Keypoint detection and description

Javier González Jiménez

Reference Books:

• Computer Vision: Algorithms and Applications. Richard Szeliski. Springer. 2010.

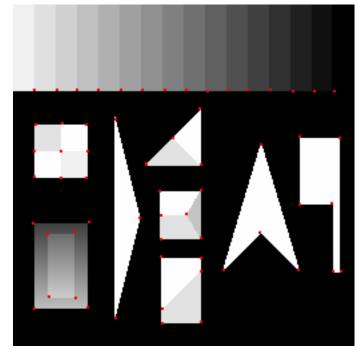
http://szeliski.org/Book

Content

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Harris detector
 - Idea
 - Formulation
 - Implementation
- 3. KLT operator
- 4. Keypoint matching through correlation
- 5. SIFT operator
 - Scale Space
 - Detector
 - Descriptor

What are keypoints (also, interest or feature points)?

Distinctive pixels in the image that can likely be projections on 3D entities.



Synthetic image



Real image

Two problems involved: Detection and description

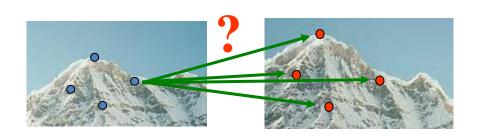
1. Detection





The operator must provide a reliable and repeatable response

2. Description: To match to its correspondence in other images



Invariant and discriminative description needed

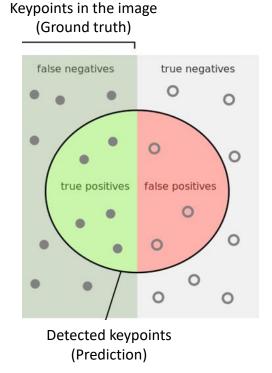
Harris is just a detector (not a descriptor). The keypoint is described with a surrounding image patch

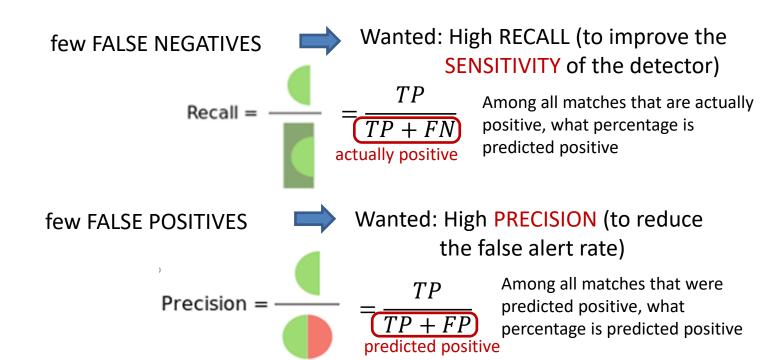
SIFT is a detector and also provides its own descriptor

Desired properties:

Detector:

- Accurate (subpixel accuracy, if possible)
- Detect all the keypoints in the image (few FALSE NEGATIVES)
- NOT detect irrelevant points (few FALSE POSITIVES)

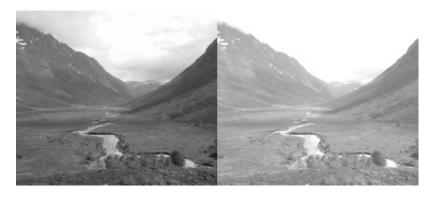




Desired properties:

Descriptor should have *invariance* to:

✓ Illumination (changes in brightness and contrast)



√ View point (scale, rotación, projective distortion)



Detector and descriptor: Computationally efficient and robust to image noise

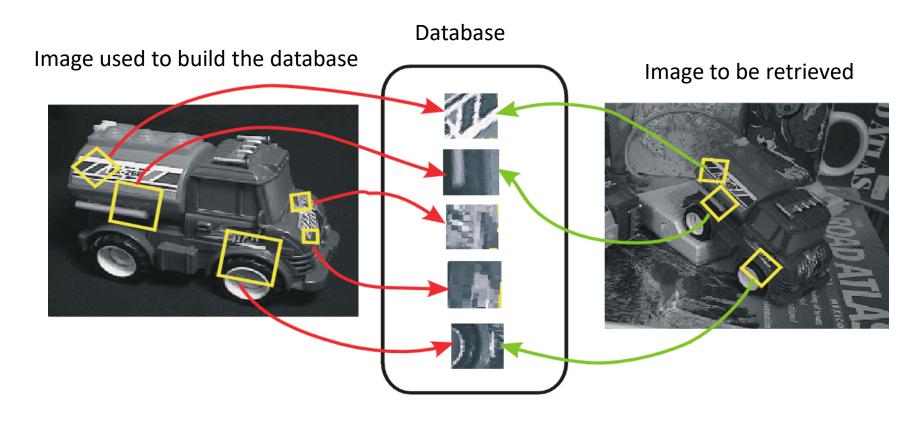
Applications

- Panoramic images (image sticking)
- 3D Reconstruction
- Object tracking
- Object recognition
- Image retrieval and indexing in database
- Robot navigation: mapping, localization, obstacle detection
- and many others

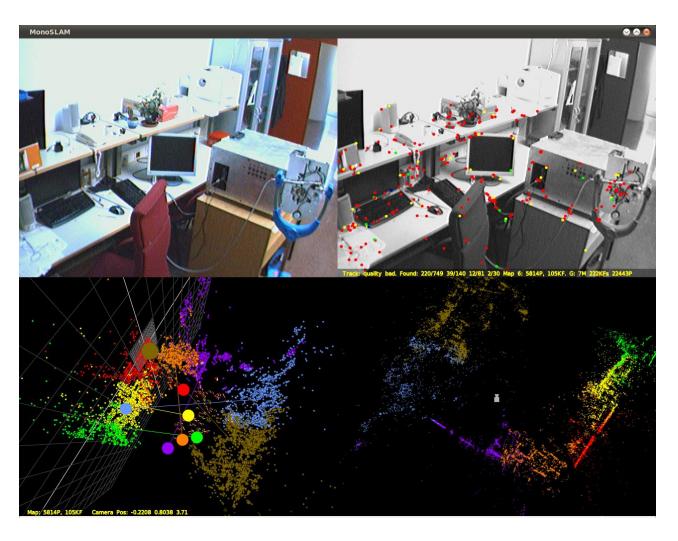
Applications: Panoramic images (image stitching)



Applications: Image retrieval and indexing in database



Applications: Localization and 3D Reconstruction



- Detect corners
- Simple and efficient implementation
- Robustness to noise (apply smoothing)
- Invariance to
 - Rotation: uses eigenvectors
 - Brightness (partially to contrast): uses derivatives



Not invariance to scale

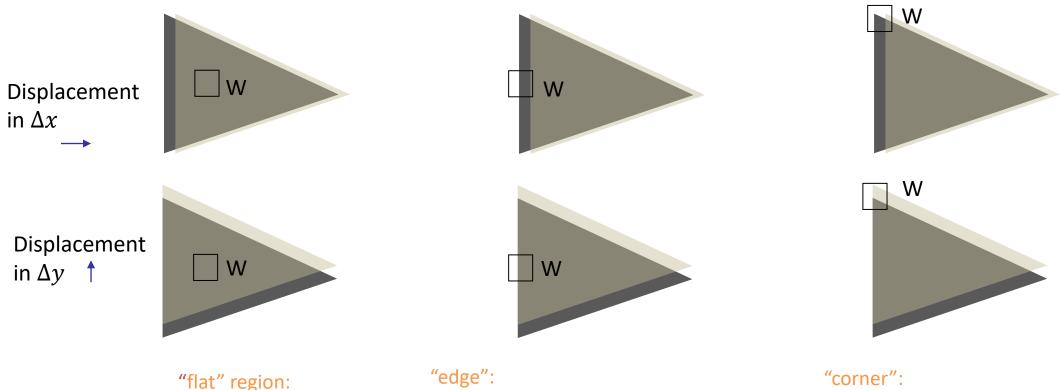


A keypoint is a corner ("esquina")

No change in W

A corner is a point with high variation of intensity in 2 spatial directions

Basic idea: look in a small window W around a pixel if the displacements of the image in two directions provoke changes



direction

change in W only if motion in the Δx

"corner": change in W if motion in both the Δx and Δy directions

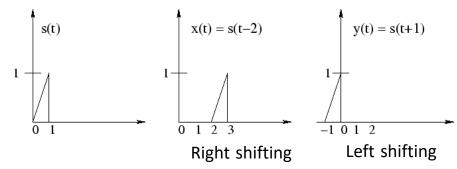
Detecting the local change in intensity due to a shift $(\Delta x, \Delta y)$:

Sum-of-square weighted difference at a pixel $[x_0y_0]$ when a window image I is shifted $(\Delta x, \Delta y)$:

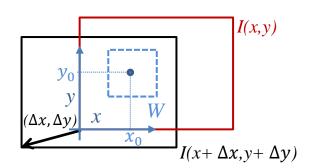
$$E_{x_0y_0}(\Delta x, \Delta y) = \sum_{x,y} w(x,y) [I(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - I(x,y)]^2$$
Weighting window centered at $[x_0y_0]$ Image shifted $(\Delta x, \Delta y)$ Image

RECALL:

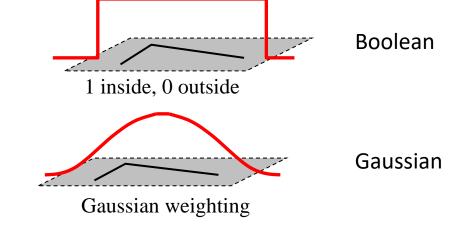
1D signal shifting



2D Left-down image shifting



Weighting function w(x,y) may be:



Let's make more practical the computation of $E_{x_0y_0}(\Delta x, \Delta y)$

$$E_{x_{o}y_{0}}(\Delta x, \Delta y) = \sum_{x_{i}y} w(x, y) [I(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - I(x, y)]^{2} = \sum_{(x_{i}, y_{i}) \in W} [I(x_{i} + \Delta x, y_{i} + \Delta y) - I(x_{i}, y_{i})]^{2}$$
Sum only over a boolean window W Image derivative at (x_{i}, y_{i}) along the y axis
$$E(\Delta x, \Delta y) \approx \sum_{(x_{i}, y_{i}) \in W} [I(x_{i}, y_{i}) + [I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) \quad I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})]^{\Delta x}] - I(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})$$

$$= [\Delta x \Delta y] \sum_{(x_{i}, y_{i}) \in W} [I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i}) \quad I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})] [\Delta x \\ I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i}) \quad I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})]$$

$$= [\Delta x \Delta y] \sum_{(x_{i}, y_{i}) \in W} [I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i}) \quad I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})] [\Delta x \\ I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})]$$

$$= [\Delta x \Delta y] \sum_{(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})} [I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})] [\Delta x \\ I_{x}(x_{i}, y_{i}) I_{y}(x_{i}, y_{i})]$$

$$= [\Delta x \Delta y] M \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [\Delta x \Delta y] M \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$

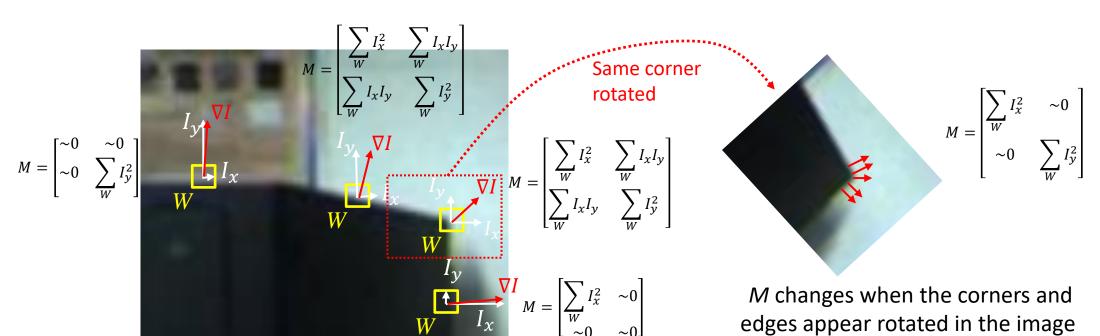
 $E_{x_0y_0}(\Delta x, \Delta y)$ is a quadratic polynomial which coefficients are the entries of M

Understanding M

Summation of all the square derivatives along the x-axis of the points inside ${\cal W}$

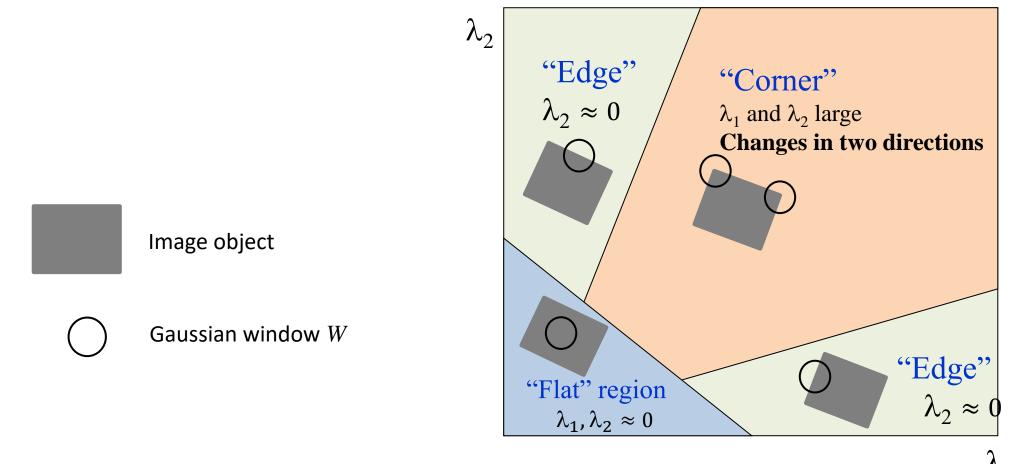
$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{W} I_{x}^{2} \\ \sum_{W} I_{x}I_{y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{W} I_{x}I_{y} \\ \sum_{W} I_{x}I_{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

M is computed from the **first** derivatives at each image point $(x_o y_0)$



Derivative vector at different pixels (always perpendicular to the border)

The image points are now classified according to the eigenvalues



But computing the eigenvalues of a 2x2 matrix (M) at each pixel is costly!

Let's define a scalar variable R that indexes the same domain:

$$R = \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}{\lambda_1 \lambda_2} - k \left(\frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2} \right)^2$$
 (k = 0.04-0.06 is an empiric constant)

- *R* is large and positive at corners
- *R* is negative at edges
- |R| is small at flat regions

Trace and determinant of
$$M$$
 and $D=\begin{bmatrix}\lambda_1&0\\0&\lambda_2\end{bmatrix}$ are the same:
$$\det M=\lambda_1\lambda_2$$

$$\operatorname{trace} M=\lambda_1+\lambda_2$$

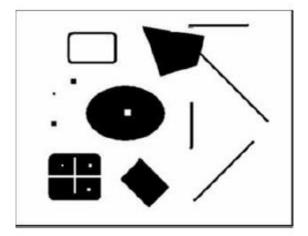
$$R = \det M - k \left(\operatorname{trace} M \right)^2$$

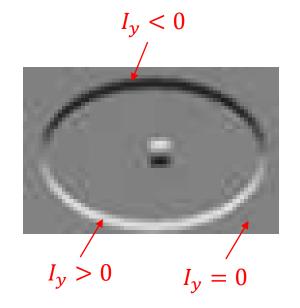
"Edge" R < 0"Corner" R > 0"Flat" "Edge" R < 0/R/ small

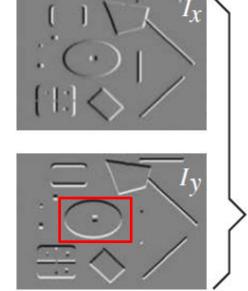
No need to compute the eigenvalues!!

Original image

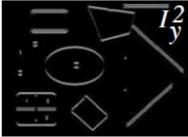
Summary:

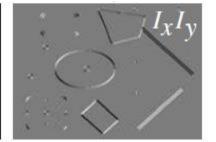






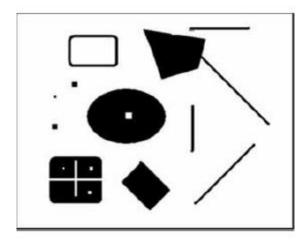


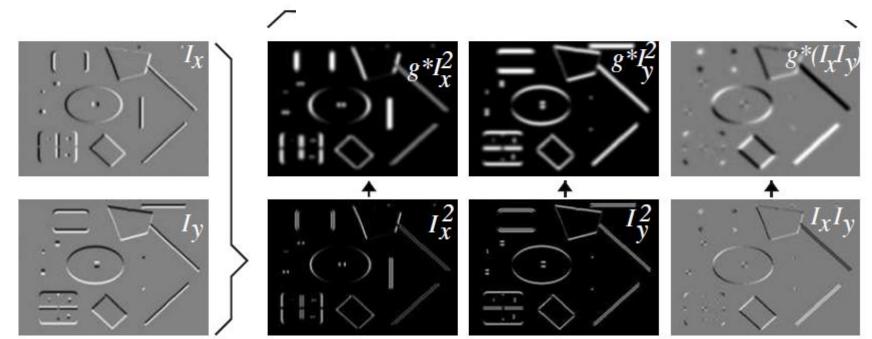




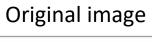
Summary:

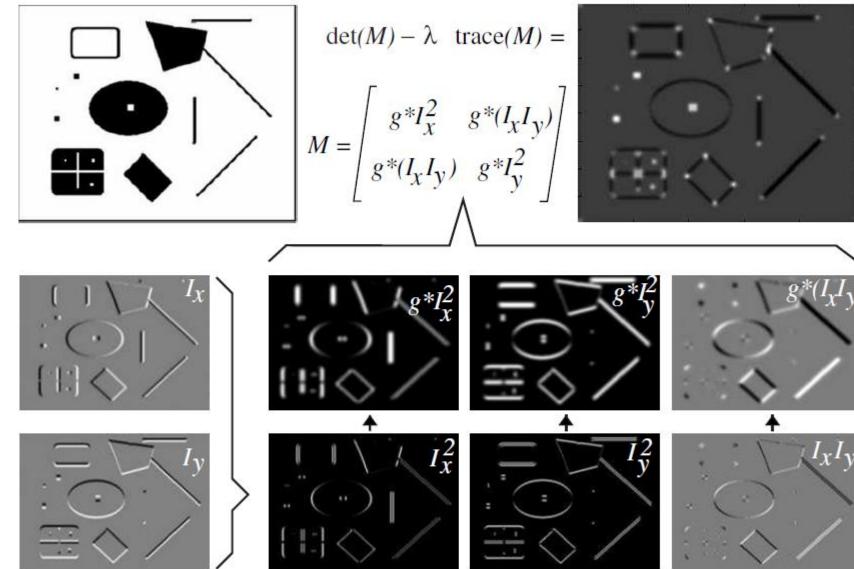
Original image





Summary:



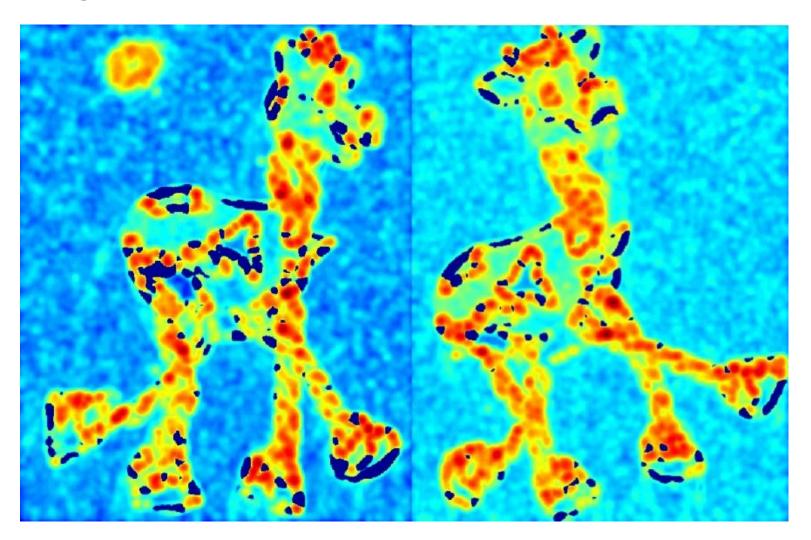


Algorithm:

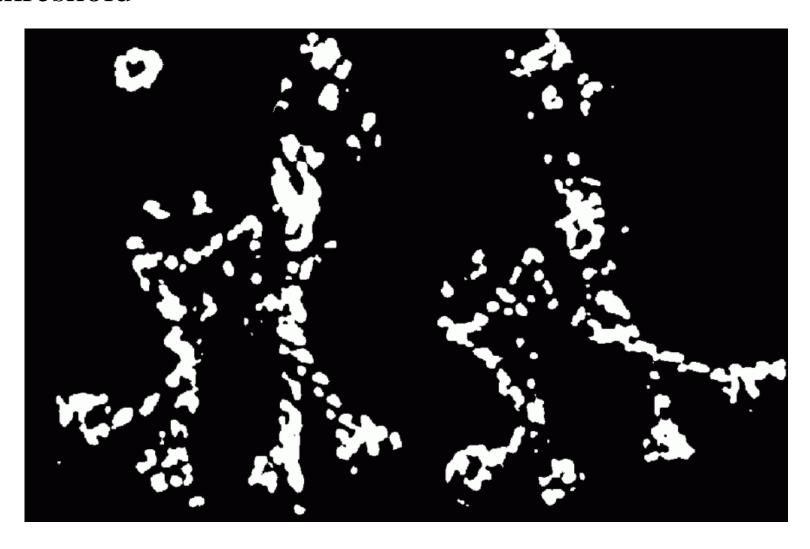
- Compute the image derivatives I_x , I_y (i.e. Sobel)
- Gaussian smoothing of the 3 images: $(I_x)^2$, $(I_y)^2$, I_xI_y
- Compute the image R from the formula (trace and determinant)
- Find pixels where R is high (R > threshold)
- Select local maxima



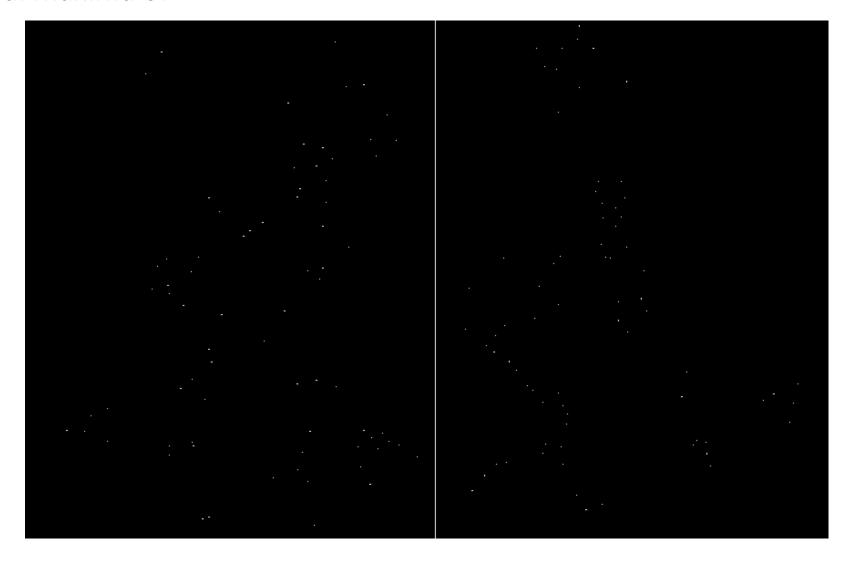
R image



R>threshold



Local maxima of R





3. KLT operator (Kanade-Lucas-Tomasi)

Objective: Detect distintive points, suitable to be tracked in a image sequence

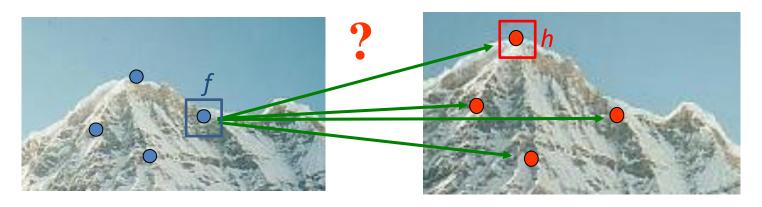
- Similar principle to Harris: "A good keypoint is that with a high intensity derivative in two directions" \rightarrow Min (λ_1, λ_2) > threshold
- Also based on the first derivative matrix:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{w} I_{x}^{2} & \sum_{w} I_{x} I_{y} \\ \sum_{w} I_{x} I_{y} & \sum_{w} I_{y}^{2} \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- But now, the eigenvalues are computed (no approximation with R)
 - → better behavior under affine image deformation

4. Keypoint matching through correlation

Which is the correspondence of each point in other image?



Sum of squared differences (SSD):
$$SSD(f,h) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [f(i,j) - h(i,j)]^2$$

SSD is approximated by the SAD (more efficient computationally):

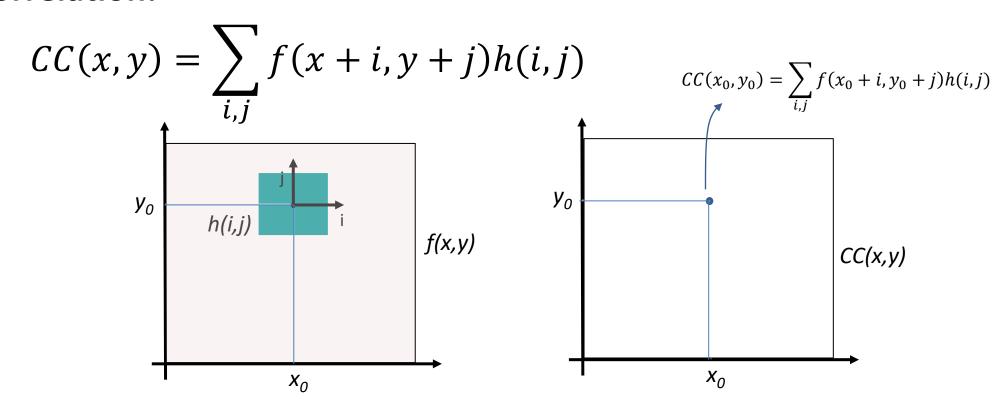
Sum of absolute differences (SAD):
$$\sum |f(i,j) - h(i,j)|$$

Problem: SSD and SAD are not invariant to brightness or contrast changes

Still, SAD is employed in keypoint tracking along an image sequence (where image brightness and contrast do not change very much.

4. Keypoint matching through correlation

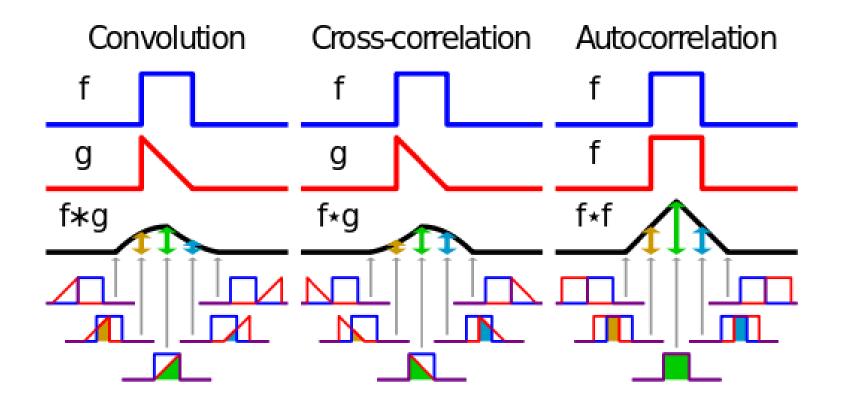
Cross-Correlation:



CC is similar to the convolution but without flipping the kernel

$$f \otimes h = \sum_{x,y} f(x-i,y-j)h(i,j)$$
 equivalent to the cross-correlation of $f(-i,-j)$ and $h(i,j)$

Correlation vs. Convolution:



The convolution f * g is equivalent to the cross-correlation of f(t) and g(-t)

Normalized Cross-Correlation (NCC):

Cross correlation is not invariant to change in brightness and contrast of f y h → Normalization required

$$NCC(x,y) = \sum_{i,j} \hat{f}(x+i,y+j) \hat{h}(i,j)$$
 Normalization: \hat{f} and \hat{h} have zero mean and contrast one

$$\hat{f}(x+i,y+j) = \frac{f(x+i,y+j) - \overline{f}}{\left\|f - \overline{f}\right\|_{W_m(x,y)}} \qquad \hat{h}(x,y) = \frac{h(x,y) - \overline{h}}{\left\|h - \overline{h}\right\|_{W_m(x,y)}}$$
 brightness

Mean brightness (intensity) of f and h in the window W_m

Forightness (intensity) of f and h in the window
$$W_m$$

$$\bar{f} = \frac{1}{\left|W_m(x,y)\right|} \sum_{(i,j) \in W_m(x,y)} f(i,j)$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{1}{\left|W_m(x,y)\right|} \sum_{(i,j) \in W_m(x,y)} h(i,j)$$

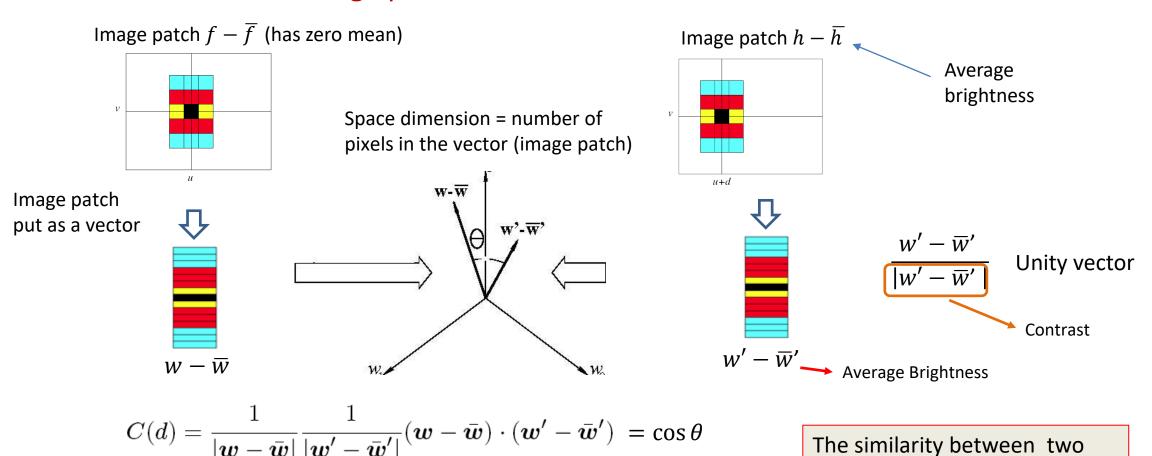
Contrast (norm) of brightness in the window W_m

$$\|f - \bar{f}\|_{W_m(x,y)} = \sqrt{\sum_{(i,j) \in W_m(x,y)} \left[f(i,j) - \bar{f}(i,j) \right]^2}$$

$$\|h - \bar{h}\|_{W_m(x,y)} = \sqrt{\sum_{(i,j) \in W_m(x,y)} \left[h(i,j) - \bar{h}(i,j) \right]^2}$$

Why does NCC measure similarity between two image patches?

Let's consider an image patch as a vector

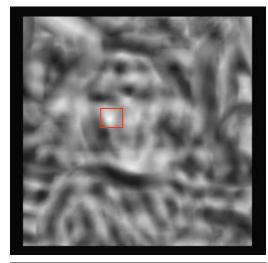


The similarity between two unity vectors is given by the angle (or *cos*) between them

4. Keypoint matching through correlation

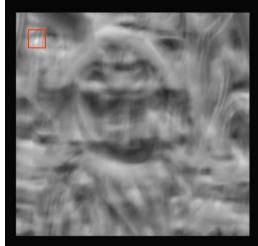












Correlation output

DEMO IN MATLAB

%Read and show the image flowers = imread('flowers.tif'); figure, imshow(flowers) % select a template from the image with the mouse [sub_flowers,rect_flowers] = imcrop(flowers); % Show the selected template figure, imshow(sub flowers) % Do NCC with the blue channel and display the result c = normxcorr2(sub_flowers(:,:,1),flowers(:,:,1)); figure, surf(c), shading flat

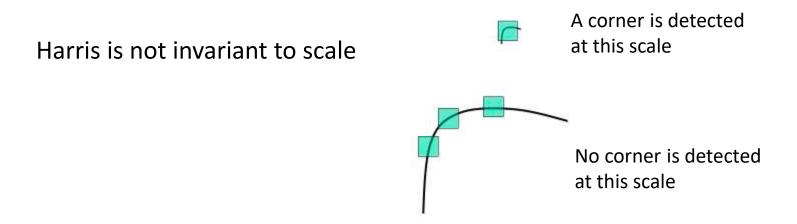
Notice: Output not invariant to the rotation of the patch

Content

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Harris detector
 - Idea
 - Formulation
 - Implementation
- 3. KLT operator
- 4. Keypoint matching through correlation
- 5. SIFT operator
 - Scale Space
 - Detector
 - Descriptor

5. The SIFT (Scale Invariant Feature Transform) operator

 Objective: Find in image projections of distintive 3D points (not necessary corners!) that are invariant to scale



Provides both: Detector y descriptor of the detected keypoints

Proposed (and patented) by **David Lowe**: "**Distinctive image features from scale-invariant keypoints,"** *International Journal of Computer Vision,* 60, 2 (2004).

5. The SIFT operator

Both, detector and descriptor have invariance to:

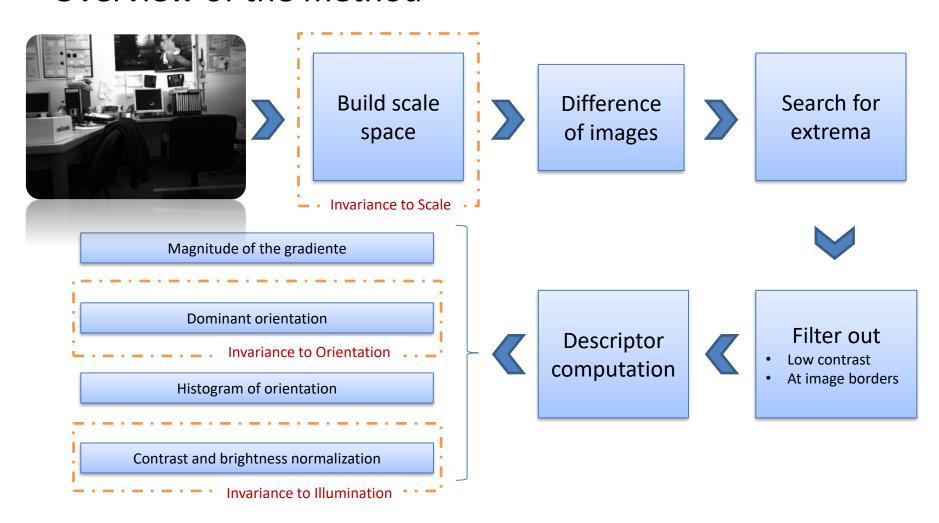
ScaleRotation

Important difference against Harris

Important difference against NCC

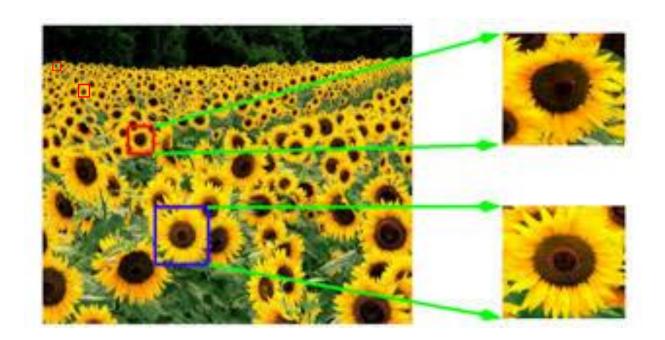
- Ilumination [constrast+brightness]
- Affine transformation [parcially]
- Principle
 - Search for extrema in the scale space [Detector]
 - Normalized histogram of orientation [Descriptor]
- Descriptor is a vector up to 128 dimensions

Overview of the method



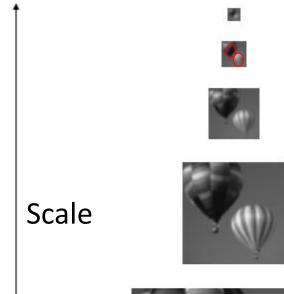
Scale Space

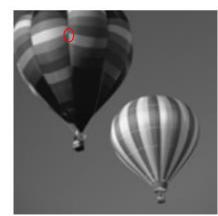
In images, features emerge at different scales



Changing the scale (size) shows up different features

Low resolution



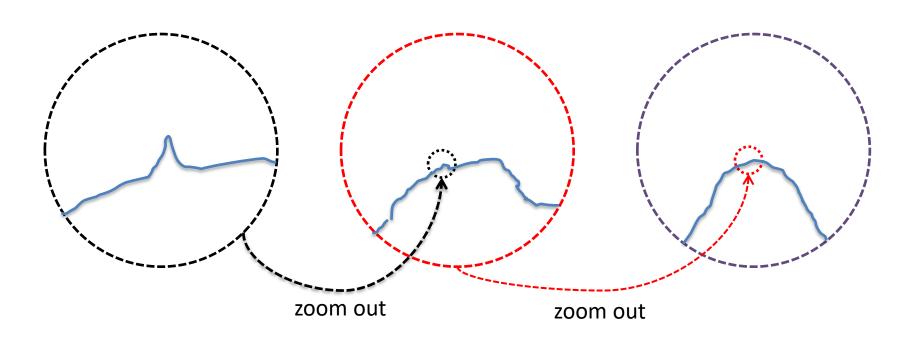


High resolution

Scale Space

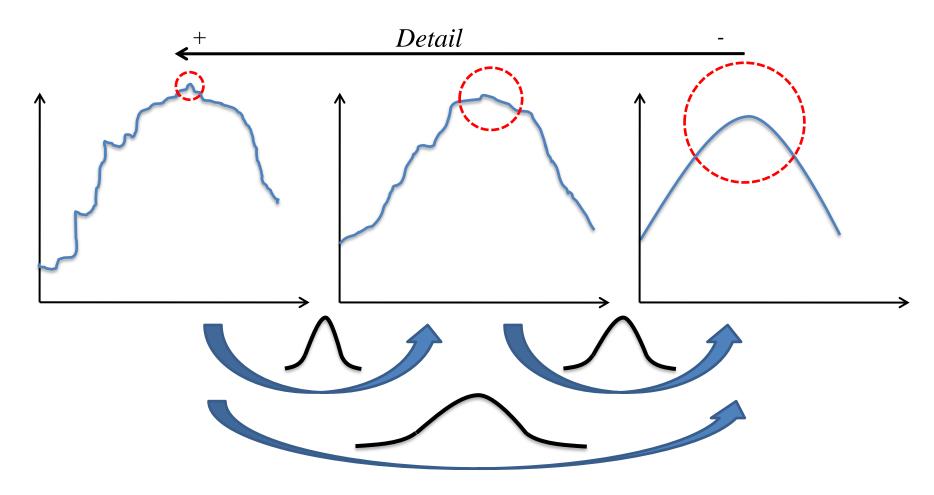
Features show up at a given scale

Example in one-dimension



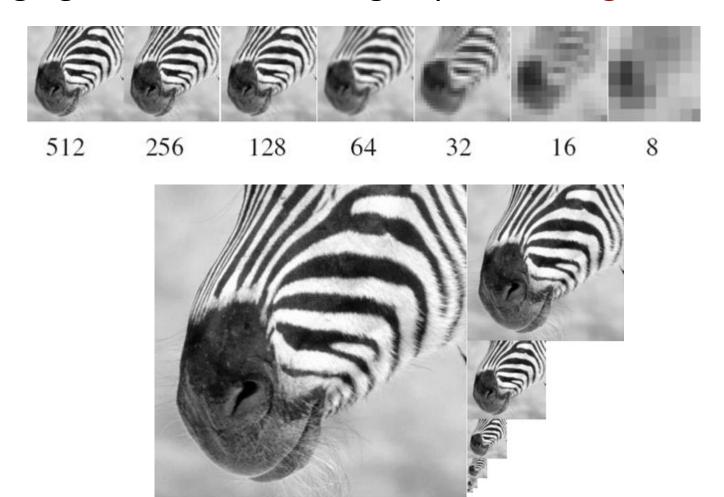
Scale Space

We can change the scale by smoothing the signal with a Gaussian



Scale Space

Changing the scale of an image by smoothing with a Gaussian



Scale Space

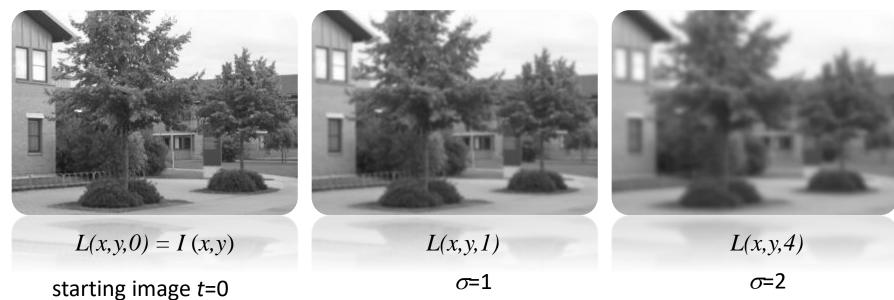
Changing the scale of an image by smoothing with a Gaussian

Gaussian operator:
$$G(x, y, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi t} e^{-\frac{(x^2 + y^2)}{2t}}$$
 $t = \sigma^2 \Rightarrow \sigma = \sqrt{t}$

Smoothed image: L(x, y, t) = I(x, y) * G(x, y, t)

+ Detail -

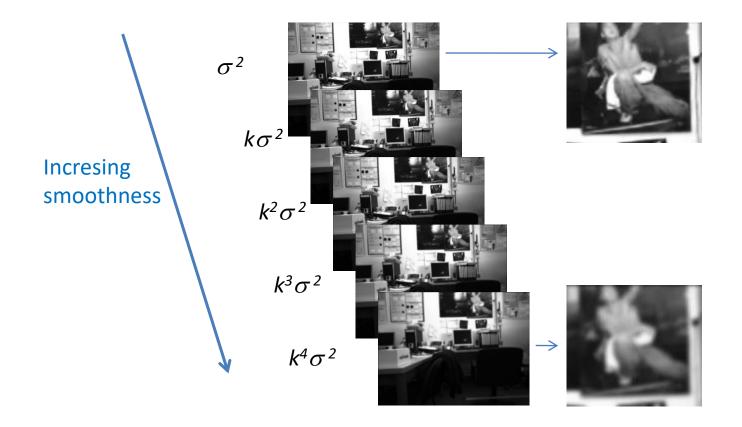
The starting image is always the original image (t=0)



So, the scale space stores samples of the function $L(x,y,\sigma^2)$

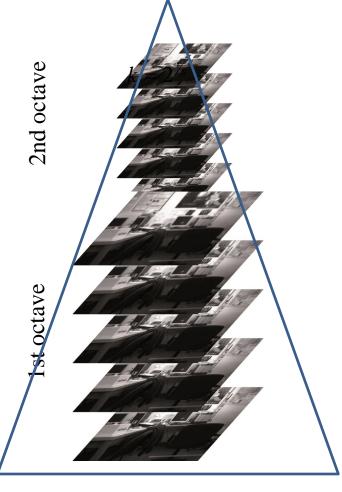
Objetive: "continuous" scale space

Progressive convolution of the input image with a Gaussian controlled with a constant factor K

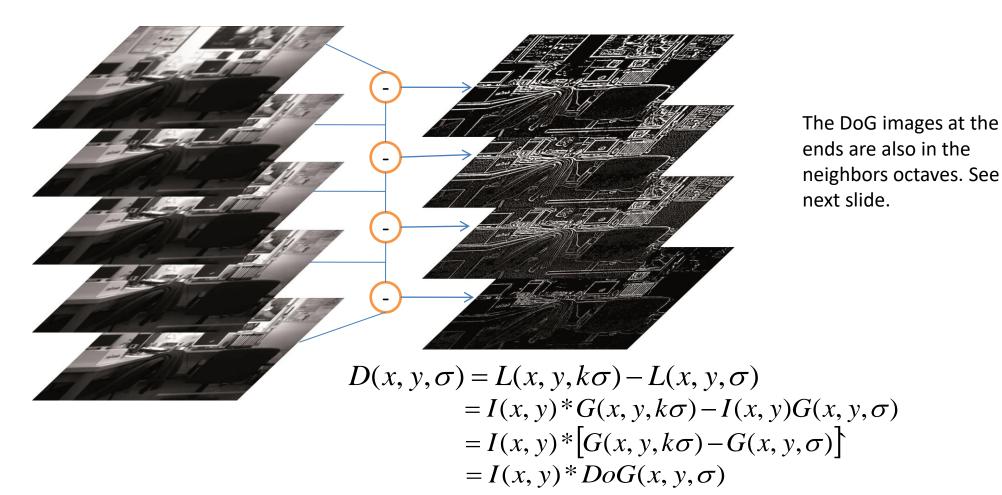


 The scale space has the structure of a *pyramid*: a collection of digital images sampled at progressively coarser spatial resolution and hence of progressively smaller size.

- The pyramid is built upon a number of Octaves.
- Each Octave (o) consists of s+2 images of the same size (resolution) with increasing smoothness.
- In the following Octave the image has half the resolution (size) since it does not make sense to keep the resolution when small details have been removed.

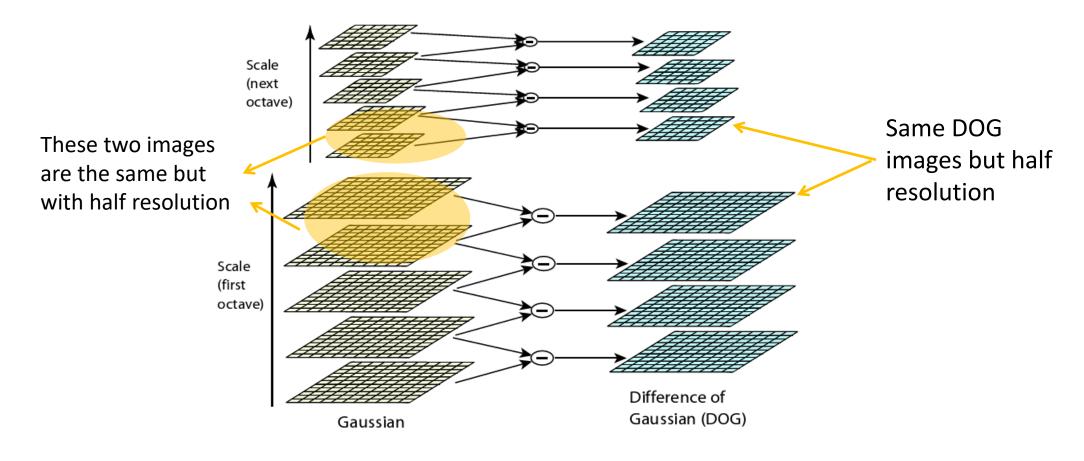


From smoothed images to **Difference of Gaussians** (DoG)



Diference of smoothed images = Image convolved with a DoG

Construction of the scale space through "octaves"

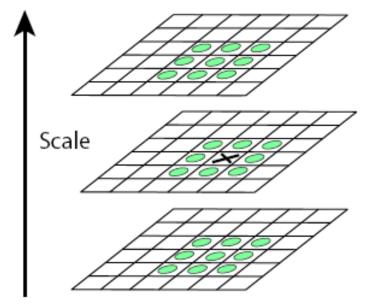


DoG are used here to detect BLOBS (not edged)!!

Search for extreme points

Each pixel value is compared to its 26 neighbors along the full scale:

- 8 in ithe same scale,
- 9 in the upper scale and
- 9 in the lower scale

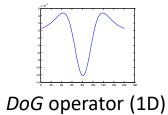


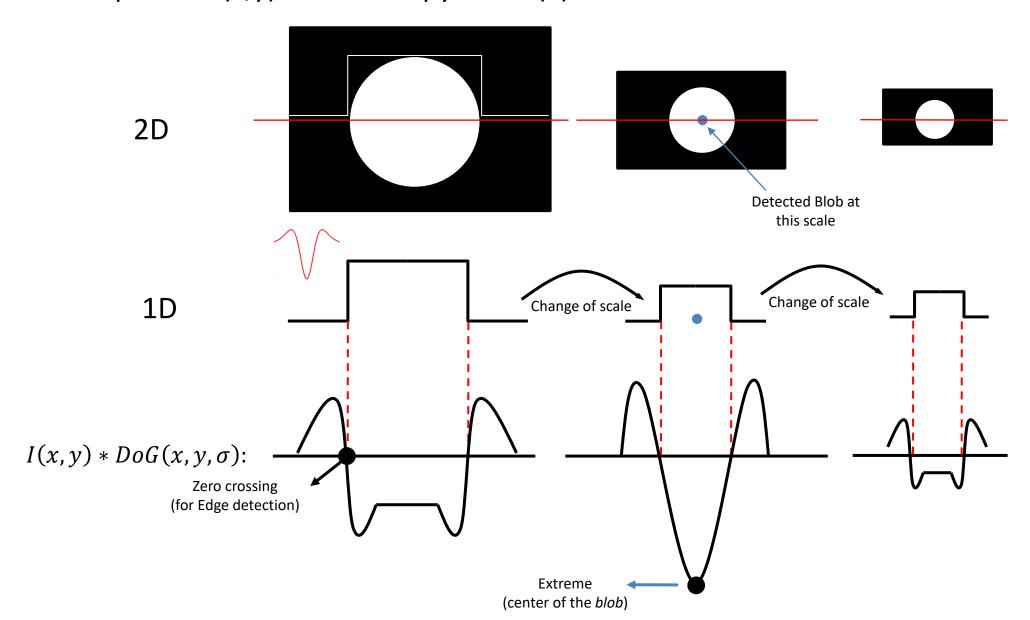
A extreme point in the scale gives us a distintive point in (x,y) and in the pyramid

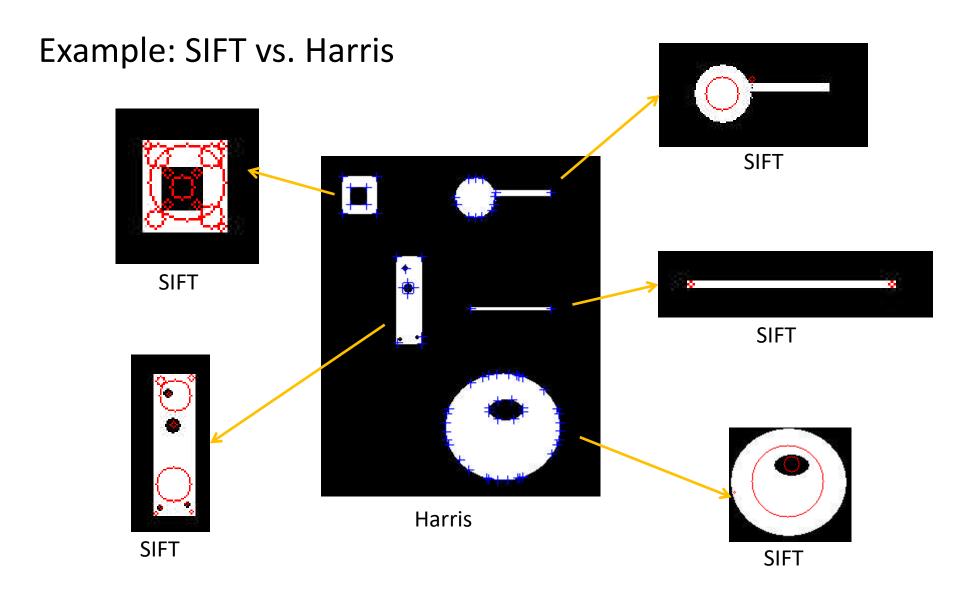
A extreme point in the scale gives us a distintive point in (x,y) and in the pyramid (k)



Recall:







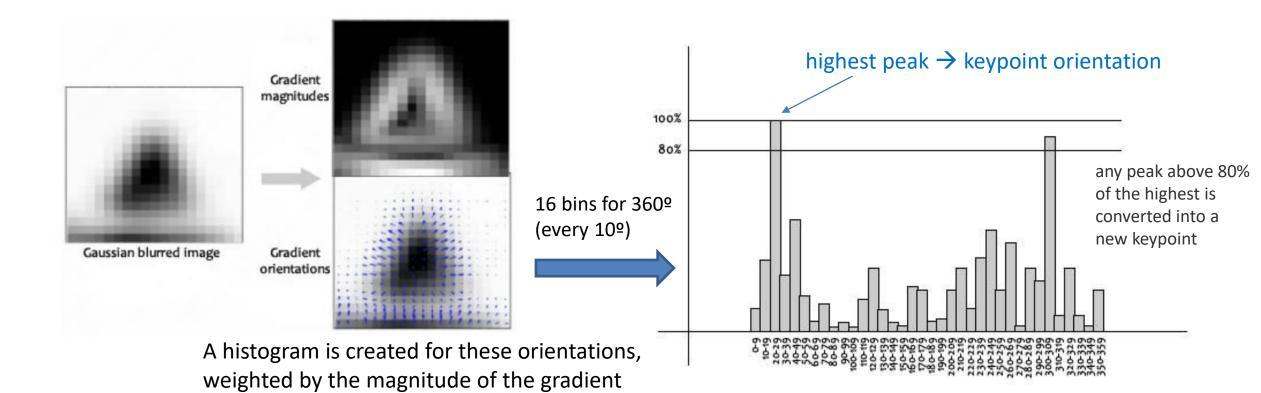
SIFT Descriptor: Histogram of orientations around the extreme point

Obtaining the descriptor orientation:

The magnitude (m) and orientation (θ) of the gradient is calculated for all pixels around the keypoint.

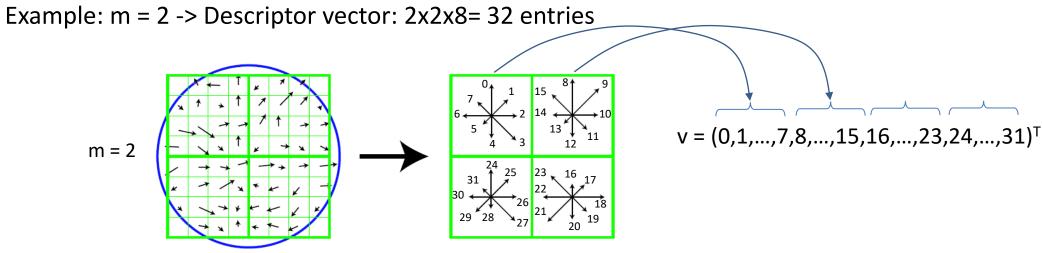
$$m(x,y) = \sqrt{(L(x+1,y) - L(x-1,y))^2 + (L(x,y+1) - L(x,y-1))^2}$$

$$\theta(x,y) = \tan^{-1}((L(x,y+1) - L(x,y-1))/(L(x+1,y) - L(x-1,y)))$$

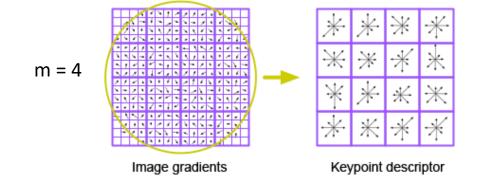


SIFT Descriptor: Histogram of orientations around the extreme point (EP) **Obtaining the descriptor vector**:

- The neighborhood of the EP is divided in **m** x **m cells** (a cell is 4x4 pixels)
- Histogram of 8 orientations for each cell \rightarrow Size of descriptor vector: $\mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{8}$



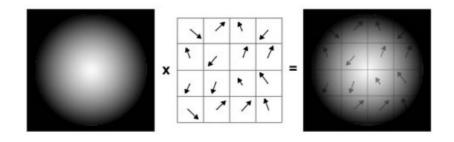
In the Lowe's original paper (D. Lowe): m = 4 -> Descriptor: 4x4x8 = 128D



Obtaining the descriptor vector:

The histogram of orientations is weighted by

- Magnitude of the gradient: more importance to strong gradients
- Gaussian centered at the extreme point: more importance to close pixels



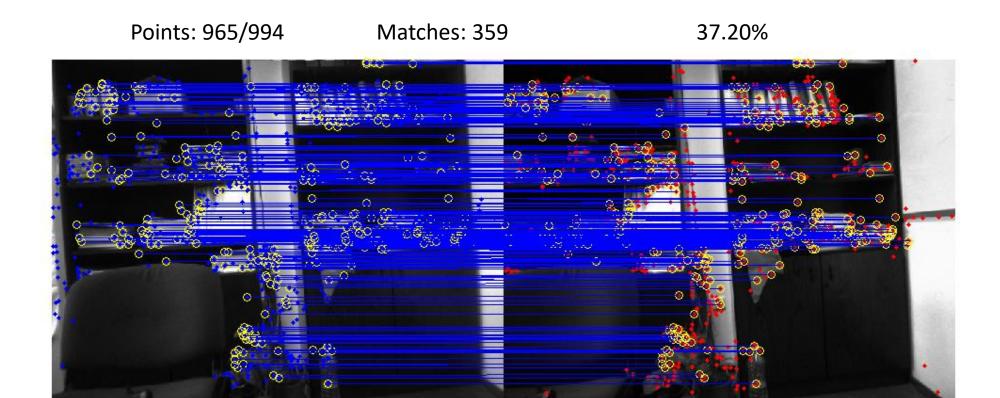
SIFT Invariances

- **Scale**: Window size based on the scale at which the extreme was found
- Orientation: Histogram rotated along the keypoint orientation: the keypoint orientation is subtracted from each orientation of the vector

Descriptor: 4x4x8 = 128D

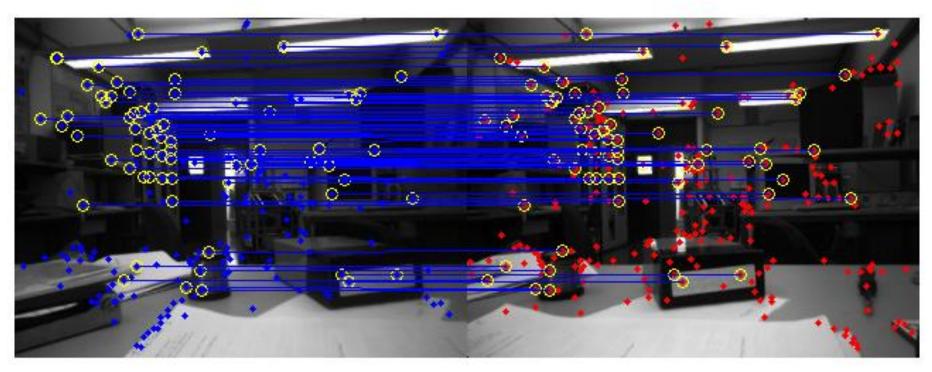
Example: Stereo matches from Euclidean distance

A keypoint of the lest image is matched to the one in the left with the closest descriptor



Example: Stereo matches

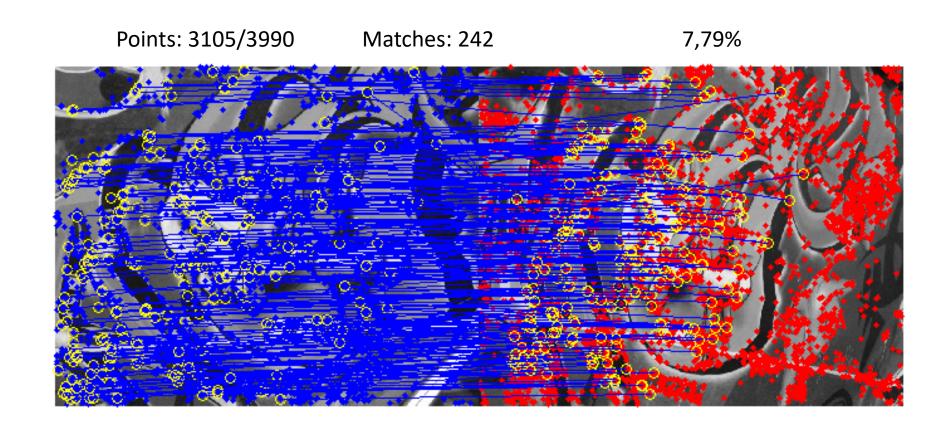
Points: 245/326 Matches: 89 36.33%



Example: Stereo matches (with rotation)

Points: 9687/7113 Matches: 1621 22.79%

Example: Stereo matches (with rotation)



Summary

- Harris operator is ...
 - a corner detector which is combined with NCC for matching in other images
 - Based on first-order image derivatives
 - invariant to rotation (because derivatives along the eigenvectors)
 - NOT invariant to scale
 - Invariant to brightness (pixel intensities are not directly considered but derivatives)
 - Robust to noise (because of gaussian smoothing)
- KLT operator
 - Same idea as Harris but the two eigenvalues are used
- SIFT operator
 - Detect Blobs at different scales based on the DoG operator
 - Provides a descriptor with the information of the gradient around the detected keypoint at its scale