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Article **Robotic Odor Source Localization via Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation Algorithm**

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Abstract: Robotic odor source localization (OSL) is a technology that enables mobile robots or autonomous vehicles to find an odor source in unknown environments. An effective navigation 2 algorithm that guides the robot to approach the odor source is the key to successfully locating the odor source. While traditional OSL approaches primarily utilize an Olfaction-only strategy, guiding robots 4 to find the odor source by tracing emitted odor plumes, our work introduces a fusion navigation algorithm that combines both vision and olfaction-based techniques. This hybrid approach addresses 6 challenges such as turbulent airflow, which disrupts olfaction sensing, and physical obstacles inside 7 the search area, which may impede vision detection. In this work, we propose a hierarchical control mechanism that dynamically shifts the robot's search behavior among four strategies: crosswind 9 maneuver, Obstacle-avoid Navigation, Vision-based Navigation, and Olfaction-based Navigation. 10 Our methodology includes a custom-trained deep-learning model for visual target detection and a 11 moth-inspired algorithm for Olfaction-based navigation. To assess the effectiveness of our approach, 12 we implemented the proposed algorithm on a mobile robot in a search environment with obstacles. 13 Experimental results demonstrate that our Vision and Olfaction Fusion algorithm significantly 14 outperforms Vision-only and Olfaction-only methods, reducing average search time by 54% and 30%, 15 respectively. 16

Keywords: Odor source localization; moth-inspired algorithm; computer Vision-based Navigation; robot operating system; multi-modal robotics.

1. Introduction

Sensory systems like olfaction, vision, audition, etc., allow animals to interact with the external environment. Among these, olfaction is the oldest sensory system to evolve 21 in organisms [1]. Olfaction allows organisms with receptors for the odorant to identify 22 food, potential mating partners, dangers, and enemies [2]. In some nocturnal mammals 23 like mice, as much as five percent of the genome is devoted to olfaction [3]. Similar to 24 animals, a mobile robot integrated with a chemical sensor can detect odors in the external 25 environment. Robotic Odor source localization (OSL) is the technology that allows robots to utilize olfaction sensory inputs to navigate toward an unknown target odor source in the given environment [4]. It has important applications including monitoring wildfires [5], locating air pollution [6], locating chemical gas leaks [7], locating unexploded mines and bombs [8], locating underground gas leaks [9], and marine surveys such as finding hydrothermal vents [10], etc.

Locating an unknown odor source requires an effective OSL algorithm guiding the 32 robot based on sensor observations. Current OSL algorithms include bio-inspired methods 33 that imitate animal olfactory behaviors, engineering-based methods that rely on mathe-34 matical models to estimate potential odor source locations and machine learning-based 35 methods that use a trained model to guide the robot toward the odor source. The typical 36

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bio-inspired method includes moth-inspired algorithm that imitates male months mateseeking behaviors [11], where a robotic agent will follow a 'surge/casting' model [12] to reach the odor source. Typical engineering-based methods includes the Particle Filter algorithm [13], where the robot will use historic olfaction reading to predict the odor source 40 location. Finally, typical machine learning-based OSL methods include deep supervised and reinforcement learning-based methods.

All of these approaches rely on olfaction (e.g., chemical and airflow) sensing to detect 43 and navigate to the given odor source. However, approaches that rely solely on olfaction 44 sensing struggle in turbulent airflow environments. In contrast, animals that operate in 45 complex airflow environments often rely on multiple sensory systems like olfaction and 46 vision for odor source localization. For example, humans often recognize the presence of an 47 odor source of interest with olfaction (e.g., smelling a barbecue), and locate and navigate to 48 the odor source using vision (e.g., locating the barbecue shop with vision). If there is no 49 valid vision of the odor source, we may search for the source using olfaction sensing (e.g., 50 moving towards the direction of greater odor concentration or against the direction of wind 51 flow). Similarly, a robot with both olfaction and vision sensing capabilities (e.g., with a 52 camera and chemical sensor) can find an unknown odor source more efficiently, compared 53 to olfaction-only OSL navigation methods. Thus, this project departs from the existing OSL 54 navigation methods in utilizing both robotic vision and olfaction for searching the odor 55 source location. The core of this project involves designing an algorithm that utilizes both 56 vision and olfaction sensing for locating an unknown odor source location. 57



Figure 1. Flow diagram of the proposed method for OSL experiment. We utilized the Turtlebot3 robot platform. We equipped it with a camera, Laser Distance Sensor, Airflow sensor, Chemical sensor, etc. The robot utilizes 3 navigation behaviors - Obstacle-avoid Navigation, Vision-based Navigation, and Olfaction-based Navigation to output robot heading and linear velocity.

The project proposes an effective sensor fusion approach that utilizes a vision method 58 and bio-mimicking olfaction method to guide the robot toward an unknown odor source in 59 a real-world obstacle-ridden search area with both laminar and turbulent airflow setups. 60 Figure 1 shows the proposed method, where we show the developed robot platform 61 equipped with vision and olfaction sensors. The vision sensors include a camera, and the 62 olfaction sensors include a chemical detector and anemometer. It also includes a Laser 63 Distance Sensor (LDS) for obstacle detection. The sensor observations are transmitted 64 to a decision-making model, which is implemented in a remote computer. The model 65 selects Obstacle-avoid Navigation, Vision-based Navigation, or Olfaction-based Navigation 66 behavior based on the sensor readings. In the proposed decision-making model, the robotic 67 vision is achieved by a deep-learning vision model, and the robotic olfaction model is 68 based on a bio-mimicking moth-inspired algorithm. Based on the current sensor reading, 69 the active search behavior will calculate the robot heading commands, guiding the robot 70 to approach the odor source location. Finally, the robot executes the heading command, 71 collects new sensor readings at the new location, and repeats the loop until the odor source 72 is detected. 73

In order to test the performance of our proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm, we conducted 30 real-world OSL experiments using Olfaction-only

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Navigation algorithm, Vision-only Navigation Algorithm, and the proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithms in both laminar and turbulent airflow environments. Contributions of this work can be summarized as:

- 1. Introduce vision as an additional sensing modality for odor source localization. For vision sensing, We trained a deep-learning-based computer vision model to detect odor sources from emitted visible plumes.
- 2. Develop a multimodal Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm with Obstacleavoid Navigation capabilities for OSL tasks.
- 3. Compare the search performance of Olfaction-only and Vision-only navigation algorithms with the proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm in a real-world search environment with obstacles and turbulent airflow setups.

In the remaining of this paper, Section 2 reviews the recent progress of olfactory-based navigation algorithms; Section 3 reviews technical details of the proposed OSL algorithm; Section 4 presents details of performing the real-world experiments; Section 5 includes a discussion on the future research direction based on this work; and finally, Section 6 includes overall conclusion of the work.

2. Related Works

Research on Robotic Odor Source Localization (OSL) has gained significant attention in recent decades [14]. Technological advancements in robotics and autonomous systems have made it possible to deploy mobile robots for locating odor or chemical sources. Designing algorithms that mimic the navigation method of biological organisms is a typical approach in robotic odor source localization research. Organisms across various sizes rely on scent for locating objects. Whether it's a bacterium navigating an amino acid gradient or a wolf tracking down prey, the ability to follow odors can be crucial for survival.

Chemotaxis is the simplest odor source localization approach in biological organisms, 100 where they rely only on olfaction for navigation. For example, bacteria exhibit chemotaxis 101 by adjusting their movement in response to changes in chemical concentration. When they 102 encounter higher levels of an appealing chemical, their likelihood of making temporary 103 turns decreases, promoting straighter movement. Conversely, in the absence of a gradient 104 or when moving away from higher concentrations, the default turning probability is 105 maintained [15]. This simple algorithm enables single-celled organisms to navigate along 106 a gradient of attractive chemicals through a guided random walk. Nematodes [16] and 107 crustaceans [17] also, follow Chemotaxis-based odor source localization. Early attempts at 108 robotic OSL focused on employing such simple gradient following chemotaxis algorithms. 109 These methods utilized a pair of chemical sensors on plume-tracing robots, directing them 110 to steer towards higher concentration measurements [18]. Several early studies [19–22] 111 validated the effectiveness of chemotaxis in laminar flow environments, characterized by 112 low Reynolds numbers. However, in turbulent flow environments with high Reynolds 113 numbers, alternative methods were proposed, drawing inspiration from both complex 114 biological and engineering principles. 115

Odor-gated anemotaxis navigation is a more complex odor source localization method 116 that utilizes senses of both odor and airflow for navigation. Moths [23–25], birds [26, 117 27], etc. organisms follow this type of navigation. In particular, mimicking the mate-118 seeking behavior of male moths led to the development of the moth-inspired method in 119 robotic odor source localization. This method was successfully applied in various robotic 120 OSL scenarios [28] .Additionally, diverse bio-inspired search strategies like zigzag, spiral, 121 fuzzy-inference, and multi-phase exploratory approaches have been introduced [29] in 122 odor-gate anemotaxis-based solutions. Recent bio-inspired OSL navigation methods also 123 aimed to make the search environment more complicated. For instance, [30] proposed a 124 3-dimensional (3-D) moth-inspired OSL search strategy that utilized cross-wind Lévy Walk, 125 spiraling and upwind surge. 126

Engineering-based methods take a different approach than bio-mimicking algorithms, ¹²⁷ relying on mathematical models for estimating odor source locations. These methods are ¹²⁸

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often times known as Infotaxis [31]. These methods involve constructing source probability 129 maps, dividing the search area into regions, and assigning probabilities indicating the 130 likelihood of containing the odor source. Algorithms for constructing such maps include 131 Bayesian inference, particle filters, stochastic mapping [32], source term estimation [33], 132 information-based search [34], partially observable Markov decision processes [35], etc. 133 Subsequently, robots are guided towards the estimated source via path planning algorithms 134 such as artificial potential fields, A-star [36,37]. These models also rely on olfaction sensing 135 for estimating the odor source. 136

Deep Learning (DL) based methods are increasingly utilized for OSL experiments. 137 Recent developments involve the use of Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) to predict gas leak 138 locations from stationary sensor networks or employing reinforcement learning for plume 139 tracing strategies. For instance, Kim et al. [38] trained an RNN to predict potential odor 140 source locations using data from stationary sensor networks obtained through simulation. 141 Hu et al. [39] presented a plume tracing algorithm based on model-free reinforcement 142 learning, utilizing the deterministic policy gradient to train an actor-critic network for 143 Autonomous Underwater Vehicle (AUV) navigation. Wang et al. [40] trained an adaptive 144 neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) to solve the OSL problem in simulations, yet real-145 world validations are necessary to confirm its efficacy. In summary, despite the promising 146 potential of DL technologies, their application in solving OSL problems is still in its early 147 stages and warrants further research. Most DL-based methods are validated in virtual 148 environments through simulated flow fields and plume distributions, necessitating real-149 world implementations to validate their effectiveness. 150

Fusing vision with olfaction for odor source localization task is common in complex 151 organisms like mice [41,42]. Humans also use vision as a primary sensor for odor source 152 navigation tasks. However, very few works have utilized vision for OSL tasks. Recent 153 advances in computer vision techniques can allow robots to use vision as an important 154 sensing capability for detecting visible odor sources or plumes. The added advantage of 155 vision is that it can allow robots to navigate to odor sources without being affected by 156 sparse odor plumes or turbulent airflow in the navigation path. The main contribution of 157 this paper is designing a dynamic Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm for 158 odor source localization in an obstacle-ridden turbulent airflow environment. 159

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Overview of the Proposed OSL Algorithm

Figure 2 shows the flow diagram of the proposed navigation algorithm. In this work, 162 the initial robot search behavior is the 'Crosswind maneuver' behavior, where the robot 163 moves cross-wind to detect initial odor plumes. If the robot encounters obstacles in its 164 surroundings, it switches to the 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation' behavior, where the robot 165 will move around to avoid obstacles. During the robot maneuver, the robot seeks valid 166 visual and olfactory detection. If the robot obtains a valid visual detection, it employs 167 Vision-based Navigation to approach the odor source location. Similarly, if the robot obtains 168 sufficient olfactory detection, it employs Olfaction-based Navigation algorithm. If the robot 169 is in the vicinity of the odor source, it is considered as the source declaration, i.e., the end 170 of the search. Otherwise, the robot returns to the default 'Crosswind maneuver' behavior 171 and repeats the above process. 172

In the following section, we present the design of the aforementioned search behaviors, including Crosswind maneuver (Subsection 3.2), Obstacle-avoid Navigation (Subsection 3.3), Vision-based Navigation (Subsection 3.4), and Olfactory-based Navigation (Subsection 3.5).

3.2. Crosswind maneuver Behavior

In an OSL task, the robot does not have any prior information on the odor source location. Thus, we define a 'Crosswind maneuver' behavior, as the default behavior, directing the robot to find initial odor plume detection or re-detect odor plumes when

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Figure 2. The flow diagram of the proposed OSL algorithm. There are four navigation behaviors, including 'Crosswind maneuver', 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation', 'Vision-based Navigation', and 'Olfaction-based Navigation'.

valid vision and olfaction observations are absent. Crosswind movement, where the robot heading is perpendicular to the wind direction, increases the chance of the robot detecting odor plumes [43]. Denote that the wind direction in the inertial frame is ϕ , thus, the robot heading command in the 'Crosswind maneuver' behavior can be defined as:

$$\psi_c = \phi_{Inertial} + 90. \tag{1}$$

Besides, it is worth mentioning that we set the robot's linear speed as a constant and only changed the heading commands in the 'Crosswind maneuver' behavior to simplify the robot control problem and save search time.

3.3. Obstacle-avoid Navigation Behavior

The 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation' behavior is activated when the robot moves close to 189 an obstacle object within the search environment, which directs the robot to move around 190 and avoid the obstacles. In this work, the robot employs a Laser Distance Sensor (LDS) 191 to measure the distances from the robot to any obstacles in five surrounding angles as 192 presented in Figure 3. Specifically, we denote *laser* [x] as the measured distance at angle x, 193 including Front (laser[0]), Slightly Left, (laser[45]), Slightly Right (laser[315]), Left (laser[90]), 194 and Right (laser[270]). If the obstacle distance in any of the five angles is less than the 195 threshold, the proposed 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation' behavior is activated. 196

Algorithm 1 shows the pseudo-code for the 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation' behavior. The main idea is to identify the relative location of obstacles to the robot and command the robot to move around to avoid obstacles. Specifically, the robot initially set the linear velocity and angular velocity as v_c and ω_c , respectively. Positive values in v_c and ω_c represent forward and left rotation, respectively, and negative values represent backward and right rotation, respectively. Initial values of v_c and ω_c are set as 0.6 m/s and 0 rad/s in this work.

Algorithm 1 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation' Behavior

1: Set robot linear velocity as $v_c = 0.6 \text{ m/s}$ Set robot angular velocity as $\omega_c = 0$ rad/s 2: if laser[0] > thr then 3: $\omega_c = 0 \text{ rad/s}$ 4: 5: else $v_c = 0 \text{ m/s}$ and $\omega_c = 0 \text{ rad/s}$ 6: if $(laser[45] > thr) \lor (laser[315] > thr)$ then 7: if laser[45] > laser[315] then 8: 9. $\omega_c = 0.5 \text{ rad/s}$ 10: else $\omega_c = -0.5 \text{ rad/s}$ 11: end if 12: else if $(laser[90] > thr) \lor (laser[270] > thr)$ then 13: if laser[90] > laser[270] then 14: $\omega_c = 0.5 \text{ rad/s}$ 15: else 16: $\omega_c = -0.5 \text{ rad/s}$ 17: 18: end if 19: else $v_c = -0.5 \, {\rm m/s}$ 20: end if 21: 22: end if



Figure 3. Five directions in the robot's laser distance sensing, including Left, Slightly Left, Front, Slightly Right, and Right. laser[x] denotes the distance between the robot and the object at the angle x, which is measured from the onboard laser distance sensor.

In the 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation' behavior, the robot will always check if there is 203 a clear path in the Front direction, i.e., laser[0] > thr (thr is the threshold for obstacle 204 detection, 0.75 m in this work), and if it is true, the robot will move forward with $\omega_c = 0$ 205 rad/s. If the Front is blocked, the robot will stop and check Slightly Left or Slightly Right for 206 a clear path ($(laser[45] > thr) \lor (laser[315] > thr)$). If there is a clear path in either of these 207 two directions, the robot will compare clearance in Slightly Left and Slightly Right and 208 rotate left (i.e., $\omega_c = 0.5 \text{ rad/s}$) or right (i.e., $\omega_c = -0.5 \text{ rad/s}$) to face the greater clearance. 209 If there is no clearance in Slight Left or Slight Right, the robot will check Left and Right for 210 a clear path ($(laser[90] > thr) \lor (laser[270] > thr)$). If there is a clear path, the robot will 211 compare Left and Right clearance (*laser*[90] > *laser*[270]) and rotate left ($\omega_c = 0.5 \text{ rad/s}$) 212 or right ($\omega_c = -0.5 \text{ rad/s}$) to face the greater clearance. If there is no clear path in all five 213 directions, the robot will move back ($v_c = -0.5 \text{ m/s}$) to escape the dead end. 214

3.4. Vision-based Navigation

In this work, we employ vision as the main approach to detect odor sources within the search environment. Vision sensing allows the robot to detect the plume source location in its visual field and approach it directly. Olfaction-only navigation methods often rely on airflow direction for navigating to the odor source. This can lead to failure in turbulent

airflow environments. Given visual sensing is not guided by airflow direction, combining 220 it with Olfaction-based Navigation can allow the robot to find the odor source in turbulent 221 airflow environments. 222

The proposed Vision-based Navigation relies on computer vision techniques. Specifi-223 cally, we train a deep learning-based object detection model, i.e., YOLOv7, to detect vapors 224 emitted from the odor source. Vapors can be considered as a common and distinct feature 225 for the odor source object, such as smoke for fire sources, chemical plumes for chemical 226 leaks or hydrothermal vents, etc. It should be mentioned that if the odor source does not 227 have a distinct plume feature (i.e., transparent vapors), the robot can still find the odor 228 source using the proposed Olfaction-based Navigation algorithm. We also provided real-229 world performance comparison between the Olfaction-based Navigation and the Vision 230 and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithms. 231

In the proposed vision sensing method, we trained a YOLOv7 model to detect odor 232 plumes in the continuously captured images. To generate training images, we extracted 233 243 observation frames with a resolution of 640×480 while the turtlebot was approaching 234 the odor plumes in a variety of angles and lighting conditions. Figure 4 shows two sample 235 frames used for training the vision model. This data was split into training, validation, and 236 testing datasets for training the model. Roboflow [44] was utilized as the annotation tool 237 for accurate bounding boxes and polygons delineation. 238



Figure 4. Two sample frames that include humidifier odor plumes in different lighting and spatial conditions. The frames are sampled out of the total 243 frames used for training the vision model. All of the frames were captured by the Turtlebot robot in the experiment area.

To assess YOLOv7 performance, diverse predefined augmentation techniques in Roboflow were systematically applied to 'Dataset-1'. These included rotation (-10° to 240 $+10^{\circ}$), shear ($\pm 15^{\circ}$ horizontally and vertically), hue adjustment (-25° to $+25^{\circ}$), saturation 241 adjustment (-25% to +25%), brightness adjustment (-25% to +25%), exposure adjustment 242 (-25% to +25%), blur (up to 2.5px), and noise (up to 1% of pixels). Post-augmentation, 243 the resulting augmented dataset, labeled as 'Dataset-3', enriched the training set for a 244 comprehensive evaluation of YOLOv7's robustness in detecting prescribed odor plumes. 245 We set the number of training epochs to 100, with a batch size of 16. The resulting training 246 accuracy was 98% and testing accuracy was 93%. 247

The implemented vision model returns a box bounding the plume in the image if it 248 detects an odor plume. The output of the model also includes the horizontal and vertical 249 location of the plume bounding box. If the model returns a plume bounding box, the robot 250 continues moving forward (i.e., $v_c = 0.5 \text{ m/s}$) and checks if the horizontal location of the 251 bounding box is in the left or the right half of the image. The model requires less than 1 252 second to generate output in our remote computer. The robot sends 30 image frames per 253 second, and the robot picks every 30th frame as the input to the vision model. 254

Equation 2 calculates robot's heading -

$$\omega_c = \begin{cases} 1 & 0.5 \text{ m/s if } c < \frac{w}{2} \\ 2 & -0.5 \text{ m/s if } c > \frac{w}{2}, \end{cases}$$
(2)

where c is the horizontal mid-point of the bounding box, and w is the horizontal 256 resolution of the captured image. If the bounding box is in the left half of the image (i.e., 257 $c < \frac{w}{2}$), the robot rotates left (i.e., $\omega_c = 0.5 \text{ rad/s}$) to face the plume. Otherwise, it rotates 258 right $(\omega_c = -0.5 \text{ rad/s})$ to face the plume. 259

3.5. Olfaction-based Navigation

If there is no valid visual detection but the robot can sense above-threshold odor 261 concentration, Olfaction-based Navigation is employed to guide the robot to approach the 262 odor source location. 263

Specifically, the proposed Olfaction-based Navigation algorithm commands the robot 264 to move upwind to approach the odor source location. This behavior is analogous to the 'Surge' behavior of the bio-mimicking moth-inspired navigation OSL algorithm [45]. In this 266 behavior, the robot's linear velocity is fixed at $v_c = 0.6$ m/s and the heading command, i.e., 267 ψ_c , is calculated as: 268

$$\psi_c = \phi_{Inertial} + 180. \tag{3}$$

The robot will switch back to Vision-based Navigation once there is a valid vision detection. 269

3.6. Source Declaration

The robot is considered as successful if the robot position is within 0.9 m of the odor 271 source location. But if the robot fails to reach the odor source within 200 seconds, the trial 272 run is considered as a failure. 273

4. Experiment Results

4.1. Search Area



Figure 5. The experiment setup. The Turtlebot3 waffle pi mobile robot is used in this work. In addition to the camera and Laser Distance sensor, the robot is equipped with a chemical sensor and an anemometer for measuring chemical concentration, wind speeds, and directions. The robot is initially placed in a downwind area with the object of finding the odor source. A humidifier loaded with ethanol is employed to generate odor plumes. Two electric fans are placed perpendicularly to create artificial wind fields. Two obstacles are placed in the search area.

Figure 5 shows the 2-dimensional $8.2m \times 3.3m$ search area. Two obstacles were placed 276 in the search area to simulate a complex real-world search environment. Ethanol vapor was 277 used as the odor source as it is not toxic. Ethanol is also commonly implemented in OSL 278 research [46]. A humidifier disperses ethanol vapor constantly as odor plume. To increase 279 odor propagation in the search area, an electric fan was placed behind the humidifier. An 280 additional fan was placed perpendicularly to the first fan to create a turbulent airflow 281

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environment. Using just Fan 1 creates a laminar airflow environment, and using both fans 282 creates a turbulent airflow environment in the search area. 283

4.2. Mobile Robot Configuration

Turtlebot3 mobile robot platform was used in this work. Its built-in sensors include 285 Raspberry Pi Camera, a 360-degree LiDAR sensor for sensing and a DYNAMIXEL diver 286 for navigation. The onboard OpenCR controller allows the Turtlebot3 to be paired with 287 additional sensors for increasing its functionalities. 288

Table 1. Type, name, and specification of the built-in camera, laser distance sensor, and added anemometer, chemical sensor.

Source	Sensor Type	Module Name	Specification
Built-in	Camera	Raspberry pi	Video Capture:
	Cantera	camera v2	1080p30, 720p60
			and VGA90.
	Laser Distance	LDS-02	Detection Range:
			360-degree.
	Jensor		Distance Range:
			160 ~8,000 mm.
Added	Anemometer	WindSonic,	Speed: 0-75m/s.
		Gill Inc.	Wind direction:
			0-360 degrees.
	Chemical	MQ3 alcohol	Concentration:
	Sensor	detector	25 – 500 ppm.

Table 1 shows the built-in and added sensors for OSL experiments. Raspberry Pi 289 Camera V2 was used for image capture, LDS-02 Laser Distance Sensor was used for 290 obstacle detection, WindSonic Anemometer was used for wind speed and wind direction 291 measurements in the body frame, and MQ3 alcohol detector was used for detecting chemical 292 plume concentration. 293



Figure 6. System configuration. This system contains two main components, including the Turtlebot3 and the remote PC. The solid connection line represents physical connection, and the dotted connection line represents wireless link.

Turtlebot3 has Raspberry Pi 4 as the CPU which has limited computing power. It 294 utilizes Ubuntu and Robot Operating System (ROS). Ubuntu allows connection capabilities 295 with a remote computer. ROS allows custom programs in the remote computer to subscribe 296 to specific sensor readings from the robot and publish heading commands back to the 297 robot in real-time. ROS supports both Python and C++ programming languages. Figure 6 298

presents the proposed system configuration for the robotic system, which includes a robotic agent, i.e., Turtlebot3, onboard controller, and a ground station, i.e., a remote Personal Computer (PC). For this study, Ubuntu 20.04 and ROS Noetic were installed in both the robot and the paired remote computer for controlling the robot. A local area network was used to connect the robot to the remote PC.

4.3. Experiment Design



Figure 7. (1) The flow diagram of the Olfaction-only navigation algorithm. There are three navigation behaviors, including 'Crosswind maneuver', 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation', and 'Olfaction-based Navigation'. (2) The flow diagram of the Vision-only navigation algorithm. There are three navigation behaviors, including 'Crosswind maneuver', 'Obstacle-avoid Navigation', and 'Vision-based Navigation'.

To determine the effectiveness of the proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm, we tested the performance of Olfaction-only navigation and Vision-only naviga-306 tion algorithms. Figure 7 shows the flow diagram of the two navigation algorithms. In 307 the Olfaction-only navigation algorithm, the robot used the Crosswind maneuver behavior 308 (Section 3.2), Obstacle-avoid Navigation behavior (Section 3.3), and Olfaction-based Navi-309 gation behavior (Section 3.5). In the absence of sufficient chemical concentration, the robot 310 followed Crosswind maneuver behavior to maximize the chance of detecting sufficient 311 plume concentration. If there were obstacles in the robot's path, it follows Obstacle-avoid 312 Navigation behavior to circumvent the obstacles. If sufficient odor concentration is de-313 tected, and there are no obstacles in the robot's path, it follows Olfaction-based Navigation 314 behavior to reach the odor source. 315

In the Vision-only navigation algorithm, the robot used the Crosswind maneuver 316 behavior (Section 3.2), Obstacle-avoid Navigation behavior (Section 3.3), and Vision-based 317 Navigation behavior (Section 3.4). In the absence of valid plume vision, the robot followed 318 Crosswind maneuver behavior to maximize the chance of detecting valid plume vision. 319 If there were obstacles in the robot's path, it follows Obstacle-avoid Navigation behavior 320 to circumvent the obstacles. If the robot detects a valid plume visual, and there are no 321 obstacles in the robot's path, it follows Vision-based Navigation behavior to reach the odor 322 source. 323

These three algorithms were tested in two airflow environments, including the e1 -324 laminar airflow environment that used one electric fan and the e2 - turbulent airflow envi-325 ronment that used two perpendicularly placed electric fans. Thus, a total of six experiments 326 setups were designed, i.e., three navigation methods in two airflow environments, to test 327 the effectiveness of the proposed fusion model. Five experiment runs were conducted for 328 each of the six experiment setups, totaling 30 trial runs. We used the same five starting 329 positions to initialize the test runs. Figure 8 shows the five starting positions and the two 330 airflow setups for the experiment runs. 331



Figure 8. (1) The schematic diagram of the search area with e1 - laminar airflow setup. The five robot starting positions are used for testing the performance of the Olfaction-based Navigation, Vision-based Navigation, and Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation tests. (2) The schematic diagram of the search area with e2 - turbulent airflow setup.





Figure 9. Robot trajectory graphs and snapshots of OSL tests with the Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm in turbulent airflow environment.

Figure 9 shows the robot trajectory and snapshots of the Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation trial run in a turbulent airflow environment. In this run, the robot initialized at t=1 s, found sufficient chemical concentration, and started following Olfaction-based Navigation. At t=22 s, the robot detected valid visual detection of the odor plumes and started to follow Vision-based Navigation. At t=49 s the robot faced the second obstacle and

started to follow Obstacle-avoid Navigation behavior. It avoided the obstacle, re-detected plume vision, and started to follow Vision-based Navigation until it reached the odor source at t=72 s. 340

4.5. Experiment Trials

Table 2. Search Time of the Vision-only, Olfaction-only, and the Proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation Algorithms.

	Robot Initial Position (x, y), Orientation (z, w)	Olfaction-only Navigation Algorithm (s)	Vision-only Navigation Algorithm (s)	Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation Algorithm (s)
Laminar	(-2.9, 1.5), (-0.6, 1.0)	63.1	-	63.9
Airflow Env.	(-3.1, 0.5), (0.0, 35.0)	71.3	149.3	69.9
	(-2.6, -0.4), (0.7, 0.7)	74.3	-	67.5
	(-2.0, 0.6), (1.0, -0.1)	73.8	-	75.7
	(-1.8, 0.7), (0.0, 0.1)	59.1	-	61.1
Turbulent	(-2.9, 1.5), (-0.6, 1.0)	-	-	64.0
Airflow	(-3.1, 0.5), (0.0, 35.0)	-	-	113.1
211.0	(-2.6, -0.4), (0.7, 0.7)	196.4	-	130.7
	(-2.0, 0.6), (1.0, -0.1)	-	102.8	131.9
	(-1.8, 0.7), (0.0, 0.1)	72.3	-	68.5

Table 2 shows the run times of the 30 trial runs, i.e., five trial runs using one of 342 three navigation algorithms in two airflow environments. Figure 10 shows the robot 343 trajectories in those 30 trial runs. Olfaction-only navigation algorithm uses airflow direction 344 to navigate toward the odor source. It performed well in laminar airflow environments -345 the robot followed relatively direct airflow towards the odor source. However, in turbulent 346 airflow environments, the robot got diverted by the complex airflow directions and often 347 failed to reach the odor source by the designated time limit. Vision-based Navigation 348 performed poorly in both laminar and turbulent airflow environments. Because of the 349 obstacle placement, the robot had no visual of the plume from the starting position. It 350 needed to follow the Crosswind maneuver and Obstacle-avoid Navigation behaviors until 351 it had a valid plume vision. In most runs, the robot's 200-second time limit was over before 352 it could find and navigate to the odor source. Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation 353 algorithm test runs were consistently successful in both laminar and turbulent airflow 354 environments. The Crosswind maneuver and Olfaction-based Navigation led the robot 355 toward the odor source which allowed the robot to detect plume vision. Once it started to 356 follow Vision-based Navigation, the robot was not affected by turbulent airflow. 357



Figure 10. Trajectories of OSL repeat experiments. Olfaction-only Navigation algorithm trials (o1-o5) in - (1-5) laminar airflow environment (e1), and (6-10) turbulent airflow environment (e2). Similarly, Vision-only Navigation algorithm trials (v1-v5) in e1 (11-15) and e2 (16-20), Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm trials (vo1-vo5) in - e1 (21-25) and e2 (26-30). The behaviors that the robot was following under the three navigation algorithms are Crosswind - crosswind maneuver behavior, Obstacle - Obstacle-avoid Navigation behavior, Olfaction - Olfaction-based Navigation behavior, and Vision - Vision-based Navigation behavior. Robot starting positions are highlighted with a blue star, the obstacles are the orange boxes, and the odor source is the red point with the surrounding circular source declaration region.

4.6. Statistic Analysis

Airflow Environment	Navigation Algorithm	Success Rate	Avg. Search Time (s)	Avg. Travelled Distance (m)
	Olfaction-only	5/5	68.3	6.1
Laminar	Vision-only	1/5	189.9	11.7
	Vision and	5/5	67.6	6.2
	Olfaction Fusion			
	Olfaction-only	2/5	173.7	9.7
Turbulent	Vision-only	1/5	180.6	13.7
	Vision and	5/5	101.6	7.8
	Olfaction Fusion			
	Olfaction-only	7/10	121.0	7.9
Combined	Vision-only	2/10	185.2	12.7
	Vision-Olfaction	10/10	84.6	7.0
	Fusion			

Table 3. Result Statistics, i.e., Success Rate and Average Search Time of Vision-based Navigation, Olfaction-based Navigation, and the Proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation Algorithms.

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Olfactio Olfactio Olfacti Cros Cros -2 -1 -2 -1 -2 -2 ò (1) e1o (2) e1v (3) e1vo e2o e2\ e2vo Olfaction Olfaction Olfaction Cross Obstacle Obstacle 2 -2 _2 -2 (5) e2v (6) e2vo (4) e2o

e1v

Figure 11. Robot trajectories of repeated tests in six navigation algorithm and airflow environment combinations. Trajectories in laminar airflow environments are - (1) e10 - Olfaction-only navigation algorithm, (2) e1v - Vision-only navigation algorithm, and (3) e1vo - Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm. Trajectories in turbulent airflow environment are - (4) e20 - Olfaction-only navigation algorithm, (5) e2v - Vision-only navigation algorithm, (6) e2vo - Vision and Olfaction Fusion Fusion Navigation algorithm. The behaviors that the robot was following under the three navigation algorithms are shown in the trajectory. These behaviors include Crosswind - crosswind maneuver behavior, Obstacle - Obstacle-avoid Navigation behavior, Olfaction - Olfaction-based Navigation behavior, and Vision - Vision-based Navigation behavior. Five robot starting positions are highlighted with a blue star, the obstacles are the orange boxes, and the odor source is the red point with the surrounding circular source declaration region.

Figure 11 shows the combined robot trajectories of the three navigation algorithms 359 in the two airflow environments. Table 3 summarizes the repeated test results in terms of 360 success rate, averaged search time, and average traveled distance. For failed experiment 361 runs, 200 s was used for calculating the Average Search Time (s). We can observe from 362 the results that the proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm has the 363 highest success rate, the lowest average search time, and the lowest average distance 364 traveled among the three methods. This is critical in real-world odor source localization 365 applications, as we want the robot to find odor sources as quickly as possible. 366

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5. Future Research Direction

A number of improvements can be made to the proposed OSL algorithm in the future. 368 Firstly, the proposed navigation algorithm follows a homogeneous crosswind maneuver behavior for finding odor plumes. The search behavior doesn't take into account past vision 370 or olfaction sensing history. Similarly, the moth-inspired algorithm used in this paper only 371 uses current olfaction readings for finding the odor source. Whereas engineering-based 372 solutions like the Particle Filter utilize past sensor readings for estimating the odor source 373 and plume location. Thus, future research scope includes pairing engineering-based 374 Olfaction navigation with Vision-based Navigation for improved crosswind maneuver and 375 Olfaction-based Navigation. The implemented Obstacle-avoid Navigation algorithm in 376 this paper also relies only on the current laser readings to sense and circumvent obstacles. 377 In this case, reactive path planning algorithms include Fuzzy Logic, Neural Networks, 378 bug algorithms, etc. [47] can be adopted for more efficient Obstacle-avoid Navigation 379 behavior. Additionally, the future scope of this robot platform includes using machine 380 learning algorithms for calculating robot headings. For instance, the reinforcement learning 381 (RL) [48] and supervised learning [49] methods can be used for olfactory-based navigation 382 in robots. Transformer-based Vision-Language and Vision-Language-Action (VLA) models 383 are gaining traction as a prevalent approach in robotics. Recent applications of such a 384 model include the PaLM-E model [50], and the RT-2 [51]. Exploring the possibilities of 385 the Vision-Language models as the primary decision-maker for multi-modal odor source 386 localization is another exciting possibility in OSL research. 387

6. Conclusion

The combination of computer vision and robotic olfaction provides a more comprehen-389 sive observation of the environment, enabling the robot to interact with the environment in 390 more ways and enhancing navigation performance. This paper proposes the incorporation 391 of vision sensing in OSL. Specifically, the paper proposes a Vision and Olfaction Fusion 392 Navigation algorithm with Obstacle-avoid Navigation capability for 2-D odor source local-393 ization tasks for ground mobile robots. For conducting real-world experiments to test the 394 proposed algorithm, a robot platform based on the Turtlebot3 mobile robot was developed 395 with olfaction and vision-sensing capabilities. The proposed navigation algorithm had 396 five behaviors, i.e., Crosswind maneuver behavior to find odor plume, Obstacle-avoid 397 Navigation behavior to circumvent obstacles in the environment, Vision-based Navigation 398 to approach the odor source using vision sensing, Olfaction-based Navigation to approach 300 the odor source using olfaction sensing, and source declaration. For the Vision-based 400 Navigation behavior, a YOLOv7-based vision model was trained to detect visible odor 401 plumes. For Olfaction-based Navigation behavior, we used moth-inspired algorithm. To 402 test the performance of the proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm, we 403 tested the performance of the Olfaction-only navigation algorithm, Vision-only navigation 404 algorithm, and the proposed Vision and Olfaction Fusion Navigation algorithm separately 405 in real-world experiment setups. Furthermore, we tested the performance of the three 406 navigation algorithms in laminar and turbulent airflow environments to compare their 407 strengths. We used five predefined starting robot positions for each navigation algorithm 408 and repeated them for both airflow environments - resulting in 30 total experiment runs. 409 The search results of the OSL experiments show that the proposed Vision and Olfaction 410 Fusion Navigation algorithm had a higher success rate, lower average search time, and 411 lower average traveled distance for finding the odor source compared to Olfaction-only and 412 Vision-only navigation algorithms in both laminar and turbulent airflow environments. The 413 result of our experiment indicates that vision sensing is a promising addition to olfaction 414 sensing in ground-mobile robot-based Odor Source Localization research. 415

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Abbre	viations	430
The foll	owing abbreviations are used in this manuscript:	431
AUV ANFIS DL DNN LDS OSL PC ROS SLAM VLA	Autonomous Underwater Vehicle Adaptive Neuro-fuzzy Inference System Deep Learning Deep Neural Networks Laser Distance Sensor Odor Source Localization Personal Computer Robot Operating System Simultaneous Localization and Mapping Vision-Language-Action model	432 433
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