

# Corners and Edge Detectors<sup>1</sup>

## Lecture 07

See Sections 2.3.4 and 2.4 in  
Reinhard Klette: Concise Computer Vision  
Springer-Verlag, London, 2014

[ccv.wordpress.fos.auckland.ac.nz](http://ccv.wordpress.fos.auckland.ac.nz)

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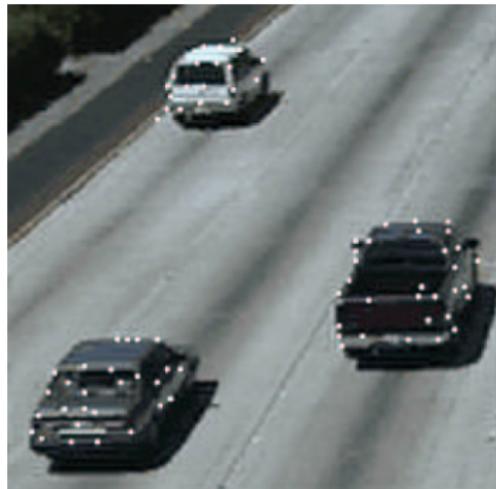
<sup>1</sup>See last slide for copyright information.

# Agenda

- ① Two Corner Detectors
- ② Canny Operator
- ③ LoG and DoG, and Their Scale Spaces
- ④ The Kovesi Algorithm

# Corner

A *corner* in an image  $I$  is given at a pixel  $p$  where two edges of different directions intersect.



Detected corners provide important information for localizing and understanding shapes in 3D scenes

# Corner Detection Using the Hessian Matrix

A *corner* is characterized by high curvature of intensity values

Curvature can be measured by second-order derivatives

*Hessian matrix* at pixel location  $p$ :

$$\mathbf{H}(p) = \begin{bmatrix} I_{xx}(p) & I_{xy}(p) \\ I_{xy}(p) & I_{yy}(p) \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  of this matrix:

- ① Magnitude of both eigenvalues is “large”: a corner
- ② One large and one small eigenvalue: a step edge
- ③ Two small eigenvalues: a low-contrast region.

# Trace of a Matrix, Determinant, and Eigenvalues

*Trace*  $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$  of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$

*Determinant*  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$  of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$  and

$\det(\mathbf{A}) = a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{13}a_{22}a_{31} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32}$

of a  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$

*Eigenvalues* of  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ :  $n$  solutions of *characteristic polynomial*

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$$

$\mathbf{I}$  is  $n \times n$  identity matrix

Square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ : Determinant equal to product of eigenvalues, and trace equal to sum of eigenvalues

# Corner Detector by Harris and Stephens (*Harris detector*)

Rather than considering  $\mathbf{H}(p)$ , just use products of first-order derivatives of smoothed version  $L(p, \sigma) = [I * G_\sigma](p)$  for some  $\sigma > 0$ :

$$\mathbf{G}(p, \sigma) = \begin{bmatrix} L_x^2(p, \sigma) & L_x(p, \sigma)L_y(p, \sigma) \\ L_x(p, \sigma)L_y(p, \sigma) & L_y^2(p, \sigma) \end{bmatrix}$$

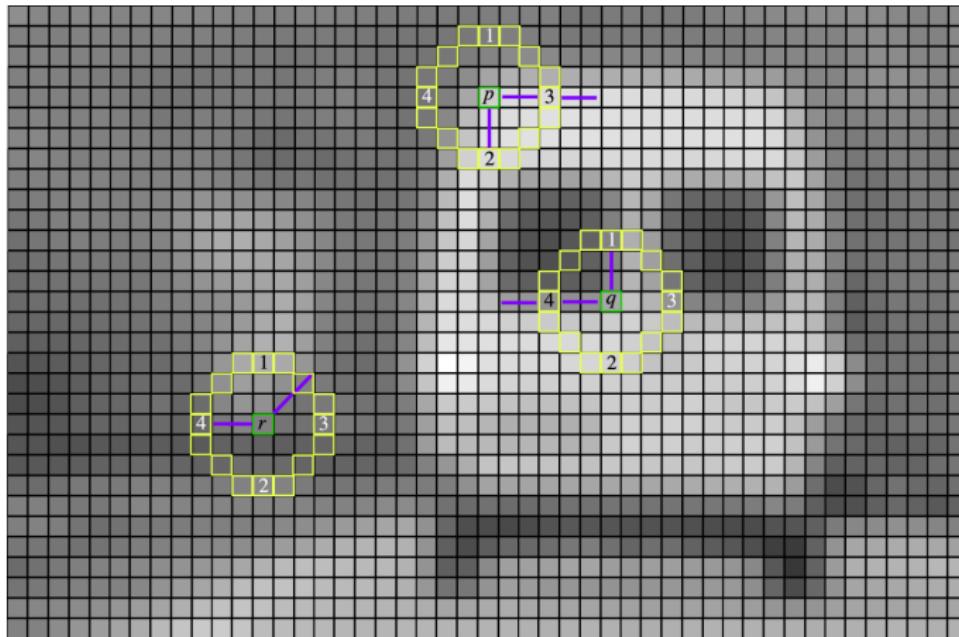
Eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  of  $\mathbf{G}$  represent changes in intensities in orthogonal directions in image  $I$

Instead of calculating eigenvalues, consider the *cornerness measure*

$$\mathcal{H}(p, \sigma, a) = \det(\mathbf{G}) - a \cdot \text{Tr}(\mathbf{G}) = \lambda_1\lambda_2 - a \cdot (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$$

for small  $a > 0$  (e.g.  $a = 1/25$ )

# Corners in FAST



$p$ ,  $q$ , and  $r$  are at intersections of edges

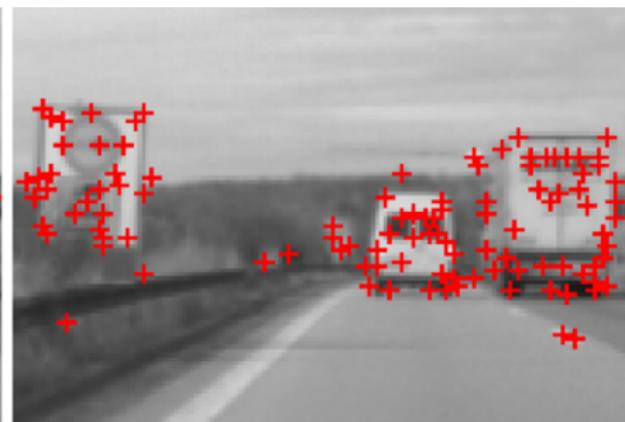
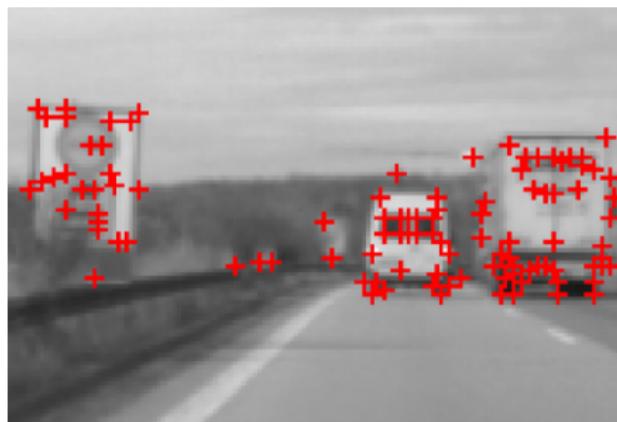
Directions of those edges are indicated by *blue lines*

Discrete circles (of 16 pixels) as used for FAST corner detector

# Features from an Accelerated Segment Test (FAST)

FAST identifies a corner by considering image values on a digital circle around the given pixel location  $p$

*Cornerness test:* Value at centre pixel is darker (or brighter) compared to more than 8 ... 11 subsequent pixels on the circle, and “similar” to values at remaining pixels on the circle



Left: Detected corners using the Harris detector

Right: Corners detected by FAST

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# Estimating Gradient Magnitude and Direction

*Canny operator* maps a scalar image into a binary edge map of one-pixel-wide edge segments

Output depends on used gradient estimator, thresholds  $T_{low}$  and  $T_{high}$ ,  $0 < T_{low} < T_{high} < G_{\max}$ , and a chosen scale  $\sigma$  for Gaussian smoothing

Let  $I$  be the already smoothed input image, after applying a convolution with a Gauss function  $G_\sigma$  of scale  $\sigma > 0$

Apply a basic gradient estimator (e.g. Sobel operator) for  $[I_x, I_y]^\top$

Use estimate  $g(p) = \sqrt{I_x^2 + I_y^2}$  or  $g(p) = |I_x| + |I_y|$  for gradient magnitude and estimate  $\theta(p) = \text{atan2}(I_y, I_x)$  for gradient direction

Estimates  $\theta(p)$  rounded to multiples of  $\pi/4$  by  $(\theta(p) + \pi/8)$  modulo  $\pi/4$

# Non-maxima Suppression and Outline of Edge Following

In a step of *non-maxima suppression* it is tested whether a value  $g(p)$  is maximal in the (now rounded) direction  $\theta(p)$

For example, if  $\theta(p) = \pi/2$ , i.e. the gradient direction at  $p = (x, y)$  is downward, then  $g(p)$  is compared against  $g(x, y - 1)$  and  $g(x, y + 1)$ , the values above and below of  $p$

If  $g(p)$  is not larger than the values at both of those adjacent pixels, then  $g(p)$  becomes 0

Final step of *edge following*:

Trace paths of pixel locations  $p$  with  $g(p) > T_{low}$ , mark path as being an edge; start such a trace at a location  $p$  with  $g(p) \geq T_{high}$ . – See next slide.

# Details for Edge Following

Scan  $\Omega$  left-to-right, top-down

Arrive at a not yet marked pixel  $p$  with  $g(p) \geq T_{high}$ :

1. Mark  $p$  as an edge pixel
2. If  $q \in A_8(p)$  with  $g(q) > T_{low}$  then mark  $q$  as an edge pixel
3. Call  $q$  now  $p$  and go back to Step 2.

Search for next start pixel  $p$  until end of  $\Omega$  is reached. Used selection principle in Step 2 influences the created paths.

Both used thresholds define *hysteresis* :

Following  $q$  may not have a value above  $T_{high}$ , but it had at least one predecessor on the same path with value above  $T_{high}$ ; this “positive” history supports the decision at  $q$ :  $g(q) > T_{low}$  is sufficient for continuation

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# LoG Edge Detector

Applying the Laplacian for a Gauss-filtered image can be done in one step of convolution, based on the theorem

$$\nabla^2(G_\sigma * I) = I * \nabla^2 G_\sigma$$

where  $*$  denotes the convolution of two functions, and  $I$  is assumed to be twice differentiable; the zero-crossings define the edges

**LoG** = Laplacian of Gaussian

*Proof:* Apply twice the following rule

$$D(F * H) = D(F) * H = F * D(H)$$

of convolutions where  $D$  denotes a derivative, and  $F$  and  $H$  are differentiable functions; also note that convolution is commutative:

$$D^2(G_\sigma * I) = D^2(I * G_\sigma) = D(D(I * G_\sigma)) = D(I * D(G_\sigma)) = I * D^2(G_\sigma)$$

# Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG)

Thus: Calculation of LoG of  $I$  only needs one convolution with  $\nabla^2 G_\sigma$

For deriving a filter kernel for  $\nabla^2 G_\sigma$ , first we calculate the first partial derivatives of

$$G_\sigma(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2\sigma^2}$$

e.g. with respect to  $x$ :

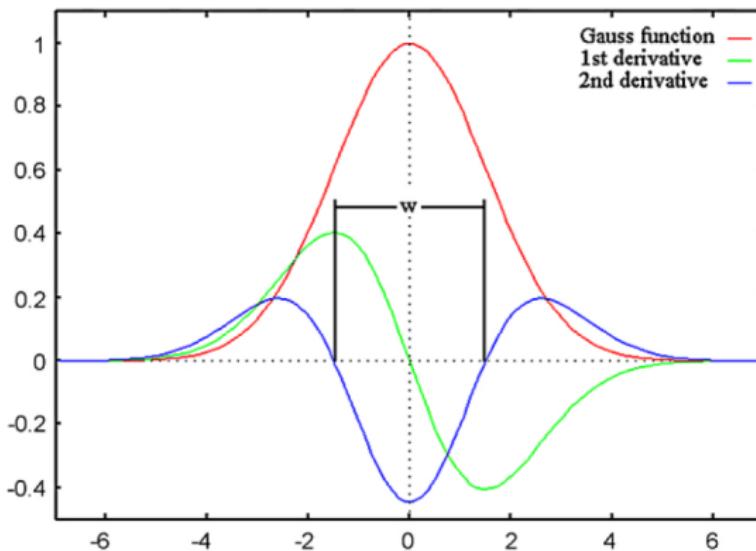
$$\frac{\partial G_\sigma}{\partial x}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \cdot \frac{-2x}{2\sigma^2} \cdot e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2\sigma^2} = -\frac{x}{2\pi\sigma^4} e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2\sigma^2}$$

Repeat the derivative for  $x$  and  $y$  and obtain the LoG

$$\nabla^2 G_\sigma(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^4} \left( \frac{x^2 + y^2 - 2\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} \right) e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2\sigma^2}$$

also known as *Mexican hat function* (in fact, an “inverted Mexican hat”)

# Inverted Mexican Hat



1D Cuts through the function graph of  $G$  and its subsequent derivatives  
[2D Gauss function is rotationally symmetric with respect to origin  $(0, 0)$ ]

# Advice on Sampling the LoG Kernel

**Task:** sample the LoG into a  $(2k + 1) \times (2k + 1)$  filter kernel

What is an appropriate value for  $k$ ?

Estimate  $\sigma$  for the given images; appropriate value of  $k$  follows from  $\sigma$ :

- ① Parameter  $w$  defined by zero-crossings of  $\nabla^2 G_\sigma(x, y)$
- ② Let  $\nabla^2 G_\sigma(x, y) = 0$  and  $y = 0$ :  
zero-crossings at  $x^2 = 2\sigma^2$ , i.e.  $x_1 = -\sqrt{2}\sigma$  and at  $x_2 = +\sqrt{2}\sigma$
- ③ Thus:  $w = |x_1 - x_2| = 2\sqrt{2}\sigma$
- ④ Sample in window of size  $3w \times 3w = 6\sqrt{2}\sigma \times 6\sqrt{2}\sigma$
- ⑤  $2k + 1 \times 2k + 1 = \text{ceil}(6\sqrt{2}\sigma) \times \text{ceil}(6\sqrt{2}\sigma)$

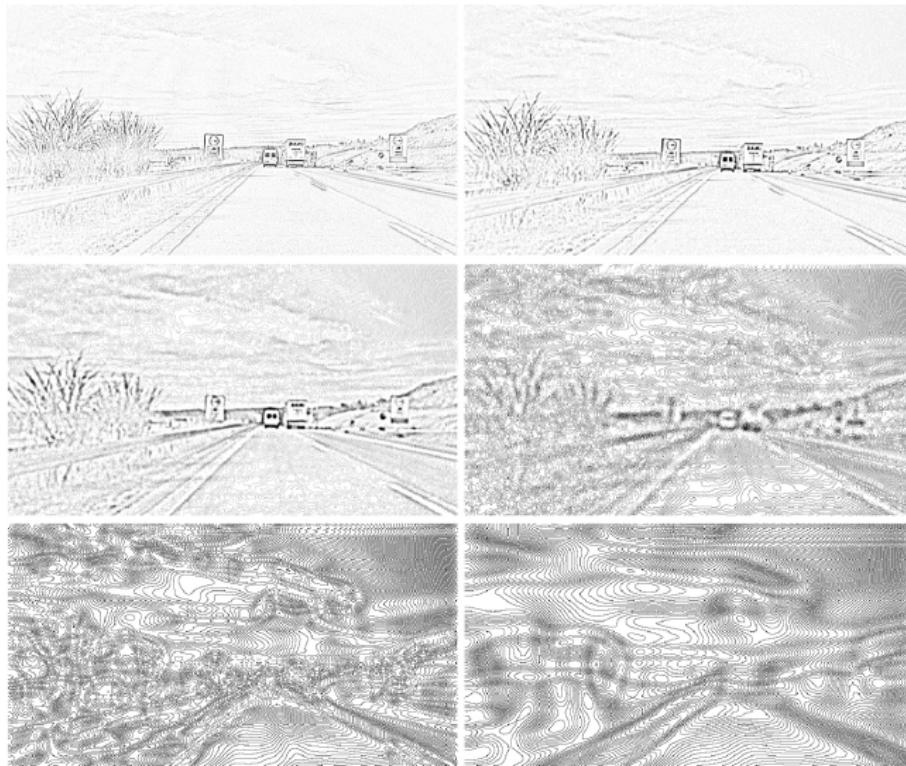
where ceil is the smallest integer equal to, or larger than the argument

# Increasingly Smoothed Images: $\sigma = 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8$ , or $16$



Six layers in the *Gaussian scale space* of image Set1Seq1

# Six Layers in LoG Scale Space: $\sigma = 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, \text{ or } 16$



# LoG Scale Space

Laplacians of images shown on Page 18 represent six layers in the *LoG scale space* of image Set1Seq1

Linear scaling was applied to all the shown images for making the intensity patterns visible.

The *scale* is defined by the used standard deviation  $\sigma$ .

As in a Gaussian scale space, each layer is defined by the scale  $\sigma$ .

It is common to generate subsequent layers by starting with an initial scale  $\sigma$ , and then using subsequent scales

$$a^n \cdot \sigma$$

for  $a > 1$  and  $n = 0, 1, \dots, m$

# Difference of Gaussians (DoG)

The *difference of Gaussians* (DoG) is a common approximation of LoG

See Page 6 for layer  $L$  in the Gaussian scale space.

DoG defined by initial scale  $\sigma$  and scaling factor  $a > 1$ :

$$D_{\sigma,a}(x, y) = L(x, y, \sigma) - L(x, y, a\sigma)$$

As for LoG, edges (following the step-edge model) are at zero-crossings

Relation between LoG and DoG:

$$\nabla^2 G_\sigma(x, y) \approx \frac{G_{a\sigma}(x, y) - G_\sigma(x, y)}{(a - 1)\sigma^2}$$

with  $a = 1.6$  as a recommended parameter for approximation

DoGs are used in general as time-efficient approximations of LoGs

# Calculations for Relation between LoG and DoG

The DoG represents an approximation of a convolution of  $I$  with the partial derivative

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial G_\sigma}{\sigma} &= -\frac{1}{\pi\sigma^3} \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{x^2+y^2}{2\pi\sigma^5} \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\ &= \sigma \cdot \left( \frac{x^2+y^2 - 2\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^4} \cdot e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2\sigma^2} \\ &= \sigma \cdot \nabla^2 G_\sigma\end{aligned}$$

Using

$$\frac{\partial G_\sigma}{\sigma} \approx \frac{G_{a\sigma}(x, y) - G_\sigma(x, y)}{a\sigma - \sigma} = \frac{G_{a\sigma}(x, y) - G_\sigma(x, y)}{(a-1)\sigma}$$

it follows that

$$G_{a\sigma}(x, y) - G_\sigma(x, y) \approx (a-1)\sigma \frac{\partial G_\sigma}{\sigma} = (a-1)\sigma^2 \cdot \nabla^2 G_\sigma$$

# Left: Log, and Right: DoG Scale Space

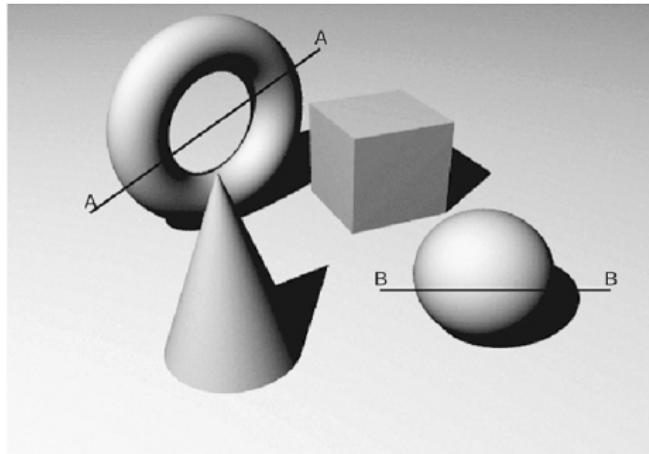


$\sigma = 0.5$ ,  $a_n = 1.6^n$ ; figure shows results for  $n = 1$ ,  $n = 3$ , and  $n = 5$

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# Step-Edge or Phase-Based Model?

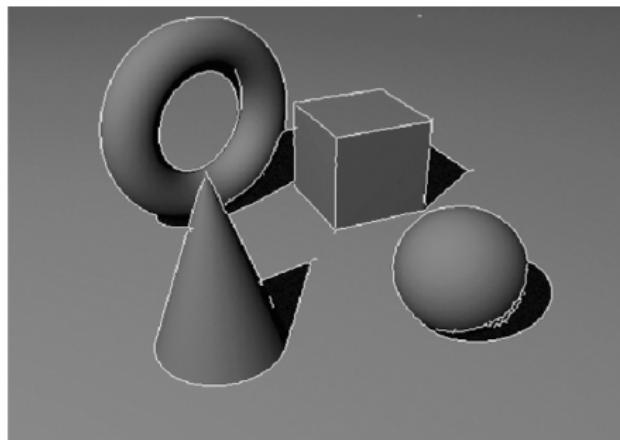
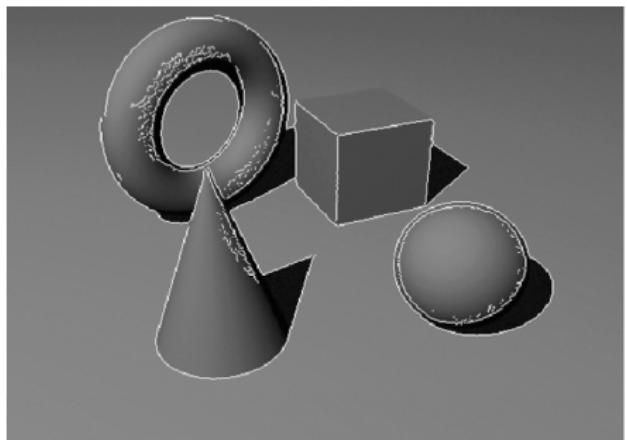


Left: Synthetic input image

Right: Intensity profiles, Section A-A (*top*), Section B-B (*bottom*)

Differences between step-edge operators and phase-based operators are better visible for a simple synthetic input image as the one shown above

# Detected Edges

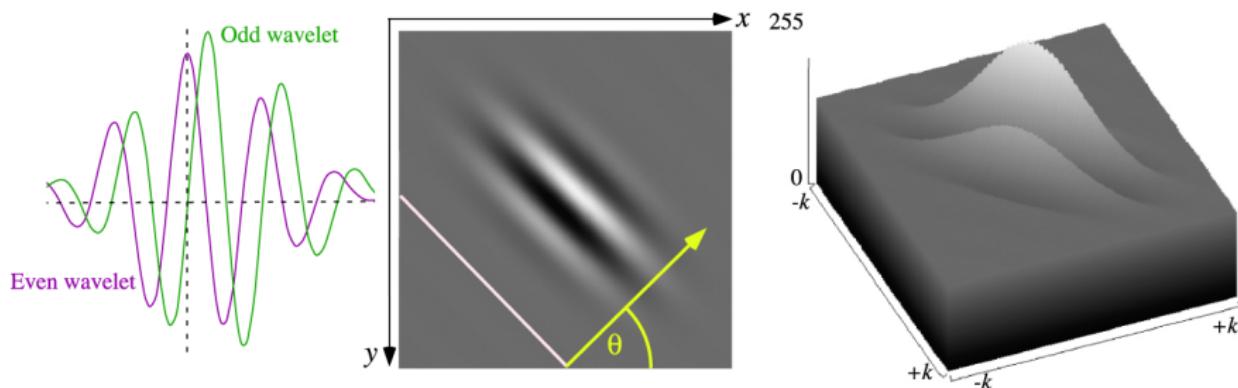


*Left:* Edges detected by the Canny operator (i.e. use of step-edge model)

*Right:* Edges detected by the Kovesi algorithm (i.e. phase-based)

# Gabor Wavelets

Local analysis of frequency components not based on wave patterns that run uniformly through the whole  $(2k + 1) \times (2k + 1)$  window but rather *wavelets*, such as *Gabor wavelets*, which are sine or cosine waves modulated by a Gauss function of some scale  $\sigma$



*Left:* Two 1D cuts through an odd and an even Gabor wavelet

*Middle:* Gabor wavelet in  $(2k + 1) \times (2k + 1)$  window with direction  $\theta$

*Right:* 3D surface plot; decreasing amplitudes around a centre point

# Odd and Even Gabor Wavelets

Odd wavelet: Generated from a sine wave, thus having value 0 at the origin

Even wavelet: Generated from a cosine wave; maximum at the origin

**Recall:**

$$G_\sigma(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

and use rotation ( $\theta$  is orthogonal to the stripes in the Gabor wavelets)

$$u = x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$

$$v = -x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta$$

*Gabor pair*

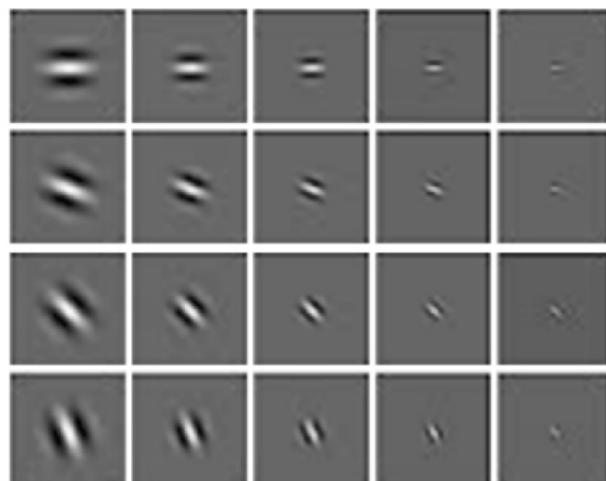
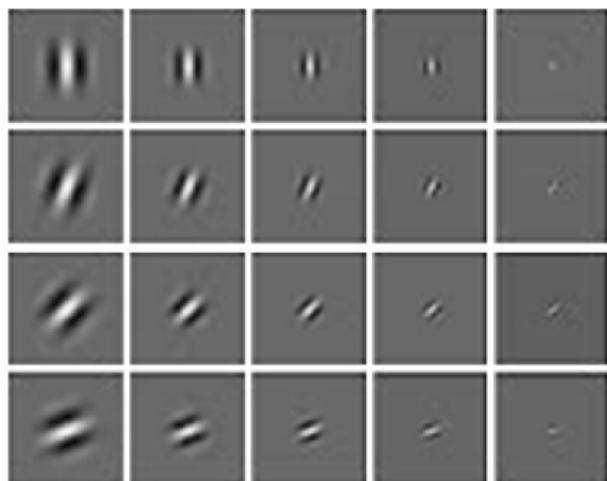
$$g_{\text{even}}(x, y) = G_\sigma(u, \gamma v) \cdot \cos\left(2\pi \frac{u}{\lambda} + \psi\right)$$

$$g_{\text{odd}}(x, y) = G_\sigma(u, \gamma v) \cdot \sin\left(2\pi \frac{u}{\lambda} + \psi\right)$$

for phase-offset  $\psi \geq 0$ , wavelength  $\lambda > 0$ , spatial aspect ratio  $\gamma > 0$

# Preparing for the Algorithm

Kovesi algorithm applies a set of  $n$  square Gabor pairs centred at the current pixel location  $p = (x, y)$



Here:  $n = 40$  and illustrating only one function (say, the odd wavelet) for each pair; the Kovesi algorithm uses  $n = 24$  as default

# Local Convolution

A local convolution with each Gabor pair defines one complex number

We obtained  $n$  complex numbers with amplitude  $r_h$  and phase  $\alpha_h$

Ideal phase congruency measure;  $z$  be the sum of all  $[r_h, \alpha_h]^\top$  vectors:

$$\mathcal{P}_{phase}(p) = \frac{\text{pos}(\|z\|_2 - T)}{\sum_{h=1}^n r_h + \varepsilon}$$

Small positive number  $\varepsilon$ : for cases where  $\sum_{h=1}^n r_h$  becomes very small

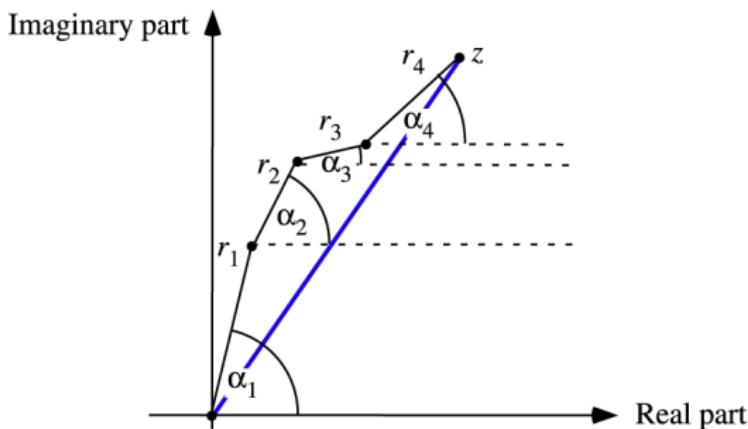
$T > 0$  be the estimated sum of all noise responses over all AC components

Function pos returns the argument if positive and 0 otherwise

Thus

$$0 \leq \mathcal{P}_{phase}(p) \leq 1$$

# Sum of Vectors



If all into the same direction (i.e. phase congruency) then  
a large value of  $\|z\|_2$  compared to the sum of all amplitudes

# Processing at One Pixel

Analysing phase congruency at a given pixel location  $p = (x, y)$ :

1. Apply at  $p$  the set of convolution masks of  $n = m_1 \cdot m_2$  Gabor pairs producing  $n$  complex numbers  $(r_h, \alpha_h)$
2. Calculate phase congruency measures  $\mathcal{P}_i(p)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m_1$ , by only using  $m_2$  complex numbers  $(r_h, \alpha_h)$  defined for direction  $\theta_i$
3. Calculate directional components  $X_i$  and  $Y_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m_1$  by

$$[X_i, Y_i]^\top = \mathcal{P}_i(p) \cdot [\sin(\theta_i), \cos(\theta_i)]^\top$$

4. Consider covariance matrix of directional components:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} X_i^2 & \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} X_i Y_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} X_i Y_i & \sum_{i=1}^{m_1} Y_i^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ ; let  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2$

(Note the correspondence to the approximated  $2 \times 2$  Hessian matrix)

# Detection of Edge Pixels

Magnitude of  $\lambda_1$  indicates significance of a local feature (an edge, corner, or another local feature)

If  $\lambda_2$  also of large magnitude then we have a corner

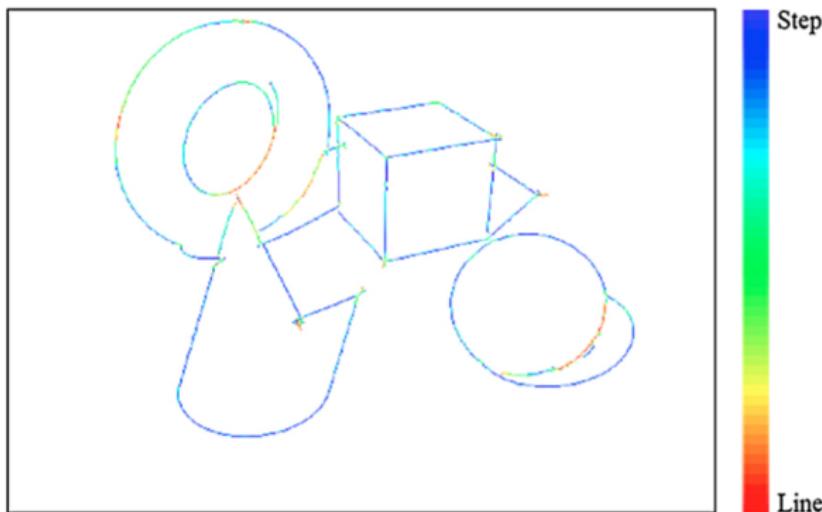
Principle axis corresponds with the direction of the local feature

Apply procedure for all  $p \in \Omega$ : Array of  $\lambda_1$  values defines *raw results*; ignore  $p$  if value below a chosen cut-off threshold (say, 0.5)

Perform non-maxima suppression in this array, possibly combined with hysteresis thresholding, i.e. set to zero all values that do not define a local maximum in their (say) 8-neighbourhood

Pixels having non-zero values after the non-maxima suppression are the identified edge pixels

# Edge or Line Pixel ?



Colour-code for a scale between “Step” and “Line”

Having two eigenvalues as results for each pixel, these two values can also be used for classifying a detected feature; the figure illustrates just an example

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