

# Sensors and Range Measurement

Chapter 8



# Objectives

- To understand *various types of sensors*
- To understand how common *range sensors* are used in robotics
- To understand the *advantages and disadvantages* of various range sensors
- To briefly look at how *stereo vision* works
- To examine some results of *combining sensors*

# What's in Here ?

- *Sensors*
- *Range Sensors*
  - *Tactile Sensors*
  - *Proximity Sensors*
- *Ultrasonic Range Sensors*
- *IR Range Sensors*
- *Laser Range Finders*
- *Stereo Camera Ranging Systems*
- *Sensor Selection*

# Sensors



# Sensing



- Sensing is the sole way of obtaining environmental information.
- A robot's abilities (i.e., usefulness) depends on:
  - The **quantity** and **quality** of its sensors
  - The ability and speed to **process** sensory input
  - The ability to act on what it perceives
- The ability of a robot to become aware of its environment through sensing is called **perception**.
- A robot must take in sensory input and then extract useful information from the data.

# Sensors

- Robots are equipped with a variety of different kinds of sensors so as to allow:
  - **flexibility** in type of data sensed (e.g., distance, direction, light, sound, temperature, etc...)
  - ability to **combine sensor data** to obtain more accurate representation of the world (e.g., light-based sensors cannot detect glass, whereas sonar can)
- Use of multiple copies of certain sensors:
  - **speeds up rate** of environmental readings
  - provides redundancy for **fault tolerance**
  - **saves power** (e.g., robot may not have to rotate a sensor to get a 360° reading)



# Sensors



- Sensors vary in terms of:
  - size, weight, price, accuracy and precision.
- **Accuracy** is the quality of “nearness” to the true value
- **Precision** is the quality of being reproducible in amount or performance.
- Store-bought sensors usually come with statistics that indicate the degree of accuracy and precision that the sensor is able to obtain.

# Sensors

- There are two categories of sensors:

- *Passive*

Sense the environment without altering it.  
(e.g., touch, heat, sound & light sensors, cameras)



- *Active*

Alter the environment by sending out some kind of signal which is usually modified in some way by the environment and then detected again.  
(e.g., sonar, infrared, laser range finders)



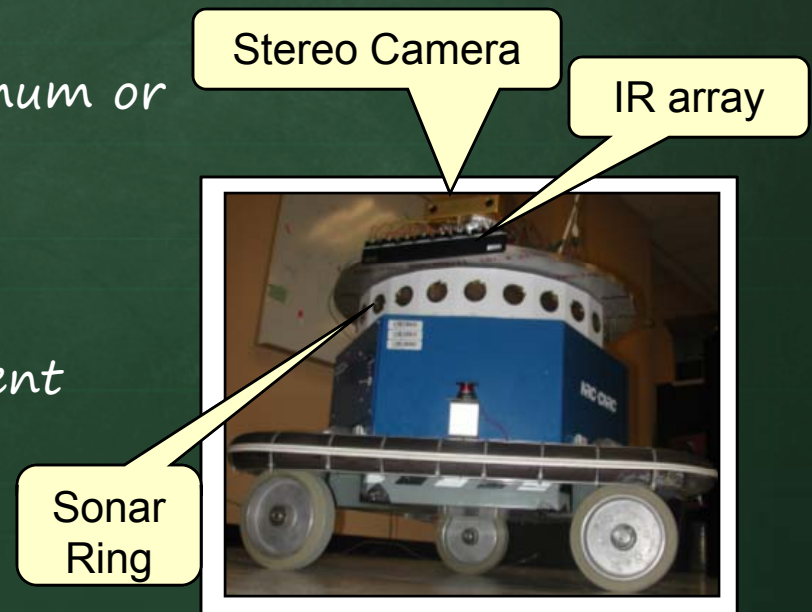


# Sensors

- Passive sensors are *often preferred* over active sensors since they *do not add extra signals or noise* to the environments.
- Active sensors are *sometimes preferred* over passive sensors since they *have less difficulty extracting relevant information*.
- Passive sensors are *usually preferred* in multi-robot environments since signals from active sensors *can interfere with other robots*.

# Sensor Fusion

- To account for inaccuracy, multiple sensor readings are often combined (or fused)
- **Sensor fusion** combines sensor readings from:
  - **Same sensor**
    - Usually taken as an average, minimum or maximum over small time interval
  - **Multiple similar** kinds of sensors
    - Individual sensors read from different directions (e.g. sonar ring)
  - **Different kinds** of sensors
    - e.g., combining sonar with IR and vision measurements



# Sensors

- There is an endless number of sensors for a variety of purposes.
- We are interested in looking at just a few of the common types of sensors used on mobile robots.
- We will focus mainly on **range sensors** which reports the distance from the sensor to an object.



# Range Sensors



# Range Sensors

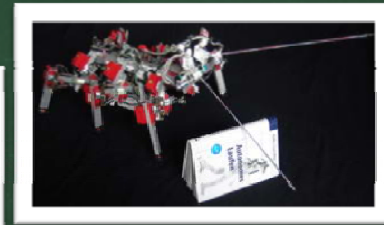
- Commonly used range sensors in robotics:
  - Tactile and Proximity sensors
  - Ultrasonic Sensors
  - IR Range Sensors
  - Laser Range Finders
  - Vision Systems
- Each varies in complexity, size, weight, expense, accuracy, etc..
- The **detection range** is defined as the maximum distance that the sensor can read reliably from.



# Tactile Sensors

- *Tactile sensors* detect distance through physical contact and are usually in the form of:

- One or more bumpers
- Two or more whiskers

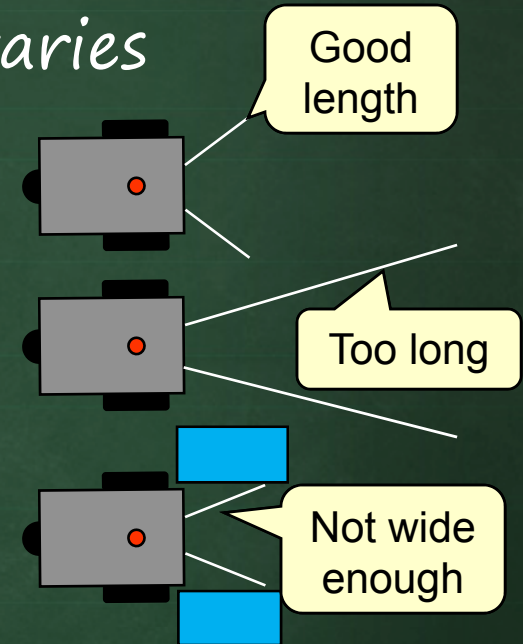


- They are usually set to detect obstacles at (or within) a fixed distance from the robot.
- The detection range of bumpers is usually anywhere from  $1_{mm}$  to  $2_{cm}$ .

# Tactile Sensors

- Whiskers have a detection range that varies according to their length.

- Usually placed at front and extend long enough to ensure safe stopping distance
- Should extend entire body width so as to detect successfully any obstacles.



- Tactile sensors have the tremendous **advantage** over all other sensors in that they are:

+ **simple** – provide a binary signal (“yes” or “no” obstacle)

+ **trustworthy** – simple things rarely break down.



# Tactile Sensors

- Tactile sensors of course, do have their *disadvantages*:
  - They provide only poor or *coarse resolution*
  - Bumpers require robot to make *solid contact* with obstacles (dangerous for obstacles + unhealthy for robot)
  - Whiskers can become tangled or *caught* in cracks
  - Whiskers oscillate when released after bending, resulting in *spurious readings* until they settle again
  - Whiskers may require mechanical adjustments or *repair*





# Proximity Sensors

- *Proximity sensors* are sensors that detect obstacles within a specific range from the robot.
- Provide *binary signal* according to some threshold distance: obstacle “within range” or “out of range”
- Tactile sensors are examples of proximity sensors.
- There are non-tactile proximity sensors.
  - e.g., encoders are examples of proximity sensors that detect the absence or presence of a light reflection
- Non-tactile proximity sensors are usually active.



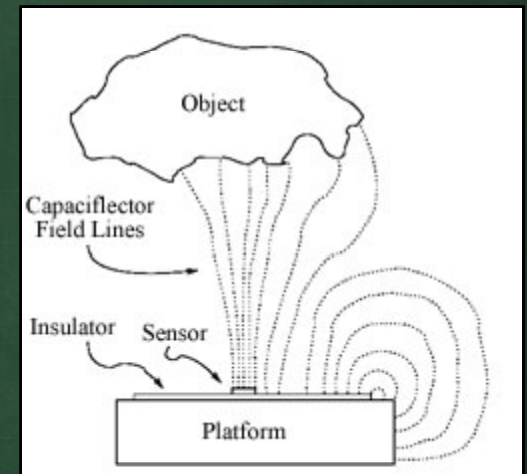
# Proximity Sensors

- Any range sensor can be configured as a proximity sensor simply by setting a threshold
- Proximity sensors operate using various mediums:
  - Light (infrared (IR))
  - Sound (ultrasonic)
  - Capacitance (electrostatic fields)
  - Inductance (magnetic fields)
- We will discuss capacitance and inductance first, then in more detail regarding light-based and sound-based sensors.



# Capaciflectors

- **Capacitance sensors** (a.k.a. capaciflectors) detect change in capacitance around it.
  - When power is applied to the sensor, an electrostatic field is generated and reacts to changes in capacitance caused by the presence of an obstacle.
- Can detect obstacles from up to **46<sub>cm</sub>** away from the platform.



8 capaciflectors on the bottom on this robot.

# Capaciflectors

## ■ Advantages:

- + lightweight, cheap, robust, fast obstacle detection
- + can detect proximity of various types of obstacles within some threshold range



## ■ Disadvantages:

- Range estimate depends on dielectric constant of obstacle it is sensing; the higher the dielectric constant, the more sensitive a capacitive sensor is to that obstacle.
- Different materials have different characteristics resulting in variety of range readings
- Cannot detect accurate distance unless obstacle material is known



# Inductive Proximity Sensors

- *Inductive Sensors* detect changes in magnetic fields caused by other objects within close range.
  - Sensor generates magnetic field which induces Eddy currents in the object.
  - The Eddy currents in the object magnetically pushes back and dampens inductive sensors' oscillation field.
  - sensor's detection circuit monitors the dampening effect and when magnetic effect becomes sufficiently damped, it triggers the output circuitry.



# Inductive Proximity Sensors

## ■ Advantages:

- + Very robust under hard/noisy conditions (industrial)
- + Highly accurate
- + Great for assembly lines and industrial applications



## ■ Disadvantages:

- Very small detection range ( $0.0001_{in}$  to  $1_{in}$ )
  - Only works for sensing certain types of metal objects.
  - Range measurement varies according to metal type.
- These sensors are impractical for most mobile robot applications



# Ultrasonic Range Sensors



# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- *Ultrasonic Sensors* emit a sound wave signal and measure the time it takes for that signal to be returned.

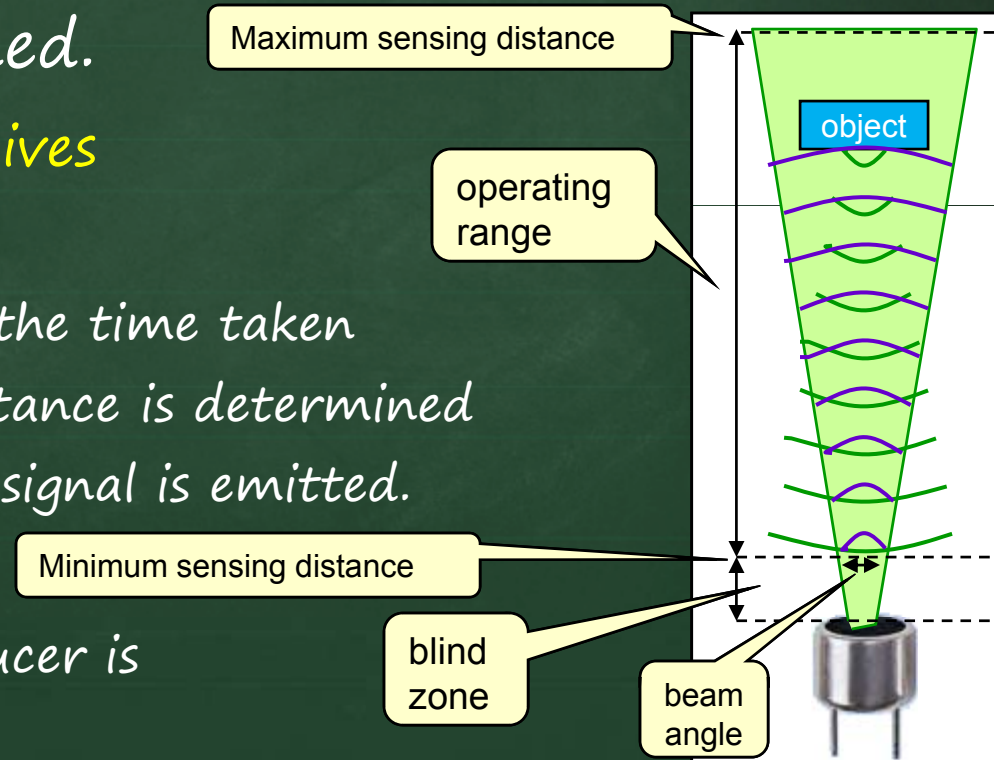
- *transducer emits and receives* ultrasonic signal.

- incoming echo is checked, the time taken for sound to travel the distance is determined and corresponding output signal is emitted.

- *Blind zone exists*

- echo arrives before transducer is ready to receive.

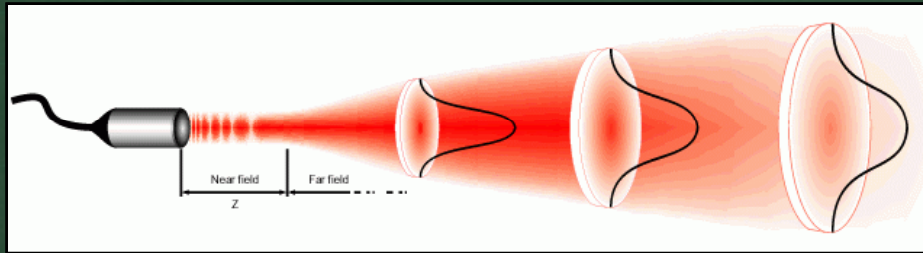
- objects in this dead band cannot be detected reliably.



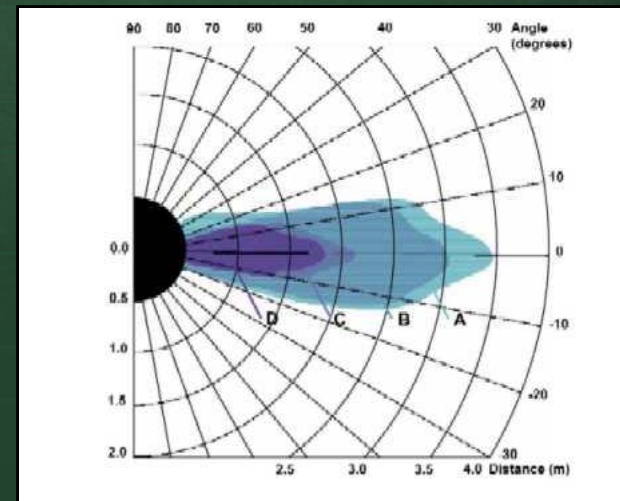
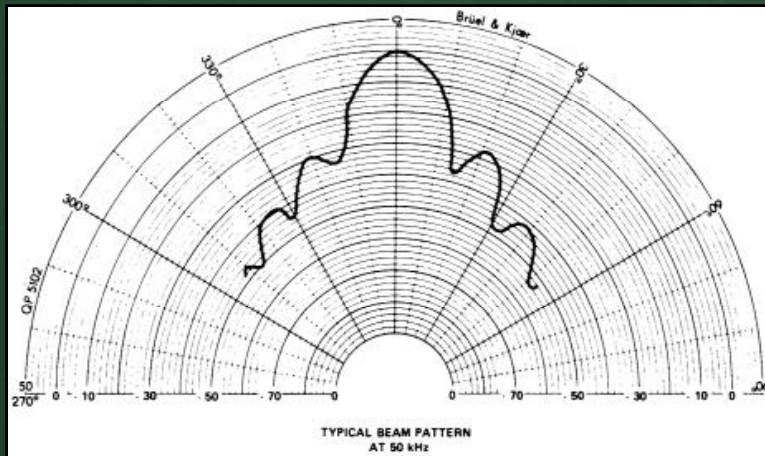


# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- Shape of beam is not a simple wedge:



- wider objects near center of beam result in better accuracy

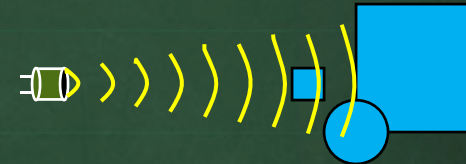


# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- Readings from sensor vary depending on:

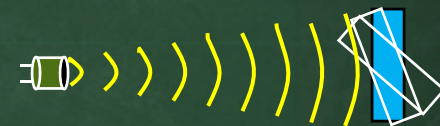
- distance to object(s)

- Multiple objects result in only one distance reading



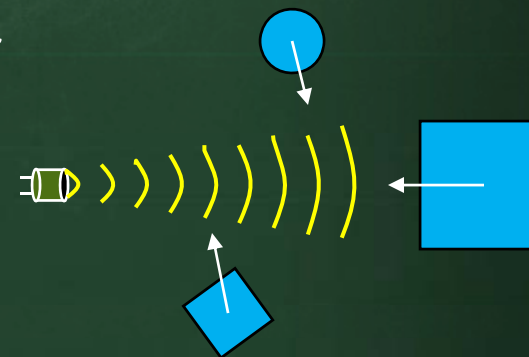
- angle that object makes with respect to sensor axis

- smoother materials require perpendicular orientation



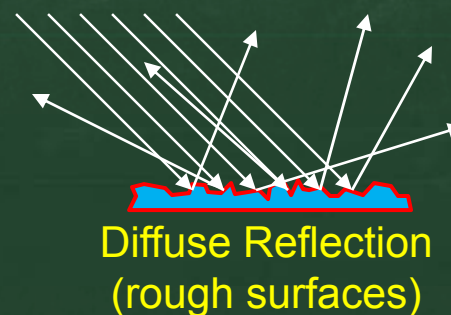
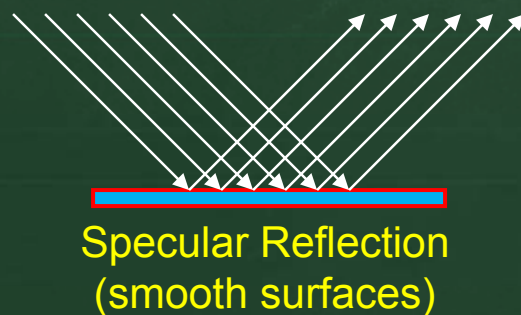
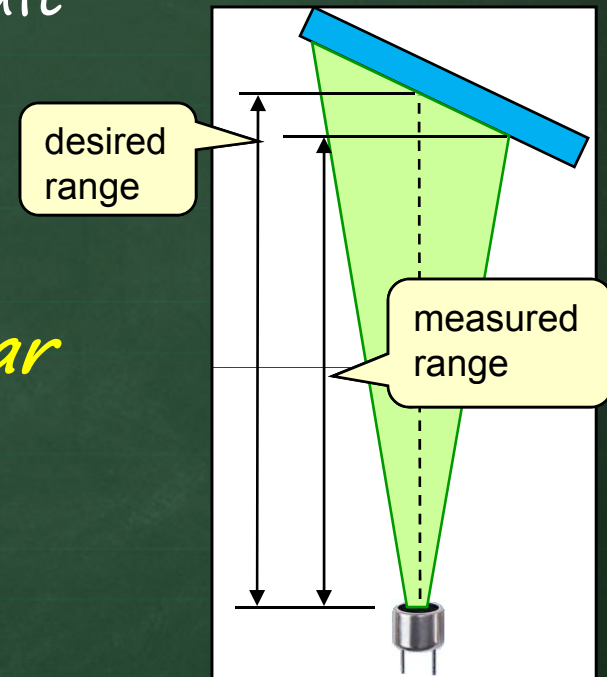
- direction that object enters sensing range

- smooth objects must enter from the front with their surface perpendicular to produce proper reading.



# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

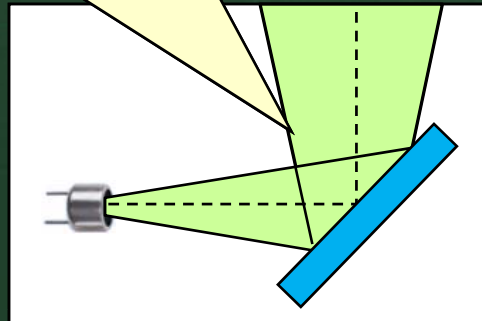
- Sensitivity to obstacle angle can result in improper range readings.
- When beam's angle of incidence falls below a certain critical angle *specular reflection* errors occur.



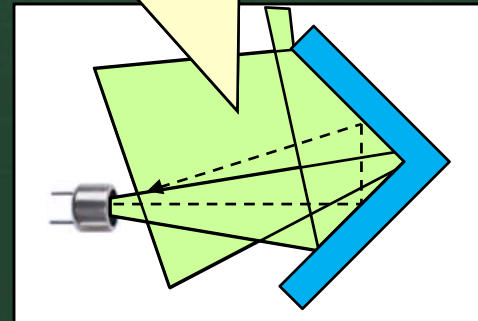
# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- Specular reflection can cause reflected sound to:
  - never return to the transducer
  - return to the transducer too late
- In either case, the result is that the distance measurement is too large and inaccurate

Echo never returns, resulting in maximum distance reading.

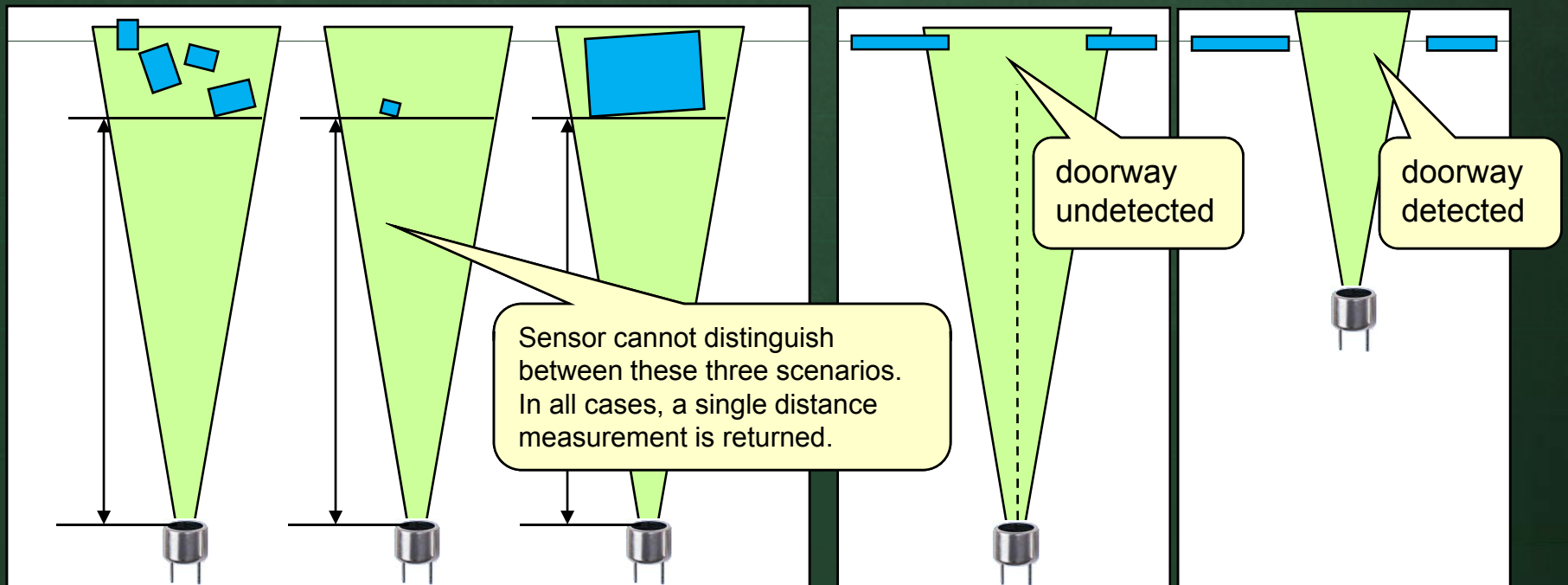


Distance returned represents total round-trip delay.



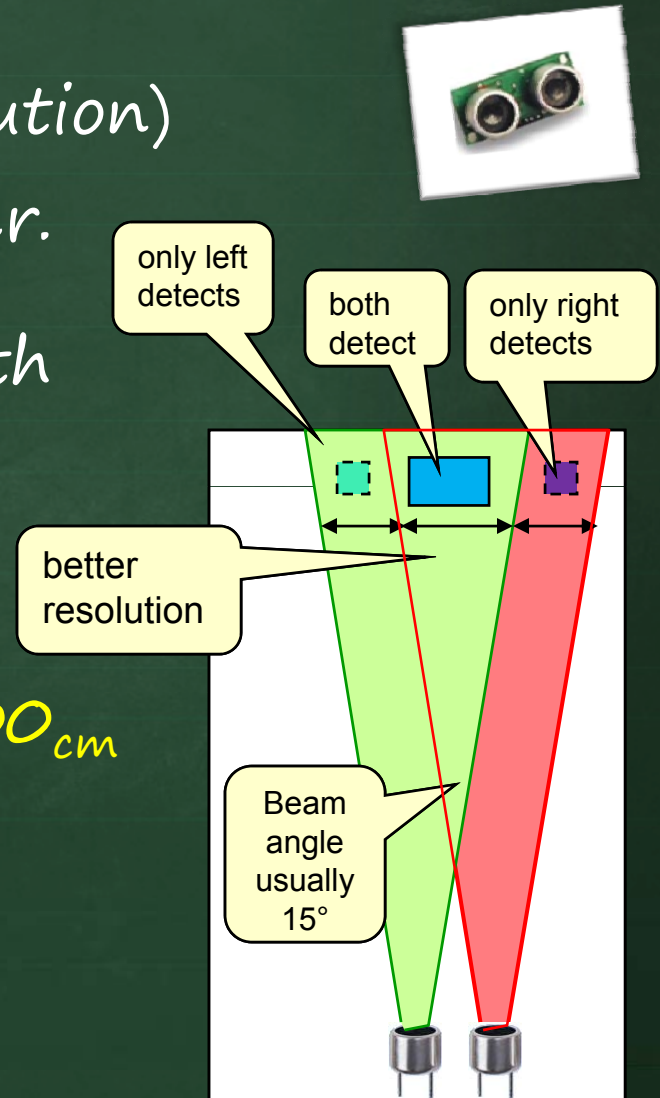
# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- Distance and angular resolution decreases as objects become further from sensor
  - multiple close obstacles cannot be distinguished
  - gaps cannot be detected (e.g., doorways)



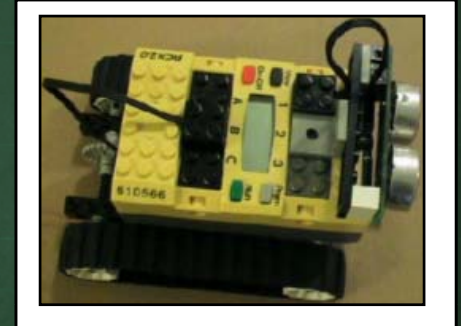
# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- To increase beam width (i.e., resolution) two sensors are often used together.
- Detection of object in either or both sensors allows for three detection wedges, increasing resolution.
- Typical sensor range is  $15_{cm}$  to  $300_{cm}$  adjustable with  $\pm 0.1\%$  accuracy over entire range at stable temperatures.



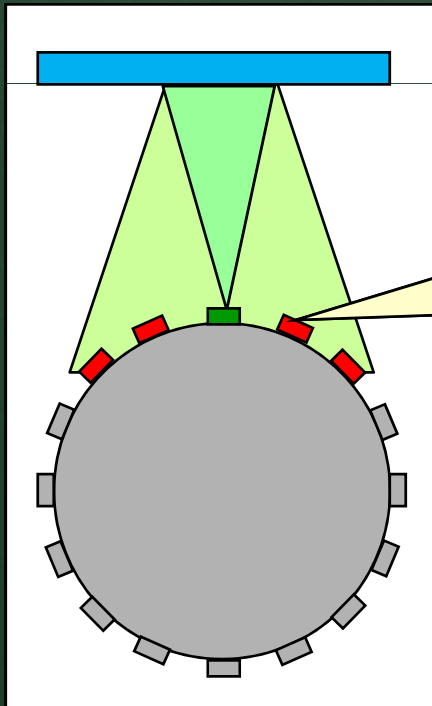
# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- To perform mapping, sonars (a.k.a. ultrasonic sensors) must take multiple readings:
  - can simply rotate the robot body
  - can rotate some kind of head device
  - can use multiple sensors at fixed positions around robot body

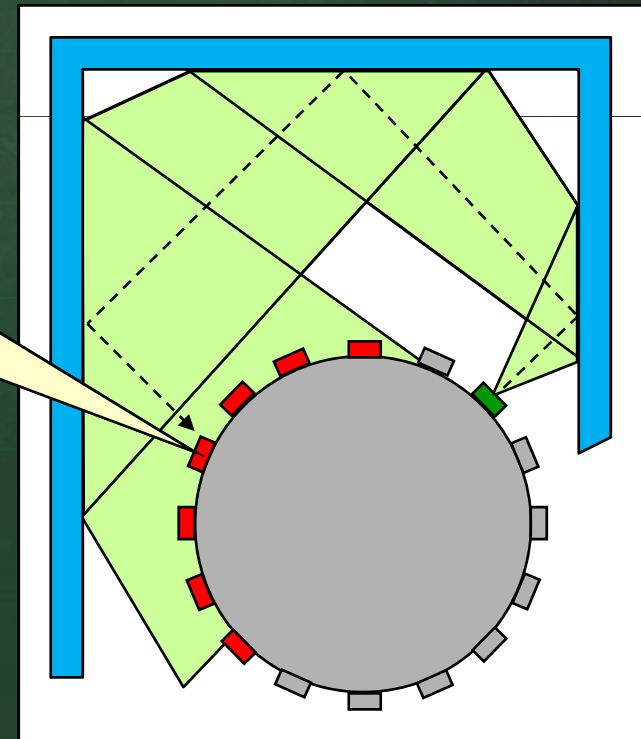


# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- Using multiple fixed position sensors can lead to another problem called *crosstalk*:
  - A form of interference in which echoes emitted from one sensor are detected by others



Some sensors may pick up echos from a previous sensor's emitted signal.

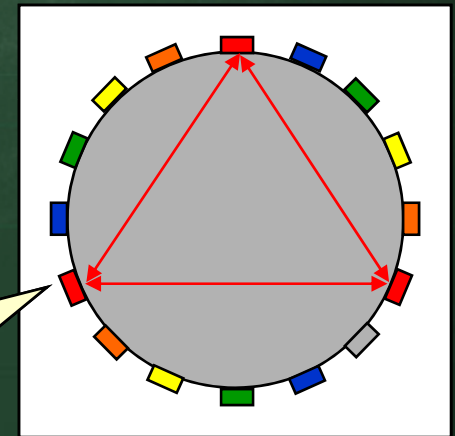




# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

- Crosstalk signals are impossible to detect
  - unless signals are somehow **unique** (e.g., coded)
- Crosstalk can be reduced by **carefully timing** the emitting of signals
  - emit from one and wait for a time interval
  - emit from a selected few that will “likely” have no interference (although there are no guarantees)

Group sonars into small groups that are allowed to emit signals at the same time.



# Ultrasonic Range Sensors

## ■ *Advantages* of ultrasonic range sensors:

- + reliable with good precision
- + not as prone to outside interference
- + good maximum range
- + inexpensive



## ■ *Disadvantages*:

- sensitive to smoothness & angle to obstacles
- poor resolution
- prone to self-interference from echos
- cannot detect obstacles too close

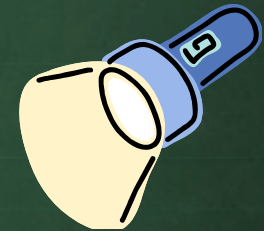


# Infrared (IR) Range Sensors



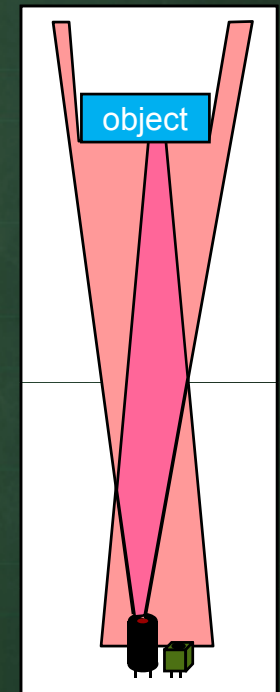
# IR Range Sensors

- *Infrared Range Sensors* emit a beam of infrared light and measure the amount of light being reflected from the obstacle.
- IR light beam is not visible
- There are four main operational techniques:
  - *Reflective* (measures strength of light reflected from object)
  - *Transmissive* (detects presence of object between emitter/detector)
  - *Modulated* (modulates beam to reduce noise)
  - *Triangulation* (measures angle that light is reflected from object)



# IR Range Sensors

- Basic IR proximity detection is simple
  - Turn on an IR diode (i.e., light)
  - Light is reflected off obstacle, some light returns
  - Receiver measures strength of light returned.
- As with sonars, signal is highly dependent on reflective characteristics of the object.
  - shiny obstacles (e.g., metal) cause problems
- Range depends on color of obstacle
  - white/black surfaces report different ranges
  - cannot detect glass



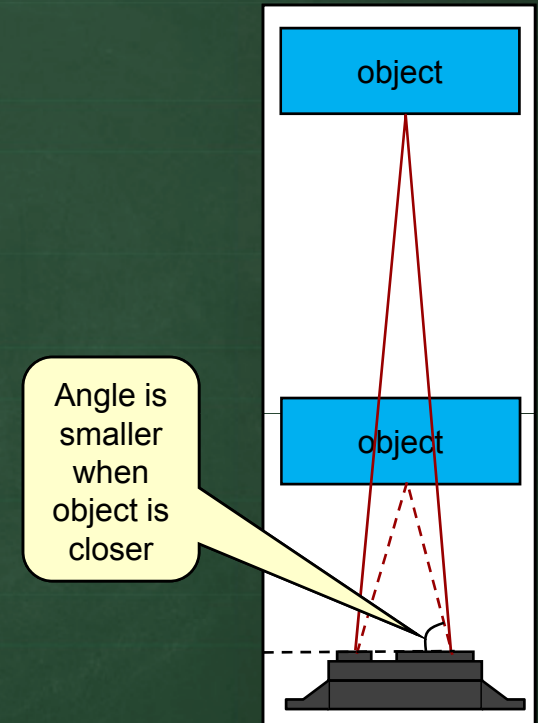
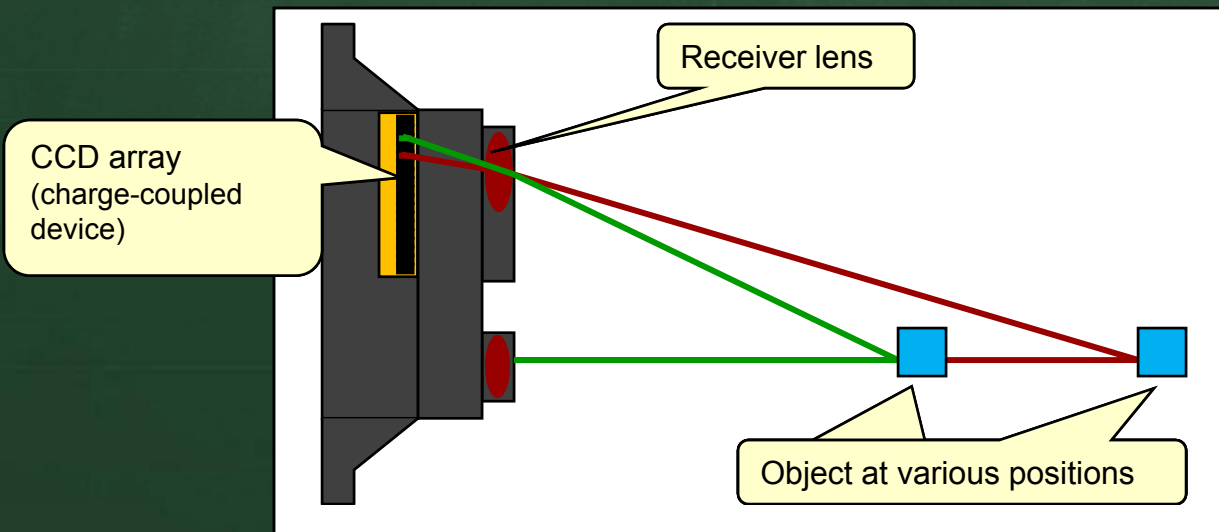
# IR Range Sensors

- Modulated IR
  - Signal is **rapidly-varied** IR, usually via flashing or pulsing (e.g., 40khz)
  - Receiver has additional circuitry so that it only responds to a **matching modulated IR** signal.
- Helps reduce outside IR noise and interference with other IR devices operating at different frequencies.
- Multiple robots can be equipped with IR sensors operating at different frequencies to avoid interference.



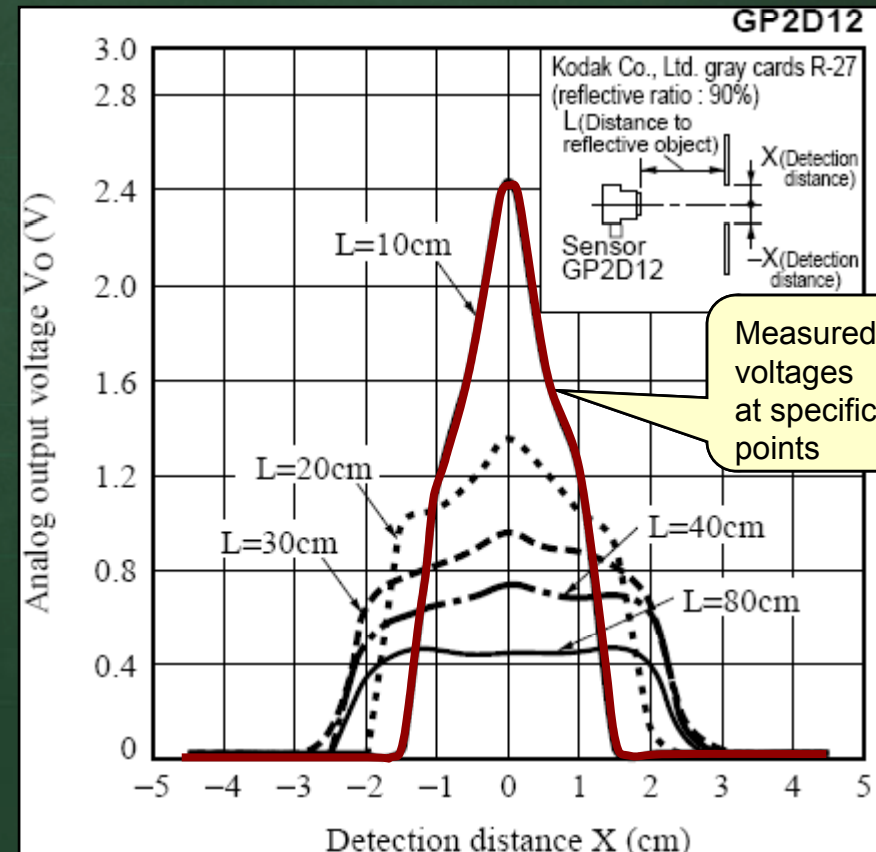
# IR Range Sensors

- Triangulated IR (e.g., Sharp GP2D12)
  - senses the angle at which the reflected IR is returned to the sensor.
- Receiver has lens that projects returned IR light onto a CCD array



# IR Range Sensors

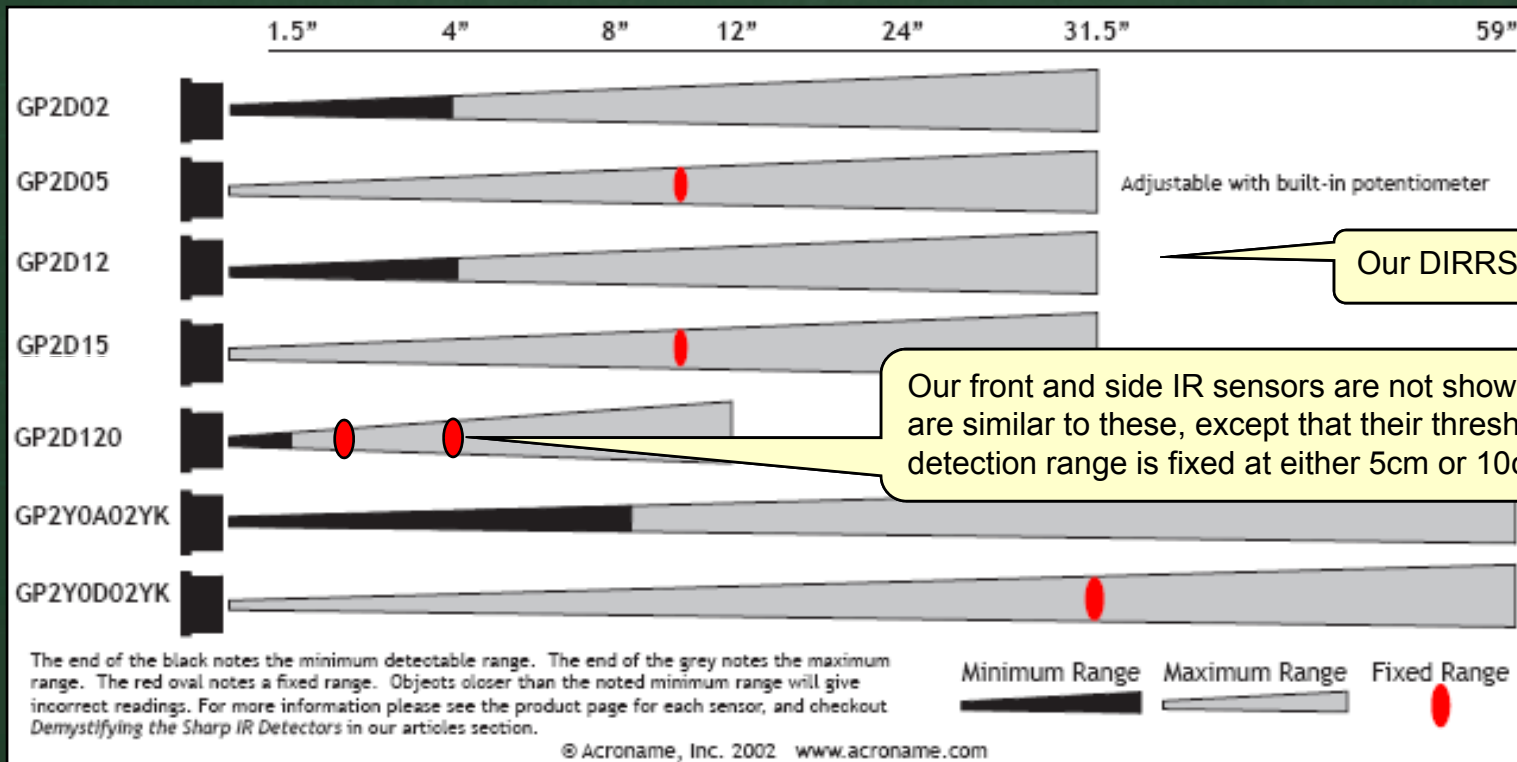
- As with sonars, the Sharp GP2D12 sensor cannot always distinguish features at far distances.
- Consider test done by Sharp as shown on their datasheets:





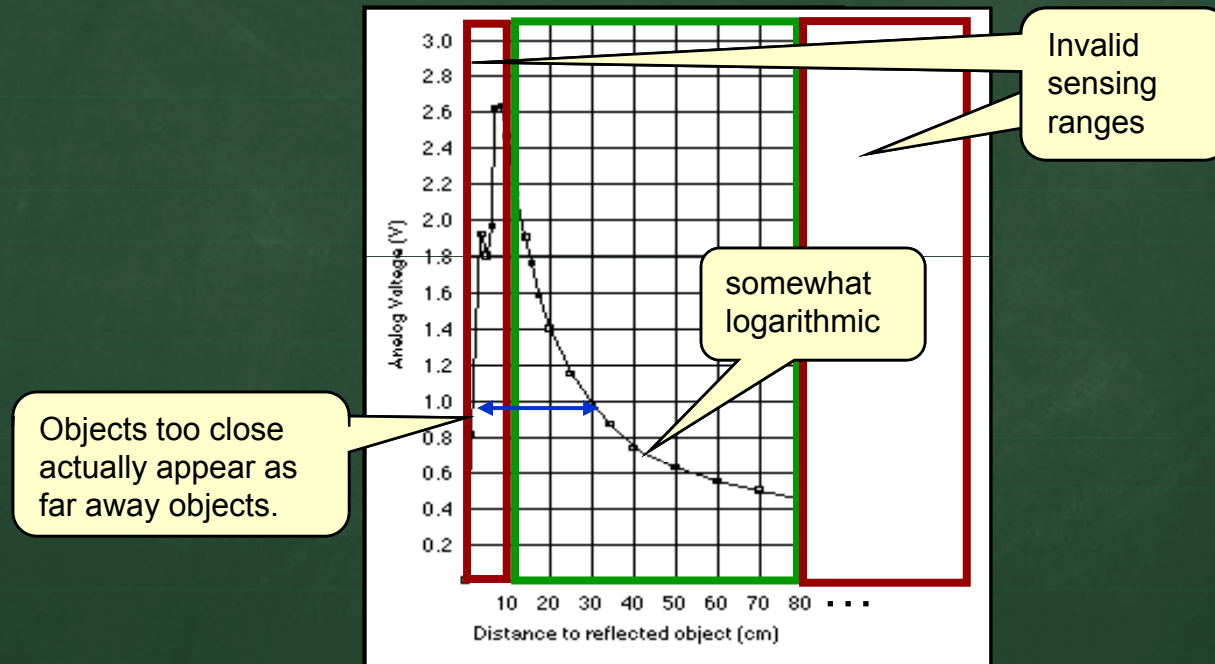
# IR Range Sensors

- Sharp produces many popular proximity detectors that vary according to their maximum and minimum distance ranges:



# IR Range Sensors

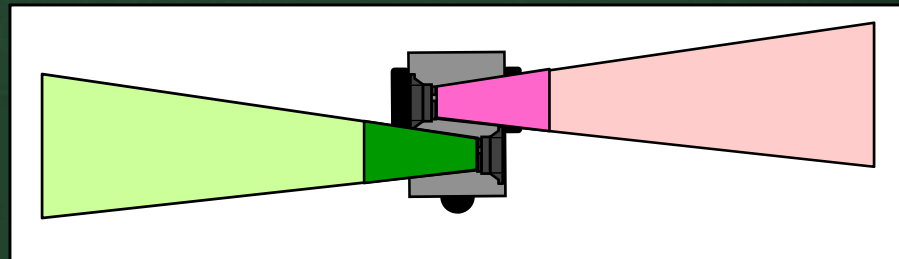
- The distance vs. voltage graph shows non-linearity



- Logarithmic shape varies slightly from one detector to another.

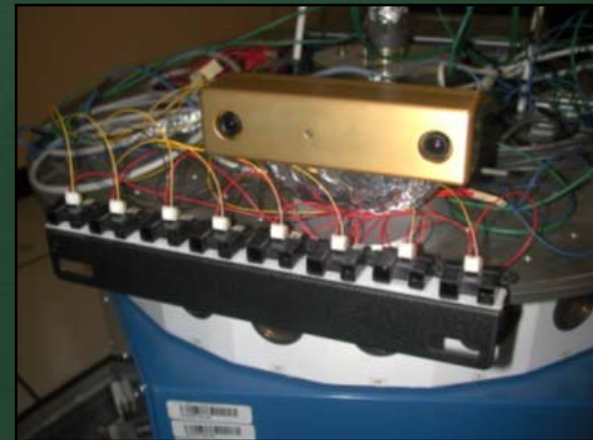
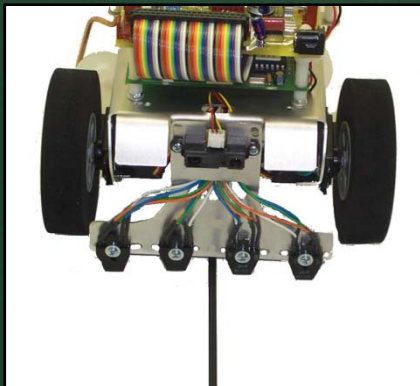
# IR Range Sensors

- Close objects (within  $8_{cm}$ ) are within a dangerous collision range.
  - Object may be detected at  $12_{cm}$ , but by the time the robot stops, the object is in the  $6_{cm}$  range...
  - The robot would then detect it at  $12_{cm}$  again and think it is still far enough away from it.
- Can reduce this problem by pushing sensors further back on the robot  
(called *cross-firing*)



# IR Range Sensors

- Triangulation technique provides improvements:
  - better immunity to ambient light noise
  - indifferent to color variations
- As with ultrasonic sensors, multiple IR sensors are often used in an array or circular pattern to speed up gathering of range data



# IR Range Sensors

## ■ Advantages of IR range sensors:

- + reliable with good precision
- + small beam angle
- + inexpensive



## ■ Disadvantages:

- sensitive to smoothness & angle to obstacles
- short range
- prone to interference from ambient IR (e.g., outdoors)
- can't detect distance to glass, mirrors or shiny surfaces



# *Laser Range Finders*



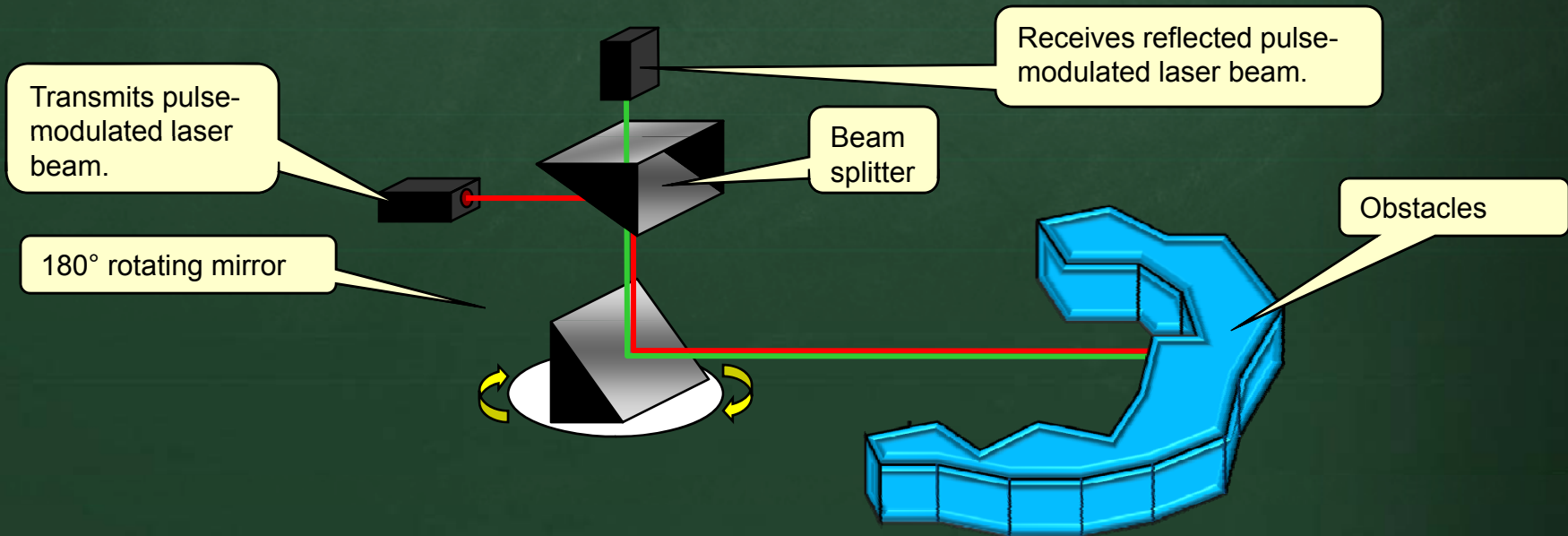
# Laser Range Finders

- Laser Range Finders are perhaps the most accurate sensors for measuring distances.
- Similar concept to IR range finder in that IR light is emitted and detected.
- These sensors are *Lidar* (Light Detection and Ranging) systems
- Lidar systems use one of three techniques:
  - Pulsed Modulation
  - Amplitude Modulation Continuous Wave (AMCW)
  - Frequency Modulation Continuous Wave (FMCW)



# Laser Range Finders

- Pulsed Modulation lidar system (e.g., Sick sensor)
  - emits a pulsed laser light beam
  - reflected light is returned to detector
  - rotating mirrors are used to direct outgoing and incoming light to perform up to 240° scan





# Laser Range Finders

- Range calculated as  $r = t \times c / 2$  where
  - $t$  = time taken for light to return from when it was sent out
  - $c$  = speed of light  $\approx 300,000,000$  m/sec
- Must have VERY fast processing since return times are very small.
- This leads to high expense of sensor (> \$6k US)
- Tradeoff is high resolution ... sometimes worth it.
  - “Sick” sensor can scan  $180^\circ$  at  $0.5^\circ$  resolution with accuracy  $\pm 1.5_{cm}$  in short range ( $1_m - 8_m$ ) and  $\pm 4_{cm}$  in long range ( $8_m - 20_m$ )

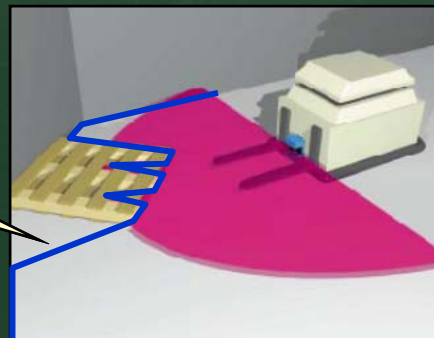


# Laser Range Finders

- “Hokuyo” sensor can scan  $240^\circ$  at  $0.36^\circ$  resolution with accuracy  $\pm 1_{cm}$  in range ( $2_{cm} - 4_m$ )
- Typically measure ranges up to  $50_m$
- Scanning at multiple heights produces a set of contour lines that can be stacked together to form model

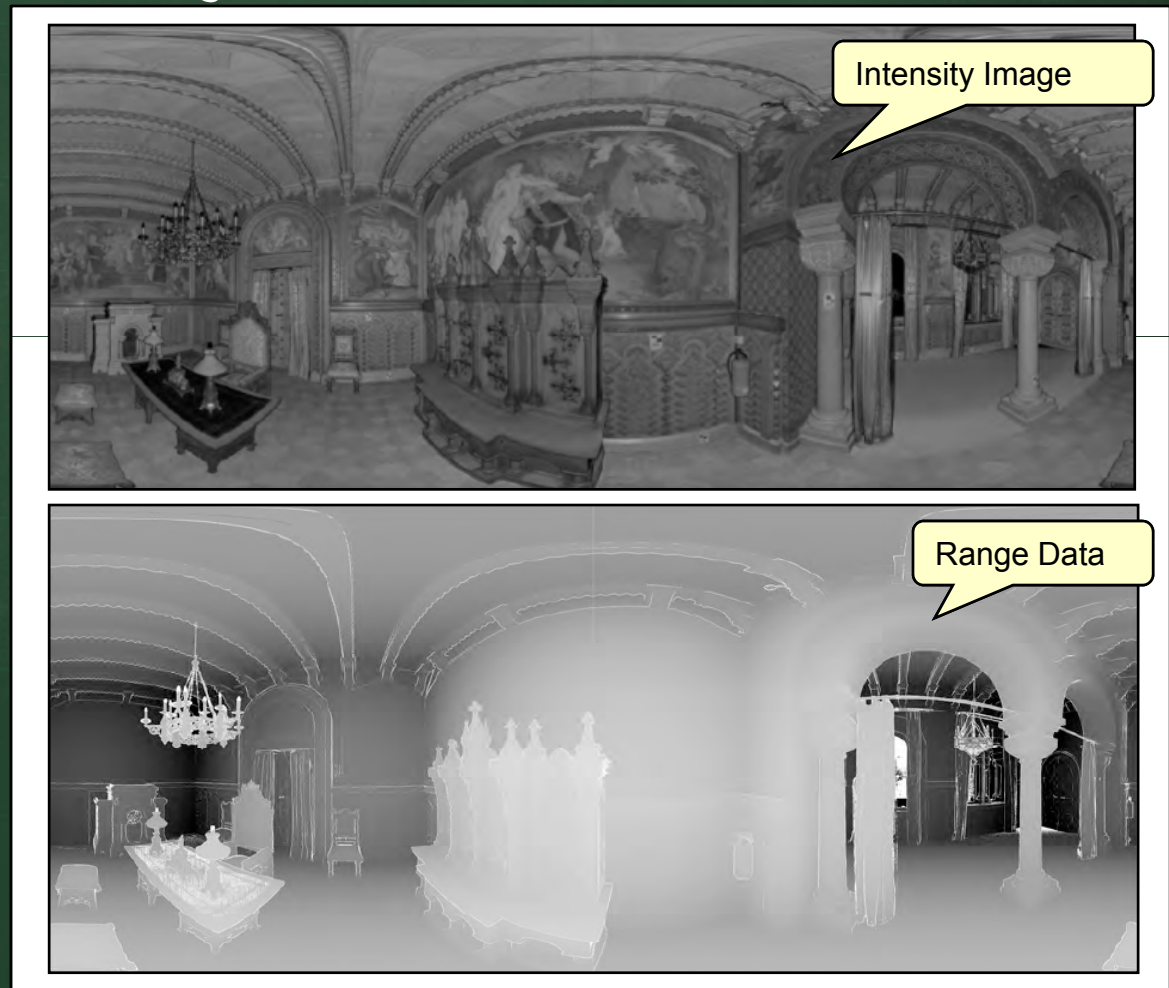


Result of scan at single height level is a **visibility polygon**



# Laser Range Finders

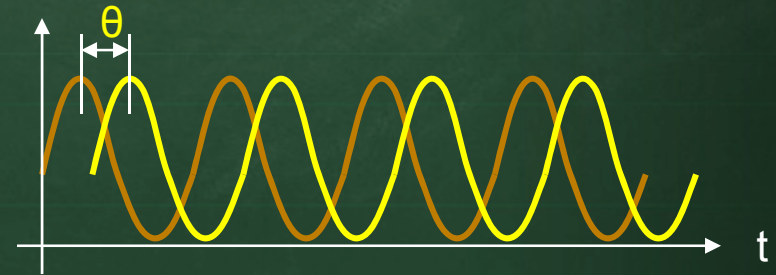
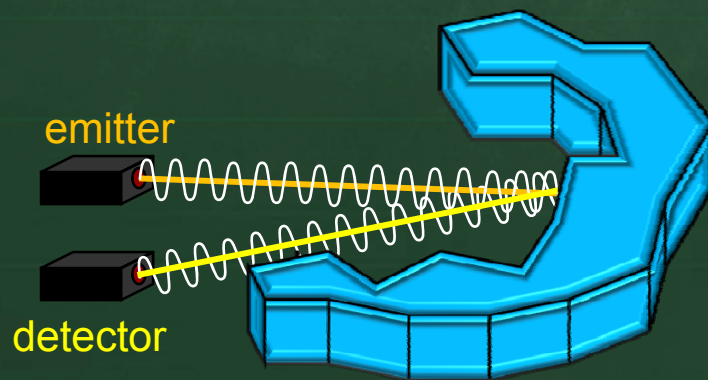
- Full 3D scenes are usually scanned in one shot:
- Typically  $180^\circ$  scan taken at various heights with device mounted on pivoting “head”.
- Can be very accurate.



# Laser Range Finders

## ■ AMCW sensors

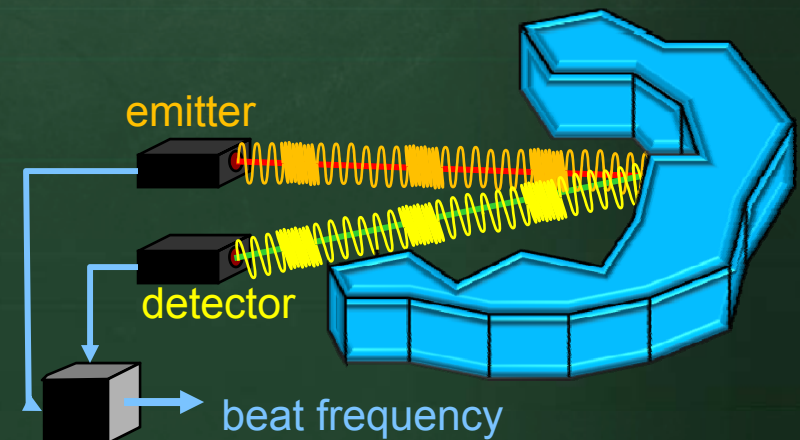
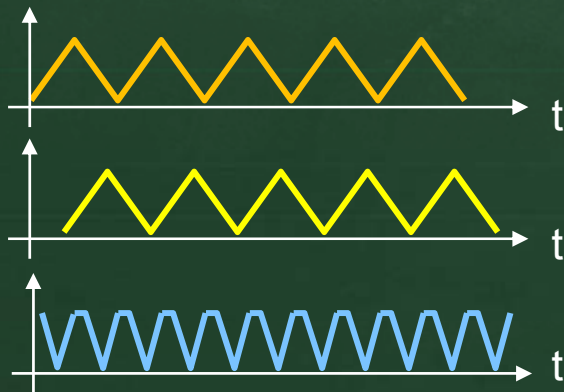
- emitter sends out a continuous modulated laser signal (i.e., intensity of beam is modulated using some wave pattern (e.g., sin wave)).
- detected light has same amplitude but phase shifted
- difference in phase shift indicates range



Range calculated as  $r = \theta c / 4\pi f$  where  
 $\theta$  = phase shift  
 $f$  = frequency of modulated signal

# Laser Range Finders

- FMCW technique is simpler and hence lower cost
- Resolution is limited by modulating frequency
- FMCW sensors similarly emit a continuous laser beam, but modulated now by frequency.
  - emitted signal is mixed with reflected signal.
  - Result is difference in frequency



# Laser Range Finders

## ■ Advantages:

- + better resolution than ultrasonic, IR, cameras
- + very reliable
- + not as sensitive to lighting conditions as cameras



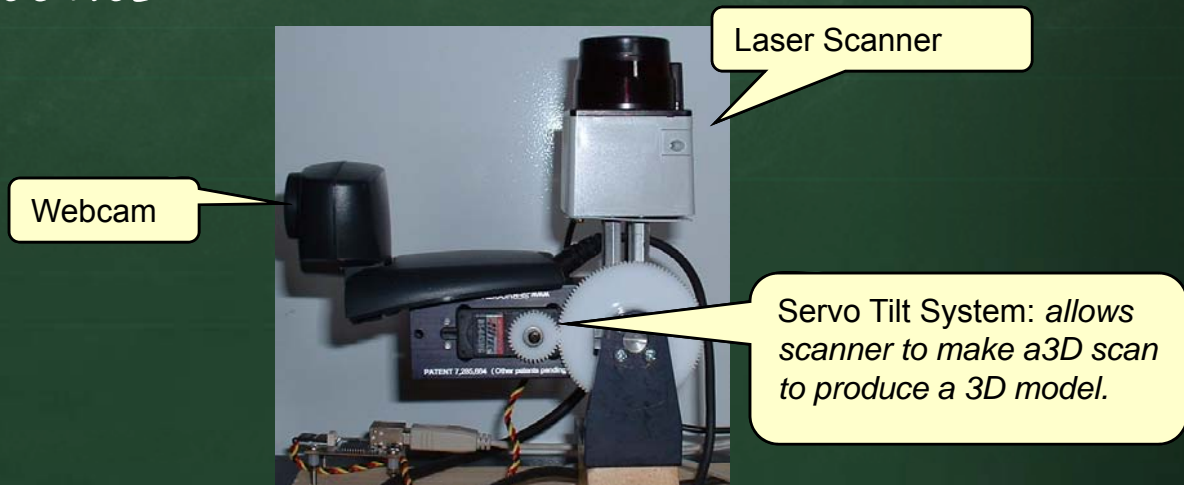
## ■ Disadvantages:

- cannot identify mirrors and/or glass
- more expensive than all other sensors
- larger and heavier than all other sensors



# Laser Range Finder Experiments

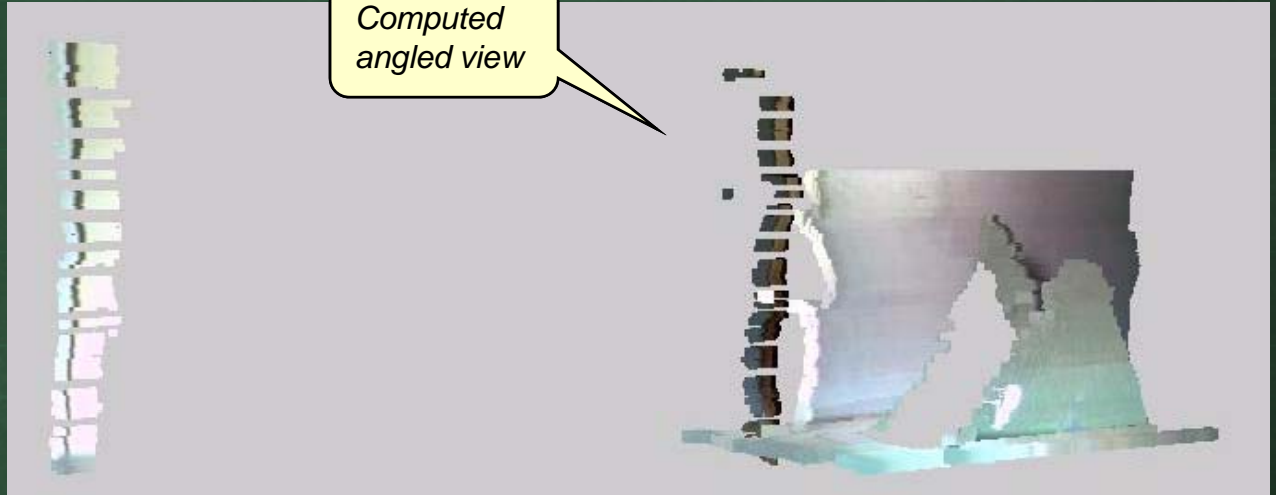
- Experiments were done using the Hokuyo scanner combined with a webcam
- Objective: to add depth to a camera image by finding surfaces and separating them like cardboard cutouts



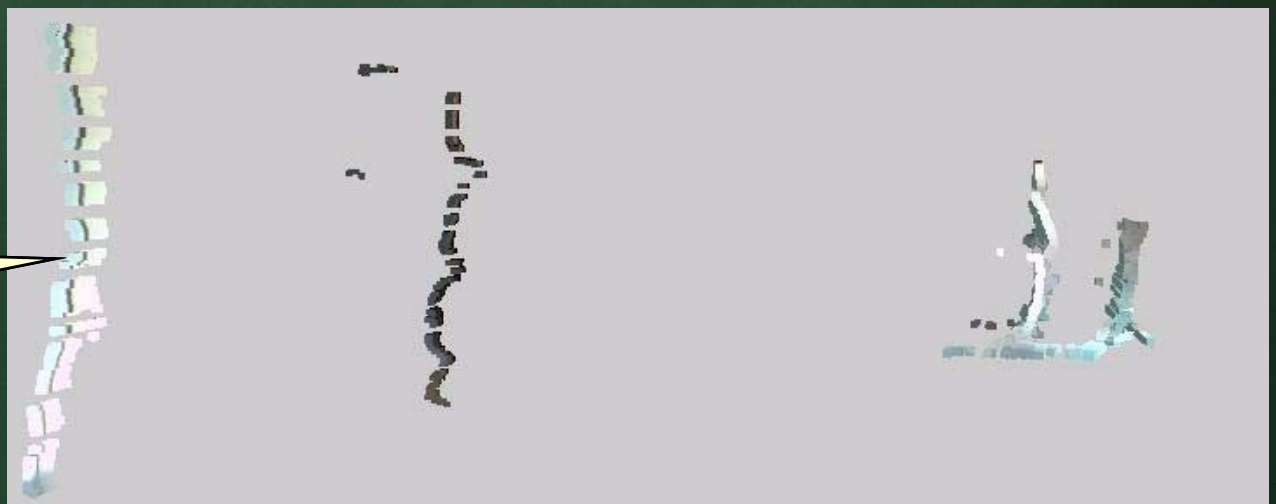
# Experiment 1



Camera image



Computed angled view



Computed side view



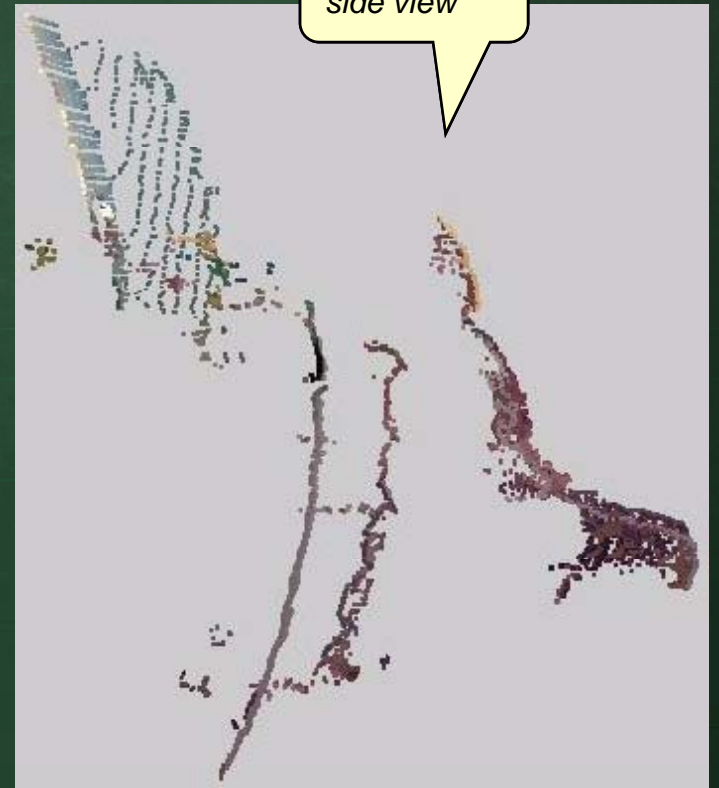
# Experiment 2



Camera image



Computed angled view



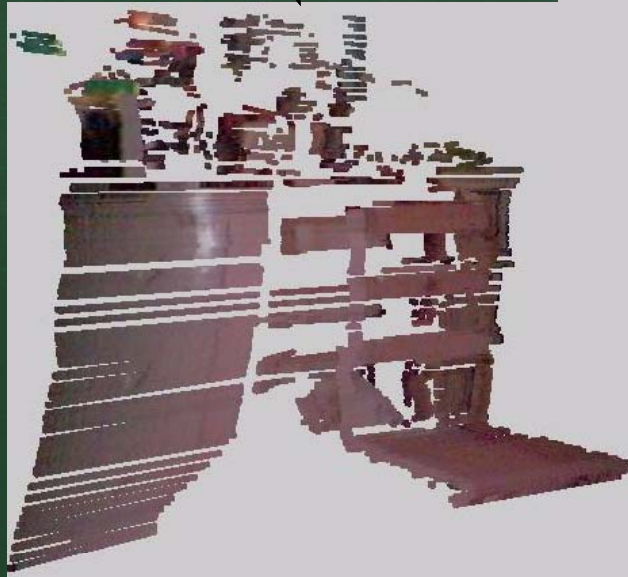
Computed side view

# Experiment 3



Camera image

Computed angled view



Computed side view



# Experiment 4



Camera image



Computed angled view



Computed side view

# Laser Range Finders

- We will not discuss laser range finders any more in this course.
- In terms of mapping, laser range finders are just high quality 3D versions of our simple IR sensors.
- For the PropBot, we do not have the processing speed, power or size to accommodate such a sensor.



# *Stereo Camera Ranging Systems*

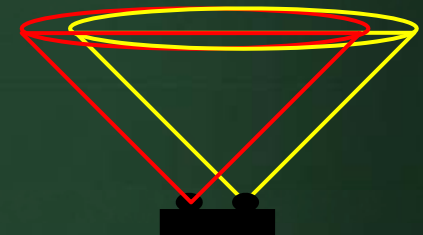


# Stereo Ranging Systems

- As with laser range finders, robots equipped with Stereo cameras can obtain 3D range maps of the environment.
- Usually 2 cameras used, although one can be used from multiple locations.
- Typical resolutions:
  - 640 x 480 at 30 frames per second
  - 1024 x 768 at 30 frames per second
- Cameras cover roughly a  $45^\circ$  cone.



A ~\$2k stereo camera from [ptgrey.com](http://ptgrey.com)

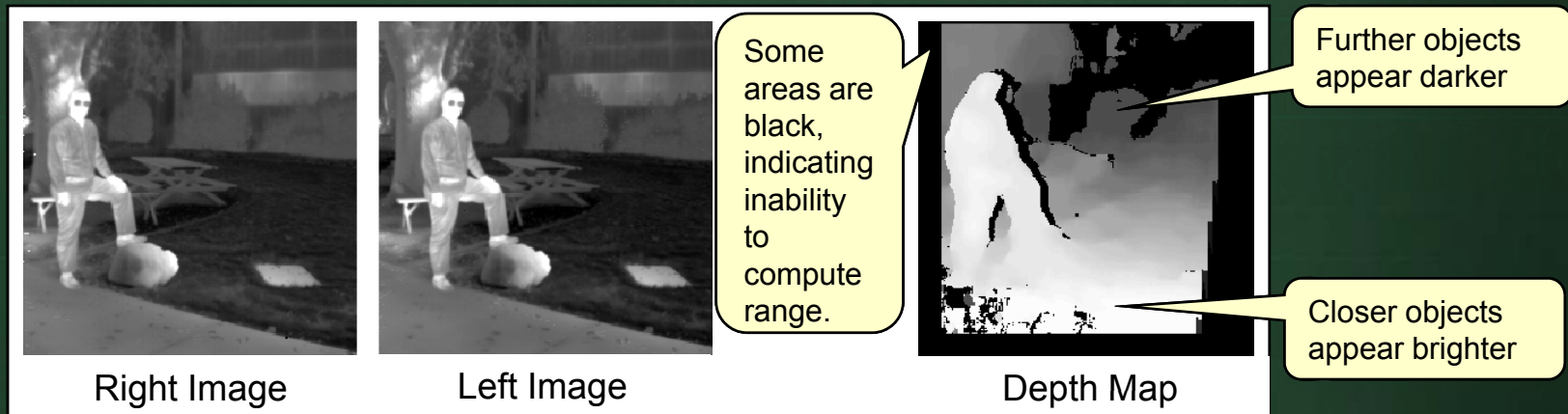


# Stereo Ranging Systems

- Goal of stereo vision:

- to calculate the depth or distance of features relative to the sensor (i.e., to construct a *depth map*).

- Uses images from dual cameras aimed at the same object.
- Need to locate the “same” features in both images.
- Using the geometrical relationship between the two cameras and the location of the feature in each image, the depth of each feature can be triangulated and a depth map constructed.



# Stereo Ranging Systems

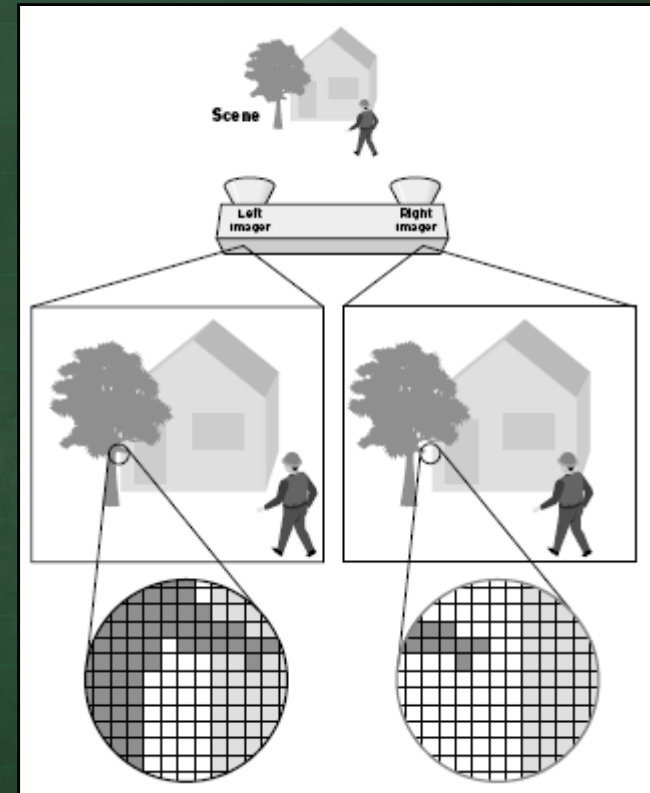
- Principle behind stereo vision:

- Objects seen in left camera appear horizontally shifted from objects seen in right camera.

- Size of shift, called the *disparity*, varies with object's distance from the cameras.

- Central idea is to find a

*correspondence* (or match) between points in one image with points in other image (not easy to get right).





# Stereo Ranging Systems

- For each pixel in one image, finding the corresponding pixel in the other image is difficult
  - Instead, find similarity (most likely *match*).
- In some cases, pixels in one image may simply not be visible in the other. This is called *occlusion*.



Can be due to closer obstacles hiding objects behind them at certain angles.

Can be due to unavailable data due to viewing region.

# Stereo Ranging Systems

- If cameras pointing in same direction and aligned, can use simple geometry:

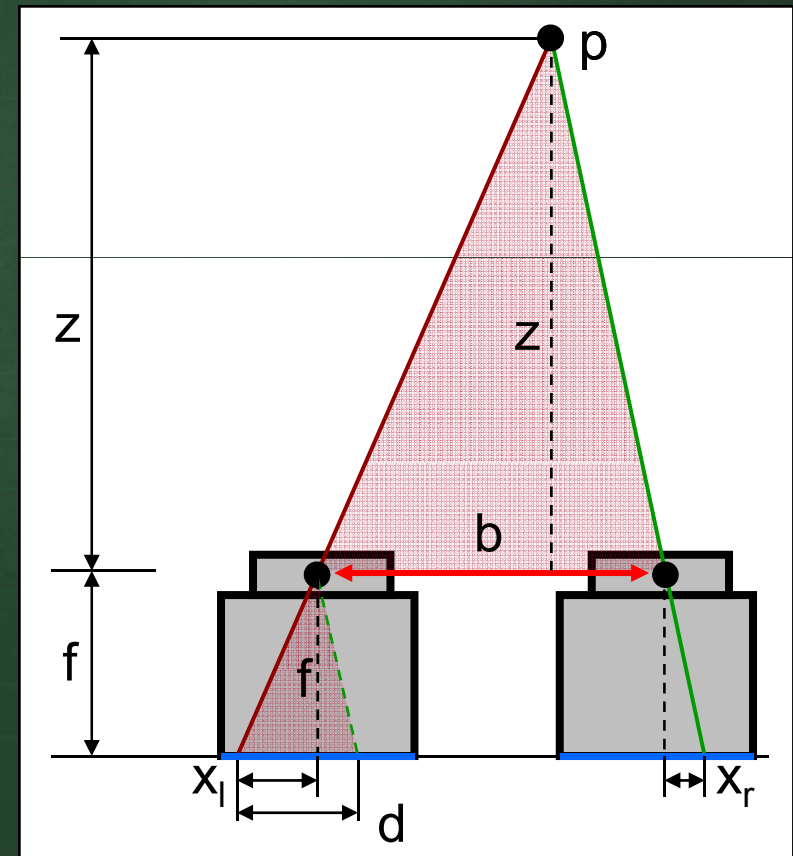
$b$  = baseline of camera system  
(i.e., a fixed value)

$z$  = depth of point  $p$

$d$  = disparity =  $x_l - x_r$

$f$  = focal point of cameras  
(i.e., a fixed value)

- The two shaded triangles are *similar*, and so  $z = \frac{f b}{d}$



# Stereo Ranging Systems

- So, the depth is inversely proportional to disparity
  - stereo is most accurate for close objects
- Disparity is always an integer value since it is difference in  $x$  values of pixels.
- Accuracy of depth can be increased by increasing baseline distance (i.e., distance between cameras)
  - but reduces overlap of cameras and hence scene width
  - more difficult to identify matching pairs of points since left/right images have less in common due to larger difference in viewing angle

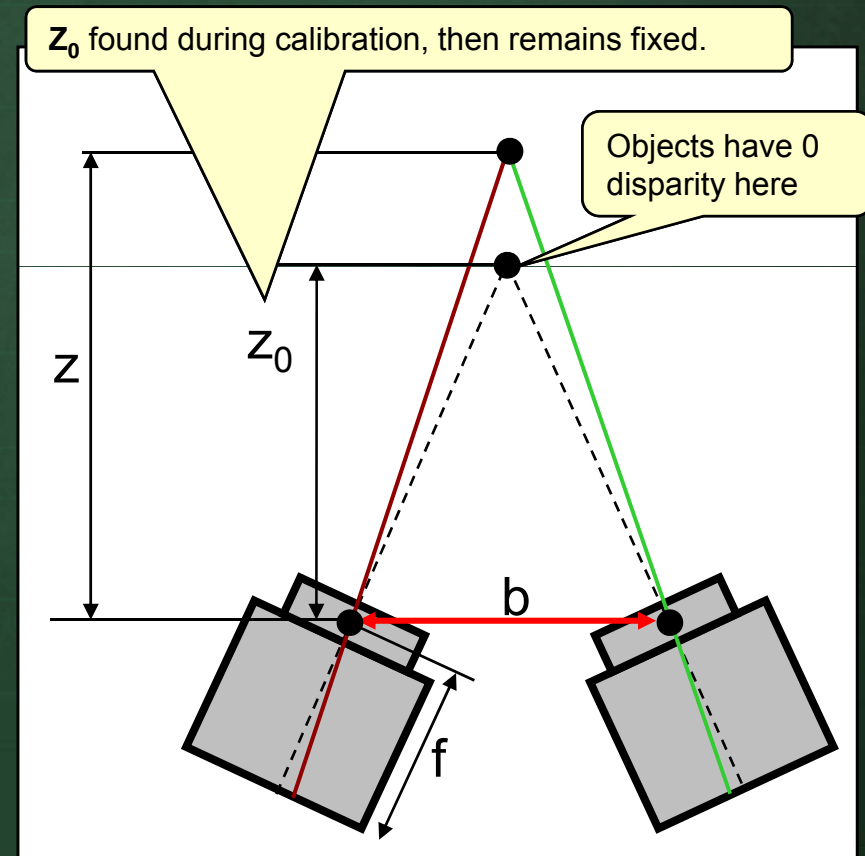


# Stereo Ranging Systems

- More realistic scenario is when cameras are not lying on the same plane:

- Here

$$z \approx \frac{fb}{(d + (fb / z_0))}$$



# Stereo Ranging Systems

- So how do we compute correspondence ?
- Some desired characteristics:
  - Corresponding image regions are similar
  - Each point matches a single point in the other image
    - unlikely for low feature scenes (e.g. blank walls)
- Many matching methods, 2 main types:
  - **Feature-based** – start from image structure (e.g., edges)
  - **Correlation-based** – start from grey levels
- We will look a little at correlation-based methods



# Correlation

- There are many approaches to doing correlation, each providing different results:
  - *Sum of Squared Differences (SSD)*
  - *Dynamic Programming (DP)*
  - *Graph Cut (GC)*
  - *Belief Propagation (BP)*
  - *Markov Random Fields (MRF)*

We will look more at this one only.

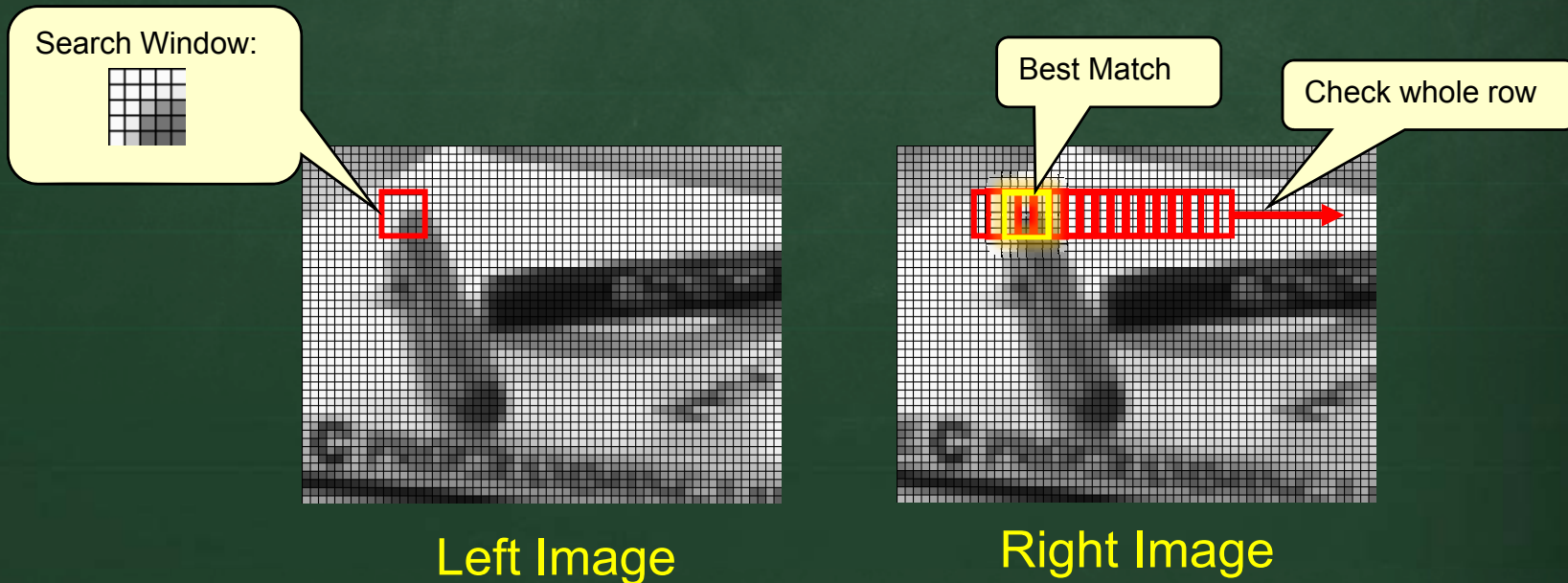
Ideal solution, manually computed



# SSD Correlation

- Idea:

- Take a small area of data in left image and compare it with similar-sized areas in the right image along the same epipolar line (e.g., at the same height in the image if the cameras are horizontally level).



# SSD Correlation

- Comparison is done by finding the sum of squared differences between left and right window areas.

```
FOR x = 0 to width DO {  
  FOR y = 0 to height DO {  
    bestSSD = MAXINT  
    FOR d = 0 to MAXRANGE DO {  
      ssd = 0  
      FOR xx = x -WINDOW_SIZE/2 to x+WINDOW_SIZE/2 DO {  
        FOR yy = y -WINDOW_SIZE/2 to y+WINDOW_SIZE/2 DO {  
          diff = leftImage[xx, yy] - rightImage[xx+d, yy]  
          ssd = ssd + (diff * diff)  
        }  
      }  
      IF (ssd < bestSSD) THEN {  
        bestSSD = ssd  
        bestDisparity = d  
      }  
    }  
    disparityMap[x, y] = bestDisparity  
  }  
}
```

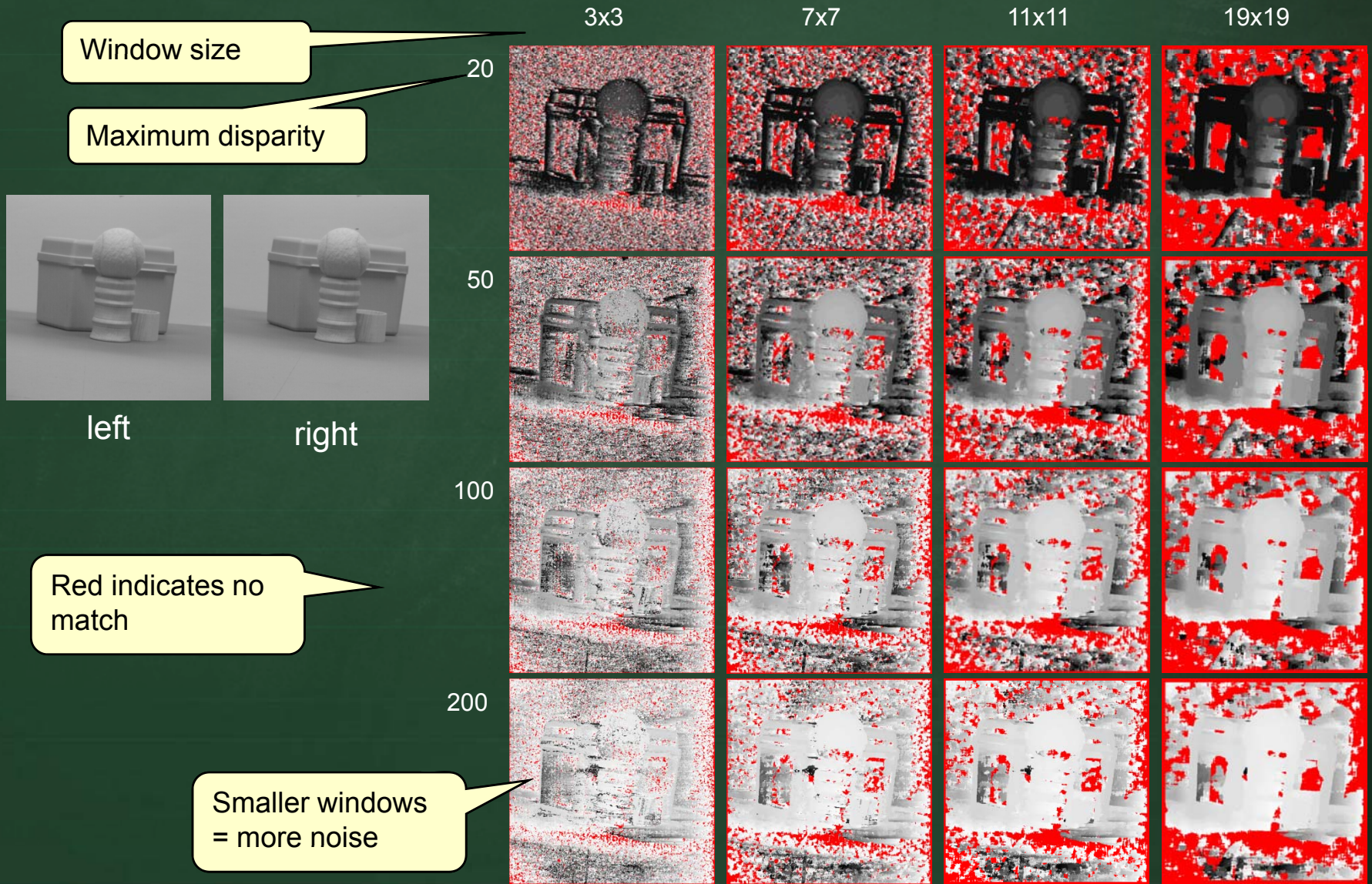
Maximum difference allowed during window comparison phase.

(x,y) position with least squared-difference gives the best match, and hence the disparity of the best match.

Window size is adjustable parameter. Large window means slower, but eliminates more noise.

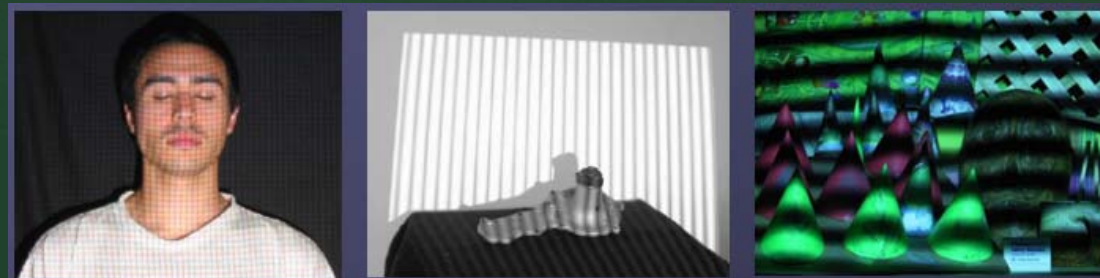


# SSD Correlation



# Correlation

- There are many strategies to improve matching:
  - Apply various image filters before and after processing
  - Identify corners and edges, hence planes (can help to fill-in areas in which no data is available).
  - Use sensor fusion (i.e., data from other sensors) to fill-in missing gaps.
  - Project structured light onto objects to improve matches:



# Stereo Ranging Systems

## ■ Advantages:

- + better resolution than ultrasonic and IR
- + very reliable when environment is sufficiently cluttered.
- + often packaged with software to calculate depth



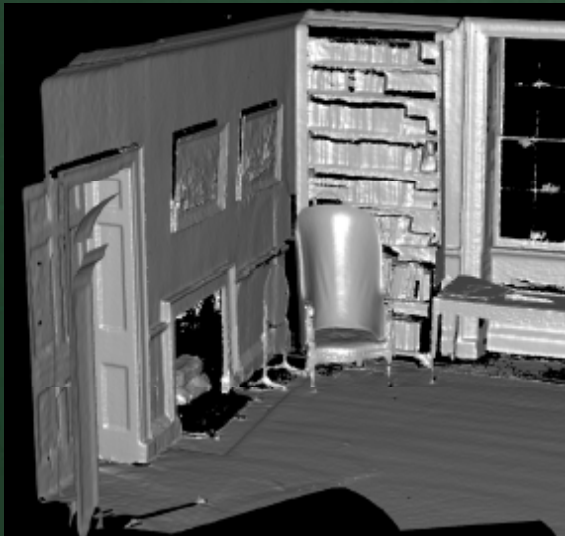
## ■ Disadvantages:

- cannot identify mirrors and/or glass
- sensitive to lighting conditions
- poor performance when environment lacks features
- more expensive than ultrasonic and IR
- larger than ultrasonic and IR
- difficult to calibrate (depending on sensor packaging).

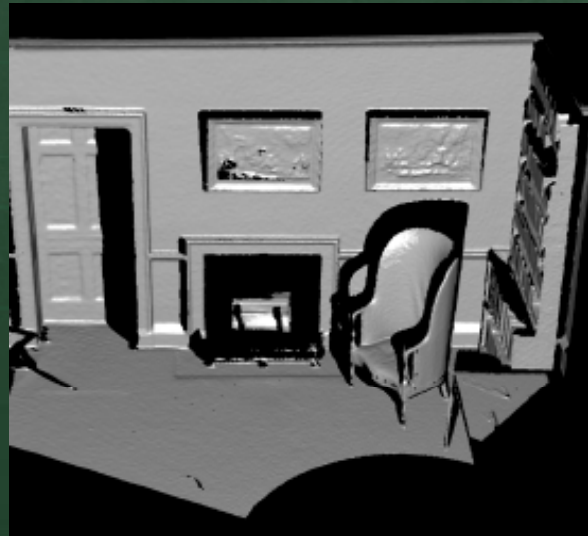


# Scene Reconstuction

- From depth maps, 3D models are often constructed by creating a triangular mesh.
- Here is one with **2,860,000** vertices and over **5,000,000** triangles:



3D model from one angle



3D model from different angle



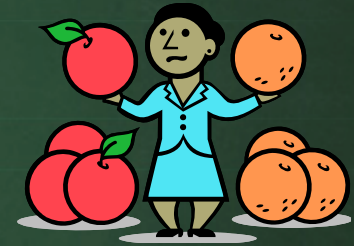
Completed model

# *Sensor Selection*



# Sensor Selection

- As mentioned, range sensors each have their own *advantages and disadvantages*.
- Certain factors must be considered when choosing an appropriate sensor:
  - *cost* and physical *size* of sensors
  - *processing* power required
  - environment (obstacle *types, features, density, size...*)
- Certainly, different kinds of sensors can *compliment* one another



# Popular Choice

- The most popular choice for average-sized robots is the **laser range finder**, due to its high accuracy.
- Vision-based sensors are also quite popular and share advantages with laser range finders:
  - **high accuracy** and low cost/performance ratio
  - **3D** distance information
  - **high speed** data acquisition
  - **rich** in information

# Sensor Tests

- Tests were performed on our K2A robot platform:

- Stereo camera

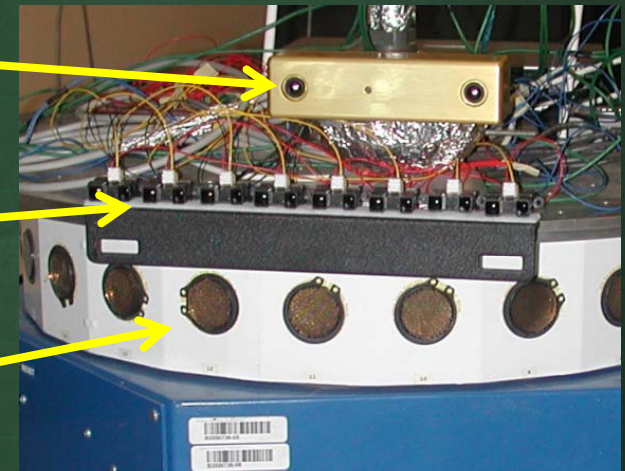
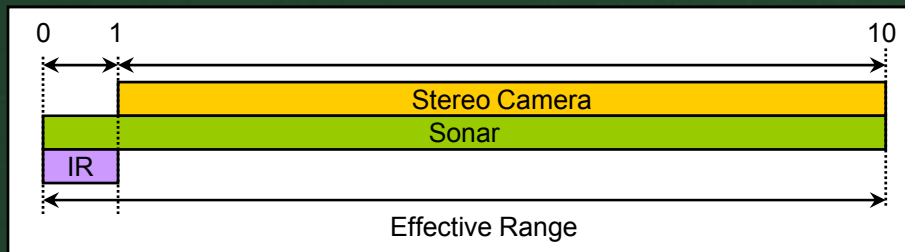
(Bumblebee camera from Point Grey®)

- IR proximity sensor array

(Sharp® GP2Y0A02YK proximity sensors)

- 24-sensor sonar ring

(Polaroid® 6500 ultrasonic transducers)



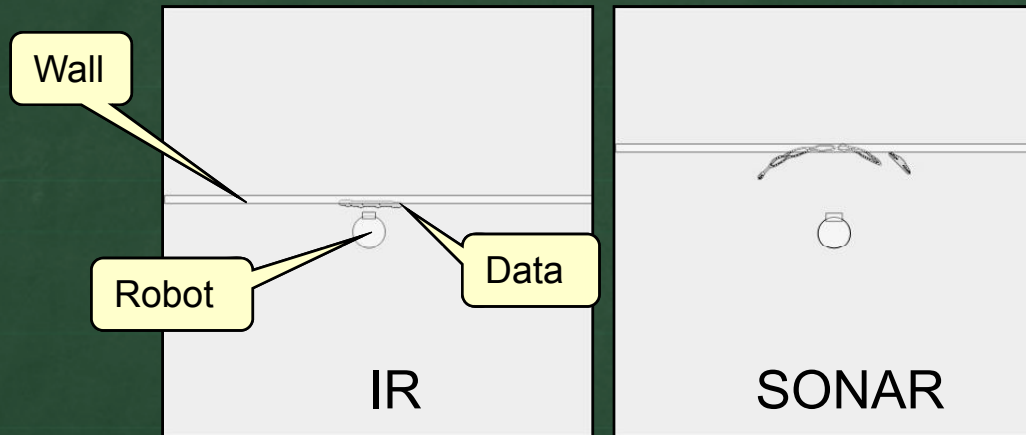


# Sensor Tests

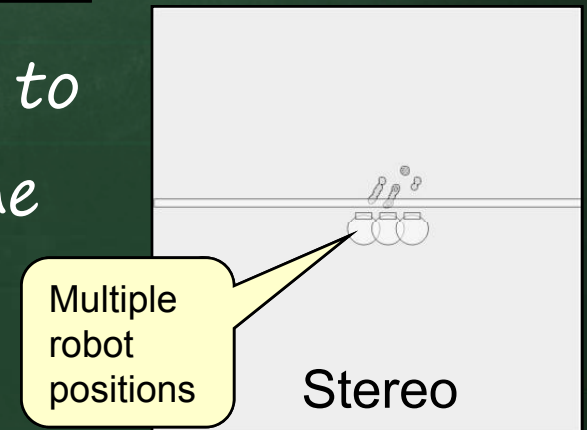
- Tests were aimed at
  - determining the **pitfalls of stereo cameras**
  - investigating ways to **merge 3 types of sensors** to produce more accurate obstacle detection
- 5 Tests were performed:
  - **Blank Wall** – sensors aimed at a blank yellow wall
  - **Low Lighting** – sensors used in dark setting
  - **Low Contrast** – sensors try to detect low contrast scene
  - **Transparency** – sensors try to detect glass
  - **Full Lab** – sensors operate around a typical lab

# Tests – Blank Wall

- Stereo Camera was unable to detect a featureless wall, whereas the IR and Sonar did detect them:

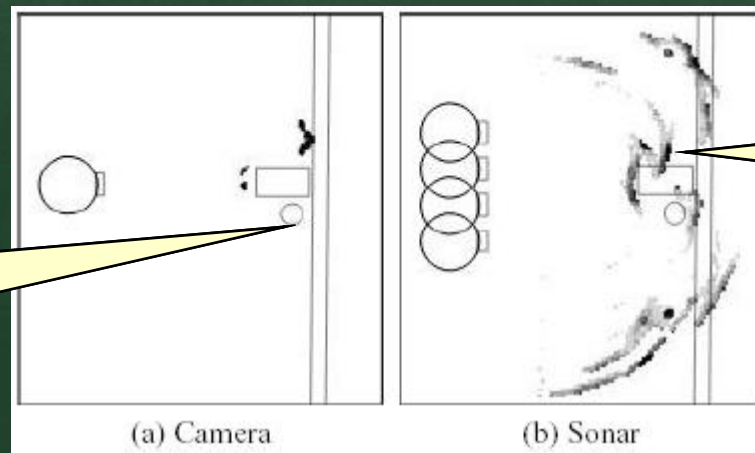
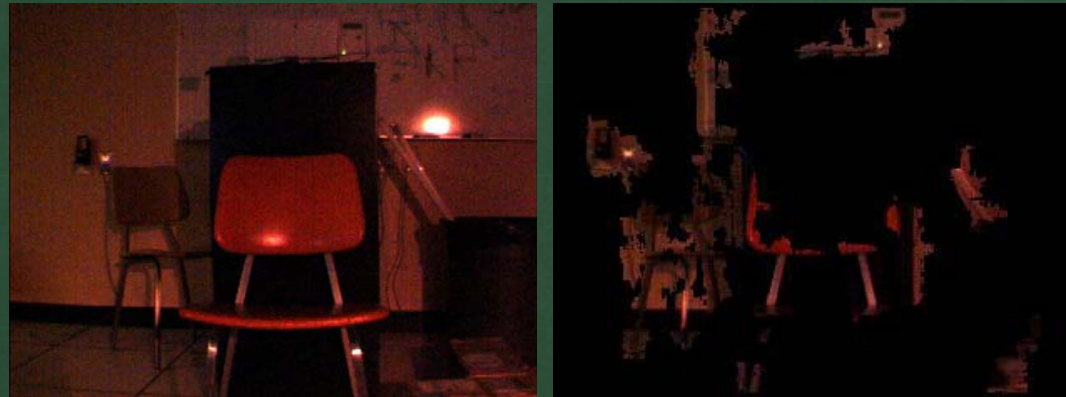


- When sufficient features were added to the environment (a newspaper on the wall), the stereo camera did a little better:



# Tests – Low Lighting

- Similarly, stereo cameras performed poorly under low lighting:



Stereo camera could not detect garbage can, nor walls.

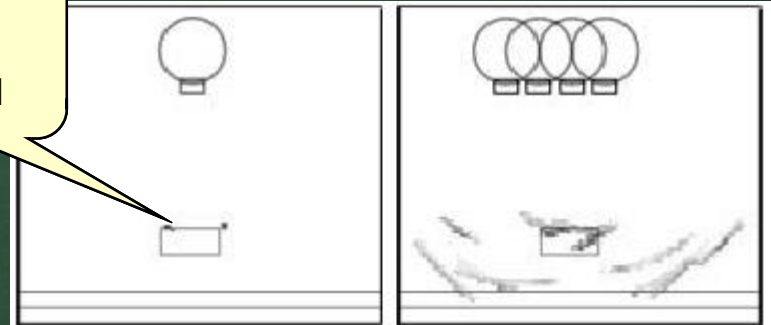
Sonar detected many obstacles, but with coarse readings.

# Tests – Low Contrast

- Stereo camera had difficulty identifying range to uniform-color cabinet:



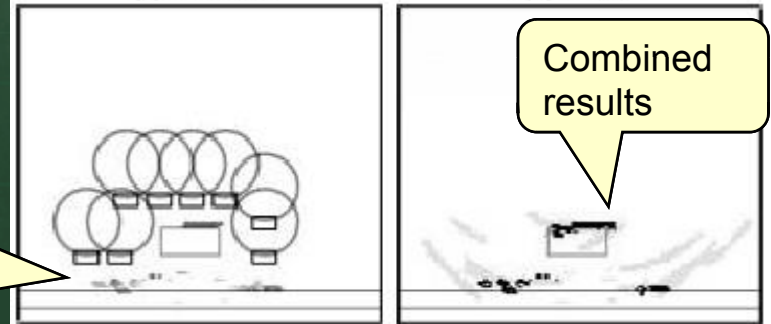
Only corners detected



(a) Camera

(b) Sonar

IR accurate but requires many readings.



Combined results

(c) IR

(d) Classification

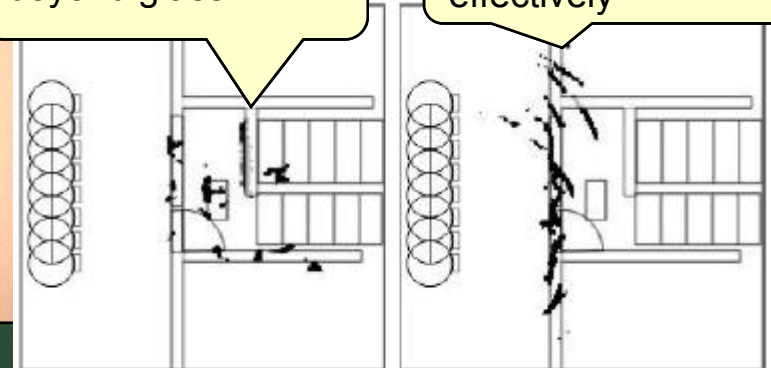
# Tests - Transparency

- Both stereo camera and IR had difficulty with glass:



Detected distances beyond glass

Sonar detects glass effectively



(a) Camera

(b) Sonar

Detected distances beyond glass



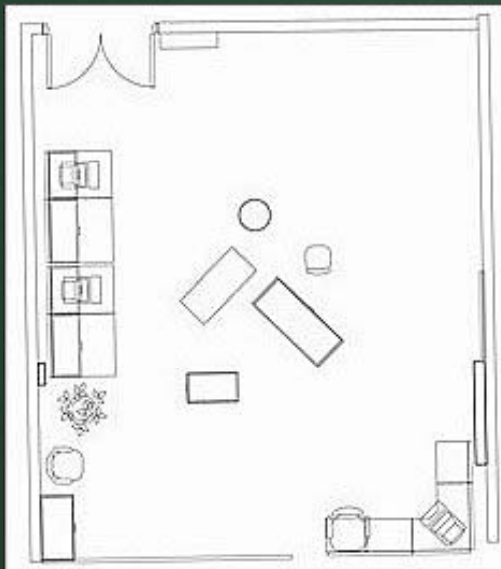
(c) IR

(d) Classification

Sensor fusion provides better estimate

# Tests – Full Lab

- A more thorough test was done in our full lab:



Much noise from stereo camera

Sonar correct but coarse

IR has less readings due to short range



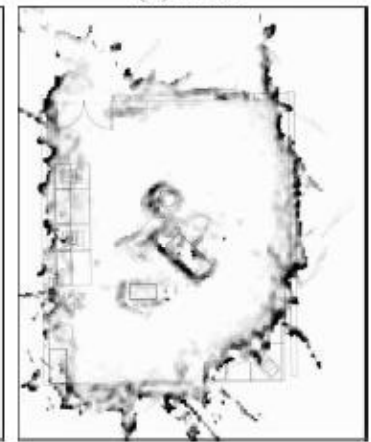
(a) Camera



(b) Sonar



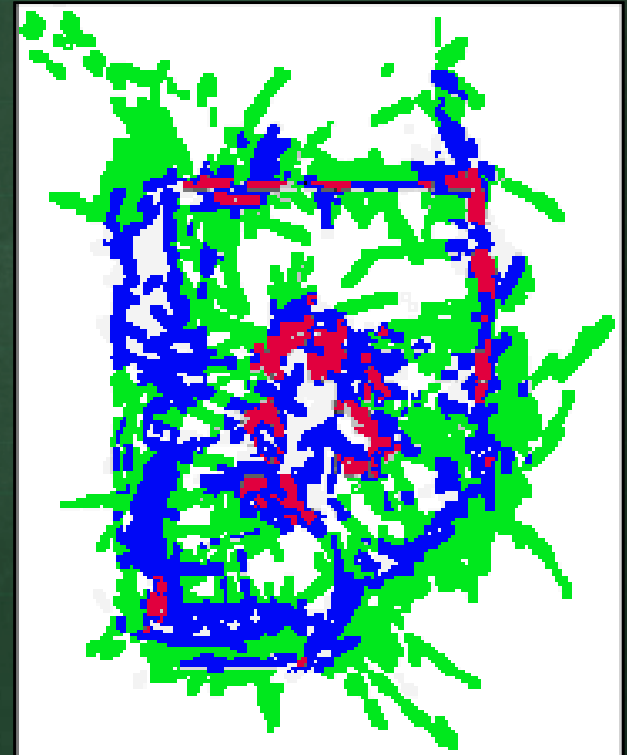
(c) IR



(d) Combined

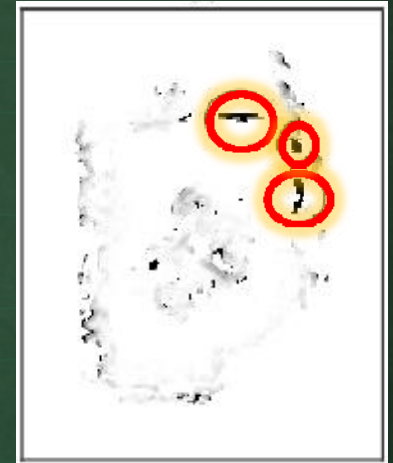
# Data Fusion

- 59.7% of data comes from a single sensor
  - considered to be noise
- 34.2% of data from 2 sensors
  - considered to be valid readings
- 6.2% of data from all 3 sensors
  - may be considered “feature points”



# Data Fusion

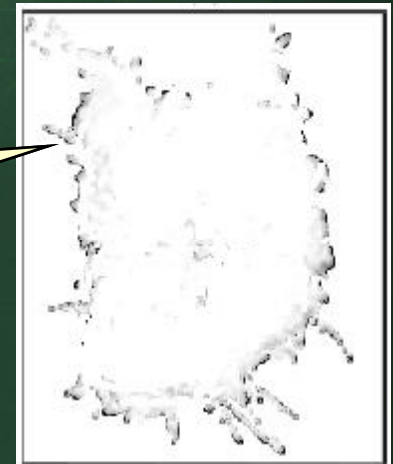
- Data fusion improves the **quantity** of valid sensor readings:
  - **12%** of missing environmental border data is “filled-in” through data fusion process.



- Data fusion improves the **quality** of sensor readings:

Everything here is considered noise from the Stereo Camera.

- **48.8%** of “noise” from stereo camera data is eliminated through sensor data fusion.





# Dynamic Sensor Selection

- No sensor outperforms any other in all situations
  - *cameras* usually used to model *complicated scenes*
  - *sonar* often used for *rough/dynamic collision avoidance* on larger robots
  - *IR* typically used for collision avoidance, wall-following, mapping, etc... on *smaller robots*
- Some work has been done to dynamically select sensors over time:
  - can be based on *learned information*, *known obstacle types* or *known lighting conditions*



# Summary

- You should now know about:
  - *characteristics* of various sensors
  - *advantages and disadvantages* of various kinds of range and proximity sensors
  - how *ultrasonic* and *IR sensors* work
  - the concept behind *laser range finders*
  - how to use a simple *stereo vision* algorithm
  - the *issues* behind choosing sensors