

LOCAL FEATURES: Past, Present & Future

WACV 2019 Tutorial

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Introduction to Computer Vision & Image Matching

Pinhole Camera

Epipolar Geometry & Fundamental Matrix

3D Reconstruction Method

RANSAC

RANSAC

Homography

Some Examples

Classical Methods

The classical matching pipeline

Local feature detectors

Hand-crafted floating point descriptors

Hand-crafted binary descriptors

Learning-based floating point descriptors

Learning-based binary descriptors

Deep Learning Methods

Deep learning: detectors

Deep learning: descriptors

Datasets & Benchmarks

Local feature matching

SfM & Reconstruction

Current trends & future challenges

Matching without local features

Camera pose estimation & visual localisation

Recap & open questions

CVPR 2019 Workshops

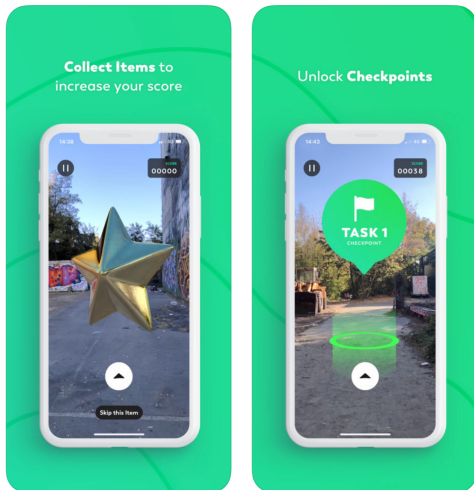
Matching images



Applications

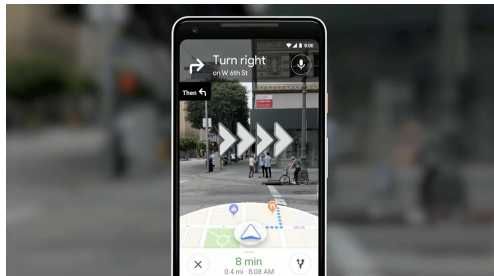
- ▶ 3D Reconstructions
- ▶ Self-driving cars
- ▶ Augmented Reality
- ▶ Assistance for Visually Impaired

Augmented Reality



ScavengAR App

Assistance



Google Maps AR

Building Rome in a few hours



Building Rome in a Day - *University of Washington & Microsoft Research*

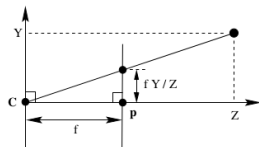
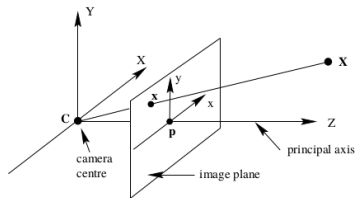
Image Matching - Practicality

- ▶ Matching a set of images enables us to “recover” the geometry of the world from individual images.

Image Matching - Practicality

- ▶ Matching a set of images enables us to “recover” the geometry of the world from individual images.
- ▶ To understand why, we need to discuss a few things about cameras.

Pinhole Camera Model



World Point

$$\mathbf{X} = (X, Y, Z)^T$$

Image Point

$$\mathbf{x} = \left(\frac{fX}{Z}, \frac{fY}{Z}, f \right)^T$$

Pinhole Camera Model

Homogeneous Coordinates Mapping

$$\begin{pmatrix} fX \\ fY \\ Z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pinhole Camera Model

World Point

$$\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{X}$$

Non-zero principal point

$$\mathbf{x} = \left(\frac{fX}{Z} + p_x, \frac{fY}{Z} + p_y, f \right)^T$$

Homogeneous Coordinates Mapping

$$\begin{pmatrix} fX \\ fY \\ Z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & p_x & 0 \\ 0 & f & p_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Forward and Backward Projections

Forward Projection (world point to image point)

$$\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{X}$$

Backward Projection (image point to world point)

$$\mathbf{X}(\lambda) = P^+\mathbf{x} + \lambda\mathbf{C}$$
$$P^+P = I$$

Epipolar Geometry

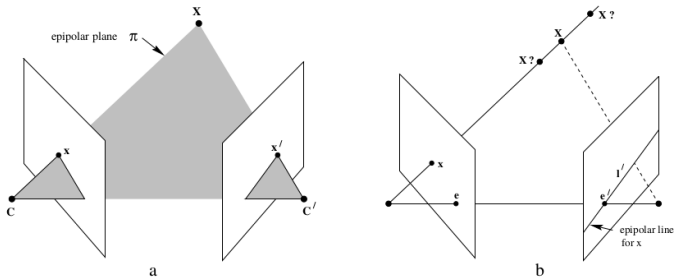


Fig. 9.1. **Point correspondence geometry.** (a) The two cameras are indicated by their centres C and C' and image planes. The camera centres, 3-space point X , and its images x and x' lie in a common plane π . (b) An image point x back-projects to a ray in 3-space defined by the first camera centre, C , and x . This ray is imaged as a line l' in the second view. The 3-space point X which projects to x must lie on this ray, so the image of X in the second view must lie on l' .

Epipolar Geometry

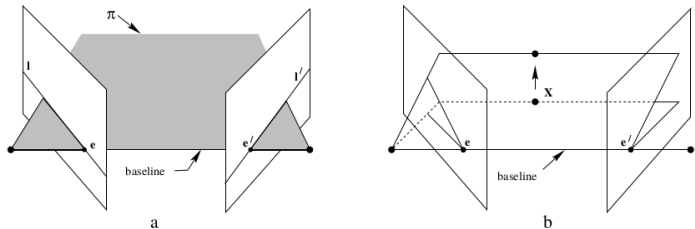


Fig. 9.2. **Epipolar geometry.** (a) The camera baseline intersects each image plane at the epipoles e and e' . Any plane π containing the baseline is an epipolar plane, and intersects the image planes in corresponding epipolar lines l and l' . (b) As the position of the 3D point X varies, the epipolar planes “rotate” about the baseline. This family of planes is known as an epipolar pencil. All epipolar lines intersect at the epipole.

Fundamental Matrix F

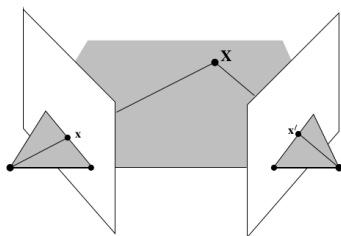


Fig. 10.1. **Triangulation.** The image points x and x' back project to rays. If the epipolar constraint $x'^T F x = 0$ is satisfied, then these two rays lie in a plane, and so intersect in a point X in 3-space.

For all corresponding points $x \leftrightarrow y$ in two images,

$$x'^T F y = 0$$

We can find F by only using pairs of matching points.

3D Reconstruction

Given a set of N correspondences $\mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i$, find camera matrices P and P' and the 3D points \mathbf{X}_i s.t.

$$\mathbf{x}_i = P\mathbf{X}_i$$

$$\mathbf{x}'_i = P'\mathbf{X}'_i$$

$$\forall i \in [1, N]$$

3D Reconstruction

- ▶ Get point correspondences
- ▶ Compute F
- ▶ Compute camera matrices
- ▶ For each point correspondence, compute the point in space that projects to the two image points

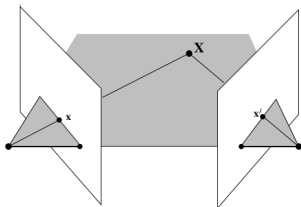


Fig. 10.1. **Triangulation.** *The image points \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{x}' back project to rays. If the epipolar constraint $\mathbf{x}'^T F \mathbf{x} = 0$ is satisfied, then these two rays lie in a plane, and so intersect in a point \mathbf{X} in 3-space.*

Computation of the Fundamental Matrix F

Objective

Given $n \geq 8$ image point correspondences $\{\mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i\}$, determine the fundamental matrix F such that $\mathbf{x}'_i{}^T F \mathbf{x}_i = 0$.

Algorithm

- (i) **Normalization:** Transform the image coordinates according to $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i = T\mathbf{x}_i$ and $\hat{\mathbf{x}}'_i = T'\mathbf{x}'_i$, where T and T' are normalizing transformations consisting of a translation and scaling.
- (ii) Find the fundamental matrix \hat{F}' corresponding to the matches $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}'_i$ by
 - (a) **Linear solution:** Determine \hat{F}' from the singular vector corresponding to the smallest singular value of \hat{A} , where \hat{A} is composed from the matches $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i \leftrightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}'_i$ as defined in (11.3).
 - (b) **Constraint enforcement:** Replace \hat{F}' by \hat{F}' such that $\det \hat{F}' = 0$ using the SVD (see section 11.1.1).
- (iii) **Denormalization:** Set $F = T'^T \hat{F}' T$. Matrix F is the fundamental matrix corresponding to the original data $\mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i$.

Algorithm 11.1. *The normalized 8-point algorithm for F.*

Computation of the Fundamental Matrix F

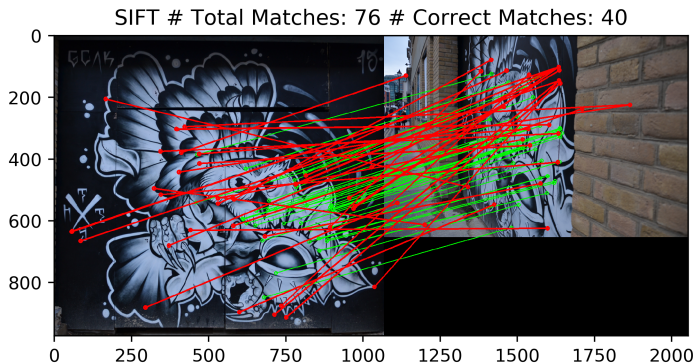
In theory

8 correspondences are enough for computing F

Practically

We rely on matching (lots of) interest points between images

Matching interest points



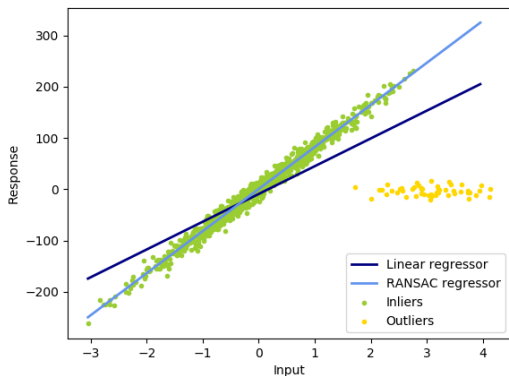
Robust estimation of good correspondences

Fischler and Bolles

Algorithm 1 RANSAC

- 1: Select randomly the minimum number of points required to determine the model parameters.
 - 2: Solve for the parameters of the model.
 - 3: Determine how many points from the set of all points fit with a predefined tolerance ϵ .
 - 4: If the fraction of the number of inliers over the total number points in the set exceeds a predefined threshold τ , re-estimate the model parameters using all the identified inliers and terminate.
 - 5: Otherwise, repeat steps 1 through 4 (maximum of N times).
-

Robust estimation of good correspondences



sklearn

Estimated coefficients (true, linear regression, RANSAC):
82.1903908407869 [54.17236387] [82.08533159]

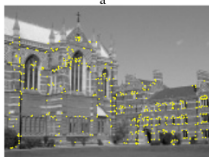
Robust estimation of good correspondences



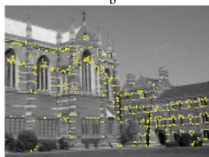
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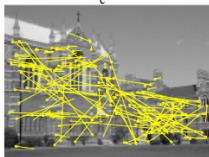
b



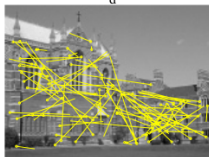
c



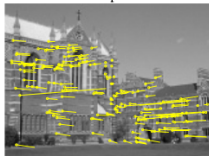
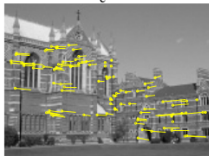
d



e



f



Homography

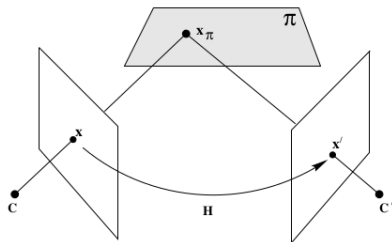


Fig. 13.1. **The homography induced by a plane.** The ray corresponding to a point \mathbf{x} is extended to meet the plane π in a point \mathbf{x}_π ; this point is projected to a point \mathbf{x}' in the other image. The map from \mathbf{x} to \mathbf{x}' is the homography induced by the plane π . There is a perspectivity, $\mathbf{x} = H_{1\pi}\mathbf{x}_\pi$, between the world plane π and the first image plane; and a perspectivity, $\mathbf{x}' = H_{2\pi}\mathbf{x}_\pi$, between the world plane and second image plane. The composition of the two perspectivities is a homography, $\mathbf{x}' = H_{2\pi}H_{1\pi}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = H\mathbf{x}$, between the image planes.

Homography

F generic case

Each point in one image, is matched with a line in the other image

Homography special property

Each point in one image, is matched with a single point in the other image

Image Matching

Some examples & applications

Panorama



(a) Image 1



(b) Image 2



(c) SIFT matches 1



(d) SIFT matches 2



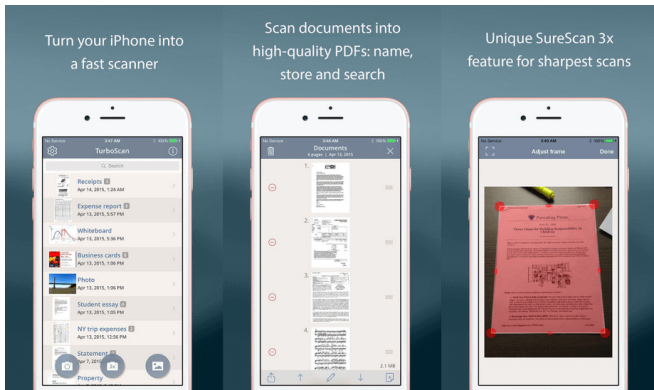
(e) RANSAC inliers 1



(f) RANSAC inliers 2



Image rectification



Turboscan App

3d Models



Sparse model of central Rome using 21K photos produced by COLMAP's SfM pipeline.



Dense models of several landmarks produced by COLMAP's MVS pipeline.

Colmap <https://colmap.github.io/>

Recap

Better ways to matching points between two images



Easier job for RANSAC



Better 3D models, panoramas, AR apps etc

Classical matching methods

Classical matching methods

The “classical” image matching pipeline



Step 1 *Detection*: Choose “interesting” points

Step 2 *Description*: Convert the points to a suitable mathematical representation (descriptor)

Step 3 *Matching*: Match the point descriptors between the two images

Terminology

Literature terms

Features, Keypoints, Local features, Interest points

Our terminology

Feature frame³

a representation of a specific area/sub-region of an image, characterised by location and shape

³Vedaldi and Fulkerson, *VLFeat: An Open and Portable Library of Computer Vision Algorithms*.

Common types of feature frames



- ▶ *Point*: x, y
- ▶ *Circle*: x, y, ρ
- ▶ *Rectangle*: x, y, w, h
- ▶ *Oriented Circle*: x, y, ρ, θ
- ▶ *Ellipse*: x, y, a, b
- ▶ *Oriented Ellipse*: x, y, a, b, θ

Interest Points



$$f(x, y) = \sum_{(x_k, y_k) \in W} (I(x_k, y_k) - I(x_k + \Delta x, y_k + \Delta y))^2$$
$$f(x, y) \approx \sum_{(x, y) \in W} (I_x(x, y)\Delta x + I_y(x, y)\Delta y)^2$$

Interest Points



$$f(x, y) \approx (\Delta x \quad \Delta y) M \begin{pmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x^2 & \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x I_y \\ \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x I_y & \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Harris Corners

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x^2 & \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x I_y \\ \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x I_y & \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

λ_1, λ_2 : Eigenvalues of M

► $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \approx 0$

Harris Corners

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- ▶ $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \approx 0$
- ▶ $\lambda_1 \gg \lambda_2$

Harris Corners

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λ_1, λ_2 : Eigenvalues of M

- ▶ $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \approx 0$
- ▶ $\lambda_1 \gg \lambda_2$
- ▶ $\lambda_1 \ll \lambda_2$

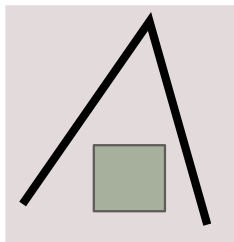
Harris Corners

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x^2 & \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x I_y \\ \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_x I_y & \sum_{(x,y) \in W} I_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

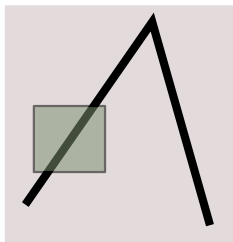
λ_1, λ_2 : Eigenvalues of M

- ▶ $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \approx 0$
- ▶ $\lambda_1 \gg \lambda_2$
- ▶ $\lambda_1 \ll \lambda_2$
- ▶ $\lambda_1 \approx \lambda_2 \gg 0$

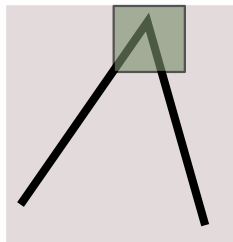
Harris Criterion



$$\lambda_1 \approx \lambda_2 \approx 0$$



$$\lambda_1 \gg \lambda_2$$

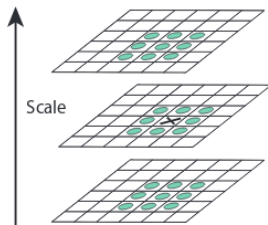
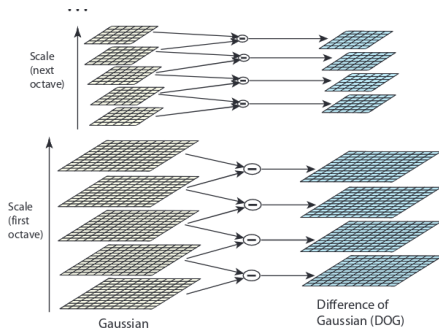


$$\lambda_1 \approx \lambda_2 \gg 0$$

Adding scale estimation



SIFT Detector



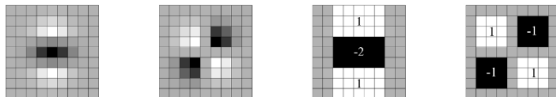


Fig.1. Left to right: the (discretised and cropped) Gaussian second order partial derivatives in y -direction and xy -direction, and our approximations thereof using box filters. The grey regions are equal to zero.

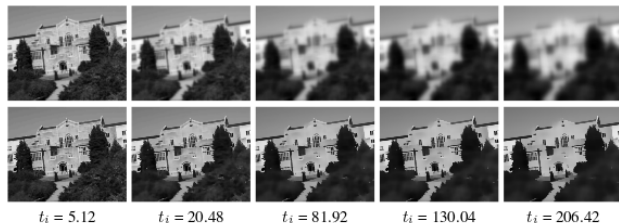


Fig. 2. Comparison between the Gaussian and nonlinear diffusion scale space for several evolution times t_i . First Row: Gaussian scale space (linear diffusion). The scale space is formed by convolving the original image with a Gaussian kernel of increasing standard deviation. Second Row: Nonlinear diffusion scale space with conductivity function g_3 .

6

Edge Foci

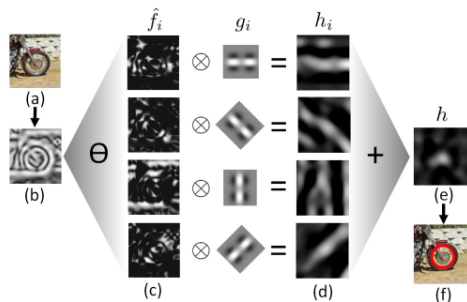
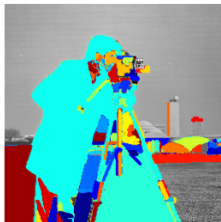


Figure 2. Flow diagram of the detector: (a) input image, (b) normalized gradient \hat{f} , (c) normalized gradients separated into orientations \hat{f}_i , (d) responses after applying oriented filter $h_i = \hat{f}_i \otimes g_i$, (e) the aggregated results h , and (f) detected interest point.

7

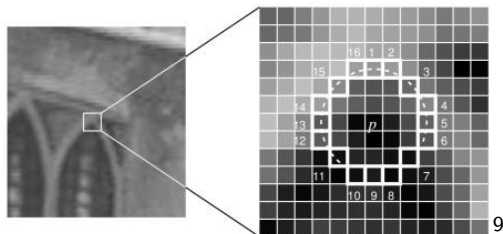
MSER



8

⁸Matas et al., "Robust wide-baseline stereo from maximally stable extremal regions".

FAST



⁹Rosten and Drummond, "Machine learning for high-speed corner detection".

Feature Frame Detectors - Recap

- ▶ Many possibilities for types of feature frames
- ▶ Might include scale & orientation

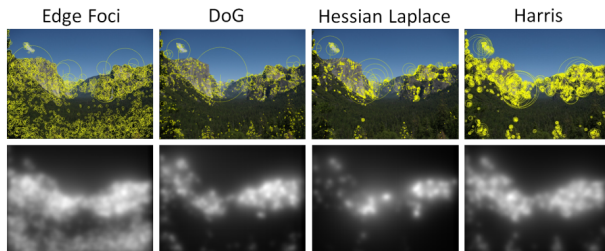
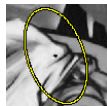


Figure 8. Visualization of the interest points and their spatial distributions for various detectors on Yosemite image.

From points to descriptors

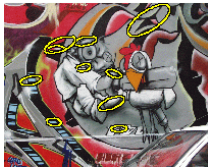
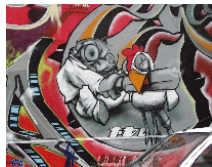


Detect Regions



Rectify patch around
feature frame

From points to descriptors



Detect Regions

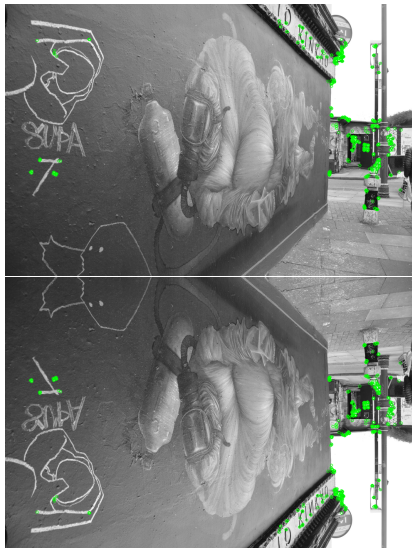


Rectify patch around feature frame

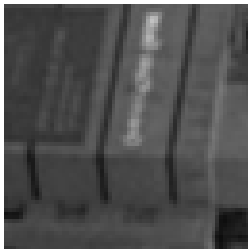
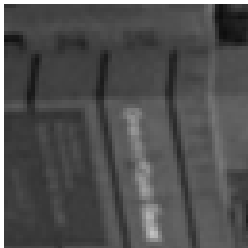
Local Descriptor

A *vectorial representation* of the patch around a feature frame which is more a discriminative and robust than the patch.

Importance of orientation



Importance of orientation



From points to descriptors

ZMUV descriptor

- ▶ Zeroed-mean-unit-variance patch (*ZMUV*) normalisation, which is defined as $\hat{\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\text{mean}(\mathbf{p})}{\text{std}(\mathbf{p})}$.
- ▶ not invariant to simple geometric deformations.
- ▶ In addition, the dimensionality of such a descriptor can be very high even for very small normalised patches e.g. it can reach 2^{10} for a 32×32 patch.

Descriptor definition

Given a patch $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, a descriptor is the result $f_{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ of a function f

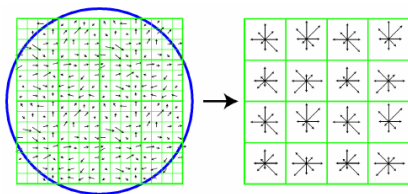
with $D < N \times N$ (ideally) and $f_{\mathbf{x}}$ more robust to geometric noise than the vector \mathbf{x} (flattened list of pixel illuminations).

Descriptor Categorisation

- ▶ Output type
 - ▶ Floating point
 - ▶ Binary
- ▶ Hand-crafted vs. learning
 - ▶ Engineered / Hand Crafted Methods
 - ▶ Learning-based methods

Hand-crafted floating point descriptors

SIFT Descriptor

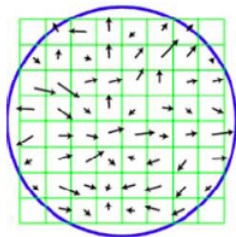


- ▶ The local spatial pooling of the descriptor is based on a rectangular grid that partitions the patch into several regions.
- ▶ Assuming the patch is divided into M rectangular areas, and the gradients are quantised to K angle bins, the resulting K dimensional histograms concatenated from M areas, will be represented by a point in the \mathbb{R}^{M*K} space.
- ▶ In the case of the original implementation of SIFT, 16 grid quanta were combined with 8 angular bins, resulting in final dimensionality of 128.

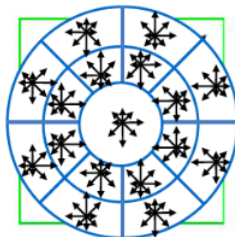
SIFT Descriptor



GLOH

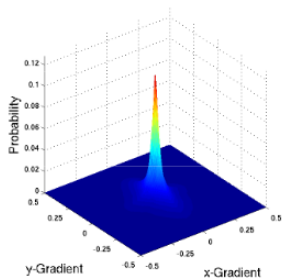


(a) image gradients

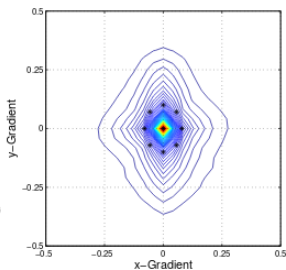


(b) keypoint descriptor

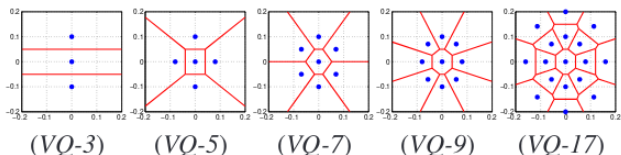
10



(a)



(b)



(VQ-3)

(VQ-5)

(VQ-7)

(VQ-9)

(VQ-17)

11

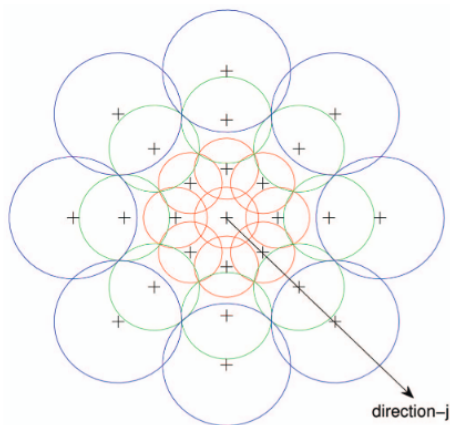
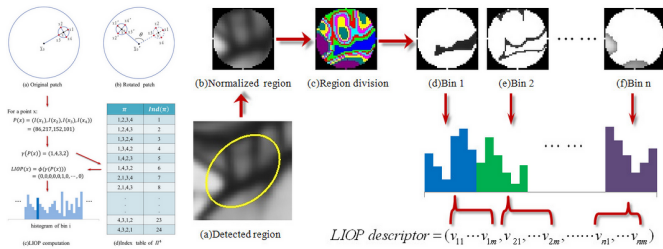


Fig. 6. The DAISY descriptor: Each circle represents a region where the radius is proportional to the standard deviations of the Gaussian kernels and the “+” sign represents the locations where we sample the convolved orientation maps center being a pixel location where we compute the descriptor. By overlapping the regions, we achieve smooth transitions between the regions and a degree of rotational robustness. The radii of the outer regions are increased to have an equal sampling of the rotational axis, which is necessary for robustness against rotation.

12

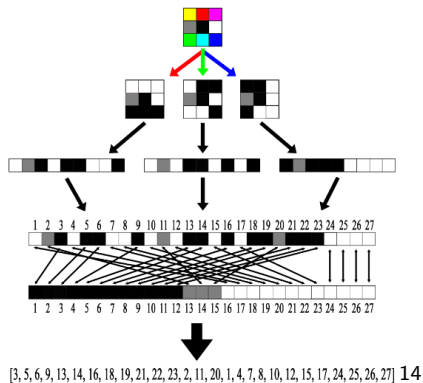


13


```

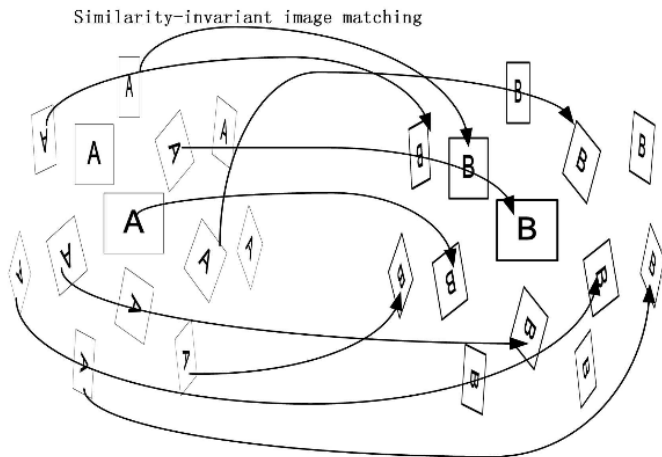
[~, desc1] = sort(p1(:));
[~, desc2] = sort(p2(:));
distance = sum(desc1 ~= desc2);

```

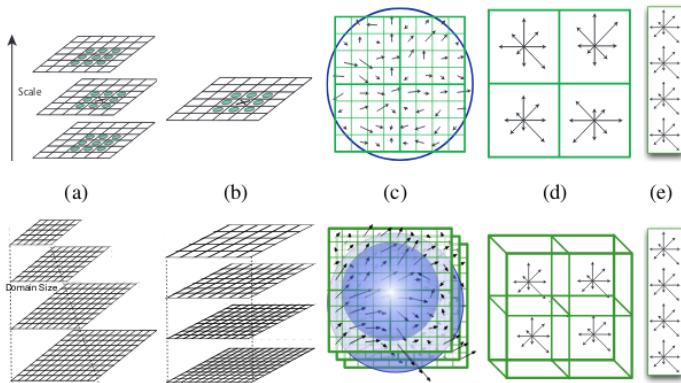


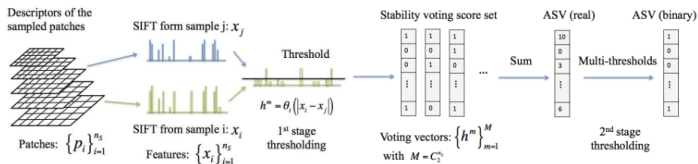
Aggregation across scales and viewpoints

Several methods identified that aggregation across different scales or different affine viewpoints into a single feature vector can improve the discriminative power of the descriptor, albeit at the price of much higher computational cost



DSP-SIFT

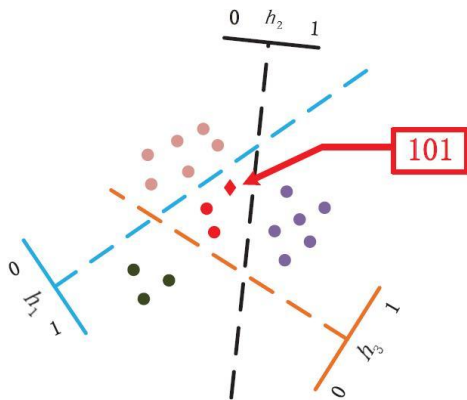




17

Hand-crafted binary descriptors

Hashing SIFT



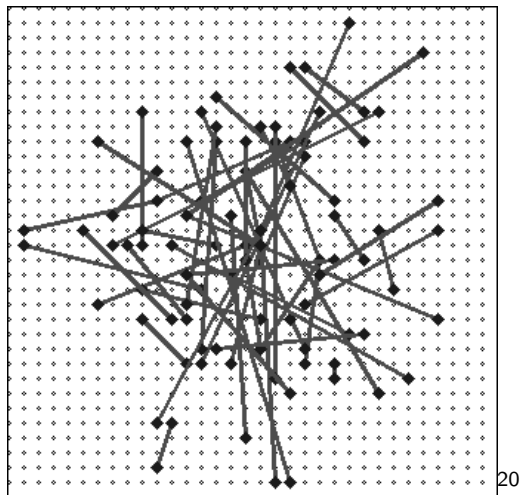
1819

Image from Haisheng Li.

¹⁸Terasawa and Tanaka, "Spherical Ish for approximate nearest neighbor search on unit hypersphere".

¹⁹Strecha et al., "LDAHash: Improved matching with smaller descriptors".

BRIEF



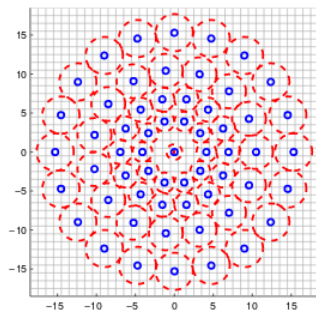


Figure 3. The BRISK sampling pattern with $N = 60$ points: the small blue circles denote the sampling locations; the bigger, red dashed circles are drawn at a radius σ corresponding to the standard deviation of the Gaussian kernel used to smooth the intensity values at the sampling points. The pattern shown applies to a scale of $t = 1$.

21

²¹Leutenegger, Chli, and Siegwart, “BRISK: Binary robust invariant scalable keypoints”.

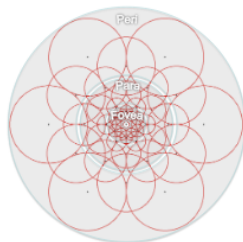


Figure 4: Illustration of the FREAK sampling pattern similar to the retinal ganglion cells distribution with their corresponding receptive fields. Each circle represents a receptive field where the image is smoothed with its corresponding Gaussian kernel.

22

Learning-based floating point descriptors

PCA-SIFT

Collect a matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ with N descriptors of dimensionality D

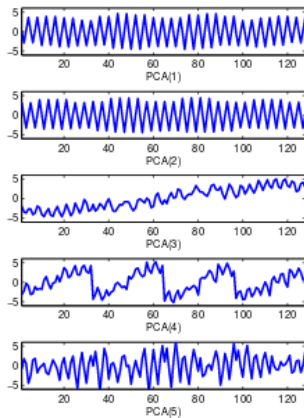
$$C = X^T X$$

$$C = U \Sigma V$$

Use the first K eigenvectors from U to project X to a new descriptor of size K . $X_k = U_k X$ ²³

²³Ke and Sukthankar, "PCA-SIFT: A more distinctive representation for local image descriptors".

PCA-SIFT



PCA

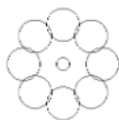
PCA



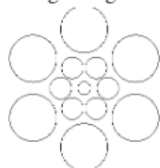
Picking the best Daisy



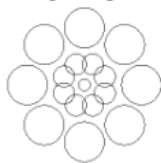
1 Ring 6 Segments



1 Ring 8 Segments



2 Rings 6 Segments



2 Rings 8 Segments

24

Linear projections

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u}_{\text{LDP}} &= \arg \max_{\mathbf{u}} \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{D}} \|\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_j\|^2}{\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}} \|\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_j\|^2} \\ &= \arg \max_{\mathbf{u}} \frac{\mathbf{u}^T C_{\mathcal{D}} \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u}^T C_{\mathcal{S}} \mathbf{u}}\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

Where $C_{\mathcal{D}}$ and $C_{\mathcal{S}}$ represent the inter- and intra-class covariance matrices of differently labeled points (unmatched features in image descriptor space) and same labeled points (matched features), respectively.

$$C_{\mathcal{D}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{D}} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^T \quad (3)$$

$$C_{\mathcal{S}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)^T \quad (4)$$

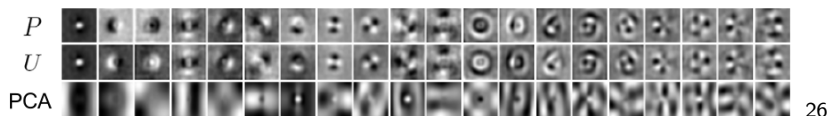
Note that these are not the same matrices as the between-class S_B and within-class scatters S_W in equation (1) for LDA, although they are related (see section 3.3) . The solution is the generalized eigenvectors:

$$U = \text{eig}(C_{\mathcal{S}}^{-1} C_{\mathcal{D}}) \quad (5)$$

The projection matrix is $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m'}$, with $m' \leq m$ eigenvectors corresponding to the m' largest eigenvalues. 25

²⁵Cai, Mikolajczyk, and Matas, "Learning linear discriminant projections for dimensionality reduction of image descriptors".

Linear projections

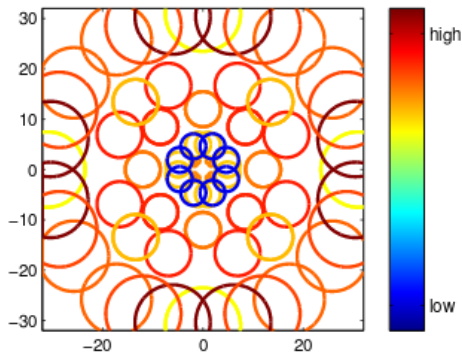


²⁶Cai, Mikolajczyk, and Matas, "Learning linear discriminant projections for dimensionality reduction of image descriptors".

Convex optimisation for learning descriptors

Learn optimal configuration of gaussian filters s.t.

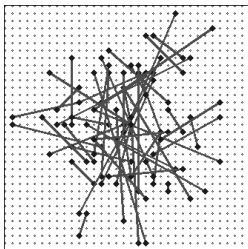
$$\min_{\mathbf{y} \in P(\mathbf{x})} d_{\eta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) < \min_{\mathbf{u} \in N(\mathbf{x})} d_{\eta}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}),$$



²⁷Simonyan, Vedaldi, and Zisserman, "Learning Local Feature Descriptors Using Convex Optimisation."

Learning-based binary descriptors

ORB



- ▶ Instead of random intensity tests (as in BRIEF), select tests based on data
- ▶ Choose tests with maximum variance across different samples & minimum correlation between them.
- ▶ No need for pairs of labelled positive and negative patches

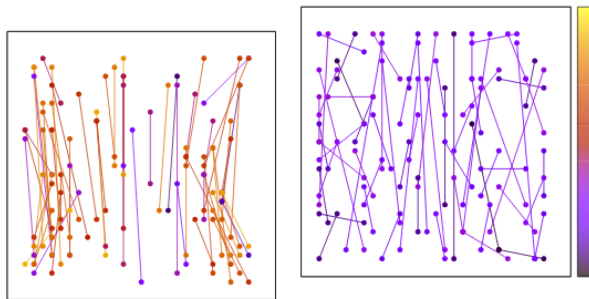
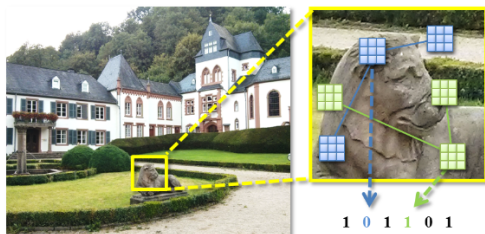


Figure 6. A subset of the binary tests generated by considering high-variance under orientation (left) and by running the learning algorithm to reduce correlation (right). Note the distribution of the tests around the axis of the keypoint orientation, which is pointing up. The color coding shows the maximum pairwise correlation of each test, with black and purple being the lowest. The learned tests clearly have a better distribution and lower correlation.

LATCH

Triplets of comparisons instead of pairs



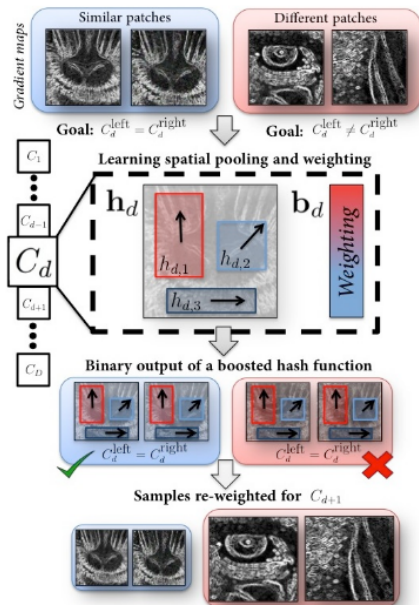
29

$$\forall_{i \in \{1, \dots, N\}} \quad b_i = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + \tau_i)$$

Learning of w_i and t_i

30

Boosting



Boosting

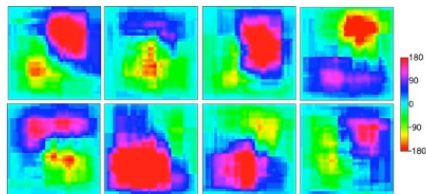
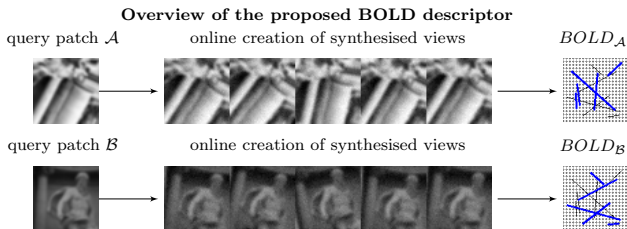






Figure 4. Visualization of the selected weak learners for the first 8 bits learned on 200k pairs of 32×32 patches from the Notre Dame dataset (best viewed on screen). For each pixel of the figure we show the average orientation weighted by the weights of the weak learners \mathbf{b}_d . For different bits, the weak learners cluster about different regions and orientations illustrating their complementary nature.



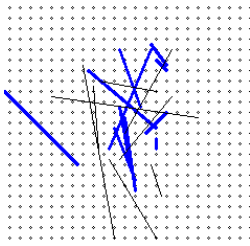
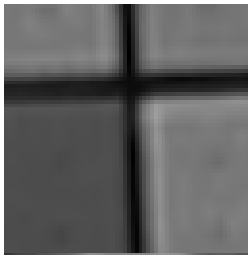
Typical descriptors

<i>Patch</i>	<i>Descriptor</i>	
\mathcal{A} 	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{A}} = [d_{\mathcal{A}1}, d_{\mathcal{A}2} \dots d_{\mathcal{A}D}]$	} <i>Distance</i> $\Delta(\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{A}}, \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{B}})$
\mathcal{B} 	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{B}} = [d_{\mathcal{B}1}, d_{\mathcal{B}2} \dots d_{\mathcal{B}D}]$	

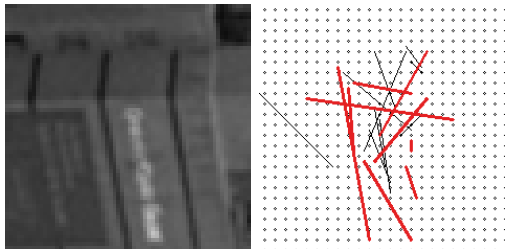
Locally learned BOLD

<i>Patch</i>	<i>Descriptor</i>	<i>Stable descriptor dimensions</i>	
\mathcal{A} 	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{A}} = [d_{\mathcal{A}1}, d_{\mathcal{A}2} \dots d_{\mathcal{A}D}]$	$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} = [0, 1 \dots 1]$	} <i>Distance</i> $\Delta(\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{A}}, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}}, \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{B}}, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{B}})$
\mathcal{B} 	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{B}} = [d_{\mathcal{B}1}, d_{\mathcal{B}2} \dots d_{\mathcal{B}D}]$	$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{B}} = [1, 0 \dots 0]$	

BOLD



BOLD



Deep Learning Era

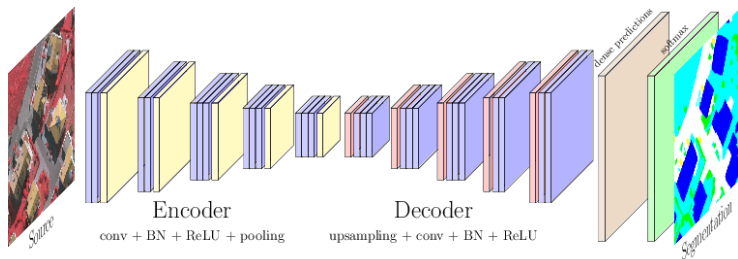
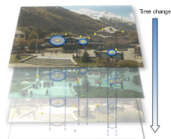
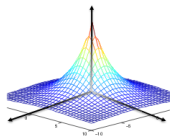


Image: Nicolas Audebert

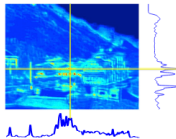
Deep learning: detectors



(a) Stack of training images



(b) Desired response on positive samples



(c) Regressor response for a new image



(d) Keypoints detected in the new image

Learning a detector by ranking

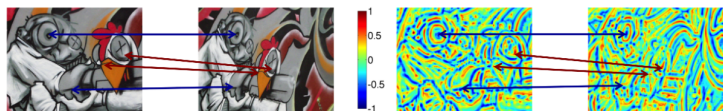


Figure 1. Left: an image undergoes a perspective change transformation. Right: our learned response function, visualized as a heat map, produces a ranking of image locations that is reasonably invariant under the transformation. Since the resulting ranking is largely repeatable, the top/bottom quantiles of the response function are also repeatable (examples of interest points are shown by arrows).

34

³⁴Savinov et al., *Quad-networks: unsupervised learning to rank for interest point detection*.

Learning a detector by ranking

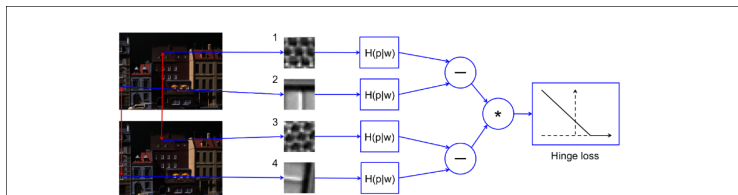


Figure 2. Quad-network forward pass on a training quadruple. Patches (1, 3) and (2, 4) are correspondence pairs between two different images, so 1, 2 come from the first image and 3, 4 come from the second image. All of the patches are extracted with a random rotation.

35

Learning covariant detectors

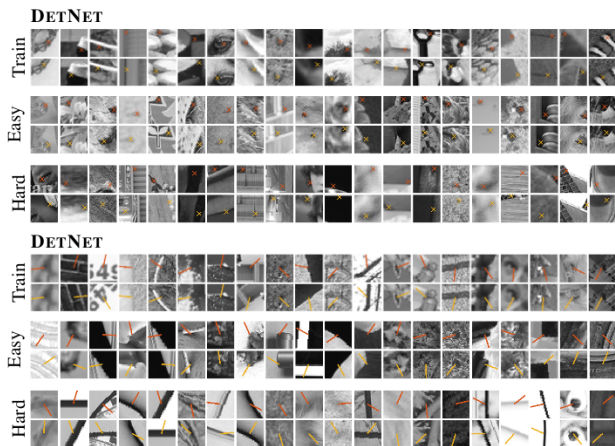
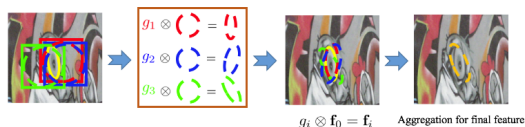
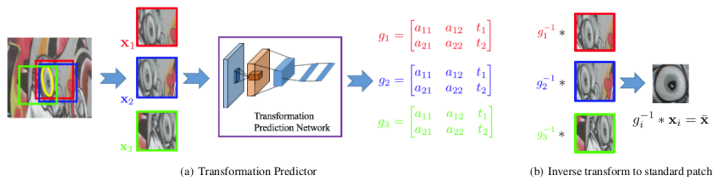


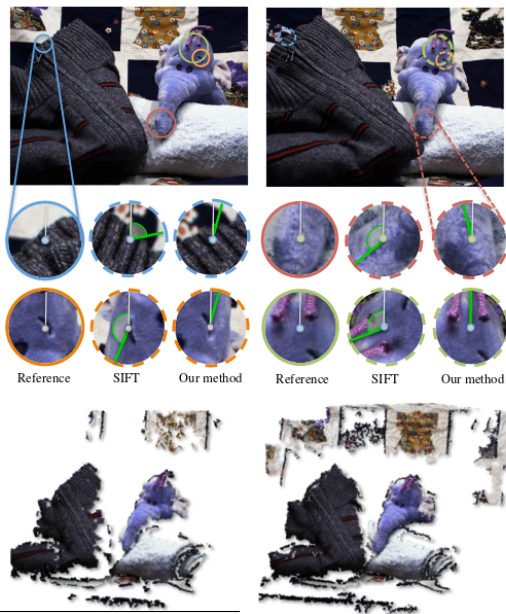
Fig. 4: *Training and validation patches.* Example of training triplets (x_1, x_2, g) (x_1 above and $x_2 = gx_1$ below) for different detectors. The figure also shows “easy” and “hard” patch pairs, extracted from the validation set based on the value of the loss (16). The crosses and bars represent respectively the detected translation and orientation, as learned by DETNET-L and ROTNET-L. 36

Learning Discriminative and Transformation Covariant Local Feature Detectors



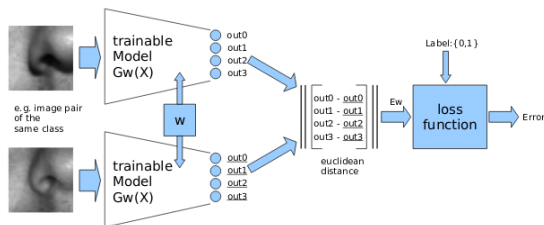
37

Learning to assign orientations



Deep learning: descriptors

Early work on learning convolutional neural networks as feature descriptors specifically for local patches, but was not immediately followed



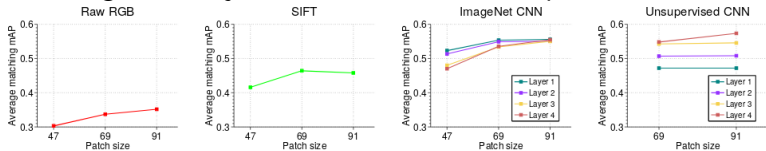
Early work on learning convolutional neural networks as feature descriptors specifically for local patches, but was not immediately followed



40

⁴⁰Jahner, Grabner, and Bischof, “Learned local descriptors for recognition and matching”.

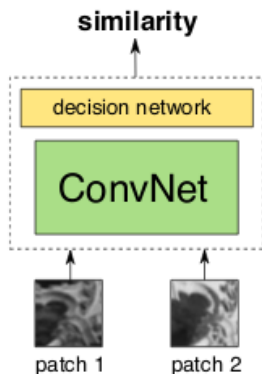
Results shown in⁴¹ that the features from the last layer of a convolutional deep network trained on ImageNet dataset collected for general objects classification can outperform SIFT.



Such features outperform the performance of descriptors resulting from convex optimisation.

⁴¹Fischer, Dosovitskiy, and Brox, “Descriptor Matching with Convolutional Neural Networks: a Comparison to SIFT”.

DeepCompare



$$\min_w \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|_2 + \sum_{i=1}^N \max(0, 1 - y_i o_i^{net}) \quad 42$$

⁴²Zagoruyko and Komodakis, "Learning to Compare Image Patches via Convolutional Neural Networks".

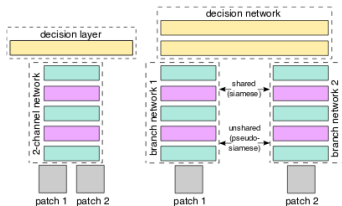


Figure 2. Three basic network architectures: 2-channel on the left, siamese and pseudo-siamese on the right (the difference between siamese and pseudo-siamese is that the latter does not have shared branches). Color code used: cyan = Conv+ReLU, purple = max pooling, yellow = fully connected layer (ReLU exists between fully connected layers as well).

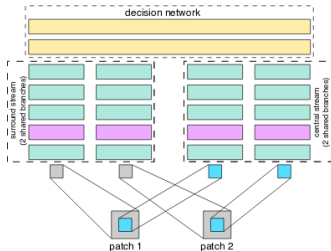
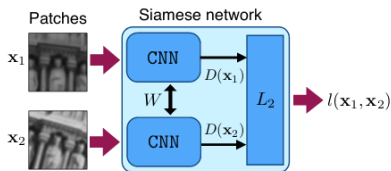
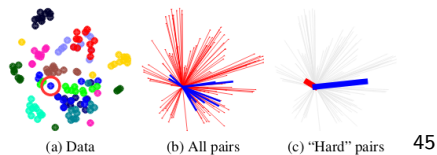


Figure 3. A central-surround two-stream network that uses a siamese-type architecture to process each stream. This results in 4 branches in total that are given as input to the top decision layer (the two branches in each stream are shared in this case).

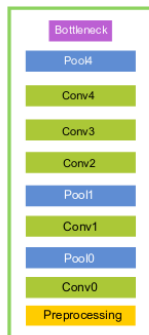


$$l(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \begin{cases} \|D(\mathbf{x}_1) - D(\mathbf{x}_2)\|_2, & p_1 = p_2 \\ \max(0, C - \|D(\mathbf{x}_1) - D(\mathbf{x}_2)\|_2), & p_1 \neq p_2 \end{cases} \quad \mathbf{44}$$



MatchNet

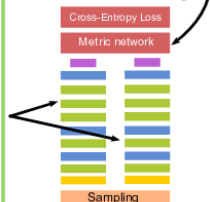
A: Feature network



B: Metric network



C: MatchNet in training

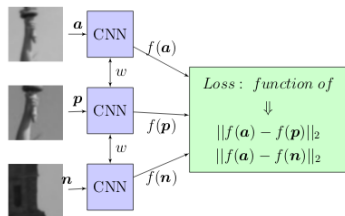


Name	Type	Output Dim.	PS	S
Conv0	C	$64 \times 64 \times 24$	7×7	1
Pool0	MP	$32 \times 32 \times 24$	3×3	2
Conv1	C	$32 \times 32 \times 64$	5×5	1
Pool1	MP	$16 \times 16 \times 64$	3×3	2
Conv2	C	$16 \times 16 \times 96$	3×3	1
Conv3	C	$16 \times 16 \times 96$	3×3	1
Conv4	C	$16 \times 16 \times 64$	3×3	1
Pool4	MP	$8 \times 8 \times 64$	3×3	2
Bottleneck	FC	B	-	-
FC1	FC	F	-	-
FC2	FC	F	-	-
FC3	FC	2	-	-

46

⁴⁶Han et al., "MatchNet: Unifying Feature and Metric Learning for Patch-Based Matching".

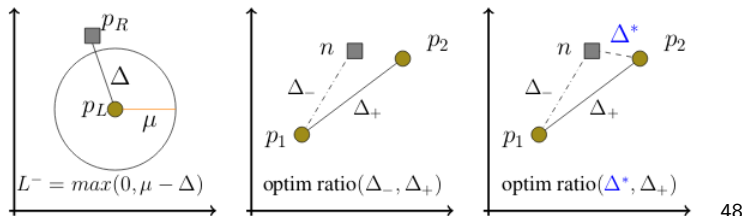
TFeat



$$\sum_{i=1}^N l_{rank}(\delta_+, \delta_-) + \lambda \cdot \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

where

$$l_{rank}(\delta_+, \delta_-) = \max(0, \mu + \delta_+ - \delta_-) \quad 47$$



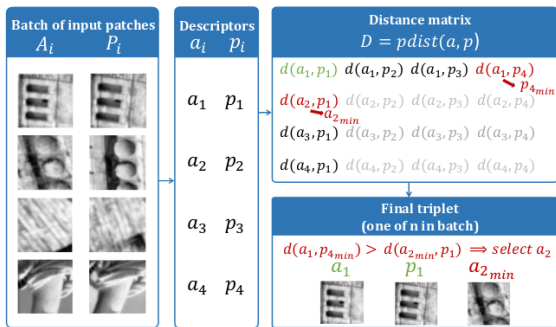
L2-Net



- ▶ Distance matrix loss: $\sqrt{2(1 - Y_1^T Y_2)}$
- ▶ De-corellation loss: $Y_1^T Y_1$

49

HardNet



50

⁵⁰Mishchuk et al., “Working hard to know your neighbor’s margins: Local descriptor learning loss”.

Spread out descriptor

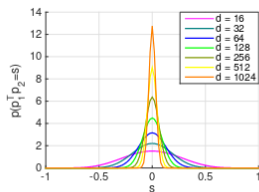
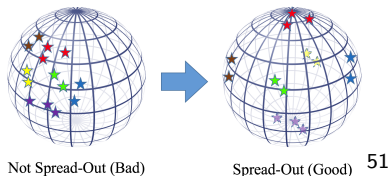


Figure 2. Probability density of inner product of two points which are independently and uniformly sampled from the unit sphere in d -dimensional space. We can see that, in high dimensional space, most pairs are close to orthogonal.



Datasets & Benchmarks

Oxford Matching Benchmark

- ▶ Measures descriptor performance in image matching task
- ▶ NN matching

Blur



1000x700
6 images

Blur



1000x700
6 images

Viewpoint



800x640
6 images

Viewpoint



1000x700
6 images

Zoom+rotation



765x512
6 images

Zoom+rotation



800x640
6 images

Light



921x614
6 images

JPEG compression



800x640
6 images

Oxford Matching Protocol



Two local frames A and B are matched if $\|D_A - D_B\|_2^2 < \tau$

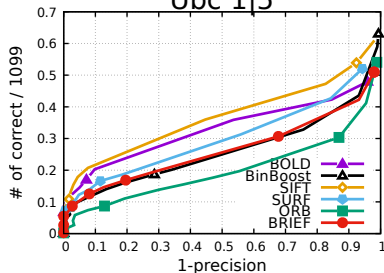
- ▶ $\text{recall} = \frac{\# \text{correct matches}}{\# \text{correspondences}}$
- ▶ $1\text{-precision} = \frac{\# \text{false matches}}{\# \text{correct matches} + \# \text{false matches}}$

Performance curves

$$\|D_A - D_B\|_2^2 < \tau$$

Varying τ leads to performance curves

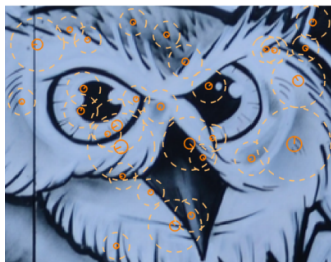
Ubc 1|5



Inconsistency in evaluation results - Oxford Benchmark

LIOP outperforms SIFT	SIFT outperforms LIOP
[Miksik and Mikolajczyk, 2012] [Wang et al., 2011b]	[Tsun-Yi Yang and Chuang, 2016]
BRISK outperforms SIFT	SIFT outperforms BRISK
Leutenegger et al. [2011] Miksik and Mikolajczyk [2012]	[Levi and Hassner, 2016]
ORB outperforms SIFT	SIFT outperforms ORB
Rublee et al. [2011]	Miksik and Mikolajczyk [2012]
BinBoost outperforms SIFT	SIFT outperforms BinBoost
[Levi and Hassner, 2016] [T. Trzcinski and Lepetit, 2013]	[Balntas et al., 2015] [Tsun-Yi Yang and Chuang, 2016]
ORB outperforms BRIEF	BRIEF outperforms ORB
[Rublee et al., 2011]	[Levi and Hassner, 2016]

Inconsistency in evaluation results - Oxford Benchmark



— Detections - - Measurement regions

- ▶ no strict protocol for patch extraction and normalisation
- ▶ no strict protocol for detector configuration
- ▶ no standardised measurement region

Inconsistency in evaluation results - Oxford Benchmark

mAP: mean area under performance curves

descr	1 2	1 3	1 4
SIFT v1_sift	0.47	0.40	0.46
SIFT v1_covdet	0.32	0.14	0.18

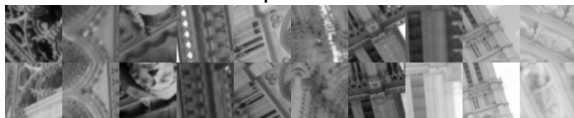
method	paper
v1_sift	ASV [CVPR 2016], DSP-SIFT [CVPR 2015]
v1_covdet	BinBoost [PAMI 2015], BOLD [CVPR 2015]

From images to patches



Phototourism Patch Datasets

Pre-extracted patches arranged in matching and non-matching pairs



Phototourism Patch Datasets - Evaluation



Label

Pos

Pos

Pos

Neg

Neg

Distance

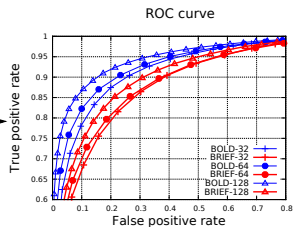
0.3

0.5

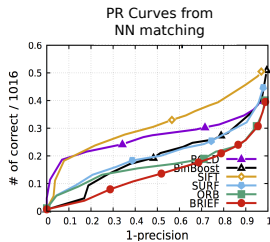
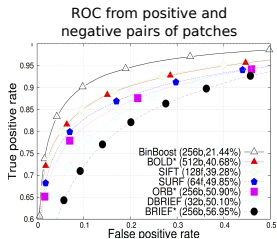
0.8

0.7

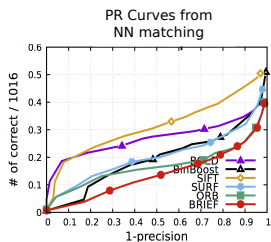
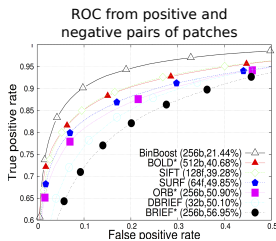
1.7



Phototourism Patch Datasets - Evaluation Issues

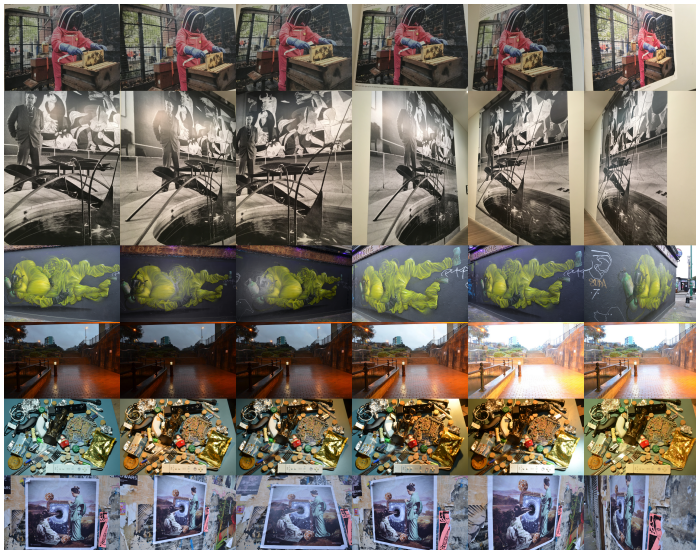


Phototourism Patch Datasets - Evaluation Issues



- ▶ Patch verification (yes/no) different problem than matching (match all with all)
- ▶ No single task should be used for evaluating a method

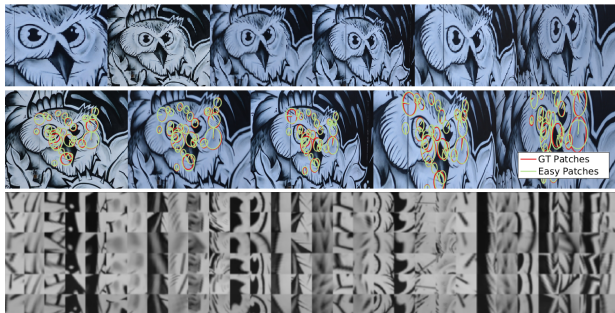
HPatches Dataset



52

⁵²Balntas et al., "HPatches: A Benchmark and Evaluation of Handcrafted and Learned Local Descriptors".

HPatches Dataset



HPatches tasks

Patch Verification

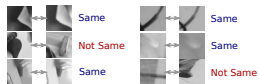
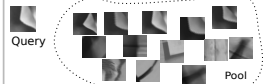


Image Matching



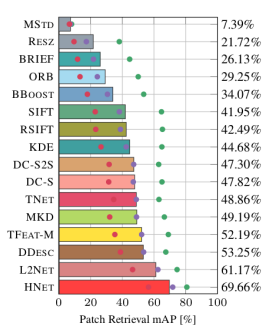
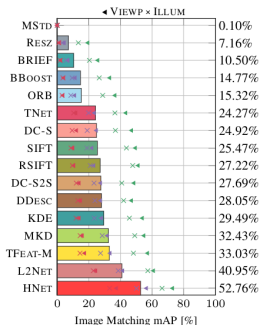
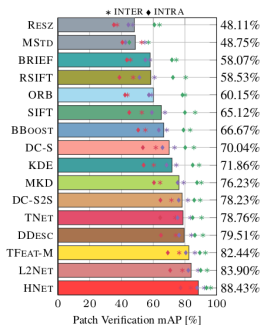
Patch Retrieval



HPatches results

■ EASY ■ HARD ■ TOUGH

Baseline results



SfM Benchmark



Sparse model of central Rome using 21K photos produced by COLMAP's SfM pipeline.



Dense models of several landmarks produced by COLMAP's MVS pipeline.

53

⁵³Schönberger et al., "Comparative Evaluation of Hand-Crafted and Learned Local Features".

SfM Benchmark

		# Images	# Registered	# Sparse Points	# Observations	Track Length	Reproj. Error	# Inlier Pairs	# Inlier Matches	# Dense Points
Fountain	<i>SIFT</i>	11	11	10,004	44K	4.49	0.30px	49	76K	2,970K
	<i>SIFT-PCA</i>		11	14,608	70K	4.80	0.39px	55	124K	3,021K
	<i>DSP-SIFT</i>		11	14,785	71K	4.80	0.41px	54	129K	2,999K
	<i>ConvOpt</i>		11	14,179	67K	4.75	0.37px	55	114K	2,999K
	<i>DeepDesc</i>		11	13,519	61K	4.55	0.35px	55	93K	2,972K
	<i>TFeat</i>		11	13,696	64K	4.68	0.35px	54	103K	2,969K
	<i>LIFT</i>		11	10,172	46K	4.55	0.59px	55	83K	3,019K
Herzjesu	<i>SIFT</i>	8	8	4,916	19K	4.00	0.32px	27	28K	2,373K
	<i>SIFT-PCA</i>		8	7,433	31K	4.19	0.42px	28	47K	2,372K
	<i>DSP-SIFT</i>		8	7,760	32K	4.19	0.45px	28	50K	2,376K
	<i>ConvOpt</i>		8	6,939	28K	4.13	0.40px	28	42K	2,375K
	<i>DeepDesc</i>		8	6,418	25K	3.92	0.38px	28	34K	2,380K
	<i>TFeat</i>		8	6,606	27K	4.09	0.38px	28	38K	2,377K
	<i>LIFT</i>		8	7,834	30K	3.95	0.63px	28	46K	2,375K
South Building	<i>SIFT</i>	128	128	62,780	353K	5.64	0.42px	1K	1,003K	1,972K
	<i>SIFT-PCA</i>		128	107,674	650K	6.04	0.54px	3K	2,019K	1,993K
	<i>DSP-SIFT</i>		128	110,394	664K	6.02	0.57px	3K	2,079K	1,994K
	<i>ConvOpt</i>		128	103,602	617K	5.96	0.51px	4K	1,856K	2,007K
	<i>DeepDesc</i>		128	101,154	558K	5.53	0.48px	6K	1,463K	2,002K
	<i>TFeat</i>		128	94,589	566K	5.99	0.49px	3K	1,567K	1,960K
	<i>LIFT</i>		128	74,607	399K	5.35	0.78px	3K	1,168K	1,975K
Madrid Metropolis	<i>SIFT</i>	1,344	440	62,729	416K	6.64	0.53px	14K	1,740K	435K
	<i>SIFT-PCA</i>		465	119,244	702K	5.89	0.57px	27K	3,597K	537K
	<i>DSP-SIFT</i>		476	107,028	681K	6.36	0.64px	21K	3,155K	570K
	<i>ConvOpt</i>		455	115,134	634K	5.51	0.57px	29K	3,148K	561K
	<i>DeepDesc</i>		377	68,110	348K	5.11	0.53px	19K	1,570K	516K
	<i>TFeat</i>		439	90,274	512K	5.68	0.54px	18K	2,135K	522K
	<i>LIFT</i>		430	52,755	337K	6.40	0.76px	13K	1,498K	450K
Gendarmenmarkt	<i>SIFT</i>	1,463	950	169,900	1,010K	5.95	0.64px	28K	3,292K	1,104K
	<i>SIFT-PCA</i>		953	272,118	1,477K	5.43	0.69px	43K	5,137K	1,240K
	<i>DSP-SIFT</i>		975	321,846	1,732K	5.38	0.74px	56K	7,648K	1,505K
	<i>ConvOpt</i>		945	341,591	1,601K	4.69	0.70px	56K	6,525K	1,342K
	<i>DeepDesc</i>		809	244,925	949K	3.88	0.68px	31K	2,849K	921K
	<i>TFeat</i>		953	297,266	1,445K	4.86	0.66px	39K	4,685K	1,181K
	<i>LIFT</i>		942	180,746	964K	5.34	0.83px	27K	2,495K	1,386K

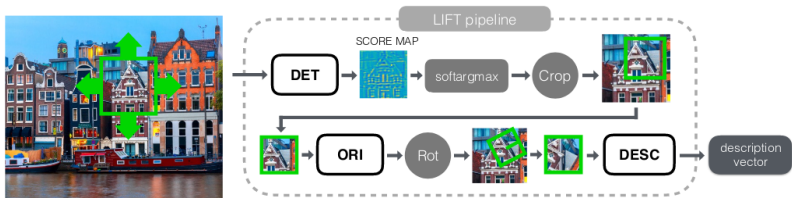
54

⁵⁴Schönberger et al., “Comparative Evaluation of Hand-Crafted and Learned Local Features”.

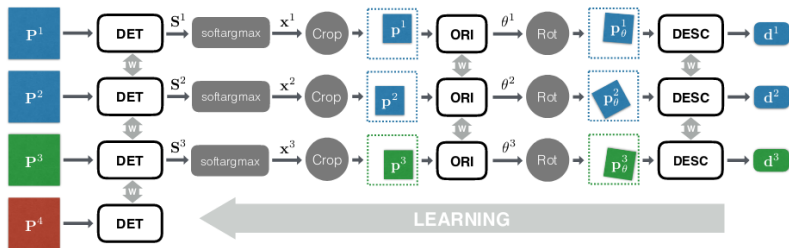
Current trends & future challenges

Matching without local features

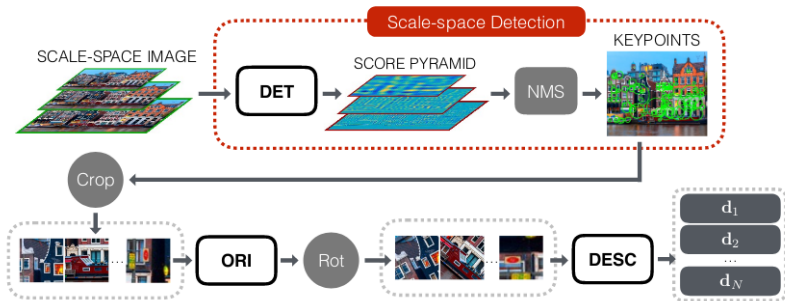
LIFT



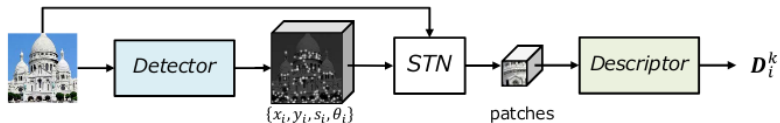
LIFT



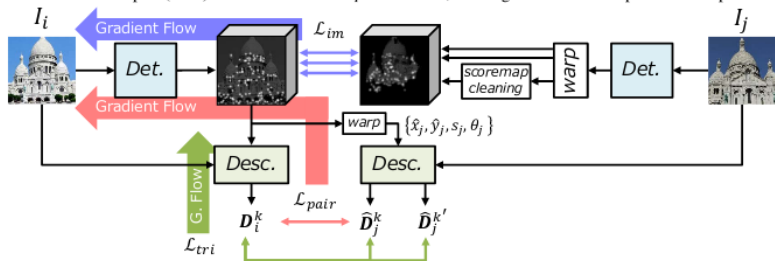
LIFT



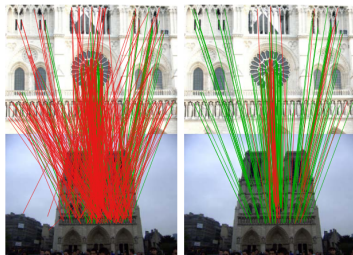
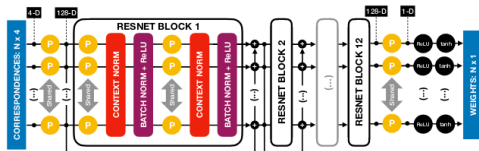
LF-Net



(a) The LF-Net architecture. The *detector* network generates a scale-space score map along with dense orientation estimates, which are used to select the keypoints. Image patches around the chosen keypoints are cropped with a differentiable sampler (STN) and fed to the *descriptor* network, which generates a descriptor for each patch.

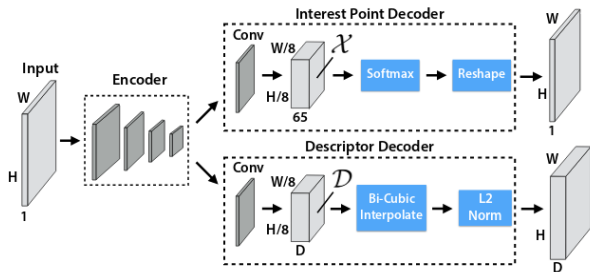


Learning correspondences



57

Superpoint



58

⁵⁸DeTone, Malisiewicz, and Rabinovich, "SuperPoint: Self-Supervised Interest Point Detection and Description".

Implicitly Matched Interest Points (IMIPs)

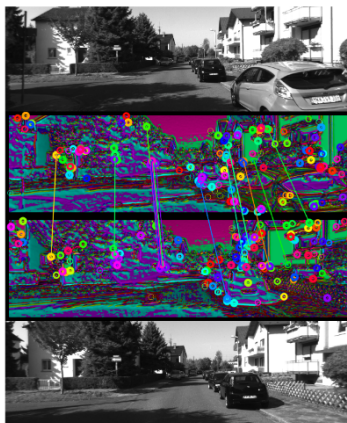
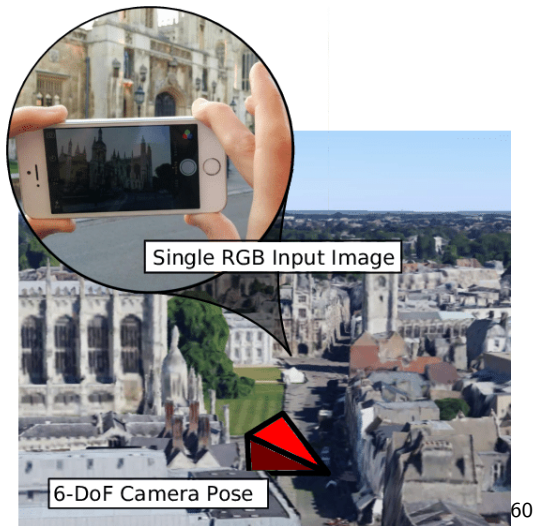


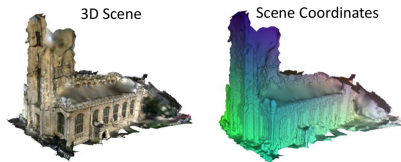
Figure 1. We propose a CNN interest point detector which provides implicitly matched interest points — descriptors are not needed for matching. This image illustrates the output of the final layer, which determines the interest points. Hue indicates which channel has the strongest response for a given pixel, and brightness indicates that response. Circles indicate the 128 interest points, which are the global maxima of each channel, circle thicknesses indicate confidence in a point. Lines indicate inlier matches after P3P localization.

59

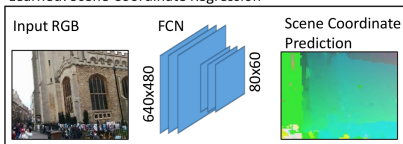


⁶⁰Kendall, Grimes, and Cipolla, “PoseNet: A Convolutional Network for Real-Time 6-DOF Camera Relocalization”.

Local scene coordinates



Learned: Scene Coordinate Regression



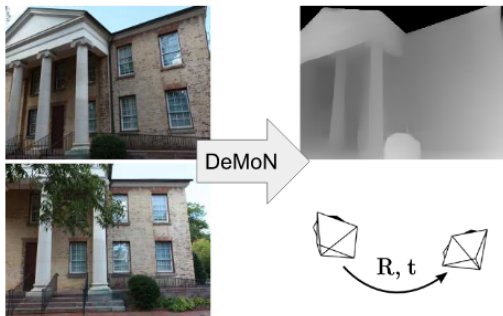
Fixed but Differentiable: Pose Optimization



61

⁶¹Brachmann and Rother, “Learning Less is More - 6D Camera Localization via 3D Surface Regression”.

DeMoN

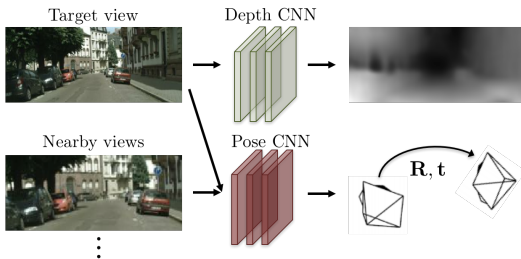


62

Unsupervised learning of camera transformation



(a) Training: unlabeled video clips.



(b) Testing: single-view depth and multi-view pose estimation.⁶³

⁶³Zhou et al., "Unsupervised Learning of Depth and Ego-Motion from Video".

Open questions - Benchmarking

- ▶ Are matching benchmarks representative?
- ▶ How can we correctly evaluate methods by eliminating other nuisance factors?

State-of-the art & future challenges - open questions

- ▶ How can the current matching paradigm be improved?
- ▶ Do we still need local features?
- ▶ Are dense descriptors using FCN needed?
- ▶ Are attention models related to detectors?
- ▶ Is end-to-end learning of every stage the best solution?
- ▶ How to add semantics into the pipeline?

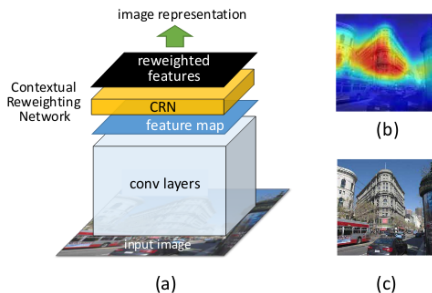
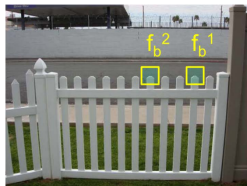
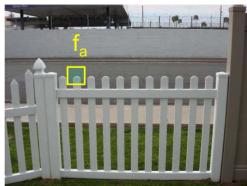


Figure 1. Image representation with contextual feature reweighting. (a) A contextual reweighting network takes convolutional features of a deep CNN as input to produce a spatial weighting mask (b) based on the learned contexts. The mask is used for weighted aggregation of input features to produce the representation of the input image (c).

64



Related CVPR 2019 Workshops

Long-Term Visual Localization under Changing Conditions

T.Sattler, **V. Balntas**, M. Pollefeys, K. Mikolajczyk, J. Sivic, T. Pajdla, L. Hammarstrand, H. Heijnen, F. Kahl, W. Maddern, C. Toft, A. Torii

Includes a Challenge on Local Features

Image Matching: Local Features and Beyond

V. Balntas, E. Trulls, K.M. Yi, J. Shonberger, V. Lepetit

Includes a Challenge on Local Features

The End - Thanks

Please consider taking part in the CVPR 2019 workshop challenges!