

Principles of Robot Autonomy I

Information extraction

Agenda

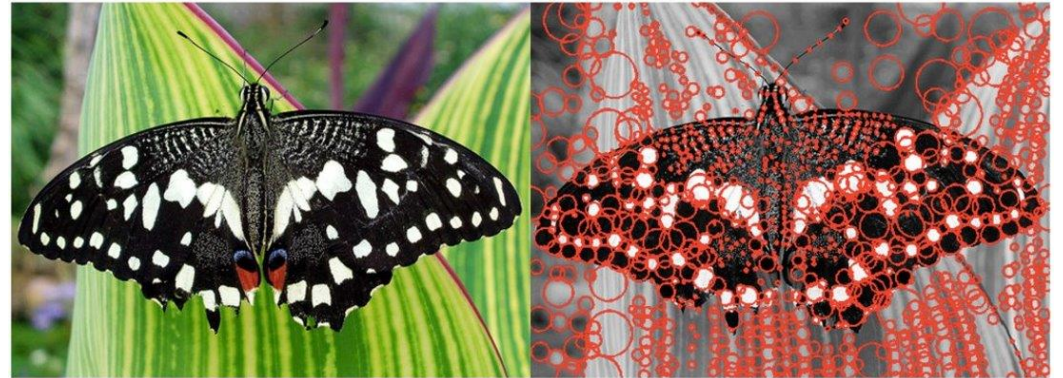
- Agenda
 - Introducing SiFT
 - Extracting information from sensor measurements
- Readings:
 - Chapters 11 in PoRA lecture notes

Last lecture: Recap

- Image processing, feature detection and description, such as:
 - Correlation / convolution filtering operations (left figure)
 - Feature descriptors for detecting salient keypoints (right figure)



Canny edge detector
(filter + convolution)

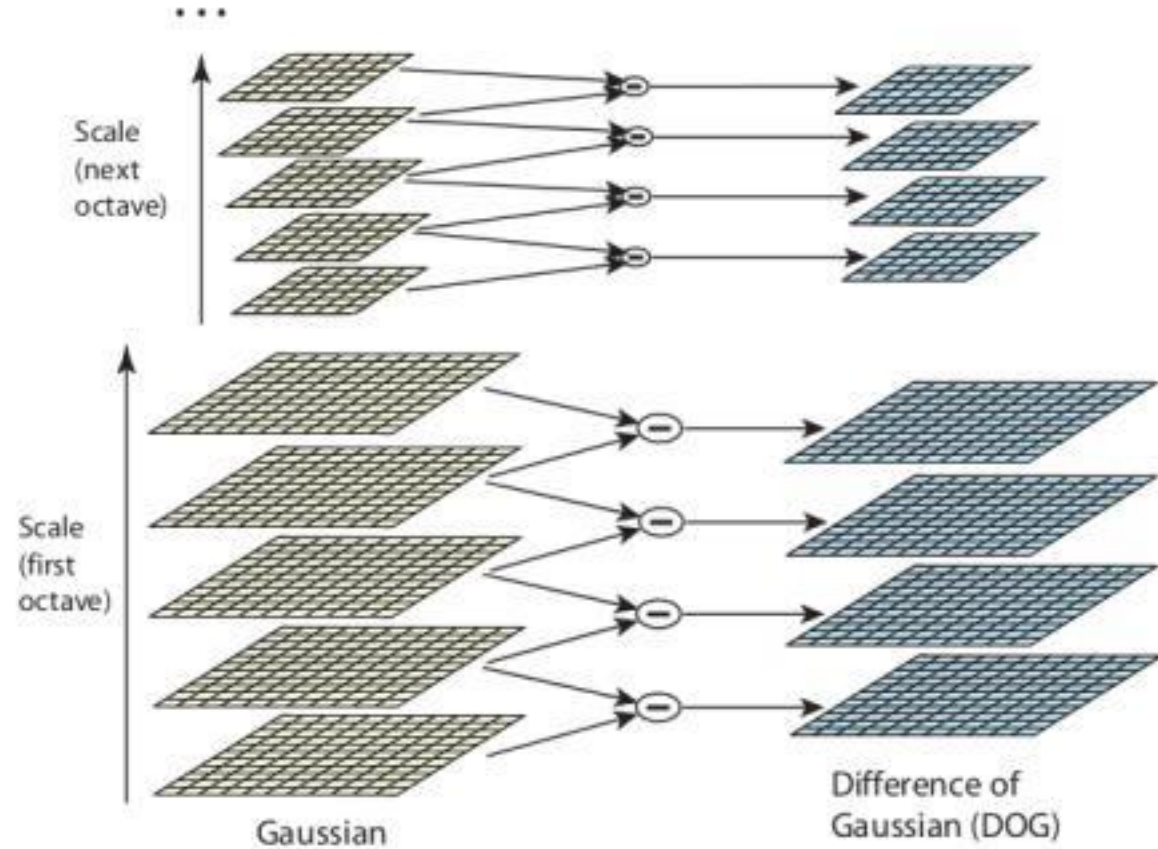
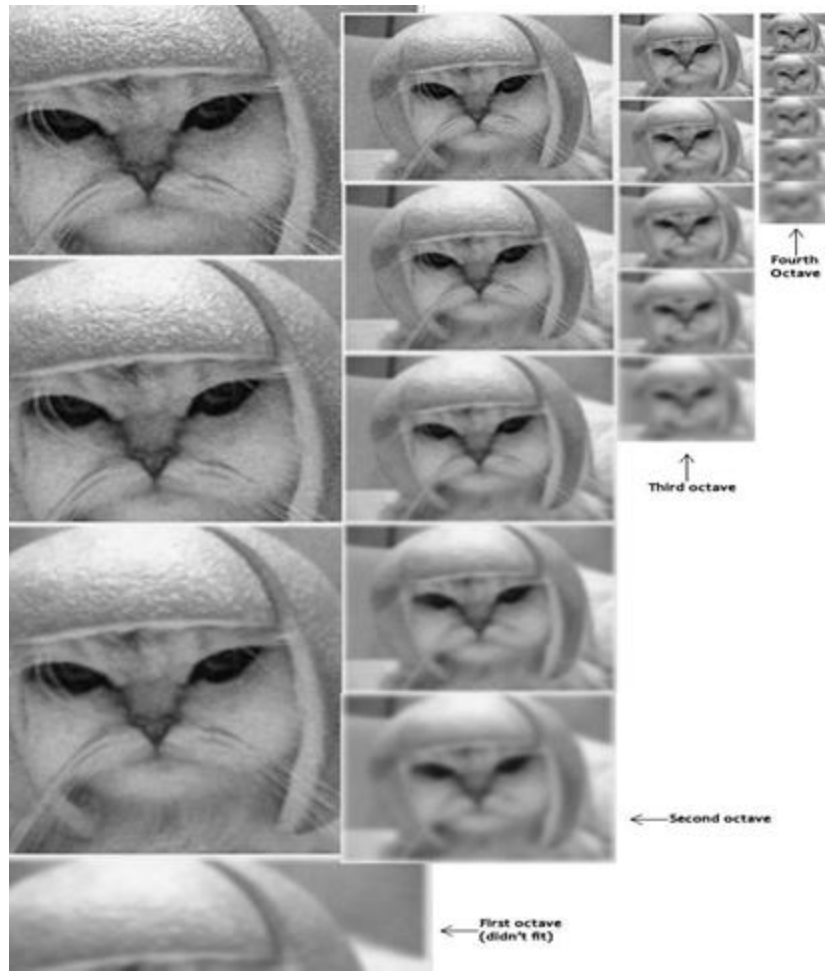


Keypoints from e.g., SIFT

Recap Feature Detection

1. **Repeatability**: same feature can be found in multiple images despite geometric and photometric transformations
2. **Distinctiveness**: information carried by the patch surrounding the feature should be as distinctive as possible

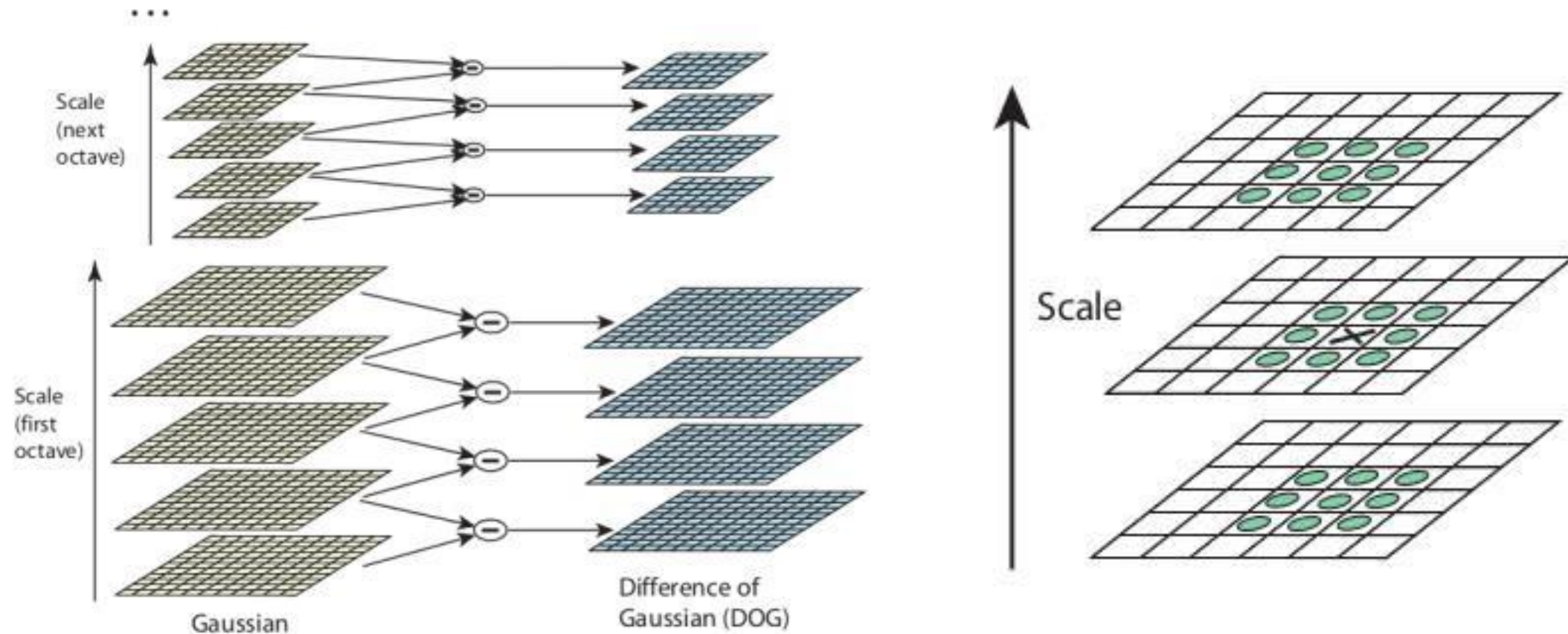
Introducing SiFT Detector



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4AvTMVD9ig0>

https://docs.opencv.org/4.x/da/df5/tutorial_py_sift_intro.html

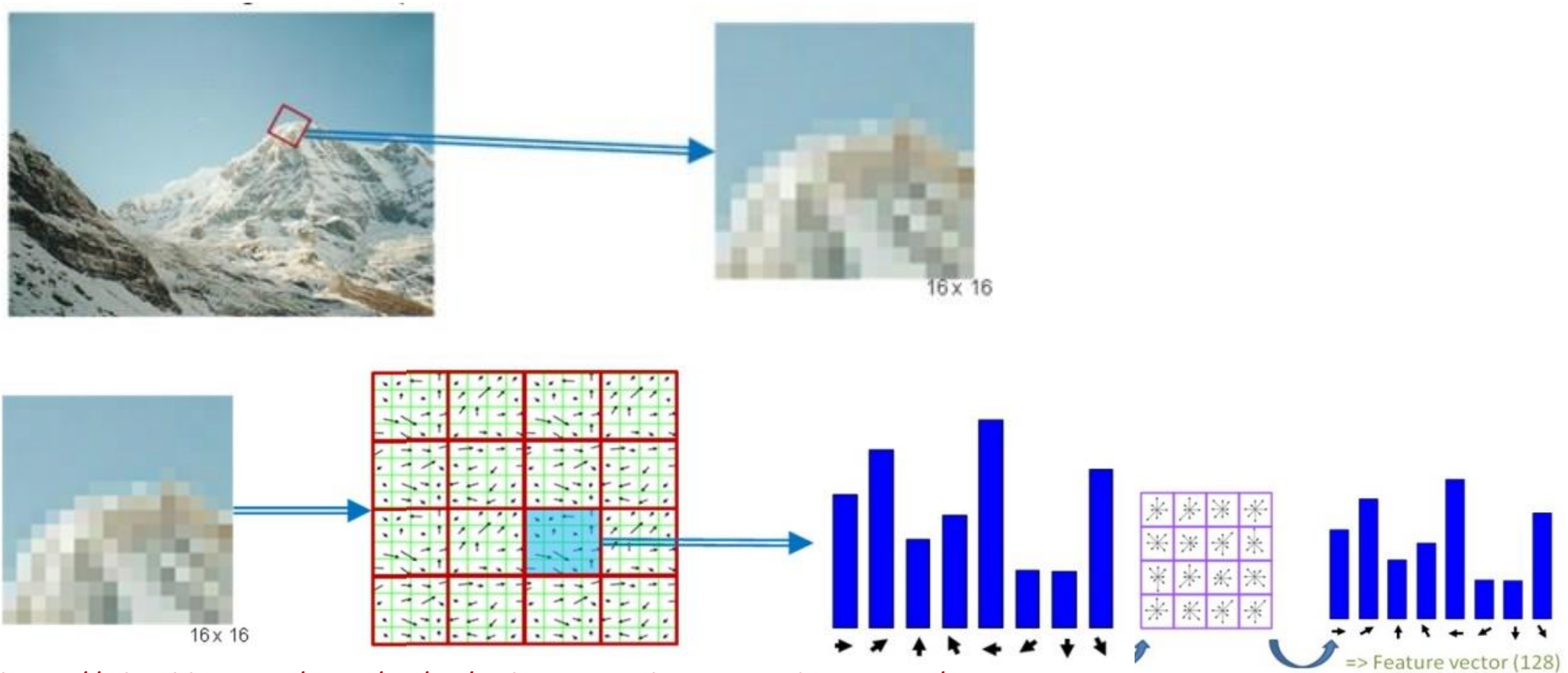
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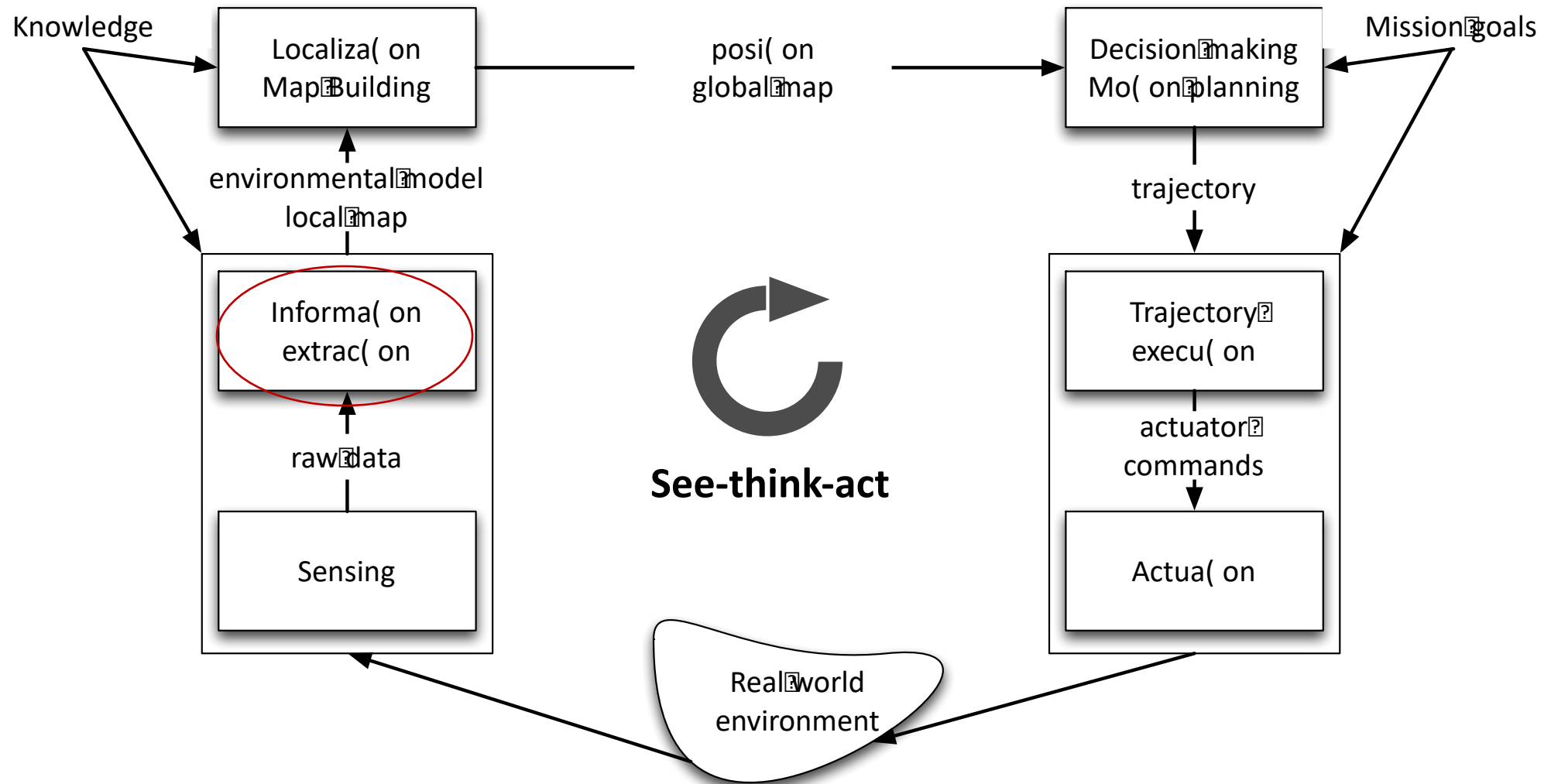
https://docs.opencv.org/4.x/da/df5/tutorial_py_sift_intro.html

Introducing SiFT Descriptor



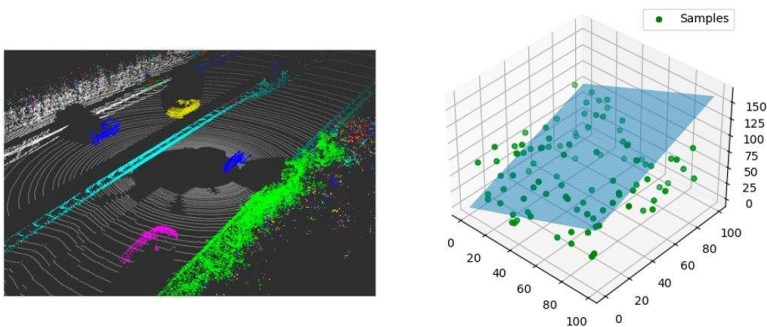
<https://gilscvblog.com/2013/08/18/a-short-introduction-to-descriptors/>

The see-think-act cycle



Information extraction

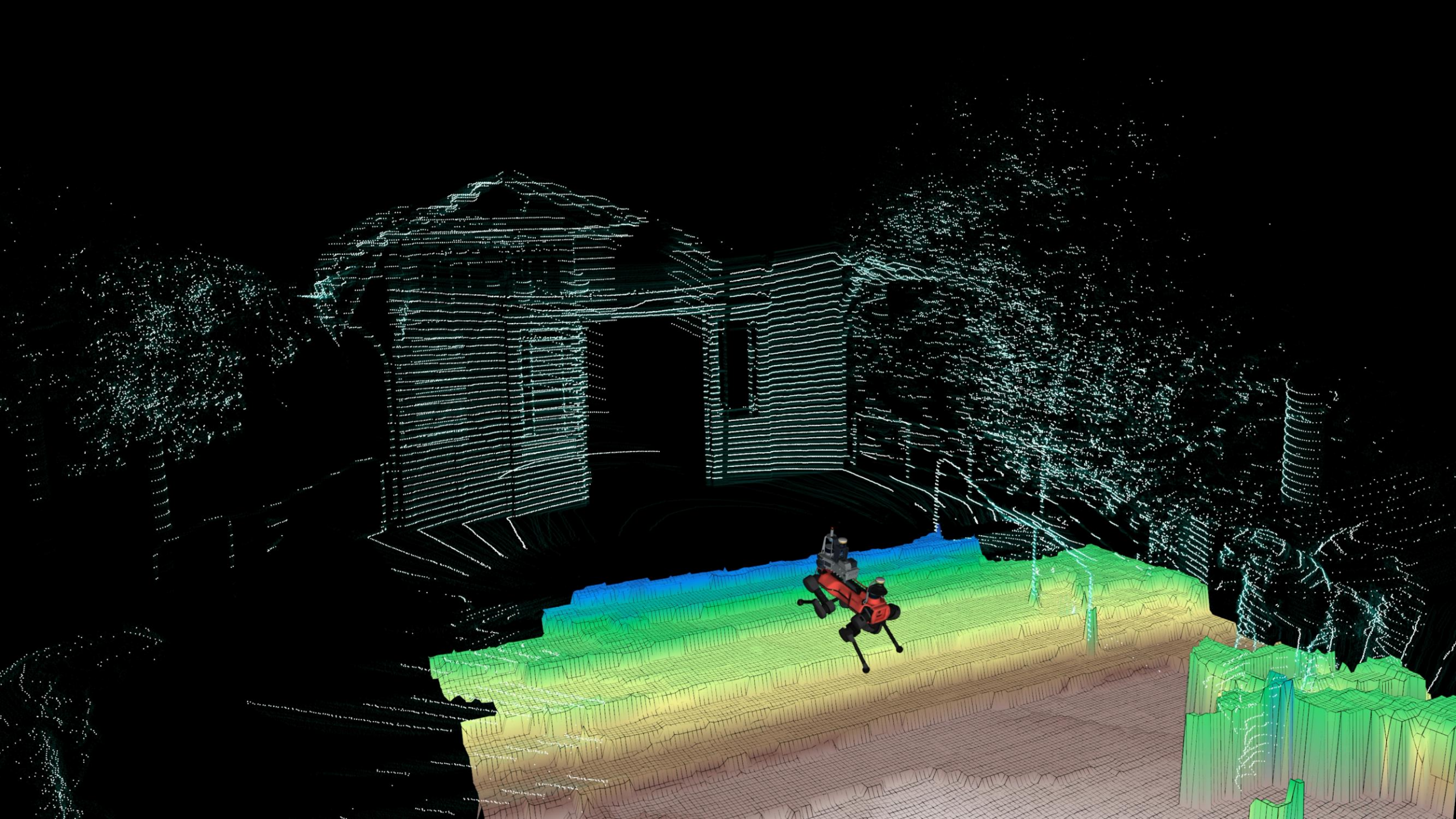
- Today's focus: extracting *actionable information* from images
 1. Geometric primitives (e.g., lines and circles): useful, for example, for robot localization and mapping
 2. Scene understanding and object recognition: useful, for example, for localization within a topological map and for high-level reasoning



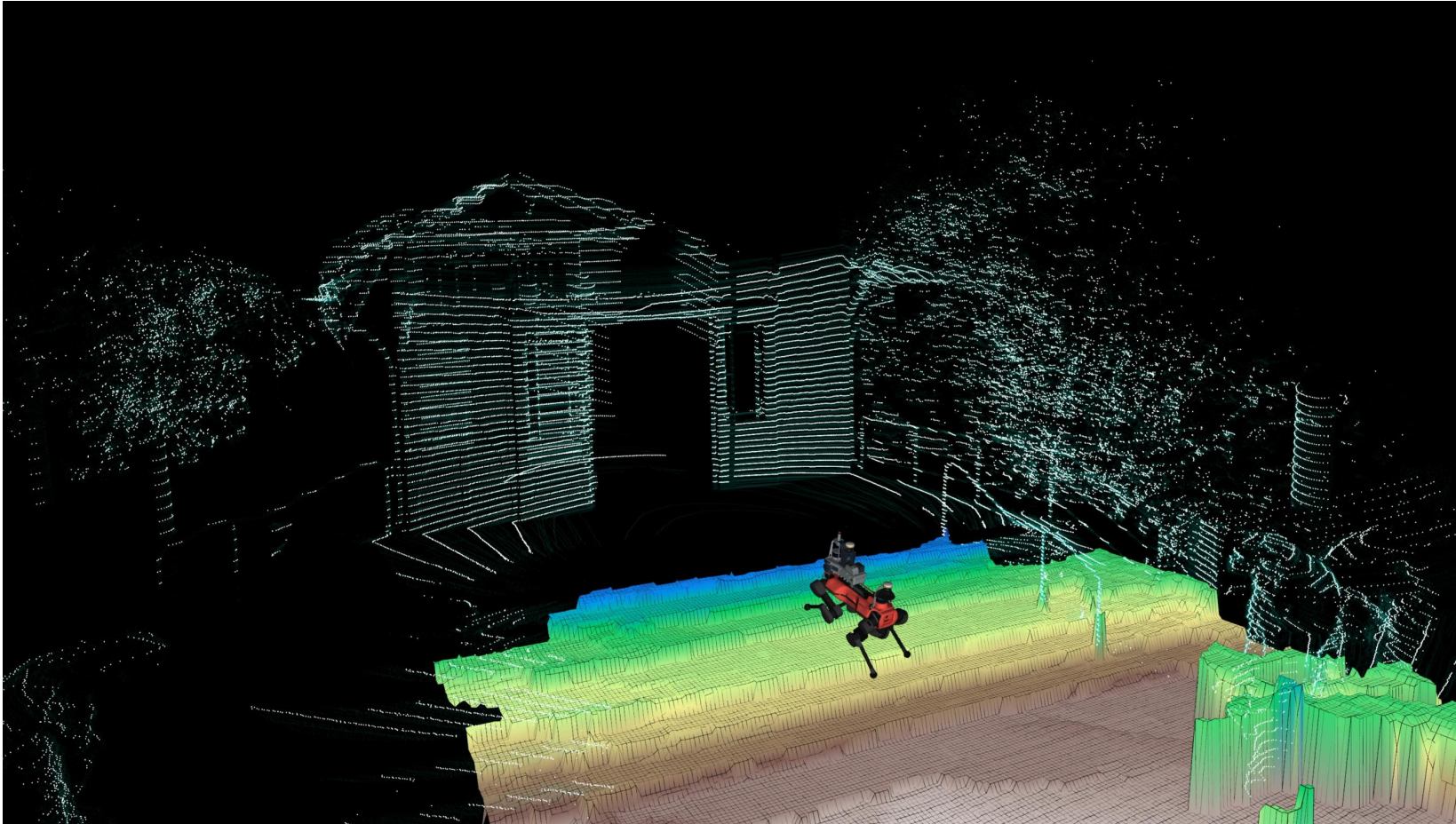
Example (Geometric primitive):
Plane Fitting



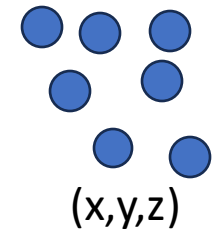
Example (Scene understanding):
Object detection



See – Think – Act



1. Our robot sees points



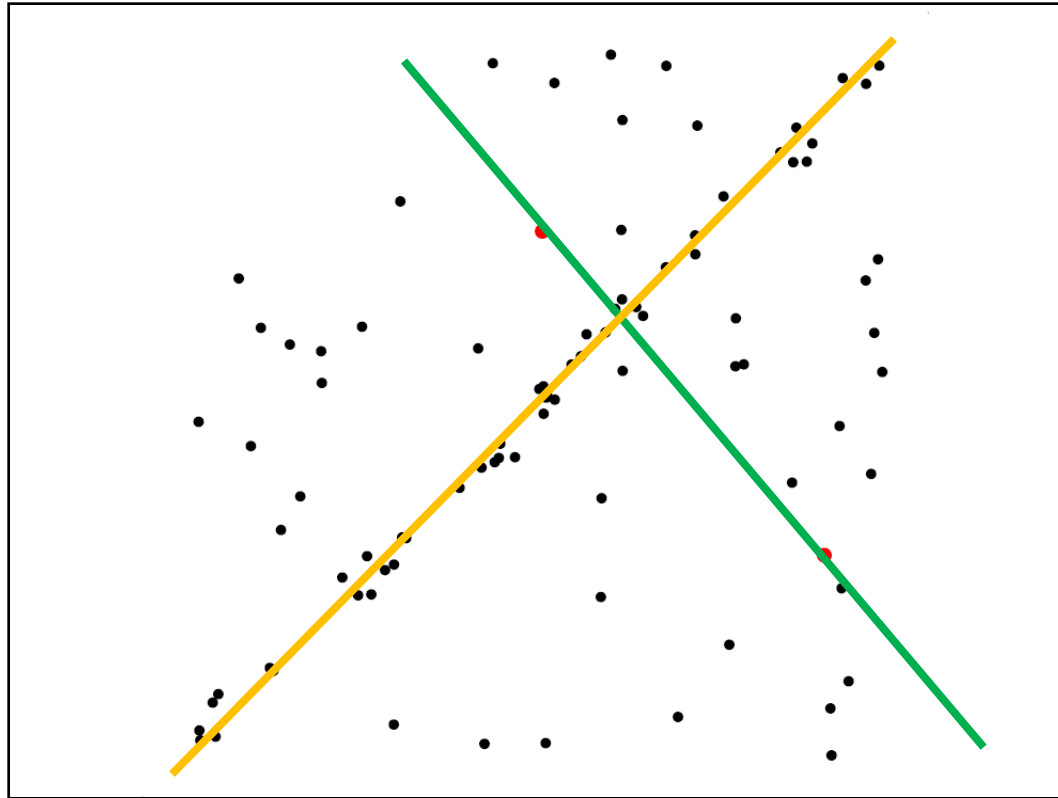
2. We fit an elevation map to the data

3. We act based on the map representation

Geometric information extraction

- **Geometric feature extraction**: extract geometric primitives from sensor data (e.g., range data)
- Examples: line, circles, corners, planes, etc.
- We focus on *line extraction* from range data (a quite common task); other geometric feature extraction tasks are conceptually analogous
- The two main problems of line extraction from range data
 1. Which points belong to which line? → *segmentation*
 2. Given an association of points to a line, how to estimate line parameters? → *fitting*

Intuition Line Fitting



Step #2: line fitting

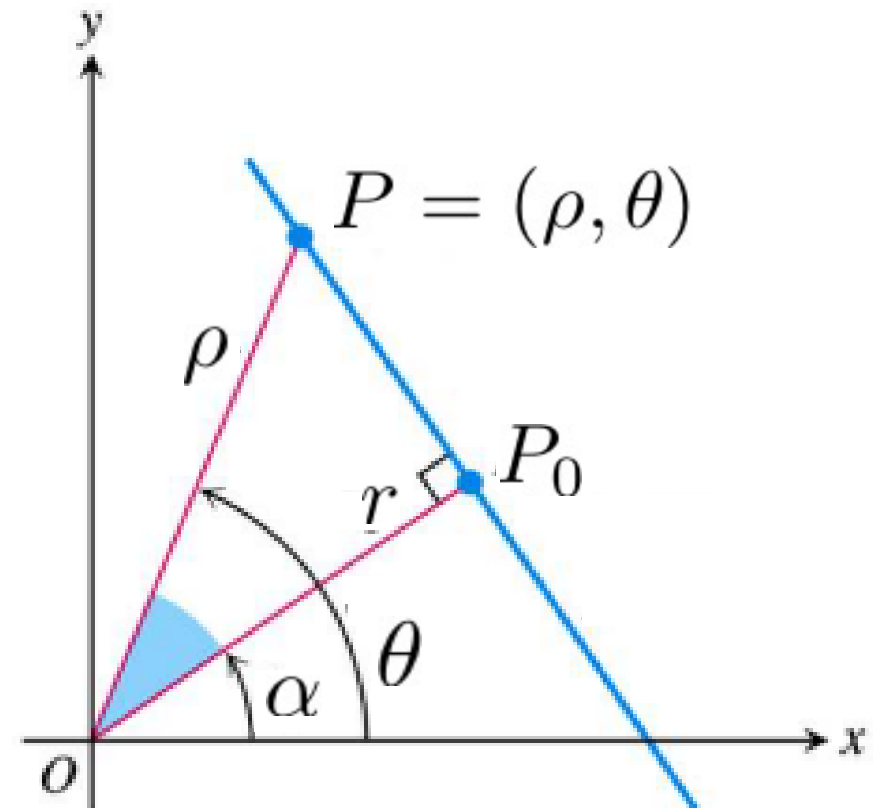
- **Goal:** fit a line to a set of sensor measurements
- It is useful to work in polar coordinates:

$$x = \rho \cos \theta, \quad y = \rho \sin \theta$$

- Equation of a line in polar coordinates
 - Let $P = (\rho, \theta)$ be an arbitrary point on the line
 - Since P, P_0, O determine a right triangle

$$\rho \cos(\theta - \alpha) = r$$

- (r, α) are the parameters of the line



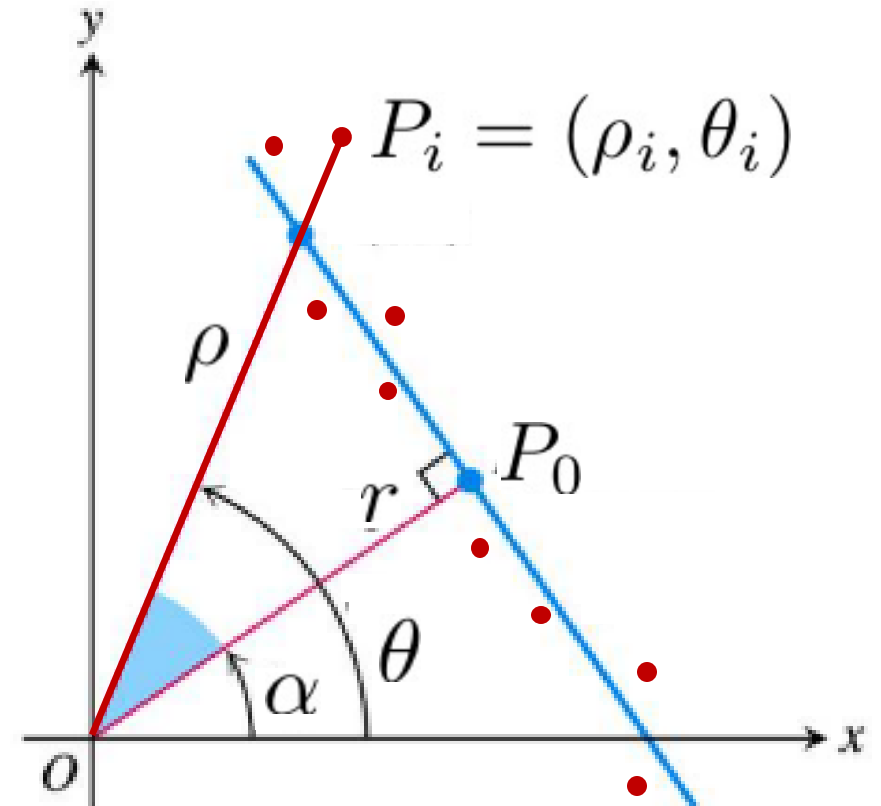
Step #2: line fitting

- Since there is measurement error, the equation of the line is only *approximately* satisfied

$$\rho_i \cos(\theta_i - \alpha) = r + d_i$$

Error

- Assume n ranging measurement points represented in polar coordinates as (ρ_i, θ_i)
- We want to find a line that best “fits” all the measurement points



Step #2: line fitting

- Consider, first, that all measurements are equally uncertain
- Find line parameters (r, α) that minimize squared error

$$S(r, \alpha) := \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (\rho_i \cos(\theta_i - \alpha) - r)^2$$

- Unweighted least squares

Step #2: line fitting

- Consider, now, the case where each measurement has its own, unique uncertainty
- For example, assume that the variance for each range measurement ρ_i is σ_i
- Associate with each measurement a weight, e.g., $w_i = 1/\sigma_i^2$
- Then, one minimizes

$$S(r, \alpha) := \sum_{i=1}^n w_i d_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\rho_i \cos(\theta_i - \alpha) - r)^2$$

- Weighted least squares

Step #2: line fitting solution

- Assume that the n ranging measurements are **independent**
- Solution:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \text{atan2} \left(\frac{\sum_i w_i \rho_i^2 \sin 2\theta_i - \frac{2}{\sum_i w_i} \sum_i \sum_j w_i w_j \rho_i \rho_j \cos \theta_i \sin \theta_j}{\sum_i w_i \rho_i^2 \cos 2\theta_i - \frac{1}{\sum_i w_i} \sum_i \sum_j w_i w_j \rho_i \rho_j \cos(\theta_i + \theta_j)} \right) + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$r = \frac{\sum_i w_i \rho_i \cos(\theta_i - \alpha)}{\sum_i w_i}$$

Step #1: line segmentation

- Several algorithms are available
 1. Split-and-merge
 2. RANSAC
 3. Hough-Transform
- We will focus on **RANSAC**

RANSAC

- RANSAC: **R**andom **S**ample **C**onsensus
- General method to estimate parameters of a model from a set of observed data in the presence of outliers, where outliers should have no influence on the estimates of the values
- Typical applications in robotics: line extraction from 2D range data, plane extraction from 3D point clouds, feature matching for structure from motion, etc.
- RANSAC is *iterative* and *non-deterministic*: the probability of finding a set free of outliers increases as more iterations are used

RANSAC

Data: Set S consisting of all N points

Result: Set with maximum number of inliers
(and corresponding fitting line)

while $i \leq k$ **do**

 randomly select 2 points from S ;

 fit line l_i through the 2 points;

 compute distance of all other points to line l_i ;

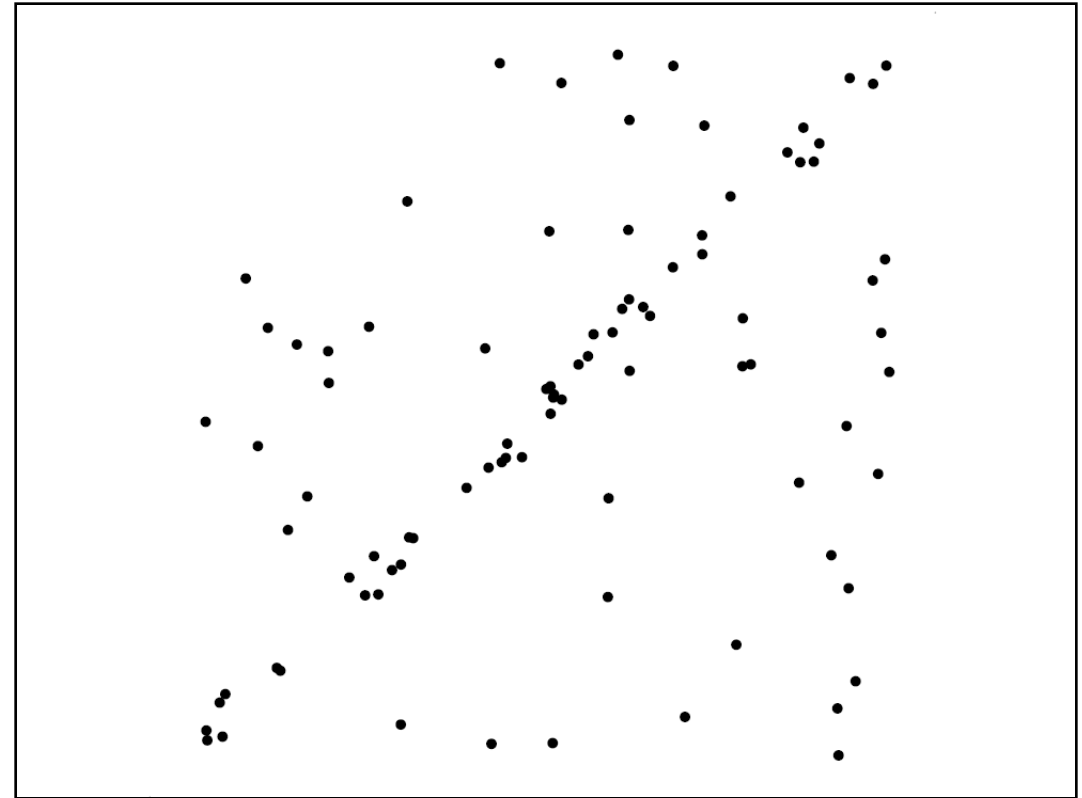
 construct *inlier* set, i.e., count number of
 points with distance to the line less than γ ;

 store line l_i and associated set of inliers;

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

end

Choose set with maximum number of inliers



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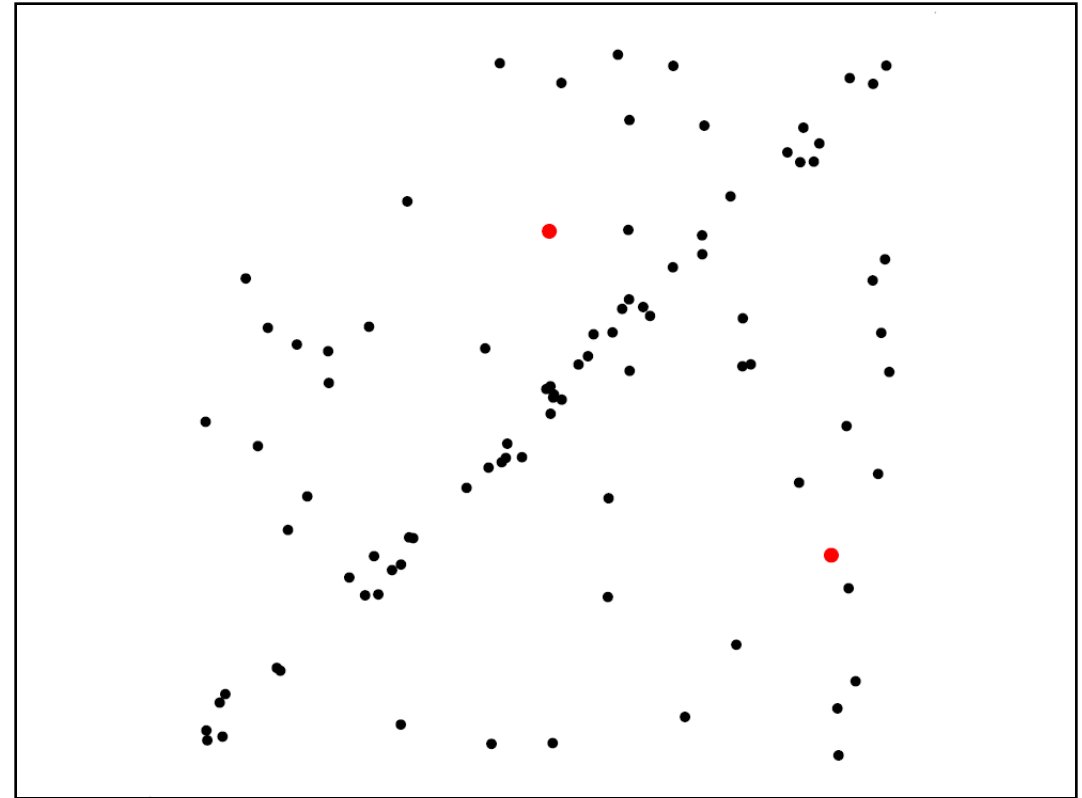
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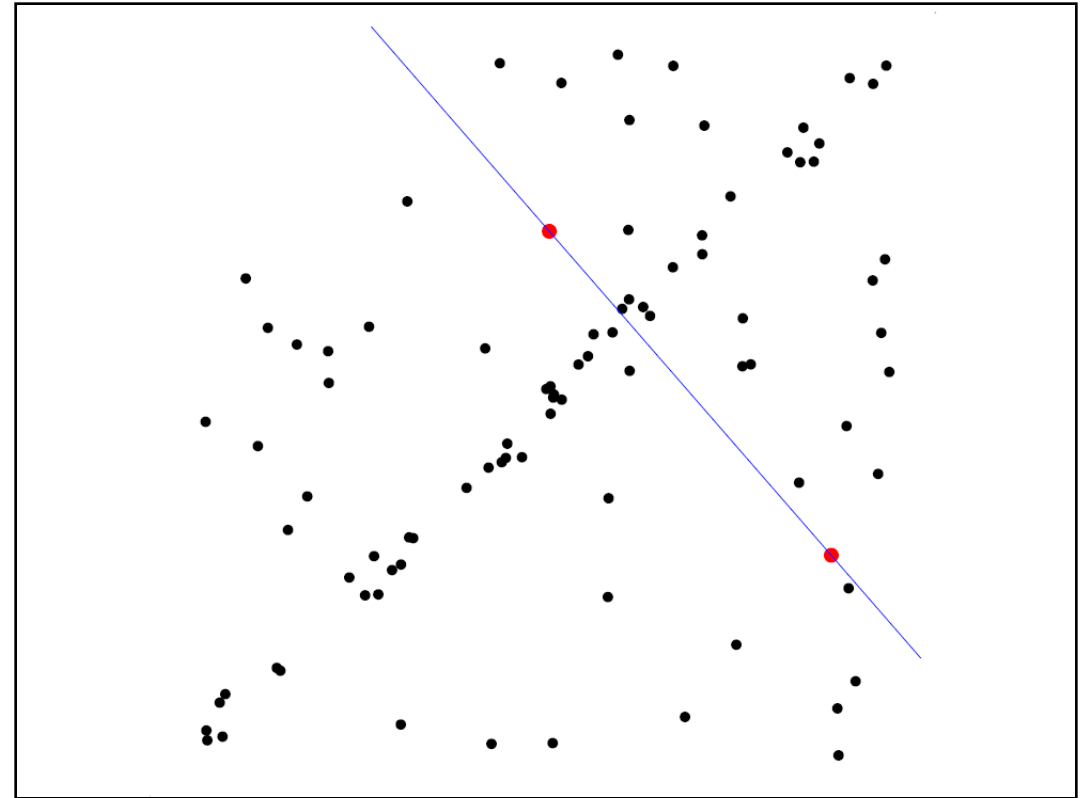
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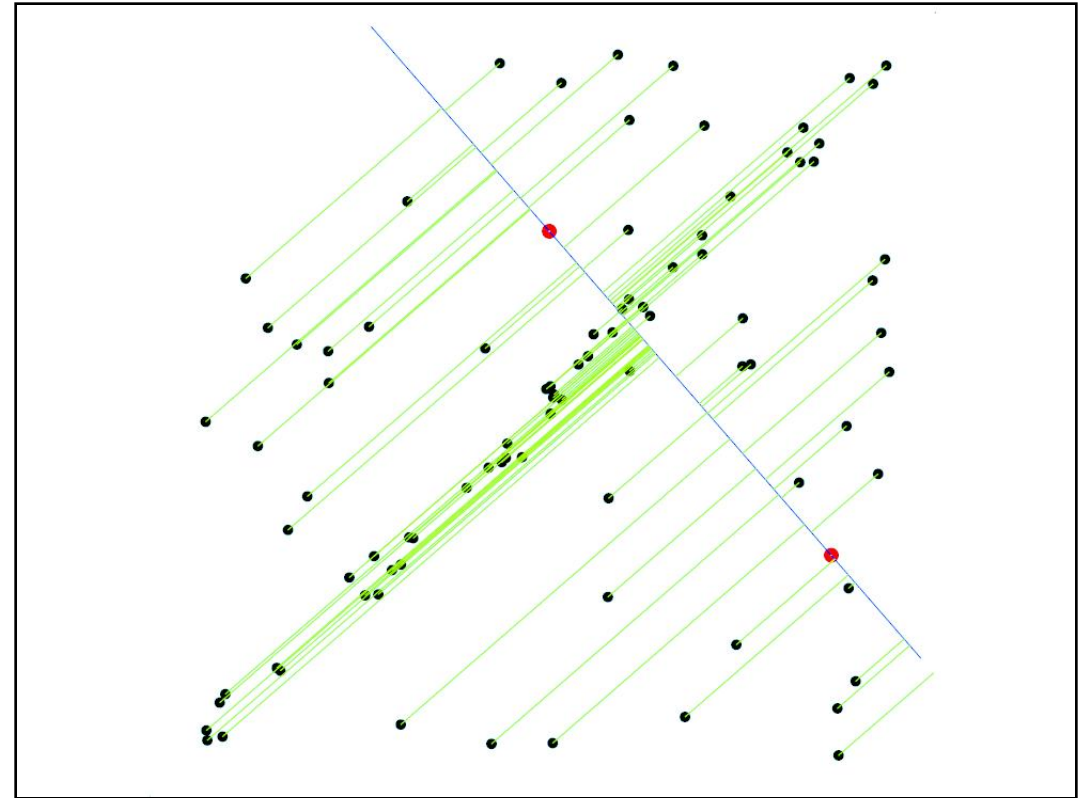
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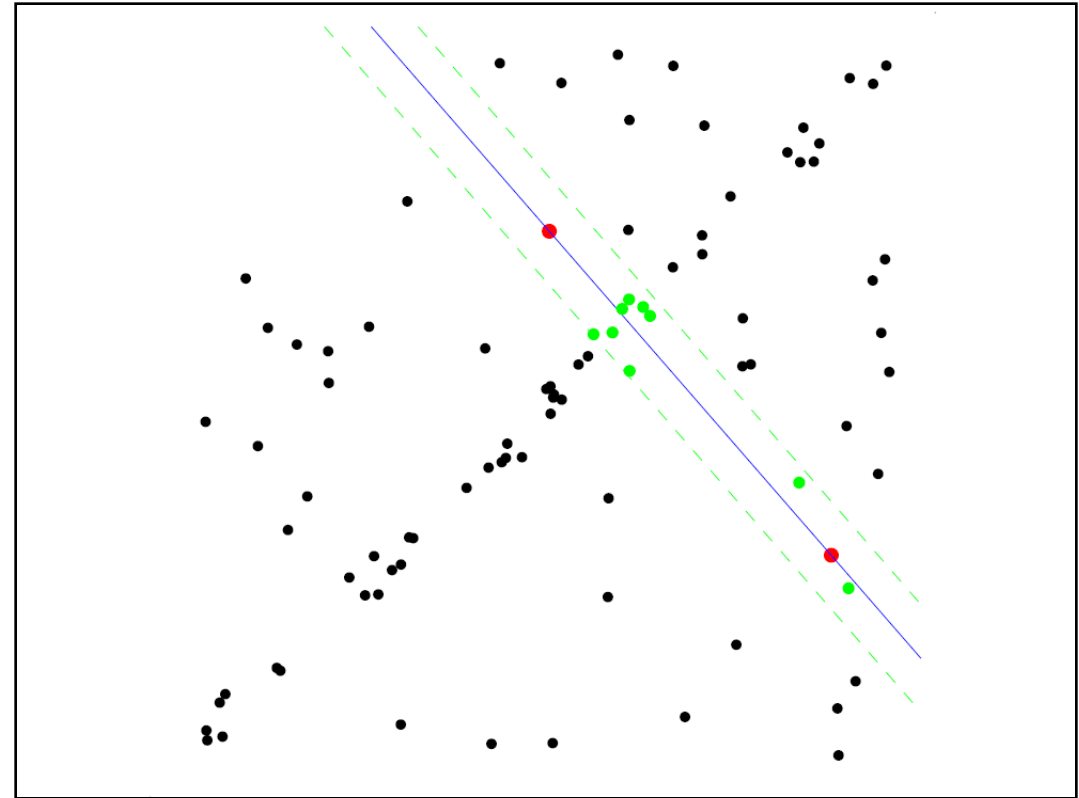
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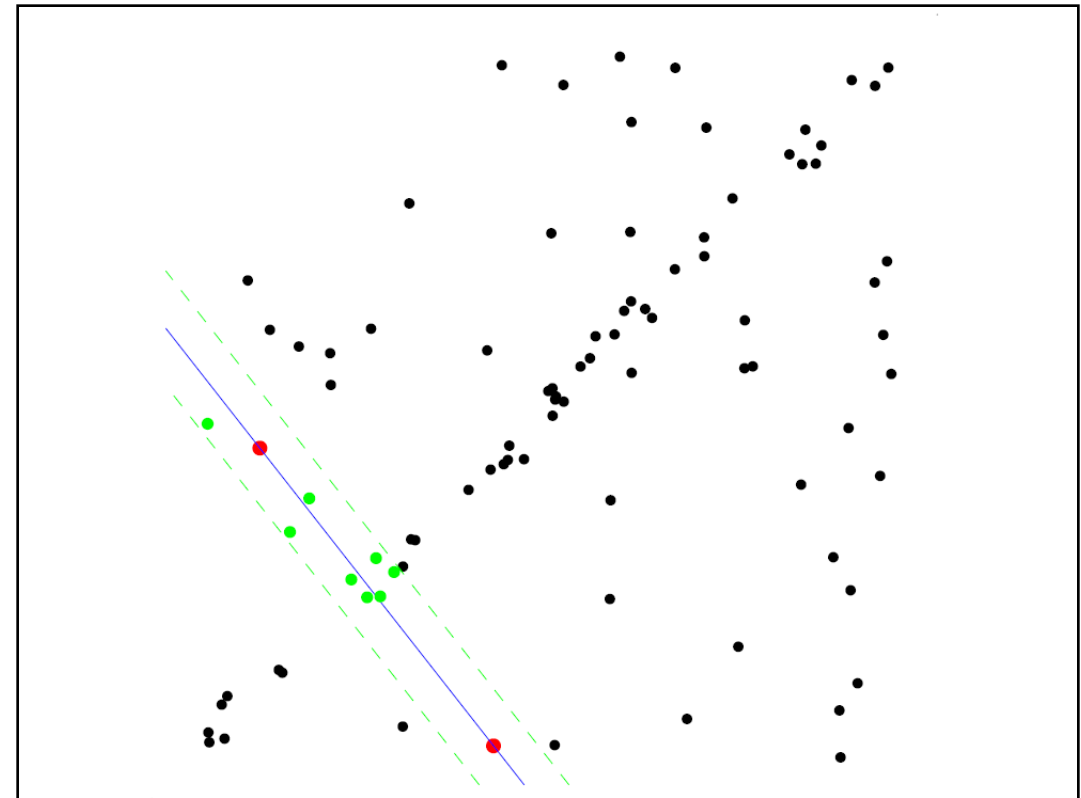
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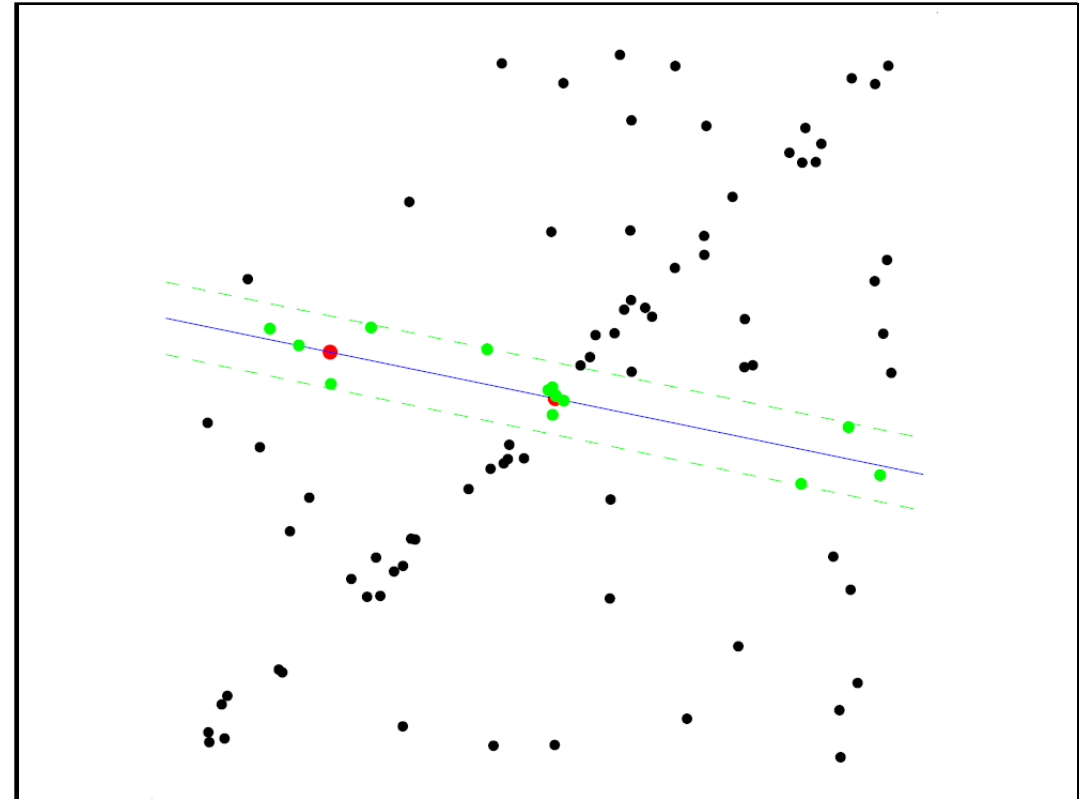
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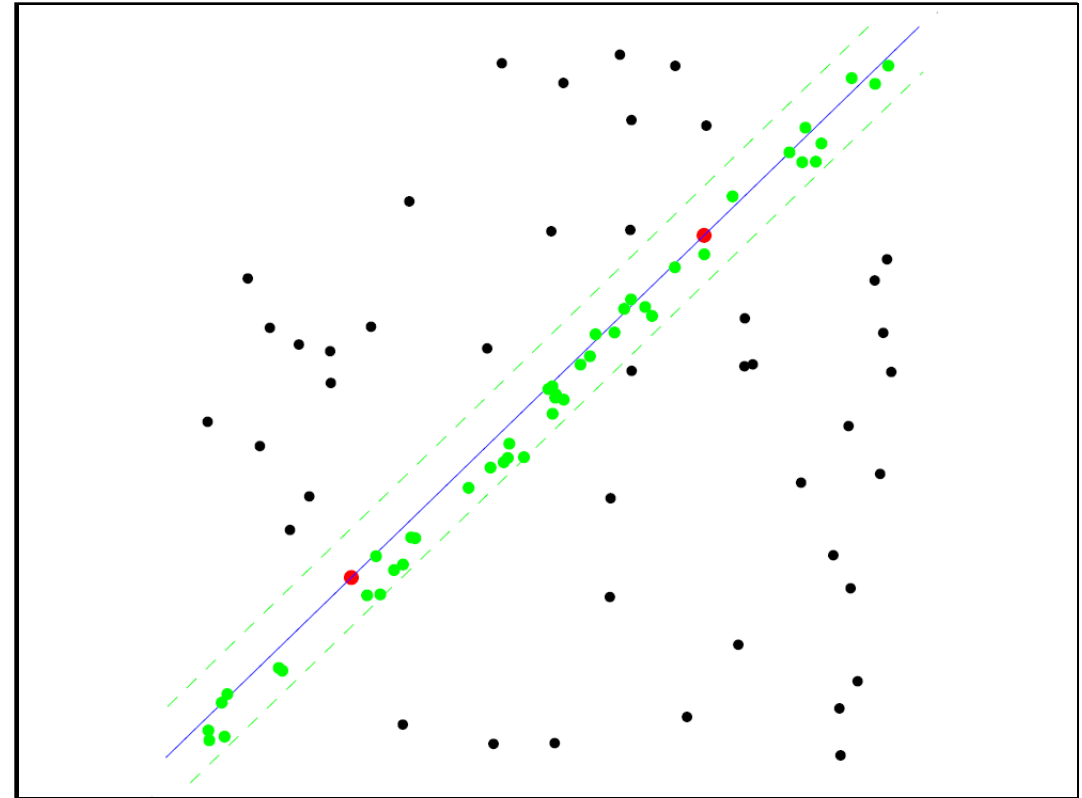
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Choose set with maximum number of inliers



RANSAC iterations

- In principle, one would need to check all possible combinations of 2 points in dataset
- If $|S| = N$, number of combinations is $\frac{N(N-1)}{2} \rightarrow$ too many
- However, if we have a rough estimate of the percentage of inliers, we do not need to check all combinations...

RANSAC iterations: statistical characterization

- Let w be the percentage of inliers in the dataset, i.e.,

$$w = \frac{\text{number of inliers}}{N}$$

- Let p be the desired probability of finding a set of points free of outliers (typically, $p = 0.99$)
- Assumption: 2 points chosen for line estimation are selected independently
 - $P(\text{both points selected are inliers}) = w^2$
 - $P(\text{at least one of the selected points is an outlier}) = 1 - w^2$
 - $P(\text{RANSAC never selects two points that are both inliers}) = (1 - w^2)^k$

RANSAC iterations: statistical characterization

- Then minimum number of iterations \bar{k} to find an outlier-free set with probability at least p is:

$$1 - p = (1 - w^2)^{\bar{k}} \Rightarrow \bar{k} = \frac{\log(1 - p)}{\log(1 - w^2)}$$

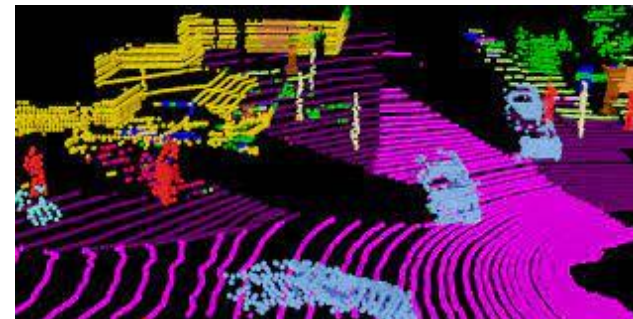
- Thus if we know w (at least approximately), after \bar{k} iterations RANSAC will find a set free of outliers with probability p
- Note:
 - \bar{k} depends only on w , not on N !
 - More advanced versions of RANSAC estimate w adaptively

Semantic information extraction

- **Semantic information:** *higher-level* scene information in sensor data (e.g., images) like objects, their locations, and relationships
- Encompasses a broad class of perception algorithms:
 - Object detection, semantic segmentation, object recognition, tracking
 - Conceptually: seeks to ground raw sensor data into structured information useful for downstream robot reasoning and action



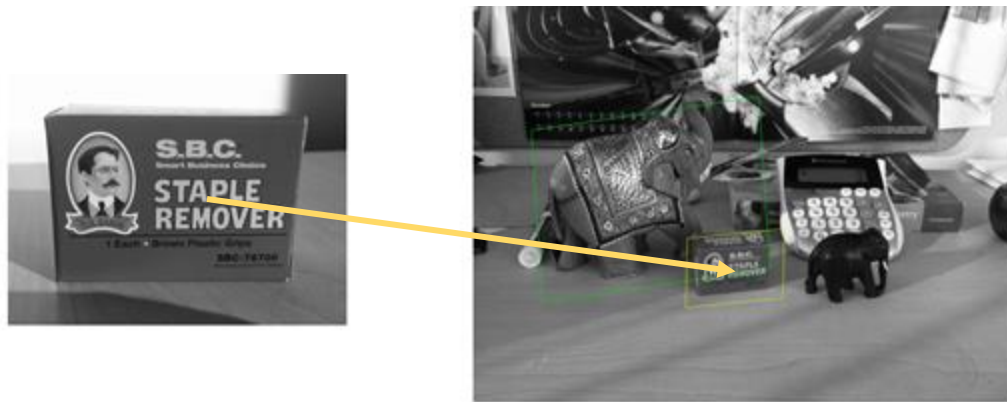
Image-based semantic segmentation



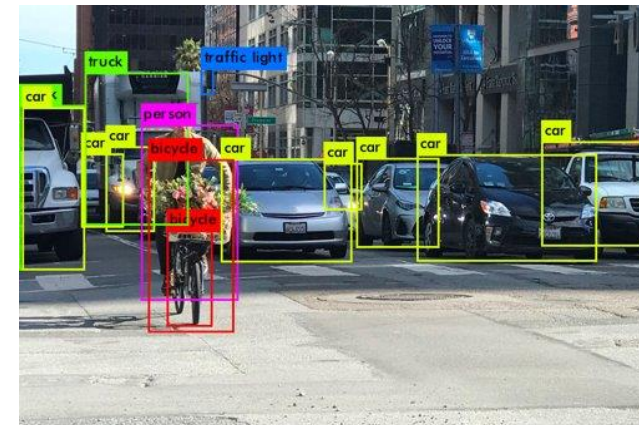
LiDAR-based semantic segmentation

Object detection

- Example of semantic extraction: object detection
 - Given a source image of an object, **localize the object** in the target image
 - What if the object is rotated, translated, scaled, partially occluded?
 - Solution: rely on stable feature detectors / descriptors for object detection



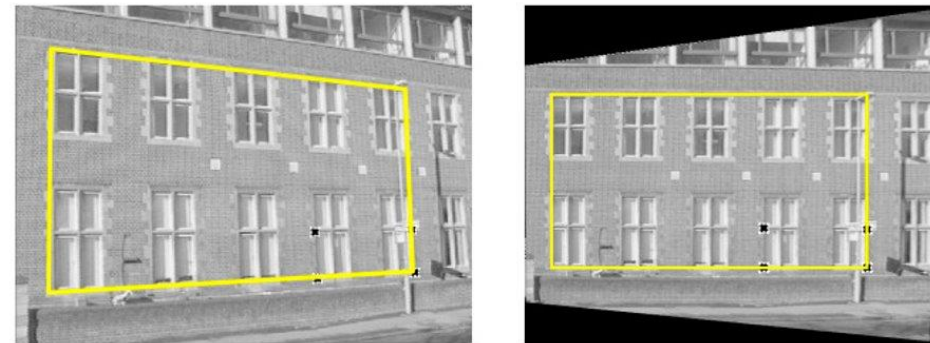
Today's detector
(feature-based, still relevant!)



Modern detectors
(learned-based, DNNs)

Object detection

- The main problems in feature-based object detection are:
 - a. Feature matching: detect and match object features across images
 - b. Model fitting: fit *homography* to predict object location in the target image
- Aside on homography
 - Maps plane in one image to plane in another image
 - Relevant for step "b." above

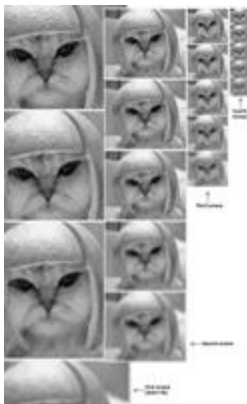


from Hartley & Zisserman

Projecting bounding box using homography

Step #1: Detect keypoints

- **Goal:** Detect *stable* and salient keypoints of the object
- Will make use of feature detectors and descriptors
 - Choices include SIFT, SURF, FAST, BRISK, ORB, amongst others
 - Many will work, some more efficiently or reliably depending on the setting
 - In this example, we use SIFT



Scale invariance of SIFT



Step #1: Detect keypoints

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 - Choices include SIFT, SURF, FAST, BRISK, ORB, amongst many others
 - Many will work, some more efficiently and/or reliably in a desired setting
 - In this example, we use SIFT

Source Image: Keypoints



Target Image: Keypoints



Q: But, how do we associate keypoints in the source image to keypoints in the target image?

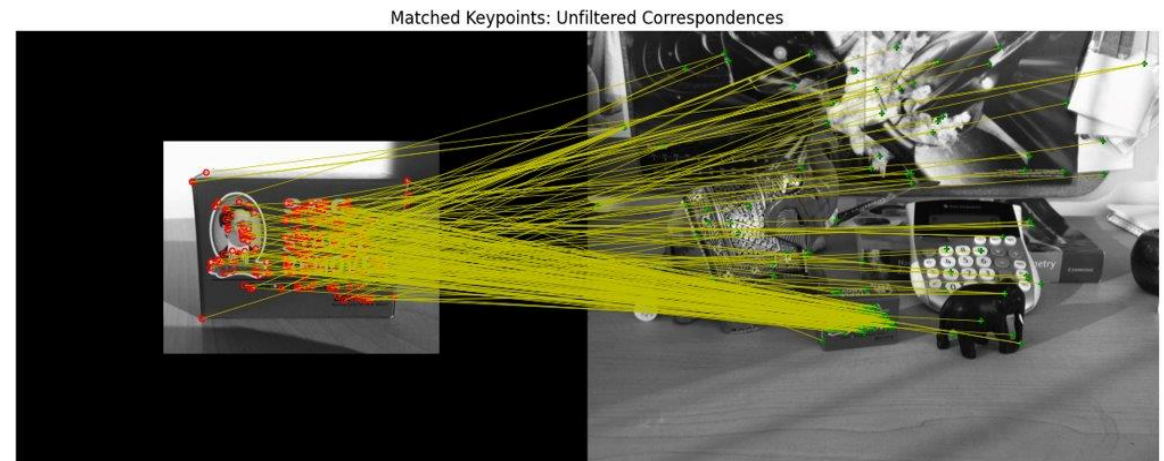
Step #2: Match keypoints

- **Goal:** Attempt to match keypoints across images
- Matching criterion depends on choice of descriptor
 - E.g., SIFT uses L2-norm, while ORB uses Hamming distance
 - Threshold match scores to get an initial set of correspondences

Careful, manually set "good" match thresholds

$$\|f_{\text{SIFT}} - f'_{\text{SIFT}}\| < d_{\text{max}}$$

will often produce outliers!



Step #3: Model fitting and outlier rejection

- **Goal:** Estimate homography between images and filter outliers
- Another application of RANSAC: fit the model (i.e., homography) while simultaneously rejecting outlier matches

Given hypothesis homography (H), a keypoint match

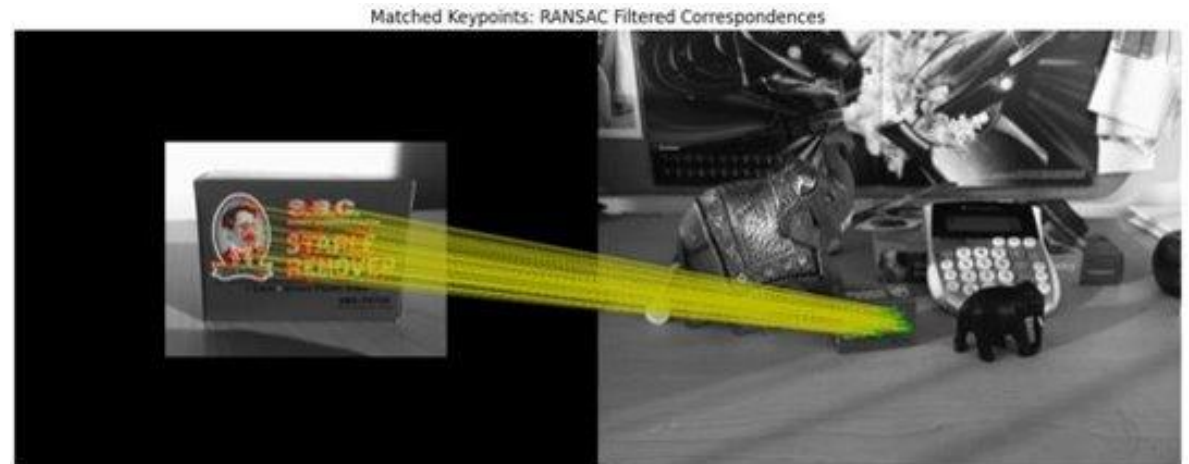
$$[\hat{u}', \hat{v}', 1]^T \propto p'_h = H p_h = H[u, v, 1]^T$$

is considered an "inlier" if

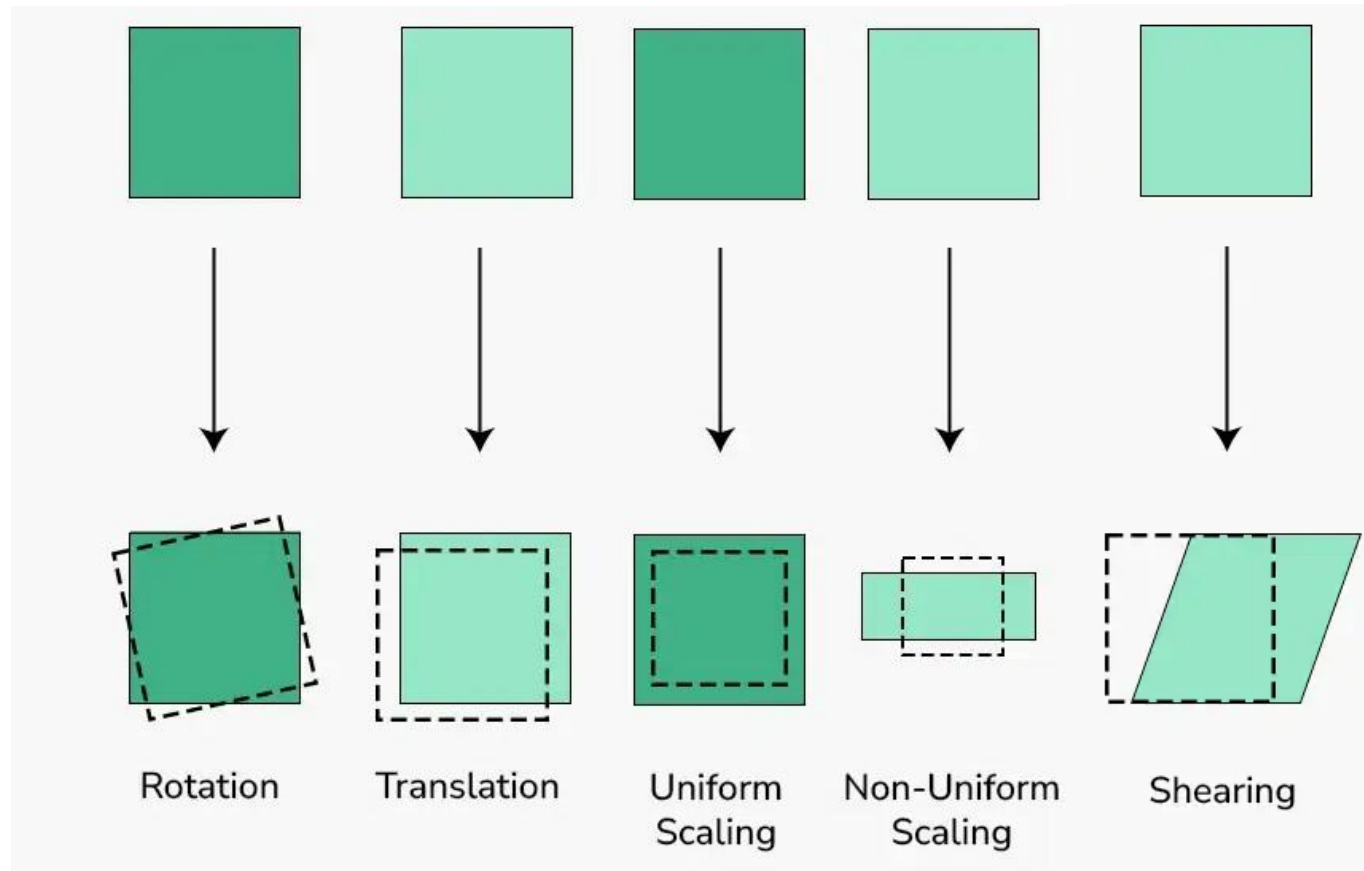
$$\sqrt{(u' - \hat{u}')^2 + (v' - \hat{v}')^2} < d_{\text{RANSAC}}$$

RANSAC in a nutshell:

1. Find best homography H with the most inliers
2. Reject outliers under best homography H



Recap Transform



$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + \Delta x \\ y + \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$

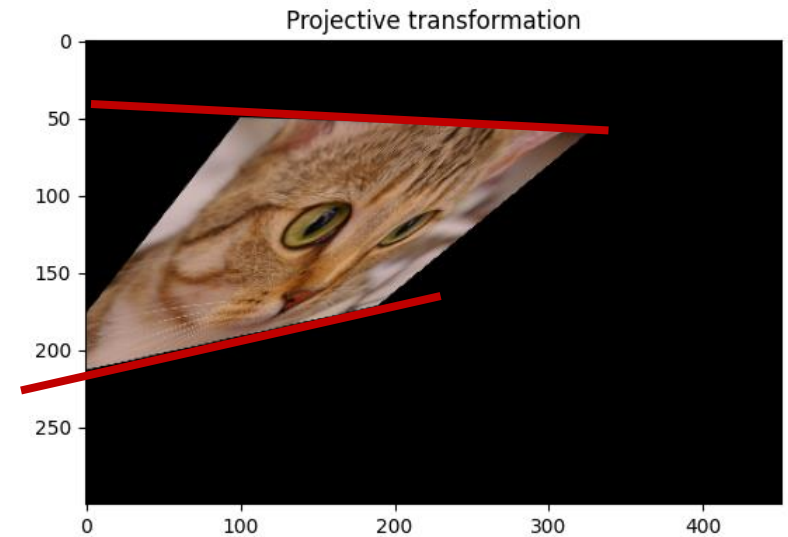
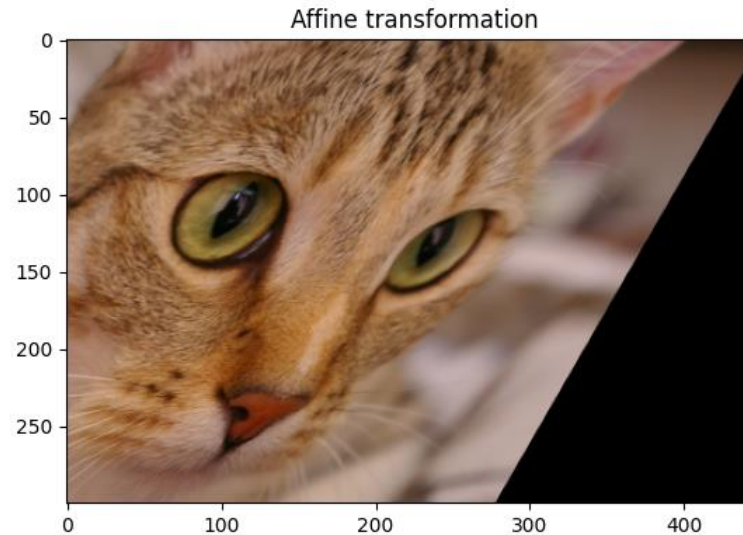
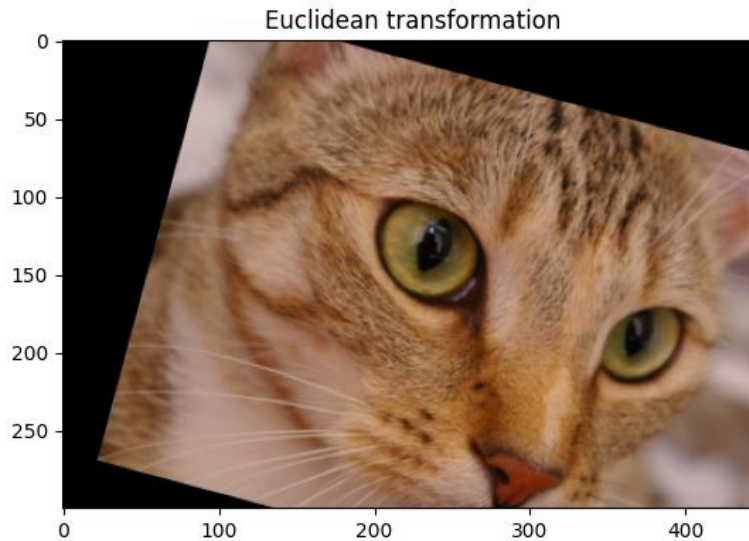
$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 \\ 0 & s_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & k_y \\ k_x & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

Recap Transform

Lines & Parallelism



$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

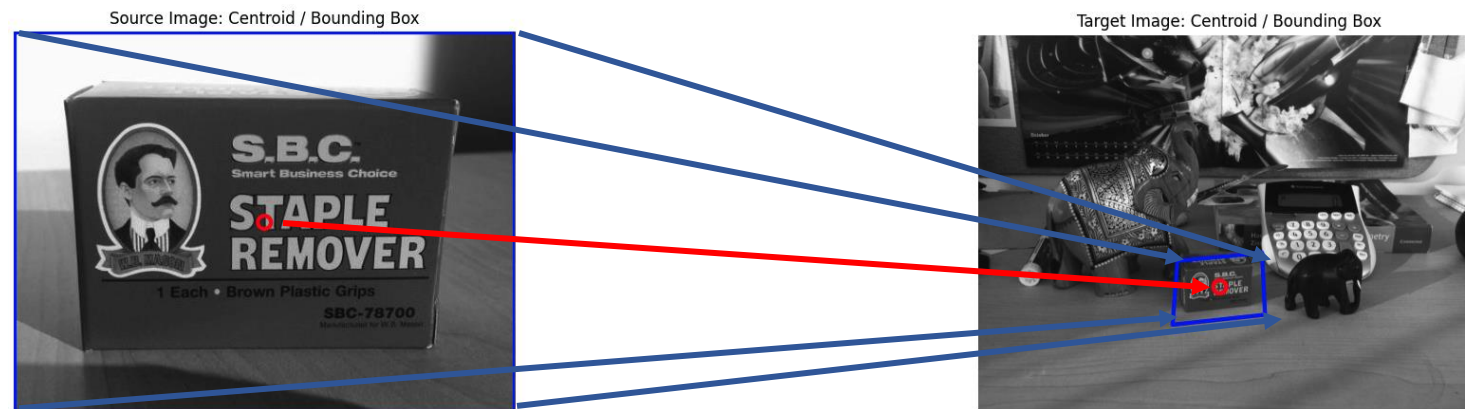
Affine Transform

$$m \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = H \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Projective / Perspective / Homography Transform

Step #4: Detect the object

- **Goal:** Use homography (\mathbf{H}) to localize object in target image
 - Simply project object centroid and/or bounding box corners from source image to target image
 - Note: Homographies are expressive but do not maintain parallelism – we may not get a bounding "box" in the target image! Other transformations (e.g., affine), are possible too



$$p_h = [u, v, 1]^T$$

$$[\hat{u}', \hat{v}', 1]^T \propto p'_h = \mathbf{H}p_h = \mathbf{H}[u, v, 1]^T$$

Object tracking

- Once objects are detected, how can we track them over time?
 - Re-running object detection from scratch at each frame can be slow!
 - Instead, object tracking *exploits existing knowledge* of the object (e.g., detected position) to track its motion over a sequence of images
 - The problem is equivalent to estimating pixel velocities (optical flow)



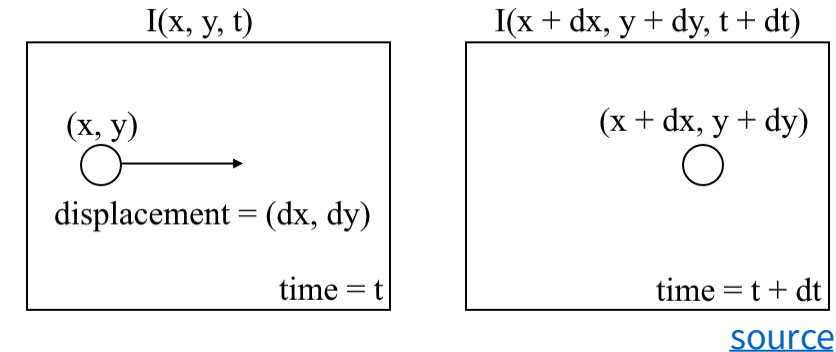
Sparse optical flow
(tracking keypoints)



Dense optical flow
(tracking all pixels)

Object tracking

- **Intuition:** pixel motion is small across frames
 - Assumption: only need to search within a local region
- We can express the optical flow problem as:



$$I(x, y, t) = I(x + \delta x, y + \delta y, t + \delta t)$$

(Taylor expansion step) $\approx I(x, y, t) + \frac{\partial I}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \delta y + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} \delta t \implies \frac{\partial I}{\partial x} v_x + \frac{\partial I}{\partial y} v_y + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = 0$

Optical flow equation*

- Solving the optical flow equation gives pixel velocities v_x, v_y
 - Many sparse and dense optical flow techniques have been developed, for example, the Lucas-Kanade method (sparse) and the Gunnar-Farneback method (dense)

Object recognition

- Object recognition: capability of naming discrete objects in the world
- Why is it hard? Many reasons, including:
 1. Real world is made of a jumble of objects, which all occlude one another and appear in different poses
 2. There is a lot of variability intrinsic within each class (e.g., dogs)
- In this class, we will look at two methods:
 1. Template matching (classic)
 2. Neural network methods (treated as a black box, see next lecture)

Template matching

- How can we find this guy?



Source: Sanja Fidler

Template matching

- Slide and compare!



Image I



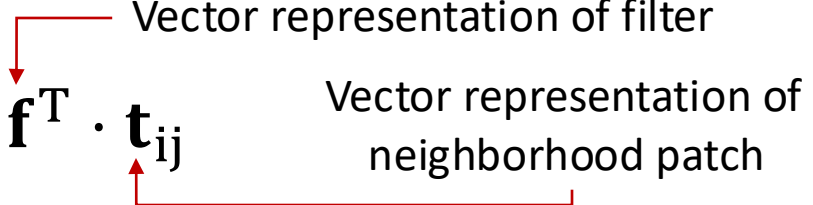
Filter F

Source: Sanja Fidler

Template matching

- In practice, remember correlation:

$$I'(x, y) = F \circ I = \sum_{i=-N}^N \sum_{j=-M}^M F(i, j) I(x + i, y + j)$$

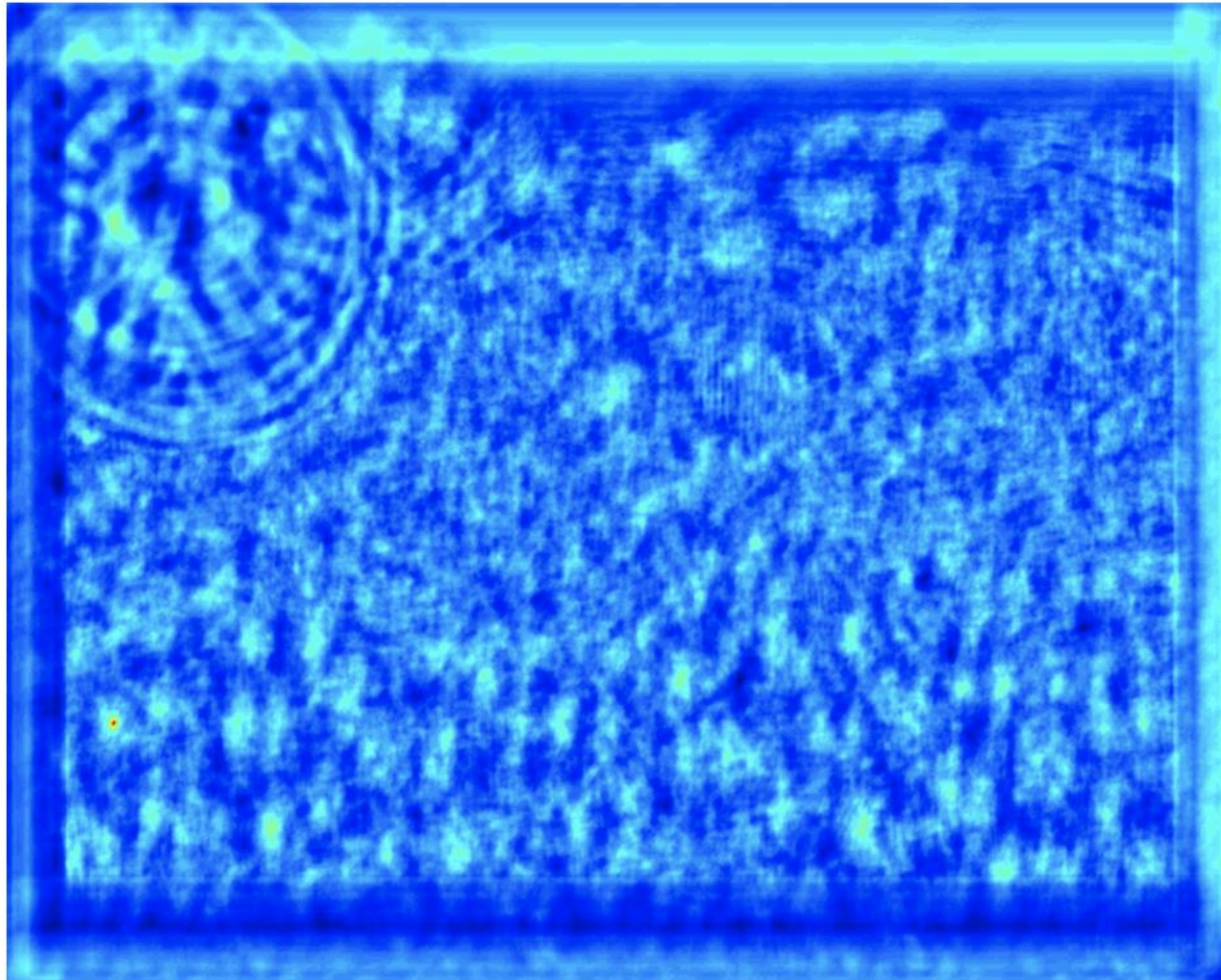
- One can equivalently write: $I'(x, y) = \mathbf{f}^T \cdot \mathbf{t}_{ij}$


- To ensure that perfect matching yields one, we consider *normalized* correlation, that is

$$I'(x, y) = \frac{\mathbf{f}^T \cdot \mathbf{t}_{ij}}{\|\mathbf{f}\| \|\mathbf{t}_{ij}\|}$$

Template matching

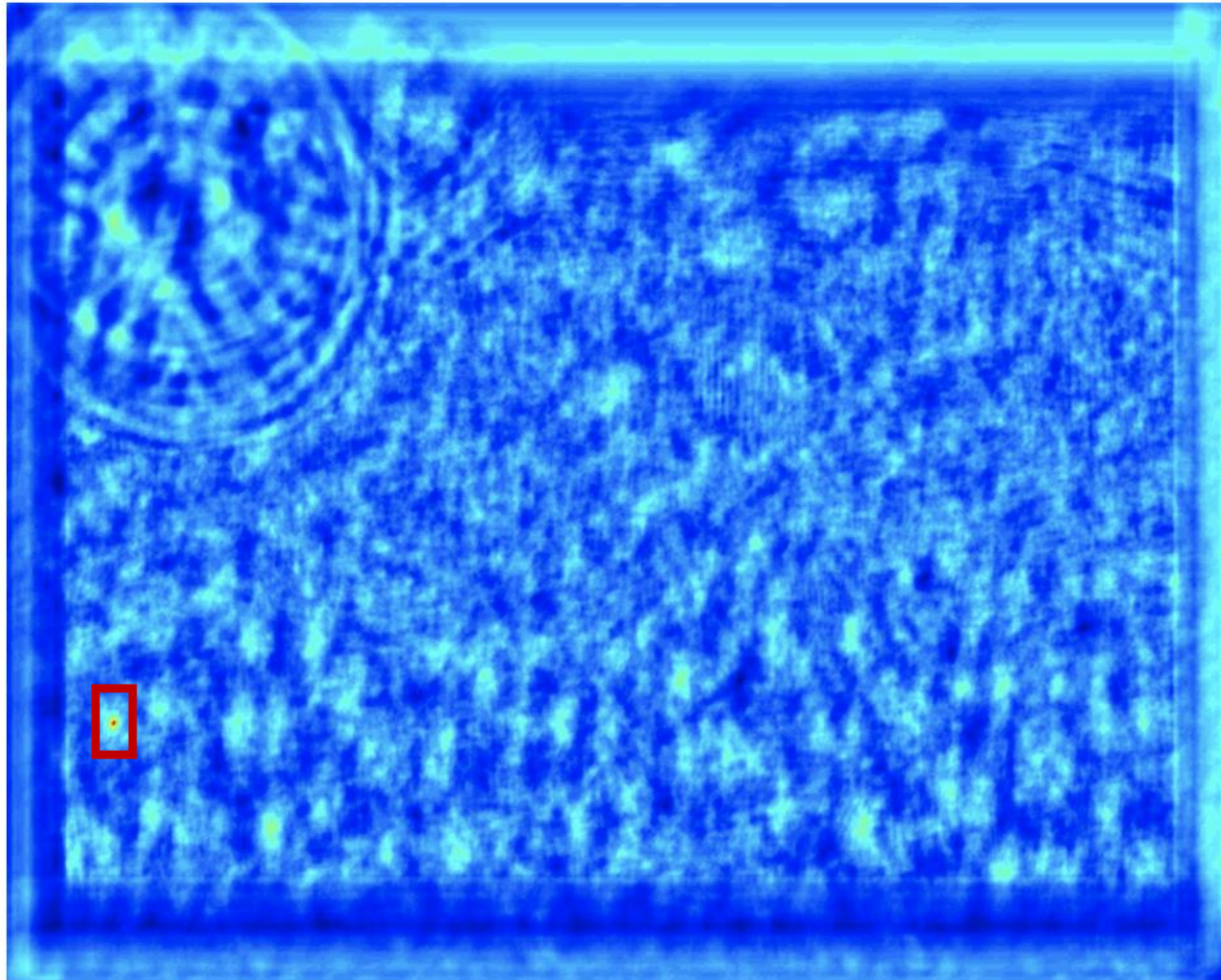
Result:



Source: Sanja Fidler

Template matching

Result:



Source: Sanja Fidler

Template matching

- Problem: what if the object in the image is much larger or much smaller than our template?
- Solution: re-scale the image multiple times, and do correlation on every size!
- This leads to the idea of *image pyramids*

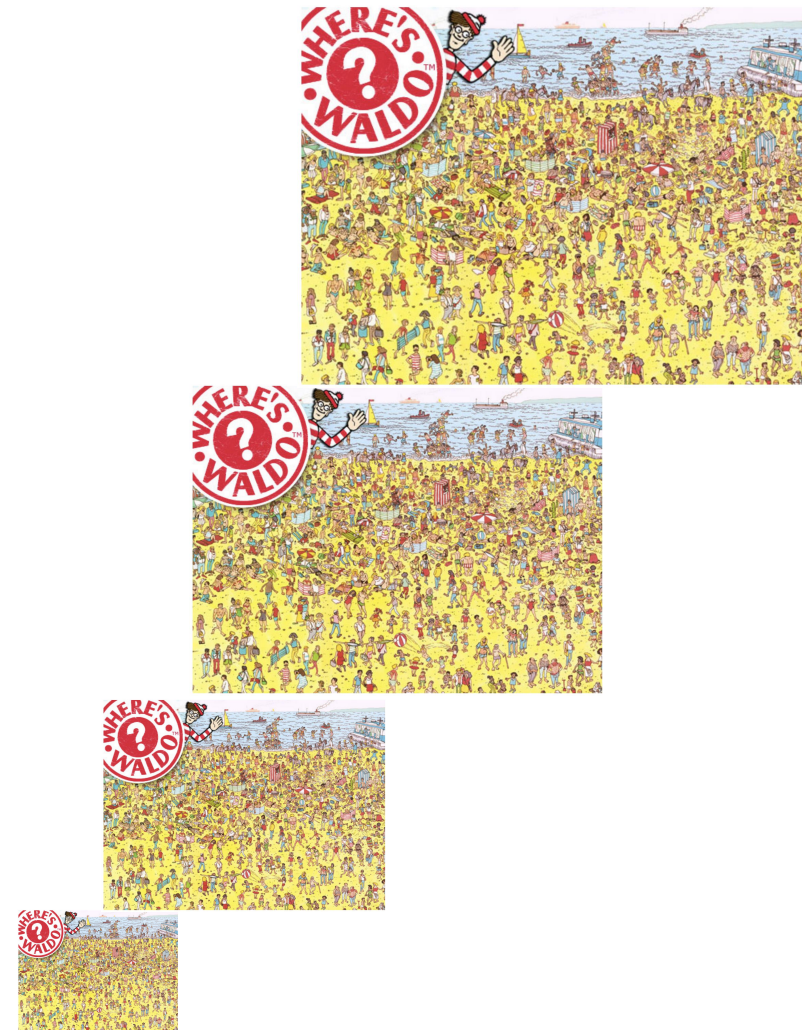


Image pyramids: scaling down

- Naïve solution: keep only some rows and columns
- E.g.: keep every other column to reduce image by 1/2 in width direction



Source:
Sanja Fidler

Image pyramids: scaling down

- Naïve solution: keep only some rows and columns
- E.g.: keep every other column to reduce image by 1/2 in width direction



Source:
Sanja Fidler

Image pyramids: scaling down

- Solution: blur the image via Gaussian, *then* subsample
- Intuition: remove high frequency content in the image



Source:
Sanja Fidler

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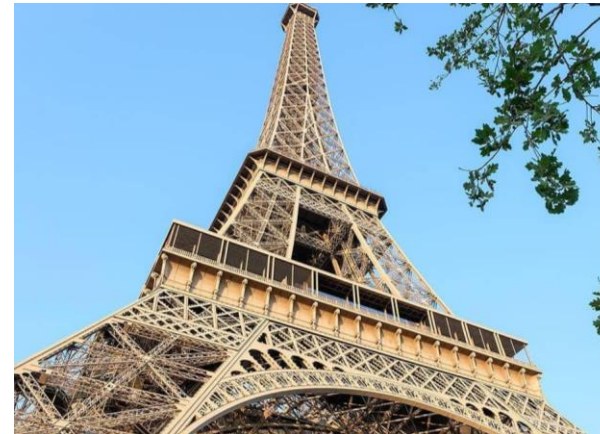
Source:
Sanja Fidler

Image pyramids

- A sequence of images created with Gaussian blurring and down-sampling is called a Gaussian pyramid
- The other step is to perform up-sampling (nearest neighbor, bilinear, bicubic, etc.)

However, classical methods can be brittle!

- Sensitive to variations in rotation, etc.
- Loss of spatial information
- Lack of robustness (to partial occlusions, deformations, etc.)



Using learned features

Solution: Use learned features!

- We can use convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to detect and describe features
- Convolutional neural networks (CNNs): deep learning models for processing structured grid data, such as images, by using layers of convolutional operations to automatically learn hierarchical features and patterns

Uses in modern computer vision

- Using CNNs for computer vision tasks took off ~2012 with the success of the AlexNet architecture for image classification on the ImageNet dataset
- Today, learned features are used in many applications: image classification, object detection, image segmentation, object tracking, image generation etc.
- Modern models also include GANs, transformers, etc.



Classification:
Goldfish



Semantic
segmentation

Next time

