



64-424 Intelligent Robotics

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Technical Aspects of Multimodal Systems

Winterterm 2018/2019



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Outline

1. Fundamentals



1 Fundamentals



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1. Fundamentals

Sensors in robotics

Measurement with sensors Sensor characteristics Sensor data example





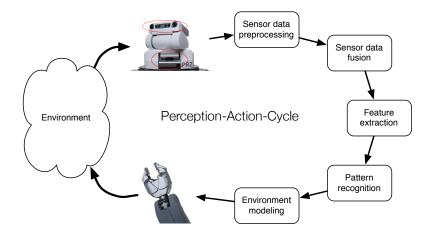
Sensors in robotics: Perception

- Sensors are crucial to the development of intelligent robotic systems
- Sensor data provides an abstract perception of the environment
- ► The Perception-Action-Cycle represents the control loop
 - 1. Sensing of the environment
 - 2. "Intelligent" processing of obtained data
 - 3. Execution of an action
- The cycle is crucial to the implementation of interactive, adaptive and situation-based behavior





Perception-Action-Cycle: Overview







Perception-Action-Cycle

- 1. **Data acquisition:** Sampling of analog/digital signals output from sensor devices
- 2. Data (pre-)processing: Filtering, normalization and/or scaling, etc., of acquired data
- 3. Data fusion: Combination/fusion of multi-modal and redundant sensor data leading to robust measurements, reduced uncertainty and an increase in information
- 4. **Feature extraction:** Extraction of features representing a mathematical model of the sensed environment in order to approximate the natural human perception



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Perception-Action-Cycle (cont.)

- 5. **Pattern recognition:** Extracted features are searched for patterns in order to classify the data
- 6. **Environment modeling:** Successfully classified patterns are used to model the environment of the robotic system
- **Action:** Based on the model of the environment sets of goal-oriented actions are executed manipulating the environment (using robotic arms, grippers, wheels, etc.)

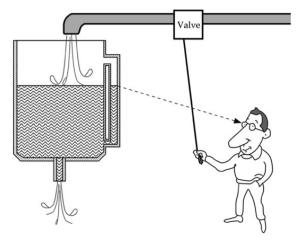


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A Sensor - A Simple Example







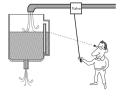
What is a sensor?

The sensor in the example consists of two parts:

- The water level indicator
- The human eye
- ⇒ Perception of the level indicator results in a signal to the brain

Definition

- A sensor is a unit, which
 - receives a signal or stimulus
 - and reacts to it







Natural and physical sensors

Natural sensors:

- ▶ A reaction is an electrochemical signal on neural pathways
- ▶ Examples: Auditory sense, visual sense, tactile sense, ...

Physical sensors:

Definition

A physical sensor is a unit, which

- receives a signal or stimulus
- and reacts to it with an *electrical signal*





Input signal

- A physical sensor converts a (generally) non-electrical signal into an electrical one
- This signal is referred to as the stimulus

Definition

A stimulus is a

- quantity,
- characteristic or
- state,

which is perceived and converted into an electrical signal





Output signal

- The output signal can be
 - a voltage,
 - a current or
 - a charge
- Furthermore, the signal can be distinguished by
 - amplitude,
 - frequency or
 - phase





Taxonomy

Intrinsic sensors:

Provide data about the internal system state

Extrinsic sensors:

Provide data about the environment

Active sensors:

Modify *applied electrical signal* in response to the change of the stimulus

Passive sensors:

Create an electrical signal in response to the change of the stimulus (conversion of the stimulus)





Further classification

Physical sensors can also be classified by:

- Type of stimulus
- Characteristics, specification and parameters
- Type of stimulus detection
- Conversion of stimulus to output signal
- Sensor material
- Field of application

• . . .





Sensor examples

- Intrinsic sensors:
- Extrinsic sensors (force/pressure):
- Extrinsic sensors (distance):
- Visual sensors:





Sensor examples

Intrinsic sensors:

Encoder (incremental/absolute), accelerometer, gyroscope, ...

Extrinsic sensors (force/pressure):

Strain gauge, force-torque sensor, piezoelectric sensor, ...

Extrinsic sensors (distance):

Sonar sensor, infrared sensor, laser range finder, ...

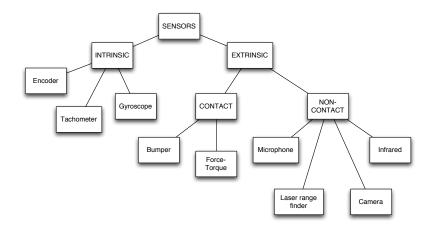
Visual sensors:

Linear camera, CCD-/CMOS-camera, stereo vision cameras, omnidirectional vision camera, \dots





Classification example







Measurement with sensors

- Measurement results have to be *reliable* (within specification)
- ► Important scientific criterion: *Reproducibility* of measurements
- Scientific statements have to be comparable
- Statements must be quantitative and based on measurements
- Measurement result consists of:
 - Numerical value
 - Measuring unit
- ► Additionally: Declaration of measurement accuracy

Measurement errors

No measurement process yields an entirely accurate result!





Measurement deviation (Measurement error)

Systematic deviation ("systematic error"):

- Deviation is caused by the sensor itself
- For example: wrong calibration, persistent sources of interference like friction, etc.
- Elimination is possible, but requires elaborate examination of the error source

Random deviation ("random or stochastic error"):

- Deviation is caused by inevitable, external interference
- Repeated measurements yield different results
- Individual results fluctuate around a mean value





Error declaration

- Measurements are always afflicted with uncertainty
- **Example:** Distance measurement
 - Distance to an object is measured 10 times $(x_1, ..., x_{10})$

Individual measurement results:				
4,40 <i>m</i>	4,40 <i>m</i>	4,38 <i>m</i>	4,41 m	4,42 m
4,39 <i>m</i>	4,40 m	4,39 <i>m</i>	4,40 <i>m</i>	4,41 m

▶ Due to random deviation individual measurement results *x_i* vary



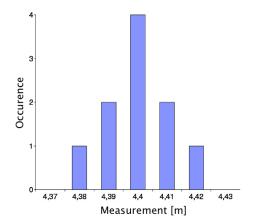
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Error declaration (cont.)

Measurements can be illustrated in a histogram:







Mean value

The mean value \bar{x} of the individual measurements x_i is determined as follows:

$$ar{\mathbf{x}} = rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

- The mean value is also called arithmetic average or best estimate for the true value μ
- ▶ µ is the mean or expected value of the set of all possible measurement values (population)





Absolute and relative error

Measurement deviation can be specified in two different ways

- ► Absolute measurement deviation ("Absolute error"): The absolute error Δx_i of a single measurement x_i equals the deviation from the mean value x̄ of all N measurements {x_n | n ∈ {1...N}} of a measurement series
 - The unit is equal to that of the measured value
 - $\Delta x_i = |x_i \bar{x}|$
- Relative measurement deviation ("Relative error"): The relative error Δx_{irel} is the relation between absolute error Δx_i and the mean value \bar{x}
 - ▶ Has no dimension, often specified as a percentage (%)

•
$$\Delta x_i rel = \frac{\Delta x_i}{\bar{x}_i}$$





Variance of a measurement series

How far are the measurement samples spread out?

The *distribution* of single measurement values x_i around the arithmetic mean \bar{x} is represented by the variance of a measurement series ¹

$$egin{array}{rcl} s^2 &=& (\Delta x)^2 &=& rac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^N{(\Delta x_i)^2} \ &=& rac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^N{(x_i-ar x)^2} \end{array}$$

¹The factor 1/(N-1) denotes Bessel's correction of the bias





Standard deviation of a measurement series

Similar to the variance, the positive square root of the variance - called the standard deviation - is another representation of the dispersion of measurement values x_i around the mean value \bar{x}

$$s = \sqrt{rac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(x_i-ar{x}
ight)^2}$$

- The standard deviation is also known as the mean error of a single measurement
- In contrast to the variance the standard deviation carries the same unit as the measurement samples





Standard deviation of the mean

• The true mean value (μ) of the population is unknown

The standard deviation of the mean value, also error of the mean value, is determined as follows

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$
$$= \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{N}}$$

 $s_{\bar{x}}$ is the deviation of the mean values of individual measurement series (\bar{x}) from the true mean value μ





Measurement result

- The variance and standard deviation of a measurement series show us the spread from the mean of the series
- \blacktriangleright The standard deviation of the mean gives us the spread from the true mean μ

With the above in mind we can expect a measurement sample to be given by

$$x = (\bar{x} \pm s_{\bar{x}} \pm s) [Unit]$$





Normal distribution

- ▶ For $N \to \infty$ a discrete distribution of a measurement series turns into a continuous distribution
- With N → ∞ we can assume x̄ → µ and s → σ, resulting in the density function of a normal distribution (Gaussian distribution)

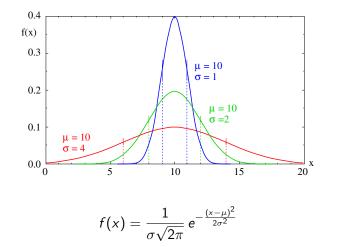
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

The measurements of a physical/technical quantity X are usually assumed to be normally distributed





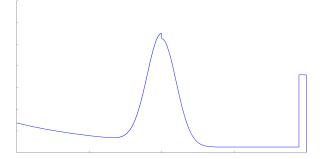
Normal distribution (cont.)







Many measurements are not actually normally distributed



A model for measurements of distances might account for

- stochastic noise
- disturbances before target
- noise floor
 - max-range artifacts

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Confidence interval

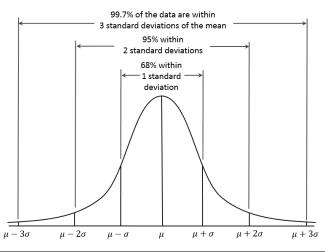
- Interval around a determined mean value of a measurement series that is said to contain other samples of the series with a given probability (confidence)
- ► A confidence interval of σ (s_{x̄}) is said to contain 68.27 % of the population samples
- ► Extended to 2σ (2s_{x̄}) the interval covers 95.45 % of the population
- 3σ ($3s_{\bar{x}}$) is said to contain 99.73 % of the population



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Confidence interval (cont.)







Full scale input/output

- The dynamic range of measurable stimulus levels is defined as the full scale input (span) of the sensor
 - ► An input signal (stimulus) outside of the specified range may result in a strong falsification of the output signal ...
 - ... or damage the sensor (e.g. thermistor)
- Similarly to the range of the stimulus the full scale output defines the range of output electrical signal





Accuracy

- Manufacturers always provide a specification of accuracy for the given range of the output signal
- ► With physical sensors accuracy really means inaccuracy
- Often the inaccuracy is given in the form of a relative error
- Sometimes the manufacturer provides data about systematic errors (determined through calibration)
- The specification of inaccuracy subsumes the effects various sources of error





Resolution

- The resolution is the smallest possible change of the stimulus that is detected by the sensor
- Examples: Potentiometer (resistance), laser range finder (distance), ...
- The resolution may vary over the entire range of the input signal
- The resolution of digital output is defined by the number of bits
- A sensor is said to have a *continuous* or *infinitesimal* resolution if it does not have distinct resolution steps in the output signal





Decision Task: Purchase a Scale

- Option A: $0-120\pm1$ kg, displays 0.1 kg
- ▶ Option B: 0-150±0.1 kg, displays 1 kg
- Option C: $0-100\pm0.1$ kg, displays 0.01 kg
- Range
- Accuracy
- Resolution





Sensor characteristics

- A sensor may feed the stimulus through several conversion stages until it emits an electrical output signal
- Example: Pressure on a fibre-optic sensor
 - 1. Fiber strain \rightarrow change of refractive index
 - 2. Change of optical transmission properties
 - 3. Photon flux detection
 - 4. Conversion into electrical output signal
- ► We consider the sensor a **"black box"** and look at the relation between the stimulus and the output signal





Transfer function

- The transfer function of a sensor represents the relation between stimulus and output signal
- Each sensor has an ideal/theoretical relation between the stimulus and output signal

Definition

The ideal relation between stimulus and output signal of a sensor is characterized by the transfer function

$$S = f(s)$$

► *S* represents the true value of the stimulus *s*

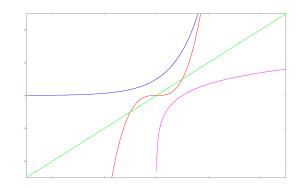




Transfer function (cont.)

Possible transfer functions are

- Linear $S = a + k \cdot s$
- Logarithmic $S = a + k \cdot \ln s$
- Exponential $S = a \cdot e^{ks}$
- Polynomial $S = a_0 + a_1 \cdot s^k$







Approximation of a transfer function

Measurement of a relation between two quantities x and y

- Linear relation \rightarrow Linear regression (e.g. least-squares fit)
- Non-linear relation
 - Linearization followed by linear regression (e.g. logarithmic function)
 - Least-squares fit through numerical optimization techniques
- To reduce the statistical error an adequate number of measurements should be acquired





Interlude - Approximation vs. Interpolation

A measurement series should be approximated using the simplest possible function f(x)

Approximation:

The function f(x) shows a very good representation of the value pairs (x_i, y_i) (e.g. least-squares fit)

- $f(x_i) = y_i$ does not need to be valid
- Interpolation:

The function f(x) shows an exact representation of the value pairs

•
$$f(x_i) = y_i; \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
 must be valid





Real transfer function

- Problem: Unlike the ideal transfer function the real transfer function is usually neither linear nor monotonic
- The ideal relation between stimulus and output signal is generally affected by
 - manufacturing tolerances,
 - material defects,
 - environmental influences,
 - wear and tear,
 - ...
- Nevertheless: Each sensor should work within the specified precision





Real transfer function (cont.)

- $S = f_{ideal}(s)$: The ideal transfer function
- $\pm \Delta$: Maximum deviation from the ideal transfer function
- \blacktriangleright $\pm\delta:$ Actual deviation from the ideal transfer function

Definition

The physical relation between stimulus and output signal of a sensor is characterized by the real transfer function

$$S' = f_{real}(s) = f_{ideal}(s) \pm \delta \qquad \delta \leq \Delta$$

• S' represents the measured value of the stimulus s



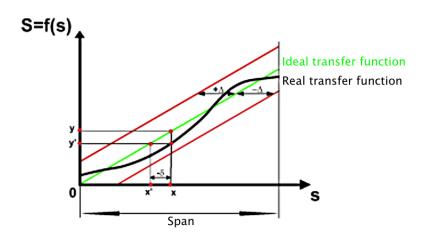
1.3 Fundamentals - Sensor characteristics

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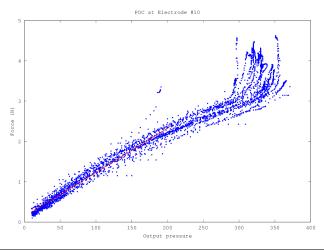
Real transfer function (cont.)







Real transfer function (cont.)



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Calibration error

A calibration problem

- According to specification a sensor has a linear transfer function
- However, manufacturing tolerances lead to different slopes

A calibration procedure

- The manufacturer determines the slope through:
 - ▶ Application of multiple stimuli *s*₁, ..., *s*_n to the sensor
 - ▶ Measurement of the corresponding output signals *S*₁,...*S*_n
 - Calculation of the slope based on the obtained value pairs
- Caution: Due to measurement errors, the slope may deviate from the real one if the pool of measured value pairs is chosen too small



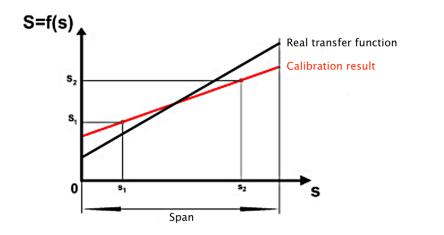
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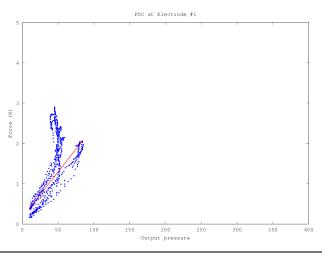
Calibration error (cont.)







Calibration error (cont.)







Hysteresis error

- Some sensors output different signals if the stimulus value is being approached from opposing directions of the range
- This deviation is called the hysteresis error

$$\lim_{\substack{\varepsilon \to 0, \\ \varepsilon > 0}} f(s + \varepsilon) \neq \lim_{\substack{\varepsilon \to 0, \\ \varepsilon < 0}} f(s + \varepsilon)$$

Examples: Temperature sensor, displacement sensor, ...



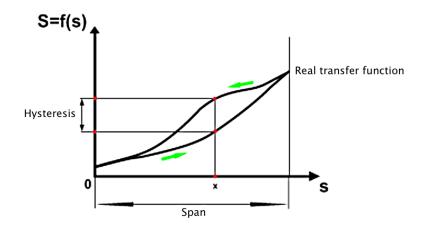
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Hysteresis error (cont.)

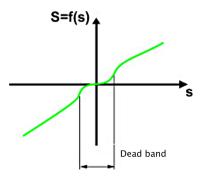






Dead band

The dead band of a sensor is defined as insensitivity within a coherent range of the input signal (usually close to 0), resulting in the output of the same signal for that range







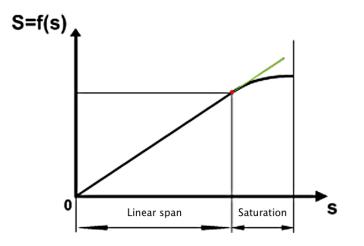
Saturation

- Every sensor has a limited operating range, the *full scale input*
- Many sensors have a linear transfer function
- However, from a certain stimulus value on the output becomes non-linear
- This effect is called saturation





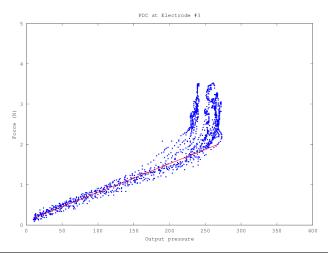








Saturation (cont.)



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Repeatability error

- A sensor may produce different output values under the same conditions
- This type of error is called repeatability error
- A repeatability error is usually determined as: Maximum distance Δ of two output signals for the same stimulus value
- Repeatability is specified in relation to the full scale input

$$\delta_r = \frac{\Delta}{FSI} \cdot 100\%$$



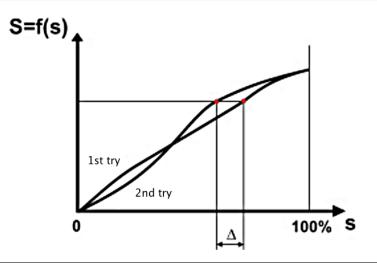
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Dynamic characteristics

- Under static conditions previously mentioned characteristics are enough to fully specify a particular sensor
- ► However, variation of the stimulus introduces time-dependency
- Reason: The sensor does not always provide an immediate response to the stimulus
- Therefore, a sensor does not always immediately output a signal corresponding to the stimulus
- ► Such effects are called the dynamic characteristics of a sensor
- The associated errors are called dynamic errors

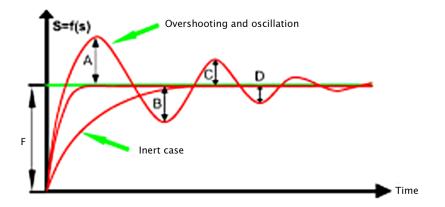


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Dynamic characteristics (cont.)







Further sensor characteristics

- ► Reliability, e.g. *mean time between failure* (MTBF)
- Certain properties relevant to the field of application:
 - Design
 - Weight
 - Form factor
 - Price
 - ► ...





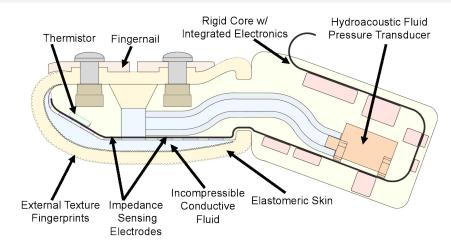
Environmental factors

- Ambient temperature (minimum and maximum)
- Ambient air humidity (minimum and maximum)
- Short- and long-term stability (drift)
- Static and dynamic changes of electromagnetic fields, gravitational forces, vibration, radiation etc.
- Self-heating (e.g. due to flow of current)





The BioTac sensor

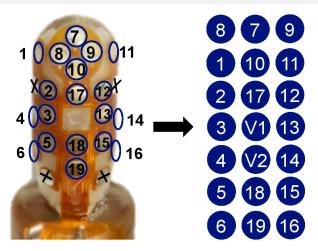




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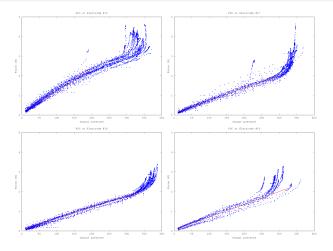


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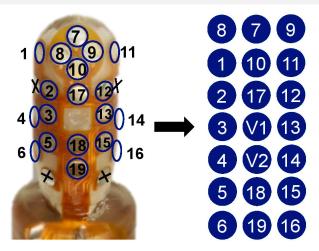




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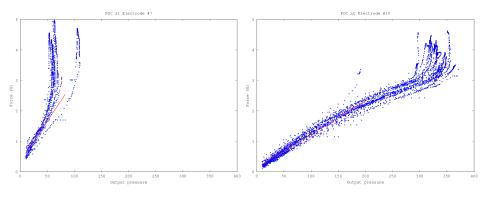


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Literature list

[1] Jacob Fraden.

Handbook of Modern Sensors: Physics, Designs, and Applications, chapter 1-2, pages 1–52. Springer New York, 4. edition, 2010.