ECE276A: Sensing & Estimation in Robotics Lecture 14: Visual Features

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From Photometry to Geometry

- Suppose that instead of a lidar (measures 3-D point positions), we would like to use a camera to localize our robot and build a map
- Image: an array of positive numbers that measure the amount of light incident on the sensor
- How do we go from measurements of light (photometry) to measurements of 2-D point projections (features)?
 - This lecture
- How do we go from 2-D point projections (features) to 3-D point positions (landmarks)?
 - ▶ We can use the visual-inertial SLAM approach of the previous lecture.

Correspondence





- Corresponding points in two views are image projections of the same geometric point in space
- Correspondence problem: establish which point $z_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ in the second image corresponds to a given point $z_1 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ in the first image in the sense of being the same point $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ in 3-D physical space
- ldea: look for a pixel z_2 in the second image such that $l_2(z_2) \approx l_1(z_1)$

Correspondence

- Matching windows: a robust process for establishing correspondence is to compare not the brightness of individual pixels but that of small pixel windows W(z₁), W(z₂) around the points
- Aperture problem: the brightness profile within the selected windows may not be rich enough to allow us to recover the transformation of the pixel z₁ uniquely (e.g., blank wall)
- Features: points whose local regions are rich enough to allow solving the correspondence problem. Features establish a link between photometric measurements and geometric primitives.
- ► The window shape W(z₁) and image values l₁(y), y ∈ W(z₁), associated with a pixel z₁ in the first image undergo a *nonlinear* transformation as a consequence of the change of viewpoint

Brightness constancy constraint

- Suppose we are imaging a point $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ that emits light with the same energy in all directions (Lambertian) and radiance distribution $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{m})$
- Suppose the camera is calibrated (i.e., K = I_{3×3}) and the two camera frames are related by a rigid-body transformation (R, p) ∈ SE(3).
- Let *I*₁ and *I*₂ be two images and z₁, z₂ ∈ ℝ² be the two pixels corresponding to m:

$$I_2(\mathbf{z}_2) = I_1(\mathbf{z}_1) \propto \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{m})$$

From the projection equations, the point z₁ in image l₁ corresponds to the point z₂ in image l₂ if:

$$\mathbf{z}_2 = g(\mathbf{z}_1) := rac{1}{\lambda_2} \left(\lambda_1 R \mathbf{z}_1 + \mathbf{p} \right)$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 are the **unknown** depths of the observed point **m**.

Brightness constancy constraint: $I_1(z_1) = I_2(g(z_1))$

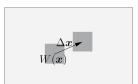
Local Deformation Models

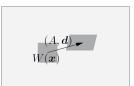
- The transformation g undergone by the entire image is determined by the depths λ₁, λ₂ of the visible surface and hence estimating g is as difficult as estimating the shape of the visible objects
- Instead, model the transformation g(z) only locally in a region W(z):
 Translation model: each point in the window W(z) undergoes the exact same translational motion d ∈ R²:

$$g(\mathbf{y}) pprox \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{d}, \quad \forall \mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})$$

This model is valid only in small windows and over short time durations but it is at the core of many feature matching and tracking algorithms.

Affine model: each point in the window W(z) undergoes an affine transformation with parameters A ∈ ℝ^{2×2} and d ∈ ℝ²:





$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}) pprox A\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{d}, \quad \forall \mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})$$

Matching Point Features

Requiring that l₁(z₁) = l₂(g(z₁)) is too strict due to the approximation of g and the presence of noise and occlusions

Correspondence problem: an optimization problem that aims to determine the (translation or affine) parameters of the local transformation model of g(y) for y ∈ W(z):

$$\min_{\mathbf{d}} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \|l_1(\mathbf{y}) - l_2(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{d})\|_2^2 \quad \mathsf{OR} \quad \min_{A, \mathbf{d}} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \|l_1(\mathbf{y}) - l_2(A\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{d})\|_2^2$$

Our approximations of g are valid only locally in space and time so consider the continuous version of the brightness constancy constraint:

$$I_1(\mathbf{z}) = I(\mathbf{z}(t), t) \underset{\text{brightness constancy}}{\approx} I_2(g(\mathbf{z})) \underset{\text{approximation model}}{\approx} I(A\mathbf{z}(t) + \mathbf{v}\tau, t + \tau)$$

where au is small and $oldsymbol{
u} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is the velocity of \mathbf{z}

Continuous-Time Brightness Constancy

Linearizing the right-hand side around (z, t):

$$I(A\mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\nu}\tau, t + \tau) \approx I(\mathbf{z}, t) + \nabla_{\mathbf{z}}I(\mathbf{z}, t)^{\top}(A\mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\nu}\tau - \mathbf{z}) + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}(\mathbf{z}, t)\tau$$

To ensure brightness constancy: I(z, t) ≈ I(Az + ντ, t + τ), choose A and ν such that:

• Affine model:
$$\min_{A,\nu} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \left\| \nabla_{\mathbf{z}} I(\mathbf{y},t)^{\top} \left(\frac{1}{\tau} (A-I) \mathbf{y} + \nu \right) + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} (\mathbf{y},t) \right\|_{2}^{2}$$

• Translation model:
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \left\| \nabla_{\mathbf{z}} I(\mathbf{y}, t)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\nu} + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}(\mathbf{y}, t) \right\|_{2}^{2}$$

- Aperture problem: the equation $\frac{\partial I}{\partial z}\nu + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = 0$ provides only one constraint for two unknowns $\nu \in \mathbb{R}^2$.
- There are enough constraints on v only when the brightness constancy constraint is applied to each y in a region W(z) that contains "sufficient texture" and the velocity v is assumed constant over the region.

- The translation model optimization is used for optical flow or feature tracking in a sequence of images
- Optical flow: computes the velocity ν of a fixed image location z
- Feature tracking: computes the velocity ν of a feature z(t) moving in time such that: z(t + τ) = z(t) + ντ
- The only difference between optical flow and feature tracking is at the conceptual level, whether the vector ν is computed at fixed locations z in the image or at moving points z(t)

• To compute the velocity ν we need to solve:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \left\| \nabla_{\mathbf{z}} I(\mathbf{y}, t)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\nu} + \frac{\partial I}{\partial t}(\mathbf{y}, t) \right\|_{2}^{2}$$

• Letting $\mathbf{z} = (u, v)$ and setting the gradient to zero results in:

$$0 = 2 \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \left(\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} l(\mathbf{y}, t)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\nu} + \frac{\partial l}{\partial t}(\mathbf{y}, t) \right) \nabla_{\mathbf{z}} l(\mathbf{y}, t)$$

$$= 2 \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} \left(\begin{bmatrix} l_{u}^{2}(\mathbf{y}) & l_{u}(\mathbf{y}) l_{v}(\mathbf{y}) \\ l_{u}(\mathbf{y}) l_{v}(\mathbf{y}) & l_{v}(\mathbf{y})^{2} \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\nu} + \begin{bmatrix} l_{u}(\mathbf{y}) l_{t}(\mathbf{y}) \\ l_{v}(\mathbf{y}) l_{t}(\mathbf{y}) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$= 2 \left(\underbrace{ \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{\mathbf{y}} l_{u}^{2}(\mathbf{y}) & \sum_{\mathbf{y}} l_{u}(\mathbf{y}) l_{v}(\mathbf{y}) \\ \sum_{\mathbf{y}} l_{u}(\mathbf{y}) l_{v}(\mathbf{y}) & \sum_{\mathbf{y}} l_{v}(\mathbf{y})^{2} \\ \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\nu} + \underbrace{ \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{\mathbf{y}} l_{u}(\mathbf{y}) l_{t}(\mathbf{y}) \\ \sum_{\mathbf{y}} l_{v}(\mathbf{y}) l_{t}(\mathbf{y}) \end{bmatrix} }_{b(\mathbf{z})} \right)$$

• The optimal estimate of the image velocity at z is $|v^* = -G(z)^{-1}b(z)|_{10}$

Point Feature Selection

- For G(z) to be invertible, the region W(z) must have nontrivial gradients along independent directions, therefore resembling a "corner"
- Corner: a pixel z such that the smallest eigenvalue of G(z) is larger than some threshold ρ
- **Harris corner**: a variation of the corner detector that thresholds:

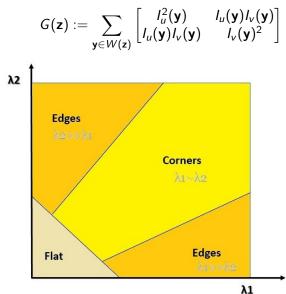
$$\lambda_1\lambda_2 - k(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^2 = \det(G) - k\operatorname{tr}^2(G) \ge \rho$$

where $k \in [0.04, 0.06]$ is a small scalar and λ_1 , λ_2 are the eigenvalues of G. Since k is small, both eigenvalues of G need to be sufficiently large to pass the threshold.

More sophisticated techniques that utilize contours or edges and search for high curvature points in the detected contours are used in practice

Point Feature Selection

• Description of $W(\mathbf{z})$ as a function of the eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 of



$\label{eq:algorithm 1} \textbf{Algorithm 1} \text{ Basic Feature Tracking and Optical Flow}$

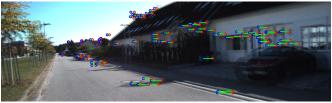
- 1: Input: Image I at time t
- 2:

3: Compute the image gradient
$$(l_u, l_v)$$

4: Compute $G(\mathbf{z}) := \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} l_u^2(\mathbf{y}) & \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} l_u(\mathbf{y}) l_v(\mathbf{y}) \\ \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} l_u(\mathbf{y}) l_v(\mathbf{y}) & \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} l_v^2(\mathbf{y}) \end{bmatrix}$ at every pixel $\mathbf{z} = (u, v)$
5:
6: (Feature tracking) select point features $\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots$ such that $G(\mathbf{z}_i)$ is invertible
7: (Optical flow) select \mathbf{z}_i on a fixed grid
8:
9: Compute $b(\mathbf{z}) := \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} l_u(\mathbf{y}) l_t(\mathbf{y}) \\ \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in W(\mathbf{z})} l_v(\mathbf{y}) l_t(\mathbf{y}) \end{bmatrix}$
0:
1: If $G(\mathbf{z})$ is invertible, compute $\nu(\mathbf{z}) = -G(\mathbf{z})^{-1}b(\mathbf{z})$
2: Else $\nu(\mathbf{z}) = 0$.

- 13:
- 14: (Feature tracking) at time t+1, repeat the operation at $\mathbf{z}+oldsymbol{
 u}(z) au$
- 15: (Optical flow) at time t + 1, repeat the operation at z



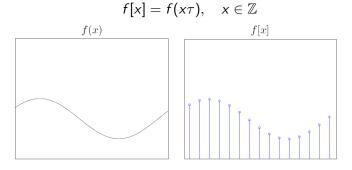




- The feature tracking/optical flow algorithm is very efficient when we use the translation model
- When features are tracked over extended periods of time, however, the approximation error accumulates
- Instead of matching image regions between adjacent frames, one could match image regions between an initial frame and the current frame
- The simple translation model is no longer accurate and we should use the affine model
- Further reading about the Kanade-Lucas-Tomasi (KLT) feature tracker:
 - B. Lucas and T. Kanade, "An Iterative Image Registration Technique with an Application to Stereo Vision," International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI), 1981.
 - C. Tomasi and T. Kanade, "Detection and Tracking of Point Features," CMU Technical Report CMU-CS-91-132, 1991.
 - J. Shi and C. Tomasi, "Good Features to Track," IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 1994.

Image Gradients

- How do we compute the gradients I_u(u, v, t), I_v(u, v, t), and I_t(u, v, t) needed for feature tracking/optical flow?
- ► We could approximate the derivatives using finite differences, e.g.,: $I_t(u, v, t) \approx \frac{1}{\tau} (I(u, v, t) - I(u, v, t - 1))$ OR $I_t(u, v, t) \approx \frac{1}{2\tau} (I(u, v, t + 1) - I(u, v, t - 1))$
- To derive a more accurate approximation, we need to understand the relationship between a continuous signal f(x) and its sampled version with period τ:



Nyquist-Shannon Sampling Theorem

- If f(x) is band limited, i.e., its Fourier transform satisfies |F(ω)| = 0 for all ω > ω_n (Nyquist frequency), it can be reconstructed exactly from a set of discrete samples at sampling frequency ω_s := ^{2π}/_τ > 2ω_n.
- The continuous signal f(x) can be reconstructed by multiplying its sampled version f[x] in the frequency domain with an ideal reconstruction filter h(x) with Fourier transform:

$$H(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \omega \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{\tau}, \frac{\pi}{\tau}\right] \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad h(x) = \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\pi x}{\tau}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Multiplication in the frequency domain corresponds to convolution in the spatial domain, thus as long as ω_n < π/τ:</p>

$$f(x) = f[x] * h(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f[k]h(x-k), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Derivative of a Sampled Signal

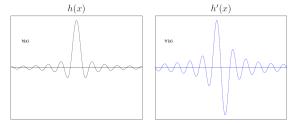
• Differentiating f(x) = f[x] * h(x):

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f[k]\frac{d}{dx}h(x-k) = f[x] * \frac{dh}{dx}(x)$$

Sampling the above result shows that the derivative of the sampled function f'[x] can be computed as a convolution of the sampled signal f[x] with the sampled derivative of the sync function h'[x]:

$$f'[x] = f[x] * h'[x]$$

$$h'(x) = \frac{(\pi^2 x / \tau^2) \cos(\pi x / \tau) - \pi / \tau \sin(\pi x / \tau)}{(\pi x / \tau)^2}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$



Five-tap Gaussian Filter

- The sync function has infinite support and falls off very slowly away from the origin. Hence, simple truncation of sync convolution yields undesirable artifacts and is not practically feasible
- The derivative can be approximated by convolving with a Gaussian instead of a sync since it drops to zero much faster:

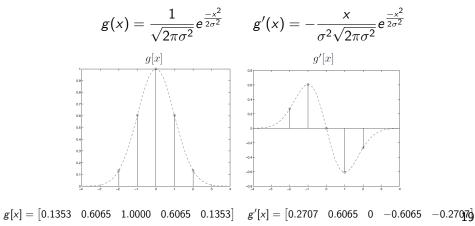


Image Gradients

▶ In the case of images (2-D functions) the result is the same:

$$I(u, v) = I[u, v] * h(u, v) \quad h(u, v) = h(u)h(v) = \frac{\sin(\pi u/\tau)\sin(\pi v/\tau)}{\pi^2 u v/\tau^2}$$

Note that h(u, v) = h(u)h(v) is separable which leads to:

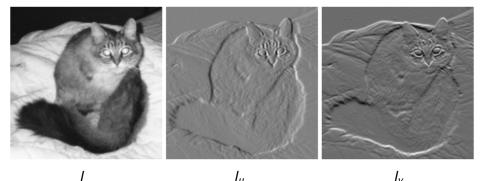
 $I_{u}[u, v] = I[u, v] * h'[u] * h[v] \qquad I_{v}(u, v) = I[u, v] * h[u] * h'[v]$

The computation of the image derivatives is then accomplished as a pair of 1-D convolutions with filters obtained by sampling a continuous Gaussian probability density function and its derivative:

$$I_{u}[u, v] = I[u, v] * g'[u] * g[v] = \sum_{k=-\omega/2}^{\omega/2} \sum_{l=-\omega/2}^{\omega/2} I[k, l]g'[u-k]g[v-l]$$
$$I_{v}[u, v] = I[u, v] * g[u] * g'[v] = \sum_{k=-\omega/2}^{\omega/2} \sum_{l=-\omega/2}^{\omega/2} I[k, l]g[u-k]g'[v-l]$$

The number of samples is typically chosen as ω = 5σ, imposing the fact that the window covers 98.76% of the area under the Gaussian curve 20

Image Gradients



 I_u

 I_v

Other Derivative Filters, Features, and Descriptors

- Other commonly used derivative filters:
 - Interpolation filter: $h[x] = \frac{1}{2}[1, 1]$ with derivative $h'[x] = \frac{1}{2}[1, -1]$
 - Sobel filter: $h[x] = \frac{1}{2 \pm \sqrt{2}} [1, \sqrt{2}, 1]$ with derivative $h'[x] = \frac{1}{3} [1, 0, -1]$
 - Gabor filter: used for texture analysis
- Other features and descriptors (describe feature shape, color, texture):
 - SIFT: the Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT), introduced by David Lowe, is one of the most successful local image features/descriptors in the past decade. It makes the Harris corner scale invariant by using scale-space filtering via a Laplacian of Gaussian kernel (blob detector)
 - SURF: the Speeded-Up Robust Feature is a speeded-up version of SIFT which applies an approximate 2nd derivative Gaussian filter at many scales along the axes and at 45° (more robust to rotation than Harris corners)
 - FAST: a Feature from Accelerated Segment Test detects corners by considering 16 pixels around the pixel y being tested and is several times faster than other corner detectors
 - BRIEF: a Binary Robust Independent Elementary Features speed up descriptor calculation and matching
 - ORB: Oriented FAST and Rotated BRIEF