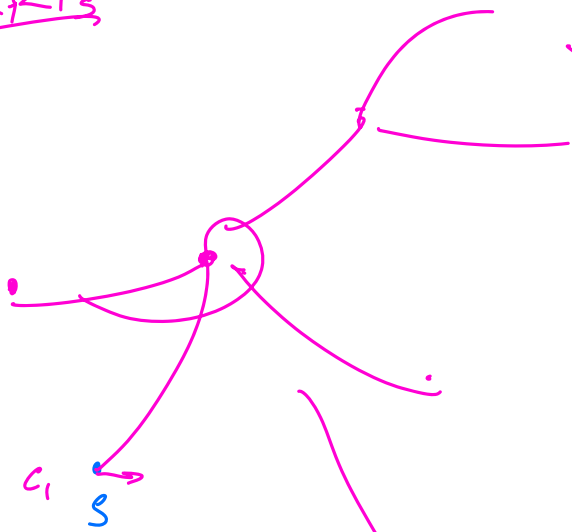


RRTs



Sample pts.
 $p \rightarrow$ sample goal
 $p \sim 0.2$

\rightarrow local plan (c_1, c_2)

for $u_1 \in \text{low} \rightarrow \text{high}$

for $u_2 \in \text{low} \rightarrow \text{high}$

Generate Plan \rightarrow Total Time T

Choose best plan for c_2

Use car dynamics
 to find all positions
 \downarrow
 Feed into Plan()
 object

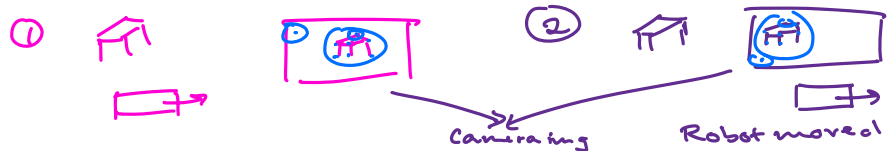
C106B Discussion 7: SLAM

1 Introduction to SLAM

SLAM, which stands for Simultaneous Localization and Mapping, allows a robot to determine its location and detect features in its environment using information from sensors, usually onboard. The algorithm performs repeated updates to correct for noise, improving estimates over time. Our state vector for the problem includes physical information about the robot itself (localization) along with feature positions (mapping).

While vision-based SLAM on slower systems and indoor environments is mostly a solved problem, more complex tasks, such as dealing with evolving conditions or having resource awareness, remain open challenges at the forefront of robotics research.

Current approaches toward SLAM can be broken down into 2 components: the **front end** and **back end**. The front end deals with processing the images or other sensor data, extracting the necessary points of interest. The back end uses this data, which is assumed to have some noise, to update estimates on robot and feature locations.



2 Front End

The front end processes data received from sensors, including the robot's camera, to feed to the back end. As a robot moves through a space, it takes multiple photographs. We have information about how the robot has moved thanks to sensors on its wheels, for example. We want to combine this with data on how features in the images taken have shifted in order to create a map of our environment.

Feature matching/correlation between 2 images comes in 3 steps: 1) feature extraction, 2) data association, and 3) outlier rejection. Many conventional computer vision algorithms perform these steps for you and have already been implemented.

2.1 Feature Extraction

Feature extraction identifies points of interest in an image. These points will be used to form connections between 2 images in later parts of the pipeline. On an individual picture, corner detectors usually work the best. They examine the pixels around a particular point and, based on their characteristics, might identify that point as a corner. The Harris Corner Detector is a popular one. These algorithms tend to find too many points; methods like Adaptive Non-Maximal Suppression help reduce the number of pixels we must examine.

2.2 Data Association and Outlier Rejection

Now that we have the points of interest in 2 images of our moving robot, we have to form connections between them. This is done by creating feature vectors describing each point and finding the vector in the other image that best matches the first. The ORB algorithm performs this function in both a scale- and rotation-invariant manner (this is important to make sure it won't matter if our robot turns or moves closer to a particular feature). The matches that ORB suggests aren't always great! That's why we reject outliers.

The two most well-known methods for this are RANSAC and the Mahalanobis distance test. RANSAC repeatedly estimates the fundamental matrix between two randomly chosen subsets of points that have been



Describes each pt. based on its surroundings

2) Look @ feature vecs. in 2 images
Find the most similar ones
Identify them as associations



$\approx 10,000$ iterations of random sampling
 \rightarrow Find # of "inliers"
 \rightarrow # of data associations that work w/ this transformation
 \rightarrow Highest # of inliers?

associated with one another and picks the one that best follows the epipolar constraint. (In other words, it estimates transformation matrices from one set of points to another and eliminates the ones that don't result in points being in the right place following the transformation.) The Mahalanobis distance test uses Gaussian assumptions to check if the new image features match the expected locations.

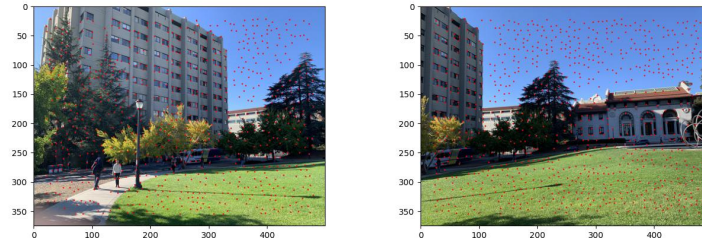


Figure 1: Harris Corners

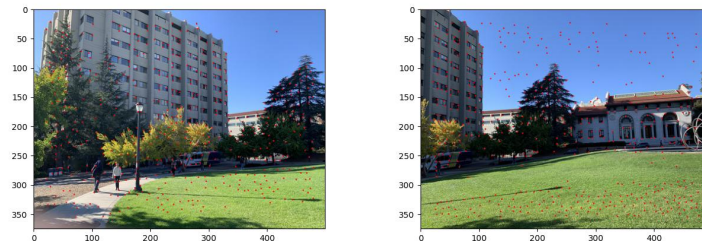


Figure 2: Adaptive Non-Maximal Suppression

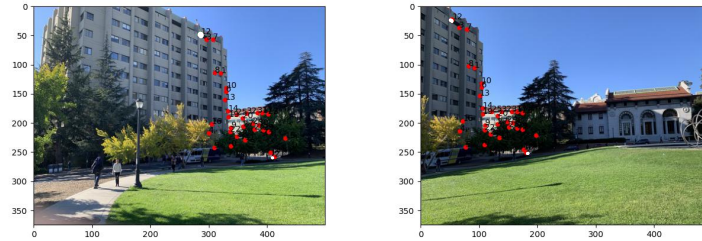


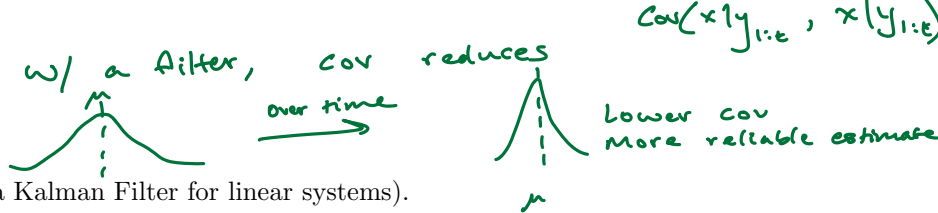
Figure 3: Matched Features with Outlier Rejection

Problem 1: RANSAC stands for Random Sampling and Consensus. Where does the sampling come from, and why is this better than simply performing a least-squares estimate?

\hookrightarrow Won't reject outliers
 Bias toward highest correct matches rather than reducing total error

3 Back End

Now that we have cleaned up our image data and matched the features in our old picture to our new one, it's time to actually perform the updates to the probability distributions of our current state! This is done



using an **Extended Kalman Filter** (or a Kalman Filter for linear systems).

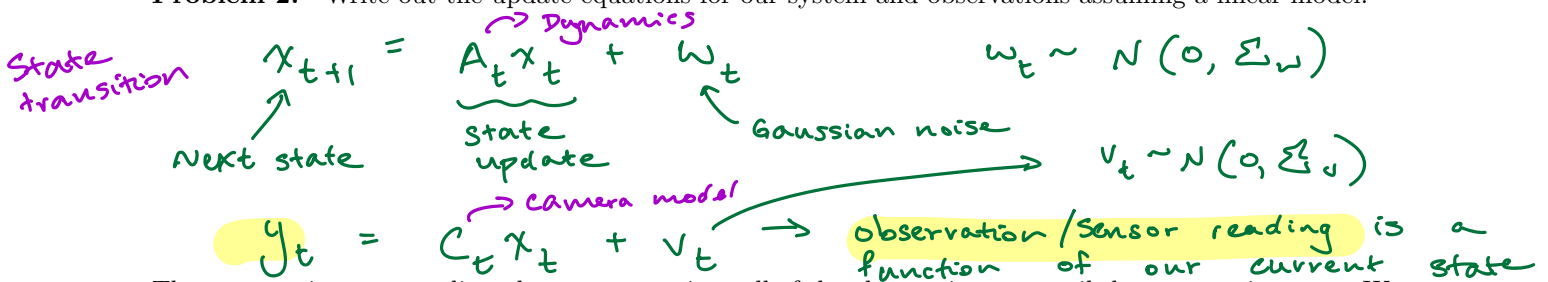
3.1 Kalman Filtering

Gaussian \rightarrow fully described by μ & σ

Remember how the observations of a Hidden Markov Model are used to update the estimates of the next state? A Kalman Filter works much the same way! We use the observations from our front end (where are the features we had identified in a previous step now located?) to figure out where our robot is now. We can predict where those features *should* be based on our movement and compare them to what we actually see.

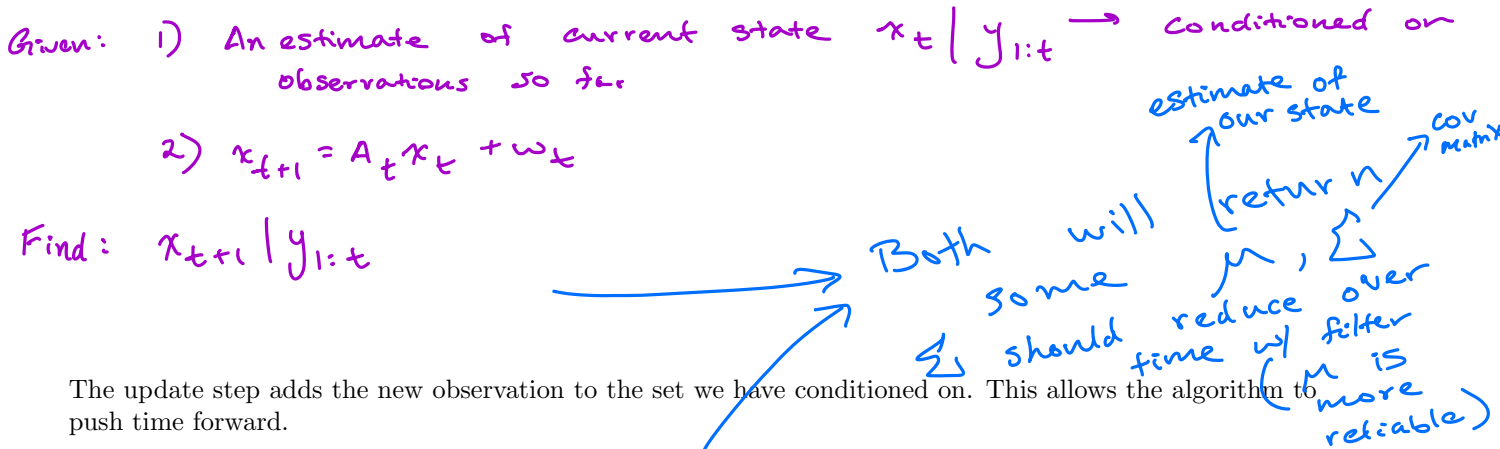
A Kalman Filter relies heavily on the idea of Gaussian noise. The error in our system measurements is predicted to be normally distributed with 0 mean and some estimated covariance matrix. Because of the 0-mean property, averaging out our predictions and observations over time should make estimates more reliable.

Problem 2: Write out the update equations for our system and observations assuming a linear model.



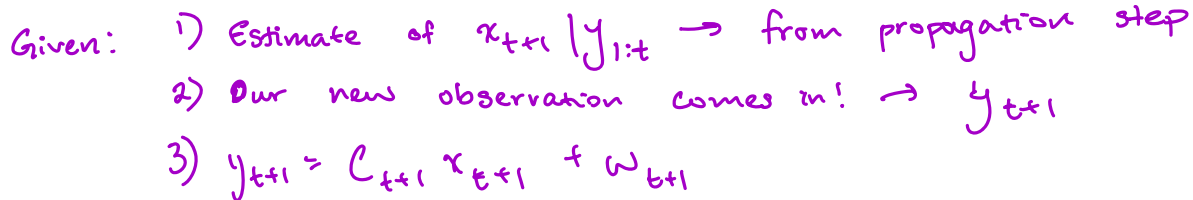
The propagation step predicts the next state given all of the observations up until the current time step. We also have access to the dynamics model.

Problem 3: Write out the equations for the propagation step.



The update step adds the new observation to the set we have conditioned on. This allows the algorithm to push time forward.

Problem 4: What is computed in the update step?



Find: $x_{t+1} | y_{1:t+1}$ \rightarrow estimate of our new state

3.2 Extended Kalman Filtering

The extended Kalman Filter allows us to work with nonlinear systems, like a bicycle model car. The means are updated using the nonlinear model, whereas the covariances use the Jacobian linearization of this model.

Problem 5: Write out the nonlinear system along with its Jacobian linearization. ↙ Jacobian linearization

$$x_{t+1} = g_t(x_t) + w_t \quad \approx \quad g_t(\mu_{t|t}) + G_t(x_t - \mu_{t|t}) + w_t$$

↖ Nonlinear

$$y_t = h(x_t) + v_t$$

↖ Nonlinear

$$\approx h_t(\mu_{t|t}) + H_t(x_t - \mu_{t|t}) + v_t$$

↘ Taylor Expansion for State propagation

↑ Noise

Problem 6: What does the propagation step look like?

$$\mu_{t+1|t} = g_t(\mu_{t|t})$$

$$\Sigma_{t+1|t} = G_t \Sigma_{t|t} G_t^T + \Sigma_w$$

3.3 EKF SLAM

When EKF SLAM is actually implemented, it happens in 3 steps to account for new features that may be added. These fit into the general framework for SLAM.

The first is the *cost construction* step. Any new features are added into the x vector.

The second is the *Gauss-Newton update* for efficient cost minimization. Based on our history of observations, the distribution for the location of existing features is updated.

Finally, in the *state propagation step*, we update our robot state to the next one. We marginalize out any information that becomes unnecessary to the problem. In EKF SLAM, this is all past poses (since we use only our estimate for the current pose to compute the next one).