



University of  
Zurich<sup>UZH</sup>

**ETH** zürich

Institute of Informatics – Institute of Neuroinformatics



ROBOTICS &  
PERCEPTION  
GROUP

# Lecture 06

# Point Feature Detection and Matching

## Part 2

Davide Scaramuzza  
<http://rpg.ifi.uzh.ch>

# Lab Exercise 4 - Today afternoon

- Room ETH HG E 1.1 from 13:15 to 15:00
- Work description: implement the SIFT blob detector and tracker

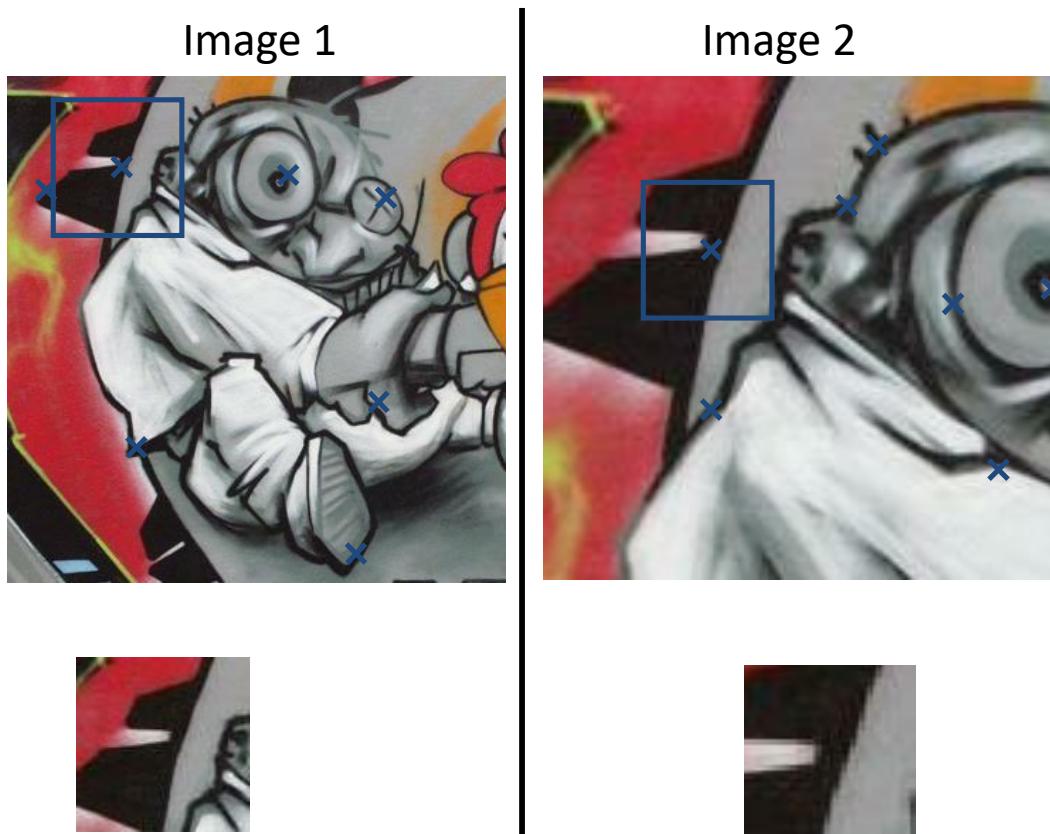


# Outline

- Automatic Scale Selection
- The SIFT blob detector and descriptor
- Other corner and blob detectors and descriptors

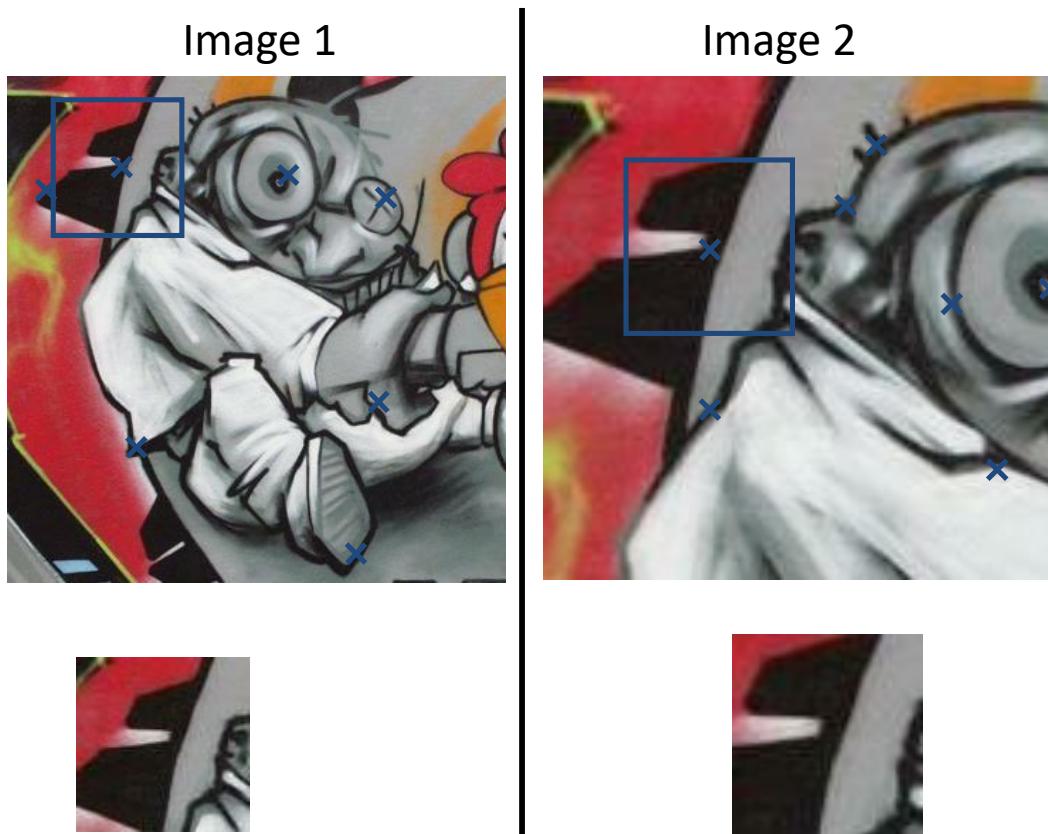
# Scale changes

- How can we match image patches corresponding to the same feature but belonging to images taken at different scales?
  - Possible solution: rescale the patch



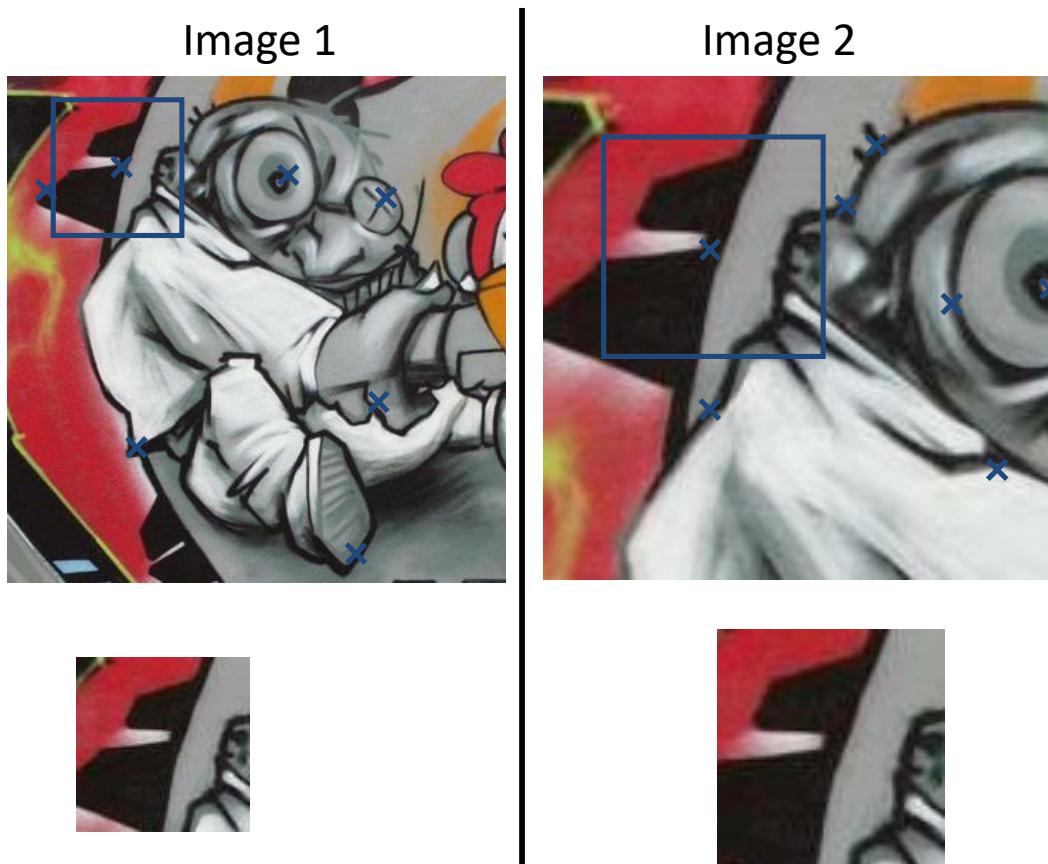
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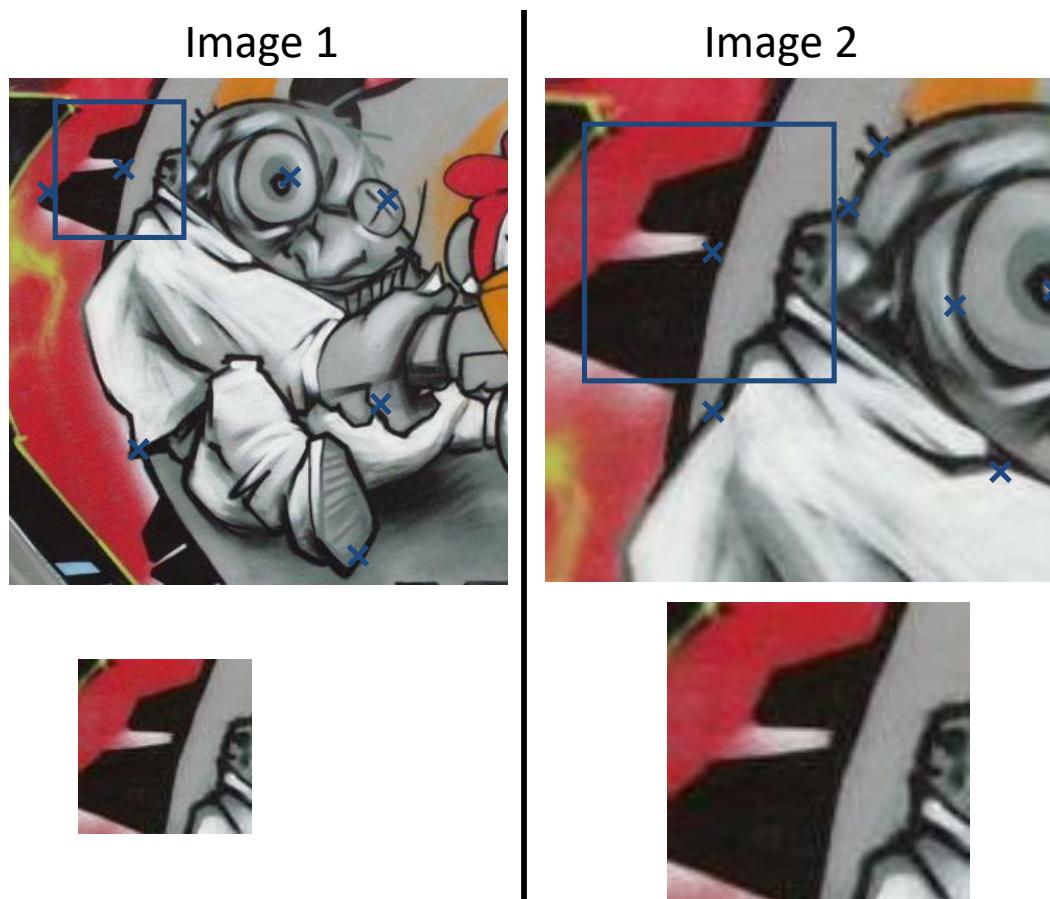
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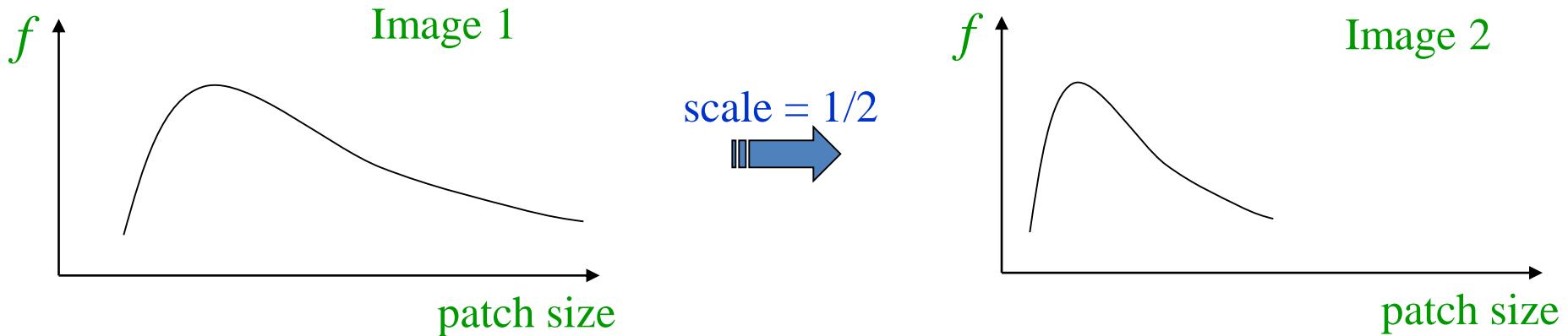


# Scale changes

- Scale search is time consuming (needs to be done individually for all patches in one image)
  - **Complexity** would be  $(NS)^2$  (assuming that we have  $N$  features per image and  $S$  scale levels for each image).
- Alternative **solution**: assign each feature its own “scale” (i.e., size).
  - What’s the optimal scale (i.e., size) of the patch?

# Automatic Scale Selection

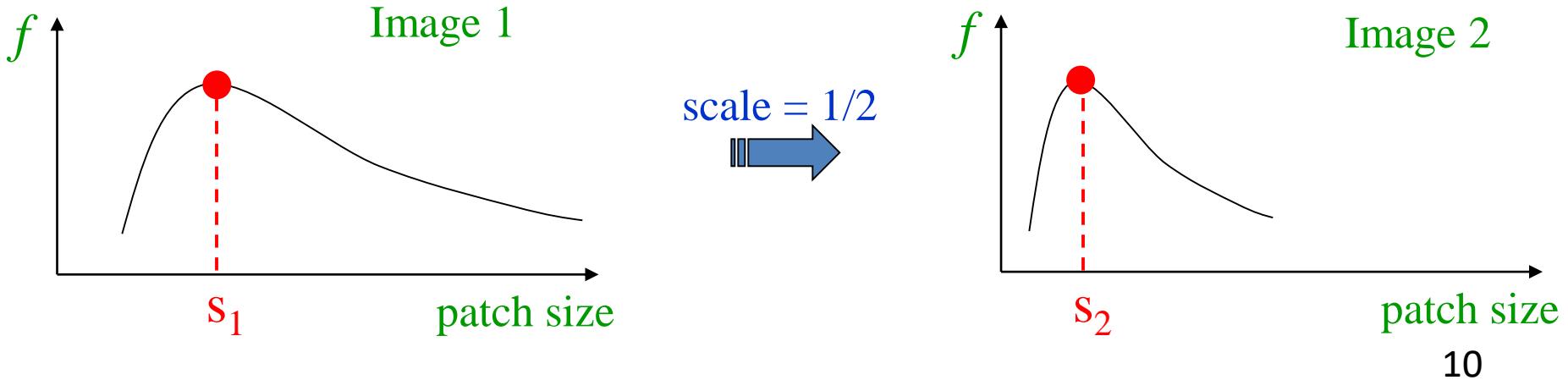
- Solution:
  - Design a function on the image patch, which is “scale invariant” (i.e., which has the same value for corresponding patches, even if they are at different scales)



# Automatic Scale Selection

- Approach:
  - Take a local maximum or minimum of this function
  - The patch size for which the maximum or minimum is achieved should be *invariant* to image rescaling.

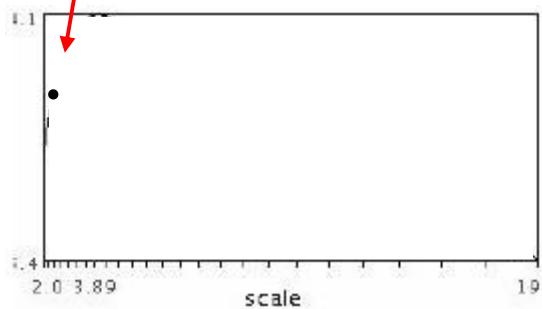
Important: this scale invariant patch size is found in each image independently!



# Automatic Scale Selection

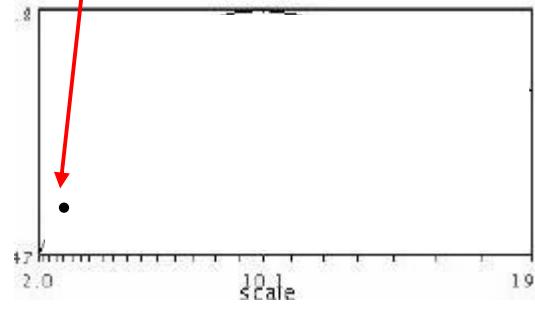
- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)

Image 1



$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$

Image 2

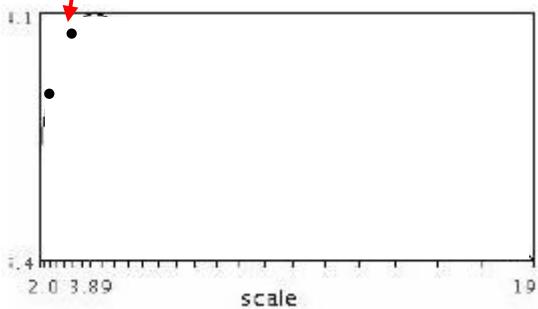


$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x', \sigma))$$

# Automatic Scale Selection

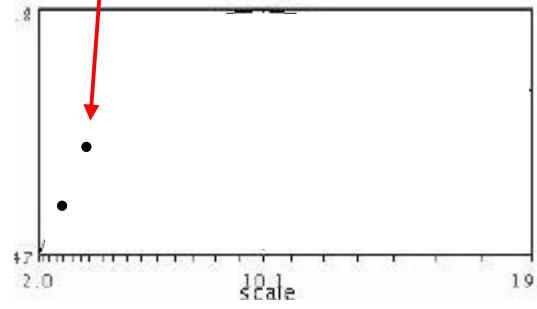
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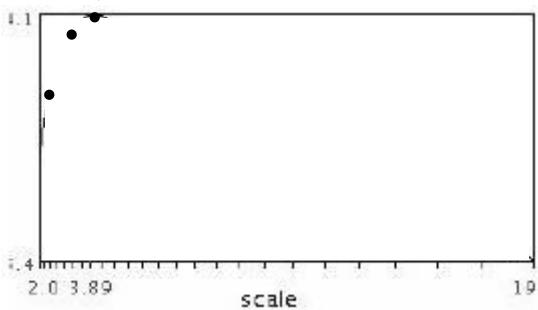
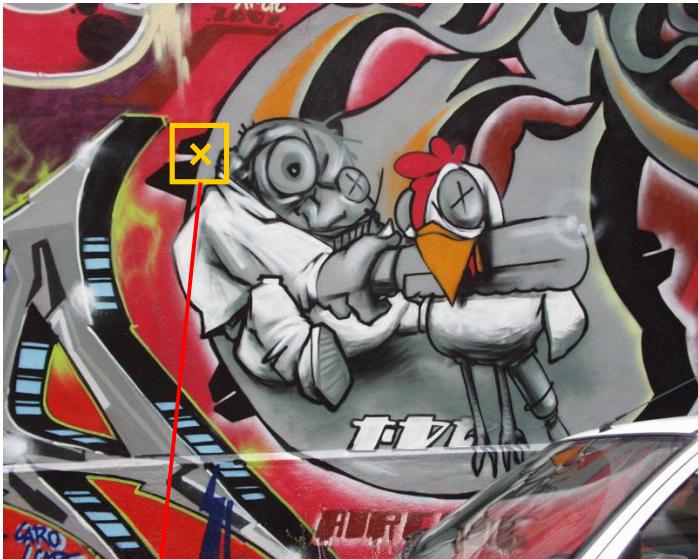


$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x', \sigma))$$

# Automatic Scale Selection

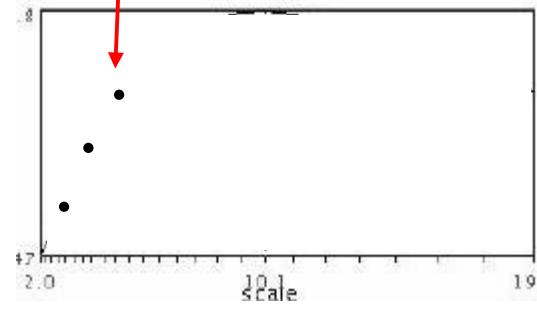
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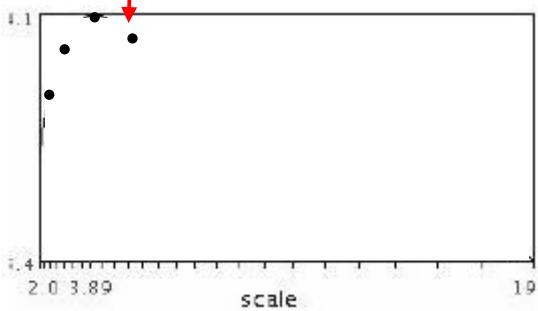
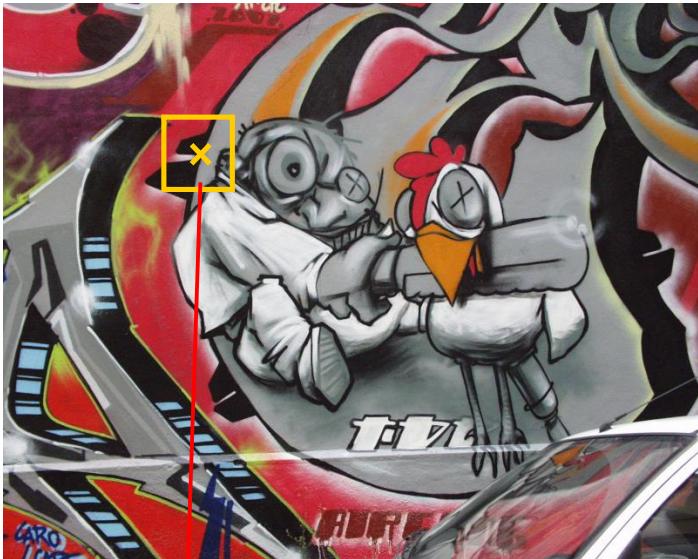


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# Automatic Scale Selection

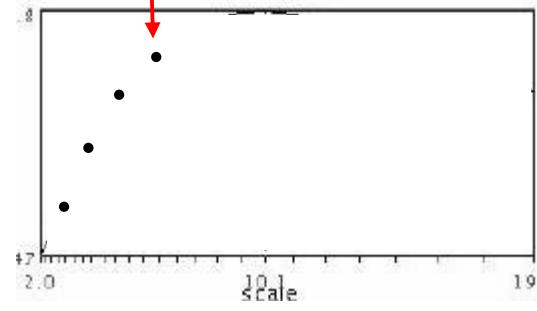
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Image 1



$$f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$

Image 2



$$f(I_{i_1\dots i_m}(x', \sigma))$$

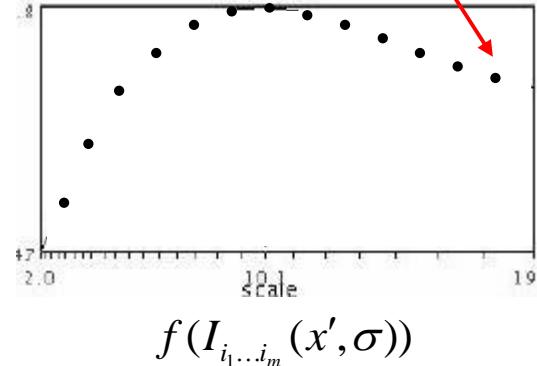
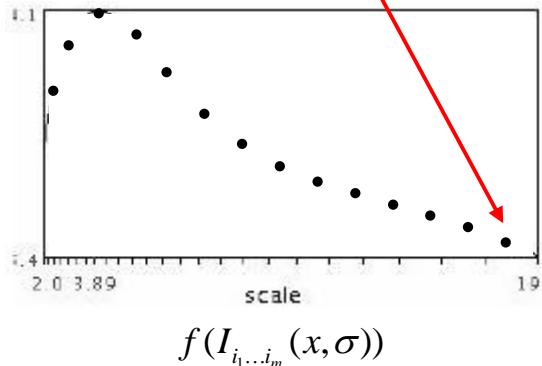
# Automatic Scale Selection

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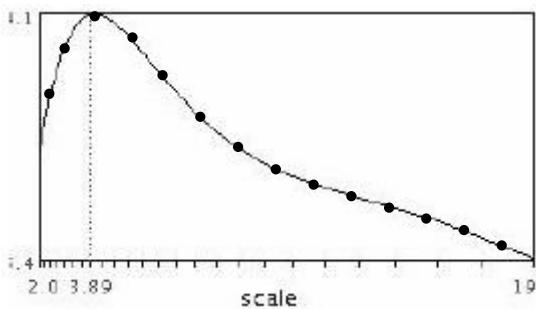
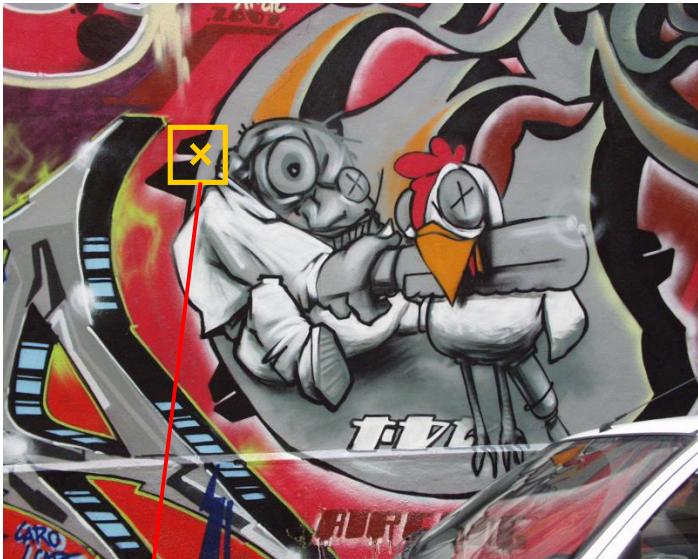
Image 2



# Automatic Scale Selection

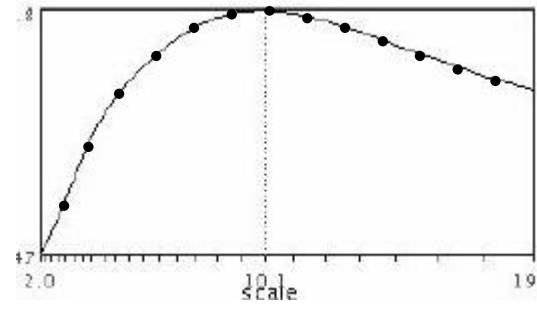
- Function responses for increasing scale (scale signature)

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$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x, \sigma))$$

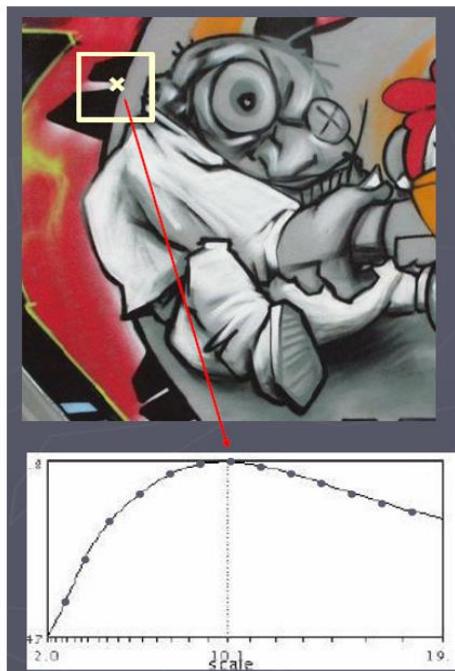
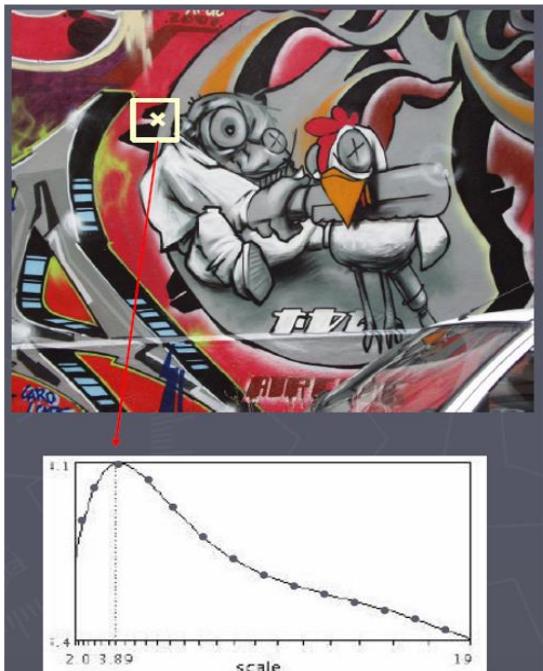
Image 2



$$f(I_{i_1 \dots i_m}(x', \sigma'))$$

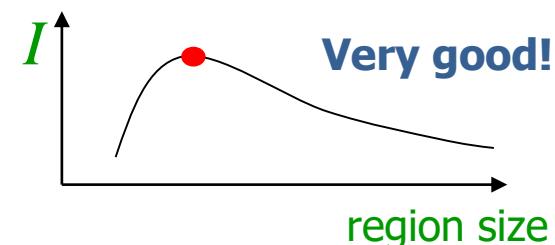
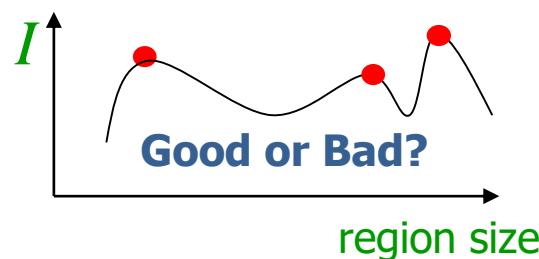
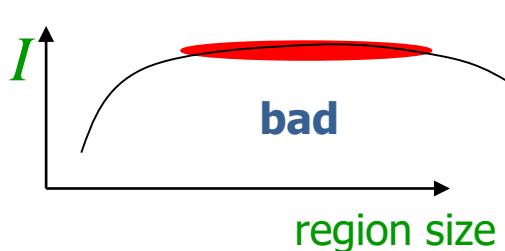
# Automatic Scale Selection

- When the right scale is found, the patches must be normalized so that they can be compared by SSD, for example.



# Automatic Scale Selection

- A “good” function for scale detection should have a single & sharp peak



- What if there are multiple peaks? Is it really a problem?
- Sharp, local intensity changes are good regions to monitor in order to identify the scale  
⇒ Blobs and corners are the ideal locations!

# Automatic Scale Selection

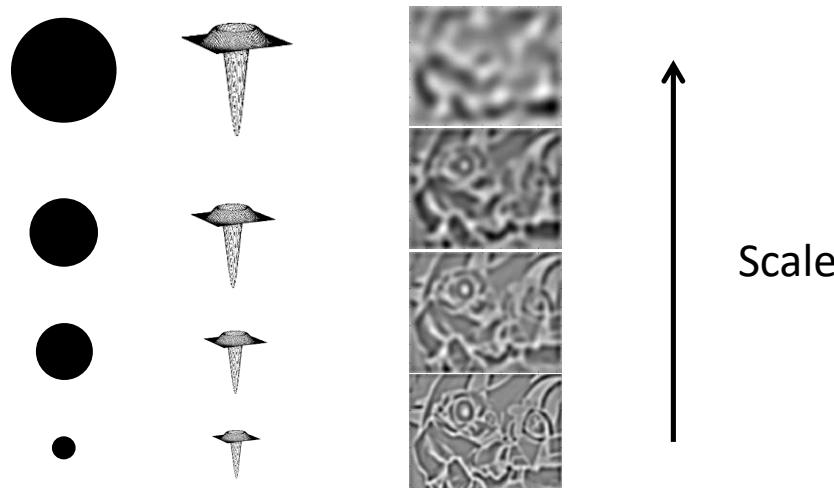
- The **ideal function** for determining the scale **is one that highlights sharp discontinuities**
- **Solution:** convolve image with a **kernel that highlights edges**

$$f = \text{Kernel} * \text{Image}$$

- It has been shown that the **Laplacian of Gaussian kernel** is optimal under certain assumptions [Lindeberg'94]:

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

- Correct scale is found as local maxima or minima across consecutive smoothed images



# Automatic Scale Selection

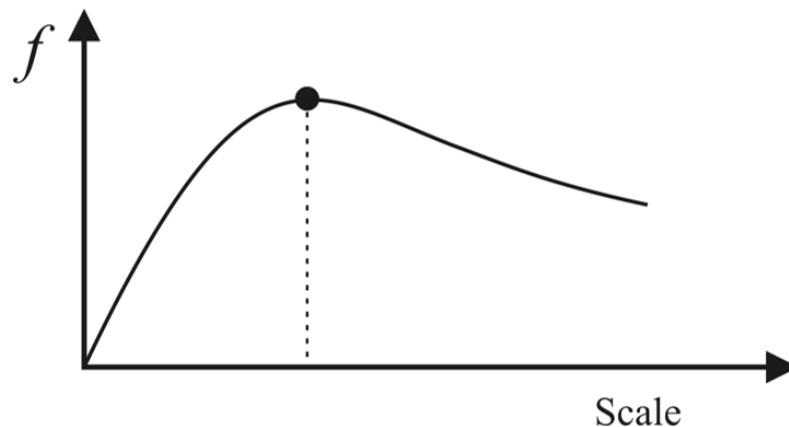
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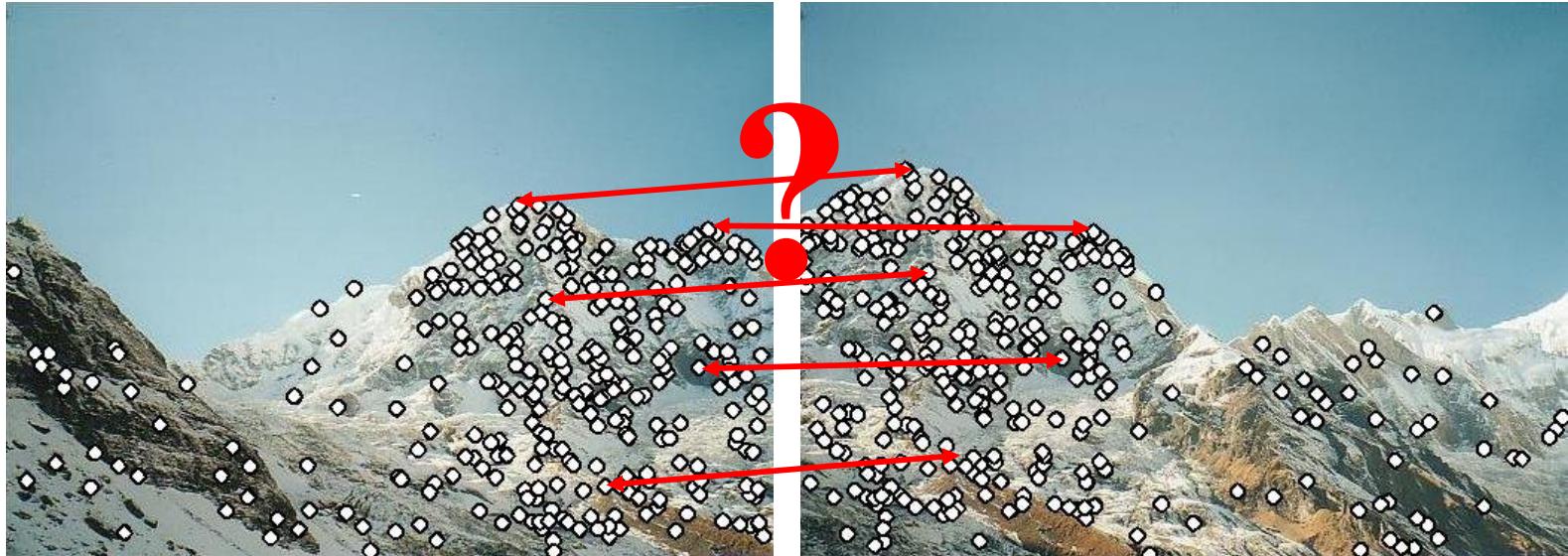
# Main questions

- What points are distinctive (i.e., *features*, *keypoints*, *salient* points), such that they are *repeatable*? (i.e., can be re-detected from other views)
- How to *describe* a local region?
- How to establish *correspondences*, i.e., compute matches?

# Feature descriptors

- We know how to detect points
- Next question:

**How to *describe* them for matching?**



- Simplest descriptor: patch intensity values (also called *patch descriptor*)
- Alternative: **Census Transform** or **Histograms of Oriented Gradients** (like in SIFT, see later)
- Then, descriptor matching can be done using **(Z)SSD**, **(Z)SAD**, or **(Z)NCC**, or **Hamming Distance**  
**(NB: hamming distance can only be used for binary descriptors**, like Census transform, or ORB, BRIEF, BRISK, FREAK)

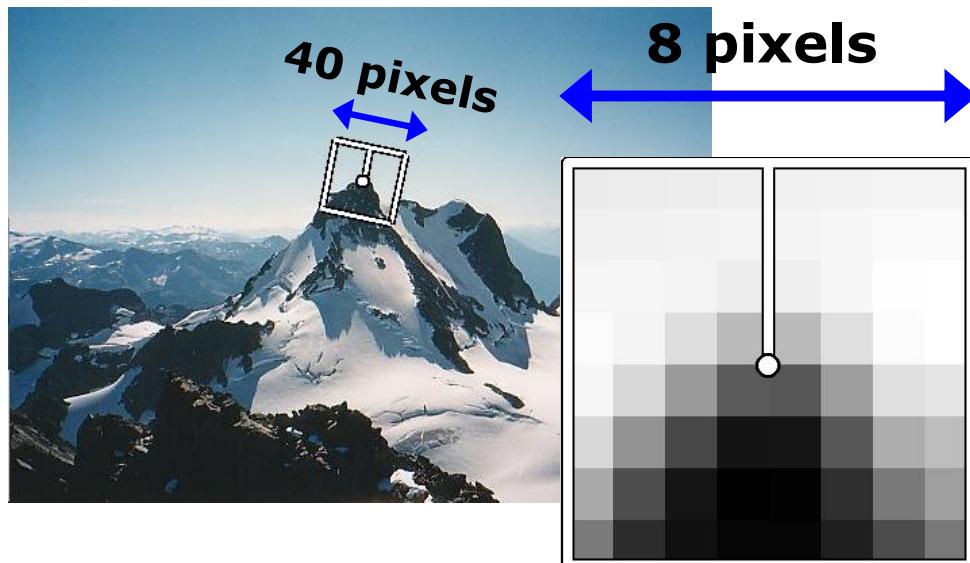
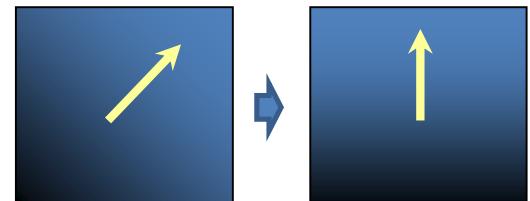
# Feature descriptors

- We'd like to find a feature descriptor that is *invariant* to:
  - **geometric changes:** *rotation, scale, view point*
  - **photometric changes:** *illumination*
- **Most feature methods** are designed to be invariant to
  - 2D translation,
  - 2D rotation,
  - Scale
- Some of them can also handle
  - **View-point changes** (e.g., SIFT & LIFT work with up to 50 degrees of viewpoint changes)
  - **Affine illumination changes**

# How to achieve invariance with Patch descriptors

## Step 1: Re-scaling and De-rotation

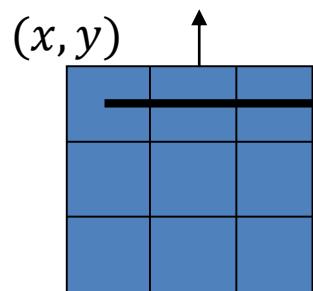
- **Find correct scale** using LoG operator
- **Rescale the patch** to a default size (e.g.,  $8 \times 8$  pixels)
- **Find local orientation**
  - Dominant direction of gradient for the image patch (e.g., Harris eigenvectors)
- **De-rotate patch through “patch warping”**
  - This puts the patches into a **canonical orientation**



# How to warp a patch?

- Start with an “**empty**” canonical patch (all pixels set to 0)
- For each pixel  $(x, y)$  in the empty patch, apply the **warping function**  $W(x, y)$  to compute the corresponding position in the source image. It will be in floating point and will fall between the image pixels.
- **Interpolate** the intensity values of the 4 closest pixels in the detected image. You can use:
  - *Nearest neighbor interpolation*
  - *Bilinear interpolation*
  - *Bicubic interpolation*

# Example 1: Roto-Translational warping

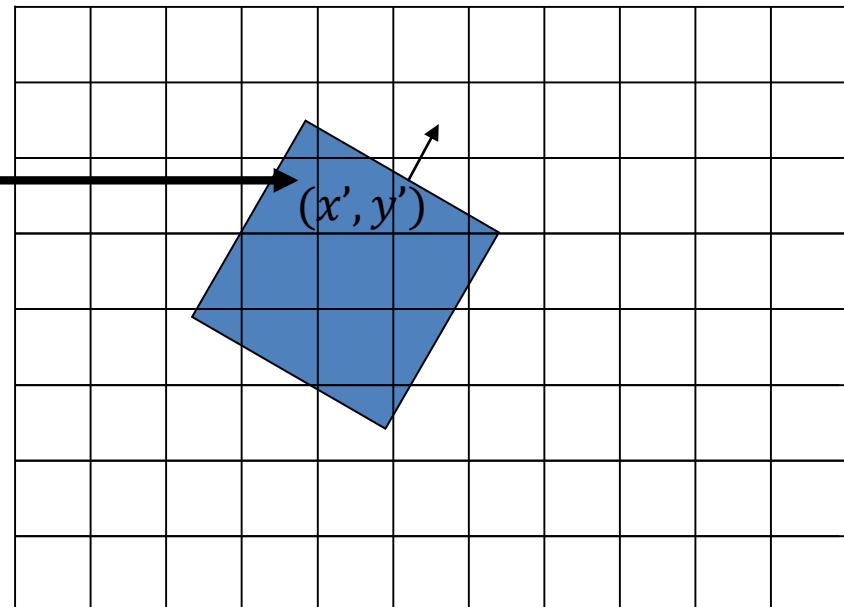


Empty canonical patch

$W$

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= x \cos\theta - y \sin\theta + a \\y' &= x \sin\theta + y \cos\theta + b\end{aligned}$$

counterclockwise rotation plus translation

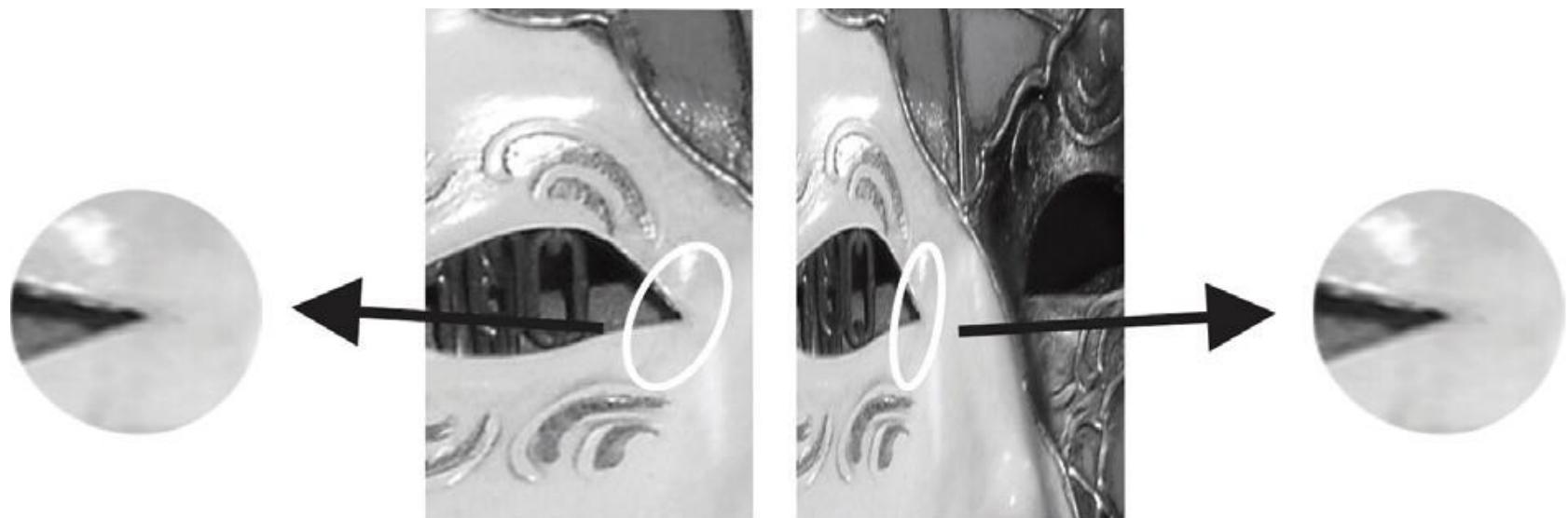


Patch detected in the image

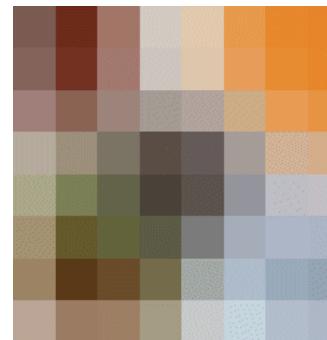
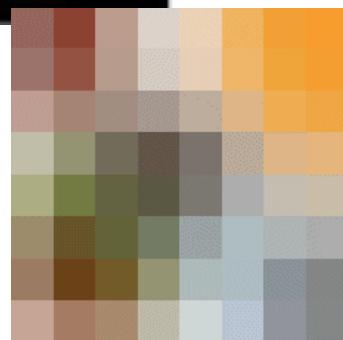
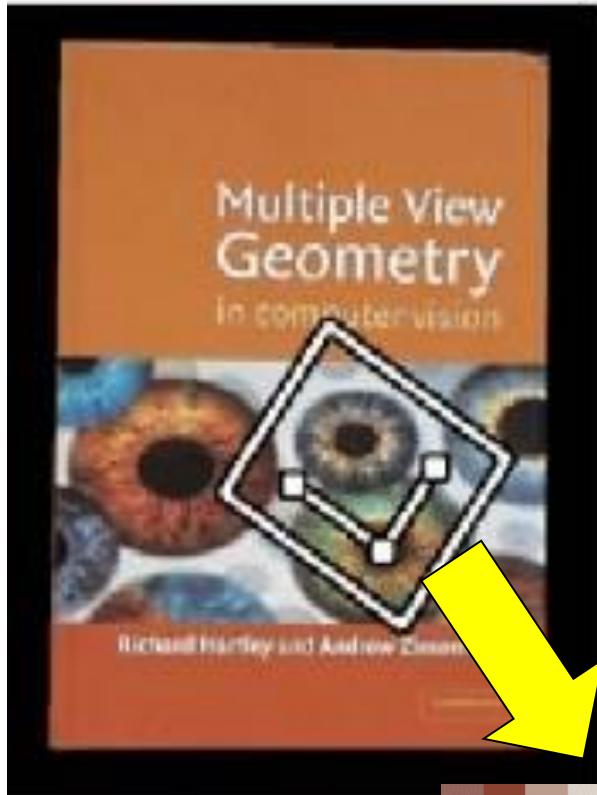
# Example 2: Affine Warping

**Affine warping** (to achieve slight view-point invariance)

- The second moment matrix  $M$  can be used to identify the two directions of fastest and slowest change of intensity around the feature.
- Out of these two directions, an elliptic patch is extracted at the scale computed by with the LoG operator.
- The region inside the ellipse is normalized to a circular one

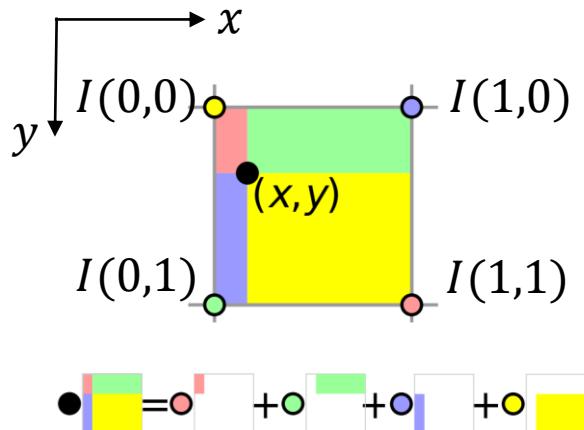


# Example: de-rotation, re-scaling, and affine un-warping



# Bilinear Interpolation

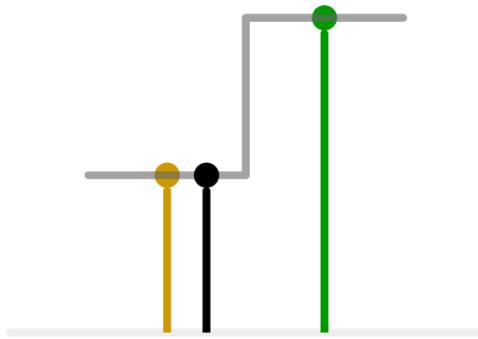
- It is an ***extension of linear interpolation*** for interpolating functions of two variables (e.g.,  $x$  and  $y$ ) on a *rectilinear 2D grid*.
- The key idea is to perform linear interpolation first in one direction, and then again in the other direction. Although each step is linear in the sampled values and in the position, the interpolation as a whole is not linear but rather quadratic in the sample location.



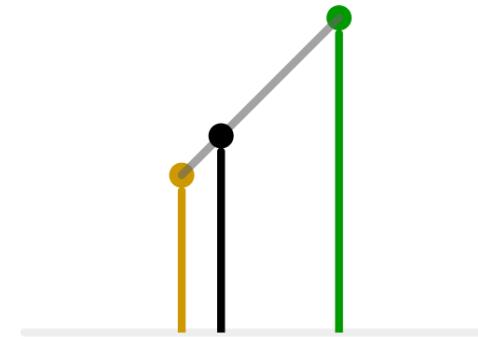
$$I(x, y) =$$
$$I(0,0)(1 - x)(1 - y) +$$
$$I(0,1)(1 - x)(y) +$$
$$I(1,0)(x)(1 - y) +$$
$$I(1,1)(x)(y)$$

In this geometric visualization, the value at the black spot is the sum of the value at each colored spot multiplied by the area of the rectangle of the same color.

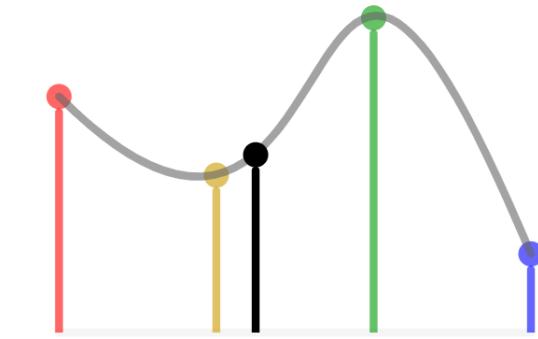
# Nearest Neighbor vs Bilinear vs Bicubic Interpolation



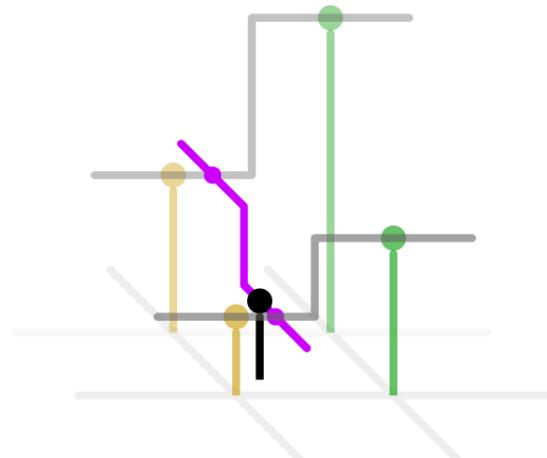
1D nearest-neighbour



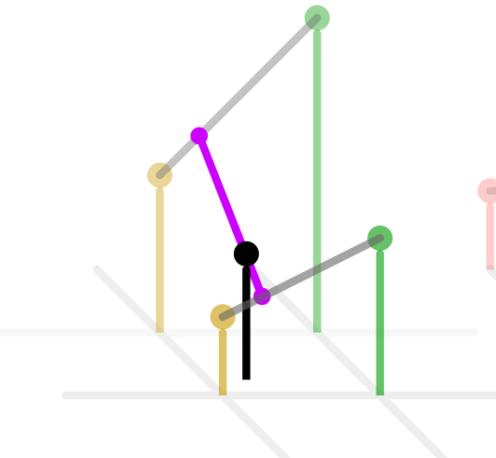
Linear



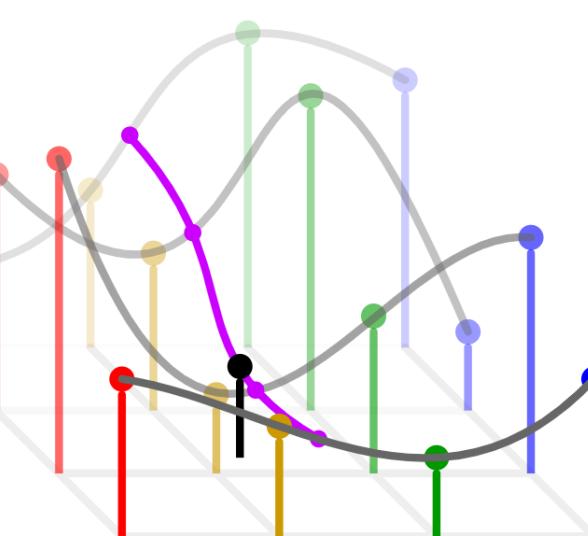
Cubic



2D nearest-neighbour



Bilinear



Bicubic

# Nearest Neighbor vs Bilinear vs Bicubic Interpolation

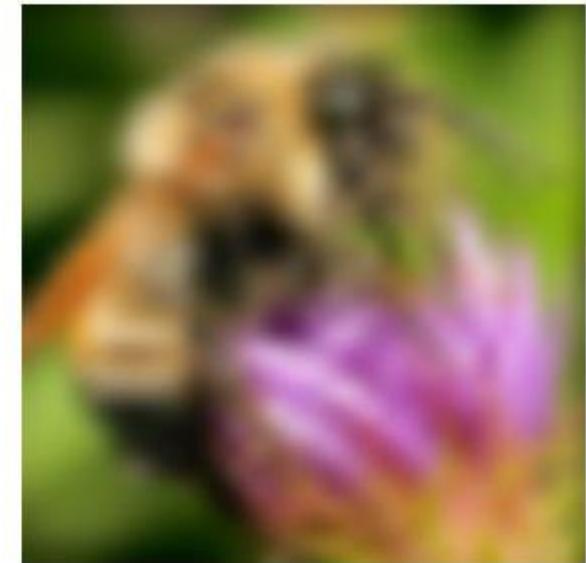
Original image:  x 10



Nearest-neighbor interpolation



Bilinear interpolation



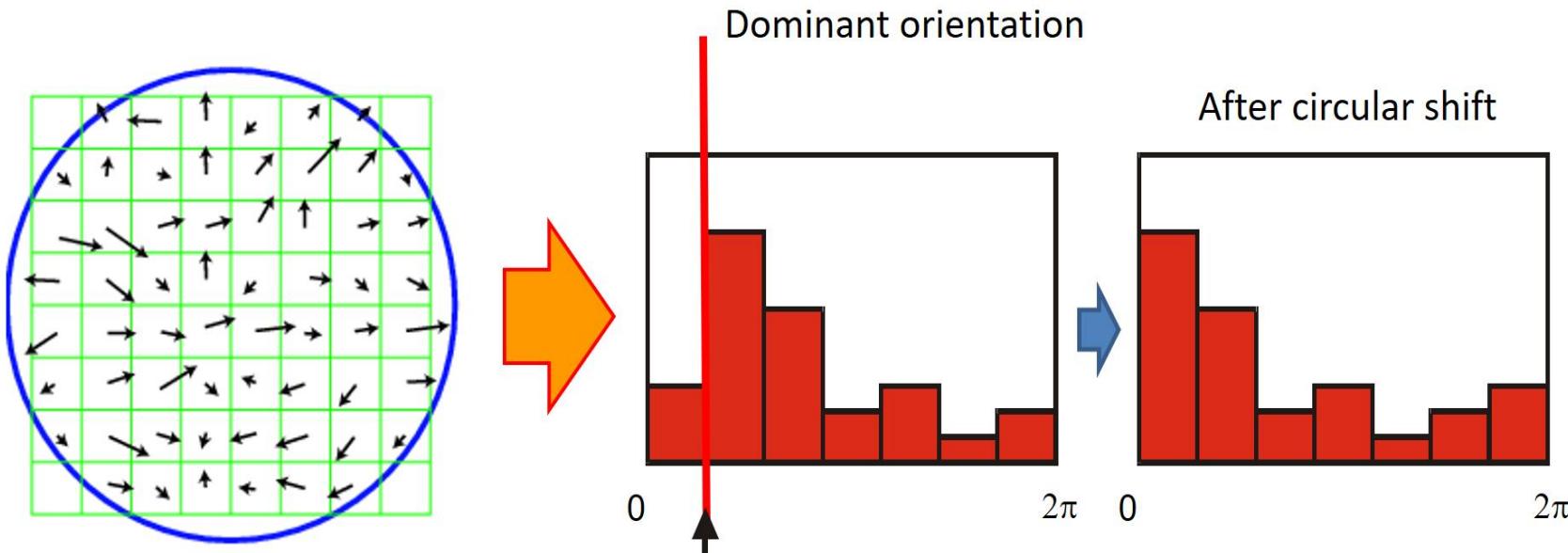
Bicubic interpolation

# Feature descriptors

- **Disadvantage of patches descriptors:**
  - If warping not accurately estimated, very small errors in rotation, scale, and view-point will affect matching score significantly
  - **Computationally expensive** (need to unwarp every patch)
- Best descriptor solution **nowadays**: build descriptors from **Histograms of Oriented Gradients (HOGs)**.
  - No need to warp the patch (based on the observation that HOGs are only little affected by viewpoint changes up to 50 degrees)

# HOG descriptor (Histogram of Oriented Gradients)

- First, multiply the patch by a Gaussian kernel to make the shape circular rather than square
- Then, compute gradients vectors at each pixel
- Build a histogram of gradient orientations, weighted by the gradient magnitudes. The histogram represents the HOG descriptor
- Extract all local maxima of HOG.
  - Each local maximum above a threshold is a candidate dominant orientation. In this case, construct a different keypoint descriptor (with different dominant orientation) for each
- To make the descriptor rotation invariant, apply circular shift to the descriptor elements such that the dominant orientation coincides with 0 radians



# Outline

- Automatic Scale Selection
- The SIFT blob detector and descriptor
- Other corner and blob detectors and descriptors

# SIFT descriptor

- Scale Invariant Feature Transform
- Invented by David Lowe [IJCV, 2004] (now at Google)



David Lowe

FOLLOW

Computer Science Dept., [University of British Columbia](#)

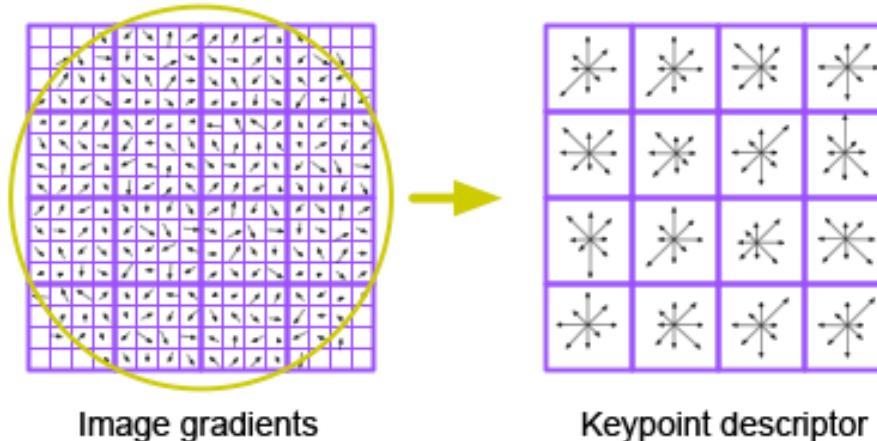
Verified email at cs.ubc.ca - [Homepage](#)

Computer Vision Object Recognition

TITLE	CITED BY	YEAR
<a href="#">Distinctive image features from scale-invariant keypoints</a> DG Lowe International journal of computer vision 60 (2), 91-110	53048	2004

# SIFT descriptor

- Scale Invariant Feature Transform
- Invented by David Lowe [IJCV, 2004] (now at Google)
- Descriptor computation:
  - Multiply the patch by a Gaussian filter
  - Divide patch into  $4 \times 4$  sub-patches = 16 cells
  - Compute HOG (8 bins, i.e., 8 directions) for all pixels inside each sub-patch
  - Concatenate all HOGs into a single 1D vector:
    - Resulting SIFT descriptor:  $4 \times 4 \times 8 = 128$  values
  - Descriptor Matching: SSD (i.e., Euclidean-distance)



# Intensity Normalization

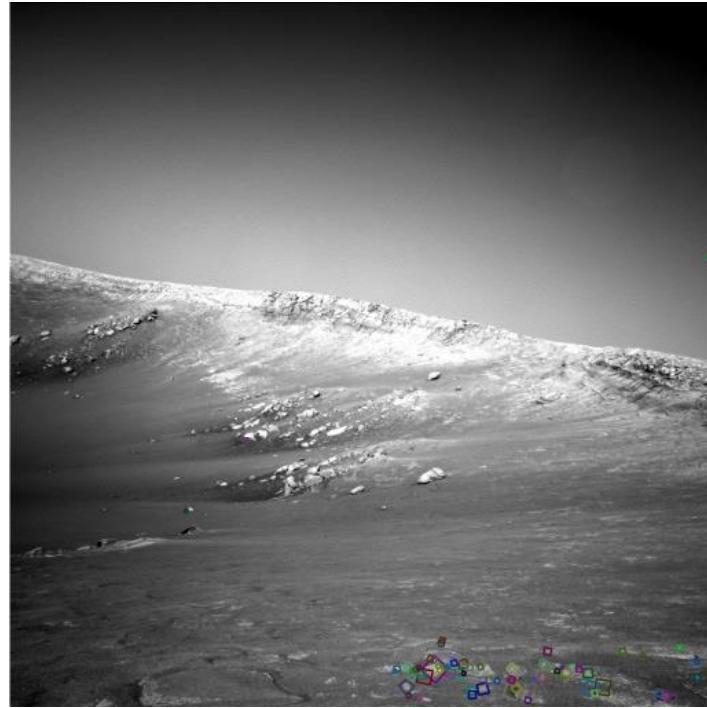
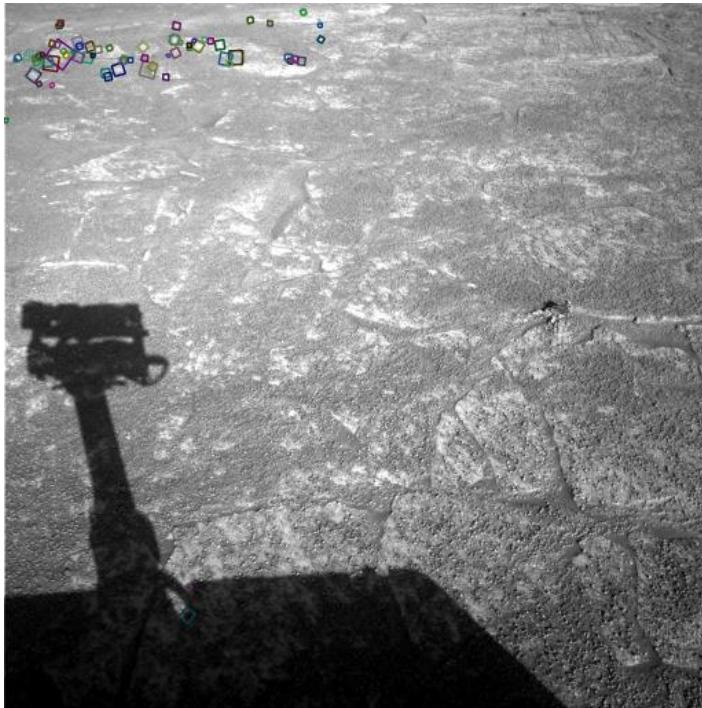
- The descriptor vector  $\nu$  is then normalized such that its  $l_2$  norm is 1:

$$\bar{\nu} = \frac{\nu}{\sqrt{\sum_i^n \nu_i^2}}$$

- This guarantees that the descriptor is invariant to linear illumination changes (the descriptor is already invariant to additive illumination because it is based on gradients; so, overall, the **SIFT descriptor is invariant to affine illumination changes**).

# SIFT matching robustness

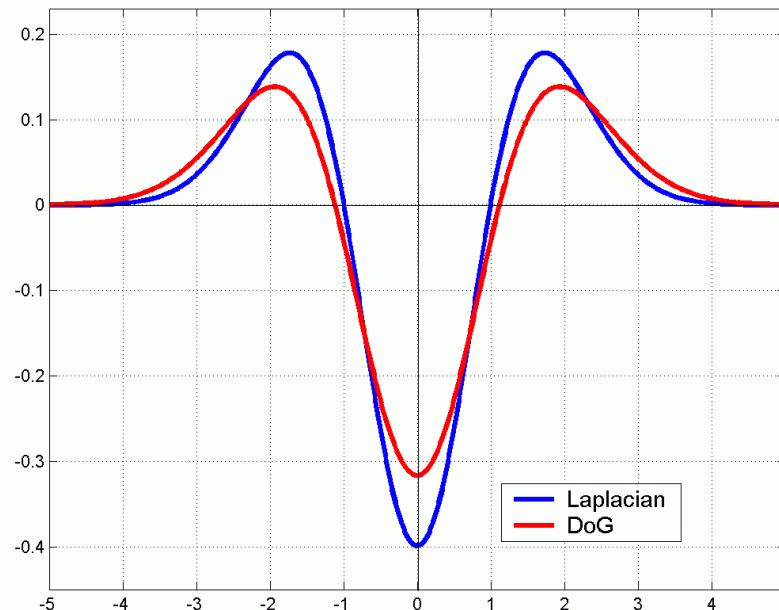
- Can handle severe viewpoint changes (up to 50 degree out-of-plane rotation)
- Can handle even severe non affine changes in illumination (low to bright scenes)
- Computationally expensive: 10 frames per second (fps) on an i7 processor
- Original SIFT binary files: <http://people.cs.ubc.ca/~lowe/keypoints>
- OpenCV C/C++ implementation:  
[https://docs.opencv.org/master/da/df5/tutorial\\_py\\_sift\\_intro.html](https://docs.opencv.org/master/da/df5/tutorial_py_sift_intro.html)



# SIFT detector

Difference of Gaussian (DoG) kernel instead of Laplacian of Gaussian (computationally cheaper)

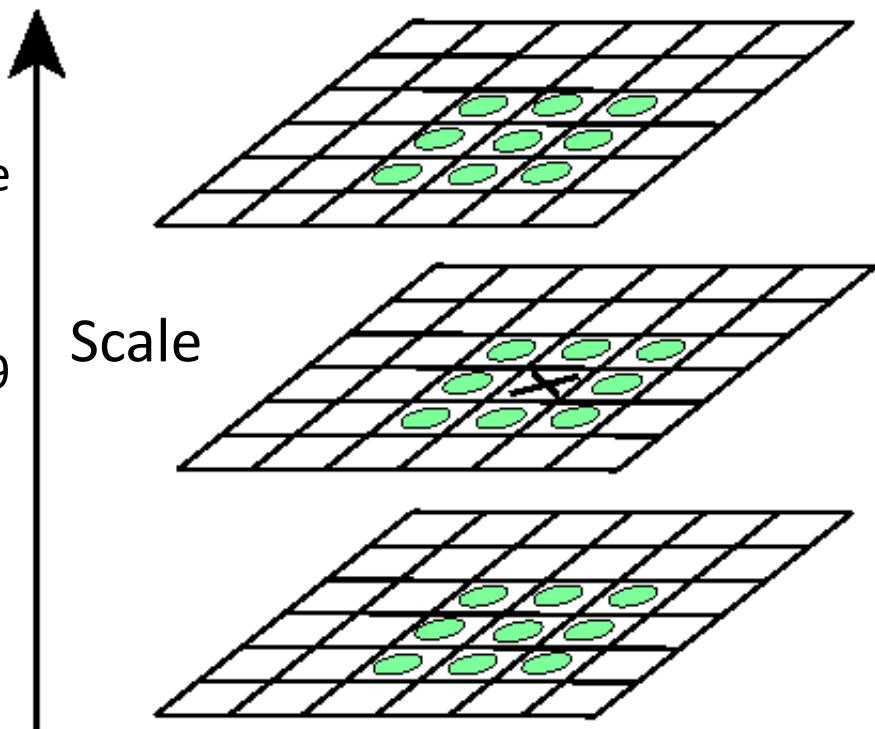
$$LOG(x, y) \approx DoG(x, y) = G_{k\sigma}(x, y) - G_\sigma(x, y)$$



# SIFT detector (location + scale)

SIFT keypoints: **local extrema** (i.e., maxima and minima) in **both space** and **scale** of the DoG images

- 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 neighbours in each of the two adjacent scales (above and below)



For each max or min found, output is the **location** ( $x, y$ ) and the **scale**.

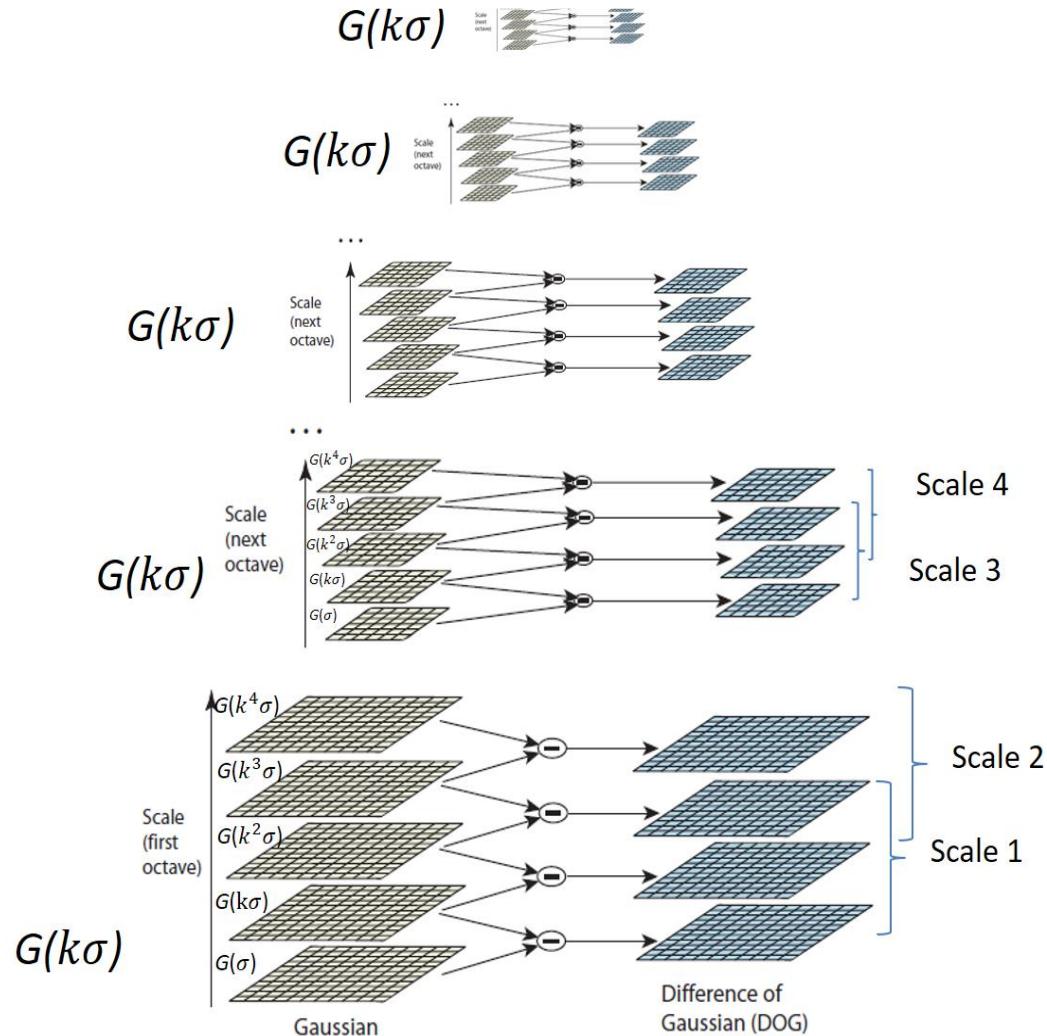
# How it is implemented in practice

## 1. Build a Space-Scale Pyramid:

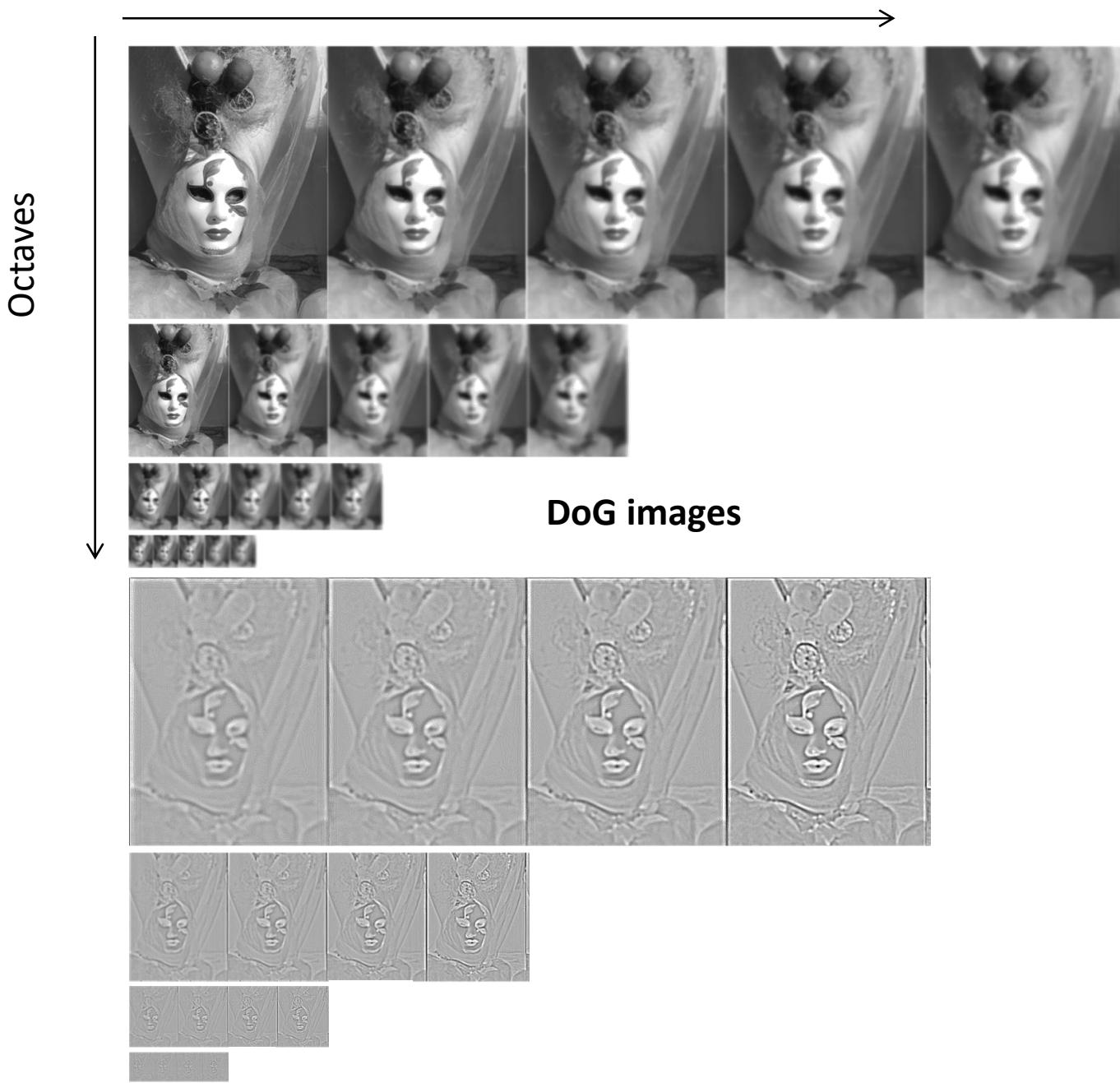
- The initial image is **incrementally convolved with Gaussians**  $G(k^i\sigma)$  to produce blurred images separated by a constant factor  $k$  in scale space (shown stacked in the left column).
  - The initial Gaussian  $G(\sigma)$  has  $\sigma = 1.6$
  - $k$  is chosen:  $k = 2^{1/s}$ , where  $s$  is the number of intervals into which each octave of scale space is divided
  - For efficiency reasons, when  $k^i$  equals 2, the image is downsampled by a factor of 2 and then the procedure is repeated again up to 5 octaves (pyramid levels)
- Adjacent blurred images are then subtracted** to produce the *Difference-of-Gaussian* (DoG) images

## 2. Scale-Space extrema detection

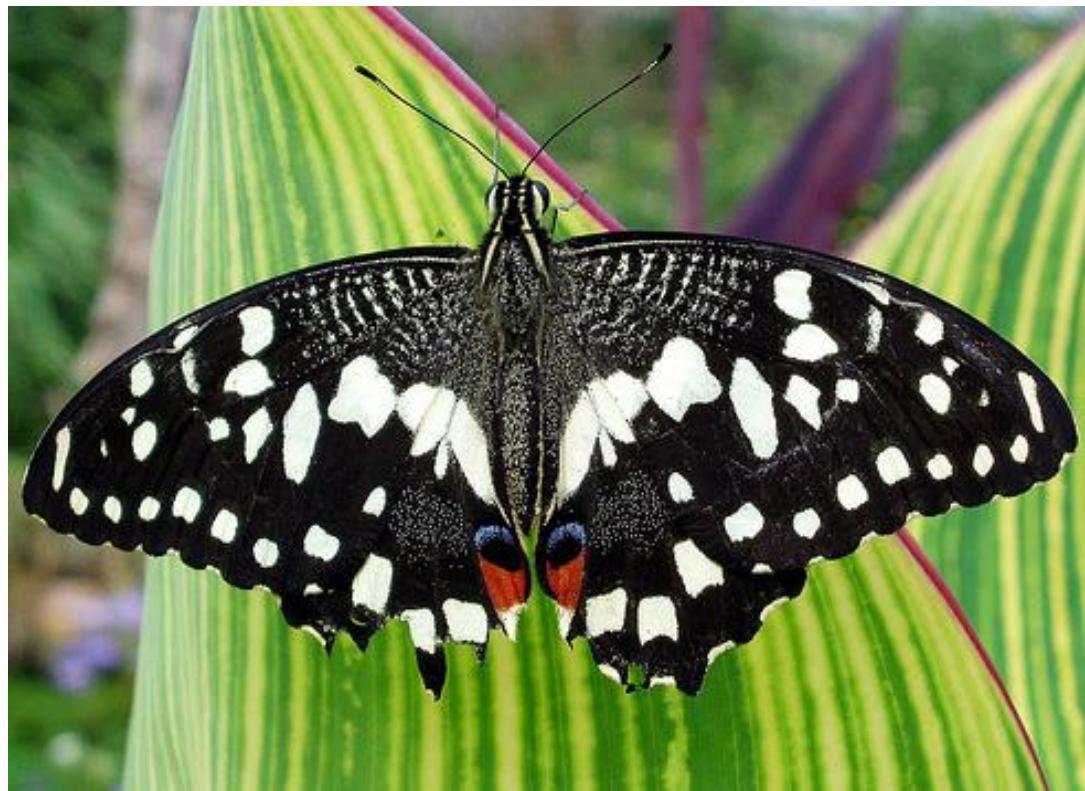
- Detect local maxima and minima in space-scales (see previous slide)



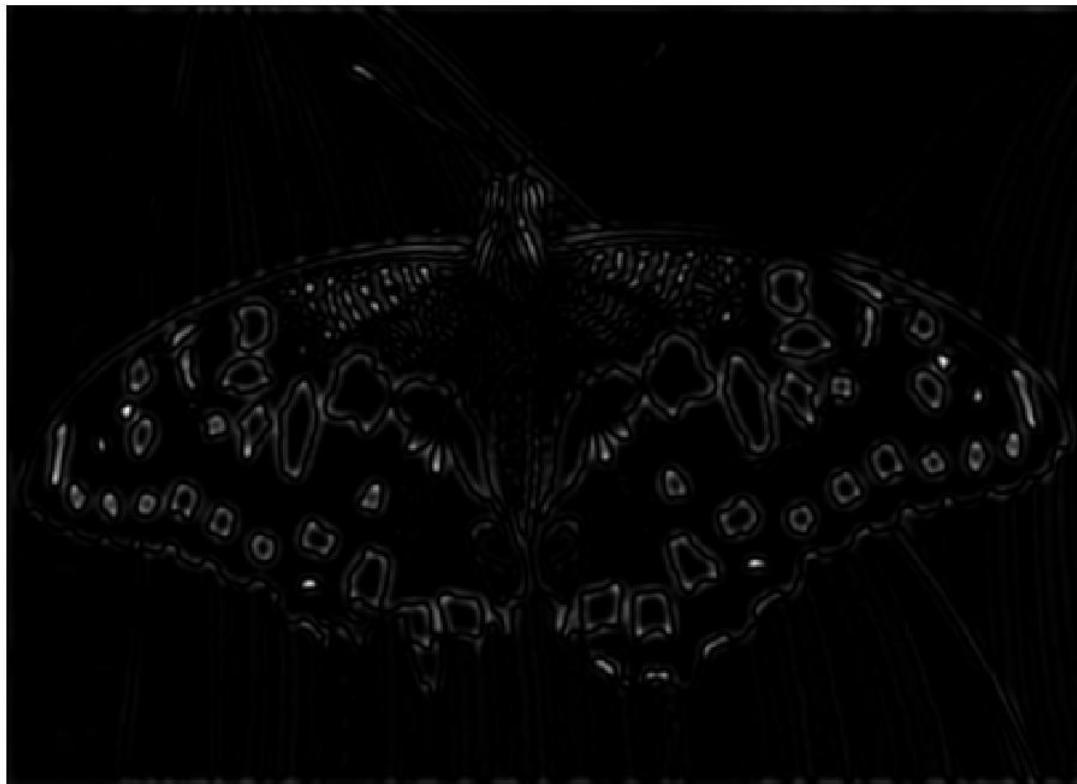
# Scale (Gaussian blurring: $G(k\sigma)$ )



# Scale-space detection: Example

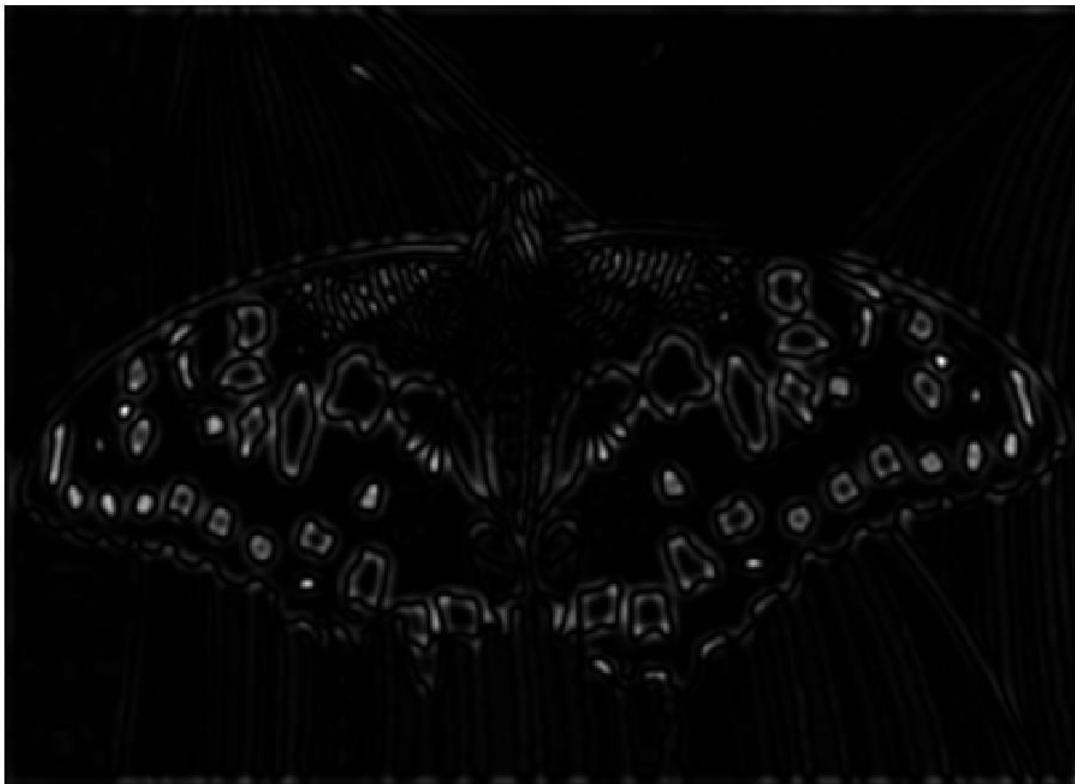


# DoG Images example



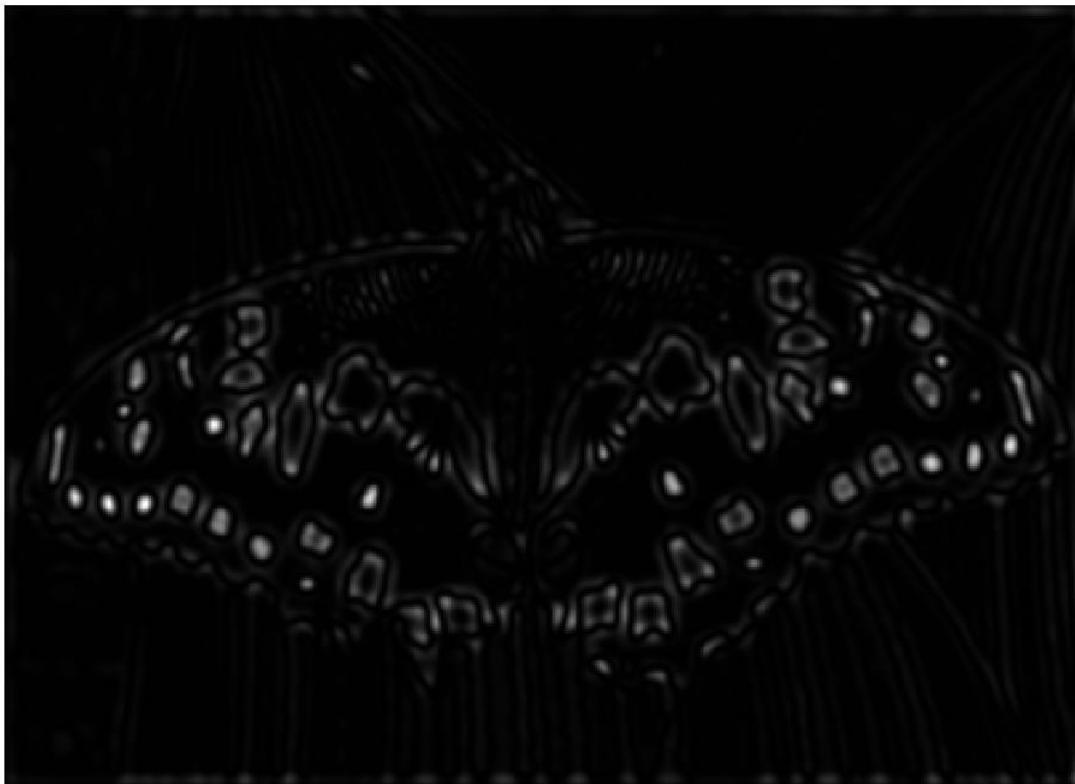
$$G(k\sigma) - G(\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$$

# DoG Images example



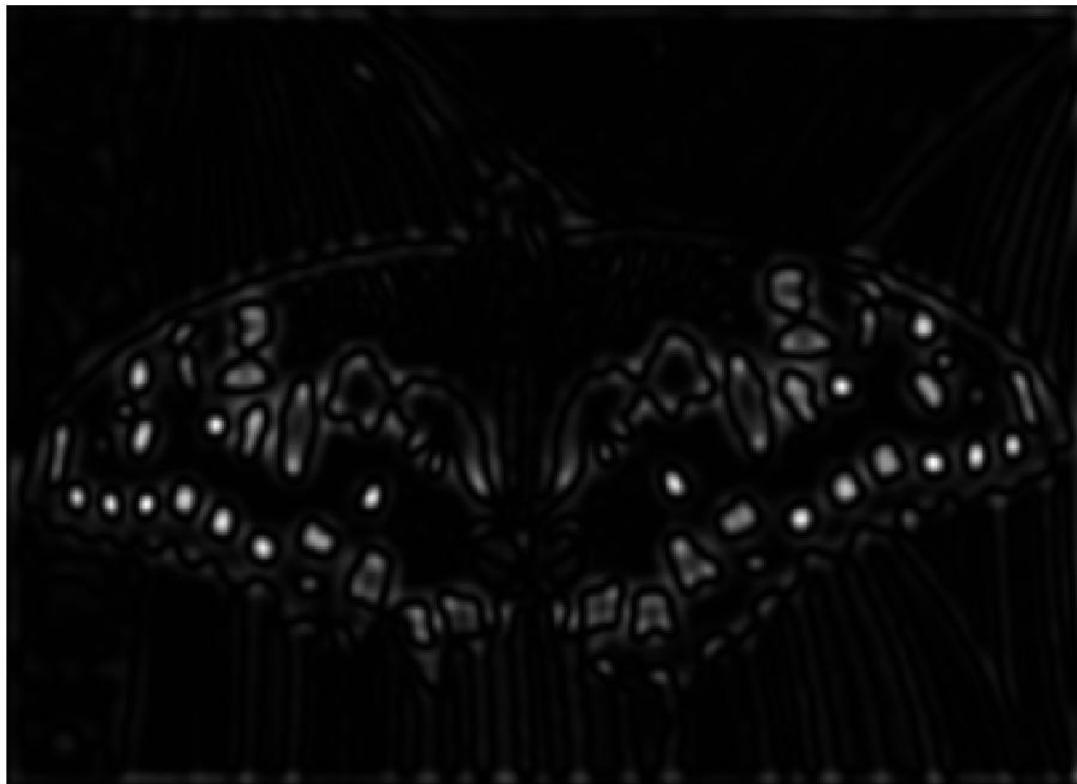
$$G(k^2\sigma) - G(k\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$$

# DoG Images example



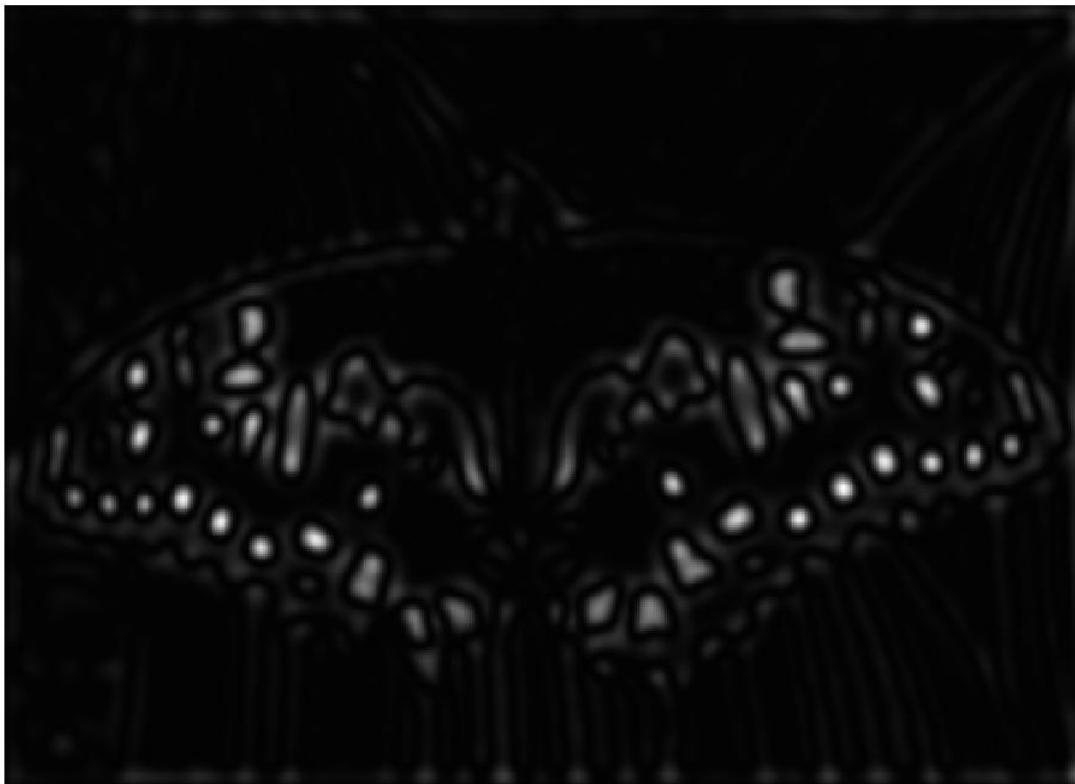
$$G(k^3\sigma) - G(k^2\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$$

# DoG Images example



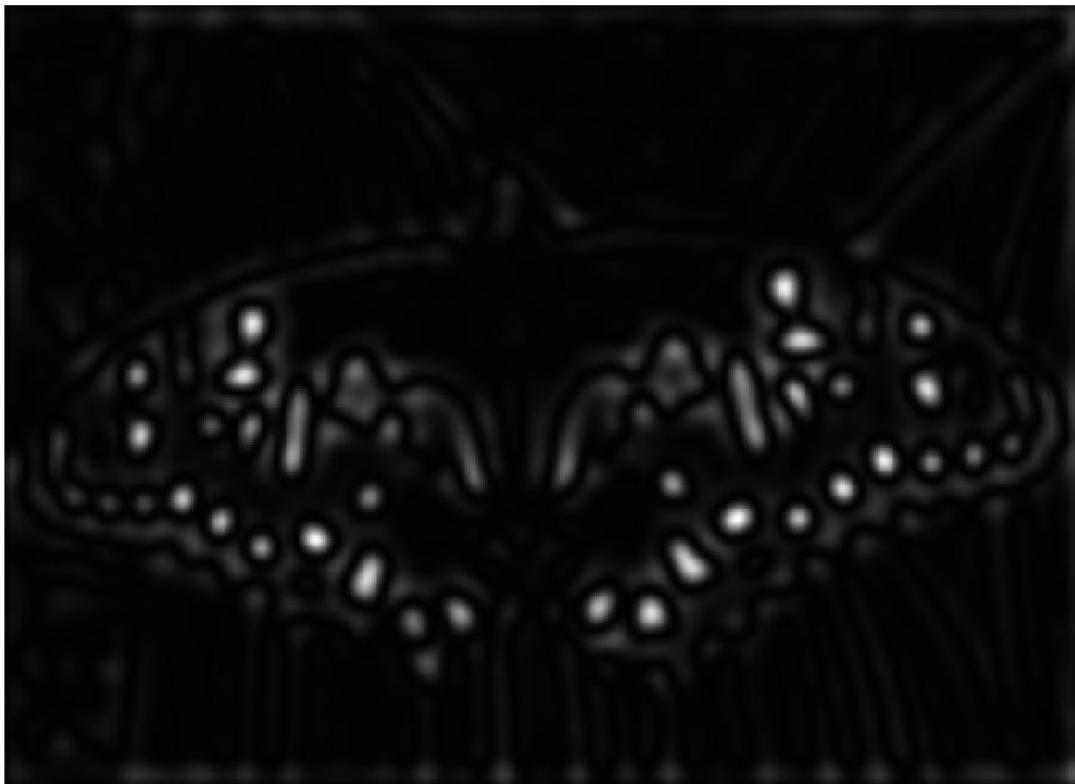
$$G(k^4\sigma) - G(k^3\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$$

# DoG Images example



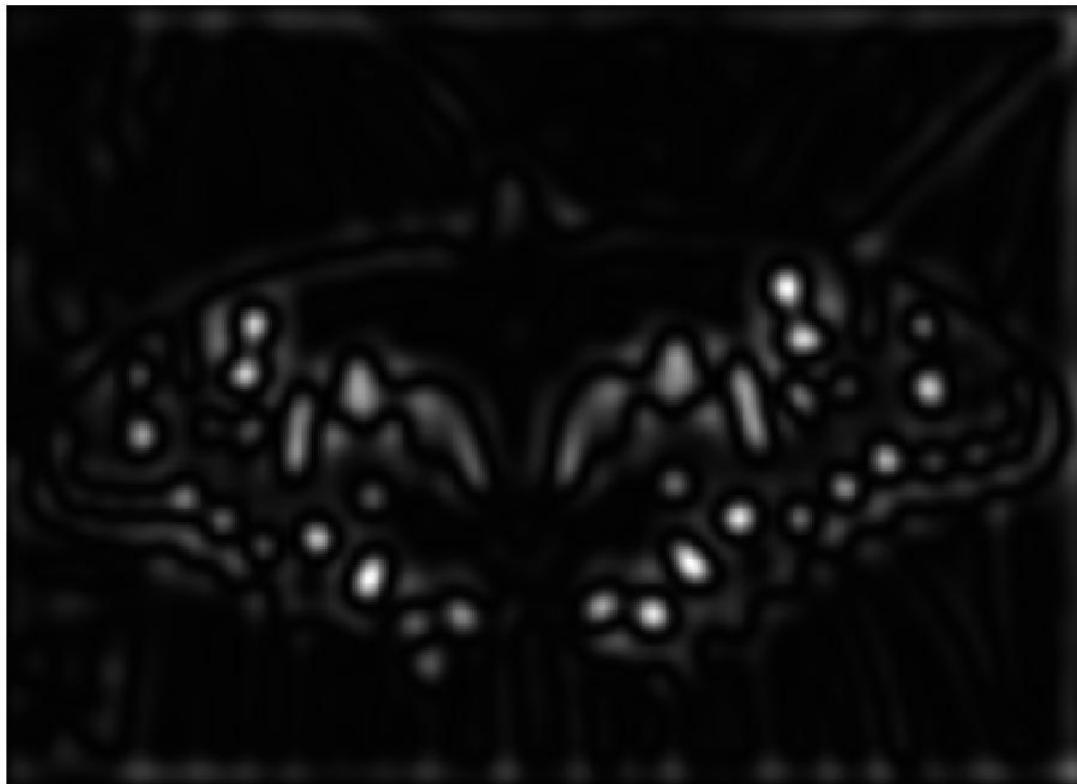
$G(k^5\sigma) - G(k^4\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$   
(second octave shown at the input resolution for convenience)

# DoG Images example



$G(k^6\sigma) - G(k^5\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$   
(second octave shown at the input resolution for convenience)

# DoG Images example



$G(k^7\sigma) - G(k^6\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$   
(second octave shown at the input resolution for convenience)

# DoG Images example



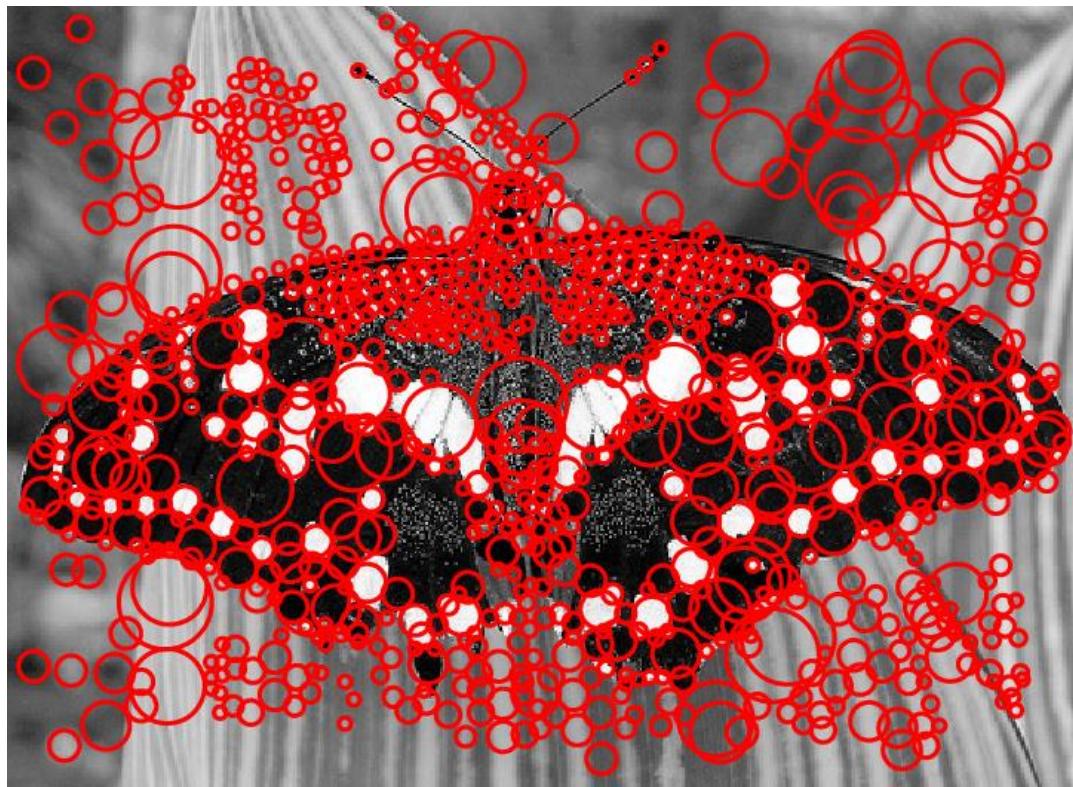
$G(k^8\sigma) - G(k^7\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$   
(second octave shown at the input resolution for convenience)

# DoG Images example



$G(k^9\sigma) - G(k^8\sigma) \mid s = 4; \sigma = 1.6 \mid$   
(third octave shown at the input resolution for convenience)

# DoG local maxima and minima



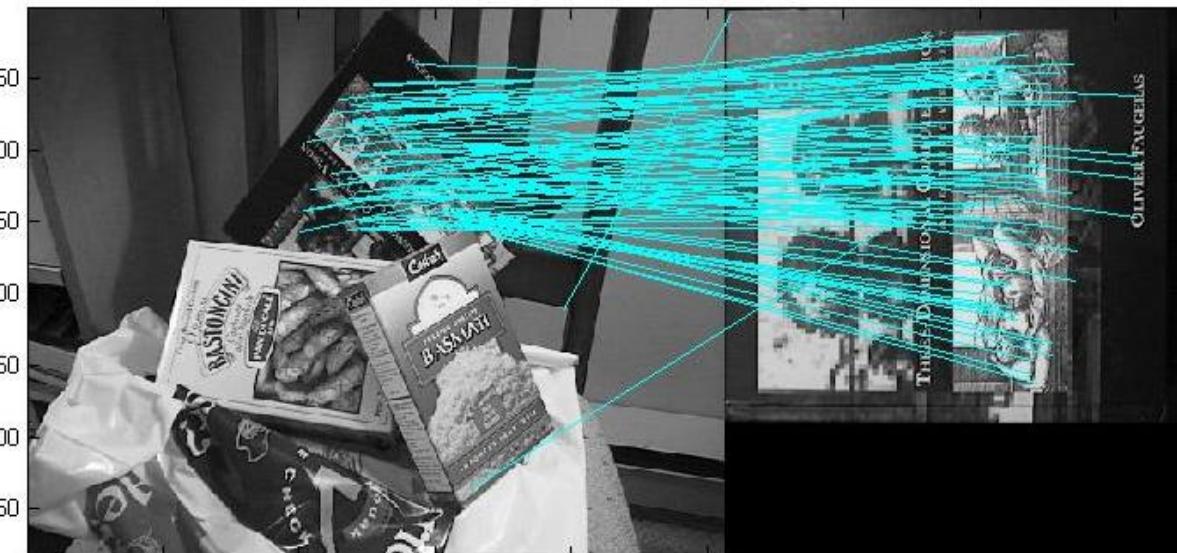
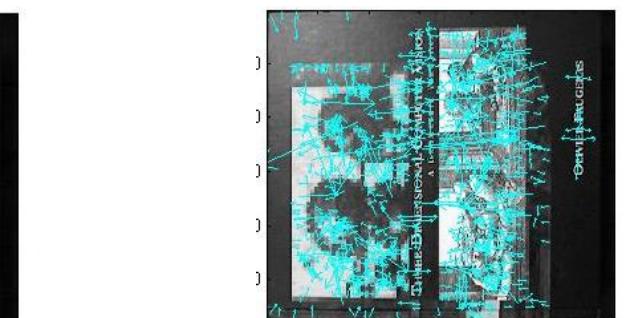
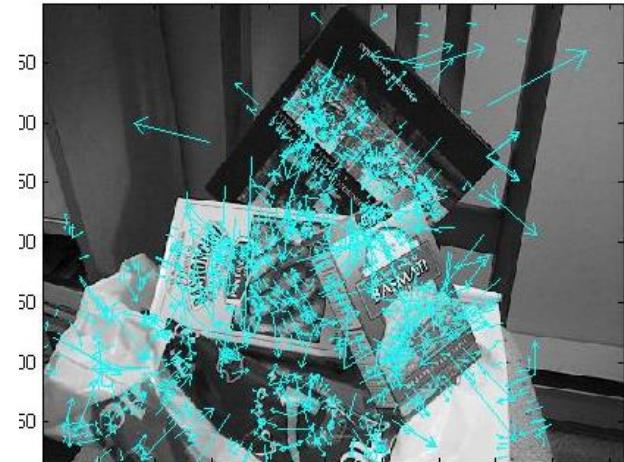
# SIFT Features: Summary

- **SIFT: Scale Invariant Feature Transform [Lowe, IJCV 2004]**
- An approach to **detect and describe** regions of interest in an image.
  - NB: SIFT detector = DoG detector
- SIFT features are **invariant** to 2D **rotation**, and **reasonably invariant** to **rescaling, viewpoint** changes (up to 50 degrees), and **illumination**
- **It runs in real-time but still slow (10 Hz on an i7 laptop)**
  - The expensive steps are the scale detection and descriptor extraction

# SIFT Demo

- Download original SIFT binaries and Matlab function from :  
<http://people.cs.ubc.ca/~lowe/keypoints>

```
>>[image1, descriptor1s, locs1] = sift('scene.pgm');  
>>showkeys(image1, locs1);  
  
>>[image2, descriptors2, locs2] = sift('book.pgm');  
>>showkeys(image2, locs2);  
  
>>match('scene.pgm', 'book.pgm');
```

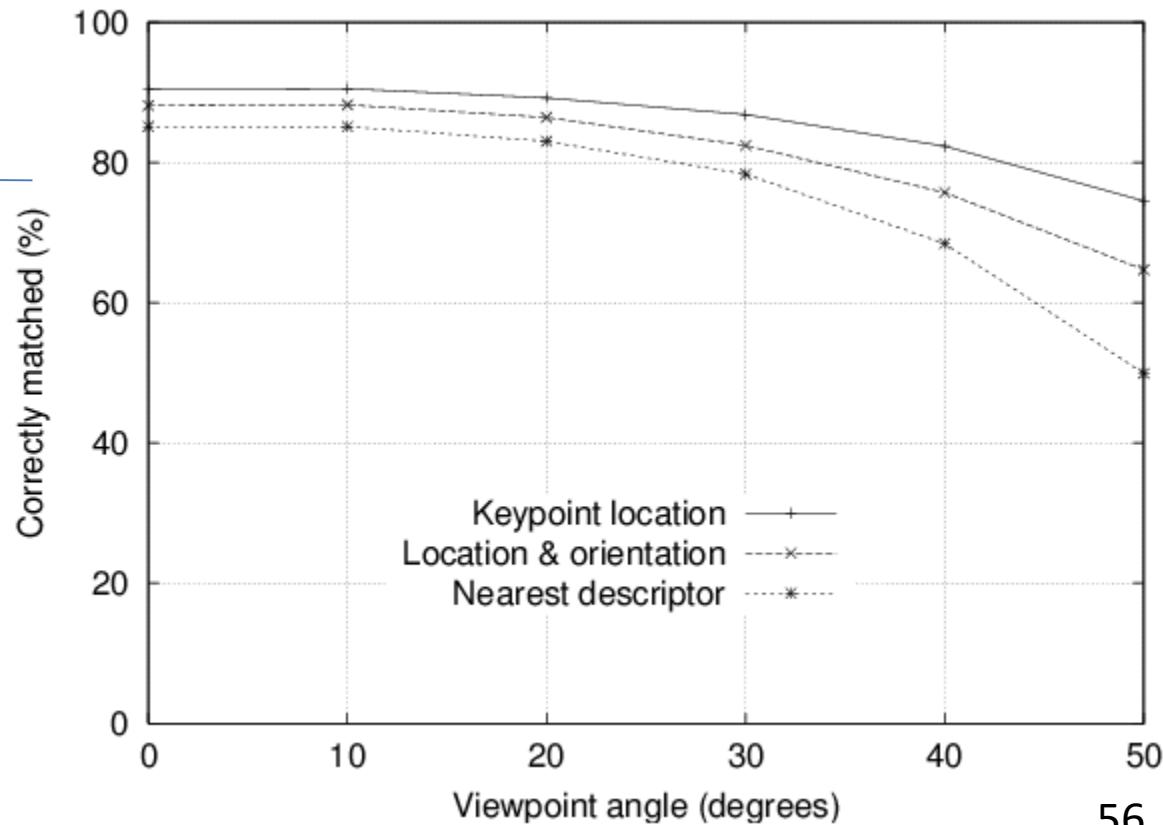
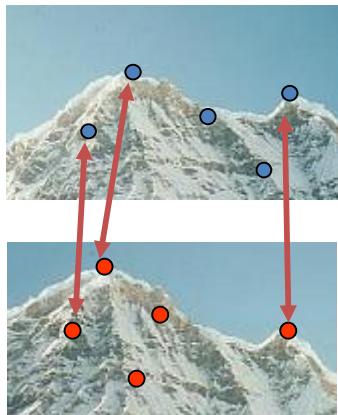


# SIFT Repeatability with Viewpoint Changes

**Repeatability =**

# correspondences detected

————— # correspondences present



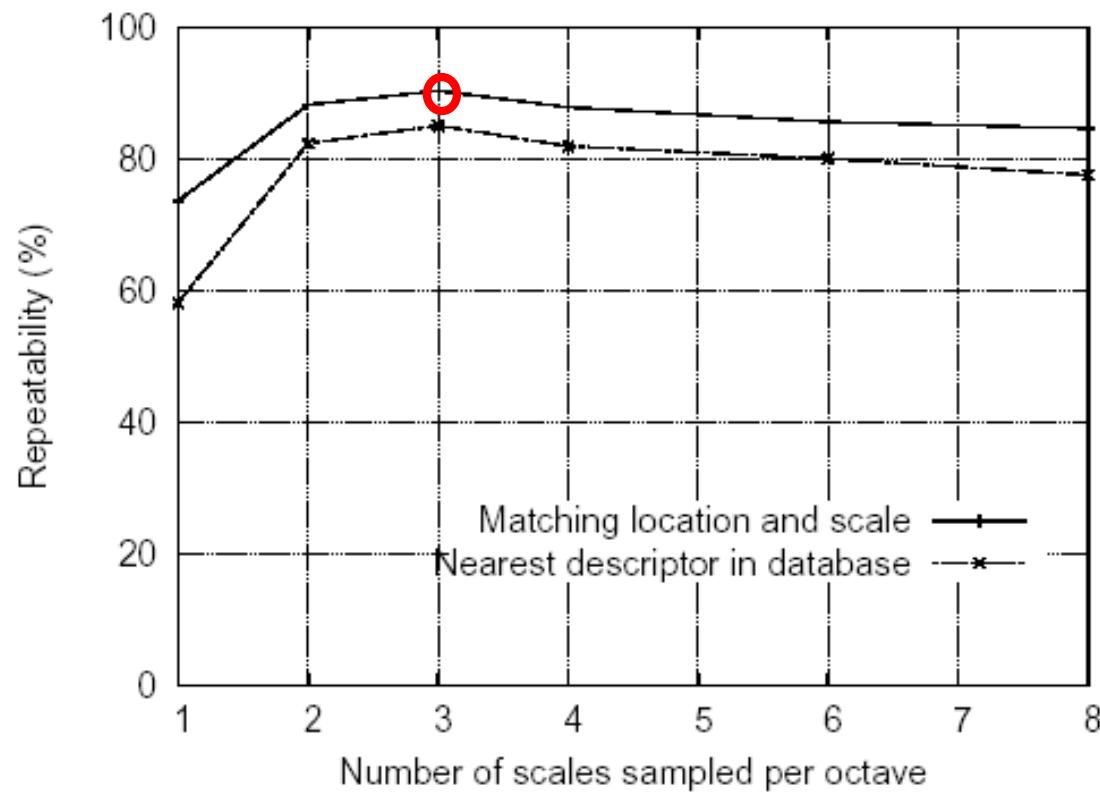
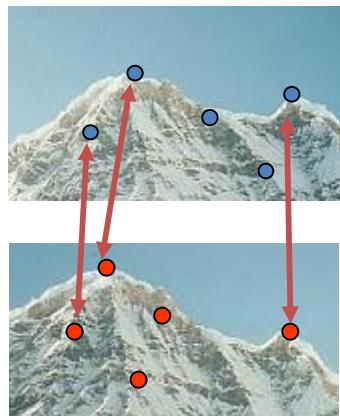
# SIFT Repeatability with Rescaling

The highest repeatability is obtained when sampling 3 scales per octave!

**Repeatability =**

# correspondences detected

# correspondences present



# Influence of Number of Orientations and Number of Sub-patches

The graph shows that a single orientation histogram ( $n = 1$ ) is very poor at discriminating. The results improve with a  $4 \times 4$  array of histograms with 8 orientations.

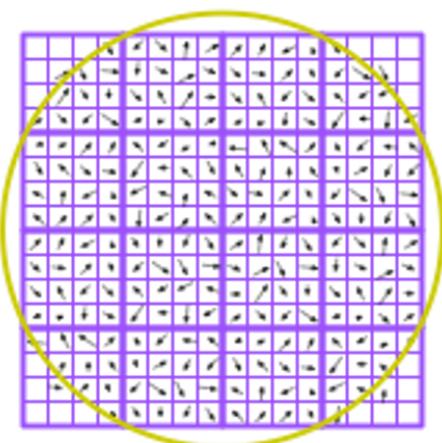


Image gradients

$4 \times 4$  HOGs

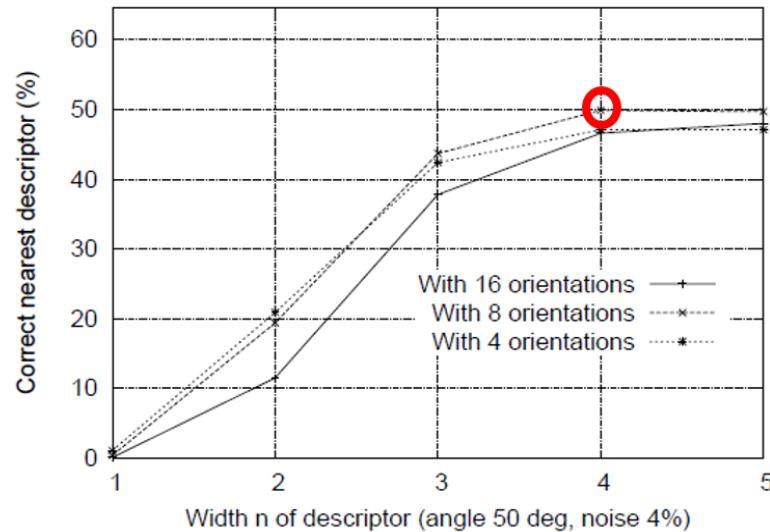


Figure 8: This graph shows the percent of keypoints giving the correct match to a database of 40,000 keypoints as a function of width of the  $n \times n$  keypoint descriptor and the number of orientations in each histogram. The graph is computed for images with affine viewpoint change of 50 degrees and addition of 4% noise.

# What's the output of SIFT?

- **Descriptor:**  $4 \times 4 \times 8 = 128$ -element 1D vector
- **Location** (pixel coordinates of the center of the patch): 2D vector
- **Scale** (i.e., size) of the patch: 1 scalar value (high scale corresponds to high blur in the space-scale pyramid)
- **Orientation** (i.e., angle of the patch): 1 scalar value



# SIFT for Object recognition

- Can be implemented easily by returning object with the largest number of correspondences with the template
- For planar objects, 4 point RANSAC can be used to remove outliers (see next lectures).
- For rigid 3D objects, 5 point RANSAC (see Lecture 08).



# SIFT for Panorama Stitching

AutoStitch: <http://matthewalunbrown.com/autostitch/autostitch.html>

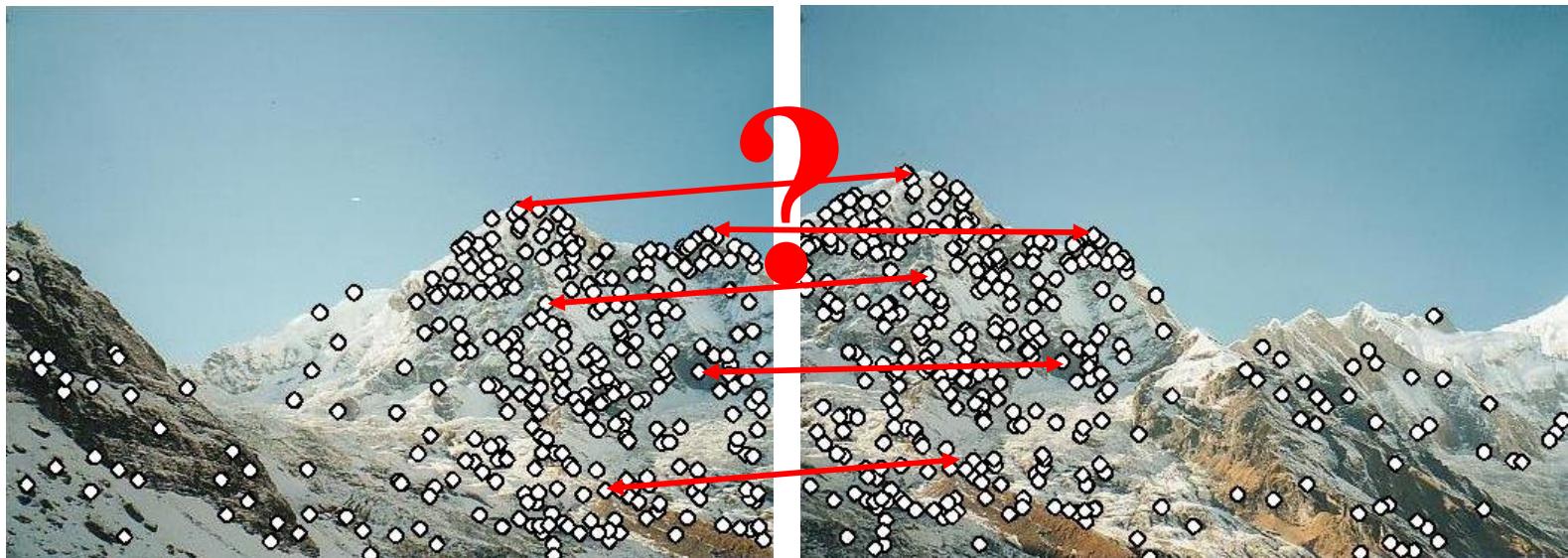
[M. Brown and D. G. Lowe. Recognising Panoramas. ICCV 2003]



# Main questions

- What points are distinctive (i.e., *features*, *keypoints*, *salient* points), such that they are *repeatable*? (i.e., can be re-detected from other views)
- How to *describe* a local region?
- How to establish *correspondences*, i.e., compute matches?

# Feature matching



# Feature matching

- Given a feature in  $I_1$ , how to find the best match in  $I_2$ ?
  1. **Define distance function** that compares two descriptors (SSD, SAD, NCC or Hamming distance for binary descriptors (e.g., Census, BRIEF, BRISK))
  2. **Brute-force matching:**
    1. Test all the features in  $I_2$
    2. Take the one at min distance, i.e. the **closest descriptor**
- **Issues with closest descriptor:** can give good scores to very ambiguous (bad) matches (curse of dimensionality)
- **Better approach:** compute ratio of distances to 1<sup>st</sup> to 2<sup>nd</sup> closest descriptor

$$\frac{d_1}{d_2} < \text{Threshold} \text{ (usually 0.8)}$$

- $d_1$  is the distance of the closest neighbor
- $d_2$  is the distance of the 2<sup>nd</sup> closest neighbor

# Distance ratio: Explanation

- In SIFT, the nearest neighbor is defined as the keypoint with minimum Euclidean distance. However, many features from an Image 1 may not have any correct match in Image 2 because they arise from background clutter or were not detected in the Image 1.
- An effective measure is obtained by comparing the distance of the **closest neighbor** to that of the **second-closest neighbor**. This measure performs well because correct matches need to have the closest neighbor significantly closer than the closest incorrect match to achieve reliable matching.
- For false matches, there will likely be a number of other false matches within similar distances due to the high dimensionality of the feature space (this problem is known as **curse of dimensionality**). We can think of the second-closest match as providing an estimate of the density of false matches within this portion of the feature space and at the same time identifying specific instances of feature ambiguity.

# SIFT Feature matching: distance ratio

The SIFT paper recommends to use a threshold on 0.8. Where does this come from?

***“A threshold of 0.8 eliminates 90% of the false matches while discarding less than 5% of the correct matches.”***

*“This figure was generated by matching images following random scale and orientation change, a depth rotation of 30 degrees, and addition of 2% image noise, against a database of 40,000 keypoints.”*

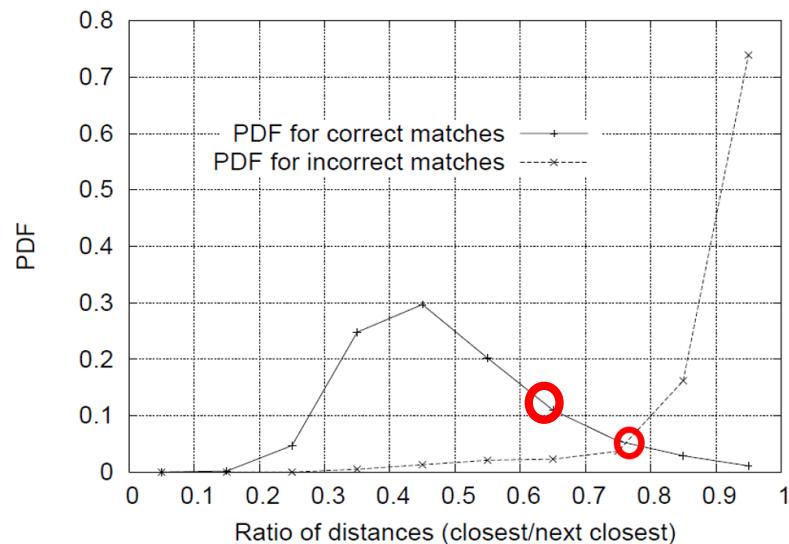


Figure 11: The probability that a match is correct can be determined by taking the ratio of distance from the closest neighbor to the distance of the second closest. Using a database of 40,000 keypoints, the solid line shows the PDF of this ratio for correct matches, while the dotted line is for matches that were incorrect.

# Outline

- Automatic Scale Selection
- The SIFT blob detector and descriptor
- Other corner and blob detectors and descriptors

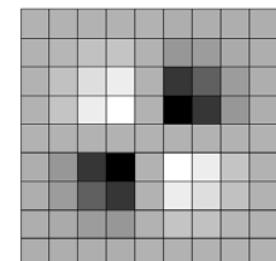
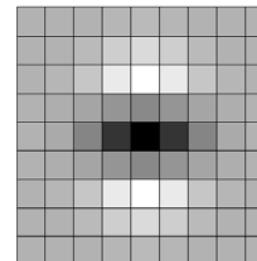
# SURF [Bay et al., ECCV 2006]



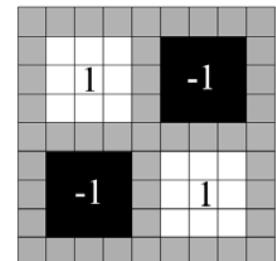
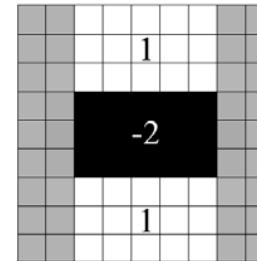
- **Speeded Up Robust Features**
- Based on ideas similar to **SIFT**
- Approximated computation for detection and descriptor
- Results comparable with SIFT, plus:
  - Faster computation
  - Generally shorter descriptors



Original second order partial derivatives of a Gaussian

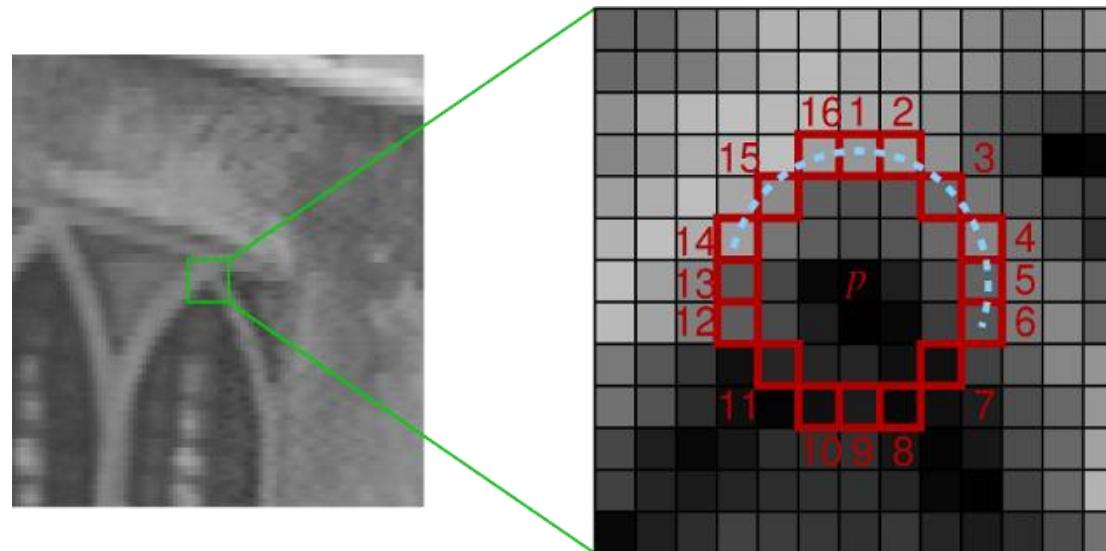


**SURF Approximation** using **box filter**



# FAST detector [Rosten et al., ICCV'05]

- **FAST**: Features from Accelerated Segment Test
- Studies intensity of pixels on circle around candidate pixel  $C$
- $C$  is a FAST corner if a set of  $N$  contiguous pixels on circle are:
  - all brighter than  $\text{intensity\_of}(C) + \text{threshold}$ , or
  - all darker than  $\text{intensity\_of}(C) + \text{threshold}$

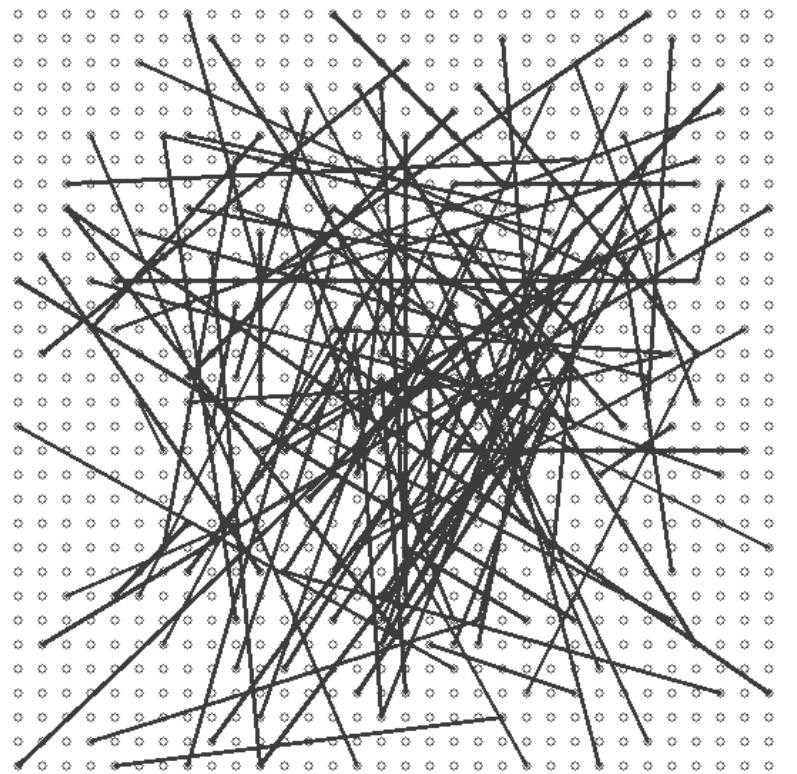


- Typically tests for 9 contiguous pixels in a 16-pixel circumference
- **Very fast detector** - in the order of 100 Mega-pixel/second

# BRIEF descriptor [Calonder et. al, ECCV 2010]



- **Binary Robust Independent Elementary Features**
- Goal: high speed (in description and matching)
- **Binary descriptor formation:**
  - Smooth image
  - **for each** detected keypoint (e.g. FAST),
  - **sample** 256 intensity pairs  $(p_1^i, p_2^i)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, 256$ ) within a squared patch around the keypoint
  - Create an empty 256-element descriptor
  - **for each  $i^{th}$  pair**
    - **if**  $I_{p_1^i} < I_{p_2^i}$  **then set**  $i^{th}$  bit of descriptor to **1**
    - **else** to **0**
- The **pattern is generated randomly** (or by **machine learning**) only once; then, the same pattern is used for all patches
- Pros: **Binary descriptor**: allows **very fast** Hamming distance matching (count of the number of bits that are different in the descriptors matched)
- Cons: **Not scale/rotation invariant**

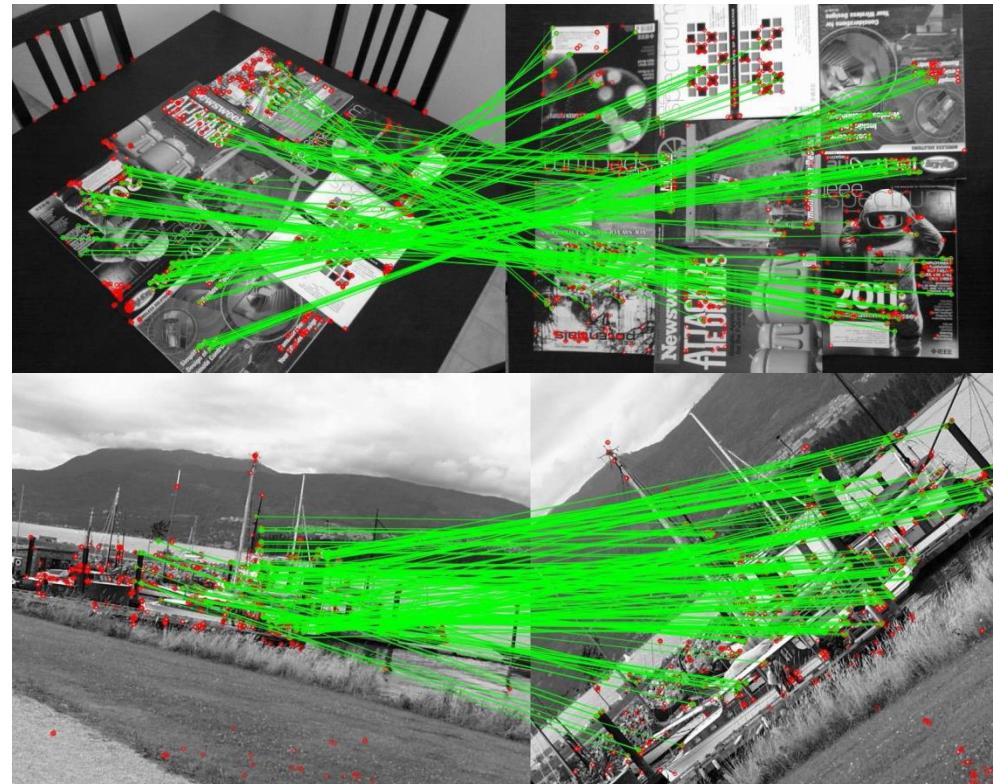


Pattern for intensity pair samples – generated randomly

# ORB descriptor

[Rublee et al., ICCV 2011]

- Oriented FAST and Rotated **BRIEF**
- Keypoint detector based on **FAST**
- **BRIEF** descriptors are *steered* according to keypoint orientation (to provide rotation invariance)
- Good Binary features are learned by minimizing the correlation on a set of training patches.

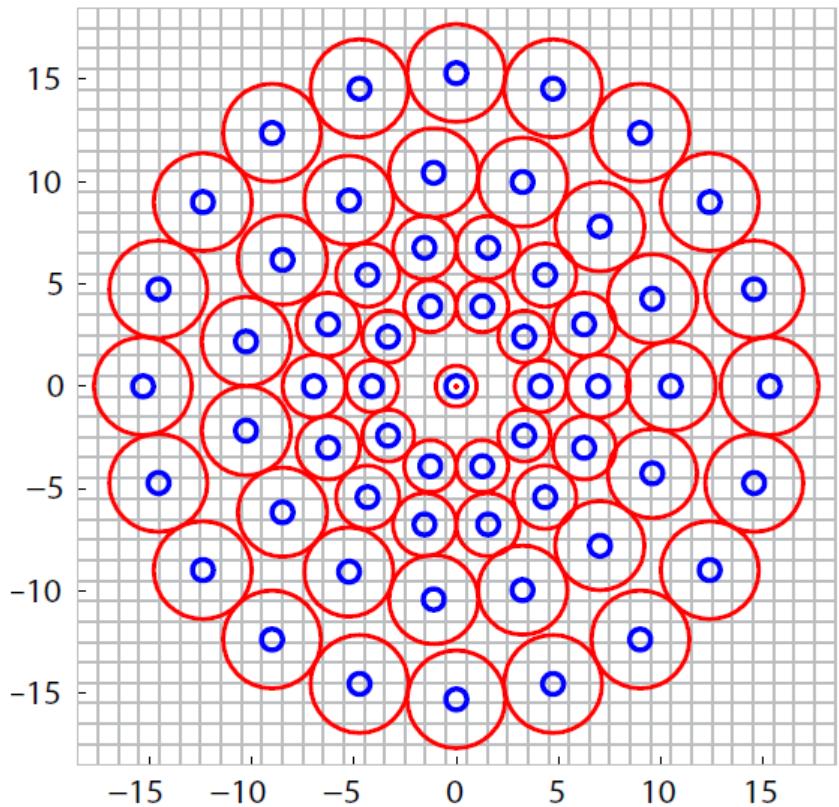


Rublee, Rabaud, Konolige, Bradski, (2011). "[ORB: an efficient alternative to SIFT or SURF](#)" (PDF). IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV).

# BRISK descriptor

[Leutenegger, Chli, Siegwart, ICCV 2011]

- **Binary Robust Invariant Scalable Keypoints**
- Detect corners in scale-space using FAST
- Rotation and scale invariant
- **Binary**, formed by pairwise intensity comparisons (like BRIEF)
- **Pattern** defines intensity comparisons in the keypoint neighborhood
- **Red circles**: size of the smoothing kernel applied
- **Blue circles**: smoothed pixel value used
- Compare short- and long-distance pairs for orientation assignment & descriptor formation
- Detection and descriptor speed: ~10 times faster than SURF
- Slower than BRIEF, but scale- and rotation- invariant

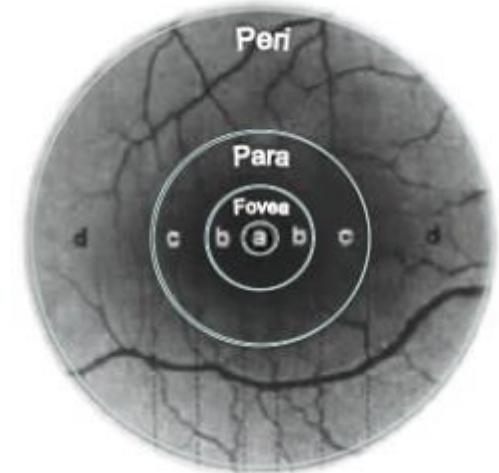


# FREAK descriptor

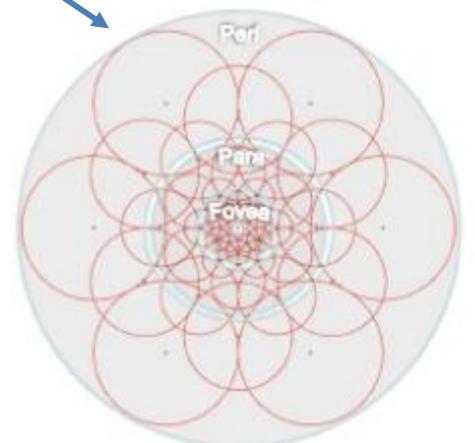
[Alahi, Ortiz, Vandergheynst, CVPR 2012]

- **Fast Retina Keypoint**
- Rotation and scale invariant

- Fast, compact and robust keypoint descriptor
- **Sampling pattern** inspired by the human retina:  
higher density of points near the center.
- **Pairwise** intensity comparisons form **binary strings**.
- Pairs are **learned** (as in ORB).
- Circles indicate size of smoothing kernel.
- Orientation mechanism similar to BRISK.
- Coarse-to-fine matching (cascaded approach): first compare the first 128 bits; if distance smaller than threshold, proceed to compare the next bits, etc.
- Faster to compute, less memory and more robust than SIFT, SURF or BRISK.



Human retina



FREAK sampling pattern

# LIFT descriptor

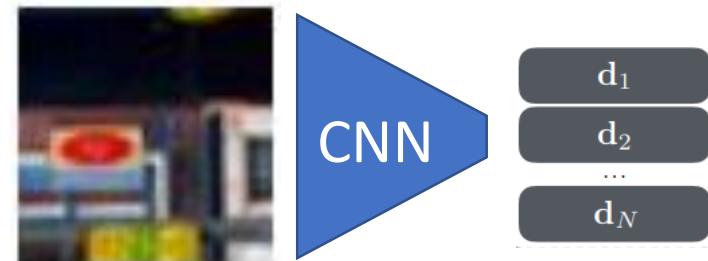
[Yi, Trulls, Lepetit, Fua, ECCV 2016]

- Learned Invariant Feature Transform
- Rotation, scale, viewpoint and illumination invariant

- Learning-based method which does both keypoint detection (**in scale space**) and description.
- First a network predicts the **patch orientation** which is used to derotate the patch.
- Then another neural network is used to generate a **patch descriptor** (128 dimensional) from the derotated patch.
- **Illumination invariance** is achieved by randomizing illuminations during training.
- LIFT keypoints showed the best matching score and repeatability. Even better than SIFT.



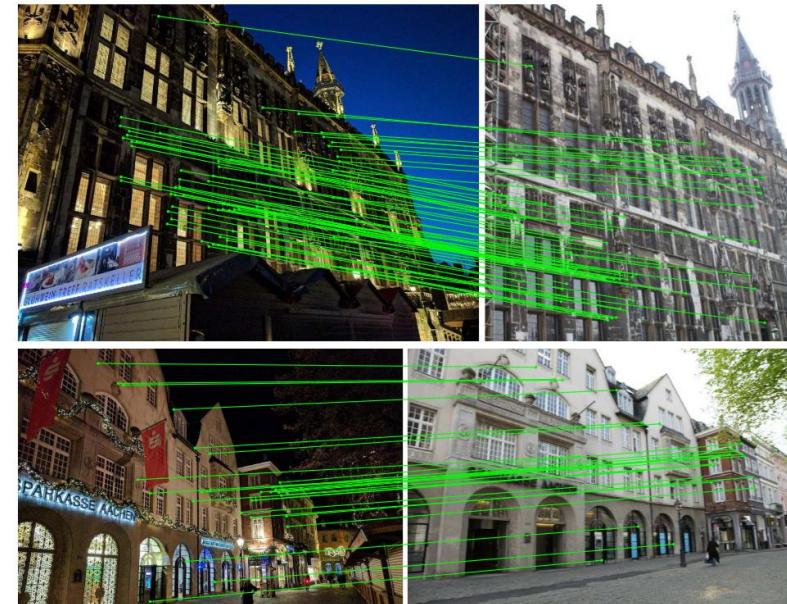
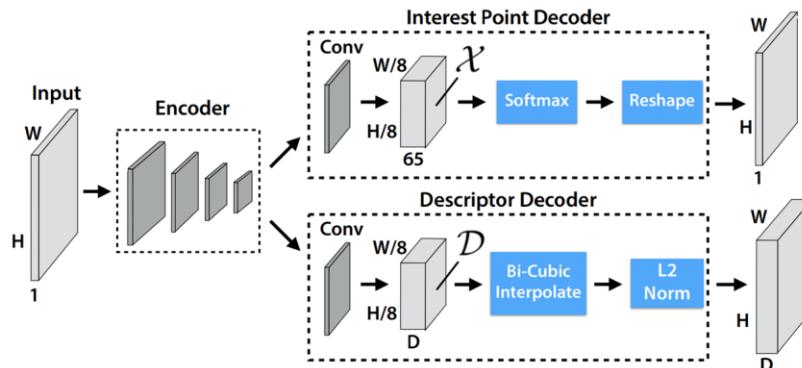
Keypoints with scales  
and orientations



neural network  
predicts descriptor

# SuperPoint: Self-Supervised Interest Point Detection and Description

- Joint regression of keypoint location and descriptors
- Trained on synthetic images and refined on homographies of real images
- Detector less accurate than SIFT, but descriptor shown to outperform SIFT



# Recap Table

Detector	Localization Accuracy of the detector	Descriptor that can be used	Efficiency	Relocalization & Loop closing
Harris	++++	Patch SIFT BRIEF ORB BRISK FREAK	+++ + ++++ ++++ +++ ++++	+ +++++ +++ ++++ +++ ++++
Shi-Tomasi	++++	Patch SIFT BRIEF ORB BRISK FREAK	++ + ++++ ++++ +++ ++++	+ +++++ +++ ++++ +++ ++++
FAST	++++	Patch SIFT BRIEF ORB BRISK FREAK	++++ + ++++ ++++ +++ ++++	+++ +++++ +++ ++++ +++ ++++
SIFT	+++	SIFT	+	++++
SURF	+++	SURF	++	++++

# Summary (things to remember)

- Similarity metrics: NCC (ZNCC), SSD (ZSSD), SAD (ZSAD), Census Transform
- Point feature detection
  - Properties and invariance to transformations
    - Challenges: rotation, scale, view-point, and illumination changes
  - Extraction
    - Moravec
    - Harris and Shi-Tomasi
      - Rotation invariance
  - Automatic Scale selection
  - Descriptor
    - Intensity patches
      - Canonical representation: how to make them invariant to transformations: rotation, scale, illumination, and view-point (affine)
    - Better solution: Histogram of oriented gradients: SIFT descriptor
- Matching
  - (Z)SSD, SAD, NCC, Hamming distance (last one only for binary descriptors)  
ratio 1<sup>st</sup> /2<sup>nd</sup> closest descriptor
- Depending on the task, you may want to trade off repeatability and robustness for speed:  
approximated solutions, combinations of efficient detectors and descriptors.
  - Fast corner detector: FAST;
  - Keypoint descriptors faster than SIFT: SURF, BRIEF, ORB, BRISK

# Reading

- Ch. 4.1 and Ch. 8.1 of Szeliski book
- Ch. 4 of Autonomous Mobile Robots book
- Ch. 13.3 of Peter Corke book

# Understanding Check

Are you able to answer:

- How does automatic scale selection work?
- What are the good and the bad properties that a function for automatic scale selection should have or not have?
- How can we implement scale invariant detection efficiently? (show that we can do this by resampling the image vs rescaling the kernel).
- What is a feature descriptor? (patch of intensity value vs histogram of oriented gradients). How do we match descriptors?
- How is the keypoint detection done in SIFT and how does this differ from Harris?
- How does SIFT achieve orientation invariance?
- How is the SIFT descriptor built?
- What is the repeatability of the SIFT detector after a rescaling of 2? And for a 50 degrees viewpoint change?
- Illustrate the 1st to 2nd closest ratio of SIFT detection: what's the intuitive reasoning behind it? Where does the 0.8 factor come from?