



# Lecture: Feature Descriptors

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# CS 131 Roadmap





# What we will learn today?

- Scale invariant region selection
  - Automatic scale selection
  - Difference-of-Gaussian (DoG) detector
- SIFT: an image region descriptor
- HOG: another image descriptor
- Application: Panorama

Some background reading: David Lowe, IJCV 2004

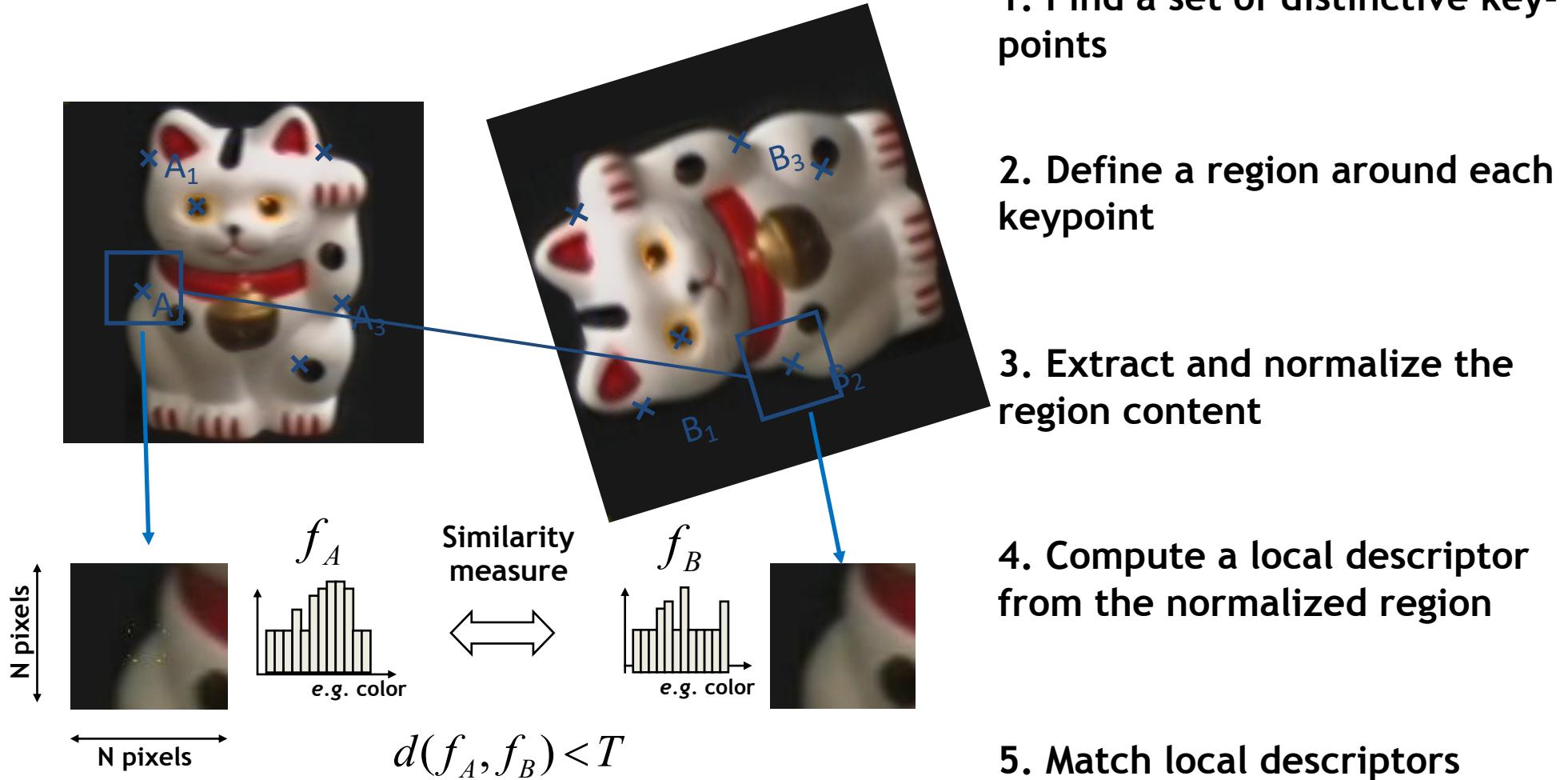


# A quick review

- Local invariant features
  - Motivation
  - Requirements, invariances
- Keypoint localization
  - Harris corner detector



# General Approach



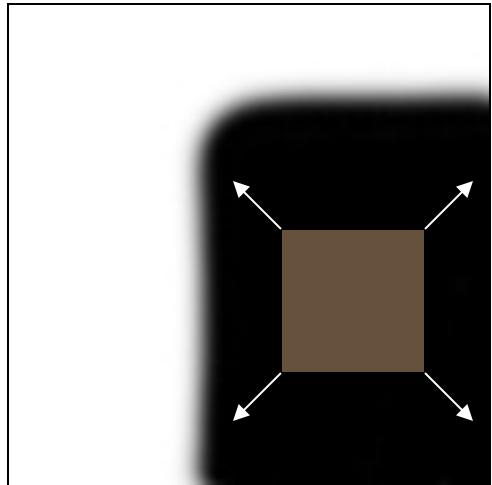


# A quick review

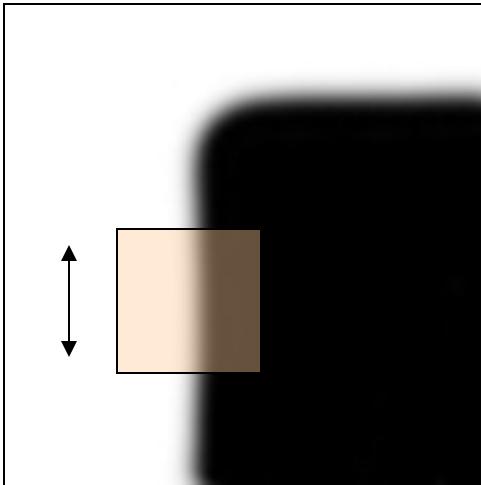
- Local invariant features
  - Motivation
  - Requirements, invariances
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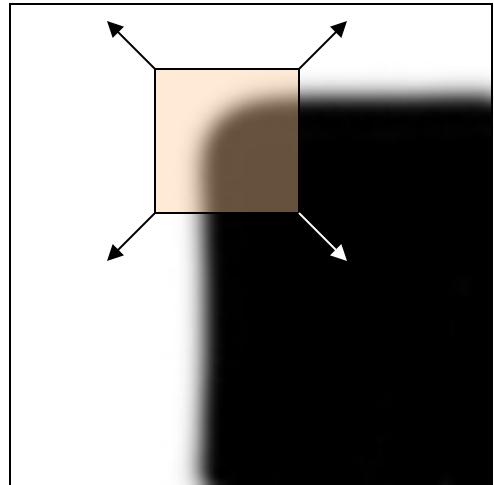
# Quick review: Harris Corner Detector



**“flat” region:**  
no change in all  
directions



**“edge”:**  
no change along  
the edge direction

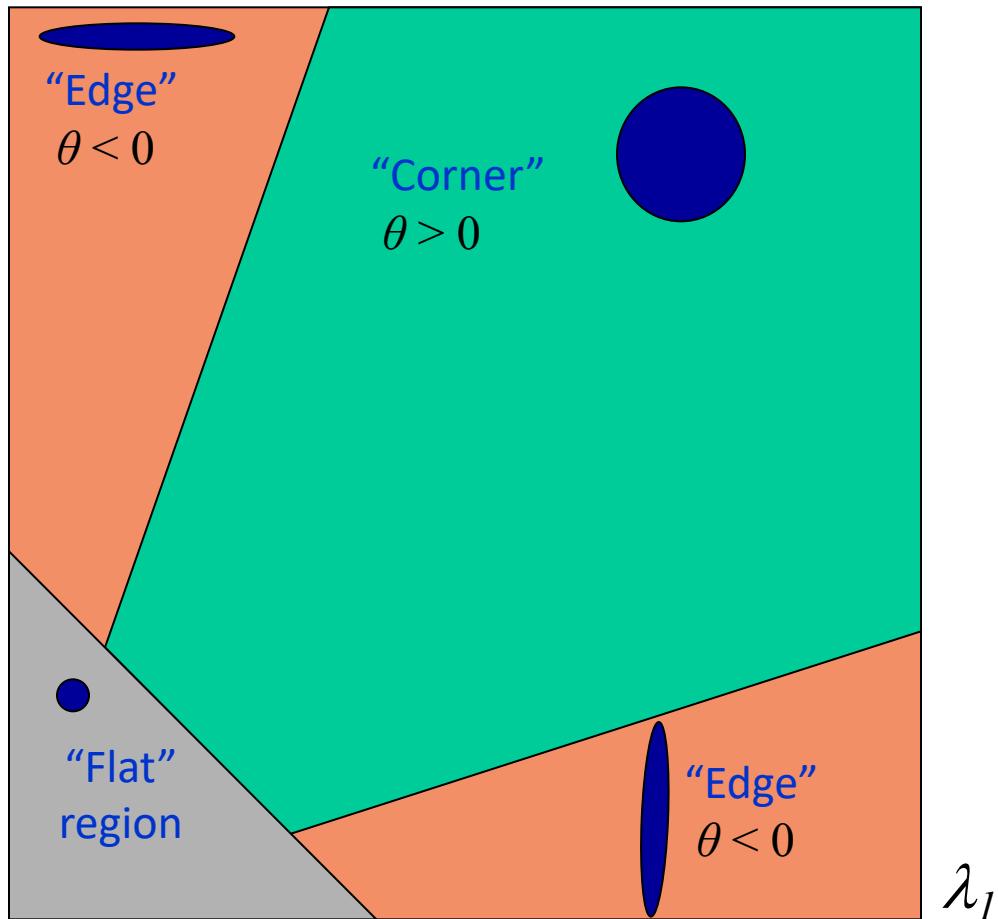


**“corner”:**  
significant change  
in all directions



# Quick review: Harris Corner Detector

$$\theta = \det(M) - \alpha \operatorname{trace}(M)^2 = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 - \alpha(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^2$$



- Fast approximation
  - Avoid computing the eigenvalues
  - $\alpha$ : constant (0.04 to 0.06)



# Quick review: Harris Corner Detector

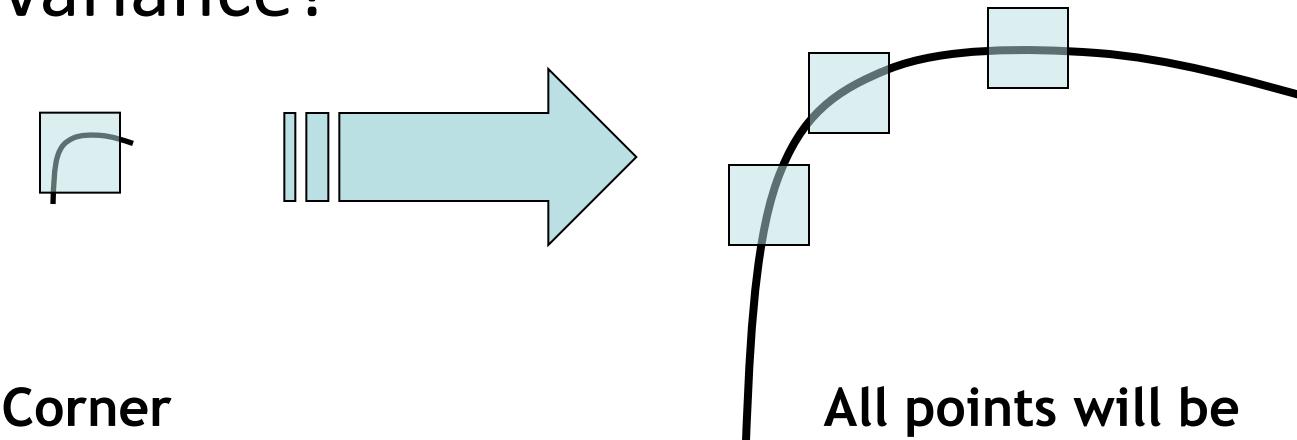


Slide adapted from Darya Frolova, Denis Simakov



# Quick review: Harris Corner Detector

- Translation invariance
- Rotation invariance
- Scale invariance?



**Not invariant to image scale!**



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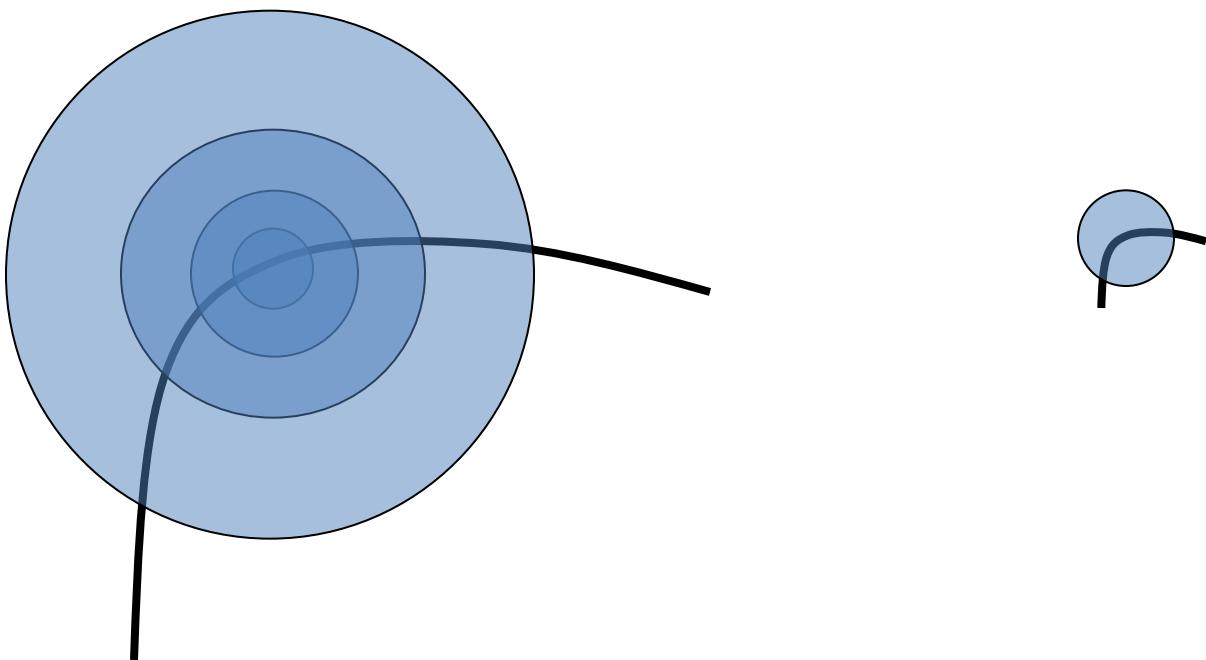
# Does scale matter?

- When detecting corners, the `scale` of the window you use can change the corners you detect.



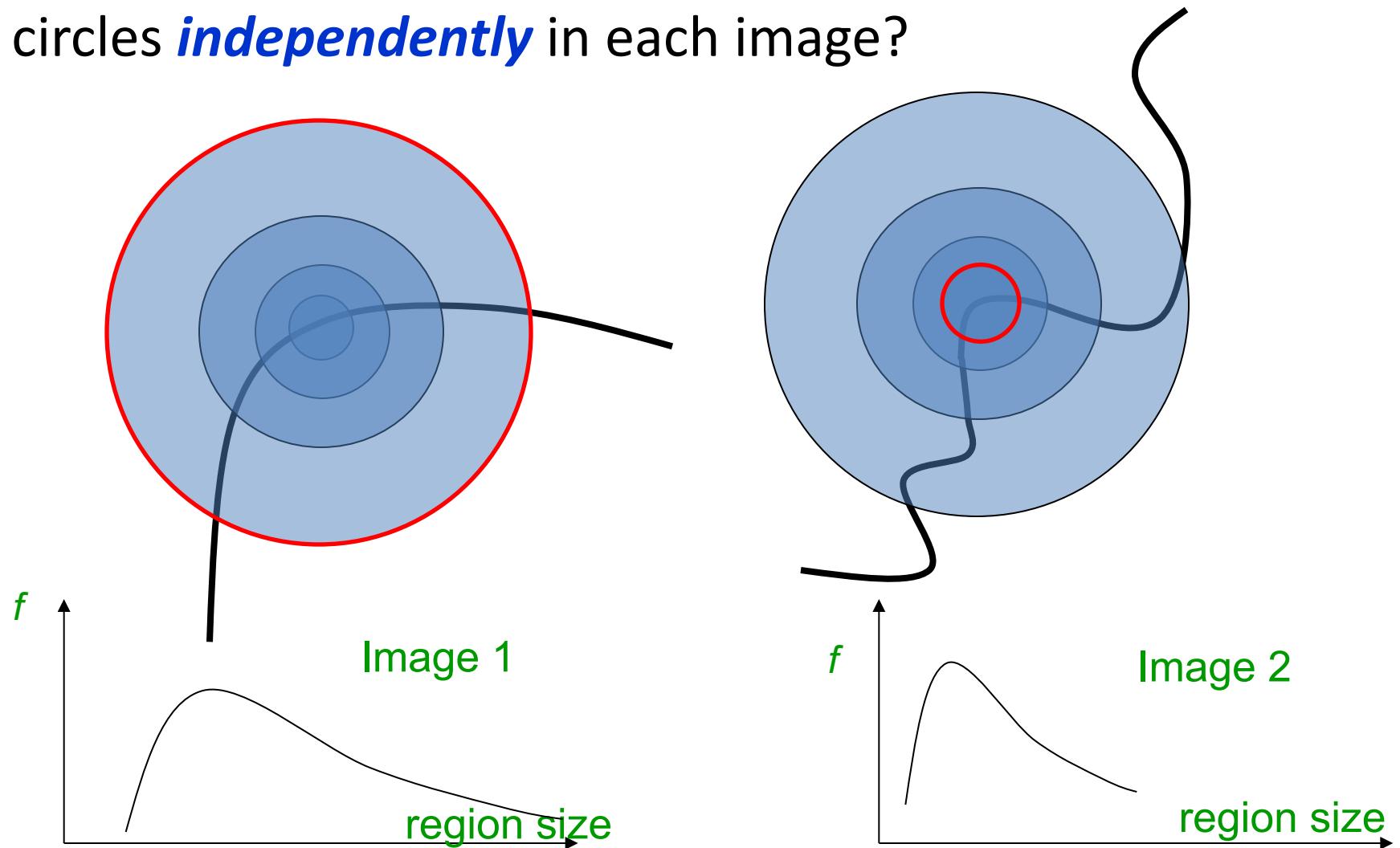
# Scale Invariant Detection

- Consider regions (e.g. circles) of different sizes around a point
- What region size do we choose, so that the regions look the same in both images?



# Scale Invariant Detection

- The problem: how do we choose corresponding circles **independently** in each image?

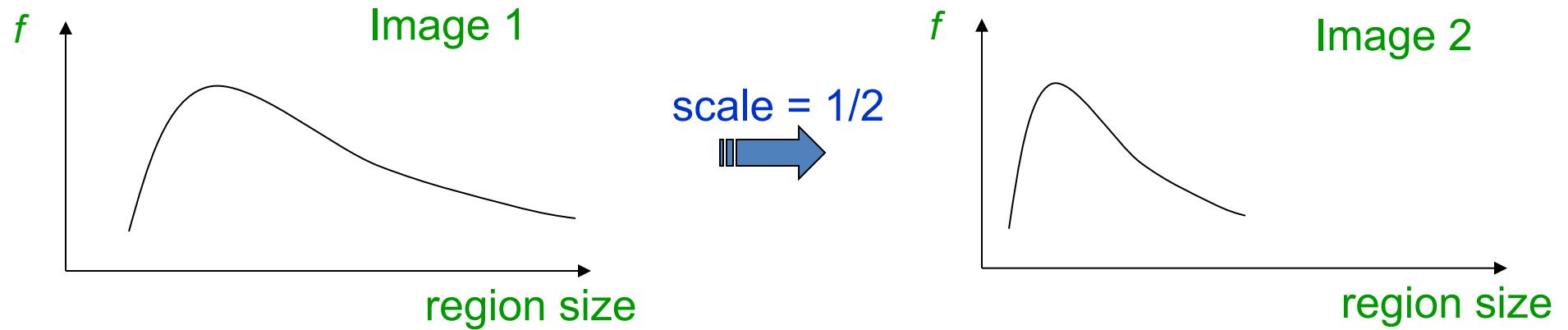




# Scale Invariant Detection

- Solution:
  - Design a function on the region (circle), which is “scale invariant” (the same for corresponding regions, even if they are at different scales)

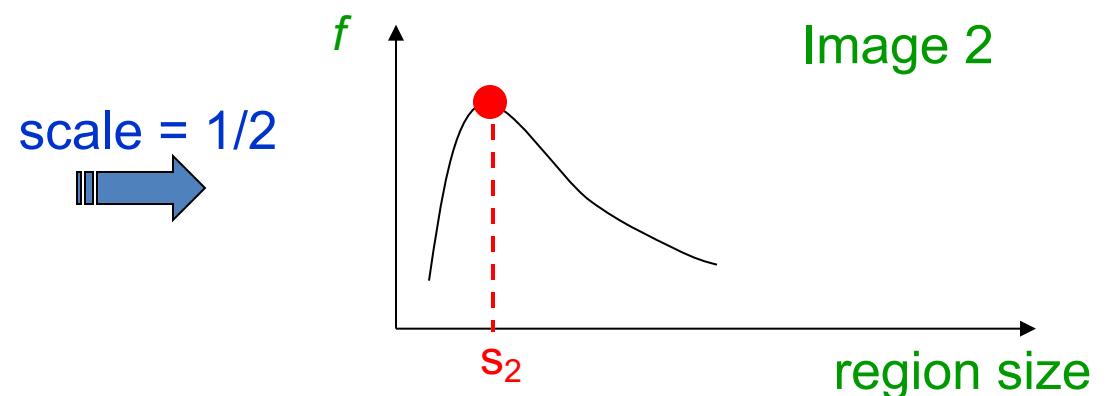
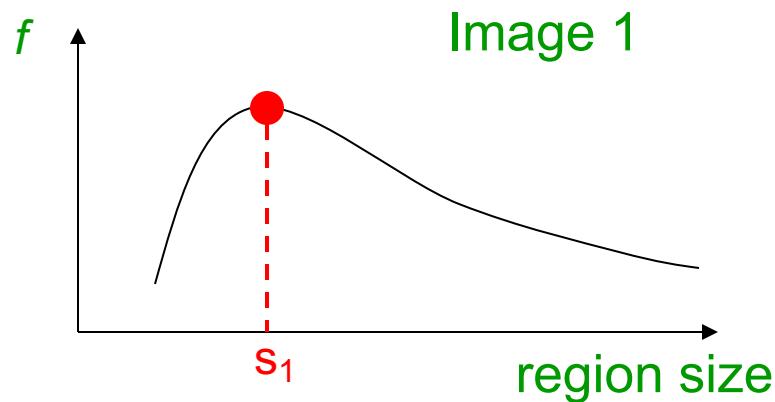
Example: average intensity. For corresponding regions (even of different sizes) it will be the same.
  - For a point in one image, we can consider it as a function of region size (circle radius)



# Scale Invariant Detection

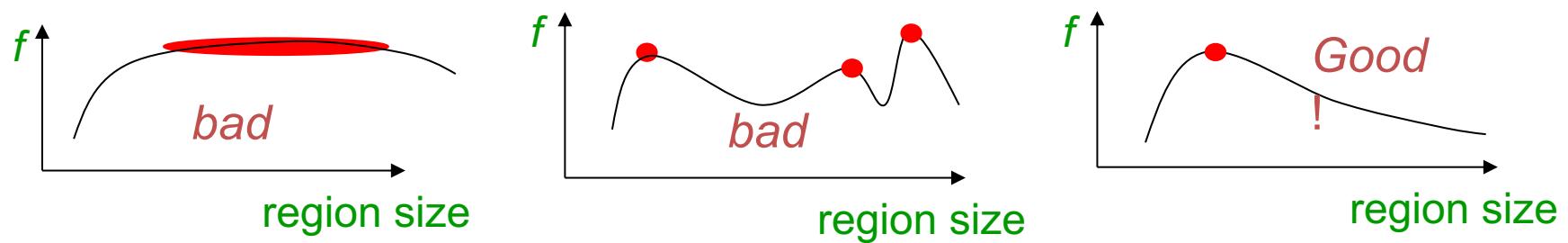
- Common approach:  
Take a local maximum of this function
- Observation: region size, for which the maximum is achieved, should be *co-variant* with image scale.

Important: this scale invariant region size is found in each image independently!



# Scale Invariant Detection

- A “good” function for scale detection:  
has one stable sharp peak



- For usual images: a good function would be one which responds to contrast (sharp local intensity change)



# Scale Invariant Detection

- Functions for determining scale

$$f = \text{Kernel} * \text{Image}$$

Kernels:

$$L = \sigma^2 (G_{xx}(x, y, \sigma) + G_{yy}(x, y, \sigma))$$

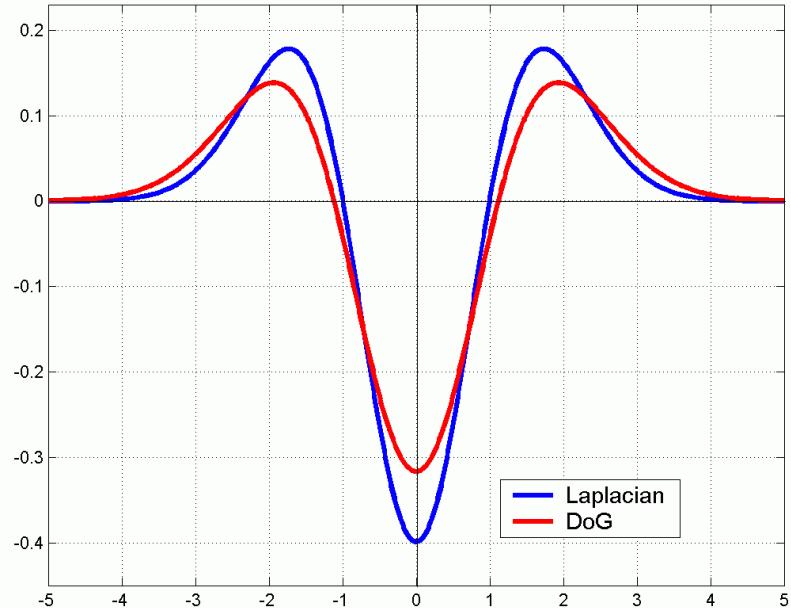
(Laplacian)

$$DoG = G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma)$$

(Difference of Gaussians)

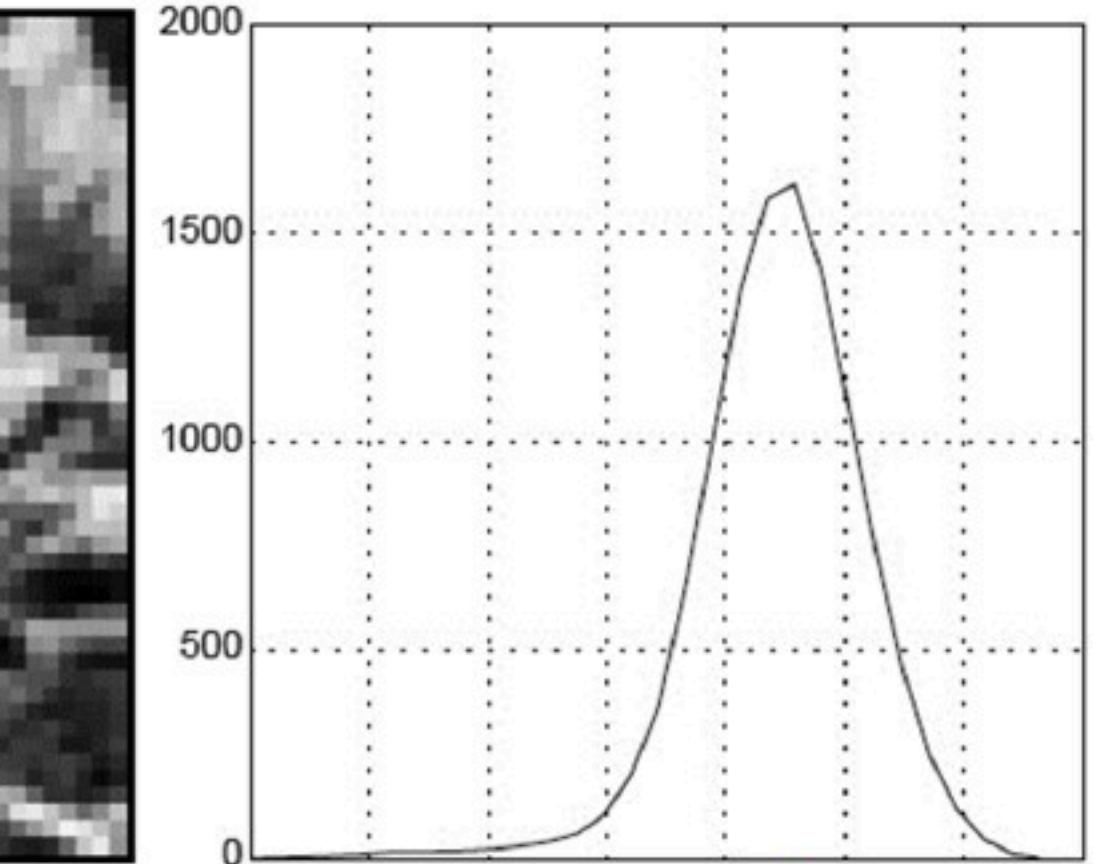
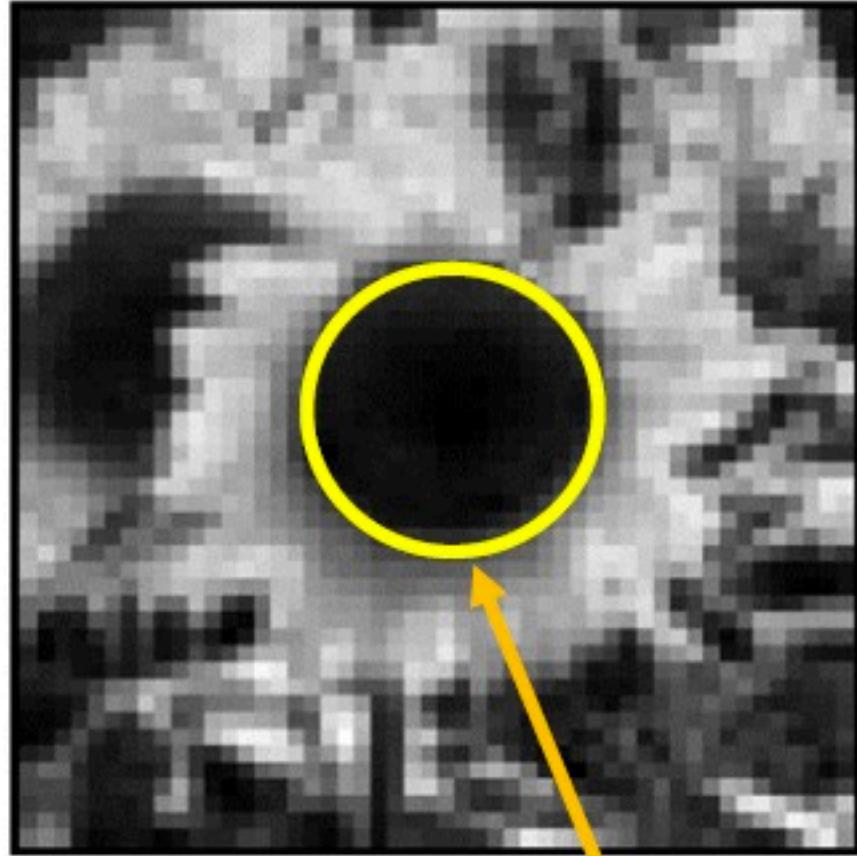
where Gaussian

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



Note: both kernels are invariant to scale and rotation

# Laplacian



Characteristic scale

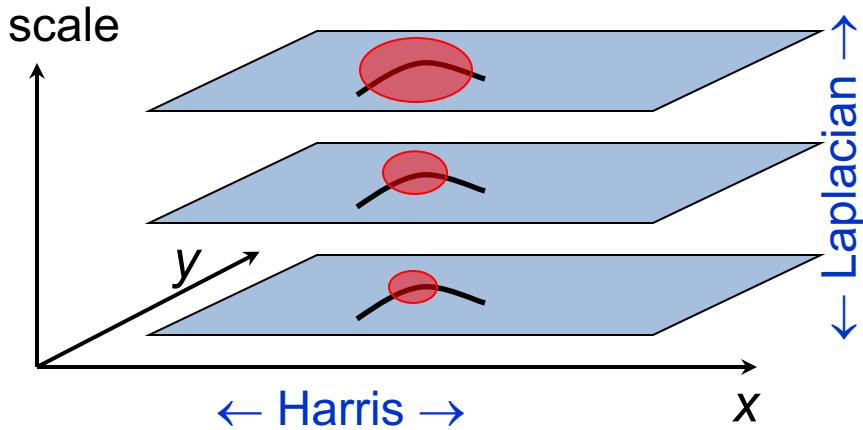


# Scale Invariant Detectors

- **Harris-Laplacian<sup>1</sup>**

*Find local maximum of:*

- Harris corner detector in space (image coordinates)
- Laplacian in scale



<sup>1</sup> K.Mikolajczyk, C.Schmid. “Indexing Based on Scale Invariant Interest Points”. ICCV 2001

<sup>2</sup> D.Lowe. “Distinctive Image Features from Scale-Invariant Keypoints”. IJCV 2004

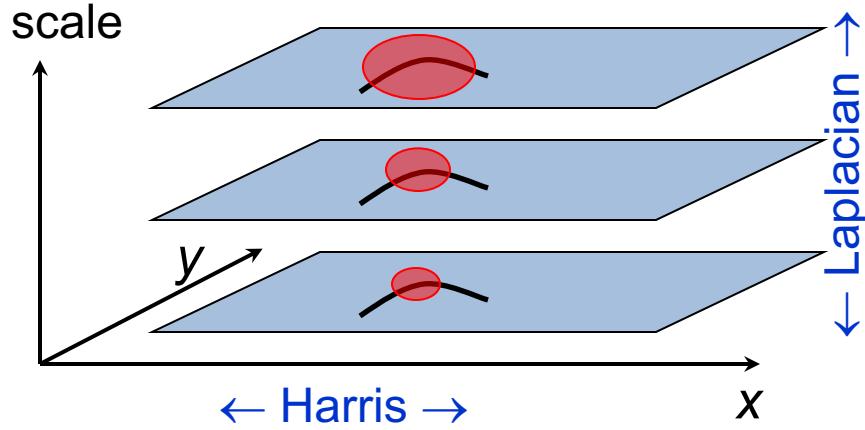


# Scale Invariant Detectors

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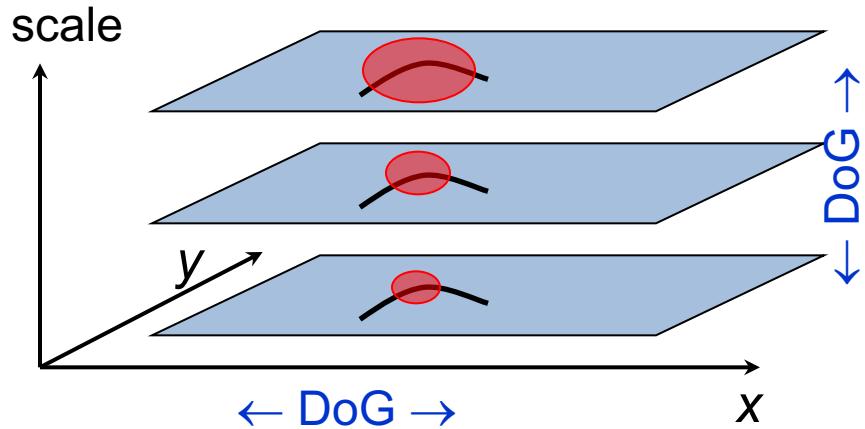


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- **DoG (from SIFT by Lowe)<sup>2</sup>**

*Find local maximum of:*

- Difference of Gaussians in space and scale

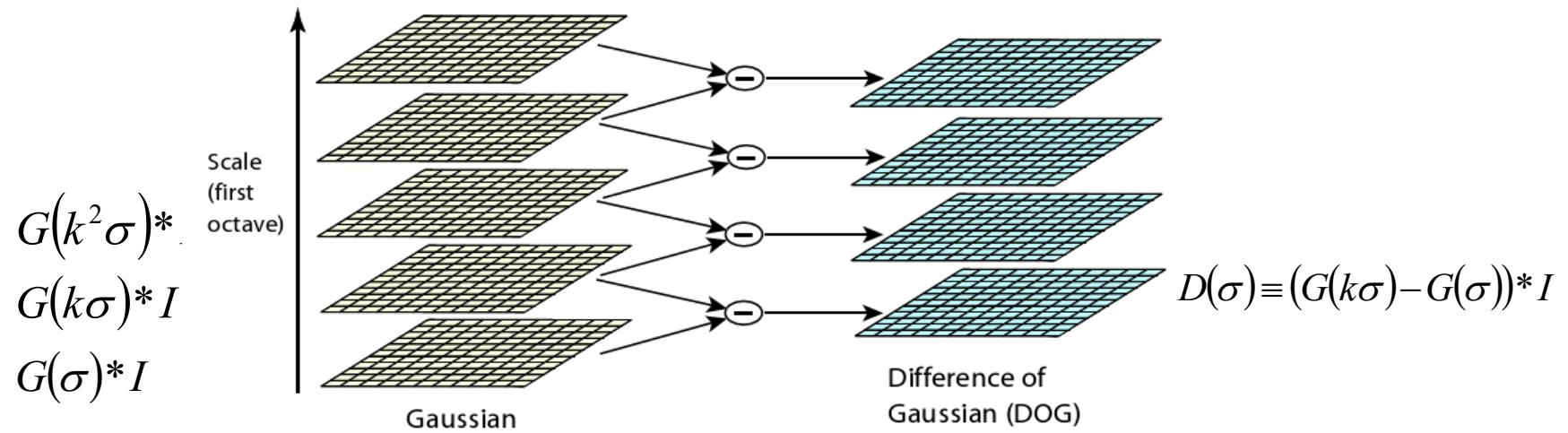


<sup>1</sup> K.Mikolajczyk, C.Schmid. “Indexing Based on Scale Invariant Interest Points”. ICCV 2001

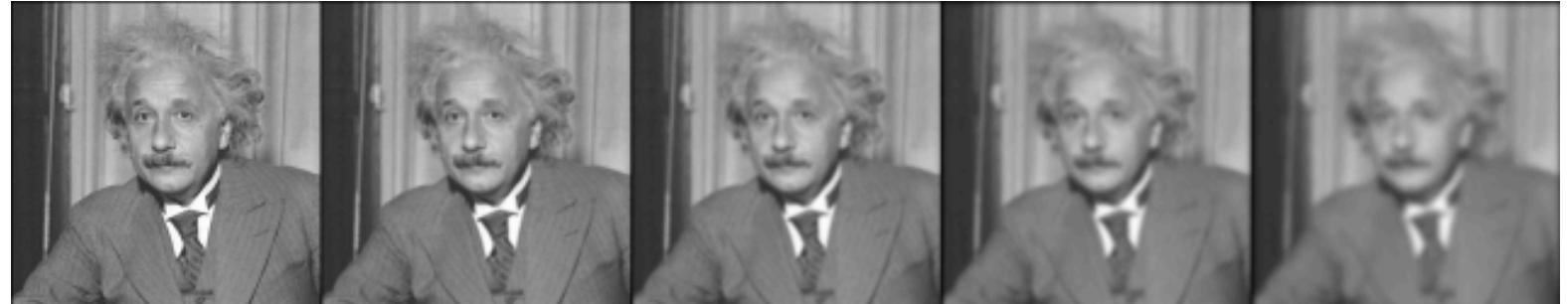
<sup>2</sup> D.Lowe. “Distinctive Image Features from Scale-Invariant Keypoints”. IJCV 2004



# Difference-of-Gaussians



Gaussian:



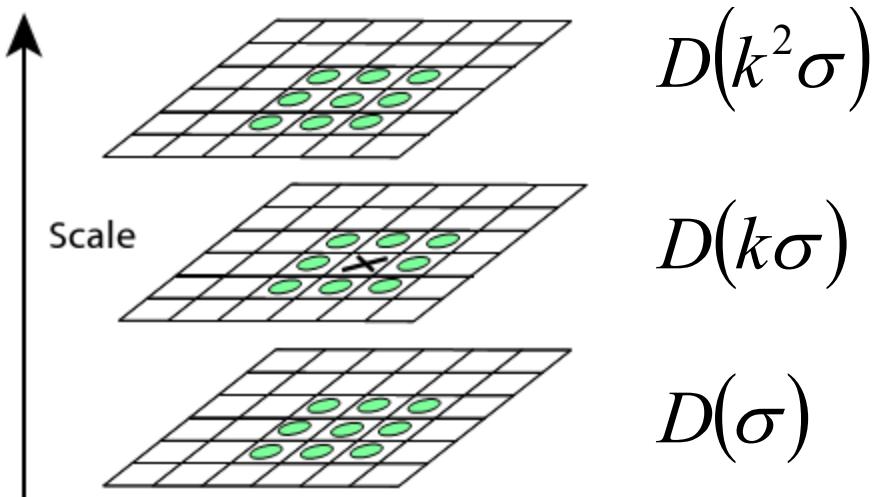
DoG:





# Scale-Space Extrema

- Choose all extrema within  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  neighborhood.



X is selected if it is larger or smaller than all 26 neighbors



# Example of Gaussian kernel



Original video



Blurred with a  
gaussian kernel



Blurred with a different  
gaussian kernel

[source](#)



# Example of Gaussian kernel



Original video



Blurred with a  
gaussian kernel



Blurred with a different  
gaussian kernel

What happens if you subtract one blurred image from another?

[source](#)



# Difference of Gaussians (DoG)



Original video



DoG:  $k_1 - k_2$



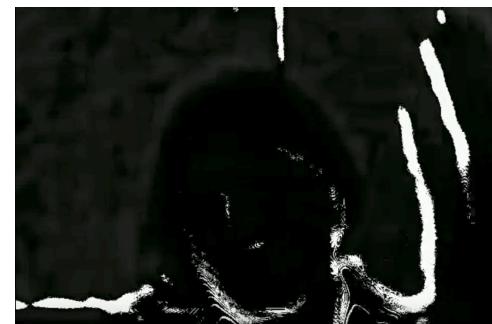
Blurred with a gaussian kernel:  $k_1$



DoG:  $k_1 - k_3$



Blurred with a different gaussian kernel:  $k_2$



DoG:  $k_1 - k_4$

[source](#)



# Difference of Gaussians (DoG)



At different resolutions of kernel size, we see different fine details of the image. In other words, we can capture keypoints at varying scales.



DoG:  $k_1 - k_2$



DoG:  $k_1 - k_3$



DoG:  $k_1 - k_4$

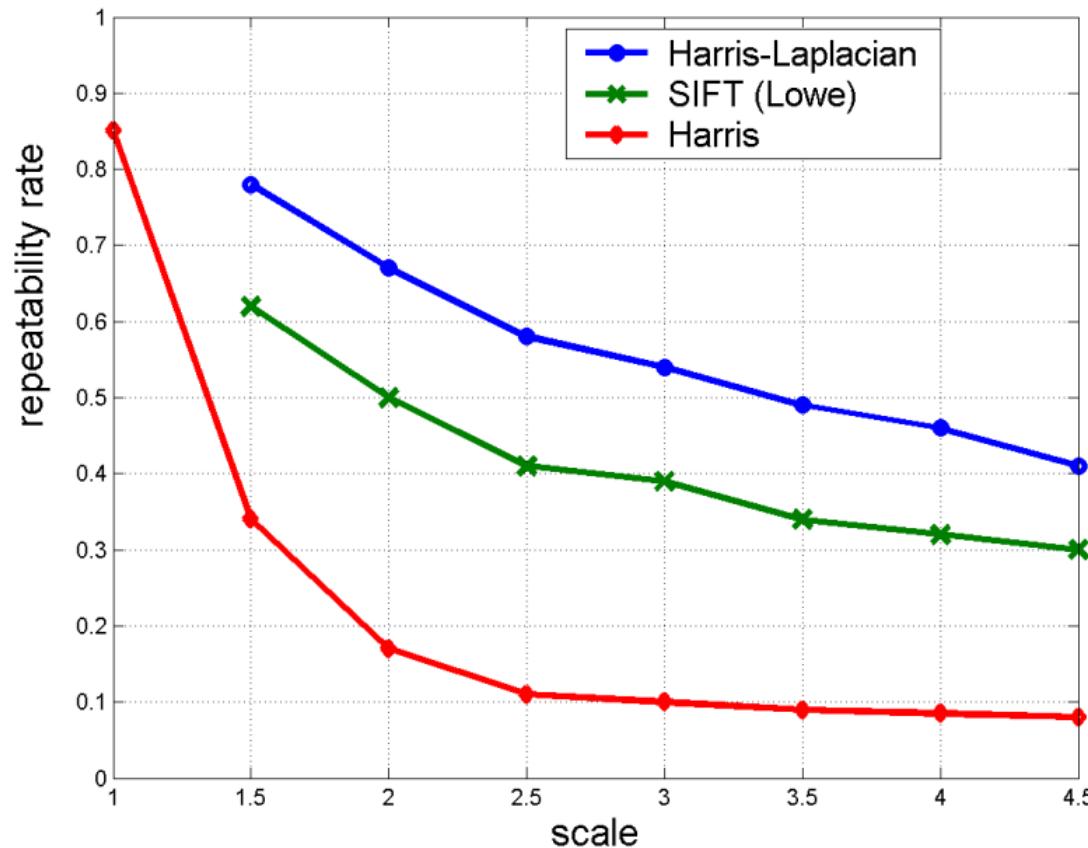
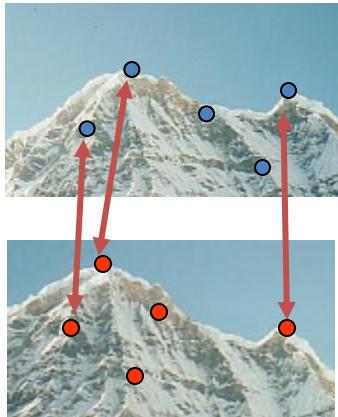
[source](#)

# Scale Invariant Detectors

- Experimental evaluation of detectors w.r.t. scale change

Repeatability rate:

$$\frac{\# \text{ correspondences}}{\# \text{ possible correspondences}}$$





# Scale Invariant Detection: Summary

- **Given:** two images of the same scene with a large *scale difference* between them
- **Goal:** find *the same* interest points *independently* in each image
- **Solution:** search for *maxima* of suitable functions in *scale* and in *space* (over the image)

Methods:

1. **Harris-Laplacian** [Mikolajczyk, Schmid]: maximize Laplacian over scale, Harris' measure of corner response over the image
2. **SIFT** [Lowe]: maximize Difference of Gaussians over scale and space



# What's next?

So we have can detect keypoints at varying scales. But what can we do with those keypoints?

Things we would like to do:

- Search:
  - We would need to find similar key points in other images
- Panorama
  - Match keypoints from one image to another.
- Etc...

For all such applications, we need a way of `describing` the keypoints.



# What we will learn today?

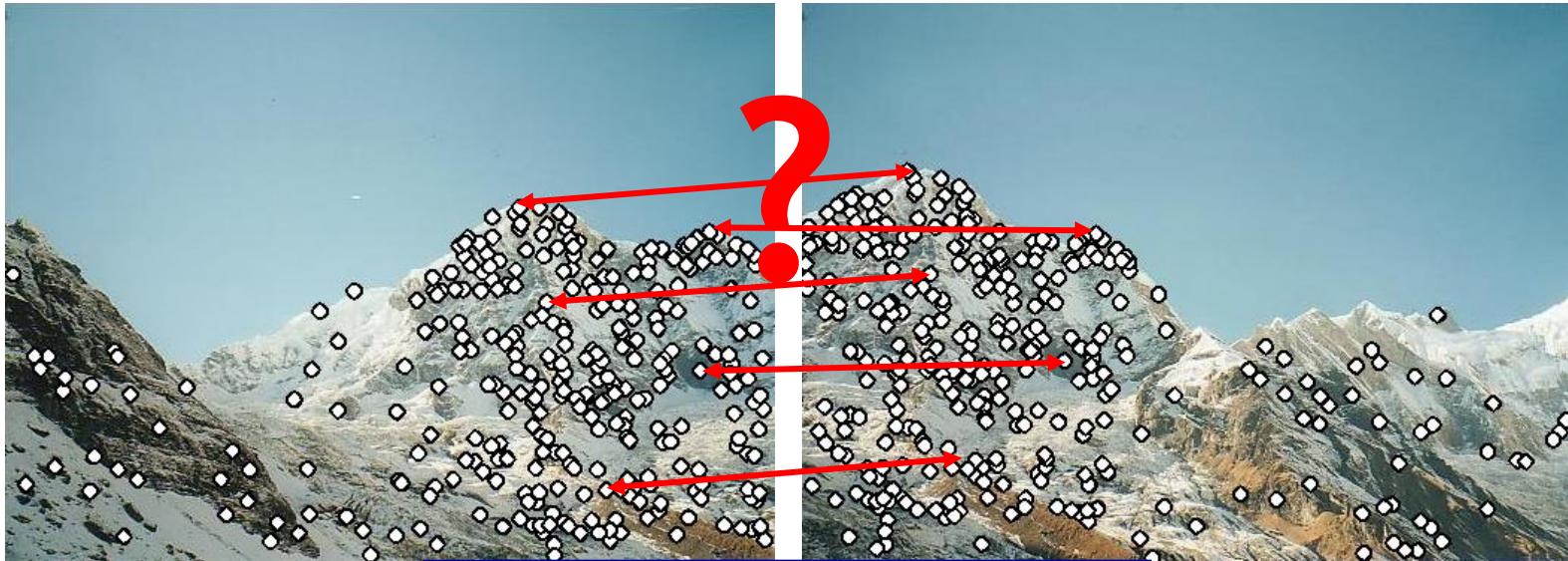
- Scale invariant region selection
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# Local Descriptors

- We know how to detect points
- Next question:

**How to *describe* them for matching?**



**Point descriptor should be:**

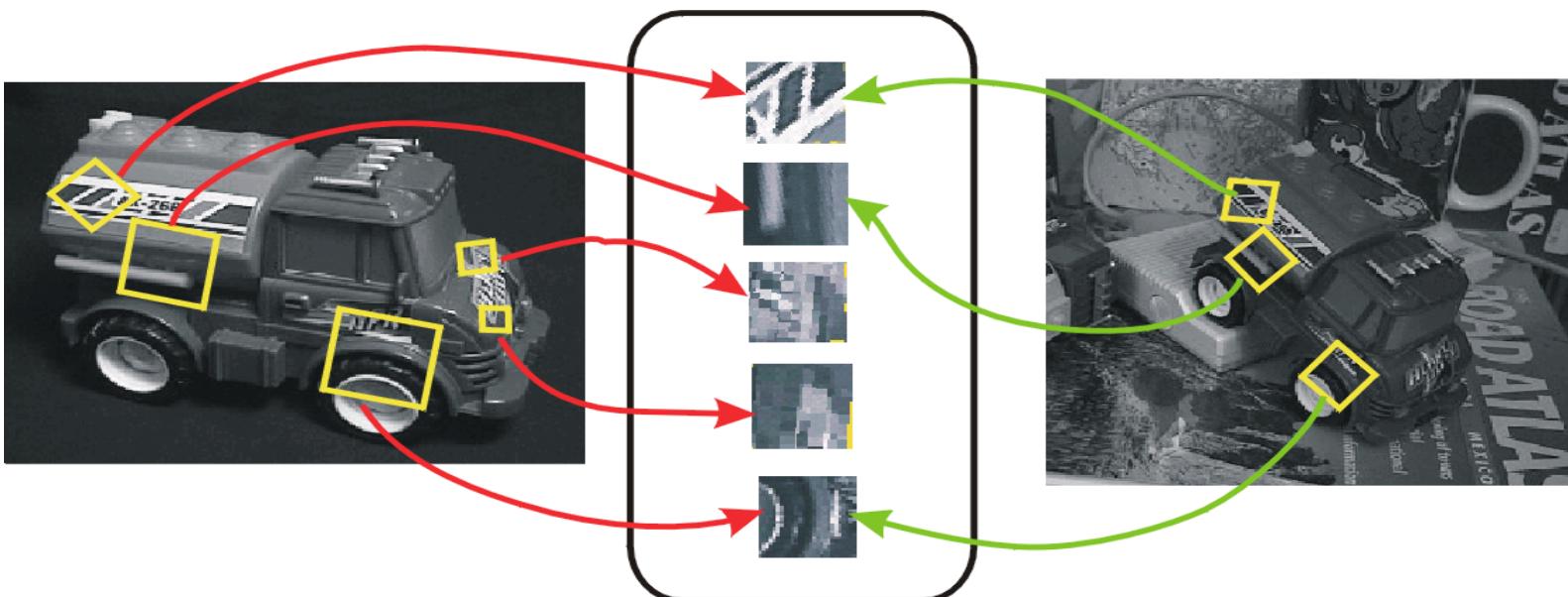
1. Invariant
2. Distinctive

Slide credit: Kristen Grauman



# Invariant Local Features

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



Following slides credit: CVPR 2003 Tutorial on **Recognition and Matching Based on Local Invariant Features** David Lowe

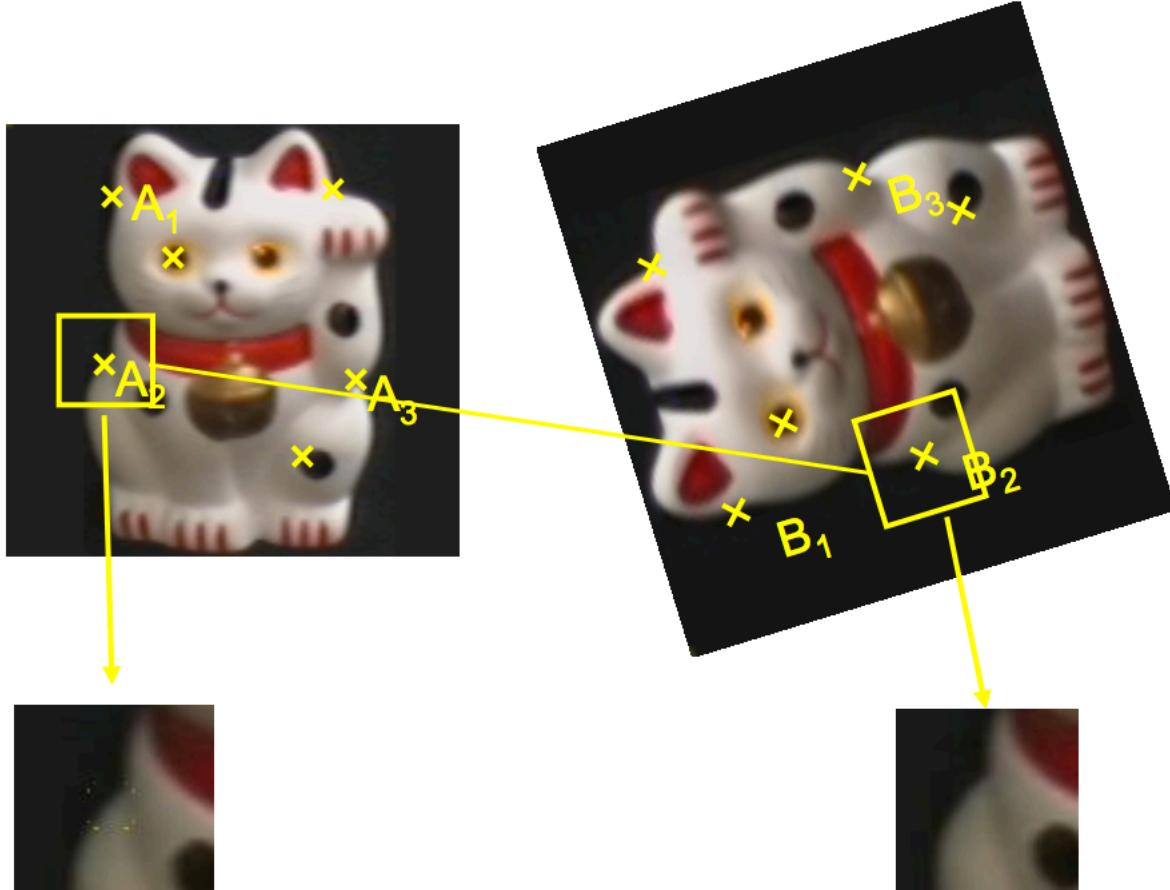


# Advantages of invariant local features

- **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



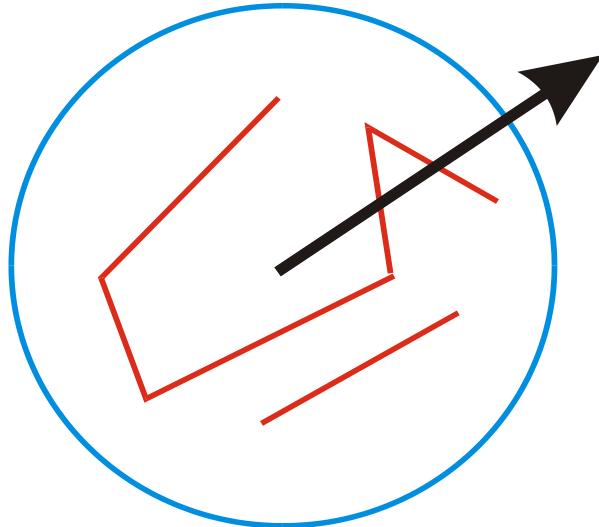
# Becoming rotation invariant





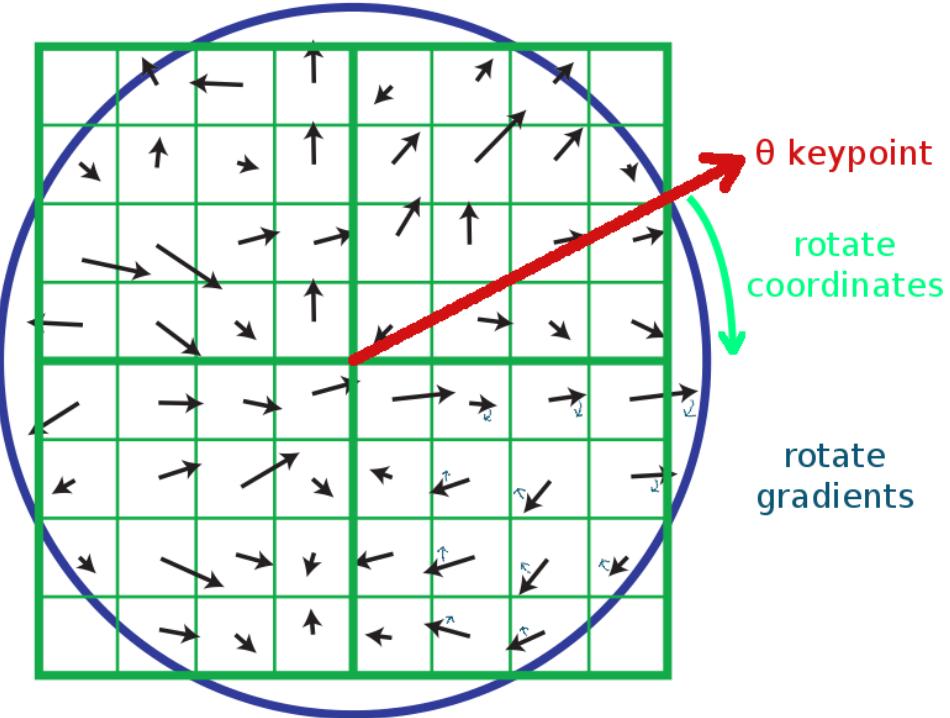
# Becoming rotation invariant

- We are given a keypoint and its scale from DoG
- We will select a characteristic orientation for the keypoint (based on the most prominent gradient there; discussed next slide)
- We will describe all features **relative** to this orientation
- Causes features to be rotation invariant!
  - If the keypoint appears rotated in another image, the features will be the same, because they're **relative** to the characteristic orientation





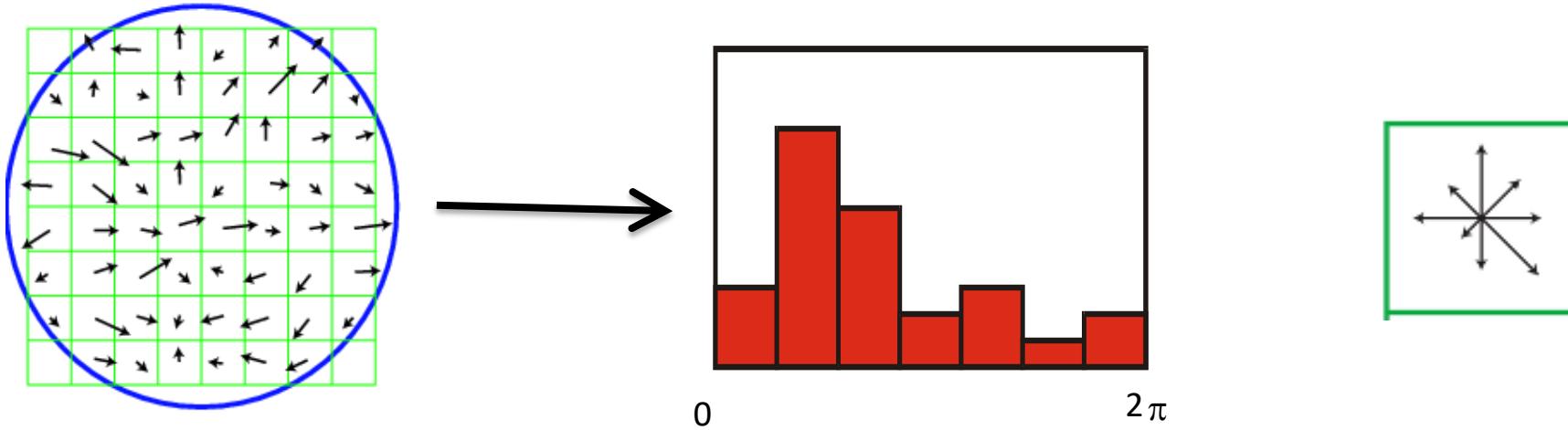
# SIFT descriptor formation



- Use the blurred image associated with the keypoint's scale
- Take image gradients over the keypoint neighborhood.
- To become rotation invariant, rotate the gradient directions AND locations by (-keypoint orientation)
  - Now we've cancelled out rotation and have gradients expressed at locations **relative** to keypoint orientation  $\theta$
  - We could also have just rotated the whole image by  $-\theta$ , but that would be slower.



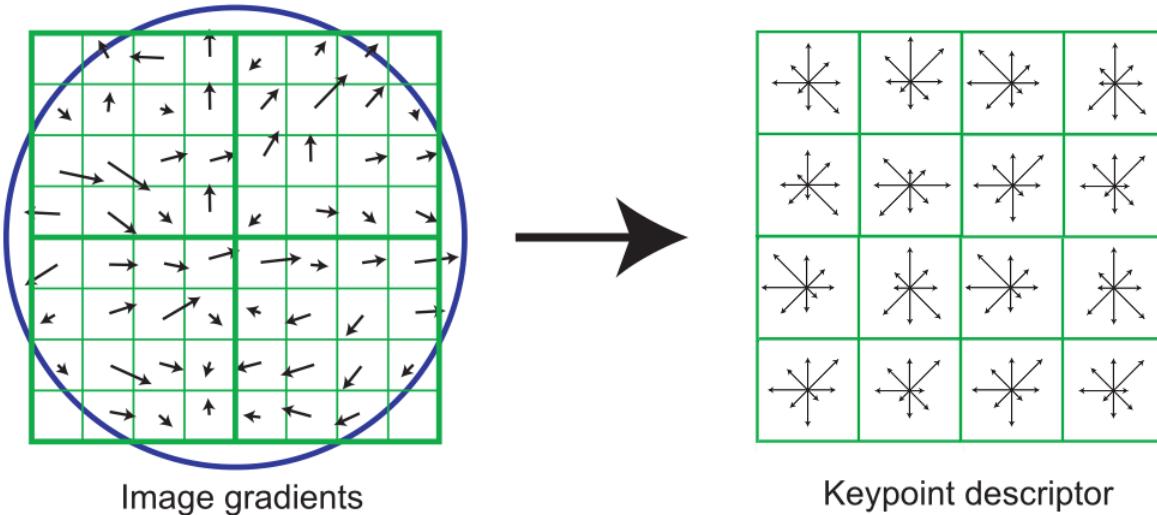
# SIFT descriptor formation



- Using precise gradient locations is fragile. We'd like to allow some “slop” in the image, and still produce a very similar descriptor
- Create array of orientation histograms (a 4x4 array is shown)
- Put the rotated gradients into their local orientation histograms
  - A gradients's contribution is divided among the nearby histograms based on distance. If it's halfway between two histogram locations, it gives a half contribution to both.
  - Also, scale down gradient contributions for gradients far from the center
- The SIFT authors found that best results were with 8 orientation bins per histogram.



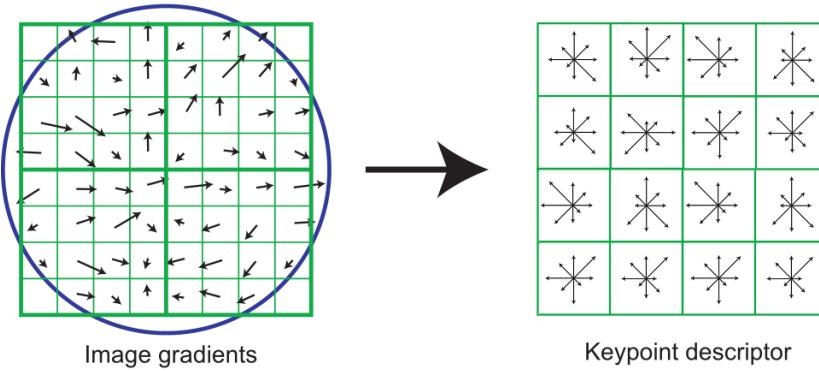
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- The SIFT authors found that best results were with 8 orientation bins per histogram, **and a 4x4 histogram array**.



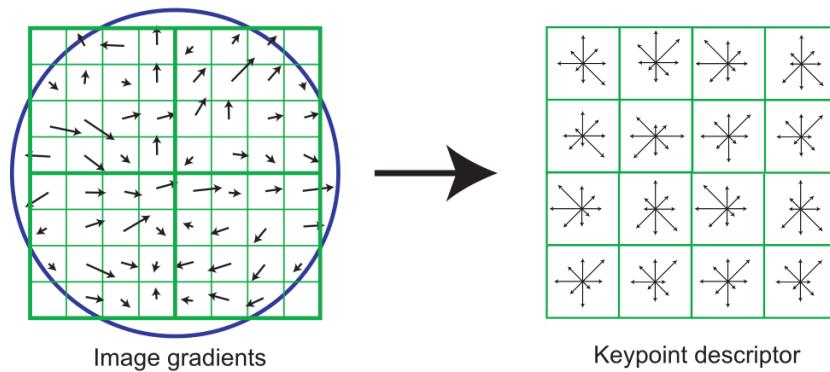
# SIFT descriptor formation



- 8 orientation bins per histogram, and a 4x4 histogram array, yields  $8 \times 4 \times 4 = 128$  numbers.
- So a SIFT descriptor is a length 128 vector, which is invariant to rotation (because we rotated the descriptor) and scale (because we worked with the scaled image from DoG)
- We can compare each vector from image A to each vector from image B to find matching keypoints!
  - Euclidean “distance” between descriptor vectors gives a good measure of keypoint similarity



# SIFT descriptor formation



- Adding robustness to illumination changes:
- Remember that the descriptor is made of gradients (differences between pixels), so it's already invariant to changes in brightness (e.g. adding 10 to all image pixels yields the exact same descriptor)
- A higher-contrast photo will increase the magnitude of gradients linearly. So, to correct for contrast changes, normalize the vector (scale to length 1.0)
- Very large image gradients are usually from unreliable 3D illumination effects (glare, etc). So, to reduce their effect, clamp all values in the vector to be  $\leq 0.2$  (an experimentally tuned value). Then normalize the vector again.
- Result is a vector which is fairly invariant to illumination changes.



# Sensitivity to number of histogram orientations

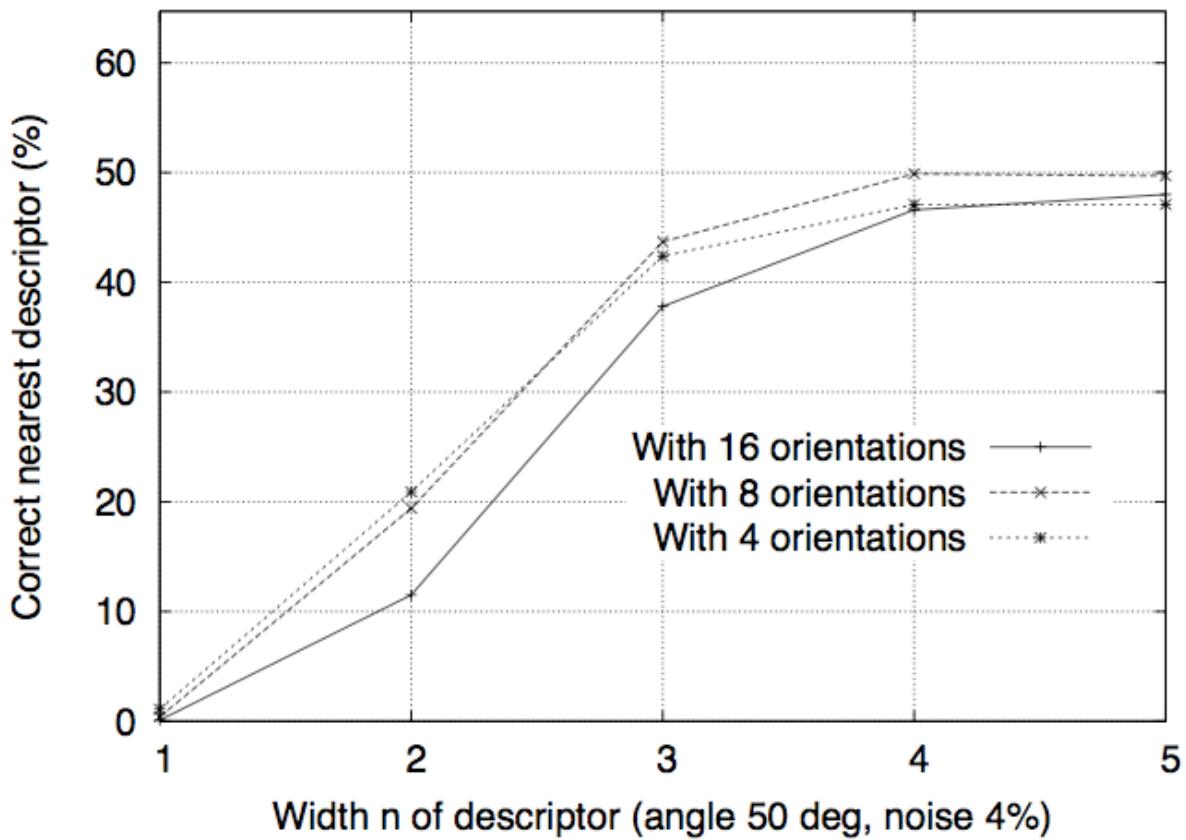
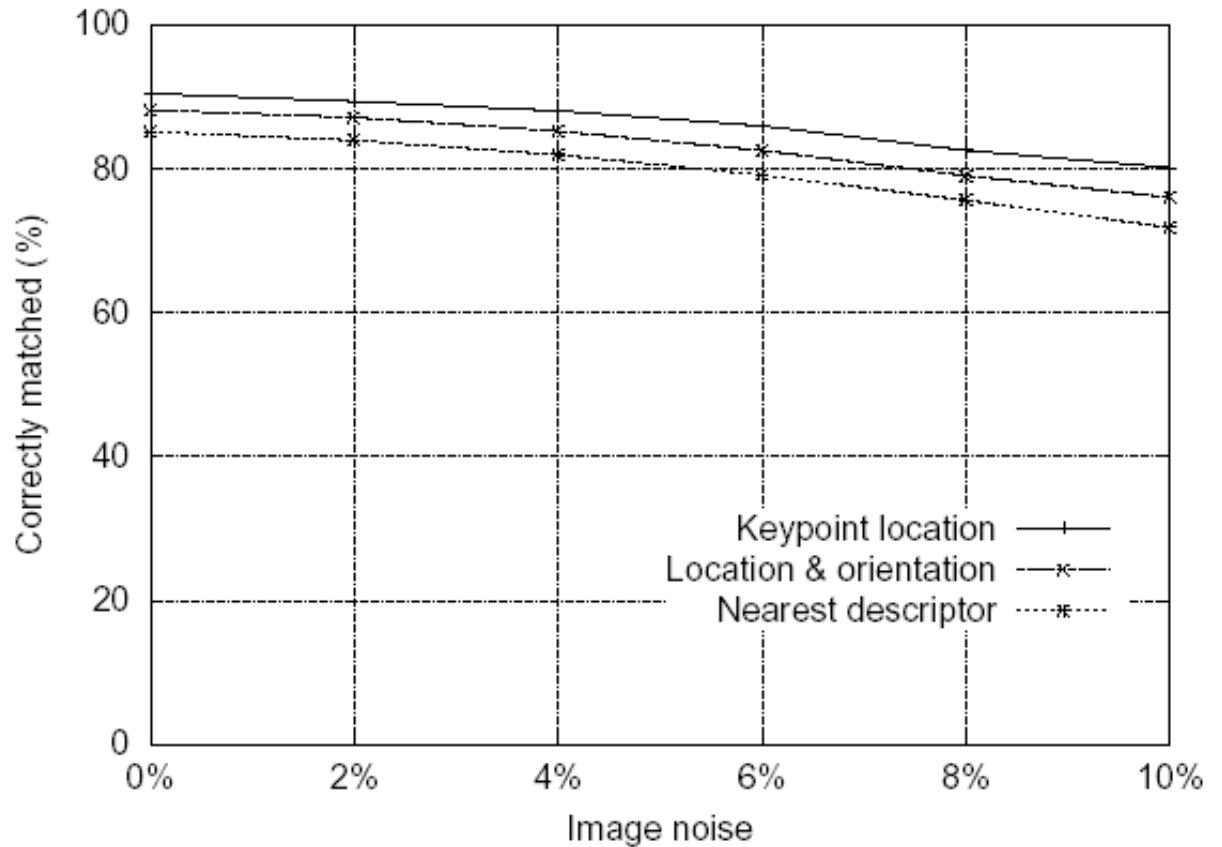


Figure 8: This graph shows the percent of keypoints giving the correct match to a database of 40,000 keypoints as a function of width of the  $n \times n$  keypoint descriptor and the number of orientations in each histogram. The graph is computed for images with affine viewpoint change of 50 degrees and addition of 4% noise.



# Feature stability to noise

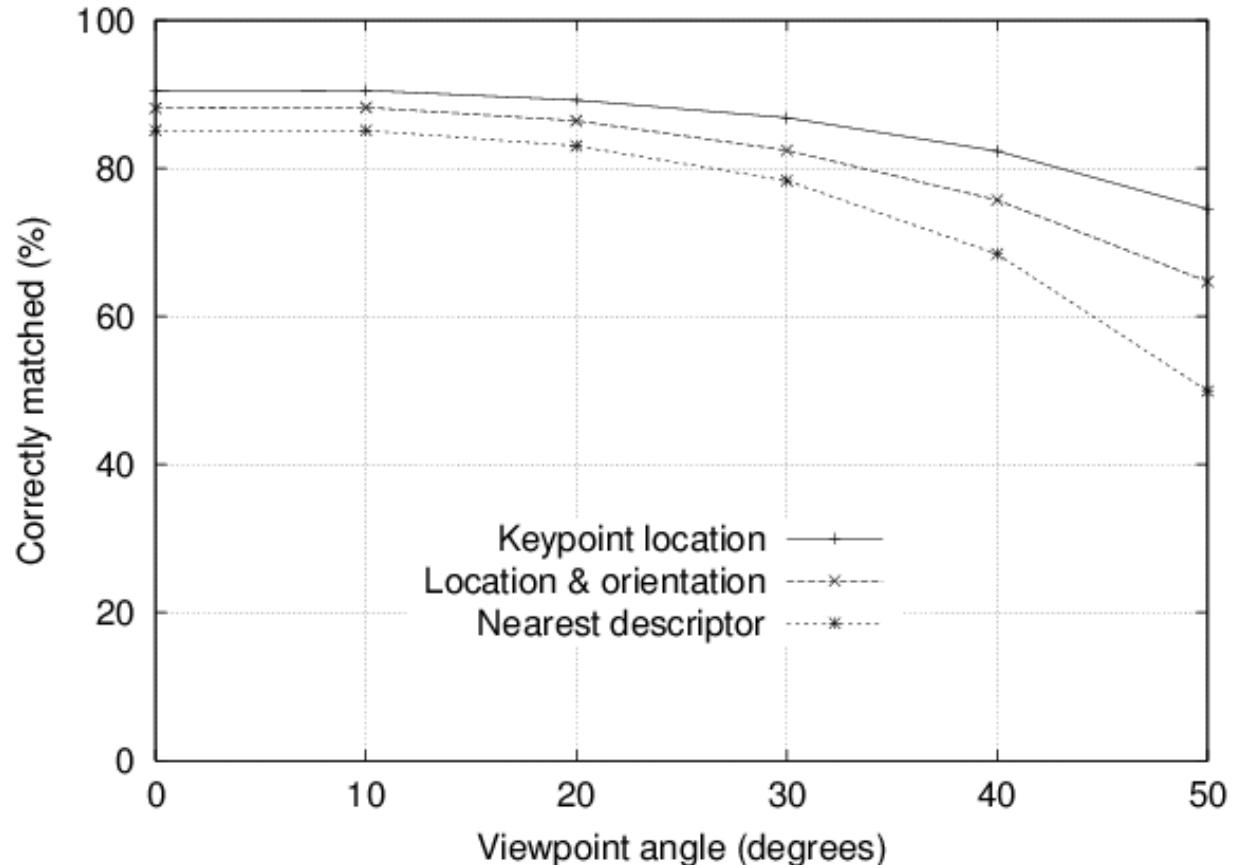
- Match features after random change in image scale & orientation, with differing levels of image noise
- Find nearest neighbor in database of 30,000 features





# Feature stability to affine change

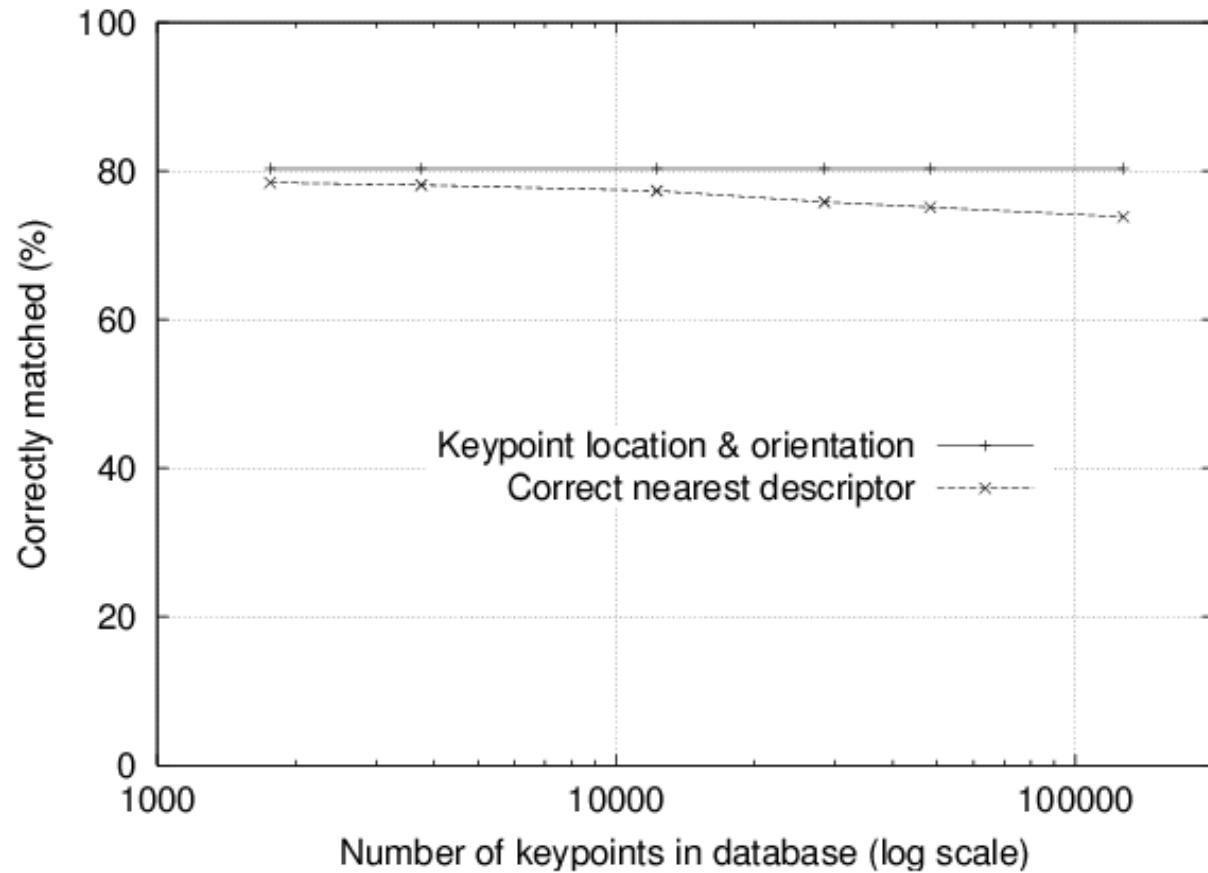
- Match features after random change in image scale & orientation, with 2% image noise, and affine distortion
- Find nearest neighbor in database of 30,000 features





# Distinctiveness of features

- Vary size of database of features, with 30 degree affine change, 2% image noise
- Measure % correct for single nearest neighbor match





# Ratio of distances reliable for matching

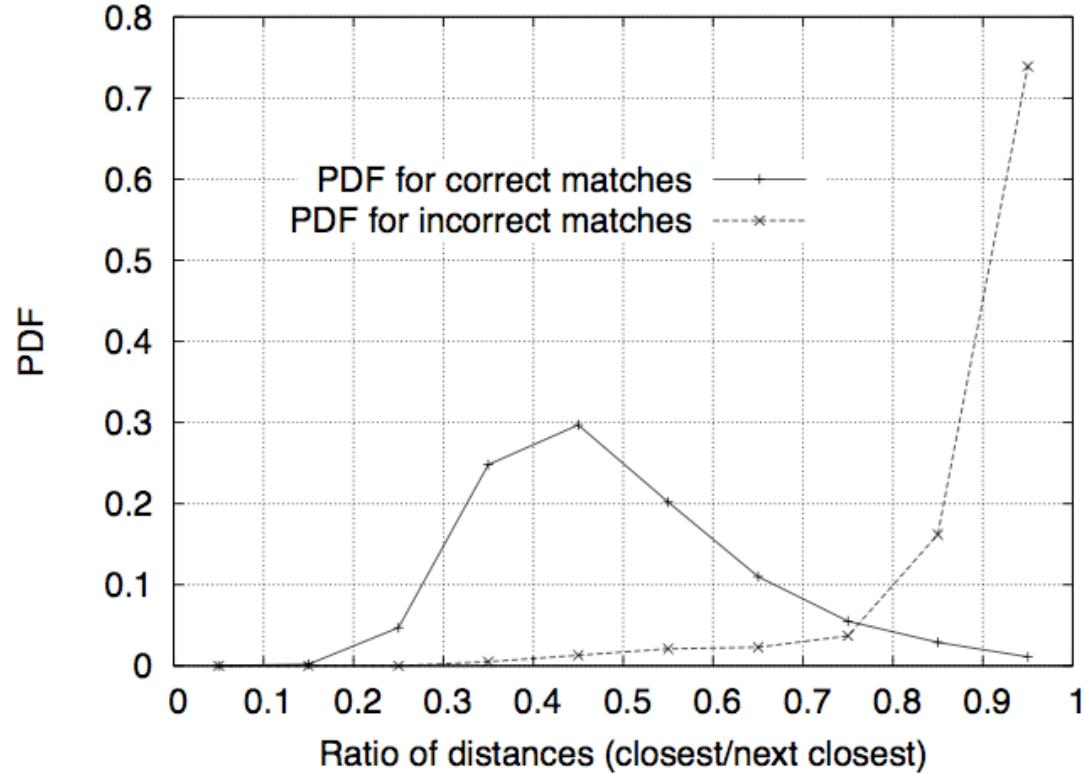


Figure 11: The probability that a match is correct can be determined by taking the ratio of distance from the closest neighbor to the distance of the second closest. Using a database of 40,000 keypoints, the solid line shows the PDF of this ratio for correct matches, while the dotted line is for matches that were incorrect.

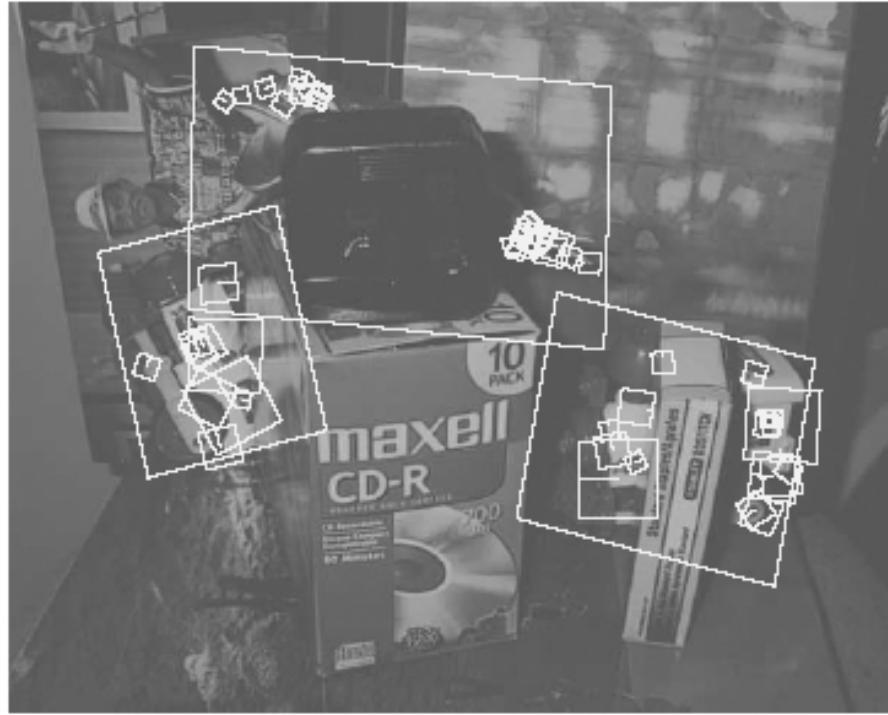


Figure 12: The training images for two objects are shown on the left. These can be recognized in a cluttered image with extensive occlusion, shown in the middle. The results of recognition are shown on the right. A parallelogram is drawn around each recognized object showing the boundaries of the original training image under the affine transformation solved for during recognition. Smaller squares indicate the keypoints that were used for recognition.

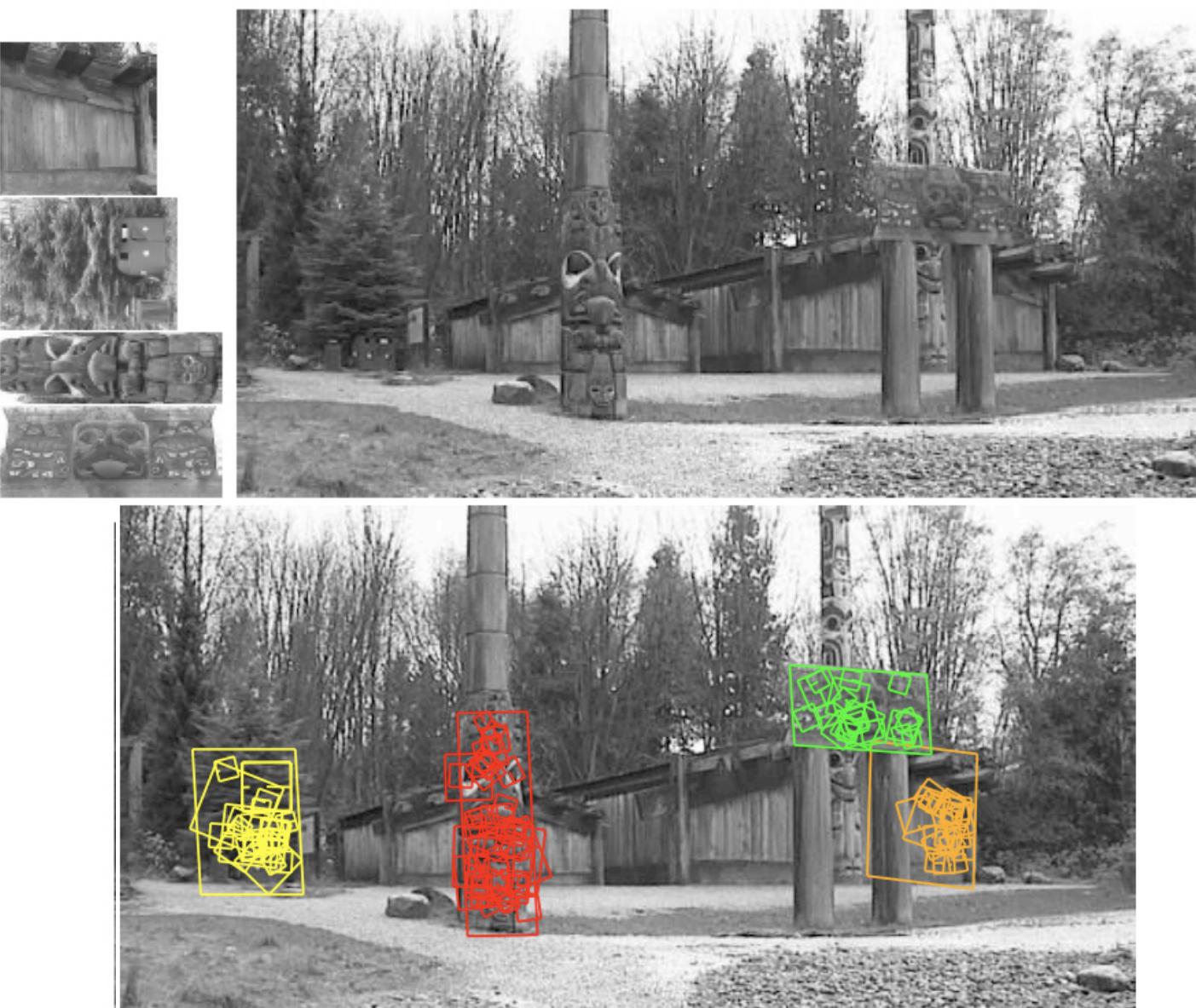


Figure 13: This example shows location recognition within a complex scene. The training images for locations are shown at the upper left and the 640x315 pixel test image taken from a different viewpoint is on the upper right. The recognized regions are shown on the lower image, with keypoints shown as squares and an outer parallelogram showing the boundaries of the training images under the affine transform used for recognition.

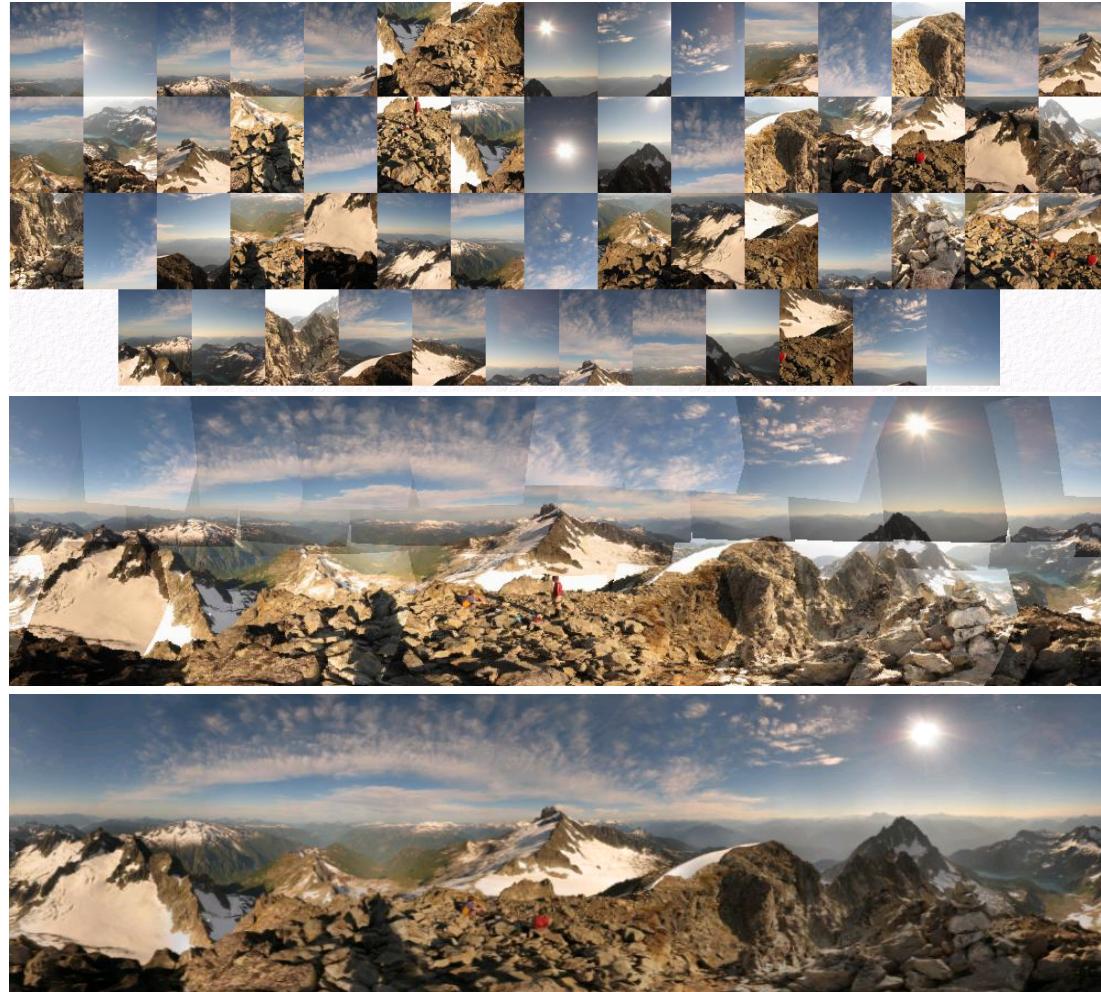


# Nice SIFT resources

- an online tutorial:<http://www.aishack.in/2010/05/sift-scale-invariant-feature-transform/>
- Wikipedia:[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scale-invariant feature transform](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scale-invariant_feature_transform)



# Automatic mosaicing



<http://www.cs.ubc.ca/~mbrown/autostitch/autostitch.html>



# Wide baseline stereo



[Image from T. Tuytelaars ECCV 2006 tutorial]



# Recognition of specific objects, scenes



Schmid and Mohr 1997



Sivic and Zisserman, 2003



Rothganger et al. 2003



Lowe 2002



# Applications of local invariant features

- Wide baseline stereo
- Motion tracking
- **Panoramas**
- Mobile robot navigation
- 3D reconstruction
- Recognition
- ...



# What we will learn today?

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# Histogram of Oriented Gradients

- Find robust feature set that allows object form to be discriminated.
- Challenges
  - Wide range of pose and large variations in appearances
  - Cluttered backgrounds under different illumination
  - “Speed” for mobile vision
- References
  - [1] N. Dalal and B. Triggs. Histograms of Oriented Gradients for Human Detection. In CVPR, pages 886-893, 2005
  - [2] Chandrasekhar et al. CHoG: Compressed Histogram of Gradients - A low bit rate feature descriptor, CVPR 2009



# Histogram of Oriented Gradients

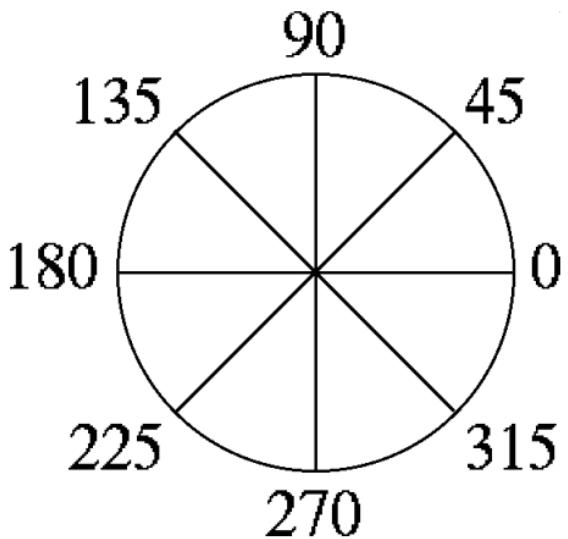
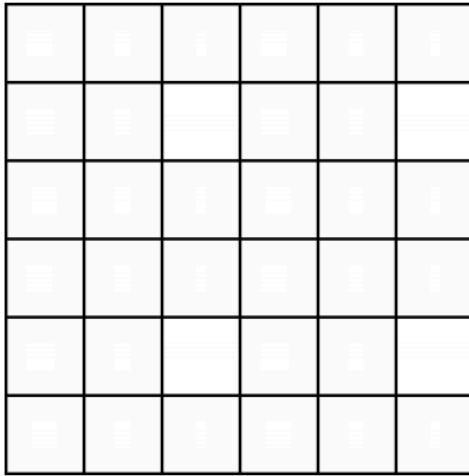
Local object appearance and shape can often be characterized rather well by the distribution of local intensity gradients or edge directions.





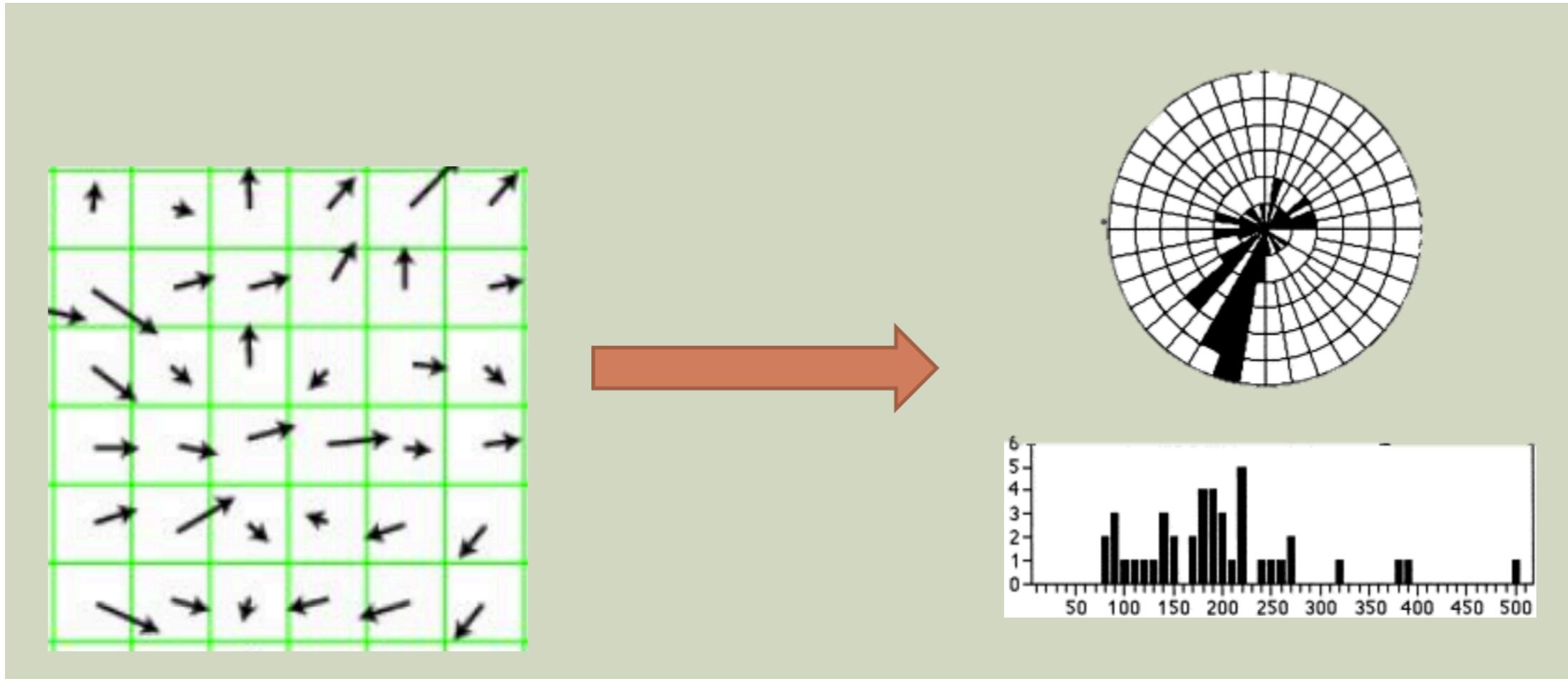
# Histogram of Oriented Gradients

- Dividing the image window into small spatial regions (cells)
- Cells can be either rectangle or radial.
- Each cell accumulating a weighted local 1-D histogram of gradient directions over the pixels of the cell.



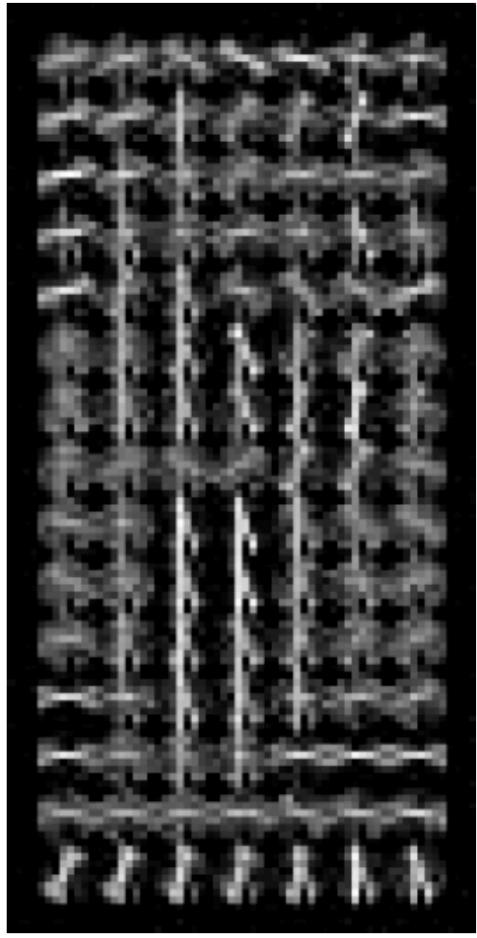
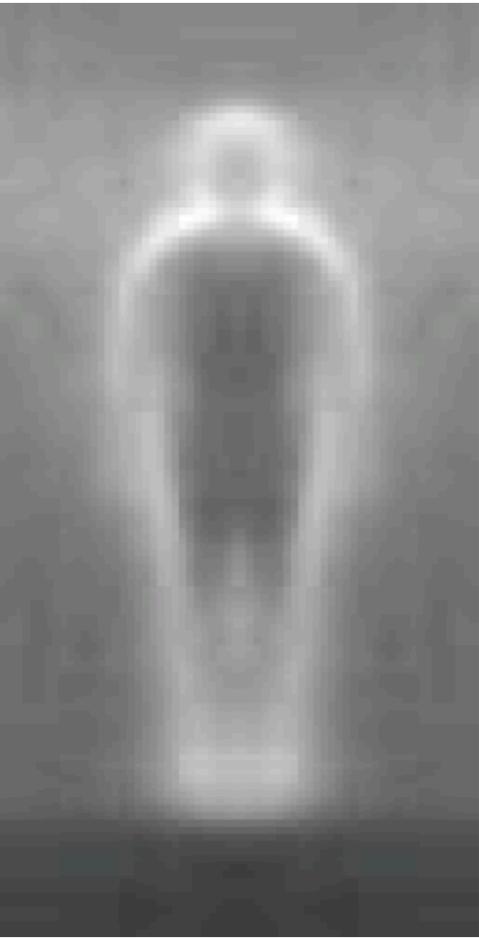


# Histogram of Oriented Gradients





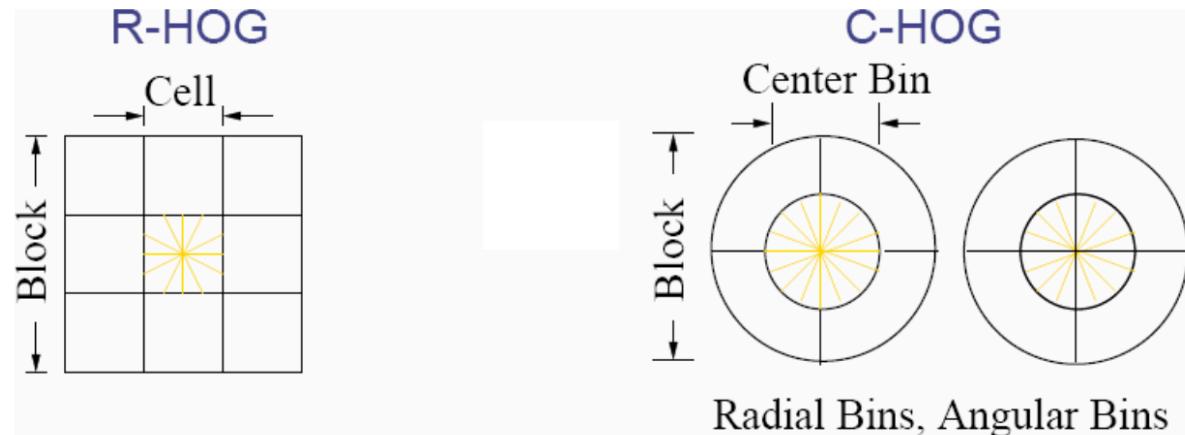
# Histogram of Oriented Gradients





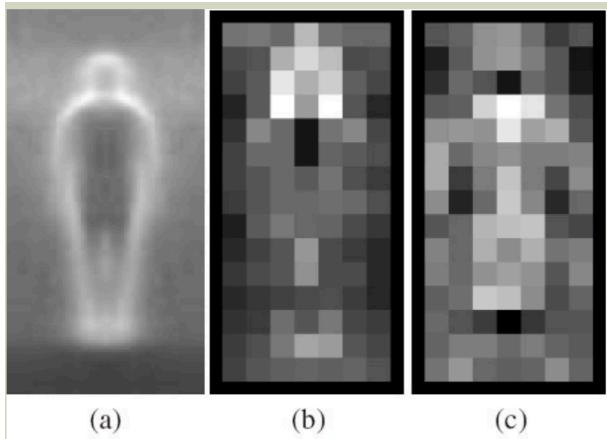
# Normalization

- For better invariance to illumination and shadowing, it is useful to contrast-normalize the local responses before using them.
- Accumulate local histogram “energy” over a larger regions (“blocks”) to normalize all of the cells in the block.





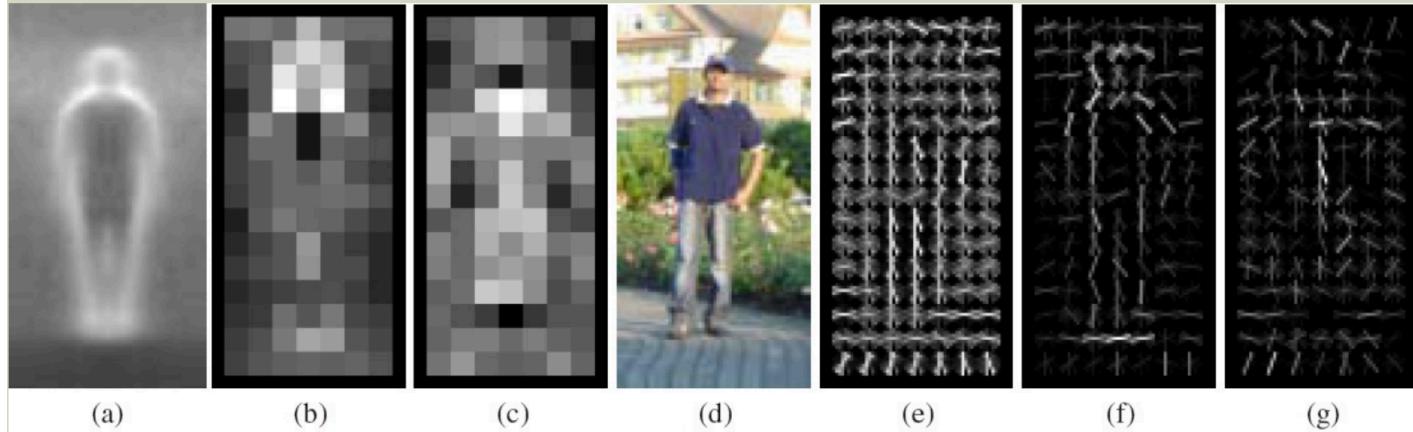
# Visualizing HoG



- a. Average gradient over positive examples
- b. Maximum positive weight in each block
- c. Maximum negative weight in each block
- d. A test image
- e. It's R-HOG descriptor
- f. R-HOG descriptor weighted by positive weights
- g. R-HOG descriptor weighted by negative weights



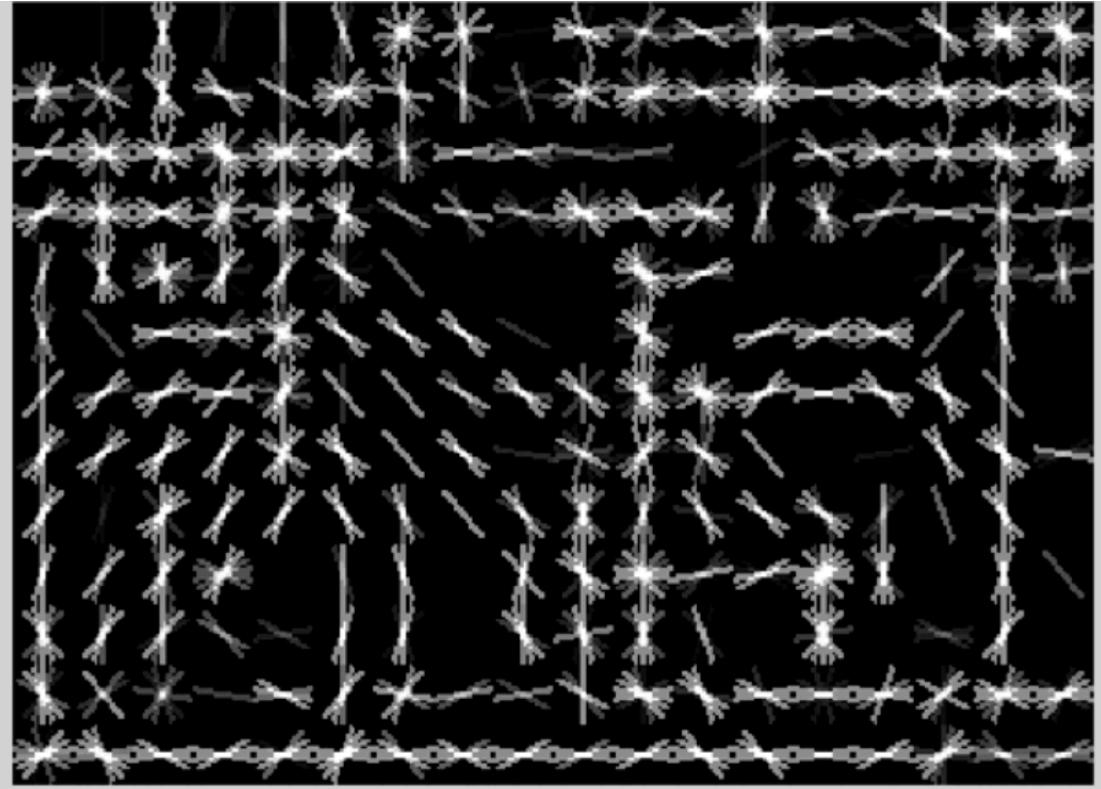
# Visualizing HoG



- a. Average gradient over positive examples
- b. Maximum positive weight in each block
- c. Maximum negative weight in each block
- d. A test image
- e. It's R-HOG descriptor
- f. R-HOG descriptor weighted by positive weights
- g. R-HOG descriptor weighted by negative weights



# Visualizing HoG





# Difference between HoG and SIFT

- HoG is usually used to describe entire images. SIFT is used for key point matching
- SIFT histograms are oriented towards the dominant gradient. HoG is not.
- HoG gradients are normalized using neighborhood bins.
- SIFT descriptors use varying scales to compute multiple descriptors.



# What we will learn today?

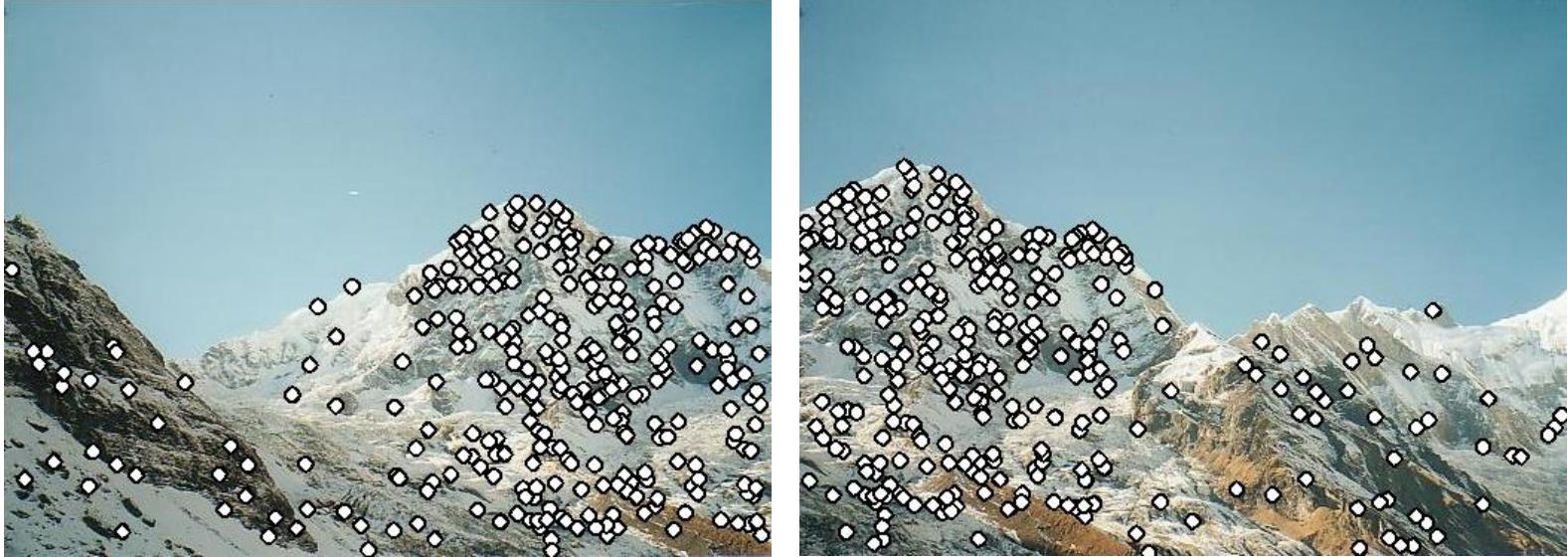
- Scale invariant region selection
  - Automatic scale selection
  - Difference-of-Gaussian (DoG) detector
- SIFT: an image region descriptor
- HoG: another image descriptor
- Application: Panorama



# Application: Image Stitching

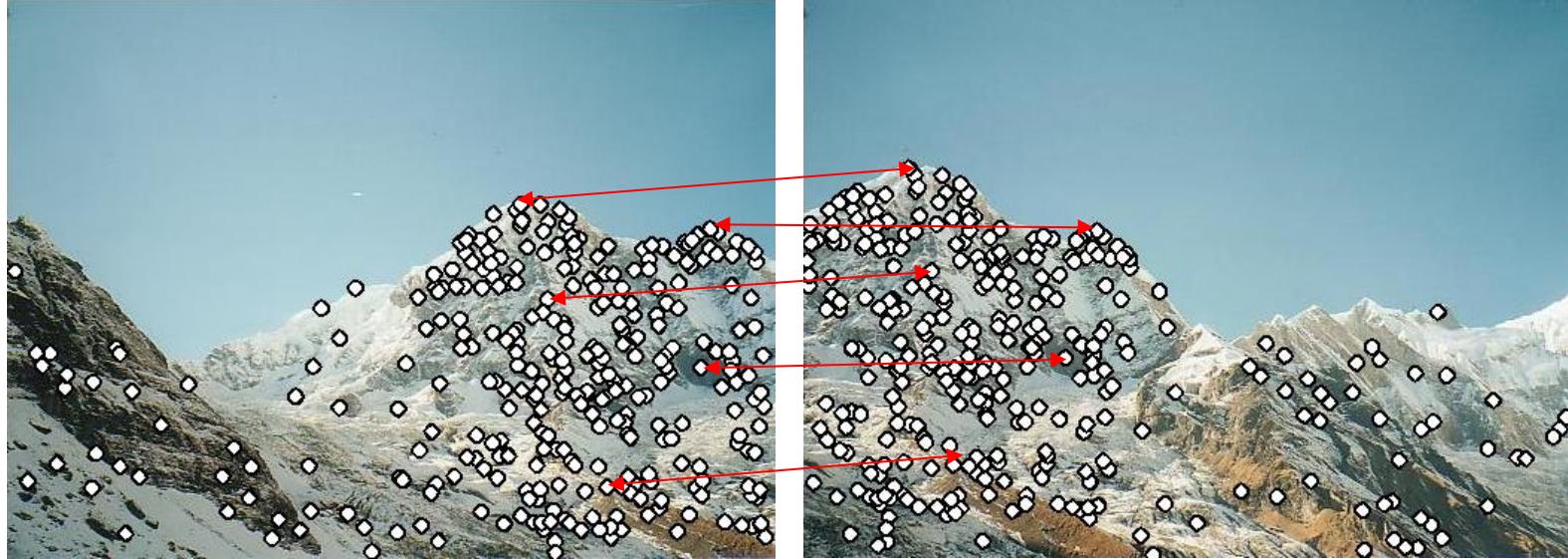


# Application: Image Stitching



- Procedure:
  - Detect feature points in both images

# Application: Image Stitching



- Procedure:
  - Detect feature points in both images
  - Find corresponding pairs



# Application: Image Stitching

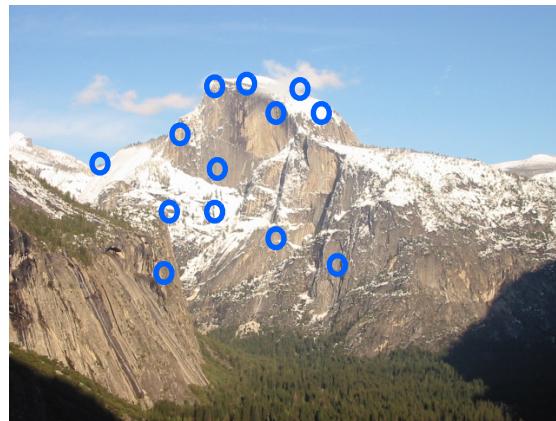
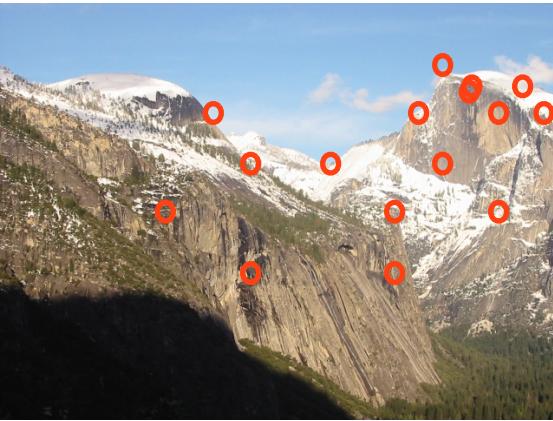


- Procedure:
  - Detect feature points in both images
  - Find corresponding pairs
  - Use these pairs to align the images



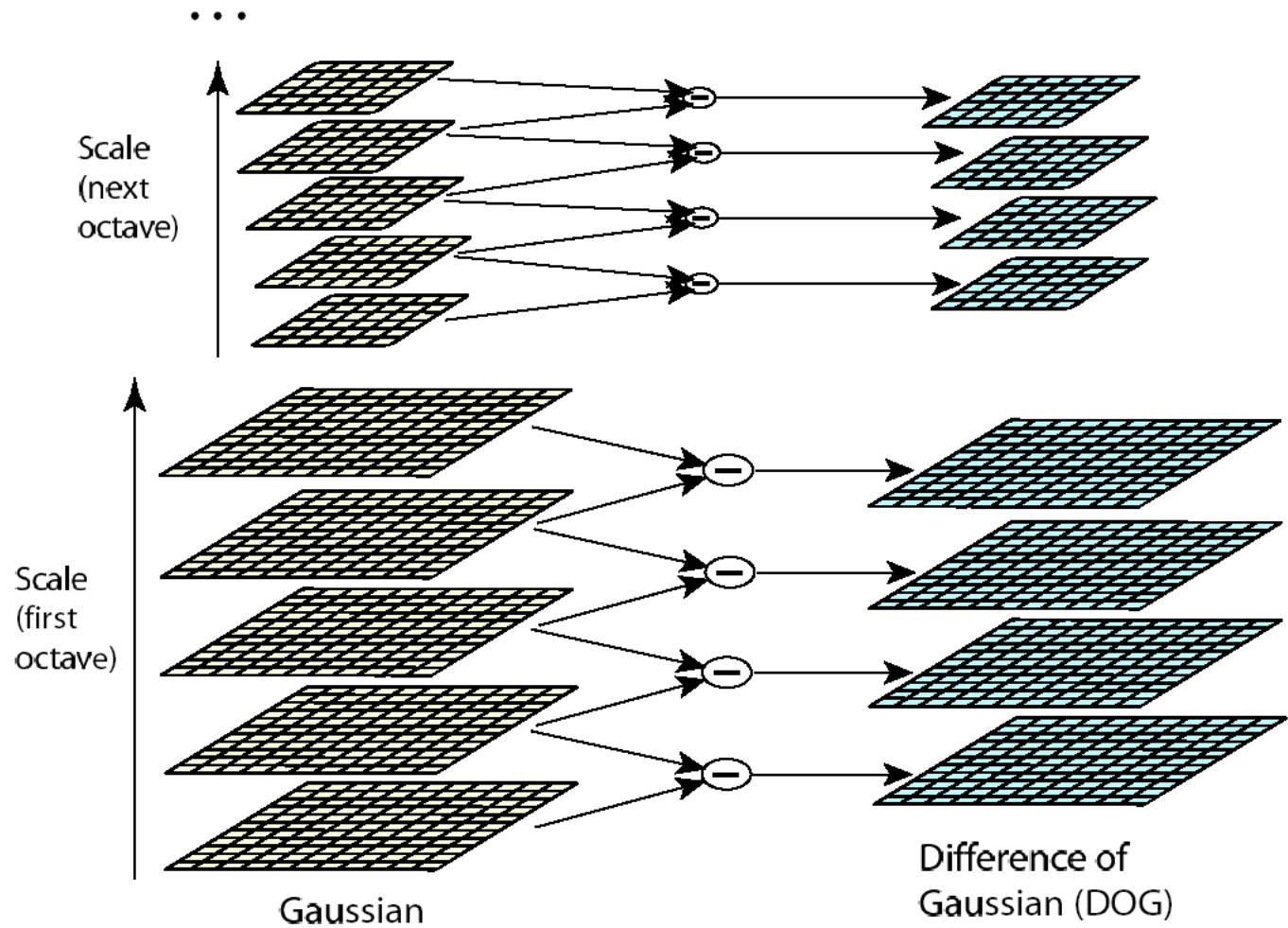
# Main Flow

- Detect key points





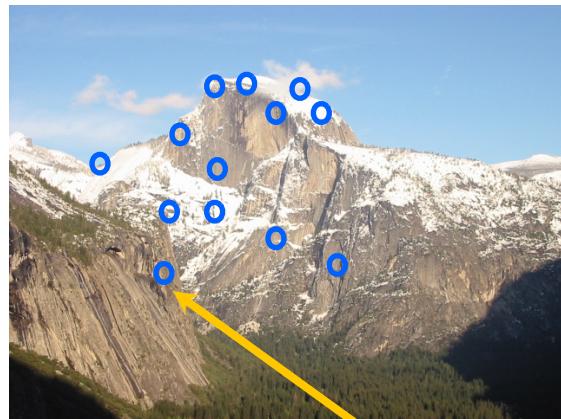
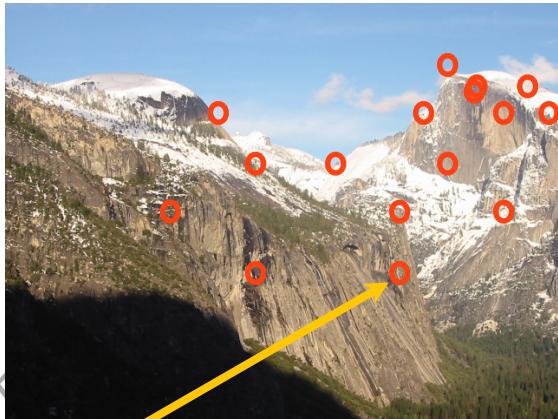
# Detect Key Points





# Main Flow

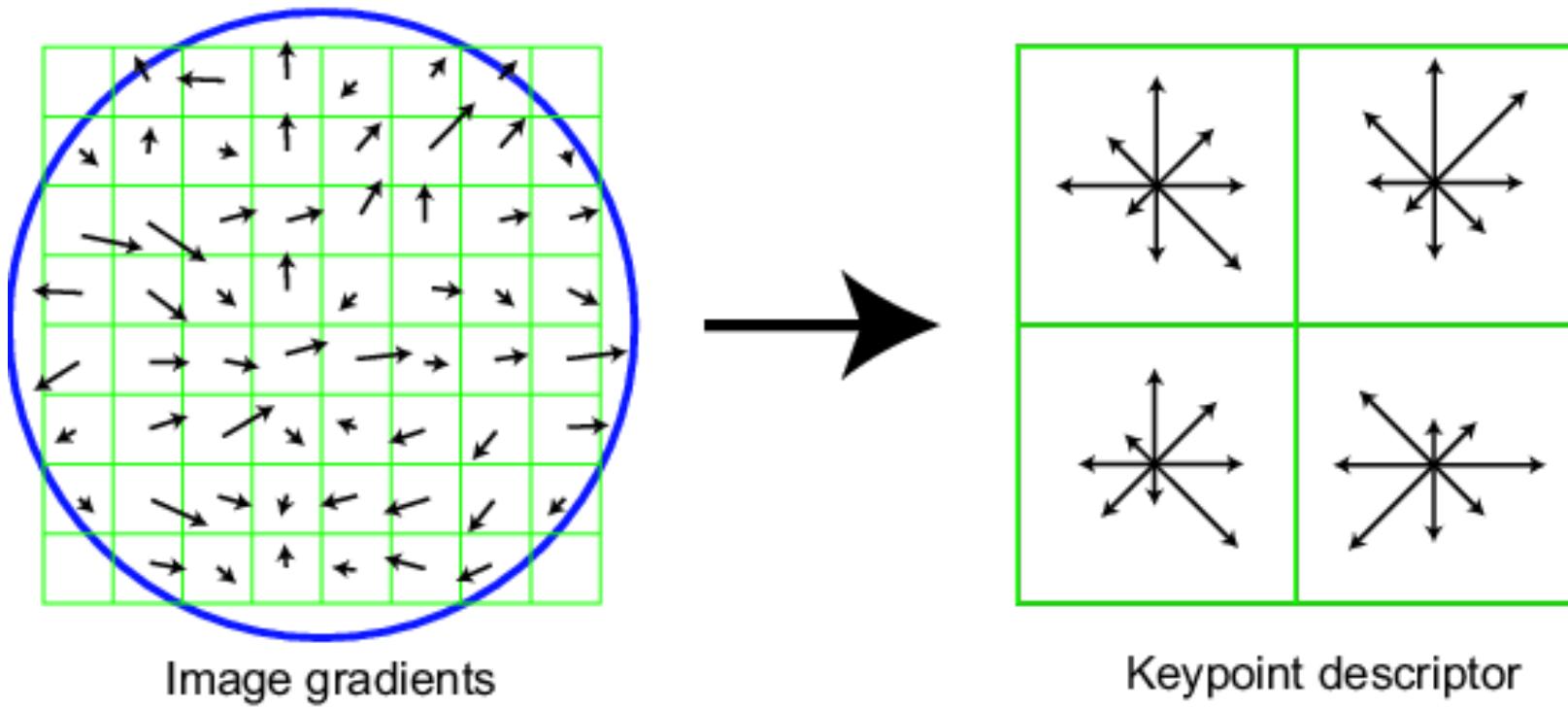
- Detect  $k$  SIFT features  
 $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{128})$



$$(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{128})$$



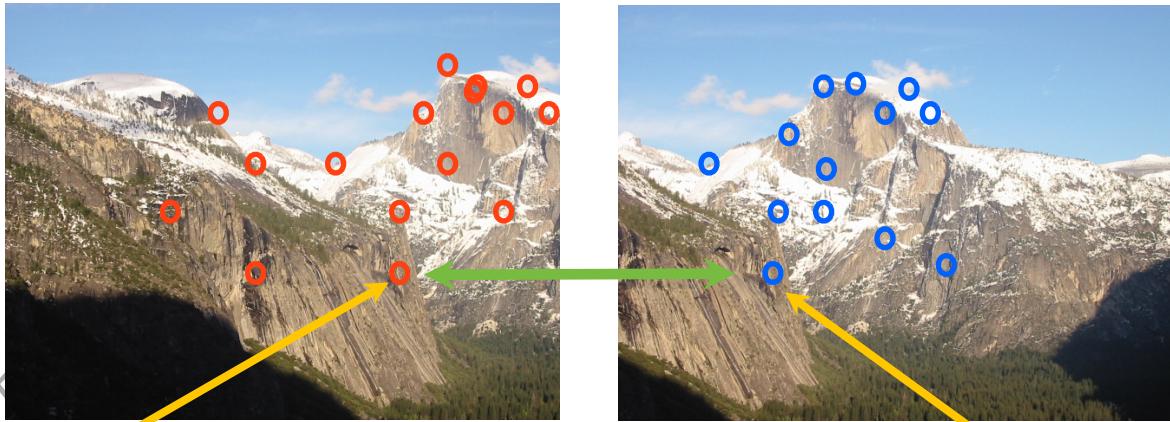
# Build the SIFT Descriptors





# Main Flow

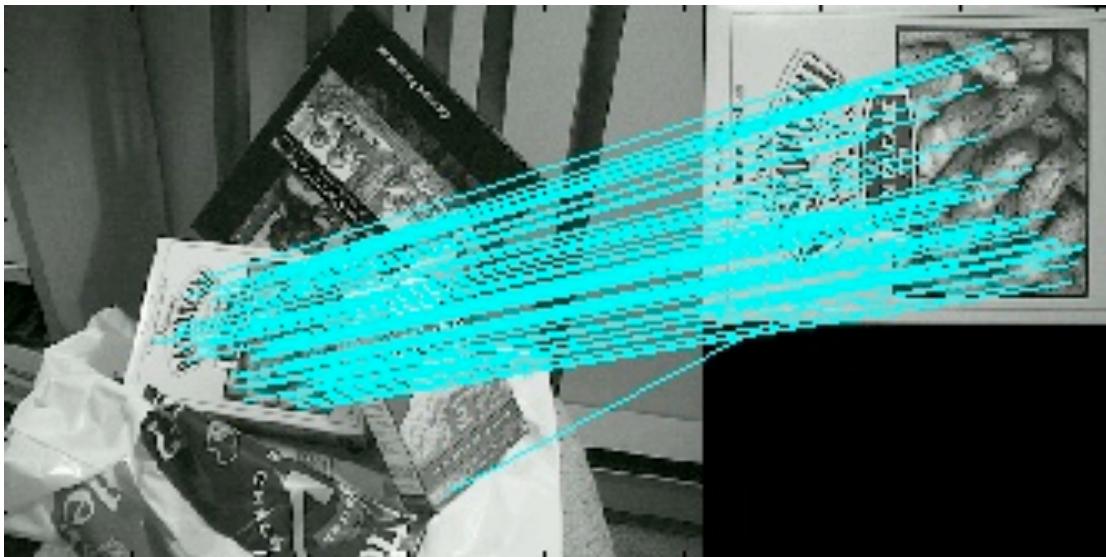
- Detect k
- Build the SIFT descriptors $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{128})$
- Match SIFT descriptors $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{128})$





# Match SIFT Descriptors

- Euclidean distance between descriptors





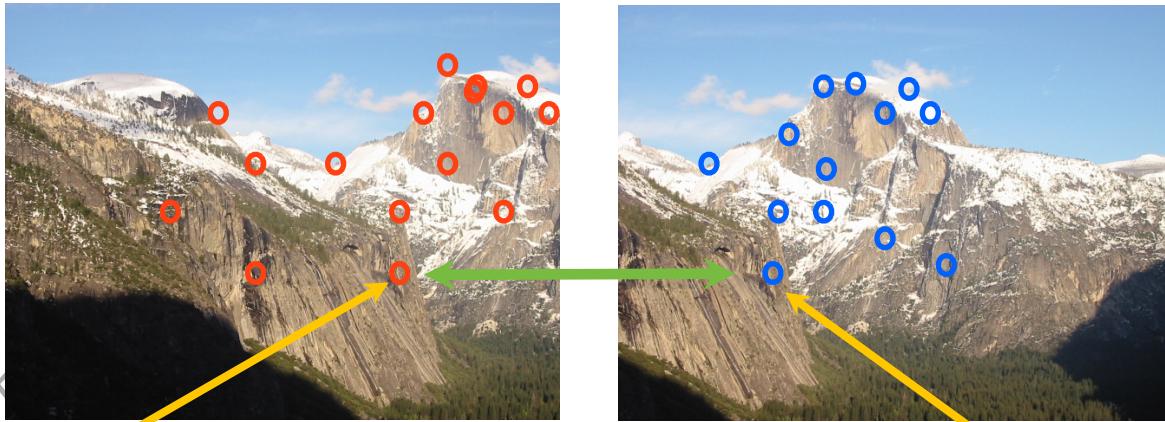
# Skeleton Code

- Match SIFT descriptors (6 lines of code)
  - Input: D1, D2, thresh (default 0.7)
  - Output: match [D1's index, D2's index]
  - Try to use *one* for loop



# Main Flow

- Detect k
- Build the SIFT descriptors  
 $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{128})$
- Match SIFT descriptors
- Fitting the transformation

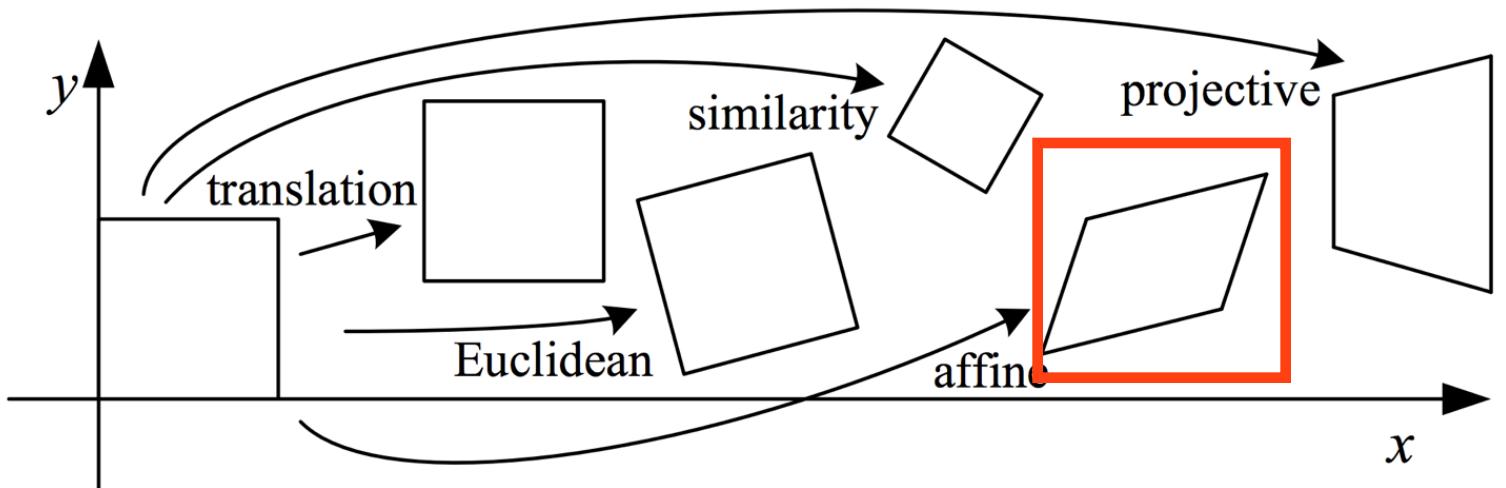

$$(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{128})$$

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} t_{11} & t_{12} & t_{13} \\ t_{21} & t_{22} & t_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Fitting the transformation

- 2D transformations





# Skeleton Code

- Fit the transformation matrix

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Six variables

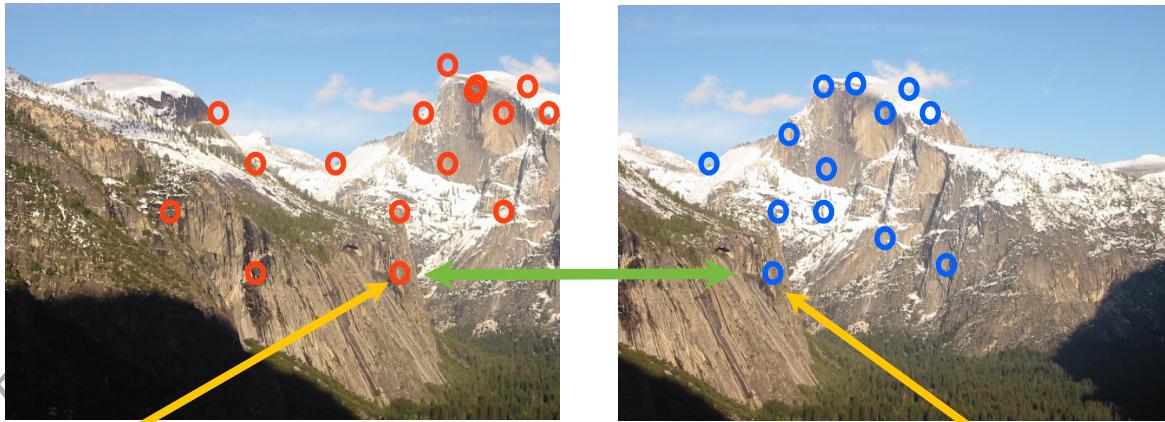
- each point give two equations
  - at least three points

- Least squares



# Main Flow

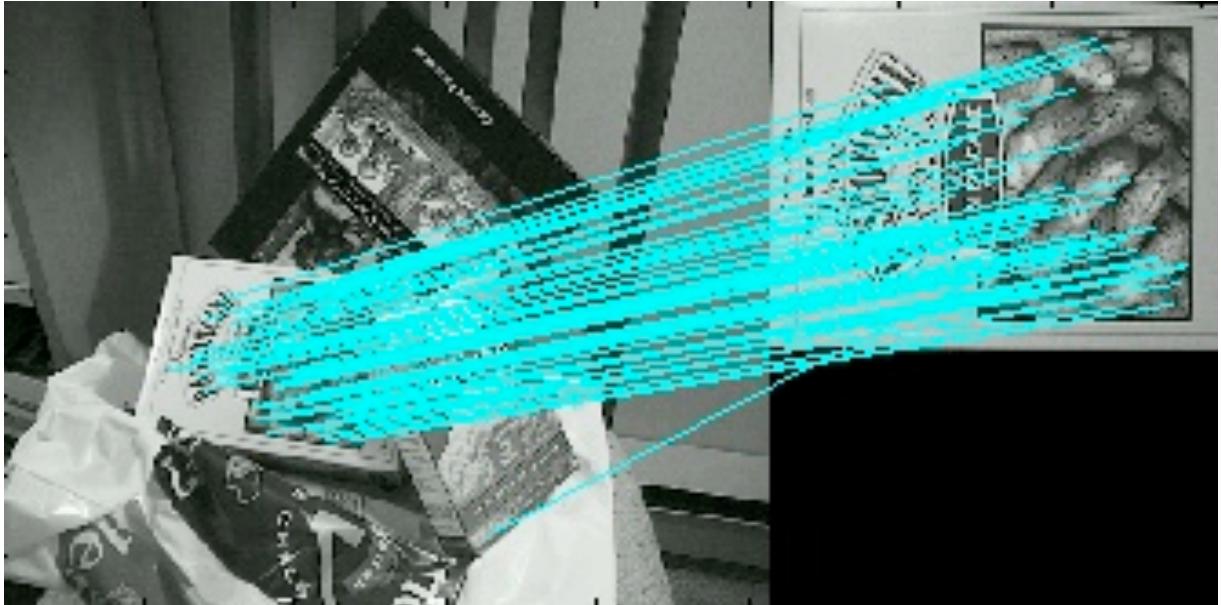
- Detect k
- Build the SIFT descriptors $(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{128})$
- Match SIFT descriptors
- Fitting the transformation
- RANSAC


$$(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{128})$$



# RANSAC

- A further refinement of matches





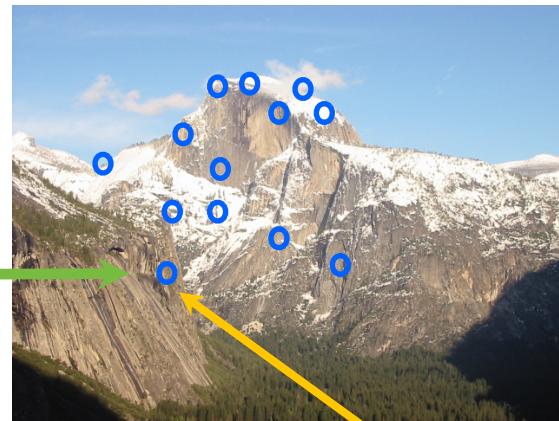
# Skeleton Code

- RANSAC
  - ComputeError

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - H \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\|_2$$



# Main Flow

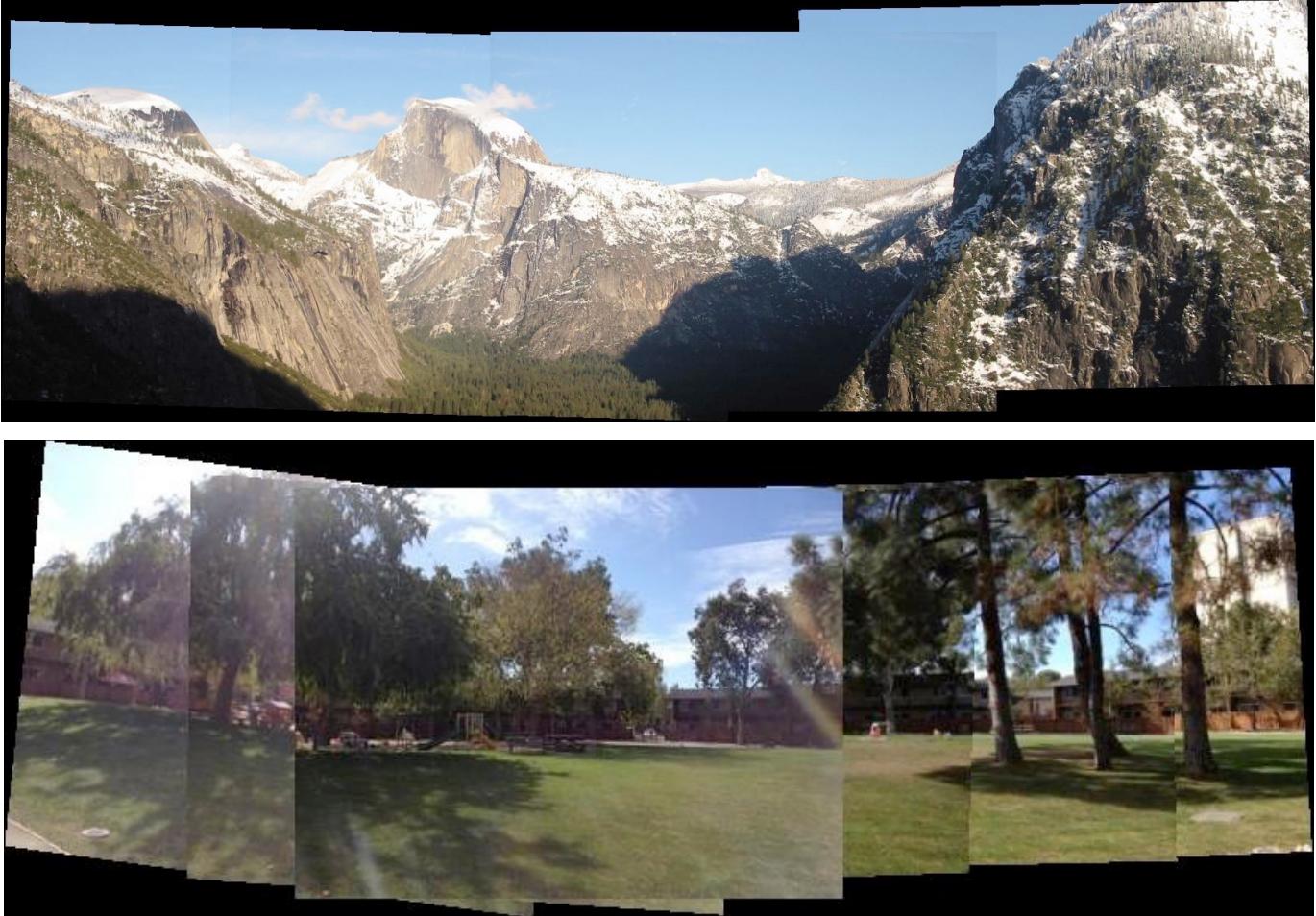

$$(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{128})$$

$$(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{128})$$

- Detect key points
- Build the SIFT descriptors
- Match SIFT descriptors
- Fitting the transformation
- RANSAC



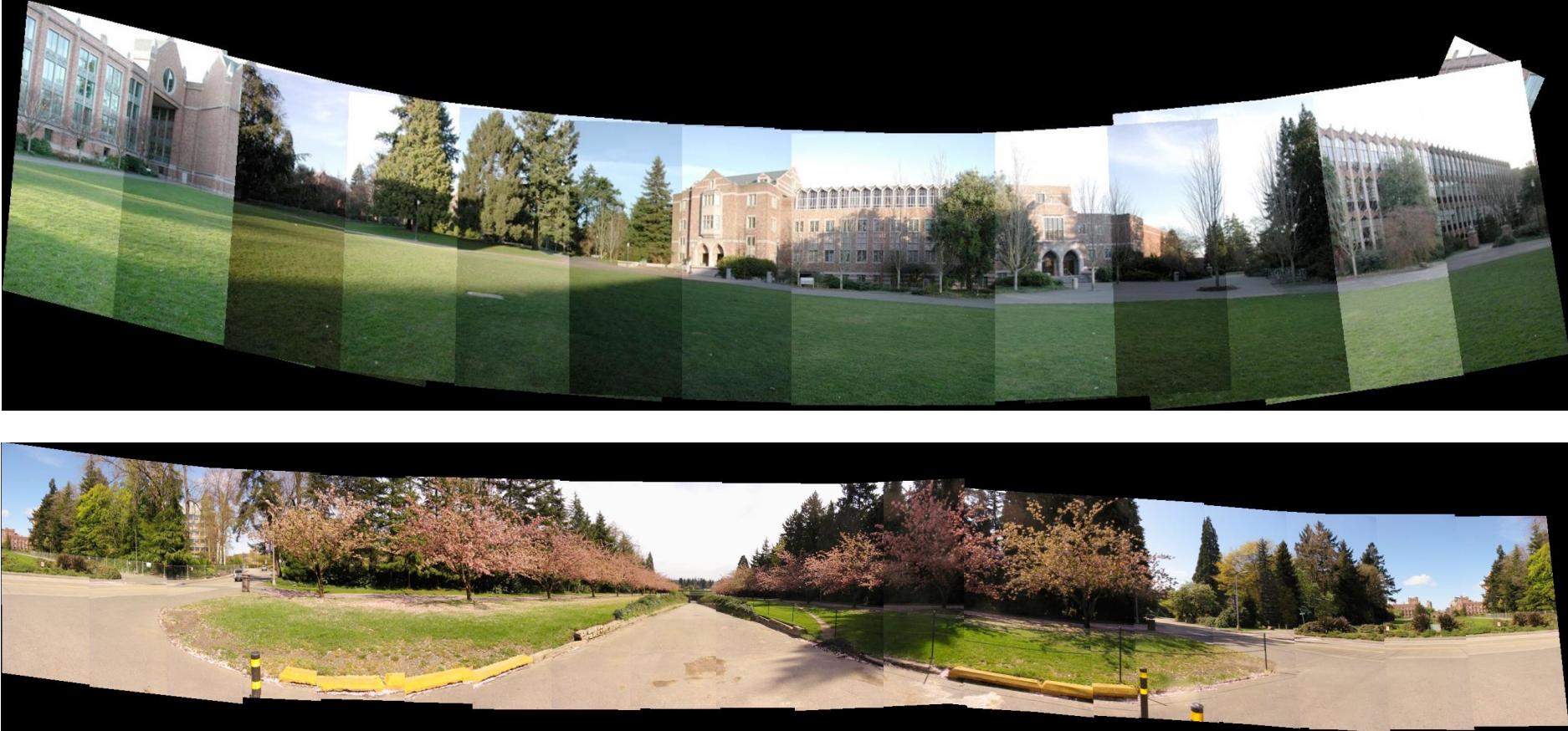


# Results





# Results





# What we have learned this week?

- Scale invariant region selection
  - Automatic scale selection
  - Difference-of-Gaussian (DoG) detector
- SIFT: an image region descriptor
- Application: Panorama

Some background reading: R. Szeliski, Ch 4.1.1; David Lowe, IJCV 2004