COS 429: COMPUTER VISION
Linear Filters and Edge Detection

- convolution
- shift invariant linear system
- Fourier Transform
- Aliasing and sampling
- scale representation
- edge detection
- corner detection

Reading: Chapters 7, 8
Linear Filters

• Linear filtering:
  – Form a new image whose pixels are a weighted sum of original pixel values, using the same set of weights at each point
Convolution

- Represent the linear weights as an image, $F$
- $F$ is called the **kernel**
- Operation is called **convolution**
  - Center origin of the kernel $F$ at each pixel location
  - Multiply weights by corresponding pixels
  - Set resulting value for each pixel

- Image, $R$, resulting from convolution of $F$ with image $H$, where $u,v$ range over kernel pixels:

$$R_{ij} = \sum_{u,v} H_{i-u,j-v} F_{uv}$$

**Warning:** the textbook mixes up $H$ and $F$

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)
Linear filtering (warm-up slide)

original

Slide credits for these examples: Bill Freeman, David Jacobs
Linear filtering (warm-up slide)
Linear filtering

original

?
shift

original

shifted

Pixel offset

coefficient

1.0
Linear filtering

original

Pixel offset

coefficient

0.3

0
Blurring

original

Blurred (filter applied in both dimensions).
Blur examples

impulse

original

coefficient

$0$

Pixel offset

filtered

8

0.3

2.4
Blur examples

impulse

original

coefficient

Pixel offset

filtered

edge

original

coefficient

Pixel offset

filtered
Linear filtering (warm-up slide)

[Diagram showing a process with inputs 2.0 and 1.0 leading to an output question mark]
Linear filtering (no change)
Linear filtering

original
(remember blurring)

original

Blurred (filter applied in both dimensions)
Sharpening

original

Sharpened original
Sharpening example

original

coefficient

-0.3

-0.25

Sharpened
(differences are accentuated; constant areas are left untouched).
Sharpening

before  after
Convolution

\[
\frac{1}{9}(10x1 + 11x1 + 10x1 + 9x1 + 10x1 + 11x1 + 10x1 + 9x1 + 10x1) = \frac{1}{9}( 90) = 10
\]

Slide credit: Christopher Rasmussen
Average filter (box filter)

- Mask with positive entries, that sum to 1.
- Replaces each pixel with an average of its neighborhood.
- If all weights are equal, it is called a box filter.

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)
Example: Smoothing with a box filter
Smoothing with a Gaussian

- Smoothing with a box actually doesn’t compare at all well with a defocussed lens
- Most obvious difference is that a single point of light viewed in a defocussed lens looks like a fuzzy blob; but the averaging process would give a little square.

- A Gaussian gives a good model of a fuzzy blob
- It closely models many physical processes (the sum of many small effects)

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)
Gaussian Kernel

- Idea: Weight contributions of neighboring pixels by nearness

\[
G_\sigma = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{(x^2+y^2)}{2\sigma^2}}
\]

- Constant factor at front makes volume sum to 1 (can be ignored, as we should normalize weights to sum to 1 in any case).

Slide credit: Christopher Rasmussen
Smoothing with a Gaussian
Smoothing reduces pixel noise:

Each row shows smoothing with Gaussians of different width; each column shows different amounts of Gaussian noise.
Efficient Implementation

• Both the BOX filter and the Gaussian filter are separable into two 1D convolutions:
  – First convolve each row with a 1D filter
  – Then convolve each column with a 1D filter.
Differentiation and convolution

• Recall, for 2D function, $f(x,y)$:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \left( \frac{f(x + \varepsilon, y) - f(x, y)}{\varepsilon} \right)$$

• This is linear and shift invariant, so must be the result of a convolution.

• We could approximate this as

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \approx \frac{f(x_{n+1}, y) - f(x_n, y)}{\Delta x}$$

(which is obviously a convolution)
Vertical gradients from finite differences
Shift invariant linear systems

• 3 properties
  – Superposition
  – Scaling
  – Shift invariance
Discrete convolution

• 1D
• 2D
• “edge effects” in discrete convolution
Spatial frequency and Fourier Transform

\[
\mathcal{F}(g(x, y))(u, v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) e^{-i2\pi(ux+vy)} \, dx \, dy
\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Fourier transform</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$g(x, y)$</td>
<td>$\iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y)e^{-i2\pi(ux+vy)}dxdy$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathcal{F}(g(x, y))(u, v)e^{i2\pi(ux+vy)}dudv$</td>
<td>$\mathcal{F}(g(x, y))(u, v)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\delta(x, y)$</td>
<td>$1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y)$</td>
<td>$u\mathcal{F}(f)(u, v)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$0.5\delta(x+a, y) + 0.5\delta(x-a, y)$</td>
<td>$\cos 2\pi au$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$e^{-\pi(x^2+y^2)}$</td>
<td>$e^{-\pi(u^2+v^2)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$box_1(x, y)$</td>
<td>$\frac{\sin u \sin v}{u \cdot v}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f(ax, by)$</td>
<td>$\mathcal{F}(f)(u/a, v/b)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-i, y-j)$</td>
<td>$\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(u-i, v-j)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(f \ast g)(x, y)$</td>
<td>$\mathcal{F}(f)\mathcal{F}(g)(u, v)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f(x-a, y-b)$</td>
<td>$e^{-i2\pi(au+bv)}\mathcal{F}(f)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f(x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta, x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta)$</td>
<td>$\mathcal{F}(f)(u \cos \theta - v \sin \theta, u \sin \theta + v \cos \theta)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sampling and aliasing

Constructing a pyramid by taking every second pixel leads to layers that badly misrepresent the top layer.
Sampling in 1D

**FIGURE 7.8:** Sampling in 1D takes a function, and returns a vector whose elements are values of that function at the sample points, as the top figures show. For our purposes, it is enough that the sample points be integer values of the argument. We allow the vector to be infinite dimensional, and have negative as well as positive indices.
Sampling in 2D
Smoothing and resampling

- Nyquist’s theorem
Algorithm 7.1: Sub-sampling an Image by a Factor of Two

Apply a low-pass filter to the original image (a Gaussian with a $\sigma$ of between one and two pixels is usually an acceptable choice).
Create a new image whose dimensions on edge are half those of the old image
Set the value of the $i, j$’th pixel of the new image to the value of the $2i, 2j$’th pixel of the filtered image
Filters are templates

• Applying a filter at some point can be seen as taking a dot-product between the image and some vector

• Filtering the image is a set of dot products

• Insight
  – filters look like the effects they are intended to find
  – filters find effects they look like

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)
Normalized correlation

- Think of filters as a dot product of the filter vector with the image region
  - Now measure the angle between the vectors
    \[ a \cdot b = \| a \| \| b \| \cos \theta \]
  - Angle (similarity) between vectors can be measured by normalizing length of each vector to 1.
  - Normalized correlation: divide each correlation by square root of sum of squared values (length)

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)
Application: Vision system for TV remote control
- uses template matching
We need scaled representations

• Find template matches at all scales
  – e.g., when finding hands or faces, we don’t know what size they will be in a particular image
  – Template size is constant, but image size changes
• Efficient search for correspondence
  – look at coarse scales, then refine with finer scales
  – much less cost, but may miss best match
• Examining all levels of detail
  – Find edges with different amounts of blur
  – Find textures with different spatial frequencies (levels of detail)
The Gaussian pyramid

• Create each level from previous one:
  – smooth and sample
• Smooth with Gaussians, in part because
  – a Gaussian*Gaussian = another Gaussian
  – $G(x) \ast G(y) = G(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2})$
All the extra levels add very little overhead for memory or computation!
Edge and Corner Detection

• **Goal:** Identify sudden changes (discontinuities) in an image
• This is where most shape information is encoded
• **Example:** artist’s line drawing (but artist is also using object-level knowledge)

Slide credit: David Lowe (UBC)
What causes an edge?

- Depth discontinuity
- Surface orientation discontinuity
- Reflectance discontinuity (i.e., change in surface material properties)
- Illumination discontinuity (e.g., shadow)
Smoothing and Differentiation

- **Edge**: a location with high gradient (derivative)
- Need smoothing to reduce noise prior to taking derivative
- Need two derivatives, in x and y direction.
- We can use derivative of Gaussian filters
  - because differentiation is convolution, and convolution is associative:
    \[ D \ast (G \ast I) = (D \ast G) \ast I \]
Derivative of Gaussian

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial x} G_\sigma \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} G_\sigma
\]
Scale

Increased smoothing:
- Eliminates noise edges.
- Makes edges smoother and thicker.
- Removes fine detail.
Edge Detection

• Criteria for optimal edge detection:

  - **Good detection**: the optimal detector must minimize the probability of false positives (detecting spurious edges caused by noise), as well as that of false negatives (missing real edges).

  - **Good localization**: the edges detected must be as close as possible to the true edges.

  - **Single response constraint**: the detector must return one point only for each true edge point; that is, minimize the number of local maxima around the true edge.
Edge Detection

- Examples:

  - True edge
  - Poor robustness to noise
  - Poor localization
  - Too many responses
Canny Edge Detection

• The Canny edge detector:
  - This is probably the most widely used edge detector in computer vision.
  - Canny has shown that the first derivative of the Gaussian closely approximates the operator that optimizes the product of signal-to-noise ratio and localization.
  - His analysis is based on "step-edges" corrupted by "additive Gaussian noise".
Canny Edge Detection

Steps:
1. Smooth image w/ Gaussian filter
2. Apply derivative of Gaussian
3. Find magnitude and orientation of gradient
4. ‘Non-maximum suppression’
   • Thin multi-pixel wide “ridges” down to single pixel width
5. ‘Hysteresis’: Linking and thresholding
   • Low, high edge-strength thresholds
   • Accept all edges over low threshold that are connected to edge over high threshold

• Matlab: `edge(I, 'canny')`
Canny Edge Detector  
First Two Steps  

- Smoothing  
  \[ S = I \ast g(x, y) = g(x, y) \ast I \]  

- Derivative  
  \[ g(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}} \]  

\[ \nabla S = \nabla(g \ast I) = (\nabla g) \ast I \]  
\[ \nabla S = \begin{bmatrix} g_x \\ g_y \end{bmatrix} \ast I = \begin{bmatrix} g_x \ast I \\ g_y \ast I \end{bmatrix} \]  
\[ \nabla g = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_x \\ g_y \end{bmatrix} \]
Canny Edge Detector
Derivative of Gaussian
Canny Edge Detector
First Two Steps

\[ I \]

\[ S_x \]

\[ S_y \]
Canny Edge Detector
Third Step

- Gradient magnitude and gradient direction

\[(S_x, S_y) \text{ Gradient Vector} \]

magnitude = \(\sqrt{(S_x^2 + S_y^2)}\)

direction = \(\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{S_y}{S_x}\)
Canny Edge Detector
Fourth Step

• Non maximum suppression

We wish to mark points along the curve where the magnitude is biggest. We can do this by looking for a maximum along a slice normal to the curve (non-maximum suppression). These points should form a curve. There are then two algorithmic issues: at which point is the maximum, and where is the next one?
Non-maximum suppression

At q, the value must be larger than values interpolated at p or r.
Examples:
Non-Maximum Suppression

Original image  Gradient magnitude  Non-maxima suppressed

courtesy of G. Loy

Slide credit: Christopher Rasmussen
fine scale
high threshold
coarse scale, high threshold
coarse scale
low threshold
Linking to the next edge point

Assume the marked point is an edge point.

Take the normal to the gradient at that point and use this to predict continuation points (either r or s).
Canny Edge Detector
Step 5: Hysteresis Thresholding

- **Hysteresis**: A lag or momentum factor
- **Idea**: Maintain two thresholds $k_{\text{high}}$ and $k_{\text{low}}$
  - Use $k_{\text{high}}$ to find strong edges to start edge chain
  - Use $k_{\text{low}}$ to find weak edges which continue edge chain
- **Typical ratio of thresholds** is roughly

$$\frac{k_{\text{high}}}{k_{\text{low}}} = 2$$
Example: Canny Edge Detection

Original image

Strong edges only

Strong + connected weak edges

gap is gone

Weak edges

courtesy of G. Loy
Example: Canny Edge Detection

Using Matlab with default thresholds

Slide credit: Christopher Rasmussen
Demo

http://www.cs.washington.edu/research/imagedatabase/demo/edge/