# Visual Recognition: Instance Level Recognition

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Jan 19, 2012

Local features for instance-level recognition

## Application Example: Image stitching

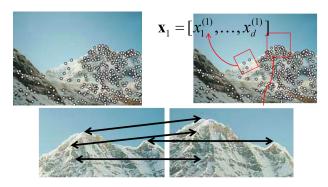






#### Local features

- **Detection**: Identify the interest points.
- Description: Extract vector feature descriptor around each interest point.
- Matching: Determine correspondence between descriptors in two views.
- Tracking: alternative to matching that only searches a small neighborhood around each detected feature.



## Goal: interest operator repeatability

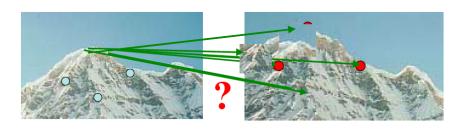
- We want to detect (at least some of) the same points in both images.
- We have to be able to run the detection procedure independently per image.



Figure: No chance to find the true matches

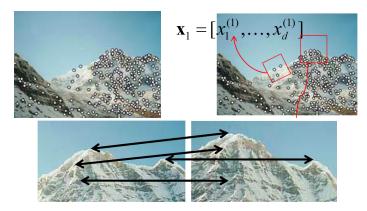
### Goal: descriptor distinctiveness

- We want to be able to reliably determine which point goes with which.
- Must provide some invariance to geometric and photometric differences between the two views.



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## Corners as distinctive interest points

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

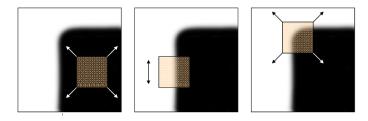


Figure: (left) flat region: no change in all directions, (center) edge: no change along the edge direction, (right) corner: significant change in all directions

[Source: Alyosha Efros, Darya Frolova, Denis Simakov]

• Compare two image patches using (weighted) summed square difference

$$E_{WSSD}(\mathbf{u}) = \sum_{i} w(\mathbf{p}_i) [I_1(\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{u}) - I_0(\mathbf{p}_i)]^2$$

with  $I_0$  and  $I_1$  two images being compared,  $\mathbf{u}(u_x, u_y)$  a displacement vector,  $w(\mathbf{p})$  a spatially varying weighting function, and the summation i is over all the pixels in the patch.

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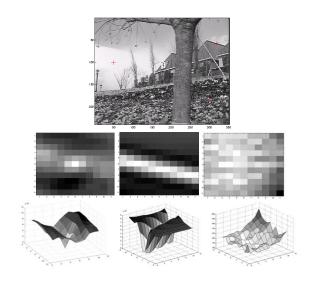
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### Which one is better?



### How to select?

• Using a Taylor Series expansion  $I_0(\mathbf{p}_i + \Delta \mathbf{u}) \approx I_0(\mathbf{p}_i) + \nabla I_0(\mathbf{p}_i)$  we can approximate the autocorrelation as

$$E_{AC}(\Delta \mathbf{u}) = \sum_{i} w(\mathbf{p}_{i})[I_{0}(\mathbf{p}_{i} + \Delta \mathbf{u}) - I_{0}(\mathbf{p}_{i})]^{2}$$

$$\approx \sum_{i} w(\mathbf{p}_{i})[I_{0}(\mathbf{p}_{i}) + \nabla I_{0}(\mathbf{p}_{i})\Delta \mathbf{u} - I_{0}(\mathbf{p}_{i})]^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i} w(\mathbf{p}_{i})[\nabla I_{0}(\mathbf{p}_{i})\Delta \mathbf{u}]^{2}$$

$$= \Delta \mathbf{u}^{T} \mathbf{A} \Delta \mathbf{u}$$

with

$$\nabla I_0(\mathbf{p}_i) = \left(\frac{\partial I_0}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I_0}{\partial y}\right)(\mathbf{p}_i)$$

the image gradient.

• Gradient can be computed with the filtering techniques we saw, e.g., derivatives of Gaussians.

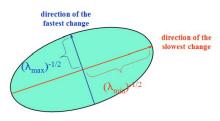
#### More on selection

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$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{u} \sum_{v} w(u, v) \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix} = w * \begin{bmatrix} I_x^2 & I_x I_y \\ I_y I_x & I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where we have replaced the weighted summations with discrete convolutions with the weighting kernel w.

- A can be interpreted as a tensor where the outer products of the gradients are convolved with a weighting function.
- Eigenvalues a notion of uncertainty



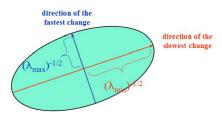
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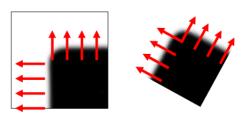


## Eigenvalues a notion of uncertainty

• A is symmetric

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{U}^T \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

- The eigenvalues of A reveal the amount of intensity change in the two principal orthogonal gradient directions in the window.
- How is this matrix for



- Shi and Tomasi, 94 proposed the smallest eigenvalue of **A**, i.e.,  $\lambda_0^{-1/2}$ .
- Harris and Stephens, 88 is rotationally invariant and downweights edge-like features where  $\lambda_1\gg\lambda_0$

$$det(\mathbf{A}) - \alpha trace(\mathbf{A})^2 = \lambda_0 \lambda_1 - \alpha (\lambda_0 + \lambda_1)^2$$

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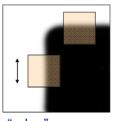
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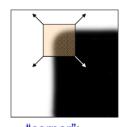
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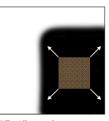
## Type of responses



"edge":  $\lambda_1 >> \lambda_2$  $\lambda_2 >> \lambda_1$ 



"corner":  $\lambda_1 \text{ and } \lambda_2 \text{ are large,} \\ \lambda_1 \sim \lambda_2;$ 



"flat" region  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are small;

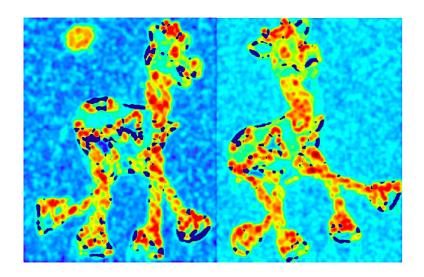
#### Harris Corner detector

- Compute A for each image window to get their cornerness scores.
- **②** Find points whose surrounding window gave large corner response (f > threshold).
- 3 Take the points of local maxima, i.e., perform non-maximum suppression.

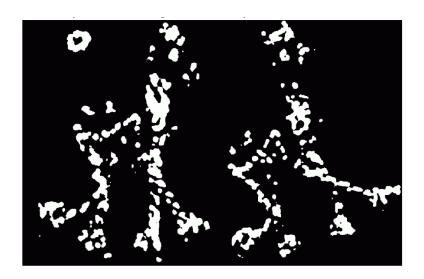
# Example



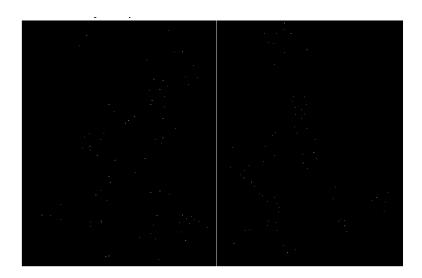
## 1) Compute Cornerness



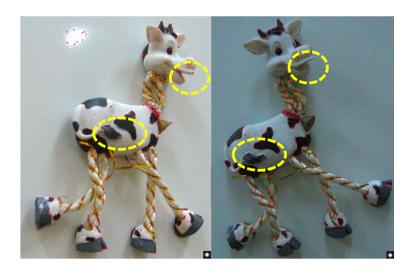
# 2) Find High Response



# 3) Non-maxima Suppresion



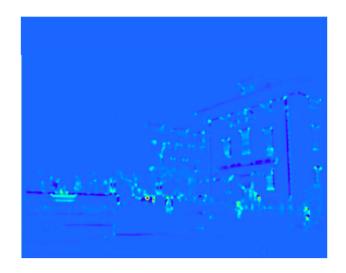
### Results



## Another Example



### Cornerness



### Interest Points

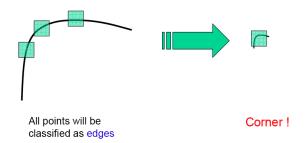


## Properties of Harris Corner Detector

Rotation invariant?

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Scale Invariant?



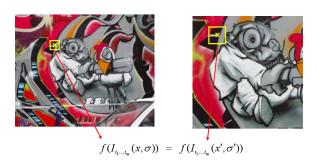
How can we independently select interest points in each image, such that the detections are repeatable across different scales?

• Extract features at a variety of scales, e.g., by using multiple resolutions in a pyramid, and then matching features at the same level.

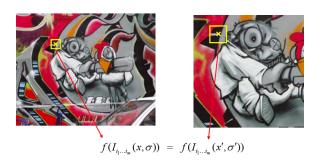
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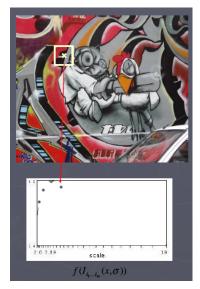
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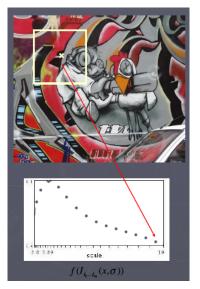


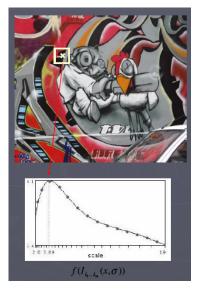


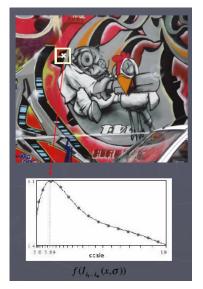


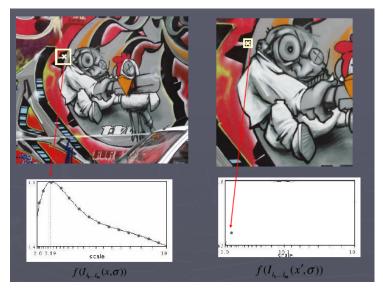


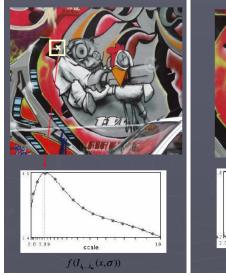




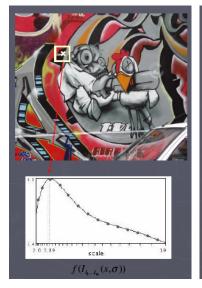




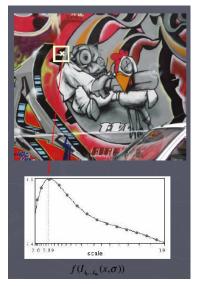




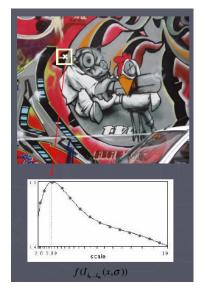


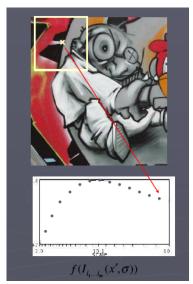


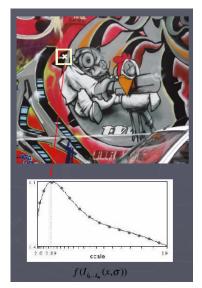


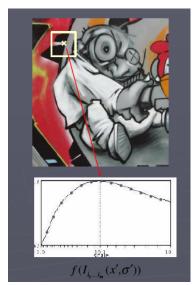






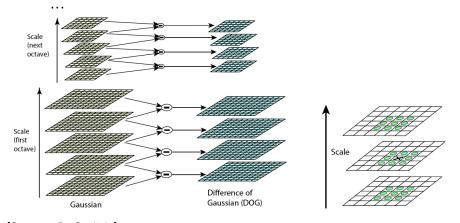






## What can the signature function be?

- Lindeberg (1998): extrema in the Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG).
- Lowe (2004) proposed computing a set of sub-octave Difference of Gaussian filters looking for 3D (space+scale) maxima in the resulting structure.

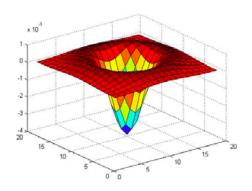


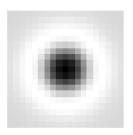
[Source: R. Szeliski]

## Blob detection

 Laplacian of Gaussian: Circularly symmetric operator for blob detection in 2D

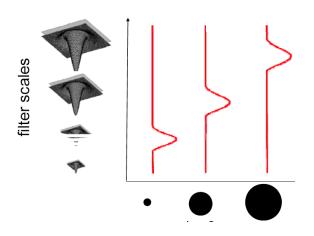
$$\nabla^2 g = \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial y^2}$$





### Blob detection in 2D: scale selection

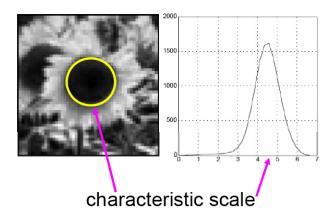
 ${\sf Laplacian-of-Gaussian} = {\sf blob\ detector}$ 



[Source: B. Leibe]

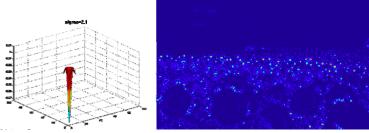
#### Characteristic Scale

 We define the characteristic scale as the scale that produces peak of Laplacian response

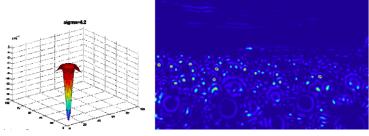


[Source: S. Lazebnik]

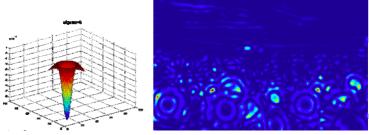




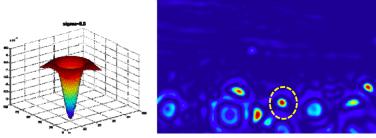




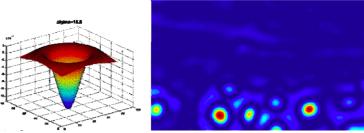




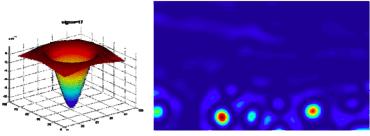


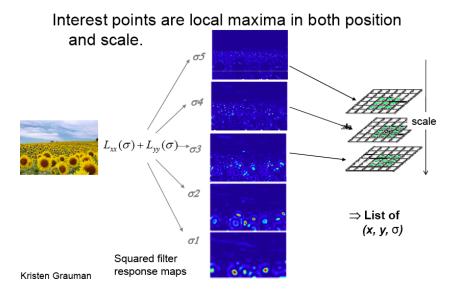














[Source: S. Lazebnik]

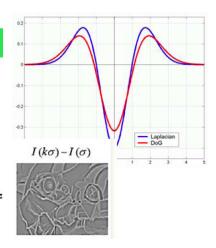
## Fast approximation

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

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

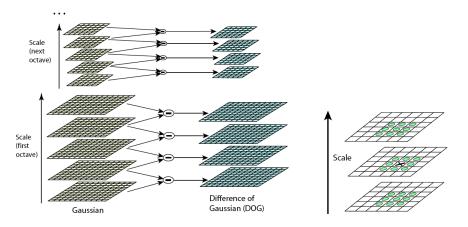
(Difference of Gaussians)

Ι(kσ) Ι(σ)



### Lowe's DoG

• Lowe (2004) proposed computing a set of sub-octave Difference of Gaussian filters looking for 3D (space+scale) maxima in the resulting structure



[Source: R. Szeliski]

## Laplacian vs Hessian

- Laplacian of Gaussians is scale invariant.
- Simple and efficient.
- But fires more on edges than determinant of hessian



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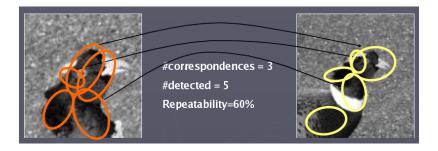
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#### A lot of other interest point detectors

- Hessian
- Lowe: DoG
- Lindeberg: scale selection
- Miikolajczyk & Schmid: Hessian/Harris-Laplacian/Affine
- Tuyttelaars & Van Gool: EBR and IBR
- Matas: MSER
- Kadir & Brrady: Salient Regions
- Speeded–Up Robust Features (SURF) of Bay et al.

## Evaluation criteria: repeatability

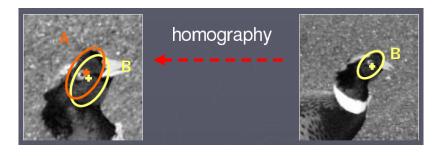
- Repeatability rate: percentage of detected that have correct corresponding points
- What's the problem of this?



[Source: T. Tuyttellaars]

## Evaluation criteria: repeatability

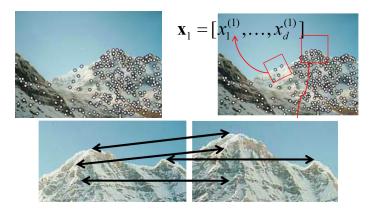
 Two points are in correspondence if the intersection over union is bigger than a certain threshold



[Source: T. Tuyttellaars]

#### Local features

- **Detection**: Identify the interest points.
- **Description**: Extract vector feature descriptor around each interest point.
- **Matching**: Determine correspondence between descriptors in two views.



## The ideal feature descriptor

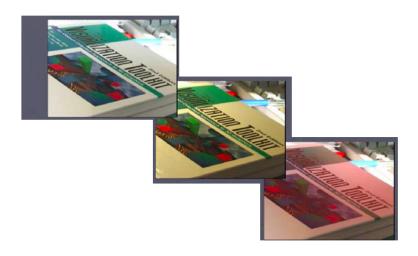
- Repeatable (invariant/robust)
- Distinctive
- Compact
- Efficient

#### Invariances



[Source: T. Tuytelaars]

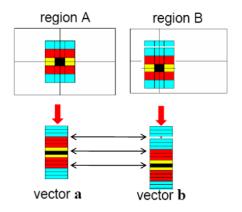
### **Invariances**



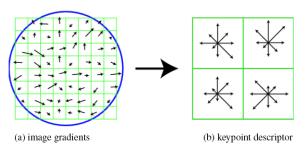
[Source: T. Tuytelaars]

## Raw Pixels as Local Descriptrs

- The simplest way is to write down the list of intensities to form a feature vector, and normalize them (i.e., mean 0, variance 1).
- But this is very sensitive to even small shifts, rotations.



- Compute the gradient at each pixel in a  $16 \times 16$  window around the detected keypoint, using the appropriate level of the Gaussian pyramid at which the keypoint was detected.
- Doweight gradients by a Gaussian fall-off function (blue circle) to reduce the influence of gradients far from the center.
- In each 4 × 4 quadrant, compute a gradient orientation histogram using 8 orientation histogram bins.



[Source: R. Szeliski]

- To reduce the effects of location and dominant orientation misestimation, each of the original 256 weighted gradient magnitudes is softly added to nearby bins.
- The resulting 128 non-negative values form a raw version of the SIFT descriptor vector.

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- Why does SIFT have some illumination invariance?

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- Why subpatches?
- Why does SIFT have some illumination invariance?

## Making descriptor rotation invariant

- Rotate patch according to its dominant gradient orientation
- This puts the patches into a canonical orientation

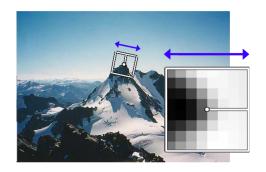


Figure: Figure from M. Brown

Extraordinarily robust matching technique

- Changes in viewpoint: up to about 60 degree out of plane rotation
- Changes in illumination: sometimes even day vs. night
- Fast and efficient: can run in real time
- Lots of code available





[Source: S. Seitz]

## Example





Figure: NASA Mars Rover images with SIFT feature matches

[Source: N. Snavely]

## SIFT properties

#### Invariant to

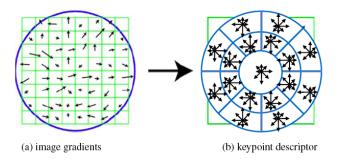
- Scale
- Rotation

#### Partially invariant to

- Illumination changes
- Camera viewpoint
- Occlusion, clutter

## Gradient location-orientation histogram (GLOH)

- Developed by Mikolajczyk and Schmid (2005): variant on SIFT that uses a log-polar binning structure instead of the four quadrants.
- The spatial bins are 11, and 15, with eight angular bins (except for the central region), for a total of 17 spatial bins and 16 orientation bins.
- The 272D histogram is then projected onto a 128D descriptor using PCA trained on a large database.



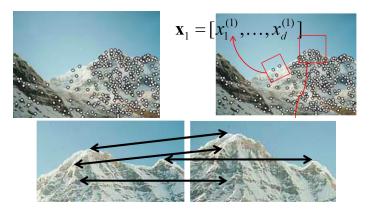
[Source: R. Szeliski]

## Other Descriptors

- Steerable filters
- moment invariants
- complex filters
- shape contexts
- PCA-SIFT
- HOG
- SURF
- DAISY

#### Local features

- Detection: Identify the interest points.
- Description: Extract vector feature descriptor around each interest point.
- **Matching**: Determine correspondence between descriptors in two views.



## Matching local features

Once we have extracted features and their descriptors, we need to match the features between these images.

- Matching strategy: which correspondences are passed on to the next stage
- Devise efficient data structures and algorithms to perform this matching





Figure: Images from K. Grauman

## Matching local features

- To generate candidate matches, find patches that have the most similar appearance (e.g., lowest SSD)
- Simplest approach: compare them all, take the closest (or closest k, or within a thresholded distance)



## Ambiguous matches

- At what SSD value do we have a good match?
- To add robustness, consider ratio of distance to best match to distance to second best match
  - If low, first match looks good.
  - If high, could be ambiguous match.





## Matching SIFT Descriptors

- Nearest neighbor (Euclidean distance)
- Threshold ratio of nearest to 2nd nearest descriptor

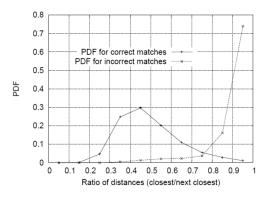


Figure: Images from D. Lowe

#### Which threshold to use?

- Setting the threshold too high results in too many false positives, i.e., incorrect matches being returned.
- Setting the threshold too low results in too many false negatives, i.e., too many correct matches being missed

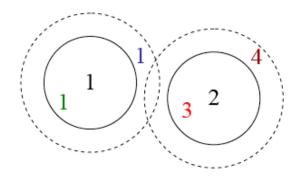


Figure: Images from R. Szeliski

## How to quantize how good is our matching?

- TP: true positives, i.e., number of correct matches
- FN: false negatives, matches that were not correctly detected
- FP: false positives, proposed matches that are incorrect
- TN: true negatives, non-matches that were correctly rejected.

True positive rate (recall) 
$$TPR = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} = \frac{TP}{P}$$
True negative rate 
$$TNR = \frac{FP}{FP + TN} = \frac{FP}{N}$$
positive predictive value (precision) 
$$PPV = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} = \frac{TP}{P'}$$
accuracy 
$$ACC = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N}$$

### Measuring performance

- Any particular matching strategy (at a particular threshold or parameter setting) can be rated by the TPR and FPR numbers
- We want TPR=1 and FPR=0.
- As we vary the matching threshold, we obtain a family of such points, i.e., receiver operating characteristic (ROC curve)
- The closer this curve lies to the upper left corner, the better its performance.

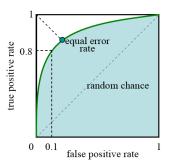


Figure: Images from R. Szeliski

## Measuring performance

- Area under the curve (AUC) is a way to summarize ROC with 1 number.
- Mean average precision, which is the average precision (PPV) as you vary the threshold.
- The equal error rate is sometimes used as well.

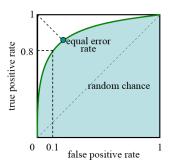


Figure: Images from R. Szeliski

### Applications of local invariant features

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

### Wide Baseline Stereo



[Source: T. Tuytelaars]

# Recognizing the Same Object



Schmid and Mohr 1997





Sivic and Zisserman, 2003



Rothganger et al. 2003



Lowe 2002

# Motion Tracking



Figure: Images from J. Pilet

## Summary

### Interest point detection

- Harris corner detector
- Laplacian of Gaussian, automatic scale selection
- Difference of Gaussians

### Invariant descriptors

- Rotation according to dominant gradient direction
- Histograms for robustness to small shifts and translations (SIFT descriptor)
- Polar coordinate descriptors GLOH.

Category-level recognition

## Recognizing or retrieving specific objects

• Example: Visual search in feature films



[Source: J. Sivic]

## Recognizing or retrieving specific objects

• Example: Search photos on the web for particular places







Find these landmarks

...in these images and 1M more

[Source: J. Sivic]









#### **Get Google Goggles**

Android (1.6+ required) Download from Android Market.

Send Goggles to Android phone

New! iPhone (iOS 4.0 required) Download from the App Store

Send Goggles to iPhone

















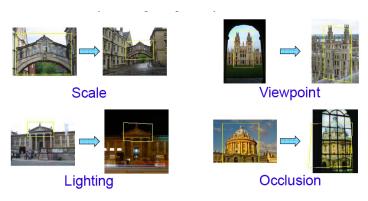






## Why is it difficult?

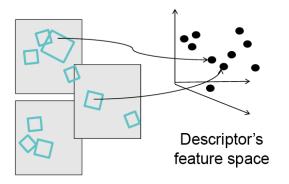
- Want to find the object despite possibly large changes in scale, viewpoint, lighting and partial occlusion.
- We can't expect to match such varied instances with a single global template...



[Source: J. Sivic]

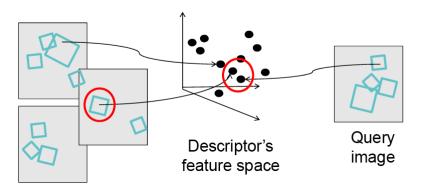
### Indexing local features

 Each patch / region has a descriptor, which is a point in some high-dimensional feature space (e.g., SIFT)



### Indexing local features

• It can have millions of features to search.



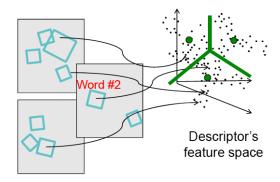
### Indexing local features: inverted file index

- For text documents, an efficient way to find all pages on which a word occurs is to use an index.
- We want to find all images in which a feature occurs.
- To use this idea, well need to map our features to visual words.
- Why?



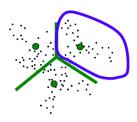
### Indexing local features: inverted file index

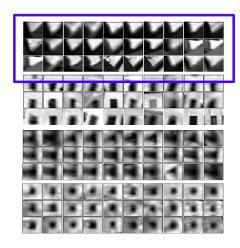
- Map high-dimensional descriptors to tokens/words by quantizing the feature space.
- Quantize via clustering, let cluster centers be the prototype words.
- Determine which word to assign to each new image region by finding the closest cluster.



### Visual words

 Each group of patches belongs to the same visual word.





### Visual vocabulary formation issues

- Vocabulary size, number of words
- Sampling strategy: where to extract features?
- Clustering / quantization algorithm
- Unsupervised vs. supervised
- What corpus provides features (universal vocabulary?)