A Method for Static and Dynamic Interval Detection within the IMU Calibration Procedure

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Abstract: An Inertial Measuring Unit (IMU) is used for measuring linear accelerations and angular velocities in 3D/2D space. IMU devices are usually designed as micro-electro-mechanical systems (MEMS), which are produced in small form factor and are widely used in robotics, mobile phones and drones. Depending on the quality of the device, they can be divided into low-cost and high-cost IMUs. The main difference between them is the accuracy of measurements and IMUs mechanical alignment on the printed circuit board. The high-cost IMUs are well calibrated and have a relatively small error and noise level for different kinds of parameters. In contrast, the low-cost IMUs have a larger error component, where body frame axes are non-orthogonal for both the accelerometer and gyroscope due to weak factory calibration, high noise and high sensitivity dependence from the temperature, misalignment of body frame due to packaging and assembly processes. This paper provides a new method for the IMU static and dynamic interval detection within the IMU calibration procedure, which is designed by other authors for the case of IMU calibration without any external equipment. This procedure uses a sequence of alternating static and dynamic intervals for accelerometer calibration and then gyroscope calibration. The accuracy of the IMU calibration procedure depends strongly on how precisely static and dynamic intervals have been detected. Otherwise, the calibration results are unsuitable. The new method for static and dynamic interval detection provides more robust and less noisy results, requires a significantly smaller number of operations and is easy to implement. The paper provides comparative results for both methods and refers to the source code for the new method.

1 INTRODUCTION

An Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) is a sensor used for measuring linear accelerations and angular velocities in 3D/2D space. With the help of these measurements, it is possible to track changes in sensor rotation and translation. One of the main applications of the IMU is providing information about an objects body frame orientation in global coordinates with no additional information about the world. Since the current state evaluation using only an IMU depends on the accuracy of the previous state evaluation, it is thus prone to error accumulation. Usually, for additional localisation information, IMU data are fused with other sensors onboard a mobile robot, a drone, or another mobile platform (Le Gentil et al., 2018). The most recent applications of IMU have been in the field of visual odometry and visual-inertial SLAM (Qin et al., 2018; Mur-Artal and Tardos, 2016; Vidal et al., 2017). As part of the multi-sensor system, an IMU provides high-frequency measurements, necessary for a robot’s or drone’s systems to compensate translation or rotation movement, while slower sensors evaluate the global position. By integrating measured values of an accelerometer, gyroscope and often a magnetometer, over time it becomes possible to estimate the movement trajectory (Qin et al., 2018).

IMUs that are used in robotics and mobile phones are usually based on MEMS (micro-electro-mechanical systems) technology because of their small form factor. Most of them are a combination of several triaxial units: an accelerometer, a gyroscope and often a magnetometer. The MEMS may be divided in low-cost (up to 5$) and high-cost (starting from 100$) devices. The main difference between them is the accuracy of the measurements provided by the units and the accuracy of the IMUs mechanical alignment on a PCB. The high-cost IMUs are well calibrated and have a relatively small error component for the different types of IMU parameters. Also, they have low error values for misalignment. In contrast, low-cost IMUs have a larger error component.

Body frame axes are non-orthogonal for both the accelerometer and the gyroscope) due to weak factory
calibration, high noise, sensitivity dependence from the temperature and misalignment of the body frame due to packaging and assembly processes. Axis misalignment in a triaxial device (Figure 1) is a major source of measurement error, which is caused due to weak factory calibration or/and IMU soldering accuracy and alignment on a PCB (Looney, 2015).

In order to improve IMU performance, it is necessary to perform a calibration procedure in addition to the factory calibration. Some of the sensors from the high-price segment come with calibration matrices calculated individually for each sensor in the factory. Cheaper sensors have less precise calibration, which should be compensated to achieve the desired performance. In addition to the IMU parameter calibration, it is necessary to determine the relative position of the sensor and the body frame.

The best calibration results can be achieved by utilising dedicated calibration tools. Chambers with temperature control and very precise multi-axis turntables allow to calibrate and compensate most of IMU parameters such as non-orthogonality (Deng et al., 2017). However, since the operation of such equipment is expensive, it is not accessible for every researcher. Also, it is unfounded for cheaper IMUs because of the difference in the precision grade of the equipment and the sensor that needs to be calibrated.

Systems that use multiple sensors can be calibrated by performing an inter-sensor calibration. When multiple sensors perform measurements of the same quantity using different phenomena, those measurements can be cross-validated in order to achieve better precision and use the more suited sensor as a reference to calibrate the parameters of the other sensor (Lv, J., Ravankar, A.A., Kobayashi, Y., Emaru, 2016). Similarly, by performing body frame position evaluation with multiple sensors, it is possible to compensate for inter-sensor spatial and temporal offsets (Furgale et al., 2013).

IMU self-calibration is the simplest method of calibration in terms of resource utilisation - in most cases, the only things needed are a flat surface and an operator. Most of the work in this type of calibration relies on specific manoeuvres performed on the sensor to collect a set of calibration data (Shin and El-Sheimy, 2002; Ren et al., 2015).

This paper focuses on the low-cost IMU MEMS calibration method without the use of external equipment, as presented in (Tedaldi et al., 2014). In that work proposed IMU calibration method solves the body-frame non-orthogonality cause of errors, also known as sensor misalignment. This paper provides an improvement of the static detector described as a part of the IMU calibration procedure or framework (Tedaldi et al., 2014). All the experiments and evaluations of the new method were conducted with a device equipped with mouse-based ADNS-9500 microchip (optical flow sensor) (Briod et al., 2012; Beyeler and Floreano, 2009) and LSM6DSL (STMicroelectronics, 2017) IMU device onboard.

2 THE IMU CALIBRATION PROCEDURE

The IMU calibration procedure proposed in (Tedaldi et al., 2014) is intended for IMU MEMS calibration without external equipment. The procedure uses raw accelerometer and gyroscope data as input data, which are prepared in a specific way. An IMU device is placed in N different static attitudes, where each lasts for 1-2 seconds. The procedure starts with the initial static position lasting T seconds, which for a particular IMU device may vary between 15 - 30 seconds. Then, a sequence of alternating dynamic and static positions of the IMU device has to be done. The initial static interval called the initialization period is used to find an appropriate threshold value of the accelerometer’s Allan Variance (Barnes and Allan, 1990) magnitude. This threshold value is used for static intervals detection in the raw accelerometer data. The overall calibration procedure is shown in Figure 2. The static detector processing the raw accelerometer data detects a sequence of static intervals (when IMU lies in a static position, without any movement). The data from the static intervals are then used as input data in the step of the accelerometer calibration. The accelerometer rotation, scaling, and bias matrices are estimated and used in the next step for the gyroscope calibration. The data within the dynamic
3 STATIC DETECTOR

The task of the static detector is to determine from IMU’s raw data such intervals of data when a device is in a static state (without any movement), and referred to as a static interval further in this paper. Accordingly to the calibration procedure, such intervals of data which are located between neighbour static intervals belong to the IMU movement from one static position to another and are named as dynamic intervals. Figure 4 shows an example of the detected static and dynamic intervals, where the accelerometer signal (within ax, ay, and az axes) in a static interval fluctuates around the same value level, and, in contrast, in a dynamic interval, the signal changes significantly.

The accuracy of the calibration depends strongly on

3.1 The Original Version

The static detector introduced in (Pretto and Grisetti, 2014) is variance based and uses an operator of variance in magnitude estimation for each accelerometer sample (ax', ay', az') at time t:

\[
\varsigma(t) = \sqrt{\text{var}_{ax}(d_x')}^2 + \sqrt{\text{var}_{ay}(d_y')}^2 + \sqrt{\text{var}_{az}(d_z')}^2
\]  

(1)

where \(\text{var}_{ax}(d')\) is a variance operator which computes variance of signal \(d'\) within a time window centered at \(t\), \(t_w\) - length of the time window. The static and dynamic intervals are classified based on the threshold value, simply checking if it is lower or greater than \(\varsigma(t)\) squared. The threshold is an integer multiplier of the \(\varsigma_{init}^2\) squared. The multiplier is estimated within the initialization period \(T_{init}\). The length of the period is determined by estimating the Allan
variance for each gyroscope axis, where $\sigma^2_a$ is defined as:

$$\sigma^2_a = \frac{1}{2K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} (x(\tilde{t}, k) - x(\tilde{t}, k - 1))^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $x(\tilde{t}, k)$ is $k$-th interval average which spans $\tilde{t}$ seconds, and $K$ is the number of intervals that the total considered time is segmented in. The time interval in which the Allan variances of the three gyroscope axes converge to a small value may be an appropriate initialization period $T_{\text{init}}$ (Tedaldi et al., 2014).

### 3.2 A New Version

The new version of the static detector \(^1\) is expressed in the pseudocode (Algorithm 1). The detector uses three input parameters $t_w$ - a time window for which magnitude is estimated by 1 eq.; $t_{st}$ - the minimal length of a static interval in seconds; $t_{dyn}$ - the minimal length of a dynamic interval in seconds, and raw accelerometer data with the timestamps of the records. Estimated magnitude values estimated by 1 eq. are in a relatively large value range. Therefore, it is better to use a logarithmic function, which reduces relative differences between values and makes interval detection more robust. In this work, the logarithm to the base 10 is used. When the magnitude of accelerometer data variance has been evaluated (Figure 5), the value of the magnitude threshold will be estimated as magnitude average for values greater than $\log(1.0)$ (small bias). This threshold is used to split raw data into static and dynamic intervals (Figure 6). Because of the fact that raw accelerometer data are usually formed by values in a range of positive and negative numbers, it’s important to note that we need to add some bias and make all values positive before performing the logarithmic magnitude estimation.

### 3.3 Comparative Analysis

We compared the previous version of the static detector proposed by (Tedaldi et al., 2014) and our version. Unfortunately, within this work scope, it is difficult to provide some quantitative metrics on how well both detectors performed. To solve this issue, we should use a manually marked dataset or apply the IMU calibration procedure on the same dataset using determined intervals from both detectors. On the other hand, we may do some comparison based on Figures and computation time. All experiments were performed on the dataset from our device and with total of 16343 samples on the host computer equipped with Intel Core i7 CPU 965 @ 3.20GHz 8 and with 16GB of RAM with the original detector’s MATLAB2018b program was performed in 64.22 seconds, where the used value of $t_w$ was 9 samples. However, our detector on the same host and a program implemented in C processes the same dataset in 0.01 seconds. In our detector, we used $t_w = 0.05$ seconds or a 9-sample long time period, $t_{st} = 1.0$ seconds and $t_{dyn} = 0.4$ seconds. The original detector generated too much noise if $t_w$ value was too small as the one mentioned above (Figure 7), but generated good results if $t_w$ was set to 120 samples long time window, no noise was observed (Figure 8). The new detector is more configurable and it is possible to set the minimal value of the static and dynamic interval, which reduces noise.

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\(^1\)https://github.com/IKSAResearchLab/IMU.Calibration.git
in detected intervals and, therefore, will improve the calibration accuracy and increase the quality of the validation process. Results of the new detector are dependent on how precisely static and dynamic intervals have been determined. The original detector provided good results. The new detector generated more narrowed intervals than the original one. The accelerometer’s values were normalized for better representation.

\[ \text{Require: } ACC \in \mathbb{R}, t_w, t_{st}, t_{dy} \]

\[ \text{function GET-MAGNITUDE}(ACC, t_w) \]

1: \( M \leftarrow \{ \}\); \( \text{m}\_\text{avg} \leftarrow 0 \)
2: \text{for all } \mu \in ACC \text{ do} \text{ see eq. 1} \( M_i \leftarrow \log_{10}(\zeta(\mu) + 1.0) \)
3: \text{end for} \( \text{m}\_\text{avg} \leftarrow \text{avg}(M) \) for all \( M_i > b \)
4: \text{return } (M, \text{m}\_\text{avg}) \)

\[ \text{function GET-INTERVALS}(M \in \mathbb{R}^m, \text{m}\_\text{avg}, t_{st}, t_{dy}) \]

1: \( S, D \leftarrow \{ \}\) \( \text{Stat. and dyn. interv. sequences} \)
2: \text{for all } \mu \in M, (0 \leq i < m) \text{ do} \text{ see eq. 1} \( \text{if } M_i \leq \text{m}\_\text{avg} \text{ and } \text{len}(S\_\text{curr}) \leq t_{st} \text{ then} \)
3: \( \text{Stat}_j \leftarrow (\text{start}_{idx}, \text{stop}_{idx}) \)
4: \text{end if} \( \text{if } M_i > \text{m}\_\text{avg} \text{ and } \text{len}(D\_\text{curr}) \leq t_{dy} \text{ then} \)
5: \( \text{Dyn}_k \leftarrow (\text{start}_{idx}, \text{stop}_{idx}) \)
6: \text{end if} \text{return } (S, D) \)

\[ (M, \text{m}\_\text{avg}) \leftarrow \text{GET-MAGNITUDE}(ACC, t_w) \]

1: \( (S, D) \leftarrow \text{GET-INTERVALS}(M, \text{m}\_\text{avg}, t_{st}, t_{dy}) \)
2: \text{for all } S, D \text{ in } S \text{ do} \text{ Narrow all static intervals} \( \text{var}(S) \text{ quality metric} \)

4 CONCLUSIONS

The accuracy of the IMU calibration procedure depends strongly on how precisely static and dynamic intervals have been determined. The original detector performs sufficiently well if the time window value interval used in the variance magnitude estimation is not too small. At the same time, the original detec-
tor is more computationally expensive, especially if it is necessary to find an appropriate value of the time window parameter.

The new detector was implemented in C and is much quicker and easily implementable than the original one. It also provides more options for parameter settings. Finally, it provides a quality metric for the determined static intervals. This metric is useful in the accelerometer calibration step and in the gyroscope calibration step when the triads of static and dynamic intervals have been selected.

In further research activities, we should make a numerical analysis of the static detector within the IMU calibration procedure and compare obtained calibration accuracy for the proposed and other static detectors.

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