# Improvements and Detailed Evaluation of Ground Obstacle Position, Size and Orientation Estimation ${ }^{\star}$ 

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#### Abstract

This paper improves and evaluates in detail a previous work of the author dealing with position, size and orientation estimation of fixed ground obstacles in aircraft sense and avoid. The improvement is the better conditioning of the system of equations by the shift of one known variable. Detailed evaluation means Monte-Carlo simulation and comparison of the disc and line-based parameter estimation methods considering also non-straight own aircraft trajectories. This is the focal point of the article as only straight trajectory results were compared until now. The mean estimation errors (in percentages) and their standard deviations with the two different methods are compared. Finally, the line-based method was better applicable for rectangular objects as expected.


Keywords: Obstacle detection, Ground obstacle, Position estimation, Size estimation

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In case of low level flight with small UAVs the avoidance of ground obstacles - such as transmission towers, towercranes, smokestacks or even tall tress - can be an important task of the on-board sense and avoid (S\&A) system. An additional task can be the avoidance of ground vehicles and buildings during landing or in case of emergency landing.
This is underlined by literature sources such as Kikutis et al. (2017), Esrafilian and Taghirad (2016), Shahdib et al. (2013), Saunders et al. (2009) which propose different methods for ground obstacle position and size estimation and also avoidance.

The author of the current article has extended his work with aerial obstacles (Bauer et al. (2019)) to steady ground obstacles in Bauer et al. (2018) assuming constant own velocity, straight flight trajectories and disc-like obstacle cross sections. That work was extended for obstacles with rectangular cross section and time-varying own velocity and non-straight trajectories in Bauer (2019) but test results were provided only for constant velocity and straight trajectories because of space constraints of the paper.
The current work improves the previously proposed method with a modification to guarantee better conditioning of the resulting system of equations and presents detailed test results for non-straight trajectories and so time-varying velocity also. The number of examined obstacle types is also extended by two new.

[^0]The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 2 shortly summarizes the proposed method from the previous work (Bauer (2019)). Section 3 discusses the conditioning problem and the proposed solution. Section 4 introduces the SIL simulation and evaluates the test results. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.


Fig. 1. The applied coordinate systems

## 2. SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS RESULTS

The applied coordinate systems are summarized in Fig. 1. $X_{E}, Y_{E}, Z_{E}$ is the Earth (assumed to be fixed, non-moving, non-rotating), $X, Y, Z$ is the trajectory ( $Z$ axis parallel with the straight trajectory (dotted line)), $X_{B}, Y_{B}, Z_{B}$ is the body (moves and rotates together with the aircraft) and $X_{C}, Y_{C}, Z_{C}$ is the camera coordinate system (with fixed position and orientation relative to the body system and forward pointing $Z_{C}$ optical axis). Note that also in case of non-straight motion it is assumed that there is an intended flight direction which gives the trajectory system orientation.

The disc projection model shown in Fig. 2 and applied in previous works of the author considers the tangents of the assumed horizontal disc cross section of the object in deriving the relations between object size and distance. However, this can lead to false size estimates if the projection of a rectangle is done as for example the projected size is a scaled combination of sides 1 and 2 in the figure.


Fig. 2. Projection of disc or rectangle

To obtain better results for rectangular objects the projection of the linear edges should be considered. Assuming flat ground and that the object edges were detected its easy to determine object orientation relative to the trajectory system considering the vanishing point along the trajectory $((0,0)$ image point in the camera system aligned with trajectory direction). The edge of the object is parallel with the aligned camera $Z_{C}$ axis if it points into the $(0,0)$ point. A method to determine the required virtual camera rotation angle $\beta_{C}$ is presented in Bauer (2019) in detail starting with the alignment of camera measurements with trajectory system.
After the virtual camera system alignment (shown with dashed coordinate system aligned with edge 1 in Fig. 2), relations between projected object size and distances should be derived. The derived relations also consider time-varying velocity and non-straight trajectories and are summarized in (1).

$$
\underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{l}
\frac{\{2\} f}{S_{x}(k)}  \tag{1}\\
\frac{\{2\} x_{k}}{S_{x}(k)}
\end{array}\right]}_{L H S_{k}}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
s \beta_{C} & c \beta_{C} & -\Delta X_{k} s \beta_{C}-\Delta Z_{k} c \beta_{C} \\
c \beta_{C} & -s \beta_{C} & -\Delta X_{k} c \beta_{C}+\Delta Z_{k} s \beta_{C}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{X_{0}}{W} \\
\frac{Z_{0}}{W} \\
\frac{1}{W}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Here, $S_{x}$ is the horizontal size of the disc or line image in the image plane $(P), x$ is the horizontal position of the center of image or line, $f$ is camera focal length, the multiplier $\{2\}$ is required if one considers disc model, $X_{0}, Z_{0}$ are the initial aircraft positions relative to the object in trajectory system, $W$ is the real characteristic size of the object (disc model diameter or line length) and $\Delta X_{k}, \Delta Z_{k}$ are displacements of aircraft relative to the initial point after object detection. The actual aircraft position relative to the object in trajectory system can thus be characterized as $X_{k}=X_{0}-\Delta X_{k}, Z_{k}=Z_{0}-\Delta Z_{k}$. $k$ identifies the considered $t_{k}$ time instant. (1) gives two equations with three unknowns so at least two time samples are required to have a solvable system of equations.

Of course, in practical application its worth to consider multiple samples with a moving window technique.

If one considers the other side of the rectangle $L$ (if its also detectable) its size can be determined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{k}=S_{2}(k)\left(\left(X_{0}-\Delta X_{k}\right) c \beta_{C}-\left(Z_{0}-\Delta Z_{k}\right) s \beta_{C} \pm W / 2\right) f \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $S_{2}$ is the size parameter related to the second rectangle side in the image (for details see Bauer (2019)).

The absolute ground relative height $H$ can be determined at $t_{k}$ considering camera focal length and knowing the vertical coordinate of object top point $y_{T}$ from the image (in the trajectory system), the actual flight altitude of aircraft $h$ and the actual aircraft position as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{k}=h_{k}-\frac{y_{T}(k) Z_{k}}{f} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Taking a moving average for multiple time instants can decrease the variation of the estimated value.

## 3. IMPROVED CONDITIONING OF SYSTEM OF EQUATIONS

Considering the structure of the columns of the coefficient matrix in (1) and multiple sample times gives:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
L H S_{k}  \tag{4}\\
L H S_{k+1} \\
\vdots \\
L H S_{k+N}
\end{array}\right]=\underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
v_{1} & v_{2} & -v_{1} \Delta X_{k}-v_{2} \Delta Z_{k} \\
v_{1} & v_{2} & -v_{1} \Delta X_{k+1}-v_{2} \Delta Z_{k+1} \\
\vdots & \\
v_{1} & v_{2} & -v_{1} \Delta X_{k+N}-v_{2} \Delta Z_{k+N}
\end{array}\right]}_{M_{k}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{X_{0}}{W} \\
\frac{Z_{0}}{W} \\
\frac{1}{W}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Where $v_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{c}s \beta_{C} \\ c \beta_{C}\end{array}\right], v_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{c}c \beta_{C} \\ -s \beta_{C}\end{array}\right], N$ is the number of samples considered in the moving window. This shows that the third column is a linear combination of the first two but with time varying coefficients $\Delta X_{k}, \Delta Z_{k}$. This basically guarantees linear independence of the columns of the matrix but there are cases when the conditioning can get worse.

As $\Delta X_{k}$ is the cross distance from the trajectory system $Z$ axis and $\Delta Z_{k}$ is the distance flown from $Z_{0}$ along this axis if $\Delta X_{k}$ is small or even zero and the aircraft approaches the obstacle the $\Delta Z_{k}$ values get close to $Z_{0}$ and so to each other:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta Z_{n} \approx \Delta Z_{n+1} \approx \ldots \approx \Delta Z_{n+N} \approx Z_{0} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $n>k$ is assumed so these values are later in time than the values in (4). In this case the matrix can get close to singular as the coefficients of $v_{2}$ are almost the same and of $v_{1}$ are small or zero. This possible numerical problem can be avoided if one reformulates the system of equations.
Representing the initial aircraft position as $Z_{0}=Z_{0}^{k}+\Delta Z_{k}$ leads to:

$$
\begin{align*}
& Z_{n}=Z_{0}-\Delta Z_{n}=Z_{0}^{k}+\Delta Z_{k}-\Delta Z_{n}=Z_{0}^{k}-\Delta Z_{n, k}  \tag{6}\\
& 0<\Delta Z_{n, k}=\Delta Z_{n}-\Delta Z_{k}<\Delta Z_{n}
\end{align*}
$$

Considering $Z_{0}=Z_{0}^{k-1}+\Delta Z_{k-1}$ and the definition of $\Delta Z_{n, k}$ leads to the following right hand side in (4):

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
v_{1} & v_{2} & -v_{1} \Delta X_{k}-v_{2} \Delta Z_{k, k-1}  \tag{7}\\
v_{1} & v_{2} & -v_{1} \Delta X_{k+1}-v_{2} \Delta Z_{k+1, k-1} \\
\vdots & & \\
v_{1} & v_{2} & -v_{1} \Delta X_{k+N}-v_{2} \Delta Z_{k+N, k-1}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{X_{0}}{W} \\
\frac{Z_{0}^{k-1}}{W} \\
\frac{1}{W}
\end{array}\right]
$$

In this system the solution gives $\frac{Z_{0}^{k-1}}{W}$ and the value of $Z$ displacements is limited to the displacement between $t_{k}$ and $t_{k+N}$ instead of $t_{1}$ and $t_{k+N}$. This way the $\Delta Z$ values can not be approximately equal and so the conditioning is better. Note that in case of fixed displacement $\Delta z$ between every time step $\Delta Z_{k, k-1}$ to $\Delta Z_{k+N, k-1}$ transforms to:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta z \neq 2 \Delta z \ldots \neq N \Delta z \neq Z_{0} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

From $Z_{0}^{k-1}$ its easy to calculate $Z_{0}=Z_{0}^{k-1}+\Delta Z_{k-1}$.
Finally, a continuous shifting strategy can be constructed after the moving data window is first filled. In the future steps all of the stored data can be shifted by the $\Delta Z_{k-1}$ value which was just removed from the moving window leading to (7) in every step.
The effect on the condition number of the $M_{k}$ matrix is shown in Fig. 3 from one of the Matlab simulations showing that without this shifting strategy the condition number can be as large as 275 while shifting limits it to about 22 .


Fig. 3. Condition numbers without (Nominal) and with (Shifted) shift

## 4. SIL SIMULATION AND RESULTS

As in the previous works (Bauer et al. (2018), Bauer (2019)) an extensive SIL test campaign was run to evaluate the proposed method. A UAV following different trajectories with constant velocity ( $17 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ ) was simulated in Matlab Simulink considering both aircraft and autopilot
dynamics. A two camera system was modeled to extend overall horizontal field of view (FOV). Each camera has $70^{\circ}$ horizontal and vertical FOV and $f=914$ focal length and changes in the observing camera during maneuvering was handled. The considered objects are cylinder (tower), car (as in Bauer et al. (2018)), truck, long truck, house and large building. The detailed parameters can be seen in Table 1 together with short identifiers of objects ( $W, L$ are first and second side sizes and $H$ is obstacle height). Object projection was done applying pinhole camera model with pixelization error based-on point cloud in case of cylinder or the corners in case of other objects. The simulation runtimes (and so initial distance $Z_{0}$ ) were different as shown also in the table. Image frequency was considered to be 8 fps as this is the capability of state-of-the-art onboard hardware (see Bauer et al. (2019) about real flight S\&A experiments). The flight altitude at the object was $1.5 H$ except for the cylinder where it was $H$ to test the effects of flying exactly at obstacle height for one object. The non-straight trajectories were generated with a doublet series course angle reference (with amplitudes $\Delta \chi=0^{\circ}, 10^{\circ}, 20^{\circ}$ ) causing left/right deviations from the straight trajectory as Fig. 4 shows. Note that straight trajectories are also considered in these test runs. Objects were placed with different side distances $X_{0}$ relative to their first side size $\left(X_{0}=[0,5,10] W\right)$ and different orientations $\left(\alpha=\left[0^{\circ}, 15^{\circ}, 30^{\circ}, 45^{\circ}\right]\right)$ both relative to trajectory system. Of course the cylinder is tested only with one orientation. All tests were run with two glide slope values $0^{\circ} / 6^{\circ}$ (horizontal flight and descend) giving 72 test runs for the rectangular objects and 18 for the cylinder.


Fig. 4. Own aircraft trajectories
Table 1. Object parameters

| ID | Object | $\mathrm{W}[\mathrm{m}]$ | $\mathrm{L}[\mathrm{m}]$ | $\mathrm{H}[\mathrm{m}]$ | Run $[\mathrm{s}]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| O1 | Cylinder | 6 | 6 | 30 | 20 |
| O2 | Car | 1.7 | 4.5 | 1.45 | 20 |
| O3 | Truck | 2.5 | 7 | 2.5 | 25 |
| O4 | Long truck | 2.5 | 18 | 4 | 25 |
| O5 | House | 15 | 15 | 8 | 30 |
| O6 | Building | 15 | 40 | 89 | 50 |

The uncertainty in edge detection was modeled considering it only if the observed edge length was above 10 pixels. Possibility to calculate object orientation was considered if the difference of vertical edge end point coordinates was larger than 2 pixels. Line projection model was considered
only if both edge detection and orientation calculation were possible. Disc projection model was used all the time to be able to compare the two methods. Solution of the system of equations (7) was done if the first 8 data points were collected. A moving window was applied after the first 8 data points.

After running the tests detailed evaluation was done. As there are strict conditions for line calculation (edge detection and possibility of angle calculation) its execution was not possible in every test case. Thus Table 2 summarizes how many successful line calculation cases occurred from the 72 test runs / object. The table shows that as the car is small there are several cases when line calculation was impossible ( 30 out of 72 ). With the other objects only a few cases are missing and for the house all cases succeeded. In case of the building the object is out of camera FOV before line calculation becomes possible in some cases.

Table 2. NR of cases when line calculation was possible

| O1 | O2 | O3 | O4 | O5 | O6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N/A | 42 | 68 | 66 | 72 | 67 |

Another important information is the time during which the method is able to give information about the obstacle. The last 1 second before reaching the obstacle was neglected as any decision about the collision in this time is too late. So the tracking times were calculated from the time of first valid estimates (which means that the first 8 data points were collected) until 1 second before reaching the obstacle. The results for all object types (different line colors in figure) and line and disc method are shown in Fig. 5. The figure shows that while the disc method provides at least 5 seconds tracking time in every case the line method also has tracking times close to zero. This can probably get better in real cases depending on the capabilities of the edge detection algorithm (now the artificial 10 point length limit was introduced to decide about detected edge) and it is advisable to use disc calculation data until edges are detected.


Fig. 5. Tracking times with line or disc method

The estimation errors of the parameters were determined in percentages at every time step relative to the real data. To make this enormous amount of data presentable the means and standard deviations of the absolute percentage errors were calculated for every run case.

Table 3. Cylinder error statistics (absolute \%)

| Cylinder | $Z_{0}$ | $X_{0}$ | $W$ | $L$ | $\alpha$ | $H$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Disc mean $90 \%$ | 1.62 | 0.96 | 2.06 | N/A | N/A | 0.527 |
| Disc STD 90\% | 2.47 | 12.87 | 9.83 | N/A | N/A | 2.58 |
| Disc mean $50 \%$ | 1.337 | 0.477 | 1.06 | N/A | N/A | 0.04 |
| Disc STD $50 \%$ | 1.89 | 0 | 5.54 | N/A | N/A | 0.28 |

Table 4. Car error statistics (absolute \%)

| Car | $Z_{0}$ | $X_{0}$ | $W$ | $L$ | $\alpha$ | $H$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Disc mean $90 \%$ | 9.53 | 53.0 | 37.8 | N/A | N/A | 101.7 |
| Disc STD 90\% | 10.76 | 40.06 | 49.45 | N/A | N/A | 71.18 |
| Disc mean $50 \%$ | 3.19 | 22.24 | 5.42 | N/A | N/A | 12.7 |
| Disc STD $50 \%$ | 4.61 | 0 | 23.0 | N/A | N/A | 13.13 |
| Line mean $90 \%$ | 0.76 | 9.47 | 6.36 | 8.4 | 0.95 | 54.6 |
| Line STD 90\% | 0.91 | 5.85 | 5.81 | 6.05 | 0 | 25.24 |
| Line mean $50 \%$ | 0.25 | 3.4 | 2.62 | 2.63 | 0.32 | 10.37 |
| Line STD $50 \%$ | 0.08 | 0 | 1.23 | 0 | 0 | 0.23 |

Table 5. Truck error statistics (absolute \%)

| Truck | $Z_{0}$ | $X_{0}$ | $W$ | $L$ | $\alpha$ | $H$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Disc mean 90\% | 10.04 | 48.35 | 36.66 | N/A | N/A | 68.88 |
| Disc STD 90\% | 13.57 | 40.3 | 55.22 | N/A | N/A | 59.86 |
| Disc mean $50 \%$ | 2.75 | 12.36 | 4.54 | N/A | N/A | 12.61 |
| Disc STD $50 \%$ | 4.9 | 0 | 17.32 | N/A | N/A | 18.74 |
| Line mean 90\% | 0.52 | 11.13 | 3.7 | 4.67 | 0.72 | 19.46 |
| Line STD 90\% | 1.74 | 20.9 | 7.86 | 8.6 | 1.13 | 26.35 |
| Line mean $50 \%$ | 0.19 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.77 | 0.22 | 5.89 |
| Line STD 50\% | 0.36 | 2.19 | 3.73 | 4.13 | 0 | 2.34 |

Table 6. Long truck error statistics (absolute
\%)

| Long truck | $Z_{0}$ | $X_{0}$ | $W$ | $L$ | $\alpha$ | $H$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Disc mean 90\% | 19.02 | 130 | 90.15 | N/A | N/A | 93.86 |
| Disc STD 90\% | 38.36 | 147 | 106 | N/A | N/A | 136 |
| Disc mean 50\% | 5.13 | 32.24 | 5.41 | N/A | N/A | 16.79 |
| Disc STD $50 \%$ | 12.41 | 0 | 39.5 | N/A | N/A | 26.44 |
| Line mean $90 \%$ | 0.78 | 5.45 | 4.75 | 6.52 | 0.43 | 30.5 |
| Line STD 90\% | 2.39 | 12.61 | 9.48 | 11.52 | 0.36 | 28.82 |
| Line mean 50\% | 0.25 | 1.56 | 1.97 | 2.27 | 0.13 | 10 |
| Line STD 50\% | 0.58 | 3.18 | 4.46 | 5.67 | 0 | 3.3 |

Table 7. House error statistics (absolute \%)

| House | $Z_{0}$ | $X_{0}$ | $W$ | $L$ | $\alpha$ | $H$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Disc mean 90\% | 8.58 | 20.02 | 22.32 | N/A | N/A | 43.72 |
| Disc STD 90\% | 12.23 | 17.5 | 24.77 | N/A | N/A | 44.29 |
| Disc mean $50 \%$ | 2.15 | 12 | 3.76 | N/A | N/A | 6.72 |
| Disc STD $50 \%$ | 4.49 | 0 | 13.09 | N/A | N/A | 8.74 |
| Line mean $90 \%$ | 2.56 | 12.92 | 4.24 | 6.91 | 1.66 | 20.76 |
| Line STD 90\% | 7.79 | 7.5 | 11.69 | 12.06 | 0 | 27.78 |
| Line mean $50 \%$ | 0.71 | 9.91 | 1.14 | 0.97 | 0.67 | 4.08 |
| Line STD $50 \%$ | 1.86 | 0 | 5.98 | 5.47 | 0 | 4.2 |

Table 8. Building error statistics (absolute \%)

| Building | $Z_{0}$ | $X_{0}$ | $W$ | $L$ | $\alpha$ | $H$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Disc mean 90\% | 13.6 | 124 | 43.1 | N/A | N/A | 29.6 |
| Disc STD 90\% | 13.3 | 103 | 44.6 | N/A | N/A | 32.3 |
| Disc mean $50 \%$ | 4.23 | 24.98 | 5.23 | N/A | N/A | 9.12 |
| Disc STD $50 \%$ | 8.01 | 0 | 22.67 | N/A | N/A | 14.32 |
| Line mean 90\% | 3.09 | 12.44 | 8.94 | 5.05 | 3.26 | 6.32 |
| Line STD 90\% | 12.52 | 32.22 | 38.57 | 17.93 | 1.24 | 18.88 |
| Line mean 50\% | 0.45 | 1.66 | 1.63 | 1 | 0.45 | 3.98 |
| Line STD 50\% | 4.49 | 10.22 | 11.4 | 8 | 0 | 4.44 |

The mean errors of the different parameters are plotted in ascending order for all objects (different colors) and disc and line methods in Appendix A having the run number on the horizontal axis. The upper mean value and standard deviation (STD) limits for $90 \%$ and $50 \%$ of the valid cases of every object are summarized in Tables 3 to 8 . These mean that $90 \%$ or $50 \%$ of the means or STDs is smaller than the given value.

Analysing the tables shows that the disc method gives $1-2 \%$ mean estimation error with $3-13 \%$ STD for the cylinder object in $90 \%$ of the cases as it fits the model in the method. For rectangular objects this performance decreases to 10-130\% mean error with 10-150\% STD which clearly shows that the applicability of the disc method for rectangular objects is very limited. Of course, considering only $50 \%$ of the cases highly decreases these values as the tables show. For the $Z_{0}$ initial distance the disc method gives $10 \%$ mean with $10 \%$ STD for $90 \%$ of the data which is acceptable but for the other parameters $\left(X_{0}, W, H\right) 20 \%$ and even higher than $100 \%$ mean errors can be found which can be unacceptable.
Considering the line method the mean errors are below $13 \%$ for $90 \%$ of the data except for the obstacle height $(H)$ parameter where $7-55 \%$ mean values result for $90 \%$ of the data except for the cylinder case. The cause of this uncertainty is the flight altitude which is always above the top of the obstacle except for the cylinder. In $1.5 H$ cases the top coordinate of the obstacle is the mean of the corner values and this an inaccurate measurement. This should be improved later. The STD values for the line method are $6-33 \%$ for $90 \%$ of the data which can be acceptable. Considering the separate parameters the line method always gives better means and STDs than the disc method. Its worth to note that the mean errors for the $W$ and $L$ sides are the same and the mean errors ( $0.5-4 \%$ ) and STDs $(0-2 \%)$ of the object orientation $(\alpha)$ estimation are very low which shows that the orientation estimation works pretty well.

Finally, its worth to note that initial transients can occur in the parameter estimates and they were not excluded from the calculations so STDs for both disc and line methods can be much lower considering only the converged results.

## 5. CONCLUSION

This paper continues the work of a previous paper of the author where ground obstacle position, size and orientation estimation methods were presented for cylindrical
(disc projection model) and rectangular (line projection model) obstacles and compared for straight flight trajectories of the own aircraft. The current work introduces an improvement which can limit the condition number of the resulting system of equations, extends the considered test objects with car and house and runs Monte-Carlo test simulation with non-straight own flight trajectories to evaluate the methods also for these cases. The absolute mean percentage errors of the parameter estimates and their standard deviations are calculated and compared for the disc- and line-based methods. As an overall summary it can be stated that the line method outperforms the disc method in case of rectangular objects (see the tables and also the mean error plots in Appendix A) as expected so its worth to build a ground obstacle sense and avoid strategy considering also this method. A limitation of the line-based method is the requirement to detect object edges which can delay parameter calculation as the aircraft approaches the object. This can significantly decrease the tracking time of the object and so the time for decision about collision however, the disc-based method can be used before. For distant objects the difference between disc-based and line-based results can be negligible so this is a feasible approach. Another limitation of both methods is the need for a given trajectory direction around which the aircraft trajectory changes. Further improvements are required to handle completely free trajectories. As obstacle height estimation has the least precision its further improvement is also required.

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## Appendix A. MEAN ESTIMATION ERRORS



Fig. A.1. Mean errors of initial distance $\left(Z_{0}\right)$ estimate


Fig. A.2. Mean errors of initial side distance ( $X_{0}$ ) estimate


Fig. A.3. Mean errors of first side ( $W$ ) estimate


Fig. A.4. Mean errors of second side ( $L$ ) estimate


Fig. A.5. Mean errors of obstacle angle $(\alpha)$ estimate


Fig. A.6. Mean errors of obstacle height $(H)$ estimate


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