

# Sensors and Sensing

## Sensor Data Processing

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# Outline

- 1 Visual Odometry
- 2 Scan Matching and Registration
- 3 Point Cloud Processing

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# Visual Odometry

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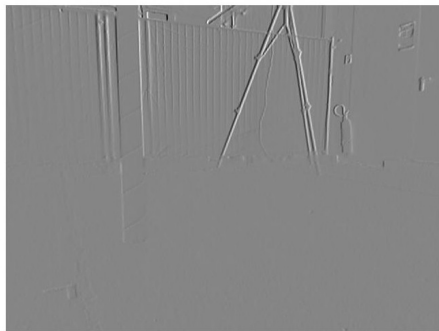
# Images and Image Gradients

- Visual odometry uses camera observations and estimates the pose offset between subsequent views.
- A key concept for many of the approaches is the image gradient  $\nabla I = [G_x, G_y]$
- Obtained by convolving with a filter kernel: in this case the sobel operator:



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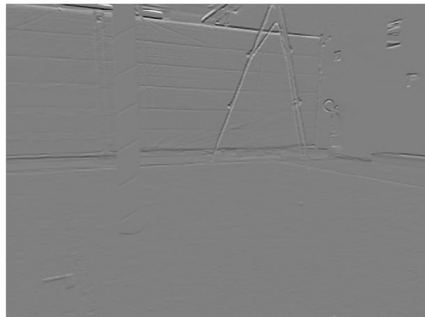
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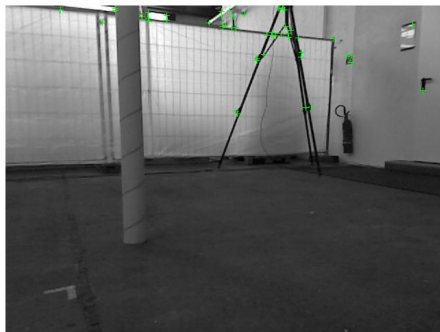
# Features

- The Sobel operators are useful for detecting edges in an image.
- Places with high gradient in several directions are an indication of a corner.
- If we can detect corners reliably in several images, we can use them as landmarks.
- Points in the image which can be reliably re-detected and compared are called features or keypoints.

# Harris Corner Detector

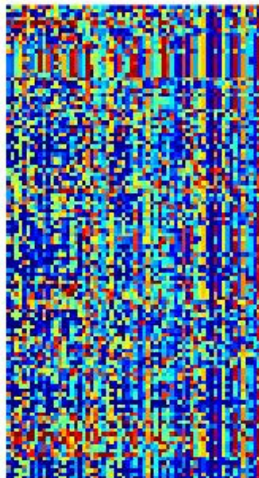
- The Harris corner detector is one of the classical approaches for choosing good features
- Based on observing the shape of derivatives while sliding a window through an image.
- Without going into details, we are interested in the smallest eigenvalue  $\lambda_{\min}$  of the matrix:

$$M = \sum_{x,y \in W} \begin{bmatrix} G_x^2 & G_x G_y \\ G_x G_y & G_y^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



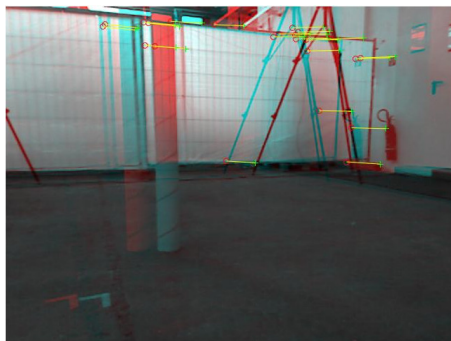
# Feature Descriptors

- Once we have detected keypoints, we need to uniquely describe each point.
- Idea: represent 2D neighborhood into a 1D feature vector.
- What should go into the feature vector?
- Many descriptors possible (SIFT, SURF, ORB)



## Feature matching

- Given two sets of images, we look for corresponding features.
- We can compare the Euclidean distance between descriptor vectors.
- → often with an adaptive threshold.
- Forward and reverse matches.
- We look for a consistent set of matches, often with RANSAC.



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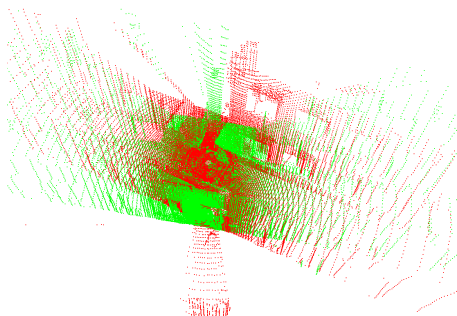
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# Registration and Map Building — Overview

- Most navigation approaches require a map of the environment
  - Mapping integrates multiple sensor views in a consistent model
  - Registration is a sub-problem in mapping:
- Given two sets of points  $\mathcal{P}_1$  and  $\mathcal{P}_2$
  - Find the transformation  $T = (R, t)$ , which brings  $\mathcal{P}_2$  in alignment with  $\mathcal{P}_1$

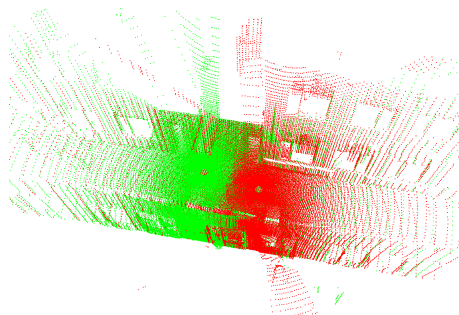
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## Algorithm 1: ICP algorithm

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while not converged do

- For each point in  $\mathcal{P}_1$  associate closest point in  $\mathcal{P}_2$ ;
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## Algorithm 2: ICP algorithm

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- 
- Data association for matching points can use different metrics (point-to-point, point-to-plane distance).
  - Important to reject outliers!
  - Estimating  $T$  can be done using the SVD algorithm

# A Simple 1D Example — ICP algorithm



Figure: Iterative Closest Point (ICP)

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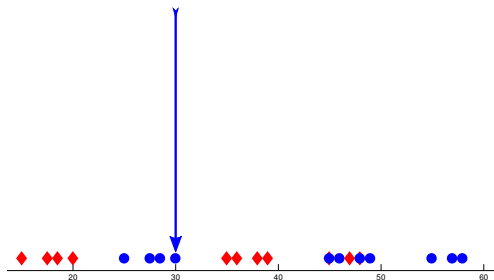


Figure: Iterative Closest Point (ICP)

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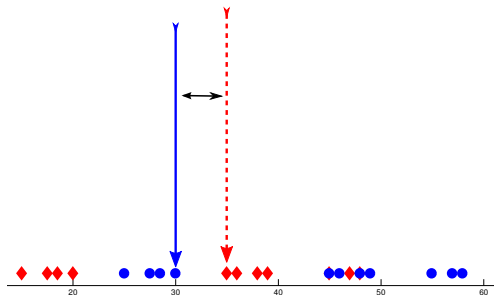


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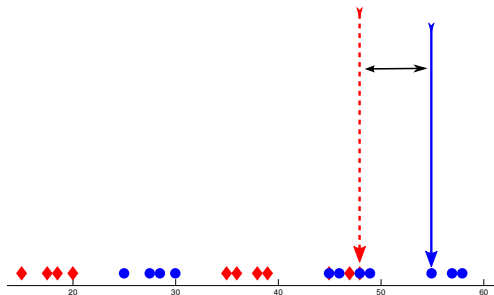


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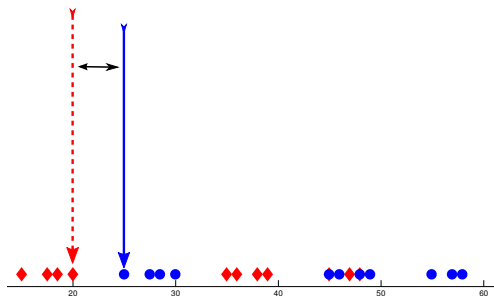


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# ICP Limitations and Variants

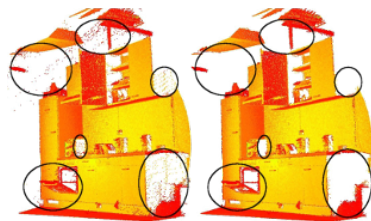
- Sensitive to scan overlap issues
- Local method, requires an initial guess
- Can be slow, as it iterates over all points
- Sped up variants using efficient spatial search (e.g. Kd-Trees)

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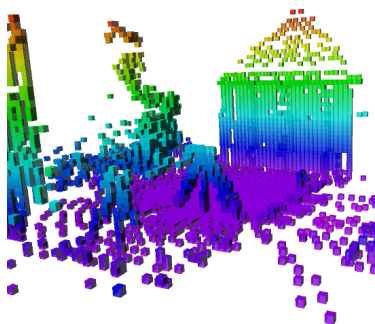
# Typical Objectives

- Outlier removal
- Voxelization and spatial indexing
- Extracting high-level structures
- Building high-level models (occupancy maps, triangle meshes)



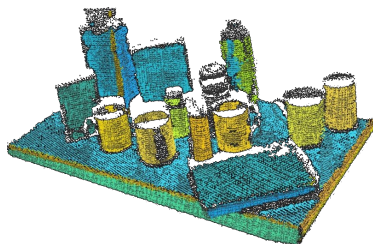
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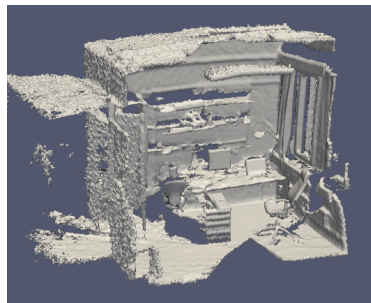
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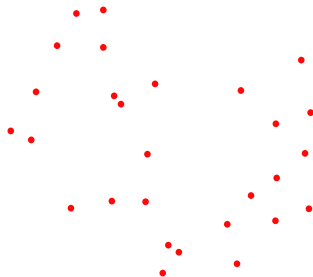


# Subsampling and Volumetric Filters

- Often it is necessary to decrease the sample density of 3D points
- e. g., for faster ICP convergence
- Also, uniform density may be desirable to counter scanner position related bias.
- Common approach is to use a voxel grid and only select a single (or a set number) point from each cell.

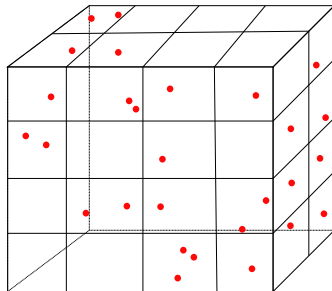
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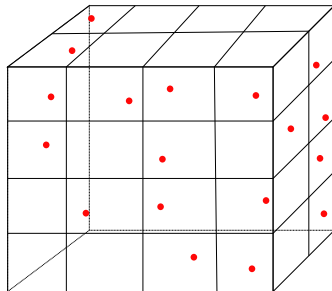
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# Fitting models and Data association

- Data association: How do we choose matching measurements?
- Common problem in several areas of robotics: matching landmarks for localization, points for registration, features for object detection, etc.
- Problem: noisy associations produce outliers that significantly affect solution.
- Problem: least-squares fit is sensitive to outliers.
- Solutions: use a robust norm (L1 instead of L2)
- Solutions: use a randomized algorithm for data association and iterative refinement.

# Random Sample Consensus (RANSAC)

- Basic idea:
  - Select a random subset  $R$  of the data  $D$ .
  - Fit a model  $M$  to  $R$ . E.g. least squares plane fit. For matching keypoints, we estimate the transform using just the correspondences in  $R$ .
  - Check all points in  $D$  for fitness wrt  $M$ . Points that fulfill a fitness criteria are in the consensus set  $C$ .
  - Optionally, refine  $M$  with all points from  $C$ .
  - Compute a model fitness score based on the number of points in  $C$ . If fitness is better than previous models, keep  $M$ .
  - Iterate a set number of times or until convergence.

# Clustering

- Clustering points together can be useful for several applications
- Clusters contain fewer points and typically fewer outliers, thus can be better suited for model fitting
- Different types of clustering can be formulated based on the distance metric used to decide if a point belongs to a cluster
- Typically, Euclidean distance metric is used
- Machine learning can be useful as a basis (k-means clustering for example), but often adhoc cluster growing approaches



# Spatial Indexing

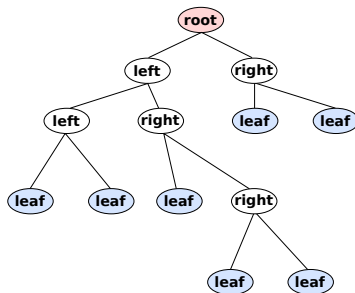
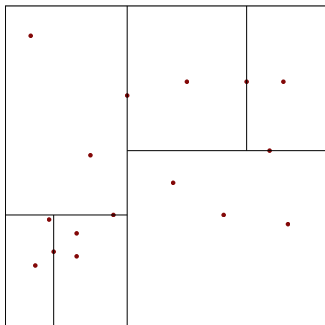
- Various data structures can be used to store point clouds.
- Typical raw data is stored as a 1D array (or 2D for a depth image parametrization).
- Depending on application, different criteria may be important:
  - Spatial complexity (memory storage).
  - Complexity of inserting a new point.
  - Complexity of retrieving a point / nearest neighbour.
- Raw data typically has  $O(N)$  search and storage complexity, with  $O(1)$  insertion complexity.
- Voxel grids are another often used data structure: storage complexity  $O(M^3)$ , average time search complexity is  $O(\frac{N}{M^3})$ , insertion at  $O(1)$ .



# kd Trees and oc Trees

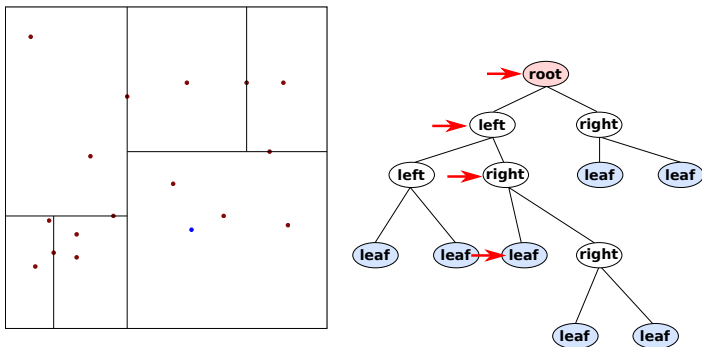
- Maintaining a voxel grid is often prohibitatively expensive (storage) for higher grid resolutions.
- Expected search times depend on the grid resolution as large cells can result in high number of points per cell.
- Tree structures are often used to obtain lower memory requirements at logarithmic search rates

## kd Trees and oc Trees



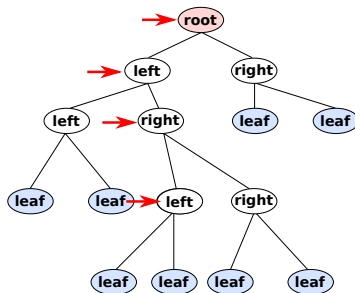
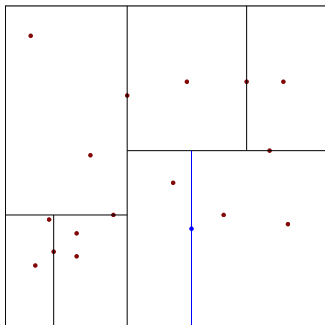
- kd Trees subdivide space and keep a hierarchical indexing structure
- Subdivide at the median point along each dimension.
- Storage:  $O(N)$ , Search:  $O(\log N)/O(N)$ , Insert:  $O(\log N)/O(N)$

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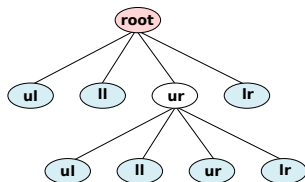
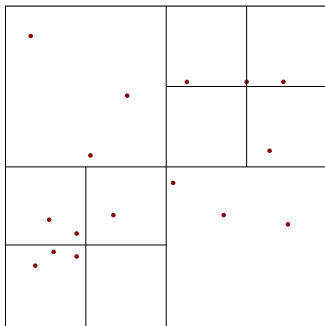
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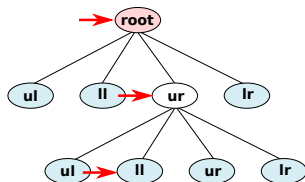
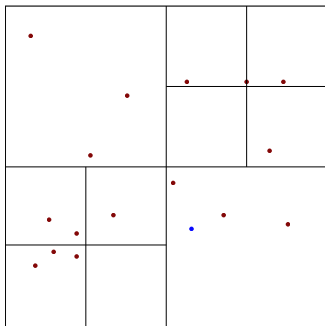
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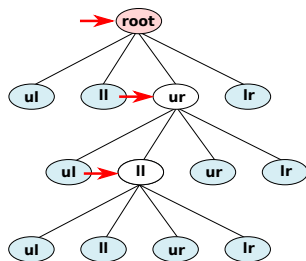
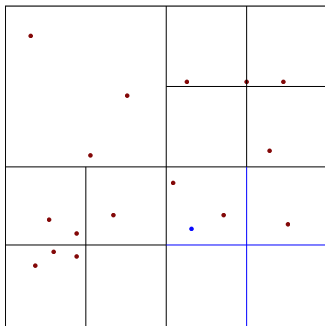
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- Similar complexity, worse tree balance.

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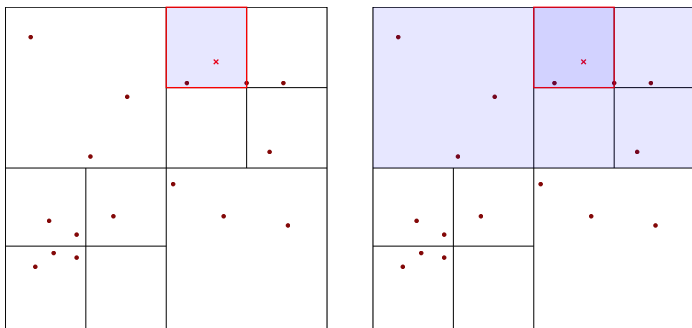
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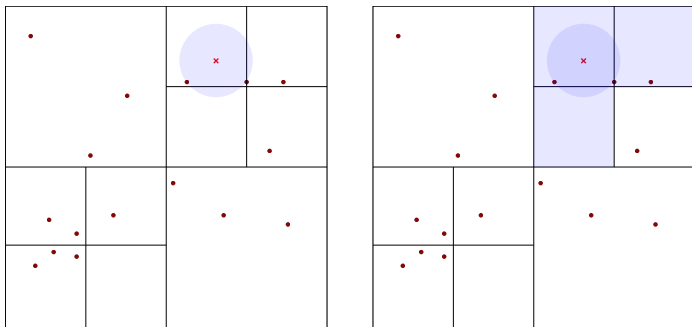
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