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1 **Robots with a sense of touch**

2 Chiara Bartolozzi, Lorenzo Natale, Francesco Nori, Giorgio Metta

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4 *Tactile sensors provide robots with the ability to interact with humans and the environment with*
5 *great accuracy, yet technical challenges remain for electronic skin systems to reach human-level*
6 *performance.*

7

8 The development of the sense of touch in robotics is an engineering challenge. The so-called
9 “electronic skin”, which covers different parts of a robot with sensors responding to mechanical
10 and other environmental stimuli, requires system-level development that spans from materials
11 and electronics up to communication and processing. Robots equipped with tactile sensing may
12 have many different applications ranging from industry to health care, each dictating specific
13 requirements and tradeoffs in terms of the range of operating forces, frequencies, and
14 resolution. In general, large deformations in the sensor’s material allow measuring external
15 forces with greater accuracy. Such elements should be reliable and robust, as they usually
16 protect the electronics against impacts and scratches, as well as dust and water. High sensitivity
17 has to be in balance with durability, which is key for any artificial device used daily in domestic
18 or industrial scenarios. In addition, the response of the sensor should not change with time nor
19 with temperature, and have close to zero hysteresis. In this commentary, we focus on skin
20 systems for robotics, discussing their key requirements and related issues.

21 **Why robots need an electronic skin**

22 Even though autonomous robots mainly rely on some form of visual perception to interact with
23 the surrounding environment, there are tasks that would be impossible or too complicated
24 without the sense of touch. Inferring contact information from vision requires complex 3D
25 scene reconstruction, which limits the effective deployment of robots in dynamical
26 environments. Tactile feedback has the potential to improve robot interaction skills. For
27 example, in the control of object grasping and manipulation, touch provides important
28 information related to the position of the object in the hand informing the controller about the
29 object local surface curvature, friction, or the force exerted by the fingers. Overall, touch helps
30 the robot to deal with uncertainties – about the object position or its shape – that make purely
31 vision-based approaches difficult in unstructured environments.

32 Active control strategies rely on contact information to explore and localize objects with great
33 accuracy^{1, 2}. Recent research targets algorithms that learn control strategies to maintain a
34 stable grip in the presence of uncertainties or perturbations³. In particular, slip detection and
35 force control allow manipulating fragile objects or those with slippery surfaces. These tasks

36 require tactile sensors to provide accurate estimation of normal, tangential forces as well as
37 incipient slip from tiny vibrations. Tactile sensing can also reveal objects properties that are
38 hidden (or difficult to extract) using vision. Solving this task requires being able to meaningfully
39 explore objects⁴ and, through machine-learning algorithms, build a coherent representation
40 that merges information extracted at different spatial locations as obtained from several
41 contact points⁵.

42 Besides manipulation, complex robots — as for example humanoids — perform tasks that
43 involve making and breaking contact with the environment through any part of the body.
44 Contacts can happen either accidentally or because the robot searches for support in dynamic
45 movements. In this case, the sensors need to be robust enough to cope with unpredictable
46 multiple contacts. Combined with force/torque sensing technologies, tactile sensing allows
47 robots to detect contacts, estimate interaction forces and regulate them for simultaneous
48 whole-body postural and compliance control⁶.

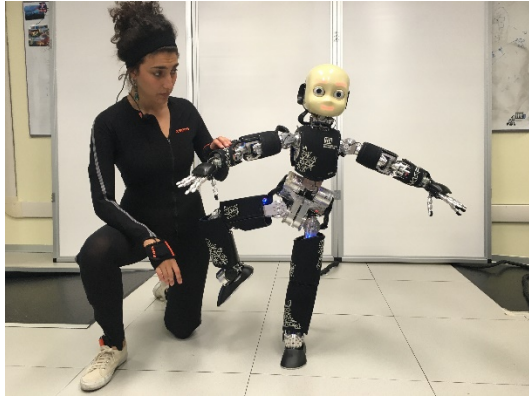
49 The ability of detecting touch on the entire body of the robot supports natural human-robot
50 interaction involving physical contacts that greatly enhance the potential application of robots
51 in environments requiring not only safe, but also gentle tender contact with humans, such as in
52 nursing or elderly care.

53 Conventionally, teaching specific tasks from demonstration relies on feedback obtained from
54 localized force/torque sensors⁷; wide-area electronic skin technology can significantly enhance
55 such feedback information (figure 1a and 1b). A wearable suit with distributed tactile (figure 1c-
56 e), inertial and force/torque sensing⁸ can provide the necessary information about the human
57 interactant. Combined with data extracted from other non-wearable sensing systems (for
58 instance, motion capture and force plates), this information allows performing the inverse
59 dynamics computations used to understand the dynamics of physical interaction⁹.

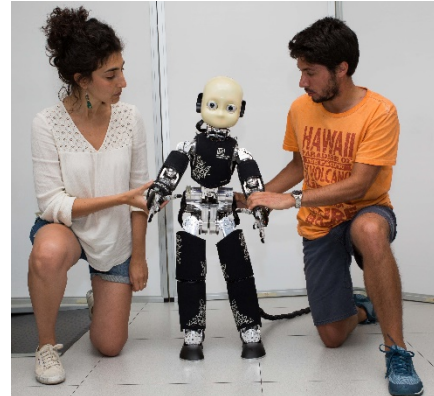
60 **Requirements**

61 Human touch is often the reference system for robotics in terms of resolution, frequency range,
62 sensitivity and other parameters. Inspirational is also sensory fusion, which is the combination
63 of proprioception and inertial sensing (that form the body state configuration) with tactile
64 sensing (localized in the skin). The human skin hosts four types of mechanical receptors with
65 different responses that convey rich sensation of mechanical stimulation^{10, 11}. Each receptor
66 type has different physical properties — size, localization, shape, structure and materials —
67 that mediate its response to vibrations and steady pressure. It is difficult to find a single tactile
68 sensor that covers all possible input frequencies, spatial resolution and properties of
69 interaction; rather, electronic skin solutions should comprise different sensing elements with
70 diverse properties, implemented through different transduction mechanisms and materials.
71 Although current research focuses on pressure sensing, it is crucial to investigate the
72 development of novel materials and structures that can make sensors respond to external

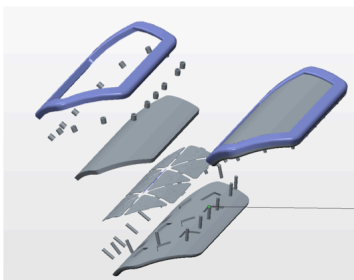
73 stimuli more accurately, generating signals related to shear, lateral deformation and vibrations
74 — which are fundamental cues to explore and handle objects (controlled slip, finger sliding, re-
75 grasp).



(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)



(e)

76 **Figure 1:** Examples of whole-body control tasks and human-robot interaction. (a) and (b),
77 balancing tasks under external perturbations; the skin is used together with force/torque
78 sensors and inertial measurements to estimate external forces and compensate them. (c) layout
79 of a wearable device that uses electronic skin to measure body movement and contacts: starting
80 from the bottom layer: plastic support (typically acrylonitrile butadiene styrene), flexible PCB,
81 soft dielectric layer (typically neoprene), protection and final closure; (d) and (e) show the actual
82 sensing components (though limited to a specific body part).

83

84 Humans need to distinguish light touch with high precision for fine manipulation and grasp, and
85 simultaneously sense high pressure for safety, contact detection and localization. Different
86 mechanoreceptors have different sensitivity thresholds, ranging from a skin indentation of $1\mu\text{m}$
87 up to 1mm . A soft touch is in the order of 0.3N to 1N , corresponding to $10\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$, whereas a
88 push or a slap correspond to more than 10N ($1\text{kg}/\text{cm}^2$)¹². In practical applications, robustness
89 would require at least an order of magnitude larger breakdown forces. The required frequency
90 sensitivity ranges from few Hz up to few kHz (for texture discrimination and incipient slip of
91 objects during manipulation). The human sensory system can compensate for the intrinsic

92 hysteretic response of skin and for complex deformations (for example due to the non-rigid
93 substrate of the sensors). However, in robotic applications it is preferable to use sensors with
94 reduced hysteresis to avoid complex signal processing. The receptors' spatial resolution
95 depends on their position in the body: on human fingertips it is about 1 mm; on the palm, it
96 decreases by a factor of 10, and on large areas, it can decrease further to 40-50 mm. In order to
97 mimic such spatial density, a fully covered robot needs thousands of skin sensing elements, and
98 this requires minimizing power consumption and wiring, calling for smart sensors readout and
99 bespoke data-communication strategies. Durable and flexible wiring in particular is crucial to
100 connect sensors across movable joints.

101 In addition, the electronic skin should cover large and non-planar surfaces, as well as recondite
102 details of the fingers and joints, with different shape and curvatures, requiring different
103 degrees of conformability. Some of these parts move, additionally requiring the development of
104 flexible and stretchable components (comprising sensors, electronics and wiring). The
105 compensation of temperature drift is crucial, because the proximity of motors and other
106 electronic devices create temperature gradients across the surface of the robot (from
107 environment temperature up to 80-100°C) that change within minutes. This proximity also
108 entails the development of sensors, electronics, and communication channels robust to electric
109 and magnetic noise (as reported for example in the CE certification directive 2004/108/EC¹³).

110 Most sensors found in the literature have some of the key requirements listed above, but the
111 majority has drawbacks that hindered their use in robotics, often because they are too rigid or
112 fragile to conform to curved surfaces. Robustness is typically an issue. Finally, in many cases
113 they need complex manufacturing resulting in high cost.

114 The requirements derived from the human sense of touch are effective guidelines for the
115 development of robots that perform human-like tasks; however, specifications differ in other
116 applications. Whole-body touch might be less fundamental for robots operating remotely (for
117 example in disaster recovery); sensitivity requirements will change considerably in industrial
118 environments where the focus is on heavy loads. Conventional robotic systems operate on
119 feedback loops: performance heavily depends on latency and therefore, differently from
120 human touch, a fundamental parameter is the sensor's readout rate.

121 **Artificial touch sensors**

122 In robotics, the most adopted sensing modes are capacitive, resistive, piezoelectric, optical and
123 magnetic. We describe here their main features and drawbacks highlighting for each system a
124 possible development path to maturity (we make no direct comparison across the performance
125 of the different technologies).

126 *Capacitive* sensors consist of two conductive layers separated by a deformable dielectric
127 material. Applied pressure causes the deformation of the dielectric, which in turn changes the

128 capacitance of the structure. The measurement of capacity yields an estimate of pressure. The
129 compatibility of these sensors with flexible substrates and the availability of off-the-shelf
130 components for the readout electronics makes capacitive technology suitable for robotics,
131 especially for large areas¹⁴. Capacitive sensors are compact, highly sensitive and with
132 theoretically unlimited operational bandwidth (in practical cases the choice of the dielectric
133 material often limits the bandwidth to relatively low frequency ranges). The main drawbacks
134 are the degradation of the elastomeric materials used as deformable dielectric due to
135 mechanical wear and tear, hysteresis, drift of sensitivity due to temperature, and – depending
136 on the materials – relatively complex production processes. Recently, capacitive sensors have
137 been coupled with dielectric materials made of a thin layer of 3D fabric glued to conductive and
138 protective layers¹⁵. This process greatly improves mechanical figures and durability, sensibly
139 reducing hysteresis. Fabrication is simpler and more affordable for large-scale production, also
140 leading to more reproducible responses.

141 In *resistive* sensors, two electrodes measure the variation of resistance due to forces applied to
142 the sensor; their design is relatively simple and can be implemented on flexible printed circuit
143 boards (PCB). The readout electronics requires a voltage divider and an off-the-shelf analog-to-
144 digital converter, which are compact and simple. Other advantages are their low cost, low noise
145 and good sensitivity. The main drawbacks are power consumption, hysteresis and the short life
146 of the materials.

147 *Optical* sensors emit infrared light and sense when the proximity of an obstacle interrupts the
148 light flux, detecting approaching objects as well as actual contacts. The advantage of proximity
149 sensors lays mainly in safety, as they allow preventing contact altogether. The main drawbacks
150 are the decrease in performance under strong light conditions and power consumption.
151 Solutions based on multiple layers of optical media respond to light diffusion inside the layers
152 due to their deformation, yielding a measure of local pressure¹⁶.

153 *Piezoelectric* materials generate charges proportionally to the force applied to the sensor; their
154 response is fast and linear over a large range of stimuli, making them suitable for dynamic force
155 sensing. Polymeric materials, such as polyvinylidene difluoride, are flexible and have long-
156 lasting chemical stability. They have been used for the implementation of tactile sensors based
157 on an integrated device, the POSFET (piezoelectric oxide semiconductor field effect transistor,
158 ref.¹⁷), where the piezoelectric material, deposited over the gate of a CMOS transistor, senses
159 the force-generated charges. The POSFET allows integration of the readout circuitry with the
160 sensing material minimizing noise and wiring, and maximizing resolution, but requires the
161 development of flexible integrated circuits and a specific post-processing for the deposition and
162 polarization of the polymer over the sensing elements array.

163 *Magnetic* sensors¹⁸ embed magnets in a deformable substrate, measuring changes in the
164 magnetic field induced by the relative movement of the magnets due to pressure. The

165 interaction of the magnetic field with metallic objects alters the detected signal and therefore
 166 this technology has limited use in robotics.

167 **Table 1:** types of sensors used in robotics and their main parameters (references in text).

| Sensing mode | Frequency range (Hz) | Minimum detectable pressure | Maximum Force | Spatial resolution | References |
|--------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|------------------|--|---|
| Capacitive | 0 – 250 | 2-3 kPa (3-4 kPa) | 180 kPa (50 kPa) | 5 mm (3 mm) | iCub skin ¹⁵ (in brackets, values referring to iCub fingertip) |
| Resistive | 1000 | 0.1 N | 30 N | 2 mm | BioTac ¹⁹ |
| Resistive | 1000 | 0.3 kPa | 1000 kPa | 5 mm | ShadowHand ²⁰ |
| Optical | 0 – 250 | 1-200 mm (distance range measured) | No force applied | 4x4x0.8 mm (size of the single sensor) | CellularSkin ²¹ |

168 **Existing implementations in robotics**

169 Despite the complexity of the development of functional and robust electronic skin, some
 170 excellent results have been accomplished addressing the requirements listed above and can be
 171 regarded as starting points for the ultimate skin technology. Table 1 summarizes their key
 172 technological features; for a thorough review of the most recent tactile sensor technologies,
 173 independently from their readiness level for robotic integration, see ref.²².

174 In all implementations, including those reported in early works on electronic skin for robotics²³,
 175 ²⁴, key features include modularity, flexibility and interconnections with the sensing modes
 176 described in table 1. Modularity helps fabrication and cost; in fact, although it is often possible
 177 to customize the skin shape to the specific robot, the cost may increase rapidly even for
 178 established technologies. For reasons of conformability, most skin systems in the literature
 179 involve the use of circuits on flexible PCBs. To optimize interconnections, often sensors form a
 180 mesh network with hierarchies that progressively encode information, thus reducing the
 181 number of wires. In the following, we report on technologies – also shown in figure 2 – that
 182 proved reliable across different implementations on a number of robots.

183 Syntouch¹⁹ is a bioinspired multimodal fingertip with impedance sensors for measuring
 184 deformations in response to normal or shear forces, pressure transducers for measuring
 185 vibrations and pressure when sliding over textured surfaces, and temperature sensors. The

186 sensing principle is resistive with elastomers covering a fluidic structure. This arrangement
187 propagates the force signal to a remote position, protecting the fragile transducers from
188 environmental damages. The sensor spacing is lower than 2mm and the response to forces
189 ranges from 0.1 N to 30 N. The main limitation is that they are expensive and cannot cover
190 large areas. The activation of the sensing elements in response to pressure is complex as there
191 is no simple relation between the applied local pressure and the response of the sensor. This
192 notwithstanding, Syntouch has been successfully mounted on various robotic hands
193 (<http://www.syntouchllc.com/>), and it has been used with machine learning techniques in
194 several tasks (discrimination of objects⁵, control of slip²⁵, in-hand manipulation²⁶).

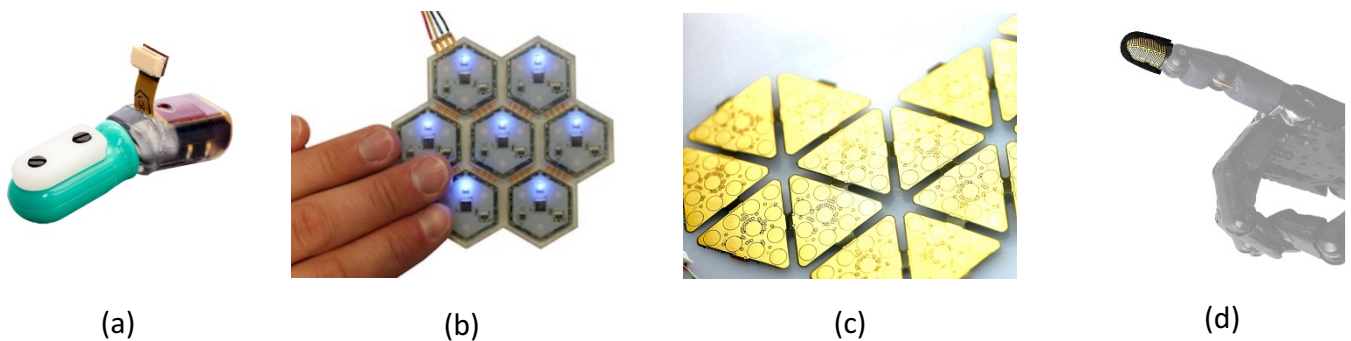
195 Ref.²⁷ proposes an electronic skin based on hexagonal PCB modules, each hosting three
196 different types of sensors. Each module performs local pre-processing with redundant
197 connections to a mesh network structure. The elements, embedded into an elastomer, can
198 conform to curved surfaces and therefore allow covering large areas of the robot's body²⁷. The
199 elastomeric layer also protects the sensors and controls the sensitivity of the underlying
200 transducers. The advantage of this technology is that it offers a solution to cover large areas
201 with multiple modalities, such as temperature, vibrations and acceleration (3D accelerometer),
202 light touch and proximity (optical). Proximity sensors work efficiently for collision avoidance,
203 whereas the accelerometers are used for collision detection²⁷. The integration of the data
204 acquired from the accelerometers and the tactile units has been used for robot self-
205 calibration²⁸.

206 Ref.¹⁵ reports an alternative flexible capacitive skin to cover both large and small areas of a
207 robot's body, including fingertips. The basic unit is a triangular flexible PCB hosting twelve
208 capacitors and an off-the-shelf capacitance-to-digital converter. One of the capacitors acts as
209 reference to compensate temperature drifts. Up to sixteen patches serially communicate with a
210 microcontroller, which routes the acquired signals to a Controller Area Network serial line,
211 drastically reducing the problem of connectivity for large areas. The dielectric and top layer of
212 the capacitors are also soft and flexible. Tests with different materials are used to fine-tune the
213 sensitivity, hysteresis, and durability of the skin as a function of the application desiderata¹⁵. A
214 number of robots employ this solution in different ways — for example, for safe interaction
215 with withdrawal reflexes, in human-robot interaction under physical contact, for manipulation,
216 in learning-by-demonstration sessions. Since the response of the sensor is analog, integrating
217 responses from neighboring sensors enables stimuli localization with resolution higher than the
218 sensor spacing (super-resolution²).

219 Ref.²⁹ describes the use of Laser-Direct-Structuring to fabricate electrically conducting 3D
220 structures that implement fingertips with resistive sensing modes. The readout electronics is
221 very simple and compact, integrated on the same PCB that hosts the electrodes. With off-the-
222 shelf components, the sensing elements can be sampled up to a frequency of 1 kHz. The

223 resulting fingertip, with a resolution of about 5.5 mm, has been integrated on the Shadow
224 Hand²⁰. It can sense forces up to 80 N, with a tradeoff between sensitivity and maximum
225 measurable load. Its main drawbacks are hysteresis and the five-step fabrication process that
226 could be an issue for manufacturability. Experiments with these devices involved manipulation
227 tasks such as opening and closing jars and folding paper, which have proven extremely
228 challenging to accomplish without tactile feedback.

229 In summary, fully integrated robotic skins employ relatively well-established technologies. Due
230 to rapid progress in the field, new sensors are already available that improve resolution and
231 sensitivity¹⁰. It is high time to bridge the gap between proof of concept and complete electronic
232 skin realizations in robotics by combining materials, high-resolution and sensitivity sensors with
233 an integrated system view typical of robotics engineering, tackling challenges that will create
234 novel opportunities. Integration would benefit from contribution of material science for
235 embedding electronics and transduction in stretchable and conformable materials with
236 increased system-wide robustness.



237 **Figure 2:** 4 examples of technologies for robotic skin systems: (a) the Syntouch fingertip¹⁹; (b)
238 multimodal hexagonal modules²¹; (c) capacitive triangular patches¹⁵; and (d) resistive
239 fingertip²⁹.

240 Challenges and opportunities

241 Although we focused on the analysis of skin technology in the context of advanced robotics,
242 skin is also important in prosthetics^{30,31}. The design of novel limb and hand prostheses aims at a
243 natural replacement of lost functionality; hence, besides the necessary control of the actions of
244 the device, it is crucial to convey natural sensorial feedback. Integrating the sense of touch (and
245 proprioception) enables the perception of the prosthesis as a part of the own body, increasing
246 confidence and dexterity, and decreasing the need for constant visual feedback and cognitive
247 effort in control. Prostheses without tactile feedback are typically used for power grasp and
248 holding, whereas those equipped with haptic feedback enable fine and precise actions — such
249 as pulling the stem from a cherry — that require the evaluation of the shape and consistency of
250 an object (thus its identification), planning the correct grasping and controlling the grip force³⁰.

251 Similarly, tactile feedback is crucial for enhancing operability and performance of tele-operated
252 devices, such as robots that replace humans in hazardous environments, or surgical robots
253 where perception of tissue consistency and compliance may improve the precision of the
254 surgeon.

255 It is clear that the development of electronic skin has reached a state of maturity that enables
256 its use in various robotics applications. A number of robotic platforms exploit the advantage of
257 tactile sensing. To reach human-level performance, however, improvements along several
258 directions are required. Big challenges are the integration of different technologies with
259 complementary transduction properties and the design of novel materials to improve
260 protection. Furthermore, optimization of surface texture can lead to enhanced sensitivity —
261 such as the rims of fingerprints enhance perception of vibrations. Technology advances in
262 materials science can result in stretchable yet robust embedded electronics and wiring.

263 Beyond these materials and single-device challenges, a major concern in the implementation of
264 fully covered robots is the number of sensing elements and the corresponding wiring, power
265 and communication overhead. Informatics and electronic engineering can help tackling this
266 network-scale problem, by developing data encoding that compresses information and sensors
267 that, similar to their biological counterparts, only send information when and where there is
268 contact, limiting the transmission and processing of data from inactive elements. Neuromorphic
269 event-driven sensing is a possible avenue of research and development to solve these
270 problems³².

271 The interested reader may find additional details on the issues involved in complete electronic
272 skin systems — including transduction, signal processing, properties and applications — in ref³³.

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274 *Chiara Bartolozzi, Lorenzo Natale, Francesco Nori and Giorgio Metta are at the Istituto*
275 *Italiano di Tecnologia, via Morego, 30, 16143 Genoa, Italy.*

276 *e-mail: giorgio.metta@iit.it*

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