### **Multi-modal Registration of Visual Data**

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## Overview

- Introduction and Background
- Features Detection and Description (2D case)
- Features Detection and Description (3D case)
- Image-geometry registration
- Recent Advances and Applications

## Overview

- Introduction and Background
- Features Detection and Description (2D case)
  - Image Filtering and Image Derivatives
  - Edge extraction (Hough Transform, RANSAC)
  - Corners Harris Corner Detector
  - Scale Invariant Detection (LoG, DoG)
  - Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT)
  - SURF
  - Affine-invariant Regions (IBR, MSER)
  - Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG)
- Features Detection and Description (3D case)
- Image-geometry registration
- Recent Advances and Applications

## Features Detection and Description (2D case)

## Local and Global Features

- Features can be *global* or *local*.
- We concentrate on local features, which are more robust w.r.t:
  - Occlusions
  - Variations
- Local features can be widely applied.

## Main Motivations

- Image Registration
- 3D Reconstruction
- Visual Tracking
- Object Recognition
- Etc..

### Automatic Panorama



Musée du Louvre - Paris by David Engle (from GigaPan.com)

## **Panorama Creation**

 We have two images – how do we combine them?



## Panorama Creation

• Motivation: panorama stitching

– We have two images – how do we combine them?



Step 1: extract features Step 2: match features

## Panorama Creation

 We have two images – how do we combine them?



Step 1: extract features Step 2: match features Step 3: align images

## Image matching



by <u>Diva Sian</u>



#### by <u>swashford</u>

## Harder case



by <u>Diva Sian</u>

by <u>scgbt</u>

## Visual Tracking - SLAM

• Let's me show you a video..

## **Features Properties**

- Robustness
  - Invariant to translation, rotation, scale
  - Robust to *affine* geometric transformation
  - Robust to photometric variations
- Distinctiveness ("interesting" structure)
- Locality (local features are usually robust to occlusions and clutter)
- Repeatability
- Accuracy
- Quantity
- Computational Efficiency

## Features Detection and Description

- Image Features:
  - Corners
  - Edges
  - Blobs
  - Keypoints
- The features detected can be described using a *feature descriptor*.

## Image Processing

- Many feature detectors involve the computation of first or second order derivatives.
- Often the image is filtered before to calculate its derivatives.
- Image derivatives are approximated using forward/backward of central differences.

## Image Filtering

Input Image I (8 × 8 pixels)



A generic filter of 3 x 3 kernel size.

## Image Filtering



## Blurring – Box Filter

- Simpler form of blurring → averaging the pixel values on the support of the filter.
- Constant weighting function:

Example of 5 x 5 kernel (T = 25)

## **Box Filter**



#### **Original Image**

Image Filtered (9x9 box filter)

## Blurring – Gaussian Filter

- More the pixels are far from the central one and less they influence the average.
- 2D Gaussian:  $g(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma}e^{-\frac{(x^2+y^2)}{2\sigma^2}}$



8

Weights of a 7x7 Gaussian filter

## **Gaussian Filter**



#### **Original Image**

Image Filtered (9x9 Gaussian filter)

• Numerical approximations of derivatives:

Forward Differences:  $\Delta_x(x_i) = f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)$ 

Backward Differences: 
$$\Delta_x(x_i) = f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})$$

Central Differences: 
$$\Delta_x(x_i) = \frac{f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1})}{2}$$

• First-order derivatives using the central differences:

Horizontal derivative  $\frac{\partial I}{\partial x} = I_x = I(x+1,y) - I(x-1,y)$   $\frac{\partial I}{\partial y} = I_y = I(x,y-1) - I(x,y+1)$ Vertical derivative

• Matrix form of the first-order derivatives:

$$W_{\Delta_x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad W_{\Delta_y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Image Derivatives $(I_x)$



## Image Derivatives $(I_y)$



• More accurate numerical approximations:

**Prewitt operator:** 

$$W_{\Delta_x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad W_{\Delta_y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sobel operator:

$$W_{\Delta_x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad W_{\Delta_y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Edge Detection with the Sobel Operator

- Apply the Sobel operator and obtain  $I_x$  and  $I_y$
- Gradient magnitude:  $|G| = \sqrt{I_x^2 + I_y^2}$

(edge strength)

• Gradient direction:  $G_{\theta} = \operatorname{atan2}(I_y, I_x)$ 

## Edge Detection with the Sobel Operator



## Edge extraction

- We know for each pixel the edge strength (and the direction).
- Some parts of the image lines are missing / some parts are noisy.
- Improve the detection  $\rightarrow$  fit segments/lines
  - RANSAC
  - Hough transform

## RANSAC

- Random Samples Consensus (RANSAC): an iterative general method to estimate parameters of a mathematical model starting from data containing (many) outliers.
- Not only for edges → widely applied in Computer
  Vision (!) → simple and very robust to the presence of outliers.

Martin A. Fischler and Robert C. Bolles, "Random Sample Consensus: A Paradigm for Model Fitting with Applications to Image Analysis and Automated Cartography", Comm. of the ACM 24 (6): pp. 381–395, 1981.

## RANSAC algorithm

- Get randomly a minimal set of data that solves the model we want to estimate
- Check the number of inliers (evaluate the consensus)
- Iterate
  - Until a maximum number of iterations is reached
  - Until a certain stop condition is reached
- Get the solution with the maximum consensus

## **RANSAC** for edges

## **RANSAC** for edges

Select two points



## **RANSAC** for edges

Fit the line


#### **Evaluate consensus (3 inliers)**



Get other two points







- The *Hough transform* is a technique to detect features of a particular shape within an image.
- It requires that the desired features be specified in some parametric form.
- The *classical* Hough transform is most commonly used for the detection of regular curves such as lines, circles, ellipses, *etc*.
- A *generalized* Hough transform can be employed in applications where a simple analytic description of a feature(s) is not possible (i.e. work using templates).

- The idea is to pass from the image space to a parameter space; the *Hough space*.
- Lines are parameterized as:



- Points (x,y) in image space corresponds to sinusoids in the Hough space.
- Points (*r*, θ) in Hough space corresponds to lines in image space.
   Co-liner points intersect at an unique point.







- In a nutshell: a voting scheme in a parameter space.
- Improvements:
  - Direction information (gradient)
  - Smoothing

#### Corners



## What is a "corner" ?



"flat" region: no change in all directions



"edge": no change along the edge direction



"corner":

significant change in all directions

Credit: S. Seitz, D. Frolova, D. Simakov

## Harris Corner Detection

Consider shifting the 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)



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

## Small motion assumption

• Taylor expansion:

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

• First-order approximation is good for small motion:

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

#### Harris Corner Detection

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



$$\approx \sum_{(x,y)\in W} \left( I_x(x,y)u + I_y(x,y)v \right)^2$$

$$\approx \sum_{(x,y)\in W} \left( I_x^2 u^2 + 2I_x I_y uv + I_y^2 v^2 \right)$$

#### Harris Corner Detection

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

$$\approx \sum_{(x,y)\in W} \left( I_x^2 u^2 + 2I_x I_y uv + I_y^2 v^2 \right)$$

 $\approx Au^2 + 2Buv + Cv^2$ 

$$A = \sum_{(x,y)\in W} I_x^2 \qquad B = \sum_{(x,y)\in W} I_x I_y \qquad C = \sum_{(x,y)\in W} I_y^2$$

# Second Moment Matrix (M)

The surface E(u,v) is locally approximated by a quadratic form.

$$E(u, v) \approx Au^{2} + 2Buv + Cv^{2}$$

$$\approx \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \sum_{(x,y)\in W} I_x^2 \qquad B = \sum_{(x,y)\in W} I_x I_y \qquad C = \sum_{(x,y)\in W} I_y^2$$

### Harris Corner Detection

*E(u,v)* can be rewritten as:

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

## Second Moment Matrix (M)

The surface E(u,v) is locally approximated by a quadratic form.

-d----

$$E(u,v) \approx [u \ v] \ M \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$
$$M = \sum \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_x I_y & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Second Moment Matrix (M)

The shape of **M** tells us something about the *distribution* of gradients around a pixel.

The *eigenvectors* of **M** identify the directions of fastest and slowest change.





Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of **M** 

- Define shift directions with the smallest and largest change in error
- $x_{max}$  = direction of largest increase in *E*
- $\lambda_{max}$  = amount of increase in direction  $x_{max}$
- $x_{min}$  = direction of smallest increase in *E*
- $\lambda_{\min}$  = amount of increase in direction  $x_{\min}$

# **Corners/Edges Classification**

Classification of image points using eigenvalues of M:

in all directions



#### **Cornerness Measure**

$$R = \det(M) - k \operatorname{Tr}(M)^2$$

 $det(M) = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$  $Tr(M) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ 

#### Harris Detector – example



#### Harris Detector – example



#### Harris Detector – example



### Harris Detector – threshold



#### Harris Detector – local maxima

### Harris Detector – corners in red



# Weighting the derivatives

 In practice, using a simple window W does not work well (noisy response):

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

• It is better to *weight* each derivative value based on its distance from the center pixel:

$$M = \sum_{(x,y\in W)} w_{x,y} \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_x I_y & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



 $w_{x,y}$ 

### Harris Corner Detection -Robustness

- Partially invariant to intensity changes (l'(x,y) = a
   l(x,y) + b)
- Translation invariance (yes) → corner location is covariant.
- Rotational invariance (yes) → eigenvalues remains the same (ellipse rotate).



- The same feature in different images can have different size.
- **Goal:** find a function of the region size which responds equally for corresponding regions of different size.

 For a point in one image, we can consider it as a function of the region size (e.g. radius of a circle):



 It is common to consider the local maximum of such function → corresponding region size should be covariant with image scale.



• A good function for scale detection should have a peak easily identifiable:



 Common *characteristic scale functions* can be defined by composing the derivatives of the images convolved with Gaussians of different size.
#### Scale Space Image Representation

• A family of images convolved with a Gaussian kernel of different size.

$$L(x, y; s) = G(x, y; s) * I(x, y)$$

$$G(x,y;s) = \frac{1}{2\pi s} e^{-(x^2 + y^2)/2s}$$

(note that  $s = \sigma^2$ )



Original



S

s = 2.5



s = 5.0



s = 10.0



s = 25.0

s = 50.0



**Original Image** 

#### Why Gaussian Kernels ?

- Gaussian kernels satisfies *scale-space axioms*.
- Derivatives of the scale space can be easily obtained through convolution with Gaussian derivatives:

$$\partial_{x^n y^m} L(x, y; s) = (\partial_{x^n y^m} G(x, y; s)) * I(x, y)$$
$$L_{x^n y^m}(x, y; s)$$

#### Scale Space Image Representation



 $G_{xx}$ 

# Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG)

• The *Laplacian* of an image *I(x,y)* can be used to detect edges (zero-crossing).

$$\nabla^2 I(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial_x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial_y^2}$$

In a scale-space representation this can be calculated as

$$\nabla^2 L = L_{xx} + L_{yy}$$

Laplacian of Gaussian

#### Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG)



Source: S. Seitz

#### Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG)

#### The LoG can be used also as a **blob detector**.





#### **Blob Detection at Multiple Scale**

 The local extrema of the LoG response in the scale-space representation can be used to detected "blob" region at different scale.





#### **Automatic Scale Selection**

 A scale-space representation can be made invariant to scales, by performing automatic local scale selection by using *y-normalized derivatives\**:

$$\partial_{\xi} = s^{\gamma/2} \partial_x \ , \ \partial_{\eta} = s^{\gamma/2} \partial_y$$

$$\partial_{\xi^n \eta^m} L(x, y; s) = s^{(m+n)\gamma/2} L_{x^n y^m}(x, y; s)$$

T. Lindeberg, "Feature Detection with Automatic Scale Selection", *Int. Journal of Computer Vision,* Vol. 30(2), pp. 79-116, 1998.

#### Automatic Scale Selection

• The scale at which a *scale-normalized differential entity* assumes a local extremum over scales is proportional to the size of the corresponding image structure in the image domain.

$$\nabla^2 L = L_{xx} + L_{yy}$$

$$\det H = L_{xx}L_{yy} - L_{xy}^2$$

#### LoG

Determinant of the *Hessian matrix* 

$$H = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} L_{xx} & L_{xy} \\ L_{xy} & L_{yy} \end{array} \right]$$

#### **Automatic Scale Selection**

#### Scale-normalized version

$$\nabla^2 L \to \nabla^2_{norm} L = s \left( L_{xx} + L_{yy} \right)$$

$$\det H \to \det H_{norm} = s^2 (L_{xx} L_{yy} - L_{xy}^2)$$

(these are an example of the characteristic scale function mentioned before)

#### original window







scale estimate

scale normalized



W







Lindeberg T (2013) "Invariance of visual operations at the level of receptive Fields" *PLoS ONE 8(7): e66990. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0066990.* 

#### **Scale Invariant Harris Detector**



K. Mikolajczyk and C. Schmid, "Indexing based on scale invariant interest points", *Proc. of ICCV 2001*, 2001.

#### Scale Inv. Harris Detector (Harris-Laplace)

• Scale-adapted Harris Corner detector:

$$\mathbf{C}(x,y,s,\bar{s}) = s^2 G(x,y,\bar{s}) * \begin{bmatrix} L_x^2(x,y,s) & L_x L_y(x,y,s) \\ L_x L_y(x,y,s) & L_y^2(x,y,s) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R = \det(\mathbf{C}) - k \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{C})^2$$

• Local extrema of LoG is used for scale selection.

K. Mikolajczyk and C. Schmid, "Indexing based on scale invariant interest points", *Proc. of ICCV 2001*, 2001.

#### Harris-Laplace Detector



K. Mikolajczyk and C. Schmid, "Indexing based on scale invariant interest points", *Proc. of ICCV 2001*, 2001.

# Scale Invariant Features Transform (SIFT\*)

- Presented by Lowe\* in 2004 (patented).
- Rotation and Scale invariant
- Robust to
  - Viewpoint change
  - Illumination change
- It is one of the most used detector/descriptor.

\*David G. Lowe, "Distinctive image features from scale-invariant keypoints", *Int. J. of Computer Vision, 60(2), pp. 91-110*, 2004.

# SIFT – Stages of Computation

Detector

Descriptor

- Find Scale-Space Extrema
- Keypoint Localization & Filtering

   Improve keypoints and throw out bad ones
- Orientation Assignment
  - Remove effects of rotation and scale
- Create descriptor
  - Using histograms of orientations

#### **Detection of Scale Space Extrema**

• Stable keypoints are localized using local extrema of *Difference of Gaussian (DoG)* function convolved with the image *I*.

$$L(x, y, \sigma) = G(x, y, \sigma) * I(x, y)$$

 $D(x, y, \sigma) = (G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma)) * I(x, y)$ =  $L(x, y, k\sigma) - L(x, y, \sigma)$ 

#### DoG and LoG

D(x,y,σ) is efficient to compute and it is an approximation of the normalized Laplacian of Gaussian:

From the heat diffusion equation:

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

We can write:

$$\sigma \nabla^2 G = \frac{\partial G}{\partial \sigma} \approx \frac{G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma)}{k\sigma - \sigma}$$
$$G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma) \approx (k - 1)\sigma^2 \nabla^2 G$$

#### DoG and LoG

• Remember that:

$$\nabla_{norm}^2 L = s \nabla^2 L \qquad (s = \sigma^2)$$



From Digital Image Processing course by Bernd Girod, Stanford University. 2013.

#### **Scale Space Extrema Detection**



#### Scale Space Extrema Detection



The minimum/maximum is selected considering a 3 x 3 x 3 neighborhood.

#### Accurate Keypoints Detection

 The detection accuracy can be improved (sub-pixel, sub-space accuracy) by finding the extrema of a local 3D quadratic function which fit locally the scalespace representation (Brown and Lowe 2002):

From Taylor expansion:

$$D(\mathbf{x}) = D + \frac{\partial D}{\partial \mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \frac{\partial^2 D}{\partial \mathbf{x}^2} \mathbf{x}$$

Extrema at : 
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = -\frac{\partial^2 D}{\partial \mathbf{x}^2}^{-1} \frac{\partial D}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$

# **Keypoints Filtering**

- Keypoints are filtered in two ways:
  - Low contrast (unstable extrema)
  - Keypoints that belong to an edge
- Low-contrast check:
  - a keypoint is removed if D(x\*) < 0.03</p>

(image values are normalized in [0,1])

# **Keypoints Filtering**

- A keypoint on an edge "can move" along the edge → not stable.
- Local Hessian matrix (*H*) provides information about curvature of the image.
- In analogy with the Harris Corner Detector, it is possible to use *Det(H)* and *Tr(H)* to write a condition of rejection without computing explicitly the eigenvalues of *H*

#### **Keypoints Filtering**

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{xx} & D_{xy} \\ D_{xy} & D_{yy} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{H}) = D_{xx} + D_{yy} = \alpha + \beta, \\ \operatorname{Det}(\mathbf{H}) = D_{xx}D_{yy} - (D_{xy})^2 = \alpha\beta$$

**Edge Check:** 



*r* is the ratio between the directions of principal curvature





832 keypoints





#### 729 keypoints

536 keypoints

#### SIFT – Orientation Assignment

- To get orientation invariance a reference orientation is assigned to each keypoint.
- First, compute orientation at the selected scale:

$$m(x,y) = \sqrt{L_x^2 + L_y^2}$$
$$\theta(x,y) = \tan^{-1}(L_y/L_x)$$

(note the use of *L(.)* and not *D(.)*)

# SIFT – Orientation Assignment

- An histogram of orientations is accumulated considering the surrounding pixels (σ=1.5).
- The orientation is given by the highest peak.



• A new keypoint (with orientation) is assigned to any peak within the 80% of the highest peak.



2x2 histograms from an 8x8 region

#### SIFT Descriptor

- SIFT descriptor is composed by 4 x 4 histograms (with 8 bins) accumulated over 4 x 4 regions of 4 x 4 size.
- SIFT has 128 components (4x4x8=128)

#### SIFT Performance

- Robust to lighting changes (gradient-based)
- Robust to image noise
- Robust to viewpoint changes

 about 80% repeatability at 35 degree viewpoint change (rotation in depth)

• Very effective in object recognition

## SURF

- First presented at ECCV'06 (Bay et al. 2006\*)
- The aim is to build a *robust* (like SIFT) features detector and descriptor but *fast* to compute.
- Exploit integral image and box filters approximation of Gaussian derivatives.

\*Herbert Bay, Andreas Ess, Tinne Tuytelaars, and Luc Van Gool, "Speed Up Robust Features", *ECCV 2006.* 

#### SURF – Integral Image

The *integral image I<sub>Σ</sub>* is an image such that the pixel (*x*, *y*) contains the sum of all the pixels within the rectangular region defined by the origin (0,0) of the image and the point (*x*, *y*):

$$I_{\Sigma}(x,y) = \sum_{i=0}^{i \le x} \sum_{j=0}^{j \le y} I(x,y)$$

#### SURF – Integral Image

• It is easy to use  $I_{\Sigma}$  to calculate the sum of the pixels in any region of the image:



\*Herbert Bay, Andreas Ess, Tinne Tuytelaars, and Luc Van Gool, "Speed Up Robust Features", *CVIU*, Vol. 110, No. 3, pp. 346–359, 2008.
#### **Gaussian Derivatives Approximation**

• *Box filters* can be used to approximate the computation of Gaussian derivatives:



# **Keypoints Detection**

 Interest point localization is based on the Hessian matrix:

$$H = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} L_{xx} & L_{xy} \\ L_{xy} & L_{yy} \end{array} \right]$$

• The maximum response of the determinant of the Hessian matrix is searched:

$$\det(\mathcal{H}_{\text{approx}}) = D_{xx}D_{yy} - (wD_{xy})^2$$

 $\rightarrow D_{xx}$  is the approximation of  $L_{xx}$  computed using the box filter,  $D_{yy}$  is the approximation of  $L_{yy}$ , and so on..

#### **Scale Space Detection**

 The scale space representation is build by increase the filter size instead of reducing the image size.



#### **Scale Space Detection**

- Maxima in a 3 x 3 x 3 neighborhood.
- Localization

   improvement by the
   same approach in
   SIFT (Brown and Lowe
   2002).



### SURF – Orientation Assignment

- A neighborhood of size 6s is considered.
- At a sampling step of s the x and y wavelet response is calculated.
- These responses are organized as points as in the figure on the right (*dx/dy space*).
- The longest sum of the vectors in a windows is taken as the *dominant orientation*.



#### **SURF** Descriptor

- An oriented window *W* of size *20s* is constructed.
- *W* is subdivided in 4 x 4 sub-regions.
- For each sub-region, the Haar wavelet responses at 5 x
   5 regularly spaced sample points are computed.
- Each sub-region is associated to the following descriptor vector:

$$\mathbf{v} = \left(\sum d_x, \sum d_y, \sum |d_x|, \sum |d_y|\right)$$

- *SURF-64*: 4 x 4 x 4 = 64 components.
- SURF-128: the vector v is splitted in positive and negative d<sub>x</sub> and d<sub>y</sub>.

#### **SURF** Descriptor



#### SURF Descriptor vs SIFT Descriptor

Image sub-region SIFT gradients

SURF sums



#### SURF vs SIFT

- SURF is faster than SIFT (about *3x* w.r.t the original implementation)
- Performance are similar, in general
  - SURF is more precise
  - SURF is less robust in viewpoint change and illumination change

#### **Affine Invariant Regions**

- The idea is to find image regions that have properties such that they are robust against affine transformations.
- We take a look at:
  - IBR (Intensity-Based Regions) by Tuytelaars et al. (presented at BMVC'00)
  - MSER by Matas et al. (presented at BMVC'02)

# Intensity-Based Regions (IBR)

- A set of local maxima is found (non-maxima suppression is used).
- For each local maxima a set of rays is shot.
- Along each ray the extremum of:

$$f(t) = \frac{|I(t) - I_0|}{\max\left(\frac{\int_0^t |I(t) - I_0| dt}{t}, d\right)}$$
 is found.

• These extremum points are connected to form an affine invariant region.

#### Intensity-Based Regions (IBR)



Tinne Tuytelaars and Luc Van Gool, "Wide Baseline Stereo Matching based on Local, Affinely Invariant Regions", *BMVC 2000*.

### Intensity-Based Regions (IBR)

• Each region is described using the "Generalized Color Moments":

$$M_{pq}^{abc} = \iint_{\Omega} x^p y^q [R(x,y)]^a [G(x,y)]^b [B(x,y)]^c \, dxdy$$

• These moments characterize the shape, the intensity and the color distribution of the region in a robust and uniform way.

#### MSER - definitions

- **Region** Q is a contiguous subset of D, i.e. for each p,  $q \in Q$  there is a sequence p,  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n q$  and  $pAa_1, a_iAa_{i+1}, a_nAq$ .
- (Outer) Region Boundary ∂Q = {q ∈ D\Q : ∃p ∈Q : qAp}, i.e. the boundary ∂Q of Q is the set of pixels being adjacent to at least one pixel of Q but not belonging to Q.

J. Matas, O. Chum, M.Urban, T. Pajdla, "Robust Wide Baseline Stereo from Maximally Stable Extremal Regions", *BMVC 2002*.

#### MSER - definitions

- Extremal Region Q ⊂ D is a region such that for all p ∈ Q, q ∈ ∂Q : I(p) > I(q) (maximum intensity region) or I(p) < I(q) (minimum intensity region).
- Maximally Stable Extremal Region (MSER). Let Q<sub>1</sub>,...,Q<sub>i-1</sub>,Q<sub>i</sub>,... be a sequence of nested extremal regions, i.e. Q<sub>i</sub> ⊂ Q<sub>i+1</sub>. Extremal region Qi\* is maximally stable iff q(i) = /Q<sub>i+Δ</sub> \ Q<sub>i-Δ</sub>//|Q<sub>i</sub>| has a local minimum at i\* (/./ denotes cardinality). Δ ∈ S is a parameter of the method.

#### MSER "visualized"



#### **MSER**



J. Matas, O. Chum, M.Urban, T. Pajdla, "Robust Wide Baseline Stereo from Maximally Stable Extremal Regions", *BMVC 2002*.

#### **MSER**



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# Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG)

- First proposed by Dalal and Triggs\* in 2005 for human detection.
- Now used in thousands of Computer Vision works.
- Based on the orientation of the image gradient → dense descriptor (!)

N. Dalal and B. Triggs, "Histograms of Oriented Gradients for Human Detection", *CVPR 2005*.

# Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG)



# Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG)

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#### **HOG - Pipeline**



N. Dalal and B. Triggs, "Histograms of Oriented Gradients for Human Detection", *CVPR 2005*.

# HOG – Implementation Details

- Image gradient → simple 1-D mask works best!! ([-1 0 1], [1 0 -1]<sup>T</sup>)
- Spatial binning → 16 x 16 pixel blocks of four 8 x 8 pixel cells.
- Orientation binning → 9 orientations (in the range 0-180).
- Block normalization  $\rightarrow$  clipped L2-norm.
- The descriptor is all the components of the normalized cell responses for all the blocks in the detection window (blocks are overlapped).

#### HOG for Person Detection



#### Person detection with HOG & linear SVM



N. Dalal and B. Triggs, "Histograms of Oriented Gradients for Human Detection", *CVPR 2005*.

#### Recap

- Many types of feature detectors and descriptors have been developed during the last 10 years.
- Local features together with different descriptors are used in many applications.
- Scale invariance is very important (!)
- SIFT-related ideas and HOG are used in thousands of papers.

#### **Questions** ?