

# SLAM AND MULTI-FEATURE MAP BY FUSING 3D LASER AND CAMERA DATA

Ayman Zureiki, Michel Devy and Raja Chatila

CNRS, LAAS, 7 avenue du Colonel Roche, F-31077 Toulouse, France

Université de Toulouse, UPS, INSA, INP, ISAE, LAAS-CNRS, F-31077 Toulouse, France

Keywords: Data Fusion, SLAM, Heterogeneous Maps.

Abstract: Indoor structured environments contain an important number of planar surfaces and line segments. Using these both features in a unique map gives a simplified way to represent man-made environments. Extracting planes and lines by a mobile robot requires more than one sensor: a 3D laser scanner and a camera can be a good equipment. The incremental construction of such a model is a Simultaneous Localisation And Mapping (SLAM) problem: while exploring the environment, the robot executes motions; from each position, it acquires sensory data, extracts perceptual features, and simultaneously, performs self-localisation and model update. First, the 3D range image is segmented into a set of planar faces which are used as landmarks. Next, we describe how to extract 2D line landmarks by fusing data from both sensors. Our stochastic map is of heterogeneous type and contains plane and 2D line landmarks. At first, The SLAM formalism is used to build a stochastic planar map, and results on the incremental construction of such a map are presented, further on, heterogeneous map will be constructed.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Simultaneous Localisation and Mapping is a fundamental technology for autonomous mobile robots. A robot needs a description of his environment. Maps are required for self-localisation, for motion planning, etc. In this article, we deal with the on line learning of such maps for a structured (man-made) environment supposed unknown.

Using the SLAM algorithm, the robot performs a complex process, including the execution of motions, the acquisition of sensory data, data association between these sensory data and the current world model, estimation of the robot pose using these associations and finally, the incremental construction of the map. It has to take into account many geometric constraints, and many sources of errors. Essentially, the robustness to achieve this task depends on the robot capabilities to extract pertinent information (called Landmarks) from sensory data coming from embedded sensors. The robot starts up from an initial position without any a priori knowledge about landmarks: by use of relative measurements on landmarks, the robot estimates its pose and poses of the landmarks in an absolute frame, generally selected as the initial pose of the robot. When moving, the robot updates the landmark map and exploits it to produce an estimate of its pose. The delivered map can be of

intuitive representation for humans or not. In the literature we can find three main types of maps. Topological, metric and hybrid maps. A *topological* map can be seen as an abstract representation describing relations between environment areas (typically, rooms or corridors). Such maps are well adapted for route planning, the selection of the best strategy for motions between areas. Their main drawback is the absence of geometric information. On the contrary, a *metric* map provides a (detailed) geometric representation of the environment; it gives explicit metric information (lengths, widths, positions, etc.), generally expressed with respect to a global reference frame. The third class is the *Atlas* which is a *Hybrid* metric/topological approach to SLAM capable to achieve efficient mapping of large-scale environments (Bosse et al., 2003).

SLAM has been an active research topic for more than twenty years; many works from Durrant-White, Tardos, Nebot, Dissanayake, Feder, Leonard, Newman, Rencken... aim to develop generic tools, based on the formalism of **stochastic maps** proposed by (Smith et al., 1990). The majority of these works have focused on the estimation methods required in order to maintain estimates of the robot pose and of landmark attributes in a consistent stochastic map. The extended Kalman Filter (EKF) was initially proposed as a mechanism that allows the incremental fusion of

information acquired by the robot; later, other methods have been exploited successfully (information filter, particle filter etc.), especially in the FastSLAM method, proposed by (Thrun et al., 1998). A well detailed state of the art can be found in (Durrant-Whyte and Bailey, 2006).

These approaches have been validated mainly by constructing 2D representations (2D segment maps etc.) of indoor environment from laser data acquired typically by SICK range finders. Recently, 3D SLAM draws attention. (Takezawa et al., 2004) describes a SLAM framework based on 3D landmarks. (Jung, 2004) constructs a 3D map from interest points in outer environment using stereo vision data; (Sola et al., 2005) builds such maps using only monocular vision. These sparse representations allow essentially the robot to locate itself. Our work is focused on the construction of surface model in indoor environment, where many planar surfaces (ceiling, floor, walls, doors etc.) can be used as landmarks. Our goal is to produce a geometric stochastic map made of 3D planar features. In the same area, let us cite the preliminary contribution of (Nashashibi and Devy, 1993), with an off line validation from a limited number of range images, and the works of (Thrun et al., 2000) based on the exploitation of two laser ranger finders to acquire measurements on horizontal and vertical planes and to produce a dense model of 3D points, from which a mesh can be constructed a posteriori. (Abuhadrous et al., 2004) developed a similar approach to model urban sites using GPS to localise the vehicle. Finally using only monocular vision, planes are extracted by using homographs and fused by a SLAM approach in (Silveira et al., 2006).

While the algorithm of SLAM is well known and studied, using new sensors and robust features extraction remains an open topic. Sensors' data fusion is an interesting approach to overcome the deficiency of each sensor and to obtain more sophisticated and accurate results. In this paper, we present a novel type of *Heterogeneous* multi-feature metric maps. Our map contains two types of features: 3D Planes and 2D lines attached to these planes. While planes are extracted from 3D point cloud issue from 3D laser scanner, the 2D lines are extracted by fusing data from the laser scanner with image data from a camera.

In the section 3 we give details about features extraction: planar features from range images, and 2D line segments from both laser and camera data. Then in section 4, we define our heterogeneous map which contains plane and 2D line landmarks. Next in section 5 we adapt the slam algorithm for both of used features. Finally in section 6, experimental results using our mobile robot (Jido) are discussed, before summa-

rising our contribution and presenting current works in section 7.

## 2 NOTATION

As we use many reference frames and two features, it is useful to summarise used notations. Let  $\mathbf{R}_{1,2}$  and  $\mathbf{t}_{1,2}$  be the rotation matrix and the translation vector from reference frame 1 to frame 2. For a 3D point represented by  $\mathbf{P}_1$  in the frame 1 and by  $\mathbf{P}_2$  in the frame 2, we have:

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = [x_1 \quad y_1 \quad z_1]^T \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{R}_{1,2} \mathbf{P}_2 + \mathbf{t}_{1,2} \quad (2)$$

### Used Frames.

- $\mathcal{R}_{sk}$  : SICK frame.
- $\mathcal{R}_c$  : camera frame.
- $\mathcal{R}_r$  : robot frame.
- $\mathcal{R}_w$  : global (world) frame.
- $\mathcal{R}_p$  : plane landmark local frame.

The transformations between these frames are given by the following matrices and vectors:

- $\mathbf{R}_{r,sk}$  and  $\mathbf{t}_{r,sk}$  : from robot to SICK frames.
- $\mathbf{R}_{r,c}$  and  $\mathbf{t}_{r,c}$  : from robot to camera frames.
- $\mathbf{R}_{w,r}$  and  $\mathbf{t}_{w,r}$  : from world to robot frames.
- $\mathbf{R}_{w,p}$  and  $\mathbf{t}_{w,p}$  : from world to plane landmark frames.

The robot pose is defined by  $(x_v, y_v, \theta_v)^T$  in the world frame.

## 3 FEATURES EXTRACTION

We detail in this section the extraction of used landmarks from sensory data.

### 3.1 Plane Extraction

3D laser scanner provides range images with thousands of 3D points. Segmenting the range image means how to divide it into features, i.e. how to bind each point with a label identifying to which feature it belongs, so that points of the same plane have all the same label. For a mobile robot, segmenting range images is a difficult topic, because the robot does not know a priori what is seen in the scene; moreover segmentation process must be robust in presence of

non-planar or non static objects and in spite of measurements' noises. The planar segmentation has been well studied in computer graphics in order to perform real-time rendering of complex models (Heckbert and Garland, 1997). A major difference exists between robotics and computer graphics. Data in robotics are issued from sensors and hence they are erroneous, while models in computer graphic are supposed to be without errors.

(Hähnel et al., 2003) proposed a simplification algorithm adapted to robotic context. They extract planes by using an approach of type *region-growing* by starting from an arbitrary point, then try to enlarge the region in all directions. (Weingarten, 2006) proposed some improvement to this algorithm by starting *region seed* from the most flat point in the cloud (minimum local error), and by profiting from the structure of the range image to simplify the research of neighbour points. Our approach is based on these two works, with some differences in the choice of plane's parameters and the method of their estimation.

### 3.1.1 Plane Equation

A plane can be represented by three parameters: the distance from the origin  $\rho$  and two angles. Let  $\varphi$  be the angle between the projection of the plane normal on the OXY plane and the axis  $\vec{OX}$ , and let  $\psi$  be the angle between the plane normal with the axis  $\vec{OZ}$ . The plane equation is then:

$$\cos \varphi \sin \psi x + \sin \varphi \sin \psi y + \cos \psi z + \rho = 0 \quad (3)$$

The vector  $(\rho \ \varphi \ \psi)^t$  will be used as the minimal parametric representation of a plane.

### 3.1.2 Estimation Process

Kalman Filter is a recursive estimator : to estimate the current state, only the previous state and the actual measurements are required. The observation history is not needed. In the Extended Kalman Filter (EKF), the dynamic and observation models could be non-linear functions. To estimate the parameters of a plane we use and EKF. We consider that each point belonging to a plane as an observation of this plane. We detail the estimation process in (Zureiki and Devy, 2008).

### 3.1.3 Choice of Plane Landmark Local Reference

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a plane landmark defined by its parameters  $(\rho_w, \varphi_w, \psi_w)$  in the global frame  $\mathcal{R}_w$ . We are looking for a orthonormal frame of this plane. We choose the projection of the origin  $O_w$  on the plane  $\mathcal{P}$  as an origin

$O_p$  of local frame, and the axis  $Z_p$  to be parallel to the normal vector  $\mathbf{n}$ . We need to choose the axis  $X_p$ . Let  $\vec{i}_w, \vec{j}_w, \vec{k}_w$  be the unit vectors of axes  $O_wX, O_wY, O_wZ$  respectively, and  $\vec{i}_p, \vec{j}_p, \vec{k}_p$  be unit vectors of wanted axes  $O_pX_p, O_pY_p, O_pZ_p$  respectively.

$$\vec{i}_p = [\sin \varphi_w \quad -\cos \varphi_w \quad 0]^T \quad (4)$$

This vector can be interpreted as the unit vector of direction of the intersection line between the plane  $\mathcal{P}$  and the plane  $Z = 0$  (if they are not parallel). The rotation matrix from global to the local references is:

$$\mathbf{R}_{w,p} = \begin{bmatrix} \sin \varphi_w & \cos \varphi_w \cos \psi_w & \cos \varphi_w \sin \psi_w \\ -\cos \varphi_w & \sin \varphi_w \cos \psi_w & \sin \varphi_w \sin \psi_w \\ 0 & -\sin \psi_w & \cos \psi_w \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

and the translation vector is:

$$\mathbf{t}_{w,p} = \rho_w \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi_w \sin \psi_w \\ \sin \varphi_w \sin \psi_w \\ \cos \psi_w \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

## 3.2 2D Line Landmark Extraction

By mean of a camera we extract 2D segments in the image. These segments can be interpreted as the projection of 3D Lines (or more generally Planes) onto the image plane. The first idea to come is to use the 3D Lines as a second type of landmarks in the stochastic map. To define a 3D line we need to define two planes. Using the camera, we can obtain one of them, so we need to use the 3D laser to define the other plane. By fusing the data of both sensors we can extract 3D lines in the scene. For representation reasons, we will consider the 3D line as 2D line attached to a holding plane. The holding plane is define by the laser data (as describe in 3.1). This representation seems reasonable, because the 3D line may be either a corner (intersection of two planes) or the borders of a poster fixed on a wall for example, and in both cases a 2D line in the local plane frame is sufficient to totally define it. As a result, we need to add to the map only the parameters defining a 2D line in the plane landmark frame. Therefore, the second type of Landmarks for us is a **2D Line attached to a Plane Landmark**.

### 3.2.1 Advantages of Data Fusion

Data fusion is the technique of combining data from multiple sensors or information from different sources to achieve more specific inferences than could be

reached by using a single independent sensor. Fused data provide several advantages over single sensor data (Hall and Llinas, 2001). First, if several identical sensors are used, combining the observations will result in an improved estimate of the observed quantity. A statistical advantage is gained by adding  $N$  independent observations. The same result could be obtained also by combining  $N$  observations from an individual sensor. A second advantage involves using the relative placement of multiple sensors to improve the observation process. For example, two sensors (camera) that observe the same object can coordinate to determine the 3D position of the object by triangulation (stereo vision). A third advantage of using multiple sensors is improved observability. For a robot equipped by a 3D laser scanner and a camera, the laser scanner can accurately determine the range of an obstacle (wall for example), camera can determine the visual properties of the obstacle but can not determine its range. By using the camera we can recognise whether the robot is in front of a wall or a closed door. If these two observations are correctly associated, the combination of the two sensors provides a better localisation than could be obtained by either of the two independent sensors.

In our work, we use the 3D laser scanner to extract planes from the 3D range images. A camera is used to extract 2D lines in images. By combining the camera-laser data, we define a new landmark as : 2D line attached to a 3D plane landmark. This 2D line landmark could be seen as graduations on a ruler, while the ruler defines the plane in the 3D space, the graduations on it define more information with respect to the ruler plane. So with these two landmarks, a robot can be localised with respect to a plane and with respect to the graduations (2D line landmarks) on this plane. The importance of such landmarks can be more illustrated in a long corridor formed with two walls (and eventually with closed doors). Using only plane landmarks will lead to only two parallel planes. Using a camera to extract 2D lines in the image (may be borders of a poster fixed on the wall, or the borders of a door), and fusion laser-camera data will provide a 2D line fixed on the wall in a precise position. The robot will be localised with respect to both plane and line: the plane will help to find latitude information, while the 2D line will add longitude information.

### 3.2.2 2D Line Extraction in Images

We use a traditional method of line extraction in images. It begins by a Canny filter to extract the contour, then we use a polygonal approximation to estimate the line passing through adjacent contour points. A phase of post processing is necessary to merge simi-

lar segments and to remove very small ones.

### 3.2.3 Interpretation Plane

For a line segment  $l_I$  in the image, the associated *Interpretation plane* is the plane passing through this 2D line and the centre of projection (viewpoint) of the camera. The normal vector of this plane can be calculated only based on intrinsic parameters of the camera  $(\alpha_u, \alpha_v, u_0, v_0)$  and the data image of the segment. In fact, let  $(\delta_I, \gamma_I)$  be the 2D line parameters of the infinite line holding the 2D segment  $l_I$ , where  $\gamma_I$  is the angle with the axis  $u$  and  $\delta_I$  is the distance from the origin. The 2D line equation is in the image reference frame:

$$\cos \gamma_I u + \sin \gamma_I v - \delta_I = 0 \quad (7)$$

Then using camera coordinates:

$$\cos \gamma_I \left( \alpha_u \frac{x_c}{z_c} + u_0 \right) + \sin \gamma_I \left( \alpha_v \frac{y_c}{z_c} + v_0 \right) - \delta_I = 0 \quad (8)$$

we obtain:

$$\alpha_u \cos \gamma_I x_c + \alpha_v \sin \gamma_I y_c + (-\delta_I + u_0 \cos \gamma_I + v_0 \sin \gamma_I) z_c = 0 \quad (9)$$

The normal vector in the camera reference frame is given by:

$$\mathbf{n}_c = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_u \cos \gamma_I \\ \alpha_v \sin \gamma_I \\ -\delta_I + u_0 \cos \gamma_I + v_0 \sin \gamma_I \end{bmatrix} \quad (10)$$

and the distance to the origin in camera frame  $d_c = 0$ .

The interpretation plane in the robot, world, plane landmark frames is noted respectively by:  $(\mathbf{n}_r, d_r)$ ,  $(\mathbf{n}_w, d_w)$  and  $(\mathbf{n}_p, d_p)$ . We note also:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{n}_c &= [n_{c,x} \ n_{c,y} \ n_{c,z}]^T \\ \mathbf{n}_r &= [n_{r,x} \ n_{r,y} \ n_{r,z}]^T \\ \mathbf{n}_w &= [n_{w,x} \ n_{w,y} \ n_{w,z}]^T \\ \mathbf{n}_p &= [n_{p,x} \ n_{p,y} \ n_{p,z}]^T \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

### 3.2.4 The 2D Line in the Plane Landmark Frame

The interpretation plane in the plane landmark frame is given by:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{n}_p &= \mathbf{R}_{w,p}^T \mathbf{R}_{w,r} \mathbf{R}_{r,c} \mathbf{n}_c \\ d_p &= d_c - \mathbf{t}_{r,c}^T \mathbf{R}_{r,c} \mathbf{n}_c - \mathbf{t}_{w,r}^T \mathbf{R}_{w,r} \mathbf{R}_{r,c} \mathbf{n}_c \\ &+ \mathbf{t}_{w,p}^T \mathbf{R}_{w,r} \mathbf{R}_{r,c} \mathbf{n}_c \end{cases} \quad (12)$$



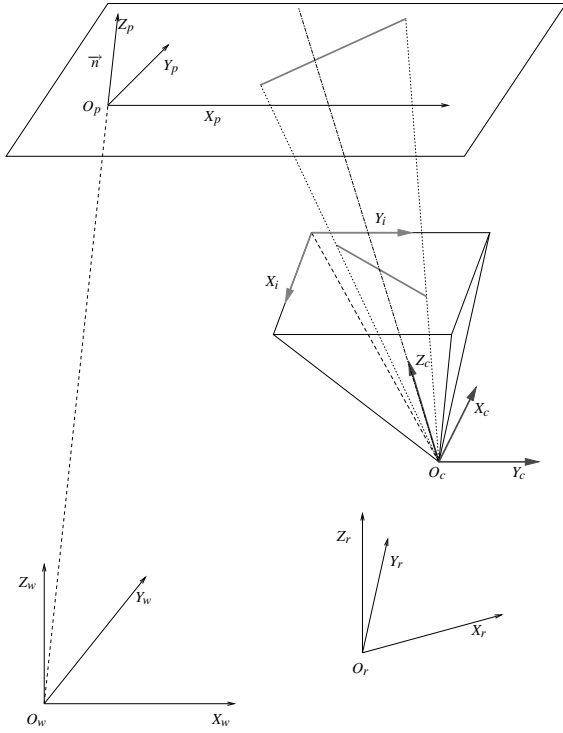


Figure 1: A 2D Segment in image and its corresponding 2D Line Landmark attached to the Plane Landmark.

Hence, we obtain the normal vector and the distance from the origin ( $\mathbf{n}_p, d_p$ ) of the interpretation plan in the plane landmark frame. The 3D line of the intersection between the interpretation plane with the plane  $z_p = 0$  can be seen as 2D line in the plane  $O_p X_p Y_p$ , therefore, the 2D line landmark equation in the plane landmark frame is:

$$n_{x,p} x_p + n_{y,p} y_p + d_p = 0 \quad (13)$$

## 4 THE STOCHASTIC MAP

Indoor environment can be considered (in a simplified way) as a set of planar surfaces which we choose as landmarks for the SLAM algorithm. Attached to these plane surfaces we consider another type of landmarks: the 2D lines.

The SLAM algorithm maintains a representation of both the environment state and the robot state. During the robot displacement, it uses its sensors to observe the surrounding landmarks. The system state at time  $k$ ,  $\mathbf{X}(k)$ , is composed of the robot state  $\mathbf{X}_v$ , and of  $n_f$  vectors describing the observed landmarks,  $\mathbf{X}_i(k)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_f$ .

$$\mathbf{X}(k) = [\mathbf{X}_v^W \quad \mathbf{X}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{X}_{n_f}]^T \quad (14)$$

where  $\mathbf{X}_i$  is the state of a landmark  $i$  either in the global frame  $\mathcal{R}_W$  if it is a plane landmark or in holding plane frame if it is a 2D line landmark. We can rearrange the system state vector so that we group the states of landmarks in one term  $\mathbf{X}_m(k)$ :

$$\mathbf{X}(k) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_v^W \\ \mathbf{X}_m^W \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

The robot state at time  $k$  can be determined by its position and orientation in the space. The robot state vector is defined by:  $\mathbf{X}_v(k) = [x_v(k), y_v(k), \theta_v(k)]^T$ . Each planar surface (wall, ceiling, floor etc.), is considered as an infinite plane defined by three parameters  $\mathbf{X}_{\pi,j}(k) = [\rho_j(k), \phi_j(k), \psi_j(k)]^T$ . Each 2D Segment is considered as an infinite line in the holding plane landmark and is defined by means of two parameters  $\mathbf{X}_{L,i}(k) = [\delta_i(k), \gamma_i(k)]^T$ . Of course, a plane landmark can contain many 2D line landmarks, but a 2D line landmark can not exist alone without a holding plane landmark. Our stochastic map is then an heterogeneous map, as it has two types of landmarks.

## 5 THE SLAM ALGORITHM

We detail the main steps in the SLAM algorithm adapted to the used landmarks.

### 5.1 Prediction

The prediction phase of the extended Kalman filter uses the dynamic model of the robot to produce an estimate of the robot motion  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_v(k|k-1)$ , at time  $k$  knowing all the information until time  $k-1$ , and the control input  $u(k)$ :

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}}_v(k|k-1) = f(\hat{\mathbf{X}}_v(k-1|k-1), u(k)) \quad (16)$$

We can write the prediction phase of the filter as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{X}}_v(k|k-1) \\ \hat{\mathbf{X}}_m(k|k-1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f(\hat{\mathbf{X}}_v(k-1|k-1), u(k)) \\ \hat{\mathbf{X}}_m(k-1|k-1) \end{bmatrix} \quad (17)$$

The covariance matrix must propagate through the robot model in this phase. The extended Kalman filter linearise the propagation of the uncertainty around the current estimate  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}(k-1|k-1)$  by using the Jacobean  $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} f(k)$  of  $f$  at  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}(k-1|k-1)$ .  $\mathbf{Q}(k)$  is the covariance of the error.

$$\mathbf{P}(k|k-1) = \nabla_{\mathbf{X}} f(k) \mathbf{P}(k-1|k-1) \nabla_{\mathbf{X}} f^T(k) + \mathbf{Q}(k) \quad (18)$$

For the SLAM algorithm, this phase can be simplified thanks to the hypothesis that the landmarks are fix. This let us reduce the calculation complexity of the prediction covariance to only the calculation of covariance of robot pose and cross-covariance between the robot and the map (Williams, 2001).

## 5.2 Observation of 3D Plane Landmarks

For plane landmarks, the innovation function is:

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{Z}(k) - \hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1) \quad (19)$$

where:

- $\mathbf{Z}(k)$  : the current measurement, i.e. the extracted planes from the 3D range image in the robot frame, with a covariance matrix  $\mathbf{R}(k)$ .
- $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1)$  : estimation of measurement, i.e. how the plane landmarks in the stochastic map are positioned with respect to the current robot pose in robot frame. Hence the measurement estimation is a function of the predicted state of the system:

$$\hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1) = h(\hat{\mathbf{X}}(k|k-1)) \quad (20)$$

**Measurement Estimation.** In the case of plane/plane fusion: Let  $(\rho_w, \varphi_w, \psi_w)$  and  $(\rho_r, \varphi_r, \psi_r)$  be the parameters of a plane in the global and robot frame respectively. For a robot moving on horizontal floor, the relation between a plane parameters in the global and robot frame is:

$$\begin{cases} \rho_r &= \rho_w - \cos \varphi_w \sin \psi_w x_v \\ &\quad - \sin \varphi_w \sin \psi_w y_v \\ \varphi_r &= \varphi_w - \theta_v \\ \psi_r &= \psi_w \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

Then, the observation prediction of a plane landmark relatively to the robot frame:

$$\hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1) = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\rho}_r(k|k-1) \\ \hat{\varphi}_r(k|k-1) \\ \hat{\psi}_r(k|k-1) \end{bmatrix} \quad (22)$$

## 5.3 Observation of 2D Line Landmarks

The procedure of updating the stochastic map is the following: First we update the plane landmarks using only the 3D laser data. Then, we update the 2D line landmarks on each plane.

**Innovation Function.** With 2D line landmarks attached to plane landmarks, the innovation function is written:

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{Z}(k) - \hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1) \quad (23)$$

where:

- $\mathbf{Z}(k)$  : the current measurement of the 2D line landmark attached to a plane. In reality, we obtain this measurement by fusing 3D laser and camera data. Hence the current measurement is a function of the system state. This measurement is in plane landmark local frame.

$$\mathbf{Z}(k) = h(\hat{\mathbf{X}}(k|k-1), \text{Image}) \quad (24)$$

- $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1)$  : estimation of measurement, i.e. how the 2D line landmarks attached to a plane landmark are positioned in the local plane frame. In fact, the 2D line landmarks are fix with respect to the plane holding them

$$\hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k|k-1) = \hat{\mathbf{Z}}(k-1|k-1) \quad (25)$$

**Innovation Covariance Matrix.**

$$\mathbf{S}(k) = \mathbf{P}_{ii}(k|k-1) + \mathbf{R}(k) \quad (26)$$

where  $\mathbf{P}_{ii}(k|k-1)$  is the covariance matrix of the 2D line landmark  $i$ , and  $\mathbf{R}(k)$  is the covariance matrix of the current measurement. See the previous note, we write:

$$\mathbf{Z}(k) = h(\hat{\mathbf{X}}_v(k|k-1), \hat{\mathbf{X}}_j(k|k-1), \mathbf{X}_I(k)) \quad (27)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_j(k|k-1)$  is the predicted state of holding plane landmark, and  $\mathbf{X}_I(k)$  is the camera data (image 2D line parameters) with a covariance matrix  $\Lambda_I$ .

With  $\nabla_v h$ ,  $\nabla_j h$  and  $\nabla_I h$  are the Jacobians of the function  $h$  with respect to the robot, plane landmark  $j$  and 2D line in Image  $I$  respectively, we have:

$$\mathbf{R}(k) = \begin{aligned} &\nabla_v h \mathbf{P}_{vv} \nabla_v h^T + \nabla_v h \mathbf{P}_{vj} \nabla_j h^T \\ &+ \nabla_j h \mathbf{P}_{jj} \nabla_j h^T + \nabla_j h \mathbf{P}_{vj}^T \nabla_v h^T \\ &+ \nabla_I h \Lambda_I \nabla_I h^T \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

In this last equation, we identify clearly the role of camera data which are not correlated to laser data. This allows us to justify our choice for 2D Line Landmarks attached to plane landmark. In spite of the intuitive idea that the 2D line landmark will be correlated to the plane landmark holding it, a part of data (camera data) defining the 2D line is not correlated with the data defining the holding plane. This proves that the two landmarks are not correlated.

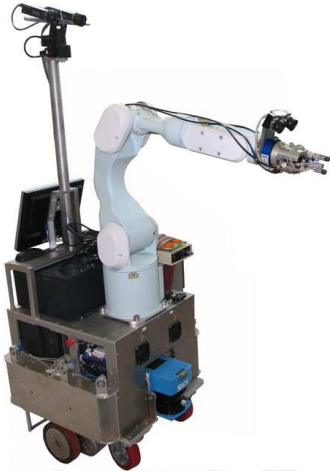


Figure 2: The mobile robot Jido.

## 5.4 Update

Once an observation is associated to a landmark in the map, the estimate of system state can be updated using the gain matrix  $\mathbf{W}(k)$ . The gain matrix provides a weighted sum of the prediction and observation, and is calculated based on the innovation covariance matrix  $\mathbf{S}(k)$ , and the prediction of covariance matrix,  $\mathbf{P}(k|k-1)$ . The weighting factor is proportional to  $\mathbf{P}(k|k-1)$  and inversely proportional to innovation covariance (Smith et al., 1990). This can be used to update the system state vector  $\hat{\mathbf{X}}(k|k)$  and its covariance matrix  $\mathbf{P}(k|k)$ .

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}}(k|k) = \hat{\mathbf{X}}(k|k-1) + \mathbf{W}(k)\mathbf{v}(k) \quad (29)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(k|k) = \mathbf{P}(k|k-1) - \mathbf{W}(k)\mathbf{S}(k)\mathbf{W}^T(k) \quad (30)$$

where

$$\mathbf{W}(k) = \mathbf{P}(k|k-1)\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}h^T\mathbf{S}^{-1}(k) \quad (31)$$

## 6 IMPLEMENTATION AND RESULTS

We used in the experiments our robot JIDO (figure 2). It has (among other sensors) a SICK LMS-200 Range finder fixed on a rotating axis installed ahead, a stereo rig on a pan/tilt.

The 3D scanner laser has an angular resolution of  $0.5^\circ$ , with a field of view of  $180^\circ$  which gives 361 points per scan. For the rotation of scanner around the horizontal axis, we choose to make steps of 0.01 Rad ( $\approx 0.57^\circ$ ) and to rotate the scanner between  $-0.3$  Rad ( $\approx -17^\circ$ ) and  $1.4$  Rad ( $\approx 80^\circ$ ), which



Figure 3: Experimental Results.

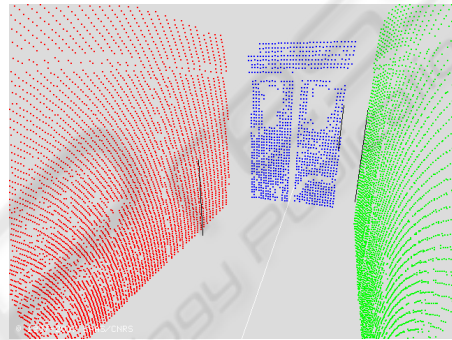


Figure 4: Plane Landmarks and some 2D Line Landmarks attached to them.

includes 171 scans. The produced range image is composed of  $171 * 361 = 61731$  points. The left camera of the stereo rig is used to acquire images.

The robot did a tour in our laboratory, it moves and halts, takes measurements, then it advances again. It has made a tour in a corridor and did a half turn to return to the point of departure, making in all 12 displacements. We implement a classical EKF SLAM algorithm. The incremental construction of the map of the corridor is illustrated (partially) in the figure 3, where we choose to print only the points belonging to each planar facet in the stochastic map. The points of each plane are assembled from the successive fused planes' points. The texture was mapped onto the planes using a homography transformation from initial image and a virtual image placed on the plane.

Figure 4 represent an image with the extracted 2D line segments, and figure 5 represents 3D planes extracted from laser scanner and on which are attached to some 2D line landmarks coming from the fusion algorithm explained in this article. For now only plane landmarks are added to the stochastic map, the addition of 2D line landmarks is under construction.



Figure 5: Image with the extracted 2D line Segments.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

This paper has described an heterogeneous 3D stochastic map building using a SLAM method. The map has 3D plane landmarks and 2D line landmarks. Features extraction is detailed with the emphasis on the fusion of laser and camera data to obtain 2D line landmarks. Preliminary results on 2D line landmarks was presented, as well as a map reconstructed only with planar landmarks. The current work is to achieve the building of the heterogeneous map.

Adding 2D lines to planes has two major benefits: make the map more rich for navigation, and at the same time enforce the phase of data association of plane landmarks.

Due to the acquisition time using the laser scanner sensor, the robot must stop during the scanning: the same method will be applied with continuous acquisition made from a PMD sensor (Swiss Ranger from the CSEM company) mounted on the mast of our robot.

## REFERENCES

- Abuhadrous, I., Ammoun, S., Nashashibi, F., Goulette, F., and Laugeau, C. (2004). Digitizing and 3d modelling of urban environments using vehicle-borne laser scanner system. In *Proc. IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS)*.
- Bosse, M., Newman, P., Leonard, J., Soika, M., Feiten, W., and Teller, S. (2003). An atlas framework for scalable mapping. In *International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA03)*, pages 1899–1906.
- Durrant-Whyte, H. and Bailey, T. (2006). Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM): Part I & II. *IEEE Robotics & Automation Magazine*.
- Hähnel, D., Burgard, W., and Thrun, S. (2003). Learning compact 3d models of indoor and outdoor environments with a mobile robot. *Robotics and Autonomous Systems*.
- Hall, D. L. and Llinas, J., editors (2001). *Handbook of Multisensor Data Fusion*. CRC Press LLC.
- Heckbert, P. S. and Garland, M. (1997). Survey of polygonal surface simplification algorithms. Technical report, Carnegie-Mellon Univ.
- Jung, I. K. (2004). *Simultaneous localization and mapping in 3D environments with stereovision*. PhD thesis, Institut National Polytechnique de Toulouse, France.
- Nashashibi, F. and Devy, M. (1993). 3d incremental modeling and robot localization in a structured environment using a laser range finder. In *Proc. IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*.
- Silveira, G., Malis, E., and Rives, P. (2006). Real-time robust detection of planar regions in a pair of images. In *Proc. IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots Systems, Beijing, China*.
- Smith, R., Self, M., and Cheeseman, P. (1990). Estimating uncertain spatial relationships in robotics. *Autonomous robot vehicles*, pages 167–193.
- Sola, J., Monin, A., Devy, M., and Lemaire, T. (2005). Undelayed initialization in bearing only slam. In *Proc. IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robot and Systems (IROS)*, pages 2751–2756.
- Takezawa, A., Herath, D. C., and Dissanayake, G. (2004). Slam in indoor environments with stereo vision. In *Proceedings of 2004 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems*.
- Thrun, S., Burgard, W., and Fox, D. (1998). A probabilistic approach to concurrent mapping and localization for mobile robots. *Machine Learning*, 31(1-3):29–53.
- Thrun, S., Fox, D., and Burgard, W. (2000). A real-time algorithm for mobile robot mapping with application to multi robot and 3d mapping. In *Proc. IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*.
- Weingarten, J. (2006). *Feature-based 3D SLAM*. PhD thesis, École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne.
- Williams, S. (2001). *Efficient Solutions to Autonomous Mapping and Navigation Problems*. PhD thesis, The University of Sydney.
- Zureiki, A. and Devy, M. (2008). Slam and data fusion from visual landmarks and 3d planes. In *Proc. the 17th IFAC World Congress*.