

IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF IMAGE FEATURE EXTRACTORS ON THE PERFORMANCE OF SLAM SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT. This work evaluates an impact of image feature extractors on the performance of a visual SLAM method in terms of pose accuracy and computational requirements. In particular, the S-PTAM (Stereo Parallel Tracking and Mapping) method is considered as the visual SLAM framework for which both the feature detector and feature descriptor are parametrized. The evaluation was performed with a standard dataset with ground-truth information and six feature detectors and four descriptors. The presented results indicate that the combination of the GFTT detector and the BRIEF descriptor provides the best trade-off between the localization precision and computational requirements among the evaluated combinations of the detectors and descriptors.

KEYWORDS: Image Features, Visual SLAM, Stereo Vision.

1. INTRODUCTION

During the last decade, the Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) problem has been one of the main research interests in mobile robotics. Particularly, the use of cameras as the main sensors has been given a special attention [1] [2] [3] [4] because of their benefits such as low-cost and passive sensing. In vision-based SLAM approaches, local image features are used to build a map and simultaneously estimate the robot pose using the environment landmarks represented as the image features. In this way, the map is represented as a sparse point cloud, where each point results from triangulating salient points (image features) matched from a pair of stereo images.

Currently, there exist several local image feature extractors in the literature. A feature extractor is a combination of a salient point (called *keypoint*) detection procedure and a computation of a unique signature (called *descriptor*) for each such detected point. The most commonly used detectors are SIFT [5], SURF [6], STAR [7], GFTT [8], FAST [9], and relatively recently proposed ORB [10], while among the most used descriptors we can mention SIFT, SURF, ORB, BRIEF [11], and BRISK [12].

In Visual SLAM systems, the feature extraction process has a huge impact on the accuracy of the whole system. On one hand, the precision of the robot localization is heavily correlated to the sparsity of features in images and the ability to track them for a long period during the robot navigation, even from different points of view. On the other hand, if the number of points in the map grows too quickly, it may slow down the whole system. To be able to keep the response of the system under real-time constraints, images have to be dropped or other parts of the system,

like optimization routines, need lower computational requirements.

In this work, we evaluate the impact of different state-of-the-art feature extractors on the performance of the Visual SLAM localization method. In particular, the evaluation is based on the stereo Visual SLAM approach *S-PTAM* introduced in [4]. The presented results indicated that the combination of the GFTT detector and BRIEF descriptor is the most reliable choice for our SLAM system among the other evaluated combinations.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents overview of the related work while Section 3 summarizes the most used feature detectors and descriptors in the Visual SLAM literature. Section 4 briefly comments the considered stereo Visual SLAM system using for the evaluation. In Section 5, we present the evaluation of the features extractors and the achieved results. Section 6 is dedicated to the conclusions and future work.

2. RELATED WORK

Several evaluations of features extractors can be found in literature. Each of them is driven by the particular application or issue at the hand they aimed to address. For example, in [13], authors evaluate several features extractors in the context of autonomous navigation in outdoor environments under seasonal changes. They came to a conclusion that the best performing method is the STAR–BRIEF combination of the detector–descriptor, which outperforms SIFT by more than thirty percentage points. In addition, they argued that the STAR–BRIEF extractor is also less computationally demanding than other extractors and thus it seems to be the most suitable feature

1 detector–descriptor for navigational purposes.

2 On the other hand, authors of [14] provide a per-
3 formance comparison of feature extractors against
4 illumination changes in outdoor scenes in the context
5 of the visual navigation. They concluded that the con-
6 figuration of the FAST–SURF is the optimal in their
7 setup. Besides, they report that this combination pro-
8 vides an effective computational time per image, which
9 is favorable for the real-time vision-based navigation
10 application.

11 The work [15] compared contemporary point fea-
12 tures detector and descriptor pairs in order to de-
13 termine the best combination for the task of robot
14 visual navigation. They concluded that the FAST-
15 BRIEF combination is a good choice when processing
16 speed is an important parameter of the system setup.
17 They also argued that under camera movement condi-
18 tions, additional computational cost—needed for the
19 descriptors and detectors that are robust to in-plane
20 rotation and large scaling— seems to be unjustified.
21 However, they do not tested the method in a real
22 SLAM application.

23 Regarding the aforementioned evaluation of the
24 detectors and descriptors, the work presented in this
25 paper is within the context of the full 6DOF SLAM.

27 3. LOCAL IMAGE FEATURES

28 An image feature extractor consists of detection and
29 description phases. The feature detector serves to
30 locate salient areas of the image while the feature
31 descriptor captures information about the local neigh-
32 borhood of the detected area. Here, we provide a
33 brief overview of the considered feature extractor and
34 descriptor algorithms in this evaluation study.

35 **SIFT** – Scale Invariant Feature Transform [5]. An
36 established feature detector with a high precision
37 and good robustness, which is known to be compu-
38 tationally demanding.

39 **SURF** – Speeded Up Robust Features [6] is a similar
40 to SIFT, but it is computationally less demanding
41 due to approximations.

42 **STAR** – A modified version of the CenSurE (Center
43 Surrounded Extrema) [7] detector, which is compu-
44 tationally less demanding at the expense of a lower
45 precision.

46 **BRIEF** – Binary Robust Independent Elementary
47 Features [11] is a descriptor that describes image
48 areas using a number of intensity comparisons of
49 random pairs. It is saved as a binary string, which
50 reduces the computational complexity of the subse-
51 quent matching.

52 **FAST** – Features from Accelerated Segment Test
53 [9] is a feature detector focused on lowering the
54 computational cost.

55 **BRISK** – Binary Robust Invariant Scalable Key-
56 points [12] is a scale and rotation invariant version

61 of BRIEF, but unlike BRIEF, it uses a deterministic
62 comparison pattern.

63 **ORB** – Oriented FAST and Rotated BRIEF [10]
64 is another attempt to achieve a scale and rotation
65 invariant BRIEF, as an efficient alternative to SIFT
66 and SURF. It uses the FAST detector to achieve
67 low computational requirements.

68 **GFTT** – A detector focused on selecting features rel-
69 evant to motion tracking by analyzing the amount of
70 information they provide for that particular task [8].
71

72 The SURF and SIFT descriptors rely on the their
73 own detectors, which are also considered in the pre-
74 sented evaluation. However, for the BRIEF and
75 BRISK binary descriptors the considered detectors
76 are the GFTT, FAST and STAR which results in the
77 additional six combinations of the detector–descriptor
78 in the evaluation.

80 4. OVERVIEW OF S-PTAM

81 S-PTAM [4] is a stereo Visual SLAM method for
82 a large scale map navigation based on the known
83 monocular Parallel Tracking and Mapping (PTAM)
84 method introduced in [1]. The method consists of
85 two processes working in parallel: 1) the tracking of
86 the detected features and; 2) creating a map of the
87 features (mapping). During a robot navigation, the
88 method works as follows.

89 S-PTAM extracts features from the incoming stereo
90 images to match and construct a virtual map of the
91 environment. The newly extracted feature descriptors
92 are matched against descriptors of the points stored
93 in the map according to the estimated field of view.
94 The matches may then be used to refine the estimated
95 camera pose using an iterative least squares minimiza-
96 tion method, e.g., using the Levenberg-Marquardt
97 algorithm. The particular stereo matches between
98 the features that cannot be matched to the map are
99 triangulated and inserted as new map points, for the
100 tracking of future frames. In parallel, a map refine-
101 ment algorithm is running. It is also based on the
102 Levenberg-Marquardt optimization that continuously
103 performs the Bundle Adjustment on the current local
104 portion of the map.

105 In [4], S-PTAM uses the GFTT feature detector
106 and the BRIEF descriptor extractor. In this work,
107 we consider other combinations of the detector and
108 descriptor to evaluate an impact of the combination
109 to the performance of the localization and mapping
110 processes.

112 5. EVALUATION

113 The KITTI Vision Benchmark Suite [16] is used to
114 evaluate S-PTAM for each type of considered detector–
115 descriptor configuration. In particular, we present the
116 results obtained for the sequence 00, shown in Fig-
117 ure 1. The sequence records the stereo camera frames
118 captured by a moving car in an urban scenario for
119

almost 4 km long path. The particular parameters of the evaluated feature extractors have been selected in such a way that allows S-PTAM to run without ever losing localization. They have been tuned from a strong restrictive value and then relaxed until the method completes the whole sequence. The parameters are listed in Table 1.

Detector / Descriptor	Parameter	Value
SIFT	nOctaveLayers	1
	L2NormThreshold	100
SURF	hessianThreshold	1000
	nOctaves	1
	L2NormThreshold	0.2
STAR	responseThreshold	20
BRIEF	bytes	32
	hammingThreshold	25
FAST	threshold	60
BRISK	hammingThreshold	100
	nfeatures	2000
ORB	nLevels	1
	hammingThreshold	50
GFTT	nfeatures	2000
	minDistance	15.0

TABLE 1. Parameters used for feature detector and descriptor extractors. The parameters which do not appear in the list use the default value in the OpenCV implementation. In the case of the binary descriptors, the Hamming distance is used to compute the valid matches while the L2 norm is used for the SURF and SIFT descriptors.

The evaluation has been performed using an Intel Core i7 processor with 4 cores running at 2.2 GHz. Although S-PTAM strongly exploits parallelism, the experiments were run in a sequential fashion that allow us to simulate ideal conditions and abstract from the limitations of the available computational power. This ensures that no frames are dropped and that the iterative optimization routines always converge or reach a maximum threshold of iterations.

Nevertheless, the tracking process performs pose optimization using an iterative algorithm; so, the less time is used in the features extraction, the more iterations the method can compute. Figure 2 shows a characterization of the total tracking time for each pair of frames, as achieved by using the evaluated extractors.

Moreover, the iterative least-squares optimization, which is utilized in the mapping and tracking processes, depends linearly on the number of tracked points (the density of the map). Thus, regarding the computational burden, the map should be as small as possible while the map points should contain strong

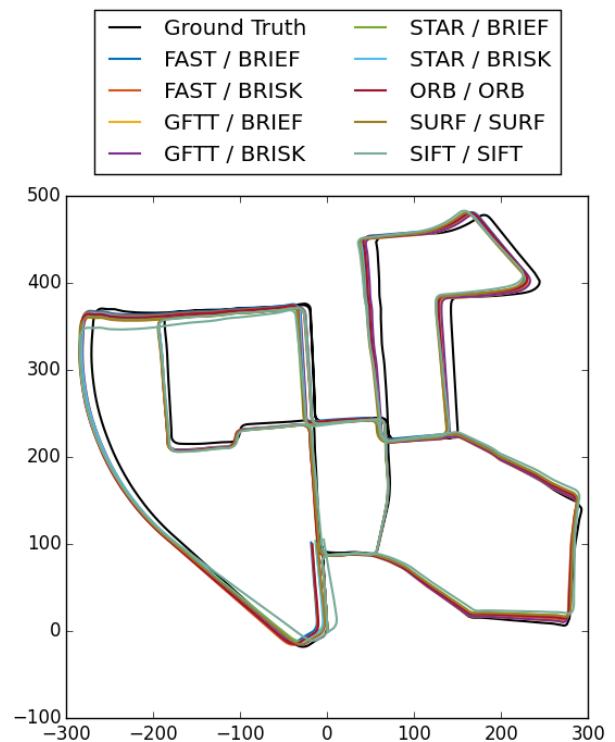


FIGURE 1. Path tracked by every method run under different extractors, against the ground truth. The path is nearly 4 km long. The shown distances at the axes are in meters.

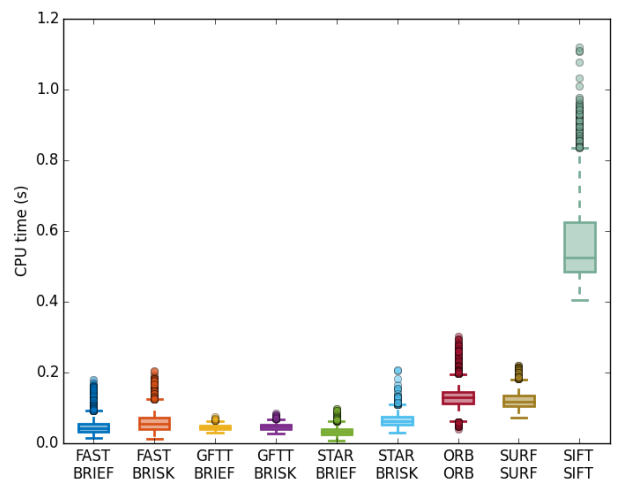


FIGURE 2. Total tracking time achieved by each configuration

enough features to support a robust tracking of the frames. Table 2 shows the final number of points contained in the map after finishing each trial for a particular combination of feature detector and descriptor. In Figure 3, we can see how the map size impacts directly on the temporal performance of the tracking process. Combinations of the detector-descriptor that build the most dense maps also take the longest time to compute.

Differences in the map size for the evaluated descriptor extractors with the same detector can have

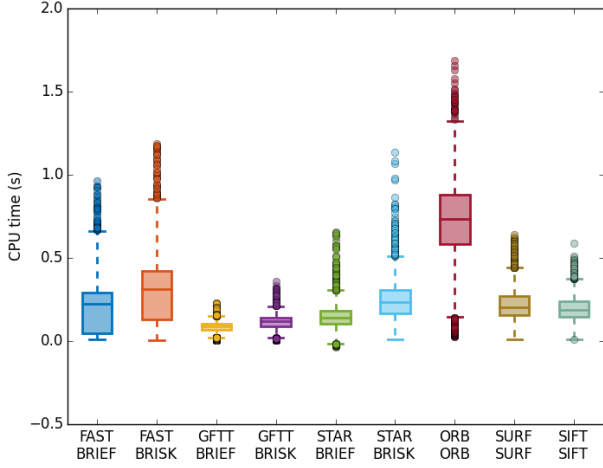


FIGURE 3. Tracking time without taking into account feature extraction

two reasons. The first reason is that new points are created from the stereo features only if these features are not matched to the map. The second reason is that the points marked as outliers during the refinement processes are discarded. In the first case, this can be caused by descriptors that are not robust enough to be matched to the map for a long time. In the second case, the descriptor matching may be too permissive and it allows bad matches that are later discarded as outliers.

Extractor	Final map size
GFTT / BRIEF	990 455
GFTT / BRISK	1 314 356
SIFT / SIFT	1 581 876
STAR / BRIEF	1 893 372
SURF / SURF	2 059 879
FAST / BRIEF	2 420 652
STAR / BRISK	2 447 418
FAST / BRISK	3 207 003
ORB / ORB	5 192 885

TABLE 2. The number of points contained in the map after completing the sequence for each evaluated extractor, in ascending order.

Since the goal of this work is to assess the impact of the feature extractor choice also on the accuracy of the SLAM method, the achieved performance is presented as two independent relative errors for each estimated pose: ϵ_t for the translation error and; ϵ_θ for the orientation. Let \mathbf{x}_k be the estimated pose at the frame k , which can be decomposed as the translation \mathbf{t}_k and the rotation \mathbf{R}_k . Let \mathbf{x}_k^* be the reference pose, which can be decomposed in the same fashion. The

aforementioned errors are computed as

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_{t,k+1} &= \|(\mathbf{t}_k \ominus \mathbf{t}_{k+1}) \ominus (\mathbf{t}_k^* \ominus \mathbf{t}_{k+1}^*)\|, \\ \epsilon_{\theta,k+1} &= \text{angle}((\mathbf{R}_k \ominus \mathbf{R}_{k+1}) \ominus (\mathbf{R}_k^* \ominus \mathbf{R}_{k+1}^*)),\end{aligned}$$

where \ominus is the inverse of the standard motion composition operator. For pure translations, we can rewrite $t_1 \ominus t_2 = t_2 - t_1$, and for the pure rotations as $R_1 \ominus R_2 = R_1^t R_2$. $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ stands for the Euclidean norm and $\text{angle}(\mathbf{R})$ extracts the magnitude of the rotation.

The computed errors are shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5, respectively. Although the angular deviation to the ground truth, shown in Figure 5, seems to be similar in all methods, the same is not true for the translation error, as it can be seen in Figure 4. The BRISK descriptor seems to be a more reliable with the FAST detector, while the same holds for the BRIEF descriptor with the GFTT detector.

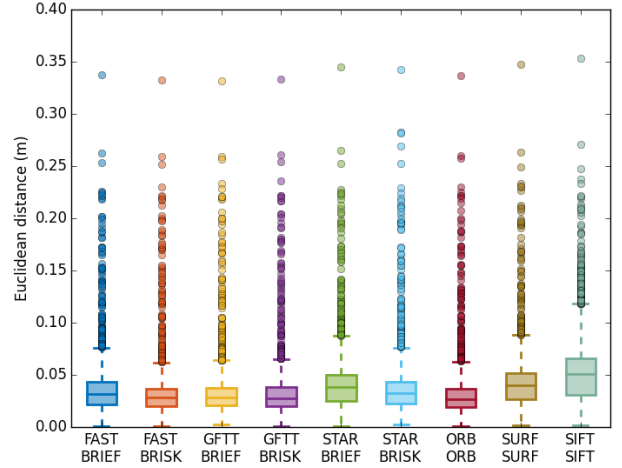


FIGURE 4. Relative translation error

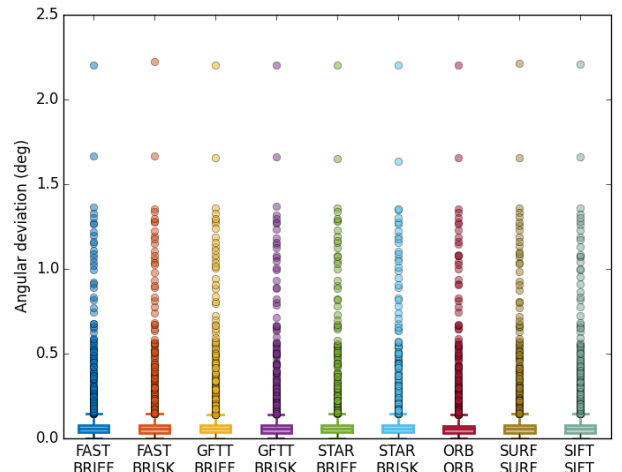


FIGURE 5. Relative orientation error

For completion, the absolute errors

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon'_{t,k} &= \|\mathbf{t}_k \ominus \mathbf{t}_k^*\| \\ \epsilon'_{\theta,k} &= \text{angle}(\mathbf{R}_k \ominus \mathbf{R}_k^*)\end{aligned}$$

are shown in Figure 6 and Figure 7.

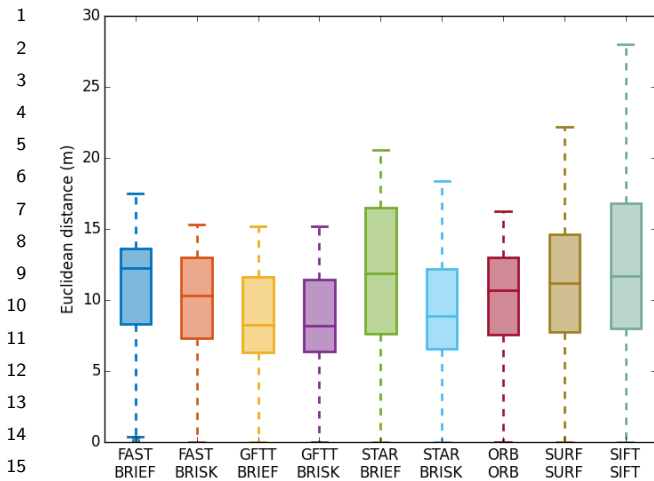


FIGURE 6. Absolute translation error

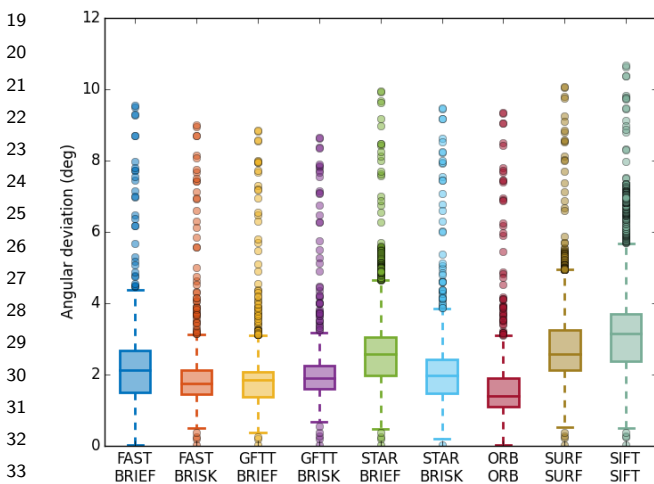


FIGURE 7. Absolute orientation error

6. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we present an evaluation of the impact of different state-of-the-art image feature extractors on the performance of the SLAM method proposed in [4]. The KITTI Benchmark Suite dataset with a ground truth is used to evaluate the achievable precision of the method for different feature extractors. Based on the presented results, the main conclusion is that the GFTT detector is the most suitable choice for the best performance in the evaluated dataset. The GFTT (accompanied with the BRIEF or BRISK descriptors) outperforms the other methods in terms of the required computational time and the map quality. Although the map density is far smaller, the computed translation error is similar, even slightly better, than the one achieved by other extractors. This insight can be interpreted as the most useful features (regarding the navigation) are extracted while the descriptor also support efficient matching resulting in a more precise localization.

Recently, a novel stereo feature extractors have been proposed, e.g., [17], which motivates us to con-

sider them in S-PTAM. An evaluation of the novel extractors is a subject of our future work.

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