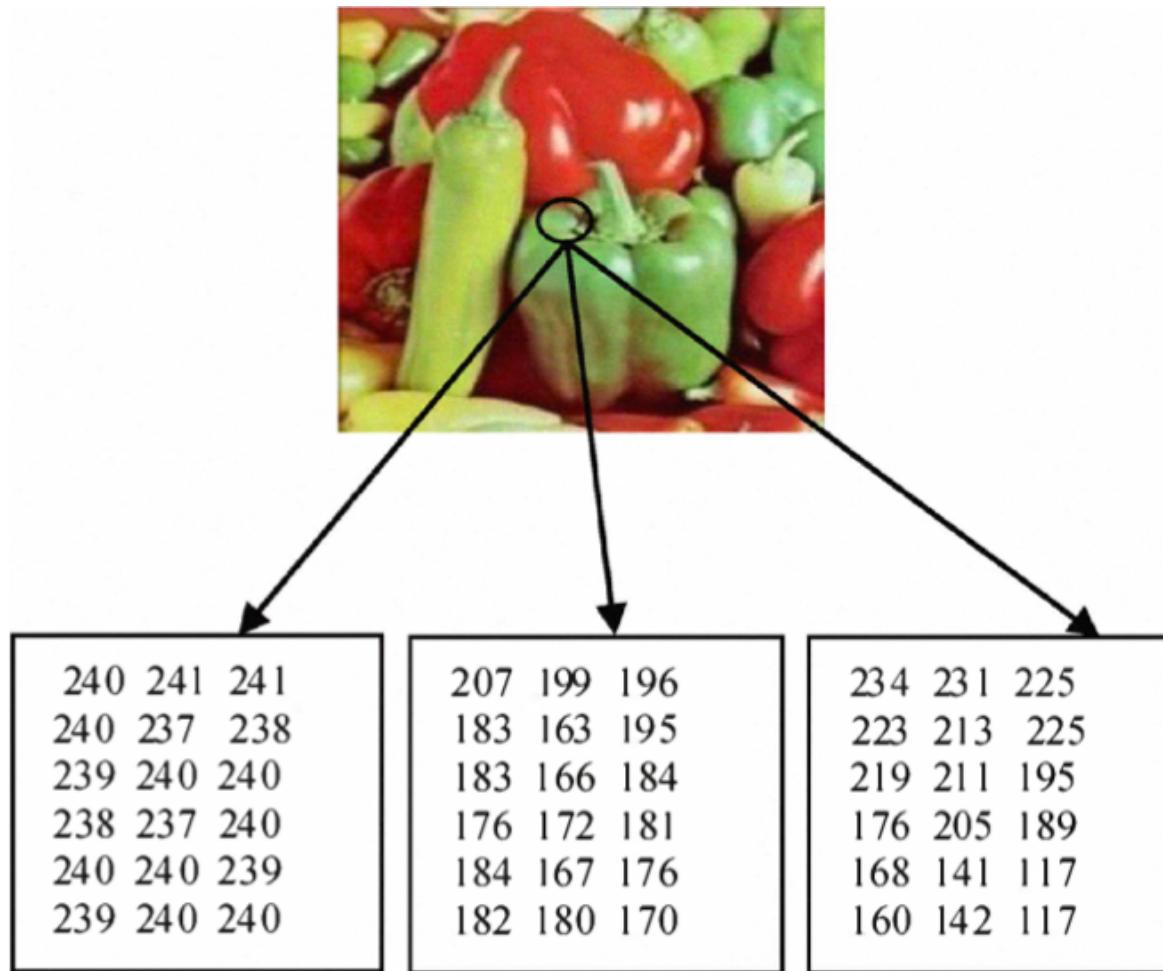


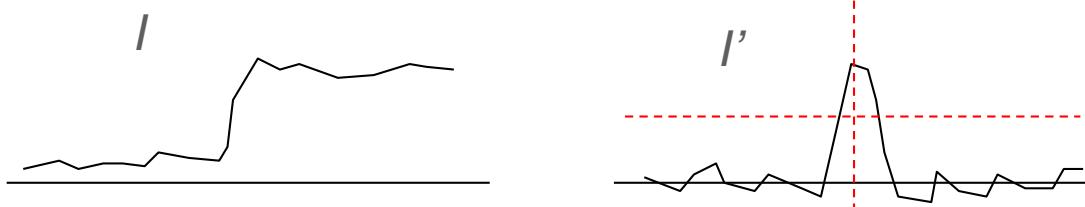


image features

What is an image ?

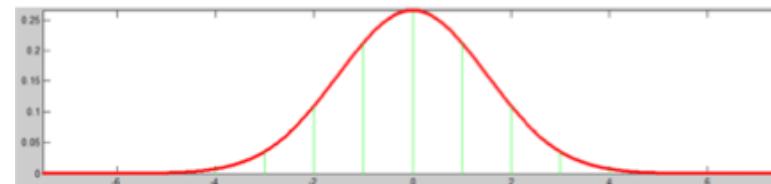


Edge detection 1D case



derivative amplifies the noise

Take a low pass filter $h(x)$ (e.g. Gaussian) with bandwidth adapted to the scale of analysis.



noise reduction $v(x) = h(x) * u(x)$

derivative $w(x) = v'(x)$ ou $w(x) = h'(x) * u(x)$

detection $w(x_0) > T$ e w has a local maximum in x_0

Edge detection 2D case

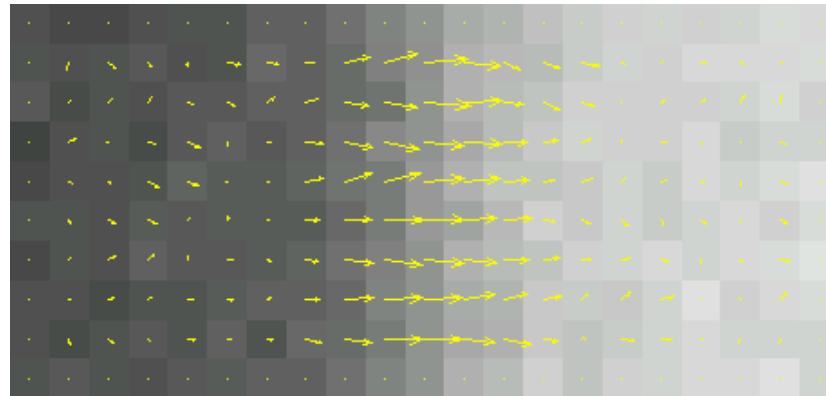
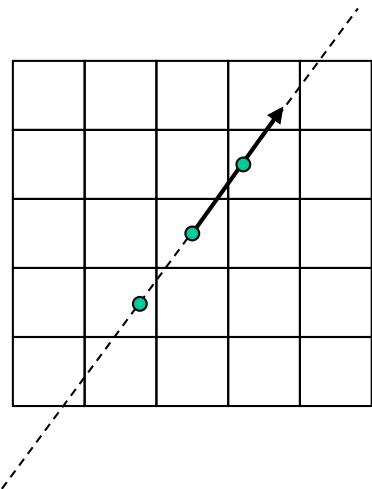


image gradient $g(x) = \frac{d}{dx} I(x)$

detection $\|g(x)\| > T$

The gradient direction is the direction of steepest ascent and it is orthogonal to the curves of constant intensity $I(x,y)=C$ (level curves).

Non maximum suppression



we accept only points in which $\|g\|$ has a local maximum in the gradient direction.

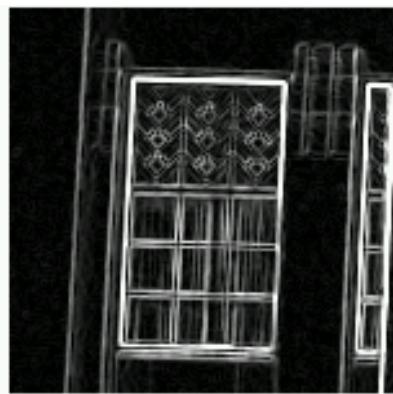
$$| g(x) | > | g(x + \frac{g}{|g|}) | \quad \text{e} \quad | g(x) | > | g(x - \frac{g}{|g|}) |$$

$g(x + \frac{g}{|g|}), g(x - \frac{g}{|g|})$ computed using interpolation

example



image



gradient
(Sobel)



binarization



non maximum
suppression

example



image

gradient
(Sobel)

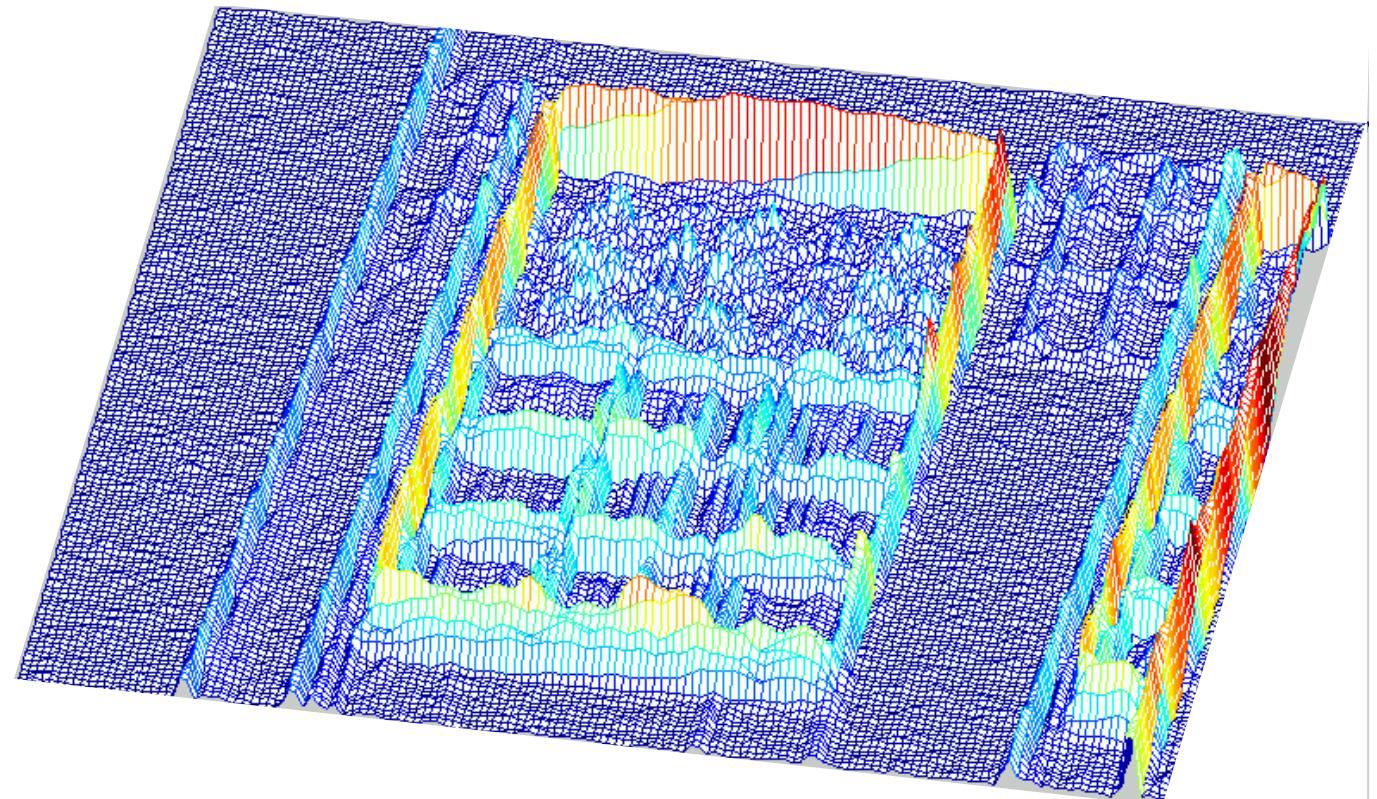
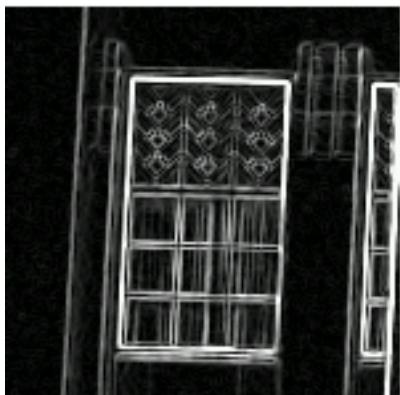
binarization

non maximum
suppression

difficulties

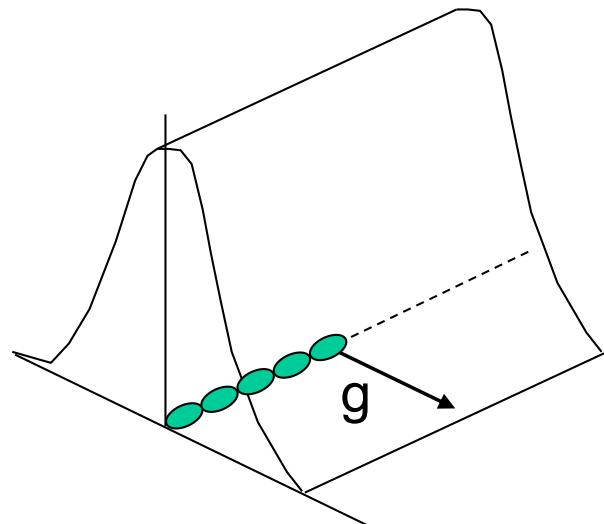
- missing and false edges
- apparent edges (shadows)
- deviation

Canny method



goal: obtain edge segments

Canny method



select a point x such that $|g(x)| > T_a$

move x along the direction orthogonal to the gradient,
i.e. the direction of the contour

accept a new point x' if $|g(x')| > T_b$ ($T_b < T_a$)
and $|g(x')|$ is a local maximum in the direction of the
gradient

repeat until all edge points have been tested.

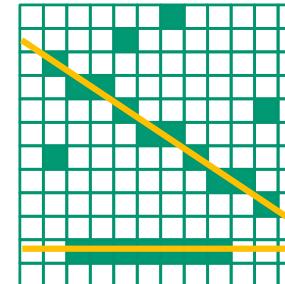
hysteresis

line detection

how can we detect straight lines in a binary image?

difficulties:

- multiple lines
- noise (outliers)



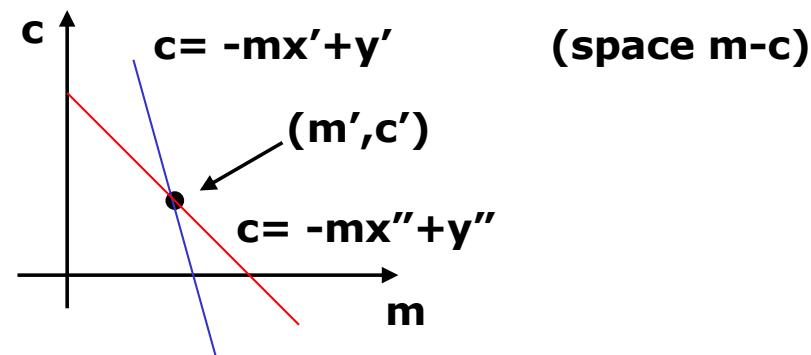
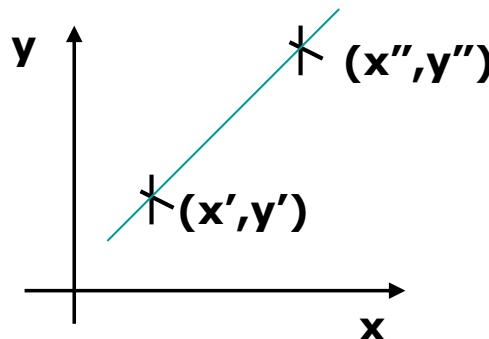


the Hough transform

Hough transform

The [Hough transform](#) can be used to find parameterizable curves.

Main idea: parameterize the curve switch to the [parameter](#) space.



Example : ([line detection](#))

- 1. For each contour point (x', y') , consider all lines containing this point and increase counter $A(m, c)$ corresponding to those lines.
- 2. Repeat for the contour points.
- 3. When all points have been considered, choose those lines where $A(m, c)$ is larger.

Hough transform: better parameterization

Line equation in polar coordinates:

$$x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta - \rho = 0$$

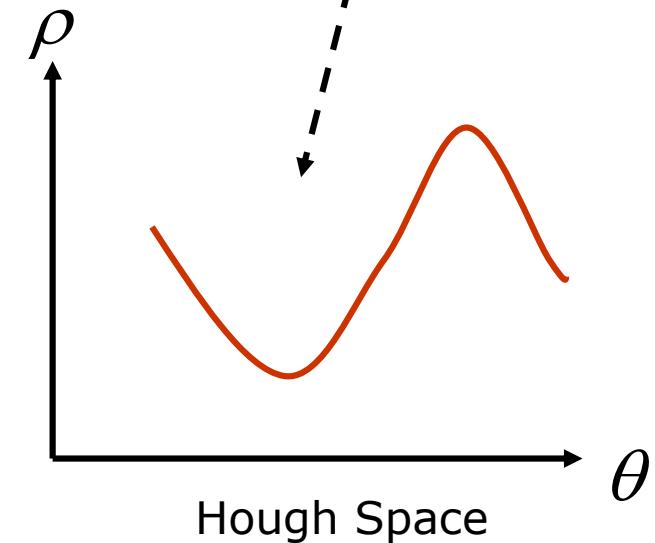
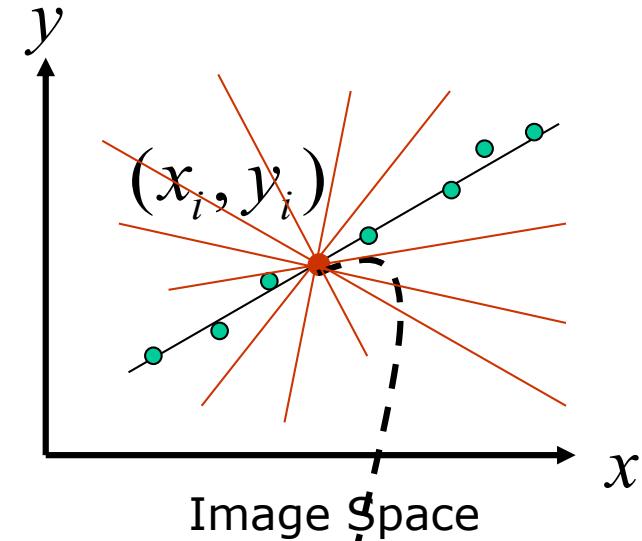
where $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$

$$0 \leq \rho \leq \rho_{\max}$$

Given point (x_i, y_i) find (ρ, θ)

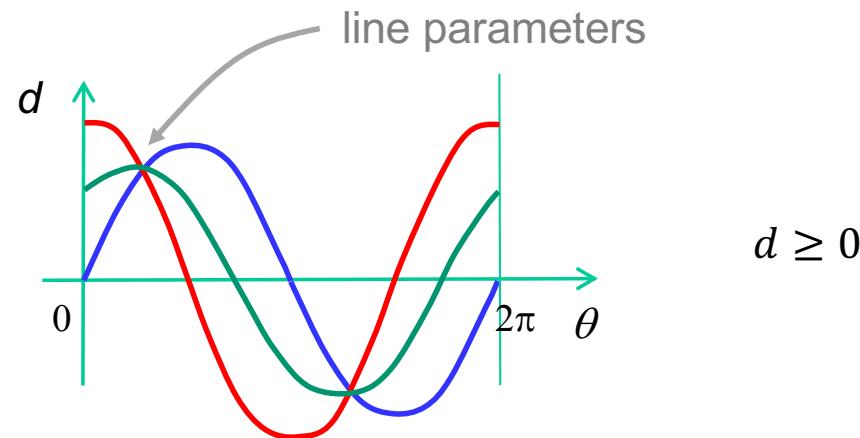
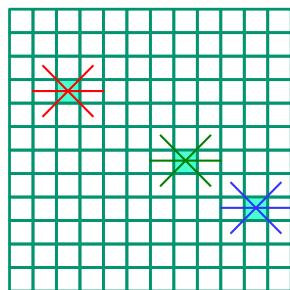
Hough Transform of one point (x_i, y_i)
is sinusoid:

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



Hough transform

edge points



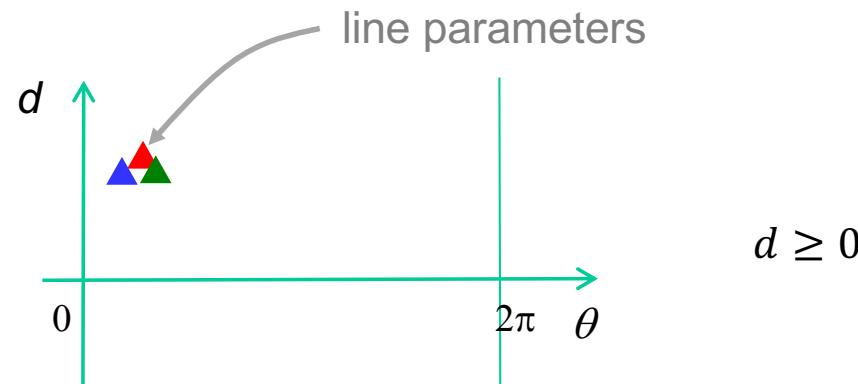
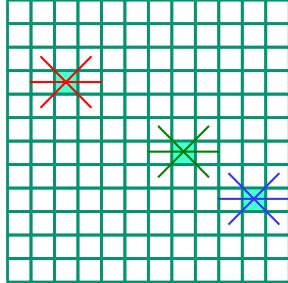
$$d = x \cos\theta + y \sin\theta$$

each image point is associated to a constraint (sinusoid) in the parameter space.

The **Hough transform** splits the parameter space (θ, d) into cells and builds an histogram: each observation votes in all the cells intersected by the sinusoid.

Histogram peaks correspond to straight lines.

Hough transform (2)



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

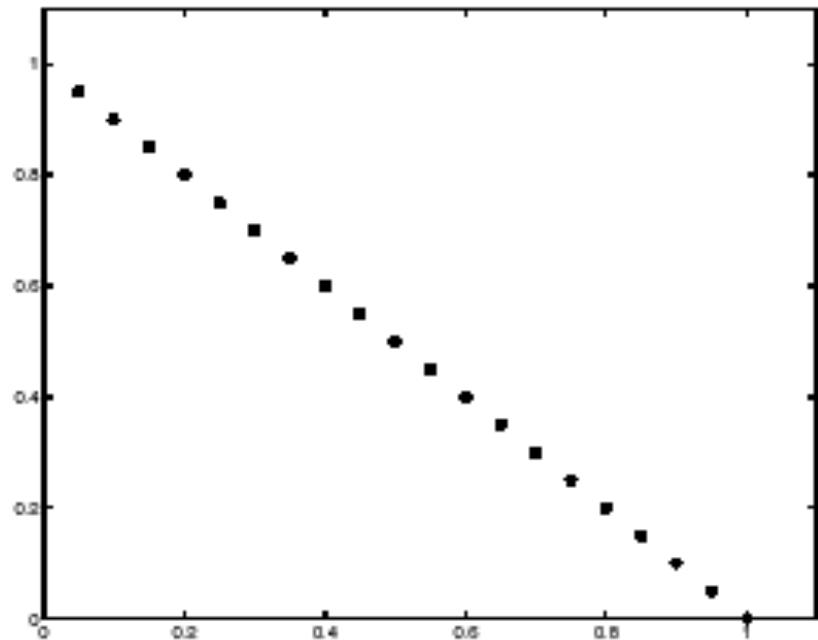
each image point is associated to a single point in the parameter space.

The image gradient should be orthogonal to the straight line and the direction of the gradient should be equal to θ (apart from a measurement error).

Therefore, we know the parameter θ associated to each edge point.

clustering in parameter space!

Straight line



Hough Transform

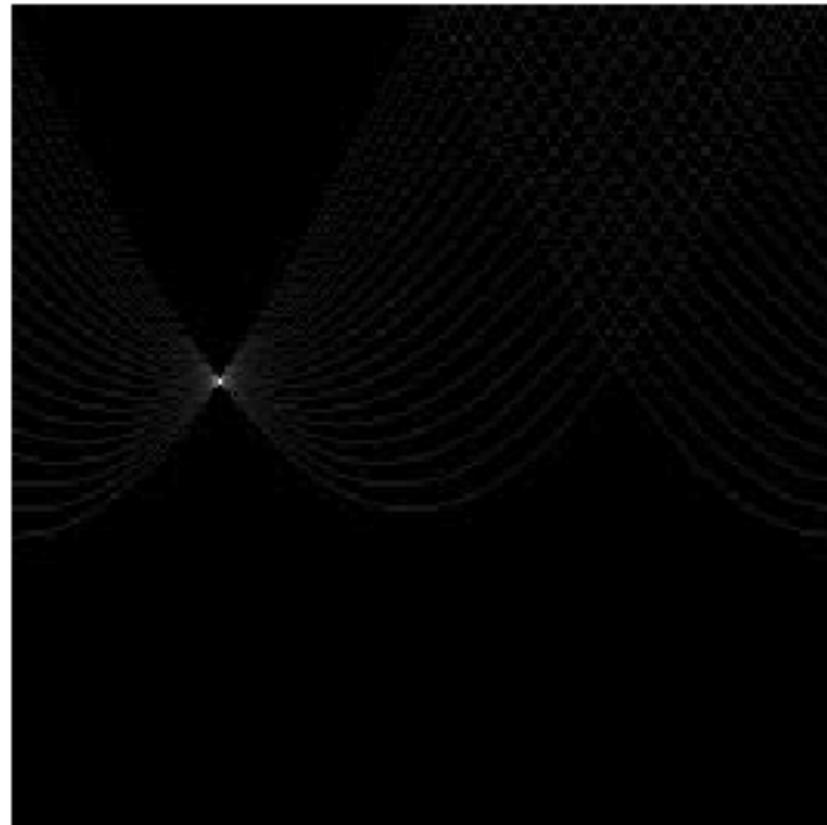
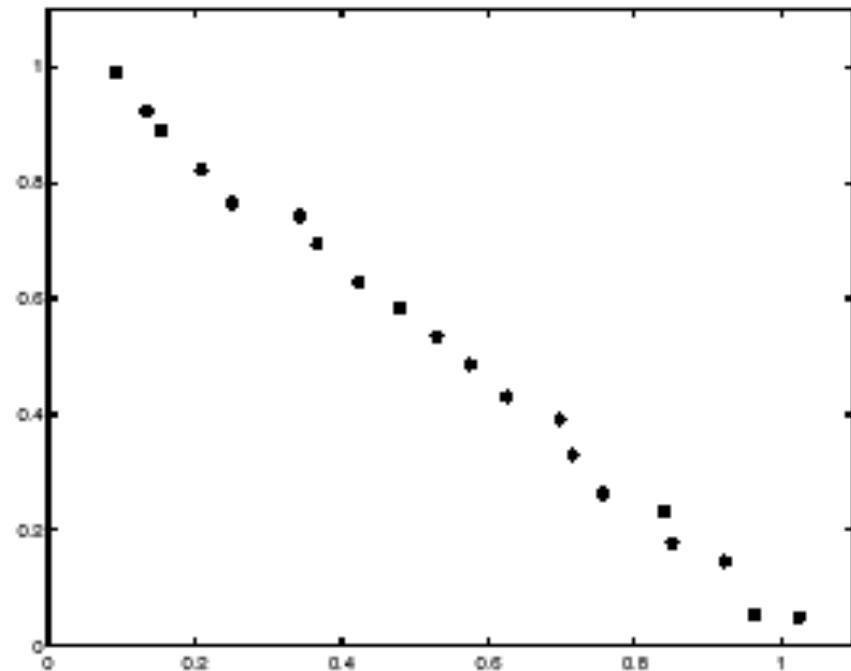


Image space

Votes/accumulator
Horizontal axis is θ ,
Vertical is ρ .

Noisy line



Hough Transform

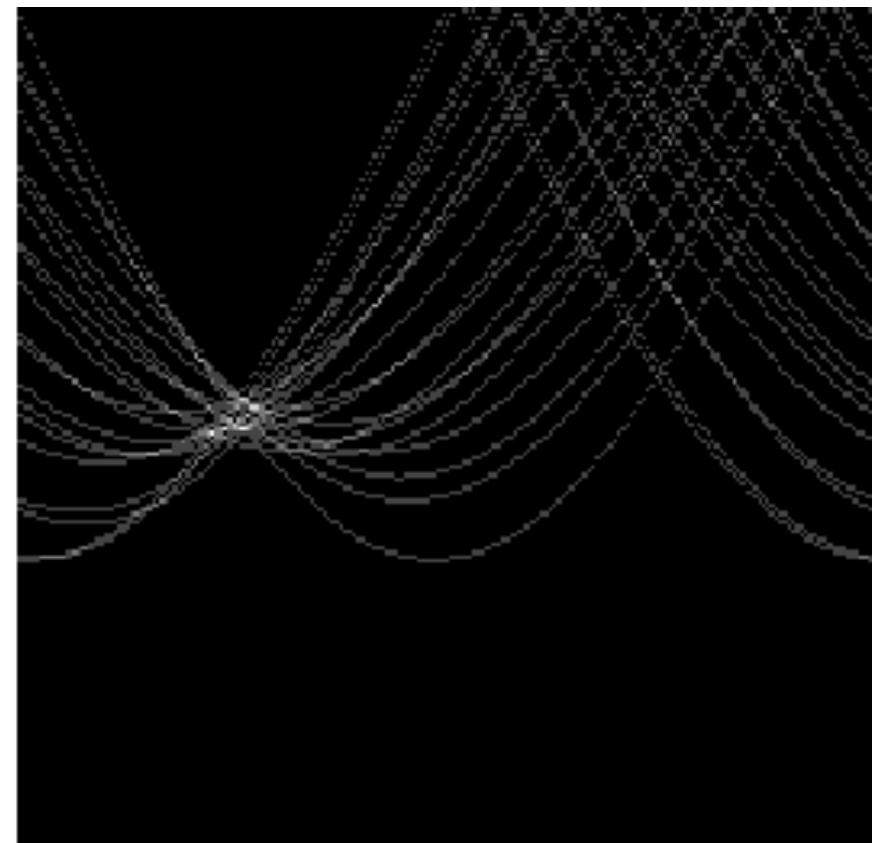
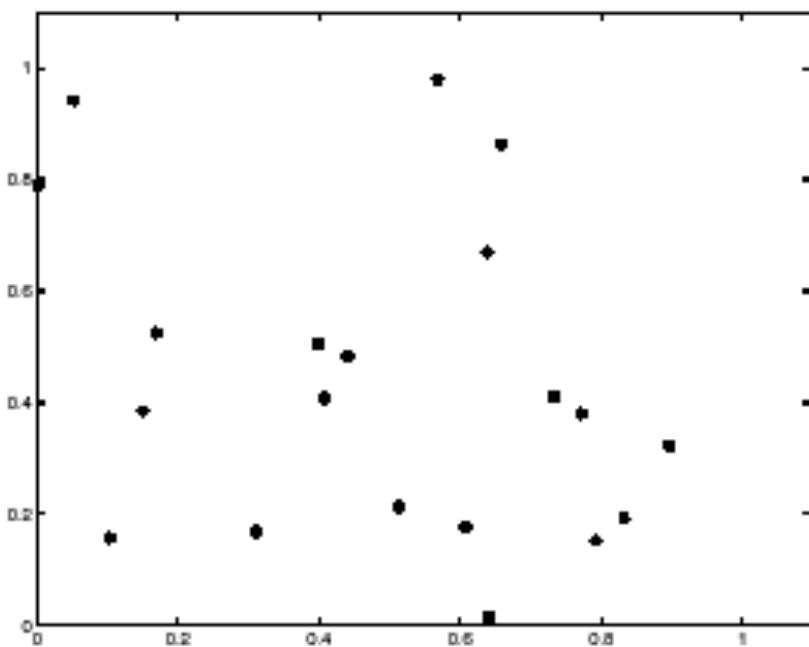


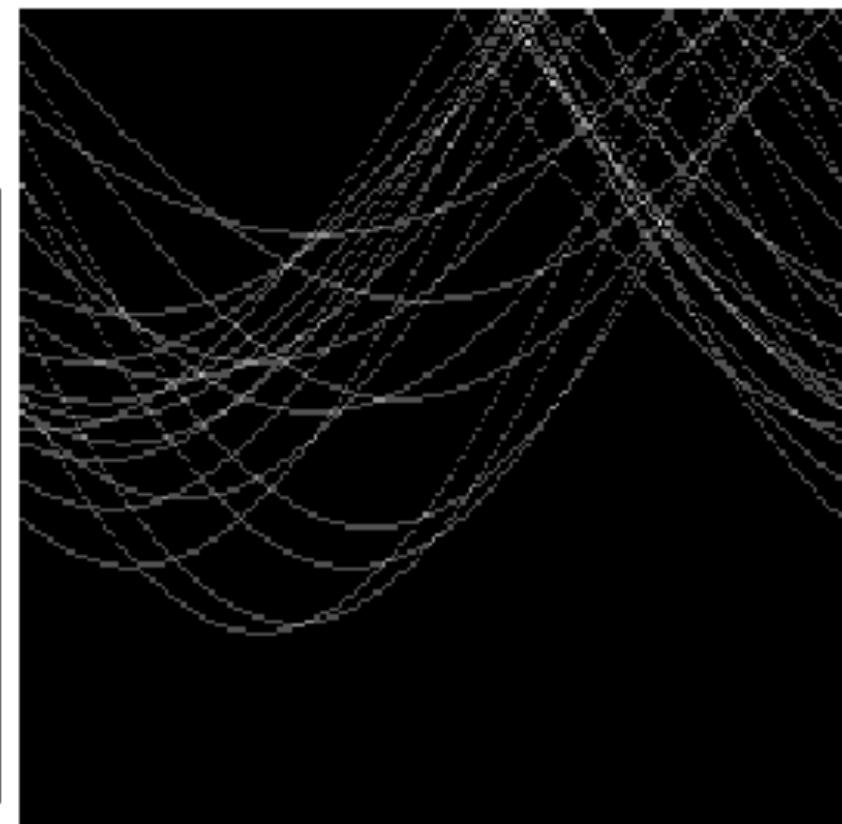
Image space

votes

Random points



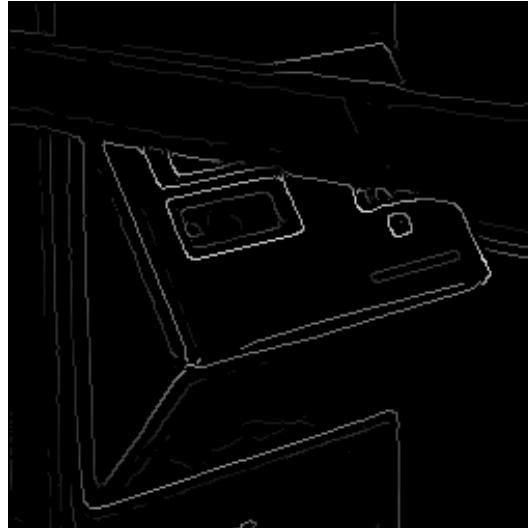
Hough Transform



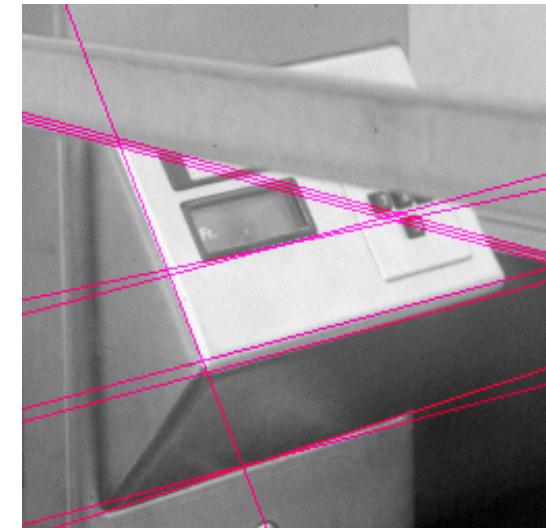
Real World Example



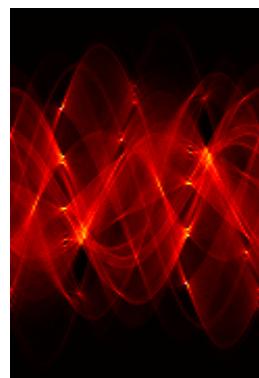
Original



Edge Detection



Found Lines

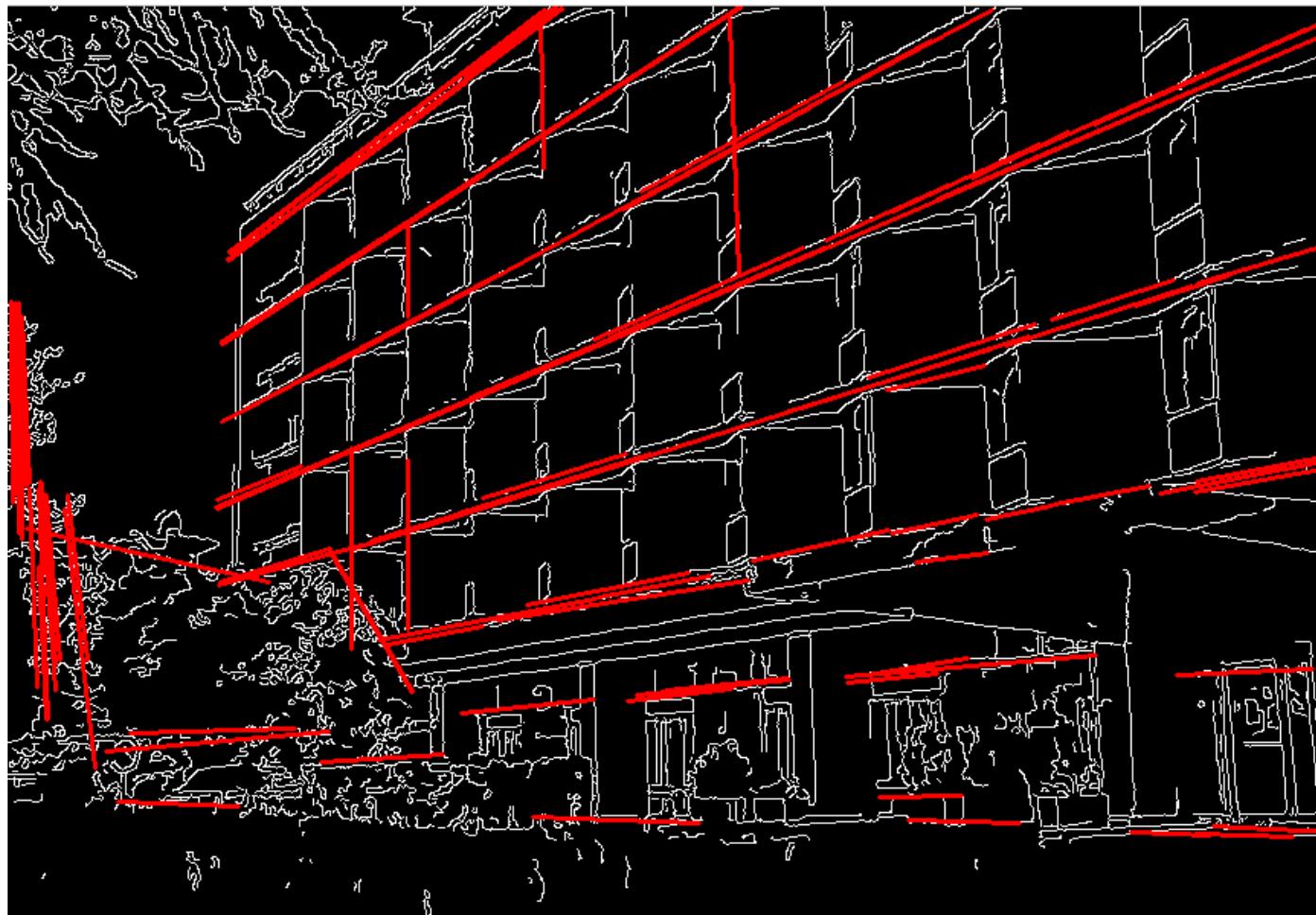


Parameter Space

Real World Example



Real World Example



Finding Circles by Hough Transform

Equation of Circle in the spatial domain:

$$(x_i - a)^2 + (y_i - b)^2 = r^2$$

- If radius is known (2D Hough Space):
- Hough Transform for a point (x_i, y_i) is a circle at center (x_i, y_i) :

$$(a - x_i)^2 + (b - y_i)^2 = r^2$$

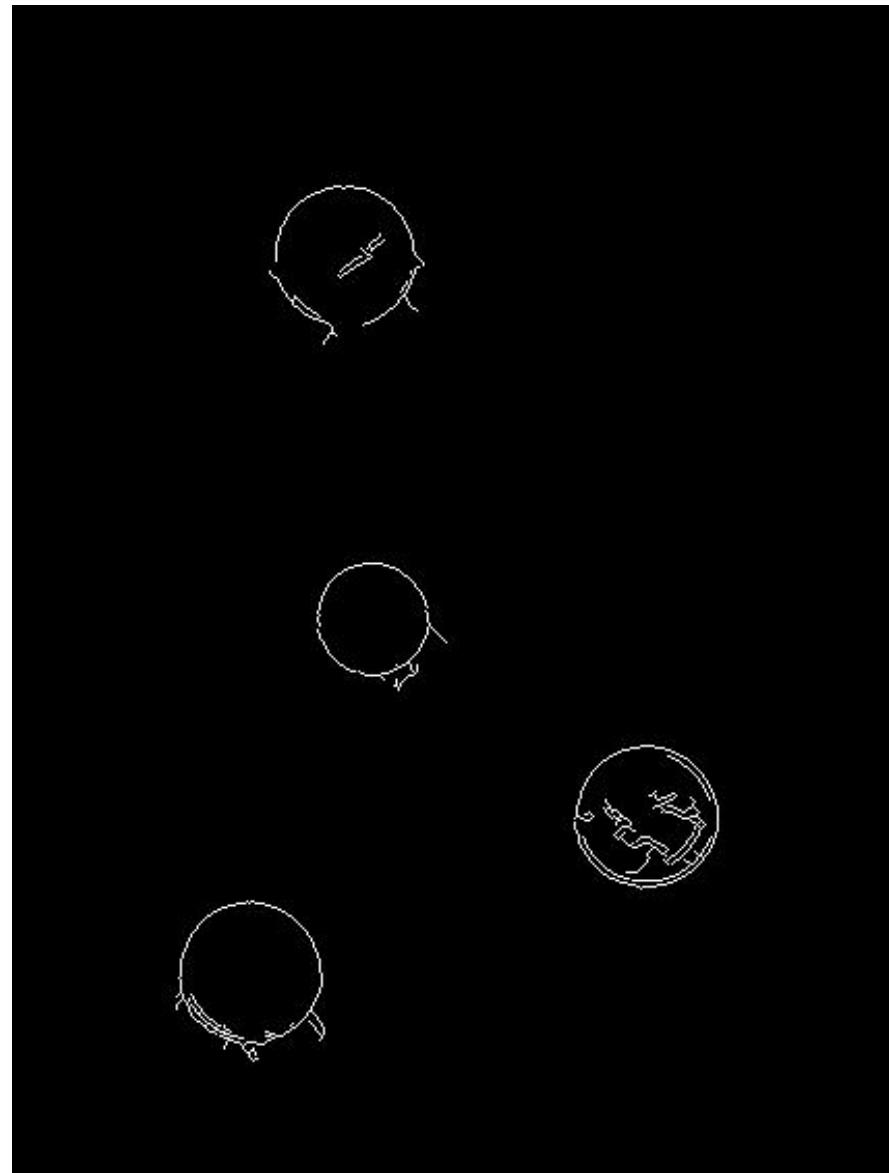
Accumulator Array $A(a, b)$

Finding Coins

Original

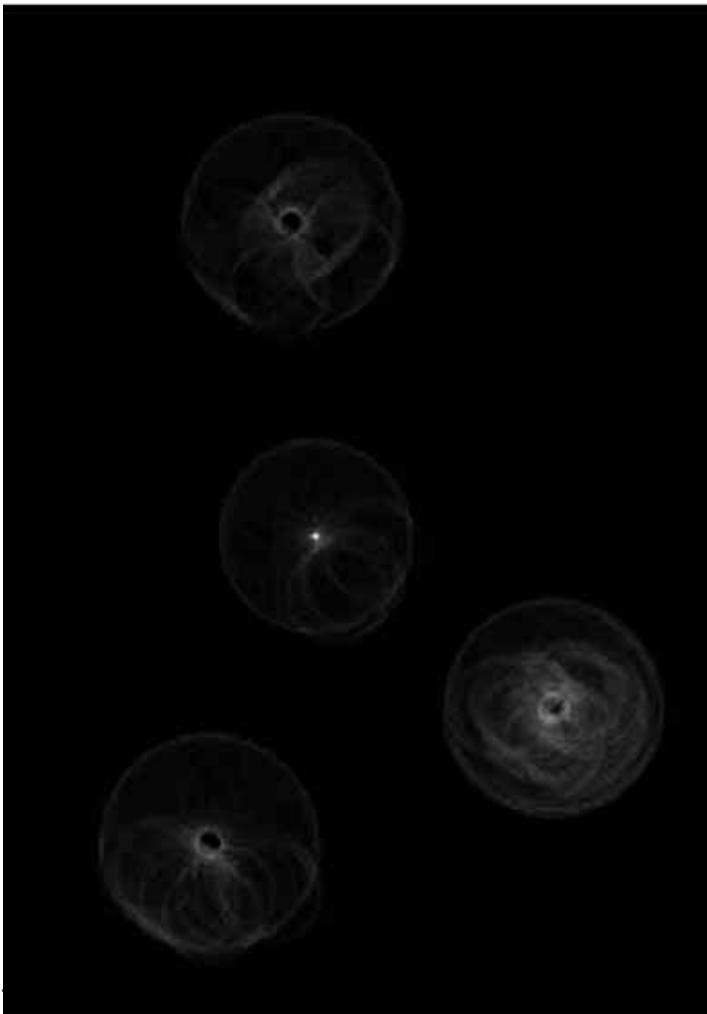


Edges (notice noise)

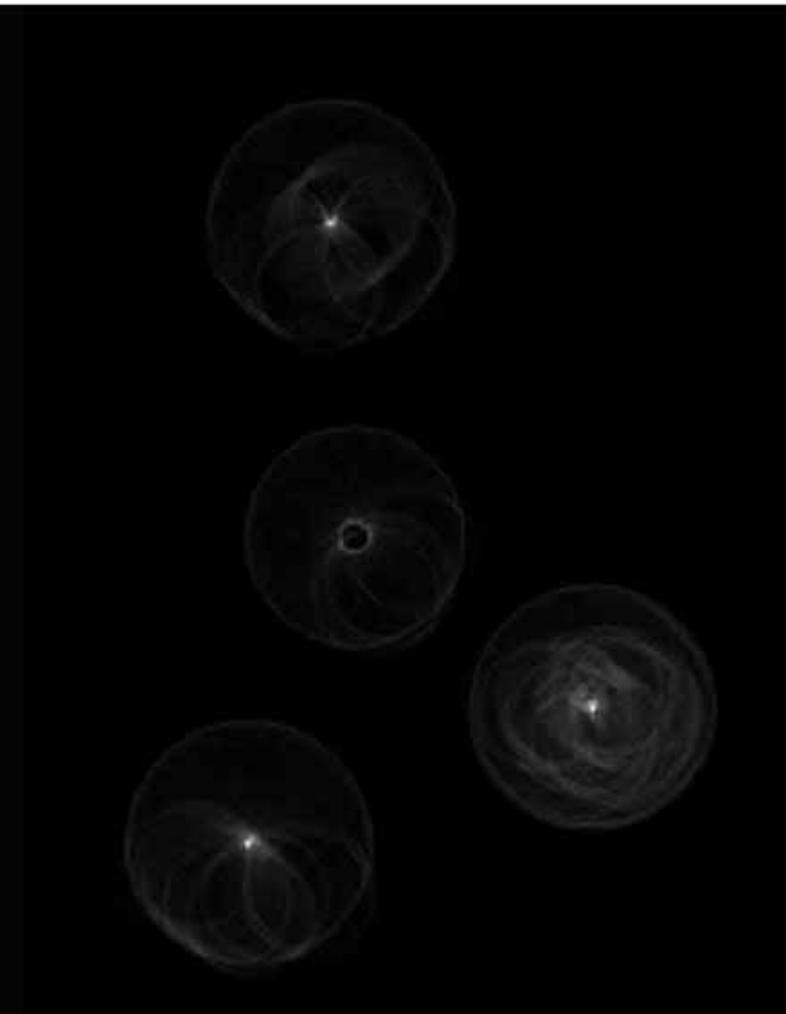


Finding Coins (continued)

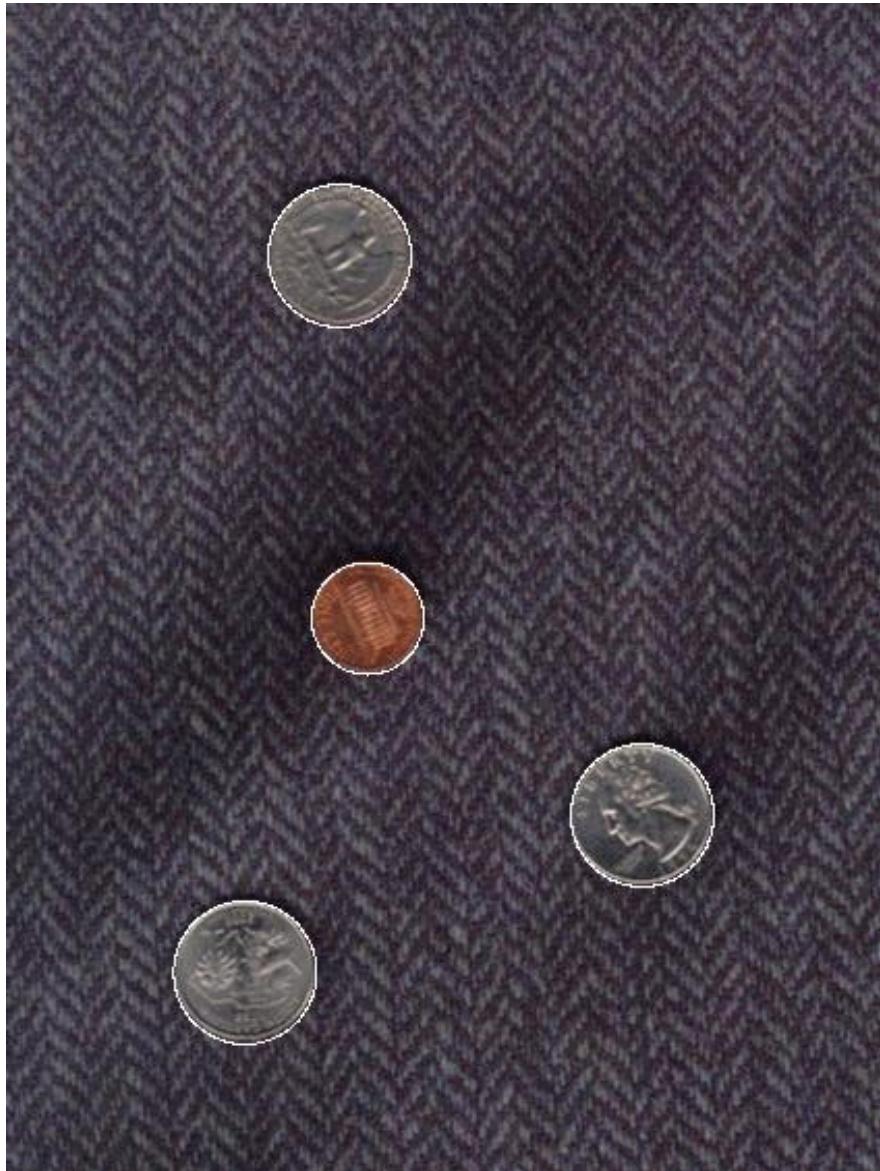
Penny



Quarters



Finding Coins (Continued)

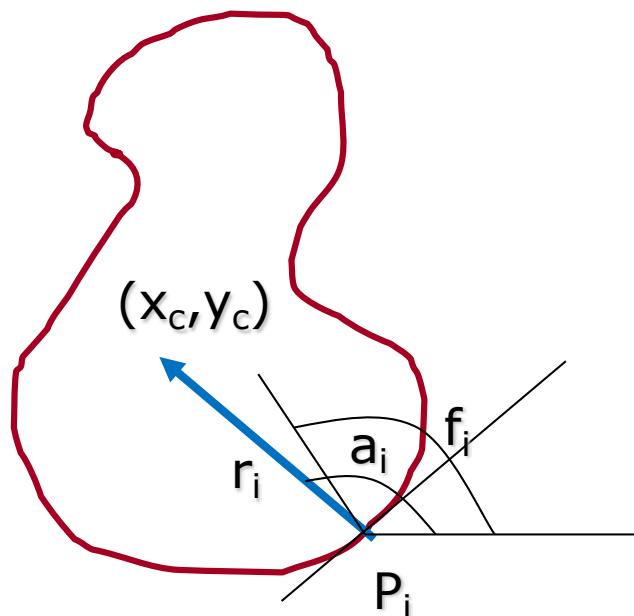


Note that because the quarters and penny are different sizes, a different Hough transform (with separate accumulators) [was](#) used for each circle size.

Coin finding sample images
from: Vivik Kwatra

Generalized Hough Transform

The H.T. can be used even if the curve has not a simple analytic form!



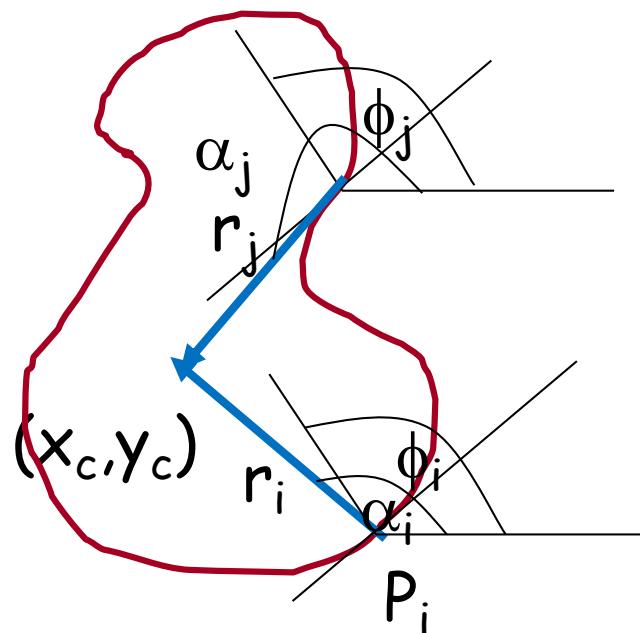
1. Pick a reference point (x_c, y_c)
2. For $i = 1, \dots, n$:
 1. Draw segment to P_i on the boundary.
 2. Measure its length r_i , and its orientation a_i .
 3. Write the coordinates of (x_c, y_c) as a function of r_i and a_i
 4. Record the gradient orientation f_i at P_i .
3. Build a table with the data, indexed by f_i .

$$x_c = x_i + r_i \cos(a_i)$$

$$y_c = y_i + r_i \sin(a_i)$$

Generalized Hough Transform

Suppose, there were m **different** gradient orientations:
($m \leq n$)



$$x_c = x_i + r_i \cos(\alpha_i)$$

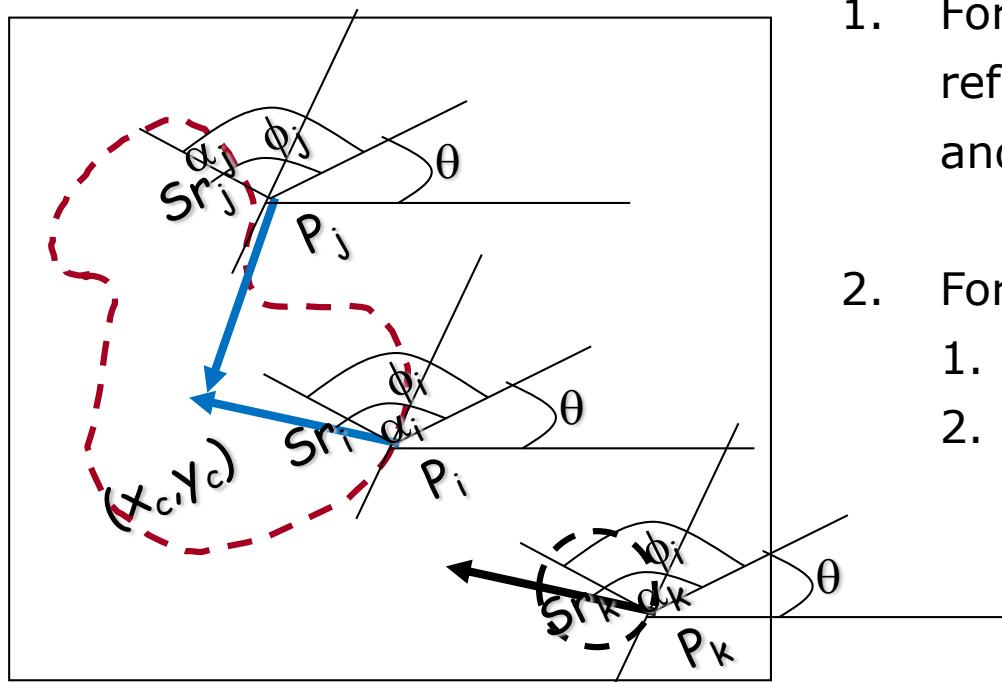
$$y_c = y_i + r_i \sin(\alpha_i)$$

ϕ_1	$(r^1_1, \alpha^1_1), (r^1_2, \alpha^1_2), \dots, (r^1_{n1}, \alpha^1_{n1})$
ϕ_2	$(r^2_1, \alpha^2_1), (r^2_2, \alpha^2_2), \dots, (r^2_{n2}, \alpha^2_{n2})$
.	.
.	.
.	.
ϕ_m	$(r^m_1, \alpha^m_1), (r^m_2, \alpha^m_2), \dots, (r^m_{nm}, \alpha^m_{nm})$

H.T. table

Generalized Hough Transform

Finds a rotated, scaled, and translated version of the curve:



$$x_c = x_i + r_i \cos(\alpha_i)$$

$$y_c = y_i + r_i \sin(\alpha_i)$$

1. Form an A accumulator array of possible reference points (x_c, y_c) , scaling factor Σ and Rotation angle θ .
2. For each edge (x, y) in the image:
 1. Compute $f(x, y)$
 2. For each (r, α) corresponding to $\phi(x, y)$ do:
 1. For each Σ and θ :
 1. $x_c = x_i + r(f) \Sigma \cos[\alpha(\phi) + \theta]$
 2. $y_c = y_i + r(f) \Sigma \sin[\alpha(\phi) + \theta]$
 3. $A(x_c, y_c, \Sigma, \theta) ++$
 3. Find maxima of A .

Hough Transform Summary

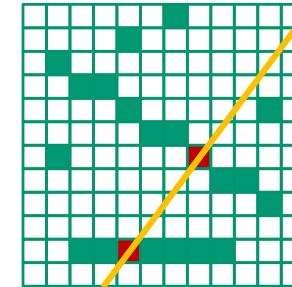
- H.T. is a “voting” scheme
 - points vote for a set of parameters describing a line or curve.
- The more votes for a particular set
 - the more evidence that the corresponding curve is present in the image.
- Can detect **MULTIPLE** curves in one shot.
- Computational cost increases with the number of parameters describing the curve.

RANSAC

Fischler & Bolles, 1981

repeat

- randomly select 2 edge points
- compute the line coefficients θ, d
- count the number of edge points close to the line
(inliers)



select the model with larger number of inliers

Perform a least squares fit using the inliers



keypoints and patches

Keypoints

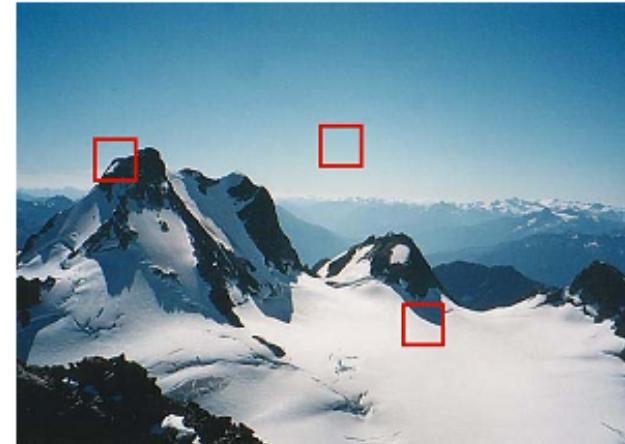
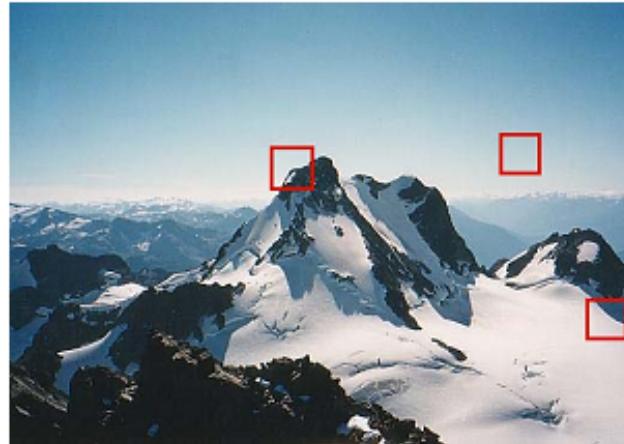
Keypoints are points which allow us to extract useful information from the image (e.g., for alignment or motion estimation).

They should be detected in a robust way and contain useful information.

They correspond to textured regions; their neighborhood should contain intensity variations in more than one direction.

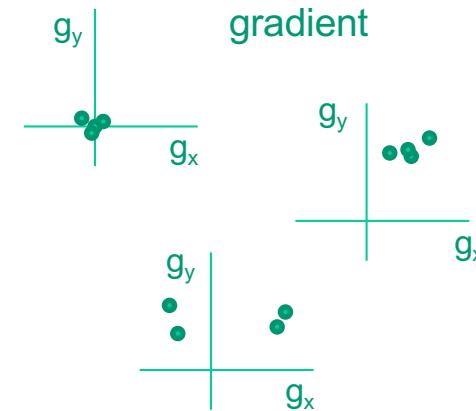
keypoints are sometimes called **interest points** or **corners**.

What are the good points (patches) to track?



Patches:

- no texture: blank wall problem
- one edge: aperture problem
- changes in multiple directions: good!!



What are the good points (patches) to track

Alignment criterion

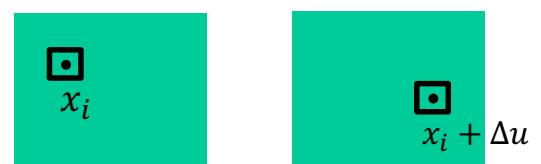
Sum of square differences

$$E(\Delta u) = \sum_i w(x_i) [I_1(x_i + \Delta u) - I_0(x_i)]^2$$



Autocorrelation function

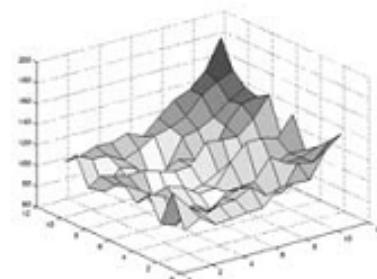
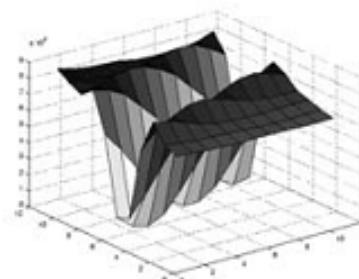
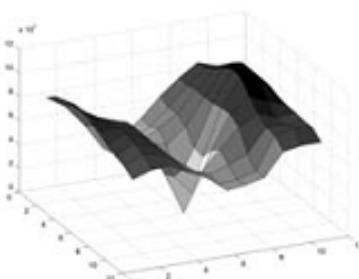
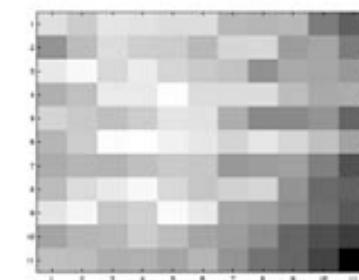
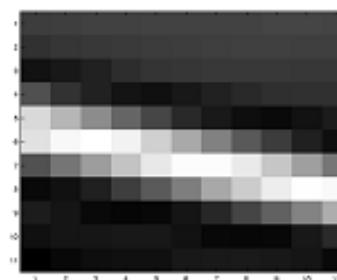
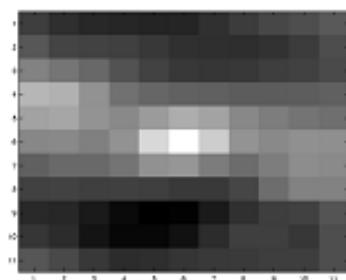
$$E(\Delta u) = \sum_i w(x_i) [I_0(x_i + \Delta u) - I_0(x_i)]^2$$





autocorrelation energy

(a)



Harris corner detector

$$E(\Delta u) = \sum_i w(x_i) [I_0(x_i + \Delta u) - I_0(x_i)]^2$$

expanding the image in Taylor series $I_0(x_i + \Delta u) \cong I_0(x_i) + \nabla I_0(x_i) \Delta u$

we obtain

$$E(\Delta u) = \Delta u^T M \Delta u \quad M = \sum_x w(x_i) \nabla I_0(x_i) \nabla I_0(x_i)^T$$

The window w may move along the image.

$$M(x, y) = w(x, y)^* \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_x = \frac{\partial I}{\partial x} \quad I_y = \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}$$

Mathematics

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

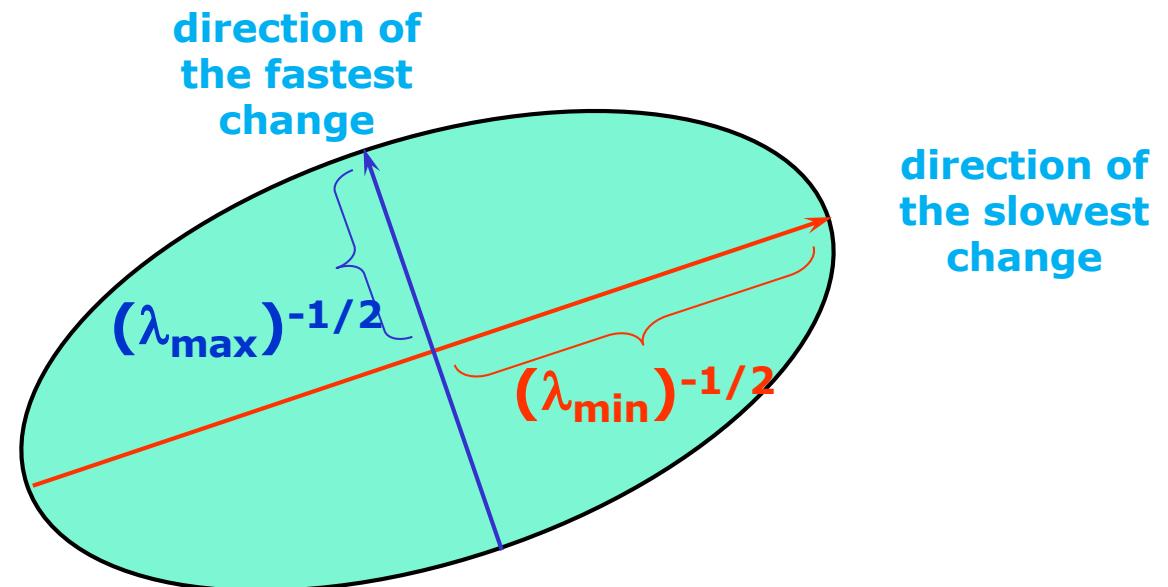
$$M = R^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} R$$

λ_1, λ_2 eigenvalues of M

We can visualize M as an ellipse with axis lengths determined by the eigenvalues and orientation determined by R

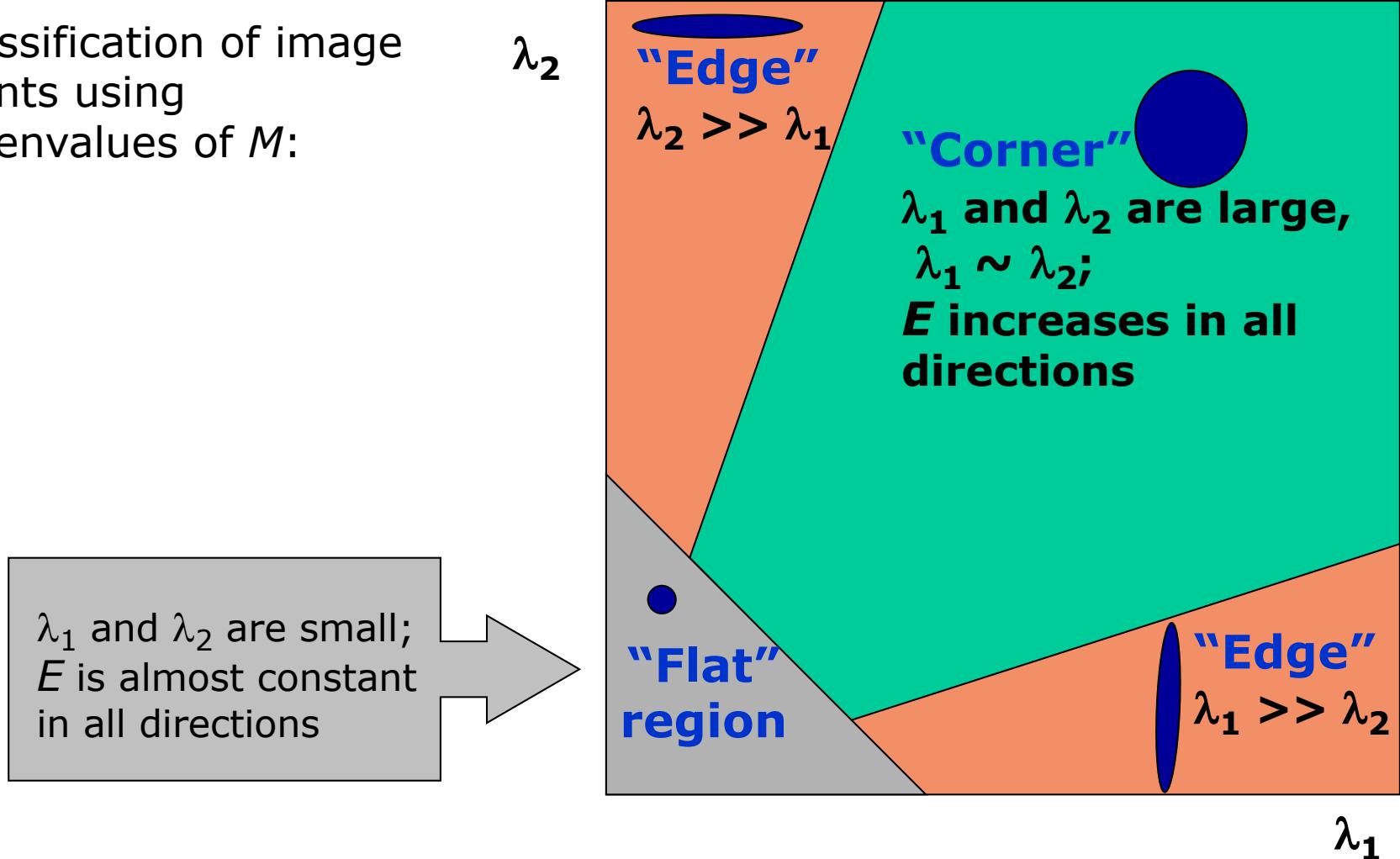
Ellipse $E(u, v) = \text{const.}$

Iso-intensity contour
of $E(u, v)$



Interpreting the eigenvalues

Classification of image points using eigenvalues of M :



Harris corner detector

$$M(x,y) = w(x,y)^* \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_x = \frac{\partial I}{\partial x} \quad I_y = \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}$$

Matrix M should have large eigenvalues

Harris criterion

$$R = \det(M) - k \operatorname{trace}^2(M) = \lambda_0 \lambda_1 - k(\lambda_0 + \lambda_1)^2; \quad k \in [0.04, 0.15]$$

A point x is detected if:

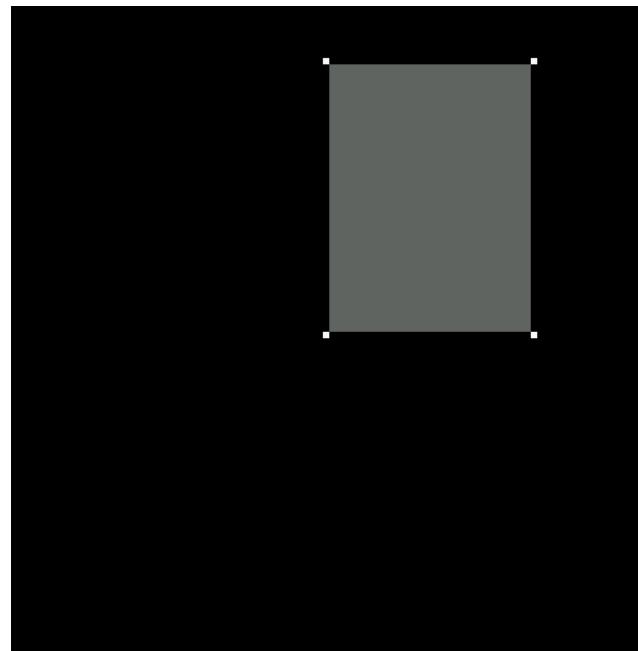
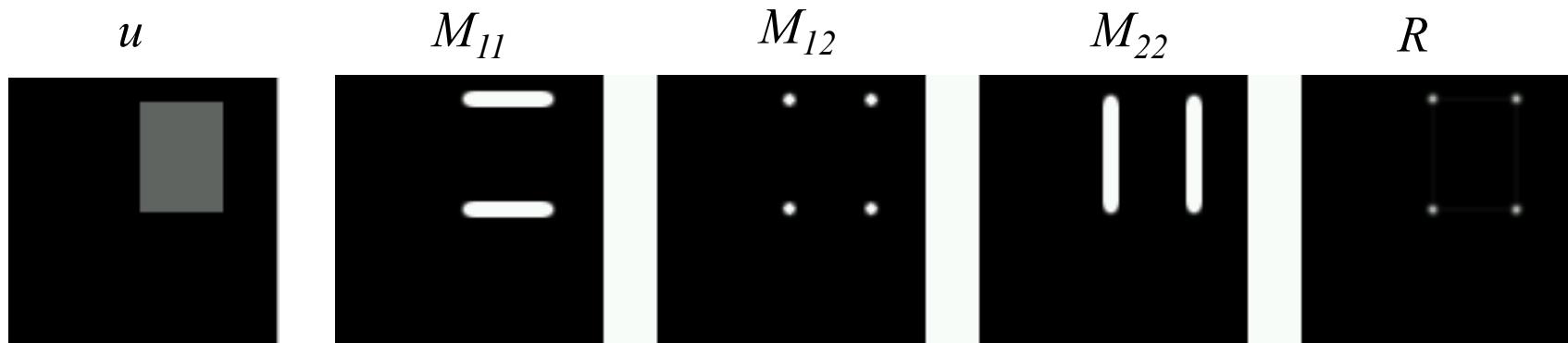
- i) R has a local maximum at x and
- ii) $R > T$.

non-maximum suppression
thresholding

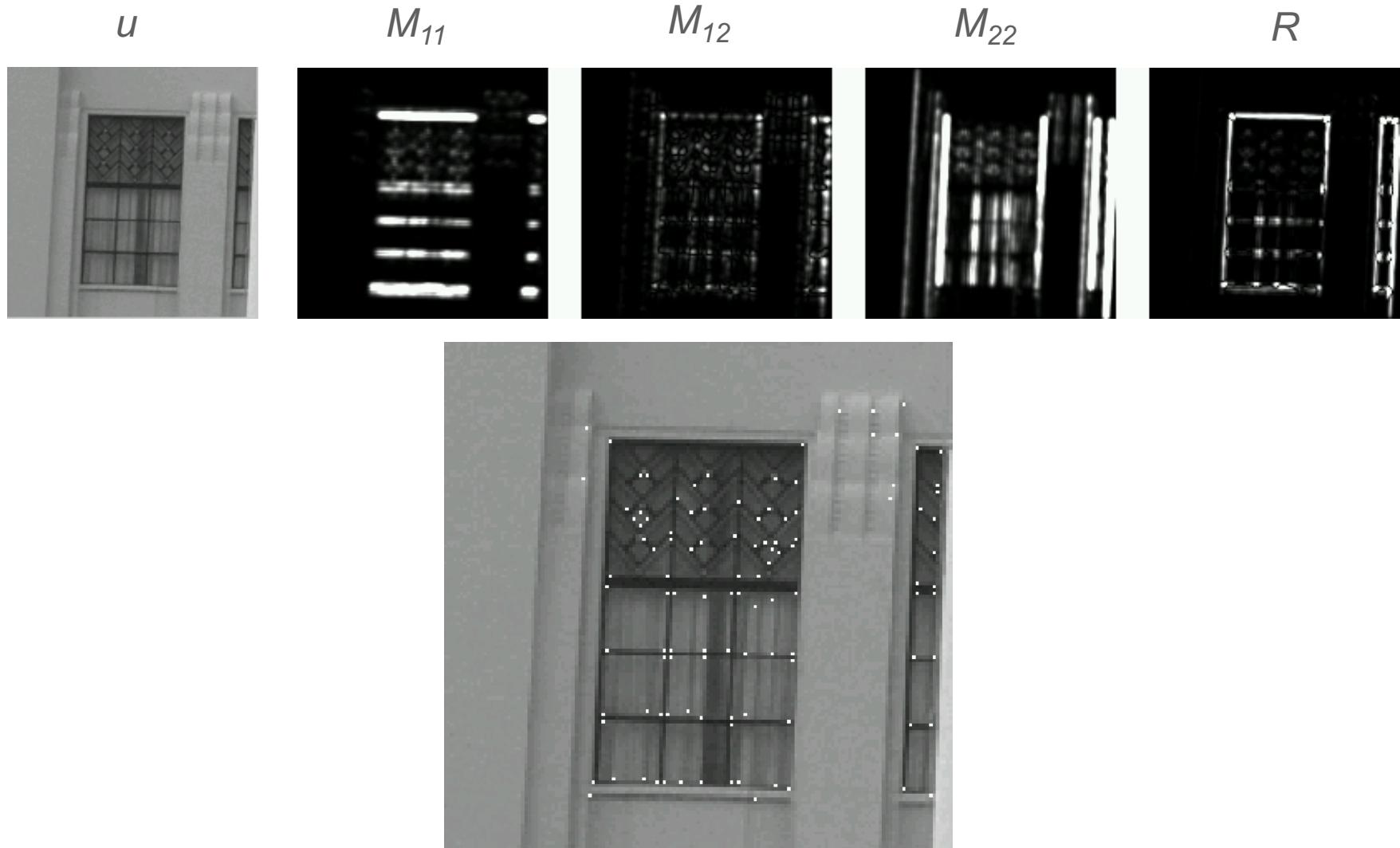
Harris corner detector

- compute the gradient of the image (e.g., Sobel)
- compute 3 images with the products of the partial derivatives and filter them with a lowpass filter.
- compute R at each point
- determine local maxima of R and compare them with a threshold T

example



example

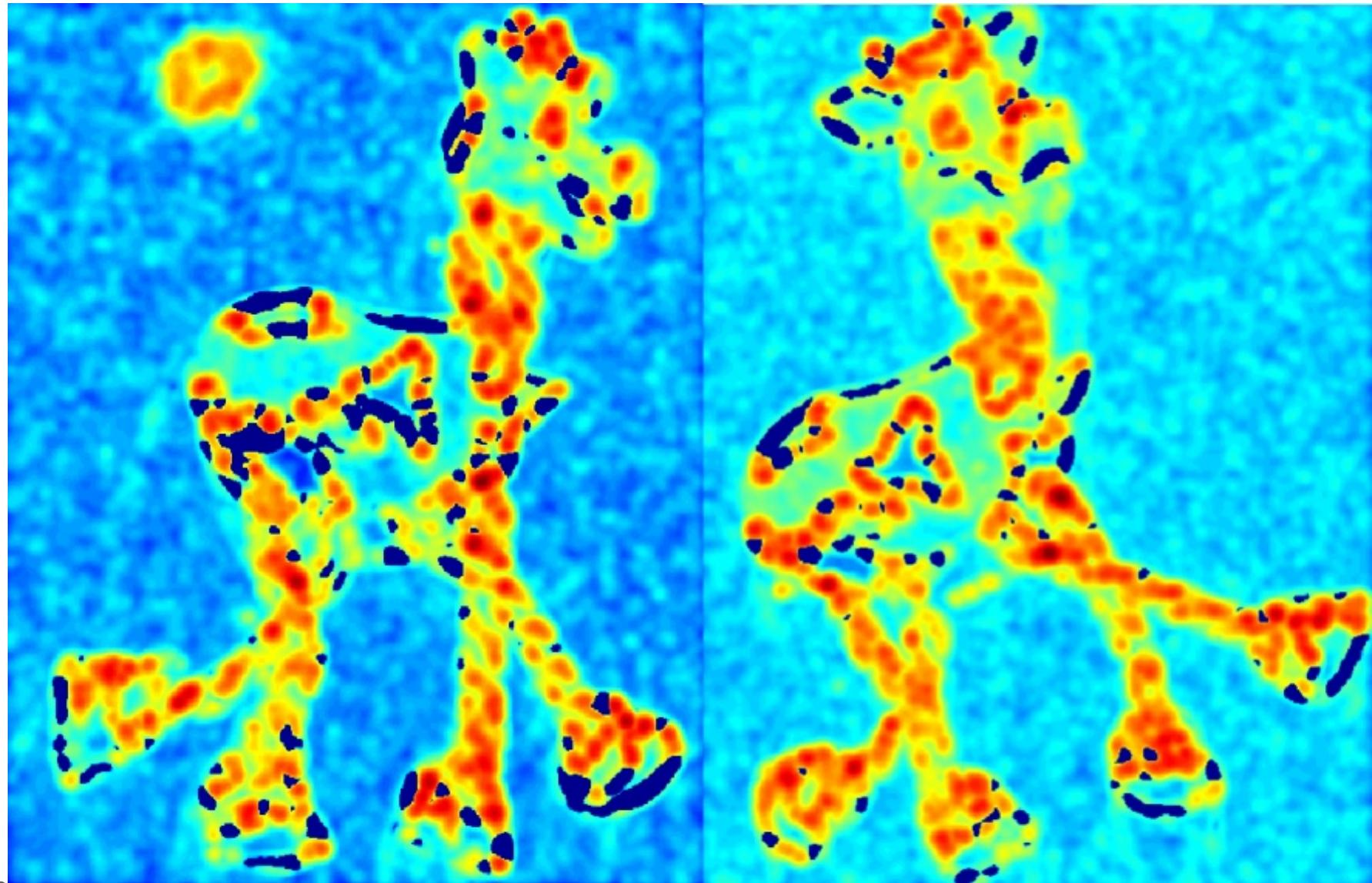


Harris Detector: Workflow



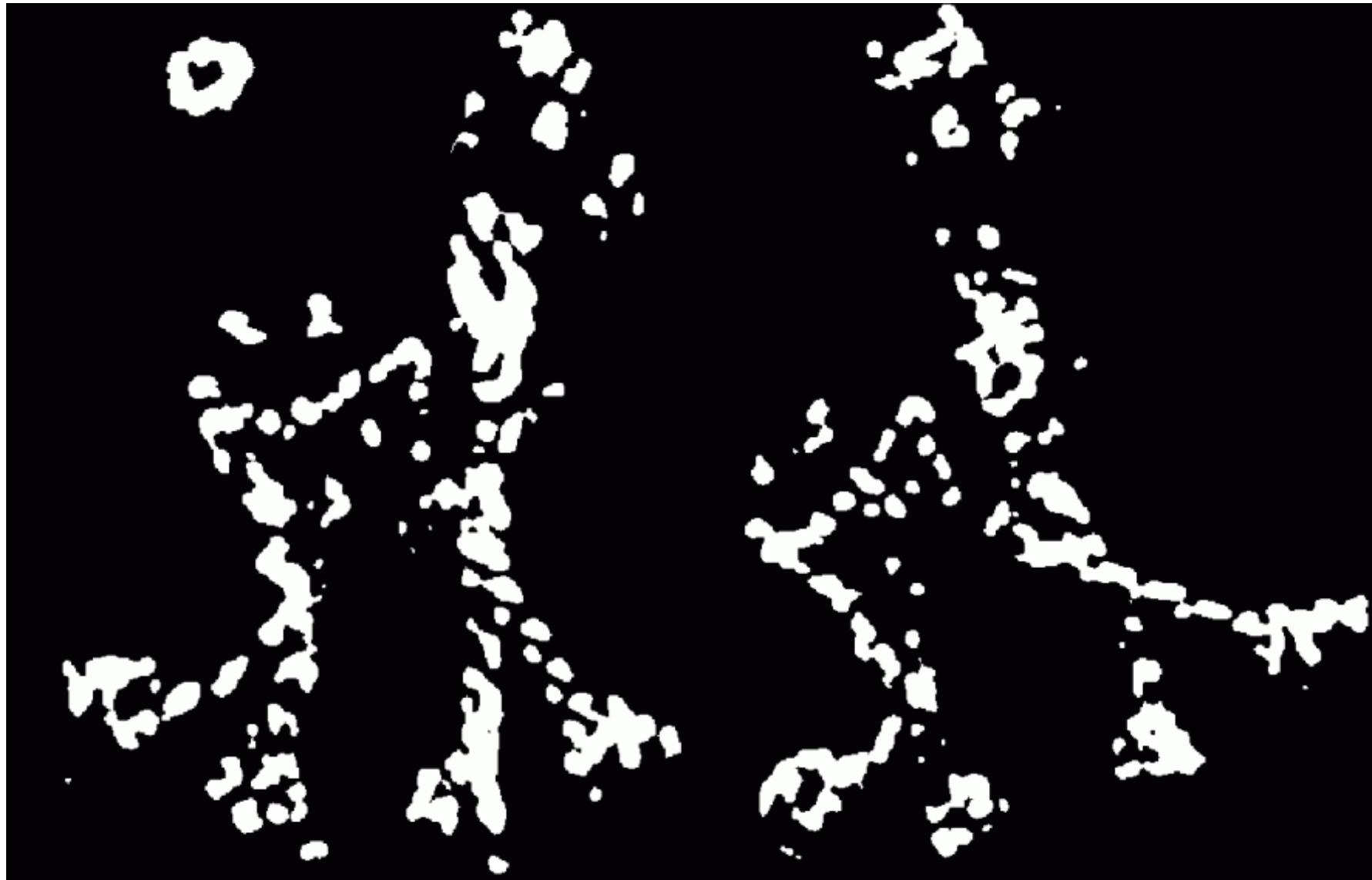
Harris Detector: Workflow

Compute corner response R



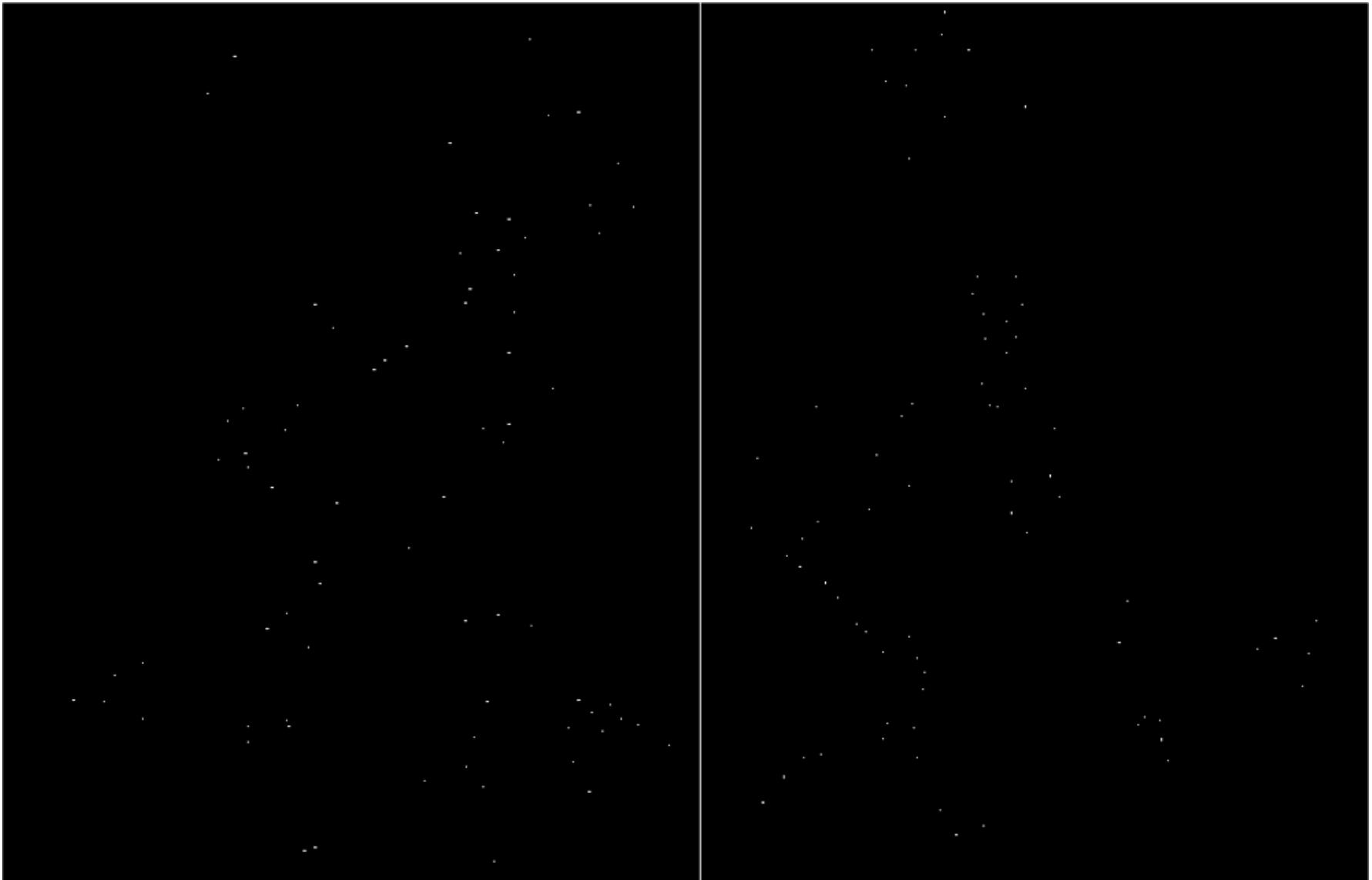
Harris Detector: Workflow

Find points with large corner response: $R > \text{threshold} <<$



Harris Detector: Workflow

Take only the points of local maxima of R



Harris Detector: Workflow

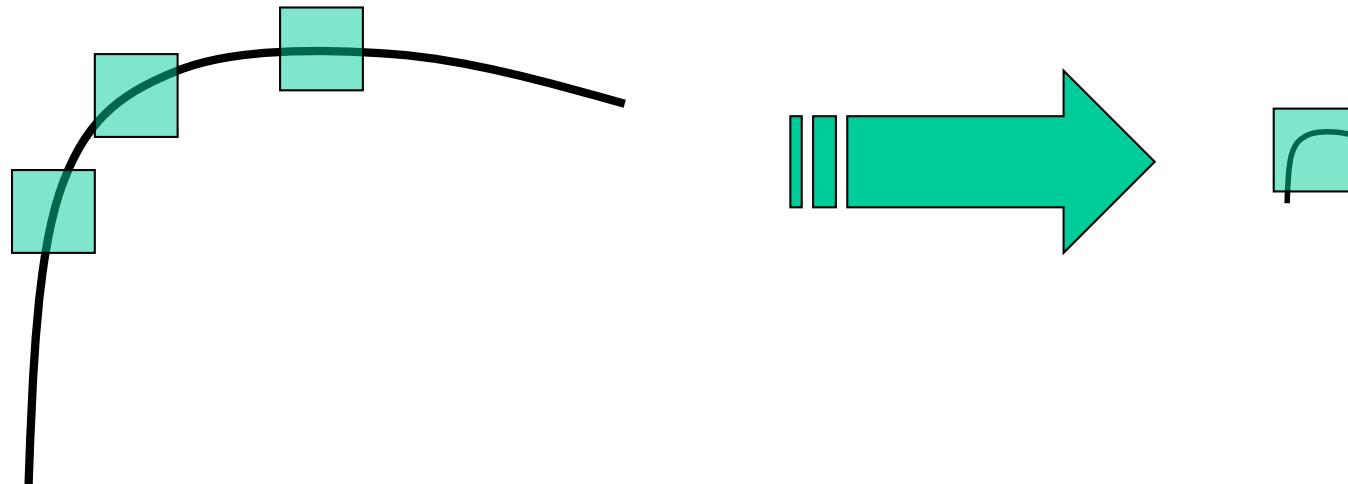




coping with scale

Harris Detector: Properties

Not invariant to image scale

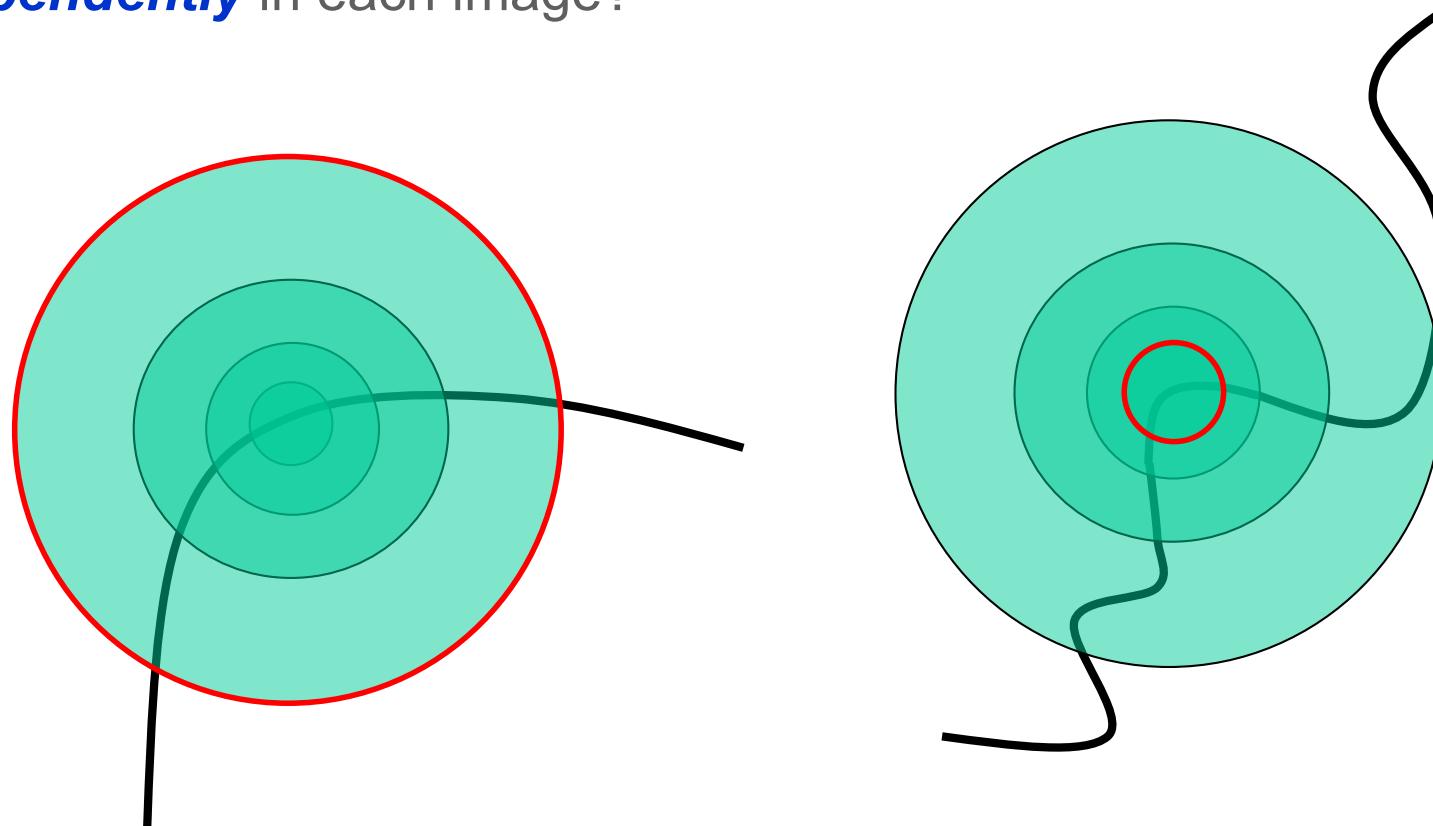


All points will be
classified as **edges**

Corner !

dealing with scale

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



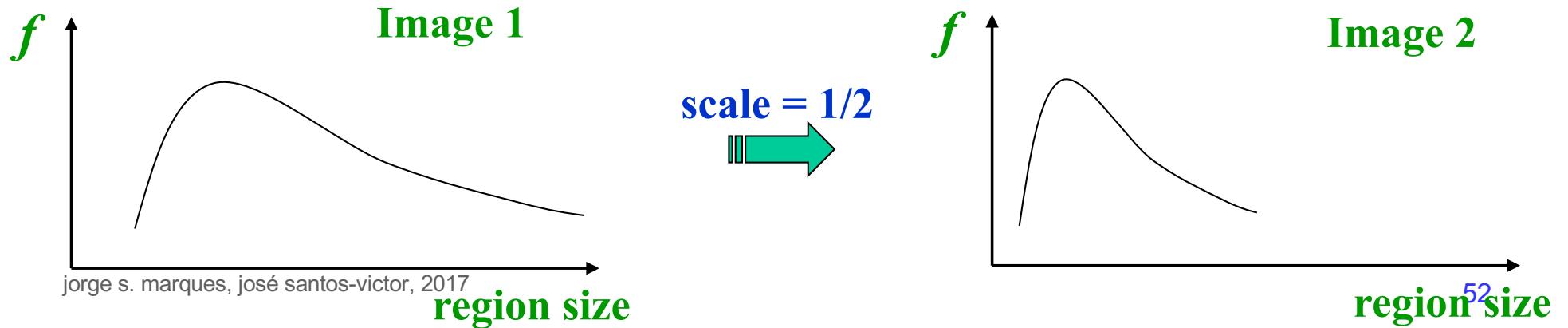
Scale Invariant Detection

- 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)



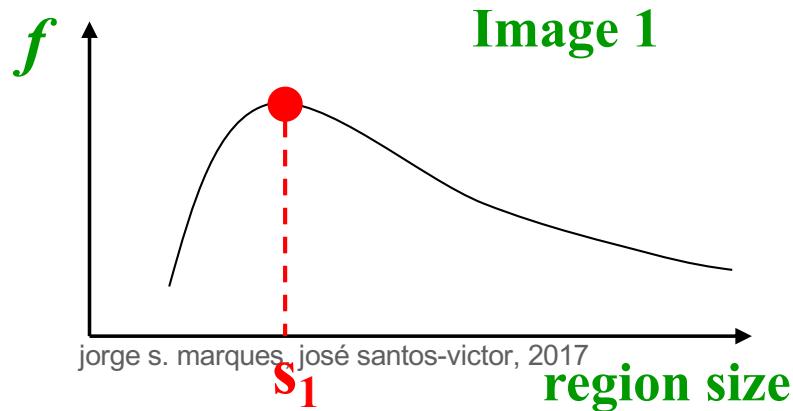
Scale Invariant Detection

- Common approach:

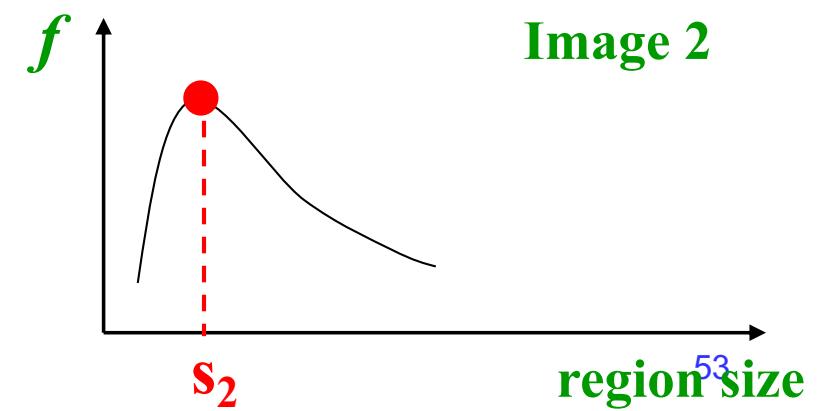
Take a local maximum of this function

Observation: region size, for which the maximum is achieved, should be *invariant* to image scale.

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

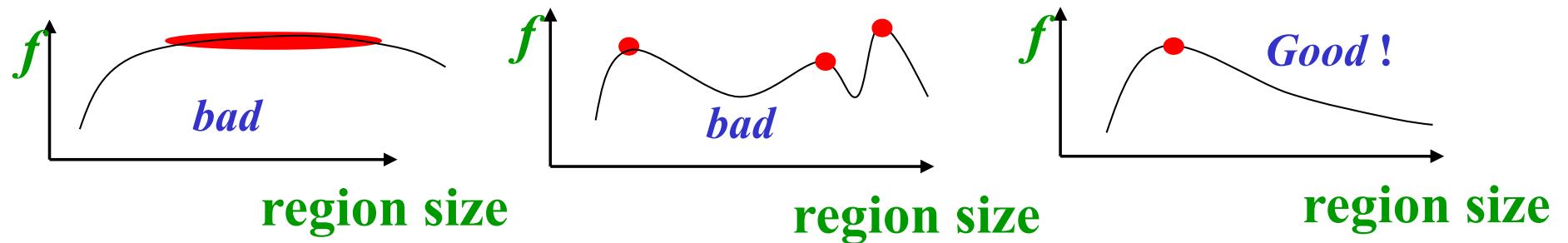


scale = 1/2
→



Scale Invariant Detection

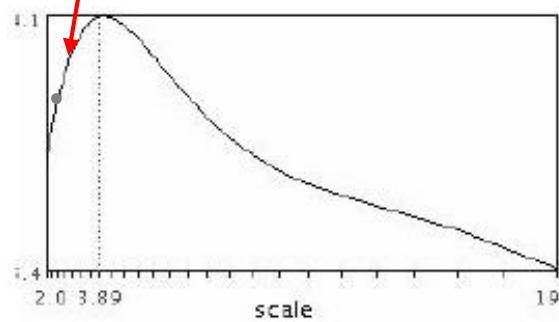
- A “good” function for scale detection:
has one stable sharp peak



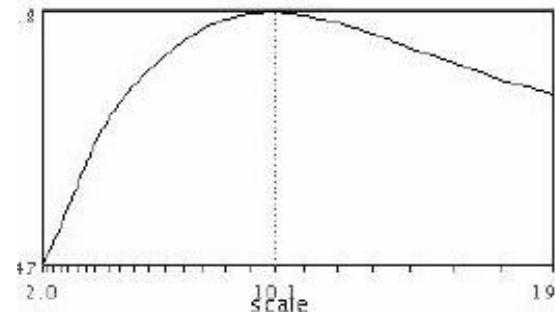
- **For usual images: a good function would be a one which responds to contrast (sharp local intensity change)**

Automatic Scale Selection

- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



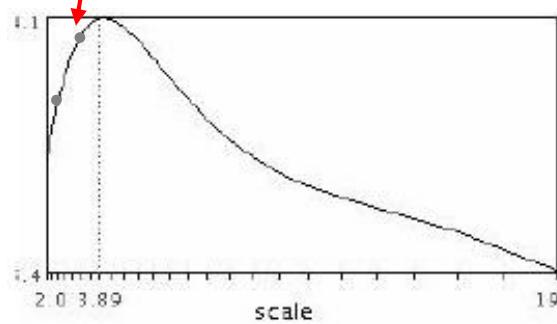
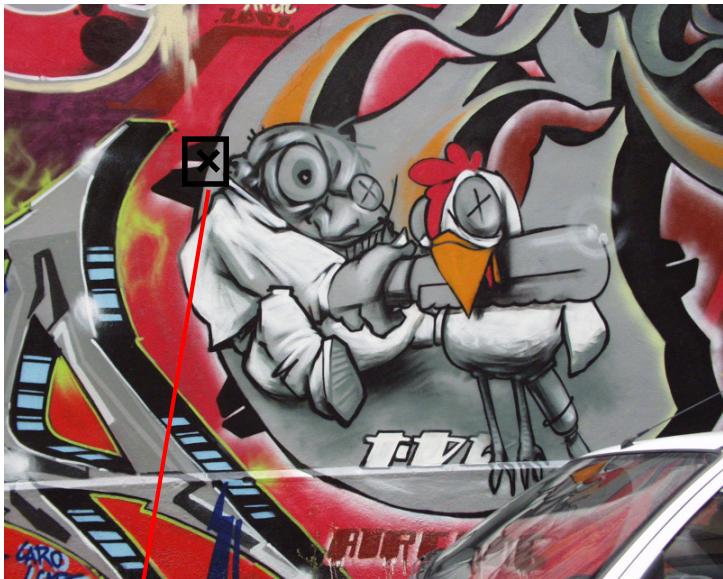
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$



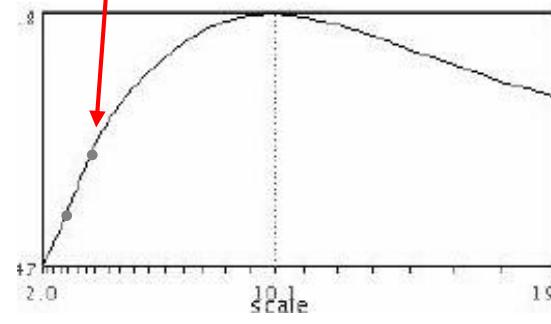
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x', \sigma))$$

Automatic Scale Selection

- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



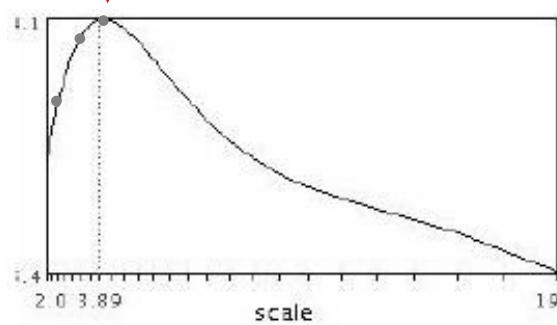
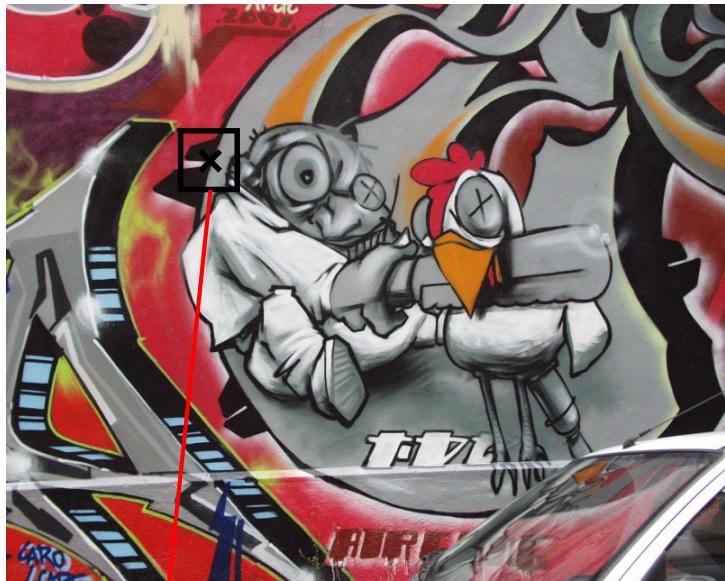
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$



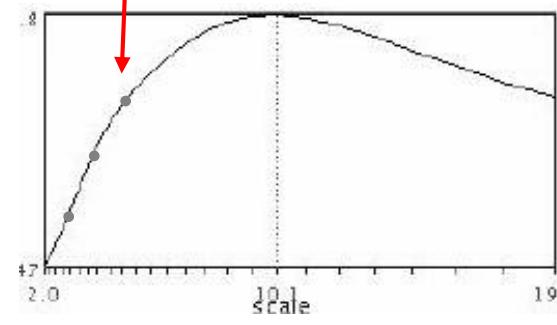
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x', \sigma))$$

Automatic Scale Selection

- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



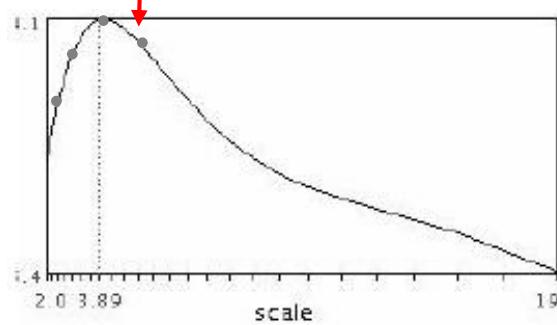
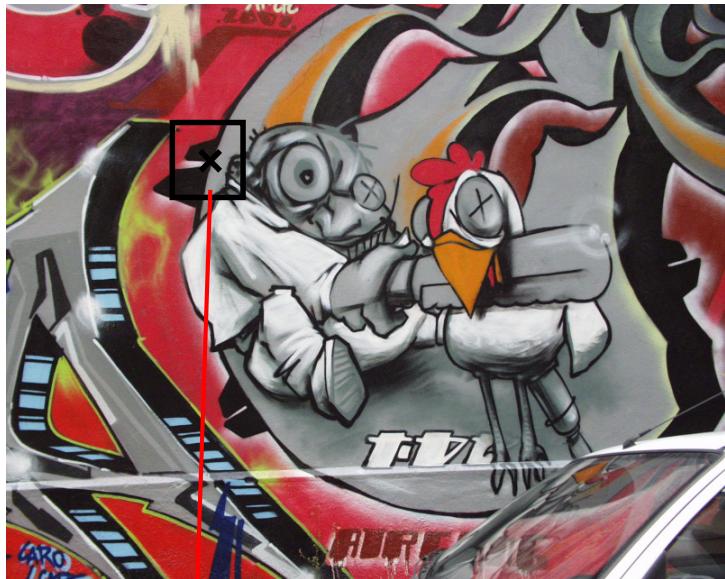
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$



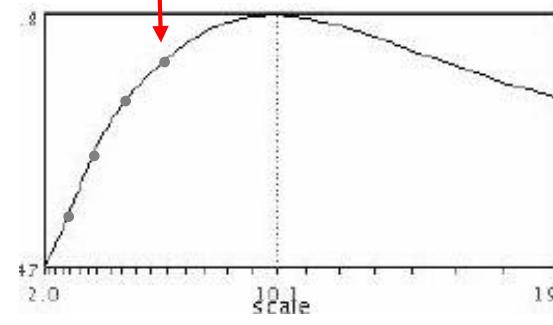
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x', \sigma))$$

Automatic Scale Selection

- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



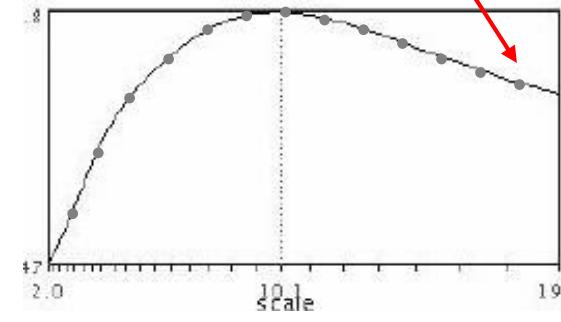
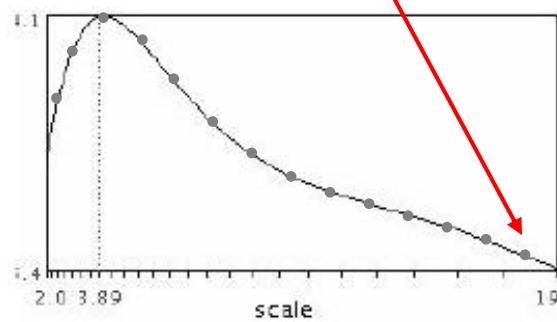
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$



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

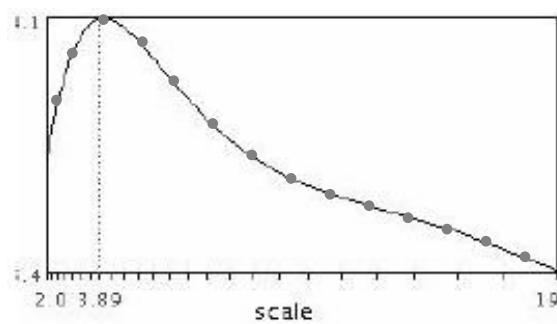
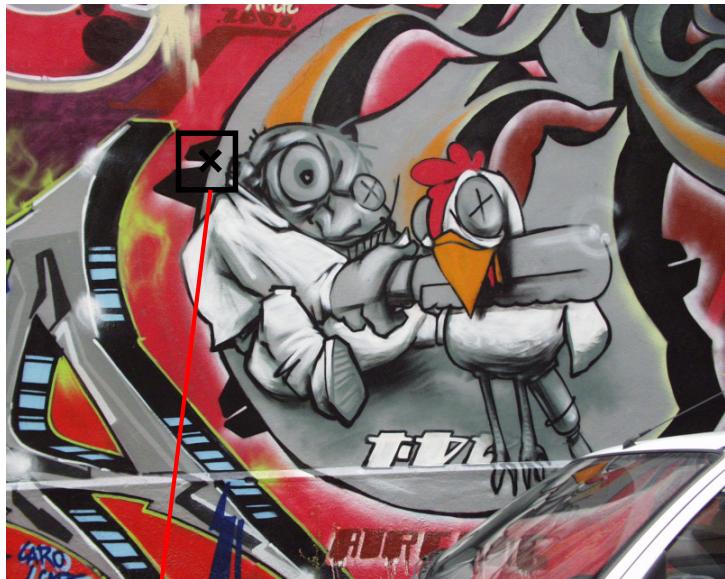
Automatic Scale Selection

- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)

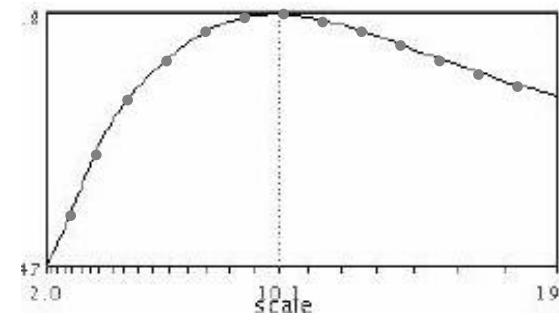


Automatic Scale Selection

- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)



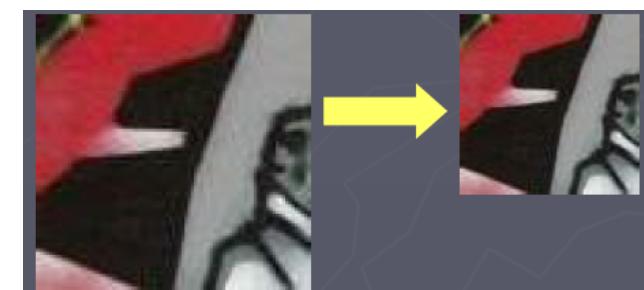
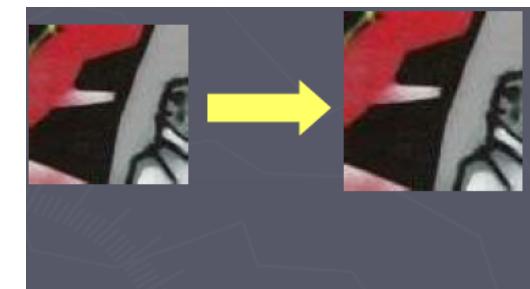
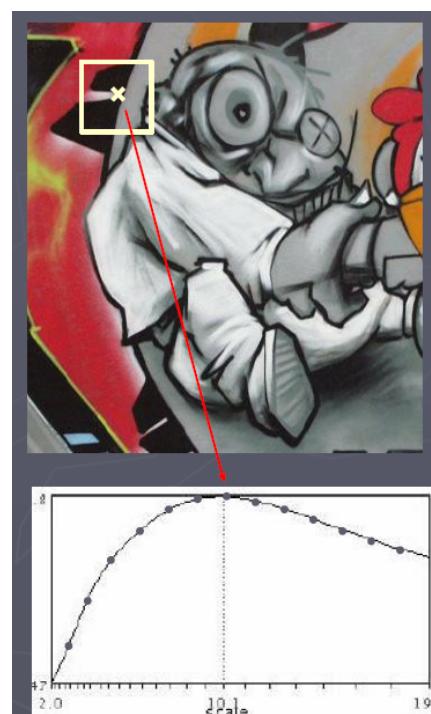
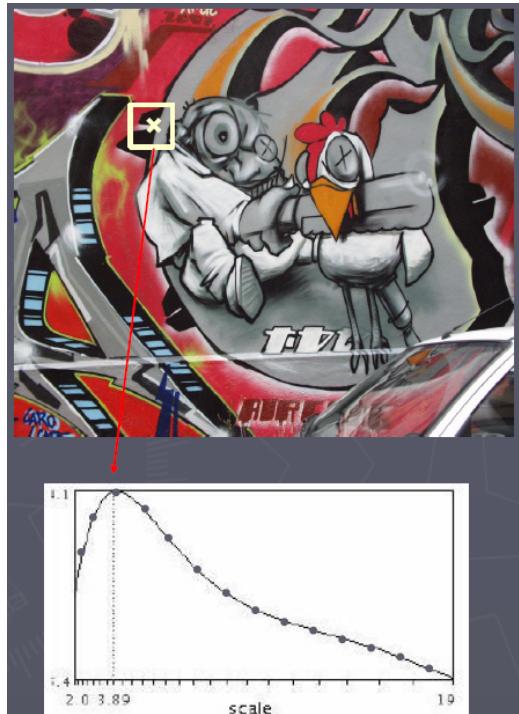
$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$



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

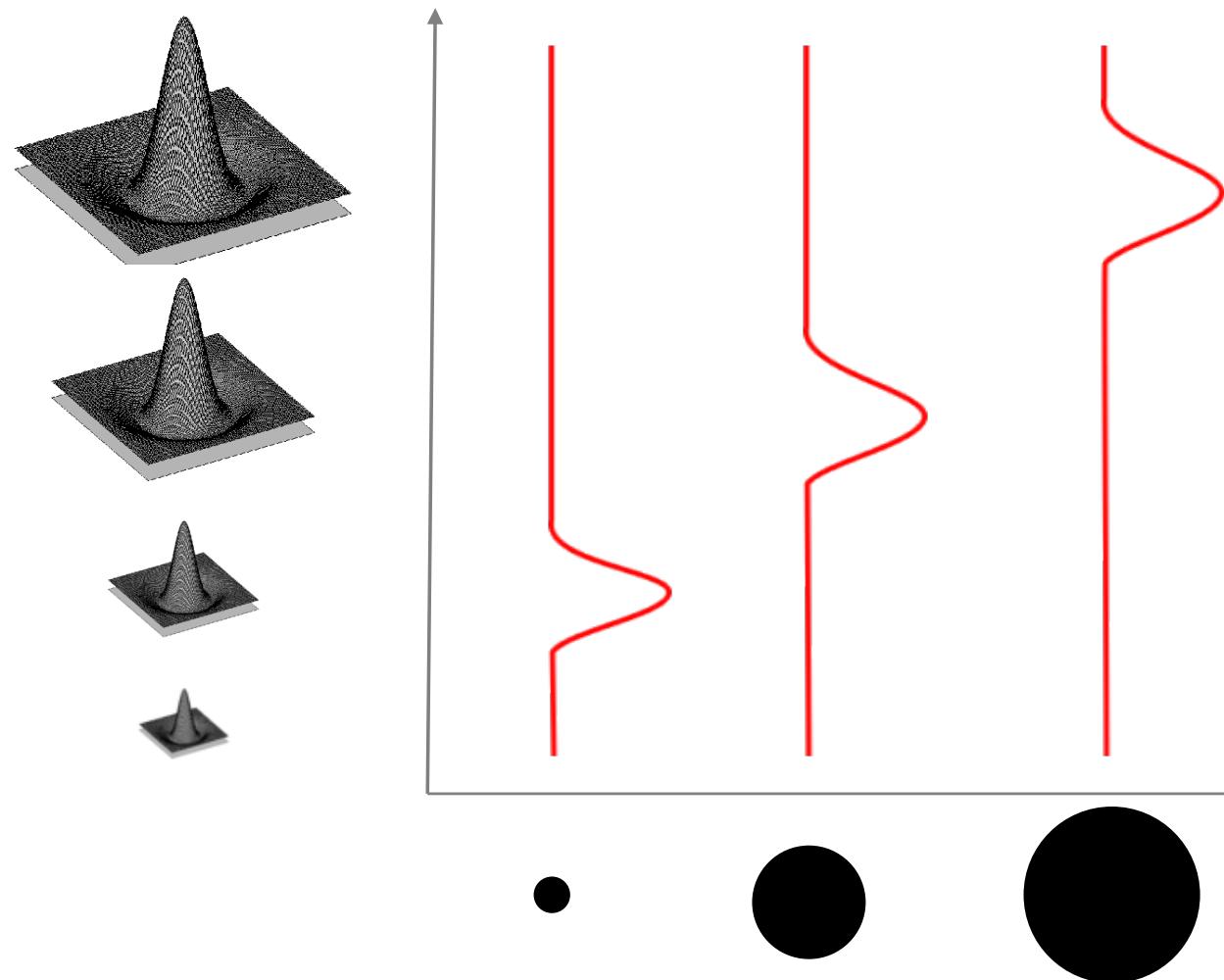
Scale selection

- Use the scale determined by detector to compute descriptor in a normalized frame



what is a useful signature function?

- Laplacian-of-Gaussian = “blob” detector



dealing with scale

If the scale of the patches is unknown, the detector should be stable with respect to scale.

Two approaches:

Laplacian of Gaussian: $L(x, y, \sigma) = \nabla^2 G(x, y, \sigma)^* I(x, y)$ Lindberg, 1993

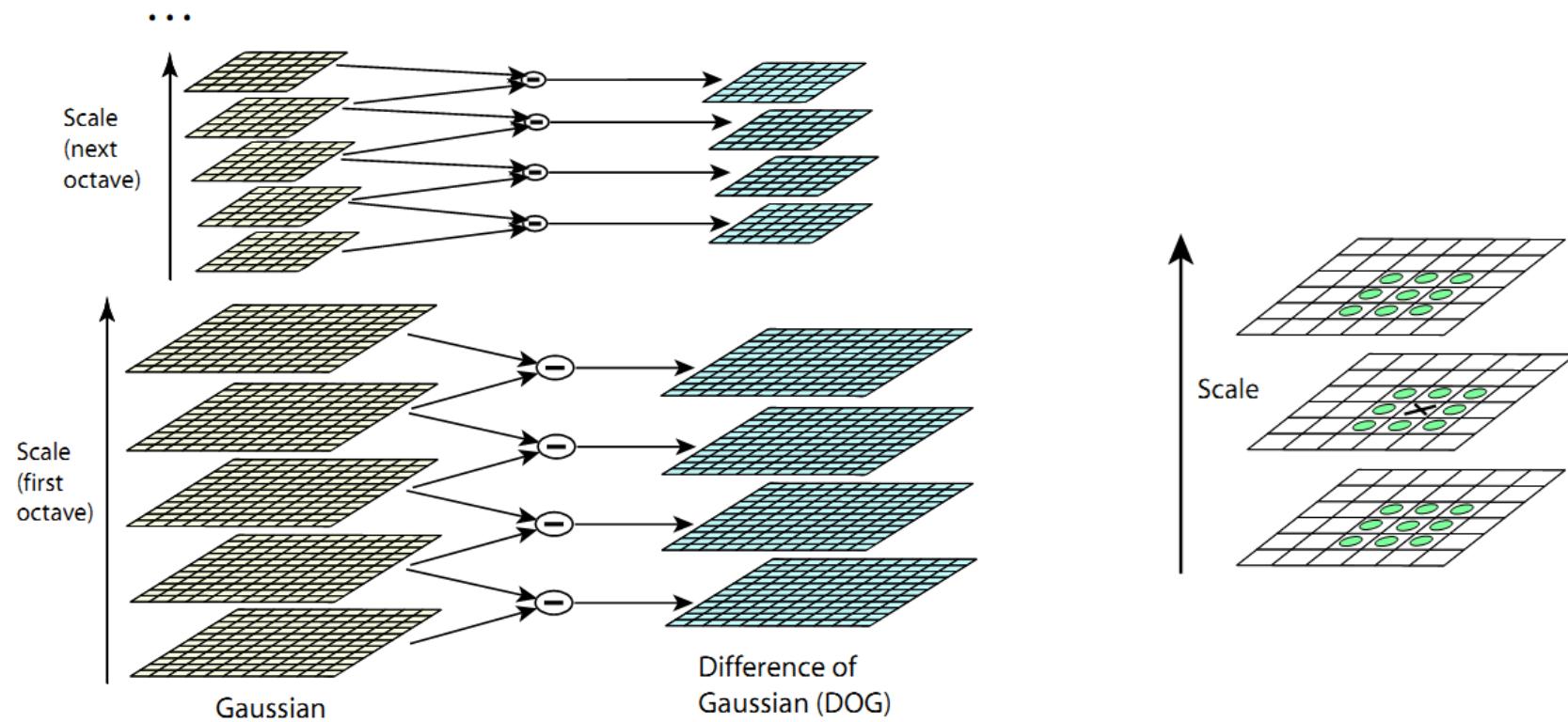
Gaussian kernel

Difference of Gaussians: $D(x, y, \sigma) = G(x, y, \sigma)^* I(x, y) - G(x, y, k\sigma)^* I(x, y)$ Lowe, 2004

approximate solution

Keypoints located at local minima and maxima. They provide (x,y) coordinates and scale.

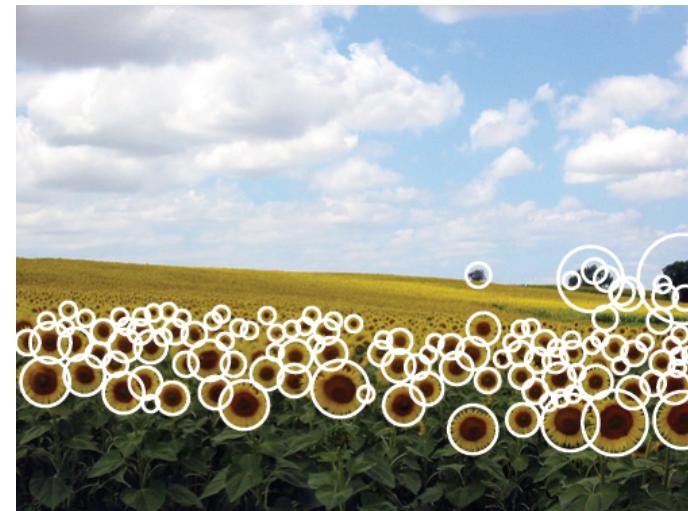
Scale invariante keypoint detection



difference of Gaussians (DoG) representation

detection of local maxima
and minima

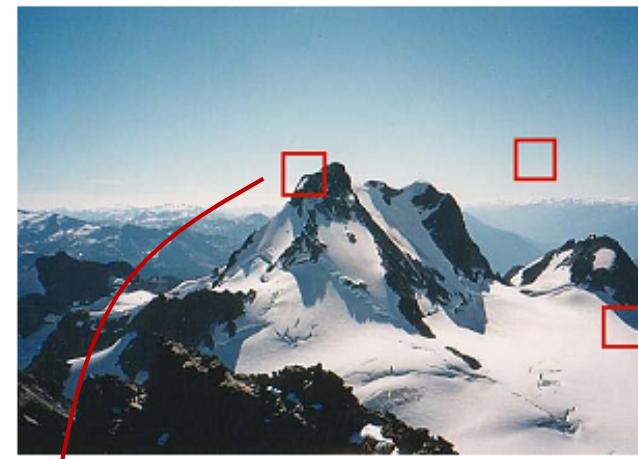
Patch representation



Desired properties

Keypoint should be represented by a small set of features (descriptor), robust with respect to the following changes:

- translation ✓
- rotation
- scaling ✓
- affine transforms
- intensity changes



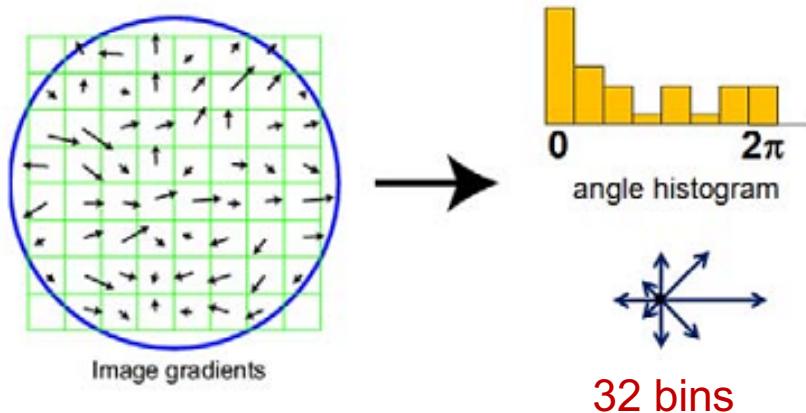
patch

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

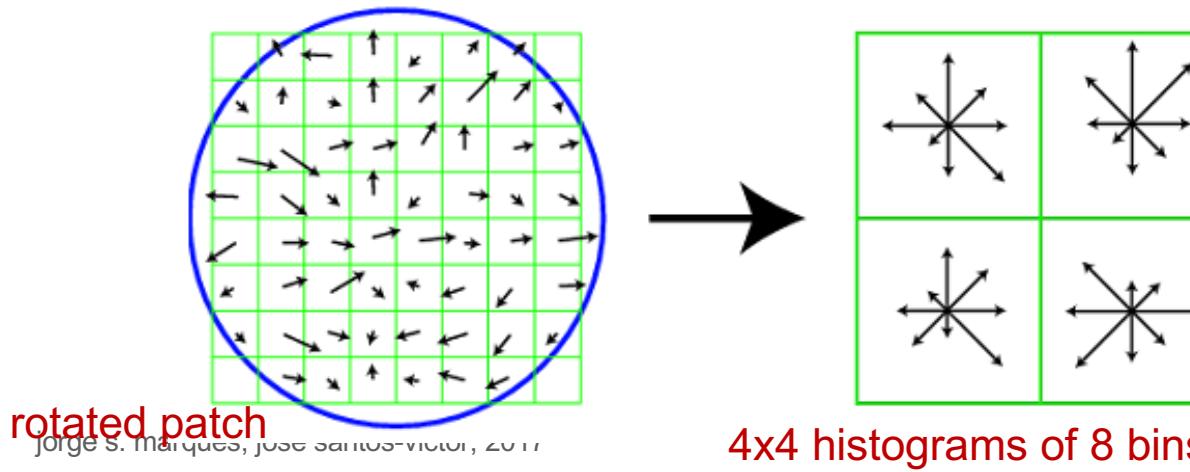
descriptor

Feature representation (SIFT)

invariance to rotation



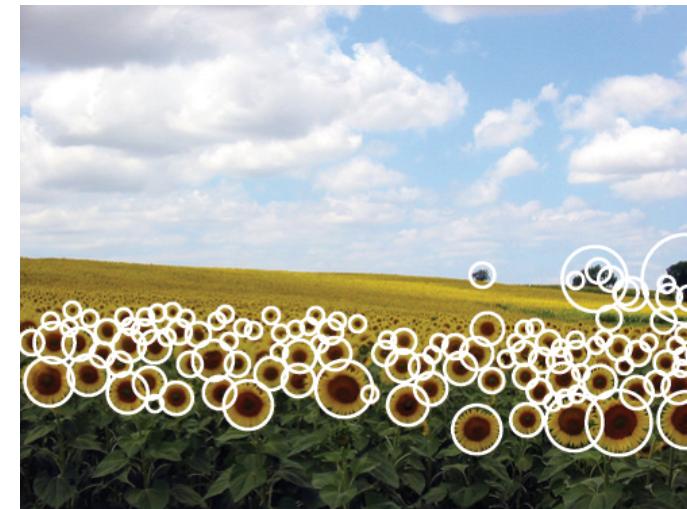
local histograms



This figure is simplified. The SIFT features use 4x4 local histograms.

The descriptor contains
 $4 \times 4 \times 8 = 128$ features

Matching



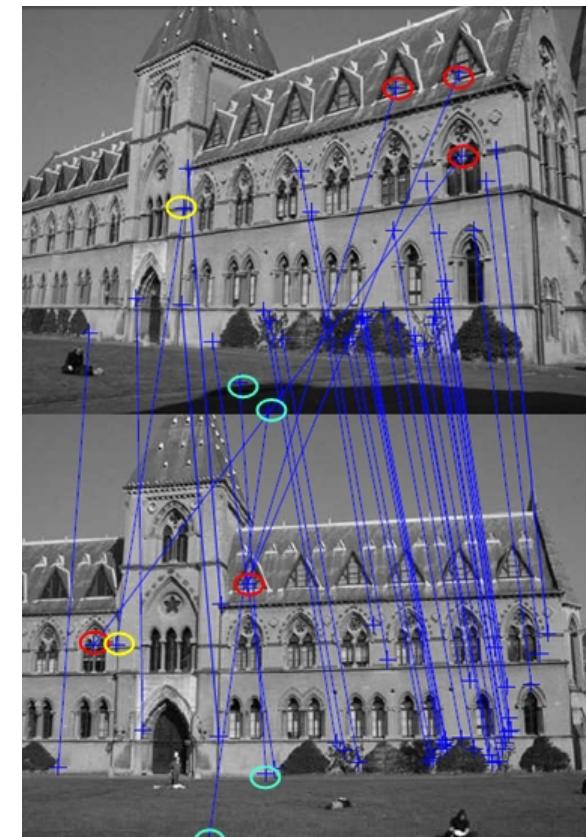
Keypoint matching

Given a set of keypoints and descriptors of 2 images

image I_0 : $\{x_{0i}, d_{0i}\}$

image I_1 : $\{x_{1j}, d_{1j}\}$

how do we match the keypoints in both images?

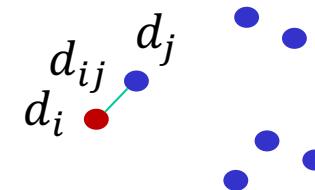


Imaging.utk.edu

Keypoint matching (SIFT)

Given two feature vectors d_{0i}, d_{1j} extracted from different images we can measure their similarity by computing the Euclidean norm

$$d_{ij} = \|d_i - d_j\|$$

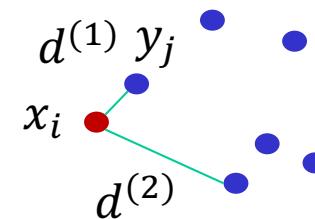


For each d_{0i} , we select the nearest d_{1j} and accept the match if the distance is small enough

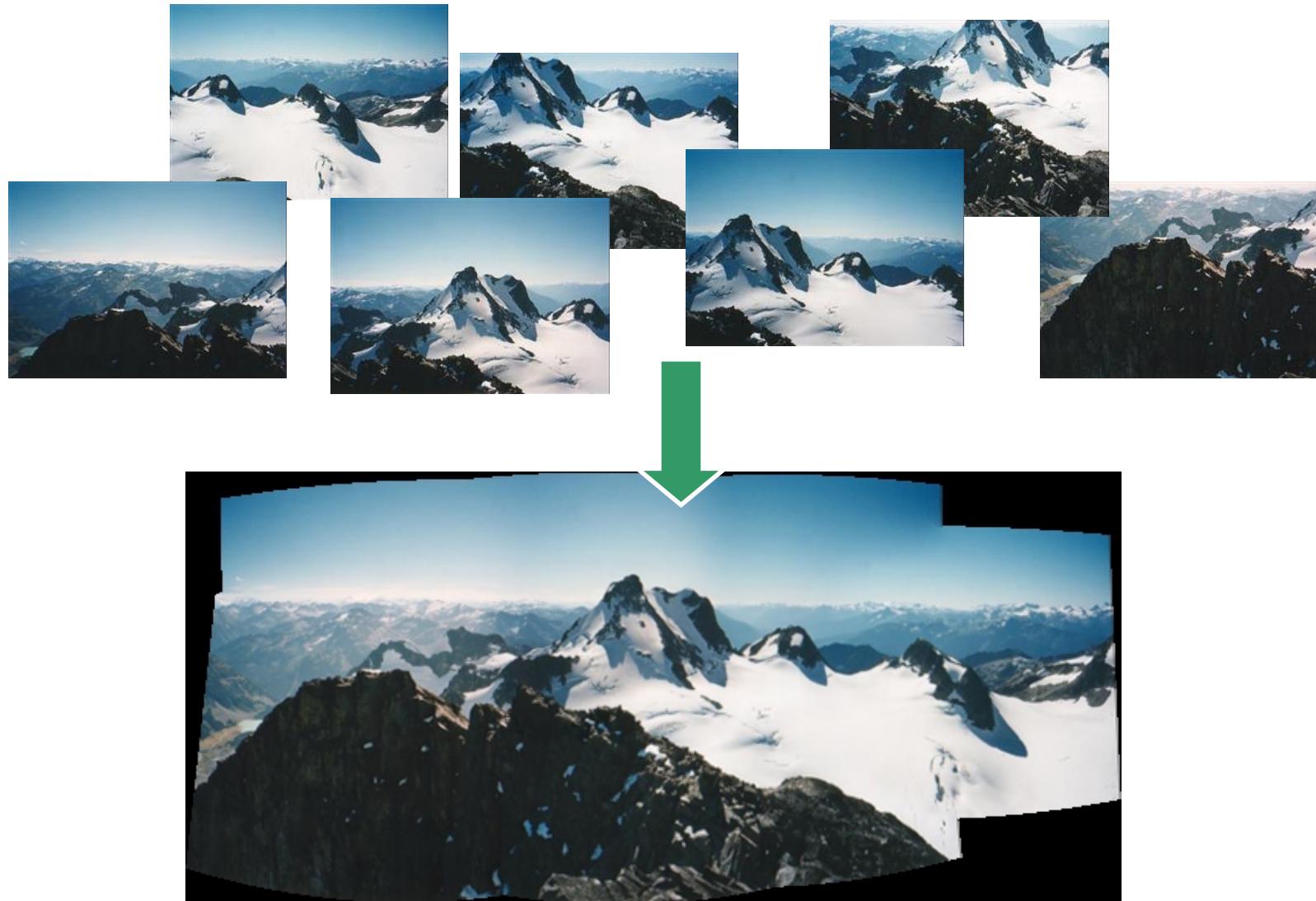
$$\min_j d_{ij} < \lambda$$

This criteria does not work well in practice. Better results are obtained if we use the two closest neighbors

$$\frac{d^{(1)}}{d^{(2)}} < \lambda$$



Application: Image Stitching

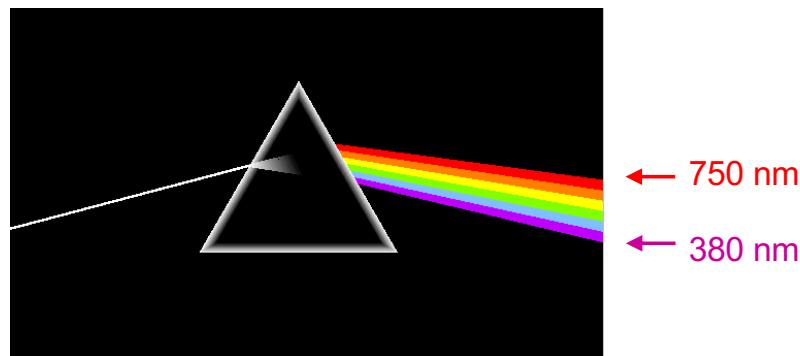


[Microsoft Digital Image Pro version 10]



color

Visible spectrum



380 nm

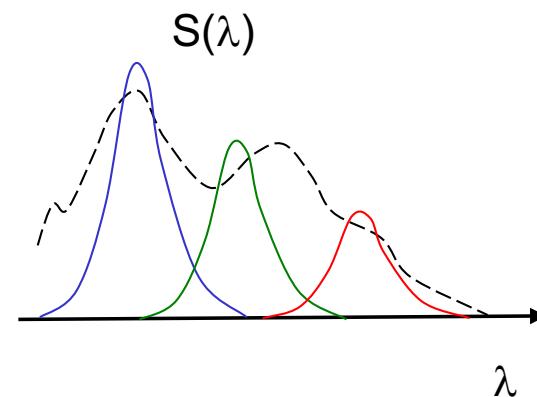
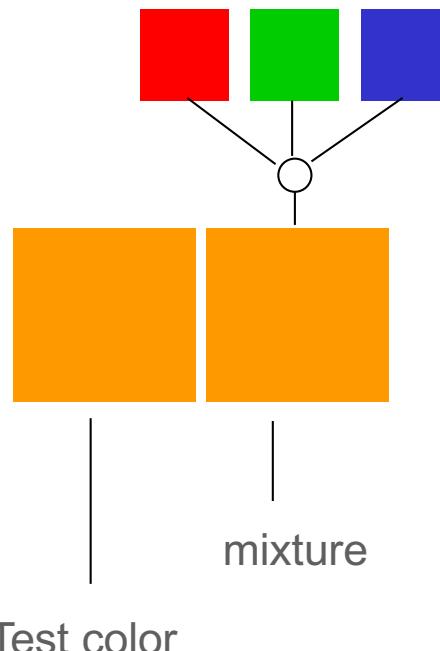
750 nm

Trichromatic theory

Proposed by Tomas Young (XVIII Cent.) and Helmholtz (XIX Cent.)

Helmholtz showed that any color (?) can be synthesized by a mixture of three primary colors.

experience



$$\hat{S}(\lambda) = c_1 P_1(\lambda) + c_2 P_2(\lambda) + c_3 P_3(\lambda)$$

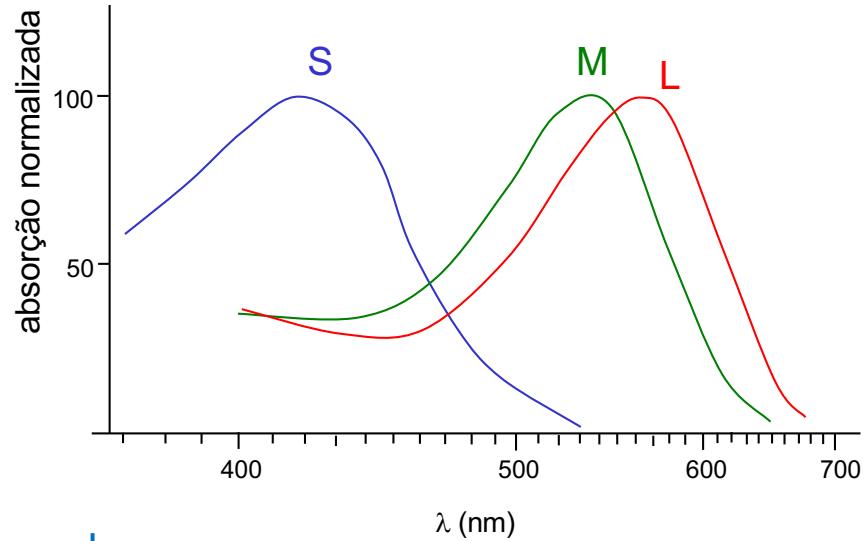
counterintuitive, with 3 primary colors we cannot approximate a given spectrum $S(\lambda)$ well!

Young believed that there were 3 color sensitive structures in the human retinae. True?...

Retina

As Young guessed, there are three types of photosensitive cells in the retina, called **cones**.

The three types of cones have different spectral sensitivity (absorption).



Two incident spectra may be different and still produce the same color perception. → **meromorfism**

The response of the i^{th} cone to a light source with spectrum $S(\lambda)$ is

$$R_i(S) = \int S(\lambda)S_i(\lambda)d\lambda$$

Color perception caused by two spectra is the same if the output of the three cones is the same.

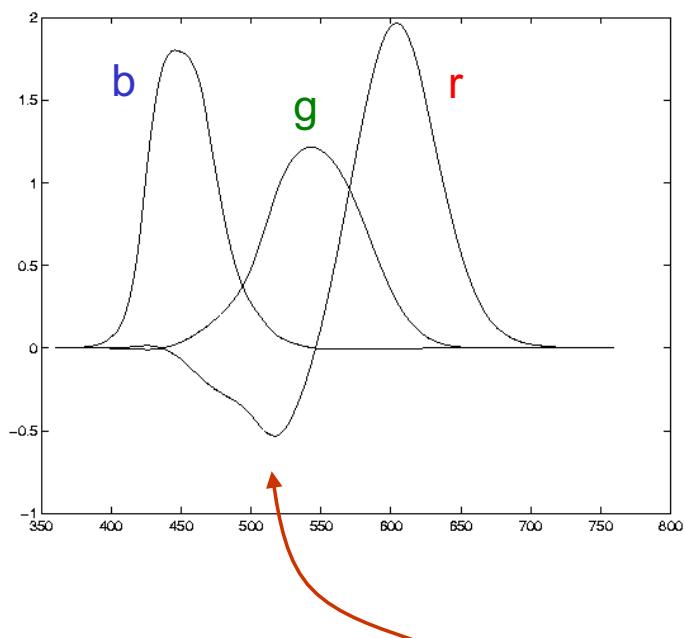
RGB color space

CIE, 1931 – primary spectral system

$$P_j(\lambda) = \delta(\lambda - \lambda_j)$$

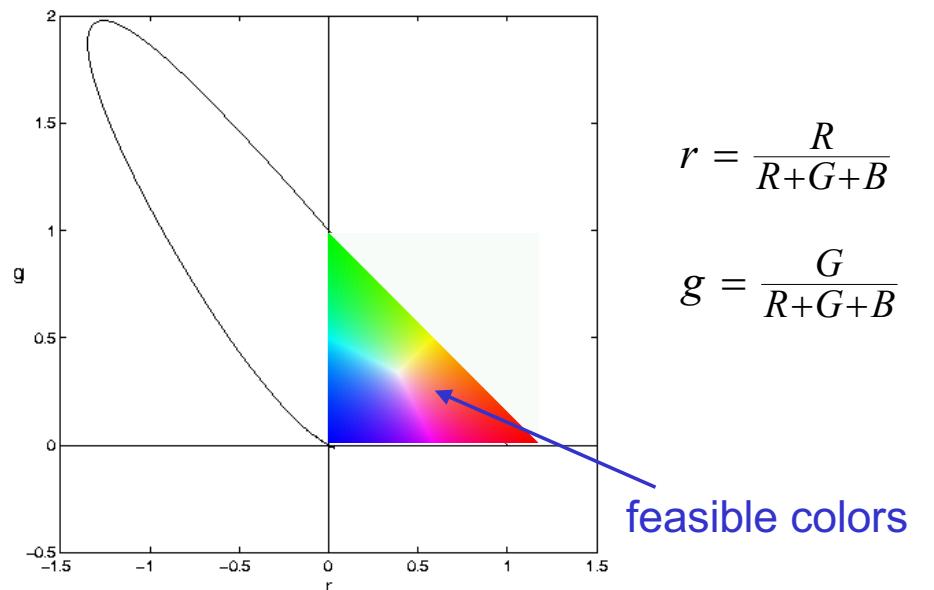
$$\lambda_1 = 700\text{nm (R)} \quad \lambda_2 = 546.1\text{nm (G)} \quad \lambda_3 = 435.8\text{nm (B)}$$

color matching functions



mixture coefficients may be negative?

chromaticity diagram



feasible colors

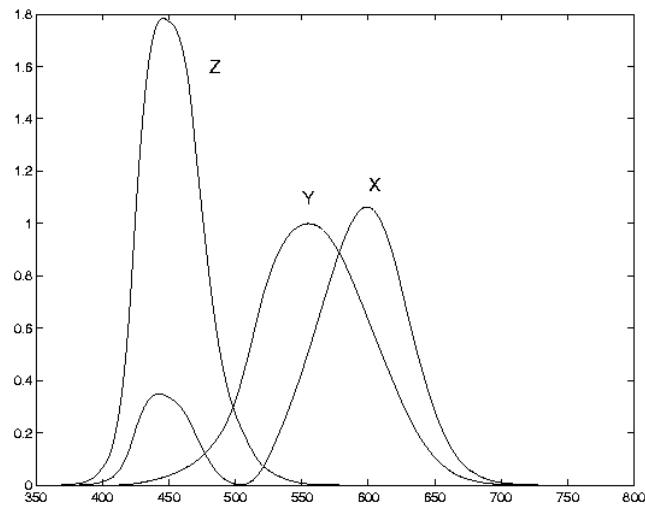
XYZ color space

CIE

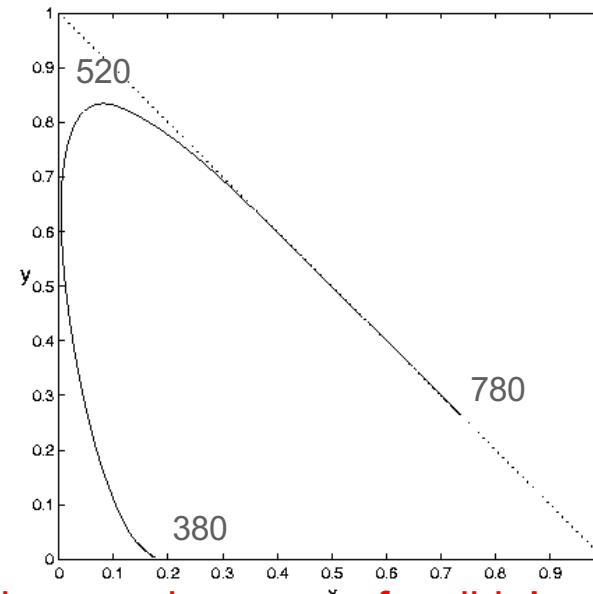
$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.490 & 0.310 & 0.200 \\ 0.177 & 0.813 & 0.011 \\ 0.000 & 0.010 & 0.990 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{bmatrix}$$

Y - luminance

color matching functions



chromaticity diagram

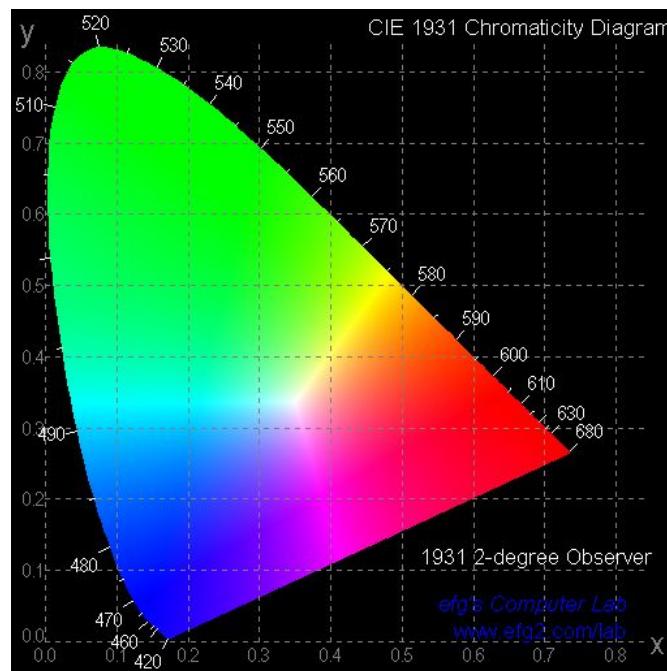


$$x = \frac{X}{X+Y+Z}$$

$$y = \frac{Y}{X+Y+Z}$$

The coefficients are always positive but primary colors are unfeasible!

Chromaticity diagram xy, CIE 1931



Color components



R



G



B



Lab colour space

CIE 1976 – non linear coordinates

$$L^* = 116 \left(\frac{Y}{Y_0} \right)^{1/3} - 16$$

$$a^* = 500 \left[\left(\frac{X}{X_0} \right)^{1/3} - \left(\frac{Y}{Y_0} \right)^{1/3} \right]$$

$$b^* = 200 \left[\left(\frac{Y}{Y_0} \right)^{1/3} - \left(\frac{Z}{Z_0} \right)^{1/3} \right]$$

L* - brightness

a* - amount of red green

b* - amount of blue-yellow

X₀, Y₀, Z₀ – reference white coordinates

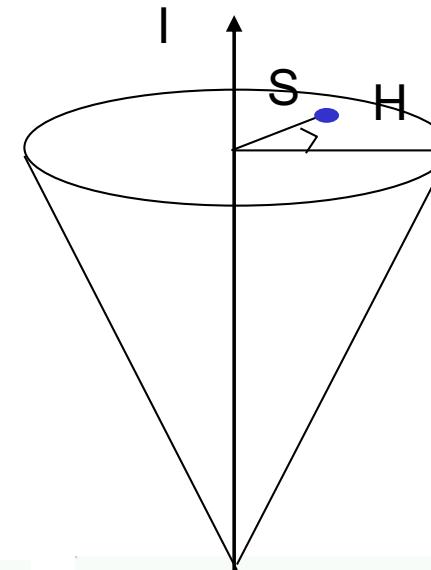
Apropriate for colorimetry: measurement of color differences

HSI colour space

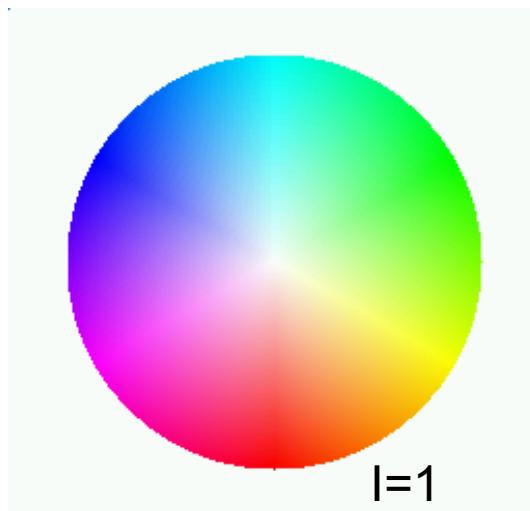
H – hue

S – saturation

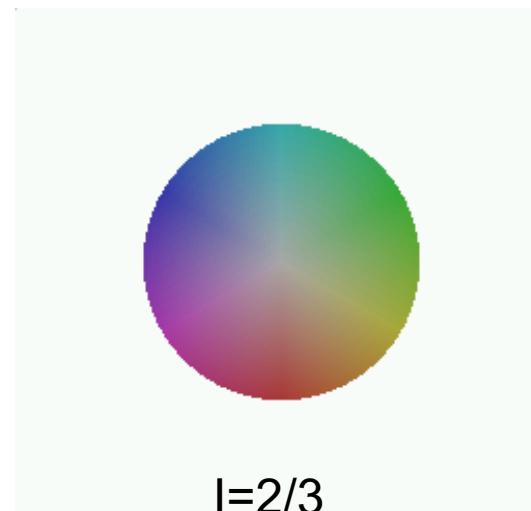
I – intensity



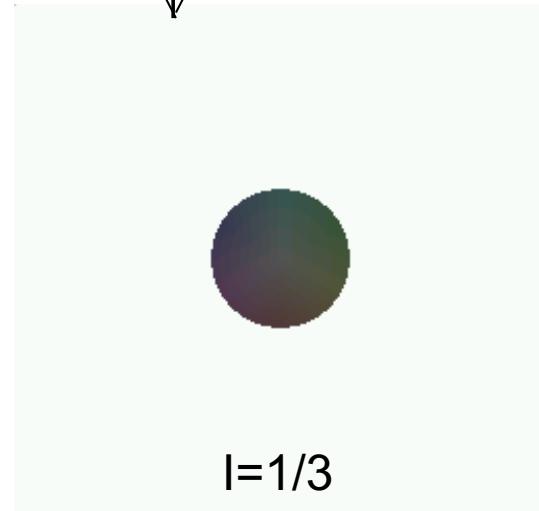
Representation close to the human colour perception



$I=1$



$I=2/3$



$I=1/3$

Conversion formulas

$$I = \frac{1}{3}(R + G + B)$$

Gonzalez & Woods

$$S = 1 - \frac{3 \min(R, G, B)}{R + G + B}$$

$$H = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{0.5(R-G+R-B)}{\sqrt{(R-G)^2 + (R-B)(G-B)}} \right) & B > G \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2\pi} \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{0.5(R-G+R-B)}{\sqrt{(R-G)^2 + (R-B)(G-B)}} \right) & B \leq G \end{cases}$$

$$B = \frac{1}{3}(1-S), \quad R = \frac{1}{3}[1 + \frac{S \cos \theta}{\cos(\theta - \frac{\pi}{3})}], \quad G = 1 - (B + R), \quad \theta = \cos(2\pi H), \quad 0 \leq H < \frac{1}{3}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{3}(1-S), \quad G = \frac{1}{3}[1 + \frac{S \cos \theta}{\cos(\theta - \frac{\pi}{3})}], \quad B = 1 - (R+G), \quad \theta = \cos(2\pi(H - \frac{1}{3})), \quad \frac{1}{3} \leq H < \frac{2}{3}$$

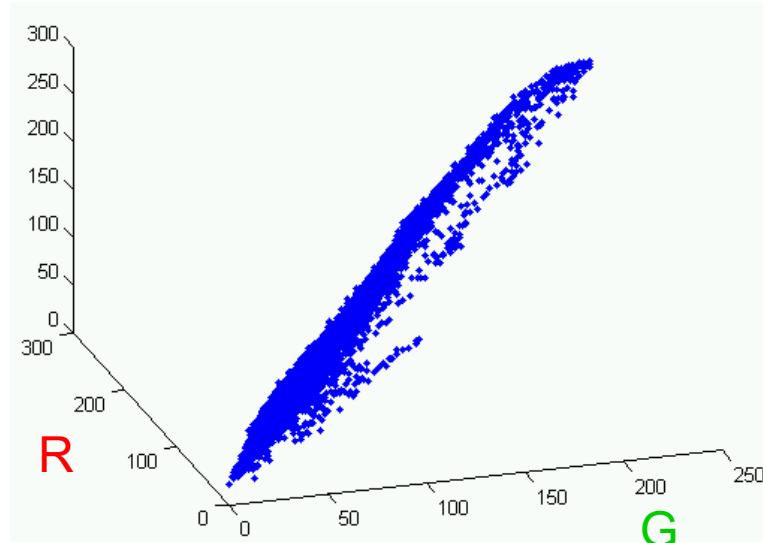
$$G = \frac{1}{3}(1-S), \quad B = \frac{1}{3}[1 + \frac{S \cos \theta}{\cos(\theta - \frac{\pi}{3})}], \quad R = 1 - (G+B), \quad \theta = \cos(2\pi(H - \frac{2}{3})), \quad \frac{2}{3} \leq H < 1$$

How can we describe the content of a color image ?

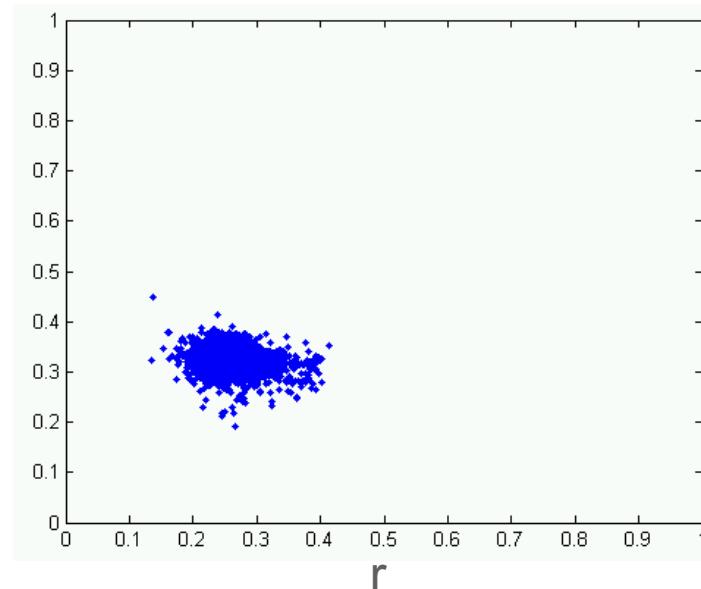
example: shirt



B

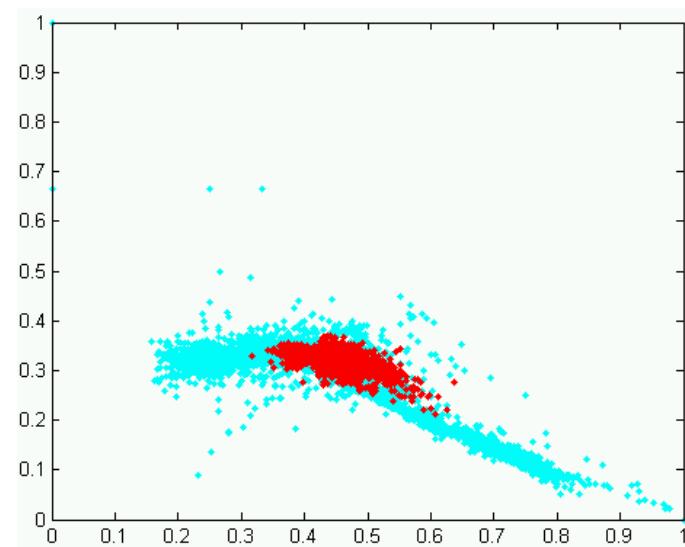
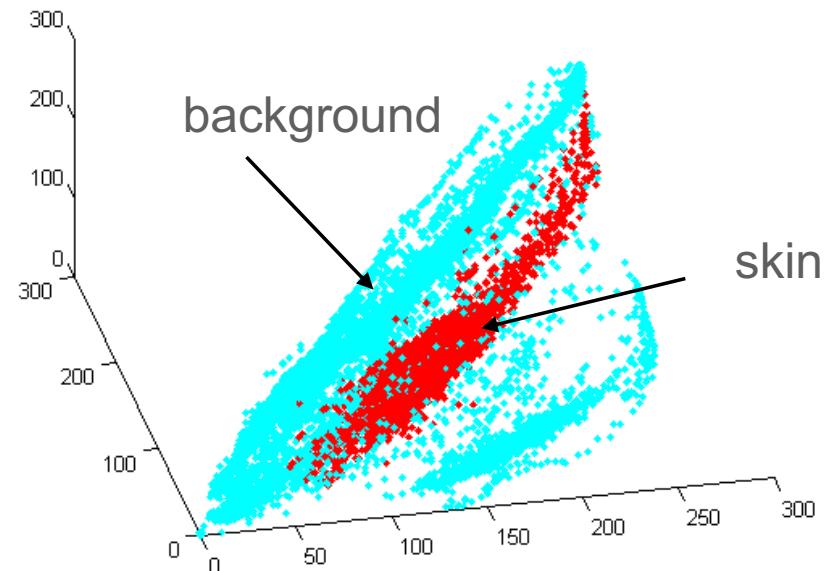
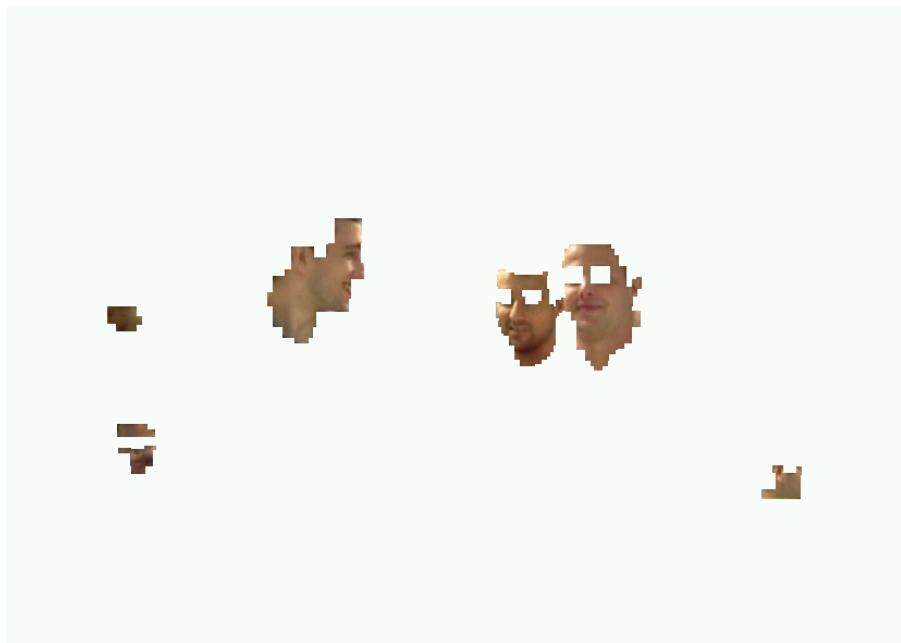


g

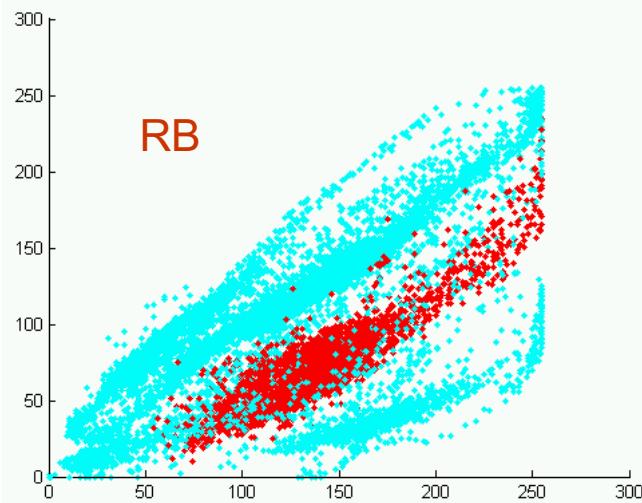
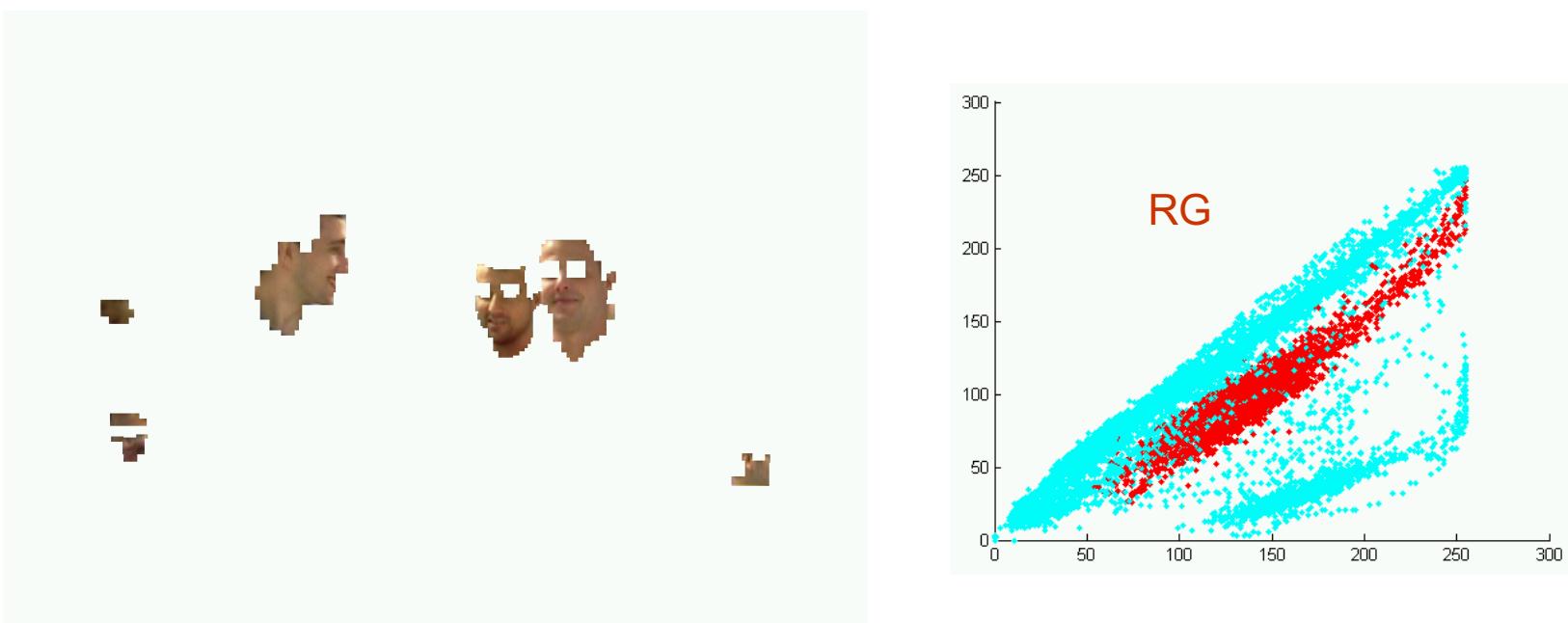


color variations are smaller in rg space

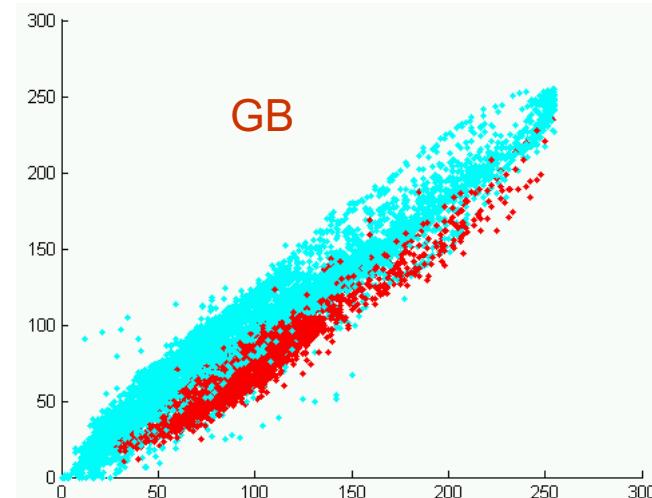
example: skin



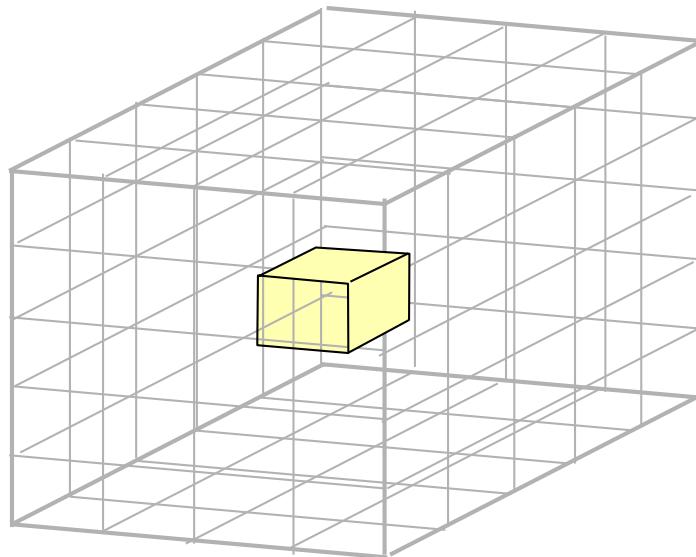
example - skin



jorge s. marques, jose santos-victor, 2017



Color histogram



Count the number of pixels falling (voting) in each cell.

h_k - number of pixels in the k-th cell

Spatial information is destroyed in the histogram computation.

The RGB color space is very popular but other color spaces are used as well.

Probabilistic interpretation

We may assume that image pixels are realizations of a discrete random variable with probability distribution

$$P(k) = C h_k \quad \text{C – normalization constant}$$

The comparison between a pair of images using their histograms becomes a comparison between probability distributions.

Histogram measures

Euclidean norm

$$\sum_k [P_1(k) - P_2(k)]^2$$

Minimum distance

$$\sum_k \min\{P_1(k), P_2(k)\}$$

Kullback divergence

$$\sum_k P_1(k), \log \frac{P_2(k)}{P_1(k)}$$