## Principles of Robot Autonomy I

#### Robotic sensors and introduction to computer vision

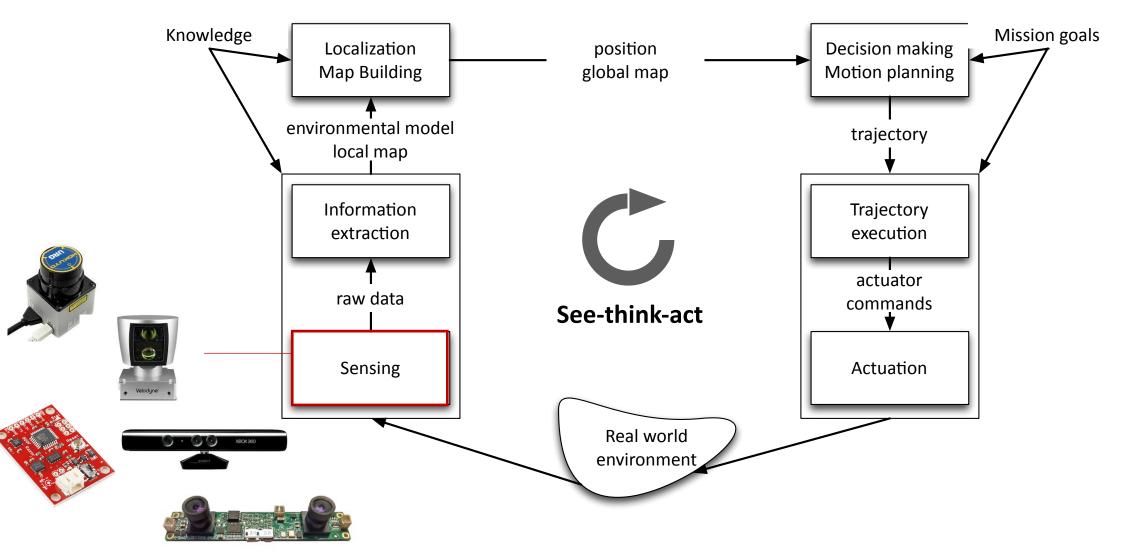




#### Logistics

- Masks recommended
- Finalizing Grading of Homework 1
- Start early on Homework 2
- Waitlist finalized
- Check out the lecture notes for worked out examples!

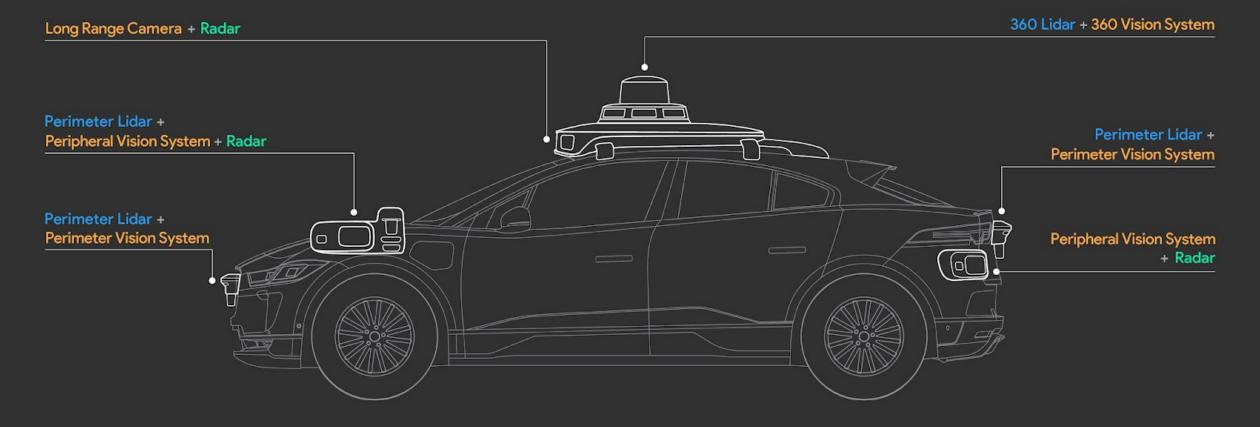
#### Sensors for mobile robots

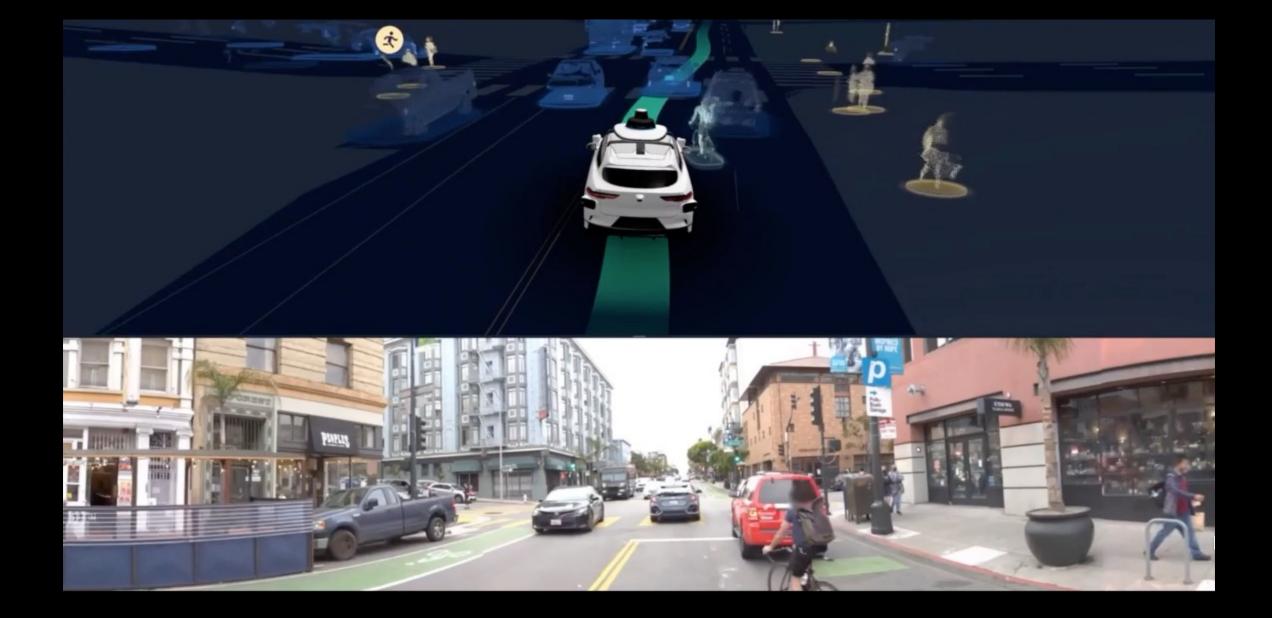


### Sensors for mobile robots

- Aim
  - Learn about key performance characteristics for robotic sensors
  - Learn about a full spectrum of sensors, e.g. proprioceptive / exteroceptive, passive / active
- Readings
  - Siegwart, Nourbakhsh, Scaramuzza. Introduction to Autonomous Mobile Robots. Section 4.1.

#### Example: self-driving cars





#### Classification of sensors

- Proprioceptive: measure values internal to the robot
  - E.g.: motor speed, robot arm joint angles, and battery voltage
- Exteroceptive: acquire information from the robot's environment
  - E.g.: distance measurements and light intensity
- Passive: measure ambient environmental energy entering the sensor
  - Challenge: performance heavily depends on the environment
  - E.g.: temperature probes and cameras
- Active: emit energy into the environment and measure the reaction
  - Challenge: might affect the environment
  - E.g.: ultrasonic sensors and laser rangefinders

#### Sensor performance: design specs

- Dynamic range: ratio between the maximum and minimum input values (for normal sensor operation)
- Resolution: minimum difference between two values that can be detected by a sensor
- Linearity: whether the sensor's output response depends linearly on the input
- Bandwidth or frequency: speed at which a sensor provides readings (in Hertz)

#### Sensor performance: in situ specs

- Sensitivity: ratio of output change to input change
- Cross-sensitivity: sensitivity to quantities that are unrelated to the target quantity
- Error: difference between the sensor output m and the true value v error  $\coloneqq m v$
- Accuracy: degree of conformity between the sensor's measurement and the true value

```
accuracy \approx 1 - |\text{error}|/v
```

• Precision: reproducibility of the sensor results

#### Sensor errors

- Systematic errors: caused by factors that can in theory be modeled; they are deterministic
  - E.g.: calibration errors
- Random errors: cannot be predicted with sophisticated models; they are stochastic
  - E.g.: spurious range-finding errors
- Error analysis: performed via a probabilistic analysis
  - Common assumption: symmetric, unimodal (and often Gaussian) distributions; convenient, but often a coarse simplification
  - Error propagation characterized by the *error propagation law*

#### An ecosystem of sensors

- Encoders
- Heading sensors
- Accelerometers and IMU
- Beacons
- Active ranging
- Cameras

#### Encoders

- Encoder: an electro-mechanical device that converts motion into a sequence of digital pulses, which can be converted to relative or absolute position measurements
  - proprioceptive sensor
  - can be used for robot localization

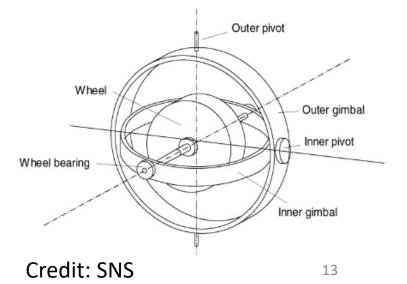
 Fundamental principle of optical encoders: use a light shining onto a photodiode through slits in a metal or glass disc



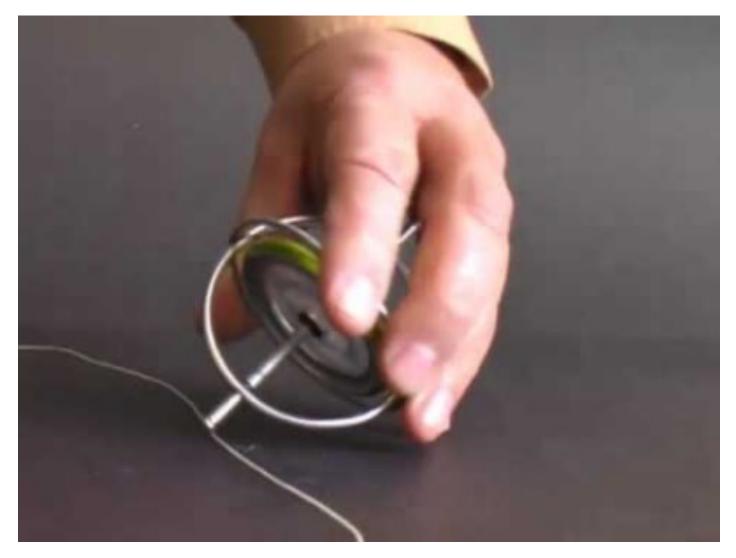


#### Heading sensors

- Used to determine robot's orientation, it can be:
  - 1. Proprioceptive, e.g., gyroscope (heading sensor that preserves its orientation in relation to a fixed reference frame)
  - 2. Exteroceptive, e.g., compass (shows direction relative to the geographic cardinal directions)
- Fusing measurements with velocity information, one can obtain a position estimate (via integration) -> *dead reckoning*
- Fundamental principle of mechanical gyroscopes: angular momentum associated with spinning wheel keeps the axis of rotation inertially stable



#### Gyroscope example



#### Accelerometer and IMU

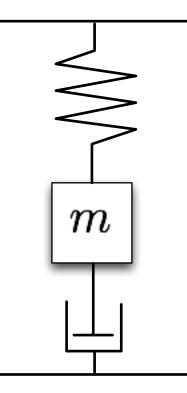
- Accelerometer: device that measures all external forces acting upon it
- Mechanical accelerometer: essentially, a spring-mass-damper system

$$F_{\text{applied}} = m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx$$

with *m* mass of proof mass, *c* damping coefficient, *k* spring constant; in steady state

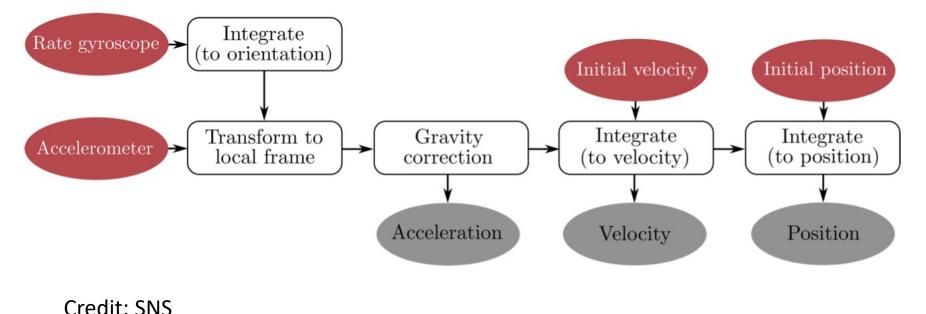
$$a_{\text{applied}} = \frac{kx}{m}$$

• Modern accelerometers use MEMS (cantilevered beam + proof mass); deflection measured via *capacitive* or *piezoelectric* effects



#### Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)

- Definition: device that uses gyroscopes and accelerometers to estimate the relative position, orientation, velocity, and acceleration of a moving vehicle with respect to an inertial frame
- *Drift* is a fundamental problem: to cancel drift, periodic references to external measurements are required



#### Beacons

- **Definition:** signaling devices with precisely known positions
- Early examples: stars, lighthouses
- Modern examples: GPS, motion capture systems



#### Active ranging

- Provide direct measurements of distance to objects in vicinity
- Key elements for both localization and environment reconstruction
- Main types:
  - 1. Time-of-flight active ranging sensors (e.g., ultrasonic and laser rangefinder)



Credit: https://electrosome.c om/hc-sr04ultrasonic-sensor-pic/





2. Geometric active ranging sensors (optical triangulation and structured light)

### Time-of-flight active ranging

- Fundamental principle: time-of-flight ranging makes use of the propagation of the speed of sound or of an electromagnetic wave
- Travel distance is given by

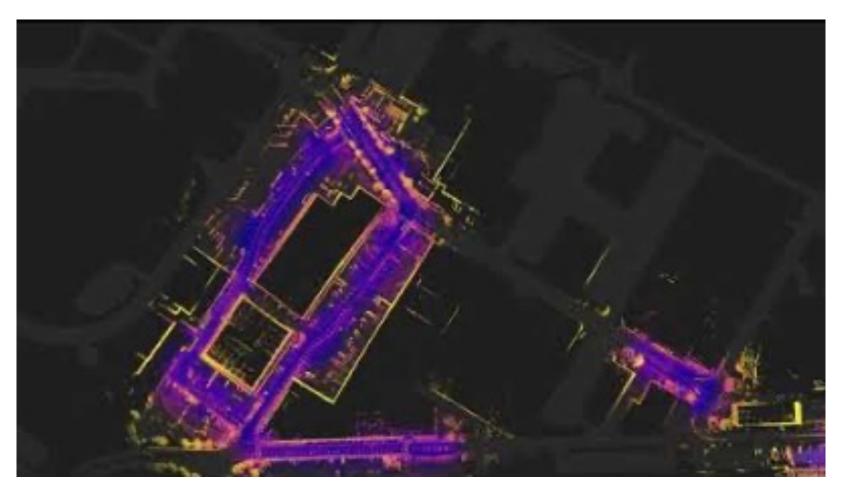
 $d=c\,t$ 

where *d* is the distance traveled, *c* is the speed of the wave propagation, and *t* is the time of flight

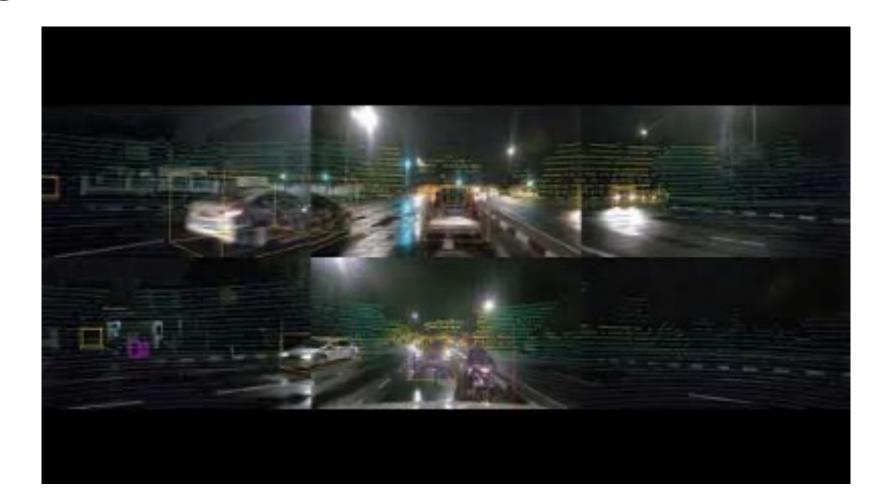
- Propagation speeds:
  - Sound: 0.3 m/ms
  - Light: 0.3 m/ns
- Performance depends on several factors, e.g., uncertainties in determining the exact time of arrival and interaction with the target

#### Example Lidar data from nuScenes dataset

https://www.nuscenes.org/



## Lidar point clouds overlayed with Camera images https://www.nuscenes.org/



#### Geometric active ranging

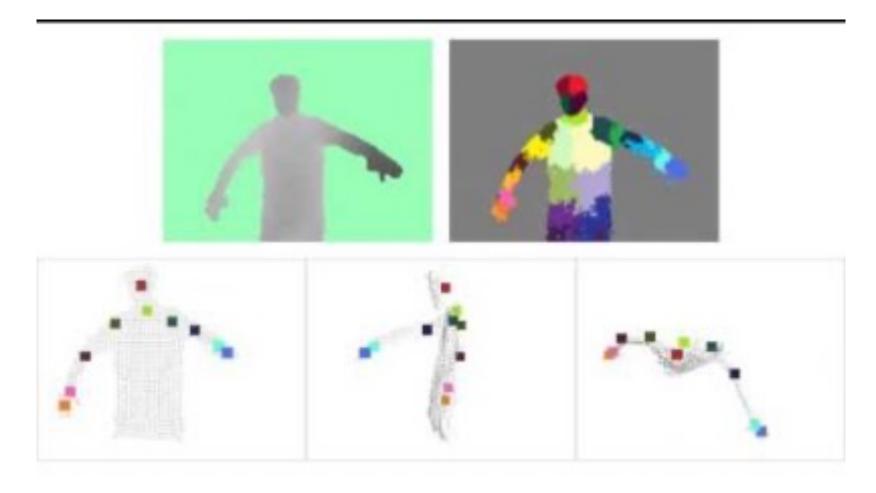
- Fundamental principle: use geometric properties in the measurements to establish distance readings
- The sensor projects a known light pattern (e.g., point, line, or texture); the reflection is captured by a receiver and, together with known geometric values, range is estimated via triangulation
- Examples:
  - Optical triangulation (1D sensor)
  - Structured light (2D and 3D sensor)





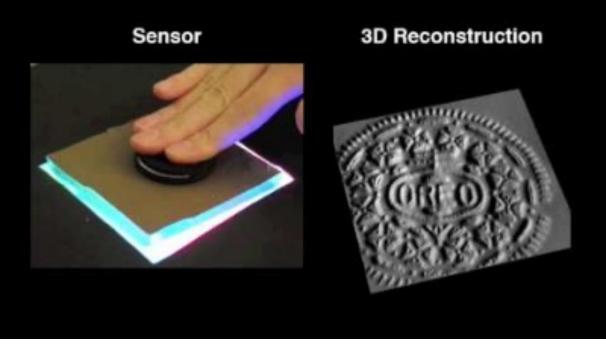
Credit: Matt Fisher

#### Real-Time Human Pose Recognition in Parts from Single Depth Images. Shotton et al. CVPR 2011



#### Several other sensors are available

- Classical, e.g.:
  - Radar (possibly using Doppler effect to produce velocity data)
  - Tactile sensors
- Emerging technologies:
  - Artificial skins
  - Neuromorphic cameras



GelSight at Emerging Technologies at SIGGRAPH 2009 https://www.gelsight.com/

#### Introduction to computer vision

- Aim
  - Learn about cameras and camera models



- Readings
  - Siegwart, Nourbakhsh, Scaramuzza. Introduction to Autonomous Mobile Robots. Section 4.2.3.
  - D. A. Forsyth and J. Ponce [FP]. Computer Vision: A Modern Approach (2nd Edition). Prentice Hall, 2011. Chapter 1.
  - R. Hartley and A. Zisserman [HZ]. Multiple View Geometry in Computer Vision. Academic Press, 2002. Chapter 6.1.

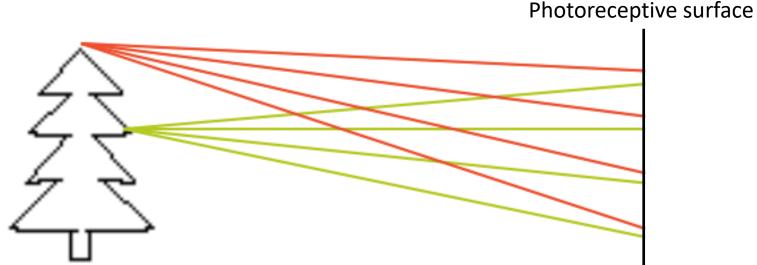
#### Vision

- Vision: ability to interpret the surrounding environment using light in the visible spectrum reflected by objects in the environment
- Human eye: provides enormous amount of information, ~millions of bits per second
- Cameras (e.g., CCD, CMOS): capture light -> convert to digital image
  -> process to get relevant information (from geometric to semantic)



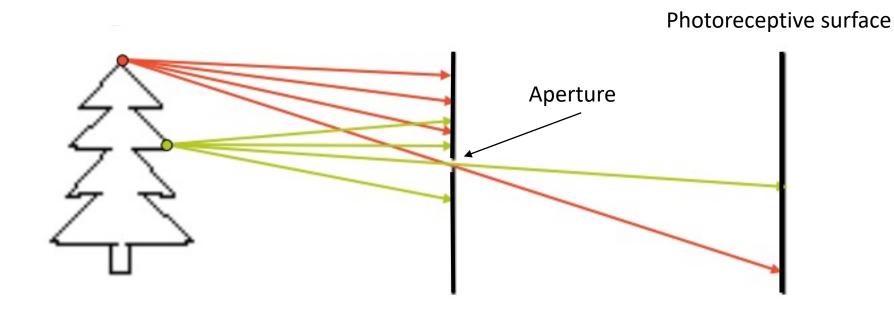
#### How to capture an image of the world?

- Light is reflected by the object and scattered in all directions
- If we simply add a photoreceptive surface, the captured image will be extremely blurred



#### Pinhole camera

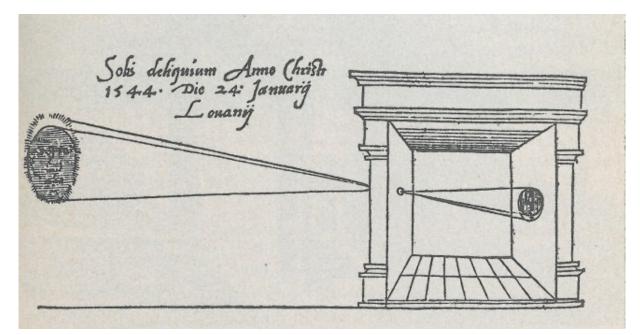
• Idea: add a barrier to block off most of the rays



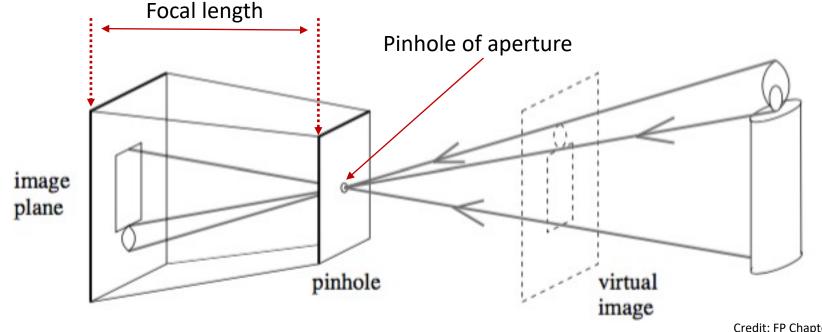
• Pinhole camera: a camera without a lens but with a tiny aperture, a pinhole

### A long history

- Very old idea (several thousands of years BC)
- First clear description from Leonardo Da Vinci (1502)
- Oldest known published drawing of a camera obscura by Gemma Frisius (1544)

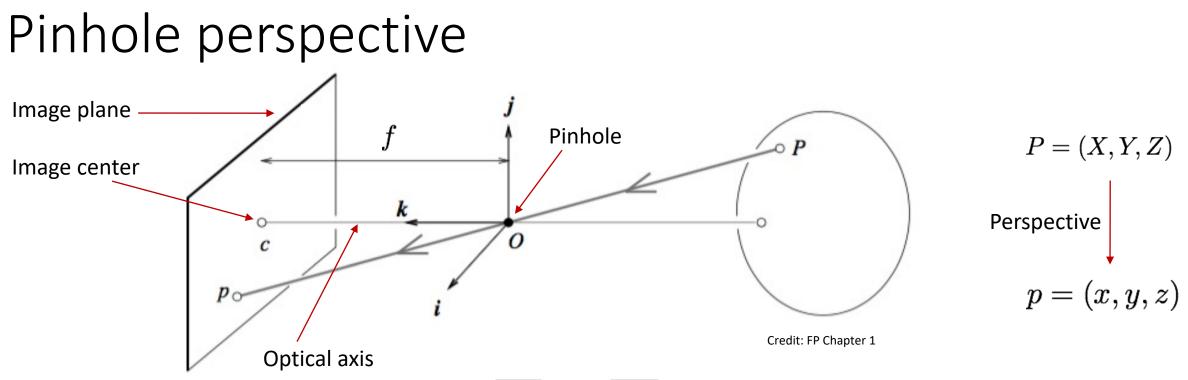


#### Pinhole camera



Credit: FP Chapter 1

- Perspective projection creates inverted images
- Sometimes it is convenient to consider a *virtual image* associated with a plane lying in front of the pinhole
- Virtual image not inverted but otherwise equivalent to the actual one



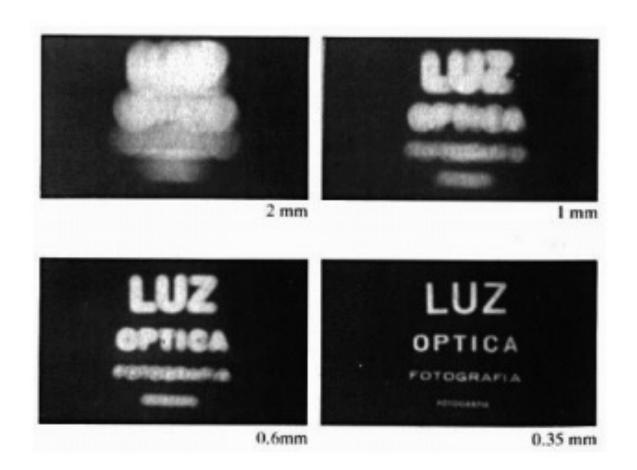
- Since *P*, *O*, and *p* are collinear:  $\overline{Op} = \lambda \overline{OP}$  for some  $\lambda \in R$
- Also, *z=f*, hence

$$\begin{cases} x = \lambda X \\ y = \lambda Y \\ z = \lambda Z \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \lambda = \frac{x}{X} = \frac{y}{Y} = \frac{z}{Z} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x = f \frac{X}{Z} \\ y = f \frac{Y}{Z} \end{cases}$$

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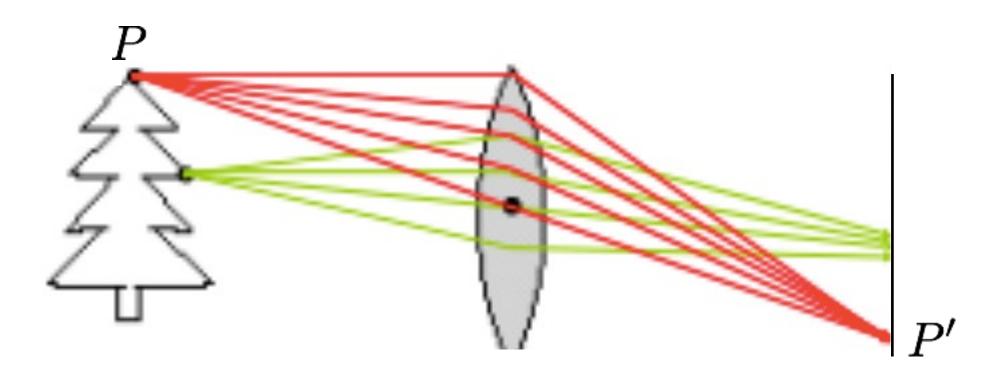
#### Issues with pinhole camera

- Larger aperture -> greater number of light rays that pass through the aperture -> blur
- Smaller aperture -> fewer number of light rays that pass through the aperture -> darkness (+ diffraction)
- Solution: add a lens to replace the aperture!

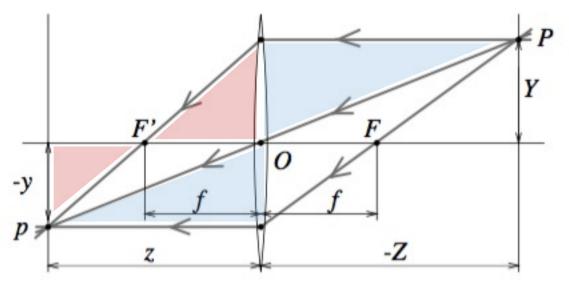


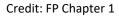
#### Lenses

• Lens: an optical element that focuses light by means of refraction



#### Thin lens model



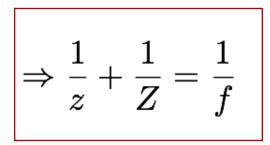


#### Key properties (follows from Snell's law) :

- 1. Rays passing through *O* are not refracted
- 2. Rays parallel to the optical axis are focused on the *focal point F'*
- *3.* All rays passing through *P* are focused by the thin lens on the point *p*

• Similar triangles

$$rac{y}{Y}=rac{z}{Z}$$
 Blue triangles $rac{y}{Y}=rac{z-f}{f}=rac{z}{f}-1$  Red triangles



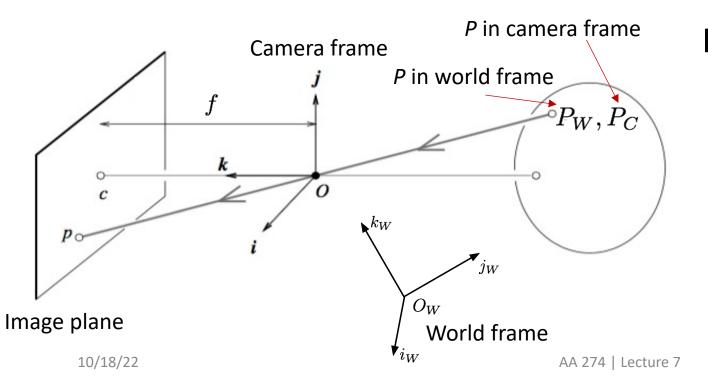
Thin lens equation

#### Thin lens model

- Key points:
  - 1. The equations relating the positions of *P* and *p* are exactly the same as under pinhole perspective if one considers *z* as focal length (as opposed to *f*), since *P* and *p* lie on a ray passing through the center of the lens
  - 2. Points located at a distance –*Z* from *O* will be in sharp focus <u>only when</u> the image plane is located at a distance *z* from *O* on the other side of the lens that satisfies the thin lens equation
  - 3. In practice, objects within some range of distances (called depth of field or depth of focus) will be in acceptable focus
  - 4. Letting  $Z \to \infty$  shows that f is the distance between the center of the lens and the plane where distant objects focus
  - 5. In reality, lenses suffer from a number of *aberrations*

#### Perspective projection

- Goal: find how world points map in the camera image
- Assumption: pinhole camera model (*all results also hold under thin lens model, assuming camera is focused at* ∞)



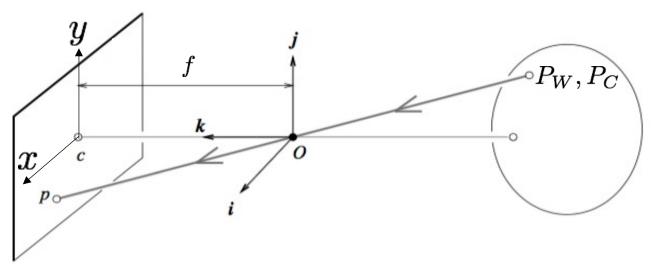
Roadmap:

- 1. Map  $P_c$  into p (image plane)
- 2. Map *p* into (u,v) (pixel coordinates)
- 3. Transform  $P_w$  into  $P_c$

#### Step 1

- Task: Map  $P_c = (X_c, Y_c, Z_c)$  into p = (x, y) (image plane)
- From before

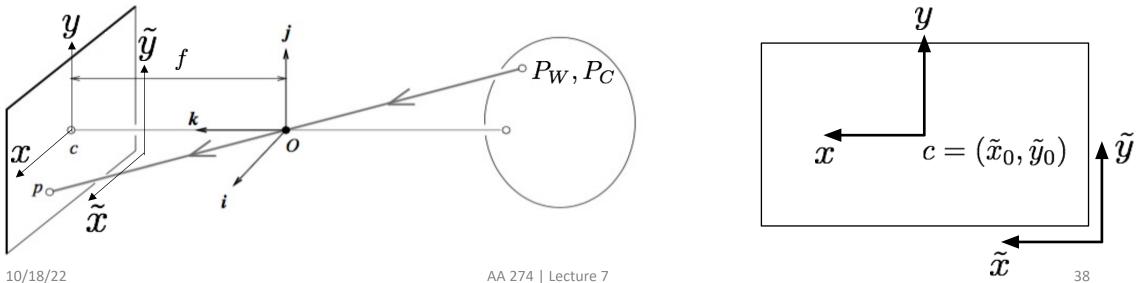
$$\begin{cases} x = f \frac{X_C}{Z_C} \\ y = f \frac{Y_C}{Z_C} \end{cases}$$



#### Step 2.a

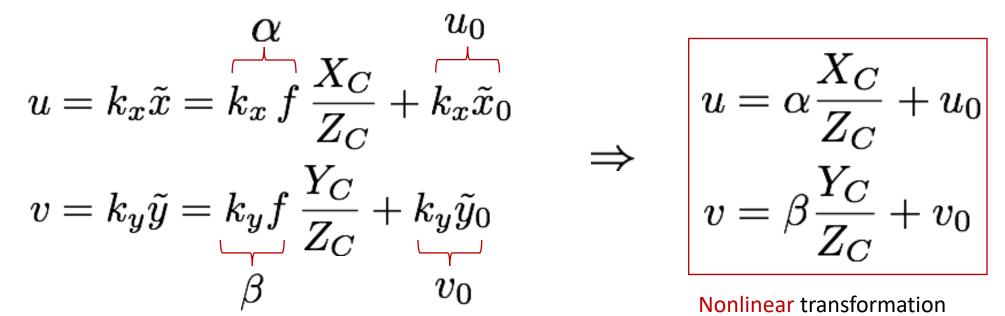
• Actual origin of the camera coordinate system is usually at a corner (e.g., top left, bottom left)

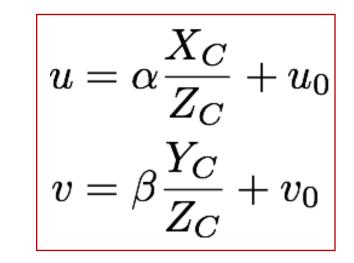
$$\tilde{x} = f \frac{X_C}{Z_C} + \tilde{x}_0, \qquad \tilde{y} = f \frac{Y_C}{Z_C} + \tilde{y}_0,$$



#### Step 2.b

- Task: convert from image coordinates  $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$  to pixel coordinates (u, v)
- Let  $k_x$  and  $k_y$  be the number of pixels per unit distance in image coordinates in the x and y directions, respectively





**Nonlinear** transformation

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#### Homogeneous coordinates

- Goal: represent the transformation as a linear mapping
- Key idea: introduce homogeneous coordinates

Inhomogenous -> homogeneous

Homogenous -> inhomogeneous

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

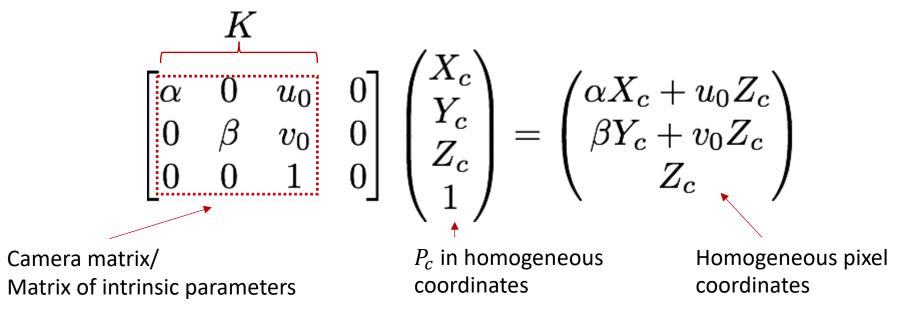
$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x/w \\ y/w \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\begin{pmatrix} x/w \\ y/w \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} w \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x/w \\ y/w \\ z/w \end{pmatrix}$ 

# Perspective projection in homogeneous coordinates

10/18/22

• Projection can be equivalently written in homogeneous coordinates



• In homogeneous coordinates, the mapping is linear:

Point *p* in homogeneous 
$$p^h = [K \quad 0_{3 \times 1}] P^h_C$$
 Point *P<sub>c</sub>* in homogeneous pixel coordinates camera coordinates

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#### Skewness

• In some (rare) cases

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \gamma & u_0 \\ 0 & \beta & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- When is  $\gamma \neq 0$ ?
  - x- and y-axis of the camera are not perpendicular (unlikely)
  - For example, as a result of taking an image of an image
- Five parameters in total!

#### Next time: camera models & calibration

