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The organization of this paper is as follows. In section II, we give an overall scheme of different steps of the proposed descriptor. Section III describes the classification process step. The experimental results will be presented in section IV. Finally, the paper is concluded in section V.

II. FEATURE EXTRACTION

In this step, The SIFT descriptors are proposed to describe target in SAR images. However, not all the extracted SIFT keypoints are useful to represent the SAR image as shown in Figure 2(b). For this reason, we aim to compute only the keypoints existing in the salient region in order to describe only the target area image. For doing so, we firstly compute a saliency map using Itti model [14]. This map is used as a mask of SAR image. After that, we compute the SIFT descriptors of the produced SAR image. We display in Figure 2 the application of the mentioned steps on an example of SAR image. By taking a visual comparison between Figure 2(b) and 2(d), it is clear that all salient keypoints are concentrated in the salient region of the SAR image. We give in next subsection a brief review of Itti's model as well as the SIFT method.

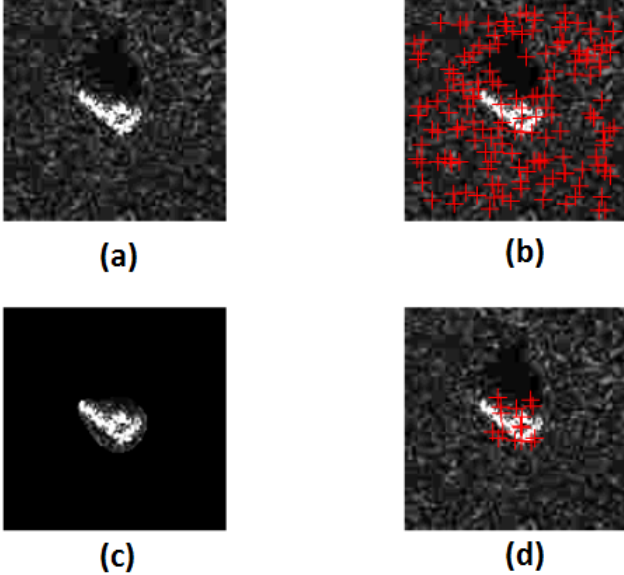


Fig. 2: SIFT and Salient SIFT keypoints distribution. (a) SAR image. (b) SIFT keypoints distribution. (c) Salient region of the SAR image. (d) Salient SIFT keypoints distribution.

A. Visual attention model

Recently, several works give a special attention to the visual attention modeling for several applications in image processing [15]. The idea behind this research field is to detect image regions that attract the observer. These image regions are called salient region.

Among the first saliency models proposed in the literature, we find the Itti saliency model [14]. This model integrates three feature channels: intensity, color and orientation. In this work, we test our method on grayscale SAR images, consequently, we don't take into account the color information. Using the

intensity information, this saliency model generates a Gaussian pyramid $I(\sigma)$ where $\sigma \in [0.8]$ is the scale. After that, the oriented Gabor pyramids $O(\sigma, \theta)$, where $\theta \in \{0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ\}$ is the orientation angles. Based on intensity and orientation channels, the center-surround difference ($\ominus$) between a center c and a surround s is calculated. As a result, 30 feature maps (FM) are generated :

- 6 FM for intensity:

$$I(c, s) = |I(c) \ominus I(s)| \quad (1)$$

where $c \in \{2, 3, 4\}$

- 24 FM for orientation:

$$O(c, s, \theta) = |O(c, \theta) \ominus O(s, \theta)| \quad (2)$$

where $s = c + \delta, \delta \in \{3, 4\}$

The feature maps found in the previous step is normalized ($N(\cdot)$) and combined using the across-scale addition ($\oplus$). As a result, we obtain two conspicuity maps : $\bar{I}$ for intensity and $\bar{O}$ for orientation:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{I} &= \bigoplus_{c=2}^4 \bigoplus_{s=c+3}^{c+4} N(I(c, s)). \\ \bar{O} &= \sum_{\theta \in \{0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ\}} N \left(\bigoplus_{c=2}^4 \bigoplus_{s=c+3}^{c+4} N(O(c, s, \theta)) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The final saliency map is simply obtained using the summation and the normalization of the two conspicuity maps as follows:

$$S = \frac{1}{2} (N(\bar{I}) + N(\bar{O})). \quad (4)$$

We display in Figure 3 an example of SAR image and the corresponding saliency map. We can see that the region of interest which is target area is located in the saliency map.

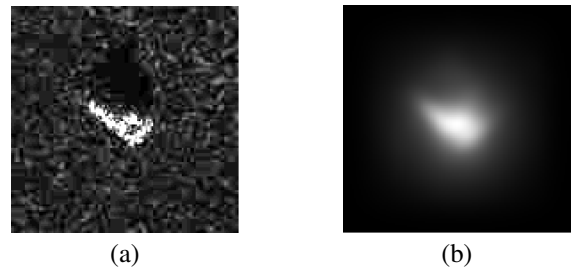


Fig. 3: (a) An example of SAR image. (b) Corresponding saliency map.

B. SIFT keypoint detection and description

The Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) method aims to extract a local feature of images. It is proposed by [16]. This algorithm is used in several image processing applications, e.g., face recognition, biometric and others. Generally, the SIFT method use four steps:

1) *Scale-space extrema detection*: To transform an image to a scale space, the convolution of the image $I(x, y)$ with a variable-scale Gaussian $G(x, y, \sigma)$ is performed:

$$L(x, y, \sigma) = G(x, y, \sigma) * I(x, y), \quad (5)$$

where σ represents standard deviation of the Gaussian distribution. After that, the difference-of-Gaussian (DOG) is calculated as follows:

$$DOG(x, y, \sigma) = L(x, y, k\sigma) - L(x, y, \sigma). \quad (6)$$

Where k control the difference between two nearby scales. A pixel of the DOG is considered as a keypoint if it is the local maxima or minima compared with 26 pixels neighbors as illustrated in Figure 4.

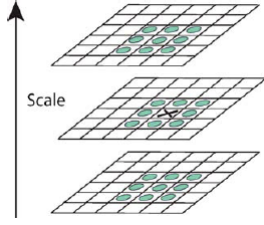


Fig. 4: Comparison of the keypoints with 26 pixel values [16].

2) *Keypoint localization*: The founded keypoints are filtered in order to pick the best ones and reject the unstable ones.

3) *Orientation assignment*: A gradient orientation histogram with 36 bins is calculated by considering a neighbor region around a keypoint. The orientation of the keypoint correspond to the peak of this histogram.

4) *Keypoint descriptor*: This step aims to compute a feature vector (descriptor) for each keypoint. It is done by considering a neighboring region around a pixel. The size of this region is 16×16 pixels. This region is splitted to 16 sub-regions. Each sub-region has the size of 4×4 pixels. For each sub-region, a weighted histogram of 8 bins is calculated. Consequently, the size of the final descriptor is $128 = 4 \times 4 \times 8$ values.

III. FEATURE MATCHING

We adopt in this work the nearest neighbor rule (NNR) strategy [16] to measure the distance between SAR images. This technique exploits the matching of keypoints. We assume that the built feature for a given SAR image is described as follows:

$$FV = [KP_1, KP_2, \dots, KP_n] \quad (7)$$

where n is the number of keypoints and KP_i is the descriptor of the keypoint of index $i = 1, \dots, n$, the size of each keypoint KP_i is 128 values.

The distance between a feature vector of test sample FV^t with a feature vector of train sample FV^{tr} can be formulated as:

$$\text{Dist}(FV^t, FV^{tr}) = \frac{1}{n_t} \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} \min(\text{dist}(KP_i^t, KP_j^{tr})_{j=1, \dots, n_{tr}}) \quad (8)$$

where "dist" is a distance between two keypoints descriptors and n_{tr} and n_t (generally $n_t \neq n_{tr}$) are the number of keypoints in training and test sets respectively. Finally, the target type (class) of an unknown SAR image is the class of image that gives the small distance.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To evaluate the proposed approach, we use three classes of the Moving and Stationary Target Acquisition and Recognition (MSTAR) public dataset¹ [17] which is widely used to assess the performance of SAR-ATR algorithms. This database include three different categories ground military targets : BMP2, BTR70 and T72 (T72 is a tank and the other two vehicles are armored personnel carriers). These SAR images are collected using an X-band SAR sensor at two different depression angles (15° and 17°). Figure 5 depicts an example of SAR images of three types of targets and their corresponding optical images. Each SAR image in the database has the size of 128×128 pixels. This database is divided into training and test sets which use targets at the 17° and 15° depression angles respectively. The number of images in each target type (class) is summarized in Table I. The total number of SAR images in training set is 689 whereas it is 1365 in test set.

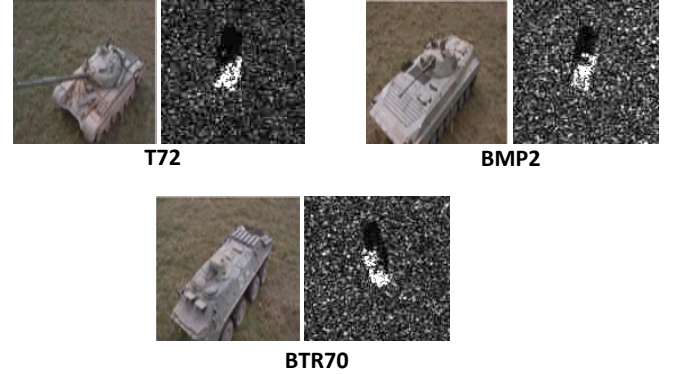


Fig. 5: Example of SAR images in MSTAR database.

TABLE I: Composition of training and test sets of MSTAR database.

Training targets	# Training set	Test targets	# Test set
BMP2(snc21)	233	BMP2(snc21)	196
		BMP2(snc9563)	195
		BMP2 (snc9566)	196
BTR70(c71)	233	BTR70(c71)	196
T72(sn132)	232	T72(sn132)	196
		T72(sn812)	195
		T72(sn7)	191

For each SAR image in database, we locate the salient region using the Itti saliency model. From the produced SAR image, we calculate the SIFT descriptor with 4 octaves and 5 levels per octave. As a result, we present a SAR image by a reduced number of SIFT keypoints. Finally, to recognize the

¹<https://www.sdms.afrl.af.mil/index.php?collection=mstar&page=targets>

SAR image, we use a matching approach between keypoints of test and training sets using several distances. We compare in Figure 6 different distances function which are: Chi-square, Euclidean and Manhattan. According to Figure 6, it is obvious that the Euclidean distance performs worst than the other two distances. In addition, the Chi-square distance works a little better than the Manhattan distance in different classes and also in average recognition rate (ALL). For the next of experiments, we choose the Chi-square as a distance of choice.

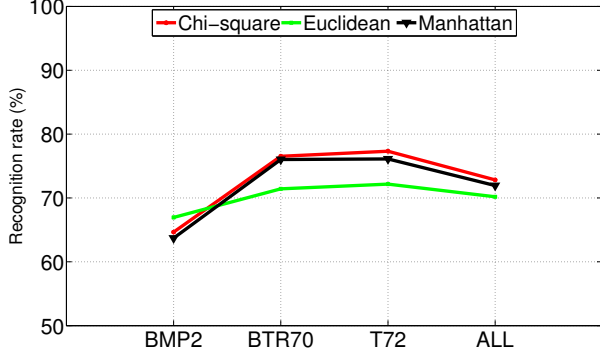


Fig. 6: Recognition performance comparison of different distances functions.

We show in Table II the comparison between the proposed method and two other methods of feature extraction and description which are SIFT [16] and Sal-SIFT [18] in terms of average number of keypoints and matching times. The Sal-SIFT refers to the algorithm proposed in our previous work [18]. It consists on computing firstly the SIFT keypoints for the input radar image and after that we filter the produced keypoints using a saliency model. For SIFT method, the average number of keypoints is 240 for each image training set and 246 for each image in test set. Whereas, it is 12 for each image in training set and 11 for each image in test set using the proposed method. Therefore, it is reduced by 95 % and 97 % for training and test sets respectively. Consequently, the runtime for matching the keypoints is significantly reduced by 97 %. For instance, the SIFT descriptor requires 27 times more runtime than the proposed method to match all test keypoints with the training ones. Comparing the both algorithms (Sal-SIFT and proposed one) that combine SIFT and saliency model, the proposed approach has the faster time for matching. We mention here that all algorithms are executed in Matlab 2016 environment with 3.10 GHz Intel processor and 8 Gb of memory.

TABLE II: Comparison between SIFT and proposed method in terms of average number of keypoints and matching time.

	SIFT [16]		Sal-SIFT [18]		Proposed	
	Train	Test	Train	Test	Train	Test
Average number of keypoints	240	246	14	25	12	11
Matching time (s)	8898		388		320	
Matching time per image(s)	6.51		0.28		0.23	

We display in Figure 7 a comparison between SIFT and Sal-SIFT methods and the proposed one in terms of recog-

nition rate. It is obvious that the proposed method clearly outperforms the both other methods for each class and also for average recognition rate (ALL). From these results, it is obvious that with a reduced number of keypoints, we achieve a better recognition rate comparing to the SIFT and Sal-SIFT descriptors on MSTAR dataset. This is because our method exploits only the useful keypoints concentrated in the salient area and remove those located in the background (outliers). For all above performance comparisons, it can be summarized

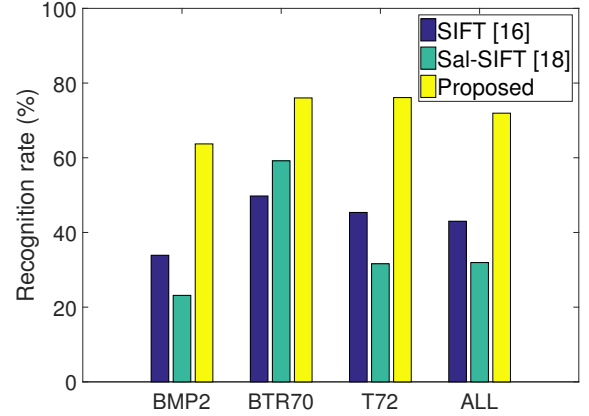


Fig. 7: Recognition performance comparison between SIFT without filtering and the proposed method.

that the proposed method achieves a high trade-off between recognition rate and runtime.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a novel method for automatic target recognition in SAR images is proposed. It consists on matching the SIFT keypoints located in the region of interest (salient region). For this end, we use an Itti's model to select the salient region from a SAR image. This salient region is used as a mask to compute only the SIFT keypoints located in it. In this way, the huge dimension of SIFT descriptors is reduced to distinctive ones. Thanks to the disregard of the keypoints located in image background regions, our method achieves good results in MSTAR database. The next step in the further development of this algorithm will be to take into account also the target shadow information in the recognition process. To achieve this, we will extract the local features of target and shadow areas separately and fuse them in the sparse classification framework. This may improve the recognition performance. This future direction must be tested also on noisy SAR images.

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