Visual Odometry: Part II - Matching, Robustness, and Applications

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Abstract: Part II of the tutorial has summarized the remaining building blocks of the VO pipeline: specifically, how to detect and match salient and repeatable features across frames and robust estimation in the presence of outliers and bundle adjustment. In addition, error propagation, applications, and links to publicly available code are included. VO is a well understood and established part of robotics. VO has reached a maturity that has allowed us to successfully use it for certain classes of applications: space, ground, aerial, and underwater. In the presence of loop closures, VO can be used as a building block for a complete SLAM algorithm to reduce motion drift. Challenges that still remain are to develop and demonstrate large-scale and long-term implementations, such as driving autonomous cars for hundreds of miles. Such systems have recently been demonstrated using Lidar and Radar sensors [86]. However, for VO to be used in such systems, technical issues regarding robustness and, especially, long-term stability have to be resolved. Eventually, VO has the potential to replace Lidar-based systems for egomotion estimation, which are currently leading the state of the art in accuracy, robustness, and reliability. VO offers a cheaper and mechanically easier-to-manufacture solution for egomotion estimation, while, additionally, being fully passive. Furthermore, the ongoing miniaturization of digital cameras offers the possibility to develop smaller and smaller robotic systems capable of ego-motion estimation.

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Visual Odometry: Part II Matching, Robustness, Optimization, and Applications

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***Abstract*—This tutorial provides an introduction to visual odometry and the research that has been undertaken from 1980 to 2011. Visual odometry is the process of estimating the egomotion of an agent using only the input of a single or multiple cameras attached to it. Application domains include robotics, wearable computing, augmented reality, and automotive. While the first two decades witnessed many off-line implementations, only in the third decade have real-time working systems flourished such that for the first time visual odometry has been used on another planet by two Mars-exploration rovers. This tutorial is the second of two parts. The first part presented a historical review of the first thirty years of research in this field and its fundamentals. The second part deals with feature matching, robustness, and applications. Both tutorials provide both the experienced and non-expert user with guidelines and references to algorithms to build a complete visual odometry system. It is discussed that an ideal and unique visual-odometry solution for every possible working environment does not exist. The optimal solution should be chosen carefully according to the specific navigation environment and the given computational resources.**

I. Introduction

Visual Odometry (VO) is the process of estimating the egomotion of an agent (e.g., vehicle, human, robot, etc.) using only the input of a single or multiple cameras attached to it. Application domains include robotics, wearable computing, augmented reality, and automotive. The term VO was coined in 2004 by Nister in his landmark paper [1]. The term was chosen for its similarity to wheel odometry, which incrementally estimates the motion of a vehicle by integrating the number of turns of its wheels over time. Likewise, VO operates by incrementally estimating the pose of the vehicle through examination of the changes that movement induces on the images of its onboard cameras. For VO to work effectively, there should be sufficient illumination in the environment and a static scene with sufficient texture to allow apparent motion to be extracted. Furthermore, consecutive frames should be captured by ensuring that they have sufficient scene overlap.

The advantage of VO with respect to wheel odometry is that VO is not affected by wheel slip in uneven terrain or other adverse conditions. It has been demonstrated that compared to wheel odometry, VO provides more accurate trajectory estimates, with relative position error ranging from 0.1% to 2%. This capability makes VO an interesting supplement to wheel odometry and, additionally, to other navigation systems such as global positioning system (GPS), inertial measurement units (IMUs), and laser odometry (similar to VO, laser odometry estimates the egomotion of a vehicle by scan-matching of consecutive laser scans). In GPS-denied environments, such as underwater and aerial, VO has utmost importance.

This two-part tutorial and survey provides a broad introduction to VO and the research that has been undertaken from 1980 to 2011. Although the first two decades witnessed many offline implementations, only in the third decade did real-time working systems flourish, which has led VO to be used on another planet by two Mars-exploration rovers for the first time. Part I presented a historical review of the first 30 years of research in this field, a discussion on camera modeling and calibration, and a description of the main motion-estimation pipelines for both monocular and binocular scheme, outlining pros and cons of each implementation. Part II (this tutorial) deals with feature matching, robustness, and applications. It reviews the main point-feature detectors used in VO and the different outlier-rejection schemes. Particular emphasis is given to the random sample consensus (RANSAC) and the strategies devised to speed it up are discussed. Other topics covered are error modeling, loop-closure detection (or location recognition), and bundle adjustment. Links to online, ready-to-use code are also given.

The mathematical notation and concepts used in this article are defined in Part I of this tutorial and, therefore, are not repeated here.

II. Feature Selection and Matching

There are two main approaches to finding feature points and their correspondences. The first one is to find features in one image and track them in the next images using local search techniques, such as correlation. The second one is to detect features independently in all the images and match them based on some similarity metric between their *descriptors*. The former approach is more suitable when the images are taken from nearby viewpoints, whereas the latter is more suitable when a large motion or viewpoint change is expected. Early research in VO opted for the former approach [2]–[5], while the works in the last decade concentrated on the latter approach [1], [6]–[9]. The reason is that early works were conceived for small-scale environments, where images were taken from nearby viewpoints, while in the last decade the focus has

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shifted to large-scale environments, and so the images are taken as far apart as possible from each in order to limit the motion-drift-related issues.

A. Feature Detection

During the feature-detection step, the image is searched for salient keypoints that are likely to match well in other images.

A local feature is an image pattern that differs from its immediate neighborhood in terms of intensity, color, and texture. For VO, point detectors, such as corners or blobs, are important because their position in the image can be measured accurately.

A corner is defined as a point at the intersection of two or more edges. A blob is an image pattern that differs from its immediate neighborhood in terms of intensity, color, and texture. It is not an edge, nor a corner.

The *appealing* properties that a good feature detector should have are: localization accuracy (both in position and scale), repeatability (i.e., a large number of features should be re-detected in the next images), computational efficiency, robustness (to noise, compression artifacts, blur), distinctiveness (so that features can be matched accurately across different images), and invariance (to both photometric changes [e.g., illumination] and geometric changes [rotation, scale (zoom), perspective distortion]).

The VO literature is characterized by many point-feature detectors, such as corner detectors (e.g., Moravec [2], Forstner [10], Harris [11], Shi-Tomasi [12], and FAST [13]) and blob detectors (SIFT [14], SURF [15], and CENSUR [16]). An overview of these detectors can be found in [17]. Each detector has its own pros and cons. Corner detectors are fast to compute but are less distinctive, whereas blob detectors are more distinctive but slower to detect. Additionally, corners are better localized in image position than blobs, but are less localized in scale. This means that corners cannot be redetected as often as blobs after large changes in scale and viewpoint. However, blobs are not always the right choice in some environments—for instance SIFT neglects automatically corners, which urban environments are extremely rich of. For these reasons, the choice of the appropriate feature detector should be considered carefully, depending on the computational constraints, real-time requirements, environment type, and motion baseline (i.e., how nearby images are taken). An approximate comparison of properties and performance of different corner and blob detectors is given in Figure 1. A performance evaluation of feature detectors and descriptors for indoor VO has been given in [18] and for outdoor environments in [9], [19].

Every feature detector consists of two stages. The first is to apply a *feature-response function* on the entire image (such as the corner response function in the Harris detector or the difference-of-Gaussian operator of the SIFT). The second step is to apply *non-maxima suppression* on the output of the first step. The goal is to identify all local minima (or maxima) of the feature-response function. The output of the non-maxima suppression represents detected features. The trick to make a detector invariant to scale changes consists in applying the detector at lower-scale and upper-scale versions of the same image (Figure 2(top)). Invariance to perspective changes is instead attained by approximating the perspective distortion as an affine one.

	Corner detector	Blob detector	Rotation invariant	Scale invariant	Affine invariant	Repeatability	Localization accuracy	Robustness	Efficiency
Harris	x		x			+++	+++	++	++
Shi-Tomasi	x		x			+++	+++	++	++
FAST	x		x	x		++	++	++	++++
SIFT		x	x	x	x	+++	++	+++	+
SURF		x	x	x	x	+++	++	++	++
CenSurE		x	x	x	x	+++	++	+++	+++

Fig. 1. Comparison of feature detectors: properties and performance.

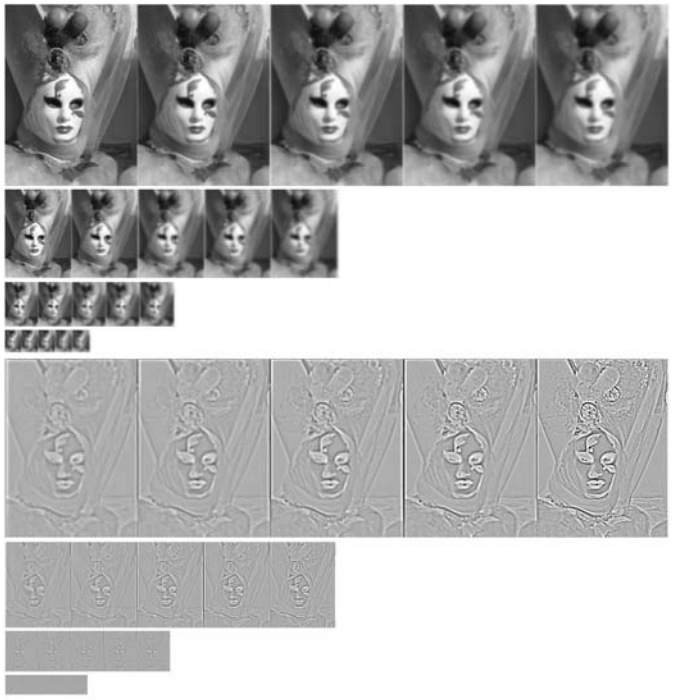

Fig. 2. The original image (top left) is smoothed with four Gaussian filters with different sigmas, and this is repeated after downsampling the image of a factor 2. Finally, difference-of-Gaussian (DoG) images are computed by taking the difference between successive Gaussian-smoothed images. SIFT features are found as local minima or maxima of DoG images across scales and space.

SIFT is a feature devised for object and place recognition and found to give outstanding results for VO. The SIFT detector starts by convolving the upper and lower scales of the image with a difference-of-Gaussian (DoG) operator and then takes the local minima or maxima of the output across scales and space (Figure 2). The power of SIFT is in its robust descriptor, which will be explained in the next section.

The SURF detector builds upon the SIFT but uses box filters to approximate the Gaussian, resulting in a faster computation compared to SIFT, which is achieved with integral images.

Fig. 3. SIFT features shown with orientation and scale.

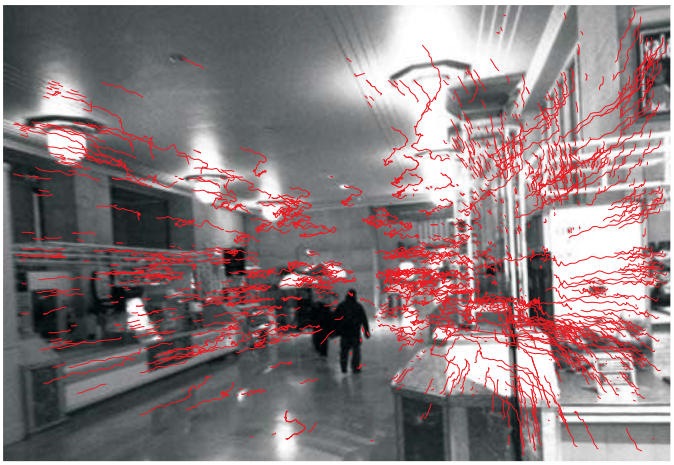

Fig. 4. SIFT-feature tracks.

B. Feature Descriptor

In the feature description step, the region around each detected feature is converted into a compact descriptor that can be matched against other descriptors.

The simplest descriptor of a feature is its appearance, that is, the intensity of the pixels in a patch around the feature point. In this case, error metrics such as the *sum of squared differences* (SSD) or the *normalized cross correlation* (NCC) can be used to compare intensities [20]. Contrary to SSD, NCC compensates well for slightly brightness changes. An alternative and more robust image similarity measure is the *Census transform* [21], which converts each image patch into a binary vector representing which neighbors are above or below the central pixel. The patch similarity is then measured through the Hamming distance.

In many cases, the local appearance of the feature is not a good *descriptor* of the information carried by the feature because its appearance will change with orientation, scale, and viewpoint changes. In fact, SSD and NCC are not invariant to any of these changes and, therefore, their use is limited to images taken at nearby positions. One of the most popular descriptors for point features is the SIFT. The SIFT descriptor is basically a histogram of gradient orientations. The patch around the feature is decomposed into a 4×4 grid. For each quadrant, a histogram of eight gradient orientations is built. All these histograms are then concatenated together forming a 128-element descriptor vector. To reduce the effect of illumination changes, the descriptor is then normalized to unit length.

The SIFT descriptor proved to be very stable against changes in illumination, rotation, and scale, and even up to 60-degree changes in viewpoint. Example SIFT features are shown in Figure 3. The orientation and scale of each feature is shown.

The SIFT descriptor can in general be computed for corner or blob features; however, its performance will decrease on corners because, by definition, corners occur at the intersection of edges. Therefore, its descriptor wont be as distinctive as for blobs, which, conversely, lie in highly-textured regions of the image.

Between 2010 and 2011, three new descriptors have been devised, which are much faster to compute than SIFT and SURF. A simple binary descriptor named BRIEF [22] became popular: it uses pairwise brightness comparisons sampled from a patch around the keypoint. While extremely fast to extract and to compare, it still exhibits high discriminative power in the absence of rotation and scale change. Inspired by its success, ORB [23] was developed, which tackles orientation invariance and an optimization of the sampling scheme for the brightness value pairs. Along the same lines, BRISK [24] provides a keypoint detector based on FAST, which allows scale and rotation invariance, and binary descriptor that uses a configurable sampling pattern.

C. Feature Matching

The feature-matching step searches for corresponding features in other images. Figure 4 shows SIFT features matched across multiple frames overlaid on the first image. The set of matches corresponding to the same feature is called *feature track*.

The simplest way for matching features between two images is to compare all feature descriptors in the first image to all other feature descriptors in the second image. Descriptors are compared using a similarity measure. If the descriptor is the local appearance of the feature, then a good measure is the SSD or the NCC. For SIFT descriptors, this is the Euclidean distance.

1) Mutual consistency check: After comparing all feature descriptors between two images, the best correspondence of a feature in the second image is chosen as that with the closest descriptor (in terms of distance or similarity). However, this stage may cause that one feature in the second image match with more than one feature in the first image. To decide which match to accept, the *mutual consistency check* can be used. This consists in pairing every feature in the second image with features in the first image. Only pairs of corresponding features that "want to get married" (i.e. that mutually have each other as preferred match) are accepted as correct.

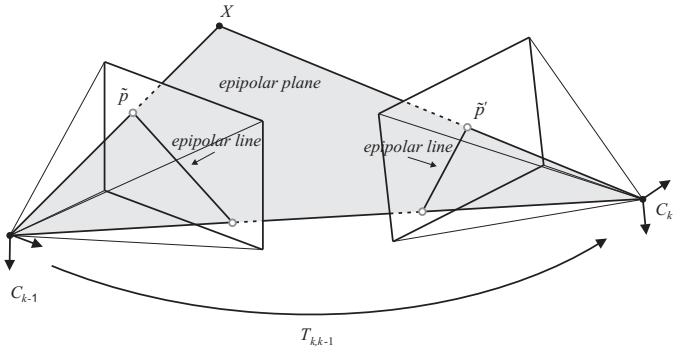

Fig. 5. Illustration of the epipolar constraint.

2) Constrained matching: A disadvantage of this exhaustive matching is that it is quadratic in the number of features, which can become impractical when the number of features is large (e.g. several thousands). A better approach is to use an indexing structure, such as a multi-dimensional search tree or a hash table, to rapidly search for features near a given feature. A faster feature matching is to search for potential correspondences in regions of the second image where they are expected to be. These regions can be *predicted* using a motion model and the 3D feature position (if available). For instance, this is the case in the 3D-to-2D-based motion estimation described in Part I of this tutorial. The motion can be given by an additional sensor like IMU, wheel odometry [25], laser, GPS, etc. or can be inferred from the previous position assuming a *constant velocity model*, as proposed in [26]. The predicted region is then calculated as an error ellipse from the uncertainty of the motion and that of the 3D point.

Alternatively, if only the motion model is known but not the 3D feature position, the corresponding match can be searched along the *epipolar line* in the second image. This process is called *epipolar matching*. As can be observed in Figure 5, a single 2D feature and the two camera centers define a plane in the 3D space which intersect both images into two lines, called epipolar lines. An epipolar line can be computed directly from a 2D feature and the relative motion of the camera, as explained in Part I of this tutorial. Each feature in the first image has a different epipolar line in the second image.

In stereovision, instead of computing the epipolar line for each candidate feature, the images are usually rectified. Image rectification is a remapping of an image pair into a new image pair where epipolar lines of the left and right image are horizontal and aligned to each other. This has the advantage of facilitating the image-correspondence search, since epipolar lines do no longer have to be computed for each feature: the correspondent of one feature in the left (right) image can be searched across those features in the right (left) image, which lie on the same row. Image rectification can be executed very efficiently on graphics processing units (GPUs). In stereovision the relative position between the two cameras is known very precisely. However, if the motion is affected by uncertainty, the epipolar search is usually expanded to a rectangular area within a certain distance from the epipolar line. In stereovision, SSD, NCC, and Census transform are widely-used similarity metrics for epipolar matching.

D. Feature Tracking

An alternative to independently finding features in all candidate images and then matching them is to detect features in the first image and, then, search for their corresponding matches in the next images. This *detect-then-track* approach is suitable for VO applications where images are taken at nearby locations, where the amount of motion and appearance deformation between adjacent frames is small. For this particular application, SSD and NCC can work well.

However, if features are tracked over long image sequences, their appearance can undergo larger changes. In this case, the solution is to apply an affine-distortion model to each feature. The resulting tracker is often called KanadeLucasTomasi (KLT) tracker [12].

E. Discussion

1) SIFT matching: For SIFT feature matching, a distance-ratio test was proposed by the authors, initially for use in place and object detection [14]. This distance-ratio test accepts the closest match (the one with minimum Euclidean distance) only if the ratio between the closest match and the second closest match is smaller than a user-specified threshold. The idea behind this test is to remove matches that might be ambiguous, e.g., due to repetitive structure. The threshold for the test can only be set heuristically and an unlucky guess might remove correct matches as well. Therefore, in many cases it might be beneficial to skip the ratio test and let RANSAC take care of the outliers as explained in section III.

2) Lines and edgelets: An alternative to point features for VO is to use lines or edgelets, as proposed in [27], [28]. They can be used in addition to points in structured environments and may provide additional cues, such as direction (of the line or edgelet), and planarity and orthogonality constraints. Contrary to points, lines are more difficult to match because lines are more likely to be occluded than points. Furthermore, the origin and end of a line segment of edgelet may not exist (e.g., occlusions, horizon line, etc.).

3) Number of features and distribution: The distribution of the features in the image has been found to affect the VO results remarkably [1], [9], [29]. In particular, more feature provide more stable motion-estimation results than with fewer features, but at the same time the keypoints should cover as evenly as possible the image. In order to do this, the image can be partitioned into a grid and the feature detector is applied to each cell by tuning the detection thresholds until a minimum number of feature is found in each subimage [1]. As a rule of the thumb, one thousand features is a good number for a 640×480-pixel image,

4) Dense and correspondence-free methods: An alternative to *sparse*-feature extraction is to use dense methods, such as optical flow [30], or feature-less methods [31]. Optical flow aims at tracking, ideally, each individual pixel or a subset of the whole image (e.g., all pixels on a grid specified by the user). However, similar to feature tracking, it assumes very small motion between frames and, therefore, is not suitable

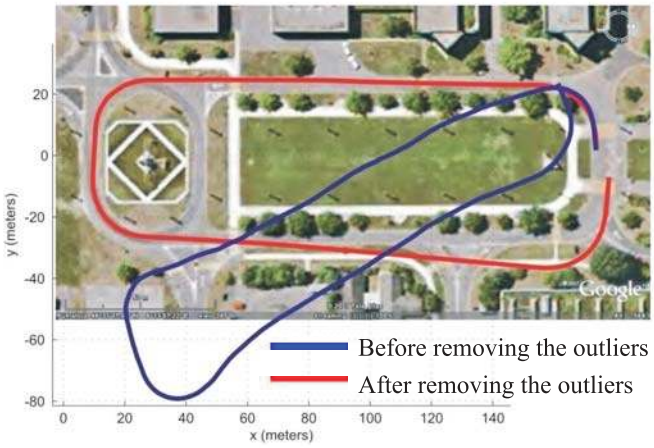

Fig. 6. Comparison between visual odometry trajectories estimated before and after removing the outliers.

for VO applications since motion error accumulates very quickly. Another alternative is feature-less motion-estimation methods, such as [31]: all the pixels in the two images are used to compute the relative motion using a harmonic Fourier transform. This method has the advantage to work especially with low-texture images but is computationally extremely expensive (can take up to several minutes) and the recovered motion is less accurate than with feature-based methods.

III. Outlier Removal

Matched points are usually contaminated by outliers, that is, wrong data associations. Possible causes of outliers are image noise, occlusions, blur, and changes in view point and illumination for which the mathematical model of the feature detector or descriptor does not account for. For instance, most of the feature-matching techniques assume linear illumination changes, pure camera rotation and scaling (zoom), or affine distortion. However, these are just mathematical models which approximate the more complex reality (image saturation, perspective distortion, motion blur, etc.). For the camera motion to be estimated accurately, it is important that outliers be removed. Outlier rejection is the most delicate task in VO. An example VO result before and removing the outliers is shown in Figure 6.

A. RANSAC

The solution to outlier removal consists in taking advantage of the geometric constraints introduced by the motion model. Robust estimation methods such as M-estimation [32], case deletion, and explicitly fitting and removing outliers [33], can be used but these often only work if there are relatively few outliers. The *random sample consensus* (RANSAC) [34] has been established as the standard method for model estimation in the presence of outliers.

The idea behind RANSAC is to compute model hypotheses from randomly-sampled sets of data points and then verify these hypotheses on the other data points. The hypothesis that shows the highest consensus with the other data is selected as solution. For two-view motion estimation as used in VO, the estimated model is the relative motion (R, t) between the two camera positions, and the data points are the candidate feature correspondences. Inlier points to a hypothesis are found by computing the point-to-epipolar line distance [35]. The point-to-epipolar line distance is usually computed as a first-order approximation—called Sampson distance—for efficiency reasons [35]. An alternative to the point-to-epipolar line distance is the directional error proposed by Oliensis [36]. The directional error measures the angle between the ray of the image feature and the epipolar plane. The authors claim that the use of the directional error is advantageous for the case of omnidirectional and wide-angle cameras but also beneficial for the standard camera case.

The outline of RANSAC is given in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1: RANSAC

1) Initial: let A be a set of N feature correspondences
2) repeat
2.1) Randomly select a sample of s points from A
2.2) Fit a model to these points
2.3) Compute the distance of all other points to this model
2.4) Construct the inlier set (i.e. count the number of points whose distance from the model $< d$)
2.5) Store these inliers
2.6) until maximum number of iterations reached
3) The set with the maximum number of inliers is chosen as a solution to the problem
4) Estimate the model using all the inliers

The number of subsets (iterations) N that is necessary to guarantee that a correct solution is found can be computed by

$$N = \frac{\log(1-p)}{\log(1-(1-\varepsilon)^s)} \tag{1}$$

where s is the number of data points from which the model can be instantiated, ε is the percentage of outliers in the data points, and p is the requested probability of success [34]. For the sake of robustness, in many practical implementations N is usually multiplied by a factor of 10. More advanced implementations of RANSAC estimate the fraction of inliers adaptively, iteration after iteration.

As observed, RANSAC is an iterative method and is non-deterministic in that it exhibits a different solution on different runs; however, the solution tends to be stable when the number of iterations grows.

B. Minimal Model Parameterizations: 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 2, and 1-point RANSAC

As can be observed in Figure 7, N is exponential in the number of data points s necessary to estimate the model. Therefore, there is a high interest in using a minimal parameterization of the model. In Part I of this tutorial, an 8-point minimal solver for uncalibrated cameras was described. Although it works also for calibrated cameras, the 8-point algorithm fails when the scene points are coplanar. However,

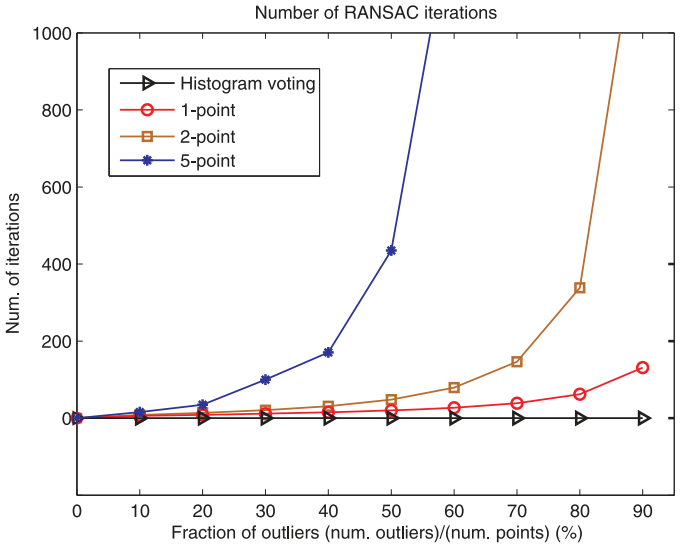

Fig. 7. Number of RANSAC iterations versus fraction of outliers. ADD PLOTS OF 8-7-6 point RANSAC with LOGARITMIC AXES.

when the camera is calibrated, its 6DOF motion can be inferred from a minimum of 5-point correspondences and the first solution to this problem was given in 1913 by Kruppa [37]. Several 5-point minimal solvers were proposed later in [38]–[40] but an efficient implementation, based on [39], was found only in 2003 by Nister [41] and later revised in [42]. Before that, the 6-point [43], 7-point [44], or 8-point solvers were commonly used. However, the 5-point solver has the advantage that it works also for planar scenes. [1]

Despite the 5-point algorithm represents the minimal solver for 6DOF motion of calibrated cameras, in the last decades there have been several attempts to exploit different cues to reduce the number of motion parameters. In [49], Fraundorfer et al. proposed a 3-point minimal solver for the case of two known camera-orientation angles. For instance, this can be used when the camera is rigidly attached to a gravity sensor (in fact, the gravity vector fixes two camera-orientation angles). Later, Naroditsky et al. [50] improved on that work by showing that the 3-point minimal solver can be used in a 4-point (3-plus-1) RANSAC scheme. The 3-plus-1 stands for the fact that an additional far scene point (ideally a point at infinity) is used to fix the two orientation angles. Using their 4-point RANSAC, they also show a successful 6DOF VO. A 2-point minimal solver for 6DOF VO was proposed by Kneip et al. [51], which uses the full rotation matrix from an IMU rigidly attached to the camera.

In the case of planar motion, the motion model complexity is reduced to 3DOF and can be parameterized with 2 points as described in [52]. For wheeled vehicles, Scaramuzza et al. [9], [53] showed that the motion can be locally described as planar and circular and, therefore, the motion model complexity is reduced to 2DOF, leading to a 1-point minimal solver. Using a single point for motion estimation is the lowest motion parameterization possible and results in the most efficient RANSAC algorithm. Additionally, they show that by using histogram voting outliers can be found in a small as a single iteration. A performance evaluation of 5, 2, and 1-point RANSAC algorithms for VO was finally presented in [54].

To recap, the reader should remember that, if the camera motion is unconstrained, the minimum number of points to estimate the motion is five and therefore the 5-point RANSAC (or the 6, 7, or 8 point one) should be used. Of course, using the 5-point RANSAC will require less iterations (and thus less time) than with the 6, 7, or 8 point RANSAC. A summary of the number of minimum RANSAC iterations as a function of the number of model parameters s is shown in Table I for the 8, 7, 5, 4, 2, 1-point minimal solvers. These values were obtained from (1) assuming a probability of success $p = 99\%$ and a percentage of outliers $\varepsilon = 50\%$.

C. Reducing the Iterations of RANSAC

As can be observed in Table I, with $p = 99\%$ and $\varepsilon = 50\%$ the 5-point RANSAC requires a minimum of 145 iterations. However, in reality the things are not always so easy. Sometimes the number of outliers is underestimated and using more iterations would increase the chances to find more inliers. In some cases, it can even be necesary to allow for thousands of iterations. Because of this, several works have been produced in the endeavor of increasing the speed of RANSAC. MLESAC [55] makes the measurement of correspondence more reliable and improves the estimate of the hypotheses. PROSAC [56] ranks the correspondences based on their similarly and generates motion hypotheses starting from points with higher rank. Preemptive RANSAC [57] uses preemptive scoring of the motion hypotheses and a fixed number of iterations. Uncertainty RANSAC [58] incorporates feature uncertainty and shows that this determines a decrease in the number of potential outliers, thus enforcing a reduction in the number of iterations. In [59], a deterministic RANSAC approach is proposed, which also estimates the probability that a match is correct.

What all the mentioned algorithms have in common is that the motion hypotheses are generated directly from the points. Conversely, other algorithms operate by sampling the hypotheses from a proposal distribution of the vehicle motion model [60], [61].

Among all these algorithms, preemptive RANSAC has been the most popular because the number of iterations can be fixed a priori, which has several advantages when real-time operation is necessary.

D. Is it Really Better to Use a Minimal Set in RANSAC?

If one is concerned with certain speed requirements, using a minimal point set is definitely better than using a non-minimal set. However, even the 5-point RANSAC might not be the best

[1] Observe that 8-point and 7-point solvers work for uncalibrated, perspective cameras. To use them also with omnidirectional camera, the camera needs to be calibrated. Alternatively, n-point solvers for uncalibrated omnidirectional cameras have also been proposed [45]–[47], where n depends on the type of mirror or fisheye used. Lim et al. [48] showed that for calibrated omnidirectional cameras, 6DOF motion can be recovered using only two pairs of antipodal image points. Antipodal image points are points whose rays are aligned but which correspond to opposite viewing directions. They also showed that antipodal points allow us to independently estimate translation and rotation.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF RANSAC ITERATIONS

Number of points (s):	8	7	6	5	4	2	1
Number of iterations (N):	1177	587	292	145	71	16	7

idea if the image correspondences are very noisy. In this case, using more points than a minimal set is proved to give better performance (and more inliers) [62], [63]. To understand it, consider a single iteration of the 5-point RANSAC: at first, five random points are selected and used to estimate the motion model; secondly, this motion hypothesis is tested on all other points. If the selected five points are inliers with large image noise, the motion estimated from them will be inaccurate and will exhibit fewer inliers when tested on all the other points. Conversely, if the motion is estimated from more than five points using the five-point solver, the effects of noise are averaged and the estimated model will be more accurate, with the effect that more inliers will be identified. Therefore, when the computational time is not a real concern and one deals with very noisy features, using a non-minimal set may be better than using a minimal set [62].

IV. ERROR PROPAGATION

In VO, individual transformations $T_{k,k-1}$ are concatenated to form the current pose of the robot C_k (see Part I of this tutorial). Each of these transformations $T_{k,k-1}$ has an uncertainty and the uncertainty of the camera pose C_k depends on the uncertainty of the past transformations. This is illustrated in Figure 8. The uncertainty of the transformation $T_{k+1,k}$ computed by VO depends on the camera geometry and the image features. A derivation for the stereo case can be found in [3].

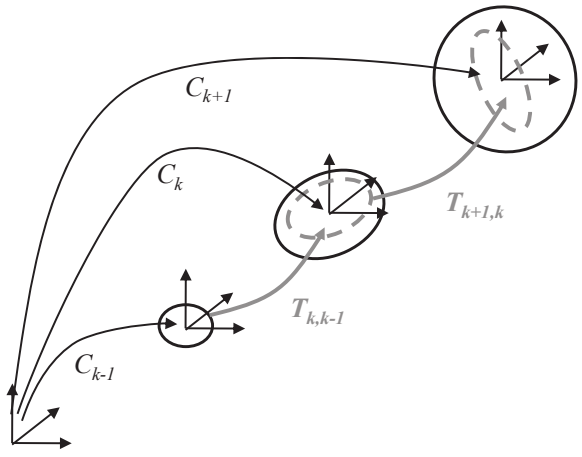

Fig. 8. The uncertainty of the camera pose at C_k is a combination of the uncertainty at C_{k-1} (black solid ellipse) and the uncertainty of the transformation $T_{k,k-1}$ (gray dashed ellipse)

In the following, the uncertainty propagation is discussed. Each camera pose C_k and each transformation $T_{k,k-1}$ can be represented by a six-element vector containing the position (x,y,z) and orientation (in Euler angles ϕ,θ,ψ). These 6-element vectors are denoted by $\vec{C}_k$ and $\vec{T}_{k,k-1}$, respectively—e.g., $\vec{C}_k = (x,y,z,\phi,\theta,\psi)^\top$. Each transformation $\vec{T}_{k,k-1}$ is represented by its mean and covariance $\Sigma_{k,k-1}$. The covariance matrix $\Sigma_{k,k-1}$ is a 6×6 matrix. The camera pose $\vec{C}_k$ is written as $\vec{C}_k = f(\vec{C}_{k-1},\vec{T}_{k,k-1})$, that is a function of the previous pose $\vec{C}_{k-1}$ and the transformation $\vec{T}_{k,k-1}$ with their covariances Σ_k and $\Sigma_{k,k-1}$, respectively. The combined covariance matrix $\vec{C}_k$ is a 12×12 matrix and a compound of the covariance matrices $\Sigma_{k,k-1}$ and Σ_{k-1}. $\vec{C}_k$ can be computed by using the error propagation law [64], which uses a first-order Taylor approximation; therefore,

$$\Sigma_k = J \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{k-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \Sigma_{k,k-1} \end{bmatrix} J^\top \quad (2)$$

$$= J_{\vec{C}_{k-1}} \Sigma_{k-1} J_{\vec{C}_{k-1}}{}^\top + J_{\vec{T}_{k,k-1}} \Sigma_{k,k-1} J_{\vec{T}_{k,k-1}}{}^\top, \quad (3)$$

where $J_{\vec{C}_{k-1}}$ $J_{\vec{T}_{k,k-1}}$ are the Jacobians of f with respect to $\vec{C}_{k-1}$ and $\vec{T}_{k,k-1}$, respectively. As can be observed from this equation, the camera-pose uncertainty is always increasing when concatenating transformations. Thus, it is important to keep the uncertainties of the individual transformations small; this, in order to reduce the drift.

V. CAMERA POSE OPTIMIZATION

VO computes the camera poses by concatenating the transformations, in most cases from two subsequent views at times k and $k-1$ (see Part I of this tutorial). However, it might also be possible to compute the transformations between the current time k and the n last time steps $T_{k,k-2},...,T_{k,k-n}$, or even for any time step $T_{i,j}$. If these transformations are known, they can be used to improve the camera poses by using them as additional constraints in a pose-graph optimization.

A. Pose-Graph Optimization

The camera poses computed from VO can be represented as a pose graph, which is a graph where the camera poses are the nodes and the rigid-body transformations between the camera poses are the edges between nodes [65]. Each additional transformation that is known can be added as an edge into the pose graph. The edge constraints e_{ij} define the following cost function:

$$\sum_{e_{ij}} \|C_i - T_{e_{ij}} C_j\|^2, \quad (4)$$

where $T_{e_{ij}}$ is the transformation between the poses i and j. Pose graph optimization seeks the camera pose parameters that minimize this cost function. The rotation part of the transformation makes the cost function non-linear and a non-linear optimization algorithm (e.g., Levenberg-Marquardt) has to be used.

1) Loop Constraints for Pose-Graph Optimization: Loop constraints are very valuable constraints for pose graph optimization. These constraints form graph edges between nodes that are usually far apart and between which large drift might have been accumulated. Commonly, events like reobserving a landmark after not seeing it for a long time or coming back to a previously-mapped area are called loop detections [66]. Loop constraints can be found by evaluating visual similarity between the current camera images and past camera images. Visual similarity can be computed using global image descriptors (e.g. [67], [68]) or local image descriptors (e.g. [69]). Recently, loop detection by visual similarity using local image descriptors got a lot of attention and one of the most successful methods are based on so called visual words [70]–[73]. In these approaches an image is represented by a bag of visual worlds. The visual similarity between two images is then computed as the distance of the visual word histograms of the two images. The visual word based approach is extremely efficient to compute visual similarity between large sets of image data, a property very important for loop detection. A visual word represents a high-dimensional feature descriptor (e.g. SIFT or SURF) with a single integer number. For this quantization, the original high-dimensional descriptor space is divided into non-overlapping cells by *k-means* clustering [74], which is called the visual vocabulary. All feature descriptors that fall within the same cell will get the cell number assigned, which represents the visual word. Visual-word-based similarity computation is often accelerated by organizing the visual-word database as an inverted-file datastructure [75] which makes use of the finite range of the visual vocabulary. Visual similarity computation is the first step of loop detection. After finding the top-n similar images usually a geometric verification using the epipolar constraint is performed and, for confirmed matches, a rigid-body transformation is computed using wide-baseline feature matches between the two images. This rigid-body transformation is added to the pose-graph as an additional loop constraint.

B. Windowed (or Local) Bundle Adjustment

Windowed bundle adjustment [76] is similar to pose-graph optimization as it tries to optimize the camera parameters but, in addition, it also optimizes the 3D-landmark parameters at the same time. It is applicable to the cases where image features are tracked over more than two frames. Windowed bundle adjustment considers a so called "window" of n image frames and then does a parameter optimization of camera poses and 3D landmarks for this set of image frames. In bundle adjustment, the error function to minimize is the image reprojection error:

$$\arg\min_{X^i,C_k} \sum_{i,k} \|p_k^i - g(X^i,C_k)\|^2, \tag{5}$$

where p_k^i is the i^{th} image point of the 3D landmark X^i measured in the k^{th} image and $g(X^i,C_k)$ is its image reprojection according to the current camera pose C_k.

The reprojection error is a non-linear function and the optimization is usually carried out using Levenberg-Marquardt. This requires an initialization that is close to the minimum. Usually a standard 2-view VO solution serves as initialization. The Jacobian for this optimization problem has a very specific structure that can be exploited for efficient computation [76].

Windowed bundle adjustment reduces the drift compared to 2-view VO because it uses feature measurements over more than 2 image frames. The current camera pose is linked via the 3D landmark and the image feature track not only to the previous camera pose but also to camera poses further back. The current and $n-1$ previous camera poses need to be consistent with the measurements over n image frames. The choice of the window size n is mostly governed by computational reasons. The computational complexity of bundle adjustment in general is $O((qM+lN)^3)$ with M and N the number of points and cameras poses and q and l the the number of parameters for points and camera poses. A small window size limits the number of parameters for the optimization and thus makes real-time bundle adjustment possible. It is possible to reduce the computational complexity by just optimizing over the camera parameters and keeping the 3D landmarks fixed, e.g. if the 3D landmarks are accurately triangulated from a stereo setup.

VI. Applications

VO has successfully been applied within various technological fields. It is used for egomotion estimation for space exploration (e.g., computing the egomotion of Mars Rovers [25] and that of a planetary lander in the decent phase [77]. On the other hand, VO can also be found in consumer hardware, e.g. the Dacuda scanner mouse [78].

VO is applied in all kinds of mobile-robotics systems, such as space robots, ground robots, aerial robots, and underwater robots. Initially, the term VO was coined in a ground robot application [1], where it was used to compute the egomotion of an all-terrain outdoor vehicle. However, the most popular application of VO has been on NASA Mars exploration rovers [25], [79]. NASA's VO has been used since January 2004 to track the motion of the two NASA rovers Spirit and Opportunity as a supplement to dead-reckoning. Their stereo VO system was implemented on a 20Mhz CPU and took up to three minutes for a two-view structure-from-motion step. VO was mainly used to approach targets efficiently as well as to maintain vehicle safety while driving near obstacles on slopes, achieving difficult drive approaches, performing slip checks to ensure that the vehicle is still making progress.

VO is also applied onboard of unmanned aerial vehicles of all kinds of sizes, e.g. within the AVATAR [80] and SFLY [81] projects. Within the SFLY project, VO was used to perform autonomous take off, point-to-point navigation, and landing of small scale quadrocopters.

Autonomous underwater vehicles is also a domain where VO plays a big role. Underwater vehicles cannot rely on GPS for position estimation; thus, onboard sensors need to be used. Cameras provide a cost-effective solution; in addition, the ocean-floor quite often provides a texture-rich environment [82], which is ideal for computer vision methods. Applications range from coral-reef inspection (e.g. the Starbug system [82] to archaeological surveys [83].

VO also plays a big role for the automotive industry. Driver assistance systems (e.g. assisted braking) already rely on computer vision and digital cameras. VO for automotive market is in development and first demonstrations have successfully been shown, e.g. within the Daimler 6D-Vision system [84] or as part of the VisLab autonomous vehicle [85]. Driving the development of this technology is the low cost of vision sensors as compared to Lidar sensors, which is an important factor for the automotive industry.

VII. Available code

A lot of the algorithms needed to build a VO system are made publicly available by their authors. Table II points the readers to a selection of these resources.

VIII. Conclusions

This Part II of the tutorial has summarized the remaining building blocks of the VO pipeline: how to detect and match salient and repeatable features across frames, robust estimation in the presence of outliers, and bundle adjustment. In addition, error propagation, applications, and links to free-to-download code will be included. VO is a well understood and established part of robotics.

VO, as a method to compute the egomotion of an agent from camera images, has reached a maturity that made possible to successfully use it for certain classes of applications: space, ground, aerial, and underwater. In presence of loop closures, VO can be used as a building block for a complete SLAM algorithm in order to reduce the motion drift. Challenges that still remain are to develop and demonstrate large-scale and long-term implementations, such as driving autonomous cars for hundreds of miles. Such systems have recently been demonstrated using Lidar and Radar sensors [86]. However, for VO to be used in such systems, technical issues regarding robustness and, especially, long-term stability have to be resolved. Eventually, VO has the potential to replace Lidar-based systems for egomotion estimation, which are currently leading the state of the art in accuracy, robustness, and reliability. VO will offer a cheaper and mechanically easier-to-manufacture solution for egomotion estimation, while, additionally, being fully passive. Furthermore, the ongoing miniaturization of digital cameras will offer the possibility to develop smaller and smaller robotic systems that will be capable of egomotion estimation.

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TABLE II
SOFTWARE AND DATASETS

Author	Description	Link
Willow Garage	OpenCV: A computer vision library maintained by Willow Garage. The library includes many of the feature detectors mentioned in this tutorial (e.g., Harris, KLT, SIFT, SURF, FAST, BRIEF, ORB). In addition, the library contains the basic motion-estimation algorithms as well as stereo-matching algorithms.	http://opencv.willowgarage.com
Willow Garage	ROS (Robot Operating System): A huge library and middleware maintained by Willow Garage for developing robot applications. Contains a visual-odometry package and many other computer-vision-related packages.	http://www.ros.org
Willow Garage	PCL (Point Cloud Library): A 3D-data-processing library maintained from Willow Garage, which includes useful algorithms to compute transformations between 3D-point clouds.	http://pointclouds.org
Henrik Stewenius et al.	5-point algorithm: An implementation of the 5-point algorithm for computing the essential matrix.	http://www.vis.uky.edu/~stewe/FIVEPOINT/
Changchang Wu et al.	SiftGPU: Real-time implementation of SIFT.	http://cs.unc.edu/~ccwu/siftgpu
Nico Cornelis et al.	GPUSurf: Real-time implementation of SURF.	http://homes.esat.kuleuven.be/~ncorneli/gpusurf
Christopfer Zach	GPU-KLT: Real-time implementation of the KLT tracker.	http://www.inf.ethz.ch/personal/chzach/opensource.html
Edward Rosten	Original implementation of the FAST detector.	http://www.edwardrosten.com/work/fast.html
Michael Calonder	Original implementation of the BRIEF descriptor.	http://cvlab.epfl.ch/software/brief/
Leutenegger et al.	BRISK feature detector.	http://www.asl.ethz.ch/people/lestefan/personal/BRISK
Jean-Yves Bouguet	Camera Calibration Toolbox for Matlab.	http://www.vision.caltech.edu/bouguetj/calib_ doc
Davide Scaramuzza	OCamCalib: Omnidirectional Camera Calibration Toolbox for MATLAB.	https://sites.google.com/site/scarabotix/ocamcalib-toolbox
Christopher Mei	Omnidirectional Camera Calibration Toolbox for MATLAB	http://homepages.laas.fr/~cmei/index.php/Toolbox
Mark Cummins	FAB-MAP: Visual-word-based loop detection.	http://www.robots.ox.ac.uk/~mjc/Software.htm
Friedrich Fraundorfer	Vocsearch: Visual-word-based place recognition and image search.	http://www.inf.ethz.ch/personal/fraundof/page2.html
Manolis Lourakis	SBA: Sparse Bundle Adjustment	http://www.ics.forth.gr/~lourakis/sba
Christopher Zach	SSBA: Simple Sparse Bundle Adjustment	http://www.inf.ethz.ch/personal/chzach/opensource.html
Rainer Kuemmerle et al.	G2O: Library for graph-based nonlinear function optimization. Contains several variants of SLAM and bundle adjustment.	http://openslam.org/g2o
RAWSEEDS EU Project	RAWSEEDS: Collection of datasets with different sensors (lidars, cameras, IMUs, etc.) with ground truth.	http://www.rawseeds.org
SFLY EU Project	SFLY-MAV dataset: Camera-IMU dataset captured from an aerial vehicle with Vicon data for ground truth.	http://www.sfly.org
Davide Scaramuzza	ETH OMNI-VO: An omnidirectional-image dataset captured from the roof of a car for several kilometers in a urban environment. MATLAB code for visual odometry is provided.	http://sites.google.com/site/scarabotix

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