

Feature Extraction



Computer Vision



**Hubel DH (1988) Eye, Brain and Vision.
Olshausen & Field, 1997**

Features and matching

Feature: description of a (part of) a pattern / object in the image, e.g. shape, texture, emitted heat if infrared...

Mathematically: Describe the pattern with a vector of values

$$\mathbf{f} = [f_1, \dots, f_N]$$

Goal : efficient matching for
registration
correspondences for 3D,
tracking,
recognition,

...



Features and matching

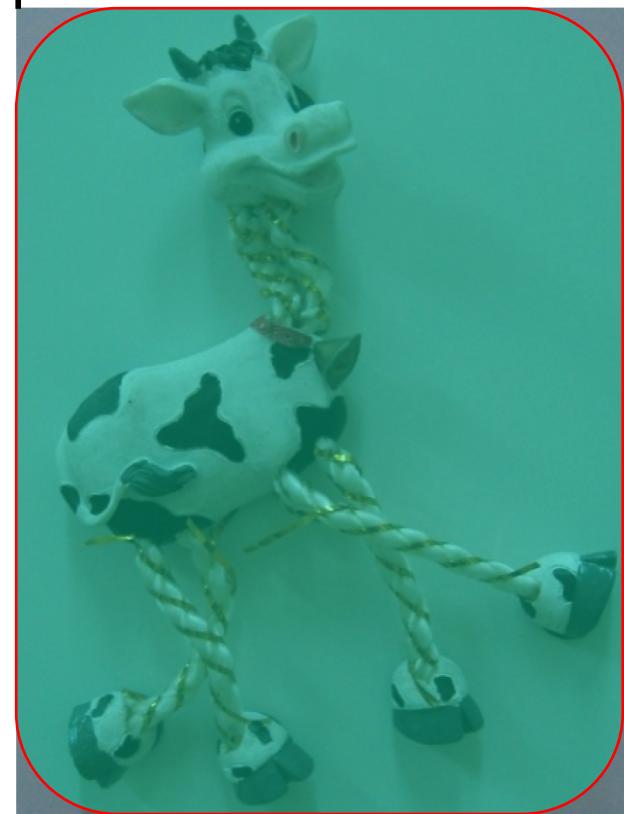
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Examples for recognition



Examples for recognition



Matching is a challenging task

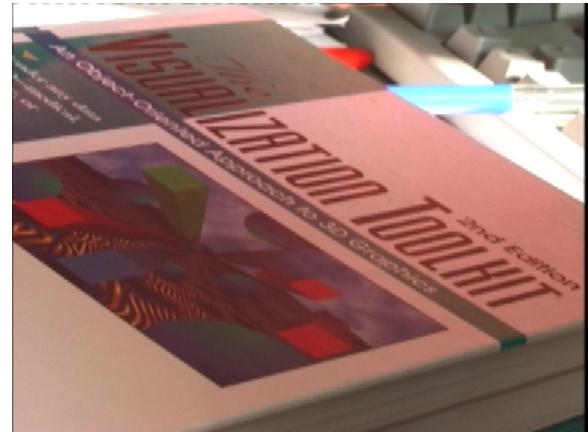
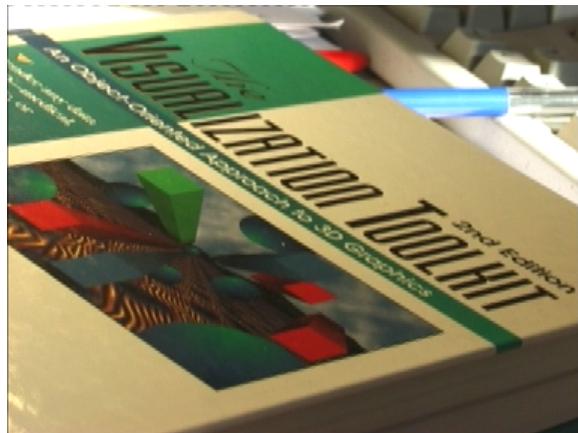
Re-iterating the difficulties with matching highlighted thus far:

- features to deal with **large variations** in
 - Viewpoint



Matching: a challenging task

- features to deal with **large variations** in
 - Viewpoint
 - Illumination



Matching: a challenging task

- features to deal with **large variations** in
 - Viewpoint
 - Illumination
 - Background



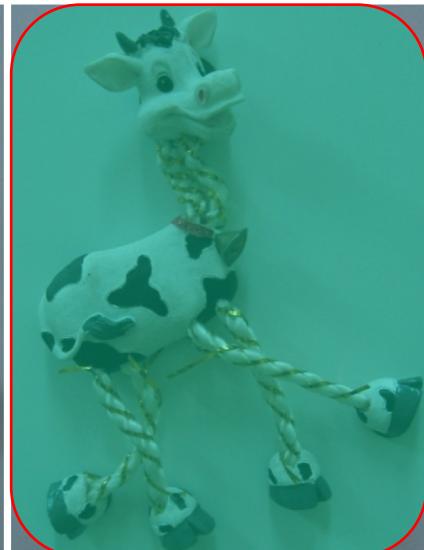
Matching: a challenging task

- features to deal with **large variations** in
 - Viewpoint
 - Illumination
 - Background
 - Occlusion



Considerations when selecting features

- 1. Complete (describing pattern unambiguously) or **not**
- 2. Robustness of extraction
- 3. Ease / speed of extraction
- 4. Global vs. **local**



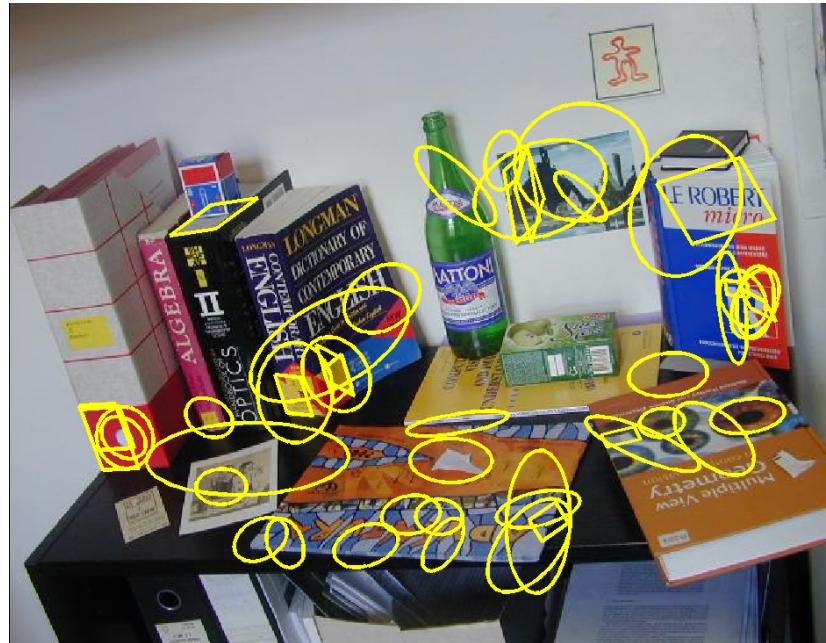
Computer
Vision

THUS:



Strategy

1. Identifying points of interest
 2. Extract local features, vectors, around those interest points
-
- Many features per image
 - Representing different parts of objects



PART 1:

Identifying “basic” points of interest

Interest points for localizable patches

A feature should capture something *discriminative* about a well *localizable* patch of a pattern



We start with the well localizable bit:

Shifting the patch a bit should make a big difference in terms of the underlying pattern

I should be able to get the same point of interest under pose / lighting variations

Outline

Identifying points of interest

1. Edge detection
 - a. Gradient operators
 - b. Zero-crossings of Laplacians
 - c. Canny Edge Detector
2. Corner detection



Computer Vision

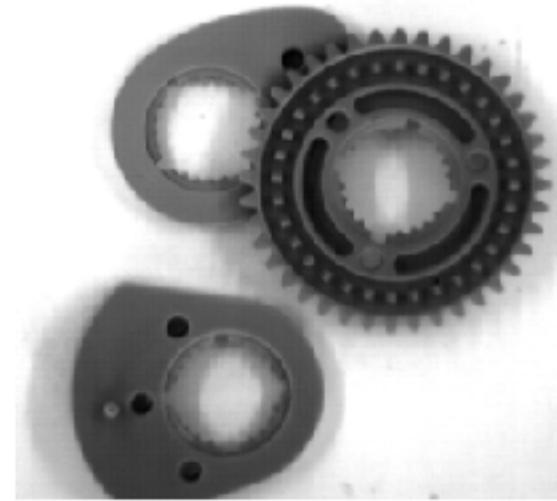


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Edge Detection

edges arise from changes in :

- 1. reflectance
- 2. orientation
- 3. Illumination (e.g. shadows)



Thus, edges are not necessarily relevant to
e.g. shape

Methods introduced here are only 1st step,
edge linking is the hard part

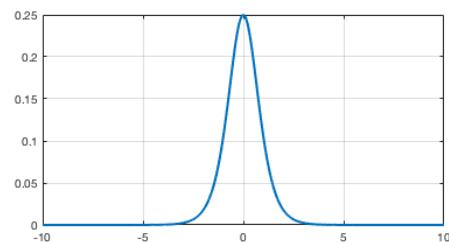
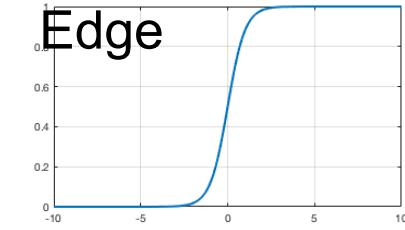


Edge detection methods

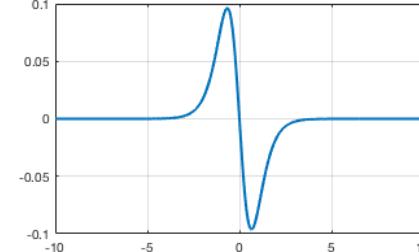
we investigate three approaches :

- ❑ 1. locating high intensity gradient magnitudes
- ❑ 2. locating inflection points in the intensity profile
- ❑ 3. signal processing view (optimal detectors)
Canny edge detector

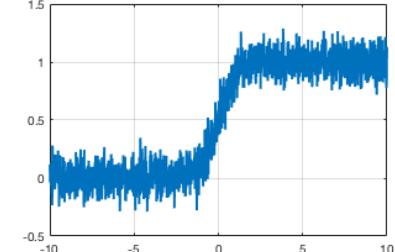
we will only consider isotropic operators



Gradient
magnitude



Inflection
points



Optimal
detector



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 - a. **Gradient operators**
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Gradient operators : principle

image $f(x,y)$: locate edges at f 's steep slopes
measure the gradient magnitude

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

easy to check that this operator is isotropic

the direction of steepest change : rotate
coordinate frame and find θ that maximizes

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x'} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \sin \theta$$

differentiation w.r.t. θ yields

$$\theta_{xtr} = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}}\right)$$

the corresponding magnitude is the one defined above



Gradient operators : implementation

Gradient magnitude is a non-linear operator

$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ are linear and shift-invariant

they can thus be implemented as a convolution

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline -1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline -1 \\ \hline 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Prone to noise!

We want something that will smooth and compute gradients



Gradient operators : Sobel

discrete approximation (finite differences) :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline -2 & 0 & 2 \\ \hline -1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline -1 & -2 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

these are the *Sobel masks*

Gradient operators : Sobel

one mask primarily for vertical and one for horizontal edges

combine their outputs :

- ❑ 1. take the square root of the sum of their squares
- ❑ 2. take arctan of their proportion to obtain edge orientation

these masks are separable, e.g.

$$(-1,0,1) \otimes (1,2,1)^T$$

easy to implement in hardware



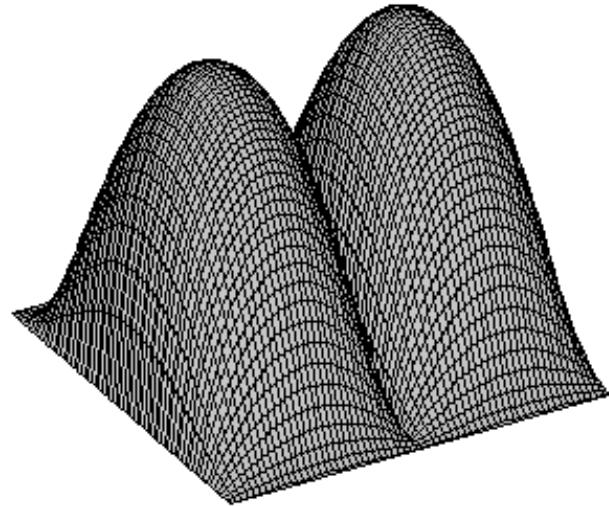
Gradient operators : MTF shows smoothing effect of Sobel mask

example : MTF of the vertical Sobel mask

$$(2i \sin 2\pi u)(2 \cos 2\pi v + 2)$$

this is a pure imaginary function, resulting in $\pi/2$ phase shifts

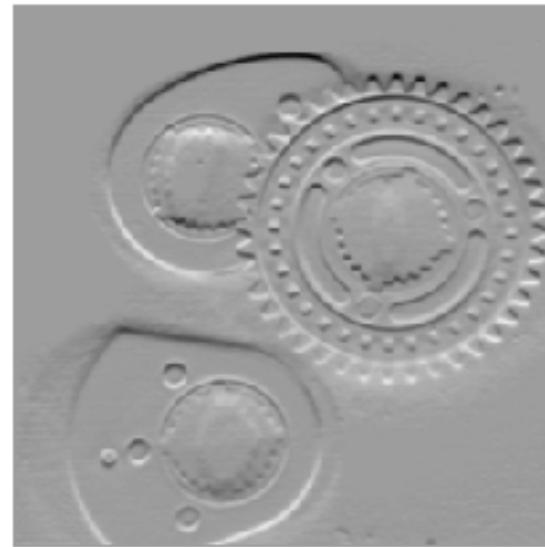
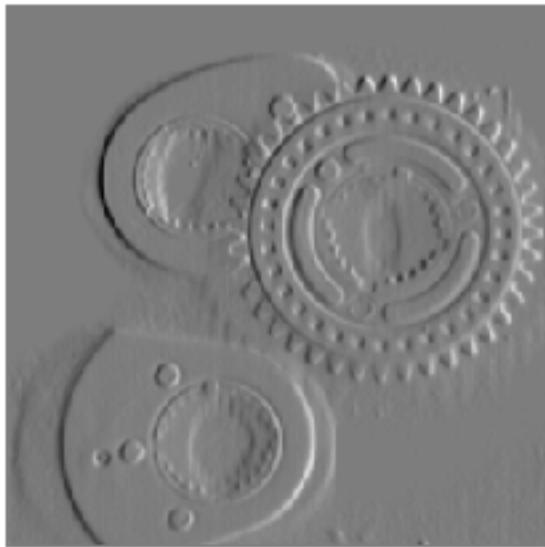
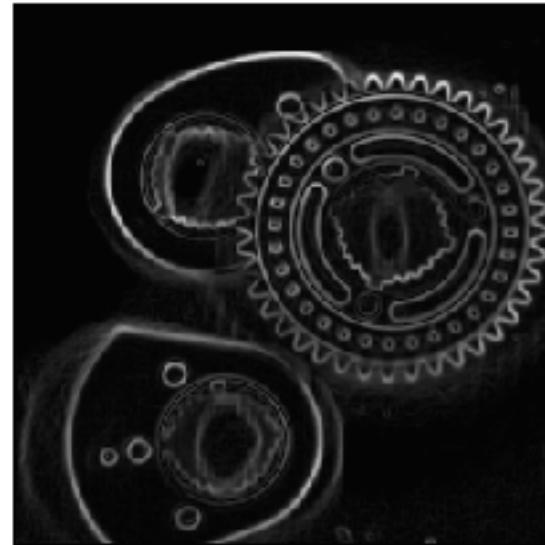
power spectrum :



u -dir. : band-pass, v -dir. : low-pass



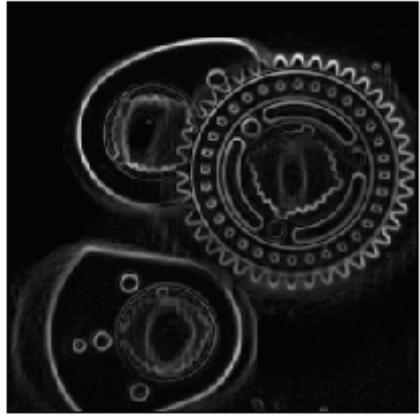
Gradient operators : example



Gradient operators : analysis

result far from a perfect line drawing :

1. gaps
2. several pixels thick at places
3. some edges very weak , whereas others are salient



Sobel masks are the optimal 3×3 convolution filters with integer coefficients for step edge detection

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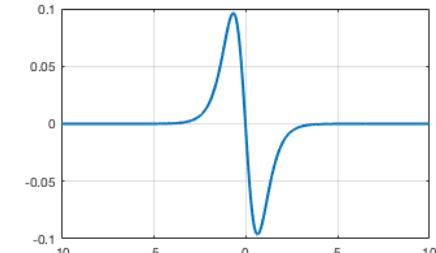
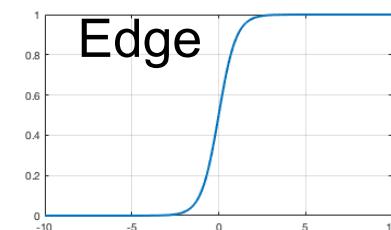
Zero-crossings : principle

consider edges to lie at intensity inflections

can be found at the zero-crossings of the Laplacian :

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

- = linear + shift-invariant \Rightarrow convolution
- = also isotropic



→
Inflection
points

Discrete approximations of the Laplacian

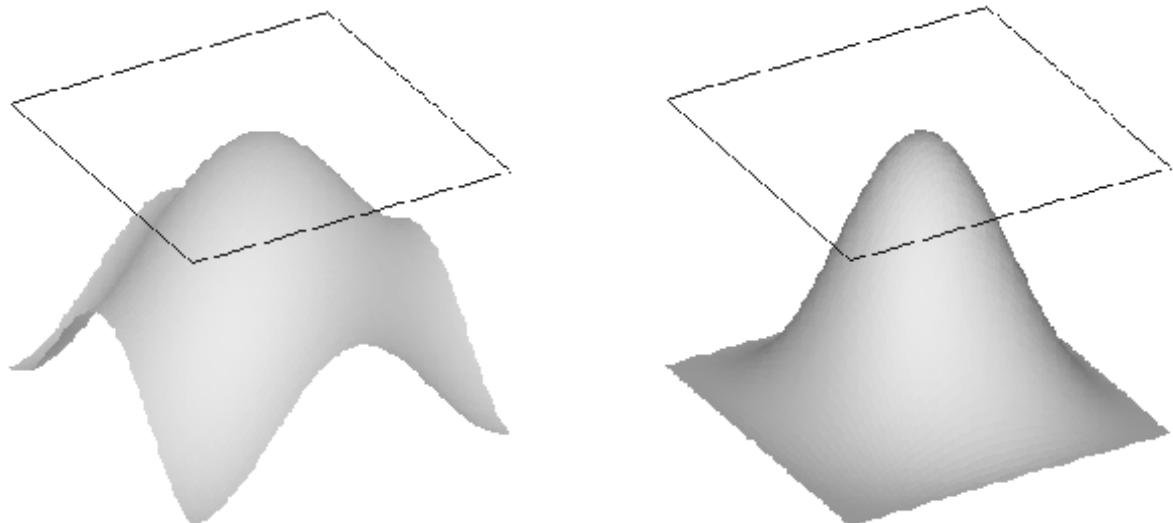
0	1	0
1	- 4	1
0	1	0

1	2	1
2	-12	2
1	2	1

MTF of left filter :

$$2 \cos(2\pi u) + 2 \cos(2\pi v) - 4$$

MTF's



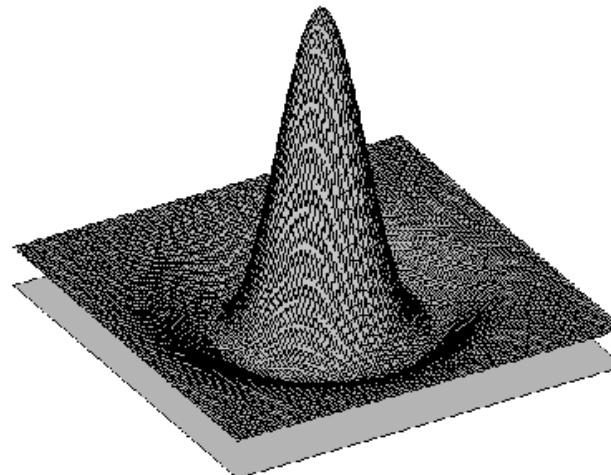
Zero-crossings : implementation

sensitive to noise (2nd order der.)

therefore combined with smoothing, e.g.
a Gaussian :

$$L * (G * f) = (L * G) * f$$

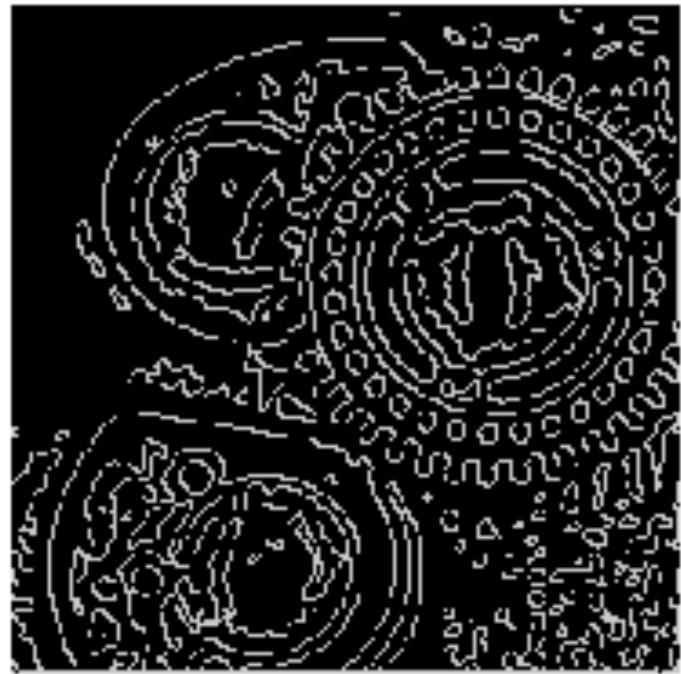
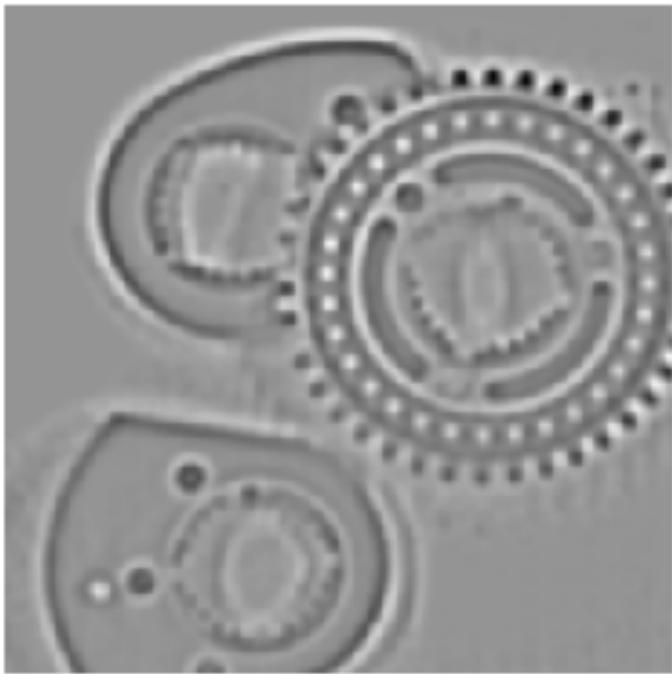
yields “*Mexican hat*” filter :



also implemented as DOG (difference of Gaussians)



Zero-crossings : example



one-pixel thick edges
closed contours
yet not convincing



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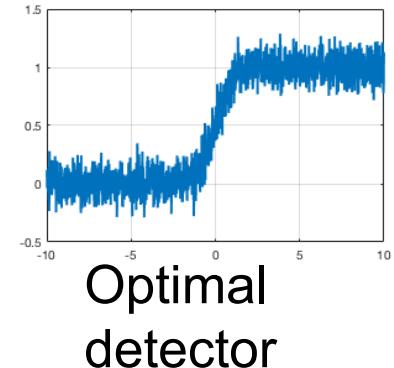
The Canny edge detector

A (1D) signal processing approach

Looking for “optimal” filters

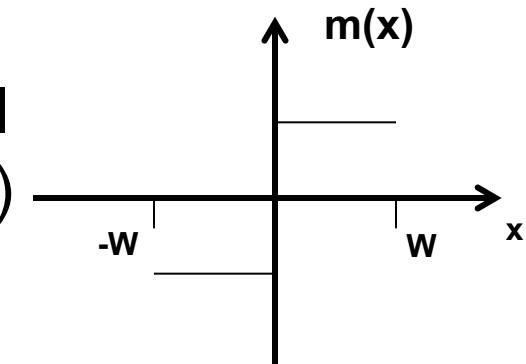
Optimality criteria

- Good SNR
 - strong response to edges
 - low (no) response to noise
- Good localization
 - edges should be detected on the right position
- Uniqueness
 - edges should be detected only once



Characterization of SNR

- Response of system h to signal deterministic signal model $m(x)$ step edge at the origin



$$h[m(x)] = \int_{-W}^W h(x - \hat{x})m(\hat{x})d\hat{x}$$

at the edge position

$$h[m](0) = \int_{-W}^W h(-\hat{x})m(\hat{x})d\hat{x}$$

- Response to noise $n(x)$
noise is stochastic (Gaussian, white, uncorrelated)
can be characterized by expected value

$$\left| \sqrt{E \left[\left(\int_{-W}^W h(\hat{x})n(x - \hat{x})d\hat{x} \right)^2 \right]} \right|_{x=0} = \sigma \sqrt{\int_{-W}^W h^2(\hat{x})d\hat{x}}$$



Characterization of SNR

$$SNR = \frac{\int_{-W}^W h(-\hat{x})m(\hat{x})d\hat{x}}{\sigma \sqrt{\int_{-W}^W h^2(\hat{x})d\hat{x}}}$$



Characterization of localization

- Edge location: maximum of the system response extremum of $h(m(x)+n(x))$ at x_0
again stochastic (depending on the noise)
will deviate from the ideal edge position at 0
- Quantification through expected value of the deviation from the real edge location $\sqrt{E[x_0^2]}$
- Localization measure

$$LOK = \frac{1}{\sqrt{E[x_0^2]}} = \frac{\left| \int_{-W}^W h'(\hat{x})m'(-\hat{x})d\hat{x} \right|}{\sigma \sqrt{\int_{-W}^W [h'(\hat{x})]^2 d\hat{x}}}$$



The matched filter

- Optimal filter $h(x)$ for which

$$\max (\text{SNR} \times \text{LOC})$$

- can be shown that

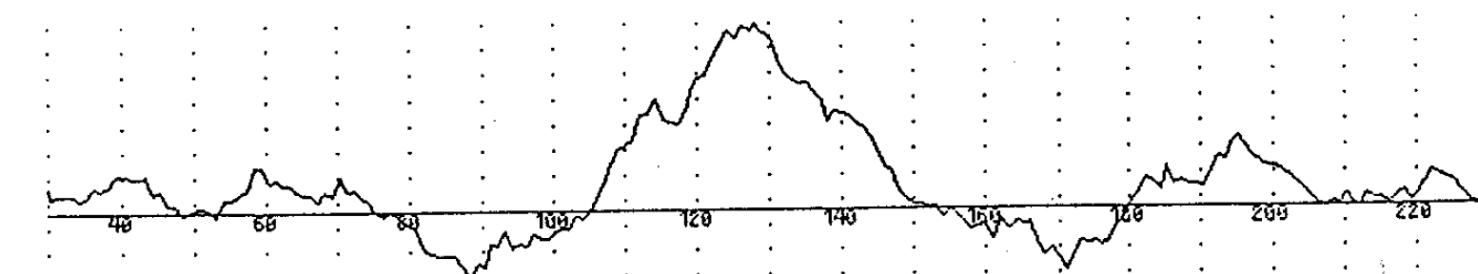
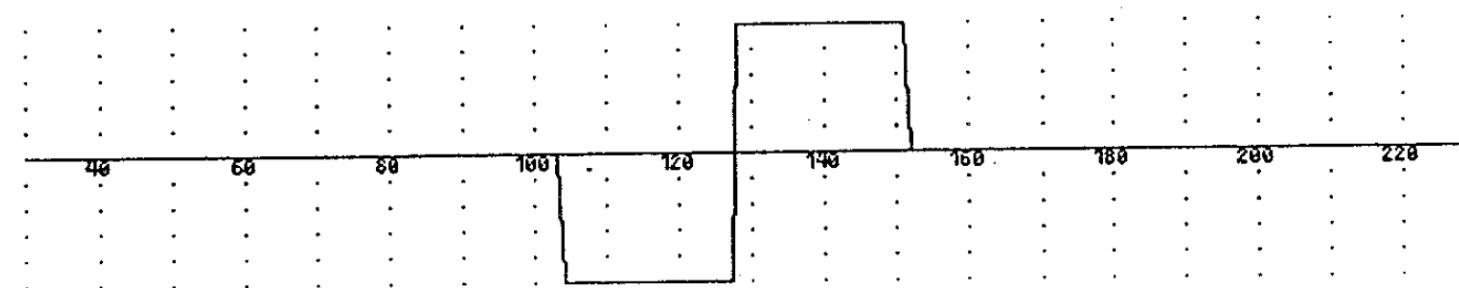
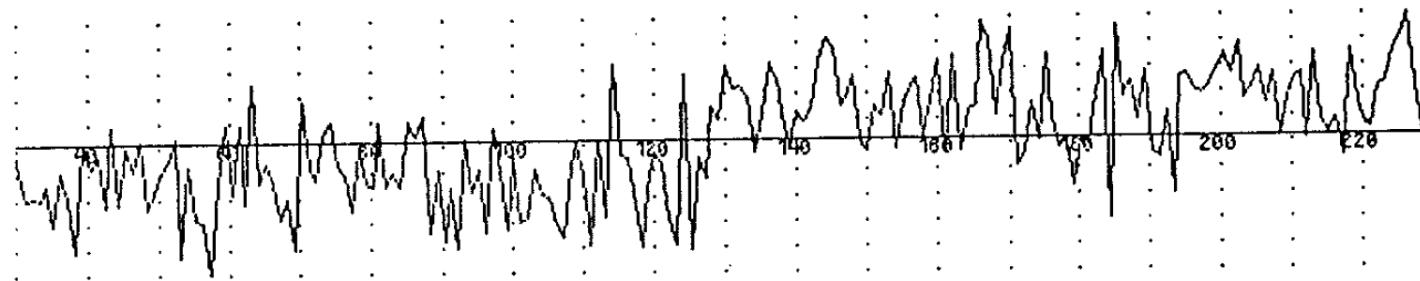
$$h(x) = \lambda m(x) \quad x \in [-W, W]$$

Essentially identical with the signal to be detected

- For the edge model used: difference of boxes
DOB Filter



The matched filter



Uniqueness

- ❑ Filtering with DOB generates many local maxima due to noise
- ❑ Hinders unique detection
- ❑ Remedy: minimize the number of maxima within the filter support
- ❑ Caused by noise (stochastic)
Characterized by the average distance between subsequent zero crossings of the noise response derivative ($f = h'(n)$)
Rice theorem

$$x_{ave} = \pi \sqrt{\frac{-\Phi_{ff}(0)}{\Phi''_{ff}(0)}}$$



1D optimal filter

- ❑ Average number of maxima within filter support

$$N_{max} = \frac{2W}{x_{max}} = \frac{W}{x_{ave}}$$

should be minimized

- ❑ Overall goal function is a linear combination of the two criteria

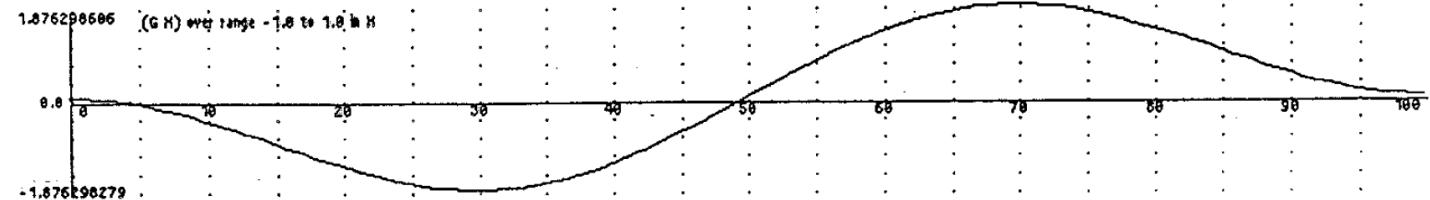
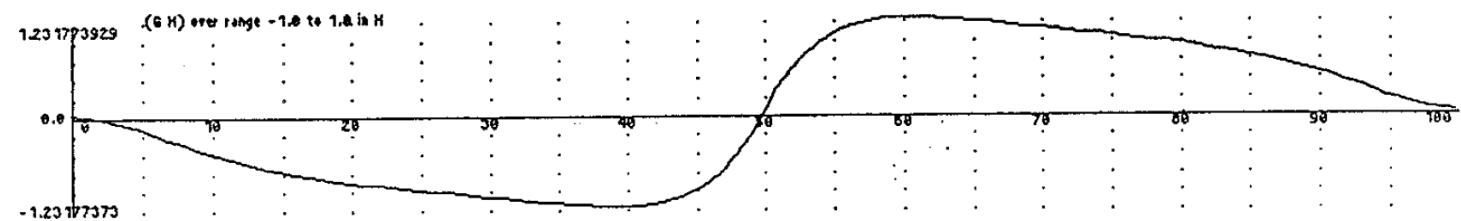
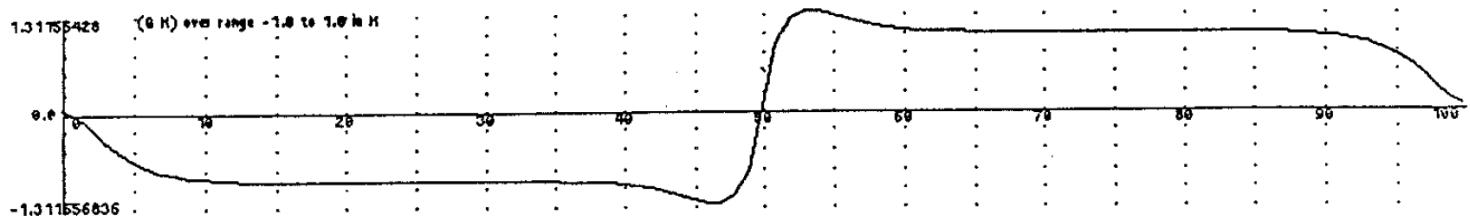
$$\max \left(\text{SNR} \times \text{LOC} + c \frac{1}{N_{max}} \right)$$

the solution depends on c
empirically selected



1D optimal filter

Small c



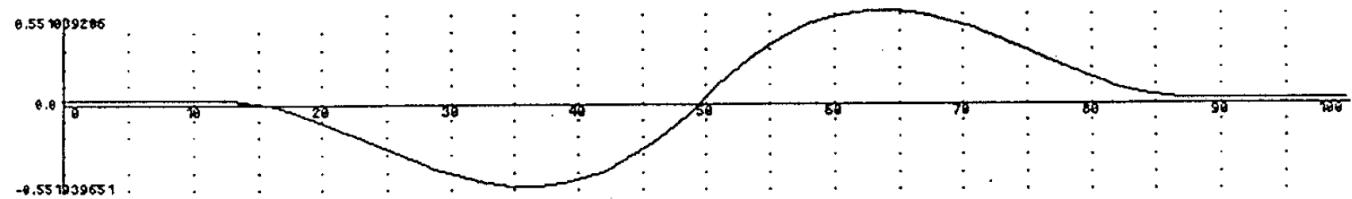
Large c



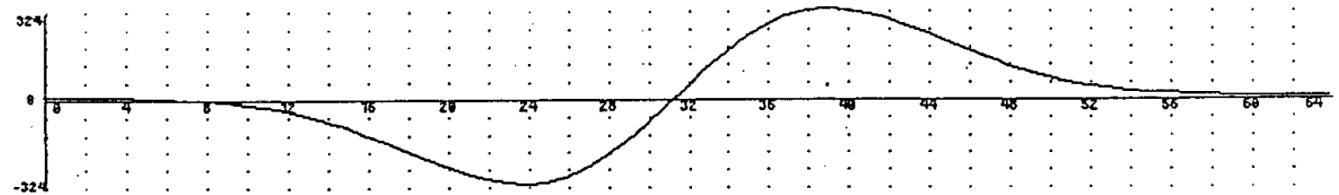
1D optimal filter

Resembles the first derivative of the Gaussian

Canny selection



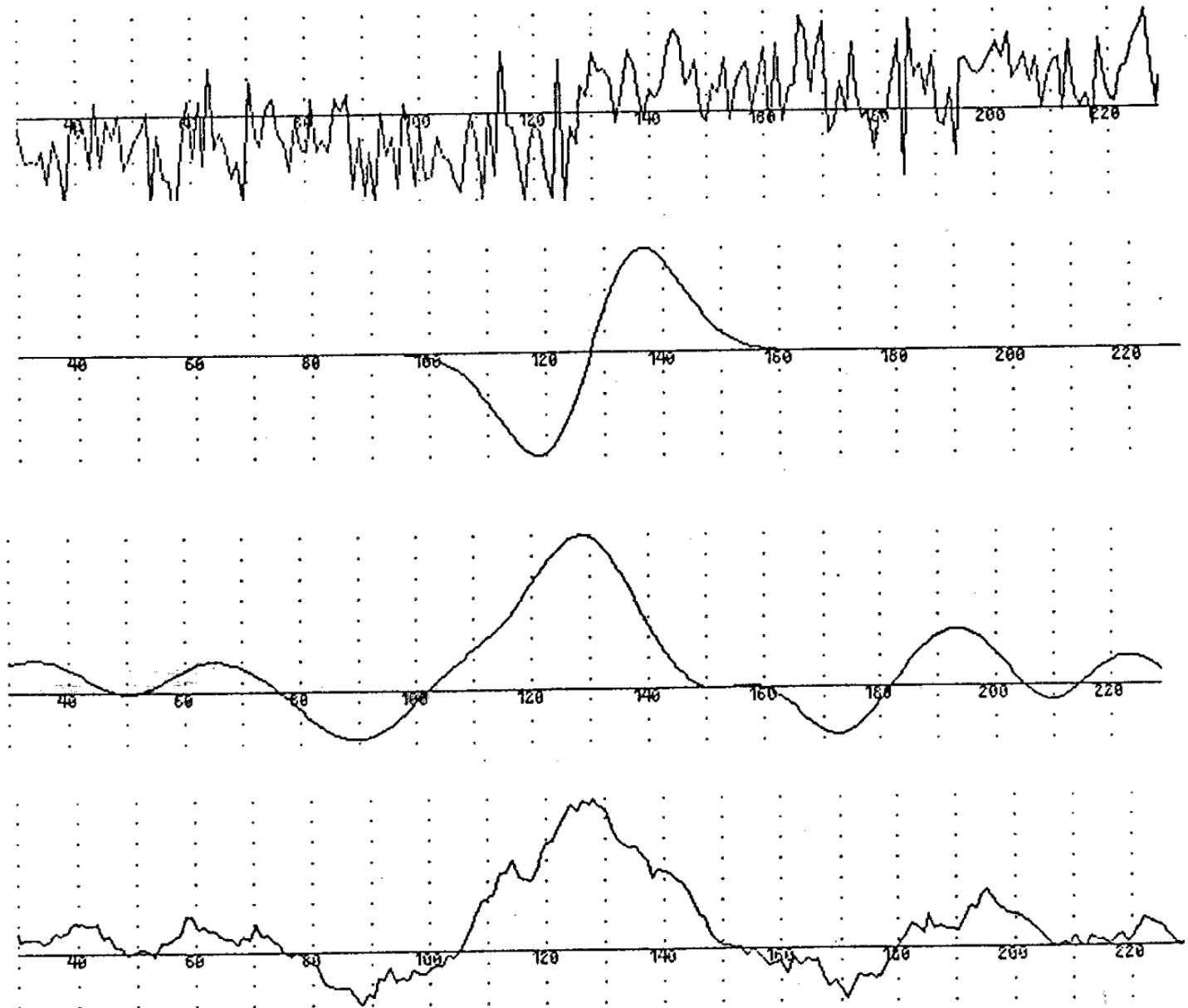
Gaussian derivative



Another first derivative based detector



Optimal filter

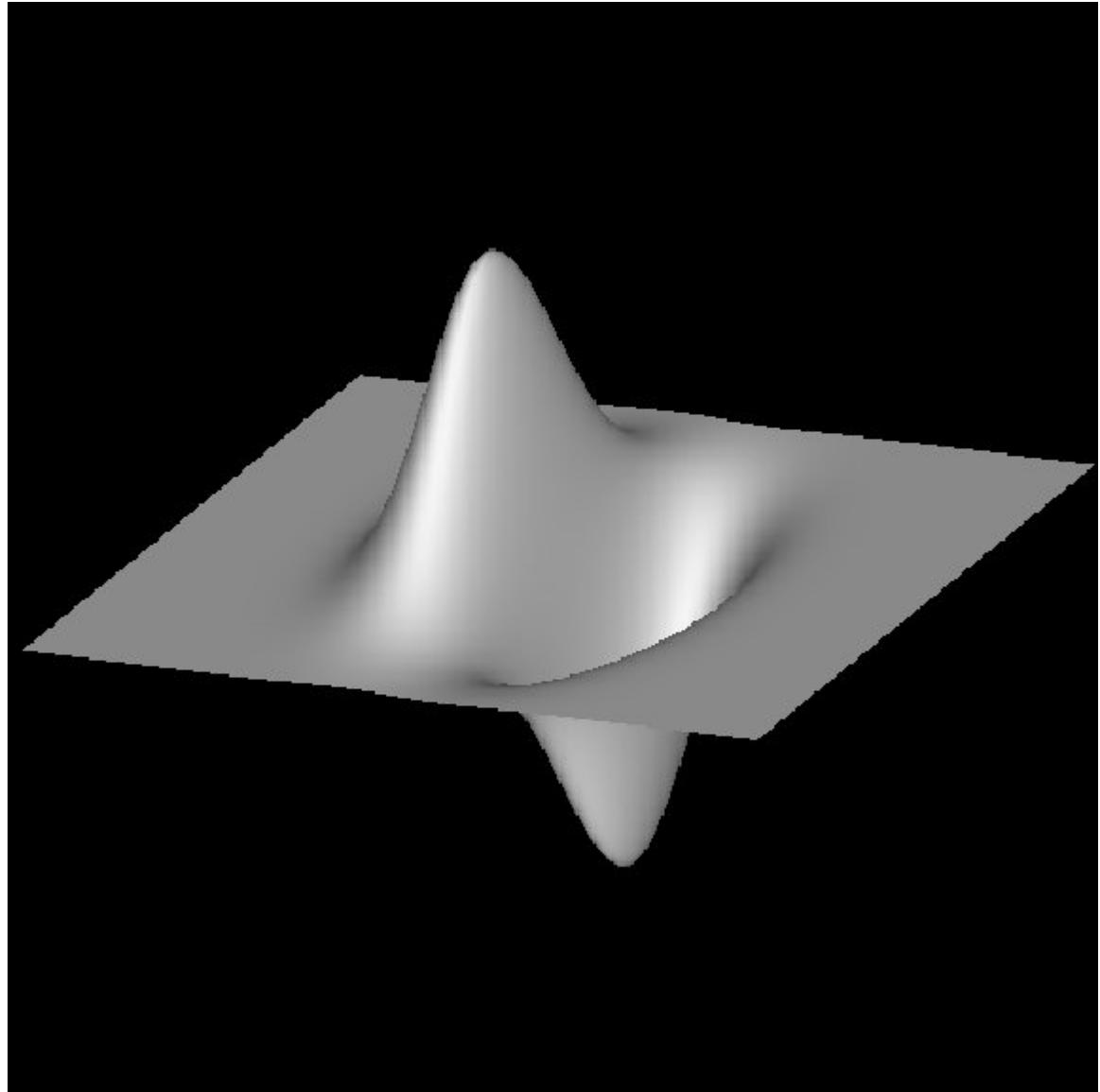


Canny filter in nD

- ❑ The Canny filter is essentially 1D
- ❑ Extension to higher dimensions
 - ❑ simplified edge model
 - ❑ intensity variation only orthogonal to the edge
 - ❑ no intensity change along the edge
- ❑ Combination of two filtering principles
 - ❑ 1D Canny filter across the edge
 - ❑ $(n-1)D$ smoothing filter along the edge
 - Gaussian smoothing is used
- ❑ The effective filter is a directional derivative of Gaussian

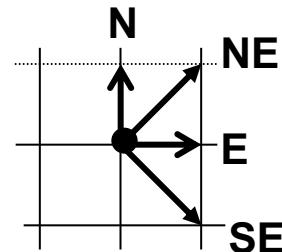


The 2D Canny filter



2D implementation on the discrete image raster

- ❑ Faithful implementation by selecting gradient direction: does not respect discretization
- ❑ Estimation of directional derivatives instead considering neighbours on the image raster



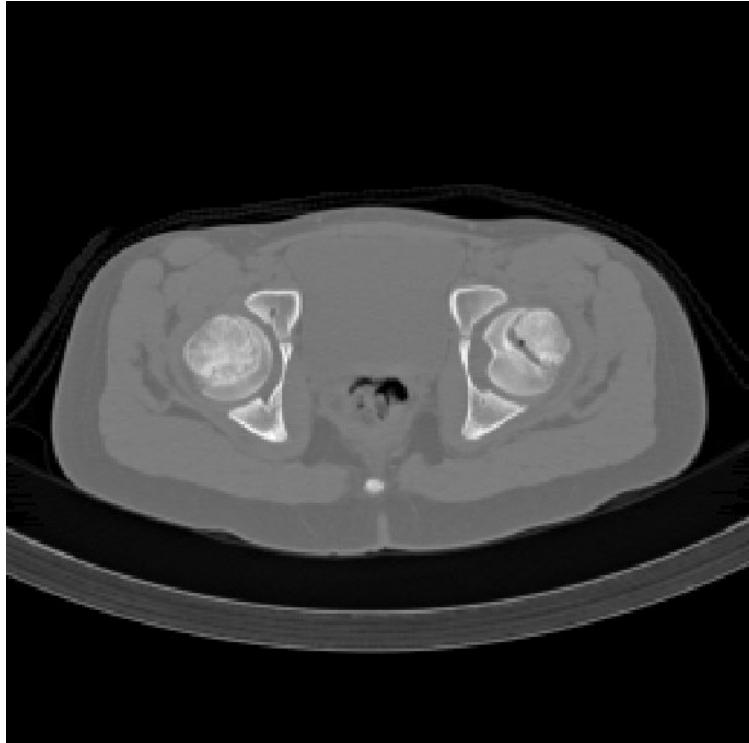
- ❑ Start with 2D Gaussian smoothing $f = G * I$
- ❑ Directional derivatives from discrete differences

$$f'_N = f(i, j + 1) - f(i, j); f'_{NE}(i, j) = (f(i + 1, j + 1) - f(i, j))/\sqrt{2}$$
$$f'_E = f(i + 1, j) - f(i, j); f'_{SE}(i, j) = (f(i + 1, j - 1) - f(i, j))/\sqrt{2}$$

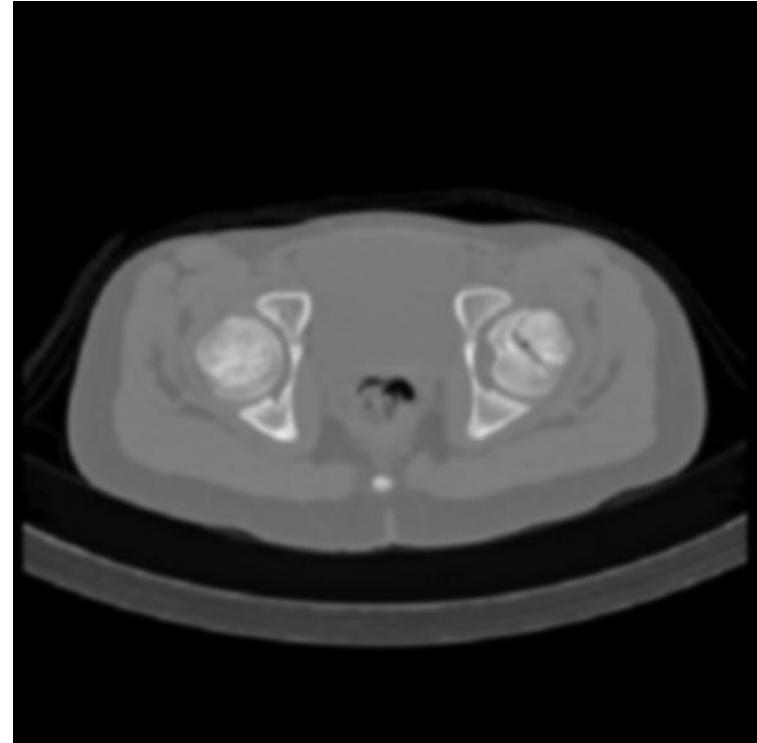
- ❑ Selecting the maximum as gradient approximation



Canny 2D results



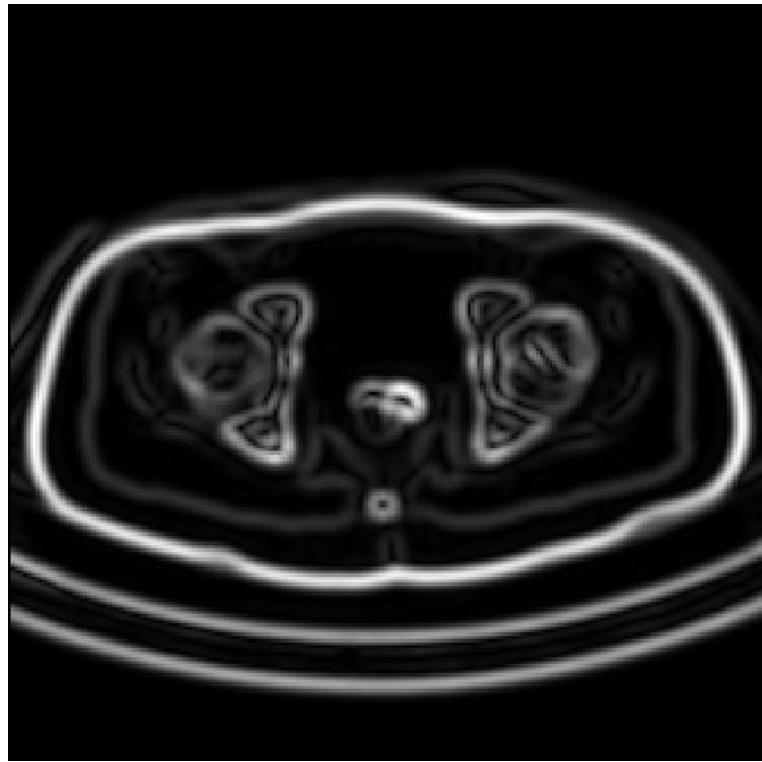
original image



Gaussian smoothing



Canny 2D results

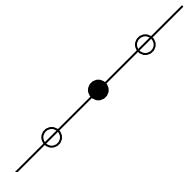


Gradient approximation



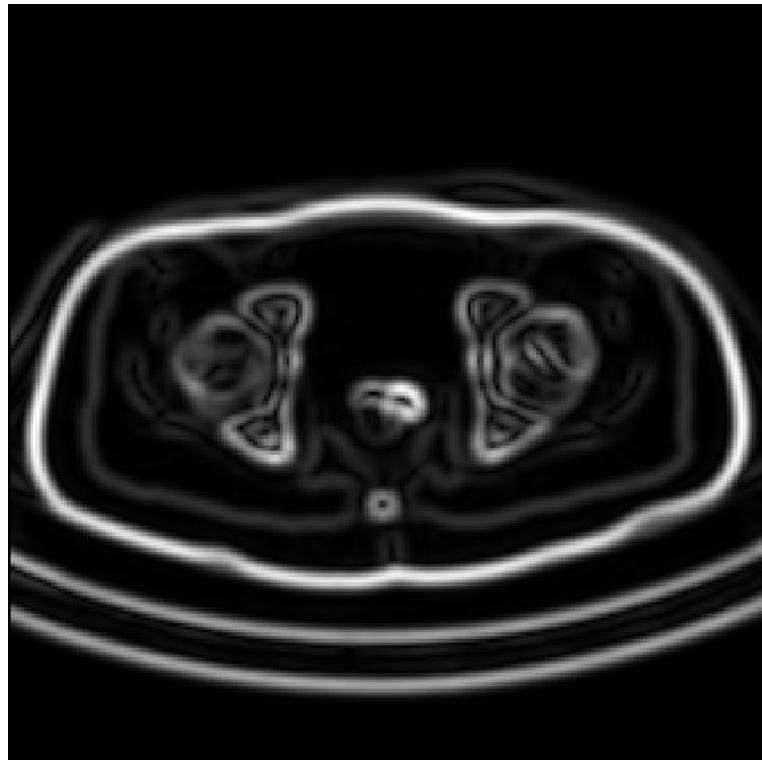
Post-processing steps

- ❑ Non-maximum suppression
 - ❑ Comparing derivatives at the two neighbours along the selected direction

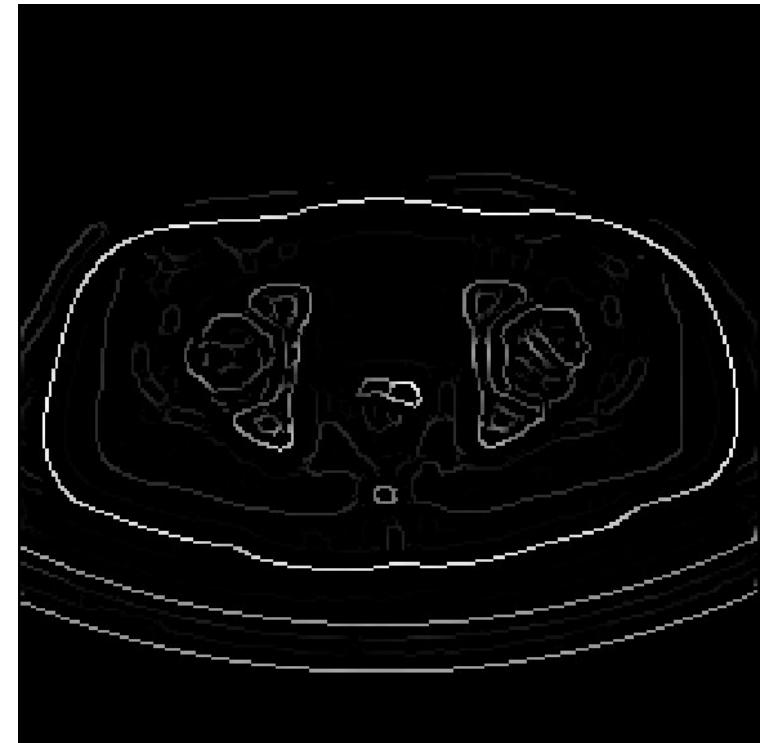


- ❑ Keeping only values which are not smaller than any of them
- ❑ Hysteresis thresholding
 - ❑ using two threshold values t_{low} and t_{high}
 - ❑ keep class 1 edge pixels for which $|f(i, j)| \geq t_{high}$
 - ❑ discard class 2 edge pixels for which $|f(i, j)| < t_{low}$
 - ❑ for class 3 edge pixels $t_{high} > |f(i, j)| \geq t_{low}$ keep them only if connected to class 1 pixels through other class 3 pixels

Canny 2D results



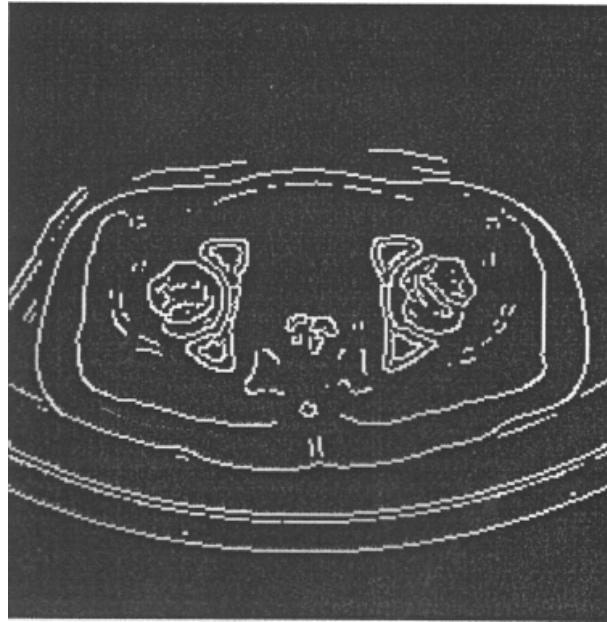
Gradient approximation



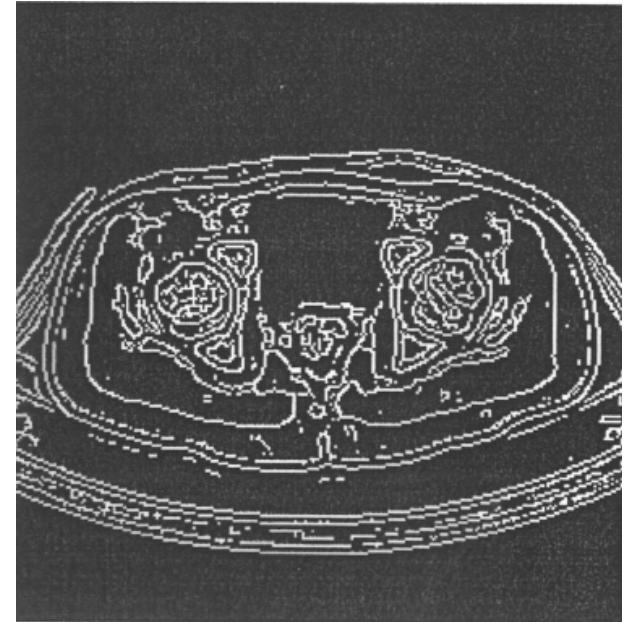
non-maximum suppression



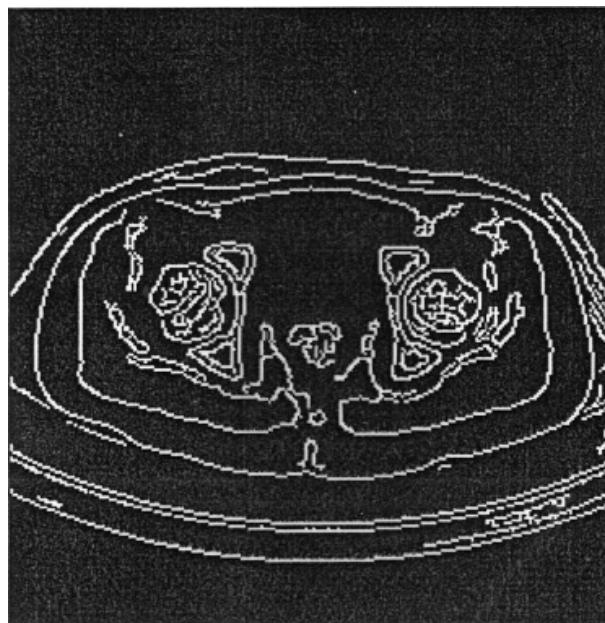
Canny 2D results



threshold t_{high}



threshold t_{low}



hysteresis
thresholding



Remarks to the Canny filter

- ❑ The state-of-the-art edge detector even today
- ❑ Very efficient implementation
no interpolation is needed as respecting the raster
- ❑ Post-processing is the major contribution
- ❑ Can be applied to any gradient-based edge detection scheme
- ❑ Fails where the simplified edge model is wrong
 - ❑ crossing, corners, ...
 - ❑ gaps can be created
 - ❑ mainly due to non-maximum suppression
- ❑ Hysteresis thresholding is only effective in 2D



A Post Scriptum

e.g. Sobel filter reflects intensity pattern to be found
other example, line detector

$$\begin{matrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{matrix}$$

in line with the *matched filter theorem*



Outline

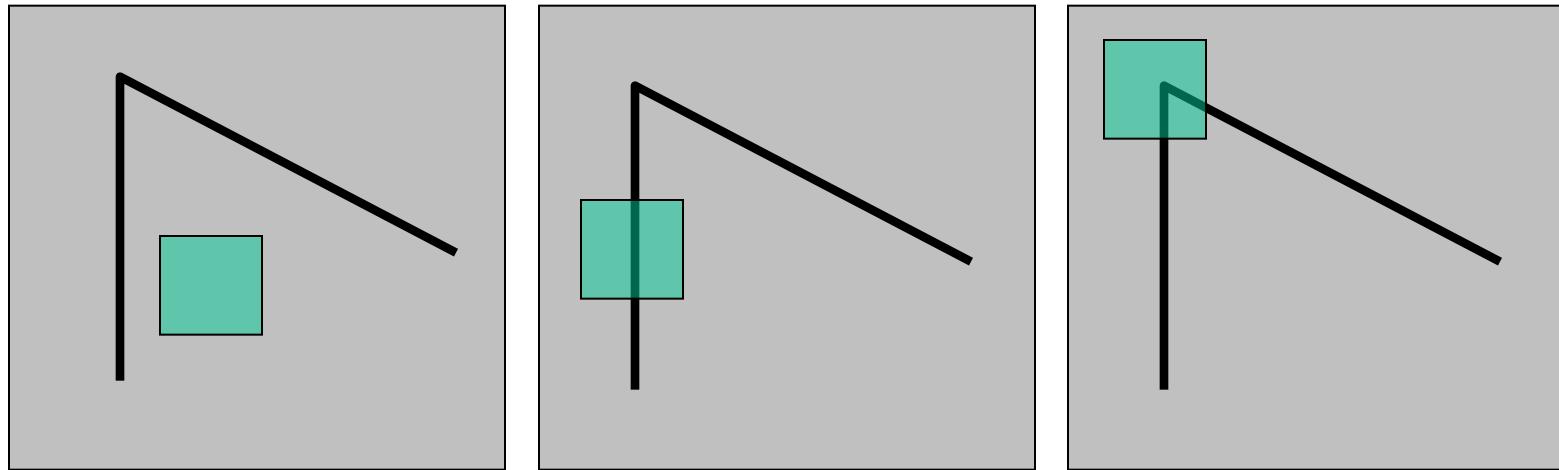
Identifying points of interest

- 1. Edge detection**
 - a. Gradient operators
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 - c. Canny Edge Detector
- 2. Corner detection**



Uniqueness of a patch

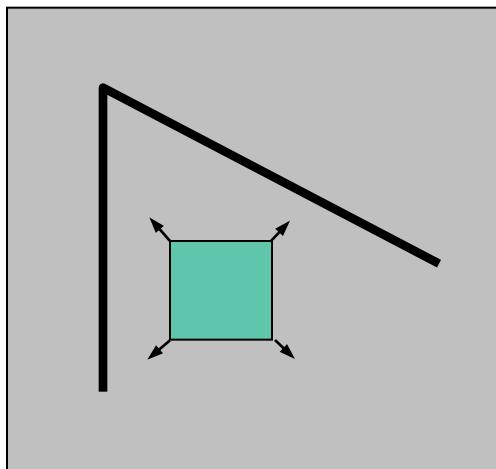
consider the pixel pattern within the green patches:



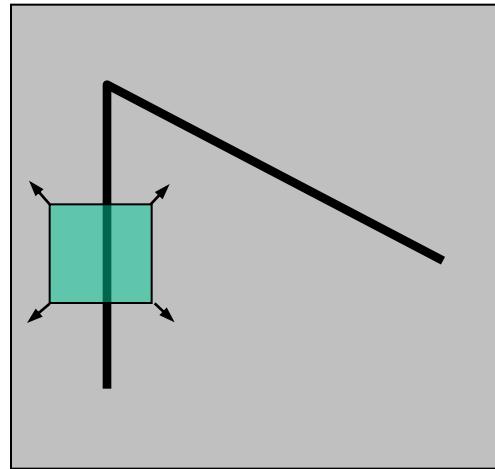
Think of the wedge as being darker than the background,
i.e. not as drawn in the figure...

Uniqueness of a patch

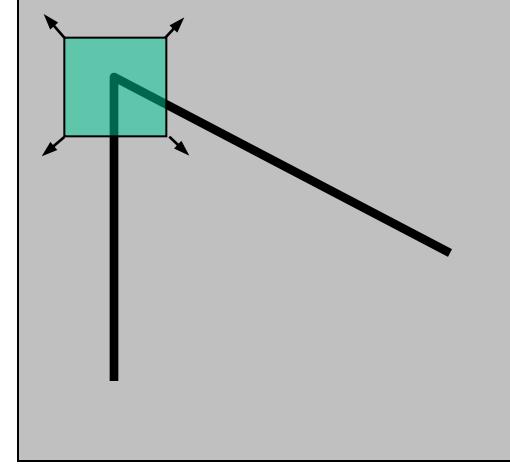
How do the patterns change upon a shift?
Is it well localizable?



“flat” region:
no change in
all directions



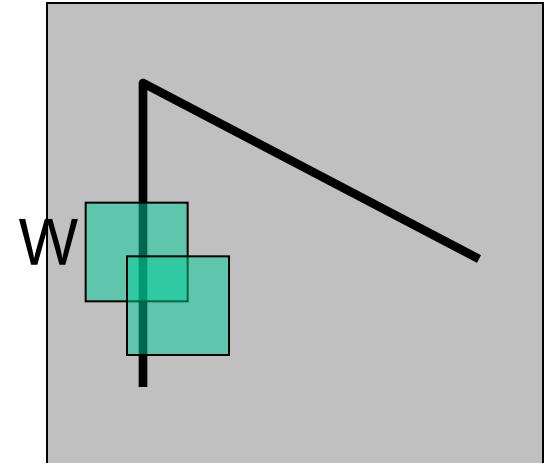
“edge”:
no change along
the edge direction



“corner”:
significant change
in all directions

Uniqueness of a patch

Consider shifting the patch or ‘window’ W by (u, v)



- how do the pixels in W change?
- compare each pixel before and after by summing up the squared differences (SSD)
- this defines the SSD “error” $E(u, v)$:

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

Uniqueness of a patch

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

Taylor Series expansion of I:

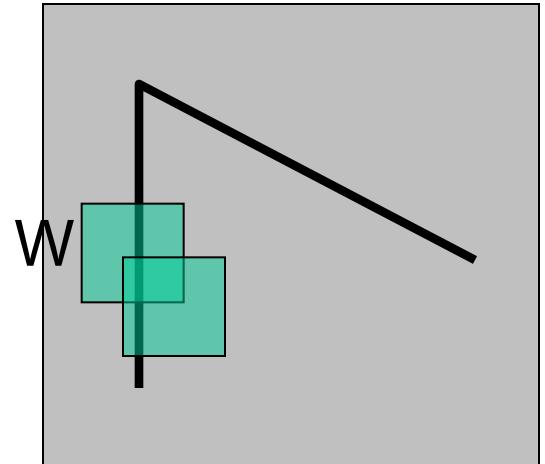
$$I(x + u, y + v) = I(x, y) + \frac{\partial I}{\partial x}u + \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}v + \text{higher order terms}$$

If the motion (u,v) is small, then 1st order appr. is good

$$\begin{aligned} I(x + u, y + v) &\approx I(x, y) + \frac{\partial I}{\partial x}u + \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}v \\ &\approx I(x, y) + [I_x \ I_y] \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Plugging this into the formula at the top...

Uniqueness of a patch



Then, with shorthand: $I_x = \frac{\partial I}{\partial x}$

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

Uniqueness of a patch

This can be rewritten further as:

$$E(u, v) = \sum_{(x,y) \in W} [u \ v] \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

A blue circle highlights the summation term $\sum_{(x,y) \in W}$. A blue arrow points from this circle to the matrix H , which is enclosed in a blue bracket below the matrix.

- Which directions (u, v) will result in the largest and smallest E values?
- We can find these directions by looking at the eigenvectors of H

Uniqueness of a patch

This can be rewritten further as:

$$E(u, v) = \sum_{(x,y) \in W} [u \ v] \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

A blue circle highlights the summation term $\sum_{(x,y) \in W}$. A blue arrow points from this circle to the matrix H , which is enclosed in a blue bracket below the matrix.

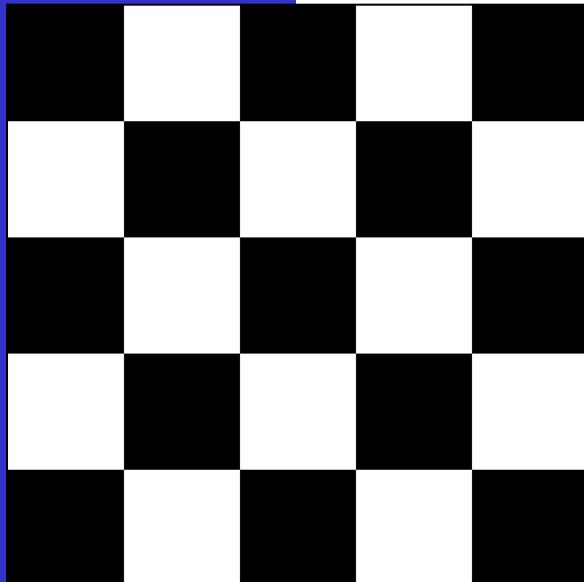
Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of H

- Define shifts with the smallest and largest change (E value)
- x_+ = direction of largest increase in E
- λ_+ = amount of increase in direction x_+
- x_- = direction of smallest increase in E
- λ_- = amount of increase in direction x_-

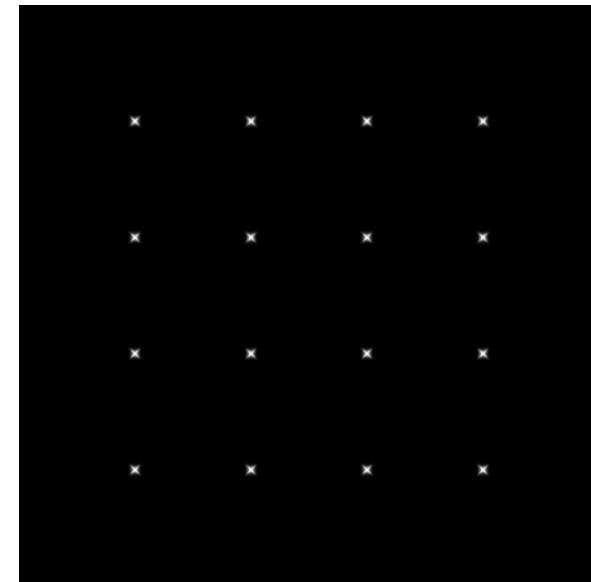
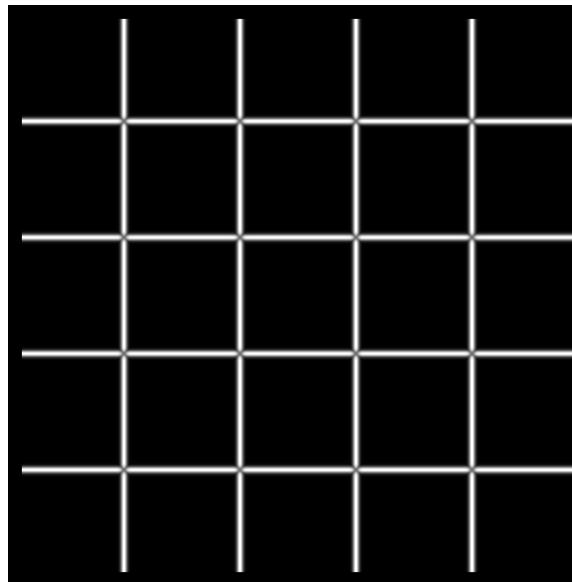
Uniqueness of a patch

Want $E(u, v)$ to be *large* for small shifts in *all* directions

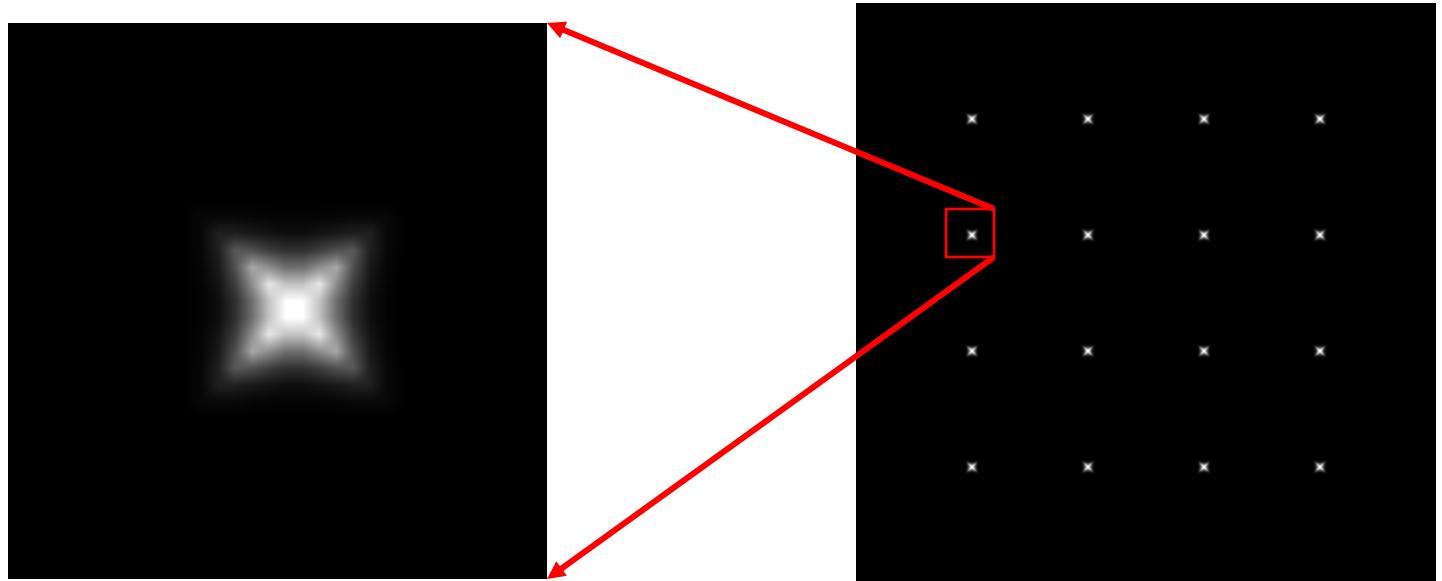
- the *minimum* of $E(u, v)$ should be large, over all unit vectors $[u \ v]$
- this minimum is given by the smaller eigenvalue (λ_-) of H



example image



Uniqueness of a patch



λ_-

Interest points

Corners are the most prominent example of so-called 'Interest Points', i.e. points that can be well localized in different views of a scene

'Blobs' are another, as we will see... but also a blob is a region with intensity changes in multiple directions, similar to corners

The Harris corner detector

Goal : one approach that distinguishes

- 1. *homogeneous areas*
- 2. *edges*
- 3. *corners*

Key : looking at intensity variations in different directions :

- 1. *small everywhere*
- 2. *large in one direction, small in the others*
- 3. *Large in all directions*



The Harris corner detector



Homogeneous region Edge region Corner region

Approach : find the directions of minimal and maximal change

Second order moments of the intensity variations also called the structure tensor:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 \right\rangle & \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \right\rangle \\ \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \right\rangle & \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2 \right\rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

Look for the *eigenvectors* and *eigenvalues*



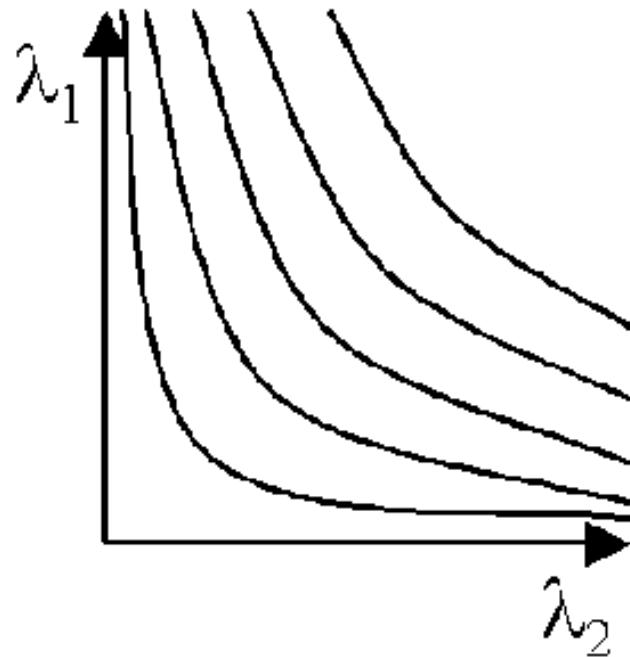
The Harris corner detector

The classification can be made as

- 1. two small eigenvalues
- 2. one large and one small eigenvalue
- 3. two large eigenvalues

First attempt : determinant of the 2nd-order matrix,

i.e. the product of the eigenvalues :

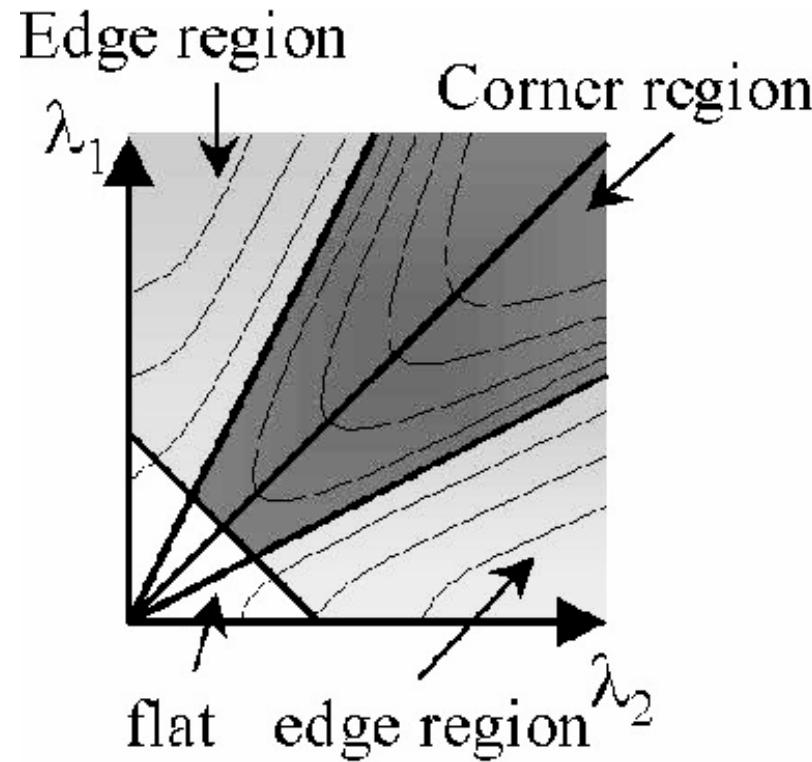


The Harris corner detector

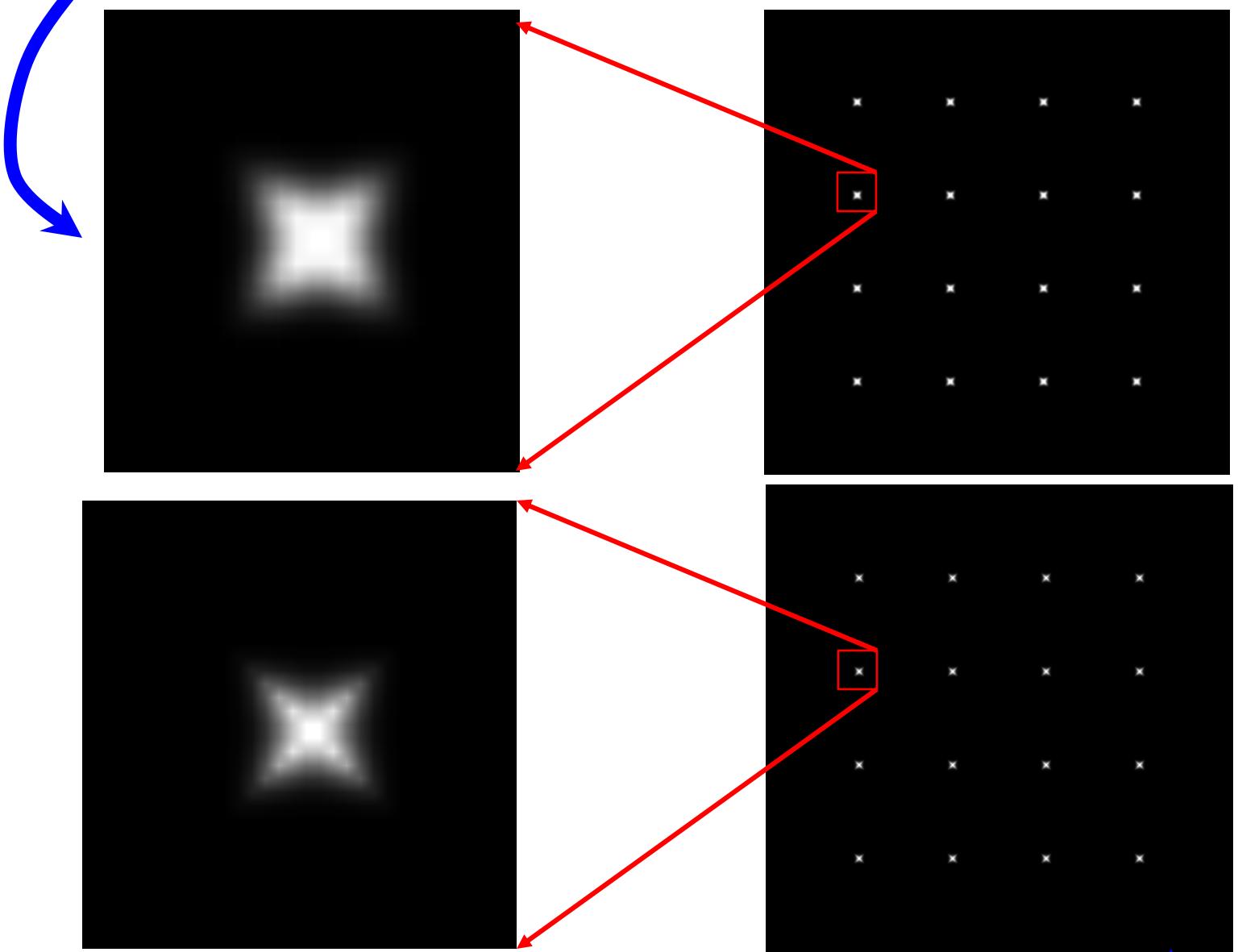
Edges are now too vague a class : one very large eigenvalue can still trigger a corner response.

A refined strategy :

Use iso-lines for $\text{Determinant} - k \cdot (\text{Trace})^2$.



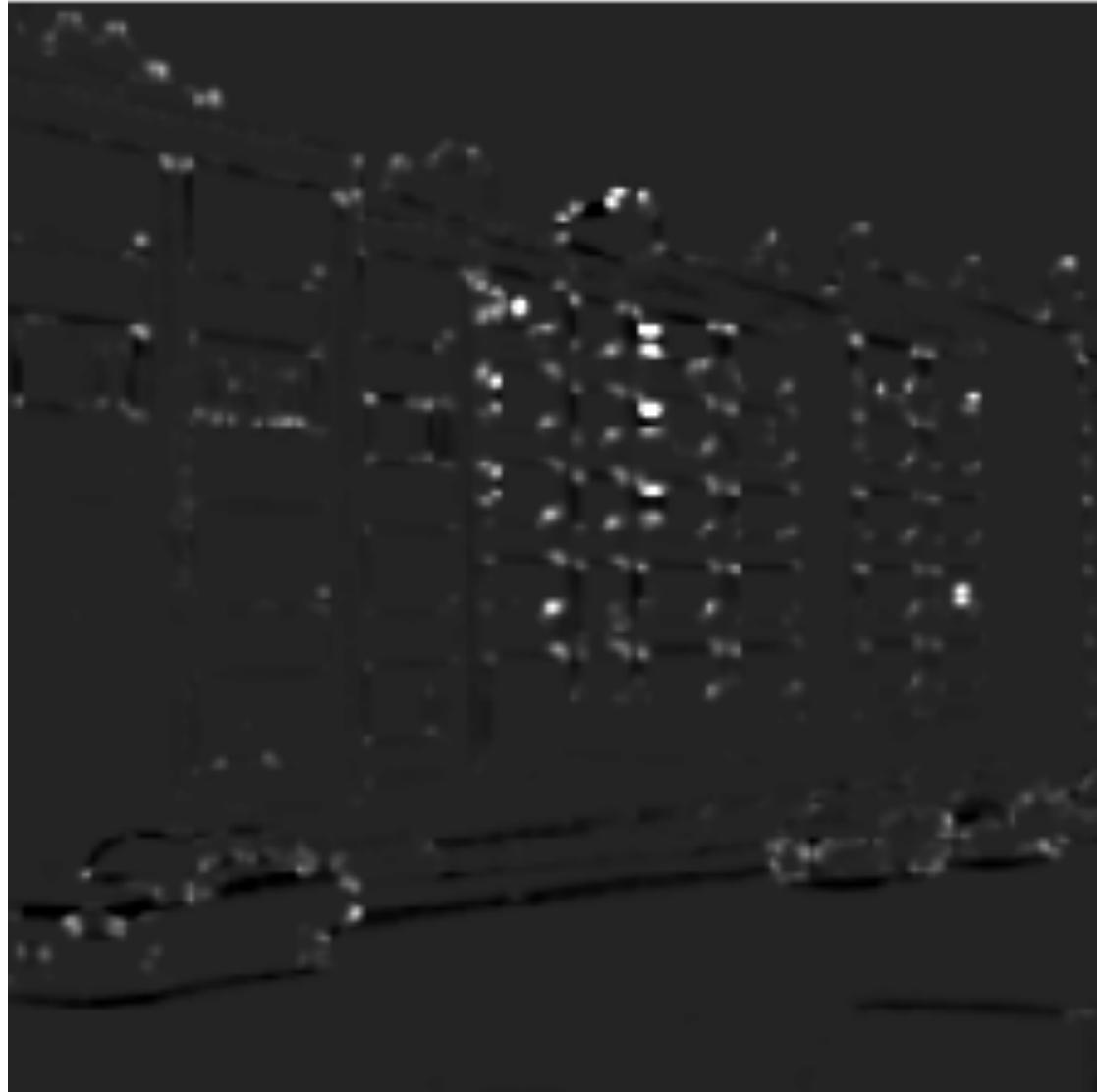
The Harris corner detector



The Harris corner detector



The Harris corner detector

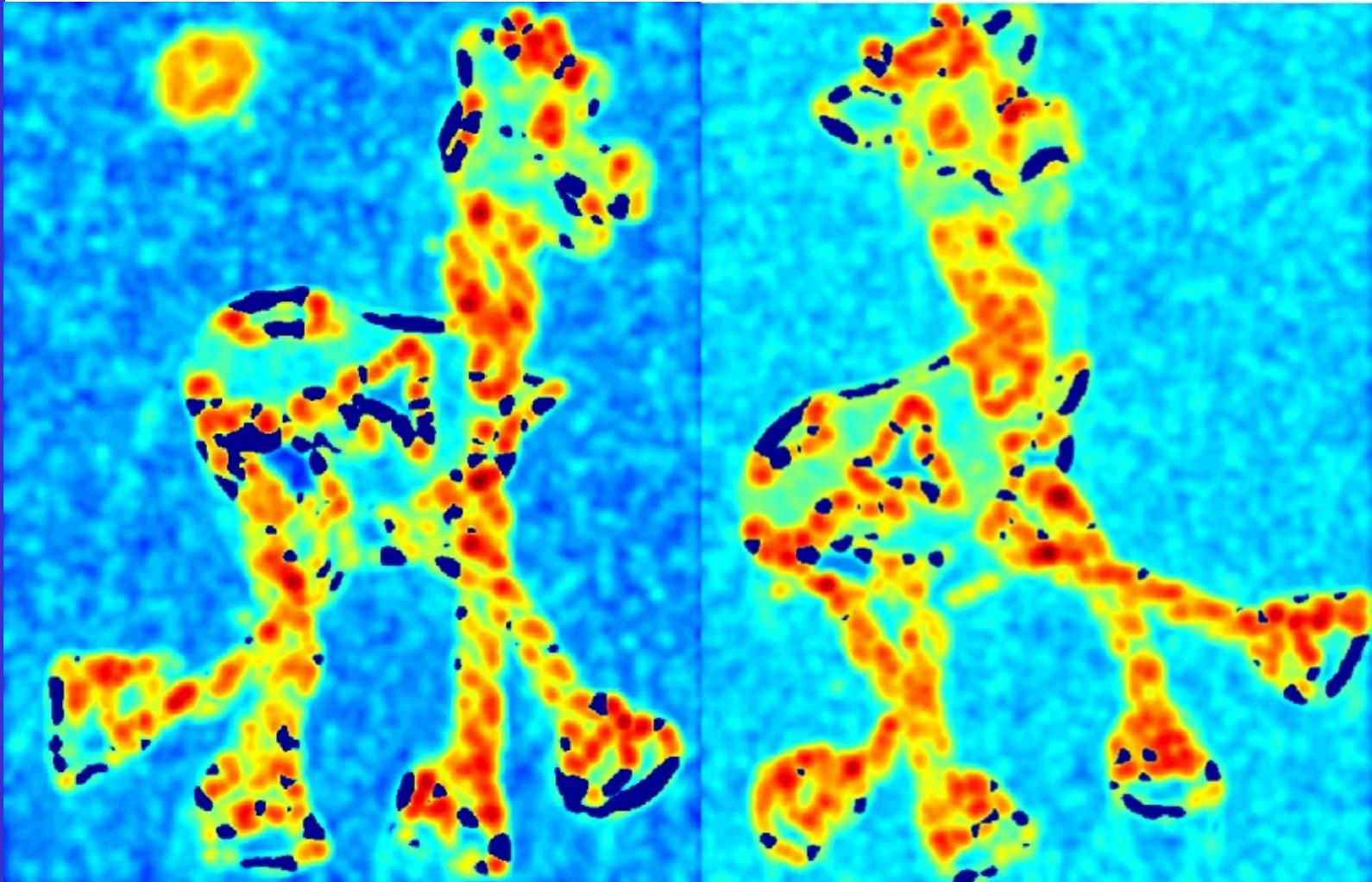


The Harris corner detector

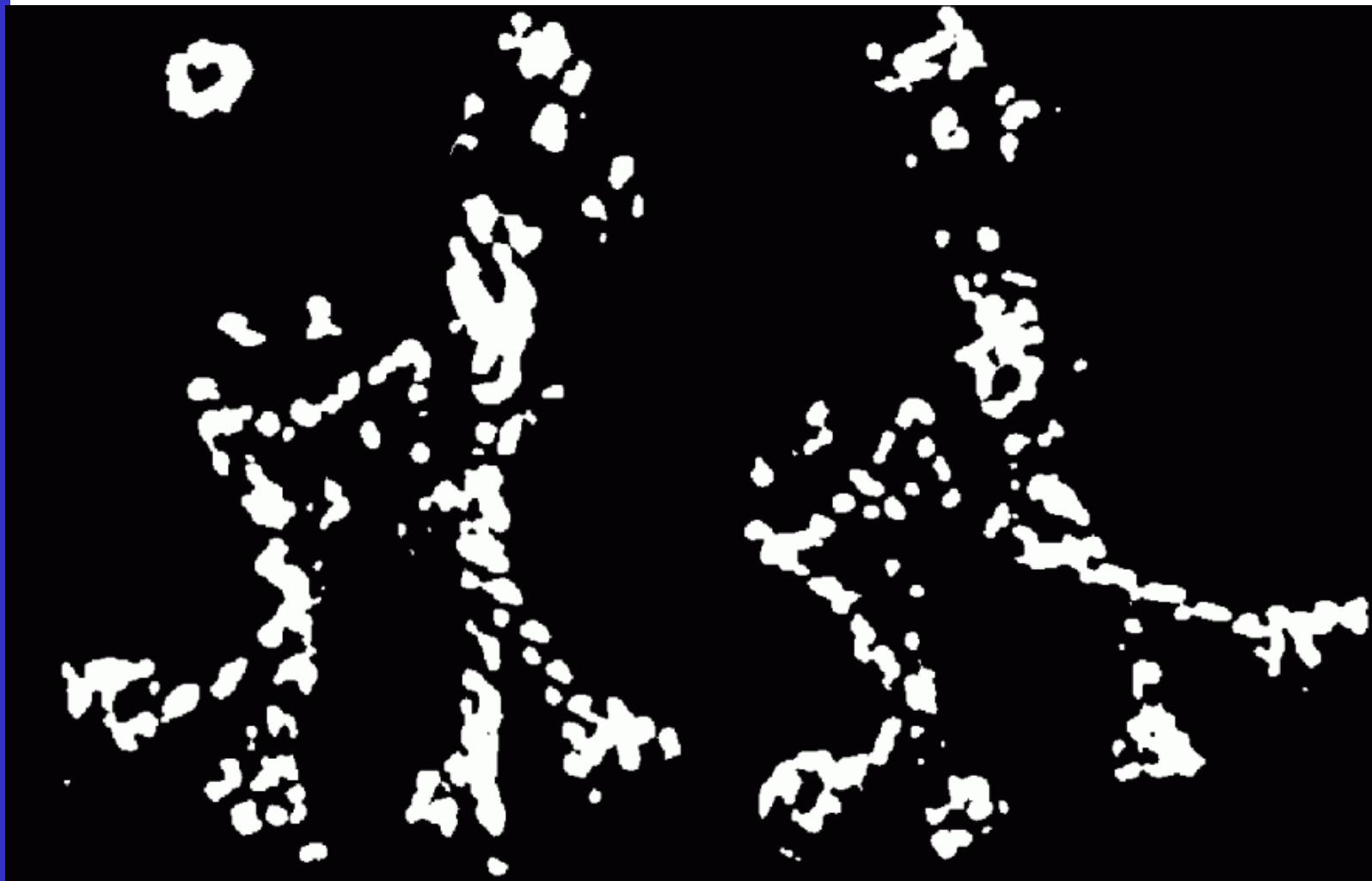
2 views of an object... are the corners stable?



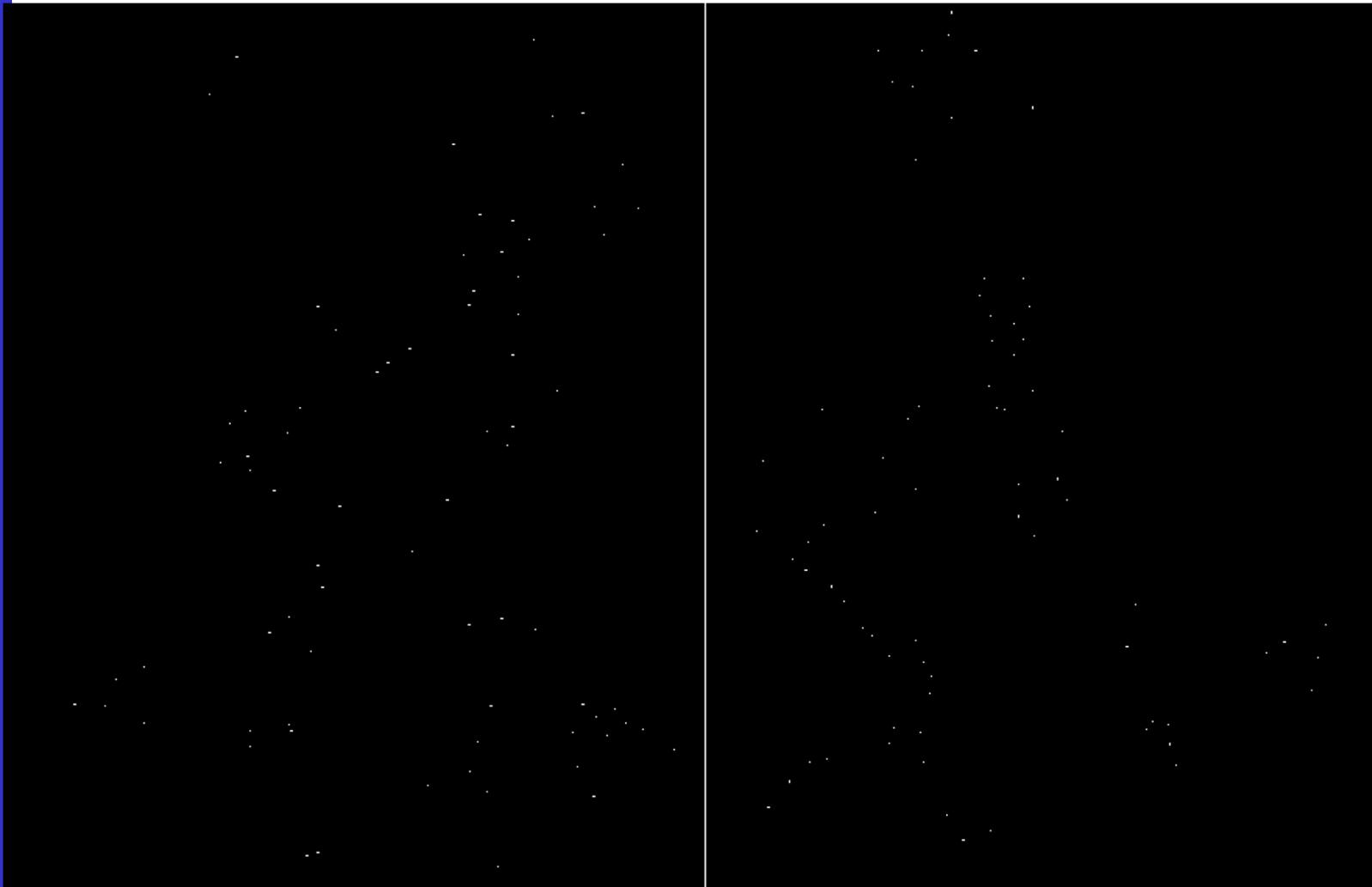
The Harris corner detector



The Harris corner detector



The Harris corner detector



The Harris corner detector



PART 2:

Extracting descriptors around interest points

Need for a descriptor:

A feature should capture something *discriminative* about a well *localizable* patch of a pattern

There are many corners coming out of our **DETECTOR**, but they still cannot be told apart

We need to describe their surrounding patch in a way that we can discriminate between them, i.e. we need to build a feature vector for the patch, a so-called **_DESCRIPTOR**

During a **MATCHING** step, the descriptors can then be compared

Additional requirement on the descriptor:

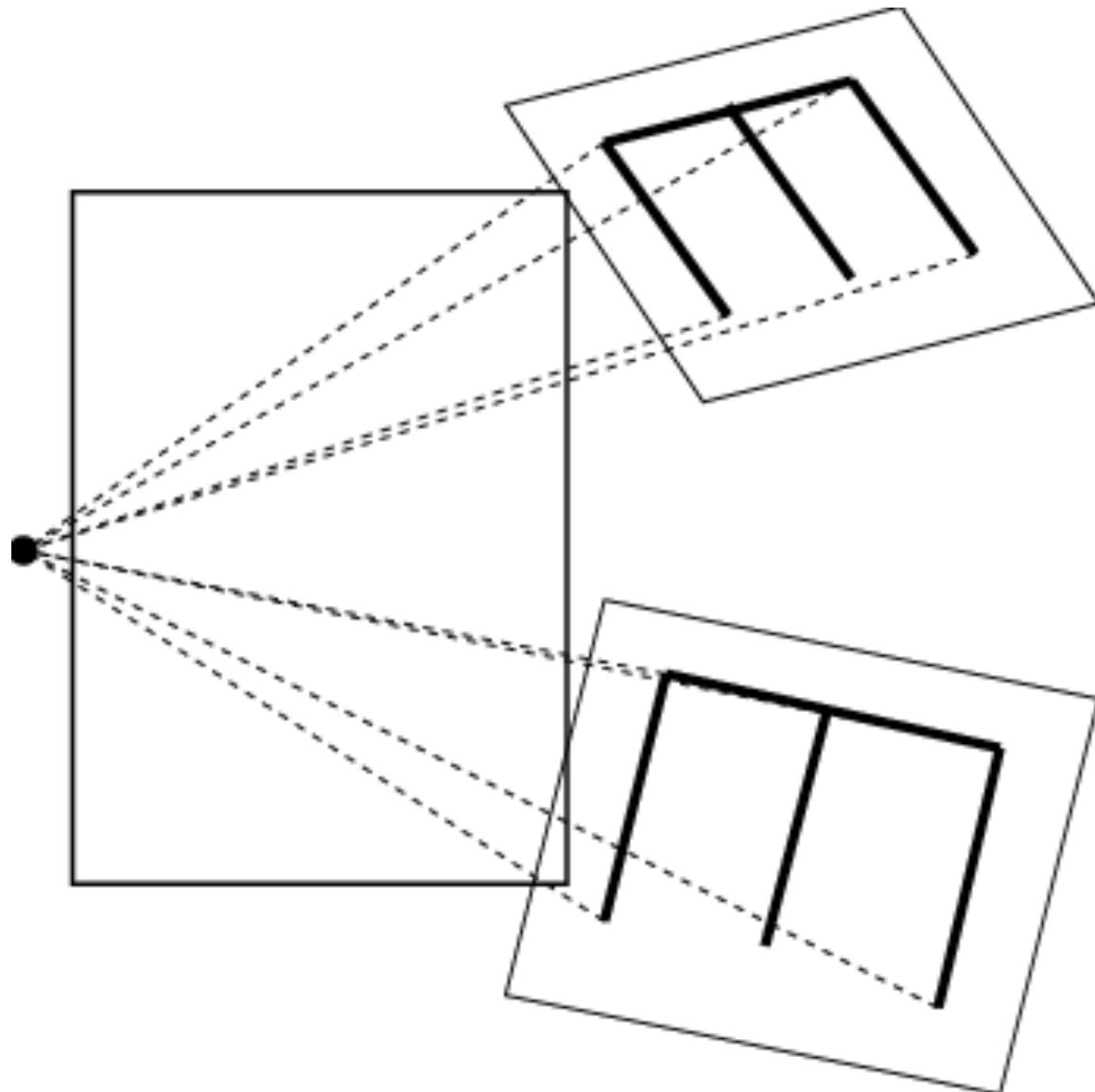
Invariance under geom./phot. changes



A local patch is small,
hence probably rather *planar*.

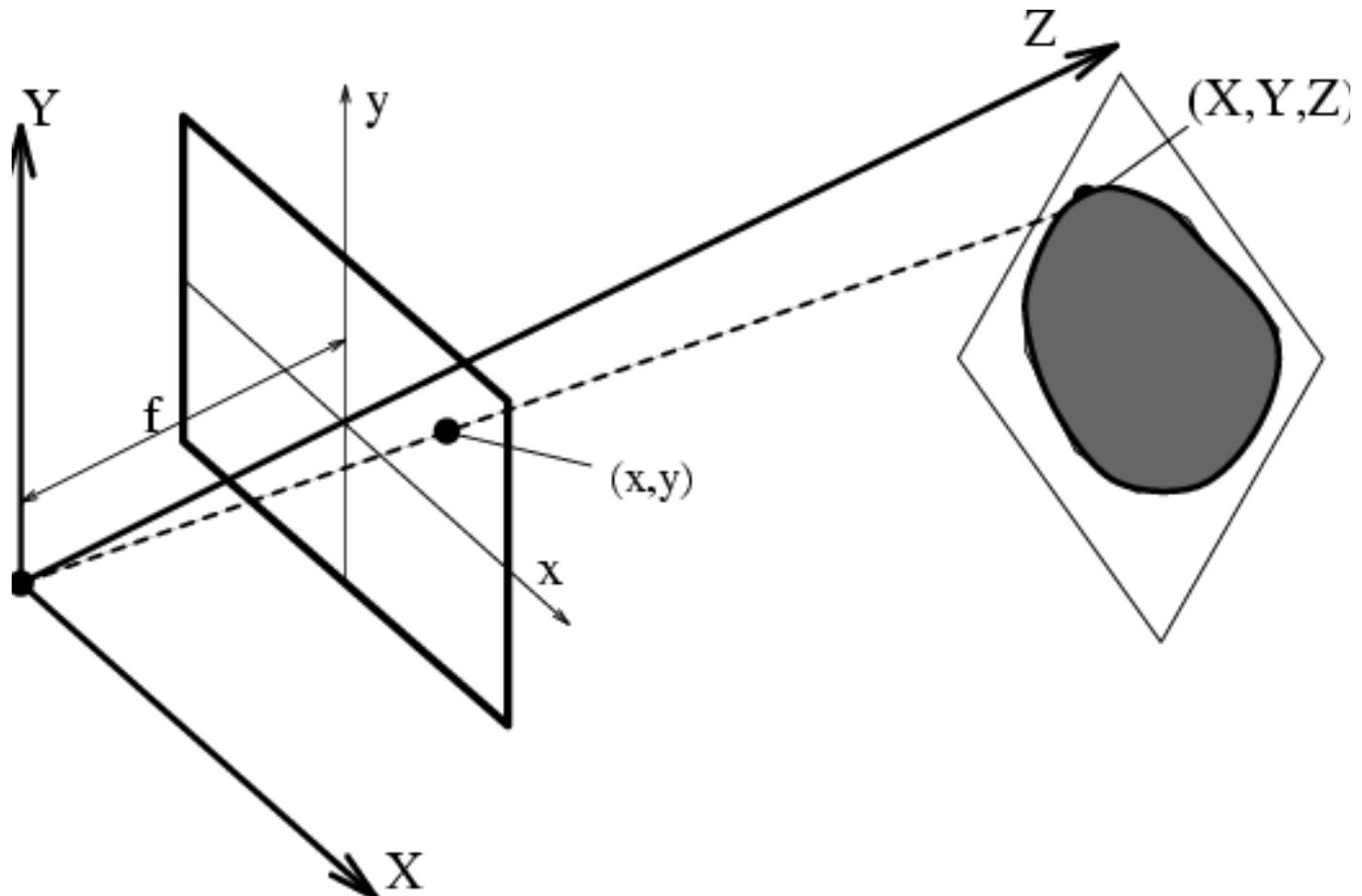
But how do planar patches deform when
looking at their image projection?
i.e. we determine the *geometric* changes
the descriptor should remain invariant under

Planar pattern projections to be compared



Projection : a camera model

Reversed center-image pinhole model :



Projection : equations

$$x = f \frac{X}{Z} \quad y = f \frac{Y}{Z}$$

an approximation...

special cases :

1. Z constant, or
2. object small compared to its distance to the camera

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x = kX \\ y = kY \end{array} \right\} \text{pseudo-perspective}$$

Deformations under projection

In particular, how do different views
of the same planar shape / contour differ ?

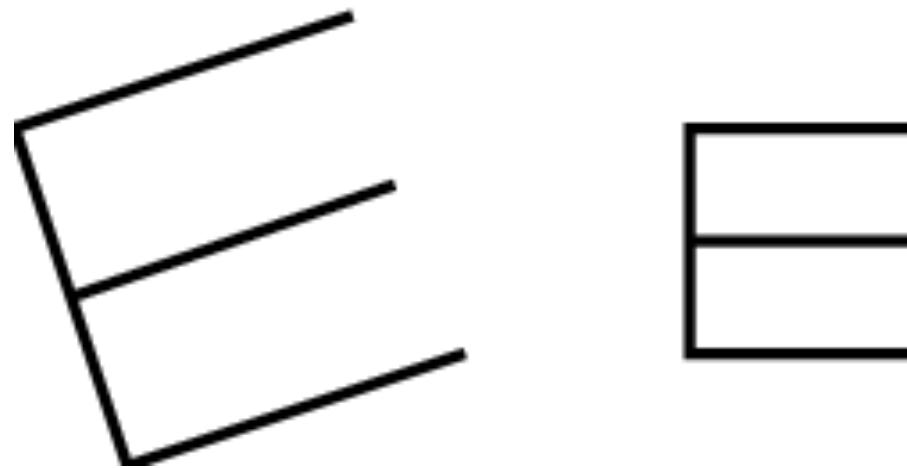
we study 3 cases :

1. viewed from a perpendicular direction
2. viewed from any direction but at sufficient distance to use pseudo - perspective
3. viewed from any direction and from any distance

Case 1

Case of fronto-parallel viewing :

SIMILARITY

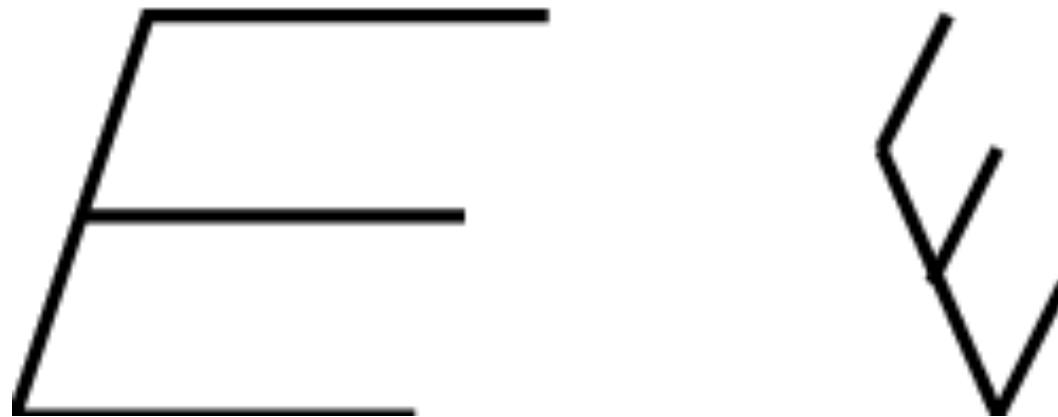


$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = S \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \end{pmatrix}$$

Case 2

Viewing from a distance :

AFFINITY



$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Case 3

General viewing conditions:

PROJECTIVITY

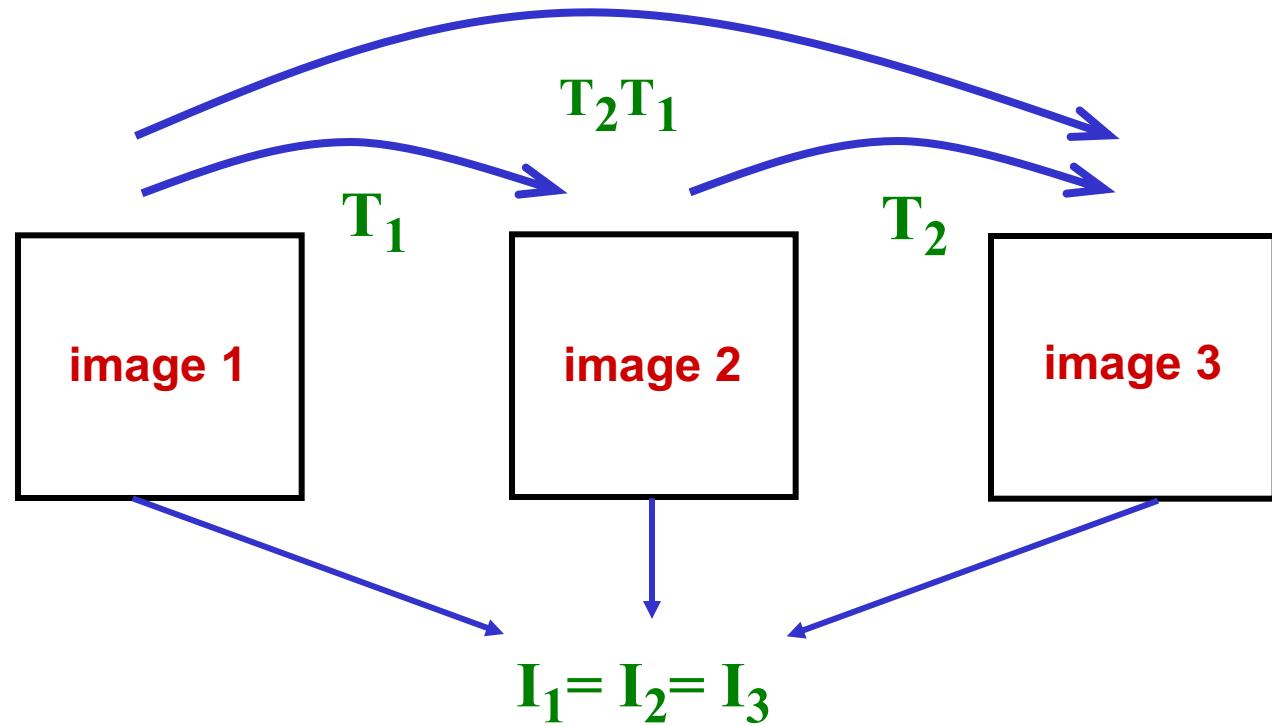


$$x' = \frac{p_{11}x + p_{12}y + p_{13}}{p_{31}x + p_{32}y + p_{33}}$$

$$y' = \frac{p_{21}x + p_{22}y + p_{23}}{p_{31}x + p_{32}y + p_{33}}$$

Invariance and groups

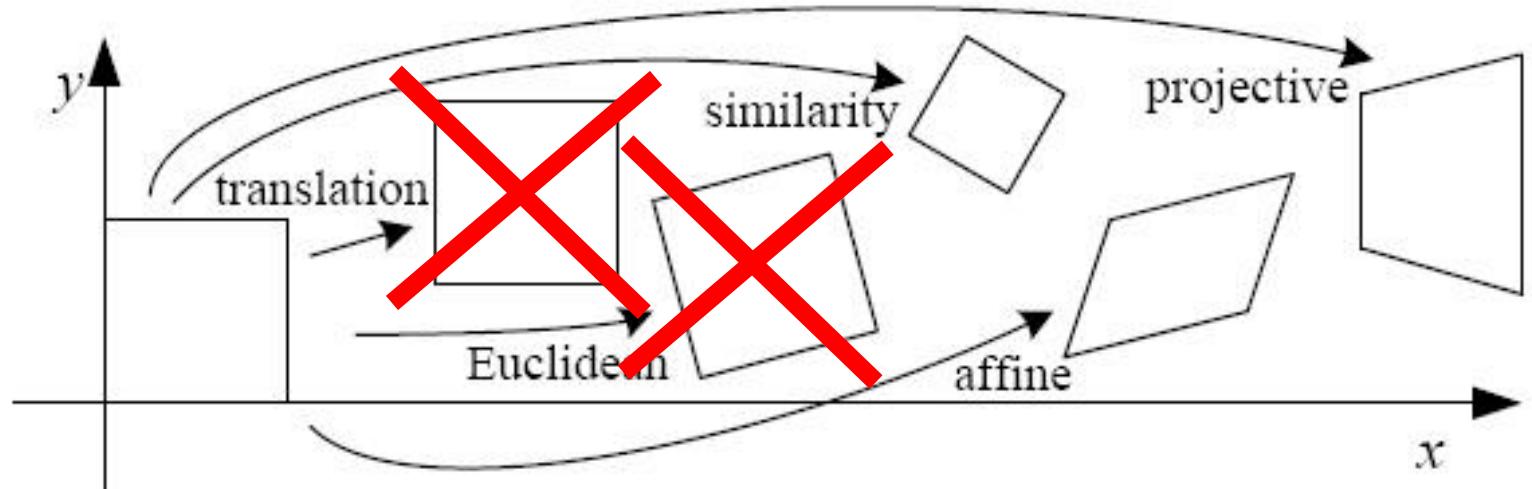
Invariance w.r.t. group actions



Invariance under transformations implies invariance under the smallest encompassing group

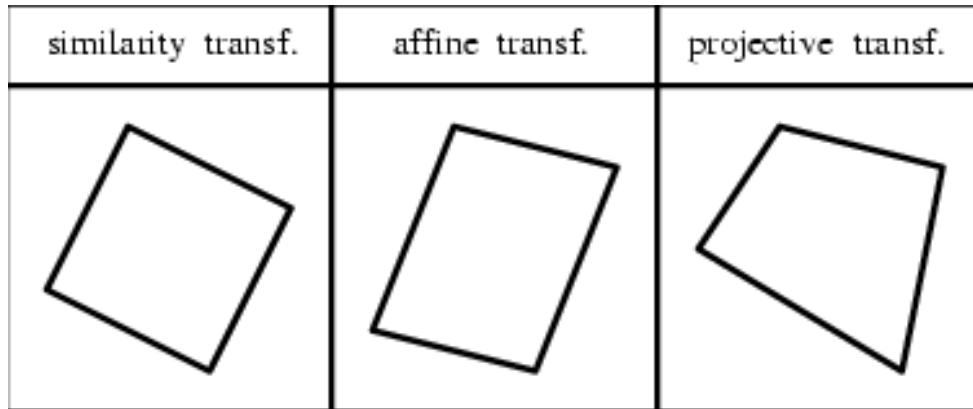
Remarks

There are more groups, but the ones described seem the most relevant for us



Remarks

Complexity of the groups goes up with the generality of the viewing conditions, and so does the complexity of the group's invariants



Fewer invariants are found going from left to right

Similarities \subset affinities \subset projectivities

Invar. Proj. \subset invar. Aff. \subset invar. Sim.

PART 3: Examples

Our goal

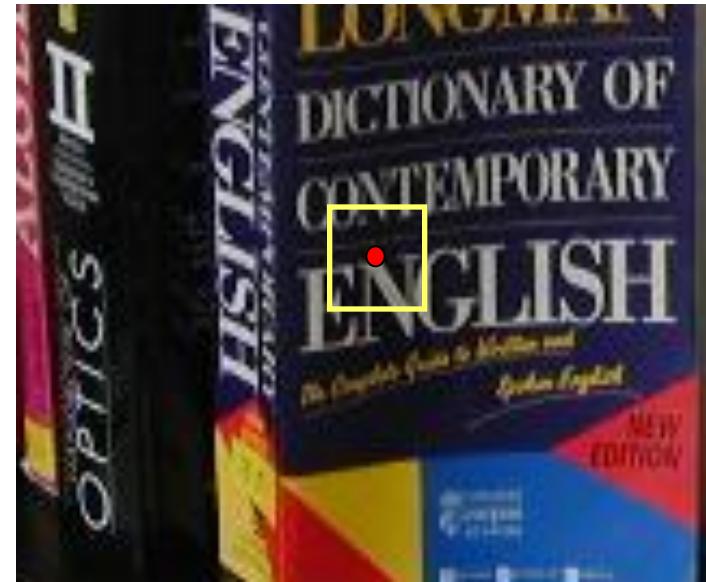
Define good interest points, i.e.

DETECTORS + DESCRIPTORS

The shape of the patch should change with viewpoint
for invariance to geometric changes.

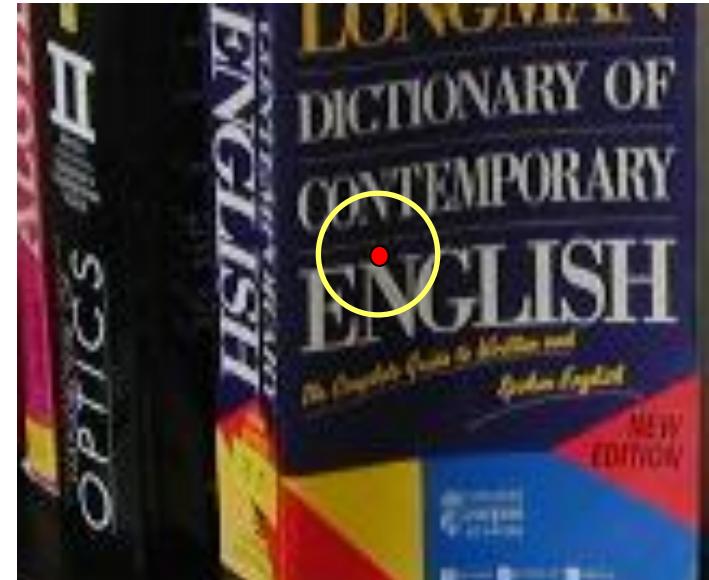
What we extract within the patch should be invariant
to photometric and geometric changes

The need for variable patch shape



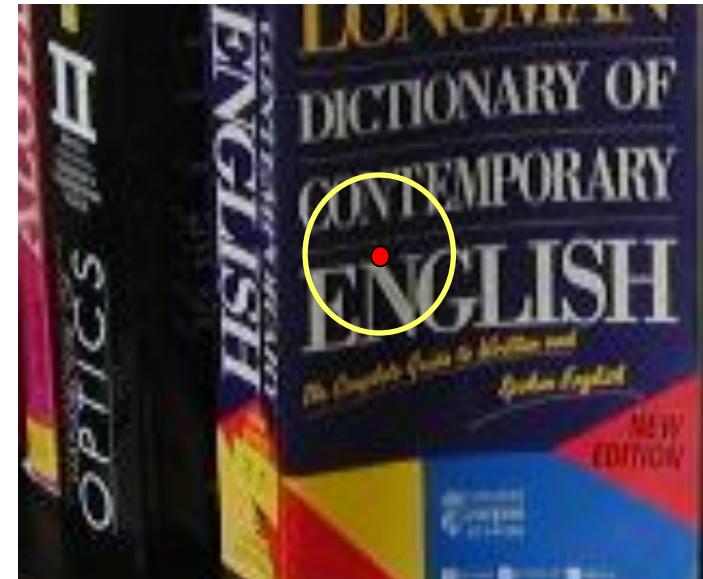
Taking the same square patch around corresponding interest points leads to a very different content of the patches... hence the matching will become hard.

The need for variable patch shape



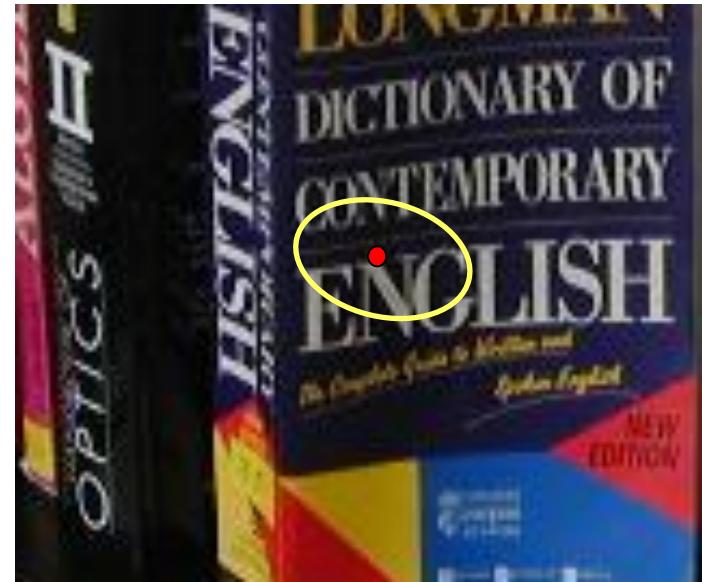
Replacing the squares by identical circles does not really help much...

The need for variable patch shape



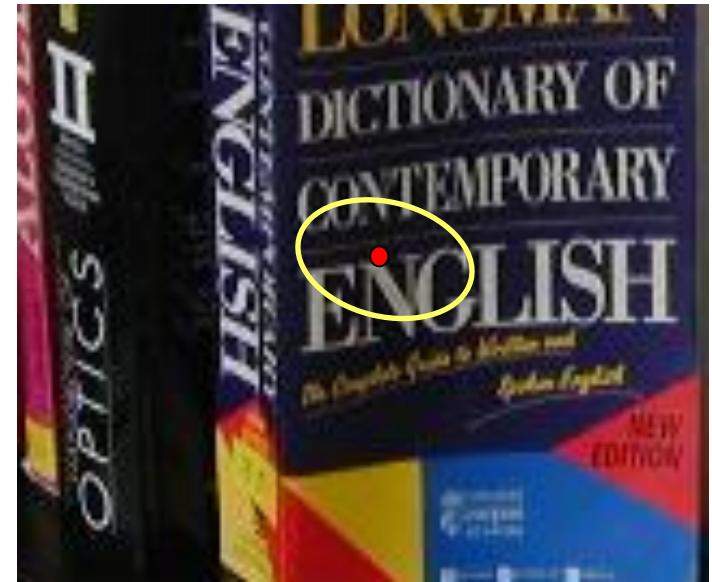
Allowing the diameters to differ helps somewhat, but contents still quite different (look at the top regions in the circles)

The need for variable patch shape



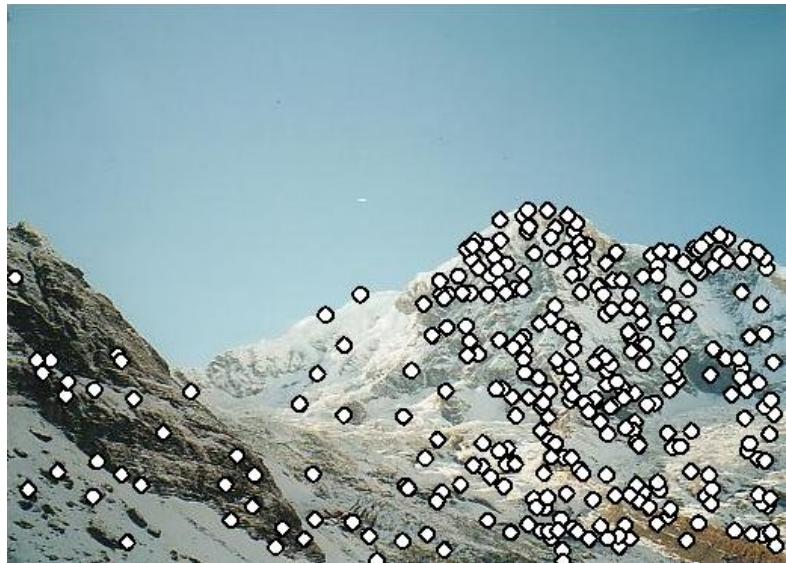
Using ellipses works much better: the circle on the left transforms into an ellipse under the affine transf. between the local view change

The need for variable patch shape



The important thing is to achieve such change in patch shape without having to compare the images, i.e. this should happen on the basis of information in only one image.

Example 1: Euclidean invariant features



Harris corner detector
to identify corners as
interest points.

Circular areas around
each interest points.

For each interest point circular areas of different
radii – to account for scale changes

Extract invariants under planar rotation from each
area to form the descriptors.

Very successful model.

Example 1: Euclidean invariant features

Example (rotation) invariant:

$$G_x G_x + G_y G_y$$

Where G_x and G_y represent horizontal and vertical derivatives of intensity weighted by a Gaussian profile ('*Gaussian derivatives*')

2nd example invariant:

$$G_{xx} + G_{yy}$$

Where G_{xx} and G_{yy} represent 2nd order Gaussian derivatives

(Compute features for circles at different scales,
i.e. take scale into account explicitly)

Question

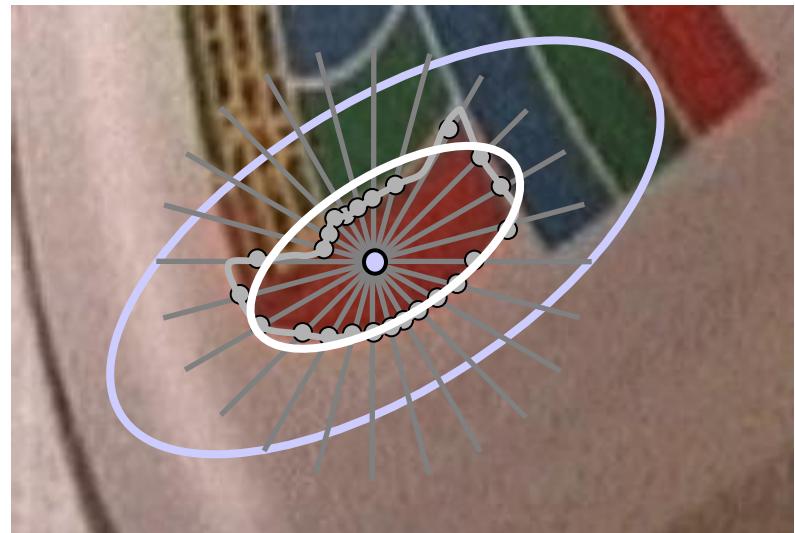
- Is gradient rotationally invariant?
- Show that gradient magnitude is rotationally invariant.

$$G_x^2 + G_y^2$$

Example 2: intensity extrema + affine moments

1. Search intensity extrema
2. Observe intensity profile along rays
3. Search maximum of invariant function $f(t)$ along each ray
4. Connect local maxima
5. Fit ellipse
6. Double ellipse size
7. Describe elliptical patch with moment invariants

$$f(t) = \frac{\text{abs}(I_0 - I)}{\max\left(\frac{\int \text{abs}(I_0 - I) dt}{t}, d\right)}$$



Example 2: intensity extrema + affine moments

Geometric/photometric moment invariants based on generalised colour moments:

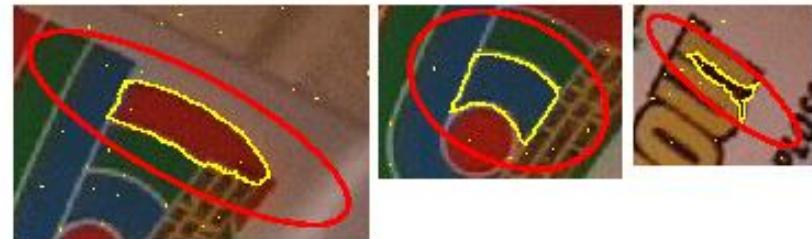
$$M_{p,q}^{a,b,c} = \int x^p y^q r^a(x, y) g^b(x, y) b^c(x, y) dx dy$$

M_{pq}^{abc} are not invariant themselves, need to be combined

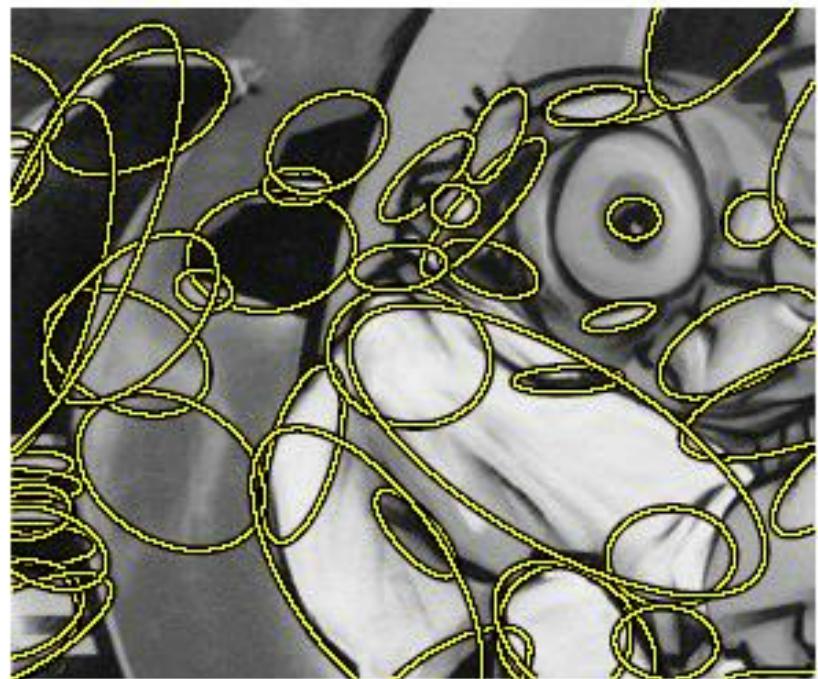
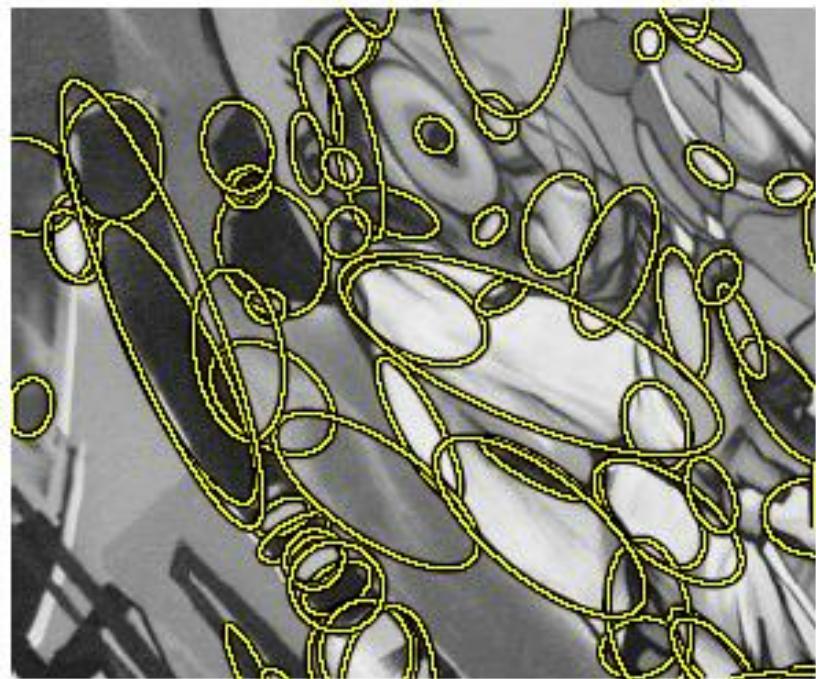
Example moment invariant from only 2 color bands:

$$D_{02} = \frac{[M_{00}^{11} M_{00}^{00} - M_{00}^{10} M_{00}^{01}]^2}{[M_{00}^{20} M_{00}^{00} - (M_{00}^{10})^2] [M_{00}^{02} M_{00}^{00} - (M_{00}^{01})^2]}$$

Example 2: intensity extrema + affine moments



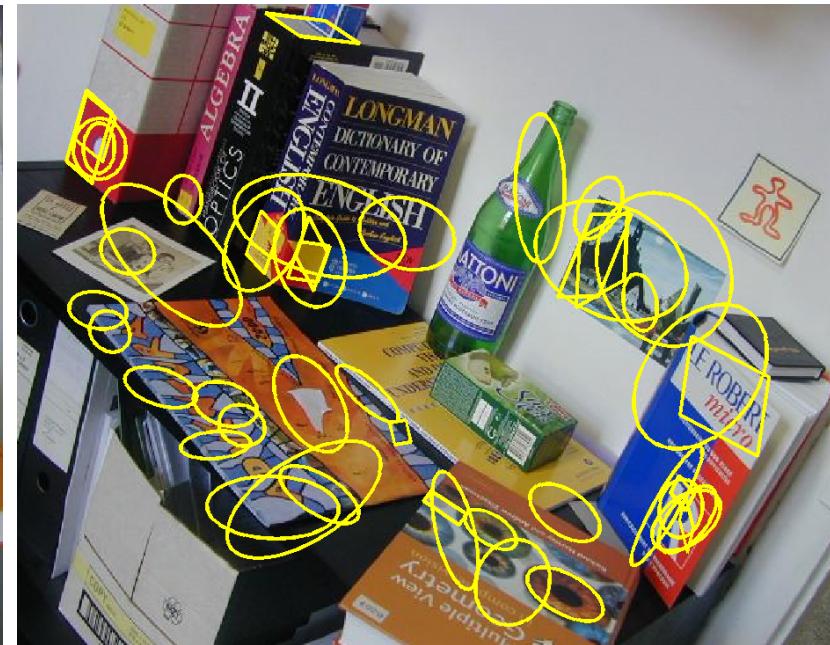
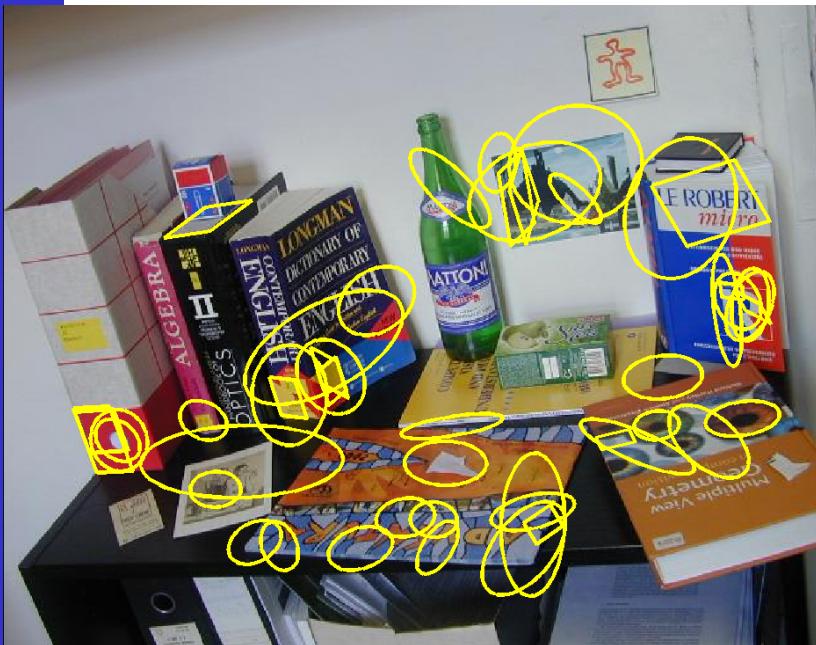
Example 2: intensity extrema + affine moments



Remark

In practice different types of interest points
are often combined

Wide baseline stereo matching example.
based on ex.1 and ex.2 interest points



PART 3: Advanced examples

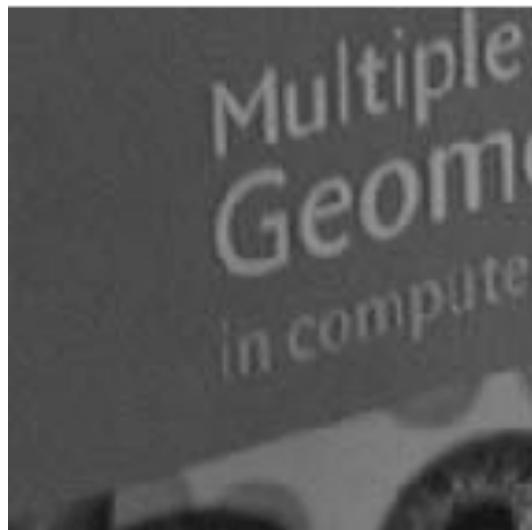
MSER interest regions

MSER = Maximally Stable Extremal Regions

- Similar to the Intensity-Based Regions we just saw
- Came later, but is more often used
- Start with intensity extremum
- Then move intensity threshold away from its value and watch the super/sub-threshold region grow
- Take regions at thresholds where the growth is slowest (happens when region is bounded by strong edges)

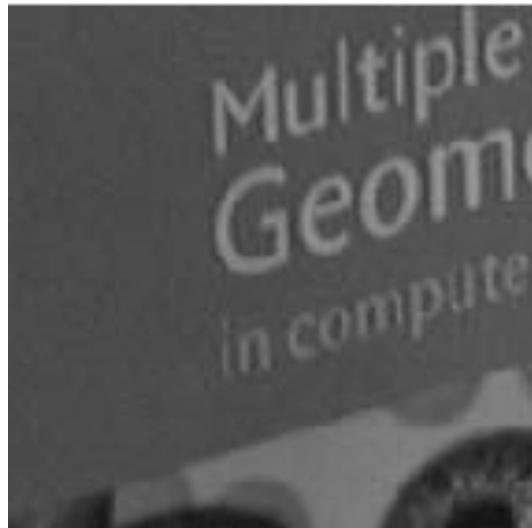
Computer Vision

MSER



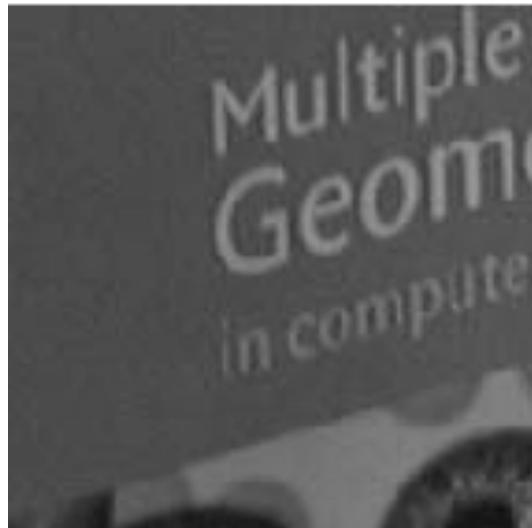
Computer Vision

MSER

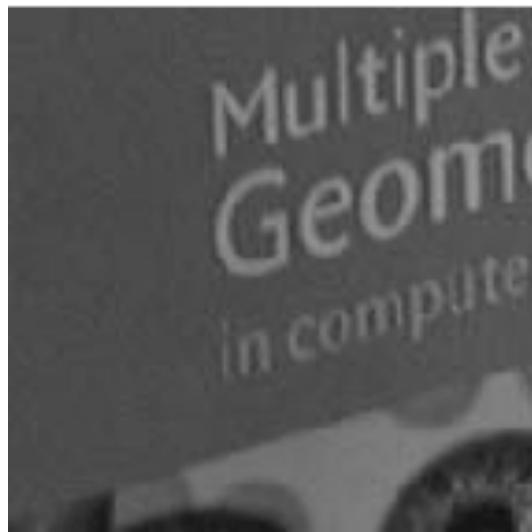


Computer Vision

MSER



MSER



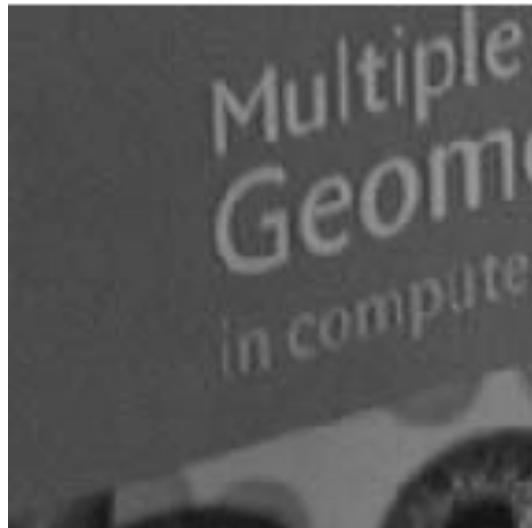
Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



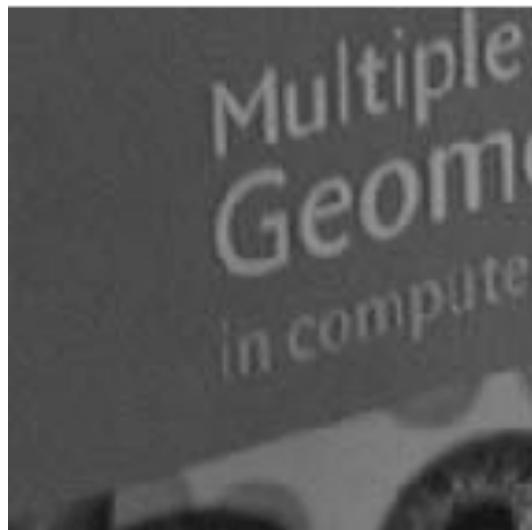
Computer Vision

MSER



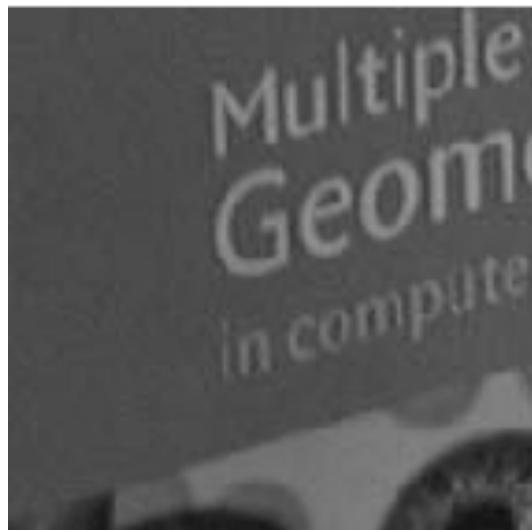
Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



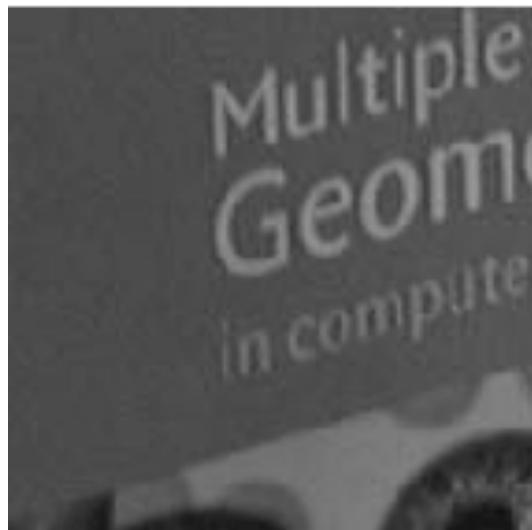
Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



Computer Vision

MSER



MSER

- ***Extremal region:*** region such that

$$\forall p \in Q, \forall q \in \delta Q : \begin{cases} I(p) > I(q) \\ I(p) < I(q) \end{cases}$$

- Order regions, following increasing or decreasing threshold

$$Q_1 \subset \dots \subset Q_i \subset Q_{i+1} \subset \dots \subset Q_n$$

- ***Maximally Stable Extremal Region:*** local minimum of

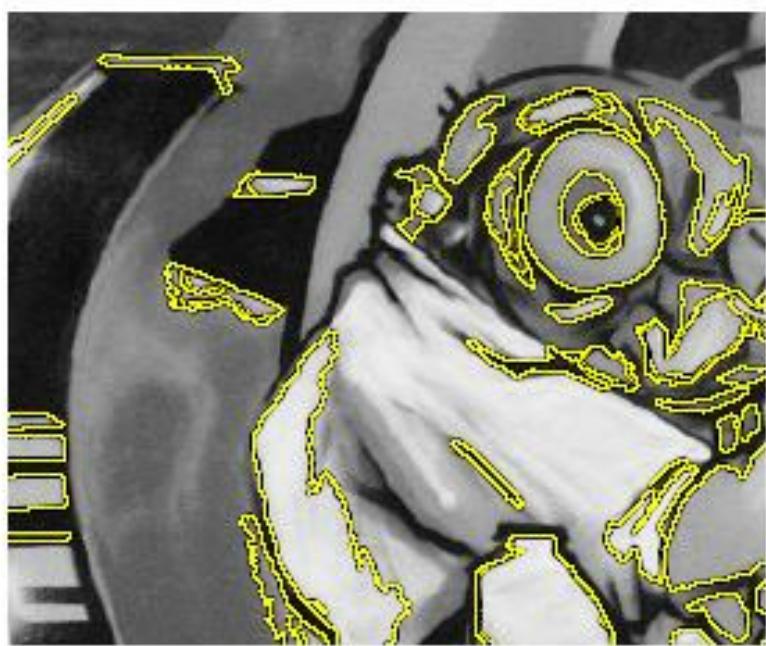
$$q(i) = |Q_{i+\Delta} \setminus Q_{i-\Delta}| / Q_i$$



MSER



(a) MSER



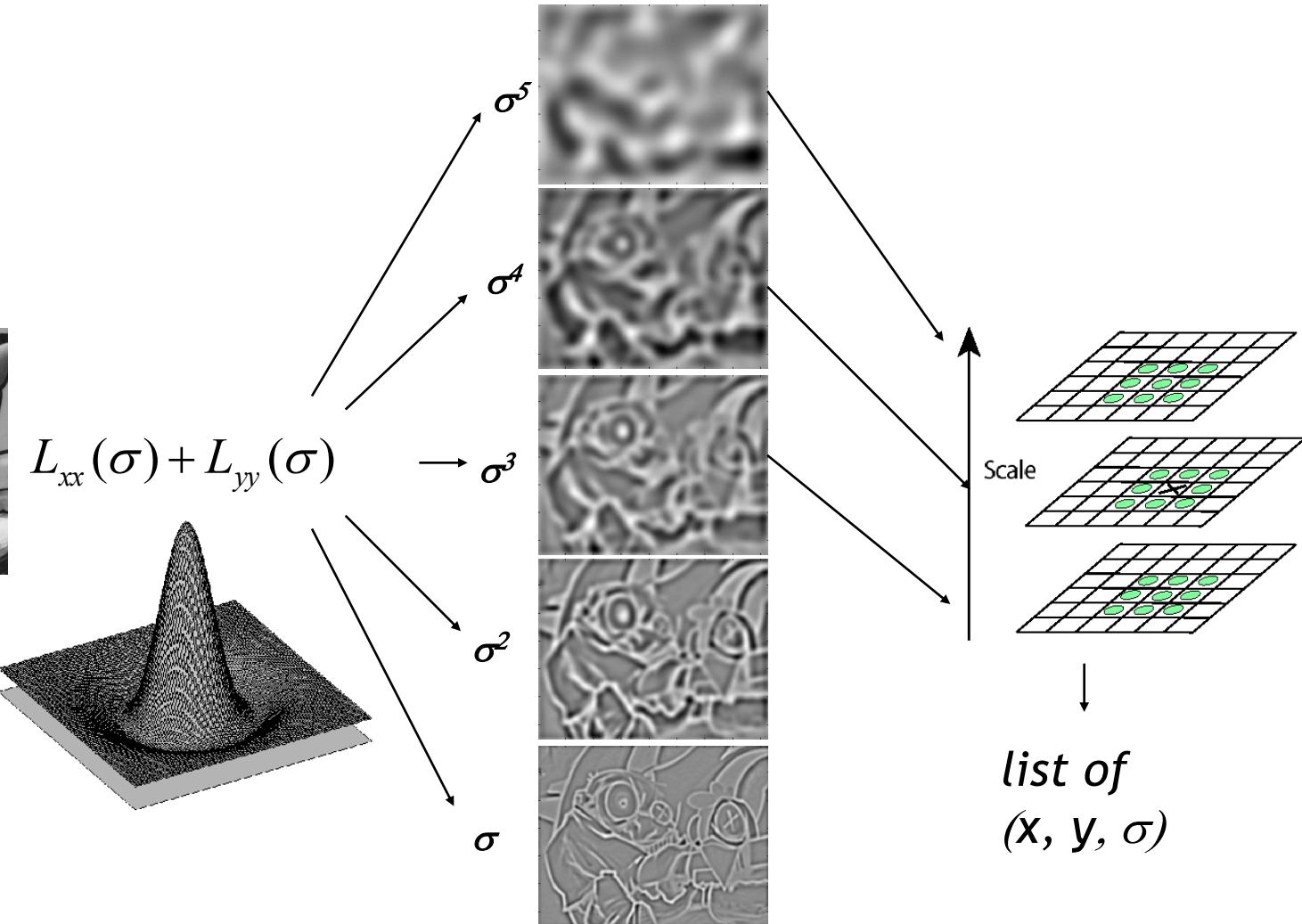
SIFT

SIFT = Scale-Invariant Feature Transform

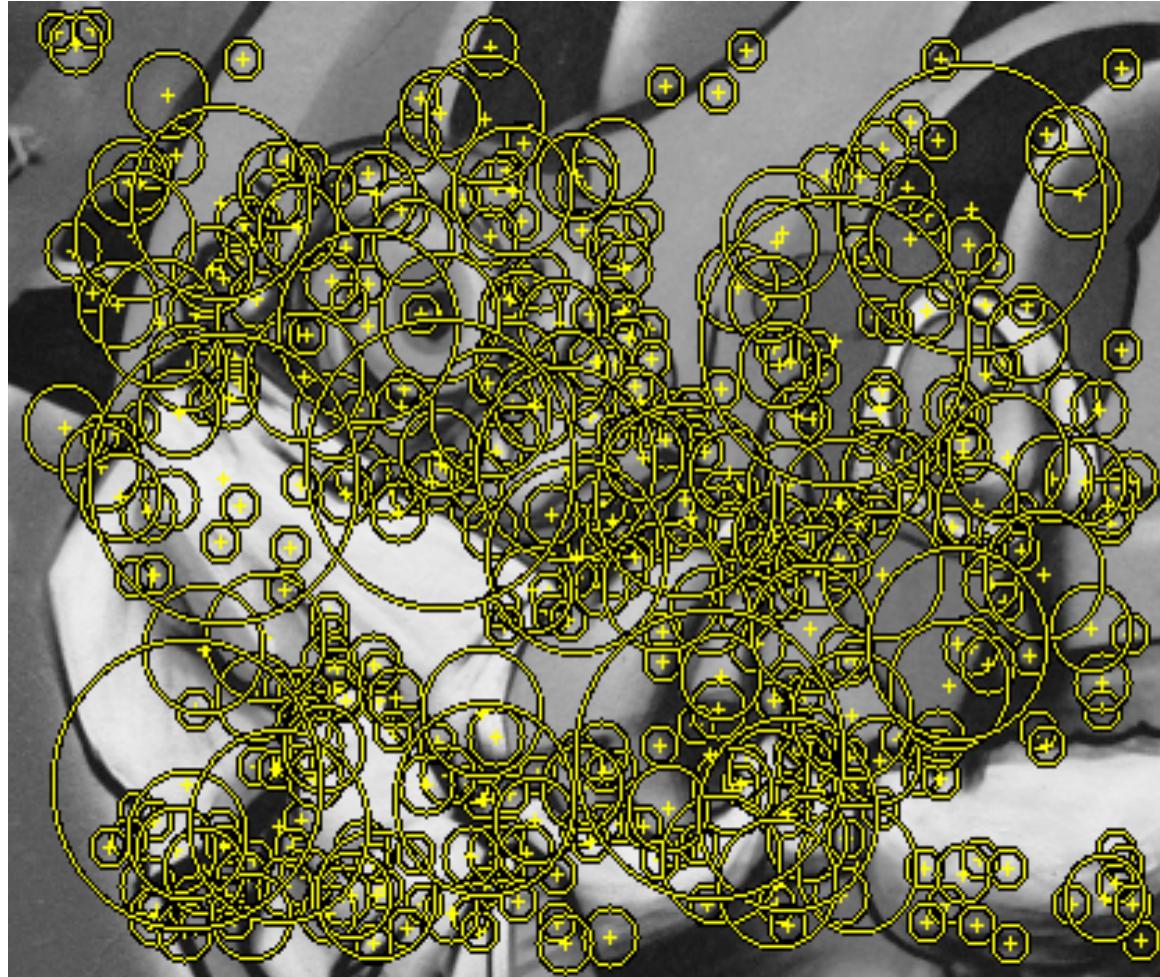
SIFT, developed by David Lowe (Un. British Columbia, Canada), is a carefully crafted interest point detector + descriptor, based on intensity gradients (cf. our comment on photometric invariance) and invariants under similarities, not affine like so far

Our summary is a simplified account!

Descriptor is based on blob detection, at several scales, i.e. local extrema of the Laplacian-of-Gaussian, or LoG



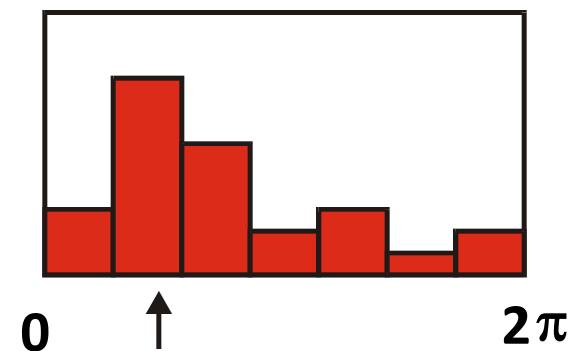
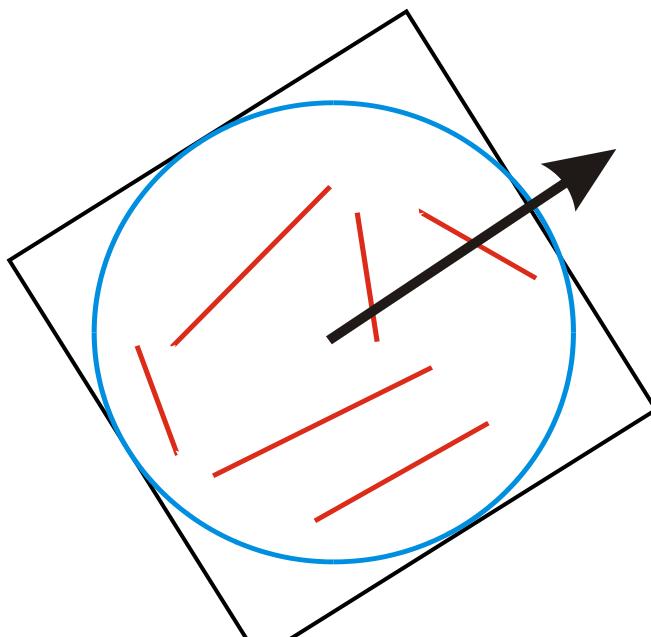
SIFT



SIFT

Dominant orientation selection

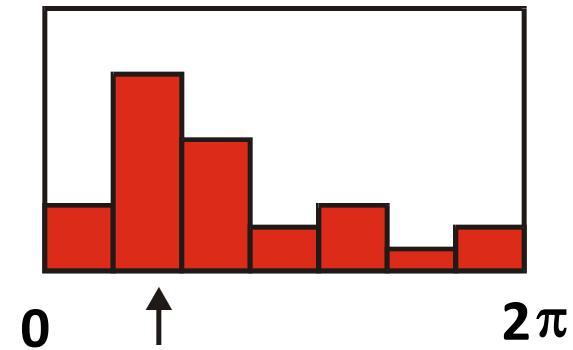
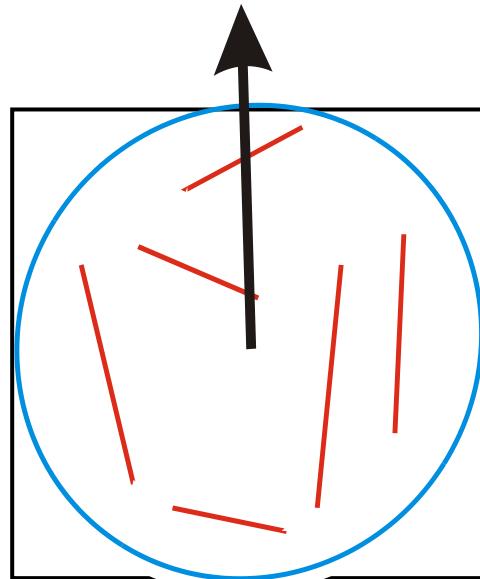
- Compute image gradients
- Build orientation histogram
- Find maximum



SIFT

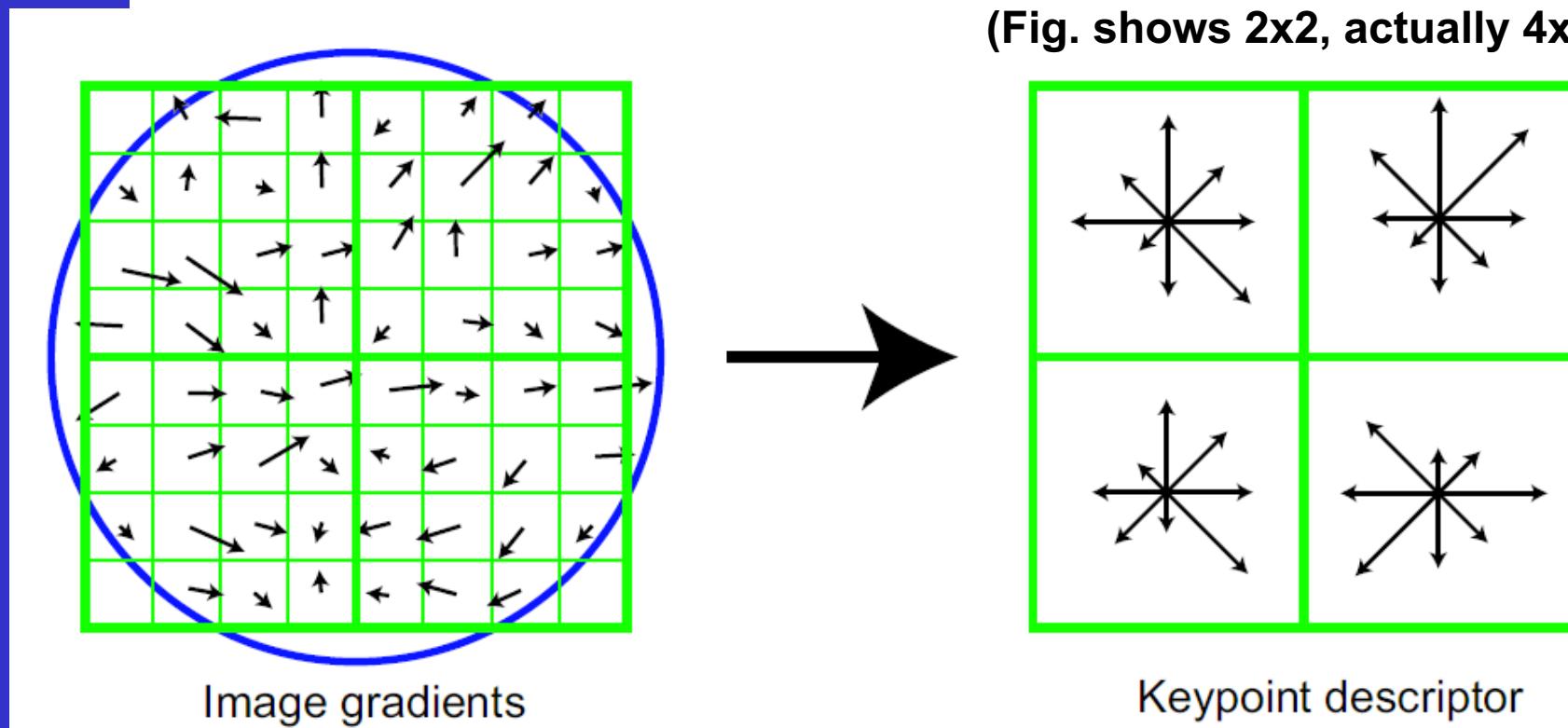
Dominant orientation selection

- Compute image gradients
- Build orientation histogram
- Find maximum



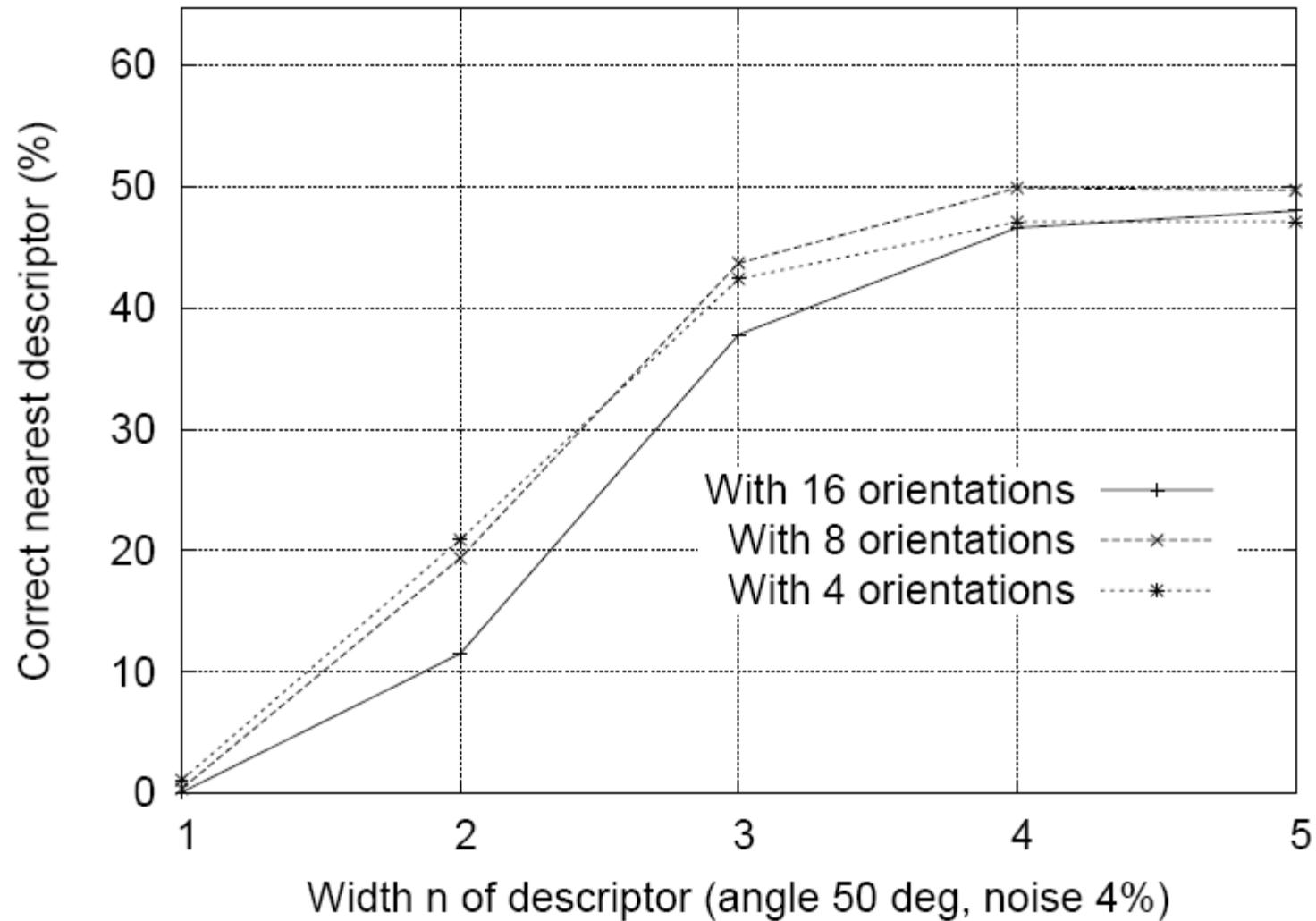
SIFT

- Image gradients are sampled over a grid
- Create array of orientation histograms within blocks
- 8 orientations x 4x4 histogram array = 128 dimensions
- Apply weighting with a Gaussian located at the center
- Normalized to unit vector



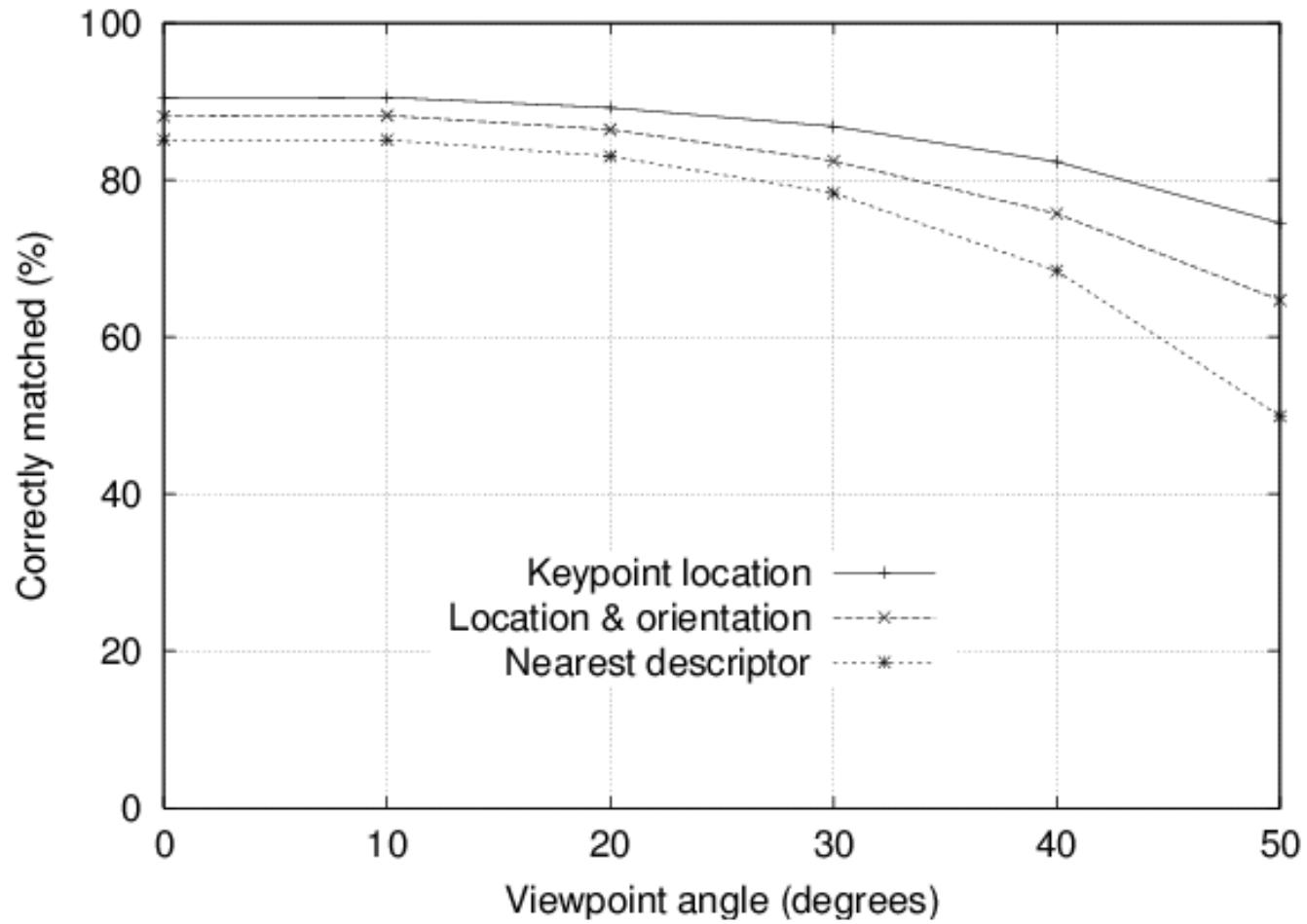
SIFT

Carefully crafted... e.g. why $4 \times 4 \times 8$?



SIFT

Sensitivity to affine changes... quite good !!!



notes on matching

- Interest points are matched on the basis of their descriptors
- E.g. nearest neighbour, based on some distance like Euclidean or Mahalanobis; good to compare against 2nd nearest neighbour: OK if difference is big; or fuzzy matching w. multiple neighbours
- Speed-ups by using lower-dim. descriptor space (PCA) or through some coarse-to-fine scheme (very fast schemes exist to date!)
- Matching of individual points typically followed by some consistency check, e.g. epipolar geometry, homography, or topological