Industrial Computer Vision

- Feature Detection



8th lecture, 2021.10.27 Lecturer: Youngbae Hwang

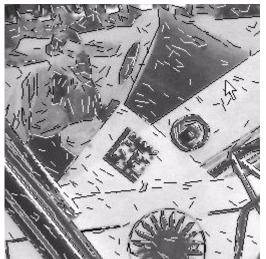
Contents

- Corner Detection
 - Harris Corner
 - FAST
 - Good Feature To Track
- SIFT (Scale Invariant Feature Transform)

Line Detection

- Useful in remote sensing, document processing etc.
- Edges:
 - boundaries between regions with relatively distinct gray-levels
 - the most common type of discontinuity in an image
- Lines:
 - instances of thin lines in an image occur frequently enough
 - it is useful to have a separate mechanism for detecting them.







Line detection: How?

Possible approaches: Hough transform (more global analysis and may not be considered as a local pre-

processing technique)

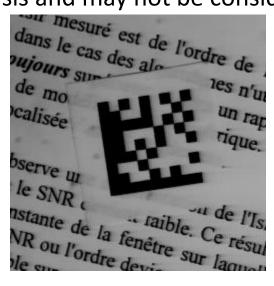
Convolve with line detection kernels

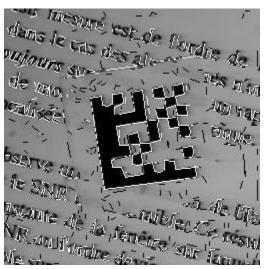
$$L_h = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L_v = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L_o = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

How to detection lines along other directions?

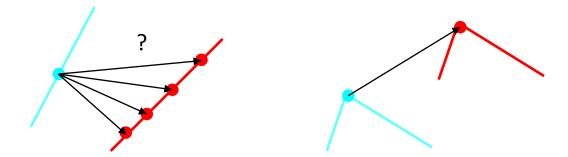






Lines and corner for correspondence

- Interest points for solving correspondence problems in time series data.
- Corners are better than lines in solving the above problem due to the aperture problem
 - Consider that we want to solve point matching in two images



A vertex or corner provides better correspondence

Corners

Challenges

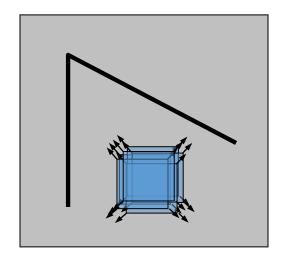
Gradient computation is less reliable near a corner due to ambiguity of edge orientation

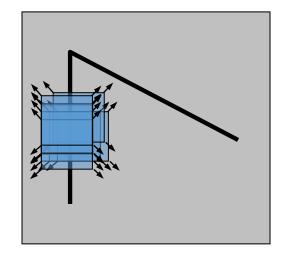


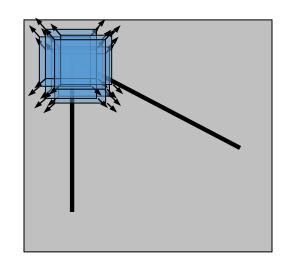
- Corner detector are usually not very robust.
- This deficiency is overcome either by manual intervention or large redundancies.
- The later approach leads to many more corners than needed to estimate transforms between two images.



Basic Idea







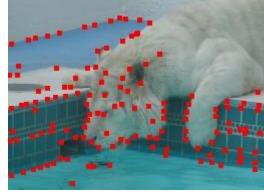
"flat" region: no change in all directions "edge": no change along the edge direction "corner": significant change in all directions



Corner detection

Moravec detector: detects corners as the pixels with locally maximal contrast

$$MO(i,j) = \frac{1}{8} \sum_{\Delta i = -1}^{1} \sum_{\Delta j = -1}^{1} |f(i + \Delta i, j + \Delta j) - f(i,j)|$$

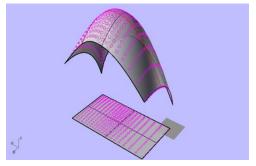


Differential approaches:

- Beaudet's approach: Corners are measured as the determinant of the Hessian.
- Note that the determinant of a Hessian is equivalent to the product of the min & max Gaussian curvatures

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

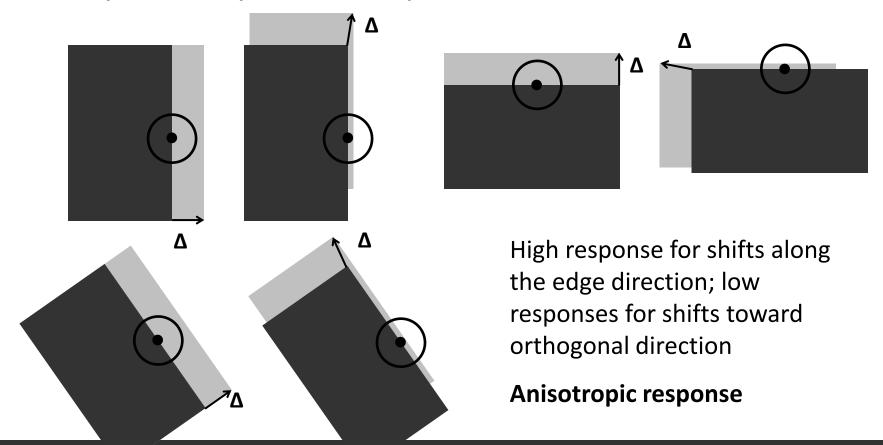
Corner measure DET(H) =
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2$$





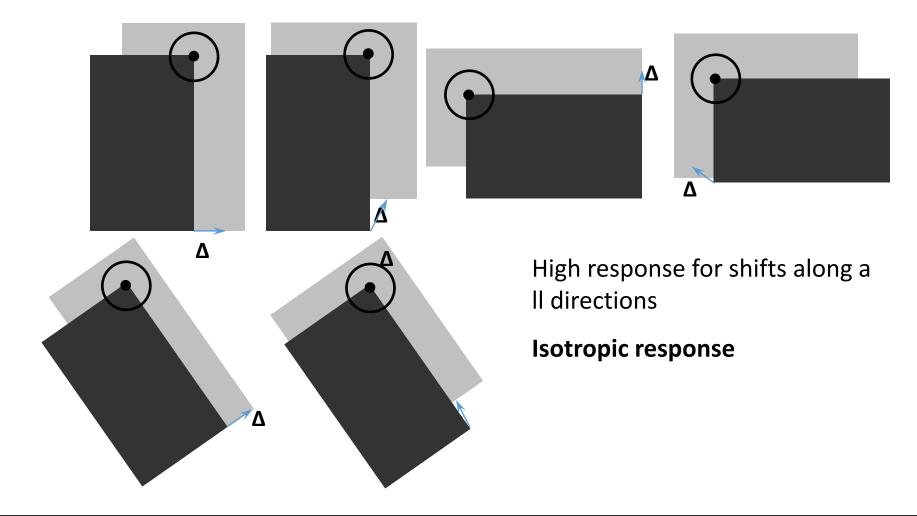
Harris corner detector

- Key idea: Measure changes over a neighborhood due to a shift and then analyze its dependency on shift orientation
- Orientation dependency of the response for lines



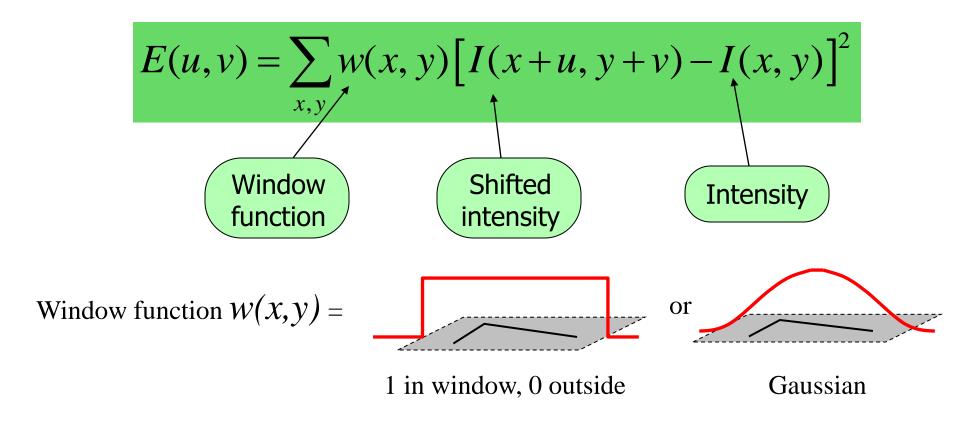
Key idea: continued ...

Orientation dependence of the shift response for corners



Harris Detector: Mathematics

Change of intensity for the shift [u,v]:



Harris corner: mathematical formulation

- An image patch or neighborhood W is shifted by a shift vector $\Delta = [\Delta x, \Delta y]^T$
- A corner does not have the aperture problem and therefore should show high shift response for all orientation of Δ .
- The square intensity difference between the original and the shifted image over the neighborhood W is

$$S_W(\Delta) = \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in W} (f(x_i, y_i) - f(x_i + \Delta x, y_i + \Delta y))^2$$

Apply first-order Taylor expansion

•
$$f(x_i + \Delta x, y_i + \Delta y) \approx f(x_i, y_i) + \left[\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y}\right] \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$



Continued ...

$$S(x,y,\Delta) = \sum_{(x_i,y_i)\in W} \left(f(x_i,y_i) - f(x_i,y_i) - \left[\frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial y} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix} \right)^2$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{(x_i, y_i) \in W}} \left(\left[\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \right] \left[\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y} \right] \right)^2$$

$$= \sum_{(x_i,y_i)\in W} \left(\left[\frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial y} \right] \left[\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y} \right] \right)^{\mathrm{T}} \left(\left[\frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial y} \right] \left[\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y} \right] \right)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{(x_i,y_i) \in W}} \left[\frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial x} \right] \left[\frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial x} \right] \left[\frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i,y_i)}{\partial y} \right] \left[\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y} \right]$$

$$- = \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in W} [\Delta x \quad \Delta y] \left(\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$



Continued ...

$$= \sum_{\substack{(x_i, y_i) \in W}} [\Delta x \quad \Delta y] \left(\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [\Delta x \quad \Delta y] \left(\sum_{\substack{(x_i, y_i) \in W}} \left[\frac{\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y}} \right] \left[\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \right] \right) \left[\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta y} \right]$$

$$= [\Delta x \quad \Delta y] \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in W} \left(\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \right)^2 & \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in W} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \\ \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in W} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} & \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in W} \left(\frac{\partial f(x_i, y_i)}{\partial y} \right)^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{bmatrix}$$

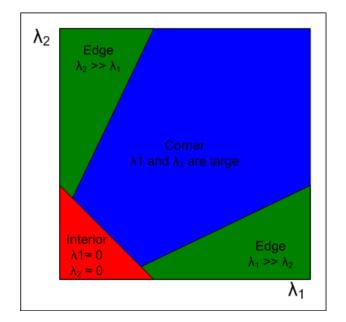
$$= \mathbf{\Delta}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}_{w}(x, y) \mathbf{\Delta}$$



Harris matrix

- The matrix A_W is called the <u>Harris matrix</u> and its symmetric and positive semi-definite. Eigen-value decomposition of of A_W gives eigenvectors and eigenvalues (λ_1, λ_2) of the response matrix.
- Three distinct situations:
 - Both λ_1 and λ_2 are small \Rightarrow no edge or corner; a flat region
 - λ_i is large but $\lambda_{i\neq l}$ is small \Rightarrow existence of an edge; no corner
 - Both λ_1 and λ_2 are large \Rightarrow existence of a corner

- Avoid eigenvalue decomposition and compute a single response measure
 - Harris response function
 - $R(A) = \det(A) \kappa * trace^{2}(A)$
 - A value of κ between 0.04 and 0.15 has be used in literature.



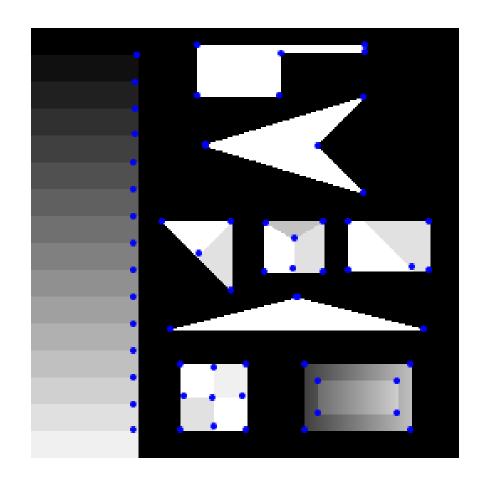


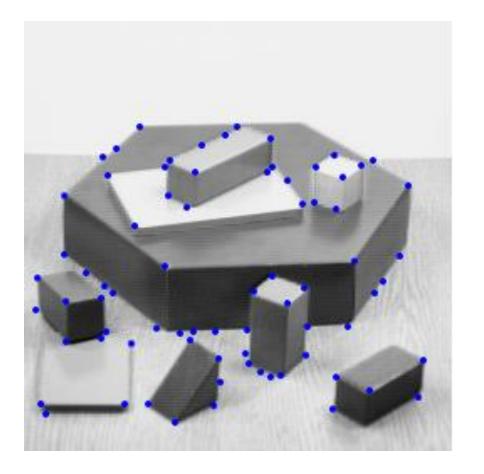
Algorithm: Harris corner detection

- 1. Filter the image with a Gaussian
- 2. Estimate intensity gradient in two coordinate directions
- 3. For each pixel c and a neighborhood window W
 - a. Calculate the local Harris matrix A
 - b. Compute the response function R(A)
- 4. Choose the best candidates for corners by selecting thresholds on the response function R(A)
- 5. Apply non-maximal suppression



Examples







Examples

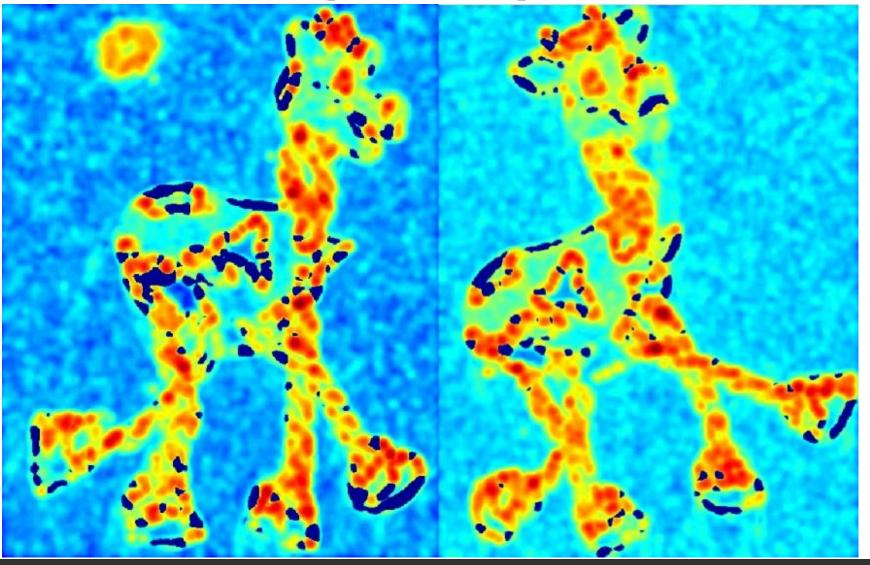




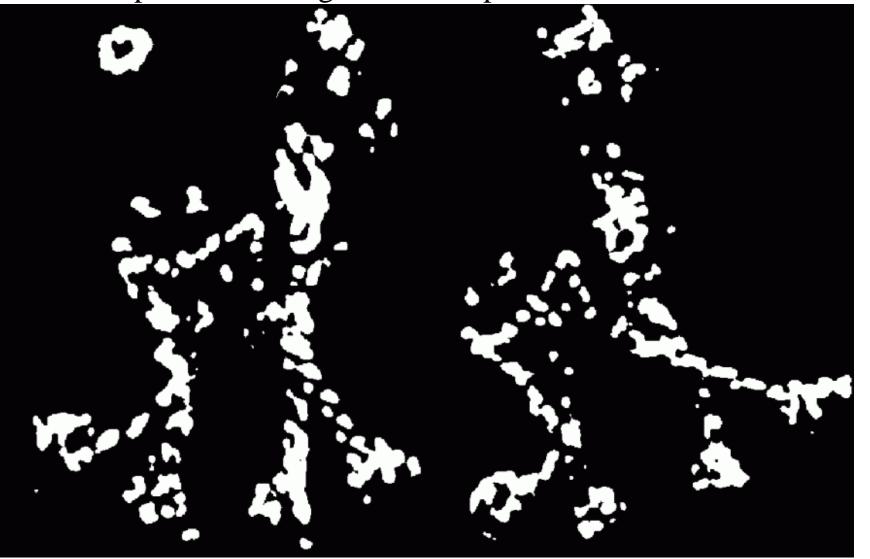








Find points with large corner response: *R*>threshold



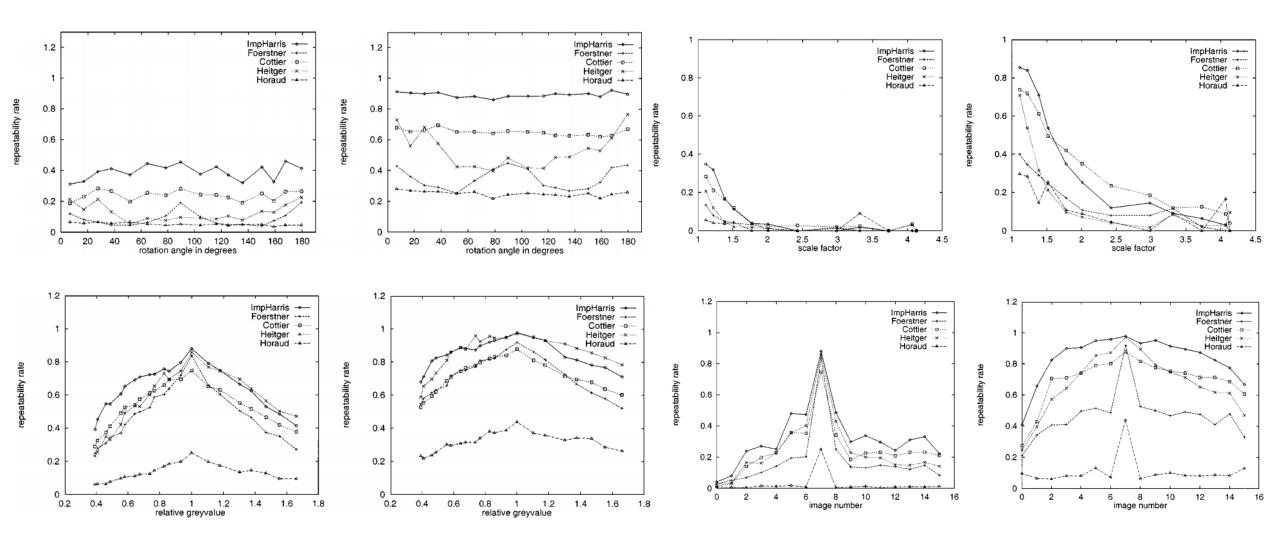
Take only the points of local maxima of R



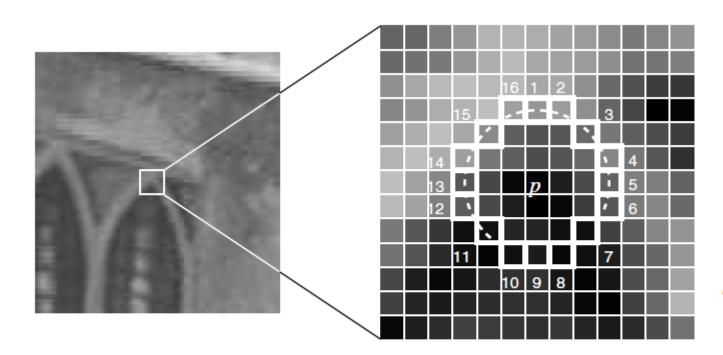




Repeatability



FAST (Features from Accelerated Segment Test)

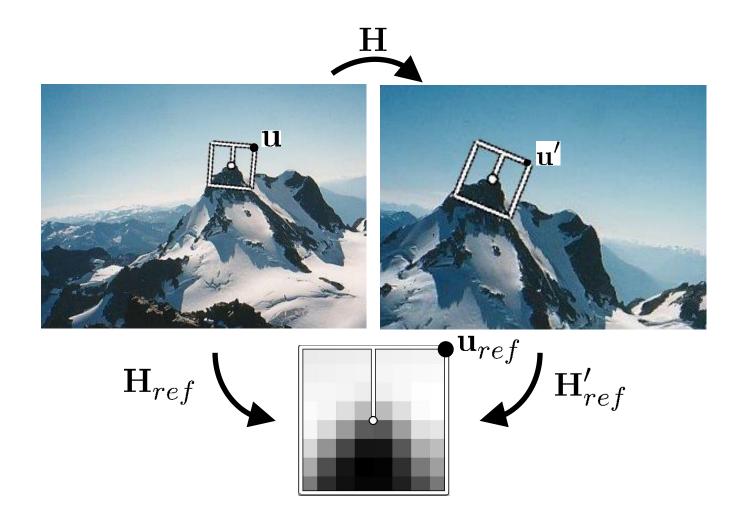


$$S_{p \to x} = \begin{cases} d, & I_{p \to x} \le I_p - t & \text{(darker)} \\ s, & I_p - t < I_{p \to x} < I_p + t & \text{(similar)} \\ b, & I_p + t \le I_{p \to x} & \text{(brighter)} \end{cases}$$

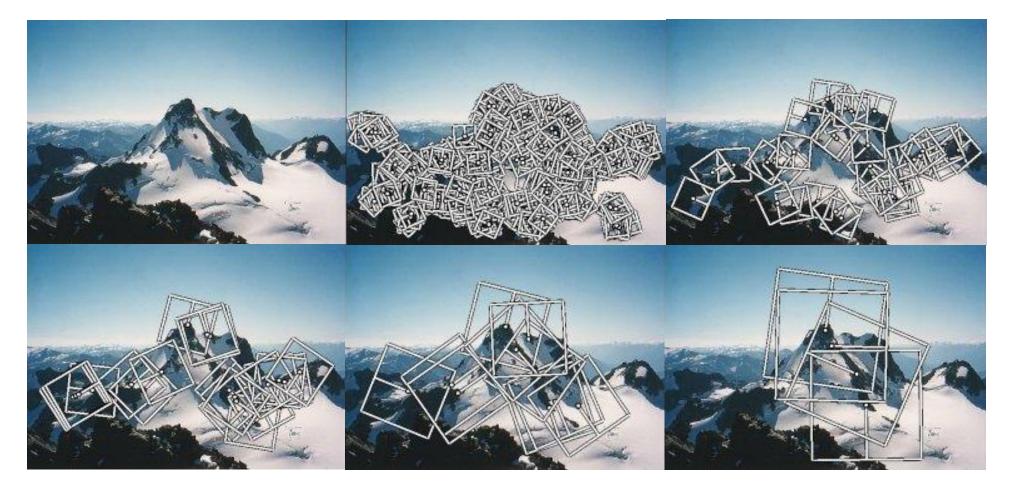
Fig. 1. 12 point segment test corner detection in an image patch. The highlighted squares are the pixels used in the corner detection. The pixel at p is the centre of a candidate corner. The arc is indicated by the dashed line passes through 12 contiguous pixels which are brighter than p by more than the threshold.



Review: Matt Brown's Canonical Frames



Multi-Scale Oriented Patches



Extract oriented patches at multiple scales

Brown, Szeliski, Winder CVPR 2005]



Application: Image Stitching





Microsoft Digital Image Pro version 10]



Ideas from Matt's Multi-Scale Oriented Patches

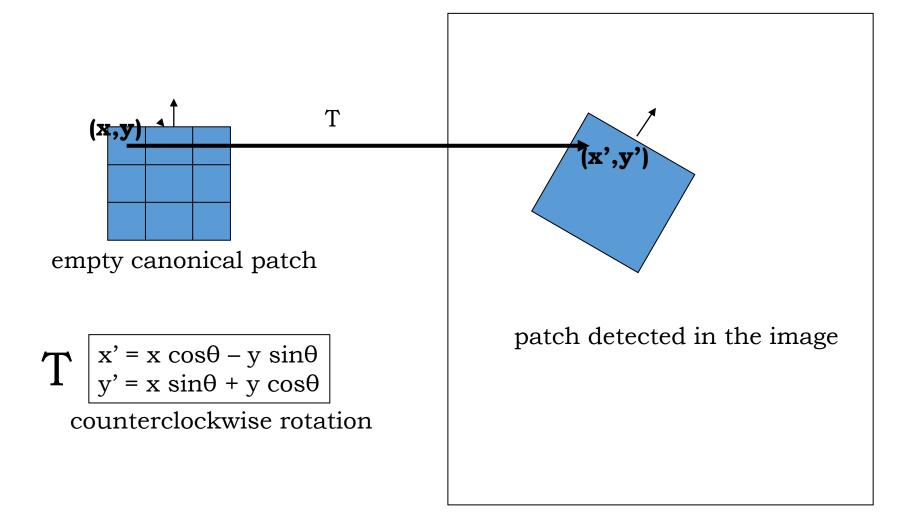
- 1. Detect an interesting patch with an interest operator. Patches are translation invariant.
- 2. Determine its dominant orientation.
- 3. Rotate the patch so that the dominant orientation points upward. This makes the patches rotation invariant.
- 4. Do this at multiple scales, converting them all to one scale through sampling.
- 5. Convert to illumination "invariant" form



Implementation Concern: How do you rotate a patch?

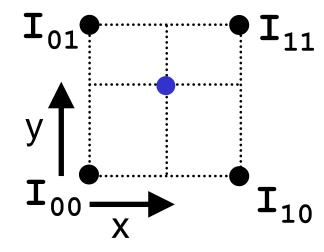
- Start with an "empty" patch whose dominant direction is "up".
- For each pixel in your patch, compute the position in the detected image patch. It will be in floating point and will fall between the image pixels.
- Interpolate the values of the 4 closest pixels in the image, to get a value for the pixel in your patch.

Rotating a Patch



Using Bilinear Interpolation

Use all 4 adjacent samples



SIFT: Motivation

 The Harris operator is not invariant to scale and correlation is not invariant to rotation¹.

 For better image matching, Lowe's goal was to develop an interest operator that is invariant to scale and rotation.

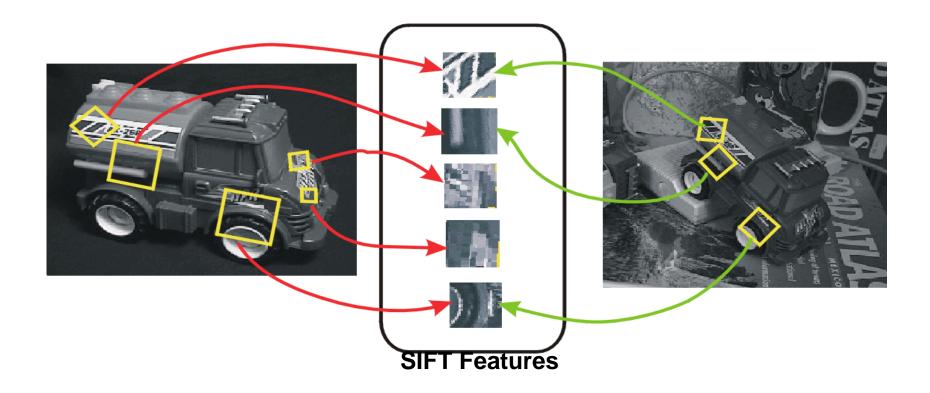
 Also, Lowe aimed to create a descriptor that was robust to the variations corresponding to typical viewing conditions. The descriptor is the most-used part of SIFT.

¹But Schmid and Mohr developed a rotation invariant descriptor for it in 1997.



Idea of SIFT

• Image content is transformed into local feature coordinates that are invariant to translation, rotation, scale, and other imaging parameters



Claimed Advantages of SIFT

- Locality: features are local, so robust to occlusion and clutter (no prior segmentation)
- Distinctiveness: individual features can be matched to a large database of objects
- Quantity: many features can be generated for even small objects
- Efficiency: close to real-time performance
- Extensibility: can easily be extended to wide range of differing feature types,
 with each adding robustness

Overall Procedure at a High Level

1. Scale-space extrema detection

Search over multiple scales and image locations.

2. Keypoint localization

Fit a model to detrmine location and scale. Select keypoints based on a measure of stability.

3. Orientation assignment

Compute best orientation(s) for each keypoint region.

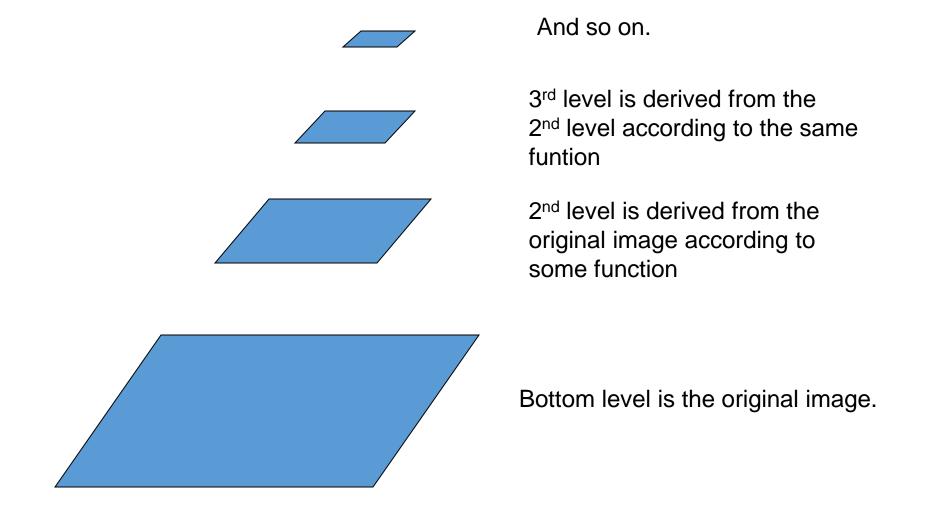
4. Keypoint description

Use local image gradients at selected scale and rotation to describe each keypoint region.

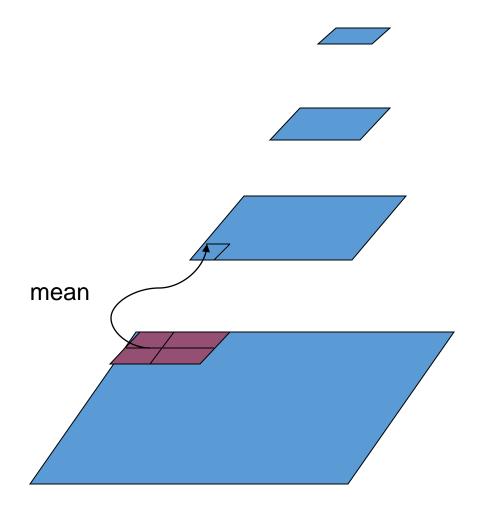
1. Scale-space extrema detection

- Goal: Identify locations and scales that can be repeatably assigned under different views of the same scene or object.
- Method: search for stable features across multiple scales using a continuous function of scale.
- Prior work has shown that under a variety of assumption s, the best function is a Gaussian function.
- The scale space of an image is a function $L(x,y,\sigma)$ that is p roduced from the convolution of a Gaussian kernel (at different scales) with the input image.

Aside: Image Pyramids



Aside: Mean Pyramid



And so on.

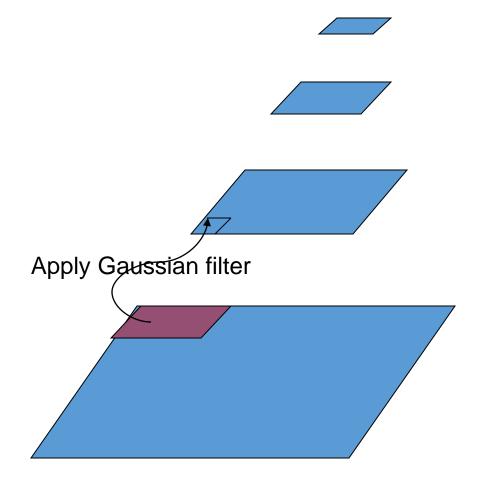
At 3rd level, each pixel is the mean of 4 pixels in the 2nd level.

At 2nd level, each pixel is the mean of 4 pixels in the original image.

Bottom level is the original image.

Aside: Gaussian Pyramid

At each level, image is smoothed and reduced in size.

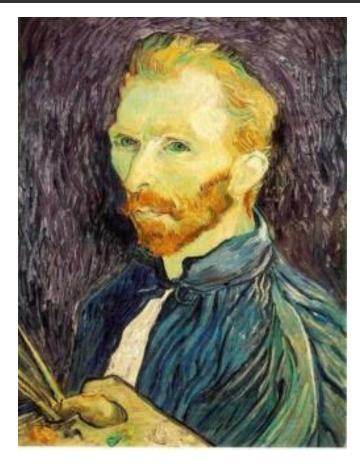


And so on.

At 2nd level, each pixel is the result of applying a Gaussian mask to the first level and then subsampling to reduce the size.

Bottom level is the original image.

Example: Subsampling with Gaussian pre-filtering



Gaussian 1/2



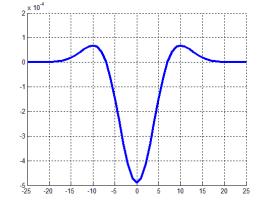
G 1/4

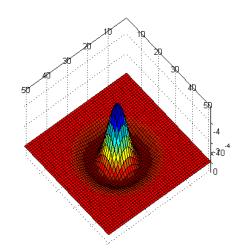


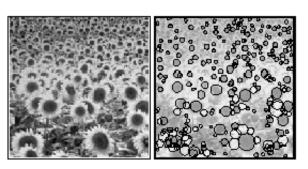
G 1/8

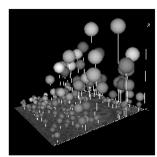
Lowe's Scale-space Interest Points

- Laplacian of Gaussian kernel
 - Scale normalised (x by scale2)
 - Proposed by Lindeberg
- Scale-space detection
 - Find local maxima across scale/space
 - A good "blob" detector







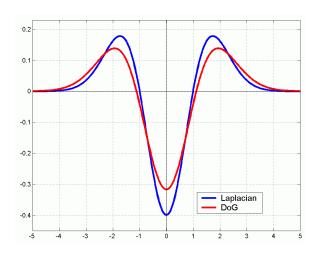


$$G(x, y, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{x^2 + y^2}{\sigma^2}}$$

$$\nabla^2 G(x, y, \sigma) = \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial y^2}$$



Lowe's Scale-space Interest Points: Difference of Gaussians



$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial \sigma} = \sigma \nabla^2 G.$$

 Gaussian is an ad hoc solution of heat diffusion equation

Hence

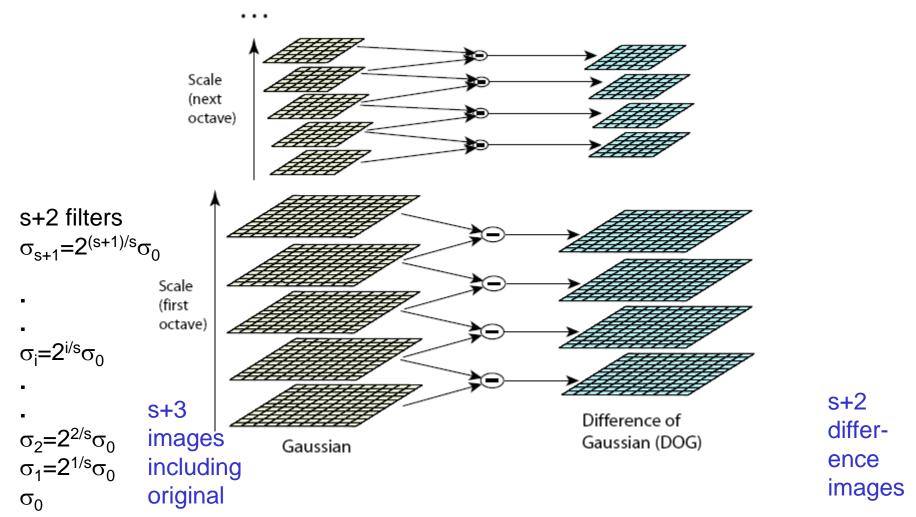
$$G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma) \approx (k-1)\sigma^2 \nabla^2 G.$$

k is not necessarily very small in p ractice

Lowe's Pyramid Scheme

- Scale space is separated into octaves:
 - Octave 1 uses scale σ
 - Octave 2 uses scale 2σ
 - etc.
- In each octave, the initial image is repeatedly convolved with Gaussians to produce a set of scale space images.
- Adjacent Gaussians are subtracted to produce the DOG
- After each octave, the Gaussian image is down-sampled by a factor of 2 to produce an image ¼ the size to start the next level.

Lowe's Pyramid Scheme

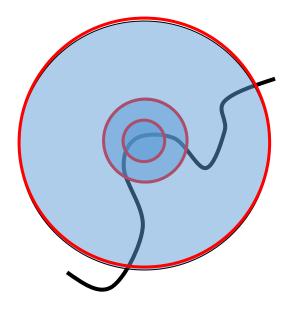


The parameter **s** determines the number of images per octave.



Scale invariant detection

Suppose you're looking for corners



Key idea: find scale that gives local maximum of f

- f is a local maximum in both position and scale
- Common definition of f: Laplacian
 (or difference between two Gaussian filtered images with different sigmas)

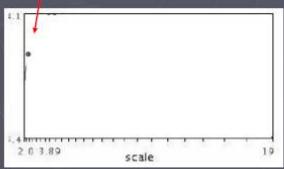


Electronics Engineer

Automatic scale selection

Lindeberg et al., 1996



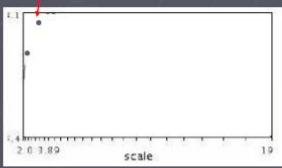


 $f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x,\sigma))$





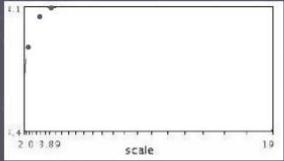




$$f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x,\sigma))$$



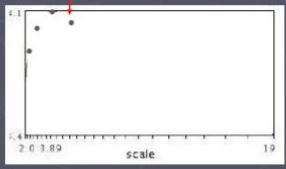




$$f(I_{i_1...i_m}(x,\sigma))$$



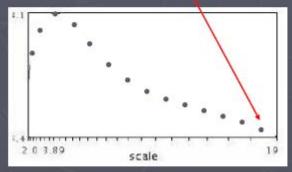




$$f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x,\sigma))$$



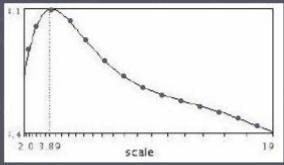




$$f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x,\sigma))$$

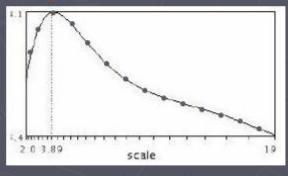


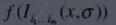




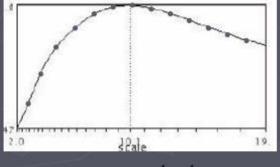










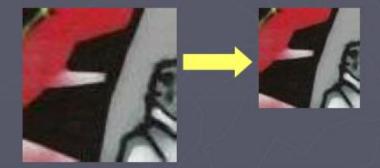


$$f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x',\sigma'))$$



Normalize: rescale to fixed size





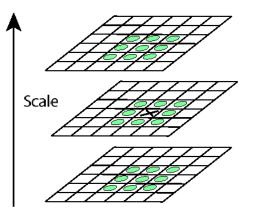


2. Key point localization

 Detect maxima and minima of difference-of-Gaussian in scale space

Each point is compared to its 8
neighbors in the current image
and 9 neighbors each in the
scales above and below

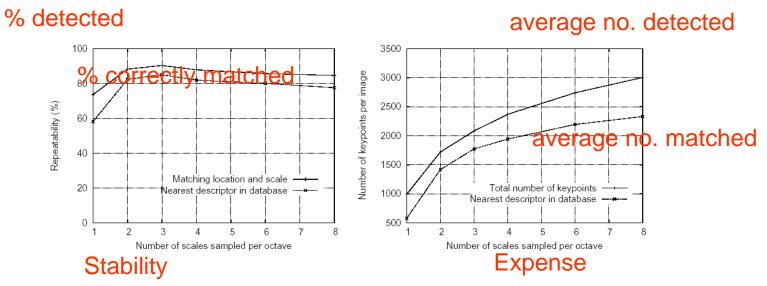
s+2 difference images. top and bottom ignored. s planes searched.



For each max or min found, output is the **location** and the **scale**.



Scale-space extrema detection: experimental results over 32 images that 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

Keypoint localization

- Once a keypoint candidate is found, perform a detailed fit to nearby data to determine
 - location, scale, and ratio of principal curvatures
- In initial work, keypoints were found at location and scale of a central sample point.
- In newer work, they fit a 3D quadratic function to improve interpolation accuracy.
- The Hessian matrix was used to eliminate edge responses.



Eliminating the Edge Response

- Reject flats:
 - $|D(\hat{\mathbf{x}})|$: 0.03
- Reject edges:

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{xx} & D_{xy} \\ D_{xy} & D_{yy} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{H} = \left| egin{array}{cc} D_{xx} & D_{xy} \\ D_{xy} & D_{yy} \end{array} \right| \left| egin{array}{cc} \operatorname{Let} \ \alpha \ \ \text{be the eigenvalue with} \\ \operatorname{larger magnitude and} \ \beta \ \ \text{the smaller.} \end{array} \right|$

$$Tr(\mathbf{H}) = D_{xx} + D_{yy} = \alpha + \beta,$$

$$Det(\mathbf{H}) = D_{xx}D_{yy} - (D_{xy})^2 = \alpha\beta.$$

Let
$$r = \alpha/\beta$$
.
So $\alpha = r\beta$

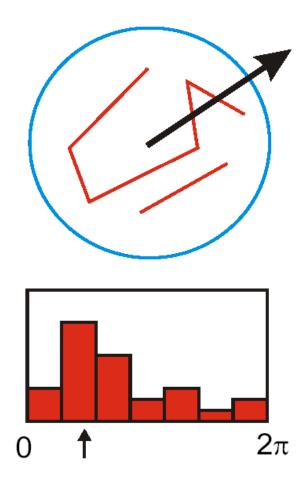
$$\frac{\operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{H})^2}{\operatorname{Det}(\mathbf{H})} = \frac{(\alpha + \beta)^2}{\alpha\beta} = \frac{(r\beta + \beta)^2}{r\beta^2} = \frac{(r+1)^2}{r}, \quad \text{(r+1)}^2/r \text{ is at a min when the}$$

2 eigenvalues are equal.

r < 10

What does this look like?

3. Orientation assignment

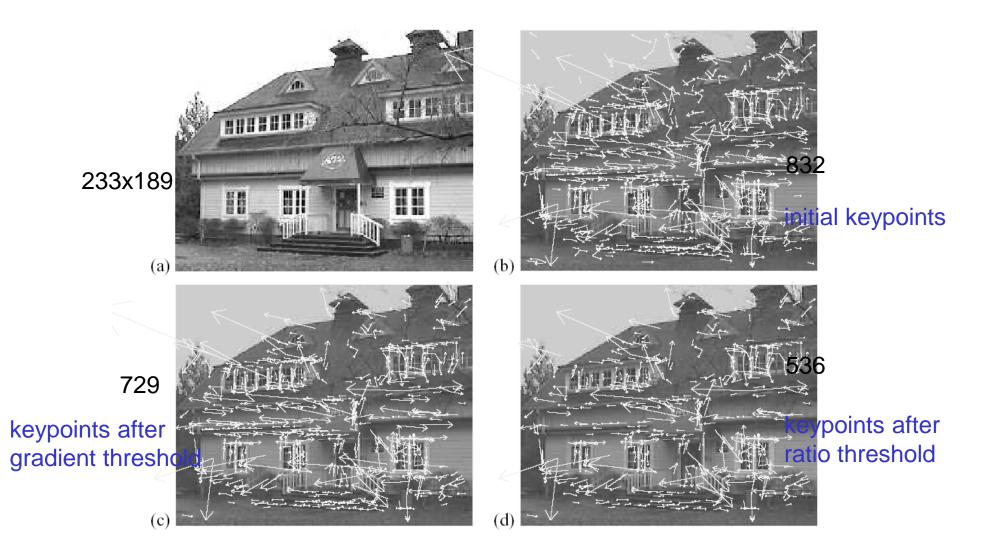


- Create histogram of local gradient directions at selected scale
- Assign canonical orientation at p eak of smoothed histogram
- Each key specifies stable 2D coor dinates (x, y, scale, orientation)

If 2 major orientations, use both.



Keypoint localization with orientation



4. Keypoint Descriptors

- 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

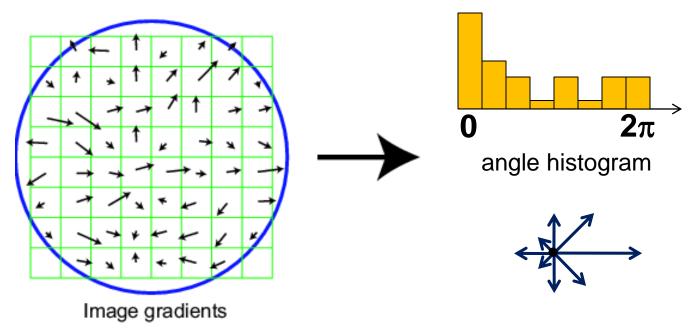
Rotate the window to standard orientation

Scale the window size based on the scale at which the point was found.

Scale Invariant Feature Transform

Basic idea:

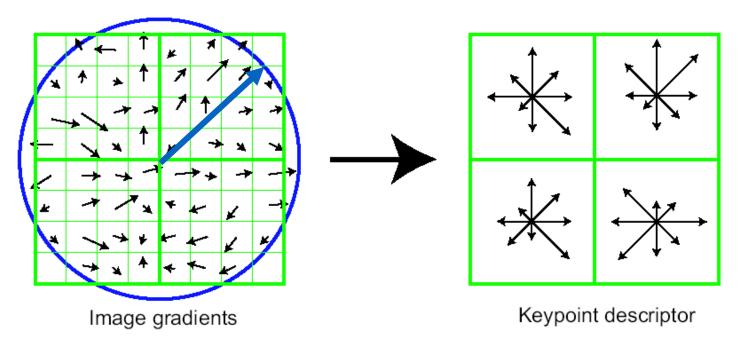
- Take 16x16 square window around detected feature
- Compute edge orientation (angle of the gradient 90°) for each pixel
- Throw out weak edges (threshold gradient magnitude)
- Create histogram of surviving edge orientations



Adapted from slide by David Lowe



Lowe's Keypoint Descriptor (shown with 2 X 2 descriptors over 8 X 8)



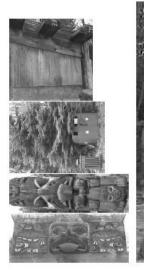
In experiments, 4x4 arrays of 8 bin histogram is used, a total of 128 features for one keypoint

Lowe's Keypoint Descriptor

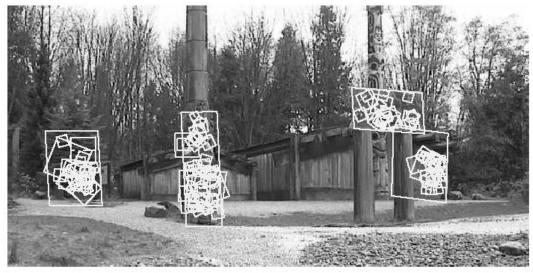
- use the normalized region about the keypoint
- compute gradient magnitude and orientation at each point in the region
- weight them by a Gaussian window overlaid on the circle
- create an orientation histogram over the 4 X 4 subregions of the window
- 4 X 4 descriptors over 16 X 16 sample array were used in practice. 4 X 4 times 8 directions gives a vector of 128 values.



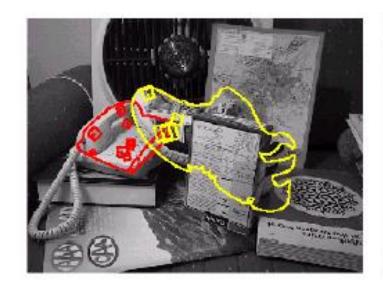
Using SIFT for Matching "Objects"

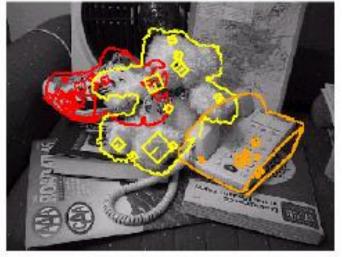






Using SIFT for Matching "Objects"





Uses for SIFT

- Feature points are used also for:
 - Image alignment (homography, fundamental matrix)
 - 3D reconstruction (e.g. Photo Tourism)
 - Motion tracking
 - Object recognition
 - Indexing and database retrieval
 - Robot navigation
 - ... many others



Corner Detection (Harris corner, FAST)

```
img = cv2.imread('../data/scenetext01.jpg', cv2.IMREAD_COLOR)
corners = cv2.cornerHarris(cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY), 2, 3, 0.04)
corners = cv2.dilate(corners, None)
show_img = np.copy(img)
show_img[corners\geq 0.1*corners.max()]=[0_{\star}0_{\star}255]
corners = cv2.normalize(corners, None, 0, 255, cv2.NORM MINMAX).astype(np.uint8)
show_img = np.hstack((show_img, cv2.cvtColor(corners, cv2.COLOR_GRAY2BGR)))
cv2.imshow('Harris corner detector', show_img)
    cv2.destroyAllWindows()
fast = cv2.FastFeatureDetector create(30, True, cv2.FAST FEATURE DETECTOR TYPE 9 16)
kp = fast.detect(img)
show_img = np.copy(img)
 for p in cv2.KeyPoint convert(kp):
    cv2.circle(show_img, tuple(p), 2, (0, 255, 0), cv2.FILLED)
cv2.imshow('FAST corner detector', show img)
 if cv2.waitKey(0) == 27:
    cv2.destroyAllWindows()
fast.setNonmaxSuppression(False)
kp = fast.detect(img)
 for p in cv2.KeyPoint_convert(kp):
    cv2.circle(show_img, tuple(p), 2, (0, 255, 0), cv2.FILLED)
cv2.imshow('FAST corner detector', show img)
    cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```



Corner Detection (Good Feature to Track)

```
R=min(\lambda_1,\lambda_2)
```

```
import cv2
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

img = cv2.imread('../data/Lena.png', cv2.IMREAD_GRAYSCALE)

corners = cv2.goodFeaturesToTrack(img, 100, 0.05, 10)

for c in corners:
    x, y = c[0]
    cv2.circle(img, (x, y), 5, 255, -1)
    plt.figure(figsize=(10, 10))
    plt.imshow(img, cmap='gray')
    plt.tight_layout()
    plt.show()
```



Draw Keypoints, Descriptors, and Matches

```
mport random
img = cv2.imread('.../data/scenetext01.jpg', cv2.IMREAD_COLOR)
fast = cv2.FastFeatureDetector create(160, True, cv2.FAST FEATURE DETECTOR TYPE 9 16)
keyPoints = fast.detect(img)
 for kp in keyPoints:
   kp.size = 100*random.random()
   kp.angle = 360*random.random()
matches = []
 For i in range(len(keyPoints)):
   matches.append(cv2.DMatch(i, i, 1))
show_img = cv2.drawKeypoints(img, keyPoints, None, (255, 0, 255))
cv2.imshow('Keypoints', show_img)
cv2.waitKey()
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
show img = cv2.drawKeypoints(img, keyPoints, None, (0, 255, 0),
                             cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS)
cv2.imshow('Keypoints', show_img)
cv2.waitKey()
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
show img = cv2.drawMatches(img, keyPoints, img, keyPoints, matches, None,
                           flags=cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS)
cv2.imshow('Matches', show_img)
cv2.waitKey()
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```



Detecting scale invariant keypoints

```
import cv2
import numpy as np
img0 = cv2.imread('.../data/Lena.png', cv2.IMREAD_COLOR)
img1 = cv2.imread('../data/Lena_rotated.png', cv2.IMREAD_COLOR)
img1 = cv2.resize(img1, None, fx=0.75, fy=0.75)
img1 = np.pad(img1, ((64,)*2, (64,)*2, (0,)*2), 'constant', constant values=0)
imgs list = [img0, img1]
detector = cv2.xfeatures2d.SIFT_create(50)
for i in range(len(imgs_list)):
    keypoints, descriptors = detector.detectAndCompute(imgs_list[i], None)
    imgs_list[i] = cv2.drawKeypoints(imgs_list[i], keypoints, None, (0, 255, 0),
                                     flags=cv2.DRAW_MATCHES_FLAGS_DRAW_RICH_KEYPOINTS)
cv2.imshow('SIFT keypoints', np.hstack(imgs_list))
cv2.waitKey()
cv2.destroyAllWindows()
```

