
Intelligent Robots Practice

Perception - Sensors

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- Introduction
- Classification of Sensors
- Characterizing Sensor Performance
- Sensors



Introduction



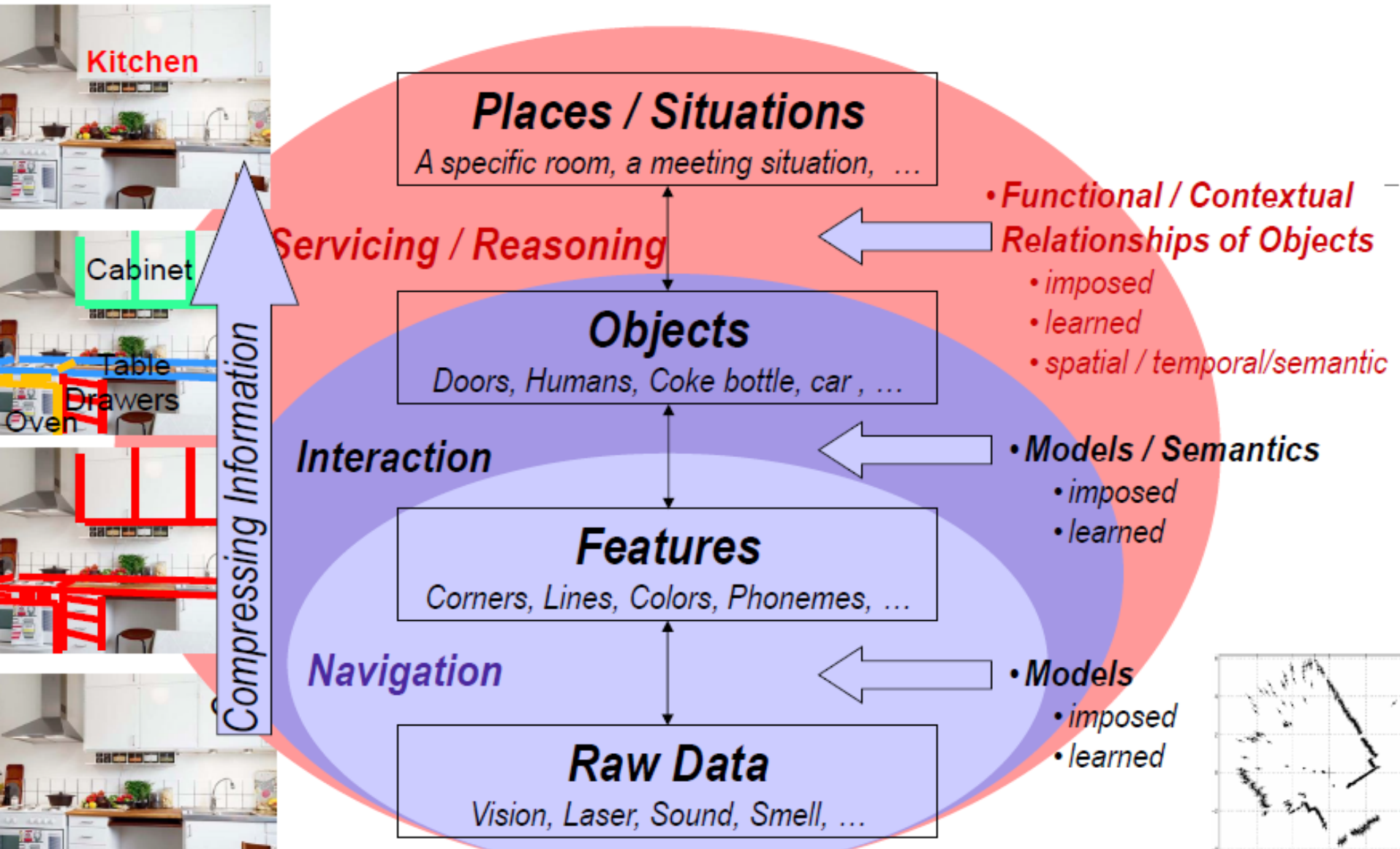
Introduction

■ Sensors for Mobile Robots

- Why should a robotics engineer know about sensors?
 - They are **the key components** for perceiving the environment
 - **Understanding the physical principles** 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**

Introduction

■ Perception for Mobile Robots



Introduction

■ Case Studies

- Let's look at a couple of case studies before we begin
 - What sensors are commonly employed on robots
 - How has the choice of sensors evolved over time
 - Shakey
 - Tourguide robots late 90ies
 - Willow Garage PR2
 - SmartTer – the autonomous car

Introduction

■ Case Studies

■ Shakey the Robot (1966-1972), SRI

■ Operating environment

■ Indoors

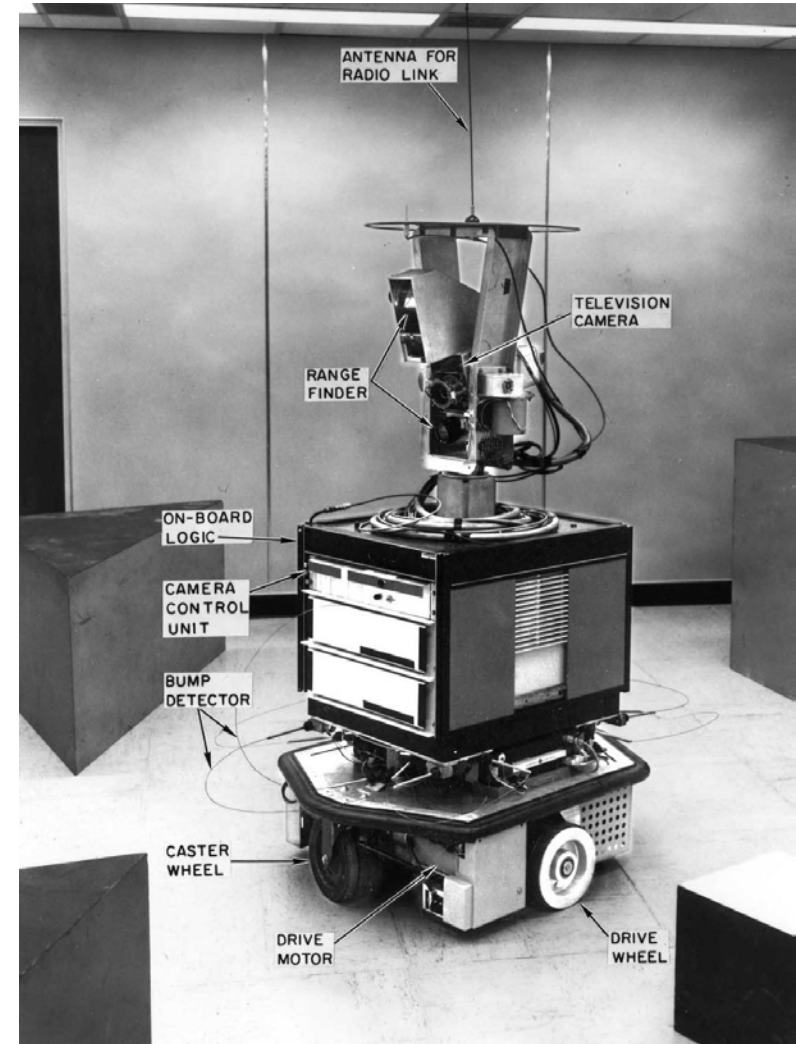
■ Sensors

■ Wheel encoders

■ Bump detector

■ Sonar range finder

■ Camera



Introduction

■ Case Studies

- Rhino Tourguide Robot (1995-1998),
University of Bonn
 - Operating environment
 - Indoors
(Museum: unstructured and dynamic)
 - Sensors
 - Wheel encoders
 - Ring of sonar sensors
 - Pan-tilt camera



Introduction

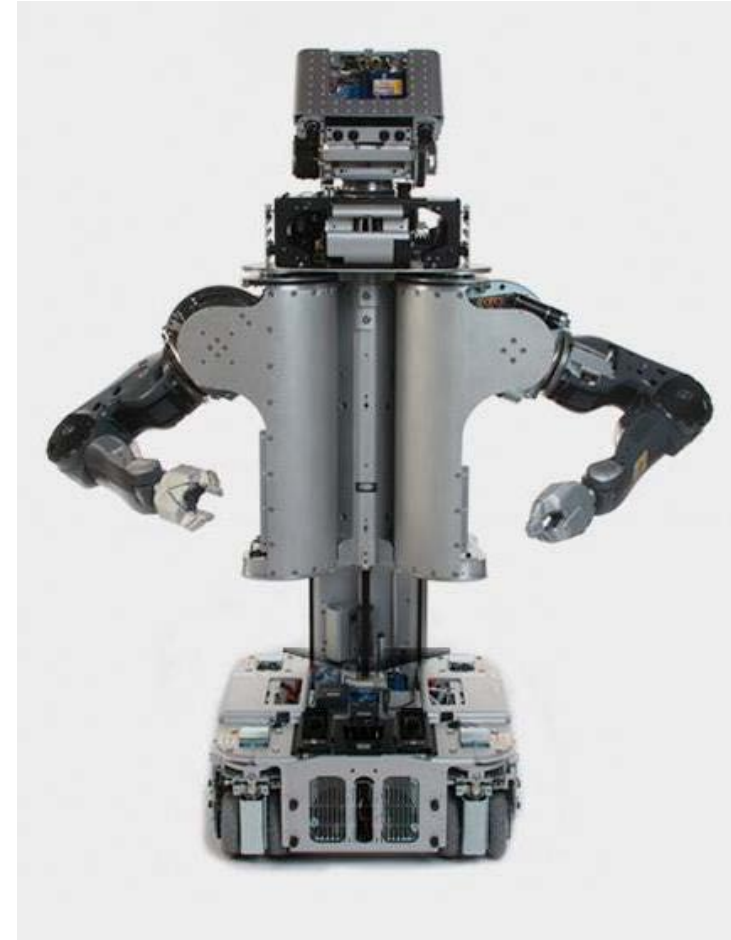
■ Case Studies

■ PR2 (2010-): Willow Garage

- Operating environment
 - Indoors and outdoors

■ Sensors

- Wheel encoders
- Bumper
- IR sensors
- Laser range finder
- 3D nodding laser range finder
- Inertial measurement unit
- Pan-tilt stereo camera with texture projector (active)
- Pressure sensor and accelerometer inside hands



Introduction

■ Case Studies

■ The SmartTer Platform (2004-2007)

■ Sensors

- Three navigation SICK laser scanners
- Two rotating laser scanners (3D SICK)
- Omnidirectional camera
- Monocular camera
- Motion Estimation / Localization
 - Differential GPS system
 - Inertial measurement unit
 - Optical Gyro
 - Odometry (wheel speed, steering angle)
- etc



Introduction

■ Case Studies

■ The SmartTer Platform (2004-2007)

■ Autonomous Navigation and 3D Mapping



Classification of Sensors



Classification of Sensors

■ What:

■ Proprioceptive sensors

- measure values internally to the system (robot),
- e.g. 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 from the environment

■ Active sensors

- emit their proper energy and measure the reaction
- better performance, but some influence on environment

Classification of Sensors

■ General Classification

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

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

Classification of Sensors

■ General Classification

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

Classification of Sensors

- Sensors outline
 - Encoders
 - Heading sensors
 - Compass
 - Gyroscopes
 - Accelerometer
 - IMU
 - GPS
 - Range sensors
 - Sonar
 - Laser
 - Structured light
 - Vision



Characterizing Sensor Performance



Characterizing Sensor Performance

- Basic sensor response ratings
 - Dynamic range
 - ratio between lower and upper limits, usually in decibels (dB)
 - Range
 - upper limit -lower limit
 - Resolution
 - minimum difference between two values
 - Linearity
 - variation of output signal as function of the input signal
 - Bandwidth or Frequency
 - the speed with which a sensor can provide a stream of readings

Characterizing Sensor Performance

■ Basic sensor response ratings

■ 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

■ Error / Accuracy

- difference between the sensor's output and the true value

■ 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 optics of a camera

■ Random error: non-deterministic

- no prediction possible
- however, they can be described probabilistically

■ Precision

- reproducibility of sensor results: $precision = \frac{range}{\sigma}$

Sensors



Encoders

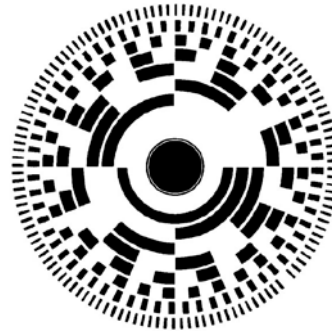
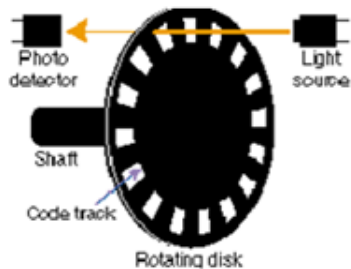
■ Wheel / Motor Encoders

■ Use cases

- Measure position or speed of the wheels or steering
- Integrate wheel movements to get an estimate of the position
→ odometry
- optical encoders are proprioceptive sensors

■ Type

- Absolute Encoder
- Incremental Encoder

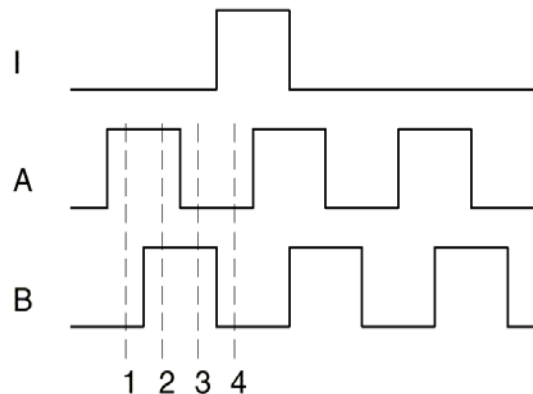
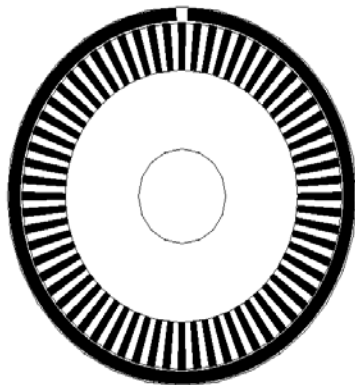


Encoders

■ Wheel / Motor Encoders

■ Working principle of optical encoders

- regular: counts the number of transitions but cannot tell the direction of motion
- quadrature: uses two sensors in quadrature-phase shift. The ordering of which wave produces a rising edge first tells the direction of motion. Additionally, resolution is 4 times bigger
- a single slot in the outer track generates a reference pulse per revolution



| State | Ch A | Ch B |
|----------------|------|------|
| S ₁ | High | Low |
| S ₂ | High | High |
| S ₃ | Low | High |
| S ₄ | Low | Low |

Heading Sensors

■ Heading sensors

- sensors that determine the robot's orientation and inclination
- can be proprioceptive (gyroscope, accelerometer) or exteroceptive (compass, inclinometer)
- Allows, together with an appropriate velocity information, to integrate the movement to a position estimate.
 - This procedure is called dead reckoning (ship navigation)

Heading Sensors

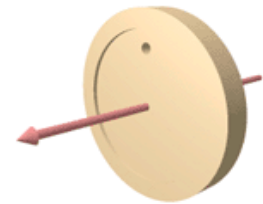
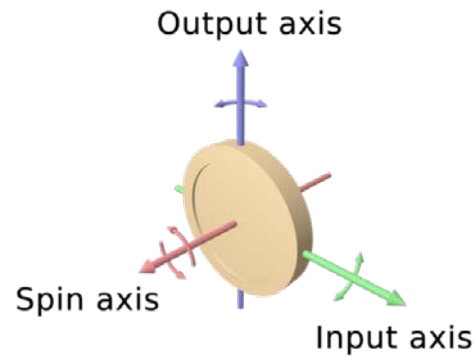
■ Gyroscope

■ Definition

- Heading sensors that preserve their orientation in relation to a fixed reference frame
- Used for measurement of angular acceleration
- They provide an absolute measure for the heading of a mobile system

■ Types

- Mechanical Gyroscopes
 - Standard gyro (angle)
 - Rate gyro (speed)
- Optical Gyroscopes
 - Rate gyro (speed)



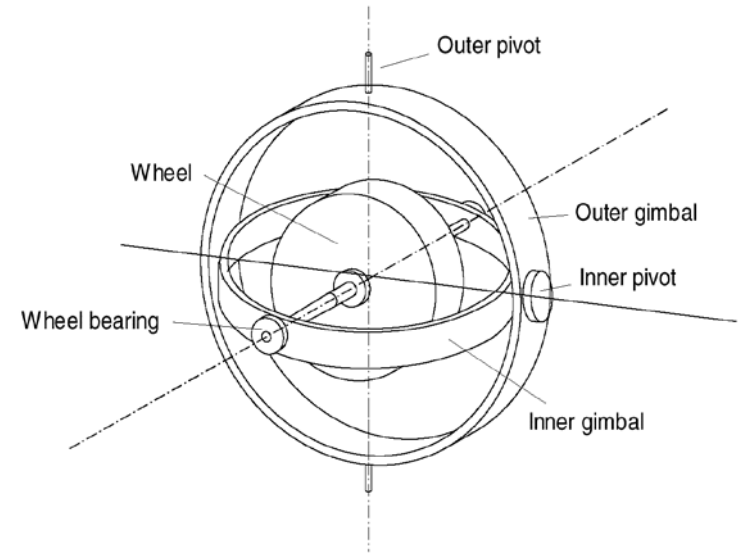
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Heading Sensors

■ Gyroscope

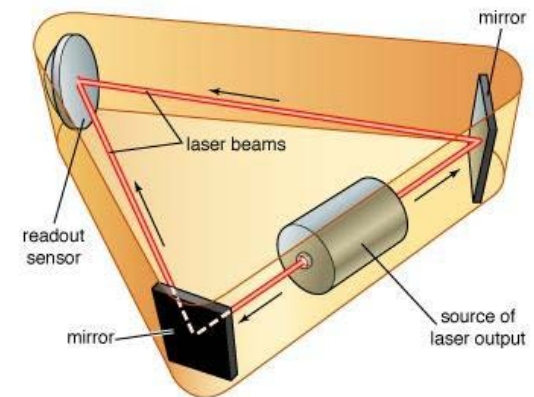
■ Rate gyros

- Measure angular speeds instead of the orientation
- The rate gyroscope uses the Coriolis effect of a sensor element to sense the speed of rotation (i.e., rate of turn)



■ Optical gyros

- Exploits difference of traveling distance between two lights
- Relatively high accurate



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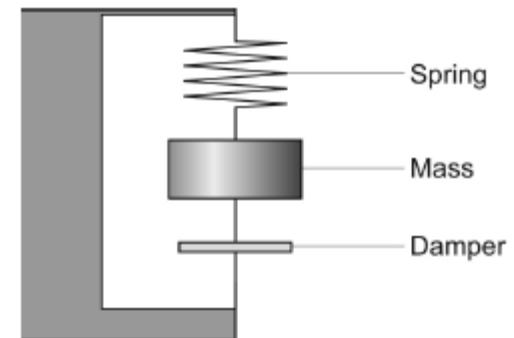
Heading Sensors

■ Accelerometer

■ Rate gyros

- Used for measurement of linear acceleration
- Measure all external forces acting upon them, including gravity
- One way of measuring the acceleration
 - Spring mounted mass:

$$a = \frac{kx^2}{m}$$

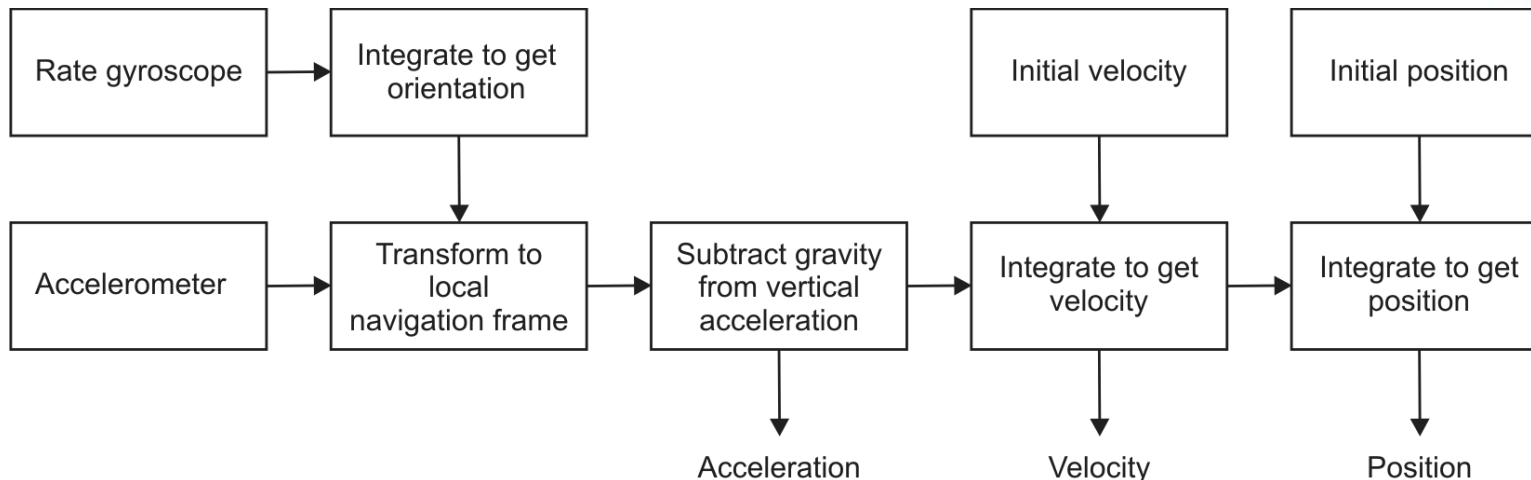


Heading Sensors

■ Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)

■ Definition

- Device that uses measurement systems such as gyroscopes and accelerometers to estimate the relative position (x, y, z), orientation (roll, pitch, yaw), velocity, and acceleration of a moving vehicle.

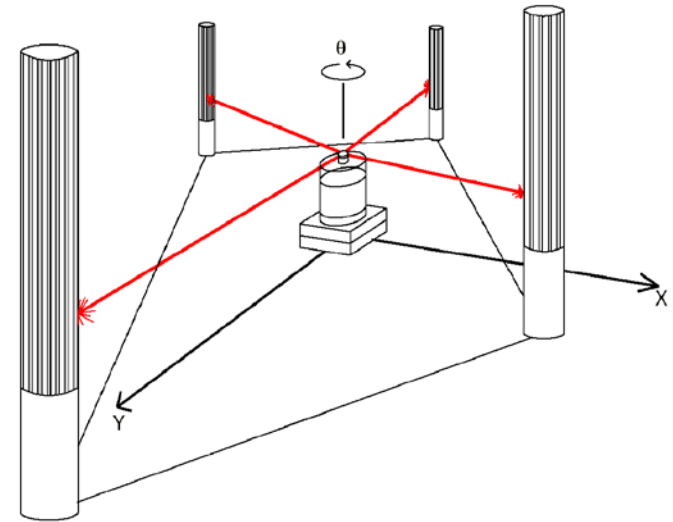


Absolute Position Sensors

■ Ground-Based Active and Passive Beacons

■ Beacons

- Signaling guiding devices with a precisely known position
- Natural/Artificial Beacons (or Landmarks)
- For examples
 - Global Positioning System (GPS)
 - QR code, UWB, RFID, Laser Reflector, etc
- Major drawback with the use of beacons in indoor:
 - Beacons require changes in the environment → costly
 - Limit flexibility and adaptability to changing environments.

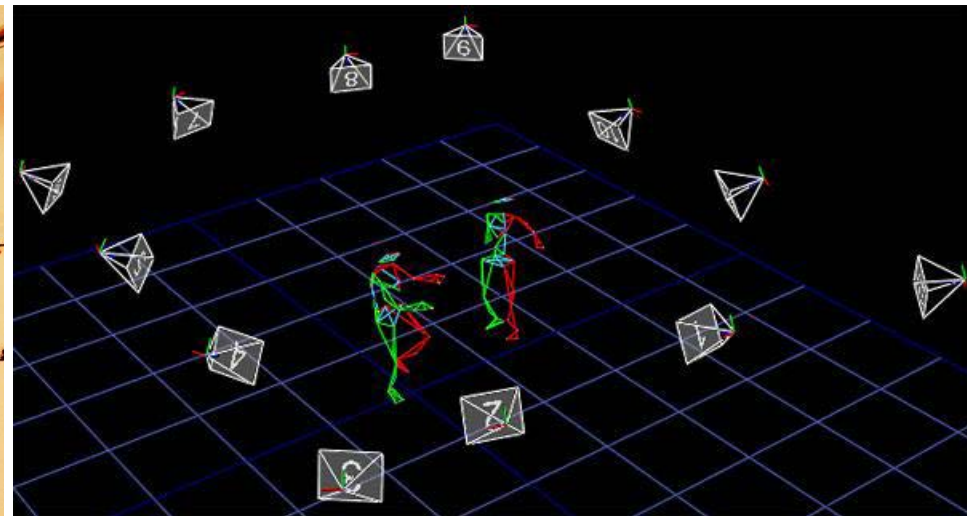


Absolute Position Sensors

■ Motion-Capture Systems

■ Vicon and Optitrack

- System of several cameras that track the position of reflective markers
- >300 fps
- <1 mm precision
- Indoor or outdoor application
- Require preinstallation and precalibration of the cameras (done with a special calibration rig moved by the user)

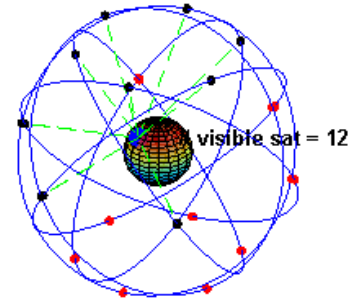


Absolute Position Sensors

■ Global Positioning System (GPS)

■ GPS System

- Became accessible for commercial applications in 1995
- Initially there were 24 satellites orbiting the earth every 12 hours at a height of 20.190 km
- 4 satellites were located in each of 6 orbits with 60 degrees orientation between each other
- The GPS receiver measures the difference in time-of-flight for signals from a combination of satellites.
 - Latitude, longitude, elevation, and current time can be estimated.
- At least five satellites are visible at any time from any point on the earth's surface.
- An estimate of absolute position can be obtained at a rate of up to 2 Hz.



Range Sensors

■ Range Sensors

■ Sonar



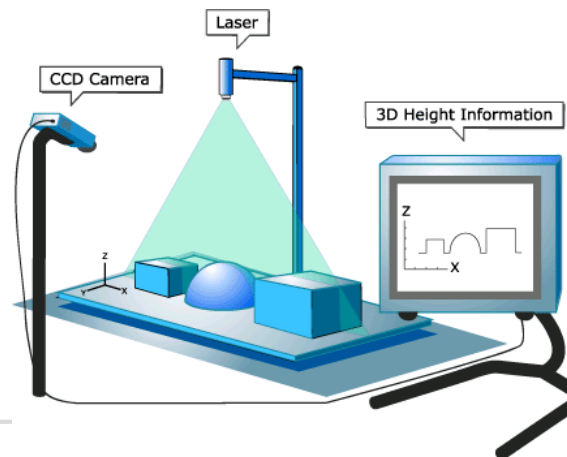
■ Laser range finder



■ Time of Flight Camera



■ Structured light



Range Sensors

- Range Sensors (time of flight)

- Range information

- Key element for localization and environment modeling

- Sort of Sensors

- Ultrasonic sensors

- make use of propagation speed of sound

- Laser range sensors

- make use of propagation speed of electromagnetic waves

- Traveled distance of a sound or electromagnetic wave

$$d = c \cdot t$$

- d = distance traveled (usually round-trip)

- c = speed of wave propagation

- t = time of flight

Range Sensors

■ Range Sensors (time of flight)

■ Sources of Wave

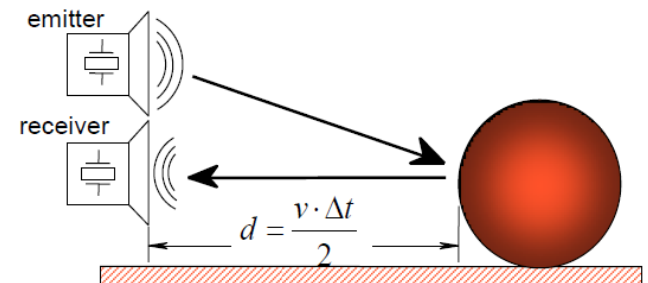
- Propagation speed v of sound: about 0.3 m/ms
 - e.g. 3 meters takes 10 ms for ultrasonic system
- Propagation speed v of electromagnetic signals: about 0.3 m/ns
 - e.g. 3 meters takes 10 ns for ultrasonic system

■ The quality of ToF range sensors manly depends on

- Uncertainties about the exact time of arrival of the reflected signal
- Inaccuracies in the time of flight measure (laser range sensors)
- Opening angle of transmitted beam (ultrasonic range sensors)
- Interaction with the target (surface, specular reflections)
- Variation of propagation speed
- Speed of mobile robot and target (if not at stand still)

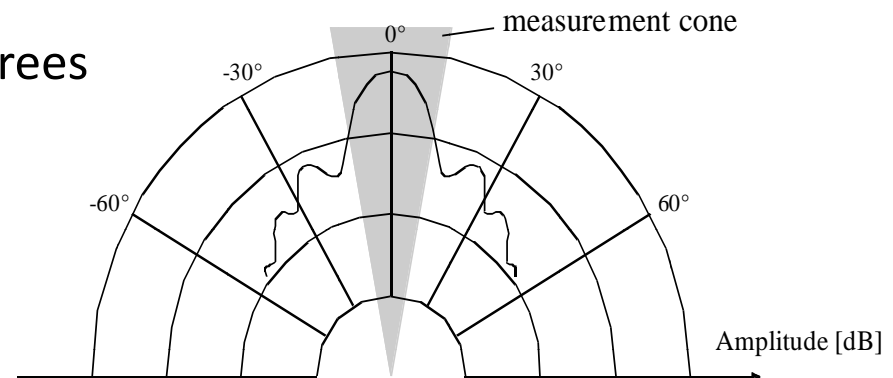
Range Sensors

- Ultrasonic Sensor (time of flight, sound)
 - Sonar (SOund NAvigation and Ranging)
 - Acoustic frequency used in commercial sonar units: 40-50 kHz
 - Higher frequencies are attenuated more rapidly, but they provide better spatial resolution.
 - Time-of-flight (TOF)
 - The sonar emits a short sound pulse and measures the time delay until the echo is received.
 - Distance: $d = \frac{1}{2} ct$
 - d = distance traveled (round-trip)
 - c = speed of wave propagation (m/s)
 - t = time of flight (time delay between the outgoing sound pulse and the received echo)



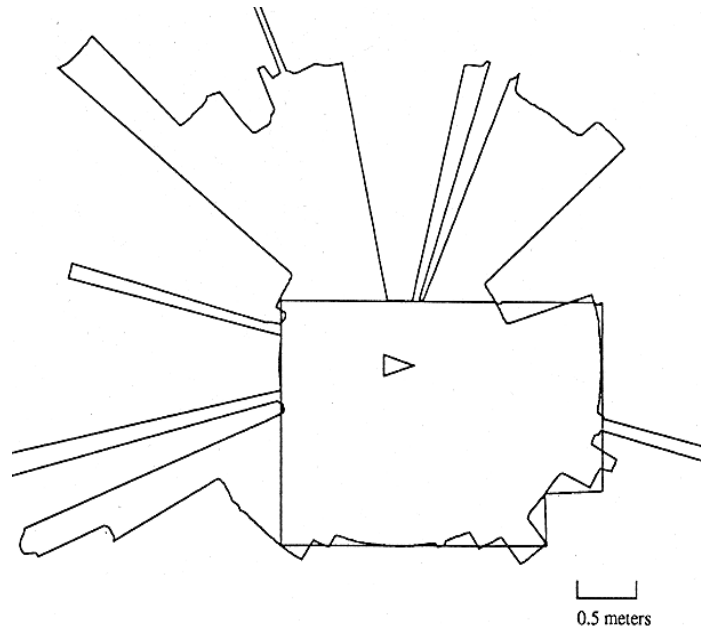
Range Sensors

- Ultrasonic Sensor (time of flight, sound)
 - Generation of sound wave via piezo transducer
 - transmitter and receiver can be separate or integrated in the same unit
 - Range between 12 cm up to 5 m
 - Resolution of ~ 2 cm
 - Relative error 2%
 - Beam width
 - sound beam propagates in a cone (approx.) with nonuniform energy distribution over the cone
 - opening angles around 20 to 40 degrees
 - regions of constant depth
 - segments of an arc (sphere for 3D)



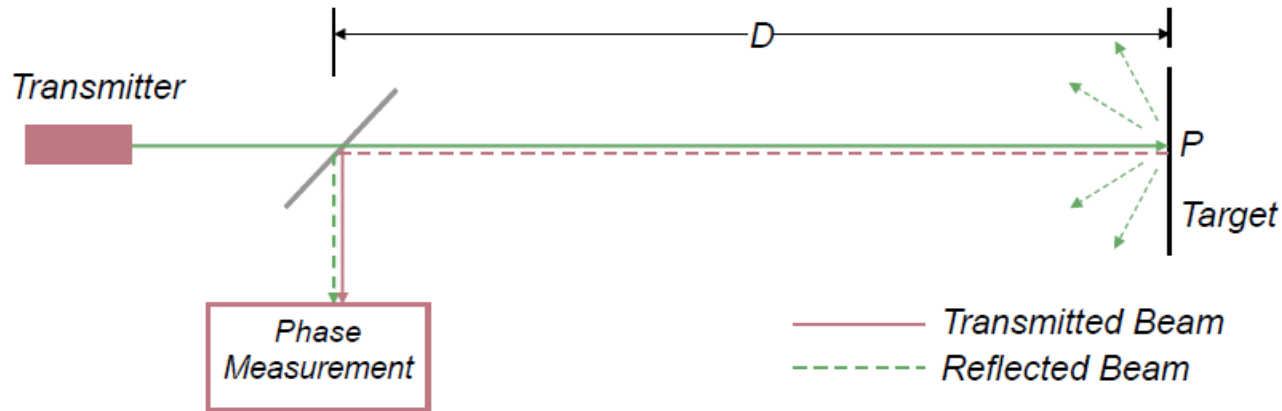
Range Sensors

- Ultrasonic Sensor (time of flight, sound)
 - Problems
 - Wide cone-shaped beam (angular uncertainty)
 - Soft surfaces that **absorb** most of the sound energy
 - Specular reflection
 - surfaces that are far from being perpendicular to the direction of the sound



Range Sensors

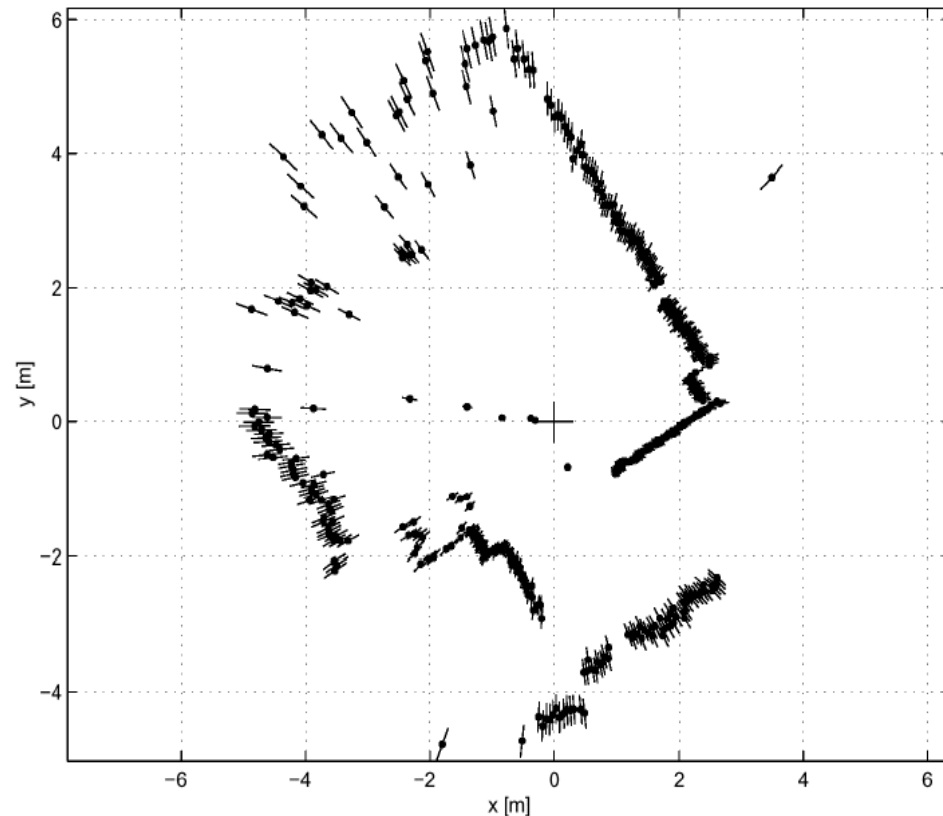
- Laser Range Sensor (time of flight, electromagnetic)
 - Lidar (Light Detection And Ranging)



- Principle of operation
 - Time-of-flight: measurement of the time delay between the emitted light beam and the returned reflection.
 - Transmitter illuminates a target with a collimated laser beam
 - Receiver detects the time needed for round-trip
 - A mechanical mechanism with a mirror sweeps
 - 2D or 3D measurement

Range Sensors

- Laser Range Sensor (time of flight, electromagnetic)
 - Lidar (Light Detection And Ranging)
 - Uncertainty of 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 ...
 - 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.



Range Sensors

- Laser Range Sensor (time of flight, electromagnetic)
 - 2D Lidar (Light Detection And Ranging)
 - The SICK LMS 200 Laser Scanner
 - Angular resolution 0.25 deg
 - Depth resolution ranges between ~10 mm
 - Typical accuracy is 35 mm, over a range from 5 cm up to 20 m or more (up to 80 m)
 - depending on the reflectivity of the object being ranged.
 - This device performs 75 180-degrees scans per second



Range Sensors

- Laser Range Sensor (time of flight, electromagnetic)
 - 3D Lidar (Light Detection And Ranging)
 - Velodyne HDL-64E
 - 64 Channels
 - 120m range
 - Up to ~2.2 Million Points per Second
 - 360° Horizontal FOV
 - 26.9° Vertical FOV
 - 0.08° angular resolution (azimuth)
 - ~0.4° Vertical Resolution



Range Sensors

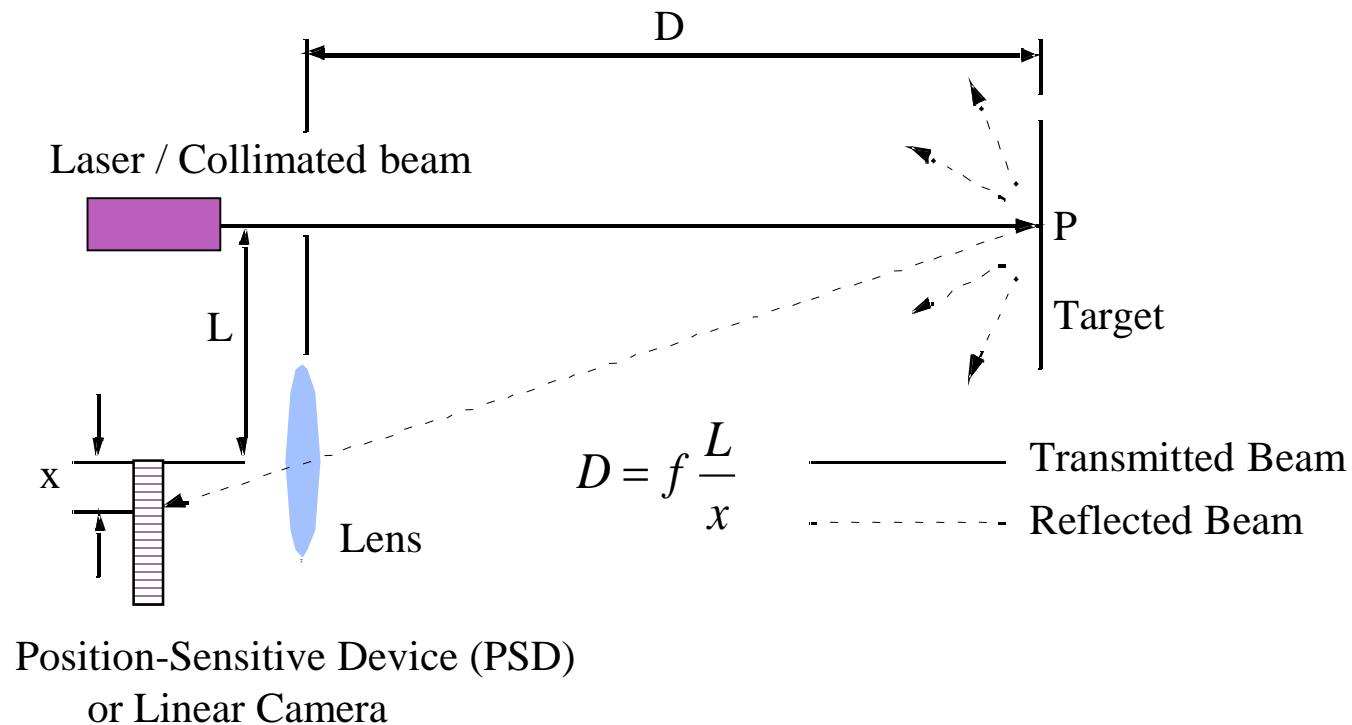
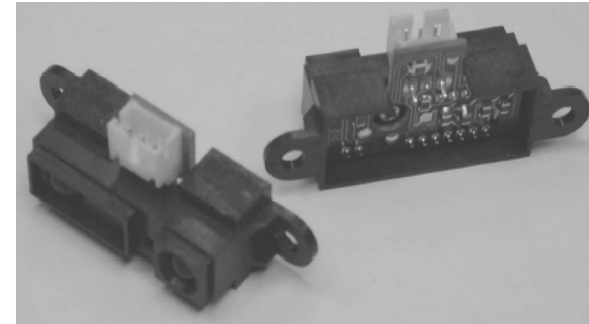
■ Triangulation Ranging

■ Principles

- Use of geometrical properties of the image to establish a distance measurement
- If a well-defined light pattern (e.g. point, line) is projected onto the environment
 - reflected light is then captured by a photo-sensitive line or matrix (camera) sensor device
 - simple triangulation allows to establish a distance.
- If size of a captured object is precisely known
 - triangulation without light projecting

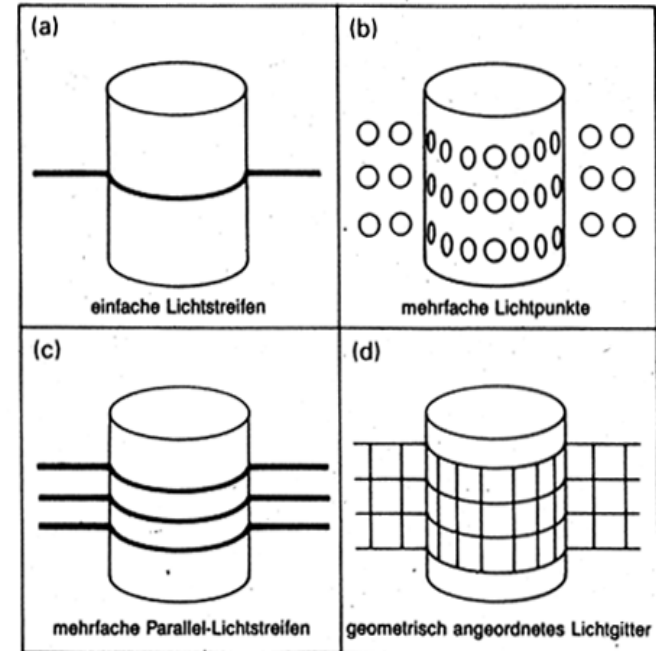
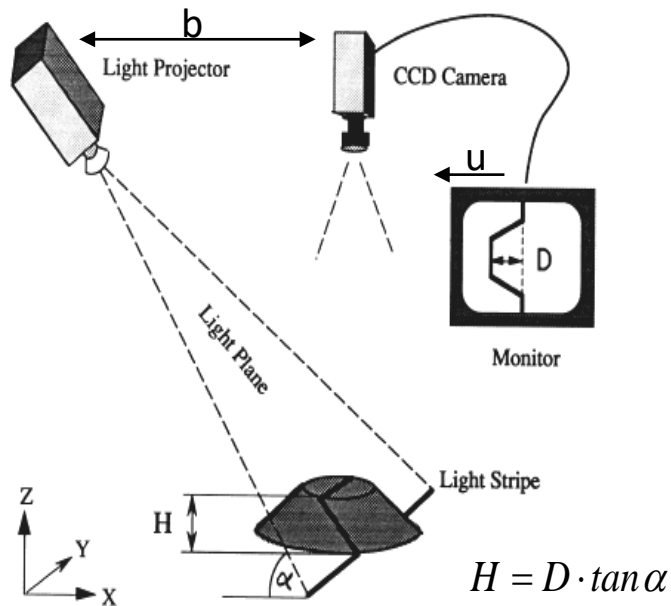
Range Sensors

- Triangulation Ranging
 - Laser Triangulation (1D)
 - PSD Sensor



Range Sensors

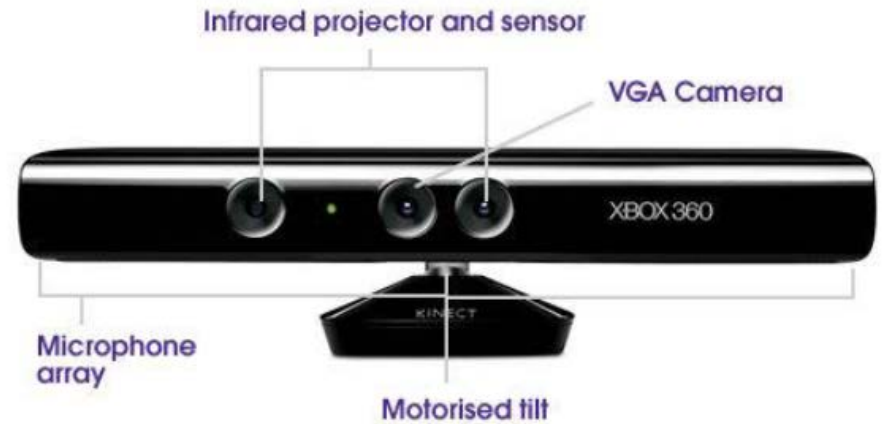
- Triangulation Ranging
 - Structured Light (vision, 2 or 3D)



- Eliminate the correspondence problem
 - by projecting structured light on the scene
- Range from simple geometry

Range Sensors

- Triangulation Ranging
 - Structured Light (vision, 2 or 3D)
 - Microsoft Kinect
 - Developed by Israeli company PrimeSense in 2010
 - Major components
 - IR Projector
 - IR Camera
 - VGA Camera
 - Microphone Array
 - Motorized Tilt



Range Sensors

- Triangulation Ranging
 - Structured Light (vision, 2 or 3D)
 - Microsoft Kinect
 - IR Pattern



Range Sensors

■ Triangulation Ranging

■ Structured Light (vision, 2 or 3D)

■ Microsoft Kinect

■ Depth Map

- uses an infrared projector and an infrared sensor
- not use its RGB camera for depth computation

