



Hochschule
Bonn-Rhein-Sieg
University of Applied Sciences



Perception

Sensors and Sensor Models

Dr. Alex Mitrevski
Master of Autonomous Systems

Structure

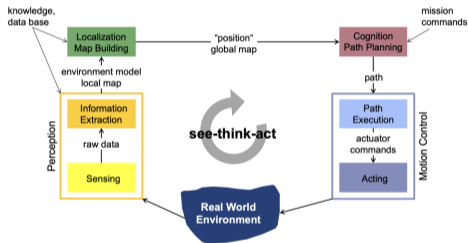
- ▶ Perception overview
- ▶ Sensors
- ▶ Sensor models



Perception Overview

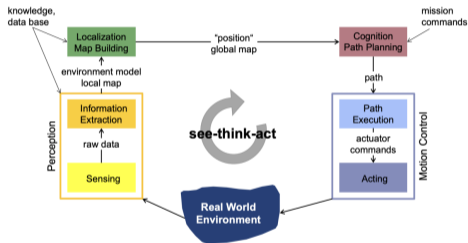


Perception: An Integral Part of a Robot's Operation



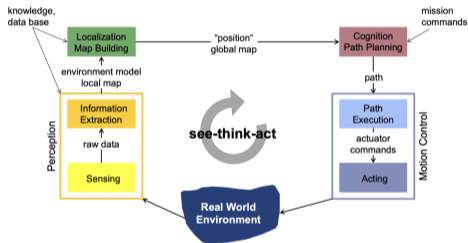
- ▶ For an autonomous mobile robot, acting and planning depend on utilising information about the environment

Perception: An Integral Part of a Robot's Operation



- ▶ For an autonomous mobile robot, acting and planning depend on utilising information about the environment
- ▶ Perception refers to the process of **collecting data gathered by sensors and interpreting that data so that meaningful information about the environment can be extracted**

Perception: An Integral Part of a Robot's Operation



- ▶ For an autonomous mobile robot, acting and planning depend on utilising information about the environment
- ▶ Perception refers to the process of **collecting data gathered by sensors and interpreting that data so that meaningful information about the environment can be extracted**
- ▶ Perception encompasses the use of information from any sensory modality, as well as from multimodal data

Belief About the Robot's or Environment's State

- ▶ **A robot rarely has perfect information about its own state or the state of the environment, but has to maintain a model of what it believes its own or the environment's state to be**

Belief About the Robot's or Environment's State

- ▶ **A robot rarely has perfect information about its own state or the state of the environment, but has to maintain a model of what it believes its own or the environment's state to be**
- ▶ **A robot's belief is a model of what the robot believes the state of the world to be**

Belief About the Robot's or Environment's State

- ▶ **A robot rarely has perfect information about its own state or the state of the environment, but has to maintain a model of what it believes its own or the environment's state to be**
- ▶ A robot's belief is **a model of what the robot believes the state of the world to be**
- ▶ **The belief is typically represented probabilistically**, namely probabilities are associated with different aspects of the robot's or the environment's state (e.g. a probability that the robot is at a given location or that it has seen a specific cup on a table)
 - ▶ Beliefs are probabilistic because sensor measurements are never perfectly accurate

Belief About the Robot's or Environment's State

- ▶ **A robot rarely has perfect information about its own state or the state of the environment, but has to maintain a model of what it believes its own or the environment's state to be**
- ▶ A robot's belief is **a model of what the robot believes the state of the world to be**
- ▶ **The belief is typically represented probabilistically**, namely probabilities are associated with different aspects of the robot's or the environment's state (e.g. a probability that the robot is at a given location or that it has seen a specific cup on a table)
 - ▶ Beliefs are probabilistic because sensor measurements are never perfectly accurate
- ▶ Perception is essential for maintaining the robot's belief because it can be used to verify whether the observations correspond to the model
 - ▶ As we will see later in the course, this is the main idea behind SLAM algorithms

Prototypical Perception Process

- ▶ **The perceptual process starts with collecting information through sensors**
 - ▶ We will look at different types of sensors used in robotics shortly



Prototypical Perception Process

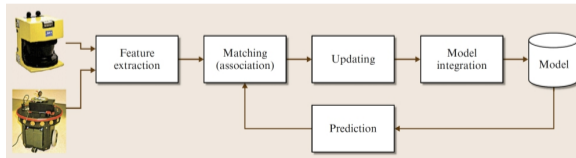
- ▶ **The perceptual process starts with collecting information through sensors**
 - ▶ We will look at different types of sensors used in robotics shortly
- ▶ **The collected raw data are then summarised through features**
 - ▶ During this process, **data filtering** is often performed
 - ▶ Traditionally, feature extraction used to be a manual process, where **hand-crafted features** were extracted
 - ▶ **Feature extraction can also be automated**, particularly using neural network-based architectures (but still not with equal success for all modalities)

Prototypical Perception Process

- ▶ **The perceptual process starts with collecting information through sensors**
 - ▶ We will look at different types of sensors used in robotics shortly
- ▶ **The collected raw data are then summarised through features**
 - ▶ During this process, **data filtering** is often performed
 - ▶ Traditionally, feature extraction used to be a manual process, where **hand-crafted features** were extracted
 - ▶ **Feature extraction can also be automated**, particularly using neural network-based architectures (but still not with equal success for all modalities)
- ▶ **Sensors are sometimes associated with models that enable predicting measurements**
 - ▶ The discrepancy between the expectations and the actual observations can be used to update a robot's belief

Prototypical Perception Process

- ▶ **The perceptual process starts with collecting information through sensors**
 - ▶ We will look at different types of sensors used in robotics shortly
- ▶ **The collected raw data are then summarised through features**
 - ▶ During this process, **data filtering** is often performed
 - ▶ Traditionally, feature extraction used to be a manual process, where **hand-crafted features** were extracted
 - ▶ **Feature extraction can also be automated**, particularly using neural network-based architectures (but still not with equal success for all modalities)
- ▶ **Sensors are sometimes associated with models that enable predicting measurements**
 - ▶ The discrepancy between the expectations and the actual observations can be used to update a robot's belief



Sensors



Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
Speed/motion	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
	Laser range	EC	A
	Structured light	EC	A
	Doppler radar	EC	A
Identification	Doppler sound	EC	A
	Camera	EC	P
	Accelerometer	EC	P
Identification	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
	Sound	EC	P

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:



Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
Speed/motion	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
	Laser range	EC	A
	Structured light	EC	A
	Doppler radar	EC	A
	Doppler sound	EC	A
Camera	EC	P	
Identification	Accelerometer	EC	P
	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
	Sound	EC	P

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:

1. According to the nature of the measured values, we can distinguish between **proprioceptive** and **exteroceptive** sensors

Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
	Laser range	EC	A
Structured light	EC	A	
Speed/motion	Doppler radar	EC	A
	Doppler sound	EC	A
	Camera	EC	P
	Accelerometer	EC	P
Identification	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
	Sound	EC	P

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:

1. According to the nature of the measured values, we can distinguish between **proprioceptive** and **exteroceptive** sensors
 - ▶ **Proprioceptive sensors measure internal robot values** (e.g. joint angles)

Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
	Laser range	EC	A
Speed/motion	Structured light	EC	A
	Doppler radar	EC	A
	Doppler sound	EC	A
	Camera	EC	P
	Accelerometer	EC	P
Identification	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
	Sound	EC	P

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:

1. According to the nature of the measured values, we can distinguish between **proprioceptive** and **exteroceptive** sensors
 - ▶ **Proprioceptive sensors measure internal robot values** (e.g. joint angles)
 - ▶ **Exteroceptive sensors collect external environment data** (e.g. images from the environment)

Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
	Laser range	EC	A
Speed/motion	Structured light	EC	A
	Doppler radar	EC	A
	Doppler sound	EC	A
	Camera	EC	P
	Accelerometer	EC	P
Identification	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
	Sound	EC	P

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:

1. According to the nature of the measured values, we can distinguish between **proprioceptive** and **exteroceptive** sensors
 - ▶ **Proprioceptive sensors measure internal robot values** (e.g. joint angles)
 - ▶ **Exteroceptive sensors collect external environment data** (e.g. images from the environment)
2. Based on the mechanism used for acquiring measurements, we have **active** and **passive** sensors

Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
Speed/motion	Laser range	EC	A
	Structured light	EC	A
	Doppler radar	EC	A
	Doppler sound	EC	A
	Camera	EC	P
Identification	Accelerometer	EC	P
	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
Sound	EC	P	

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:

1. According to the nature of the measured values, we can distinguish between **proprioceptive** and **exteroceptive** sensors
 - ▶ **Proprioceptive sensors measure internal robot values** (e.g. joint angles)
 - ▶ **Exteroceptive sensors collect external environment data** (e.g. images from the environment)
2. Based on the mechanism used for acquiring measurements, we have **active** and **passive** sensors
 - ▶ **Passive sensors continuously receive data without explicitly triggering the process**

Classification of Sensors

Table 5.1 Classification of sensors frequently used in robotics according to sensing objective (proprioception (PC)/exteroception (EC)) and method (active/passive)

Classification	Sensor type	Sens	A/P
Tactile sensors	Switches/bumpers	EC	P
	Optical barriers	EC	A
	Proximity	EC	P/A
Haptic sensors	Contact arrays	EC	P
	Force/torque	PC/EC	P
	Resistive	EC	P
Motor/axis sensors	Brush encoders	PC	P
	Potentiometers	PC	P
	Resolvers	PC	A
	Optical encoders	PC	A
	Magnetic encoders	PC	A
	Inductive encoders	PC	A
	Capacity encoders	EC	A
Heading sensors	Compass	EC	P
	Gyroscopes	PC	P
	Inclinometers	EC	A/P
Beacon based (position wrt an inertial frame)	GPS	EC	A
	Active optical	EC	A
	Radio frequency (RF) beacons	EC	A
Ranging	Ultrasound beacon	EC	A
	Reflective beacons	EC	A
	Capacitive sensor	EC	P
	Magnetic sensors	EC	P/A
	Camera	EC	P/A
	Sonar	EC	A
Speed/motion	Laser range	EC	A
	Structured light	EC	A
	Doppler radar	EC	A
	Doppler sound	EC	A
	Camera	EC	P
Identification	Accelerometer	EC	P
	Camera	EC	P
	Radio frequency identification RFID	EC	A
	Laser ranging	EC	A
	Radar	EC	A
	Ultrasound	EC	A
	Sound	EC	P

Sensors can be classified according to two main criteria:

1. According to the nature of the measured values, we can distinguish between **proprioceptive** and **exteroceptive** sensors
 - ▶ **Proprioceptive sensors measure internal robot values** (e.g. joint angles)
 - ▶ **Exteroceptive sensors collect external environment data** (e.g. images from the environment)
2. Based on the mechanism used for acquiring measurements, we have **active** and **passive** sensors
 - ▶ **Passive sensors continuously receive data without explicitly triggering the process**
 - ▶ **Active sensors trigger the process of data collection and measure the received signal**

- ▶ An encoder is a **device that measures the speed and often the direction of rotational motion**, typically using active sensing

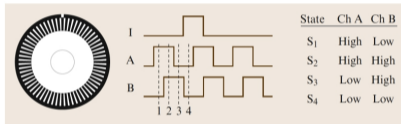


Fig. 5.5 Sketch of the quadrature encoder disc, and output from photodetectors placed over each of the two pattern. The corresponding state changes are shown on the *right*

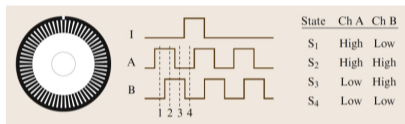


Fig. 5.5 Sketch of the quadrature encoder disc, and output from photodetectors placed over each of the two pattern. The corresponding state changes are shown on the *right*

- ▶ An encoder is a **device that measures the speed and often the direction of rotational motion**, typically using active sensing
- ▶ An encoder measures a signal of high / low patterns of windows on a rotating disk

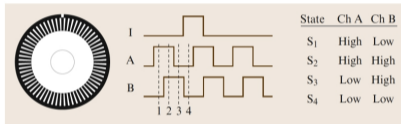


Fig. 5.5 Sketch of the quadrature encoder disc, and output from photodetectors placed over each of the two pattern. The corresponding state changes are shown on the *right*

- ▶ An encoder is a **device that measures the speed and often the direction of rotational motion**, typically using active sensing
- ▶ An encoder measures a signal of high / low patterns of windows on a rotating disk
- ▶ To measure the direction of motion, a **quadrature encoder** can be used, where **two concentric disks are placed with a phase offset**; two signals are thus measured here (as shown on the left)

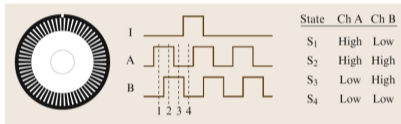


Fig. 5.5 Sketch of the quadrature encoder disc, and output from photodetectors placed over each of the two pattern. The corresponding state changes are shown on the *right*

- ▶ An encoder is a **device that measures the speed and often the direction of rotational motion**, typically using active sensing
- ▶ An encoder measures a signal of high / low patterns of windows on a rotating disk
- ▶ To measure the direction of motion, a **quadrature encoder** can be used, where **two concentric disks are placed with a phase offset**; two signals are thus measured here (as shown on the left)
- ▶ **Optical encoders**, which are more precise, are very common on commercial robots
 - ▶ An encoders is used for every wheel / manipulator joint

Accelerometers

- ▶ An accelerometer **measures external forces** that are applied to it (along three separate axes)

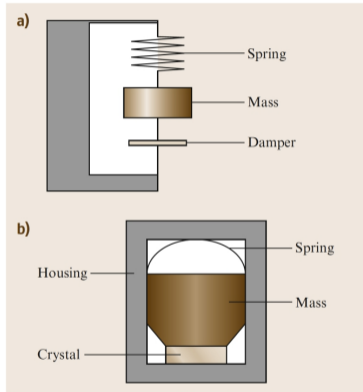


Fig. 29.6 Accelerometers. (a) Mechanical accelerometer; (b) piezoelectric accelerometer ◀

Accelerometers

- ▶ An accelerometer **measures external forces** that are applied to it (along three separate axes)
- ▶ There are various types of accelerators:

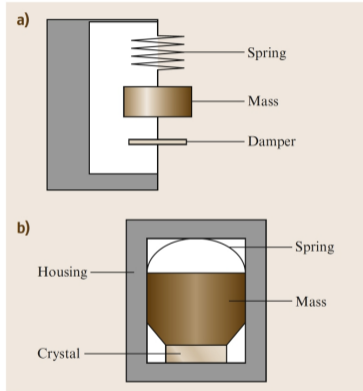


Fig. 29.6 Accelerometers. (a) Mechanical accelerometer; (b) piezoelectric accelerometer ◀

Accelerometers

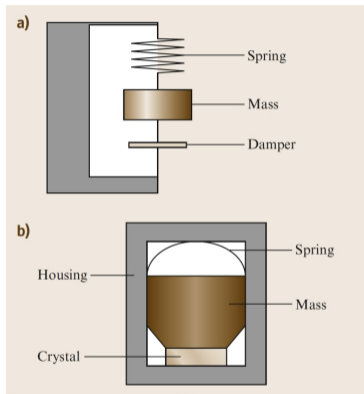


Fig. 29.6 Accelerometers. (a) Mechanical accelerometer; (b) piezoelectric accelerometer ◀

- ▶ An accelerometer **measures external forces** that are applied to it (along three separate axes)
- ▶ There are various types of accelerators:
 - ▶ **Mechanical accelerators:** Based on a classical spring-mass-damper system, where an external force displaces the spring:

$$F_{ext} = m\ddot{x} + \gamma\dot{x} + kx$$

Accelerometers

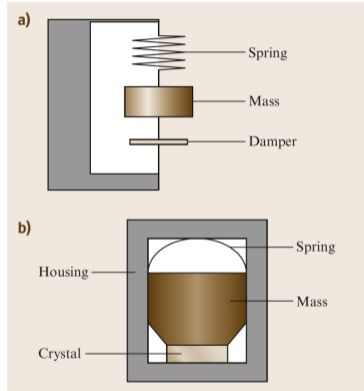


Fig. 29.6 Accelerometers. (a) Mechanical accelerometer; (b) piezoelectric accelerometer ◀

- ▶ An accelerometer **measures external forces** that are applied to it (along three separate axes)
- ▶ There are various types of accelerators:
 - ▶ **Mechanical accelerators:** Based on a classical spring-mass-damper system, where an external force displaces the spring:

$$F_{ext} = m\ddot{x} + \gamma\dot{x} + kx$$

- ▶ **Piezoelectric accelerators:** Use a crystal that supports a mass and generates voltage when an external force is applied to it

Accelerometers

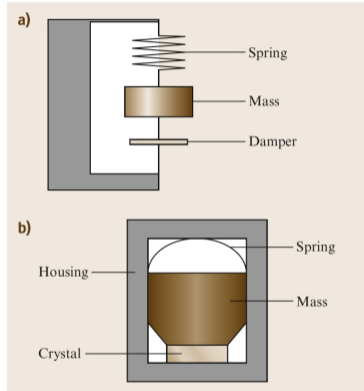


Fig. 29.6 Accelerometers. (a) Mechanical accelerometer; (b) piezoelectric accelerometer ◀

- ▶ An accelerometer **measures external forces** that are applied to it (along three separate axes)
- ▶ There are various types of accelerators:
 - ▶ **Mechanical accelerators:** Based on a classical spring-mass-damper system, where an external force displaces the spring:

$$F_{ext} = m\ddot{x} + \gamma\dot{x} + kx$$

- ▶ **Piezoelectric accelerators:** Use a crystal that supports a mass and generates voltage when an external force is applied to it
- ▶ **MEMS accelerators:** Commonly used accelerometers that measure the change in capacitance as a result of motion caused by an external force

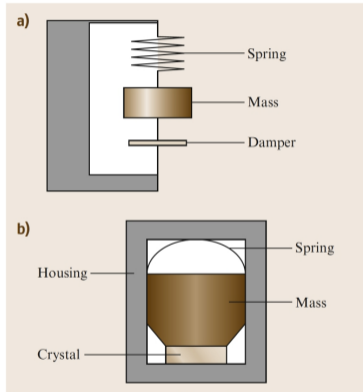


Fig. 29.6 Accelerometers. (a) Mechanical accelerometer; (b) piezoelectric accelerometer ◀

- ▶ An accelerometer **measures external forces** that are applied to it (along three separate axes)
- ▶ There are various types of accelerators:
 - ▶ **Mechanical accelerators**: Based on a classical spring-mass-damper system, where an external force displaces the spring:

$$F_{ext} = m\ddot{x} + \gamma\dot{x} + kx$$

- ▶ **Piezoelectric accelerators**: Use a crystal that supports a mass and generates voltage when an external force is applied to it
- ▶ **MEMS accelerators**: Commonly used accelerometers that measure the change in capacitance as a result of motion caused by an external force
- ▶ Force / torque sensors operate based on similar principles

- ▶ A gyroscope is used to **measure rotational velocity**

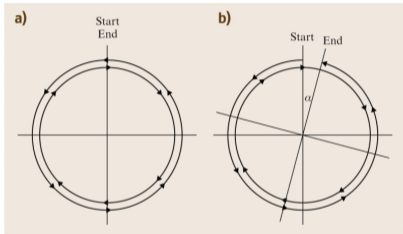


Fig.29.4a,b Circular light path. (a) Stationary path; (b) Moving path

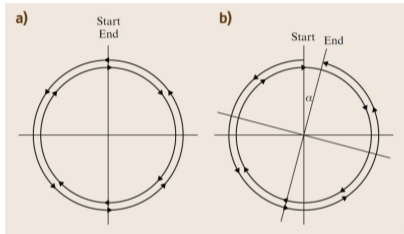


Fig.29.4a,b Circular light path. (a) Stationary path; (b) Moving path

- ▶ A gyroscope is used to **measure rotational velocity**
- ▶ Just as in the case of accelerators, there are different types of gyroscopes:

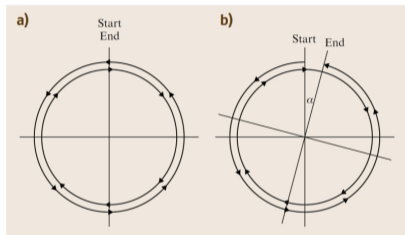


Fig.29.4a,b Circular light path. (a) Stationary path; (b) Moving path

- ▶ A gyroscope is used to **measure rotational velocity**
- ▶ Just as in the case of accelerators, there are different types of gyroscopes:
 - ▶ **Mechanical gyroscopes:** Measure rotational changes based on the principle of conservation of angular momentum $L = I \times \omega$

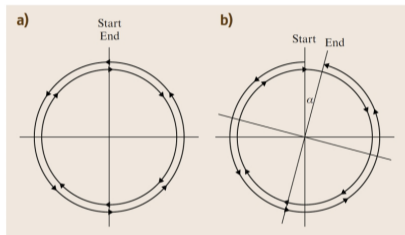


Fig.29.4a,b Circular light path. (a) Stationary path; (b) Moving path

- ▶ A gyroscope is used to **measure rotational velocity**
- ▶ Just as in the case of accelerators, there are different types of gyroscopes:
 - ▶ **Mechanical gyroscopes:** Measure rotational changes based on the principle of conservation of angular momentum $L = I \times \omega$
 - ▶ **Optical gyroscopes:** Measure the time difference in the path of light travelling in opposite directions to the same point (as illustrated on the left)

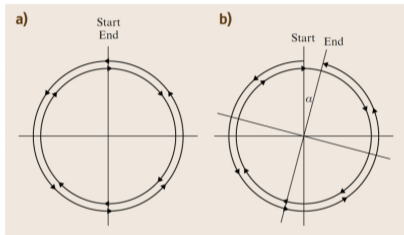


Fig.29.4a,b Circular light path. (a) Stationary path; (b) Moving path

- ▶ A gyroscope is used to **measure rotational velocity**
- ▶ Just as in the case of accelerators, there are different types of gyroscopes:
 - ▶ **Mechanical gyroscopes:** Measure rotational changes based on the principle of conservation of angular momentum $L = I \times \omega$
 - ▶ **Optical gyroscopes:** Measure the time difference in the path of light travelling in opposite directions to the same point (as illustrated on the left)
 - ▶ **MEMS gyroscopes:** Measure the Coriolis force experienced by an object travelling in a straight line a rotating frame

Inertial Measurement Units (IMUs)

- ▶ An IMU combines an accelerometer and a gyroscope to measure both linear acceleration and rotational velocity

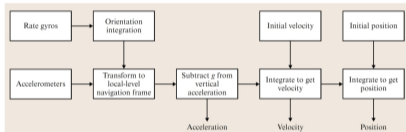


Fig. 29.7 IMU block diagram

Inertial Measurement Units (IMUs)

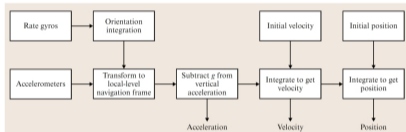


Fig. 29.7 IMU block diagram

- ▶ An IMU combines an accelerometer and a gyroscope to measure both linear acceleration and rotational velocity
- ▶ The overall operation of an IMU is illustrated in the diagram on the left

Inertial Measurement Units (IMUs)

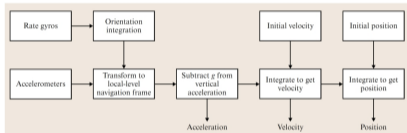


Fig. 29.7 IMU block diagram

- ▶ An IMU combines an accelerometer and a gyroscope to measure both linear acceleration and rotational velocity
- ▶ The overall operation of an IMU is illustrated in the diagram on the left
- ▶ As errors in the gyroscope and accelerometer measurements accumulate, **IMU measurements tend to drift**; an external reference is thus often required for error correction

Global Positioning System (GPS)

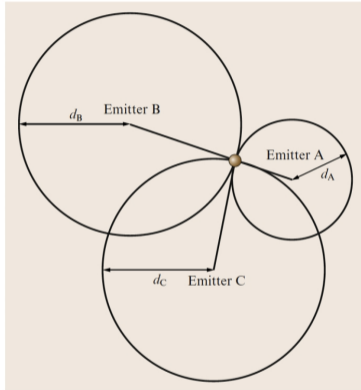


Fig. 29.8 GPS trilateration on the plane

- ▶ GPS is a **positioning system based on a collection of satellites orbiting around Earth**, which continuously emit data packages as radio signals

Global Positioning System (GPS)

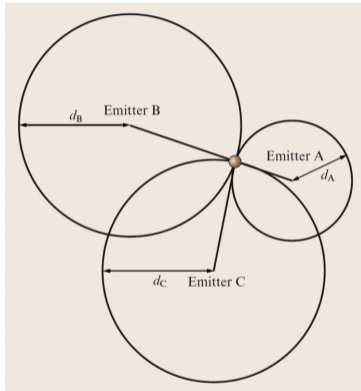


Fig. 29.8 GPS trilateration on the plane

- ▶ GPS is a **positioning system based on a collection of satellites orbiting around Earth**, which continuously emit data packages as radio signals
- ▶ **Based on known positions of the satellites** (monitored by ground stations) and **on time differences in signal propagation from the satellites to the receiver**, a position estimate for the receiver can be computed

Global Positioning System (GPS)

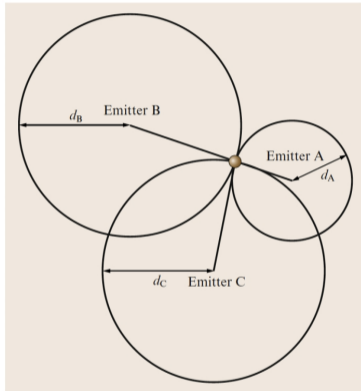
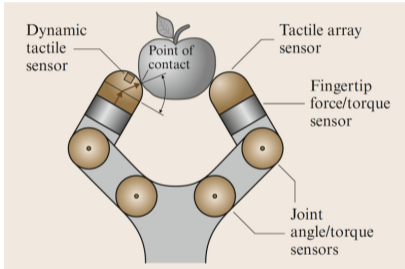


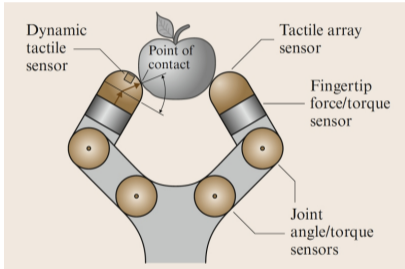
Fig. 29.8 GPS trilateration on the plane

- ▶ GPS is a **positioning system based on a collection of satellites orbiting around Earth**, which continuously emit data packages as radio signals
- ▶ **Based on known positions of the satellites** (monitored by ground stations) and **on time differences in signal propagation from the satellites to the receiver**, a position estimate for the receiver can be computed
- ▶ GPS-based position estimates are computed using **multilateration** (an example with three measurements is shown on the left)

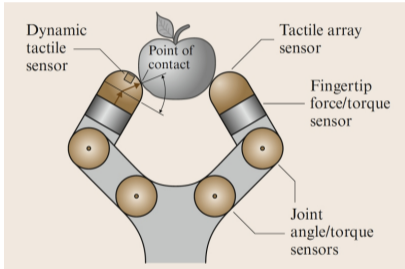
Tactile Sensors

- ▶ Tactile sensors **measure deformations of a material** and are used to induce a robot with a touch sense

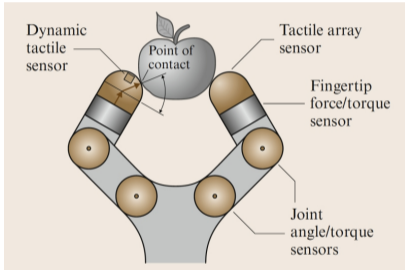




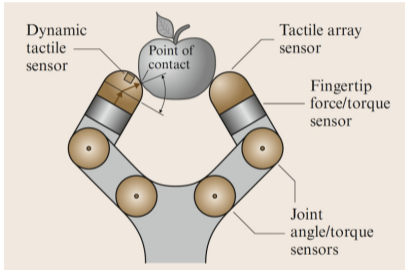
- ▶ Tactile sensors **measure deformations of a material** and are used to induce a robot with a touch sense
- ▶ These are often designed as tactile pressure sensing arrays, which can operate based on different principles:



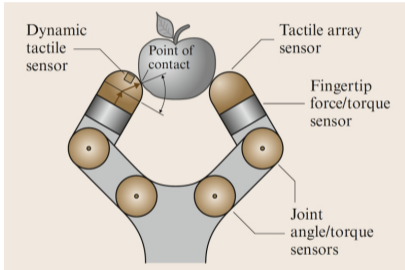
- ▶ Tactile sensors **measure deformations of a material** and are used to induce a robot with a touch sense
- ▶ These are often designed as tactile pressure sensing arrays, which can operate based on different principles:
 - ▶ **Capacitive arrays**: Measure a change in a capacitance resulting from a distance change between capacitor plates



- ▶ Tactile sensors **measure deformations of a material** and are used to induce a robot with a touch sense
- ▶ These are often designed as tactile pressure sensing arrays, which can operate based on different principles:
 - ▶ **Capacitive arrays**: Measure a change in a capacitance resulting from a distance change between capacitor plates
 - ▶ **Piezoresistive arrays**: Measure a change in resistance of a material as a result of applied



- ▶ Tactile sensors **measure deformations of a material** and are used to induce a robot with a touch sense
- ▶ These are often designed as tactile pressure sensing arrays, which can operate based on different principles:
 - ▶ **Capacitive arrays**: Measure a change in a capacitance resulting from a distance change between capacitor plates
 - ▶ **Piezoresistive arrays**: Measure a change in resistance of a material as a result of applied
 - ▶ **Optical arrays**: Identify deformations using pairs of optical emitters and detectors



- ▶ Tactile sensors **measure deformations of a material** and are used to induce a robot with a touch sense
- ▶ These are often designed as tactile pressure sensing arrays, which can operate based on different principles:
 - ▶ **Capacitive arrays**: Measure a change in a capacitance resulting from a distance change between capacitor plates
 - ▶ **Piezoresistive arrays**: Measure a change in resistance of a material as a result of applied
 - ▶ **Optical arrays**: Identify deformations using pairs of optical emitters and detectors
- ▶ Tactile sensors are not (yet) very common on commercial robots (often due to cost)

Ultrasonic Sensors (Sonars)

- ▶ A sonar is an active range sensor that uses ultrasonic sound waves for distance measurement

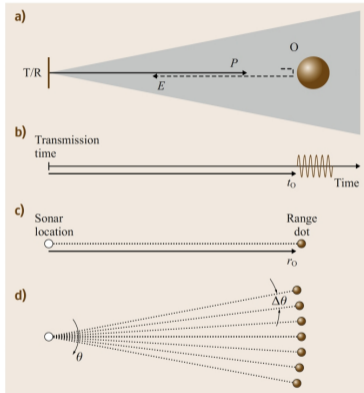


Fig.30.1a-d Sonar ranging principles: (a) sonar configuration, (b) echo waveform, (c) range dot placement, (d) sonar map

Ultrasonic Sensors (Sonars)

- ▶ A sonar is an active range sensor that uses ultrasonic sound waves for distance measurement
- ▶ Sonars emit an ultrasonic sound with speed v_s and measure the distance d to an object based on a time-of-flight principle:

$$d = \frac{v_s t}{2}$$

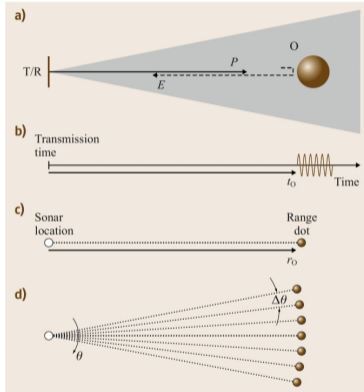


Fig.30.1a-d Sonar ranging principles: (a) sonar configuration, (b) echo waveform, (c) range dot placement, (d) sonar map

Ultrasonic Sensors (Sonars)

- ▶ A sonar is an active range sensor that uses ultrasonic sound waves for distance measurement
- ▶ Sonars emit an ultrasonic sound with speed v_s and measure the distance d to an object based on a time-of-flight principle:

$$d = \frac{v_s t}{2}$$

- ▶ Objects detected by a sonar lie **within a beam** with a given opening angle; thus, the information about the object's location is not unambiguously determined from a single measurement

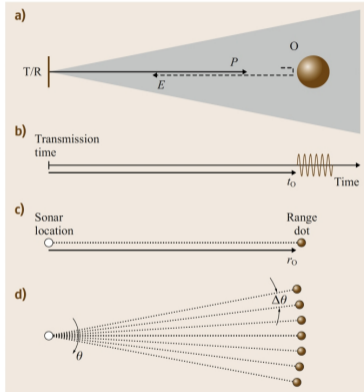


Fig.30.1a-d Sonar ranging principles: (a) sonar configuration, (b) echo waveform, (c) range dot placement, (d) sonar map

Ultrasonic Sensors (Sonars)

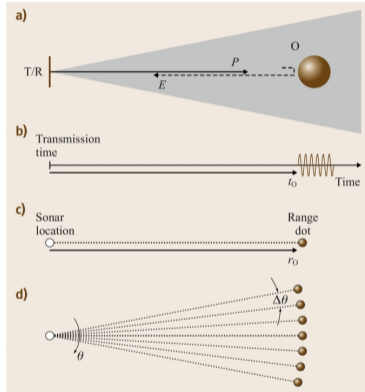


Fig.30.1a-d Sonar ranging principles: (a) sonar configuration, (b) echo waveform, (c) range dot placement, (d) sonar map

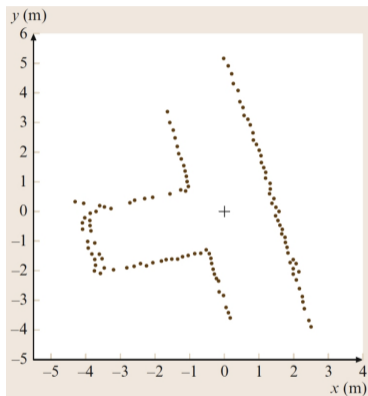
- ▶ A sonar is an active range sensor that uses ultrasonic sound waves for distance measurement
- ▶ Sonars emit an ultrasonic sound with speed v_s and measure the distance d to an object based on a time-of-flight principle:

$$d = \frac{v_s t}{2}$$

- ▶ Objects detected by a sonar lie **within a beam** with a given opening angle; thus, the information about the object's location is not unambiguously determined from a single measurement
- ▶ Sonars are less frequently used on modern mobile platforms, but are commonly applied in underwater robotics

Light Detection and Ranging (Lidar)

- ▶ Lidars are also **active range sensors**, but measure **distance based on an emitted laser beam**



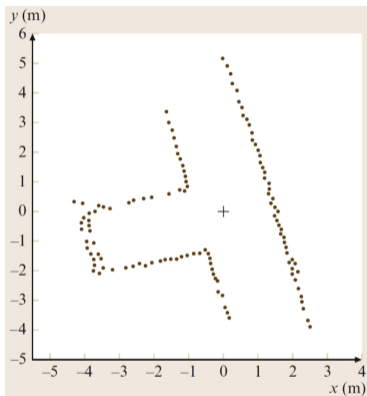
Example measurements from a 2D laser scanner

Light Detection and Ranging (Lidar)

► Lidars are also **active range sensors, but measure distance based on an emitted laser beam**

► As light travels at a fixed speed c , the distance can be calculated as

$$d = \frac{ct}{2}$$



Example measurements from a 2D laser scanner

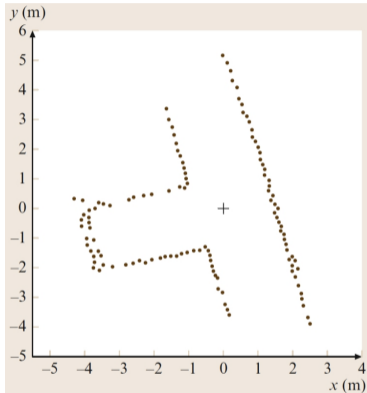
Light Detection and Ranging (Lidar)

- ▶ Lidars are also **active range sensors, but measure distance based on an emitted laser beam**
- ▶ As light travels at a fixed speed c , the distance can be calculated as

$$d = \frac{ct}{2}$$

- ▶ In practice, the travel time can be difficult to measure accurately (c is very high); instead, **the light signal is modulated with a frequency f and a phase difference φ is measured instead**, which results in

$$d = \frac{c\varphi}{4\pi f}$$



Example measurements from a 2D laser scanner

Light Detection and Ranging (Lidar)

- ▶ Lidars are also **active range sensors**, but measure **distance based on an emitted laser beam**

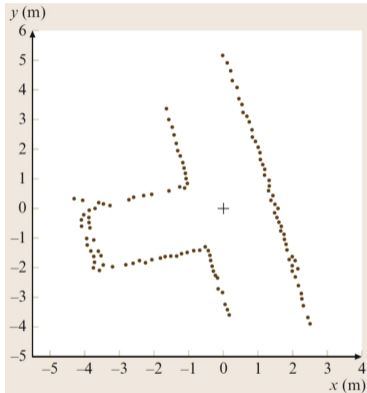
- ▶ As light travels at a fixed speed c , the distance can be calculated as

$$d = \frac{ct}{2}$$

- ▶ In practice, the travel time can be difficult to measure accurately (c is very high); instead, **the light signal is modulated with a frequency f and a phase difference φ is measured instead**, which results in

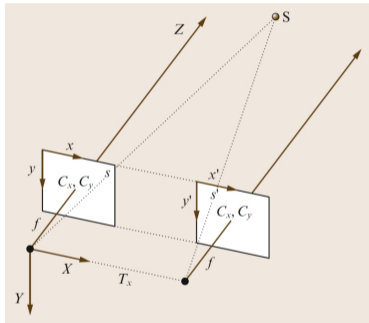
$$d = \frac{c\varphi}{4\pi f}$$

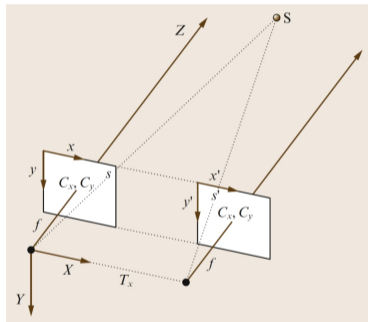
- ▶ **Lidars can be two- or three-dimensional**, and typically **return distances to multiple points simultaneously**



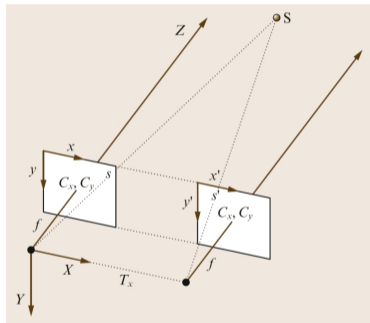
Example measurements from a 2D laser scanner

- ▶ A camera is a **passive optical device that records light passing through a lens**

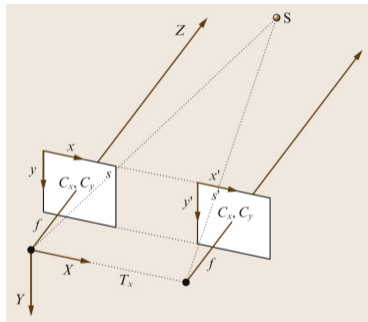




- ▶ A camera is a **passive optical device that records light passing through a lens**
- ▶ In robotics, cameras are always digital, and **images are represented as arrays of pixels**



- ▶ A camera is a **passive optical device that records light passing through a lens**
- ▶ In robotics, cameras are always digital, and **images are represented as arrays of pixels**
- ▶ A single camera only provides two-dimensional information about the environment, but two cameras can be used together to perform **stereo vision**, whose principles are based on **epipolar geometry**



- ▶ A camera is a **passive optical device that records light passing through a lens**
- ▶ In robotics, cameras are always digital, and **images are represented as arrays of pixels**
- ▶ A single camera only provides two-dimensional information about the environment, but two cameras can be used together to perform **stereo vision**, whose principles are based on **epipolar geometry**
- ▶ Visual information captured by cameras is vital for scene understanding

- ▶ An RGB-D camera **records both an RGB image and a depth image**, where the depth image records distances to points



Fig. 31.11 The laser grid of the Kinect for calculating depth

- ▶ An RGB-D camera **records both an RGB image and a depth image**, where the depth image records distances to points
- ▶ Depth is measured based on a principle known as **structured light**; this involves **projecting an infrared grid pattern** that is **measured by an offset camera**
 - ▶ Depth is approximated through pattern distortions



Fig. 31.11 The laser grid of the Kinect for calculating depth



Fig. 31.11 The laser grid of the Kinect for calculating depth

- ▶ An RGB-D camera **records both an RGB image and a depth image**, where the depth image records distances to points
- ▶ Depth is measured based on a principle known as **structured light**; this involves **projecting an infrared grid pattern** that is **measured by an offset camera**
 - ▶ Depth is approximated through pattern distortions
- ▶ RGB-D cameras typically have rather low resolution (commonly 640×480 pixels)



Fig. 31.11 The laser grid of the Kinect for calculating depth

- ▶ An RGB-D camera **records both an RGB image and a depth image**, where the depth image records distances to points
- ▶ Depth is measured based on a principle known as **structured light**; this involves **projecting an infrared grid pattern** that is **measured by an offset camera**
 - ▶ Depth is approximated through pattern distortions
- ▶ RGB-D cameras typically have rather low resolution (commonly 640×480 pixels)
- ▶ Such cameras were popularised with the Microsoft Kinect, but there are now a variety of RGB-D cameras that are used on robots



Fig. 31.11 The laser grid of the Kinect for calculating depth

- ▶ An RGB-D camera **records both an RGB image and a depth image**, where the depth image records distances to points
- ▶ Depth is measured based on a principle known as **structured light**; this involves **projecting an infrared grid pattern** that is **measured by an offset camera**
 - ▶ Depth is approximated through pattern distortions
- ▶ RGB-D cameras typically have rather low resolution (commonly 640×480 pixels)
- ▶ Such cameras were popularised with the Microsoft Kinect, but there are now a variety of RGB-D cameras that are used on robots
- ▶ The set of points measured by an RGB-D camera is usually referred to as a **point cloud**

Event Cameras



G. Gallego et al., "Event-Based Vision: A Survey," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 154-180, 2022.

- ▶ An event camera is a newer camera type that **measures events, which are changes in light intensity for every individual pixel**

Event Cameras



G. Gallego et al., "Event-Based Vision: A Survey," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 154-180, 2022.

- ▶ An event camera is a newer camera type that **measures events, which are changes in light intensity for every individual pixel**
- ▶ Due to measuring only intensity differences for individual pixels, **event cameras are able to record data at a considerably higher frequency than conventional cameras**

Event Cameras



G. Gallego et al., "Event-Based Vision: A Survey," *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 154-180, 2022.

- ▶ An event camera is a newer camera type that **measures events, which are changes in light intensity for every individual pixel**
- ▶ Due to measuring only intensity differences for individual pixels, **event cameras are able to record data at a considerably higher frequency than conventional cameras**
- ▶ The design of event cameras is biologically inspired, so event cameras are used in **neuromorphic computing**

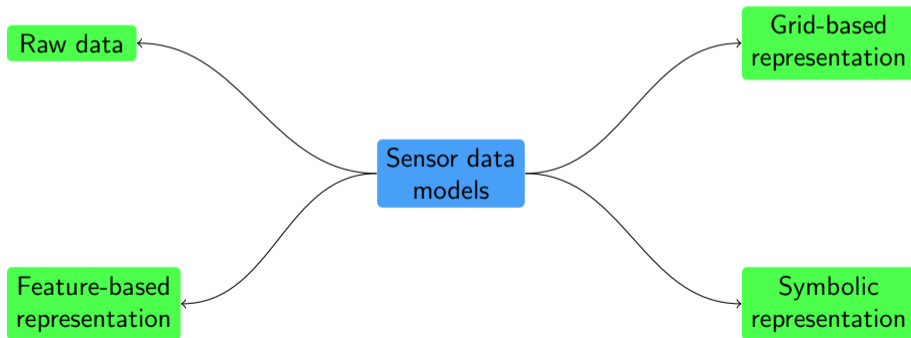
Sensor Models



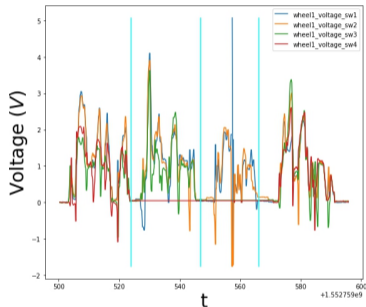
State Representations



- ▶ The purpose of sensor data is to update the robot's representation of itself or the environment — **the world's state**
- ▶ There are a variety of state representations that are used for different purposes in robotics



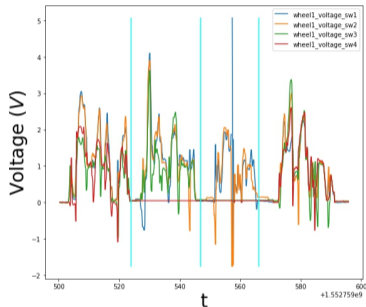
Raw Data Representation



Smart wheel voltage measurements
(wheels by KELO Robotics GmbH)

- ▶ Raw representations **preserve the form of the data as measured by a sensor**

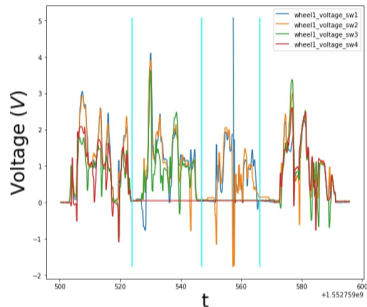
Raw Data Representation



Smart wheel voltage measurements
(wheels by KELO Robotics GmbH)

- ▶ Raw representations **preserve the form of the data as measured by a sensor**
- ▶ **Filtering is typically performed on the raw data** to eliminate noisy outliers (e.g. low-pass filtering)

Raw Data Representation

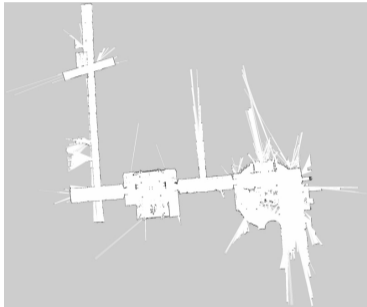


Smart wheel voltage measurements
(wheels by KELO Robotics GmbH)

- ▶ Raw representations **preserve the form of the data as measured by a sensor**
- ▶ **Filtering is typically performed on the raw data** to eliminate noisy outliers (e.g. low-pass filtering)
- ▶ Raw data is **often used at the low-level robot control level**

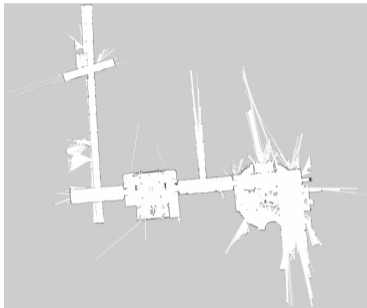
Grid-Based Representation

- ▶ In a grid-based representation, **data are represented in discrete, non-overlapping cells**



Discrete occupancy grid map (partial map of the ground floor of the H-BRS C-building). White cells denote free space, black cells depict occupied space, and gray cells represent unknown space.

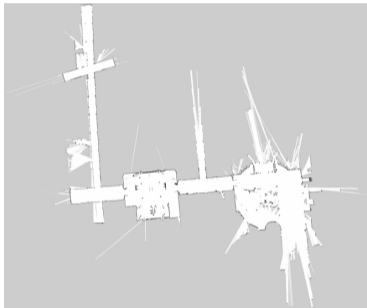
Grid-Based Representation



Discrete occupancy grid map (partial map of the ground floor of the H-BRS C-building). White cells denote free space, black cells depict occupied space, and gray cells represent unknown space.

- ▶ In a grid-based representation, **data are represented in discrete, non-overlapping cells**
- ▶ Grid-based representations are **used when discretisation is desirable** (discrete data is usually simpler to handle), **or when discretisation is inevitable** (due to computational or memory constraints)

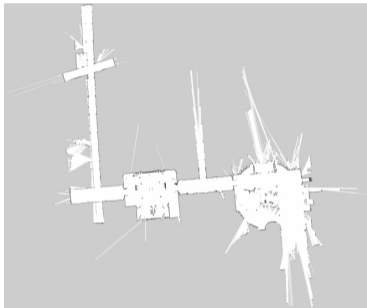
Grid-Based Representation



Discrete occupancy grid map (partial map of the ground floor of the H-BRS C-building). White cells denote free space, black cells depict occupied space, and gray cells represent unknown space.

- ▶ In a grid-based representation, **data are represented in discrete, non-overlapping cells**
- ▶ Grid-based representations are **used when discretisation is desirable** (discrete data is usually simpler to handle), **or when discretisation is inevitable** (due to computational or memory constraints)
- ▶ Discretisation is a **trade-off between the grid resolution and the storage requirements**
 - ▶ Too high resolution can also mean that there are never measurements to fill some cells

Grid-Based Representation



Discrete occupancy grid map (partial map of the ground floor of the H-BRS C-building). White cells denote free space, black cells depict occupied space, and gray cells represent unknown space.

- ▶ In a grid-based representation, **data are represented in discrete, non-overlapping cells**
- ▶ Grid-based representations are **used when discretisation is desirable** (discrete data is usually simpler to handle), **or when discretisation is inevitable** (due to computational or memory constraints)
- ▶ Discretisation is a **trade-off between the grid resolution and the storage requirements**
 - ▶ Too high resolution can also mean that there are never measurements to fill some cells
- ▶ The discretisation process may potentially **eliminate features in the data that are actually important for a given task**

Feature-Based Representation

Autocorrelation: $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} s(n) \overline{s(n-l)}$, where $\overline{s(n-l)}$ is the complex conjugate of $s(n-l)$, and l is a lag.

Centroid: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N t_i \times s_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^2}$

Mean absolute differences: $\text{mean}(|\Delta s|)$

Mean differences: $\text{mean}(\Delta s)$

Median absolute differences: $\text{median}(|\Delta s|)$

Median differences: $\text{median}(\Delta s)$

Distance: $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sqrt{1 + \Delta s_i^2}$

Sum of absolute differences: $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} |\Delta s_i|$

Total energy: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^2}{t_N - t_0}$

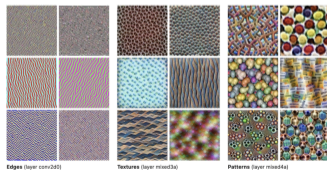
Entropy: $-\sum_{x \in S} P(x) \log_2 P(x)$

Peak to peak distance: $|\max(s) - \min(s)|$

Area under the curve: $\sum_{i=1}^N (t_i - t_{i-1}) \times \frac{s_i + s_{i-1}}{2}$

- In a variety of application, **sensor data are summarised by various features** (e.g. lines can be extracted from laser measurements)

Examples of features that can be extracted from a time series signal (typically from data windows). M. Barandas et al., "TSFEL: Time Series Feature Extraction Library," *SoftwareX*, vol. 11, pp. 100456: 1–7, 2020.



Features from different layers of a GoogLeNet convolutional neural network (<https://distill.pub/2017/feature-visualization/>)

Feature-Based Representation

Autocorrelation: $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} s(n) \overline{s(n-l)}$, where $\overline{s(n-l)}$ is the complex conjugate of $s(n-l)$, and l is a lag.

Centroid: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N t_i \times s_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^2}$

Mean absolute differences: $\text{mean}(|\Delta s|)$

Mean differences: $\text{mean}(\Delta s)$

Median absolute differences: $\text{median}(|\Delta s|)$

Median differences: $\text{median}(\Delta s)$

Distance: $\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sqrt{1 + \Delta s_i^2}$

Sum of absolute differences: $\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |\Delta s_i|$

Total energy: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^2}{N}$

Entropy: $-\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} P(x) \log_2 P(x)$

Peak to peak distance: $|\max(s) - \min(s)|$

Area under the curve: $\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (t_i - t_{i-1}) \times \frac{s_i + s_{i-1}}{2}$

Examples of features that can be extracted from a time series signal (typically from data windows). M. Barandas et al., "TSFEL: Time Series Feature Extraction Library," *SoftwareX*, vol. 11, pp. 100456: 1–7, 2020.

- ▶ In a variety of application, **sensor data are summarised by various features** (e.g. lines can be extracted from laser measurements)
- ▶ **For different modalities, different features are usually of interest** (e.g. frequencies are relevant for time series, but shapes are important for visual data)



Features from different layers of a GoogLeNet convolutional neural network (<https://distill.pub/2017/feature-visualization/>)

Feature-Based Representation

Autocorrelation: $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} s(n) \overline{s(n-l)}$, where $\overline{s(n-l)}$ is the complex conjugate of $s(n-l)$, and l is a lag.

Centroid: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N t_i \times s_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^2}$

Mean absolute differences: $\text{mean}(|\Delta s|)$

Mean differences: $\text{mean}(\Delta s)$

Median absolute differences: $\text{median}(|\Delta s|)$

Median differences: $\text{median}(\Delta s)$

Distance: $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sqrt{1 + \Delta s_i^2}$

Sum of absolute differences: $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} |\Delta s_i|$

Total energy: $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^2}{t_N - t_0}$

Entropy: $-\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(x) \log_2 P(x)$

Peak to peak distance: $|\max(s) - \min(s)|$

Area under the curve: $\sum_{i=1}^N (t_i - t_{i-1}) \times \frac{s_i + s_{i-1}}{2}$

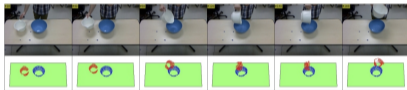
Examples of features that can be extracted from a time series signal (typically from data windows). M. Barandas et al., "TSFEL: Time Series Feature Extraction Library," *SoftwareX*, vol. 11, pp. 100456: 1–7, 2020.

- ▶ In a variety of application, **sensor data are summarised by various features** (e.g. lines can be extracted from laser measurements)
- ▶ **For different modalities, different features are usually of interest** (e.g. frequencies are relevant for time series, but shapes are important for visual data)
- ▶ Depending on the application and the knowledge about the underlying data process, **features can be manually designed** (illustrated on the top left) or **learned** (illustrated on the bottom left)



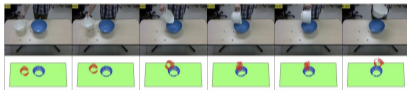
Features from different layers of a GoogLeNet convolutional neural network (<https://distill.pub/2017/feature-visualization/>)

- ▶ Qualitative representations are **useful high-level structure about the scene needs to be captured** (e.g. topological connections between rooms in an environment)



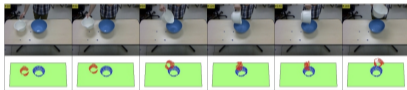
Example of using point clouds for estimating spatial object relations.

K. Zampogiannis et al., "Learning the Spatial Semantics of Manipulation Actions through Preposition Grounding," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2015, pp. 1389–1396.



Example of using point clouds for estimating spatial object relations.
K. Zampogiannis et al., "Learning the Spatial Semantics of Manipulation Actions through Preposition Grounding," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2015, pp. 1389–1396.

- ▶ Qualitative representations are **useful high-level structure about the scene needs to be captured** (e.g. topological connections between rooms in an environment)
- ▶ These are **often used to model relations between entities in a scene** (e.g. spatial relations between objects), but **can also capture properties of individual entities** (e.g. qualitative object sizes)



Example of using point clouds for estimating spatial object relations.
K. Zampogiannis et al., "Learning the Spatial Semantics of Manipulation Actions through Preposition Grounding," in *Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*, 2015, pp. 1389–1396.

- ▶ Qualitative representations are **useful high-level structure about the scene needs to be captured** (e.g. topological connections between rooms in an environment)
- ▶ These are **often used to model relations between entities in a scene** (e.g. spatial relations between objects), but **can also capture properties of individual entities** (e.g. qualitative object sizes)
- ▶ **Qualitative representations attach semantic meaning to sensor data**

Sensor Characteristics

There are a number of values that can be used to characterise the operation of a sensor

Resolution

Smallest possible difference between two values that can be measured by a sensor

Sensor Characteristics

There are a number of values that can be used to characterise the operation of a sensor

Resolution

Smallest possible difference between two values that can be measured by a sensor

Sampling rate

The number of measurements in a given period of time (measured in Hz)

Sensor Characteristics

There are a number of values that can be used to characterise the operation of a sensor

Resolution

Smallest possible difference between two values that can be measured by a sensor

Sampling rate

The number of measurements in a given period of time (measured in Hz)

Range

The interval $[s_{\min}, s_{\max}]$ between the smallest and largest values that a sensor can measure

Sensor Characteristics

There are a number of values that can be used to characterise the operation of a sensor

Resolution

Smallest possible difference between two values that can be measured by a sensor

Sampling rate

The number of measurements in a given period of time (measured in Hz)

Range

The interval $[s_{\min}, s_{\max}]$ between the smallest and largest values that a sensor can measure

Sensitivity

The rate of change $\frac{dy}{dx}$ of the sensor's output as a result of a unit change in the input

Sensor Characteristics

There are a number of values that can be used to characterise the operation of a sensor

Resolution

Smallest possible difference between two values that can be measured by a sensor

Sampling rate

The number of measurements in a given period of time (measured in Hz)

Range

The interval $[s_{\min}, s_{\max}]$ between the smallest and largest values that a sensor can measure

Sensitivity

The rate of change $\frac{dy}{dx}$ of the sensor's output as a result of a unit change in the input

Quick question: What is the resolution of a ruler?

Sensor Characteristics

There are a number of values that can be used to characterise the operation of a sensor

Resolution

Smallest possible difference between two values that can be measured by a sensor

Sampling rate

The number of measurements in a given period of time (measured in Hz)

Range

The interval $[s_{\min}, s_{\max}]$ between the smallest and largest values that a sensor can measure

Sensitivity

The rate of change $\frac{dy}{dx}$ of the sensor's output as a result of a unit change in the input

Quick question: What is the resolution of a ruler? $1mm$

Accuracy and Precision

Accuracy

Measures the deviation of the measured value $x^{measured}$ from the true value x^{true} — the lower the deviation, the higher the accuracy

Accuracy and Precision

Accuracy

Measures the deviation of the measured value $x^{measured}$ from the true value x^{true} — the lower the deviation, the higher the accuracy

Precision

Measures the deviation of n measurements $x_j^{measured}$, $1 \leq j \leq n$ from the mean measurement — the lower the deviation, the higher the precision

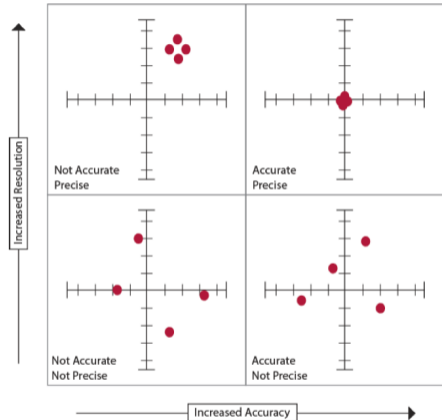
Accuracy and Precision

Accuracy

Measures the deviation of the measured value $x^{measured}$ from the true value x^{true} — the lower the deviation, the higher the accuracy

Precision

Measures the deviation of n measurements $x_j^{measured}$, $1 \leq j \leq n$ from the mean measurement — the lower the deviation, the higher the precision



<https://allsensors.com/engineering-resources/white-papers/accuracy-and-precision-for-mems-pressure-sensors>

Sensor Errors

There are two main types of sensor errors that we can distinguish:

Systematic errors

Occur at regular intervals or as fixed value offsets; have a clear regularity pattern that can be accounted for

Systematic errors can be identified and corrected, typically by sensor calibration or online reconfiguration

Sensor Errors

There are two main types of sensor errors that we can distinguish:

Systematic errors

Occur at regular intervals or as fixed value offsets; have a clear regularity pattern that can be accounted for

Systematic errors can be identified and corrected, typically by sensor calibration or online reconfiguration

Random errors

Occur sporadically without any apparent regularity, often due to environmental influences that are difficult to account for

Random errors cannot be corrected for, but can be modelled, usually by a Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

Sensor Modelling Process



To use a sensor for estimating a given physical quantity of interest, a variety of steps need to be performed as part of a **sensor modelling process**:

Creating a physical sensor model



Sensor Modelling Process



To use a sensor for estimating a given physical quantity of interest, a variety of steps need to be performed as part of a **sensor modelling process**:

Creating a physical sensor model



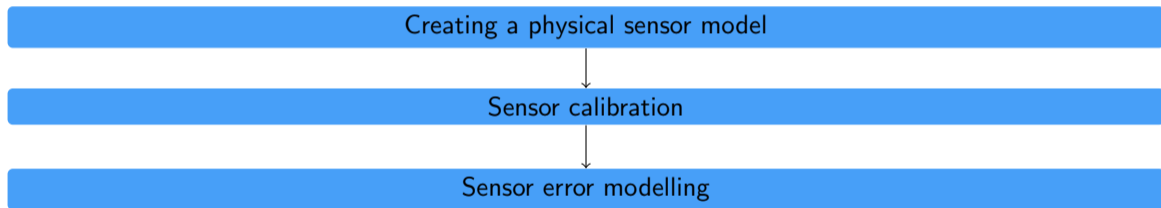
Sensor calibration



Sensor Modelling Process



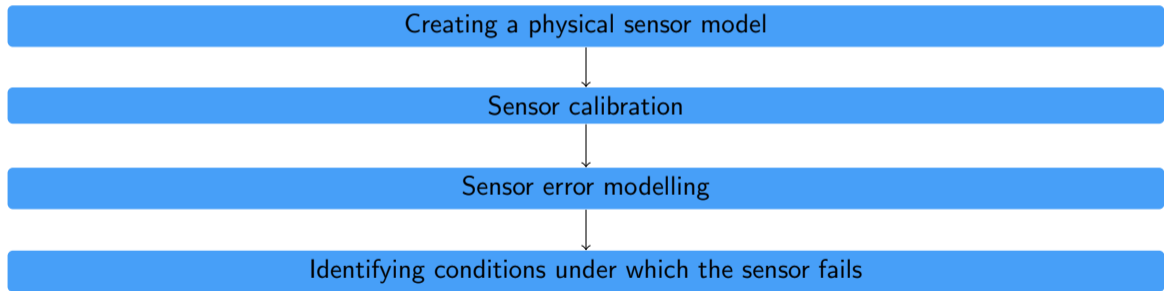
To use a sensor for estimating a given physical quantity of interest, a variety of steps need to be performed as part of a **sensor modelling process**:



Sensor Modelling Process



To use a sensor for estimating a given physical quantity of interest, a variety of steps need to be performed as part of a **sensor modelling process**:



Creating a Physical Model



- ▶ The purpose of every sensor is to **assist the estimation of some property of a robot's environment** (e.g. identify 3D points in the environment)



Creating a Physical Model



- ▶ The purpose of every sensor is to **assist the estimation of some property of a robot's environment** (e.g. identify 3D points in the environment)
- ▶ The process of creating a physical model involves **finding the functional relationship between the available data and the property of interest**: $property = f(sensor\ data)$

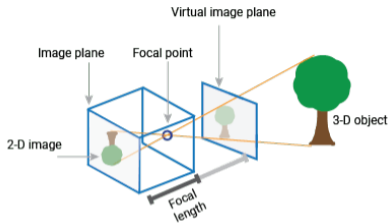


Creating a Physical Model



- ▶ The purpose of every sensor is to **assist the estimation of some property of a robot's environment** (e.g. identify 3D points in the environment)
- ▶ The process of creating a physical model involves **finding the functional relationship between the available data and the property of interest**: $property = f(sensor\ data)$
- ▶ This relationship does not have to be a direct one, but can involve intermediate feature extraction and processing





A model of a pinhole camera

- ▶ To ensure that the estimation of the desired property is correctly performed according to the physical model, a variety of sensor parameters may need to be estimated



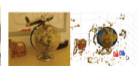
Remove Lens Distortion



Estimate Depth Using a Stereo Camera



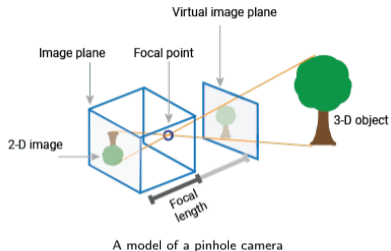
Measure Planar Objects



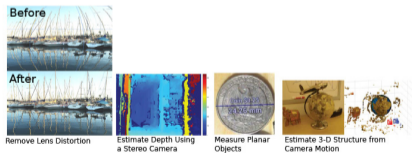
Estimate 3-D Structure from Camera Motion

Benefits of calibrated cameras

<https://www.mathworks.com/help/vision/ug/camera-calibration.html>

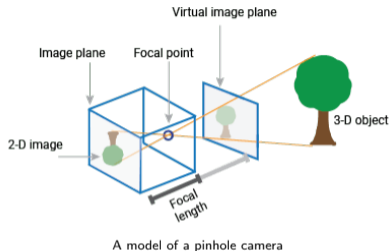


- ▶ To ensure that the estimation of the desired property is correctly performed according to the physical model, a variety of sensor parameters may need to be estimated
- ▶ Sensor calibration is **a process of estimating essential sensor parameters**

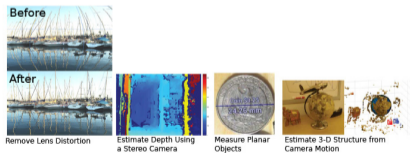


Benefits of calibrated cameras

<https://www.mathworks.com/help/vision/ug/camera-calibration.html>



- ▶ To ensure that the estimation of the desired property is correctly performed according to the physical model, a variety of sensor parameters may need to be estimated
- ▶ Sensor calibration is **a process of estimating essential sensor parameters**
- ▶ Calibration is particularly important to perform for cameras, whose models involves multiple parameters (camera center, focal length, distortion parameters) that need to be accounted for



Benefits of calibrated cameras

<https://www.mathworks.com/help/vision/ug/camera-calibration.html>



A setup for estimating positions of placed objects with a camera in one of our labs. Here, the error model is estimated by manually measuring object positions.

- ▶ If a sensor is properly calibrated, its error model can be estimated
 - ▶ If a Gaussian error model is used, this process involves estimating the entries of the model's covariance matrix



A setup for estimating positions of placed objects with a camera in one of our labs. Here, the error model is estimated by manually measuring object positions.

- ▶ If a sensor is properly calibrated, its error model can be estimated
 - ▶ If a Gaussian error model is used, this process involves estimating the entries of the model's covariance matrix
- ▶ To find an accurate error model, it is **necessary to have a ground-truth measurement of the property of interest** (e.g. the ground-truth position of an object)



A setup for estimating positions of placed objects with a camera in one of our labs. Here, the error model is estimated by manually measuring object positions.

- ▶ If a sensor is properly calibrated, its error model can be estimated
 - ▶ If a Gaussian error model is used, this process involves estimating the entries of the model's covariance matrix
- ▶ To find an accurate error model, it is **necessary to have a ground-truth measurement of the property of interest** (e.g. the ground-truth position of an object)
- ▶ The estimation of an error model usually **needs to be done in controlled conditions**, where the ground-truth values can be accurately estimated

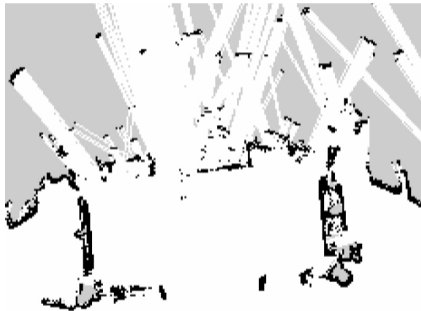
Identifying Failure Conditions



A laser scanner cannot detect glass surfaces; thus, a robot using a laser scanner has troubles recognising the glass door of our university.

- ▶ Due to their physical properties, **all sensors have limited use under certain environmental conditions** (e.g. a camera has limited usefulness in a very bright room)

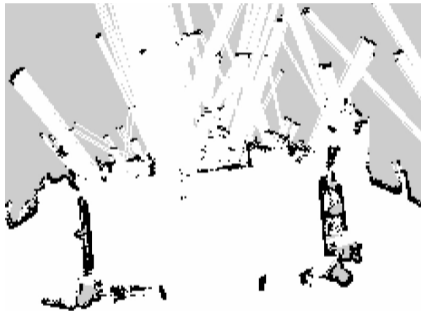
Identifying Failure Conditions



A laser scanner cannot detect glass surfaces; thus, a robot using a laser scanner has troubles recognising the glass door of our university.

- ▶ Due to their physical properties, **all sensors have limited use under certain environmental conditions** (e.g. a camera has limited usefulness in a very bright room)
- ▶ **Relying on incorrect sensor data can lead to task failures** (e.g. a robot cannot see an object of interest) or **introduce undesired conditions for a robot** (e.g. collisions with obstacles)

Identifying Failure Conditions



A laser scanner cannot detect glass surfaces; thus, a robot using a laser scanner has troubles recognising the glass door of our university.

- ▶ Due to their physical properties, **all sensors have limited use under certain environmental conditions** (e.g. a camera has limited usefulness in a very bright room)
- ▶ **Relying on incorrect sensor data can lead to task failures** (e.g. a robot cannot see an object of interest) or **introduce undesired conditions for a robot** (e.g. collisions with obstacles)
- ▶ Regardless of the sensor, it is thus **essential to have knowledge of a sensor's failure cases so that the errors can be mitigated** (e.g. by relying on a different sensor under given environment conditions)
 - ▶ But it is often challenging to foresee all possible failure modes