Compter Vision

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Assignment 3

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In this assignment we implement the two distinct steps of feature detection and description that are part of SIFT:

- Interest point detection in harris.py
- Local feature description in sift.py

1 Interest point detection

The implementation is done in the file named **harris.py**. It contains a single function **get_interest_points()**. The function takes the following arguments:

- image: A numpy array of shape (m,n,c), image may be grayscale of color.
 - We have used the package cv2 for reading the image and convering into a numpy array.
 - Also the image is resized by cutting its length & width into half in order to reduce computational complexity.
- feature_width: integer representing the local feature width in pixels.
 - The importance of this argument is established in Local feature description. For this part we keep distance of $feature_width/2$ from each boundary such that no key point is inside the boundary.

The function returns the following output:

• Co-ordinates of the keypoints (x,y)

1.1 Algorithm for keypoint detection

The algorithm for Harris corner detection for determining the co-ordinates of the interest points include the following steps:

- Computing the horizontal and vertical gradients of the input image
 - We have convoluted the image with the Sobel kernel(both horizontal and vertical) for this purpose (respectively for the horizontal and vertical gradients). We name them I_x and I_y. For this purpose we have used the inbuilt packages of scipy.signal.
- Computing the Covariance matrix
 - To compute the covariance matrix we need to first compute the following:

$$I_{xx} = G_{\sigma}(I_x \times I_x) \tag{1}$$

$$I_{yy} = G_{\sigma}(I_y \times I_y) \tag{2}$$

$$I_{xy} = G_{\sigma}(I_x \times I_y) \tag{3}$$

Where G_{σ} is a $m \times n$ -dimensional Gaussian filter applied in the product of the gradient matrices. We have used $\sigma = 1$ for the Gaussian kernel. For this purpose we have used the inbuilt packages of **scipy.ndimage**.

– Now the covariance matrix is constructed as : $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{xx} & \mathbf{I}_{xy} \\ \mathbf{I}_{xy} & \mathbf{I}_{yy} \end{bmatrix}$

• Computing the Harris response value

- Now the detection of the corner (keypoints) in the image is done by comparing the Harris
 response value of each pixel to a threshold value, which is computed using the eigenvalues
 of the covariance matrix.
- Let λ_1 and λ_2 be the 2 eigenvalues of the covariance matrix. Then the Harris response value for corner detection is computed as (according to Harris & Stephens (1988)):

$$R = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 - \kappa (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^2 \tag{4}$$

here we have taken the parameter value $\kappa = 0.06$

- We classify a pixel as an **interest point** if R > 0 for that pixel value. Our implementation also uses some additional filtering of these obtained key-points, which we discuss afterwards.

1.2 Filtering the key-points

After obtaining the key-points using the Harris algorithm discussed above we use some further techniques to filter the key-points. In our implementation we have used the additional functions which are implemented inside the **get_interest_points()** function:

• neighbour_check()

- This function takes input the matrix named *harris_response*, which contains the response values corresponding to each pixel.
- The function compares a feature point with its neighbours w.r.t the response values. Given a window size it considers all neighbours in that window of a feature point. If a feature point has greater response strength than all its neighbours it returns that feature point as potential feature point otherwise discards it.
- The function also does an additional filtering by discarding all key-points whose response values are less than 0.0009 times the maximum response value among all the pixels.
- Returns list of tuples named *harris_tuple* containing the co-ordinates and the response values of the filtered key-points (x,y).

• check_feature_width()

- This function takes input the list of tuple named harris_tuple, the feature_width, the height and width of the image.
- This function checks whether the selected feature points satisfies the boundary condition.
 This restricts feature points to fall within feature width from the boundary.

• ANMS()

- This is a function for implementing Adapted Non Maximal Suppression for the key-points. This function takes input the sorted harris_tuple, which is obtained after applying the function neighbour_check() and check_feature_width() on the raw key-points.
- For each key-point (x_i) this function computes the euclidean distance with the key-points (x_j) 's which have response value greater than that. To impose *robustness* it only considers those key-points (x_j) 's which have their response values some constant times greater than the main key-point. The minimum distance among all is the **Suppression Radius** given by,

$$r_i = \min_j (x_i - x_j), s.t. f(x_i) < c_{robust} f(x_j)$$
(5)

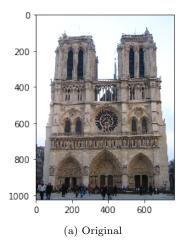
Here we have taken the robustness parameter as $c_{robust} = 0.9$.

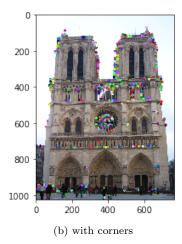
We sort the key-points w.r.t their suppression radii in descending order and get a order list
of the key-points.

1.3 Results

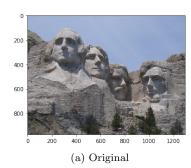
We implement the above algorithm along with the filtering functions on 3 images and here are the results. Throughout our experiments we have used the following parameter values:

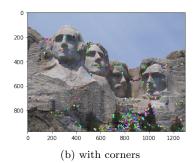
- σ for Gaussian Kernel = 1
- κ for Harris response = 0.06
- Robustness parameter of ANMS = 0.9
- Neighbourhood threshold = 0.009
- Neighbour checking window size = 3×3



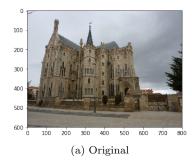


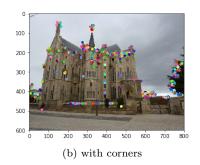
• For the **Notre Dame** image total number of feature points after Neighbourhood check was 780. After applying the Feature width constraint we reduce another 20 key-points. And we compute the suppression radii for them and plot the top 500 key-points.





- For the **Mount Rushmore** image total number of feature points after Neighbourhood check was 567. After applying the Feature width constraint we reduce another 111 key-points. And we compute the suppression radii for them and plot the top 400 key-points.
- For the **Episcopal Gaudi** image total number of feature points after Neighbourhood check was 351. After applying the Feature width constraint we reduce another 30 key-points. And we compute the suppression radii for them and plot the top 300 key-points.





2 Local feature description

Once we obtain the interest points of the image using Harris corner detection algorithm we are now interested in finding the feature descriptor corresponding each key-point. Here we *partially* implement the **SIFT** (Scale Invariant Feature Transform) algorithm. Inside the file **sift.py** we implement a function named **get_features()**. The function takes the following arguments:

- image : Same as previous function
- Co-ordinates of the key-points (x,y)
- feature_width : Same as previous function
- scales : Although our implementation is only for single scale, this parameter is used to determine the scale parameter of the Gaussian kernel.

The function returns the following output:

• A numpy array of shape (k, 128) representing a feature vector. Where k is the number of feature points.

2.1 Algorithm for computing the SIFT feature vectors

We start with the (x, y) co-ordinates of the interest points as obtained from applying the function $\mathbf{get_interest_points}()$ on the image. Next we compute the following:

• Computing Orientation & Magnitude

– Similarly as the previous function we construct the gradient matrices $\mathbf{I}_{-\mathbf{x}}$ and $\mathbf{I}_{-\mathbf{y}}$. Then the Orientation (θ) and Magnitude (m) is computed corresponding to each pixel as,

$$\theta = tan^{-1} \frac{I_{-}y}{I_{-}x} \tag{6}$$

$$m = \sqrt{I_{-}y^2 + I_{-}x^2} \tag{7}$$

- The angles thus obtained not necessarily falls in the whole domain of $[0, 2\pi]$. Hence we scale the angles into the range.

• Computing the Dominant orientation

- Next we compute the dominant orientation corresponding each key-point using Histogram of Gradients (HOG).
- Corresponding each key-point we take a window of size (feature_width × feature_width) around it and build a histogram using all the pixels inside the window. The number of bins for the histogram is 36.
- Suppose for a pixel its orientation (θ) falls in the bin [a,b]. We use the following **interpolation scheme** to identify the weights according to which the magnitude (m) of that pixel is distributed among the bins.

* if $\theta > (a+b)/2$: The corresponding magnitude will contribute into the bin [a,b] and the next bin [b,c] to it with weights w_-1 and w_-2 , given by:

$$w_{-1} = 1 - \frac{\theta - (a+b)/2}{bin \ width}$$
 (8)

* if $\theta < (a+b)/2$: The corresponding magnitude will contribute into the bin [a,b] and the previous bin [d,a] to it with weights $w_{-}1$ and $w_{-}2$, given by:

$$w.2 = 1 - \frac{(d+a)/2 - \theta}{bin_width} \tag{9}$$

- * if $\theta = (a+b)/2$: We simply take $w_{-1} = 1$ and $w_{-1} = 0$. We note that $w_{-1} + w_{-2} = 1$. Finally we append $w_{-1} * m$ into the bin [a, b] and $w_{-2} * m$ to the other bin.
- Once the histogram is obtained we find out the orientation bin corresponding to the highest peak and return the mid value of that bin as the dominant orientation.
- If there are multiple peaks we use **parabola fitting** using the three highest peaks and then return the orientation corresponding the vertex of the fitted parabola. The notion of multiple peak refers that the value of the 2nd highest peak should be greater than 80% of the highest peak.
- Rotation invariant To make our algorithm rotation invariant we assign the dominant orientation to the corresponding key-point. For all other pixels in the window we rotate their orientations by the dominant angle.

$$\theta_{new} = \theta_{old} - dominant_orientation \tag{10}$$

Also we have to scale θ_{new} for the range $[0, 2\pi]$

• Local feature generation

- Again for each pixel we take a window around it of shape (feature_width × feature_width). We divide this window into 4 × 4 grids (total 16). Now for each of these 16 grids we build a histogram with 8 bins. In other words we get a 8 × 1 vector of weighted magnitudes corresponding each of the 16 grids.
- Next we concatenate all the 16 histograms to generate a (128 × 1) feature vector, which is our SIFT vector. For each of the key-points we get one such (128 × 1) vector. The vectors are then normalized and returned.

2.2 Functions & Implementation

To implement the above discussed algorithm we have build two functions inside **get_features()** as follows:

- fit_parabola(): Given a input histogram it fits a parabola of the form $ax^2 + bx + c = y$ using the 3 bins with maximum magnitudes.
 - Fitting the parabola is equivalent to solving a system of linear equations Ax = b. Where the co-efficient matrix & co-efficient vector are given by,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 & x_1 & 1 \\ x_2^2 & x_2 & 1 \\ x_3^2 & x_3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (11)

where x_i 's are the mid values of the bins and y_i 's are corresponding y-values.

• build histogram()

- This function is called to build the histograms. It takes input the orientation_matrix, magnitude_matrix and the number of bins.
- Returns a numpy array which contains the magnitude values.

The SIFT vectors are printed in my Assignment3.ipynb notebook