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Editors

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Preface

The present book includes extended and revised versions of a set of selected papers from the 20th International Conference on Informatics in Control, Automation and Robotics (ICINCO 2023), held in Rome, Italy, from 13 to 15 November 2023.

The purpose of ICINCO is to bring together researchers, engineers and practitioners interested in the application of informatics to Control, Automation and Robotics. Four tracks covered Intelligent Control Systems, Optimization, Robotics, Automation, Signal Processing, Sensors, Systems Modelling and Control, and Industrial Informatics. Informatics applications are pervasive in many areas of Control, Automation and Robotics; this conference intends to emphasize this connection.

ICINCO 2023 received 180 paper submissions from 47 countries, of which 10% were included in this book.

The papers were selected by the event chairs and their selection was based on a number of criteria that included the classifications and comments provided by the program committee members, the session chairs' assessment and also the program chairs' global view of all papers included in the technical program. The authors of selected papers were then invited to submit revised and extended versions of their papers having at least 30% innovative material.

This collection of papers provides valuable insights into the latest breakthroughs in Informatics applied to Control, Automation and Robotics. The papers address a wide range of trends and challenges, showcasing advancements in areas like: System Modelling and Optimization, Robot Path Planning and Motion Control, Control Systems, Navigation and sensing, Autonomous Agents, and Engineering Applications to Autonomous Ground and Underwater Vehicles, Process Control, Resource Allocation, and others.

We would like to thank all the authors for their contributions and also the reviewers who have helped ensuring the quality of this publication.

Milan, Italy
Eindhoven, The Netherlands
Dearborn, USA
November 2023

Giuseppina Gini
Henk Nijmeijer
Dimitar Filev

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Intelligent Control Systems and Optimization

Sparse Convolutional 3D Neural Networks for the Assessment of Environment Traversability



Antonio Santo[✉], Arturo Gil[✉], David Valiente[✉], Álvaro Martínez[✉],
and Enrique Heredia[✉]

Abstract Ensuring accurate assessment of the surrounding environment is crucial for the efficient operation of autonomous mobile robots, especially when faced with the complexities of unfamiliar and natural terrain that lacks a predefined structure. In this context, traversability assessment is presented as a fundamental component of the autonomous navigation. This research introduces a systematic methodology that employs a LiDAR sensor to capture detailed 3D point clouds, thus facilitating the analysis of traversability regions on both conventional roads and natural scenarios. The proposed approach integrates a well-structured sparse encoder-decoder configuration with rotation invariant features. This configuration is meticulously designed to replicate the input data by associating the acquired traversability features to each individual point in the 3D point cloud. Experimental results confirm the robustness and effectiveness of our method, especially in outdoor environments. Notably, our approach outperforms existing methodologies, making a significant contribution to the ongoing progress in the field of autonomous robotic navigation.

Keywords Autonomous mobile robots · Artificial intelligence · Neural networks

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1 Introduction

The answer to the question “Where should I walk?”, as stated in [36], implicitly includes a global understanding of the robot’s environment. This concept, which is considered a natural ability for humans, should be extended to autonomous mobile robots. The application of this innate understanding will greatly enhance the capabilities of autonomous mobile robots and enable them to operate successfully in a wide range of applications, such as exploration of unfamiliar environments, autonomous driving, and search and rescue missions.

While traversability estimation has been recognised as a crucial capability for mobile robots, their historical focus has been simply on the task of obstacle avoidance. In this context, the robot’s primary goal is to avoid any physical contact with its environment and to navigate exclusively in open spaces, taking measurements from proximity sensors. This emphasis on traversability estimation made it a *sine qua non* of a successful path planner.

To date, path planning algorithms have been classified according to two main principles: (a) the definition and representation of spatial information; (b) the delimitation of traversable regions on the map. Regarding the former, various spatial representations have emerged, such as 2D occupancy maps [20], elevation maps (DEMs) [18] and voxel-based 3D occupancy maps [11, 13, 21]. In these representations, the determination of whether a particular space is free or occupied is made by a probabilistic value, which affords the efficient navigation of these spaces by a robotic entity, taking into account the inherent physical parameters of the robotic system.

Nevertheless, the classical approaches mentioned earlier exhibit limited robustness when applied across diverse environmental contexts [39], since the definition of self-driving relies on the specific properties of each environment. In structured environments, the geometries constituting traversable spaces are typically characterized by homogeneity and uniformity. In contrast, in natural environments, this concept becomes inherently more tricky due to the absence of human supervision.

The combination of various factors, along with the advancement of sensors in terms of cost, resolution, and weight, is leading to reconsideration of how we assess traversability. With the rise of supervised learning in recent years, there’s a growing shift towards applying this new approach to estimate traversability. Specifically, using neural networks alongside LiDAR sensors has gained popularity because LiDAR is not affected by different lighting conditions, unlike others optical sensors such as cameras.

This paper introduces a novel contribution to traversability estimation in complex terrains through the application of deep learning techniques, specifically segmentation methods of scenes described by 3D point clouds. The subsequent sections are structured as follows: Section 2 provides a brief overview of significant approaches in the realm of Deep Learning for traversability estimation. Moving forward, Sect. 3 elaborates on the fundamental concepts that form the basis of our proposed method, providing a detailed explanation. The paper then proceeds, in Sect. 4, to present a

various experimental results covering different types of environments used during the training process. Finally, in Sect. 5, the main conclusions drawn from this innovative approach are summarized.

2 Related Work

By its own fuzzy definition, the estimation of traversability has been approached from different perspectives over the years; from the study of road characteristics [29], to the philosophical and psychological study of what it means to be able to traverse a space [30]. However, the most common context in which this concept has a strong influence is autonomous driving.

In this context, research on traversability estimation methods involves both algorithms commonly employed in the conventional machine learning (ML) domain and more current procedures such as neural networks.

In conventional ML, algorithms typically operate on alternative data representations, emphasizing features identified as discriminative for the specific problem. Thus, [2] employ stereo image pairs as input data to perform a traversability study in challenging environments by extracting geometric and appearance-based features and then classifying them using an SVM algorithm defined in [32], concluding that features including normal vectors are the most suitable for the task. In [16] the authors propose the distinction of three classes, soil, vegetation or object, by means of the extraction of discriminant features based on points and their neighborhoods, since the information provided by an isolated point is not sufficiently reliable to draw conclusions. The proposal incorporates an adaptive neighborhood radius to address the inherent challenge of point density loss relative to the distance from the sensor, a common property of LiDAR sensors. This adaptive approach ensures that high resolutions are maintained at shorter distances, while simultaneously mitigating the impact of noisy features at longer distances. Furthering this same concept of preventing the effect of data sparsity, in [28], given a sampled 3D point cloud, authors represent the environment as a 2.5D elevation map and employ Bayesian Generalized Kernel Inference defined by [33] to obtain a dense elevation map and subsequently perform the classification of the terrain into traversable and non-traversable. In [19], the authors introduced the Random Forest classifier optimized by a genetic algorithm for the classification of ground types. This approach succeeds in establishing a set of optimal initial parameters by applying the methodology used in genetic algorithms, thus solving the traditional problem of Random Forest classifiers.

In recent years, driven by recent technological advances that facilitate their training and deployment in real-world applications, deep learning techniques appear as a possible candidate to solve this task. The study of three-dimensional spaces, defined by unstructured data such as LiDAR point clouds or images, which often involve nonlinear relationships between variables, is processed by this type of algorithms. Neural networks intrinsically outperform conventional methods in modeling these nonlinear associations and in their ability to learn complex patterns [9, 17].

In particular, LiDAR sensors, which output the spatial coordinates of a set of 3D points representing the first reflection produced by objects illuminated with a collimated laser beam, have promoted the development of efficient approaches for handling three-dimensional data. In [34], for example, point clouds undergo transformation into multichannel images that capture the depth, height, and reflectivity of each point. These images are then processed through dense convolutional layers to discern traversable areas. Another strategy, as proposed [24], involves spherical projections of point clouds, followed by the application of 2D convolutional layers for semantic segmentation.

In contrast, in [35] is introduced a different solution employing octal trees, or *octrees*, to reduce the complexity of the space described by point clouds. This method restricts dense convolution operations to occupied octrees, speeding up computational demands. In [6] is extended this concept by computing space traversability using a convolution operation generalization to n -dimensions and incorporating a sparse encoder-decoder setup [4].

In addition, methods have emerged that combine information from various sensors. In [31] authors take a sequence of RGB images and depth images to predict a local traversability map. The depth information is fed directly into the latent space of the neural network after processing the image sequence and fused with the descriptors in subsequent convolutional blocks, creating a map.

Some other methods have also been developed that combine LiDAR information with image data. The authors of [10] propose a road detection method by merging color information from a camera with range information obtained via LiDAR. This involves projecting point clouds onto corresponding images, which then feed into a 2D convolutional neural network. In [5], authors fuse features extracted from both data types using different neural network architectures. In [3] is suggested a progressive adaptation of LiDAR representation to enhance compatibility with visual information from cameras. This transformation involves converting the point cloud into an alternative representation, emphasizing the distinguishability of roads. So far, all the aforementioned works that fused data from different sensors evaluate traversability in the two-dimensional domain. However, works such as [22], relies on 2D convolutional networks to predict the labels in the image, but carry out the reconversion to the point cloud, performing the relevant reprojection of these labels inferred in the image.

3 Proposed Approach

3.1 Sparse Convolution

Sparse convolution, a fundamental technique in deep learning, has emerged as a valuable approach to optimize computational efficiency in the analysis of sparse data, particularly frequent in three-dimensional environments such as LiDAR point clouds. Unlike traditional dense convolution operations, which consider each input

pixel, sparse convolution strategically exploits the sparsity inherent in the data. This is achieved by employing sparse filters or processing only non-zero input values, which substantially reduces the computational burden. By focusing only on relevant features, sparse convolution improves the scalability and efficiency of convolutional neural networks (CNNs) in scenarios where computational resources are a critical consideration.

This is especially advantageous in applications such as robotics or autonomous systems, where the input data often contains sparse spatial information. The increased efficiency of sparse convolution not only speeds up model training and inference, but also makes it suitable for resource-constrained environments, a compelling advance in the field of deep learning methodologies tailored to sparse data representations.

In this way, the application of such a discrete operation on any point cloud, B , must be defined in the following way:

- **Coordinates Tensor.** This is a data element consisting of the coordinates of the points that belong to any point cloud $B = \{(\mathbf{p}_i, \mathbf{f}_i, l_i), i = 1, \dots, N\}$. This expression incorporates an integer part function for space discretization. The points are modified according to a scaling factor, v , that determines the level of space discretization. Furthermore, it also incorporates the position of the point clouds within the batch, b_i , in order to know what point corresponds to which cloud. As a result, the tensor $\mathbf{T}_C$ is formally defined as:

$$\mathbf{T}_C = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & \bar{p}_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ b_N & \bar{p}_M \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{with } \bar{p}_j = \text{floor}(\mathbf{p}_i) = \text{floor}\left(\frac{x_i}{v}, \frac{y_i}{v}, \frac{z_i}{v}\right)$$

Consequently, m points from the point cloud could be discretized within the same voxel $\bar{p}_j$. Taking them into account as a single point with a different features vectors associated. In order to resolve the different features within the same voxel, the expression of the following equation was formulated $\mathbf{T}_F$.

- **Feature Tensor.** $\mathbf{T}_F$ stores and averages the features f_i corresponding to the m points that occupy the same space, i.e., belong to the same voxel denoted as $\bar{p}_j$. This process involves applying the scale factor v and the integer part function.

$$\mathbf{T}_F = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{f}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{f}_M \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{where } \bar{f}_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m f_i$$

$$\forall f_i \in \bar{p}_j$$

This kind of pre-processing implies the elimination of spaces where there is no spatial information, i.e. there are no points detected by the LiDAR. The input data is carried out using the Minkowski Engine library [4].¹

3.2 Problem Statement

The task is to evaluate traversability, treating it as solving a semantic segmentation puzzle. A point cloud B is consisting of points defined by Cartesian coordinates, $\mathbf{p}_i = (x_i, y_i, z_i)$, feature vectors, $\mathbf{f}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{in}}$, and each point has a traversability label, l_i , indicating whether it is traversable (1) or non-traversable (0). The problem is developed as a semantic segmentation task, where the objective is to employ a deep learning model denoted by the mapping function $f : \mathbb{R}^{3+d_{in}} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, considering both spatial coordinates and associated features, to infer the probability of traversability of each point. Through training on a labeled dataset $\{(\mathbf{p}_i, \mathbf{f}_i), l_i\}$, the model is responsible for capturing very precise patterns in the point cloud data, allowing it to accurately predict the traversability status of each point.

3.3 Sparse 3D Neural Networks

The methodology for estimating traversability presented in this paper is based on a neural network with an encoder-decoder architecture, whose implementation fuses a sparse version of the Resnet20 [12] neural network and the U-net architecture [26]. As a result, the network can be split into three different parts:

- **Encoder.** The encoder component in our neural network is designed to extract high-level features and representations from the input data, orchestrating a compression of information into a multidimensional feature space. Structured with multiple convolutional layers and pooling operations, this approach gradually decreases the spatial dimensions while enriching the receptive field. Each convolutional layer serves as a discerning observer, capturing diverse levels of abstraction within the input. The downsampling process, facilitated by pooling operations, extends the network’s contextual reach, fostering a heightened understanding of complex patterns. In this work, the input data used as feature vector is defined as: $\mathbf{f}_i = (n_z, Z)$ where n_z is the Z coordinate of the normal unit vector N_i and the normalized coordinate $Z \in [0, 1]$. This feature vector includes a natural invariance to rotation to the point cloud along the vertical axis.
- **Decoder.** It is a fundamental component of the neural network, plays a key role in the reconstruction process. Its main task is to translate the abstract feature representations obtained from the encoder into a detailed and meaningful output.

¹ <https://github.com/NVIDIA/MinkowskiEngine>.

- It is composed of upsampling layers that restore spatial dimensions, convolutional layers that refine and combine features, and an output layer modified according to the task. In essence, the decoder is the final step of the neural network and transforms the encoded features into a tangible, task-specific output.
- **Residual Block.** As the name suggests, these are convolutional layers that attempt to learn the residual between the input data and its output, understanding the residual as the error or difference between the output and the input. It has been observed that it is easier to learn the residual than just the input. As an added benefit, the network can now learn the identity function simply by setting the residual to zero.

The flow of the point cloud through the neural network shown in Fig. 1 is depicted in a top-down manner on the left-hand side of the image. The point cloud is processed by convolutional layers followed by residual blocks as shown in Fig. 2. Once the encoder finishes, the scheme corresponding to the right part of the image continues in an ascending way, performing the transposed convolutions to recover the initial dimensionality of the starting data and the layers and residual blocks that try to refine the features. In addition, the famous skip connections which are made within the residual block, are extrapolated along the architecture to recover fine details and improve the accuracy of the reconstruction.

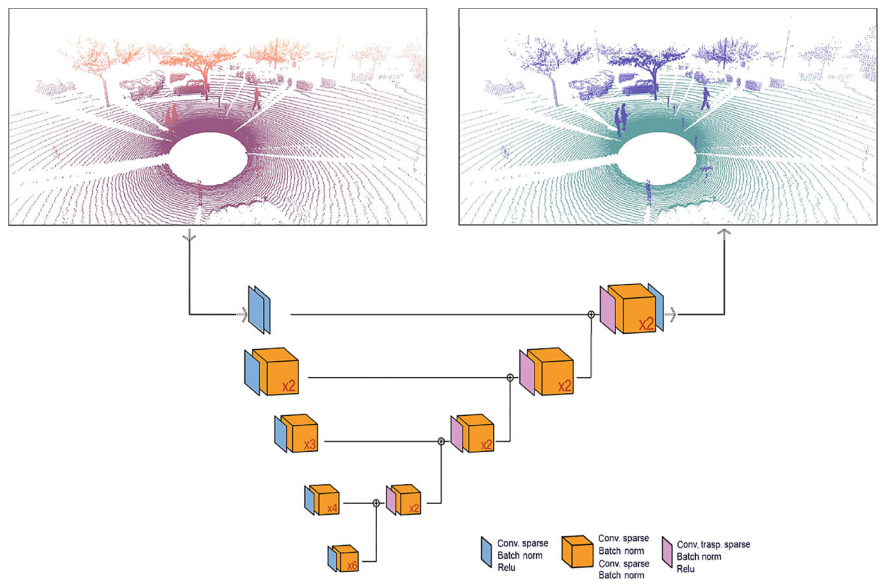
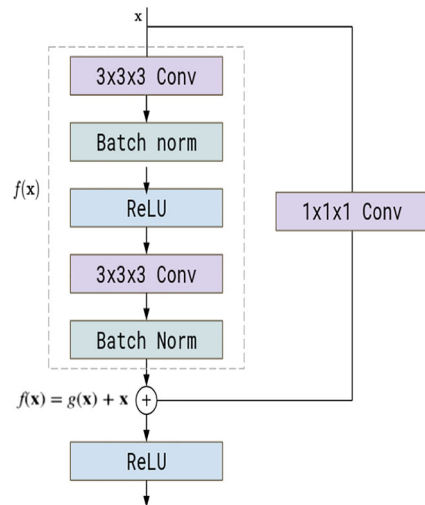


Fig. 1 Encoder-decoder configuration employed, MinkUnet [4, 27]

Fig. 2 Residual convolutional block from ResNet



4 Experimental Results

All the experiments of this method have been tested on an Intel Core™ i9-10900X, $20 \times 3.70\text{GHz}$, 128GB RAM platform with NVIDIA RTX 3090 with 24GB VRAM graphic card. The neural network model is implemented using the Minkowski Engine [4], Pytorch and it can be easily integrated into ROS NOETIC. To evaluate the performance of the proposed approach, the following datasets have been employed.

1. *SemanticKITTI* [1]: This dataset is based on the KITTI Vision Benchmark [8], integrating odometry positions and point clouds from various routes through the city of Karlsruhe, Germany, captured by the Velodyne HDL-64E sensor model. It presents a diverse set of scenarios, comprising 22 urban sequences navigating through highly structured environments. These scenarios feature dynamic elements such as moving vehicles and pedestrians, as well as natural elements such as grassy areas, parks and trees. Ten of the 22 sequences are labeled for each point, addressing semantic segmentation challenges within the dataset.
2. *Rellis-3D* [14]: It is a multimodal dataset collected in an off-road environment containing annotations for 13,556 LiDAR scans and 6,235 images. The data was collected on the Rellis Campus of Texas A&M University and presents challenges to existing algorithms related to class imbalance and environmental topography. Experimental results indicate that RELLIS-3D poses challenges to algorithms specifically designed for semantic segmentation in urban environments.
3. *SemanticUSL* [15]: It is a dataset for domain adaptation for LiDAR point cloud semantic segmentation. It contains 1200 point clouds labeled under the same format as the SemanticKITTI including road scenes, pedestrian streets and natural environments.

Table 1 Databases class mapping

Original class	Binary label	Label
Void/Outlier	Eliminated	N/A
Asphalt	Traversable	1
Barrier	Non-traversable	0
Building	Non-traversable	0
Bush	Non-traversable	0
Concrete	Traversable	1
Dirt	Traversable	1
Fence	Non-traversable	0
Grass	Traversable	1
Log	Non-traversable	0
Mud	Traversable	1
Parking	Non-traversable	0
Person	Non-traversable	0
Pole	Non-traversable	0
Puddle	Traversable	1
Road	Non-traversable	0
Rubble	Non-traversable	0
Sidewalk	Traversable	1
Sky	Eliminated	N/A
Traffic Sign	Non-traversable	0
Tree	Non-traversable	0
Vehicles	Non-traversable	0
Water	Traversable	1
Other Object	Non-traversable	0

All of the above databases contain approximately 24 different labels to which a point can belong. These labels are shown in Table 1, with their corresponding conversion, which has been established to be correct under human supervision for the particular traversability problem. Thus, Figures 3, 4, 5 show how the original databases are modified.

4.1 Implementation Details

The training of the model has been improved from the previous version presented in [27]. The differences in optimization strategies, shown in Table 2, contribute to distinct training behaviors and outcomes between the two setups. In the following sections, the results of both configurations will be compared.

Fig. 3 Point cloud from SemanticKITTI [27]

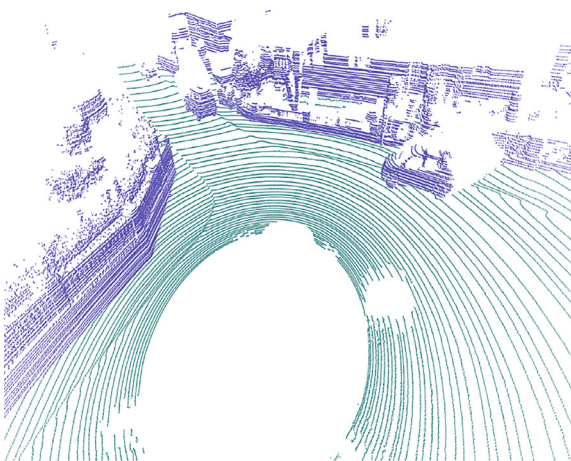


Fig. 4 Point cloud from Rellis-3D [27]

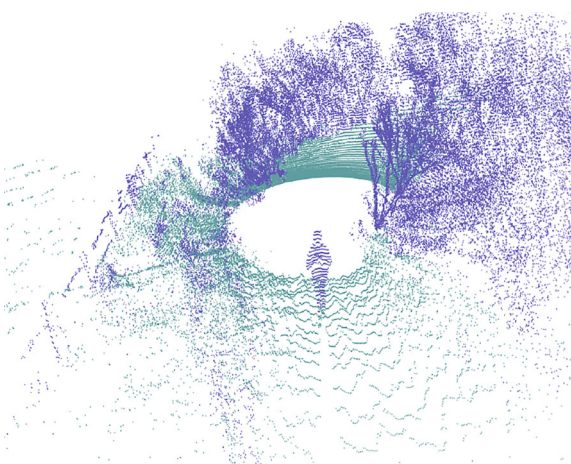


Fig. 5 Point cloud from Semantic-USL [27]

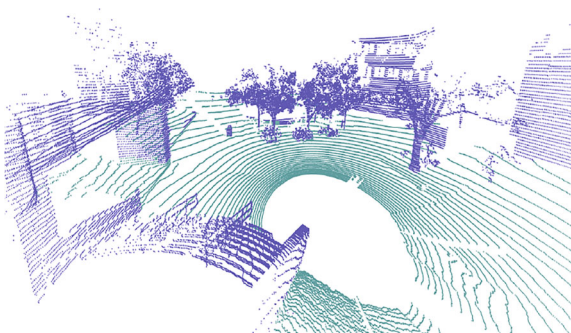


Table 2 Training parameters

Parameters	Basic configuration	Refined
Framework	Minkowski engine	Minkowski engine
Optimizer	SGD	AdamW
Scheduler	None	Cosine
Learning rate	1e-2	1e-2
Weight decay	None	5e-2
Batch size	5	8
Criteria	BCELoss	BCELoss
Epochs	14	9
Rellis-3D	Sequence 1, 2, 3	Sequence 1, 2, 3
Sem. KITTI	Sequence 0, 1, 2, 3	Sequence 0, 1, 2, 3

On the other hand, the training stage of the aforementioned datasets has been carried out with the aim of achieving a multimodal model that performs well in all types of environments without making distinctions between urban and natural environments. Therefore, a balanced number of training examples has been provided to include, equally, both environments and balanced classes. The use of the SemanticUSL database is limited exclusively to testing processes to demonstrate the generalization capability of the network in environments never seen during training.

4.2 Distance Effect

It can be observed when analysing the interaction of the LiDAR planes with the surrounding environment that the distance, d , between consecutive LiDAR planes and the ground plane is dependent on the angle formed by the intersection of the two mentioned planes, α , and the height, h , at which the LiDAR is placed. Thus, at very far distances, the different laser planes are far apart. This effect is easy to appreciate in Fig. 6.

Consequently, the representation of some regions of the robot’s environment is highly uncertain, since as mentioned above the very sparse nature of LiDAR technology results in a very low density over long distances. Therefore, as a solution, it was proposed to consider only the points that are within a radius of 45 meters from the sensor and, all the evaluations have been performed under this condition. Figures 7 and 8 are in line with the idea described above, and show how metrics such as accuracy and recall of a model trained with raw point clouds do not contribute anything once the distance exceeds 45/50 m, and the metric becomes noisy and inaccurate.

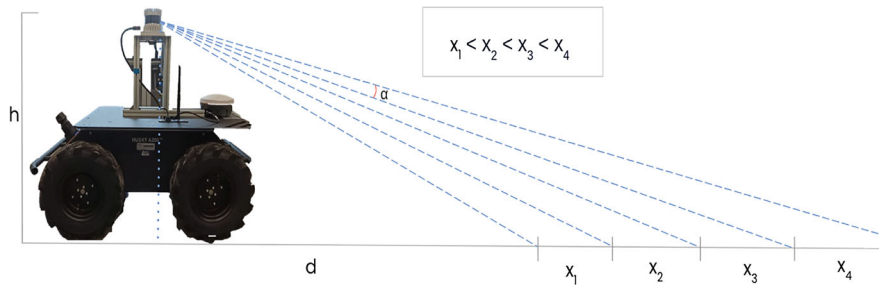


Fig. 6 LiDAR planes interactions with the ground plane

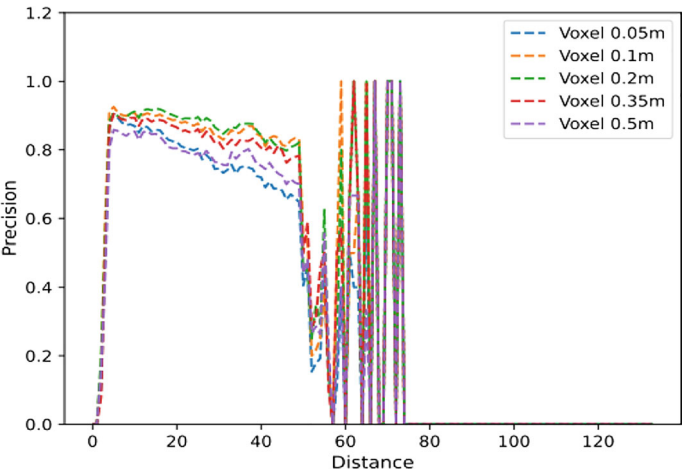


Fig. 7 Precision metric in relation to distance

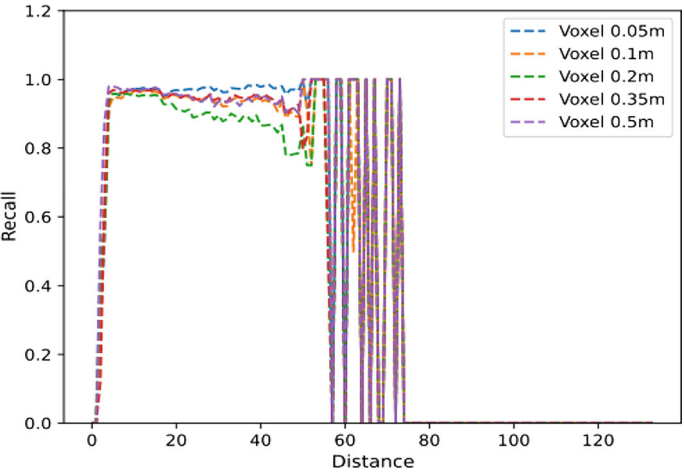


Fig. 8 Recall metric in relation to distance

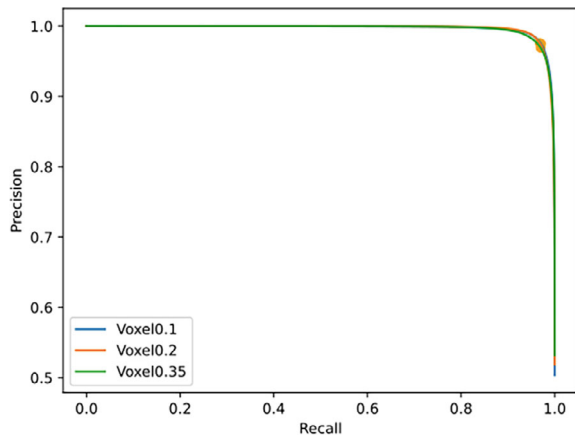
4.3 Quantitative Evaluation

In regard to the performance of a classification model, the following figures represent the precision and recall curves obtained with the test set data. Specifically, Figures 9 and 11 present the results in urban and structured environments for the SemanticKITTI and USL datasets. In both figures, the precision-recall curve is very close to the maximum (upper right corner). Working levels are achieved at which it does not seem necessary to select a lower recall level to increase precision. Hence, it can be assumed that the trained models consistently learn the traversable and non-traversable zones, achieving accuracy and recall values exceeding 95% for specific operating points. Furthermore, it is proved that how highly structured spaces with a uniform point distribution, as we might have deduced, do not have much relevance for the discretisation of the space (size of voxel, v , or scale parameter).

On the other hand, Fig. 10 presents the results when the method is applied to an unstructured environment. In this context, the results are not as satisfactory. We can see that there are significant differences in performance between the different levels of discretisation, although the explanation for this does not seem to go beyond randomness and the distribution of the points. We can conclude that in this type of environment it is more complex to infer what can be traversed with certainty.

In terms of numerical metrics, Table 3 shows in detail the performance metrics obtained as a function of the scaling factor mentioned above. The result are obtained from the model presented in Fig. 1, with different training processes. One of them corresponds to the method presented in [27] and the left part of the table is about the refined training described in Sect. 4.1. It can be seen how fine-tuned training improves the results in most cases where a small space discretisation is applied, although the metrics are quite similar.

Fig. 9 Precision-recall curve on the SemanticKITTI dataset



In addition, a comparison with methods used in the field of semantic segmentation is presented in Table 4. The comparison has been done by evaluating these methods on SemanticKitti labelled data sequences.

To conclude the experiments, a study of the descriptors extracted by the network has been carried out in relation to the rotation of the input data in the Euler yaw, ψ , angle. Figure 12a, b indicate the changes in terms of precision and recall metrics when rotating a point cloud from 0 to 360 degrees. An ideal graph should show a completely horizontal line. However, due to the discrete nature of space during rotation, the results show slight, albeit minimal, variations. The metrics can be considered to be largely invariant to rotation.

Fig. 10 Precision-recall curve on the Rellis-3D dataset

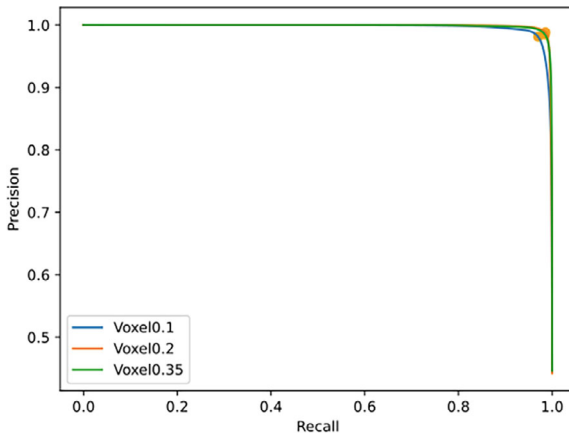
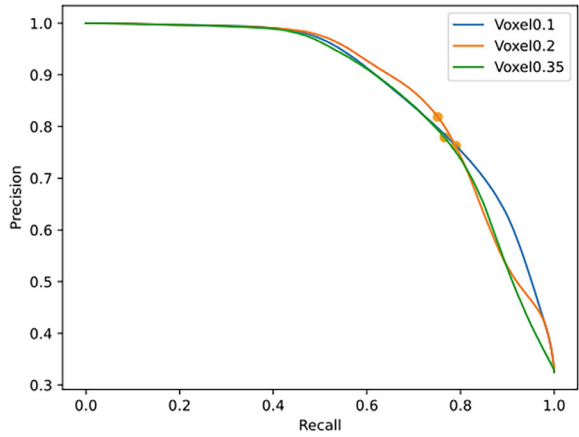


Fig. 11 Precision-recall curve on the USLSemantic dataset

Table 3 Results obtained in inference

		Basic			Fine-tuned		
Dataset	Voxel	F1	Acc	MIOU	F1	Acc	MIOU
Rellis-3D	0.1	0.72	0.83	0.57	0.74	0.82	0.60
Kitti		0.97	0.97	0.95	0.96	0.96	0.93
USL		0.93	0.93	0.87	0.92	0.94	0.85
Rellis-3D	0.2	0.79	0.85	0.66	0.79	0.86	0.66
Kitti		0.97	0.97	0.94	0.97	0.98	0.95
USL		0.93	0.93	0.87	0.94	0.95	0.90
Rellis-3D	0.35	0.79	0.86	0.66	0.75	0.84	0.60
Kitti		0.97	0.97	0.94	0.96	0.97	0.93
USL		0.95	0.95	0.91	0.94	0.94	0.88

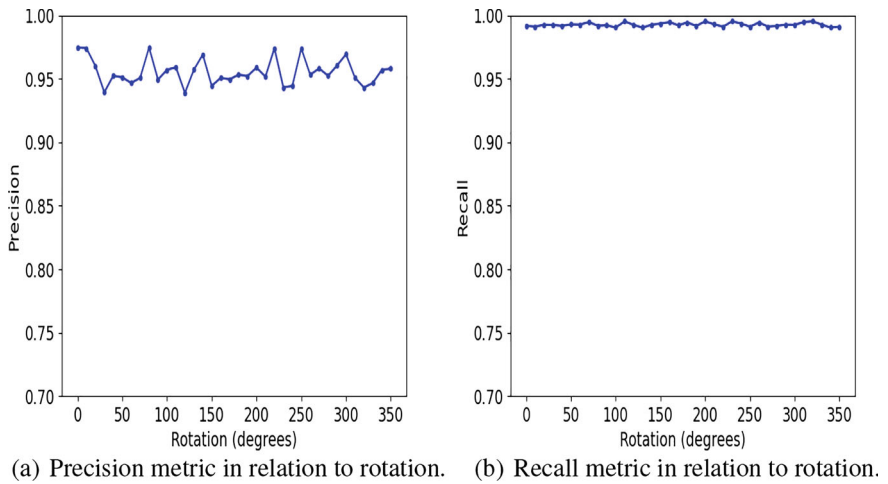


Fig. 12 Rotation invariant results

Table 4 Results of different approaches on SemanticKITTI sequences 0–10. With [1]: [25], [2]: [37], [3]: [38], [4]: [23], [5]: [7]

Method	Accuracy	F1	mIoU
[1]	93.4	93.0	87.4
[2]	90.1	89.4	81.4
[3]	92.3	91.9	85.5
[4]	90.0	93.0	87.4
[5]	89.2	91.4	84.9
Previous work	96.6	95.9	92.3
Ours	96.8	96.1	92.7

4.4 Qualitative Evaluation

In Fig. 13, the outcomes are visually depicted, presenting the components of the confusion matrix in distinct colors: true positives (green), true negatives (purple), false positives (red), and false negatives (orange). Figure 13a, c, e showcase accurately labeled point clouds from different evaluated datasets. In contrast, Fig. 13b, d, f illustrate the neural network inferences, highlighting errors in orange and red, and successful predictions in green and purple, following the previously described color scheme. False positives often manifest in highly unstructured regions, while false negatives tend to appear near edges between adjacent geometries.

It is crucial to emphasize that false positives, where the network misclassifies non-traversable areas as traversable, pose significant risks in robotic navigation tasks. Additionally, the method's rotation invariance is evident in Fig. 14, displaying neural network inferences for the same point cloud rotated at 45 and 90 degrees in Fig. 14b and c, respectively.

5 Conclusion

In this paper have been presented a novel approach for traversability estimation in point clouds using a sparse neural network with an encoder-decoder configuration. The main aspects of the paper include the analysis of the impact of voxel size, the study of rotation invariance within the same environment and the presentation of results highlighting the strengths and limitations of the method in various environmental scenarios. The results obtained with the presented approach demonstrate an outstanding performance in the assessment of the traversability in semi-structured environments (SemanticKITTI, SemanticUSL). Nevertheless, the outcomes achieved in highly unstructured scenarios demonstrated lower results.

The extension of the presented approach may benefit for the inclusion of visual information in combination with LiDAR data in order to improve the robustness and consistency, overall in unstructured environments. It is intended to evaluate the performance of the neural network on a variety of robots equipped with various sensors. Furthermore, the future challenge of addressing spatial traversability under a continuous paradigm, where evaluations go beyond binary results and take into account the physical attributes of the robot interacting with the terrain, is identified. In all, the paper lays the foundation for a promising approach to traversability estimation in point clouds and provides a clear roadmap for future improvements and extensions.

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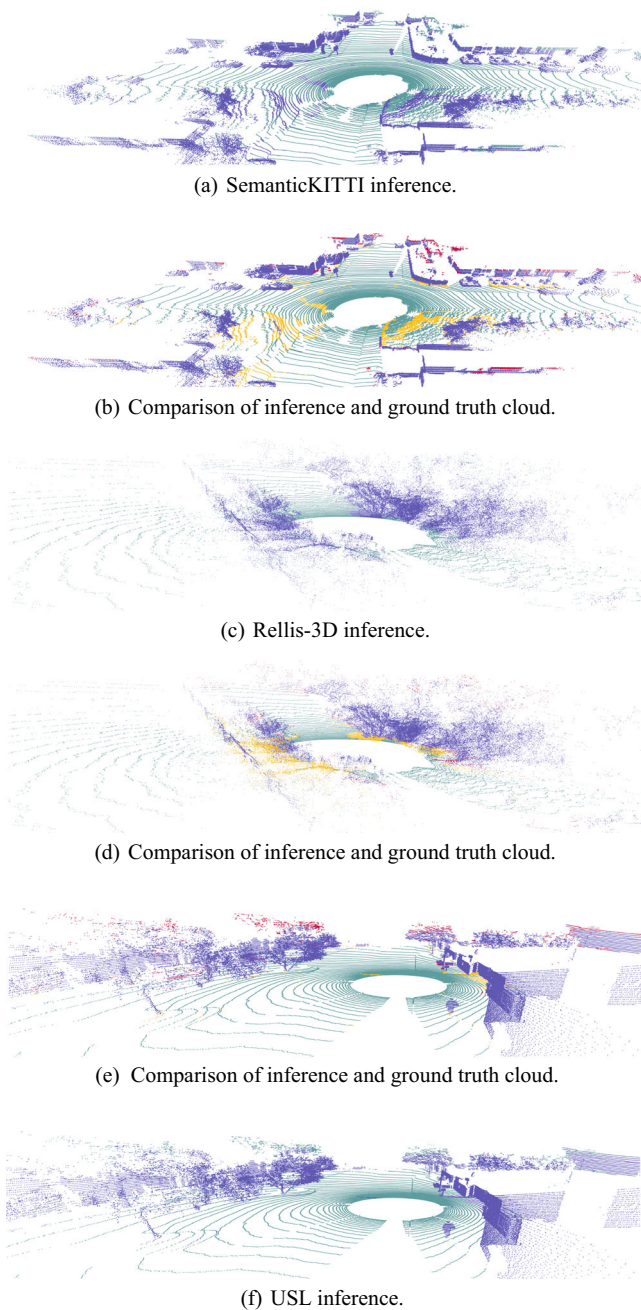


Fig. 13 Visual representation of the inference results of the network. Green: true positives (TP). Purple: true negatives (TN). Red: false positives (FP). Orange: false negatives (FN)

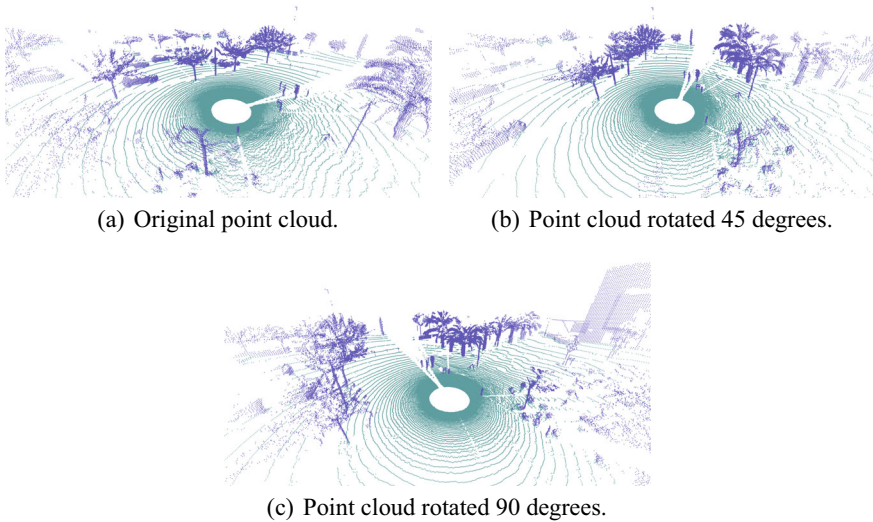


Fig. 14 Inference invariant to rotation

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