



上海科技大学
ShanghaiTech University

CS283: Robotics Spring 2023: Sensors

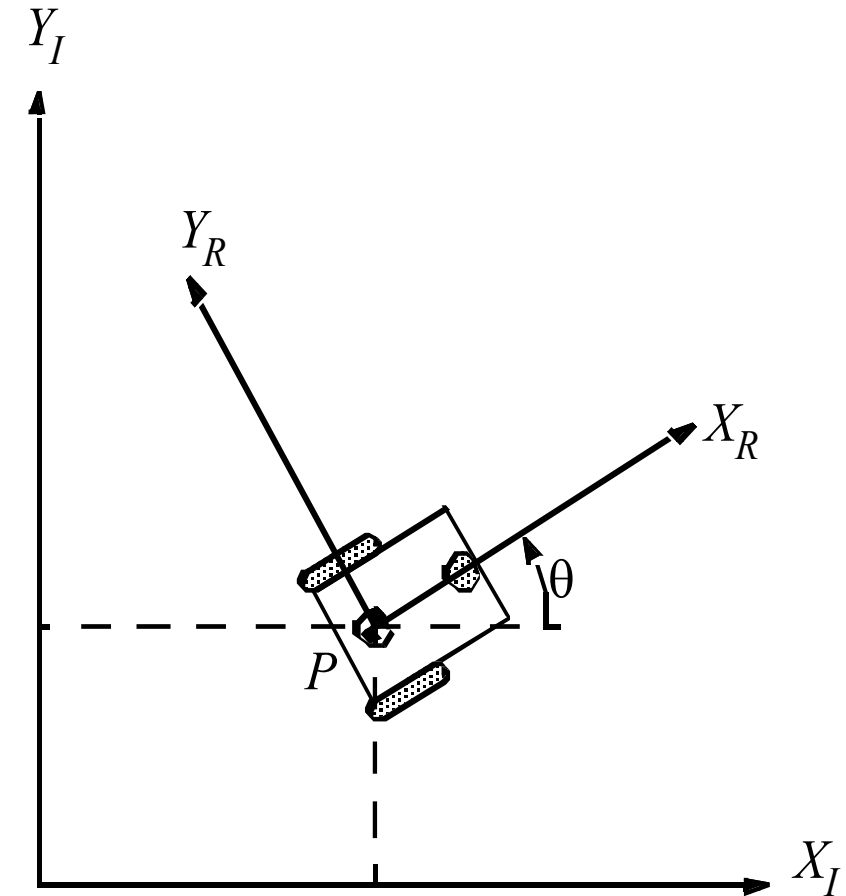
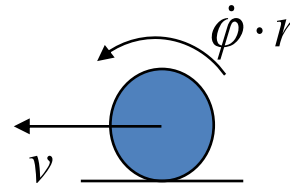
Sören Schwertfeger

ShanghaiTech University

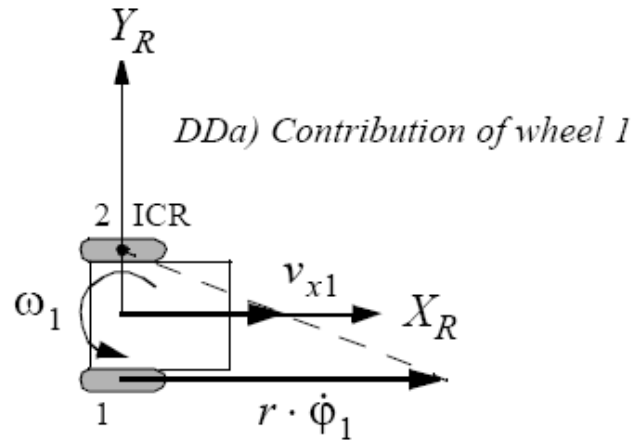
KINEMATICS CONTINUED

Wheel Kinematic Constraints: Assumptions

- Movement on a horizontal plane
- Point contact of the wheels
- Wheels not deformable
- Pure rolling
 - $v_c = 0$ at contact point
- No slipping, skidding or sliding
- No friction for rotation around contact point
- Steering axes orthogonal to the surface
- Wheels connected by rigid frame (chassis)



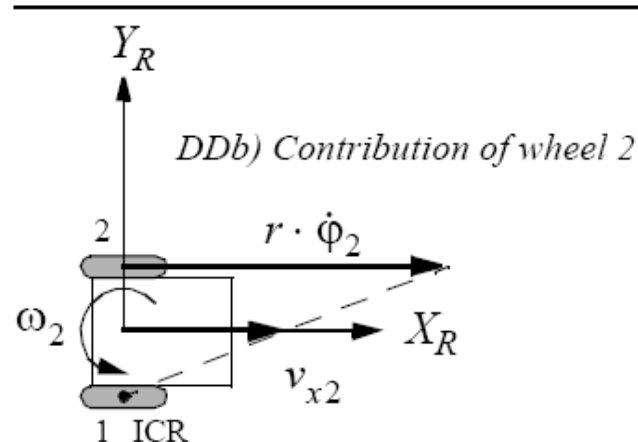
Forward Kinematic Model: Geometric Approach



Differential-Drive:

$$\text{DDa) } v_{x1} = \frac{1}{2} r \dot{\phi}_1 \quad ; \quad v_{y1} = 0 \quad ; \quad \omega_1 = \frac{1}{2l} r \dot{\phi}_1$$

$$\text{DDb) } v_{x2} = \frac{1}{2} r \dot{\phi}_2 \quad ; \quad v_{y2} = 0 \quad ; \quad \omega_2 = -\frac{1}{2l} r \dot{\phi}_2$$



$$\rightarrow \dot{\xi}_I = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{\theta} \end{bmatrix}_I = R(\theta)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} v_{x1} + v_{x2} \\ v_{y1} + v_{y2} \\ \omega_1 + \omega_2 \end{bmatrix} = R(\theta)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} r & r \\ \frac{r}{2l} & \frac{r}{2l} \\ 0 & 0 \\ \frac{r}{2l} & -\frac{r}{2l} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\phi}_1 \\ \dot{\phi}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

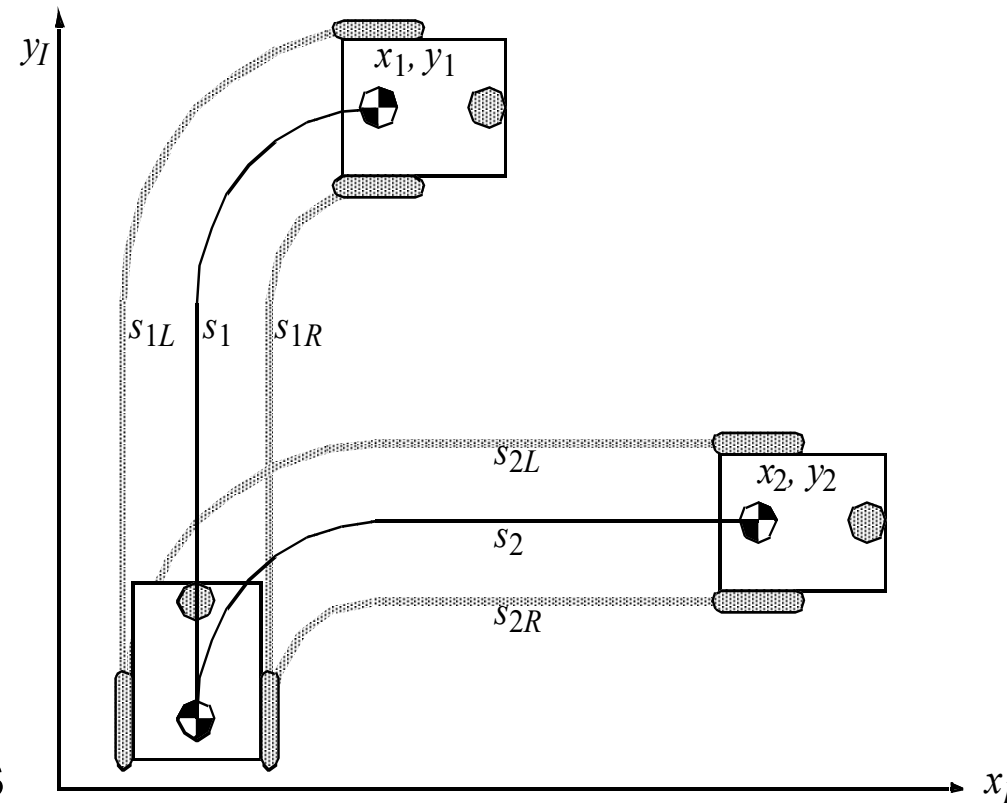
Inverse of R => Active and Passive Transform:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Active_and_passive_transformation

Mobile Robot Kinematics: Non-Holonomic Systems

$$s_1 = s_2; s_{1R} = s_{2R}; s_{1L} = s_{2L}$$

$$\text{but: } x_1 \neq x_2; y_1 \neq y_2$$



- Non-holonomic systems
 - differential equations are not integrable to the final pose.
 - the measure of the traveled distance of each wheel is not sufficient to calculate the final position of the robot. One has also to know how this movement was executed as a function of time.

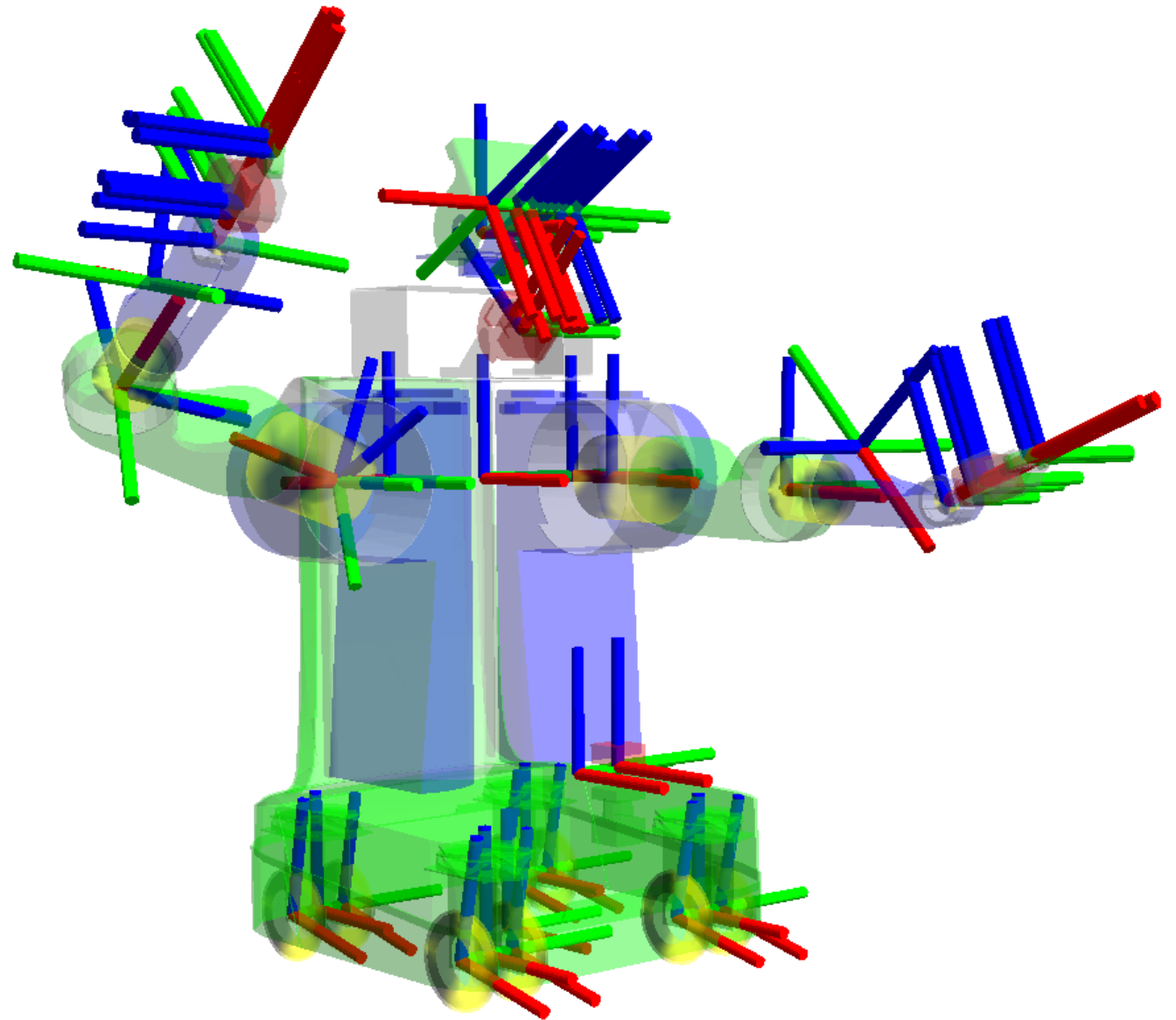
Holonomic examples



Uranus, CMU

ROS: 3D Transforms : TF

- <http://wiki.ros.org/tf>
- <http://wiki.ros.org/tf/Tutorials>



ROS geometry_msgs/TransformStamped

- header.frame_id[header.stamp]
child_frame_id[header.stamp] \mathbf{T}
- Transform between header (time and reference frame) and child_frame
- 3D Transform representation:
 - geometry_msgs/Transform:
 - Vector3 for translation (position)
 - Quaternion for rotation (orientation)

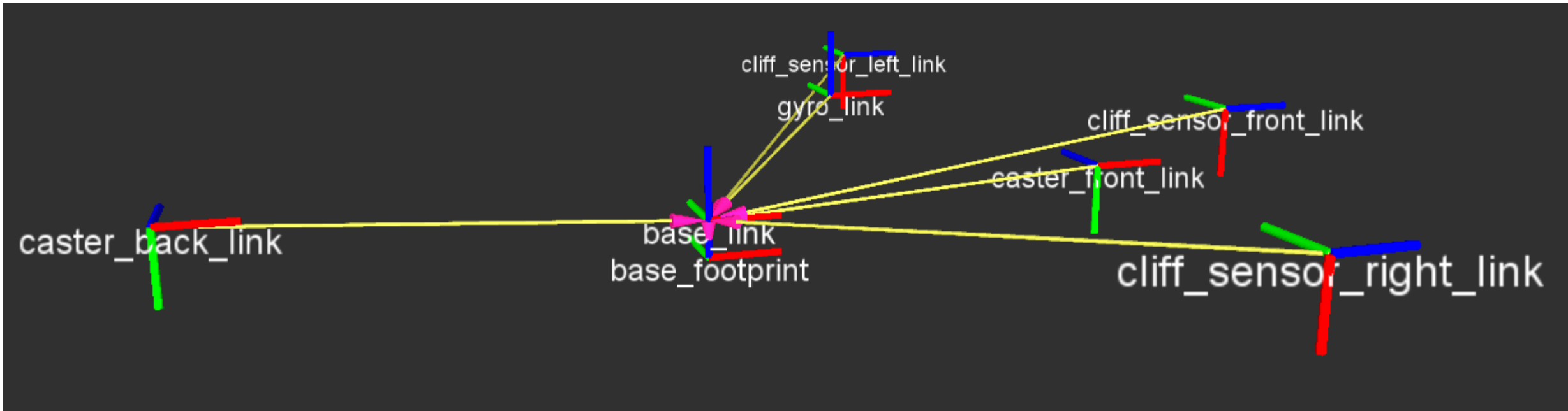
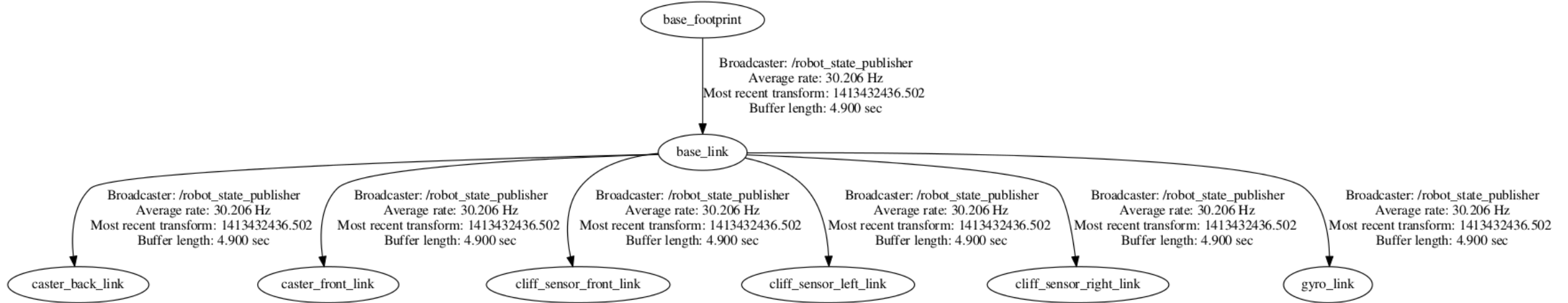
```
rosmmsg show geometry_msgs/TransformStamped

std_msgs/Header header
  uint32 seq
  time stamp
  string frame_id
  string child_frame_id
geometry_msgs/Transform transform
  geometry_msgs/Vector3 translation
    float64 x
    float64 y
    float64 z
  geometry_msgs/Quaternion rotation
    float64 x
    float64 y
    float64 z
    float64 w
```


ROS tf2_msgs/TFMessage

- An array of TransformStamped
- Transforms form a tree
- Transform listener: traverse the tree
 - tf::TransformListener listener;
- Get transform:
 - tf::StampedTransform transform;
 - listener.lookupTransform("/base_link", "/camera1", ros::Time(0), transform);
 - ros::Time(0): get the latest transform
 - Will calculate transform by chaining intermediate transforms, if needed

```
rosmmsg show tf2_msgs/TFMessage
geometry_msgs/TransformStamped[] transforms
  std_msgs/Header header
    uint32 seq
    time stamp
    string frame_id
  string child_frame_id
  geometry_msgs/Transform transform
    geometry_msgs/Vector3 translation
      float64 x
      float64 y
      float64 z
    geometry_msgs/Quaternion rotation
      float64 x
      float64 y
      float64 z
      float64 w
```

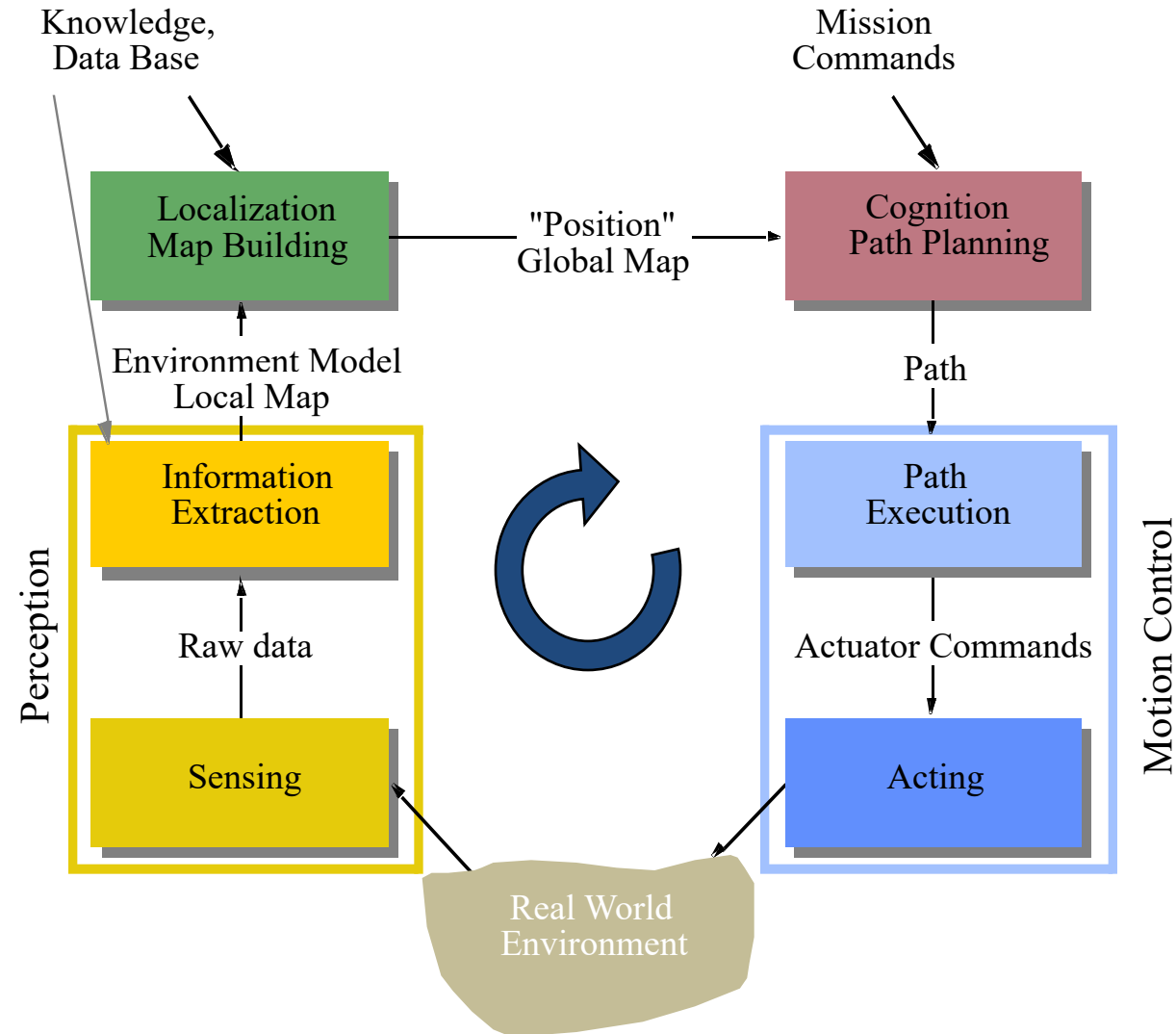


Transforms in ROS

- Imagine: Object recognition took 3 seconds – it found an object with:
 - `tf::Transform object_transform_camera;` // ${}_{Obj}^{Cam[X]} \mathbf{T}$ (has `tf::Vector3` and `tf::Quaternion`)
 - and header with: `ros::Time stamp;` // Timestamp of the camera image (== X)
 - and `std::string frame_id;` // Name of the frame (“Cam”)
- Where is the object in the global frame (= odom frame) “odom” ${}_{Obj}^G \mathbf{T}$?
 - `tf::StampedTransform object_transform_global;` // the resulting frame
 - `listener.lookupTransform(child_frame_id, “/odom”, header.stamp, object_transform_global);`
- `tf::TransformListener` keeps a history of transforms – by default 10 seconds

HIGH-LEVEL CONTROL SCHEMES

General Control Scheme for Mobile Robot Systems



SENSORS

Introduction to Autonomous Mobile Robots page 102 ff

Sensors for Mobile Robots

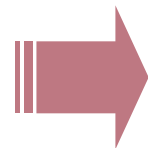
- Why should a robotics engineer know about sensors?
 - Is the **key technology** for perceiving the environment
 - **Understanding the physical principle** enables appropriate use
- Understanding the physical principle behind sensors enables us:
 - To **properly select** the sensors for a given application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

Dealing with Real World Situations

- Reasoning about a situation

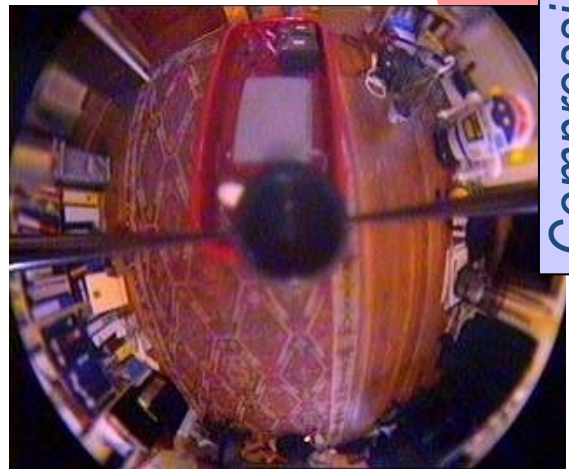


- Cognitive systems have to interpret situations based on uncertain and only partially available information
- The need ways to learn functional and contextual information (semantics / understanding)

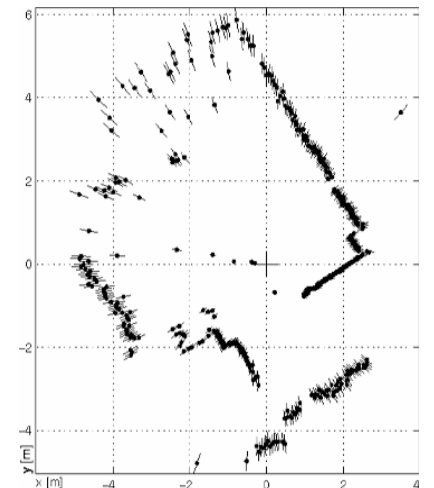
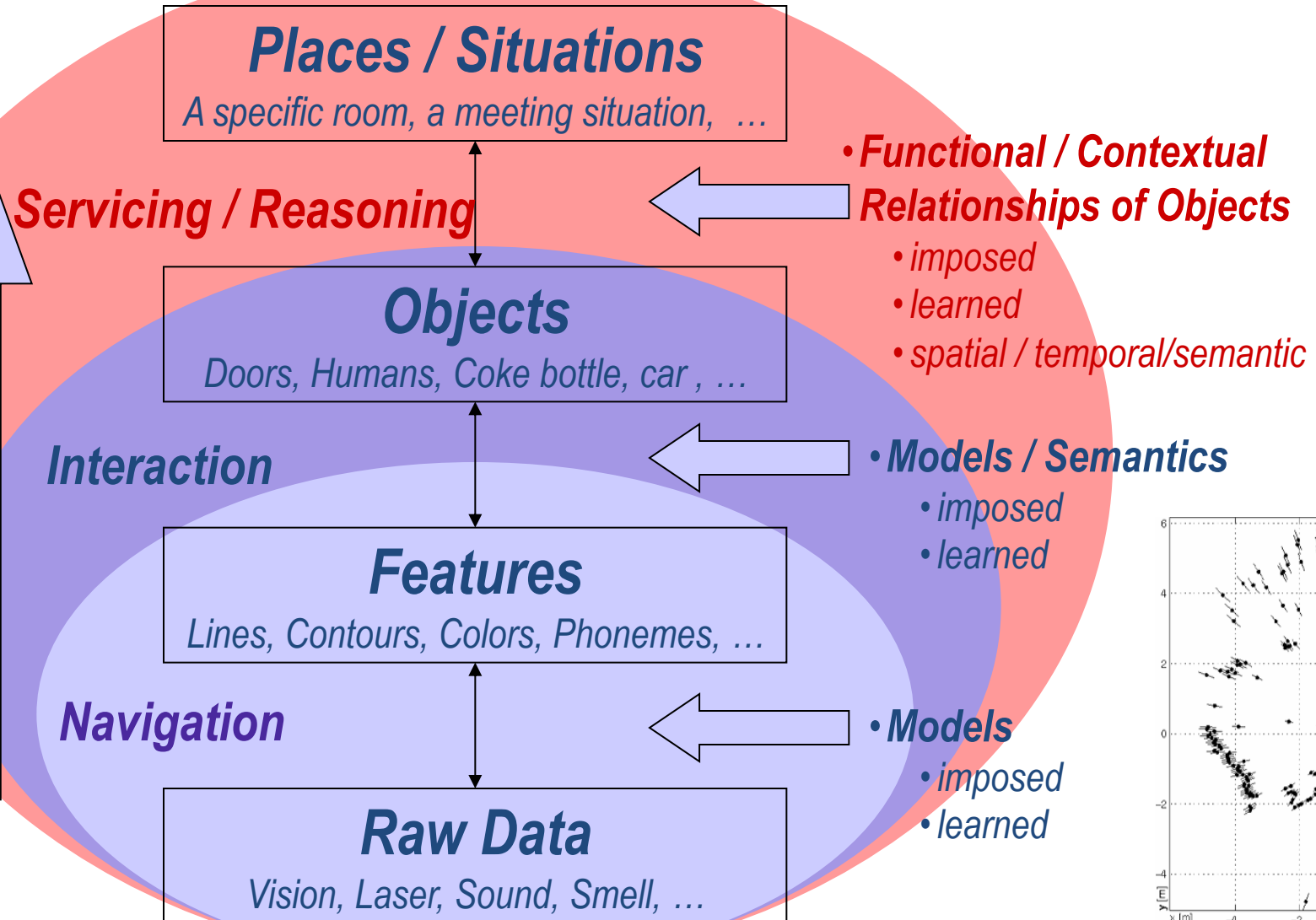


Probabilistic Reasoning

Perception for Mobile Robots



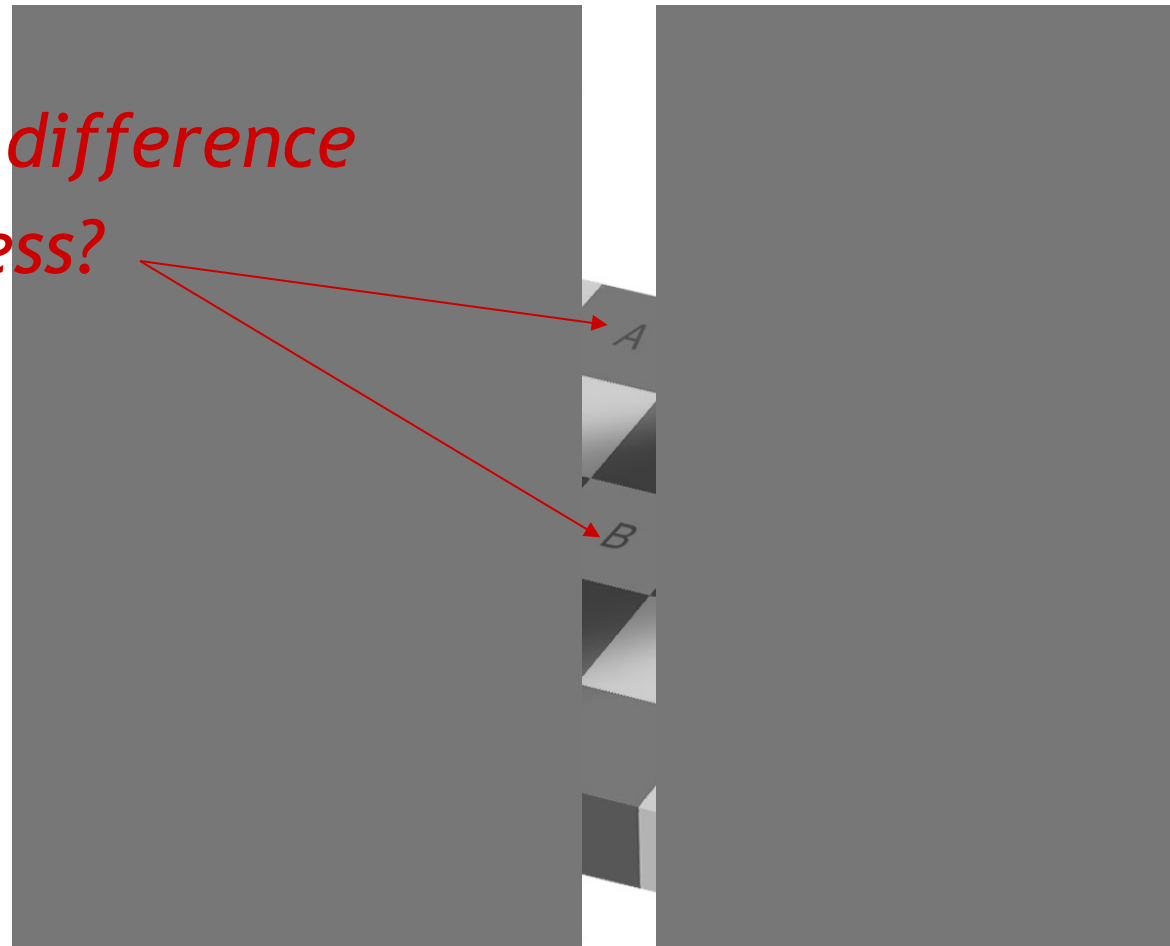
Compressing Information



The Challenge

- Perception and models are strongly linked

*What is the difference
in brightness?*



- http://web.mit.edu/persci/people/adelson/checkershadow_downloads.html

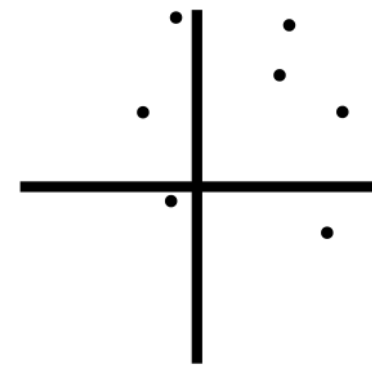
Classification of Sensors

- 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
 - Measure energy coming from the environment
 - Active sensors
 - emit their proper energy and measure the reaction
 - better performance, but some influence on environment

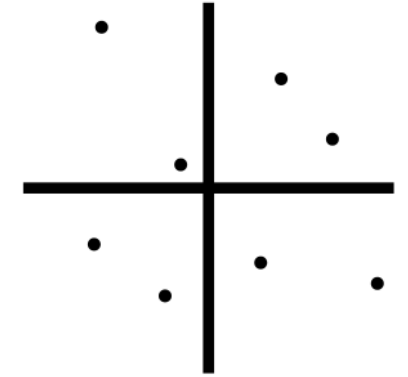
In Situ Sensor Performance

- In Situ: Latin for “in place”
- Error / Accuracy
 - How close to true value
- Precision
 - Reproducibility

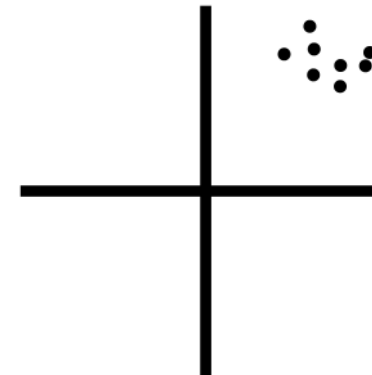
$$\left(accuracy = 1 - \frac{|m - v|}{v} \right) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{error} \\ m = \text{measured value} \\ v = \text{true value} \end{array}$$



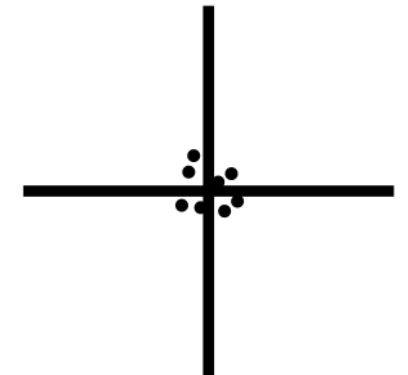
(a) Low precision and low accuracy



(b) Low precision and high accuracy



(c) High precision and low accuracy



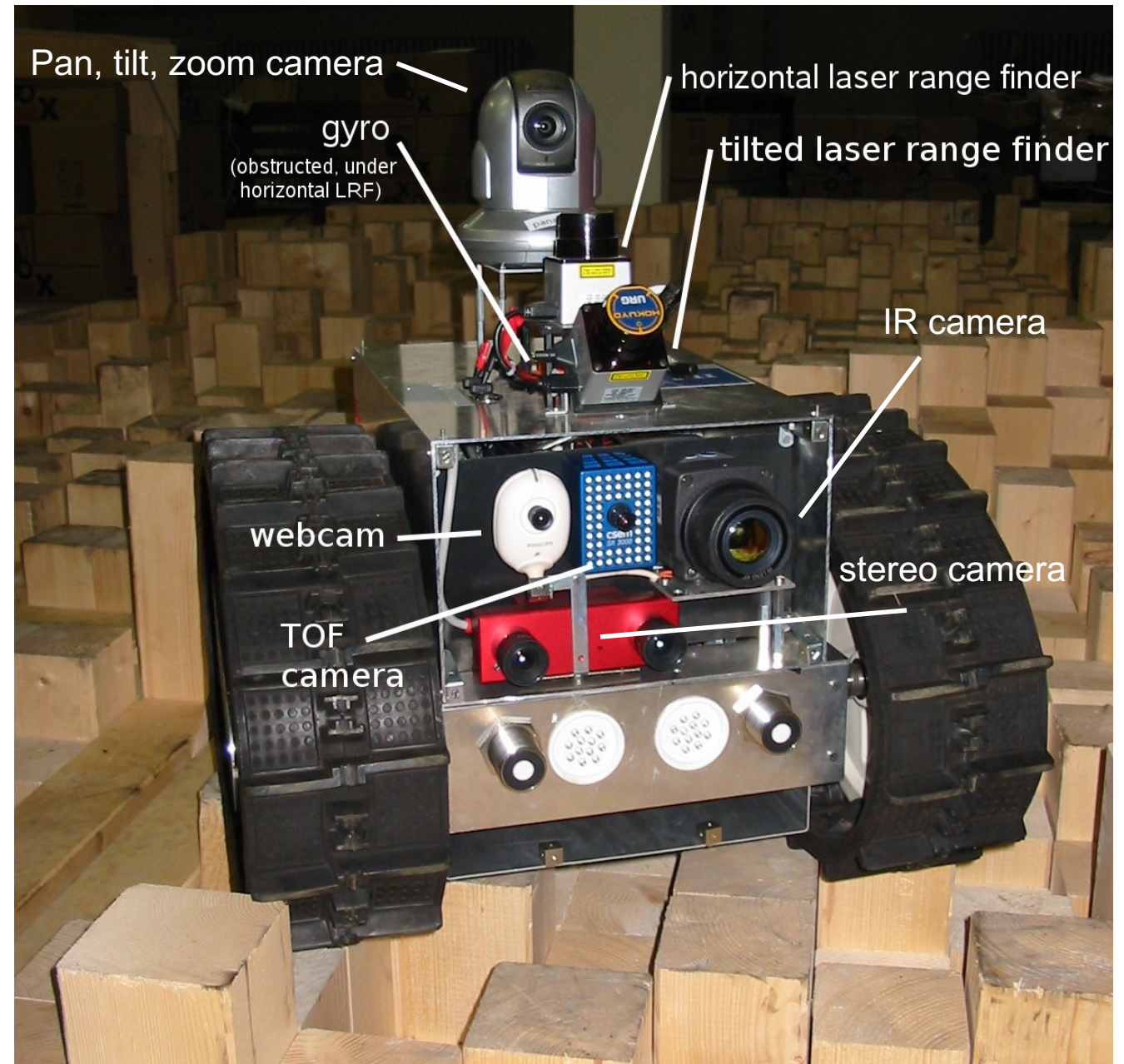
(d) High precision and high accuracy

Types of error

- 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 caused 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 ..

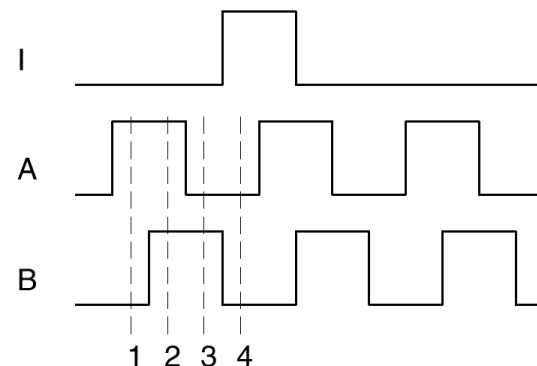
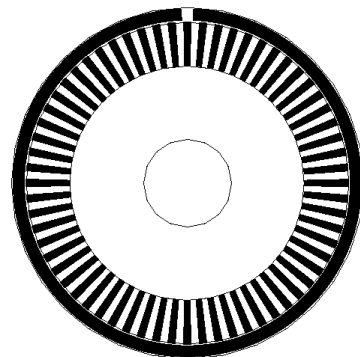
Sensors: outline

- Optical encoders
- Heading sensors
 - Compass
 - Gyroscopes
 - Accelerometer
 - IMU
- GPS
- Range sensors
 - Sonar
 - Laser
 - Structured light
- Vision



Wheel / Motor Encoders

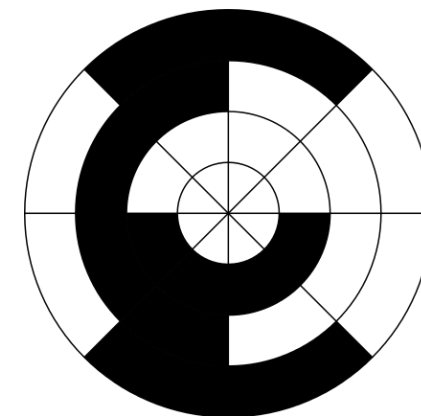
- measure position or speed of the wheels or steering
- integrate wheel movements to get an estimate of the position -> odometry
- optical encoders are proprioceptive sensors
- typical resolutions: 64 - 2048 increments per revolution.
 - for high resolution: interpolation
- optical encoders
 - regular: 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

Gray Encoder

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gray_code



- Aka: reflected binary code, Gray Code
 - Binary numeral system where two successive values differ in only one bit
 - Also used for error correction in digital communications

- Absolute position encoder
 - Normal binary => change from 011 to 100
 - 2 bits change – NEVER simultaneously =>
 - 011 -> 111 -> 101 -> 100 or
 - 011 -> 010 -> 110 -> 100
 - => wrong encoder positions might be read
 - Gray encoding: only one bit change!

Dec	Gray	Binary
0	000	000
1	001	001
2	011	010
3	010	011
4	110	100
5	111	101
6	101	110
7	100	111

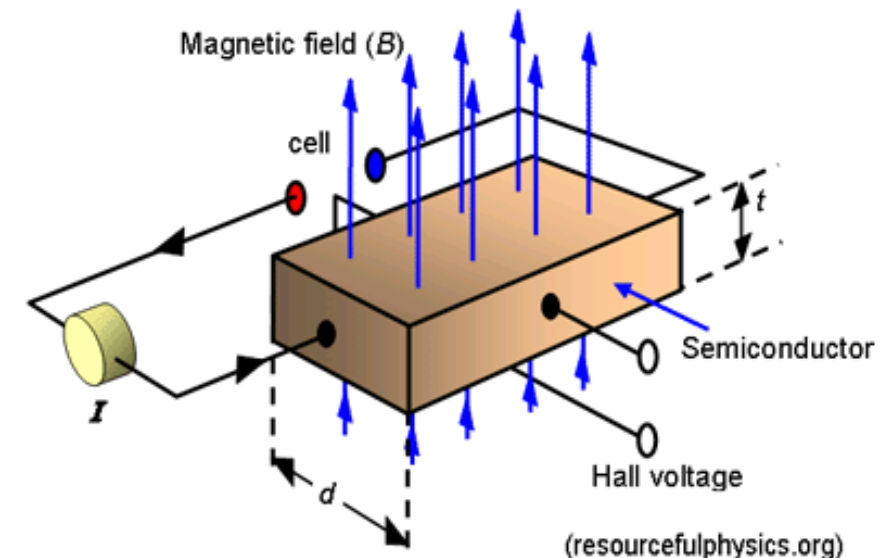


Heading Sensors

- Heading sensors can be proprioceptive (gyroscope, **acceleration**) or exteroceptive (compass, **inclinometer**).
- Used to determine the robots orientation and inclination.
- Allow, together with an appropriate velocity information, to integrate the movement to a position estimate.
 - This procedure is called **deduced reckoning** (ship navigation)

Compass

- Magnetic field on earth
 - absolute measure for orientation
- Large variety of solutions to measure the earth magnetic field
 - mechanical magnetic compass
 - direct measure of the magnetic field (Hall-effect, magneto-resistive sensors)
- Major drawback
 - weakness of the earth field ($30 \mu\text{Tesla}$)
 - easily disturbed by magnetic objects or other sources
 - bandwidth limitations (0.5 Hz) and susceptible to vibrations
 - not feasible for indoor environments for absolute orientation
 - useful indoor (only locally)



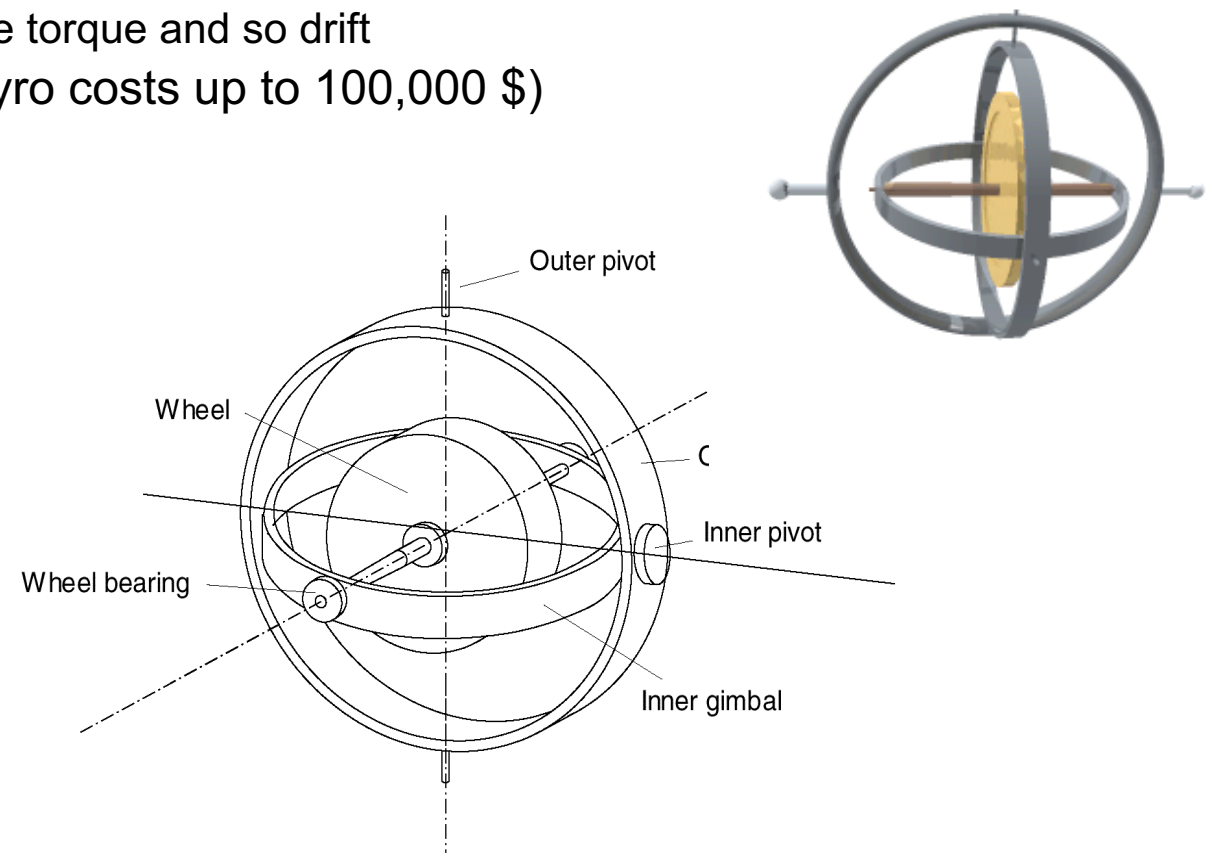
Gyroscope

- Heading sensors that preserve their orientation in relation to a fixed reference frame
 - absolute measure for the heading of a mobile system.
- Two categories, the mechanical and the optical gyroscopes
 - Mechanical Gyroscopes
 - Standard gyro (angle)
 - Rate gyro (speed)
 - Optical Gyroscopes
 - Rate gyro (speed)

Mechanical Gyroscopes

- Concept: inertial properties of a fast spinning rotor
- Angular momentum associated with a spinning wheel keeps the axis of the gyroscope inertially stable.
- No torque can be transmitted from the outer pivot to the wheel axis
 - spinning axis will therefore be space-stable
 - however friction in the axes bearings will introduce torque and so drift
- Quality: 0.1° in 6 hours (a high quality mech. gyro costs up to 100,000 \$)

- If the spinning axis is aligned with the north-south meridian, the earth's rotation has no effect on the gyro's horizontal axis
- If it points east-west, the horizontal axis reads the earth rotation



Optical Gyroscopes

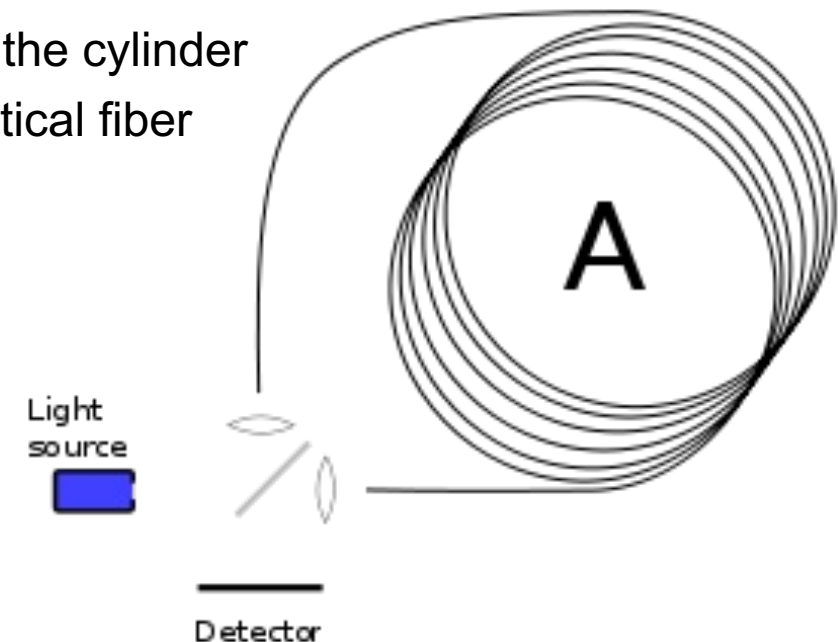
- First commercial use: early 1980 in airplanes
- Optical gyroscopes
 - angular speed (heading) sensors using two monochromatic light (or laser) beams from the same source.
- One is traveling in a fiber clockwise, the other counterclockwise around a cylinder
- Laser beam traveling in direction opposite to the rotation
 - slightly shorter path
 - phase shift of the two beams is proportional to the angular velocity Ω of the cylinder
 - In order to measure the phase shift, coil consists of as much as 5Km optical fiber
- New solid-state optical gyroscopes based on the same principle are build using micro-fabrication technology.



Single axis optical gyro

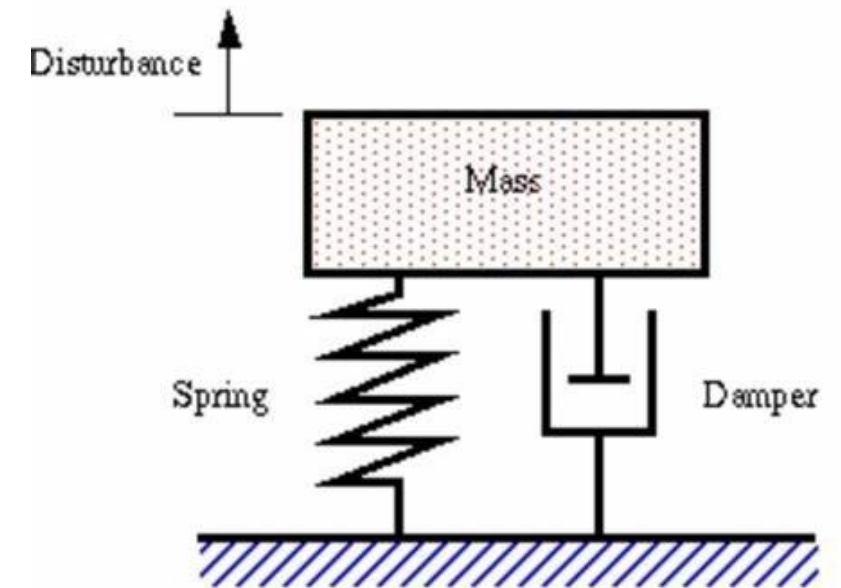


3-axis optical gyro

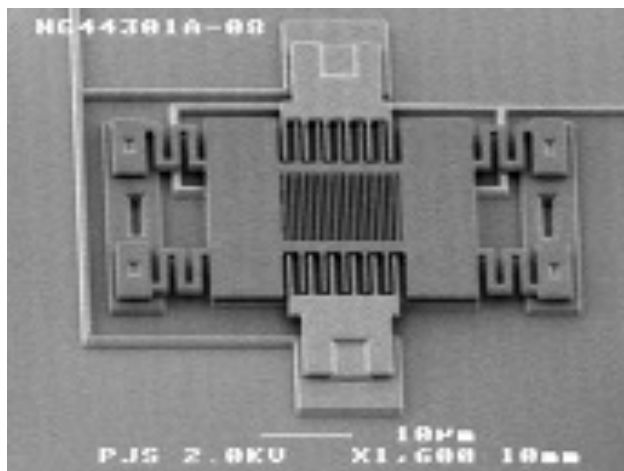
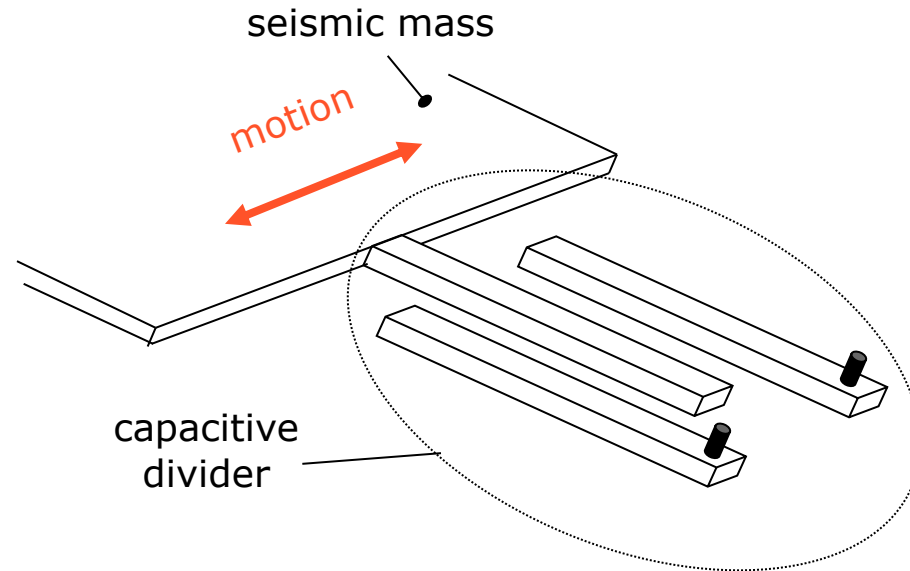


Mechanical Accelerometer

- Accelerometers measure all external forces acting upon them, including gravity
- Accelerometer acts like a spring–mass–damper system
- On the Earth's surface, the accelerometer always indicates 1g along the vertical axis
- To obtain the inertial acceleration (due to motion alone), the gravity must be subtracted.
- Bandwidth up to 50 KHz
- An accelerometer measures acceleration only along a single axis
- => mount 3 accelerometers orthogonally => three-axis accelerometer



Factsheet: MEMS Accelerometer



<<http://www.mems.sandia.gov/>>

1. Operational Principle

The primary transducer is a vibrating mass that relates acceleration to displacement. The secondary transducer (a capacitive divider) converts the displacement of the seismic mass into an electric signal.

2. Main Characteristics

- Can be multi-directional
- Various sensing ranges from 1 to 50 g

3. Applications

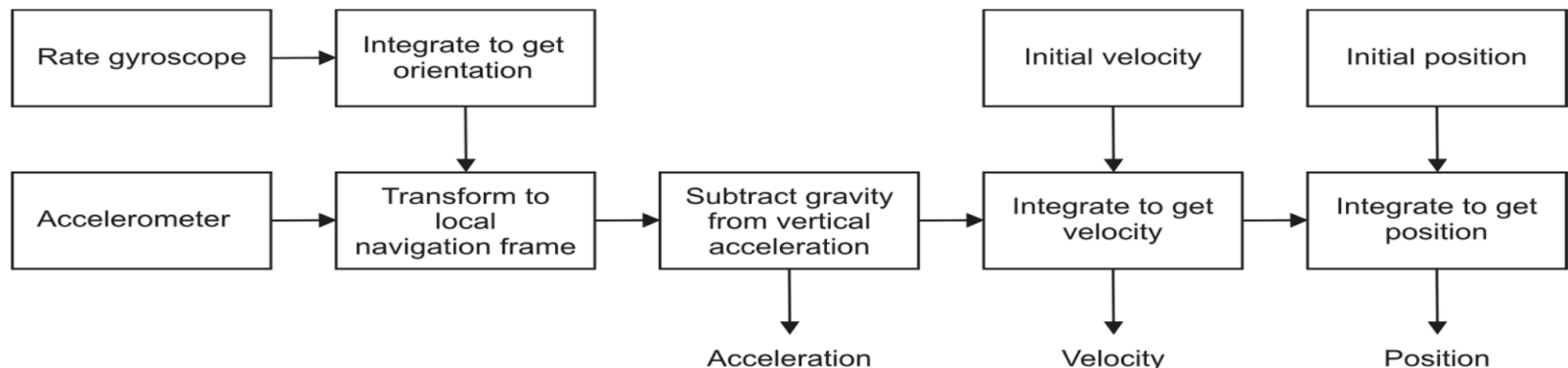
- Dynamic acceleration
- Static acceleration (inclinometer)
- Airbag sensors (+- 35 g)
- Control of video games (Wii)

Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)

- Device combining different measurement systems:
 - Gyroscopes, Accelerometers, Compass
- Estimate relative position (x, y, z), orientation (roll, pitch, yaw), velocity, and acceleration
- Gravity vector is subtracted to estimate motion
 - Initial velocity has to be known



Xsens MTI

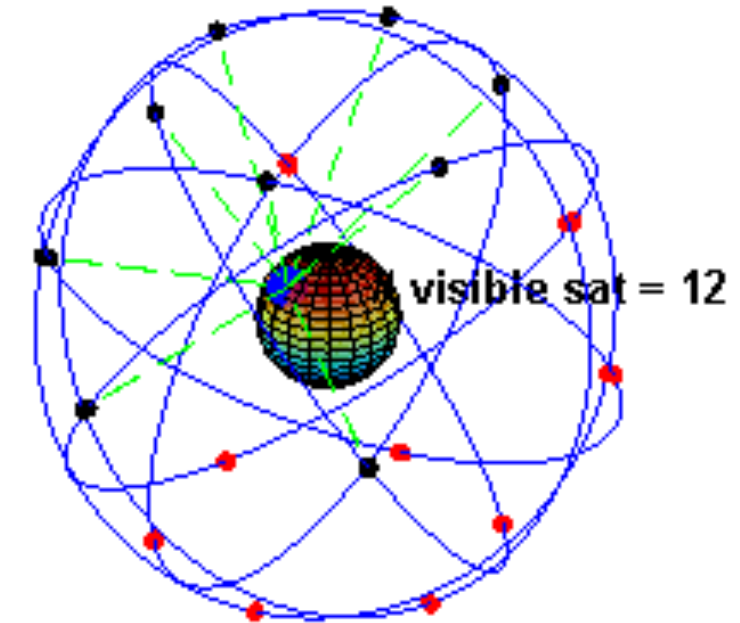


IMU Error and Drift

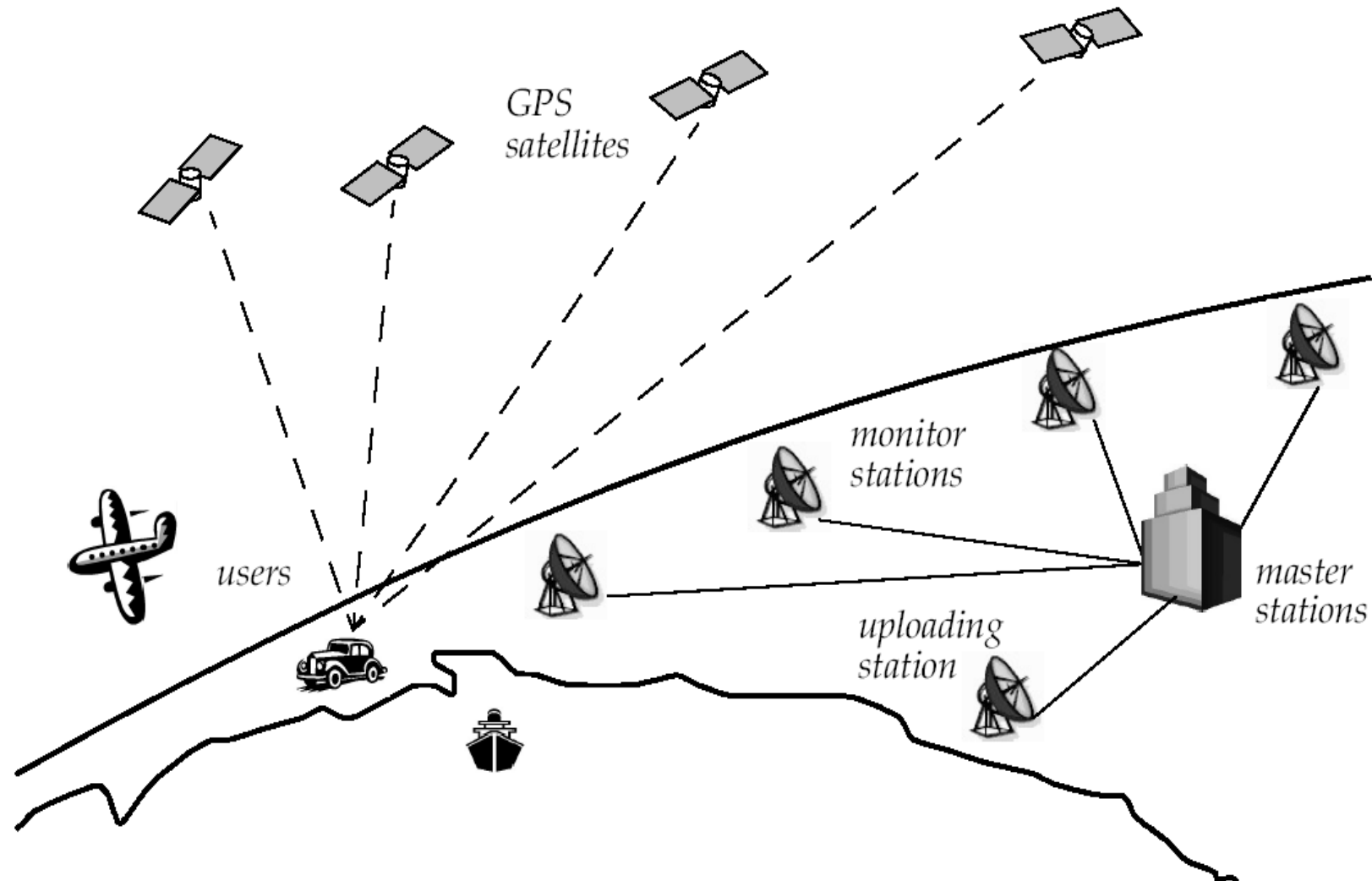
- Extremely sensitive to measurement errors in gyroscopes and accelerometers:
 - drift in the gyroscope unavoidably =>
 - error in orientation relative to gravity =>
 - incorrect cancellation of the gravity vector.
- Accelerometer data is integrated twice to obtain the position => gravity vector error leads to quadratic error in position.
- All IMUs drift after some time
 - Use of external reference for correction:
 - compass, GPS, cameras, localization

Global Positioning System (GPS)

- Developed for military use
- 1995 it became accessible for commercial applications
- 24 satellites orbiting the earth every 12 hours at a height of 20.190 km.
- 4 satellites are located in each of 6 orbits with 60 degrees orientation between each other. The orbital planes do not rotate with respect to stars. Orbits arranged so that at least 6 satellites are always within line of sight from any point on Earth's surface.
- From 2008: 32 satellites to improve localization accuracy through redundancy
- Location of any GPS receiver is determined through a time of flight measurement (satellites send orbital location (*ephemeris*) plus time; the receiver computes its location through **trilateration** and **time correction**)
- Technical challenges:
 - Time synchronization between the individual satellites and the GPS receiver
 - Real time update of the exact location of the satellites
 - Precise measurement of the time of flight
 - Interferences with other signals



Global Positioning System (GPS) (2)



Global Positioning System (GPS) (3)

- Time synchronization:
 - atomic clocks on each satellite
 - monitoring them from different ground stations.
- Ultra-precision time synchronization is extremely important
 - electromagnetic radiation propagates at light speed
- Roughly 0.3 m per nanosecond
 - position accuracy proportional to precision of time measurement
- Real time update of the exact location of the satellites:
 - monitoring the satellites from a number of widely distributed ground stations
 - master station analyses all the measurements and transmits the actual position to each of the satellites
- Exact measurement of the time of flight
 - the receiver correlates a pseudocode with the same code coming from the satellite
 - The delay time for best correlation represents the time of flight.
 - quartz clock on the GPS receivers are not very precise
 - the range measurement with four satellite allows to identify the three values (x, y, z) for the position and the clock correction ΔT
- Recent commercial GPS receiver devices allows position accuracies down to a couple meters.

GPS Error Sources

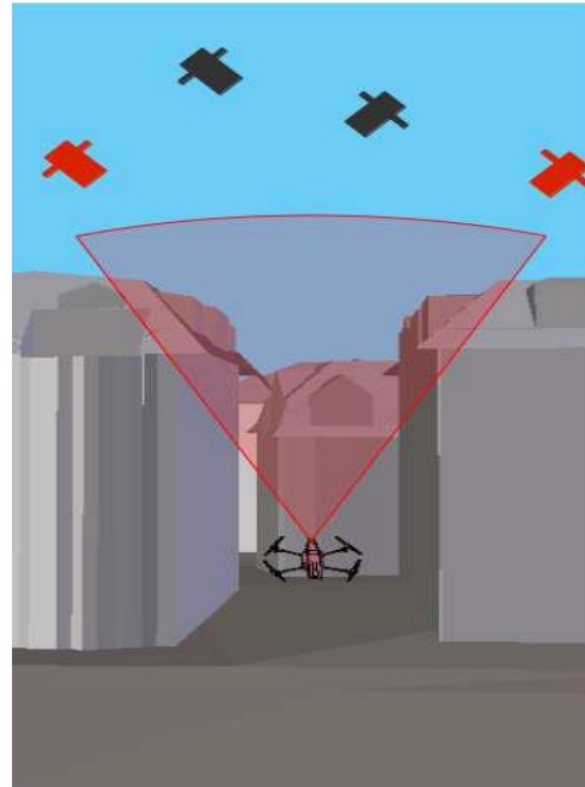
Satellite clock errors uncorrected by monitor stations may result in one meter errors:

- Ephemeris data errors: 1 meter
- Tropospheric delays: 1 meter.
 - The troposphere is the lower part (ground level to from 8 to 13 km) of the atmosphere that experiences the changes in temperature, pressure, and humidity associated with weather changes. Complex models of tropospheric delay require estimates or measurements of these parameters.
- Unmodeled ionosphere delays: 10 meters.
 - The ionosphere is the layer of the atmosphere from 50 to 500 km that consists of ionized air. The transmitted model can only remove about half of the possible 70 ns of delay leaving a ten meter unmodeled residual.
- Number of satellites under line of sight

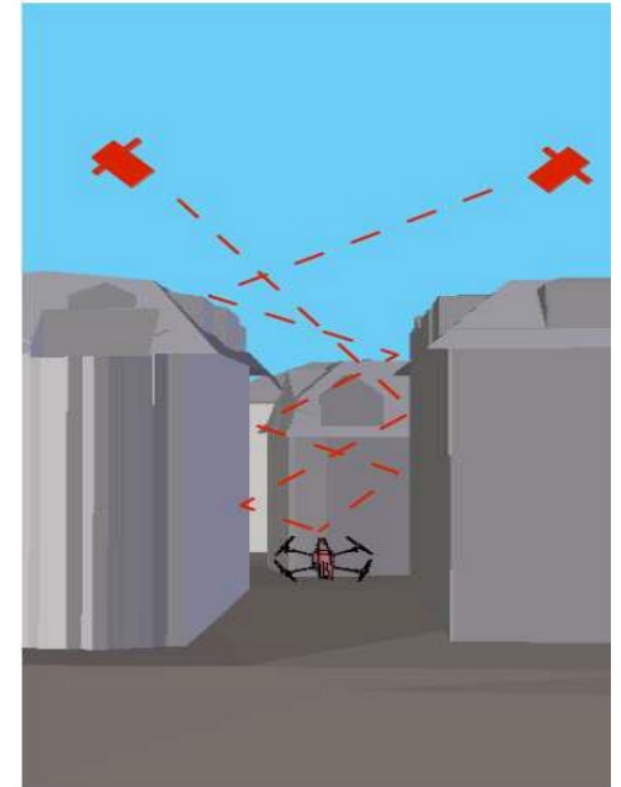
GPS Multipath

- Multipath: 0.5 meters
 - Multipath is caused by reflected signals from surfaces near the receiver that can either interfere with or be mistaken for the signal that follows the straight line path from the satellite. Multipath is difficult to detect and sometime hard to avoid.

Satellite coverage

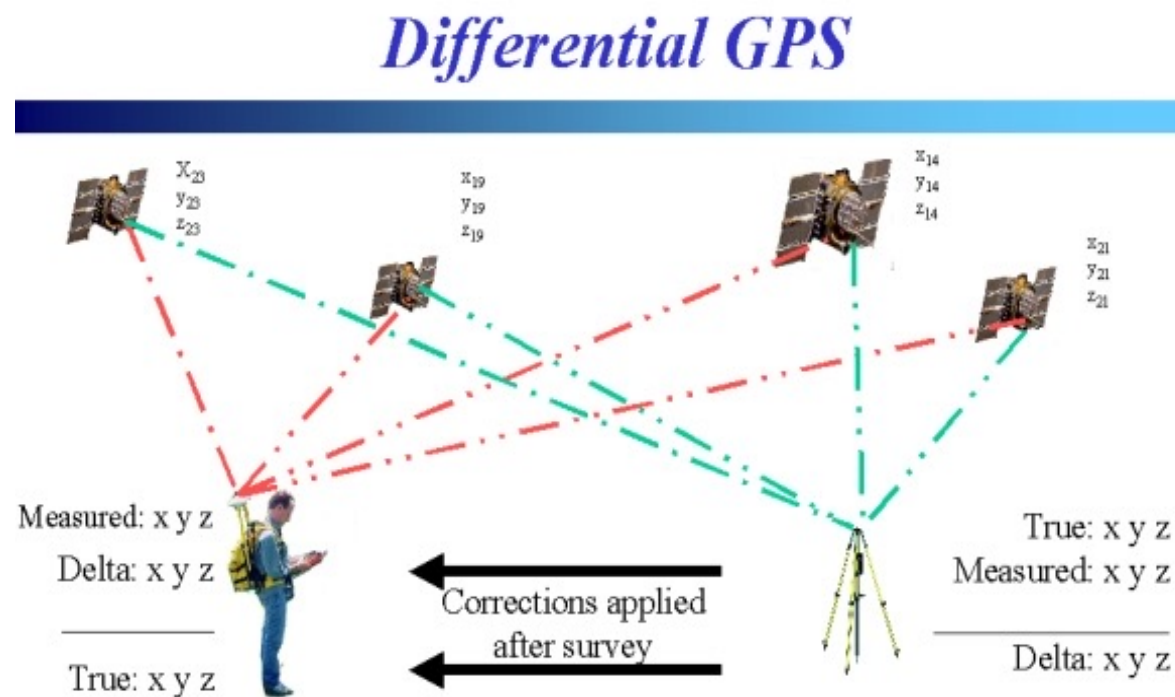


Multipath problem



Differential Global Positioning System (dGPS)

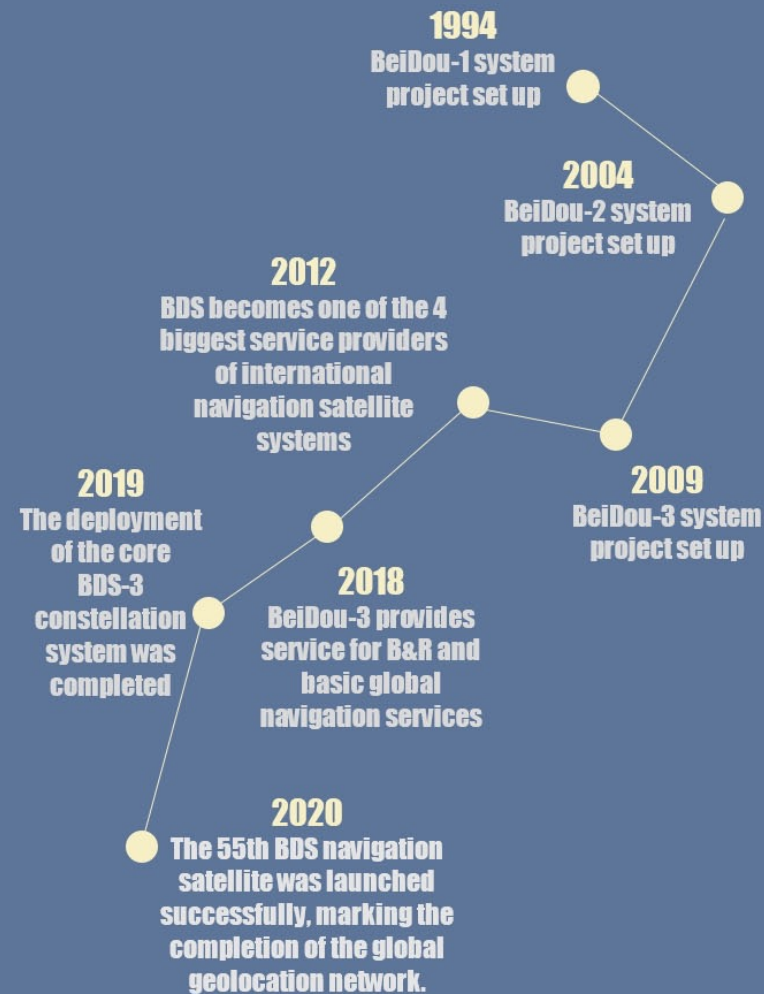
- Base station GPS receiver: set up on a precisely known location
- Base station receiver calculates its position based on satellite signals
- Compares this location to the known location
- Difference is applied to the GPS data recorded by the mobile GPS receivers
- Position accuracies in sub-meter to cm range



Other Global Positioning Systems

- **GLONASS**
 - Russian GPS – developed since 1976
 - Full global coverage as of 2011 (24 satellites)
- **Galileo**
 - European GPS – initiated 2003
 - 22 operational satellites in orbit
- **IRNSS (Indian Regional Navigation Satellite System)**
 - Initiated 2010
 - 8 satellites for Indian Coverage in orbit
 - Full operation
- **BeiDou Navigation Satellite System 北斗卫星导航系统**
 - Chinese GPS – developed since 1994
 - BeiDou Satellite Navigation System (BDS)
 - 2011 full China coverage – 2019 global coverage
 - 55 satellites system

Key Moments of BDS' Development



A more ubiquitous, mixable, intelligent national navigation system based on BDS is planned to be finished by **2035**.