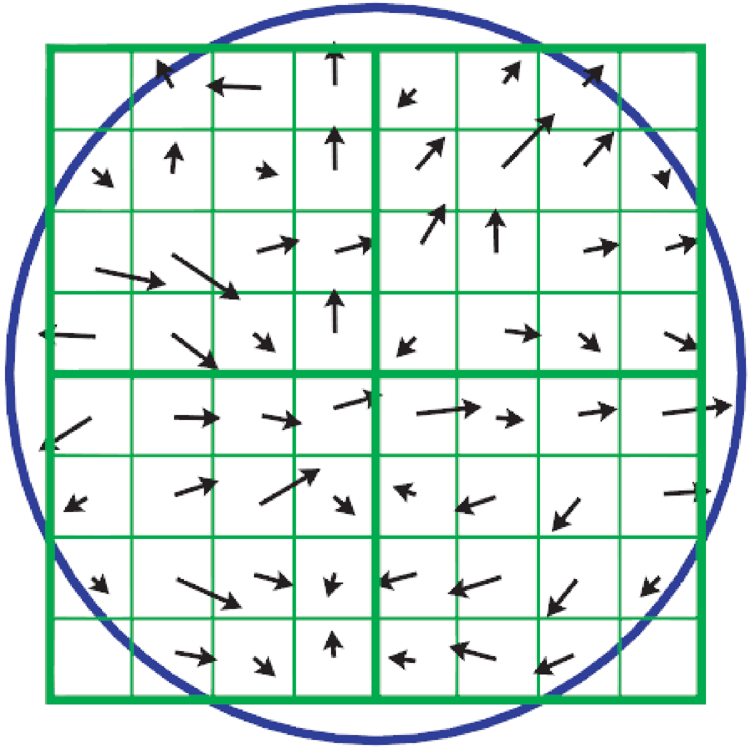


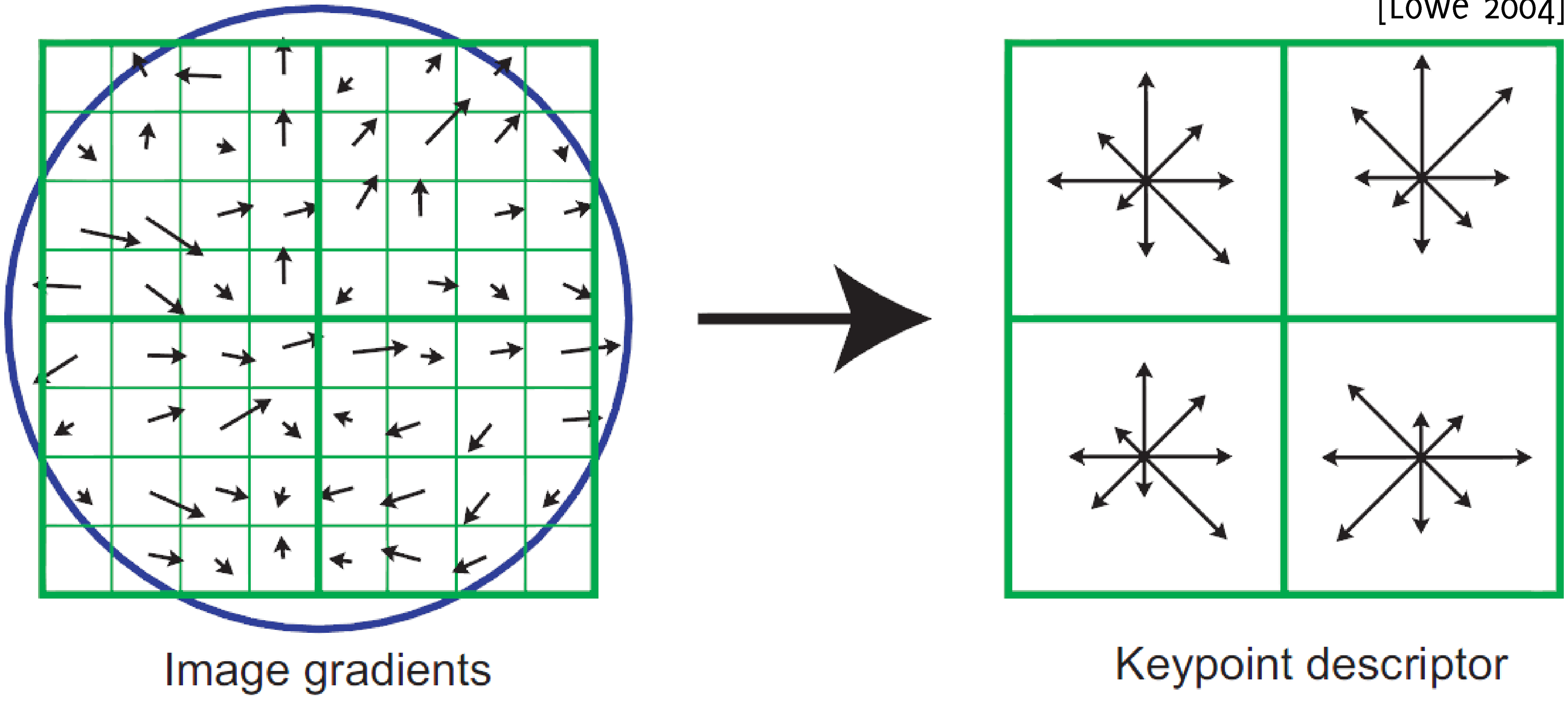
Image gradients

The SIFT descriptor

4 Orientation histograms are created over 8 directions. The length of each arrow indicates the height of the corresponding bin.

The descriptor is a vector stack of these histograms

[Lowe 2004]



The SIFT descriptor

In the typical implementation, the region is divided in 4x4 regions, each containing an 8-bin histogram.

This yields a descriptor v having $4 \times 4 \times 8$ = 128-dimensions

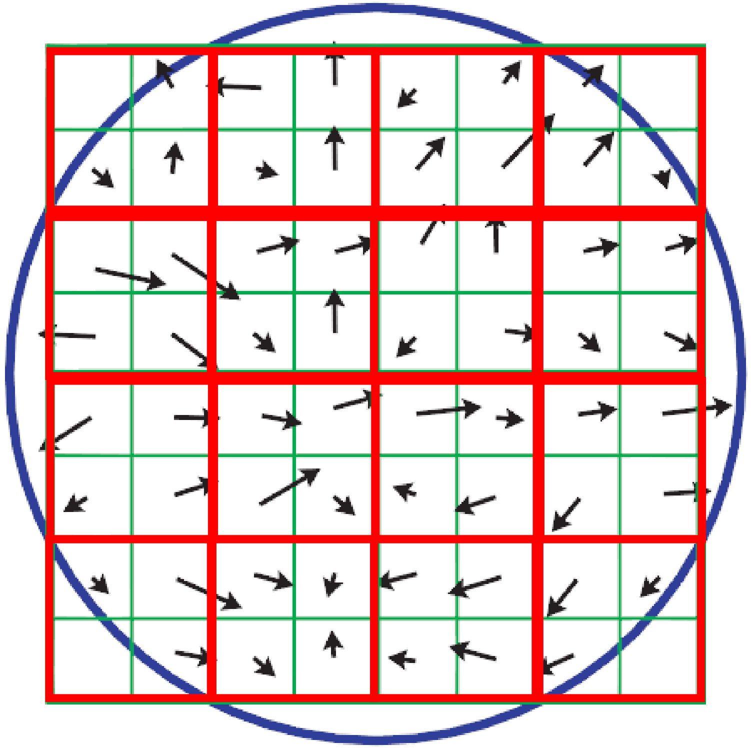


Image gradients

The SIFT descriptor

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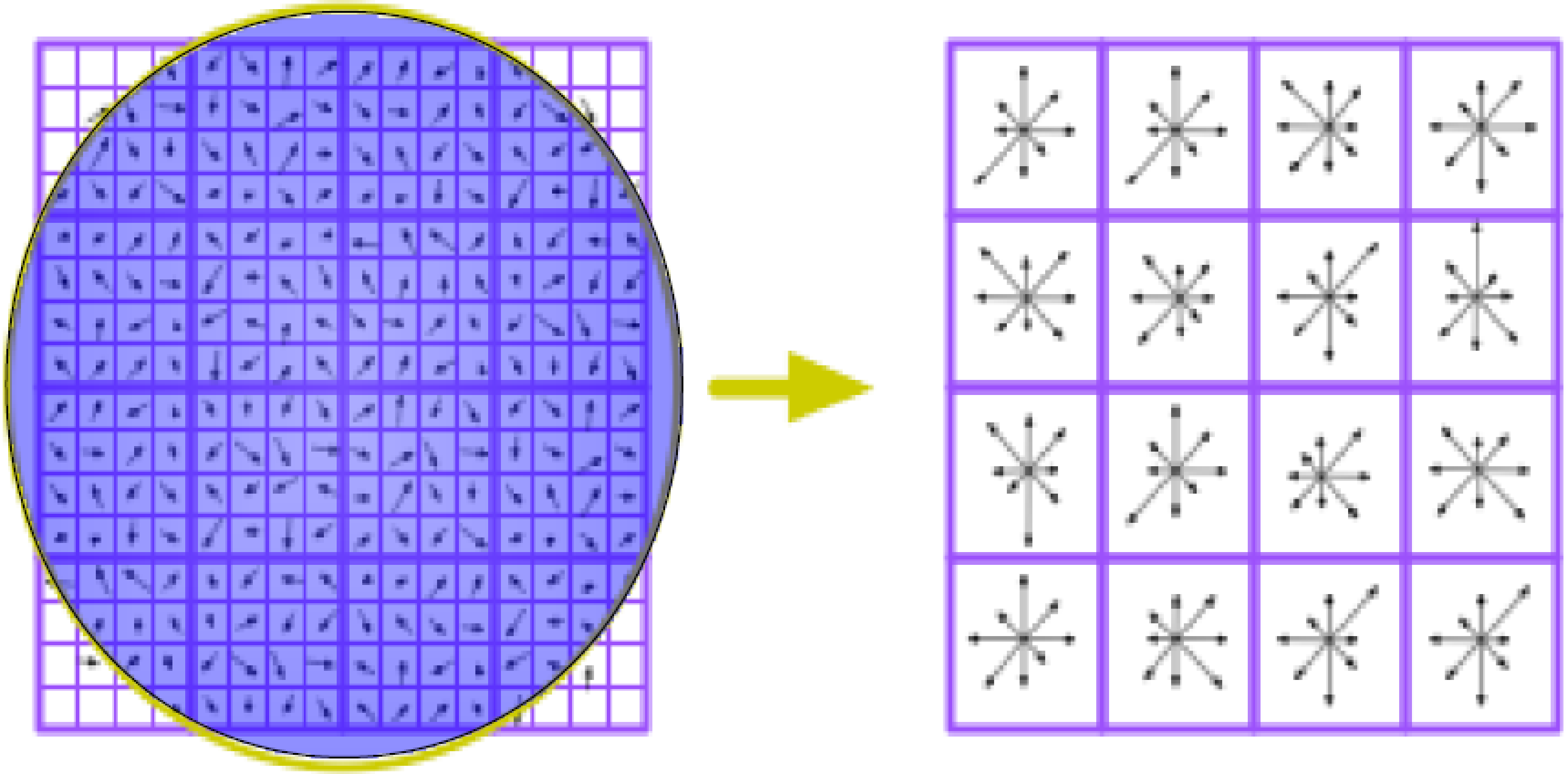
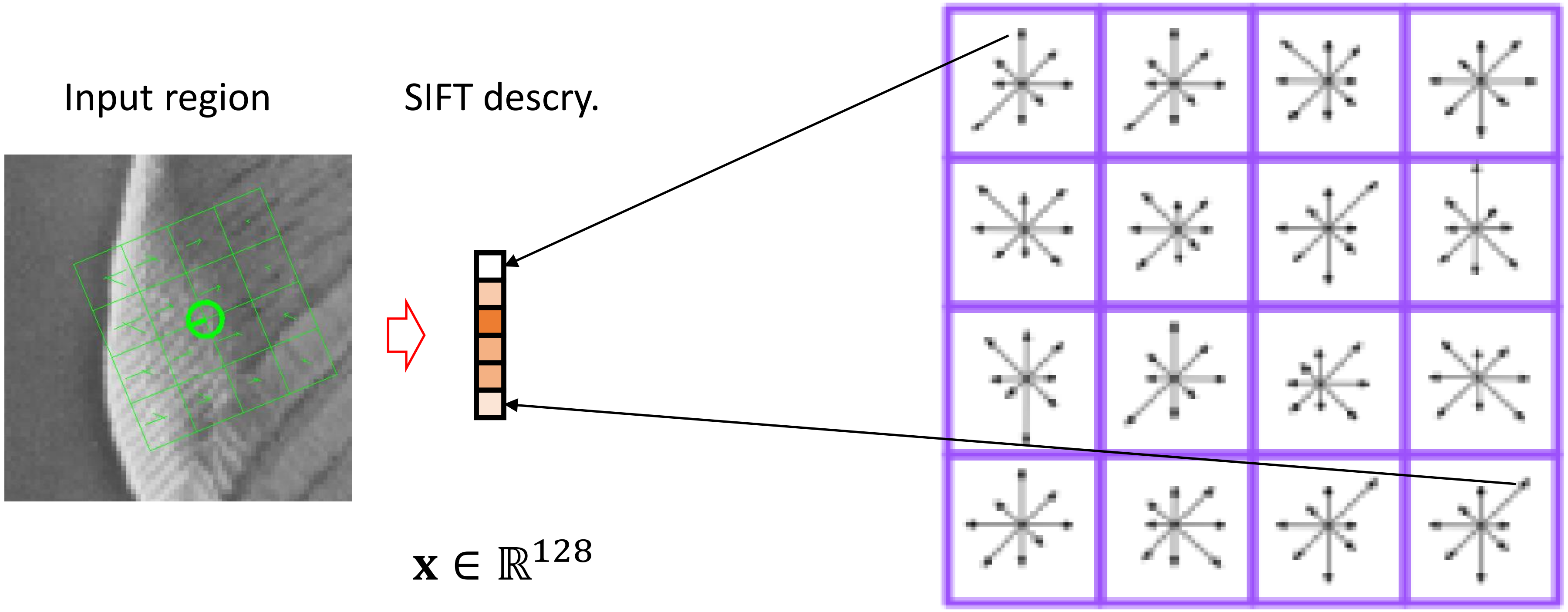


The SIFT Descriptor

The descriptor encodes the height of the orientation histogram

Input region

SIFT descry.



$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{128}$

[Lowe 2004] Lowe "Distinctive Image Features from Scale-Invariant Keypoints" IJCV 2004

An Example

An example of few SIFT selected scale and orientations

(the larger the square, the larger the corresponding scale in the scale-space)

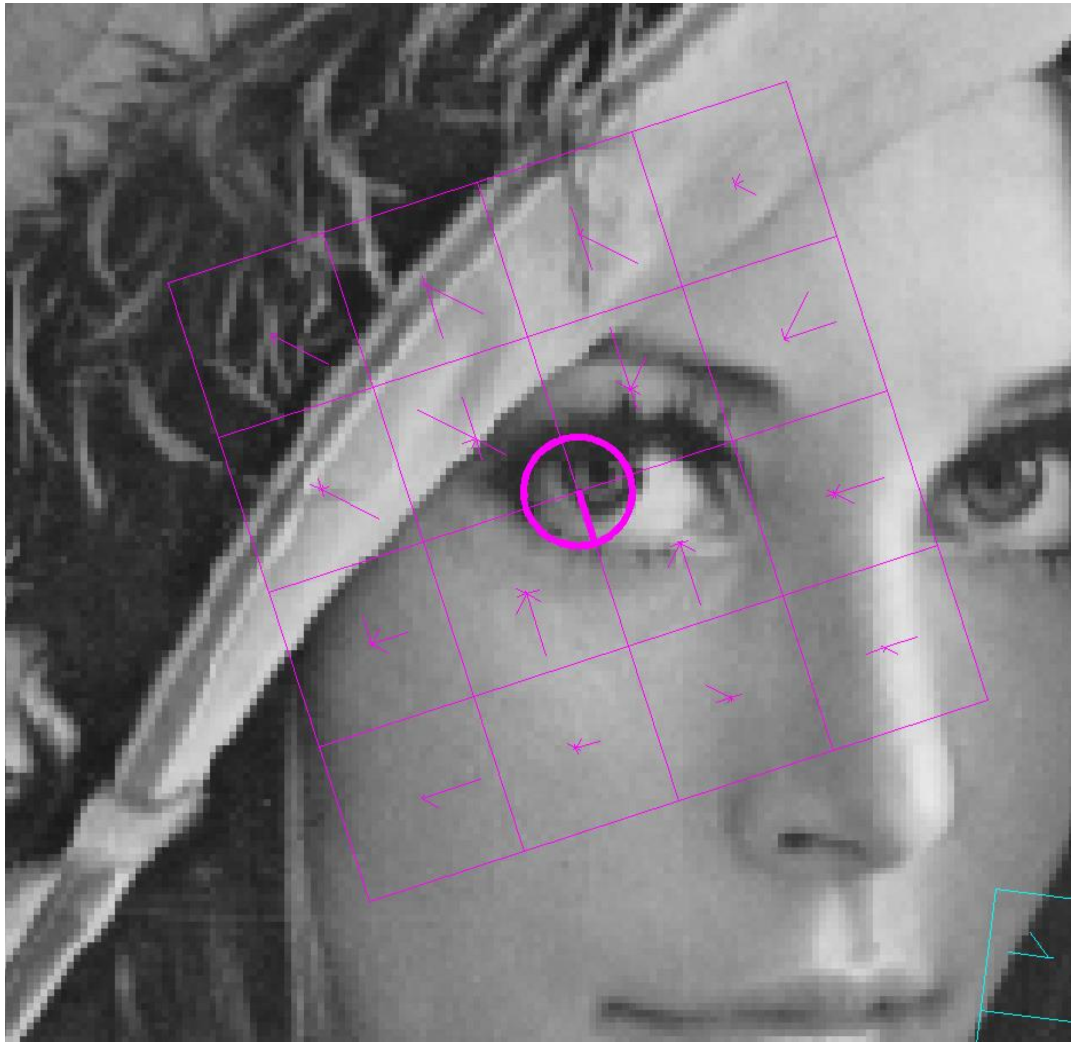
An Example

An example of few SIFT selected scale and orientations

The keypoint was found at an high level of the pyramid, that's why there is a large region around.

Lena' eye is likely to be preserved even by heavy blur in the scale space

Image have been rescaled



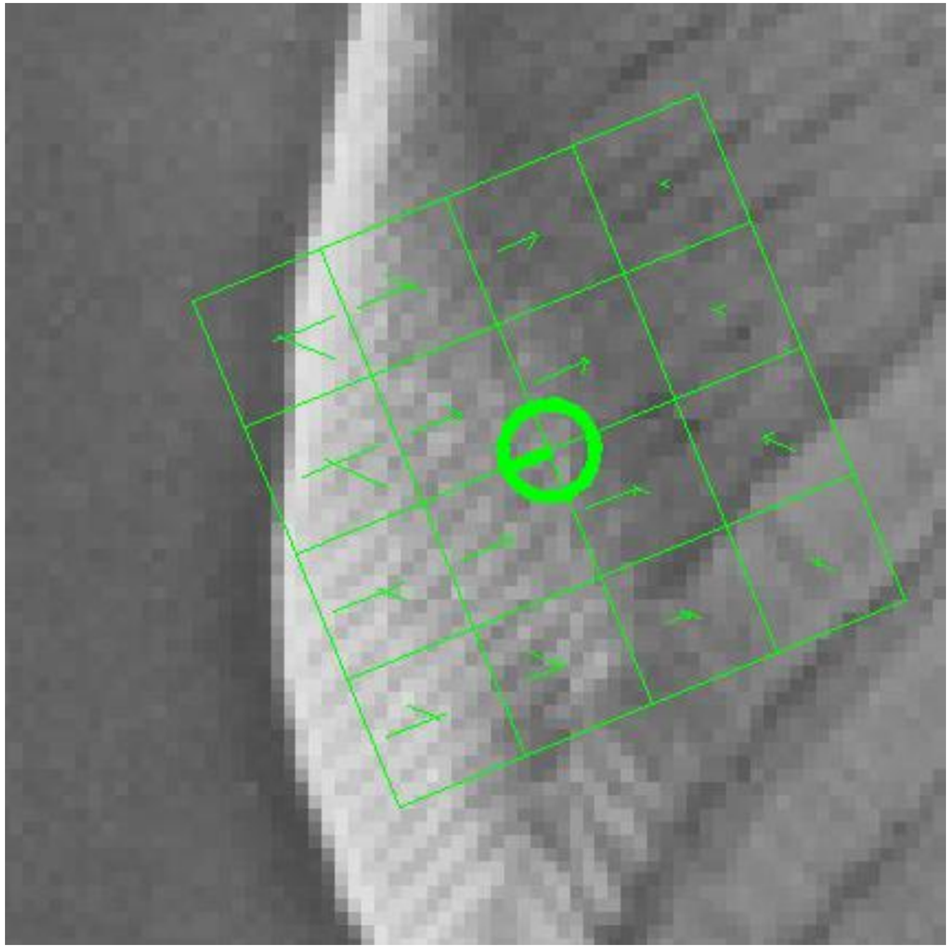
An Example

An example of few SIFT selected scale and orientations

The keypoint was found at a low level of the pyramid, that’s why there is a small region around.

Such a texture pattern is likely to be suppressed by blur at lower levels

Image have been rescaled



Robustness to Illumination Changes

SIFT is invariant to affine changes in illumination

- Gradients are themselves invariant to additive shifts, thus SIFT are invariant to «additive illumination changes»
- To achieve invariance to intensity scaling, each descriptor is normalized to yield unitary length i.e. $v \rightarrow \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}$

Nonlinear illumination changes might affect SIFT, introducing gradients having large magnitude.

To increase the robustness to nonlinear illumination changes, the components of v are clipped to 0.2 and then v is normalized again.

Other Descriptors

BRISK, SURF, FREAK

Other approaches

Lowe has inspired many research works in the following years

Further developments aimed at designing descriptors that are

- more robust to viewpoint changes and artifacts
- easier to extract
- faster to match

Example are:

- **PCA-SIFT reduces the descriptor vector** from 128 to 36 dimension using principal component analysis
- **Speed-up Robust Feature (SURF):** relies on local gradient histograms computed by the Haar-wavelet that are **efficiently computed** using integral images (64 dimensional)

SURF

Surf replaces derivative filters used in gradient computation with "flat filters" that assume integer values

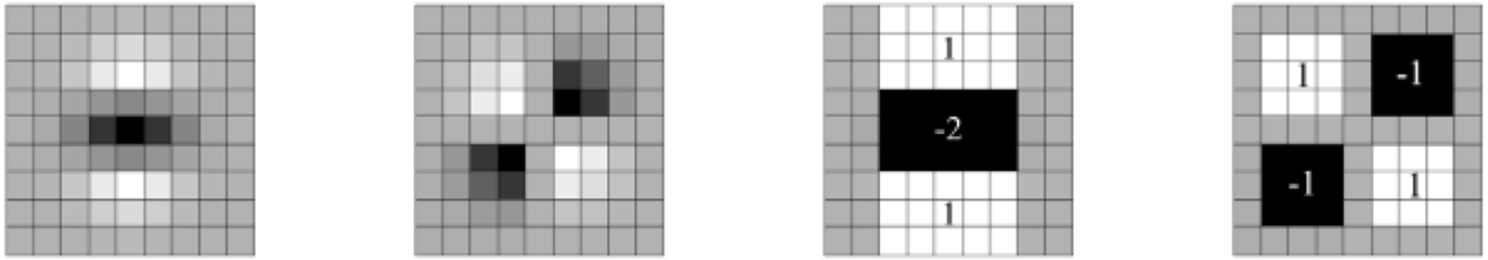


Fig. 1. Left to right: the (discretised and cropped) Gaussian second order partial derivatives in y-direction and xy-direction, and our approximations thereof using box filters. The grey regions are equal to zero.

Convolution against these filters can be efficiently computed by means of the *integral image*

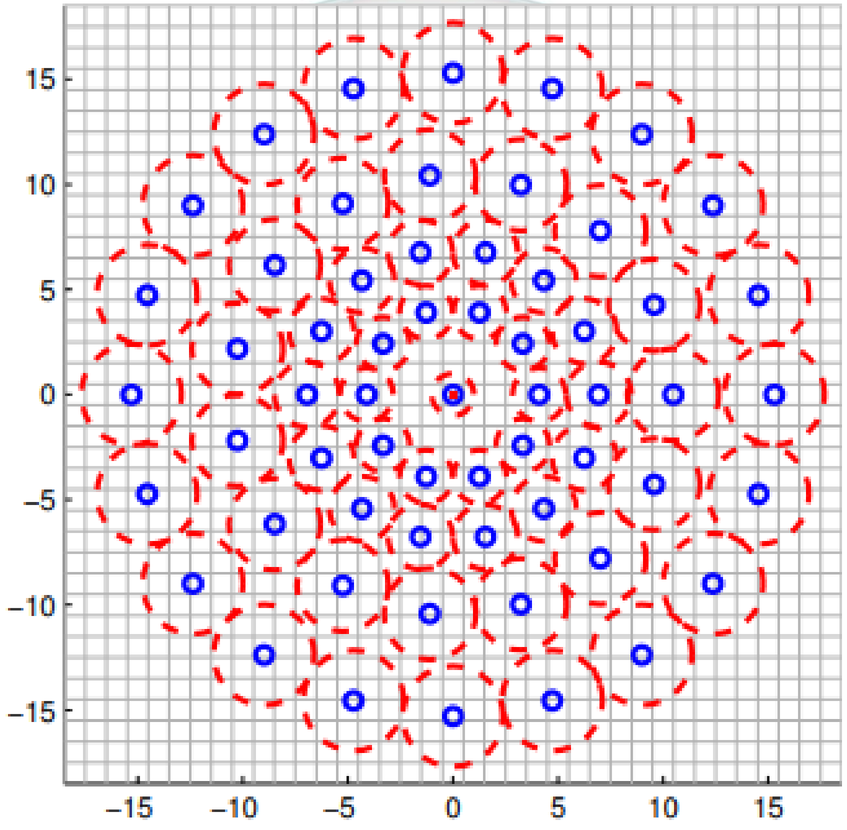
Bay H., Ess A., Tuytelaars T., Van Gool L., "SURF: Speeded Up Robust Features", CVIU, 2008

Binary Descriptors

Latest research is devoted to descriptors that are faster to compute, even though less accurate than SIFT.

BRISK (Binary robust invariant scalable keypoints) is a binary descriptor that encodes the sign of the difference in «receptive fields» around a keypoint

BRISK sampling pattern



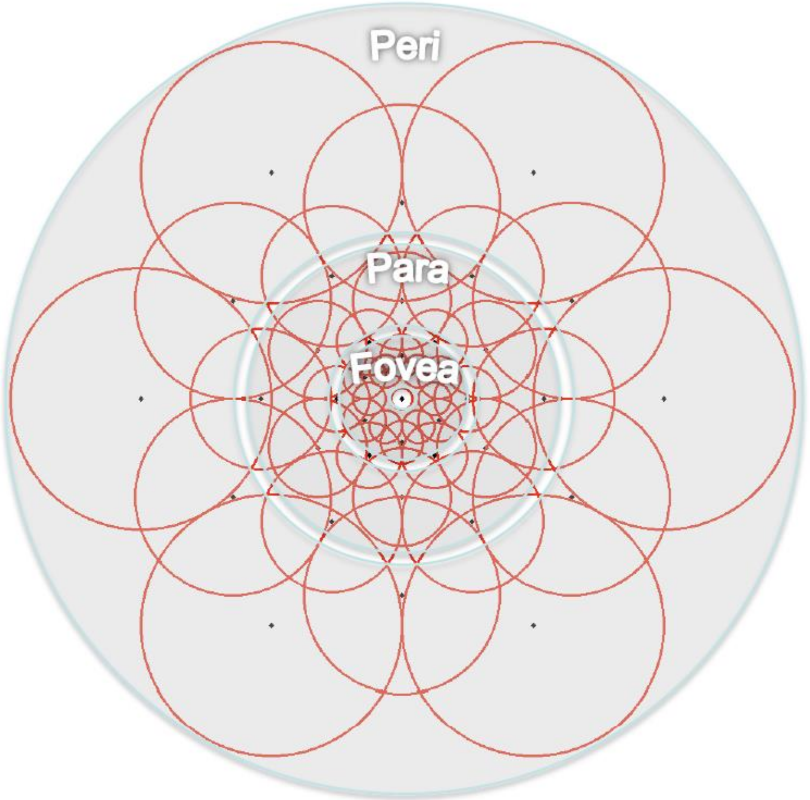
S. Leutenegger, M. Chli, and R. Y. Siegwart, "Brisk: Binary robust invariant scalable keypoints" ICCV 2011

Binary Descriptors

Latest research is devoted to descriptors that are faster to compute, even though less accurate than SIFT.

Freak (fast retina keypoint) is a binary descriptor that encodes the sign of the difference in «receptive fields» around a keypoint

FREAK sampling pattern



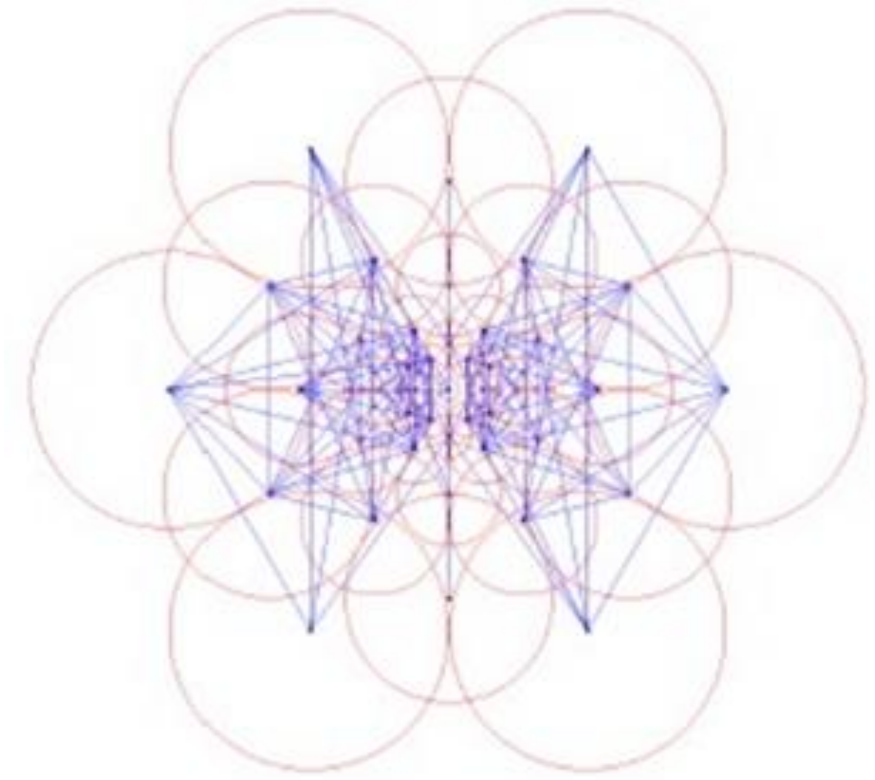
[FREAK] A. Alahi, R. Ortiz, and P. Vandergheynst, "Freak: Fast retina keypoint," in CVPR 2012

Binary Descriptors

Latest research is devoted to descriptors that are faster to compute, even though less accurate than SIFT.

Freak (fast retina keypoint) is a binary descriptor that encodes the sign of the difference in «receptive fields» around a keypoint

FREAK pairs

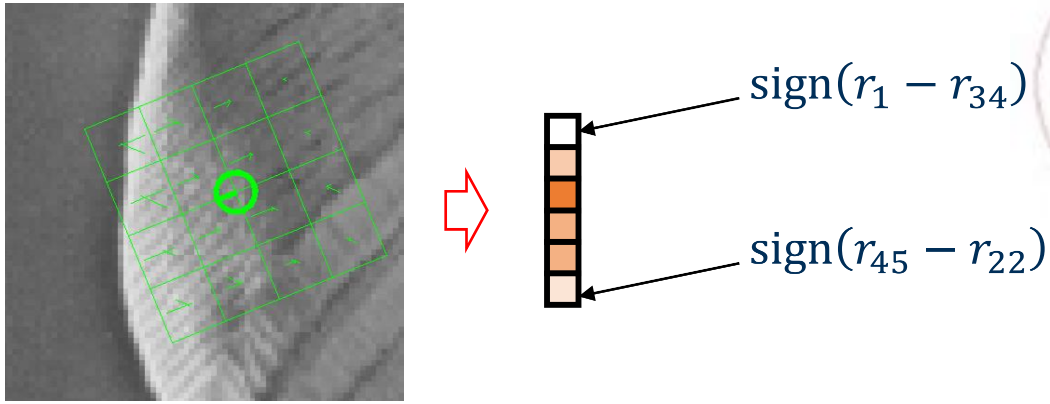


[FREAK] A. Alahi, R. Ortiz, and P. Vandergheynst, "Freak: Fast retina keypoint," in CVPR 2012

FREAK Desctiptor

The descriptor encodes the sign of the difference over pairs of receptive field

Input region FREAK descriptor



$\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{512}$