

EE795: Computer Vision and Intelligent Systems

Spring 2012

TTh 17:30-18:45 FDH 204

Lecture 09

130219

Outline

- Review
 - Feature Descriptors
- Feature Matching
- Feature Tracking
- Edges
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Lines
 - Hough Transform

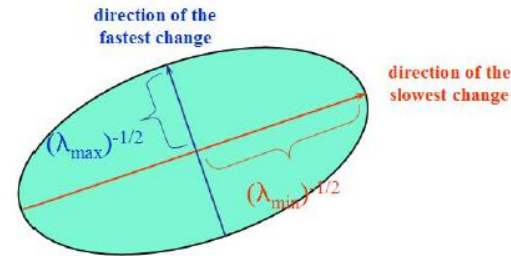
Interest Point Detection

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{AC}(\Delta \mathbf{u}) &= \sum_i w(\mathbf{x}_i) [I_0(\mathbf{x}_i - \Delta \mathbf{u}) - I_0(\mathbf{x}_i)]^2 \\
 &= \sum_i w(\mathbf{x}_i) [\nabla I_0(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \Delta \mathbf{u}]^2 \\
 &= \Delta \mathbf{u}^T A \Delta \mathbf{u}
 \end{aligned}$$

- $\nabla I_0(\mathbf{x}_i)$ - image gradient
 - We have seen how to compute this
- A – autocorrelation matrix

$$A = w * \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Compute gradient images and convolve with weight function
- Also known as second moment matrix



- The matrix A provides a measure of uncertainty in location of the patch
- Do eigenvalue decomposition
 - Get eigenvalues and eigenvector directions
 - Good features have both eigenvalues large
- Quantify uncertainty
 - Easiest: look for maxima in the smaller eigenvalue [Shi and Tomasi]
 - $\det(A) - \alpha \text{trace}(A)^2$ [Harris]
 - See book for other methods

Interest Point Detection II

- The correlation matrix gives a measure of edges in a patch

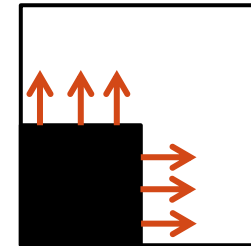
- Corner

- Gradient directions

- $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- Correlation matrix

- $A \propto \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$



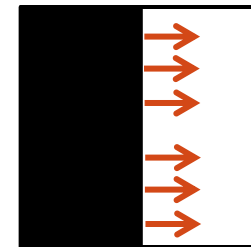
- Edge

- Gradient directions

- $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

- Correlation matrix

- $A \propto \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



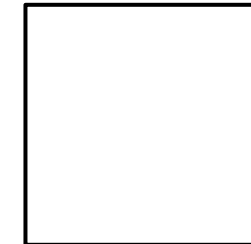
- Constant

- Gradient directions

- $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

- Correlation matrix

- $A \propto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



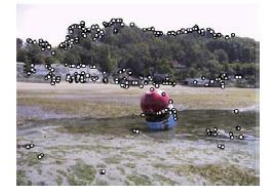
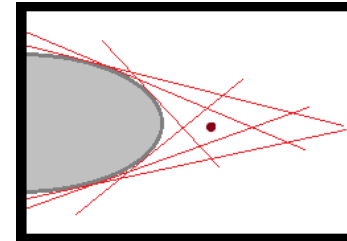
Basic Feature Detection Algorithm

1. Compute the horizontal and vertical derivatives of the image I_x and I_y by convolving the original image with derivatives of Gaussians (Section 3.2.3).
2. Compute the three images corresponding to the outer products of these gradients. (The matrix A is symmetric, so only three entries are needed.)
3. Convolve each of these images with a larger Gaussian.
4. Compute a scalar interest measure using one of the formulas discussed above.
5. Find local maxima above a certain threshold and report them as detected feature point locations.

Algorithm 4.1 Outline of a basic feature detection algorithm.

Improving Feature Detection

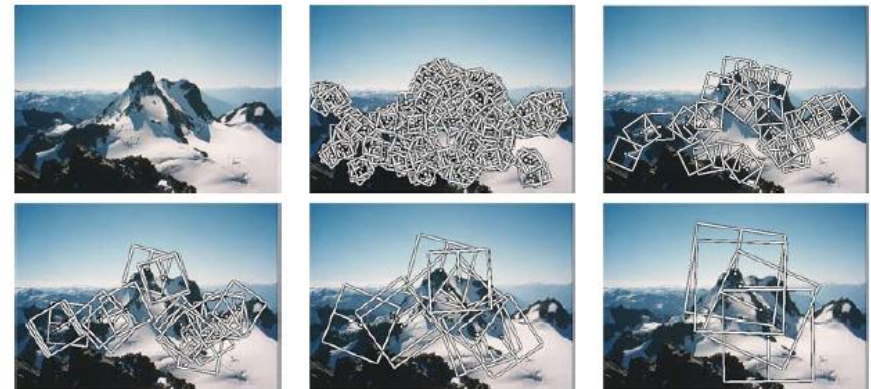
- Corners may produce more than one strong response (due to neighborhood)
 - Estimate corner with subpixel accuracy – use edge tangents
 - Non-maximal suppression – only select features that are far enough away
 - Create more uniform distribution – can be done through blocking as well
- Scale invariance
 - Use an image pyramid – useful for images of same scale
 - Compute Hessian of difference of Gaussian (DoG) image
 - Analyze scale space [SIFT – Lowe 2004]
- Rotational invariance
 - Need to estimate the orientation of the feature by examining gradient information
- Affine invariance
 - Closer to appearance change due to perspective distortion
 - Fit ellipse to autocorrelation matrix and use it as an affine coordinate frame
 - Maximally stable region (MSER) [Matas 2004] – regions that do not change much through thresholding



(a) Strongest 250



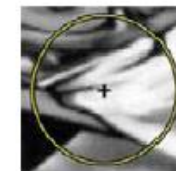
(c) ANMS 250, $r = 24$



$$x_0 \rightarrow A_0^{-1/2} x'_0$$



$$x'_0 \rightarrow R x'_1$$



$$A_1^{-1/2} x'_1 \leftarrow x_1$$



Feature Descriptors

- Once keypoints have been detected the local appearance needs to be compactly represented
 - The representation should enable efficient matching
- Why not use the image patch itself as the descriptor?
 - The descriptor should remain the same in any image
 - Robust to photometric effects, lighting, orientation, scale, affine deformation
 - The patch intensity can be used in cases where the isn't much appearance change between images (e.g. stereo images, satellite images, video)
- The definition of descriptors to deal with the aforementioned issues is still very active

Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT)

- One of the most popular feature descriptor [Lowe 2004]
 - Many variants have been developed
- Descriptor is invariant to uniform scaling, orientation, and partially invariant to affine distortion and illumination changes
- Descriptor computation:
 - Compute gradient 16×16 grid around keypoint
 - Keep orientation and down-weight magnitude by a Gaussian fall off function
 - Avoid sudden changes in descriptor with small position changes
 - Give less emphasis to gradients far from center
 - Form a gradient orientation histogram in each 4×4 quadrant
 - 8 bin orientations
 - Trilinear interpolation of gradient magnitude to neighboring orientation bins
 - Gives 4 pixel shift robustness and orientation invariance
 - Final descriptor is $4 \times 4 \times 8 = 128$ dimension vector
 - Normalize vector to unit length for contrast/gain invariance
 - Values clipped to 0.2 and renormalized to remove emphasis of large gradients (orientation is most important)

SIFT Schematic

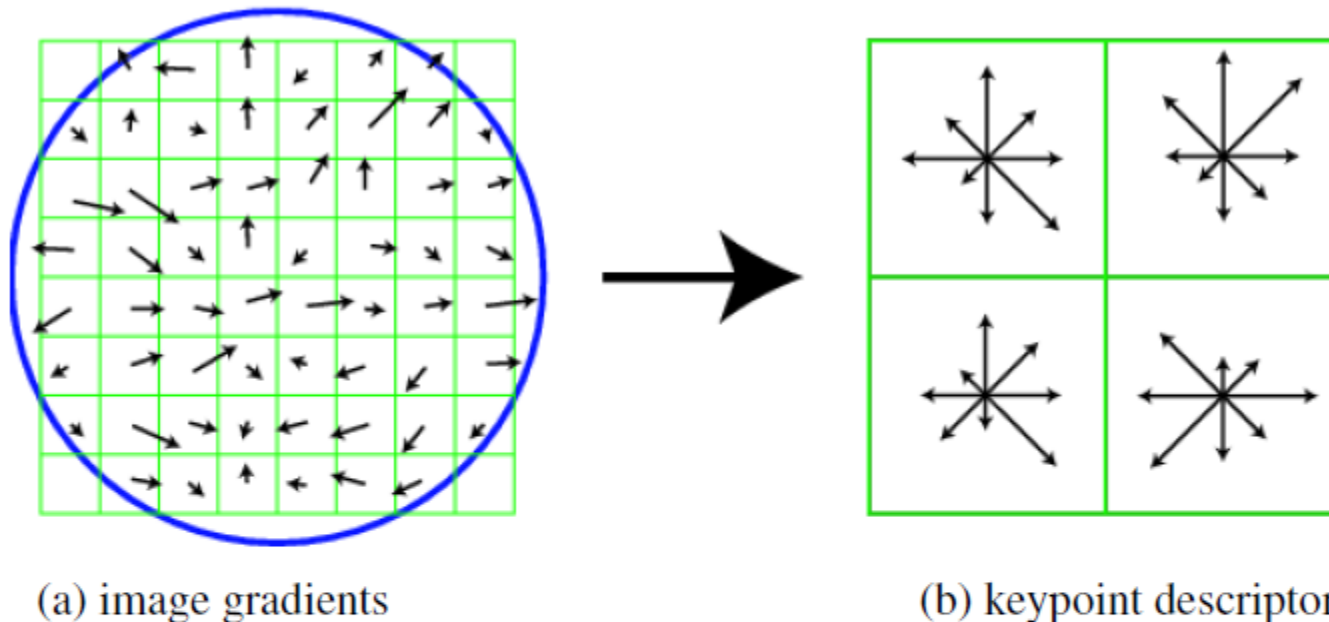


Figure 4.18 A schematic representation of Lowe's (2004) scale invariant feature transform (SIFT): (a) Gradient orientations and magnitudes are computed at each pixel and weighted by a Gaussian fall-off function (blue circle). (b) A weighted gradient orientation histogram is then computed in each subregion, using trilinear interpolation. While this figure shows an 8×8 pixel patch and a 2×2 descriptor array, Lowe's actual implementation uses 16×16 patches and a 4×4 array of eight-bin histograms.

Gradient Location-Orientation Histogram (GLOH)

- Variant on SIFT to use log-polar binning rather than 4×4 quadrant
 - Slightly better performance than SIFT
 - 272D histogram is projected onto 128D

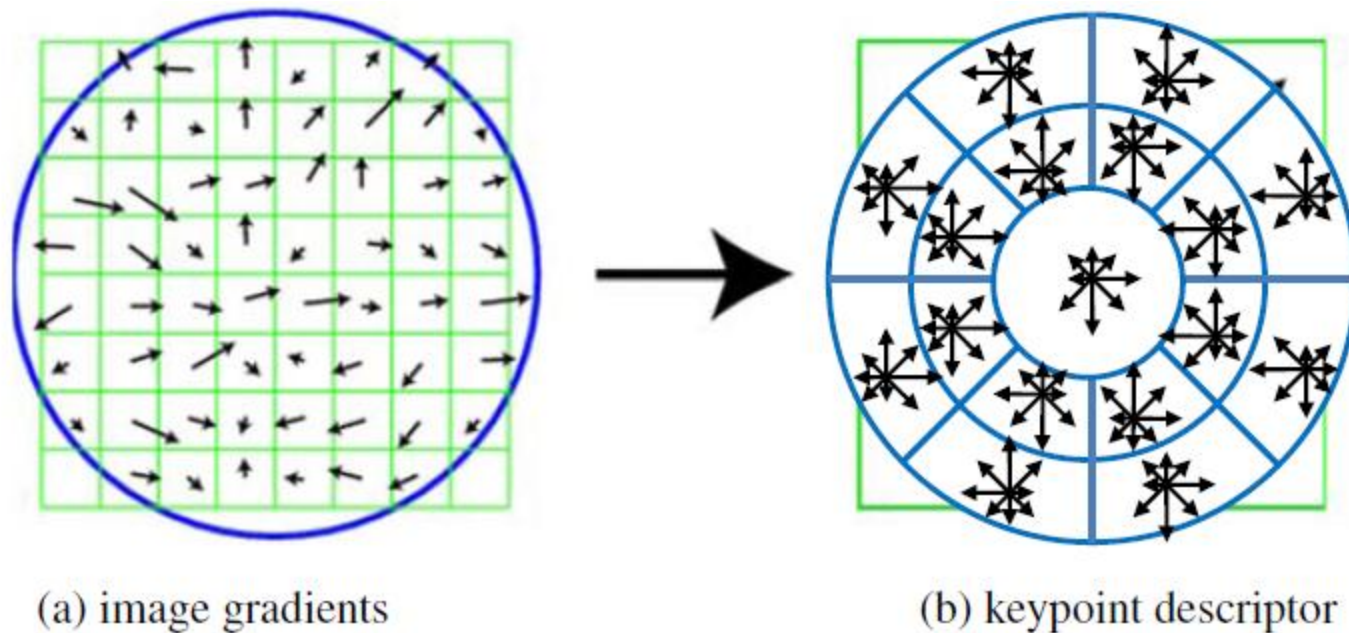


Figure 4.19 The gradient location-orientation histogram (GLOH) descriptor uses log-polar bins instead of square bins to compute orientation histograms (Mikolajczyk and Schmid 2005).

Other SIFT Variants

- Speeded up robust features (SURF) [Bay 2008]
 - Faster computation by using integral images (Szeliski 3.2.3 and later for object detection)
 - Popularized because it is free for non-commercial use
 - SIFT is patented
- OpenCV implements many
 - FAST
 - ORB
 - BRISK
 - FREAK
- OpenCV is maintained by Willow Garage, a robotics company
 - Emphasis on fast descriptors for real-time applications

Feature Matching

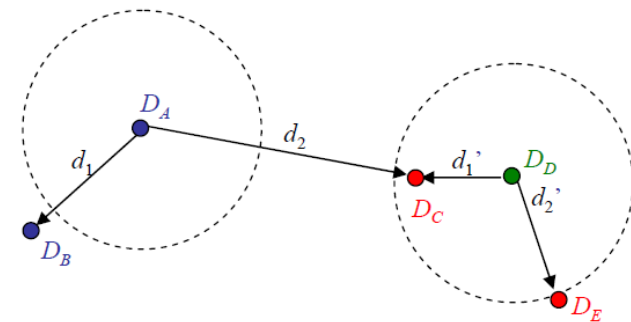
- Given descriptors from images, determine correspondences between descriptors
- Two parts to the problem
 - Matching strategy – how to select “good” correspondences
 - Efficient search – data structures and algorithms to perform matching quickly

Matching Strategy

- Generally, assume that the feature descriptor space is sufficient
 - Perform whitening of vector to concentrate on more interesting dimensions
- Use Euclidean distance as the error metric
- Set threshold to only return potential matches that are within some predefined “similarity”
 - Returns all patches from the other image that are similar enough
 - Threshold must be set appropriately to ensure matches are detected without introducing too many erroneous ones

Improved Threshold Matching

- Fixed threshold is difficult to set
 - Shouldn't expect different regions in feature space to behave the same
- Nearest neighbor matching
 - Only return the closest matching feature
 - A threshold is still required to restrict matching to “good” matches
- Nearest neighbor distance ratio
 - Adapt threshold for each feature
 - $$NNDR = \frac{d_1}{d_2} = \frac{\|D_A - D_B\|}{\|D_A - D_C\|}$$
 - Best if d_2 is a known not to match



Quantifying Performance

- Confusion matrix-based metrics
 - Binary {1,0} classification tasks

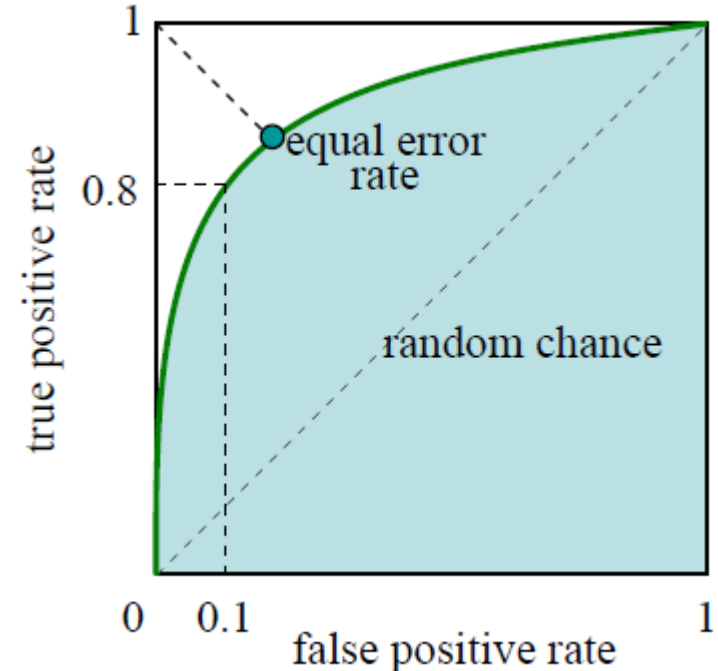
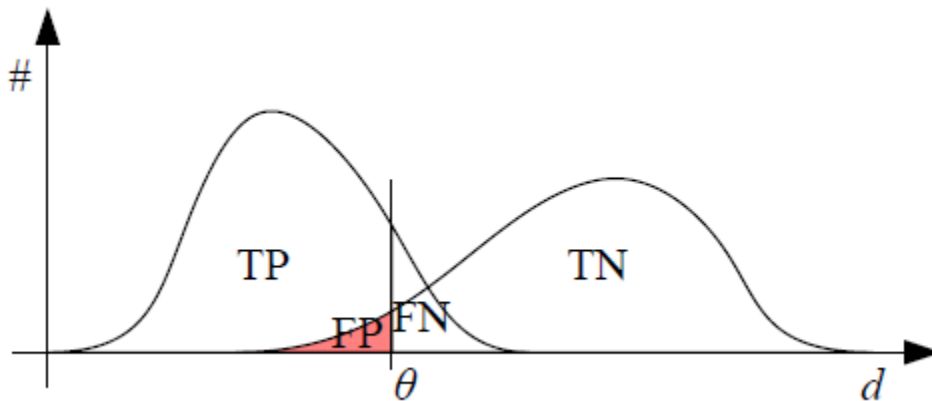
		actual value		
		p	n	total
predicted outcome	p'	TP	FP	P'
	n'	FN	TN	N'
	total	P	N	

- True positives (TP) - # correct matches
- False negatives (FN) - # of missed matches
- False positives (FP) - # of incorrect matches
- True negatives (TN) - # of non-matches that are correctly rejected

- A wide range of metrics can be defined
- True positive rate (TPR) (sensitivity)
 - $TPR = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} = \frac{TP}{P}$
 - Document retrieval → recall – fraction of relevant documents found
- False positive rate (FPR)
 - $FPR = \frac{FP}{FP+TN} = \frac{FP}{N}$
- Positive predicted value (PPV)
 - $PPV = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} = \frac{TP}{P'}$
 - Document retrieval → precision – number of relevant documents are returned
- Accuracy (ACC)
 - $ACC = \frac{TP+TN}{P+N}$

Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC)

- Evaluate matching performance based on threshold
 - Examine all thresholds θ to map out performance curve
- Best performance in upper left corner
 - Area under the curve (AUC) is a ROC performance metric



Efficient Matching

- Straight forward matching compares all features with every other feature in every image
 - Quadratic in the number of features
- More efficient matching is possible with an indexing structure
 - Structure enables quick location of similar features
 - Can remove many potential search candidates quickly
- Popular methods are multi-dimensional trees or hash tables
 - Locality sensitive hashing, parameter-sensitive hashing
 - k-d trees

After Matching

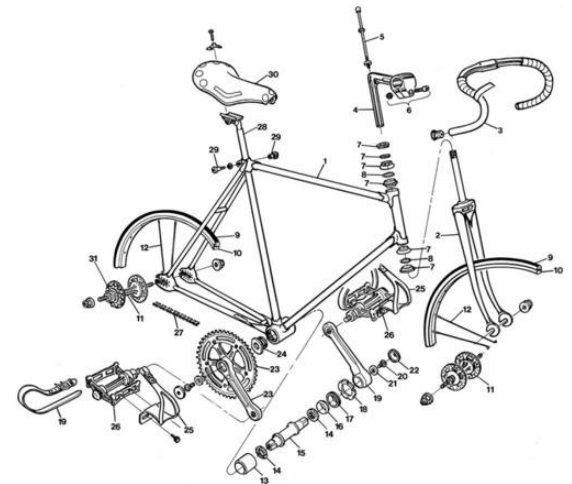
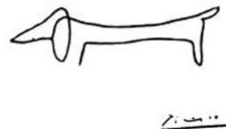
- Matching gives a list of potential correspondences
 - Must determine how to handle these maybe matches
- Different approaches depending on task
 - Object detection – enough matching points constitutes a detection
 - Image level consistency (e.g. rotation) – determine inliers/outliers to estimate image transformation
- Random sampling (RANSAC) is very popular when there is a model to fit
 - Take a small random subset of matches, compute the model, and verify on the remaining matches

Feature Tracking

- Detect then track approach useful for video processing
- Use the same features we have already seen
- Tracking accomplished by SSD or NCC
 - Usually appearance is sufficient
- Large motions require hierarchical search strategies
 - Match in lower-resolution to provide an initial guess for speeded up search
- Must adapt the appearance model over longer time periods
 - Kanade-Lucas-Tomasi (KLT) tracker estimates affine transformation of the patch in question

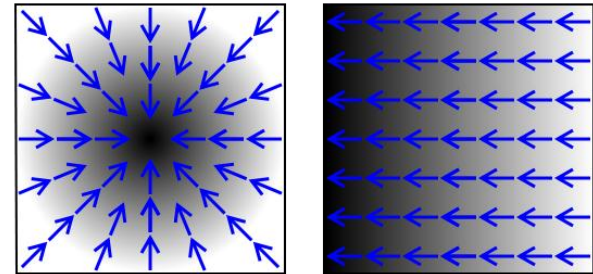
Edges

- 2D point features are good for matching
 - Limited number of “good” points
- Edges are plentiful and carry semantic significance
 - Object boundaries denoted by visible contours
 - Occur at boundaries between regions of different color, intensity, and texture
 - HoG descriptor for object recognition



Edge Detection

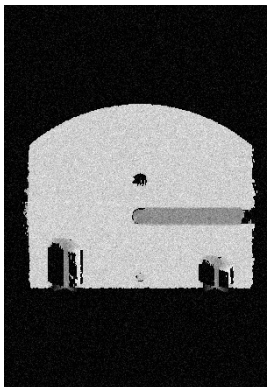
- Gradient – slope and direction
 - $J(x) = \nabla I(x) = \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right) (x)$
 - Points in direction of steepest ascent in intensity
 - Magnitude is slope strength
 - Orientation points perpendicular to local contour
- Typically, smooth image with Gaussian before computing gradient
 - Derivative accentuates high frequency
 - $J_\sigma(x) = \nabla [G_\sigma(x) * I(x)] = \nabla [G_\sigma(x)] * I(x)$
 - $\nabla G_\sigma(x) = \left(\frac{\partial G_\sigma}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial G_\sigma}{\partial y} \right) (x) = [-x, -y] \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \exp \left(-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2} \right)$



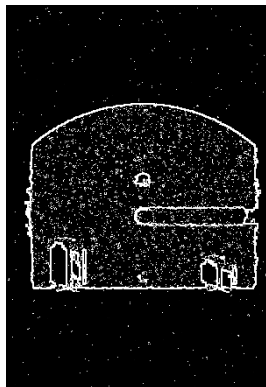
- Thinner edges are obtained with second derivatives
- Laplacian – looks for zero crossings
 - $S_\sigma(x) = \nabla \cdot J_\sigma(x) = [\nabla^2 G_\sigma(x) * I(x)]$
- Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) kernel
 - $\nabla^2 G_\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \left(2 - \frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \exp \left(-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2} \right)$
 - Separable kernel
 - Often this is approximated by a difference of Gaussians (DoG)
 - Easy to compute when doing an image pyramid

Canny Edge Detection

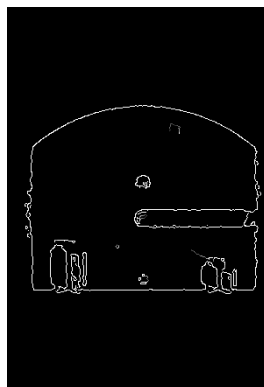
- Popular edge detection algorithm that produces a thin lines
- 1) Smooth with Gaussian kernel
- 2) Compute gradient
 - Determine magnitude and orientation (45 degree 8-connected neighborhood)
- 3) Use non-maximal suppression to get thin edges
 - Compare edge value to neighbor edgels in gradient direction



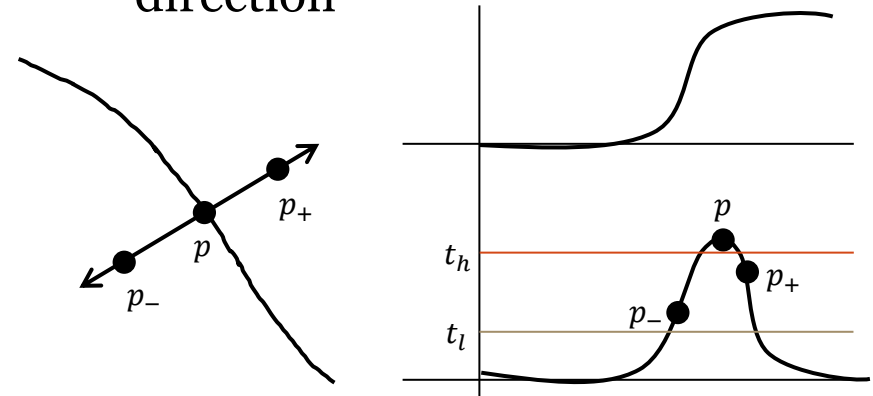
object



Sobel

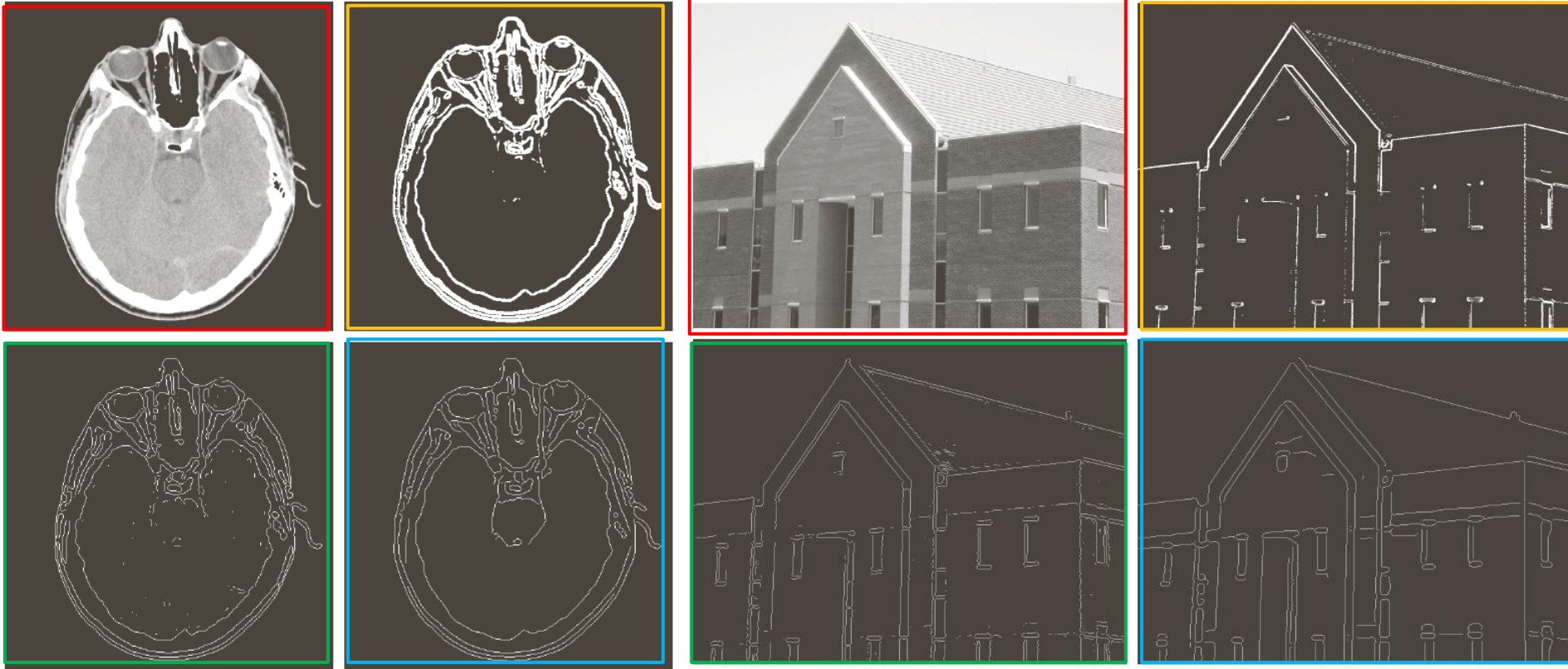


Canny



- 4) Use hysteresis thresholding to prevent streaking
 - High threshold to detect edge, low threshold to trace

Canny Edge Detection Results



- Original image
- Thresholded gradient of smoothed image (thick lines)
- Marr-Hildreth algorithm
- Canny algorithm (low noise, thin lines)

Lines

- Edges and curves make up contours of natural objects
 - Man-made world uses straight lines
- 3D lines can be used to determine vanishing points and do camera calibration
- Estimate pose of 3D scene

Hough Transform

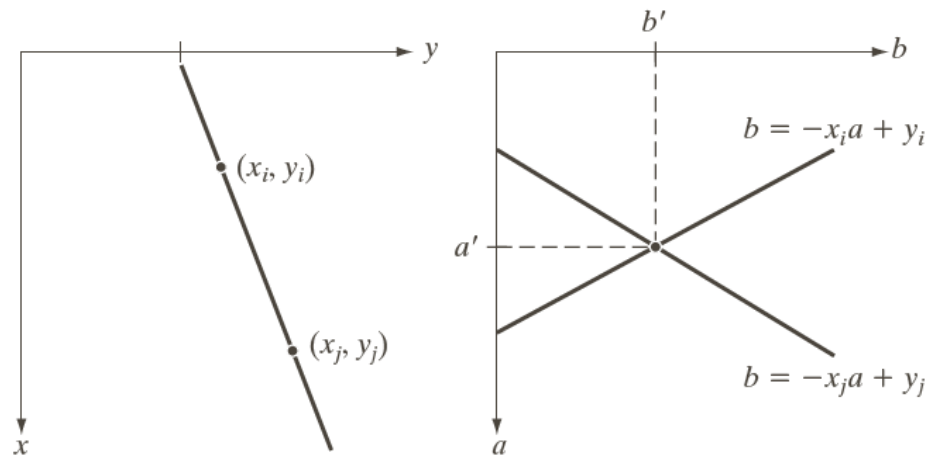
- Lines in the real-world can be broken, collinear, or occluded
 - Combine these collinear line segments into a larger extended line
- Hough transform creates a parameter space for the line
 - Every pixel votes for a family of lines passing through it
 - Potential lines are those bins or accumulator values with high count
- Uses global rather than local information
- See `hough.m`, `radon.m` in Matlab

Hough Transform Insight

- Want to search for all points that lie on a line
 - This is a large search (take two points and count the number of edgels)
- Infinite lines pass through a point (x_i, y_i)
 - $y_i = ax_i + b$
- Reparameterize
 - $b = -x_i a + y_i$
 - ab -space representation has single line defined by point (x_i, y_i)

a b

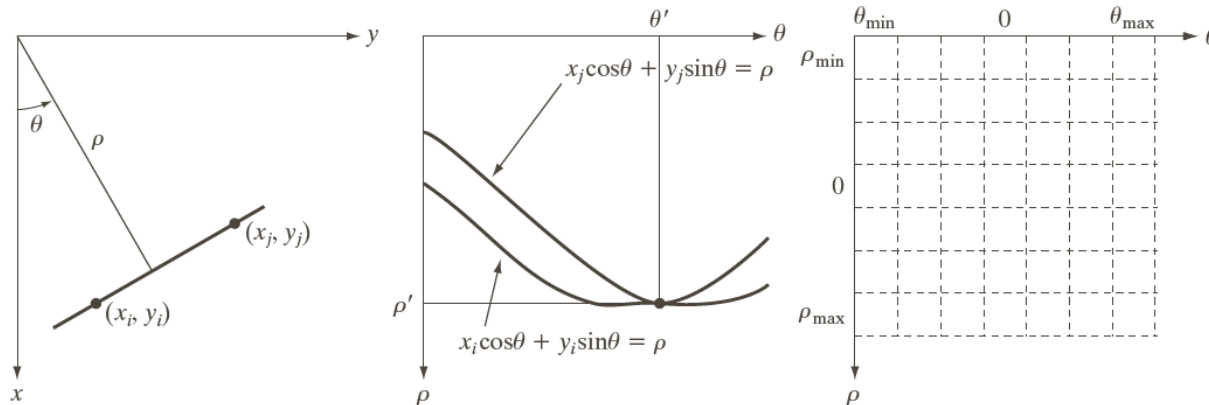
FIGURE 10.31
(a) xy -plane.
(b) Parameter space.



- All points on a line will intersect in parameter space
 - Divide parameter space into cells/bins and accumulate votes across all a and b values for a particular point
 - Cells with high count are indicative of many points voting for the same line parameters (a, b)

Hough Transform in Practice

- Use a polar parameterization of a line – why?



- After finding bins of high count, need to verify edge
 - Find the extent of the edge (edges do not go across the whole image)
- This technique can be extended to other shapes like circles

Hough Transform Example

