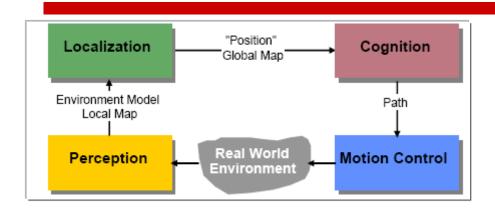
06 感知



Perception Sensors Vision

Sensors

- Why should know about sensors?
 - Is the key technology for perceiving the environment
 - Understanding the physical principle enables appropriate use
- Understanding the physical principle behind sensors enables us:
 - To properly select the sensors for a given application
 - To properly model the sensor system, e.g. resolution, bandwidth, uncertainties
 - To define the needs in collaboration with sensor system

BibaBot, BlueBotics SA, Switzerland

IMU Inertial Measurement Unit

Emergency Stop Button

Wheel Encoders



Omnidirectional Camera

Pan-Tilt Camera

Sonar Sensors

Laser Range Scanner

Bumper

Classification of Sensors

- □ What:
 - Proprioceptive sensors
 - □ measure values internally to the system (robot),
 - motor speed, wheel load, heading of the robot, battery status
 - Exteroceptive sensors
 - □ information from the robots environment
 - distances to objects, intensity of the ambient light, unique features.
- ☐ How:
 - Passive sensors
 - energy coming for the environment
 - Active sensors
 - emit their proper energy and measure the reaction
 - better performance, but some influence on environment

General Classification (1)

General classification (typical use)	Sensor Sensor System	PC or EC	A or P
Tactile sensors (detection of physical contact or	Contact switches, bumpers Optical barriers		P A
closeness; security switches)	Noncontact proximity sensors	EC	A
Wheel/motor sensors (wheel/motor speed and position)	Brush encoders Potentiometers Synchros, resolvers Optical encoders Magnetic encoders Inductive encoders Capacitive encoders	PC PC PC PC PC PC	P P A A A A
Heading sensors (orientation of the robot in relation to a fixed reference frame)	Compass Gyroscopes Inclinometers	EC PC EC	P P A/P

A, active; P, passive; P/A, passive/active; PC, proprioceptive; EC, exteroceptive.

General Classification (2)

Ground-based beacons (localization in a fixed reference frame)	GPS Active optical or RF beacons Active ultrasonic beacons Reflective beacons	EC EC EC EC	A A A
Active ranging (reflectivity, time-of-flight, and geometric triangulation)	Reflectivity sensors Ultrasonic sensor Laser rangefinder Optical triangulation (1D) Structured light (2D)	EC EC EC EC EC	A A A A
Motion/speed sensors (speed relative to fixed or moving objects)	Doppler radar Doppler sound	EC EC	A A
Vision-based sensors (visual ranging, whole-image analysis, segmentation, object recognition)	CCD/CMOS camera(s) Visual ranging packages Object tracking packages	EC	P

Characterizing Sensor Performance (1)

Measurement in real world environment is error prone

- Basic sensor response ratings
 - Dynamic range
 - ratio between lower and upper limits, usually in decibels (dB, power)
 - e.g. power measurement from 1 mW to 20 W

$$10 \cdot \log \left[\frac{20}{0.001} \right] = 43 dB \qquad P = U \cdot I = \frac{1}{R} U^2$$

e.g. voltage measurement from 1 mV to 20 V

$$20 \cdot \log \left[\frac{20}{0.001} \right] = 86 dB$$

20 instead of 10 because square of voltage is equal to power!!

Characterizing Sensor Performance (2)

- Basic sensor response ratings (cont.)
 - Range
 - · upper limit
 - Resolution
 - · minimum difference between two values
 - usually: lower limit of dynamic range = resolution
 - for digital sensors it is usually the A/D resolution.
 - e.g. 5V / 255 (8 bit)
 - Linearity
 - · variation of output signal as function of the input signal
 - · linearity is less important when signal is treated with a computer

$$x \to f(x) v \to f(y)$$

$$\alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot y \to f(\alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot y) = \alpha \cdot f(x) + \beta \cdot f(y)$$

Characterizing Sensor Performance (3)

- Basic sensor response ratings (cont.)
 - Bandwidth or Frequency
 - the speed with which a sensor can provide a stream of readings
 - · usually there is an upper limit depending on the sensor and the sampling rate
 - lower limit is also possible, e.g. acceleration sensor
 - one has also to consider phase (delay) of the signal

In Situ Sensor Performance (1)

Characteristics that are especially relevant for real world environments

- Sensitivity
 - ratio of output change to input change
 - however, in real world environment, the sensor has very often high sensitivity to other environmental changes, e.g. illumination
- Cross-sensitivity (and cross-talk)
 - sensitivity to other environmental parameters
 - influence of other active sensors
- Error / Accuracy
 - difference between the sensor's output and the true value

$$\begin{pmatrix} accuracy = 1 - \frac{m - v}{v} \end{pmatrix} error m = measured value v = true value$$

In Situ Sensor Performance (2)

Characteristics that are especially relevant for real world environments

- Systematic error -> deterministic errors
 - caused by factors that can (in theory) be modeled -> prediction
 - e.g. calibration of a laser sensor or of the distortion cause by the optic of a camera
- Random error -> non-deterministic
 - no prediction possible
 - however, they can be described probabilistically
 - e.g. Hue instability of camera, black level noise of camera ..
- Precision
 - reproducibility of sensor results

$$precision = \frac{range}{\sigma}$$

Characterizing Error

- Mobile Robot has to perceive, analyze and interpret the state of the surrounding
- Measurements in real world environment are dynamically changing and error prone.
- Examples:
 - changing illuminations
 - specular reflections
 - light or sound absorbing surfaces
 - cross-sensitivity of sensor, robot-environment dynamics
 - rarely possible to model -> error blurring: appear as "random" errors but are neither systematic nor random.
 - systematic errors and random errors might be well defined in controlled environment.

Multi-Modal Error Distributions: The Challenges in ...

- Sensors modeled by probability distribution (random errors)
 - usually very little knowledge about the causes of random errors
 - often assumed to be symmetric or even Gaussian
 - however, it is important to realize how wrong this can be!
- Examples:
 - Sonar (ultrasonic) sensor might overestimate the distance in real environment and is therefore not symmetric
 - Thus the sonar sensor might be best modeled by two modes:
 - mode for the case that the signal returns directly
 - mode for the case that the signals returns after multi-path reflections.
 - Stereo vision system might correlate to images incorrectly, thus causing results that make no sense at all

- □ 内部传感器: 检测机器人本身状态(手臂间角度等)的传感器。
- □ **外部传感器:** 检测机器人所处环境(是什么物体,离物体的距离 有多远等)及状况(抓取的物体滑落等)的传感器。
 - ▶ 外部传感器分为末端执行器传感器和环境传感器。
 - 末端执行器传感器:主要装在作为末端执行器的手上,检测处理精巧作业的感觉信息。相当于触觉。
 - 环境传感器: 用于识别物体和检测物体与机器人的距离。相当于视觉

□ 内部状态的感觉

(1) 位置和角度传感器

典型的传感器是电位计。检测的是以电阻中心为基准位置的移动

距离。

$$\chi = \frac{L(2e - E)}{E}$$

E: 输入电压

L: 最大移动距离触头

X: 向左端移动的距离

e: 电阻右侧的输出电压

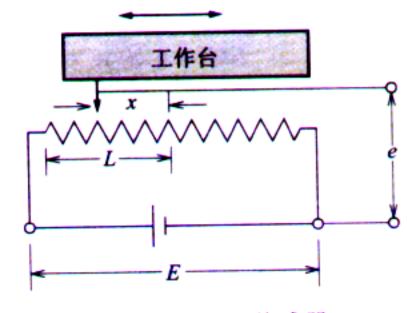
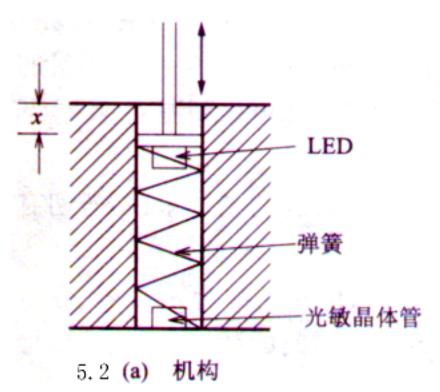
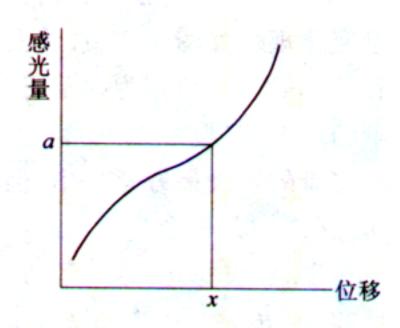


图 5.1 位置传感器 1

□ 内部状态的感觉

(1) 光电式位置传感器。





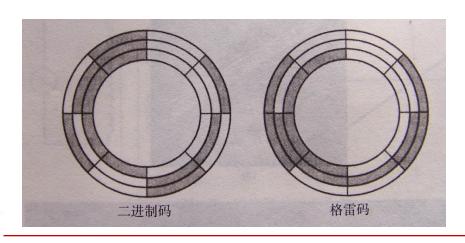
5.2 (b) 感光量曲线

编码器

- □ 编码器分为增量式和绝对式两种,不同之处在于圆盘上透光、不透光的线 条图形。
- □ 绝对编码器码盘的每个位置都对应着透光与不透光弧段的唯一确定组合, 具备唯一的信号特征。不需要知道起始位置,在任意时刻就可以确定码盘 的位置。
- □ 增量式编码器的透光和不透光弧段的尺寸相同且交替出现,仅仅检测位置的变化,不能判断实际位置。需要控制器知道起始位置。

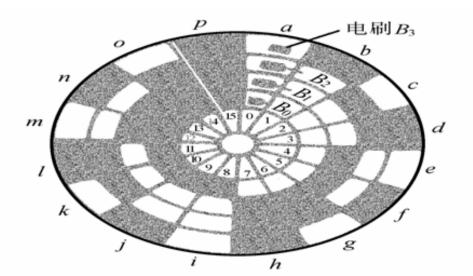


图2: 为用于直线运动和旋转运动的绝对位置编码器的基本结构与 原理示意图



□ 编码器一接触式

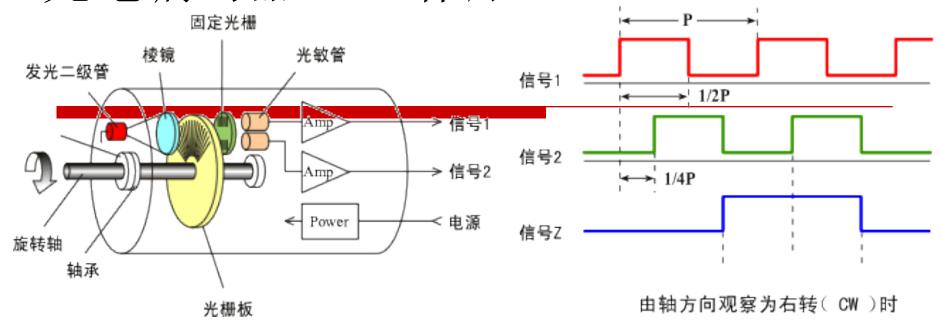
- 通常编码器的编码盘与旋转轴相固联,沿码盘的径向固定数个敏感元件(电刷)
- 每个电刷分别与码盘上的对应码道直接接触
- 固定电刷压在与旋转轴固联的导电环上。无论转轴处于何位置,都有激励电压加 在导电区域上。当码盘与轴一起旋转时,四个电刷分别输出信号。
- 在各转角位置上,都能输出一个与转角位置相对应的二进制编码



二进制码、十进制码与格雷码对照表

角度	电刷位置	二进制码	十进制码	格雷码
0	a	0000	0	0000
1α	b	0001	1	0001
2α	С	0010	2	0011
3α	d	0011	3	0010
4α	e	0100	4	0110
5α	f	0101	5	0111
6α	g	0110	6	0101
7α	h	0111	7	0100
8α	i	1000	8	1100
9α	j	1001	9	1101
10α	k	1010	10	1111
11α	1	1011	11	1110
12α	m	1100	12	1010
13α	n	1101	13	1011
14α	o	1110	14	1001
15α	p	1111	15	1000

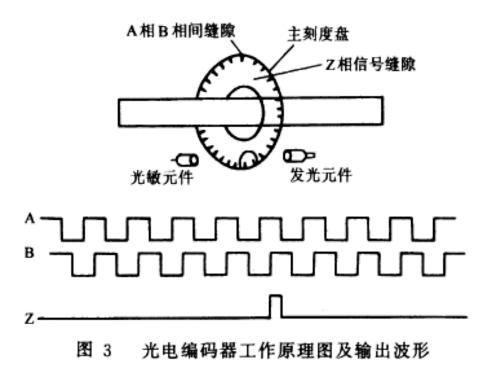
光电编码器---工作原理



在旋转编码器的旋转轴上,装着刻有等间隔刻度的光栅板,与此想呼应的,在编码器框体上,装着刻有相同间隔刻度的固定光栅板。在这两块光栅板之间,设置有发光元件(发光二极管)和受光元件(光敏管)。发光元件发出的光,随着旋转轴旋转,被每个光栅所遮去的光亮,正好与转速成比例地发出明暗条纹。这种明暗条纹在受光元件上作为电气信号发出,经过波形整形,作为方波信号输出。一般这个输出的两个信号的相位,互相错开1/4光栅节距,旋转方向反转,该相位也相反,与带有可辨别方向电路之可逆计数器组合,可以对旋转量进行加减法计算。

□编码器一非接触式

- 在圆盘上有规则地刻有透光和不透 光的线条,决定分辨率
- 在圆盘两侧,安放发光元件和光敏 元件
- 当圆盘旋转时,光敏元件接收的光 通量随透光线条同步变化,光敏元 件输出波形经过整形后变为脉冲, 码盘上有Z相标志,每转一圈输出 一个脉冲。
- 为判断旋转方向,码盘还可提供相 位相差90°的两路脉冲信号



- □ 外部状况的感觉
- (1) 物体识别传感器
 - 典型的是视觉传感器。如摄像机。视觉是利用光(机器人可用红外线等)的非接触方式。
 - 触觉也能识别物体。机器人可以用触觉传感器来实现这种机能。

□ 外部状况的感觉

(2) 物体探测传感器

视觉传感器是一种识别物体而且知道其存在的传感器。

例如光电开关。

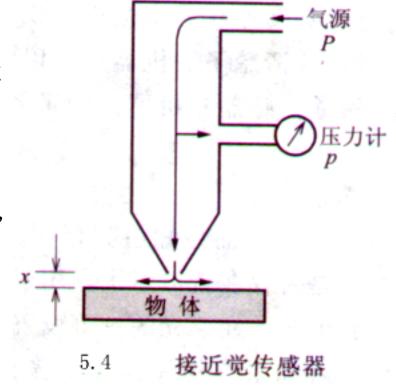
视觉传感器、光电开关和超声波传感器,即使物体较远也能探测其存在。

□ 外部状况的感觉

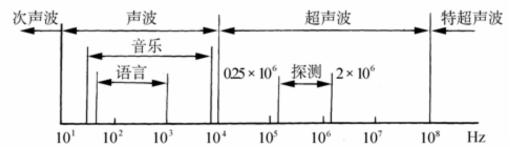
(3) 极近物体探测传感器

探测非常近的物体存在的传感器称为接近传感器。

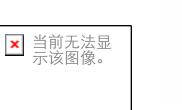
气压接近觉传感器利用反作用力方法, 通过探测气流喷射遇到物体时的压力 变化来检测和物体之间的距离

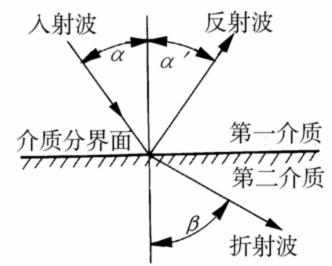


Ultrasonic Sensor (time of flight, sound) (1)



声波的频率界限图





- transmit a packet of (ultrasonic) pressure waves
- distance d of the echoing object can be calculated based on the propagation speed of sound c and the time of flight t.

$$d = \frac{c \cdot t}{2}$$

■ The speed of sound c (340 m/s) in air is given by

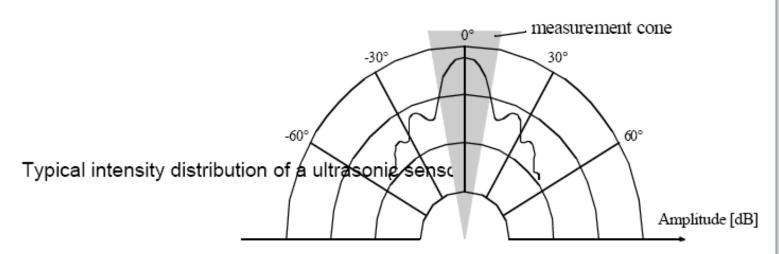
Where
$$c = \sqrt{\gamma \cdot R \cdot T}$$

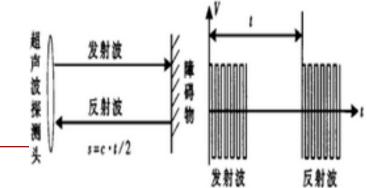
γ: adiabatic index (isentropic expansion factor) - ratio of specific heats of a gas

R: gas constant

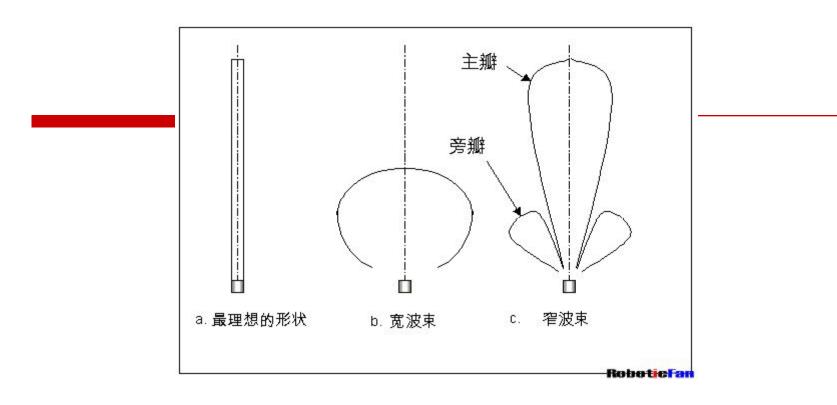
T: temperature in degree Kelvin

- typical frequency: 40 180 kHz
- generation of sound wave: piezo transducer
 - transmitter and receiver separated or not separated
- sound beam propagates in a cone (approx.)
 - opening angles around 20 to 40 degrees
 - regions of constant depth
 - segments of an arc (sphere for 3D)

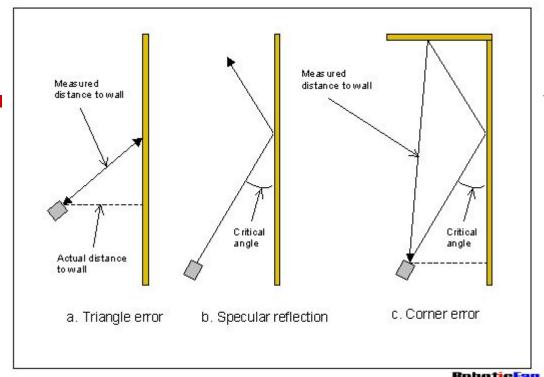




- 原理:采用测量时间的方法进行测距 超声传感器包括超声发射器、超声接受器、定时电路和控制电路四个主要 部分。它的工作原理大致是这样的:
- 1. 首先由超声发射器向被测物体方向发射脉冲式的超声波。发射器发出一连 串超声波后即自行关闭,停止发射。
- 2. 同时超声接受器开始检测回声信号,定时电路也开始计时。当超声波遇到物体后,就被反射回来。
- 3. 等到超声接受器收到回声信号后,定时电路停止计时。此时定时电路所记录的时间,是从发射超声波开始到收到回声波信号的传播时间。
- 4. 利用传播时间值,可以换算出被测物体到超声传感器之间的距离。这个换 算的公式很简单,即声波传播时间的一半与声波在介质中传播速度的乘积。
- 5. 超声传感器整个工作过程都是在控制电路控制下顺序进行的。



- □ 超声波的波束根据应用不同,有宽波束,和窄波束。
- □ 宽波束的传感器会检测到任何在波束范围的物体,它可以检测到物体的距离,但是无法检测到物体的方位。当然,作为只要探测物体有或者无的用途来说,宽波束的传感器是比较理想的。
- □ 窄波束可以相对宽波束获得更加精确的方位角



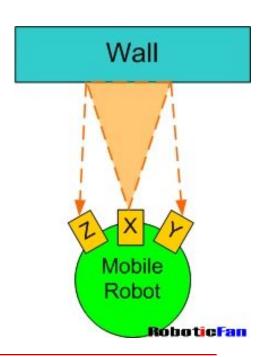
- RoboticFan
- □ 三角误差,当被测物体与传感器成一定角度的时候,所探测的距离和实际距离有 个三角误差。
- □ 镜面反射,在特定的角度下,发出的声波被光滑的物体镜面反射出去,因此无法 产生回波,也就无法产生距离读数。这时超声波传感器会忽视这个物体的存在。
- □多次反射。这种现象在探测墙角或者类似结构的物体时比较常见。 声波经过多次反弹才被传感器接收到,因此实际的探测值并不是真实的距离值。

□ 噪音问题

- 多数超声波传感器的工作频率为40-45Khz,远远高于人类能够听到的频率
- 周围环境也会产生类似频率的噪音。比如,电机在转动过程会产生一定的高频,轮子在比较硬的地面上的摩擦所产生的高频噪音,机器人本身的抖动,甚至当有多个机器人的时候,其它机器人超声波传感器发出的声波,这些都会引起传感器接收到错误的信号
- 通过对发射的超声波进行编码来解决,比如发射一组长短不同的音波, 只有当探测头检测到相同组合的音波的时候,才进行距离计算。这样 可以有效的避免由于环境噪音所引起的误读。

□ 交叉问题

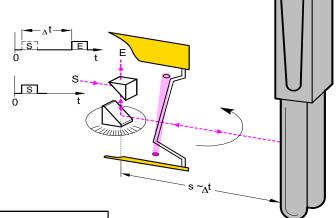
- 多个超声波传感器按照一定角度被安装在机器人上的时候所引起的
- 超声波X发出的声波,经过镜面反射,被传感器Z和Y获得,这时Z和Y会根据这个信号来计算距离值,从而无法获得正确的测量
- 解决的方法可以通过对每个传感器发出的信号进行编码。让每个超声波传感器只听自己的声音



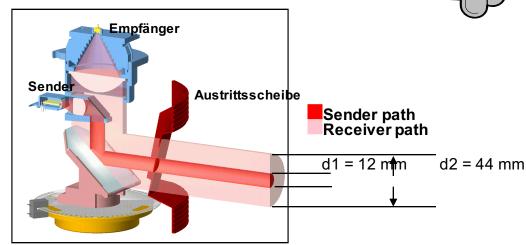
- □ 激光检测
 - 方向性强,亮度高
 - 单色性好
 - 相干性好
 - 常用于测量长度、位移、速度、振动等参数

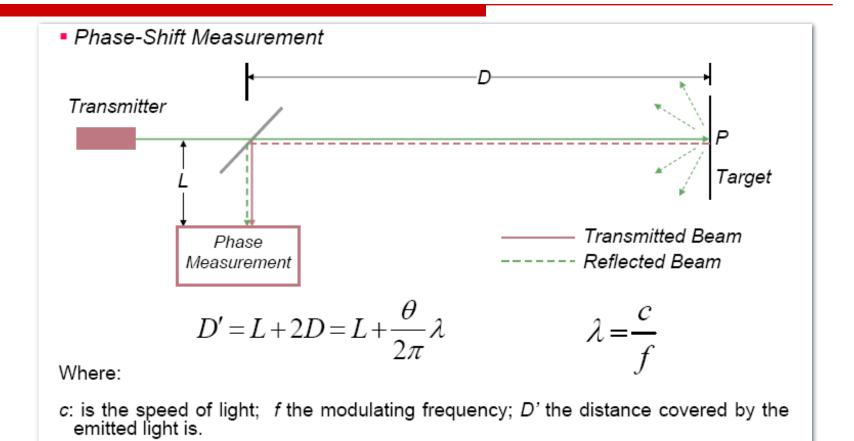
□ 激光测距仪

- 通过计算发射光与接受到由物体表面反射回来的光的时间差,确定与物体之间的距离。
- 内部高速旋转的反射镜将发射光反射出去, 并接收反射光,从而确定了物体的方向。









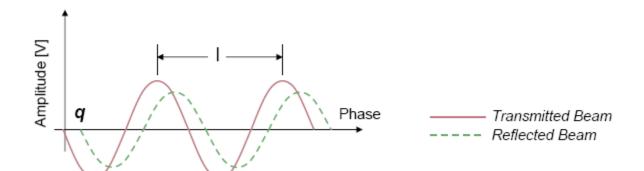
18/6/4

for f = 5 MHz (as in the A.T&T. sensor), λ = 60 meters

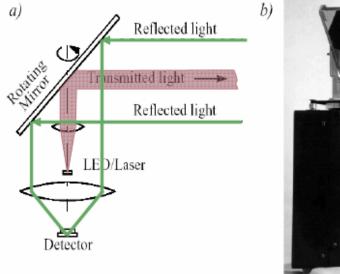
Distance D, between the beam splitter and the target

$$D = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi}\theta$$

- where
 - θ: phase difference between transmitted and reflected beam
- Theoretically ambiguous range estimates
 - since for example if λ = 60 meters, a target at a range of 5 meters = target at 35 meters



- Confidence in the range (phase/time estimate) is inversely proportional to the square of the received signal amplitude.
 - Hence dark, distant objects will not produce such good range estimated as closer brighter objects ...

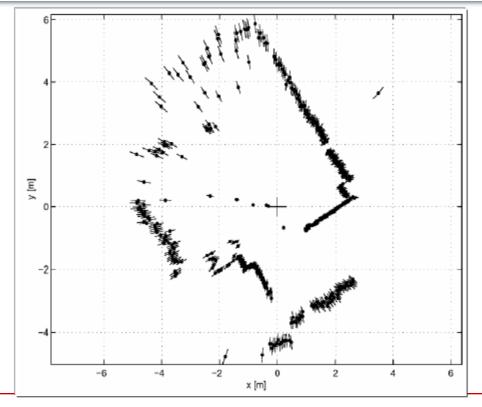




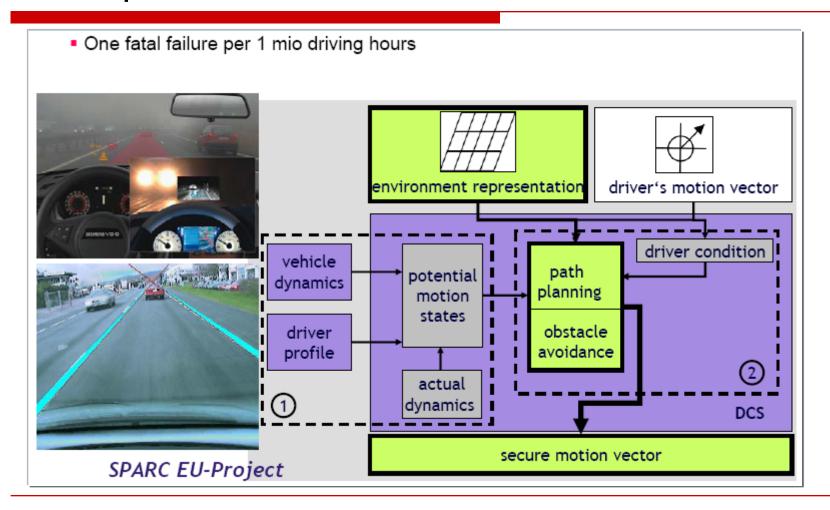
Why does Sick only measure 180°?



 Typical range image of a 2D laser range sensor with a rotating mirror. The length of the lines through the measurement points indicate the uncertainties.



Example SmartTer: Safety Support System for Cars



Example SmartTer: Localization - position estimation

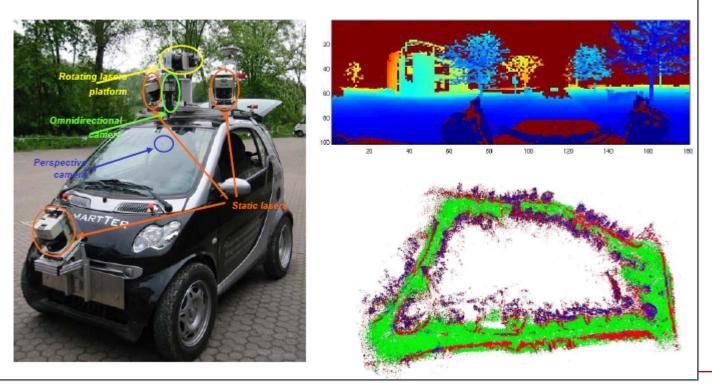
• 6 DOF position estimation based on information filter sensor fusion

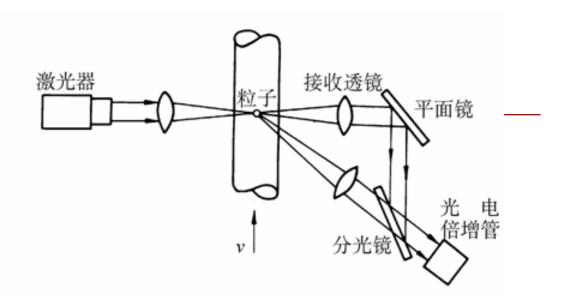




Example SmartTer: Mapping - environment representation

- 3D environment mapping based on laser and vision fusion
- 2D traversability map for navigation through free space





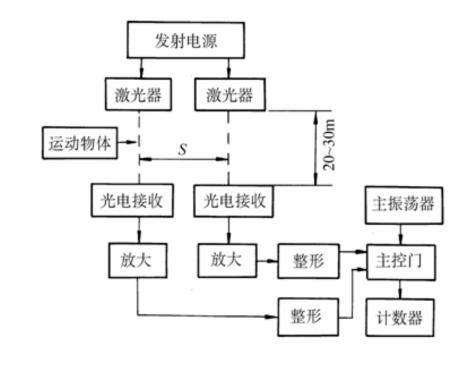
□ 激光测流速

- 当激光照射到随被测流体一起运动的微粒上时,激光被运动着的微 粒所散射
- 根据多普勒原理,散射光的频率相对于入射光将产生正比于流体速度的频率偏移,测出散射光的频率偏移,就可得到被测流体的流速
- 散射光与未散射光分别由两个接收透镜收集,并经平面镜和分光镜 重合后在光电倍增管中进行混频,输出一个交流信号。对该交流信号进行处理,即可得到多普勒频偏fd值,从而获得流体的流速v

□ 激光测车速

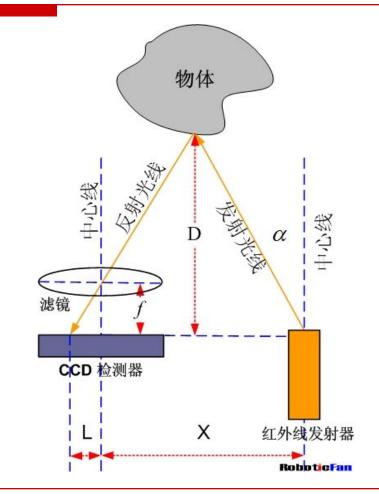
- 当被测物体进入相距为S的两个激光器区间(测速区)内时,先后遮断两个激光器发出的激光器发出的激光光束
- 利用计数器记录主振荡器在 先后遮断两激光束的时间间 隔内的脉冲数N,即可求得 被测物体的速度

$$v = \frac{S \cdot f}{N}$$



□ 红外探测

- 三角测量原理
- 红外发射器按照一定的角度 发射红外光束,当遇到物体 以后,光束会反射回来。反 射回来的红外光线被CCD检 测器检测到以后,会获得一 个偏移值L。
- 由发射角度a,偏移距L,中心矩X,以及滤镜的焦距f,确定传感器到物体的距离D
- 太近, L很大, 测试不到; 太远, L很小, 对CCD的分 辨率要求较高。



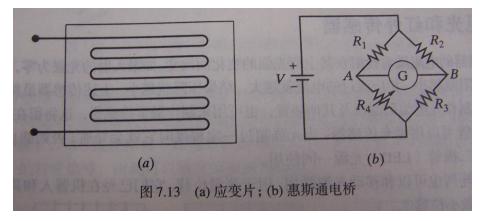
□ 外部状况的感觉

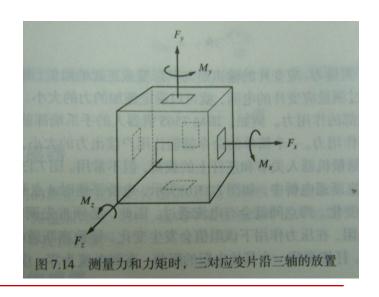
(5) 力觉传感器

力觉传感器是检测力和力矩的施加地点大小方向的传感器。

力的检测主要是用电阻应变片

力矩检测是力传感器的组合





触觉信息的获取

1. 接触觉传感器

接触觉传感器:探测是否接触到物体,传感器接受由于接触产生的柔量。

微动开关:按下开关就能进入电信号的简单机构。

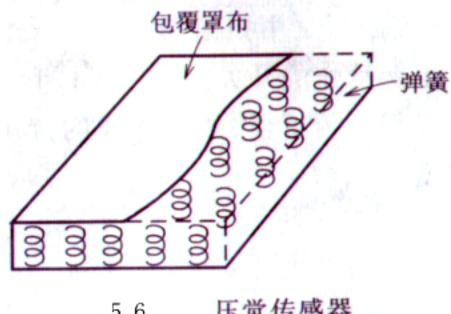
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2. 压觉传感器

压觉传感器: 检测物体同手爪间产生的压力和力以及其分布情况。

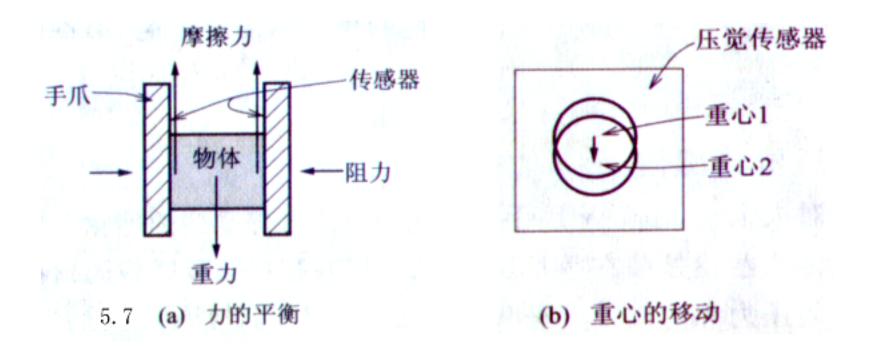
利用压电元件或弹簧。

如图是使用弹簧的平面传感器。



3. 滑觉传感器

滑觉传感器: 检测垂直加压力方向的力和位移。



4. 力觉传感器

力觉传感器主要利用电阻应变片。

原理: 金属丝拉伸时电阻变大。

