

Computer Vision 1

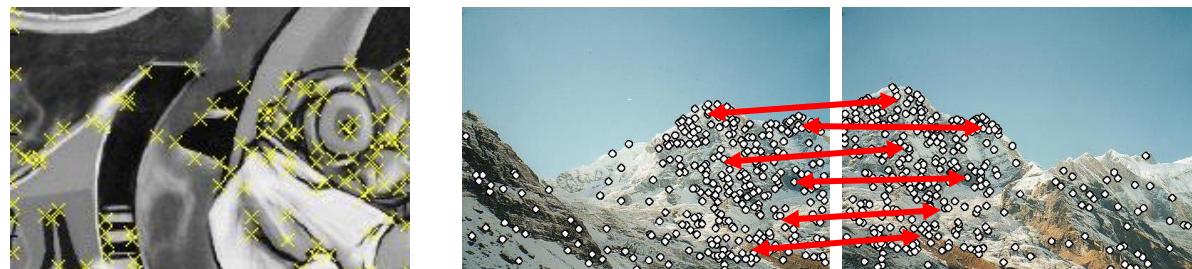
HC3a

Local Features Edges, Lines, Corners

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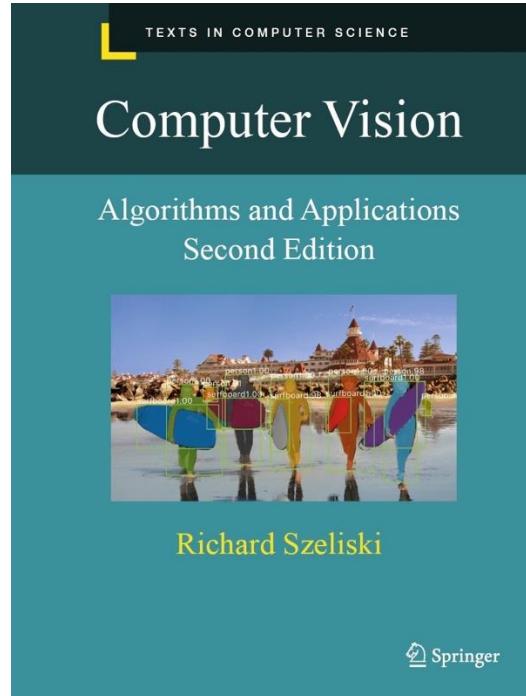
Outline

- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Line Fitting
 - Least Squares
 - RANSAC
 - Hough Transform
- Corners
 - Harris Corners
 - SIFT
 - Applications



Textbook

- Sec. 7.2
- Sec. 7.4
- Sec. 7.1



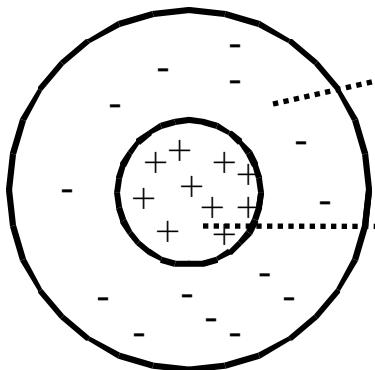
Richard Szeliski

Springer

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Ganglion Cell – Week 1 Refresher



On-Center
Ganglion Cell

Inhibitory
(-) region

Excitatory
(+) region

When illuminated ...

- ... **reduces** cell's output
(think: Contribute **negatively**)
- ... **increases** cell's output
(think: Contribute **positively**)

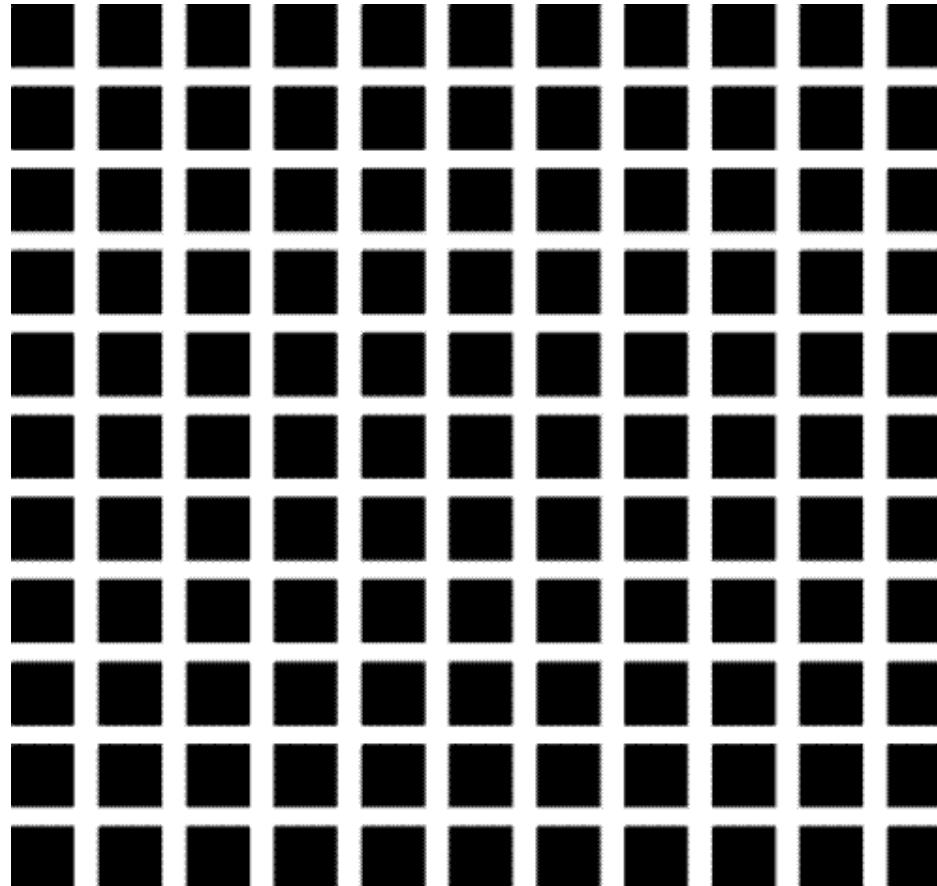
Total output:
Compute **Net Signal**

Ganglion Cells – Illusion – Hermann Grid

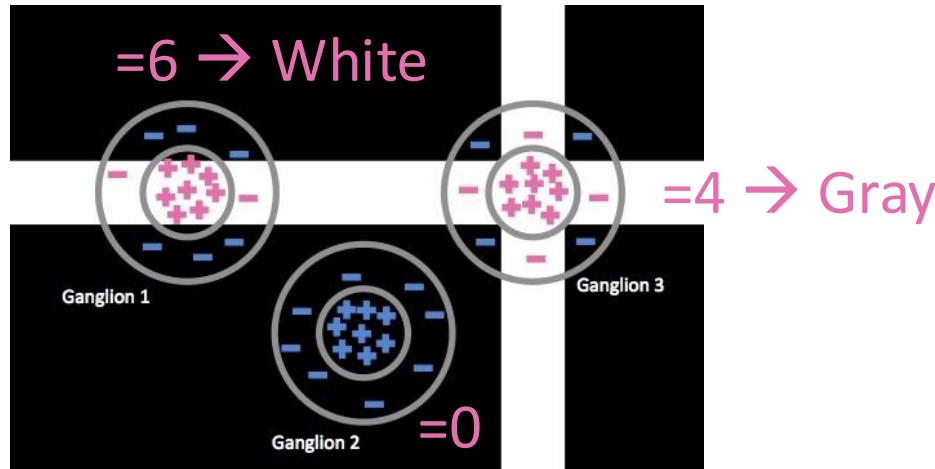
White grid on
black background

Illusion

Faint **grey** spots @
intersections
in **peripheral** areas!



Ganglion Cells – Illusion – Hermann Grid

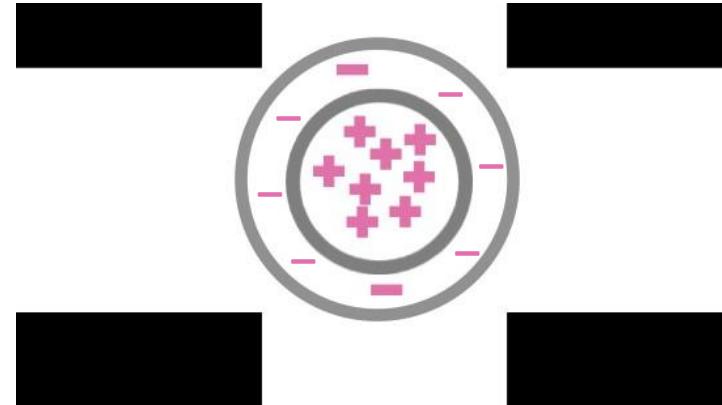


Illusion – Grey spots @ peripheral intersections

Pink → Inputs **stimulated** by light

Blue → Inputs that **not stimulated**

Compute **net signal** between activated + and -

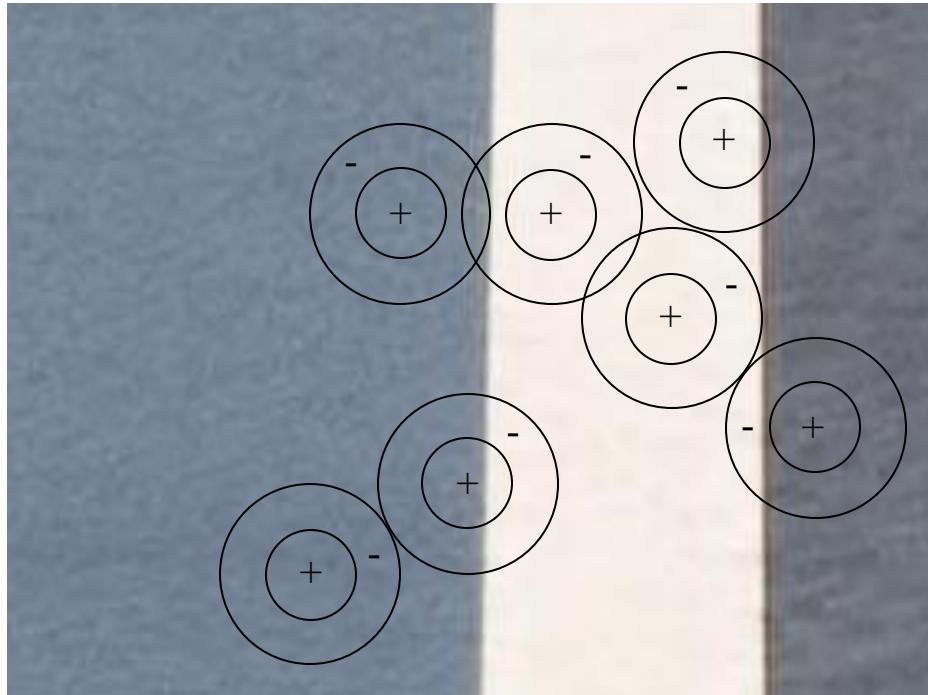


Illusion **disappears** for intersection we directly look at!

Fovea → Receptive fields smaller
→ Cells @ intersection no longer surrounded by inhibitory components of grid

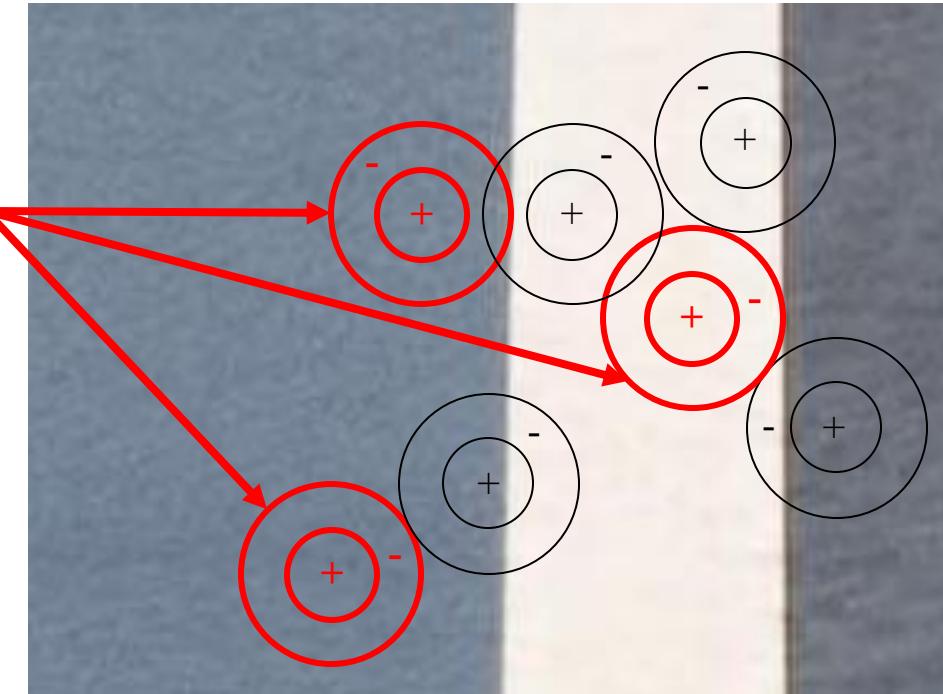


Ganglion Cells – Responses

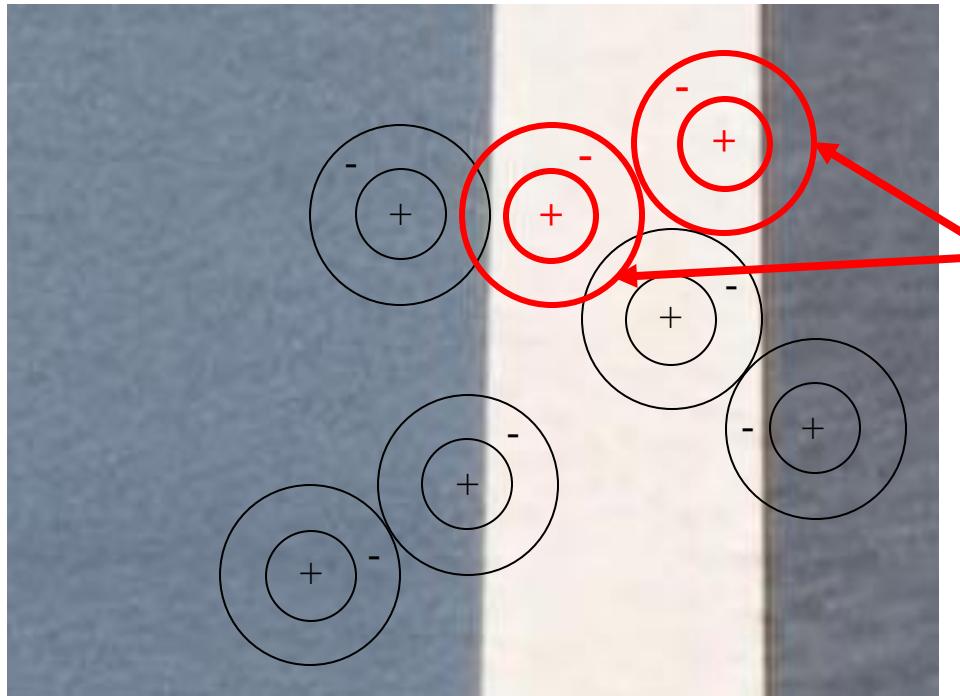


Ganglion Cells – Responses

Illuminated: Uniform
Response: Low

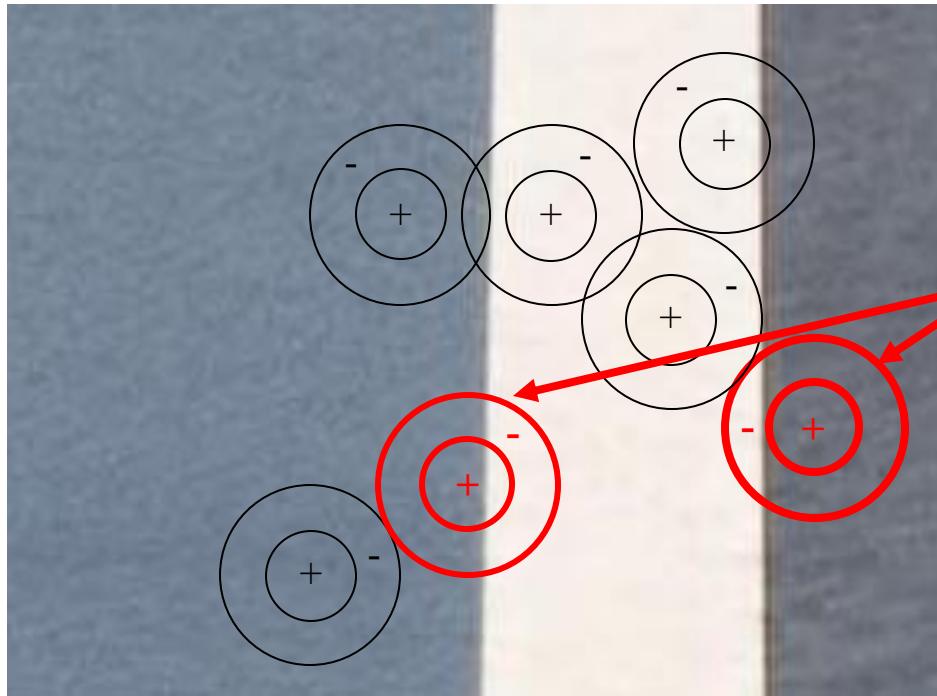


Ganglion Cells – Responses



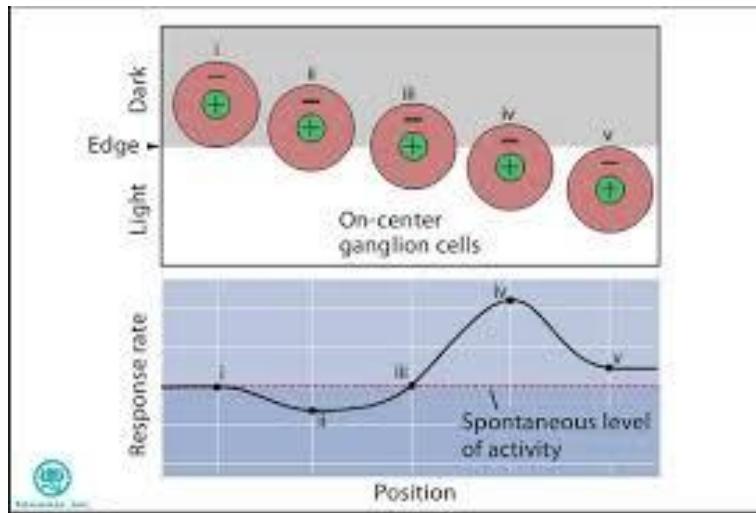
+ Illuminated: Full
- Illuminated: Partial
Response: High

Ganglion Cells – Responses



+ Illuminated: ~None
- Illuminated: Partial
Response: Low
(maybe negative)

Ganglion Cell – Responses



Ganglion Cells – Key Take-Away

Input image
(cornea)

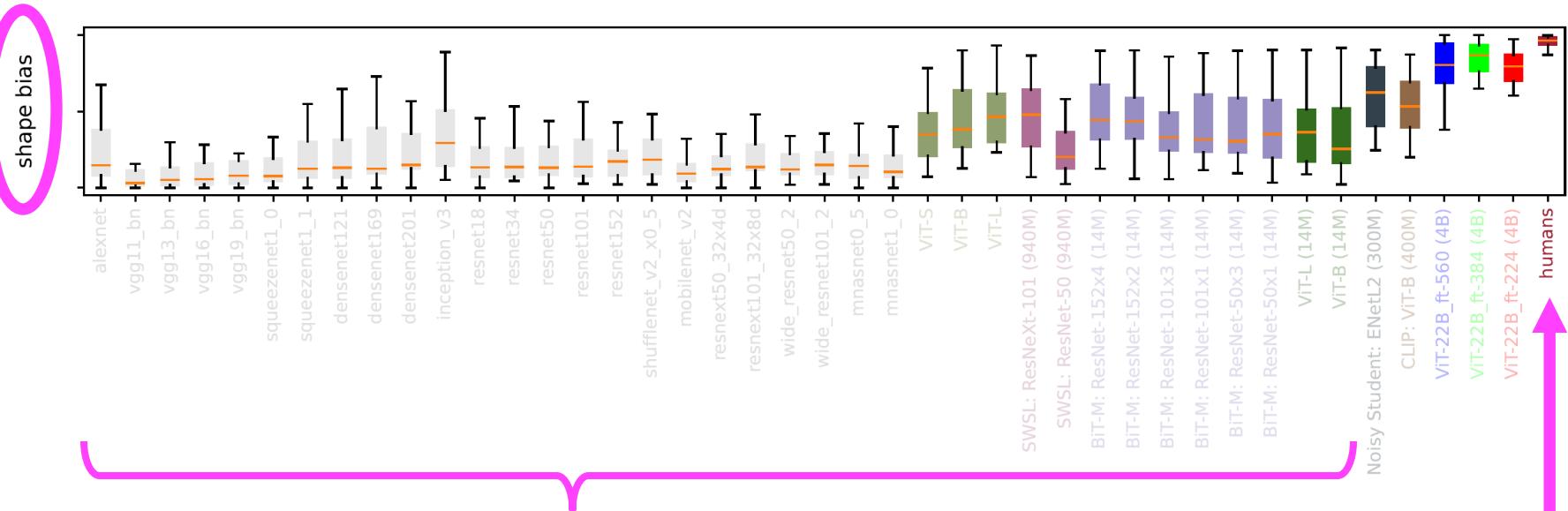


“Neural image”
(retinal ganglion cells)



Ganglion cells respond to **edges**

Human Perception – Bias towards Shape



Most Computer Vision models:

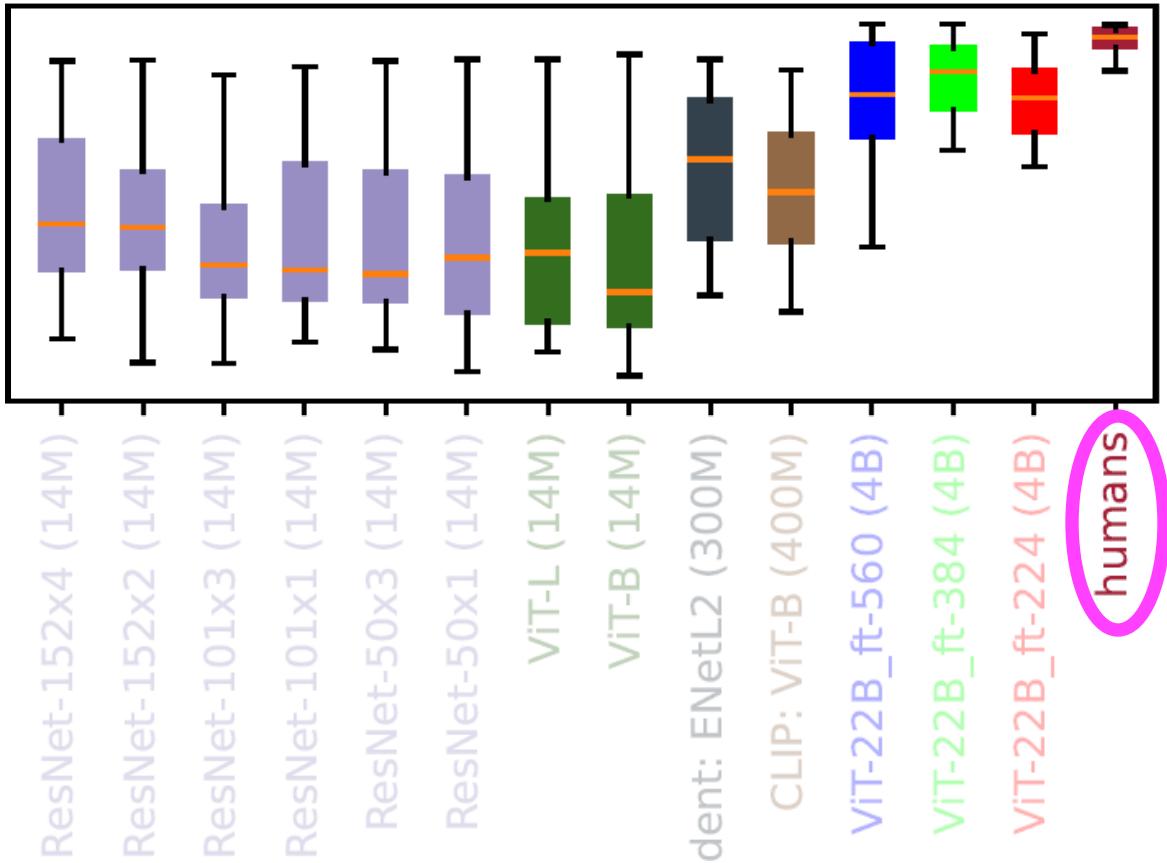
- High bias towards Texture
- Low bias towards Shape

Human perception
is biased towards
Shape

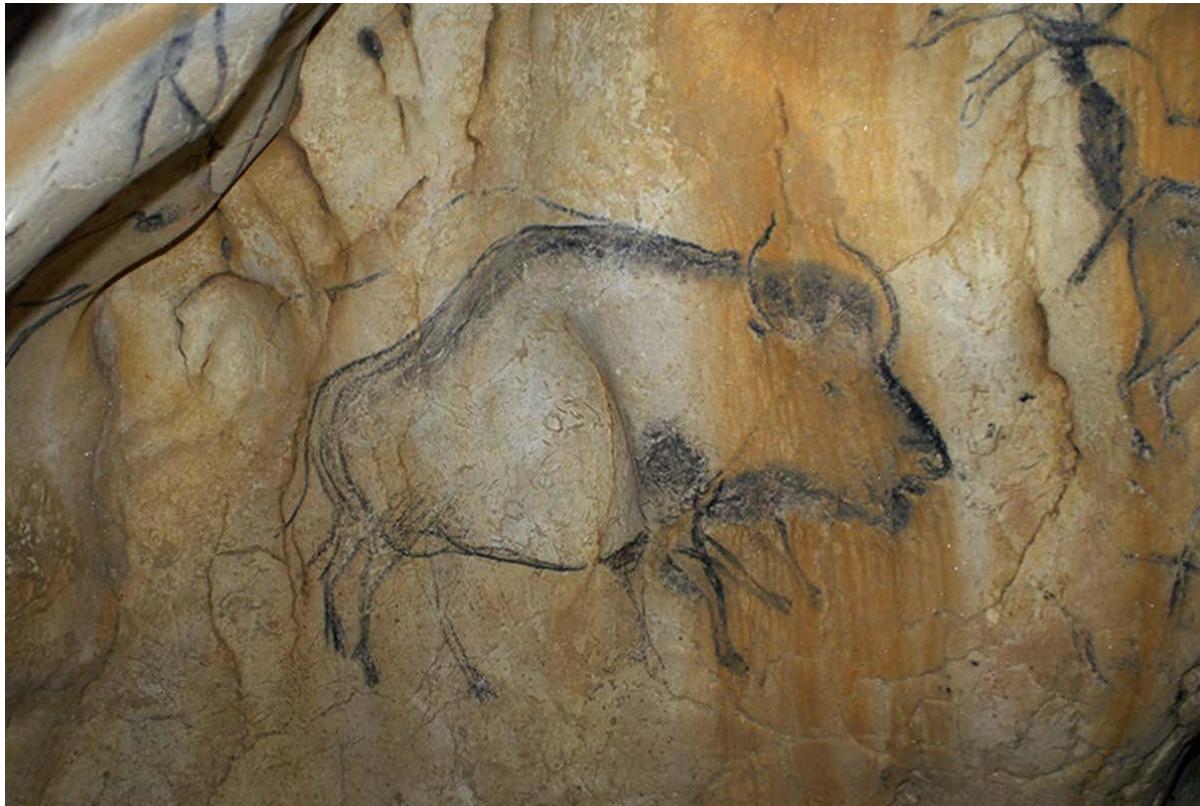
Human Perception – Bias towards Shape

CVN

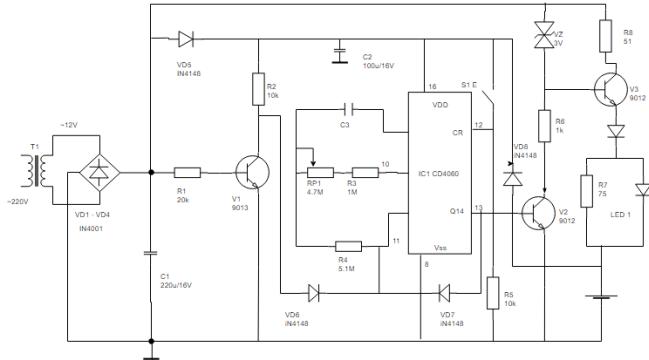
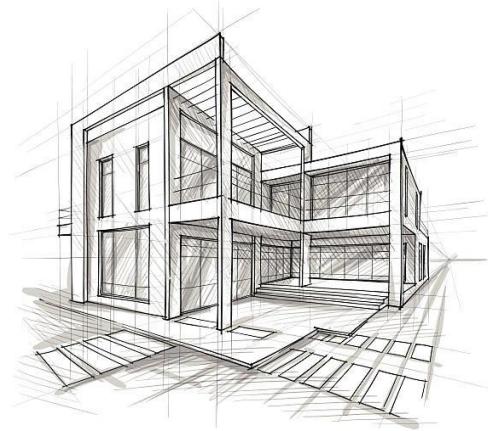
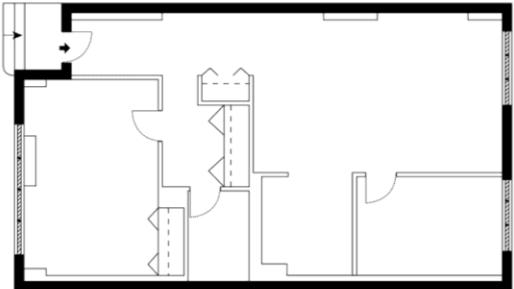
Big 'gap' between
• Humans
• Computer Vision



Early Edge Drawings

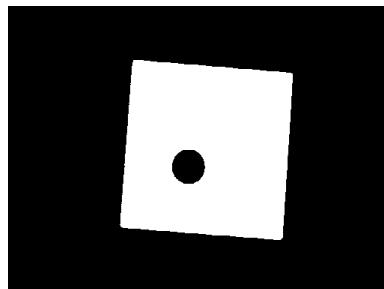


Typical Edge Drawings

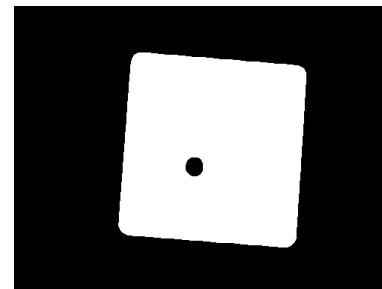


Edge Detection – Naive Way

1. Dilate input image
2. Subtract the input image from the dilated one
3. Edges arise!

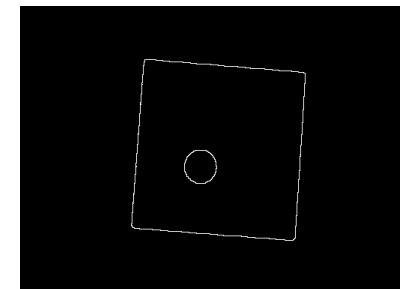


Input Image



Dilated Image

(exaggerated for
visualization purposes)

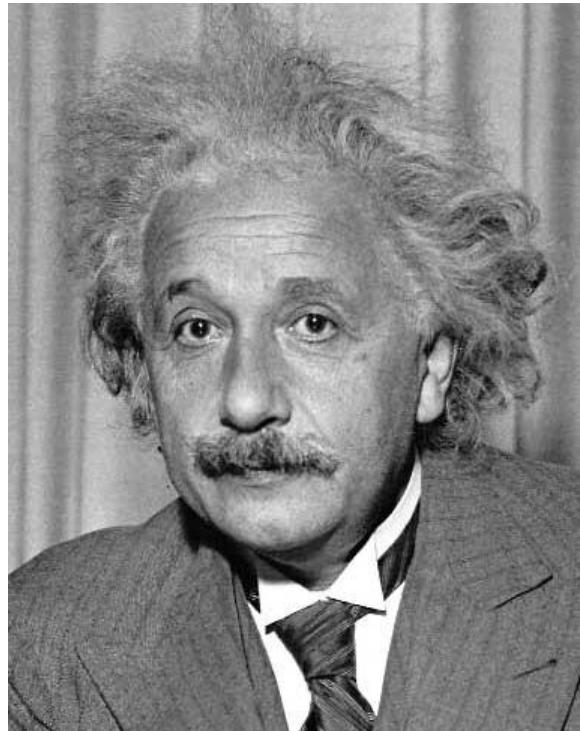


Edges

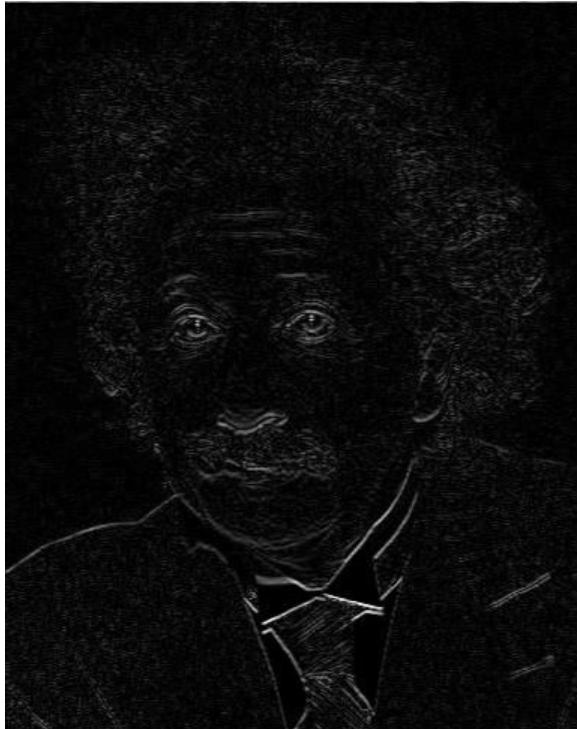
image ‘arithmetics’:

`Edges = dilated - input_img`

Derivative Filters



Sobel

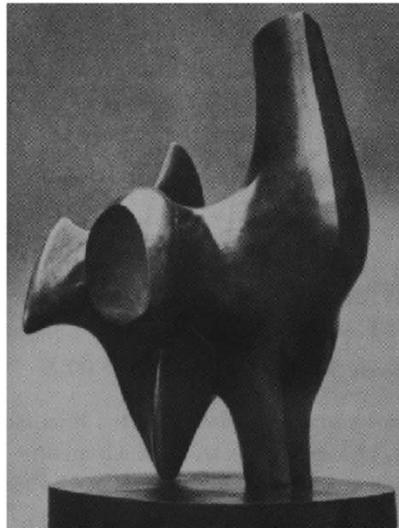


Horizontal Edges
(absolute value)

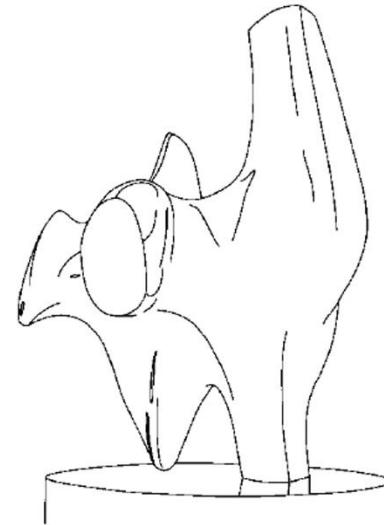
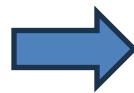
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Edge Detection



Input



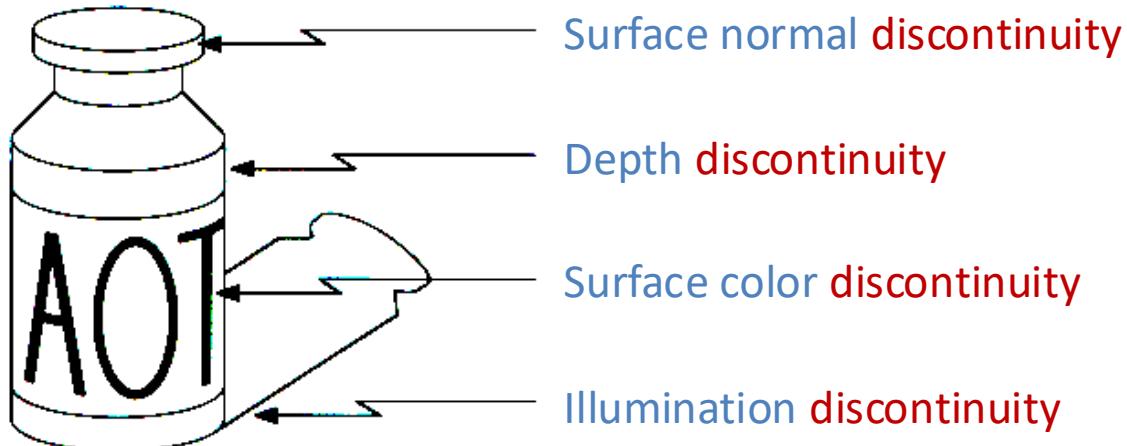
Output

Convert **2D image** → **Set of curves**

- Extracts **salient features** of the scene
- More **compact** than pixels

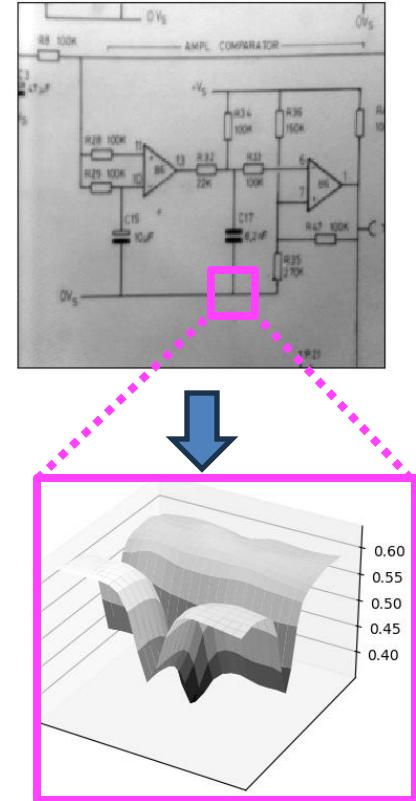
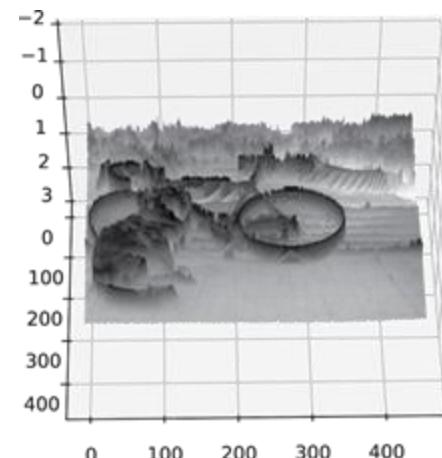
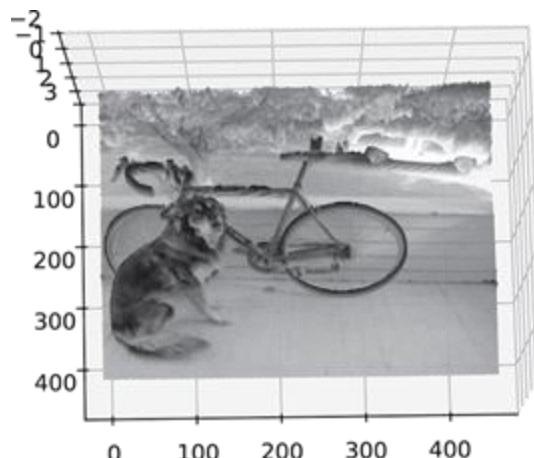
Edges – Origin

Caused by various factors:



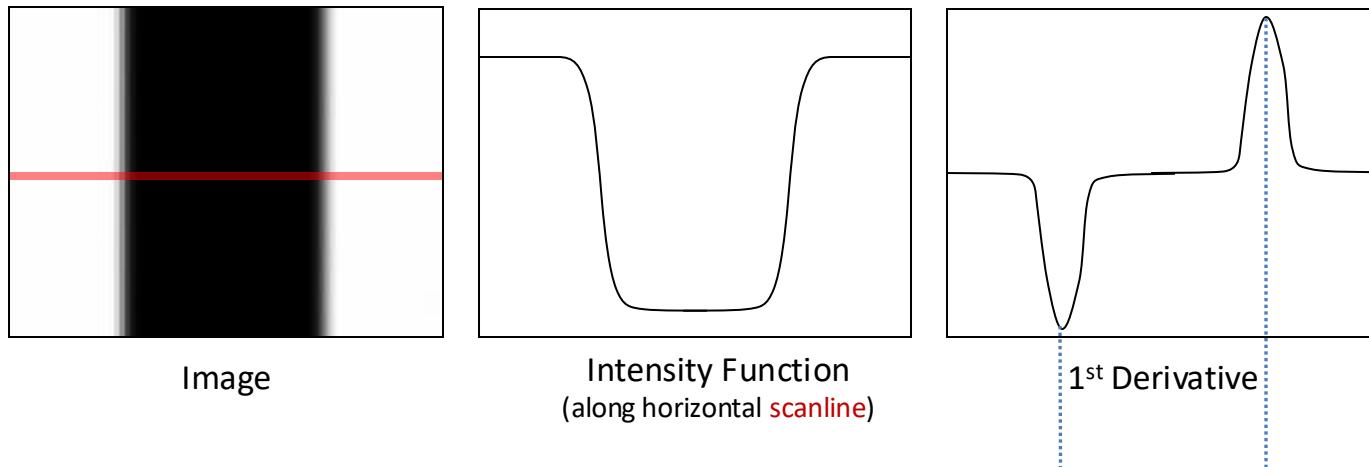
What is an Edge?

- Image is a **function**
- Think of the gray tones as **HEIGHTS**
- **Edges** are **rapid changes** – look like **steep cliffs**



Edge Detection – 1D Function

Edge → A place of **rapid change** in image intensity function



Edges correspond to Extrema of Derivative



Image Derivatives

How can we differentiate a *digital* image $F[x,y]$?

- **Option 1** ☹ :

- First, reconstruct a *continuous* image, f
- Then, compute the *derivative*

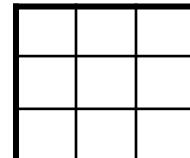
- **Option 2** ☺ :

- Take **discrete derivative** (finite difference):

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}[x, y] \approx F[x + 1, y] - F[x, y]$$

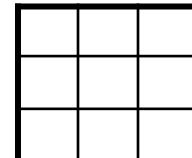
How would you implement this as a *linear filter*?

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}:$$



$$H_x$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}:$$



$$H_y$$

Image Gradient

Image Gradient: $\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$

Gradient → Points in **direction** of
most rapid increase
in image intensity



$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, 0 \right]$$

$$\nabla f = \left[0, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$$

$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right]$$

Edge **strength** → **Gradient magnitude**:

$$\|\nabla f\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2}$$

Gradient direction: $\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} / \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$

Image Gradients

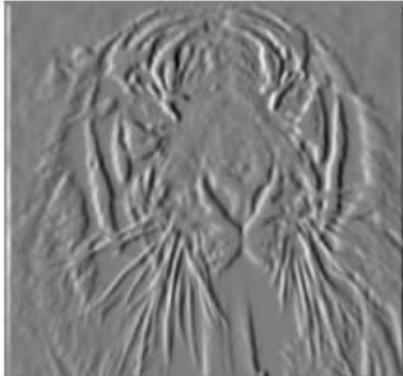
Image



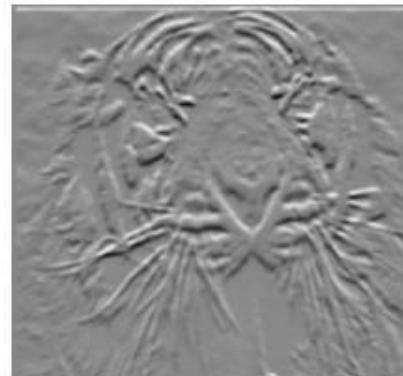
Gradient
Magnitude



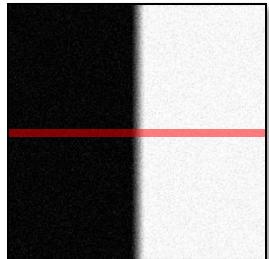
X-direction
Gradients



Y-direction
Gradients



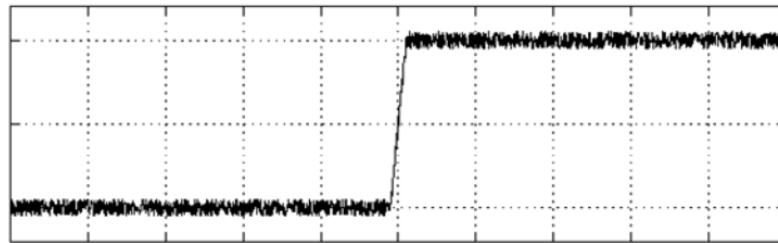
Effect of Noise



Noisy image

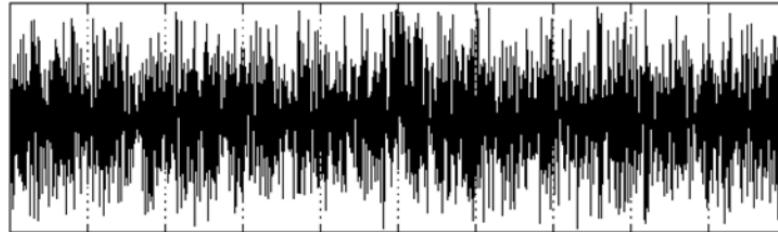


$f(x)$



Where is
the edge?

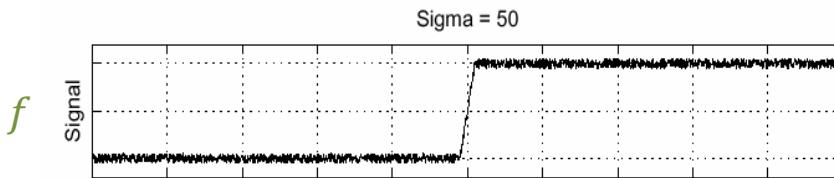
$$\frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$



Derivation
amplifies noise
(like a high-pass filter)

Solution – Pre-smooth Image

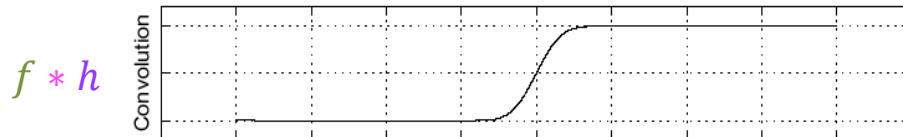
Noisy image



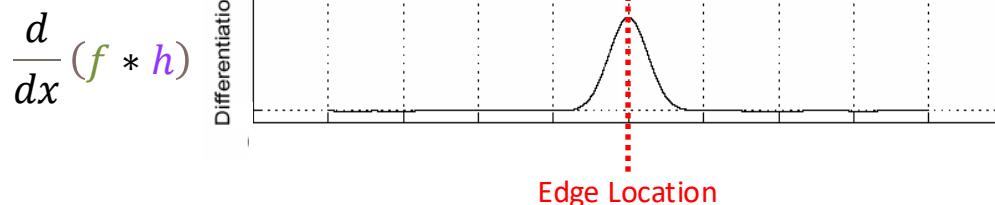
Smoothing w. Gaussian kernel



Convolve to smoothen



Differentiate & find extrema



To find edges, find peaks in $\frac{d}{dx} (f * h)$

But these are
3 steps



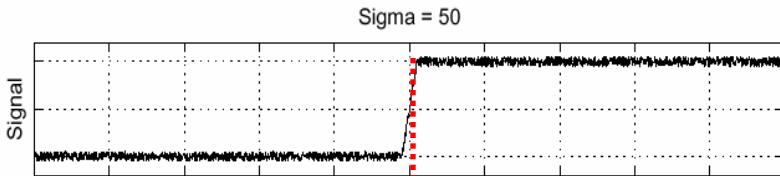
And we must
differentiate
every time



Pre-smooth & Pre-Differentiate

Noisy image

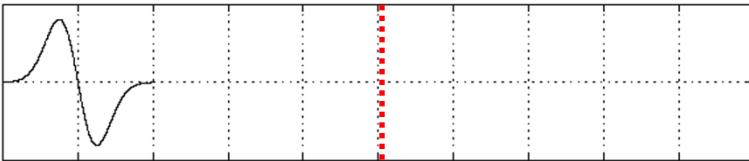
f



Differentiate kernel offline
(only once)

$\frac{dh}{dx}$

Kernel



Online convolution h
pre-diff kernel

$f * \frac{dh}{dx}$

Convolution

Edge Location

Convolution is
Associative!

$$\frac{d}{dx} (f * h) = f * \frac{dh}{dx}$$



To find edges,
find peaks in $f * \frac{dh}{dx}$



1 step less online!
Remaining step is cheaper!

Differentiating
Gaussian kernel h :

- Is exact – Compute first analytically, and later discretize
- Do it offline, only once

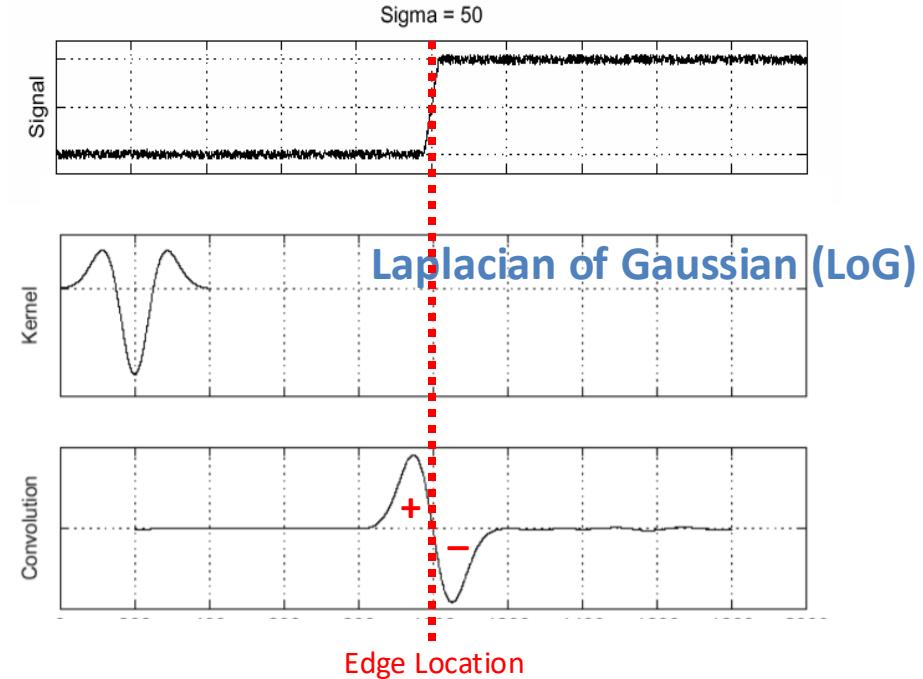


Extra Robustness

Edge as **zero-crossing**
of 2nd order derivative using
Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG)



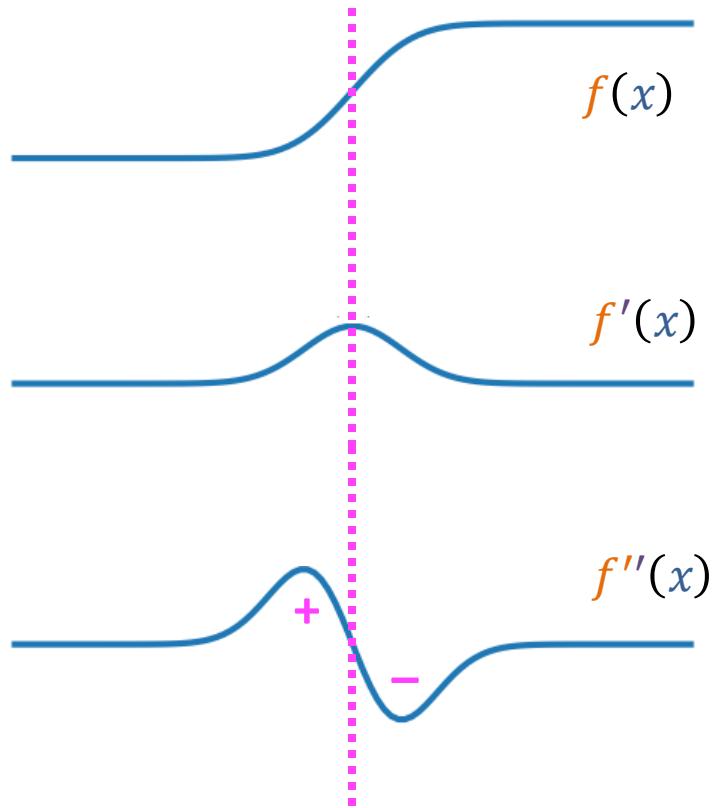
$$f * \left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2} h \right)$$



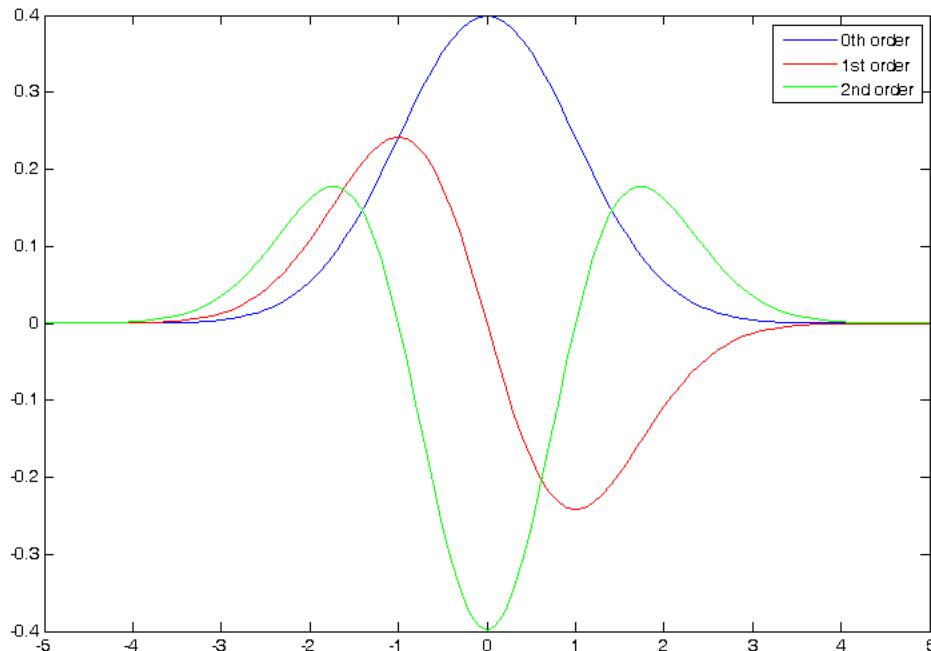
Extra Robustness

Extra robustness → Add a second condition!

- Ideal case
 - **1st order** derivative: local extremum $|f'(x)| \gg 0$
 - **2nd order** derivative is 0 $f''(x) \approx 0$
- Discrete signal in practice:
 - **1st order** derivative: local extremum
 - **2nd order** crosses 0 → consider left/right samples!



1D Gaussian & Derivatives



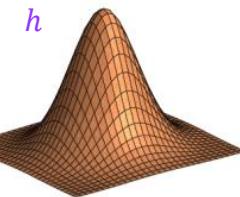
$$h_\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$h'_\sigma(x) = \frac{d}{dx} h_\sigma(x) = -\frac{x}{\sigma^2} h_\sigma(x)$$

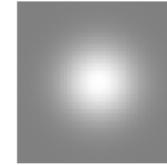
$$h''_\sigma(x) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} h_\sigma(x) = \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma^4} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) h_\sigma(x)$$

2D Gaussian & Derivatives

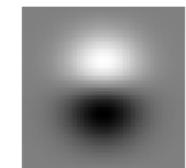
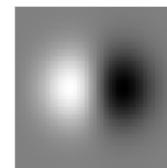
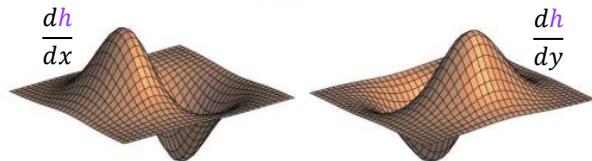
Gaussian kernel



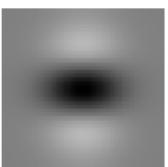
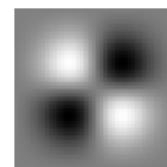
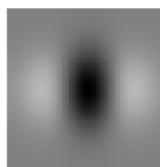
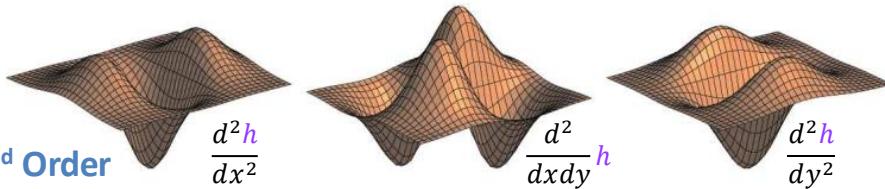
Height along 'z' re-encoded
as bright/dark value



1st Order Derivatives



2nd Order Derivatives

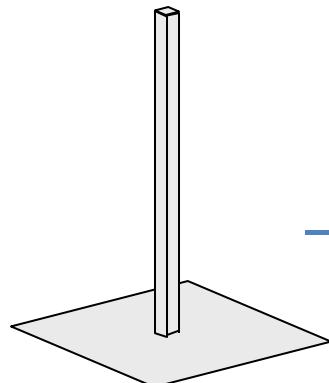


Laplacian

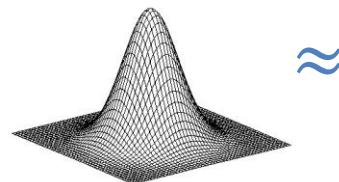
$$\nabla^2 h = \frac{d^2 h}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 h}{dy^2}$$

Difference of Gaussians (DoG)

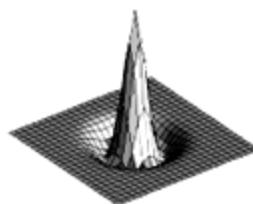
- Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) can be approximated as Difference of Gaussians (DoG)
- Spoiler: Used later today for SIFT keypoints



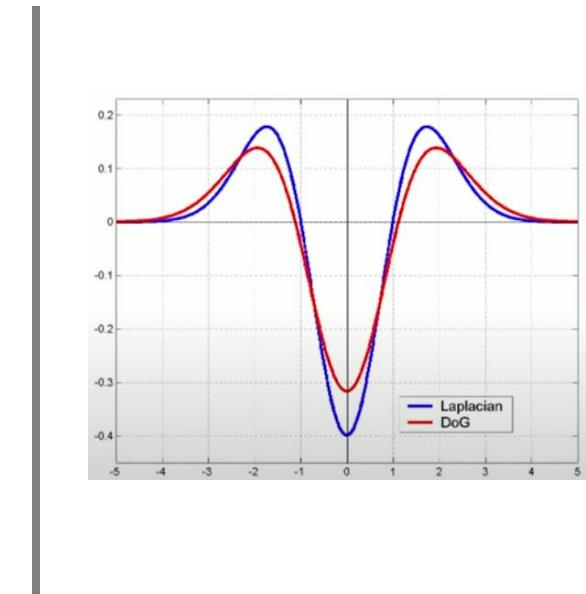
A narrow Gaussian
(or an impulse function)



A wide Gaussian



Laplacian of
Gaussian (LoG)

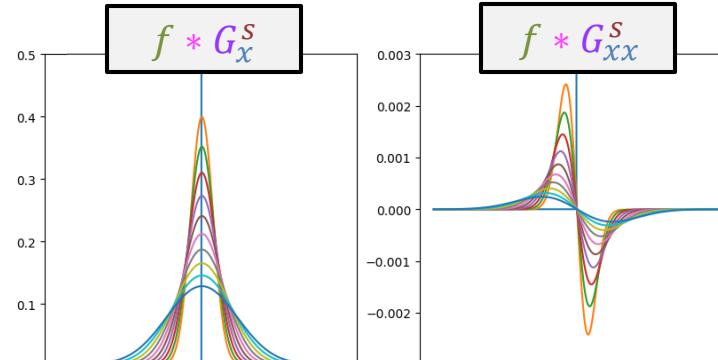


Gaussian Derivatives & Scale

Example for Step Function f

f
$s = 10.00$
$s = 11.36$
$s = 12.92$
$s = 14.68$
$s = 16.68$
$s = 18.96$
$s = 21.54$
$s = 24.48$
$s = 27.83$
$s = 31.62$

1st order

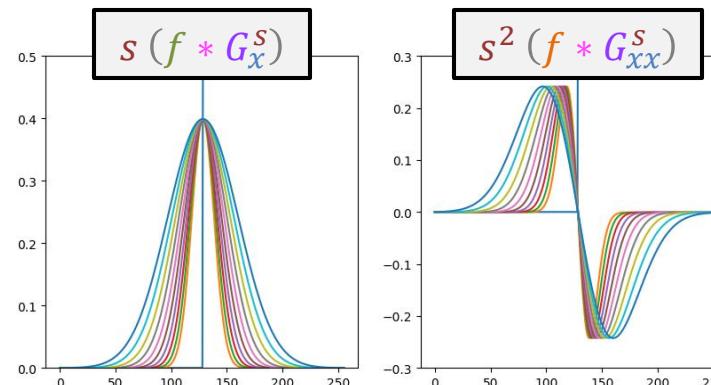


2nd order

Amplitude decreases
as scale increases



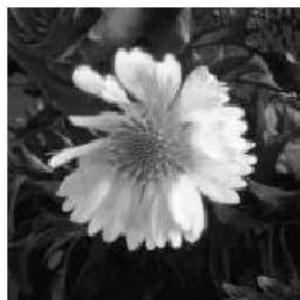
Comparing derivatives
across scales → problem!



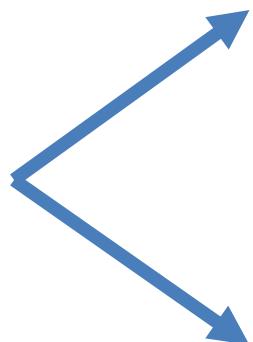
← Scale-normalized
Derivatives
 k -th order

$$s^k(f^0 * \partial^k \dots G^s)$$

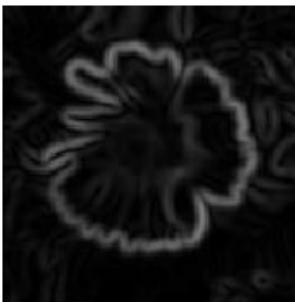
Gaussian Derivatives & Scale



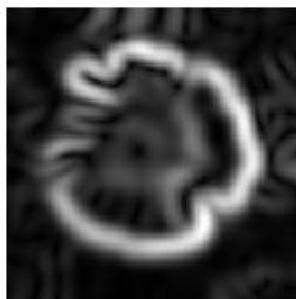
Gradient
norm →



$s = 1.00$ $s = 2.15$ $s = 4.64$ $s = 10.00$



Scale-normalized
Gradient norm →

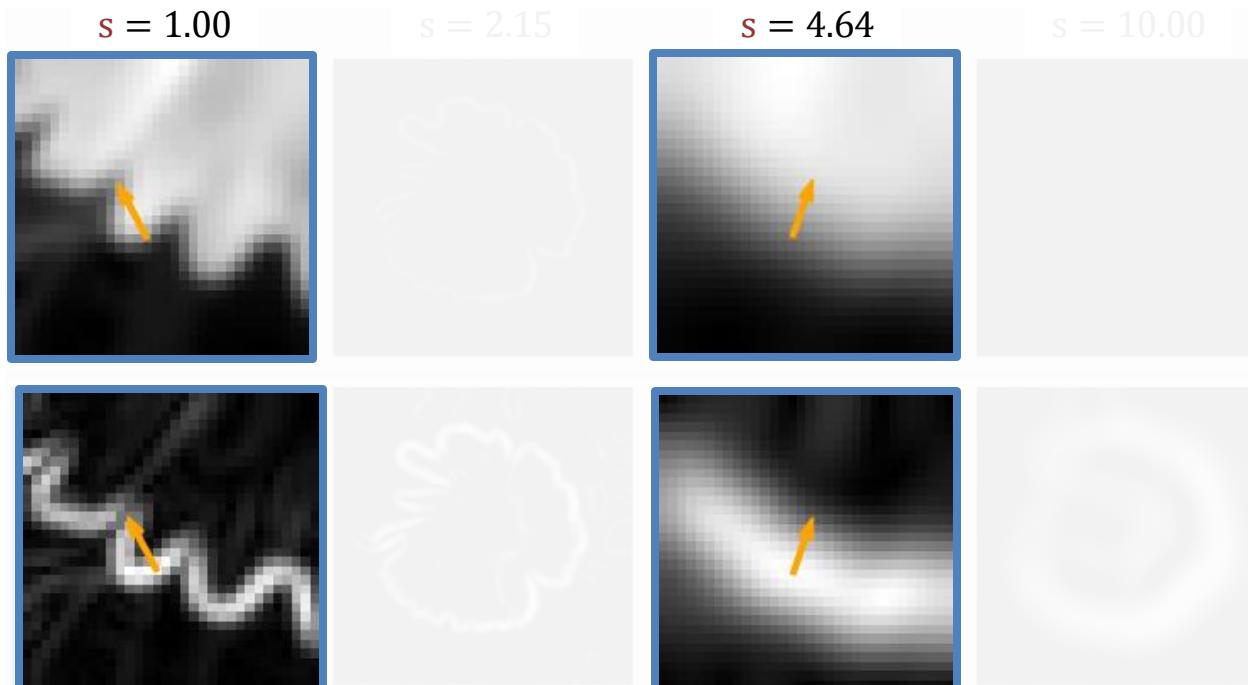


$$s^k (f^0 * \partial^k \dots G^s)$$

Gaussian Derivatives & Scale



Image in
scale space →



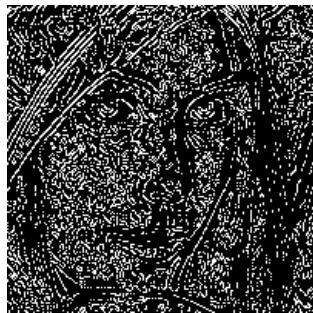
Scale-normalized
Gradient norm →

$$s^k(f^0 * \partial^k \dots G^s)$$

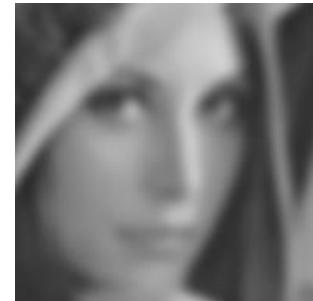
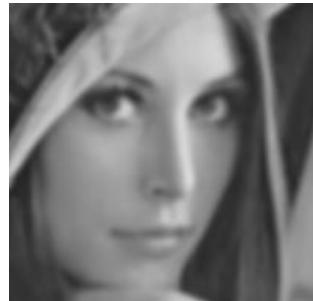
⚠️ Gradient at each point → depends on **scale** of Gaussian conv ⚠️

Change of Sigma

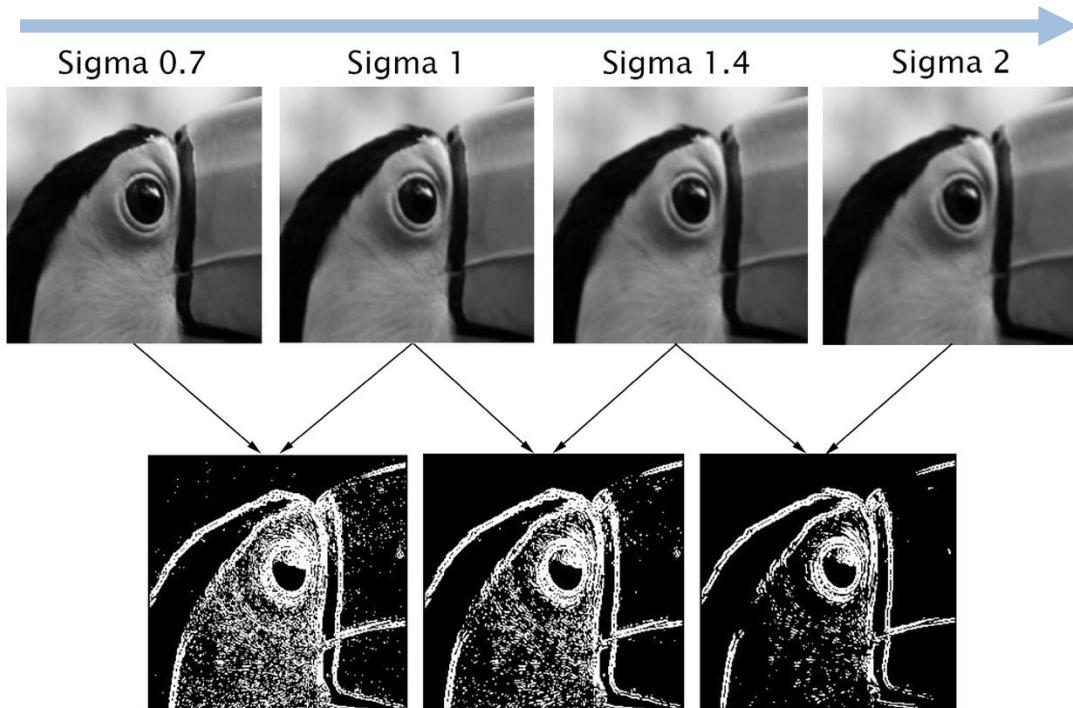
Small
Sigma



Large
Sigma



Change of Sigma – DoG



Difference of Gaussians (DoG)

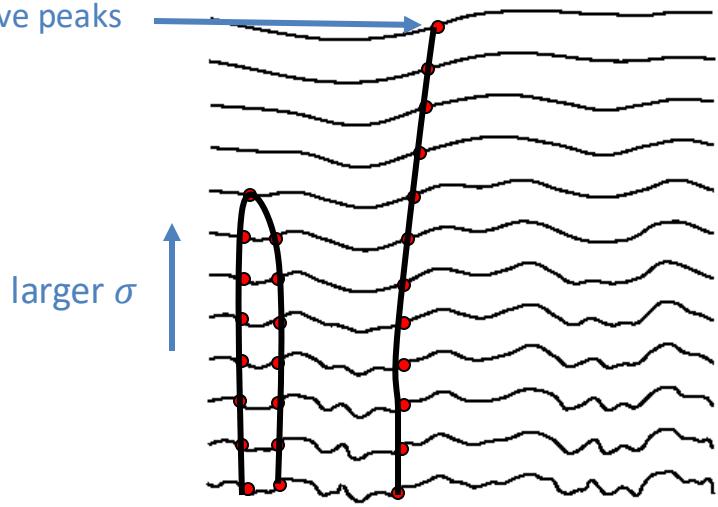
Blurring with bigger-sigma Gaussian suppresses high-frequency info

Subtracting preserves info in the range of frequencies preserved in blurred imgs

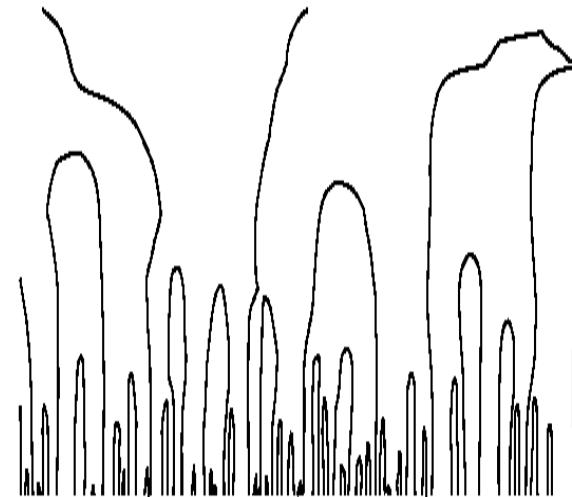
DoG acts as a spatial band-pass filter

Edges & Scale [Witkin 83]

1st derivative peaks



Gaussian-smoothed signal

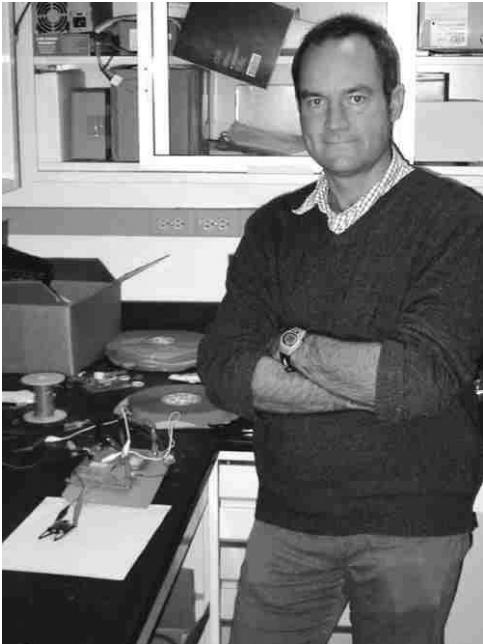


- When the scale σ increases:
 - Edge position may shift
 - Two edges may merge
 - An edge may *not* split into two

Outline

- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image, Derivatives of Gaussian
 - Canny Edge Detector
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 - Harris Corners
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Canny Edge Detector



[John Canny](#)



One of the most successful edge detection methods

Canny Edge Detector – Input Image



Image credit:
Joseph Redmon

Canny Edge Detector – Gradient Magnitude

CV

After first
pre-smoothing for
cleaner gradients
(Conv with DoG)

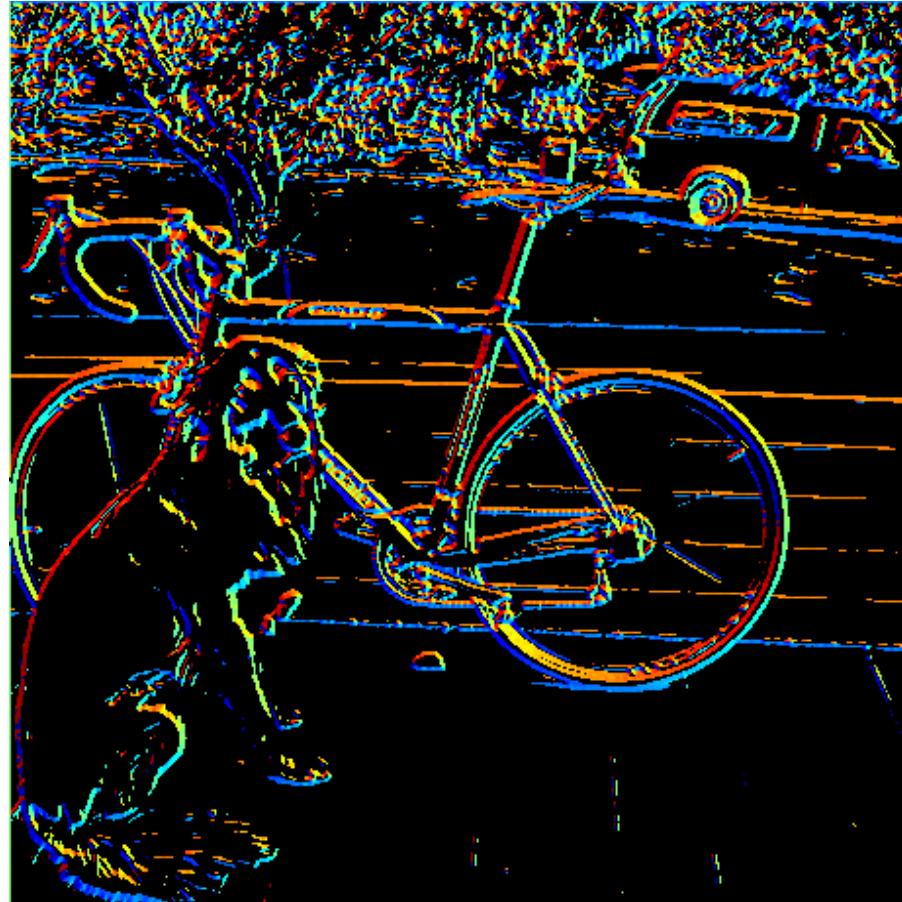


Where is the edge?

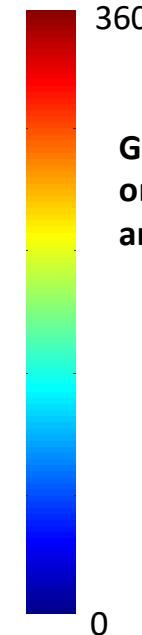
Canny Edge Detector – Gradient Orientation

CV

Get orientation
(threshold at minimum
gradient magnitude)



$$\theta = \text{atan2}(gy, gx)$$

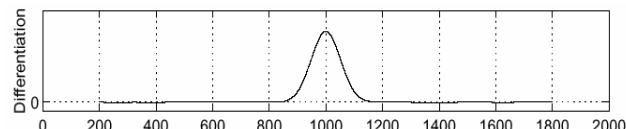
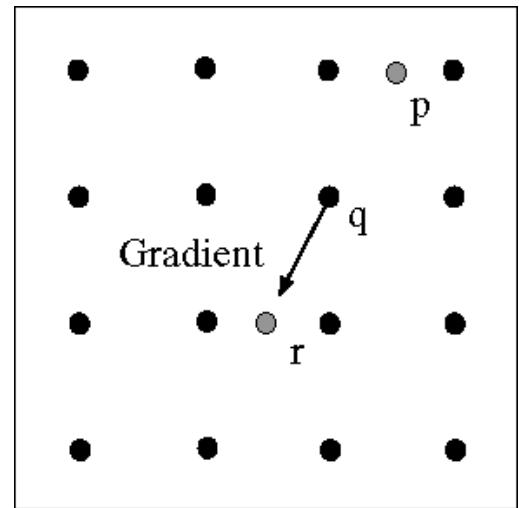
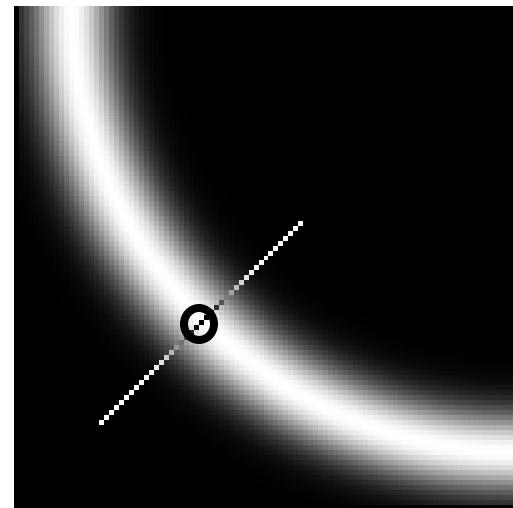


Gradient
orientation
angle

Canny Edge Detector – Non-Max Suppression

Check if pixel is **local maximum** along **gradient direction**

Requires **interpolating** pixels **p** and **r**



Canny Edge Detector – Non-Max Suppression



Before
Non-max Supr.



After
Non-max Supr.

Canny Edge Detector – Non-Max Suppression

CV

- Still, some **noise**
- Only want **strong** ‘edgels’
(edge pixels with value **R**)
- 2 thresholds **T** and **t**, 3 cases:
 - $R > T \rightarrow$ strong edge
 - $t < R < T \rightarrow$ weak edge
 - $R < t \rightarrow$ no edge
- Why two thresholds?



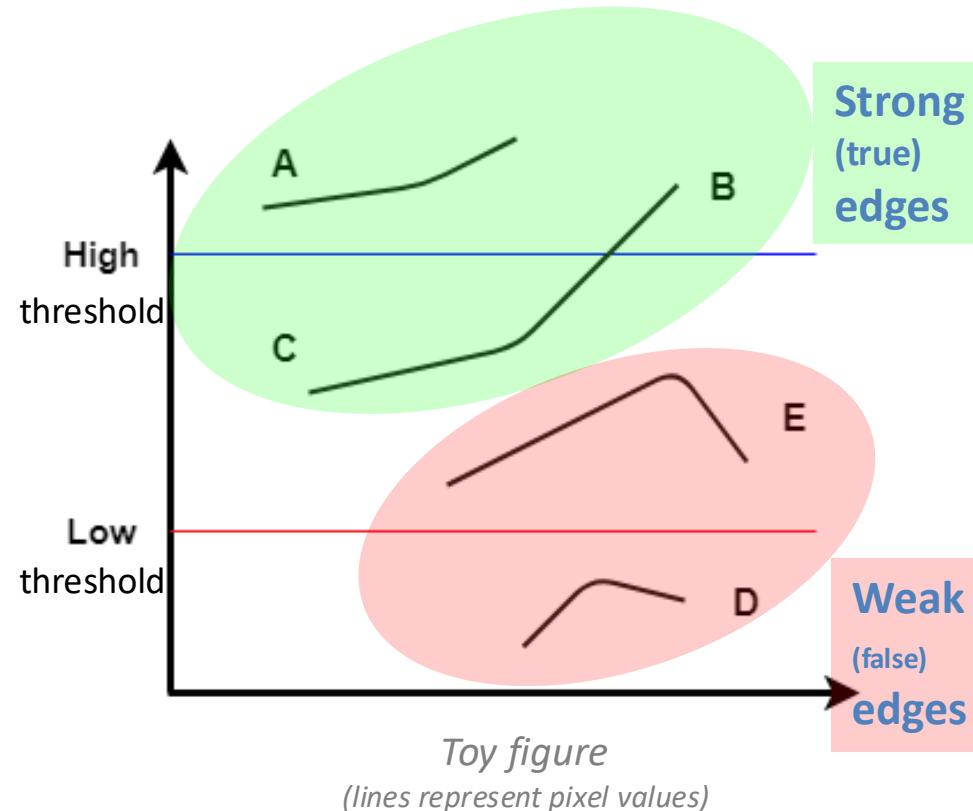
After

Non-max Supr.

Canny Edge Detector – Thresh. & Link Edges

CV

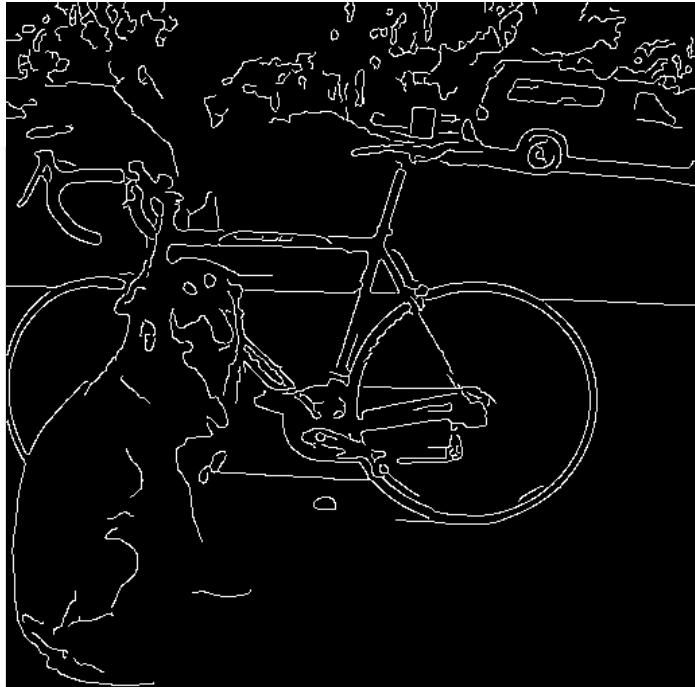
- Need to threshold (hysteresis) resulting edges and link them
- Strong edgels → edges (**A, B**)
- Weak edgels → edges only if connected to strong ones (**C**)
- Look in neighborhood (usually 8 closest)



Canny Edge Detector



Non-max Suppression
through edge following



Final Output
after thresholding edges

Canny Edge Detector – Full Example



**Input
Image**



**Gradient
Magnitude**

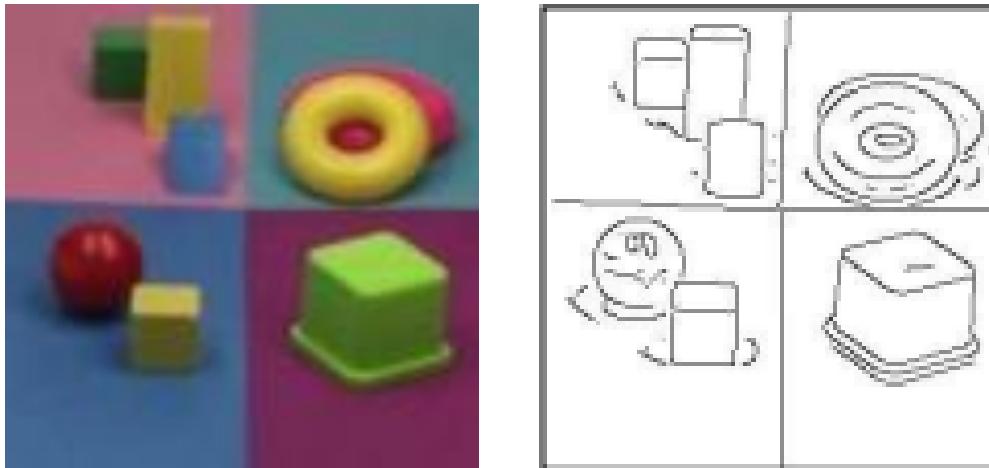


Non-max Suppression



**Final Output
after hysteresis
(thresholding)
and linking edges**

Canny Edge Detector



Also applicable on **color** images

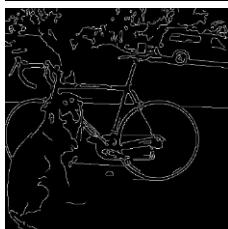
Canny Edge Detector – Summary



MATLAB: `edge(image, 'canny')`

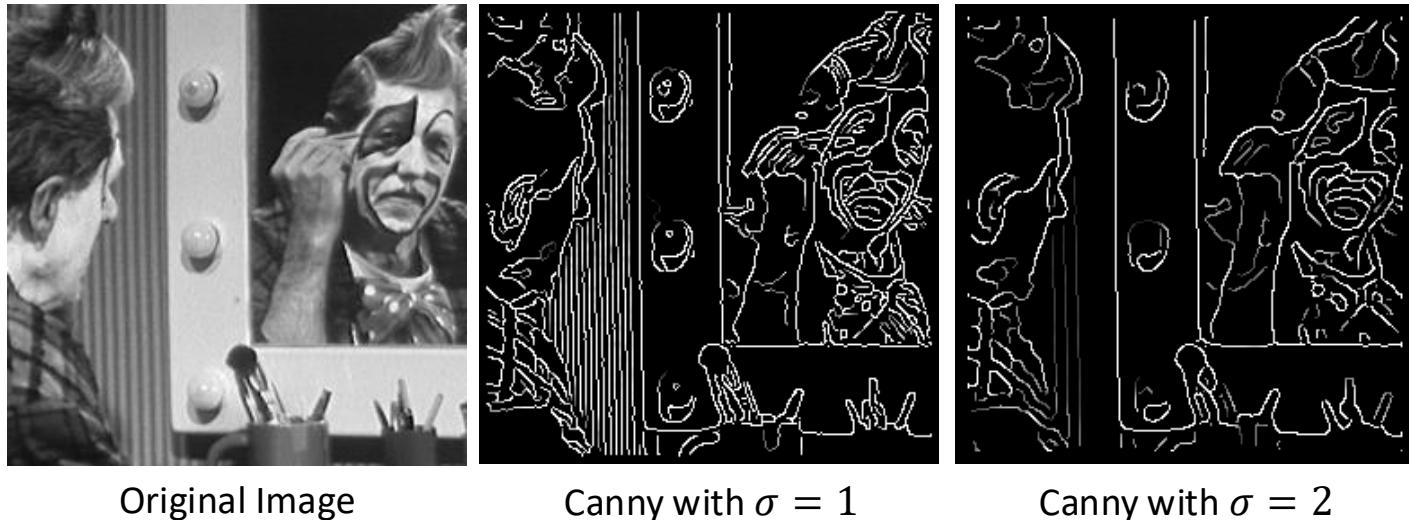


OpenCV: `cv.Canny(I, low_thr, high_thr)`



1. Filter image with Derivative of Gaussian
2. Compute gradient magnitude & orientation
3. Non-maximum suppression
4. Linking and thresholding (hysteresis):
 - Define two thresholds:
 - High threshold → Use to start edge curves
 - Low threshold → Use to continue them

Canny Edge Detector



- Choice of σ depends on desired behavior:
 - Large σ detects 'large-scale' edges
 - Small σ detects fine edges

Canny Edge Detector – Demo

from disk from url

barbara car_pad cells cervin einstein lena panda valve-wi...

Sigma 3

Low threshold 5%

High threshold 50%

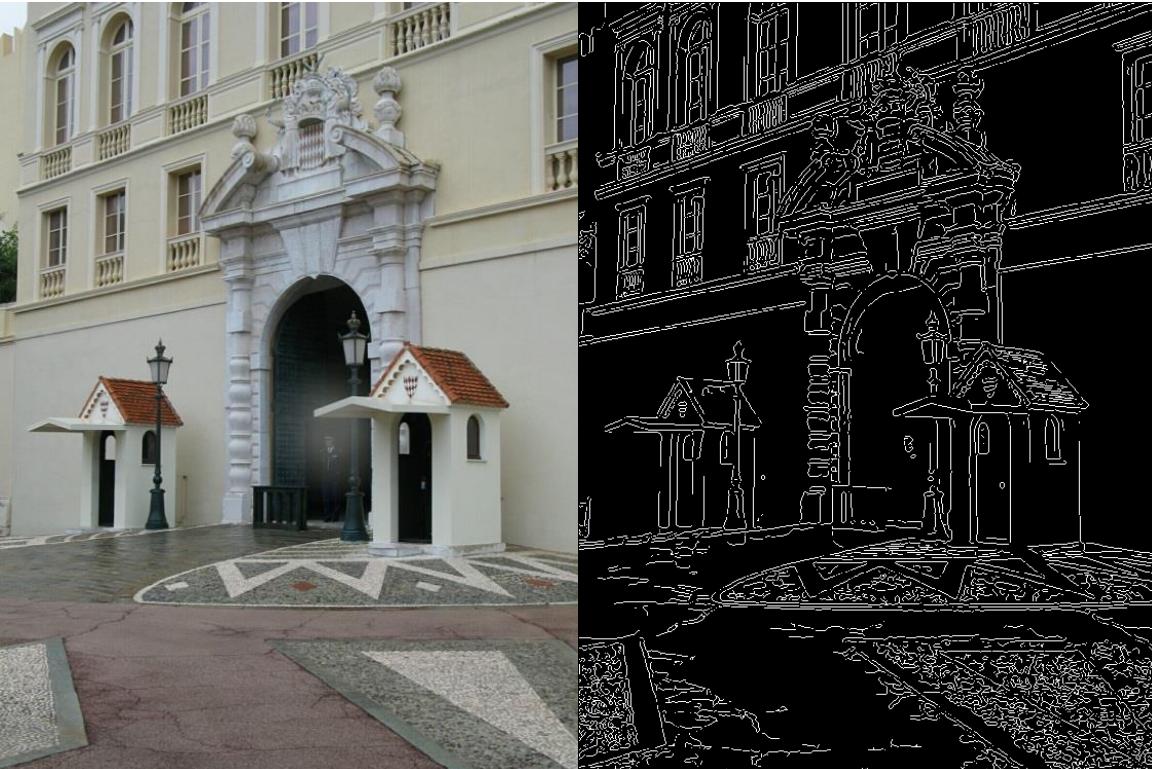
Steps 0/5



Outline

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Image Structure



Binary Edges Not Enough

- Fragmented edges
- False positives
- Noisy edge orientations
- Undefined Membership
which points belong to
which line ?

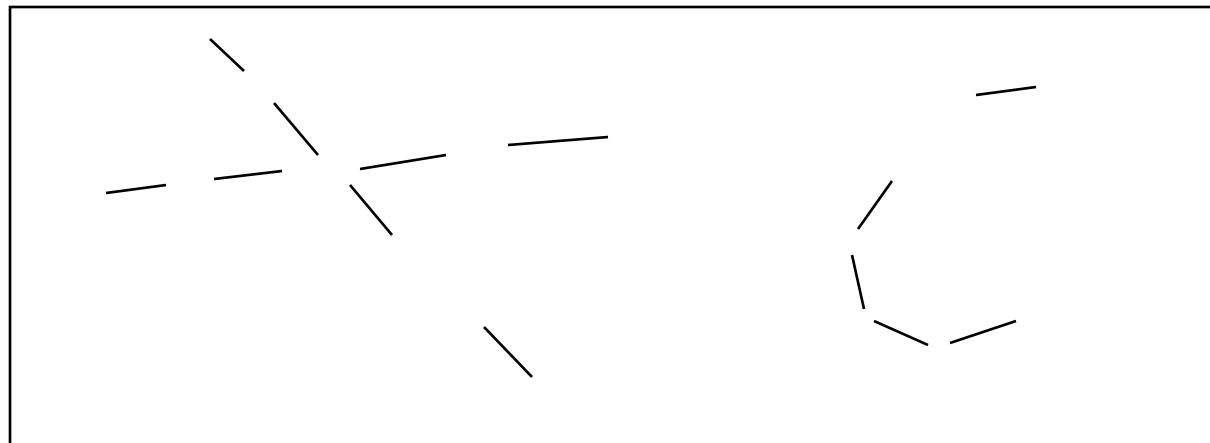
Image Structure

Example of
Vanishing
Lines



Line Fitting – Goal

- From **fragmented edges**
- To **straight lines** or **curves**

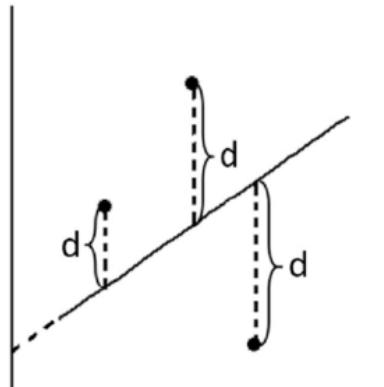


Outline

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Line Fitting - Ordinary Least Squares

- **Input:** Set of points belonging to a straight line
- **Output:** Find the line equation
- **Nugget:** Find the line parameters that minimize error in a least-square sense

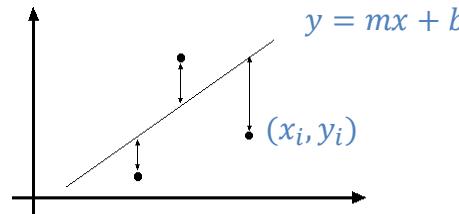


Least Squares

Line Fitting - Ordinary Least Squares

Input: Data points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

Line model $y_i = mx_i + b$



Output: Find $p = (m, b)$ that **minimizes**

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - mx_i - b)^2$$

Minimize Error:

$$\begin{aligned} e &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - [x_i \quad 1] \begin{bmatrix} m \\ b \end{bmatrix} \right)^2 \\ &= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ b \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Ap}\|^2 \\ &= \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - 2(\mathbf{Ap})^T \mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{Ap})^T (\mathbf{Ap}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{de}{dp} = 2\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Ap} - 2\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$$

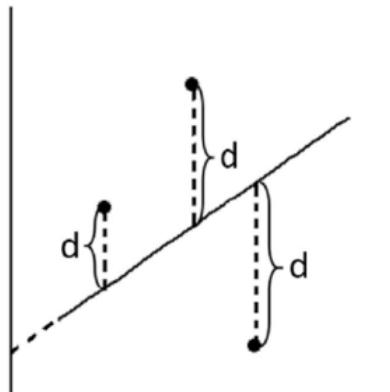
Pseudoinverse of \mathbf{A}

$$\therefore p = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}$$

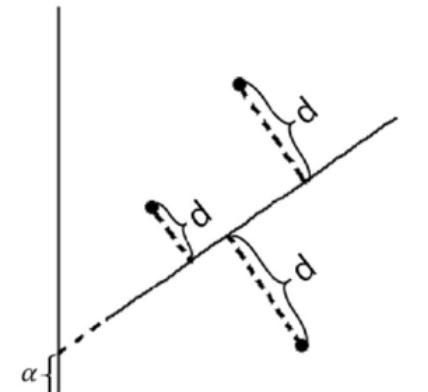
Matlab: $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A} \setminus \mathbf{y}$

Ordinary Least Squares – Problems

- **Problem:** Fitting performance affected by **slope**
Fails completely for **vertical lines**
- **Solution:** ‘Total least squares’ using a **perpendicular distance**

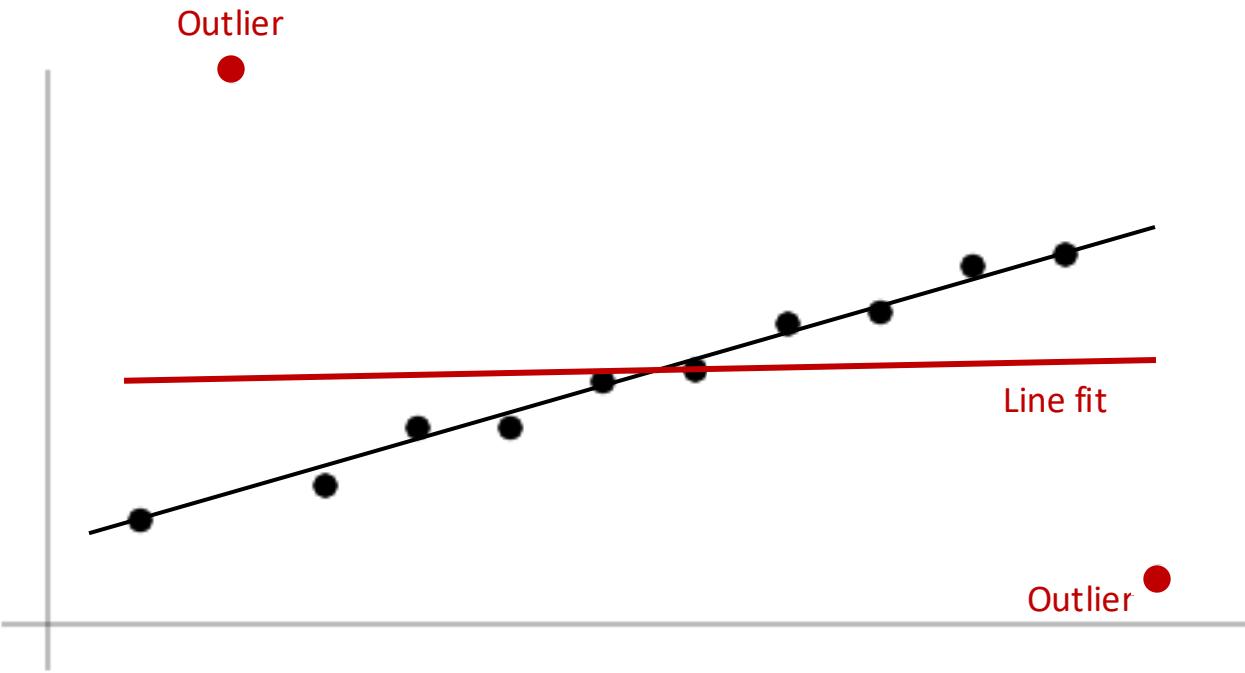


Least Squares



Total Least Squares

Least Squares Fitting



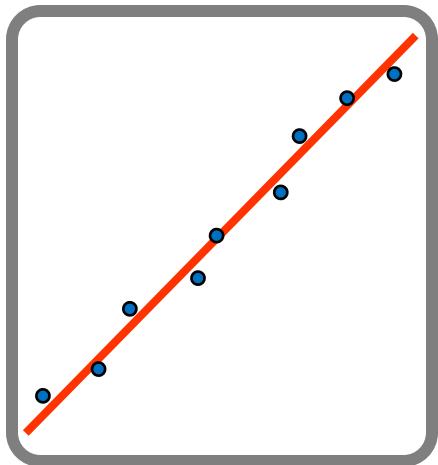
Heavily sensitive
to outliers



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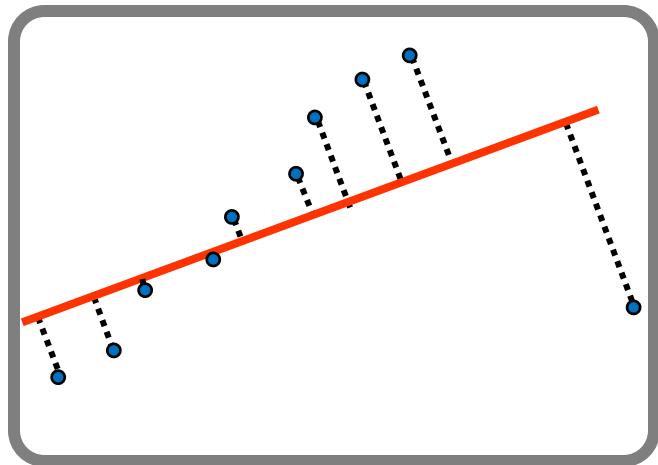
RANSAC – Motivation



Only inliers

*2D point → n-dim data point
2D line → parametric model*

*How do we
fit a model
to data points?*



Effects due to a *single outlier (noisy point)*

*Detecting outliers
is crucial!*



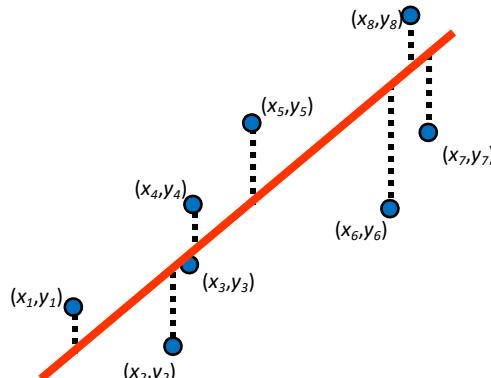
Model Fitting – 2D Line

Line fitting

- **Input:** Set of n 2D points (x_i, y_i)
- **Output:** Line $\Theta = (a, b)$ minimizing **fitting error**

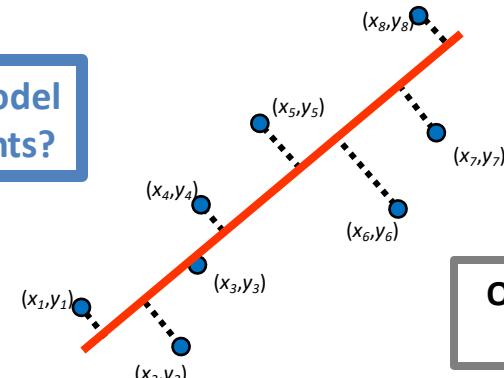
Line equation: $y = ax + b$

Fitting cost: YOU choose it 😊



Vertical
Distance

How 'far' is my model
from my data points?



Orthogonal
Distance

Fitting Cost - Norm

Let:

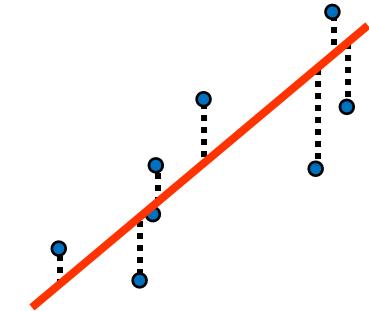
$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$



L_p norm:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= (x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ &= (-3, 0, 4) \end{aligned}$$

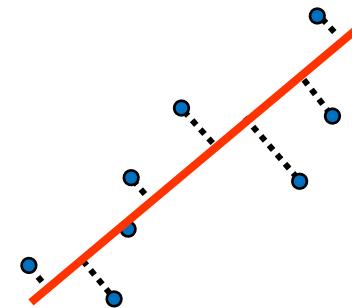


$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = ?$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = |-3| + |0| + |4| = 7$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = ?$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{(-3)^2 + 0^2 + 4^2} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$



Fitting Cost - Norm

Let:

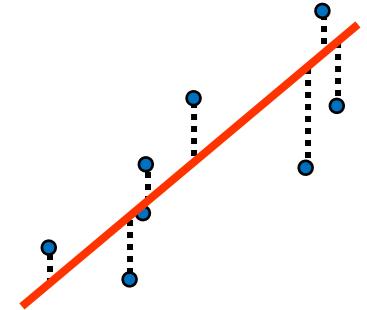
$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$



L_p norm:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$



For $n = 1$:

(1D case)

Without proof here

$$(L_2): \arg \min_u \sum_{i=1}^n |u - x_i|^2$$

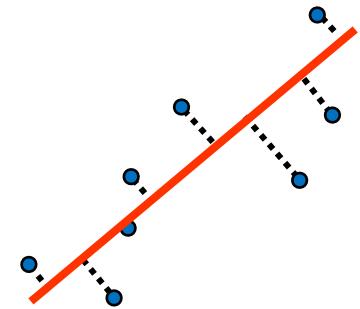
Solution \rightarrow Average

$$u = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$(L_1): \arg \min_u \sum_{i=1}^n |u - x_i|$$

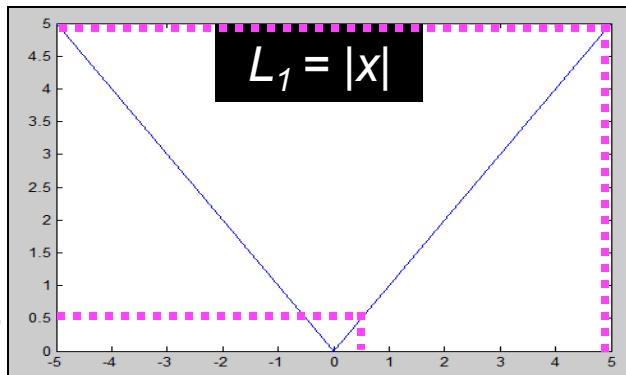
Solution \rightarrow Median

if $a < b < c < d$,
the median of the list $\{a, b, c, d\}$
is the mean of b and c ; i.e., it is $(b + c)/2$.



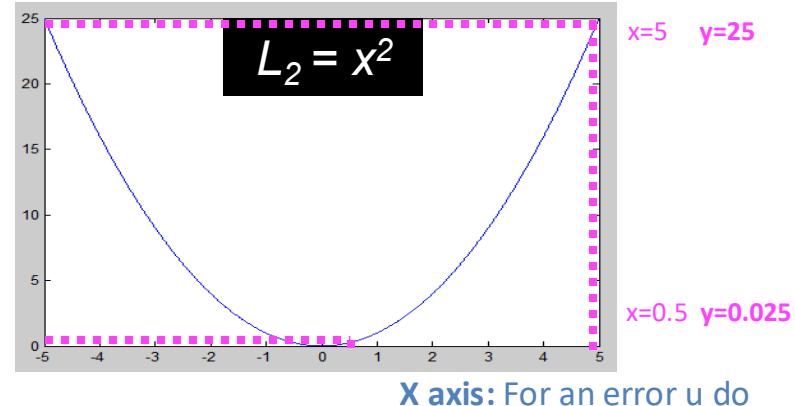
Fitting Cost - Norm

x=5 y=5
x=0.5 y=0.5



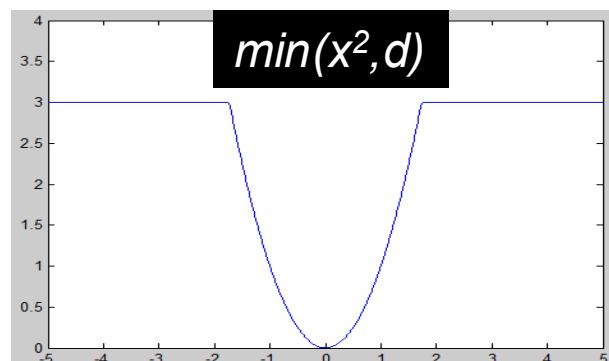
Do you need ...
... heavy penalty
on big errors?
Choose $L_2 \rightarrow \rightarrow$
... noticeable penalty
on tiny errors?
← ← Choose L_1

Y axis: How much 'penalty' u pay



X axis: For an error u do

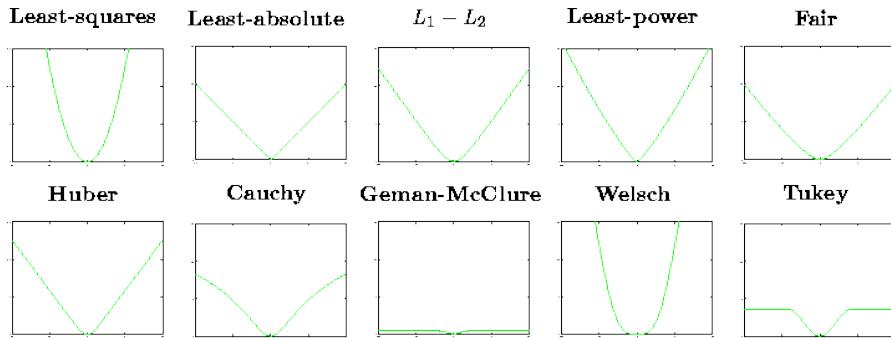
$d \rightarrow$
'Robustifier' $\rightarrow \rightarrow$
Influence of
outliers 'saturates'



Which one to
choose?
Design/play with
your cost function

Cost Functions

Go beyond just norms → aka '*cost functions*'



Rules of thumb (but look things up on your own):

- **L2, L1, Huber**: These are the most popular, depending on the applications
- **Huber**: Best of both worlds. Treats small errors like L2 (tolerates them) and large errors like L1 (robustness).
- **Dimitris**: For my problems – I use a lot the Geman-McClure one. Chosen after experimentation.

YOU *choose/define* it 😊

Play with parameters & judge
for your own task/data !

type	$\rho(x)$
L_2	$x^2/2$
L_1	$ x $
$L_1 - L_2$	$2(\sqrt{1+x^2/2} - 1)$
L_p	$\frac{ x ^\nu}{\nu}$
“Fair”	$c^2[\frac{ x }{c} - \log(1 + \frac{ x }{c})]$
Huber	$\begin{cases} x^2/2 & \text{if } x \leq k \\ k(x - k/2) & \text{if } x \geq k \end{cases}$
Cauchy	$\frac{c^2}{2} \log(1 + (x/c)^2)$
Geman-McClure	$\frac{x^2/2}{1+x^2}$
Welsch	$\frac{c^2}{2} [1 - \exp(-(x/c)^2)]$
Tukey	$\begin{cases} \frac{c^2}{6} (1 - [1 - (x/c)^2]^3) & \text{if } x \leq c \\ (c^2/6) & \text{if } x > c \end{cases}$

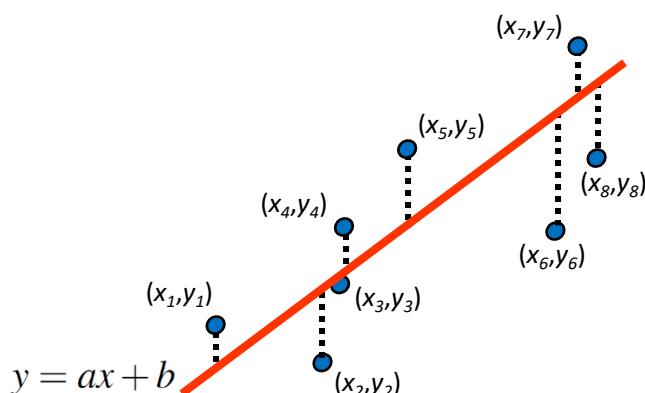
Model Fitting – Under Noise

Data points: (x_i, y_i)

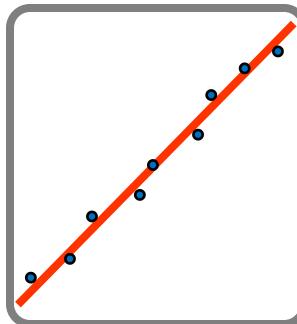
Line model: $y = ax + b$

Parameters: $\Theta = (a, b)$

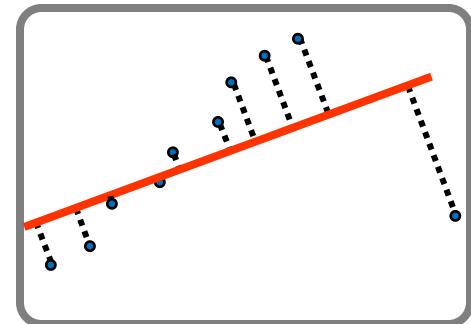
L_1 cost:
$$\min_{\Theta=(a,b)} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - (ax_i + b)|$$



But remember...



Only **inliers**



Effects due to single **outlier**

Detecting outliers is very important!

Solution: **RANSAC**

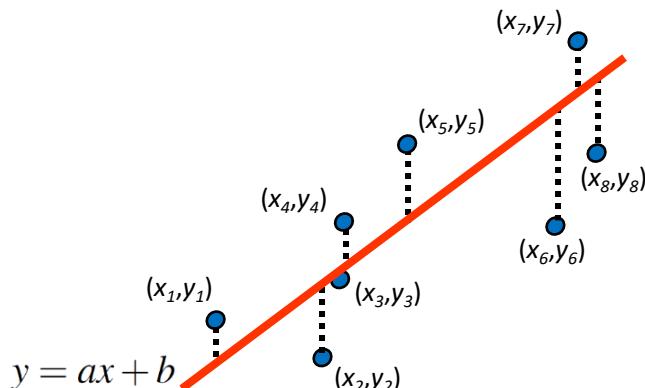
Model Fitting – Under Noise

Data points: (x_i, y_i)

Line model: $y = ax + b$

Parameters: $\Theta = (a, b)$

L_1 cost:
$$\min_{\Theta=(a,b)} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - (ax_i + b)|$$



Motivation



Detecting outliers
is very important!



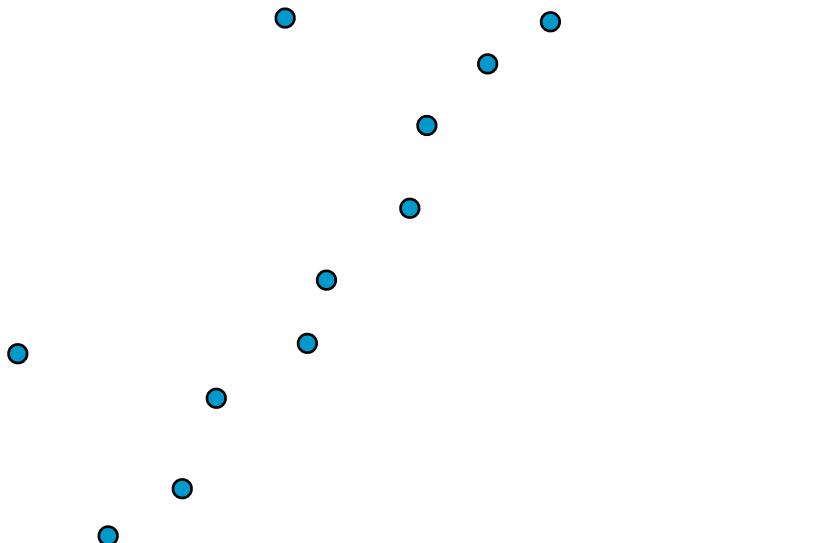
Solution:
RANSAC



*Also for Vision
(coming soon)*



RANSAC – Example – Lines



Input:

Set of points

Output: Estimate line equation & determine **inliers/outliers**

RANSAC – Example – Lines

Which one do you like the most?

Automate this with RANSAC

RANSAC – Example – Lines

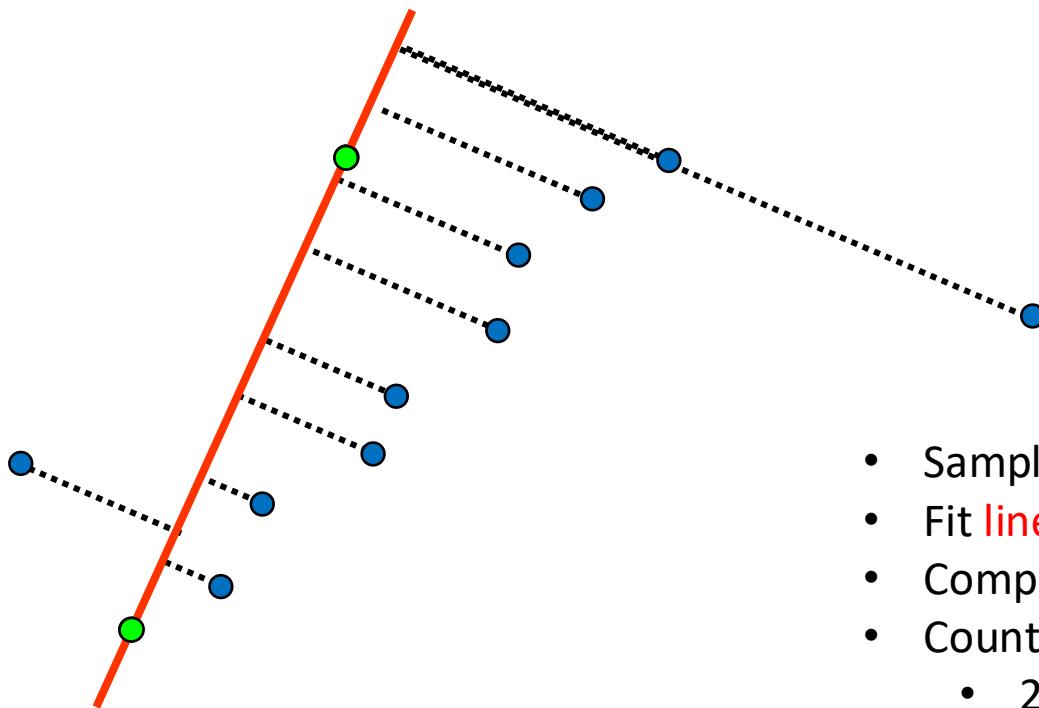


RANSAC - RANdom SAmple Consensus
by Fischler and Bolles, 1981

Very *easy* method and *good* results

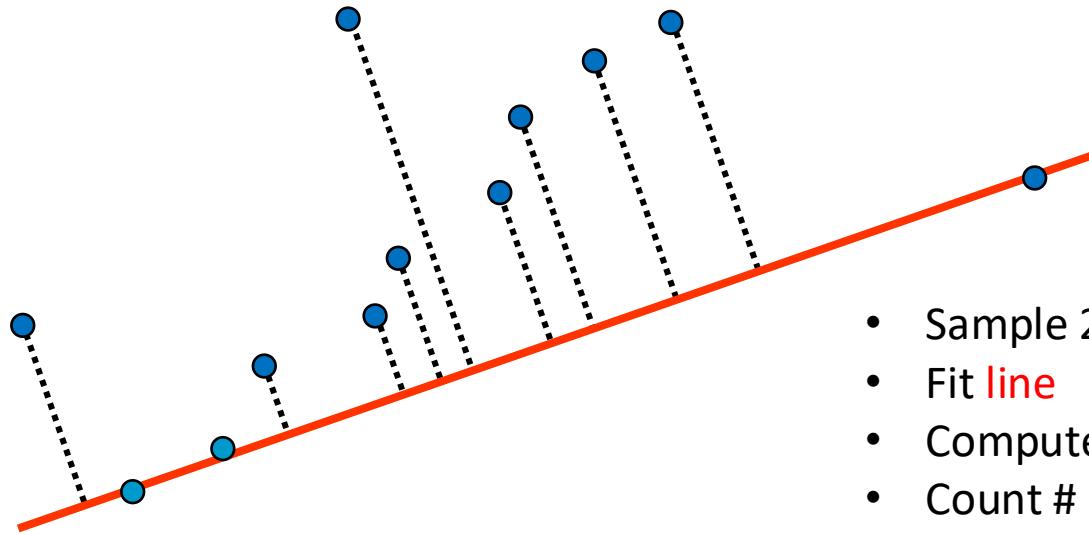
Aims to **maximize** the **number #** of
inliers ('consensus set maximization')
through **random sampling**

RANSAC – Example – Lines



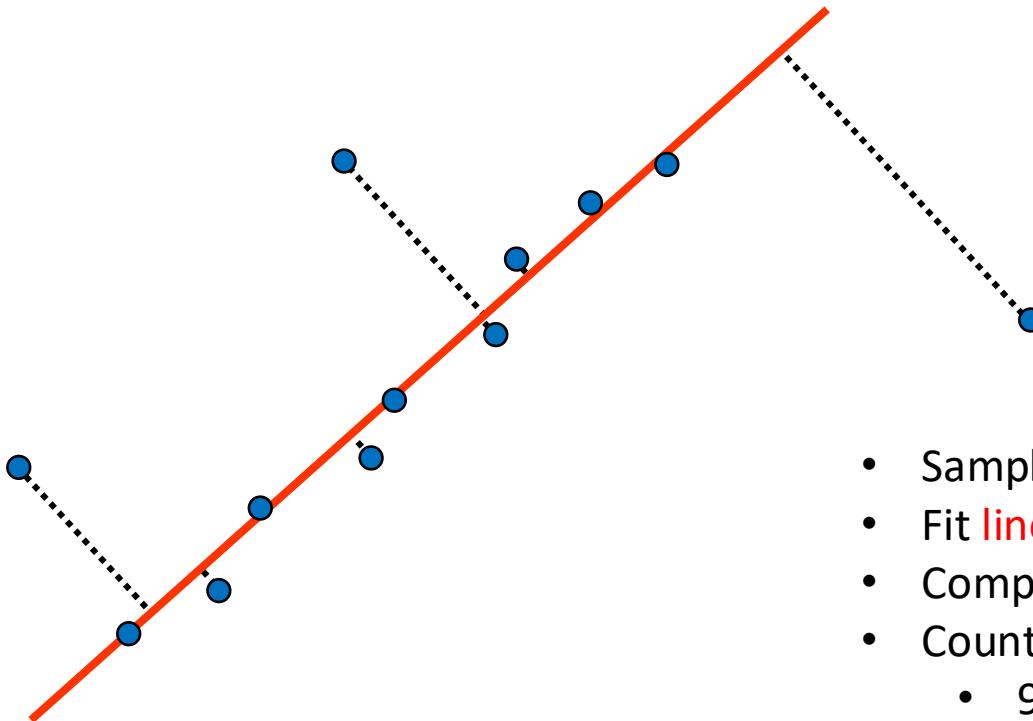
- Sample 2 points randomly
- Fit **line**
- Compute distances
- Count # of **inliers**
 - 2 out of 13

RANSAC – Example – Lines



- Sample 2 points randomly
- Fit **line**
- Compute distances
- Count # of **inliers**
 - 3 out of 13

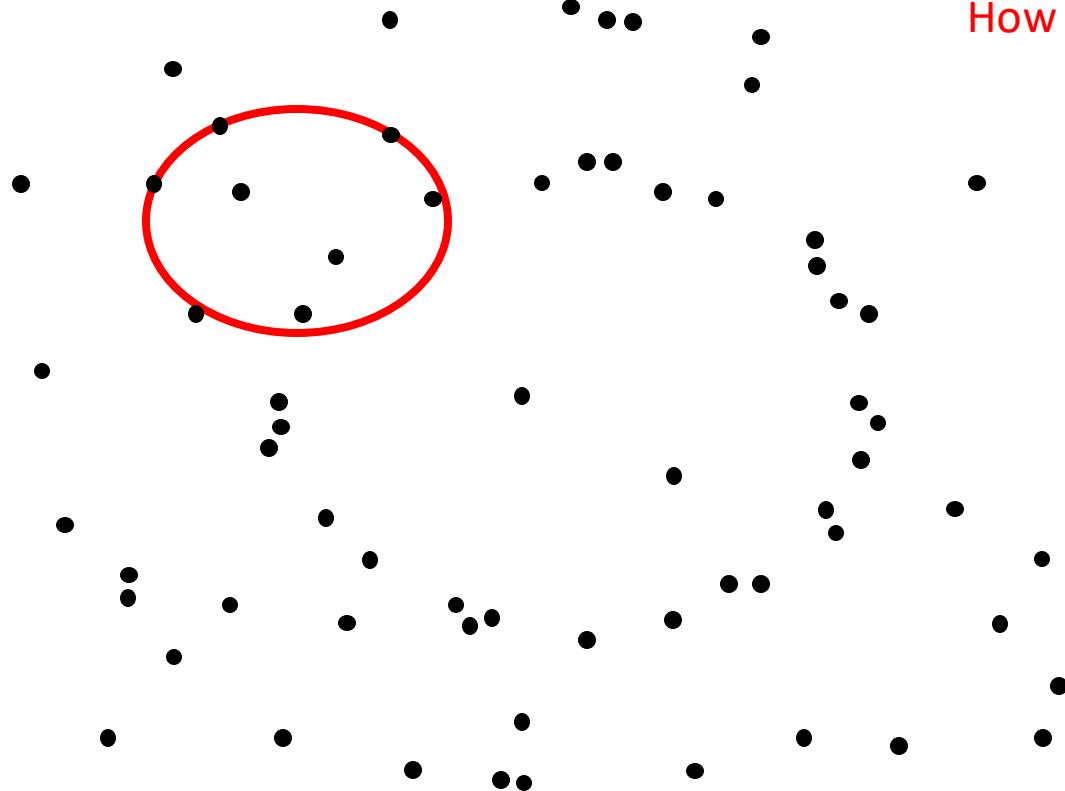
RANSAC – Example – Lines



- Sample 2 points randomly
- Fit **line**
- Compute distances
- Count # of **inliers**
 - 9 out of 13



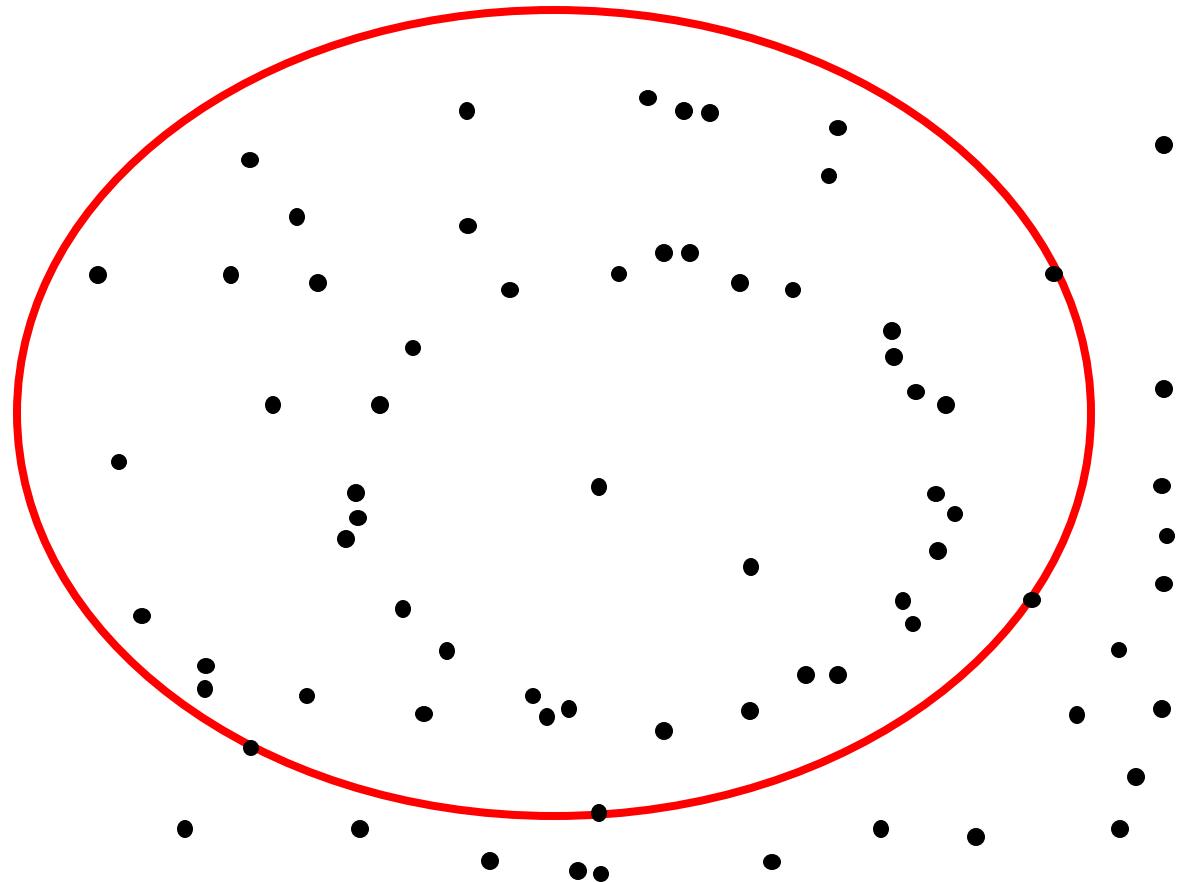
RANSAC – Example – Circles



How many points for a circle?

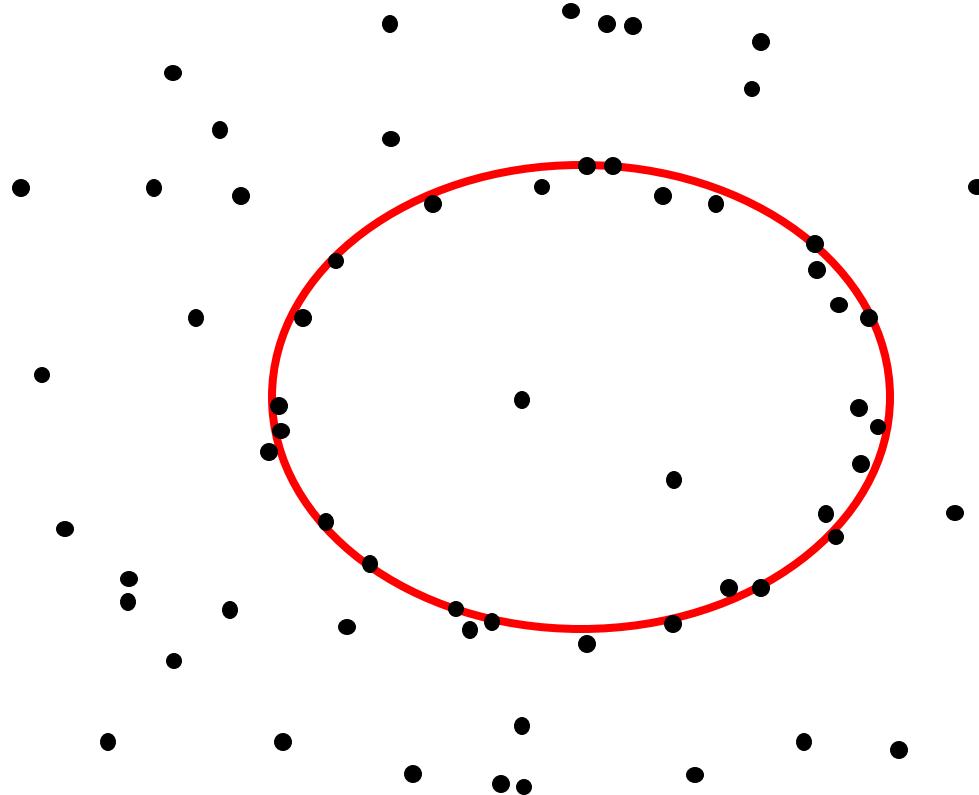
- Sample 3 points randomly
 - Fit **circle**
 - Compute distances
 - Count # of **inliers**
- 5

RANSAC – Example – Circles



- Sample 3 points randomly
 - Fit **circle**
 - Compute distances
 - Count # of **inliers**
- 4

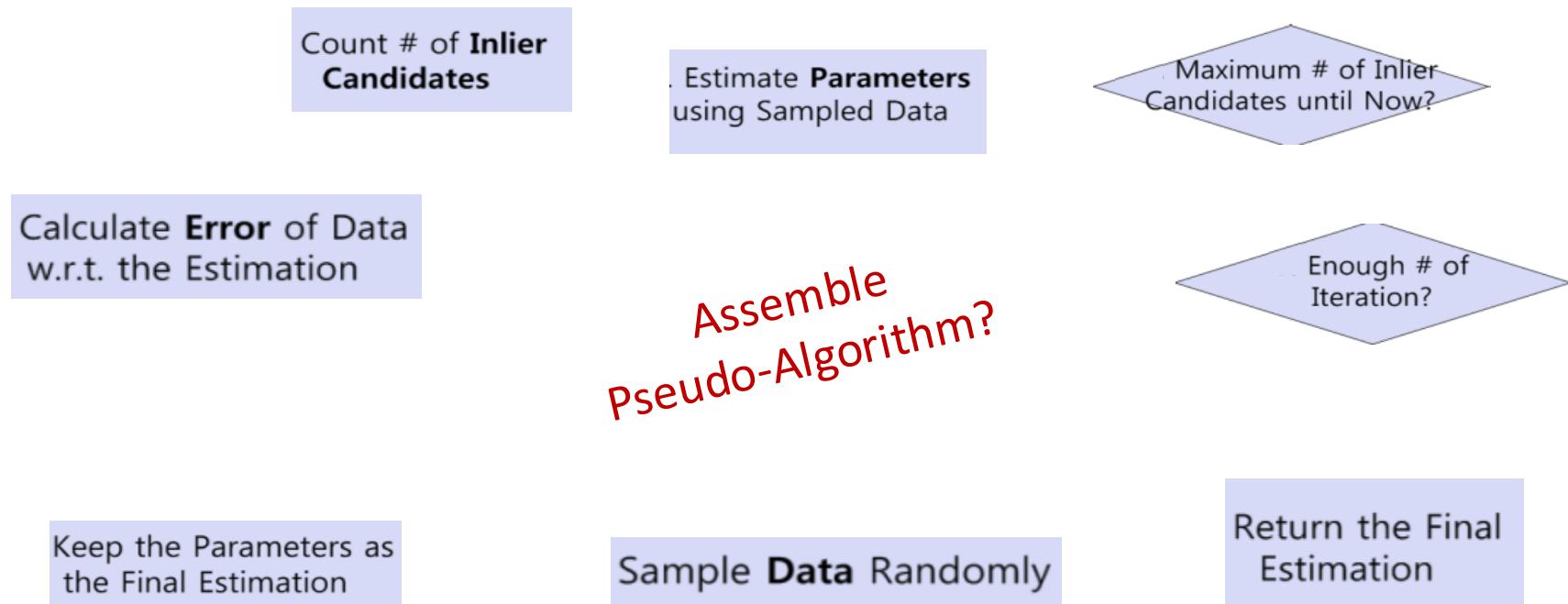
RANSAC – Example – Circles



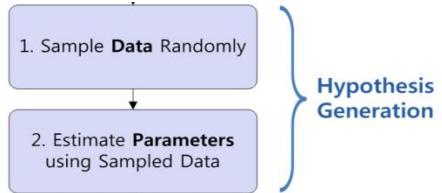
- Sample 3 points randomly
- Fit **circle**
- Compute distances
- Count # of **inliers**

-23 ✓

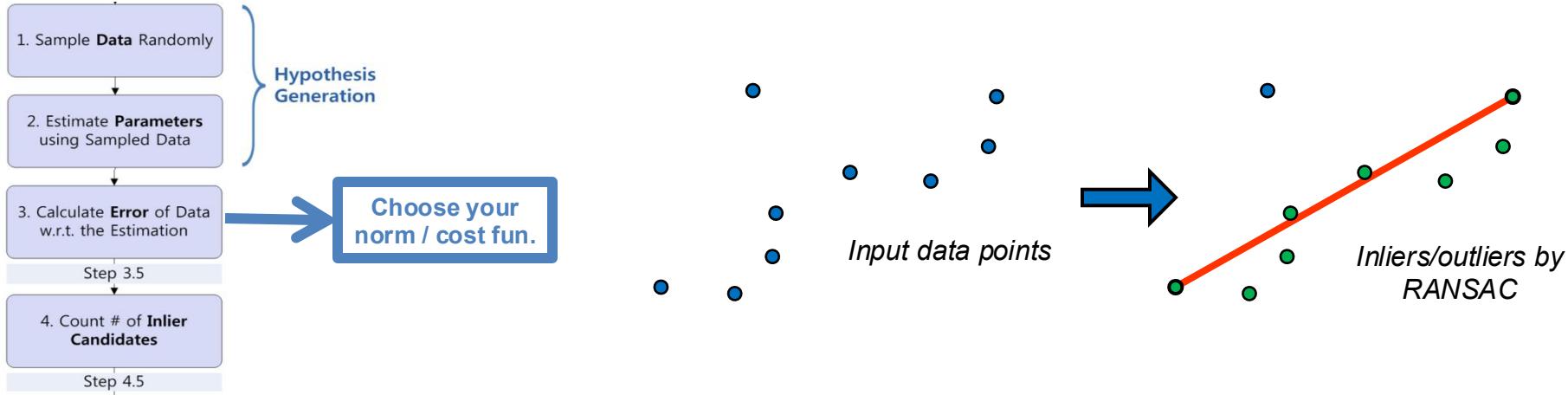
RANSAC – Quiz



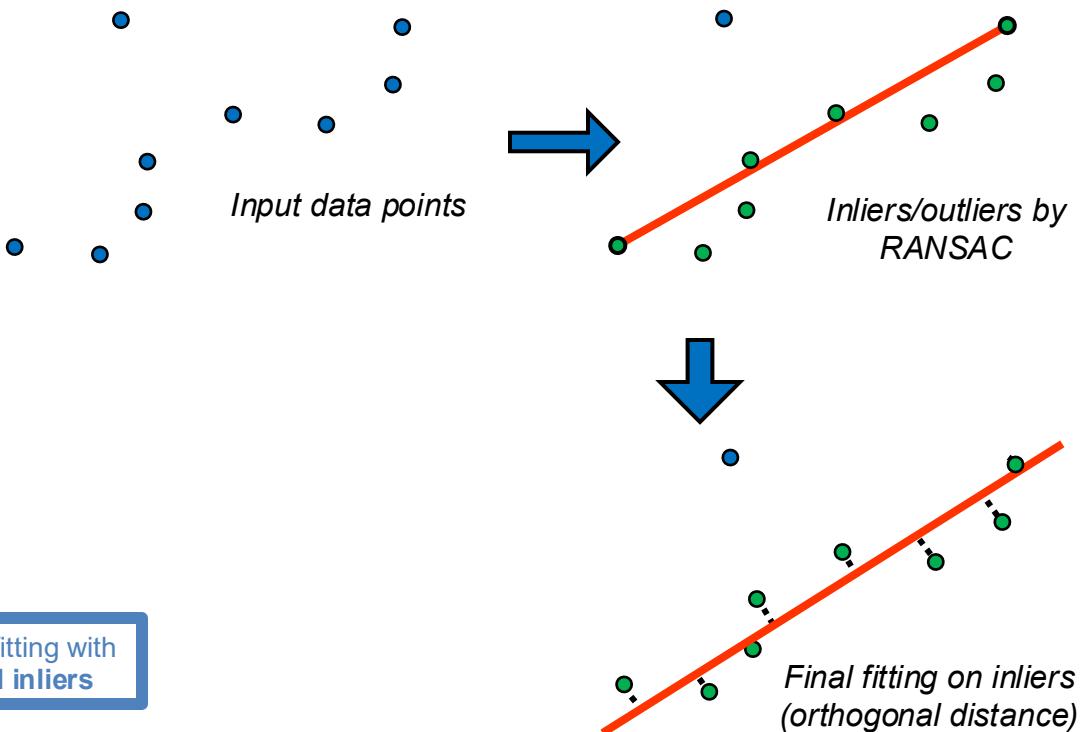
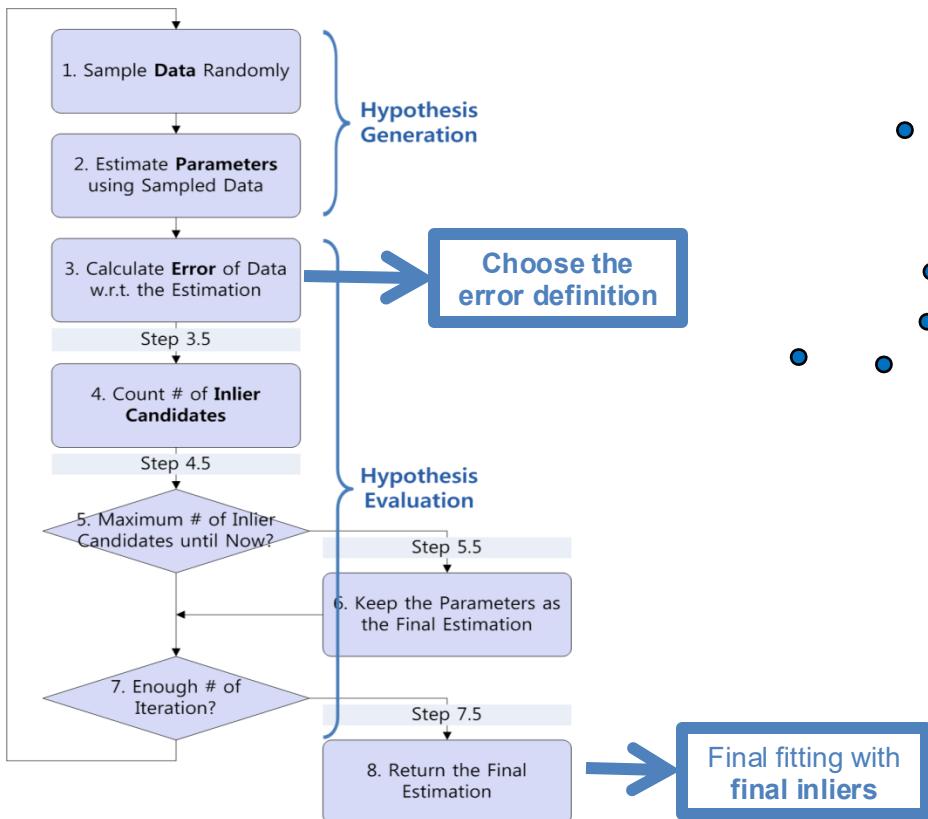
RANSAC – Overview



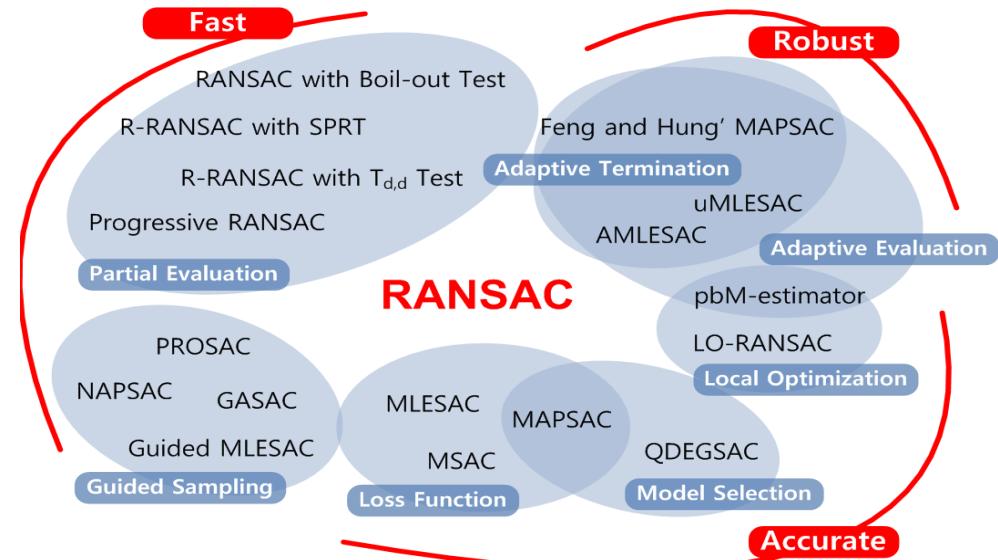
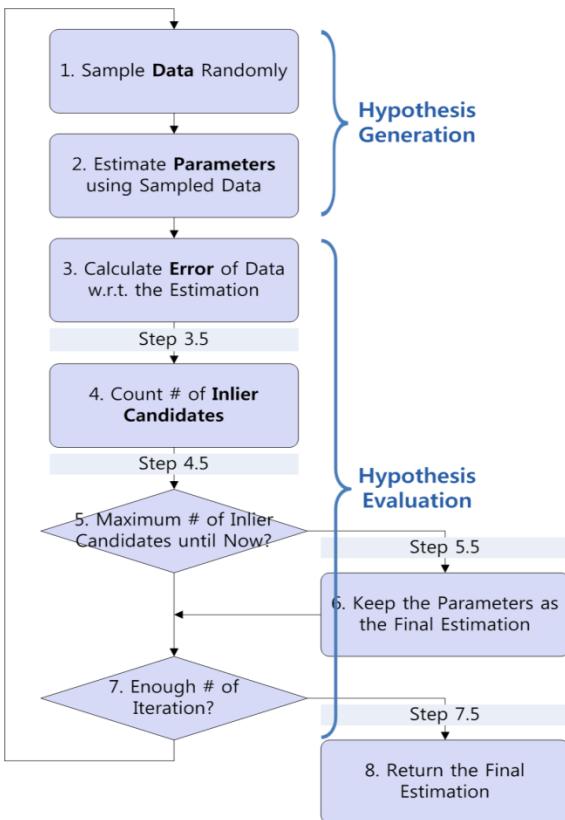
RANSAC – Overview



RANSAC – Overview



RANSAC – Family



RANSAC – Family – References

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- O. Chum and J Matas. "Randomized RANSAC with $T_{d,d}$ test", BMVC, 2002
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- R. Raguram, J.-M. Frahm, and M. Pollefeys. "A comparative analysis of RANSAC techniques leading to adaptive real-time random sample consensus", ECCV, 2008
- V. Rodehorst and O. Hellwich. "Genetic Algorithm SAmples Consensus (GASAC)- a parallel strategy for robust parameter estimation", CVPR Workshop, 2006
- R. Subbarao and P. Meer. "Beyond RANSAC: User independent robust regression", CVPR Worksop, 2006
- B. J. Tordoff and D. W. Murray. "Guided-MLESAC: Faster image transform estimation by using matching priors", TPAMI, 2005
- P.H.S. Torr and A. Zisserman. "MLESAC: A new robust estimator with application to estimating image geometry", CVIU, 2000
- And many others



Outside the
course
scope

RANSAC – Parameters

$$p = 1 - (1 - w^n)^k$$

$$k = \frac{\log(1 - p)}{\log(1 - w^n)}$$

p → Reliability of RANSAC result

k → Number of iterations

w → Probability that a point is an inlier

n → Minimal number of samples for model (line, circle, projective transf., etc)

We stitch 2 images (spoiler: later today)

Find the number of RANSAC iterations for

- 95% reliability, and
- 20% inlier probability
- for SIFT corresp. (spoiler: n=4 corr.)

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \frac{\log(1-p)}{\log(1-w^n)} & p &= 0,95 \text{ --- RANSAC reliability} \\ &= \frac{\log(1-0,95)}{\log(1-0,20^n)} & w &= 0,20 \text{ --- inlier probability} \\ &= 1870,8344 & n &= 4 \text{ --- we need 4 corresp.} \\ &\approx 1871 && \text{as minimum to stitch images with the projective transform.} \end{aligned}$$



RANSAC – Parameters

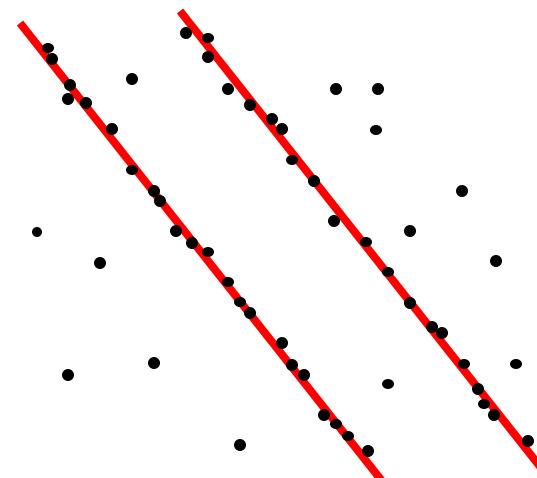
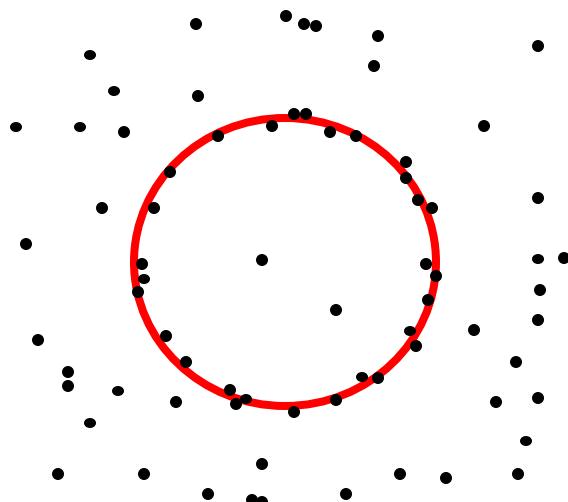
Sample size	proportion of outliers						
	5%	10%	20%	25%	30%	40%	50%
2	2	3	5	6	7	11	17
4	3	5	9	13	17	34	72
5	4	6	12	17	26	57	146
7	4	8	20	33	54	163	588
8	5	9	26	44	78	272	1177

The **number of RANSAC iterations** required to ensure ...

[input] ... with a **probability 0.99**, and a given number of **minimal points** and a **proportion of outliers**,

[output] that **at least one sample has no outliers**.

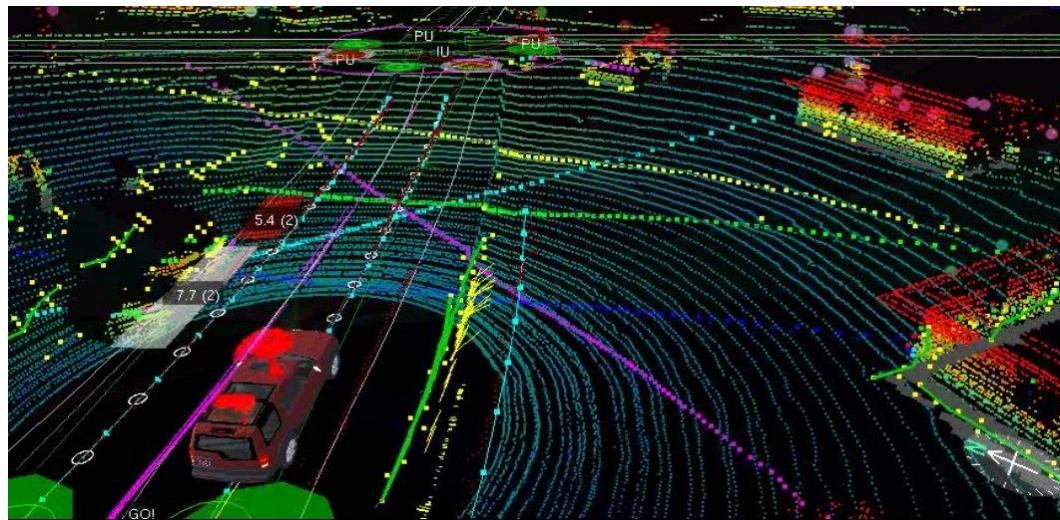
- Think about
 - Advantages & disadvantages of RANSAC
 - How to apply for detecting ellipses, planes, parallel lines, etc?



RANSAC – Applications

3D Ground plane extraction on LIDAR 3D point cloud

How many points?



RANSAC – Applications



RANSAC – Pros & Cons

Advantages

- Robust estimation of model parameters
- Applicable for large number of parameters
- High degree of accuracy
- Even with outliers
- Easy to implement



Disadvantages

- No upper bound on runtime (so cap w. threshold)
- Accuracy may be suboptimal for low iter. Threshold
- Suboptimal when # of inliers <50% (so, check variants)
- Requires problem-specific thresholds
- Runtime grows quickly with
 - % of outliers and
 - number of parameters
- Not good for getting multiple line fits ←

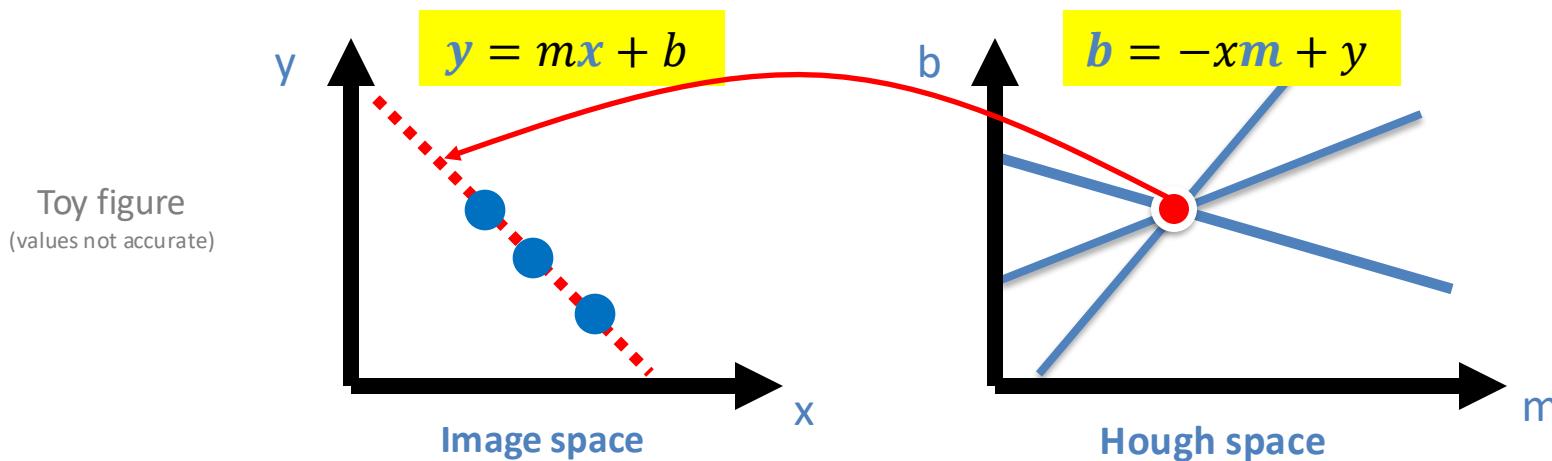
Solution?

Outline

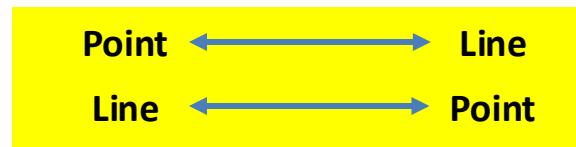
- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image, Derivatives of Gaussian
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Line Fitting
 - Least Squares
 - RANSAC
 - Hough Transform
- Corners
 - Harris Corners
 - SIFT
 - Applications

Hough Transform – Fitting Multiple Lines

- Given a binary **edge** image
- Find the **lines** (or curves) that best explain the data points in **parameter space**
- Parameter space → Called '**Hough space**'



P.V.C. Hough,
'Machine Analysis of
Bubble Chamber
Pictures', 1959

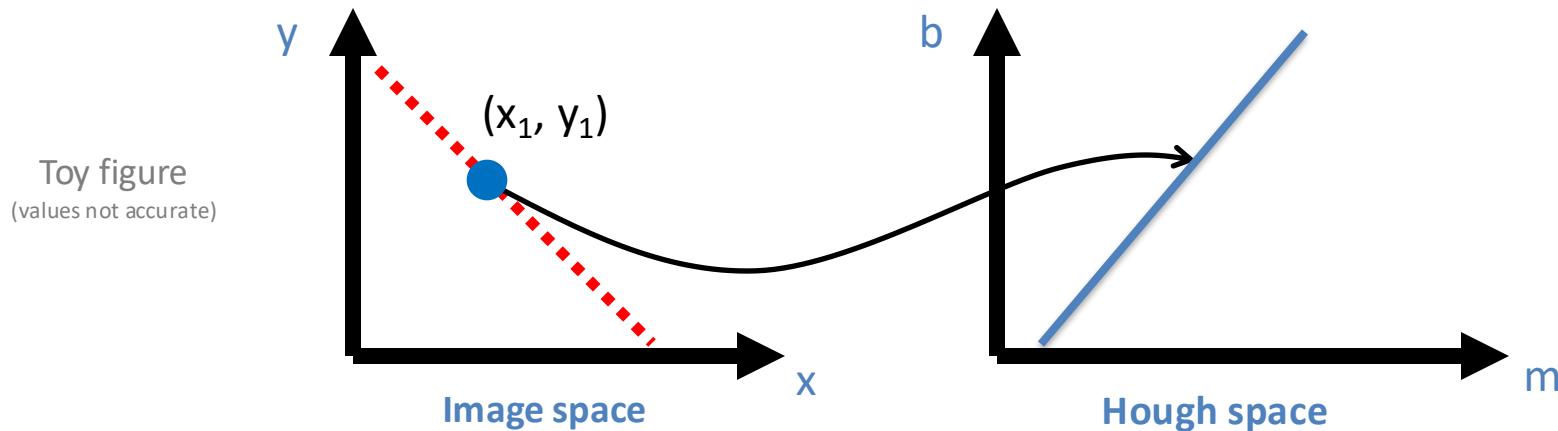


Map Point (x_1, y_1) → Line in Hough Space

$$y_1 = mx_1 + b$$

$$b = -x_1m + y_1$$

Rewrite
equation in
terms of
 m and b

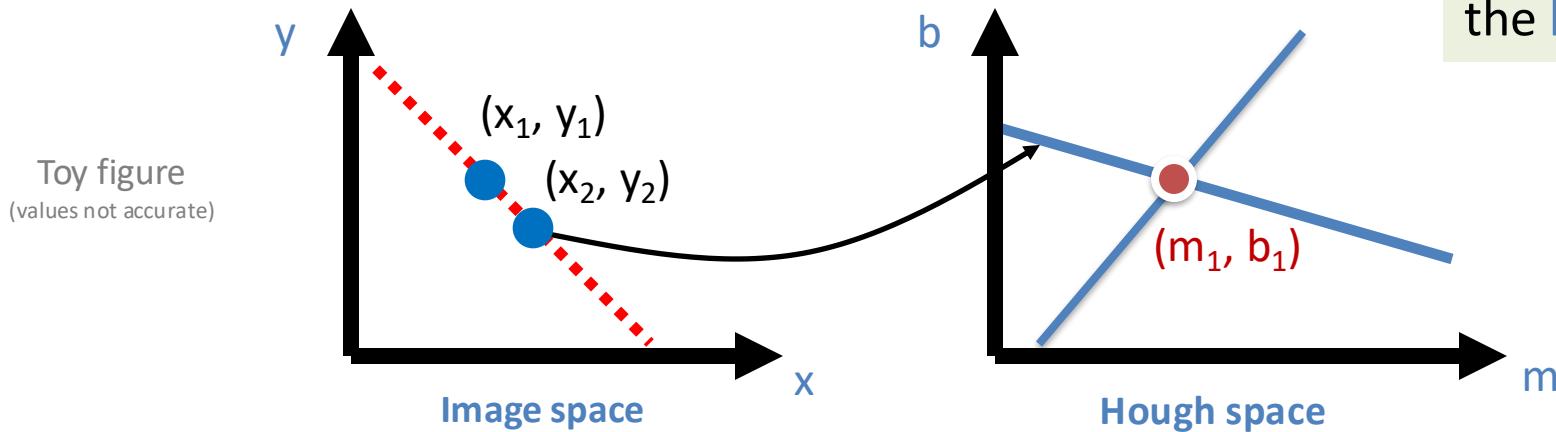


Map Point (x_2, y_2) → Line in Hough Space

$$y_2 = mx_2 + b$$

$$b = -x_2m + y_2$$

Intersection point satisfies (x_1, y_1) & (x_2, y_2) & by extension the line

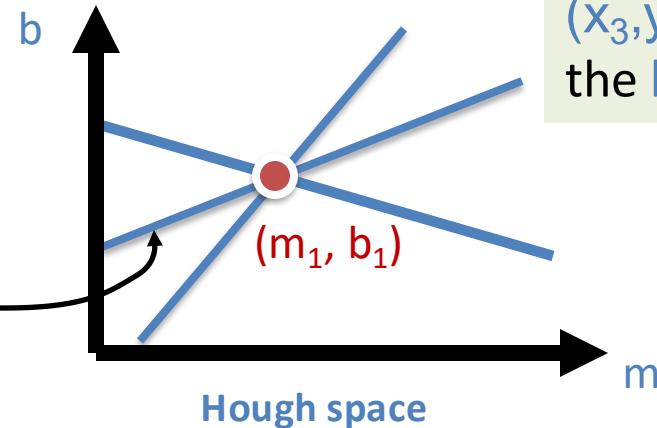
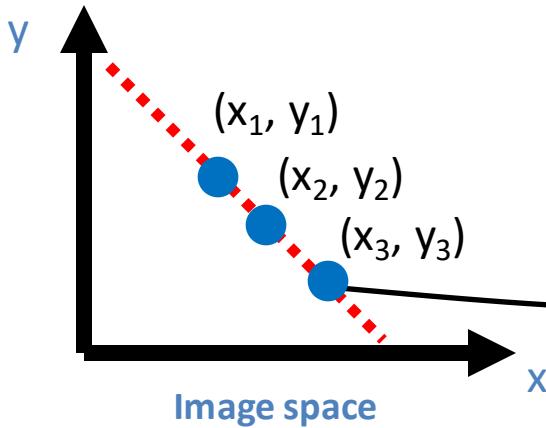


Map Point (x_3, y_3) → Line in Hough Space

$$y_3 = mx_3 + b$$

$$b = -x_3m + y_3$$

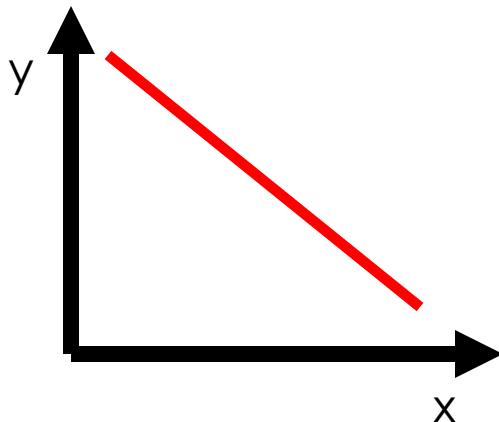
Toy figure
(values not accurate)



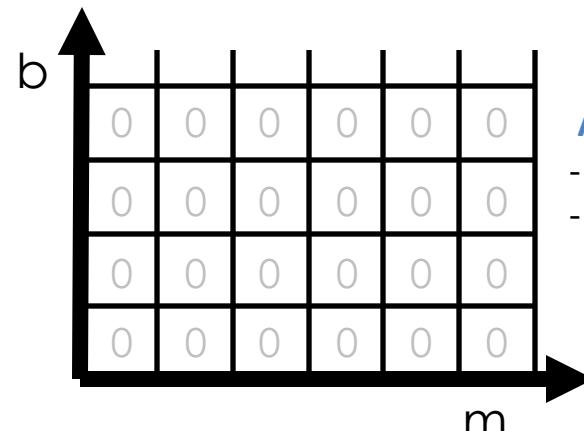
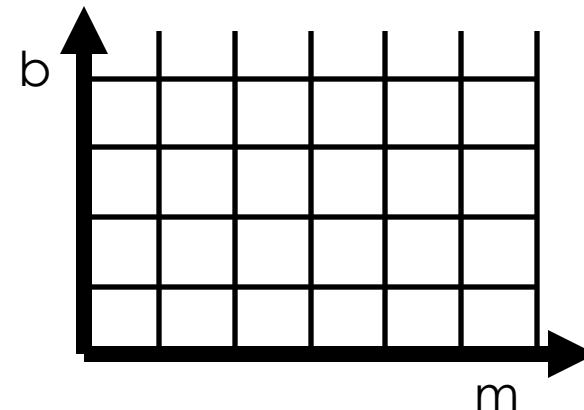
Intersection point (m_1, b_1) satisfies points (x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) , (x_3, y_3) & thus the line

Hough Transform – Accumulator

Toy figure
(values not accurate)



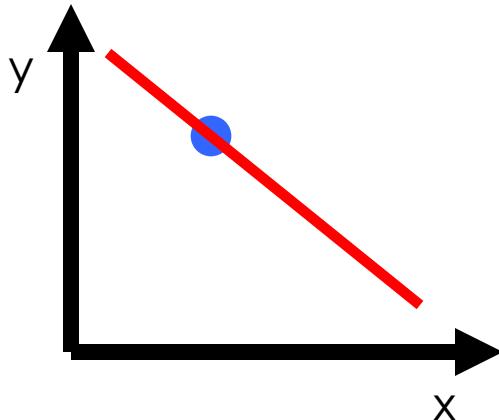
- For each edge^{el} → - Draw a line in Hough space
- Add +1 in Accumulator cells



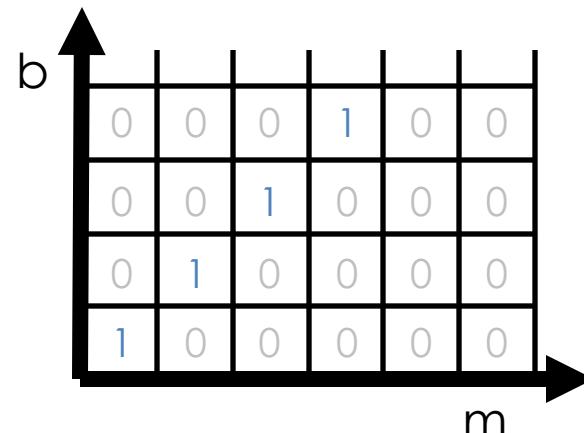
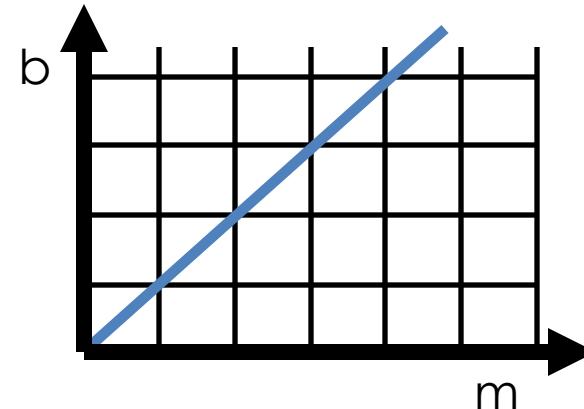
Accumulator
- Discrete grid
- Initialize w 0s

Hough Transform – Accumulator

Toy figure
(values not accurate)

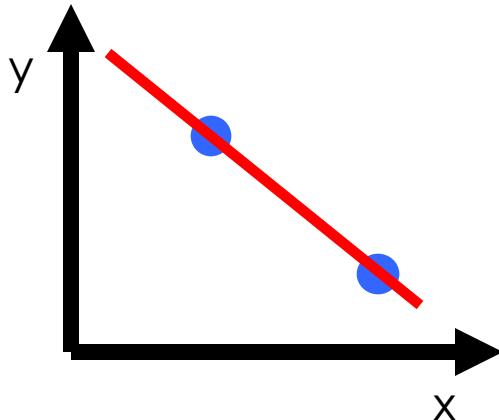


- For each edgel → - Draw a line in Hough space
- Add +1 in Accumulator cells

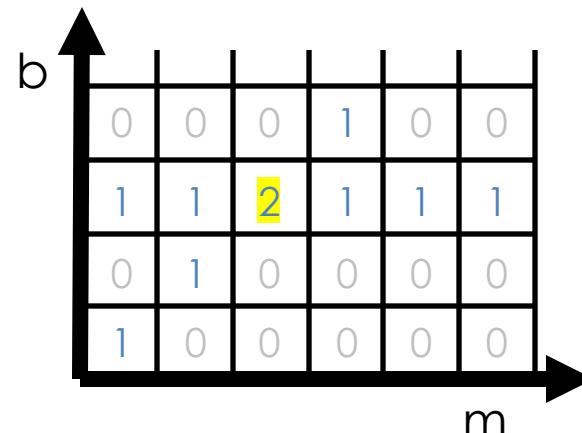
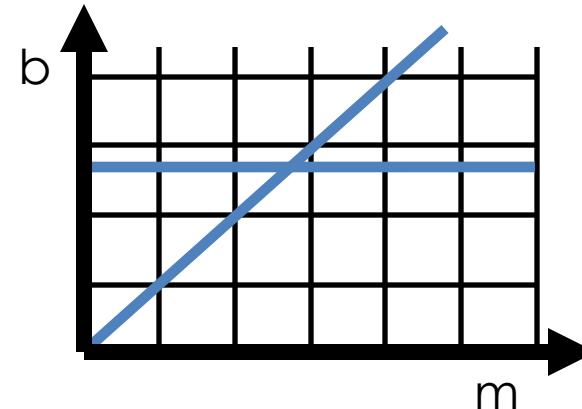


Hough Transform – Accumulator

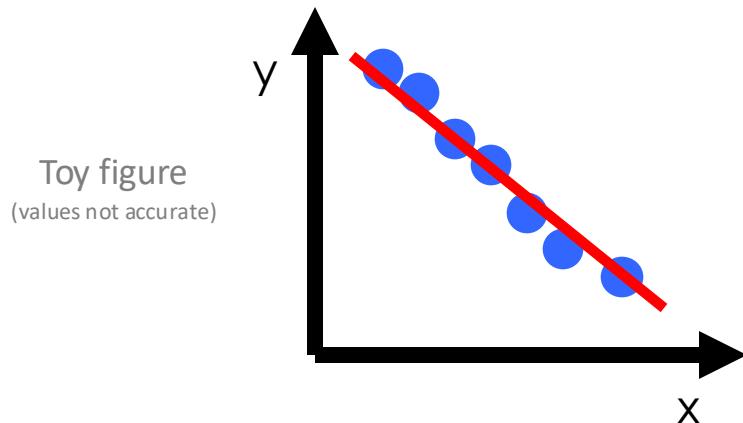
Toy figure
(values not accurate)



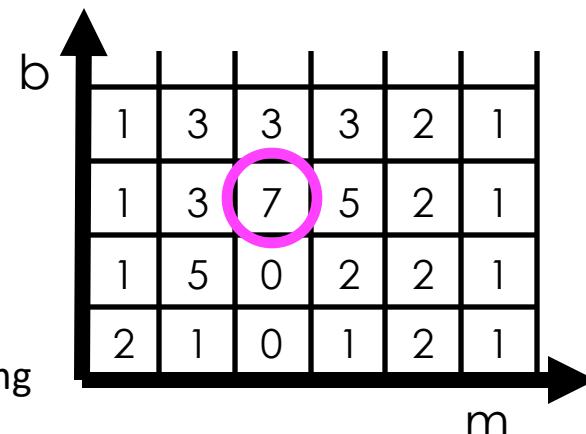
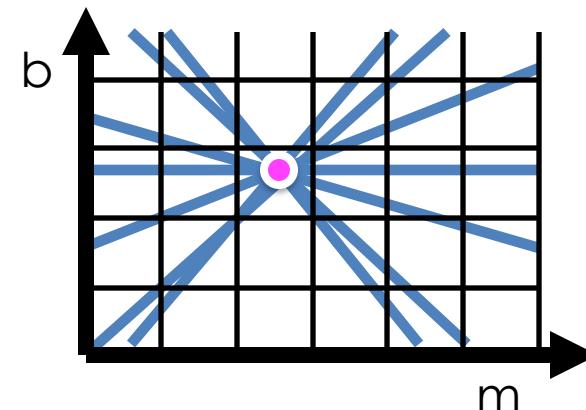
- For each edgel \rightarrow - Draw a line in Hough space
- Add +1 in Accumulator cells



Hough Transform – Accumulator



- For each edgel → - Draw a line in Hough space
- Add +1 in Accumulator cells
- Process all pixels → Accumulate values ('voting')
- Find local maxima → Can be many points
due to many lines in image
- Map each maximum Point in Hough space → Line in Img



Hough Transform

- Detect multiple lines in image (from multiple local maxima)
- Easily extended for circles & ellipses
- Computationally efficient
- Problem: Parameters (m, b) are unbounded (slope m can be infinite)
Need an infinitely large Accumulator (memory hungry)
- Solution? See next

Hough Transform – Polar Form

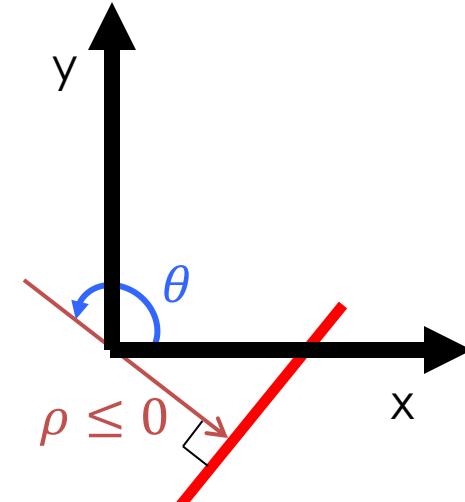
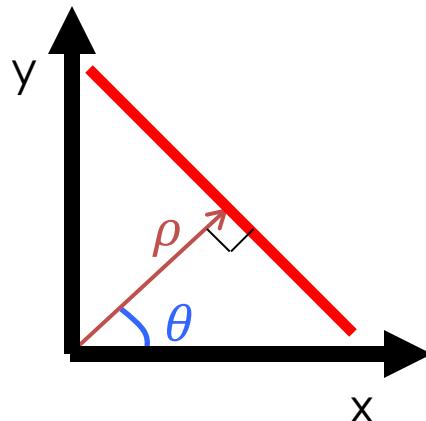
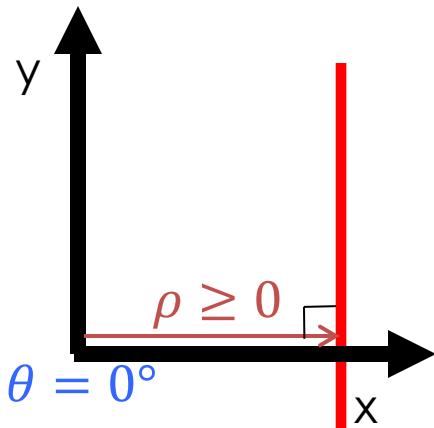
Parameter space → **Polar Representation**

$$x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta = \rho$$

All parameters finite

$0 \leq \theta < 180^\circ$

ρ can be negative/positive

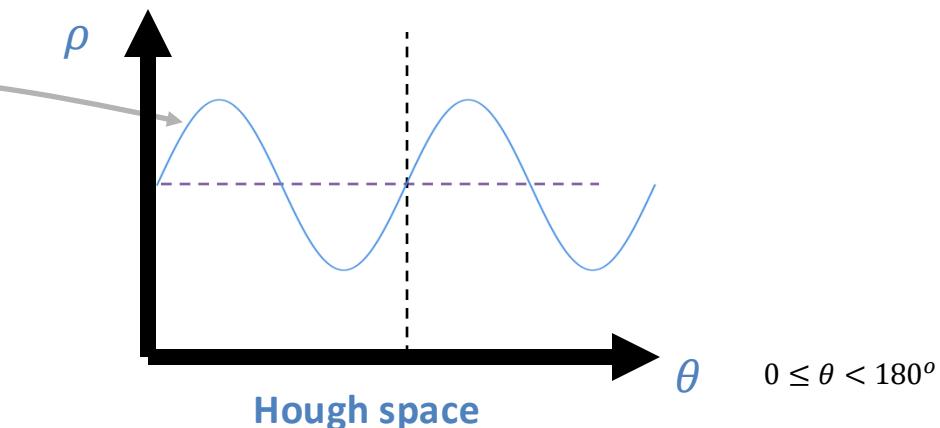
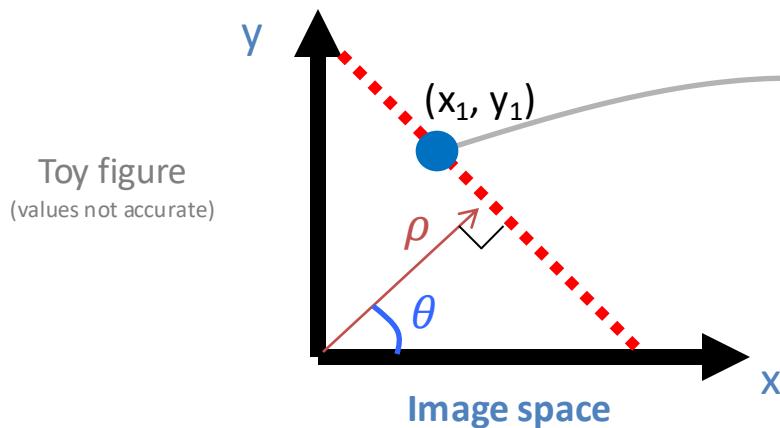


Map Point (x_1, y_1) → Sinusoid in Hough Space

CV

$$x_1 \cos \theta + y_1 \sin \theta = \rho$$

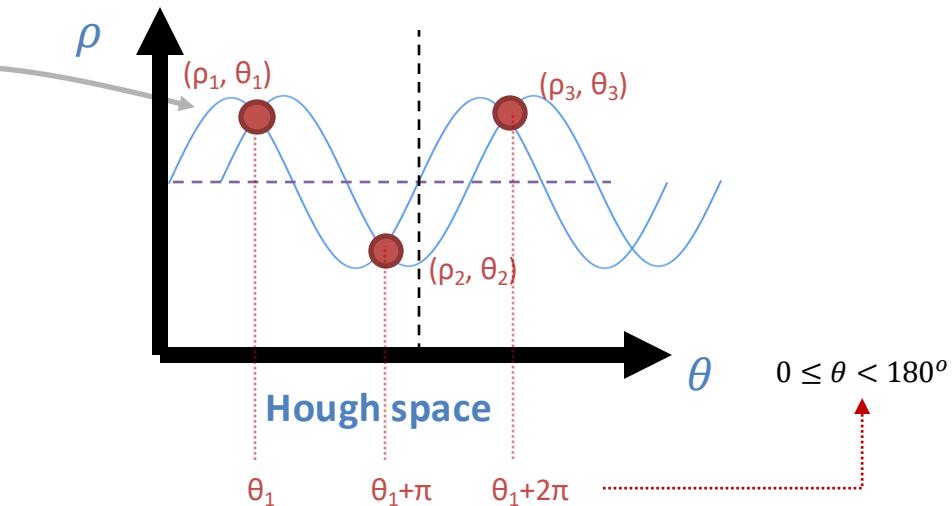
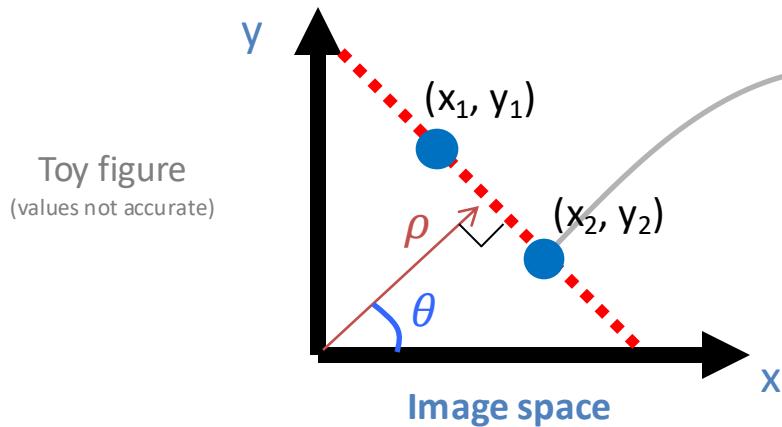
$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= x_1 \cos \theta + y_1 \sin \theta \\ &= \alpha_1 \sin(\theta + \beta_1)\end{aligned}$$



Map Point (x_2, y_2) → Sinusoid in Hough Space

$$x_2 \cos \theta + y_2 \sin \theta = \rho$$

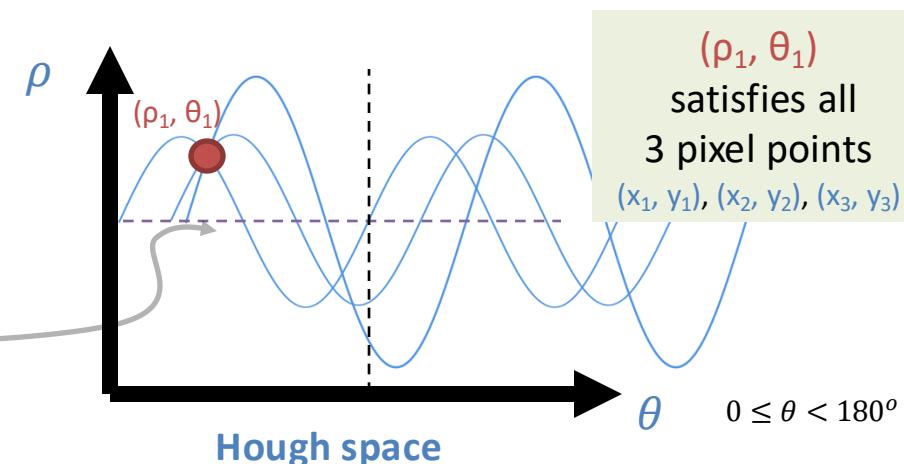
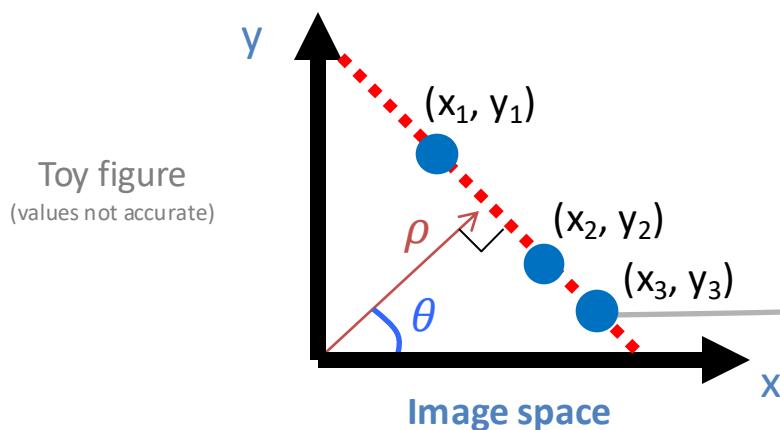
$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= x_2 \cos \theta + y_2 \sin \theta \\ &= \alpha_2 \sin(\theta + \beta_2)\end{aligned}$$



Map Point (x_3, y_3) → Sinusoid in Hough Space

$$x_3 \cos \theta + y_3 \sin \theta = \rho$$

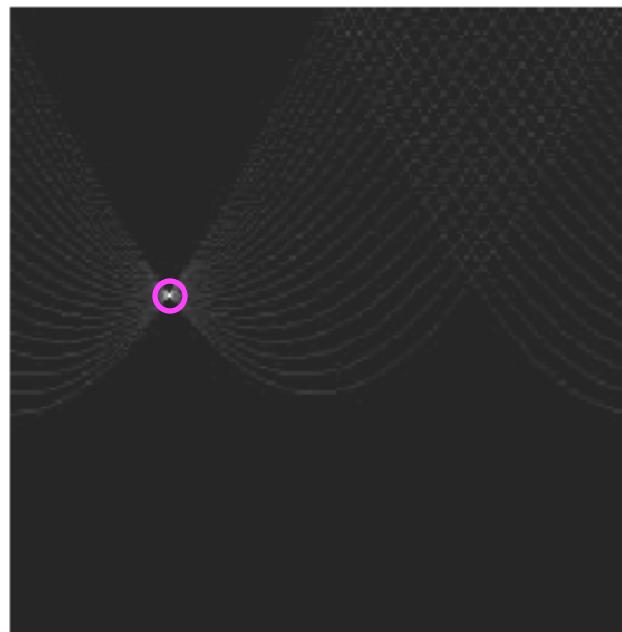
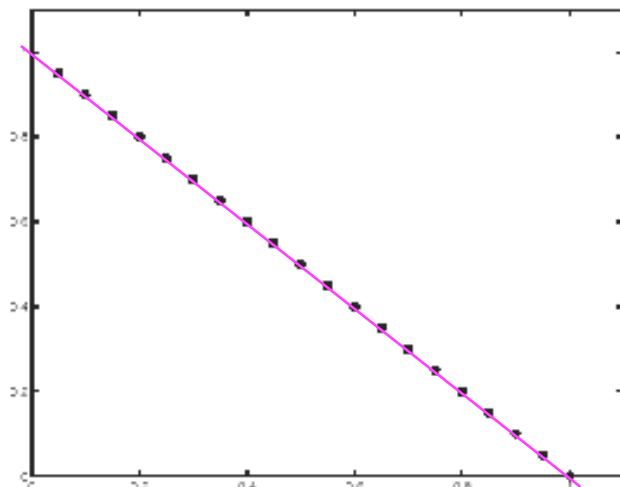
$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= x_3 \cos \theta + y_3 \sin \theta \\ &= \alpha_3 \sin(\theta + \beta_3)\end{aligned}$$



Hough Transform – Example

Clean data points → ‘Clear’ peak in Hough space

Data Points

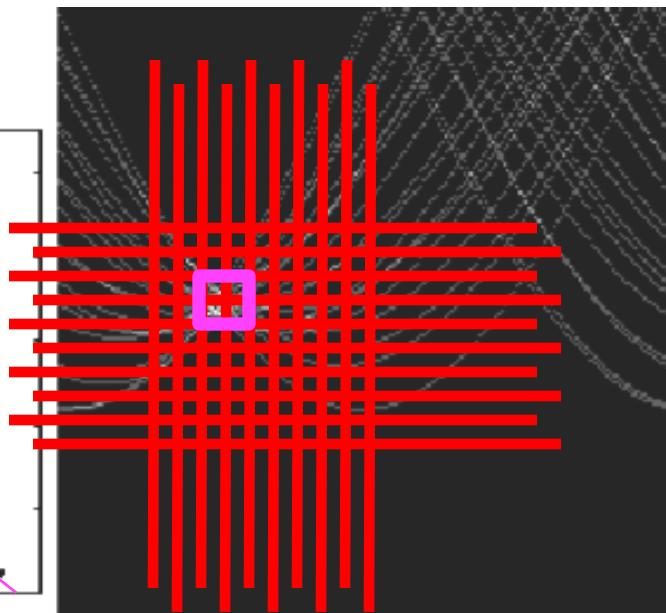
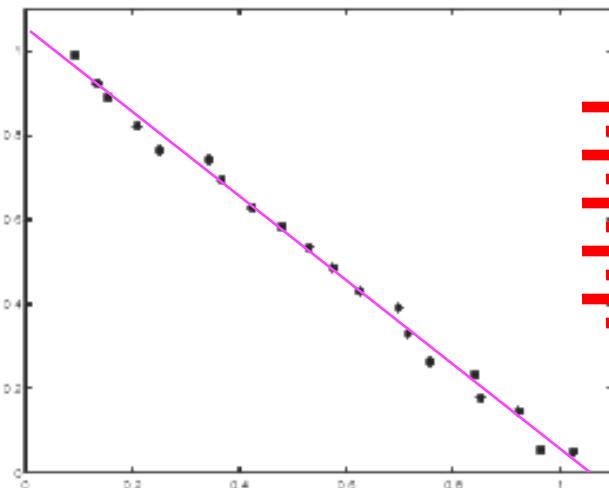


Votes in Hough Space
(regular grid)

Hough Transform – Example

Noisy data points → ‘Fuzzy’ peak in Hough space → Adjust grid size (sparser)

Data Points

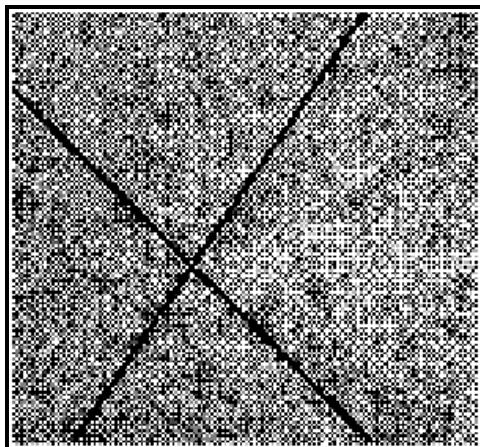


Votes in Hough Space
(regular grid)

Cell size – Trade Offs:

- **Too big:** Diff. lines merged
- **Too small:** Lines missed due to noise

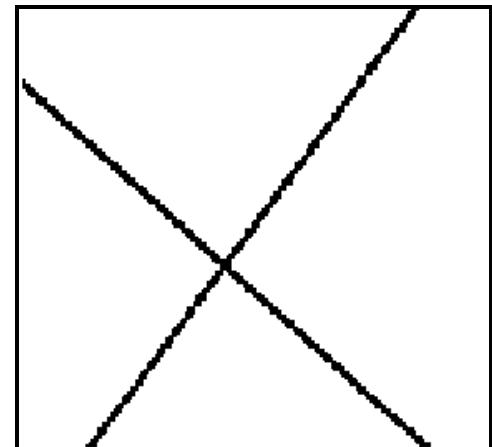
Hough Transform – Example



Image



Canny Edge
Detection



Line Detection
w Hough Transform

(Step 1/3) Image → Canny Edges



Image

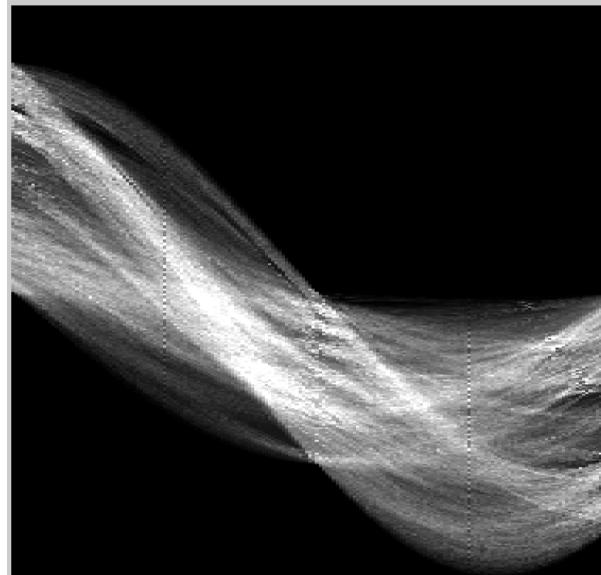


Canny Edge
Detection

(Step 2/3) Canny Edges → Hough Votes



Canny Edge
Detection

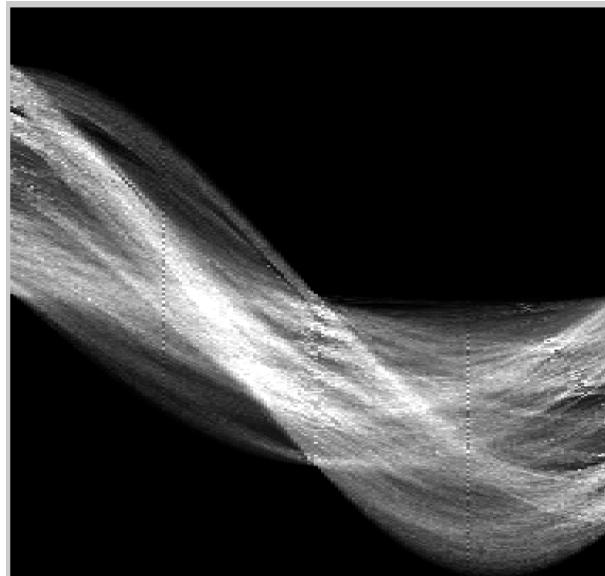


Accumulator
for Hough space

(Step 3/3) Hough Votes → Lines



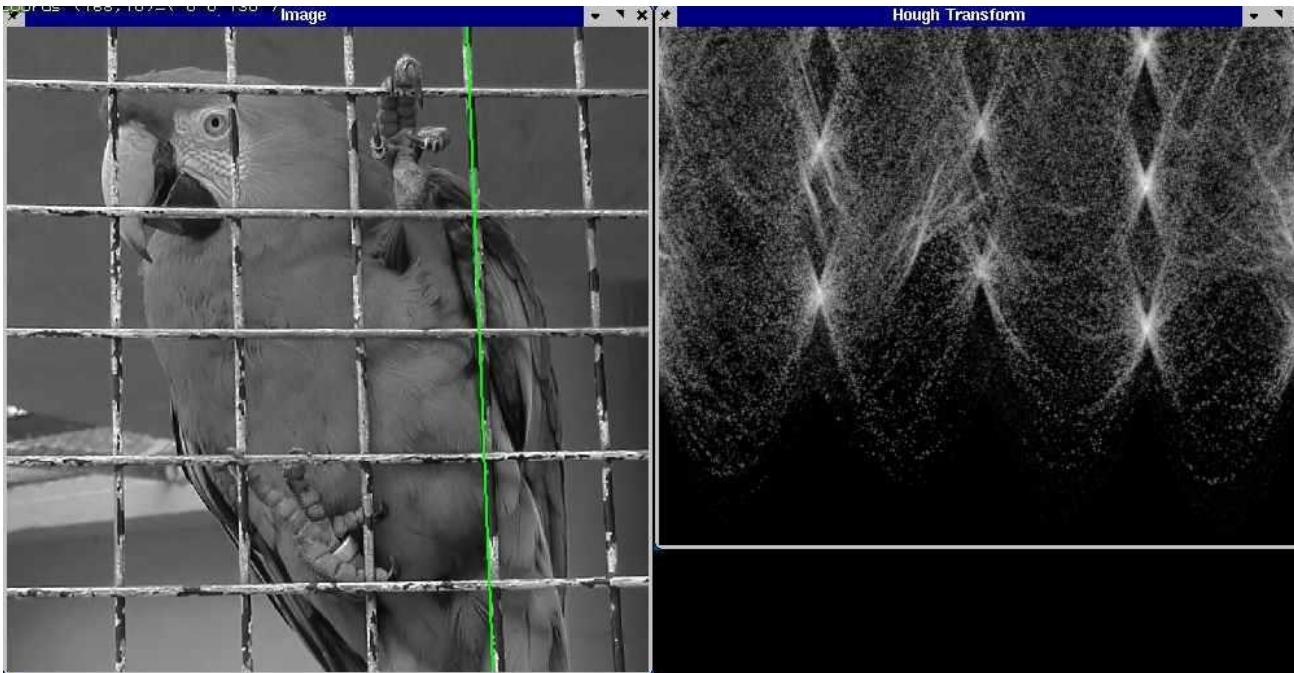
Line Detections



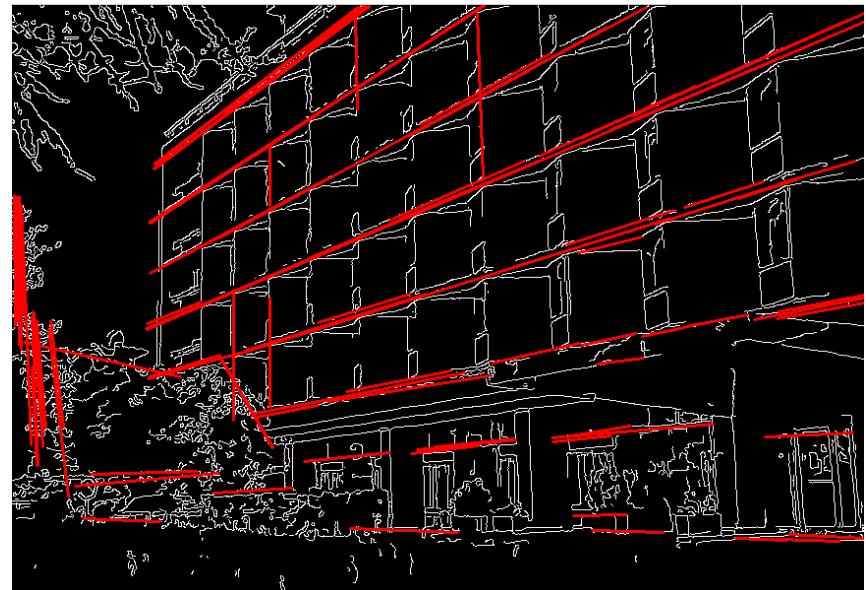
Accumulator
for Hough space

- Find [peaks](#) in Hough space
- Convert these to [lines](#) in pixel space

Hough Transform – Example



Hough Transform – Example



Probabilistic Hough Transform
(OpenCV)

Hough Transform – Pros & Cons

Pros 😊

- All points processed independently → Can cope with occlusion
- Some noise robustness (outliers unlikely to contribute consistently to single bin)
- Can detect multiple instances of a model in a single pass

Cons 😞

- Search-time complexity increases exponentially with # of model parameters
- Non-target shapes can produce spurious peaks in parameter space
- Quantization – Difficult to pick a ‘good’ grid size

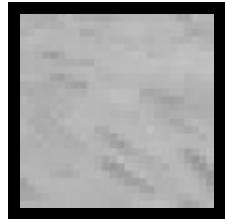
Hough Transform – Extension for Circles



Outline

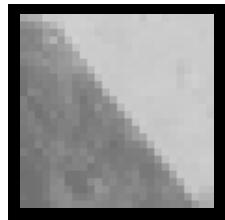
- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image, Derivatives of Gaussian
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Line Fitting
 - Least Squares
 - RANSAC
 - Hough Transform
- Corners
 - Harris Corners
 - SIFT
 - Applications

Interest Points



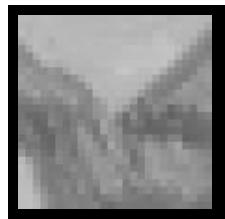
0D structure: ‘Flat’ areas

→ not useful for matching ☹



1D structure: Lines / Edges

→ edge, can be localized in 1D
subject to the aperture problem ☹



2D structure: Corners / Interest Points

→ can be localized in 2D
good for matching ☺

Interest Points have **2D** structure

Why Extract Features?

- Motivation → Panorama Stitching
 - We have 2 images
 - How to combine them?

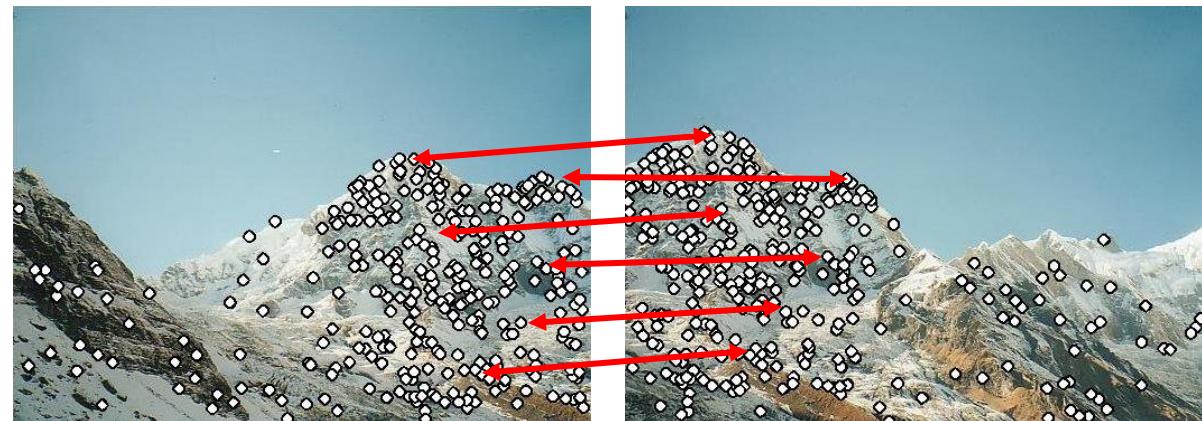


Why Extract Features?

- Motivation → Panorama Stitching
 - We have 2 images
 - How to combine them?

Step 1 → Extract Features

Step 2 → Match Features



Why Extract Features?

- Motivation → Panorama Stitching

- We have 2 images
- How to combine them?

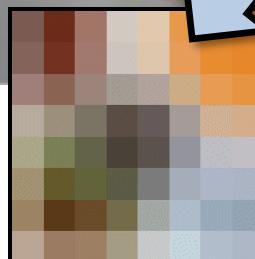
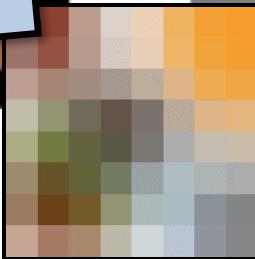
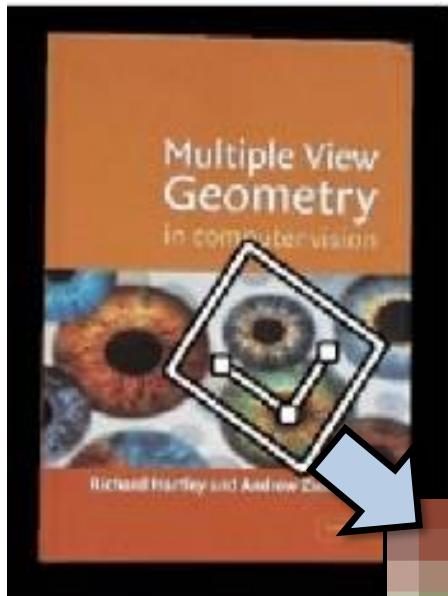
Step 1 → Extract Features

Step 2 → Match Features

Step 3 → Align Images



Feature Matching



Outline

- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image, Derivatives of Gaussian
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Line Fitting
 - Least Squares
 - RANSAC
 - Hough Transform
- Corners
 - Harris Corners
 - SIFT
 - Applications

Harris Corner Detector – Mathematics

Change of intensity
for shift $[u, v]$

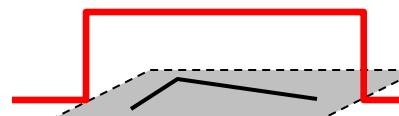
$$E(u, v) = \sum_{x,y} w(x, y) [I(x + u, y + v) - I(x, y)]^2$$

Diagram illustrating the components of the Harris corner detector equation:

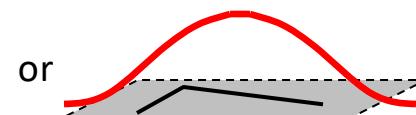
- Window function**: Represented by a blue rounded rectangle.
- Shifted intensity**: Represented by an orange rounded rectangle.
- Intensity**: Represented by a purple rounded rectangle.

Arrows point from each component label to its corresponding term in the equation.

Window function $w(x, y) =$

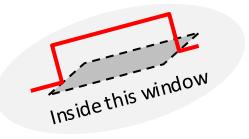


1 → in window
0 → outside



Gaussian

Harris Corner Detector – Mathematics



$$\begin{aligned}
 E(u, v) &= \sum_{x,y} [I(x-u, y-v) - I(x, y)]^2 \\
 &= \sum_{x,y} [I(x, y) - I_x u - I_y v + \varepsilon - I(x, y)]^2 \\
 &\approx \sum_{x,y} [-I_x u - I_y v]^2 \\
 &= \sum_{x,y} I_x^2 u^2 + I_x u I_y v + I_y v I_x u + I_y^2 v^2 \\
 &= \sum_{x,y} [u \quad v] \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$E(u, v) \cong [u, v] M \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

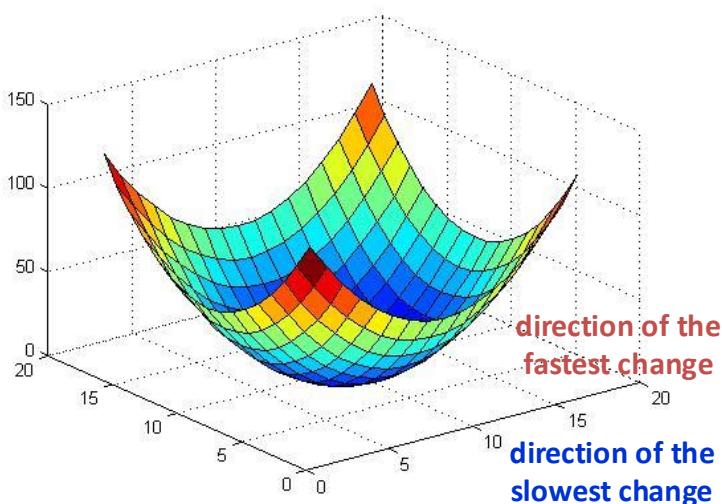
$$M = \sum_{x,y} \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Approximate Hessian
Encodes image ‘curvature’
Product of 1st order derivatives
instead of 2nd order derivatives

M depends on
img properties

Quadratic Form & Eigenvalues

$$E(u, v) \cong [u, v] M \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

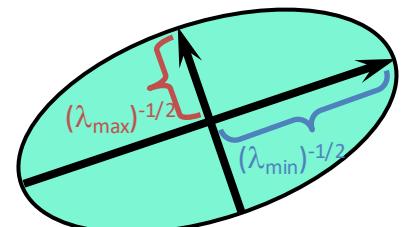


Measure of corner response:

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

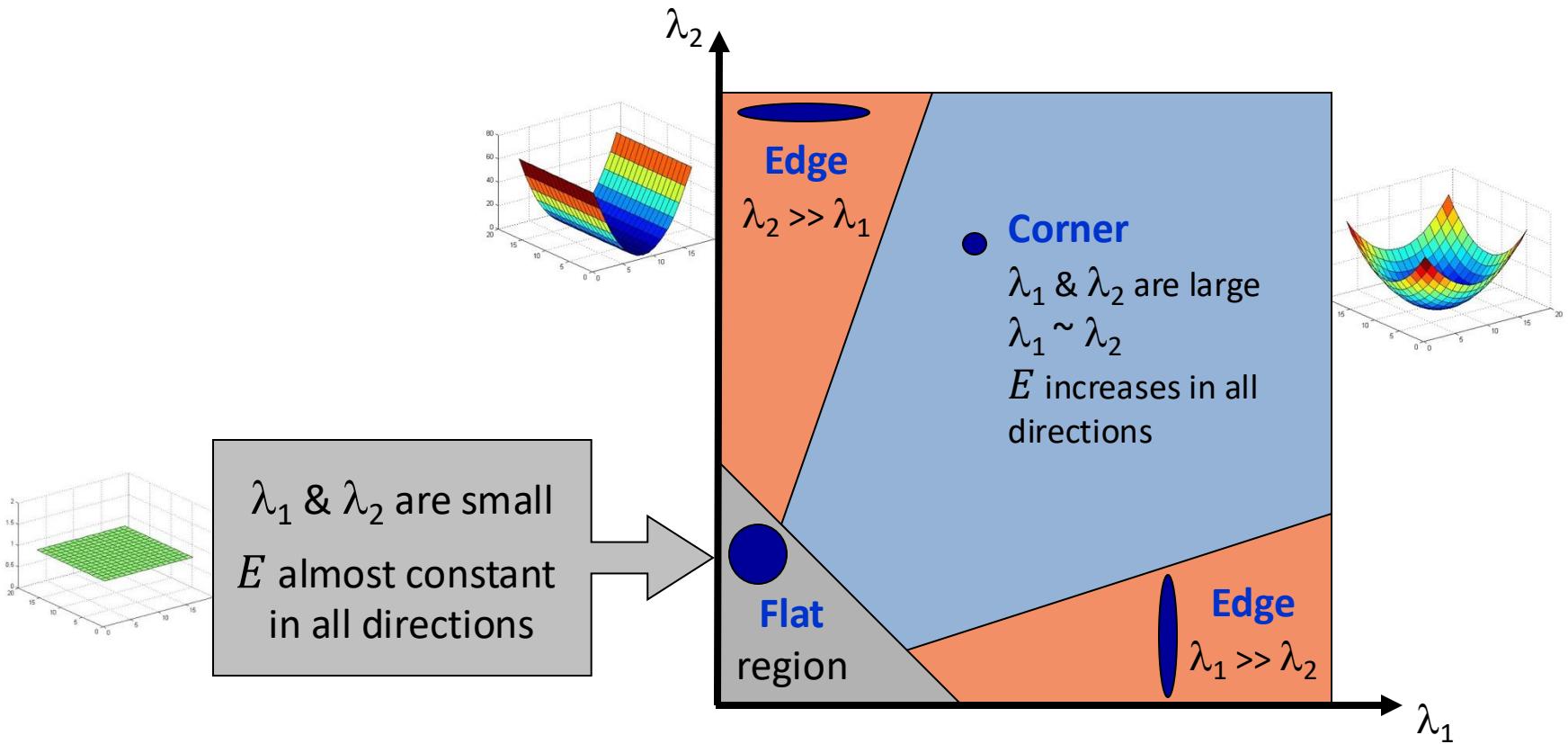
$$\det M = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$$

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



($k \rightarrow$ empirical constant)
 $(k = 0.04 - 0.06)$

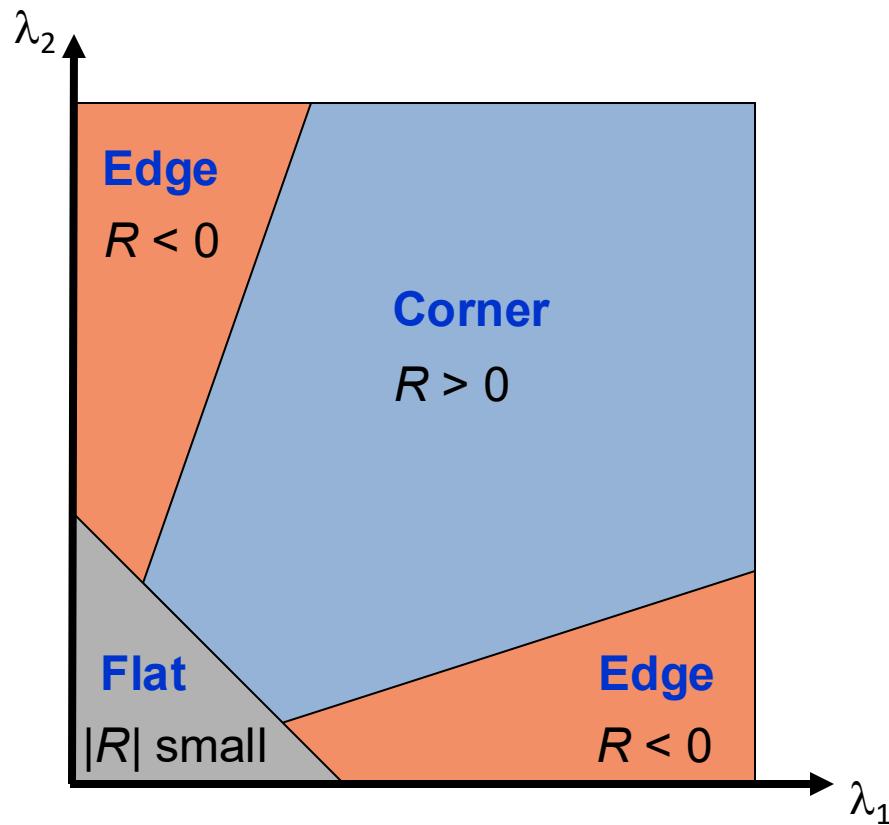
Eigenvalues of M – Classify Image Points



Harris Detector

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

- 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



Harris Detector – Summary

1. Compute x and y derivatives of image

$$I_x = G_\sigma^x * I \quad I_y = G_\sigma^y * I$$

2. Compute products of derivatives at every pixel

$$I_{x2} = I_x \cdot I_x \quad I_{y2} = I_y \cdot I_y \quad I_{xy} = I_x \cdot I_y$$

3. Compute the sums of the products of derivatives at each pixel

$$S_{x2} = G_{\sigma'} * I_{x2} \quad S_{y2} = G_{\sigma'} * I_{y2} \quad S_{xy} = G_{\sigma'} * I_{xy}$$

4. Define at each pixel (x, y) the matrix

$$H(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} S_{x2}(x, y) & S_{xy}(x, y) \\ S_{xy}(x, y) & S_{y2}(x, y) \end{bmatrix}$$

5. Compute the response of the detector at each pixel

$$R = \text{Det}(H) - k(\text{Trace}(H))^2$$

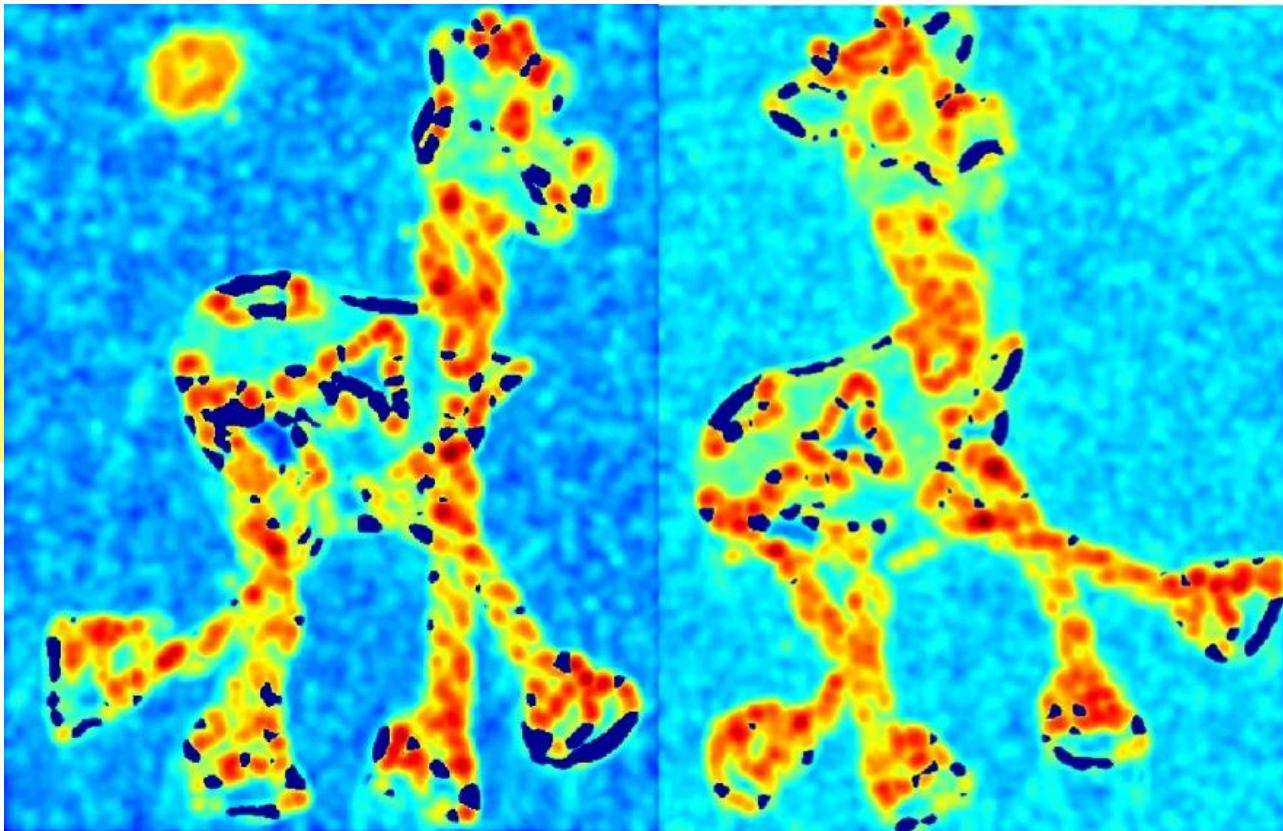
6. Threshold on value of R. Compute nonmax suppression

Harris Detector – Workflow



Harris Detector – Workflow

Compute
corner response
 R



Harris Detector – Workflow

Points w. large
corner response
 $R >$ threshold



Harris Detector – Workflow

Take only points
at local maxima
of R
(non-maxima
suppression)



Harris Detector – Workflow



Outline

- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image, Derivatives of Gaussian
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Line Fitting
 - Least Squares
 - RANSAC
 - Hough Transform
- Corners
 - Harris Corners
 - SIFT
 - Applications

Interest Points & Image Scale

Can we detect the
same interest points
despite changes in
image scale?



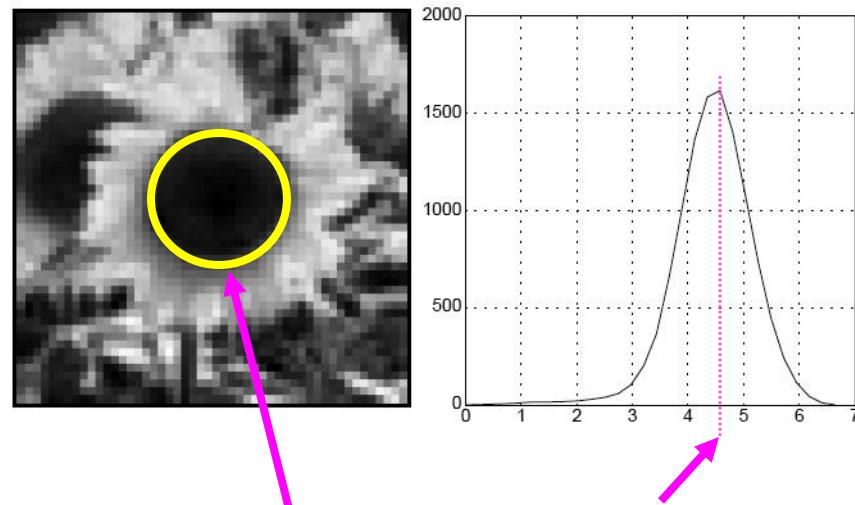
Blob Detection in 2D

Characteristic Scale → The scale that produces peak of Laplacian response

Nugget:

- Convolve image with Gaussians of varying scale
- Detect max responses across scale space

A narrower or wider Gaussian → would have a weaker response for this flower



Example

$\frac{3}{4}$ the
Original Size



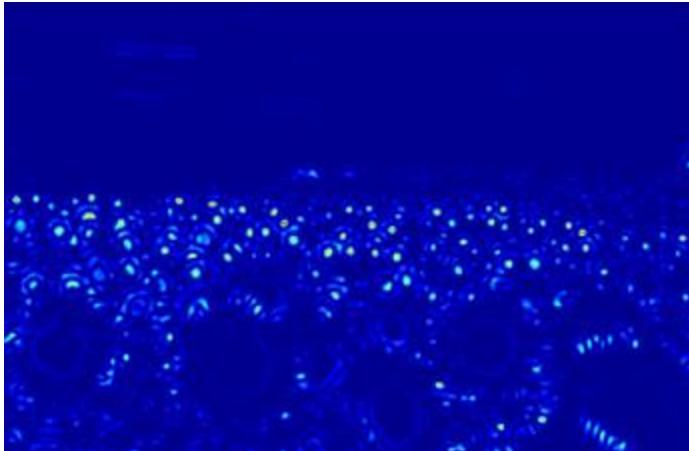
Original
Size



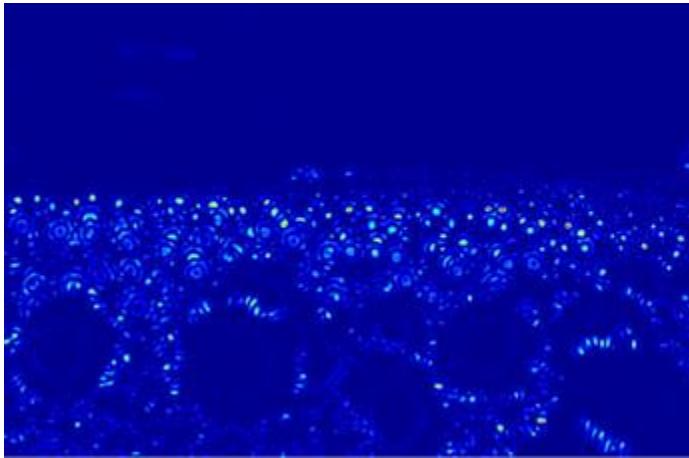
Example

Image at $\frac{3}{4}$ the
original size →

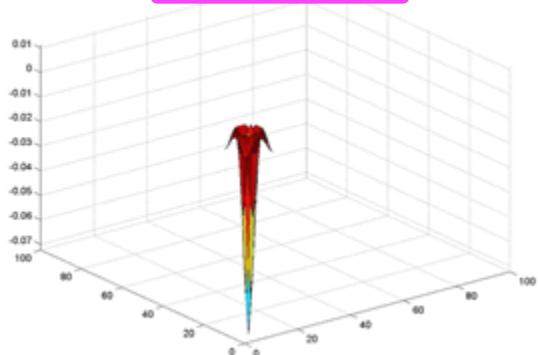
$\frac{3}{4}$ the
Original Size



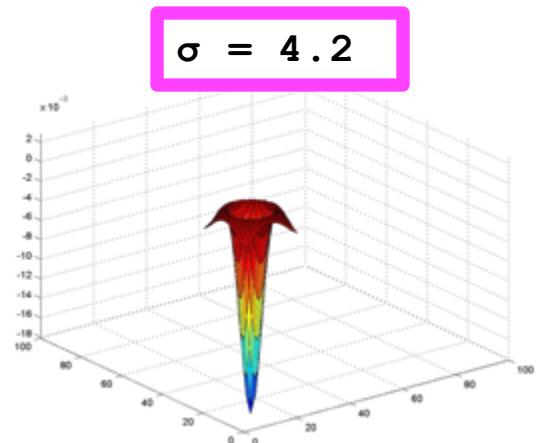
Original
Size



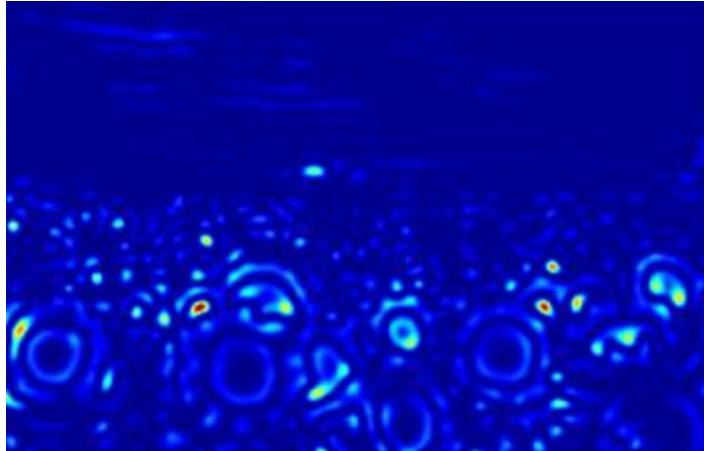
$$\sigma = 2.1$$



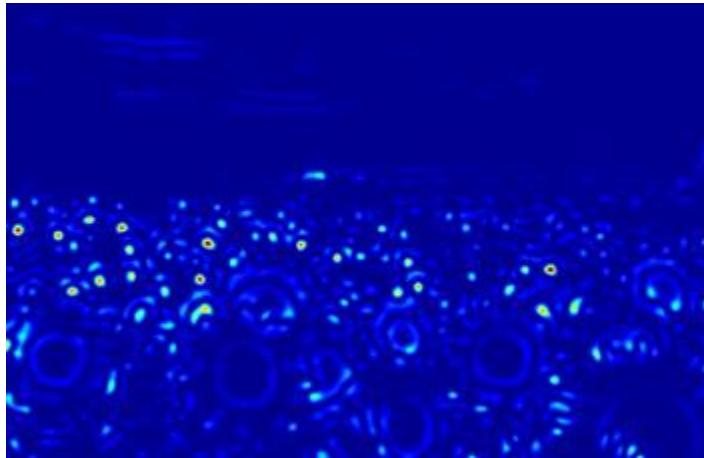
Example



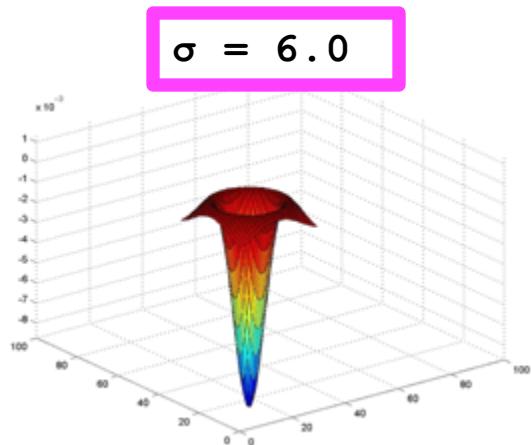
$\frac{3}{4}$ the
Original Size



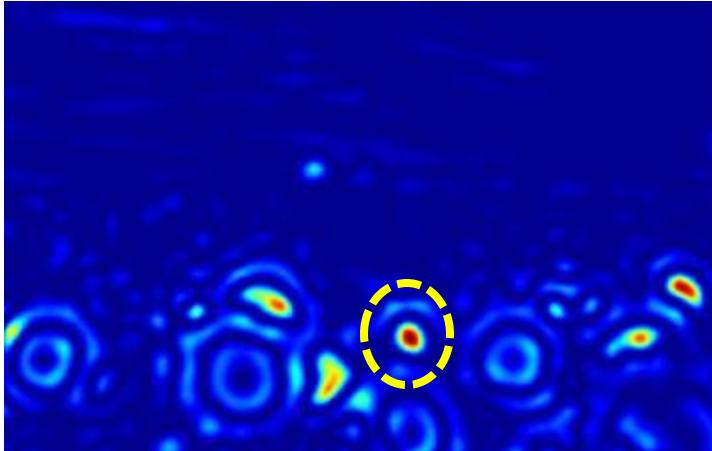
Original
Size



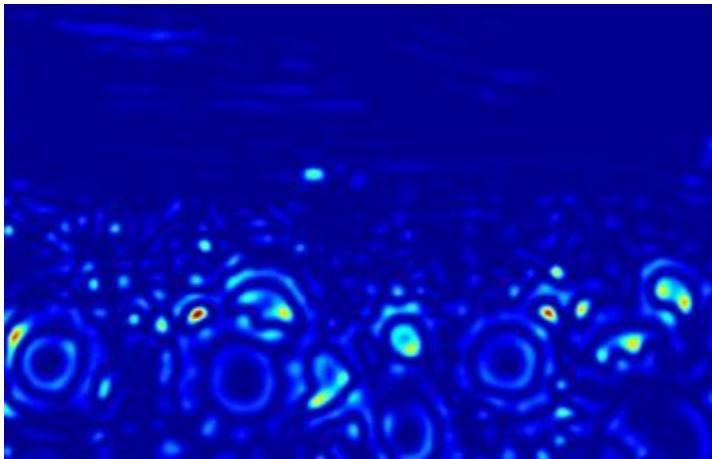
Example



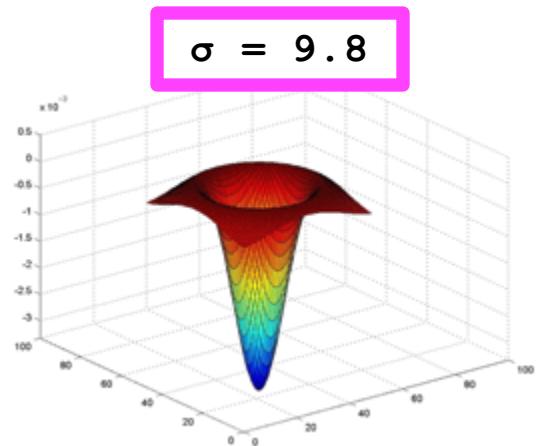
$\frac{3}{4}$ the
Original Size



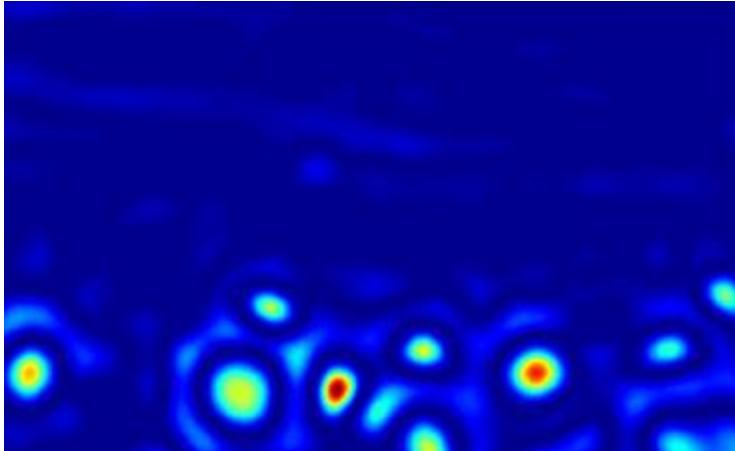
Original
Size



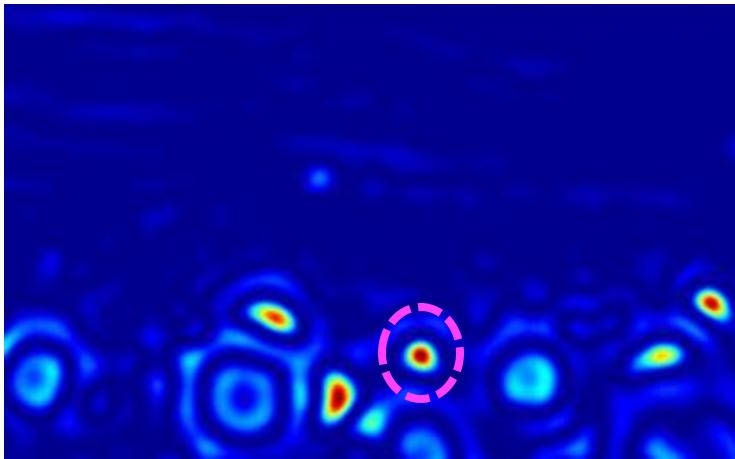
Example



$\frac{3}{4}$ the
Original Size

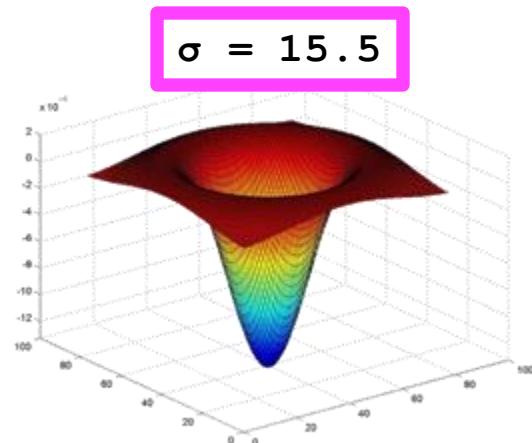


Original
Size

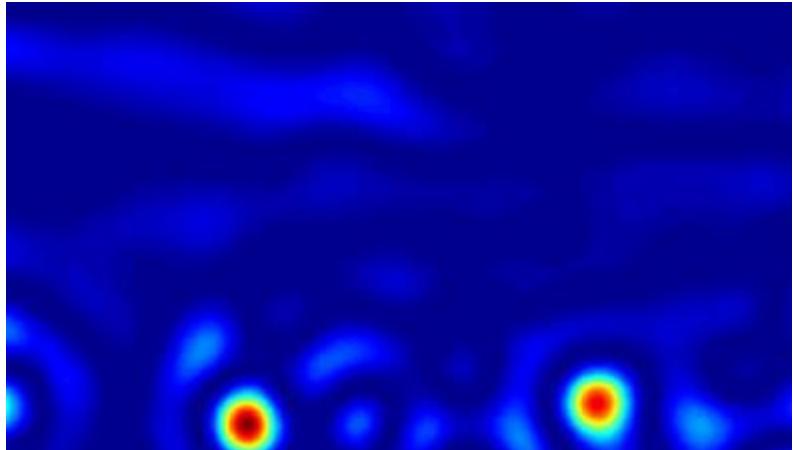


Example

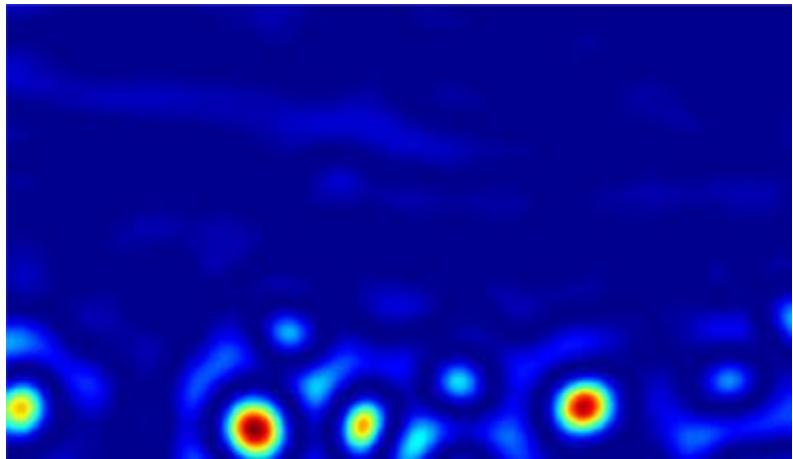
A LoG of **increasing sigma** produces stronger activations for **bigger-looking sunflowers** (lying **closer to the camera**)



% the
Original Size



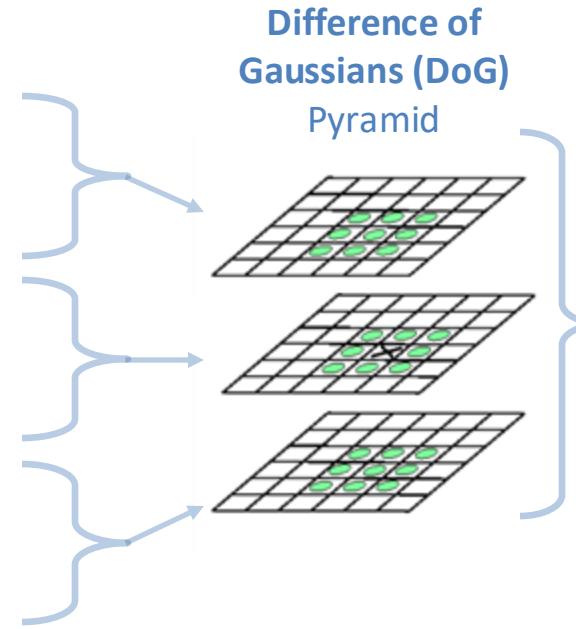
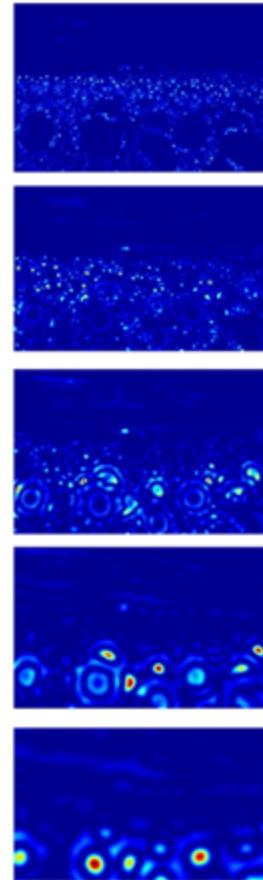
Original
Size



SIFT Keypoints



Gaussian Scale Space s

$$L_{xx}(\sigma) + L_{yy}(\sigma)$$


Convolution with Gaussian is rotation invariant

Keypoints:
local **extrema** in
 $3 \times 3 \times 3$ grid i.e. in both:

- Spatial space (x, y)
- Scale space (s)

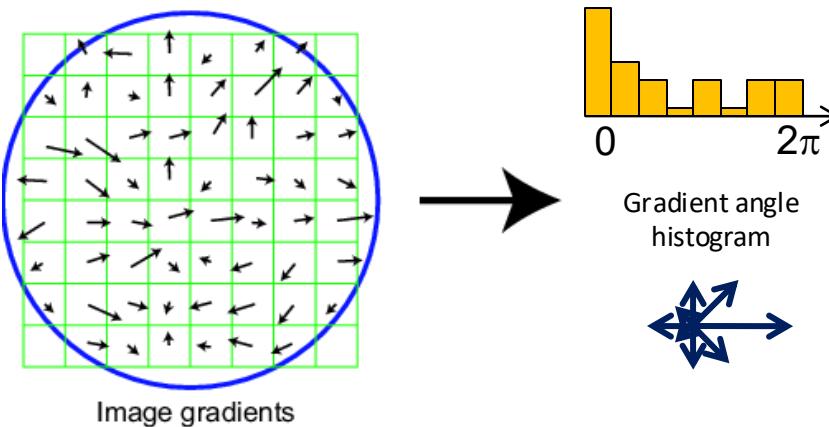
Keypoints are !
Scale Invariant

Keypoints are !
Rot. Invariant

SIFT - Scale Invariant Feature Transform

Histogram computed in
Gaussian-weighted
neighborhood

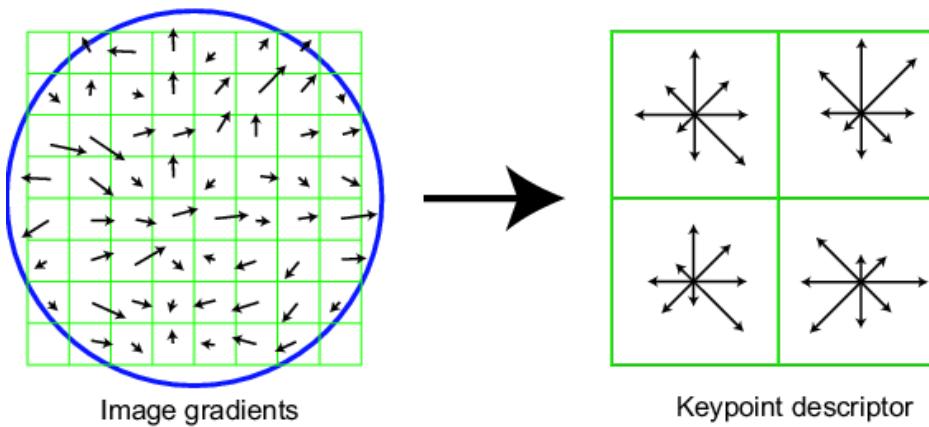
Contributes to Rot. Invariant for keypoints



Basic idea:

- Take **16x16 window** around detected keypoint (8x8 example shown here)
- For each window **pixel** – Compute **edge orientation** (angle of the gradient - 90°)
- Throw out weak edges (threshold gradient magnitude)
- Create histogram of surviving edge orientations

SIFT – Descriptor



Full version of SIFT:

- Divide **16x16** window → **4x4** cell grid (**2x2** example shown here)
- For each cell, compute **orientation histogram** (8 orientation bins)
- 16 cells (4x4 grid) * 8 orientations (per cell) → **128 dimensional descriptor**

SIFT – Rotation Invariant (Robust)

For each patch:

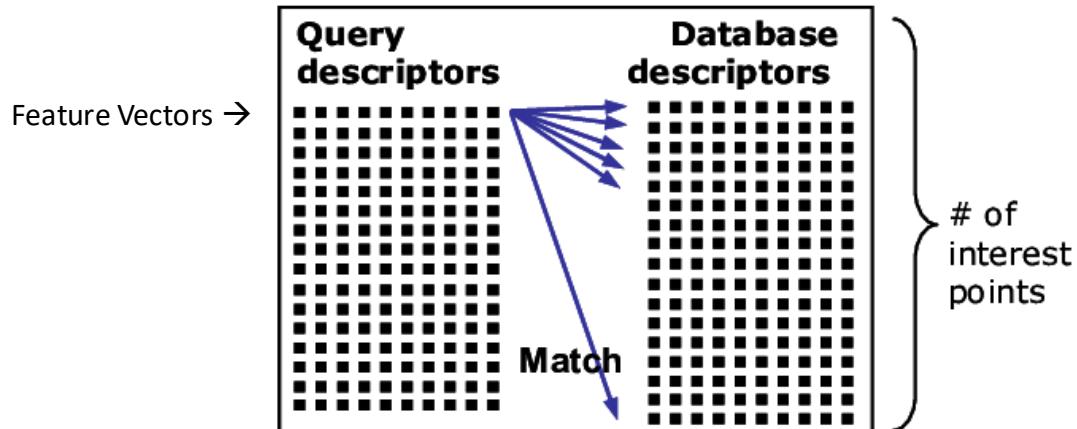
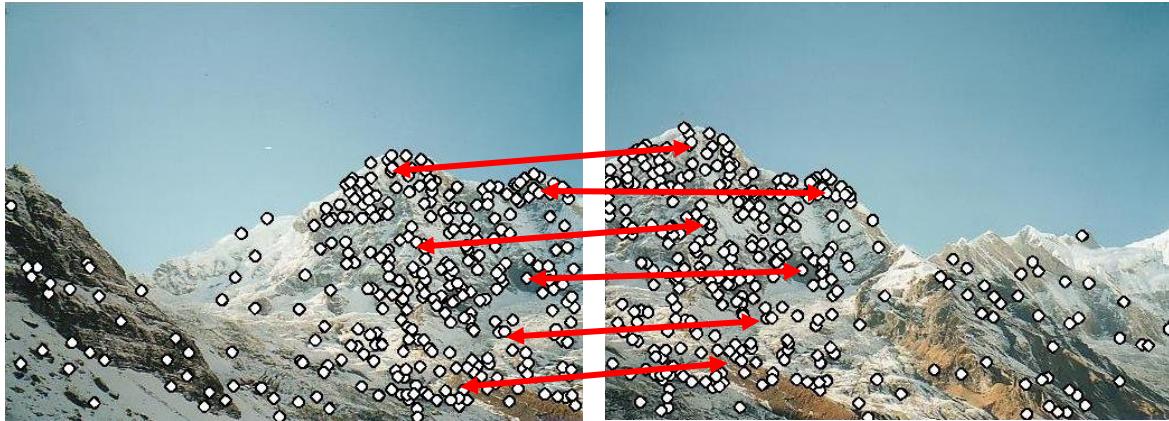
- Compute **histogram** of its **gradient directions/orientations**
- Find **dominant orientation**
- **Descriptor** represented relative to this orientation



Descriptor is
Rotation Invariant!

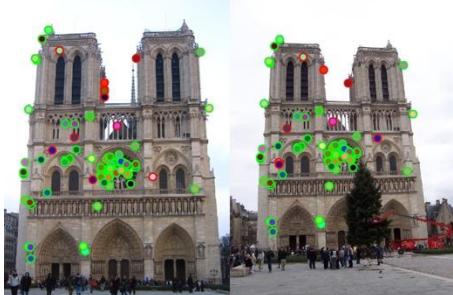


SIFT – Features Matching – Brute-Force



Keypoints –VS– Features

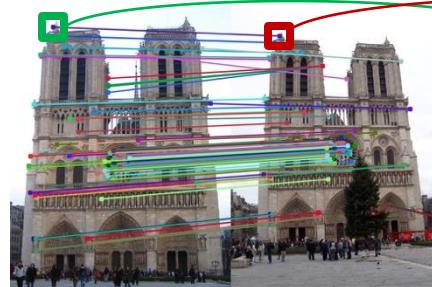
Keypoint Detector (Finding ‘interesting’ points)



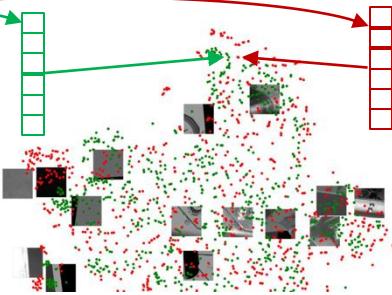
[S. Shah, [Local Feature Matching](#)]

Examples (namedrop): Harris corners, Shi-Tomasi corner detector, SUSAN corner detector, FAST feature detector, Laplacian of Gaussian, Difference of Gaussian, Superpoint, ...

Feature Descriptor (Describing a keypoint)



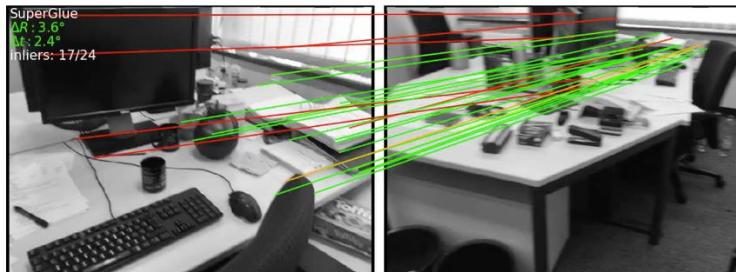
[S. Shah, [Local Feature Matching](#)]



[Ghimire et al., Applied Sciences, 2021]

Examples (namedrop): SIFT – Scale Invariant Feature Transform, SURF – Speeded-up Robust Features, BRIEF – Binary Robust Independent Elementary Features, ORB – Oriented FAST Rotated BRIEF, Superpoint, ...

Goal: Feature Matching



[Sarlin et al., SuperGlue, CVPR 2020]

SIFT properties

- **Equivariant** ('Invariant' is probably a better term) to: ← (check all ! icons)
 - Scale → Detect scale using DoG
 - Rotation → Dominant direction using histogram
- **Partially invariant** to
 - Illumination changes: Gradient magnitude is thrown away, only use direction
 - Camera viewpoint (affine transform)
 - Occlusion
 - Clutter

SIFT in OpenCV

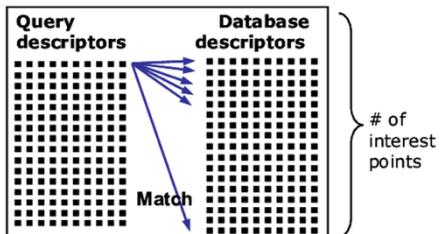
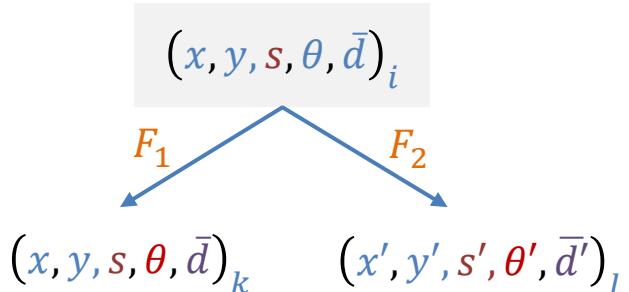
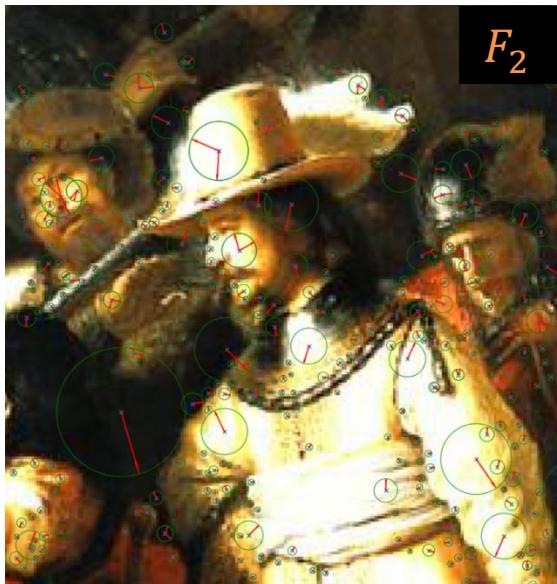
1. Detect keypoints – OpenCV tuple:

$$(x, y, s, \theta, \bar{d})_i$$

2. Compute a feature per keypt

3. Establish keypt *correspondences*

- *position* (x, y) in image
- *scale* s of detection
- *orientation* θ
- *128D feature descriptor* \bar{d}



>Will be covered<
>Next week<

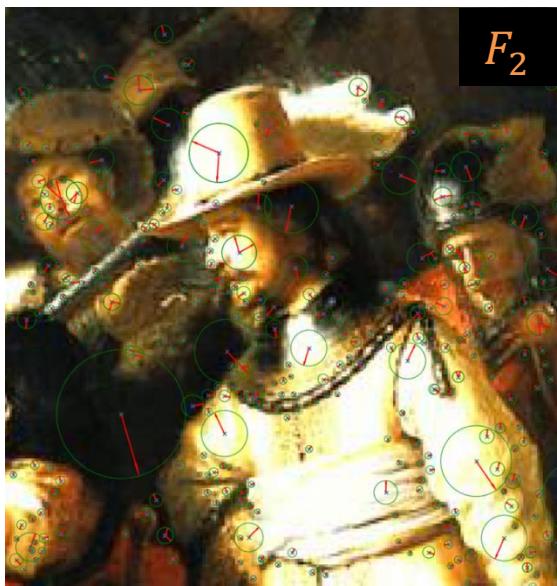
SIFT for Image Stitching

1. Detect keypoints – OpenCV tuple

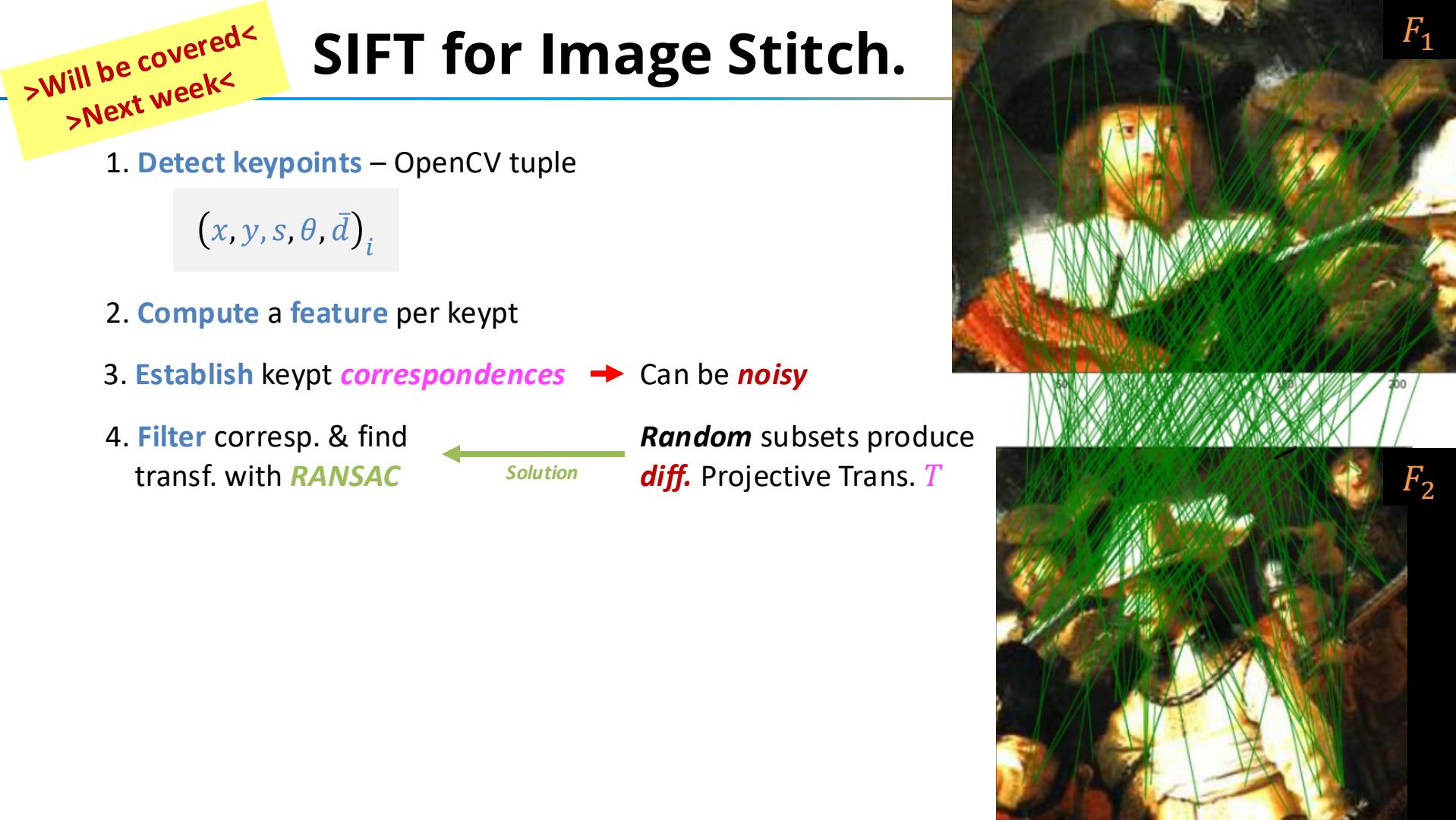
$$(x, y, s, \theta, d)_i$$



F_1



F_2



SIFT for Image Stitch.

>Will be covered<
>Next week<

RANSAC

Goal: Find **subset** of corrsp.
that produce a **good**
Proj. Transform T

A *candidate* corrsp. $\{(x, y), (x', y')\}$
is **true positive** if it complies with T :

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \approx T \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{within a small error margin}$$



Steps

- Randomly select 4 corrsp: $\{(x, y), (x', y')\}_{i \in \{1,2,3,4\}}$ → Compute (hypothesis) Proj. Transf. T
- Count number # of *inliers* for current hypothesis/model → For other corrsp. evaluate whether:
$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - h2e\left(T \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \right\| \leq \varepsilon$$
- Store model with max inliers (corr., # inliers, fit quality, trnsf. T)
- Iterate max N times
- For best model – use *all inliers*



F_1

F_2

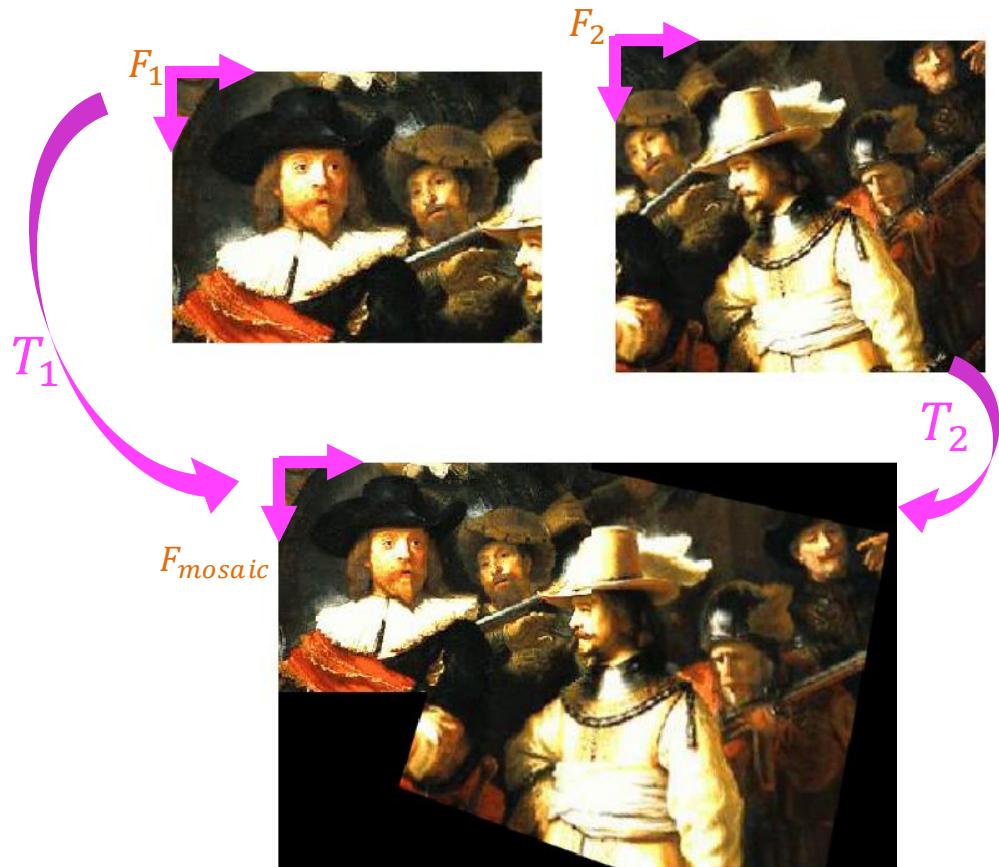
>Will be covered<
>Next week<

SIFT for Image Stitching

1. Detect keypoints – OpenCV tuple

$$(x, y, s, \theta, d)_i$$

2. Compute a feature per keypt
3. Establish keypt *correspondences*
4. Filter corresp. & find transf. with *RANSAC*
5. Warp F_1 and F_2 into frame F_{mosaic} with their respective *final transf.* T



Outline

- Edge Detection
 - Derivatives of Image, Derivatives of Gaussian
 - Canny Edge Detector
- Line Fitting
 - Least Squares
 - RANSAC
 - Hough Transform
- Corners
 - Harris Corners
 - SIFT
 - Applications

Applications

- Feature points are used for:
 - Image alignment
 - 3D reconstruction
 - Motion tracking
 - Robot navigation
 - Indexing and database retrieval
 - Object recognition



Stitching & Multi-band Blending

>Will be covered<
>Next week<



P. J. Burt and E. H. Adelson
[A multiresolution spline with application to image mosaics](#)

ACM Transaction on Graphics (ToG), 1983

Stitching & Multi-band Blending

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ACM Transaction on Graphics (ToG), 1983

Slide: Derek Hoiem 162

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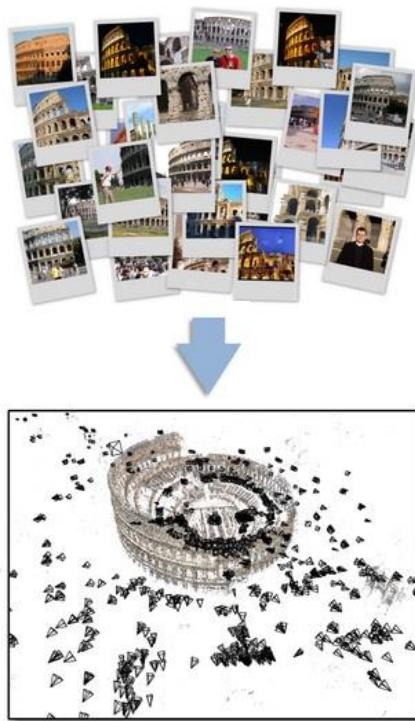
Slide: Derek Hoiem 163

Stitching & Multi-band Blending

>Will be covered<
>Next week<



Example: Structure from Motion



Jan-Michael Frahm et al.
[Building rome on a cloudless day](#)
ECCV 2010



<https://youtu.be/4cEQZreQ2zQ>

Closing Remarks

Action Points

- This week:
 - Thursday Lecture: Optical Flow & Motion
 - Finish Quiz-2
 - Finish Lab-2 Assignment
 - Start Lab-3 Assignment

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