BirdSLAM: Monocular Multibody SLAM in Bird’s-Eye View

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Keywords: Monocular SLAM, Multibody Simultaneous Localization and Mapping, Bird’s-Eye View

Abstract: In this paper, we present BirdSLAM, a novel simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) system for the challenging scenario of autonomous driving platforms equipped with only a monocular camera. BirdSLAM tackles challenges faced by other monocular SLAM systems (such as scale ambiguity in monocular reconstruction, dynamic object localization, and uncertainty in feature representation) by using an orthographic (bird’s-eye) view as the configuration space in which localization and mapping are performed. By assuming only the height of the ego-camera above the ground, BirdSLAM leverages single-view metrology cues to accurately localize the ego-vehicle and all other traffic participants in bird’s-eye view. We demonstrate that our system outperforms prior work that uses strictly greater information, and highlight the relevance of each design decision via an ablation analysis.

1 INTRODUCTION

The race to level 5 autonomy is a thrust factor in developing accurate perception modules for driverless vehicles. A majority of such industrially-led solutions rely on a suite of sensors such as Lidar, GPS, IMUs, radars, cameras or different permutations of such sensors. In this paper, we deviate from this paradigm and pose a challenging research question: “How accurately can we estimate the ego motion of a driving platform and the state of the world around it, by using only a single (monocular) camera?” In robotics parlance, this task of estimating the ego-motion of a “robot” and the state of its environment is referred to as simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) (Durrant-Whyte and Bailey, 2006; Bailey and Durrant-Whyte, 2006). A generalization of the SLAM problem—known as multibody SLAM—is of interest to us. While a conventional SLAM system only estimates the robot’s ego-motion and the static scene map by using the stationary features, multibody SLAM additionally estimates every other actor’s motion in the scene - hence a generalized system. This is of paramount importance to autonomous driving platforms, as a precise estimation of the states of other actors immensely boosts the performance of downstream tasks, such as collision avoidance and overtaking maneuver.

In general, multibody SLAM is ill-posed (i.e., does not admit a unique solution family) in monocular camera setup (see Fig. 1). This is because monocular reconstruction (Mur-Artal and Tardos, 2017) inherently suffers from scale factor ambiguity. This makes it near-impossible to recover object trajectories in metric units that can be directly employed in the downstream tasks mentioned earlier. Thus, monocular cameras have so far...
found far fewer applications in autonomous driving stacks. In this work, we move monocular SLAM systems one step closer to downstream modules.

Conventional monocular SLAM systems (Mur-Artal et al., 2015; Mur-Artal and Tardós, 2017) detect and track sparse geometric features across input images and produce a point cloud reconstruction of the scene. These systems are faced with a plethora of issues when deployed in scenes with highly dynamic actors (e.g., traffic): consistent geometric feature matches are hard to obtain across vehicles; the passage of vehicles suddenly obstructs static scene regions with stable features; the (already ambiguous) scale of reconstruction drifts unexpectedly and rapidly. Existing approaches tackle some of these issues by assuming auxiliary inputs such as optical flow (Ranftl et al., 2016) or depth from stereo cameras (Reddy et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018). Others (Costeira and Kanade, 1995; Vidal et al., 2006; Han and Kanade, 2001) pose the problem as that of factorizing multiple motions from a 3D trajectory “soup”. Recent approaches that operate on monocular cameras are unsuitable for real-time applications (Nair et al., 2020; Yang and Scherer, 2019).

In this paper, we propose BirdSLAM: a monocular multibody SLAM system tailored for typical urban driving scenarios. It operates on an orthographic view (the bird’s-eye view), where the impact of the aforementioned “nuisance factors” is low also making the optimizations simpler as there are less parameters to operate upon. Further, estimates in orthographic views can be directly plugged into downstream planners: a desirable quality (Fig. 1). By assuming that all relevant “actions” happen on or close to the ground-plane, and leveraging single-view metrology cues, BirdSLAM enables scale-unambiguous motion estimation of the ego vehicle and other traffic participants.

BirdSLAM leverages static features available from an off the shelf SLAM system (Mur-Artal and Tardós, 2017), dynamic features provided by modern object detectors (Chen et al., 2016; Roddick et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019), and single-view metrology cues (Stem et al., 2003; Song and Chandraker, 2015) to formulate a scale-aware pose-graph optimization problem in bird’s-eye view. This can be solved using off-the-shelf pose-graph optimization toolboxes (Grisetti et al., 2011; Agarwal et al., 2012). We demonstrate that BirdSLAM outperforms existing full 6-DoF SLAM frameworks and provide an ablation analysis to justify our design choices.

In summary, BirdSLAM accurately estimates ego-motion and other vehicle trajectories in bird’s-eye view over long sequences in real-time, mitigating the various nuances of traditional 6-DoF SLAM frameworks for dynamic scenes. Additional qualitative results can be found in our video. We observe that a 3-DoF SLAM results on an SE(2) representation of real road plane scenarios compare well with the traditional 6-DoF SLAM results. This simplifies the optimization parameterization thus contributing positively to reduced runtime as shown in Sec.4.4.5 while not sacrificing on the Absolute Translation Error (ATE).

2 RELATED WORK

Traditional Approaches: The traditional approaches to solving the SLAM problem’s multibody counterpart are based on separating multiple motions (Costeira and Kanade, 1995; Fitzgibbon and Zisserman, 2000; Vidal et al., 2006; Han and Kanade, 2001) pose the problem as that of factorizing multiple motions from a 3D trajectory “soup”. Recent approaches included solving for relative scale for each vehicle in the scene (Schindler and Suter, 2006; Kundu et al., 2011; Namdev et al., 2013). The relative scale reconstruction in most of such approaches is not in metric scale.

Deep Learning based Approaches: Deep learning based methods such as Reddy et al. (Reddy et al., 2016) and Li et al. (Li et al., 2018) leverage the improvement in object detection in deep learning approaches over traditional approaches to improve the multibody SLAM. However, these two methods use stereo cameras, thus not facing the problem of scale ambiguity, which is prevalent in monocular settings.

Recent Approaches: A more recent approach to the multibody SLAM problem in a monocular setting is proposed by Nair et al. (Nair et al., 2020) which relies on batch-based pose-graph optimization in 6 DoF. The optimization framework used in it cannot be applied in a real-time setting. Another recent framework Cubeslam (Yang and Scherer, 2019) uses object representations in 6 DoF to improve ego vehicle trajectories; however, the problem is not cast into a dynamic setting, and dynamic participant’s trajectories are not shown explicitly.
3 BIRDSLAM: MULTIBODY SLAM IN BIRD’s-EYE VIEW

Problem Formulation

Given a sequence of monocular images $I_i, i \in 1 \cdots N$, captured from an urban driving platform, with the camera at height $H$ above the ground, the task of BirdSLAM is to estimate:

1. The ego motion of the vehicle $X_i = (x_i, z_i, \theta_i)$ at each time step, on the ground plane (assumed to be the $XZ$ plane).
2. An estimate of the motion of all other traffic participants $X^t_j = (x^t_j, z^t_j, \theta^t_j), j \in 1 \cdots M_i$, where $M_i$ is the number of traffic participants detected in image $I_i$.
3. A map $M$ of the environment comprising static features on the road plane (such as lane markings etc.).

The overall pipeline of BirdSLAM can be seen in Fig. 2, where the input images are first passed through an ego motion estimation pipeline (such as an off-the-shelf SLAM system). The resulting estimates are scale-compensated by using single-view metrology cues. In parallel, traffic participants and static scene points on the ground plane are mapped to bird’s-eye view by a pseudolidar representation (Wang et al., 2019). This constitutes the frontend of BirdSLAM.

The backend of BirdSLAM comprises a novel multibody pose-graph formulation that employs constraints of several types (CC: camera-camera, CV: camera-vehicle, CP: camera-static map point, VV: vehicle-vehicle) and optimizes the pose-graph in real-time to obtain globally-consistent, scale-unambiguous multibody SLAM estimates. In the following subsections, we explain each of these components in detail.

3.1 BirdSLAM: Frontend

3.1.1 Static Map Initialization

Accurately localizing static features in a scene is critical to the success of a feature-based monocular SLAM system. We use ORB features to obtain reliable candidate “stable” features, and prune all those features that do not lie on the road (The “road” region is found by running a lightweight semantic segmentation network (Rota Bulò et al., 2018) over the input image). Using the known camera height $H$, a road...
point \( x_p^c \) in image space can be back-projected into the camera coordinate frame as follows (\( K \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} \) is the camera intrinsic matrix, and \( \Pi \in \mathbb{R}^3 \) is a unit normal to the ground-plane (\( y = 0 \))).

\[
X^c = \frac{-HK^{-1}x_p^c}{\Pi^T K^{-1}x_p^c} \tag{1}
\]

### 3.1.2 Scale-Unambiguous Ego-Motion Initialization

We use ego-motion estimates from an off-the-shelf SLAM system (Mur-Artal and Tardós, 2017) to bootstrap our system. Typically, such estimates are scale-ambiguous. However, upon performing the static map initialization as described in Eqn. 1, we obtain map points in metric scale (since the camera height \( H \) is known in meters; it resolves scale-factor ambiguity). We use a moving-median filter to scale ego-motion estimates to real-world units (typically meters).

### 3.1.3 Dynamic Object Localization

Dynamic traffic participants are the root cause of several monocular SLAM failures. In BirdSLAM, we explicitly account (and track!) other vehicles in the scene to provide state estimates that can be directly fed to a downstream planning module. In particular, we employ a monocular depth estimation network (Godard et al., 2018) and compute a pseudolidar representation (Wang et al., 2019) using the output depth map. The pseudolidar output is then passed to a Frustum-PointNet (Qi et al., 2018) to localize vehicles in 3D (see Fig. 3). We back project these vehicles localized in 3D to bird’s-eye view using Eqn. 1. We also make use of Eqn. 1 on the bottom-center of 2D detection of vehicles in the camera frame as a second unique source of dynamic object localization.

The above module is used to initialize our pose-graph defined in SE(2) in Sec. 4.1.5. For initializations to our pose-graph in our baselines in SE(3) in Sec. 4.1.4 we make use of the shape-prior based approach (Murthy et al., 2017b; Murthy et al., 2017a) for vehicle localizations in the camera’s coordinate system.

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1Flat-earth assumption: For the scope of this paper, we assume that the roads are somewhat planar, i.e., no steep/graded roads on mountains. Consequently, we take normal vector \( n = [0, -1, 0] \) in camera frame according to KITTI’s (Geiger et al., 2013) conventions where positive x-axis is in right direction, positive y-axis is in downward direction and positive z-axis is in forward direction.
3.3 BirdSLAM Backend: Pose-Graph Optimization

We present a lightweight online pose-graph formulation that incorporates constraints from multiple entities in the scene (egovehicle, other vehicles, static map features). Each of these constraints contributes a cost-function to the optimization process, which we explain below.

3.3.1 Cost Function

Following g2o terminologies, the estimate $T_S^W \in \mathbb{L}$ characterizes pose for node $S$ in global frame $W$. Here, $\mathbb{L}$ represents the Lie Group in which the respective transformations are defined which could be $SE(2)$ or $SE(3)$. The measurement $T_D^S \in \mathbb{L}$ denotes a binary-edge from source node $S$ to destination node $D$ effectively constraining the respective estimates. This can be represented mathematically as the following transform:

$$T_{SD} = (T_D^S)^{-1}(T_S^W)^{-1}(T_D^W)$$

We also use unary-edges between agent node and stationary scene-landmarks $p$ located at $X_p^W \in \mathbb{R}^3$ in the global frame $W$. Here, the agent $A$ could be egocamera or the dynamic object in scene. This does not constrain the orientation of the agent. The resultant transform between a agent node $A$ with translation vector $t_A^W \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and a world landmark $p$ in global frame can be shown as:

$$\Psi_A = t_A^W - X_p^W$$

(3)

Our formulation also includes a positive semidefinite inverse covariance matrix or an information matrix in each edge’s parameterization, shown as $\Omega_E \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ where $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ is the number of degrees of freedom the specific edge $E$ affects. We exploit this to convey confidence of each constraint. We do so by scaling $\Omega_E$ upto the effective information matrix $\Omega_E$ by a factor $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ as:

$$\Omega = \lambda \Omega_E$$

(4)

From the transforms in Eqn. 2 and Eqn. 3 we obtain $e^p \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times N}$ by extracting the translation vector directly, and the yaw angle(for $SE(2)$) or the axis-angle rotations(for $SE(3)$). Given the information matrix $\Omega^e \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, we obtain the final cost function for either a unary or a binary-edge as:

$$F^e = (e^p)(\Omega)(e^p)^T$$

(5)

3.3.2 Constraints

- Exploiting dynamic cues from vehicles in the scene: We categorize our pose-graph into three sets of relationships denoting camera motion, vehicle motion and camera-vehicle constraints. Each of these is obtained as a camera-camera, vehicle-vehicle and camera-vehicle edge respectively in consecutive time instants $t - 1$ and $t$. We obtain the final constraint for an $m$ vehicle scenario as:

$$F_D = F_{C(t-1), C(t)} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} F_{C(t-1), V(t)} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} F_{C(t), V(t)}$$

(6)

- Exploiting static cues using landmarks in the environment: We also make use of static-cues from the environment to improve agent motion by constraining with respect to the lane. We obtain a dense point-cloud $P_l$ for the road plane segregated for each lane based on Sec. 3.2. We define a unary-edge between an agent $A$(Ego-camera or vehicle in scene) and each point $p$ on the lane as shown by Eqn. 5

$$F_S = \sum_{p} F_{A,p}(p \in P_l)$$

(7)

Collectively, the final cost is obtained as the sum of the above Eqn. 6 and Eqn. 7.
\[ \mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_D + \mathcal{F}_S \] (8)

The scale of the information matrix in Eqn. 4 is such that higher the scaling(\(\lambda\)), more effective the corresponding cost’s observation is going to be. Thus, edges with relatively more reliable observation are given higher weights while those that bring in higher degrees of error are weighed lower. Thus, \(CC\) and \(CP\) constraints have the highest weight of 10000 while \(VV\) constraints have the lowest of 1. The weight initialization provided to \(CV\) constraint ranges between 1000 and 10. The applied weight is gauged according to the depth of the vehicle from the camera. While pseudolidar (Wang et al., 2019) from Sec. 3.1.3 dominates at lower depths, Eqn. 1 to 2D vehicle detection bottom-center has an upper hand for far away objects.

4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

4.0.1 Dataset

We perform experiments over several long KITTI-Tracking sequences (Geiger et al., 2013). We get ground truth localization to vehicles from the labels available with the dataset and the ground truth ego-motion from the GPS/IMU data given with the dataset.

4.0.2 Error Evaluation

We compute Absolute Translation Error(ATE) as the root-mean-square of error samples for each vehicle’s individual frames, including the ego-vehicle in an SE(2) world. Even though the approaches evaluated in Table 1 and Table 2 perform SLAM in SE(3), we project their estimated trajectories onto the ground-plane and compute their error in SE(2) setting for a fair comparison with the results of Sec. 4.1.5.

4.1 Approaches Evaluated

4.1.1 Nair et al. (Nair et al., 2020):

A monocular multibody approach in SE(3) with a batch-wise pose-graph optimization formulation that resolves relationships with dynamic objects as a means of performing SLAM.

4.1.2 CubeSLAM (Yang and Scherer, 2019):

A monocular approach that unifies 3D object detections and and multi-view object SLAM pipelines in a way that benefits each other.

4.1.3 Namdev et al. (Namdev et al., 2013):

A monocular multibody VSLAM approach that obtains motion for dynamic objects and ego-camera in a unified scale. The non tractable relative scale that exists between the moving object and camera trajectories is resolved by imposing the restriction that the object motion is locally linear.

4.1.4 Batch Optimized Baseline in SE(3) with Scale-ambiguous ORB Odometry:

A monocular multibody approach in SE(3) similar to Nair et al. (Nair et al., 2020) but the camera nodes are fed with scale-ambiguous ORB (Mur-Artal and Tardós, 2017) initialization. We show that the optimizer itself is able to pull scale-ambiguous odometry to metric scale without relying on any prior scale correction like Sec. 3.1.2. We incorporate stationary landmarks into this pipeline in the form of a dense lane point cloud for each lane obtained from Sec. 3.2 applied in a batch version to correct for the lateral drift contributed to by the relatively erroneous ego-motion initialization.

4.1.5 Incremental Approach in SE(2) with Scale-Initialized Odometry:

A variant of the multibody monocular pose-graph based optimization pipeline defined in an SE(2) world. This approach optimizes for multiple objects in each frame in an incremental manner. There is a feedback of “optimization results” back as the input to the optimizer in the next iteration in this approach. The parameterization of the pose-graph optimizer reduces quite considerably in this approach when compared with Sec. 4.1.4 as we now function on a world governed by 3 degrees of freedom as opposed to 6.

4.2 Qualitative Results

We obtain accurate localizations to vehicles in the camera’s view using Sec. 4.1.5. The results have been illustrated as tight and accurate 3D bounding boxes obtained to the vehicles in Fig. 7. Fig. 5 illustrates the trajectories obtained after pose-graph optimization led to accurate bird’s-eye view mappings of the ego car and the dynamic vehicles localized in the scene in a stationary world frame. Despite having to cope with a high error contributed to by the motion model predictor from Sec. 3.1.2, we obtain close to ground truth bird’s-eye view mapping post-optimization.
Figure 5: Qualitative Results: Visualizations of ego (black colored camera) trajectories and car object trajectories (red and blue color) for some of the KITTI sequences, shown along with surrounding lidar points in metric scale. Some of the results were obtained on very challenging sequences like curved trajectories, occluded detections etc. One such snapshot for a time instance is shown on the right for sequence 20 which had big turns in its path and some of the tracked cars were far away and occluded.

Table 1: Absolute Translation Error (in meters) for localised vehicles in scene in bird’s-eye view map, computed as root-mean-square error across the 2D axes.

| Seq No. | Car ID | Nair et al. [Nair et al., 2020] | Namdev et al. [Namdev et al., 2013] | Ours Sec. 4.1.4 | CubeSLAM [Yang and Scherer, 2019] | Ours Sec. 4.1.5 |
|---------|--------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|----------------------------------|----------------|
| 2       | 1      | 5.01 (1.61) 4.99 2.14 21.64 3.99 1.29 3.45 2.4 | 6.35 (13.81) 11.58 11.18 4.09 10.08 3.77 5.93 3.72 25.19 23.76 | 6.02 (2.20) 2.24 1.77 1.76 3.99 1.21 2.86 1.23 | 2.09 (2.37) 2.05 2.34 1.98 3.03 1.0 2.76 1.6 | 2.16 (8.61) 10.12 |

Table 2: Absolute Translation Error (in meters) for ego motion in bird’s-eye view map, computed as root-mean-square error across the 2D axes.

| Seq No. | No. of Frames | Nair et al. [Nair et al., 2020] | Namdev et al. [Namdev et al., 2013] | Ours Sec. 4.1.4 | CubeSLAM [Yang and Scherer, 2019] | Ours Sec. 4.1.5 |
|---------|---------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|----------------------------------|----------------|
| 2       | 67            | 2.30 (1.96) 6.49 1.60 10.05 2.40 | 6.24 (11.49) 11.12 4.08 10.05 3.96 | 2.05 (1.96) 1.89 2.22 3.16 2.36 | 2.25 (1.78) 6.60 | 1.58 2.99 1.60 | 2.16 (8.61) 10.12 |

4.3 Quantitative Results

Table 2 and Table 1 presents the quantitative performance on a comparative footing for the ego car and the vehicles localized in the camera’s scene respectively. Our batch-version with scale-ambiguous odometry initialization showcases a much superior performance compared with other batch-version, such as Namdev et al. [Namdev et al., 2013] and Nair et al. [Nair et al., 2020]. Our batch-approach beats them.
for all but one vehicle shown in Table. On the incremental version’s front, we compare our bird’s-eye view approach with the corresponding baseline defined in SE(3) as well as CubeSLAM (Yang and Scherer, 2019), whose errors are computed accordingly after running the codebase released by the respective authors on the particular sequence for which the input data and the tuned parameters (for that sequence) were made available. While the performance is comparable between the SE(3) as well as the bird’s-eye view approach, we put ahead a much superior performance with respect to CubeSLAM (Yang and Scherer, 2019). This supports the statement that a bird’s-eye view SLAM approach can potentially perform as well as its SE(3) counterpart.

4.4 Ablation Studies on Real-Time Approaches

4.4.1 Contribution by Individual Constraints

We analyze each constraint’s contribution as summarized in Sec. 3.3.2 by computing the final error after allotting zero weight to individual constraints, effectively removing its influence on the optimization. The observations are presented in Table 3. Since the CC constraints are given high weight, as explained in Sec. 3.3.2, the removal of this constraint results in the deterioration of performance for ego-motion. It can also be seen that, through the CP constraints, the stationary points help enhance ego-motion in most cases. The CV edge that primarily utilizes the pseudodril (Wang et al., 2019) based localization ensures that the relation between the ego-motion and all the vehicles in its scene remains synchronized.

4.4.2 Weight Allotted to Landmark Based Constraints

While it has been established from Sec. 4.4.1 that static landmarks help improve the absolute translation error of the trajectory, we analyze as to how much emphasis must be given to the CP constraint in terms of the weight. We experiment with various levels of weights fed to the CP constraint in relation with that of the CC edge in the formulation. Table 4 summarizes our observations. While medium weight, which is equal to that of CC constraints, beats other modes by a huge margin in a few instances, it competes closely in all the other instances. On the whole, the performance put forth with medium weight to CP constraints is superior to the other modes.

4.4.3 Threshold for Landmarks

Since point correspondences and the depth estimations to the same may be more reliable for features closer to the camera, we place a threshold along Z-axis of the camera to shortlist landmarks to be considered in CP constraints as mentioned in Sec. 3.3.2. Our experiments with various thresholds have been reported in Table 4. We find that a threshold $T = 20m$ contributes optimally to the pose-graph optimization step.

4.4.4 Impact of Lane Constraints

We show ablation studies on lane-based constraining of trajectories in our batch-based pose-graph formulation from Sec. 4.1.4. These are performed on unscaled-ORB initializations. We show that lane-constraints contribute by with substantial improvement in ATE for almost all vehicles which are experimented with, when compared with the corresponding ATE before applying lane-based constraints. We summarize our observations in Table 5.

4.4.5 Runtime Analysis

The incremental optimizer in Sec 4.1.5 takes 0.016s to solve the pose-graph optimization problem for a 414 frame long sequence as compared to 1.9s for batch-based approach in Sec 4.1.4. Fig. 6 shows how a single and multi-object scenario fare in terms of runtime for each incoming instance. Pose-graph optimizations (sec 3.3) are performed on a quadcore Intel i7-5500U CPU with 2.40 GHz processor. The frontend involves gathering predictions from multiple neural networks (Godard et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2018) and runs at around 33 Hz frequency.

Figure 6: Plot illustrating how number of objects in scene do not affect the time-elapsed in our optimization formulation from Sec. 3.3
Table 3: Analysis over the contribution of each type of constraint to the final cost.

| Seq No. | Car ID | Without CC | Without CV | Without VV | Without CP | With all |
|---------|--------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|
| 2       | 1      | 3.41       | 1.96       | 1.86       | 1.85       | 2.09     |
|         | Ego    | 2.95       | 2.25       | 2.25       | 2.15       | 2.25     |
| 3       | 1      | 2.74       | 2.05       | 2.23       | 2.12       | 2.05     |
|         | Ego    | 2.73       | 1.78       | 1.78       | 1.96       | 1.78     |
| 4       | 2      | 4.52       | 2.45       | 2.26       | 2.58       | 2.34     |
|         | Ego    | 4.82       | 6.60       | 6.00       | 6.42       | 6.00     |
| 5       | 3      | 3.43       | 2.01       | 1.98       | 1.98       | 1.98     |
|         | Ego    | 3.05       | 1.38       | 1.38       | 1.87       | 1.38     |
| 10      | 2      | 17.72      | 2.81       | 2.99       | 2.98       | 3.03     |
|         | Ego    | 15.43      | 2.99       | 3.52       | 3.00       | 2.99     |

Table 4: Performance of the optimiser as a function of weight given to the landmark based constraints relative to the same for ego motion [rows 1 - 3]. Performance of the optimiser with respect to the threshold set for the static feature landmarks on their depth from the camera [rows 4 - 8].

| Seq No. | Car ID | Absolute Translation Error (RMS) in Global Frame (meters) |
|---------|--------|---------------------------------------------------------|
|         |        | Weight to CP | Depth Threshold T (m) |
|         |        | Low | Medium | High | 12 | 15 | 18 | 20 | 25 |
| 2       | 1      | 2.14 | 2.09 | 3.15 | 2.27 | 2.40 | 2.04 | 2.09 | 2.00 |
|         | 0      | 2.46 | 2.37 | 2.35 | 2.31 | 2.37 | 2.30 | 2.34 | 2.32 |
| 3       | 1      | 2.12 | 2.05 | 2.76 | 2.05 | 2.10 | 2.14 | 2.05 | 2.07 |
|         | 0      | 1.95 | 1.78 | 2.76 | 1.80 | 1.82 | 1.80 | 1.78 | 1.87 |
| 4       | 2      | 2.17 | 2.04 | 3.00 | 2.54 | 2.34 | 2.36 | 2.34 | 2.25 |
|         | 0      | 2.17 | 2.30 | 2.60 | 2.30 | 2.60 | 2.30 | 2.30 | 2.30 |
| 5       | 3      | 1.94 | 1.98 | 2.05 | 1.98 | 1.98 | 1.98 | 1.98 | 1.90 |
|         | 0      | 1.60 | 1.58 | 1.60 | 1.58 | 1.58 | 1.58 | 1.58 | 1.58 |
| 10      | 4      | 2.99 | 3.03 | 3.39 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.03 | 3.15 |
|         | 0      | 2.96 | 2.99 | 3.17 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 2.99 | 3.07 |
| 18      | 1      | 1.50 | 1.60 | 1.28 | 1.39 | 1.59 | 1.05 | 1.00 | 1.08 |
|         | 0      | 2.96 | 4.76 | 2.75 | 2.91 | 2.87 | 2.85 | 2.76 | 2.85 |
| 20      | 2      | 1.74 | 1.60 | 1.80 | 1.74 | 1.66 | 1.64 | 1.60 | 1.60 |
|         | 0      | 2.24 | 2.21 | 2.15 | 2.45 | 2.26 | 2.25 | 2.21 | 2.25 |
|         | Ego    | 8.79 | 8.61 | 9.38 | 8.72 | 8.74 | 8.68 | 8.61 | 8.64 |
|         | Ego    | 8.90 | 8.86 | 9.63 | 8.88 | 8.90 | 8.84 | 8.86 | 8.85 |

Table 5: Impact of lane-based constraints on batch-based approach from Sec. 4.1.4.

| Seq No. | Car ID | Absolute Translation Error (RMS) in Global Frame (meters) |
|---------|--------|---------------------------------------------------------|
|         | 3      | 4 | 18 | Avg Error |
| Frame length | 3.83 | 1.23 | 1.49 | 1.49 | 1.62 | 1.03 | 1.41 | 1.41 |
| Before Lane-Constraints | 2.91 | 2.61 | 2.26 | 2.15 | 4.82 | 1.32 | 3.22 | 1.19 | 2.53 | 2.56 |
| After Lane-Constraints | 2.20 | 2.24 | 1.96 | 1.77 | 1.89 | 1.21 | 2.86 | 1.23 | 2.36 | 1.97 |
5 CONCLUSION

Multibody SLAM in a moving monocular setup is a difficult problem to solve given its ill-posedness. In this paper, we operate in an orthographic (bird’s-eye view) space to overcome the challenges posed by dynamic scenes to the conventional monocular SLAM systems. Moreover, BirdSLAM operates in real-time in bird’s-eye view space performing better than current real-time state-of-the-art multibody SLAM systems operating in 6 DoF setup. It also performs at par with current offline multibody SLAM systems operating under strictly more resources (time, computation, features). To the best of our knowledge, BirdSLAM is the first of the first such system to demonstrate a solution to the multibody monocular SLAM problem in orthographic space. An interesting future direction could be to consider cases in which the single-view metrology cues do not hold, such as on extremely graded/stEEP roads.

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