

# Occupancy Grid Mapping

## 9.1 > Introduction

- ⇒ Mapping is one of the core competencies of truly autonomous robots.
- ⇒ Acquiring map with mobile robots is a challenging problem for a number of reasons:

① The hypothesis space, that is the space of all possible maps is huge.

↳ Hence, the Bayes filtering approach that worked well for localization is inapplicable to the problem of learning maps.

② Learning map is a "chicken-and-egg" problem, for which reason is often referred to as the Simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM).

⇒ The hardness of the mapping problem is the result of a collection of factors, the most important of which are:

① Size ⇒ The larger the environment relative to the robot's perceptual range, the more difficult it is to acquire a map.

② Noise in perception and actuation ⇒ The larger the noise, the more difficult the problem.



③ Perceptual ambiguity  $\Rightarrow$  The more frequent different places look alike, the more difficult it is to establish correspondence between different locations traversed at different points in time.

④ Cycles  $\Rightarrow$  Cycles in the environment are particularly difficult to map.

$\Rightarrow$  In this chapter, we first study the mapping problem under the restrictive assumption that the robot poses are known.

### 3.2 The Occupancy grid Mapping Algorithm

$\Rightarrow$  The gold standard of any occupancy grid mapping algorithm is to calculate the posterior over the maps given the data.

$$P(m | Z_{1:t}, x_{1:t})$$

$\Rightarrow$  The controls  $u_{1:t}$  plays no role in occupancy grid mapping, since the path is already known.

$\Rightarrow$  Let  $m_i$  denote the grid cell with index  $i$ .  
An occupancy grid map partitions the space into finitely many grid cells.

$$m = \sum_i m_i$$

⇒ Each  $m_i$  has attached to it a binary occupancy value, which specifies whether a cell is occupied or free.

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \text{Occupied} &= 1 \\ \rightarrow \text{Free} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

⇒  $P(m_i = 1) \Leftrightarrow P(m_i)$  { Probability that a grid cell is occupied }

⇒ The standard occupancy grid approach breaks down the problem of estimating the map into a collection of separate problems.

↳ Namely that of estimating  $P(m_i | Z_{1:t}, x_{1:t})$  for all grid cell.

⇒ This decomposition is convenient but not without problems.

↳ It does not enable us to represent dependencies among neighboring cells.

⇒ Occupancy grid mapping algorithm uses the log-odds representation of occupancy:

$$l_{t,i} = \log \frac{P(m_i | Z_{1:t}, x_{1:t})}{1 - P(m_i | Z_{1:t}, x_{1:t})}$$

⇒ Advantages: we can avoid numerical instabilities for probabilities near zero or one.

⇒ The probabilities are easily recovered from the log-odds ratio:

$$P(m_i | Z_{1:t}, x_{1:t}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-l_{t,i}}}$$



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1 Algorithm occupancy-grid-mapping ( $\{l_{t-1,i}\}, x_t, z_t$ ):
2   for all cells  $m_i$  do
3     if  $m_i$  in perceptual field of  $z_t$  then
4        $l_{t,i} = l_{t-1,i} + \text{inverse\_sensor\_model}(m_i, x_t, z_t) - l_0$ 
5     else
6        $l_{t,i} = l_{t-1,i}$ 
7     endif
8   and for
9   return  $\{l_{t,i}\}$ 

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$\Rightarrow$  The constant  $l_0$  is the prior of occupancy represented as a log-odds ratio:

$$l_0 = \log \frac{P(m_i)}{1 - P(m_i)}$$

$\Rightarrow$  The function inverse sensor model implements the inverse measurement model  $P(m_i | z_t, x_t)$  in its log form.

$\alpha \Rightarrow$  Controls the width of the region

$\beta \Rightarrow$  Opening angle of the beam.

$K \Rightarrow$  Beam index

$\sigma \Rightarrow$  range

$z_k$

Algorithm inverse-range-sensor model ( $i, x_i, y_i, z_i$ ):

Let  $x_i, y_i$  be the center of mass of  $m_i$ :

$$r_i = \sqrt{(x_i - x)^2 + (y_i - y)^2}$$

$$\phi = \arctan2(y_i - y, x_i - x) - \theta$$

$$K = \arg \min_j |\phi - \theta_{j, \text{sen}}|$$

If  $r_i > \min(z_{\max}, z_k^k + \alpha/2)$  or  $|\phi - \theta_{k, \text{sen}}| > \delta/2$  then  
return 0

If  $z_k^k < z_{\max}$  and  $|r_i - z_{\max}| < \alpha/2$

return 100

If  $r_i \leq z_k^k$

return 100

endif

## 9.2.1 Multi-Sensor Fusion

⇒ There are two basic approaches for fusing data from multiple sensors:

① Use of Bayes filters for sensor integration.

↳ Disadvantage: If different sensor detects different type of information (obstacle), the result of Bayes filtering is ill-defined.  
↳ Whether or not cell is occupied depends on the relative frequency at which different sensors are polled.



① Build Separate maps for each sensor type, and integrate them using the most conservative estimate.

⇒ Let  $m^K = \{m_i^K\}$  denote the map build by the  $K^{th}$  sensor type.

⇒ Then the Combined map is given by:

$$m_i = \max_K m_i^K$$

### 9.3> Learning Inverse Measurement Models

#### 9.3.1> Inventing the Measurement Model

⇒ The occupancy grid mapping algorithm requires a marginalized inverse measurement model,  $P(m_i | x, z)$

⇒ This probability is called "inverse" since it reasons from effects to cause.

⇒ This raises the question as to whether we can obtain an inverse model in a more principled manner, starting at the conventional measurement model.

⇒ The answer is positive but less straightforward than one might assume at first glance.

⇒ Bayes rule suggests:

$$\begin{aligned} P(m_i | x, z) &= \frac{P(z | x, m_i) P(m_i | x)}{P(z | x)} \\ &= \prod P(z | x, m_i) P(m_i) \end{aligned}$$

→ Pose tells nothing about map

$$p(m_i | \alpha, z) = \mathcal{N} \int_{m: m(i) = m_i} P(z | \alpha, m) P(m) dm$$

⇒ Clearly, this integral cannot be computed, since the space of all maps is too large.

⇒ We will now describe an algorithm for approximating this expression.

### 3.3.2) Sampling from the forward Model

⇒ The basic idea is simple and quite universal.

⇒ If we can generate random triplets of pose  $\alpha_k^{(m)}$ , measurements  $z_k^{(m)}$  and map occupancy value  $m_i^{(m)}$  for any grid cell  $m_i$ , we can learn a function that accepts a pose  $\alpha$  and measurement  $z$  as an input, and outputs the probability of occupancy for  $m_i$ .

(Supervised Learning Algorithm)

