

# BSB663

# Image Processing

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Slides are adapted from  
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# Image matching

- Image matching is a fundamental aspect of many problems in computer vision.
  - Object or scene recognition
  - Solving for 3D structure from multiple images
  - Stereo correspondence
  - Image alignment & stitching
  - Image indexing and search
  - Motion tracking
- Find “interesting” pieces of the image.
  - Focus attention of algorithms
  - Speed up computation

# Image matching applications



Object recognition: Find correspondences between feature points in training and test images.

# Image matching applications

Stereo correspondence and 3D reconstruction



# Image matching applications



Two images of Rome from Flickr

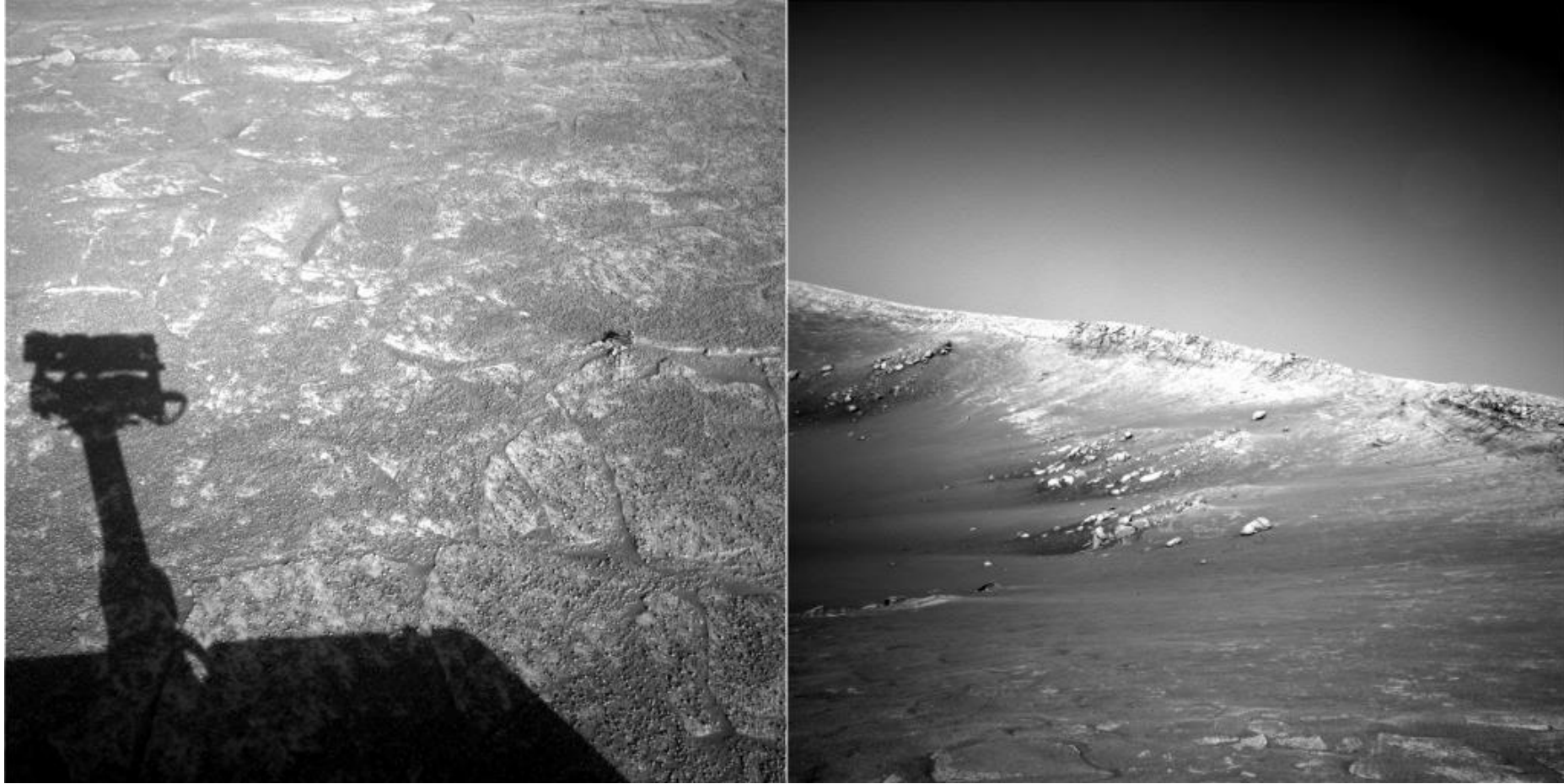


# Image matching applications



Two images of Rome from Flickr: harder case

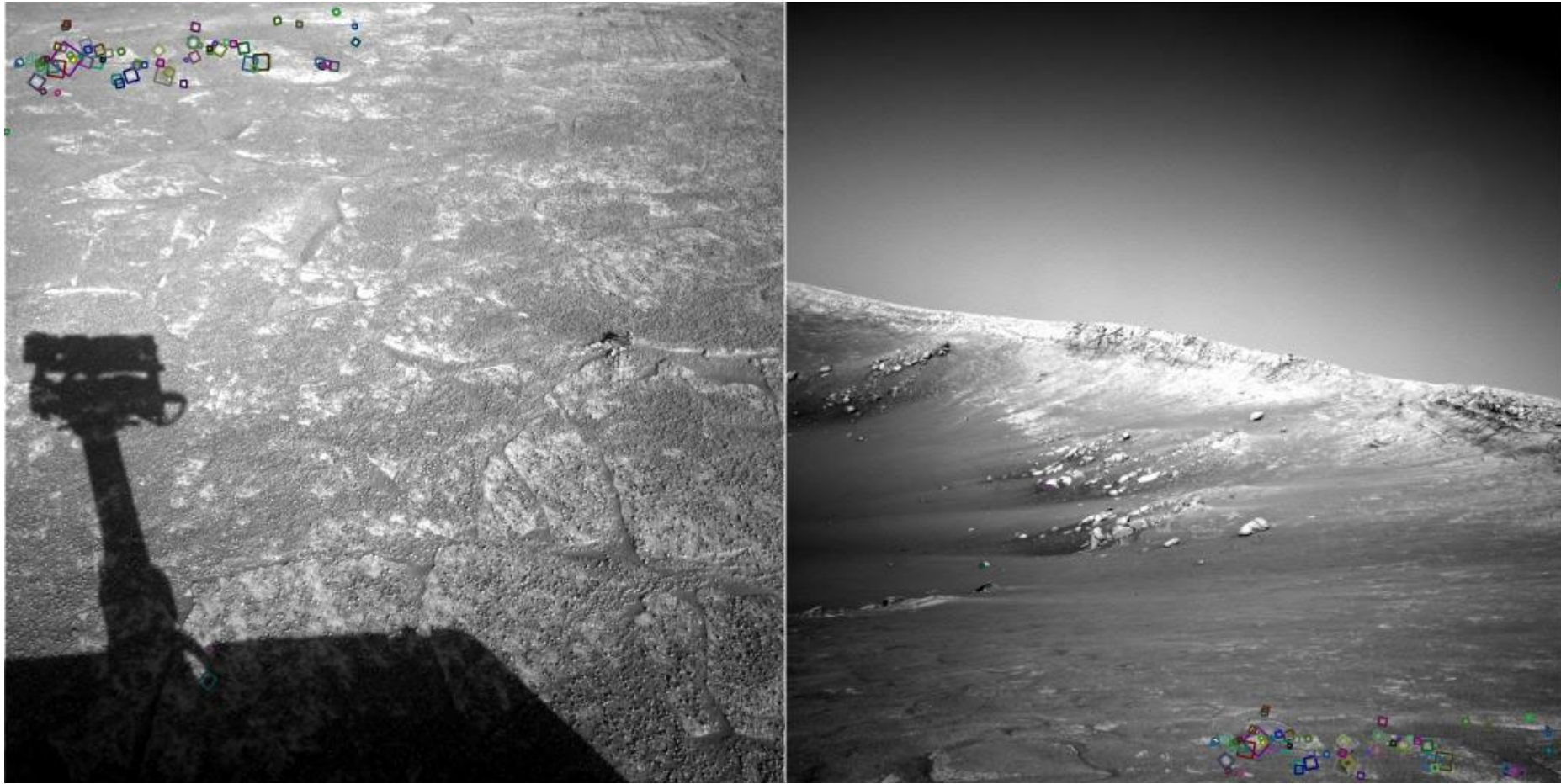
# Image matching applications



Two images from NASA Mars Rover: even harder case



# Image matching applications

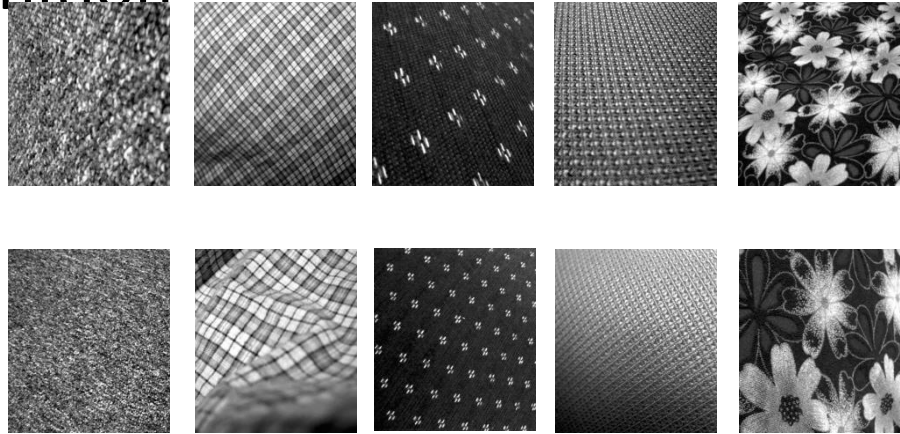


Two images from NASA Mars Rover: matching using local features

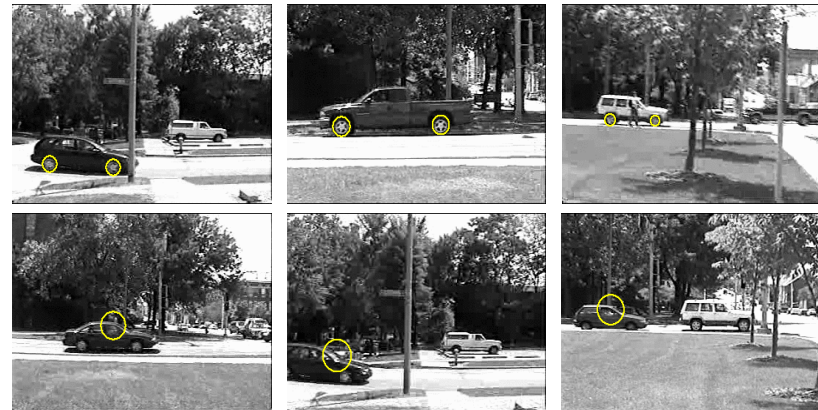


# Image matching applications

Recognition



Texture recognition



Car detection

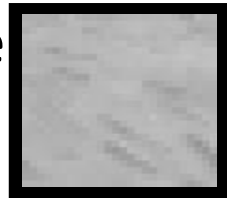
# Advantages of local features

- **Locality**
  - features are local, so robust to occlusion and clutter
- **Distinctiveness**
  - can differentiate a large database of objects
- **Quantity**
  - hundreds or thousands in a single image
- **Efficiency**
  - real-time performance achievable
- **Generality**
  - exploit different types of features in different situations

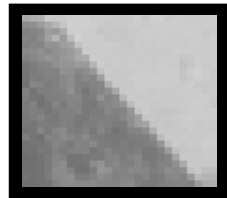
# Local features

- What makes a good feature?
- We want **uniqueness**.
  - Look for image regions that are **unusual**.
  - Lead to **unambiguous** matches in other images.

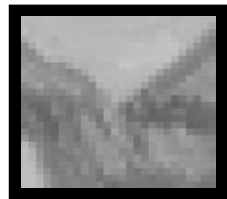
• How to define "local"?



**0D** structure  
not useful for matching



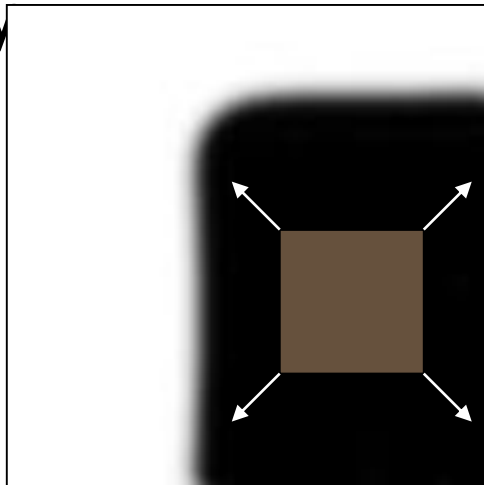
**1D** structure  
edge, can be localized in 1D,  
subject to the aperture problem



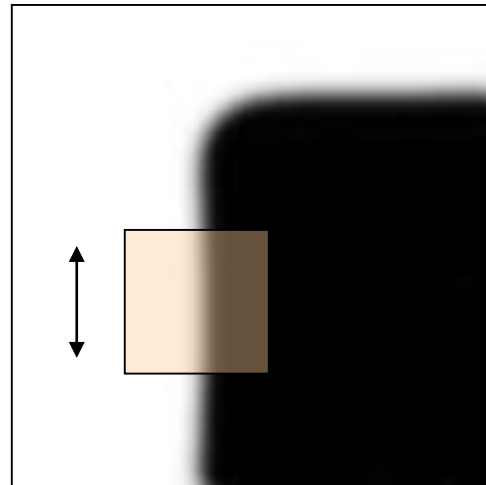
**2D** structure  
corner, can be localized in 2D,  
good for matching

# Local measures of uniqueness

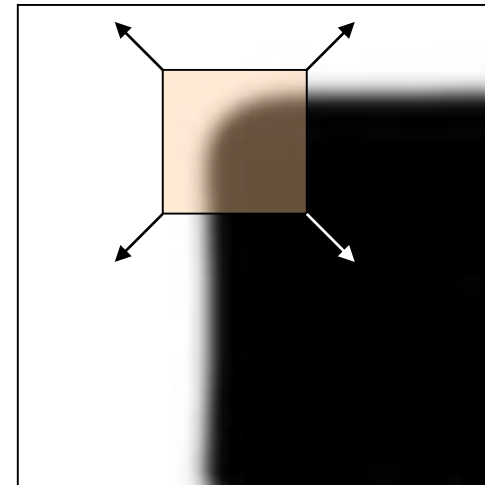
- We should easily recognize the local feature by looking through a small window.
- Shifting the window in *any direction* should give a *large change* in intensity



"flat" region:  
no change in all  
directions



"edge":  
no change along the  
edge direction



"corner":  
significant change in  
all directions



# Local features and image matching

- There are three important requirements for feature points to have a better correspondence for matching:
  - Points corresponding to the same scene points should be **detected consistently** over different views.
  - They should be **invariant** to image scaling, rotation and to change in illumination and 3D camera viewpoint.
  - There should be **enough information** in the neighborhood of the points so that corresponding points can be automatically **matched**.
- These points are also called **interest points**.

# Overview of the approach

interest points

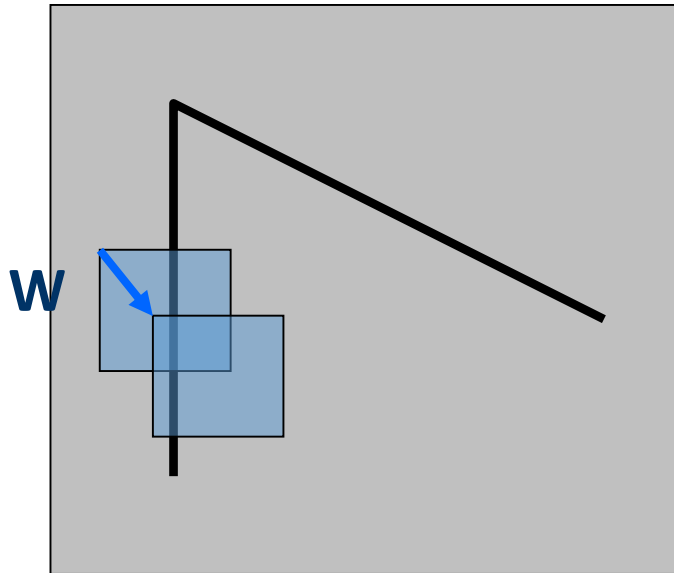


local descriptor

1. Extraction of interest points (characteristic locations).
2. Computation of local descriptors.
3. Determining correspondences.
4. Using these correspondences for matching/recognition/etc.

# Local features: detection

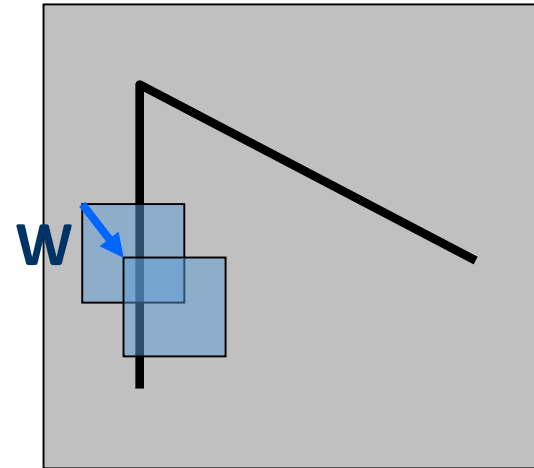
- We will now talk about one particular feature detection algorithm.
- Idea: find regions that are dissimilar to its neighbors.



# Local features: detection

- Consider shifting the window  $W$  by  $(u,v)$ :
  - How do the pixels in  $W$  change?
  - Auto-correlation function measures the self similarity of a signal and is related to the sum-of-squared difference.
  - Compare each pixel before and after the shift by summing up the squared differences (SSD).
  - This defines an SSD “error” of  $E(u,v)$ :

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





# Local features: detection

- 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 assumed to be small, then first order approximation is good.

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

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

- Plugging this into the formula on the previous slide...

# Local features: detection

- Sum-of-squared differences error  $E(u, v)$ .

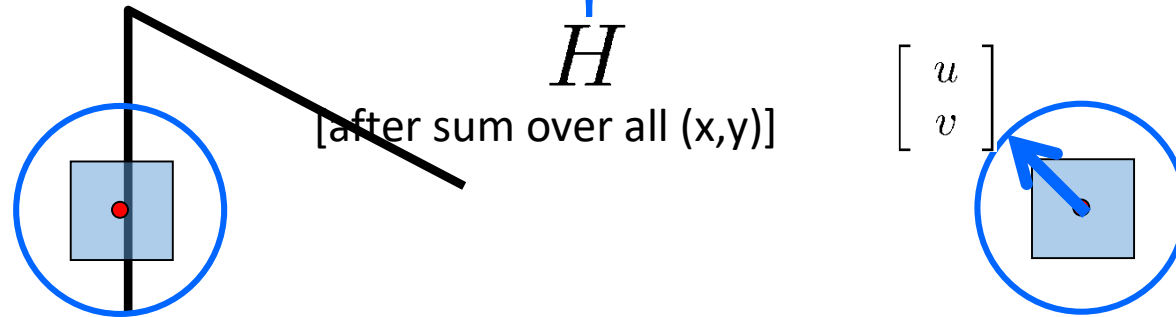
$$E(u, v) = \sum_{(x, y) \in W} [I(x + u, y + v) - I(x, y)]^2$$

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

$$\approx \sum_{(x, y) \in W} \left[ [I_x \ I_y] \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} \right]^2$$

# Local features: detection

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



- For the example above:
  - You can move the center of the green window to anywhere on the blue unit circle.
  - Which directions will result in the largest and smallest E values?

# Local features: detection

- We want to find  $(u,v)$  such that  $E(u,v)$  is maximized or minimized:

$$E(u, v) = \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{H} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

- By definition, we can find these directions by looking at the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{H}$ .
- First eigenvector of  $\mathbf{H}$  is a unit vector that maximizes  $E(u,v)$ .
- Second eigenvector of  $\mathbf{H}$  is a unit vector that minimizes  $E(u,v)$ .



# Quick eigenvector/eigenvalue review

- **THEOREM 2.5** If  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  are symmetric and  $\mathcal{B} > 0$ , then the maximum of  $x^\top \mathcal{A}x$  under the constraints  $x^\top \mathcal{B}x = 1$  is given by the largest eigenvalue of  $\mathcal{B}^{-1}\mathcal{A}$ . More generally,

$$\max_{\{x: x^\top \mathcal{B}x=1\}} x^\top \mathcal{A}x = \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_p = \min_{\{x: x^\top \mathcal{B}x=1\}} x^\top \mathcal{A}x,$$

where  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p$  denote the eigenvalues of  $\mathcal{B}^{-1}\mathcal{A}$ . The vector which maximizes (minimizes)  $x^\top \mathcal{A}x$  under the constraint  $x^\top \mathcal{B}x = 1$  is the eigenvector of  $\mathcal{B}^{-1}\mathcal{A}$  which corresponds to the largest (smallest) eigenvalue of  $\mathcal{B}^{-1}\mathcal{A}$ .

# Quick eigenvector/eigenvalue review

- The **eigenvectors** of a matrix **A** are the vectors **x** that satisfy:

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

- The scalar  $\lambda$  is the **eigenvalue** corresponding to **x**
  - The eigenvalues are found by solving:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

- In our case, **A = H** is a 2x2 matrix. so we have

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} - \lambda & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

- The solution:

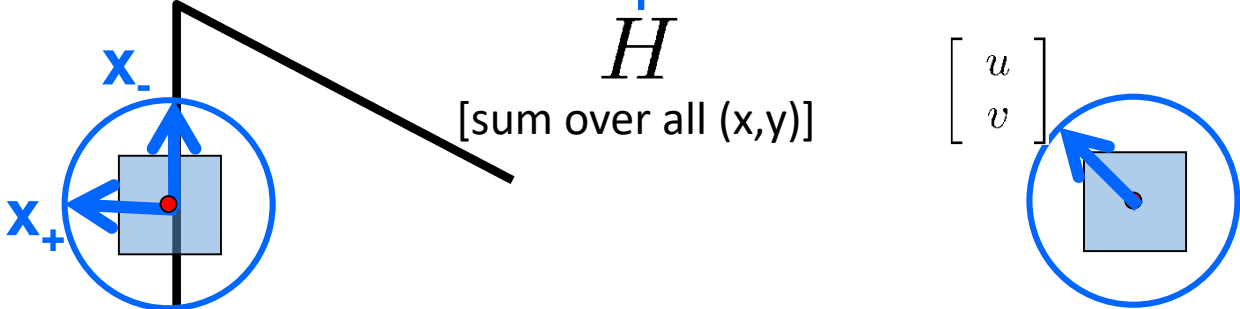
$$\lambda_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ (h_{11} + h_{22}) \pm \sqrt{4h_{12}h_{21} + (h_{11} - h_{22})^2} \right]$$

- Once you know  $\lambda$ , you find **x** by solving
- $$\begin{bmatrix} h_{11} - \lambda & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

# Local features: detection

- This can be rewritten:

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



- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of **H**:

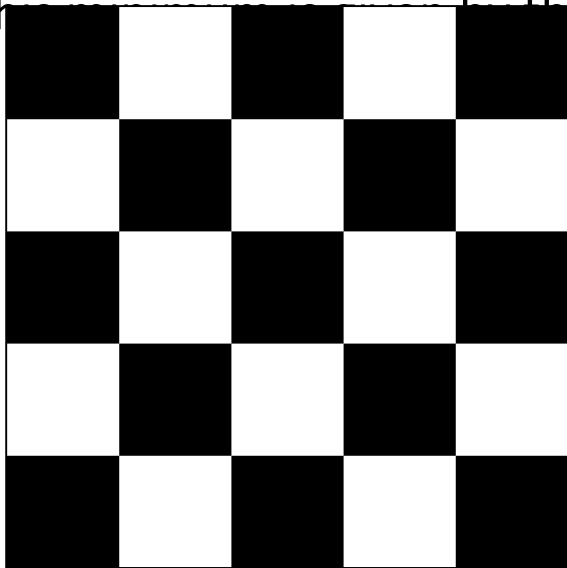
- Define shifts with the smallest and largest change (E value).
- $x_+$  = direction of largest increase in E.
- $\lambda_+$  = amount of increase in direction  $x_+$ .
- $x_-$  = direction of smallest increase in E.
- $\lambda_-$  = amount of increase in direction  $x_-$ .

$$Hx_+ = \lambda_+ x_+$$

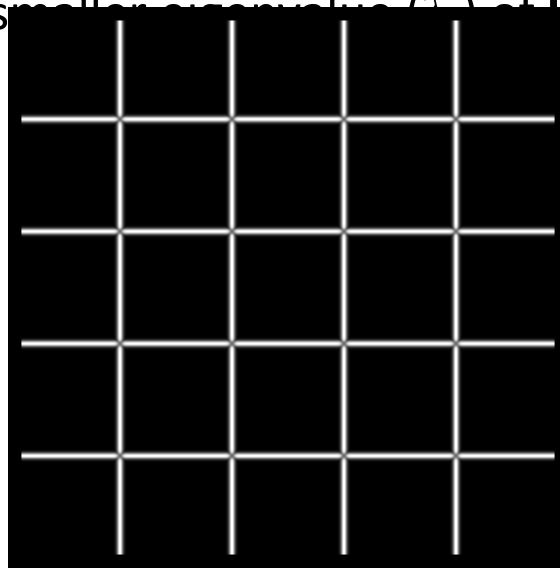
$$Hx_- = \lambda_- x_-$$

# Local features: detection

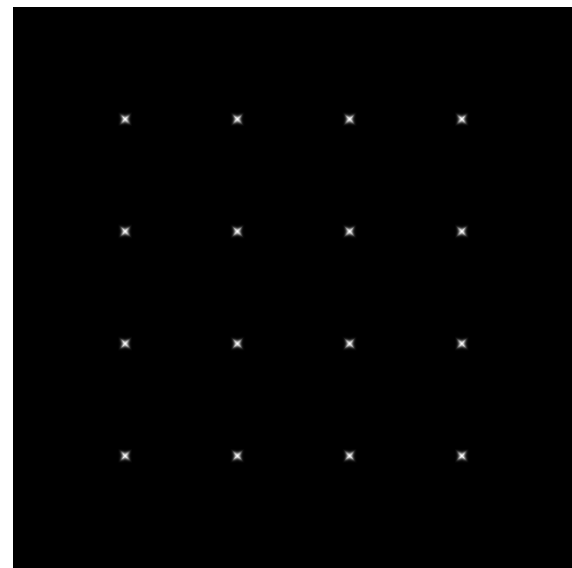
- How are  $\lambda_+$ ,  $x_+$ ,  $\lambda_-$ , and  $x_-$  relevant for feature detection?
  - What's our feature scoring function?
- Want  $E(u,v)$  to be large for small shifts in all directions.
  - The minimum of  $E(u,v)$  should be large, over all unit vectors  $[u \ v]$ .
  - This minimum is achieved by the smaller eigenvalue ( $\lambda_-$ ) of  $H$ .



$I$



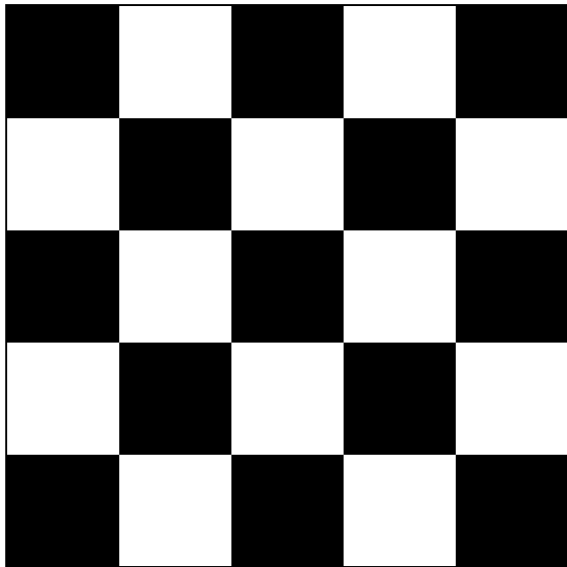
$\lambda_+$



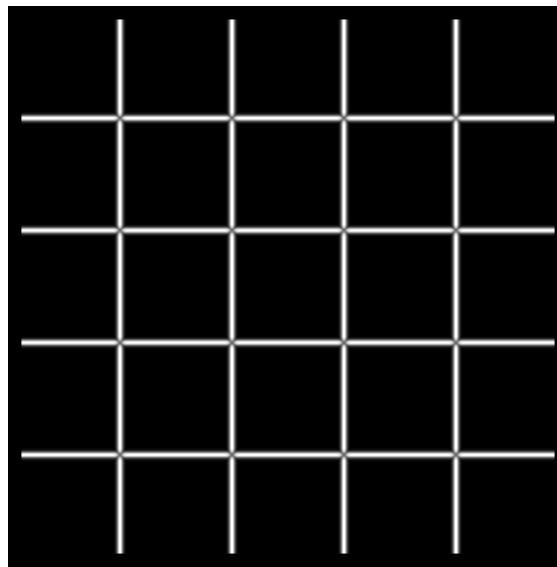
$\lambda_-$

# Local features: detection

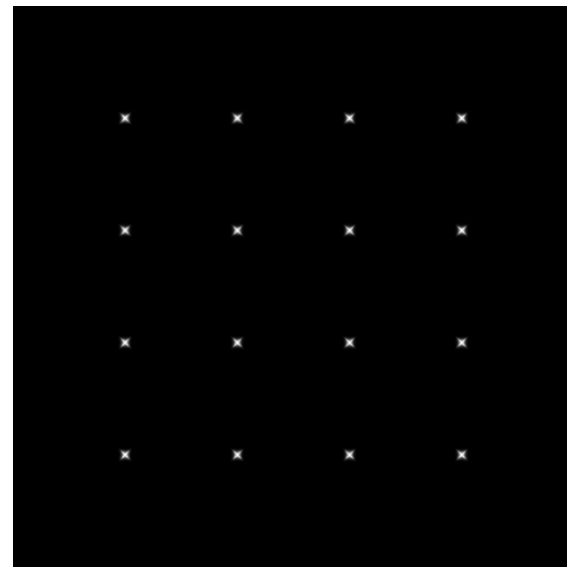
- Here's what you do:
  - Compute the gradient at each point in the image.
  - Create the  $\mathbf{H}$  matrix from the entries in the gradient.
  - Compute the eigenvalues.
  - Find points with large response ( $\lambda_- > \text{threshold}$ ).
  - Choose those points where  $\lambda_-$  is a local maximum as features.



$I$



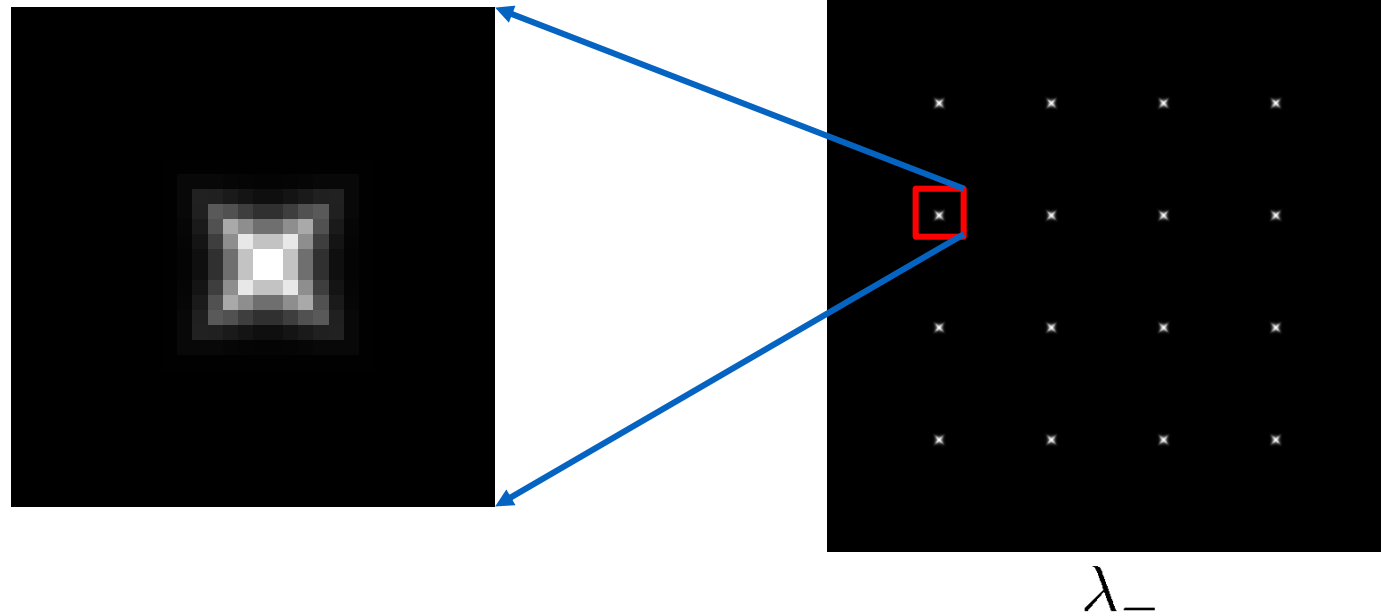
$\lambda_+$



$\lambda_-$

# Local features: detection

- Here's what you do:
  - Compute the gradient at each point in the image.
  - Create the **H** matrix from the entries in the gradient.
  - Compute the eigenvalues.
  - Find points with large response ( $\lambda_- > \text{threshold}$ ).
  - ~~Choose those points where  $\lambda_-$  is a local maximum as features.~~



# Harris detector

- To measure the corner strength:

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

where

$$\text{trace}(H) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$$

$$\det(H) = \lambda_1 \times \lambda_2$$

( $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the eigenvalues of H).

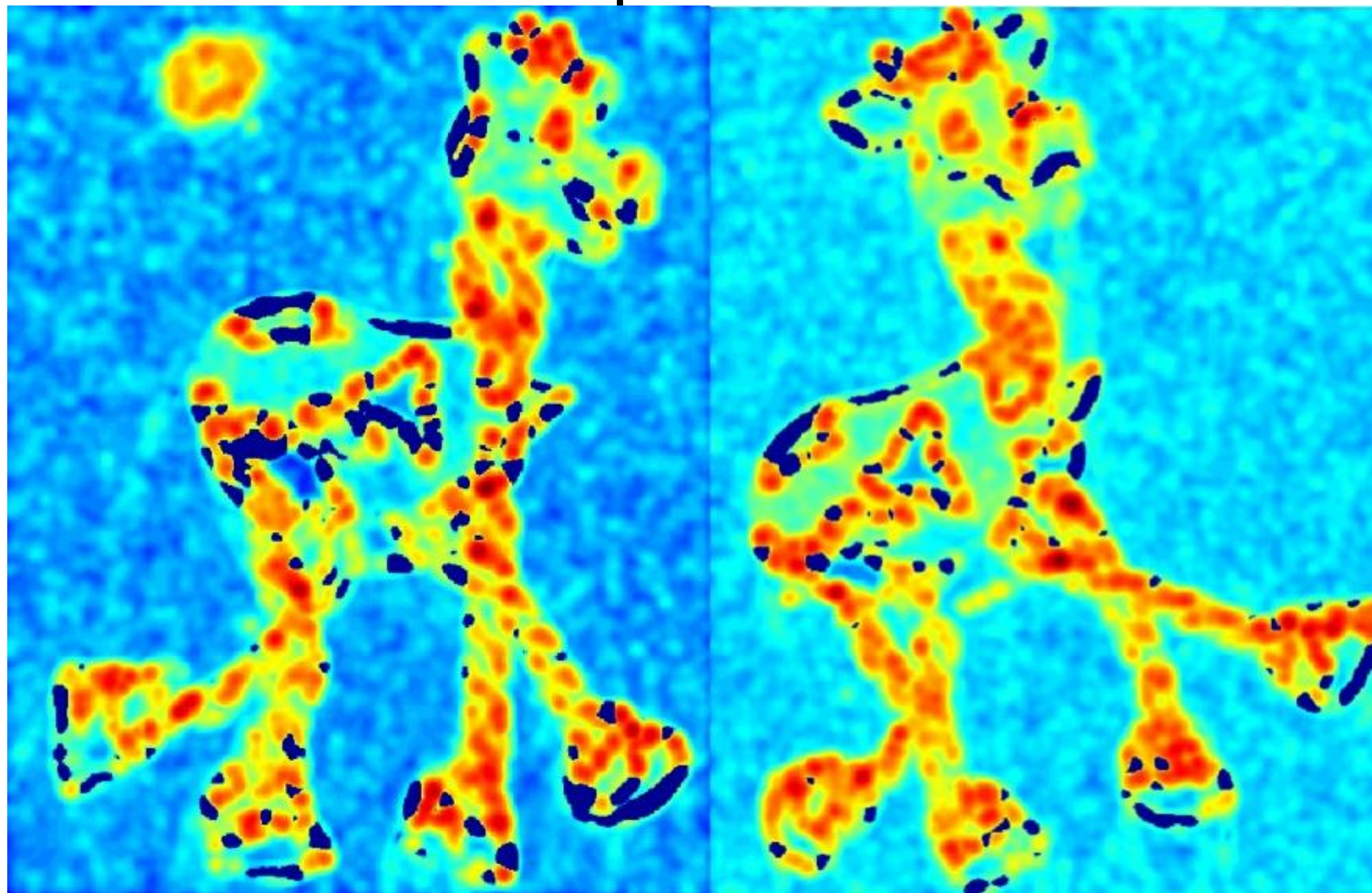
- R is positive for corners, negative in edge regions, and small in flat regions.
- Very similar to  $\lambda_-$  but less expensive (no square root).
- Also called the “Harris Corner Detector” or “Harris Operator”.
- Lots of other detectors, this is one of the most popular.



# Harris detector example

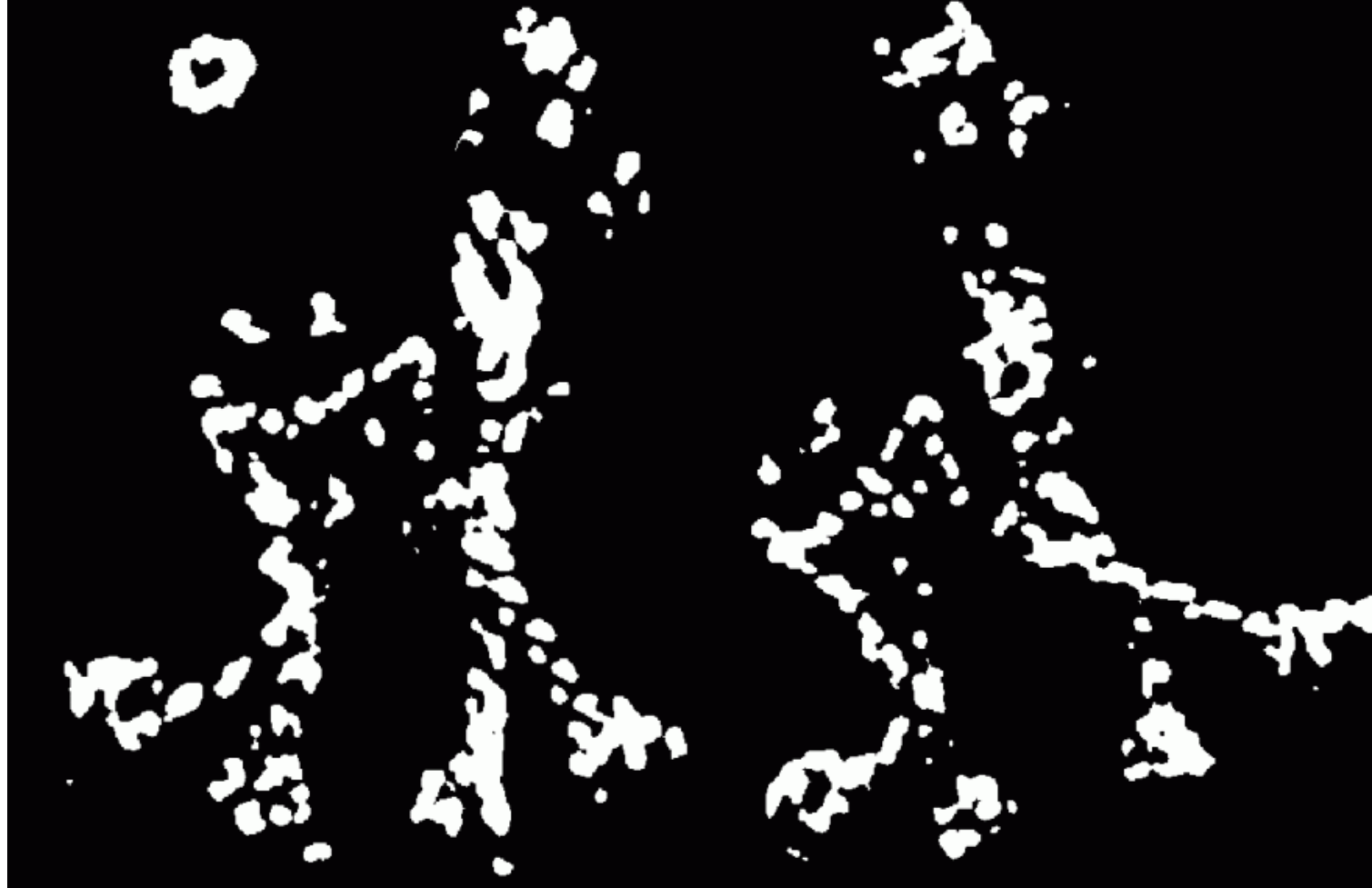


# Harris detector example



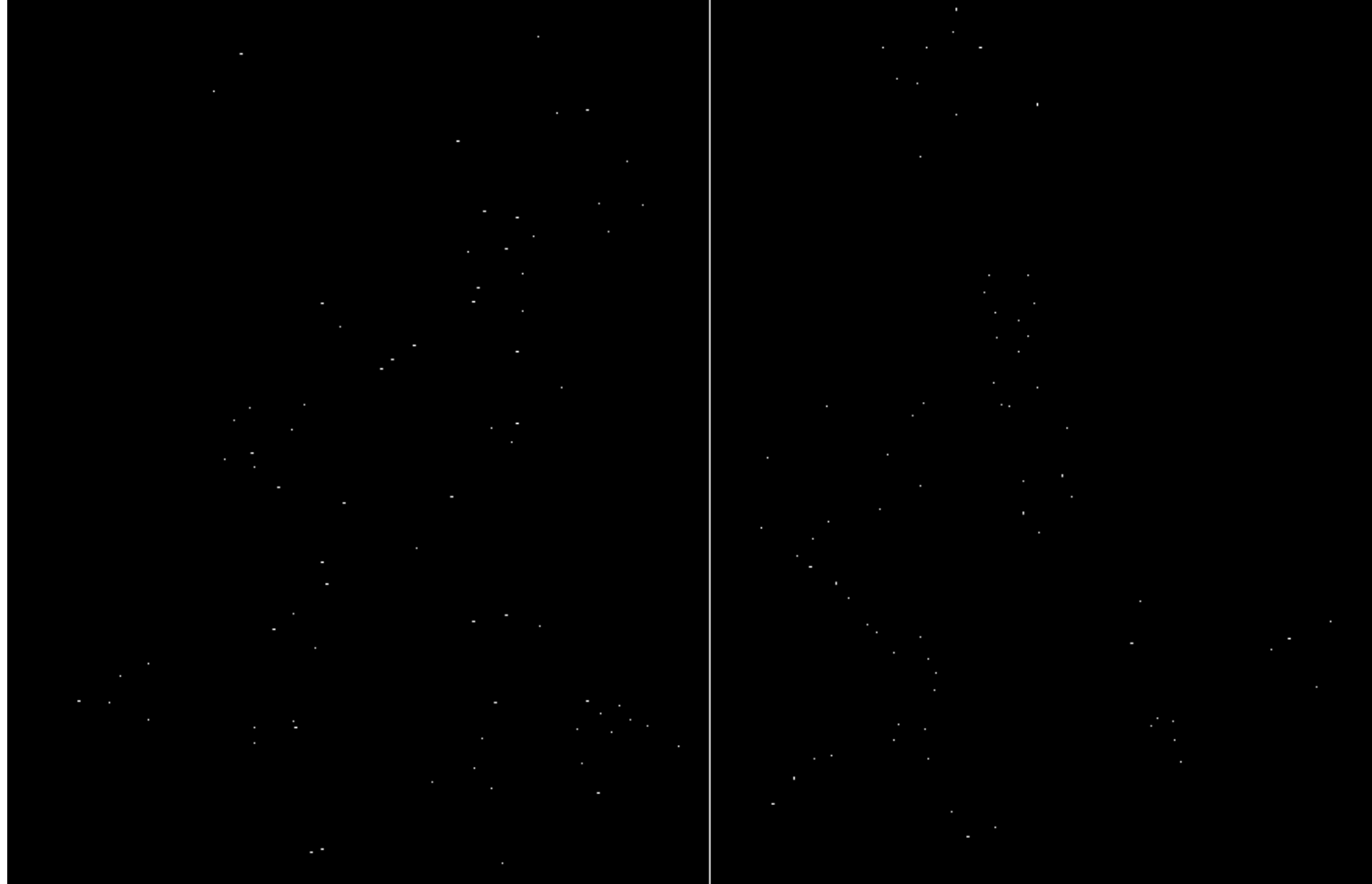
R values (red high, blue low)

# Harris detector example



Threshold ( $R > \text{value}$ )

# Harris detector example



Local maxima of R



# Harris detector example



Harris features (red)

# Local features: descriptors

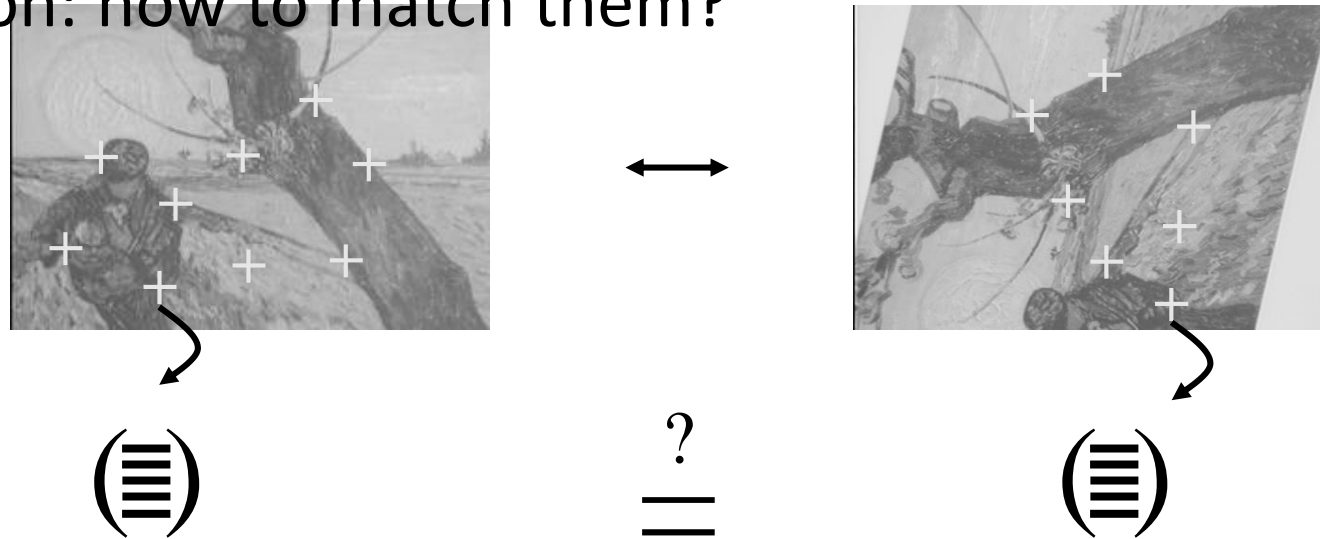


local descriptor

- Describe points so that they can be compared.
- Descriptors characterize the local neighborhood of a point.

# Local features: matching

- We know how to detect good features.
- Next question: how to match them?

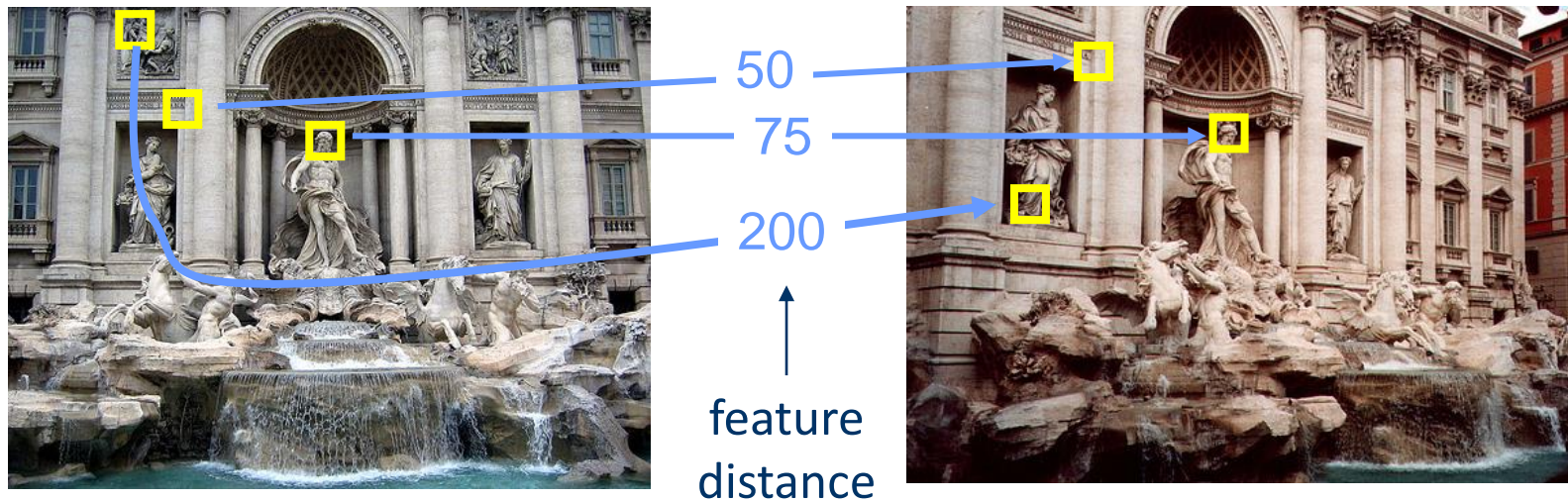


- Vector comparison using a distance measure can be used.

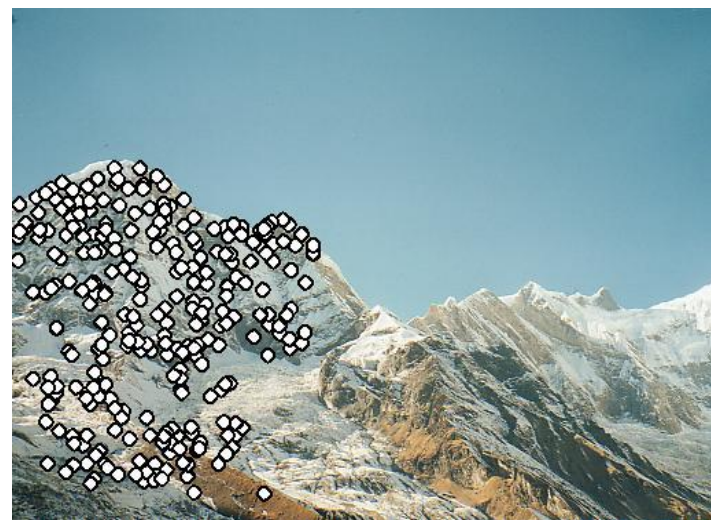
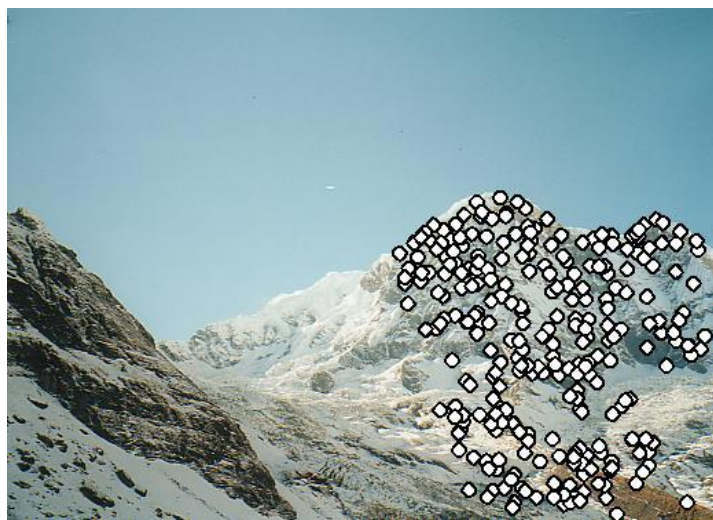


# Local features: matching

- Given a feature in  $I_1$ , how to find the best match in  $I_2$ ?
  1. Define a distance function that compares two descriptors.
  2. Test all the features in  $I_2$ , find the one with minimum distance.



# Matching examples



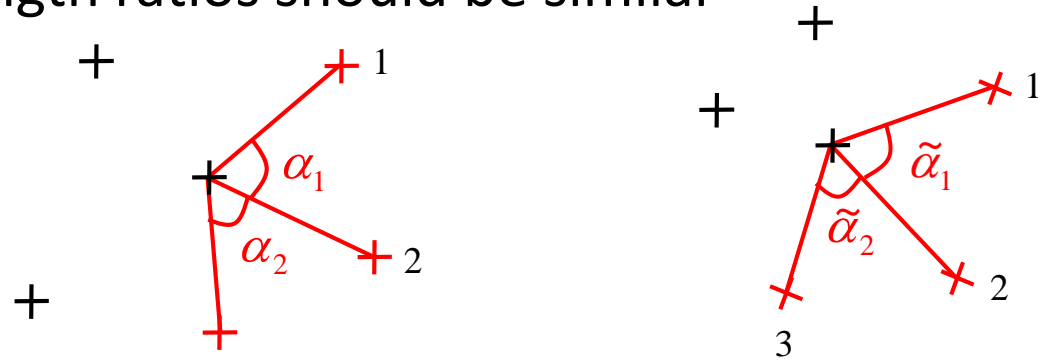


# Matching examples



# Local features: matching

- Matches can be improved using local constraints
  - neighboring points should match
  - angles, length ratios should be similar



# Summary of the approach

- Detection of interest points/regions
  - Harris detector
  - Blob detector based on Laplacian
- Computation of descriptors for each point
  - Gray value patch, differential invariants, steerable filter, SIFT descriptor
- Similarity of descriptors
  - Correlation, Mahalanobis distance, Euclidean distance
- Semi-local constraints
  - Geometrical or statistical relations between neighborhood points
- Global verification
  - Robust estimation of geometry between images

# Local features: invariance

- Suppose you rotate the image by some angle.
  - Will you still pick up the same features?
- What if you change the brightness?
- What about scale?
- We'd like to find the same features regardless of the transformation.
  - This is called transformational **invariance**.
  - Most feature methods are designed to be invariant to
    - Translation, 2D rotation, scale.
  - They can usually also handle
    - Limited 3D rotations.
    - Limited affine transformations (some are fully affine invariant).
    - Limited illumination/contrast changes.

# How to achieve invariance?

Need both of the following:

## 1. Make sure your detector is invariant.

- Harris is invariant to translation and rotation.
- Scale is trickier.
  - Common approach is to detect features at many scales using a Gaussian pyramid (e.g., MOPS).
  - More sophisticated methods find “the best scale” to represent each feature (e.g., SIFT).

## 2. Design an invariant feature descriptor.

- A descriptor captures the information in a region around the detected feature point.
- The simplest descriptor: a square window of pixels.
- Let's look at some better approaches...



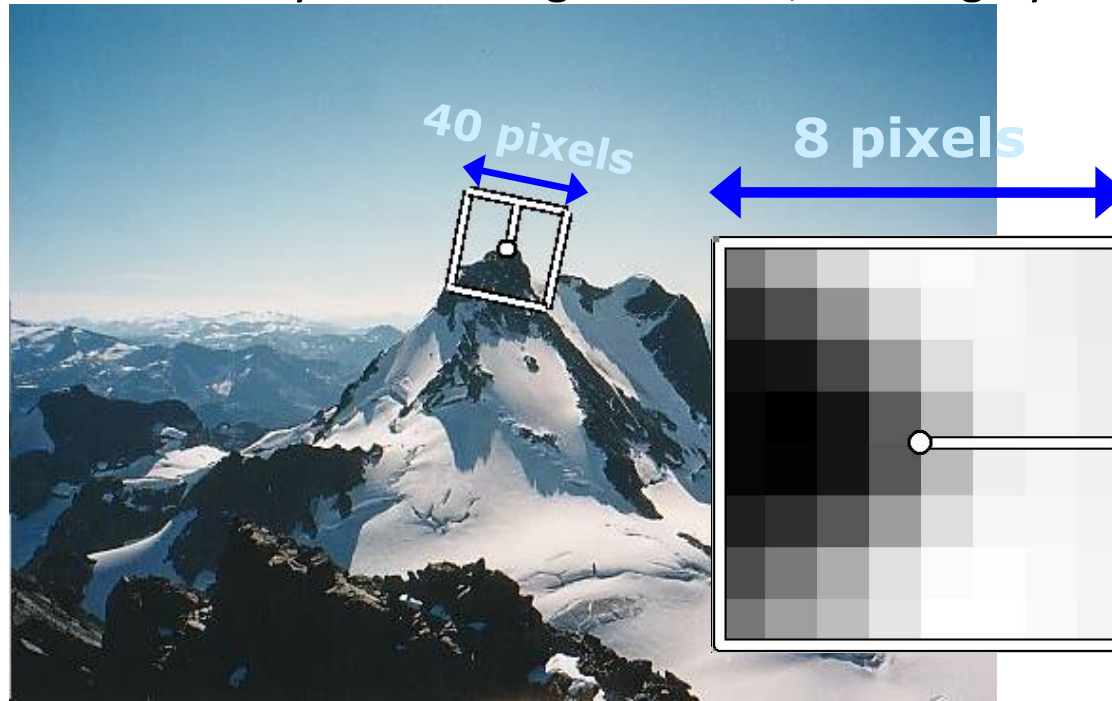
# Rotation invariance for descriptors

- Find dominant orientation of the image patch.
  - This is given by  $\mathbf{x}_+$ , the eigenvector of  $\mathbf{H}$  corresponding to  $\lambda_+$  (larger eigenvalue).
  - Rotate the patch accordingly to this orientation.



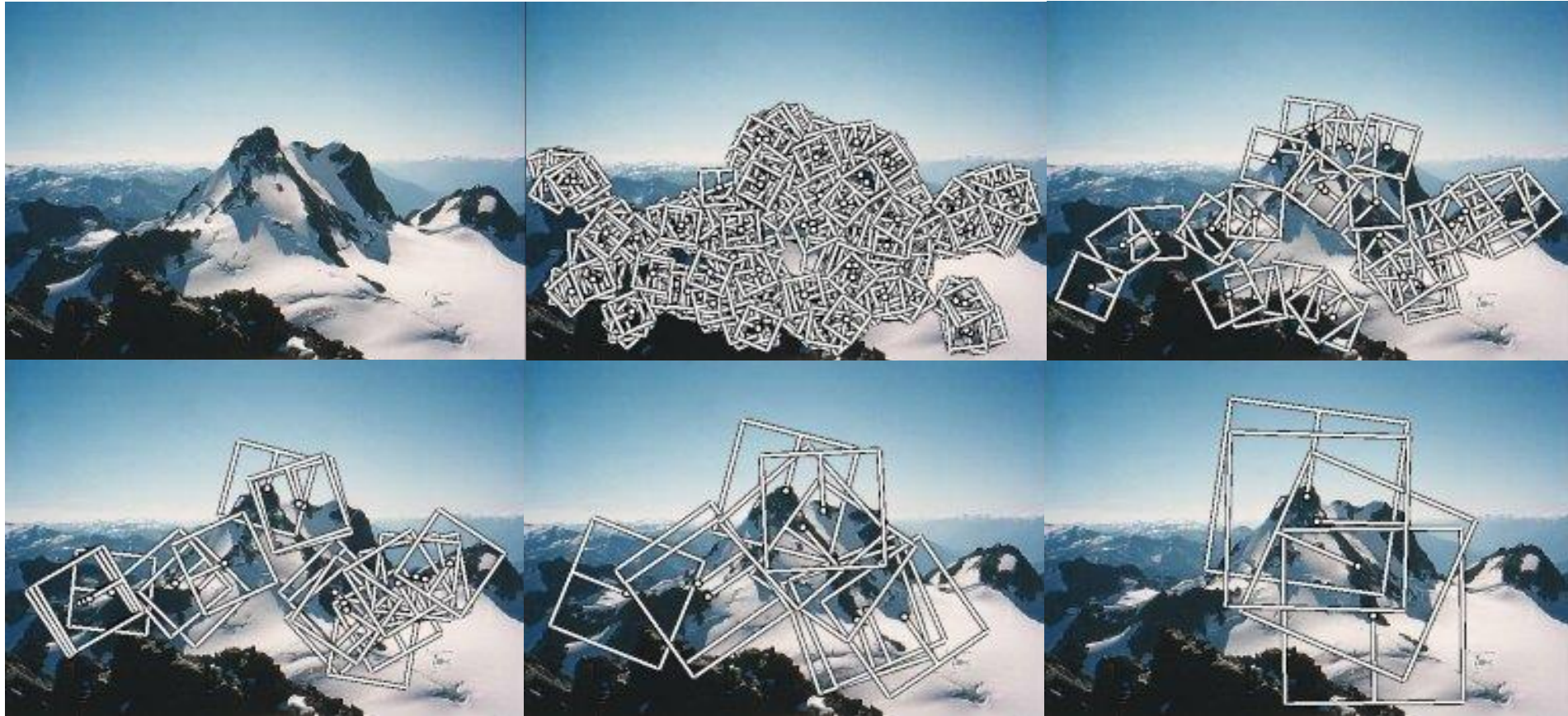
# Multi-scale Oriented Patches (MOPS)

- Take 40x40 square window around detected feature.
  - Scale to 1/5 size (using prefiltering).
  - Rotate to horizontal.
  - Sample 8x8 square window centered at feature.
  - Intensity normalize the window by subtracting the mean, dividing by the standard deviation in the window.



# Multi-scale Oriented Patches (MOPS)

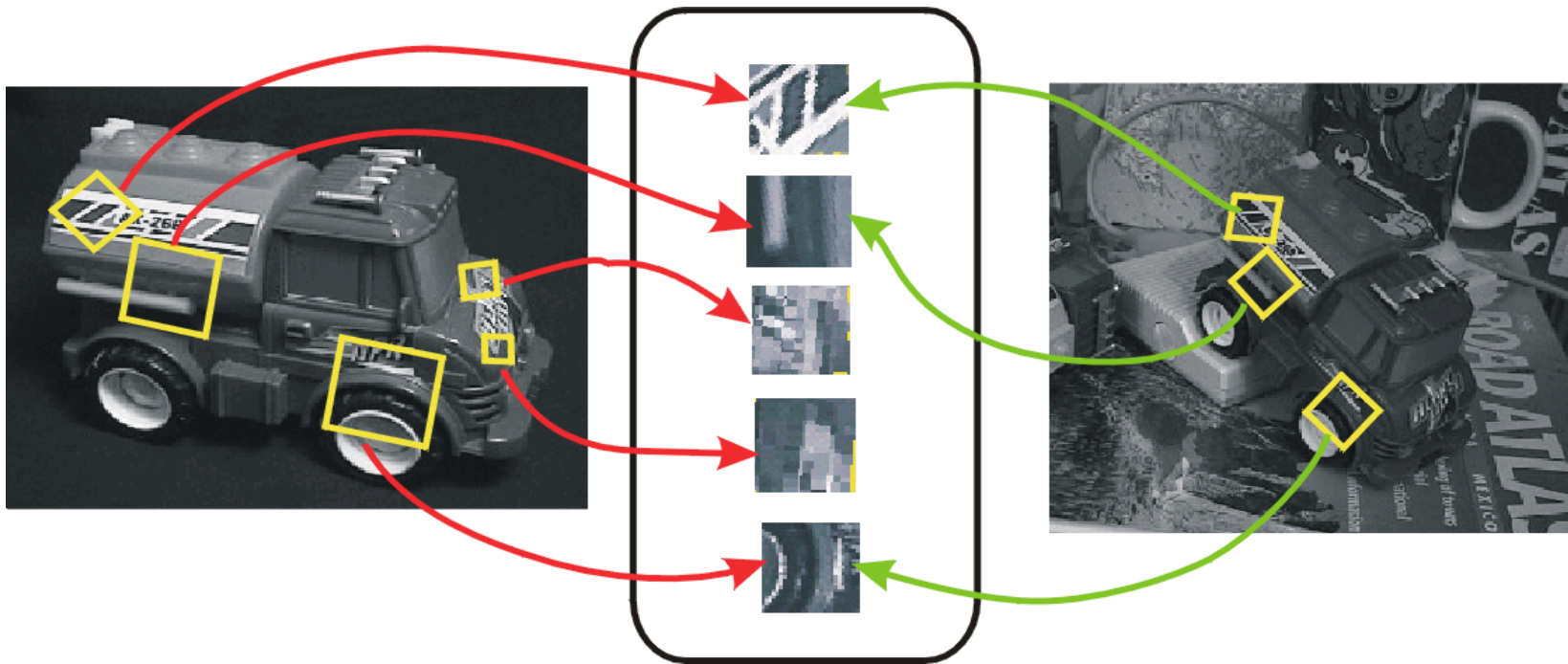
- Extract oriented patches at multiple scales of the Gaussian pyramid.





# Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT)

- The SIFT operator developed by David Lowe is both a detector and a descriptor that are invariant to translation, rotation, scale, and other imaging parameters.



# Overall approach for SIFT

## 1. Scale space extrema detection

- Search over multiple scales and image locations.

## 2. Interest point localization

- Fit a model to determine location and scale.
- Select interest points based on a measure of stability.

## 3. Orientation assignment

- Compute best orientation(s) for each interest point region.

## 4. Interest point description

- Use local image gradients at selected scale and rotation to describe each interest point region.

# Scale space extrema detection

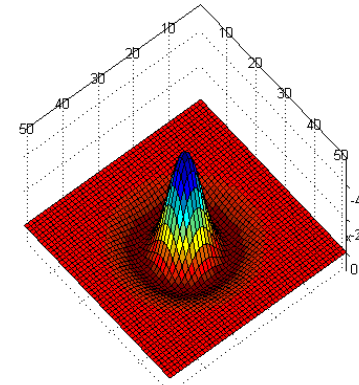
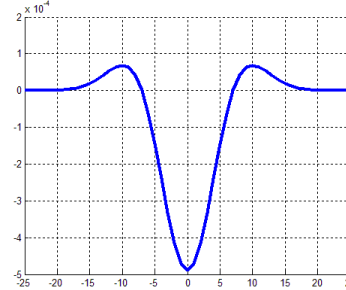
- **Goal:** Identify locations and scales that can be repeatably assigned under different views of the same scene or object.
- **Method:** search for stable features across multiple scales using a continuous function of scale.
- **Prior work** has shown that under a variety of assumptions, the best function is a **Gaussian function**.
- **The scale space of an image is a function  $L(x,y,\sigma)$**  that is produced from the convolution of a Gaussian kernel (at different scales) with the input image.

# Scale space interest points

- Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) kernel

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

$$\nabla^2 G(x, y, \sigma) = \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial y^2}$$



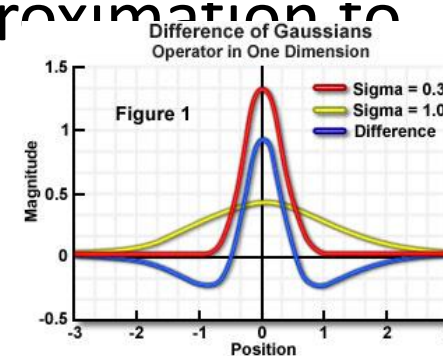
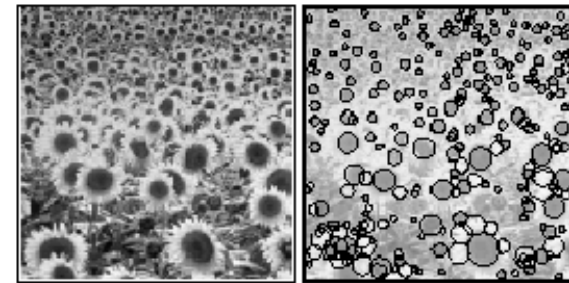
- Scale space detection
  - Find local maxima across scale-space

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

- **Difference of Gaussian** kernel is a close approximation to scale-normalized LoG.

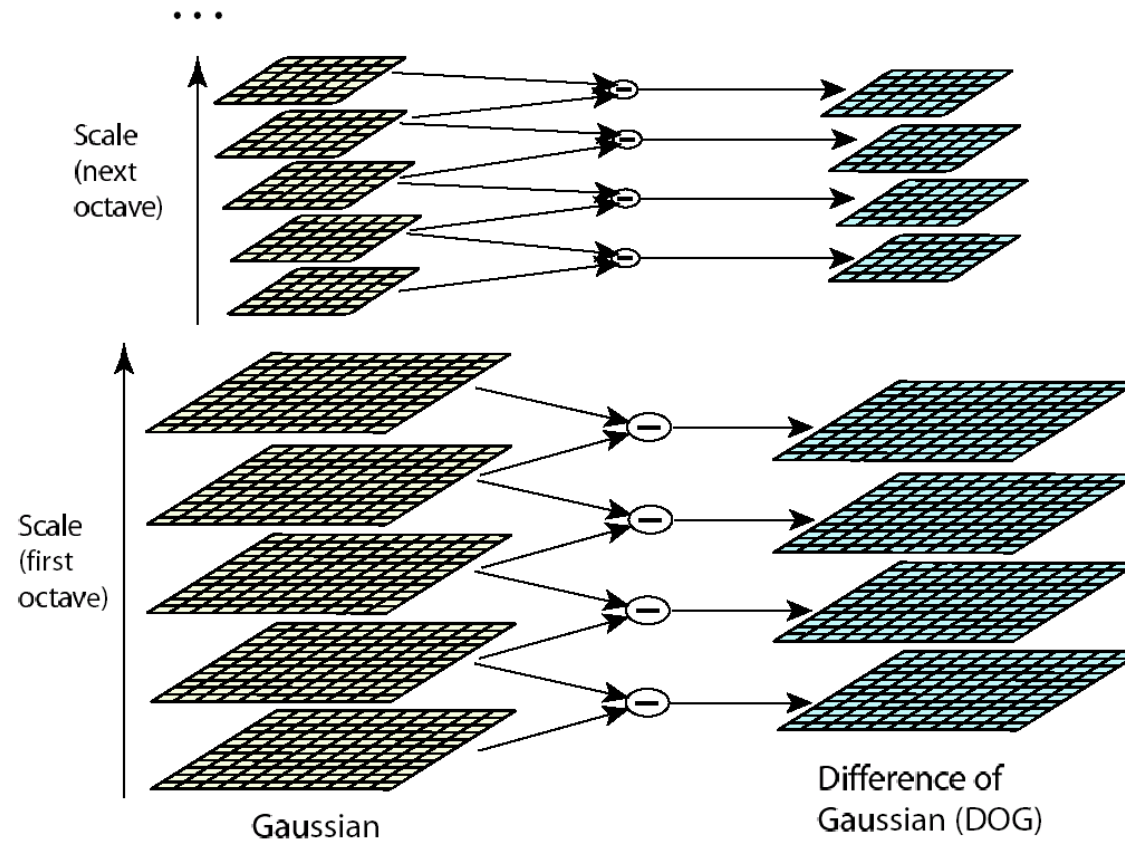
$$D(x, y, \sigma) = (G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, \sigma)) * I(x, y)$$

$$= L(x, y, k\sigma) - L(x, y, \sigma).$$





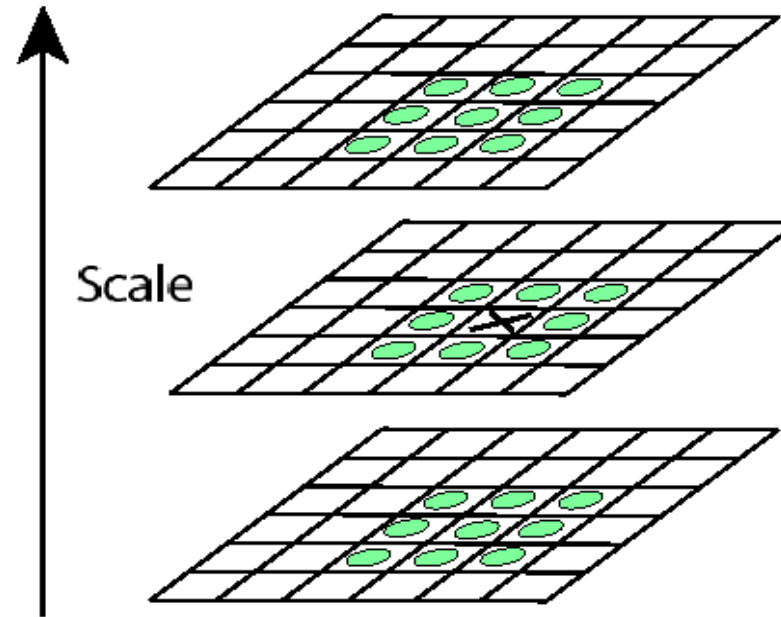
# Lowe's pyramid scheme



For each octave of scale space, the initial image is repeatedly convolved with Gaussian to produce the set of scale space images (left). Adjacent Gaussian images are subtracted to produce difference of Gaussian images (right). After each octave Gaussian image is downsampled by a factor of 2.

# Interest point localization

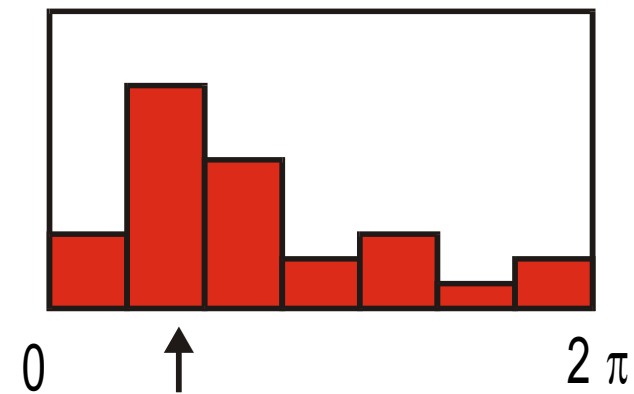
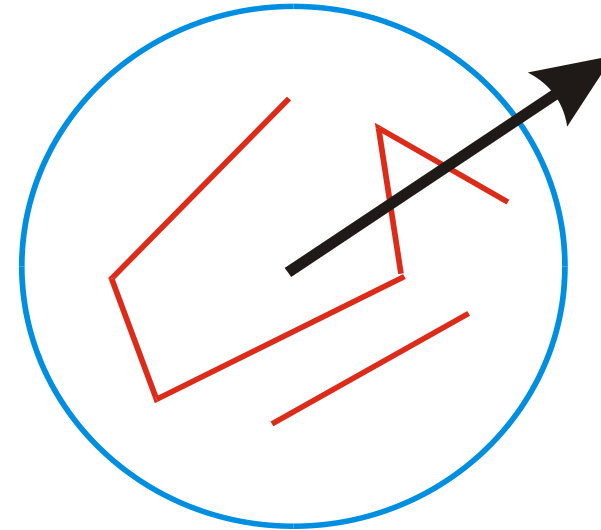
- Detect maxima and minima of difference of Gaussian in scale space.
- Each point is compared to its 8 neighbors in the current image and 9 neighbors each in the scales above and below.
- Select only if it is greater or smaller than all the others.



- For each max or min found, output is the location and the scale.

# Orientation assignment

- Create histogram of local gradient directions computed at selected scale.
- Assign canonical orientation at peak of smoothed histogram.
- Each key specifies stable 2D coordinates ( $x$ ,  $y$ , scale, orientation).



# Interest point descriptors

- At this point, each interest point has
  - location,
  - scale,
  - orientation.
- Next step is to compute a descriptor for the local image region about each interest point that is
  - highly distinctive,
  - invariant as possible to variations such as changes in viewpoint and illumination.

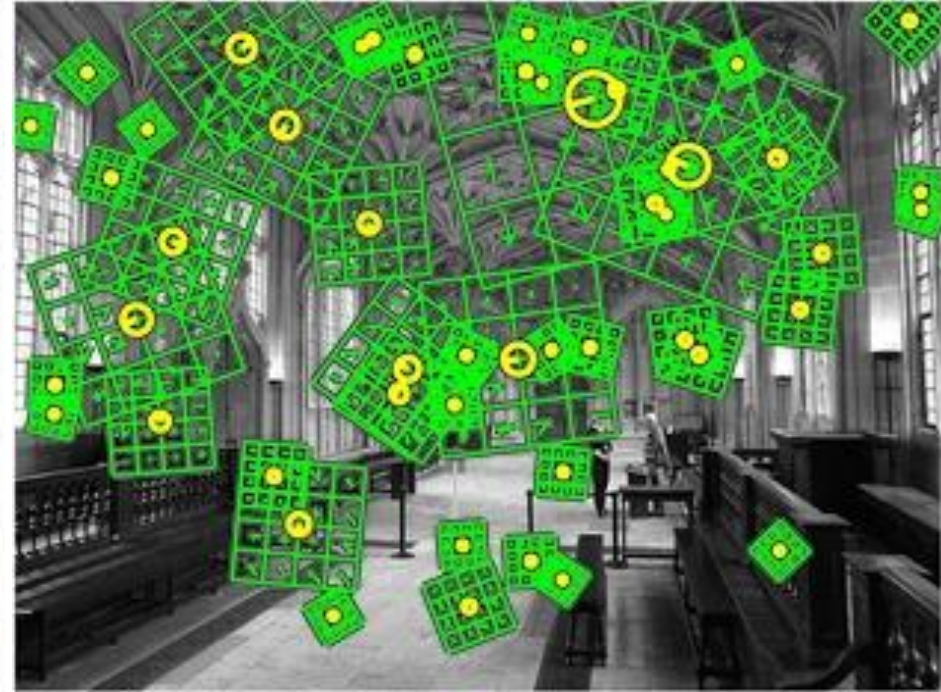
# Lowe's interest point descriptor

- Use the **normalized** circular region about the interest point.
  - Rotate the window to standard orientation.
  - Scale the window size based on the scale at which the point was found.
- Compute gradient magnitude and orientation at each point in the region.
- **Weight them by a Gaussian** window overlaid on the circle.
- Create an **orientation histogram** over the 4x4 subregions of the window.
- 4x4 descriptors over 16x16 sample array were used in practice. 4x4 times 8 directions gives a vector of **128 values**.

# Lowe's interest point descriptor



An input image



Overlaid descriptors

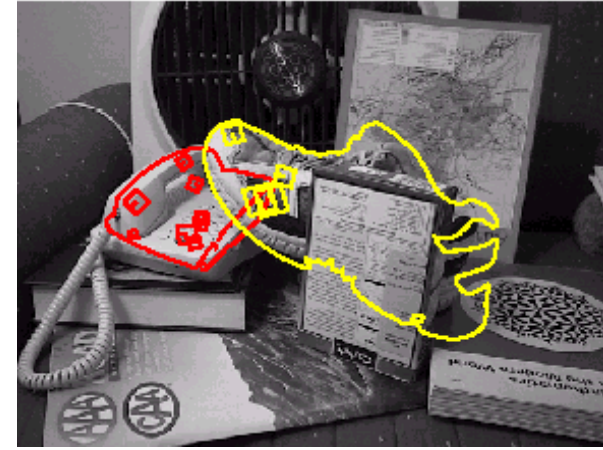


# Example applications

- Object and scene recognition
- Stereo correspondence
- 3D reconstruction
- Image alignment & stitching
- Image indexing and search
- Motion tracking
- Robot navigation

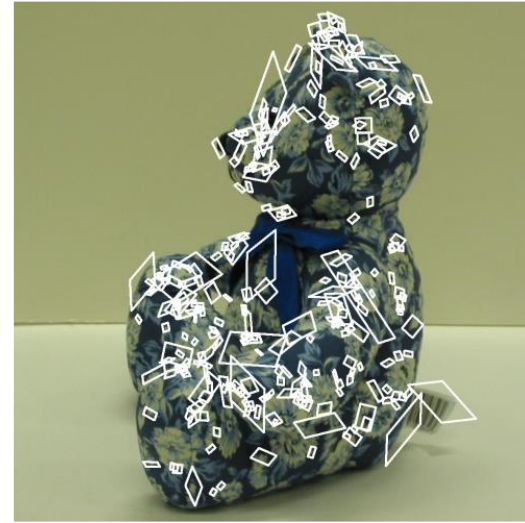


# Examples: 3D recognition

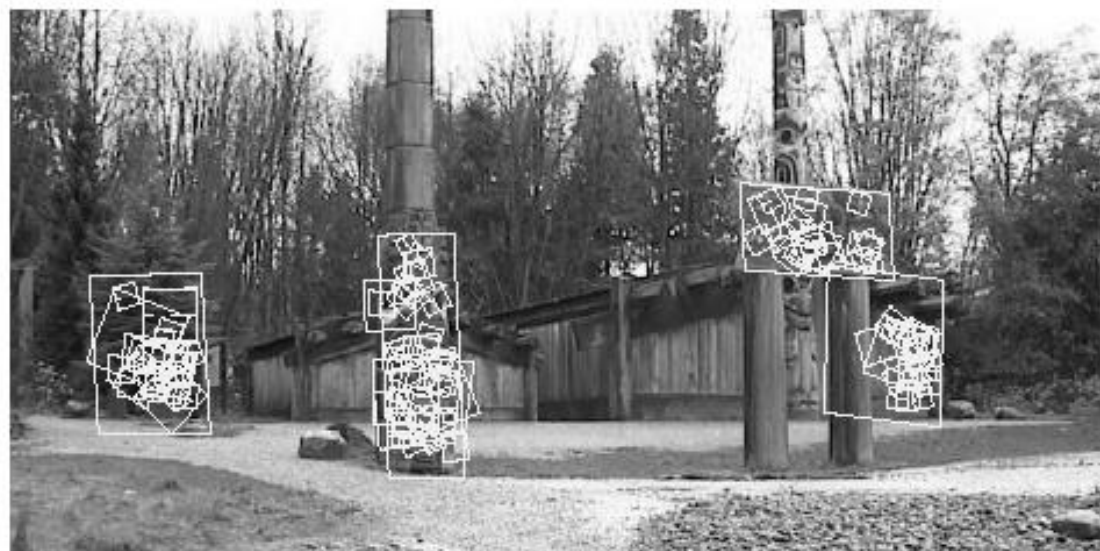




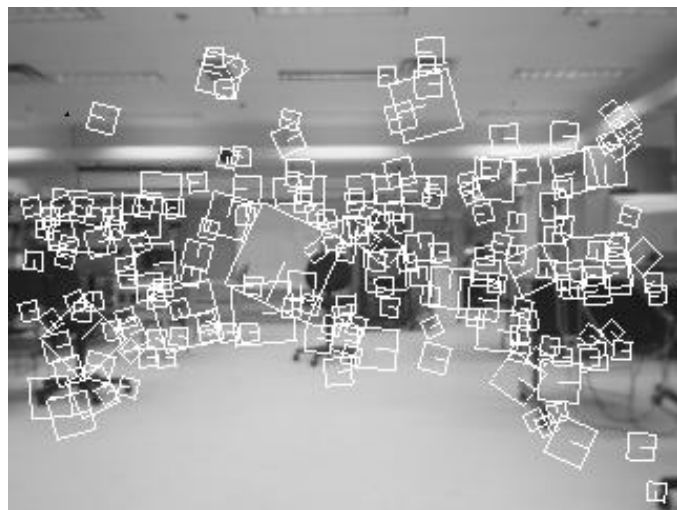
# Examples: 3D reconstruction



# Examples: location recognition

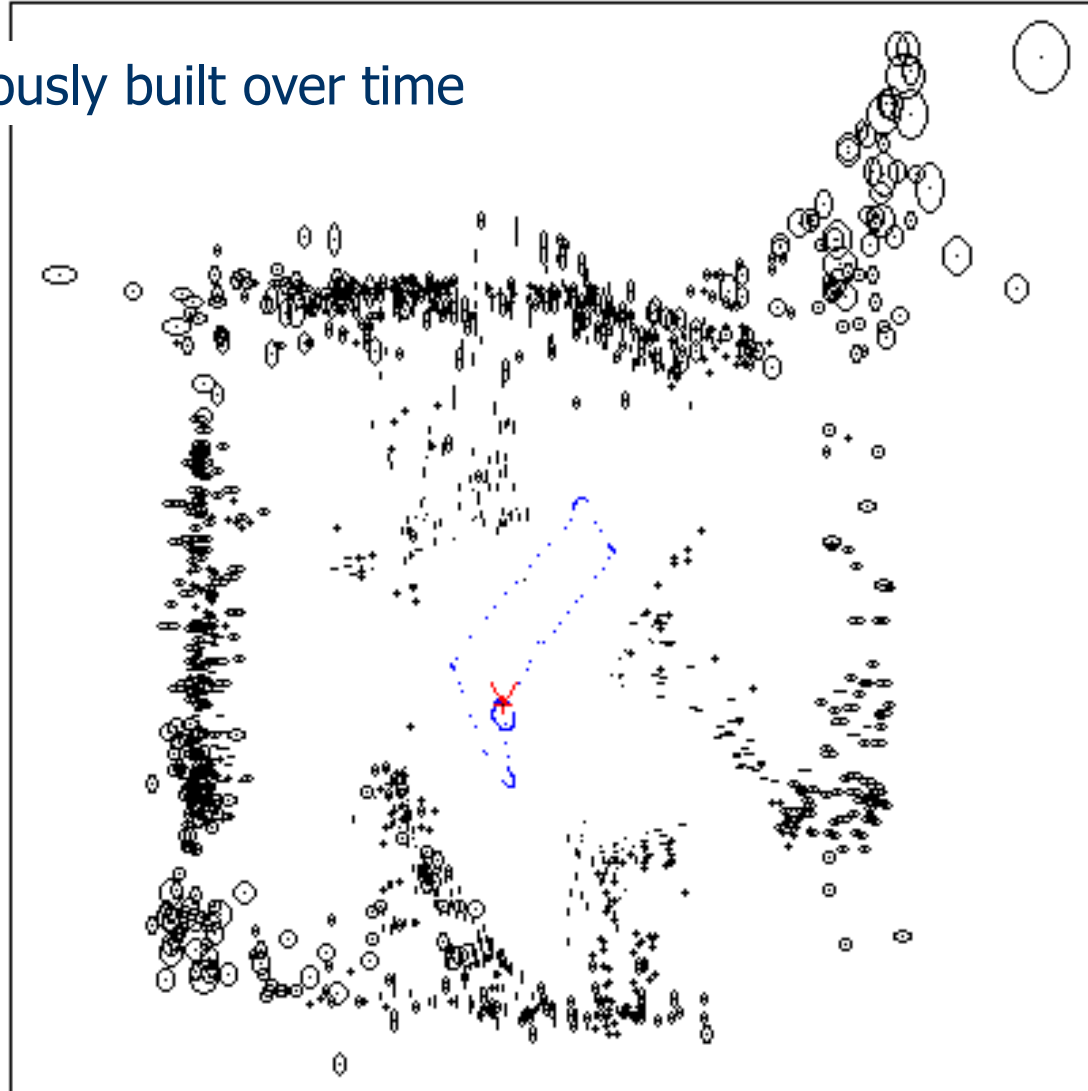


# Examples: robot localization



# Examples: robot localization

Map continuously built over time



# Examples: panoramas

- Recognize overlap from an unordered set of images and automatically stitch together.
- SIFT features provide initial feature matching.
- Image blending at multiple scales hides the seams.



Panorama of Lowe's lab automatically assembled from 143 images



# Examples: panoramas

Image registration and blending



*(a) 40 of 80 images registered*



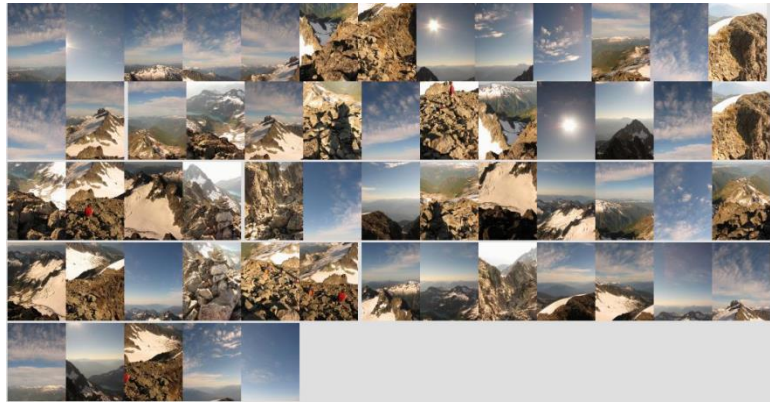
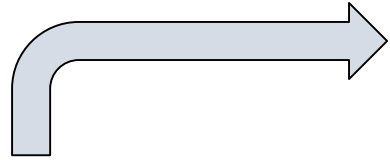
*(b) All 80 images registered*



*(c) Rendered with multi-band blending*



# Examples: panoramas



*25 of 57 images aligned*



*All 57 images aligned*



*Final result*

# Sony Aibo

- SIFT usage:
  - Recognize charging station
  - Communicate with visual cards
  - Teach object recognition

## AIBO® Entertainment Robot

Official U.S. Resources and Online Destinations



The advertisement features a central image of the white AIBO ERS-7 robot with a pink ball in its mouth. Surrounding the robot are four colorful visual cards: top-left shows a dog in a blue house; top-right shows a clock with gears; bottom-left shows a person holding a bowl; bottom-right shows a dog in a blue house. The text 'ERS-7 Entertainment Robot AIBO' is at the top, and '3rd Generation Pre-order Now!' is at the bottom.

ERS-7  
Entertainment Robot AIBO

ERS-7 with:  
Wireless LAN  
AIBO MIND software  
Energy Station  
AIBOne  
Pink Ball  
AIBO Cards (15)  
WLAN Manager CD  
Battery & AC Adapter

3rd Generation  
Pre-order Now!

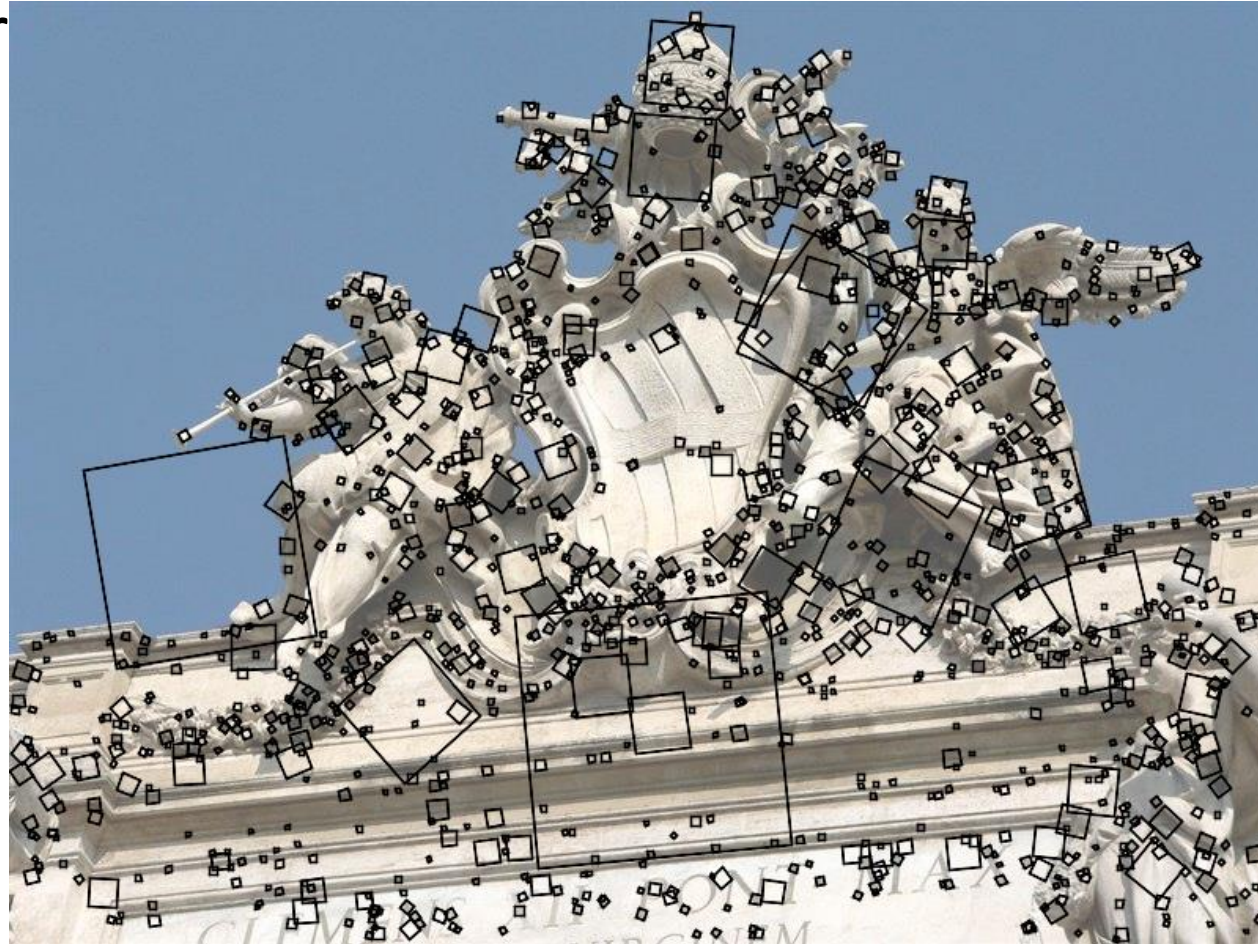
# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections

- Joint work by University of Washington and Microsoft Research
  - <http://phototour.cs.washington.edu/>
  - <http://research.microsoft.com/IVM/PhotoTours/>
- Photosynth Technology Preview at Microsoft Live Labs
  - <http://photosynth.net/>
- Don't forget to check the cool video and demo at <http://phototour.cs.washington.edu/>.



# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections

- Detect feature





# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections

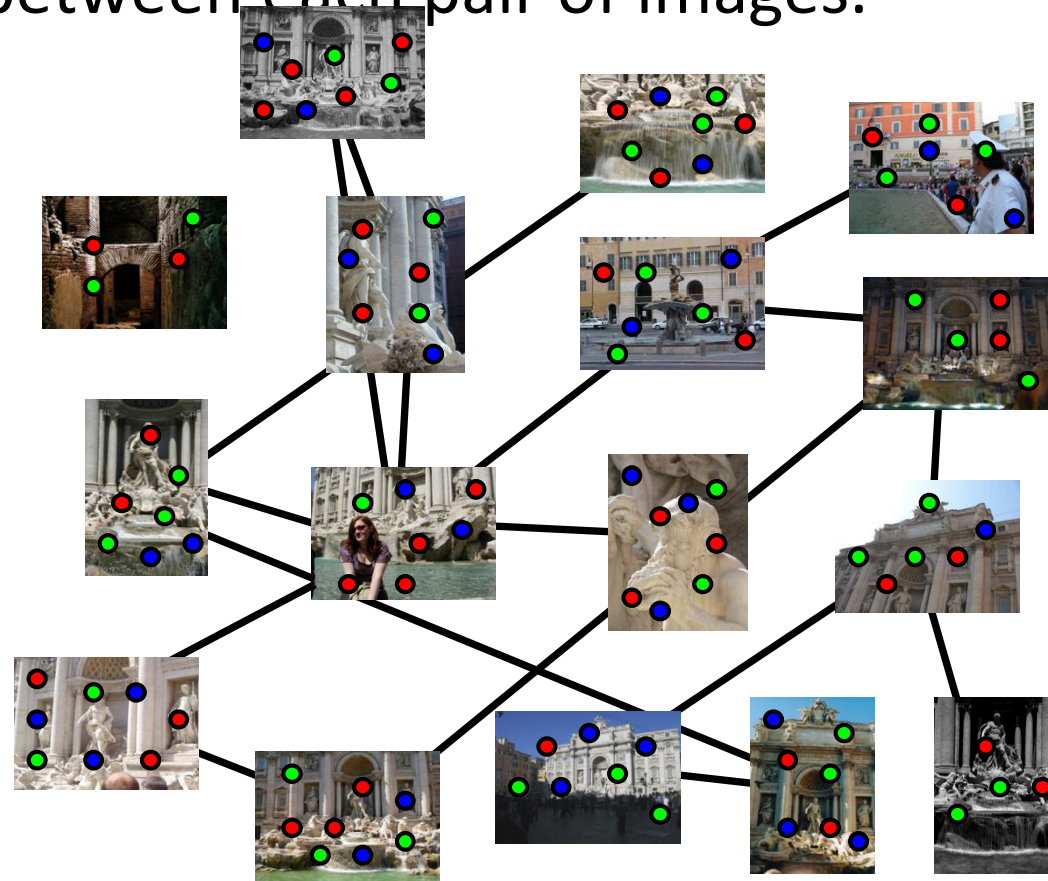
- Detect features using SIFT





# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections

- Match features between each pair of images.



# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections

- Link up pairwise matches to form connected components of matches across several images.

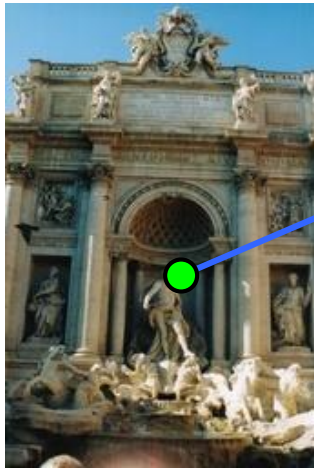


Image 1



Image 2

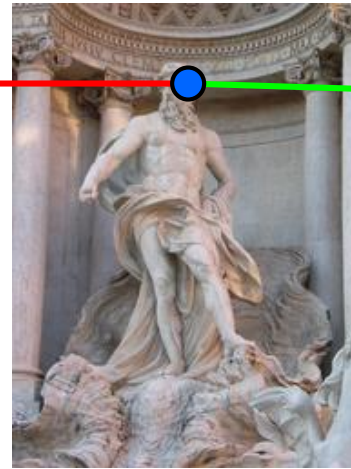


Image 3

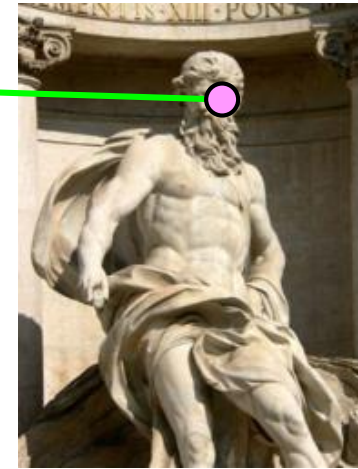
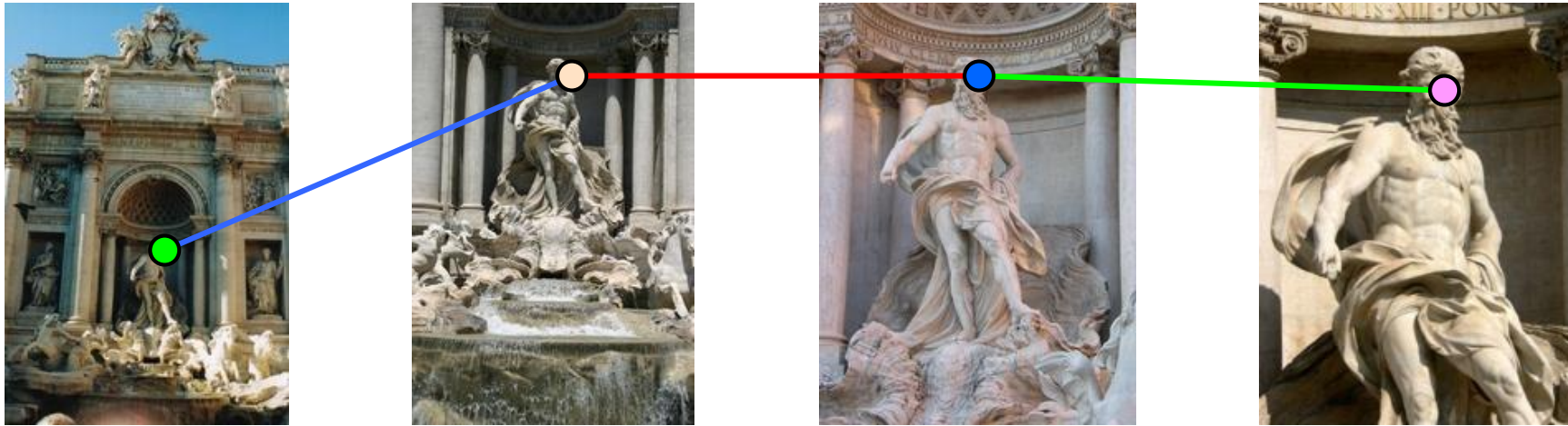


Image 4



# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections



# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections



Photos are automatically placed inside a sketchy 3D model of the scene; an optional overhead map also shows each photo's location.



# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections



An info pane on the left shows information about the current image and navigation buttons for moving around the collection; the filmstrip view on the bottom shows related images; mousing over these images brings them up as a registered overlay.

# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections



Photographs can also be taken in outdoor natural environments. The photos are correctly placed in 3-D, and more free-form geometric models can be used for inter-image transitions.



# Photo tourism: exploring photo collections



Annotations entered in one image (upper left) are automatically transferred to all other related images.

# Scene summarization for online collections

- <http://grail.cs.washington.edu/projects/canonview>



Scene summary browsing



Enhanced 3D browsing