

Keypoints and
Descriptors

Srikumar
Ramalingam

Problem
Statement

Scale Space
and Image
Kernels

Corner
Detection

SIFT

Keypoints and Descriptors

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Presentation Outline

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Main paper to be discussed

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- David G. Lowe, Distinctive Image Features from Scale-Invariant Keypoints, IJCV, 2004.

How to find useful keypoints?

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How do you handle large scale changes?

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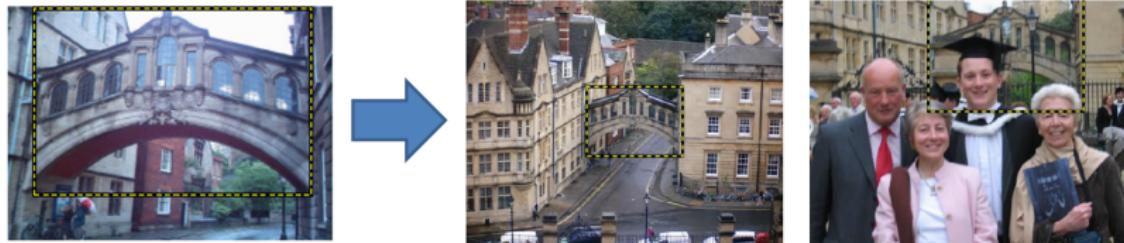
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Problem Statement

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- Extract distinctive invariant features from images.
- Perform reliable matching between different views of an object or scene.
- Provide invariance w.r.t scale changes, rotations, affine distortions, viewpoints, noise, illumination.

Uses of SIFT

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- Fundamental matrix estimation
- Pose estimation
- 3D reconstruction
- Object recognition
- Image retrieval
- Visual odometry and robot navigation
- ..

How to perform object recognition?

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- The invariant features can be matched against a large database of features of known objects from many images.
- The matching can be done using a fast nearest-neighbor algorithm.
- Pose estimation can be used for verification purposes.
- Can handle clutter and occlusion.

Searching for specific objects from movies

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Example



retrieved shots



Searching for specific objects from movies

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Query
region



Repeatability

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- What if we don't find the same features to match?

Stages of generating SIFT features

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- **Scale-space extrema detection:**
 - Searches over all scales and image locations.
 - Efficient implementation using difference-of-Gaussian function to detect points that are invariant to scale and orientation.
- **Keypoint localization:** A model is fit to determine location and scale. Keypoints are selected based on measures of their stability.
- **Orientation assignment:** Compute best orientation(s) for each keypoint region.
- **Keypoint descriptor:** Use local image gradients at selected scale and rotation to describe each keypoint region.

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Detection of scale-space extrema

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- Search for stable features across all possible scales, using a continuous function of scale known as scale space (Witkin, 1983).
- An image is represented as a one-parameter family of smoothed images, the scale-space representation, parameterized by the size of the smoothing kernel used for suppressing fine-scale structures.
- Does it just correspond to the size of the image?

Why do we use the Gaussian function as the scale-space kernel?

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- We sometimes want to look at a leaf and other times an entire tree. If it's a tree, we get rid of small details such as leaves and twigs. While getting rid of these small details, we must ensure that we do not introduce new false details.
- Koenderink (1984) and Lindeberg (1994) showed that the only way to ensure this under reasonable assumptions is by using Gaussian function as the only scale-space kernel.

What is an image kernel?

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- A kernel, convolution matrix, or mask is a small matrix that is useful for blurring, sharpening, embossing, edge detection, and more.
- This is accomplished by means of convolution between a kernel and an image.

Identity kernel

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Operation	Kernel	Image result
Identity	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	

Edge kernel

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Operation	Kernel	Image result
	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	
Edge detection	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	
	$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 8 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	

Box blur and Gaussian kernels

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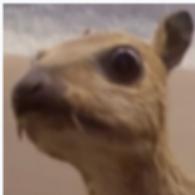
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Operation	Kernel	Image result
Box blur (normalized)	$\frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	
Gaussian blur 3×3 (approximation)	$\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	

Scale Space using Gaussian kernel- Witkin 1983

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- An edge position may shift with increasing scale
- Two edges may merge with increasing scale
- An edge may not split into two with increasing scale

Scale Space

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- The scale space of an image is a function $L(x, y, \sigma)$.
- We obtain $L(x, y, \sigma)$ by convolution of a variable-scale Gaussian $G(x, y, \sigma)$ with the input image $I(x, y)$:
$$L(x, y, \sigma) = G(x, y, \sigma) * I(x, y),$$
 where $*$ is the convolution operator in x and y .
- The Gaussian $G(x, y, \sigma)$ is given below:

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

Image kernel - Gaussian function

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Operation	Kernel	Image result
 Gaussian blur 5×5 (approximation)	$\frac{1}{256} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 1 \\ 4 & 16 & 24 & 16 & 4 \\ 6 & 24 & 36 & 24 & 6 \\ 4 & 16 & 24 & 16 & 4 \\ 1 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	

Image kernel - Gaussian function

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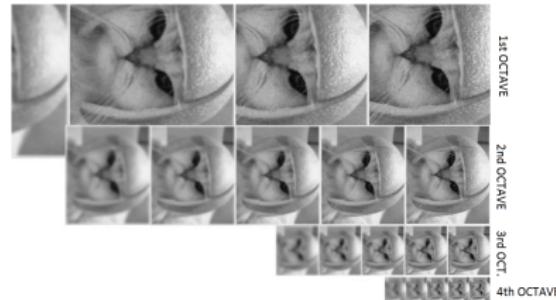
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- To create a scale space, progressively blur out images using Gaussian kernel

SIFT - Scale Space and downsampling



- Scale space images are obtained for different octaves. This is done by progressively blurring out images using Gaussian kernels, and then repeating the same after downsampling the original image by half to create the next octave.

Difference of Gaussians

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- Stable keypoint locations are detected using scale-space extrema in the difference-of-Gaussian function convolved with the image $D(x, y, \sigma)$.
- The difference of Gaussian is computed at two nearby scales separated by a constant multiplicative factor k .
-

$$\begin{aligned} D(x, y, \sigma) &= (G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma)) * I(x, y) \\ &= L(x, y, k\sigma) - L(x, y, \sigma) \end{aligned}$$

Difference of Gaussians

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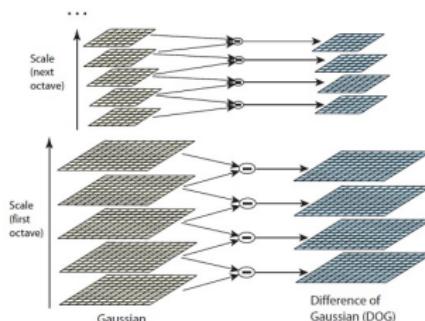
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- For each octave of scale space, the initial image is repeatedly convolved with Gaussians to produce the set of scale space images shown on the left.
- Adjacent Gaussian images are subtracted to produce the difference-of-Gaussian images on the right.
- After each octave, the Gaussian image is down-sampled by a factor of 2, and the process repeated.

Laplacian of a Gaussian

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- We take an image and blur it a little using Gaussian function.
- Calculate the second order derivatives or the Laplacian - locates edges and corners that are good for detecting keypoints.
- Computation of the second order derivative is also extremely sensitive to noise, and the blurring helps.

Laplacian of a Gaussian

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- The laplacian of a Gaussian is represented as $\nabla^2 G$.
- The scale-invariant laplacian of a Gaussian would be $\sigma^2 \nabla^2 G$.
- The difference of Gaussian images is approximately equivalent to the laplacian of the Gaussian.

Locate maxima-minima in DoG images

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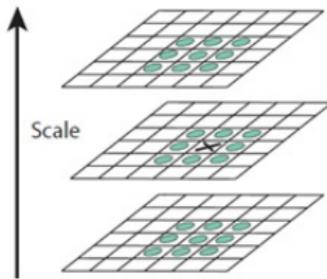
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- Maxima and minima of the DoG images are detected by comparing a pixel (marked with X) to its 26 neighbors.
- The marked points are the approximate maxima and minima because the maxima/minima almost never lies exactly on a pixel.

Scale-space extrema detection

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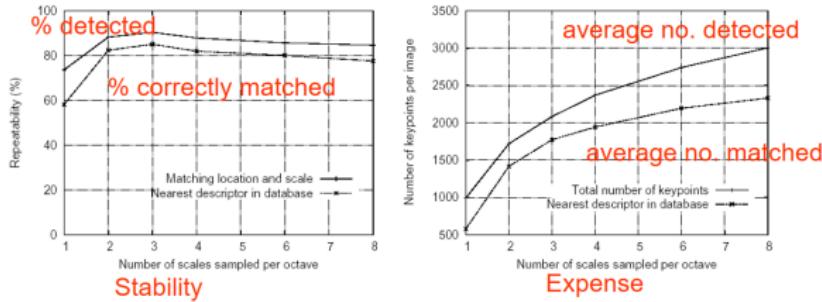
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32 images were synthetically transformed and noise added.

- Sampling in scale for efficiency
- How many scales should be used per octave? $S = ?$
- More scales evaluated, more keypoints found
 - $S < 3$, stable keypoints increased too
 - $S > 3$, stable keypoints decreased
 - $S = 3$, maximum stable keypoints found

⁰Source: Kristen Grauman

Accurate keypoint localization

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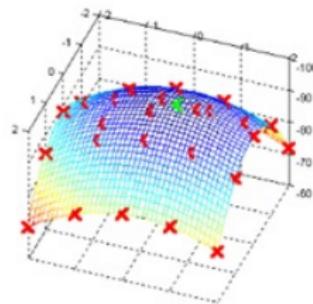
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- Fit a 3D quadratic function to the local sample points to determine the interpolated location of the maximum.
- The idea is to use the Taylor expansion of the scale-space function:

$$D(\mathbf{x}) = D + \frac{\delta D^T}{\delta \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \frac{\delta^2 D}{\delta \mathbf{x}^2} \mathbf{x}$$

- Here D and its derivatives are evaluated at the sample point and $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, \delta)^T$ is the offset from this point.

Removing low contrast features

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- If the intensity value (i.e., without sign) at the current pixel in the DoG image (that is being checked for minima/maxima) is less than a certain value, it is rejected.
- The subpixel intensity value is computed using Taylor expansion and if it is less than a threshold, it is rejected.

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Corners as keypoints

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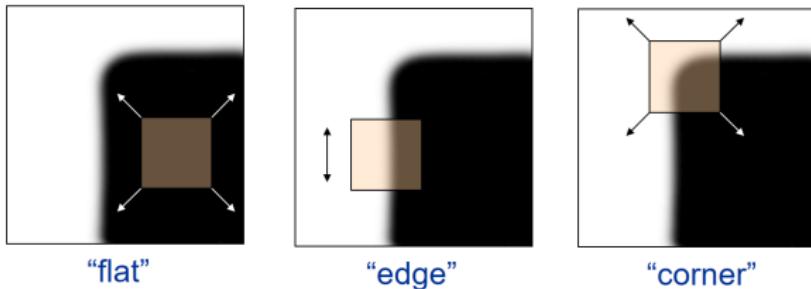
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- **A flat region:** Both the gradients are small.
- **An edge:** One gradient will be big (perpendicular to the edge) and the other will be small (along the edge).
- **A corner:** Both gradients are large. If both the gradients are large, we allow it to be treated as keypoints.

Harris corner detector

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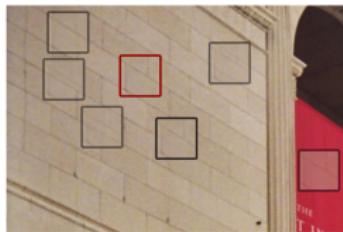
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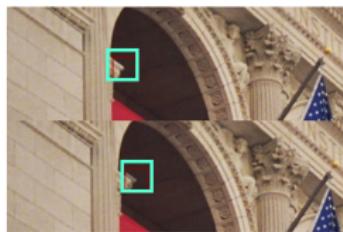
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Small window motions
produce small variations



Small window motions
produce large variations

- Let us consider the intensity change by moving a window by a small displacement:

$$E(x, y) = \sum_{x,y} w(x, y)[I(x + u, y + v) - I(x, y)]^2$$

Harris corner detector

Keypoints and
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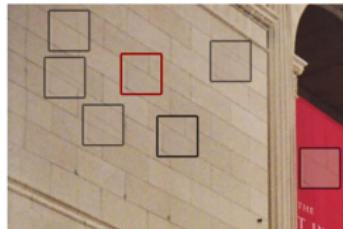
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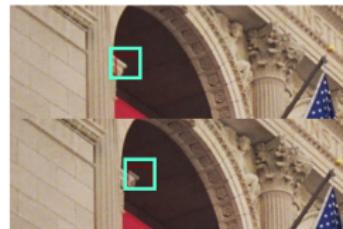
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Small window motions
produce small variations



Small window motions
produce large variations

- $$E(x, y) = \sum_{x, y} w(x, y)[I(x + u, y + v) - I(x, y)]^2$$
- $E(x, y)$ is the difference between the original and the moved window.
- (u, v) is the window's displacement.
- $I(x, y)$ is the image intensity at (x, y) .

Harris corner detector

Keypoints and
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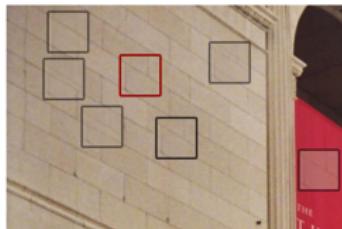
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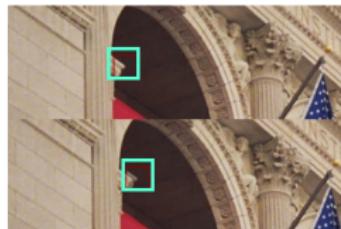
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Small window motions
produce small variations



Small window motions
produce large variations

- Let us consider the intensity change by moving a window by a small displacement:

$$E(x, y) = \sum_{x,y} w(x, y)[I(x + u, y + v) - I(x, y)]^2$$

- We are looking for windows that produce large E value.
Maximize E :

$$E(u, v) \approx \sum_{x,y} w(x, y)[I(x, y) + ul_x + vl_y - I(x, y)]^2$$

Harris corner detector

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$$E(u, v) \approx \sum_{x,y} w(x, y)[uI_x + vI_y]^2$$

$$E(u, v) \approx \sum_{x,y} w(x, y)[u^2I_x^2 + v^2I_y^2 + 2uvI_xI_y]$$

$$E(u, v) \approx \sum_{x,y} w(x, y) \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_xI_y \\ I_xI_y & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

Harris corner detector

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$$E(u, v) \approx \sum_{x,y} w(x, y) \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_x I_y & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E(u, v) \approx \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} M \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$M = \sum_{x,y} w(x, y) \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_x I_y & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Harris Corner Detector

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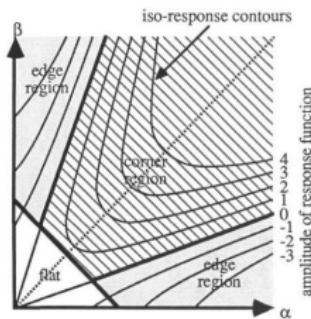
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- Let α and β be the Eigenvalues of the matrix M . The Eigenvalues determine the stability of a matrix.

$$R = \det(M) - k(\text{trace}(M))^2$$

$$\det(M) = \alpha \times \beta$$

$$\text{trace}(M) = \alpha + \beta$$

⁰Source: Harris and Stevens, 1988

Harris Corner Detector

Keypoints and
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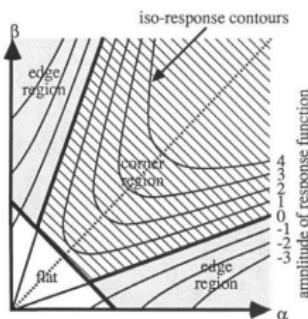
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$$R = \det(M) - k(\text{trace}(M))^2$$

$$\det(M) = \alpha \times \beta$$

$$\text{trace}(M) = \alpha + \beta$$

- If both eigenvalues are small, then the pixel is "flat" (the white region).
- If one eigenvalue is large, and the other is small, then the pixel is an edge (the gray region).

Images and 2D Derivatives

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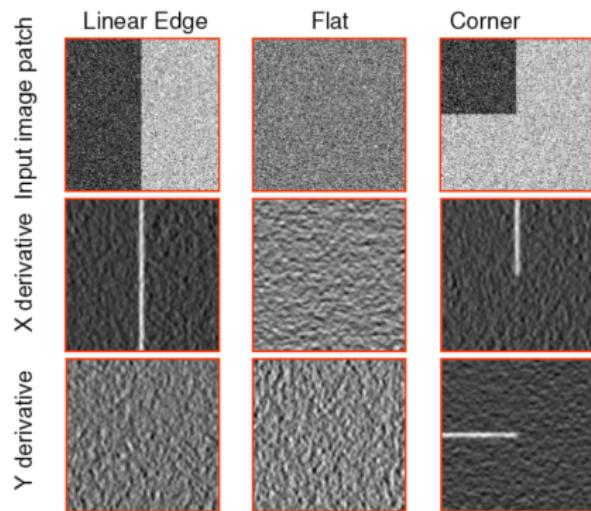
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2D Derivatives as points

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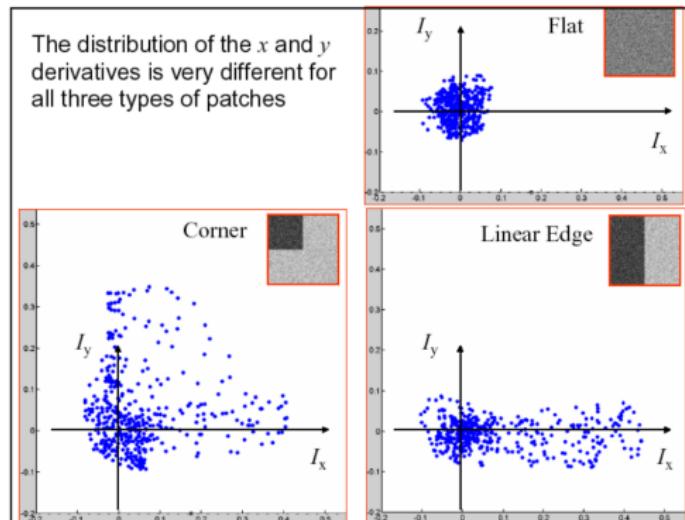
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The distribution of the x and y derivatives is very different for all three types of patches



Fit ellipses to the 2D derivatives

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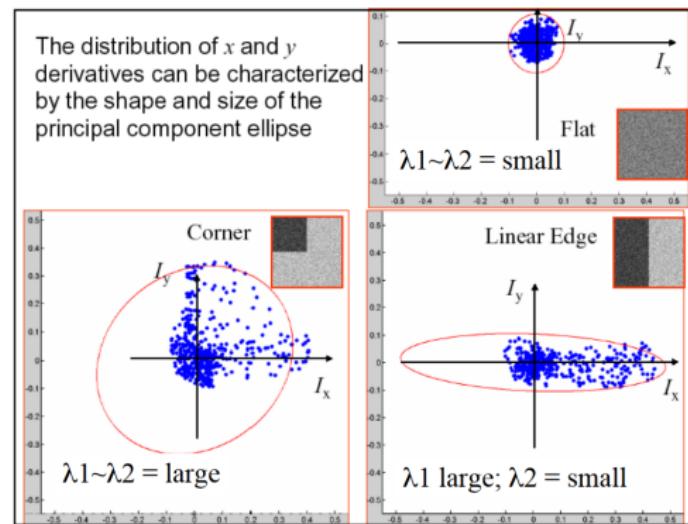
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The distribution of x and y derivatives can be characterized by the shape and size of the principal component ellipse



Classification based on Eigen Values

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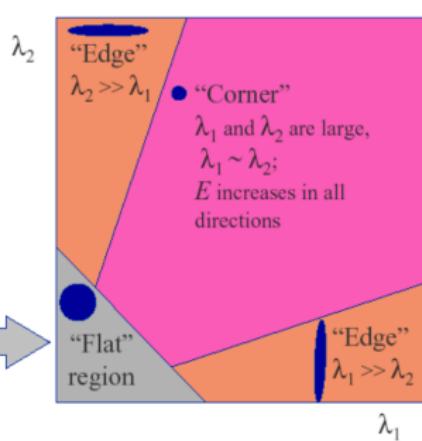
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Classification of image points using eigenvalues of M :

λ_1 and λ_2 are small;
 E is almost constant in all directions



Corner Response Measure

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Measure of corner response:

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

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

(k is an empirically determined constant; $k = 0.04 - 0.06$)

Corner Response Measure

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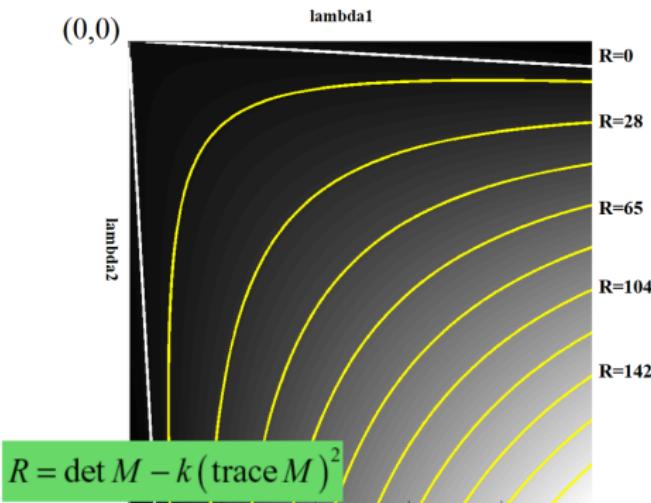
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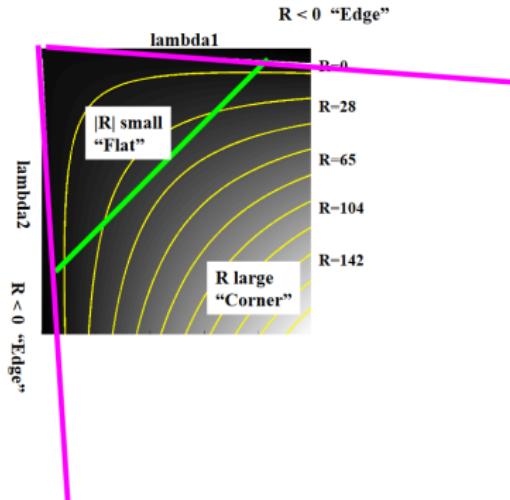
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- R depends only on eigenvalues of M
- R is large for a corner
- R is negative with large magnitude for an edge
- $|R|$ is small for a flat region



Corner Response Measure

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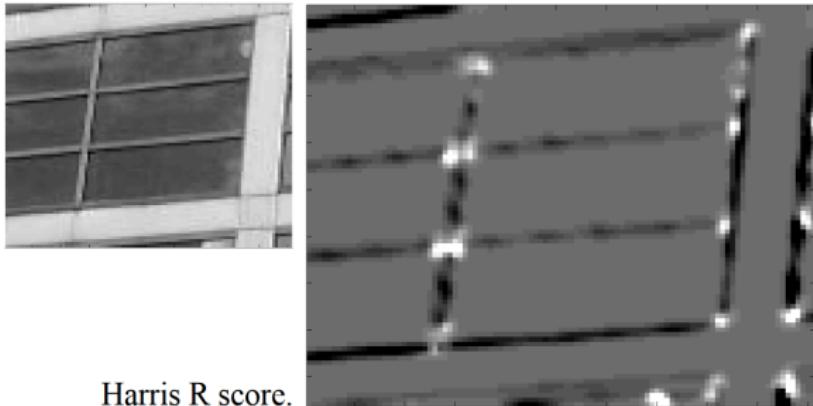
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Harris R score.

I_x, I_y computed using Sobel operator
Windowing function $w = \text{Gaussian}$, $\sigma=1$

Corner Response Measure

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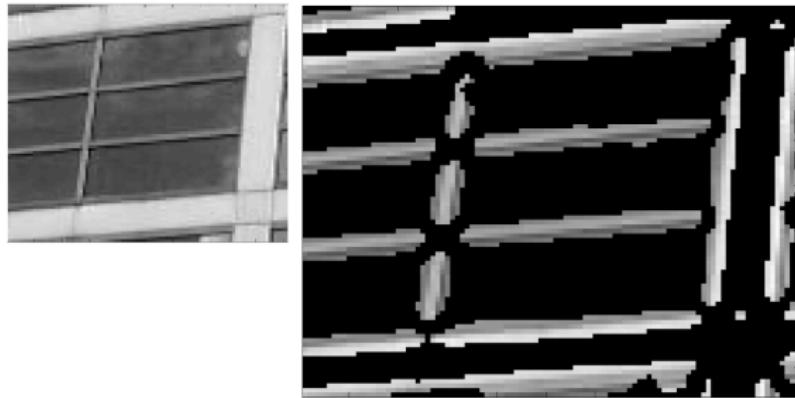
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Threshold: $R < -10000$
(edges)

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Threshold: > 10000
(corners)

Corner Response Measure

Keypoints and
Descriptors

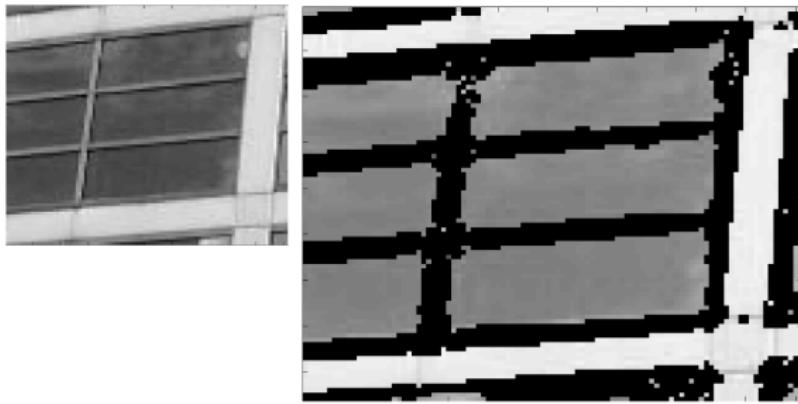
Srikanth
Ramalingam

Problem
Statement

Scale Space
and Image
Kernels

Corner
Detection

SIFT



Threshold: $-10000 < R < 10000$
(neither edges nor corners)

Presentation Outline

Keypoints and
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Srikumar
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1 Problem Statement

2 Scale Space and Image Kernels

3 Corner Detection

4 SIFT

Orientation assignment

Keypoints and
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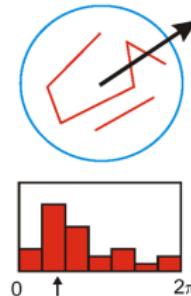
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- Create histogram of local gradient directions at selected scale.
- Assign canonical orientation at peak of smoothed histogram.
- Each key specifies stable 2D coordinates ($x,y,scale$, orientations)
- If there are two major orientations, then use both.

Keypoint localization with orientation

Keypoints and
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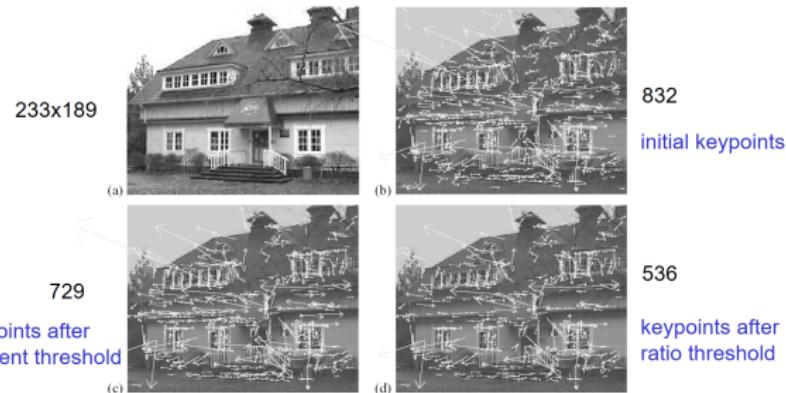
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Keypoint Descriptors

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- At this point, each keypoint has
 - location
 - scale
 - orientation
- Next is to compute a descriptor for the local image region about each keypoint that is
 - highly distinctive
 - invariant as possible to variations such as changes in viewpoint and illumination

Normalization

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- Rotate the window to standard orientation.
- Scale the window size based on the scale at which the point was found.

Lowe's Keypoint Descriptor

Keypoints and
Descriptors

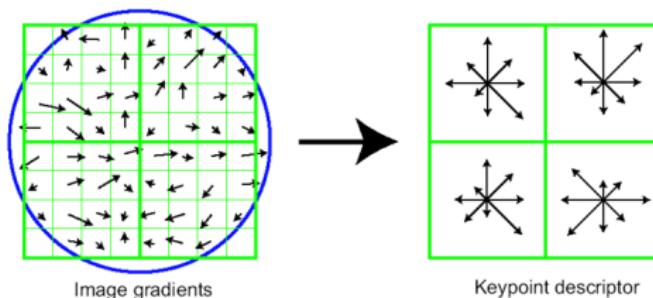
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- Shown with 2x2 descriptors over 8x8.
- In experiments, 4x4 arrays of 8 bin histograms is used, a total of 128 features for one keypoint.

Lowe's Keypoint Descriptor

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- Use the normalized region about the keypoint.
- Compute gradient magnitude and orientation at each point in the region.
- Weight them by a Gaussian window overlaid on the circle.
- Create an orientation histogram over the 4x4 subregions of the window.
- 4x4 descriptors over 16x16 sample arrays were used in practice. 4x4 times 8 directions gives a vector of 128 values.

SIFT for matching objects

Keypoints and
Descriptors

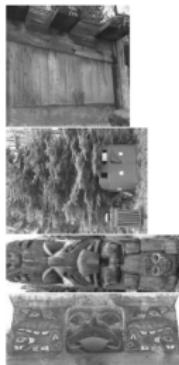
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SIFT for matching objects

Keypoints and
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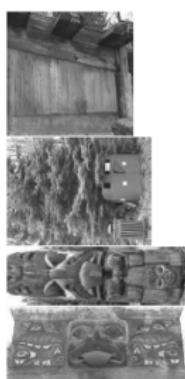
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Some presentation slides are adapted from David Lowe's landmark paper, Kristen Grauman, Andrew Zisserman, Joseph Sivic, wikipedia.org, Robert Collins, and Utkarsh Sinha (aishack.in)